

# Recent Advances in Carbon Dioxide Sequestration in Deep Unmineable Coal Seams Using CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM Technology: Experimental Studies, Simulation, and Field Applications

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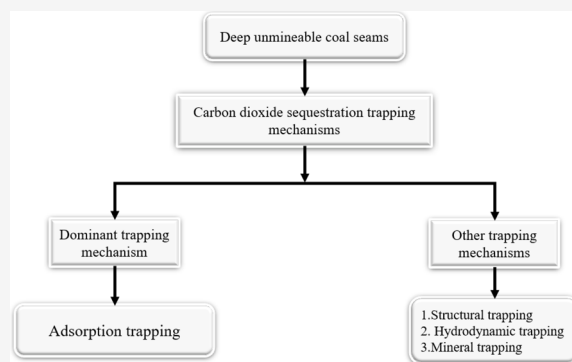
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**ABSTRACT:** CO<sub>2</sub>-enhanced coalbed methane (CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM) technology helps to store CO<sub>2</sub> while producing a clean source of energy (CH<sub>4</sub>) through the sorption process. This technique can sequester much CO<sub>2</sub> at low temperatures and pressures while recovering CH<sub>4</sub>, which will help offset the associated costs, such as capturing injection gases, drilling and completion infrastructure, compression, and injection expenses. This review paper critically analyzes the CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration potentiality in deep unmineable coal seams. The results revealed that, despite several researchers' insights from proposed concepts, experimental data, modeling and simulations, and pilot tests, there are no reported full field CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technology applications for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and CH<sub>4</sub> recovery because implementing the projects is uneconomical. Also, CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and CH<sub>4</sub> recovery effectiveness on coal seams depend on wettability changes of the CO<sub>2</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>O-coal system. The identified research gaps and challenges in this paper are going to help various researchers and shareholders in conducting extra investigations toward full field application of CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration while simultaneously producing a clean source of energy (CH<sub>4</sub>) in deep unmineable coal seams to meet the Paris climate summit agreement to achieve net zero emissions by 2050 and a maximum global temperature rise of 1.5 °C.



## 1. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, emissions of greenhouse gases (GHGs) in the atmosphere have increased. In 1990, total GHG emission was 37.86 billion tonnes, in 2000 was 41.34 billion tonnes, in 2010 was 50.27 billion tonnes, in 2020 was 52.59 billion tonnes, and in 2021 was 54.59 billion tonnes.<sup>1–4</sup> This rapid increase in emissions has caused a global climatic change. However, global total GHG emissions decreased by 4.7% during the COVID-19 pandemic from 2019 to 2020. According to the United Nations environmental program (UNEP) report in 2022, the G20 countries contribute 75% of GHG emission into the atmosphere. The top six emitters of GHGs in the World are China, 13.71 billion tonnes; the United States, 5.93 billion tonnes; India, 3.9 billion tonnes; Russia, 2.41 billion tonnes; Brazil, 2.15 billion tonnes; and Indonesia, 2.05 billion tonnes. Africa is the least emissive continent of GHG emissions. Currently, for major GHG emitter countries worldwide, especially China and the U.S., their main energy source is coal, which releases large amounts of carbon gases after burning.<sup>5</sup> China only releases over 27.3% of global GHGs, while the U.S. releases almost half of that of China. Global unmineable coal seam gas reserves are approximately 256 trillion m<sup>3</sup>.<sup>6</sup>

Among GHGs, CO<sub>2</sub> is the most emitted GHG in the atmosphere, accounting for 74.4% of the pollutants, as shown in Figure 1. In 1950, the world emitted 6 billion tonnes and in 1990 reached more than 22 billion tonnes. Currently, there is an average of 50 billion tonnes of carbon emission per year.<sup>1,7,8</sup> According to the global summit held in Glasgow, Scotland in 2021, which reviewed the five-year Paris summit agreement implementation of reaching a maximum global temperature increase of 1.5 °C, to achieve the global goal there is a need to cut 45% of current emissions by strengthening and implementing the agreed upon policies. The current policies lead to an increase of 2.8 °C and may be 2.6 °C by 2100.<sup>9</sup> However, if implemented effectively, carbon capture, utilization, and storage (CCUS) can help achieve the Paris climate summit agreement to achieve net zero emissions by 2050 and a maximum global temperature rise

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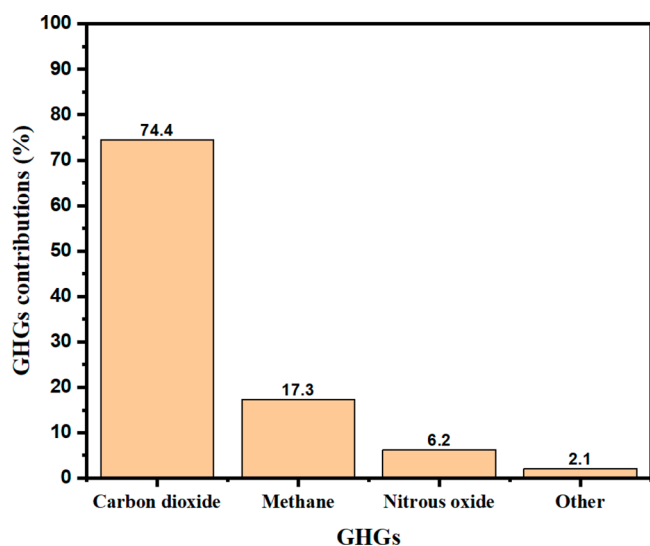


Figure 1. GHG contributions to air pollution. Data retrieved from ref 1.

of 1.5 °C.<sup>10–14</sup> It involves capturing, transporting, and storing it underground or utilizing it for industrial purposes.<sup>15,16</sup> There are many ways of sequestering CO<sub>2</sub> in geological formations, as discussed by ref 17. Nevertheless, storage of CO<sub>2</sub> in deep unmineable coal seams is not given much attention or implemented. Permanent CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in deep unmineable coal seams is still under research. Globally, unmineable coal seams to have the potential of sequestering approximately 3–350 gigatonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> while producing a clean source of energy of more than 150% of CH<sub>4</sub> through CO<sub>2</sub>-enhanced coal bed methane (CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM) technology if utilized properly.<sup>18</sup> Among the factors affecting CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technology applications are the following: permeability reduction, swelling or shrinkage of the matrix, and competitive adsorption and sorption capacity.<sup>19</sup>

In 1972,<sup>20</sup> for the first time, the concept of recovering CH<sub>4</sub> from crushed coal samples by injecting CO<sub>2</sub> was proposed. The development of ECBM can be traced back to the early 1990s when refs 21 and 22 proposed the potentiality of CH<sub>4</sub> recovery and CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration by injecting CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> in deep unmineable coal seams by a depressurization technique. The first ECBM field pilot test was conducted in Tiffany and Allison units of San Juan Basin, New Mexico, USA, in 1995. The pilot test was successful but faced challenges such as permeability reduction and an abrupt rise of pressure near the injection well due to CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption in the coal surface after swelling and shrinkage in the coal seams.<sup>23,24</sup> Hitherto, many successful laboratory experiments, simulations, and pilot tests have been conducted in some coal reservoirs utilizing CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technology. This has brought substantial attention to researchers to probe CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub> dynamic interaction effects and CH<sub>4</sub> recovery mechanisms with the feasibility of sequestering CO<sub>2</sub> in deep unmineable coal seams.<sup>25–31</sup>

Even though CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technology has been tested successfully in different areas to recover CH<sub>4</sub> and for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration, most are uneconomical.<sup>32–34</sup> Hitherto, there are still fundamental principles of this technology that need to be examined to understand the underlying processes of enhancing production and sequestering CO<sub>2</sub> to make the technology economical. There are several recently published review papers on enhancing CH<sub>4</sub> recovery while sequestering CO<sub>2</sub> in deep unmineable coal seams utilizing CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technology.

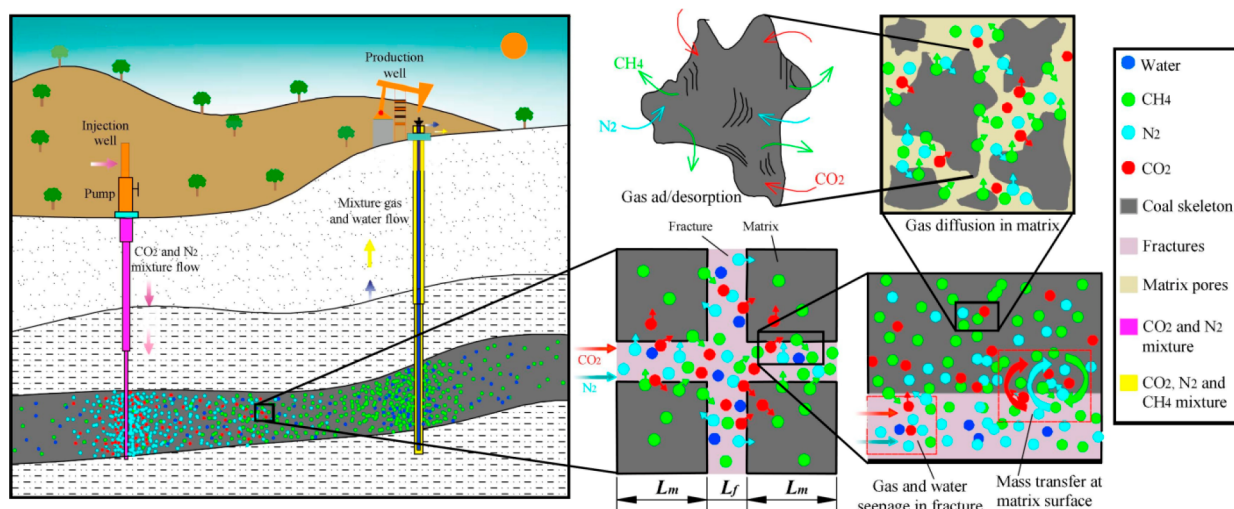
However, none of the reviews analyzed and discussed the dynamic interaction between CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O during staged CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM flooding in in situ reservoirs, which results in wettability change, which is important for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration. Further, in this Review, nanotechnology application during CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in shallow CBM reservoirs is discussed. Additionally, this Review uniquely analyzes the unprecedented machine learning application in unmineable coal seams during CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technology application for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration prediction purposes. Furthermore, this review paper reports the four possible CO<sub>2</sub> trapping mechanisms in deep unmineable coal seams for the first time. The major sections of this review paper include the following: the introduction, theory, experimental parts, modeling and simulation of CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM, field applications, wettability alteration during CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM application, nanotechnology application during CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in shallow CBM reservoirs, challenges, research gaps, and perspective of storing CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in deep unmineable coal seams, and conclusions.

## 2. RESERVOIR SCREENING CRITERIA FOR CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM TECHNOLOGY APPLICATION

To avoid risk of CO<sub>2</sub> leakage, there are some properties which a CBM reservoir must have. Before application of ECBM technology in the unmineable coal field, the following geological criteria must be met for effective and efficient CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration. These criteria lead to project success as discussed in this section.

The reservoir screening criteria include the following: (1) Reservoir homogeneity: laterally continuous and vertically compartmentalized coal seam reservoir(s) are favorable for ECBM. This keeps the injectant contained within the reservoir and allows for more effective lateral sweeps throughout the reservoir. This shows that homogeneous reservoirs influence CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption and CH<sub>4</sub> desorption from the coal surface which influence coal swelling and shrinkage, respectively, that affect effective stress.<sup>19,35,36</sup> (2) Minimal faulting/folding: folded and faulted reservoirs are undesirable. Closely spaced faults can isolate reservoir blocks, preventing the effective sweep. Faults may deflect the injectant from the reservoir, lowering recovery and sequestration. Structurally difficult locations have damaged coal cleat systems and limited permeability.<sup>35,36</sup> (3) Optimal depth range: similarly to conventional CBM, ECBM tends to be effective and efficient when operated with a depth window that varies according to the basin. ECBM cannot be successful at shallow depths due to low reservoir pressure and gas saturation; in deep reservoirs, the formation permeability is always low. Normal coal seam depth is 300–1500 m for CBM. However, in deep reservoirs, hydraulic fracturing can help to improve permeability, and by sustaining pore pressure CO<sub>2</sub> injection can increase permeability.<sup>35–37</sup> (4) Concentrated coal geometry: coal deposits that are concentrated (few, thick seams and low spacing) are preferred over those that are distributed (many, thin seams). Similarly, “completable” coals that are thick are preferable over “targetable” coals that are thin.<sup>35,36</sup> (5) Adequate permeability: permeability is one of the key factors affecting CH<sub>4</sub> production and injection fluid rate during ECBM technology application. High permeability eases flows during the production and injection period to influence ECBM technology application. The moderate cleat permeability for effective ECBM is 1–5 mD.<sup>35,36</sup>

Also, (6) High gas saturation: for ECBM technology application, the coal reservoir should have high initial gas



**Figure 2.** Mass transport in unmineable coal seams during ECBM. This figure was reproduced with permission from ref 68. Copyright 2019 Elsevier.

saturation. For effective ECBM technology, the gas saturation should be high in the range of 90–100% for the sorption process. However, it is revealed that ECBM can work for lower gas saturation (undersaturated), but  $\text{CH}_4$  recovery is delayed with high cost.<sup>35,36,38</sup> (7) Optimal coal rank: coal ranks indicate the thermal maturity of the coal, which reflects pressure and temperature deposition history. Coal rank is measured via vitrinite reflectance ( $R_o$ ). The optimal coal rank is 0.8–1.5% for ECBM technology applications that enhance  $\text{CH}_4$  production and  $\text{CO}_2$  sequestration.<sup>39,40</sup> Higher amounts of  $\text{CO}_2$  can be adsorbed by low-rank coal than by high-rank coal.<sup>35,36,41</sup> (8) Low ash content: coal contains inherent and external mineral matter, termed ash. Ash content is the most influential factor in coal's adsorption capacity.<sup>35,36</sup> Ash infilling primarily clays and carbonates blocks the coal pore system, cleats, and fractures, diminishing gas production.<sup>42</sup> Ref 43 revealed that increasing ash content from 21.24 to 43.47% decreases adsorption capacity, hence resulting in low  $\text{CO}_2$  adsorption on the coal surface. In general, low ash concentration improves permeability. (9) High vitrinite content: high vitrinite content increase enhances the  $\text{CH}_4$  desorption and  $\text{CO}_2$  adsorption capacity of coal, which makes it suitable for ECBM technology application. Coals with vitrinite are well cleated with a high surface specific area and thus are more permeable. Vitrinite affects coal pore structure, especially micropores and pore distribution.<sup>35,36,44,45</sup> (10) High Langmuir volume and pressure are suitable in  $\text{CO}_2$ -ECBM technology application for  $\text{CO}_2$  sequestration and  $\text{CH}_4$  recovery.<sup>46</sup>

