Real-time Observations of the Release of Non-Methane Hydrocarbons from Fractured Shale

Roberto Sommariva[1], Robert S. Blake[1], Robert J. Cuss[2], Rebecca Cordell[1], Jon F. Harrington[2], Iain R. White[1] & Paul S. Monks[1*]

[1]Department of Chemistry, University of Leicester, Leicester, UK.
[2]British Geological Survey (BGS), Nottingham, UK.

Abstract

The organic content of shale has become of commercial interest as a source of hydrocarbons.[1,2] Hydraulic fracturing, commonly known as "fracking", is the process used to release and extract hydrocarbons from shale formations. While commercial interest in shale exploitation is focused on the extraction of methane and light alkanes, shale also contains significant amounts of non-methane hydrocarbons (NMHC). To date, there have not been studies characterizing the range and quantities of NMHC released from fractured shale and the physio-chemical dynamics of the fracturing process at petrological level is unknown. Here we describe the first real-time observations of the release and evolution of NMHC from the fracturing of shale. Samples of shale, extracted from the Bowland-Hodder formation in England, were fractured and analysed under different conditions of temperature and humidity using mass spectrometric techniques. A wide range of NMHC (alkanes, cycloalkanes, aromatics and bi-cyclic hydrocarbons) are released at ppm/ppb level from fractured shale with temperature and humidity-dependent release rates. The measured release rates of NMHC can be rationalised in terms of the physio-chemical characteristics of the different hydrocarbons classes. Our results indicate that higher energy inputs (i.e. higher temperatures) significantly increase the amounts of NMHC released from shale, while higher humidity tends to suppress the release of gases; additionally, we found that most of the shale gas is released within the first 45 minutes after the shale has been fractured. These findings suggest that other hydrocarbons of commercial interest may be extracted from shale and open the possibility to optimise the "fracking" process, using an NMHC fingerprint as a proxy of the potential to improve gas yield and to reduce the environmental impacts.

Introduction

Shale is an abundant type of sedimentary rock made of compacted silt and clay that often includes economically significant quantities of organic matter. The content of organic matter is typically in the range of 1-3% (and as high as 8%)[4] by weight. This material is considered crucial in the formation of hydrocarbon deposits that constitute conventional oil and gas reservoirs (hydrocarbon source rock). The hydrocarbon content of shale gas has recently become of high commercial interest, as a combination of rising oil prices, security of supply (e.g. because of political instability in certain parts of the world) and improved technology have made these non-conventional sources of hydrocarbons economically viable[1,2]. In order to extract oil or gas from shale it is necessary to pervasively fracture the rock. This technique, termed hydraulic fracturing ("fracking"), consists of drilling a well in the prospective shale units and injecting water under high pressure mixed with sand (~5%) and chemical additives (~0.2%) in order to fracture the rock and stimulate the release of hydrocarbons[2].

The growth of hydraulic fracturing in recent years has raised several concerns regarding its

50 environmental impact[1,2,3]; however, most of the attention has been focused on the contamination
51 of ground and surface waters and on the potential to cause minor earthquakes[2,3]. The implications
52 of shale exploitation for air quality and climate change have not received much attention and a
53 detailed study of the gas release process during the fracture of the rock has yet to be done.
54
55 Emissions from oil and gas wells are well characterized[5,6,7,8] but natural gas reservoirs are distinctly
56 different from gas shales. Because of the nature of hydraulic fracturing, the release of gas from
57 shale is a dynamic process influenced by the amount of energy transmitted to the rock in the form
58 of changes to stress, pore pressure and temperature. We examine, for the first time, the pervasive
59 fracturing of a shale and present a real-time chemical analysis of the release of non-methane
60 hydrocarbon (NMHC) gases from a fractured shale.
61

