## INVESTIGATION OF LONG TERM SAFE STORAGE OF CARBON DIOXIDE IN DEEP COAL SEAMS WITH ENHANCED METHANE RECOVERY

By

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BSc Eng. (Hons)

Supervised by: Prof Ranjith Pathegama Gamage



A thesis submitted in the fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

> Department of Civil Engineering Monash University Melbourne, Australia

> > January 2017

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This thesis is dedicated to my parents, my brother and my husband for their unconditional support to carry out this work.

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This thesis includes 5 original papers published in peer reviewed journals. The core theme of the thesis is investigation of long term safe storage of carbon dioxide in deep coal seams with enhanced methane recovery. The ideas, development and writing up of all the papers in the thesis were the principal responsibility of myself, the candidate, working within the Department of Civil Engineering, Monash University, under the supervision of Prof Ranjith Pathegama Gamage.

Chapter 5 (partially), 6 and 8 (partially) report my published works resulted during the studies undertaken for this degree and my contribution to the work involved the following:

[The inclusion of co-authors reflects the fact that the work came from active collaboration between researchers and acknowledges input into team-based research.]

Thesis Chapter	Publication title	Publication status	Nature and % of candidate's contribution	Co-author name(s)Co- authors,Nature and % of Co- author's contributionMonash student
5	A macro-scale experimental study of sub and supercritical CO <sub>2</sub> flow behaviour in Victorian brown coal.	Published Journal: Fuel	Initiation, key ideas, literature review, conduct of experiments, data analysis and writing up: 85%	<ol> <li>Ranjith PG – key ideas 5%</li> <li>MSA Perera – No reviewing the manuscript 3%</li> <li>Y JU – key ideas No 3%</li> <li>V Vishal – key No ideas 2%</li> <li>PNK De Silva – No key ideas 2%</li> </ol>
6	Supercritical CO <sub>2</sub> saturation-induced mechanical property alterations in low rank coal: An experimental study	Published Journal: Journal of Supercritical fluids	Initiation, key ideas, literature review, conduct of experiments, data analysis and writing up: 85%	Ranjith PG – key ideas 8%NoMSA Perera – reviewing the manuscript 5%NoH Bui – key ideas 2%No

6	Effect of coal rank on various fluid saturations creating mechanical property alterations using Australian coals	Published <b>Journal:</b> Energies	Initiation, key ideas, literature review, conduct of experiments, data analysis and writing up: 85%	1. 2.	Ranjith PG – key ideas 8% MSA Perera – reviewing the manuscript 7%	No No
6	Influence of CO <sub>2</sub> adsorption on the strength and elastic modulus of low rank Australian coal under confining pressure.	Published Journal: International Journal of Coal Geology	Initiation, key ideas, literature review, conduct of experiments, data analysis and writing up: 85%	1.	Ranjith PG – key ideas 8% MSA Perera – reviewing the manuscript 7%	No No
8	An experimental investigation of applicability of CO <sub>2</sub> enhanced coal bed methane recovery technique to low rank coal	Published Journal: Fuel	Initiation, key ideas, literature review, conduct of experiments, data analysis and writing up: 85%	1. 2. 3.	Ranjith PG – key ideas 8% MSA Perera – reviewing the manuscript 5% CH Wei – key ideas 2%	No No No

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This thesis includes 6 unpublished (under review) publications. The core theme of the thesis is to investigate the long term safe storage of carbon dioxide in deep coal seams with enhanced methane recovery. The ideas, development and writing up of all the papers in the thesis were the principal responsibility of myself, the candidate, working within the Department of Civil Engineering, Monash University, under the supervision of Prof Ranjith Pathegama Gamage.

Chapter 4, 5 (partially) and 7 (partially) report my unpublished works resulted during the studies undertaken for this degree and my contribution to the work involved the following:

[The inclusion of co-authors reflects the fact that the work came from active collaboration between researchers and acknowledges input into team-based research.]

Thesis Chapter	Publication title	Publication status	Nature and % of candidate's contribution	Co Na	-author name(s) ature and % of Co-author's contribution	Co- authors, Monash student
4	Super-critical carbon dioxide flow behaviour in low rank coal: A	Under review Journal:	Initiation, key ideas, literature review, conduct	1.	Ranjith PG – key ideas 8%	No
4	meso-scale experimental study	CO <sub>2</sub> Utilization	of experiments, data analysis and writing up: 85%	2.	MSA Perera – reviewing the manuscript 7%	No
4	Effect of effective stress and coal matrix	Under review Journal:	Initiation, key ideas, literature review, conduct	1.	Ranjith PG – key ideas 8%	No
7	behaviour during CO <sub>2</sub> sequestration	CO <sub>2</sub> Utilization	of experiments, data analysis and writing up: 85%	2.	MSA Perera – reviewing the manuscript 7%	No
	The influence of CO <sub>2</sub> properties and reservoir depth on coal matrix	Under review Journal:	Initiation, key ideas, literature review, conduct	1.	Ranjith PG – key ideas 8%	No
4	swelling: A meso-scale experimental study using low rank coal	Energy and Fuels	of experiments, data analysis and writing up: 85%	2.	MSA Perera – reviewing the manuscript 7%	No

4	A review and model development for estimation of gas adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling	Under review Journal: International Journal of Energy Bassarah	Initiation, key ideas, literature review, data analysis and writing up: 85%	1. 2.	Ranjith PG – key ideas 8% MSA Perera – reviewing the manuscript 7%	No No
5	A laboratory-scale numerical study of CO <sub>2</sub> flow through coal under down-hole stress conditions: Application for CO <sub>2</sub> storage	Under review Journal: Energy and Fuels	Initiation, key ideas, literature review, data analysis and writing up: 85%	1.	Ranjith PG – key ideas 8% MSA Perera – reviewing the manuscript 7%	No
7	Key factors controlling coal's strength property alterations during CO <sub>2</sub> enhanced coal bed methane production: A numerical study	Under review Journal: Natural Gas Science and Engineering	Initiation, key ideas, literature review, data analysis and writing up: 85%	1. 2.	Ranjith PG – key ideas 8% MSA Perera – reviewing the manuscript 7%	No No

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#### **Thesis Synopsis**

Enhanced coal bed methane recovery by carbon dioxide (CO2-ECBM) has been identified as an economical coal bed methane production-enhancement technique, as this process has the ability to significantly enhance the coal bed methane production while sequestrating a considerable amount of CO<sub>2</sub> in deep coal seams. However, the suitable coal seams for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and ECBM processes are located in deep underground (> 800 m depth), where  $CO_2$  is expected to be in at its highly chemically active super-critical state. According to current research findings, injection of CO<sub>2</sub> into deep coal seams causes both seam permeability and strength to be significantly reduced, and these reductions are considerably higher when the CO<sub>2</sub> is in supercritical condition. Furthermore, variations of coal seam properties also cause variations in the hydro-mechanical behaviour of coal during CO<sub>2</sub> injection. The permeability reduction causes the amount of injectable CO<sub>2</sub> in and producible methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) from coal seams to become unpredictable and this strength reduction affects the long-term safety of the ECBM and CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration processes, as it may cause the injected CO<sub>2</sub> to back-migrate into the atmosphere sometime after injection. Therefore, the injection of massive amounts of CO<sub>2</sub> into deep coal seams to harvest maximum amounts of methane from the seam while reducing the anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> volume in the atmosphere has become a great challenge.

The main objective of this study is therefore to understand the effects of injecting gas properties and reservoir properties on coal flow and strength properties during  $CH_4$  recovery through experimental (85%), numerical (10%) and analytical (5%) investigations.

Due to the lack of studies regarding the effect of coal rank on coal mass hydro-mechanical behaviour during  $CO_2$  sequestration, low rank brown coal was mainly used for the experimental work. In addition, both natural and homogenous reconstituted specimens were used for the study to evaluate the influence of the heterogeneity of coal. The experimental work was conducted at (a) micro- (b) meso- and (c) macro-scale to determine the potential alterations to coal petro-physical properties with exposure to  $CO_2$ . The injecting gas properties (fluid types:  $CO_2$ ,  $N_2$  and water, and phase and pressure of  $CO_2$ ) and coal seam properties (depth and temperature) were varied during the flow and strength studies and different saturation periods were incorporated during the strength studies to investigate the long-term effect of  $CO_2$  on coal. The results were compared with the results for high rank coal in the research literature to determine the influence of carbon content on flow and strength alterations in coal. The following key findings were obtained from the experimental investigations.

 $CO_2$  adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling is greater at higher  $CO_2$  pressures, particularly for the super-critical phase of  $CO_2$ , regardless of reservoir depth or the maturity of the coal. Supercritical  $CO_2$  has much lower permeability than sub-critical  $CO_2$  in any coal type, and this influence of  $CO_2$  phase condition increases with increasing carbon content. As expected, the permeability is reduced by around 25 to 80% with increasing depth for  $CO_2$  permeation regardless of rank, and this influence of depth on permeability reduces with the phase transition from sub- to super-critical in any type of coal. Further, in comparison with the experimental permeability values for low rank coal and the permeability values for high rank coal reported in the literature, high rank coal exhibits a greater reduction in permeability than low rank coal due to sorption-induced strains, and the opposite is the case for stress-induced permeability. Interestingly, N<sub>2</sub> has the potential to reverse the  $CO_2$  induced swelling areas to some extent in any coal type by up to around 30%, and this recovery ability can be increased by allowing sufficient time for N<sub>2</sub> flooding. Temperature has a positive effect on permeability at higher pore pressures, regardless of coal rank.

The strength results showed a reduction of around 40 to 80% of both strength and stiffness for super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> saturations of up to 10 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure in any coal type and a greater reduction in high rank coal, similar to the flow results. Interestingly, CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced coal matrix alterations are largely completed with the initial interaction with CO<sub>2</sub>, although considerable further coal matrix re-arrangement may occur at a slower rate. Water also causes a significant strength reduction in coal irrespective of coal rank, and interestingly, these reductions are higher for high rank coal. N<sub>2</sub> has the ability to enhance the strength of coal slightly in both low and high rank coals, and this enhancement is greater for low rank coals. Depth has a positive effect on coal strength during CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration. Both reconstituted and natural brown coal samples undergo similar variations with different fluid saturations, such as reductions of strength and stiffness for CO<sub>2</sub> and water saturations and increments of strength and stiffness for N<sub>2</sub> saturation.

The experimental results from both flow and strength studies were modelled using the COMSOL Multiphysics simulator and the results showed: (1) greater amounts of  $CO_2$  can be sequestrated in coal seams even at greater depths and higher  $CO_2$  pressures despite the flow reduction observed if sufficient time is allowed for  $CO_2$  permeation and (2) the volume of coal subjected to plastic deformation increases with the increase in  $CO_2$  saturation pressure contributing more ductile nature for the reservoir rock.

Next, the applicability of low rank coal seams as potential  $CO_2$ -ECBM sites was tested, and the results showed the ability of super-critical  $CO_2$  to recover methane faster with 100% sweep

efficiency. However, the shorter durations for CO<sub>2</sub> breakthrough under super-critical conditions result in quicker swelling, which may lead to lower CO<sub>2</sub> storage and CH<sub>4</sub> production ability in the long term.

A 3-D field-scale model was developed using the COMET3 simulator to investigate the optimum injection scenarios and seam conditions to optimize the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM process. The results showed that long-term CH<sub>4</sub> production increases with the increment of injecting pressure and temperature and the reduction depth of injection. When the bed moisture content is higher than the critical moisture content, higher long-term CH<sub>4</sub> production was observed. Use of higher percentage of N<sub>2</sub> during N<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> co-injection can enhance the gas production, however, this leads for greater amount of N<sub>2</sub> leakages and lesser amount of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption in long-term. Three injection wells at around 350 m spacing showed the maximum long-term (50 years) CH<sub>4</sub> production. However, a greater number of production wells improved methane production in the short-term, although production is limited in the long term.

In regard to the analytical work, an empirical relationship for gas adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling as a function of all the parameters (injecting gas properties and reservoir properties) was developed using basic statistics. The model can estimate the swelling of different coal types (> 75% fixed carbon content) under various gas sorptions with around  $\pm 1\%$  accuracy compared to experimental observations.

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#### **List of Publications**

Following publications have resulted during the studies undertaken for this degree.

#### **Book Chapters**

 Ranathunga AS, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG. Challenges and issues for CO<sub>2</sub> storage in deep coal seams. *Rock Mechanics and Engineering*, Volume 5: Chapter 3, Taylor and Francis group, CRC press, Balkema, Netherlands. (In press)

#### Peer-reviewed journal papers

- Ranathunga AS, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG, Wei CH (2017). An experimental investigation of applicability of CO<sub>2</sub> enhanced coal bed methane recovery technique to low rank coal. *Fuel*, 189, 391-399.
- Ranathunga AS, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG (2016). Influence of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption on the strength and elastic modulus of low rank Australian coal under confining pressure. *International Journal of Coal Geology* 167, 148-156.
- Ranathunga AS, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG, Bui H (2016). Supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> saturationinduced mechanical property alterations in low rank coal: An experimental study. *The Journal of Supercritical Fluids* 109, 134-140.
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- Ranathunga AS, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG, Zhang XG (2017). Super-critical carbon dioxide flow behaviour in low rank coal: A meso-scale experimental study. *Journal of CO*<sub>2</sub> *Utilization* (under review).
- 12. **Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG, Zhang XG (2017). The influence of CO<sub>2</sub> properties and reservoir depth on coal matrix swelling: A meso-scale experimental study using low rank coal. *Energ Fuel* (under review).
- 13. **Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG (2017). A review and model development for estimation of gas adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling. *International Journal of Energy Research* (under review).
- 14. Ranathunga AS, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG (2017). Key factors controlling coal's strength property alterations during CO<sub>2</sub> enhanced coal bed methane production: A numerical study. *Journal of Natural Gas Science and Engineering* (under review).
- 15. **Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG (2017). Effect of effective stress and coal matrix swelling on coal flow behaviour during CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration. *Journal of CO<sub>2</sub> Utilization* (under review).
- Ranathunga AS, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG (2017). A laboratory-scale numerical study of CO<sub>2</sub> flow through coal under down-hole stress conditions: Application for CO<sub>2</sub> storage. *Energ Fuel* (under review).

- 17. Perera MSA, Ranjith PG, Rathnaweera TD, **Ranathunga AS**, Ze TM, Choi SK, Wu B (2017). Effects of reservoir and well properties on sand production during the extrusion of hydrocarbons from geological formations. *Energies* (under review).
- 18. Perera MSA, Ranjith PG, Rathnaweera TD, **Ranathunga AS**, Liu T, Wu B (2017). An experimental study to quantify sand production during oil recovery from conventional shallow geological formations. *Energy and Fuels* (under review).
- 19. Zhang XG, Ranjith PG, Perera MSA, **Ranathunga AS**. Effect of coal mass moisture content in adsorption of carbon dioxide, methane and nitrogen of low rank coal (in progress).
- 20. Zhang XG, Ranjith PG, Perera MSA, **Ranathunga AS**. Salinity-dependent strength characteristics of low rank coal: An experimental study (in progress).

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- Ranathunga AS, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG. De Silva GPD (2016). A macro scale overview on coal mass permeability alterations occur upon CO<sub>2</sub> injection into Australian low rank coal, International conference on Geo-mechanics, Geo-energy and Geo-resources (IC3G 2016), Melbourne, Australia, 28-29 September, 2016; Paper no 92.
- Ranathunga AS, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG, Haque RT (2016). An experimental study on behaviour of reconstituted low rank coal under different fluid saturations, ISRM International Symposium and EUROCK 2016, Cappadocia, Turkey, 29-31 August, 2016; Paper no 166.
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#### Notations and abbreviations

#### Notations

Ø <sub>a</sub>	porosity by adsorption
$\frac{\Delta \varepsilon_s}{\Delta p_s}$	strain caused by unit change by sorption pressure
CF <sub>4</sub>	tetrafluromethane
<i>CO</i> <sub>2</sub>	Carbon Dioxide
C <sub>t</sub>	total reservoir gas content
D'	empirical curve fitting parameters
$E_{CO_2}$	elastic modulus of CO <sub>2</sub> adsorbed sample
$E_F$	analogous to Young's modulus but for the fracture
E <sub>intact</sub>	elastic modulus of intact coal sample
F <sub>a</sub>	axial load
L <sub>0</sub>	sample length when t=0
L <sub>t</sub>	sample length at time t
<i>N</i> <sub>2</sub>	Nitrogen
$P_E$	curve fitting parameter
$P_L$	Langmuir pressure constant
P <sub>c</sub>	confining pressure
$P_d$	downstream vessel pressure
P <sub>eff</sub>	effective stress
P <sub>i</sub>	injection pressure
Po	downstream pressure
$P_u$	upstream vessel pressure
$P_{\sigma}$	curve fitting parameter
$R_{vit}$	Vitrinite reflectance
$R_{xy}$	correlation coefficient
S <sub>max</sub>	maximum swelling of the coal
T <sub>c</sub>	critical temperature
$V_L$	Langmuir volume constant
V <sub>abs</sub>	volume of the absolute adsorption
$V_d$	volume of downstream pressure vessels
V <sub>des</sub>	volume of gas desorbed from the matrix
V <sub>std</sub>	mole volume of gas at standard temperature and pressure
$V_u$	volume of upstream pressure vessels
$W_0$	surface adsorption capacity of the substrate
W <sub>abs</sub>	excess sorption

W <sub>c</sub>	water content
<i>b</i> <sub>new</sub>	new cleat width
b <sub>old</sub>	initial cleat width
C <sub>f</sub>	cleat compressibility
c <sub>i</sub>	initial reservoir concentration
c <sub>i</sub>	pressure difference between confining pressure and pore pressure
C <sub>k</sub>	the differential swelling coefficient
c <sub>m</sub>	matrix shrinkage compressibility
c <sub>p</sub>	pore volume compressibility
C <sub>r</sub>	grain compressibility
fa	ratio of effective porosity
k'	empirical curve fitting parameters
$k_0$	initial permeability
k <sub>new</sub>	permeability at pressure p
k <sub>old</sub>	original reservoir permeability
$l_m^*$	change in the dimension of the coal matrix block in horizontal direction with pressure
$p_{50}$	Langmuir parameter for the swelling/shrinkage strain
$\alpha_s$	volumetric welling/shrinkage coefficient
$\varepsilon_v$	volumetric swelling
$ ho_L$	van der Waals density of the gas
$ ho_a$	density of the adsorbed phase
$ ho_g$	gas density
$ ho_s$	sample density
$\sigma_h^e$	effective horizontal stress
$\sigma_{CO_2}$	strength of CO <sub>2</sub> adsorbed sample
$\sigma_{intact}$	strength of intact coal sample
$\varphi_i$	initial coal mass porosity
$\Delta E_{CO_2}$	elastic modulus reduction due to CO <sub>2</sub> adsorption
$\Delta E_{max}$	curve fitting parameter
$\Delta P_0$	the step change of pressure in vessels at time $= 0$ ,
$\Delta p_s$	change in equivalent sorption pressures
$\Delta \sigma_{CO_2}$	strength reduction due to CO <sub>2</sub> adsorption
$\Delta \sigma_{max}$	curve fitting parameter
$\Delta S$	change of the adsorbate mass
Α	cross-section area of the sample
Ar	Argon
С	reservoir concentration

С%	fixed carbon content
CH <sub>4</sub>	Methane
D	a constant related to the affinity of the sorbent of the gas
Κ	bulk modulus
L	length of the sample
М	constrained axial modulus
Q	flow rate
R	gas constant
S	volumetric swelling
Т	temperature
Xe	Xenon
а	gas storage capacity ratios of sample with upstream
b	gas storage capacity ratios of sample with downstream
f	fraction from 0 to 1
g	gravitational acceleration
k	permeability
n	exponent of pressure dependent permeability
р	pore pressure
t	time
α	effective stress parameter
$-\alpha$	slope of the pressure decay curve
β	adiabatic compressibility of the injecting fluid
ρ	gas density
arphi	coal mass porosity
θ	Poisson's ratio

#### Abbreviations

AE	Acoustic Emission
ARI	Advanced Resource International
BTU	British Thermal Units
BV	Ball Valve
CBM	Coal Bed Methane
CCS	Carbon Capture and Storage
CSG	Coal Seam Gas
СТ	Computed Tomography
CV	Check Valve
D-A	Dubnin-Astakhov
db	Dry basis
DEERL	Deep Earth Energy Research Laboratory
Dk	Dark
D-R	Dubnin-Radushkevich
EBSD	Electron Backscattered Electron Detector
ECBM	Enhanced Coal Bed Methane recovery
EDS	Energy Dispersive X-Ray Spectroscopy
EIA	Energy Information Administration
ESEM	Environmental Scanning Electron Microscopy
FEG	Field Emission Gun
FEM	Finite Element Analysis
FIB	Focused Ion Beam
Flex. Hose	Flexible Hose
GHG	Green House Gas
ICCP	International Committee for Coal Petrology
IEA	International Energy Agency
IPCC	International Panel on Climate Change
Lt	Light
LVDT	Linear Variable Differential Transformer
MCEM	Monash Centre for Electron Microscopy
M-d	Medium-Dark
MGC	Milli Gas Counter
M-l	Medium-Light

NV	Needle Valve
OHS	Occupational Health and Safety
Pa	Pale
PG	Pressure Gauge
PR	Pressure Regulator
РТ	Pressure Transducer
RaaD	Resolution at a Distance
RC	Reconstituted Coal
RMSE	Root Mean Square Error
RTD	Temperature Probe
RV	Relief Valve
SDD	Silicon Drift Detector
SEM	Scanning Electron Microscope
STEM	Scanning Transmission Electron Microscopy
TCF	Trillion Cubic Feet
UCS	Unconfined Compressive Strength
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor
wb	wet basis
XMFIG	X-Ray Microscopy Facility for Imaging Geo-materials

Part 1: Chapters 1, 2 and 3 -Introduction, Literature review, and Materials, instrumentation and experimental methods

# Part 1: Introduction, Literature review, and Materials, instrumentation and experimental methods

This section of the thesis consists of three chapters (Chapters 1, 2 and 3) including the Introduction, Literature review, and Materials, instrumentation and experimental methods. These chapters provide an overview of the research area addressed, including previous studies and existing gaps. How those gaps are addressed and the methodologies and procedures adopted are detailed next. A summary of the content of each chapter is presented below.





#### 1. Introduction

#### 1.1 Background

Energy consumption is rapidly increasing due to the ever-increasing population of the world (Figure 1.1). The present world energy demand is basically fulfilled by oil (35.7%), natural gas (25.6%), coal (19.3%), nuclear (9.9%), biofuels and waste (5.5%), hydro-power (2.3%) and others (geothermal, solar, wind, heat etc. 1.7%) (IEA, 2015). However, according to the EIA (2015), oil and coal resources, which are major contributors to the energy supply, will remain so for at least four to five decades, which indicates the importance of searching for new energy sources. In the last few decades, much attention has been given to natural gas production as a replacement for oil and coal and to overcome the environmental issues caused by them, such as global warming. As a result, natural gas production increased by around 35% from 1973 to 2014, with around 32% and 15% reductions in oil and coal energy production, respectively (IEA, 2015). Coal bed methane (CBM) is a natural gas which provides around 6 to 9% of the current natural gas production (EIA, 2016). CBM is formed during the coalification process and is trapped in the coal matrix. CBM consists mainly of methane (CH4) (more than 90%) and is used as a low emission alternative for energy production (Figure 1.2).



Figure 1.1. World energy consumption by region (EIA, 2016)

According to Gale and Freund (2001), around 200 m<sup>3</sup> of methane may be generated for each tonne of coal formed. Most of this methane is subsequently lost, but undisturbed deep coal seams may still contain up to 25 m<sup>3</sup> of methane per tonne of coal which is adsorbed in the coal. According to White et al. (2005), there are around 3010 to 7840 trillion cubic feet (Tcf) of international CBM resources of which around 510 Tcf is recoverable. In Australia, 310 to 410 Tcf of CBM resources are available, while around 60 Tcf are recoverable (White et al., 2005).


Figure 1.2. Carbon dioxide emission levels for different fuel types (EIA, 2015)

CBM is conventionally recovered by means of reservoir pressure depletion by reducing the partial pressure of the species adsorbed into the coal mass, which eventually reverses the physical adsorption potential (Metcalfe et al., 1991). This pressure depletion method is simple but inefficient, as it can recover less than 50% of the gas-in-place (Gale and Freund, 2001). Hence, a substantial amount of  $CH_4$  in coal is left behind with the current operating method. Although hydraulic pressure is used to assist recovery, a sufficient number of wells must be drilled to achieve adequate gas recovery due to the low permeability of deep coal seams. As a consequence, methods such as enhanced coal-bed methane (ECBM) recovery are used in order to lessen the drawbacks of the reservoir pressure depletion method currently used in the industry.

#### 1.2 Enhanced Coal Bed Methane (ECBM) recovery

Coal acts as a massive adsorbent bed (Puri et al., 1991) and this adsorbent bed can be regenerated not only by using pressure depletion, but also by inert gas stripping, as well as by displacement desorption (Ruthven, 1984). Inert gas stripping is accomplished by reducing the partial pressure by introducing a low-adsorbing gas at constant pressure. In displacement desorption, another gas with higher adsorption capacity is injected into the coal seam, which displaces the adsorbed gas in the coal seam. In general, the recovery of CH<sub>4</sub> using any of these methods is known as ECBM recovery, which can be achieved using several recovery agents, including N<sub>2</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub> and flue gas (Syed et al., 2013). However, of the numerous patents documenting ECBM (Every and Luino Dell'Osso, 1977; Puri and Pendergraft, 1995; Puri and Stein, 1989; Seidle et al., 1997), most have focused on N<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> injection. CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration-induced methane recovery enhancement has drawn a good deal of attention due to the following advantages:

> CO<sub>2</sub> has a significantly higher affinity to adsorb into the coal matrix than CH<sub>4</sub> (Figure 1.3). Therefore, when CO<sub>2</sub> is injected into the coal seam, it improves the recovery of CH<sub>4</sub> by directly displacing the CH<sub>4</sub>. In addition, CO<sub>2</sub> injection also causes the reduction of the  $Co_{2} CO_{2} CH_{4} CH_{4} Coal bed$ 

effective partial pressure of the CH<sub>4</sub> (Stevens et al., 2001), which eventually causes the adsorbed CH<sub>4</sub> to be desorbed from the coal matrix.

Figure 1.3. CO<sub>2</sub>-enhanced coalbed methane mechanism

- 5-15 gigatons of CO<sub>2</sub> in the world can be sequestered in coal beds by the profits gained from CH<sub>4</sub> production through the ECBM recovery process (White et al., 2005).
- Suitable coal beds are adjacent to many large power plants so that the cost of CO<sub>2</sub> transportation is low (Stevens et al., 2001).
- Past studies have shown that around 98% of the CO<sub>2</sub> in coal seams exists in an adsorbed phase on the walls of the coal micro-pores, while the rest remain as free gas inside the cleats (Day et al., 2008). Therefore, CO<sub>2</sub> exists in a more stable form and remains stored within the seam, providing the seam is not disturbed (Gale and Freund, 2001), which decreases the risk of backmigration.
- The storage ability of CO<sub>2</sub> provides an additional advantage by reducing the anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> in the atmosphere, leading to a viable option for the mitigation of global warming (Perera and Ranjith, 2012).
- Coal has a large surface area on which the methane is adsorbed (20–200 m<sup>2</sup>/g) (Gale and Freund, 2001) and large porosity values due to its dual pore system (White et al., 2005). Therefore, coal-bed methane reservoirs can store as much as five times the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> as that contained in conventional sandstone reservoirs (White et al., 2005).

These advantages highlight the importance of using CO<sub>2</sub> injection-induced methane recovery enhancement in deep unmineable coal seams.

#### 1.3 Statement of problem and research significance

Although the  $CO_2$ -ECBM process has many advantages, it has some drawbacks due to the significant changes in the chemico-physical properties of coal after the injection of  $CO_2$ . Coal has a polymer-like network structure (see Figure 1.4) and is therefore often affected by the gas or

solvent with which it is in contact. According to Perera and Ranjith (2012), large strains are induced between the surface of the pore walls and the adsorbed gas layer in the coal matrix during CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption into the coal matrix, which is commonly known as *coal matrix swelling*. This is a well-known fact and has been observed in large-scale field trials of CO<sub>2</sub> injection in the Allison unit in the San Juan basin and the Williston basin in North Dakota, USA, the Fenn Big Valley basin in Alberta, Canada, the Silesian basin in Poland and the Ishikari basin in Yubari, Japan (Perera et al., 2012).



(a) Pore structure of a typical coal seam (created by the author using data from https://coalbedmethane.wordpress.com/tag/cleat/)



(b) Pore structure of brown coal (from Gippsland basin)\*



(c) Pore structure of black coal (from Sydney basin)\*

Figure 1.4. Typical pore structure of coal (\*Conditions used to obtain SEM images: scale 5 μm, probe current 15 kV and spot size 4.5 under low vacuum)

# ➢ Influence of effective factors on CO₂ adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling

This CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling process is dependent on the properties of both the seam and the injected CO<sub>2</sub>. According to previous studies, swelling exhibits an inverted-U shaped variation with coal rank, due to the corresponding variation of the coal mass properties such as moisture, carbon content and pore space (Perera et al., 2011b). Further, the temperature of a coal seam reduces the swelling with the reduced sorption capacities (Bae and Bhatia, 2006). In relation to injecting gas properties, CO<sub>2</sub> swells coal much more than CH<sub>4</sub> due to its greater adsorption capacity (Day et al., 2010). On the other hand, the extent of swelling is largely dependent on the pressure and the physical state of the injected CO<sub>2</sub>, and super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> (above the critical point of CO<sub>2</sub>:  $31.8^{\circ}$ C and 7.38 MPa) creates much greater swelling than gas or liquid CO<sub>2</sub> due to its higher chemical potential (Day et al., 2008; Perera et al., 2011a). However, potential coal seams for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration are available at extremely deep locations and there is a high possibility of phase change from gas/liquid to the super-critical state in the underground environment owing to changes in field conditions (De Silva, 2013). This confirms the likely occurrence of high swelling rates in deep coal seams with CO<sub>2</sub> injection.

# Gaps to be addressed:

- Swelling studies on intact coal samples under different in situ stresses, especially on low rank coal are lacking.
- Different models have been proposed to predict swelling in coal with gas adsorptioninduced swelling, however none of the models show the total effect of all the effective factors (adsorbing gas type, temperature, coal rank, moisture content, etc.) on the swelling behaviour of coal.

# > Influence of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling on coal flow properties

The effectiveness of the  $CO_2$ -ECBM process in any coal seam is greatly influenced by the permeability of the  $CO_2$  injected into the seam, which is dependent on a number of factors, as given below:

- Coal matrix swelling, which causes the internal coal seam pore space available for fluid/gas movement to be reduced.
- CO<sub>2</sub> injecting pressure and seam depth, both of which change the effective stress on the coal seam and eventually, the seam's pore connectivity space.
- Seam temperature, which creates thermal expansion in the seam and also leads to reduced sorption capacity with kinetic energy increment in injected CO<sub>2</sub> molecules.

Importantly, the injected  $CO_2$  phase condition critically influences its flow behaviour in the seam, and super-critical  $CO_2$ , the form of  $CO_2$  expected in deep coal seams, has significantly lower permeability than gas/ liquid  $CO_2$ , which causes unpredictable  $CO_2$  injectivity into deep coal seams. The reduction of seam permeability over time after  $CO_2$  injection is a common issue faced by many field-scale  $CO_2$  sequestration projects. For example, there was around 50% reduction in  $CO_2$  injectivity at the Allison unit  $CO_2$  sequestration project in the San Juan basin, USA, during the first two years of injection (Reeves and Oudinot, 2005). Therefore, comprehensive studies are needed to understand super-critical  $CO_2$  movement in the coal mass compared to that of subcritical  $CO_2$  by examining the swelling and permeability caused by different phases and pressures of  $CO_2$  at different depths and temperatures.

#### Gaps to be addressed:

- In relation to permeability studies, very few studies have been conducted on low rank coals to identify the variation of coal permeability patterns with coal rank for sub-critical and super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> flows.
- Few studies have used macro-scale permeability tests which would help to examine the applicability of adsorption theories at a larger scale to permit accurate estimation of field CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity.

#### ▶ Influence of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling on coal mechanical properties

The secure storage of  $CO_2$  injected in the seam is critically important in  $CO_2$  geo-sequestration in deep coal seams in terms of environmental safety and health. It is important to prevent the upward migration of  $CO_2$ , as this has potential to cause distress and on occasion death, and lateral migration into aquifers and surrounding more permeable geologic strata. These factors are mainly dependent on the coal mass strength properties. However, the fact that  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced swelling creates a weakening effect in deep coal seams is well known (Masoudian et al., 2014; Perera et al., 2013; Viete and Ranjith, 2006; Vishal et al., 2015). This strength reduction is greatly dependent on  $CO_2$  phase and pressure, increases with increasing pressure, and super-critical  $CO_2$  causes much greater strength reduction than gas/liquid (sub-critical)  $CO_2$ . Therefore, knowledge of the effects of both sub-critical and super-critical  $CO_2$  adsorptions on coal strength is needed for the long-term safe storage of  $CO_2$  in deep coal seams.

#### Gaps to be addressed:

 No study to date has concerned the effect of coal rank on strength with CO<sub>2</sub> movement in the coal matrix, particularly for super-critical CO<sub>2</sub>, which is the expected phase condition of CO<sub>2</sub> in preferable coal seams for CO<sub>2</sub> ECBM.

- No study to date has considered the variation of the effect of different fluid saturations with coal rank.
- Except for several days or weeks (up to three weeks) of CO<sub>2</sub> saturation, no study has considered the effect of the duration of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption on coal strength.

# Effect of coal heterogeneity on investigation of CO<sub>2</sub> storage-induced coal mass behaviour

Existing government policies, public perceptions, and strict rules on coal mining affect the implementation of  $CO_2$  sequestration in deep coal seams. The current lack of knowledge related to coal seam  $CO_2$  sequestration severely hampers the implementation of this process in potential coal seams around the world. The complex heterogeneous nature of coal, which creates location-dependent coal seam properties, is the main reason for the limited knowledge of coal  $CO_2$  sequestration. Homogeneous samples with properties reproducible in the laboratory would provide significant advantages, especially in understanding the effects of various factors on the properties of coal (Jasinge 2010). Therefore, reconstituted homogenous specimens need to be developed and tested for the study of  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced coal mass flow and strength behaviours.

# Gaps to be addressed:

- No study to date has concerned the effect of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> on flow and strength behaviour in reconstituted coal samples to confirm the use of these samples to represent natural coal samples while avoiding the heterogeneity effect.

# > Factors affecting methane recovery during CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration

To harvest the maximum amount of methane from coal seams by sequestrating a large amount of  $CO_2$ , the methane production rates at production wells and  $CO_2$  injection capacities are important. As explained earlier, the reduction of  $CO_2$  injection and related methane production has been observed in several field-scale studies within a few years of injection (White et al., 2005). The reservoir properties, injecting gas properties and the injection and production well arrangements collectively affect the  $CO_2$  injection and CBM production amounts (Masoudian, 2016). Therefore, it is necessary to determine the optimum conditions for the effective implementation of  $CO_2$ -ECBM in deep coal reservoirs.

# Gaps to be addressed:

- Experimental investigations on the applicability of low rank coal as a possible catalyst for CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM studies are lacking.

 Although some experimental, numerical and field studies have been conducted on the ECBM process and production enhancement techniques, none to date has considered the influences of all the possible primary effective factors for the process, and it has therefore been difficult to obtain comprehensive knowledge of the subject.

# 1.4 Aims and specific objectives of the thesis

The main aim of this research work is to identify ideal injection strategies to find the optimum conditions to harvest methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) from deep coal seams while storing maximum amounts of CO<sub>2</sub>.

This will be achieved by achieving the following objectives:

- Understand the effects of coal mass properties and injecting fluid properties on CO<sub>2</sub> flow behaviour in deep coal seams considering the structural changes in the coal matrix due to CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption;
- Quantify the effects of the adsorption of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> on the strength, deformation properties and swelling behaviour of coal at the pressures and temperatures expected for deep coal seam CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration;
- 3. Develop knowledge of the CO<sub>2</sub> migration and storage patterns expected for the sorptive exchange of CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> and investigate the optimum conditions to recover CH<sub>4</sub> while storing maximum amounts of CO<sub>2</sub> in deep coal seams.

# **1.5 Research Scope**

Studies related to coal mass behaviour during  $CO_2$  sequestration have been limited to high rank coal on the basis of the wide application of high rank coal in  $CO_2$  sequestration and ECBM processes. The infrequent existence of brown coal at sufficient depths for feasible  $CO_2$  sequestration has caused less attention being given to similar investigations for low rank coals such as brown coal. According to Garduno et al. (2003), the Jackson, Yegua and Wilcox formation in Texas has deep lignite formations (800 to 3800 ft from the standard sea level (SSL)) with  $CO_2$ -ECBM potential, and Hernandez et al. (2006) stated that the close proximity of many  $CO_2$  point sources near these potential Texas low rank coals will generate attractive economic conditions. In the case of Victorian brown coal, Cooperative Research Centre for Greenhouse Gas Technologies (CO2CRC) studies carried out in 2005 showed the existence of possible brown coal  $CO_2$  storage sites in the on- and off-shore Gippsland Basin at un-mineable depths (400 - 800 m) (Hooper et al., 2005; Jasinge, 2010). Given such possibilities, the present study was undertaken to find the storage potential and ECBM effectiveness of  $CO_2$  in brown coal obtained from the Gippsland basin, Victoria, Australia.

The results obtained from these low rank coals were compared with the results of high rank coal reported in the research literature to evaluate the effect of coal rank on CO<sub>2</sub> adsorptioninduced coal flow and strength behaviours to overcome one of the main drawbacks identified in the research gaps. Reconstituted samples were also prepared using powdered brown coal from the same origin and tested for super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-related flow and strength variations for comparison with natural samples. Several macro-scale experiments representing a thin coal reservoir were also implemented to obtain the storage capacities of brown coal at different seam depths and under different CO<sub>2</sub> pressures. Micro-structural variations during different fluid saturations and different CO<sub>2</sub> pressures and durations were also incorporated to explain the results of the meso-scale and macro-scale experiments. Next, the applicability of low-rank brown coal as a potential catalyst for CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM projects was investigated by conducting a series of CO<sub>2</sub> core flooding tests on CH<sub>4</sub> saturated brown coal specimens. Due to limitations in the experimental apparatus, and the extensive time and high cost required to perform the tests, the test conditions used for laboratory scale tests are often restricted, which may fail to represent the actual field conditions. To eliminate these limitations, numerical simulations can be utilised to predict the probable behaviours of coal under high  $CO_2$  pressures at great depths. Hence, both laboratoryscale flow and strength studies were modelled using the COMSOL Multiphysics simulator to predict the possible behaviour of deep coal seams under CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration. Finally, a comprehensive field-scale numerical model was performed using the COMET3 numerical simulator to obtain the optimum reservoir conditions, injecting gas properties and well arrangements to efficiently and effectively implement CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM projects in deep coal seams. Table 1.1 summarises the research scope and the work carried out to fulfil the study's aim and objectives.

No.	Type of study	Title of research work		
01.	Experimental	Effect of CO <sub>2</sub> properties and reservoir depth on coal permeability	Meso &	
			micro	
02.	Experimental	Evaluate the individual effects of effective stress and sorption-induced	Meso	
	and empirical	strain on the evolution of coal permeability		
03.	Experimental	Effect of temperature on coal permeability	Meso	
04.	Experimental	Effect of CO <sub>2</sub> properties and reservoir depth on coal matrix swelling	Meso	
	and empirical			
05.	Model	Estimation of gas adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling in different coal	-	
	development	types		
06.	Experimental	Effect of CO <sub>2</sub> properties on coal permeability and flow behaviour along the	Macro	
		coal seam using reconstituted coal		
07.	Experimental	Influence of effective stress on carbon dioxide flow behaviour and CO <sub>2</sub>	Macro	
		storage capacity in coal using reconstituted coal		

Table 1.1. Research Scope

08.	Numerical	Predict the expected fluid flow along the coal seam and storage capacity	Macro
		variations in coal for various CO <sub>2</sub> properties under different down-hole	
		stresses using reconstituted coal	
09.	Experimental	Effect of CO <sub>2</sub> properties on coal strength	Meso &
			Micro
10.	Experimental	Effect of coal rank on various fluid saturations creating mechanical	Meso &
		property alterations	Micro
11.	Experimental	Effect of CO <sub>2</sub> saturation time on coal strength	Meso &
			Micro
12.	Experimental	Influence of CO <sub>2</sub> adsorption on the strength and elastic modulus of coal	Meso
		under confining pressure	
13.	Experimental	Behaviour of reconstituted coal samples after different fluid saturations	Meso &
		under loading	Micro
14.	Numerical	Effect of effective factors on coal mass mechanical properties using	Meso
		reconstituted coal	
15.	Experimental	Applicability of CO <sub>2</sub> enhanced coal bed methane recovery to low rank coal	Meso
16.	Numerical	Optimization of CO <sub>2</sub> -enhanced coal bed methane recovery	Field
	- Objective 1		
	- Objective 2		
	- Objective 3		

# **1.6 Organisation of thesis**

This thesis is presented in five parts which include nine chapters. A description of the five parts and their included chapters is provided in brief below.

# **1.6.1** Part 1: Introduction, Literature review, and Materials, instrumentation and experimental methods

Part 1 of this thesis comprises three chapters (Chapters 1, 2 and 3) which provide the background to the research area, a review of the major findings of previous studies pertaining to this research, major knowledge gaps and the objectives of this research to advance the understanding of the research area. The materials and instruments used for testing and the experimental methods are also explained in this chapter.

# Chapter 1 – Introduction

A general introduction to the whole research program is included in this chapter. The chapter includes a brief description of the increasing energy demand, the potential of coal bed methane to fulfil this rising energy demand, coal bed methane recovery using CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and its advantages, gaps in existing research, and specific objectives, followed by the research scope and the thesis outline.

#### Chapter 2 – Literature Review

This chapter consists of a critical review of the results of the most pertinent previous studies in the literature to date, and has seven main sections. The first section details the importance of  $CO_2$  sequestration in coal seams and what happens when  $CO_2$  is injected into coal seams. Next, coal matrix swelling is discussed, paying attention to the effect of effective factors (coal mass properties and injecting gas properties) on the swelling of coal. The alterations of flow and strength behaviours and the related previous findings are detailed in the fourth and fifth sections of the literature review. Then, existing  $CO_2$ -ECBM-related field-scale projects are listed with observations. Few field-scale projects on  $CO_2$ -ECBM have been implemented to date, and the reasons for the lack of implementation are discussed in the final section.

#### Chapter 3 – Materials, instrumentation and experimental methods

This chapter presents the experimental program adopted for the present research work. Three types of tests were conducted during the research, which consisted of micro-, meso- and macro-scale experiments. First, the materials used and how they were prepared for the tests are explained. Next, the instrumentation used, their capabilities and how they were utilised for the present study are described. Finally, a brief description of the experimental conditions and the methods used is presented.

# **1.6.2** Part 2: Investigation of variations of coal flow properties during carbon dioxide sequestration

Part 2 of the thesis is dedicated to a discussion of coal mass flow behaviour during  $CO_2$  sequestration. This is presented with the aid of two major chapters of the thesis (Chapters 4 and 5), which consider laboratory testing, empirical and analytical model development, and numerical modelling. A brief summary of each chapter is provided below.

# Chapter 4 – Meso-scale studies of coal flow properties during carbon dioxide sequestration using natural coal specimens

This chapter presents the outcomes of meso-scale studies conducted using natural brown coal to investigate flow property variation due to CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and consists of five main sections. In the first section, a series of experimental core-flooding tests on low-rank brown coal from the Gippsland basin is detailed pertaining to the effect of reservoir depth and injecting gas properties. The results of these tests are presented in this chapter in the form of a submitted journal paper "Super-critical carbon dioxide flow behaviour in low rank coal: A meso-scale experimental study".

According to the findings in Section 1, both effective stress and the sorption-induced strain in coal mass cause the observed permeability variations with  $CO_2$  permeation. For the effective application of the  $CO_2$ -ECBM process, identification of the influence of permeability alterations due to each parameter (effective stress and swelling) is needed. Therefore, the second section reports on a study conducted to differentiate the effect of effective stress and sorption-induced swelling on coal mass permeability by calibrating the adsorbing-gas permeabilities ( $CO_2$ ) using the effective stress parameters for comparatively non-adsorbing gas permeabilities ( $N_2$ ) for both low and high rank Australian coals. The results of these tests are presented in this chapter in the form of a submitted journal paper "*Effect of effective stress and coal matrix swelling on coal flow behaviour during CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration*".

The third section details a study conducted to investigate the effect of temperature on the permeability of coal. A series of tri-axial flow experiments was conducted on brown coal specimens from the Gippsland basin, Victoria. Both  $N_2$  and  $CO_2$  were injected to distinguish the structural changes which occur due to  $CO_2$  permeation. The results of the experiments are discussed in detail, paying attention to the effects of temperature on the coal matrix.

The fourth section of this chapter reports the effects of sub-critical and super-critical  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced swelling on the permeability of brown coal, which are the reasons for the permeability variations observed in the first section. This is covered by a submitted journal paper entitled "*The influence of CO<sub>2</sub> properties and reservoir depth on coal matrix swelling: A meso-scale experimental study using low rank coal*". This paper shows how the  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced swelling effect varies with the phase condition of adsorbing  $CO_2$  and illustrates how the effect varies under different injecting and confining pressure conditions.

The final section is the analytical component of the thesis, and provides a detailed description of the development of an empirical equation using basic statistics to predict the maximum swelling term in the D-R equation (one of the most widely-used gas adsorption equations which was modified to predict swelling of coal). In this case, the effects of both coal mass and injecting gas physical properties on maximum swelling variation were investigated and a descriptive model for the maximum swelling term was then developed as a function of all the effective factors. This section is a submitted journal paper entitled "A review and model development for estimation of gas adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling".

# Chapter 5 – Macro-scale studies of coal flow properties during carbon dioxide sequestration using reconstituted coal

This chapter contains three sections which present the outcomes of macro-scale studies conducted using reconstituted brown coal for the investigation of flow property variation due to  $CO_2$  sequestration. The first section of this chapter provides details of the reconstituted coal's permeability and testing. Further, reconstituted coal permeability is compared for both sub-critical and super-critical conditions.  $CO_2$  flow behaviour along the coal sample is also studied with comparison to alternative  $N_2$  permeation. This section is presented in the form a published journal paper entitled "A macro-scale experimental study of sub- and super-critical  $CO_2$  flow behaviour in Victorian brown coal".

The second section of Chapter 5 examines the coal flow behaviour under different  $CO_2$  phase conditions with respect to reservoir depth. Further, the variation of the storage capacity with  $CO_2$  pressure and the reservoir depth is also presented.

The final section presents a laboratory-scale numerical model developed to predict the expected fluid flow along the coal seam and storage capacity variations in coal with various  $CO_2$  properties under different down-hole stresses. This model was developed using the experimental results presented in Sections 1 and 2 and was extended for higher  $CO_2$  pressures and reservoir depths to observe the flow behaviour of deep coal seams. The storage capacity was also modelled during this study and the results are presented in detail. This section is a submitted journal paper entitled "A laboratory-scale numerical study of  $CO_2$  flow through coal under down-hole stress conditions: Application for  $CO_2$  storage".

# **1.6.3** Part 3: Investigation of coal mechanical property variations during carbon dioxide sequestration

Part 3 of the thesis is dedicated to a discussion of coal mass strength variations during  $CO_2$  sequestration. This is presented with the aid of two major chapters of the thesis (Chapters 6 and 7), which consider comprehensive laboratory tests and a numerical study. A brief summary of each chapter is provided below.

# Chapter 6 - Investigation of coal mechanical property variations during carbon dioxide sequestration using natural coal

This chapter includes three main sections which detail the strength variations of coal during  $CO_2$  sequestration using natural coal samples. Most of the experiments were conducted using Victorian brown coal (lignite) and black coal from the Sydney basin (bituminous) was also used for several

studies to enable a comparison of the effect of coal rank on strength behaviours. The first section of this chapter refers to a strength study conducted to investigate the effects of sub-critical and super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption on the strength of low rank coals. A series of unconfined compressive strength (UCS) tests was conducted on natural brown coal samples under both sub-and super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> saturation conditions. This section is presented in the form a published journal paper entitled "*Super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> saturation-induced mechanical property alterations in low rank coal: An experimental study*".

The second section of this chapter describes a strength study conducted to investigate the effects of different saturation mediums, CO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub> and water, on the strength of both low and high rank coals. UCS tests were conducted on natural intact brown coal samples from the Gippsland basin and natural fractured black coal from the Sydney basin, which had been saturated in different mediums (CO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>, and water) under different saturation pressures. This section is presented in the form of a published journal paper entitled "*Effect of coal rank on various fluid saturation-created mechanical property alterations using Australian coals*".

The third and final section of this chapter investigates the effect of confining pressure (reservoir depth) on the strength variations observed during UCS tests. A series of tri-axial strength tests was conducted on low rank brown coal specimens for both sub- and super-critical  $CO_2$  saturations. In addition, the effect of  $CO_2$  exposure time on coal's mechanical properties was investigated under super-critical  $CO_2$  saturation conditions, in order to determine the effect of long-term  $CO_2$  injection on coal seam mechanical properties, as  $CO_2$ -ECBM is a long-term process. Brown coal was used to conduct the experiments upon  $CO_2$  saturation for different time durations to observe the time effect. This section is presented in the form a published journal paper entitled "*Influence of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption on the strength and elastic modulus of low rank Australian coal under confining pressure*".

# Chapter 7 - Investigation of coal mechanical property variations during carbon dioxide sequestration using reconstituted coal

 $CO_2$  storage in deep coal seams significantly alters the petro-physical properties of the coal masses and precise evaluation of such alterations is difficult due to the highly heterogeneous nature of coal. This indicates the importance of testing reconstituted coal samples. Therefore, the main focus of this chapter is to investigate the strength variations of coal samples during  $CO_2$  injection using reconstituted specimens. Low rank brown coal was used to prepare the samples and the first section of the chapter details a series of UCS tests conducted for these samples with different fluid saturations (CO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>, and water). The results are compared with those for natural brown coal samples to evaluate the effect of the heterogeneity of coal on the results.

The last section of this chapter studies coal mass strength behaviour under deep underground conditions expected during  $CO_2$  sequestration by developing numerical models extending the experimental results obtained in the first section of this chapter. The COMSOL Multiphysics numerical simulator was first used to simulate the uniaxial experimental results, and then to model the tri-axial behaviour of brown coal saturated under different  $CO_2$  conditions. This section is a submitted journal paper entitled "*Key factors controlling coal's strength property alterations during CO*<sub>2</sub> enhanced coal bed methane production: A numerical study".

# **1.6.4** Part 4: Investigation of carbon dioxide sequestration-induced methane recovery enhancement

Part 4 consists of one chapter which details an experimental and numerical study conducted to determine the optimum conditions to harvest methane by storing CO<sub>2</sub>.

# Chapter 8 - Investigation of carbon dioxide sequestration-induced methane recovery enhancement

This chapter consists of two main sections. The first section focuses on an experimental study conducted to investigate the applicability of low rank coal seams for  $CO_2$  sequestration-induced methane recovery enhancement projects. A series of  $CO_2$  core flooding tests was carried out on methane-saturated meso-scale Victorian brown coal specimens. Different  $CO_2$  injection pressures were selected, representing both sub- and super-critical  $CO_2$ , to observe how methane enhancement varies with  $CO_2$  phase conditions. This section is presented in the form of a published journal paper entitled "An experimental investigation of applicability of  $CO_2$  enhanced coal bed methane recovery technique to low rank coal".

The last section of this chapter details a field-scale numerical study performed using the COMET3 simulator to determine the most favourable conditions for  $CO_2$ -ECBM. All the possible effective factors relating to  $CO_2$  storage and  $CH_4$  production, such as coal seam properties, injecting gas properties and injection and production well arrangements in a typical low rank coal seam, were studied. The optimum conditions to efficiently and effectively implement  $CO_2$ -ECBM projects were identified and explained in this section.

# **1.6.5** Part 5: Conclusions and suggestions for future research

This part consists of only one chapter (Chapter 9), which discusses the overall conclusions of this study and provides some recommendations for future investigations.

# Chapter 9 - Conclusions and suggestions for future research

The final chapter of the thesis presents the conclusions drawn from the experimental and numerical investigations and offers some recommendations for future research studies.

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#### **1.8 Chapter summary**

This chapter provides a general overview of the research area addressed by this thesis. The importance of implementing  $CO_2$ -ECBM is highlighted at the beginning of this chapter and the importance of determining coal mass behaviour with the introduction of  $CO_2$  into deep coal seams are then discussed. The statement of the research question is clearly defined, leading to the objectives of this research study. The main specific research aims are then presented with the scope of the research work. Finally, the structure of the thesis is presented. There are nine chapters in the thesis and the brief contents of each chapter are presented in this chapter.



# 2. Literature Review

#### 2.1 Overview

This chapter discusses the literature on the challenges and issues encountered while sequestrating  $CO_2$  in deep coal seams for enhanced coal bed methane recovery ( $CO_2$ -ECBM).

First, the various methods of CO<sub>2</sub> storage and the advantages of CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM are discussed in detail. Next, the challenges in CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in deep coal seams are identified and critically reviewed in different sections. The first is *Coal matrix swelling*, the most important and common challenge in storing CO<sub>2</sub> in the coal matrix which occurs due to the induction of a strain between the coal matrix and the adsorbing CO<sub>2</sub> layer. Coal matrix swelling leads to a re-arrangement in the coal mass physical structure that eventually affects the flow properties and the integrity of the coal mass. This is discussed in reviewing previous studies regarding the permeability and strength variations of the coal mass upon exposure to CO<sub>2</sub> with various effective factors, such as injecting gas properties (phase and pressure) and coal seam properties (coal rank, depth and temperature). Several field-scale CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM projects have been reported in the literature and these are summarised with their major outcomes. Considering the field-scale projects conducted to date, there has been a shortage of implementations, due to the complexities associated with the highly heterogeneous nature of coal, environmental and human health risks, current policies and regulations and public perceptions of CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in deep coal seams and these are discussed next. Finally, the current issues associated with the implementation process are identified and recommendations are proposed.

A journal article and a book chapter have been produced based on Chapter 2 of the thesis and the details are given below.

#### Journal article:

**Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG (2014). Deep coal seams as a greener energy source: a review. *Journal of Geophysics and Engineering*, 11,1-17.

#### Book chapter:

**Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG. Challenges and issues for CO<sub>2</sub> storage in deep coal seams. *Rock Mechanics and Engineering*, Volume 5: Chapter 3, Taylor and Francis group, CRC press, Balkema, Netherlands. (In press)

#### **2.2 Introduction**

#### 2.2.1 Greenhouse gas effects and global warming

Emissions of greenhouse gasses (GHGs) will increase the average global temperature by 1.1 to 6.4 <sup>o</sup>C by the end of the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Pachauri and Reisinger, 2007), and exceeding the current global average temperature by more than 2 <sup>o</sup>C will lead to serious consequences. Therefore, the International Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) has warned of the need for a 50-80% global GHG emissions reduction by 2050 (Pachauri and Reisinger, 2007).

Carbon dioxide ( $CO_2$ ) is one of the most significant greenhouse gases, and the anthropogenic  $CO_2$  content (the  $CO_2$  generated due to human activities) in the atmosphere is critical. In particular, the burning of fossil fuels such as coal, oil and gas has caused a substantial increase in the concentration of  $CO_2$  in the atmosphere (Borah et al., 2011; Pachauri and Reisinger, 2007; Perera and Ranjith, 2012; Ranathunga et al., 2014; Stangeland, 2007; White et al., 2005). According to Sundquist et al. (2008), this increase in atmospheric  $CO_2$  concentration from around 280 to more than 380 ppm over the last 25 years has caused measurable global warming. The potential adverse impacts of global warming are sea-level rises, increased frequency and intensity of wildfires, floods, droughts, and tropical storms, changes in the amount, timing, and distribution of rain, snow, and run-off, and the disturbance of coastal marine and other ecosystems. Rising atmospheric  $CO_2$  is also increasing the amount of  $CO_2$  absorbed by seawater, causing the ocean to become more acidic, which potentially disruptively affects marine plankton and coral reefs (Sundquist et al., 2008).

At the 21<sup>st</sup> United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), held in Marrakech and Paris in 2016, the participants, including Australia, agreed to commit to a maximum temperature rise of 2  $^{0}$ C above pre-industrial levels, and to consider lowering that maximum to 1.5 degrees in the near future (UNFCC, 2016). Therefore, it is imperative to investigate possible CO<sub>2</sub> mitigation options and to implement them as soon as possible.

Some possible  $CO_2$  mitigation options are carbon dioxide capture and storage or sequestration (CCS), energy efficiency improvements, the switch to less carbon-intensive fuels, nuclear power, renewable energy sources, enhancement of biological sinks, and reduction of non- $CO_2$  greenhouse gas emissions (Stangeland, 2007; Sundquist et al., 2008; White et al., 2005). Of these methods, CCS has the potential to reduce overall mitigation costs and increase flexibility in achieving greenhouse gas emission reductions (Gale, 2004; Metz et al., 2005; Perera and Ranjith, 2012; White et al., 2005).

# 2.2.2 CO<sub>2</sub> storage

Before human-caused CO<sub>2</sub> emissions began the natural processes that make up the global "carbon cycle" (Figure 2.1), a near balance was maintained between the uptake of CO<sub>2</sub> and its release back to the atmosphere. However, existing CO<sub>2</sub> uptake mechanisms (sometimes called CO<sub>2</sub> or carbon "sinks") are insufficient to offset the accelerating pace of emissions related to human activities (Sundquist et al., 2008). According to Sundquist et al. (2008), annual carbon emissions from burning fossil fuels in the United States are about 1.6 Gigatons, whereas annual uptake amounts are only about 0.5 Gigatons, resulting in a net release of about 1.1 Gigatons per year. Hence, controlling atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> will require deliberate mitigation with an approach that combines reducing emissions and increasing storage.



Figure 2.1. Global carbon cycle (created by author using data from Benson and Cole, 2008)

CCS basically means the removal of  $CO_2$  directly from anthropogenic sources (capture) and its disposal in geological or oceanic media, either permanently (sequestration), or for geologically significant time periods (storage) (Benson and Cole, 2008). The term "carbon sequestration" is used to describe both natural and deliberate processes by which  $CO_2$  is either removed from the atmosphere or diverted from emission sources and stored in the ocean, terrestrial environments (vegetation, soils, and sediments), and deep geological formations. With over 60% of worldwide emissions coming from point sources that are potentially amenable to  $CO_2$  capture, the prospects for CCS to significantly reduce  $CO_2$  emissions are great (Sundquist et al., 2008). Technical and economic assessments suggest that over the coming century, CCS may contribute up to 20% of  $CO_2$  emission reductions, equivalent to the reductions expected from efficiency improvements and large-scale deployment of renewable energy resources (Benson and Cole, 2008; Metz et al., 2005). Therefore,  $CO_2$  sequestration is a promising solution for the required outcomes of the UNFCCC.

To significantly reduce global emissions to pre-industrial levels, huge volumes of  $CO_2$  must be sequestered. For example, a large coal-fired power plant emits about 8 million tons of  $CO_2$  annually (Sundquist et al., 2008). At the pressures and temperatures expected for sequestration reservoirs, the volume required to sequester  $CO_2$  as a super-critical fluid is about 10 million cubic meters (Mm<sup>3</sup>) per year. According to existing studies (Bachu, 2003; Benson and Cole, 2008; Metz et al., 2005; Perera and Ranjith, 2012; White et al., 2005), there are various methods for sequestrating  $CO_2$ , mainly on-shore and off-shore.

#### 2.2.2.1 Off-shore CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration

Injecting CO<sub>2</sub> into off-shore marine sediments is one potential approach to the sequestration of CO<sub>2</sub> (Figure 2.2), in which CO<sub>2</sub> is injected into off-shore sediments and stored deep beneath the ocean, avoiding the threats of direct ocean injection and effects on ocean ecology. There are several advantages in off-shore CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration compared to on-shore CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration. According to House et al. (2006), CO<sub>2</sub> is denser than seawater below 3000 m; therefore, off-shore reservoirs with suitable permeability in deep seawater make the cap rock less significant. Furthermore, marine sediments offer large storage potential. For example, the cretaceous sandstones of New Jersey have the capacity to store at least several hundred billion tons of CO<sub>2</sub>, which is enough to dispose of all the CO<sub>2</sub> from power plants within 250 km of the coast near the reservoir for the next century (Schrag, 2009). Another advantage of off-shore CO<sub>2</sub> storage is the ability to manage pressure within the geologic formation by drilling additional wells to release pore fluid to the ocean, which avoids injected CO<sub>2</sub> back-migration to the atmosphere by the prevention of fractures (Archer and Brovkin, 2008). Moreover, the released pore fluid is similar to seawater, unlike the pore fluid released from on-shore CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration, and is more environmentally friendly (Vaughan and Lenton, 2011).

Although off-shore  $CO_2$  sequestration acts as a large anthropogenic  $CO_2$  storage pool, some researchers (Adams and Caldeira, 2008; Drange et al., 2001; Sabine and Tanhua, 2010) have found a number of challenges in this process. In relation to the lack of secure storage life, high operational and transportation costs (most off-shore sites are located far away from  $CO_2$  trapping points) there are many environmental concerns, such as ocean acidification. Therefore, based on economic factors, the storage life and availability of sites, on-shore  $CO_2$  sequestration has been identified as the most viable solution to the problem.

#### 2.2.2.2 On-shore CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration

Another option to reduce anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions to the atmosphere is to capture and store the CO<sub>2</sub> in porous rock media (sedimentary rocks) deep under the surface. Globally, the CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity in saline aquifers is quite high, and recent estimates for the U.S. alone show a potential storage capacity of 2020 to 14,220 Gigatons of CO<sub>2</sub> (GtCO<sub>2</sub>) (Orr, 2009). Depths below 800 to 1000 m, where the CO<sub>2</sub> density is high enough (500 to 700 kg/m<sup>3</sup>) to limit the storage volume, are suitable for on-shore CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration. In this technique, the presence of lowpermeability formations called cap rocks above the storage zone is crucial in order to prevent the back-migration of stored CO<sub>2</sub> into the atmosphere (Ranjith and Perera, 2012).



Figure 2.2. On-shore and off-shore CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration methods (created by author using data from Sundquist et al., 2008)

Oil and gas reservoirs are one potential choice for on-shore  $CO_2$  sequestration (Figure 2.2). For example, for the purpose of enhanced oil recovery (EOR), around 30 megatons of  $CO_2$  (MtCO<sub>2</sub>) are injected into oil reservoirs in west Texas each year (Sundquist et al., 2008). The potential for fuel recovery to offset the sequestration cost and the already available underground and surface infrastructure (wells, equipment and pipelines) make this method attractive (Orr, 2009).

Injection of  $CO_2$  into deep saline formations (Figure 2.2) is also being tested on a commercial scale.  $CO_2$  is typically in its super-critical phase at sub-surface temperatures and

pressures, which is denser than natural gas but less dense than brine or oil. The injected  $CO_2$  interacts with the fluids and minerals present in the saline aquifers.  $CO_2$  is relatively soluble in brine, and the resulting brine mixture is slightly denser than brine alone. Further, under typical sub-surface conditions,  $CO_2$  is dissolved in brine at a proportion of 1:20 ( $CO_2$ : brine) by volume (Stevens et al., 2001). Once a larger volume of  $CO_2$  is dissolved, the driving force for upward migration of  $CO_2$  is eliminated, and the  $CO_2$  is immobilized while it continues to dissolve slowly, which will continue for a time-scale of centuries (Bachu, 2000).

The Otway basin in Victoria, Australia is one such deep saline formation which is used as a pilot project site to demonstrate the geological storage of  $CO_2$  by the Cooperative Research Centre for Greenhouse Gas Technologies (CO2CRC) (CO2CRC, 2016). This is the world's largest carbon capture and storage demonstration project with over 80,000 tonnes of  $CO_2$  injected and stored in a variety of geological formations, and it has confirmed the safety and cost-effectiveness of  $CO_2$  storage in saline aquifers (CO2CRC, 2016).

Deep un-mineable coal seams are also possible storage locations, with international coal bed methane resources of 3010–7840 trillion cubic feet (Orr, 2009). When CO<sub>2</sub> is injected into coal seams, it adsorbs into the coal matrix and then desorbs the methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) developed during the coalification process, which migrates to the fractures and can be recovered. This process is known as enhanced coal bed methane (ECBM) recovery (Orr, 2009; Ranathunga et al., 2014; White et al., 2005). ECBM recovery is further discussed in the following sections.

#### 2.2.3 CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in deep coal seams

Coal is formed from the biodegradation of buried plants, and the process of forming coal from buried plants subjected to burial pressure and temperature is called the coalification process. Naturally-formed coal is composed of a solid matrix with well-defined networks of natural fracture systems called cleats, which form during the coalification process. Therefore, the more mature the coal mass, the more developed the cleat system. Depending on the degree of coalification, coal can be categorised into several ranks, mainly high rank (bituminous coal and anthracite – >80%) and low rank (lignite and sub-bituminous coal - <80%), and rank increases with increasing coal maturity. Coal is composed of carbon (50%-98%), hydrogen (3%-13%), oxygen and smaller amounts of other elements, and the composition is dependent on the coal rank (Table 2.1). For example, high rank coal has greater carbon content than low rank coal. Generally, coal can be separated into brown coal (lignite and sub-bituminous) and black coal (bituminous and anthracite), depending on the carbon content (Figure 2.3). According to Miedzińska et al. (2013), the characteristic surface morphology of a coal sample normally appears to be granular structure under the scanning electron microscopy (SEM). There are many slots and free spaces between the grains, with abundant storage of methane. Due to its chemical properties (atomic structure and carbon

content), coal has a greater affinity to absorb  $CO_2$  than other gases, such as methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) and nitrogen (N<sub>2</sub>). This provides the basis for the  $CO_2$  sequestration process to be on-going (White et al., 2005).

	Coal property	Carbon	Volatile matter	Moisture	Specific energy
Coal rank		(*db %)	(*db %)	content (%)	$(*db kJ g^{-1})$
Lignite		60-75	45-55	50-70	25-30
Sub-bituminous		75-80	40-45	25-30	28-32
Bituminous		80-90	20-40	5-10	30-35
Anthracite		90-95	5-7	2-5	35-38

 Table 2.1. Chemical properties of different coal ranks (Durie, 2013)

Note: \*db – dry basis



Figure 2.3. Coalification process of coal (created by the author using data from http://www.detectingdesign.com/fossilrecord.html )

# 2.2.4 How is CO<sub>2</sub> stored in deep coal seams?

According to Shi et al. (2014), gases are stored in coal beds by three mechanisms:

- physically adsorbed by compounds on the internal surfaces of coal
- adsorbed within the molecular structure; and
- within pores and natural structures.

Around 98% of  $CO_2$  exists in an adsorbed phase on the walls of coal micro-pores, while the rest remains as free gas inside the cleats (Battistutta et al., 2010; Perera and Ranjith, 2012; Shi and Durucan, 2005; White et al., 2005). Therefore,  $CO_2$  exists in a stable form in coal, which reduces the risk of back-migration (Shi and Durucan, 2005). Moreover, during the coalification process, a large amount of methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) is formed. When  $CO_2$  is injected into a coal seam, it improves the recovery of CH<sub>4</sub> by directly displacing the methane from the coal, or by lowering the effective partial pressure of the CH<sub>4</sub> (Harpalani and Schraufnagel, 1990). This phenomenon is known as enhanced coal bed methane (ECBM) recovery, which may eventually offset the cost of sequestration of CO<sub>2</sub>. Figure 2.4 illustrates a schematic diagram of the ECBM process.



Figure 2.4. Enhanced coal-bed methane recovery process

Since coal has a larger surface area associated with the micro-pore structure compared with the conventional reservoirs of a given volume of rock, it can store a substantial amount of  $CO_2$ within the pore spaces (Stevens et al., 2001). For example, the combined Bowen and Sidney basins in eastern Australia can store about 11.2 gigatons of  $CO_2$  (Stevens et al., 2001). According to Harpalani and Schraufnagel (1990), 5-15 gigatons of  $CO_2$  in the world can be sequestered in coal beds by the profits gained from  $CH_4$  production through the ECBM recovery process. These details demonstrate the prospective importance of  $CO_2$  sequestration in deep un-minable coal seams.

# 2.2.5 What happens when CO<sub>2</sub> is injected into coal seams?

As stated above, in coal beds, most gases exist in an adsorbed phase in the coal matrix and some as free gas in the fracture pore space. Generally, the coal mass natural cleat system formed during the coalification process governs gas movement through the coal matrix, unless a large joint exists (White et al., 2005). In the gas transport process in coal, first it moves through its natural cleat system and then adsorbs into the coal matrix along the cleat walls (White et al., 2005) (Figure 2.5). When the gas molecules reach the micro-pores in the coal matrix, they follow the diffusion process (Figure 2.5), as the mean flow path of the gas molecules is greater than the micro-pore diameter. In contrast, when the gas molecules reach the cleats, flow is controlled by the coal mass permeability (Darcy flow), as the mean flow path of the gas molecules is smaller than the cleat width. However, the diffusion process is quite a slow process, and it therefore takes much longer than the pressure-driven advection process in cleats.



Figure 2.5. Gas transport process in coal (Bromhal et al., 2005)

According to existing research, both  $CO_2$  storage and ECBM recovery are dependent on the coal mass and adsorbing gas properties, such as coal rank, moisture content, temperature, depth, existing gas composition and adsorbing gas pressure, gas type and phase, and injection and production well operations (Gilman and Beckie, 2000; Sawyer et al., 1990). Laboratory isotherm measurements demonstrate that medium- to high-rank coal can adsorb approximately twice as much  $CO_2$  by volume as  $CH_4$ , and the common assumption is that, for higher rank coals, the ECBM process stores 2 moles of  $CO_2$  for every mole of  $CH_4$  desorbed (White et al., 2005). However, some researchers have determined that some low-rank coals may adsorb as much as 10 moles of  $CO_2$  for every mole of  $CH_4$  (Ranathunga et al., 2014). Vishal et al. (2013a) investigated the feasibility of  $CO_2$  driven ECBM recovery in Indian coals (coal type - black coal) using a fieldscale numerical model. These researchers found that approximately three times the volume of  $CO_2$  can be sequestered in place of every volume of  $CH_4$  for high-rank coals. Field applications and laboratory experiments have shown that this ratio may be even higher at depths greater than 800 m, where gaseous  $CO_2$  changes to super-critical  $CO_2$  (White et al., 2005).

However, according to Viete and Ranjith (2006), the injection of  $CO_2$  into coal causes its chemical and physical properties to be greatly changed, resulting in unpredictable amounts of injectable  $CO_2$  and producible  $CH_4$  in coal seams. There has been much research conducted on this process, which has revealed that a great degree of swelling is caused by  $CO_2$  adsorption into the coal matrix that, in turn, can cause the permeability and the overall strength of the coal mass to be severely decreased (Fujioka et al., 2010; Jasinge, 2010; Wang et al., 2011).

#### 2.3 Coal matrix swelling

Coal matrix swelling occurs due to the lowering of the surface energy of the coal with gas adsorption. The decreased surface energy has the effect of lessening the strength of the chemical bonding in the atomic structure of the matrix, resulting in a volumetric expansion (up to around 30% in confined environments), or swelling of the coal, leading to a highly non-covalently associated state (Larsen, 1997). As stated by Gibbs (1878), the surface energy of the coal mass can be given by Eq. [2.1]:

$$\Delta \gamma = -\frac{RT}{MS} \int_0^P x \, d(\ln P)$$
[2.1]

where,  $\Delta \gamma$  is change in surface energy, *R* is universal gas constant, *T* is temperature, *M* is molecular weight of CO<sub>2</sub>, *S* is surface area of coal, *x* is the amount of adsorption (g [adsorbent]/g [coal]) and *P* is the CO<sub>2</sub> pressure. According to Eq. [2.1], because of the greater adsorption capacity of CO<sub>2</sub> (*x*) compared to CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>, the coal mass loses more surface energy and tends to swell significantly during CO<sub>2</sub> injection (Viete & Ranjith, 2006). According to Day et al. (2010), the amount of swelling in coal is directly related to the absolute adsorption capacity (Eq. [2.2]):

$$V_s = -0.0037 + 0.1596V_{abs} + 0.0101V_{abs}^2$$
[2.2]

where,  $V_s$  is the volumetric swelling percentage and  $V_{abs}$  is the volume of absolute adsorption. Meanwhile, there is a direct relationship between amount of matrix shrinkage and desorbed gas volume at the standard pressure (Harpalani and Chen, 1995) (Eqs. [2.3] and [2.4]).

$$\varepsilon_{\nu} = C\left(\frac{V_L p}{P_L + p}\right)$$
[2.3]

$$V_{des} = \left(\frac{V_L p}{P_L + p}\right)$$
[2.4]

where,  $\varepsilon_v$  is the volumetric strain of the coal matrix, *C* is a constant depending on the coal mass properties, *p* is the pore pressure,  $V_{des}$  is the volume of gas desorbed from the coal matrix, and  $P_L$ and  $V_L$  are Langmuir pressure and volume, respectively.

It should be noted that swelling does not occur isotopically throughout the coal structure, but rather occurs more readily in the organic regions (macerals), which causes compression of the inorganic regions (minerals) of the matrix (Day et al., 2010). This is due to the strength of the bonding within the minerals being much greater than that between the organic molecules within the coal matrix. According to Anggara et al. (2013, 2014) and Day et al. (2011), the degree of swelling is dependent on the moisture content (Figure 2.6), whereas the megascopic texture controls the swelling behaviour with respect to bedding orientation. It has been noted that the degree of swelling is greater in the direction perpendicular to the bedding plane of the coal matrix than parallel to the plane (Karacan, 2007) (Figure 2.7). This is caused by the heterogeneity of swelling between the organic and inorganic components within the coal matrix. As a result of this, and the inherent weaknesses found along bedding planes, it has been shown that cracks more readily develop along the face cleats, as opposed to across the bedding planes along the butt cleats (Anggara et al., 2014). As mentioned previously, swelling of the coal matrix breaks the natural balance of the structure, with direct influences on permeability and strength reduction, which are the key factors in the CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration process.



Figure 2.6. Variation of maximum volumetric swelling at different moisture contents (Anggara et al., 2013; Day et al., 2011)



Figure 2.7. Heterogeneity of coal matrix swelling

# 2.3.1 Effective factors for CO<sub>2</sub> injection-induced coal matrix swelling

According to previous studies (Czapliński & Hołda, 1982; Day et al., 2010; Deevi & Suuberg, 1987; Jasinge et al., 2011; Majewska & Ziętek, 2007; Shi & Durucan, 2005), seam properties (coal rank and temperature) and injecting CO<sub>2</sub> properties (injecting CO<sub>2</sub> phase and pressure) are some effective factors for coal matrix swelling. These are therefore discussed in the following sections.

# 2.3.1.1 Seam properties

# a) Coal rank

In general, the deeper the coal seam, the higher the rank, and this explains the effect of coal seam location on the  $CO_2$  sequestration process. However, some contradictions can be seen in the research findings on the effect of coal rank on its swelling. For example, Reucroft & Sethuraman (1987) found that there is an inverse correlation between coal rank and matrix swelling; high- rank coal undergoes less swelling than lower-ranking coal under the same environmental conditions.

These results have been confirmed by Ceglarska-Stefańska & Czapliński (1993) (Figure 2.8(a)). This is thought to be due to the less mobile polymers present in high-ranking coal in contrast to low-ranking coal. This has the effect of preventing such a great deal of swelling at the molecular level, which transfers to less swelling at the macromolecular level (Ceglarska-Stefańska & Czapliński, 1993). However, Walker et al. (1988) observed the increment only for lignite to highly volatile bituminous coals, and any further increase of rank causes the swelling effect to be reduced with increasing rank in the anthracite region (Figure 2.8(a)).



(i) For bituminous coal (Perera et al. (2011)

Time (h)

(ii) For brown coal (Jasinge et al. (2012)

Injection pressure (MPa)

2

10

Pressure (MPa)

15

3

60 °C

20

4

(c) Effect of depth

Figure 2.8. Effect of seam properties on swelling

#### Temperature b)

-0.001

With increased temperature, gas adsorption capacity is reduced (Ceglarska-Stefańska & Czapliński, 1993), because with the temperature increment, gas molecules are released from the adsorbed phase as their kinetic energy is accordingly increased. According to Perera & Ranjith (2012), Bae & Bhatia (2006) and Kronimus et al. (2008), super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> is more significantly subjected to the temperature effect than sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> (Figure 2.8(b)). As discussed in the previous section, sorption capacity is directly proportional to the coal matrix swelling. Hence, similar behaviour can be suggested for the temperature effect on swelling (Perera & Ranjith, 2012).

According to the geothermal gradients, underground temperature proportionally increases with depth. Therefore, according to both of these influences (rank and temperature), the  $CO_2$  sequestration-created swelling effect is clearly dependent on the location of the coal seam.

#### c) Depth (in situ stresses)

When the depth is increased,  $CO_2$  permeability in coal seams is reduced, since the pore space available for gas movement shrinks considerably at greater depths, due to the higher confinement, resulting in higher tortuosity and consequently lower flow rate through the coal mass. This reduction of coal permeability for  $CO_2$  causes less  $CO_2$  adsorption into the coal matrix, resulting in less matrix swelling. This observation is irrelevant to coal rank, according to the studies by Jasinge et al. (2012) for brown coal (Figure 2.8(c)-(i)) and Perera et al. (2011b) (Figure 2.8 (c)-(ii)), for bituminous coal. These studies reported similar observations of less coal matrix swelling at higher confinements.

#### 2.3.1.2 Injecting CO<sub>2</sub> properties

Beyond 7.38 MPa pressure and 31.8°C temperature, CO<sub>2</sub> exists in its super-critical condition (Figure 2.9) (Perera et al. 2011a; Vishal et al. 2013b). It is known that the preferred coal seams for the ECBM production process are normally present beyond 1000 m from the ground surface, where the pressure and temperature are higher than the critical value of  $CO_2$  (7.38 MPa and 31.8°C), and CO<sub>2</sub> is therefore present in the super-critical state (Figure 2.9). Perera et al. (2011b) conducted a series of tri-axial experiments under sub-critical and super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption to investigate the CO<sub>2</sub> phase and pressure effect on coal swelling. They measured the radial strain increment in the coal samples during 15 hours of sub-critical and super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption, maintaining the system temperature above the critical temperature of  $CO_2$  (31.8<sup>o</sup>C) (Figure 2.10(a)). According to their results, both sub-critical (up to around 0.0015 radial strain) and supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> (up to around 0.0045 radial strain) adsorptions induce considerable swelling in coal, and the swelling created by super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption is more than three times greater than sub-critical  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced swelling (Figure 2.10(a)). This is probably due to the highly chemically reactive nature of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> compared to sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub>. This implies that un-mineable coal seams are more vulnerable to the swelling effect. The effect of CO<sub>2</sub> pressure on coal swelling has also been studied by Day et al. (2010), Harpalani & Chen (1995) and Pan & Connell (2006), who have confirmed the increment of swelling with CO<sub>2</sub> pressure (Figure 2.10(b)). In addition, Day et al. (2010) (Figure 2.10(b)) and Pan & Connell (2006) (Figure 2.10(b)) described the behaviour at high pressures, where the swelling ratio may decrease after reaching a maximum swelling. Therefore, it is clear that not only gas injection pressure but also the adsorbing gas phase condition have a significant effect on coal matrix swelling.



Figure 2.9. CO<sub>2</sub> phase diagram (Oldenburg, 2006)







Figure 2.10. Coal swelling with CO<sub>2</sub> injection (Day et al., 2010; Harpalani & Chen, 1995; Pan & Connell, 2006; Perera et al., 2011(b))

# 2.4 CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration effect on deep coal-seam flow characteristics

Expansion of the coal matrix with swelling induced by  $CO_2$  adsorption leads to the closure of cleats and fractures, as well as the reduction of the pore space available for gas movement, which eventually results in reduction of permeability. As the reduction of permeability directly obstructs the injection of  $CO_2$ , it is necessary to have a comprehensive understanding of the process, to enable better control of  $CO_2$  injection.

#### 2.4.1 Does CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration create unpredictable CO<sub>2</sub> injectivity?

Permeability is a term that provides a quantitative picture of the flow ability through any media. According to previous studies (Perera et al., 2011a; Perera & Ranjith 2012; White et al., 2005), the permeability of natural coal seams varies with coal mass properties such as coal rank (carbon content and cleat structure), temperature and confining pressure, and injecting gas properties, such as phase and pressure.

Importantly,  $CO_2$  injection into a deep coal seam causes its permeability to be altered, mainly due to  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling. Existing research studies clearly show the significant swelling created by  $CO_2$  injection into deep coal seams and the corresponding reduction of coal mass pore spaces and eventually permeability (Viete & Ranjith, 2006; Perera et al., 2011b; Vishal et al., 2013b). According to Perera et al. (2011a), this permeability reduction (up to around 80%) increases with increasing  $CO_2$  injection pressure and  $CO_2$  phase transition from sub- to super-critical (Table 2.2). Moreover, as shown in Table 2.2, the temperature of the coal seam has a significant influence on the coal permeability alterations which occur with  $CO_2$ injection, and  $CO_2$  permeability in coal increases with increasing temperature only at higher  $CO_2$ injection pressures (>10MPa). This is basically due to the fact that, with increasing temperature, the sorption capacity of and the swelling effect in coal are reduced, due to the increased kinetic movement of the  $CO_2$  molecules (Bae and Bhatia 2006), resulting in increased coal permeability at higher temperatures. This indicates the importance of selecting a coal seam with appropriate physical properties to achieve effective  $CO_2$  sequestration in coal.

In relation to the  $CO_2$  sequestration process, Durucan & Shi (2009) found some permeability reduction in deep coal seams due to methane adsorption. They also found that this permeability reduction with methane adsorption is partially recovered when permeability enhancement occurs with methane desorption (coal matrix shrinkage) during the  $CO_2$ sequestration process. However,  $CO_2$  creates much higher swelling effects in coal compared to methane or many other types of gas, and the effect is greater than the coal mass shrinkage effect during  $CH_4$  desorption (Ranathunga et al. 2014). Therefore, the  $CO_2$  sequestration process causes coal seam permeability to be significantly reduced over time. Therefore, the  $CO_2$  sequestration process will require permeability enhancement treatments over time.

Effective	Key observation			
factor				
Coal rank	- The CO <sub>2</sub> adsorption capacity is greater for high rank coal compared to low rank coal, which			
	leads to greater matrix swelling for higher rank coal and relatively lower permeability compared			
	to low rank coal (Saghafi et al., 2007).			
	- High-rank coal has a greater surface area compared to low rank coal due to its cleat structure			
	developed during the coalification process, which leads to greater adsorption capacity.			
	(10) (10) (10) (10) (10) (10) (10) (10)			
	Variation of gas adsorption capacity in coal with pressure (Saghafi et al., 2007)			
Temperature	<ul> <li>A significant increase in coal permeability can be observed with increasing temperature for higher CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressures (&gt;10MPa), and an insignificant effect on permeability at low CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressures (&lt;9 MPa) (Perera &amp; Ranjith, 2012)</li> </ul>			

Table 2.2. Effect	ct of CO <sub>2</sub> injection	on coal seam	permeability	during CC	$D_2$ sequestration
	5		1 2	0	1

- Kinetic energy of gas molecules increases with increasing temperature. By the time the kinetic energy exceeds the intermolecular forces, the molecules tend to be released with random motion, which reduces the gas adsorption capacity in coal (Clarkson & Bustin, 1997).



Temperature effects on CO<sub>2</sub> permeability at 20 MPa confinement (Perera & Ranjith, 2012)

Confining	-	Under the same experimental conditions, higher confining pressure induces lower permeability
pressure		(Day et al., 2010; Perera et al., 2011a)
	-	The compressive force created by higher confinements at greater depths causes the pore space
		available for gas movement to shrink considerably, resulting in higher tortuosity and
		consequently lower flow rate through the coal mass (Perera et al., 2011a).


Permeability for CO<sub>2</sub> movement with confining pressure (Perera et al., 2011a)

- CO<sub>2</sub> phase Permeability reduction increases with increasing CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure and CO<sub>2</sub> phase transition from sub- to super-critical (Perera et al., 2011a; Shi & Durucan, 2005). CO<sub>2</sub> tends to change from sub-critical to super-critical in deep coal seams with high temperature and pressure (approximately 7.38 MPa and 31.8<sup>o</sup>C) (Figure 2.9)
  - A drastic increment in coal adsorption is observed after 7.38 MPa up to around 9 MPa, with an indication of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption increase in super-critical state.
  - The transformation of sub-critical to super-critical phase leads to different thermo-physical and transport properties, which may also influence the sorption capacity (Wang et al., 2011). The greater swelling effect, as well as the higher increment in its viscosity, contribute to the great decline in permeability (Jasinge et al. 2010)



Permeability for CO<sub>2</sub> movement with injection pressure (Perera et al., 2011a)

#### 2.4.2 Permeability models to predict coal permeability during CO<sub>2</sub> flow

A number of permeability models have been developed considering both the geomechanical effect and sorption-induced coal swelling. A brief review of the permeability models is presented in Table 2.3.

Reference	Model	Nomenclature
Gray (1987)	$\sigma_h^e - \sigma_{ho}^e = -\frac{\vartheta}{1 - \vartheta}(p - p_o) + \frac{E}{(1 - \vartheta)}\frac{\Delta\varepsilon_s}{\Delta p_s}\Delta p_s$ $k = k_i exp\{-3c_f[(\sigma_h^e - \sigma_{ho}^e) - (p - p_o)]\}$	$\sigma_h^e$ – effective horizontal stress $\Delta p_s$ – change in equivalent sorption pressures $\frac{\Delta \varepsilon_s}{\Delta n}$ – strain caused by unit change by
		sorption pressure $\vartheta$ – Poisson's ratio k – permeability $k_0$ – initial permeability $c_f$ – cleat compressibility
Sawyer et al. (1990)	$\varphi = \varphi_i [1 + c_P (P - P_i)] - c_m (1 - \varphi_i) \left(\frac{\Delta P_i}{\Delta C_i}\right) (C - C_i)$ $\frac{k}{k_i} = \left(\frac{\varphi}{\varphi_i}\right)^n$	$c_p$ - pore volume compressibility $c_m$ - matrix shrinkage compressibility $\varphi$ - coal mass porosity $\varphi_i$ - initial coal mass porosity P - reservoir pressure $P_i$ - initial reservoir pressure C - reservoir concentration $C_i$ - initial reservoir concentration n – exponent of pressure dependent permeability
Pekot and Reeves (2002)	$\begin{split} \varphi &= \varphi_i [1 + c_P (P - P_i)] - c_m (1 - \varphi_i) \left(\frac{\Delta P_i}{\Delta C_i}\right) [(C - C_i) + c_k (C_t - C)] \\ \frac{k}{k_i} &= \left(\frac{\varphi}{\varphi_i}\right)^n \end{split}$	$c_k$ – the differential swelling coefficient $C_t$ – total reservoir gas content
Seidle and Huitt (1995)	$\begin{split} \varphi &= \varphi_i + \varphi_i \left[ 1 + \frac{2}{\varphi_i} \right] \varepsilon_l \left[ \frac{Bp_i}{1 + Bp_i} - \frac{Bp}{1 + Bp} \right] \\ \frac{k}{k_i} &= \left( \frac{\varphi}{\varphi_i} \right)^n \end{split}$	$\varepsilon_l$ – Langmuir volume B – A Langmuir constant p – pressure $p_i$ – initial pressure
Harpalani and Chen (1995) and Ma (2011)	$\frac{k_{new}}{k_{old}} = \frac{\left(1 + \frac{2l_m^*\Delta p}{\varphi_i}\right)^3}{1 - l_m^*\Delta p}$ $l_m^*\Delta p = -1 + \sqrt{1 + \varepsilon_l \left[\frac{Bp_i}{1 + Bp_i} - \frac{Bp}{1 + Bp}\right]}$ $+ \frac{1 + \vartheta}{E} (P - P_i)$	$k_{new}$ – permeability at pressure <i>p</i> $k_{old}$ – original reservoir permeability $l_m^*$ - change in the dimension of the coal matrix block in horizontal direction with pressure <i>E</i> – Young's modulus
Levine (1996)	$\frac{b_{new}}{a} = \frac{b_{old}}{a} + \frac{1 - 2\vartheta}{E} (P - P_i) + \frac{\varepsilon_l p_{50}}{(p_{50} + p)^2} (P - P_i)$ $k = \frac{(1.013 \times 10^9) b_{new}^3}{12a}$	$b_{new}$ – new cleat width a – cleat spacing $b_{old}$ – initial cleat width $p_{50}$ – Langmuir parameter for the swelling/shrinkage strain b/a – cleat porosity
Palmer and Mansoori (1996)	$\begin{split} \varphi &= \varphi_i [1 + c_m (P - P_i)] \\ &+ c_l \left[ \frac{K}{M} - 1 \right] \left[ \frac{Bp}{1 + Bp} - \frac{Bp_i}{1 + Bp_i} \right] \\ c_m &= \frac{g}{M} - \left[ \frac{K}{M} + f - 1 \right] c_r \\ \frac{k}{k_i} &= \left( \frac{\varphi}{\varphi_i} \right)^n \\ M &= \frac{E(1 - \vartheta)}{(1 + \vartheta)(1 - 2\vartheta)}, K = \frac{E}{3(1 - 2\vartheta)} \end{split}$	$c_l$ and $B$ – Langmuir model parameters K – bulk modulus M – constrained axial modulus f – fraction from 0 to 1 $c_r$ – grain compressibility g - a geometric term related to the orientation of the natural cleat system

## Table 2.3. A summary of permeability models

Gilman and Beckie (2000)	$\Delta \sigma_x^e = \frac{\vartheta}{1 - \vartheta} \Delta p + \frac{E}{1 - \vartheta} \alpha_s \Delta S$ $\frac{k}{k_0} = exp\left(-\frac{3\Delta \sigma_x^e}{E_F}\right)$	$E_F$ - Analogous to Young's modulus but for the fracture $\Delta S$ – change of the adsorbate mass $\alpha_s$ - volumetric welling/shrinkage			
		coefficient			
Shi and Durucan (2005)	$\sigma_h^e - \sigma_{ho}^e = -\frac{\vartheta}{1 - \vartheta}(p - p_i) + \frac{E\varepsilon_s}{3(1 - \vartheta)}$ $k = k_i exp\{-3c_f[(\sigma_h^e - \sigma_{ho}^e) - (p - p_o)]\}$	$c_f$ - cleat compressibility $\varepsilon_s$ – swelling strain			
Cui and Bustin, (2005), Cui et al., (2007) and	$\varphi = \varphi_i + \frac{(1 - 2\vartheta)(1 + \vartheta)}{E(1 - \vartheta)}(p - p_i) - \frac{2(1 - 2\vartheta)}{3(1 - \vartheta)}(\varepsilon_s - \varepsilon_{so})$	$\sigma - \sigma_0$ – change in mean stress			
Jaeger et al. (2007)	$\frac{k}{k_i} = \left(\frac{\varphi}{\varphi_i}\right)^n$				
Robertson 2006	$\frac{k}{k_0} = exp \left\{ 3 \left[ c_f \left( p - p_i \right) \right] \right\}$	$\varepsilon_{max}$ and $P_L$ – Langmuir parameters $\alpha$ – rate of decline of cleat compressibility			
	$+\frac{2}{\varphi_i} \left[ \frac{1-2\vartheta}{E} (P-P_i) \right]$				
	$-\frac{\varepsilon_{max}P_L}{(P_L+P_0)}ln\left(\frac{P_L+P}{P_L+P_0}\right)\right]\bigg\}$				
	$c_f = \frac{c_i}{\alpha(\sigma - \sigma_0)} \left[ 1 - e^{-\alpha(\sigma - \sigma_0)} \right]$				
Liu and Rutqvist	$\frac{k_f}{k_{f0}} = \left[1 + \frac{(1 - R_m)}{\varphi_{f0}} (\Delta \varepsilon_v - \Delta \varepsilon_s)\right]^3$	$\Delta \varepsilon_{v}$ – volumetric strain $R_{m}$ – modulus reduction ratio (rock mass			
(2010)		modulus/rock matrix modulus)			
		Subscript $f$ - fracture			
		Subscript <i>c</i> - initial conditions			
Connell et al.	$k = k_0 exp \left\{ 3 \left[ C_{\mu\nu}^M \left( \frac{1}{2} (2\bar{p}_r + \bar{p}_r) - \bar{p}_{\mu} \right) - (1 - \nu) \bar{e}_r \right] \right\}$	$C_{pc}^{M}$ - cleat compressibility			
(2010a)	$\left( \left[ $	$\bar{p}_r$ - radial confining pressure			
		$\bar{p}_z$ - axial confining pressure			
		$\bar{\varepsilon}_s$ – sorption induced bulk modulus strain			

## 2.5 CO<sub>2</sub> Sequestration Effect on Deep Coal Seam Mechanical Properties

Not only  $CO_2$  injectivity into coal seams, but also the overall strength of these seams is altered by  $CO_2$  injection, which is a greater threat in terms of long-term safety of the  $CO_2$  storage process in deep coal seams, as it may cause the back-migration of injected  $CO_2$  into the atmosphere. Therefore, it is of great importance to have a comprehensive understanding of the effect of  $CO_2$  sequestration to achieve better control of coal mass integrity during and after  $CO_2$  sequestration.

As proposed by Gibbs (1878) and Griffith (1921), material strength depends on the chemical potential of the adsorbate, and replacement of the existing adsorbate with one more chemically potent causes it to be weakened.  $CO_2$  is clearly a more chemically potent gas than preadsorbed methane in coal seams (Gibbs, 1878; Griffith, 1921). This implies that the replacement of the CH<sub>4</sub> with CO<sub>2</sub> injection causes the coal seam strength to be reduced. The natural coal mass structure is a glassy, strained and cross-linked macro-molecular structure with high energy, which limits the freedom of coal molecules to move, resulting in a highly brittle structure (Larsen et al., 1997; Majewska & Ziętek, 2007; Goodman et al., 2005). When CO<sub>2</sub> is adsorbed, the coal mass polymer structure is rearranged (Figure 2.11) with the increment of free volume in the coal matrix and the ductile properties of the coal structure are enhanced, affecting the elastic modulus of the coal (Perera & Ranjith, 2012).



(a) Natural coal under 1k magnification



(c) Natural coal under 3k magnification



(b) CO2 adsorbed coal under 1k magnification



(d)  $CO_2$  adsorbed coal under 3k magnification



The reduction of coal strength with  $CO_2$  injection into it is well known, and this strength reduction varies with seam location and injecting  $CO_2$  properties (Aziz & Ming-Li, 1999; Czapliński & Hołda, 1982; Day et al., 2010; Jasinge et al., 2011; Perera & Ranjith, 2012). For example,  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced strength reduction (up to around 80%) is greater for high rank coal located at greater depths, and increasing the injecting  $CO_2$  pressure causes greater brittleness reduction (up to around 70%) in the coal seam (Perera et al., 2015). Table 2.3 illustrates the current findings on this issue.

Importantly, the CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and ECBM processes typically target deep coal deposits, and at such locations CO<sub>2</sub> may not exist in a sub-critical phase, as it does under standard laboratory conditions, but instead exists in a super-critical state. Therefore, Karacan (2007) and Aziz & Ming-Li (1999) found that when CO<sub>2</sub> pressure increases, so too do the strength losses. These additional strength losses are due to the greater adsorptive potential and dissolution ability of super- over sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub>. In this way, super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> is able to access more of the coal matrix than sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub>, which can have more effects on coal seam integrity (Table 2.4).

Effective	Key observation					
factor						
Adsorbing	CO <sub>2</sub> (sub-critical) saturation decreases the strength of brown coal, while for N <sub>2</sub> , the effect is the					
gas	opposite. This is because N <sub>2</sub> is capable of replacing the existing CO <sub>2</sub> in the coal mass by reducing					
property	the partial pressure of the seam and consequently recovering the swelling areas to some extent					
	(Kiyama et al., 2011).					
	$\begin{array}{c} \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\$					

Table 2.4. Effect of CO<sub>2</sub> injection on coal seam strength during CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration

Axial stress vs. axial strain curves for different saturation mediums (Perera et al. 2011c)

Coal rank CO<sub>2</sub> saturation causes up to 4.5 times greater strength reduction in bituminous coal compared to lignite as there is a greater surface area in high density coal. High rank coal seams located deep underground offer more loci for CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption due to their well-developed cleat system, causing more swelling than low rank coal (Ranjith & Perera, 2012).



Comparison of UCS strength reduction in bituminous and lignite coal (Ranjith & Perera, 2012)

$CO_2$	• There is a linearly increasing trend for strength reduction with increased injection pressure (Perera
pressure	et al., 2013)
and phase	• The increasing injection pressure has a significant negative effect on cleat performance with greater
	adsorption-induced swelling (Perera et al., 2013)
	• There is a greater strength reduction (approximately $40\%$ ) in super-critical CO <sub>2</sub> compared to normal
	gaseous CO <sub>2</sub> due to the greater adsorptive potential for super-critical CO <sub>2</sub> (Perera et al., 2013)





While this  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced strength reduction and crack formation cause the injected  $CO_2$  to be back-migrated into the atmosphere, there is an additional concern related to the potential for fault instability located between the deposited  $CO_2$  and the surface, leading to potential damage to infrastructure. Therefore, a better understanding of coal mass behaviour is essential for the safe implementation of field-scale  $CO_2$  sequestration.