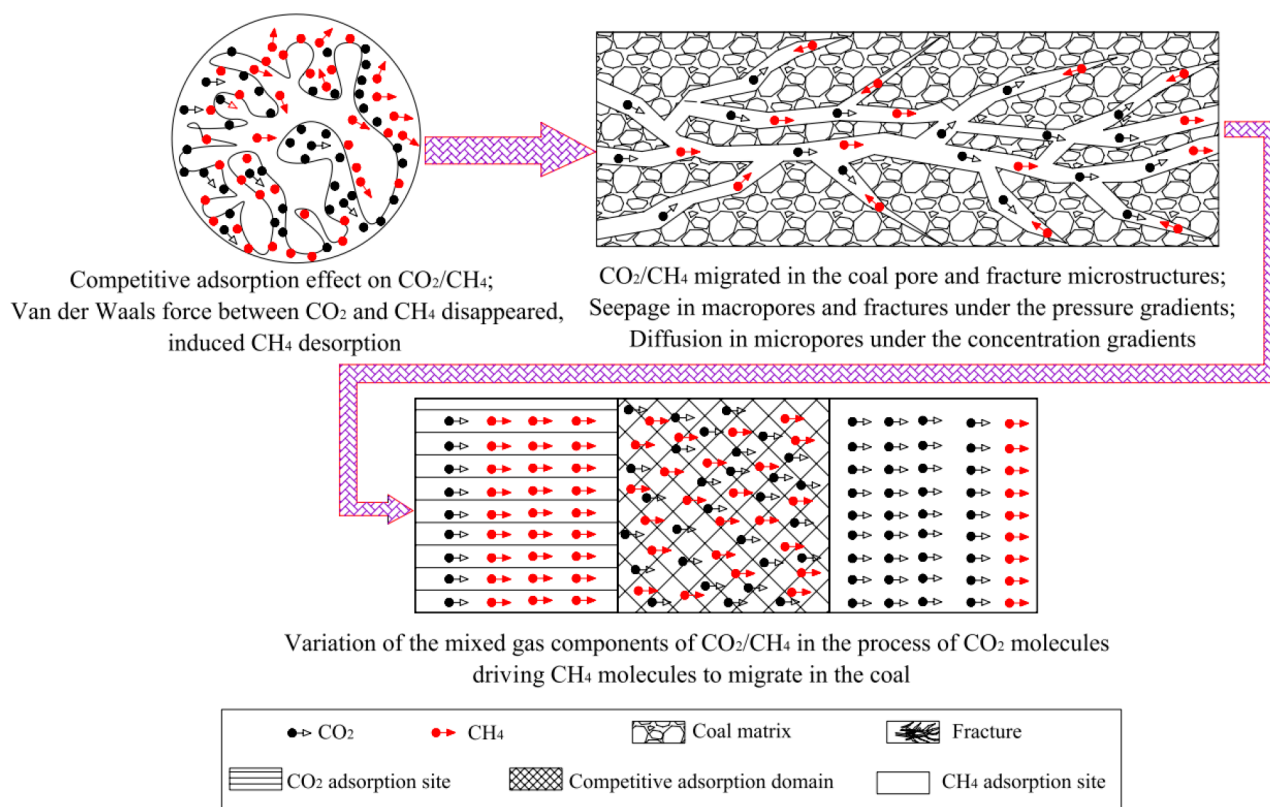
**2.1. Commercial and Technical Criteria for Successful  $\text{CO}_2$ -ECBM Technology Application.** To have successful  $\text{CO}_2$  sequestration and  $\text{CH}_4$  production in deep unmineable coal seams, there are four commercial and technical criteria to be considered, which are the following: (1) Geology: favorable reservoir conditions such as thickness and coal seam depth at a range of 300–1500 m came across as simple located in simple structural settings and have high in situ permeability greater than 5 mD. (2) Mining:  $\text{CO}_2$ -ECBM should focus on deep unmineable coal seams where normal mining methods cannot be applied for  $\text{CO}_2$  sequestration and  $\text{CH}_4$  recovery purposes. (3)  $\text{CO}_2$  supplies:  $\text{CO}_2$  sources should be continuously supplied at low cost either from anthropogenic sources or reservoirs or captured from power plants. (4) Gas demand: during  $\text{CO}_2$ -ECBM technology application,  $\text{CH}_4$  is produced and  $\text{CO}_2$  is

sequestered. However, the technology is expensive, so to offset some of the cost,  $\text{CH}_4$  is produced.

### 3. THEORY

**3.1.  $\text{CO}_2$  Injection in Coal Seams.** Two different ECBM technologies can help to improve  $\text{CH}_4$  recovery and  $\text{CO}_2$  sequestration. The first option is injecting gas mixtures, mainly  $\text{CO}_2$ , with inert gas, especially  $\text{N}_2$ , which helps to reduce methane partial pressure for easy desorption, with  $\text{CO}_2$  replacing  $\text{CH}_4$  on the coal surface. The effectiveness of  $\text{CO}_2$  sequestration and  $\text{CH}_4$  recovery depends on the mole fraction ratio of injected gases. The second option involves highly adsorbing gas into the coal seams, especially  $\text{CO}_2$ , which replaces  $\text{CH}_4$  in the coal surface due to its higher affinity to the coal surface than  $\text{CH}_4$ .<sup>47–50</sup>  $\text{CO}_2$  adsorption on the coal surface is faster than  $\text{CH}_4$  adsorption, and  $\text{CH}_4$  replacement by  $\text{CO}_2$  is more rapid than the reverse process.<sup>6</sup>  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{CH}_4$  interact with molecules on the coal surface, changing adsorption energy, molecular bonds, and equilibrium distance. These gases adsorb on coal surfaces physically, not chemically.<sup>51</sup>  $\text{CO}_2$  gas injection into coal cleats reduces the partial pressure of  $\text{CH}_4$  in the free gas phase, deprives upsetting the reservoir pressure, and increases the desorption of  $\text{CH}_4$  from the coal matrix.<sup>52</sup> However, the main challenge after  $\text{CO}_2$  injection in the coal surface is permeability reduction due to its swelling and shrinkage and effective stress changes after the adsorption process, which results in the  $\text{CH}_4$  production rate decrease. In addition, the adsorption process results in a decreased  $\text{CO}_2$  injection rate because a highly pressurized zone is created by adsorbed  $\text{CO}_2$ .<sup>24</sup>

Coal, as a mixture of organic and inorganic materials, has several features that influence the sorption process. The coal seam is a dual porosity reservoir system comprised of a matrix with macroporosity and a micro natural fracture system known as the cleat network system.<sup>53</sup> Microscopic pores in coal govern gas adsorption and desorption on the coal matrix surface. They are critical for CBM diffusion (via nanoscale pores) and seepage (via micrometer-to-millimeter holes and fractures).<sup>54</sup> The coal seam's permeability, governed by Darcy's flow, and intrinsic permeability, governed by Fick's diffusion, determine the  $\text{CO}_2$  movements in the coal seams. The general gas transport in coal fissures consists of three stages: adsorption/desorption, diffusion in micropores, and transport in cleats. In coal fissures,



**Figure 3.** Competitive sorption between CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> in coal matrix. This figure was reproduced with permission from ref 86. Copyright 2021 Elsevier.

there is competitive adsorption during the ECBM process, specifically, CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption and CH<sub>4</sub> desorption. Other important coal properties affecting the sorption process include the following: (1) Coal rank: coals are classified based on their rank or thermal maturity. The three primary coals are lignite, bituminous, and anthracite, in order of decreasing coal rank. Coal rank is measured using carbon content, and as carbon content increases, coal rank increases, as discussed by ref 55 that 60–67 db% is lignite coal, 75–80 db% is sub-bituminous coal, 80–90 db% is bituminous coal, and 90–95 db% is anthracite coal. Porosity and permeability decrease as coal rank increases. Medium coal rank (bituminous) has optimal gas content and permeability. Generally, as the coal rank increases, the CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity increases.<sup>56</sup> (2) Maceral content: high vitrinite reflectance is preferred for ECBM technology application.<sup>57</sup> (3) Moisture content: increasing moist content decreases CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacity.<sup>58</sup> In addition to coal characteristics, in situ pressure and temperature affect CO<sub>2</sub> retention capacity.<sup>59</sup> As temperature rises, the coal adsorption capacity decreases. Also, as pressure increases, the adsorption capacity of coal increases.<sup>60</sup>

**3.2. CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> Transport Mechanisms in Coal Seams.** Technical development of CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technology requires understanding the underlying transport mechanism and gas sorption in coal seams. Understanding these processes on microscopic and macroscopic scales is important in predicting CH<sub>4</sub> production and CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration.<sup>61,62</sup> Coal seams' gases and water transport differ from that in conventional reservoirs. Gases transport mechanisms in coal seams occur on two scales, which are laminar flows and diffusion and sorption flows. Laminar flows occur in coal cleats driven by pressure differences governed by Darcy's flow<sup>63</sup> while diffusion and sorption flows in

the coal matrix are restrained by concentration differences governed by Fick's law of diffusion<sup>64</sup> as shown in Figure 2. In the coal matrix is where the CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration occurs after CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> sorption processes.<sup>65–67</sup>

**3.3. Competitive Sorption between CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub>.** Understanding competitive sorption between CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> (Figure 3) on the coal surface is crucial for understanding underlying mechanisms during CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technology application for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and CH<sub>4</sub> recovery purposes.<sup>69</sup> Several experiments<sup>70–76</sup> and developed models<sup>55,68,77–81</sup> reported the CO<sub>2</sub>–CH<sub>4</sub> sorption process on the coal surface. It has been found that after CO<sub>2</sub> injection into the coal formation, CH<sub>4</sub> adsorption equilibrium is drastically disrupted; thus, the potential reaction between CO<sub>2</sub> and coal and CH<sub>4</sub> occurs, witnessed by changes in coal structure and composition; after that, coal becomes enriched with CO<sub>2</sub>. Adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub> excels more than twice that of desorbed CH<sub>4</sub> on the coal surface due to pore structure enlargement (porosity increase) and permeability reduction after the CO<sub>2</sub> swelling process.<sup>82</sup> In a low-pressure environment, CO<sub>2</sub> sorption capacity on the coal surface may reach at least 10 times the sorbed CH<sub>4</sub>.<sup>28,83–85</sup> Further, the higher adsorption potential energy of CO<sub>2</sub> compared to CH<sub>4</sub> causes van der Waals forces between the coal matrix and CH<sub>4</sub> to diminish; thus, CO<sub>2</sub> adsorbs easily into the coal surface. Furthermore, the higher molecular freedom of CH<sub>4</sub> compared to CO<sub>2</sub> causes CH<sub>4</sub> to desorb easily from the coal matrix to give space for CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption. This proves that CO<sub>2</sub> replaces CH<sub>4</sub> from the coal surface due to its high affinity to the coal surface compared to CH<sub>4</sub> which is released and flows toward the production wellbore.<sup>86,87</sup>

**3.4. CO<sub>2</sub> Sequestration Trapping Mechanisms in Unmineable Coal Seams.** Due to their accessibility and

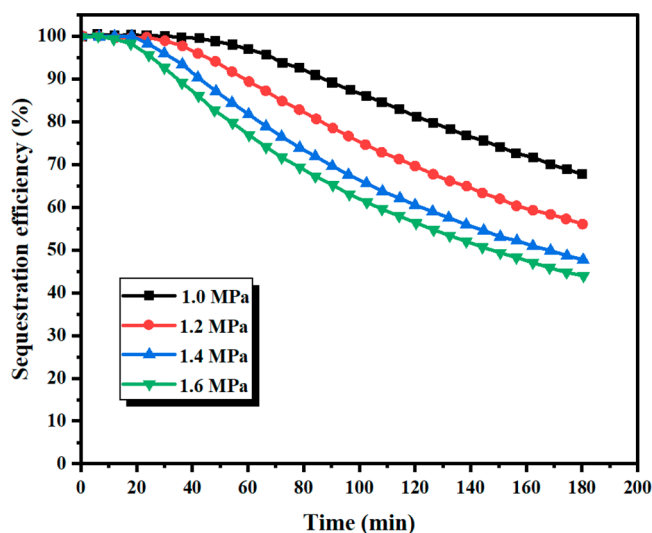
cost-effectiveness, deep unmineable coal deposits have been recommended as a permanent and long-term CO<sub>2</sub> storage option. After CO<sub>2</sub> is injected into the coal seams, it replaces CH<sub>4</sub> due to its higher affinity for coal formation than CH<sub>4</sub>. Storage potentials, security, and project monitoring depend on reservoir storage capacity and CO<sub>2</sub> trapping mechanism. There are four primary mechanisms in which CO<sub>2</sub> can be stored in the unmineable CBM:<sup>88</sup> (1) adsorption trapping mechanism, (2) stratigraphic or structural trapping mechanism, (3) hydrodynamic (solubility) trapping mechanism, and (4) mineral trapping mechanism. In the adsorption trapping mechanism, CO<sub>2</sub> is adsorbed in the coal surface due to its higher affinity capacity than that of methane, and this is the dominant trapping mechanism, approximately 95–98% of total storage.<sup>41</sup> Nevertheless, after the maximum adsorption capacity is attained, adsorption capacity decreases with increasing depth. In stratigraphic or structural trapping mechanisms, CO<sub>2</sub> is stored as a free phase triggered by the presence of impermeable cap rock due to anticlines or faults that prevent upward movement.<sup>89</sup> In the hydrodynamic trapping mechanism, CO<sub>2</sub> is dissolved in brine and forms carbonic acid, which later decomposes to form carbonates and hydroxyl ions.<sup>90,91</sup> In the mineral trapping mechanism, the dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> in brine forms carbonic acid, which can later precipitate to form minerals after interacting with rock minerals.<sup>92</sup> The mineral trapping mechanism takes thousands of years to form minerals; however, it is believed to be the safest trapping mechanism compared to others.

#### 4. EXPERIMENTS

Many researchers have conducted experiments to probe the potentiality of CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technology application to CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration toward decarbonization and recovery of clean energy sources. The process involves the injection of CO<sub>2</sub> or CO<sub>2</sub> mixed with other gases in the CBM reservoirs, which adsorb into the coal surface while CH<sub>4</sub> desorbs due to its lower affinity to the coal surface than CO<sub>2</sub>; then, most CO<sub>2</sub> is stored through an adsorption mechanism with the least stored through other mechanisms discussed in section 3.4. Hence, this section discusses different findings of conducted experiments showing great success in CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration through CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technology application.

Reference 26 experimented on the impacts of injecting CO<sub>2</sub> in coalbed methane by observing the CO<sub>2</sub> sequestered and CH<sub>4</sub> recovered in coal seams. In their experiments, synergistic effects of CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and CH<sub>4</sub> recovery were considered. A large-scale multifunctional apparatus designed closely to the actual CBM reservoir simulated CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technology application. The apparatus gave the actual conditions of each reservoir point from injection to production wells. To reflect the reality of the field operation, conventional production was utilized first, followed by the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technique at different pressures. The CH<sub>4</sub> recovery efficiency was 66.67% during conventional production, and after CO<sub>2</sub> injection in the coal seams with a range of pressure of 1–1.0 MPa, the production increased from 66.67 to 93.5% and later reduced to 90.86%. For CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration, when pressure increased from 1 to 1.6 MPa, the efficiency decreased from 67.89 to 43.98%, as shown in Figure 4. For efficient CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and CH<sub>4</sub> recovery, it was suggested that injection pressure variation is important. In general, higher injection pressure is required during the initial production stage but later needs to be reduced when the production starts to decline. These changes in pressure will influence CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration too.

