



Controls of CO₂–N₂ gas flood ratios on enhanced shale gas recovery and ultimate CO₂ sequestration

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ABSTRACT

Primary production of less than 25% of original gas in place (OGIP) may be elevated by enhanced shale gas recovery (ESGR) using either pure CO₂ or N₂ as injected stimulants. Alternatively, injecting mixtures of CO₂ and N₂ may potentially optimize recovery of natural gas and beneficially sequester CO₂. We develop a dual-porosity, dual-permeability finite element (FEM) model coupled with multi-component gas flow and sorption behavior to 1) explore the evolution of sorption-induced strain resulting from competitive adsorption and its influence on the matrix and fracture permeability; 2) define cumulative production of CH₄ and 3) evaluate the amount of CO₂ sequestered in the reservoir; Results show that pure-CO₂ injection can increase shale gas recovery by ~20%. Conversely, pure-N₂ injection can increase shale gas recovery by ~80%. Injecting mixtures of CO₂ and N₂ can increase shale gas recovery between these end-member magnitudes of ~20%–~80% depending on the gas composition. We show that a higher proportion of CO₂ in the injected CO₂–N₂ mixture will result in the decreased recovery of shale gas. However, at the same injection pressure, injecting CO₂–N₂ mixtures with a higher proportion of CO₂ does not always result in more CO₂ sequestered in the reservoir. Indeed, when the CO₂ injection ratio is > 70%, as explored in this study, increasing the CO₂ injection ratio will result in less CO₂ sequestered. This is because, as the CO₂–N₂ gas ratio increases, shale gas recovery decreases and results in more CH₄ left in the reservoir to compete with CO₂ for sorption sites and finally resulting in less CO₂ sequestered.

1. Introduction

Shale gas is methane trapped within a macro- (fracture network) or micro-porosity system (pores) and adsorbed to organic matter (Mecklenburg, 2009). Gas-producing shales are generally rich in Kerogen source, commonly reaching 10% by weight for North American shale gas plays (Kang et al., 2011). Typically 20–85% of the total shale gas-in-place (GIP) is adsorbed to the organic material (Freeman et al., 2014). Despite the combination of horizontal drilling and hydraulic fracturing to create unconventional reservoirs and release the gas (Stevens, 2012) only ~25% (~1161tcf) of the shale gas is technically recoverable of the total estimated reserve of 4644 tcf (Cooper et al., 2016). This suggests a need for improved methods of recovery to access the remaining 75% of this substantial reserve.

The key processes of gas transport during primary production are shown in Fig. 1 (Kalantari-Dahaghi, 2010). When gas is first produced, the pressure in the fracture system declines rapidly prompting desorption as free gas into the matrix and then into the fractures. This free gas is then transported by advection due to the total pressure gradient

in the fracture. Injecting CO₂ or N₂ to enhance shale gas recovery (ESGR) is feasible since both can increase the pressure gradient to overcome the extremely low permeability and free the adsorbed gas in the matrix, albeit via different mechanisms. Gas adsorption in gas shale typically follows a monolayer adsorption Langmuir isotherm. With this, N₂, CH₄, and CO₂ are preferentially adsorbed on shale in the ratio 2:3:15 (Nuttall et al., 2013; Vermeylen, 2011). Injecting a higher affinity gas, such as CO₂, is a practical method to improve recovery because the organic matter in shales has both a large surface area and a greater sorption affinity for CO₂ relative to CH₄ (Nuttall et al., 2013). This both desorbs the lower affinity CH₄ from the kerogen but also has the additional benefit of sequestering CO₂. Conversely, injecting lower affinity N₂ lowers the partial pressure of CH₄ and promotes CH₄ desorption while simultaneously retaining high N₂ pressures that dilate the reservoir rock and potentially increase permeability. As both N₂ and CO₂ can, in theory, enhance shale gas recovery, injecting an optimal mixture of N₂ and CO₂ may combine the advantages of each to maximize their positive impact on ESGR. The source of the N₂–CO₂ mixture could be the flue gas, which is the combustion exhaust waste produced by

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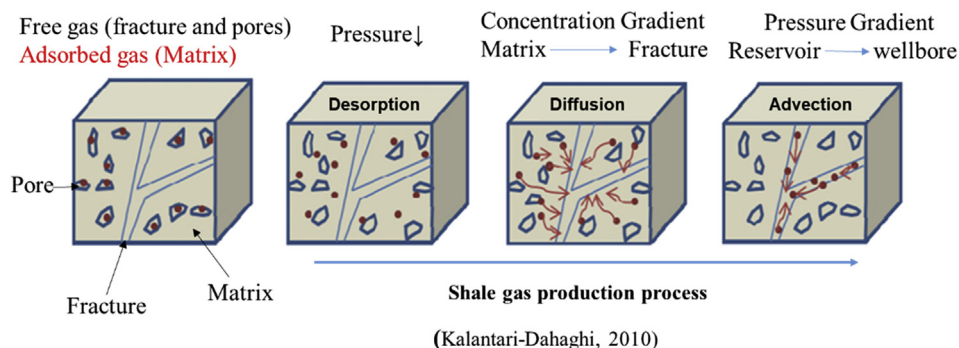


Fig. 1. Transport processes of adsorbed gas during primary production.

thermal power plants. Using a CO₂–N₂ mixture from flue gas can potentially achieve both ESGR and CO₂ sequestration, thus increasing the efficiency of natural gas production and potentially minimizing CO₂ separation effort and cost. Probing for such an optimal injection ratio, and its impact on ESGR and CO₂ sequestration is an important undefined issue and the primary goal of this work.