Although CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration is a promising method to reduce and control the greenhouse gas effect through the geological storage of anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub>, it still remains in the experimental stage, as many aspects need to be studied before being put into practice to avoid the risks associated with this process. Most of the possible coal seams for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration are thin (0.5–5 m), contain many faults, and are very low in permeability (0.001–0.005 Darcy) (Gale, 2004). Therefore, CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced swelling in such seams may develop higher stresses in the top (overlying) and bottom (underlying) rock strata, which can create possible migration paths for injected CO<sub>2</sub> out of the coal mass through the faults generated.

## 2.6 Coal CO<sub>2</sub> Sequestration Field Projects

The USA, Canada, Poland, China, Australia, Japan and some other countries are using ECBM recovery via  $CO_2$  sequestration at a field scale. Table 2.5 summarizes some of the main field-scale  $CO_2$  sequestration projects in the world. In addition to Table 2.5, initial testing for  $CO_2$  sequestration in China has confirmed a large potential resource for  $CO_2$  sequestration. There are two potential settings for  $CO_2$  storage within China's carboniferous coal deposits: the north-east China coal region and the Ordos basin in north-central China (Wong et al., 2007). Of these, the north-east China coal region is heavily industrialized, with numerous coal-fired power plants that could provide cheap  $CO_2$  for injection. The Ordos basin in north-central China has superior reservoir quality, with minimal fracturing and higher permeability, and the potential for  $CO_2$  sequestration is around 660 million tons in this basin (Stevens et al., 1999). In 2002, China initiated

field-scale CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration with the collaboration of Canada, and during the first three years, the project was planned to perform three pilot micro-tests before the selection of a suitable location meeting the requirements for a full-scale pilot test (White et al., 2005). According to Wong et al. (2007), the first micro-pilot test at the south Qinshui basin, Shanxi Province, China was successful and the field data were well-matched using a tuned reservoir model. Further, a multi-well pilot project was designed and planned to proceed (Wong et al., 2007). However, most of the current field-scale CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration projects have faced the common issue of reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> injection capacity within 6 months to two years after initiation due to coal matrix swelling (refer to Table 2.5).

Table 2.5. Field-scale CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration projects around the world

CO <sub>2</sub> sequestration	Details of well	Details of gas injection	Remarks	
project	project configuration			
Allison Unit San Juan basin – USA (Clarkson and Bustin, 1997; Reeves, 2001, 2002a; Reeves, 2002b; Reeves et al., 2002; Reeves & Oudinot, 2005; White et al., 2005)	Has 4 CO <sub>2</sub> injection wells and 9 CH <sub>4</sub> production wells, drilled at 320-acre spacing	<ul> <li>CO<sub>2</sub> was injected at a maximum injection pressure of 17 MPa</li> <li>Over 6 <sup>1</sup>/<sub>2</sub> years, 6.4 Bcf of CO<sub>2</sub> was injected</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>The first experimental CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM recovery pilot project in the world, started in 1995 and the rank is medium to low volatile bituminous coal.</li> <li>Initially, significant reduction in injectivity was observed due to coal matrix swelling and effective stress increment.</li> <li>Gas production caused the overall reduction of pressure and reservoir volume and caused CO<sub>2</sub> adsorbed near the injection wells to be desorbed and migrate further from the wells. This increased permeability by reversing the swelling areas close to injection wells.</li> </ul>	
COLORADO NEW MEXICO	OAL Site Senga San Juan Basin Outline Source San Juan Basin Outline Source Sou	Allison Unit- San J	uan basin, USA (Reeves, 2001)	
Williston basin North Dakota – USA (Botnen et al., 2009; Perera & Ranjith, 2012; White et al., 2005)	Consists of five wells to around 340m depth	<ul> <li>Estimated CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity is 10.3 TCU</li> <li>Weakly developed cleat system was the main challenge for the injection of CO<sub>2</sub></li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Second largest coal deposit in USA, consists of lignite coal deposit</li> <li>13 molecules of CO<sub>2</sub> can be sequestrated for each molecule of CH<sub>4</sub></li> <li>Due to coal mass swelling, 10-fold reduction was observed in first year</li> </ul>	





Silesian basin. Poland (Reduction of  $CO_2$ Emissions by Means of CO<sub>2</sub> Storage in the Silesian Coal Basin of Poland – RECOPL) (Perera & Ranjith, 2012; Reeves & Taillefert, 2002; White et al., 2005)

one CH<sub>4</sub> production well located 105 m from each other

- CO<sub>2</sub> injection in 2004, permeability was reduced 10-100 (CO<sub>2</sub>)from injection capacity - 1 ton/day) from the initial permeability  $(CO_2)$ injection capacity - 20 ton/day)
- In mid-2005, a hydraulic fracture was created and CO<sub>2</sub> injection capacity increased up to 15 tons/day

- Small-scale project
- 93% of the injected CO<sub>2</sub> was stored and 55-70% enhancement of CH4 production was observed in the field tests





Ishikari basin

Yubari – Japan (Fujioka et al., 2010; Perera & Ranjith, 2012; White et al., 2005)

Two CO2 injection wells and one CH<sub>4</sub> production well

• During the first year, without any gas production, a total of around 35.7 metric tons of CO2 was injected at a rate of 2.3 tons/day, which reduced to 11 metric tons in the second year

- Due to decrease of effective pressure close to the injection well, CO<sub>2</sub> injection was increased from 1.6 tons/day to 3.5 tons/day
- N<sub>2</sub> injection in 2005 enhanced the  $CO_2$ injection by up to 6.6 tons/day and gradually dropped again to the initial rate, and was then again increased because of effective stress variation.

- Small-scale project
- Injection pressure was maintained at 15 MPa, which was slightly less than the cleat opening pressure of 15.8 MPa
- A total of 480 tons of CO2 was injected between 2004-2006



Interestingly, this matrix swelling-created  $CO_2$  injectivity reduction has sometimes been recovered by the reduced effective stress close to the  $CO_2$  injection well, and as a result considerable  $CO_2$  injection capacity enhancements have been recorded (Fujioka et al., 2010; White et al., 2005). However, the combined influence has mostly had a negative effect on  $CO_2$  sequestration and coal seam gas production. Therefore, various coal seam permeability enhancement techniques, including inert gas (N<sub>2</sub>) injection and hydro fracturing, have been performed in the field.

Of these projects, the Ishikari basin and Fenn Big Valley basin projects have injected pure  $N_2$  (Mavor et al., 2004; White et al., 2005; Fujioka et al., 2010) and the Fenn Big Valley basin and Southern Bowen basin have injected a mixture of  $N_2$  and  $CO_2$  (flue gas) (Reeves & O'Neill, 1989; Mavor et al., 2004; White et al., 2005; Syed et al., 2013) into the coal seam to recover the  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced swelled areas in the coal matrix to some extent. Although injecting an inert gas like  $N_2$  (Mavor et al., 2004; White et al., 2005; Fujioka et al., 2010) or a mixture of  $CO_2$  and  $N_2$  (Reeves & O'Neill, 1989; Mavor et al., 2004; White et al., 2005; Fujioka et al., 2010) or a mixture of  $CO_2$  and  $N_2$  (Reeves & O'Neill, 1989; Mavor et al., 2004; White et al., 2005) can increase coal seam permeability by a substantial amount, the increase is not sufficient for an economical  $CO_2$  sequestration project. Therefore, more advanced approaches, such as hydro fracturing, have been required to enhance coal seam permeability to achieve an acceptable  $CO_2$  injection capacity in the field (Ruehl, 1968; Mazza et al., 1981; Puri et al., 1991; Reeves & Taillefert, 2002).

Hydro fracturing techniques have already been tested in some field-scale projects, including the Silesian basin (Reeves & Taillefert, 2002; White et al., 2005). However, there are some disadvantages to the hydro fracturing process, since the creation of hydraulic fractures may cause the coal seam to be weakened, and this may enhance the risk of injected CO<sub>2</sub> back-migration into the atmosphere. Therefore, creating hydro-fractures in coal seams, where they have already been weakened due to super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injection, is a great challenge and no extensive study has been conducted on this to date. Therefore, a far-reaching study is required, using comprehensive experiments representing in situ conditions and advanced numerical modelling approaches, before putting hydro fracturing into practice.

## 2.7 What causes the lack of CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration implementation?

Basically,  $CO_2$  sequestration in deep coal seams can be divided into two general sub-systems: operational and in situ. The operational sub-system includes components such as  $CO_2$  capture, transportation, and injection. Once  $CO_2$  is injected into coal beds, it enters an in situ sub-system. Past technological innovations and experiences have provided the tools and proficiency to handle and control  $CO_2$  in the operational sub-system with adequate certainty and safety; however, in the in situ sub-system knowledge is currently lacking, particularly of the environmental and human health risks. Furthermore, public perceptions, the economics of  $CO_2$  sequestration and policy barriers are other challenges which discourage the use of  $CO_2$ -ECBM projects, in spite of their multiple advantages (Bae & Bhatia, 2006; Holloway, 2005; Howard, 2002).

## 2.7.1 Complexity associated with coal heterogeneity

Some characteristics are required for effective and safe CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in coal seams. These include i) sufficient capacity for storing large volumes of CO<sub>2</sub>, ii) adequate CO<sub>2</sub> injectivity (permeability of at least 1–5 mD), iii) a minimally faulted and/or folded reservoir, and iv) a reservoir well confined with an overlying seal to prevent leakage of injected CO<sub>2</sub> into the atmosphere (Bachu, 2007; Gale & Freund, 2001). However, the satisfaction of all of these criteria is challenging and is made complex by the highly heterogeneous nature of coal. As discussed in Sections 2.4 and 2.5, the behaviour of CO<sub>2</sub> permeability and coal seam strength vary with seam and injecting CO<sub>2</sub> properties (coal rank, temperature, confining pressure, CO<sub>2</sub> phase and pressure). This leads to unpredictable CO<sub>2</sub> injectivity in determining the properties representative of the whole seam (Day et al., 2008; Ozdemir & Schroeder, 2009; Renzik et al., 1978; Robertson, 2005; Saghafi et al., 2007; Wang, 2007). Furthermore, there may be significant variations in properties within the same core sample or between different core samples obtained from the same coal seam. Therefore, the heterogeneous nature of coal has been a key hurdle to the confirmation of the effects of in situ coal properties on coal's behaviour.

According to De Silva & Ranjith (2013) and Jasinge et al. (2011), homogenous reconstituted coal samples with reproducible properties can be used to overcome this problem. Figure 2.12 shows the variation of permeability with effective stress for reconstituted and natural samples of brown coal. The figure depicts very similar permeability behaviour of  $CO_2$  in the natural specimen and the reconstituted specimen (Jasinge et al., 2011). Therefore, reconstituted coal samples can be used to avoid the complexities associated with coal heterogeneity. However, thorough investigation of the coal mass structure and its characteristics for different localities is crucial for the safe execution of field-scale  $CO_2$ -ECBM.



Figure 2.12. Permeability behaviour with effective stress for natural and reconstituted coal samples (Jasinge et al., 2011)

## 2.7.2 Environmental and human health risks

The question of whether safe and stable storage of  $CO_2$  in the sub-surface can be assured is probably the most important issue facing the underground storage of  $CO_2$  at present, because this is likely to have a high impact on public acceptability. To protect the environment and the health and safety of the public, monitoring and verification of geologically-sequestered  $CO_2$  is essential. Moreover, it is essential to satisfy the expected regulatory demands and to lessen any uncertainties associated with the long-term safety and security of projects (White et al., 2005). In situ pressure gauges, chemical tracers, isotropic ratios, geophysical methods, visual inspection and the production response by nearby wells are some methods used for the detection of movement of stored  $CO_2$  (Hall et al., 1994). However, due to the limitations and uncertainties associated with those methods, there are complexities in fulfilling the monitoring process, such as (i) uncertainties due to wellbore storage effects in using pressure gauges, (ii) the adsorptive nature of coal may irreversibly sorb the compounds added as chemical tracers, and (iii) the precision of measurements using geophysical methods (Chikatamarla et al., 2004; White et al., 2005).

### 2.7.3 Policy, regulation and public perceptions of CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration using ECBM

For the operation of  $CO_2$  sequestration in a safe and secure manner, the formation and application of sound regulatory and legal frameworks are essential. Public perceptions, policies, regulations and international conventions exist which may offer assistance or barriers to  $CO_2$  capture and storage using ECBM recovery.

### 2.7.3.1 Policies, regulations and international agreements

The use of CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration will add to the cost of fossil fuel energy with some exceptions. Worldwide disposition of CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration could be encouraged by policies that address the added cost of CO<sub>2</sub> storage, not only in developed countries but also in countries where access to affordable energy is a key development priority. Some national governments have provided limited early inducements for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration projects, while the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) and its Kyoto Protocol could both be used to encourage CO<sub>2</sub> storage. For example, the UNFCCC has accepted Norway's national inventory of greenhouse gas emissions, under which CO<sub>2</sub> from the Sleipner gas field which has been geologically stored does not contribute to Norway's emissions (Kheshgi et al., 2006). To date, no CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration projects have been submitted for approval under the Clean Development Mechanism of the Kyoto Protocol (Kheshgi et al., 2006). Within the European Union (EU) emissions trading system, CO<sub>2</sub> stored in geological formations can be deducted from member states' inventories, based on the provisional monitoring guidelines of member states, until succeeded by permanent EU monitoring guidelines (Kheshgi et al., 2006). In the long term, the effective application of CO<sub>2</sub> storage will rely on economically efficient approaches to address the additional costs.

An effective legal and regulatory framework would facilitate good  $CO_2$  sequestration practices without forming unintended barriers to the deployment of  $CO_2$  sequestration. An expanded use of coal  $CO_2$  sequestration would be accompanied by reductions in costs, improvements in technology, and improved understanding of risks and their management. A regulatory framework that encourages good practice and incorporates the evolving understanding of risk and its management could promote these improvements.

#### 2.7.3.2 Public perceptions

Public acceptance and support is of great importance for coal CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration. At this stage, the public is largely unaware of coal CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration. Many public survey results confirm this lack of awareness of the public about CO<sub>2</sub> storage in coal seams. For example, less than 4% were aware about carbon capture and storage in coal seams in a survey conducted in the United States of 1200 people in 2003 (Shackely et al., 2004). In a survey conducted in Japan in 2004, 22% were aware of CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM out of 1006 responses (Curry et al., 2005). The Netherlands and the United Kingdom have also conducted surveys on public perceptions of CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM and found that many people (>50%) were concerned about the risk of leakage and accidents, and impacts on the environment, ecosystem, and human health (Curry et al., 2005; Gough et al., 2006). Early experience will leave a legacy for coal CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in terms of public perceptions of it. Clear assessment of the merits of coal CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and the competing technologies is a prerequisite

for informed decisions. This would enable the merits of each option to be weighed in the context of a broad range of priorities, including the long-term risks of climate change.

## 2.8 Conclusions and Suggestions

## 2.8.1 Conclusions

- With the process of industrialization and modernization, carbon dioxide emissions are becoming a major concern directly leading to global warming. Various approaches have been proposed to address the problem by significantly reducing the amount of greenhouse gas (CO<sub>2</sub>) in the atmosphere, including the use of renewable fuels, energy-efficient technology and carbon sequestration. Of these feasible methods, carbon dioxide sequestration in deep unmineable coal seams is recognised as one of the most promising methods, based on cost and safety considerations.
- CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration involves the capture of CO<sub>2</sub> released from anthropogenic sources and its secure storage in deep underground locations off- or on-shore. However, in terms of safety, reliability and cost, on-shore sequestration is more effective than off-shore sequestration. Of the various potential CO<sub>2</sub> storage sinks deep underground (e.g. depleted oil and gas fields, saline aquifers, shale beds, and coal mines), CO<sub>2</sub> storage in deep coal seams offers unique advantages, and the offsetting of CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration costs by the production of a valuable energy product like methane (coal seam gas) is critical. This process is known as enhanced coal bed methane (ECBM) recovery.
- However, adsorption of the injected CO<sub>2</sub> into the coal mass causes it to swell, leading to significant alterations in its internal rock mass structure, resulting in major modifications to CO<sub>2</sub> injectivity and coal mass integrity. This CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling is dependent on both seam (coal rank, temperature and confining pressure) and injected CO<sub>2</sub> properties (CO<sub>2</sub> phase and pressure), and the swelling reduces with increasing temperature due to the reduced sorption capacity. On the other hand, the amount of swelling is largely dependent on the pressure and the physical state of the injected CO<sub>2</sub>, and super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> creates a much greater swelling effect than sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> due to its greater chemical potential. Furthermore, high-pressure injection of CO<sub>2</sub> causes the swelling process to be enhanced due to the higher flow ability of the injected CO<sub>2</sub> under reduced effective stress conditions (difference of confining pressure and injection pressure) at increased injection pressures. However, potential coal seams for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration are available at extremely deep locations and there is a high possibility of phase change from sub- to super-critical state in the underground environment owing to changes in field conditions. This confirms the likely existence of high swelling rates in deep coal seams with CO<sub>2</sub> injection.

- The effectiveness of the CO<sub>2</sub> storage process in any coal seam is greatly influenced by the flow ability of the injected CO<sub>2</sub> through the seam, which is dependent on a number of factors, including coal rank, seam temperature, seam depth (confining pressure) and CO<sub>2</sub> injecting pressure and phase. Importantly, the injected CO<sub>2</sub> phase condition critically influences its flow behaviour in the seam. In the super-critical state, the expected form of the CO<sub>2</sub> in deep coal seams, CO<sub>2</sub> has significantly lower permeability than sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub>, which causes unpredictable CO<sub>2</sub> injectivity into deep coal seams.
- Secure storage of injected CO<sub>2</sub> in the seam is critically important in CO<sub>2</sub> geo-sequestration in deep coal seams in terms of environmental health and safety. It is important to prevent the back-migration of CO<sub>2</sub>, as this has potential to cause mine outbursts and lateral migration into aquifers and surrounding more permeable geologic strata. These factors are mainly dependent on the coal mass strength properties. However, it is well known that CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced swelling causes weakening in deep coal seams. This strength reduction is greatly dependent on injecting CO<sub>2</sub> phase and pressure, and it increases with increasing pressure. In addition, super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> creates much greater strength reduction than sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub>. High rank coal seams located deep underground are subjected to greater strength reduction with CO<sub>2</sub> injection, as they offer more loci for CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption.
- Reduction of seam permeability over time after CO<sub>2</sub> injection is a common issue faced by many field-scale CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration projects. For example, there was around 50% reduction in CO<sub>2</sub> injectivity at the Allison unit CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration project in the San Juan basin, USA, during the first two years of injection.
- Existing government policies, public perceptions, and strict rules on coal mining affect the implementation of CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in deep coal seams. The lack of knowledge related to coal seam CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration has severely affected the implementation of this process in potential coal seams around the world. The complex heterogeneous nature of coal, which causes location-dependent coal seam properties, is one reason for the delay in the adoption of coal CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration.

## 2.8.2 Recommendations

• Extensive laboratory tests on different type of coals, in particular lignite, sub-bituminous, bituminous and anthracite can be used to obtain a greater understanding of CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in the coal mass in a controlled environment. These results can be used to support reservoir studies and then be extended to other advanced studies (risk assessment studies, economic optimization studies, project-screening models etc.).

- Numerous studies have been conducted on CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in coal seams. However, knowledge regarding enhanced methane production remains limited. Therefore, more attention to enhanced methane production-related coal seam alterations is required.
- More demonstration projects of CO<sub>2</sub> storage in deep coal seams are required to increase knowledge of CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration-induced flow and mechanical property changes.
- A detailed monitoring system (near-surface monitoring and seam monitoring) is essential for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration projects, to ensure the integrity of CO<sub>2</sub> storage and CH<sub>4</sub> production and to avoid possible hazards related to CO<sub>2</sub> back-migration into the atmosphere. This would lead to greater confidence and improved public perceptions.

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### 2.10 Chapter summary

CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM has been identified as an economical coal bed methane production-enhancement technique, as this process has the ability to significantly enhance coal bed methane production, while sequestrating considerable amounts of CO<sub>2</sub> in deep coal seams. However, suitable coal seams for  $CO_2$  sequestration and ECBM are located deep underground (> 800 m depths), where CO<sub>2</sub> is expected to be in its highly chemically active super-critical state. According to existing research, the injection of CO<sub>2</sub> into deep coal seams causes the induction of strain between the coal matrix and the adsorbing CO<sub>2</sub> layer, commonly known as *coal matrix swelling*. This swelling causes both seam permeability and strength to be significantly reduced and these reductions are considerably greater for super-critical CO<sub>2</sub>. The permeability reduction causes the amount of injectable CO<sub>2</sub> and producible methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) in coal seam to become unpredictable. In addition, the strength reduction affects the long-term safety of the ECBM and CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration processes, as it may cause the injected CO<sub>2</sub> to back-migrate into the atmosphere. Therefore, the injection of massive amounts of CO<sub>2</sub> into deep coal seams to harvest maximum amounts of methane from the seam while reducing the volume of anthropogenic  $CO_2$  in the atmosphere has become a great challenge. Many studies have been conducted to date to investigate the effects of CO<sub>2</sub> storage in deep coal seams, both experimentally and numerically. However, the complexities associated with greater coal heterogeneity have resulted in difficulties in quantitatively and qualitatively validating the findings from the experimental work. Furthermore, environmental and human health risks, policies, regulations and public perceptions have made implementation of CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM challenging. Extensive laboratory tests on different types of coals can be used to obtain a clearer view of the effects of CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in the coal mass in a controlled environment. These results can be used to support reservoir studies and then be extended to other advanced studies (risk assessment studies, economic optimization studies, project-screening models etc.).

## PART 1 - CHAPTER 3

# Materials, Instrumentation

## and Experimental

## Methods

## 3. Materials, Instrumentation and Experimental methods

## 3.1 Overview

The comprehensive research program developed to achieve the research objectives stated in Chapter 1 is shown in Figure 3.1.



Figure 3.1. Detailed research plan

This chapter discusses the materials, instrumentation and experimental procedures adopted to complete the research plan shown in Figure 3.1. The first section highlights the materials used for the tests. For the present study, micro-, meso- and macro-scale studies were conducted to obtain an overview of the coal matrix changes during  $CO_2$  sequestration. Further, coupled hydro-mechanical tests were conducted to investigate both the flow and mechanical properties of the coal mass during exposure to  $CO_2$  for effective methane production and long-term safe storage of  $CO_2$ . The instrumentation, sample preparation and experimental procedures used for the testing of coal specimens are detailed next in this chapter under three main sections: micro-scale, meso-scale and macro-scale tests. Finally, the methods used for experimental permeability calculations are explained.

### 3.2 Test specimens used for the present research

#### 3.2.1 Origin of materials

As observed in Chapter 2, many CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM studies have been conducted on high-rank coal specimens, but much less attention has been given to low-rank coal such as brown coal because of the scarcity of brown coal seams at depths suitable for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration. As mentioned in Chapter 1, according to Garduno et al. (2003), the Jackson, Yegua and Wilcox formation in Texas has deep lignite formations (800 to 3800 ft from standard sea level (SSL)) with CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM potential. In the case of Australia, Hooper et al. (2005) and Jasinge (2010) stated that there are possible brown coal storage sites on- and off-shore of the Gippsland basin at 400 - 800 m depths. Further, the CO<sub>2</sub> produced from the coal power stations situated in Gippsland can be easily stored in the coal beds, which is advantageous and economical (Hooper et al., 2005). Hence, investigation of the possibility of using these brown coal seams for CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM is needed. Therefore, brown coal samples originating from the Hazelwood open-cut coal mine at Morwell, Gippsland, Victoria, Australia (Figure 3.2) were used for the present work to conduct the experiments. Figure 3.2 shows the location of the coal specimens obtained and an as-received coal block.

The Gippsland basin covers around 40,000 km<sup>2</sup> in south-eastern Australia and around 1/5 of the basin is on-shore while the rest of the basin is off-shore (Durie, 2013). The Gippsland basin first developed as a rift basin in Lower Cretaceous time with the deposition of arkoses, shales and conglomerates, which are now thin brown coal seam totalling overall more than 3 km in thickness (Knight 1975). In the Late Cretaceous to Early Eocene, renewed rifting activities occurred with the recommencement of subsidence and a sequence of sands, clays and precursors of brown coal seams were deposited over an area about 10 km on-shore and around 100 km off-shore. Subsidence continued through the Oligocene to Late Miocene period, and during this time thick coal seams like Morwell and Yallourn were formed (Durie, 2013). The Morwell formation consists of a

complex unit of thick coal seams overlying the Traralgon formation in the Latrobe Valley Depression (Hocking 1972). The Morwell formation is dated to the Late Oligocene and Early Miocene by the occurrence of the middle and upper Proteacidites tuberculatus zone of fossils and radio-metrically by the basal and interbedded volcanic lavas of the Thorpdale volcanic group (Hocking 1972).



Figure 3.2. (a) Hazelwood open-cut coalmine, Gippsland, Victoria (created by the author using data from <u>https://www.foe.org.au/articles/2014-03-18/victorian-government-wants-coal-export-industry</u>) and (b) a brown coal block collected from the site

## 3.2.2 Structure and properties of Victorian brown coal

Victorian brown coal has unique physical and chemical properties compared to high-rank coals such as bituminous coal and anthracite. The effective and environmentally-friendly utilisation of the Victorian brown coal resource must consider its special structural features and properties and these are listed in the following sections.

## 3.2.2.1 Petrography of Victorian brown coal

Studies of Victorian brown coal in the Latrobe Valley seams indicate that these coal seams are mainly autochthonous (the coal has been fossilised by in situ grown materials) in origin (Hayashi and Li, 2004). Victorian brown coal has a colour ranging from red brown to dark brown with full natural moisture content (range of 50 - 70 %). In relation to the lithotypes of Victorian brown coal, five main lithotypes are identified, based on a study by George (1982) on coals from the Yallourn and Morwell formations. Further, George and Mackey (1991) summarised the characteristic maceral compositions of these lithotypes. The typical characteristics of the lithotypes and the characteristic maceral compositions are summarised in Table 3.1. According to George and Mackey (1991), Morwell brown coal has a maceral composition of 91.7% of Huminite, 6.9% of Liptinite and 1.2% of Intertinite (all the values are percentages of volume).

## 3.2.2.2 Physical and chemical properties of Victorian brown coal

Table 3.2 lists the physical properties of the brown coal specimens used for testing. Further, according to Li (2004), Victorian brown coal has various pore structures with a wide range of sizes, including macro-pores (>50 nm in diameter), meso-pores (2-50 nm), micro-pores (0.4-2nm) and sub-micro pores (<0.4 nm). The smaller pores are responsible for the large surface areas of Victorian brown coal (often exceeding 200 m<sup>2</sup>/g), while larger pores contribute to the pore volume and porosity (Li, 2004). According to Woskoboenko et al. (1991), Victorian brown coal from the Morwell formation has a surface area of 214 – 313 m<sup>2</sup>/g and a micro-pore volume of 0.053 – 0.084 cm<sup>3</sup>/g.

Table 3.3 displays the typical mineral and non-mineral contents of Morwell brown coal from the Gippsland basin and Figure 3.3 gives the energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) element composition and the adsorption isotherms (Langmuir) of the brown coal samples used in the study.

## Table 3.1. Typical characteristics of lithotypes (George 1982) and maceral composition (George and Mackey 1991) in Victorian brown coal

Lithotype	Dark	Medium- Dark	Medium -	Light	Pale	
			Light			
Abbreviation	Dk	M-d	M-l	Lt	Pa	
Colour	Dark brown to black	Dark brown to	Medium	Light brown	Pale brown	
	brown	medium brown	brown to light		to yellow	
			brown		brown	
Texture	High wood content,	High to medium	High to low	Medium to	Wood	
	often small fragments	wood content, often	wood content,	low wood	present but	
		large pieces	often well	content	uncommon	
			preserved			
Gelification	Gelification	Some gelification	Gelification	Gelification	Gelification	
	particularly of wood	but not extensive	uncommon,	rare	very rare	
	material		confined			
			mainly to			
			wood			
Weathering	Wide and deep	Wide cracks, some	Shallow	Generally fine	Few	
pattern	cracks, regular	regularity of pattern	cracks,	cracks,	extensive	
	pattern		irregular	random	cracks	
			patterns	orientations		
Physical	Strong, hard, high	Variable strength,	Intermediate	Generally soft,	Soft,	
properties	density	above average	physical	low density	crumbles	
		hardness and	properties		readily,	
		density			very low	
					density	
Maceral	- Higher content of de	estinite	- High concentrations of detrovitrinite and			
composition	- Higher amount of lipt	tinite macerals	liptinite			
	(suberinite, cutinite and resinite) and		- Low concentrations of telovitrinite and			
	inertnite macerals (fusinite and semi-		gelovitrinite			
	fusinite)					
	- A concomitant decrea	ase in liptinite content				
	(dominated by sporinit	e and liptodetrinite)				

Physical property	Typical value			
Coal density (g/cm <sup>3</sup> )	1.04 - 1.1			
Moisture content (% wb) <sup>1</sup>	57 - 66			
Fixed carbon (% db) <sup>1</sup>	48 <sup>2</sup>			
Ash yield (% db) <sup>1</sup>	1.7			
Volatile matter content (% db) <sup>1</sup>	50.3 <sup>2</sup>			
Vitrinite reflectance (%)	$0.0 - 0.4^3$			
Porosity (%)	67-69 <sup>4</sup>			

Table 3.2. Physical properties of Victorian brown coal

<sup>1</sup>wb – wet basis, db – dry basis; <sup>2</sup>From Li (2004); <sup>3</sup>From De Silva (2013); <sup>4</sup>Jasinge (2010)

Table 3.3. Typical mineral and non-mineral contents of Morwell brown coal (% dry basis)(Brockway and Higgins, 1991)

SiO <sub>2</sub>	Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	K <sub>2</sub> O	TiO <sub>2</sub>	FeS <sub>2</sub>	Ca	Mg	Na	Cl	Total S	Total Fe
0.14	0.08	0.007	< 0.005	0.02	0.54	0.31	0.09	0.07	0.30	0.21



Figure 3.3. Energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) element composition and adsorption isotherms (Langmuir) of the brown coal samples used for the study

## **3.2.3** Scale of the test samples

For the present research, micro-, meso- and macro-scale brown coal samples were used to conduct the experiments (Figure 3.4), and standard laboratory testing was conducted using meso-scale samples. Further, micro-scale samples were used to gain insight into the underlying physics of the samples during CO<sub>2</sub> injection, while macro-scale samples contributed to making a field-scale environment for the test specimens (Figure 3.4). The instrumentation and experimental methodologies adopted for each type of test are described in the following sections.



Figure 3.4. Scale of the test samples used for the experimentations

## 3.3 Micro-scale experiments on brown coal

Micro-scale experiments were conducted using the FEI Quanta 3D Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscope in the Monash Centre for Electron Microscopy (MCEM) and the X-Ray Microscopy Facility for Imaging Geo-materials (XMFIG) at Monash University. The following sections describe the methodology for the micro-scale experiments.

## 3.3.1 Instrumentation

## 3.3.1.1 FEI Quanta 3D Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscope

Figure 3.5 shows the FEI Quanta 3D field emission scanning electron microscope which was used for the micro-scale tests. The MCEM FEI Quanta 3D is a dual-beam scanning electron microscope (SEM) that is also equipped with a focused ion beam (FIB). The SEM functions permit microscopic observations of specimens, while the FIB functions allow cutting of samples with sub-micron precision. The Quanta is equipped with a "warm" or Schottky-type field emission gun (FEG), capable of both high-resolution imaging, low vacuum operation (for analysis of uncoated samples) and environmental SEM (ESEM) operation. The microscope is equipped with a range of detectors, including an in-chamber secondary electron detector (E-T type), a detachable four-quadrant back-scattered electron detector (BSED), a retractable annular scanning transmission

electron microscopy detector (STEM), an in-chamber low vacuum secondary electron detector (LVSED), a detachable gaseous secondary electron detector (GSED – ESEM), a detachable Deben cool stage (-25 °C to +50 °C at 300Pa), an Edax Apollo XP 10 mm<sup>2</sup> silicon drift detector (SDD) for energy-dispersive X-ray analysis (EDX), an Edax Hikari XP electron back-scattered electron detector (EBSD) and a Gatan X-ray ultra-microscope (XuM) detector and detachable target module and rotation stage (MCEM, 2016).

(a) Front view



(b) Rare view



Figure 3.5. FEI Quanta 3D field emission scanning electron microscope

## 3.3.1.2 X-Ray Microscopy Facility for Imaging Geo-materials (XMFIG)

Figure 3.6 shows the high-resolution X-ray computed tomography (CT) machine in the Civil Engineering Department at Monash University which was used for the non-destructive threedimensional imaging of coal samples. This X-Ray CT facility has a Zeiss Xradia 520 Versa 3D Xray microscope, which enables sub-micron viewing of the micro-structural characteristics of samples. It has a unique set of objectives (0.4X, 4X, 20X, 40X), which allows scanning of small sub-regions within a large specimen. Further, this machine can achieve spatial resolution of 0.7 µm and has a minimum achievable voxel of 70 nm. Further, two-stage magnification that provides resolution at a distance (RaaD), delivering large, flexible working distances while maintaining sub-micron resolution is another advantage of this machine. Enhanced absorption contrast detectors maximize the collection of contrast-forming low-energy X-ray photons that are critical to imaging numerous material types. Tuneable propagation phase contrast is used to visualize low Z materials and biological samples that tend to have limited absorption contrast. Non-destructive X-ray microscopes uniquely characterize the microstructure of materials in simulated conditions in situ as well as the evolution of properties over time (4-D) and support a wide variety of in situ rigs for sub-micron imaging of samples up to inches in size in environmental chambers (triaxial, UCS and 1-D compression) and under varying conditions (Zeiss.com, 2016). RaaD enables the Xradia Versa to maintain high resolution as the space between the X-ray source and sample grows, whereas the resolution of conventional micro-CT architecture degrades when samples are placed in spacious in-situ chambers.



Figure 3.6. X-Ray microscopy facility for imaging geo-materials

## 3.3.2 Sample preparation

## 3.3.2.1 For SEM analysis

For the SEM analysis, 2 mm size coal particles were carefully obtained from the coal sample by tapping one end of the sample (in order not to damage the pore structure). The particles were then saturated under different  $CO_2$  pressures, similar to the test conditions used for the meso-scale sample saturation. Upon saturation of the samples, they were stored in a small container and sealed until the samples were taken to MCEM for sample preparation. Next, the samples were adhered onto double-sided adhesive carbon tape attached to a circular specimen stub (Figure 3.7). Three to four particles were adhered to each specimen tub and  $N_2$  gas was then spread all over the tub using a compressed air line to confirm the removal of loose particles. The specimens were double-coated with platinum (Pt) to enhance their conductivity and avoid the charging effect during exposure to the electron beam.



Figure 3.7. Specimens prepared for SEM analysis

## 3.3.2.2 For X-ray CT scanning

The non-destructive X-ray CT scanning process did not require any special sample preparation procedure. The meso-scale (54 mm in diameter and 108 mm high) reconstituted coal samples were scanned under the X-ray CT facility after completing the different fluid ( $CO_2$  and water) saturations. The CT scanning was done in three stages added together to achieve the108 mm sample height.
# 3.3.3 Experimental procedure

# 3.3.3.1 SEM analysis

The micro-structural changes in the natural coal samples saturated with CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> were observed by SEM analysis. Here, the specimens were viewed at 15 kV voltage with 4.5 spot size. The voltage and spot sizes used for the SEM analysis of brown coal samples were comparatively low values to avoid the charging effect produced by the build-up of electrons in the sample. It occurs when the number of electrons leaving the sample is less than those entering. As brown coal is an insulating material, the electrons have no escape path from the sample and this results in charging. Charging can cause many unusual side-effects, including bright flashing on the screen, image distortions, image shift and unusual contrast. Reducing the voltage, spot size or aperture and sample coating can minimise this charging effect. Further, the low-vacuum mode was used while operating the SEM machine, as brown coal is subjected to higher outgassing. Twelve to twenty SEM images were captured at different magnifications for each sample to clearly visualise and compare the changes in the pore structure. Figure 3.8 shows a sample holder of the FEI Quanta 3D, and Figure 3.9 presents a schematic of how SEM images are captured.



Figure 3.8. Sample holder of FEI Quanta 3D



Figure 3.9. Sample scanning and image display in SEM analysis

# 3.3.3.2 X-ray CT scanning

High-resolution images were also taken of the RC samples with unsaturated, water-saturated and CO<sub>2</sub>-saturated conditions. Image projections were acquired by rotating the load stage  $360^{\circ}$  around its vertical axis and the frame size of the projections was  $1024 \times 1024$  pixels. The scanning was carried out under full view mode using the scanning in Table 3.4, thus providing a fixed resolution of 60 microns for the qualitative analysis of all images. The images taken at the middle of each sample were used for the analysis to avoid any possible damage at the ends of the samples. Figure 3.10(a) shows a schematic of how the X-ray CT scanning images are captured and Figure 3.10(b) shows the sample set-up to capture images.

Parameter	Value/Description
Source-to-sample distance	200 mm
Detector-to-sample distance	57 mm from the central axis of the sample
Voltage	140 keV
Power	10 W
Lens	0.4X macro-detector

Table 3.4. Scanning parameters used to scan the samples







Figure 3.10. (a) X-ray CT image capture and (b) Sample set-up for image capture

# 3.4 Meso-scale testing

Meso-scale flow and strength experiments were conducted using the high-pressure tri-axial test rig, compressive strength testing apparatus and high-pressure saturation chambers available in the Deep Earth Energy Research Laboratory (DEERL) at Monash University (Ranjith and Perera, 2011). The following sections describe the methodology for the meso-scale experiments.

# 3.4.1 Instrumentation

# 3.4.1.1 High-pressure tri-axial test rig

A high-pressure tri-axial test rig (Figure 3.11) was used to conduct both flow and strength mesoscale experiments under representative down-hole pressures and temperature conditions for brown coal specimens. This set-up consists of a pressure cell which has the ability to withstand a 70 MPa confining pressure, 100 kN axial load and a maximum temperature of 80 <sup>o</sup>C. The loading unit comprises an S-type load cell and a loading frame capable of withstanding 100 kN. The loading cell placed between the top of the loading frame and the loading shaft applies the load on the sample when the cell base is moved upward. The direction and speed of cell base movement can be controlled using the load control unit (Figure 3.11) and the axial displacement is measured using an LVDT. The plumbing system consists of five major units: confining unit, gas injection unit, gas outlet unit, water injection unit and heating unit.



Figure 3.11. High-pressure tri-axial test rig used for sample testing

The confining unit is used to apply the required down-hole pressures to the samples and is achieved by pressurizing hydraulic oil. The oil is stored in an oil reservoir (Figure 3.12(a)) and a syringe pump (ISCO Teledyne – 260 D) is used to pressurize the oil after sending it to the pressure cell. The oil level variation in the syringe pump is recorded and used to obtain the volumetric strain of the tested coal specimens. The gas injection unit can inject both CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> into the sample. A compressed gas CO<sub>2</sub> bottle (D size - maximum pressure 5 MPa) is used to inject low-pressure CO<sub>2</sub> and is controlled by a pressure regulator. A CO<sub>2</sub> compressed liquefied gas bottle (G size maximum pressure 5.7 MPa) is used to inject high-pressure CO<sub>2</sub> and the higher pressures are achieved by an ALG-60 type air-driven gas booster (up to 50 MPa) (Haskel International) (Figure 3.12(b)). To inject N<sub>2</sub>, a compressed gas N<sub>2</sub> bottle (E size - maximum pressure 20 MPa) is used and the pressure is varied using a pressure regulator. For higher N<sub>2</sub> pressures, the above-mentioned gas booster is used. Similar to the advanced core-flooding apparatus, the outlet pressure is measured by a pressure transducer and the gas flow rate is measured by a MGC-1V3.0 type Ritter milli gas counter (Ritter Apparatebau) (Figure 3.12(c)). The water flow mass rate is measured by a Deshler bottle, which sits on an electronic balance (Figure 12(d)).

In addition to gas injection, the set-up is able to inject water up to a pressure of 35 MPa using a MP-350 hydraulic pump (Enerpac). To ensure the higher temperatures required in deep coal seams, a heating unit with a working temperature of 50  $^{0}$ C is used. It has a heating blanket (190 mm diameter and 200 mm in length) around the cell to apply the temperature to the sample and a 2 m long section of the upstream injection unit is wrapped using a heating tape to confirm the injection of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> (greater than 31.8  $^{0}$ C) into the sample. The temperature of both cell and tubing is controlled by a temperature control box. All the data acquired from the pressure transducers, LVDT, load cell, temperature unit, and gas outlet unit are translated from analogue to digital data using a DT9834-32-0-16-STP data translation module and recorded using QuickDAQ software. A schematic diagram of the apparatus with the aforementioned units is presented in Figure 3.13. Furthermore, this set-up has the ability to carry out high-pressure tri-axial strength tests, two-phase or three-phase flow tests, and hydro-fracturing using water or gas (N<sub>2</sub>/CO<sub>2</sub>), together with an acoustic emission facility for sedimentary rocks (see Section 3.4.1.5).



(a) Oil reservoir



(b) Gas booster



(c) Gas flow meter



(d) Water mass flow rate measurement unit

Figure 3.12. Components of high-pressure tri-axial test rig



# 3.4.1.2 Modified high pressure tri-axial test rig for CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM experiments

In order to conduct experiments on CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM, the existing high-pressure tri-axial test rig developed by Ranjith and Perera (2011) was modified by including a CH<sub>4</sub> injection unit upstream and a CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub> concentration measuring unit downstream.

# CH4 injection unit at upstream

A new gas line was added to the existing gas injection unit to inject  $CH_4$  into the coal samples (Figure 3.14). A 750 litre  $CH_4$  bottle (maximum pressure 15 MPa) was used with a purity of 99.95 % of  $CH_4$  and a pressure regulator was used to obtain the required pressures during testing. However, there are strict rules and regulations for using  $CH_4$  in laboratory-level testing, due to the risks associated with the flammability of  $CH_4$ . According to Occupational Health and Safety (OHS) guidelines, the safe volume of  $CH_4$  in a room is less than 4.4% of the room volume. Therefore, a simple calculation of the expected maximum  $CH_4$  level in the laboratory was done to ensure that the modified  $CH_4$  system met the safety requirements as follows.

The volume of the room	=	$12 \times 9 \times 4 \text{ m}^3$
	=	$432 \text{ m}^3$
Volume of CH <sub>4</sub> in bottle	=	$0.75 \text{ m}^3$

If the whole bottle leaked, the % of CH<sub>4</sub> that would leak into the room

Hence, theoretically an explosion would not occur even if the whole CH<sub>4</sub> volume of the bottle leaked into the room environment. However, CH<sub>4</sub> is lighter than air and can accumulate near the ceiling. Further, the percentage of CH<sub>4</sub> accumulating at the ceiling may be higher, depending on the air circulation in the room. Therefore, a CH<sub>4</sub> detector (Figure 3.15) was installed near the ceiling, reducing the overall risk to a very low level.

# CO2/CH4 concentration measurement unit at downstream

To identify and measure the concentration of  $CO_2$  and  $CH_4$  in the downstream gas-out line, a  $CO_2/CH_4$  infrared gas sensor (Gascard NG sensor by Edinburgh sensors) (Figure 3.15) was installed downstream after the Deshler bottle. This system includes automatic temperature and pressure corrections and enables real-time environmental condition measurements, thus providing true concentration readings and reliable measurement of target gases. The Gascard NG sensor head and electronics are mounted on a Eurocard printed circuit board (PCB) with a number of bit-

switches, which enable the user to control various aspects of the sensor's behaviour including analogue output and filter type selection. It is backward-compatible with outputs from existing Gascard generations and has on-board true RS232 communications along with the option of TCP/iP communications protocol. The Gascard NG has built-in features for multi-gas and multi-sensor operation, together with on-board data logging and has the flexibility to incorporate additional gas detection technologies. This system can ultimately provide the percentage of concentration of  $CO_2$  or  $CH_4$  in the downstream gas at prescribed time intervals (1 s in the present research).



(a) New CH<sub>4</sub> system

(b) CH<sub>4</sub> alarm system

(c) CH<sub>4</sub> detector



Figure 3.14. Components of new CH<sub>4</sub> system



(a) Gascard NG sensor



Figure 3.15. CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub> measurement unit at downstream

A schematic diagram (main components) of the modified high-pressure tri-axial test rig is shown in Figure 3.16. Figure 3.17 summarises the working capabilities of the high-pressure tri-axial test rig after the modifications. The test conditions used for the experiments on brown coal are explained in Chapters 4, 6 and 7.



Figure 3.16. Schematic diagram of the modified high-pressure tri-axial test rig



Figure 3.17. Summary of working capabilities of modified high-pressure tri-axial test rig

# **3.4.1.3** Compressive strength apparatus

A Shimadzu uniaxial compression/tension machine (AGS-X Series dual column electromechanical test frame – floor model) available in the DEERL at Monash University, Australia (Figure 3.18(a)) was used for the compressive strength tests and reconstituted sample preparation. The  $\pm 0.5$  % accuracy load cells with a wide range from 1/1 to 1/500 of the maximum capacity help improve testing efficiency because multiple tests can be performed without switching load cells and accessories. Furthermore, high-speed data sampling of up to 1 kHz ensures that every possible strength change is captured. The maximum capacity of the set-up is 300 kN and the tests were performed using the displacement control method at specified displacement rates. The axial displacement and the respective loads were recorded using DeFriend software and used to plot stress-strain graphs to obtain the respective strength parameters.

### 3.4.1.4 ARAMIS optical strain measurement system

An ARAMIS optical strain measurement system (by GOM), with two high-resolution cameras and a software system, was used to capture the strain behaviour during the load application in compression testing. ARAMIS is a non-contact and material-independent measuring system based on digital image correlation. It offers a stable solution for full-field and point-based analyses of test objects of just a few millimetres up to structural components of several meters in size. The system performs high-precision measurements with a 3-D measurement resolution in the sub-micrometre range, regardless of the specimen's geometry and temperature. For statically- or dynamically-loaded specimens and components, ARAMIS provides accurate 3-D coordinates, 3-D displacements, velocities, accelerations, surface strains and evaluation of 6 degrees of freedom (Gom.com, 2016).

A pair of cameras is used to record the deformation of the structure by tracing discrete correlation areas within stereo images, and the system attempts to counterpart the areas in the stereo images from the cameras at each time step. The ARAMIS 3D camera is a stereo camera system which delivers precise 3-D coordinates based on triangulation and using stochastic patterns or reference-point markers. In order to capture stereo images using the ARAMIS system, the test specimens should have adequate image variation in tone and contrast all over to exclusively identify the correlation areas. This was accomplished by painting the sample surface with matt white paint, followed by spreading a pattern of matt black paint dots on the surface (Figure 3.18(b)). Prior to testing, thorough calibration was carried out using a calibration plate with a known pattern of white dots on a black background. Once the cameras were calibrated, testing of actual specimens was commenced.



(a) Compression machine and the ARAMIS system



(b) Typical coal sample prepared for ARAMIS image capture

Figure 3.18. Set-up for meso-scale unconfined strength testing

# 3.4.1.5 Acoustic emission (AE) system

To identify the fracture propagation behaviour and strain energy release of the coal specimens under load application during the UCS testing, an advanced acoustic emission system (AES) manufactured by Physical Acoustic Corporation (PAC: MISTRAS-2001) was used. Generally, AE refers to the elastic waves emitted by materials undergoing microscopic changes of stress state. An AE waveform induced by a propagating crack conveys information regarding the location, crack growth distance, velocity and orientation of the crack (Wadley, 1986). An AE activity is endorsed to the rapid release of energy in a material and that energy release can be related to the energy content of the AE signal (Wasantha et al. 2014). These AE activities can be captured using AE sensors which first convert the mechanical signals from specimens under test to pre-amplified electrical signals and finally to a post-amplified AE count after a suitable filtration process.

Generally, the AE count refers to the number of times an AE signal amplitude exceeds a specified threshold value (refer to Figure 3.19). In the experiments, AE sensors were attached in series to the sample at either side of the specimen (Figure 3.20) to capture the AE activities. To easily attach the sensors and to obtain the same sensitivity for each sensor, an electron wax was used. Considering the brittleness of the brown coal samples, the AE trigger sensitivity was set to 60 dB. When the specimen was ready to be tested, both load application and the AE system were started simultaneously.



Figure 3.19. Definitions of different parameters of an AE signal (Roberts and Talebzadeh, 2003)



Figure 3.20. Coal sample prepared for capturing acoustic emission signals with AE sensors

# 3.4.1.6 High-pressure saturation chambers

The high-pressure saturation chamber (Figure 3.21) available in the DEERL (Lakmali and Ranjith, 2015) was used to saturate the coal samples at various CO<sub>2</sub> pressures prior to strength testing. This apparatus can be used to saturate samples up to 10 MPa saturation pressure and includes an advanced temperature control system (a thermal blanket and temperature control box) to maintain the system temperature, which can reach a maximum of 150  $^{0}$ C. CO<sub>2</sub> is injected using a G-size compressed liquefied gas bottle (maximum pressure 5.7 MPa) through a syringe pump (ISCO Teledyne – 500D). Inlet and outlet gas pressures are measured by pressure transducers and monitored until the end of each test series to check any pressure leakage from the cell. Five such pressure cells are available in the DEERL one of which can accommodate samples with a maximum diameter of 63 mm and a maximum sample height of 126 mm. Further, the cells can hold around 4 ~ 6 samples 38 mm in diameter and 76 mm in height and 10 ~ 12 samples 25 mm in diameter and 50 mm in height. The cells can be customized with a stirrer on the cell instead of the lid to saturate powder samples with a liquid (water or brine) while injecting CO<sub>2</sub> (Lakmali and Ranjith, 2015).



(b) High-pressure saturation chamber

Figure 3.21. High-pressure CO<sub>2</sub> saturation chamber

### 3.4.2 Sample preparation

# 3.4.2.1 Natural samples

The large coal blocks acquired from the Hazelwood open-cut coal mine were cored to a 38 mm diameter using the coring machine available in the DEERL (Figure 3.22(b)). The coring barrel consists of an end-diamond cutter and the coring rates can be easily adjusted to the required sample diameter and length. Both wet and dry coring can be performed and wet cutting was used for the present study to obtain smooth axial walls (in some cases dry cutting burns the coal sample). The cored coal samples were then cut to around 80 to 82 mm in height (slightly higher than the required coal sample height of 76 mm) using a diamond cutter available in the DEERL (Figure 3.22(c)). Wet cutting was used to cut the samples at very slow rates to avoid damage to the sample surface. After cutting, the sample surface was smoothened by grinding the two surfaces using a rock grinding machine (Figure 3.22(d)). To achieve two parallel smooth surfaces (for the application of axial compression during loading), after grinding one side of the sample, the whole V-block was rotated 180° to grind the other surface (Figure 3.22(d)). After grinding, the coal sample height was approximately 76 mm (Figure 3.22(e)). After the sample preparation process, all the samples were wrapped in polythene bags and kept in the fog room available in the Civil Engineering Department at Monash University to minimise natural moisture loss until they were used for the experiments.

# 3.4.2.2 Reconstituted (RC) samples

To study the effect of heterogeneity of coal using CO<sub>2</sub> injection, reconstituted (RC) samples were used, as RC samples are more homogeneous than natural samples. Further, previous studies (Jasinge 2010; De Silva 2013; Vishal & Singh 2013) have shown that the development of RC samples has the ability to assist in making useful correlations between the mechanical properties of coal. Furthermore, Jasinge (2010) (for brown coal) and Vishal & Singh (2013) (for black coal) developed a method of preparing reconstituted coal samples, which has focused mainly on no-binder reconstituted coal and was adopted for the present study. The apparatus used for RC sample preparation was a steel mould, 54 mm in diameter and 210 mm in height, with a cylindrical steel compaction ram. All the components of the steel mould, including the inner rim of the mould, base plate, seepage holes and compaction ram, were first cleaned. Once the steel mould was cleaned, the inner rim of the mould and base plate were greased. In addition, a thin layer of plastic wrap was fitted onto the base plate to ensure smooth recovery of the RC sample. The mould was then assembled by tightening the side and bottom bolts.



Figure 3.22. Coal sample preparation process for meso-scale tests (a) coal block as received, (b) coring process, (c) cutting process, (d) grinding process and (e) sample after preparation

To prepare the powdered coal, a similar process was used to that described by Jasinge (2010). Initially, the coal blocks were broken into smaller pieces and then crushed using a milling machine. Using a grinder, small pieces of coal were crushed into coal dust. The crushed coal was then sieved using a mechanical sieving machine to separate the coal powder less than 1 mm in size and the sieved coal was then stored in sealed plastic containers.

The moisture content of the powdered coal samples was measured according to ASTM: D3302 before using them for sample preparation, as the brown coal powder was used in its natural wet condition without additional water mixing to prepare the reconstituted meso-scale samples. Based on this standard, a coal powder weight of approximately 50 g was used to check the moisture content. The powder was spread evenly to a depth of 25 mm in a steel container to facilitate a short drying time. As mentioned in the standard, an air-drying oven is required to dry the coal powder. However, since this apparatus was not available, the coal powder was placed in a steel container which was positioned on top of an oven in a room with a temperature of 20 °C. This method was adopted to stimulate the air-drying conditions of an oven at no more than 10 °C above ambient

temperature. After each measurement of the coal powder weight, the powder was stirred to ensure adequate drying. This process continued over around a four-day period until there was no change in weight loss. The moisture content of the coal powder used in the sample preparation was found to be approximately 54%.

Next, for sample preparation, the coal powder was filled to the top of the steel mould and compacted in three layers. The surface was roughened after compacting each layer to ensure good bonding between layers. After the placement of each layer, the weight of the coal powder was measured using a weight scale. The first layer and second layer were compacted for approximately 25 and 30 minutes respectively, until displacement became roughly constant. Once the final layer was placed, the sample was then compacted for 24 hours using the Shimadzu uniaxial compression machine. Figure 3.23 depicts a typical displacement versus time graph of a RC sample under compaction. The compaction was assumed to reach the maximum once the displacement versus time curve achieved a constant plateau. Therefore, the coal placed in the mould for compaction remained under a constant compression load.



Figure 3.23. Displacement versus time of RC sample developed using 7 MPa compressive stress

Since the degree of consolidation is a time-dependent process, the duration the load is applied affects the sample density and mechanical properties. Therefore, it is crucial to compact the sample for a sufficient time to ensure adequate surface contact between particles and an increase in density, strength and elastic modulus (Jasinge, 2010).

After completing various trial RC samples, it was found that a compaction stress of 7 MPa and a displacement rate of 3 mm/min produced mechanical properties close to those of the natural coal specimens. Following compaction, the sample was extracted from the mould using a hydraulic press. The bottom plate of the steel mould was removed to enable the sample to be pushed out. The hydraulic press applied a small load on the top of the sample which allowed the sample to be extracted from the open bottom end. Once the sample was removed, the weight and dimensions of

the sample were measured. The samples were then sealed in plastic bags and placed in the fog room. The sample weight and dimensions were recorded for the next two days to check for swelling and moisture loss.

The samples produced using a mould size of 210 mm were approximately 160 mm in length with a diameter of 54 mm when extruded from the mould. Therefore, to achieve a length of at least twice the diameter, the RC samples were cut to approximately 115 mm. To achieve smooth top and bottom surfaces, the surfaces were ground. This resulted in the RC samples having a length of approximately 113 mm. RC samples 54 mm in diameter by 113 mm high were used for the laboratory tests, and the sample dimensions were recorded before each test. Figure 3.24 shows a flow diagram of how the RC samples were prepared using the methods described.



Figure 3.24. Meso-scale reconstituted sample preparation procedure

#### 3.4.3 Experimental procedure

#### 3.4.3.1 Permeability tests

Permeability tests were conducted using  $CO_2$  injections at different injection pressures representing different phase conditions of  $CO_2$ . Here, the un-drained condition was maintained to determine the sample permeability using a pressure-transient approach to obtain the super-critical  $CO_2$  injection into the sample and this is further explained in Section 3.6. N<sub>2</sub> was injected to quantify the coal mass changes undergone with  $CO_2$  adsorption, as N<sub>2</sub> is a comparatively less adsorbing gas than  $CO_2$ . Hence, comparing the permeabilities for the same injection pressures of  $CO_2$  and N<sub>2</sub> under the same confinement and temperature assisted in finding the  $CO_2$  sorptioninduced permeability variations in the coal sample. Gas injection was conducted at the constant pressure required and the corresponding pressure development at downstream was monitored and recorded at one second intervals, using the advanced data acquisition system. The experiments were repeated for several confining pressures to observe the permeability variations of the brown coal specimens at different depths. More details of the experimental procedure are discussed in Chapter 4.

#### 3.4.3.2 Strength tests: unconfined compressive strength (UCS)

Using the pressure chambers (Figure 3.21) available at DEERL, samples were saturated at various  $CO_2$  pressures (from 0 – 10 MPa representing both sub- and super-critical  $CO_2$ ) prior to testing at a constant temperature (35 <sup>o</sup>C in the present study). For the  $CO_2$  saturation, samples were first positioned inside the pressure cell (2 or 3 samples at a time) and gas/liquid was then injected into the pressure cell until the required saturation pressure was reached. All the samples were saturated for several time intervals (21 days, 3 months, 6 months, 9 months and 1 year) to observe the  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced coal matrix strength variation with time. After the saturation period, the pressure cell was gradually de-pressurized at a rate of 0.02 MPa/min to avoid possible damage to the physical structure of the coal specimens due to sudden changes in pressure. After removing the samples from the saturation chamber, they were covered with plastic wrap and tested within around 20 minutes to avoid any possible changes to the saturation state of the samples.

The UCS tests were conducted according to the ASTM standards (Brown, 1981) using the compression machine (Figure 3.18(a)). The strain rate was maintained at 0.1 mm/min for all the tests. The data acquisition system recorded the applied loads on the coal specimens with time, and ARAMIS and AE systems were used to obtain the corresponding strains and fracture patterns during sample failure. When the specimen was ready to be tested, load application, the ARAMIS

system and the AE system were started simultaneously to obtain consistent data points from the three machines. More details of the experimental procedure are discussed in Chapters 6 and 7.

#### 3.4.3.3 Strength tests: tri-axial strength

The high-pressure tri-axial test rig in the DEERL (Figure 3.11) was used to conduct the triaxial tests on the brown coal samples. First the confining pressure (10 MPa) and temperature (35  $^{\circ}$ C) were applied to the coal specimen and then the respective CO<sub>2</sub> flow was permeated through the sample (drained conditions). Once the flow upstream and downstream became stable, the specimen was left for another 3 to 4 days to allow the CO<sub>2</sub> to adsorb well into the sample. The load was then applied at a strain rate of 0.1 mm/min until failure. The tests were replicated 2 to 3 times to confirm the experimental observations. The load applied with axial strain was recorded using the advanced data acquisition system. More details of the experimental procedure are discussed in Chapter 6.

### 3.5 Macro-scale testing

Macro-scale flow experiments were conducted using the advanced core-flooding apparatus available in DEERL at Monash University (De Silva, 2013, De Silva et al., 2013). The following sections describe the methodology for the macro-scale experiments.

# 3.5.1 Instrumentation

Figure 3.25 shows the advanced core-flooding apparatus used for the macro-scale tests. This setup consists of a high-pressure plumbing network which can hold pressures up to 35 MPa. The pressure cell can accommodate a sample 1 m in length and 203 mm in diameter and withstand a maximum of 25 MPa working pressure. The axial stress is applied using a hydraulic loading system which can maintain up to 100 T (~30 MPa) (Figure 3.25). The system is provided with CO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub> and water injection units to conduct single- and multi-phase flow experiments under both drained and undrained conditions. A compressed liquefied CO<sub>2</sub> bottle (G size, maximum pressure 5.7 MPa) is used to inject CO<sub>2</sub> and a compressed gas N<sub>2</sub> bottle (G size, maximum pressure 15 MPa) is used to inject  $N_2$  into the specimen. The CO<sub>2</sub> bottle is placed on a digital platform scale (precision up to 0.01g) to measure the amount of  $CO_2$  by weight injected into the sample, which can be used to investigate the CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacities of the coal specimens under various test conditions. Both the gasses and water are injected into the samples using a syringe pump (ISCO Teledyne -260 D) (Figure 3.25). There is a gas outlet unit downstream to measure the pressures and the flow rates of the gas coming out of the specimen in the pressure cell. The outlet pressure is measured by a pressure transducer and the gas flow rate is measured by a MGC-1V3.0 type Ritter milli gas counter (Ritter Apparatebau).

Intermediate pressure taps are available at 350, 600 and 850 mm from the upstream injection point to observe the pressure development along the sample (Figure 3.25). A maximum temperature of 100 <sup>o</sup>C can be applied to the pressure cell to represent different underground thermal conditions and this is applied by four heat blankets wrapped around the pressure cell (Figure 3.25) and controlled by a temperature control box. A LVDT and a string gauge are used to measure the axial displacement of the specimen during testing. The data collected from the pressure transducers, the LVDT and the string gauges are transferred to the computer using a DT9834-32-0-16-STP data translation module and recorded using QuickDAQ software. This apparatus has the ability to perform hydro-fracturing or other forms of fracturing using foam or non-viscous fluid on sedimentary rocks. A schematic diagram of the apparatus with the aforementioned units is provided in Figure 3.26 and a summary of the working capabilities of the apparatus is shown in Figure 3.27.



Figure 3.25. Advanced core-flooding apparatus





Figure 3.27. Summary of the working capabilities of the advanced core-flooding system

# 3.5.2 Sample preparation

Due to the difficulty in obtaining a natural coal block 1 m in length, in this experiment reconstituted coal samples were made using powdered brown coal. Further, it is advantageous to use reconstituted specimens to avoid the highly heterogeneous nature of coal (Jasinge, 2010). To prepare the powdered coal, a similar process was used to that described in Section 3.4.2.2. The coal powder used in the sample preparation consisted of particle sizes less than 1 mm with a corresponding well-graded particle size distribution similar to that described for the meso-scale sample preparation, and the moisture content of the powdered samples was measured according to ASTM: D3302, as described in Section 3.4.2.2

The samples for macro-scale testing were prepared in three stages using the powdered coal using similar procedure as for the meso-scale RC samples. First, the required axial stress (11 and 17 MPa were used for the present study) was applied on 1/3 of the coal core sample and compacted for around 30 minutes (here 30 minutes was found to be sufficient for satisfactory compaction of the 1/3 coal layer). The next 1/3 of the coal sample was then added to the cell and compacted for around 30 minutes, followed by the rest of the sample under the same axial stress. Between each compaction, the surface of the coal was disturbed and roughened to ensure sample consistency with good bonding between the layers. The whole coal sample was then consolidated for a sufficient time (around 7 days) and the consolidation level was observed by using a string strain gauge and LVDTs. In order to confirm the fully consolidated condition of the sample, a consolidation profile was used (Figure 3.28(a)) and the water released from the sample was

observed (until zero water release from the sample) (Figure 3.28(b)). Permeability testing was conducted only after the consolidation level became stable. After confirming the fully compacted condition of the sample, permeability tests were initiated, maintaining the system temperature at the required constant value (38  $^{\circ}$ C for the present study to obtain super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> conditions). Figure 3.28(c) shows a sample after being extruded from the cell at the end of an experiment.



(c) An extruded sample from the apparatus at end of an experiment

Figure 3.28. Sample behaviour at different stages of macro-scale sample preparation

# 3.5.3 Experimental procedure

Permeability tests were conducted using  $CO_2$  injections at different injection pressures representing different phase conditions of  $CO_2$ . Here, the un-drained condition was maintained to determine the sample permeability using a pressure-transient approach to obtain the super-critical  $CO_2$  injection into the sample (under the drained condition downstream pressure is always atmospheric and therefore the super-critical condition cannot be achieved) (Perera et al., 2011). Similar to the meso-scale flow testing, N<sub>2</sub> was injected to quantify the coal mass changes undergone with  $CO_2$  adsorption, as N<sub>2</sub> is a comparatively less adsorbing gas than  $CO_2$ . Gas injection was conducted at the constant pressure required and the corresponding pressure development throughout the sample (at 350, 600 and 850 mm from the injection point) and downstream was monitored and recorded, at one second intervals, using the advanced data acquisition system. More details of the experimental procedure are discussed in Chapter 5.

#### **3.6 Experimental permeability calculations**

All the meso- and macro-scale flow studies conducted during this research program used the undrained flow conditions at downstream instead of drained conditions. When drained conditions are used, the downstream pressure is at atmospheric conditions and hence it is not possible to obtain the higher CO<sub>2</sub> pressure conditions (super-critical) along the entire sample. In contrast, undrained conditions allow the downstream to develop pressure, resulting in higher pressure conditions even at downstream. Many researchers (Chen et al., 2011; Cui et al., 2009; Feng et al., 2016a; Feng et al., 2016b; Pan et al., 2010; Perera et al., 2011a; Perera et al., 2011b; Siriwardane et al., 2009; Vishal and Singh, 2015; Wang et al., 2011) have used undrained conditions to conduct flow tests on coal specimens. Therefore, undrained conditions were adopted for this research work. Under undrained conditions, pressure development at downstream is monitored and pressure gradient with time is used for the permeability calculations. Two types of equations were used to calculate the undrained coal permeability in this study. The first method was the flow tests which were conducted until the pressure (or flow) reached a steady state and Eqs. [3.1a,b] (Perera et al., 2011b; Siriwardane et al., 2009; Vishal and Singh, 2015) were used for the calculations:

$$Q = \left(\frac{dP}{dt}\right) \times \beta V_d \tag{3.1a}$$

where, Q is the flow rate through the specimen,  $V_d$  is the downstream volume,  $\beta$  is the adiabatic compressibility of the gas, and dP/dt is the rate of change in the downstream pressure with time. Then, Darcy's law (Eq. [3.1b]) was used to calculate the corresponding permeability:

$$k = \frac{2QP_{o}\mu L}{A(P_{i}^{2} - P_{o}^{2})}$$
[3.1b]

where, Q,  $\mu$ ,  $P_o$ , and  $P_i$  are the gas flow rate through the coal specimen, the viscosity of the fluid, the downstream pressure and the upstream pressure, respectively. The specimen has a crosssectional area, A, and mean length, L and permeability, k.

The brown coal samples used for the flow tests took more time to reach the steady-state pressure conditions and in some cases it took around three weeks to 7 weeks under higher effective stresses. Chen et al. (2011), Cui et al. (2009), Feng et al. (2016a), Feng et al. (2016b), Pan et al. (2010) and Wang et al. (2011) used the transient method to calculate the permeability of coal

during flows of different fluids, such as CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub>, N<sub>2</sub> and He. The transient method requires a shorter duration, which is more feasible for rock masses like coal with lower permeabilities (Pan et al., 2010). In this method, the pressure decay between upstream and downstream vessels through the specimen is used to determine the permeability through the sample upon the variation of either pore pressure or confining pressure reaching an equilibrium state. Brace et al. (1968) first developed the pressure decay approach for tight rocks, however that approach does not account for the sorption effect on coal during the permeation of gases like CO<sub>2</sub>. Feng et al. (2016a) suggested that the modified pressure decay approach proposed by Cui et al. (2009) can accurately calculate the permeability of sorptive rocks like coal, and this approach was therefore employed in the present study to calculate the brown coal's permeability using transient method (refer to Eqs. [3.2a] and [3.2b]).

$$\frac{(P_u - P_d)}{\Delta P_0} = e^{-\alpha t}$$
[3.2a]

$$k = \frac{\alpha \mu \beta L}{A f_1 \left(\frac{1}{V_u} + \frac{1}{V_d}\right)}$$
[3.2b]

where,  $P_u$  is upstream vessel pressure,  $P_d$  is downstream vessel pressure,  $\Delta P_0$  is the step change of pressure in vessels at time = 0, *t* is time, *k* is permeability of the specimen, *A* is the cross-section area of the sample, *L* is the length of the sample,  $\mu$  is the viscosity of the injecting fluid,  $\beta$  is the adiabatic compressibility of the injecting fluid, and  $V_u$  and  $V_d$  are the volume of upstream and downstream pressure vessels, respectively.

Here, 
$$f_1 = \frac{\theta_1^2}{a+b}$$
 [3.2c]

where,  $\theta_1$  is the first solution of the transcendental equation,

$$\tan \theta = \frac{(a+b)\theta}{\theta^2 - ab}$$
[3.2d]

In Eq. [3.2d], the *a* and *b* parameters are the gas storage capacity ratios of samples with upstream and downstream reservoirs and can be defined as follows (Eqs. [3.2e,f]).

$$a = \frac{V_p(1+f_a)}{V_u}$$
[3.2e]

$$b = \frac{V_p(1+f_a)}{V_d}$$
[3.2f]

where,  $f_a$  is the ratio of effective porosity contributed by adsorption ( $\emptyset_a$ ) and the porosity ( $\emptyset$ ) of the coal specimen. The  $\emptyset_a$  can be calculated by Eq. [3.2g] using the adsorption parameters of the sample for the respective gases at experimental pressures.

$$\phi_a = \frac{\rho_s(1-\phi)}{V_{std}\beta\rho} \frac{V_L P_L}{(P_L+P)^2}$$
[3.2g]

where,  $\rho_s$  is sample density,  $\rho$  is the gas density,  $V_{std}$  is the mole volume of gas at standard temperature and pressure (22.413E-3 m<sup>3</sup>/mol), *P* is the pore pressure and  $V_L$  and  $P_L$  are Langmuir constants for volume and pressure, respectively. The permeability of the sample is calculated by plotting the pressure decay curves (in semi-log scale) with time. By substituting the slope of the resulting line "- $\alpha$ " of the pressure decay curves in Eq. [3.2b], the permeability of the sample was obtained.

For both the steady-state approach and the transient approach, substituting the accurate injecting fluid properties is essential. Therefore, the injecting fluid properties, adiabatic compressibility and viscosity of the fluid for different pressure and temperature conditions, were obtained from the REFPROP database (McLinden et al. 1998).

The accuracy of the permeability calculations using the steady-state and transient approach was checked using N<sub>2</sub> gas injection (a comparatively more non-adsorbing gas than CO<sub>2</sub>) at 2 MPa injecting pressure under 8 MPa confinement. The permeability tests were conducted under both drained and un-drained conditions and the permeability values obtained under the two conditions were compared. The undrained permeability test was conducted first. Figure 3.29 shows the corresponding permeability values. According to the figure, throughout the injection period permeability remains almost constant. This undrained test was then repeated for 3, 4, and 5 MPa injecting conditions and un-drained permeability values were obtained using Eqs. [3.1a,b] and [3.2a,g]. The permeability values were then compared with the permeability values obtained under the drained condition. Under the drained condition, steady-state flow rates were measured using a milli-gas counter to calculate the permeability using Eq. [3.1b]. Figure 3.30 compares the permeability values obtained under drained and undrained conditions. According to the figure, the undrained permeability calculation can predict the permeability of the coal specimen accurately and can therefore be used for permeability calculations.



Figure 3.29. Permeability variation with time for 8 MPa confinement and 2 MPa N<sub>2</sub> injection (here Method 1 is the steady-state pressure approach and Method 2 is the transient approach)



Figure 3.30. Validation of permeability calculated using the drained measurements, steady-state pressure approach (Method 1) and transient approach (Method 2)

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#### **3.8 Chapter summary**

To date, little attention has been given to brown coal, in particular Australian brown coal, for  $CO_2$ -ECBM studies due to the unlikely existence of brown coal in deep geological formations where geo-sequestration is considered workable. However, recent surveys have confirmed the presence of brown coal seams at un-mineable depths, which can be used for the purpose of geo-sequestration. Hence, brown coal samples from the Hazelwood open-cut coal mine at Morwell, Gippsland, Victoria, Australia were used for the present work to conduct experiments. Experiments were conducted at micro-, meso- and macro-scale to obtain a detailed view of the coal matrix changes during  $CO_2$  storage.

Micro-scale tests were conducted to observe the micro-structural changes in coal samples under different CO<sub>2</sub> saturation conditions. The FEI Quanta 3D microscope at the MCEM facility and the X-Ray microscopy facility for imaging geo-materials (XMFIG) at Monash University eres used to conduct the micro-scale analysis of the brown coal samples. For SEM analysis, the sample sizes were less than 2 mm and they were viewed under a low vacuum to avoid outgassing. Low voltage and spot sizes were used to carry out SEM analysis to minimise the charging effect of the coal particles. For CT scanning, reconstituted coal samples (38 mm in diameter and 76 mm in height) were used and viewed under full-view mode using a macro-detector.

Meso-scale experiments were conducted for both flow and strength tests using natural coal samples (38 mm in diameter and 76 mm in height). Flow tests were carried out using the high-pressure tri-axial test rig and, similar to the macro-scale tests, both CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> were injected under various confining pressures to represent different depths. The same set-up was used to conduct the tri-axial strength tests for brown coal samples saturated at different CO<sub>2</sub> pressures to investigate seam integrity under CO<sub>2</sub> exposure. UCS tests were carried out on samples saturated at different CO<sub>2</sub> pressures for different time periods to determine the long-term effect of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling on the brown coal samples, using the ARAMIS optical strain system and an AE system.

For the macro-scale experiments, an advanced core-flooding apparatus was used which can accommodate a coal sample 203 mm in diameter and 1000 mm in length. Reconstituted brown coal samples were used for the tests due to the difficulty in finding natural brown coal blocks in such sizes and to avoid the heterogeneity of coal. Both  $CO_2$  and  $N_2$  were used to compare the  $CO_2$  adsorption effect, and these gases were injected under different axial stresses to observe flow behaviour along the coal sample. The amount of  $CO_2$  injected was monitored to quantify the  $CO_2$  storage capacity of the coal.

The experimental permeability tests were conducted under undrained test conditions and the permeability was calculated using two methods. The samples where the downstream pressure development reached the steady state used the steady-state pressure approach to obtain the flow rates, coupled with Darcy's equation. For other permeability tests, the pressure decay approach modified for sorption was used.

# Part 2

# Investigation of variations of coal flow properties during carbon dioxide sequestration

# Part 2: Investigation of variations of coal flow properties during carbon dioxide sequestration

 $CO_2$  sequestration during ECBM process affects both hydro-mechanical properties of coal mass. Hence, the main attention was paid for the  $CO_2$  sequestration induced coal mass flow ability variations and reports the meso-scale and macro-scale experimentations coupled with micro-scale experimentations and their outcomes in this part of the thesis. Mainly, Victorian brown coal (low rank coal) was used for the experiments and the results were compared with the high rank coal results in literature. From the findings of Chapter 2, it was evident that the coal mass flow properties were highly influenced by coal mass properties and injecting fluid properties during  $CO_2$  sequestration. Hence, it would be noteworthy to investigate the effect of those effective factors on flow properties of coal in the course of  $CO_2$  injection. The findings of the studies conducted are presented in this section of the thesis as follows.



# PART 2 - CHAPTER 4

Meso-scale studies of coal flow properties during carbon dioxide sequestration using natural coal specimens
# **Publications included in Chapter 4**

Chapter 4 includes four papers. The details are as follows.

# Chapter 4.2

**Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG, Zhang XG (2017). Super-critical carbon dioxide flow behaviour in low rank coal: A meso-scale experimental study. *J CO*<sub>2</sub> *Utilization* (under review).

# Chapter 4.3

**Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG (2017). Effect of effective stress and coal matrix swelling on coal flow behaviour during  $CO_2$  sequestration. *Journal of CO\_2 Utilization* (under review).

# Chapter 4.5

**Ranathunga AS,** Perera MSA, Ranjith PG, Zhang XG (2017). The influence of CO<sub>2</sub> properties and reservoir depth on coal matrix swelling: A meso-scale experimental study using low rank coal. *Energy Fuel* (under review).

# Chapter 4.6

**Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG (2017). A review and model development for estimation of gas adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling. *Int J of Energy Research* (under review).

# 4. Meso-scale studies on coal flow properties during carbon dioxide sequestration using natural coal

# 4.1 Overview

This chapter presents the outcomes of meso-scale studies conducted using natural brown coal to investigate flow property variation due to  $CO_2$  sequestration to fulfil objective 1 of the research work. A series of meso-scale (samples 38 mm in diameter and 76 mm high) core flooding tests were conducted to tests the influence of different effective parameters on the coal mass flow behaviour. The results are presented as follows in this chapter.

# Section 4.2 - How do injecting CO<sub>2</sub> properties and in situ stresses affect coal mass flow behaviour?

As discussed in Chapter 2, both coal mass properties and injecting gas properties affect flow behaviour in the coal matrix. Therefore, this section of Chapter 4 is dedicated to the investigation of the influence of in situ stresses (coal mass properties: depth) and  $CO_2$  phase and pressure (injecting gas properties) on low-rank Victorian brown coal.

This section of the chapter is the following paper:

**Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG, Zhang XG (2017). Super-critical carbon dioxide flow behaviour in low rank coal: A meso-scale experimental study. *J CO*<sub>2</sub> *Utilization* (under review).

# Section 4.3 - How can the individual effects of effective stress and sorption-induced strain on the evolution of coal permeability be evaluated?

In Section 4.2, it was observed that both effective stress and sorption-induced strain (swelling) collective contribute to permeability variations in coal mass. Therefore, an effort was made to distinguish the effective stress-induced and sorption strain-induced permeability variations in coal specimens and the individual effect of these factors in altering coal permeability during CO<sub>2</sub> permeation.

This section of the chapter is the following paper:

**Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG (2017). Effect of effective stress and coal matrix swelling on coal flow behaviour during CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration. *J of CO<sub>2</sub> Utilization* (under review).

# Section 4.4 - How does the temperature alter CO<sub>2</sub> permeability in coal?

According to Chapter 2, higher temperatures have a positive influence on coal permeability during  $CO_2$  injection, due to the reduced adsorption potential to the coal matrix at elevated temperatures

in high rank coal. Therefore, it is interesting to identify whether low rank coal behaves similarly at higher temperatures. This is the subject of this section of the chapter.

A conference paper was produced from this section of the chapter as follows:

**Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG (2014). An Experimental Study to Investigate Temperature Effect on Permeability of Victorian Brown Coal during CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration, ISRM International Symposium and 8th Asian Rock Mechanics Symposium (ARMS8), Sapporo, Japan, 14-16 October, 2014; Paper No. ARMS8\_PO-82.

# Section 4.5 - How does carbon dioxide adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling vary for various CO<sub>2</sub> properties and reservoir depths?

Section 4.2 and 4.3 highlighted that coal matrix swelling is one of the main reasons for coal permeability reductions, and it varies with  $CO_2$  pressure and reservoir depth. According to the research literature (refer to Chapter 2), coal matrix swelling varies with  $CO_2$  pressure and reservoir depth and this variation results in different permeability values for high rank coal. However, the behaviour of low rank coal in this respect has not yet been studied comprehensively. This is the subject of this section.

This section of the chapter is the following paper:

**Ranathunga AS,** Perera MSA, Ranjith PG, Zhang XG (2017). The influence of CO<sub>2</sub> properties and reservoir depth on coal matrix swelling: A meso-scale experimental study using low rank coal. *Energy Fuel* (under review).

# Section 4.6 - How can the various gas adsorption-induced coal matrix swellings in coal be estimated?

There are several models available to predict coal matrix swelling with gas adsorption, however they do not consider all the factors which influence coal matrix swelling. Therefore, an analytical approach was used to estimate coal mass swelling under different effective factors which have been found to be the most influential on sorption-induced strain using the modified D-R model for swelling.

This section of the chapter is the following paper:

**Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG (2017). A review and model development for estimation of gas adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling. *Int J of Energy Research* (under review).

# 4.2 How do injecting CO<sub>2</sub> properties and in situ stresses affect coal mass flow behaviour?

The permeability of any material reveals its flow ability and was studied in this section by conducting a series of meso-scale core flooding experiments on low-rank brown coal from the Gippsland basin. The main objective of this study was to investigate the sub- and super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> flow behaviour in low rank brown coal during CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration. Both sub- and super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> was permeated through the coal specimen to study how the different chemical and physical properties in both phases affect the permeability through the material. Further, N<sub>2</sub> (a less adsorbing gas than CO<sub>2</sub>) was used to distinguish the coal matrix responses during CO<sub>2</sub> permeation. Three different confinements (11, 14 and 17 MPa) were utilized to represent different reservoir depths (approximately 400, 500 and 600 m). The results were compared with high rank coal data in the research literature to identify the effect of coal rank on the CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration-related variation of coal mass flow ability. Further, SEM analysis was conducted to gain better insights into the micro-structural changes during flow tests.

This section of the chapter is the following paper:

**Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG, Zhang XG (2017). Super-critical carbon dioxide flow behaviour in low rank coal: A meso-scale experimental study. *J CO*<sub>2</sub> *Utilization* (under review).

# Super-critical carbon dioxide flow behaviour in low rank coal: A meso-scale experimental study

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### Abstract

The carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) adsorbed in coal seams during CO<sub>2</sub>-enhanced coal bed methane recovery (CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM) causes substantial coal matrix alterations, resulting in significantly reduced flow performance. Many studies have been conducted to date on the effect of CO<sub>2</sub> phase on coal mass permeability. However, the effect of coal rank on these permeability changes with CO<sub>2</sub> phase has not yet been studied. Therefore, the main aim of this study is to investigate how the influence of CO<sub>2</sub> phase condition on coal flow performance varies with rank. A series of tri–axial permeability tests was conducted using Australian brown coal samples for both CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> under various confinements and injections at 35  $^{\circ}$ C. The results were then compared with those for high-rank coal reported in the literature. According to the test results, greater coal micro-structure rearrangement occurs with super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption, resulting in lower permeability in coal, regardless of rank. However, this CO<sub>2</sub> phase influence is much greater for high-rank coal. Although coal permeability reduces with depth for any rank of coal, this depth effect reduces with increasing rank. Furthermore, although N<sub>2</sub> has the ability to recover CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced swelled areas in coal regardless of rank, that capability is much greater for high-rank coal.

Keywords: brown coal, CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration, coal rank, coal matrix swelling, permeability

### 4.2.1 Introduction and background

Of the various  $CO_2$  mitigation options,  $CO_2$ -enhanced coal bed methane (ECBM) recovery is being implemented and tested as a viable option to reduce the amount of  $CO_2$  in the earth's atmosphere, while recovering a valuable energy product: coal bed methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) (Baran et al., 2013; Cuéllar-Franca and Azapagic, 2015; Ranathunga et al., 2014a; White et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2016). The  $CO_2$ -ECBM process involves introducing  $CO_2$  through an injecting well into deep coal seams, in which  $CO_2$  acts as a displacing gas that allows the  $CH_4$  already adsorbed in the coal seam to be desorbed, and eventually collected through a recovery well. Ultimately, the extracted methane gas can be stored and used to produce energy in a cost-effective and environmentally-friendly way (Ranathunga et al., 2014). However, coal matrix swelling upon  $CO_2$  adsorption into the matrix creates many issues in the  $CO_2$ -ECBM process, because this coal matrix swelling causes significant alterations in petro-physical properties (permeability, strength, elastic modulus, etc.). These cause reductions in  $CO_2$  injectivity into the coal seam and add risk to the process by increasing the risk of possible  $CO_2$  leakage into the surrounding aquifers (Masoudian, 2016; Pan et al., 2010; Perera and Ranjith, 2012; Vishal et al., 2013).

Coal has a dual porosity system, which is composed of micro-pores (matrix porosity) and macro-pores (the cleat system). Although the micro-pores of the coal structure account for a large percentage of its total porosity, macro-pores contribute significantly to seam permeability (Busch and Gensterblum, 2011). Basically, the gas transportation in any coal seam follows three steps: 1) gas transport through the macro-pores (cleat system), 2) gas diffusion into the micro-pores from the macro-pores and 3) gas adsorption into the micro-pores/desorption from the micro-pores (Harpalani and Schraufnagel, 1990). During CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM, the desorption of coal bed methane with the injection of CO<sub>2</sub> into the coal matrix is due to the higher attraction and stronger Van der Waals bonds between the coal mass and CO<sub>2</sub> compared with the coal mass and CH<sub>4</sub> (Harpalani and Schraufnagel, 1990; Levine, 1993), which is also one of the reasons for the stable storage of  $CO_2$ in coal reservoirs. However, coal's polymer-like structure is greatly influenced by the contacting gases or solvents and is subjected to swelling when CO<sub>2</sub> is adsorbed into the micro-pores (Day et al., 2010). This coal matrix swelling creates large strains between the adsorbing CO<sub>2</sub> gas layer and the macro-pores or cleat walls (Perera et al., 2011a) and as a result, the existing pore space for CO<sub>2</sub> transportation is reduced, and coal mass permeability eventually declines (Gathitu et al., 2009; Perera et al., 2011b).

According to De Silva and Ranjith (2014), coal seam permeability must be more than 1 mD for successful and economical CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration. However, according to recent laboratoryscale experiments (Anggara et al., 2013; Jasinge et al., 2011; Pan et al., 2010; Perera et al., 2011; Ranathunga et al., 2015; Siriwardane et al., 2009; Vishal and Singh, 2015; Wang et al., 2015) and field scale projects (Fujioka et al., 2010; Mavor et al., 2004; Reeves and O'Neill, 1989; Syed et al., 2013), maintaining the favourable conditions required for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and ECBM recovery is challenging, due to CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling. Therefore, many studies have been conducted to date to investigate the coal mass petro-physical property variations which occur with CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling under different in-situ conditions, such as coal seam properties and injecting gas properties. Previous research shows that the swelling process is affected by coal seam properties, including coal seam temperature (Bae and Bhatia, 2006; Perera et al., 2012), coal rank (Reucroft and Sethuraman, 1987; Walker Jr et al., 1988) and depth of CO<sub>2</sub> injection (Pan et al., 2010; Perera et al., 2011b; Vishal and Singh, 2015), and the injecting gas properties, including CO<sub>2</sub> phase and pressure (Anggara et al., 2013; Baran et al., 2013; Day et al., 2010; Harpalani and Chen, 1997; Perera et al., 2011b). Table 4.1 summarises some previous research on the permeability variations caused by coal matrix swelling with different effective factors (coal seam properties and injecting gas properties).

According to Table 4.1, coal CO<sub>2</sub> permeability is greatly altered at higher injection pressures and higher temperatures which exist at greater depths. CO<sub>2</sub> exists in its super-critical state (CO<sub>2</sub> critical point - 7.38 MPa and 31.8<sup>o</sup>C) in favourable coal seams for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration (beyond ~ 800 m) (Oldenburg, 2006). This super-critical  $CO_2$  has a higher adsorption capacity than sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> and creates greater coal matrix swelling (Day et al., 2010; Perera et al., 2011a). Further, significant CO<sub>2</sub> permeability reduction has been identified in existing studies during the CO<sub>2</sub> phase transition from sub- to super-critical (refer to Table 4.1). This indicates the importance of selecting a coal seam with suitable physical properties to achieve operational CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in coal. However, studies conducted to date on how super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration performance varies with coal rank at depths applicable for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration are deficient (refer to Table 1). Although several studies (Pan et al., 2010; Perera et al., 2011b; Vishal and Singh, 2015) have been conducted to identify super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration performance in high-rank coal, much less attention has been given to low-rank coal in this respect. Australia has a number of low-rank coal resources (White et al. 2005) and the CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration process may be applicable to enhance methane production from them. An effort was therefore made to investigate the effect of CO<sub>2</sub> phase and pressure on the flow properties of low-rank coal using Australian brown coal.

Several previous studies (Perera et al., 2011b; Siriwardane et al., 2009; Kiyama et al., 2011) conducted on high rank coals have reported that  $N_2$  has the potential to enhance  $CO_2$  permeability in the coal mass by reversing the  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling. When  $N_2$  is injected into the coal mass, it remains a free gas as it has much lower adsorption potential than  $CO_2$  (Day et al., 2010) in the fracture space. This creates an imbalance between the sorbed and free gas phases and eventually reduces the partial pressure of  $CO_2$ , resulting in the release of  $CO_2$  from the coal mass (Reeves, 2003). This release of  $CO_2$  molecules from the coal matrix can therefore partially recover the reversible swelling by the physical adsorption of  $CO_2$  (Kiyama et al., 2011). Therefore, an effort was made to investigate the potential of  $N_2$  to enhance  $CO_2$  permeability in low-rank coal.

Coal seam properties					
Effective	ffective Previous studies and findings			Ref.	
factors	]	<b>Fest conditions</b>	Results		
Depth (confining pressure)	Low rank coal: Confining pressures – 3 to 12 MPa Injection pressures – 1 to 3.5 MPa Temperature – room temperature		Around 10 to 50% permeability reduction when confining pressure is increased from 3 to 12 MPa.	Jasinge et al. (2011)	
	<u>High rank</u> Confining MPa Injection J Temperatu	<u>coal:</u> pressures $-15$ , 20, 25 pressures $-6$ to 21 MPa ure $-33.5$ °C	Around 37% and 42% average permeability reduction when confining pressure is increased from 15 to 20 MPa and 20 to 25 MPa.	Perera et al. (2011b)	
	<b>Key</b> <b>findings</b> CO <sub>2</sub> permeability is reduced with increasing depth for bot rank coals because pore space available for gas movem with increasing confinement.			Perera et al. (2012a)	
Temperature	ImperatureLow rank coal:ImperatureConfining pressures - 10 MPaInjection pressures - 5 to 8 MPaTemperature - 25 and 40 °CHigh rank coal:Confining pressures - 20 and 24MPaInjection pressures - 8 to 13 MPaTemperature - 25 to 70 °C		Around 6% permeability increment when temperature is increased from 25 to 40 $^{0}$ C.	Ranathunga et al. (2014b)	
			Around 24% and 20% increments in permeability when the temperature is increased from 25 to 70 $^{0}$ C at 20 and 24 MPa confinements, respectively.	Perera et al. (2012b)	
	Key findings	CO <sub>2</sub> permeability increa and high rank coals becau increasing temperature d which eventually causes	ises with increasing temperature for both low use the adsorption capacity of $CO_2$ reduces with ue to increased kinetic energy of gas molecules, them to be released from the adsorbed phase.	Bae and Bhatia (2006)	
Coal rank	Low rank	coal:			
	Confining pressures – 3 to 12 MPa Injection pressures – 1 to 3.5 MPa Temperature – room temperature		At 7 MPa confining pressure, 1 to 3 MPa injection pressure increment caused around 19% permeability reduction.	Jasinge et al. (2011)	
	High rank coal:			Vishal et al. (2013)	
	Confining pressures - 5 to 13 MPaAt 7 MPa confining pressure, 1 to 3 MPaInjection pressures - 1 to 5 MPainjection pressure increment caused aroundTemperature - room temperature53% permeability reduction.				
<b>Key</b> <b>findings</b> CO <sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced permeability reduction is greater for high reduction coals than lower rank coals. Well-developed cleat system in high reduction in the coal matrix, leading more swelling areas compared to low rank coals.				Ranjith and Perera (2012c)	

Table 4.1. Previous studies of  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced permeability reduction in coal

Effective factors	Previous s	Ref.			
lactors	Test conditions	Results			
Sub-critical CO <sub>2</sub>	Low rank coal: Axial pressures – 1 to 6 MPa Injection pressures – 0.7 to 5.7 MPa Temperature – 38 <sup>o</sup> C	Around 11% average permeability reduction from 5.1 to 5.7 MPa CO <sub>2</sub> injection pressure increment at 6 MPa axial stress.	De Silva (2012)		
	High rank coal: Confining pressures – 5 to 13 MPa Injection pressures – 1 to 5 MPa Temperature – room temperature	Around 18% average permeability reduction from 1 to 5 MPa CO <sub>2</sub> injection pressure increment at 5 MPa confining pressure.	Vishal et al. (2013)		
	Key CO <sub>2</sub> permeability reduce findings to the associated greate capacity for both low and	Siriwardane et al. (2009), Durucan and Shi (2009)			
Super- critical CO <sub>2</sub>	Low rank coal: Axial pressures – 11 MPa Injection pressures – 6 to 14 MPa Temperature – 38 <sup>o</sup> C	Around 29% average permeability reduction when $CO_2$ changes its phase from sub- to super-critical $CO_2$ .	Ranathunga et al. (2015)		
	High rank coal: Confining pressures – 16, 20, 24 MPa Injection pressures – 11 to 15 MPa Temperature – 33 <sup>o</sup> C	Around 30% average permeability reduction with increase of $CO_2$ injection pressure from 11 to 15 MPa at 16 MPa confining pressure.	Vishal and Singh (2015)		
	Confining pressures – 15, 20, 25 MPa Injection pressures – 6 to 21 MPa Temperature – 33.5 <sup>o</sup> C	Around 30%, 42% and 46% average permeability reductions when $CO_2$ changes its phase from sub- to super-critical $CO_2$ at 15, 20 and 25 MPa confinements respectively.	Perera et al. (2011b)		
	Key findings CO <sub>2</sub> permeability in c pressures with a greater sub- to super-critical, re increases with increasing has yet been conducted f	Pan et al. (2010), Perera et al. (2011b), Vishal and Singh (2015)			

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# 4.2.2 Experimental procedure

# 4.2.2.1 Sample preparation

Permeability tests were conducted using natural brown coal samples obtained from the Hazelwood coal mine located at Morwell in south Gippsland, Victoria. The coring, cutting and grinding machines available in the Monash University Deep Earth Energy Research Laboratory (DEERL) were used to produce samples 38 mm in diameter and 76 mm high from large coal blocks. These brown coal samples had around 57% natural moisture content, and to avoid moisture loss from the samples, they were wrapped in polythene bags and stored in a plastic container in the fog room in the DEERL until they were used in the experiments.

# 4.2.2.2 Sample preparation

A series of permeability tests was conducted using the high-pressure tri-axial test rig available in the DEERL and a schematic diagram of the set-up is shown in Figure 4.1. The detailed procedure for using the high-pressure tri-axial test rig for permeability experiments explained in Ranjith and Perera (2011) was used to conduct the experiments for three different confinements (11, 14 and 17 MPa) and different CO<sub>2</sub> inlet pressures (6-14 MPa) (refer to Table 4.2). During the study, an attempt was made to fulfil three main objectives as follows:

# (i) Effect of CO<sub>2</sub> phase and pressure on permeability in brown coal:

 $CO_2$  injection pressures ranging from 6-14 MPa, under both sub- and super-critical  $CO_2$  conditions, were injected into samples under three different confinements (11, 14 and 17 MPa), and N<sub>2</sub> was permeated before  $CO_2$  injection to clearly identify the  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced coal matrix alterations (see Table 4.2).



Figure 4.1. Schematic diagram of the high-pressure tri-axial set-up used to conduct flow tests

<b>Confinement pressure (MPa)</b>	CO <sub>2</sub> injection pressure (MPa)	N <sub>2</sub> injection pressure (MPa)
11	6	6
	7	7
	8	8
	9	9
14	6	6
	7	7
	8	8
	9	9
	10	10
	12	12
17	6	6
	7	7
	8	8
	9	9
	10	10
	12	12
	14	14

# Table 4.2. Test conditions of the permeability tests

# (ii) Potential of N<sub>2</sub> to reverse CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced coal matrix alterations in brown coal:

In order to investigate the potential of  $N_2$  to reverse both sub- and super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorptioninduced matrix alterations in brown coal, swelled samples (during CO<sub>2</sub> injection) were permeated with  $N_2$  for 24 hours and CO<sub>2</sub> was then again injected to determine the effect of  $N_2$  on CO<sub>2</sub>-induced coal matrix swelling in brown coal.

The temperature of the system was kept constant at  $35^{\circ}C$  (>  $31.8^{\circ}C$  is the critical temperature of CO<sub>2</sub>) throughout the test to confirm that CO<sub>2</sub> injection beyond 7.38 MPa (the critical pressure of CO<sub>2</sub>) is at its super-critical state. Therefore, the CO<sub>2</sub> pressures <7 MPa (6 and 7 MPa) were subcritical conditions while >7 MPa (8 to 14 MPa) were super-critical conditions. All the permeability tests were conducted under undrained conditions to achieve super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> conditions in the downstream, which cannot be achieved using drained tests as the downstream is at atmospheric pressure.

# (iii) Effect of CO<sub>2</sub>- induced coal matrix alterations on micro-pore structure of brown coal:

An FEI Quanta 3D FEG FIB machine available at the Monash University Centre for Electron Microscopy (MCEM) was used to study the micro-pore structural changes which occur in the coal mass with sub- and super- critical  $CO_2$  adsorption. Two coal slices obtained from the upstream and downstream of the sample were tested prior to permeability testing and three coal slices obtained from upstream, downstream and the middle of the sample were tested after the permeability tests. The coal slices were around 4 to 5 mm in size (length and width) and the

thickness was less than 2 mm to avoid high scanning electron contrast formations due to the variations in sample surface morphology. It should be noted that there was potential for the coal samples to release the adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub> into the atmosphere when transporting the specimens for the scanning electron microscopy (SEM) study. Hence, the specimens were transferred as quickly as possible in air-tight containers to minimise this desorption effect. The specimens were adhered to a circular specimen stub using a double-sided adhesive carbon tape followed by a double platinum coating to avoid charging of the specimen (brown coal is an insulating material and the electrons have no escape path from the specimen, causing a charging effect during SEM). During this study, a 15 kV probe current with 4.5 spot size under low vacuum mode was utilized to observe the specimens.

#### Measuring coal specimen permeability

Both upstream and downstream pressure developments for the different gas injections were recorded using an advanced data acquisition system at one-second intervals. These observations were used to calculate the permeability using the transient method. Unlike steady-state measurements, the transient method requires a short test duration (Pan et al., 2010; Brace et al., 1968), which is more feasible for rock masses like coal with low permeabilities. Further, this method has been used by previous researchers (Pan et al., 2010; Siriwardane et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2011) to calculate the permeability of coal specimens with the variation of either pore pressure or confining pressure reaching an equilibrium state. In this method, pressure decay between upstream and downstream vessels through the specimen is used to determine the permeability through the sample. However, the pressure decay approach of Brace et al. (1968) does not account for the sorption effect on coal during  $CO_2$  injection. Feng et al. (2016) consider that the modified pressure decay approach by Cui et al. (2009) can accurately calculate the permeability of sorptive rocks like coal, and this approach was therefore employed in the present study to calculate the brown coal's permeability (refer to Eqs. [4.1] and [4.2]).

$$\frac{(P_u - P_d)}{\Delta P_0} = e^{-\alpha t}$$

$$[4.1]$$

$$k = \frac{\alpha \mu \beta L}{A f_1 \left(\frac{1}{V_u} + \frac{1}{V_d}\right)}$$
[4.2]

where,  $P_u$  is upstream vessel pressure,  $P_d$  is downstream vessel pressure,  $\Delta P_0$  is the step change of pressure in vessels at time = 0, *t* is time, *k* is permeability of the specimen, *A* is the cross-section area of the sample, *L* is the length of the sample,  $\mu$  is the viscosity of the injecting fluid,  $\beta$  is the

adiabatic compressibility of the injecting fluid, and  $V_u$  and  $V_d$  are the volume of upstream and downstream pressure vessels, respectively.

