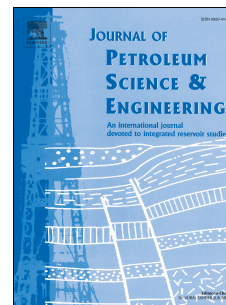


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Experimental Investigation on the Impact of Coal Fines Generation and Migration on Coal Permeability

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ABSTRACT

Measurements of the coal fines production and the impact of these fines on the permeability of two coals from the Bowen Basin, Australia, were performed at different flow conditions (single-phase water or gas, two-phase water and gas) and pressure conditions. The fines collected from each coal samples ranged in size from 1 μm to 14 μm . For both coal samples, during the first 50 hours, the permeability decreases from 0.005 mD and 0.048 mD by 60.9% and 85%, respectively, followed by gradual decline with fluctuations. By the end of water injection, the permeability drops by 88% and 89%, respectively. This phenomenon is attributed to the counteraction between formation damage (cleats plugging and coal fines settlement) and breakthrough of coal fines from the samples (widened cleats). It was found that coal fines volumetric production is proportional to the third power of flow velocity once the flow paths for coal fines are established. The critical flow velocities of coal fines production for both samples were also obtained. For hydrophobic coal, water-drive-gas two-phase flow introduces abrupt permeability loss due to coal fines generation and migration. Furthermore, pauses (well shut-in) in the experiments cause slight permeability drops. A comparison between the two samples indicates that narrower and less connected cleating system results in more frequent coal fines generation and migration, resulting in significant permeability fluctuations with general decreasing trend. Tortuosity of the cleats can enhance the deterioration in permeability by coal fines behaviours. This study delivers fundamental understandings of coal fines generation and migration during the CSG production process, and useful guidelines are suggested to be implemented in the field to minimize production loss induced by coal fines behaviours.

Keywords: Coal fines generation and migration; Core flooding; Permeability variation; Critical velocity; Cleat structure

33 1 INTRODUCTION

34 Coal fines are produced from coal seam gas (CSG) reservoirs throughout the CSG production
35 process. The size of coal fines collected in CSG wells varies from a few nanometres diameter to
36 hundreds of microns. These fines have detrimental impacts on CSG production, such as formation
37 damage and pump failures (Marcinew and Hinkel, 1990; Nimerick et al., 1990). A small portion of
38 coal fines naturally exists in virgin coal cleats; while a large portion is generated mainly by fluid
39 flushing and pressure disturbance (Yao et al., 2016). During the CSG production process, when
40 different flow regimes take place (e.g. single-phase flow and two-phase flow) (Bai et al., 2017;
41 Wang et al., 2017), coal fines may plug coal cleats and/or deposit in cleats during the migration
42 process, deteriorating coal permeability. This results in significant drop in the gas productivity
43 (Magill et al., 2010; Palmer et al., 2005). In addition, coal fines can migrate towards a CSG well,
44 burying the downhole pumps, after which workovers will be required to resume the production
45 process (Black, 2011; Okotie and Moore, 2010). Appropriate production strategies can alleviate the
46 coal fines induced problems according to different reservoir conditions.

47 Mathematical models using force and stress balance analysis have been used in several studies
48 (Bedrikovetsky et al., 2011; Khilar and Fogler, 1998; Moore et al., 2011) to predict coal fines
49 generation and attempt to identify the factors that influence fines generation. The two forces
50 considered as the main causes for coal fines breakage and migration in coal cleats are the
51 hydrodynamic forces and the colloidal forces. Coal fines start to detach from coal cleats as the
52 hydrodynamic force exceeds the colloidal force (Bedrikovetsky et al., 2011; Khilar and Fogler,
53 1998). The particle rotation effect is taken into account in the force balance model (Bedrikovetsky
54 et al., 2011). However, the rotation effect can be neglected given the small sizes of coal fines (less
55 than 100 μm). Instead, the stress analysis suggests that both shear failure (Palmer et al., 2005) and
56 tensile failure (Moore et al., 2011) are possible failure mechanisms when the stress balance is
57 breached.

58 In our previous paper (Bai et al., 2015), we numerically simulated coal fines generation during the

59 dewatering phase. The results reveal that coal fines start to be generated as the pressure gradient
60 reaches a critical value, which is dependent on cleat geometries. More coal fines are generated as
61 the pressure gradient increased. We also conducted two-phase flow simulations (Bai et al., 2016;
62 Bai et al., 2017). We find that two-phase flow generates more coal fines compared to single-phase
63 flow. It is suggested that in order to reduce coal fines production, frequently well shut-in should be
64 avoided. Although the generation of coal fines has been linked to different cleat geometries, the
65 permeability evolution associated with coal fines generation remains poorly understood.

66 Gash (1991) experimentally tested core flooding behaviours to evaluate the impact of coal fines on
67 permeability, and confirmed the formation damage was due to coal fines migration, because he
68 observed the permeability recovery when the flow direction was reversed. Yao et al. (2016) used
69 reconstituted coal samples to investigate the effect of tectonically deformed coal types on the
70 characteristics of coal fines generation. They suggest that granulated coal is more sensitive to flow
71 velocity and reservoir effective stress than the undeformed coal, but the permeability variations
72 were not measured in their experiments. Wei et al. (2015) experimentally demonstrated the critical
73 flux for coal fines generation, and proposed a maximum water production for a particular CSG well.
74 Guo et al. (2015, 2016) conducted a series of core flooding tests using water to quantify the
75 permeability variations caused by coal fines production. They conclude that the variation of
76 permeability generally matches with the trend of coal fines production (i.e. more significant
77 permeability drop corresponding to more coal fines production), and the permeability decreases
78 continuously.