Currently, EGR in shale gas reservoirs using CO₂ is still at a preliminary stage. At least two pilot projects for EGR are known. The first pilot project worldwide (K12–B) is located in the Dutch sector of the North Sea, where CO₂ was reinjected into the same reservoir following initial gas production and monitored for ~6 years. (Vandeweyer et al., 2011). This exhibited no unexpected problems (Kühn et al., 2014). The Otway pilot site in Victoria, Australia, demonstrated that CO₂ could be safely sequestered in a depleted gas reservoir (Jenkins et al., 2012). No relevant data appear available for N₂ injection. Compared with field demonstrations, numerical modeling enables the simulation of various CO₂–ESGR strategies, such as continuous injection, pulsed injection and huff-and-puff methods at reduced expense and allowing mechanisms and system sensitivity to be effectively determined. A feasibility study of CO₂ ESGR and sequestration (Kalantari-Dahaghi, 2010) clarified the most sensitive parameters impacting shale gas production to be natural fracture permeability, the matrix to fracture coupling factors, shale gas content, matrix permeability and then matrix porosity. Studies comparing CO₂-driven ESGR with sequestration versus re-fracturing treatment of horizontal wells in depleted reservoirs (Eshkalak et al., 2014) showed re-fracturing to be more efficient since refracturing creates a larger effective drainage area and results in increased CH₄ desorption. This is consistent with previous work identifying that fracture permeability exerts the dominant impact on CO₂ ESGR. Reservoir modeling of Devonian gas shales in eastern Kentucky has evaluated the impact of continuous CO₂ injection and huff-and-puff production for both ESGR and CO₂ storage potential (Schepers et al., 2009). This has shown that full-field continuous CO₂ injection is potentially successful, with a ~7%–26% increase in recovery during primary production. However, the huff-and-puff method is limited to ESGR since CO₂ is produced early during the recovery (-puff) period; Studies also showed that continuous CO₂ ESGR, utilizing varying injection pressures (Li and Elsworth, 2014), can enhance gas recovery by ~2%–29%, depending on injection overpressures from 0 to 8 MPa but with a high possibility of CO₂ breakthrough. Pulsed injection was also investigated in this study (Li and Elsworth, 2014), with a ~9% increase in recovery over primary production but without CO₂ breakthrough; Accurately modeling the processes of gas injection or production with complex coupled behaviors such as multicomponent gas flow, competitive sorption, and shale deformation are challenging. In previous studies, a series of single poroelastic (Zhang et al., 2008) or equivalent poroelastic finite element models (Liu et al., 2010) have represented the interactions of multiple processes triggered by injection or production of a single gas in coal. Such models have explored dual poroelastic response for a single gas in coal (Wu et al., 2010; Wu et al., 2011) and have been updated for

binary gas flow to investigate the impact of CO₂ injection and differential deformation on CO₂ injectivity under in-situ stress conditions (Chen et al., 2010). Subsequently, all of these models have been combined and applied to enhanced shale gas recovery by CO₂ for both continuous injection and pulsed and paused injection (Li and Elsworth, 2014). In this study, a dual porosity, dual permeability model of multicomponent gas flow incorporating adsorptive behavior is created to represent the processes of ESGR by injecting pure CO₂, pure N₂, and a full spectrum of binary mixtures. Through this we: 1) explore the evolution of sorption-induced strain resulting from competitive adsorption and its influence on the matrix and fracture permeability; 2) define cumulative production of CH₄ and; 3) evaluate the cumulative mass of CO₂ sequestered in the reservoir.

2. Methodology

We develop a dual-porosity, dual-permeability finite element model to simulate the process of flooding with pure-CO₂, pure-N₂ and a full spectrum of their binary mixtures to recover methane. The following introduces key models describing the fluid flow of each of the three species (CO₂, N₂ and CH₄) and how competitive and non-sorbing behavior controls the evolution of permeability in both fracture and matrix.

2.1. Field and constitutive equation

In the following, a set of field equations for gas flow and transport are defined. These field equations are coupled through porosity and permeability models for shale matrix and fractures. These derivations are based on the following assumptions:

- 1) The shale reservoir is homogeneous, isotropic, and isothermal.
- 2) Gas in this system is ideal and with constant viscosity.
- 3) Gas adsorption occurs only in the shale matrix and gas production to the well is restricted to fractures.
- 4) The presence of a water phase and counter diffusion are not considered.

2.1.1. Multi-component gas transport

Gas mixture transport is based on the time-dependent mass balance equations as,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho\phi_k) + \nabla \cdot (\rho \vec{u}_k) = Q \quad (1)$$

where ρ is the density of the gas mixture [kg/m³], ϕ is porosity [m³/m³], subscript k represents either matrix (m) or fracture (f). \vec{u}_k is Darcy velocity, and can be expressed as,

$$\vec{u}_f = -\frac{k_f}{\mu} \nabla P \quad (2)$$

$$\vec{u}_m = -\frac{k_m}{\mu} \nabla P \tag{3}$$

where Q represents the mass flux transfer between matrix and fracture adjusted by a shape factor ω and could be a source (+) or sink (−) term, depending on the sign.

$$Q = \omega \nabla \cdot \left(\rho \left(-\frac{k_m}{\mu} \nabla (P_f - P_m) \right) \right) \tag{4}$$

where k_m and k_f is the permeability of matrix and fracture [m^2], μ is the fluid dynamic viscosity [$Pa \cdot s$], P is the total gas pressure [Pa], ω is the shape factor, controlling drainage rate from matrix to the fracture. The shape factor may be calculated as (Li & Elsworth, 2014),

$$\omega = -\frac{3\pi}{a^2} \tag{5}$$

Where a is the fracture spacing.

Finally, the governing equation for gas mixture transport can be summarized as,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\rho \varphi_k) + \nabla \cdot \left(\rho \left(-\frac{K_k}{\mu} \nabla P \right) \right) = -\frac{3\pi}{a^2} \nabla \cdot \left(\rho \left(-\frac{K_m}{\mu} \nabla P \right) \right) \tag{6}$$

It is noteworthy that P in these equations (eqns. (2)–(4), (6)) are the gas pressure of the total mixture including CH_4 , CO_2 , and N_2 , which is further used to calculate the approximate Darcy velocity field (\vec{u}_f and \vec{u}_m) of the gas mixture in both the matrix and fracture system - this provides basic fluid motion for advection and diffusion. Each gas component can be considered individually, flowing through this composite velocity field. The mass balance equation can be expressed, combined with the action of advection, diffusion and dispersion and involving the interchange between free and adsorbed gas as,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\rho_{k,i} \varphi_k) + \nabla \cdot (\vec{u}_{k,i} \rho_{k,i}) + \nabla \cdot (-D_{e,i} + D_{D,i}) \rho_{k,i} = Q \tag{7}$$

where subscript i represents one of gas components (CH_4 , CO_2 , or N_2) in either the matrix (m) or fracture (f). $D_{e,i}$ is the coefficient of effective dispersion [m^2/s] and $D_{D,i}$ is the coefficient of diffusion [m^2/s].