Here, 
$$f_1 = \frac{\theta_1^2}{a+b}$$
[4.3]

where,  $\theta_1$  is the first solution of the transcendental equation,

$$\tan \theta = \frac{(a+b)\theta}{\theta^2 - ab}$$
[4.4]

In Eq. [4.4], the a and b parameters are the gas storage capacity ratios of samples with upstream and downstream reservoirs and can be defined as follows (see Eqs. [4.5(a) and (b)]).

$$a = \frac{V_p(1+f_a)}{V_u}$$
[4.5(a)]

$$b = \frac{V_p(1+f_a)}{V_d}$$
 [4.5(b)]

where,  $f_a$  is the ratio of effective porosity contributed by adsorption ( $\emptyset_a$ ) and the porosity ( $\emptyset$ ) of the coal specimen. The  $\emptyset_a$  can be calculated by Eq. [4.6] using the adsorption parameters of the sample for the respective gases at experimental pressures.

$$\phi_a = \frac{\rho_s(1-\phi)}{V_{std}\beta\rho} \frac{V_L P_L}{(P_L+P)^2}$$

$$[4.6]$$

where,  $\rho_s$  is sample density,  $\rho$  is the gas density,  $V_{std}$  is the mole volume of gas at standard temperature and pressure (22.413E-3 m<sup>3</sup>/mol), *P* is the pore pressure and  $V_L$  and  $P_L$  are Langmuir constants for volume and pressure, respectively. The permeability of the sample is calculated by plotting the pressure decay curves (in semi-log scale) with time. By substituting the slope of the resulting line "- $\alpha$ " of the pressure decay curves in Eq. [4.2], the permeability of the sample was obtained.

In addition, the pressure development of the downstream varies with the  $CO_2$  flowrate along the sample. This  $CO_2$  flowrate is also affected by the coal matrix swelling/shrinkage which occurs during gas permeation at different confining pressures, through which the influence of coal matrix swelling/shrinkage on permeability can also be incorporated (De Silva and Ranjith, 2014).

# 4.2.3 Experimental results and discussions

The following sections discuss (i) the effect of  $CO_2$  phase and pressure on permeability in brown coal; (ii) the potential of reversing  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced coal matrix alterations using  $N_2$  in

brown coal; and (iii) the effect of CO<sub>2</sub>-induced coal matrix alterations in the micro-pore structure of brown coal.

### 4.2.3.1 Effect of CO<sub>2</sub> phase and pressure on coal permeability in brown coal

Figure 4.2 shows the permeability values obtained for first  $N_2$  and first  $CO_2$  injection into the brown coal samples for three different confinements. It should be noted that all the moisture in the sample was drained out before injecting the gasses and hence the permeability values obtained from  $CO_2$  and  $N_2$  injections do not have any influence of moisture in the coal sample.

### a. First N<sub>2</sub> injection

According to Figure 4.2,  $N_2$  permeability in brown coal gradually increases with increasing injection pressure at all three confinements. This is because the effective stress acting on the coal matrix reduces with increasing upstream pressure, resulting in an expansion of the coal mass pore spaces for  $N_2$  movement. For example, increasing the injection pressure from 6 to 9 MPa at 11 MPa, 14 MPa and 17 MPa confinements caused the coal mass permeability to be enhanced by around 67%, 54% and 30%, respectively (Figure 4.2). A closer examination of these figures shows that, although increasing permeability with increasing injection pressure is a common fact for any confinement, the amount of increment is reduced with increasing confinement. This is believed to be related to the greater effective stress applying on the coal mass under high confinement, which may act as a barrier to coal mass pore structure expansion, resulting in reduced permeability enhancement. The influence of this greater effective stress at greater confinement can be clearly identified by observing the permeability behaviour for any  $N_2$  injection pressure under various confinements. For example, according to Figure 4.3, increasing the confinement from 11 to 14 MPa and 11 to 17 MPa at 6 MPa injection pressure causes the brown coal permeability for  $N_2$  to be reduced by around 46% and 70%.

Since this confinement effect is largely controlled by the effective stress applied to the coal mass and the coal pore structure's response to it, it is worthwhile to identify how this influence varies with coal rank. Research has shown a similar permeability reduction with increasing confinement for high-rank coal (Perera et al., 2011b). However, the amount of permeability reduction is much higher for low-rank coal than high-rank coal. For example, increasing the confinement from 14 to 17 MPa (3 MPa increment in confinement) caused the brown coal permeability at 9 MPa  $N_2$  injection pressure to be reduced by around 57% in this study (Figure 4.3), whereas the permeability reduction observed for Australian bituminous coal by Perera et al. (2011b) for the same  $N_2$  injection pressure condition (9 MPa) was around 31% for 15 to 20 MPa confinement increment (5 MPa increment in confinement). This is because high-rank coal has been

subjected to a greater degree of biodegradation, resulting in a higher elastic modulus (Australian bituminous coal has an elastic modulus of 3.67 GPa (Perera et al., 2011b)), and Victorian brown coal has an elastic modulus of 41.6 MPa (Jasinge, 2010)) and lower shrinkage compressibility (Australian bituminous coal has a shrinkage compressibility of around 7.69E-7 1/kPa (Pan et al., 2010)) and Victorian brown coal has a shrinkage compressibility around 1.21E-5 1/kPa (Massarotto et al., 2010)) compared to low-rank coal. Therefore, with increasing confinement, it has less ability to shrink compared to low-rank coal.



Figure 4.2. Permeability vs. upstream pressure for first  $N_2$  and  $CO_2$  injections during 11, 14 and 17 MPa confinements (Here Pc = confining pressure)



Figure 4.3. Permeability vs. confining pressure for first  $N_2$  and  $CO_2$  injections during 6 to 14 MPa injection pressures (Here Pi = injection pressure)

# b. First CO<sub>2</sub> injection

# Effect of injection pressure

Unlike for  $N_2$  injection, a reduction of brown coal permeability with increasing injection pressure can be observed for all the confinements for  $CO_2$  injection (Figure 4.2), and the permeability reductions observed with increasing injection pressure (with respect to 6 MPa  $CO_2$  injection) for each confinement are shown in Table 4.3. This permeability reduction with increasing injection pressure for  $CO_2$  flow in coal has also been shown in the research literature (Pan et al., 2010; Perera et al., 2011b; Ranathunga et al., 2015; Vishal and Singh, 2015). Coal matrix swelling, which creates strutural modification in coal, is the cause, because matrix swelling shrinks the coal mass pore volume by increasing the tortuosity for  $CO_2$  movement inside the coal matrix, resulting in reduced  $CO_2$  permeability. Although this  $CO_2$  permeability reduction trend is a new finding for low-rank coal, it has been well proven for high-rank coal (Pan et al., 2010; Perera et al., 2011b; Vishal and Singh, 2015). For instance, Pan et al. (2010) observed around 50% and 70% permeability reductions in bituminous coal when the  $CO_2$  injection pressure was increased from 3 MPa to 13 MPa at 2 MPa and 6 MPa effective stresses, respectively.

	Confinement	Pc = 11MPa	Pc = 14 MPa	<b>Pc = 17 MPa</b>
Injection pressu	re			
Sub-critical region	Pi = 6 MPa	-	-	-
	Pi = 7 MPa	1.83	7.59	10.60
Super-critical region	Pi = 8 MPa	11.71	17.48	21.61
	Pi = 9 MPa	29.83	39.68	46.80
	Pi = 10 MPa	-	56.47	57.52
	Pi = 12 MPa	-	71.85	73.90
	Pi = 14 MPa	-	-	75.34

Table 4.3. Permeability reduction (%) during first CO<sub>2</sub> injection for all three confinements (with respect to 6 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injection)

However, the main focus of this study is to understand the super-critical flow behaviour in low-rank coal. According to Table 4.3, the CO<sub>2</sub> permeability reduction with increasing injection pressure is greater in the super-critical region than in the sub-critical region. For example, at 11 MPa confinement, permeability reductions compared to the 6 MPa first CO<sub>2</sub> injection are around 1.83% and 11.71% for 7 and 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injections, respectively. Therefore, it is important to study how the CO<sub>2</sub> phase condition varies inside the coal sample during each CO<sub>2</sub> injection condition to fully comprehend the phase influence on CO<sub>2</sub> permeability in brown coal. Figure 4.4 demonstrates the approximate CO<sub>2</sub> pressure distribution along the sample (after 24 hours of injection), assuming a linear variation of CO<sub>2</sub> pressures from upstream to downstream along the sample at the three different confinement pressures.



(a) Pc = 11 MPa



(b) Pc = 14 MPa



Figure 4.4. Downstream pressure variation for different  $CO_2$  injection pressures at various confinements (after 24 hours of gas injection) (Here  $P_i$  = injection pressure and  $P_c$  = confining

pressure)

According to Figure 4.4(a) and (b), during super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> permeation, only some regions are in super-critical condition while the rest of the sample is in sub-critical condition, due to the limited downstream pressure development under each condition (the sample has been divided into three major regions for explanatory purposes: zone 1 (near the upstream region), zone 2 (middle of the sample), and zone 3 (near the downstream region)). According to the figure, at 11 MPa confinement, only zone 1 of the sample is in super-critical condition during 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injection, whereas both zone 1 and 2 are in super-critical condition for 9 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injection (Figure 4.4(a)). Furthermore, during 14 MPa confinement, zone 1 is fully permeated with super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> at 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injection and only zone 1 and around half of zone 2 have been affected by super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> for 9 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injection. In the case of 10 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injection, the effect of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> extends to a part of zone 3 and the sample is fully flooded with super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> when 12 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> is injected during 14 MPa confinement (Figure 4.4(b)). This shows that a larger area is affected by super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> conditions with the increment of the injection pressure, which further clarifies the reason for the permeability reduction of the sample at higher CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressures. Super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> has greater ability to reduce coal mass flow performance due to its higher adsorption capacity into coal compared to sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> (Bae and Bhatia, 2006), as super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> molecules create stronger van der Waals bonds with the coal matrix (Massarotto et al., 2010), causing greater swelling in the coal mass and resulting in a decrease in pore volume for CO<sub>2</sub> transport.

This greater CO<sub>2</sub> permeability reduction in its super-critical state has also been observed for high rank-coal by Perera et al. (2011b). A comparison of the permeabilities obtained for both brown coal (the present study) and black coal (Perera et al., 2011b) shows that, although greater CO<sub>2</sub> permeability reduction with increasing injection pressure is common to both coal types, the amount of reduction is rank-dependent. Increasing the injection pressure from 7 to 8 MPa causes the low- and high-rank CO<sub>2</sub> permeability values to be reduced by around 10.71% (at 14 MPa confinement) and 15.79% (for 15 MPa confinement) (Perera et al., 2011b), respectively. Further, brown coal shows only 12.31% reduction of permeability from 7 to 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> pressure increase during 17 MPa confinement (Figure 4.2), which is also lower than the reduction percentage observed for black coal under 15 MPa confinement (15.79%) (Perera et al., 2011b). This implies that the influence of CO<sub>2</sub> phase condition on the coal mass structure rearrangement increases with increasing rank, probably due to the well-developed natural cleat system in greatly matured highrank coal compared with low-rank coal. This cleat system was formed during the coalification process and acts as a flow path for CO<sub>2</sub> movement in the coal matrix. The CO<sub>2</sub> molecules moving through the cleats then gradually adsorb into the coal matrix along the cleat wall. Therefore, the highly developed cleat system in high-rank coal offers a greater locus for  $CO_2$  adsorption, which eventually produces greater swelling-related pore shrinkage, resulting in greater permeability reduction. Perera et al. (2016) have shown a greater strength reduction in high-rank coal compared with low-rank coal for both sub- and super-critical  $CO_2$  injection pressures (up to 10 MPa), due to the greater absorption potential of  $CO_2$  in high-rank coal. According to the findings of the present study,  $CO_2$  adsorption also creates a greater permeability reduction in high-rank coal compared to low-rank coal.

### Effect of confining pressure

As expected, the permeability of  $CO_2$  in brown coal greatly reduces with increasing confinement due to the associated effective stress-enhancement. Increasing the confinement from 11 MPa to 14 MPa causes the CO<sub>2</sub> permeability at 6 and 9 MPa injection pressures to reduce by around 80% and 75%, respectively. An important fact is that the influence of confining pressure is much greater for CO<sub>2</sub> than N<sub>2</sub>, probably due to the fact that increasing the effective stress has a greater influence on the swelled coal matrix, and the swelled areas are believed to be more significantly subjected to the enhanced effective stress effect with increasing confinement due to their lower strength (Pan and Connell, 2007). This permeability reduction with increasing confinement for both sub- and super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injections for high-rank coal has been reported previously (Pan et al., 2010; Perera et al., 2011b; Ranathunga et al., 2015; Vishal and Singh, 2015). For example, increasing the confinement from 7 to 11 MPa at 3 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure and 16 to 20 MPa at 13 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure caused Indian bituminous coal permeability to be reduced by around 80% (Vishal et al., 2013) and 48% (Vishal and Singh, 2015), respectively.

Interestingly, super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> permeability in brown coal is subjected to lower permeability reduction with increasing confinement. For example, around 75% and 57% permeability reductions were exhibited for 9 MPa super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injection when the confinement increased from 11 to 14 MPa and 14 to 17 MPa (Figure 4.3), respectively. This is possibly because at high confinements, the coal mass pore space has already been significantly reduced by the high effective stress, and therefore further reduction with further increasing effective stress is less likely. According to Vishal and Singh (2015), this phenomenon is common for high-rank coal, and they observed around 48% and 39% permeability reductions for 13 MPa super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injection when confining pressure was increased from 16 to 20 MPa and 20 to 25 MPa for Indian bituminous coal. This implies that, regardless of rank, the influence of depth on  $CO_2$  permeability in coal reduces with increasing depth.

However, Perera et al. (2011b) observed an increase in  $CO_2$  permeability when larger confinements are applied at higher  $CO_2$  injection pressures (>10 MPa) for Australian bituminous

coal. For example, they observed around 20% increase in permeability with increasing confinement from 15 to 20 MPa at 10 MPa super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure (Perera et al., 2011b). In relation to the downstream pressure developments, higher  $CO_2$  injections at lower confinements were mostly >7.38 MPa (CO<sub>2</sub> critical pressure) and hence the sample was largely under super-critical conditions (Perera et al., 2011b). However, the reduced permeability at higher confinements caused lower downstream pressure developments (<7.38 MPa), allowing the higher portion of the sample to undergo sub-critical conditions (Perera et al., 2011b). For example, the downstream pressure was around 7.5 MPa (100% of the sample was under super-critical conditions) and 6.2 MPa (around 70% of the sample was under super-critical conditions) for 10 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injection during 15 and 20 MPa confinements respectively. Therefore, in comparison, larger confinements produced slightly larger permeability values than lower confinements at higher CO<sub>2</sub> injections. This was confirmed by the observed huge swelling effect created by super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> in high-rank coal, which has a greater influence than the depth effect. However, for brown coal, increasing the confinement from 11 to 14 MPa caused the permeability to be reduced by around 80% and 75% at 6 MPa sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injection and 9 MPa super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injection, respectively (see Figure 4.3). These observations show that, although the influence of confinement on permeability is reduced with the phase transition from sub- to super-critical, the confinement effect remains much greater than the swelling effect in low-rank coal compared to high-rank coal, probably due to the much higher coal matrix shrinkage-related pore space reduction, which occurs with increasing depth in partially-matured low-rank coal.

Figure 4.4 clearly shows how confinement changes the influence of super-critical  $CO_2$  injection on the coal matrix. According to the figure, at 11 MPa confinement, zone 1 of the sample is in fully super-critical condition during 8 MPa  $CO_2$  injection, whereas both zone 1 and 2 are in fully super-critical permeated condition for 9 MPa  $CO_2$  injection, and at 17 MPa confinement, only half of zone 1 is covered with super-critical  $CO_2$ -permeated coal for 8 MPa  $CO_2$  injection and only around 25% of zone 2 is permeated with super-critical  $CO_2$  at 9 MPa  $CO_2$  injection. Therefore, the portion of super-critical  $CO_2$  permeated in the sample reduces with increasing confinement, resulting in less influence of super-critical  $CO_2$  adsorption at greater confinement.

# 4.2.3.2 Potential of N<sub>2</sub> to reverse CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced coal matrix alterations in low rank coal

When  $N_2$  is injected into the coal mass, it remains as a free gas (with very little adsorption potential compared to  $CO_2$ ) in the fracture space, which creates an imbalance between the sorbed and free gas phases and eventually reduces the partial pressure of  $CO_2$ , resulting in the release of  $CO_2$  from the coal mass (Reeves, 2003). This release of  $CO_2$  molecules from the coal matrix can therefore

partially recover the reversible swelling by physical adsorption of  $CO_2$  (Kiyama et al., 2011). Although research has shown the ability of N<sub>2</sub> to partially reverse  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced swelled areas in high-rank coal (Perera et al., 2011b), the influence of coal rank on it has not yet been discovered. This was therefore considered next. N<sub>2</sub> was again injected into swelled coal samples (with  $CO_2$  injection) at the same injection pressures, and the total N<sub>2</sub> injection took around 24 hours. After this second N<sub>2</sub> injection,  $CO_2$  was again injected into the samples to find how N<sub>2</sub> injection alters the coal mass flow ability or its ability to reverse the swelled areas created during the first  $CO_2$  injection.

Firstly, the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced swelling effect was checked by observing the permeability values at first and second N<sub>2</sub> injections for all the confinements. According to Figure 4.5, the second N<sub>2</sub> injection also displays a behaviour consistent with that of the first N<sub>2</sub> injection, which depicts an increment in permeability with increasing injection pressure and a reduction of permeability with increasing confining pressure. However, the permeability of the coal mass for the second N<sub>2</sub> injection appears to be much lower than its permeability at first N<sub>2</sub> injection, which confirms the swelling-induced coal matrix rearrangement made during the CO<sub>2</sub> injection, and the effect is higher at higher confinements. The average permeability reductions observed during the second N<sub>2</sub> injection compared to the first N<sub>2</sub> injection were around 12%, 18% and 22% for 11 MPa, 14 MPa and 17 MPa confinements, respectively. As discussed previously, the greater permeability reduction observed at greater confinements is believed to be related to the greater influence of swelling-created pore space shrinkage at high confinements.

The ability of  $N_2$  to recover  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced swelled areas was then investigated by comparing the permeability of coal samples during the first (before the second  $N_2$  injection) and second  $CO_2$  injections (after the second  $N_2$  injection) for all the confinements (Figure 4.6 and Table 4.4). According to Figure 4.6, for any confinement  $N_2$  injection causes the  $CO_2$  permeability to be enhanced at high injection pressures, and the degree of permeability enhancement reduces with increasing confinement. For example, at 9 MPa injection pressure,  $CO_2$  permeability increases by around 21%, 9%, and 0.3% at 11, 14, and 17 MPa confinements (see Figure 4.6), respectively. This shows that  $N_2$  injection also contributes to recovering the swelling areas created by  $CO_2$  in low-rank coal. However, this enhancement disappears with lower injection pressure and increasing confinement, due to the large effective stress acting on low-rank brown coal compared to high-rank coal due to its highly porous, soft matrix. This compression of coal mass by the effective stress appears to be more significant than the permeability of the swelling area recovery. Therefore, although considerable permeability enhancement occurs at even low injection pressures and high confinements, the influence is concealed by the large coal matrix compression which occurs at such high effective stresses.



Figure 4.5. Permeability vs. upstream pressure for N<sub>2</sub> injection, before and after CO<sub>2</sub> injection during different confinements (Here P<sub>c</sub> is confining pressure)



Figure 4.6. Permeability vs. upstream pressure for CO<sub>2</sub> injection, before and after N<sub>2</sub> injection during different confinements

Injection pressu	Confinement	$P_c = 11MPa$	$P_c = 14 MPa$	$P_c = 17 MPa$
Sub-critical region	Pi = 6 MPa	-11.33	-10.11	-9.60
	Pi = 7 MPa	-10.49	-9.63	-4.42
	Pi = 8 MPa	7.71	-7.53	-1.23
a	Pi = 9 MPa	19.19	9.07	0.27
Super-critical region	Pi = 10 MPa	-	11.28	8.12
Tegron	Pi = 12 MPa	-	16.65	12.31
	Pi = 14 MPa	-	-	14.01

Table 4.4. Permeability change (%) after N<sub>2</sub> flooding during CO<sub>2</sub> injection for all three confinements

In relation to the effect of coal rank on the potential of N<sub>2</sub> to reverse CO<sub>2</sub> adsorptioninduced coal matrix alterations, Perera et al. (2011b) observed a comparatively higher permeability enhancement ability of N<sub>2</sub> in high-rank coal compared to low-rank coal. According to their study, N<sub>2</sub> flooding causes the enhancement of permeability for CO<sub>2</sub> of high-rank bituminous coal at 9 MPa injection pressure by around 15% at 15 MPa confinement, which is considerably greater than the N<sub>2</sub> permeability recovery potential observed for low-rank brown coal in this study under similar injection conditions (around 9% at 9 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injection at 14 MPa confinement). This observed lower potential of N<sub>2</sub> to recover CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced swelled areas is believed to be related to the high effective stress acting on soft and highly porous low-rank brown coal compared to dense high-rank bituminous coal. Furthermore, Perera et al. (2011b) observed an enhancement in swelling area recovery potential of N<sub>2</sub> with increasing confinement, where N<sub>2</sub> injection enhanced CO<sub>2</sub> permeability at 10 MPa injection pressure by around 15% and 17% at 15 and 20 MPa confinements, respectively. According to these researchers, this is due to the slower N<sub>2</sub> flow rate through the coal matrix offering more time to interact with the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorbed areas in the coal matrix, which enhances the swelling area recovery process performed by N<sub>2</sub>. However, this greater recovery potential at higher confinement is contradictory to the reduced permeability recovery potential observed at higher confinement in low-rank brown coal. Potentially, although N<sub>2</sub> has greater permeability recovery potential in brown coal, that influence may be obscured by the influence of greater effective stress on soft, highly porous brown coal. However, this permeability behaviour after N<sub>2</sub> flooding for brown coal may vary with the duration of N<sub>2</sub> flooding, because, in the present study, N<sub>2</sub> was permeated for only 24 hours, which may not be enough to obtain higher recovery potential at higher effective stresses due to the low permeability. Therefore, offering more time for N<sub>2</sub> permeation through the coal mass may create enhanced recovery abilities, even for higher effective stresses in brown coal. This requires further attention in future studies.

### 4.2.3.3 Effect of CO<sub>2</sub>-induced coal matrix alterations in micro-pore structure of brown coal

According to Pan and Connell (2007), the gas transport process in coal is greatly influenced by the pore structure of the coal mass. The continuity of the micro-pore structure and the connectivity with the macro-pore structure of the coal mass create efficiency in drainage and gas storage in the coal matrix (Davis et al., 1986). Therefore, a micro-structural analysis using SEM was carried out to determine the coal matrix alterations caused by  $CO_2$  adsorption. The analysis was carried out on five specimens prior to and after the permeability tests and after scanning several random particles of each sample, and representative SEM images are shown in Table 4.5.

As the table shows, the SEM images after the experiment ( $CO_2$  permeated) have a comparatively smoother surface compared to the images prior to the experiment (natural brown coal). Similar observations were made by Kutchko et al. (2013) for bituminous coal after exposing the specimens to CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption at 15.3 MPa at 55 °C. In addition, the natural brown coal specimens display more clear particle boundaries than the samples after CO<sub>2</sub> permeation, especially at the upstream (refer to Table 4.5). Further, the specimens before the experiment have a more uniform cellular-like micro-pore structure with relatively large pores. This cellular-like structure is still visible in some portions of the images of the specimens after the experiment, which display a reorganized and altered pore structure with CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption (see Table 4.5). These amorphous regions may have developed due to the plasticisation of coal polymer with CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption (Masoudian et al., 2014). According to Figure 4.4, the upstream was under supercritical conditions during all the super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injections. The higher adsorption capacity of super-critical  $CO_2$  may result in greater plasticisation in coal polymers, which eventually creates more amorphous regions than in the other specimens (middle and downstream). Similarly, Masoudian et al. (2014) observed amorphous spots due to plasticisation in bituminous coal after saturating the coal sample with 2.9 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> pressure under 3 MPa confining pressure for 72 hours, confirming the effect of coal matrix rearrangements for any coal type. In addition, the images taken under 1000 magnification show some striations (see the circled sections of the images) in  $CO_2$  permeated coal samples, mainly in the upstream compared to the natural specimens. According to Davis et al. (1986), this striation is a characteristic of maceral collinite (structureless maceral vitrinite). Therefore, referring to Table 4.5, the adsorption of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> tends to generate collinite-type carbon structures in coal. This striation was also observed by Gathitu et al. (2009) for both lignite (from Beulah) and bituminous coal (from Illinois) samples after saturation at 22.75 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> under 130 <sup>o</sup>C for 48 hours and 55.85 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> under 80 <sup>o</sup>C for 48 hours, respectively. They further explained that the striation effect is greater at deeper depths of

coal seams (higher pressures and temperatures) compared to lower depths (lower pressures and temperatures) (Gathitu et al., 2009).

However, it should be noted that the SEM results obtained may vary due to the following conditions. According to Tomasko et al. (2003), once the  $CO_2$  pressure is released using a well-controlled slow depressurisation procedure, the morphological changes due to  $CO_2$ -induced plasticisation can be reversed. For the present study, it took around 12 hours to conduct the SEM analysis after the flow experiments, which may have caused desorption of adsorbed  $CO_2$  from the sample with the long waiting time. In addition, further desorption of gasses may occur after applying the vacuum (low vacuum mode) for degassing, which may create changes in the results due to the potential reversibility during SEM analysis. Since the sample was also subjected to  $N_2$  flooding, the expected large coal matrix alterations may not be visualized under this SEM analysis. However, these observations contribute to the demonstration of the altered flow behaviour during  $CO_2$  injection into the coal mass.

 Table 4.5. SEM images of sample before and after experiment at upstream, middle and downstream

Zone <sup>1</sup>	Before experiment		After experiment	
	Magnification – 10k <sup>2</sup>	Magnification – 1k <sup>3</sup>	Magnification – 10k <sup>2</sup>	Magnification – 1k <sup>3</sup>
Zone 1 (Upstream)				
Zone 2 (Middle)	Not conducted	Not conducted		
Zone 3 (Downstream)				

<sup>1</sup> Refer to Figure 4.4 to identify the zones in the brown coal specimen

<sup>2</sup> Conditions used to obtain SEM images: scale -5 μm, probe current -15 kV and spot size 4.5 under low vaccum <sup>3</sup>Conditions used to obtain SEM images: scale -50 μm, probe current -15 kV and spot size 4.5 under low vaccum

## 6.2.3.4 Implications for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in coal seams

Generally, super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> is preferred for CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM recovery due to its higher adsorption capacity to the coal matrix (Day et al., 2010) and the ability for stable storage of CO<sub>2</sub> due its higher densities (Hendricks and Blok, 1993). However, reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> flow ability through the coal matrix during super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration makes the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM process less productive, since the targeted amount of CO<sub>2</sub> cannot be stored in the coal mass, leading to unpredictable CH<sub>4</sub> recovery. The field-scale CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM projects which exhibited a decrease in CO<sub>2</sub> injection capacity within the first six months to two years after CO<sub>2</sub> injection (Ranathunga et al., 2014a) support the findings of this study. However, the possible permeability reduction with super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injection reduces with reducing rank, which shows the suitability of low-rank coal seams for the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM process. However, considering other factors, such as safety-related issues and availability, medium-rank coal seams are more suitable.

Furthermore, according to the findings of this study, regardless of rank,  $CO_2$  permeability in coal reduces with increasing depth. Currently, there is interest in utilising extremely deep underground coal seams for  $CO_2$  sequestration, due to the possibility of mining shallow seams. Generally, the permeability of the coal mass is reduced with depth, which is a main drawback for these types of projects. However, according to the current findings, this depth effect does not have such a great influence on  $CO_2$  permeability as one would expect, especially in high-rank coal, and it would be useful to implement field projects in deep coal seams.

The findings indicate that the injection of an inert gas like  $N_2$  has the potential to recover coal matrix rearrangements due to  $CO_2$  adsorption by desorbing  $CO_2$  molecules from the coal matrix in any rank coal, although the recovery ability may be somewhat less for low-rank than high-rank coal, particularly under higher effective stresses. Several field-scale projects have incorporated pure  $N_2$  in order to enhance  $CO_2$  injection capacity, including those in the Ishikari basin in Japan ( $CO_2$  injection rate from 2.3 tons/day to 6.6 tons/day) (Fujioka et al., 2010) and the Fenn Big Valley basin in Canada ( $CO_2$  absolute permeability from 1 mad to 13.8 mad) (Mavor et al., 2004). Some field-scale projects have used a mixture of  $CO_2$  and  $N_2$  (flue gas) to increase  $CO_2$ permeability through the coal mass, including the Fenn Big Valley basin project in Canada ( $CO_2$ absolute permeability from 1 mad to 5.6 mad) (Mavor et al., 2004). However, these increments are insufficient for economical and efficient  $CO_2$  sequestration.

Considering all these facts, the findings of this study verify the complications when using super-critical  $CO_2$  for  $CO_2$ -ECBM recovery in terms of  $CO_2$  storage capacity and  $CH_4$  production enhancement. Nevertheless, this is compensated by the anticipated larger and more stable super-critical  $CO_2$  storage capacity in coal masses. Field-scale reservoir studies are very useful for

investigating the possible effects of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced coal matrix alterations on permeability. Laboratory tests conducted for various reservoir conditions under a controlled environment can be used to obtain better insights into the effects of CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration on the coal mass, which can be used to support reservoir studies by developing laboratory-scale models which can then be extended to a field-scale reservoir study. The SEM analysis of brown coal specimens demonstrates the possible micro-structural behaviours with CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption that can be adapted with the real case scenario of coal matrix rearrangement during CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM recovery. These results are expedient for a thorough evaluation of possible matrix alterations with CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption in coal reservoirs, and to assist reservoir studies.

# 4.2.4 Conclusions

The following major conclusions can be drawn from the study:

- Although the reduction of permeability with increasing depth due to associated effective stress variations is common for any type of coal, the amount of permeability reduction with increasing depth is much higher for low-rank coals compared to high-rank coal, due to their partially mature, soft and highly compressible nature.
- The uniform cellular-like micro-pore structure with relatively large pores in natural brown coal significantly alters with CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption, which negatively affects the coal mass flow performance. This matrix re-arrangement is much greater for super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption compared to sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub>. Therefore, super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> has much lower permeability than sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub>, regardless of coal rank.
- However, the influence of CO<sub>2</sub> phase condition increases with increasing rank, probably due to the well-developed natural cleat system in high-rank coal compared to low-rank coal, which acts as a locus for CO<sub>2</sub> transportation in the coal mass. This causes greater swelling in highrank compared to low-rank coal.
- The influence of depth on permeability reduces with phase transition from sub- to super-critical in any type of coal due to the greater swelling effect created by super-critical CO<sub>2</sub>. However, the effect of greater super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced swelling in high-rank coal causes this depth effect on coal permeability to reduce with increasing rank.
- Regardless of rank, the influence of depth on CO<sub>2</sub> permeability in coal reduces with increasing depth. However, the depth effect does not have such a great influence on CO<sub>2</sub> permeability as one would expect.
- Although N<sub>2</sub> has the ability to recover CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced swelled areas in coal regardless of rank, the recovery ability is much higher for high-rank coal due to the greater effective stress on soft and highly porous low-rank brown coal compared to dense high-rank coal.

# 4.2.5 References

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# **4.3** How can the individual effect of effective stress and sorption-induced strain on the evolution of coal permeability be evaluated?

# 4.3.1 Overview

According to the findings of Section 4.2, both effective stress and the sorption-induced strain in the coal mass cause the observed permeability variations with  $CO_2$  permeation. For an effective application of  $CO_2$ -ECBM, identification of the influence of permeability alterations due to each parameter (effective stress and swelling) is needed. The reduction of permeability with the application of higher effective stresses is a common effect for any rock type (Al-Wardy and Zimmerman, 2004; Chen et al., 2011; Ghabezloo et al., 2009; Jasinge et al., 2011; Rathnaweera et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2003). Hence, the permeability evolution in coal due to  $CO_2$  adsorption requires attention in regard to investigating the  $CO_2$  flow behaviour in coal. Hence, the present study attempted to differentiate the effect of the effective stress and the sorption-induced swelling on coal mass permeability by calibrating the adsorbing-gas permeabilities ( $CO_2$ ) using the effective stress parameters for comparatively non-adsorbing gas permeabilities ( $N_2$ ) for both Australian low and high rank coals.

This section of the chapter is the following paper:

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# Effect of effective stress and coal matrix swelling on coal flow behaviour during CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration

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### Abstract

Permeability is one of the most important parameters for  $CO_2$  injection in coal to enhance coalbed methane recovery. Generally, when the adsorbing gasses are injected, the permeability of the coal matrix can be reduced due to both gas adsorption-induced coal mass alterations and in situ stress application-induced coal matrix shrinkage. Laboratory characterization of coal permeability due to these effects provides useful information on the in situ permeability behaviour of coal seams. In this study, a series of experiments were conducted on Victorian brown coal samples using both non-adsorbing (N<sub>2</sub> has much less adsorption compared to  $CO_2$ ) and adsorbing gases ( $CO_2$ ) under various confining stresses and pore pressures. In order to determine the causes of permeability reduction for adsorbing gases, non-adsorbing N<sub>2</sub> was used to determine the effective stress coefficient. In these experiments using N<sub>2</sub>, the impact of gas sorption was ignored and any permeability reduction was considered as being due to the variation in the effective stress, which is controlled by the effective stress coefficient.

The results show that the effective stress coefficient in the coal studied is significantly pore pressure-dependent and less than unity, and results reported in the research literature indicate that this behaviour is similar for high rank coal. The permeability reduction behaviour obtained from  $N_2$  injecting experiments was then used to calibrate the subsequent flow-through experiments using the adsorbing gas CO<sub>2</sub>. Through this calibration, the sole effect of sorption-induced strain on permeability change was obtained for these adsorbing gas flow experiments. The sorption strain-induced permeability clearly showed an over-estimation of permeability reduction, and the error is greater at higher effective stresses, regardless of rank. Importantly, the swelling effect on permeability is dominant in high-rank coal and in contrast, effective stress influence is dominant for low-rank coal. This swelling-induced permeability alteration in coal can be predicted using the D-R model by empirically deriving the D-R model parameters, regardless of rank.

Keywords: brown coal, CO<sub>2</sub> sorption-induced swelling, coal rank, effective stress, permeability

# 4.3.2 Introduction

To date, numerous studies (Chen et al., 2012; Jasinge et al., 2011; Pan et al., 2010; Perera et al., 2011; Pini et al., 2009; Shi et al., 2014; Siriwardane et al., 2009; Vishal and Singh, 2015) have been conducted on coal mass flow behaviour during CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in deep coal seams and the CO<sub>2</sub> enhanced methane recovery process in them. Adsorption of CO<sub>2</sub> into coal induces strains between the adsorbing gas layer and the coal pore walls called coal matrix swelling, and these strains cause a reduction in permeability. For example, Chen et al. (2011), Jasinge et al. (2011), Pan et al. (2010), Patching (1965), Perera et al. (2011), Pini et al. (2009), Ranathunga et al. (2015) and Somerton et al. (1975) found that the permeability of coal for CO<sub>2</sub> is comparatively lower than that for non-adsorbing gases (N<sub>2</sub>, He, etc.), regardless of coal type. It is therefore important to quantify the permeability alteration in coal with sorption-induced swelling. However, permeability values obtained through laboratory experiments include the effects of both effective stress in order to precisely understand the effect of swelling on coal permeability.



Figure 4.7. Permeability reduction due to effect of effective stress and swelling strain in coal samples

Pan et al. (2010), Lin et al. (2008), Mavor and Gunter (2004), Huy et al. (2010) Siriwardane et al. (2009) and Pini et al. (2009) conducted flow experiments on CO<sub>2</sub> permeability in coal at a given effective stress condition ( $P_{eff} = P_c - \alpha P_i$ : where  $P_{eff}$  is effective stress,  $P_c$  is confining pressure,  $P_i$  is pore pressure and  $\alpha$  is the effective stress parameter) to obtain the permeability variation in coal due to CO<sub>2</sub>-induced swelling and observed a reduction of permeability with increasing pore pressure. However, they assumed the effective stress coefficient ( $\alpha$ ) to be unity, which may not be accurate, particularly for some confining pressures, pore pressure conditions and rock types (Chen et al., 2011). For example, according to Walsh (1981), the effective stress parameter,  $\alpha$  is 0.9 for rocks with polished joints and according to Kranzz et al. (1979), it is 0.56 for rocks with tensile joints. A linear increment of effective stress parameter,  $\alpha$ , with increasing pressure difference between confining pressure and pore pressure has been reported by Ghabezloo et al. (2009), and according to Rathnaweera et al. (2015), it linearly decreases with increasing degree of salinity in the pore fluid. Nur and Byerlee (1971) calculated the effective stress parameter,  $\alpha$ , as 0.64 for sandstone, observing the variation of permeability for sandstone, and Bernabe (1987) showed a decreasing trend of effective stress parameter for permeability with increasing confining pressure for crystalline rocks.

However, to date little attention has been given to the variation of the effective stress coefficient in coal. Zhao et al. (2003) suggested a bilinear function for the effective stress coefficient with pore pressure and volumetric stress, and George and Barakat (2001) proposed  $\alpha$  = 0.71 for sub-bituminous coal using non-adsorbing helium after conducting a series of loading and un-loading gas pressure tests. However, for these experiments only the volumetric strain was used as the physical parameter to determine the effective stress coefficient. According to existing studies (Nur and Byerlee, 1971; Bernabe, 1987), not only volumetric strain, but also permeability, confining pressure and pore pressure variations should be incorporated in predicting the effective stress parameter.

Chen et al. (2011) examined helium permeation through high-rank Australian coal at constant pressure differences ( $dP = P_c - P_i$ : where dP is the pressure difference,  $P_c$  is the confining pressure and  $P_i$  is the pore pressure) to obtain the effective stress coefficient of coal paying attention to the influences of permeability, confining pressure and pore pressure variations. They applied the widely-used exponential relationship between permeability and effective stress (Eq. [4.7]) proposed by McKee et al. (1988) to obtain the effective stress coefficient.

$$k = k_0 exp \left[ -3c_f (\Delta \sigma - \alpha \Delta p) \right]$$
[4.7]

where, k is the permeability,  $k_0$  is the initial permeability,  $c_f$  is the cleat compressibility,  $\Delta \sigma$  is the confining stress change,  $\Delta p$  is the pore pressure change and  $\alpha$  is the effective stress coefficient.

They obtained a less than unity (< 1) effective stress coefficient for coal, importantly as a variable with pore pressure (the effective stress coefficient increases with increasing pore pressure). Assuming the effective stress does not change for similar pressure conditions for  $CO_2$  and  $CH_4$  permeations (*dP* was constant throughout the tests series), Chen et al. (2011) eliminated the effective stress-induced permeability variation of high rank coal to find the swelling-induced permeability variation in coal, and showed that the swelling-induced permeability reduction is much higher (1.5 to 2.1 times) than the effective stress-induced permeability reduction (high rank bituminous coal). However, to date no similar study has been conducted on low rank coal, which is however essential to understand how such influences vary with coal maturity or rank.

This has therefore been considered in the present study to investigate the swelling- induced permeability variations in low-rank brown coal by eliminating the influence of effective stress. A similar approach was used in the present study to investigate the permeability variations due to sorption-induced strain for low-rank coal brown coal. The results were then compared with those of Chen et al. (2011) to understand the effect of coal rank on swelling-created permeability alterations in coal. Furthermore, an effort was made to predict the swelling- induced permeability changes in coal by applying the widely-used Dubinin–Radushkevich (D-R) model for both low-rank (present study) and high rank coal (Chen et al., 2011)).

# 4.3.3 Methods and procedures

Following procedures were adopted to investigate the effect of effective stress and the sorptioninduced strain on coal permeability variations.

# 4.3.3.1 Measure permeability using N2

To calibrate the permeability of adsorbing gas  $CO_2$ ,  $N_2$  permeability under various pore pressures and confining pressures was used. Figure 4.8 shows the variation of adsorbed gas volume of  $CO_2$ and  $N_2$  for the tested Victorian brown coal samples measured using the gravimetric method. According to Figure 4.8,  $N_2$  has much lower adsorption potential to the tested coal samples compared to  $CO_2$  (more than 9 times lower) and hence,  $N_2$  was considered as a comparatively inert gas for calibration purposes. The permeability data obtained by Ranathunga et al. (2017a) based on meso-scale tri-axial tests under constant pressure differences were used in this study (Figure 4.9).


Figure 4.8. Langmuir isotherms for  $CO_2$  and  $N_2$  for the brown coal samples under 40  $^{0}C$  (here  $V_L$  and  $P_L$  are Langmuir volume and pressure)



Figure 4.9.  $N_2$  permeability vs. pore pressure with pressure difference (here  $P_i$  is pore pressure and the  $P_c$  is confining pressure) (Ranathunga et al. 2016a)

### 4.3.3.2 Understanding the influence of effective stress

According to Figure 4.9,  $N_2$  permeability shows a reduction with pore pressure for the given pressure differences. As mentioned earlier, since  $N_2$  is almost a non-adsorbing gas to brown coal, the effect of matrix swelling on permeability change by  $N_2$  adsorption is negligible, which is further confirmed by the test results obtained by Ranathunga et al. (2017b). The observed reduction in  $N_2$  permeability with pore pressure increase is therefore be due to the Klinkenberg effect and the effective stress effect. In regard to the Klinkenberg effect, Laubach et al. (1998) stated that the mean free path of the gas molecules at higher pressures is much lower than the aperture of the coal cleats (3-40 µm) and hence collisions between the gas molecules are more common than collisions between the coal pore walls and the gas molecules (Han et al., 2010), resulting in minor slip flow or the Klinkenberg effect. Hence, the effect of effective stress is the reason for the observed permeability reduction with the pore pressure.

### a. Calculation of coal cleat compressibility

Here, the exponential function proposed by McKee et al. (1988) was used to obtain the effective stress parameter (refer to Eq. [4.8]). If the pore pressure ( $P_i$ ) is kept constant and only the confining pressure ( $P_c$ ) is varied, the cleat compressibility of the coal sample can be obtained using the simple permeability relationship with confining stress change (refer to Eq. [4.8]).

$$k = k_0 exp(-3c_f \Delta \sigma) \tag{4.8}$$

The cleat compressibility values for  $N_2$  and  $CO_2$  obtained from Eq. [4.8] are summarised in Table 4.6. The average compressibility values were used to calculate the effective stress coefficients.

Pore pressure (MPa)	$C_{f}$ for $N_{2}$ (1/MPa)	Cf for CO <sub>2</sub> (1/MPa)
6	0.0784	0.1189
7	0.0778	0.1197
8	0.0766	0.1214
9	0.0757	0.1233
Average C <sub>f</sub>	0.0771	0.1208

Table 4.6. Compressibility values for different gases and pore pressures

### b. Calculation of coal effective stress coefficient

For a considered constant pressure difference ( $\Delta \sigma = \Delta p$ ), Eq. [4.7] can be further simplified as follows (refer to Eq. [4.9]).

$$k = k_0 exp \left[ -3c_f (1 - \alpha) \Delta p \right]$$
[4.9]

By substituting the cleat compressibility values obtained from Eq. [4.9], the effective stress coefficient ( $\alpha$ ) can be obtained for different pore pressures, and the values obtained are shown in Table 4.7. According to the table, it is clear that the effective stress coefficient for brown coal is not equal to unity as proposed by McKee et al. (1988), and the coefficient appears to increase with increasing pore pressure. For example,  $\alpha$  increases by 0.96% with increasing pore pressure from 6 to 7 MPa and 1.4% for 8 to 9 MPa pore pressure increment. This is consistent with the results obtained by Chen et al. (2011), who also observed a 1.52% increase in  $\alpha$  with a 2 to 3 MPa pore pressure increment in high rank coal. This implies that the  $\alpha$  increment observed with pore pressure increase can be expected for any coal type.

1 ore pressure (will a) u for 142	
6 0.835	
7 0.843	
8 0.855	
9 0.867	

Table 4.7. Effective stress coefficient for N<sub>2</sub> under different pore pressures

### 4.3.3.3 Calculate the additional effective stress value and obtain the real effective stress value

As the  $\alpha \neq 1$ , an extra effective stress is acting on the coal core and here onwards is referred as "additional effective stress" for this study. According to Chen et al. (2011), this additional effective stress can be calculated using the term  $(1 - \alpha)\Delta p$  and should be added to the conventional effective stress term by McKee et al. (1988) (refer to Eq. [4.10]).

Effective stress acting on the coal core =  $(\Delta \sigma - \Delta p) + (1 - \alpha)\Delta p$  [4.10]

Here, the first term represents the effective stress calculated considering the effective stress coefficient as 1 (McKee et al., 1988) and the second term represents the additional effective stress acting on the coal sample (Chen et al., 2011). A comparison for N<sub>2</sub> permeation of the original results and corrected magnitudes is shown in Figure 4.10. According to the figure, considering  $\alpha = 1$  is not accurate, as it under-estimates the effective stress effect on coal permeability variations. This error was calculated using Eq. [4.11] for each condition and the results are presented in Table 4.8. As the table shows, the error increases with increasing pore pressure. For example, the error at 6 MPa pore pressure is increased by around 10% when the pore pressure is increased to 9 MPa. The permeability data were obtained for constant pore pressure differences and hence, at higher pore pressures, the confining stress acting on the sample is also higher. For example, the confining pressure applied on the sample is 11 MPa for 6 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> pressure and 14 MPa for 9 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> pressure for a constant pressure difference of 5 MPa. The observed enhancement in the effective stress-related error in permeability calculation with increasing pore pressure is therefore affected by the corresponding greater confining stresses at greater pore pressures (because the pressure difference remains the same). Therefore, this is more likely due to the confining stress influence rather than the pore pressure influence. Chen et al. (2011) also witnessed this increase in effective stress calculation error with increasing pore pressure at a given pressure difference for high rank coal under the same stress difference between pore and confining pressure, and around 6.13% error was observed by them with increasing pore pressure from 2.1 to 10.1 MPa. This confirms that the observed effective stress error with varying confining and pore pressures is applicable to any rank of coal. Interestingly, this error is higher for low rank coal than high rank coal, which may be due to the higher strength and lower compressibility of high rank coal and the resulting lower compression with effective stress application.



Underestimation of effective stress (e, %)

Figure 4.10. Comparison of N<sub>2</sub> permeability behaviour with original and corrected effective stresses under 6, 7, 8 and 9 MPa pore pressures (here Pi is pore pressure)

Pore pressure (MPa)	Under-estimation of effective stress (e,%)
6	21.49
7	24.20
8	29.65
9	31.63

Table 4.8. Under-estimation of permeability (e%) for N2 under different pore pressures

# 4.3.3.4 Investigate the permeability alteration due to pure swelling effect by eliminating the effective stress effect

As the permeability results used for this study are for constant pressure difference (dP) conditions, it is reasonable to assume that the effective stress coefficient is also constant during CO<sub>2</sub> permeation (Chen et al., 2011). The CO<sub>2</sub> permeability data were therefore corrected using the calculated effective stress coefficients from N<sub>2</sub> permeation, by subtracting the additional effective stress-induced permeability reduction (calculated using Eq. [4.9]) from the original data. The initial permeability for each case was calculated from the calibrated expression for N<sub>2</sub> permeability, as shown in Figure 4.10. Figure 4.11 shows the comparison of the original permeability values (including the effect of both sorption-induced strain and effective stress) and the corrected permeability values (only the effect of sorption-induced strain) by eliminating the effective stress effect on CO<sub>2</sub> permeability.

Figure 4.11 shows a clear difference between the original permeability data and the CO<sub>2</sub> sorption-induced permeability data. Table 4.9 demonstrates the permeability increments associated with permeability calculation (using Eq. [4.11]) for CO<sub>2</sub> permeation. As Table 4.9 shows, when the pressure difference (dP) is increased from 2 to 5 MPa, the permeability increment is increased by around 22% and 40% for 6 and 9 MPa pore pressures. Further, the permeability increment increased by 43% under 5 MPa pressure difference when the CO<sub>2</sub> pore pressure increased from 6 to 9 MPa. Similar behaviour of higher permeability increments can be observed for higher confining pressures. For example, when the pressure difference increased from 4 to 5 MPa, the permeability increment increased by 49% and 67% for 13 MPa confinement. The pressure difference (dP) is higher, meaning that the effect of effective stress on permeability is also higher (refer to Eq. [4.7]). Therefore, for greater pressure differences, the permeability reduction is highly influenced by the applied effective stress and hence the over-estimation of swelling-induced permeability is also greater. Further, the higher permeability over-estimations for higher confining pressures (and therefore for higher pore pressures, as the pressure difference remained constant) can also be observed. This is because generally, permeability is reduced under higher confinements due to the pore volume shrinkage with the application of higher in situ stresses. Next, the effect of coal rank on these permeability over-estimations was studied.



Figure 4.11. Comparison of CO<sub>2</sub> permeabilities between the original data (Ranathunga et al. 2017a) and the corrected data for sorption-induced strain only for  $P_c$ - $P_i$  = 2, 3, 4 and 5 MPa

	Permeability error due to the effect of effective stress (%)			
Pore pressure (MPa)	Pc-Pi = 2 MPa*	Pc-Pi = 3 MPa <sup>*</sup>	Pc-Pi = 4 MPa <sup>*</sup>	Pc-Pi = 5 MPa*
6	4.84	9.26	12.60	13.45
7	15.98	21.56	25.74	44.41
8	22.03	29.41	46.45	67.46
9	30.76	48.78	48.87	70.83

Table 4.9. Over-estimation of permeability values for CO<sub>2</sub> permeation

\*Here Pc and Pi are the confining pressure and pore pressure, respectively

Figure 4.12 compares the permeability over-estimation caused by the effective stress effect for low rank coal (the present study) with that for high rank coal (Chen et al., 2011) during  $CO_2$ permeation. According to Figure 4.12, similar error increasing behaviour with increasing confining pressure and pore pressure can be seen for high rank coal as well. However, the error (%) for high rank coal is comparatively low compared to that for low rank coal for similar pressure differences. For example, a 2 MPa constant pressure difference shows around 2 times higher positive error gradient for low rank coal (refer to Figure 4.12(a)) and that for dP = 4 MPa is around 5 times higher compared to high rank coal (refer to Figure 4.12(b)). As stated previously, low rank coal undergoes a greater effective stress influence on permeability compared to high rank coal, and therefore, the expected permeability variation due to effective stress change is also higher, eventually producing greater over-estimation of swelling-induced permeability in low rank coal. This was further studied by comparing the swelling-induced permeability and effective stress-induced permeability reductions, to evaluate the contribution of each process for both low and high rank coal. The results are shown in Figure 4.13.



Figure 4.12. Comparison of swelling-induced permeability over-estimation due to the effective stress effect in low rank coal (present study) and high rank coal (Chen et al., 2011) for CO<sub>2</sub> permeation

Here, the permeability reduction percentage was calculated as the difference between initial permeability (regressed from the permeability values for each case) and the permeability value at the final experimental pore pressure for respective permeabilities of effective stress induced and swelling induced strain related permeability. According to Figure 4.13, both effective stress-induced and swelling-induced permeability reductions reduce with increasing pressure difference (dP), regardless of coal rank. Further, the CO<sub>2</sub> sorption-induced permeability reduction is around 1.5 times and 2 times greater than the effective stress-induced permeability reductions for low rank and high rank coals, respectively. As explained previously, for greater pressure differences, coal permeability is low and therefore the expected permeability reduction by effective stress is reduced. Further, this lower permeability allows less swelling strain in the coal

mass, which eventually also reduces the sorption-induced permeability reduction (Figure 4.13). Furthermore, Figure 4.13 confirms the greater effective stress-induced permeability reduction in low rank coal than high rank coal. Interestingly, the swelling-induced permeability reduction appears to be greater for high rank coal than low rank coal (Figure 4.13). As discussed by Ranathunga et al (2017a), mature high rank coal has a well-developed cleat system that provides more provision for  $CO_2$  transport and adsorption processes, which may eventually enhance the coal swelling strain resulting in permeability reduction. However, these observations indicate that it is necessary to correct the permeability data for sorptive gases by eliminating the influence of the additional effective stress from the swelling strain of coal. This certainly requires precise estimation of the swelling-created permeability changes. Therefore, an effort was made to predict swelling-induced permeability reduction. This is the subject of the next section.



Figure 4.13. Comparison of permeability change caused by effective stress and swelling strain for low rank and high rank coal

4.3.4

Prediction of swelling-induced permeability alterations in coal

The modified Dubinin–Radushkevich (D-R) (refer to Eq. [4.12]) equation has often been used by researchers to predict the adsorption capacity of coal, because of its ability to predict the adsorption capacity of various gases at high pressures (super-critical) on different coal types (Sakurovs et al., 2010; Sakurovs et al., 2007, 2008).

$$W_{ads} = W_o \left( 1 - \frac{\rho_g}{\rho_a} \right) exp \left\{ -D \left[ \ln \left( \frac{\rho_a}{\rho_g} \right) \right]^2 \right\}$$
[4.12]

where,  $W_{ads}$  excess sorption,  $W_o$  is the surface adsorption capacity of the substrate,  $\rho_g$  is the gas density,  $\rho_a$  is the density of the adsorbed phase and D is a constant related to the affinity of the sorbent of the gas. This model has been successfully used to estimate sorption-induced swelling in coal mass (Anggara et al., 2013; Day et al., 2008; Day et al., 2010; Ranathunga et al., 2017b) (refer to Eq. [4.13]).

$$S = S_{max} exp\left\{-D\left[\ln\left(\frac{\rho_L}{\rho_g}\right)\right]^2\right\}$$
[4.13]

where, *S* is volumetric swelling (%),  $S_{max}$  is maximum swelling of the coal,  $\rho_g$  is the gas density at the temperature and pressure used for the testing,  $\rho_L$  is the van der Waals density of the gas ( $\rho_L = 1028 \text{ kg/m}^3$  for CO<sub>2</sub> (Day et al., 2010)) and *D* is an empirical curve-fitting parameter. Therefore, an effort was made during the present study to represent sorption-induced CO<sub>2</sub> permeability by the D-R model. The model was modified as follows (refer to Eq. [4.14]) for application to the permeability of coal:

$$k = k' exp\left\{-D'\left[\ln\left(\frac{\rho_L}{\rho_g}\right)\right]^2\right\}$$
[4.14]

where, k is the sorption-induced permeability, k' and D' are empirical curve-fitting parameters and  $\rho_g$  and  $\rho_L$  carry similar meanings as in Eq. [4.13].

### 4.3.4.1 Prediction of swelling-induced permeability variations for low rank coal

The results obtained by applying Eq. [4.14] to brown coal swelling-induced permeability data are demonstrated in Figure 4.14 and Table 4.10, and both show a better representation of experimentally- derived CO<sub>2</sub> sorption-induced permeability changes with a good fit of less than 0.95. This implies that this modified D-R model (Eq. [4.14]) can be used to predict the sorption-induced permeability alterations in brown coal. As shown in Table 4.10, both k' and D' parameters for permeability are reduced with increasing pressure difference (confining and pore pressures). Figure 4.15 displays the variation of both k' and D' with pressure difference using the experimental data for CO<sub>2</sub> permeation. As shown in the figure, k' follows a decreasing exponential variation with pressure difference.



Figure 4.14. Comparison of experimental and D-R model-predicted  $CO_2$  sorption-induced permeability values for different pressure changes  $(P_c - P_i)$  of low rank coal

Table 1 10 D B model	noromators for C	O. comption	induced no	armaahility i	n low rank and
Table 4.10. D-K mouel	parameters for C	202 sorption-	-muuceu pe	enneadinty n	II IOW TAIK COAL



Figure 4.15. Variation of Dubinin–Radushkevich parameters k' and D' with pressure difference  $(P_c - P_i)$  for low rank coal

### 4.3.4.2 Prediction of swelling-induced permeability variations for high rank coal

Eq. [4.14] was used to predict the permeability alterations in high rank coal upon CO<sub>2</sub> adsorptioninduced swelling using the data obtained by Chen et al. (2011) for Australian bituminous coal (refer to Figure 4.16 and Table 4.11 for the results) and a good fit of data with less than 0.96  $R^2$ value can be observed for high rank coal, confirming the applicability of this simple permeability model to any type of coal.

A comparison of the D-R model parameters of two coal types (Tables 4.10 and 4.11) shows that similar to low rank coal, high rank coal also exhibits a reduction in both k' and D' parameters with increasing pressure difference. Interestingly, high rank coal too follows a similar type variation as for low rank coal which is an exponential reduction of k' and linear reduction of D'parameters with the pressure difference between confining pressure and pore pressure (refer to Figure 4.17).



Figure 4.16. Comparison of experimental and D-R model-predicted  $CO_2$  sorption-induced permeability values for different pressure changes ( $P_c - P_i$ ) of high rank coal



Table 4.11. D-R model parameters for CO<sub>2</sub> sorption-induced permeability in high rank coal

Figure 4.17. Variation of Dubinin–Radushkevich parameters k' and D' with pressure difference  $(P_c - P_i)$  for high rank coal

The modified D-R model can be presented as in Eqs. [4.15a-c] to calculate the CO<sub>2</sub> sorption- induced permeability variations for any type of coal, including the empirical relationships obtained for k' and D' from the present study (low rank coal) and Chen et al.'s (2011) data (high rank coal).

$$k = k_i' exp\left\{-D_i' \left[\ln\left(\frac{\rho_L}{\rho_g}\right)\right]^2\right\}$$
[4.15a]

$$k_i' = a_i exp(b_i dP)$$
[4.15b]

$$D'_i = c_i dP + d_i \tag{4.15c}$$

where, dP is the pressure difference between the confining pressure and the pore pressure, and  $a_i, b_i, c_i$  and  $d_i$  are empirically-derived constants for low and high rank coals where *i* denotes the coal type. The empirical constants (*a*, *b*, *c* and *d*) for the two coal types used for the permeability predictions are demonstrated in Table 4.12 and the estimated swelling-induced permeabilities for those two coal types for higher pressure differences (*dP*) are shown in Figure 4.18. According to Figure 4.18, the estimated sorption strain-induced permeability is reduced with increasing pressure difference for both low and high rank coals. This is possibly due to the lower sorption potential

for higher in situ stress applications that reduces the influence of sorption strain on permeability. However, low rank coal shows a much steeper reduction in swelling-induced permeability reduction with pore pressure. The higher effective stress effect on low rank coal plays the main role in permeability variation and the resulting lesser influence of  $CO_2$  sorption-induced permeability reduction may be the reason. Therefore, these findings suggest that low rank coal is subject to less structural modification through sorption strain-induced swelling than high rank coal.

Table 4.12. Empirical constant of Eqs. [4.15b, c] to derive CO<sub>2</sub> sorption- induced permeability variations

Empirical constant	Low rank coal	High rank coal
$a_i$	0.0195	0.6564
$b_i$	-0.3010	-0.2410
c <sub>i</sub>	-0.0234	-0.0083
$d_i$	-0.2809	-0.0348



Figure 4.18. Predicted CO<sub>2</sub> sorption-induced permeability variations using modified D-R model for low rank coal (present study) and high rank coal (Chen et al., 2011)

### 4.3.5 Conclusions

The following major conclusions were drawn from the present study of the influence of effective stress- and sorption-induced strain on coal's mass structure and its flow ability during  $CO_2$  sequestration. According to the findings,

> Often, the effective stress coefficient of any rank coal may not be equal to unity and this nonunity of the effective stress parameter ( $\alpha \neq 1$ ) causes an additional effective stress influence to be induced on the coal sample compared to the condition of  $\alpha = 1$ . Therefore, the  $\alpha = 1$  assumption often causes an under-estimation of the influence of effective stress on coal's structure, and the situation becomes more critical with increasing pore pressure.

- In addition to the effective stress effect, gas adsorption-induced swelling has a considerable influence on coal permeability. However, this is affected by the effective stress effect.
- High rank coal is subjected to a greater reduction in permeability through swelling compared to low rank coal, possibly due to the potential greater swelling ability of high rank coal due to its well-developed cleat system.
- Both low and high rank coals experience permeability reductions with increasing effective stresses, and these reductions are comparatively higher for low rank coal due to its lower strength and higher compressibility.
- ➤ Tests results exhibit an over-estimation of the permeability reduction caused by swelling in both high and low rank coals due to the effective stress effect, which is greater at greater effective stresses (higher pressure differences → higher confining pressures and pore pressures).
- Finally, the modified Dubinin–Radushkevich (D-R) model was used to predict the swellinginduced permeability reductions in the coal mass and produced successful results for both low and high rank coals with a reasonable fitting value of less than 0.96. Therefore, the modified D-R model can be applied to any coal type with known empirical relationships for k' and D'.

### 4.3.6 References

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### 4.4 How does the temperature alter CO<sub>2</sub> permeability in coal?

### 4.4.1 Overview

In deep coal seams, the temperature becomes higher (> $40^{\circ}$ C) depending on the depth and geological conditions, which causes the kinetic energy of the gas molecules to increase. Accordingly, this increases the rate of diffusion and results in reduction of adsorption capacity, which affects coal's gas permeability. In several previous studies (Perera et al., 2012; Shao et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2008; Zhao et al., 2010) on temperature effect on coal gas permeability, much less attention has been paid to brown coal, which indicates the necessity of a detailed study. Therefore, the main objective of this study is to investigate the effect of temperature on the permeability of Victorian brown coal. A series of tri-axial experiments was conducted on brown coal specimens collected from the Latrobe Valley basin, Victoria. Permeability tests were carried out under 10 MPa confinement for two different temperatures (25 and  $40^{\circ}$ C). Both CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> were injected into the samples under various injecting pressures to obtain a detailed comparison between reactive and non-reactive gas permeability.

A conference paper was produced from this section of the chapter as follows:

**Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG (2014). An Experimental Study to Investigate Temperature Effect on Permeability of Victorian Brown Coal during CO<sub>2</sub> Sequestration, ISRM International Symposium and 8th Asian Rock Mechanics Symposium (ARMS8), Sapporo, Japan, 14-16 October, 2014; Paper No. ARMS8\_PO-82.

### 4.4.2 Introduction

As explained in previous sections, the injection of  $CO_2$  into the coal mass causes its chemical and physical properties to change greatly, which causes the amount of injectable  $CO_2$  and producible  $CH_4$  to become unpredictable. There has been much research conducted into the effects of  $CO_2$  on coal, which has revealed that a great degree of swelling is caused by  $CO_2$  adsorption that, in turn, can cause the permeability of the coal mass to severely decrease. Beyond 7.38 MPa pressure and  $31.8^{\circ}C$  temperature,  $CO_2$  exists in its super-critical condition (Oldenburg, 2006) (Figure 4.19), which creates a greater swelling effect in coal due to its greater sorption capacity compared to gas or liquid  $CO_2$  (Perera et al., 2011b). Generally, unmineable coal seams are present beyond 1000 m depths from the ground surface, where the pressures and temperatures are higher than the critical value of  $CO_2$  (7.38 MPa and  $31.8^{\circ}C$ ) and therefore,  $CO_2$  is present in the super-critical state (Figure 4.19). Many researchers have identified various factors that influence  $CO_2$  permeability in coal seams, including both coal mass and adsorbing gas properties, such as coal rank, moisture content, temperature, depth, gas composition and adsorbing gas pressure, gas type and phase and injection and production well operations (Bustin and Clarkson, 1998; Harpalani and Schraufnagel, 1990; Jasinge et al., 2011; Pan et al., 2010; Perera et al., 2011; Ranathunga et al., 2015; Skawiński, 1999). However, very few studies have been conducted on the effect of temperature on gas permeability in coal (Perera et al., 2012; Shao et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2008; Zhao et al., 2010).



Figure 4.19. Phase diagram for CO<sub>2</sub> (Oldenburg, 2006)

At 1 km depth the San Juan basin, New Mexico has a temperature of around 52  $^{0}$ C (Reeves and Oudinot, 2005), at 2 km depth the Black Warrior basin, Alabama has a temperature of around 50  $^{0}$ C (Pashin and McIntyre, 2003) and at 3 km depth the Altmark natural gas field in Germany has a temperature of around 120  $^{0}$ C (Rebscher et al., 2006). The figures indicate that the temperatures of deep coal seams at different geological locations are different and higher than the ground surface temperature.

According to Azmi et al. (2006), deeper and warmer coal seams adsorb less CO<sub>2</sub> at a given pressure than shallower and cooler ones. Perera et al. (2012), Bae and Bhatia (2006) and Kronimus et al. (2008) found that super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> is subjected to the temperature effect more significantly than gas or liquid sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> (Figure 4.20). Further, Perera et al. (2012) investigated the temperature effect on coal permeability for CO<sub>2</sub> movement, using naturally- fractured black coal. They observed a significant increase in coal permeability with increasing temperature for higher CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressures (>10MPa), and an insignificant effect on permeability at low CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressures (<9 MPa) (Figure 4.21). This is basically due to the fact that, with increasing temperature, the sorption capacity and the swelling effect in coal are reduced (Bae and Bhatia, 2006), causing

an increment in coal permeability at higher temperatures. This shows the importance of selecting a coal seam with appropriate physical properties in order to achieve an effective CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM process. In relation to the temperature effect in low rank coal, Shao et al. (2016) conducted a series of permeability tests on Chinese lignite samples, varying the temperatures from 20 to 650  $^{0}$ C using 0.5 to 5 MPa N<sub>2</sub> injections under 10 MPa confinement. They observed a fluctuation of N<sub>2</sub> permeability when the temperature increased and both pore pressure and temperature were found to be highly influential on N<sub>2</sub> permeation. A summary of their findings is listed in Table 4.13.



Figure 4.20. Effect of temperature on sorption capacity of coal (Kronimus et al., 2008)



Figure 4.21. Temperature effects on CO<sub>2</sub> permeability at 20 MPa confinement (Perera and Ranjith, 2012)

# Table 4.13. Results of $N_2$ permeability variation with pore pressure and temperature in low rank coal (Shao et al., 2016)

Pore pressure	Permeability variation due to temperature change		
range		, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	
0.5 – 2 MPa	Observation	Reason	
Permeability varies		$20^{0}C - 75^{0}C$	
in five stages with	Permeability	Temperature increases for coal, thereby closing the pores and fractures	
temperature	decreases with	available for gas movement (Shao et al., 2016)	
I man	increasing temperature		
	8 1	$75^{0}$ C - 150 <sup>0</sup> C	
	Permeability increases	Moisture and some volatile components are exuded at higher temperatures.	
	with increasing	Evaporation moisture causes thermal cracks to propagate, inducing more	
	temperature	nermeable channels (Zou et al. 2015)	
		$150^{0}$ C - 300 <sup>0</sup> C	
	Permeghility	Due to the purplysis of lignite fractures and pores are propagated creating	
	decreases with	more flow paths. However, this purplusis also causes coal softening	
	increasing temperature	aventually reducing permeable channels with the application of confining	
	increasing temperature	pressure and thermal expansion reducing permeability (Zou et al. 2015)	
		200°C 250°C	
	Darmashility in grasses	The effect of purplusic continues. However, more nore channels are greated.	
	with increasing	the effect of pyrorysis continues. However, more pore channels are created	
	with increasing	than in the previous temperature range due to the greater pyrotysis which	
	temperature	nappens within this range of temperature in lightle, creating more flow paths	
		for $N_2$ movement (Snao et al., 2016; Zou et al., 2015).	
		$350^{\circ}\text{C} - 650^{\circ}\text{C}$	
	Permeability	Drastic depolymerisation and poly-condensation reactions occur in the coal	
	decreases with	mass, resulting in obstruction of pores and fractures by the plastic mass	
	increasing temperature	formed by the softening and melting of the coal (Zou et al., 2015).	
		Further, greater softening effect causes lower bearing capacities in lignite,	
		resulting in shrinkage of inter-connected pores and therefore, low	
		permeability (Shao et al., 2016).	
2.5 – 3.5 MPa	Observation	Reason	
Permeability is	- Similar to 0.5 MP	a to 2 MPa pore pressure range permeability variations -	
varied in five stages			
with temperature			
4 – 5 MPa	Observation	Reason	
Permeability varies		$20^{0}$ C - 75 $^{0}$ C	
in five stages with	Similar to 0.5 MPa to 2 MPa pore pressure range permeability variations		
temperature	$75^{0}C - 150^{0}C$		
	Similar to 0.5 MPa to 2 MPa pore pressure range permeability variations		
		$150^{\circ}\text{C} - 350^{\circ}\text{C}$	
	Permeability increases	Lower effective stress at higher pore pressures increases permeability	
	slowly with increasing	(Siriwardane et al., 2009)	
	temperature		

$350^{0}\text{C} - 450^{0}\text{C}$			
Permeability	Lignite continues to pyrolyse and new permeable channels are created.		
decreases with	Meanwhile, the rising temperature further softens the coal. When the strength		
increasing temperature	of the coal can no longer resist the effective stress, the volume of the coal		
	skeleton becomes smaller, thereby closing the permeable channels (Shao et		
	al., 2016).		
	$450^{\circ}\text{C} - 650^{\circ}\text{C}$		
Permeability increases	Higher pore pressures combined with the enhanced kinetic energy at higher		
gradually with	temperatures mean that gas has the ability to flow through the blocked coal		
increasing temperature	pores, with depolymerisation and polycondensation reactions creating higher		
	permeabilities (Shao et al., 2016).		

However, the influence of temperature on  $CO_2$  permeability in low rank coal has not yet been studied, although it is very important for the efficient sequestration of  $CO_2$ . Therefore, the main objective of this study is to investigate the effect of temperature on  $CO_2$  permeability in coal using coupled flow-thermal-mechanical experiments on Victorian brown coal.

### 4.4.3 Experimental methodology

Coal samples with around 53% moisture content were taken from large coal blocks from the Latrobe Valley, Hazelwood open-cut mine in Gippsland, Australia, and stored in black garbage bags in the fog room in the Monash University Civil Engineering Laboratory (MUCEL) to preserve the natural moisture content and other chemical properties. First, 25 mm diameter samples were cored using the coring machine and then cut to around 54 mm lengths using the rock saw available in MUCEL. Samples were then end-ground and polished to 50 mm lengths using the grinder machine at MUCEL to ensure the faces were parallel and smooth (refer to Chapter 3).

Experiments were carried out using the high-pressure tri-axial set up (50 MPa) available in the MUCEL (Ranjith and Perera, 2011). Detailed descriptions of this set-up and the general test procedure are provided in Ranjith and Perera (2011). Permeability tests were conducted for both  $CO_2$  and  $N_2$  injections at four different injecting pressures under 10 MPa confining pressure (to represent a coal seam at around 400 m depth) as shown in Table 4.14. To study the temperature effect, these permeability tests were repeated for two different temperatures: 25 and 40  $^{\circ}C$  (the possible temperature of coal at the depth of 400 m (Suggate, 1974)). The undrained condition was used to determine permeability using a transient flow approach, as suggested by Siriwardane et al., (2009). The downstream boundary condition was maintained at a constant volume of 10.9 cm<sup>3</sup>, while the upstream boundary condition was maintained at a constant pressure equal to the injection pressure (Table 4.14).

<b>Confining pressure (MPa)</b>	CO <sub>2</sub> injecting pressure (MPa)	N2 injecting pressure (MPa)
10	5	5
	6	6
	7	7
	8	8

Table 4.14. Test conditions used for permeability tests.

Using an advanced data acquisition system, downstream pressure development (under undrained conditions) after injecting gas upstream was monitored and recorded at one-second intervals. The downstream pressure vs. time curve was used to calculate the permeability of the coal sample upon reaching steady state using Eq. [4.16] (Siriwardane et al., 2009):

$$Q = \left(\frac{dP}{dt}\right) \times \beta V \tag{4.16}$$

where, Q is the flow rate through the specimen, V is the downstream volume,  $\beta$  is the adiabatic compressibility of the gas, and dP/dt is the rate of change in the downstream pressure with time. Darcy's law (Eq. [4.17]) was then used to calculate the corresponding permeability:

$$k = \frac{2QP_o\mu L}{A(P_i^2 - P_o^2)}$$
[4.17]

where, Q,  $\mu$ ,  $P_o$ , and  $P_i$  are the gas flow rate through the coal specimen, the viscosity of the fluid, the downstream pressure and the upstream pressure, respectively. The specimens had crosssectional area, A, and mean length, L and initial permeability, k. The adiabatic compressibility and the viscosity of the fluid for different pressure and temperature conditions were obtained from the REFPROP data base (McLinden et al. 1998).

In the first stage, a series of experiments was conducted to investigate the effect of temperature on the permeability of brown coal specimens. First,  $CO_2$  was injected into the coal samples at various injection pressures (Table 4.14) under 10 MPa confining pressure at 25 °C. The downstream pressure developments were observed and recorded to calculate the permeability for each injection pressure. The temperature of the set-up was then increased to 40 °C and maintained until the sample reached 40 °C. The same test series was repeated to check the temperature effect on  $CO_2$  permeability. The downstream pressure development curves during 12 hours for the four  $CO_2$  injecting pressures under 10 MPa confining pressure for 25 and 40 °C conditions are shown in Figure 4.22. After the completion of the permeability tests for  $CO_2$  injection, N<sub>2</sub> gas was injected into the coal sample under the same conditions to study the effect of temperature on the permeability of N<sub>2</sub>.



Figure 4.22. Downstream pressure developments at 25 <sup>o</sup>C and 40 <sup>o</sup>C temperatures for different CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressures

### 4.4.4 Results and Discussion

As described above, the temperature effect on  $CO_2$  permeability was investigated for four different injecting pressures at 10 MPa confining pressure (Table 4.14). Figure 4.23 shows the permeability values for CO<sub>2</sub> injection calculated for each experimental condition. This shows a noteworthy effect of temperature on CO<sub>2</sub> permeability and hence on the injectivity of CO<sub>2</sub> into deep coal seams. According to the results, CO<sub>2</sub> permeability decreases with increasing injecting pressures at both 25 and 40 °C, while CO<sub>2</sub> permeability for 8 MPa injecting pressure at 40 °C shows a higher permeability reduction than at 25 °C. For instance, when the injecting pressure is increased from 7 MPa to 8 MPa, the permeability is decreased by 4.4% at 25 °C, whereas there is 8.2% reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> permeability at 40 <sup>o</sup>C. The CO<sub>2</sub> permeability reduction observed with increasing injecting pressure at lower temperatures (25 and 40 °C) is basically due to the process of swelling inside the coal sample during CO<sub>2</sub> injection (Vishal et al., 2013). According to Perera et al. (2011), this volumetric swelling causes the fracture aperture to close down, resulting in a reduction of coal sample permeability (Figure 4.23). Further, at 40 <sup>o</sup>C and 8 MPa the CO<sub>2</sub> flood is under super-critical conditions. As observed in Section 4.2, super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> causes greater permeability reductions in brown coal and this is also evident in the present study. Therefore, the percentage decrease in permeability is dominated by the CO<sub>2</sub> phase condition (gas/liquid/supercritical) and the coal permeability varies with the CO<sub>2</sub> phase condition for a given depth (refer to Sections 4.2 and 4.3).



Figure 4.23. Variation of  $CO_2$  permeability with different injecting pressures for 10 MPa confinement at 25 and 40  $^{0}C$ 

However, a small increment of permeability can be seen from 5 to 7 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injecting pressures when the temperature is increased from 25 to 40  $^{\circ}$ C. The CO<sub>2</sub> permeability increases by around 2.5% for 6 MPa injecting pressure after the temperature is elevated from 25 to 40  $^{\circ}$ C. Azmi et al. (2006) found that the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> molecules sorbed into the coal matrix reduces with increasing temperature (Figure 4.24) and Bae and Bhatia (2006) found that this reduction increases with increasing injection pressure (Figure 4.24). Therefore, CO<sub>2</sub> permeability should increase with increasing temperature, as observed for 5 to 7 MPa injecting pressures (Figure 4.23).



Figure 4.24. Variation of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacity with temperature in low rank coal for a given pressure of 17 kPa (Azmi et al., 2006)

However, higher CO<sub>2</sub> pore pressures (super-critical -8 MPa) at lower temperatures (40  $^{0}$ C) still have a greater influence on CO<sub>2</sub> permeability than lower pore pressures (5 -7MPa) in spite of the reduced adsorption capacity. The results obtained from this test series for brown coal) are consistent with the findings of Perera et al. (2012) for naturally fractured black coal, which showed similar behaviour for lower temperatures (Figure 4.23), and higher pore pressures (8 -12 MPa)

showed around 22% reduction in permeability at 40  $^{0}$ C. Hence, we can deduce that CO<sub>2</sub> permeability is decreased for higher injection pressures (above 8 MPa) at lower temperatures, regardless of the rank of the coal. Conversely, Perera et al. (2012) observed an increment in CO<sub>2</sub> injectivity for higher temperatures (greater than 40  $^{0}$ C) in high rank coal, even at higher CO<sub>2</sub> pore pressures. For instance, the permeability increased by around 24% for 12 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> flooding when the temperature was raised from 50 to 70  $^{0}$ C. As witnessed by Bae and Bhatia (2006), the reduction of adsorption capacity of CO<sub>2</sub> is greater at higher pore pressures at elevated temperatures (refer to Figure 4.20), which may be the reason for this increase in permeability for high rank coal (Perera et al., 2012). A similar type of behaviour can be expected for low rank coal. However, it should be further investigated to draw a definitive conclusion on the effect of higher temperatures on brown coal permeability.

After completing the CO<sub>2</sub> injection, N<sub>2</sub> gas was injected into the coal sample under the same conditions to study the effect of temperature on N<sub>2</sub> permeability (see Figure 4.25). However, the influence of temperature on N<sub>2</sub> permeability was negligible (Figure 4.25) compared to the CO<sub>2</sub> permeability (Figure 4.25), which showed only around 0.75 to 1.3% increment in permeability when the temperature was raised from 25 to 40  $^{\circ}$ C. N<sub>2</sub> is a non-reactive gas that causes a negligible adsorption or swelling effect in the coal matrix compared to CO<sub>2</sub> (Kiyama et al., 2011), and therefore does not create any noticeable change in permeability when pore pressure is increased.



Figure 4.25. Variation of  $N_2$  permeability with different injecting pressures for 10 MPa confinement at 25 and 40  $^{\circ}$ C temperatures.

However, Shao et al. (2016) observed a reduction in permeability in the 20 to  $75^{\circ}$ C temperature range when injecting 4 to 5 MPa N<sub>2</sub> into lignite due to the thermal expansion of coal matrix. The higher pore pressures used in the present study (>5 MPa) and the comparatively low temperature range 25 to 40  $^{\circ}$ C may have conceded the permeability reduction in this study (see

Figure 4.25). Further, irrespective of the rank of the coal, the effect of temperature on  $N_2$  permeability for coal is negligible, comparing the results of the current study (for brown coal) and the results obtained by Perera et al. (2012) (for naturally fractured black coal).

### 4.4.5 Conclusions

The following major conclusions can be drawn from the experimental results:

- CO<sub>2</sub> permeability increases when the temperature is increased from 25 to 40  $^{\circ}$ C.
- However, CO<sub>2</sub> permeability decreases for higher injecting pressures at 8 MPa, at temperatures less than 40 °C. This is due to the process of swelling in the coal sample during CO<sub>2</sub> injection, which decreases CO<sub>2</sub> permeability with increasing injecting pressure, especially under super-critical phase conditions.
- This greater permeability reduction during CO<sub>2</sub> flow at temperatures lower than 40 <sup>o</sup>C is common for any coal type. Hence, both the phase condition of CO<sub>2</sub> and its adsorption capacity at different temperatures are highly influential for CO<sub>2</sub> injectivity at different temperatures.
- The influence of temperature on N<sub>2</sub> permeability is negligible compared to CO<sub>2</sub> permeability, basically because N<sub>2</sub> is a comparatively more inert gas than CO<sub>2</sub> and does not cause a noteworthy swelling effect in the coal matrix.

### 4.4.6 References

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# 4.5 How does carbon dioxide adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling vary with various CO<sub>2</sub> properties and reservoir depths?

Coal matrix swelling with CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption is one of the main problems in the process of CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM in deep coal seams, as it causes coal seam flow ability to be considerably reduced (refer to Section 4.2). Hence, it would be interesting to observe the volumetric strain variations of coal specimens to quantify coal matrix swelling during CO<sub>2</sub> flow. Therefore, the main objective of this study was to investigate the effect of coal mass swelling on the permeability of Victorian brown coal. The coal matrix swelling was measured during the meso-scale permeability test series mentioned in Section 4.2. As explained in Section 4.2, a series of tri-axial permeability tests was conducted on brown coal specimens 38 mm in diameter by 76 mm high. These tests were carried out for CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> injections from 5 - 14 MPa injection pressures under 11 to 17 MPa confining pressures at 35 °C. The changes in volumetric strain of the samples during different CO<sub>2</sub> properties and reservoir depths and the corresponding effects on CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> permabilities were examined.

This section of the chapter is the following paper:

**Ranathunga AS,** Perera MSA, Ranjith PG, Zhang XG (2017). The influence of  $CO_2$  properties and reservoir depth on coal matrix swelling: A meso-scale experimental study using low rank coal. *Energy Fuel* (under review).

## The influence of CO<sub>2</sub> properties and reservoir depth on coal matrix swelling: A meso-scale experimental study using low rank coal

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### Abstract

Although the greater adsorption potential of carbon dioxide ( $CO_2$ ) in coal is an appealing fact in relation to the long-term safe storage of  $CO_2$  in coal seams, the resulting coal structure modification, particularly through coal matrix swelling, adds many uncertainties to the process. To date, many studies have been initiated, particularly on the effects of injecting  $CO_2$  and reservoir properties on this swelling process and the associated reservoir permeability depletion. These influences are largely dependent on the maturity of the coal mass and its structure, including the cleat system. However, little attention has been given to date to the effect of coal rank on  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling. Ranathunga et al. (2017) conducted a series of tri-axial permeability tests using Australian brown coal samples for both  $CO_2$  and  $N_2$  under various confinements and injections at 35  $^{0}C$  to investigate the influence of  $CO_2$  properties and reservoir depth on  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced flow reductions in coal of various ranks. However, this understanding cannot be achieved without detailed analysis of the coal's swelling characteristics. This is the focus of the present study.

Based on the experimental evaluation of coal matrix swelling under various  $CO_2$  and reservoir conditions, super-critical  $CO_2$  adsorption leads to greater coal matrix swelling in coal, and the degree of swelling is dependent on reservoir depth and coal maturity. This coal matrix swelling reduces with increasing reservoir depth, due to the associated reduction in  $CO_2$  sorption capacity into coal. However, this also depends on the pore pressure conditions, and lower effective stresses lead to greater swelling reduction, regardless of coal rank. The potential of N<sub>2</sub> to recover the swelled areas was tested by permeating the coal mass with N<sub>2</sub> at different pressures and for different durations (24, 48 and 72 hours). The results show a greater potential for recovery at lower depths and for longer durations of N<sub>2</sub> flooding. Finally, the applicability of the Dubinin– Radushkevich (D-R) model for the prediction of low rank coal swelling was tested and good agreement between the model data and the measured swelling data was found.

Keywords: brown coal, CO<sub>2</sub> phase and pressure, coal matrix swelling, reservoir depth

### 4.5.1 Introduction

The storage of  $CO_2$  in deep un-mineable coal seams is currently identified as a potential approach to the minimization of anthropogenic  $CO_2$  in the atmosphere. Numerous research studies have therefore been commenced on this method, particularly related to the alteration of coal seam properties (hydro-mechanical properties) upon  $CO_2$  injection. According to these studies,  $CO_2$  has greater potential to be adsorbed into the coal mass compared to the existing  $CH_4$  in the coal matrix, which confirms the great storage potential for  $CO_2$  in underground coal reservoirs (Skawiński, 1999).

Generally, CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM is carried out in deep coal seams, where CO<sub>2</sub> is in its super-critical state (beyond the critical temperature of  $31.8^{\circ}$ C and critical pressure of 7.38 MPa) due to the high temperatures and pressure conditions at such depths (Oldenburg, 2006). Interestingly, super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> has greater adsorption potential than sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> due to its inherent chemical and physical characteristics (liquid-type densities and viscosities and gas-type compressibilities) (Perera et al., 2015). In the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption process in coal, CO<sub>2</sub> first flows through the macropores (butt and face cleats) and adsorbs into the fracture walls. Then it slowly diffuses into the micro-pores (pores in the coal matrix) and adsorbs into the micro-pores (Pan and Connell, 2007). However, during this process of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption into the coal matrix, a strain is induced between the coal matrix and the adsorbing CO<sub>2</sub> layer, which is commonly known as coal matrix swelling (Gale, 2004; Mazumder and Wolf, 2008; Vandamme et al., 2010).

Coal matrix swelling reduces the pore spaces available for gas movement, resulting in reduced overall permeability (White et al., 2005). This is evident in field-scale projects, such as the San Juan basin, USA and the Ishikari basin, Japan, which showed around 50 to 70% reduction of  $CO_2$  injection capacity within the first six months to one year (Fujioka et al., 2010; Reeves, 2001). Further, according to Botnen et al. (2009), the initial  $CO_2$  permeability of the Williston basin lignite coal seam in North Dakota was reduced by 10 times within the first year as a result of coal matrix swelling. In addition, Gale (2004) stated that this swelling process can create significant stress on the cap rock, which may lead to cap rock failure and hence possible  $CO_2$  backmigration into the atmosphere. Therefore, it is clear that the effect of coal matrix swelling on coal's flow and strength characteristics is of crucial importance.

Day et al. (2008), Hol et al. (2011), Karacan (2007), Pan et al. (2010), Perera et al. (2011a), Siriwardane et al. (2009), and Zutshi and Harpalani (2004) have studied this coal matrix swelling effect using tri-axial experiments on high-rank coal, and Jasinge (2010) and Balan and Gumrah (20209) conducted similar tri-axial tests on low-rank coal. However, these researchers used only low injecting pressures and examined only gas and liquid state  $CO_2$ . Although Anggara et al. (2013) conducted swelling experiments on crushed lignite from Indonesia for super-critical  $CO_2$  (up to 10 MPa) using coal blocks of 30 x 10 x 10 mm<sup>3</sup>, they did not consider the effect of confining pressure on coal swelling. The incorporation of this confining pressure effect is important for the correct identification of the swelling effect in field stress environments. Therefore, a knowledge gap exists on the effects of coal matrix swelling on permeability under super-critical conditions, especially for low-rank brown coal in confined environments.

The main purpose of this study is therefore to investigate the influence of  $CO_2$  phase condition (sub-critical and super-critical) on coal matrix swelling and the corresponding alterations in brown coal flow characteristics in various in-situ stress environments. This study is an extension of the work by Ranathunga et al. (2017) on the effect of  $CO_2$  phase and pressure on Australian brown coal permeability under in-situ stress conditions. The scientific reasons for the observed degraded  $CO_2$  flow behaviours in that study are discussed in the present study through the concept of coal matrix swelling.

Ranathunga et al. (2017) observed the potential of pressurised  $N_2$  to partially recover  $CO_2$ adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling, particularly under lower effective stresses. This is because the injected  $N_2$  reduces the partial pressure of the coal mass, which eventually leads to the desorption of physically-adsorbed  $CO_2$  from the coal matrix, resulting in reversible swelling recovery. In this study, further attention is paid to this coal matrix swelling behaviour after  $N_2$ permeation to clarify the results of Ranathunga et al. (2017) on permeability enhancement. Ranathunga et al. (2017) found a lower recovery potential at higher effective stresses due to the corresponding reduction in flow rates, and they explained the importance of offering more time for alternative  $N_2$  permeation for greater swelling recovery. This has been taken into consideration in this study by investigating the influence of  $N_2$  flooding duration on the degree of  $CO_2$ permeability enhancement.

### 4.5.2 Experimental Methodology

A series of swelling experiments was conducted simultaneously with the permeability tests conducted by Ranathunga et al. (2017), and the sample preparation and the experimental methodology for the flow tests are explained in Ranathunga et al. (2017). A summary is given in Figure 4.26 below.



Figure 4.26. Experimental program for tri-axial flow studies (here Pc is confining pressure and Pi is injection pressure)

 $N_2$  was injected into the coal sample before and after  $CO_2$  injection at various pressures to identify the alterations created by  $CO_2$  injection in the coal matrix, this could be done due to the comparatively less adsorptive nature of  $N_2$  than  $CO_2$ . As explained by Ranathunga et al. (2017),  $N_2$  has the potential to recover coal matrix swelling-induced matrix alterations.  $CO_2$  was therefore re-injected after 24 hours of  $N_2$  permeation to identify the corresponding enhancement in coal permeability. Further, the influence of  $N_2$  permeation duration on swelling recovery was also studied by flooding  $N_2$  for different time periods of 24, 48 and 72 hours on swelled coal samples under 6 MPa (sub-critical) and 8 MPa (super-critical)  $CO_2$  pressures.

During this complete test series, the volumetric strain in the coal sample was recorded using an advanced data acquisition system at one-second intervals to quantify the  $CO_2$  adsorptioninduced coal matrix swelling of the brown coal specimens in various stress environments. The volumetric swelling was calculated using the volume change data given by a syringe pump (see Eq. [4.18]) which was used to apply the confining pressure. When the sample swells, the excess oil volume inside the cell is pumped out towards the syringe pump, and when the sample shrinks oil is sent towards the sample from the pump (Figure 4.27).



Legend:

V<sub>initial</sub> – Initial oil volume of the cell

 $\pm \Delta V_x$  – Oil volume change due to sample volumetric changes (shrinking/swelling)

Figure 4.27. Oil volume change of pressure cell due to coal sample volume changes

Eq. [4.18] was used to calculate the volumetric strain in the coal sample under various injection conditions.

Volumetric strain of the sample 
$$(\varepsilon_v) = \left(\frac{\pm \Delta V_x}{V_{initial}}\right) \times 100\%$$
:  $\Delta V_x = V_{initial} - V_t$  [4.18]

where,  $V_{initial}$  is the initial pump volume for the respective test condition (stable pump volume after applying the confining pressure),  $V_t$  is the pump volume at time t and  $\Delta V_x$  is the oil volume change (pumped in or out from the syringe pump). Therefore, positive volumetric strains represent sample shrinkage ( $V_{initial} > V_t$ ) and negative volumetric strains represent sample swelling ( $V_{initial} < V_t$ ) (Figure 4.27). The whole test series was conducted at 35 <sup>o</sup>C (> 31.8 <sup>o</sup>C is the critical temperature of CO<sub>2</sub>) constant temperature to obtain the super-critical condition of the injected CO<sub>2</sub> when the pressure went beyond 7.38 MPa (the critical pressure of CO<sub>2</sub>). The volumetric strain variations of the coal samples for 6 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> injections under 11, 14 and 17 MPa confinements are shown in Figure 4.28.

### 4.5.3 Results and Discussion

### 4.5.3.1 Effect of sub- and super-critical CO2 adsorption on coal matrix swelling

According to Figure 4.28,  $CO_2$  flow through low rank brown coal causes clear coal matrix swelling (negative volumetric strain) compared to N<sub>2</sub>, and the matrix swelling gradually increases over time, regardless of confinement (Figure 4.28). The influence of  $CO_2$  phase and pressure on coal matrix swelling was therefore studied first.



Figure 4.28. Volumetric strain variation of brown coal samples for 6 MPa N<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> injections under various confining pressures (here Pc is confining pressure)

For the purposes of comparison, the sample volume increase or *coal matrix swelling* is denoted by positive volumetric strains (note that Eq. [4.18] gives a negative result for swelling; refer to Figure 4.27) and the sample volume decrease or *coal matrix shrinkage* is denoted by negative volumetric strains (note that Eq. [4.18] gives a positive result; refer to Figure 4.27) in Figure 4.29. Figure 4.29 shows the alteration of brown coal's volumetric strain following 24 hours of CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> flooding at 11 MPa confining pressure. According to the figure, increasing CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure results in greater volumetric strain in the tested brown coal. For example, 6 to 7 MPa and 8 to 9 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> pressure increments cause around 1.96% and 3.68% volumetric strain increments under 11 MPa confining pressure. Importantly, under the same pressure conditions, N2 injection exhibits only around 0.08% (6 to 7 MPa) and 0.11% (8 to 9 MPa) volume changes, which are insignificant compared to the CO<sub>2</sub> effect. The other important fact is that the increase of volumetric strain under super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> permeation is much greater compared to that for subcritical CO<sub>2</sub> permeation. For instance, 8 to 9 MPa super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> permeation causes coal mass swelling around 1.7% greater than the swelling caused by 6 to 7 MPa sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> permeation (Figure 4.29) under 11 MPa confining pressure. Ranathunga et al. (2017) found around 20% greater reduction in coal mass permeability when the CO<sub>2</sub> phase condition transitioned from subcritical (6 to 7 MPa) to super-critical (8 to 9 MPa). Hence, around 2% increase in swelling causes the reduction of the flow ability by 10 times, which confirms the influence of adsorbing CO<sub>2</sub> phase condition on coal mass swelling and the associated permeability for low-rank coal.


Figure 4.29. Volumetric strain variation with injection pressure under 11 MPa confining pressures for first N<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> injections (here the hollow data points represent the super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> pressures)

In relation to the CO<sub>2</sub> phase effect on swelling, this coal matrix swelling occurs due to the sorbed volume of the adsorbate (Ottiger et al., 2006), and hence this sorbed volume is proportional to the amount of coal matrix swelling (Battistutta et al., 2010). Therefore, increasing pore pressure inside the coal mass causes the  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced swelling to gradually increase. In the present study, when the injection pressure of CO<sub>2</sub> increased from 6 to 9 MPa, the average pore pressure inside the coal sample increased from around 5.53 MPa (< 7.38 - sub-critical range) to 7.73 MPa (> 7.38 – super-critical range) under 11 MPa confinement (here, the average pore pressure is taken as the mean value of the upstream and the steady-state downstream pressures). Therefore, with increasing CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure, coal matrix swelling increases (Figure 4.29). Further, this sorbed volume is greater for super-critical  $CO_2$  due to the higher adsorption capacity (Day et al., 2008), which causes greater coal matrix swelling and consequently greater permeability reduction, as observed by Ranathunga et al. (2017) for brown coal. Similarly, Perera et al. (2011b) observed around 14% radial strain increase for 5 MPa sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injection and around 50% strain increment for 8 MPa super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> flow for high-rank coal (Australian bituminous coal). This shows that the greater coal matrix swelling observed under super-critical  $CO_2$  permeation is applicable to any coal seam, regardless of its rank.

According to Figure 4.28,  $CO_2$  absorption-induced swelling occurs at a maximum rate within the first 7 to 8 hours for 6 MPa  $CO_2$  injection under 11 MPa confining pressure. In comparison with the swelling behaviour reported in the research literature for high-rank coal, Perera et al. (2011b) observed a maximum radial strain increment within the first 3 to 4 hours of

sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injection under 10 MPa confinement. Unlike the intact coal samples used in the present study, the fractured black coal used by Perera et al. (2011b) had more provision for CO<sub>2</sub> permeation through the sample and this may have caused a quicker occurrence of maximum swelling compared to intact brown coal. In relation to the other two confinements considered (14 and 17 MPa), the maximum swelling rate was seen within the first 11 to 12 hours for 14 MPa confinement and within the first 17 to 18 hours for 17 MPa confinement. The maximum swelling rates for these in-situ stresses (11, 14 and 17 MPa) were 0.36, 0.1 and 0.03, respectively. According to these values, the swelling rate reduces with increasing confining pressure. According to Hol et al. (2011), CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacity reduces at high effective stresses due to reduced CO<sub>2</sub> molecule permeation into the fine pores in the coal mass, which explains the reason for the reduced volumetric swelling effect observed at greater confining pressures. This reduction of coal matrix swelling with increasing confinement is important in field-scale applications, because this represents the influence of coal seam reservoir depth on its swelling characteristics. This is therefore considered in detail in the following section.

#### 4.5.3.2 Effect of reservoir depth on coal matrix swelling

Figure 4.30 shows the variation of volumetric strain developed in the tested low rank brown coal with CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> flows in various confining stress environments. Note that here CO<sub>2</sub> density is used instead of CO<sub>2</sub> pressure to characterize the volumetric strain data, because gas density more precisely represents the injecting CO<sub>2</sub> properties due to its dependency on both temperature and pressure (Day et al., 2008). The density of  $CO_2$  was calculated for each injection condition (35  $^{0}C$ and 6 to 14 MPa injection pressures) using the REFPROP data base (McLinden et al., 1998). As shown in Figure 4.30(a), the volumetric strain of coal for CO<sub>2</sub> flow increases with increasing CO<sub>2</sub> density, regardless of confinement. However, the strain developed clearly reduces with increasing confinement. Figure 4.31 shows the volumetric strain reductions observed for different CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> injection conditions for 11 to 14 MPa and 14 to 17 MPa confining pressure increments, where the coal matrix swelling is subjected to a reduction with increasing confining stress. However, this confining stress influence on coal matrix swelling is more significant at low confinements (11 to 14 MPa) compared to high confinements (14 to 17 MPa). For example, around 1.08% and 5.45% strain reductions can be seen for 6 MPa (sub-critical) and 9 MPa (super-critical) CO<sub>2</sub> permeation in the coal mass under 11 to 14 MPa confining stress increment and only around 0.6% and 3.02% for 6 MPa (sub-critical) and 9 MPa (super-critical) CO<sub>2</sub> permeation in the coal mass under 14 to 17 MPa confining pressure increment. This greater swelling reduction under greater confinements is related to the much shrunken pore space that the coal mass undergoes at greater confinements, which reduces the surface area available for CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption.