79 From the field trials from 12 CSG wells, Zhao et al. (2016) observed that coal fines emerged during
80 the water production stage ranged from 10 μm to 100 μm , and higher water flow rate led to more
81 severe damage to CSG reservoirs. Wei et al. (2013) further investigated the characteristics of coal
82 fines production in a gas field in China. From the samples collected from the CSG wells at different
83 production stages, they found that the size of coal fines was greater during the dewatering of coal
84 seams, and the coal fines production was higher for both dewatering and initial production (two-

85 phase flow) phases. In these field trials, the permeability of the coal seams has not been quantified
86 to correspond to the coal fines behaviours.

87 The impact of production parameters (e.g. water flow velocity and production pressure) on coal
88 fines generation and permeability has been reported by researchers. However, the relationship
89 between the characteristics of coal fines behaviours and permeability variations for different CSG
90 production scenarios has not been comprehensively investigated. This relationship offers a vital
91 knowledge for addressing the coal fines issues. Besides, the effects of gravity and cleat structure on
92 such relationship have not been accounted for in previous research (Zhao et al., 2017).

93 In this study, laboratory experiments will be performed using two samples to examine coal
94 permeability changes due to coal fines generation and migration at various production scenarios,
95 including single-phase flow, two-phase flow and well shut-in. The correlation between the
96 characteristics of coal fines and permeability variations will be established and the implications for
97 managing coal fines challenges in the field will be discussed in detail. The effects of gravity and
98 cleat structure on the fines-permeability relationship will also be investigated.

99 **2 EXPERIMENTAL METHODOLOGY**

100 2.1 Sample preparation

101 Two 3 cm cubes were cut from a piece of coal collected from a coal mine in the Bowen Basin
102 (Australia), as shown in Fig. 1a. The contact angles measured with water on the two coal samples
103 using a Sessile Drop experiment were 116° and 109° , which suggests these coals tend to segregate
104 from water (i.e. hydrophobic). Each coal sample was cast in a cylinder of resin to simulate
105 constrained reservoir boundary conditions (Fig. 1b). Resin fluid distributors with the same cross-
106 sectional size as the cubic sample were made and placed at each end of the samples and a 1/4" tube
107 was embedded directly in each distributor to serve as the fluid conduit. Any small gaps between the
108 cubic sample and the fluid distributors were sealed laterally to prevent leakage. The coal cubes were
109 orientated with the bedding planes parallel to the fluid conduits so that the flow direction was most

110 closely aligned to the face cleats.

111

112 Fig. 1. (a) The coal sample and (b) the resin coated sample.

113 2.2 Sample characterization

114 The sample characterization includes Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) to visualize the
115 cleating system; X-ray Diffraction (XRD) to examine the mineral contents; Mercury Intrusion
116 Porosimetry (MIP) to quantify the initial porosity; and flooding test to obtain the initial
117 permeability. The former three types of characterization were obtained using the debris from the
118 two coal samples. Since the debris came off from different spots of the samples, we would say the
119 characterization obtained was representative of the whole samples.

120 The JEOL 7800 SEM was used to take images focusing on the cleat aperture and connectivity for
121 both coal samples. We looked at three fragments from each coal sample, and all of them exhibited
122 similar characteristics for each sample. Therefore, we chose one from them to illustrate the
123 representative characteristics, as shown in Fig. 2 and Fig. 3. Fig. 2a and Fig. 3a show a typical face
124 cleat in Sample 1 and Sample 2, respectively. Both face cleats are continuous, but the one in
125 Sample 2 is more tortuous. Fig. 2b and Fig. 3b better demonstrate the connectivity of coal cleats,
126 and the butt cleats in Sample 2 are better developed and connected with each other. When it comes
127 down to a higher resolution, it can be seen that the aperture of the face cleat is wider in Sample 2
128 (14 μm) compared with that in Sample 1 (7 μm). The characteristics of the coal cleats in both
129 samples are summarised in Table 1.

130

132

131 Fig. 2. SEM images for Sample 1.

133 Fig. 3. SEM images for Sample 2.

134 Table 1. Qualitative comparison of coal cleats for both coal samples from the Bowen Basin.

Sample 1	Sample 2
----------	----------

Tortuosity	Flat	Tortuous
Connectivity	Poor	Good
Aperture	Narrow	Wide

135

136 The X-ray Powder Diffraction (XRD) tests were performed using the Bruker D8 Advance Powder
 137 X-ray diffractometer, and the results are demonstrated in Fig. 4. It can be seen that the two coal
 138 samples possess similar mineral contents, which mainly includes kaolinite, with some quartz. Few
 139 swelling minerals are present in the coal samples, hence the swelling effect on coal permeability can
 140 be neglected.

141

142 Fig. 4. XRD test results of both coal samples.

143 The initial porosity of the samples was evaluated by Mercury Intrusion Porosimetry (MIP) using the
 144 Micromeritics AutoPore IV9520, and the initial permeability was obtained at the beginning of the
 145 flow tests. The tested values are listed in Table 2. The MIP curves are plotted in Fig. 5. In order to
 146 correspond to the size of coal fines, which will be displayed afterwards, the pore size distribution
 147 analysis was focused on the zone of interest (0.6 μm to 14 μm). There are more pores and fractures
 148 in Sample 2 for the majority of the size range, and this is the case in the zone of interest, which
 149 confirms the observations in the SEM images. The initial porosity and permeability of the samples
 150 coincide with the characterization of the cleats (Table 1). To be more specific, better connected and
 151 wider cleats give rise to higher initial porosity and permeability.

152

153 Table 2. Initial porosity and permeability of both coal samples.

	Sample 1	Sample 2
Initial porosity (%)	4.73	9.08
Initial permeability (mD)	0.005	0.048

154

155

156 Fig. 5. MIP curves for both samples (a) pore size distribution from 0.01 μm to 100 μm ; and (b) pore
 157 size distribution in the zone of interest (0.6 μm to 14 μm).