This equation can be rewrite in the form of concentration as,

$$\frac{\partial c_{k,i}}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\vec{u}_{k,i} c_{k,i}) + \nabla \cdot (-D_{e,i} + D_{D,i}) c_{k,i} = -\frac{3\pi}{a^2} \nabla \cdot \left(C_i \left(-\frac{K_{m,i}}{\mu} \nabla (C_i \cdot R \cdot T) \right) \right) \tag{8}$$

where $C_{k,i}$ is the concentration of gas component i [mol/m^3], including free-phase gas and adsorbed gas. The concentration of each component of fracture contained in a unit volume of shale can be defined as,

$$C_{k,i} = \phi_f C_{f,i} \tag{9}$$

As we assume gas adsorption occurs only in the shale matrix, the concentration of component is the summation of free gas and adsorbed gas, which can be expressed as,

$$C_{k,i} = \varphi_m C_{m,i} + \frac{\rho_{m,i} \rho_s (1 - \varphi_m - \varphi_f) V_{adsorption,i}}{M_i} \tag{10}$$

where ρ_s is the shale density [kg/m^3] and $V_{adsorption,i}$ is volume adsorbed per unit mass of shale of the component i [m^3/kg]. This adsorbed volume may be expressed by the extended Langmuir isotherm (ELI) as,

$$V_{adsorption,i} = \frac{V_{L,i} C_i b'_i}{1 + \sum_{j=1}^n C_j b'_j} \tag{11}$$

where $V_{L,i}$ is the Langmuir volume constant of species i [m^3/kg], b'_i is a variable used to simplified the ELI as,

$$b'_i = \frac{RT}{P_{L,i}} [m^3/mol] \tag{12}$$

where R is the universal gas constant.

2.2. Porosity and permeability equations

In this model, porosity and permeability change is mainly controlled by adsorption and desorption behavior. Thus, the sorption-induced strain ($\epsilon_{sorption}$) plays a vital role in mediating porosity and permeability change and may be evaluated as (Wu et al., 2011),

$$\epsilon_{sorption} = \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\epsilon_{L,i} C_i b'_i}{1 + \sum_{j=1}^n C_j b'_j} \tag{13}$$

where $\epsilon_{L,i}$ is the Langmuir strain isotherm of gas species i .

Based on our previous work, the matrix and fracture porosity can be expressed as (Li & Elsworth, 2015),

$$\frac{\varphi_m}{\varphi_{m0}} = 1 - \frac{\alpha}{\varphi_{m0} K} \cdot \frac{1}{\frac{b}{a k_f} + \frac{1}{K}} (\epsilon_{sorption} - \epsilon_v) \tag{14}$$

$$\frac{\varphi_f}{\varphi_{f0}} = 1 - \frac{3}{\varphi_{f0} + \frac{3k_f}{K}} (\epsilon_{sorption} - \epsilon_v) \tag{15}$$

where φ_{m0} is initial matrix porosity [−], φ_{f0} is initial fracture porosity [−], K is matrix bulk modulus of the shale [GPa], k_f is the modified fracture stiffness [GPa], b is fracture aperture [m] and ϵ_v is the bulk volumetric strain of the shale, which is considered null in this study (although matrix and fracture may differentially strain at the expense of each other). Since all four external boundaries of the model geometry are assumed constrained, the fracture and matrix permeability can be obtained by cubic law and defined as (Li & Elsworth, 2015),

$$\frac{k_m}{k_{m0}} = \left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{\varphi_{m0} K} \cdot \frac{1}{\frac{b}{a k_f} + \frac{1}{K}} (\epsilon_{sorption} - \epsilon_v) \right)^3 \tag{16}$$

$$\frac{k_f}{k_{f0}} = \left(1 - \frac{3}{\varphi_{f0} + \frac{3k_f}{K}} (\epsilon_{sorption} - \epsilon_v) \right)^3 \tag{17}$$

where k_{m0} is initial matrix permeability [m^2], k_{f0} is initial fracture permeability [m^2], β is the compressibility of the shale [Pa^{-1}].

2.2. Model flowchart

An overview of the linkages between flow mechanisms within the model (Fig. 2(a)) shows the solution algorithm and necessary input parameters for the model. Essentially, this comprises the coupling of ensemble multi-component gas transport as a mixture (eqn. (6)) and single gas component transport within the mixture (eqn. (8)). These two processes communicate through the intermediate variables of the Darcy velocity field, gas species concentration, porosity, and permeability in each solution step with the concentration distribution of each species obtained at each iterative time step.

To accurately simulate fluid flow in the shale reservoir, the model is constructed including matrix and fracture systems as separate but overlapping continua, sharing the same geometry and mesh but with their own representative permeability and porosity, as shown in Fig. 2(b) or 2(c). Transport of the gas mixture is represented by applying constant injection and production pressures on the wellbore boundary as shown in Fig. 2(b). Since the wells are assumed only connected to the fracture system, an instantaneous pressure redistribution in the fracture system will lead to a pressure difference between matrix and fracture. This will induce mass transfer between matrix and fracture, calculated from this pressure difference and modulated by the shape factor (eqn. (5)). This defines the Darcy velocity field distribution in both fracture and matrix, which is then used as an intermediate input parameter to calculate the concentration of each specific gas species in the system (eqn. (8)). With the concentration of each species on the injection and production boundary known (Fig. 3.