Methodology

63
64 A shale specimen (Figure 1) was collected from a part of the Bowland-Hodder formation in
65 Lancashire (north-western England), currently under consideration for commercial exploitation[4].
66 The sample (average carbon, sulphur and water content 2.87%, 1.84% and 3.9% by weight,
67 respectively) was collected from freshly exposed outcrop material, but can be considered
68 representative of the shale at depth. Cores were carefully subsampled from the shale specimen
69 and analysed in the laboratory by mass spectrometry. In order to observe the release of gases in
70 real-time, the fast analytical speed of quantitative chemical ionisation offered by Proton-Transfer-
71 Reaction Time-of-Flight Mass-Spectrometry (PTR-TOF-MS)[9,10,11] was employed. Species
72 identification was carried out using Thermal-Desorption Gas-Chromatography Mass-Spectrometry
73 (TD-GC-MS). Details of the instruments, calibrations and methods, as well as preparation of the
74 samples, are described in the Supplementary Information. The analytical techniques employed in
75 this work are not sensitive to some classes of compounds: in particular, methane and short-chain
76 alkanes ($\leq C_5$), which are some of the most commercially important hydrocarbons in shale, are not
77 detectable by PTR-TOF-MS[10,12]. Consequently, much of the following discussion will be focused on
78 the larger Non-Methane Hydrocarbons ($\geq C_5$).
79
80 Gas chromatographic analysis[12] made it possible to identify the most important NMHC observed
81 by PTR-TOF-MS upon shale fracturing: linear and branched alkanes (C_5-C_{12}), aromatics (C_8-C_{12}) and
82 mono- and bi-cyclic hydrocarbons were detected in all samples at ppm (μmol/mol) / ppb
83 (nmol/mol) level. Carbon disulphide (CS_2) was also detected in all samples. The complete list of
84 NMHC identified by TD-GC-MS is shown in Table SI-2. Aromatic compounds are easily identifiable
85 by PTR-TOF-MS, although isomers cannot be distinguished[12]. Alkanes, however, are known to
86 fragment[14,15] even with soft-ionization techniques such as proton-transfer, characteristically losing
87 successive methylene groups ($-CH_2$). A mass channel associated with the parent ion ($[M-1]^+$) of a
88 straight chain alkane is given here to represent contributions from isobaric branched isomers and
89 methylene loss from heavier acyclic alkanes. Using this approach, described in more detail in the
90 Supplementary Information, it was possible to follow the release of selected NMHC from fractured
91 shale samples in real-time.
92

Results and Discussion

94
95 The release of NMHC from a ~200 g shale sample (A4-6, see Table SI-1) was observed over a period
96 of 24 hours under different conditions. At first, the sample was uncrushed and kept at ambient
97 temperature (~23 ºC); after 6 hours, temperature was increased to ~75 ºC; finally, after
98 approximately 12 hours, the sample was crushed and observed again at high temperature (~80 ºC,

99   comparable to *in situ* values). The time-series for selected NMHC are shown in Figure 2. The results
100   show that, if the shale is uncrushed at ambient temperature, very little NMHC are released. Raising
101   the temperature increases the release of NMHC by a factor of 5 to 10. When the rock is crushed,
102   NMHC release increases by an additional factor of 4 to 8, even after almost 12 hours spent at high
103   temperature. The observed behaviour indicates that most of the hydrocarbon mass is trapped
104   inside the shale and cannot be released simply by volatilization at high temperature (see Figure 1
105   and Supplementary Video).

107   The data in Figure 2 also show that the release rates of gases from an uncrushed shale above room
108   temperature slowly decrease with time, except for heavier aromatics ($\geq C_9$), whose release rates are
109   almost constant. After the shale has been crushed the release rates of all NMHC show a sharp
110   decrease. The pattern of gas release post-crushing suggests that different NMHC are stored in the
111   shale and released from it by different mechanisms, depending on their mode of storage.
112   To better understand the dynamics of the gas release, several shale samples (Table SI-1) were
113   crushed and analysed by PTR-TOF-MS under a range of conditions (hot/cold, dry/humid) in real-
114   time. Figure 3 shows the time-series of selected compounds for a typical set of experiments. The
115   amount of gas released is higher (2-5 times) when the rock is crushed in dry air than when it is
116   crushed in humid air (50-60% RH); it is also much higher (~10 times) at high temperature (70-80
117   ºC) than at ambient temperature (23-25 ºC). Under all conditions, the maximum concentrations of
118   all NMHC were observed within 30-45 minutes after the rock had been crushed (Figure 3).