158 2.3 Core flooding rig

159 The ISCO 500D syringe pump was used to inject water and helium vertically through the assembled
 160 samples at constant differential pressures (i.e. $\Delta P = P_1 - P_2$ is constant, where P_1 is the inlet
 161 pressure and P_2 is the outlet pressure). The outlet was open to the atmosphere. No external
 162 confining stress was applied to the samples. The fluid flow rate and pump pressure were logged,
 163 and used to calculate the change in permeability.

164 The permeability of water and gas were calculated using Eq (1) and Eq (2), respectively, based on
 165 Darcy's Law (Fu et al., 2009; Wei et al., 2015):

$$166 \quad k_w = \frac{Q\mu_w L}{A(P_1 - P_2)} \quad (1)$$

$$167 \quad k_g = \frac{2P_0 Q \mu_g L}{A(P_1^2 - P_2^2)} \quad (2)$$

168 where k_w and k_g are the permeabilities for water and gas, respectively. Q is the flow rate. μ_w and μ_g
 169 are the viscosities of water and gas, respectively. L is the length and A is the cross-sectional area of
 170 the sample. P_0 is atmospheric pressure.

171

172 2.4 Experiment scenarios

173 The experiment scenarios are illustrated in Fig. 6. For both coal samples, initially, water was used
 174 as the injection fluid to simulate the dewatering process. The pressure difference across the sample
 175 was set at 0.8 MPa, and it was increased by 0.1 MPa at each step until the pressure difference
 176 reached 1.5 MPa, and the change in pressure difference aims to examine its impact on coal fines
 177 production and corresponding permeability variations. Then helium gas was introduced to mimic

178 gas-drive-water two-phase flow scenario in CSG reservoirs. In order to initiate the two-phase flow,
179 the pressure difference was set as 1.1 MPa with an increment of 0.1 MPa at each time till 1.3 MPa.

180 In addition to the above scenarios, some more cases were conducted on Sample 2, including water-
181 drive-gas two-phase flow, horizontal water flooding (to investigate the gravitational effect on coal
182 fines behaviours) and backflow test (to prove coal fines behaviours are the cause for permeability
183 change). Please be noted that for 1.3 MPa, 1.4 MPa and 1.5 MPa of water flooding, the experiment
184 was paused for 15 h between two effluent samples were collected at one pressure, before
185 proceeding to the next injection scenario in order to evaluate the impact of well shut-in on coal fines
186 production.

187

188 Fig. 6. Injection scenarios for both coal samples. Note: solid and dash lines indicate the sample was
189 vertically and horizontally placed, respectively.

190 During the measurements, the effluent from the sample was collected continuously, and the particle
191 size distribution of fines in every 5 mL collected was analysed in the MultisizerTM 4 Particle
192 Analyser (Coulter Counter). Three particle size distribution analyses were measured on each sample
193 to test at least 100,000 particles, and the mean particle size distribution was computed from the
194 three runs, after subtraction of the background particle count measured in the injection water.

195

196 **3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

197 In this section, three key aspects will be discussed, namely the volume of the produced coal fines,
198 the distribution of the size of coal fines, and the permeability evolution induced by coal fines
199 generation and migration.

200 3.1 Volume of coal fines

201 The total volume of coal fines production for every mL effluent for both coal samples was
202 estimated and plotted in Fig. 7.

203

204 Fig. 7. Incremental coal fines production for each scenario of both samples. In the legend, “0.8 MPa”
205 represents the pressure difference, “after gas” means water was re-injected after gas flooding, “flat”
206 means that the sample was placed horizontally instead of vertically, and “backflow” indicates that
207 the flow direction was reversed. The same convention applies for other figures of this work.

208 Sample 1 witnessed the peak yield of coal fines at 0.8 MPa, with the coal fines output at a
209 comparable level for other subsequent scenarios. Since the coal fines production was high at the
210 very first run (0.8 MPa), it can be deduced that such pressure different enables the sample to offer
211 clear migration pathways for coal fines. Whereas coal fines did not gain flow paths for Sample 2
212 until the differential pressure reached 1.0 MPa, since the volume of coal fines in the effluent before
213 1.0 MPa was similar to that of the injection water. It can be inferred that there exists a threshold
214 pressure, above which the passages for coal fines will be established. To be more specific, Sample 1
215 possesses a threshold pressure below 0.8 MPa; while the threshold for Sample 2 is around 1.0 MPa.
216 The reason for a higher threshold for Sample 2 is the tortuosity of the cleats, greater tortuosity
217 makes it more difficult for the fines to move, requiring a higher pressure for breakthrough. In
218 addition, the outputs of coal fines from Sample 2 vary significantly during water flooding under
219 various differential pressures, as illustrated in Fig. 7.

220 Bagnold (Bagnold, 1936) suggested that the mass transport of particles is proportional to the third
221 power of the velocity, therefore, the relationship between the coal fines volumetric concentration
222 and the third power of the absolute flow velocity during Stage 1 of the water injection was plotted
223 in Fig. 8. The trend confirmed Bagnold’s finding, which means the coal fines production is
224 proportional to the third power of the flow velocity (the results are not representative if clear flow

225 paths for coal fines are not well established, thus, the 0.8 MPa and 0.9 MPa scenarios for Sample 2
 226 were not accounted for when fitting the curve). The intersection of the fitted line and x-axis can be
 227 regarded as the third power of the critical velocity, which indicates that below the critical velocity,
 228 little coal fines would be produced (the red dot in Fig. 8). For these two samples, the predicted
 229 critical velocities were 0.82 $\mu\text{m/s}$ and 5.49 $\mu\text{m/s}$, respectively. The following equations were
 230 employed to obtain the absolute flow velocity (Chen et al., 2010):

$$231 \quad \frac{k}{k_0} = \left(\frac{\phi}{\phi_0} \right)^3 \quad (3)$$

$$232 \quad v = \frac{Q}{A\phi} \quad (4)$$

233 where k and ϕ represent permeability and porosity of the coal sample, the subscription 0 indicates
 234 the initial status, and v is the absolute velocity.

