

Pore structure characteristics and fractal dimension analysis of low rank coal in the Lower Indus Basin, SE Pakistan

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ABSTRACT

The significance of pore structure and fractal characteristics is important for understanding untapped Coalbed Methane (CBM) exploration. In this study, these features of low rank coal in the lower Indus Basin, SE Pakistan, were evaluated using drill core samples from several locations. The pore size distribution and fractal dimension on adsorption (AdDs) and desorption (DeDs) values were systematically analyzed by scanning electron microscopy (SEM), low pressure adsorption N₂, and CO₂ methods for better evaluation of CBM and its pores geometrical mechanism. Coal petrographic properties, were investigated for macerals composition revealed a huminite domination. SEM analysis of various pore structures, showed first-developed pores present in the larger pores and thermogenic gas pores. CO₂ density functional theory revealed micropore particle size peaks in three adsorption phases on incremental pore volume (0.47–0.64 nm, 0.64–0.83 nm, 0.83–11.11 nm), where gas molecules distort bonding with increasing pore size and define the micropore surface complexities. The mesopore size distribution analysis of differential and incremental pore areas indicated a transition zone at 22.8 nm, suggesting major micro-mesopores within smaller size particles. Nonhomogeneous particle sizes caused a dynamic range of peak trends due to different kinds of porespheres are interconnected with macrosphere, which can trap accessible and inaccessible gas molecules in the different pores structures. Fractal dimension analysis demonstrated that Ds values linear correlation showed a good fit for the AdDs value was 0.98–0.99, and 0.96 to 0.99 for the DeDs value. This finding showed that average obtained surface complexity of AdDs was 2.35, and the DeDs was 2.44 with notably more complicated pore roughness and high semifusinite content, possibly resulting in the higher DeDs value because larger pore spheres consist of microspheres.

1. Introduction

Coal is a complex, heterogeneous, organic rich sedimentary rock that can contain valuable methane resources. Its complex porous nature can have a significant impact on CBM generation and exploitation (Fu et al., 2017). The pore generation and evolution in coal can be affected by several internal and external factors (Owen et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2017a). Internal factors include coal quality and maceral compositions (huminite/vitrinite, exinite, and inertinite), and external factors include metamorphism and surface water, which can cause moisture within the coal. The external factors govern pore architecture and impact

adsorption processes occurs within the coal pore surface area, the diameter of the internal pore structure, the surface area, and the external surface area (Day et al., 2008; Qin et al., 2005). Coal metamorphism directly affects coal rank and huminite/vitrinite reflectance (R_o, max). It has been observed that different chemical and physical parameters within various coal ranks are greatly influenced by the U-shaped relationships and PSD within the coal (Yu, 1992), although several studies have revealed that the transition of micropores to transitional pores is the first stage of CBM accumulation (Bustin and Clarkson, 1998; Chen et al., 2018; Clarkson and Bustin, 1999).

Various criteria of fractal geometry has been applied to identify the

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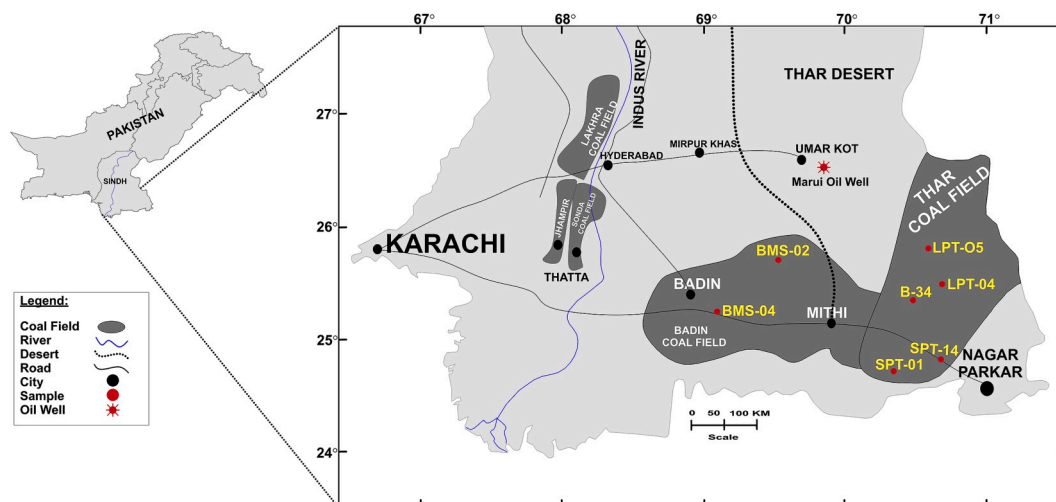


Fig. 1. Sample location map of the study areas: Thar and Badin, Sindh, Pakistan.

relationship between pore characteristics and surface irregularities within shale and coal. Fractal geometry was suggested by Mandelbrot (1975) to evaluate pore characteristics within porous media, such as coal (Li et al., 2016a,b,c; Sun et al., 2015). Bale and Schmidt (1984) performed Mandelbrot's experiment assessing fractal morphological structure on the Beulah lignite from North Dakota to investigate micropore structure. The surface fractal dimension was determined to have scattered curves in the lignite. Fractal dimension determinations have been performed on adsorption D_s values to assess pore surface complexities in recent studies (Li et al., 2016a,b,c; Sahouli et al., 1996; Yao et al., 2008), however, the relationship between pore surface and pore complexities continues to be debated.

Various advanced techniques can be used to document pore characteristics of coal qualitatively and quantitatively. These include scanning electron microscope (SEM), focused ion beam SEM (FIB-SEM), quantitative research N_2 , and CO_2 , nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR), mercury intrusion porosimetry (MIP), x-ray computed tomography (x-ray CT), small-angle x-ray scattering (SAXS), small-angle neutron scattering (SANS), and ultra-small angle neutron scattering (USANS) (Cui et al., 2009; Mastalerz et al., 2012). A coal surface area and pore size study relies on different techniques and methods for heterogeneous catalysis (Anovitz et al., 2015; Storck et al., 1998). With the quantitative microporosity analysis at low temperature and pressure, N_2 and CO_2 gas adsorption is more effective than qualitative method like SEM and transmission electron microscopy (TEM), as qualitative analysis alone is not a reliable method for analysis of organic matter (Anovitz et al., 2015; Clarkson et al., 2012; Mastalerz et al., 2017; Milliken et al., 2013). According to the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC) classifications, pores are categorized as micropores (<2-nm size), mesopores (2–50-nm), macropores (>50-nm), though previously Hodot (1960) classifications were used to quantify pore structure, pore volume, and pore distribution by MIP (Chen et al., 2018).

Two fundamental factors pore structure and gas adsorption significantly affect the CBM occurrence (Chen et al., 2018). Syngenetic gas originates during the coal diagenesis process, and the gas storage mechanism, at least in shallow depths. Lower-rank coals with the thickest coal seams are considered sufficient for CBM generation, as observed in the Powder River Basin, US (Boger et al., 2014). Therefore, for this study, the focus was on Thar coal's primary seam, which has thickness of 15–28.6 m with a 17.71 billion cubic meter reserve estimated to generate a three-dimensional (3D) seam volume model by ordinary kriging (Siddiqui et al., 2015).

Pakistan has indigenous natural fossil fuel resources, such as oil, gas, and coal. The cornerstone of unconventional resources (shale gas) and CBM have become significant energy resources with less carbon

emission and are the first replacement of conventional resources (Mastalerz et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2017b). In 1992, the US Geological Survey and the Geological Survey of Pakistan (GSP) jointly launched a CBM discovery program, and a TP-3 drilled hole was tested using primitive techniques to determine the presence of methane gas in the Thar coal block, Lower Indus Basin, SE Pakistan (SanFilippo, 2000). However, to improve the capitalization of untapped natural resources in this area a more advanced evaluation of the CBM is necessary.

To evaluate the fundamental pore characteristics for a basinal coal regime, we quantified the physicochemical coal relationship between micro- and macro-levels to create a regional level. To do so, it was necessary to evaluate pore morphological characteristics, a new kind of scientific investigation. Therefore, for the first time, we combined different types of technical investigations including coal assay, coal petrography, SEM, low temperature CO_2 , and N_2 sorption, and fractal dimension in the Lower Indus Basin, specifically the Thar and Badin coal fields in Sindh, Pakistan. The coal pore structure and fractal dimension adsorption AdDs and desorption DeDs calculations were applied to evaluate this very promising coalbed methane resource area.

2. Geological setting

The Thar coal and Badin coalfield areas are located in the south-eastern part of the Lower Indus Basin, Sindh, Pakistan (Fig. 1). The coal-bearing formation within the Lower Indus Basin is the Bara Formation, and Vredenburg (1909b) reported Lower Ranikot sandstone and additional categories within the Lower Ranikot (detrital sediments) and Upper Ranikot (carbonaceous sediments) (Vredenburg, 1909a). The Bara Formation is primarily composed of the following rock units: sandstone, siltstone, claystone, mudstone, shale, carbonaceous shale, carby clay, and coal.