Also, ref 93 probed the impacts of injecting CO<sub>2</sub> in unmineable coal seams on CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and CH<sub>4</sub> recovery. A highly bituminous coal sample collected from the Tashan coal mine in China was used. The core-flooding experiments were conducted using a triaxial apparatus under constant high-temperature and -pressure conditions of 37 °C and 12 MPa, respectively, with coal seams buried around 500–



**Figure 4.** CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration efficiency in different injection pressures. This figure was reproduced with permission from ref 26. Copyright 2023 Elsevier.

600 m as the necessary condition for CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technology application. The process involved injecting CO<sub>2</sub> at constant pressure in CH<sub>4</sub>-saturated coal samples to observe the CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and CH<sub>4</sub> recovery. The CO<sub>2</sub> was injected five times with a range of injection pressure of 6–10 MPa. The CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration capacity and CH<sub>4</sub> recovery efficiencies are shown in Table 1. Further, high CO<sub>2</sub> injection

**Table 1.** CO<sub>2</sub> Storage Capacity and CH<sub>4</sub> Recovery Efficiency<sup>a</sup>

CO <sub>2</sub> injection pressure (MPa)	initial CH <sub>4</sub> content (m <sup>3</sup> /tonnes)	CH <sub>4</sub> content after CO <sub>2</sub> -ECBM application (m <sup>3</sup> /tonnes)	CH <sub>4</sub> recovery rate (%)	CO <sub>2</sub> storage capacity (m <sup>3</sup> /tonnes)
-	18.53	8.94	51.73	
6	18.51	0.63	96.57	37.25
7	18.37	0.41	97.79	38.02
8	18.46	0.06	99.68	39.88
9	18.46	0	100	40.89
10	18.50	0	100	41.62

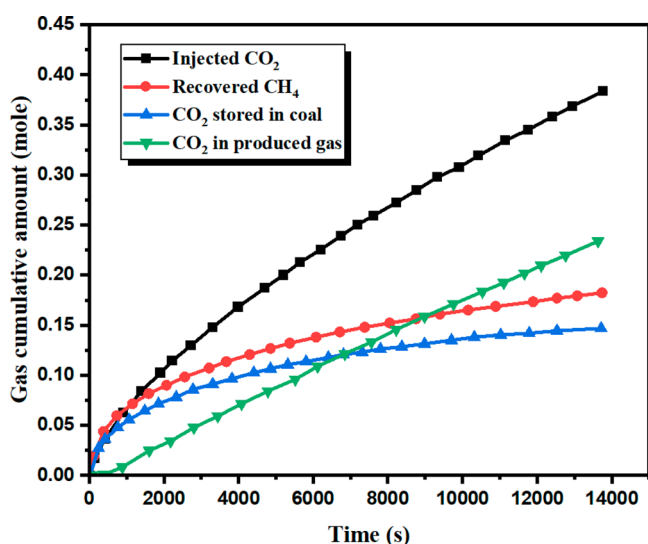
<sup>a</sup>Reproduced with permission from ref 93. Copyright 2019 Elsevier.

pressure (9 and 10 MPa) results in faster and higher CH<sub>4</sub> production and greater CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration, but early CO<sub>2</sub> breakthrough makes CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technology application uneconomical. In addition, moisture content delays the CO<sub>2</sub>-CH<sub>4</sub> exchange process in all coals except high-rank coals, resulting in lower CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and CH<sub>4</sub> recovery.

Further, ref 94 experimented on the consequences of CO<sub>2</sub> injection into a partially filled CH<sub>4</sub> bituminous coal sample collected from San Juan basin coal in New Mexico. The samples were broken into powder during the sorption process to save time during the experiment for an easy diffusion process. Two CO<sub>2</sub> injection sets of experiments were conducted at a pressure range of 300–500 psi. In their investigation, an extended Langmuir (EL) equation was used for predicting adsorbed and desorbed CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> recovery during CO<sub>2</sub> injection. In the first experiment, CH<sub>4</sub> adsorption occurred at 1487 psi, followed by sorption at 499 psi with four steps. In this scenario, sorbed CH<sub>4</sub> decreased from 8.6 to 5.0 mL/g. Again, after CO<sub>2</sub> injection at a pressure of 504 psi, the CO<sub>2</sub> sequestered was 10.3 mL/g while desorbed CH<sub>4</sub> was 2.9 mL/g. In the second experiment, CH<sub>4</sub> adsorption occurred at 1356 psi, followed by sorption at 487 psi with four steps. In this scenario, sorbed CH<sub>4</sub> decreased from 8.2 to 3.7 mL/g. After CO<sub>2</sub> injection at a pressure of 303 psi, the CO<sub>2</sub> sequestered was 6.8 mL/g, while desorbed CH<sub>4</sub> was 2.9 mL/g. Later, CO<sub>2</sub> was injected at a pressure of 312 psi, in which added

CO<sub>2</sub> sequestered was 4.4 mL/g while additional CH<sub>4</sub> recovery was almost zero. The EL model predicts sorbed carbon dioxide effectively but not methane.

In addition, ref 95 investigated the effectiveness of injecting CO<sub>2</sub> in enhancing CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and CH<sub>4</sub> recovery in high-rank coals (anthracite) from the South Wales coal field. Competitive sorption between CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub> in the coal surface was investigated in the designed experiment to measure their efficiencies on CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and CH<sub>4</sub> recovery using ECBM technology. Triaxial core flooding experiments with high-pressure–high-temperature (HPHT) control systems were designed and conducted in which CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> were injected in different periods at 5 MPa and a temperature of 25 °C. The results revealed that during the N<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technology application, more CH<sub>4</sub> was produced, with 93% of injected N<sub>2</sub> recovered, increasing the separation process cost. For the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technology application, 63% of the CO<sub>2</sub> injected was recovered. Furthermore, in the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM experiment, CH<sub>4</sub> recovery was 10 and 2.4 times higher than gas injected and stored. The cumulative CO<sub>2</sub> stored during the experiment is shown in Figure 5.



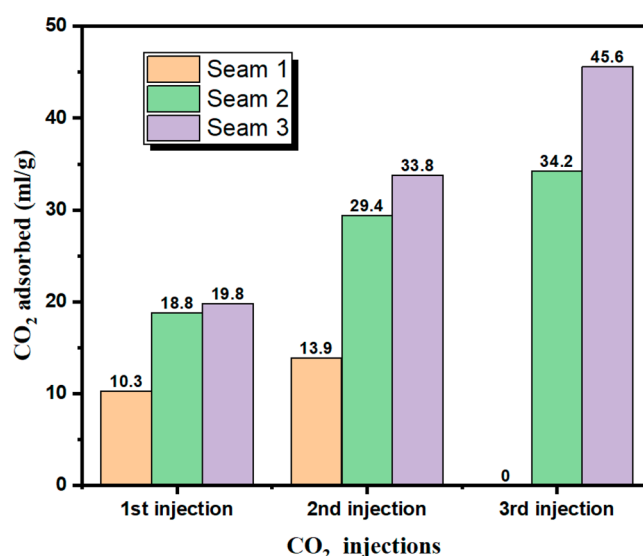
**Figure 5.** Cumulative CO<sub>2</sub> injected, produced, and sequestered. This figure was reproduced with permission from ref 95. Copyright 2017 American Chemical Society.

Moreover, ref 96 experimented on the sorption behavior of coal seams in enhancing CH<sub>4</sub> recovery and CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration after CO<sub>2</sub> injection. The experiments were carried out in three different coal seams in which, after being saturated with CH<sub>4</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> desorption by depressurization occurred before CO<sub>2</sub> injection. The coal characteristics used in the experiments are shown in Table 2. It was found that the ability of coal seams to store CO<sub>2</sub> was two to four times in volume compared to that of CH<sub>4</sub>, which agreed with previous experiments. The amount of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorbed for different subsequent CO<sub>2</sub> injected is shown in Figure 6. From Figure 6, it is seen that as the injection cycle increases, the coal adsorption capacity increases. Furthermore, CO<sub>2</sub>

**Table 2. Characteristics of Coal Seams Used in the Experiments<sup>a</sup>**

coal seams	moisture content (%)	ash content (%)	temperature condition (°C)	pressure condition (MPa)	CO <sub>2</sub> injection pressure (MPa)
seam 1	10	11.3	45	0.7	3.4
seam 2	8.7	7.8	25	2.8	3.4
seam 3	10	3.9	23.5	5.5	3.7

<sup>a</sup>Reproduced with permission from ref 96. Copyright 2008 Elsevier.



**Figure 6.** CO<sub>2</sub> adsorbed in different coal seams. This figure was reproduced with permission from ref 96. Copyright 2008 Elsevier.

high affinity is more noticeable in coal seams 2 and 3 than in coal seam 1 due to low ash content, as shown in Table 4. Due to the greater affinity of CO<sub>2</sub> for coal seams than CH<sub>4</sub>, all coal seams appeared to be excellent candidates for CH<sub>4</sub> recovery and CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in all experiments.

Furthermore, ref 97 experimented on the CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in deep unmineable coal seams in the southern Qinshui Basin in China by injecting Sc-CO<sub>2</sub>. In their experiments, different coal samples, namely CZ (bituminous coal) and YW and SH (anthracite coals) from the Shanxi Formation were used to observe the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorbed, CO<sub>2</sub> in the free state, and CO<sub>2</sub> dissolved in free water under different temperature and pressure conditions after Sc-CO<sub>2</sub>. The Dubinin–Radushkevich (D–R) model was utilized for fitting Sc-CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption data. The results revealed that most of the injected Sc-CO<sub>2</sub> was adsorbed and free gas capacity should not be neglected, whereas CO<sub>2</sub> dissolved in water was neglected. After calculating the total CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity of Qinshui Basin, the potential depth for storing CO<sub>2</sub> was 1100–1200 m due to its high porosity and permeability.

Besides that, ref 98 experimented on the CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in deep coal seams using an HPHT reactor enriched with CO<sub>2</sub>-saturated brine and coal samples, namely S1, S2, and S3, collected from the Collie Basin in the western part of Australia. They needed to analyze the interaction effects of CO<sub>2</sub>–brine on the coal structure. The experiments were conducted under similar reservoir temperature and pressure conditions of 50 °C and 20 MPa, respectively. The CO<sub>2</sub> was mixed with deionized water with a salt concentration of 5 wt % NaCl to form CO<sub>2</sub>-saturated brine injected into deep coal seams. The results revealed that after injected CO<sub>2</sub> interacts with brine, it greatly affects the coal microstructure, which causes mineral dissolution at cleat edges, thus increasing its volume. The CO<sub>2</sub>–brine interactions also increase the cleats connectivity, as confirmed in this experiment which increased from 25 to 72.4%. This shows that the space for CO<sub>2</sub> storage increased with its coal permeability for easy injection. It was concluded that when injected CO<sub>2</sub> interacts with brine, it changes the microstructure of coal, which needs to be measured on a microscale to quantify it to improve and predict the storage capacity of coal seams. A summary of different experimental studies on CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technology application to CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and CH<sub>4</sub> recovery is shown in Table 3.

## 5. MODELING AND SIMULATIONS

A simulation study is one of the essential stages which, if implemented successfully, gives the actual feasibility for predicting the future outlook of the intended operation once implemented in the actual field. Several researchers have conducted modeling and simulation studies on the CO<sub>2</sub>-

Table 3. Summary of Some Experiments on CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM Technology Applications

references	objectives	experimental conditions	key findings
26	Evaluate CO <sub>2</sub> sequestration efficiency and CH <sub>4</sub> recovery in coal seams through CO <sub>2</sub> injection.	injection pressure of 1–1.6 MPa temperature of –6 to 12 °C	CO <sub>2</sub> sequestration efficiency decreased (67.89–43.98%) at higher injection pressure, while the CH <sub>4</sub> recovery increased from 66.67 to 93.5%.
93	Effects of CO <sub>2</sub> injection in CH <sub>4</sub> recovery and CO <sub>2</sub> sequestration.	injection pressure of 6–10 MPa temperature of 37 °C	Higher injection pressure increased CO <sub>2</sub> sequestration. CH <sub>4</sub> production increased from 51.73% to over 90% at higher injection pressure (>8 MPa). High coal rank are favorites for CH <sub>4</sub> production and CO <sub>2</sub> sequestration compared to low-rank coal.
25	Investigate the CH <sub>4</sub> recovery rate and CO <sub>2</sub> sequestration in coal with high water saturation.	injection pressure of 49.4–99.7 MPa	A significant amount of CO <sub>2</sub> adsorbed in the coal surface during cyclic injection. Desorption rate plays a significant role in CH <sub>4</sub> production from coal seams. CH <sub>4</sub> recovery and CO <sub>2</sub> sequestration increased at high injection pressure and large number of injection cycle.
99	Examine the effects of CO <sub>2</sub> injection pressure on CH <sub>4</sub> replacement and CO <sub>2</sub> sequestration.	injection pressure of 0.6–10 MPa temperature of 30 °C	CH <sub>4</sub> desorption rate increased from 90.2 to 97.8 L. CO <sub>2</sub> sequestration increased from 269.2 to 322.8 L.
96	Investigate the CH <sub>4</sub> recovery after CO <sub>2</sub> injection.	injection pressure of 3.4–3.7 MPa	Coal samples store 2–4 times the amount of CO <sub>2</sub> compared to displaced CH <sub>4</sub> . CH <sub>4</sub> recovery increased from 40 to 80%.
94	CO <sub>2</sub> injection effects on CH <sub>4</sub> desorption and CO <sub>2</sub> adsorption.	injection pressure of 2.07–3.45 MPa	Extended Langmuir model can predict CO <sub>2</sub> sequestered not CH <sub>4</sub> recovered. Higher injection pressure has more effects on CO <sub>2</sub> stored than on CH <sub>4</sub> recovery.
95	Investigate the effects of injecting CO <sub>2</sub> and N <sub>2</sub> in CO <sub>2</sub> sequestration and CH <sub>4</sub> recovery.	injection pressure of 5 MPa temperature of 5 °C	More CH <sub>4</sub> is recovered during N <sub>2</sub> injection with 94% of it reproduced, which increases separation cost. 37% of injected CO <sub>2</sub> was sequestered during CO <sub>2</sub> injection with low CH <sub>4</sub> recovered compared to N <sub>2</sub> injection.

Table 4. Characteristics of Most Common Simulators for ECBM

characteristics	simulators					
	COMSOL	GEM	ECLIPSE	COMET3	SIMED II	GCOMP
multicomponent gas	✓	✓	×	✓	✓	✓
dual porosity	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	×
mixed gas diffusion	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	×
mixed gas adsorption	✓	✓	×	✓	✓	✓
dynamic permeability and porosity	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
coal swelling/shrinkage	✓	✓	×	✓	✓	✓

ECBM technology application toward decarbonization and clean energy recovery. Different analytical models have been developed, and various simulations have been done using established commercial reservoir simulators. Various commercial reservoir simulation software is used to simulate ECBM technology applications, as shown in Table 4. So, this section presents simulation verdicts in two- and three-dimensional models for the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technology application to produce CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration.