120   Analysis of the PTR-TOF-MS data using piecewise regression analysis suggests that the release of
121   gases from a shale occurs on two timescales (Figure 4).: an initial "fast" release (1-5 s^{-1}), during the
122   first 20-40 minutes after the shale has been crushed, followed by a secondary "slow" release (0.5-2
123   s^{-1}), comparable to that from the uncrushed shale (Figure 2). It can be speculated that the initial
124   release involves gas stored in the nanometre-scale pores of the shale[16,17], which is quickly released
125   when the shale is crushed. As Figure 4 shows, the initial release rates are typically faster for
126   alkanes, cycloalkanes and bi-cyclic hydrocarbons, which are more volatile than aromatics and thus
127   released promptly upon fracturing of the shale. The initial release of the more volatile NMHC is
128   faster at low temperature and high humidity, which may be caused by expansion of the clay
129   minerals owing to swelling under these conditions.

131   In contrast, the release rates of aromatics are very similar during both the initial and the secondary
132   release, suggesting that these species are adsorbed on the mineral surface and need additional
133   energy to be released. Since the presence of water interferes with the desorption of the molecules,
134   this would explain why the release of aromatics is stimulated at higher temperature and
135   suppressed at higher humidity (Figure 4).

137   Our observations show consistent patterns but also significant variability among the samples,
138   despite being part of the same shale. This may be because of the natural heterogeneity of the rock,
139   the technical difficulty of achieving consistent fracturing of the samples, the temperature
140   differences between the surface and the bulk of the samples and the variation in the natural
141   moisture content of the shale itself.

143   Our results give insight, for the first time, into the time-dependent release of NMHC from a shale
144   deemed suitable for "fracking". While methane and light alkanes constitute the main impetus
145   behind the commercial exploitation of shale, many NMHC are found in shale and released during
146   the "fracking" process: some of these may be of commercial interest if their retrieval can be made
147   economically viable.

148

149 We also found that the release of most NMHC peaks within 45 minutes after the shale is crushed
150 (Figure 3): if not extracted rapidly, this fraction of shale gas will be lost, reducing the economic
151 output and resulting in potential contamination of ground and surface waters and the atmosphere
152 during the initial stimulation process.

153

154 Since we have analysed only one type of shale, it is reasonable to expect variability in the type and
155 amounts of NMHC released from different shale formations. There is an urgent need for further
156 work to understand the fundamental relationships between gas release, energy input, temperature
157 and humidity. The outcome could lead to opportunities to optimise the "fracking" process,
158 improve its efficiency and reduce the environmental impact.