Structurally, the Thar Platform is situated in the southeastern part of Pakistan, over a Precambrian basement that has been described as the Nagarparkar Igneous Complex (NPIC). Tectonic events constrain compressional and extensional stresses caused by the emplacement of Nagarparkar Granite. The Thar coalfield lays on Precambrian rocks in a 9000 km² coal-bearing area (Fassett and Durrani, 1994), while the Badin coal-bearing horizons lay on Cretaceous rocks. Thar and Badin consist of mainly low rank coal-bearing horizons that are the same age as the Bara Formation. For this study, the focus was on the primary coal seam with an average thickness of 15–30 m, (Siddiqui et al., 2015). According to current drilling exploration data, Badin coal has thickness ranging from approximately 0.20 to 4 m, with an average thickness of 1–2 m.

The Thar platform shows a gentle 2–3° southwestward with variable basement trends and a horst and graben structural control at the Thar

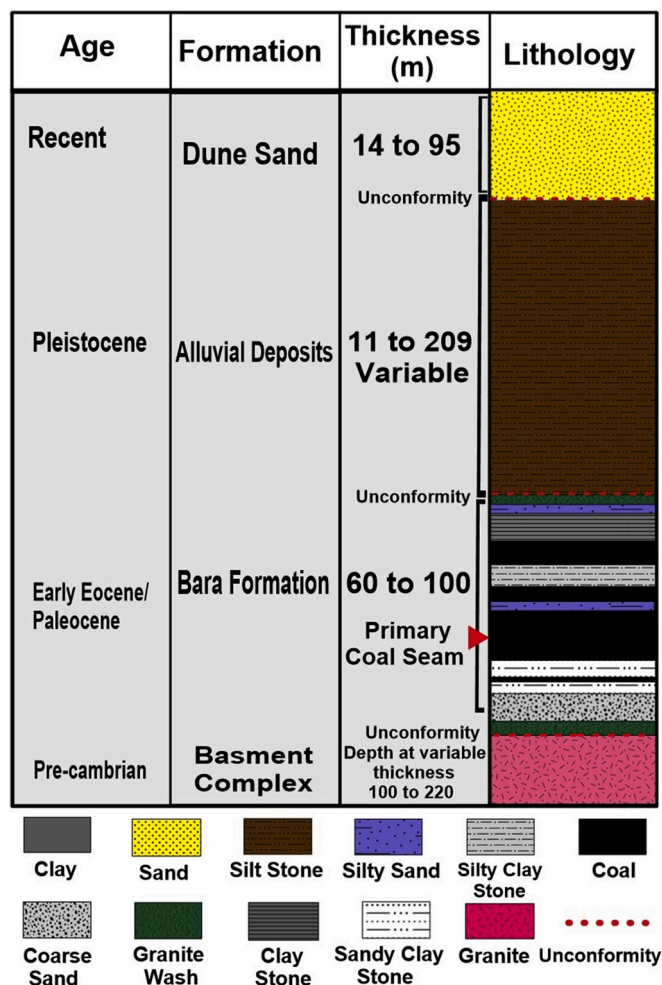


Fig. 2. Generalized stratigraphic column of the study area.

block. The Badin Block has deeper basement trends at >3000 m below sea level (Fassett and Durrani, 1994). The Nabisar oil exploration drill hole within the western part of the Thar coalfield and eastern part of the Badin Block and Marui oil well (located northwest of Thar and northeast of Badin Block) is close to previously mentioned blocks, indicating formation variation within the area. Top formations (i.e., Laki, Top Ghazij, and Ranikot Formation) at a depth of 411.48 m lay above the Bara Formation. The Thar and Badin Blocks indicate no sharp contact formation above the Bara Formation, which is covered by sub-recent to recent formations.

Table 1
Coal assay results were analyzed on.

Sample No	Depth From - To (m)	Main Coal Seam (m)	M ad	IMC (% db)	VM (% daf)	Ash (% db)	FC (% daf)	C% (% daf)	H% (% daf)	N% (% daf)	S% (% daf)	O% (% daf)	Ro %
SPT-01	268.33 - 274.83	6.5	24.53	6.57	30.13	8.39	43.1	62.3	5.76	0.48	0.72	39.89	0.4
SPT-14	192.72 - 198.97	6.25	42.08	7.07	13.68	13.07	37.92	66.84	6.27	0.44	1.44	40.32	0.39
B34	170.55 - 180.55	10	29.7	7.15	26.76	16.02	37.88	66.11	6.34	0.52	1.13	44.98	0.37
LPT-04	245.2 - 260.54	15.34	20.94	7.06	37.42	9.31	39.49	63.42	6.01	0.62	0.83	39.38	0.42
LPT-05	221 - 224	3	22.64	6.43	35.02	12.02	39.25	58.1	5.51	0.57	3.69	45.8	0.38
BMS-02	342.54 - 344.54	2	13.46	6.75	42.22	11.74	42.53	55.36	5.27	0.51	3.23	48.94	0.4
BMS-04	381.47 - 382.57	1.1	21.61	6.17	38.37	13.99	36.51	58.48	6.13	0.57	0.24	50.84	0.43
Mean			24.99	6.74	31.94	12.08	39.53	61.52	5.9	0.53	1.61	44.31	0.4

(ADL) air dry loss; (IMC), inherent moisture content; (db), dry basis; (daf) dry, ash-free basis; (VM), volatile matter; (FC), fixed carbon; (Ro%), vitrinite reflectance; (N), nitrogen; (C), carbon; (H), hydrogen; (S), sulfur; (O), oxygen 100- (C + H + S + N), in wt%, daf).

3. Materials and methods

3.1. Sampling method

Lignite samples were collected from Thar and Badin coal, the newly discovered coalfield blocks, and then 7 coal samples were randomly obtained from different bore-hole locations (Figs. 1 and 2). Five samples from Thar, SPT-01, SPT-14, B-34, LPT-04A, and LPT-05, and two samples from Badin Coalfield (BMS-02 and BMS-04) were selected. Care was taken during the preparation of each sample; samples were collected from the primary coal seam and top to bottom at a later time. A composite sample was prepared and packed into a polyethylene bag to contain moisture and to protect samples from impurities.

3.2. Coal analysis

For petrographic analysis the samples were pulverized to less than -1 mm, -18 mesh size, and coal pellets were prepared into the resin, mounted, and then polished. The petrographic analysis was performed on polished pellets using a Leitz Orthoplan Pol microscope, and Ro% reflective index was measured by a Leitz MPV-3 photometer, and microscope maceral counts were studied line by line and point to point on more than 500 counts performed. For the proximate test analysis, China National Standards GB/T 6948-2008 were followed. The final analysis was performed by CDRI Lucknow on a Vario EL III Element Analyzer following China National Standards GB/T 88992013. For qualitative analysis, the SEM method was applied on polished coal blocks, and selected samples were carbon-coated and analyzed for pore morphological characterization.

For pore geometry and fractal dimension analysis, the samples were pulverized and sieved at 0.18–0.25 mm, 60–80 mesh, and dried in a vacuum oven at 80 °C for 24 h to remove volatile substances and free water. Afterward, low pressure adsorption analyses were conducted on an ASAP 2020 for micropore characterization on low pressure CO₂ gas adsorption with the temperature at 273.15 K in an ice cooling bath and were measured for relative pressure (P/P₀) ranging from 0 to 0.03. The density functional theory (DFT) method, Dubinin-Radushkevich (D-R) and Dubinin-Astakhov (D-A) were applied for micropore size, volume, pore surface area, and pore size distribution (PSD). For the mesopores characterization in low pressure (101.3 kPa), liquid N₂ gas adsorption temperature at 77.35 K was calculated for relative pressure (P/P₀) ranging from 0 to 0.99, where P is the counterbalance pressure, and P₀ is the intensity of the pressure. PSD was analyzed by the BJH method, and Langmuir methods were applied to quantify meso and macropore geometrical shapes and characterizations.

4. Results and discussion

4.1. Coal assay

Table 1 shows the samples were collected from the primary seam,

Table 2
Results of the coal-petrological composition of the low-rank coal.