**5.1. Governing Equations.** **5.1.1. For Gas Flows.** The gas flow in CBM includes three processes: adsorption, diffusion, and seepage, which are defined by eq 1 and obey Fick's law. The injection process is assumed to be a single-phase flow because water influence is neglected. Also, the model assumes that coal has a single porosity and permeability of<sup>100–103</sup>

$$\frac{\partial m}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho_g \vec{q}_g) = Q_s \quad (1)$$

Here

$$Q_s = \pm \frac{M_g(1 - \varphi_f)}{\tau RT} (p_m - p_f) \quad (2)$$

$$\vec{q}_g = -\frac{k}{\mu} \nabla p \cdot Q_s \quad (3)$$

where  $Q_s$  represents the gas source supply for mass exchange between fracture and matrix systems, kg/(m<sup>3</sup>·s);  $k$  stands for permeability in the coal bed, m<sup>2</sup>;  $\vec{q}_g$  is the Darcy velocity vector of gas;  $\tau$  is the gas mass exchange factor between fracture and matrix systems, d;  $\mu$  is the dynamic gas viscosity, Pa·s; and  $\varphi_f$  is porosity in the fracture.

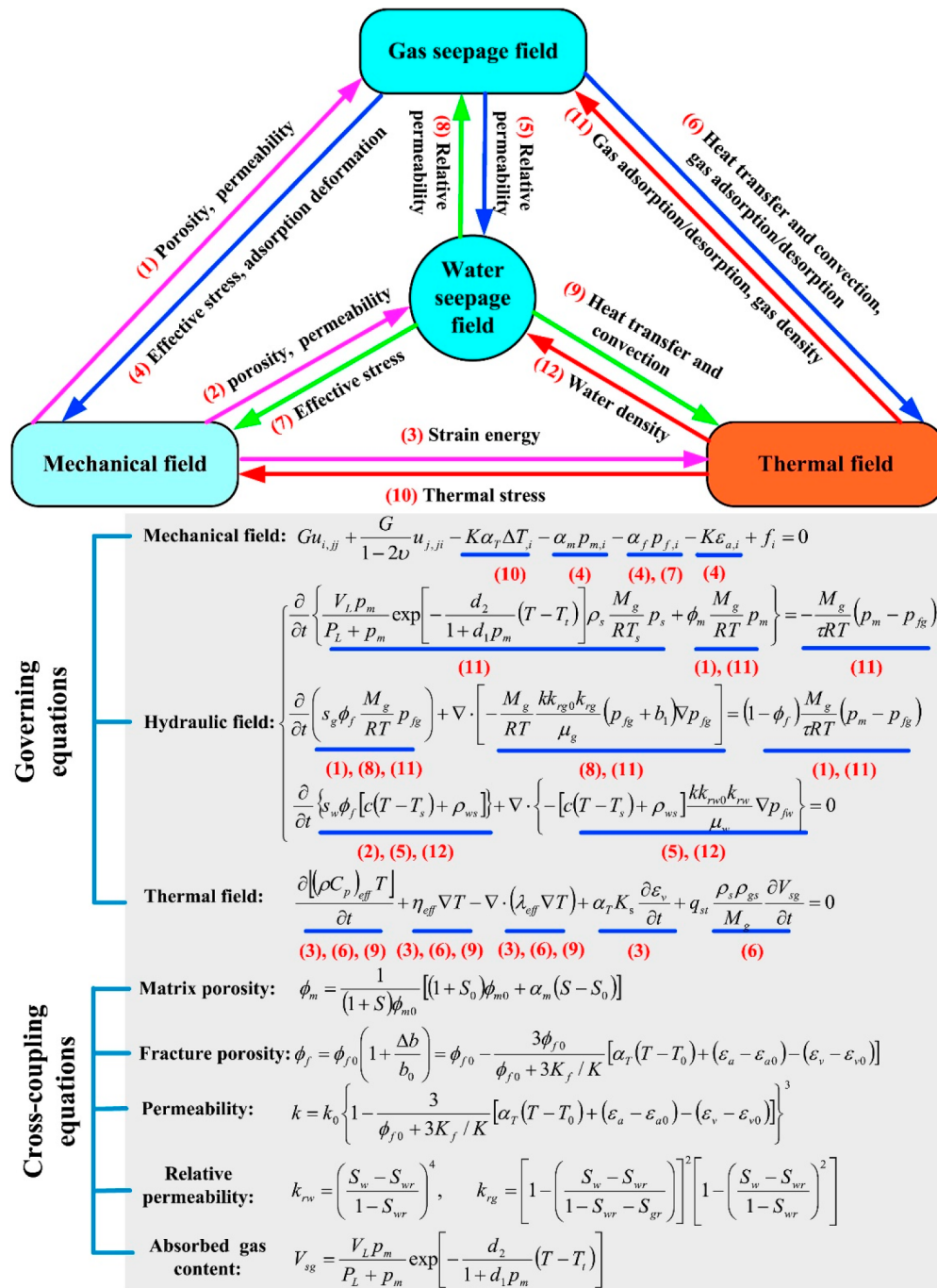
However, the mass of gas in fracture and matrix systems is defined as<sup>100–103</sup>

$$m_m = \rho_g \varphi_m + (1 - \varphi_m) \rho_{ga} \rho_c V_{cg} \quad (4)$$

$$m_f = \rho_g \varphi_f \quad (5)$$

$$V_{cg} = \frac{V_L p_m}{P_L + p_m} \exp \left[ -\frac{d_2}{1 + d_1 p_m} (T - T_i) \right] \quad (6)$$

$$\rho_g = \frac{M_g p}{RT} \quad (7)$$



**Figure 7.** Hydraulic–mechanical–thermal-coupled model, governing equations, and cross-coupling equations for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and CH<sub>4</sub> production. This figure was reproduced with permission from ref 110. Copyright 2016 Elsevier.

where  $\rho_g$  represents CO<sub>2</sub> density in coalbeds under various reservoir conditions, kg/m<sup>3</sup>; R represents the universal gas constant, J/mol·K;  $M_g$  stands for gas molecular mass, g/mol;  $p$  is pressure in the coal bed, Pa;  $T$  is temperature, K;  $\rho_{ga}$  is the density of gas under standard conditions, kg/m<sup>3</sup>;  $\rho_c$  is the density of the skeleton of coal; subscripts m and f represent matrix and fracture of the coal system;  $P_L$  represents Langmuir pressure constant, Pa;  $V_L$  represents the Langmuir volume constant, m<sup>3</sup>/kg;  $V_{cg}$  stands for adsorbed gas per unit mass of coal skeleton, m<sup>3</sup>/kg;  $T_t$  is the reference temperature during adsorption, K; and  $d_1$  is the Langmuir pressure factor, kg/m<sup>3</sup>.

By substituting eqs 2–7 into eq 4, the mass transport gas equation in the coal fracture and matrix system is obtained:<sup>100–103</sup>

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left\{ \frac{M_g p_m}{RT} \phi_m + (1 - \phi_m) \rho_{ga} \rho_c V_{cg} \right\} + \nabla \cdot \left( -\frac{M_g p_m k_m}{RT \mu} \cdot \nabla p_m \right) = \frac{M_g (1 - \phi_f)}{\tau RT} (p_m - p_f) \tag{8}$$

which is simplified into



Table 5. Comparison of Different Coupling Models for Gas Injection

model types <sup>a</sup>	key factors									references
	coal deformation	matrix fracture mass exchange	heat transfer and nonisothermal adsorption	competitive sorption	water	dynamic diffusion	diffusion	desorption heat	heat rupture	
GM	✓	✓				✓	✓			111
HM	✓				✓					112
GMT	✓		✓							113
GMT	✓		✓	✓			✓	✓		114
GMT	✓		✓	✓					✓	115
THM	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓		116
THM	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓		110
THM	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		117

<sup>a</sup>HM: Hydromechanical; GMT: thermal-gas-mechanical; THM: thermo-hydro-mechanical; GM: gas-mechanical.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left( \frac{M_g p_f}{RT} \varphi_f \right) + \nabla \cdot \left( -\frac{M_g p_f k_f}{RT\mu} \cdot \nabla p_f \right) \\ = -\frac{M_g (1 - \varphi_f)}{\tau RT} (p_m - p_f) \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

**5.1.2. For Coal Deformation.** The Navier–Stokes equation is used to describe the space balance in coal by neglecting inertia force effects, as shown in eq 10.<sup>100,101,103–105</sup>

$$\sigma_{ij} + F_i = 0 \quad (10)$$

where  $\sigma_{ij}$  represents strain tensor components, Pa; and  $F_i$  stands for force component, N.

Then the geometric equation explaining the displacement and strain components of coal is expressed as

$$\varepsilon_{ij,j} = \frac{1}{2}(u_{ij} + u_{ji}) \quad (11)$$

where  $\varepsilon_{ij,j}$  is the strain tensor component, m; and  $u_{ij}$  is the displacement component, m.

Since pressure and temperature changes and CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption occur in coal, the coal is subject to stress, resulting in a strain that can be derived from Hooke's law. Then the stress–strain relationship in coal is given as<sup>100,101,103–105</sup>

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon_{ij} = \frac{1}{2G} \sigma_{ij} - \left( \frac{1}{6G} - \frac{1}{9K} \right) \sigma_{kk} \delta_{ij} + \frac{\alpha}{3K} p_m \delta_{ij} + \frac{\beta}{3K} p_f \delta_{ij} \\ + \frac{\alpha_T}{3} (T - T_0) \delta_{ij} + \frac{\varepsilon_s}{3} \delta_{ij} \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

Here  $G = \frac{D}{(2+2\nu)}$ ,  $D = \frac{1}{[1/E_s + 1/(aK_n)]}$ ,  $\alpha = 1 - K/K_s$ ,  $\beta = 1 - K/(aK_n)$ , and  $\varepsilon_s = \alpha_{sg} V_{cg}$ , where  $K_n$  is coal fracture stiffness, Pa/m;  $G$  stands for the shear modulus stress of coal, Pa;  $D$  represents the elastic modulus of coal, Pa;  $K$  stands for the bulk modulus of coal, Pa;  $a$  is fracture spacing, m;  $\alpha_{sg}$  is adsorption strain coefficient, kg/m<sup>3</sup>;  $\varepsilon_s$  is matrix adsorption coal strain;  $\alpha$  represents Biot coefficient of the matrix system;  $E_s$  represents skeleton Young's modulus, Pa; and  $\alpha_T$  stands for thermal expansion coefficient of coal, 1/K.

By combining eqs 10–12, the deformation equation for coal is obtained as shown below:

$$\begin{aligned} Gu_{i,jj} + \frac{G}{1-2\nu} u_{j,ji} - \alpha p_{m,i} - \beta p_{f,i} - K\varepsilon_{s,i} - K\alpha_T T_i + F_i \\ = 0 \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

**5.1.3. For Thermal Fields.** After the injection of CO<sub>2</sub> into the coal seams, the temperature change ensues because of heat

exchange between coal and CO<sub>2</sub> and others released from the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption process. An internal heat source can lower the coalbed temperature field through irregular heat conduction. The governing equation for the thermal field during CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration is determined by applying the law of conservation of energy, as shown in eq 14:<sup>101,103,105–107</sup>

$$\left\{ \begin{aligned} \frac{\partial((\rho C_p)_c T)}{\partial t} + \eta \nabla T - \nabla \cdot (\lambda_c \nabla T) + K\alpha_T T \frac{\partial \varepsilon_s}{\partial t} \\ + q_{st} \frac{\rho_c \rho_{ga}}{M_g} \frac{\partial V_{cg}}{\partial t} = 0 \\ (\rho C_p)_c = (1 - \varphi_f - \varphi_m) \rho_s C_s + (\varphi_f + \varphi_m) \rho_g C_g \\ \eta = -\frac{k_f}{\mu} \left( 1 + \frac{b_1}{p_f} \right) \nabla p_f \rho_g C_g \\ \lambda_c = (1 - \varphi_f - \varphi_m) \lambda_s + (\varphi_f + \varphi_m) \lambda_g \end{aligned} \right. \quad (14)$$

where  $(\rho C_p)_c$  is the effective specific heat capacity of coal mixed with CO<sub>2</sub>, J/m<sup>3</sup>·K;  $C$  is specific heat capacity, J/m<sup>3</sup>·K;  $\eta$  is the convection factor, J/m<sup>2</sup>·s;  $q_{st}$  is isosteric heat of adsorption, J/mol; subscript g represents CO<sub>2</sub>; and  $\lambda$  is thermal conductivity, W/m·K.

**5.2. Cross Coupling.** The permeability and porosity of the coal seams influence CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in deep unmineable coal seams. Internal stress and intrinsic coal features influence the dual porosity characteristics of coal seam structure and initial permeability of matrix and fracture systems. When CO<sub>2</sub> is injected, the porosity and permeability of the coal seams change depending on the amount of injected gas and temperature of the coal seams, which are expressed as<sup>100,101,103,105,108,109</sup>

$$\varphi_m = \varphi_{m0} - \frac{\alpha}{K} \cdot \frac{1}{\frac{b_0}{a_0 K_f} + \frac{1}{K}} (\alpha_T \Delta T + \Delta \varepsilon_s - \varepsilon_v) \quad (15)$$

$$k_m = k_{m0} \left( 1 - \frac{\alpha}{\varphi_{m0} K} \cdot \frac{(\alpha_T \Delta T + \Delta \varepsilon_s - \varepsilon_v)}{b_0/a_0 K_f + 1/K} \right)^3 \quad (16)$$

$$\varphi_f = \varphi_{f0} - \frac{3\varphi_{f0}}{\varphi_{f0} + \frac{3K_f}{K}} (\alpha_T \Delta T + \Delta \varepsilon_s - \varepsilon_v) \quad (17)$$

$$k_f = k_{f0} \left( 1 - \frac{3}{\varphi_{f0} + 3K_f/K} (\alpha_T \Delta T + \Delta \varepsilon_s - \varepsilon_v) \right)^3 \quad (18)$$

where  $\varepsilon_v$  represent strain volume and subscript 0 represents initial value.

Combining eqs 8, 9, 13, and 14, the hydraulic–mechanical–thermal-coupled model is obtained, as shown in Figure 7. The hydraulic–mechanical–thermal-coupled process in coal seams occurs simultaneously in which pressure, temperature, and stress changes affect each other. The stress field controls gas seepage velocity by controlling coal seam porosity and permeability. In contrast, gas desorption and adsorption change coal skeleton strain, gas seepage velocity affects heat exchange transfer in the coal seam, and temperature strain affects coal seam porosity and permeability. The coupling term relates physical field factors to interact with gas seepage, coal deformation, and thermal equations.<sup>101,103,105</sup> Different established coupling models for gas injection are shown in Table 5.

Reference 118 predicted the storage capacity of the Ishikari coal field by using data collected from laboratory analysis, well logs, and water injection falloff tests. The Ishikari model successfully predicted the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> that can be sequestered in huff and puff injection and multiwell tests before the pilot test. Simulation analysis revealed that 72% of injected CO<sub>2</sub> during the huff and puff test could be stored in the coalbed during the pilot test, whereas 96% of injected CO<sub>2</sub> could be stored for the multiwell test during the pilot test. It was predicted that  $1.2 \times 10^6$  tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> could be sequestered in the Ishikari coal field. On the other hand, the CH<sub>4</sub> production rate increased from 500 to 1300 m<sup>3</sup>/day during CO<sub>2</sub> injection. Also, ref 101 established a numerical model to investigate the storage capacity of coalbeds by considering different factors. Their hydraulic–mechanical–thermal-coupled model considered dual porosity characteristics of coal seams and non-isothermal conditions. The assumptions used during model development are the following: (1) Free gas occurs in fracture and matrix. (2) Coal seam matrix and fracture systems have steady structures having equal initial porosity and gas pressure. (3) The gas in the coal seams is assumed to be an ideal gas. (4) The fracture and matrix system are governed by different transport equations, but exchange occurs in between. (5) The sorption process occurs instantaneously with the single gas component considered. (6) Coal deformation is a reversible process. It was revealed that after CO<sub>2</sub> injection, the permeability was reduced due to swelling and shrinkage of coal seams caused by pressure increase and matrix expansion caused by the rise in temperature. Furthermore, it was discovered that the higher the initial temperature of the coal seam, the less CO<sub>2</sub> adsorbed, and in the presence or development of fractures in the coal seam, the higher the CO<sub>2</sub> seepage rate and, therefore, CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration.