235
 236 Fig. 8. Proportional relationship between the coal fines volumetric concentration and flow velocity.

237 After Sample 2 being flooded by gas, water was then injected to displace gas to simulate the water-
 238 drive-gas two-phase flow scenario. Fig. 7 reveals that more coal fines are yielded under the two-
 239 phase flow conditions, as indicated by the red arrow. The possible reason is that a higher localised
 240 pressure gradient (resulted by local pressure build-up) (Bai et al., 2016) is required to overcome the
 241 capillary pressure to enable the breakthrough of two-phase flow, consequently more coal fines are
 242 created. When Sample 2 was laid down horizontally, less fines output was observed compared with
 243 that from the vertical position. Since the flow direction was parallel to the face cleats, and due to the
 244 gravitational effect, the coal sample when being placed horizontally is more prone to coal fines
 245 settlement issue. Therefore, a certain amount of coal fines is more likely to be retained inside the
 246 coal sample, yielding less fines production. Speaking of the backflow scenario (still in horizontal
 247 position), the originally stuck coal fines can be flushed away when the flow direction was reversed,

248 contributing to more fines production (approximately $1 \times 10^6 \mu\text{m}^3/\text{mL}$) than the previous flat
249 scenarios ($0.35 \times 10^6 \mu\text{m}^3/\text{mL}$), as shown in Fig. 7.

250 Furthermore, a comparison between the two samples suggested that coal with higher initial
251 permeability tended to yield more coal fines, because under the same pressure difference, greater
252 permeability gave rise to higher flow velocity.

253 3.2 Coal fines particle size distribution

254 The particle size distribution of coal fines was measured for the effluents collected from each
255 differential pressure using Coulter Counter. The cumulative percentage of volume for each pressure
256 step was plotted as a function of particle size distribution in Fig. 9. Please note that the x-axis is on
257 log scale.

258

259 Fig. 9. Particle size distribution of coal fines for various pressure differences.

260

261 For both samples, the sizes of the coal fine particles mainly range from $1 \mu\text{m}$ to $14 \mu\text{m}$. The value of
262 cumulative percentage of volume increases more rapidly for most curves at lower range, and
263 gradually levels off with increasing particle sizes. This can be explained by (1) smaller coal fines
264 require lower flow velocity to be mobilised, and can be flushed out of the sample more easily
265 compared with larger fines; and (2) the cleat aperture limits the size of coal fines that can pass
266 through these channels. In this study, the particle size at which the curvature experienced sudden
267 change (i.e. the slope of the curve became less than 30) was defined as the critical particle size. No
268 clear correlation between critical particle size and differential pressure was found, as illustrated in
269 Fig. 10. A comparison between the total volume (Fig. 7) and critical particle size (Fig. 10) of the
270 coal fines exhibits a similar trend, for example, they share the same peak points at certain pressure
271 difference and similar fluctuation tendency for other data points, which verifies that the critical size
272 is representative in terms of coal fines evaluation.

273

274 Fig. 10. Critical particle size of coal fines for (a) Sample 1 and (b) Sample 2.

275 3.3 Permeability evolution

276 The evolutions of coal permeability for both samples are illustrated in Fig. 11 and Fig. 12,
277 respectively.

278

279 Fig. 11. Permeability evolution under different injection scenarios for Sample 1 ($k_0=0.005$ mD).

280

281 Fig. 12. Permeability evolution under different injection scenarios for Sample 2 ($k_0=0.048$ mD).

282 It can be seen that for both coal samples, during the water flooding process, the permeability
283 dropped significantly (by 60.9% and 85%, respectively for Sample 1 and Sample 2 in the first
284 50 hours), followed by gradually decline with time, even if the differential pressure was increased.
285 The variations in coal permeability can be explained by the counteraction of four phenomena: (1)
286 the deposition and/or plugging of coal fines in cleats, damaging the permeability (i.e. entrapped coal
287 fines); (2) the dilation of coal cleats by increased pore pressure (or decreased effective stress),
288 resulting in permeability enhancement; (3) the discharge of coal fines widened the cleats, causing
289 gradual permeability growth (i.e. coal fines production, data shown in Fig. 3); and (4) the
290 unplugging, redistribution and/or recapture of coal fines due to local pressure build-up, contributing
291 to permeability fluctuations. In phenomenon (1), the settlement of coal fines would lead to gradual
292 permeability decline as a result of narrowed cleats (Pan and Connell, 2012), while the clogging
293 would contribute to abrupt permeability deterioration due to closure of cleats.

294 Sample 1 witnesses more dramatic permeability fluctuations than Sample 2 resulted by coal fines
295 behaviours. The explanation is that Sample 1 has narrower cleats with less connectivity compared
296 with Sample 2 as evidenced by the SEM images (Fig. 2), therefore, more frequent entrapment,
297 release and recapture of fines are expected (i.e. significant permeability fluctuations). On the other

298 hand, more deposition and discharge of coal fines take place in wider and well-connect cleats (i.e.
299 gradual permeability variations) (Civan, 2007). As gas has less carrying capacity of coal fines than
300 water (Lyons et al., 2009), during the gas flooding process, the aforementioned phenomena (1), (3)
301 and (4) only made a little difference in permeability change, consequently, coal permeability
302 increased with rising differential pressure, which was dominated by phenomenon (2). It is suggested
303 that during the stable gas production and the decline stages (i.e. single-phase gas flow takes place in
304 CSG reservoirs), the Bottom-Hole Pressure (BHP) can be lowered to improve the gas productivity
305 by enhancing the production pressure drawdown without introducing the permeability damage by
306 coal fines.