Figure 4.30. Variation of volumetric strain under 11, 14 and 17 MPa confinements during first CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> injection (here the hollow data points represent the super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> conditions and the data labels denote the respective injection pressures)



Figure 4.31. Volumetric strain reduction from 11 to 14 MPa and 14 to 17 MPa confinement increase during first CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> injection (here the hollow data points represent the supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> conditions and the data labels denote the respective injection pressures)

The other important observation is the greater swelling under super-critical  $CO_2$  permeation compared to sub-critical  $CO_2$ . Super-critical  $CO_2$  has a greater adsorption capacity due to its highly chemically reactive nature (McLinden et al., 1998) and therefore causes greater coal matrix swelling. The average pore pressure conditions for the different  $CO_2$  injections under the three confining pressures (11, 14 and 17 MPa) are plotted against the upstream  $CO_2$  pressures in Figure 4.32. According to the figure, the average pore pressure has a similar behaviour to strain

variation, which shows a reduction of the pore pressure within the sample with increasing confining pressure for all the injection pressures. Hence, as explained previously, the reduced  $CO_2$  sorbed volume of the sample causes the reduction of coal matrix swelling. Further, the higher compressive forces available at higher effective stresses may also restrict the volumetric swelling. Therefore, the increase in volumetric strain reduction is a combined influence of the effective stress increment under higher compressive forces and the lower  $CO_2$  adsorption capacity in the shrunken pore structure. Hol et al.(2011) confirmed this lower swelling effect under greater effective stresses for high-rank coal. Therefore, the results of the present study confirm that, regardless of the rank of the coal seam, it is subjected to a lower swelling effect if the depth of the seam is great.



Figure 4.32. Average pore pressure variation in the coal sample during the first CO<sub>2</sub> injection (after 24 hours of injection)

Interestingly, this reduction of strains is greater for higher injection pressures for both 11 to 14 MPa and 14 to 17 MPa stress increments. For instance, a 1.71% increase in strain reduction was observed for 7 to 8 MPa injection pressures for an 11 to 14 MPa stress increase, while a 1.1% increase in strain reduction was observed for the same injection pressures for a 14 to 17 MPa stress increase (Figure 4.31). This can be explained by the portion of the sample which undergoes different  $CO_2$  pressures under the respective conditions, as shown in Figure 4.33. Ranathunga et al. (2017) studied the  $CO_2$  pressure variation along coal samples, assuming a linear variation from upstream to downstream for each injection condition, and the same concept was used here for 7 and 8 MPa  $CO_2$  injections for the three different confinements.



Figure 4.33.  $CO_2$  pressure variation along the sample for 7, 8 and 9 MPa  $CO_2$  injection under 11, 14 and 17 MPa confining pressures (here Pi = injection pressure and Pc = confining pressure)

According to Figure 4.33, under the confinements considered here, 7 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injection (< 7.38 MPa, the critical pressure of CO<sub>2</sub>) causes the sample to undergo 100% CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption under sub-critical conditions, while 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injection (> 7.38 MPa, the critical pressure of CO<sub>2</sub>) causes the sample to undergo both sub- and super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption. However, the portion of the sample subjected to super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption is reduced with increasing confinement. For example, around 63%, 50% and 32% of the sample (assuming a linear variation from upstream to downstream) is subjected to super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption under 11, 14 and 17 MPa confinements, respectively. As discussed previously, the coal mass has much reduced pore space under higher confinements and therefore CO<sub>2</sub> has less ability to move through it, which results in a reduced super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> distributed area of the sample under greater confinements. Since super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorbed in the coal mass eventually reduces the degree of swelling. Therefore, when the confinement is increased from 11 to 14 MPa (1.71%) and 14 to 17 MPa (1.1%), a reduction in volumetric strain increment (swelling) is shown for 7 to 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> pressures in Figure 4.31.

When 9 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> permeates through brown coal, around 100%, 100% and 87.5% of the sample is in super-critical condition (Figure 4.33) under the three confinements considered here. Therefore, as explained above, the greater CO<sub>2</sub> sorbed volume in the sample due to the larger proportion of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> creates much greater swelling with super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> flooding. In relation to permeability for these conditions, a 7 to 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> pressure increase causes 3.2% and 1.8% permeability reduction increments with 11 to 14 MPa and 14 to 17 MPa confining stress

increments, respectively, while 5.2% and 2.7% increase of permeability reduction for the similar confinement increase was observed for 8 to 9 MPa super-critical  $CO_2$  permeation (Ranathunga et al. 2017). This confirms the influence of the effective stress changes on strain variations and the effect on  $CO_2$  flow.

Moreover, similar to the CO<sub>2</sub> injection, the strain developed in the coal mass during N<sub>2</sub> injection was also checked under changing confining stress environments and the results are shown in Figure 4.30. According to the figure, 0.34% and 0.28% strain reductions occur for 6 and 9 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> permeations when the confining stress increases from 11 to 14 MPa. In addition, the confinement-created strain reductions are greater for greater confinements, producing strain reductions of 0.48% for 6 MPa and 0.44% for 8 MPa with increasing confinement from 14 to 17 MPa. However, unlike in CO<sub>2</sub> flow, here the influence of N<sub>2</sub> pressure on swelling reduction which occurs with increasing confining pressure is negligible (Figure 4.31). This is because, compared to CO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub> is a less adsorptive, inert gas (Day et al., 2010). Therefore, the expected volumetric strain increase for N<sub>2</sub> with increasing pore pressure is minimal. Hence, the strain variations observed in Figure 4.31 are mainly due to the effective stress variation with in situ stresses.

#### 4.5.3.3 Potential of N<sub>2</sub> to reverse CO<sub>2</sub> induced coal matrix swelling

As discussed in previous sections, CO<sub>2</sub> flow through the coal matrix causes considerable matrix rearrangements, creating a negative impact on CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration. Although this swelling effect reduces with increasing reservoir depth, the swelling seems to happen at considerably higher rates for super-critical injected CO<sub>2</sub>, which is the most common CO<sub>2</sub> phase expected in potential unmineable coal seams (Vishal and Singh, 2015). This matrix swelling causes a reduction of injection capacities in many field-scale CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM projects, making the projects uneconomical (refer to Section 1). Hence, appropriate precautions to reduce this swelling effect are necessary for reservoir productivity enhancement in CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM projects. According to Perera et al. (2011a), the injection of a stream of  $N_2$  into the swelled coal mass creates a considerable improvement in the permeability of high-rank coal by partially reversing the CO<sub>2</sub>-induced coal matrix swelling. The applicability of this interesting technique to low rank coal was tested by Ranathunga et al. (2017) using lignite. The researchers found that  $N_2$  injection has the ability to improve the permeability of low-rank brown coal, particularly at lower effective stresses (Ranathunga et al. (2017). However, the precise identification of this ability of  $N_2$  requires a comprehensive overview of the swelling characteristic variations of the coal mass during this remediation process. In order to quantify the ability of N<sub>2</sub> flooding to partially recover CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling, the coal sample was subjected to 24 hours of N<sub>2</sub> flooding after each CO<sub>2</sub> injection, and the CO<sub>2</sub> injection was then repeated at the same pressure. For 6 and 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressures

the samples were also subjected to an additional 48 hours of the third  $N_2$  flooding after the second  $CO_2$  injection, followed by the third  $CO_2$  injection. Similarly, 72 hours of  $N_2$  flooding (fourth  $N_2$  flooding) for 6 and 8 MPa  $CO_2$  injection pressures was carried out after the third  $CO_2$  injection, followed by the fourth  $CO_2$  injection.

### a. After 24 hours of N<sub>2</sub> flooding

Figure 4.34 shows the swelling reduction observed with the second CO<sub>2</sub> injection after 24 hours of N<sub>2</sub> flooding for each CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure under the three different in-situ stresses considered here. As the figure shows, under all three confinements, swelling recovery is exponentially increased with increasing injection pressure, confirming that high-pressure N<sub>2</sub> flooding is more effective in recovering the reversible swelling areas created by CO<sub>2</sub>. For example, the swelling recovery percentages observed for 6 and 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressures are around 1.3% and 8.9% under 11 MPa confinement, and 0.7% and 2.9% under 17 MPa confinement, respectively (see Figure 4.34). According to Kiyama et al. (2011), N<sub>2</sub> has the ability to desorb CO<sub>2</sub> molecules from the pore faces by creating a partial pressure reduction in the sample, which contributes to the reduced swelling percentage in the sample. At higher N<sub>2</sub> pressures, the amount of N<sub>2</sub> entering the coal matrix is greater and eventually the amount of partial recovery of swelling is also greater. Furthermore, at higher CO<sub>2</sub> pressures, the sample is also subjected to greater volumetric strains and therefore  $N_2$  has more ability to recover the swelled areas (Figure 4.34). However, this recovery rate reduces with increasing reservoir depth. For instance, 0.6% and 6% reductions in swelling recovery can be seen for 6 and 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> floods with increasing confinement from 11 to 17 MPa. This is because, for higher confinements N<sub>2</sub> flow ability through the coal matrix slows down, which eventually gives less opportunity for swelling recovery for  $N_2$  (Figure 4.34).



Figure 4.34. Volumetric strain reduction for second CO<sub>2</sub> injection compared to first CO<sub>2</sub> injection after N<sub>2</sub> flooding for 24 hours

It should be noted that before the second  $CO_2$  injection, the sample had already been subjected to swelling during the first  $CO_2$  injection. Hence, less matrix rearrangement can be expected due to the second  $CO_2$  flow than the first (Perera et al., 2011b). Under higher  $CO_2$ pressures, the coal matrix undergoes considerable macro-molecular structural alterations due to the inherent chemical and physical interactions of super-critical  $CO_2$  and coal pore walls (Perera et al., 2011b; Pini et al., 2009). Hence, the expected swelling at higher injection pressures for the re-injection of  $CO_2$  will be less (Figure 4.34). In addition, the swelling is also reduced by reservoir depth, which causes much less swelling at higher confinements for the second  $CO_2$  injection. Therefore, both N<sub>2</sub> flooding and swelling reduction due to the alteration in the coal matrix caused by previous  $CO_2$  flows collectively influence the strain reductions observed during the second  $CO_2$ flow.

Figure 4.35 shows the CO<sub>2</sub> permeability increment against strain reduction with the second CO<sub>2</sub> flow, which confirms that the observed permeability increments after the N<sub>2</sub> flood in Ranathunga et al. (2017) are clearly due to the swelling recovery which occurred before the second CO<sub>2</sub> injection by the N<sub>2</sub> flood. Further, for all three confinements, the CO<sub>2</sub> permeability increment against swelling recovery exhibits a perfect linear variation (y = x) with an overall goodness fit of 0.99 (R<sup>2</sup>). This shows the ability of N<sub>2</sub> to be used as a catalyst to improve coal mass permeability by partially recovering CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced matrix swelling.



Figure 4.35. CO<sub>2</sub> permeability increase vs. swelling recovery after N<sub>2</sub> flooding

However, this method is only effective for low-rank coal under low confining stresses, because the higher permeability at lower confining stresses allows more  $N_2$  to enter the coal mass, which eventually reverses the swelling. Therefore, it can be expected that if  $N_2$  is injected into the coal matrix for a longer time, the amount of swelling recovery will increase. The following section discusses the swelling recovery by  $N_2$  of brown coal specimens after permeation for a further 48 and 72 hours.

### b. Permeation of $N_2$ for 48 and 72 hours

As described above, the duration of N<sub>2</sub> flooding has a significant influence on swelling recovery, as it offers more opportunity for N<sub>2</sub> to be involved in the recovery process. Figure 4.36 shows the CO<sub>2</sub> permeability after flooding of N<sub>2</sub> for 24, 48 and 72 hours of brown coal specimens at 6 and 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injections. According to the figure, an increase in CO<sub>2</sub> permeability occurs with increasing N<sub>2</sub> flooding duration. For example, 6 MPa sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> permeability increases by around 9.4% and 13.1% when the N<sub>2</sub> flooding duration is increased up to 48 and 72 hours for 11 MPa confining pressure. Similarly, for 11 MPa confinement, 8 MPa super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> permeability increases by 10.5% and 17.7% for 48 hours and 72 hours N<sub>2</sub> floods compared to 24 hours N<sub>2</sub> flooding. As explained previously, the longer durations allow more N<sub>2</sub> to enter the coal matrix and a greater amount of CO<sub>2</sub> to desorb from the coal mass, allowing an increment in swelling recovery. Interestingly, this increment is reduced for higher confinements (Figure 4.36). For example, around 7.2% and 8.3% decrease compared to 11 MPa confinement can be seen for 14 and 17 MPa confinements when  $N_2$  flooding duration is increased to 48 hours for 6 MPa  $CO_2$ injection. For similar conditions, around 4.9% (14 MPa confinement) and 7.1% (17 MPa confinement) reductions in CO<sub>2</sub> permeability compared to 11 MPa confinement were observed for 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> flow after 48 hours of N<sub>2</sub> flooding. In addition, the permeability increment is greater for higher injection pressures (Figure 4.36). For example, when the CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure is increased from 6 to 8 MPa, around 4.6%, 4.7% and 1.2% increases in CO<sub>2</sub> permeability increments (compared to 24 hours of N<sub>2</sub> permeation) were observed for 11, 14 and 17 MPa confining pressures, respectively after 72 hours of N<sub>2</sub> flooding. This can be explained by the volumetric strain variation observed during these various  $N_2$  floods through the coal specimens, as demonstrated in Figure 4.37.



Figure 4.36. CO<sub>2</sub> permeability after flooding N<sub>2</sub> for 24, 48 and 72 hours for 6 MPa and 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injections during 11, 14 and 17 MPa confining pressures (here the data labels denote the CO<sub>2</sub> permeability increase compared to 24 hours N<sub>2</sub> flooding)



Figure 4.37. Volumetric strain reduction of brown coal samples after flooding  $N_2$  for 24, 48 and 72 hours for 6 MPa and 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injections under 11, 14 and 17 MPa confining pressures

According to Figure 4.37, the volumetric strain reduction is increased with  $N_2$  flooding time for both 6 and 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injections. This observation confirms the higher permeability increments (Figure 4.36) when  $N_2$  flooding time is increased, because the increased coal mass swelling recovery for longer  $N_2$  flow durations is subjected to enhanced permeability in the coal matrix. In addition, the volumetric strain reduction is gradually reduced with confining pressure, and this reduction is comparatively higher for 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injection compared to 6 MPa. This indicates the higher permeability increments shown for lower effective stresses compared to higher effective stresses in Figure 4.36. According to Ranathunga et al. (2017), the effective stress effects on low-rank coals are higher than those for high-rank coals due to the lower strength and elastic modulus and higher shrinkage compressibilities of low-rank coal, which result in a more shrunken pore structure under higher stresses. Hence, although the  $N_2$  is flooded for a longer time, the expected swelling recovery is restricted with lower permeabilities at higher effective stresses. This warrants more research using time durations for  $N_2$  flooding longer than 72 hours for low rank coals.

Interestingly, Perera et al. (2011a) observed greater permeability increments in high rank coals under higher confining stress after 24 hours of  $N_2$  flooding. According to Perera et al. (2011a), the reduced flow rates under higher effective stresses allow more time for  $N_2$  to interact with CO<sub>2</sub> adsorbed coal and to recover more swelling areas. As mentioned above, high-strength high-rank coals undergo less pore structure shrinkage due to higher stresses than low rank coals. Therefore, unlike for low rank coals, much higher permeability increments with longer durations of  $N_2$  permeations at higher effective stresses can be expected following the above-mentioned phenomena. This needs to be confirmed by further research for much longer  $N_2$  flooding durations.

However, this method is only efficient at low confining stresses for low-rank coal. Therefore, future research is needed to investigate the most effective applicability of N<sub>2</sub> flooding for the swelling recovery process. Several researchers (Connell et al., 2011; Jessen et al., 2008; Perera et al., 2015; Reznik et al., 1984; Zhou et al., 2013) have tested various approaches. For example, field and laboratory studies have implemented the injection of a CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> binary mixture to recover coal mass swelling-induced permeability reductions (Mavor et al., 2004; Reeves and O'Neill, 1989). However, almost all the studies have been conducted on high-rank coals and have ignored low-rank coals. Hence, future research on the effective use of CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> mixtures to recover coal matrix swelling and related permeability issues for low-rank coals is necessary.

# 4.5.3.4 Prediction of CO<sub>2</sub> induced coal matrix swelling under various CO<sub>2</sub> pressures and reservoir depths in low rank coal

The swelling in coal reservoirs upon CO<sub>2</sub> injection is clearly a serious issue for enhanced coal seam gas production and CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in deep coal seams. The precise prediction of potential swelling in a selected coal seam is therefore of utmost importance. This was considered in the next stage by incorporating the experimental data in widely-used models in the field. Although the Langmuir model has been widely applied to predict CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption behaviour in coal, according to the research literature, this model is not appropriate for high CO<sub>2</sub> pressures (> 6 MPa) (Day et al., 2008). The Dubinin–Astakhov model (D-A) and the Dubinin–Radushkevich model (D-R) have also been used and have been found to better fit experimental adsorption data (Day et al., 2008; Ottiger et al., 2006; Ozdemir et al., 2004). Therefore, the more commonly-used model, the Dubinin–Radushkevich model (D-R), was considered in this study.

Sakurovs et al. (2007) replaced the gas pressure term in the classical D-R isotherm (see Eq. [4.19]) with gas density (see Eq. [4.20]) for a better fit for a wide range of sorption data, including super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption in coal. Later, this modified D-R model (see Eq. [4.20]) was tested for coal swelling during CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption by Day et al. (2008), who found an extremely good fit for Australian high rank coals.

$$W_{ads} = W_o \left( 1 - \frac{\rho_g}{\rho_a} \right) exp \left\{ -D \left[ \ln \left( \frac{P_s}{P} \right) \right]^2 \right\}$$
[4.19]

where,  $W_{ads}$  excess sorption,  $W_o$  is surface adsortion capacity of the substrate,  $\rho_g$  is the gas density,  $\rho_a$  is the density of the adsorbed phase, D is a constant related to the affinity of the sorbent of the gas,  $P_s$  is the saturation pressure (equal to the pressure at which the gas condenses at the temperature of the test) and P is gas pressure.

$$S = S_{max} exp\left\{-D\left[\ln\left(\frac{\rho_a}{\rho_g}\right)\right]^2\right\} + k\rho_g$$
[4.20]

where, *S* is volumetric swelling (%),  $S_{max}$  is maximum swelling of the coal,  $\rho_g$  is the gas density at the temparture and pressure used for the testing,  $\rho_a$  is the density of the adsorbed phase (taken to be 1000 kg/m<sup>3</sup>) (Day et al., 2008), *D* is an empirical curve fitting parameter and *k* is a constant related to the solubility of CO<sub>2</sub> in the coal. However, Day et al. (2010) found the modified D-R Equation (Eq. [4.21]) was more appropriate to precisely incorporate the swelling behaviour in coal upon adsorption of gases such as CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>, He.

$$S = S_{max} exp\left\{-D\left[\ln\left(\frac{\rho_L}{\rho_g}\right)\right]^2\right\}$$
[4.21]

In this model, Day et al. (2010) adopted van der Waals density ( $\rho_L$ ) instead of adsorbed phase gas density ( $\rho_a$ ) which is 1028 kg/m<sup>3</sup> for CO<sub>2</sub> at its critical point (7.38 MPa pressure and 31.8 <sup>o</sup>C temperature) (Day et al., 2010) after the study by Sakurovs et al. (2010), who found a better relation to sorption of gases into coal using this van der Waals density. Further, Anggara et al. (2013) found a good fit of this swelling model (Eq. [4.21]) for crushed low-rank coal to predict CO<sub>2</sub> sorption-induced volumetric strains. However, the prediction of swelling based on this equation has become a challenge due to the terms of *S<sub>max</sub>* and *D*. Therefore, an effort was made in this study to derive relationships for these two parameters using the measured brown coal swelling data.

Figures 4.38 and 4.39 demonstrate the experimental and model-predicted volumetric swelling of the brown coal samples under 11, 14 and 17 MPa confinements during first (initial) and second CO<sub>2</sub> injections after 24 hours of N<sub>2</sub> flooding, and Table 4.15 shows the corresponding D-R parameters. According to Table 4.15, the model-predicted maximum swelling ( $S_{max}$ ) reduces with increasing confining pressure, proving the previously described fact that there is a decrease in volumetric strain with increasing depth or confinement (see Section 3.2). In addition, the empirical curve fitting parameter (D) used in the D-R model increases with increasing confining pressure. Figure 4.40 displays the variation of both  $S_{max}$  and D with confining stress for both first and second CO<sub>2</sub> injections. As shown in the figure,  $S_{max}$  follows a decreasing exponential variation, while D follows an increasing exponential variation with increasing confining pressure for both CO<sub>2</sub> injections. However, the values obtained for the second CO<sub>2</sub> injection are lower than those for the first CO<sub>2</sub> injection for both  $S_{max}$  and D. The reduction of swelling during the second CO<sub>2</sub> injection, as described in Section 3.2, leads to these lower values.



Figure 4.38. Experimental and model-predicted volumetric swelling of brown coal samples for the different confining pressures during first CO<sub>2</sub> injection



# Figure 4.39. Experimental and model-predicted volumetric swelling of brown coal samples for the different confining pressures during second CO<sub>2</sub> injection

Table 4.15. Dubini-Radushkevich parameters for the experimental swelling data

Confining prossure (MPa)	1 <sup>st</sup> CC	2 injecti	ion	2 <sup>nd</sup> CO <sub>2</sub> injection		
Comming pressure (wir a)	S <sub>max</sub> (%)	D	<b>R</b> <sup>2</sup>	S <sub>max</sub> (%)	D	<b>R</b> <sup>2</sup>
11	12.22	0.678	0.974	10.23	0.627	0.990
14	5.84	0.854	0.991	5.17	0.816	0.992
17	2.47	1.117	0.987	2.24	1.085	0.959



Figure 4.40. Variation of Dubini-Radushkevich parameters (a) S<sub>max</sub> and (b) D with confining pressure

According to Figure 4.38, the D-R model parameters  $S_{max}$  and D have the following relationship with confining pressure (Eqs. [4.22a-c]) for low-rank brown coal for the first and second CO<sub>2</sub> injections:

$$S_{i} = S_{i,max} exp\left\{-D_{i}\left[\ln\left(\frac{\rho_{L}}{\rho_{g}}\right)\right]^{2}\right\}$$
[4.22a]

$$S_{1,max} = 233.45e^{-0.266P_c}$$
;  $D_1 = 0.2699e^{0.0831P_c}$  [4.22b]

$$S_{2,max} = 170.02e^{-0.253P_c}$$
;  $D_2 = 0.2286e^{0.0914P_c}$  [4.22c]

where,  $P_c$  is the confining pressure and  $S_i$ ,  $S_{i,max}$  and  $D_i$  are the brown coal sample swelling and the D-R parameters for  $i^{th}$  CO<sub>2</sub> injection (i = 1,2). Figure 4.41 shows the predicted coal matrix swelling due to 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> CO<sub>2</sub> injections for greater confinements of 20, 23 and 26 MPa obtained from Eqs. [4.22a-c] According to Figure 4.41, the projected swelling reduces with reservoir depth.



Figure 4.41. Predicted volumetric strain variations using modified D-R model for brown coal during 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> CO<sub>2</sub> flow

# 4.5.4 Conclusions

This study provides a comprehensive understanding of  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling, particularly for low-rank brown coal. The behaviour of volumetric swelling for different  $CO_2$  injections at different confining stresses (depths) was studied, and according to the results the following conclusions can be drawn:

• CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling is greater at higher CO<sub>2</sub> pressures, particularly for the super-critical phase condition of CO<sub>2</sub>, regardless of reservoir depth or the maturity of

the coal. This is mainly due to the greater adsorption potential of high-pressure CO<sub>2</sub>, which is significantly accelerated with the phase transition from sub- to super-critical.

- Coal matrix swelling decreases with increasing reservoir depth or confining stress, which is beneficial for field applications of CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM, preferably in deep coal formations. However, this also depends on the pore pressure conditions, as lower effective stresses (lower confinements and higher injection pressures) lead to greater swelling reduction, regardless of coal maturity or rank.
- Nitrogen (N<sub>2</sub>) exhibits comparatively inert behaviour in coal, producing negligible swelling, regardless of pore pressure and reservoir depth.
- However, the partial pressure depletion created by  $N_2$  in the coal mass has the ability to recover  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced swelled areas in coal to some extent, and that ability is greater if  $N_2$  flooding is carried out for a sufficiently long period under lower effective stress conditions, and it is probable that a greater amount of  $N_2$  can enter the coal mass under such conditions.
- The modified D-R model can effectively be used to predict low-rank coal swelling upon first or repeated injections of CO<sub>2</sub>, if appropriate relationships for the Dubinin–Radushkevich parameters,  $S_{max}$  and D, are used. The swelling data can be used to derive empirical relationships for the D-R parameters,  $S_{max}$  and D, to predict the swelling behaviour of Victorian brown coal.

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### 4.6 How can gas adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling in coal be estimated?

According to Section 4.5, coal matrix swelling due to CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption plays an important role in the CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration process in deep coal seams. Therefore, the correct estimation of gas sorption-induced swelling strains is important for field-work in order to estimate CO<sub>2</sub> flow behaviours in a selected coal seam. The Dubinin–Radushkevich (DR) model is a widely-used adsorption model, which can accurately predict the adsorption potential of coal mass for different gasses even under super-critical conditions. This model was developed for coal matrix swelling prediction and has been successfully applied to different coal types. However, the maximum swelling parameter of this model needs to be obtained from experimental evaluations. Therefore, in this section of the thesis, a new descriptive model for the gas sorption-induced swelling of coal as a function of the effective coal mass and adsorbing gas physical properties is proposed. The new model is based on the existing D-R equation, which is modified by inserting a new expression for the term of maximum swelling. The swelling data for coal samples from different locations with various gas adsorptions are considered for the model development.

This section of the chapter is the following paper:

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# A review and model development for estimation of gas adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling

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# Abstract

The significant influence of coal matrix swelling on  $CO_2$  enhanced coal bed methane recovery is well accepted in the field, and has a strong negative influence on the long-term implementation of the process. According to the research literature, both adsorbate properties (gas type, phase, pressures) and adsorbent properties (rank, depth, moisture content, and temperature) affect the swelling behaviour of coal. To date, several analytical and theoretical models have been developed to estimate this gas adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling effect. Among the analytical models, the modified Dubini-Radushkevich (D-R) model for swelling provides fairly accurate swelling predictions for different coal types and for different fluid adsorptions under various phase conditions, including super-critical conditions. To date, although few theoretical models have been developed to predict coal matrix swelling, following various approaches such as elasticity theory and adsorption thermodynamics, finding model parameters to predict swelling using most of these equations has often been challenging. In addition, none of these analytical or theoretical models is sufficiently descriptive to show the influence of various surrounding factors on coal matrix swelling.

A novel descriptive equation for coal matrix swelling was developed for maximum swelling (in the D-R model) in high rank coal, effectively incorporating the contributions of various effective factors (fixed carbon content, moisture content and critical temperature). Coal matrix swelling data obtained from six different locations (the Kutai basin, the Bowen basin, the Hunter Valley basin and the Illawarra basin) with different moisture contents (0 to 22%) for six different adsorbing gasses (CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>, Ar, CF<sub>4</sub> and C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>6</sub>) available in the research literature were used to develop the model in the temperature range of 298.15 to 328.15 K. The model shows fairly good agreement with an accuracy of  $\pm$ 1% with the experimental data.

Keywords: coal matrix swelling, descriptive model, effective factors, gas adsorption, supercritical gasses

## 4.6.1 Introduction

Coal is a source rock, which contains relatively pure methane, mostly adsorbed into the micropore structure (Harpalani and Schraufnagel, 1990a). To recover this methane from coal seams, CO<sub>2</sub> is injected, due to its higher affinity to adsorb into the coal matrix while desorbing the preadsorbed methane from it (Pan and Connell, 2007). However, numerous previous researchers (Anggara et al., 2016; Chikatamarla et al., 2004; Cui and Bustin, 2005; Cui et al., 2007; Day et al., 2008a; Day et al., 2010; Durucan and Shi, 2009; Guo et al., 2016; Han et al., 2017; Harpalani and Chen, 1995; Harpalani and Schraufnagel, 1990b; Hol and Spiers, 2012; Hol et al., 2012; Jasinge et al., 2012; Karacan, 2003; Levine, 1996; Pan and Connell, 2012; Peng et al., 2016; Perera et al., 2011; Robertson and Christiansen, 2005; Shi et al., 2008; Zang and Wang, 2017) have highlighted that coal swells during CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption and shrinks during methane desorption. This coal matrix volume change is a unique characteristic of coal seams, that alters the coal matrix porosity, eventually changing coal's permeability during CO<sub>2</sub> enhanced coal bed methane recovery (CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM) (Anggara et al., 2016). These coal volume changes can induce localised strain and stress variations in confined coal seams through effective stresses (overburden pressure), further modifying the gas transport process through its cleat system (Anggara et al., 2016; Cui and Bustin, 2005; Shi and Durucan, 2004). It is therefore important to comprehensively address the effect of coal matrix swelling/shrinkage on its permeability in order to achieve efficient CO2 sequestration/methane production.

# 4.6.2 Experimental studies of gas adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling and corresponding coal flow property alterations

# 4.6.2.1 Factors affecting CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling

To date, experimental studies have mainly focused on finding factors affecting CO<sub>2</sub> adsorptioninduced coal matrix swelling, adsorbing gas properties and coal seam properties.

### a. Studies of the effect of adsorbing gas type and properties on coal swelling

According to previous research (Battistutta et al., 2010; Day et al., 2011; Day et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2013), CO<sub>2</sub> swells coal more than other gasses. As shown in Figure 4.42, CO<sub>2</sub> adsorptioninduced swelling is around one-fold higher than the swelling created in coal by CH<sub>4</sub> adsorption. The higher affinity of CO<sub>2</sub> to adsorb into the coal matrix due to the associated greater degree of van der Waals bonds causes physical and chemical structure alterations (Viete and Ranjith, 2006), resulting in greater matrix alterations compared to other gases. Sakurovs et al. (2010) explained that CO<sub>2</sub> has a higher adsorption capacity in coal due to its higher critical temperature (304.95 K) and hence this leads to a greater swelling effect on the coal mass. According to Day et al. (2010), even gases with similar critical temperatures like Xe (Xenon – 289.7 K) and  $C_2H_6$  (Ethane – 305.4 K) have less swelling ability in coal compared to CO<sub>2</sub> due to their larger molecular size compared to CO<sub>2</sub> (CO<sub>2</sub> van der Waals volume is 4.28E-5 m<sup>3</sup>/mol, which is smaller than that of Xe (van der Waals volume – 5.16E-5 m<sup>3</sup>/mol) and C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>6</sub> (van der Waals volume – 6.5E-5 m<sup>3</sup>/mol)), which cayses its greater potential to permeate and adsorb into the coal pore structure.

In regard to the effect of injecting CO<sub>2</sub> properties on coal matrix swelling, CO<sub>2</sub> phase condition has a significant influence on coal matrix swelling. CO<sub>2</sub> reaches its super-critical state when its temperature and pressure go beyond 304.95 K and 7.38 MPa. Interestingly, the preferable coal seams for CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM exist at depths where CO<sub>2</sub> is in its super-critical state (Perera et al., 2012b). According to previous research (Anggara et al., 2013; Day et al., 2008b; Hol and Spiers, 2012; Perera et al., 2011), super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> swells coal more than sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub>, regardless of coal type (refer to Figure 4.43). For example, Perera et al. (2011) observed around three times greater swelling potential of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> in high-rank bituminous coal compared to sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> (see Figure 4.43(a)). Low rank coalalso exhibits around 60% greater swelling under super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injection (8 MPa) compared to sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> (7 MPa) (refer to Figure 4.43(b)). This is due to the more chemically-reactive nature of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> and its high compressibility values compared to liquid CO<sub>2</sub>, all of which cause greater adsorption capacity (Perera et al., 2012b). Therefore, the influence of coal matrix swelling is also significant, and this is discussed in the next section.



Figure 4.42. Volumetric strain variation with CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> in coal (Day et al., 2011)



(a) Radial strain increase in bituminous coal

(b) Volumetric strain variations in lignite

Figure 4.43. Radial strain increase in Australian bituminous coal with time during sub- and super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> permeation under 15 MPa confinement (Perera et al., 2011) and volumetric strain variation in Victorian brown coal with CO<sub>2</sub> density during 14 MPa confinement (Ranathunga et al., 2016)

# b. Studies on the effect of coal mass properties on coal swelling

To date there have been a number of experimental studies on the influence of coal seam properties on CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling. For example, Reucroft and Patel (1986), Ceglarska-Stefańska and Czapliński (1993), Day et al. (2008a) and Day et al. (2011) showed that coal with lower carbon content (low rank coal) undergoes higher coal matrix swelling compared to coal with greater carbon content (high rank coal) (Figure 4.44(a)), mainly due to the lesser degree of mobile polymers present in high rank coal compared to low rank coal. However, Durucan et al. (2009) reported a contradictory behaviour after permeating CO<sub>2</sub> in a range of European coals (carbon content varying from 56.4 to 90.9%), according to which swelling ability in coal was enhanced with the increased carbon content (greater swelling in high rank coal compared to low ranked coal with low carbon content) (refer to Figure 4.44(b)). They observed a polynomial correlation between average CO<sub>2</sub> swelling coefficients with carbon content; an initial swelling coefficient decline from high to low volatile bituminous coal, followed by its increment with increasing coal rank (Durucan et al., 2009). Such contradictory observations warrant future studies to comprehensively understand the effect of carbon content on coal matrix swelling behaviour. Further, Anggara et al. (2014), Cody Jr et al. (1988), Larsen et al. (1997) and Larsen (2004) explained that this CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced strain development is an anisotropic process that depends on the heterogeneity, anisotropy and the lithotypes of the coal. However, according to



Cody Jr et al. (1988), this anisotropy of swelling can be seen only in the first stage of swelling and the repeated swelling of the coal matrix is more isotropic.

Figure 4.44. Coal mass swelling variation (Ceglarska-Stefańska and Czapliński, 1993, Reucroft and Sethuraman, 1987, Walker Jr et al., 1988) and variation of CO<sub>2</sub> swelling coefficient (Durucan et al., 2009) with carbon content

In relation to the effect of temperature on coal swelling, Bae and Bhatia (2006), Ceglarska-Stefańska and Czapliński (1993), Day et al. (2008a); Kronimus et al. (2008) and Perera et al. (2012b) found that coal matrix swelling is reduced with increasing temperature. This is because CO<sub>2</sub> sorption capacity in coal decreases with increasing temperature, because upon temperature increment, gas molecules are released from the adsorbed phase as their kinetic energy is increased accordingly. In addition, the swelling has been found to be less at greater depths compared to shallow depths, due to the associated greater effective stress applying on the coal matrix, that eventually reduces coal mass porosity, offering less adsorption capacity (Hol and Spiers, 2012; Hol et al., 2012; Jasinge et al., 2012; Perera et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2013) (refer to Figure 4.44). The moisture content of coal has also been found to have a positive influence on coal matrix swelling, and comparatively reduced swelling has been reported in wet coal compared to dry coal (Anggara et al., 2013; Day et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2013) (refer to Figure 4.45). This is because the moisture present in the coal mass reduces the area available for CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption (Anggara et al., 2013; Perera et al., 2012a; Wang et al., 2013). This has been clearly demonstrated by Anggara et al., 2013) and is shown in Figure 4.46, according to which the existence of moisture in coal reduces its swelling ability by around half compared to dry coal. All of these findings confirm that  $CO_2$  injection-induced coal matrix volume change is highly dependent on the seam's location.



Figure 4.45. Variation of maximum swelling (S<sub>max</sub>) for low rank coal (Ranathunga et al., 2017) and high rank coal (Wang et al., 2013) with reservoir depth (here S<sub>max</sub> was calculated using the modified Dubinin–Radushkevich (DR) equation for coal matrix swelling (Day et al., 2010))



Figure 4.46. Volumetric swelling variation with CO<sub>2</sub> density for dry and wet coal (Anggara et al., 2013)

### 4.6.2.2 The swelling effect on coal permeability

Although CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced coal swelling has become a well-known fact in the field, to date only a few studies have been conducted on the effect of swelling on flow characteristics and CO<sub>2</sub> storage ability in coal seams. According to Durucan and Shi (2009), Siriwardane et al. (2009), Jasinge et al. (2012); Perera et al. (2011), Wang et al. (2013), Anggara et al. (2016) and Ranathunga et al. (2017), swelling causes reduction in coal flow ability or permeability, and the permeability reduction increases with increasing swelling. Pan et al. (2010) measured CO<sub>2</sub> permeability, strain and adsorption in Australian high rank coal for CO<sub>2</sub> pressures up to 13 MPa and confining pressures up to 20 MPa and found that coal permeability declines with increasing pore pressure at constant effective stress, due to the associated enhancement in the swelling effect, and they observed up to around 70% permeability reduction, depending on CO<sub>2</sub> gas injection pressure and confining pressure (Pan et al., 2010). A similar effect was observed by Jasinge et al. (2012) for Australian low rank coal after permeating  $CO_2$  at pressures up to 3.4 MPa under confining pressures up to 11 MPa, and they observed more than a one-fold permeability reduction due to coal matrix swelling, depending on the  $CO_2$  pressure and confining pressure. Further, Durucan and Shi (2009) (for high rank coal) (Figure 4.47(a)) and Ranathunga et al. (2017) (for low rank coal) (refer to Figure 4.47(b)) observed a reduction in coal permeability due to coal matrix swelling, irrespective of the effective stress condition due to pore pressure increase, which indicates that coal swelling is more significant for coal permeability than the effective stress. In contrast, after conducting a series of permeability compared to effective stress (refer to Figures 4.47(c)), and they observed a significant increment in  $CO_2$  permeability with increasing pore pressure made by enlarged pore space by reducing effective stress. All of these observations confirm that coal mass properties are very important for comprehending the  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling-induced permeability changes in coal.



(c) Japanese low rank coal

Figure 4.47. Permeability and coal matrix swelling variation with CO<sub>2</sub> pore pressure for (a) 7
MPa confining pressure for European high rank coal (Durucan et al., 2009), (b) 17 MPa
confining pressure (Australian brown coal) (Ranathunga et al., 2017) and (c) 5 MPa confining
pressure for Japanese low rank coal (Anggara et al., 2016)

### 4.6.3 Available models to estimate coal matrix swelling with gas adsorption

There are limitations to conducting experimental investigations on coal mass swelling due to the capabilities of experimental apparatuses, the long-time durations required and the associated high costs. Hence, the development of analytical or theoretical models based on basic experimental observations is essential to precisely estimate coal mass swelling behaviour under field conditions. A number of analytical/theoretical models have been developed to estimate these coal mass volume changes (swelling/shrinkage) and they are summarised in Table 4.16. According to the table, to date various approaches have been adopted to develop models to find coal mass strain variations with gas adsorption. A linear variation between the coal mass strain and pore pressure was proposed by Gray (1987) and a Langmuir-type model for coal mass swelling was proposed by Levine (1996) (refer to Table 4.16), considering the possible over-prediction of errors associated with the linear relationship between strain and pressure. Similar Langmuir-type equations to describe the swelling strain have also been proposed by Palmer and Mansoori (1996) and Shi and Durucan (2004), and an extension of this Langmuir-type model to estimate the mixed gas adsorption induced swelling has been proposed by Mavor and Gunter (2004). According to Shi and Durucan (2004), sorption-induced swelling in coal is equivalent to thermal expansion (refer to Table 4.16) and Connell (2009) extended this extended Langmuir model to incorporate the influence of various stresses, assuming an isotropic swelling strain (refer to Table 4.16). Sawyer et al. (1990) and Seidle and Huitt (1995) proposed a linear relationship between swelling strain and adsorbed amount, which has been widely used in the field (Connell, 2009; Cui and Bustin, 2005; Shi and Durucan, 2005) to develop permeability models. In addition, Day et al. (2008b) proposed the use of gas density instead of gas pressure in the modified Dubinin-Radushkevich (DR) model (Sakurovs et al., 2007) to estimate the swelling percentage of coal (refer to Table 4.16). Day et al. (2010) further modified this model using van der Waals density (refer to Table 4.16) to better relate the swelling of coal for various gas types, even under super-critical conditions.

In addition to these analytical models, some theoretical models have also been developed to obtain the swelling strain of coal with different gas adsorptions. Pan and Connell (2007) developed a theoretical model using elasticity theory and adsorption thermodynamics (refer to Table 4.16), based on the assumption that surface energy change with gas adsorption is equal to the elastic energy change of the coal's solid structure. Vandamme et al. (2010) used molecularlevel simulations to determine the surface stress modifications in coal with gas adsorption. In addition, Yang et al. (2010) developed a relationship (refer to Table 4.16) between methane sorption capacity and solvation pressure. To describe methane and carbon dioxide adsorptioninduced coal swelling, Guo et al. (2016) used the adsorption and deformation behaviour of slit pores of different sizes using the Grand Canonical Monte Carlo (GCMC) algorithm (refer to Table 4.16). Further, Han et al. (2017) have recently developed a theoretical model (refer to Table 4.16) to estimate coal matrix swelling considering the surface free energy reduction which occurs with sorption, based on the assumption that the swelling ratio is proportional to the Gibbs free energy induced by sorption.

 Table 4.16. Analytical and theoretical models developed to estimate coal mass strain changes

 with gas adsorption

Reference	Model	Remarks		
Levine (1996)	$c = c \left[ \begin{array}{c} P \\ \end{array} \right]$	Assumed that swelling follows a Langmuir		
	$\varepsilon_s - \varepsilon_{max} \left[ \overline{P + P_{50}} \right]$	type behaviour		
	$\varepsilon_s$ – linear sorption strain			
	$\varepsilon_{max}$ – theoretical maximum strain			
Shi and	$P_{50}$ – pressure at which coal has attained 50% of its maximum strain	Assumed that comption induced qualling is		
Durucan	$\sigma - \sigma_o = -\frac{1}{1-\vartheta}(p - p_o); \ p_c$	equivalent to thermal expansion		
(2004)	$\sigma - \sigma_o = -\frac{\vartheta}{1 - \vartheta} (p - p_o) + \frac{E}{3(1 - \vartheta)} \varepsilon_1 \left[ \frac{p}{p + P_{\varepsilon}} - \frac{p_c}{p_c + P_{\varepsilon}} \right]$ : $0$	equivalent to definid expansion.		
	$\sigma_c - \sigma_o = -\frac{\vartheta}{1 - \vartheta} (p_c - p_o); \ p = p_c$			
	$\sigma$ – mean stress			
	v = Poisson s ratio E = elastic modulus			
	n = pore pressure			
	$\varepsilon_1$ maximum swelling strain at fully saturation condition of coal $P_{\varepsilon}$ – gas pressure at which the matrix strain is half of the maximum value subscript "o" and "c"- initial and critical parameter values			
Pan and Connell	$\varepsilon = RTL \ln(1 + BP) \frac{\rho_s}{E_s} f(x, \vartheta_s) - \frac{P}{E_s} (1 - 2\vartheta_s)$	Developed a theoretical model based on the energy balance between changes in the		
(2007)	$f(x,\vartheta_s) = \frac{[2(1-\vartheta_s) - (1+\vartheta_s)cx][3 - 5\vartheta_s - 4(1-2\vartheta_s)cx]}{(3 - 5\vartheta_s)(2 - 3cx)}$	surface potential energy caused by g adsorption and the elastic energy chan caused by solid volume change.		
	$\emptyset = 1 - 3\pi x^2 (1 - cx)$			
	$\varepsilon$ – swelling strain $\rho_s$ – density of the coal solid $E_s$ – elastic modulus of the coal solid x – coal structure parameter c – a constant (=1.2 x) R – gas constant (8.314 J mol <sup>-1</sup> K <sup>-1</sup> ) L – Langmuir constant (mol/kg) B – Langmuir constant (1/Pa)			
Connell (2009)	$\overline{\sigma}_{xx} = \overline{\sigma}_{yy} = \frac{\vartheta}{1 - \vartheta} \overline{\sigma}_{zz} + \frac{E}{1 - \vartheta} \overline{\varepsilon}_{xx} + \frac{E}{1 - \vartheta} \overline{\varepsilon}_{xx}^{s} + \frac{1 - 2\vartheta}{1 - \vartheta} \alpha \overline{p}$ $\alpha - \text{Biot coefficient}$ $\overline{\varepsilon} - \text{normal strain}$	Assumed that the geomechanical properties, such as Young's modulus and Poisson's ratio are still isotropic.		
Day at al	$\varepsilon$ – sorption strain	Used the nore filling model (Dubinin		
(2008b)	$S = S_{max} exp \left\{ -D \left  \ln \left( \frac{\rho_a}{\rho_a} \right) \right  \left\{ + k\rho_g \right\} \right\}$	Radushkevich (DR)) modified with gas		
(20000)	S - volumetric swelling	density to determine coal matrix swelling		
	$S_{max}$ maximum swelling of the coal	with different gas adsorptions		
	$ ho_{g}$ - the gas density at the temperature and pressure used for the testing			
	$\rho_a$ - the density of the adsorbed phase (taken to be 1000 kg/m <sup>3</sup> )			
	D - an empirical curve fitting parameter			
Dav et al	$\kappa$ - a constant related to the solubility of gas into the coal.	Further modified the modified DR model		
(2010)	$S = S_{max} exp \left\{ -D \left[ \ln \left( \frac{\rho_L}{\rho_g} \right) \right] \right\}$	after finding a better relation to sorption of		
	S - volumetric swelling	gases in coal using the van der Waals density		
	$S_{max}$ maximum swelling of the coal	by Sakurovs et al., (2010)		
	$\rho_g$ - the gas density at the temperature and pressure used for the testing $\rho_L$ - the van der Waals density			
	/			

As explained in Section 4.6.2, current studies clearly show that coal mass properties and injecting gas properties are very influential on coal mass swelling. Although different models have been proposed to predict the swelling in coal with gas adsorption-induced swelling, none of these models shows the total effect of all the effective factors (adsorbing gas type, temperature, carbon content, moisture content, etc.) on swelling behaviour in coal. However, understanding of the total effect is necessary for the precise estimation of the swelling behaviour experienced by coal under field conditions. This was therefore considered in this study by developing a model incorporating all of the factors affecting coal matrix swelling. This is described in the following section.

# 4.6.4 Development of swelling model

According to the research literature (Day et al., 2010; Pan and Connell, 2007; Perera et al., 2012a; Ranathunga et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2016), sorption capacity in coal is directly proportional to its matrix swelling. Therefore, several swelling models have been developed by researchers by modifying the existing adsorption models to estimate the coal matrix swelling which occurs with gas adsorption. For example, Durucan et al. (2009), Anggara et al. (2013), Battistutta et al. (2010), Levine (1996) and Anggara et al. (2016) used the Langmuir adsorption models to predict coal matrix swelling with gas adsorption. However, these Langmuir-type models fail to predict the swelling behaviourfort higher adsorption pressures (> 6 MPa) (Day et al., 2008b). Hence, Day et al. (2008b) used a modified version of the Dubinin–Radushkevich (D-R) model to predict coal mass swelling behaviour (refer Eq. [4.23]), and Day et al. (2010) tested this model for different types of coal for various gas adsorptions (CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>, He, Ne, Ar, Kr, Xe, CF<sub>4</sub>, and C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>6</sub>) at up to 16 MPa pressures and confirmed the applicability of the model for the tested conditions.

$$S = S_{max} exp\left\{-D\left[\ln\left(\frac{\rho_L}{\rho}\right)\right]^2\right\}$$
[4.23]

where, *S* is volumetric swelling (%),  $S_{max}$  is maximum swelling of the coal, *D* is a constant related to the enthalpy of adsorption and  $\rho$  is the gas density at the temperature and pressure used for the testing. In this model, Day et al. (2010) adopted van der Waals density ( $\rho_L$ ) instead of adsorbed phase gas density ( $\rho_a$ ), which is 1028 kg/m<sup>3</sup> for CO<sub>2</sub> at its critical point (7.38 MPa pressure and 304.95 K temperature) fallowing the study by Sakurovs et al. (2010), which showed a better relation to sorption of gases into coal using the van der Waals density. Here, the constant *D* is a function of the heat of adsorption and the affinity of the gas to the sorbent (refer Eq. [4.24]).

$$D = \left(\frac{RT}{\beta E}\right)^2$$
[2]

where, *R* is the universal gas constant,  $\beta$  is the affinity coefficient of the adsorbate and *E* is the enthalpy of adsorption. However, experimental evaluations are needed to acquire the parameter  $S_{max}$  to use this model to predict coal matrix swelling. Therefore, to obtain a more descriptive swelling model for gas adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling, a new equation was inserted into maximum swelling,  $S_{max}$ .

### 4.6.4.1 Samples used for the model development

Different types of high rank coal samples (carbon content > 75%) tested in the research literature under various temperature and pressure conditions for different adsorbing gases were used for the model development, calibration and validation process. Here, only high rank coal was used for the model development due to some contradictory behaviour of low and high rank coals (refer to Section 4.6.2.1). Table 4.17 shows the physical properties and the D-R model parameters ( $S_{max}$  and D) (refer to Eq. [4.23]) for the coal types used.

### 4.6.4.2 Model development, calibration and validation

Since maximum coal swelling,  $S_{max_n}$  is dependent on several factors, such as adsorbing gas type, temperature, carbon content and moisture content (Day et al., 2008b, 2011; Day et al., 2010; De Silva et al., 2012; Perera et al., 2012a), the variation of  $S_{max}$  with each of these individual parameters was first examined using the swelling data (Table 4.17) obtained from the research literature for different coal types under different temperatures and with different moisture contents under various gas adsorptions (refer to Figure 4.48). General trends were observed for the maximum swelling variations with fixed carbon content and moisture content, and it appears that these parameters have reasonably good linear correlations, as the maximum swelling of all the high rank coal types shows a general reduction trend with these coal mass properties (fixed carbon content and moisture content) (refer to Eqs. [4.25, 4.26]). Apart from these two coal mass properties, the temperature of the coal seam may also play an important role in the swelling process and is therefore worth consideration. As explained in Section 4.6.2, temperature is inversely proportional to the sorption capacity in coal and therefore, a reduction in swelling can be expected with increasing temperature. However, Day et al. (2008b) and Kelemen and Kwiatek (2009) showed that temperature has only a little effect on maximum swelling in the range of 298.15 to 348.15 K, the temperature range in preferable coal seams for the ECBM process. Hence, for the present study, the effect of temperature on maximum swelling was ignored.

Reference	Vitrinite reflectance (%)	Fixed Carbon content (%)	Moisture content (%)	S <sub>max</sub> <sup>1</sup> (%)	D1	Adsorbing gas type	Temperature (K)	Samples taken from*	Remarks
Anggara et al. $(2014)^2$	0.37	79.65	21.7	1.70	0.120	CO <sub>2</sub>	316.15	Kutai basin (A)	Dry
	0.38	80.74	21.8	1.76	0.076	CO <sub>2</sub>	316.15	Kutai basin (B)	Dry
	0.37	79.67	20.8	1.91	0.078	CO <sub>2</sub>	316.15	Kutai basin (C)	Dry
	0.47	77.76	12	2.22	0.078	CO <sub>2</sub>	316.15	Kutai basin (D)	Dry
	0.47	75.53	13.3	2.07	0.071	CO <sub>2</sub>	316.15	Kutai basin (E)	Dry
	0.47	77.16	11	1.90	0.052	CO <sub>2</sub>	316.15	Kutai basin (F)	Dry
	0.46	75.47	13.4	2.55	0.072	CO <sub>2</sub>	316.15	Kutai basin (G)	Dry
	0.5	77.41	10.1	2.40	0.067	CO <sub>2</sub>	316.15	Kutai basin (H)	Dry
Day et al. (2008b)	0.89	83.6	2.4	2.60	0.087	CO <sub>2</sub>	328.15	Hunter Valley basin	Dry
	1.29	88.6	1	2.10	0.080	CO <sub>2</sub>	328.15	Illawarra basin (A)	Dry
	0.95	84.1	1.5	2.30	0.070	$CO_2$	298.15	Bowen basin (A)	Dry
				2.20	0.081	$CO_2$	313.15		Dry
				2.40	0.085	$CO_2$	328.15		Dry
Day et al.	1.4	88.9	1.1	1.81	0.062	$CO_2$	328.15	Illawarra basin (B)	Dry
(2010)				1.17	0.090	$CH_4$	328.15		Dry
				0.54	0.127	$N_2$	328.15		Dry
				0.78	0.121	Ar	328.15		Dry
				1.33	0.086	Kr	328.15		Dry
	0.69	83	8.5	4.41	0.068	$CO_2$	328.15	Bowen basin (B)	Dry
				2.46	0.107	$CH_4$	328.15		Dry
				1.19	0.136	$N_2$	328.15		Dry
				4.34	0.067	Xe	328.15		Dry
				1.39	0.077	$CF_4$	328.15		Dry
				4.25	0.080	$C_2H_6$	328.15		Dry
	0.62	80.7	9.3	5.14	0.090	$CO_2$	328.15	Bowen basin	Dry
				2.7	0.127	$CH_4$	328.15	(C)	Dry
				1.03	0.116	$N_2$	328.15		Dry
				1.45	0.127	Ar	328.15		Dry
				2.73	0.109	Kr	328.15		Dry
				4.91	0.070	Xe	328.15		Dry
				1.58	0.091	CF <sub>4</sub>	328.15		Dry
				4.49	0.087	$C_2H_6$	328.15		Dry
Day et	0.69	83.4	5.7	4.4	0.070	$CO_2$	328.15	Bowen basin	Dry
aı. (2011)				2.62	0.081	$CO_2$	328.15	(D)	Wet
				2.60	0.105	$CH_4$	328.15		Dry
				0.97	0.121	$CH_4$	328.15		Wet

Table 4.17. Physical properties and D-R model parameters of the coal samples used for model development

0.95	0.95 82.9 1.7	1.7	2.39	0.067	CO <sub>2</sub>	328.15	Bowen basin	Dry
			1.96	0.076	$CO_2$	328.15	(E)	Wet
			1.45	0.107	$CH_4$	328.15		Dry
			0.96	0.125	$CH_4$	328.15		Wet
0.62	79.3	11.5	5.08	0.073	CO <sub>2</sub>	328.15	Bowen basin (F)	Dry
			0.99	0.069	$CO_2$	328.15		Wet
			2.85	0.103	$CH_4$	328.15		Dry
			0.68	0.101	$CH_4$	328.15		Wet
1.4	88.9	1.1	1.24	0.086	CO <sub>2</sub>	328.15	Illawarra basin (C)	Dry
			0.99	0.095	$CO_2$	328.15		Wet
			1.98	0.061	$CH_4$	328.15		Dry
			1.98	0.070	$CH_4$	328.15		Wet

<sup>1</sup>Existing D-R model parameters where  $S_{max}$  is maximum swelling and D is a constant related to the enthalpy of adsorption

<sup>2</sup>D-R model parameters were obtained using curve-fitting techniques for the experimental swelling data

\*Upper case letters identify different samples from the same basin



Figure 4.48. Variation of maximum swelling with vitrinite reflectance, fixed carbon content, and moisture content (Anggara et al., 2013, 2014; Day et al., 2008b, 2011; Day et al., 2010)

$S_{max} = aC + a_0$ (for fixed carbon content)	[4.25]
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# $S_{max} = bW_c + b_o \text{ (for moisture content)}$ [4.26]

where, *C* is the fixed carbon content (%),  $W_c$  is the moisture content (%) and *a*, *b*, *a*<sub>0</sub> and *b*<sub>0</sub> are constants.

The influence of adsorbing gas type on swelling should not be ignored, as different gases have different sorption capacities in coal and therefore, the swelling produced by each is different. According to Day et al. (2010), this can be successfully incorporated through the critical

[4.27]

temperature ( $T_c$ ) of the adsorbing gas, as it is proportional to the maximum swelling (Figure 4.49). Hence, the effect of adsorbing gas type on maximum swelling was introduced as a positive linear relationship to its critical temperature (refer to Eq. [4.27]).

$$S_{max} = cT_c + c_o$$
 (for critical temperature)

where, c and  $c_0$  are constants.

Now,  $S_{max}$  can be written as a multilinear regression equation as shown in Eq. [4.28].

$$S_{max} = aC + bW_c + cT_c + f_1(CW_c) + f_2(CT_c) + f_3(W_cT_c) + d$$
[4.28]

where  $f_1$ ,  $f_2$ ,  $f_3$  and d are constants.



Figure 4.49. Variation of maximum swelling with critical temperature of adsorbing gas type for Australian bituminous coal (Day et al., 2010)

Then, the multicollinearities among the independent parameters (fixed carbon content (C), moisture content ( $W_c$ ) and critical temperature of the adsorbing gas ( $T_c$ )) were checked using the correlation coefficient (calculated by Eq. [4.29]) and the variance inflation factor (VIF) (calculated by Eq. [4.30]) among the parameters. The results are shown in Tables 4.18 and 4.19.

$$R_{xy} = \frac{n \sum x_i y_i - (\sum x_i)(\sum y_i)}{\sqrt{n(\sum x_i^2) - (\sum x_i)^2} \sqrt{n(\sum y_i^2) - (\sum y_i)^2}}$$
[4.29]

$$VIF = \frac{1}{(1 - R_{xy})^2}$$
[4.30]

where, *i* ranges from 1 to *n*, *n* is the number of elements for each parameter and  $R_{xy}$  is the correlation coefficient factor.

	<b>R</b> vit	С	Wc	Тс
<b>R</b> vit	1	0.51	-0.38	0.14
С	0.51	1	-0.77	-0.18
Wc	-0.38	-0.77	1	0.29
Тс	0.14	-0.18	0.29	1

Table 4.18. Correlation coefficient matrix between parameters used Eq. [4.29]

Table 4.19. Variance inflation factor matrix between parameters used Eq. [4.30]

	<b>R</b> vit	С	Wc	Тс
<b>R</b> vit	-	1.34	1.17	1.02
С	1.34	-	2.49	1.03
$W_c$	1.17	2.49	-	1.09
Тс	1.02	1.03	1.09	-

When the  $R_{xy}$  is 1, the two parameters are totally dependent and when it is 0, the two parameters are totally independent. If the  $R_{xy}$  varies between -0.8 to 0.8, the two parameters can be considered as independent (Field, 2013). As the correlation coefficients of the parameters are between the range in Table 4.18, they can be considered as independent from each other. This conclusion can be further confirmed by the VIF values in Table 4.19 which are less than 2.5. According to Menard (2002), if the VIF is less than 5, the two parameters can be considered as independent from each other. Therefore, Eq. [4.28] can be simplified into the following form (see Eq. [4.31]) by neglecting the multicollinearties among the parameters.

$$S_{max} = aC + bW_c + cT_c + d$$
[4.31]

Next, the coefficients *a*, *b*, *c* and *d* were determined using the swelling data obtained from Anggara et al. (2014) (Kutai basin samples (A)-(E)) and Day et al. (2010) (for CO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>, and CH<sub>4</sub> adsorption-induced swelling in Bowen (A) and Illawarra (A) basin samples) and Day et al. (2011) (for the effect of moisture during CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption in Bowen basin (E) and (F) samples and Illawarra basin (C) samples) (refer to Table 4.17 for the experimental data). To observe the contribution of each parameter on maximum swelling, a sensitivity analysis was also conducted (Eqs. [4.32a-c], which has a missing independent parameter in each equation). Using the Microsoft Excel Solver tool, best-fitting parameters were investigated for the new equations (Eqs. [4.32a-c]) and compared with the maximum swelling values obtained by the existing D-R equation for swelling (Eq. [4.23]) (refer to Table 4.17 and Figure 4.50).





Figure 4.50. Sensitivity analysis for Eq. [4.31] with (a) Critical temperature of the adsorbing gas (Eq. [4.32a]), (b) Moisture content (Eq. [4.32b]) and (c) Fixed carbon content (Eq. [4.32c]) using the swelling data from Anggara et al. (2014) and Day et al. (2011); Day et al. (2010).

Figure 4.50(a) shows the very strong influence of the critical temperature of the adsorbing gas on the maximum swelling, which is confirmed by the very low fitting value ( $R^2 = 0.217$ ) in that equation. Further, the other two parameters (moisture content (Figure 4.50(b)) and fixed carbon content (Figure 4.50(c))) also have considerable effects on the maximum swelling as shown in Eq. [4.31].

This sensitivity study shows the importance of incorporating the influence of all four parameters in the final swelling equation due to their strong contribution to swelling. Therefore, the best-fitting coefficients for constants were determined to be a = -0.012, b = -0.09, c = 0.008
and d = 0.796. As mentioned earlier, the data obtained from Anggara et al. (2014), Day et al. (2011) and Day et al. (2010) (refer to Figure 4.51) were used for the model calibration and the new model is found to be able to predict the maximum swelling accurately with a best fit of 0.88 for the coal samples used for the calibration.



Figure 4.51. Model calibration (Eq. [4.31]) using the data from Anggara et al. (2014), Day et al. (2011) and Day et al. (2010)

The developed swelling model was then validated using the data obtained from Day et al. (2008b) (for Bowen basin (A) coal at 298.15, 313.15 K and 328.15 K temperatures), Day et al. (2010) (Ar, CF<sub>4</sub> and Xe adsorption in Bowen basin coal (C)) and Day et al. (2011) (for CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> adsorption in dry and wet coal from Bowen basin (D)) (Figure 4.52) and fairly good agreement with  $\pm 1$  % (-0.8 to 1%) accuracy could be seen between the predicted maximum swelling values (Eq. [4.31]) and the swelling values obtained using the existing D-R equation (Eq. [4.23]).



Figure 11. Proposed model validation using data from Day et al. (2008b, 2011) and Day et al. (2010)

Finally, the proposed model (Eq. [4.31]) was incorporated into the Eq. [4.23] (existing D-R equation) to predict the gas adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling in a more descriptive way. In this Eq. [4.33], fixed carbon content (C, %) and moisture content ( $W_c$ , %) vary with the coal sample properties and the critical temperature ( $T_c$ , %), van der Waals density ( $\rho_L$ , kg/m<sup>3</sup>) and gas density ( $\rho$ , kg/m<sup>3</sup>) vary with the adsorbing gas type and its conditions. Further, the constant D is influenced by the affinity of both sorbate and sorbent material properties (refer to Eq. [4.24]). Figure 4.53 displays the predicted coal matrix swelling using the proposed model for different coal properties and adsorbing gas properties. The data used for the model validation were also used in this case. The critical temperature ( $T_c$ ) and van der Waals density ( $\rho_L$ ) were taken from Day et al. (2010) and the respective gas densities at their tested pressures and temperatures were obtained by the REFPROP database (McLinden et al., 1998). Coal mass properties (C,  $W_c$ ) and the D (constant related to enthalpy of adsorption) were acquired from the respective data sources (Day et al., 2008b, 2011; Day et al., 2010) (see Table 4.17).

$$S = \left(aR_{vit} + bC + cW_c + dT_c + e\right)exp\left\{-D\left[\ln\left(\frac{\rho_L}{\rho}\right)\right]^2\right\}$$
[4.33]



Figure 4.53. Coal mass volumetric swelling (%) in different coal samples under different conditions obtained using proposed model (Eq. [4.31]) for data obtained from Day et al. (2008b, 2011); Day et al. (2010) (line plots are the model-predicted swelling values)

According to Figure 4.53, the predicted coal matrix swelling data show good agreement with the experimental observations. To further check the accuracy of the model-predicted data, bias and the root mean square errors (RMSEs) were calculated and are shown in Table 4.20. According to Table 4.20, the bias varies between -0.8 - 0.4 and the RMSE (<0.3) values are quite small for the model-predicted values with the experimental values, which further confirms that the use of the proposed model is acceptable.

Swelling data taken from (reference)	Tested sample conditions	Bias	RMSE
Day et al. (2008b)	Bituminous (298.15 K)	0.251	0.090
	Bituminous (328.15 K)	0.346	0.079
Day et al. (2010)	Ar (328.15 K)	-0.240	0.048
	CF <sub>4</sub> (328.15 K)	0.332	0.071
	Xe (328.15 K)	0.302	0.091
Day et al. (2011)	Dry coal_CO <sub>2</sub>	0.017	0.075
	Wet coal_CO <sub>2</sub>	-0.211	0.066
	Dry coal_CH <sub>4</sub>	-0.112	0.065
	Wet coal_CH <sub>4</sub>	-0.702	0.301

Table 4.20. Statistical analysis of experimental data and data predicted by the proposed model

## 4.6.5 Limitations and recommendations

As the predicted swelling data from the proposed model (Eq. [4.33]) indicate, this model can accurately estimate the expected coal matrix swelling in coal for different gas adsorptions. The importance of this model is the ability to directly relate the effect of different factors of sorbate and sorbent on the swelling process. However, it should be noted that all the data used for the development of the model had a fixed carbon content >75% (high rank coal). Therefore, the values obtained for the constants in Eq. [4.31] may not accurately fit coal properties which are out of the range.

For this model, several effective factors were considered, which are believed to have a strong influence on maximum swelling. However, the effect of temperature was not considered, because the effect of temperature was negligible within the range of 293.15 to 333.15 K for the data used (Day et al., 2008b). As explained in Section 4.6.2.1, at higher temperatures, the adsorption capacity is reduced (Bae and Bhatia, 2006) and hence the expected maximum swelling is less. However, studies of the effect of high temperatures on coal mass swelling in different types of coal are scarce and hence, could not be effectively incorporated into the present study. Therefore,

it is proposed to conduct experimental studies to observe the effect of temperature on the swelling of different coal types to include that influence in the present model.

Further, the mineral contents and the micro-pore diameter of the coal specimens affect the gas adsorption capacity of coal (Perera et al., 2012a), and may also contribute to the swelling of coal. This needs to be studied in the future.

The swelling data used for the present study were obtained from gas adsorption experiments conducted on crushed coal samples/small coal blocks without applying any confinement. As explained in Section 4.6.2.2, the application of stresses reduces the maximum swelling in both low and high rank coals (refer to Figure 4.45). However, among the large number of studies of gas adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling, very few have been conducted with the application of stresses on coal mass for swelling. Therefore, more studies need to be conducted on different coal types under different effective stresses, in order to include the effect of confinement on coal mass swelling in the proposed model.

In addition, as explained in Section 4.6.2, there are some contradictory findings on the effect of coal rank on coal mass swelling (refer to Figure 4.43). The data used for the present study showed a reduction of swelling with increasing carbon content and hence used a negative linear relationship for model development, but the situation is different for low rank coals. Therefore, indepth studies are required to precisely incorporate the influence of rank on coal matrix swelling.

However, within these limitations, the proposed model could predict the swelling behaviour quite accurately and can be fine-tuned when the answers to the above knowledge gaps are found.

## 4.6.6 Conclusion

The estimation of coal matrix swelling with different gas adsorptions (e.g.  $CO_2$ ,  $CH_4$  and  $N_2$ ) is required for the efficient and effective implementation of enhanced coal bed methane recovery projects. To-date, studies have shown that both adsorbing gas properties and coal mass properties are affect coal mass strain variations due to gas adsorption. Therefore, a comprehensive review was undertaken.

In experimental work on the effect of adsorbing gas type on coal swelling,  $CO_2$  has been found to be the most dominant adsorbent compared to other gasses, such as  $CH_4$ ,  $N_2$ ,  $CF_4$ ,  $C_2H_6$ , Xe, etc. This is because  $CO_2$  has a higher affinity to be adsorbed into the coal mass, with its unique physical and chemical properties creating stronger van der Waals bonds with the coal pore walls. In addition, the phase of the adsorbing gas is also important, and super-critical  $CO_2$  exhibits greater adsorption potential in coal compared to gaseous/liquid  $CO_2$ , which results in greater coal matrix swelling compared to sub-critical  $CO_2$ . In relation to the influence of coal mass properties on  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced swelling, the positive effects of carbon content, moisture content, temperature and depth on swelling have been confirmed in the field. However, there have been some contradictory observations on the effect of coal rank on  $CO_2$  induced swelling, because both positive and negative influences of rank on swelling have been reported.

The coal swelling models currently available were then reviewed in order to understand the contribution of modelling to the prediction of coal swelling, and some analytical and theoretical models developed to predict the coal matrix swelling caused by different gases were found. Of the analytical models, to date Langmuir-type behaviour for swelling has been widely used to estimate coal mass swelling upon gas adsorption, although it exhibits significant inaccuracy in predicting swelling under high pressures. Therefore, the modified Dubinin–Radushkevich (DR) model could be used, as it exhibits a better fit for various coal types, even under super-critical conditions. Furthermore, to date some theoretical models have been developed to predict coal matrix swelling, following various approaches, including elasticity theory, adsorption thermodynamics, quenched solid density functional theory, and the Grand Canonical Monte Carlo (GCMC) algorithm. Although these models are more reliable, finding model parameters to predict swelling using these equations has often been challenging. In addition, neither these analytical and theoretical models are not sufficiently descriptive to show the influence of various surrounding factors on coal matrix swelling.

A novel approach was therefore taken to develop a descriptive analytical model for coal matrix swelling in high rank coal with gas adsorption, which effectively shows the influences of various effective factors. The existing D-R model was used to develop the model, inserting a new expression for maximum swelling (Eq. [4.32]) as a function of fixed carbon content (%) and moisture content (%) to represent coal mass properties, and critical temperature (K) to represent the effect of adsorbing gas properties. These effective factors were chosen after checking the contribution of each factor on maximum swelling. The model was calibrated for a range of high rank coal samples with various moisture contents and temperatures and for various adsorbing gas types (CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>). The model was then validated using the swelling data obtained for a range other coal samples with different coal mass properties. The model was then incorporated into the existing D-R model (Eq. [4.33]). The proposed equation can estimate the coal mass swelling with gas adsorption with an accuracy of around  $\pm 1.0\%$ , and hence can be used as a descriptive analytical model to estimate swelling. However, the model was developed for a range of coals with a fixed carbon content of >75% and hence, provides a better fit of data for this range.

## 4.6.7 References

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## 4.7 Chapter summary

The main objective of this chapter was to investigate the influence of  $CO_2$  adsorption on brown coal flow behaviour. Various meso-scale experimental programs were conducted to observe the effect of different effective factors on coal mass permeability with  $CO_2$ -ECBM and the major finding are summarised below.

## Section 4.2 - How do injecting CO<sub>2</sub> properties and in situ stresses affect coal mass flow behaviour?

The reduction of permeability with increasing depth due to the associated effective stress variation is much higher for low-rank coal compared to high-rank coal. Further, super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> has much lower permeability than sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub>, regardless of coal rank. However, this influence of CO<sub>2</sub> phase condition increases with increasing rank. Interestingly, the influence of depth on permeability reduces with phase transition from sub- to super-critical in any type of coal due to the greater swelling effect created by super-critical CO<sub>2</sub>. Although N<sub>2</sub> has the ability to recover CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced swelled areas in coal regardless of rank, the recovery ability is much higher for high-rank coal.

## Section 4.3 – How can the individual effect of effective stress and sorption-induced strain on the evolution of coal permeability be evaluated?

The effective stress coefficient for coal is not equal to unity and is effective stress-dependent, this behaviour being common for any coal type. This non-unity of the effective stress parameter ( $\alpha \neq 1$ ) causes an under-estimation of permeability due to the additional effective stress application and it increases with increasing pore pressure. The swelling-induced permeability clearly shows an over-estimation of permeability reduction which is higher at higher effective stresses and is also common for high rank coal. However, high rank coal exhibits a higher reduction in permeability than low rank coal due to sorption-induced strains. Finally, the modified Dubinin–Radushkevich (D-R) model was used to predict the swelling-induced permeability reductions in coal mass and provided successful results for both low and high rank coals with a goodness fit >0.96.

## Section 4.4 – How does the temperature alter CO<sub>2</sub> permeability in coal?

 $CO_2$  permeability decreases for higher injecting pressures at low temperatures, whereas permeability increases when the temperature is increased. However, the influence of temperature on N<sub>2</sub> permeability is negligible compared to  $CO_2$  permeability. Interestingly, these observations are common for both low and high rank coals.

## Section 4.5 – How does carbon dioxide adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling vary for various CO<sub>2</sub> properties and reservoir depths?

 $CO_2$  adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling is greater at higher  $CO_2$  pressures, particularly for the super-critical phase condition of  $CO_2$ , regardless of reservoir depth or the maturity of the coal.  $N_2$  exhibits comparatively inert behaviour in coal, producing negligible swelling, regardless of pore pressure and reservoir depth. However, the partial pressure depletion created by  $N_2$  in the coal mass has the ability to recover  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced swelled areas in coal to some extent, and that ability is greater if  $N_2$  flooding is done for a sufficiently long period under lower effective stress conditions, and it is probable that a greater amount of  $N_2$  can enter the coal mass under such conditions. The modified D-R model can effectively be used to predict low-rank coal swelling upon first or repeated injections of  $CO_2$ , if appropriate relationships for the Dubinin–Radushkevich parameters,  $S_{max}$  and D, are used.

## Section 4.6 – How can the various gas adsorption- induced coal matrix swellings in coal be estimated?

A new descriptive model is proposed for coal matrix swelling with gas adsorption using the effective factors. The existing D-R model was used to develop the model by inserting a new expression for the maximum swelling, including fixed carbon content (%) and moisture content (%) to represent coal mass properties and critical temperature (K) to represent the effect of adsorbing gas properties. The proposed equation can estimate coal mass swelling due to gas adsorption with an accuracy of around  $\pm 1$ % and hence can be used as a descriptive analytical model to estimate swelling. However, the equation was developed for a range of coals with a fixed carbon content of >75%, and hence provides a better fit of data for this range.

## PART 2 - CHAPTER 5

# Macro-scale studies of coal flow properties during carbon dioxide sequestration using reconstituted coal

## **Publications included in Chapter 5**

Chapter 5 includes two publications. Details of the publications are as follows:

## Chapter 5.2

**Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG, Ju Y, Vishal V, De Silva PNK (2015). A macro-scale experimental study of sub- and supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> flow behaviour in Victorian brown coal. *Fuel* 158: 864-873.

## Chapter 5.4

**Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG (2017). A laboratory-scale numerical study of  $CO_2$  flow through coal under down-hole stress conditions: Application for  $CO_2$  storage. *Energy Fuel* (under review).

5-3

## **Declaration for Thesis Chapter 5.2**

In the case of Chapter 5.2, the nature and extent of my contribution to the work was the following:

Nature of contribution	Extent of contribution (%)
Initiation, key ideas, experimental work, data analysis and writing up	85

The following co-authors contributed to the work. If co-authors are students at Monash

University, the extent of their contribution in percentage terms must be stated:

Name	Nature of contribution	Extent of contribution
		(%) for student co-
		authors only
Perera MSA	Key ideas, reviewing and editing the	N/A
	manuscript	
Ranjith PG	Key ideas, reviewing and editing the	N/A
	manuscript	
Ju Y	Reviewing and editing the	N/A
	manuscript	
Vishal V	Reviewing and editing the	N/A
	manuscript	
De Silva PNK	Reviewing and editing the	N/A
	manuscript	

The undersigned hereby certify that the above declaration correctly reflects the nature and extent of the candidate's and co-authors' contributions to this work\*.

Candidate's	_	Date
signature		25/01/2017

Main	Date
Supervisor's signature	25/01/2017

\*Note: Where the responsible author is not the candidate's main supervisor, the main supervisor should consult with the responsible author to agree on the respective contributions of the authors.

## 5. Macro-scale studies of coal flow properties during carbon dioxide sequestration using reconstituted coal

## 5.1 Overview

For field-scale simulations in the laboratory, macro-scale experiments are crucial. Therefore, an effort was made to quantify the coal mass flow variations during CO<sub>2</sub> injection using a macro-scale (samples 203 mm in diameter and 1000 mm long) experimental program. The experiments were conducted using the advanced core-flooding apparatus available in the Deep Earth Energy Research Laboratory (refer to Chapter 3). Reconstituted samples were used for this study to eliminate the great heterogeneity of coal, as discussed in Chapter 2.

## Section 5.2 – How does coal mass flow behaviour vary along the coal sample due to different CO<sub>2</sub> properties?

A series of injection pressures was used to inject the fluid into the coal mass to obtain both suband super-critical  $CO_2$  phase conditions. N<sub>2</sub> flooding was also done to quantify the coal matrix alterations due to  $CO_2$  flow. Unlike in the meso-scale tests, it was possible to observe the fluid flow behaviour along the coal sample in this experiment, which provides an overview of the expected  $CO_2$  flow along the coal mass.

This section of the chapter details the following paper:

**Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG, Ju Y, Vishal V, De Silva PNK (2015). A macro-scale experimental study of sub- and super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> flow behaviour in Victorian brown coal. *Fuel* 158: 864-873.

## Section 5.3 – How do CO<sub>2</sub> properties and in situ stresses affect CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity?

In this section, the effect of in situ stresses on the coal flow behaviour along the sample was tested. In this set of experiments, the in situ stress was applied by varying the axial load, which may represent a thin coal seam, as the deformation is most likely in one direction for thin coal seams. Further, how the amount of  $CO_2$  injected into the coal specimen varies with different  $CO_2$  phase and pressure and in situ stresses was tested to quantify the  $CO_2$  storage capacity of brown coal.

The following journal paper was produced from this chapter:

**Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG, De Silva GPD (2016). A macro-scale view of the influence of effective stress on carbon dioxide flow behaviour in coal: An experimental study. *Geo-mechanics and Geo-physics for Geo-Energy and Geo-Resources*, 1-16.

## Section 5.4 – Prediction of expected fluid flow along the coal seam and storage capacity variations in coal with various CO<sub>2</sub> properties under different down-hole stresses

Finally, a macro-scale numerical model was developed using the COMSOL Multiphysics simulator to extend the experimental findings to deeper reservoir conditions (higher in situ stresses), and to predict the expected fluid flow along the coal seam and storage capacity variations in brown coal for various  $CO_2$  phase and pressures under different down-hole stresses.

This section of the chapter details the following paper:

**Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG (2017). A laboratory-scale numerical study of  $CO_2$  flow through coal under down-hole stress conditions: Application to  $CO_2$  storage. *Energy Fuel* (under review).

## 5.2 How does coal mass flow behaviour vary along the coal sample due to different CO<sub>2</sub> properties?

As stated in Chapter 2, a number of studies have been conducted on coal mass flow behaviour during CO<sub>2</sub> injection. However, most have been conducted on small coal samples (up to 100 mm in length), which are incapable of representing the coal mass rearrangements during CO<sub>2</sub> flow and CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacities at a substantial scale. Hence, the main objective of this study is to determine the permeability behaviour of coal for different CO<sub>2</sub> injections using macro-scale coal specimens (203 mm in diameter and 1000 mm in length). A series of core flooding experiments was conducted on Victorian brown coal specimens using an advanced core flooding apparatus, for a range of injection pressures (6 – 10 MPa) at 11 MPa axial stress and 38 <sup>o</sup>C constant system temperature using both CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>. The CO<sub>2</sub> flow behaviour along the sample was also studied to observe the expected CO<sub>2</sub> flow patterns through the coal seams and these were compared with the N<sub>2</sub> flow to enable the identification of the CO<sub>2</sub>-induced flow variations. An effort was also made to quantify the swelling of the sample during CO<sub>2</sub> flow.

This section of the chapter details the following publication:

**Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG, Ju Y, Vishal V, De Silva PNK (2015). A macro-scale experimental study of sub- and super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> flow behaviour in Victorian brown coal. *Fuel* 158: 864-873.

Fuel 158 (2015) 864-873



## A macro-scale experimental study of sub- and super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> flow behaviour in Victorian brown coal



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#### HIGHLIGHTS

• Sub- and super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> flow behaviours in Victorian brown coal.

• Testing of macro scale samples using an advanced core-flooding apparatus.

 $\bullet$   $\text{CO}_2$  adsorption induced swelling causes significant coal structure modification.

• Super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injection causes a greater reduction in CO<sub>2</sub> permeability.

• CO2 phase and pressure influences on coal matrix swelling and flow properties.

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#### ABSTRACT

In deep coal seams carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) exists in its super-critical state, which emphasizes the importance of studying super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> flow behaviour in coal, especially for field applications, such as CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and enhanced coal bed methane recovery. Although there has been some research on the subject, the studies have been conducted on only certain types of coal (e.g., naturally fractured black coal) using small coal samples, which makes it difficult to verify the applicability of adsorption theories at a higher scale to estimate field CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity. The main objective of this study is therefore to determine the permeability behaviour of coal for sub-critical and super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> flows using large coal specimens (203 mm in diameter and 1000 mm in length). A series of core flooding experiments was conducted on brown coal specimens collected from the Latrobe Valley basin, Victoria, using an advanced core flooding apparatus, for a range of injection pressures (6–10 MPa) at 11 MPa axial stress and 38 °C temperature.

According to the test results, CO<sub>2</sub> permeability in coal may reduce with increasing injection pressure due to the phase transition of CO<sub>2</sub> from sub-critical to super-critical during pressure increment. N<sub>2</sub> injection into a coal mass permeated with CO<sub>2</sub> shows lower permeability values compared to N<sub>2</sub> injection into a fresh coal mass, because in the former case, the coal mass structure has already been critically reformed during the CO<sub>2</sub> flood. Although the pressure development trends for first N<sub>2</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub> and second N<sub>2</sub> injections along the sample are similar, there may be a noticeable pressure reduction, especially closer to the injection point during the second N<sub>2</sub> injection. This is due to the coal structure re-arrangement during the CO<sub>2</sub> flood, where the pressure development is less in the regions, when CO<sub>2</sub> is in the super-critical state. Such CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> migration patterns through coal seams after injection are highly important for field applications.

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#### 5.2.1 Introduction

Today, global warming is happening at an alarming rate, and is considered a serious risk to human beings around the world. The

\* Corresponding author. address: samintha.perera@monash.edu (M.S.A. Perera). amount of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere is the main cause and therefore, it is necessary to investigate appropriate greenhouse gas mitigation options.  $CO_2$  sequestration in deep coal seams has been identified as an effective  $CO_2$  mitigation option, due to the added advantage of the production of coal bed methane (CBM), which offsets the cost of  $CO_2$  sequestration (enhanced coal bed methane (ECBM)) [1–7]. Further, the  $CO_2$  injected into the coal

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seams is in an adsorbed state and can therefore be stably stored for a geologically significant period [4], which is important for the long term safety of the process. CBM is a natural gas formed during the coalification process which is extracted from coal beds. CBM can be used to produce energy in a more economical and greener way and the process has been tested in many countries in the world including Canada, the USA, Japan, Poland and Australia [1,4,8,9]. According to Perera and Ranjith [1], White et al. [4], and Reeves [10], injection of a CO<sub>2</sub> stream into the coal bed during CBM recovery can significantly enhance CBM production due to its higher affinity to adsorb CO<sub>2</sub> compared to CH<sub>4</sub>. This is because, the greater chemical potential of CO<sub>2</sub> causes the creation of stronger Van der Waals bonds with the coal surface than CH<sub>4</sub>, resulting in greater attraction to the coal matrix surface [11,12]. The processes of ECBM production and CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration have therefore become attractive means of producing energy, while mitigating the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> level.

In coal beds, most gas exists in an adsorbed phase in the coal matrix and some as free gas in the fracture pore space [13]. Unless a large joint exists, the natural cleat system of the coal mass, formed during the coalification process, governs gas movement through it. In the gas transport process in coal, first it moves through its natural cleat system and then adsorbs into the coal matrix along the cleat walls [14]. When the gas molecules reach the micro pores in the coal matrix, they follow the diffusion process, as the mean flow path of the gas molecules is greater than the micro pore diameter. In contrast, when the gas molecules reach the cleats, flow is controlled by coal mass permeability, as the mean flow path of the gas molecules is smaller than the cleat width. According to Harpalani and Chen [15], diffusional flux into the coal matrix can be simulated using the diffusion equation (Eq. (1)) and the fluid movement through fractures or the cleat system can be simulated using Darcy's law (Eq. (2)). However, the diffusion process is a quite slow process and therefore, takes much greater time than the pressure-driven advection process in cleats.

$$m = -D\nabla C \tag{1}$$

$$m = -\frac{\rho \mathbf{k}}{\mu} \nabla P \tag{2}$$

where *m* is mass flow rate, *D* is the diffusion coefficient and  $\nabla C$  is the concentration gradient,  $\nabla P$  is the pressure gradient,  $\mu$  is the viscosity of gas and  $\rho$  is the density of gas. According to existing findings, both CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and CBM recovery processes are dependent on coal mass and adsorbing gas properties, such as coal rank, moisture content, temperature, depth, existing gas composition and adsorbing gas pressure, gas type and phase and injection and production well operations [4,13,16,17].

However, according to Jasinge et al. [18] and Vishal et al. [19], injection of  $CO_2$  into coal causes its chemical and physical properties to be greatly changed, resulting in unpredictable amounts of injectable  $CO_2$  and producible  $CH_4$  in coal seams. There has been much research conducted on this process, which has revealed that there is a great degree of swelling caused by  $CO_2$  adsorption into the coal matrix that, in turn, can cause the permeability of the coal mass to be severely decreased [8,19–21]. This is because swelling induces a strain between the injecting  $CO_2$  molecules and the coal matrix, which reduces the pore spaces available for gas movement, resulting in reduced permeability in the coal seam [19,20]. For successful  $CO_2$  – enhanced methane recovery, the seam permeability should be more than 1 mD [17]. Hence, in this context the  $CO_2$ adsorption-induced call matrix swelling is of great concern.

Under the high pressure and temperature conditions in deep un-mineable coal seams,  $CO_2$  exists in its super-critical condition (beyond 7.38 MPa pressure and 31.8 °C temperature  $CO_2$  exists as super-critical fluid), which is believed to create a greater swelling effect in coal compared to gas or liquid CO<sub>2</sub> due to its higher chemical potential and sorption capacity [2]. All of these facts imply that un-mineable coal seams are more vulnerable to the swelling effect.

Coal matrix swelling depends on the injecting  $CO_2$  pressure and phase condition. The effect of  $CO_2$  pressure on coal swelling has been studied by Harpalani and Chen [15] and Day et al. [22], who have confirmed the increased swelling effect with increasing  $CO_2$  pressure. According to these researchers, increment of  $CO_2$ injection pressure expands the pore space, thereby offering a greater number of effective areas for the adsorption and later swelling processes. This enhanced swelling effect and the associated permeability reduction with increasing  $CO_2$  injection pressure have also been shown by Perera et al. [23]. According to Perera et al. [23], the  $CO_2$  phase transition from sub- to super-critical also significantly affects the swelling-related permeability reduction in coal.

However, maintaining consistency during laboratory experiments on coal has become a difficult task due to coal's highly heterogeneous nature, which has been a major obstacle to the verification of the effects of in-situ coal properties on coal's behaviour. The production of homogenous reconstituted coal samples with reproducible properties is the only solution identified to date to overcome this issue, and the effectiveness of this method has been shown by Jasinge et al. [18]. On the other hand, to date most coal CO<sub>2</sub> injection studies have been conducted using small-scale samples (up to around 100 mm in length), which makes it difficult to verify the applicability of adsorption theories at a higher scale to estimate CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity. As a result, De Silva and Ranjith [17,24], conducted advance core-flooding tests using 1 m long and 203 mm diameter coal samples to effectively estimate the CO<sub>2</sub> flow behaviour in coal. However, only sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injection has been considered by these researchers, which cannot represent actual CO<sub>2</sub> flow behaviour in deep coal seams.

This study therefore focuses on identifying the influences of both sub- and super-critical  $CO_2$  injection on coal matrix swelling and the associated permeability alterations using macro-scale (1 m long and 203 mm diameter) reconstituted Victorian brown coal samples.

#### 5.2.2 Methodology

This study was conducted using the advanced core-flooding apparatus located in the Deep Earth Energy Research Laboratory (DEERL) at Monash University (Fig. 1). A detailed description of the apparatus can be found in De Silva and Ranjith [24] and the experimental methodology is described below.

#### 5.2.2.1 Sample preparation

The coal samples used were taken from the Hazelwood open-cut coal mine at Morwell in Gippsland, Victoria as coal blocks, which had a natural moisture content of around 52–55%. Due to the difficulty in obtaining a natural coal block 1 m in length (brown coal being very weak with many cleats compared to black coal), in this experiment reconstituted coal samples were made using powdered coal. To prepare the powdered coal, a similar process was used to that described by Jasinge et al. [18]. Initially, the coal blocks were broken into smaller pieces and then crushed using a milling machine. Using the grinder, small pieces of coal were crushed into coal dust. The crushed coal was then sieved using a mechanical sieving machine to separate the coal powder less than 1 mm in size and the sieved coal was then stored in sealed plastic containers.

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Fig. 1. Advanced core flooding apparatus.

The samples required for the macro-scale testing were then prepared in three stages using this powdered coal. First, an axial stress of 11 MPa was applied on 1/3 of the coal core sample and compacted for 30 min. Then, the next 1/3 of the coal sample was added to the cell and compacted for 30 min, followed by the rest of the sample under 11 MPa axial stress. Between each compaction, the surface of the coal was disturbed and roughened to ensure sample consistency. The whole coal sample was then consolidated for a further 7 days and the consolidation level was observed by using a string strain gauge and linear variable differential transformers (LVDTs). In order to confirm the fully consolidated condition of the sample, a consolidation profile was used (see Fig. 2) and the water released from the sample was observed (until zero water release from the sample). The permeability testing was conducted only after the consolidation level became stable. The permeability testing was conducted only after the consolidation level became stable (see Fig. 2). After confirming the fully compacted condition of the sample, permeability tests were initiated, maintaining the system temperature at 38 °C constant value.

#### 5.2.2.2 Permeability tests

Permeability tests were conducted for both  $CO_2$  and  $N_2$  injections at five different injecting pressures (6, 7, 8, 9, and 10 MPa) under 11 MPa axial stress (Fig. 3). Here, the un-drained condition was maintained to determine the sample permeability using a



Fig. 2. Compaction of coal sample under 11 MPa axial stress.

pressure-transient approach to obtain the super-critical  $CO_2$  injection into the sample (under the drained condition downstream pressure is always atmospheric and therefore the super-critical condition cannot be achieved) [1].  $CO_2$  injection was conducted at the constant pressure required and the corresponding pressure development throughout the sample (at two intermediate points, 600 mm and 850 mm from the injection point) and downstream was monitored and recorded, at one second intervals, using an advanced data acquisition system (Fig. 3).

The downstream pressure vs. time curve was used to calculate the permeability of the coal sample using Eq. (3) [25]:

$$Q = \left(\frac{dP}{dt}\right) \times \beta V \tag{3}$$

where Q is the flow rate through the specimen, V is the downstream volume,  $\beta$  is the adiabatic compressibility of the gas, and dP/dt is the rate of change in the downstream pressure with time. Then, Darcy's law (Eq. (4)) was used to calculate the corresponding permeability [17]:

$$K = \frac{2QP_o\mu L}{A(P_i^2 - P_o^2)}$$
(4)

where Q,  $\mu$ ,  $P_o$ , and  $P_i$  are the gas flow rate through the coal specimen, the viscosity of the fluid, the downstream pressure and the upstream pressure, respectively. The specimen had a cross-sectional area, A, and mean length, L and initial permeability, K.

 $N_2$  was first injected into the coal sample at five different injection pressures (Fig. 3) under 11 MPa axial stress and  $CO_2$  injection was then initiated.  $N_2$  was then again injected into the sample to check the  $CO_2$  flow-induced physical structure modification of the coal sample (Fig. 3). The downstream pressure development curves for first  $N_2$  injection,  $CO_2$  injection and second  $N_2$  injection under 11 MPa axial stress are shown in Fig. 4(a)–(c). In addition, during each injection, fluid flow behaviour throughout the sample was recorded by measuring the pressure development at two intermediate points (600 mm and 850 mm from the injection point) along the length of the sample (Fig. 5) and the swelling effect was investigated by measuring the sample volume change (Fig. 6).

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Fig. 3. Test sequence used for permeability tests.



Fig. 4. Downstream pressure developments for different injection pressures in (a) first N<sub>2</sub> injection, (b) CO<sub>2</sub> injection and (c) second N<sub>2</sub> injection under 11 MPa axial stress.

#### 5.2.3 Results and discussion

#### 5.2.3.1 CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> flow behaviour in coal

According to Fig. 4, after around 6 h of CO<sub>2</sub> injection, reasonable steady-state behaviour in downstream pressure was be achieved. The downstream pressures developed at 6, 12, 18 and 24 h after the injection during first N<sub>2</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub> and second N<sub>2</sub> injections were then analysed to check the pressure development in the sample with time. For example, Fig. 7 shows the sample pressure developments for 6 and 9 MPa injection pressures. According to the figure, although the pressure development increases with increasing injection pressure for both first and second N<sub>2</sub> injections, the first N<sub>2</sub> injection shows a higher downstream pressure development at all the selected time periods for any injection pressure, and the second N<sub>2</sub> injection displays the lowest pressure developments. It appears that an obstruction to pressure development formed during the CO<sub>2</sub> flux. If the pressure development during this CO<sub>2</sub> injection is then considered, according to Fig. 7, there is greater pressure development at lower injection pressure (6 MPa), which exhibits a higher amount of CO<sub>2</sub> molecule movement or a higher CO<sub>2</sub> mass flow rate into the downstream at lower injection pressure (Eq. (2)). The CO<sub>2</sub> flow ability through the coal mass therefore seems to reduce with increasing injection pressure.

It should be noted that, in this program the system temperature was maintained at a constant value of 38 °C (>31.8 °C, critical temperature) throughout the experiment, which cause  $CO_2$  to be transferred to its super-critical state when it reached the critical pressure (7.38 MPa). During 9 MPa injection,  $CO_2$  was therefore at its super-critical state at the injection point, and according to Fig. 7, downstream  $CO_2$  also became super-critical after around

18 h of injection (it goes beyond the critical pressure of CO<sub>2</sub>), at which the pure super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> condition throughout the sample can be confirmed. According to Fujioka et al. [8], movement of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> in coal results in greater coal matrix swelling and eventually reduced CO<sub>2</sub> injectability into the coal mass, which is likely to be the reason for the observed decline in CO<sub>2</sub> flux at increased injection pressure.

In order to clarify this, permeability under each injection pressure was then determined and the results are shown in Fig. 8. According to the figure, although the coal mass permeability for both first and second N2 injections increases with increasing injection pressure, CO<sub>2</sub> permeability clearly reduces with increasing injection pressure. This may be related to the previously-mentioned phase transition influence of CO<sub>2</sub> during the pressure increment (sub-critical to super-critical). In general, increase of injection pressure causes the coal mass pore pressure to be raised, which reduces the effective stress applied on the coal matrix and eventually expands the coal mass pore space for gas movement, resulting in enhanced permeability. The comparatively inert nature of N<sub>2</sub> in coal is well accepted [15,26-28], and therefore, the observed permeability increment of N<sub>2</sub> with increasing injection pressure is clearly the effective stress effect mentioned previously.

This is not the only interesting result shown in Fig. 8; the lower permeability values for the second  $N_2$  injection (after the  $CO_2$  injection) compared to the first  $N_2$  injection (Fig. 8) are also critical. This is believed to be related to coal matrix swelling. During the  $CO_2$  movement through the coal sample, the  $CO_2$  adsorbs into the coal matrix, causing the coal matrix to swell by reducing the pore space available for gas movement. According to the past studies, this swelling-induced strain in coal is not auto-recoverable and

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Fig. 5. Pressure profiles along the length of the sample for different injection pressures in (a) first N<sub>2</sub> injection, (b) CO<sub>2</sub> injection and (c) second N<sub>2</sub> injection under 11 MPa axial stress.

remains as permanent damage to the coal mass [4]. The second  $N_2$  injection was preceded to this swelled and re-structured coal mass and therefore the lower permeability values should be expected.

A closer examination of this feature is required for full understanding and this can be done using Table 1, which shows how the coal sample permeability reduces due to the CO<sub>2</sub> flow at each injection pressure. According to Table 1, although the increased permeability reduction between the first and second N<sub>2</sub> flux with increasing injection pressure is a common trend, there is clearly a greater N<sub>2</sub> permeability reduction after 8 MPa injection pressure. For example, increasing the CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure from 6 to 7 MPa causes the N<sub>2</sub> permeability reduction to be increased by only around 2%, and the further increase of injection pressure from 7 to 8 MPa, causes the permeability reduction to be increased by around 11%. This is clearly related to the unique properties of super-critical CO2, which has greater chemical strength and therefore, greater swelling potential. As mentioned earlier, the entire core-flooding set-up was maintained at 38 °C constant temperature in this study (>31.8 °C, critical temperature of CO<sub>2</sub>) and therefore, increasing the pressure beyond 7.38 MPa causes the injecting CO2 phase to be transferred from the sub- to the super-critical state, and at least a portion of  $CO_2$  in the coal mass to be super-critical (regions *a* and *b* in Fig. 5(b)), resulting in higher permeability reduction in the coal mass. According to Bae and Bhatia [29], phase transition from sub- to super-critical causes a higher degree of sorbed  $CO_2$  volume in coal, and according to Massarotto et al. [30], super-critical  $CO_2$  molecules create much stronger bonds with the coal's surface than sub-critical  $CO_2$  molecules. Furthermore, Okamoto et al. [31] found that, the organic materials in the coal mass can be dissolved by the super-critical  $CO_2$ , resulting in reduced pore space due to the deposition of organic matter. All of these reasons are believed to conjointly contribute to the greater permeability reduction caused by super-critical  $CO_2$  flux.

#### 5.2.3.2 Fluid flow behaviour along the coal sample

As described above,  $CO_2$  flow through the coal matrix creates significant differences when  $CO_2$  reaches its super-critical state, which also affects other gas transport behaviours in coal. It is therefore, important to study the  $CO_2$  and  $N_2$  flow patterns along the coal sample for different injection pressures to understand

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Fig. 6. Coal sample volume change with different injection pressures for first N<sub>2</sub> injection and CO<sub>2</sub> injection.



