



A pulse-decay method for low permeability analyses of granular rock 1 media 2 Tao Zhang<sup>1</sup>, Qinhong Hu<sup>1\*</sup>, Behzad Ghanbarian<sup>2</sup>, Derek Elsworth<sup>3</sup>, Zhiming Lu<sup>4</sup> 3 <sup>1</sup> Department of Earth and Environment Sciences, University of Texas at Arlington, 4 Arlington, TX 76019, United States 5 <sup>2</sup> Porous Media Research Lab, Department of Geology, Kansas State University, Manhattan, 6 KS 66506, United States 7 8 <sup>3</sup> Department of Energy and Mineral Engineering, G3 Centre and Energy Institute, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA 16802, United States 9 <sup>4</sup> The Earth and Environmental Sciences Division, Los Alamos National Laboratory, Los 10 Alamos, NM 87544, United States 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 \* Corresponding author: maxhu@uta.edu 21





Abstract: Nano-darcy level permeability measurements of porous media, 22 such as nano-porous mudrocks, are only practically feasible with gas invasion 23 24 methods into granular-sized samples with short diffusion lengths and thereby reduced experimental duration; however, these methods lack rigorous 25 solutions and standardized experimental procedures. For the first time, we 26 27 resolve this by providing an integrated technique (termed as gas permeability 28 technique) with coupled theoretical development, experimental procedures, 29 and data interpretation workflow. Three exact mathematical solutions for transient and slightly compressible spherical flow, along with their asymptotic 30 31 solutions, are developed for early- and late-time responses. Critically, one latetime solution is for an ultra-small gas-invadable volume, important for a wide 32 33 range of practical usages. Developed as applicable to different sample characteristics (permeability, porosity, and mass) in relation to the storage 34 35 capacity of experimental systems, these three solutions are evaluated from 36 essential considerations of error difference between exact and approximate 37 solutions, optimal experimental conditions, and experimental demonstration 38 of mudstone and molecular-sieve samples. Moreover, a practical workflow of 39 solution selection and data reduction to determine permeability is presented by considering samples with different permeability and porosity under various 40 granular sizes. Overall, this work establishes a rigorous, theory-based, rapid, 41





- and versatile gas permeability measurement technique for tight media at sub-
- anno darcy levels.
- 44 Keywords: permeability; granular samples; pulse-decay; mathematical
- solutions; experimental methods.

# 46 Highlights:

- An integrated (both theory and experiments) gas permeability technique (GPT) is presented.
- Exact and approximate solutions for three cases are developed with error discussion.
- Conditions of each mathematical solution are highlighted for critical parameters.
- Essential experimental methodologies and data processing procedures are provided and evaluated.





### 1. Introduction

Shales, crystalline, and salt rocks with low permeabilities (e.g., <10<sup>-17</sup> m<sup>2</sup> 56 57 or 10 micro-darcies µD) are critical components to numerous subsurface 58 studies. Notable examples are the remediation of contaminated sites(Neuzil, 1986; Yang et al., 2015), long-term performance of high-level nuclear waste 59 repositories (Kim et al., 2011; Neuzil, 2013), enhanced geothermal systems 60 61 (Huenges, 2016; Zhang et al., 2021), efficient development of unconventional oil and gas resources (Hu et al., 2015; Javadpour, 2009), long-term sealing for 62 63 carbon utilization and storage (Fakher et al., 2020; Khosrokhavar, 2016), and high-volume and effective gas (hydrogen) storage (Liu et al., 2015; Tarkowski, 64 65 2019). For fractured rocks, the accurate characterization of rock matrix and its 66 permeability is also critical for evaluating the effectiveness of lowpermeability media, particularly when transport is dominated by slow 67 processes like diffusion (Ghanbarian et al., 2016; Hu et al., 2012). 68 Standard permeability test procedures in both steady-state and pulse-decay 69 methods use consolidated core-plug samples (e.g., 2.54 cm in diameter), 70 which may contain fractures and show dual- or triple-porosity characteristics 71 (Abdassah and Ershaghi, 1986; Bibby, 1981). The overall permeability may 72 73 therefore be controlled by a few bedding-oriented or cross-cutting fractures, 74 even if experiments are conducted at reservoir pressures (Bock et al., 2010;





75 Gensterblum et al., 2015; Gutierrez et al., 2000; Luffel et al., 1993). Fractures might be naturally- or artificially-induced (e.g., created during sample 76 77 processing), which makes a comparison of permeability results among different samples difficult (Heller et al., 2014). Hence, methods for measuring 78 79 the matrix (non-fractured) permeability in tight media, with a practical necessity of using granular samples, have attracted much attention to eliminate 80 81 the confounding effect of fractures (Civan et al., 2013; Egermann et al., 2005; 82 Heller et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020). A GRI (Gas Research Institute) method was developed by Luffel et al. (1993) 83 and followed by Guidry et al. (1996) to measure the matrix permeability of 84 crushed mudrocks (Guidry et al., 1996; Luffel et al., 1993). Such a method 85 makes permeability measurement feasible in tight and ultra-tight rocks (with 86 permeability < 10<sup>-20</sup> m<sup>2</sup> or 10 nano-dcarcies, nD), particularly when 87 permeability is close to the detection limit of the pulse-decay approach on core 88 89 plugs at ~10 nD (e.g., using commercial instrument of PoroPDP-200 of 90 CoreLab). In the GRI method, helium may be used as the testing fluid to 91 determine permeability on crushed samples at different sample sizes (e.g., within the 10-60 mesh range). The limited mesh size of 20-35 (500-841 μm in 92 diameter) was recommended in earlier works, which has led to the colloquial 93 names of "the GRI method/size" in the literature (Cui et al., 2009; Kim et al., 94