307 Sample 2 produced greater coal fines, in terms of both volume and size. It also experienced more
308 severe permeability damage during the same period. For instance, in the first 50 h, the permeability
309 dropped by 60.9% and 85% respectively for Sample 1 and Sample 2, and in the first 100 h (shut-in
310 periods for Sample 2 were accounted for), the permeability declined 79.1% and 88.2% for the two
311 samples, respectively. However, in the CSG reservoirs, those with lower permeability are often
312 facing with more severe coal fines problems. The possible reason is that the cleats in Sample 2 (Fig.
313 3a) are more tortuous than those in Sample 1 (Fig. 2a), and under the same pressure difference
314 across the coal samples, more tortuous cleats generates localised pressure build-up. This enables
315 higher flow velocity, causing larger viscous force around coal fines surface, which consequently
316 creates more and larger coal fines.

317 Moreover, the impact of well shut-in on coal fines generation and migration was also simulated for
318 Sample 2. A slight permeability loss was observed for every shut-in, which indicated that well shut-
319 in has detrimental effects on coal permeability, as illustrated in the black dashed rectangle in Fig. 12.
320 It is believed to be because the well shut-in provides sufficient time for coal fines to deposit, and the
321 settled coal fines were more difficult to be remobilised than free fines, as it requires greater force to
322 overcome the static inertial force (Khilar and Fogler, 1998; Zou et al., 2014). For example, Fig. 13
323 demonstrates that at 1.3 MPa, the two effluent samples from Sample 1 (collected consecutively

324 without shut-in) coincide with each other quite well, which peak value at 1.2 μm . However, the
325 peak of the particle size distribution from Sample 2 (with shut-in) shifts from 2.5 μm to 1.4 μm
326 when analysing the second effluent, which indicates bigger coal fines are retained in the coal
327 sample, deteriorating the permeability. In this concern, it can be inferred that larger coal fines
328 settled down prior to smaller ones, and were more difficult to be removed when the flow was re-
329 established. This indicates that by avoiding frequent well shut-in, coal fines caused permeability
330 loss can be minimized, which is consistent with our previous finding (Bai et al., 2016; Bai et al.,
331 2017).

332

333 Fig. 13. Particle size distribution of different effluent samples at 1.3 MPa. Note that “1” and “2” in
334 the legend indicates the first and second effluent sample, respectively.

335 When gas was first introduced to both coal samples after the “1.5 MPa water” injection scenario, a
336 sudden drop in the effective permeability ratio (i.e. from 0.119 to 0.056 for Sample 1, and from
337 0.121 to 0.048) is observed due to capillary resistance related to gas-drive-water two-phase flow,
338 followed by effective permeability recovery after most water was expelled from the samples, as
339 indicated by the red circles in Fig. 11 and Fig. 12. Such recovery is related to the increase of gas
340 fraction in the samples, and the negligible movement of coal fines.

341 However, for the “1.5 MPa after gas” scenario of Sample 2, the permeability ratio dropped
342 significantly (from 0.118 to 0.085) without noticeable bouncing back, as shown in the green circle
343 in Fig. 12. According to the coal fines production data indicated by the red arrow in Fig. 7, the
344 change of flow pattern from single-phase gas flow to water-drive-gas two-phase flow resulted in
345 more coal fines generation, which in turn caused the permeability reduction. Since water-drive-gas
346 two-phase flow normally occurs during production well shut-in, reducing the frequency of well
347 shut-in can potentially minimize the coal fines induced permeability damage. Unlike the scenarios
348 when coal sample is being vertically positioned, the permeability for the same sample when being

349 the horizontally positioned stayed rather stable, which was corresponded to less coal fines
350 production as shown in Fig. 7.

351 Regarding the scenarios after gas injection, by reducing the pressure difference, the permeability
352 experienced step-like drop due to the reverse procedure of phenomenon (2), which was the closure
353 of cleats. When the flow direction was reversed, a surge in permeability ratio is observed (from
354 0.034 to 0.043), as indicated by the yellow arrow in Fig. 12. This confirms that the permeability
355 variations during the experiment are resulted by coal fines generation and migration.

356 Although theoretically the discharge of coal fines from the coal samples can bring up the
357 permeability, according to the coal fines production data and the permeability evolution, more
358 volume of coal fines production did not necessarily result in permeability improvement; on the
359 contrary, more fines output was often associated with permeability declines. This was because with
360 more coal fines production, the phenomenon of fines entrapment was also a matter of concern,
361 which took the dominant role as explained earlier in this section.

362 **4 CONCLUSIONS**

363 A self-designed core flooding experimental rig was built to examine the coal fines induced
364 permeability variations. Two cubic coal samples were tested under different pressures and flow
365 regimes and the corresponding analysis was conducted on coal fines production (total volume and
366 particle size distribution) and the corresponding permeability variations. The following main
367 conclusions were drawn:

368 (1) Coal fines generation and migration are the dominant cause for the rapid reduction of coal
369 permeability. The deposition and plugging of coal fines result in permeability loss; the removal
370 of coal fines from the samples contributes to slight permeability enhancement; while the
371 redistribution of coal fines give rise to permeability fluctuations.

372 (2) The coal fines volumetric production is proportional to the third power of flow velocity once the
373 flow paths for coal fines are well established. The critical size coincides very well with the total
374 volume of coal fines.

375 (3) Primary water flushing witnesses the most severe permeability damage due to coal fines
376 generation and migration, the transition from single-phase gas flow to water-drive-gas flow lead
377 to abrupt permeability loss, and pauses in the experiments introduce permeability drop because
378 of coal fines settlement. It was also observed that the coal fines behaviours become negligible in
379 single-phase gas flow.

380 (4) The coal sample with narrower and less connected cleating system causes more coal fines
381 behaviours (i.e. entrapment, detachment and redistribution). This results in significant
382 permeability fluctuations with general decreasing trend. Tortuosity of cleats can enhance the
383 deterioration in permeability by coal fines behaviours.