Sample No	Depth From - To (m)	Main Coal Seam (m)	Huminitite %										Liptinitite %										Inertinitite %																								
			Telohuminitite					Detrohuminitite					Gelohuminitite					Cu (S)					Sub					Sp					Re					Ex					Lip				
			Te (A)	Te (B)	Ul (A)	Ul (B)	At	De	Co	Phib	Pg	Cu (S)	Sub	Sp	Re	Ex	Lip	Fu	Sfu	Fg	Sec	Mac	Mic	Int	Total																						
SPT-01	268.33	274.83	6.50	1.9	10.84	19.39	28.71	16.53	3.8	0.38	1.71	0	0.57	0.4	4.94	0	1.33	1.71	3.8	0.76	0	0	0	3.23	100																						
SPT-14	192.72	198.97	6.25	0	2.02	10.08	18.75	28.23	22.2	1	0	2.62	0.4	0	1.21	5.84	0	1.41	0.6	2.42	1.21	0	0.4	0	1.61	100																					
B34	170.55	180.55	10	0	1.58	29	23.55	17.05	5.98	4.04	0.53	0.7	0	0	0.88	6.68	0	1.6	0.53	2.29	1.93	0.35	1.05	0	2.28	100																					
LPT-04	245.2	260.54	15.34	0	5.07	12.19	18.38	20.82	13.32	3.56	0	2.25	0	0	0.75	8.44	0.56	0.93	1.68	7.13	2.62	0	0	2.3	100																						
LPT-05	221	224	3	1.2	4.81	5.41	7.82	22.04	20.45	6.21	0.8	2.81	1.4	0.6	0.8	3.41	1.2	1.8	3.41	4.41	5.41	1	0.6	0	4.41	100																					
BMS-02	342.54	344.54	2	0	4.31	24.85	31.21	11.91	5.54	1.23	0	0.41	0	0	1.03	6.36	0	0.82	0.62	4.72	3.49	0.82	1.03	0.62	1.03	100																					
BMS-04	381.47	382.57	1.1	0	0.81	18.22	28.34	14.20	22.26	3.85	0	0.4	0.2	0	0.4	2.42	0	0	2.02	3.04	1.42	0.2	1.21	0	1.01	100																					
Mean				0.17	2.93	15.8	21.06	20.42	15.18	3.38	0.24	1.56	0.29	0.17	0.78	5.44	0.25	1.12	1.51	3.97	2.41	0.34	0.61	0.1	2.27	100																					

Te (A), dark gray texinite; Te (B), light gray texinite; Ul (A), dark gray ulminite dark; Ul (B), light gray ulminite dark; At, attrinite; (De), densinite; (Co), corphuminitite; (Phb), phlobaphuminitite; (Pg), porigelinite; Cu (S), small cutinite; Cu (L), large cutinite; (Sub), suberinitite; (Sp), sporinitite; (Re), resinite; (Ex), exsudatinitite; (Lip), liptodetrinitite; (Fu), fusinitite; (Sfu), semifusinitite; (Fg), funginitite; (Sec), secrinite; (Mac), macrinite; (Int), inertodetrinite; (mmf), mineral matter free.

which ranged from 1.1 to 15.34 m, and that the thickness of the primary coal seam is greater at the eastern part and decreases towards the western part of the study area. Table 1 also shows the experimental results of proximate, ultimate, and reflectance (Ro%), and the primary seam depth description. Thermal maturity reflecting Ro% ranged from 0.37 to 0.43 (avg. 0.4%), indicating meta-lignite. It was observed that at the primitive stages, pre- or late-biogenic gas was possibly present in the primary coal seam because huminite/vitrinite reflectance is an indicator for CBM generation (Haider et al., 2014). On the air-dry loss basis, the moisture content of coal samples was relatively higher and ranged from 13.46 to 24.53% (avg. 24.99%), and inherent moisture content ranged from 6.17 to 7.15% (avg. 6.74%). The volatile matter (VM) was variable, ranged from 13.68 to 42.22% (avg. 31.94%), whereas ash content of most coal samples were variable and within the range of 8.39–13.99% (avg. 12.08%). The fixed carbon content was similar, varying from 36.51 to 43.10% (avg. 39.51%).

4.2. Coal macerals

The coal macerals group and subgroup classifications (Sýkorová et al., 2005) significantly affect the coal pore structures because they are controlled by chemical and physical changes related to the syndeositional and post-depositional environmental conditions. Table 2 shows low reflectivity in coal particles which indicates that huminite macerals were associated with higher hydrogen content, whereas brighter areas with higher reflectivity indicated inertinite macerals were subjected to higher carbon content (Fig. 3). Huminite content, a dominant maceral, varied from 71.55 to 88.08% (avg. 80.75%). The macerals composition has contributed significantly to the characterization of the pore because a majority of the micro-mesopores are exhibited within the huminite group. Additionally, it is important for micro-mesopore gas to be present within the coal reservoirs because the abundance of huminite has a higher adsorption capacity as compared to other macerals (Beamish et al., 1993; Giffin et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2018; Mastalerz et al., 2008). The macerals subgroups Telohuminitite varied from 19.24 to 88.08% (avg. 84.50%), detrohuminite varied from 3.02 to 50.43% (avg. 29.51%), and gelohuminitite varied from 3.62 to 12.33% (avg. 7.38%).

Liptinitite maceral content was moderately present within the samples, and varied from 3.02 to 10.68% (avg. 8.05%). The dominating maceral within the liptinitite group is resinite, which was observed in all the samples. The inertinite macerals group (Fig. 3b and d), which relates to charcoal concentration and a dry environment, demonstrates that a peat mire zone fire occurred during a prolonged time period. Petrographically, the inertinite content exhibited low concentrations that varied from 6.24 to 19.24% (avg. 11.20%). Fusinite is considered to have a higher sorption capacity, but in some cases, fusinite has higher methane adsorption capacity than huminite/vitrinite (Crosdale et al., 1998; Ettlinger et al., 1966).

4.3. SEM analysis

SEM analysis is the fundamental parameter for qualitative pore observations within the coal matrix and is visualized at different magnifications (Fig. 4). In low rank coals, primary micropores can be better visualized by SEM at high accelerating voltages (10 kV) and different higher magnifications, while low magnification cannot support the higher zoom (Fig. 4a, c, and e). Low rank coals have higher primary micropores than medium rank coals, which have a sparsity of primary micropores because of deep burial compaction and metamorphism intensity (Cardott and Curtis, 2018; Nie et al., 2015). We observed distinctly different pore structures, pore inhomogeneity trends, and surface characteristics, including elongated smooth and semi-round scummy surfaces of the gas pores (Li et al., 2017a,b; Xin et al., 2019). The examined samples revealed pore openings, cylindrical pores, slit-shaped pore, wedge-shaped pores, and microfractures. Fig. 4 shows the first developed pores observed, and the irregular pore shapes that

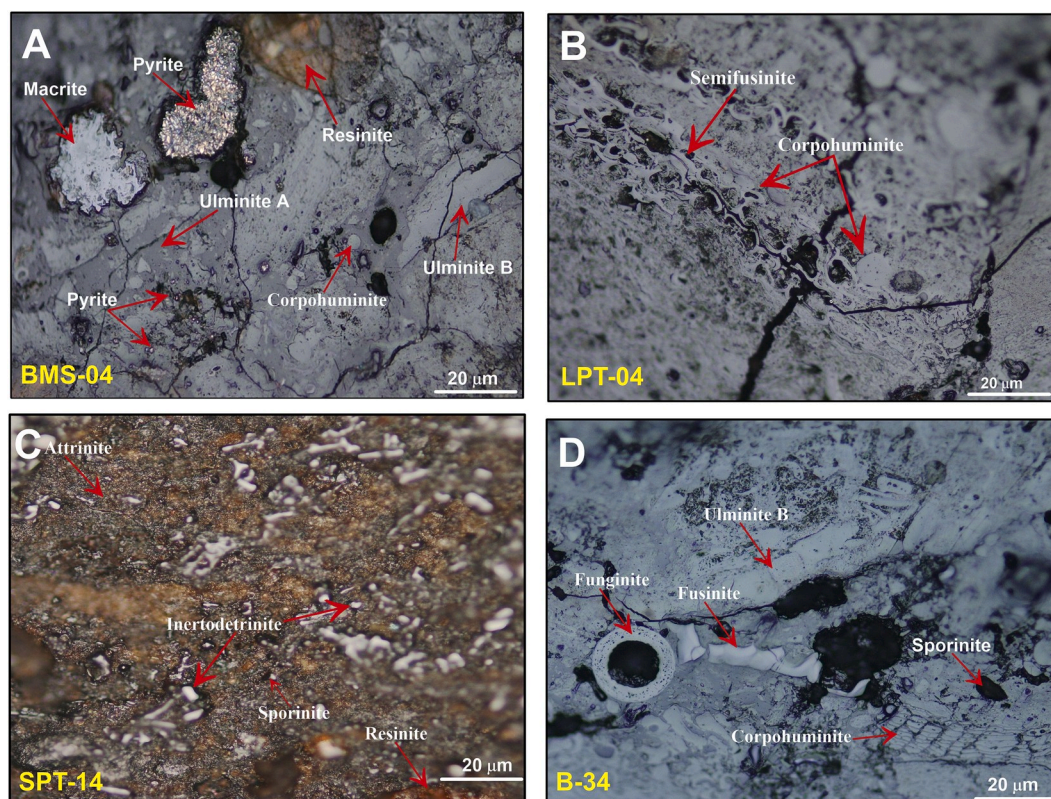


Fig. 3. Photomicrographs of the macerals of the Thar and Badin coalfield areas.