159

160 **References**

161

162 1. Priddle, R. Golden Rules for a Golden Age of Gas. World Energy Outlook Special Report on
163 Unconventional Gas. International Energy Agency, Paris, France
164 http://www.iea.org/publications/freepublications/publication/name,27408,en.html (2012).
165 2. Bickle, M. Shale gas extraction in the UK: a review of hydraulic fracturing. The Royal Society
166 and The Royal Academy of Engineering, London, UK (2012).
167 3. Kibble, A. *et al.* Review of the Potential Public Health Impacts of Exposures to Chemical and
168 Radioactive Pollutants as a Result of Shale Gas Extraction. Public Health England, London,
169 UK (2013).
170 4. Andrews, I. J. The Carboniferous Bowland Shale gas study: geology and resource estimation.
171 British Geological Survey for Department of Energy and Climate Change, London, UK
172 (2013).
173 5. Kemball-Cook, S. *et al.* Ozone, impacts of natural gas development in the Haynesville shale.
174 *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **44**, 9357-9363 (2010).
175 6. Katzenstein, A. S., Doezema, L. A., Simpson, I. J., Blake, D. R. & Rowland, F. S. Extensive
176 regional atmospheric hydrocarbon pollution in the southwestern United States. *Proc. Nat.*
177 *Acad. Sci.* **100**, 11975-11979 (2003).
178 7. Gilman, J. B., Lerner, B. M., Kuster, W. C. & de Gouw, J. A. Source Signature of Volatile
179 Organic Compounds from Oil and Natural Gas Operations in Northeastern Colorado.
180 *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **47**, 1297-1305 (2013).
181 8. Swarthout, R. F., Russo, R. S., Zhou, Y., Hart, A. H. & Sive, B. C. Volatile organic compound
182 distributions during the NACHTT campaign at the Boulder Atmospheric Observatory:
183 Influence of urban and natural gas sources. *J. Geophys. Res.* **118**, 10614-10637 (2013).
184 9. Blake, R. S., Monks, P. S. & Ellis, A. M. Proton-Transfer Reaction Mass Spectrometry. *Chem.*
185 *Rev.* **109**, 861-896 (2009).
186 10. Blake, R. S., Whyte, C., Hughes, C. O., Ellis, A. M. & Monks, P. S. Demonstration of Proton-
187 Transfer Reaction Time-of-Flight Mass Spectrometry for real-time analysis of trace volatile
188 organic compounds. *Anal. Chem.* **76**, 3841-3845 (2004).
189 11. Wyche, K. P. *et al.* Technical Note: Performance of Chemical Ionization Reaction Time-of-
190 Flight Mass Spectrometry (CIR-TOF-MS) for the measurement of atmospherically significant
191 oxygenated volatile organic compounds. *Atmos. Chem. Phys.* **7**, 609–620 (2007).
192 12. de Gouw, J. A. & Warneke, C. Measurements of volatile organic compounds in the Earth's
193 atmosphere using proton-transfer-reaction mass spectrometry. *Mass Spectrom. Rev.* **26**,
194 223-257 (2007)
195 13. Wylie, P. L. Screening for 171 Volatile organic air pollutants Using GC/MS with
196 Deconvolution Reporting Software and a New Indoor Air Toxics Library. Agilent Application