2015; Peng and Loucks, 2016; Profice et al., 2012). However, Luffel et al. 95 96 (Guidry et al., 1996; Luffel et al., 1993) did not document the processing 97 methodologies needed to derive the permeability from experimental data from such a GRI method. That is, there are neither standard experimental 98 procedures for interpreting gas pulse-decay data in crushed rock samples nor 99 100 detailed mathematical solutions available for data processing in the literature 101 (Kim et al., 2015; Peng and Loucks, 2016; Profice et al., 2012). In this work, 102 we achieve to: (1) develop mathematical solutions to interpret gas pulse-decay 103 data in crushed rock samples without published algorithm available as this 104 method shares different constitutive phenomena to the traditional pulse-decay 105 method for core plug samples in Cartesian coordinates; and (2) present 106 associated experimental methodology to measure permeability, reliably and 107 reproducibly, in tight and ultra-tight granular media. 108 The rest of this article is organized as follows. We first derive the 109 constitutive equations for gas transport in granular (unconsolidated or crushed 110 rock) samples. Specifically, we develop three mathematical solutions which 111 cover different experimental situations and sample properties. As each 112 solution shows its own pros and cons, we then in detail present the error 113 analyses for the derived exact and approximate solutions and discuss their 114 applicable requirements and parameter recommendation for practical usages.





This work aims to fill the knowledge gap of the granular rock (matrix)

permeability measurement and follow-on literature by establishing an

integrated methodology for reproducible measurements of nD-level

permeability in tight rock for emerging energy and resources subsurface

studies.

### 2. Mathematical solutions for gas permeability of granular samples

For a compressible fluid under unsteady-state conditions, flow in a porous medium can be expressed by the mass conservation equation:

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho \overline{\nu}) = 0 \tag{1A}$$

where p is the pressure, t is the time,  $\rho$  is the fluid density, and  $\overline{v}$  is the 124 Darcy velocity. In continuity equations derived for gas flow in porous media, 125 126 permeability can be treated as a function of pressure through the ideal gas law. 127 Constitutive equations are commonly established for a small pressure 128 variation to avoid the non-linearity of gas (the liquid density to be a constant) 129 and to ensure that pressure would be the only unknown parameter (Haskett et al., 1988). For spherical coordinates of fluid flow in porous media, assuming 130 131 flow along the radial direction of each spherical solid grain, Eq. (1A) becomes

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$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t}\phi = \frac{1}{c_t} \frac{k}{\mu r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r^2 \frac{\partial p}{\partial r}\right) \tag{1B}$$

The gas compressibility  $c_t$  is given by





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$$c_t = \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{d\rho}{dp} = \frac{1}{p} - \frac{1}{z} \frac{dz}{dp}$$
 (1C)

In Eqs. (1B) and (1C),  $\phi$  and k are sample porosity and permeability, r is the migration distance of fluid,  $\mu$  is the fluid viscosity, and z is the gas deviation (compressibility) factor and is constant.

To correct for the non-ideality of the probing gas, we treat gas density as a function of pressure and establish a relationship between the density and the permeability through a pseudo-pressure variable (given in the 1<sup>st</sup> part of Supplemental Information SI1). Detailed steps for deriving mathematical solutions for the GPT can be found in SI2, based on heat transfer studies (Carslaw and Jaeger, 1959). The Laplace transform, in combination with the Bessel equation, is an efficient tool for solving gas transport in granular samples with low permeabilities, as applied in this study. Alternatively, other approaches, such as the Fourier analysis, Sturm-Liouville method, or Volterra integral equation of the second form may be used (Carslaw and Jaeger, 1959; Haggerty and Gorelick, 1995; Ruthven, 1984).

We applied dimensional variables to derive the constitutive equation given in Eq. Error! Reference source not found. for which the initial and boundary conditions are

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$$\frac{\partial^2 U_s}{\partial \xi^2} + s^2 U_s = 0 \Big|_{U_s = 0, \xi = 0}$$
 (1D)





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$$\alpha^2(U_s - 1) = \frac{3}{K_c} \left( \frac{\partial U_s}{\partial \xi} - \frac{U_s}{\xi} \right) \Big|_{\xi = 1}$$
 (1E)

where  $U_s$  and  $\xi$  represent the dimensionless values of gas density and 154 sample scale, and s is the transformed Heaviside operator.  $\alpha$  in Eq. (2B) is 155 determined by solving Eq. (S30) for its root.  $K_c$  in Eq. (1E) is a critical 156 parameter that represents the volumetric ratio of the total void volume of the 157 sample cell to the pore volume of the porous samples. It is similar to the 158 159 storage capacity, controlling the acceptable measurement range of permeability and decay time, in the pulse-decay method proposed by Brace et 160 al. in 1986 (Brace et al., 1968). 161

The fractional gas transfer for the internal (limited  $K_c$  value) and external (infinite  $K_c$  value) gas transfer of sample is given by

$$F_f = 1 - 6\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{K_c(1 + K_c)e^{-\alpha_n^2 \tau}}{9(K_c + 1) + \alpha_n^2 K_c^2}$$
 (1F)

$$F_{S} = 1 - \frac{6}{\pi^{2}} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-(n\pi)^{2}\tau}}{n^{2}}$$
 (1G)

where  $F_f$  and  $F_s$  represent the uptake rate of gas outside and inside the sample separately as a dimensionless parameter, and  $\tau$  is the Fourier number of dimensionless time. Three approximate solutions of the transport coefficient based on Eqs. (2C) and (2D) for various conditions are presented





170 below.

The late-time solution to Eq. (1F) for a limited  $K_c$  value (called LLT)

172 hereafter) is

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$$k = \frac{R_a^2 \mu c_t \phi_f s_1}{\alpha_1^2}$$
 (3A)

The late-time solution to Eq. (1G) when  $K_c$  tends to infinity (ILT hereafter)

175 is

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$$k = \frac{R_a^2 \mu c_t \phi_f s_2}{\pi^2}$$
 (3B)

The early-time solution to Eq. (1G) when  $K_c$  approaches infinity (IET

178 hereafter) is

$$k = \frac{\pi R_a^2 \mu c_t \phi_f s_3}{36}$$
 (3C)

In Eq. (3),  $R_a$  is the particle diameter of a sample, and  $s_1$ ,  $s_2$ , and  $s_3$  are

the three exponents that may be determined from the slopes of data on double

logarithmic plots. Table 1 summarizes Eqs. (3A) to (3C) and conditions under

which such approximate solutions would be valid.