were predominant within these samples. Pore shape dimensions indicate reservoir characteristics and volumetric calculations (Giffin et al., 2013). Fig. 4 focuses on two types of pores in coals: primary pores generally related to plants tissue and thermogenic pores developed by gas desorption process subjected to coalification stages (Chen et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2010). It can be observed that a large number of interchain pores trending to orderly arranged mainly no filling of mineral matter which suggests late stage gas pore openings. Fig. 4b shows micro-meso gas pores precursor development of larger pores, later connected to microfractures width ($<0.1 \mu\text{m}$) and length ($6 \mu\text{m}$), possibly developed by methane desorption (Chen et al., 2015; Gao et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2015; Xin et al., 2019). Fig. 4b, shows a variety of pore-type configuration affecting accumulation and migration of CBM. Fig. 4c, d, and g show that first developed pores diameters are less than $0.1 \mu\text{m}$ existing within the larger pores, which were probably a resulting from tissue pore openings within cell lumens (Cardott and Curtis, 2018; Li et al., 2017a,b). The oxidation process caused the first slit-shaped pore developments, and microfracture openings occurred during the coalification process. When low rank coal is under stress, first developed micropores can propagate the open space to generate micro-cracks (Fig. 4c, d and g). Observed cracks are mostly zigzag in shape, their widths range from 0.3 to $0.5 \mu\text{m}$ and facilitate fluid transportation in the coal zone (Yao et al., 2019).

4.4. CO_2 adsorption isotherms analysis

Fig. 5a shows the geometrical characteristics of the micropore size and surface area at low pressure CO_2 adsorption isotherms and Table 3 shows the analysis data (Brunauer et al., 1940) represents Type I, indicating microporous isotherm solids. Low pressure isotherms exhibited the highest pressure absorbed, and CO_2 revealed the higher amount of organic matter within the coal, unlike in mineral matter. Thar primary coal seam pressure was at $16 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g}$ in CO_2 adsorbed, whereas Badin was at $11 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g}$. It was determined that LPT-04, SPT-01, and SPT-14 had the

highest pressure at $17 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g}$ in the absorbed CO_2 , which indicated higher surface area and the highest microporosity. Deitz (1967) reported that OH hydroxyl groups and higher ash yield content within the organic matter of coal sufficiently affected CO_2 absorption, causing a lower micropore surface area. However, it was determined that B-34, BMS-04, and BMS-02 had lower CO_2 adsorption capacity because of low microporosity, indicating higher ash yields for the samples, unlike LPT-04, SPT-01, and SPT-14 with lower ash yields (Table 2).

The D-R transformed isotherms plot leans toward gas molecules being adsorbed at a particular state of energy level on a micropore surface area (m^2/g) of material, and that adsorbed energy level contributed to the linearized form (Fig. 5b). There were uniformly good correlation coefficient results ($R^2 > 0.99$) reflecting uniformity in the micropores surface, and micropore diameter H-K average increased with huminite reflectance (Okolo et al., 2015; Thommes, 2010).

4.5. Micropore size analysis

Fig. 5c and d show that the DFT method was widely applied for micropore size distribution and incremental pore volume following the observed pore diameter range between 0.47 and 1.04 nm that corresponds to higher and smaller particle size peaks. Fig. 5c shows the incremental micropore volume corresponding to varying micropore particle size peaks in three adsorption phases; first phase ranging from 0.47 to 0.68 nm at higher sharp peak values (whereas highest peak values and narrow pore widths observed at LPT-04, SPT-01, and SPT-14 pore ranges). The second phase ranged from 0.64 to 0.83 nm micropore width has the lowest incremental volume, and peak trend, which is different from the first and third CO_2 adsorbed phases. Widening of the pore width has been observed in the BMS-04, where pore width ranged from 0.73 to 0.82 versus LPT-04 and SPT-14 pore width values of 0.71 – 0.80 and 0.73 to 0.80 , respectively (Fig. 5c). The third phase indicated a 0.83 - to 0.92 nm pore width, but samples SPT-01, LPT-05, and SPT-14 had high volume and micropore size widths of

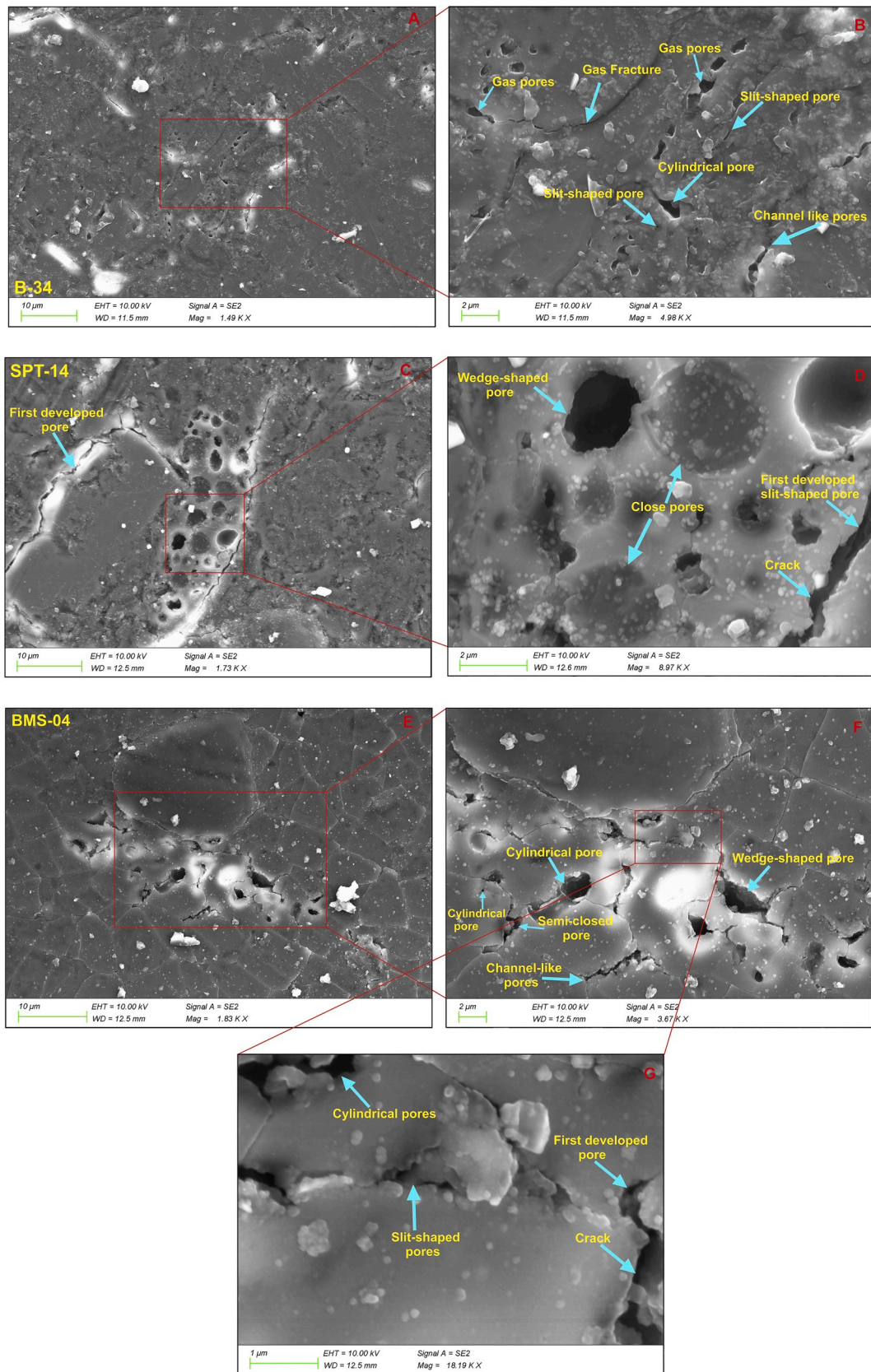


Fig. 4. SEM photographs of a variety of pore structures within the low-rank coal.