384 These experimental results suggest that surfactant can be added to the reservoir through fracturing
385 fluids to disperse coal fines, which makes it easier for water to flush small coal fines out, alleviating
386 deposition and clogging induced permeability drop. During the early dewatering stage, the BHP
387 should be properly controlled to reduce the drop speed of the dynamic fluid level. On the contrary,
388 during the stable gas production phase, when only single-phase gas flow takes place, the BHP can
389 be lowered rapidly to achieve higher gas productivity. Moreover, refraining from frequent well
390 shut-in can ease coal fines damage towards the permeability as well.

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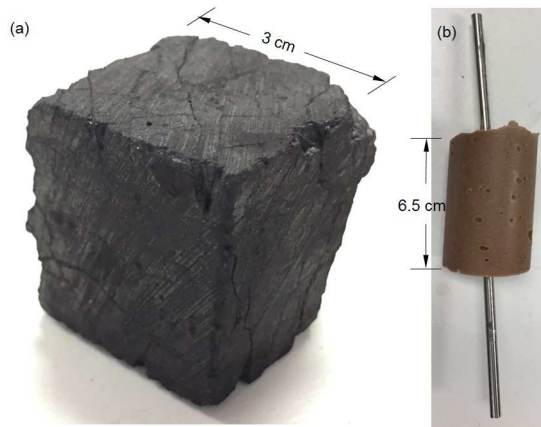
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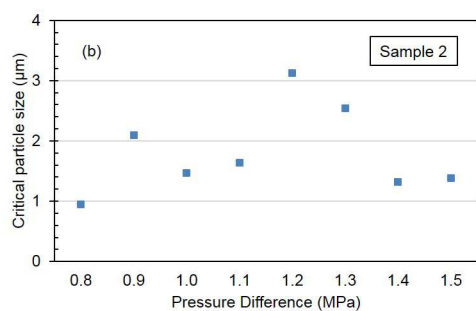
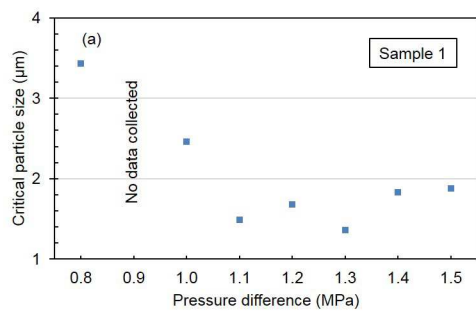
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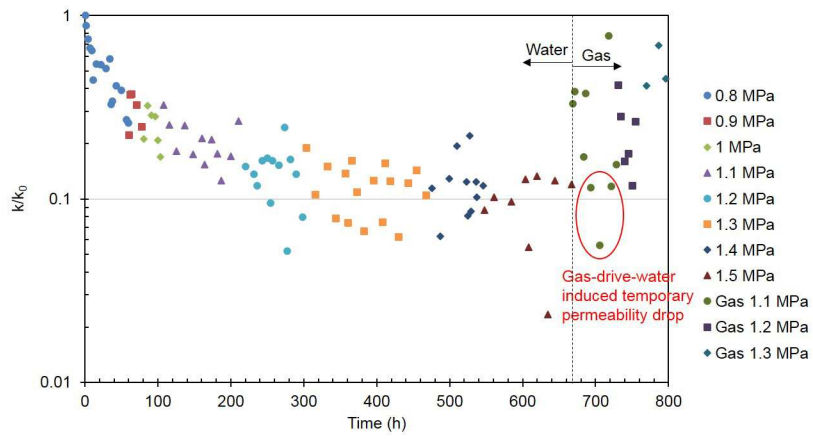
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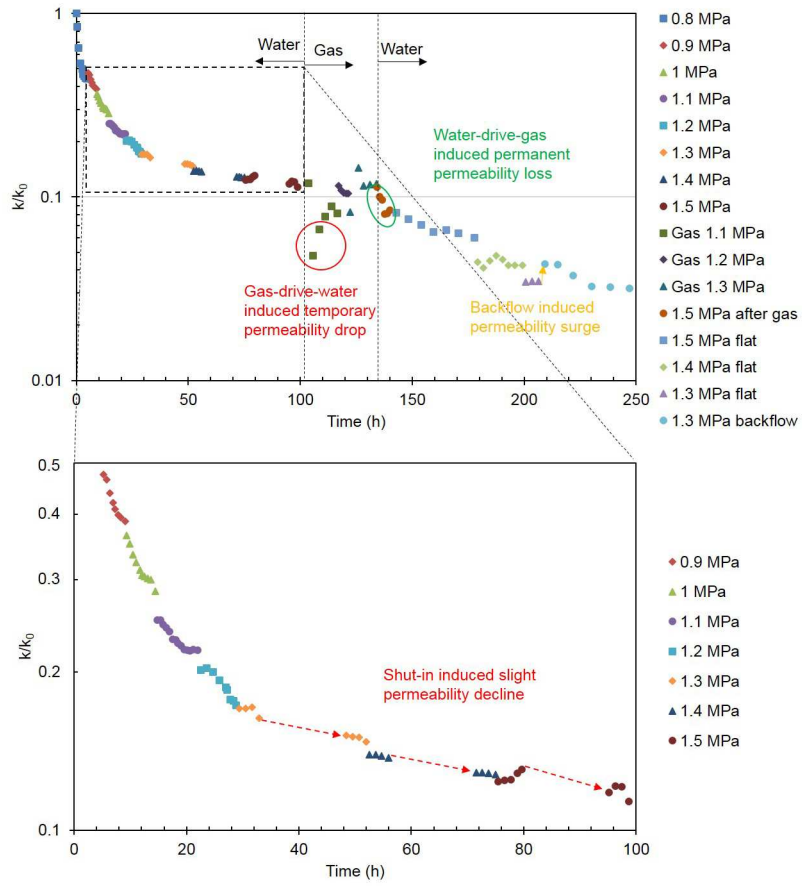
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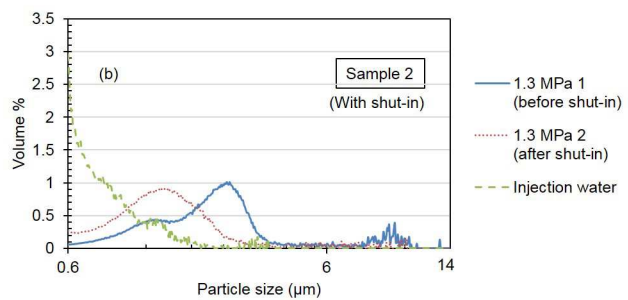
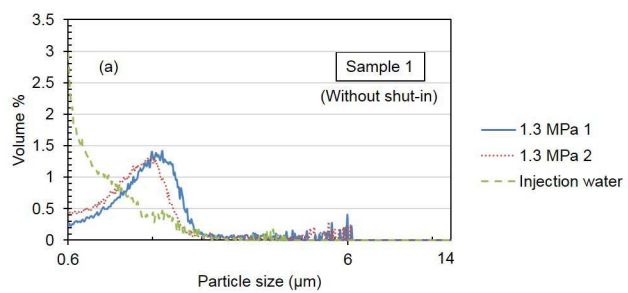