Table 1. Solutions schematic with difference  $K_c$  and  $\tau$  values

Parameter	Symbol	Remarks		
Volume fraction§	$K_c$	Limited value for $K_c < 10$	Infinity value for $K_c > 10$	
Exact. Density fraction <sup>£</sup>	F	$F_f$	$F_{\mathcal{S}}$	
Approx. Solution of Density fraction*	Eqs. (3A-3B)	Eq. (3A) (LLT)	Eq. (3C) (IET)	Eq. (3B) ) (ILT)
Available Dimensionless time for Approx. solution	τ	Late-time solution $\tau > 0.024$	Early-time solution $\tau < 0.024$	Late-time solution $\tau > 0.024$

<sup>§</sup> It defines as the volumetric ratio of the total void volume of the sample cell to the pore volume of the porous samples, the classification between the limited and infinity value is proposed as 50 with the following analyses.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>£</sup> The original constitutive equation for different  $K_c$  value.

<sup>\*</sup> Eqs. (3A-3C) are three approximate solutions of density faction function F.





Based on diffusion phenomenology, Cui et al. (2009) presented two mathematical solutions similar to our Eqs. (3A) and (3C). In the work of Cui et al. (2009), however, the lack of detailed analyses of  $\tau$  and  $K_c$  in the constitutive equations may deter the practical application of Eq. (3B), which is unable to cover an experimental condition of small sample mass with a greater  $\tau$  (further analyzed in section 3). In addition to that, Cui et al. (2009) did not comprehensively assess practical applications of their two solutions, which is addressed in this study. Hereafter, we refer to the developed mathematical and experimental, gas-permeability-measurement approach holistically as gas permeability technique (GPT).

#### 3. Practical usages of algorithms for the GPT

As aforementioned, mathematical solutions given in Eqs. (3A) and (3B) were deduced based on different values of  $K_c$  and  $\tau$  as shown in the SI2. This means each solution hold only under specific experimental conditions, which are mostly determined by the permeability, porosity, and mass of samples, as well as gas pressure and void volume of the sample cell. In this section, the influence of parameters  $K_c$  and  $\tau$  on the solution of constitutive equation is analyzed and a specific value of dimensionless time ( $\tau = 0.024$ ) is proposed as the criterion required to detect the early-time regime from the late-time one for the first time in the literature. We also demonstrate that the early-





time solution of Eq. (3C), which has been less considered for practical applications in previous studies, is also suitable and unique under common situations. Besides, the error of the approximate solution compared to the exact solution and their capabilities are discussed, as it helps select an appropriate mathematical solution at small  $\tau$  values. Moreover, we showcase the unique applicability and feasibility of the new solution of Eq. (3B).

# 3.1 Sensitivity analyses of the $K_c$ value for data quality control

To apply the GPT method, appropriately selecting the parameter  $K_c$  in Eqs. (3A)-(3C) is crucial, as it is a critical value for data quality control. Recall that  $K_c$  represents the volumetric ratio of the total void volume of the sample cell to the pore volume of the porous samples. The dimensionless density outside the sample,  $U_f$ , is related to  $K_c$  via Eq. (S33) in the SI2. One may simplify Eq. (S33) by replacing the series term with some finite positive value and set

$$U_f - \frac{K_c}{1 + K_c} > 0 \tag{1K}$$

We define  $K_f = K_c/(1 + K_c)$  to interpret the density variance of the system as  $K_f$  is closely related to the dimensionless density outside the sample,  $U_f$ . Eq. (1K) shows the relationship between the  $U_f$  and  $K_c$  (plotted in Fig. 1). For  $K_c > 0$ ,  $K_f$  falls between 0 and 1. The greater the  $K_f$  value is, the insensitive to density changes the system would be. For  $K_c$  equal to 50 (not





shown in Fig. 1),  $K_f$  would no longer be sensitive to  $K_c$  variations as it has already approached 98% of the dimensionless density. This means that the  $U_f$  value needs to be greater than 0.98, and this leaves only 2% of the fractional value of  $U_f$  available for capturing gas density change. When  $K_c$  is 100, the left fractional value of  $U_f$  would be 1%. This would limit the amount of data available (the linear range in Fig. S1) for the permeability calculation, which would complicate the data processing. Thus, for the GPT experiments, a small value of  $K_c$  (less than 10) is recommended, as  $K_f$  nearly reaches its plateau beyond  $K_c = 10$  (Fig. 1). When  $K_c$  is 10, the left fractional value of  $U_f$  is only as low as 9%.

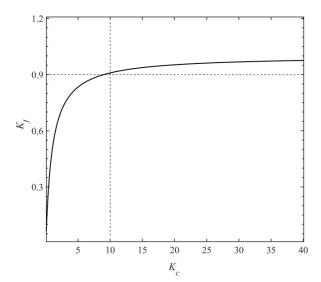


Fig. 1. Dimensionless density,  $K_f$ , as a function of dimensionless volume  $K_c$ . Recall that  $K_f = K_c/(1 + K_c)$ . Major variations in  $K_f$  occur for  $K_c < 10$  indicating