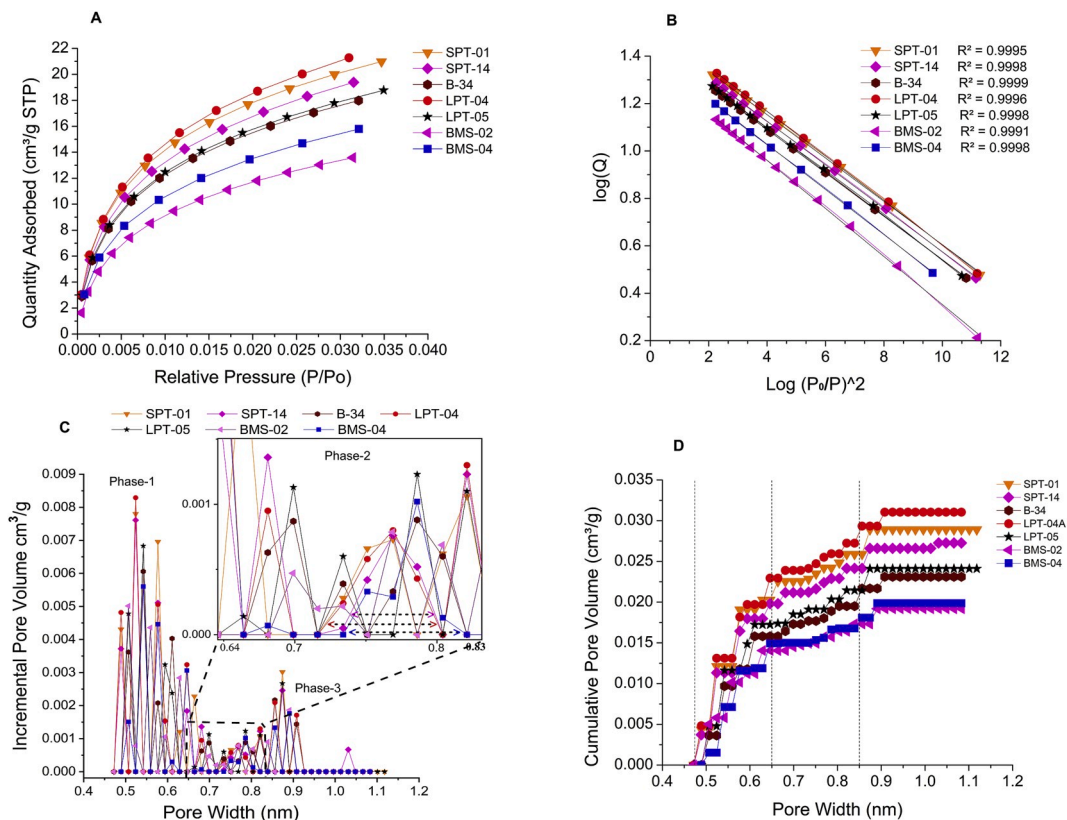


Fig. 5. (A, B) low temperature CO₂, micropore isotherms and transformed isotherm plots; (C, D) the relationship between incremental pore volume and cumulative pore volume.

0.85–0.89 nm. These higher peak trends are different from the second phase micropore width, whereas similar to the first phase.

Additionally, the first and third phase micropore volumes and pore width fractions indicate a micropore tightness tendency to higher incremental pore volumes, unlike the second phase micropore widening or pore diameter that trends toward decreasing pore volume (Fig. 5c). It is assumed that different kind of pores surface areas are present in micropore network and each layer has different gas condensation capacity. The multilayer adsorption capacity mechanism depends upon the different gas pressure which are applied on the micropore surfaces, and are filled as a resultant of gas condensation in the pore region (Gregg et al., 1967; Crosdale et al., 1998). Fig. 4b, c, d, and g show that visualized pore observations exhibit primary/first developed pores into the larger pores. It is generally observed that micropores dominate in the organic material (Mastalerz et al., 2012). Consequently, other factors like clay and minerals can affect the micropores in the coals. The micropore size range and cumulative pore volume results observed at different adsorption gaseous phases substantially increased (Fig. 5d, phase 01 = 0.47–0.64, phase 02 = 0.64–0.83, and phase 03 = 0.83–1.11), with an increase in micropore pore-size ranges (Hou et al., 2017). However, the incremental and cumulative pore volumes have been observed at different graph trends in incremental pore volumes, exhibiting higher peaks in the first phase. Subsequently, CO₂ sorption gas molecules distort bonding with increasing pore size where the peak values trend from lower to higher and then gradually lower, while cumulative pore volumes remain steady with increasing micropore pore-size ranges. Higher peaks indicate an improved adsorption capacity of the accessible gas molecules in the sample.

4.6. N₂ adsorption isotherms analysis

The low gas pressure N₂ adsorption and desorption isotherms refer to

hysteresis loops which attributes the physisorption mechanism and depends on the pore shapes (Anovitz et al., 2015). The results for low rank coals are presented in (Table 3). According to IUPAC classifications by Thommes et al. (2015), the coal samples represent low pressure physisorption isotherms Type II b suggesting to slit-shaped pores, mostly developed in plate-like particles (Nie et al., 2015; Sing and Chemistry, 1985). There are H4 hysteresis loops (Fig. 6), which are types of isotherms developed on different dimensionally closed micro-meso and macropores pore structures. Fig. 4 shows that SEM exhibits morphologically diverse pore structures; among which the narrow slit-shaped and micro gas fractures hold potential as coalbed gas reservoirs (Fu et al., 2017). Graphical isotherm hysteresis indicates the same adsorption pressure ranges of 0.45–0.9 P/P₀, and initial exerted relative pressure developed the monolayer capacity at the range of 0 < P/P₀ 0.45, and subsequently to 0.4 to <0.99 P/P₀. The multilayer adsorption capacity increased the hysteresis curves with multilayer adsorption on the micro to macropore wall capillary condensation. Coal sample adsorption capacities suggest that the higher adsorption indicates a higher surface area, which is a good clue for understanding CBM resources (Zhao et al., 2016). Comparing the results with the samples SPT-14, 21.31 cm³/g STP; BMS-04, 16.67 cm³/g STP; B-34, 19.46 cm³/g STP; and LPT-05, 14.25 cm³/g STP have higher adsorption capacity attributes to higher surface areas. SPT-01, 11.53 cm³/g STP; LPT-04A, 10.5 cm³/g STP; and BMS-02, 7.5 cm³/g STP have lower adsorption and respond to lower surface areas (Table 3). Coal sample hysteresis loops are relatively closer, except that BMS-02 wider hysteresis loop has possible larger particles size exhibits macropores that could resist at the time of equilibration (Mastalerz et al., 2017). Closer hysteresis loop observations are indicating a higher amount of nitrogen sorption exhibit smaller particles, causing complete equilibrium subjected to improved gas transportation within the CBM zone area (Chen et al., 2015; Mastalerz et al., 2017). Low-rank coal specimens exhibited better results of

Table 3
Pore geometrical analytical results were observed on CO₂ and N₂, low pressure adsorption gas; fractal dimension adsorption and desorption D_s values are listed.

Sample No	CO ₂		N ₂																		
	D/R (m ² /g)	D/R (m ³ /g)	D/A (cm ³ /g)	N ₂ mm	BET (m ² /g)	L (m ² /g)	BJH (m ² /g)	BJH (m ³ /g)	N ₂ Adsorption			N ₂ Desorption									
									A ₁	D ₁	R ²	A ₂	D ₂	R ²	A ₁	D ₁	R ²	A ₂	D ₂	R ²	
SPT-01	1.48	150.62	32.97	0.0556	24.75	2.63	3.8	2.69	0.0163	-0.696	2.30	0.96	-0.578	2.42	0.99	-0.631	2.37	0.99	-0.472	2.53	0.99
SPT-14	1.55	141.85	31.05	0.0549	28.75	4.58	6.68	4.83	0.0330	-0.706	2.29	0.96	-0.600	2.4	0.98	-0.667	2.33	0.99	-0.485	2.52	0.99
B-34	1.59	130.96	28.67	0.0521	30.51	3.94	5.77	4.19	0.0302	-0.719	2.28	0.96	-0.604	2.4	0.98	-0.674	2.33	0.99	-0.489	2.51	0.99
LPT-04	1.49	159.23	34.86	0.0593	31.64	2.25	3.25	2.24	0.0179	-0.691	2.31	0.95	-0.615	2.39	0.98	-0.684	2.32	0.99	-0.427	2.57	0.99
LPT-05	1.54	134.31	29.4	0.0516	27.44	3.21	4.63	3.43	0.0221	-0.695	2.31	0.96	-0.591	2.41	0.99	-0.656	2.34	0.99	-0.480	2.52	0.99
BMS-02	1.41	105.86	23.17	0.0372	27.15	1.72	2.45	1.72	0.0116	-0.642	2.36	0.96	-0.568	2.43	0.99	-0.601	2.40	0.99	-0.433	2.57	0.99
BMS-04	1.56	116.95	25.6	0.0455	25.94	3.97	5.72	4.17	0.0258	-0.642	2.32	0.97	-0.581	2.42	0.99	-0.634	2.37	0.99	-0.453	2.55	0.99
Mean	1.52	134.25	29.39	0.0509	28.03	3.19	4.61	3.33	0.0224		2.32	0.96		2.41	0.99		2.35	0.99		2.54	0.99

(nm), micropore size; (D-R m²/g), micropore surface area; (D-R cm³/g), monolayer capacity; (D-A cm³/g), surface area; (L m²/g), Langmuir surface area; (BJH m²/g), mesopores area; (BJH cm³/g), mesopores volume.

specific surface area (1.72–4.58, avg. 3.19 m²/g), depending upon coal maturity and possibly controlled by the impact of huminite and clay content on the mesopores adsorption process which incorporates to the capillary condensation (Fu et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2014).