197 note. http://www.chem.agilent.com/Library/applications/5989-5435EN.pdf (accessed
198 November 2013).
199 14. Erickson, M. H., Gueneron, M. & Jobson, B. T. Measuring long chain alkanes in diesel engine
200 exhaust by thermal desorption PTR-MS. *Atmos. Meas. Tech. Discuss.* **6**, 6005-6046 (2013).
201 15. Yuan, B., Warneke, C., Shao, M. & de Gouw, J. Interpretation of volatile organic compound
202 measurements by proton-transfer-reaction mass spectrometry over the deepwater horizon
203 oil spill. *Int. J. Mass Spectrom.* doi: 10.1016/j.ijms.2013.11.006 (2013).
204 16. Chalmers, G. R., Bustin, R. M. & Power, I. M. Characterization of gas shale pore systems by
205 porosimetry, pycnometry, surface area, and field emission scanning electron
206 microscopy/transmission electron microscopy image analyses: Examples from the Barnett,
207 Woodford, Haynesville, Marcellus, and Doig units. *AAPG Bull.* **96**, 6, 1099-1119 (2012).
208 17. Slatt, R. M. & O'Brien, R. M. Pore types in the Barnett and Woodford gas shales:
209 Contribution to understanding gas storage and migration pathways in fine-grained rocks.
210 *AAPG Bull.* **95**, 12, 2017-2030 (2011).
211
212
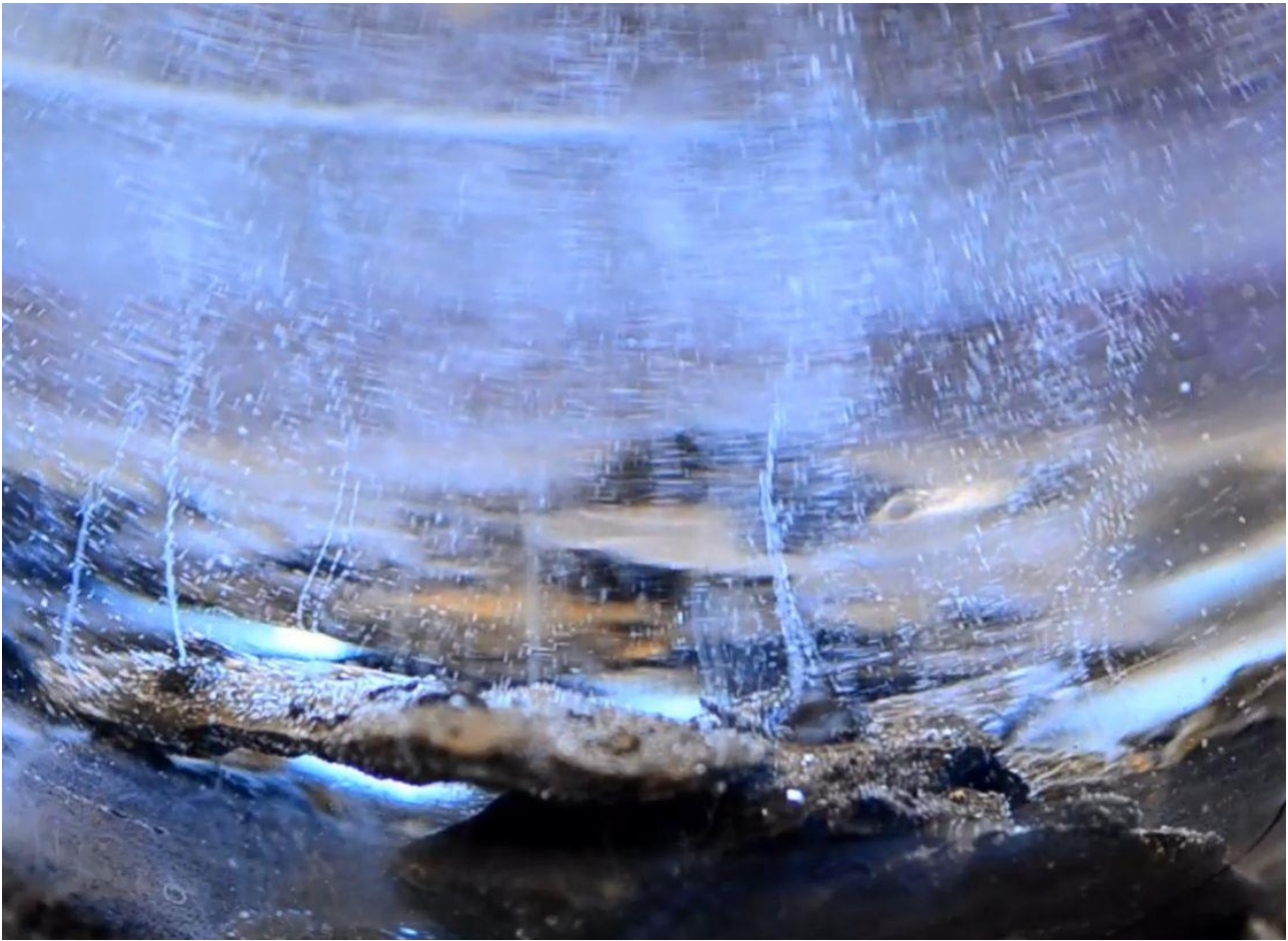
Figures