Fig. 7. Downstream pressure development at 6 h, 12 h, 18 h and 24 h during (a) 6 MPa (sub-critical) and (b) 9 MPa (super-critical) injection pressures.



Fig. 8. Permeability changes with different injection pressures for first  $N_2$  injection,  $CO_2$  injection and second  $N_2$  injection.

the actual CO<sub>2</sub> phase transition behaviour inside the coal sample. The results are shown in Fig. 5. According to this figure, all the injections (first N2, CO2 and second N2) show similar fluid flow behaviour through the coal sample, with the exception of the steeper pressure reduction in region "a" during the second N<sub>2</sub> injection (Fig. 5(c)). Here, the three regions; "*a*", "*b*" and "*c*" are the distance between the injection point to the first intermediate pressure transducer, the first to second intermediate pressure transducer, and the second pressure transducer to the end of the sample, respectively. Table 2 gives the steady state pressure gaps in the three regions ("a", "b" and "c") for all the injections (first  $N_2$ ,  $CO_2$ and second N<sub>2</sub>) after 24 h of injection. According to Fig. 4, the pressure development downstream clearly becomes steady after 24 h of injection and therefore, the pressure development throughout the sample after 24 h of injection can be considered as the ultimate or steady-state pressure distribution along the sample. The following sections reveal the fluid flow behaviour along the coal sample

#### 870 Table 1

Permeability reduction for  $\text{CO}_2$  and second  $N_2$  injection for different injection pressures.

	Injection	Permeability reduction (%)			
	pressure (MPa)	Compared to first N <sub>2</sub> injection		Compared to second N <sub>2</sub> injection	
		Second N <sub>2</sub>	CO <sub>2</sub>	CO <sub>2</sub>	
Sub-critical region	6 7	17.89 20.49	31.04 39.62	16.02 24.06	
Super-critical region	8 9 10	31.24 32.79 34.25	58.19 68.29 76.36	39.20 55.48 64.05	

for each injection condition to enable full understanding of the process.

*a*. Flow behaviour along the coal sample during the first N<sub>2</sub> injection

The pressure development along the coal sample for the first N<sub>2</sub> injection is shown in Fig. 5(a). According to the figure, during the first N<sub>2</sub> injection, the steady-state injection pressure up to 600 mm away from the injection point, at region "a", is almost same as the pressures for all the injections. The pressure gap is negligible in region "a", and there are slight pressure gaps in region "b" between two intermediate points, and "c" (the second interme-diate point to the sample end). The pressure gap in region "c" is much steeper and the pressure gaps of both regions "b" and "c" decrease with increasing injection pressures (Table 2). As stated previously, throughout the N2 injection, the system temperature was maintained at 38 °C constant value and injecting pressure was increased from 6 MPa to 10 MPa. Within this pressure-temperature region  $N_2$  is not subjected to any phase transition (for  $N_2$ the critical temperature is -146.8 °C and the critical pressure is 3.39 MPa). Therefore, there is no phase changing influence on N<sub>2</sub> flow, such as changing of chemical potential and the corresponding adsorption reaction with coal matrix or kinetic energy change (fluid release/energy absorption during their phase transition) throughout the samples in the entire test series. However, according to Fig. 5, there is a clear pressure gap throughout the sample under steady-state conditions (24 h after the injection). For example, only around 4.5 MPa downstream pressure could be achieved at 6 MPa injection pressure and only around 8.7 MPa downstream pressure could be achieved at 10 MPa injection pressure. As mentioned above, the pressure development downstream becomes steady by 24 h of injection (Fig. 4) and therefore, the pressure development throughout the sample after 24 h of injection can be considered as the ultimate pressure distribution along the

#### Table 2

Pressure gradient along the sample for first N2, CO2 and second N2 injection.

Region	Stage	Pressure gradient (%)				
		6 MPa	7 MPa	8 MPa	9 MPa	10 MPa
a (0-600)	${1^{st} N_2} \ CO_2 \ {2^{nd} N_2}$	1.67 3.33 13.33	1.56 5.71 17.43	1.50 2.50ª 28.75	1.11 1.01 <sup>a</sup> 33.33	1.00 0.95 <sup>a</sup> 37.00
b (600–850)	${1^{st} N_2 \over CO_2 \over 2^{nd} N_2}$	11.86 7.69 7.02	11.18 8.62 7.69	10.89 4.04 <sup>a</sup> 9.94	4.49 3.37 <sup>a</sup> 11.33	5.05 3.03 <sup>a</sup> 13.94
c (850–1000)	${1^{st} N_2 \over CO_2 \over 2^{nd} N_2}$	14.04 13.21 12.73	13.86 15.63 13.79	12.84 8.14 14.09	8.33 4.24 <sup>a</sup> 16.00	8.42 3.45 <sup>a</sup> 18.75

<sup>a</sup> Areas where CO<sub>2</sub> was in its super-critical state.

sample. The pressure gap or gradient shown in Fig. 5(a) exhibits a pore pressure gradient throughout the coal sample, probably caused by the destruction of the advection flux after a certain pressure development due to the reduction of the pressure gap available for the flowing fluid. In actual field conditions, when a fluid is injected into a coal seam, it maintains its injection pressure in the critical zone of influence and a pressure gap exists thereafter. Therefore, for this experiment a 600 mm length from upstream can be considered as the critical zone of influence, as it maintains the injection pressure throughout the region. In addition, pressure development at 800 mm is around 87% of the injection pressure.

#### b. Flow behaviour along the coal sample during CO<sub>2</sub> injection

According to Fig. 5, the CO<sub>2</sub> migration pattern along the coal sample generally exhibits a trend similar to the N<sub>2</sub> migration pattern observed at the first N2 injection, discussed above, and injection pressure is maintained throughout region "a" and considerable pressure gaps exist in regions "b" and "c" at steady state. Interestingly, increasing the injection pressure from 7 to 8 MPa significantly reduces the pressure gap for CO<sub>2</sub> compared to the first N<sub>2</sub> injection in both regions "b" (8.62-4.04% at CO<sub>2</sub> flow compared to 11.18-10.89% at first N<sub>2</sub> flow) and "c" (15.63-8.14% at CO<sub>2</sub> flow compared to 13.86-12.84% at first N<sub>2</sub> flow) (Table 2). It should be noted that CO2 changes its phase condition from sub-critical to super-critical when the  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  pressure goes beyond 7.38 MPa, because the system temperature was maintained at 38 °C during the test, which is above the critical temperature of CO2. This contrasts with the permeability behaviour of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> discussed in the previous section, as super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> has much lower permeability values than sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub>. Therefore a lower pressure development rate and eventually a higher pressure gap can be expected during super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injection due its slow flow rate under the increased swelling effect. However, according to Fig. 5, super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> creates greater pressure development (fewer gaps) throughout the sample and therefore, there must exist another factor causing this pressure development. According to Perera et al. [23], super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> has liquid-like density, which is probably the key cause. Due to the higher density values of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> (304.14 kg/m<sup>3</sup> for 8 MPa pressure and 38 °C temperature) compared to gas CO<sub>2</sub> (114.97 kg/m<sup>3</sup> for 5 MPa pressure and 38 °C temperature) [32], the amount of pressure development created by super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> within a fixed volume is clearly higher than the pressure created by the same amount of gas CO<sub>2</sub> in that volume. For this reason, although the number of CO<sub>2</sub> molecules passing through the coal sample is less under super-critical conditions, those molecules may create a higher pressure development throughout the sample.

The other important observation is the comparatively lower pressure gap in the sample under 9 MPa injection pressure at region "c" compared to that at 8 MPa injection pressure. Although the reduction of the pressure gap with increasing injection pressure seems to be common to all the injection pressures, the increment of injection pressure from 8 to 9 MPa causes the pressure gap to be significantly reduced at region "c" (8.14-4.24%). According to Fig. 5 (a), during 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injection, although the  $CO_2$  molecules in regions "a" and "b" are in super-critical condition, in region "c" they are at the sub-critical state. Therefore, CO<sub>2</sub> molecules in region "c" are in the gas condition at 8 MPa injection pressure and super-critical condition at 9 MPa injection pressure (the system temperature is 38 °C). As explained earlier, in the super-critical state gas molecules have higher density values and create greater pressure development within the same volume. This is confirmed by the fact that increasing the injection pressure from 9 to 10 MPa creates only a minor reduction in the pressure gap in regions "b" (3.37–3.03%) and "c" (4.24–3.45%). This is because, under both 9 MPa and 10 MPa injection pressures, all the  $CO_2$  molecules inside the sample are in super-critical state after 24 h of injection, steady state (see Fig. 5(b)) and therefore, there is no influence of phase transition.

The  $CO_2$  migration pattern through the coal seam after injection, is an important feature to study for both  $CO_2$  sequestration and enhanced coal bed methane recovery projects. The reason is that the longer the  $CO_2$  moves, the greater the amount of  $CO_2$  stored and eventually, the greater the amount of methane produced.

## c. Flow behaviour along the coal sample during the second $\mathsf{N}_2$ injection

During the CO<sub>2</sub> flood the coal mass was subjected to internal structure modification due to CO2 adsorption-induced swelling and the second N<sub>2</sub> injection was carried out into this reformed sample. A careful examination of pressure development patterns during the second N<sub>2</sub> injection was therefore made to identify the effect of this modification on the fluid flow behaviour inside the coal sample. According to Fig. 5(c) and Table 2, the pressure profiles along samples during the second N2 injection are quite dif-ferent from the initial N<sub>2</sub> injection and CO<sub>2</sub> injection-caused pres-sure profiles, and there is a large pressure gap for each injection pressure in region "a" (Fig. 5(c)). In addition, in regions "b" and "c", the gap between the pressure developments corresponding to each injection pressure is greatly reduced and the corresponding pressure values are lower than the injection pressures (Fig. 5(c)). For example, the downstream pressures for 6 MPa and 10 MPa injection pressures are 3.9 MPa, and 5 MPa, respectively.

In order to understand this phenomenon, pressure development profiles along the sample for first and second N<sub>2</sub> injections were compared and the results are shown in Fig. 9. Fig. 9 clearly exhibits a steeper drop in the pressure profiles for the second N<sub>2</sub> injection compared to the first N<sub>2</sub> injection. Interestingly, the gap between the pressure profiles increases with increasing injection pressure, especially after 8 MPa injection pressure. As discussed previously, N<sub>2</sub> does not change its phase throughout the flow during the experiment as its critical point (critical temperature is -146.8 °C and critical pressure is 3.39 MPa) is well below the test conditions. The reason for these greater pressure drops after the 8 MPa injection pressure is therefore possibly related to the coal matrix swelling-created structure re-arrangement caused by the prior CO2 flow. Now, N2 is moving in this reformed coal sample and the steeper pressure gap after 8 MPa injection indicates that the super-critical CO2 (>8 MPa) has created a greater structural re-arrangement in the coal mass compared to sub-critical or gas CO<sub>2</sub> (<8 MPa) (Table 2). This was expected, due to the greater chemical potential and swelling ability of super-critical CO2. This implies that the pressure profiles made by the repeated N<sub>2</sub> flux after the CO<sub>2</sub> injection more clearly exhibit the swelling-caused structural re-arrangement effect than the CO<sub>2</sub> injection-caused pressure profile. It will be highly important in future CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and ECBM research to closely examine the internal structural modification created by CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption in coal.

However, as it moves along the sample towards downstream, the steepness of the pressure reducing trend generally reduces. For example, at 8 MPa injection pressure, the pressure gap between the injection pressure and the end of region "a", region "b", and region "c" are around 28.75%, 9.94% and 14.09%, respectively. This also relates to the phase changing effect of CO<sub>2</sub>. According to Fig. 5(b), throughout region "a" CO2 exists in its super-critical state when the injecting CO2 is super-critical (>7.38 MPa) and therefore, region "a" should have been subjected to greater internal structural modification caused by swelling. According to Fujioka et al. [8], the swelling due to super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> increases with the pressure. This is the reason for the increasing pressure gap with increased injection pressure in region "a". The reduced pressure gap in region "b" is due to the fact that under this injection pressure the CO<sub>2</sub> molecules in region "b" are only partially super-critical, whereas the CO<sub>2</sub> molecules in the latter portion of the region are in the sub-critical state (Fig. 5(b)). Therefore, the coal mass has been partially subjected to super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption, resulting in the effect of less structural modification on the second N<sub>2</sub> flux at region "b". Similarly, since the CO<sub>2</sub> molecules are in the sub-critical or gaseous state



Fig. 9. Pressure profiles along the length of the sample for different injection pressures in first and second  $N_2$  injection.

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Fig. 10. Volumetric strain with different injection pressures for first N<sub>2</sub> injection, CO<sub>2</sub> injection and second N<sub>2</sub> injection.

throughout region "c" for 8 MPa injection, one would expect less swelling and structure modification compared to regions "a" and "b", resulting in a lower pressure gap. Although the pressure gap in region "c" is comparatively much less than the pressure gap observed in region "a", the gap is slightly higher than that in region "b". This is due to the greater distance from the injection point, since the longer the distance, the fewer the migrated N<sub>2</sub> molecules, resulting in less pressure development and accordingly a higher gap. As mentioned earlier, after the build-up of a certain pressure downstream (and the corresponding pressure development throughout the sample), there is insufficient pressure gap to create an advection flux (the pressure-driven flow of coal in cleats).

## 5.2.3.3 A quantitative approach to CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling

According to the above findings, CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling creates significant changes to the fluid flow behaviour in coal. A quantitative approach was therefore adopted to identify this real swelling effect created by CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption under different injection conditions, by measuring the sample volume change under each injection condition (Fig. 6). According to Fig. 6, the coal sample volume increases with time during all the CO<sub>2</sub> injections, probably due to the coal matrix swelling caused by CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption. Since this may also have been influenced by the injection pressure created pore pressure increment, the sample volume change under N2 injection for the same injection pressures (6-10 MPa) was also examined. According to Fig. 6, the sample seems to be subjected to shrinkage during all the N2 injection conditions. Such shrinkage might occur in the coal mass with time due to the external stress application creating compaction, and this shows that the previously reported sample expansion during CO2 injection is related to the coal matrix swelling created by CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption.

These sample volume changes were then used to calculate the volumetric strain (sample volume change after 24 h/initial sample volume) under each injection condition and the results are shown in Fig. 10. According to this figure, although there is a clear volumetric swelling in the coal sample during CO<sub>2</sub> injection, both first and second N<sub>2</sub> injections do not create such noticeable volumetric changes to the coal sample. Katyal et al. [33] suggested that swelling is caused by the vastly cross-linked macromolecular network of coal, which is subjected to swelling in the presence of CO<sub>2</sub>. According to Harpalani and Chen [15], this swelling alters the surface area and the pore structure of the coal mass, resulting in reduced seam permeability. As discussed earlier, N<sub>2</sub> is a relatively

inert gas which does not cause any noticeable swelling in the macromolecular network of coal, and therefore, creates a negligible swelling effect. However, the first N<sub>2</sub> injection seems to create a very small volumetric strain (average volumetric strain of 4.74E–05%) in the coal sample compared to the later  $N_2$  injection (average volumetric strain of 2.82E-07%) (see Fig. 10). This is suspected to be related to the pore space expansion created by the increased pore water pressure during N<sub>2</sub> injection in the fresh coal sample. Katyal et al. [33] stated that water and CO<sub>2</sub> share a similar kind of relationship with coal and consequently, coal mass is likely to create small changes in volume (Fig. 10) which may be the reason for the comparatively higher volumetric strain during the first  $N_2$  injection. For the second  $N_2$  injection, the sample has already been subjected to expansion with pore water pressure increment, and therefore, there is no further volumetric strain for the same injection pressures.

Moreover, according to Fig. 10, the volumetric swelling produced by  $CO_2$  adsorption appears to significantly increase with increasing  $CO_2$  injection pressure. For example, swelling causes the induction of 12% and 38% volumetric strain in the coal sample for 8 MPa and 10 MPa, injection pressures, respectively. A similar swelling behaviour has been observed by Ozdemir et al., [5] after conducting a series of experiments for different coal types including lignite, which showed an increasing trend of swelling with increasing  $CO_2$  pressure. As discussed earlier, super-critical  $CO_2$ (Fig. 10) and increasing injection pressure causes more of the  $CO_2$  inside the coal sample to be super-critical (Fig. 5). Therefore, increasing injection pressure clearly causes a greater degree of swelling in the coal matrix.

#### **5.2.4 Conclusions**

This study was conducted to identify the influences of sub- and super-critical  $CO_2$  injections on coal matrix swelling and the associated permeability alterations using macro-scale reconstituted Victorian brown coal samples. The following major conclusions can be drawn from the experimental results:

 $CO_2$  permeability in coal may reduce with increasing injection pressure due to the phase transition of  $CO_2$  from sub-critical to super-critical during the pressure increment. This is because the movement of super-critical  $CO_2$  in coal results in greater coal matrix swelling and eventually reduced  $CO_2$  injectability into the coal mass. This has been confirmed by the fact that  $N_2$  injection into a coal mass permeated with  $CO_2$  produces much lower permeability values than  $N_2$  injection into a fresh coal sample, because

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the coal mass structure has already been critically reformed during the CO<sub>2</sub> flood.

Pressure profiles along the sample length were then examined for each injection by considering the pressure gaps at three main regions along the sample; region "a" (600 mm from the injection point), region "b" (between 600 to 850 mm) and region "c" (850 mm to sample end, 1 m). According to the results, although the pressure development trends for all three injections along the samples are similar, there is a noticeable pressure reduction in the initial region of the samples (region "a") during the second N<sub>2</sub> injection. This is due to the coal structure re-arrangement which occurred during the CO<sub>2</sub> flood, and the pressure development seems to be much less in the regions where CO<sub>2</sub> was in the super-critical state. This is because super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced swelling is higher than that of sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub>.

Increasing the injection pressure beyond the critical pressure of CO2 (7.38 MPa) may cause a greater pressure development (fewer gaps) along the coal mass, even under the greater permeability reduction created by the super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced swelling. This is due to the higher density values of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> compared to gas CO<sub>2</sub> that create a higher pressure development within a fixed volume compared to the same amount of gas CO<sub>2</sub> in that volume. This is confirmed by the fact that with further increase of injection pressure after the whole sample has super-critical CO<sub>2</sub>, may create only minor changes in pressure gaps along the sample. These CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> migration patterns through coal seams after injection are highly important for field applications such as CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and enhanced coal bed methane recovery. The reason is that, the longer the distance that  $CO_2$  and N<sub>2</sub> travel, the greater the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> stored, and eventually, the greater the amount of methane produced. CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling was then quantitatively determined by measuring the volumetric strain of samples under each injection condition. According to the results, super-critical CO2 causes greater swelling of the coal mass than sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> and the swelling of coal mass increases with injection pressure. This is consistent with the prescribed pressure development and permeability made conductions.

#### 5.2.5 Acknowledgement

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## 5.3 How do CO<sub>2</sub> properties and in situ stresses affect CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity?

As stated in Section 5.2,  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced coal matrix rearrangements lead to reduced flow abilities in coal. These flow abilities can further vary due to the greater effective stress on the coal mass, as discussed in Sections 4.2 and 4.3 for natural meso-scale brown coal samples. Therefore, it is interesting to investigate the effect of effective stress on macro-scale reconstituted coal specimens and this is the subject of this section. A series of core flooding experiments was conducted on Australian brown coal using the advanced core flooding apparatus. A range of  $CO_2$ injection pressures (6 to 14 MPa) under 17 MPa axial stress were utilised for the study and the results were compared with the results of 11 MPa axial stress (see Section 5.2) to obtain the effect of greater in situ stresses. The volume changes of the sample and the  $CO_2$  flow along the coal sample were also measured, to comprehend  $CO_2$ -induced coal matrix swelling and its effect on coal permeability. Finally, the  $CO_2$  storage capacity was measured under different test conditions to quantify the ability of brown coal to store  $CO_2$  which is important for  $CO_2$  sequestration.

The following journal paper was produced from this chapter:

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### 5.3.1 Introduction

Due to its ability to reduce the amount of anthropogenic carbon dioxide ( $CO_2$ ) in the environment,  $CO_2$  sequestration in deep un-mineable coal seams has been identified as an effective method to address global warming (Jing et al. 2015; Verma and Sirvaiya 2016; White et al. 2005). Based on the fact that the coal mass has greater affinity to  $CO_2$  than other gases like methane (CH4) and nitrogen ( $N_2$ ) due to its greater chemical and physical interaction, in return the sequestration process releases coal bed methane (CBM), which is an environmentally-friendly energy source with higher efficiency (White et al. 2005). However, according to the research literature (Day et al. 2008; Hol and Spiers 2012; Jing et al. 2015; Larsen et al. 1997; Pan and Connell 2007; Wang et al. 2013), the sequestration of  $CO_2$  disrupts the stability of the original coal structure with apparent changes in coal matrix swelling, which decreases the  $CO_2$  injectivity into the coal seam and affects its long-term stability. It is therefore important to study the principles of coal mass swelling and to have a better understanding of the factors affecting this process.

A number of studies have been conducted on coal seam permeability upon  $CO_2$  sequestration and the effects of various factors on this have been highlighted, including injecting

 $CO_2$  properties (Jasinge 2010; Day et al. 2008; Pan and Connell 2007; Perera et al. 2011; Siriwardane et al. 2009; Vishal and Singh 2015) and coal mass properties (Merkel et al. 2015; Wang et al. 2013). According to the research, potential coal seams for  $CO_2$  sequestration with higher temperatures and pressures have limited  $CO_2$  flow ability, because  $CO_2$  is in its supercritical state (beyond 7.38 MPa pressure and 31.8°C temperature  $CO_2$  exists as super-critical fluid) and has greater sorption capacity in such seams.

On the other hand, it is well known that coal is a highly heterogeneous material and it is therefore quite difficult to validate the results obtained from natural coal samples for in situ coal seams (De Silva 2013). Jasinge (2010) and Liu et al. (2016) found that reconstituted coal (RC) samples with reproducible properties can be used to successfully represent natural coal specimens to overcome such difficulties. The following section focuses on some previous studies conducted on RC and natural samples.

## 5.3.2 Comparison of fluid flow behaviour in reconstituted and natural coal

To date, many studies have been conducted to identify the flow behaviour in natural coal seams using reconstituted coal samples and satisfactory results have been obtained. Figure 5.1 illustrates a study that compares  $N_2$  and  $CO_2$  permeability and the related swelling in natural and reconstituted Australian low rank coal (Jasinge, 2010).

According to Figure 5.1(a), N<sub>2</sub> flow linearly reduces with increasing effective stress in both natural and RC samples, and  $CO_2$  flow (Figure 5.1(b)) follows a negative exponential variation, exhibiting the unfavourable effect of CO<sub>2</sub> exposure on coal permeability. Further, the RC specimens show higher permeability than natural specimens for both N<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> flow (see Figs. 5.1(a) and (b)). Similar results were obtained by Liu et al. (2016), who injected CH<sub>4</sub> (~0.69 MPa) into coking coal from the Hexi coal mine, China under different confining pressures (from around 2-7 MPa), and showed higher permeability for RC specimens than natural coal samples. This indicates the differences in fracture system characteristics, such as fracture porosity and connectivity, of the reconstituted coal sample and the natural coal sample. Further attention to coal mass swelling with  $N_2$  and  $CO_2$  permeation reveals that  $N_2$  injection does not show any significant variation in swelling with effective stress (Figure 5.1(c)) for both natural and RC samples. Conversely, CO<sub>2</sub> flow causes the coal mass swelling to undergo an increasing trend with the increase of injection pressure (Figure 5.1(d)) for both natural and RC specimens. However, RC specimens display a comparatively higher coal matrix swelling compared to natural specimens during CO<sub>2</sub> flow. This is probably caused by the greater amount of CO<sub>2</sub> molecules entering the coal mass due to the higher permeability in RC samples than natural samples, which interact with the coal mass and cause greater swelling. This may also contribute to the observed permeability variations (Figure 5.1(b)), with lower permeability reductions for natural samples than RC samples during CO<sub>2</sub> permeation. However, the correlation between swelling and permeability of coal generally shows a similarity in both natural and RC specimens, allowing the use of RC specimens for experimental purposes (Jasinge 2010; Liu et al. 2016).



Figure 5.1. N<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> permeability and coal mass swelling variation with effective stress for reconstituted coal (RC) and natural coal specimens (Jasinge 2010) (The data labels in (c) and (d) denote the respective injection pressures)

### 5.3.3 Studies of CO<sub>2</sub> flow behaviour using macro-scale coal specimens

As reported in the literature (Day et al. 2008; Jasinge 2010; Pan et al. 2010; Perera et al. 2011; Siriwardane et al. 2009; Sun et al. 2016; Vishal and Singh 2015), most coal CO<sub>2</sub> injection studies have been conducted using meso-scale samples (up to around 100 mm in length). This has caused difficulties in confirming the applicability of adsorption theories at a higher scale to the estimation of CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity (De Silva 2013). Hence, De Silva (2013) conducted advanced core-flooding tests using 1 m long and 203 mm diameter (macro-scale) RC low rank coal samples to

estimate  $CO_2$  flow behaviour in coal, in order to overcome the scale effect. De Silva (2013) basically focused on the sub-critical  $CO_2$  flow in large coal samples and Ranathunga et al. (2015) extended this study to super-critical  $CO_2$  to represent actual  $CO_2$  flow behaviour in deep coal seams, considering the  $CO_2$  flow behaviour along the sample. The following sections summarise some major findings of the macro-scale core flooding experiments conducted on  $CO_2$  injection.

### 5.3.3.1 Sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injection

De Silva (2013) conducted a series of tests of sub-critical  $CO_2$  injection (from 0.4 MPa to 7.4 MPa) under 1, 2, 4, 6 and 8 MPa axial stresses and observed a reduction in  $CO_2$  permeability with increasing  $CO_2$  injection pressure and axial stress (Figure 5.2).  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling is the main cause of this permeability reduction and this was proved by the related swelling data (Figure 5.2). According to Figure 5.2, the coal volumetric strain is increased with increasing injection pressure. Further, according to the figure, the increase of axial stress causes a reduction in permeability for  $CO_2$  movement, probably due to the greater effective stresses on the coal mass.



Figure 5.2. CO<sub>2</sub> permeability variation with axial stress and volumetric strain for different CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressures (The first value of the label denotes the CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure (MPa) and the second value denotes the respective volumetric strain (%)) (De Silva 2013)

### 5.3.3.2 Super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injection

As potential coal seams for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration undergo super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injection, Ranathunga et al. (2015) conducted a series of tests using super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> to understand the variations of CO<sub>2</sub> phase in large-scale coal specimens. They injected 6 to 10 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> into low rank RC specimens under a constant temperature of 38  $^{\circ}$ C (> 31.8  $^{\circ}$ C, the critical temperature of CO<sub>2</sub>) and

under 11 MPa axial stress. They injected  $N_2$  before (first  $N_2$  injection) and after the CO<sub>2</sub> injection (second  $N_2$  injection) to quantify the CO<sub>2</sub> flow-induced coal mass changes, and the  $N_2$  and CO<sub>2</sub> permeability variations obtained are illustrated in Figure 5.3.



Figure 5.3. Permeability variation with different injection pressures for first N<sub>2</sub> injection, CO<sub>2</sub> injection and second N<sub>2</sub> injection (Ranathunga et al. 2015) (The data labels indicate the coal specimen's volumetric strain (%) under CO<sub>2</sub> injection. The permeability values have been normalized by dividing each value by the permeability obtained for 6 MPa in each injection condition)

According to Figure 5.3, the results are consistent with the results obtained by De Silva (2013) for sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub>, showing a reduction of permeability with increasing CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure. However, it can be noted that the reduction is comparatively higher in the super-critical region compared to sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub>. For example, there is around a 7% decrease in permeability from 6 to 7 MPa for sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injection and around 21% permeability decrease from 8 to 9 MPa for super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injection. This reduction is three times higher than in sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> flow. The main reason for this observation is the greater adsorption capacity of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub>, as a result of its more chemically active nature, liquid-like density and viscosity, which cause greater coal mass swelling compared to sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> (Day et al. 2008). This is further evident from the volumetric swelling data for both regions (Figure 5.3). Furthermore, the comparative reduction of the second N<sub>2</sub> flow compared to the first N<sub>2</sub> flow clearly illustrates the coal mass changes which occur upon exposure to CO<sub>2</sub>. For example, at 6 MPa, the first N<sub>2</sub> to the second N<sub>2</sub> injection shows around 17% permeability reduction, and that for 8 MPa is around 31%. As N<sub>2</sub> is a comparatively less adsorptive gas than CO<sub>2</sub> (Perera et al. 2011), this observed flow variation clearly occurs due to coal mass swelling during CO<sub>2</sub> flux.

In addition, De Silva (2013) observed a decrease in CO<sub>2</sub> permeability in coal with increasing effective stress (axial stress) for sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub>. Hence, it is important to investigate how super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> flow changes with increasing effective stress. Ranathunga et al. (2017) conducted a series of meso-scale experiments to investigate this super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> effect for similar low rank natural coal samples and observed the similar behaviour of CO<sub>2</sub> flow and permeability reduction with increasing effective stress. Table 5.1 lists some of the results obtained by Ranathunga et al. (2017) for 6 to 7 MPa (sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub>), 7 to 8 MPa (the CO<sub>2</sub> phase-changing region), and 8 to 9 MPa (super-critical CO<sub>2</sub>) flow increments under 11, 14 and 17 MPa axial stresses.

According to Table 5.1, reduction of permeability with increasing effective stress is evident, and greater permeability reduction in deep coal seams is shown during  $CO_2$  sequestration. Furthermore, this reduction is gradually increased (around 18%) when the  $CO_2$  phase is changed, being comparatively greater in super-critical  $CO_2$  compared to sub-critical  $CO_2$ . The opportunity for more adsorptive super-critical  $CO_2$  molecules to interact with the coal matrix, creating increased matrix rearrangements, is the main reason for this observation (Perera et al. 2011). However, this may create complications for  $CO_2$ -ECBM in deeper coal seams for  $CO_2$  injectivity and productivity. Hence, further research is needed to gain a better understanding of this phenomenon for application in the field.

	Permeability variation (%)				
Confining pressure (MPa)	6 to 7 MPa sub- critical CO <sub>2</sub> flow increment	7 to 8 MPa CO <sub>2</sub> phase changing region	8 to 9 MPa super- critical CO <sub>2</sub> flow increment		
11 (around 400m depth)	-1.8*	-9.7*	-19.2*		
14 (around 500m depth)	-7.6*	-12.4*	-25.1*		
17 (around 600m depth)	-10.6*	-23.2*	-30.3*		

Table 5.1. Variation of CO<sub>2</sub> permeability with effective stress (Ranathunga et al. 2017)

\*A negative sign indicates permeability reduction

The main objective of this study is therefore to develop knowledge of coal mass behaviour with  $CO_2$  exposure using macro-scale reconstituted low rank coal samples, and in particular to identify the influence of axial stress on large-scale samples. The present study can therefore be considered as an extension of the work of De Silva (2013) and Ranathunga et al. (2015), which pays more attention to super-critical  $CO_2$  flow behaviour in coal located at various depths using macro-scale coal samples. An effort is also made to quantify the corresponding  $CO_2$  storage capacity variation with various effective factors ( $CO_2$  phase, pressure and seam depth).

## 5.3.4 Experimental methodology

The advanced core-flooding apparatus available in the Deep Earth Energy Research Laboratory (DEERL) at Monash University was used to conduct this study. A detailed description of the apparatus can be found in Chapter 3 and the experimental procedure is briefly described below.

## **5.3.4.1 Sample preparation**

In this experiment, RC samples were prepared using powdered low rank brown coal. The coal powder was obtained from coal blocks taken from the Hazelwood open-cut coal mine at Morwell in Gippsland, Victoria. The samples had a natural moisture content of around 55%. The RC specimen construction procedure is shown in Figure 5.4, and the detailed methodology adopted to construct the RC samples can be found in Chapter 3.



Figure 5.4. Experimental program for core flooding tests

## 5.3.4.2 Permeability tests

Permeability tests were conducted for CO<sub>2</sub> injections for seven different injecting pressures (6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12 and 14 MPa) under 17 MPa axial stress, maintaining the system temperature at 38 °C. Since the system temperature was maintained at 38 °C, 6 and 7 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injections were under sub-critical conditions and the rest of the CO<sub>2</sub> injections were under super-critical conditions (beyond 7.38 MPa pressure and  $31.8^{\circ}$ C temperature CO<sub>2</sub> exists as a super-critical fluid). The undrained condition was maintained to determine the sample permeability, and the pressure transient approach was used calculate the permeability (Pan et al. 2010; Perera et al. 2011). CO<sub>2</sub> injection was performed, maintaining the injection pressure at a steady state for each injection pressure (6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12 and 14 MPa). The corresponding pressure developments at intermediate points along the sample and downstream were monitored and recorded using an advanced data acquisition system.

The permeability of the coal sample was then calculated using Eqs. [5.1] and [5.2] (Perera et al. 2011) upon downstream pressure development reaching steady state:

$$Q = \left(\frac{dP}{dt}\right) \times \beta V_d \tag{5.1}$$

$$k = \frac{2QP_{o}\mu L}{A(P_{i}^{2} - P_{o}^{2})}$$
[5.2]

where, Q is the flow rate through the specimen,  $V_d$  is the downstream volume,  $\beta$  is the adiabatic compressibility of the gas, and dP/dt is the rate of change in the downstream pressure with time,  $\mu$  is the viscosity of the injecting fluid, A is the cross-section area of the sample (0.0324 m<sup>2</sup>), L is the length of the sample (937 mm for this study after full consolidation), and  $P_i$  and  $P_o$  are the upstream and downstream pressures, respectively. The viscosity and the adiabatic compressibility were calculated using the REFPROP database (McLinden et al. 1998) for the respective CO<sub>2</sub> pressures and a constant temperature (38 °C). The corresponding permeability values of the sample for 17 MPa axial stress are shown in Figure 5.5.



Figure 5.5. CO<sub>2</sub> permeability variation with CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressures for 17 MPa axial stress

### **5.3.4.3** Coal matrix swelling measurement

During each test, the sample length variation was recorded using a linear variable differential transformer (LVDT) at 1s intervals to quantify the  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling in the RC specimen. The volumetric swelling was then calculated using the measured length change of the sample using Eq. [5.3], because movement in the radial direction was restrained in the tests by the steel casing. When the sample was subjected to swelling, the sample length was accordingly increased and for shrinkage, the sample length was consequently decreased.

Volumetric strain of the coal sample =  $\frac{L_t - L_o}{L_o} \times 100\%$  [5.3]
It should be noted that this volumetric strain value includes the effect of both CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced coal mass alterations and consolidation due to the application of axial stress.

## 5.3.5 Results and discussion

A series of permeability tests was conducted for seven different  $CO_2$  injection pressures under 17 MPa axial stress using a macro-scale RC low rank coal sample, and the results obtained are discussed in the following sections.

#### 5.3.5.1 Carbon dioxide flow along the coal sample

#### a. Effect of injected carbon dioxide properties on coal mass permeability

According to Figure 5.5, CO<sub>2</sub> permeability reduces with increasing CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure at 17 MPa axial stress, and the reduction is relatively higher for super-critical CO<sub>2</sub>. For example, increasing the injection pressure from 6 to 7 MPa sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> flow caused around 11% permeability reduction and increasing the injection pressure from 8 to 9 MPa super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> flow caused a much larger permeability reduction of around 38%. As explained previously, CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling is the main cause of this observed permeability reduction with increasing injection pressure. Similar results were reported by Ranathunga et al. (2015) for 11 MPa axial stress following similar macro-scale tests using the same type of RC coal samples, and a comparison of CO<sub>2</sub> permeability variations under 11 and 17 MPa axial stresses with respective to volumetric strain is presented in Figure 5.6.



Figure 5.6. CO<sub>2</sub> permeability vs. coal mass volumetric strain variation under 11 MPa (Ranathunga et al. 2015) and 17 MPa axial stresses (Red data labels denote sub-critical and black data labels denote super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injections)

According to Figure 5.6, CO<sub>2</sub> permeability and the volumetric swelling of the specimen follow a negative exponential variation for both axial stresses, confirming the reason for the observed reduced CO<sub>2</sub> flow ability with injection pressure. According to Day et al. (2010), the greater adsorption capacity of CO<sub>2</sub> at higher pressures results in greater matrix alterations, causing reduced permeabilities. Figure 5.7 shows the variation of CO<sub>2</sub> properties of viscosity and compressibility with increasing CO<sub>2</sub> pressure at 38  $^{\circ}$ C (the temperature used for the current experiment). According to Figure 5.7, CO<sub>2</sub> properties are significantly changed in the super-critical region, where significant increments in viscosity and reductions in compressibility with increasing pressure can be seen. This inordinate increment of viscosity (Figure 5.7(a) and (c)) provides greater fluidity for super-critical CO<sub>2</sub>, which increases the adsorption capacity of the coal mass, and the reduction of compressibility of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> (Figure 5.7(b)) constrains the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> molecules entering the coal matrix. These are the reasons for greater coal mass swelling and the lower permeabilities obtained with increasing CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressures.



Figure 5.7. Variation of CO<sub>2</sub> properties with pressure (McLinden et al. 1998) (The shaded area is under super-critical conditions)

However, this coal matrix swelling also varies with time and this was considered next. Figure 5.7 exhibits the volumetric strain variations with time (the injection period is the time taken to reach the steady state at downstream and the additional 10 days (approximately) allowed for swelling-induced matrix changes.). According to the figure, the volumetric strain exponentially increases with time. Due to the lower permeabilities under higher  $CO_2$  pore pressures, it took longer durations to obtain the steady-state conditions than for lower  $CO_2$  permeabilities. Therefore, this additional time allowed  $CO_2$  and coal to have greater interactions, creating larger volumetric strain variations for higher  $CO_2$  floods (Figure 5.7). If this concept is applied to the field conditions, long-term sequestration of  $CO_2$  can reduce  $CO_2$  injectivity by causing greater coal matrix swelling,



confirming the observed reductions of  $CO_2$  injections within 6 months to 2 years in field projects (refer to Chapter 2).

Figure 5.7. Coal mass volumetric strain vs. time variation under 11 MPa (Ranathunga et al. 2015) and 17 MPa axial stresses after the injection period (Red data labels denote sub-critical and black data labels denote super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injections)

#### b. Effect of coal seam depth on permeability

According to Figure 5.6, a reduction of permeability from 11 to 17 MPa axial stress increment can be observed, similar to previous studies using small coal samples (Ranathunga et al. 2017; Vishal and Singh 2015). The disruptions to the flow with increased effective stresses cause these permeability decreases. However, the CO<sub>2</sub> flow reduction is comparatively less for super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injection than for sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub>. For example, a reduction of around 86% for 6 MPa subcritical CO<sub>2</sub> injection and around 80% for 8 MPa super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injection can be seen when the axial stress is increased from 11 to 17 MPa. Similar results were obtained by Ranathunga et al. (2017) for small coal samples of similar low rank coal and these researchers observed 82% and 77% decreases of permeability for 6 MPa (sub-critical) and 9 MPa (super-critical) CO<sub>2</sub> injections for an 11 to 17 MPa confining pressure increase. This may be due to the already reduced flow with greater coal mass swelling and greater effective stress application in deeper coal seams that lead only to a lower reduction of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> flow. This suggests that, regardless of sample size, the effect of seam depth on its permeability is significant.

As discussed previously, increases of  $CO_2$  injection pressure from 6 to 7 MPa (sub-critical flow) and 8 to 9 MPa (super-critical flow) cause a permeability reduction of 11 % and 38% respectively for 17 MPa axial stress. For similar  $CO_2$  injection pressure increments during 11 MPa axial stress, Ranathunga et al. (2015) observed around 5% (6 to 7 MPa) and 23% (8 to 9 MPa) permeability reductions for similar macro-scale RC samples made with the same brown coal. This

implies that the permeability reduction with increasing injection pressure observed at 17 MPa axial stress is greater than the reduction observed at 11 MPa axial stress (Ranathunga et al., 2015). Similar results have been obtained in a meso-scale study by Ranathunga et al. (2017) on similar rank coal samples, which showed around 2% and 11% permeability reductions for 11 and 17 MPa confining pressures when  $CO_2$  injection pressure was increased from 6 to 7 MPa, and 19% and 30% permeability reductions when  $CO_2$  injection pressure was increased from 8 to 9 MPa under the same confining pressures (see Table 5.1). The reason is the lower flow ability under higher applied effective stresses, which offers a longer residential time for the  $CO_2$  molecules within the coal mass. This may lead to greater matrix alterations causing lower permeability, especially for super-critical  $CO_2$  flow (Vishal and Singh 2015).

The other important fact is that the coal matrix swelling is comparatively less at 17 MPa than for 11 MPa axial stress (Figure 5.6). For example, around 0.045% and 0.036% volumetric strains can be seen for 6 MPa (sub-critical) CO<sub>2</sub> flow and 0.053% and 0.046% for 8 MPa (supercritical) CO<sub>2</sub> flow under 11 MPa and 17 MPa axial stresses, respectively (Figure 5.6). This may be due to the obstruction of sample length variation by the higher stresses applying at higher axial stresses. In addition, this volumetric strain increment with injection pressures is higher for 11 MPa axial stress compared to 17 MPa axial stress. For instance, a 6 to 7 MPa sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> flow increment shows around 7.2% and 4% volumetric strain increases for 11 and 17 MPa axial stresses, while that for 8 to 9 MPa super-critical flow is around 16.1% and 12.6%, respectively (Figure 5.6). Similar results have been reported by Jasinge (2010) for RC low rank coal of a similar type. Jasinge (2010) observed around 8.9% and 3.8% swelling increments for 9 to 10 MPa confining pressure increments when CO<sub>2</sub> pressure was increased from 2.5 to 3.4 MPa. As explained previously, the higher effective stresses acting on the coal mass under greater axial stresses slow the CO<sub>2</sub> flow along the coal matrix, offering less opportunity for CO<sub>2</sub> to interact with the coal mass by increasing the matrix rearrangements. Hol et al. (2011) also confirmed this observation after finding a lower CO<sub>2</sub> sorption capacity for bituminous coal due to the higher in situ stresses applied on the coal mass which result in less matrix swelling. This shows the lower coal matrix swelling effect expected for CO<sub>2</sub> injection at greater seam depths. This is favourable for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration, as most potential seams for  $CO_2$  sequestration are at quite deep depths (> 1 km).

#### c. How does carbon dioxide flow behaviour vary along the seam?

As discussed in Sections 5.3.5.1(a) and (b), lower  $CO_2$  injection pressures at shallow depths produce higher permeability through the coal mass, while higher  $CO_2$  pressures at deeper depths cause flow reduction with enhanced coal matrix swelling and higher effective stresses applied on the coal mass. The meso-scale study conducted by Perera et al. (2011) on black coal (high rank),

showed a considerable reduction in pressure along the coal mass during  $CO_2$  injection. For example, around 6 MPa downstream pressure was observed for 10 MPa  $CO_2$  injection under 15 MPa confinement, and around 3 MPa for 20 MPa confinement for the same injection pressure. Similar lower pressure gradients were observed by Ranathunga et al. (2015) for a low rank macroscale coal sample, and non-linear pressure variation along the specimen could be seen. Therefore, it was interesting to study how this  $CO_2$  flow varies through the coal sample length (937 mm for the current study) during each injection condition under this greater axial stress condition. Figure 5.9 illustrates how the  $CO_2$  pressure varied along the length of the sample during 6 MPa (subcritical) and 8 MPa (super-critical)  $CO_2$  injections at both 11 and 17 MPa axial stresses at the end of 10 days, measured using intermediate pressure transducers.



Figure 5.9. Pressure variation along the length of the sample after 10 days under 11 MPa (Ranathunga et al. 2015) and 17 MPa axial stresses (Here,  $P_i$  is injection pressure and  $\sigma_a$  is axial stress. The colour scale of each figure depicts the CO<sub>2</sub> pressure variation (in MPa) along the coal

sample)

As shown in Figure 5.9, the respective injection pressures dropped gradually from upstream to downstream, regardless of injection pressure or depth (axial stress). The important thing is that this decrease is greater at higher injection pressures (super-critical) and greater depths compared to lower pressures and shallow depths. For example, 6 MPa sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> flow under 11 MPa axial stress caused a decrease of 21.4% from upstream to downstream, while the same injection under 17 MPa axial stress caused a greater reduction of 32.9%. In addition, 8 MPa supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> flow under 11 MPa axial stress produced a 29.8% drop in pressure, and 17 MPa axial stress caused a greater reduction of 43.6%. These lower pressure gradients caused lower permabilities through the sample (Figure 5.6). Interestingly, the injected pressure remained constant up to around 500 m, 200 m, 400 m and 50 m during 6 MPa and 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injection under 11 MPa and 17 MPa axial stress, respectively. Nevertheless, this length reduced with increasing injection pressure and axial stress. Hence, it can be deduced that the critical zone of influence (the area of  $CO_2$  injection pressure kept constant) during  $CO_2$  injection into a coal seam is larger at lower injection pressures at shallow depths, while it is reduced when higher CO<sub>2</sub> pressures are injected into deeper coal seams. This is important for the CO<sub>2</sub> storage process in deep coal seams.

Furthermore, only around 50% of the sample is under super-critical conditions under 11 MPa axial stress for 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injection, and this proportion becomes less (around 25% of the sample) under 17 MPa axial stress (see Figures 5.8(c) and (d)). This observation clearly indicates the lower volumetric strain increments at higher effective stresses (refer to Section 5.3.5.1). The reason is that the coal matrix alterations due to more adsorptive super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> occur over a smaller area of the sample due to the lower permeabilities under higher effective stresses. Hence, the volumetric strain increment is less at greater depths than shallow depths.

# d. An empirical relationship for carbon dioxide flow variation along a low rank coal seam

As  $CO_2$  permeability along the coal sample varies with both axial stress and  $CO_2$  injection pressure, a multi-variable regression equation was developed for permeability variations using the experimental data from Section 4.2 and the present study. Refer to Eq. [5.4]:

$$\mathbf{k} = \mathbf{e}^{(-0.2944\sigma_a - 0.1105P_i - 7.9127)} \qquad \mathbf{R}^2 = 0.936 \qquad [5.4]$$

where,  $\sigma_a$  is axial stress (MPa),  $P_i$  is CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure (MPa) and k is CO<sub>2</sub> permeability (mD). The predicted permeability variations with the axial stresses and CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressures are shown in Figure 5.10. The figure clearly indicates that CO<sub>2</sub> permeability is higher at lower axial stresses and lower CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressures. In addition, it is reduced gradually with the increment of both axial stress and CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure, confirming the experimental observations.



Figure 5.10. Predicted permeability variation with axial stress and CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure

# 5.3.5.2 CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity variation

One of the main purposes of the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM process is to store anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> in deep unmineable coal seams. It is therefore vital to investigate the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> that can be stored in the coal mass under various conditions, including various seam depths (axial stress) and injecting fluid properties (CO<sub>2</sub> phase and pressure). The next stage of analysis was therefore to quantify the CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity in the coal mass under the various test conditions. This was accurately monitored using a digital platform scale at the CO<sub>2</sub> injection point. The amount of gas injected was monitored over time after changing the injection pressure and maintaining it for more than 10 days, to allow sufficient time for swelling. Figure 5.11 shows the variation in the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> injected into the coal mass (after around 10 hours) with effective stress under 11 MPa and 17 MPa axial stress conditions for each injection pressure. The effective stress was calculated as the difference between the applied axial stress and the mean gas pressure (the average of the pressures applied at upstream and downstream).

According to Figure 5.11, the amount of  $CO_2$  injected is increased with increasing effective stress for both 11 and 17 MPa axial stresses. This increment is greater when the  $CO_2$  injection pressure is greater than 7 MPa (super-critical flow) and lower for 6 to 7 MPa (sub-critical flow)  $CO_2$  injections. For example, around 4.9% increment in injected  $CO_2$  weight was observed with a 6 to 7 MPa pressure increment, and that for 8 to 9 MPa was 14.9% at 11 MPa axial stress. Similarly, for 17 MPa axial stress, the injected  $CO_2$  weight was around 1.9% for an increase from 6 to 7 MPa pressure and 9.8% for 8 to 9 MPa pressure increment. The main reason for this observation is the reduction of  $CO_2$  flow with increasing injection pressure (refer to Figure 5.6) due to the coal matrix rearrangements which adsorb less  $CO_2$  injected into the coal sample.



Figure 5.11. Variation of injected CO<sub>2</sub> weight (after 10 days) and CO<sub>2</sub> permeability with effective stress for 11 and 17 MPa axial stresses (The red data labels denote the sub-critical and the black data labels denote the super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injections).

In addition, the observed injected  $CO_2$  weight is different for a given effective stress. For example, during 5 MPa effective stress, 6 MPa sub-critical  $CO_2$  injection injected 0.7 kg of  $CO_2$ while 12 MPa super-critical  $CO_2$  injected only 0.3 kg of  $CO_2$  for the same effective stress. Here, the effective stress was calculated as the difference between the axial stress and the average pore pressure of the sample from upstream to downstream. In the case of 6 MPa  $CO_2$ , the whole sample (100%) is filled with sub-critical  $CO_2$  (Figure 5.8), while a larger portion of the sample (around 60%) is filled with super-critical  $CO_2$ . Hence, greater coal matrix alterations can be expected for 12 MPa  $CO_2$  adsorption than for 6 MPa  $CO_2$ , which may be the reason for this difference in  $CO_2$ injection capacity. Hence, it can be concluded that  $CO_2$  pore pressure has a much greater influence on  $CO_2$  adsorption capacity in a coal seam than the applied in situ stresses. This was confirmed in Chapter 4.3, where the  $CO_2$  sorption strain-induced permeability reduction was greater than the effective stress-induced permeability reduction.

However, this CO<sub>2</sub> storage process is time-dependent, and a longer time offers more opportunity for CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption and storage. Figure 5.12 shows the injected CO<sub>2</sub> weight variation with time at 6 MPa (sub-critical) and 8 MPa (super-critical) injection pressures under both 11 and 17 MPa axial stresses. According to Figure 5.12, the cumulative weight of injected CO<sub>2</sub> increases over time, and the rate of increase is lower at higher CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressures and greater axial stresses. For example, the average increases are around 0.0031 and 0.0025 at 6 and 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressures under 11 MPa axial stress, while they are around 0.0008 and 0.0005 for the same injection pressures (6 and 8 MPa) under 17 MPa axial stress. This observation clearly explains the CO<sub>2</sub> storage behaviour observed in Figure 5.11, which shows greater CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity at lower depths and lower CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressures.



Figure 5.12. Cumulative weight of injected CO<sub>2</sub> variation with time for 6 MPa and 8 MPa injection pressures at 11 MPa and 17 MPa axial stresses

Interestingly, in relation to the weight of  $CO_2$  injected at the end of the injection period, a contrasting behaviour compared to that shown in Figure 5.12 was obtained. Figure 5.13 illustrates a comparison of the weight of  $CO_2$  injected after 10 days of injection and at the end of the injection period under both 11 and 17 MPa axial stresses. According to Figure 5.13, it can be noted that, although flow ability reduces at higher  $CO_2$  injection pressures, a comparatively larger amount of  $CO_2$  can be stored if a long time is offered for  $CO_2$  sequestration at greater depths. The reason is, as stated in Figure 5.8, the inherent liquid-like properties of super-critical  $CO_2$  permit greater adsorption potential within the coal matrix, which requires some time to complete.



Figure 5.13. Comparison of weight of CO<sub>2</sub> injected after completing the injection period and after 10 days during 11 MPa and 17 MPa axial stress (The data labels denote the injection period (in hours) for each injection pressure) However, in the case of the variation of  $CO_2$  storage capacity with axial stress, the injected  $CO_2$  weight reduction with axial stress is not much lower than the permeability reduction observed with axial stress (Figure 5.6). A comparison of the observed permeability reductions and the  $CO_2$  storage capacity reductions under 11 to 17 MPa axial stress increment is shown in Table 5.2 after completing the injection period (time to reach steady state plus around 10 days).

Table 5.2. Comparison of permeability and CO<sub>2</sub> injectivity reductions with 11 MPa to 17 MPa

	CO2 injection pressure (MPa)	Permeability reduction (%)	Injected CO <sub>2</sub> weight reduction (%)
Sub-critical region	6	86.72	27.08
	7	85.96	25.01
Super-critical region	8	83.98	22.99
	9	80.31	19.75
	10	77.06	14.67

axial stresses

According to Table 5.2, similar to permeability reduction, the injected  $CO_2$  or stored  $CO_2$  weight is greatly reduced in the super-critical region, and the permeability reduction is around 60~70% higher than the injected  $CO_2$  weight reductions (see Table 5.2). The longer residential time for  $CO_2$  molecules with higher effective stresses may offer greater adsorption possibility for  $CO_2$  molecules within the coal matrix (De Silva 2013) with time and the increased amount of  $CO_2$  molecules entering the coal mass under higher  $CO_2$  pressures, warranting lower reductions than in flow ability.

Another interesting point can be seen in Table 5.2, which is that the super-critical  $CO_2$  undergoes lower reductions in both permeability and  $CO_2$  injected weight than for sub-critical  $CO_2$ . As explained before, with greater  $CO_2$  floods, the  $CO_2$  flow is greatly influenced by the  $CO_2$  pore pressure compared to the effective stresses applied on the sample. Hence, the expected reduction of permeability or  $CO_2$  injectivity with effective stress is less for higher  $CO_2$  injections than for lower  $CO_2$  injections.

# 5.3.5.3 Suggestions for CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM field applications

Potential coal seams for CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM are located deep underground, where the injected CO<sub>2</sub> is in its super-critical state (beyond 7.38 MPa and 31.8  $^{0}$ C). The liquid-like viscosities (Figure 5.6) of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> provide more potential for stable CO<sub>2</sub> storage within the coal matrix. Nevertheless, the observed decrease in CO<sub>2</sub> flow ability along the coal matrix, especially during super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injection, raises concerns in relation to the productivity of the ECBM process. On the other hand, according to the findings, regardless of the permeability reductions, CO<sub>2</sub> storage

capacity in coal increases with increasing injection pressure, offering sufficient time for sequestration. Furthermore, a comparatively lower reduction of  $CO_2$  storage capacity was witnessed with increasing axial stress from 11 MPa (representing an approximately 400 m deep coal seam) to 17 MPa (representing an approximately 600 m deep coal seam). This information is very useful for  $CO_2$  sequestration field projects, because there is current interest in utilising extremely deep underground coal seams for  $CO_2$  sequestration. According to current findings, this depth effect does not have much influence on  $CO_2$  storage potential.

However, attention should be paid to the flow reductions which occur with coal matrix swelling, because they might affect long-term CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration processes by allowing more CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption, which has been witnessed in several field-scale projects (White et al. 2005). Therefore, the implementation of flow-enhancement techniques (e.g. hydro fracturing, alternative injection of N<sub>2</sub>) (White et al. 2005) will provide more opportunities to store greater amounts of CO<sub>2</sub> in deeper coal seams. Hence, resolving complications when using super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> for CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM recovery in terms of CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity and CH<sub>4</sub> production enhancement using flow-enhancement techniques is essential prior to field-scale projects.

# 5.3.6 Conclusions

Following a series of CO<sub>2</sub> permeability tests using macro-scale low rank coal specimens, the following conclusions can be drawn:

- CO<sub>2</sub> permeability in coal is greater at lower depths and lower CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressures, while it gradually reduces with increasing depth and injection pressure, and the associated effective stress variation and the coal matrix swelling caused by CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption are the main causative factors, respectively.
- Super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> causes greater swelling in the coal mass compared to sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub>, and the swelling increases with increasing injection pressure, regardless of depth. However, this swelling increment is reduced with increasing seam depth, probably due to the associated greater effective stresses that obstruct CO<sub>2</sub> flow along the coal matrix, offering less opportunity for CO<sub>2</sub> to interact with the coal mass.
- The permeability variation along the coal sample under the tested coal seam and injecting CO<sub>2</sub> conditions can be effectively represented using a simple multivariable regression model, and such models play an important role in field projects to predict CO<sub>2</sub> flow migration along the seam.
- The observed CO<sub>2</sub> permeability along the tested coal specimen indicated that the critical zone of influence for CO<sub>2</sub> injection into a selected coal seam is greater at lower injection pressures and at shallow depths, and it reduces with increasing CO<sub>2</sub> pressure and seam depth.

Finally, the observed CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity of the tested coal under various conditions revealed that CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity in a coal seam is greatly influenced by the CO<sub>2</sub> pore pressure. However, the reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity with depth was not significant, which is important for field CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration projects, which normally use deep seams to store CO<sub>2</sub>.

# 5.3.7 References

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# 5.4 Prediction of expected fluid flow along the coal seam and storage capacity variations in coal with various CO<sub>2</sub> properties under different down-hole stresses

The previous sections (5.2 and 5.3) detailed the coal mass flow behaviour for various  $CO_2$  properties and in situ stresses expected during the  $CO_2$ -ECBM process. However, the experimental studies were conducted only for 11 and 17 MPa axial stresses, which approximately represent a thin coal seam at a depth of 400 and 600 m respectively. Therefore, this work aims to study the coal mass flow behaviour under the deep underground conditions expected during  $CO_2$  sequestration by developing numerical models extending the experimental results obtained during the present study. The COMSOL Multiphysics numerical simulator was first used to simulate the core-flooding experimental results for brown coal, and then to model the behaviour of black coal expected under different  $CO_2$  conditions using the experimental results reported in the research literature.

This section of the chapter details the following publication:

**Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG (2017). A laboratory-scale numerical study of  $CO_2$  flow through coal under down-hole stress conditions: Application to  $CO_2$  storage. *Energy Fuel* (under review).

# A laboratory-scale numerical study of CO<sub>2</sub> flow through coal under down-hole stress conditions: Application to CO<sub>2</sub> storage

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# Abstract

Existing studies highlight the uncertainty in the process of CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in deep coal seams, mainly due to the associated CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced coal matrix rearrangements. Therefore, it is important to investigate how the CO<sub>2</sub> flow varies through the coal seam and the related effect on CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity. Several experimental studies have been conducted on this, however, the inability to represent deep coal seam conditions in laboratory experiments is one of the main drawbacks in relating experimental results to field conditions. The main objective of this study is therefore to determine the permeability behaviour in coal for CO<sub>2</sub> flow and the corresponding CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity using a laboratory-scale numerical model of deep coal seams. A macro-scale (203 mm diameter and 1000 mm long) model was developed using COMSOL Multiphysics software to represent a thin coal seam, and the model was successfully calibrated and validated using the data obtained using the experimental results of reconstituted brown coal specimens by Ranathunga et al. (2015) and Ranathunga et al. (2016b). The model was then extended to predict the flow characteristics such as permeability, CO<sub>2</sub> pressure and CO<sub>2</sub> concentration distributions, and CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity in coal under higher injection pressures and deeper reservoir depths.

According to the model results,  $CO_2$  permeability through the coal mass is negatively affected by both  $CO_2$  pressure and the depth of the coal seam, whereas this effect is decreased at higher depths and  $CO_2$  pressures. Further, the flow parameters, such as  $CO_2$  pressure and  $CO_2$ concentration, reduce along the sample length with increasing depth. The model can accurately predict the experimental observations of  $CO_2$  storage capacities, which showed an increment in  $CO_2$  storage over time. However, for a given depth,  $CO_2$  concentration increases with increasing injection pressure. In spite of the lower pressure developments and permeabilities existing under higher effective stresses, greater amounts of  $CO_2$  can be sequestrated into coal seams if sufficient time is allowed for  $CO_2$  permeation.

Keywords: CO<sub>2</sub> storage; Core flooding test; Effective stress; Laboratory-scale model

# 5.4.1 Introduction

The injection of  $CO_2$  into deep coal seams causes their chemical and physical properties to change greatly, which causes the amount of injectable  $CO_2$  into and producible  $CH_4$  from these seams to become unpredictable. Much research has been conducted on the effects of  $CO_2$  injection on coal and has revealed that there is a great degree of swelling caused by  $CO_2$  adsorption that, in turn, can cause the permeability of the coal mass to be severely reduced (Anggara et al., 2013; Day et al., 2008; Perera et al., 2011; Ranathunga et al., 2015). In these research studies, De Silva and Ranjith (2013), Ranathunga et al. (2015) and Ranathunga et al. (2016b) conducted several macroscale studies using reconstituted low rank brown coal samples to study the effect of  $CO_2$  and reservoir properties on the  $CO_2$  flow behaviour in coal using reconstituted coal samples to minimise the effect of heterogeneity. The macro-scale tests provide a better location-dependent representation of the  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced coal structure modification and have the ability to capture the changes in  $CO_2$  storage capacity along the coal mass, offering a good correlation of measured data with field conditions.

However, these studies were conducted under limited test conditions, due to the extensive time required to conduct such macro-scale tests. Therefore, an effort was made in this study to model the experimental observations using the COMSOL Multiphysics simulator. The results were then extended to simulations using COMSOL Multiphysics, particularly on the impact of  $CO_2$  properties on  $CO_2$  sequestration and its influence on  $CO_2$  storage for macro- scale experimental conditions. These have not been studied to date using numerical modelling. For the proposed numerical model, the experimental results obtained by Ranathunga et al. (2015) based on coreflooding tests conducted under different  $CO_2$  phase and pressure conditions were used and the results were validated using the experimental results obtained by Ranathunga et al. (2016b). The validated model was then extended to higher axial stresses and  $CO_2$  pressures to represent the situation of potential deep coal seams which are preferable for  $CO_2$  sequestration. The model effectively represents the field conditions, confirming the reliability of the modelling approach used.

#### 5.4.2 Model Development

This section presents the methodology adopted to develop the numerical model using COMSOL. A two-dimensional finite element model to simulate the core-flooding tests performed under different  $CO_2$  saturation conditions was developed using COMSOL Multiphysics using the *Poroelasticity* interface in the Structural Mechanics module and the *Transport of diluted species in porous media* interface in the Chemical Species Transport module.

#### 5.4.2.1 Theory used for model development

#### a. Structural mechanics: Poroelasticity

Generally, the poroelastic model describes the linked interactions between fluid and deformation in porous media. This module assumes the domain of the material consists of both the porous matrix and the fluid filling the pore (solutes), and both carry loads. The formulation used for structural analysis in COMSOL for both small and finite deformations is totally Lagrangian. As explained in Section 4.5, displacement is considered as a function of the material coordinates (X, Y, Z) in the total Lagrangian configuration, and hence the total strain tensor is written in terms of the displacement gradient ( $\nabla u$ ) (see Eq. [5.5]).

$$\nabla u = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial X} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial Y} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial Z} \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial X} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial Y} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial Z} \\ \frac{\partial w}{\partial X} & \frac{\partial w}{\partial Y} & \frac{\partial w}{\partial Z} \end{bmatrix}$$
[5.5]

The physical components of the radial and axial displacement, u and w, are used as independent variables for the axially symmetric geometry.

Therefore, the Green-Lagrange strain tensor ( $\varepsilon$ ) can be defined as in Eq. [5.6].

$$\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \nabla u + (\nabla u)^T + (\nabla u)^T \nabla u \right]$$
[5.6]

An elastoplastic model was assumed for the numerical study. Here, the structural mechanics equation from the solid mechanics module is modified to incorporate the fluid pressure gradient, and hence an additional term  $\alpha_B p_f I$ , is inserted as the fluid to the structure coupling term. This coupling term links the structural deformation to fluid flow, and consequently the stress, strain and the pore pressure of linear poroelastic material are related with the following equation (Eq. [5.7]):

$$S - S_0 = C : (\varepsilon - \varepsilon_0 - \varepsilon_{inel}) - \alpha_B p_f I$$

$$[5.7]$$

where, S and  $\varepsilon$  are stress and strain tensor,  $S_0$  and  $\varepsilon_0$  are the initial stress and strain,  $\varepsilon_{inel}$  is the sum of all inelastic strains, *C* is the 4<sup>th</sup> order elasticity tensor,  $\alpha_B$  is the Biot-Willis coefficient and  $p_f$  is the fluid pore pressure.

# b. Structural mechanics: Darcy's law

Darcy law can be used to model the fluid flow in a porous medium, where the major driving force is the pressure difference. Darcy's equation in the subsurface flow module is modified to include

the additional term, the time rate change of volumetric strain  $(\frac{\partial e_{vol}}{\partial t})$  to link fluid flow with structural deflection, as shown in Eq. [5.8]

$$p_f S \frac{\partial p_f}{\partial t} + \nabla . \rho \left[ -\frac{k}{\mu} \nabla p_f \right] = Q_m - p_f \alpha_B \frac{\partial e_{vol}}{\partial t}$$

$$[5.8]$$

where,  $\frac{\partial e_{vol}}{\partial t}$  is the rate of change in volumetric strain derived from solid displacement,  $Q_m$  is the mass source term,  $\rho$  is fluid density, S is the storage coefficient, k is the permeability of the porous medium and  $\mu$  is the dynamic viscosity of the fluid. Here, the storage coefficient S is calculated by Eq. [5.9].

$$S = \frac{\varepsilon_p}{\kappa_f} + (\alpha_B - \theta) \left(\frac{1 - \alpha_B}{\kappa_d}\right)$$
[5.9]

where,  $\varepsilon_p$  is the porosity of the material,  $K_f$  is the bulk modulus of fluid (inverse of fluid compressibility),  $K_d$  is the drained bulk modulus ( $K_d = (1 - \varepsilon_p)K_s$ , and  $K_s$  is the bulk modulus of the material).

#### c. Transport of diluted species in porous media

The transport of diluted species in porous media interface was used to model the  $CO_2$  concentration in the brown coal sample, and this interface was coupled with the Darcy law interface using Darcy velocity (*u*) in Eq. [5.10].

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\theta c_i) + \frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho_b c_{P,i}) + \frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\alpha_v c_{G,i}) + u. \, \nabla c_i = \nabla \cdot \left[ \left( D_{D,j} + D_{e,j} \right) \cdot \nabla c_i \right] + R_i + S_i$$

$$[5.10]$$

where,  $\theta$  is liquid volume fraction,  $c_i$  is the concentration of species,  $\rho_b$  is the bulk density,  $c_{P,i}$  is the amount adsorbed to the solid particles,  $\alpha_v$  is the resulting gas volume fraction ( $\varepsilon_p - \theta$ ),  $c_{G,i}$  is concentration of species in the gas phase,  $D_{D,j}$  is the dispersion tensor,  $D_{e,j}$  is the diffusion tensor, u is the directional velocity,  $R_i$  is the reaction rate expression, and  $S_i$  is an arbitrary term. In this model, CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption into the coal mass was modelled by the Langmuir equation and this is shown in Eq. [5.11].

$$c_{P,i} = \frac{V_L p}{(p + P_L)}$$
[5.11]

where,  $V_L$  and  $P_L$  are Langmuir volume and pressure coefficients respectively.

#### 5.4.2.2 Model validation using experimental data

The numerical study is based on the results of a previous experimental study conducted on  $CO_2$  flow variation in reconstituted Victorian brown coal under different  $CO_2$  phase and pressures by

Ranathunga et al. (2015) and Ranathunga et al. (2016b). Here, reconstituted brown coal samples results were used to avoid the complexities related to the heterogeneity of coal. In the previous studies, sub-critical (6 and 7 MPa) and super-critical (8, 9 and10 MPa) CO<sub>2</sub> were permeated in reconstituted brown coal samples 203 mm in diameter and 1000 mm in length at 38  $^{0}$ C (>31.8  $^{0}$ C is the critical temperature of CO<sub>2</sub>). The material properties for the modelling were obtained from the experimental results and are further discussed in the following sections.

# **5.4.2.3 Basic assumptions**

- 1. Brown coal is a linear poro-elastic isotropic material, and poro-elasticity theory can be used to model the linked interaction between the flow and solid deformation.
- The major fluid driving force across the coal specimen is the pressure gradient, and hence Darcy's law is valid.
- 3. The adsorption of CO<sub>2</sub> into the coal matrix can be modelled using Langmuir isotherms.
- 4. CO<sub>2</sub> flow through the coal specimen is due to advection, diffusion and dispersion, and sorption.
- 5. No moisture or other gasses were present in the coal sample before  $CO_2$  permeation.

### 5.4.2.4 Model definition and boundary conditions

To simulate the experimental conditions, a 2-D model was first developed for a width of 1000 mm (the length of the tested coal specimen) and a height of 203 mm (the diameter of the tested coal specimen), which was then converted into a 3-D model using the Model builder interface in the COMSOL Multiphysics simulator. The boundary conditions adopted for the structural mechanics module (mechanical boundary conditions) are as follows:

Under laboratory condition, the circumference and the left-side base of the sample consist of a fixed pressure cell casing and hence are assumed to be a fixed boundary. The right side of the sample moves inward and outward from the cell to compress the sample and hence the axial load  $(F_a)$  was applied to the right-side base of the sample. CO<sub>2</sub> was injected from the right-side base of the sample and was introduced as an *Inflow flux*. The circumference of the sample (top and bottom boundaries) has no flow boundaries. When considering the downstream of the sample, the experiments were conducted under undrained conditions, and the pressure development of a fixed volume at the downstream was observed to calculate the pressure gradients along the coal specimen. Further, there was no outflow from the downstream during the gas injection. A 8 mm long area was introduced to the left side of the model to represent the fixed downstream volume (32.36 cm<sup>3</sup>) with a 100% initial porosity (empty volume). The initial permeability of the downstream volume was selected as 1000 mD (>>> brown coal initial permeability, to better represent the initial void volume there) and the end boundary of the downstream volume was set as fixed with a no-flow boundary (Perera et al., 2012). Parametric sweeps were used in the model for  $CO_2$  injection and axial loads, and injection pressures of 5-20 MPa and axial loads of 0-15 MPa were applied to the sample. The overall details of the geometry and boundary conditions adopted for the model are shown in Figure 5.14.



Figure 5.14. Dimensions, boundary conditions, and boundary load for the macro-scale COMSOL model

#### 5.4.2.5 Model input parameters

The thermodynamic properties, such as density, viscosity and adiabatic compressibility of  $CO_2$ , vary with the fluid pressure for a given temperature. The relationships between the thermodynamic properties and mean  $CO_2$  pressure within the sample (*Pm*) (the temperature was kept constant throughout the experiments) were derived using the REFPROP database (McLinden et al., 1998), and these formulations were entered into COMSOL (see Eqs. [5.12-5.14]). Further, the  $CO_2$  concentration of the sample was obtained from Eq. [5.16] using the COMSOL model parameter for Darcy's velocity field *X* component. The material properties for the model were obtained from the experimental results. The input parameters for the model are shown in Table 5.3.

# Density of CO<sub>2</sub> ( $\rho_{CO2}$ ):

$ \rho_{CO2,sub} = 15.216 \exp(4E - 07P_m) $	$R^2 = 0.9789$	for $P_m \leq 7.38$ MPa	[5.12a]
$\rho_{CO2,super} = -1E - 12P_m^2 + 6E - 05P_m + 266.85$	$R^2 = 0.9886$	for $P_m > 7.38$ MPa	[5.12b]
Dynamic viscosity of CO <sub>2</sub> (µco <sub>2</sub> ):			
$\mu_{CO2,sub} = 5E - 19P_m^2 - 3E - 12P_{in} + 2E - 05$	$R^2 = 0.9987$	for $P_m \leq 7.38$ MPa	[5.13a]
$\mu_{CO2,super} = 6E - 09P_m^{0.5689}$	$R^2 = 0.9757$	for $P_m > 7.38$ MPa	[5.13b]

Adiabatic compressibility of  $CO_2(\beta_{CO_2})$ :

$$\beta_{CO2,sub} = 2.5416 P_m^{-1.081} \qquad R^2 = 0.9867 \qquad \text{for } P_m \le 7.38 \text{ MPa} \qquad [5.14a]$$
  
$$\beta_{CO2,super} = 149609 P_m^{-1.866} \qquad R^2 = 0.9810 \qquad \text{for } P_m > 7.38 \text{ MPa} \qquad [5.14b]$$

where,  $P_m = \frac{P_{in} + P_{out}}{2}$ , where  $P_m$  is mean CO<sub>2</sub> pressure through the sample,  $P_{in}$  is the CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure (or upstream pressure) and  $P_{out}$  is the downstream pressure (when the pressure developments of the downstream achieve the steady state).  $P_{out}$  varies with the injection pressure and the axial load applied on the sample and Eq. [5.16] was developed to obtain downstream pressure at steady state using the experimental data from Ranathunga et al. (2015) and Ranathunga et al. (2016b).

$$P_{out} = -0.0527F_a + 0.7839P_{in} - 2.2347$$
[5.15]

Concentration of CO2:

$$c = \frac{[poro.uf \times \rho_{CO2}]}{0.04401} \ [mol/(m^2 s)]$$
[5.16]

where, *poro.uf* is the Darcy's velocity field X component obtained from the model.

The major flow driving mechanism is assumed to be the pressure gradient through the sample, and hence Darcy's law is valid. The CO<sub>2</sub> flow rate (Q, steady state) and the permeability (k) of coal specimen are given by Eqs. [5.17] and [5.18].

$$Q = -1.4602 \times 10^{-11} F_a - 8.651794 \times 10^{-13} P_{in} + 0.00028 [l/h]$$
[5.17]

$$k = \frac{2QP_{out}(\mu_{CO2,i})L}{A(P_{in}^2 - P_{out}^2)} \ [m^2]$$
[5.18]

where,  $\mu_{CO2,i}$  is the dynamic viscosity of the CO<sub>2</sub> present in the sample and *i* = sub- and supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> phases (refer to Eqs. [5.13a,b]). It should be noted that only the steady-state flow rate values for 6, 8 and 10 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressures under 11 and 17 MPa axial stresses were used to develop the empirical relationship shown in Eq. [5.17], and the rest of the data were used to validate the model. Finally, the model was extended to higher axial loads and CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressures to obtain the effect of CO<sub>2</sub> properties and in situ stresses on the brown coal sample.

Model Parameter	Value
Coal sample properties	
Sample diameter (D)	203 mm
Sample length (L)	1000 mm
Density (p)	1097.8 kg/m <sup>3</sup>
Young's modulus (E)	72.01 MPa (Jasinge, 2010)
Poisson's ratio (ϑ)	0.27 (Jasinge, 2010)
Porosity ( $\varepsilon_p$ )	0.41 (Jasinge, 2010)
Biots-Willis coefficient ( $\alpha_B$ )	0.9 (Perera et al., 2013)
Pore volume compressibility $(c_p)$	2.96E-05 1/Pa (De Silva and Ranjith, 2014)
Matrix shrinkage/swelling compressibility( $c_m$ )	1.21E-05 1/Pa (De Silva and Ranjith, 2014)
Langmuir volume for $\text{CO}_2$ adsorption for brown coal (V <sub>L</sub> )	29.11 m <sup>3</sup> /kg (Jasinge, 2010)
Langmuir pressure for $CO_2$ adsorption for brown coal (P <sub>L</sub> )	0.578 MPa (Jasinge, 2010)
Downstream properties (explained in Section 5.4.2.4)	
Downstream length (L <sub>ds</sub> )	8 mm
Porosity ( $\varepsilon_{ds}$ )	1
Initial permeability $(k_{o,ds})$	1000 mD (Perera et al., 2012)
CO <sub>2</sub> properties (explained in Section 5.2.2.4)	
Density ( $\rho_{CO2}$ )	Refer Eqs. [5.12a,b]
Dynamic viscosity (µ <sub>CO2</sub> )	Refer Eqs. [5.13a,b]
Adiabatic compressibility ( $\beta_{co2}$ )	Refer Eqs. [5.14a,b]
Initial CO <sub>2</sub> concentration (c <sub>o</sub> )	0 kg/m <sup>3</sup>
CO <sub>2</sub> concentration (c)	Refer Eq. [5.16]
Boundary conditions (parametric sweep)	
Axial load (F <sub>a</sub> )	5 - 20 MPa
CO <sub>2</sub> injection pressures (P <sub>in</sub> )	0 - 15 MPa

# Table 5.3. The input parameters for the model

# 7.4.3.6 Meshing and element sizes

A 2-D mapped meshing was assumed for the model since it consists of a simple rectangular geometry bounded by four boundary segments with no holes. By defining the number of elements at each side, a mapped mesh was introduced to the model. The meshing parameters are shown in Table 5.4 and the assumed mapped mesh and mesh quality plot are shown in Figure 5.15. The colour range 0 means poor quality and 1 means good quality in Figure 5.15, which indicates the assumed mesh pattern fits the geometry well.

Table 5.4. CO<sub>2</sub> saturation-dependent material parameters

Property	Value	
Number of degrees of freedom	23526	
Number of elements (rectangle)	158118	
Number of boundary elements	1763	



Figure 5.15. Mesh quality plot for the mesh pattern used in the model

# 5.4.3 Model results and discussion

# 5.4.3.1 Effect of CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure on coal mass permeability

A comparison of the coal mass permeability values obtained from the experiments and the COMSOL model for 11 and 17 MPa axial loads is shown in Figure 5.16. According to the figure, the model-predicted permeability values are in good agreement with the experimental results. Particularly for higher CO<sub>2</sub> pressures (12 and 14 MPa were not used for the empirical relationship developments), the model-predicted permeability values show only around 7 to 9 % errors compared with the experimental results (see Table 5.5). Next, the model was extended to calculate the CO<sub>2</sub> permeability of brown coal under higher injection pressures, which could not be found under laboratory conditions. The results are shown in Figure 5.17.



Figure 5.16. Comparison of permeability values obtained from experiments (solid points) (Ranathunga et al., 2015; Ranathunga et al., 2016b) and COMSOL model (hollow points) for 11 and 17 MPa axial loads

Axial load (MPa)	CO <sub>2</sub> injection pressure (MPa)	Error (%)
11	7	6.12
	9	4.07
17	7	1.54
	9	4.97
	12	7.47
	14	8.94

Table 5.5. Error between experimental and model-predicted permeability values



Figure 5.17. CO<sub>2</sub> permeability for further sub- and super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> flows under 11 and 17 MPa axial loads

According to Figure 5.17, the expected permeability reduction with CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption is continued at both lower (< 6 MPa) and higher (> 14 MPa) injection pressures. As observed by Ranathunga et al. (2015) and Ranathunga et al., (2016b), the flow reduction is increased under higher pore pressures than lower pressures. For example, a 5 to 6 MPa sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> pressure increase causes a flow reduction of 9.15%, while the reduction for 15 to 16 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> pressure increase increase is raised by 10 MPa. As explained previously, the greater adsorption potential under higher CO<sub>2</sub> pore pressures reduces the flow through the coal sample, resulting in greater permeability reductions under higher CO<sub>2</sub> pressures compared to lower pressures. It would be interesting to investigate whether this flow behaviour continues in deeper coal seams. This was studied next by extending the model to higher axial loads representing different depths.

# 5.4.3.2 Effect of reservoir depth on coal mass permeability

Figure 5.18 shows the  $CO_2$  flow variation at different reservoir depths obtained from the extended laboratory-scale COMSOL model. As observed by Ranathunga et al. (2016b), the  $CO_2$  flow ability along the coal mass is reduced at greater depths due to the higher effective stress. For example,

during 6 MPa sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> flow, around 65.9% and 54.7% reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> flow was observed when the depth was increased from 0.4 to 0.5 km and 0.5 to 0.6 km, respectively (see Figure 5.18). This flow reduction is less at greater depths than lower depths. Similar results were observed by Ranathunga et al. (2016a) (refer to Section 5.1.2), who observed around 69% and 56% reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> permeability when the depth was increased by similar values (from 0.4 to 0.5 km and 0.5 to 0.6 km respectively) for low rank coal, based on tri-axial experiments. Hence, these findings from the COMSOL model confirm the lesser influence of seam depth on CO<sub>2</sub> flow reduction.

In addition, when the coal seam depth is increased from 0.8 to 0.9 km, the CO<sub>2</sub> permeability is reduced by 78.4% for 4 MPa sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injection, while there is around a 53.5% reduction for 14 MPa super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injection (refer to Figure 5.18). Similar behaviour was observed in Section 5.1.2 in meso-scale flow studies on brown coal, which obtained around 80% and 75% flow reduction for 6 MPa (sub-critical) and 9 MPa (super-critical) CO<sub>2</sub> injections when the confining pressure increased from 11 to 14 MPa (approximately 0.4 to 0.5 km). Under higher effective stresses, the CO<sub>2</sub> permeability through the coal mass is reduced and hence the expected flow reductions under higher CO<sub>2</sub> pressures (super-critical CO<sub>2</sub>) are also lower. Therefore, the experimental findings of greater CO<sub>2</sub> flow reduction under higher effective stresses which gradually decrease with increasing depth and injection pressure are further confirmed by the model results. This implies that the influence of CO<sub>2</sub> phase is more dominant in shallow coals seams than deep seams, which is preferable for CO<sub>2</sub> storage, as it is often carried out at deep depths.



Figure 5.18. CO<sub>2</sub> permeability variation at greater depths

# 5.4.3.3 CO<sub>2</sub> pressure and concentration distribution along the coal sample

#### a. CO<sub>2</sub> pressure distribution along the coal specimen

The steady-state flow under experimental conditions at 6 MPa injection and 17 MPa axial load was obtained after around 18 hours of  $CO_2$  injection (Ranathunga et al., 2016b). The  $CO_2$  pressure distribution in brown coal up to 18 hours of  $CO_2$  injection (steady-state time under experimental conditions) at 6 MPa injection pressure and 17 MPa axial load is shown in Figure 5.19. According to the figure,  $CO_2$  moves gradually with time due to the pressure difference (advection) and reaches the steady-state condition. As there is a greater pressure difference between the upstream (P<sub>in</sub>) and downstream boundaries,  $CO_2$  movement through brown coal is mainly governed by the pressure driven advection process (Darcy's flow). Under the steady-state condition, the  $CO_2$  pressure at the right boundary is equal to the injection pressure (P<sub>in</sub>) and the left boundary is at steady-state downstream pressure (P<sub>out</sub>).



Figure 5.19. CO<sub>2</sub> pressure distribution (in MPa) in brown coal after 6, 12, and 18 hours of 6 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injection under 17 MPa axial load

Then the  $CO_2$  pressures through the brown coal specimen after 24 hours (assuming 24 hours is sufficient time to achieve the steady-state condition for all the injection pressures) were plotted for 6 and 8 MPa  $CO_2$  injections for 11 MPa axial stress and compared with the experimental results observed for the respective conditions (refer to Figure 5.20). According to the figure, there is good agreement between the experimental predictions of pressure development along the coal specimen and the model-predicted data. The pressure distribution along the sample is almost constant up to around 1/3 of the sample length from the injection point and is gradually reduced up to downstream.

Figure 5.21 displays the model-predicted pressure development of the coal sample at 6 and 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> under different axial stresses. As observed in Figure 5.20, the CO<sub>2</sub> pressure reduces gradually along the length of the sample for any injection and axial load conditions. For a given injection pressure, the CO<sub>2</sub> pressure decreases with the increase in axial load (depth) after around 1/3 of the sample length at any distance from the injection surface (Figure 5.21). This may be due to the reduction in pore volume with increases in stress. The effective stress (the difference between axial load and mean injection pressure) increases as the depth increases, and an increase in effective stress causes pore volume shrinkage, leading to reduced flow pathways (Ranjith and Perera, 2011). However, as the injection pressure increases, the effect of depth on CO<sub>2</sub> pressure distribution gradually decreases (Figure 5.21(b)). This is possibly due to the reduced CO<sub>2</sub> flow during higher injection pressures (super-critical conditions), which creates lower pressure developments across the coal specimen that eventually has less variation with depth (Nasvi et al., 2014). These results are consistent with the CO<sub>2</sub> pressure variations observed by Ranathunga et al. (2016a) for similar low rank coal along the sample.



Figure 5.20. Pressure distribution along the coal sample under 11 MPa axial stress for 6 and 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injections from flow experiments (Ranathunga et al., 2015) and model prediction after



Figure 5.21. CO<sub>2</sub> pressure development along the brown coal specimen during 6 and 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injection for different axial stresses applied on the sample

#### b. Distribution of CO<sub>2</sub> concentration along the coal specimen during CO<sub>2</sub> permeation

The CO<sub>2</sub> concentration distribution for different injection and axial stresses was studied. The concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> up to 18 hours of CO<sub>2</sub> injection for 6 MPa injection and 17 MPa axial load is shown in Figure 5.22. The CO<sub>2</sub> mass spreads with time due to advection and reaches a stable condition after 18 hours of CO<sub>2</sub> permeation. The concentration at the upstream boundary (right-side boundary) of the coal increases from 2.77 to 7.02 kg/m<sup>3</sup> after 6 to 18 hours of CO<sub>2</sub> injection, while the concentration at the downstream boundary (left-side boundary) increases from 1.96 to 5.62 kg/m<sup>3</sup> during the same time period.

Figure 5.23 shows the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration distribution in coal after 24 hours of CO<sub>2</sub> injection for different injection and axial loads. In the figure, the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration reduces along the coal sample following a slight exponential behaviour for both 6 and 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> permeations. As expected, for a given injection pressure, CO<sub>2</sub> concentration reduces with increases in axial stresses and the results are consistent with the pressure distribution trends obtained for various axial loads. In addition, for a given axial load, CO<sub>2</sub> concentration increases with the increase in injection pressures (Figures 5.23(a) and (b)). For example, under 20 MPa axial load, CO<sub>2</sub> concentration at the upstream (left-side boundary) increases from 6.61 to 13.59 kg/m<sup>3</sup> as the injection pressure is increased from 6 to 8 MPa. This is due to the increase in net CO<sub>2</sub> flux with the increase in CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure through the coal sample.



Figure 5.22. CO<sub>2</sub> concentration (in kg/m<sup>3</sup>) distribution in brown coal after 6, 12, and 18 hours of 6 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injection under 17 MPa axial load



Figure 5.23. CO<sub>2</sub> concentration along the brown coal specimen during 6 and 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injections for different axial stresses applied on the sample

#### 5.4.3.4 CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity of the coal sample

The main purpose of CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in coal is to store CO<sub>2</sub> stably due to its high adsorption potential to the coal matrix. Therefore, identification of the adsorption potential of a given coal seam is important for the evaluation of the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> that can be stored in the coal mass. According to Ranathunga et al. (2016b), a brown coal specimen showed an increment of cumulative weight of CO<sub>2</sub> injected into the coal sample with time under both 11 and 17 MPa axial stress applications. Assuming that the total amount of CO<sub>2</sub> injected into the coal mass equals the total amount of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorbed into the coal mass (note that the flow tests were conducted under undrained conditions, therefore the CO<sub>2</sub> injected into the coal sample had no escape paths from the sample during permeation), this observation was compared with the model-predicted cumulative weight of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorbed into the coal mass with time. The results are shown in Figure 5.24. The amounts of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorbed into the coal specimen under different injection pressures and axial loads were obtained using Eq. [5.19].

$$W_{ads} = \left(\frac{\rho_{CO2,i}}{tds.cP_c}\right) AL$$
[5.19]

where,  $\rho_{CO2,i}$  is the density of CO<sub>2</sub> at a given injection pressure (here  $\rho_{CO2,i}$  was substituted in mol/m<sup>3</sup>), *i* = sub- and super-critical phase conditions (refer to Eqs. [5.12a,b]), and *tds.cP\_c* is a model parameter for the concentration of species adsorbed into the solid in mol/kg.



Figure 5.24. Comparison of model predicted and experimental observations for cumulative CO<sub>2</sub> weight injected into the coal specimen at 6 and 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> permeations under 11 and 17 MPa axial stresses

As shown in the figure, the experimental observations for the cumulative amount of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorbed into the sample are predicted well by the numerical model for different injection pressures and axial stresses. Further, there is only <8% difference in the experimental and modelpredicted total amount of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorbed into the coal mass at the end of 10 days of CO<sub>2</sub> injection (see Table 5.6). Here, a duration of 10 days means the time after the specimen accomplishes the steady-state. Therefore, the total weight of CO<sub>2</sub> that can be adsorbed for various CO<sub>2</sub> pressures under different axial loads after injecting CO<sub>2</sub> for 10 days (after approaching steady-state conditions) was evaluated and the results are shown in Figure 5.25. According to the figure, the adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub> weight is exponentially reduced with increasing axial loads for a given CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure. For an example, around 24% and 32% reduction of total CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption was observed for 4 and 12 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injections when the axial loads are increased from 4 to 20 MPa (refer to Figure 5.25). This is due to the reduced adsorption capacity with CO<sub>2</sub> reduced permeability under higher stress applications (Hol et al., 2011). In addition, for a given axial load, the adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub> weight is also increased. For instance, around 45% increase in adsorbed weight is observed for 4 MPa axial load when CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure is increased from 4 to 12 MPa. As explained by Ranathunga et al. (2016b), the greater adsorption capacity that increases with the injection pressure due to CO<sub>2</sub>'s inherent physical and chemical properties may increase the adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub> weight. It should be noted that, due to the sufficient time allowed for CO<sub>2</sub> permeation (time to reach steadystate condition plus 10 days), the lower permeabilities at higher CO<sub>2</sub> pressures are increased. Interestingly, the depth effect is reduced at higher CO<sub>2</sub> pressures, possibly due to the larger number of CO<sub>2</sub> molecules entering the sample at higher pressures leading to greater adsorption into the coal mass.

Axial load (MPa)	CO2 injection pressure (MPa)	Experimental value (kg)	Model predicted value (kg)	Error (%)
11	6	0.75	0.71	5.33
	8	0.87	0.92	-5.82*
17	6	0.64	0.60	6.25
	8	0.67	0.61	7.46

Table 5.6. Error between the experimental and model-predicted total adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub> weight

\*Negative sign means that the model-predicted value is higher than the experimental value



Figure 5.25. Total amount of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorbed into the coal sample during various CO<sub>2</sub> permeations under different axial loads (10 days after reaching steady-state condition)

# 5.4.4 Conclusions

This work focused on the numerical modelling of  $CO_2$  flow through low rank brown coal using the COMSOL Multiphysics numerical simulator for different  $CO_2$  injections and axial loads. The *Poro-elasticity* interface in the Structural Mechanics module and the *Transport of diluted species in porous media* interface in the Chemical species transport module were used to build the model in COMSOL. The model was first calibrated using part of the experimental data for  $CO_2$ permeability (6, 8 and 10 MPa injections under 11 and 17 MPa axial loads) and validated using the rest of the data. It was noted that the  $CO_2$  permeability values of coal predicted by the model were consistent with the experimental results. Next, the model was extended to different injection pressures and axial loads to observe the behaviour of a thin coal seam during  $CO_2$  sequestration. The following major conclusions were drawn from the model results.

- CO<sub>2</sub> permeability through the coal mass is negatively affected by both CO<sub>2</sub> pressure and the depth of the coal seam, and this effect is decreased for greater depths and CO<sub>2</sub> pressures.
- CO<sub>2</sub> pressure distribution along the coal sample can be predicted reasonably well by the COMSOL model. Further, the flow parameters, such as CO<sub>2</sub> pressure and CO<sub>2</sub> concentration, reduce along the sample length with greater depths, and this is related to pore volume shrinkage caused by increased effective stress application.
- However, for a given axial load, CO<sub>2</sub> concentration increases with the increase in injection pressure, and this is due to the increase in net advective CO<sub>2</sub> flux with the increase in injection pressure.
- The CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity in coal mass from the experiments and the model estimations followed a similar behaviour, showing an increase in cumulative adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub> weight with

time. In addition, the experimentally-derived total  $CO_2$  adsorption 10 days after approaching steady-state condition deviated by <8% from the model predictions.

According to the model results for different CO<sub>2</sub> pressures and depths, greater amounts of CO<sub>2</sub> can be sequestrated into coal seams even at higher depths and higher CO<sub>2</sub> pressures despite the flow reduction observed if a sufficient time is allowed for CO<sub>2</sub> permeation.

# 5.4.5 References

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# 5.5 Chapter summary

The main objective of this chapter was to investigate how the flow behaviour of coal is influenced by reservoir depth and  $CO_2$  properties and the corresponding variation of  $CO_2$  storage capacity. Macro-scale reconstituted coal samples were used for the experiments to represent a homogeneous thin coal seam, and the major findings are summarised below.

- Similar results were obtained for macro-scale homogeneous samples as for meso-scale experimental studies on natural intact brown coal specimens, as follows:
  - CO<sub>2</sub> permeability in coal reduces with increasing injection pressure due to the phase transition of CO<sub>2</sub> from sub-critical to super-critical during the pressure increment.
  - Further, CO<sub>2</sub> permeability in coal is greater at lower depths and lower CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressures, while it gradually reduces with increasing depth and injection pressure.
  - Super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> causes greater swelling in the coal mass than sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub>, and the swelling increases with increasing injection pressure, regardless of depth. This swelling increment is however reduced with increasing seam depth.
- The pressure profiles along the sample length were then examined for each injection pressure by considering the pressure gaps at three main regions along the sample. The following observations were made:
  - There were similar pressure development trends for CO<sub>2</sub> and alternative N<sub>2</sub> injections along the sample, which were non-linear.
  - However, there was a noticeable pressure reduction in the initial region of the samples during the second N<sub>2</sub> injection due to the coal structure re-arrangement which occurred during the CO<sub>2</sub> flood.
  - The observed CO<sub>2</sub> permeability along the tested coal specimen indicated that the critical zone of influence for CO<sub>2</sub> injection into a selected coal seam is greater at lower injection pressures and at shallow depths, and it reduces with increasing CO<sub>2</sub> pressure and seam depth.
- The observed CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity of the tested coal under various conditions revealed that CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity in a coal seam is greater at greater depths and higher CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressures. However, the reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity with depth was not significant, which is important for field CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration projects, which normally use deep seams to store CO<sub>2</sub>.

• The laboratory-scale model developed, calibrated and validated based on the experimental results could predict the coal mass flow behaviours, pressure development along the coal samples and CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacities fairly accurately. According to the model results, if sufficient time is allowed for CO<sub>2</sub> permeation, greater amounts of CO<sub>2</sub> can be sequestrated into coal seams even at higher depths and higher CO<sub>2</sub> pressures despite the flow reduction observed.
Part 3: Chapters 6 and 7 Investigation of variation of coal's mechanical properties during carbon dioxide sequestration

# Part 3: Investigation of variation of coal's mechanical properties during carbon dioxide sequestration

 $CO_2$  sequestration during the ECBM process affects the hydro-mechanical properties of the coal mass. Hence, in this chapter, the main focus is the  $CO_2$  sequestration-induced coal mass mechanical property variations. This chapter reports on the meso-scale experiments coupled with micro-scale experiments and their outcomes. For the experiments, mainly Victorian brown coal (low-rank coal) was used and the results are compared with those for high-rank coal reported in the research literature. As summarised in Chapter 2, several factors affect  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced coal matrix rearrangements, such as the fluid properties in the coal mass ( $CO_2$  phase and pressure, different fluids etc.) and coal mass properties (coal rank, depth etc.). The findings are presented in this section of the thesis as follows.



# PART 3 - CHAPTER 6

# Investigation of coal mechanical property variations during carbon dioxide sequestration using natural coal

### Publication included in Chapter 6

Chapter 6 includes three publications. Details of the publications are as follows.

### Chapter 6.2

**Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG, Bui H (2015). Supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> saturation-induced mechanical property alterations in low rank coal: An experimental study. *The Journal of Supercritical Fluids* 109, 134-140.

### Chapter 6.3

Perera MSA, **Ranathunga AS**, Ranjith PG (2016). Effect of coal rank on various fluid saturations creating mechanical property alterations using Australian coals. *Energies* 9(6), 440. DOI: doi:10.3390/en9060440.

### Chapter 6.4

**Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG (2016). Influence of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption on the strength and elastic modulus of low rank Australian coal under confining pressure. *International Journal of Coal Geology* 167, 148-156.

### **Declaration for Thesis Chapter 6.2**

In the case of Chapter 6.2, the nature and extent of my contribution to the work was the following:

Nature of contribution	Extent of contribution (%)
Initiation, key ideas, experimental work, data analysis and writing up	85

The following co-authors contributed to the work. If co-authors are students at Monash University, the extent of their contribution in percentage terms must be stated:

Name	Nature of contribution	Extent of contribution (%) for student co-authors only
Perera MSA	Key ideas, reviewing and editing the manuscript	N/A
Ranjith PG	Key ideas, reviewing and editing the manuscript	N/A
Bui H	Reviewing and editing the manuscript	N/A

The undersigned hereby certify that the above declaration correctly reflects the nature and extent of the candidate's and co-authors' contributions to this work\*.



Main	Date
Supervisor's signature	25/01/2017

\*Note: Where the responsible author is not the candidate's main supervisor, the main supervisor should consult with the responsible author to agree on the respective contributions of the authors.

### **Declaration for Thesis Chapter 6.3**

In the case of Chapter 6.3, the nature and extent of my contribution to the work was the following:

Nature of contribution	Extent of contribution (%)		
Initiation, key ideas, experimental work, data analysis and writing up	85		

The following co-authors contributed to the work. If co-authors are students at Monash University, the extent of their contribution in percentage terms must be stated:

Name	Nature of contribution	Extent of contribution (%) for student co-authors only		
Perera MSA	Key ideas, reviewing and editing the manuscript	N/A		
Ranjith PG	Key ideas, reviewing and editing the manuscript	N/A		

The undersigned hereby certify that the above declaration correctly reflects the nature and extent of the candidate's and co-authors' contributions to this work\*.

Candidate's signature	Date
	25/01/2017

Main	Date
Supervisor's signature	25/01/2017

\*Note: Where the responsible author is not the candidate's main supervisor, the main supervisor should consult with the responsible author to agree on the respective contributions of the authors.

### **Declaration for Thesis Chapter 6.4**

In the case of Chapter 6.4, the nature and extent of my contribution to the work was the following:

Nature of contribution	Extent of contribution (%)		
Initiation, key ideas, experimental work, data analysis and writing up	85		

The following co-authors contributed to the work. If co-authors are students at Monash University, the extent of their contribution in percentage terms must be stated:

Name	Nature of contribution	Extent of contribution (%) for student co-authors only		
Perera MSA	Key ideas, reviewing and editing the manuscript	N/A		
Ranjith PG	Key ideas, reviewing and editing the manuscript	N/A		

The undersigned hereby certify that the above declaration correctly reflects the nature and extent of the candidate's and co-authors' contributions to this work\*.