4.7. PSD for mesopore transitional zone

The PSD analysis method revealing a potential quantitative view at the relationship between pore volume and different proportion of pores size in the low rank coal. In this study we focused on transition pores less than 30 nm and are prevalent in the coal, because large proportion of micropores and mesopores internal surface area has sufficient sites for gas adsorption mechanism (Nie et al., 2015). Four graphical representations (Fig. 7) are discussed for this study and PSD, along with differential pore area, pore volume, incremental pore area and pore volume. Based on peak trends the gas adsorption is indicated in the particular pore region and the shape of a different peak at differential pore areas. However, entirely different in an incremental area, overlapping peak trends have also been observed for the particle size and pore diameter in the samples (Fig. 7a and b). Generally, micro-mesopores reside between 1.7 and 11.5 nm within differential pore areas, whereas maximum incremental pore areas reside between 1.8 and 20 nm within transition pore areas. Differential pore areas exhibited higher surface areas and pores within transition zone had higher adsorption pore volume, which is subject to mesopore structural behavior and molecular gas accessibility in mesopores and the majority of the smaller particles. In terms of the B-34 sample that initially overlapped with BMS-04, the BMS-04 and B-34 are essentially the same within the BET (m²/g) area (Table 3). Compared to the results of specimens exhibiting different peaks within the incremental pore size area at 9 nm, the smaller particles in BMS-04 crossed the SPT-14, where SPT-14 and the LPT05 crossed the B-34 between the transition pore surface areas, which sharply increased to 43 nm. The SPT-14, B-34, BMS-04, and LPT-05 had been observed at the higher surface area (m²/g), while SPT-01, LPT-04B, and BMS-02 have a lower surface area, compared to the results in (Table 3). The low pressure N₂ adsorption and desorption method close to realistic observation of specific surface area, by comparison, the different pore sizes ranges from 1 to 300 nm which are large proportion widespread in coals (Hou et al., 2017; Mardon et al., 2014; Anovitz et al., 2015). Pore surface area is generally controlled by the PSD between the transition zone (Fu et al., 2017). The following different surface area trends exhibit micro-mesopores within larger pores and SEM observations (Fig. 4). All specimens exhibiting similar graphical trends with pore size ranging between 1.8 and 22.8 nm which indicates maximum differential peak trends within transition pores (Fig. 7e–h). We observed that the differential and incremental graphs of transition pores 17.9 nm, the lower surface area, and pore volume samples had higher peaks trends concerning the higher surface area and pore volume samples. BMS-04 overlapped with SPT-14 the LPT-05 peak overlapped with B-34, and BMS-02 overlapped LPT-04 (Fig. 7b, d, f and h). After 17.9 nm, SPT-14 pore volume supercedes the BMS-04, and 72.5 nm for B-34 pore volume increases compared to BMS-04. Initially BMS-02 pore volume distribution was higher than LPT-04 and SPT-01. In conclusion, the results show that inhomogeneous particle sizes caused the variation in the peaks trends because of smaller pores spheres interconnecting to larger pore spheres. Two phases of gases have been observed which were involved on pore adsorption mechanism: the first phase of gas circulation to the outside of the microsphere surface, and second phase gas circulation in the spaces between micro-mesospheres until the gas molecules reach the outside of the macrospheres (Crosdale et al., 1998). Therefore, the time equilibrium variable at different particle sizes may be constraining the accessible and inaccessible gas molecules in the different pore structures. Coal facies studies show that the huminite maceral group has fine particles size which form early during the carbonization process in mires while semifusinite derived by redox action in mires, produces comparatively larger pores (ICCP, 2001; Liu et al., 2018; Sýkorová et al., 2005).

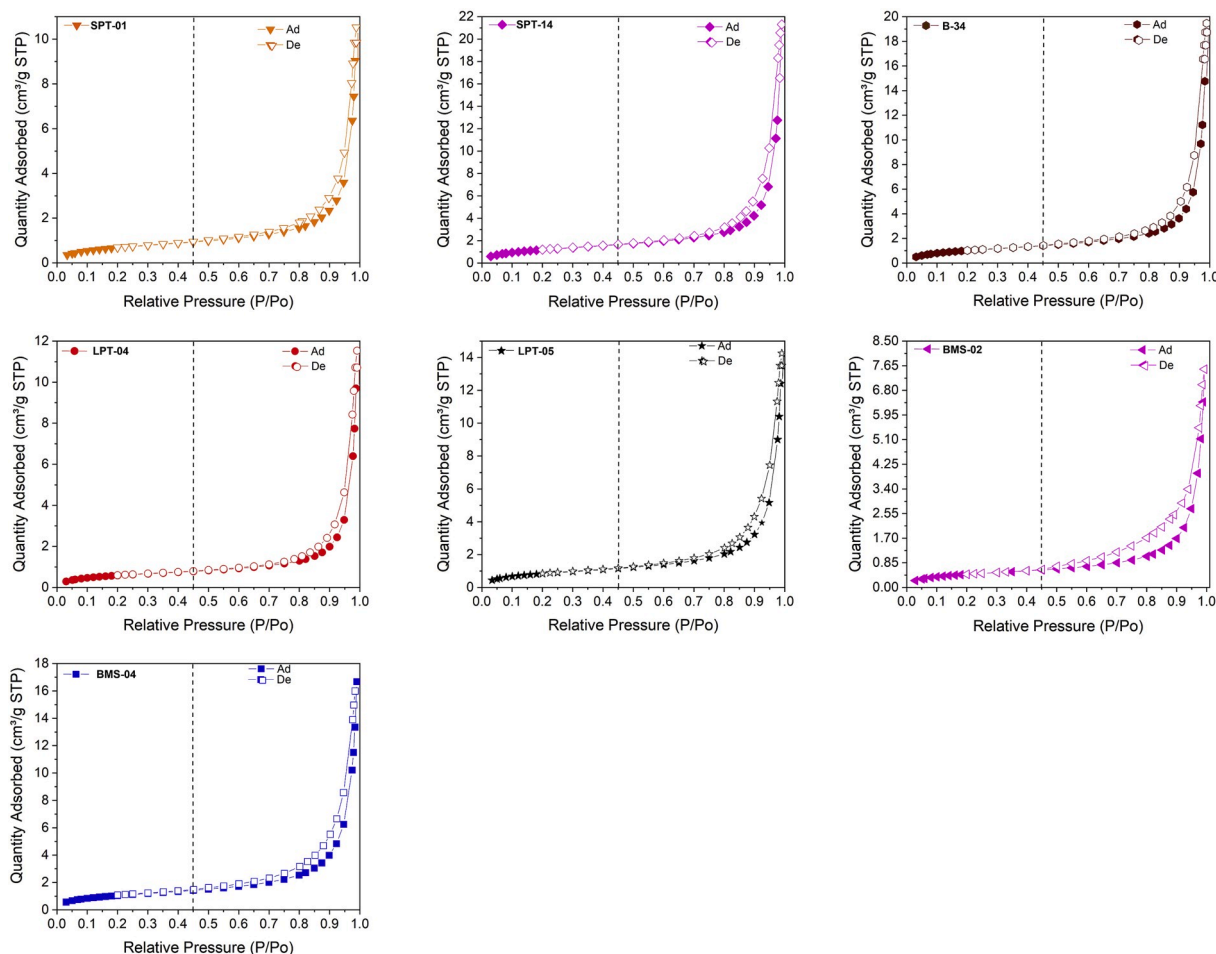


Fig. 6. Low temperature N_2 isotherms plots.

The maximum pore volume (cm^3/g) distribution was identified within the mesopore range of 1.8–20 nm. In addition, coal composition and other factors can affect the pore structure, for example the low volatile coal samples had higher adsorption while high volatile content samples had a lower adsorption process (Tables 2 and 3). Ash content had no direct effect on larger pores, mesopore surface area, and pore volumes (Tables 1 and 3) Likewise, other mineral constituents in the ash content may contribute to higher surface area and pore volume (Mastalerz et al., 2008).