Moreover, ref 101 modeled and optimized CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and CH<sub>4</sub> recovery in deep unmineable coal seams by injecting CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> mixtures. A developed improved thermo-hydro-mechanical (THM) model involved complex interaction between the ternary gas systems (CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>) such as heat transfer, mass transport between two-phase flow, coal deformation, and sorption process in coal seams. After the validation, the model was used to simulate the most important parameter for gas mixture-enhanced coalbed methane (GM-ECBM) technology application. The developed model assumed that (1) Coal seam was considered to have elastic single permeability and dual porosity between fractures and matrix. (2) The ternary gas obeys the ideal gas law. (3) Ternary gases are adsorbed on the inner surface of the matrix while free gases and water migrate through the fractures. (4) Ternary gases and water

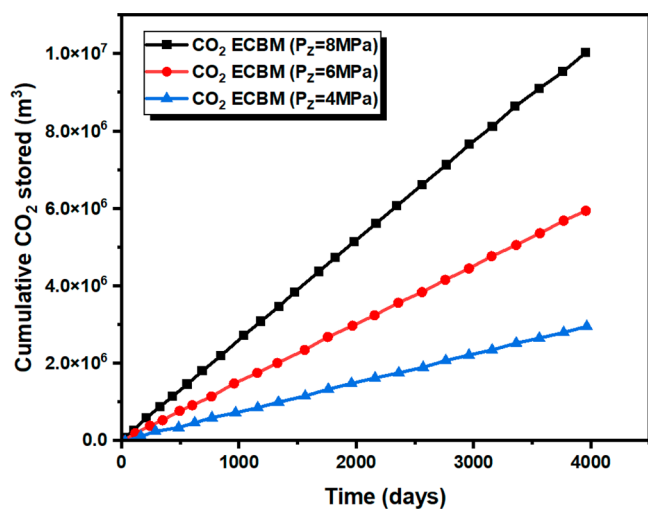
mixtures occupy the coal seam fractures. (5) The mass transport of ternary gases in coal seams occurs in three steps consecutively, i.e., first, CH<sub>4</sub> desorbs from the coal surface, obeying the modified Langmuir equation, and then flows through fractures sustaining Darcy's law. Finally, CH<sub>4</sub> flows to the production well to satisfy Darcy's law. The results revealed that after injecting the CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> mixture into coal seams, cumulative CH<sub>4</sub> production increased compared to conventional production, with cumulative CO<sub>2</sub> sequestered reaching to  $13.83 \times 10^6$  m<sup>3</sup> for 6000 days, with an optimal injection ratio of 15:85 for CO<sub>2</sub>:N<sub>2</sub>. Also, ternary gas injection increases permeability after CH<sub>4</sub> desorption in the initial days; then, permeability declined rapidly due to coal swelling after CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption. However, the main challenge was the N<sub>2</sub> early breakthrough which can lead to increased costs during gas processing. It was suggested that to increase the amount of sequestered CO<sub>2</sub>, the ratio of CO<sub>2</sub> in the injector stream should be greater than N<sub>2</sub>; nevertheless, it will result in lower CH<sub>4</sub> production.

Furthermore, ref 119 modeled and simulated CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration potentiality in deep unmineable coal seams at the Allison unit for CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM pilot tests. In their study, COMET3 was used for reservoir modeling and simulation in which the future performance of the coal field was predicted through history matching. The results revealed that after injecting  $1.8 \times 10^8$  tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> into coal seams,  $1.3 \times 10^8$  tonnes were sequestered. The CH<sub>4</sub> production increase could help offset the associated costs for carbon capture, separation, and transportation to make the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM project feasible. In addition, there was clear evidence of permeability reduction during CO<sub>2</sub> injection, which will hinder CH<sub>4</sub> production and make the project uneconomical. Future researchers need to consider good ways of preventing permeability reduction effects. Also, ref 109 established a fully coupled hydromechanical model to investigate CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in deep unmineable coal seams by considering various mechanisms (cross couplings). The developed model was validated by using the multiphysics software COMSOL. The results revealed that the newly developed model could model long-term CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in coal seams at the early injection stage. Most of the injected gas was stored in the adsorbed state ( $\sim 14.1 \times 10^5$  m<sup>3</sup>); after that, CO<sub>2</sub> was stored in a free state ( $\sim 8 \times 10^5$  m<sup>3</sup>). In addition, it was found that long-term CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration is better in coal seams with higher CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion attenuation coefficients, especially when the model considers gas dynamic diffusion.

Moreover, ref 120 used the coal inventory calculation (KVD) model to estimate the CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration capacity of deep unmineable coal seams of the Munster Cretaceous Basin of North Rhine-Westphalia, Germany. By assuming that 40% of the total area is accessible, the CH<sub>4</sub> recovery was estimated to be 80% of the maximum CO<sub>2</sub> stored of 160 million tonnes for coal seams below the 3000 m depth. Due to the low permeability of the study area at larger depth, the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technology applications are less successful. It was found that deep unmineable coal seams with <1 mD permeability and depth of >1500 m are not recommended for CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technology application because low permeability reduces injection rate. Hence, to meet the minimum injection rate, it will require drilling multiple wells, which is expensive and will make a project uneconomical. Thus, more research is needed to innovate injection technology of CO<sub>2</sub> in coal seams with <1 mD permeability and depth of >1500 m. In addition, ref 121 investigated the CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration potentiality and CH<sub>4</sub> production using a 3D stochastic reservoir model and

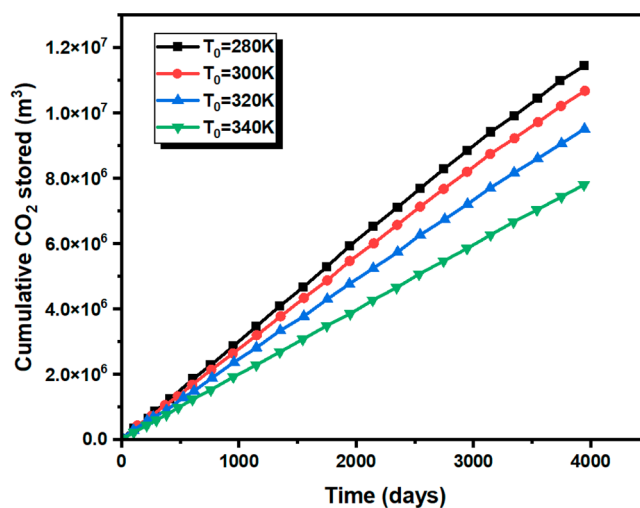
simulations of the Big George coal, Powder River Basin, Wyoming, USA. The simulation results revealed that 99% of the total injected CO<sub>2</sub> was sequestered, with CH<sub>4</sub> production increased 5 times compared to that before CO<sub>2</sub> injection.

In addition, ref 103 did a numerical simulation on CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and CH<sub>4</sub> recovery using the multiphysics software COMSOL in deep unmineable coal seams utilizing CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technology. The hydraulic–mechanical–thermal-coupled model built considered gas seepage and adsorption, coal deformation, and thermal exchange. The assumptions used in model development were the following: (1) The coal seam is homogeneous isotropic. (2) The coal matrix deformation is elastic (small deformation). (3) Coal bed methane is evenly distributed. (4) The gas in coal is ideal. (5) Pore pressure is negative, whereas tensile stress is positive. The injection pressure and initial reservoir temperature effects on CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration were evaluated. It was found that the higher injection pressure results in higher CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration, whereas the higher initial reservoir temperature results in lower CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration, as shown in Figures 8 and 9,<sup>103</sup> respectively. On the other hand, initial low reservoir temperature condition results in higher CH<sub>4</sub> production, while high injection pressure results in high CH<sub>4</sub> production.



**Figure 8.** Injection pressure effects on CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration. This figure was reproduced with permission from ref 103. Copyright 2018 Elsevier.

Furthermore, ref 122 investigated CH<sub>4</sub> recovery and CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in low-permeability coal reservoirs in the southeastern Qinshui Basin, Shanxi Province, China, using a numerical simulator. The developed model assumed that (1) Coal is assumed to have dual porosity having a matrix and fracture system. (2) Migration of gas in the matrix ensures Fick's law. (3) Water and gas flows in the fracture systems are laminar and follow Darcy's law. (4) The coal seams are isothermal, i.e., the temperature effect was ignored. A COMET3 commercial reservoir simulator was used in their study for numerical computations. The results revealed that 99.9% of injected CO<sub>2</sub> was sequestered. Also, ref 123 did 3D numerical simulations on assessing the performance of horizontal and vertical injectors in sequestering CO<sub>2</sub> in deep unmineable coal seams located in Indonesia Basins using CMG-GEM. The results revealed that a horizontal well sequestered CO<sub>2</sub> three times compared to a vertical well. Several sorption models have been applied during modeling and simulation in deep coal mineable seams during



**Figure 9.** Initial reservoir temperature influence on CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration. This figure was reproduced with permission from ref 103. Copyright 2018 Elsevier.

CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technology application for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and CH<sub>4</sub> production purposes, as shown in Table 6. However, it has been found that the most accurate model to estimate the amount of adsorbed gas in coal seams is the D–A model compared to others because it may derive isotherms for any temperature employing a single isotherm, making it easier to describe injection/depletion-induced temperature change.<sup>124</sup> A summary of modeling and simulation studies on CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technology application for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration is shown in Table 7.

In Table 6V is adsorbed gas volume, m<sup>3</sup>/kg;  $V_L$  is the volume constant of the Langmuir equation, namely, the adsorbed gas volume under saturated pressure, m<sup>3</sup>/kg;  $P$  is the pressure of the gas, MPa;  $b$  is the pressure gas constant, MPa<sup>-1</sup>;  $c_1$  is the temperature coefficient, K<sup>-1</sup>;  $c_2$  is the pressure coefficient, Pa<sup>-1</sup>;  $p_m = p_{mg1} + p_{mg2}$ , which is the gas pressure in the coal matrix, Pa;  $T_{ref}$  is reference temperature, K;  $R$  is the universal molar gas constant, J mol<sup>-1</sup>K<sup>-1</sup>;  $T$  is the temperature of the adsorbate, K;  $E_g$  is the characteristic energy of the adsorbent;  $\beta$  is the affinity coefficient of the adsorbate;  $n$  is the structural heterogeneity parameter;  $n$  is the available space for adsorption,  $n_0$  is the maximum number of available sites for adsorption;  $P_0$  is the saturation pressure;  $\rho_{free}$  is the density of gas at the free phase;  $\rho_{adsorbed}$  is the density of gas at the adsorbed phase;  $\pi_i^*$  is the decreased spreading pressure of component  $i$ ;  $n(P)$  is adsorption of the pure component at pressure  $P$ ;  $A$  is the adsorbent surface area.

## 6. FIELD APPLICATIONS

Notwithstanding various theories, experiments, a few models and simulations, and a few pilot tests exploring CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technology application on CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and enhancing CH<sub>4</sub> recovery, there has been no full field implementations of this technology. This is accredited to numerous challenges, such as permeability reduction due to swelling and shrinkages after CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption into the coal surface and reduction of fracture pore space, resulting in a lower production rate and difficulty injecting CO<sub>2</sub>. Another big challenge is an uneconomical issue, regardless of helping to preserve the environment through CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration. Some major pilot tests where CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technology has been executed are elucidated in this section.

Table 6. Comparison of Gas Sorption Models for Deep Unmineable Coal Seams

model name	characteristics	equations	limitations	references
		Sorption Models for Single Gas Components		
Langmuir model	monolayer adsorption process; adsorption only occurs when empty adsorption sites are available	$\frac{V_L P}{P_L + P}$	does not consider the heterogeneous surface; does not work for a complex system with multiple adsorbents; did not consider temperature effects which are an important factor in the adsorption process.	125
BET model	multilayer adsorption process	$n = \frac{n_0 c \left(\frac{p}{p_0}\right)}{\left(1 - \left(\frac{p}{p_0}\right)\right) \left(1 + (C - 1) \left(\frac{p}{p_0}\right)\right)}$	model assumes that there is no interaction between the adsorbent surface and adsorbate molecules; did not consider temperature effects, which are an important factor in the adsorption process; limited to homogeneous adsorbents	126
Dubinin–Astakhov (D–A) model	micropore volume filling	$V = V_0 \exp \left\{ - \left( \frac{RT}{E_g} \ln \frac{P}{P_0} \right)^n \right\}$	model works only for adsorbate with low adsorption energies; not suitable for the chemisorption process; limited temperature dependency	127, 128
		Sorption Models for Multiple Gas Components		
ideal adsorbed solution (IAS) theory	describes the adsorption behavior of components in a mixture onto a solid adsorbent surface	$\pi_i^* = \frac{z_i A}{RT} = \int_0^P \frac{n_i(P)}{P} dP$	it does not consider heterogeneous surfaces; not suitable for nonideal adsorption systems; no surface coverage dependency	129
high-pressure Langmuir model	incorporates the influence of high pressures on adsorption behavior	$V = \frac{V_L}{P_L + P} \left( 1 - \frac{\rho_{\text{free}}}{\rho_{\text{adsorbed}}} \right)$	incomplete description of multilayer adsorption; it does not consider heterogeneous surfaces; limited temperature dependency	130, 131
extended Langmuir model I	gases mixtures are evenly distributed on the adsorbent	$V_i = \frac{V_L b_i P_i}{1 + \sum_{j=1}^2 b_j P_j}$	not suitable for strongly adsorbing systems; limited temperature dependency; no interaction between adsorbed layers	132
extended Langmuir model II	nonisothermal adsorption process	$V_{\text{sigi}} = \frac{V_L b_i P_{\text{mgi}}}{1 + \sum_{j=1}^2 b_j P_{\text{mgi}}} \exp \left\{ - \frac{c_i}{1 + c_i p_{\text{ref}}} (T - T_{\text{ref}}) \right\}$	it does not consider heterogeneous surfaces; not suitable in systems with nonuniform or varying adsorbate–adsorbent interactions; not suitable for strongly adsorbing systems	113