237 longer gas transmission duration with more pressure-decay data available for 238 permeability derivation. 239 240 3.2 Recommendation for solution selection The following three aspects need to be considered before selecting the 241 242 appropriate solution for permeability calculation: 1) selecting early- or latetime solutions; 2) error between the approximate and exact solutions; and 3) 243 the convenience and applicability of solutions suitable for different 244 experiments. We will first discuss the selection criteria for early- or late-time 245 solutions. 246 Fig. 2(a) shows the exact solution of  $F_s$  with their two approximate early-247 and late-time solution (Table 1). Two exact solutions of  $F_f$  for  $K_c$  equals to 248 10, 50 are also demonstrated in Fig. 2(a). Fig. 2(b) depicts the exact solution 249 from  $F_f$  for different  $K_c$  values from 1 to 100 and their corresponding 250 251 approximate solution for Eq. (3A). The intersection point of the solution Eq. 252 (3B) and Eq. (3C), namely  $\tau = 0.024$  in Fig. 2(a), is used for distinguishing 253 early- and late-time solutions. Two notable observations can be drawn from Fig. 2(b). Firstly, the 254 255 approximate solution Eq. (3A) would only be applicable at late times when  $\tau$  is longer than 0.024. For  $\tau < 0.024$ , regardless of the  $K_c$  value, Eq. (3C) 256





would be more precise than Eqs. (3A) and (3B) and return results close to the exact solution for both  $F_f$  and  $F_s$ . Secondly, results of Eqs. (3A) and (3B) presented in Fig. 2(a) are similar; there is only a minor difference but become very close at greater  $K_c$  values especially for  $K_c > 10$ . Due to the fact that core samples from deep wells are relatively short in length and their void volume is small (ultra-low porosity and permeability such as in mudstones with  $k \le 0.1$  nD), in practice, a solution for  $10 < K_c < 100$  is the most common outcome, even if the sample cell is loaded as full as possible. Under such circumstances, the newly derived solution, Eq. (3B), becomes practical and convenient: 1) if the  $K_c$  and dimensionless time  $\tau$  have not been evaluated precisely before the GPT experiment, this solution may fit most experimental situations; 2) this solution is suitable for calculation as it does not need the solution from the transcendental equation of Eq. (S30) because the denominator of  $\alpha$  has been replaced by  $\pi$ . The data quality control is discussed in Section 4.1.





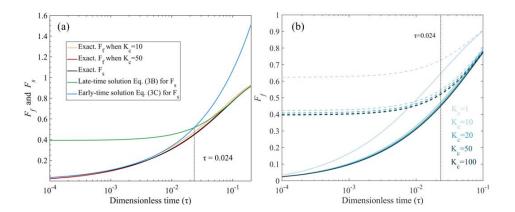


Fig. 2. Three GPT solutions with different values of  $\tau$ ,  $K_c$ ; the dashed lines are approximate solutions without a series expansion in Fig. (2b) for  $F_f$ . Figure modified from Cui et al. (2009).

### 3.3 Applicability of the early-time solution

A small  $K_c$  value can guarantee a sufficient time for gas transfer in samples and provide enough linear data for fitting purposes. We note that the selection of the limited  $K_c$  solution of  $F_f$ , and the infinity  $K_c$  solution  $F_s$  is controlled by  $K_c$ . However, before the selection of  $K_c$ , the dimensionless time is the basic parameter to be estimated as a priori before the early- or late-time solutions are selected.

For pulse-decay methods, the early-time solution has the advantage of capturing the anisotropic information contained in reservoir rocks (Jia et al., 2019; Kamath, 1992). However, it suffers from the shortcoming of uncertainty





in data for initial several seconds, which as a result is not recommended for 287 data processing (Jia et al., 2019; Kamath, 1992). This is due to: (1) the Joule-288 Thompson effect, which causes a decrease in gas temperature from the expansion; (2) kinetic energy loss during adiabatic expansion; and (3) collision 289 290 between molecules and the container wall. These uncertainties normally 291 happen in the first 10-30 sec, shown in our experiments as a fluctuating period 292 called "Early Stage". 293 However, the "Early Stage" present in pulse-decay experiments does not 294 mean that the early-time solution is not applicable. We demonstrate the 295 relationship between time and dimensionless time in Fig. 3 that a short dimensionless time may correspond to a long testing period of hundred to 296 297 thousand seconds in experiments. For example, ultra-low permeability samples with  $k \le 0.1$  nD and small dimensionless times  $\tau < 0.024$ . This 298 299 situation would only be applicable to early-time solution, but with data 300 available beyond the "Early Stage" and provide available data in a long time (hundreds to thousands of seconds). For example, the early-time solution 301 302 would fit ultra-low permeability samples in 600s around for 0.1 nD, and at 303 least 1000s for 0.01 nD shown in Fig. 3 in the region below the dark line. Then,





using Eq. (3C), the derived permeability would be closer to its exact solution in the earlier testing time (but still after the "Early Stage"). For mudrock samples that we have tested (results presented in Section 5.3), permeabilities are low and in the order of 0.1 nD.

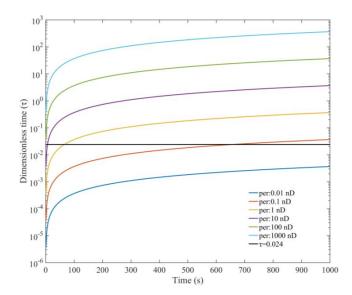


Fig. 3 Dimensionless time  $\tau$  versus actual times for different permeability values trough Eq. (S14) using He gas, sample porosity of 5%, and sample diameter of 2 mm.

## 3.4 Error analyses between exact and approximate solutions

It is unpractical to use the exact solutions with their series part to do the permeability calculation; thus, only the approximate solutions are used and the error difference between the exact and approximate solutions is discussed here.