4.8. Fractal dimension of the low-rank coal samples

Mandelbort (1983) developed a mathematical calculation-based model for complex geometrical structures. The multilayer pore distribution is a graphical representation of the existing pore geometrical shape (shapes within the shape connected to the robust heterogeneous architecture of a pore system). For the present study, the Frenkel-Halsey-Hill (FHH) fractal dimension theoretical model was developed (Pfeifer et al., 1989) for multilayer adsorption, and is shown below:

$$\ln\left(\frac{V}{V_m}\right) = C + A \left[\ln\left(\ln\frac{P}{P_0}\right) \right] \quad (1)$$

$$A = D - 3 \quad (2)$$

$$A = (D - 3)/3 \quad (3)$$

V represents the volumetric analysis of the sorption gas molecules at the equilibrium pressure P , V_0 is the volume of gas in the monolayer, P is

the gas equilibrium pressure, P_0 is the gas-saturated pressure, C is the constant value in gas adsorption, A represents the power-law exponent dependent on D and the mechanism of adsorption and C is the constant of gas adsorption. A represents the gas adsorption slope, specified as $\ln V$ vs. $\ln(\ln(P_0/P))$, where fractal dimension D linearly depends on line slope A . However, it can be expressed by Equations (2) and (3) and is traditionally applied to quantify the fractal dimension D_s , but both equations are widely used for comparing the different D_s values (Li et al., 2016a,b,c; Pyun and Rhee, 2004; Smith et al., 2005; Yao et al., 2008), which can be directly implied through $\ln V$ vs. $\ln(\ln(P_0/P))$ by thermodynamical tension forces directly proportional to the molecular gas condensation on the fractal boundary (Pfeifer and Cole, 1990).

It is important to apply different fractal characteristic study methods on different coal parameters for understanding the coal pore complex structures, particularly those that have a strong link with pore diversities within different coals (Fu et al., 2017; Zhou et al., 2017). In terms of N_2 adsorption and desorption pressure, we examined different fractal dimension analysis methods by means of application to different coal components. Subsequently, other researchers have applied the FHH model on low pressure adsorption D_s values to try to determine coal pore geometrical complexities by using different mathematical equations for porous materials, such as coal pore surface complexity. Following FHH linear plots applied to N_2 adsorption and desorption isotherms, which significantly helped us in the understanding of the pore complexity intrinsically. The FHH straight isotherm line (Fig. 8) results indicate good fittings in linear graphs, with R^2 values for AdDs of 0.98–0.99, and DeDs of 0.96–0.99. Both adsorption and desorption have linear similarity, and thus gas condensation occurs, when the adsorption phase

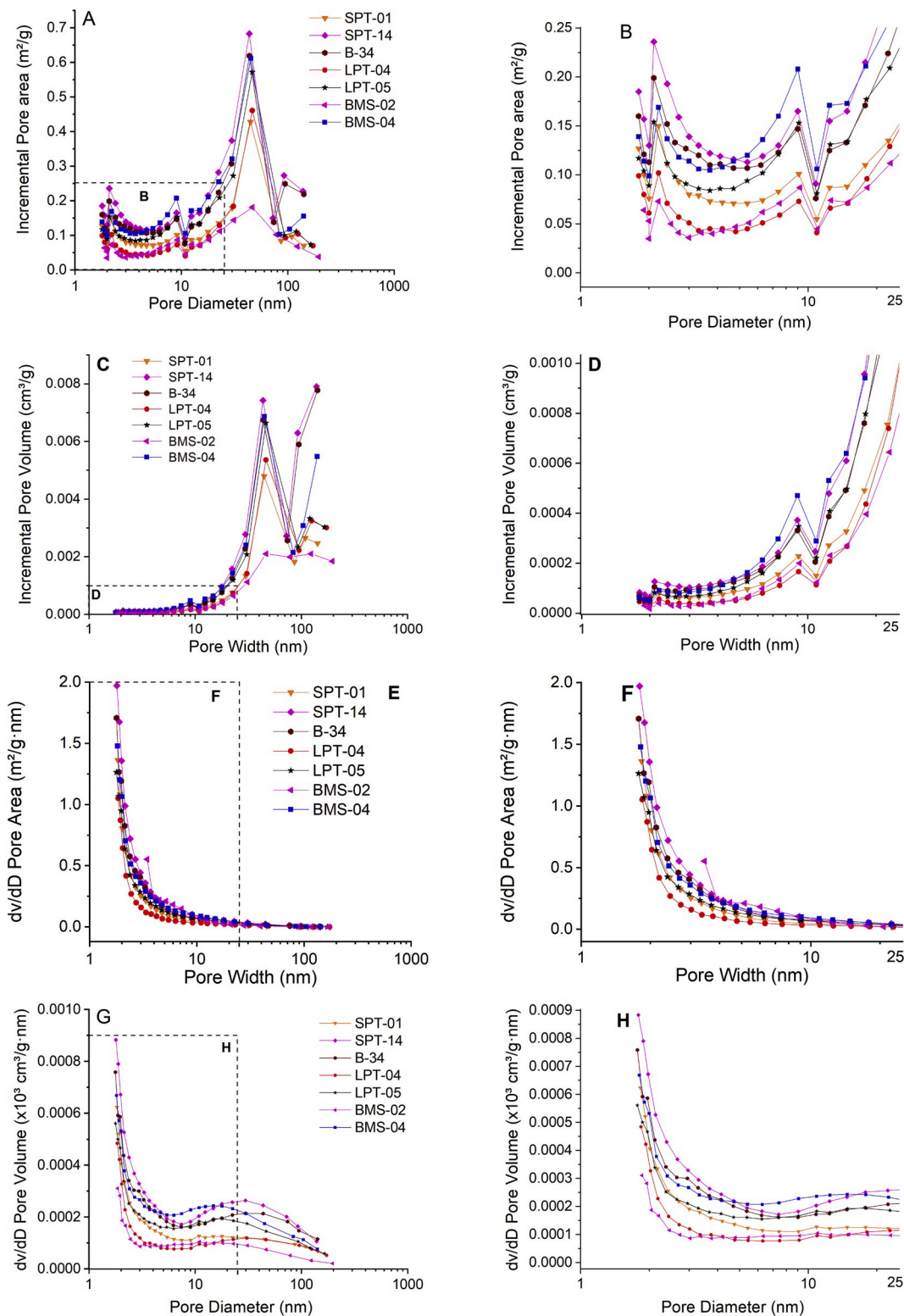


Fig. 7. PSD analysis of differential and incremental pore area peak trends.

occurs. Therefore, these complex pore surface structure attribute changes and retard the absorption. It was determined that during the adsorption stage, $AdDs_1$ averages ranged from 2.29 to 2.36, and $AdDs_2$ ranged from 2.40 to 2.43, unlike the desorption results for $DeDs_1$ at 2.31 to 2.39 and $DeDs_2$ at 2.51 to 2.57. $AdDs$ averaged 2.35 while $DeDs$ averaged 2.44. Correlation was strong between adsorption and desorption, indicating more pores roughness (Figs. 8 and 9) and different

relative pressure (e.g., small to large relative pressure increasing in D_s value, representing different pore size rough surfaces) (Zhang et al., 2017b). It was determined that thermodynamic mechanisms dominated among transition pore areas that exhibited pore surface fractal behaviors and heterogenous pore shapes. The D_s value varied from 2 to 3 which suggests that pore surfaces became uneven (Hu et al., 2016; Mandelbrot, 1983; Yang et al., 2016; Yao et al., 2008). The lower D_s value resulted in