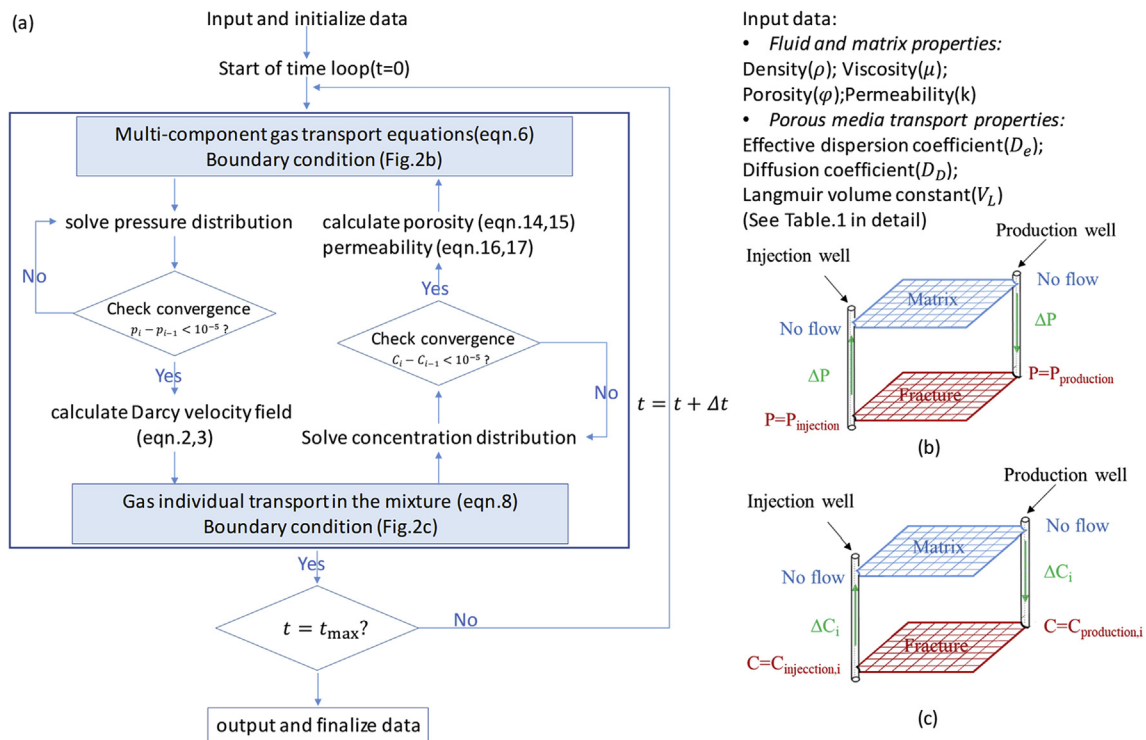


Fig. 2. (a) Core algorithm of the model. The solution is a consecutively updated to represent the processes of gas mixture transport and single gas component transport within the mixture, by updating the intermediate parameters including the Darcy velocity field, the concentration of each species, and porosity and permeability at each time step. (b) The model structure of gas mixture transport with pressure boundary conditions at the injection and production wells both in the matrix and in the fracture system (c). The model structure of single component gas transport in the mixture, with concentration boundary conditions of injection and production wells both in the matrix and in the fracture system for one specific gas species. The linkage between matrix and fracture is also included.

(c), as calculated from the partial pressure from the ideal gas equation, then concentration of each gas species is updated and new competitive sorption (eqn. (13)), porosity (eqn. (14) and (15)) and permeability (eqn. (16) and (17)) are updated and returned to the gas mixture transport calculation for the next step. The solutions of equations that represent these two processes are continuously and consecutively updated until the gas concentration distribution of each species over time is known.

3. Parametric study

In this section, a numerical model is developed with a well-defined set of parameters. The equations applied in the model have been solved using the commercial simulator COMSOL Multiphysics 5.2, using the finite element method (FEM) to solve the governing partial differential equations (PDEs), numerically. We validate the model against standard

stability criteria for transport. The Peclet number and the Courant number are calculated to ensure stable performance by manipulating both element size and time step to guarantee stability.

3.1. Model description

We select a representative portion of a reservoir 200 m in length, 120 m in width and 120 m in depth as shown Fig. 3(a). The initial gas pressure in the reservoir is 30 MPa, representing the pore pressure at a depth of 3000 m. In this study, the three gas components comprise CH₄, CO₂, N₂ at pre-defined initial concentrations in the reservoir of 95%, 4% and 1% in the fracture system and 85%, 14% and 1% in the matrix. The initial partial pressures of one specific gas are set according to its composition: CH₄, CO₂, and N₂ are assigned with initial partial pressures of 28.5 MPa, 1.2 MPa, and 0.3 MPa in the fracture, and 25.5 MPa, 4.2 MPa, 0.3 MPa in the matrix, respectively. The original gas in place

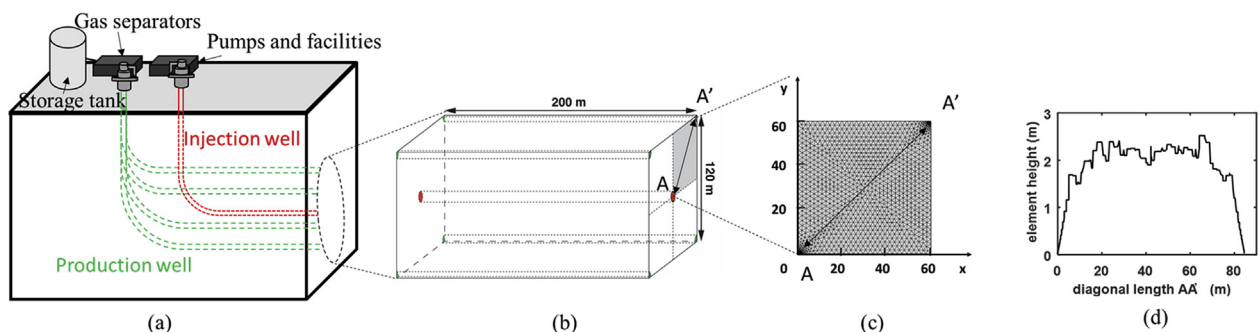


Fig. 3. (a) Schematic of the reservoir showing distribution of horizontal wells. (b) Conceptual model used in the simulation with a specific dimension of 200 m × 120 m × 120 m, and quarter-symmetry simulation model as shaded. AA' is the diagonal trace between injector (A) and production (A') well. (c) Mesh used in the simulation as identical for both matrix and fracture as shown in Fig. 2b and c. (d) Triangular element height distribution along the diagonal line AA'.

(OGIP) is evaluated as the total mass of CH₄ per unit volume separately within both fracture and matrix (eqn. (14)) multiplied by reservoir volume. This may also be represented in the form of concentration as in eqn. (15). It is noteworthy that the concentration of CH₄ in the matrix already includes both free and adsorbed CH₄. If this CH₄ is produced in its entirety, the volume of CH₄ under the standard conditions is $3.59 \times 10^7 \text{ m}^3$ (1267 MMscf) as,

$$m_{\text{CH}_4} = m_{f,\text{CH}_4} + m_{m,\text{CH}_4} \quad (18)$$

$$m_{\text{CH}_4} = (C_{f,\text{CH}_4} + C_{m,\text{CH}_4}) \times M_{\text{CH}_4} \quad (19)$$

The reservoir is accessed by 5 horizontal wells that are produced over 30 years. The well pattern is a regular (horizontally aligned) five-spot pattern with one injection well in the center flanked by four production wells at the corners (Fig. 3(a)). The symmetry of the flow regime in this system allows representation by a single quadrant of the reservoir, taken in the vertical plane (Fig. 3(b)). This one-quarter section is represented by the gray shaded region (Fig. 3(b)) with the mesh distribution shown in Fig. 3(b). The trace AA' is the diagonal line of the target gas flow area from the injection well to a production well.