The original mathematical solutions, Eqs. (S39) and (S49), are based on 316 317 series expansion. For dimensionless densities  $F_f$  and  $F_s$  in Eqs. (S39) and 318 (S49), their series expansion terms should converge. However, the rate of 319 convergence is closely related to the value of  $\tau$ . For example, from Eq. (S30), when  $\tau \ge 1$ , the exponent parts of  $U_s$  and  $U_f$  are at least  $(2n+1)\pi^2$ . 320 321 Therefore, the entire series expansion term can be omitted without being 322 influenced by  $K_c$ . In practical applications, the solutions given in Eqs. (3A)-323 (3C) are approximates without series expansion. In this study, we provide the 324 diagrams of change in errors with dimensionless time in the presence of 325 adsorption (Fig. 4). For  $F_f$ , the error differences between the exact and approximate solutions 326 327 are 3.5% and 0.37% for  $\tau$ =0.05 and 0.1 when  $K_c$ =10, respectively. When  $\tau \le$ 0.024, the error would be greater than 14.7%. Fig. 2(b) shows that  $F_f$  can be 328 approximated as  $F_s$  when  $K_c$  is greater than 10; the error difference between 329  $F_f$  and  $F_s$  is quite small at this  $K_c$  value (for  $K_c=10, 6.6\%$  is the maximum 330 331 error when  $\tau$ =0.01; 4.4% when  $\tau$ =0.05; and 2.9% when  $\tau$ =0.1) as shown in 332 Fig. 4. For  $F_s$ , the error difference is roughly the same as  $F_f$  and equal to 3.6% 333 for  $\tau = 0.05$  and 0.38% for  $\tau = 0.1$ . This verifies that new derived Eq. (3B) 334





is equivalent to Eq. (3A) when  $K_c$  is greater than 10. As for the evaluation of Eq. (3C), the error difference with the exact solution will increase with dimensionless time (5.1% for  $\tau = 0.003$ , 9.7% for  $\tau = 0.01$ , and 16% for  $\tau = 0.024$ ).

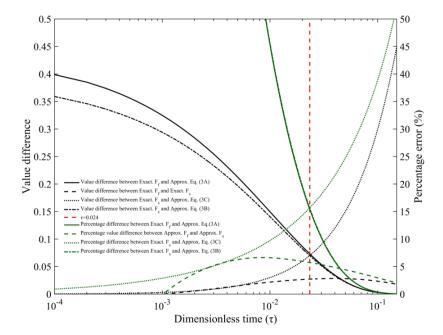


Fig. 4. Error analyses of  $F_f$  and  $F_s$  for their exact and approximate solutions. In the following, we apply the approximate solutions, Eqs. (3A-3C), to some detailed experimental data and determine permeability in several shale samples practically compatible with sample size, gases, and molecular dynamics analyses.

## 4. Influence of kinetic energy on gas transport behavior

### 4.1 Flow state of gas in granular samples





During the GPT, with the boundary conditions described in SI2, the pressure variation is captured after gas starts to permeate into the sample from the edge, and the model does not take into account the gas transport between particles or into any micro-fractures, if available. Thus, the transport that conforms to the "unipore" model and occurs after the "Early Stage" (defined in Section 3.3) and or during the "Penetration Zone" (the area between the two vertical lines in Fig. 5), should be used to determine the slope. See Fig. S2 in which it is shown how to obtain the permeability result using the applicable mathematical solutions (Eqs. 3A-C). Fig. 5 shows the pressure variance with time during the experiment using different sample size from sample X-1. Similar pattern was observed for sample X-2 as well. From Fig. 5, the time needed to reach pressure equilibrium after the initial fluctuation stage is 20-100 sec, and the Penetration Zone decreases with decreasing grain size over this time period.





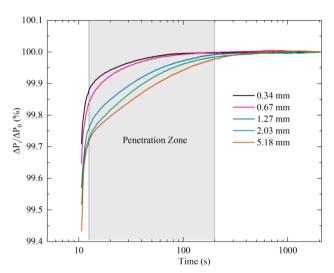


Fig. 5. Fitting region (the "Penetration Zone" in the shadowed area) for mudrock sample X-1 with different granular sizes; the penetration zone illustrating the

pressure gradient mainly happens at 20 to 200 sec for this sample.

In fact, the "Penetration Zone", as an empirical period, is evaluated by the pressure change over a unit of time before gas is completely transported into the inner central part of the sample to reach the final pressure. Owing to the sample size limitation, a decreasing pressure could cause multiple flow states (based on the Knudsen number) to exist in the experiment. The pressure during the GPT experiment varies between 50 and 200 psi. Fig. 6 shows the Knudsen number calculated from different pressure conditions and pore diameters together with their potential flow state. Based on Fig. 6, the flow state of gas in the GPT experiments is mainly dominated by Fickian and transition





diffusion. Essentially, the flow state change with pressure should be strictly evaluated through the Knudsen number in Fig. 6 to guarantee that the data in the "Penetration Zone" are always fitted with the GPT's constitutive equation for laminar or diffusive states. This helps obtain a linear trend for  $ln(1 - F_f)$  or  $F_s^2$  versus time for low-permeability media. Experimentally, data from 30 to several 100 seconds are recommended for tight rocks like shales within the GPT methodology.

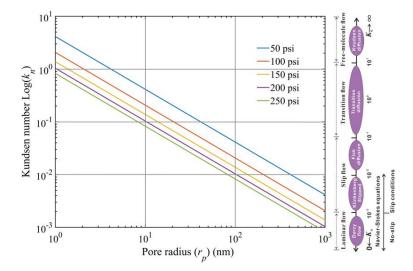


Fig. 6. Flow state of gas under diffferent testing pressures; modified from Chen & Pfender (1983) and Roy et al. (2003) (Chen and Pfender, 1983; Roy et al., 2003).

In the GPT approach, as mentioned earlier, Eq. (S33) holds for small  $K_c$ 





values (e.g., < 10) so that the approximately equivalent void volume in the sample cell and sample pore volume would allow for sufficient pressure drop. It also gives time and allows the probing gas to expand into the matrix pores to have a valid "Penetration Zone" and to determine the permeability. Greater values of  $K_c$  would prevent the gas flow from entering into a slippage state as the pressure difference would increase with increasing  $K_c$ . However, large pressure changes would result in a turbulent flow (Fig. 6), which would cause the flow state of gas to be no longer valid for the constitutive equation of the GPT. Overall, the GPT solutions would be applicable to the gas permeability measurement, based on the diffusion-like process, from laminar flow to Fickian diffusion, after the correction of the slippage effect. Though the liquid permeability is not complicated by the gas slippage effect, the liquid test is difficult in achieving the flow state of Knudsen number greater than  $10^{-3}$ , which normally occurs in the ultra-low permeability media. Therefore, gases are chosen, and practically needed, as the testing fluid in this work.