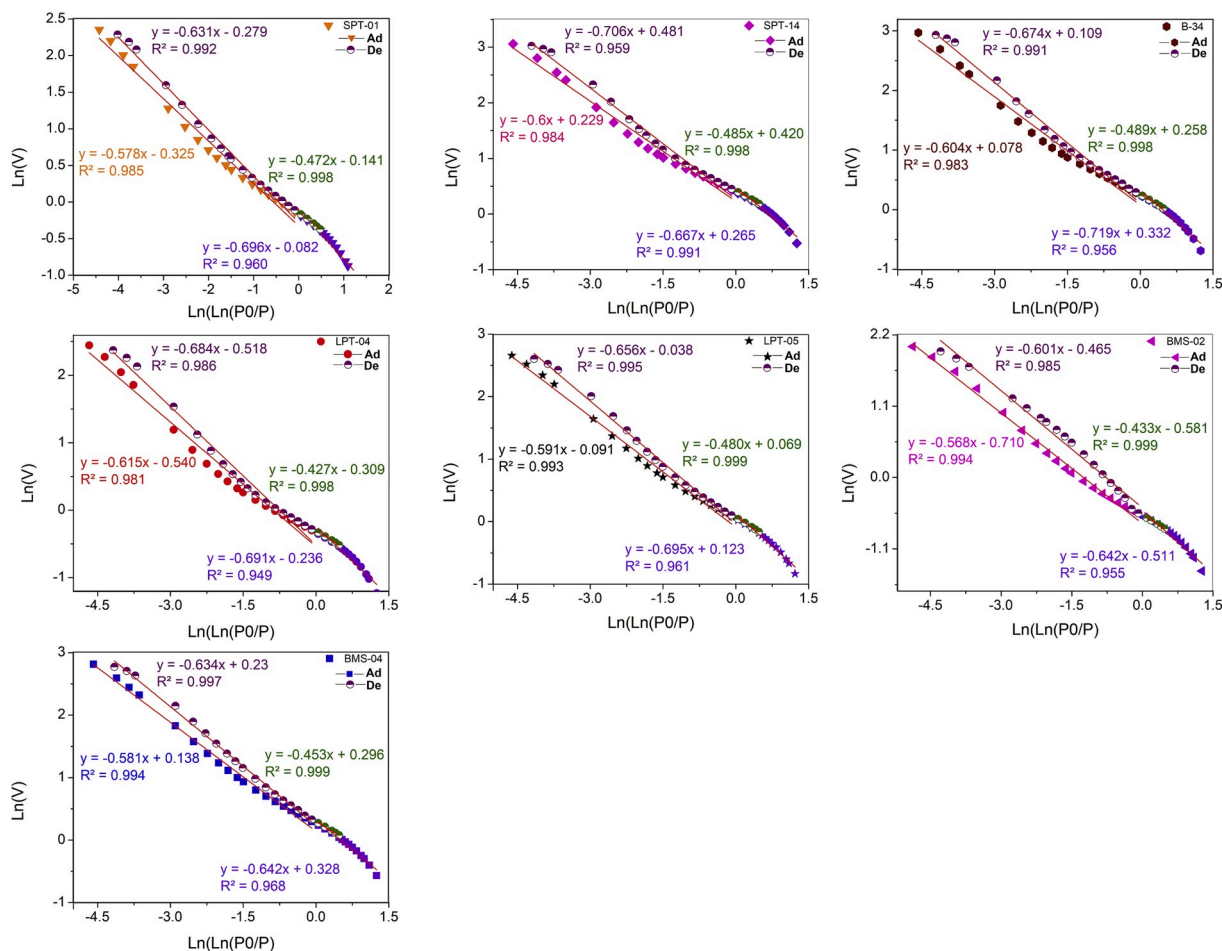


Fig. 8. The relationship between adsorption and desorption D_s values on low-temperature N_2 gas pressure.

more uniform and smooth surfaces, and thus D_s values > 2.4 trend to pore complexities, perhaps good for methane adsorption and indicating the higher surface area fractal dimension; However, in this case, the nature of the porosity is associated within dominating micro and mesopores in the coal (Martin et al., 2011; Sahouli et al., 1996; Sun et al., 2015).

A comparison between PSD and fractal characteristic AdDs relative pressure range P/P_0 : 0–0.5 suggests 1–5.0 nm where DeDs P/P_0 range: 0.5–1 suggests transition pore size structures 5–30 nm, (Zhang et al., 2017b; Zhao et al., 2019). Fig. 9 shows that AdDs values indicate that samples plotted are scattered due to possible variation in pore sizes (Zhang et al., 2014). DeDs samples are show the same trend on the graph and it seems complex pore structures are probably narrow toward widening pore openings in lower gas adsorption, which likely reflects the widening on pore surface development and desorption capacity. Higher sorption capacity on the coal matrix may make it difficult to desorb the gas molecules where there is likely limited access of gases/fluid material (Mahnke and Mögel, 2003; Yao et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2017b). Coal samples with high semifusinite content have higher DeDs complexity, which may be fall out by different pore spheres, such as macrosphere incorporated with microspheres (Crosdale et al., 1998; Mendhe et al., 2017) (Tables 2 and 3). It is assumed that a higher quantity of small pores is associated with transition pores or macropores. This finding suggests that DeDs value is relatively higher, suggesting a pore complexity rather the AdDs value because the geometrical irregularity of pore shapes can block the high energy level of gas molecule diffusion (Zhang et al., 2017b).

5. Conclusions

In this research, different experimental methods were applied to understand the fundamental geometrical characteristics of pores that influence CBM production and coal formation parameters. Our major conclusions include the following:

- 1) Maceral observations reveal that high semi fusinite content incorporated the higher DeDs complexity because larger pore spheres consist of micro-mesopore spheres.
- 2) SEM studies show that irregular and channel pores are connected and there were two types of pore structures. Primary micropores, first developed slit-shaped pores, and gas pores caused the development of larger pores connected to micro gas fractures, which may possibly be developed by methane desorption.
- 3) Lower micropore surface area may be determined by higher ash yield content within the organic matter of coal by affecting CO_2 absorption.
- 4) In this study, micropore size distribution can be better observed by incremental pore volume on different particle size peaks in three adsorption phases. Each adsorption phase has different gas condensation capacity, and this possibly due to the presence of different kind of pores surface areas associated with micropore network.
- 5) The mesopores distribution analysis on differential and incremental pore areas suggests major graphical intersecting points at transition zones 1.8–22.8 nm, indicating the majority of the micro-mesospheres are present at transition zone, whereas smaller porespheres are interconnected with macrosphere.

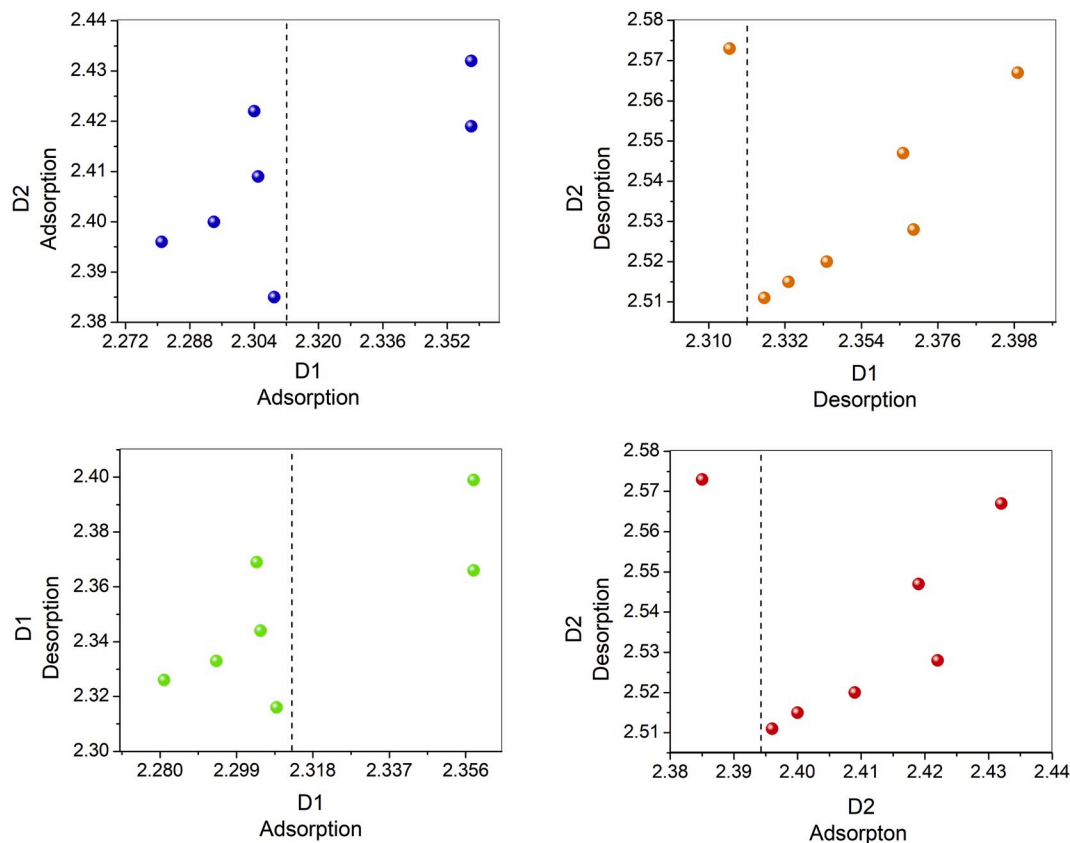


Fig. 9. Fractal characteristic correlations between adsorption and desorption D_s values.

6) For fractal characteristics, four separate D_s value methods were applied to determine the linear correlation relationship, and showed good linearity R^2 values. AdDs average was 2.35, and DeDs average value was 2.44. A higher DeDs value indicates the pore complexities more than pore surface. This indicates that the DeDs value has a strong potential to quantify the pore complexity in the CBM reservoir.

Declaration of competing interest

All authors declare no conflicts of interest.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Hassan Nasir Mangi: Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Investigation, Methodology, Resources, Software, Writing - original draft. **Yan Detian:** Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition. **Nayima Hameed:** Formal analysis, Validation. **Umar Ashraf:** Writing - review & editing, Visualization. **Riaz Hussain Rajper:** Data curation, Resources, Investigation.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jngse.2020.103231>.

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