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Table 7. Summary of Modeling and Simulations Studies on CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM Technology Applications

author(s)	objectives	software or model used	key findings
118	predicting the storage capacity of the Ishikari coal field using laboratory data	Ishikari model	72% of injected CO <sub>2</sub> gas can be stored during the huff and puff test. 96% of injected CO <sub>2</sub> can be stored for a multwell test. In general, it was predicted that 1.2 × 10 <sup>6</sup> tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> can be stored in the Ishikari coal field. The CH <sub>4</sub> production rate increased from 500 to 1300 m <sup>3</sup> /day during CO <sub>2</sub> injection.
101	to investigate the storage capacity of coalbeds by considering the hydraulic–mechanical–thermal-coupled model and dual porosity characteristics of coal seams and nonisothermal conditions	hydraulic–mechanical–thermal-coupled model	After CO <sub>2</sub> injection, the permeability was reduced due to swelling and shrinkage of coal seams caused by pressure increase and matrix expansion caused by the rise in temperature. The higher the initial temperature of the coal seam, the less CO <sub>2</sub> adsorbed.
101	optimizing CO <sub>2</sub> sequestration and CH <sub>4</sub> recovery in deep unmineable coal seams by injecting CO <sub>2</sub> /N <sub>2</sub> mixtures	improved thermo-hydro-mechanical (THM) model	Injecting the CO <sub>2</sub> /N <sub>2</sub> mixture into coal seams, cumulative CH <sub>4</sub> production increased compared to conventional production, with cumulative CO <sub>2</sub> sequestered reaching to 13.83 × 10 <sup>6</sup> m <sup>3</sup> for 6000 days, with an optimal injection ratio of 15:85 for CO <sub>2</sub> :N <sub>2</sub> . To increase CO <sub>2</sub> sequestration, the injector stream CO <sub>2</sub> ratio should be bigger than N <sub>2</sub> ; however, it will limit CH <sub>4</sub> generation.
119	simulated CO <sub>2</sub> sequestration potentiality in deep unmineable coal seams at the Allison unit	COMET3	–1.8 × 10 <sup>8</sup> tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> were injected into coal seams with 1.3 × 10 <sup>8</sup> tonnes sequestered. There was clear evidence of permeability reduction during CO <sub>2</sub> injection, which will hinder CH <sub>4</sub> production and make the project uneconomical.
109	establish a fully coupled hydromechanical model to investigate CO <sub>2</sub> sequestration in deep unmineable coal seams by considering various storage mechanisms	COMSOL	Most CO <sub>2</sub> stored in the adsorbed state (~14.1 × 10 <sup>5</sup> m <sup>3</sup> ). Other injected CO <sub>2</sub> was stored as the free state (~8 × 10 <sup>5</sup> m <sup>3</sup> ).
120	estimating the CO <sub>2</sub> sequestration capacity of deep unmineable coal seams of the Munster Cretaceous Basin of North Rhine-Westphalia, Germany	coal inventory calculation (KVD) model	CH <sub>4</sub> recovery was estimated to be 80% of the maximum CO <sub>2</sub> stored of 160 million tonnes for coal seams. Deep unmineable coal seams with <1 mD permeability and depth of >1500 m are not recommended for CO <sub>2</sub> -ECBM technology application because low permeability reduces injection rate.
121	to investigate the CO <sub>2</sub> sequestration potentiality and CH <sub>4</sub> production in coal seams	3D stochastic reservoir model	99% of the total injected CO <sub>2</sub> was sequestered, with CH <sub>4</sub> production increased 5 times compared to that before CO <sub>2</sub> injection.
103	to investigate the CO <sub>2</sub> sequestration potentiality and CH <sub>4</sub> production in coal seams	COMSOL	Cumulative CO <sub>2</sub> stored increased as the injection pressure increased, i.e., At 8 MPa the CO <sub>2</sub> stored was 1 × 10 <sup>7</sup> m <sup>3</sup> while at 4 MPa cumulative CO <sub>2</sub> sequestered was 2 × 10 <sup>6</sup> m <sup>3</sup> . Low reservoir temperature results in high CO <sub>2</sub> storage compared to high temperature, i.e., 1 × 10 <sup>7</sup> m <sup>3</sup> at 280 K and 6.1 × 10 <sup>6</sup> m <sup>3</sup> at 340 K.
122	to examine the CH <sub>4</sub> recovery and CO <sub>2</sub> sequestration in low-permeability coal reservoirs in the southeastern Qinshui Basin, Shanxi Province, China	COMET3	99.9% of injected CO <sub>2</sub> was sequestered.
123	to assess the performance of horizontal and vertical injectors on sequestering CO <sub>2</sub> in deep unmineable coal seams located in Indonesia Basins	CMG-GEM	Horizontal well sequestered CO <sub>2</sub> three times compared to a vertical well.

Table 8. Summary of Global Pilot Tests of CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM Technology Applications

field location	coal rank	CO <sub>2</sub> phase injected	challenges	CO <sub>2</sub> sequestered	sensors	monitoring techniques	references
Deep Mannville coal, Mikwan area, near Red Deer, Alberta, Canada, February 2022 to March 4, 2022	bituminous	CO <sub>2</sub>	permeability reduction	1512 tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> were injected for 8 days			150
Marshall County Coalfield, USA, September 2009 to December 2013	bituminous	CO <sub>2</sub>	pump failure, permeability reduction, early CO <sub>2</sub> breakthrough	4500 tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> were injected with 78.2% sequestered	soil gas monitoring, seismic and tiltmeter observations, produced water and gas, ground and streamwater monitoring		133
San Juan County coal field, USA, April 1995 to August 2001	bituminous	liquid CO <sub>2</sub>	permeability reduction by 18%	1.5 × 10 <sup>8</sup> tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> were injected with 1.1 × 10 <sup>9</sup> tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> sequestered	gas composition		119
Ishikari coal field, Hokkaido, Japan, late 2004 to September 2007	high-volatile bituminous	liquid CO <sub>2</sub>	well damage due to fine coal particle migration, permeability reduction from 1 to 0.08 mD during injection and 0.01 mD during shut-in	800 tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> were injected with 98% sequestered	pressure and gas composition		134–136
Fenn Big Valley, Alberta, Canada, 1992–1993	high-volatile C/B bituminous	liquid CO <sub>2</sub>	permeability reduction	201 tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> were injected with 70% stored	pressure and gas composition		137,138
Liulin County, Shanxi Province, China, September 2011 to March 2012	medium-volatile bituminous	liquid CO <sub>2</sub>	permeability decline during injection, early CO <sub>2</sub> breakthrough	460 tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> were injected with 88% sequestered	U-tube system, vertical well monitoring placed 20 m from the injector		139
Southern Shizhuang, Qinshui Basin, China, April–June 2004	anthracite	liquid CO <sub>2</sub>	permeability decline during injection, early CO <sub>2</sub> breakthrough, burst of tubings, failure of pumps due to plugging	192 metric tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> were injected in 13 days, with 30% stored in the first month; then, stored CO <sub>2</sub> increased to 45%.	pressure and gas composition, water chemistry		28
Northern Shizhuang, Qinshui Basin, China, April 2010 to May 2010	anthracite	liquid CO <sub>2</sub>	permeability decline during injection, early CO <sub>2</sub> breakthrough	233.6 metric tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> were injected, with 51% stored.	pressure and gas composition		140
Northern Shizhuang, Qinshui Basin, China, 2013–2015	anthracite	liquid CO <sub>2</sub>	permeability reduction; early CO <sub>2</sub> breakthrough	4491 tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> were injected with approximately 70% stored	water sampling, transient electromagnetic		141
San Juan Basin, USA, July 2008 to August 2009	bituminous	CO <sub>2</sub>	permeability reduction	16 699 tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> were injected with approximately 80% stored	water chemistry, gas composition		142
Wabash County, USA, June 2008 to January 2009	high-volatile bituminous	liquid CO <sub>2</sub>	permeability reduction	0.378 tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> sequestered from 92.3 tonnes of injected CO <sub>2</sub>	groundwater CO <sub>2</sub> levels, atmospheric shallow		143, 144
Central Appalachian Basin, USA, January 2009 to February 2009	bituminous	CO <sub>2</sub>	permeability reduction	907.185 tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> were injected with 65% sequestered	pressure and gas composition		133, 145
Tuscaloosa County, USA, June 2010 to August 2010	bituminous	liquid CO <sub>2</sub>	permeability reduction	252 tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> were injected with greater than 50% stored	water and gas composition, pressure logging		146, 147
Buchanan County, United States, July 2015 to September 2017	bituminous	CO <sub>2</sub>	permeability reduction	12 032 tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> were injected with 87% stored	microseismic and surface deformation measurement, gas/water composition, tracers/isotopes, well logging		146
Kaniow village, Poland, August 2004 to May 2005	high-volatile bituminous	liquid CO <sub>2</sub>	permeability reduction	689 tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> were injected with 62.8 tonnes stored	water chemistry, gas composition, isotopes		148, 149
RECOPOL, Silesian Basin of Poland, July 2005 to June 2005	bituminous coal seams	CO <sub>2</sub>	permeability reduction	760 tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> were injected	tracers/isotopes, geochemical		151
MOVECBM, Velenje coal mine (Slovenia)	lignite	CO <sub>2</sub>	permeability reduction	0.0057 tonnes were injected for 26 h	tracers/isotopes, geochemical		151
CARBOLAB, Montsacro Pit in Asturias (North of Spain), 2009–2013	bituminous coal seams	CO <sub>2</sub>	permeability reduction	0.12 tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> were injected for 2 months	stress-state analysis, geochemical, passive seismic, geophysical		151, 152

A pilot test was carried out in the USA to demonstrate the effectiveness and economics of using horizontal wells in CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and CH<sub>4</sub> production in deep unmineable coal seams by using ECBM technology in Marshall County, West Virginia. 4500 tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> were injected at a rate of 7.63–8.39 tonnes per day at an injection pressure of 6.8–7.7 MPa. It was revealed that approximately 78.2% of the CO<sub>2</sub> injected was sequestered. The major challenges faced were pump failure during injection and permeability decline caused by coal swelling after CO<sub>2</sub> adsorbed into the coal surface. Also, it was found that down-dip drilling is not suitable for CBM wells.<sup>133</sup> Furthermore, a field trial in San Juan county, New Mexico, revealed that injecting CO<sub>2</sub> in the liquid phase during CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM in the Allison unit CBM site is possible. In this pilot test,  $1.5 \times 10^8$  tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> were injected with  $1.1 \times 10^8$  tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> sequestered. In addition, it was found that 18% of the permeability of formation was reduced after CO<sub>2</sub> injection, which creates difficulty in the injection process and CH<sub>4</sub> production.<sup>119</sup>

Moreover, another field test was conducted at Ishikari coal field, Hokkaido, in Japan, where approximately 800 tonnes of liquid CO<sub>2</sub> were injected at a rate of 1.7–3.8 tonnes per day with a bottom pressure range of 15.5–19 MPa. It was found that 98% of injected CO<sub>2</sub> was sequestered, and CH<sub>4</sub> production increased.<sup>134–136</sup> Furthermore, in Fenn Big Valley, Alberta, Canada, 201 tonnes of liquid CO<sub>2</sub> were injected at a rate of 48–96 tonnes per day at a maximum injection pressure of 2.7–6.1 MPa. It was found that more than 70% of injected CO<sub>2</sub> was sequestered, and CH<sub>4</sub> production increased compared to conventional production techniques.<sup>137,138</sup> Also, in Liulin County, Shanxi Province, China, a pilot test was conducted to investigate the CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration effectiveness in deep unmineable coal seams using a multilateral horizontal injection well. 460 tonnes of liquid CO<sub>2</sub> were injected for 70 days at an injection rate of 48 tonnes per day at a bottom hole pressure of 5.5 MPa. It was reported that 12% of injected CO<sub>2</sub> was sequestered, with the rest recovered with CH<sub>4</sub>.<sup>139</sup>

Additionally, 192 tonnes of liquid CO<sub>2</sub> were injected at South Qinshui, Shanxi, China, for 13 days at an injection rate of 36–54 tonnes per day at a maximum injection pressure of 6.7 MPa. It was revealed that in the first 13 days, 30% of injected CO<sub>2</sub> was sequestered, and then later CO<sub>2</sub> stored increased to 45%.<sup>28</sup> In addition, 233.6 tonnes of liquid CO<sub>2</sub> were injected in Northern Shizhuang, Qinshui Basin, China, at a maximum injection pressure of 7 MPa. It was revealed that 51% of injected CO<sub>2</sub> was sequestered.<sup>140</sup> Moreover, in Northern Shizhuang, Qinshui Basin, China, a pilot test was conducted in which 4491 tonnes of liquid CO<sub>2</sub> were injected for 460 days at an injection rate of 30–31.2 tonnes per day with a maximum injection pressure of 6.2–6.7 MPa. It was found that 70% of injected gas was sequestered.<sup>141</sup> In addition, a pilot test was conducted in Pump Canyon, San Juan Basin, New Mexico, to investigate CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration. 16 699 tonnes of liquid CO<sub>2</sub> were injected at  $1.06 \times 10^5$  to  $1.4 \times 10^4$  tonnes daily with a bottomhole pressure (BHP) of 7.7 MPa. It was revealed that 80% of injected CO<sub>2</sub> was sequestered.<sup>142</sup> Further, in Wabash County, United States, 92.3 tonnes of liquid CO<sub>2</sub> were injected at a rate of 0.93 tonnes per day with a maximum injection pressure of 5.34 MPa. The results revealed that 0.387 tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> were sequestered, which was very low compared with the predicted one from the Langmuir isotherm.<sup>143,144</sup>

Besides that, a pilot test was conducted in the Central Appalachian Basin, United States, in which 907.185 tonnes of

CO<sub>2</sub> were injected at a rate of 36–45 tonnes per day in the initial days and then later decreased to 20 tonnes per day at a maximum injection pressure of 6.9 MPa. It was revealed that 65% of injected CO<sub>2</sub> was stored.<sup>133,145</sup> Also, 252 tonnes of liquid CO<sub>2</sub> were injected in Tuscaloosa County, Alabama, United States, at an injection rate of 113–136 tonnes per day with a bottom hole pressure of 7.1 MPa. It was found that >50% of injected CO<sub>2</sub> was sequestered.<sup>146,147</sup> Moreover, in Buchanan County, Virginia, United States, 12 032 tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> were injected at an injection rate of 4.5–22.5 tonnes per day with a maximum injection rate of 1.7–2.9 MPa. It was revealed that 87% of injected CO<sub>2</sub> was sequestered.<sup>146</sup> In addition, 689 tonnes of liquid CO<sub>2</sub> were injected in Kaniow village, Poland, which were injected at a rate of 1–1.3 tonnes per day before hydraulic fracturing and 12–15 tonnes per day after hydraulic fracturing with a maximum injection pressure of 14.0 MPa. It was found that 628 tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> were sequestered.<sup>148,149</sup> Table 8 summarizes the pilot tests for CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technology application for CO<sub>2</sub> storage in deep unmineable coal seams.