#### 4.2 Pressure decay behavior of four different probing gases

We used three inert gases, including He, N<sub>2</sub>, and Ar, and one sorptive gas i.e., CO<sub>2</sub> (Busch et al., 2008), to compare the pressure drop behavior for sample size of 0.675 mm (average granular diameter). Results for the mudrock sample X-2 are presented in Fig. 7. Among the three inert gases, helium and





argon required the shortest and longest time to reach pressure equilibrium (i.e., He<N<sub>2</sub><Ar). For pressure range, argon had the greatest pressure drop. In a constant-temperature system, the speed (or rate) at which gas molecules move is inversely proportional to the square root of their molar masses. Hence, it is reasonable that helium (with the smallest kinetic diameter of 0.21 nm) has the shortest equilibrium time. However, the pressure drop is more critical than the time needed to reach equilibrium for the GPT, as the equilibrium time does not differ much (basically within 10 seconds for a given sample weight, except for the adsorptive CO<sub>2</sub>). Argon may provide a wider range of valid Penetration Zones in a short time scale for its longest decay time except for adsorbed gas of CO<sub>2</sub>; a choice of inert and economical gas is suggested for the GPT experiments.

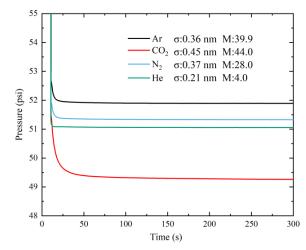


Fig. 7. Measured pressure decay curves from mudrock Sample X-2 for gases of





421 different molecular diameters  $\sigma$  and molecular weights M (g/mol). 422 423 Fig. 7 shows that the pressure decay curve of the adsorptive gas CO<sub>2</sub> is 424 different from those of the inert gases used in this study. CO<sub>2</sub> has a slow 425 equilibrium time due to its large molar mass, and the greatest pressure drop 426 among the four gases due to its adsorption effect. This additional flux needs to 427 be taken into account to obtain an accurate transport coefficient. Adsorption of CO<sub>2</sub> is stronger than that of CH<sub>4</sub>, especially in micropores in tight reservoirs 428 429 (Busch et al., 2008). Accordingly, multiple studies including laboratory 430 experiments (Pini, 2014) and long-term field observations (Haszeldine et al., 431 2006; Lu et al., 2009) were carried out to assess the sealing efficiency of 432 mudrocks for CO<sub>2</sub> storage. In fact, the GPT can supply a quick and effective 433 way to identify the adsorption behavior of different mudrocks for both laminar-flow and diffusion states. 434 435 4.3 Pressure decay behavior for different granular sizes 436 We compared the pressure drop behavior of gas in the mudstone Sample X-437 1 with different granular sizes (averaged from 0.34 mm to 5.18 mm) using the 438 same sample weight and  $K_c$ . Results based on the experimental data shown in 439 Fig. 8 indicate that a larger-sized sample would provide more analyzable data 440 to determine the permeability. This because the larger the granular size, (1) the





larger the pressure drop, (2) the longer the decay time as Fig. 8 demonstrates.

The is consistent with the simulated results reported by Profice et al. (2012)

443 (Profice et al., 2012).

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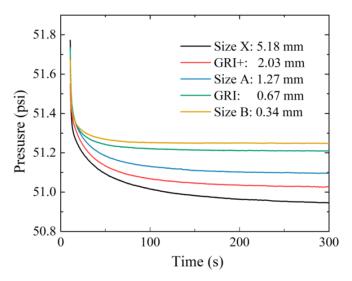


Fig. 8. Pressure decay curves measured by helium on sample X-1 with five different granular sizes. The intra-granular porosity was 5.8% independently measured by

447 mercury intrusion porosimetry.

Table 2. Permeability results from the methods of GPT and SMP-200 for X-1.

Size (mm)	SMP-200 (nD) §	GPT test 1 (nD) <sup>£</sup>	GPT test 2 (nD) <sup>£</sup>	Average value (nD) <sup>£</sup>	Fitting duration (s)	Solution type	Dimensionless time	Particle density (g/cm³)
5.18	-	1.17	1.17	1.17	50-100	ILT	0.023-0.027	2.631
2.03	14.2	0.45	0.41	0.43	50-100	LLT	0.026-0.028	2.626
1.27	-	0.10	0.10	0.10	30-60	ILT	$CR^*$	2.673
0.67	0.65	0.08	0.04	0.06	30-60	LLT	$CR^*$	2.658
0.34	-	0.02	-	0.02	30-60	IET	$CR^*$	2.643

 $<sup>\</sup>S$  The results are from the SMP-200 using the GRI default method.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>£</sup> The results are from the GPT method we proposed.

 $<sup>^{*}</sup>$  CR means the conflict results that the verified dimensionless time does not confirm the early- or late-time solutions using the solved permeability. For example, the verified dimensionless time would be > 0.024 using the early-time solution solved result and





vice versa.