Figure 1. Sample of Bowland-Hodder shale releasing gas. The shale sample is in a heated paraffin bath, with bubbles showing the release of gas from the rock. In contrast, samples of Callovo-Oxfordian claystone, which does not contain natural gas, placed in a similar bath do not show formation of bubbles. A corresponding movie clip is provided in the Supplementary Video.
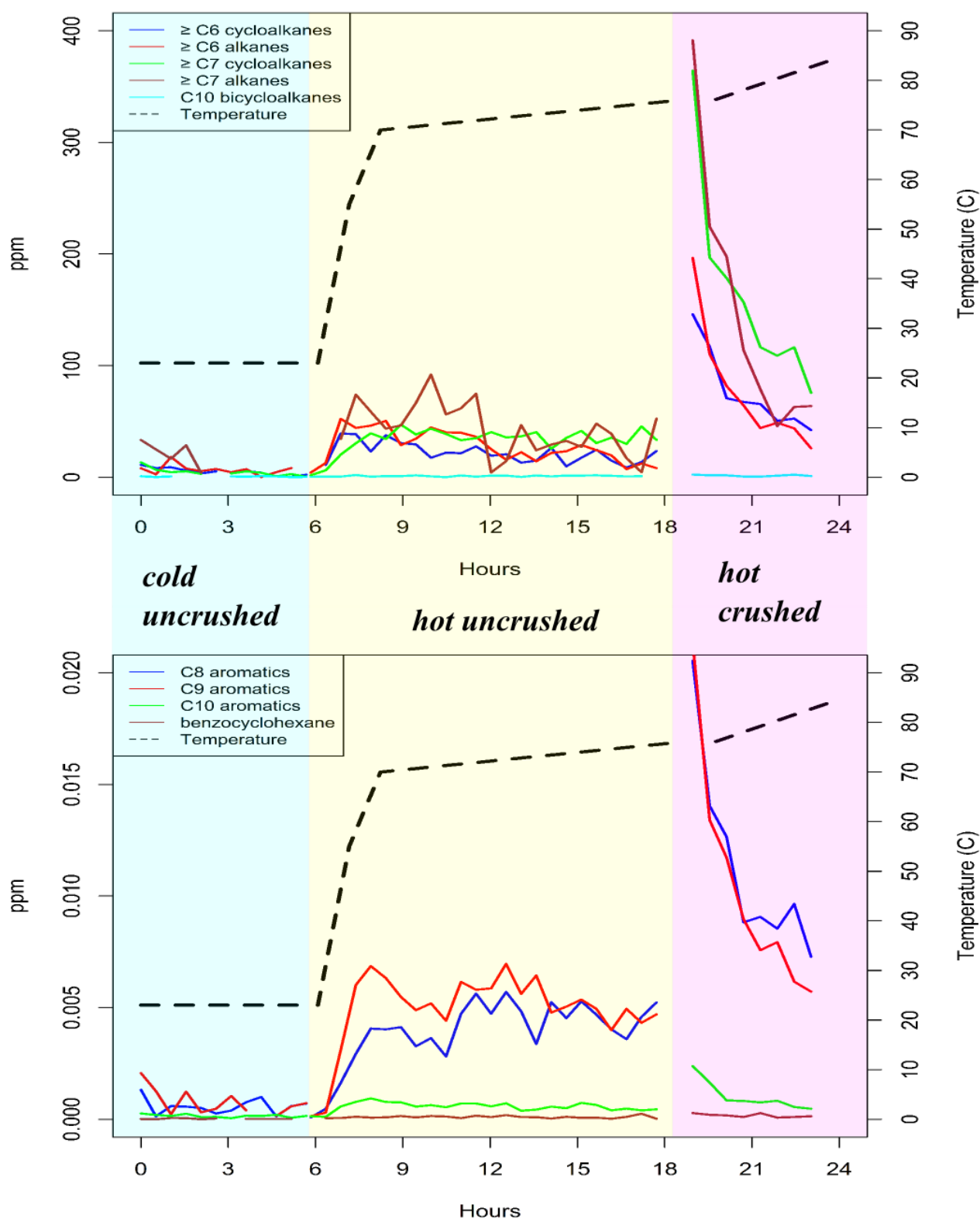