Candidate's signature	Date
	25/01/2017

Main	Date
Supervisor's signature	25/01/2017

\*Note: Where the responsible author is not the candidate's main supervisor, the main supervisor should consult with the responsible author to agree on the respective contributions of the authors.

# 6. Investigation of coal mechanical property variations during carbon dioxide sequestration using natural coal

### 6.1 Overview

This chapter reports the results of experimental studies conducted using natural coal samples (Victorian brown coal) to investigate the variations of coal mass mechanical properties, strength, Young's modulus, Poisson's ratio and fracture propagation patterns during  $CO_2$  sequestration, to fulfil objective 2 of this research work. The experiments were carried out to test the influence of different effective parameters on the coal mass strength properties and are presented as follows in this chapter.

### > Section 6.2: How do CO<sub>2</sub> phase and pressure affect coal mass integrity?

The injecting gas properties ( $CO_2$  pressure and phase effect) of the coal mass strength were studied using a series of uniaxial compressive strength (UCS) tests on brown coal. Another objective of this study was to reveal some insights regarding  $CO_2$ -induced micro-structural changes.

This section of the chapter is the following publication:

**Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG, Bui H (2015). Supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> saturation-induced mechanical property alterations in low rank coal: An experimental study. *The Journal of Supercritical Fluids* 109, 134-140.

### Section 6.3: How do various fluid saturations alter coal mass strength properties with coal rank?

An effort was made to quantify the coal mass strength variations during different fluid saturations with water and  $N_2$ . Further, how this variation changes with coal maturity (coal rank) was also investigated using both brown coal (lignite from the Gippsland basin) and black coal (bituminous coal from the Sydney basin). The results acquired from the UCS tests were compared with  $CO_2$  saturation-induced mechanical property variations to obtain a comparison of the effect of different fluids on coal mass during the ECBM process.

This section of the chapter is the following publication:

Perera MSA, **Ranathunga AS**, Ranjith PG (2016). Effect of coal rank on various fluid saturations creating mechanical property alterations using Australian coals. *Energies* 9(6), 440.

### Section 6.4: How does the influence of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption on coal mechanical properties vary under different confining pressure and with various fluid saturation times?

Several test sequences were executed under confinement to study the influence of confining pressure on coal mass strength deviations which represent field conditions during ECBM. Both sub- and super-critical  $CO_2$  injections were used to saturate the brown coal samples during the experiments. The results are presented as Langmuir-type equations which can be utilised for numerical studies regarding  $CO_2$ -ECBM for different  $CO_2$  pressures under various confining pressures. At the same time, the long-term effect of  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced coal mass strength property changes was studied, as  $CO_2$  sequestration is a long-term process. Brown coal was used in the experiments and it was saturated for 3, 6, 9 and 12 months to study the time effect.

This section of the chapter is the following publication:

**Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG (2016). Influence of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption on the strength and elastic modulus of low rank Australian coal under confining pressure. *International Journal of Coal Geology* 167, 148-156.

### 6.2 How do CO<sub>2</sub> phase and pressure affect coal mass integrity?

According to Chapter 2,  $CO_2$  phase and pressure play the main role in  $CO_2$  adsorption- induced coal mass flow behaviour and super-critical  $CO_2$  injection has greater effects on the coal matrix. Therefore, it is also important to find how these  $CO_2$  properties change the coal mass strength. There have been several studies on the effect of  $CO_2$  properties on high- rank coal strength. However, with the exception of a few studies on low-rank coal using sub-critical  $CO_2$  saturation, to date no study has been conducted on the effect of super-critical  $CO_2$  saturation on low-rank coal strength. Therefore, a series of UCS tests was carried out on low-rank brown coal from the Gippsland basin under both sub- and super-critical  $CO_2$  saturations to investigate the effect of  $CO_2$  properties on coal strength and Young's modulus. The ARAMIS optical strain system was used to obtain the strain development in coal together with the AE system to capture the strain energy released under different  $CO_2$  saturation conditions. The results were compared with the data on high-rank coal data in the literature to identify the effect of coal rank on  $CO_2$  sequestration-related coal mass strength variations. Furthermore, SEM analysis was conducted to gain insight into the micro-structural changes under different  $CO_2$  saturation conditions.

This section of the chapter is the following publication:

**Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG, Bui H (2015). Supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> saturation-induced mechanical property alterations in low rank coal: An experimental study. *The Journal of Supercritical Fluids* 109, 134-140.

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## Super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> saturation-induced mechanical property alterations in low rank coal: An experimental study



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#### ABSTRACT

The adsorption of carbon dioxide ( $CO_2$ ) into the coal matrix during  $CO_2$ -enhanced methane recovery causes significant alterations to the coal mass chemical and physical structures, causing modifications to coal's mechanical properties. Hence, the main objective of this study is to investigate the effects of sequestrated  $CO_2$  phase condition on coal strength. A series of unconfined compressive strength tests was conducted on Australian brown coal samples, saturated under various  $CO_2$  pressures (2–10 MPa) at 35 °C using an advanced acoustic emission (AE) system and optical 3D deformation analysis. According to the results, super-critical  $CO_2$  has the ability to cause a greater reduction of strength (by 46%) and enhancement of elasticity properties (by 20%) in brown coal compared to sub-critical  $CO_2$ , because super-critical  $CO_2$  has greater adsorptive potential, which eventually creates greater coal matrix swelling. According to the AE and deformation analysis, the coal mass natural cleat system contributes significantly to the observed  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced changes in mechanical properties.

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#### 6.2.1 Introduction and background

With increasing industrialization, carbon dioxide  $(CO_2)$  emissions are becoming a major concern, directly affecting global warming. Of the various feasible methods,  $CO_2$  sequestration in deep unmineable coal seams is recognized as one of the most promising  $CO_2$  mitigation methods [1–4]. However, there are certain risks that need to be considered with respect to the long-term safe storage of the sequestered  $CO_2$ .

According to Gibbs [5] and Griffith [6], a material can become weaker when a more chemically potential adsorbate substitutes the existing adsorbate of the material. In the CO<sub>2</sub>-enhanced methane recovery process (CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM), CO<sub>2</sub> is a more chemically potential gas than pre-adsorbed methane in coal seams [5,6], which implies that the replacement of the CH<sub>4</sub> with CO<sub>2</sub> causes the coal seam strength to be reduced. Further, a natural coal matrix is a vastly brittle structure which confines the free movement of coal molecules [7]. When CO<sub>2</sub> is adsorbed into the coal matrix, it increases the ductile properties of the coal mass, because of the enhancement of free volume due to alterations in the coal matrix [8]. These coal struture modifications may create the potential for injected CO<sub>2</sub> to be released back to the atmosphere by the generation of faults [9]. This may lead to potential damage to infrastructure [10],

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http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.supflu.2015.11.010 0896-8446/© 2015 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved. and may cause hazardous occurrences such as gas outburst due to the increased pore pressure inside the weakened storage medium [11]. Several previous studies [8,10,12-15] have investigated this strength reduction in coal with CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption.

Initially, researchers [12,13] used coal powder or tiny cubes to check the influence of CO<sub>2</sub> on coal strength, and the study conducted by Czaplinski and Holda [13] showed a clear strength reduction in low rank coal with CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption, confirming the findings of Aziz and Ming-Li [12] obtained from drilling experiments on coal cubes saturated with CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> and air. As these studies were conducted on small coal samples, they cannot represent the real adsorption process in the coal mass natural cleat system. Viete and Ranjith [15] were the first researchers to conduct standard unconfined compressive strength (UCS) tests on coal specimens to investigate the effect of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption in the coal matrix. The 54 mm diameter and 108 mm high lignite samples used for this study displayed a reduction in both UCS (by 13%) and the elastic modulus (by 26%) for a 1.5 MPa  $CO_2$  saturation at room temperature. However, CO<sub>2</sub> exists in its super-critical state (beyond the critical point of  $CO_2$  – 7.38 MPa and 31.8  $^\circ C)$  in the coal seams suitable for CO<sub>2</sub> injection, due to the higher temperatures and pressures at these deep locations [16]. Super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> has higher adsorption potential [17] and unique physical properties compared to sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub>, such as higher viscosities [18] and enhanced propensities [19]. This higher adsorptive nature of CO<sub>2</sub> leads to greater coal matrix swelling [20], which reduces the coal mass pore spaces. Therefore, with the aim of investigating the coal

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mass strength reduction during super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injection, Perera et al. [8] conducted several UCS tests using bituminous coal at 33 °C constant temperature. According to their findings, a greater reduction in coal mass strength can be observed due to super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption compared to sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption (51% and 54% reduction of UCS and elastic modulus from 6 MPa to 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> saturation respectively) in bituminous coal. Ranjith and Perera [21] used lignite (low rank) and bituminous coal (high rank) to study the effect of carbon content (coal rank) on strength reduction for CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption up to 3 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure at 35 °C. They found a greater strength reduction (around 20%) in high rank coal than low rank coal during sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> saturation.

However, to date researchers have considered only the response of high rank coal to super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption, and little is known about how super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced strength reduction varies with coal rank. This study therefore, intends to fill this gap by determining the effect of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption on the strength of low rank coal (lignite), and compares it with the effect on high rank coal [8]. Therefore, the main objective of the present study is to distinguish the effects of sub- and super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> saturation on the mechanical properties of low-ranked brown coal. This study involved an experimental programme of UCS testing on brown coal samples saturated with CO<sub>2</sub> under various suband super-critical pressures and unsaturated samples.

#### 6.2.2 Methodology

### 6.2.2.1 Sample preparation for testing

Brown coal samples obtained from the Hazelwood mine in the Latrobe Valley, south-east Victoria, Australia were used for all testing purposes. The samples were stored in a fog room in the Monash University Deep Earth Energy Research Laboratory (DEERL) after being enclosed in polythene bags to preserve the natural moisture content and the overall chemical properties of the samples. Victorian brown coal is a low-rank coal (lignite) with a specific gravity of 1.035, with 48% fixed carbon, 1.7% ash yield, 50.3% volatile matter content and 0.28% sulphur content (all the percentage values are based on a dry basis) [15]. The samples used for this study (38 mm in diameter and 76 mm in height) were obtained from large coal blocks using the diamond coring and cutting machine available at DEERL, and a rock grinder was used to achieve smooth parallel surfaces for testing. The specimens were enclosed in polythene bags and stored in a plastic container in the fog room again to minimize moisture loss until the samples were used for the experiments.

#### 6.2.2.2 Experimental methods

Using the pressure chamber available at DEERL [22], samples were saturated at various CO<sub>2</sub> pressures (2, 4, 6, 8 and 10 MPa) prior to testing. This apparatus can be used to saturate samples up to 10 MPa saturation pressure and includes a temperature control unit to maintain the system temperature, which was set to 35 °C (greater than the critical temperature of CO  $_2$  31.8  $^\circ\text{C}$  ). For the CO  $_2$  saturation, samples were first positioned inside the pressure chamber (2 or 3 samples at a time) and gas was then injected into the pressure cell until the required saturation pressure was reached. Altogether, 15 samples were tested, including sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> saturated samples, super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> saturated samples and unsaturated coal samples for comparison. Since the system temperature was greater than the critical temperature of CO<sub>2</sub> (31.8 °C), 2, 4 and 6 MPa (<7.38 MPa) the CO<sub>2</sub> saturated samples were under sub-critical conditions while the 8 and 10 MPa (>7.38 MPa) CO<sub>2</sub> saturated samples were under supercritical conditions. All the samples were saturated for a period of 21 days [14]. After the saturation period, the pressure chamber was gradually de-pressurized at a rate of 0.02 MPa/min to avoid possible damage to the physical structure of the coal specimens due to sudden changes in pressure. After the samples were removed from the saturation chamber, they were covered with plastic wraps and tested within around 20 min to avoid any possible changes to the saturation state of the samples.

### a. UCS testing

The UCS tests were conducted according to the ASTM standards [23]. The testing was conducted using the Shimadzu compression machine located in DEERL and the loading rate was maintained at 0.1 mm/min for all the tests. An automatic data acquisition system was used to record the applied loads on the coal specimens with time, and optical 3D deformation analysis (ARAMIS photogrammetry) and acoustic emission (AE) systems were used to obtain the corresponding strains and fracture patterns during sample failure.

### b. Optical 3D deformation analysis

An optical 3D deformation analysis system (ARAMIS photogrammetry), with two high-resolution cameras and a software system, was used to capture the strain behaviour during the load application in UCS testing. A pair of cameras is used to record the deformation of the structure by tracing discrete correlation areas within stereo images, and the system attempts to counterpart the areas in the stereo images from the cameras at each time step. In order to capture stereo images using the ARAMIS system, the test specimens require adequate image variation in tone and contrast all over to exclusively identify the correlation areas. This was accomplished by painting the sample surface with matt white paint followed by spreading a pattern of matt black paint dots on the surface. Prior to testing, a thorough calibration was carried out using a calibration plate with a known pattern of white dots on a black background. When the cameras were calibrated, testing of actual specimens was commenced.

#### c. Acoustic emission (AE) system

To identify the fracture propagation behaviour of the tested coal specimens under load application during the UCS testing, an advanced acoustic emission (AE) system was used. Two AE sensors in series were attached to the sample at either side of the specimen. To easily attach the sensors and to obtain the same sensitivity for each sensor, an electron wax was used. When the specimen was ready to be tested, both load application and the AE system were started simultaneously. After each test, the AE characteristic parameters were analyzed using the recorded AE data and the relationships between each characteristic parameter during the load application were investigated.

#### d. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) analysis

A comprehensive SEM analysis was conducted using the FEI Quanta 3D FEG FIB machine located in the Monash Centre for Electron Microscopy (MCEM) using coal slices obtained before and after the CO<sub>2</sub> saturation. During sample preparation, several slices 2-5 mm in height were cut from each sample and saturated with CO<sub>2</sub> in the saturation chamber together with the samples used for the strength test. At the end of the saturation period, the samples were removed from the chamber by slowly releasing the pressure and prepared for the SEM analysis by adhering them to doublesided adhesive carbon tape attached to a circular specimen stub. Three types of samples were used for SEM analysis: 4 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> saturated (sub-critical); 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> saturated (super-critical); and unsaturated for comparison. The samples were viewed under 15 kV voltage with 4.5 spot size and low vacuum mode was used while operating the SEM machine, as brown coal is subjected to higher outgassing.

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Fig. 1. Axial stress versus strain curves for unsaturated (" $\diamond$ ") and CO<sub>2</sub> saturated ("\*" – 2 MPa, " $\Box$ " – 4 MPa, "o" – 6 MPa, " $\Delta$ " – 8 MPa and "+" – 10 MPa) brown coal samples.



Fig. 2. CO<sub>2</sub> saturation-induced mechanical property alterations in brown coal (samples were saturated in CO<sub>2</sub> at 35 °C constant temperature. Here "o" – unconfined compressive strength (UCS) reduction, "" – Young's modulus (*E*) reduction and " $\Delta$ " – Poisson's ratio ( $\nu$ ) increment).

### 6.2.3 Experimental results and discussion

Axial stress–strains, ARAMIS responses and AE responses were tested for a total of 15 samples. Table 1 shows the UCS, Young's modulus and Poisson's ratio values obtained for all the tested samples and for discussion purposes, the specimens with the highest UCS values were considered to represent each test condition. Finally, the samples were subjected to SEM analysis for microstructural analysis.

### 6.2.3.1 CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration-induced alterations to geomechanical properties in brown coal

The following sections discuss the variations in brown coal geomechanical properties: UCS, Young's modulus and Poisson's ratio for both sub- and super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> saturation.

### a. Unconfined compressive stress (UCS)

The stress–strain behaviours for sub- and super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> saturations are shown in Fig. 1. As Fig. 1 indicates, the UCS of brown coal is considerably reduced for all test conditions after CO<sub>2</sub> saturation, while it is more substantial in super-critical CO<sub>2</sub>-saturated samples compared to the sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub>-saturated samples.

As shown in Fig. 2, the UCS reduction due to sub-critical  $CO_2$  adsorption gradually increases with increasing  $CO_2$  saturation



**Fig. 3.** Appearance of the brown coal samples before failure (a) unsaturated sample, (b) after saturation of 4 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> (sub-critical) and (c) after saturation of 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> (super-critical).



**Fig. 4.** Appearance of the samples after failure using optical 3D deformation analysis (at failure) (a) unsaturated sample, (b) after saturation of 4 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> (sub-critical) and (c) after saturation of 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> (super-critical) (here A: sample fails along a shear plane, B: sample fails along the major cleat system and C: sample fail along major and minor cleat system).

pressure from 2 to 6 MPa. Coal matrix swelling caused by CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption is the main causative factor for these variations [8]. According to Botnen et al. [24], the natural cleat system in coal acts as a locus for CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption and causes an expansion of the coal matrix along the cleat walls. This behaviour causes the coal structure to be changed by reducing its overall strength, as demonstrated by the physical appearance of the unsaturated and CO<sub>2</sub>-saturated coal samples in Figs. 3 and 4. According to Fig. 4(a), the unsaturated brown coal sample failed along a shear plane and the CO<sub>2</sub>-saturated sample failed along its major cleats (see Fig. 4(b)).

Interestingly,  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced strength reduction in brown coal is subjected to a sudden increment (from 21.25% to 57.5%) when  $CO_2$  saturation pressure is increased from 6 to 8 MPa (see Fig. 2), at which point  $CO_2$  transfers from its sub- to supercritical state (here onwards the region between 6 to 8 MPa  $CO_2$ 

#### Table 1

Mean values of uniaxial compressive strength (UCS), Young's modulus (E) and Poisson's ratio ( $\nu$ ) obtained from testing and changes in these values relative to values obtained from testing of unsaturated samples.

$\text{CO}_2$ saturation pressure (MPa) <sup>*</sup>	UCS (MPa)	Average UCS (MPa)	$\Delta \text{UCS}$ (%)	E (MPa)	Average E (MPa)	$\Delta E(\%)$	Average $\nu$	$\Delta \nu$ (%)
0 (unsaturated sample)	2.46 2.34 2.39	2.40	_	43.16 39.32 42.32	41.60	-	0.226	-
2 (sub-critical)	2.29 2.22 2.24	2.25	-6.25	36.17 33.68 35.39	35.08	-15.67	0.249	10.18
4 (sub-critical)	2.14 2.10 2.22	2.15	-10.42	33.48 32.94 34.53	33.65	-19.11	0.268	18.58
6 (sub-critical)	1.84 1.93	1.89	-21.25	31.26 33.20	32.23	-22.52	0.294	30.09
8 (super-critical)	0.97 1.06	1.02	-57.50	22.47 27.35	24.91	-40.12	0.341	50.88
10 (super-critical)	0.87 0.99	0.93	-61.25	20.18 26.66	23.42	-43.70	0.366	61.95

\* Samples were saturated in CO<sub>2</sub> at 35 °C constant temperature.

is referred as the "transfer region"). This is believed to be related to the greater adsorptive capacity of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> compared to sub-critical  $CO_2$  [25] and the corresponding greater coal matrix swelling under super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption [26]. CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption in coal occurs along its natural cleat system [27] and therefore an expansion of cleat space occurs with the swelling of the coal matrix with CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption. Alternatively, swelling also causes the density of the coal mass to be reduced, which contributes to coal mass strength reduction. Hence, the greater adsorptive potential of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> causes a greater strength reduction. This can be physically identified by checking the physical appearance of the failed sub- (see Fig. 3b) and super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> saturated coal samples (see Fig. 3c), where the coal mass breakage has clearly occurred through both minor and major cleats in the super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> saturated brown coal (Fig. 4c). This proves the greater chemical potential of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> to attract both minor and major cleats.

However, further increase of the  $CO_2$  saturation pressure beyond the transfer region does not cause any perceptible change in the brown coal UCS (see Fig. 2). According to Shi et al. [28], supercritical  $CO_2$  permeability in brown coal significantly reduces with increasing super-critical  $CO_2$  pressure. This may cause  $CO_2$  flow ability through the sample to be reduced with increasing pressure, resulting in less matrix rearrangement at higher super-critical  $CO_2$ pressures (8 MPa>).

Conversely, this observed strength reduction in brown (low rank) coal is comparatively less than the strength reductions reported for  $CO_2$  saturated bituminous coal (high rank) in the research literature [8]. For example, Perera et al. [8] found a 53% and 78% UCS reduction in sub-critical  $CO_2$  saturated (6 MPa) and super-critical  $CO_2$  saturated (8 MPa) high-ranked bituminous coal respectively, compared to unsaturated bituminous coal samples. The lower strength reduction of low-ranked coal compared to high-ranked coal is due to the well-developed natural cleat system in bituminous coal during the coalification process, which acts as a pathway for  $CO_2$  flow through the coal matrix, creating greater matrix alterations.

#### b. Young's modulus and Poisson's ratio

In addition to the UCS variations during  $CO_2$  saturation, the results show that the Young's modulus and the Poisson's ratio of brown coal are also affected by  $CO_2$  saturation (see Table 1). Due to sub-critical  $CO_2$  saturation (6 MPa), the Young's modulus has a reduction of 22.52% and the Poisson's ratio has an increment of

30% compared to unsaturated specimens. As explained by Larsen et al. [7], coal is a highly brittle material with less freedom of movement, due to its glassy-strained higher energy structure. When  $CO_2$  is adsorbed into this coal matrix, it results in an expansion of free volume by amending its polymer structure. This improves the coal mass ductile properties, resulting in decreased Young's modulus and increased Poisson's ratio.

In the transfer region, the reduction of Young's modulus at 8 MPa (40.12%) is twice that at 6 MPa (22.52%) and the increment in Poisson's ratio is by a factor of 1.5 (50.88% for 8 MPa and 30.09% for 6 MPa) compared to unsaturated samples. Chikatamarla et al. [29] indicated that, unlike sub-critical  $CO_2$ , super-critical  $CO_2$  has better solubility for solid constituents due to its higher density. This causes the organic compounds in coal to be polymerized, leading to plasticization of coal during  $CO_2$  saturation, enhancing the ductile properties of the coal [1]. This higher plasticization effect of super-critical  $CO_2$  causes the sudden changes in Young's modulus in the transfer region (see Fig. 2). Further, the previously mentioned greater coal mass expansion with coal matrix swelling during super-critical  $CO_2$  adsorption results in the sudden enhancement of Poisson's ratio (see Fig. 2).

Further increase of the CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure beyond 8 MPa causes a marginal increase in Young's modulus reduction and Poisson's ratio increment (see Table 1). This observation is believed to be related to the previously mentioned permeability reduction in the super-critical region [28], which reduces brown coal's plasticization capacity. Overall, it can be concluded that the influence of CO<sub>2</sub> saturation on brown coal strength is clearly dependent on the adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub> phase condition, and the influence is more significant for super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption than for sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption. However, further increase of CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure beyond the transfer region does not have any noticeable influence on brown coal's mechanical properties.

Comparing these results with those of previous studies [8], the Young's modulus reduction in high-ranked bituminous coal at 6 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> saturation is around 35.2% [8], which is higher than the Young's modulus reduction in low-ranked brown coal observed in the present study (22.52%). Further, at 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> saturation, 71.3% of Young's modulus reduction was observed by Perera et al. [8] for bituminous coal, while a reduction of 40.12% was observed for brown coal, according to the results of the present study. However, these Young's modulus values are not very different when compared with the UCS reduction values in high- and low-ranked coal (only around 10% different). This implies that, although there is a



**Fig. 5.** Cumulative acoustic counts vs. axial stress of tested brown coal samples for unsaturated (continuous line), sub-critical (4MPa) CO<sub>2</sub> saturated (dash line) and super-critical (8MPa) CO<sub>2</sub> saturated (dotted line) samples (here  $\sigma_{cl} =$  crack initiation stress,  $\sigma_{cd} =$  crack damage stress and  $\sigma_c =$  unconfined compressive strength (UCS)) (refer to Table 2 for  $\sigma_{cl}$ ,  $\sigma_{cd}$  and  $\sigma_c$  values).

higher CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacity and swelling in high-ranked coal, the structural rearrangements are comparatively similar in any coal rank.

6.2.3.2 CO<sub>2</sub> saturation effect on strain development in brown coal during load application

Fig. 4 shows ARAMIS images of natural, sub- and super-critical CO<sub>2</sub>-saturated brown coal specimens during load application, and the range of colours in each specimen (blue to red) exhibits the variation in the strain values. The points inside the blue zone experienced the minimum stress before failure and the points inside the red zone faced the maximum stress before failure.

According to the ARAMIS images (Fig. 4), the coal samples saturated in CO<sub>2</sub> exhibit a ductile nature, with the super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> (8 MPa) saturated sample displaying greater ductile properties with 4.37% of highest strain at failure compared to the sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> (4 MPa) saturated sample (1.5% of highest strain at failure). The uneven spread of red spots in the CO<sub>2</sub> saturated specimens just before failure (see Fig. 4(b) and (c)) reflects the heterogeneous nature of brown coal's strain distribution after CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption, and the strain distribution of unsaturated brown coal specimens appears moderately homogeneous in contrast (Fig. 4(a)). In addition, these ARAMIS images confirm that the shear-dominant failure mechanism in unsaturated coal samples changes to failure along the cleat system after CO<sub>2</sub> saturation (refer to Section a).

### 6.2.3.3 CO<sub>2</sub> saturation effect on fracture propagation patterns in brown coal

The AE system available in the DEERL was used to observe the fracture propagation patterns in brown coal under various saturation conditions. Fig. 5 shows the variation in the cumulative number of AE counts with axial stress for the tested samples (unsaturated, 4 MPa and 8 MPa) and Table 2 presents the stress threshold values obtained from Fig. 5. The AE technology has the ability to detect the energy release in the rock mass during the various stages of material failure [30]: crack closure, stable crack propagation, and unstable crack propagation. Of these, crack closure describes the initial period of the load application, at which the rock mass cracks are in closed position (the period from the start of load application to crack initiation stress ( $\sigma_{ci}$ )). During the stable fracture propagation stage, the axial stress causes insignificant damage to the failure

plane (the period from crack initiation stress ( $\sigma_{ci}$ ) to crack damage stress ( $\sigma_{cd}$ )), while the unstable fracture propagation stage occurs when the failure plane is damaged with the load application (the period from crack damage stress ( $\sigma_{cd}$ ) to failure load (UCS)).

According to Fig. 5, the unsaturated sample exhibits a greater number of AE counts with load application compared to the CO2saturated samples (see Fig. 5). This is probably due to the coal matrix swelling-induced pre-existing cracks in the CO<sub>2</sub> saturated samples, which obviate the need for crack initiation during the loading. In addition, in the CO2 saturated samples, both crack initiation and damage occur much more quickly than in the unsaturated sample, and the super-critical CO<sub>2</sub>-saturated sample exhibits the quickest cracking occurrence. This is because, in addition to the preexisting cracks, the coal matrix is much weaker after CO<sub>2</sub> saturation due to the surface energy reduction which occurs with coal matrix swelling [30], which is greater with super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption. This is also confirmed by the broader stable crack propagation period shown in the 4 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> saturated sample ( $\cong$ 1.03 MPa) compared to the 8 MPa  $CO_2$  saturated sample ( $\cong 0.27$  MPa) (Fig. 5). Interestingly, the fracture propagation periods for CO<sub>2</sub>-saturated brown coal samples (Fig. 5 and Table 2) are broader than those for CO<sub>2</sub>-saturated high-ranked black coal observed by Perera et al. [8] under the same test conditions. This indicates the greater influence of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption on high-ranked coal strength compared to lowranked coal strength. This is believed to be related to the finely honed cleat system in high-ranked coal, which offers a greater extent of locus for CO2 adsorption, which eventually creates greater coal matrix swelling.

### 6.2.3.4 CO<sub>2</sub> saturation-induced brown coal's micro pore structure alterations

The coal mass pore structure has an important influence on the gas transport process in coal [31], and according to Katyal et al. [32], the effectiveness of gas storage and drainage in coal greatly depends on its microscopic behaviour, micro pore structure and orientation, density, and the continuity of micro pores and their connectivity to the macro pores. A SEM analysis was therefore carried out to understand the mechanical property alterations caused by CO<sub>2</sub> saturation. The results of unsaturated, 4 MPa and 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> saturated coal samples are shown in Fig. 6. According to Fig. 6, natural brown coal exhibits a more uniform cellular-like micro pore structure with comparatively large pores. However, the pores are significantly shrunk and the cellular structure is noticeably rearranged with CO<sub>2</sub> saturation (see Fig. 6). In particular, a greater modification to the coal pore structure is made by super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> saturation. These observations confirm the effect of the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced strength alterations in coal described in the previous sections.

### 6.2.3.5 Implications for field application

Due to the potential of  $CO_2$  to exist in its super-critical state, preferable coal seams for  $CO_2$  sequestration exist at depths greater than 800 m [33]. Furthermore, super-critical  $CO_2$  has greater storage capacity in deep underground reservoirs due to its gas-like compressibilities and liquid-like viscosities [20]. According to Oldenburg [34], the pore pressure condition of coal seams at such depths is higher than 8 MPa (hydrostatic pressure). This was considered in this study by testing coal samples saturated up to 10 MPa  $CO_2$  saturation pressures at 35 °C, which covers the pore pressure condition up to around 1 km depth. However, it should be noted that the coal mass is subjected to considerable lithostatic pressures in real case scenarios, which has not been incorporated in the present study, because of the extensive time required for  $CO_2$ saturation to conduct tests with confinement. The real strength

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Stress threshold values of unsaturated and CO<sub>2</sub> saturated (4 and 8 MPa) samples under axial loading.

Conditions	Crack initiation stress ( $\sigma_{\rm ci}$ , MPa)	Crack damage stress ( $\sigma_{\rm cd}$ , MPa)	Uniaxial compressive strength ( $\sigma_{\rm c}$ , MPa)
Unsaturated	1.01	1.42	2.46
<sup>*</sup> Sub-critical CO <sub>2</sub> (4 MPa)	0.25	1.28	2.22
<sup>*</sup> Super-critical CO <sub>2</sub> (8 MPa)	0.19	0.46	1.06

<sup>°</sup> Samples were saturated in CO<sub>2</sub> at 35 °C constant temperature.



Fig. 6. Comparison of SEM results for (a) unsaturated sample, (b) sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub>-saturated (4 MPa) sample and (c) super-critical CO<sub>2</sub>-saturated (8 MPa) sample (SEM images were viewed under a magnification of 17,500×, a working distance of 10 mm and a voltage of 15 kV).

reductions in coal under  $CO_2$  saturation are therefore expected to be lower than the obtained values, because there are higher effective stress conditions in coal seams under such confinement, which reduce the  $CO_2$  flow performance [26]. This indicates the requirement for future studies to incorporate confinement stress conditions to suggest the adsorptive weakening of a coal seam due to  $CO_2$  in field conditions.

According to the findings, although the injection of supercritical  $CO_2$  is preferential due to its stable storage possibility, it may not be a safe  $CO_2$  injection option in coal seams, due to the potential larger strength reduction. Alternatively, the enhancement of ductile properties with super-critical  $CO_2$  injection is not a favourable circumstance for some  $CO_2$  injectability and methane production stimulation techniques such as hydro-fracturing. The effectiveness of the hydro-fracturing process largely depends on the brittleness of the rock mass, because brittle rocks are easily fractured during the hydro-fracturing process and these induced fractures have greater potential to be in an open position [35]. Conversely, the plastically deforming nature of  $CO_2$  saturated coal causes the fractures induced during the hydro-fracturing process to heal with the pressure release, creating unfavourable formation properties.

In summary, the findings of this study exhibit the risks associated with the use of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> for the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM process in terms of safety and production enhancement. However, this should be counter-balanced by the expected greater stable super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity in coal compared to sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub>. Laboratory tests can be used to obtain a better vision of the effects of CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in coal mass in a controlled environment which can be used to support reservoir studies and then be extended to other advanced studies (risk assessment studies, economic optimization studies, project-screening models, etc.). In addition, these results can be incorporated to further investigate the coal mass behaviour for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration by developing a laboratory-scale model which can be extended to a field-scale reservoir study [36]. The AE data in this study illustrate the progressive fracture behaviour with load application that can be assimilated with the real case scenario of fault initiation during the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM process. These results are useful for a detailed understanding of possible migration paths for  $\mbox{CO}_2$  from reservoirs, and to facilitate risk assessment studies.

#### 6.2.4 Conclusions

The influence of  $CO_2$  adsorption on the mechanical properties of brown coal was examined in a UCS testing programme. According to the test results:

- Sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption causes brown coal's mechanical properties to be significantly changed due to the associated coal matrix swelling, with the tested coal's UCS strength being reduced by up to around 21.25% with gas CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption and the Young's modulus and Poisson's ratio being reduced and increased by around 22.52% and 30.09%, respectively.
- Super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption causes significantly greater mechanical property alterations in brown coal. 46% and 22.71% reduction of UCS and Young's modulus and a 16% increment of Poisson's ratio were observed when CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure increased from 6 to 8 MPa (the transfer region) respectively. The greater adsorption potential-related ductile property enhancement in brown coal compared to sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> is the main causative factor for these alterations during super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption. Furthermore, the geomechanical property alterations observed during the ARAMIS and SEM studies confirm the brittle to ductile property modifications of coal mass with super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption at the micro-structural level.
- In addition, CO<sub>2</sub> saturation in brown coal causes early stages of fracture development, due to its swelled and reduced surface energy after CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption, and the effect is greater under super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption.
- Higher strength reductions have been observed in the research literature for black coal compared to brown coal, due to its welldefined cleat system which acts as a locus for CO<sub>2</sub> movement, creating greater structural alterations.

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Finally, from the results of this study, it can be concluded that CO<sub>2</sub> phase and pressure have a great influence on the mechanical properties of coal, irrespective of its rank.

### 6.2.5 Acknowledgements

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### 6.2.6 Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.supflu.2015.11. 010

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### 6.3 How do various fluid saturations alter the coal mass strength properties with coal rank?

During CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in deep coal seams, the coal mass may be subjected to various fluid (CO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>, water *etc.*) saturations. Many studies to date have focused on the effect of CO<sub>2</sub> saturation on coal mass. However, to maintain a long-term progression of the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM process, it is required to identify the mechanical responses of preferable coal seams for various fluid saturations available in the coal mass. Hence, the main objective of this study was to investigate coal's mechanical responses to water and N<sub>2</sub> saturations compared to CO<sub>2</sub> saturation, and to determine the effect of coal rank. A series of UCS tests was conducted on Australian brown coal samples from the Gippsland basin and black coal from the Sydney basin saturated with water and N<sub>2</sub> under various saturation pressures. The AE system was utilized together with UCS tests to identify the crack propagation patterns under each saturation condition. Further, SEM analysis was conducted to gain better insight into the micro-structural changes under water and N<sub>2</sub> saturation conditions.

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Article



### Effect of Coal Rank on Various Fluid Saturations Creating Mechanical Property Alterations Using Australian Coals

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**Abstract:** During CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in deep coal seams, the coal mass may be subjected to various fluid (CO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>, *etc.*) saturations. Therefore, in order to maintain the long-term integrity of the process, it is necessary to identify the mechanical responses of preferable coal seams for various fluid saturations. To date, many studies have focused on the CO<sub>2</sub> saturation effect on coal mass strength and less consideration has been given to the influence of other saturation mediums. Hence, this study aims to investigate coal's mechanical responses to water and N<sub>2</sub> saturations compared to CO<sub>2</sub> saturation and to determine the effect of coal-rank. A series of unconfined compressive strength (UCS) tests was conducted on Australian brown and black coal samples saturated with water and N<sub>2</sub> at various saturation pressures. An advanced acoustic emission (AE) system was utilized to identify the changes in crack propagation behaviors under each condition. According to the results, both CO<sub>2</sub> and water act similarly with coal by enhancing the ductile properties of the coal mass and this mechanical weakening is greater for high-rank coal. Conversely, N<sub>2</sub> saturation slightly enhances coal strength and delays crack propagation in coal and this strength enhancement can be improved by increasing the N<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure.

Keywords: coal rank; mechanical properties; N2 saturation; CO2 saturation; water saturation

### 6.3.1. Introduction

The process of enhanced coal bed methane (ECBM) recovery is being implemented and tested as a viable option to store and reduce the amount of anthropogenic carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) in the Earth's atmosphere, as well as for the recovery of useful coal bed methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) gas [1–7]. Overall, the ECBM process involves introducing CO<sub>2</sub> through injecting wells into deep coal seams and this CO<sub>2</sub> then acts as a displacing gas, which allows the already adsorbed CH<sub>4</sub> to be desorbed from the coal matrix. Finally, CH<sub>4</sub> is obtained through a recovery well and used to produce energy in a cost-effective and environmentally friendly way.

However, according to previous studies [1-3,6,8-12], this CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM process leads to CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced coal matrix alterations, which in turn affect its hydro-mechanical properties. Particularly in the geomechanical respect, the coal mass becomes weaker with the substitution of existing adsorbate CH<sub>4</sub> with the highly chemically potential CO<sub>2</sub> [13,14]. According to Perera *et al.* [15], Ranathunga *et al.* [16] and Vishal *et al.* [17], the inherent brittleness of the coal mass becomes ductile with the plasticization effect of coal with the adsorption of CO<sub>2</sub>, and this phenomena is higher for super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> (beyond the critical temperature of CO<sub>2</sub>-31.8 °C and the critical pressure of CO<sub>2</sub>-7.38 MPa). Generally, potential CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM reservoirs are located deep underground, where CO<sub>2</sub> is in its super-critical state [2]. Hence, the strength reduction may be hazardous for the overall stability of coal

reservoirs, mainly in regard to the cap rock's stability [18]. Table 1 provides a summary of previous studies on the identification of the geomechanical responses of different coal types under various  $CO_2$  adsorption conditions. Those studies show that the coal mass is weakened by  $CO_2$  adsorption and the effect is relatively higher for super-critical  $CO_2$  for any type of coal. For instance, Australian brown coal shows 20.92% and 23.84% of unconfined compressive strength (UCS) and Young's modulus reduction for sub-critical  $CO_2$  saturation at 6 MPa and 57.32% and 41.14% UCS and Young's modulus reduction for super-critical  $CO_2$  saturation at 8 MPa respectively [16]. For Australian black coal, when the  $CO_2$  saturation pressure increased from 6 MPa (sub-critical) to 8 MPa (super-critical), the UCS reduction was increased from 56.67% to 77.58% and the Young's modulus reduction was increased from 42.23% to 70.27% [15]. This is because the higher adsorption potential of super-critical  $CO_2$  results in greater coal matrix alterations, causing greater strength reductions in the coal structure.

Table 1.	Geomechanical	responses of	different coal	types under	various CO <sub>2</sub>	saturation conditions.
		1		21	-	

Temperature (°C)	Pressure (MPa)	CO <sub>2</sub> Phase Condition	Coal Type	Coal Rank	UCS (MPa)	∆UCS (%)	E (MPa)	∆E (%)	Reference
35	0	-	Lignite <sup>1</sup>	Low	2.40	-	41.60	-	[16]
33	0	-	Bituminous <sup>2</sup>	High	33.00	-	3700	-	[15]
Room temperature	0	-	Bituminous <sup>3</sup>	High	15.29	-	5340	-	[17]
Room temperature	1	Gas	Lignite <sup>1</sup>	Low	2.34	2.09	40.32	4.73	[16]
35	2	Gas	Lignite <sup>1</sup>	Low	2.25	5.86	35.08	17.11	[16]
35	3	Gas	Lignite <sup>1</sup>	Low	2.17	9.21	33.78	20.18	[16]
Room temperature	4	Gas	Bituminous <sup>3</sup>	High	12.62	17.60	3940	26.20	[17]
35	4	Gas	Lignite <sup>1</sup>	Low	2.15	10.04	33.65	20.49	[16]
33	4.5	Gas	Bituminous <sup>2</sup>	High	15.80	52.12	2300	37.84	[15]
35	6	Gas	Lignite <sup>1</sup>	Low	1.89	20.92	32.23	23.84	[16]
33	6	Gas	Bituminous <sup>2</sup>	High	14.30	56.67	2130	42.43	[15]
35	8	Super critical	Lignite <sup>1</sup>	Low	1.02	57.32	24.91	41.14	[16]
33	8	Super critical	Bituminous <sup>2</sup>	High	7.40	77.58	1100	70.27	[15]
35	10	Super critical	Lignite <sup>1</sup>	Low	0.93	61.09	23.42	44.69	[16]
33	12	Super critical	Bituminous <sup>2</sup>	High	7.30	77.88	1160	68.65	[15]
33	16	Super critical	Bituminous <sup>2</sup>	High	13.95	57.64	1570	57.58	[15]

<sup>1</sup> Australian brown coal; <sup>2</sup> Australian black coal; <sup>3</sup> Indian black coal.

Interestingly, although both low and high rank coal samples behave similarly under  $CO_2$  saturation, low rank coal exhibits a comparatively lower strength reduction compared to high rank coal (see Table 1). According to Table 1, the average reduction of UCS is around 29% for the tested Australian brown coal and that of the tested Australian black coal is around 61%. Further, the Young's modulus of the tested Australian brown coal exhibits around 26% average reduction, while the tested Australian black coal shows an average reduction of around 47%. In addition, for 3 MPa  $CO_2$  saturation, the tested Australian brown coal shows a UCS reduction of 9.21% and Young's modulus reduction of 20.18%, while the tested Indian black coal shows 17.6% and 26.2% reductions in UCS and Young's modulus, respectively (see Table 1). The reason is the naturally existing well-developed cleat system in high rank coal that acts as a locus for  $CO_2$  movement, permitting a greater matrix alteration compared to low rank coal with a less-developed cleat system.

It is also important to study the geomechanical behavior of the coal mass under other saturation mediums such as water and nitrogen (N<sub>2</sub>). Moisture in a rock mass is known to affect the strength of rock by reducing its surface energy [19] and consequently softening the bond structure. Hence, it is vital to identify how different types of coals behave under the effect of moisture. In the case of N<sub>2</sub> saturation, researchers [3,20–23] have found that N<sub>2</sub> has the ability to recover CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced coal matrix alteration, which eventually enhances the hydraulic properties of the coal matrix. Perera, Ranjith and Peter [24] have investigated the behavior of N<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> saturation on low-rank brown coal and observed around 2% increase in strength and Young's modulus for 3 MPa N<sub>2</sub> saturation. This is quite a low pore pressure condition and it is important to see this effect under much greater pore pressure conditions for possible field application. Regarding the rank effect, although there

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have been some studies to date [16,25] on the effect of  $CO_2$  saturation on different ranks of coal, none of them has considered the rank-dependent mechanical behavior of coal mass under  $N_2$  saturation, particularly under high saturation pressure conditions. Therefore, it is interesting to investigate how coal mechanical property alterations vary under high  $N_2$  saturation conditions and the rank effect on them, which will in turn enable more reliable applications for field projects. This study therefore intends to fill this gap by determining the effect of water and  $N_2$  saturation on the strength of low rank coal (lignite) and high rank coal (bituminous). The main objective of the present study is to distinguish the effects of water and  $N_2$  saturation on the mechanical properties of different coal ranks.

### 6.3.2. Methodology

### 6.3.2.1. Samples Used for Testing

Brown coal (lignite) samples acquired from the Hazelwood mine in the Latrobe Valley, Victoria, Australia from approximately 50–75 m depth (from the ground level) were employed to represent low rank coal, while black coal (bituminous) samples collected from the Appin coal mine in the Southern Sydney basin, Australia from approximately 400 m depth (from the ground level) were utilized to represent high rank coal for this study. Both types of coal were obtained immediately after mining and therefore had been subjected to minimal environmental effects such as dusting, water evaporation or sunlight. The samples used for the present study were the same specimens obtained from the same coal blocks used by Perera, Ranjith and Viete [15] (black coal) and Ranathunga *et al.* [16] (brown coal) and the water content of the blocks was checked before coring new samples to ensure that the coal blocks were not subjected to any moisture loss. The physical properties of the samples used are shown in Table 2. Samples of 38 mm in diameter and 76 mm in height were used for testing purposes and the samples were maintained in a fog room wrapped in plastic wraps (after coring from the coal blocks) before being used for the saturations to preserve natural conditions. The detailed methodology adopted to prepare the samples is discussed in Ranathunga, Perera, Ranjith and Bui [16].

Physical Property	Brown Coal [16]	Black Coal [15]
Coal density (g/cm <sup>3</sup> )	1.04-1.1	1.4–1.9
Moisture content (% wb) <sup>1</sup>	57–66	1–5
Fixed carbon (% db) <sup>1</sup>	48	60-71
Ash yield (% db) <sup>1</sup>	1.7	6–12
Volatile matter content (% db) $^1$	50.3	10-25
Vitrinite reflectance (%)	0.0–0.4 <sup>2</sup>	1.1–1.5 <sup>2</sup>

**Table 2.** Physical properties of Victorian brown coal and Southern Sydney basin bituminous coal used for the study.

<sup>1</sup> wb-wet basis, db-dry basis; <sup>2</sup> From Silva [24].

### 6.3.2.2. Samples Preparation for Testing

The procedures implemented for water and N<sub>2</sub> saturations are explained in the following sections.

### a. Water Saturation

Three coal samples from each rank were saturated in water for approximately three weeks to allow full water saturation. The samples were placed in vacuum chambers (Figure 1a) and the weight of the coal samples was recorded before placing them into the saturation chamber. The weight was then checked over time for around three weeks until the weight reached a steady state. The samples were then wrapped well with plastic wraps and stored in the fog room for another two weeks to allow an equal distribution of moisture throughout the sample before testing.



Figure 1. Coal samples in (a) water saturation chamber and (b) N<sub>2</sub> saturation chamber.

### b. N<sub>2</sub> Saturation

During the study by Perera, Ranjith and Viete [15], the black coal samples were saturated under two different N<sub>2</sub> pressures (8 and 16 MPa) using a high pressure tri-axial test rig (see Figure 1b) to compare the observations of CO<sub>2</sub> saturated samples. Unlike CO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub> is a comparatively inert gas, which does not cause any significant coal matrix re-arrangement through chemical interactions with the coal mass [23,26]. For this study, brown coal samples were saturated under three different saturation pressures (2, 6 and 8 MPa) using a similar procedure to that reported in Perera, Ranjith and Viete [15]. Further, black coal samples were saturated under two other different saturation pressures (2 and 6 MPa) additional to those used in the study of Perera, Ranjith and Viete [15] for comparison purposes. Here the samples were saturated under 35 °C temperature to provide similar conditions to those used for CO<sub>2</sub> saturation in Ranathunga, Perera, Ranjith and Bui [16] and Perera, Ranjith and Viete [15]. It should be noted that upon the completion of each saturation, the pressure cell was depressurized gradually at a quite slow rate of around 0.02 MPa/min to avoid any possible damage to the coal mass caused by the sudden pressure release.

### 6.3.2.3. Experimental Procedure

The following sections summarize the experimental methodology adopted for the testing.

### a. Unconfined Compressive Strength (UCS) Tests

A series of UCS tests was performed on the coal samples using the Shimadzu compression machine available in the Deep Earth Energy Research Laboratory (DEERL) at Monash University. A displacement rate of 0.1 mm/min [27] was applied for the uniaxial compressive tests of the coal samples and the corresponding load and displacement were recorded.

### b. Acoustic Emission (AE) Tests

An advanced acoustic emission (AE) system was used to observe the fracture propagation patterns of the tested brown and black coal samples during the UCS testing. Two AE sensors attached at either side of the specimen were used to capture the acoustic counts during the load application. These AE data were used to characterize the crack propagation stages and to obtain the stress threshold values for each condition.

c. Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) Analysis

High-resolution SEM images were also taken of the coal samples under unsaturated, water-saturated, N<sub>2</sub>-saturated and CO<sub>2</sub>-saturated conditions. The scanning was carried out with 4.5 spot size under 15 kV voltage while maintaining a low vacuum mode using the FEI Quanta 3D FEG FIB machine located at the Monash Centre for Electron Microscopy (MCEM), thus providing a fixed resolution of 2 microns for the qualitative analysis of all images. The complete procedure adopted for SEM analysis is detailed in Ranathunga, Perera, Ranjith and Bui [16].

### 6.3.3. Experimental Results and Discussion

Axial stress-strains and AE responses were tested for brown and black coal samples under different fluid saturation conditions. The highest UCS values were used to represent the different test conditions for discussion purposes, as the variation of experimental values was minimal. In addition, SEM images were also incorporated to show the micro-structural changes in the coal matrix under different fluid saturations. The following sections discuss and compare how the different coal types behave under the saturation of various fluids.

### 6.3.3.1. Effect of Coal Rank on Water Saturation Effect on Geomechanical Properties in Coal

Figure 2 shows the variation of axial stress with axial strain for water-saturated brown and black coal samples. According to Figure 2 and Table 3, brown coal exhibits a UCS value of 2.04 MPa and a Young's modulus value of 35.46 MPa after water saturation, which represent around a 14.64% reduction of UCS and a 16.21% reduction of Young's modulus compared to the unsaturated brown coal samples. Black coal exhibits a UCS of 21.01 MPa and Young's modulus of 2.24 GPa after water saturation (refer Table 3), which represents around 36.33% reduction in UCS and a 39.46% reduction in Young's modulus compared to the unsaturated black coal samples. Both black and brown coal show a similar behavior for water saturation; there is a considerable reduction in their mechanical properties with water saturation. The major reason for this water saturation-induced strength reduction is the softening of the rock mass bond structure [19] and the ability of moisture inside the rock mass to decrease the surface energy [28]. Furthermore, moisture in a rock mass can cause its toughness to be increased [29], by enhancing the ductile behavior, resulting in a lower Young's modulus.



Figure 2. Axial stress vs. axial strain curves for brown coal and black coal during water saturation.

Saturation	Pressure		Brown Coal			Black Coal			
Fluid	(MPa)	UCS (MPa)	ΔUCS (%) <sup>3</sup>	E (MPa)	ΔE (%) <sup>3</sup>	UCS (MPa)	ΔUCS (%) <sup>3</sup>	E (GPa)	ΔE (%) <sup>3</sup>
	-	2.39 <sup>1</sup>	-	42.32 <sup>1</sup>	-	31.01 <sup>2</sup>	-	3.52 <sup>2</sup>	-
Unsaturated	-	$2.34^{1}$	-	39.32 <sup>1</sup>	-	33.00 <sup>2</sup>	-	3.70 <sup>2</sup>	-
	-	2.36 <sup>1</sup>	-	42.16 <sup>1</sup>	-	-	-	-	-
	-	2.07	-14.64	35.46	-16.21	21.01	-36.33	2.24	-39.46
Water	-	2.01		35.17		20.89		2.14	
	-	2.05		35.28		20.94		2.20	
	2	2.43	1.58	42.52	0.47	33.39	1.18	3.71	0.27
	2	2.39		41.97		32.17		3.54	
	6	2.51	5.05	43.08	1.80	33.76	2.30	3.76	1.62
NT	6	2.48		43.01		32.89		3.64	
$N_2$	8	2.57	7.56	44.28	4.63	34.01 <sup>2</sup>	3.06	3.80 <sup>2</sup>	2.70
	8	2.54		44.16		33.20 <sup>2</sup>		3.71 <sup>2</sup>	
	16	-	-	-	-	35.11 <sup>2</sup>	6.39	3.91 <sup>2</sup>	5.68
	16					33.30 <sup>2</sup>		3.71 <sup>2</sup>	

**Table 3.** Unconfined compressive strength (UCS) and Young's modulus (E) values obtained under various saturation conditions for brown coal and black coal.

<sup>1</sup> From Ranathunga, Perera, Ranjith and Bui [16]; <sup>2</sup> From Perera, Ranjith and Viete [15]; <sup>3</sup> The sample with the highest UCS value was taken to calculate the UCS and E variations.

Interestingly, compared to brown coal, black coal has around 2.5 times higher reduction in both UCS and Young's modulus. This significant mechanical property weakening in black coal has also been observed by Vishal, Ranjith and Singh [17] for Indian black coal (around 25.5% UCS reduction and 37.8% Young's modulus reduction upon water saturation). This is possibly due to the fact that black coal has more fractures and a well-developed cleat system that allow more intake of moisture into the coal mass. The water molecules can dissolve in the material and can be drawn to the tips of the fractures, causing more stress towards the fracture tips, resulting in their expansion [28]. Hence, black coal exhibits a higher strength reduction than brown coal, which has fewer fractures and under-developed cleats. These observations can be further confirmed by comparing the SEM images of unsaturated and water-saturated coal samples (see Table 4). Here, compared to unsaturated samples, both brown and black coals show altered micro structures after water saturation and these alterations are clearly greater in black coal.

Figure 3 compares the AE counts with axial stress for brown and black coals with and without water saturation. As shown in Figure 3, the unsaturated samples exhibit clear fracture propagation behavior with all the three main stages under load application compared to the water-saturated samples. A crack closure (CC) region can first be observed without any strain energy release. A stable crack propagation (SC) region can then be witnessed, at which crack propagation is initiated (crack initiation stress- $\sigma_{ci}$ ), releasing strain energy linearly without damaging the sample. Unstable crack propagation (UC) can finally be seen, which starts at the crack damage point ( $\sigma_{cd}$ ) and progresses until the sample fails (UCS) with an exponential increment in strain energy released.

However, in water-saturated coal samples, these three stages are not clearly visible. Brown coal (see Figure 3a) portrays only crack closure and then sample failure without any stable or unstable crack propagation. As discussed previously, moisture intake into the rock mass causes the fracture tips of the specimen to be weakened, which may result in failure without any crack propagation. However, stable and unstable crack propagation can be observed for water-saturated black coal before it undergoes failure. The reason may be the softer and weaker properties of brown coal compared to black coal that cause it to fail rapidly, with water saturation creating a softening effect.

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Average Coal Type Sample Appearance Under Different Test Conditions SEM Images <sup>3</sup> Pore Size Natural samples ~0.9 µm Brown coal Before failure <sup>1</sup> After failure <sup>1</sup> ~0.43 µm Black coal Before failure<sup>2</sup> After failure<sup>2</sup> Water-saturated samples  $\sim 0.34 \ \mu m$ Brown coal Before failure After failure ~0.12 µm Black coal Before failure After failure N<sub>2</sub> saturated samples ~0.62 µm Brown coal After saturation in 8 MPa  $N_2$   $\,$   $\,$  After saturation in 8 MPa  ${N_2}^2$ ~0.23 µm Black coal After failure<sup>2</sup> After failure

**Table 4.** Appearance of the brown and black coal samples under different fluid saturations before and after failure.

 $^1$  From Ranathunga, Perera, Ranjith and Bui [16];  $^2$  From Perera, Ranjith and Viete [15];  $^3$  viewed under a magnification of 17,500×, a working distance of 10 mm and a voltage of 15 kV.

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**Figure 3.** Cumulative acoustic counts *versus* axial stress for unsaturated and water saturated (**a**) brown coal and (**b**) black coal samples (Here CC-Crack closure, SC-Stable crack propagation and UC-Unstable crack propagation).

After water saturation, the brown coal samples were observed to have a very soft and bulgy appearance compared to the water-saturated black coal samples. Further, the water-saturated brown coal had a bulging failure and black coal exhibited a failure along the major and minor cleats (see Table 4). This is possibly because, due to the well-developed cleat system in high rank black coal compared to brown coal, water molecules have more possibility to move through these cleat systems and weaken the coal mass along them in black coal. In the case of brown coal, which has only a poorly developed cleat system, water molecules slowly diffuse into the whole rock matrix, weakening the coal matrix. Black coal shows more rapid crack propagation after water saturation, probably because the weaker cleat system allows fractures to easily propagate through the system. For example, the crack initiation stress for the unsaturated sample is 26.7 MPa while it is 6.74 MPa for the water-saturated sample. Furthermore, the crack damage occurred at 30.5 MPa for the unsaturated sample and at 17.15 MPa for the water-saturated sample (see Figure 3b). In summary, water saturation causes a strength reduction in any coal regardless of rank. However, high rank coal exhibits a greater strength reduction than low rank coal with water saturation, mainly due to the mature fracture network, which easily attracts water molecules. In addition, water saturation causes a direct failure in low rank brown coal (without fracture propagation) compared to high rank coal, which exhibits more rapid fracture propagation after water saturation compared to its dry condition.

### 6.3.3.2. Rank Effect on N<sub>2</sub> Saturation-Created Geomechanical Alterations in Coal

The effects of  $N_2$  saturation on brown and black coal's mechanical properties were then investigated and the results are shown in Figure 4 and Table 3. According to Figure 4, unlike in water saturation,  $N_2$  saturation causes a slight increment in coal strength for both brown and black coal, and the strength gain is increased by increasing  $N_2$  saturation pressure. The reason may be the ability of  $N_2$  to push the existing moisture from the coal mass. This was evident by the calculated weight variation in the  $N_2$ -saturated samples, which was reduced by around 5% to 19% during the saturation period. As mentioned in the previous section, moisture in a coal mass causes its structure to be weakened, and the removal of moisture from the rock mass should therefore cause a strength gain.





**Figure 4.** (a) Compressive strength (UCS) and (b) Young's modulus (E) increment during N<sub>2</sub> saturation for brown and black coal.

Further, according to Table 3, the Young's modulus of both brown coal and black coal slightly increase after  $N_2$  saturation, and this is also related to the moisture removing potential of the  $N_2$  molecules. As described earlier, the existence of water causes the ductile properties of the coal mass to improve. Therefore, the removal of water should improve the brittle behavior, which is proven by the observed Young's modulus increment in both brown and black coal after  $N_2$  saturation. Further, at higher  $N_2$  saturation pressures, the amount of  $N_2$  molecules that enter the coal mass is higher. Therefore, the removal of moisture from the sample is also higher, which causes greater strength gains. Apart from this moisture release,  $N_2$  injection may also cause the release of some adsorbed phase gases such as methane and  $CO_2$  from the coal matrix [22]. The adsorption of any of these coal seam gases ( $CH_4$ ,  $CO_2$ ) causes the coal matrix to swell and injecting  $N_2$  causes these swelled areas to recover to some extent. Coal swelling causes its strength to be reduced, and therefore even the partial recovery of swelling by injecting  $N_2$  should contribute to the enhancement of the strength of the coal mass.

The aim of this study is to identify the effect of coal rank on these coal mass mechanical property alterations under various fluid injections. According to Figure 4, the N<sub>2</sub> saturation-created strength gain in brown coal samples is greater than the strength gain in black coal after N<sub>2</sub> saturation (see Figure 4). For example, the UCS shows a 1.216 positive gradient for brown coal and a 0.338 positive gradient for black coal with N<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure, while Young's modulus shows a 0.801 and 0.424 positive gradient with N<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure for brown and black coals, respectively. This is mainly related to the available moisture in black and brown coals. According to Table 2, the moisture content in brown coal (average 62%) is much higher than in black coal (average 3%). The amount of moisture removed from the coal mass by introducing N<sub>2</sub> is therefore higher in brown coal, and this should cause a greater strength gain in brown coal than in black coal. According to the SEM images of 8 MPa N<sub>2</sub> saturated brown and black coal samples (see Table 4), brown coal exhibits a clearer micro pore structure compared to black coal after water saturation, probably due to the water removed from the pore space. The SEM image of N<sub>2</sub> saturated black coal shows some open pore spaces compared to the unsaturated black coal, possibly due to the moisture removed from the coal matrix. This proves the strength gains observed for N<sub>2</sub> saturated black and brown coal.

The AE analysis data for  $N_2$  saturation, unlike water saturation, shows considerable delays in crack initiation to crack damage (stable crack propagation) for both high and low rank coals (see Table 4). For instance, 8 MPa  $N_2$  saturation caused the stable crack propagation in brown coal to increase from around 0.41 MPa to 0.6 MPa and in black coal from around 2.68 MPa to 3.8 MPa. This may be due to the lower water content in the  $N_2$  saturated sample. An increase of surface energy

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may take place with the water removal from the  $N_2$  saturated coal samples, eventually causing a delay in crack propagation. Interestingly, a comparison of the stress threshold values of  $N_2$  saturated brown and black coal shows that both display very similar behavior, as shown by the UCS and Young's modulus results, which show an increment with increasing  $N_2$  saturation pressure, and a greater increment for brown coal compared to black coal. The previously mentioned moisture removal rate is the reason for this observation, further confirming the ability of  $N_2$  to cause strength gain in the coal mass. Hence, it can be concluded that  $N_2$  has the ability to slightly enhance the strength properties of coal and this ability is higher for low rank coal.

### 6.3.3.3. How Significant is Water and $N_2$ Saturation on Coal Strength Compared to That of $CO_2$

Coal generally has a mixture of pore fluid, composed of water, N<sub>2</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> and their composition can be changed with various applications such as CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and N<sub>2</sub> injection for ECBM recovery. It is therefore necessary to have comprehensive knowledge of the relative effect created by each component. Particularly in the case of  $CO_2$  sequestration, knowledge of the effects of other fluid saturations compared to CO<sub>2</sub> saturation is necessary to have an overall idea of coal mass strength in this process. In addition, such a comparative study is essential for various ranked coals to determine the effects of these processes on coal seam. In this respect, Perera et al. [24] conducted a series of strength tests to compare the influence of water and  $N_2$  saturation with that of CO<sub>2</sub> saturation. However, they conducted this series of strength tests on coal samples saturated under only very low pressure conditions (up to 3 MPa). These are far from the real situation in the field, in which quite high injection pressures of CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> are used and the natural water is under very high pore fluid pressures. Therefore, the conduct of a comparative study with greater and more realistic saturation pressures is necessary to understand field conditions, while also incorporating other possible influences such as the  $CO_2$  phase effect. Further, a study of different ranked coal is necessary to identify how these influences vary from seam to seam or with coal maturity. This section therefore compares the findings of the present study with those of previous studies on the effect of CO<sub>2</sub> saturation on low ranked brown coal [16] and high-ranked black coal [15].

### a. Comparison of Variation of Coal's Mechanical Properties

Figure 5 compares the UCS and Young's modulus of CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> saturated brown and black coals. According to this figure, there is a clear strength reduction with CO2 adsorption and in contrast a strength gain with N<sub>2</sub> adsorption regardless of rank, and both types of strength property alterations are enhanced with increasing saturation pressure. However, when comparing brown and black coals, greater reductions in UCS and Young's modulus with CO<sub>2</sub> saturation in black coal can be seen, due to its well-defined cleat system. In contrast, a lower strength gain under N2 saturation in black coal can be seen due to the previously described lower moisture content of high rank coal. The influence of N<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> saturation on coal mechanical properties varies greatly under high saturation pressure conditions. For example, the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced strength reduction in both black and brown coals is significantly enhanced after around 8 MPa, with the phase variation of  $CO_2$  from sub- to more chemically reactive super-critical conditions (see Figure 5). This change cannot be seen in N<sub>2</sub> saturation with increasing pressure (a more linear variation with saturation pressure can be seen), because the  $N_2$ phase does not change under such conditions (for  $N_2$  the critical temperature is -146.8 °C and the critical pressure is 3.39 MPa) [23]. This is particularly important for field projects, in which coal seams are under very high saturation pressures and temperatures, and completely different responses to CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> injections into the seam should be expected.

Now if the water saturation and  $CO_2$  saturation effect on coal strength are compared, quite similar behavior can be observed, as both cause the coal mechanical properties to be weaken, with black coal being subjected to more weakening than brown coal due to its cleat system. However, how the water saturation effect varies with saturation pressure could not be tested in the present study. This would give important information on the pressure effect on water softening and warrants future research.

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**Figure 5.** Comparison of (**a**) UCS and (**b**) Young's modulus variation with CO<sub>2</sub> [15,16] and N<sub>2</sub> saturation of brown coal and black coal.

### b. Comparison of Fracture Propagation

Figure 6 shows the variation of normalized stress threshold values and Table 5 displays the respective stress threshold values for brown and black coal saturated with CO<sub>2</sub> [15] and N<sub>2</sub> [16]. Here, the values have been normalized by dividing each stress value by the respective stress threshold value under unsaturated condition. According to the AE data, (see Figure 6 and Table 5), unlike in  $N_2$ saturation, CO<sub>2</sub> saturation causes quicker crack initiation and crack damage in both high and low rank coals, probably due to the reduced surface energy with  $CO_2$  adsorption [24]. For instance, at around 4 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> saturation, there is around 0.74 MPa normalized crack initiation stress for brown coal and around 0.51 MPa crack initiation stress for black coal (around 4.5 MPa saturation pressure in black coal). Further, when comparing the stress threshold values in CO<sub>2</sub> saturated brown and black coal, both display very similar behavior in terms of UCS and Young's modulus (see Table 5), and a reducing stress threshold trend with increasing CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure, the reduction being greater for black coal than brown coal (see Figure 6). The well-developed cleat system in black coal compared to brown coal might be the reason for this observation. Further, for super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> saturations, black coal exhibits crack propagation without any crack initiation (see Figure 6a), probably due to the enhanced ductile behavior of samples under super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption, which causes higher plasticization in the coal mass. In addition, crack propagation in N2 saturation also displays a similar behavior with the variation of strength parameters, which shows an increment in stress threshold with increasing N<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure, the increment being greater for brown coal due to greater moisture removal. Based on these crack propagation changes which occur with  $CO_2$  and  $N_2$  saturations, the use of  $N_2$  to recover the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced coal matrix alteration appears to be an effective option.

In relation to crack propagation in water- and  $CO_2$ -saturated samples, both show more rapid crack propagation (see Table 5) compared to N<sub>2</sub> saturation, and particularly in water-saturated sampled, crack initiation is not even visible (see Figure 6 and Table 5). In the case of  $CO_2$  saturation,  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling causes a strain layer to be generated between the adsorbed  $CO_2$  and the fracture/cleat face [9,11]. Hence, with lower axial load applications, this weak layer possibly starts to break, causing rapid crack propagation [30]. During water saturation, the water (H<sub>2</sub>O) molecules react with mineral/macerals and also create hydrogen bonds with the existing moisture in the coal mass [17], which results in structural rearrangements. Further, an expansion of fracture tips may occur due to the water molecule-induced internal stress increment [24], therefore initiating an early failure without any visible crack propagation.

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**Figure 6.** Variation of normalized stress threshold values: (a) crack initiation stress, (b) crack damage stress, and (c) failure stress during different  $CO_2$  saturations for brown coal and black coal; and (d) crack initiation stress, (e) crack damage stress, and (f) failure stress during different  $N_2$  saturations for brown coal and black coal (here the stress threshold values were normalized by dividing by the respective stress threshold value for unsaturated sample).

**Table 5.** Stress threshold values obtained under various saturation conditions for brown coal and black coal.

	Saturation	Brown Coal			Black Coal			
Saturation Fluid	Pressure (MPa)	$\begin{array}{ccc} Crack \mbox{ Initiation} & Crack \mbox{ Damage} & UCS\\ Stress (\sigma_{ci}, MPa) & Stress (\sigma_{cd}, MPa) & (MPa) \end{array}$		UCS (MPa)	Crack Initiation Stress (σ <sub>ci</sub> , MPa)	Crack Damage Stress (σ <sub>cd</sub> , MPa)	UCS (MPa)	
Unsaturated	-	1.01 1	1.42 <sup>1</sup>	2.39 <sup>1</sup>	26.70 <sup>2</sup>	30.50 <sup>2</sup>	33.00 <sup>2</sup>	
Water	-	-	-	2.06	-	17.15	20.94	
	2	1.14	1.57	2.43	27.10	29.38	33.39	
N	6	1.24	1.79	2.51	27.53	30.43	33.76	
1N2	8	1.32	1.92	2.57	28.10 <sup>2</sup>	31.90 <sup>2</sup>	34.01 <sup>2</sup>	
	16	-	-	-	30.14 <sup>2</sup>	32.16 <sup>2</sup>	35.11 <sup>2</sup>	

<sup>1</sup> From Ranathunga, Perera, Ranjith and Bui [16]; <sup>2</sup> From Perera, Ranjith and Viete [15].

### 6.3.4. Conclusions and Suggestions for Future Research

### 6.3.4.1. Conclusions Drawn from the Present Study

The influence of coal rank on various fluid saturation-induced coal mechanical properties changes was studied using low rank (Australian brown coal) and high rank (Australian black coal) coal samples. The following conclusions can be drawn:

- Water saturation causes a significant strength reduction in coal regardless of rank, because the moisture penetrating into the coal mass causes its fractures to expand, decreasing the surface energy of the coal mass, and eventually causing the strength to be reduced.
- This strength reduction is enhanced with increasing coal rank due to the well-developed cleats in mature coal which offer more loci for moisture to stay in the coal mass.
- The enhanced ductile nature of coal upon water adsorption delays crack initiation, regardless of rank. It is therefore necessary to have a lot of low injection pressure for coal seams with a greater degree of water saturation in terms of safety.
- In contrast to water saturation, N<sub>2</sub> saturation slightly enhances coal strength, regardless of rank, and this increment increases with increasing N<sub>2</sub> saturation pressures. This is possibly due to the ability of N<sub>2</sub> to partially recover the coal seam gas (methane, CO<sub>2</sub>) adsorbed swelled areas and push out the adsorbed water from the coal mass.
- N<sub>2</sub> saturation significantly slows crack initiation and propagation in coal regardless of rank. This is a favorable feature in terms of long-term stability in coal seams and can be used to strengthen weak seams after CO<sub>2</sub> injection.
- The strength gain created by N<sub>2</sub> saturation reduces with increasing rank, probably due to the lower level of moisture stored in high rank coal.
- The variation of mechanical properties of coal upon CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> saturations shows quite different responses to increasing saturation pressure, as the CO<sub>2</sub> phase condition may change from sub- to super-critical under greater pressures. In contrast, N<sub>2</sub> does not undergo such phase change with increasing pressure, due to its much lower critical conditions.
- The present study was conducted under 35 °C temperature (N<sub>2</sub> saturation) up to 8 MPa saturation pressure, which represents a pore pressure condition of an approximately 800 m deep coal seam [31]. As the study was conducted in an unconfined environment, the observed strength variations are expected to be lower in a confined environment under field conditions, because the confinement causes greater effective stress in the field, leading to a shrunken pore structure in coal seams with reduced gas flow performance through them.

### 6.3.4.2. Suggestions for Future Research

- Methane is one of the major components in coal seam gas that plays an important role in the overall mechanical response of the coal mass. Hence, to understand the overall influence of coal seam gas on coal's mechanical properties, future research is needed on methane saturation under various pressures for different rank coals.
- It is recommended to conduct further research on coal mass mechanical behavior under confinements for different saturation conditions to represent the real case scenarios existing in the field, where the coal mass has been exposed to lithostatic pressure conditions.
- The water saturation effect of the present study was conducted under atmospheric pressure conditions due to the unavailability of the necessary laboratory facilities. However, it is essential to investigate the water saturation effect under different pressure conditions, so that it can be clearly compared with the different pressure effects of N<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub>. This is a future research option.
- As found in the present study, coal mass mechanical behavior under various saturations varies with different coal types. However, the results of this study need to be generalized by testing various ranked coal samples taken from various coal basins around the world. Future experimentation is therefore recommended using a wider range of coal specimens taken from different basins in the world with diverse cleat structures and mineral compositions, in order to obtain better insight into the observed strength variations.

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**Author Contributions:** Ashani Savinda Ranathunga performed the experiments, analyzed the data, and prepared the draft manuscript. Mandadige Samintha Anne Perera mentored the experimental program and reviewed the draft. Ranjith Pathegama Gamage reviewed the final paper and made important suggestions and recommendations for paper revision.

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### Abbreviations

The following abbreviations are used in this manuscript:

Acoustic emission
Crack closure
Methane
Carbon dioxide
Dry basis
Young's modulus
Enhanced coal bed methane recovery
Monash Center of Electron Microscopy
Nitrogen
Stable crack propagation
Scanning electron microscopy
Unstable crack propagation
Unconfined compressive strength
Wet basis
Crack damage stress
Crack initiation stress

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# 6.4 How does the influence of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption on coal mechanical properties vary under confining pressure and various fluid saturation times?

In the various strength studies conducted regarding the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM process, very little attention has been paid to the geo-mechanical property alterations in coal seams during CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption under in-situ stress conditions which represent actual field conditions. As discussed in Chapter 2, coal seam depth or the confining pressure is an important factor affecting CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced coal matrix changes which may induce less matrix rearrangement, due to the higher confinement, resulting in higher tortuosity and consequently lower flow rate through the coal mass. This behaviour may lead to less strength variation at greater depths or in in-situ conditions compared to the unconfined conditions reported in Section 6.2. Therefore, this study aimed to determine how coal seam integrity varies with the introduction of  $CO_2$  under in-situ stress conditions, by conducting a series of tri-axial strength tests on Australian brown coal samples from the Gippsland basin.

The effect of  $CO_2$  exposure time on coal's mechanical properties was also investigated under super-critical  $CO_2$  saturation conditions, in order to determine the effect of long-term  $CO_2$ injection on coal seam mechanical properties, as  $CO_2$ -ECBM is a long-term process. Brown coal was used to conduct the experiments and it was saturated for 3, 6, 9 and 12 months to study the time effect. Further, micro-structural changes in the specimens were observed at different durations of  $CO_2$  saturation to better relate the observed strength properties.

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## Influence of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption on the strength and elastic modulus of low rank Australian coal under confining pressure



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#### ABSTRACT

Precise knowledge of changes in the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced mechanical properties of deep coal seams is necessary for the safe and successful implementation of carbon dioxide-enhanced coal bed methane (CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM) recovery. To date, little attention has been paid to the geo-mechanical property alterations in coal seams during CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption under in-situ stress conditions. The aim of this study is therefore to discover how coal seam integrity varies with the introduction of CO<sub>2</sub> under in-situ stress conditions, by conducting a series of tri-axial strength tests of Australian brown coal samples. The effect of CO<sub>2</sub> exposure time on coal's mechanical properties was also investigated under super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> saturation (10 MPa) conditions, in order to determine the effect of long-term CO<sub>2</sub> injection on coal seams' mechanical properties, as CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM is a long-term process.

According to the test results, irrespective of coal rank, the strength reduction in coal with CO<sub>2</sub> injection under field conditions is significantly less than would be expected based on simple laboratory testing such as uniaxial tests. However, in any stress environment, high rank coals are subjected to greater strength and stiffness reductions with CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption than low rank coals, due to their well-developed cleat system, and the injection of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> induces greater mechanical property alterations in coal than sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injection. These strength and elastic modulus changes in coal with CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption can be presented using a simple Langmuirtype equation, regardless of rank. Furthermore, the observation of the effect of long-term CO<sub>2</sub> saturation on coal's mechanical properties revealed that, although CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced mechanical property alterations in coal are mostly completed with the first interaction with CO<sub>2</sub>, further structural re-arrangement may occur at a slower rate over time.

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#### 6.4.1. Introduction

Enhanced coal bed methane (ECBM) recovery is a coal bed methane (CBM) production stimulation technique that provides benefits for atmospheric carbon dioxide ( $CO_2$ ) mitigation. The ECBM process involves the capture of  $CO_2$  and its injection into un-mineable coal seams, which displaces the CH<sub>4</sub> formed during the coalification process in the seam, which can then be captured and utilised as an energy source. However, swelling of the coal matrix in the presence of  $CO_2$  is a primary issue in the  $CO_2$  sequestration and ECBM recovery process in deep coal seams (Hol and Spiers, 2012; Masoudian, 2016; Nikoosokhan et al., 2014; Vandamme et al., 2010; White et al., 2005), because it reduces the overall strength of the seam (Ates and Barron, 1988; Aziz and Ming-Li, 1999; Wang et al., 2013a; White et al., 2005). This mechanical degradation of the coal seam may greatly affect the seam's integrity, particularly in the

http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.coal.2016.08.027 0166-5162/© 2016 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved. presence of geological structures like deformed zones of strike-slip, faults, reverse and thrust (Wang et al., 2013a), by expanding the damaged zones. Further, Viete and Ranjith (2006) (for low rank coal) and Wang et al. (2013a) (for high rank coal) found an accelerated flow behaviour of  $CO_2$  through weakened coal specimens upon  $CO_2$  adsorption due to micro fracture formation under regional and localised in situ stresses. Hence, the combined effect created by coal strength reduction and flow acceleration pose a great threat of  $CO_2$  back-migration into the atmosphere, rendering storage efforts ineffective. For example, the storage of substantial amounts of high pressure  $CO_2$  in a coal seam weakened by  $CO_2$  adsorption may result in adverse incidents, such as gas outburst, a sudden and violent failure of the seam with the release of huge quantities of gas and earth materials, even threatening the lives of people living in the area (Ates and Barron, 1988; Wang et al., 2013a).

In relation to the mechanism of the change in coal matrix strength with fluid adsorption, it should be noted that the coal matrix is not a rigid structure, but is a polymer-like network that readily undergoes volumetric changes with fluid injection (shrinkage and swelling), depending on various factors including adsorbing fluid type and phase (Nikoosokhan et al., 2014; Vandamme et al., 2010; White et al., 2005).

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Furthermore, the influence on the coal matrix of the adsorbing fluid is also dependent on the maturity of the seam or the coal's rank (Perera et al., 2016). Table 1 shows a summary of previous studies of the various factors affecting coal mass strength with the adsorption of different fluids. According to Table 1, water saturation creates a reduction in coal mass strength, while N2 saturation slightly enhances coal strength with the removal of moisture and other adsorbed gases from the coal mass. Furthermore, CO<sub>2</sub> causes a greater strength reduction in coal when it is in its super-critical state compared to the sub-critical state, and this reduction is higher for high rank coal than low rank coal (see Table 1). However, most of these studies have been conducted in uniaxial stress environments that do not represent coal mass behaviour under in-situ stress conditions in the field. This is because the mechanical property alterations in coal mass with CO<sub>2</sub> saturation are higher under uniaxial conditions, due to the absence of higher effective stress under field conditions. In order to account for this in-situ stress condition, it is therefore necessary to perform more reliable tests such as tri-axial tests for the strength performance evaluation of the coal matrix upon fluid injection. In one of the few studies on this subject, Viete and Ranjith (2006) found that the strength loss which occurs due to CO<sub>2</sub> saturation is minimal under tri-axial conditions compared to uniaxial conditions. At 2 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> saturated low rank coal samples showed around 6.25% strength reduction and 15.67% elastic modulus reduction (Perera et al., 2016) in uniaxial testing and insignificant mechanical property variation when the test was performed under tri-axial conditions by applying a 10 MPa confinement to similar 2 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> saturated low rank coal samples (Viete and Ranjith, 2006). However, Masoudian et al. (2014) observed up to 19% strength reductions and up to 20% elastic modulus reductions with sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> saturation (<5.5 MPa) in high rank coal samples under various confining pressures. To date, the effect of super-critical CO2 adsorption under tri-axial stress conditions has not been investigated, despite these being the actual in-situ conditions in the field. Further, many studies have been conducted on the mechanical property variation in high rank coal under various possible CO2 saturations and in-situ stresses (see Table 1) considering the wide application of high rank coal in CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and ECBM processes.

Table 1

Summary of research into factors affecting coal strength.

The infrequent existence of brown coal at sufficient depths for feasible  $CO_2$  sequestration has caused less attention being given to similar investigations for low rank coals such as brown coal. However, according to the Cooperative Research Centre for greenhouse gas technologies (CO2CRC) studies, there possibly exist brown coal storage sites in the offshore Gippsland basin at un-minable depths (400–800 m) (Hooper et al., 2005; Jasinge, 2010). Based on these possibilities, the present study was undertaken to find the storage and ECBM effectiveness of  $CO_2$  in brown coal under various stress environments.

Furthermore, current studies of coal mass strength changes with  $CO_2$  adsorption have been conducted within two to three weeks after the samples were saturated (Aziz and Ming-Li, 1999; Bagga et al., 2015; Masoudian et al., 2014; Ranathunga et al., 2016; Vishal et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2013b). However, with  $CO_2$ -ECBM projects, it is intended to sequestrate  $CO_2$  for a geologically significant period. The current observations on coal mass strength reductions for  $CO_2$  adsorption may therefore differ from the actual conditions in the field, and it is vital to investigate how coal mass strength reduction varies over time with  $CO_2$  injection. This was also considered in this study, which attempts to explore the effect of the saturation time of  $CO_2$  on low-ranked brown coal strength changes.

#### 6.4.2. Experimental methodology

### 6.4.2.1. Sample preparation

Low rank brown coal samples taken from the Hazelwood coal mine in the Latrobe Valley, Victoria, Australia were used for the present study. These samples had an average moisture content of 62% (on a wet basis), around 48% (on a dry basis) fixed carbon content, volatile matters of 50.3% (on a dry basis) (Ranathunga et al., 2016) and an average bulk density of 1.11 g/cm<sup>3</sup>. The samples used for the testing program were 38 mm in diameter and 76 mm in height, and Ranathunga et al. (2016) explain the detailed sample preparation procedure. Great care was taken to reduce the heterogeneity of the brown coal specimens, and the samples were taken from the same coal block.

Effective factors	Key findings		Type of tests	Reference
Saturated medium	Carbon dioxide	<ul> <li>CO<sub>2</sub> decreases coal strength as coal mass becomes weaker with the substitution of existing adsorbate CH<sub>4</sub> with the highly chemically potential CO<sub>2</sub></li> </ul>	Uniaxial	Aziz and Ming-Li (1999); Karacan (2007); Larsen (1997); Hol and Spiers (2012); Bagga et al. (2015)
	(CO <sub>2</sub> )	<ul> <li>Under tri-axial conditions strength loss due to CO<sub>2</sub> saturation is minimal compared to uniaxial conditions.</li> </ul>	Tri-axial	Viete and Ranjith (2006); Hol et al. (2012); Pan et al. (2010); Masoudian et al. (2014)
	Nitrogen (N <sub>2</sub> )	<ul> <li>N<sub>2</sub> displaces the natural moisture from the pore spaces in the coal, this dries the coal out and slightly increases its strength (up to 10%)</li> </ul>	Uniaxial	Perera et al. (2016)
		<ul> <li>No noticeable change in the strength compared to natural samples</li> </ul>	Tri-axial	Jasinge (2010)
	Methane (CH <sub>4</sub> )	<ul> <li>CH<sub>4</sub> desorption weakens coal mass due to reduction of the effective stress and crushing of coal due to the internal gas energy release controlled by gas pressure and content</li> </ul>	Tri-axial	Wang et al. (2013a)
	Water	<ul> <li>Water reduces the strength of coal (up to 30%) with the softening of the rock mass bond structure and the ability of moisture inside the rock mass to decrease the surface energy</li> </ul>	Uniaxial	Vishal et al. (2015)
		<ul> <li>Water saturation effect is negligible at any confining stress on both strength and elastic modulus</li> </ul>	Tri-axial	Masoudian et al. (2014)
Gas phase	Sub-critical	<ul> <li>High rank coal (around 26%) showed a comparatively higher reduction of strength and elastic modulus compared to low rank coal (around 20%).</li> </ul>	Uniaxial	Bagga et al. (2015); Vishal et al. (2015)
	2	<ul> <li>Up to 20% reduction of strength and up to 19% reduction of elastic modulus was</li> </ul>	Tri-axial	Masoudian (2016);
		observed for high rank coal		Wang et al. (2013b)
		<ul> <li>Increase in elastic modulus with increasing effective confining pressure</li> </ul>		
	Super-critical CO <sub>2</sub>	<ul> <li>Average reduction of uniaxial strength is around 59% for low rank coal while that for high rank coal is 71%</li> </ul>	Uniaxial	Hol and Spiers (2012); Perera et al. (2016)
		<ul> <li>Higher adsorption potential of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> results in greater coal matrix alter- ations causing higher strength reductions in coal structure</li> </ul>		
		<ul> <li>Around 10–20% reduction of bulk modulus was observed for high rank coal.</li> </ul>	Tri-axial	Pan et al. (2010)
Coal rank		<ul> <li>Compared low rank coal, high rank coal exhibits a higher reduction of strength and elastic modulus (from 0.5 to 1.75 times reduction).</li> </ul>	Uniaxial	Bagga et al. (2015); Vishal et al. (2015)
		<ul> <li>High rank coal (20%) showed a comparatively slightly higher reduction of strength and elastic modulus compared to low rank coal (17%)</li> </ul>	Tri-axial	Jasinge (2010); Masoudian et al. (2014)
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#### 6.4.2.2. Sample testing

Tri-axial tests were conducted on brown coal samples after saturating the specimens at 4.5, 5.5, 6.5, 7.5 and 8.5 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> pressures. Furthermore, unsaturated coal samples were also tested to compare the observations of the CO<sub>2</sub> saturated specimens. All the tests were conducted under 10 MPa confining pressure and 35 °C constant temperature. The 10 MPa confining pressure represents a coal specimen located at a depth of approximately 400 m, and the CO<sub>2</sub> pressures of 4.5, 5.5 and 6.5 MPa represent sub-critical conditions (less than the critical point of CO<sub>2</sub> – 7.38 MPa pressure and 31.8 °C temperature), while 7.5 and 8.5 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> pressure represent super-critical conditions (greater than the critical point of CO<sub>2</sub>).

#### a. Tri-axial strength tests

The high-pressure tri-axial test rig in the Monash University Deep Earth Energy Laboratory (see Fig. 1) was used to conduct the tri-axial tests on the brown coal samples. First the confining pressure (10 MPa) and temperature (35 °C) were applied to the coal specimen and then the respective  $CO_2$  flow (4.5, 5.5, 6.5, 7.5 and 8.5 MPa) was permeated through the sample (drained conditions). Once the flow of upstream and downstream became stable, the specimen was left for another 3 to 4 days to allow the  $CO_2$  to adsorb well into the sample. The load was then applied at a strain rate of 0.1 mm/min until failure. The tests were replicated 2 to 3 times to confirm the experimental observations. The load applied with axial strain was recorded using an advanced data acquisition system and the results were then analysed. The results for axial strain and tri-axial strength are displayed in Fig. 2.

#### b. CO<sub>2</sub> saturation to investigate long-term saturation effect

Brown coal samples which had been saturated with CO<sub>2</sub> at 10 MPa pressure and 35 °C (super-critical conditions) for 3, 6, 9 and 12 months were then tested to investigate how the mechanical properties of brown coal vary over the duration of CO<sub>2</sub> exposure. Here, 10 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> pressure was chosen, based on the results obtained by Ranathunga et al. (2016) for brown coal, which showed that the highest strength reduction occurs in brown coal when it has been saturated by 10 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> (see Table 1). Two to three samples for each duration (3, 6, 9 and 12 months) were saturated using high-pressure saturation chambers. After the saturated of 0.02 MPa/min to prevent possible damage to the physical structure of the coal specimen caused by sudden pressure changes. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was also employed to observe

the micro-structural changes in coal specimens over time to further clarify the coal matrix alterations. The detailed procedure used for  $CO_2$  saturation and the SEM study are explained in Ranathunga et al. (2016).

#### 6.4.3. Experimental results and discussion

During the present study, tri-axial tests were conducted for different  $CO_2$  saturated low rank coal samples and unsaturated coal samples for comparison, and the results are shown in Table 2. The stress-strain curves obtained for these coal specimens are shown in Fig. 2. In addition, coal samples were tested for different  $CO_2$  saturation periods (3, 6, 9 and 12 months), and the results are shown in Table 3. The following sections discuss how the coal mass mechanical properties (strength and elastic modulus) changed under the test conditions.

6.4.3.1. Coal mechanical property alterations with CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption under in-situ stress conditions

#### a. Strength of coal mass

According to Table 2, an average strength of 2.33  $\pm$  0.003 MPa (at a 95% level of confidence) could be seen in unsaturated coal specimens under 10 MPa confining pressure. As expected, CO<sub>2</sub> saturation causes a clear strength reduction in the tested low rank coal (see Table 2). For example, around 12.16% strength reduction can be seen for coal samples saturated with 8.5 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> (see Table 2). As stated by Gibbs (1878), CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption should theoretically reduce the surface energy of the coal mass (see Eq. (1)), as CO<sub>2</sub> has a higher chemical potential than the existing CH<sub>4</sub> in the coal mass.

$$\Delta \gamma = -\frac{RT}{MS} \int_0^P x \, d(\ln P) \tag{1}$$

where,  $\Delta\gamma$  is change in surface energy (J), *R* is universal gas constant (8.314 J/mol·K), *T* is temperature (K), *M* is molecular weight of CO<sub>2</sub> (g), *S* is surface area of coal (m<sup>2</sup>), *x* is the amount of adsorption (g [adsorbent]/g [coal]) and *P* is the CO<sub>2</sub> pressure (Pa).

Further, Griffith (1921) indicated that the tensile strength of a material required to form a new crack surface ( $\sigma$ ) is (see Eq. (2)):

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{2\gamma E}{\pi b}} \tag{2}$$

where, *E* is the elastic modulus of the material,  $\gamma$  is surface energy and *b* is the half length of the crack.



Fig. 1. High-pressure tri-axial test rig used for sample testing.

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Fig. 2. Stress vs. strain curves for (a) all the tested coal samples and (b) the samples with highest failure strength (here "PCO2" is the CO2 saturation pressure).

By combining Eqs. (1) and (2), the decrease in the tensile strength required to form a new crack surface during  $CO_2$  adsorption can be obtained, as shown in Eq. (3):

$$\Delta\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{2ERT}{MS} \left[ \int_0^P x \, d(\ln P) \right]}{\pi a} \tag{3}$$

According to Eq. (3), the higher the CO<sub>2</sub> pressure, the greater the reduction of the surface energy, leading to a lower tensile strength for crack formation and hence an overall strength reduction of the coal mass. Therefore, the observed strength reductions in the present study confirm the expected matrix rearrangement induced in coal with CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption. This strength reduction under tri-axial conditions has also been shown for high rank coal by Masoudian et al. (2014), according to whom the strength of Australian high rank coal (high volatile bituminous) can be reduced by up to around 20% by sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption (5.5 MPa). It is therefore clear that CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption causes the strength of coal to be considerably reduced, even under the in-situ stress environment in the field, regardless of the coal's rank.

However, the strength reduction observed under tri-axial conditions is much lower than the strength reductions observed by previous researchers under uniaxial conditions for CO<sub>2</sub> saturated coal. For example, Ranathunga et al. (2016) observed up to 21.25% and 57.50% uniaxial

Table 2

Experimental results obtained for different test conditions.

compressive strength (UCS) reductions in low rank Australian brown coal samples similar to those in the present study saturated by sub-critical  $CO_2$  (6 MPa) and super-critical  $CO_2$  (8 MPa). These reductions are much greater than the strength reductions observed in the present study for similar coal saturated under saturation conditions of 6.5 and 8.5 MPa and tested under tri-axial conditions (10.17% and 12.16%).

This observation may be due to both mechanical strengthening of coal mass with the application of higher in-situ stresses and the changes in CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption potential during the higher effective stresses, as explained in the following sections.

#### > Mechanical strengthening of coal

According to Gentzis et al. (2007), the Hoek-Brown failure criterion (see Eq. (4)) is a better representation of the coal strength than Mohr-Coulomb failure criterion:

$$\sigma_1' = \sigma_3' + \sigma_c \left(m \frac{\sigma_3'}{\sigma_c} + s\right)^a \tag{4}$$

where,  $\sigma'_1$  and  $\sigma'_3$  are major and minor effective principal stresses,  $\sigma_c$  is the uniaxial compressive strength of the intact rock and *m*, *s*, *a* are Hoek-Brown parameters.

Saturation condition	Differential stress/( $\sigma_1$ - $\sigma_3$ ) (S, MPa)	Average S (MPa) <sup>a</sup>	ΔS (%)	Elastic modulus (E, MPa)	Average E (MPa) <sup>a</sup>	ΔE (%)	Moisture content (%)
Natural	2.331	$2.330\pm0.003$	-	67.141	$67.125 \pm 0.379$	-	61.93
	2.327			66.783			62.41
	2.332			67.452			61.85
4.5 MPa CO <sub>2</sub>	2.150	$2.174 \pm 0.046$	6.71	60.597	$60.811 \pm 0.418$	9.41	62.77
	2.197			61.024			62.41
5.5 MPa CO <sub>2</sub>	2.104	$2.103 \pm 0.003$	9.76	59.495	$59.301 \pm 0.38$	11.66	62.10
	2.101			59.107			62.64
6.5 MPa CO <sub>2</sub>	2.087	$2.093 \pm 0.012$	10.17	57.975	$58.32 \pm 0.675$	13.12	62.53
	2.099			58.664			62.18
7.5 MPa CO <sub>2</sub>	2.068	$2.065 \pm 0.007$	11.39	57.713	$57.600 \pm 0.221$	14.19	62.22
	2.061			57.487			62.39
8.5 MPa CO <sub>2</sub>	2.047	$2.047 \pm 0.006$	12.16	57.451	$57.364 \pm 0.324$	14.54	62.53
	2.052			57.957			62.34
	2.041			57.044			62.79

<sup>a</sup> At 95% level of confidence.

 Table 3

 Unconfined compressive strength (UCS) and elastic modulus (E) values obtained under 10

 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> saturation for brown coal for different saturation periods.

Time (days)	UCS (MPa)	∆UCS (%)	$\Delta$ UCS compared to 21 days (%)	E (MPa)	ΔE (%)	∆E compared to 21 days (%)
0	2.40	0.00	-	41.60	0.00	-
21	0.99	58.75	0.00	23.42	43.70	0.00
90	0.91	62.08	8.08	22.89	44.98	2.26
180	0.87	63.75	12.12	22.07	46.95	5.76
270	0.82	65.83	17.17	21.59	48.10	7.81
365	0.74	69.17	25.25	20.93	49.69	10.63

As shown in Eq. (4), with the application of in situ stresses, the material is strengthened. Therefore, compared to uniaxial conditions, triaxial strength is higher. According to Masoudian et al. (2014), around 44% reduction of the Hoek-Brown parameter "m" for intact coal (14.263) compared to CO<sub>2</sub> treated coal (8.053) was observed. Therefore, CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption can affect the mechanical strengthening of the coal mass.

#### > CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption potential at higher effective stresses

After conducting a series of experiments to investigate the effect of applied stresses on the CO<sub>2</sub> sorption capacity of high volatile bituminous coal, Hol et al. (2011) found that the in situ stresses reduce the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacity of coal primarily and CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption induced coal matrix swelling will reduce the adsorption capacity secondarily. They developed a thermodynamic model to describe the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacity with effective stress (see Eq. (5)) as follows:

$$C_{\sigma} = \frac{C_{s}a_{f}Kexp\left(-\frac{\sigma_{e}\Omega_{a}}{kT}\right)}{1 + a_{f}Kexp\left(-\frac{\sigma_{e}\Omega_{a}}{kT}\right)}$$
(5)

where,  $C_{\sigma}$  is equilibrium concentration of adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub> (mol/kg),  $C_s$  is the number of potential adsorption sites per kg of coal (constant),  $a_f$  is the chemical activity of the free CO<sub>2</sub> at pressure P, K is the equilibrium constant for the adsorption reaction,  $\Omega_a$  is partial or effective molecular volume of CO<sub>2</sub> in the adsorbed state, k is the Boltzmann constant, T is temperature and  $\sigma_e$  is the hydrostatic effective stress.

According to Eq. (5), the effect of in-situ stresses on  $CO_2$  adsorption capacity is reduced with higher effective stress applications. The amount of adsorption (x, in Eq. (3)) is reduced at higher stress applications and ultimately increases the tensile strength required to form a crack in the coal mass (refer to Eq. (3)). Therefore, compared to uniaxial conditions, the expected strength reduction due to the  $CO_2$  adsorption is less under tri-axial conditions. Similarly, for high rank Australian black coal, Perera et al. (2013) observed around 53.9% strength reduction for 6 MPa (sub-critical)  $CO_2$  saturation, and the reduction was <20% under tri-axial conditions (Masoudian et al., 2014). Hence, it can be deduced that, irrespective of the coal rank, the actual strength reductions in deep coal seams with  $CO_2$  injection are much lower than the values obtained in uniaxial tests.

#### b. Stiffness of coal mass

The effect of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption under in-situ stress conditions on coal's elastic behaviour was then investigated by examining the corresponding elastic modulus changes. As shown in Table 2, the average elastic modulus (E) of unsaturated coal samples is  $67.125 \pm 0.379$  MPa (at a 95% level of confidence) under 10 MPa confining pressure. This elastic modulus value is reduced with increasing CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure, similar to the observations of coal strength (see Table 2). For example, there is around a 9.41% E reduction for 4.5 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> saturated samples while around a 14.54% E reduction in specimens saturated by 8.5 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> (see Table 2). The CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced plasticisation effect

(Karacan, 2007) is the main reason for these observed variations of elastic modulus. This plasticisation occurs due to the increment of segmental mobility induced in the polymer structure with  $CO_2$  dissolution, which has a softening effect on the coal mass. In addition, this process causes the coal polymer structure to be weakened. Hence, the expansion of the coal mass free volume with polymer structural rearrangement upon  $CO_2$  adsorption (Larsen et al., 1997) results in the enhancement of the ductile nature of coal's structure and this causes the observed E reduction. Similarly, Masoudian et al. (2014) discovered an overall reduction of 19% in E for high rank coal upon sub-critical  $CO_2$  saturation. A comparison of the findings of the present study with those of Masoudian et al. (2014) confirms the enhancement of coal ductile properties with  $CO_2$  adsorption, regardless of coal rank.

Similar to the strength results, the E reduction under tri-axial conditions is lower than those observed under uniaxial conditions with the adsorption of CO<sub>2</sub> into the coal mass. For instance, Ranathunga et al. (2016), observed a 40.12% E reduction for super-critical (8 MPa) CO<sub>2</sub> saturated low rank coal specimens, which is much greater than the E reduction observed under tri-axial conditions in the present study (14.54%) for similar low ranked coal. As explained in Section 3.1.a, due to higher in situ stresses, CO2 adsorption potential is reduced (refer to Eq. (5)), and hence the expected plasticisation effect is less compared to uniaxial conditions. In addition, the closure of fractures and pores under higher stress applications may result in an increase in the material stiffness (Corkum and Martin, 2007). Further, Gentzis et al. (2007) observed an increment in elastic modulus with confining pressure up to 5 MPa and then a constant value for the rest of confinements for bituminous coal (unsaturated). However, the micro-cracks created at higher loadings with different orientations and frequencies lead to an anisotropy in elastic modulus values (Szwilski, 1984). For CO<sub>2</sub> saturated coal (under 0.5 MPa), Wang et al. (2013b) found increasing elastic modulus with effective confining pressure. Therefore, the effect of in-situ stresses on elastic modulus variations observed with CO2 adsorption in terms of confinement shrinking warrants further research.