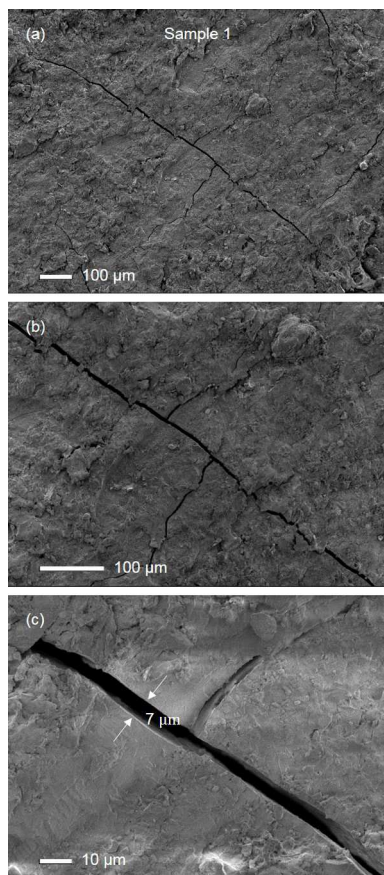
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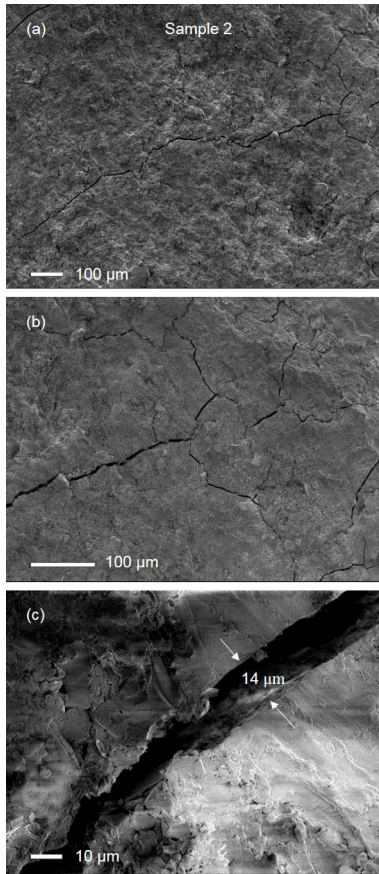