For these parametric studies, CO₂ and N₂ are injected either individually or as a mixture in various ratios and at different injection pressure schemes. These summarized schemes are: (1) Withdrawal only, with no injection (primary production), (2) Injection at 4 MPa overpressure, and (3) Injection at 8 MPa overpressure above an initial reservoir pressure of 30 MPa. Each simulation runs for 30 years allowing CH₄ recovery and CO₂ sequestration are evaluated. The initial parameters used in the simulation and their source are shown in Table 1, below.

3.2. Model validation

The numerical model developed in section 3.1 is applied here to investigate the controls of CO₂-N₂ gas flood ratios on enhanced shale gas recovery and ultimate CO₂ sequestration for an ideal representative reservoir. Reasonable computational limits are placed on both memory and runtime and calculations are conducted using triangular elements with the minimum triangle height distribution showing in Fig. 3(d). In this section, Peclet and Courant numbers are calculated along the

diagonal line (AA') with time to test whether or not element size and time step is stable and reasonable. The Peclet number is a dimensionless number that can relate the effectiveness of mass transport by advection to mass transport by diffusion. It is defined as,

$$Pe = \frac{N_{\text{advection}}}{N_{\text{diffusion}}} = \frac{t_{\text{diffusion}}}{t_{\text{advection}}} = \frac{L^2/D_h}{L/U} = \frac{LU}{D_h} \quad (20)$$

where L is a characteristic length, U is Darcy velocity magnitude, and D_h is the sum of characteristic diffusion and dispersion coefficient.

When the Peclet number is less than one, it is diffusion dominant in the mass flux, and when the Peclet number is greater than one, the effects of convection exceed those of diffusion in determining the overall mass flux. If the Peclet number is greater than 10 to 100 that can cause problems with the numerical stability. The Peclet number across the diagonal line of the representative quarter of the reservoir is shown in Fig. 4(a). The Peclet number is relatively small at both injection or production well relative to that in the middle because meshes are much denser at the well to describe the geometry of the well, as shown in Fig. 3(d). It is important to note that a higher mesh resolution results in a more accurate solution but more computational effort. To find a balance between accuracy and effort, we accept the current mesh distribution as shown in Fig. 3(d), which finally leads to some regions with Peclet numbers reaching 10. However, COMSOL uses upwind weighting in these regions to reduce oscillations at the expense of some numerical dispersion.

The Courant number is a measure of how much information traverses a computational grid cell in a given time, which is defined as

$$C = \frac{U\Delta t}{\Delta x} \quad (21)$$

where Δt is the time-step of the numerical model ($\Delta t = 86400$ s in this model), and Δx is the element length in the numerical model.

The Courant number should be restricted to less than unity to guarantee a stable solution. The Courant number across the diagonal line of the symmetric quarter domain of the reservoir is shown in Fig. 4(b) – guaranteeing that it is less than unity. These, coupled with other validation exercises, guarantee the veracity of the resulting model.

Table 1
Modeling parameters used in the simulation.

	Value	Unit	Reference
Initial reservoir temperature (T ₀)	300	R	Li & Elsworth (2014)
Initial reservoir pressure (P ₀)	30×10^3	Pa	Li & Elsworth (2014)
Initial porosity of matrix (φ _m)	0.041	–	Strickland et al. (2011)
Initial porosity of fracture (φ _f)	0.007	–	Wang & Reed (2009)
Initial permeability of matrix (k _m)	2.17×10^{-19}	m ²	Strickland et al. (2011)
Initial permeability of fracture (k _f)	2.27×10^{-17}	m ²	Strickland et al. (2011)
fracture aperture (b)	5×10^{-4}	m	Li & Elsworth (2014)
fracture spacing (a)	0.025	m	Li & Elsworth (2014)
Density of shale (ρ)	2500	Kg/m ³	Li & Elsworth (2014)
Young's modulus of shale (E _s)	32.75×10^9	Pa	Goodway et al. (2006)
Young's modulus of shale grain (E _g)	40.54×10^9	Pa	Vermlyen (2011)
Poisson's ratio of shale (ν)	0.235	–	Goodway et al. (2006)
CH ₄ dynamic viscosity (μ _{CH₄})	1.15×10^{-5}	Pa·s	Wu et al. (2011)
CO ₂ dynamic viscosity (μ _{CH₂})	1.6×10^{-5}	Pa·s	Wu et al. (2011)
N ₂ dynamic viscosity (μ _{N₂})	1.75×10^{-5}	Pa·s	Vermlyen (2011)
CH ₄ Langmuir pressure constant (P _{L,CH₄})	6.9×10^3	Pa	Vermlyen (2011)
CO ₂ Langmuir pressure constant (P _{L,CO₂})	2.51×10^3	Pa	Vermlyen (2011)
N ₂ Langmuir pressure constant (P _{L,N₂})	8×10^3	Pa	Vermlyen (2011)
CH ₄ Langmuir volume constant (V _{L,CH₄})	1.05×10^{-3}	m ³ /Kg	Vermlyen (2011)
CO ₂ Langmuir volume constant (V _{L,CO₂})	4.93×10^{-3}	m ³ /Kg	Vermlyen (2011)
N ₂ Langmuir volume constant (V _{L,N₂})	2.5×10^{-3}	m ³ /Kg	Vermlyen (2011)
CH ₄ Langmuir volumetric strain constant (ε _{L,CH₄})	8.1×10^{-4}	–	Vermlyen (2011)
CH ₄ Langmuir volumetric strain constant (ε _{L,CO₂})	3.6×10^{-3}	–	Vermlyen (2011)
CH ₄ Langmuir volumetric strain constant (ε _{L,N₂})	7.5×10^{-4}	–	Vermlyen (2011)