In addition, for high rank coal, Perera et al. (2013) observed around 42.43% elastic modulus reduction under 6 MPa (sub-critical) CO<sub>2</sub> saturation for Australian high rank coal under uniaxial stress conditions, and this is lower than the 19% under tri-axial conditions reported by Masoudian et al. (2014). Hence, according to the experimental results, a comparatively lower ductile enhancement can be expected under field conditions with CO<sub>2</sub> injection for any coal rank.

# c. Quantification of $\mathrm{CO}_2$ adsorption-induced mechanical property variations

An attempt was then made to mathematically relate the changes in  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced coal mechanical properties (strength and elastic modulus). Day et al. (2010), found that the amount of swelling in coal mass is directly related to the adsorption of gas into the coal matrix, and Masoudian et al. (2014) assumed that the strength reduction in coal has a Langmuir-type curve that can be successfully related to laboratory results using a mathematical relationship (Eq. (6)):

$$\Delta\sigma_{\rm CO_2} = \frac{\Delta\sigma_{\rm max}P_{\rm CO_2}}{P_{\rm CO_2} + P_{\sigma}} \tag{6}$$

where,  $\Delta\sigma_{co,}$  is the strength reduction due to CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption (MPa), P<sub>co</sub>, is the CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure (MPa), and  $\Delta\sigma_{max}$  and P<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> are curve fitting parameters.

Therefore, the strength of the CO<sub>2</sub> saturated coal ( $\sigma_{co_2}$ ) can be calculated as follows:

$$\sigma_{\rm CO_2} = \sigma_{intact} - \Delta \sigma_{\rm CO_2} \tag{7}$$

where,  $\sigma_{intact}$  is the strength of the intact coal sample.

Fig. 3 shows the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced strength reductions against the CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure curves and the curve fitting parameters. The

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Fig. 3. Strength reduction ( $\Delta\sigma_{co,}$ ) versus injection pressure and estimated parameters.

data obtained from the present study show that the relation proposed by Masoudian et al. (2014) is also valid for low-ranked coal. After a least square regression analysis (R<sup>2</sup> = 0.9497),  $\Delta\sigma_{max}$  was estimated as 0.9539 MPa and P<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> was estimated as 19.7923 MPa for Australian low-rank brown coal and  $\Delta\sigma_{max}$  = 14.59 MPa and P<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> = 1.307 MPa for Australian high-rank coal (Masoudian et al., 2014). This shows that the curve fitting parameters in Eq. (6) vary with the coal rank, similar to the Langmuir curve fitting parameters. Furthermore, the curve fitting parameters may also be dependent on the test conditions. Therefore, the testing of a much broader range of coal ranks under different stress environments is required to find a general relation for Eq. (6).

Similarly, the  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced elastic modulus reduction in coal can be given as Eqs. (8) and (9), following Masoudian et al. (2014):

$$\Delta E_{\rm CO_2} = \frac{\Delta E_{\rm max} P_{\rm CO_2}}{P_{\rm CO_2} + P_E} \tag{8}$$

where,  $\Delta E_{co_2}$  – is the elastic modulus reduction due to  $CO_2$  adsorption (MPa),  $P_{co_2}$  is  $CO_2$  saturation pressure (MPa), and  $\Delta E_{max}$  and  $P_E$  are curve fitting parameters.

Therefore, the elastic modulus of  $CO_2$  saturated coal specimens ( $E_{co_2}$ ) can be calculated as:

$$E_{CO_2} = E_{intact} - \Delta E_{CO_2} \tag{9}$$

where,  $E_{intact}$  is the strength of the intact coal sample.

Fig. 4 shows the E reduction due to CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption against CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure curves and the estimated values for the curve fitting parameters. After a least square regression analysis ( $R^2 = 0.986$ ),  $\Delta E_{max}$  was estimated as 22.457 MPa and  $P_E$  was estimated as 10.627 MPa. Masoudian et al. (2014) found the curve fitting parameters for E reduction to be  $\Delta E_{max} = 0.65$  GPa and  $P_E = 1.519$  MPa for high rank coal. Hence, as explained previously, these curve fitting parameters vary with coal rank and the molecular composition of coal. Finally, the predicted strength ( $\sigma_{co_2}$ ) variation and elastic modulus variation with the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption in low rank coal were calculated using Eqs. (6), (7), (8) and (9), and the results are shown in Fig. 5.

# 6.4.3.2. Factors affecting CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced mechanical property changes under in-situ stress conditions

As discussed previously, injecting  $CO_2$  properties and coal mass properties are the main factors affecting  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced mechanical property alterations in coal. These are discussed in the following section.



Fig. 4. Elastic modulus reduction  $(\Delta E)$  versus injection pressure and estimated parameters.

#### a. Effect of CO<sub>2</sub> phase and pressure

The effect of injecting CO<sub>2</sub> properties (phase and pressure) on changes in coal seams' mechanical properties under in-situ conditions was examined, and the results are shown in Fig. 6(a). According to the figure, super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> saturated (7.5 and 8.5 MPa) coal samples exhibit higher mechanical property alterations than sub-critical CO2 saturated (4.5, 5.5 and 6.5 MPa) samples. The inherent properties of supercritical CO2, including its ability to greatly enhance the solubility of coal's solid constituents by its higher density and greater chemical potential (Chikatamarla et al., 2004), cause it to act as a plasticizer within the coal mass, resulting in greater reductions in strength and stiffness (Masoudian, 2016). A similar CO<sub>2</sub> phase influence effect on coal strength has been reported in uniaxial stress environments (Perera et al., 2013). Therefore, it is clear that the coal mass is subjected to greater mechanical property reductions with super-critical CO2 adsorption than sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption in any stress environment, and therefore under any field conditions (for example, at any depth) (see Fig. 6(b)).

In relation to the CO<sub>2</sub> pressure effect, according to Table 2, the CO<sub>2</sub> induced strength and elastic modulus reductions in coal clearly increase with increasing CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure. For example, around 6.71% and 12.16% strength reductions and 9.41% and 14.54% elastic modulus reductions can be seen for coal samples saturated with 4.5 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> and 8.5 MPa CO<sub>2</sub>, respectively (see Table 2). This is because of the greater capacity of high-pressure CO<sub>2</sub> to attack the coal matrix than low pressure CO<sub>2</sub> (refer to Eq. (3)).



Fig. 5. Predicted strength  $(\sigma_i - \sigma_s)$  and elastic modulus (E) of brown coal based on the proposed models with CO<sub>2</sub> saturation.

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Fig. 6. Strength vs. elastic modulus plots for natural and CO<sub>2</sub> saturated samples tested under (a) tri-axial conditions and (b) uniaxial conditions (Ranathunga et al., 2016).

#### b. Effect of coal seam properties

The effect of coal seam properties (rank) on its mechanical property changes occur with  $CO_2$  injection under in-situ stress conditions was then examined by comparing the tri-axial test results of low rank coal in the present study with those of high rank coal in Masoudian et al. (2014). These values were obtained by the euqations developed to predict the strength and elastic modulus variation with  $CO_2$  adsorption in the present study (low rank coal) and by Masoudian et al. (2014) (high rank coal) and the results are shown in Fig. 7.

As shown in Fig. 7(a), a greater strength reduction occurs in high rank coal upon CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption compared with low rank coal in a triaxial stress environment. For example, 4 MPa sub-critical CO2 saturations cause around 0.16 MPa (around 7%) and 11 MPa (around 17%) strength reductions in low and high rank coals, respectively. Further, with 8 MPa super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> saturation, the coal mass is subjected to around 0.27 MPa (12%) and 12.54 MPa (around 28%) strength reduction in low and high rank coals, respectively. However, it should be noted that a 10 MPa confinement was used in the present study and a much lower (up to 5.5 MPa) confinement was used in Masoudian et al. (2014), which might also affect the greater strength reduction in high ranked coal observed in the tri-axial environment. However, Jasinge (2010) found around 6.84% strength reduction under 5 MPa confinement for 3 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> saturation in low rank coal similar to that in the present study, which is much lower than the 20% strength reduction in high rank coal under 5.5 MPa confinement and the 5.5 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure observed by Masoudian et al. (2014). Although the latter had a slightly higher confining pressure and CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure, the result indicates that high rank coal shows a greater strength reduction than low rank coal.

The effect of coal rank on coal elastic properties alterations upon CO2 adsorption was then considered and the results are shown in Fig. 7(b). According to this figure, 4 MPa sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> saturation causes around 6.14 MPa (around 9%) and 0.47 GPa (around 16%) elastic modulus reductions in low and high rank coals, respectively, and 8 MPa super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> saturation causes 9.64 MPa (14%) and 0.55 GPa (around 25%) for low rank and high rank coal, respectively. However, it should be noted that a 10 MPa confinement was used in the present study and a much lower (up to 5.5 MPa) confinement was used in Masoudian et al. (2014), which might also affect the observed greater strength reduction in high rank coal in the tri-axial environment. However, Jasinge (2010) observed around 5.44% elastic modulus reduction under 5 MPa confinement for 3 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> saturation compared to the 17% elastic modulus reduction observed in Masoudian et al. (2014) under 5.5 MPa confinement and 5.5 MPa  $\rm CO_2$  saturation pressure. This implies that, similar to strength reductions, E reductions due to CO2 adsorption under triaxial conditions also increase with increasing coal rank.

The reason is that the coal mass natural cleat system forms during the coalification process, and higher rank coal has a much more developed cleat system than lower ranked coal. The cleats act as loci for the  $CO_2$  adsorption process. Further, Hol and Spiers (2012), stated that coal seams with higher stiffness (high rank coal) reveal greater  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced swelling, which creates more structural alterations in



Fig. 7. Comparison of (a) strength reduction and (b) elastic modulus reduction due to CO<sub>2</sub> saturation of low rank coal and high rank coal (Masoudian et al., 2014) under tri-axial conditions.

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the coal matrix compared to coal with low stiffness (low rank). This greater reduction in mechanical properties in high rank coal compared to low rank coal in the uniaxial stress environment has been shown by Ranathunga et al. (2016), and the present study shows the applicability of this to real field situations in the presence of in-situ stresses.

# 6.4.3.3. Effect of time-dependent CO<sub>2</sub> saturation on geo-mechanical properties of coal

Based on the above observations, the adsorption of  $CO_2$  into any rank coal causes its mechanical properties, including strength and elastic modulus, to weaken in any stress environment (tri-axial or uniaxial). This is because  $CO_2$  adsorption causes a reduction in surface energy in coal by causing coal structure re-arrangement and swelling. However, one can expect the above phenomena to result in an increase of the magnitude of adsorption weakening of coal with longer  $CO_2$  exposure.

Jasinge (2010) conducted a series of uniaxial tests on Australian brown coal samples by saturating them at 1, 2 and 3 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> pressures for 1, 2, 3 and 4 days to investigate the effect of saturation time on coal strength. According to this study, 1 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injected brown coal exhibited 7.36%, 13.97% and 23.53% strength reduction for 2, 3 and 4 days saturation durations compared with 1 day saturation. In addition, an elastic modulus reduction of 13.97%, 30.63% and 31.9% was observed for the same 1 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> saturated brown coal samples for 2, 3 and 4 days saturation durations compared with 1 day saturation. These observations clearly show the effect of saturation time on the strength of the coal mass. Further, Bagga et al. (2015) conducted a series of uniaxial tests for Indian coal (83% carbon content) under 5 MPa constant CO2 pressure for 25 and 45 days. They observed around 41% and 65% strength reduction and around 23% and 30% reduction in elastic modulus for 25 and 45 days, respectively compared to unsaturated samples. However, these studies were conducted only for lower CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressures and small time durations, and therefore fail to represent the real case scenario of super-critical CO2 saturations over geologically significant time periods.

This was therefore considered next by investigating the effect of super-critical  $CO_2$  saturation (10 MPa) on the strength of the low-rank brown coal over time (see Table 3 and Fig. 8).  $CO_2$  saturation was

continued up to 365 days to determine how the post-saturation period affects the mechanical properties of brown coal.

#### 6.4.4. Conclusions

Changes in coal seam integrity with the introduction of  $CO_2$  were studied under both tri-axial and uniaxial environments using low ranked Australian brown coal. The following conclusions can be drawn:

- Coal strength is reduced with CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption, depending on the CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure and phase. For example, around 9% and 12% average strength reductions were observed in the tested brown coal for sub-critical (5.5 MPa) and super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> (8.5 MPa) saturations, respectively.
- Coal mass stiffness is also altered with CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption, leading to a similar reduction to that shown for coal mass strength. For example, an average elastic modulus reduction of 11% for sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> saturation (5.5 MPa) and 14.3% for super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> saturation (8.5 MPa) were seen in the tested brown coal.
- ➤ A greater strength reduction in coal with CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption occurs under uniaxial stress conditions than tri-axial stress conditions, due to both mechanical confinement and the reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption with enhanced effective stress conditions in the tri-axial stress environment.
- High rank coal exhibits greater strength and elastic modulus reductions than low rank coal in any stress environment, mainly due to the existing well-developed cleat system in high rank coal that offers more provisions for CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption.
- Although CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced coal matrix alterations are largely completed with the initial interaction with CO<sub>2</sub>, considerable further coal matrix re-arrangement may occur at a slower rate.

#### 6.4.5. Acknowledgements

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**Fig. 8.** Unconfined compressive strength (UCS) and elastic modulus (E) variation of brown coal samples for different durations with respect to (a) unsaturated sample and (b) 21 days of saturation. According to Table 3 and Fig. 8, the reduction of strength and elastic modulus with  $CO_2$  saturation are not completed by 21 days and further exposure to  $CO_2$  appears to cause further reduction, but at a slower rate. For example, after 21 days of saturation with  $CO_2$  at 10 MPa, the strength and elastic modulus were reduced by around 59% and 44% respectively (refer Table 3). These values were further reduced up to 70% (UCS) and 50% (E) after 365 days of saturation compared to the unsaturated sample (refer Table 3). This is valies that  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced coal matrix alterations largely occur with the first exposure to  $CO_2$ . Although it continues to rearrange the coal matrix by reducing the strength parameters over the contact period with  $CO_2$ , this latter stage strength reduction is much lower than the initial strength reduction. This is possibly due to the fact that coal matrix swelling starts quickly with  $CO_2$  injection and is largely completed within the first few days. Further, as discussed in Section 6.4.3.1.a above,  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling reduces the mechanical properties of coal mass with time. Therefore, changes in  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced strength properties also mainly occur in the initial  $CO_2$  injection period. This observation was confirmed by SEM analysis, the results of which are shown in Fig. 9. The SEM images show a relative reduction average pore size of the tested coal specimens after  $CO_2$  saturation, and the average pore sizes were taken by averaging the pore sizes of ten to twelve different SEM images of three different specimens for one condition. The greatest reduction of pore spaces was observed when the specime was saturated for 21 days with  $CO_2$  and were is a gradual reduction are effig. 9(b)). These observations imply that the enhancement of co

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(a)







Average pore size ~ 0.27 µm

(d)

Average pore size ~ 0.9 µm



Average pore size ~ 0.11 µm



Average pore size ~ 0.09 µm

Fig. 9. SEM images of brown coal samples with (a) unsaturated, (b) 21 days, (c) 90 days, (d) 180 days, (e) 270 days and (f) 365 days duration of CO<sub>2</sub> saturation (conditions used to obtain SEM images: scale – 2 µm, magnification – 17 k, probe current – 15 kV and spot size 4.5 under low vacuum).

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#### 6.5 Chapter summary

The main objective of this chapter was to investigate the influence of  $CO_2$  adsorption on the mechanical properties of brown coal. Various meso-scale experimental programs were conducted to observe the effect of different effective factors on coal mass strength with  $CO_2$ -ECBM and the major findings of the experiments are summarised below.

#### > How do CO<sub>2</sub> phase and pressure affect coal mass integrity?

After conducting a UCS testing program on brown coal for different  $CO_2$  pressures, it was found that sub-critical  $CO_2$  adsorption causes brown coal's mechanical properties to be significantly changed due to the associated coal matrix swelling. In comparison, super-critical  $CO_2$  adsorption causes significantly greater mechanical property alterations in brown coal with its greater adsorption potential-related ductile property enhancement compared to sub-critical  $CO_2$ . In addition,  $CO_2$  saturation in brown coal causes early stages of fracture development, due to its swelled and reduced surface energy after  $CO_2$  adsorption, and the effect is greater for super-critical  $CO_2$  adsorption.

#### > How do various fluid saturations alter the coal mass strength properties with coal rank?

Using Australian brown coal and Australian black coal samples, the influence of coal rank on various fluid saturation-induced coal mechanical properties changes was studied. According to the results, both water and CO<sub>2</sub> saturation cause a significant strength reduction in coal, regardless of rank. This strength reduction is heightened with increasing coal rank due to the well-developed cleats in mature coal which offer more loci for moisture to stay in the coal mass. In contrast to water and CO<sub>2</sub> saturation, N<sub>2</sub> saturation slightly enhances coal strength, regardless of rank, and this increment increases with increasing N<sub>2</sub> saturation pressures.

# ➢ How does the influence of CO₂ adsorption on coal mechanical properties vary under confining pressure and various fluid saturation times?

The following conclusions were drawn after conducting a series of tri-axial tests on brown coal to observe the changes in coal seam integrity with the introduction of  $CO_2$ . Both coal strength and stiffness are reduced with  $CO_2$  adsorption, which is higher for super-critical  $CO_2$  saturation than gaseous  $CO_2$  saturation. In addition, these strength and stiffness reductions due to  $CO_2$  adsorption can be represented by a Langmuir-type equation. A greater strength reduction in coal with  $CO_2$  adsorption occurs under uniaxial stress conditions than tri-axial stress conditions, due to both

mechanical confinement and the reduction of  $CO_2$  adsorption with enhanced effective stress conditions in the tri-axial stress environment. High rank coal exhibits greater reductions in strength and stiffness than low rank coal in any stress environment. According to the CO<sub>2</sub>-saturated strength tests conducted for various saturation time periods, although CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced coal matrix alterations are largely completed with the initial interaction with CO<sub>2</sub>, considerable further coal matrix re-arrangement may occur at a slower rate.

# PART 3 - CHAPTER 7

# Investigation of coal mechanical property variations during carbon dioxide sequestration using reconstituted coal

# **Publications included in Chapter 7**

Chapter 7 includes one paper. Details of the paper are as follows.

# Chapter 7.3

**Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG (2017). Key factors controlling coal's strength property alterations during CO<sub>2</sub> enhanced coal bed methane production: A numerical study. *Journal of Natural Gas Science and Engineering* (under review).

# 7. Investigation of coal mechanical property variations during carbon dioxide sequestration using reconstituted coal

# 7.1 Overview

As outlined in Chapter 2, the complexity associated with the heterogeneity of coal samples is the main hindrance to CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM studies. Several researchers have used reconstituted coal samples with reproducible material properties to overcome this problem. Therefore, several experiments and a numerical study were carried out using reconstituted brown coal samples to observe the expected coal matrix behaviours under loading as follows:

# Section 7.2 – How to overcome the effect of coal heterogeneity on the mechanical property variations in coal induced by different fluid saturations?

The main objective of this section is to investigate the effect of different fluid saturations on the mechanical properties of coal using reconstituted low rank brown coal samples. Powdered brown coal acquired from the Latrobe Valley basin was used to prepare the reconstituted samples. The prepared samples were then saturated in water, N<sub>2</sub> and both sub- and super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> and tested under unconfined conditions to check the influences of various saturations on coal's mechanical properties. Further, the micro-structural variations of the saturated samples were viewed using the X-ray CT facility.

The following conference paper was produced based on this section of the thesis:

**Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG, Haque RT (2016). An experimental study of the behaviour of reconstituted low rank coal under different fluid saturations, ISRM International Symposium and EUROCK 2016, Cappadocia, Turkey, 29-31 August, 2016; Paper no 166.

Under laboratory conditions, there are limitations in providing the required environmental conditions for the test specimens due to the limited capacities of the instruments or the extensive time-frames required to complete the experiments. Therefore, the observed influences of effective factors on coal mass mechanical properties were numerically modelled to extend the experimental results to the expected reservoir conditions. This is discussed in the following section.

# Section 7.3 – How do effective factors influence coal mass strength properties? A meso-scale numerical study using reconstituted coal

The COMSOL Multiphysics simulator was used to develop a meso-scale (laboratory-scale) numerical model to determine the mechanical property changes in brown coal samples during  $CO_2$  sequestration. First, a uniaxial model was developed using the results from Section 5.2, which was then extended to a tri-axial model. Finally, the model was used to predict the expected strength and elastic modulus variations in brown coal for various  $CO_2$  phases and pressures under different down-hole stresses.

This section of the chapter details the following paper:

**Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG (2017). Key factors controlling coal's strength property alterations during CO<sub>2</sub>-enhanced coal bed methane production: A numerical study. *Journal of Natural Gas Science and Engineering* (under review).

# 7.2 How to overcome the effect of coal heterogeneity for different fluid saturation- induced mechanical property variations in coal?

### 7.2.1 Overview

Carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) storage in deep coal seams significantly alters the petro-physical properties of the coal masses and precise evaluation of such alterations is difficult due to the highly heterogeneous nature of coal. This indicates the importance of testing reconstituted homogeneous coal samples. The main objective of this section is therefore to investigate the effect of different fluid saturations on the mechanical properties of coal using reconstituted low-rank coal samples. The reconstituted coal samples were made using powdered Australian brown coal, which were first moulded and then subjected to axial load until the specimens achieved the mechanical properties of natural specimens. The prepared samples were then saturated in water, N<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> to determine the influences of various saturations on the coal's mechanical properties. Several samples from each saturation condition underwent X-Ray computed tomography (X-ray CT) tests to determine the structural alterations which occurred with different fluid saturations.

The following conference paper was produced based on this section of the thesis:

**Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG, Haque RT (2016). An experimental study of the behaviour of reconstituted low rank coal under different fluid saturations, ISRM International Symposium and EUROCK 2016, Cappadocia, Turkey, 29-31 August, 2016; Paper no 166.

### 7.2.2 Introduction

Enhanced coal bed methane (ECBM) recovery is being implemented and tested as a viable option to store carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) and reduce the amount in the Earth's atmosphere, as well as for the recovery of useful methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) gas (Perera et al., 2013; Ranathunga et al., 2014). Overall, the ECBM process involves introducing CO<sub>2</sub> through injecting wells into deep coal seams. This CO<sub>2</sub> then acts as a displacing gas, which allows the already-adsorbed CH<sub>4</sub> to be desorbed from the coal matrix. The methane is finally obtained through a recovery well and used to produce energy in a cost-effective and environmentally-friendly way.

However, the ECBM recovery technique has both advantages and disadvantages. One of the major issues involved in the injection of  $CO_2$  is the significant alterations of coal seams' petrophysical properties. Perera et al., (2013) and Ranathunga et al., (2016) have found that the strength and Young's modulus of coal vary with the adsorption of  $CO_2$  into the coal matrix. Moreover, since coal is a highly heterogeneous material, it is difficult to determine the properties of the entire coal seam in the field. Therefore, it is essential to establish an acceptable method of manufacturing

reconstituted coal samples to stimulate field properties. Several approaches have been trialled to produce a more homogeneous representation of natural coal that would be more amenable to the experimental investigation of mechanical and flow behaviour.

According to the research literature, the development of reconstituted coal (RC) samples has the ability to assist in making useful correlations between the mechanical properties of coal (Jasinge, 2010; Vishal & Singh, 2013). Furthermore, Jasinge (2010) (for brown coal) and Vishal & Singh (2013) (for black coal) developed a method of preparing RC samples, which has focused mainly on no-binder RC. They produced samples with mechanical properties close to those of natural coal. For example, Jasinge (2010) produced RC low rank coal samples with  $1.46 \pm 0.14$  MPa average uniaxial strength (1.2-1.8 MPa for natural samples),  $77.43 \pm 2.61$  MPa Young's modulus (65-89 MPa for natural samples) with a 95% confidence interval and densities between 1.11 to  $1.14 \text{ g/cm}^3$  (1.11 to  $1.15 \text{ g/cm}^3$  for natural coal samples). However, studies of the effect of various saturation mediums using RC samples are lacking.

Therefore, in this study, reconstituted Victorian brown coals were developed employing the method proposed by Jasinge (2010). The prepared samples were then treated with water,  $CO_2$  and  $N_2$  in order to observe the mechanical property alterations in homogeneous coal samples.

#### 7.2.3 Preparation of reconstituted coal samples

This section presents the methodology adopted to develop reconstituted brown coal samples. The natural brown coal used for the development of reconstituted brown coal samples originated from the Hazelwood mine in the Latrobe Valley, south-east Victoria, Australia.

### 7.2.3.1 Sample preparation

Brown coal powder was prepared according to the methodology adopted by Jasinge (2010). The brown coal powder was used under its natural moisture condition of around 54%. The apparatus used in the RC sample preparation is a steel mould 54 mm in diameter and 210 mm in height, using a cylindrical steel compaction ram (see Figure 7.1(a)). The procedure for the sample preparation is summarised in the following section and the more detailed procedure is presented in Chapter 3.



Figure 7.1. Reconstituted sample preparation

The coal powder was filled to the top of the steel mould and compacted in three layers. The surface was roughened after compacting each layer to ensure full bonding between layers. After the placement of each layer, the weight of the coal powder was measured. The sample were then subjected to axial load until it reached the natural coal strength using a Shimadzu uniaxial compression machine (see Figure 7.1(b)). The first and second layers were compacted for around 30 minutes. Once the final layer was placed, the sample was then compacted for 24 hours. The compaction was assumed to reach the maximum once the displacement versus time curve achieved a constant plateau. Therefore, the coal placed in the mould for compaction remained under a constant compression load. Since the degree of consolidation is time-dependent, the duration of load application affects the sample's density and mechanical properties. It is therefore required to compact the sample for a sufficiently long time to ensure adequate surface contact between particles and to increase the density, strength and Young's modulus (Jasinge, 2010). After preparing various trial RC samples, it was found that a compaction stress of 7 MPa and a displacement rate of 3 mm/min were sufficient to produce the mechanical properties of natural coal in the RC specimens.

Following compaction, the samples were removed from the mould using a hydraulic press and the weights and dimensions of the samples were measured. The samples were then sealed in plastic bags and placed in the fog room and their weight and dimensions were recorded for the next three days to check for swelling and moisture loss. The RC samples were cut to approximately 113 mm and the top and bottom surfaces were ground, to achieve smooth and parallel surfaces. The resulting RC samples had a length of approximately 108 mm (see Figure 7.2(a)). Figure 7.2(b) shows the top surface of a typical RC sample after grinding.



(a) After cutting to appropriate size



(b) Top surface after grinding (54 mm)

Figure 7.2. A typical reconstituted coal sample after preparation

### 7.2.3.2 Preparation for testing and experimental procedure

A total of three RC samples were tested under unsaturated conditions. The procedures adopted for water, N<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> saturations are detailed in the following sections.

### a. Water saturation

Two RC samples were saturated in water for approximately two weeks to allow full saturation. The samples were placed in vacuum chambers (see Figure 7.3(a)). The weight of the RC samples was recorded before placing them in the saturation chamber. The weight was then checked regularly for two weeks until the weight reached a steady state. The samples were then wrapped carefully with plastic wraps and stored in a fog room for another two weeks to allow an equal distribution of moisture throughout the samples before testing.

# b. CO<sub>2</sub> saturation

Various CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressures were employed to investigate the effects of CO<sub>2</sub> on the mechanical properties of coal. CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressures of 4, 6, 8 and 10 MPa were applied to the RC samples at a temperature of 40  $^{0}$ C (>31.8  $^{0}$ C is the critical temperature of CO<sub>2</sub>). Hence, the samples saturated under 4 and 6 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> (<7.38 MPa is the critical pressure of CO<sub>2</sub>) were under sub-critical conditions and those saturated under 8 and 10 MPa (>7.38 MPa) were under super-critical conditions. In order to conduct CO<sub>2</sub> saturation, the samples were placed in high-pressure saturation chambers (see Figure 7.3(b)) for a period of two weeks for each saturation pressure

condition. After the saturation period, the pressure chambers were gradually de-pressurized at a rate of 0.02 MPa/min to avoid possible damage to the physical structure of the coal specimen caused by sudden pressure changes. After the samples were removed from the saturation chamber, they were covered with plastic wrap and tested within around 20 minutes to avoid any possible changes to the saturation of the samples.

### c. N<sub>2</sub> saturation

The RC samples were saturated under two different  $N_2$  pressures (4 and 8 MPa) using a highpressure tri-axial test rig (see Figure 7.3(c)) to compare the results with the observations of CO<sub>2</sub> saturated samples, because unlike CO<sub>2</sub>,  $N_2$  is a comparatively inert gas, which does not cause any significant coal matrix re-arrangement through chemical interactions with the coal mass (Perera et al., 2015). A similar procedure to that used for CO<sub>2</sub> saturation was applied for N<sub>2</sub> saturation.



(a) Water saturation chamber



(b) CO<sub>2</sub> saturation chamber



(c) N<sub>2</sub> saturation chamber

Figure 7.3. Saturation of reconstituted samples in water and different CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> saturations

# 7.2.3.3 Experimental procedure

The following sections summarize the experimental methodology adopted for the tests (refer to Chapter 3 for detailed experimental procedures).

- UCS Testing A series of UCS tests was performed on the RC samples using a Shimadzu machine. A displacement rate of 0.1 mm/min (ASTM D7012 2004) was applied for the uniaxial compressive tests of the RC samples and the load and displacement were recorded.
- X-Ray Computed Tomography (X-ray CT) High-resolution images were also taken of the RC samples under unsaturated, water-saturated and CO<sub>2</sub>-saturated conditions. The scanning

was carried out under full view mode, maintaining the X-Ray source (140keV/10W) at 200 mm and using the 0.4X macro-detector 57 mm from the central axis of the samples, thus providing a fixed resolution of 60 microns for the qualitative analysis of all images. Images were taken at the middle of each sample.

#### 7.2.4 Test results and discussion

#### 7.2.4.1 Selection of reconstituted coal samples

Various trial RC samples were first developed with similar bulk density, strength, and Young's modulus to natural brown coal. For this study, the application of an axial load of 7 MPa was found to be sufficient to produce RC samples with similar mechanical properties, such as bulk density, strength and Young's modulus, to those of natural coal. For example, the average uniaxial compressive strength of the prepared unsaturated RC samples using a compaction load of 7 MPa was 1.47 MPa, which is in the range of natural brown coal specimens (varying between 1.2 MPa and 1.8 MPa) (Jasinge, 2010), as shown in Figure 7.4. In addition, using a compaction load of 7 MPa, an average Young's modulus of 69.7 MPa (ranging between 65 – 89 MPa for natural brown coal) (Jasinge, 2010) and an average bulk density of 1097.8 kg/m<sup>3</sup> (ranging between 1100 kg/m<sup>3</sup> and 1150 kg/m<sup>3</sup> for natural brown coal) (Jasinge, 2010) were produced. Therefore, the mechanical properties produced by the RC samples using a compaction load of 7 MPa proved to be adequate in terms of strength to represent natural coal specimens in the laboratory experiments.



Figure 7.4. Axial stress versus axial strain curves for unsaturated RC samples

A series of uniaxial compression strength tests was then performed to determine the peak strength and Young's modulus of the RC samples. The UCS tests were conducted for unsaturated,

water,  $CO_2$ - and  $N_2$ -saturated RC samples. The results obtained are presented in Table 7.1. Samples with maximum UCS values in each case are used for the discussion here and the stress-strain curves obtained from the  $CO_2$  treated samples for the maximum UCS value are shown in Figure 7.5.

Saturation	UCS	ΔUCS	E (MPa)	ΔΕ
condition	(MPa)	(%)*		(%)*
Unsaturated	1.66	-	72.01	-
Water	0.26	-84.34	12.14	-83.14
4 MPa N <sub>2</sub>	1.68	1.19	72.69	0.94
8 MPa N <sub>2</sub>	1.72	3.49	73.42	1.96
4 MPa CO <sub>2</sub>	1.16	-30.24	50.46	-29.93
6 MPa CO <sub>2</sub>	1.10	-34.03	47.45	-34.11
8 MPa CO <sub>2</sub>	0.92	-44.77	39.81	-44.72
10 MPa CO <sub>2</sub>	0.79	-52.18	34.47	-52.13

Table 7.1. Saturation effects on UCS and Young's modulus (E) values of RC samples

\* negative indicates a reduction in UCS and Young's modulus (E)



Figure 7.5. Experimental stress-strain curves for CO<sub>2</sub> saturated reconstituted brown coal

### 7.2.4.2 Water saturation effects on RC strength

According to Table 7.1, there is around 84% reduction in both strength and Young's modulus of water-saturated RC samples compared to the unsaturated RC sample. This reduction was expected, as water significantly influences the strength of any rock mass through the water softening effect (Vásárhelyi and Ván, 2006). Figure 7.6 shows a sectional view of a water-saturated RC sample and a section along the height obtained through X-ray CT scanning that clearly shows the distribution of cracks (the black lines). As mentioned before, the adsorption of water into any coal mass can easily attack its fractures' tips, softening the coal mass and eventually expanding the

fractures. According to Figures 7.6(a) and (b), compared to unsaturated RC, there are large number of cracks in water-saturated RC samples.



(a) Mid height



(b) Quarter section along the height

Figure 7.6. Sectional view of a water-saturated RC sample showing distribution of cracks (black lines are cracks)

Similar reductions in strength and Young's modulus in natural brown coal of around 16.8% and 7.6% have been reported by Perera et al. (2011). However, the effect of water saturation on RC samples is comparatively greater. This greater reduction may be due to the saturation period and surface area of the samples. According to Vásárhelyi and Ván (2006), the longer the saturation time, the greater the water absorption rate into the rock mass. Therefore, the longer saturation period used in this study (two weeks compared to one week in Perera et al., 2011) caused more moisture to be attracted into the coal matrix. In addition, the particle size used for the RC sample preparation was ~1 mm which provides more surface area for moisture adsorption. Overall, the moisture inside the coal samples causes the reduction in surface energy and strength.

### 7.2.4.3 CO<sub>2</sub> saturation effect on RC samples

The adsorption potential of any gas into the coal matrix greatly depends on the type of gas. According to Ranathunga et al. (2014),  $CO_2$  has a great adsorption capacity than other gases such as  $N_2$  and  $CH_4$  due to the stronger intermolecular forces between hydrocarbons such as  $CO_2$  and the coal mass. This strong relationship plays a significant role in the process of coal- bed methane recovery. However, the adsorption of  $CO_2$  into the coal matrix significantly influences the swelling and strength properties of coal. In this section, the effects of different  $CO_2$  saturation pressures on the strength of the RC samples are reported. Based on the findings of various researchers (Perera et al., 2011; Ranathunga et al., 2016; Viete & Ranjith, 2006), the adsorption of  $CO_2$  causes a clear strength reduction in coal. Similar behaviour was observed for RC samples after  $CO_2$  saturation in the present study, as shown in Table 7.1 and Figure 7.7.



Figure 7.7. Effect of CO<sub>2</sub> saturation on UCS and Young's modulus for RC and natural brown coal samples

Table 7.1 shows that as the CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure increases, the reductions in strength and Young's modulus also increase. Further, this reduction is greater in the super-critical region than in the sub-critical region (see Figure 7.7). In particular, a sudden increment in strength property reduction (by around 16%) between 6 and 8MPa (the transfer region) can be observed where the CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure changes from its sub- to super-critical condition. This is consistent with existing studies of natural coal samples (Huang et al., 2006), which show a sudden increment in CO<sub>2</sub> viscosity after the critical point, as super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> possesses gas-like compressibilities and liquid-like densities. Further, Chikatamarla et al. (2004) indicated that, unlike sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub>, super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> has better solubility in solid constituents due to its greater density. This causes the organic compounds in coal to be polymerized, leading to greater plasticization of the coal mass during CO<sub>2</sub> saturation, enhancing the ductile properties of the coal (Ranathunga et al., 2016). This greater plasticization effect of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> compared to subcritical CO<sub>2</sub> causes sudden changes in its Young's modulus (see Figure 7.7).

These UCS and Young's modulus reductions observed in RC samples were then compared with those in natural brown coal specimens reported in the literature (Ranathunga et al., 2016) under the same CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressures and the results are shown in Figure 7.7. According to the figure, there are around 46% and 23% reductions in UCS and Young's modulus in natural coal when the CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure changes from 6 to 8 MPa.

As shown in Table 7.1, there was a greater reduction in strength and Young's modulus of RC samples saturated at 8 and 10 MPa  $CO_2$  pressures in the super-critical region, similar to natural brown coal (see Figure 7.7). This greater reduction is due to the super-critical  $CO_2$  adsorption, which has greater adsorption potential and dissolution ability in coal compared to sub-critical  $CO_2$ ,

resulting in greater matrix alteration and much reduced strength (Ranathunga et al., 2015). This can be further confirmed by the X-ray CT analysis shown in Figure 7.8, which presents the sectional views of an unsaturated RC sample and RC samples saturated at 4 and 10 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> pressure. The light areas indicate higher density areas and the darker areas show lower densities (see Figure 7.8 (b) (highlighted in dashed lines) and Figure 7.8 (c)). The adsorption of CO<sub>2</sub> causes the polymerisation of the coal matrix, creating a softer and less dense structure and this effect is increased at higher CO<sub>2</sub> pressures (Ranathunga et al. 2016). This observation is confirmed by the CT analysis, which shows a less dense structure (darker areas) under super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> saturation (refer to Figure 7.8(c)). This less dense structure developed with CO<sub>2</sub> saturation is the reason for the strength variations observed in the RC samples.



Figure 7.8. Sectional view through mid-height of RC samples for unsaturated, 4 MPa and 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> saturated samples

Interestingly, although both RC and natural brown coal samples behave similarly under  $CO_2$  saturation, RC samples exhibit comparatively less strength reduction than the natural samples (see Figure 7.8). The reason is the naturally-existing cleat system in natural coal that acts as a locus for  $CO_2$  movement, permitting greater matrix alteration compared to RC samples without any cleats.

### 7.2.4.4 N<sub>2</sub> saturation effects on RC samples

The effect of  $N_2$  saturation on RC coal was then tested for two different saturation pressures and the results are shown in Figure 7.9. According to the figure,  $N_2$  saturation does not reduce the strength of brown coal; rather, it causes a slight increment in coal strength. The observed increment of UCS value due to  $N_2$  saturation is around 1% and 3.5% for samples saturated under 4 and 8 MPa  $N_2$  saturation pressures, respectively (Table 7.1). The reason may be the ability of  $N_2$  to push the moisture out of the coal sample, resulting in a strength increment. This is evident from the calculated weight variation in the N<sub>2</sub>-saturated samples, which reduced by around 8 to 13% during the saturation period. Further, according to Table 7.1, the Young's modulus of brown coal slightly increases after N<sub>2</sub> saturation (up to 2%) and this is also related to the moisture-removing potential of the N<sub>2</sub> molecules. As described earlier, the presence of water causes the ductile properties of the coal mass to improve, and therefore its removal should improve the brittle behaviour, which is proven by the Young's modulus increment in RC coal observed after N<sub>2</sub> saturation.



Figure 7.9. Effect of N2 saturation on UCS and Young's modulus for RC samples

Interestingly, this  $N_2$  saturation-created strength gain in RC coal samples is consistent with the natural brown coal's strength observed by Perera et al. (2016) upon  $N_2$  saturation. Perera et al. (2016) obtained around 7.6% and 4.6% increments in both strength and Young's modulus in natural brown coal. Compared to natural brown coal, RC has a lower increment in strength parameters with  $N_2$  saturation. This might be due to a similar reason to that explained under CO<sub>2</sub> saturation, as the cleat system in natural coal samples may improve the  $N_2$  flow through the coal matrix, causing more removal of moisture from the coal mass, leading to greater strength gain.

#### 7.2.5 Conclusions

Reconstituted low rank coal samples were prepared using Victorian brown coal powder, and a compaction load of 7 MPa was sufficient to manufacture RC samples with similar mechanical properties to natural coal. The effects of different saturation conditions (water and CO<sub>2</sub>) on the mechanical properties of the prepared RC samples were then examined. Greater strength reduction was found for water and CO<sub>2</sub> saturation compared to unsaturated samples, particularly under high pressures.

This strength reduction of RC samples under water saturation is significant, and around 84% UCS and Young's modulus reductions compared with unsaturated RC samples were observed. This is because water is known to be one of the most effective strength reducing liquids for coal. The moisture penetrates the coal mass, causing the sample's fractures to expand. This causes the surface energy of the coal mass and eventually its strength to be reduced.

The strength reductions in RC samples were also examined under  $CO_2$  saturation pressures of 4, 6, 8 and 10 MPa. According to the results,  $CO_2$  adsorption causes brown coal's mechanical properties to change significantly due to the associated coal matrix alterations, and super-critical  $CO_2$  adsorption causes much greater mechanical property changes in RC brown coal than subcritical  $CO_2$ . This was proven by the observed around 16% UCS and Young's modulus reductions when  $CO_2$  saturation pressure increased from 6 to 8 MPa (the transfer region). The greater adsorption potential-related ductile property enhancement in brown coal during super-critical  $CO_2$ adsorption compared to sub-critical  $CO_2$  is the main causative factor. The geo-mechanical property alterations observed using X-ray CT studies confirmed this brittle to ductile property modification in coal mass upon  $CO_2$  adsorption and the enhancement of that effect with super-critical adsorption.

However, the strength reduction observed in the RC coal samples in this study upon CO<sub>2</sub> saturation is considerably smaller than the strength reductions observed in natural brown coal in the research literature. This is related with the natural cleat system in natural coal that acts as a locus for CO<sub>2</sub> movement, resulting in greater structural alterations. Interestingly, the saturation of similar coal samples with N<sub>2</sub> under similar pressures increased the strength of RC coal instead of the observed strength reduction in CO<sub>2</sub> saturated RC coal samples, which confirms that pure CO<sub>2</sub> saturation creates interactions with the coal matrix. Although RC and natural samples provided slight variations in strength parameters, they produced similar behaviours for different fluid saturations. Therefore, RC samples can be utilised to study the different effect of different factors on coal during CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM by avoiding the complexities due to the heterogeneity of coal.

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# 7.3 How do effective factors influence coal mass strength properties? A meso-scale numerical study using reconstituted coal

The previous sections detailed the coal mass strength behaviour, particularly of Victorian brown coal under various fluid saturation conditions expected during the  $CO_2$ -ECBM process. However, the scope of experimental studies conducted at laboratory scale is sometimes restricted, due to limitations in the capability to provide the required experimental conditions apparatuses and time frame. Therefore, this work aims to study the coal mass strength behaviour under the deep underground conditions expected during  $CO_2$  sequestration by developing numerical models which extend the experimental results obtained during the present study. The COMSOL Multiphysics numerical simulator was first used to simulate the uniaxial experimental results, and then to model the tri-axial behaviour of brown coal saturated under different  $CO_2$  conditions.

This section of the chapter details the following publication:

**Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG (2017). Key controlling factors of coal's strength property alterations during  $CO_2$  enhanced coal bed methane production: A numerical study. *Journal of Natural Gas Science and Engineering* (under review).

# Key controlling factors of coal's strength properties alterations during CO<sub>2</sub> enhanced coal bed methane production: A numerical study

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#### Abstract

 $CO_2$ -ECBM is considered to be a potential atmospheric  $CO_2$  mitigation strategy while producing methane as a by-product for industrial use. However, many researchers have reported that the  $CO_2$ sequestrated in coal seams rearranges the natural coal mass structure by generating coal matrix swelling. These alterations cause coal mechanical properties to change, creating uncertainties in the  $CO_2$ -ECBM process in terms of long-term safety. Although a number of laboratory studies have been conducted to date on this, they have been limited to selected reservoir conditions such as less confinement (depth of the injection),  $CO_2$  pressures and temperatures due to limitations in existing laboratory facilities to conduct tests under field and possibly extreme conditions. Therefore, a laboratory-scale numerical model was developed using the experimental results obtained from the research literature to simulate the mechanical behaviour of  $CO_2$ -saturated coal under in-situ stress conditions.

The COMSOL Multiphysics numerical simulator was first used to simulate the uniaxial experimental results, and then extended to model the tri-axial behaviour of coal samples saturated under different  $CO_2$  phase and pressure conditions (0 to 10 MPa). The proposed model has the ability to reasonably predict the coal strength reduction upon  $CO_2$  adsorption and its change with reservoir and injecting  $CO_2$  properties. Based on the model results, confining pressure adds an additional strength (3 to 7%) to the  $CO_2$  treated coal mass through associated pore shrinkage and the corresponding reduced  $CO_2$  adsorption capacities. Importantly, the model clearly shows a reduction in the effect of  $CO_2$  adsorption on reservoir strength with increasing reservoir depth, which is favourable for the  $CO_2$ -ECBM process. However, the volume of brown coal experiencing plastic deformation in coal after  $CO_2$  injection is found to increase (up to 40%) with increasing confinement and  $CO_2$  saturation pressure offering more ductile nature to the coal mass.

Keywords: brown coal, CO<sub>2</sub>-saturation, Laboratory-scale model, tri-axial, uniaxial

#### 7.3.1 Introduction

Enhanced coalbed methane (ECBM) recovery has now been implemented and tested as a viable option to store and reduce the amount of anthropogenic carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) in the earth's atmosphere while recovering coalbed methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) gas. However, according to previous studies, the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM process leads to CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced coal matrix alterations, which in turn affect coal's hydro-mechanical properties (Perera et al., 2013a). In regard to the geo-mechanical aspect, the coal mass becomes weaker with the substitution of existing adsorbate CH<sub>4</sub> with the highly chemically-potential CO<sub>2</sub> and its inherent brittleness charecteristics become ductile with the associated plasticization effect caused by CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption into it (Karacan, 2007).

Generally, potential CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM reservoirs are located deep underground, where CO<sub>2</sub> is in its super-critical state (beyond the critical temperature of CO<sub>2</sub> of  $31.8^{\circ}$ C and the critical pressure of CO<sub>2</sub> of 7.38 MPa) (White et al., 2005). According to previous studies, the effect of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption on coal's strength properties is comparatively greater in its super-critical state compared to the sub-critical (gas/liquid) state (Perera et al. 2013b; Ranathunga et al. 2016a). This strength reduction may be hazardous for the overall stability of the coal reservoir, mainly by creating cap rock instability (Wang et al., 2013). However, to date studies of the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorptioninduced strength reduction in coal have mainly been limited to low-pressure, low-temperature environments and the effect of CO<sub>2</sub> under lithostatic stress conditions has hardly been considered.

According to studies on the effect of in-situ stress on CO<sub>2</sub> treated coal masses (Hol and Spiers, 2012; Jasinge, 2010; Masoudian et al., 2014; Pan et al., 2010; Ranathunga et al., 2016a; Wang et al., 2013), the coal strength reduction which occurs upon  $CO_2$  adsorption is minimal in a tri-axial stress environment compared to a uniaxial environment. Masoudian et al. (2014) and Wang et al. (2013) observed an increase in elastic modulus with increasing effective confining stress for sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption in coal. For super-critical CO<sub>2</sub>, Pan et al. (2010) observed around 10 to 20 % bulk modulus reduction in high rank coal. A comparison of the tri-axial strength values obtained by Masoudian et al. (2014) for high rank coal and Ranathunga et al. (2016b) for low rank coal, indicates that high rank coal has a slightly greater strength reduction upon CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption compared to low rank coal. According to these observations, it is evident that the coal mass undergoes structural changes upon CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption, even under high in-situ stresses, and these changes are greater for higher CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressures. However, many of these studies were conducted under very low confinements and for low CO<sub>2</sub> pressures, due to the sophisticated laboratory facilities required, the extensive time necessary and the high cost. However, ordinary tests do not represent the actual situation in the field. Therefore, numerical models can be used to predict the probable behaviours of the coal under the higher CO<sub>2</sub> pressures and temperatures expected in the field.

Although several numerical field simulations have been conducted to date on  $CO_2$  sequestration in coal using different software packages, such as COMET3 (Pekot and Reeves, 2002; Perera et al., 2015), TOUGH 2 (Botnen et al., 2009), FEMLAB (Holzbecher, 2005) and COMSOL (Liu and Smirnov, 2009; Perera et al., 2013a), very few models have been developed for laboratory conditions. Meso-scale numerical models, with experimental input on the hydro-mechanical behaviour of coal, are important to obtain better insight into field- scale coal mass behaviour with  $CO_2$  sequestration. Such meso-scale models will be particularly helpful to fill the existing knowledge gaps on the safe and long-term storage of  $CO_2$  in deep coal seams, based on aprecise studies of their associated mechanical property alterations. The present study therefore focused on the development of a comprehensive meso-scale numerical model to study the strength reduction in coal caused by  $CO_2$  adsorption by combining laboratory strength data with the COMSOL Multiphysics numerical simulator.

In this study the COMSOL simulator (www.comsol.com) was utilised to develop numerical models to obtain the required test conditions, as it provides excellent user interfaces and model-coupling capabilities. Although this simulator has been widely used for the field-scale investigation of the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM process by various researchers (Liu and Smirnov, 2009; Perera et al. 2013a, Zhou et al. 2012), to date no attention has been given to meso-scale model development based on COMSOL. It is particularly important to study the changes in coal's mechanical behaviour caused by CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption under laboratory test environments such as uniaxial and triaxial loading, which offer proven accuracy to the model and therefore to the prediction of behaviour. COMSOL is a finite element method (FEM) with a partial differential equation (PDE) solution engine and is therefore capable of simulating a wide range of engineering application areas, such as chemical engineering, earth sciences and structural mechanics. Importantly, COMSOL also has the ability to couple different physical interfaces together to facilitate more accurate simulations under various test conditions.

In this study, a COMSOL-based meso-scale model was developed using the experimental results obtained by Ranathunga et al. (2016c) on a series of uniaxial loading tests conducted for different  $CO_2$  phases and pressures on low rank brown coal obtained from the Gippsland basin, Australia. The validated model was then extended to the tri-axial stress environment and finally to possible real field conditions of higher confining pressures and  $CO_2$  pressures.

#### 7.3.2 Model development

A two-dimensional axisymmetric finite element model was first developed using the COMSOL Multiphysics solid mechanics module to simulate laboratory tests (uniaxial compression tests and tri-axial compression tests) under different CO<sub>2</sub> saturation conditions.

#### 7.3.2.1 Governing equations

The formulation used in the solid mechanics module of COMSOL Multiphysics is totally Lagrangian. Here, in the total Lagrangian configuration, the displacement is considered as a function of the material coordinates (X, Y, Z) and hence the total strain tensor is written in terms of the displacement gradient ( $\nabla u$ ) (see Eq. [7.1]).

$$\nabla u = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial X} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial Y} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial Z} \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial X} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial Y} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial Z} \\ \frac{\partial w}{\partial X} & \frac{\partial w}{\partial Y} & \frac{\partial w}{\partial Z} \end{bmatrix}$$
[7.1]

The axial symmetry uses a cylindrical coordinate system and the implementation assumes independence of the angle, and the torsional component of the displacement is identically zero. The physical components of the radial and axial displacement, u and w, are used as independent variables for the axially symmetric geometry.

Therefore, the Green-Lagrange strain tensor ( $\varepsilon$ ) can be defined as in Eq. [7.2].

$$\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \nabla u + (\nabla u)^T + (\nabla u)^T \nabla u \right]$$
[7.2]

An elastoplastic model was assumed for the numerical study. For isotropic linear elastic materials, the total stress tensor can be defined as in Eq. [7.3].

$$S - S_0 = C: (\varepsilon - \varepsilon_0 - \varepsilon_{inel})$$

$$[7.3]$$

where, S and  $\varepsilon$  are the stress and strain tensor,  $S_0$  and  $\varepsilon_0$  are the initial stress and strain,  $\varepsilon_{inel}$  is the sum of all inelastic strains and *C* is the 4<sup>th</sup> order elasticity tensor.

According to Gentzis et al. (2007), the Hoek-Brown failure criterion (see Eq. [7.4]) is a better representation of the coal strength than the Mohr-Coulomb failure criterion and was therefore adopted for this study. This is a non-linear an empirical model widely used in geomechanics applications because material parameters can be estimated with field observations, together with the uniaxial compressive strength of the intact rock mass.

$$\sigma_1 = \sigma_3 + \sigma_c \left( m \frac{\sigma_3}{\sigma_c} + s \right)^a \tag{7.4}$$

where,  $\sigma_1 \ge \sigma_3 \ge 0$  are major and minor principle stresses respectively,  $\sigma_c$  is the uniaxial compressive strength of the intact rock and *m*, *s* and *a* are the material parameters (Hoek and Brown, 1980). Since intact coal samples were used in the experiments, the original Hoek Brown criterion was adopted for the model and *s* = 1 and a = 0.5 were assigned.

In terms of the invariants  $I_1$  and  $J_2$  the Hoek-Brown criterion can be re-written as in Eq. [7.5].

$$F_y = 2\sqrt{J_2} \sin\left(\theta + \frac{\pi}{3}\right) - \sigma_c \sqrt{s - m\frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_c}} = 0$$
[7.5]

where,  $\theta$  is the lodge angle  $0 \le \theta \le \pi/3$  (Jaeger et al., 2009). I<sub>1</sub> is the first invariant stress tensor (see Eq. [7.6]) and J<sub>2</sub> is the second invariant of stress deviator tensor (Eq. [7.7]).

$$I_1 = \sigma_1 + \sigma_2 + \sigma_3 \tag{7.6}$$

$$J_2 = \frac{1}{6} \left[ (\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2 \right]$$
[7.7]

#### 7.3.2.2 Model validation using experimental data

The numerical study was based on the experimental data reported in the research literature on mechanical property alterations in reconstituted Victorian brown coal for various CO<sub>2</sub> phases and pressures by Ranathunga et al., (2016c). Here, the data obtained using reconstituted brown coal samples were used as a primary step in model development, in order to avoid the complexities associated with the large heterogeneities in natural coal. In this study, reconstituted brown coal samples 54 mm in diameter and 108 mm in length were saturated in 4 and 6 MPa (sub-critical) and 8 and 10 MPa (super-critical) CO<sub>2</sub> at a temperature of 40  $^{\circ}$ C (>31.8  $^{\circ}$ C is the critical temperature of CO<sub>2</sub>) and uniaxial compression tests were conducted with a strain-controlled loading rate of 0.1 mm/min. The material properties for the model were obtained from the experimental results (see Figure 7.10).



Figure 7.10. Experimental stress-strain curves for CO<sub>2</sub> saturated reconstituted brown coal

#### 7.3.2.3 Basic assumptions

- 1 Coal is a homogeneous material (this is reasonable as the samples used were reconstituted).
- 2 The coal sample is at a constant temperature throughout the experiment.
- 3 All the stress points exist in the defined yield surface.
- 4 The Hoek-Brown parameters derived for each CO<sub>2</sub> saturation condition do not change with the confining pressure.
- 5 The axial strain of a brown coal sample ( $\varepsilon$ ) which undergoes confined conditions can be given as:

$$\varepsilon = (\alpha_{P_{co2}}P_c + \beta_{P_{co2}})\varepsilon_{uc}$$
[7.8]

where,  $\varepsilon_{uc}$  is axial strain at failure for unconfined conditions (data from Ranathunga et al., 2016c) and  $\alpha_{P_{co2}}$  and  $\beta_{P_{co2}}$  (refer to Table 7.3 for the parameters used) are constants empirically derived from experimental data for similar low rank coals by Ranathunga et al. (2016a), Ranathunga et al. (2016b) and Jasinge (2010) under various confinements and  $P_c$  and  $P_{co2}$  are confining pressure and CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure, respectively.

#### 7.3.2.4 Model definition and boundary conditions

To simulate the experimental conditions, an axisymmetric 2-D model was developed with a width of 27 mm (the diameter of the sample is 54 mm) and a height of 108 mm and the developed model was then converted into a 3-D model using the results nodes available in the model builder interface in the COMSOL Multiphysics simulator. The boundary conditions adopted for the solid mechanics module (mechanical boundary conditions) are as follows:

The bottom of the sample was fixed and a prescribed displacement was introduced as an auxiliary sweep to the top of the sample to simulate the axial compression. A boundary load ( $P_c$ ) was introduced as a radial force simulating the corresponding confining pressure condition. This was introduced as a parametric sweep for different confining pressure conditions from 0 MPa to 25 MPa in 5 MPa steps, where 0 MPa represents unconfined or uniaxial compression. The details of the geometry and boundary conditions adopted for the model are shown in Figure 7.11.

### 7.3.2.5 Model input parameters

The material properties required for the model were obtained from the experimental results, and the input parameters for the model are shown in Table 7.2. The Young's modulus (E) and Poisson's ratio (n) values of the tested coal under different  $CO_2$  saturation conditions were taken from the literature (Ranathunga et al., 2016b) and the Hoek-Brown parameters were taken from the best fit curves with experimental data from the numerical model (see Table 7.3) (the "m" parameter was

changed until the best fit curve for each CO<sub>2</sub> saturated condition was obtained from the numerical model).



Figure 7.11. Details of the geometry and boundary conditions

Table 7.2. Th	e input parameters	for the model
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Model Parameter	Value
Coal sample properties	
Sample diameter (D)	54mm
Sample height (H)	108 mm
Density (p)	1097.8 kg/m <sup>3</sup>
Boundary conditions (parametric sweep)	
Confining pressure (P <sub>c</sub> )	0, 10, 15, 20, 25 MPa
CO <sub>2</sub> saturation pressures (P <sub>co2</sub> )	0, 4, 6, 8, 10 MPa

Table 7.3. CO<sub>2</sub> saturation-dependent material parameters

CO <sub>2</sub> saturation pressure (MPa)	Young's Modulus E (MPa)	Uniaxial compressive strength σc (MPa)	Hoek-Brown Parameter m	α <sub>P<sub>co2</sub> For Eq. [7.8]</sub>	$eta_{P_{co2}}$ For Eq. [7.8]
0	72.01	1.66	3.8	0.000141	0.0249
4	50.46	1.16	2.7	0.000136	0.0214
6	47.45	1.10	1.8	0.000132	0.0202
8	39.81	0.92	0.6	0.000126	0.0172
10	34.47	0.79	0.08	0.000119	0.0150

### 7.3.2.6 Meshing and element sizes

A 2-D mapped meshing was used for the model since it consists of a simple rectangular geometry bounded by four boundary segments with no holes. By defining the number of elements at each side, a mapped mesh was introduced to the model. The assumed mapped mesh and mesh quality plot are shown in Figure 7.12 and the meshing parameters are shown in Table 7.4. It should be noted that the colour range 0 means poor quality and 1 means good quality. The assumed mesh pattern fits the geometry well and therefore indicates a good quality mesh.

Table 7.4. CO<sub>2</sub> saturation-dependent material parameters

Property	Value
Number of degrees of freedom	29250
Number of elements (rectangle)	2500
Number of boundary elements	250



Figure 7.12. Mesh quality plot for the mesh pattern used in the model

### 7.3.3 Model results and discussion

### 7.3.3.1 Behaviour of brown coal under uniaxial compression

In order to validate the model, firstly, stress-strain curves were generated and the results were compared with the experimental uniaxial compression results. The resultant vertical force due to mechanical loading can be calculated using Eq. [7.9]:

$$F = \int_0^r \sigma_z \, 2\pi r \, \mathrm{d}r \tag{7.9}$$

where, *F* is the resultant vertical force, *r* is the radius of the coal sample and  $\sigma_z$  is the *z* component of the stress tensor. This was computed using the integration operator of COMSOL Multiphysics by the summation over nodes of the top surface of the coal samples.

The resultant vertical stress due to mechanical loading was calculated using Eq. [7.10].

$$\sigma_z = \frac{F}{\pi R^2}$$
[7.10]

where, R is the radius of the sample (27 mm).

Since the axial displacement was applied as a prescribed displacement (*Disp*) at the top surface using an auxiliary sweep from 0 to 1 mm in 0.05mm steps, the mechanical axial strain was defined as in Eq. [7.11].

$$\varepsilon = \frac{Disp}{H}$$
[7.11]

where,  $\varepsilon$  is the axial strain and *H* is the sample height (108 mm).

The overall experimentally-predicted stress-strain curves from 0 to 10 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressures are presented in Figure 7.13. A comparison of the model-predicted and measured stress-strain behaviours of brown coal under 4 MPa (sub-critical) and 8 MPa (super-critical) CO<sub>2</sub> pressures and for the unsaturated sample under uniaxial compression conditions is presented in Figure 7.14. As the figure shows, the model predicts the behaviour of brown coal accurately up to the yield point. The post-failure behavior of brown coal could not be obtained during the experiments due to the sudden failure of the sample under the strain- controlled loading rate used for the tests (0.1 mm/min). Hence, the post-failure behaviour was not considered in the current study. However, after the yield point, the model assumes it is perfectly plastic as no strain hardening could be observed.

As mentioned before, the Hoek-brown parameter "m" was obtained by varying the "m" value until the model acquired the best-fit curve with the experimental results. According to Table 7.3, around 29% reduction of the Hoek-Brown parameter "m" for 4 MPa sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> treated coal compared to unsaturated coal was observed. Further, this reduction for 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> treated coal was around 80% compared to unsaturated coal. Similarly, Masoudian et al. (2014) observed around a 44% reduction of the "m" for CO<sub>2</sub> (up to 5.5 MPa) treated black coal (8.053) compared to intact coal (14.263). Therefore, CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption can affect the mechanical strengthening of the coal mass and the effect is greater for super-critical CO<sub>2</sub>. The rearrangement of the natural glassy-strained structure of the coal matrix (Larsen et al., 1997) due to the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption is the reason for this outcome.


Figure 7.13. Model-predicted stress-strain curves of brown coal under different CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressures



Figure 7.14. Comparison of model-predicted and experimental stress-strain curves of brown coal under unsaturated, 4 MPa and 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> saturation conditions

## 7.3.3.2 Alteration of brown coal strength characteristics upon CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption under triaxial stress environment

When the proposed model for uniaxial conditions was validated using the measured data, the model was extended to study the mechanical behaviour of brown coal under tri-axial stress conditions. To obtain the tri-axial stress conditions, the brown coal sample was subjected to confining pressures of 10 to 25 MPa in 5 MPa increments. For this model, the deviatoric strength was calculated by subtracting the confining stress at failure from the coal mass strength obtained at that particular confining stress (Eq. [7.12]):

$$\sigma_{dev} = \frac{F}{\pi R^2} - P_c \tag{7.12}$$

where, R is the radius of the sample (27 mm) and  $P_c$  is the confining pressure. A parametric sweep was introduced into the model from 0 to 20 MPa in 5 MPa steps to achieve different confinements. Here, deviatoric stress was considered instead of failure strength, as it is the stress change that causes the coal mass failure at that particular confining stress. This is strongly related to field conditions, as natural coal seams located at deep depths are at equilibrium under the naturallyapplying confining stresses and only subject to failure upon further increase of load or due to deviatoric stress.

The variation of deviatoric stress with confining stress for unsaturated brown coal is shown in Figure 7.15. As the figure shows, the deviatoric stress of brown coal at failure increases with increasing confining stress. According to Eq. [7.4], when  $\sigma_3$  is increased, the  $\sigma_1$  is also subjected to increase, due to the mechanical strengthening which occurs with the associated reduction of the pore voids in the coal matrix, which is confirmed by Figure 7.15.

Although failure strength increases with increasing confining stress, the rate of increase reduces with increasing confining stress. For example, increasing the confining stress from 10 to 15 MPa (lower confinements) and 20 to 25 MPa (higher confinements) caused around 3.4 % and 3.0 % increments in the deviatoric stress in the tested brown coal. This is because there is a greater potential for dilation at low confining pressures, which is supressed at higher confinements (Barton, 2013). Therefore, the ability to open rock micro-cracks and the resulting friction angle are lower at higher confinements. These changes cause the failure mechanism of coal to shift from brittle to ductile with increasing confinement, also changing the shape (Hoek, 1983). Since the rate of increase in the resulting strength reduces with increasing confinement, deviatoric strength remains almost constant at greater depths or confinements (the difference between the resulting strength and confining pressure gives the deviatoric strength). This indicates that confining pressure dominates the behaviour of brown coal at greater depths (with high levels of confinement). The

deviatoric strength variations obtained from the model for brown coal saturated under 4 (subcritical) and 8 MPa (super-critical)  $CO_2$  are shown in Figure 7.16 and Figure 7.17, respectively.



Figure 7.15. Deviatoric stress variation of brown coal without CO<sub>2</sub> saturation



Figure 7.16. Deviatoric stress variation of brown coal for 4 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> saturation



Figure 7.17. Deviatoric stress variation of brown coal for 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> saturation

Similar to the observations of the unsaturated brown coal samples, 4 MPa and 8 MPa  $CO_2$  saturated samples also show a reduction in deviatoric stress increment with increasing confining stress. However, compared to the observed deviatoric stress increment values under unsaturated conditions, the deviatoric stress increments for  $CO_2$  saturated samples are comparatively low. For instance, from 10 to 15 MPa (lower confinements) confining pressure increase causes a deviatoric stress increment of 3.4 % in unsaturated coal, while it is 1.29 % and 1.05 % for 4 MPa (sub-critical)

and 8 MPa (super-critical) CO<sub>2</sub> saturated coal specimens respectively (refer to Figure 7.16 and 7.17). Furthermore, 20 to 25 MPa (higher confinements) confinement increase exhibits a 3 % increase in deviatoric stress for unsaturated samples and for 4 MPa (sub-critical) and 8 MPa (supercritical) CO<sub>2</sub> saturated samples, it shows only 1.26 % and 1.01 % increment, respectively (refer to Figures 7.16 and 7.17). As observed in the experimental results (Ranathunga et al., 2016c), CO<sub>2</sub> saturation causes the coal mass strength to be reduced due to the matrix re-arrangement which occurs with CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption into the coal matrix and is higher at higher CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressures. Hence, it can be concluded that the possible increment of deviatoric stress is lower for the coal mass already weakened by CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption. Therefore, brown coal's mechanical behaviour with different in situ stresses under various CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressures is discussed further in the following sections.

### a. Variation of deviatoric stress with different stress conditions

The effect of in-situ stresses on potential deviatoric stress application to the coal mass at failure for a given CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure was considered next. As mentioned previously, here deviatoric stress at failure ( $\sigma_{dev,failure}$ , refer to Eq. [7.12]) was compared instead of failure strength ( $\sigma_{z,failure}$ , refer to Eq. [7.10]), because this stress increment at failure can provide a general overview of the mechanical behaviour of the coal specimen due to the influence of CO<sub>2</sub> sorption under different in situ stresses in the field (Wang et al. 2013).



Figure 7.18. Variation of deviatoric stress at failure with confinement compared to unconfined conditions for different CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressures

Figure 7.18 shows the deviatoric stress increments of coal specimens at failure under different in-situ stresses compared to unconfined conditions. As observed in Figures 7.15, 7.16 and 7.17,  $\sigma_{dev,failure}$  increases with increasing confining pressures, regardless of the CO<sub>2</sub> saturation condition. For example, for 4 MPa sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> saturation,  $\sigma_{dev,failure}$  is increased by around 2.5% upon application of 10 MPa confinement and by around 5.1% upon application of around 20 MPa confinement. Similarly, for 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> saturation, there are around 1.82% and 3.6% increments in  $\sigma_{dev,failure}$  upon increase of confining stress to 10 and 20 MPa, respectively. Apparently, doubling of confinement causes the deviatoric stress increment to double, regardless of the CO<sub>2</sub> saturation in a deep coal seam is proportional to the depth of the seam, regardless of the CO<sub>2</sub> pressure in the seam. This significant influence on coal seam depth or confining stress on seam strength is because coal is subject to mechanical strengthening with increasing effective stresses due to shrinkage of the pore structure (refer to Eq. [7.4]).

However, as mentioned earlier, this deviatoric stress increment reduces with increasing CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure (see Figure 7.18). For example, under 15 MPa confinement,  $\sigma_{dev,failure}$  increment is around 3.75% and 2.7% for 4 and 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressures, respectively. This is possibly due to the fact that coal has a much weaker structure at higher CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressures due to the associated greater adsorption potential and coal matrix swelling (Perera et al., 2013), which eventually minimises the increment of deviatoric stress (Barton, 2013; Singh, 1986).

The effect of CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure on the effective plastic strain of brown coal was considered next, in order to understand the alteration of coal deformation characteristics upon CO<sub>2</sub> saturation under various conditions. Here, the term "effective plastic strain" indicates the unrecoverable portion of the true strain beyond the yield limit. The variations of effective plastic strain of brown coal specimens treated under 0 and 4 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure at different confinement levels are shown in Figure 7.19. Here, the 3-D plot of effective plastic strain was produced by the revolution of the 2-D axisymmetric data set about the axis of symmetry. According to Figure 7.19, under higher confining pressures, a major portion of the sample exhibits plastic deformation characteristics, whereas at lower confining pressures, only a smaller portion of the sample experiences plastic deformation characteristics. Compared to the unconfined coal sample, the region of volumetric contraction is clearly greater in confined coal samples, resulting in an extended peak stress-strain response. Wang et al. (2013) concluded that, at lower confining stresses, failure is mostly related to larger strain values with few macro-cracks. Therefore, the restrained



action provided by lateral confinement at higher confining stresses increases the mechanical strength and ductility characteristics of coal, offering increased mechanical integrity.



### b. Variation of deviatoric stress with different CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressures

As discussed in the previous section, CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption into brown coal causes enhanced ductility characteristics and reduced deviatoric stress increments. Hence, in this section, further attention is paid to the variations of deviatoric stress induced by CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption. Figure 7.20 shows how the CO<sub>2</sub> saturation causes deviatoric stress (at failure) reduction in coal with different saturation pressures and confining pressure conditions. Ranathunga et al. (2016a) observed a reduction in uniaxial strength with increasing CO<sub>2</sub> pressure for reconstituted brown coal and a similar reduction was observed by Ranathunga et al. (2016b) for natural brown coal under 10 MPa confining stress conditions. As expected, the  $\sigma_{dev,failure}$  reduction is increased with increasing injection pressure (see Figure 7.20), exhibiting the influence of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption on coal strength. For example, there are around 32.82 % and 47.17 % reductions in  $\sigma_{dev,failure}$  with increasing CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure from 0 to 4 MPa (sub-critical) and from 0 to 8 MPa (super-critical) at 10 MPa confining pressure (refer to Figure 7.20), and the deviatoric stress reduction caused by super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> is much higher. According to Gibbs (1878) and Griffith (1921), the adsorption of more chemically potent gas into any material with replacing any existing adsorbent in it reduces the surface energy of the material, weakening its strength characteristics. In addition, the induced coal matrix swelling also contributes to strength reduction in coal by reducing its mass density (Bae and Bhatia, 2006). This greater adsorptive potential of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> therefore causes greater strength reduction, as is evident in Figure 7.20.



CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure (MPa)

Figure 7.20. Overall variation of deviatoric stress with CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressures for different confinements compared to unsaturated CO<sub>2</sub> condition

However, this deviatoric stress reduction due to CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption decreases with increasing confinement (see Figure 7.19). For example, 4 MPa sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> saturation causes around 1.6 % deviatoric stress increase with increasing confining stress from 0 MPa to 10 MPa and around 4.7 % for a 15 MPa to 20 MPa confinement increment. Further, 8 MPa super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> saturated samples exhibit around 1.13 % and 3.4 % deviatoric stress increments with increasing confining stress from 0 MPa to 10 MPa and 15 MPa to 20 MPa, respectively. This is consistent with the findings of Ranathunga et al. (2016b), who showed a lower reduction in coal strength upon CO<sub>2</sub> saturation when confinement was raised from 0 to 10 MPa. For example, Ranathunga et al. (2016b) observed around 10.17% (6 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> pressure) and 12.16% (8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> pressure) strength reductions in brown coal under 10 MPa confinement, while the samples tested without any confinement exhibited around 21.25% (6 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> pressure) and 57.50% (8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> pressure) reductions (Ranathunga et al., 2016a), respectively. As explained by Ranathunga et al. (2016b),

the reason may be both mechanical confinement and the reduction of  $CO_2$  adsorption (Hol et al., 2011) with enhanced effective stress conditions in the tri-axial stress environment. Overall, this suggests that coal seams located at greater depths are subject to less swelling for these reasons, which is favourable for the ECBM process.

As described previously, the reduction of  $CO_2$  saturation-induced deviatoric stress reduction with increasing confining stress can be confirmed by conducting plastic strain analysis. Therefore, it would be interesting to investigate the behaviour of effective plastic strain variation for different  $CO_2$  saturation pressures, and this was studied next. Figure 7.21 shows the effective plastic strain variation of brown coal treated by different  $CO_2$  saturation pressures at 10 MPa confining stresses.



Figure 7.21. Effective plastic strain variation of brown coal samples at 10 MPa confinement under various CO<sub>2</sub> saturations (The values in the brackets denote the percentage of the volume of plastic deformation)

Win relation to the effect of  $CO_2$  saturation on plastic deformation, the portion of the brown coal sample that experiences plastic deformation increases with increasing  $CO_2$  saturation pressure. The  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced plasticisation effect (Karacan, 2007) is the main reason for these observed variations in plastic deformation. This plasticisation occurs due to the associated segmental mobility enhancement which occurs in the polymer structure upon  $CO_2$  adsorption, which creates a softening effect in coal mass, weakening the coal mass polymer structure. Hence, expansion of the coal mass free volume with polymer structural rearrangement upon  $CO_2$  adsorption (Larsen et al., 1997) leads to enhancement of its ductile characteristics, as observed in Figure 7.21.

### 7.3.4 Implications for field applications

According to the results of the present study, coal strength increases with increasing effective confining pressure. Here, the effective confining stress is the difference between the applied confining pressure and the  $CO_2$  pore pressure. This implies that coal seams located at shallow depths with higher  $CO_2$  pressures have the largest potential to fail easily. The mechanical strengthening which occurs due to the application of in-situ stresses is a common fact for any type of rock, including  $CO_2$  treated coal. The important fact is that this mechanical strengthening effect in coal is not sufficient to fully overcome  $CO_2$  adsorption-induced coal matrix strength reduction.

In addition, high in-situ stresses have the capability to provide greater mechanical integrity to the coal seam with greater lateral restraints and enhanced ductile characteristics. At the same time, higher  $CO_2$  adsorption also causes greater ductility characteristics in coal. According to the model results, higher in-situ stresses and higher  $CO_2$  saturations collectively cause a larger portion of the coal mass to become less brittle, which is a disadvantage for production-enhancement techniques such as hydro-fracturing. Hence, even though greater  $CO_2$  injections can sequestrate more  $CO_2$  in deep coal seams, attention must be paid to the expected coal mass mechanical behaviours for the long-term safety of the process.

According to the results of this study,  $CO_2$  adsorption weakens the coal mass in two main ways: (1) the reduction of effective confining stress by increased pore pressure (see Figure 7.18), and (2) the reduction of the surface energy required for fracture propagation by the adsorption of highly chemically-potent  $CO_2$  (Figure 7.20) (Ranathunga et al., 2016b). The degree of weakening caused by the first mechanism depends on the rate of  $CO_2$  flow through fractures and the adsorption rate. The second mechanism depends on the gas composition, pressure and content, as these determine the amount of surface energy that can be released by  $CO_2$  adsorption. Hence, these possible factors need to be considered for the effective field- scale application of  $CO_2$  sequestration.

## 7.3.5 Conclusions and suggestions for future research

## 7.3.5.1 Conclusions

A numerical study was conducted to understand the mechanical behaviour of brown coal treated with different CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressures (4, 6, 8 and 10 MPa) under tri-axial stress conditions using

reconstituted coal to remove the effect of coal heterogeneity. The model developed using COMSOL was first verified using experimental uniaxial compressive strength results and the model was then extended to predict the tri-axial behaviour for different CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressures under various confining pressures (10 to 25 MPa). The following conclusions can be drawn based on the outcomes of this study:

- At a given CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure, the resulting failure strength increases as the confining stress increases, due to the associated closure of pore voids and the enhancement of coal mass density. However, this increment is reduced for higher confining pressures due to the suppression of the potential for dilation under higher confinements.
- This strength increment with increasing confining pressure is applicable to any CO<sub>2</sub> saturation condition in coal. Interestingly, this deviatoric stress increment (at failure) is reduced with increasing CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure, due to the associated ductility enhancement in coal.
- The deviatoric stress reduction (at failure) increases with increasing injection pressure, because the associated reduction in CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption and swelling under high effective stress conditions in the tri-axial stress environment cause lower strength reduction under higher in situ stresses.
- For a given CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure, the percentage volume of brown coal undergoing plastic deformation increases with increasing confinement, due to the associated enhancements in the ductility and mechanical integrity of the coal. On the other hand, at a given confining pressure, the percentage volume of brown coal undergoing plastic deformation increases with increasing CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure, due to the associated polymerisation of the coal.

## 7.3.5.2 Suggestions for future research

- On the whole, brown coal provides comparatively lower mechanical strength reduction upon CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption at higher confinements, which is favourable for ECBM and CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in deep coal seams. However, the CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration process is a long-term procedure and hence it is necessary to focus on how the observed mechanical strength alterations vary with time.
- Further, the increased ductility characteristics of coal under higher CO<sub>2</sub> pressures and confinements is unfavourable for some production enhancement techniques such as hydro-fracturing. Therefore, it would be worthwhile to conduct an in-depth study to determine optimal CO<sub>2</sub> injection conditions in deep coal seams for enhanced CO<sub>2</sub> storage while producing a suitable environment for production-enhancement techniques.

- As stated by Hooper et al. (2005), potential CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM sites in Victoria exist at depths of around 400 to 800 m. Therefore, for the present numerical study, CO<sub>2</sub> pressures were considered only up to 10 MPa (a 10 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> pressure represents a depth of approximately 1000 m (Oldenburg, 2006)) and in situ stresses up to 25 MPa (25 MPa in situ stress represents a depth of approximately 900 m). However, these conditions may vary for other coal types, especially higher rank coals. By changing the input mechanical properties, different types of coal can be modelled using a similar method.
- For the present study, the post-failure behaviour of the coal specimens was not modelled due to the limitations in the available experimental data required for model validation. Future studies are therefore necessary to understand the post-failure behaviour of coal samples after CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration to obtain better insights into coal mass mechanical behaviour.

## 7.3.6 References

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### 7.4 Chapter summary

The main objective of this chapter was to investigate the influence of  $CO_2$  adsorption on the mechanical properties of brown coal using reconstituted coal samples to mitigate the effect of the heterogeneity of coal. Various meso-scale experimental and numerical studies were conducted to observe the effect of different effective factors on coal mass strength with  $CO_2$ -ECBM and the major findings of these studies are summarised below.

## Section 7.2 - How to overcome the effect of coal heterogeneity on the mechanical property variations in coal induced by different fluid saturations?

Reconstituted low rank coal samples were prepared using Victorian brown coal powder with similar mechanical properties to natural coal. After examining the effect of different saturation conditions on the mechanical properties of the RC samples, it was found that both RC and natural brown coal samples behave similarly under CO<sub>2</sub>, water and N<sub>2</sub> saturation. However, the strength reduction observed in the RC coal samples upon CO<sub>2</sub> saturation is considerably smaller than the strength reductions observed in natural brown coal. This is related to the natural cleat system in natural coal which acts as a locus for CO<sub>2</sub> movement, resulting in greater structural alterations.

## Section 7.3 - How do effective factors affect coal mass strength properties? A meso-scale numerical study using reconstituted coal.

A laboratory-scale numerical model was developed using the experimental results of Section 4.4 to simulate the mechanical behaviour of  $CO_2$ -saturated coal mass under in-situ stress conditions. First, the COMSOL Multiphysics numerical simulator was used to simulate the uniaxial experimental results, and then to model the tri-axial behaviour of coal saturated under different  $CO_2$  phases and pressures (4 to 10 MPa). Based on the modelling results, confining pressure adds strength to the  $CO_2$  treated coal mass with pore shrinkage and lower  $CO_2$  adsorption capacities at higher effective stresses. Notably, the model indicates a decline of the influence of  $CO_2$  adsorption on reservoir strength with increasing reservoir depth. On the other hand, the volume of brown coal subjected to plastic deformation increases with increases in situ stresses and  $CO_2$  saturation pressures contributing to the more ductile nature of the reservoir rock.

# Part 4: Chapter 8 -

# **Investigation of**

# carbon dioxide injection-induced

# methane recovery enhancement

## Part 4: Investigation of carbon dioxide injection-induced methane recovery enhancement

Although enhanced coal-bed methane (ECBM) recovery is a potential coal bed methane production enhancement technique, this method has been tested only on high rank coal. According to recent studies in USA and Australia, there are several potential  $CO_2$ -ECBM sites where low rank coal seams exist. Therefore, it is important to investigate the applicability of  $CO_2$  sequestration-induced methane enhancement in low rank coal and this is the subject of this chapter. In addition, the effectiveness of this ECBM process is greatly dependent on the seam and injecting gas properties, and the development of knowledge of optimum reservoir conditions and injecting gas properties is essential. This is the subject of the next part of this chapter. The findings of the studies are presented in this section of the thesis as follows.





# Investigation of carbon dioxide

# sequestration-induced

methane recovery enhancement

## **Publications in Chapter 8**

Chapter 8 includes one publication. Details of the publication are as follows:

**Ranathunga, A.S.**, Perera, M.S.A., Ranjith, P.G., Wei, C.H., 2017. An experimental investigation of applicability of CO<sub>2</sub>-enhanced coal bed methane recovery to low rank coal. *Fuel* 189, 391-399.

## **Declaration for Thesis Chapter 8.2**

In the case of Chapter 8.2, the nature and extent of my contribution to the work was the following:

Nature of contribution	Extent of contribution (%)
Initiation, key ideas, experimental work, data analysis and writing up	85

The following co-authors contributed to the work. If co-authors are students at Monash University, the extent of their contribution in percentage terms must be stated:

Name	Nature of contribution	Extent of contribution (%) for student co- authors only
Perera MSA	Key ideas, reviewing and editing the manuscript	N/A
Ranjith PG	Key ideas, reviewing and editing the manuscript	N/A
Wei CH	Reviewing and editing the manuscript	N/A

The undersigned hereby certify that the above declaration correctly reflects the nature and extent of the candidate's and co-authors' contributions to this work\*.



Main	Date
Supervisor's signature	25/01/2017

\*Note: Where the responsible author is not the candidate's main supervisor, the main supervisor should consult with the responsible author to agree on the respective contributions of the authors.

# 8. Investigation of carbon dioxide injection-induced methane recovery enhancement

### 8.1 Overview

 $CO_2$  sequestration in deep unmineable coal seams with the simultaneous recovery of natural coal bed methane (CBM) or coal seam gas (CSG) is an appealing way of addressing the rise in atmospheric concentrations of anthropogenic  $CO_2$ . This technology has the potential to off-set the costs of capture, compression, transportation and storage of  $CO_2$  by producing a comparatively eco-friendly fuel, CBM. Of the other options for the possible storage of  $CO_2$ , deep unmineable coal seams are more convenient sinks because they are widespread and exist in many of the same areas as large coal-fired power plants. Further, around 98% of  $CO_2$  is in its adsorbed phase of the coal micropores which enables the stable storage of  $CO_2$  for a geologically significant period. The higher affinity of  $CO_2$  to desorb methane from the coal matrix has drawn more attention to enhanced  $CH_4$  recovery from deep coal beds.

## Section 8.2 – Applicability of CO<sub>2</sub> enhanced coal bed methane recovery technique to low rank coal

To date, several studies have been conducted experimentally and numerically at a laboratory and field scale to investigate the potential of  $CO_2$  to increase methane recovery. However, in these experimental studies, the primary focus has been on high rank coal rather than low rank due to the unlikely existence of low rank coal beds at potential locations for  $CO_2$  storage. However, as discussed in Chapter 2, several researchers have highlighted potential low rank coal beds for  $CO_2$  sequestration. Hence, it is important to conduct experiments on low rank coal as a prospective catalyst for  $CO_2$ -ECBM. This is therefore the subject of this section.

This section of the chapter is the following publication:

**Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG, Wei CH (2017). An experimental investigation of applicability of the CO<sub>2</sub> enhanced coal bed methane recovery technique to low rank coal. *Fuel*, 189, 391-399.

## Section 8.3 – Optimization of CO<sub>2</sub>-enhanced coal bed methane recovery

As stated in the research literature (refer to Chapter 2) and highlighted in Parts 2 and 3, the effectiveness of the  $CO_2$ -ECBM process is greatly dependent on the properties of the coal seam and the injecting gas. Therefore, it is important to investigate the optimum reservoir and injecting

gas properties to harvest the greatest amount of CBM by sequestrating large amounts of  $CO_2$ . Numerical modelling tools can be used to reduce the complexity, cost and extensive time associated with laboratory and field experiments. Section 8.3 presents a numerical study conducted to optimize enhanced methane recovery using  $CO_2$  for a typical low rank coal seam.

## 8.2 Applicability of CO<sub>2</sub> enhanced coal bed methane recovery technique to low rank coal

According to the findings reported in Parts 2 and 3,  $CO_2$  adsorption has comparatively less influence on low rank coal in terms of strength and permeability reduction compared to high rank coal. Hence, it is interesting to investigate how low rank coal behaves during  $CO_2$  injectioninduced coal bed methane recovery enhancement and its applicability to this process. A series of  $CO_2$  core flooding tests was carried out on methane-saturated meso-scale Victorian brown coal specimens. Different  $CO_2$  injection pressures were selected, representing both sub- and supercritical  $CO_2$ , to observe how methane enhancement varies with  $CO_2$  phase condition. The concentration of methane and the flow rates of the gas produced at downstream were monitored to quantify the  $CO_2$  breakthrough and methane sweep efficiencies. As stated in Part 2,  $CO_2$ adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling can considerably reduce the permeability of coal, which is one of the main drawbacks of this process. Further, desorption of methane from the coal matrix causes the coal sample to shrink. Hence, it is interesting to observe the variation of sample volumetric strain for each test condition to identify the coal sample behaviour during the  $CO_2$ -ECBM process. This study was conducted next.

This section of the chapter is the following publication:

**Ranathunga AS**, Perera MSA, Ranjith PG, Wei CH (2017). An experimental investigation of applicability of  $CO_2$  enhanced coal bed methane recovery technique to low rank coal. *Fuel*, 189, 391-399.

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#### Full Length Article

# An experimental investigation of applicability of CO<sub>2</sub> enhanced coal bed methane recovery to low rank coal



CrossMark

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#### ABSTRACT

Previous studies have shown that carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) injection can enhance CH<sub>4</sub> production (CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM) compared to traditionally-used methods, mainly due to the higher adsorptive capability of CO<sub>2</sub> in coal, which desorbs the CH<sub>4</sub> with higher sweep efficiency. Many studies have been conducted to date on the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technique for high rank coals. However, there have been very few studies on low rank coal. Therefore, this study uses Victorian brown coal samples to investigate the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM potential of low rank coal. A series of CO<sub>2</sub> core flooding tests was conducted on CH<sub>4</sub> saturated meso-scale brown coal samples for various CO<sub>2</sub> injection conditions, phases and pressures.

According to the experimental findings, compared to natural recovery,  $CO_2$  flooding enhances  $CH_4$  production by creating higher production rates, and higher  $CO_2$  pressures can drive the  $CH_4$  towards the production end with almost 100% sweep efficiency. Furthermore, the rapid  $CO_2$  breakthroughs observed under higher  $CO_2$  pressures are found to be significant for super-critical  $CO_2$ . Tests results show that the superior competence of super-critical  $CO_2$  in  $CH_4$  recovery is independent of coal rank or maturity. However, the greater volumetric strain created by higher  $CO_2$  pressures may, have a negative influence on long-term gas productivity with the reduction of flow ability through the seam.

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#### 8.2.1. Introduction

The discovery of new energy sources has become crucial with the rising consumption caused by the ever-increasing population. The present world energy demand is basically fulfilled by oil (35.7%), natural gas (25.6%), coal (19.3%), nuclear (9.9%), biofuels and waste (5.5%), hydro-power (2.3%) and others (geothermal, solar, wind, heat etc. 1.7%) [1]. In the last few decades, much attention has been given to natural gas production as a replacement for oil and coal to overcome the environmental issues caused by them. As a result, a 35% increase in natural gas production was seen from 1973 to 2014, with 32% and 15% reductions in oil and coal energy production [1]. Coal seam gas (CSG) or coal bed methane (CBM) is a natural gas, which provides around 6–9% of the current natural gas production [2]. CSG is formed during the coalification process and is trapped in the coal matrix. CSG consists mainly of methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) (more than 90%) and is used as a low emission alternative for energy production.

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http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2016.10.116 0016-2361/© 2016 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved. The CSG adsorbed in coal seams is extracted primarily using the reservoir pressure depletion method of reducing the partial pressure of the species adsorbed into the coal mass, which eventually reverses the physical adsorption potential [3]. However, this method is not sufficiently efficient for economically-viable CSG production, as it can only extract around 50% of the gas-in-place [4] Further, the production of extensive amounts of saline water from coal seams (around 17,000 gallons/day) and the related environmental issues are a major concern with this method [5]. Therefore, several CSG production-enhancement techniques have been implemented in the field to mitigate reduced CSG production and the possible environmental impacts.

Fracturing of coal seams is a technique which is widely used for CSG flow enhancement in the field. However, the presence of active aquifers adjacent to the coal seam creates risks in using this technique and it is not economical for thin coal seams [6]. Enhanced coal bed methane (ECBM) recovery is being trialled for effective and economical production of CSG. ECBM recovery is accomplished by either inert gas stripping or displacement desorption methods [7,8] using nitrogen (N<sub>2</sub>), carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>), flue gas, compressor gas and other industrial off gasses as recovery agents [9].

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- Inert gas stripping: The introduction of a low adsorbing gas at a constant pressure leads to the reduction of the partial pressure and results in enhanced CSG production [7]. N<sub>2</sub> is a low adsorbing agent and N<sub>2</sub>-ECBM can recover up to 90% of gas-in-place [10].
- Displacement desorption: The CSG adsorbed in the coal mass is recovered by injecting a gas with higher adsorption capacity [8]. The higher affinity of CO<sub>2</sub> to the coal mass than pre-adsorbed CH<sub>4</sub> warrants the greater use of CO<sub>2</sub> for ECBM recovery. Generally, it is assumed that at least 2 mol of CH<sub>4</sub> are adsorbed into the coal matrix for every 1 mol of CH<sub>4</sub> desorbed [9].

Of these two methods, displacement desorption using CO<sub>2</sub> has attracted attention due to the advantages of this method. The most important benefit is the ability to stably store large amounts of anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> in deep coal seams, because more than 95% of the CO<sub>2</sub> is in its adsorbed phase in coal seams [9]. The larger surface area in coal seams provides the potential to store substantial amounts of CO<sub>2</sub> in the coal seams (around 11.2 gigatons of CO<sub>2</sub> in the combined Bowen and Sydney basins) [9]. Hence, the adoption of the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technique will help to reduce global warming. However, previous studies have found some disadvantages of the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technique due to the associated physical and chemical changes which occur in the seam upon CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption. Coal matrix swelling is the main drawback, in which large strains are developed between the adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub> layer and the surface of the pore walls in the coal matrix during CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption. This matrix swelling causes reduced pore spaces by rearranging the matrix, which eventually causes a reduction of flow-ability [11-19] and coal mass strength [20-24]. Field CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM studies [9,25-27] have experienced the reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> injectivity upon coal matrix swelling within the first 6 months to 2 years of CO<sub>2</sub> injection. Hence, further research is needed to investigate CSG recovery by CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration. To date, many studies have been conducted on the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM process and associated issues. Table 1 summarises some of the core-flooding experimental studies conducted on methane recovery by CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration using intact samples.

According to Table 1, it is evident that the use of  $CO_2$  increases  $CH_4$  production with a sweep efficiency greater than 90%. Furthermore, compared to  $CO_2$ ,  $N_2$  has an early breakthrough and interestingly,  $N_2$  permits a moderate increase in permeability, unlike  $CO_2$  which causes a reduction [28]. In addition, the sweep efficiency of flue gas (a mixture of  $CO_2$  and  $N_2$ ) is much lower than that of  $CO_2$ . Nevertheless, the higher the percentage of  $CO_2$  in flue gas, the greater the  $CH_4$  recovery [29]. Several researchers have conducted  $CO_2$ -ECBM studies using wet coal and found that the moisture present in a coal mass disrupts the  $CO_2/CH_4$  exchange (see Table 1).

Potential coal seams for CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM are located at great depths, at which CO<sub>2</sub> is in its super-critical state due to the higher pressures and temperatures [9]. Wolf et al. [30] conducted several CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub> experiments on high rank coal, considering different phase effects of CO<sub>2</sub> (gas/liquid/super-critical). These researchers used a constant CO<sub>2</sub> injection rate under varying pore pressures to achieve the different phase conditions of CO<sub>2</sub>. According to their findings, the CH<sub>4</sub> sweep efficiencies for both gaseous (52%) and liquid phase (48%) CO<sub>2</sub> are similar (see Table 1). In the case of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub>, although a similar behaviour to liquid CO<sub>2</sub> may initially be seen, after an apparent breakthrough, super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> exhibits an improved exchange with CH<sub>4</sub> with higher sweep efficiencies [30].

However, almost all the  $CO_2$ -ECBM studies have been conducted on high rank coal specimens, due to the existence at unmineable depths and higher concentrations of CH<sub>4</sub>-in-place. To date, much less attention has been given to  $CO_2/CH_4$  exchange in brown coal, in particular Australian brown coal. The unlikely existence of brown coal in deep geological formations where geosequestration is considered workable is the main concern. According to Garduno et al. [36], the Jackson, Yegua and Wilcox formation in Texas has deep lignite formations (800-3800 ft from the standard sea level (SSL)) with CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM potential, and Hernandez et al. [37] stated that the close proximity of many CO2 point sources near these potential Texas low rank coals generates attractive economic conditions. Further, recent surveys conducted by the Cooperative Research Centre for Greenhouse Gas Technologies (CO2CRC) have confirmed the presence of brown coal seams at unmineable depths (400-800 m), which can be used for the purpose of geo-sequestration in the offshore Gippsland Basin, in Victoria. Australia [13,38]. The main objective of this study is therefore to investigate the potential of the enhanced recovery of CH<sub>4</sub> in the presence of CO<sub>2</sub> in brown coal.

#### 8.2.2. Experimental methodology

#### 8.2.2.1. Samples used

Core-flooding experiments were conducted using brown coal samples from the Hazelwood coal mine, located at Morwell in South Gippsland, Victoria, Australia. Fig. 1(a) gives the energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) elements composition of the brown coal samples used for the study. Victorian brown coal has various pore structures with a wide range of sizes, comprising macro-pores (>50 nm in diameter), meso-pores (2-50 nm), micro-pores (0.4-2 nm) and sub micro-pores (<0.4 nm). The smaller pores are accountable for the large surface areas of Victorian brown coal (often exceeding 200 m<sup>2</sup>/g) while larger pores contribute to the pore volume and porosity [39]. The experimental sorption data and the corresponding best fit Langmuir sorption isotherms for CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> (at 40 °C temperature) are shown in Fig. 1 (b) for the Victorian brown coal samples used (here both the samples used by Jasinge et al. [13] and the present work have almost similar chemical and microscopical properties). For the present study, samples of 38 mm in diameter and 80 mm in height were used, which were obtained from the same coal block. Dry samples were used for the experiments to avoid the effect of moisture and they were vacuumed to remove the residual gases present in the samples.

#### 8.2.2.2. Experimental procedure

#### *a.* Core flooding tests for CH<sub>4</sub>

Fig. 2 shows a schematic diagram of the experimental set-up used for the core-flooding tests. A detailed explanation of the set-up can be found in Ranjith and Perera [40]. The set-up consists of a tri-axial cell, which was used to apply the pressures and temperatures at reservoir conditions. For the current study, 11 MPa confining pressure was used under a constant temperature of 40 °C. Here, 11 MPa confining pressure was selected to represent a coal seam at a depth of around 400 m. First the specimen was pressurised with CH<sub>4</sub> (5 MPa) until the sample reached equilibrium. Next, the downstream flow rate was observed to find the CH<sub>4</sub> production under natural conditions without any injection at upstream. The CH4 displacement tests were then started by injecting CO<sub>2</sub> at a constant pressure after equilibrating with CH<sub>4</sub>. The test was continued until a steady state was achieved in upstream and downstream. The downstream flow was measured using a milligas counter and the downstream gas concentration was confirmed using a CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub> infrared gas sensor. This procedure was continued for all other CO<sub>2</sub> flooding tests (6, 7, 8 and 9 MPa) to observe the CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub> exchange patterns in brown coal. Here, 5, 6 and 7 MPa

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 Table 1

 Previous experimental studies on CO2-ECBM.