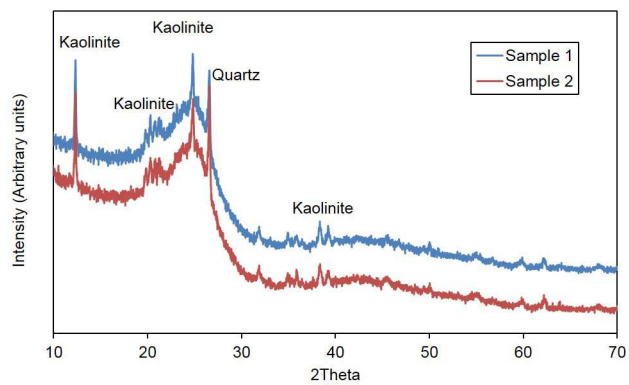


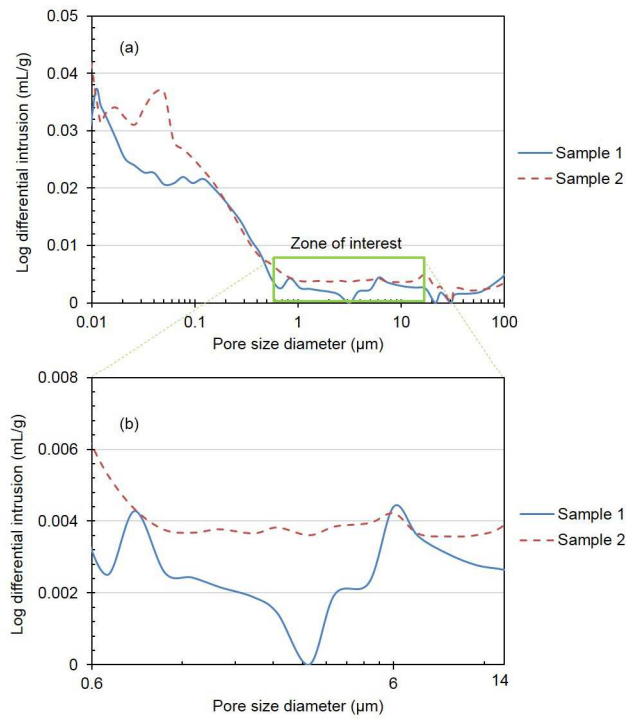


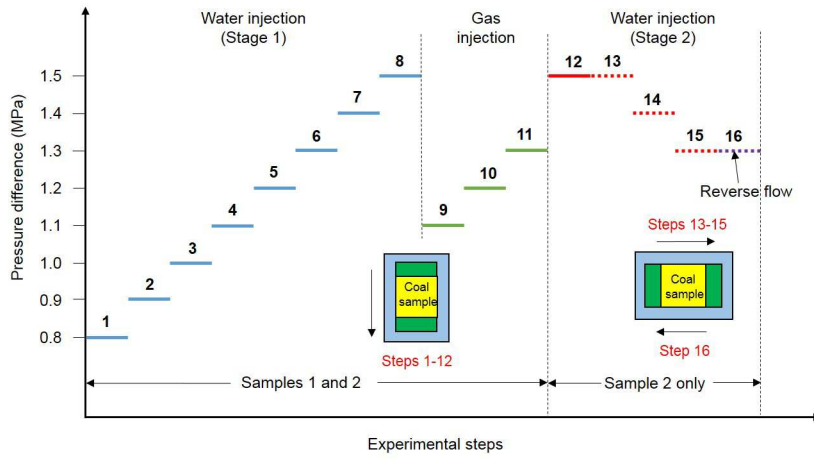


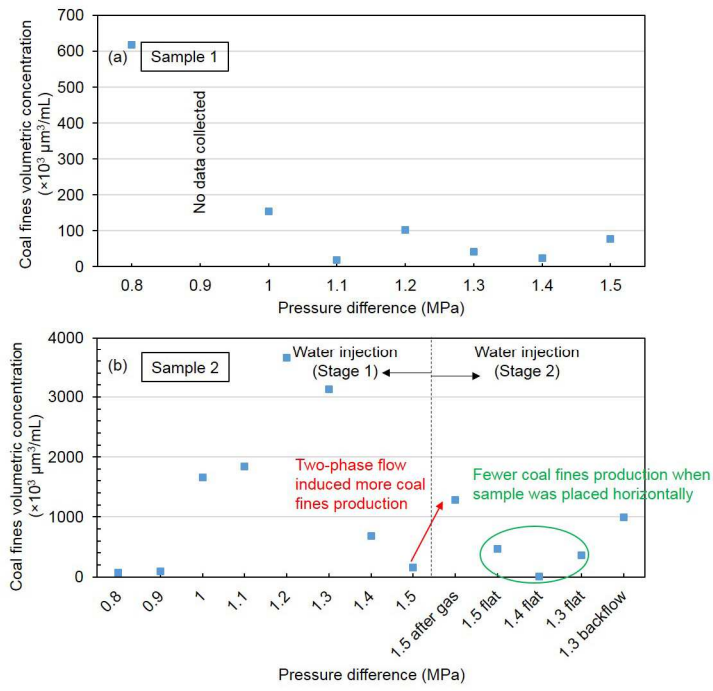


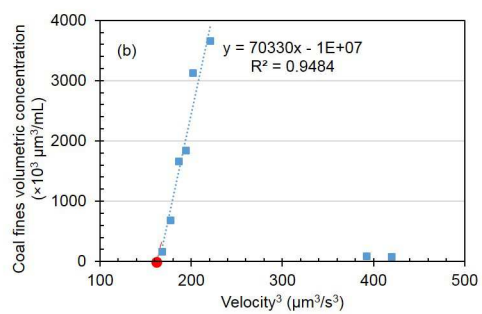
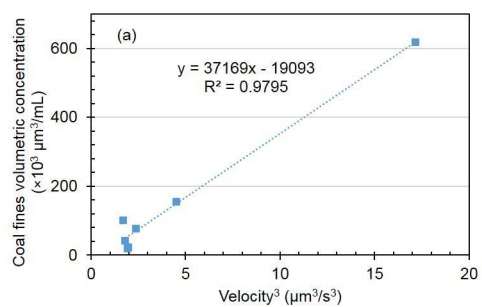


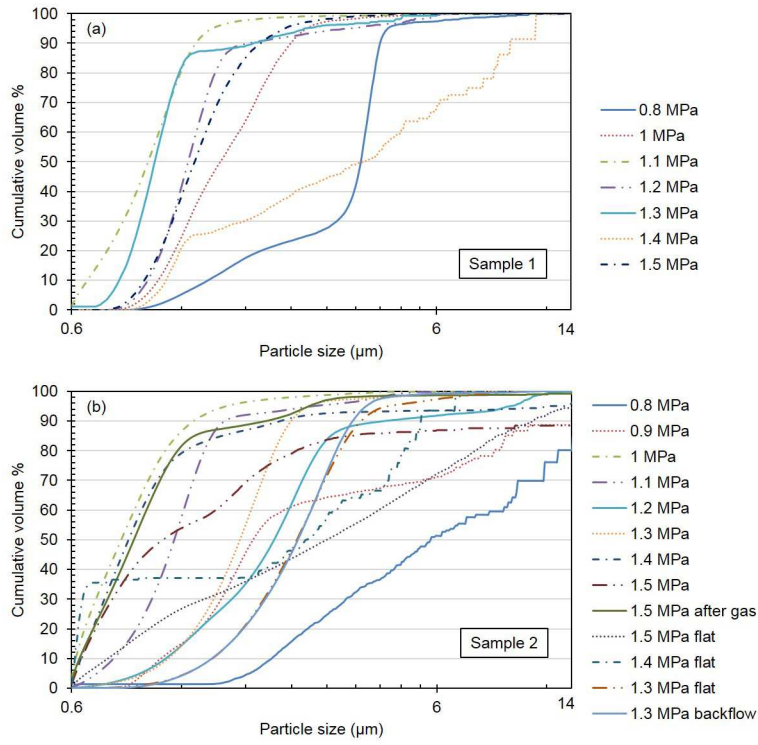












Highlights:

- Coal permeability variations induced by coal fines were quantified;
- Impact of cleat characteristics on fines-permeability relationship was investigated;
- Characterization of coal fines output in different production stages was conducted;
- Guidelines were suggested to minimize production loss induced by coal fines.