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As reported in Table 2, the permeability values measured by the GPT method are one or two orders of magnitude greater than those measured by the SMP-200 instrument. The built-in functions of SMP-200 can only be used for two default granular sizes (500-841 µm for GRI and 1.70-2.38 mm for what we call GRI+) to manually curve-fit the pressure decay data and determine the permeability. The GRI method built in the SMP-200 only suggests the fitting procedure for data processing without publicly available details of underlying mathematics. The intra-granular permeabilities of mudrock sample X-1 vary from 0.02 to 1.17 nD for five different granular sizes using the GPT. With the same pressure decay data selected from 30 to 200 sec, the permeability results for GRI and GRI+ sample sizes from the SMP-200 fitting are 0.65 and 14.2 nD, as compared to 0.06 and 0.43 nD determined by the GPT using the same mean granular size. Our results are consistent with those reported by Peng & Loucks (2016) who found two to three orders of magnitude differences between the GPT and SMP-200 methods (Peng and Loucks, 2016). There exist several issues associated with granular samples with diameters smaller than Size A (average diameter of 1.27 mm). First, the testing duration is short, and second, there would not be sufficient pressure variation analyzed in Fig. 8. Both may cause significant uncertainties in the





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permeability calculation and, therefore, make samples with diameters smaller than Size A unfavorable for the GPT method, particularly extra-tight (sub-nD levels) samples, as there is almost no laminar or diffusion flow state to be captured. The greater pressure drop for larger-sized granular samples would result in greater pressure variation and wider data region compared to smaller granular sizes (see Figs. 6 and 9). Although samples of large granular sizes may potentially contain micro-fractures, which complicate the determination of true matrix permeability (Heller et al., 2014), the versatile GPT method can still provide size-dependent permeabilities for a wide range of samples (e.g., from sub-mm to 10 cm diameter full-size cores) (Ghanbarian, 2022a, b). Besides, the surface roughness of large grains may also complicate the determination of permeability, which need to pay attention to (Devegowda, 2015; Rasmuson, 1985; Ruthven and Loughlin, 1971). Overall, our results demonstrated that sample diameters larger 2 mm are recommended for the GPT to determine the nD permeability of tight mudrocks or crystalline rocks, while smaller sample sizes may produce uncertain results.

#### 4.4 Practical recommendations for the holistic GPT

Here, we evaluate the potential approximate solution for tight rock samples using frequently applied experimental settings by considering the critical parameters, such as sample mass, porosity, and estimated permeability





(as compiled in Fig. 9 showing the dimensionless time versus porosity). Based on the results presented in Figs. 3 and 6, only t < 200s is dominant and critical for the analyses of dimensionless time and penetration zone. Thus, we take 200s and use helium to calculate the dimensionless time. Another critical parameter to assure enough decay data is the sample diameter greater than 2 mm. Thus, we only show the dimensionless time versus porosity for sample diameter greater than 2 mm.

Fig. 9 demonstrates that the sample permeability has dominant control on the early- or late-solution selection, and we decipher a concise criterial for three solutions selection. We classify the dimensionless time versus porosity relationship into three cases. Firstly, among the curves shown in Fig. 9, only that corresponding to k = 0.1 nD and sample diameter of 2 mm stays below the dashed line representing  $\tau = 0.024$ . Therefore, the early time solution is appropriate for tight samples with permeabilities less than 0.1 nD (as shown in the analyses of Section 4.3, which also conforms to the situation of the molecular sieve sample that we tested in SI3). Secondly, for permeabilities greater than 10 nD (the curve is above the line of  $\tau = 0.024$ ), the new derived late-time solution, Eq. (3B), is recommended as it is more convenient for mathematical calculation without the consideration of transcendental functions. The reason is that the sample cell can be filled as much as possible





(~90% of the volume) with samples and solid objects. However, as the tight rock hardly presents a large value of porosity, the small  $K_c$  value is difficult to be achieved with an inconsequential influence between Eq. (3B) and Eq. (3A). Lastly, in the case of permeability around 1 nD, the value of porosity would be critical in the selection of the early- or late-time solutions, as shown in Fig. 9.

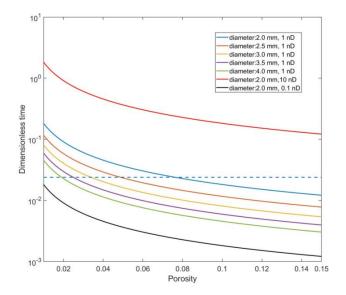


Fig. 9. Holistic GPT to explore the appropriate solution based on diameter, permeability, and porosity of samples. The legend shows the diameter of granular sample and permeability, along with a dashed line for dimensionless time of 0.024, while regions above and below this value fit for the late- and early-time solutions, respectively.

## 5. Conclusions

In the present work, we solved fluid flow state equation in granular porous





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media and provided three exact mathematical solutions along with their approximate ones for practical applications of low permeability measurements. The mathematical solutions for the transport coefficient in the GPT were derived for a spherical coordinate system, applicable from laminar flow to slippage-corrected Fickian diffusion. Among the three derivations, one was early-time solution valid when gas storage capacity  $K_c$  approaches infinity and two were late-time solutions valid when either  $K_c$  is small or  $K_c$  tends to infinity. We evaluated the derived solutions for a systematic measurement of extra-low permeabilities in granular media and crushed rocks using experimental methodologies with the data processing procedures. We determined the error for each solution by comparing with the exact solutions presented in the SI. The applicable conditions for such solutions of the GPT were investigated, and we provided the selection strategies for three approximate solutions based the range of sample permeability. In addition, a detailed utilization of GTP was given to build up the confidence in the GPT method through the molecular sieve sample, as it enables a rapid permeability test for ultra-tight rock samples in just tens to hundreds of seconds, with good repeatability. Data availability. This work did not use any data from previously published sources, and our experimental data & processing codes of MATLAB are available at https://doi.org/10.18738/T8/YZJS7Y, managed by Mavs





544 Dataverse of the University of Texas at Arlington. 545 **Supplement.** An early-version preprint of this work appears as DOI: 10.1002/essoar.10506690.2 (Zhang et al., 2021). 546 **Author contributions**. TZ and QHH planned and designed the research, 547 548 performed the analyses, and wrote the paper with contributions from all co-549 authors. BG, DK, and ZM participated in the research and edited the paper. 550 Competing interest. We declare that we do not have any commercial or 551 associative interest that represents a conflict of interest in connection with the 552 work submitted. 553 **Acknowledgments.** Financial assistance for this work was provided by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (41830431; 41821002), 554 Shandong Provincial Major Type Grant for Research and Development from 555 556 the Department of Science & Technology of Shandong Province 557 (2020ZLYS08), Maverick Science Graduate Research Fellowship for 2022-558 2023, and Kansas State University through faculty start-up funds to BG. 559