Sample		Test conditions	Key findings	Reference
Information Basin Coal rank Sample size	Pricetown mine, West Virginia Not given 8.89 cm (dia.) or 9.555 cm (dia.) with varying lengths (5.08–10.16 cm) stacked up to 29.21 cm (approx.)	<ul> <li>Single-state CO<sub>2</sub> injection with CO<sub>2</sub> pressures from 0.34 MPa to 1.41 MPa</li> <li>Multi-cycle CO<sub>2</sub> injection using CO<sub>2</sub> pressures 0.34 MPa and 0.7 MPa</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Recovery efficiency was increased from 36% to 132% when CO<sub>2</sub> pressure was increased from 0.34 to 1.41 MPa</li> <li>Cyclic CO<sub>2</sub> injection is capable of completely removing adsorbed CH<sub>4</sub> and significant quanti- ties of CO<sub>2</sub> remain adsorbed after cyclic injec- tion. (e.g. around 98% and 90% injected CO<sub>2</sub> remained after 0.34 MPa and 0.7 MPa cyclic CO<sub>2</sub> injection, respectively)</li> </ul>	Fulton et al. [31]
Basin Coal rank Sample size	Pricetown mine, West Virginia Not given 8.89 cm (dia.) or 9.555 cm (dia.) with varying lengths (5.08–10.16 cm) stacked up to 29.21 cm (approx.)	<ul> <li>Single-state CO<sub>2</sub> injection with CO<sub>2</sub> pressures from 1.38 MPa to 5.52 MPa and multi-cycle CO<sub>2</sub> injection using CO<sub>2</sub> pressure of 5.56 MPa for all the process pressures</li> <li>Flue gas injection with pressures from 1.34 to 5.56 MPa using 9 injection cycles</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Around 30% of gas-in-place is produced by the primary method and this value may increase slightly for deeper coal seams</li> <li>3.45–5.56 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injection could completely desorb all the gas-in-place by cyclic injection and would be a safer way to demethanate coal seams before mining</li> <li>None of the N<sub>2</sub> was adsorbed by the coal in the presence of CO<sub>2</sub> and the recovery of CH<sub>4</sub> was comparatively reduced during flue gas injection (e.g. the sweep efficiency for CO<sub>2</sub> injection is around 90% while that for flue gas injection is 57% where total injection pressure is 5.56 MPa)</li> </ul>	Reznik et al. [32]
Basin Coal rank Sample size	Beringen coal mines in Belgium and Anlage Westfalen mine in German R <sub>max</sub> of coal specimens: Beringen coal – 0.78% German coal – 1.15% 72 mm diameter and 250 mm in length	<ul> <li>Five different test conditions were adopted:</li> <li>Dry coal + CO<sub>2</sub> gas</li> <li>Water wet coal + CO<sub>2</sub> gas</li> <li>Dry coal + CO<sub>2</sub> liquid</li> <li>Water wet coal + CO<sub>2</sub> liquid</li> <li>Water wet coal + CO<sub>2</sub> super-critical</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Dry coal has a higher sweep efficiency than wet coal</li> <li>Both gas and liquid phase CO<sub>2</sub> injection show similar CH<sub>4</sub> sweep efficiencies</li> <li>Initially both liquid and super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> act similarly, then after an apparent breakthrough (around 92% in volume) it slowly improves in replacement of water and CH<sub>4</sub></li> <li>Super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> can achieve higher sweep efficiencies</li> </ul>	Wolf et al. [30]
Basin Coal rank Sample size	Powder River basin, USA Not given 42.5 mm diameter and 250 mm in length	<ul> <li>Adsorption/desorption isotherms for CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub></li> <li>Five CH<sub>4</sub> displacement tests at 4.14 MPa pressure: <ul> <li>100% N<sub>2</sub></li> <li>100% CO<sub>2</sub></li> <li>85/15% CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub></li> <li>46/54% CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub></li> <li>24/76% CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub></li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Adsorption capacity is 1:1/3:1/7 for CO<sub>2</sub>:CH<sub>4</sub>: N<sub>2</sub> respectively</li> <li>CO<sub>2</sub> breakthrough time is large due to the piston-like flow through the coal mass</li> <li>N<sub>2</sub> shows a more displaced front by advancing rapidly</li> </ul>	Jessen et al. [33]
Basin Coal rank Sample size	Beringen coal mines in Belgium, the Silezia coalfield in Poland and the Tupton coalfields in UK R <sub>max</sub> of coal specimens: Beringen coal – 0.78% Silezia coal – 0.68% Tupton coal – 0.53% 69.5 and 75 mm diameter and 178.3–334 mm in length	<ul> <li>Effect of differential swelling on fracture porosity and permeability of coal for 4.3– 22.85 MPa mean pore pressures of wet and dry coal specimens using CO<sub>2</sub> and flue gas (CO<sub>2</sub> – 1, 50 and 90%)</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Moisture in the coal mass obstructs the CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub> exchange process</li> <li>Sweep efficiencies of the experiments with flue gas were less compared to CO<sub>2</sub> flooding for similar conditions</li> <li>The higher the CO<sub>2</sub> percentage in the flue gas the greater the sweep efficiency</li> </ul>	Mazumder and Wolf [29]
Basin Coal rank Sample size	Bowen basin, Australia High rank 60.6 mm diameter and 114 mm in length	– Binary experiments $CH_4/N_2$ for 2 and 10 MPa – Ternary experiments $CH_4/(90\%~N_2+10\%~CO_2)$ for 2 and 10 MPa	– Earlier $N_2$ breakthrough compared to $CH_4$ , hence $N_2$ displacing $CH_4$ sweep efficiency is lower than $CH_4$ displacing $N_2$	Connell et al. [34]
Basin Coal rank Sample size	Duanshi coal mine, China High rank 37.8 mm in diameter and 76.8 mm in length	<ul> <li>Binary experiments CH<sub>4</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub>/CO<sub>2</sub></li> <li>3.6 MPa back-pressure under 9.7 MPa confining pressure used to saturate samples with CH<sub>4</sub></li> <li>A water rate of 1.152 × 10<sup>-4</sup> m<sup>3</sup>/day was used to inject CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> into the coal specimen</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Compared to CO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub> breaks through earlier</li> <li>The compositional adsorption amounts for N<sub>2</sub>-ECBM are better than those for CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM</li> <li>N<sub>2</sub> injection causes a moderate increase in coal permeability, while CO<sub>2</sub> injection causes significant permeability reduction</li> </ul>	Zhou et al. [28]
Basin Coal rank Sample size	Bowen basin and Hunter Valley basin, Australia High rank Bowen basin sample: 60.6 mm in diameter and 114 mm in length Hunter Valley basin sample: 60.85 mm in diameter and 126.3 mm in length	– Binary experiments $CH_4/CO_2$ for 4 and 10 MPa	<ul> <li>Permeability is increased when CO<sub>2</sub> displaces CH<sub>4</sub></li> <li>The sweep efficiency is almost 100% for CO<sub>2</sub> displacing CH<sub>4</sub> and is less when CH<sub>4</sub> displaces CO<sub>2</sub></li> </ul>	Sander et al. [35]



Fig. 1. (a) EDS analysis and (b) best fit Langmuir isotherms for CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> [13] for brown coal samples used.



Fig. 2. Schematic diagram of the experimental set-up used for core flooding tests.

 $CO_2$  flood represent gaseous  $CO_2$  and 8 and 9 MPa  $CO_2$  flood represent super-critical  $CO_2$  (greater than critical pressure 7.38 MPa and temperature 31.8 °C of  $CO_2$ ) (see Fig. 3).

#### b. Measuring coal mass volumetric changes

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During the complete test sequence, the volumetric strain of the coal sample was recorded using an advanced data acquisition system at 1 s intervals to quantify the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced coal matrix swelling and CH<sub>4</sub> desorption-induced coal matrix shrinkage of the brown coal specimen. The volumetric strain was calculated considering the volume change of the syringe pump (see Eq. (1)) used to apply confining pressure. When the sample is subjected

to swelling, the excess oil volume inside the cell is pumped out into the syringe pump, increasing the existing pump oil volume, while oil is pumped out to the cell from the syringe pump when the sample is shrunk, reducing the oil volume of the pump. Eq. (1) was used to calculate the volumetric strain of the coal specimen during various injection conditions:

Volumetric strain of the sample  $(S_v)$ 

$$= \left(\frac{\pm \Delta V_x}{V_{initial}}\right) \times 100\%; \quad \Delta V_x = V_{initial} - V_t \tag{1}$$

where  $V_{initial}$  is the initial pump volume during the respective test condition,  $V_t$  is the pump volume at time, t and  $\Delta V_x$  is the oil volume

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Fig. 3.  $CO_2$  phase diagram (triangular bullet points denote the pressures used for the present study).

change (pumped in or out of the syringe pump). For the strain calculation, initial pump volume ( $V_{initial}$ ) was taken only after the pump oil volume became stable after the application of confining pressure (upon completion of sample shrinkage due to confining pressure) and the CH<sub>4</sub> saturation. Hence, the volumetric strain values obtained from this Eq. (1) were only due to the sample volume changes caused by the adsorption or desorption of gases.

#### 8.2.3. Results and discussion

A series of  $CO_2$  flooding tests was conducted, representing different  $CO_2$  phase conditions (gas and super-critical) to observe the  $CH_4$  displacement of brown coal, and the results obtained are discussed in the following sections.

#### 8.2.3.1.CH<sub>4</sub> displacement with CO<sub>2</sub> flood

#### *a.* Gas production from the coal matrix

The experimental flow rates obtained for natural CH<sub>4</sub> displacement under different CO<sub>2</sub> floods are presented in Fig. 4. According to the figure, CH<sub>4</sub> desorbs at a comparatively very slow rate during natural recovery, and the production rate becomes steady at 0.0008 m<sup>3</sup>/d after around 13.5 days. In contrast, CO<sub>2</sub> flooding enhances the CH<sub>4</sub> displacement from the coal matrix and higher CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressures facilitate higher CH<sub>4</sub> production. For example, 0.0019 m<sup>3</sup>/d and 0.0025 m<sup>3</sup>/d steady production rates were obtained for 5 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> flood within 3.4 days and for 8 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> within 2.1 days. This increment is more than twice the natural steady production rate for 5 MPa sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injection, and more than three times the natural production rate for 8 MPa super-critical CO<sub>2</sub>. Further, each CO<sub>2</sub> injection causes an increasing gas outflow gradient of around 0.0007 (5 MPa), 0.0009 (6 MPa), 0.0011 (7 MPa), 0.0014 (8 MPa) and 0.0019 (9 MPa) over time, before reaching the steady state (see Fig. 4). The larger CO<sub>2</sub> volume entering the coal mass at higher injection pressures is the reason for this higher gas production rate. Similar behaviour has been witnessed by Sander et al. [35] for high rank coal and these researchers observed around 0.003 and 0.008 gas outflow increasing gradients at 4 and 10 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressures over time, respectively. Interestingly, this increment is higher for supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> flooding compared to gaseous CO<sub>2</sub> flooding. Around 20% increase in gas outflow was observed from 5 to 6 MPa gaseous CO<sub>2</sub> injection, while that for 8–9 MPa was around 40%. The higher adsorption potential of super-critical CO2 with its inherent greater viscosities and densities compared to gaseous CO<sub>2</sub> [23] may be the reason for these improved gas production rates at higher injection pressures, by displacing larger amounts of CH<sub>4</sub> from coal matrix. The greater penetration ability of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> compared to liquid CO<sub>2</sub> due to reduced viscosity characteristics may offer greater CH<sub>4</sub> replacement potential for tiny pores.

The CO<sub>2</sub> injection rates at upstream during gas production are detailed in Table 2. According to the table, all the CO<sub>2</sub> floods have higher injection rates at the start and reduce to a constant injection rate over time. This initial injection rate and the constant injection rates increase with increasing injection pressure. It should be noted that, during this study, CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure was kept constant and hence the inflow rates were varied accordingly to obtain the prescribed pressures. These enhanced injection rates also contributed to the observed increased gas production rates with increasing CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressures. Similar results were observed by Sander et al. [35] for high rank coal which observed an injection rate of 0.009 m<sup>3</sup>/d which became constant at 0.0055 m<sup>3</sup>/d for 4 MPa  $CO_2$  flow and 0.025 m<sup>3</sup>/d injection rate, which reached to a constant at 0.013  $m^3/d$  for 10 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> flow. Therefore, these observed injection pressure variations are common for any coal type.



Fig. 4. Observed gas production rate at downstream with natural recovery and CO<sub>2</sub>-enhanced methane recovery.

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Table 2	
CO <sub>2</sub> injection rates at upstream	1 for different CO <sub>2</sub> floods.

CO <sub>2</sub> injection pressure (MPa)	Initial injection rate (m <sup>3</sup> /d)	Constant injection rate $(m^3/d)$
5	0.0046	0.0019
6	0.0055	0.0020
7	0.0061	0.0022
8	0.0073	0.0025
9	0.0082	0.0028

#### b. CO<sub>2</sub> breakthrough during CH<sub>4</sub>/CO<sub>2</sub> exchange

The time taken for CO<sub>2</sub> breakthrough varies with different CO<sub>2</sub> injections (see Fig. 5), and for 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressures, it took around 1.25, 1.19, 1.10, 0.65 and 0.4 days, respectively for CO<sub>2</sub> breakthroughs to occur. As explained previously, a larger volume of CO<sub>2</sub> entering the coal mass at higher injection pressures may act as a driving force to adsorbed gases in the coal matrix for quicker displacement, and greater super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> penetration ability into pores may further enhance the effect. Similar results have been observed for high rank coal by Sander et al. [35], who found that it took around 0.8 and 0.5 days for 4 and 10 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> floods, respectively to have a CO<sub>2</sub> breakthrough. Interestingly, these breakthrough times for super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> are lower than those for gaseous CO<sub>2</sub>. As mentioned before, only 0.4 days were required for  $9 \text{ MPa } \text{CO}_2$  flood to break through the coal matrix, while it took around 1.25 days for 5 MPa gaseous CO<sub>2</sub>. As explained before, the enhanced ability of super-critical CO2 to adsorb into the coal matrix [11] caused this shorter breakthrough time with super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> flood. Therefore, higher CO<sub>2</sub> injections can break through rapidly and desorb CH<sub>4</sub> from the coal mass. Hence, super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> floods can facilitate higher CH<sub>4</sub> production rates in field conditions for any coal rank. However, this quicker CO<sub>2</sub> breakthrough at high injection pressures can result in early CO<sub>2</sub> outflow at downstream with CH<sub>4</sub> production. Therefore, in the course of this study, the downstream gas composition was observed and recorded to determine the CO<sub>2</sub> flow along the specimen during CH<sub>4</sub>/CO<sub>2</sub> exchange.



Fig. 5. CO<sub>2</sub> concentration of produced gas at downstream for different CO<sub>2</sub> floods.

Fig. 5 shows the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration (in percentages) at downstream for different CO<sub>2</sub> floods. As shown in the figure, the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration vary in an "S" over time. At first the concentration remained 0% for few days and then it progressively started to increase up to 7-15 days and then gradually became 100% at the end. Although this pattern is similar for all the CO<sub>2</sub> floods, the time before CO2 is observed at downstream is less for higher injection pressures. For example, the times taken for CO<sub>2</sub> production under 5 and 9 MPa injection pressure are around 8 and 3.5 days, respectively. According to the results, the times taken to have 50% CO<sub>2</sub> in the gas produced under 5 and 9 MPa injections pressures are around 17.5 and 10.6 days, respectively. According to previous sections, higher CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressures have greater capability to break through the coal matrix by releasing CH<sub>4</sub> at higher production rates (see Fig. 4). Hence, early CO<sub>2</sub> release at the downstream can be witnessed and is higher for super-critical CO<sub>2</sub>. This observation is important for field-scale projects, as super-critical CO2 can break through the coal matrix easily and quickly while driving more CH<sub>4</sub> molecules towards the production end. Further, this behaviour of super-critical  $CO_2$  leads to a larger transition zone from CH<sub>4</sub> saturated to CO<sub>2</sub> saturated coal mass under field conditions.

#### 8.2.3.2.Methane sweep efficiency

Next, the mass balance of each core flooding test was calculated by using the cumulative inflow and outflow measurements and the results are presented in Table 3. As stated in the table, the natural recovery of CH<sub>4</sub> could only afford for a 46% sweep efficiency while CO<sub>2</sub> flood has a higher efficiency of desorbing CH<sub>4</sub> from coal mass with an average of 97% sweep efficiency. Further, this sweep efficiency is higher for super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> injection than for gaseous CO<sub>2</sub> flow. For example, around 93% efficiency was observed for 5 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> flood while it was 100% for 9 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injection. This sweep efficiency value further confirms the higher affinity of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> to adsorb into the coal mass by desorbing the pre-adsorbed CH<sub>4</sub> from the coal matrix.

Similar results have been observed by Sander et al. [35] for high rank coal (dry), which showed a 99.2% efficiency for 4 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> flood displacing CH<sub>4</sub> and 100% efficiency for 10 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> flood displacing CH<sub>4</sub>. Moreover, Wolf et al. [30] used water-saturated high rank coal samples to investigate the effect of CO<sub>2</sub> phase on CH<sub>4</sub> recovery. They injected CO2 at a constant flow rate of 9.4E-6 mol/h for each test and with varying pore pressure to obtain different phases of CO<sub>2</sub>. According to their results, gaseous CO<sub>2</sub> flood through water wet coal has around 26% sweep efficiency, where super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> flood has an efficiency of around 40%. Hence, both gaseous and super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> desorb CH<sub>4</sub> in dry coal at higher sweep efficiencies. The adsorptive nature of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> may result in this greater sweep efficiency compared to gaseous CO<sub>2</sub> and this is common for any coal type according to this study. Coal with moisture also exhibits a similar behaviour to dry coal; however, it has comparatively much lower efficiency in displacing CH<sub>4</sub>. This is because the hydrophilicity of coal obstructs the CO<sub>2</sub> entrance into the matrix pores; hence CO<sub>2</sub> need to remove both water and CH<sub>4</sub> from the pores for adsorption, which leads to lower sweep efficiencies [30,41].

# 8.2.3.3. Brown coal volumetric deformation with $\mathrm{CO}_2$ adsorption and $\mathrm{CH}_4$ desorption

The flow ability along the coal specimen is varied by the  $CH_4$  desorption and  $CO_2$  adsorption processes, because  $CH_4$  desorption from the coal matrix causes the coal matrix to shrink while  $CO_2$  adsorption into the coal matrix causes it to swell. Hence, it is important to identify how the variable sorption affects gas produc-

Table 3

Calculated mass balance for CH<sub>4</sub>/CO<sub>2</sub> core flooding tests.

CO2 injection pressure (MPa) Initial gas coal samp		ntent in the Final gas cont (m <sup>3</sup> /t) sample (m <sup>3</sup> /t)		tent in the coal )	Sweep efficiency (%)
	CH <sub>4</sub>	CO <sub>2</sub>	CH <sub>4</sub>	CO <sub>2</sub>	
-	2.8	-	1.5	-	46.4
5	2.9	0.0	0.2	13.5	93.1
6	2.8	0.0	0.1	14.8	96.4
7	2.9	0.0	0.1	15.9	96.6
8	2.7	0.0	0.0	16.9	100.0
9	2.8	0.0	0.0	17.7	100.0

tion from the coal mass. Fig. 6 illustrates the gas production variation with the measured volumetric strain of the specimen. Natural recovery of gas causes a gradual increment in volumetric shrinkage over time, and the trend is similar to the gas production trend (see Fig. 6(a)). When an already adsorbed gas is removed from the pores, the specimen may undergo shrinkage [29,34,35,42], and this observation explains the effect of  $CH_4$  desorption from the coal matrix. At the end of gas production, it shows around 0.84% volumetric strain reduction.

In relation to the  $CO_2$  flood, all the  $CO_2$  injections show a similar behaviour of volumetric strain, shrinkage at the beginning followed by coal mass swelling. The coal specimen does not start to swell immediately upon  $CO_2$  injection, as it takes some time to develop considerable swelling upon  $CO_2$  adsorption. However,



Fig. 6. Gas production variation with volumetric strain for (a) natural production, (b) 5 MPa, (c) 6 MPa, (d) 7 MPa, (e) 8 MPa and (f) 9 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> floods (note: negative strains are shrinkage and positive strains are swelling).

the methane desorption starts as soon as  $CO_2$  reaches the matrix, shrinking the coal mass. Table 4 further demonstrates the volumetric strain behaviour during  $CO_2$  injection. According to the table, volumetric strain with gas production is increased with increasing  $CO_2$  injection pressure, meaning that the swelling increases with increasing  $CO_2$  injection pressure. As Day et al., [11] have shown, coal matrix swelling in coal upon  $CO_2$  exposure is greater at elevated pressures. A similar concept applies in the  $CO_2$ -ECBM experiments: for example, compared to 5 MPa  $CO_2$  (gaseous), 9 MPa  $CO_2$ (super-critical) flood caused a swelling increment of more than 500%. Similar results were observed for high rank coal by Mazumder and Wolf [29], who found around 0.0017 and 0.0035 linear strain increment (swelling) for gaseous to super-critical  $CO_2$  flood while injecting  $CO_2$  at a constant rate of 0.7 ml/h.

In addition, the minimum volumetric strain or maximum shrinkage also increases with increasing  $CO_2$  injection pressure. From 5 to 9 MPa  $CO_2$  injection, around 125% increment in shrinkage was observed. Interestingly, the time taken for the sample to initiate swelling is reduced with injection pressure and this reduction is higher at higher injection pressures. For example, around 62% of time reduction is observed when the  $CO_2$  flood is raised from 5 to 9 MPa. The reason for these behaviours can be explained by considering Fig. 6(b)–(f). As depicted in the figures, gas production rate is increased with increasing injection pressure. Hence, higher  $CH_4$  removal rate in the coal mass causes the sample volume reduction to be accelerated, with the associated desorption of  $CH_4$  causing larger shrinkage. Next, the high pressure  $CO_2$  molecules with higher adsorption capacity start to penetrate through the coal pores, leading to sample volume increment.

## 8.2.4.Implications for field-scale projects and recommendations for future research

The present study was conducted to investigate the possibility of using CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM in low rank coal. According to the results, CO<sub>2</sub> greatly enhances CH<sub>4</sub> production, which is greater at higher injection pressures, particularly in its super-critical state. As suitable coal seams for CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM favour super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> at their respective depths, the greater potential of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> for augmenting CH<sub>4</sub> recovery is beneficial. Furthermore, higher CO<sub>2</sub> pressures are quicker in exchanging CH<sub>4</sub> to CO<sub>2</sub> and this behaviour of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> leads to a larger transition zone from CH<sub>4</sub> saturated to CO<sub>2</sub> saturated coal mass under field conditions, which will drive the recovered CH<sub>4</sub> to the production wells. At the same

Table 4				
Volumetric strain	behaviour	during	$CO_2$	flood.

CO <sub>2</sub> injection pressure (MPa)	Time taken for the sample to start swelling, <i>a</i> (days)	Minimum volumetric strain (shrinkage) (%)	Volumetric strain at the end of gas production (%)
5 6 7 8 9	8.2 6.1 5.4 3.3 3.1	-0.08 -0.10 -0.11 -0.13 -0.18	0.08 0.16 0.24 0.39 0.51
Volumetric strain	Time taken for the samp start swelling <i>a</i> - Shrinkage	le to + Swelling	Time

time, this super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> causes higher coal mass swelling with CH<sub>4</sub> production. As explained in Section 8.2.1, this swelling reduces the flow ability of coal, which eventually disrupts both CO<sub>2</sub> injec-tion and CH<sub>4</sub> production. Therefore, N<sub>2</sub> has been used by several researchers and in field projects in a mixture with CO<sub>2</sub> to enhance gas recovery. N<sub>2</sub> is a comparatively less adsorbent gas than CO<sub>2</sub> which acts as a swelling recovery agent [9,43] while reducing the partial pressure of the coal reservoir for higher production of CH<sub>4</sub> while storing a larger amount of CO<sub>2</sub>. Several studies have been conducted using flue gas for CH<sub>4</sub> recovery for high rank coal and few studies have been conducted using low rank coal. Hence, it is recommended to perform studies using flue gas to enhance CH<sub>4</sub> recovery for low rank coal.

In addition, the presence of water results in higher reductions in sweep efficiency for both gaseous and super-critical  $CO_2$  floods (refer to Section 8.2.3.2). Generally, coal becomes more hydrophilic with decreasing rank and carbon content, and with increasing oxygen-containing groups [41]. Victorian brown coal is a low rank coal with a lower carbon content (69%, see Fig. 1(a)) and has around 55–60% moisture content [24]. Therefore, it is vital to study the effect of moisture on  $CH_4/CO_2$  exchange in brown coal for a bet-ter understanding of the potential of coal as a catalyst for  $CO_2$ -ECBM projects, particularly for low rank coal like brown coal.

The current study was conducted on a meso-scale specimen 38 mm in diameter and 80 mm long). To better relate  $CO_2$  adsorption and  $CH_4$  recovery, larger scale (macro- and reservoir-scale) studies are essential. The findings of this investigation can be used as a platform to implement reservoir-scale studies to determine the effect of various effective factors, such as higher  $CO_2$  pressures, different depths and different temperatures, and to extend knowledge about  $CO_2$ -ECBM recovery in low rank coal.

#### 8.2.5. Conclusions

The applicability of CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM to low rank coal was investigated in this study using low rank Victorian brown coal (dry), and the following major conclusions can be drawn: • Compared to natural recovery, CO<sub>2</sub> flooding can significantly

- Compared to natural recovery, CO<sub>2</sub> flooding can significantly enhance coal sema CH<sub>4</sub> production.
- Higher CO<sub>2</sub> inflows can drive the CH<sub>4</sub> competently towards the production end with almost 100% sweep efficiency with rapid CO<sub>2</sub> breakthrough, and the effect is much greater for super-critical CO<sub>2</sub>. This creates a larger transition zone from a CH<sub>4</sub> saturated to a CO<sub>2</sub> saturated coal mass in the field, which more easily drives the recovered CH<sub>4</sub> towards the production wells.
- The effectiveness of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> in CH<sub>4</sub> recovery is independent of coal seam maturity or rank.
- However, the greater coal matrix swelling which occurs in coal under higher CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressures may negatively affect long-term gas production through the reduction of the seam's flow ability.

#### 8.2.6. Acknowledgements

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#### 8.2.7. References

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## 8.3 Optimization of CO<sub>2</sub>-enhanced coal bed methane recovery

## 8.3.1 Overview

As discussed in Section 8.2, the methane production enhancement ability of  $CO_2$  from deep coal beds is highly dependent on the properties of the coal seam and the injecting gas. Hence, identification of the optimum conditions of these properties to optimize methane recovery is crucial. Although some experimental, numerical and field studies have been conducted on the  $CO_2$ -ECBM process, to date none has considered the influences of all the possible primary factors affecting this process, and it has therefore been difficult to obtain comprehensive knowledge of the subject specially on low rank coal. Hence, in this section, an effort is made to determine the most favourable conditions for  $CO_2$ -ECBM by developing a 3-D numerical model using the COMET 3 numerical simulator. First, the  $CO_2$  ECBM process and the primary pressure depletion technique (removal of water from the coal seam) is compared to confirm the ability of  $CO_2$  to improve methane production. Next, factors affecting the  $CO_2$ -ECBM process during  $CO_2$ -ECBM are reported as follows:

- Effect of coal seam properties
  - Temperature (25, 40, 60, 80 and 100 <sup>0</sup>C)
  - Moisture content (20, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90 and 100%)
  - Depth of injection (400, 500, 600, 700 and 800 m)
- Effect of injecting gas properties
  - CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure (6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16 and 18 MPa)
  - Injecting gas composition (20, 40, 60, 80 and 100% of N<sub>2</sub> mixed with CO<sub>2</sub>)

The arrangement of  $CO_2$  injection wells and the methane production wells is also important for the optimisation of the  $CO_2$ -ECBM process. Therefore, the influence of  $CO_2$  injection well arrangement, methane production well arrangement and the distance between the injection well and production well are examined to determine the optimum conditions to recover a maximum amount of methane from a selected coal seam.

### 8.3.2 Introduction

The traditional CBM recovery technique involves the reduction of overall pressure in the coal seam by dewatering, either by pumping or mining. However, according to recent scientific findings, this CBM recovery process can be greatly enhanced through the injection of gases, such as carbon dioxide ( $CO_2$ ) or nitrogen ( $N_2$ ), into the coal bed (Fujioka et al 1995; White et al 2005; Perera et al., 2012a; Vishal et al 2013a), which is commonly known as enhanced coal-bed methane (ECBM) recovery. In the CO<sub>2</sub> injection-enhanced ECBM process (CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM), when CO<sub>2</sub> is injected into a coal seam, it displaces the CBM due to its higher affinity with coal. This has the added advantage of sequestering carbon dioxide in the coal bed, which reduces the amount of net carbon emissions, making methane extracted using ECBM recovery techniques one of the greenest sources of energy. In Australia, carbon was initially priced at AUD \$23/ton (Maimone, 2011), which would considerably enhance the economic viability of ECBM, coupled with increasing gas prices. With regard to the N<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technique, according to Reeves (2001) the injection of N<sub>2</sub> into the coal seam causes the CBM production rate to significantly increase. This is mainly due to the nonadsorptive nature of N<sub>2</sub>, which causes it to remain as free gas in the fracture space, resulting in the creation of an imbalance between sorbed and free gas phases inside the coal mass and reduction of the CH<sub>4</sub> partial pressure. This process causes the CBM to be released from the adsorbed phase and to move into the free gas phase, which enhances methane production from the coal seam (Reeves, 2001; Perera et al., 2012b).

Although the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM and N<sub>2</sub>-ECBM recovery processes have the ability to enhance methane production from coal seams, they also have limitations. ECBM is a relatively new technology with relatively few commercial wells to date. Some of the pilot projects include the ARC (Reeves, 2003; Reeves and Odinot, 2004), RECOPOL (Pagnier et al., 2006), and MOVECBM (Wageningen and Cuesta, 2005) projects. In these projects, ECBM has been used to extract more methane in conventional CBM wells only after the rate of methane production has dropped significantly, because ECBM recovery has many associated economic risks. Drilling wells to deep coal seams is a very expensive process, and therefore production and field-scale testing have become quite expensive (Ranjith et al., 2013). This has caused less investment in ventures in which there is significant risk of a limited return on investment. The major cost parameters for the process include  $CO_2$  and  $N_2$  injection costs, processing and implementation costs, transportation expenses and the market value of the methane produced. In order to have an economical ECBM process, the value of the gas produced should exceed the production cost plus the cost of transporting the gas, minus the cost of taxes or  $CO_2$  credits (Reeves, 2003). Therefore, ECBM recovery projects can be made more economical by using existing facilities, such as converting production wells for injection and using time-tested technological approaches, such as the organization of injection wells and production wells. However, such optimum recovery scenarios have not been fully studied to date, although such techniques are important for the economic aspect of projects in terms of harvesting an optimum amount of methane with the minimum capital cost. According to Reeves (2003), the lack of knowledge related to the ECBM process has also crucially affected ECBM implementation in the field, and according to Pini et al. (2006), it is necessary to conduct a broader range of scientific research studies to overcome this issue.

The injection of CO<sub>2</sub> into deep coal seams causes significant alterations to their chemicophysical structure, and the coal matrix swelling effect created by injecting CO<sub>2</sub> is significant (White et al., 2005). This can start as soon as 1 h after CO<sub>2</sub> injection, causing the seam's permeability to be significantly reduced, and resulting in unpredictable CO<sub>2</sub> injectivity and CH<sub>4</sub> productivity of coal seams (Perera et al., 2011a; Perera et al., 2011b; Perera et al., 2011c; Perera and Ranjith 2012; Vishal et al., 2013b; Vishal et al., 2013c). According to Perera et al (2011c), this swelling process is heavily dependent on the  $CO_2$  phase condition, and super-critical  $CO_2$ adsorption-induced swelling is up to two times greater than sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced swelling. Therefore, the injection of CO<sub>2</sub> into the coal seam, particularly under the super-critical conditions which exist below certain depths, greatly reduces flow ability through the coal mass by closing the pore space, consequently creating greater tortuosity for CO<sub>2</sub> movement and resulting in reduced coal mass permeability (Viete and Ranjith 2006; Perera et al., 2011; Perera et al., 2012a). In addition, existing safety rules in underground coal mines limit the amount of  $CO_2$  permitted in them; the maximum percentage of CO<sub>2</sub> in a coal mine should be around 3% of the mine's air volume. Therefore, there is a risk associated with the injection of CO<sub>2</sub> into coal seams during the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM process that may cause the coal seam to be unmineable forever (Sarmah, 2011). However, the significant contribution of the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM process to the mitigation of atmospheric  $CO_2$  levels through  $CO_2$  sequestration also needs to be considered from the environmental protection perspective (Perera et al., 2011d). Therefore, performance evaluation of the process under various conditions (different injection gas and seam properties) is very important for the optimization of the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM process.

In the N<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technique, the existence of free N<sub>2</sub> in the seam causes quicker N<sub>2</sub> breakthroughs in the gas produced, which greatly reduces the benefits offered by the process when the higher gas treatment costs are taken into account (Reeves, 2001). For instance, specialized equipment is required to separate the N<sub>2</sub> from the product gas stream (a mixture of N<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> (Mazzotti et al., 2009)), which is quite expensive. This has been observed in both the Tiffany N<sub>2</sub>-
ECBM unit in the San Juan basin and the Alberta ECBM project (Reeves and Odinot, 2004; Gunter, 2009). However, according to current research, there is a significantly higher production potential for the N<sub>2</sub>-ECBM process compared to the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM process (Perera and Ranjith, 2012), which also needs to be considered. Therefore, it is clearly necessary to find the optimum technique for the ECBM process with maximum productivity and minimum risk and environmental impact. Some studies have shown the advantages of flue gas (87% N<sub>2</sub> + 13% CO<sub>2</sub>) injection compared to pure CO<sub>2</sub> or N<sub>2</sub> injection (Reeves and Schoeling, 2000), because the injection of a mixture of N<sub>2</sub> + CO<sub>2</sub> offers higher methane productivity with an earlier response compared to pure CO<sub>2</sub> injection, and it sequestrates similar amounts of CO<sub>2</sub> due to the higher injection rate. In addition, N<sub>2</sub> has some potential to recover CO<sub>2</sub> injection-induced swelling (Jasinge et al., 2011; Perera et al., 2012b; Perera et al., 2013a; Vishal et al 2013a), which also results in the greater injectivity of the N<sub>2</sub>/CO<sub>2</sub> mixture compared to pure CO<sub>2</sub>. Although the use of flue gas seems to be the optimum way to harvest commercially-viable amounts of CBM in an environmentally-friendly way, the injection of a CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> mixture at a predetermined ratio possibly offers a better solution.

However, to date few studies have been conducted on the  $N_2 + CO_2$ -ECBM technique. According to the experimental study conducted by Parakh (2007), the injection of a 45%  $N_2 + 55\%$  CO<sub>2</sub> gas mixture causes an initially high rate of production, due to the  $N_2$  and the rate gradually becoming slower due to the CO<sub>2</sub>. Fieldwork in the Fenn Big Valley basin in Alberta, Canada (Gunter, 2009; Wong et al., 2000) involved the injection of different proportions of  $N_2/CO_2$  (0%  $N_2$ , 53%  $N_2$ , 87%  $N_2$  and 100%  $N_2$ ) into the 1–4 mD low permeable Mannville reservoir using two injection wells. This project illustrates that the injection of a mixture of  $N_2 + CO_2$  may help reduce the problems associated with CO<sub>2</sub> injection-induced coal swelling and early breakthrough with  $N_2$  injection, and that flue gas injection avoids the high costs associated with the pure  $N_2/CO_2$  capture process. However, it is necessary to conduct a comprehensive study to fully understand the process and find the best CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> composition to achieve optimum productivity and safety advantages related to the ECBM process. The results will be important for ECBM recovery field projects worldwide.

In addition, as ECBM recovery is an expensive and time-consuming process, it is necessary to establish appropriate numerical models to find the optimum method to recover a maximum amount of CH<sub>4</sub> from a selected coal seam. Of the many field-scale simulators available to simulate gas flow in underground reservoirs, including TOUGH 2 (Carneiro, 2009), COMSOL (Liu and Smirnov, 2009; Perera et al., 2013b), FEMLAB (Holzbecher, 2005) and COMET 3 (Perera et al., 2012a; Perera et al., 2012c; Vishal et al 2012; Vishal et al., 2013d; Vishal et al., 2015), COMET 3 has been identified as one of the most appropriate and user-friendly

numerical modelling tools for deep coal seams (Perera et al., 2012b). Therefore, the main objective of this study is to conduct a comprehensive numerical modelling study using COMET 3 software to investigate optimization measures for the ECBM process.

Although some experimental, numerical and field studies have been conducted on the ECBM process and production-enhancement techniques, none has considered the influences of all the possible primary factors affecting the process, and it has therefore been difficult to obtain comprehensive knowledge of the subject. This study therefore offers a comprehensive platform for the study of all possible major ECBM process-enhancing techniques.

## 8.3.2.1 Governing equations used

Mass conservation equations (Eqs. [8.1] and [8.2]) were used to simulate the CH<sub>4</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub> and water flows in the deep coal seam (Sawyer et al., 1990; Perera et al., 2011d; Perera et al., 2012b; Ranjith et al., 2013):

$$\nabla \cdot \left[ b_g M_g (\nabla p + \gamma \nabla Z) + R_{sw} b_w M_w (\nabla p_w + \gamma_w \nabla Z) \right]_f + q_m + q_g = \left( \frac{d}{dt} \right) \left( \emptyset b_g S_g + R_{sw} \emptyset b_w S_w \right)_f$$
[8.1]

$$\nabla \left[ b_w M_w (\nabla p_w + \gamma_w \nabla Z) \right]_f + q_w = \left(\frac{d}{dt}\right) (\emptyset b_w S_w)_f$$

$$[8.2]$$

where,  $b_n$  (n=g or w) is the gas or water bulking factor,  $\gamma_n$  (n=g or w) is the gas or water gradient,  $R_{sw}$  is the gas solubility in water,  $\phi$  is the fracture porosity, Z is the elevation,  $q_g$  is the gas flow rate,  $q_w$  is the water flow rate,  $q_m$  is the matrix gas flow rate,  $M_n$  (n=g(gas) or w (water)) =  $kk_m/\mu_n$ , is the phase mobility (*k*-permeability,  $k_m$ -matrix permeability,  $\mu_n$ -phase viscosity),  $S_n$  (n=g or w) is the gas or water saturation and  $P_n$  (n=g or w) is the gas or water pressure. Using the extended Langmuir model (Arri et al., 1992) gas adsorption was calculated (Eq. [8.3]).

$$C_{i}(P_{i}) = \frac{V_{Li}P_{i}}{P_{Li}\left[1 + \sum_{j=1}^{3} \left(\frac{P}{P_{L}}\right)_{j}\right]}, \quad i = 1,2$$
[8.3]

where,  $V_{Li}$  is the Langmuir volume,  $P_{Li}$  is the Langmuir pressure,  $P_i$  is the partial pressure of the gas component,  $C_i(P_i)$  is the adsorbed gas concentration at  $P_i$  and P is the total pressure. Gas flow through the matrix is modelled using Fick's law of diffusion (Eq. [8.4]).

$$q_{mi} = \left(\frac{V_m}{\tau_i}\right) [C_i - C_i(P_i)], i = 1, 2$$
[8.4]

where,  $q_{mi}$  is the gas component flow,  $V_m$  is the bulk volume of the matrix element,  $\tau_i$  is the sorption time and  $C_i$  is the average matrix gas concentration of gas component *i*.

The corresponding permeability variations in the coal matrix and fracture system were simulated using the Advanced Resources International (ARI) model (Eq. [8.5] and Eq. [8.6]):

$$\varphi = \varphi_i [1 + c_P (P - P_i)] - c_m (1 - \varphi_i) \left(\frac{\Delta P_i}{\Delta C_i}\right) (C - C_i)$$

$$[8.5]$$

$$\frac{k}{k_i} = \left(\frac{\varphi}{\varphi_i}\right)^n \tag{8.6}$$

where,  $c_p$  is the pore volume compressibility,  $c_m$  is the matrix shrinkage compressibility,  $\varphi$  is the coal mass porosity,  $\varphi_i$  is the initial coal mass porosity, P is the reservoir pressure,  $P_i$  is the initial reservoir pressure, C is the reservoir concentration,  $C_i$  is the initial reservoir concentration, k is the reservoir permeability and  $k_i$  is the initial reservoir permeability.

#### 8.3.2.2 Model development

A 500 m × 500 m × 50 m unmineable coal seam (similar properties to those of the Victorian brown coal samples used for the current study) lying 800 m below the surface was considered for the model development, and gas production and injection were carried out at opposite corners of the coal seam, as shown in Figure 8.1. Table 8.1 shows the model parameters used. First, ordinary methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) production capacity from the coal bed was examined without using any enhancement technique such as water production or  $CO_2/N_2$  injection, and CH<sub>4</sub> production during 50 years (long-term) of production was simulated and examined.

The production rate was then accelerated by pumping out formation water at 25 m<sup>3</sup>/day rate for 5 years. At this stage, the production well was used as a water pumping well to reduce the pressure inside the coal seam. Water production was terminated after 5 years and the well was then used to produce methane from the pressure-reduced coal seam for the remaining 45 years. In all of these cases, the injection well was kept shut when it was in operation.

After the first 5 years, the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technique was examined by injecting CO<sub>2</sub> into the coal seam at 10 and 18 MPa injection pressure for 45 years. Effective factors for the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM process were then examined to identify possible ECBM process optimization measures. The effect of CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure was first examined by changing the CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure (6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16 and 18 MPa) and the formation temperature effect was then examined by changing the coal seam temperature (25, 40, 60, 80 and 100 °C) for methane production for 50 years. In the latter case, CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure and bed moisture content were maintained at 18 MPa and 60%, respectively. The effect of coal seam moisture content (20, 50, 60, 70, 90 and 100%), maintaining the CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure at 18 MPa and the coal bed temperature at 60 °C. The effect of coal

seam depth on CH<sub>4</sub> production was examined by changing the coal seam depth (400, 500, 600, 700, and 800 m) while maintaining the CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure at 18 MPa, coal bed moisture content at 60% and temperature at 60 °C. During the study, maximum CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure was set to 18 MPa considering the depth of 800 m (~ 20 MPa confining pressure).



Figure 8.1. Block dimensions used for reservoir simulation (a) Cross-section and (b) Plan view

After investigating the effects of primary effective factors on the ECBM process, the ability of N<sub>2</sub> gas to enhance ECBM production was examined by mixing the injecting CO<sub>2</sub> with various percentages of N<sub>2</sub> (20, 40, 60, 80 and 100%). In this case, a 20% N<sub>2</sub> + 80% CO<sub>2</sub> gas mixture was first considered as the injection gas and the corresponding CH<sub>4</sub> production enhancement was examined. The N<sub>2</sub> percentage in the injecting gas was then gradually increased to 80% and the corresponding CBM production enhancements were examined.

After an analysis of the effects of injection gas and coal seam properties on CH<sub>4</sub> production, the potential for ECBM process optimization was examined by changing the production and injection well arrangements. In this case, pure CO<sub>2</sub> injection-enhanced CH<sub>4</sub> production was considered by maintaining the CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure at 18 MPa, the coal seam depth at 800 m, the moisture content at 90% and the temperature at 60 °C. The effect of the CO<sub>2</sub> injection well arrangement was first examined by changing the number of injection wells (1, 2, 3 and 4) and the influence of the production well arrangement on CH<sub>4</sub> production was then examined by changing the number of production wells (1, 2, 3 and 4).

Model parameter	Value	Reference
Reservoir temperature (°C)	60	Suggate (1974)
Coal seam initial permeability (mD)	2	De Silva (2013)
Coal seam moisture content (%)	60	Jasinge et al. (2011)
Coal seam porosity	0.41	Jasinge et al. (2011)
Langmuir volume for $CH_4$ (m <sup>3</sup> /t)	5.07	Refer to Chapter 3
Langmuir pressure for CH <sub>4</sub> (MPa)	5.11	Refer to Chapter 3
Langmuir volume for $CO_2$ (m <sup>3</sup> /t)	29.11	Refer to Chapter 3
Langmuir pressure for CO <sub>2</sub> (MPa)	5.78	Refer to Chapter 3
Langmuir volume for $N_2$ (m <sup>3</sup> /t)	3.29	Refer to Chapter 3
Langmuir pressure for N <sub>2</sub> (MPa)	6.16	Refer to Chapter 3
Exponent of pressure dependent permeability (n)	3.0	Pekot and Reeves (2002)
Differential matrix swelling factor of CO <sub>2</sub>	1.5	Pekot and Reeves (2002)
Pore volume compressibility (kPa <sup>-1</sup> )	2.96×10 <sup>-5</sup>	Jasinge et al. (2011)
Matrix shrinkage compressibility (kPa <sup>-1</sup> )	1.21×10 <sup>-5</sup>	Jasinge et al. (2011)
Initial pore pressure	$P_o = h \times \rho_w \times g^*$	-
Initial gas content in the coal seam (%)	100 % CH <sub>4</sub>	Connell et al. (2011)
Relative permeability variation	Cooray formula (Akin, 2001), residual water	
	and gas contents are 0.05 and 0.01 ( $cm^3/cm^3$ )	

### Table 8.1. Model Parameters

\* *h* is the depth,  $\rho_w$  is the water density and *g* is the gravitational acceleration

# 8.3.3 Results and discussion

# 8.3.3.1 Comparison of CBM production enhancements through water removal and CO<sub>2</sub> injection (CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM)

As described in the model development section, two main techniques were used to accelerate CH<sub>4</sub> desorption: coal seam pore pressure depletion by water removal, and the injection of a higher adsorption capacity gas, CO<sub>2</sub>. Figure 8.2 compares the effects of each technique on CH<sub>4</sub> production. The figure exhibits significant CBM production enhancement through water removal, because removal of water from the coal seam reduces the pore pressure inside it, which enhances the CH<sub>4</sub> desorption rate (Fujioka et al., 1995). This can be easily examined in Figure 8.3(a), which shows that the removal of water at 25 m<sup>3</sup>/day rate for 5 years causes the coal seam mean pore pressure to be reduced by around 21%, which in turn causes the CH<sub>4</sub> adsorbed under high pressure to be released from the coal matrix, which can subsequently be captured. However, according to Figure 8.2, CBM production enhancement through water removal, if an appropriate injection pressure is maintained (Fujioka et al., 1995). Interestingly, according to Figure 8.2, simply

injecting CO<sub>2</sub> into the coal seam does not enhance CBM production and it is necessary to maintain an appropriate injection pressure to recover an optimum amount of CBM. For example, for the coal seam under consideration, 10 MPa injection pressure creates negligible CBM production enhancement and it is necessary to have a higher injection pressure to cause significant CBM production enhancement (Figure 8.2). This can be clearly seen in Figure 8.3, according to which, at around 10 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure, the reservoir has a fairly low permeability value (1.3 mD), which is less than the original permeability of the coal seam (2 mD). This is because the use of CO<sub>2</sub> injection causes pore pressure development to occur in the coal seam, which prevents methane release from the coal mass unless an adequate flow rate is maintained. The coal seam under consideration is at a depth of 800 m and pore pressure at such a depth is close to 8 MPa (Oldenburg, 2006). Apparently, 10 MPa injection pressure is insufficient to maintain an adequate flow rate through the medium. According to Figure 8.3, the CO<sub>2</sub> permeability inside the coal seam increases with a rise in injection pressure (Figure 8.3(b)), even though the pore pressure inside the seam increases accordingly (Figure 8.3(a)). This is because, although there is a pore pressure development with CO<sub>2</sub> injection, the pushing force for the injected CO<sub>2</sub> increases with the increasing injection pressure. This results in a higher flow rate and a higher rate of production at higher injection pressures, because both coal permeability and adsorption processes are dependent on injecting gas properties, such as pressure and phase. According to Figure 8.3, the injection pressure should be greater than 12 MPa for the coal seam to have permeability enhancement.

This finding confirms the need for an appropriate numerical model to decide the required CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure for field-scale CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM projects to achieve maximum production enhancement.



Figure 8.2. Comparison of CBM production enhancement techniques



Figure 8.3. Variation of seam pore pressure and permeability near the injection point under water removal and CO<sub>2</sub> injection

# 8.3.3.2 Factors affecting the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM process

The applicability of the  $CO_2$ -ECBM process in any coal seam is mainly governed by the seam's permeability and its adsorption process. In turn, these largely depend on the properties of the injecting gas and the coal seam's chemico-physical properties, such as injecting gas pressure, phase and composition and coal seam depth, temperature, bed moisture content and rank.

# a) Effect of coal seam properties

# ➢ Temperature

The effect of temperature on the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM process was first considered for 50 years of production time by changing the temperature to 25, 40, 60, 80 and 100 °C while maintaining the CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure at 18 MPa and coal seam moisture content at 60% (Figure 8.4). According to the figure, an increase of temperature from 25 to 60 °C causes CH<sub>4</sub> production to be enhanced

by around 19%, and a further increase of temperature up to 100 °C causes it to decline by around 39%. The initial CH<sub>4</sub> production enhancement may be due to the fact that the increase of temperature from 25 to 60 °C causes the CO<sub>2</sub> phase condition inside the coal seam to change from sub- to super-critical. According to Perera et al., (2011c), super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> has greater sorption capacity in coal than sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub>. Therefore, this greater sorption capacity may cause higher CH<sub>4</sub> desorption from the coal seam, resulting in higher CH<sub>4</sub> production. This can be confirmed by observing the coal seam porosity and permeability alterations close to the CO<sub>2</sub> injection point during the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM process (Figure 8.5). According to this figure, coal seam porosity continuously decreases with increasing temperature, probably due to the thermal expansion of the coal matrix with the increasing temperature, which reduces the pore space.



Figure 8.4. The effect of temperature on coal seam-enhanced CH<sub>4</sub> production



Figure 8.5. Variations of (a) seam porosity and (b) permeability with temperature

However, if the seam permeability is considered (Figure 8.5(b)), a similar pattern with gas production can be seen (Figure 8.4), where an increase of temperature from 25 to 60 °C causes the permeability to be enhanced, and a further increase of temperature up to 100 °C causes it to decline. The former permeability increment with increasing temperature from 25 to 60 °C is possibly related to the CO<sub>2</sub> phase transmission creating production enhancement and the latter permeability reduction with increasing temperature mainly relates to the previously mentioned temperature increment creating seam porosity reduction, which occurs due to the thermal expansion of the coal matrix. In addition, kinetic energy enhancement in the injecting CO<sub>2</sub> molecules with increasing temperature may also have a significant influence on permeability reduction, as the kinetic energy of the CO<sub>2</sub> molecules increases with increasing temperature (Perera et al., 2012a; Skawinski et al., 1991), which reduces the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption rate into coal and, consequently reduces CH<sub>4</sub> production.

### Moisture content

The effect of coal seam moisture content on enhanced CH<sub>4</sub> production was then considered for 50 years of production by changing the moisture content to 20%, 50%, 60%, 70%, 80%, 90% and 100%, when CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure was 18 MPa and coal seam temperature was 60 °C (Figure 8.6). According to Figure 8.6, up to around 70% moisture content, enhanced coal-bed CH<sub>4</sub> production decreases with increasing moisture content, and the increase of moisture content from 20 to 70% causes the enhanced methane production to be reduced by 7.5%. This is due to the fact that the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> that can be injected into the coal seam is highly dependent on the available pore space. The presence of water causes the coal mass pore space available for CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> movement to be significantly reduced (Skawinski et al 1991), resulting in a reduction in CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacity and CH<sub>4</sub> production capacity from the coal seam. This was confirmed by checking the coal seam porosity and permeability alterations which occurred with changes in moisture content (Figure 8.7). According to Figure 8.7 (a), increasing the moisture content from 20 to 70% causes the coal seam porosity to be significantly reduced due to the pore space occupied by the increased water molecules. This pore space reduction increases the tortuosity for gas molecules, resulting in reduced permeability in the coal seam (Figure 8.7(b)). This affects the CO<sub>2</sub> movement inside the coal seam and eventually delays the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption process into the coal matrix, which consequently reduces the CH<sub>4</sub> production.



Figure 8.6. The effect of bed moisture content on coal seam enhanced CH<sub>4</sub> production



Figure 8.7. Variations of seam porosity and permeability with moisture content

The effect of bed moisture content was then considered for higher moisture contents (70% to 100%), and according to Figure 8.7, both seam porosity and permeability remained stable after around 70% bed moisture content. According to the studies of Anderson et al (1956), before reaching the critical moisture content, the water molecules occupy some of the adsorption sites in any porous medium, and after the saturation point, the excess water stays in the free state and does not affect the gas sorption capacity. This is believed to be the reason for the observed stable porosity and-permeability and consequently the gas production after 70% moisture content.

### > Depth

The effect of depth on total CH<sub>4</sub> production was then examined by changing the depth to 400, 500, 600, 700 and 800m, while maintaining the coal seam temperature, moisture content and injection pressure at 60  $^{0}$ C, 90% and 18 MPa, respectively. The results are shown in Figure 8.8. As shown in the figure, coal seam CH<sub>4</sub> production reduces with increasing depth, and an increase of depth from 400 m to 800 m (100%) causes the CH<sub>4</sub> production to be reduced by around 58%. According to Perera et al. (2012), an increase in coal seam depth causes a large increase in the in-situ stress acting on the coal seam from the surrounding rock mass. This increases the effective stress applied on the coal mass, which increases the tortuosity for gas movement inside the coal seam and reduces the pore space available in the coal seam for CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption and CH<sub>4</sub> desorption, resulting in the reduction in CH<sub>4</sub> production rates.



Figure 8.8. The effect of coal seam depth on enhanced CH<sub>4</sub> production

This was demonstrated by checking the seam porosity and permeability behaviours at each depth increment, and the results are shown in Figure 9. According to Figure 9, both seam porosity and permeability exhibit similar reduction trends with increasing depth, which implies pore space reduction with increasing depth, and the permeability reduction is due to the tortuosity increment under reduced pore space conditions. This delays the  $CO_2$  movement inside the coal seam and eventually reduces  $CO_2$  adsorption into the seam, resulting in reduced  $CH_4$  desorption. In addition, the reduction of pore space itself affects the  $CO_2$  adsorption and methane desorption processes in the coal seam.



Figure 8.9. Variations of seam porosity and permeability with seam depth

# b) Effect of injecting gas properties

# Injection pressure

The effect of CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure on enhanced CH<sub>4</sub> production was then examined by changing the CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure (6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16 and 18 MPa). In order to maintain the injection pressure as a variable in the analysis, all other variables inserted in the model were treated as constants: temperature (60 °C), moisture content (90%), and depth (800 m). According to Figure 8.10, coal seam methane production increases with increasing  $CO_2$  injection pressure, and the increase of injection pressure from 6 to 18 MPa (200%) causes the coal seam's CH<sub>4</sub> production to increase by around 150%. This is due to the fact that increased injection pressure produces a greater CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacity in the coal seam, which enhances the CH<sub>4</sub> desorption rate (Bae and Bhatia 2006). However, after 16 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injection, CBM production shows a lower increment. Similar behaviour can be seen for the seam porosity and the permeability (near the injection point) (refer to Figure 8.11), which exhibit a gradual increase up to 16 MPa and a lower increment after 16 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injection. This increasing trend of coal seam porosity with increasing CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure is probably due to pore space expansion with the effective stress reduction created by the increased injection pressure up to 16 MPa. After 16 MPa CO<sub>2</sub> injection, the pore space expansion may have restricted with the coal matrix swelling due to CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption. This indicates that, at higher CO<sub>2</sub> pore pressures, the effective stress reduction-induced pore expansion is undermined by the sorption-induced strain. Further, the seam permeability enhancement under increased injection pressure enhances  $CO_2$  flow ability through the seam (Figure 8.11 (b)) and the corresponding  $CO_2$ adsorption process into the coal matrix, which consequently enhances the methane production.



Figure 8.10. The effect of CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure on enhanced CH<sub>4</sub> production



Figure 8.11. Variations of seam porosity and permeability with CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure

However, it should be noted that too high injection pressures may cause hydraulic fractures to be created in the coal seam, resulting in back-migration of injecting CO<sub>2</sub> into the atmosphere. Hawkes et al (2005) showed that the most critical orientation for the opening of fractures is in a plane normal to the minimum in-situ stress component ( $\sigma_3$ ), and therefore, fracture formation may occur once the pore pressure (P<sub>u</sub>) exceeds  $\sigma_3$ . This phenomenon can be used to identify fracture formations in the coal seam. Fracture pore pressure was directly taken from the COMET 3 simulator and it was assumed that the third principal stress at 800m is equal to the gravitational stress,  $\sigma_g=h\times\rho_r\times g$ , where h is the depth (800 m),  $\rho_r$  is the rock density (2.5 g/cm<sup>-3</sup>) and g is the gravitational acceleration (9.8 m<sup>2</sup>/s) (Ranjith et al., 2013; Sheory, 1994), which is equal to 19.6 MPa. Therefore, for safety reasons, the maximum safe CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure was selected as 18 MPa for the modeled coal seam and this pressure is used in the remaining sections. Now, if the effects of all the considered factors affecting methane production are compared, 100% increment in injection pressure (from 6 to 12 MPa), depth (400 m to 800 m), temperature (25 to 50 °C) and moisture content (20% to 40%) cause the enhanced coal seam CH<sub>4</sub> production to be changed by around 89%, 58%, 19% and 3.1% respectively. It is therefore clear that  $CO_2$  injection pressure is the most influential factor for the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM process. In contrast, the least influence is created by the bed moisture content. Temperature and depth appear to have moderate influence on methane production during the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM process. However, it should be noted that under actual conditions in deep coal seams, these parameters are inter-connected. For example, when the seam is deeper, moisture content reduces and temperature increases. The combined effect can be effectively identified by having a detailed understanding of each individual factor.

### ➤ Injecting gas composition

The next stage of the study examined the effect of injection gas composition on CBM production, and the gas composition was changed by adding N<sub>2</sub> to the injecting CO<sub>2</sub>. The added N<sub>2</sub> percentage was changed (20%, 40%, 60%, 80% and 100%) and the corresponding CH<sub>4</sub> production was examined, while maintaining the temperature, moisture content and injection pressure at 60  $^{0}$ C, 90% and 18 MPa, respectively. The risk associated with the N<sub>2</sub> in the injecting gas was then examined by checking the leakage of CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> from the production well during the 50 years' production period, because mixing any other gas (CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub>) with the CH<sub>4</sub> produced involves large costs to clean the gas produced. This step was therefore used to identify the best N<sub>2</sub> percentage in the injection gas to enhance CH<sub>4</sub> production with minimal contaminant gas.

Figure 8.12 shows how CH<sub>4</sub> production is enhanced by the injection of  $N_2+CO_2$  gas into the coal seam. According to Figure 8.12, a clear enhancement of methane production can be observed with the addition of  $N_2$  to the injecting CO<sub>2</sub> and this enhancement appears to increase with increasing percentage of  $N_2$  in the injecting gas. For example, increasing the percentage of  $N_2$  in the injecting gas from 20 to 80% causes the CH<sub>4</sub> production to be increased by around 160%, which is significant (Figure 8.13). This was expected, because  $N_2$  remains as free gas in the fracture space, which creates an imbalance between the sorbed and free gas phases and eventually reduces the partial pressure for CH<sub>4</sub>, resulting in the release of additional amounts of CH<sub>4</sub> from the coal mass (Reeves, 2003). Although CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption also creates a significant increase in methane production through the replacement of methane with CO<sub>2</sub>, the process takes a significant time compared to the production enhancement, which occurrs due to the pressure imbalance created by N<sub>2</sub> between the sorbed and free gas phases. Therefore, in short-term production, the influence of N<sub>2</sub> is much greater and production is proportionally increased with the increasing N<sub>2</sub> percentage in the injecting gas.



Figure 8.12. CH<sub>4</sub> production enhancement with  $N_2 + CO_2$  injection



Figure 8.13. CH<sub>4</sub> production enhancement with N<sub>2</sub>% in injecting gas

Figure 8.14 shows how coal seam porosity and permeability vary by increasing the  $N_2$  percentage in the injecting gas and according to the figure, there is a significant pore space increment with increasing  $N_2$ %, probably as a result of the release of CH<sub>4</sub> molecules from the existing pore space (Figure 8.14(a)). In addition, seam permeability also seems to increase greatly with increasing percentage of  $N_2$  in the injecting gas, and this is the governing factor for the CO<sub>2</sub> movement inside the seam, and consequently for the observed enhanced methane production.

Figure 8.15 compares the CO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> present in the coal seam after 50 years of 80% CO<sub>2</sub>+20% N<sub>2</sub> injection. According to the figure, a large amount of CO<sub>2</sub> remains in the coal matrix after the injection period, probably due to the replacement of existing methane with CO<sub>2</sub> through sorption (Figure 8.15(a)). This is confirmed by Figure 8.15(c), which shows negligible amounts of  $CH_4$  in the coal seam close to the  $CO_2$  injection well. It may need more time for this remaining  $CO_2$  to diffuse to a greater distance and produce the remaining CH<sub>4</sub> from the seam. In relation to the amount of N<sub>2</sub> remaining in the coal seam after this 50 years' period, Figure 8.15(b) shows only a very small amount of N<sub>2</sub> remains in the coal matrix after the injection period, and the proportion of CO<sub>2</sub> to N<sub>2</sub> in the coal matrix is much less than the 5:1 proportion injected. This is because injecting N<sub>2</sub> largely stays as a free gas in the coal seam, and therefore has a greater tendency to be released from the coal seam with the gas being produced, resulting in lower volumes of  $N_2$ remaining in the coal seam after the production process. This confirms the minor influence of the N<sub>2</sub> in the injection gas on post-injection gas production. Figure 8.16 compares the CO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> present in the coal seam after 50 years of 20% CO<sub>2</sub>+80% N<sub>2</sub> injection. According to the figure, although there is a 1:5 proportion of CO<sub>2</sub>:N<sub>2</sub> in the injecting gas, the N<sub>2</sub> remaining in the seam after 50 years injection is much less than the CO<sub>2</sub>. This again proves that N<sub>2</sub> has a greater tendency to be released from the coal seam with the gas being produced and therefore has a minor influence on post-injection gas production from the seam. This post-injection gas production seems to be mainly governed by the existing  $CO_2$  in the seam. However, when Figures 8.15 and 8.16 are compared, in can be clearly seen that a lower amount of methane gas exists in the coal seam due to 20% CO<sub>2</sub>+80% N<sub>2</sub> injection compared to the 80% CO<sub>2</sub>+20% N<sub>2</sub> injection. This exhibits the greater degree of gas production enhancement created by N<sub>2</sub> during the injection period.



Figure 8.14. Variations of seam porosity and permeability with N<sub>2</sub> percentage in the injecting gas



Figure 8.15. CO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> in the coal seam after 50 years of 80% CO<sub>2</sub>+20% N<sub>2</sub> injection



Figure 8.16. CO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> in the coal seam after 50 years of 20% CO<sub>2</sub>+80% N<sub>2</sub> injection

However, since  $N_2$  is basically present as a free gas in the coal mass, there is a high risk associated with the leaking of injected  $N_2$  with the produced gas via the CH<sub>4</sub> production well. Therefore, this was checked in the next stage of the study. According to Figure 8.17,  $N_2$  starts to leak through the production well sometime after the  $N_2$ +CO<sub>2</sub> injection and the leakage rate increases with increasing  $N_2$  percentage in the injecting gas. On the other hand, according to Figure 8.18, the injection of a  $N_2$ +CO<sub>2</sub> mixture also has a significant influence on CO<sub>2</sub> breakthroughs in the gas being produced, although the leakage initiates a long time after the  $N_2$  leakage initiation and the leakage amount is more than a thousand times smaller than that of  $N_2$ . According to Figure 8.19, increasing the  $N_2$  percentage in the injecting gas from 20 to 80 % causes the total  $N_2$  and CO<sub>2</sub> leakage during 50 years of production to increase by around 490% and 95%, respectively, which implies that changing the  $N_2$  percentage more than 5 times significantly affects  $N_2$  leakage compared to that of CO<sub>2</sub>. This implies that  $N_2$  leakage should be a more important consideration when deciding the  $N_2$  percentage in the injecting gas in field projects.



Figure 8.17. N<sub>2</sub> production rate and cumulative N<sub>2</sub> production through the production well



Figure 8.18. Comparison of  $N_2$  and  $CO_2$  leakages and  $CH_4$  production enhancement due to the  $N_2 + CO_2$  injection into the coal seam with varying percentages of  $N_2$ 



Figure 8.19. Comparison of effect of percentage of N<sub>2</sub> in the injecting gas on N<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> leakage

Therefore, it is very important to decide the best combination of  $N_2$  and  $CO_2$  in the injecting gas to minimize the risks associated with the ECBM process while maximizing CH<sub>4</sub> production. According to Figure 8.19, the addition of more than 60%  $N_2$  in the injecting gas seems to create vary rapid  $N_2$  and CO<sub>2</sub> leakage rates. Therefore, the injecting gas should contain less than 60%  $N_2$ to ensure safe methane recovery enhancement. If the effect of the  $N_2$  percentage in the injecting gas on the methane production enhancement is then considered, according to Figure 8.18, more than 40%  $N_2$  in the injecting gas causes the production of greater amounts of  $N_2$  than CH<sub>4</sub>. Therefore, the desired  $N_2$  percentage in the injecting gas should be less than or equal to 40%. Now, if Figure 8.18 is considered, increasing the  $N_2$  percentage in the injecting gas from 0 to 20%, 20 to 40%, 40 to 60% and 60 to 80% causes CH<sub>4</sub> production to be enhanced by around 16.5%, 19.5%, 21.4% and 21.7%, respectively. Therefore, at least 40%  $N_2$  in the injecting gas is required to enhance methane production by a significant amount. Therefore, considering the effect of both CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> leakage and CH<sub>4</sub> production enhancement, 40%  $N_2$  +60% CO<sub>2</sub> is the best injecting gas combination for an effective CO<sub>2</sub>+N<sub>2</sub>-ECBM process to safely enhance methane recovery from the selected coal seam.

# 8.3.3.3 Influence of production and injection well arrangement on enhanced coal seam production

Gas injection wells and water and methane production wells play a vital role in the ECBM process, and therefore have a significant influence on process optimization. This was considered in the next stage of the study, by changing the well arrangement while maintaining the other influencing factors at constant values (temperature, moisture content depth and injection pressure were 60  $^{0}$ C, 90%, 800 m and 18 MPa, respectively).

# a) CO<sub>2</sub> injection well arrangement

The effect of  $CO_2$  injection well arrangement on the optimization of the ECBM process was first considered. One  $CO_2$  injection well was first used and the number of injection wells was then increased up to four, as shown in Figure 8.20 and the corresponding variation in CH<sub>4</sub> production was examined. As expected, increasing the number of injection wells from one to three causes the CH<sub>4</sub> production to be greatly enhanced (155%) (Figures 8.21 and 8.22). This was expected, as increasing the injection well allows more  $CO_2$  to be injected into the coal seam, which enhances the CH<sub>4</sub> production process by replacing existing methane with the injecting  $CO_2$ .



Figure 8.20. Different injection well patterns considered for the analysis



Figure 8.21. CH<sub>4</sub> production with time for different numbers of injection wells



Figure 8.22. Change of CH<sub>4</sub> production with number of injection wells.

However, according to Figures 8.21 and 8.22, the addition of more than three injection wells causes a reduction in CH<sub>4</sub> production. In order to identify the possible reasons for this, pressure development inside the coal seam under each well condition was examined and the results are shown in Figure 8.23. According to the figure, coal seam pore pressure greatly increases with the increasing number of injection wells. This is because the distance between the injecting points is reduced with increased numbers of injecting wells, resulting in the pressure contours produced by each CO<sub>2</sub> injecting well meeting each other within a shorter time, which causes the build-up of unnecessary pore pressure inside the coal seam. This negatively influences CH<sub>4</sub> release from the coal matrix and consequently the CH<sub>4</sub> production capacity. The methane available in the coal seam after the injection period was examined for each well condition (see Figure 8.24). According to the figure, the configuration of three injection wells has the lowest amount of methane present in the coal seam after 50 years compared to other configurations. This further confirms the minor contribution to long-term CBM production by adding a fourth injection well to the system (refer to Figure 8.24(d)). When all of these facts are considered, it is clear that the addition of the fourth well to the seam does not make any significant contribution to methane production, instead it reduces overall production by creating unnecessary pressure in the coal seam, which must be removed to enable optimum gas production from the seam. This finding indicates the importance of numerical models to estimate the performance of injection wells, to facilitate the selection of the optimum number of injection wells for ECBM. This is very important for the economic aspects of the project.



Figure 8.23.  $CO_2$  pressure developed after 50 years of  $CO_2$  injection using one to four injection

# well conditions



Figure 8.24. CH<sub>4</sub> available in the coal seam after 50 years of CO<sub>2</sub> injection using one to four injection well conditions

In addition, too many injection wells cause the distance between the injection and production wells to be reduced, resulting in the mixing of injecting  $CO_2$  with the  $CH_4$  produced. According to Oldenburg (2006), mixing these two gases also contributes to the development of additional pore pressure inside the seam, which causes additional production depletion.

# b) CH<sub>4</sub> production well arrangement

The effect of production well arrangement was then considered, and the results are shown in Figure 8.25. One production well was used first and the number of production wells was then increased up to four and the corresponding variation in CH<sub>4</sub> production was examined (Figures 8.26 and 8.27). According to Figures 8.26 and 8.27(b), an increase in the number of production wells has an insignificant impact on long-term (50 years) CH<sub>4</sub> production, with less than 10% change from one to four wells. However, according to Figure 8.27(a), in the case of short-term CH<sub>4</sub> production (10 years), there is a significant increase in CH<sub>4</sub> production due to an increment in production. For example, an increase of production wells from one to two results in around a 145% increase in 10-

year total CH<sub>4</sub> production, and an increase from one to four results in around a 450% increase in 10-year total CH<sub>4</sub> production. It is most probable that more production wells open more points to the atmosphere, which reduces the average distance that methane has to travel to reach the well. This increases the rate of production and leads to a greater amount of methane being produced in the short term. However, in the long term the methane would have more than enough time to travel to wells placed farther away and hence there would be little difference between having one well or four wells. This may be the reason for the significant short-term increase in coal seam CH<sub>4</sub> production and the negligible variation in long-term CH<sub>4</sub> production with an increased number of production wells.



Figure 8.25. Different production well patterns considered for the analysis



Figure 8.26. CH<sub>4</sub> production with time for different numbers of production wells



Figure 8.27. Change of CH<sub>4</sub> production in ten years and fifty years with number of production wells

In field situations, the short-term benefits of having extra production wells must be balanced against the costs of drilling in order to obtain the optimum number of production wells. This requires the use of an accurate numerical model.

# c) Distance between the injection and production well

According to Sections 8.3.4.3(a) and (b), the distance between the CO<sub>2</sub> injecting well and the CH<sub>4</sub> production well (Figure 8.28) plays an important role in the optimization of the ECBM process, and this was therefore examined in the next stage of the study. In this case, the distance between the two wells was gradually changed (71 m, 142 m, 250 m, 350 m and 707 m) while maintaining the other factors as constants (temperature, moisture content, depth and injection pressure were 60  $^{\circ}$ C, 90%, 800 m and 18 MPa). According to Figure 8.29, the total CH<sub>4</sub> production increases by increasing the distance between the injecting and production wells, which is related to the combined influence of two different processes: (1) a close spacing between the injecting and production wells that greatly swells the coal matrix around the production well, resulting in reduced permeability, and (2) mixing of a small amount of CH<sub>4</sub> with CO<sub>2</sub> causes the CO<sub>2</sub> density to be greatly increased, which creates additional pore pressure development in the coal seam (Oldenburg 2006).



Figure 8.28. Distance between injecting and producing wells



Figure 8.29. The effect of changing the distance between injecting well and production well on enhanced CH<sub>4</sub> production

Overall, all of these observations indicate the importance of an appropriate numerical model to estimate the optimum distance between the wells to recover the maximum amount of  $CO_2$  from a selected coal seam during the  $CO_2$ -ECBM process.

# 8.3.4 Conclusions

The optimization of the enhanced coal bed methane (CBM) recovery process requires numerical modelling tools to reduce the complexity, cost and extensive time associated with laboratory and field experiments. Although some experimental, numerical and field studies have been conducted on the ECBM process and production enhancement techniques, to date none of them has considered the influences of all the possible primary effective factors on the process. As a result, it has been difficult to obtain a comprehensive knowledge of the subject. A 3-D numerical model

was therefore developed using the COMET 3 numerical modelling tool to simulate 50 years of CH<sub>4</sub> production from a 800 m deep 500 m  $\times$  500 m  $\times$  50 m coal seam. All the possible major CBM production enhancement techniques were tested: changes of seam properties and injection gas properties, water removal, CO<sub>2</sub> injection, CO<sub>2</sub> + N<sub>2</sub> gas mixture injection, and change of injection and production well arrangement. According to the results the following major conclusions can be drawn:

- Although the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technique has greater ability to enhance CBM production than the traditional water removal process, it is necessary to maintain appropriate injection practices to obtain optimum gas production. For example, for the coal seam under consideration, the injection of CO<sub>2</sub> at 10 MPa pressure did not have a significant influence on CBM production, because CO<sub>2</sub> injection under that pressure fails to maintain an adequate flow rate through the coal seam due to insufficient pushing force created by the pressure gap between the injecting CO<sub>2</sub> and the coal seam.
- Coal seam properties have considerable influences on the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM process, and ECBM production generally reduces with increasing seam temperature for two main reasons: a) thermal expansion occurs in the coal matrix with increasing temperature, which reduces the pore space and seam permeability, and therefore CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption and methane recovery potential, and 2) kinetic energy enhancement in the injecting  $CO_2$  molecules with increasing temperature reduces the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption rate into coal. However, changing the CO<sub>2</sub> phase condition from sub- to super-critical with increasing temperature may create a contradictory temperature influence on ECBM production due to the higher sorption capacity of supercritical CO<sub>2</sub>. Regarding the bed moisture content effect, ECBM production decreases with increasing moisture content up to the critical moisture content of the seam, due to the porosity reduction created by the occupying water molecules. However, further increase of bed moisture content does not have any significant influence on ECBM production, because after the critical point, the excess water stays in a free state and does not affect the seam porosity or gas sorption capacity. Regarding the influence of seam depth on ECBM production, ECBM production greatly reduces with increasing depth, due to the increased effective stress acting on the coal, which reduces the pore space and consequently increases the tortuosity for gas movement inside the coal seam. In turn, both reduce the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacity and consequently the CBM production.
- In addition to the seam properties, injecting CO<sub>2</sub> properties also significantly affect the performance of the ECBM process, and CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure and composition are critical. Regarding the injection pressure effect, ECBM production exponentially increases with increasing CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure, due to the expanded pore space and enhanced CO<sub>2</sub>

adsorption capacity at increased CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressures. Interestingly, injection pressure plays the dominant role in the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM process compared to the other factors. For example, in the selected seam, 100% increment in injection pressure, depth, temperature and moisture content cause ECBM production to be changed by around 88%, 58%, 19% and 3.1%, respectively. However, increasing the injection pressure should be done in a well-controlled manner to avoid any significant fracture formation in the seam that may lead to  $CO_2$  leakage. Regarding the influence of injecting gas composition, the addition of N<sub>2</sub> to the injecting gas has considerable potential to enhance the ECBM process, and this enhancement greatly increases with increasing N<sub>2</sub>% in the injecting gas. For example, for the considered seam, increasing the proportion of N<sub>2</sub>% from 20 to 80% causes ECBM production to be increased by around 160%. This is because ECBM production enhancement caused by  $N_2$  creating an imbalance between sorbed and free gas phases is quicker than the ECBM production enhancement caused by  $CO_2$  through adsorption. Therefore, in short-term production, during the injection period, the influence of N<sub>2</sub> is greater. However, post-injection gas production is mainly governed by the existing  $CO_2$  in the coal seam, because after the injection period only a small amount of  $N_2$  remains in the seam. It is very important to decide the best combination of N<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> in the injecting gas to minimize the risks associated with the ECBM process (mainly the leakage of injecting CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> with the gas produced, which causes large purifying costs) while maximizing CH<sub>4</sub> production. For the considered seam,  $40\% N_2 + 60\%$ CO<sub>2</sub> is the best injecting gas combination when both CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> leakage and CH<sub>4</sub> production enhancement are considered.

• The number of injection and production wells and their arrangement have a significant influence on the enhancement of ECBM production. Although ECBM production can be significantly increased by increasing the number of CO<sub>2</sub> injection wells, too many wells may cause it to be reduced. This is because having too close wells causes the pressure contours produced by each well to coincide, which may cause unnecessary pore pressure development inside the coal seam. For example, for the considered coal seam, the addition of more than three injection wells causes the production to be reduced instead of enhanced. The reason is that the fourth well has limited ability to spread the injected CO<sub>2</sub> into the coal seam, due to the pressure development. Under such conditions, creating additional pressure through this fourth well limits the CO<sub>2</sub> spreading ability of the other wells, which negatively influences the ECBM process. Regarding the influence of production wells on the ECBM process, increasing the number of production wells does not have a significant influence on long-term CH<sub>4</sub> production (50 years in the selected coal seam), although it has a great impact on short-term

ECBM production (10 years in the selected coal seam). This is because, with an increased number of production wells, the methane needs to travel shorter distances to reach the production wells, which increases the rate of production in the short term. In the long term, the methane has sufficient time to reach even far wells. Therefore, the influence of the number of wells is insignificant. Considering these findings, the following injection and production well arrangement (refer to Figure 8.30) is proposed for maximum methane production after 50 years' time.



Figure 8.30. Proposed well arrangement for the maximum amount of CBM production under the optimum effective factors: temperature - 60 <sup>0</sup>C, moisture content – 90%, depth – 800 m and injection pressure - 18 MPa

# 8.3.5 References

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### **8.4 Chapter summary**

The main objective of this chapter was to investigate the  $CO_2$  enhanced coal bed methane recovery technique, paying attention to the applicability of this technique for low rank coal and optimizing the effective factors (seam properties and injecting properties) for maximum methane recovery. The major findings of the experiments and the numerical study are summarised below.

# Section 8.2 – Applicability of CO<sub>2</sub> enhanced coal bed methane recovery technique to low rank coal

 $CO_2$  injection can significantly enhance methane production compared to natural recovery and higher  $CO_2$  pressures can obtain a 100% sweep efficiency in low rank coal. Super-critical  $CO_2$ takes a shorter time for  $CO_2$  breakthrough, which indicates quicker exchange of methane to  $CO_2$ that drives the recovered methane easily towards the production wells in the field scale. Interestingly, this effectiveness of super-critical  $CO_2$  in CH<sub>4</sub> recovery is common for any coal type. However, this quicker breakthrough of  $CO_2$  causes swelling to start in short time periods after  $CO_2$ injection, which may result in lower permabilities with time. This warrants more attention.

### Section 8.3 – Optimization of CO<sub>2</sub>-enhanced coal bed methane recovery

The CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technique has a greater capability to recover methane compared to traditional recovery methods when the appropriate injection conditions are practised. Coal seam properties have a great influence on methane recovery by CO<sub>2</sub> injection. For example, methane production is reduced with higher reservoir temperature and the maximum methane production after 50 years was achieved at 60  $^{0}$ C. Further, the gas production was reduced by up to 90% (critical moisture content) of moisture content and then remained stable for higher moisture contents. The reduced CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacity and lower permabilities at higher effective stress have a negative effect on methane production at higher depths, which warrants the use of flow enhancement techniques (such as hydro fracturing) to achieve targeted methane production. In relation to injecting gas properties, an exponential increment of methane production with increasing CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure was observed for fifty years of injection. However, the use of very high CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressures can create fractures in the coal bed, resulting in leakage of injected CO<sub>2</sub>. Comparing these effective factors on methane production, CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure is the most influential factor for the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technique, while moisture content has the least influence and other properties (temperature and depth) moderately affect methane production.

The imbalance created by  $N_2$  molecules between sorbed and free gas is capable of increasing methane recovery, and hence, the higher the  $N_2$  percentage, the higher the methane

production. However, N<sub>2</sub> has a greater influence on short-term methane production, while CO<sub>2</sub> governs the long-term production, as only a few N<sub>2</sub> molecules will remain in the coal matrix due to the quicker breakthrough of N<sub>2</sub>. Therefore, 40% N<sub>2</sub> + 60% CO<sub>2</sub> is the best injection composition to optimise methane production.

For the considered coal seam, the use of three injection wells produced the maximum results and a greater number of wells reduces production, due to the limitation of  $CO_2$  spreading in the coal bed with the surrounding injection wells. A greater number of production wells improves methane production in the short term and it is limited in the long term. This is because of the shorter travel distance for methane with a large number of production wells in the short term and in the long term, methane has sufficient time to reach even the most distant wells.

# Part 5: Chapter 9 -

# **Conclusions and**

# **Suggestions for future research**



# **Conclusions and suggestions**

# for future research
### 9. Conclusions and suggestions for future research

#### 9.1 Conclusions

The main aim of this thesis was to identify ideal injection strategies in order to determine the optimum conditions to harvest methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) from deep coal seams while storing maximum amounts of CO<sub>2</sub>. Experimental (85% of the thesis), numerical (10% of the thesis) and analytical (5% of the thesis) modelling studies were conducted to achieve the above main objective and this thesis reports them in a structured manner. This thesis comprises five major parts, of which three are dedicated to the presentation of the major outcomes of the thesis, while the other two parts provide the introduction, literature review and conclusions. These parts contain chapters devised to meet specific objectives to achieve the main goal of this thesis. The major conclusions drawn from each relevant part are presented in the following sub-sections.

## 9.1.1 Conclusions drawn from completion of objective 1: Coal mass flow behaviour during CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration

Several meso-scale and macro-scale flow experiments were conducted to observe coal mass flow behaviour during CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in low-rank brown coal obtained from the Gippsland basin, Victoria, Australia. Micro-scale studies were also incorporated to gain better insights into the flow patterns observed. The test conditions were varied according to the different effective factors identified in the literature review. The test conditions included different injecting gas properties (different gasses – CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>, and phase and pressure of CO<sub>2</sub>) and coal mass properties (depth and temperature). The permeability and swelling behaviour were studied under these different test conditions to determine the expected reservoir behaviours with CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration. Experimental, analytical and numerical studies were carried out to fulfil the objectives and the following major conclusions were drawn:

- In comparison to N<sub>2</sub> permeability (a more inert gas than CO<sub>2</sub>), CO<sub>2</sub> permeation causes clear permeability variations in both low and high rank coal, because the uniform cellular-like micro-pore structure with relatively large pores alters significantly with CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption, which negatively affects the coal mass flow performance. Further, super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> (the phase condition of CO<sub>2</sub> which is likely to be available at the depths suitable for CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM) has much lower permeability than sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub>, and this influence of CO<sub>2</sub> phase condition increases with increasing rank. This reduces the expected CO<sub>2</sub> injectivity into deep coal seams and eventually the methane production, warranting the use of flow enhancement techniques (e.g. hydro-fracturing).
- Permeability is reduced with increasing depth for both CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> permeation due to the higher effective stress application and this is common for any coal type. However, this flow

reduction due to depth is less for high rank coal. Interestingly, the influence of depth on permeability reduces with the phase transition from sub- to super-critical in any type of coal, which is beneficial for the application of CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM in deep coal seams.

- > CO<sub>2</sub> permeability decreases with higher injecting pressures at low temperatures (25  $^{0}$ C), whereas permeability increases when the temperature is increased to 40  $^{0}$ C for any coal type. However, further increase of temperature reduces the adsorption capacity of CO<sub>2</sub> due to the higher kinetic energy, and the expansion of coal mass reduces the porosity. This requires attention when using high temperature-prone coal seams for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration.
- N<sub>2</sub> exhibits comparatively inert behaviour in coal, producing negligible swelling, regardless of pore pressure and reservoir depth. However, the partial pressure depletion created by N<sub>2</sub> in the coal mass has the ability to recover CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced swelled areas in coal, and this ability is much greater for high rank coal. If N<sub>2</sub> flooding is carried out for a sufficiently long period under low effective stress conditions, the recovery of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced swelled areas is also increased. Hence, the use of alternative N<sub>2</sub> injection or N<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> co-injection is beneficial in field applications of CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM to enhance CO<sub>2</sub> injectivity.
- A new descriptive analytical model is proposed for coal matrix swelling with gas adsorption using the effective factors by modifying the existing D-R model. The proposed equation can estimate coal mass swelling due to various gas adsorptions in different coals with an accuracy of around ±1% and hence can be used as a descriptive analytical model to estimate swelling. However, the equation was developed for a range of coals with a fixed carbon content of >75% and hence, provides a better fit of data for this range.
- The laboratory-scale COMSOL model can predict the experimental results for macro-scale coal specimens reasonably well, and according to the extended model results, for a given axial load, CO<sub>2</sub> concentration increases with the increase in injection pressure, due to the increase in net advective CO<sub>2</sub> flux with the increase in injection pressure. Furthermore, greater amounts of CO<sub>2</sub> can be sequestrated in coal seams even at higher depths and higher CO<sub>2</sub> pressures despite the flow reduction observed if sufficient time is allowed for CO<sub>2</sub> permeation.

### 9.1.2 Conclusions drawn from completion of objective 2: Coal mass strength behaviour during CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration

Several meso-scale strength tests were conducted to observe the coal mass mechanical property variations during  $CO_2$  sequestration in low rank brown coal coupled with micro-scale studies using SEM and X-ray CT, acoustic emission systems and ARAMIS optical photogrammetry system to obtain a better perception of the observed strength variations. The test conditions were varied according to the different effective factors similar to flow experiments including different fluid saturations, different durations of  $CO_2$  saturation, the depth effect, the rank effect and the effect of

heterogeneity of coal. Experimental and numerical studies were carried out to fulfil the objectives and the following major conclusions were drawn:

- Both sub- and super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption cause brown coal's mechanical properties to be significantly reduced and in comparison, super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption causes significantly greater mechanical property alterations than sub-critical CO<sub>2</sub> for any coal type. Further, CO<sub>2</sub> saturation in any coal type causes early stages of fracture development and the effect is greater for super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption. This is not favourable for the long-term integrity of the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM process, as it may increase the risk of back-migration of injected CO<sub>2</sub> into the atmosphere.
- Similar to the permeability variations, high rank coal is subjected to greater strength reductions than low rank coal. Hence, more attention should be paid to the use of low rank coal seams (at suitable depths) for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration.
- CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced coal matrix alterations are largely completed with the initial interaction with CO<sub>2</sub>, but considerable further coal matrix re-arrangement may occur at a slower rate.
- Similar to CO<sub>2</sub>, water also causes a significant strength reduction in coal regardless of rank. Interestingly, these reductions are higher for high rank coal same as CO<sub>2</sub> saturations (around 25% higher). Further, both water and CO<sub>2</sub> saturations produce a less dense and altered pore structure for both low and high rank coals.
- N<sub>2</sub> saturation slightly enhances coal strength, regardless of rank, and this increment increases with increasing N<sub>2</sub> saturation pressure. Further, low rank coals with greater free moisture content are subjected to higher strength increments (2 to 4% higher) than low moisture high rank coal with N<sub>2</sub> saturation.
- Coal mass exposed to CO<sub>2</sub> behaves similarly even under confinement, however the reductions in strength parameters are much lower compared to unconfined environments. In addition, the strength and stiffness reductions with the application of confinement can be represented by a Langmuir-type equation.
- Although coal is highly heterogeneous in nature, the behaviour under different effective conditions (different fluid types and coal seam properties) is similar. However, the arrangement of the natural cleat structure is highly influential on the variation of the magnitudes of strength and permeability.
- The laboratory-scale COMSOL model can predict the experimental results for meso-scale reconstituted coal specimens reasonably well, and according to the extended model results, confining pressure adds a surplus strength to the CO<sub>2</sub> treated coal mass with pore shrinkage and lower CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacities at higher effective stresses. Hence, deep coal seams have

less risk of  $CO_2$  leakage into the atmosphere. Notably, the volume of coal subjected to plastic deformation is higher at higher  $CO_2$  pore pressures-saturated deeper coal seams contributing a more ductile nature for the reservoir rock.

# 9.1.3 Conclusions drawn from completion of objective 3: The optimum conditions to recover CH4 while storing maximum amounts of CO2 in deep coal seams

Firstly, the applicability of low rank coal seams as potential  $CO_2$ -ECBM sites was experimentally tested using Victorian brown coal. Different  $CO_2$  pressures (sub- and super-critical) were injected into CH<sub>4</sub> saturated samples under confinement to observe the CH<sub>4</sub> production and CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacities. According to the experimental results:

- CO<sub>2</sub> injection can significantly enhance methane production compared to natural recovery, and higher CO<sub>2</sub> pressures can obtain a 100% sweep efficiency in low rank coal.
- Super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> takes a shorter time for CO<sub>2</sub> breakthrough, which indicates quicker exchange of methane for CO<sub>2</sub> that will drive the recovered methane easily towards the production wells in the field. Interestingly, this effectiveness of super-critical CO<sub>2</sub> in CH<sub>4</sub> recovery is common for any coal type.
- The coal sample does not start to swell upon the start of CO<sub>2</sub> injection and it takes some time until the sorptive exchange of CH<sub>4</sub> with CO<sub>2</sub>, whereas the time taken to start swelling is decreased at higher injection pressures. This may negatively affect long-term gas production, due to the permeability reduction associated with the greater coal matrix swelling. This warrants more attention.

Next, a detailed numerical study was carried out using a 3-D field-scale model built using the COMET3 numerical simulator to investigate optimum injection scenarios and seam conditions to optimize the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM process in a low rank coal seam ( $500 \times 500 \times 50$  m Victorian brown coal seam at a depth of 800 m). The arrangement of injection and production wells was also considered. The following major conclusions were drawn from this numerical study:

- Methane production is reduced with higher reservoir temperature and the maximum methane production after 50 years was achieved at a range of 50 - 70 °C.
- Gas production reduced up to 70% (critical moisture content) of moisture content and then remained stable for higher moisture contents. Hence, coal seams with very low moisture contents (<<<critical moisture content) or coal seams with very high moisture content (>>> critical moisture content) will produce higher amount of methane.
- Methane production rates are reduced at greater depths due to the reduced CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacity and lower permeabilities with higher effective stress applications. This warrants the use of flow enhancement techniques (such as hydro fracturing) to achieve targeted methane production.

- In relation to injecting gas properties, a gradual increment of methane production with increasing CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure was observed up to 16 MPa. However, the CBM production increment is reduced with higher CO<sub>2</sub> injection, as the sorption-induced strain of the coal mass restricts the pore spaces for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration.
- A comparison of the collective effect of these factors on methane production, revealed that CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure is the most influential factor for the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technique, while moisture content has the least influence and other properties (temperature and depth) moderately affect methane production.
- > The injection of  $N_2$  creates a reduction of partial pressure and hence an increment in methane recovery, and the higher the  $N_2$  percentage, the higher the methane production. However,  $N_2$ has a greater influence on short-term methane production while CO<sub>2</sub> governs the long-term production. Therefore, 40%  $N_2$  + 60% CO<sub>2</sub> is the best injection composition to optimise methane production.
- For the considered coal seam, the use of three injection wells produced the maximum results and a higher number of wells reduces production due to the limitation of CO<sub>2</sub> spreading in the coal bed with the surrounding injection wells.
- A greater number of production wells improves methane production in the short term, although it becomes limited in the long term. This is because the travel distance for methane with a large number of production wells in shorter in the short term and in the long term, methane has sufficient time to reach even the most distant wells.

#### 9.2 Key findings from the research

This research has been conducted to investigate the long-term safe storage of  $CO_2$  in deep coal seams with enhanced methane recovery. Table 9.1 presents the key findings of the present research which has addressed a significant gap in the research area and made a contribution to knowledge.

<b>Objective 1</b>	Coal mass flow behaviour during CO <sub>2</sub> sequestration			
Effective factor	Observation for permeability of coal		Rank effect	
	Conditions	Influence*	Low rank coal	High rank coal
CO <sub>2</sub> phase and pressure	Increasing pressure	Negative (10 – 65%)	Lower	Higher
Depth	Increasing depth	Negative (45 – 80%)	Higher	Lower
Temperature	Lower temperatures (<40 <sup>0</sup> C)	Negative (1 – 9%)	-	-

Table 9.1.	Key	findings	of the	research
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CO <sub>2</sub> storage	Increasing effective	Negative	-	-
	stress	(15 – 50%)		
	Increasing CO <sub>2</sub>	Positive	-	-
	injection time	(5 - 30%)		
N <sub>2</sub> induced swelling	Increasing N <sub>2</sub> pressure	Positive	Lower	Higher
recovery		(1 - 20%)		
	Increasing time of N <sub>2</sub>	Positive	_	_
	flooding	(1 - 18%)		
	nooding	(1 10/0)		
Objective 2	Coal mass mechanical h	ehaviour during C	O2 seauestration	
Effective factor	Observation for strengt	th of coal	Rank effect	
	Conditions	Influence	Low rank coal	High rank coal
$CO_2$ phase and pressure	Increasing pressure	Negative	Lower	Higher
-1 1	C I	(15 - 70%)		C
Denth	Increasing depth	Positive	Higher	Lower
Doptil	mereusing deput	(5 - 45%)	riighei	Lower
Different fluid types	Water	(5 4570)	Lowar	Higher
Different fluid types	w alei	(15 40%)	Lower	Tighei
	N	(13 – 40%)	TT' 1	Y
	$N_2$	Positive	Higher	Lower
		(2 - 8%)		
Objective 3	The optimum conditions	s to recover CH4 wh	ile storing maximum	amount of CO2 in
	deep coal seams			
	1. Applicability of CC	D2 enhanced coal bo	ed methane recover	y to low rank coal
Effective factor	Observation for CH <sub>4</sub> recovery potential			
	Condition		Influence	
Sweep efficiency	Increasing CO <sub>2</sub> pressure		Positive (~40%)	
	2. Optimization of CO	O <sub>2</sub> -enhanced coal b	ed methane recover	ry
Effective factor	<b>Observation for CH</b> <sub>4</sub>	Optimum condi	tions for maximum	CH4 recovery for
	recovery potential	a typical low rank coal seam (500x500x50m) at a		
	after 50 years	depth range of 800 m		
Increasing CO <sub>2</sub> pressure		≤ 18 MPa		
- Lower pore	Positive (35 - 50%) Note: Should be less than the reservoir pro-		ir pressure for safe	
pressures		$\overline{\text{CO}_2}$ injection pressure		
- Higher pore	Positive (~5%)	5 1		
pressures				
Temperature	Negative (~40%)	$50 - 70^{\circ}$ C		
Moisture content	Positive $(\sim 13\%)$	20% or >70%		
Injecting gas	· 0510 v (~1570)	~20/0 OI 2/0/0		
injecting gas				
a a man a si ti a m				

- Higher % of N <sub>2</sub> and lower % of CO <sub>2</sub>	Positive (>15%)	40%	To reduce the $N_2$ leakage and to store more $CO_2$
Higher no of injection wells	Negative	3	
Higher no of production			
wells			
- Short term	Positive	~ 1 or 2	
- Long term	Negative		
Greater distance			
between the injection			
and production well			
- Short term	Negative	~ 350 m onwards	
- Long term	Positive		

\*Here negative means a reduction and positive means an increment of the considered coal parameters (permeability, strength or CH<sub>4</sub> recovery)

#### 9.3 Suggestions for future research

The following sections highlight suggestions for future research based on the present research work.

#### 9.3.1 Studies of flow behaviour

- Similar to CO<sub>2</sub> permeability, an understanding of CH<sub>4</sub> permeability is also essential for a better understanding of CH<sub>4</sub> production from coal seams. Therefore, future research is needed on methane permeation under various pressures for different rank coals.
- All the flow studies in the present research were conducted after removing the moisture from the samples. However, future flow studies are needed for samples with moisture to replicate actual field conditions.
- In the present study, the macro-scale tests were conducted using reconstituted samples due to the inability to obtain large blocks of low-strength brown coal. Therefore, it is proposed to conduct permeability tests on natural macro-scale samples, the results of which would help to determine the effect of the heterogeneous nature of coal on coal permeability, which is the actual nature of coal in natural coal seams.
- The analytical model proposed in the study does not contain the effect of depth on coal swelling due to the lack of experimental data for different coal types with various gas adsorptions. Therefore, it is suggested to conduct experiments and modify the proposed model to include a term for the effect of depth.
- It was observed that N<sub>2</sub> can recover CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-induced swelling in coal and the fieldscale numerical study showed CH<sub>4</sub> recovery enhancement with the co-injection of CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>.

There have been several experimental studies on  $CO_2$  and  $N_2$  co-injection for permeability enhancement in high rank coals, but studies on low rank coals are lacking. Therefore, it is proposed to conduct experimental studies on low rank coal regarding flow enhancement by  $CO_2$  and  $N_2$  co-injection.

#### 9.3.2 Studies of strength behaviour

- Methane is one of the major components in coal seam gas that plays an important role in the overall mechanical response of the coal mass. Hence, to understand the overall influence of coal seam gas on coal's mechanical properties, future research is needed on methane saturation under various pressures for different ranks of coal.
- It is recommended to conduct further research on coal mass mechanical behaviour under different confinements for different saturation conditions, to represent the real case scenarios existing in the field.
- The water saturation effect of the present study was conducted under atmospheric pressure conditions due to the unavailability of the necessary laboratory facilities. However, it is essential to investigate the water saturation effect under different pressure conditions, so that it can be clearly compared with the different pressure effects of N<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub>.
- As found in the present study, coal mass mechanical behaviour under various saturations varies with different coal types. However, the results of this study need to be generalized by testing samples of various ranks of coal taken from different coal basins around the world. Future experimentation is therefore recommended using a wide range of coal specimens taken from different basins in the world with diverse cleat structures and mineral compositions, in order to obtain better insight into the observed strength variations.
- Generally, coal seams are saturated with saline water and hence there is a need to conduct studies regarding the effect of salinity on coal strength and CO<sub>2</sub> saturation-induced coal mass strength variations.

#### 9.3.3 Studies of methane recovery

- > It is proposed to conduct experiments using low rank coal on the potential of  $CH_4$  recovery enhancement by  $CO_2$  injection with different effective factors such as different depths, temperatures and moisture contents to confirm the use of low rank coal seams for  $CO_2$ -ECBM.
- The optimum conditions for CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM proposed in the present study with various effective factors also depend on the cost of implementation and the continuation of the projects and benefits of the project with CH<sub>4</sub> recovery. Therefore, it is essential to combine the physical factors and the cost-benefit factors in a more efficient and long-term CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM project. This is proposed for future research.