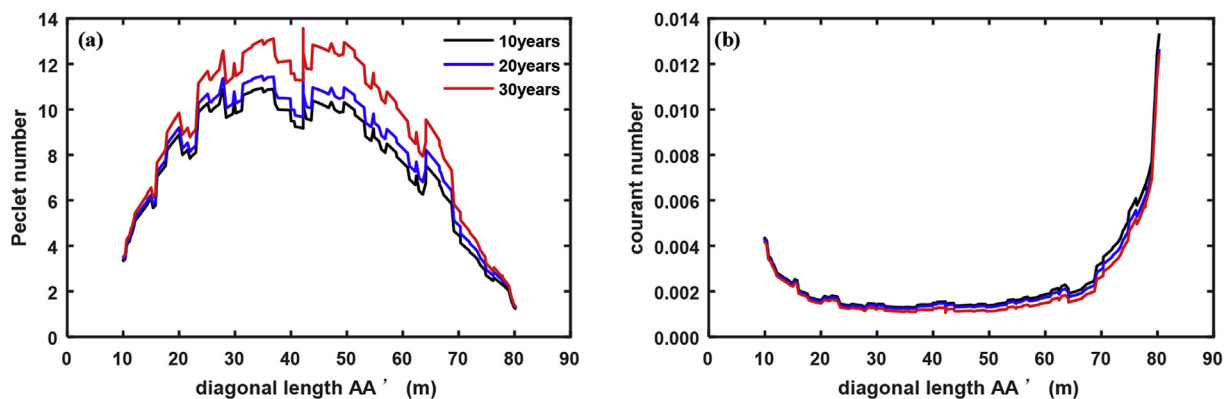


Fig. 4. (a) Peclet number along diagonal AA' at 10 years, 20 years and 30 years. (b) Courant number along diagonal AA' at 10 years, 20 years and 30 years.

4. Results and discussion

The dual-porosity, dual-permeability finite element (FEM) model coupled with multi-component gas flow and sorption behavior is used to 1) explore the evolution of sorption-induced strain resulting from competitive adsorption and its influence on the matrix and fracture permeability; 2) define cumulative production of CH₄; 3) and to describe the mass of CO₂ sequestered in the reservoir;

4.1. Permeability evolution

Matrix permeability change is characterized by the matrix permeability ratio. This is defined as the matrix permeability divided by the initial matrix permeability. The fracture permeability ratio is defined in the same way.

Pure N₂ and pure CO₂ are separately injected under either 4 MPa

(solid line) or 8 MPa (dashed line) overpressures for ESGR. The matrix and fracture permeability ratio are represented in Fig. 5 over 10-years of injection. The matrix and fracture permeability ratio under pure N₂ injection and pure CO₂ injection is mainly focused local to injection (left hand side of each figure). This is because the injected N₂ will desorb CH₄ by lowering its partial pressure. CH₄ desorption, combined with N₂ injection, results in matrix shrinkage and complementary fracture widening. Conversely, injected CO₂ will displace CH₄ due to its higher adsorption affinity. CO₂ adsorption and CH₄ desorption then results in matrix swelling and complementary fracture shrinkage (closure). Matrix permeability ratio decreases (Fig. 5(a) and (c)) and fracture permeability ratio increases (Fig. 5(b) and (d)) at the production well (right hand side of each figure), as a result of reduced pressure of CH₄ as production desorbs CH₄ that induces matrix shrinkage and complementary fracture widening.

The overall effect of pure CO₂ or pure N₂ ESGR on permeability is

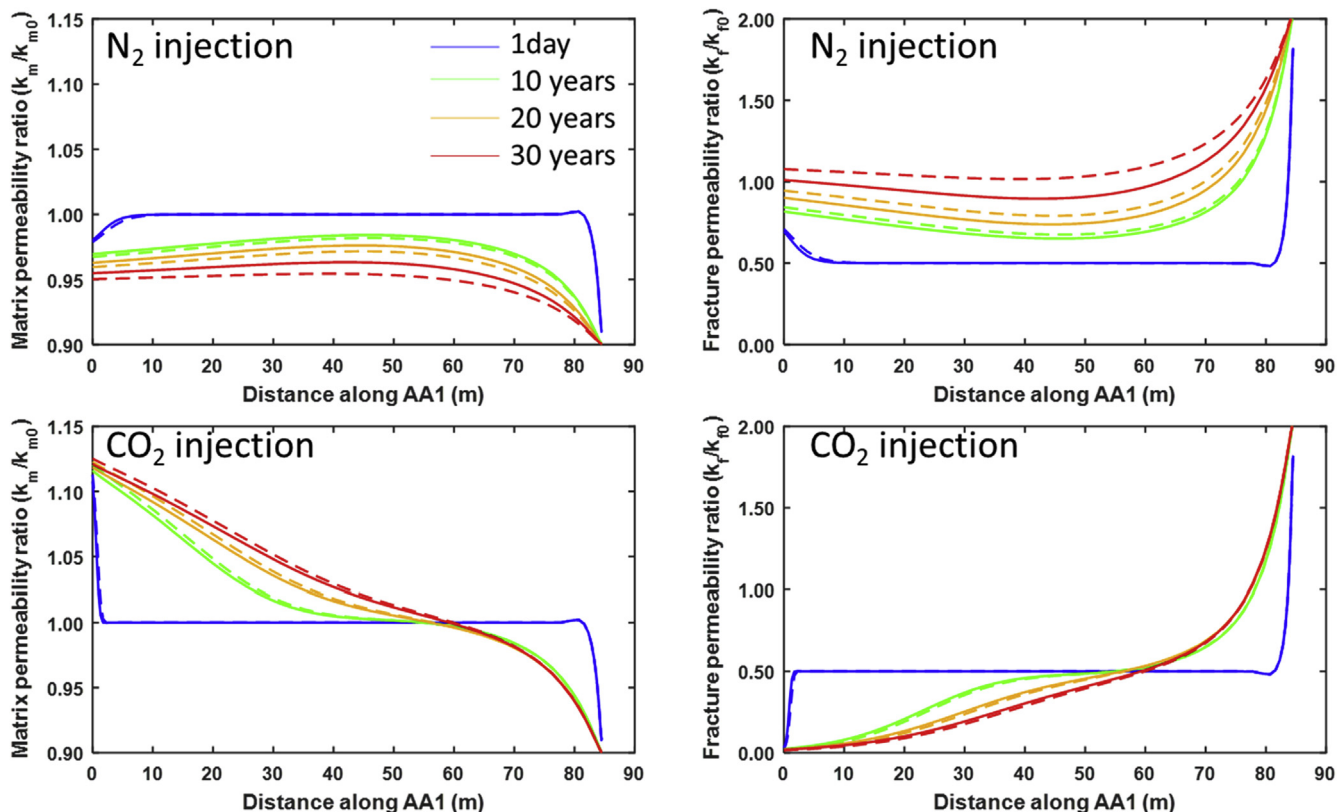


Fig. 5. Time history of (a) matrix permeability evolution and (b) fracture permeability evolution resulting from injection of pure N₂ as an ESGR stimulant; Time history of (c) matrix permeability evolution and (d) fracture permeability evolution resulting from injection of pure CO₂.