Figure 2. Time-series of selected NMHC released from a shale sample. The sample (A4-6, see Table SI-1) weighted 207-215 g and was observed over a period of 24 hours under different conditions: (shaded cyan) uncrushed at 23 ºC; (shaded yellow) uncrushed at 75 ºC; (shaded magenta) crushed at 80 ºC.
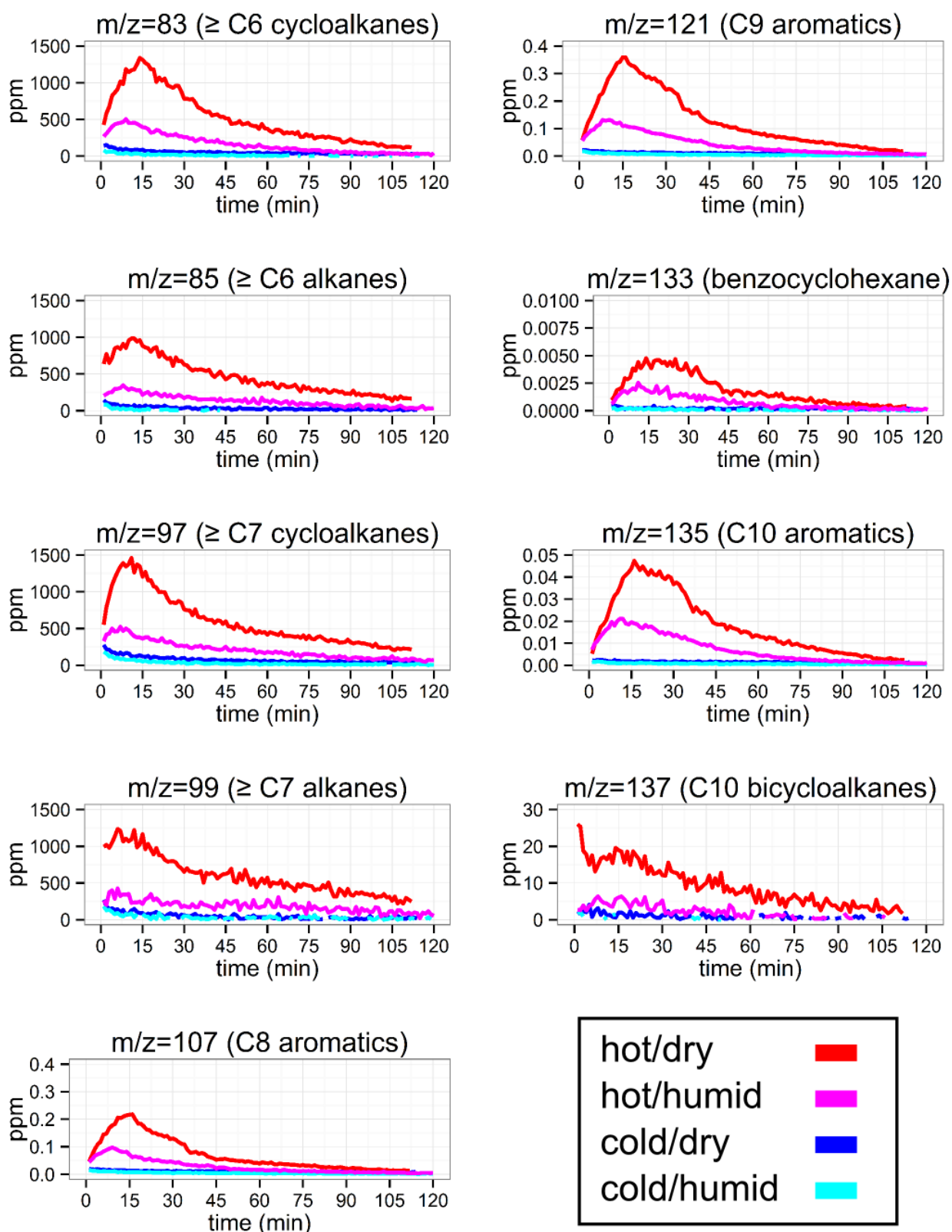
Figure 3. Effect of temperature and humidity on the release of NMHC from shale samples. The shale samples were cylindrical cores (C2, B1, D1, D2, see Table SI-1) weighting 114-118 g. The samples were