## 7. WETTABILITY ALTERATION DURING CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM TECHNOLOGY APPLICATION

The CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and CH<sub>4</sub> recovery effectiveness on coal seams depend on wettability changes of the CO<sub>2</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>O-coal system.<sup>153–155</sup> CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion is very fast for hydrophobic coal because it fills the small pores in the coal surface compared to hydrophilic coals. The CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion rate is  $1.7 \times 10^{-7}$  m<sup>2</sup>/s for hydrophobic coal, while for hydrophilic coal the CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion rate is  $2 \times 10^{-9}$  m<sup>2</sup>/s at 100 bar and 300 K.<sup>156–158</sup> Fluid interactions during CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technology applications are very important in enhancing CH<sub>4</sub> production and CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration. Fluid interactions alter the wettability of the unmineable coal seams. Wettability alterations can be due to either CO<sub>2</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>O or CO<sub>2</sub>-CH<sub>4</sub> interactions.<sup>159</sup> Wettability alteration influences both gas sorption and transport mechanisms. The sorption and transport mechanisms are controlled by reservoir temperature, injection pressure, and the existing state of water (free or adsorbed water). Reference 160 experimented on the dynamic interactions of CO<sub>2</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>O in anthracite and sub-bituminous coals using nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR). It was revealed that the existence of free water in coals decreases the wettability alterations (CO<sub>2</sub> sorption capacity), thus resulting in little CH<sub>4</sub> production and CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration. The dewatering process must be applied first to improve storage capacity and production because it helps to improve gas transport during injection and production and increases CO<sub>2</sub> wettability. Also, CO<sub>2</sub> wettability changes of coals increase with the surge in CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure to not more than 5 MPa, while CO<sub>2</sub> wettability increases with a diminution in temperature which will help to enhance CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and CH<sub>4</sub> production. In addition, ref 87 investigated the wettability change effects on the CO<sub>2</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>O-coal system to influence CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and CH<sub>4</sub> recovery by measuring the water contact angle using the pendent drop tilted place method for three coal ranks. The influence of temperature, pressure, and salinity was also observed. The results revealed that high coal rank has high sorption capacity (strongly CO<sub>2</sub>-wet), followed by low coal rank (medium CO<sub>2</sub>-wet) and medium coal rank (weak CO<sub>2</sub>-wet). Also, the CO<sub>2</sub> wettability increased with the increase of pressure and salinity while decreasing with an increase in temperature. This proves that high-rank coals are the best candidates for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and CH<sub>4</sub> recovery at high pressure and low temperature due to increased CO<sub>2</sub> wettability. Similar results

were reported by ref 161. However, they found that injecting liquid and Sc-CO<sub>2</sub> influenced CO<sub>2</sub> wettability compared to CO<sub>2</sub> gas. Nevertheless, the coal rank is the greatest parameter controlling the coal wettability change.<sup>162–164</sup>

**7.1. Coal Wettability Alteration Prediction for CO<sub>2</sub> Sequestration.** Machine learning (ML) has been employed in various sectors, such as oil and gas and the environmental sector. Different ML like artificial neural networks (ANN), group methods of data handling (GMDH), adaptive neuro-fuzzy inference systems (ANFIS), function networks (FN), support vector machines (SVM), Gaussian process regression (GPR), random forest (RF), regression tree ensembles, deep neural networks, convolution neural networks (CNN), long short-term memory (LSTM) network, etc., can be used to predict certain parameters from easily available data without incurring additional costs.<sup>165–171</sup> Due to the fact that the capacity of coal to sequester CO<sub>2</sub> depends on the wettability of the formation, which is measured by contact angle (CA), ref 172 predicted the CA of coal formation toward CO<sub>2</sub> wetness, implying that CO<sub>2</sub> sorption capacity increases as the CA angle increases. The ML techniques used were ANN and ANFIS. The inputs used for the model's developments were pressure (*P*), ash content (AC%), moisture content (MC%), temperature (*T*), volatile content (VC%), maximum vitrinite reflectance (*R*<sub>max</sub>), and fixed carbon mass concentration (FC%), while the output of the model was CA. 250 data points were obtained from various published sources, with 70–90% of the data used for training and the rest used for testing. The correlation coefficient (*R*) and average absolute percent error (AAPE) were 0.98 and 4.2% for ANN and 0.98 and 3% for ANFIS during training, respectively. For testing, *R* and AAPE were 0.96 and 7% for ANN and 0.97 and 5.6% for ANFIS, respectively. These results confirm that the ANFIS model outperformed the ANN model in CA prediction. This shows the applicability of machine learning in predicting the carbon dioxide sequestration capacity, which depends on wetness and CA measurements. In general, as CA becomes high, CO<sub>2</sub> wetness (CO<sub>2</sub> sorption capacity) into the coal surface increases; consequently, CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration increases in coal formation. Furthermore, sensitivity analysis (SA) revealed that ML could predict CA with *R* of 0.95–0.98 and AAPE of ±6% with the minimum number of input parameters such as pressure, temperature, and coal properties (AC% and *R*<sub>max</sub>).

Also, ref 173 predicted the CA of coal formation toward CO<sub>2</sub> wetness, implying that CO<sub>2</sub> sorption capacity increases as the CA angle increases. The ML techniques used were FN, SVM, and RF. The ML techniques used were ANN and ANFIS. The inputs used for the model's developments were pressure (*P*), ash content (AC%), moisture content (MC%), temperature (*T*), volatile content (VC%), maximum vitrinite reflectance (*R*<sub>max</sub>), and fixed carbon mass concentration (FC%), while the output of the model was CA. 250 data points were obtained from various published sources, with 70–90% of the data used for training and the rest used for testing. The *R* and AAPE were 0.97 and 4.5% for FN, 0.95 and 6.5% for SVM, and 0.99 and 2.2% for RF during training, respectively. For testing, *R* and AAPE were 0.97 and 7% for FN, 0.96 and 6.4% for SVM, and 0.97 and 7% for RF, respectively. These results show the efficient applicability of machine learning in predicting the carbon dioxide sequestration capacity, which depends on wetness and CA measurements. From sensitivity analysis between inputs and output, *P*, FC, and *R*<sub>max</sub> show a positive, strong relationship with CA, while the remaining inputs have a negative relationship with CA. The developed ML models can generally replace experimental parts

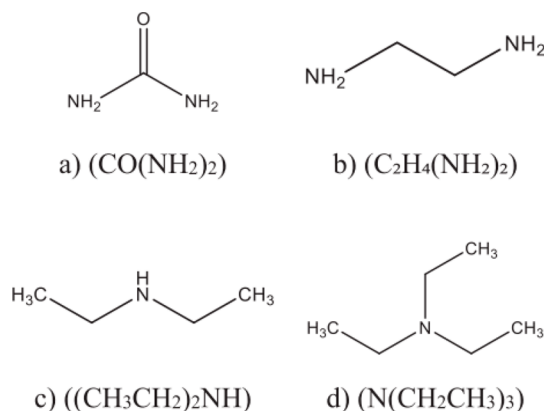
on CA of coal–H<sub>2</sub>O–CO<sub>2</sub> measurements, which is important for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration application.

Furthermore, ref 174 predicted the CA of coal formation toward CO<sub>2</sub> wetness, implying that CO<sub>2</sub> sorption capacity increases as the CA angle increases. The ML techniques used were LR, XGBoost model, and RF. The ML techniques used were ANN and ANFIS. The inputs used for the model's developments were pressure (*P*), ash content (AC%), moisture content (MC%), temperature (*T*), volatile content (VC%), maximum vitrinite reflectance (*R*<sub>max</sub>), and fixed carbon mass concentration (FC%), while the output of the model was CA. 250 data points were obtained from various published sources, with 70–90% of the data used for training and the rest used for testing. The *R* and AAPE were 0.86 and 13% for LR, 0.99 and 3.4% for XGBoost, and 0.99 and 2.2% for RF during training, respectively. For testing, *R* and AAPE were 0.87 and 13% for LR, 0.96 and 6.2% for XGBoost, and 0.97 and 7% for RF, respectively. These results prove that XGBOOST and RF models could predict the CA of the coal–H<sub>2</sub>O–CO<sub>2</sub> system with minimum error compared to LR. In general, the developed ML models can replace experimental parts of the CA of coal–H<sub>2</sub>O–CO<sub>2</sub> measurements, which is important for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration application.

## 8. NANOTECHNOLOGY APPLICATION DURING CO<sub>2</sub> SEQUESTRATION IN SHALLOW CBM RESERVOIRS

Recently, nanotechnology application in CCS has been increased due to its unique properties, such as high surface energy, low sorbent cost, regeneration, simplicity of design, and high selectivity. This section discusses a few literature studies which investigated applications of various nanomaterials that can enhance carbon dioxide sequestration in CBM.

Reference 175 conducted an experiment to investigate the effects of nanoparticle application in CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in shallow CBM reservoirs (<300m). Different rice husk silicas (RSi) were used to observe their effects on enhancing sorption capacity, which was synthesized from a local Colombian mill. RSi was modified by adding nitrogen compounds, i.e., urea (U), ethylenediamine (EM), triethylamine (TE), and diethylamine (DE), to form four different nanoparticles such as RSi-U, RSi-EM, RSi-TE, and RSi-DE, as shown in Figure 10. Different mass fractions of 1, 3, and 5 wt % of modified nanoparticles were used during the experiments. Sorption experiments were conducted



**Figure 10.** Chemical structures of used modifiers: (a) urea, (b) ethylenediamine, (c) diethylamine, and (d) triethylamine. This figure was reproduced with permission from ref 175. Copyright 2023 American Chemical Society.



using a thermogravimetric equipment (HP-TGA 750) analyzer in different temperature and pressure conditions, i.e., 30 °C and 0.084–3 MPa, to select the best nanoparticles for enhancing CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in CBM. The results revealed that CO<sub>2</sub> sorption capacity increases as RSI increases with nitrogen group order increase, i.e., RSi-EM > RSi-U > RSi-TE > RSi-DE. Also, as the mass fraction of modifiers increases to nanoparticles, the CO<sub>2</sub> sorption capacity increases; however, 5 wt % leads to nanoparticle agglomeration, which decreases CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacity due to porous structure blockage. In addition, for the context of CBM impregnation, it was observed that the nanofluids, including 20 wt % of RSi-EM3, exhibited the greatest efficiency in enhancing CO<sub>2</sub> sorption. Specifically, the sorption capacity increased from 0.05 to 0.75 mmol g<sup>-1</sup>, representing a remarkable augmentation of over 1000% in the overall sorption capability.

Also, ref 176 did an experiment to examine the potential impacts of nanoparticle utilization on CCS in shallow coalbed methane (CBM) sandstone reservoirs collected from the Ottawa field to reflect field reality. Various types of nanoparticles were utilized to investigate their impact on improving sorption capacity originating from carbon nanostructures. These carbon nanostructures include CN.LYS and CN.MEL, which were synthesized using the sol-gel and solvothermal methods, respectively. The investigations involved the utilization of carbon nanostructures with varying mass fractions, specifically 0.01, 0.1, 1, 5, and 20 wt %, which were impregnated within Ottawa sandstone reservoir designed at a shallow depth of <300 m by soaking and immersion. In their experiment, the carbon capture facilities were removed; instead, carbon was injected directly into the reservoir. Sorption examinations were conducted with a thermogravimetric analyzer (HP-TGA 750) at various temperatures and pressure circumstances, namely, at 0, 25, and 50 °C and within the range of 0.003–3 MPa, respectively, for CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>. The findings of the study indicate that N<sub>2</sub> rich carbon nanostructures of CN.LYS increased adsorption capacity by 67 700% compared to other nanostructures when 20 wt % mass fraction was used under actual reservoir conditions of 50 °C and 3 MPa because it has a larger surface area and favorable chemical composition, which made them have higher adsorption capacity compared to others.

Moreover, ref 177 did an experiment to investigate the potential influence of nanoparticle utilization on CCS in shallow coalbed methane (CBM) sandstone reservoirs collected from the Ottawa field to reflect field reality. Various types of nanoparticles were utilized to investigate their impact on improving sorption capacity originating from carbon latex spheres. These nanoparticles include carbon spheres from resorcinol/formaldehyde (CN.POL) and carbon spheres from cane molasses (CN.RON). The investigations involved the utilization of carbon nanostructures with varying mass fractions, specifically 10 and 20 wt %, which were impregnated within the Ottawa sandstone reservoir with CN. RON2 was designed at a shallow depth of <300 m by soaking and immersion. In their experiment, the carbon capture facilities were removed; instead, carbon was injected directly into the reservoir. Sorption examinations were conducted with a thermogravimetric analyzer (HP-TGA 750) at 25 and 50 °C temperatures and within the pressure range of 0.03–3 MPa, respectively, for CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> sorption. The findings of the study indicate that CN. RON2 increased the adsorption capacity by 730% when 20 wt % mass fraction of CN. RON2 was utilized under actual reservoir conditions of 50 °C and 3 MPa due to its favorable

physical structure and chemical composition that enhanced adsorption capacity compared to others.

However, most of the researchers developed nanomaterials for the carbon capture and separation process toward carbon sequestration.<sup>178–185</sup> It is recommended to develop nanomaterials specifically to enhance CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in CBM for shallow and deep reservoirs.

## 9. ESTIMATION OF CO<sub>2</sub> STORAGE CAPACITY IN DEEP UNMINEABLE COAL SEAMS

Estimating the potential amount of CO<sub>2</sub> stored in geological formations is crucial for effectively implementing CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration projects.<sup>186–188</sup> Many researchers have developed different methods to approximate the volume of CO<sub>2</sub> that can be stored in deep unmineable coal seams.<sup>189–195</sup> Several developed techniques were published in previous reviews based on experiment, volume, and simulations.<sup>193</sup> However, in this review section, recently developed new methods of predicting the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> that can be stored are analyzed.

Reference 196 developed a method to approximate the maximum amount of CO<sub>2</sub> stored in a Wyoming coal seam field. The established method considered gas transport within multiple radial hydraulic fractures (MRHF) and natural fractures, adsorption into the coal surface, and diffusion in the coal seam matrix. The Gaussian elimination method and Stehfest numerical inversion, the semianalytical solution based on BHP, were used to emanate a continuous line source function of coal seams to approximate the CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity of the Wyoming coal field. The assumptions used during model development were the following: (1) Pressure and temperature of coal seams did not change during the injection of CO<sub>2</sub>. (2) The flow within MRHF was not neglected. (3) The total CO<sub>2</sub> injection was considered constant. (4) Capillary pressure and gravity were neglected. (5) CO<sub>2</sub> flows within natural and hydraulic fractures obey Darcy's law, whereas flows (diffusion) in the matrix obey Fick's law, and the Langmuir isothermal drives adsorption in the coal surface. (6) Vertical wellbore MRHF solely penetrates the coal seam. The developed mathematical model to approximate maximum CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity is shown in eq 19. The estimated maximum volume of the CO<sub>2</sub> that can be stored in the Wyoming coal seam field was 4.8 × 10<sup>8</sup> m<sup>3</sup>.

$$Q_{\text{total}} = \frac{q_{\text{sc}} t_{\text{D}} \lambda L_{\text{ref}}^2}{k_{\text{fi}}} \quad (19)$$

where  $Q_{\text{total}}$  is the maximum storage capacity (m<sup>3</sup>),  $q_{\text{sc}}$  is the injection rate at standard condition (m<sup>3</sup>/d),  $t_{\text{D}}$  is dimensionless time (s),  $L_{\text{ref}}$  is reference length (m), and  $k_{\text{fi}}$  is initial fracture permeability (mD).