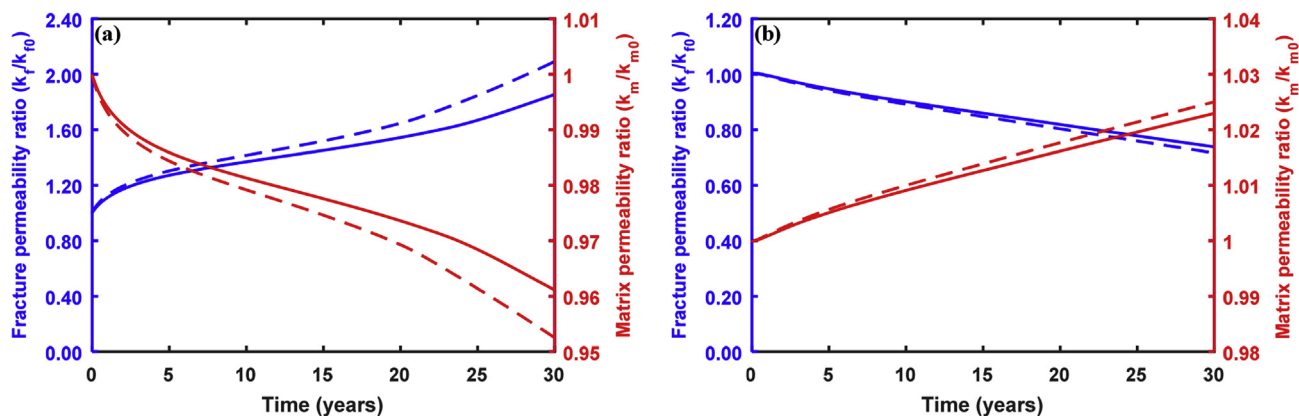


Fig. 6. (a) The evolution of average matrix permeability ratio (K_m/K_{m0}) and fracture permeability ratio (K_f/K_{f0}) under N₂ injection at 4 MPa overpressure (solid line) and 8 MPa overpressure (dashed line). (b) The evolution of average matrix permeability ratio (K_m/K_{m0}) and fracture permeability ratio (K_f/K_{f0}) under CO₂ injection.

apparent in the average matrix and fracture permeability ratio as defined over the entire reservoir: N₂ injection causes a decrease in the average matrix permeability and an increase in the average fracture permeability over time, while CO₂ injection results in the opposite effect (average fracture permeability decreases and average matrix permeability increases), as shown in Fig. 6 (a) and (b).

4.2. Cumulative shale gas production

The cumulative shale gas production under CO₂ injection, N₂ injection, and the spectrum of mixtures of those two gases is shown in Fig. 7(a). The black line shows the primary production, and the blue and the red lines represent the production under pure CO₂ or N₂, respectively. The intermediate responses represent mixtures of N₂ and CO₂ injection in different ratios. It is apparent that both CO₂ and N₂ injection each enhance shale gas recovery, and by different margins. CO₂ injection increases shale gas recovery by ~20% based on primary recovery over 30 years. The production improvement is maybe not as high as expected because CO₂ adsorption results in matrix swelling which decreases fracture permeability and correspondingly impedes production. Injection of pure N₂ also increases shale gas recovery, and in this case by ~80%. This increased efficiency is because N₂ injection lowers the partial pressure of CH₄ in the shale, prompting gas desorption from the matrix and simultaneously induces fracture enlargement – a second mechanism and effect that is the opposite for CO₂ injection. Production decreases with an increased proportion (percentage) of CO₂ in the injected mixture, relative to N₂. This relationship is represented in Fig. 7. (b).

It is concluded from Fig. 7(b) that although pure CO₂ injection can

recover more than primary recovery, alone, a higher proportion of CO₂ in the injectate will result in a decreased recovery of CH₄ due to impacts on reduced permeability. Stated differently, increasing pressure is not the only means to achieve higher ESGR production. Instead, lowering the CO₂ ratio in the injected CO₂-N₂ mixture can achieve the same goal.

4.3. CO₂ sequestration

The volume (STP) of CO₂ sequestered versus time is shown in Fig. 8(a) for CO₂-N₂ mixtures in different gas ratios. Observations show that although the CH₄ recovery rate via CO₂-ESGR is insensitive to the injection pressure, the mass of CO₂ sequestered is strongly influenced by pressure. Furthermore, at the same injection pressure, injecting CO₂-N₂ mixtures with a higher proportion of CO₂ does not always result in more CO₂ sequestered in the reservoir. For instance, pure CO₂ injection, unexpectedly, results in less sequestered CO₂ than a mixture with 75% CO₂ and 25% N₂. This is due to the influence of permeability change as a result of CO₂ sorption (fracture permeability decreases) relative to that with N₂ where fractures are dilated at high injection pressures.