crushed and placed under hot (70-80 ºC) or cold (23-25 ºC), dry or humid (50-60%) conditions.
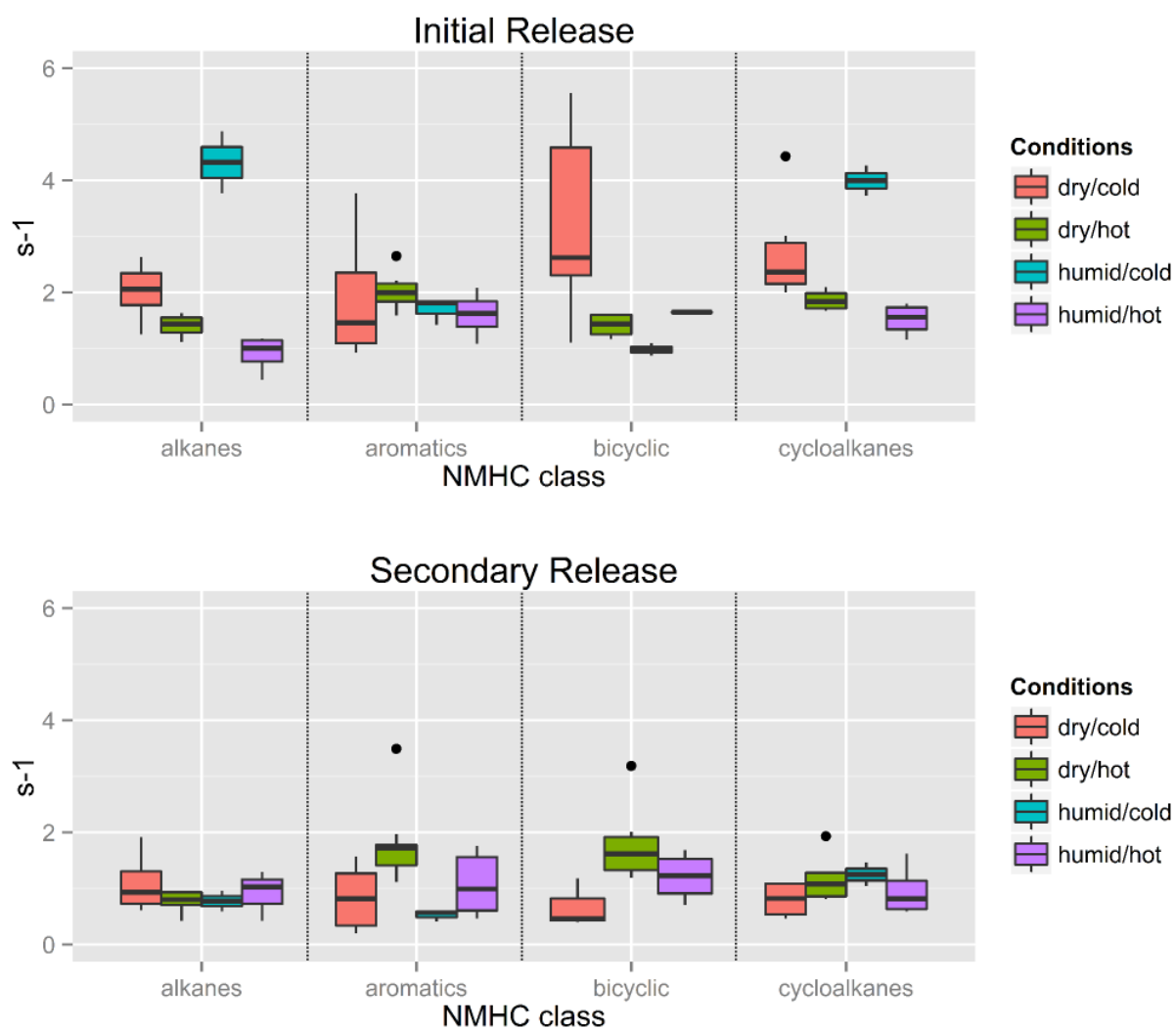
Figure 4. Release rates of NMHC classes from crushed shale samples. Initial (top panel) and secondary (bottom panel) release rates of NMHC classes under different experimental conditions: hot (70-80 ºC) or cold (23-25 ºC), dry or humid (50-60%). All the crushed samples analysed in this work (see Table SI-1) have been taken into account.