Also, ref 197 established a mathematical model to estimate the storage capacity of anthracite coal seams in the Qinshui Basin, Shanxi Province, in north China. The developed mathematical model considered three storage mechanisms: gas adsorbed in the coal matrix, free gas in the pores and fractures, and gas soluble in water. The developed mathematical model to estimate the total storage capacity is shown in eq 20. The estimated full storage capacity of CO<sub>2</sub> was 85.66–92.16% (adsorbed), 7.31–13.8% (free CO<sub>2</sub>), and 0.51–0.56% (soluble CO<sub>2</sub>).

$$M_{\text{CO}_2} = \rho_{\text{g}} \times A \times H \times \rho_{\text{bul}} \times (n_{\text{f}} + n_{\text{s}} + n_{\text{ab}}) \quad (20)$$

Here  $M_{CO_2}$  represents the total stored gas in coal seams in tonnes,  $A$  stands for the total area of coalbed basin in  $m^2$ ,  $H$  represents the thickness of coalbeds in  $m$ ,  $\rho_{bulk}$  stands for bulk density of coal in  $g/cm^3$ ,  $n_{ab}$  is the factor for adsorbed gas which complies with the Dubinin–Radushkevich (D–R) isotherm model in  $cm^3/g$ ,<sup>198</sup>  $n_s$  is the factor for soluble gas in water computed from eq 21 in  $cm^3/g$ , and  $n_f$  is the factor for free gas in pores and fractures calculated from eq 22 in  $cm^3/g$ .

$$n_f = \left( \frac{\varphi(1 - S_w)}{\rho_{skeletal} \rho_b^{STP}} - V_a \right) \rho_g \quad (21)$$

$$n_s = \frac{\varphi S_w S_{CO_2}}{\rho_{skeletal}} \times 22.4 \quad (22)$$

where  $\varphi$  is porosity,  $\rho_b^{STP}$  is the density of coal at the standard condition in  $g/cm^3$ ,  $S_w$  stands for water saturation in connected fractures,  $V_a$  is sorbed phase volume,  $\rho_g$  is the density of free gas in  $g/cm^3$ ,  $\rho_{skeletal}$  stands for the apparent density of coal in  $g/cm^3$ , and  $S_{CO_2}$  represents the solubility of  $CO_2$  in formation water ( $mol/cm^3$ ).

Additionally, ref 199 examined the  $CO_2$  storage capacity of anthracite coal seams collected from Qinshui Basin coal No. 3. Experiments were conducted by using two different coal samples, XJ and SH, with different characteristics under various isothermal experimental conditions to assess their theoretical  $CO_2$  geological storage capacity (TCGSC) and effective  $CO_2$  geologic storage capacity (ECGSC). TCGSC and ECGSC were estimated from the total stored  $CO_2$  in 1 g of coal using eqs 23 and 24, respectively. ECGSC is multiplied with TCGSC because not all  $CH_4$  is replaced with injected  $CO_2$  in coal seams. The estimated  $CO_2$  storage capacity was 9.72 gigatonnes (TCGSC) and 6.54 gigatonnes (ECGSC), in which adsorption capacity contributed more than 90% of total stored  $CO_2$ , which decreased as depth increased.

$$TCGSC = A \times H \times \rho_{coal} \times V \times \rho_g \quad (23)$$

$$ECGSC = TCGSC \times RF \quad (24)$$

where  $A$  stands for the total surface area of coal seams in  $m^2$ ,  $\rho_{coal}$  represents the apparent density of coal in  $g/cm^3$ , RF represents the recovery factor for  $CH_4$  due to  $CO_2$  injection,  $H$  is the total height of coal in  $m$ , and  $\rho_g$  is the density of  $CO_2$  under normal conditions. Here  $V$  is the total volume of  $CO_2$  stored in 1 g of coal in  $cm^3/g$  and is defined in eq 25.

$$V = V_{ad} + V_{v0} + V_s \quad (25)$$

where  $V_{v0}$  is  $CO_2$  stored in free space (nonadsorptive space) in  $cm^3/g$  for 1 g of coal,  $V_s$  is  $CO_2$  dissolved in water (dissolution) in 1 g of coal in  $cm^3/g$ , and  $V_{ad}$  is  $CO_2$  adsorbed in the coal surface calculated using the D–R sorption model anticipated by ref 200

In addition, ref 188 proposed a mathematical model to estimate  $CO_2$  to be stored in uneconomical coalbeds in Alberta, Canada, under subcritical conditions. The established model assumed that the injected  $CO_2$  replaced all the  $CH_4$  and other gases in coal seams. The TCGSC was estimated based on  $CO_2$  sorption isotherms measured on coal samples. The established mathematical model was based on initial gas in place (IGIP). To express the  $CO_2$  stored in terms of mass instead of volume, the TCGSC is multiplied by the density of  $CO_2$  of  $1.873 \text{ kg/m}^3$ . The formula to estimate TCGSC is shown in eq 26. However, it is

impossible to replace all gas in the coal seams by injected  $CO_2$ ; hence, the TCGSC is multiplied by the recovery factor ( $R_f$ ) and completion factor to get ECGSC as expressed in eq 27. The approximated TCGSC was 20 gigatonnes, equal to 6.4 gigatonnes, after multiplying TCGSC with  $R_f$  of 0.8 and  $C$  of 0.4 for three selected coal zones. Due to the fact that only the economic zones needed to be assessed for storage capacity, it was revealed that  $\sim 850$  megatonnes of  $CO_2$  can be stored in the Alberta coal field. The estimated global  $CO_2$  sequestration capacity is shown in Table 9.

$$TCGSC = Ah\tilde{n}_C G_C (1 - f_a - f_m) \quad (26)$$

$$ECGSC = CR_f TCGSC \quad (27)$$

**Table 9. Global  $CO_2$  Sequestration and  $CH_4$  Production for Coal Basins<sup>a,b</sup>**

country	estimated methane recovery (Tcm)			CO <sub>2</sub> storage	CO <sub>2</sub> storage
	primary	ECBM	total	Tcm	Gt
United States	4.82	7.54	12.4	52.82	86.16
Canada	5.21	4.35	9.6	17.85	29.11
Mexico	0.04	0.09	0.1	0.34	0.55
total North America	10.06	111.99	22.1	71.01	115.82
Brazil	0.15	0.00	0.2	0.57	0.93
Colombia	0.10	0.22	0.3	1.29	2.11
Venezuela	0.07	0.30	0.4	3.57	5.83
total South and Central America	0.32	0.52	0.85	5.44	8.87
Czech Republic	0.06	0.00	0.1	0.00	0.00
Germany	0.45	0.00	0.5	0.62	1.01
Hungary	0.02	0.04	0.1	0.10	0.17
Kazakhstan	0.28	0.00	0.3	0.50	0.82
Poland	0.14	0.94	1.1	4.07	6.63
Russia Federation	5.66	12.61	18.3	35.20	57.41
Turkey	0.28	0.00	0.3	0.58	0.94
Ukraine	0.71	1.72	2.4	4.54	7.41
United Kingdom	0.43	1.03	1.5	2.73	4.46
Total Europe and Eurasia	8.04	16.35	24.39	48.34	78.84
Botswana	0.45	1.06	1.5	9.18	14.97
Mozambique	0.37	0.89	1.3	1.84	3.01
Namibia	0.44	1.05	1.5	2.18	3.56
South Africa	0.25	0.61	0.9	1.26	2.05
Zimbabwe	0.25	0.61	0.9	3.44	5.62
total Middle East and Africa	1.77	4.22	5.99	17.9	29.2
Australia	0.95	0.67	1.62	9.01	14.7
China	5.52	7.13	12.64	47.83	78.01
India	0.57	0.63	1.2	4.04	6.6
Indonesia	1.93	8.05	9.97	95.4	155.6
total Asia Pacific	8.96	16.47	25.43	156.28	254.91
total world	29.15	49.55	78.7	298.97	487.64

<sup>a</sup>Reproduced with permission from ref 201. Copyright 2014 Elsevier.

<sup>b</sup>Tcm: trillion cubic meter; Gt: gigatonnes.

where  $A$  stands for the total area of coal seams,  $h$  represents the effective thickness of the coal seams,  $\tilde{n}_C$  is bulk coal density,  $G_C$  is coal gas content,  $f_a$  is ash weight, and  $f_m$  is moisture weight content fracture.

## 10. CHALLENGES, RESEARCH GAPS, AND PERSPECTIVE OF STORING CO<sub>2</sub> SEQUESTRATION IN DEEP UNMINEABLE COAL SEAMS

Many experiments with limited simulations and pilot tests have revealed that deep unmineable coal seams have great potential to store CO<sub>2</sub> and recover clean energy sources (CH<sub>4</sub>) during CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technology application. Nevertheless, some challenges can hinder the technology application. The challenges encountered during CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration include permeability reduction; after CO<sub>2</sub> injection, the permeability is reduced due to coal swelling after the sorption process. The permeability reduction brings difficulty during injection by reducing the injection rate.<sup>202,203</sup> Also, low permeability commonly characterizes coalbeds as one of the primary factors that impede the effective injection and dispersion of carbon dioxide inside the formation.<sup>203,204</sup> Another is monitoring and verification; it is difficult to create efficient monitoring and verification techniques due to the complicated subsurface conditions and the requirement for long-term monitoring of CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in CBM reservoirs. These factors make it difficult to evaluate the success and performance of CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in CBM reservoirs.<sup>205,206</sup> Also, CO<sub>2</sub>-CH<sub>4</sub> interactions are challenges: CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> interaction within the coal matrix can affect the sorption behavior of gases, affecting the amount of CH<sub>4</sub> that can be recovered and the efficiency with which CO<sub>2</sub> can be stored.<sup>206-208</sup> A further challenge is high expenses; CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in CBM reservoirs incurs substantial costs, including site characterization, infrastructure development, monitoring, and operation. Assessing the project's economic feasibility is critical for its implementation.<sup>209,210</sup> Moreover, water saturation in coalbeds can affect CO<sub>2</sub> injection and migration, potentially limiting the storage capacity and the efficacy of the sequestration process.<sup>211,212</sup> Besides heterogeneity effects, geological diversity in CBM reservoirs, such as changes in coal properties like thickness and structure, can contribute to uneven CO<sub>2</sub> distribution and storage within the formation.<sup>213,214</sup>

Some areas that need more research toward full field operations include the following: no clear definition of unmineable coal seams suitable for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration because not all coal can store CO<sub>2</sub>. Indeterminately, more research studies need to be conducted to have assurance which coal seams are suitable for the CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration project to avoid CO<sub>2</sub> leakages in the future because coal seams are evenly distributed around the world compared to other geological options for storing CO<sub>2</sub>. Also, deep unmineable coal seams with <1 mD permeability and depth of >1500 m are not recommended for CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technology application because low permeability reduces the injection rate. Hence, to meet the minimum injection rate, it will require drilling multiple wells, which is expensive and will make a project uneconomical. Thus, more research is needed to innovate injection technology of CO<sub>2</sub> in coal seams with <1 mD permeability and depth of >1500 m. In addition, injection pressure and production period affect CH<sub>4</sub> recovery and CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration efficiency. In particular, early production requires a greater CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure, while later prefers a lower pressure. A dynamic CO<sub>2</sub> injection pressure mode (for example, where the gas injection pressure is initially high before gradually lowering) may be preferable for effective CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and CH<sub>4</sub> recovery. Thus, how to dynamically and cognitively control injection pressure to enhance CO<sub>2</sub>

sequestration and CH<sub>4</sub> recovery simultaneously requires further research.

It is also important to understand the geochemical interactions between CO<sub>2</sub>, coal, and groundwater to determine CO<sub>2</sub> long-term fate and potential consequences on groundwater quality, which is useful for daily life. More research is required to fully comprehend these reaction processes and their significance for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in deep unmineable coal seams. Also, more research is essential to fully understand the intricate interaction between CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> in the coal matrix, especially at the microscale level. This entails investigating the mechanisms of sorption of CH<sub>4</sub> in the presence of CO<sub>2</sub> and their effects on CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and CH<sub>4</sub> recovery efficiencies in deep unmineable coal seams. In addition, it is essential to have a solid understanding of the long-term stability of CO<sub>2</sub> storage in deep unmineable coal seams. It is necessary to research the possibility of CO<sub>2</sub> leakage over lengthy periods. This investigation should consider geomechanical changes, geochemical processes, and CO<sub>2</sub> migration paths.

Addressing these challenges and research gaps requires a multifaceted, interdisciplinary approach combining geology, engineering, environmental sciences, and policy skills. Collaboration between researchers, industry, and regulatory agencies is critical for developing effective CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration methodologies and technologies in deep unmineable coal seams. If addressed, it will contribute to the progression and successful implementation of CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration toward full field application. This will result in increased storage efficiency, improved monitoring techniques, and a better understanding of the long-term impacts of CO<sub>2</sub> storage on the subsurface environment.

## 11. CONCLUSIONS

Deep unmineable coal seams have a great potential of sequestering large amounts of CO<sub>2</sub> credited by impermeable caprock, which helps to prevent upward migration of CO<sub>2</sub>, high porosity, and high carbon density, providing virtuous gas adsorption surface area for permanent CO<sub>2</sub> storage. Adsorption CO<sub>2</sub> trapping mechanisms are the dominant mechanisms in coal seams. Experiments, simulations, and pilot test applications (field application) have been carried out by different researchers to investigate the underlying mechanisms of CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technology. It has been revealed that CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and CH<sub>4</sub> production are more effective and quicker in high-rank coals than in low-rank coals. Injecting CO<sub>2</sub> in medium coal rank reservoirs influences CH<sub>4</sub> desorption, increasing CH<sub>4</sub> recovery. In contrast, low-rank and high-rank coals reservoirs are more favorable for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration due to high micropore volume and the large specific area, which boost the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption process. Furthermore, CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption into the coal surface increases with increasing injection pressure, enhancing CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and CH<sub>4</sub> production. However, high injection pressure increases the operations costs. Also, from the experimental perspective, during CO<sub>2</sub> injection, there is competitive sorption between CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> on the surface of the coal because CO<sub>2</sub> has a higher affinity than CH<sub>4</sub> in the coal matrix. CO<sub>2</sub> adsorbed into the coal matrix with CH<sub>4</sub> desorbed enhances CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and CH<sub>4</sub> production. The amount of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorbed into the coal surface is nearly twice by volume as desorbed CH<sub>4</sub>. Apart from that, comparing the permeability of coal seams before and after Sc-CO<sub>2</sub> injection in unmineable coal seams revealed that Sc-CO<sub>2</sub> enhances coal permeability due

to cracks formed in pore spaces after the diffusion process into the coal surfaces.

From modeling and simulation perspectives, it was found that long-term CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration is better in coal seams with higher CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion attenuation coefficients. Also, in gas sorption models, it has been found that the D–A model is the most accurate to estimate the volume of adsorbed gas in coal seams compared to others because it may derive isotherms for any temperature employing a single isotherm, making it easier to describe injection/depletion-induced temperature change. Among the several simulators evaluated for CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technology application, COMSOL, CMG-GEM, COMET3, ECLIPSE, SMED II, etc., consider several factors during CO<sub>2</sub> injection to imitate the field reality. COMSOL, CMG, and COMET3 simulated better CO<sub>2</sub> stored than other simulators. Innovating a simulator that considers all suggested CO<sub>2</sub> trapping mechanisms toward field application is recommended. Recently, machine learning has been applied in estimating the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> stored in coal seams; however, more research is recommended. In general, large volumes of CO<sub>2</sub> can be sequestered in coals. If implemented successfully, more than 7.1 billion tonnes can be stored permanently in deep unmineable coal seams globally. However, storing CO<sub>2</sub> in deep unmineable coal seams seems uneconomical due to the high cost of capturing and separating from flue gas streams. The CH<sub>4</sub> produced after the CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM technology application helped offset some costs but did not break even due to lower gas prices and low cumulative production.

## ■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### Data Availability Statement

There is no data used in this review paper.

## ■ AUTHOR INFORMATION

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## Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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