Focusing on the relationship between CO₂ sequestration and CO₂ injection ratio, it is apparent in Fig. 8. (b) that CO₂ could be sequestered in the reservoir during ESGR only if the CO₂ injection ratio is greater than 20%. Otherwise, the CO₂ would be directly flooded out from the reservoir by N₂ without any sequestration. Additionally, the increase in the amount of CO₂ sequestered with increasing CO₂ proportion is not linear. This likely result since, as the CO₂-N₂ gas ratio increases, shale gas recovery decreases, which leads to more CH₄ left in the reservoir to compete with CO₂ for sorption sites and finally results in less CO₂

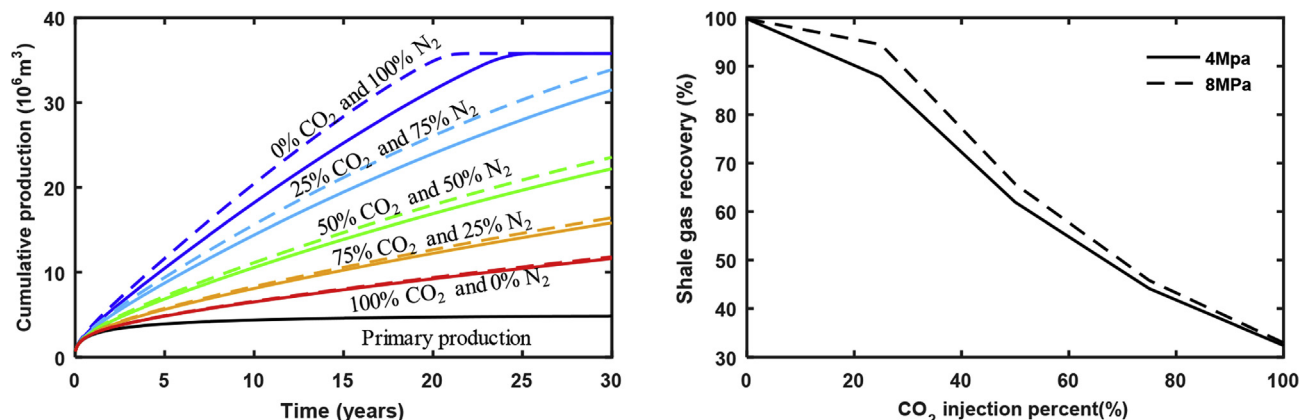


Fig. 7. (a) Cumulative CH₄ production vs. time for mixtures of N₂ and CO₂ injected in different ratios under 4 MPa overpressure injection (solid line) and 8 MPa overpressure (dashed line), relative to primary production without EGR. (b) Relationship between shale gas recovery and CO₂ injection ratio.

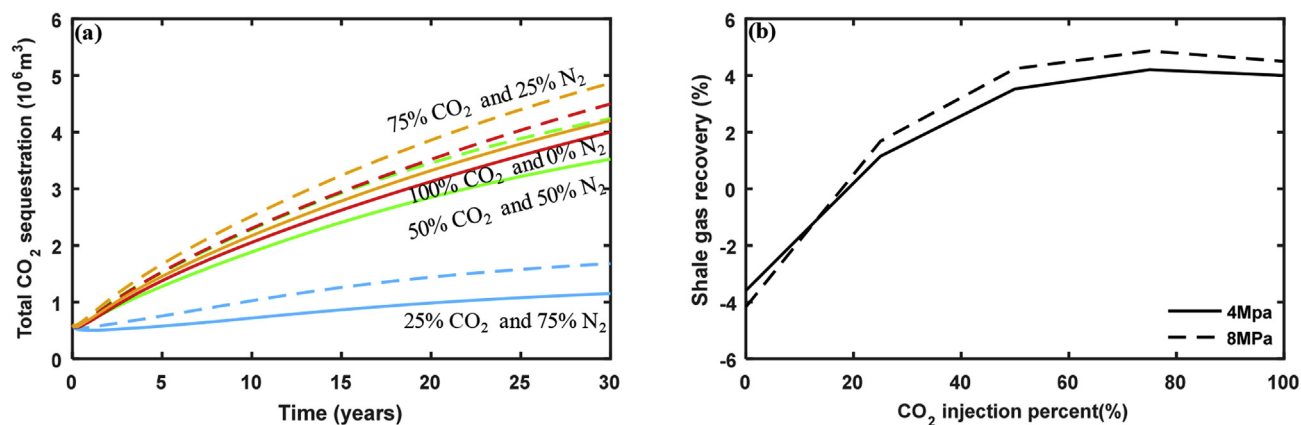


Fig. 8. (a) Total CO₂ sequestered with time under injection of N₂ and CO₂ in different ratios. (b) Percentage of CO₂ injected at 4 MPa (solid line) and 8 MPa (dashed line) overpressure.

sequestration. Apparent from Fig. 8(b) is that the optimal CO₂ proportion for CO₂ sequestration is ~80%.

5. Conclusion

This study explores mechanisms of enhanced shale gas recovery (ESGR) using the injection of a spectrum of mixtures of CO₂ and N₂. A finite element dual-porosity, dual-permeability model of multi-component gas flow in porous media is coupled with sorption behavior. Furthermore, the injection of both pure CO₂ and N₂ and as a mixture in different ratios is explored. The following two conclusions are drawn:

- CO₂ and N₂ can both enhance shale gas recovery, but via different mechanisms:
 - Injection of CO₂ can increase shale gas recovery since CO₂ has a higher absorbability than CH₄ and thereby CO₂ competitively desorbs CH₄. This can increase the recovery of CH₄ by ~20%, based on primary recovery. This improvement is relatively minor since CO₂ adsorption results in matrix swelling which concomitantly decreases fracture permeability and correspondingly impedes production. Despite this, CO₂ can be used in ESGR where concurrent sequestration of the greenhouse gas will also occur.
 - Injection of N₂ in ESGR can also increase shale gas recovery but by a much larger margin of ~80%, since N₂ lowers the partial pressure of CH₄ in shale. This then accelerates desorption of shale gas from the matrix and induces fracture enlargement as a consequence of shrinkage of the shale matrix - due to the lower absorbability of the shale to N₂ with respect to CH₄. Although injection of N₂ as an agent for ESGR has many advantages, it cannot concurrently sequester CO₂ to mitigate greenhouse gas emissions.
- Injection of pure CO₂ and pure N₂ both have their advantages and disadvantages in ESGR. Injecting an optimal mixture of N₂ and CO₂ may combine the advantages of each gas to maximize their positive impact and minimize their negative impact:
 - Injection of N₂ in higher proportions relative to CO₂ improves shale gas recovery since N₂ is more effective in ESGR.
 - Enhanced recovery is less sensitive to pressure for CO₂ injection than to N₂. Therefore, increasing injection pressure has an insignificant effect on shale gas recovery when the CO₂ proportion in the injected gas is high.
 - Increasing pressure is not the only means to achieve ESGR - instead, increasing the N₂-CO₂ ratio can achieve the same goal.

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