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560	Nomenclature
561	$B_{ij}$ Correction parameter for viscosity, constant
562	$c_t$ Fluid compressibility, Pa <sup>-1</sup>
563	D Diffusion coefficient, m <sup>2</sup> /s
564	$F_f$ Uptake rate of gas outside the sample, dimensionless
565	$F_s$ Uptake rate in the sample, dimensionless
566	$f_1$ Intercept of Eq. (S40), constant
567	J Physical flux, unit for certain physical phenomenon
568	$K_a$ Apparent transport coefficient defined as Eq. (S9), m <sup>2</sup> /s
569 570 571	<i>K<sub>c</sub></i> Ratio of gas storage capacity of the total void volume of the system to the pore (including adsorptive and non-adsorptive transport) volume of the sample, fraction
572	$K_f$ Initial density state of the system, fraction
573	k Permeability, m <sup>2</sup>
574	$k_s$ Permeability defined as Eq. (S8), m <sup>2</sup> /(pa·s)
575	L Coefficient, unit for certain physical transport phenomenon
576	M Molar mass, kg/kmol
577	$M_m$ Molar mass of the mixed gas, kg/kmol
578	$M_{i,j}$ Molar mass for gas i or j, kg/kmol
579	$M_s$ Total mass of sample, kg
580	N Particle number, constant
581	p Pressure, Pa
582	$p_{cm}$ Virtual critical pressure of mixed gas, Pa
583	$p_p$ Pseudo-pressure from Eq. (S1), Pa/s
584	$R_a$ Particle diameter of sample, m
585	R Universal gas constant, 8.314 J/(mol·K)





r Diameter of sample, m 586 587  $s_1$  Slope of Eq. (S40), constant  $s_2$  Slope of function  $Ln(1-F_s)$ , constant 588  $s_3$  Slope of function  $F_s^2$ , constant 589 T Temperature, K 590  $T_{cm}$  Virtual critical temperature for mixed gas, K 591 t Time, s 592  $U_f$  Dimensionless density of gas outside the sample, dimensionless 593  $U_s$  Dimensionless density in grain, dimensionless 594  $U_{\infty}$  Maximum density defined as Eq. (S37), dimensionless 595 V<sub>1</sub> Cell volume in upstream of pulse-decay method, m<sup>3</sup> 596  $V_2$  Cell volume in downstream of pulse-decay method, m<sup>3</sup> 597  $V_b$  Bulk volume of sample, m<sup>3</sup> 598 V<sub>c</sub> Total system void volume except for sample bulk volume, m<sup>3</sup> 599  $\overline{v}$  Dacian velocity in pore volume of porous media, m/s 600 601 X Pressure force, Pa  $y_{i,j}$  Molar fraction for gas i or j, fraction 602 z Gas deviation (compressibility) factor, constant 603 **Greek Letters:** 604  $\alpha_n$  The nth root of Eq. (S30), constant 605 μ Dynamic viscosity, pa·s or N·s/m<sup>2</sup> 606  $\mu_{i,i}$  Dynamic viscosity for gas i or j, pa·s or N·s/m<sup>2</sup> 607  $\mu_{mix}$  Dynamic viscosity of mixture gas, pa s or N s/m<sup>2</sup> 608  $\mu_p$  Correction term for the viscosity with pressure, pa s or N s/m<sup>2</sup> 609  $\xi$  Dimensionless radius of sample, dimensionless 610





611	$\rho$ Density of fluid, kg/m <sup>3</sup>
612	$\rho_0$ Average gas density on the periphery of sample, kg/m <sup>3</sup>
613	$\rho_1$ Gas density in reference cell, kg/m <sup>3</sup>
614	$\rho_2$ Gas density in sample cell, kg/m <sup>3</sup>
615	$\rho_b$ Average bulk density for each particle, kg/m <sup>3</sup>
616	$ ho_f$ Density of gas changing with time outside sample, kg·m <sup>-3</sup> ·s <sup>-1</sup>
617	$\rho_{f^{\infty}}$ Maximum value of $\rho_f$ defined as Eq. (S38), kg·m <sup>-3</sup> ·s <sup>-1</sup>
618	$\rho_p$ Pseudo-density from Eq. (S1), kg·m <sup>-3</sup> ·s <sup>-1</sup>
619	$\rho_s$ Density of gas changing with time in sample, kg·m <sup>-3</sup> ·s <sup>-1</sup>
620	$ ho_{ps}$ Pseudo-density of gas changing with time in sample, kg·m <sup>-3</sup> ·s <sup>-1</sup>
621	$ ho_{pf}$ Pseudo-density of gas changing with time outside sample, kg·m <sup>-3</sup> ·s <sup>-1</sup>
622	$\rho_{p2}$ Initial pseudo-density of gas in sample, kg·m <sup>-3</sup> ·s <sup>-1</sup>
623	$\rho_{p0}$ Average pseudo-density of gas on sample periphery, kg·m <sup>-3</sup> ·s <sup>-1</sup>
624	$ ho_{rm}$ Relative density to the mixed gas, kg·m <sup>-3</sup> ·s <sup>-1</sup>
625	$\rho_{sav}$ Average value of $\rho_{sr}$ defined as Eq. (S47), kg·m <sup>-3</sup> ·s <sup>-1</sup>
626 627	$\rho_{sr}$ Average value of pseudo-density of sample changing with diameter, kg·m <sup>-3</sup> ·s <sup>-1</sup>
628	$\rho_{s\infty}$ Maximum value of $\rho_{sr}$ defined as Eq. (S46), kg·m <sup>-3</sup> ·s <sup>-1</sup>
629	au Dimensionless time, dimensionless
630	$\phi$ Sample porosity, fraction
631 632	$\phi_f$ Total porosity ( $\phi_f = \phi_a + \phi_b$ ) occupied by both free and adsorptive fluids, fraction





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