

Geochemistry, Petrology and Mineralogy of Coal Measure Shales in the Middle Jurassic Yanan Formation from Northeastern Ordos Basin, China: Implications for Shale Gas Accumulation

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Abstract: The Jurassic Yanan Formation is one of the most important coal-producing formations and hydrocarbon source rocks in the Ordos Basin, North China. To evaluate the shale gas potential of the Yanan shale, a total of 48 samples from north Ordos Basin were sampled, and their geochemical, petrological, mineralogical and pore characteristics were investigated. It was found that the shale samples are a suite of early mature source rock. The total organic carbon (TOC) content ranges from 0.33% to 24.12% and the hydrogen index (HI) ranges from 43.31mg/g to 330.58 mg/g. The relationship between $T_{\max}$ and HI indicates the organic matter is type II-III. This conclusion is also supported by the organic petrological examination results, which shows that the kerogen is mainly liptinite and vitrinite. Minerals in the samples are composed mainly of quartz, clay and feldspar, and the clay minerals are composed of prevailing kaolinite, illite/smectite, chlorite and a small amount of illite. Under scanning electron microscope, OM pores in the Yanan shale are scarce except pores come from the kerogen intrinsic texture or clay aggregates within the organic particles. As the weak compaction caused by shallow burial depth, interparticle pores and intraparticle pores are common, the hydrocarbon storage capacity of the Yanan shale was improved. According to evaluation, the Yanan shale is considered as a good shale gas reservoir, but its hydrocarbon potential is more dependent on biogenic and coal-derived gas as the thermogenic gas is limited by the lower thermal maturity.

Keywords: geochemistry, mineralogy, shale gas, Yanan Formation, Ordos Basin

1 Introduction

Unconventional oil and gas resources have become much important in the global energy industry with the development of petroleum exploration and production technologies. Coal and organic matter-rich shale, which have been identified as source rocks in petroleum geology, are also considered as feasible reservoirs in recent years. Hydrocarbon resources in these self-storage reservoirs are usually defined as continuous-type accumulation (Schmoker, 2002) and differ in both storage mechanism and production strategy from conventional oil and gas

exploration. With the renewal concept on hydrocarbon reservoir and successful practice aiming at hydrocarbon in organic rich shale, oil/gas exploitation target has been greatly extended (Nie Haikuan and Jin Zhijun, 2016), and consequently, it is necessary to reevaluate the hydrocarbon potential of formations containing high-quality source rocks.

The Ordos Basin is a multi-cycle superimposed basin and an important natural gas source area in North China. It not only has the largest gas field (He Zixin et al., 2003) of China at present, but also is one of the primary coal-bed methane target areas (Tang Shuheng et al., 2004; Shao

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Longyi et al., 2015). During the transformation of depositional environments from Paleozoic to Mesozoic, three suites of coal-bearing formations, including the paralic Permo-Carboniferous, continental Triassic formations and Jurassic formations, were deposited. According to the geological researches, these coal-bearing formations were identified as the main source rocks in the Ordos Basin (Miao Jianyu et al., 2005; Hanson et al., 2007). The Permian coal and organic-rich shale is not only the main source of tight gas fields (Bian Congsheng et al., 2015), but also an important coal-bed methane reservoir (Feng Sanli, 2002; Tang Shuheng et al., 2004; Shao Longyi et al., 2015; Zhang Yongsheng et al., 2017). In addition, it is the most promising paralic coal-bearing shale gas reservoir in North China (Zhang Jinchuan et al., 2007, 2016; Zou Caineng et al., 2010; Wang Shejiao et al., 2011; Jiang et al., 2016; Dang et al., 2016; Hao Ziguo et al., 2017). The Yanchang lacustrine black shale is a good oil source rock for many commercial oil fields (Ji et al., 2014) and has been proven to contain huge hydrocarbon resources (Tang et al., 2014; Wang Xiangzeng et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2016). Shale in the Jurassic coal-bearing formation, though it is also considered as a good source rock (Li Zixue et al., 2014; Hanson et al., 2007), has been rarely studied so far. A few studies have previously characterized its organic property (Han Zongyuan et al., 2007; Hanson et al., 2007; Huang Wenhui et al., 2010; 2011), however, little attention has been paid to the possibility of being a shale gas reservoir.

In this study, the organic geochemical and petrological characteristics, mineral composition, microstructure and pores of the Yanan shale samples from north Ordos Basin were analyzed. The main purposes of this paper are to (1) evaluate the source rock quality and (2) discuss the potential of the Yanan shale as a shale gas reservoir. Under the circumstances that most of the current shale gas researches are focusing on marine formations, the study on the Yanan coal-bearing shale will be a supplement to the understanding on shale gas.

2 Geological Settings

The Ordos Basin, with an area of $26 \times 10^4 \text{ km}^2$, locates at the central part of the North China Plate. Under the whole geological history of the North China Plate, the evolution of the Ordos Basin can be divided into five stages: aulacogen in the middle-late Proterozoic, shallow sea tableland in the early Paleozoic, coastal plains in the late Paleozoic, inland lake in the Mesozoic and fault depression in the Cenozoic (Yang et al., 2005; Wang Shejiao et al., 2011). The depositional environments have undergone a sequentially marine-terrestrial transition from

Paleozoic to Mesozoic (Yang et al., 2005), and correspondingly, the lithology of the Paleozoic-Mesozoic strata in the Ordos Basin can be generally characterized as the Cambrian-Ordovician shallow marine carbonate, Permo-Carboniferous transitional shale and Triassic-Jurassic terrestrial coal-bearing shale (Zhang et al., 1997; Hanson et al., 2007; Wang Shejiao et al., 2011; Tang Xuan et al., 2012).

During the Late Triassic, the Indosinian tectonic movement enabled the Ordos Basin to become a stable subsidence basin and also further accelerated the transitional sedimentary environments converting to terrestrial facies (Zhang et al., 1997). After the deposition of Yanchang Formation, the original depocenter at the southwest Ordos Basin uplifted. As a result, the new depocenter of the Yanan Formation transferred to a relative lower part of the basin's center, which is the current Yanan region. The depositional facies of the Yanan period varies northwestward from lacustrine, delta to fluvial (Fig. 1). Our study area is located at the Northeast Ordos Basin and across two structural zones: the North Yimeng uplift and the Central Yishan Slope (Xiao et al., 2005; Jiang et al., 2012; Tang et al., 2014). The Yanan Formation at the study area is mainly deposited in an alluvial plain environment (Fig. 1) and is considered as a favor zone of the Yanan low metamorphic coal-bed methane (Zhang Peihe, 2007).

Based on the data of several boreholes, the Yanan Formation, with a total thickness of 150–250 m, is composed mainly of shale, sandstone and coal (Fig. 2). Aside from one layer at the top, black shales mostly occur as thin layers intercalated with coal. Grey shales prevail and usually contain a certain percentage of silty or sandy materials. Plant stems, leafs or charcoal fragments can be commonly observed in grey shales as well as some sandstones.

3 Samples and Methods

Thirty-eight core samples and ten outcrops from the Yanan Formation were selected and examined in this study, including eleven black carbonaceous shales with visible plant fragments, sixteen dark grey-black homogeneous shales and twenty-one grey-dark grey silty or sandy shales. The samples were obtained from three boreholes located at the Taijizhao Township, Ejina Horo Qi, Ordos city and the outcrops are from the Jungar Qi, Ordos City (Fig. 1). In this study, several fundamental properties for shale gas accumulation, such as organic geochemistry and petrology, mineralogy and pore structure (Jarvie et al., 2007), were preliminarily investigated by laboratory tests.

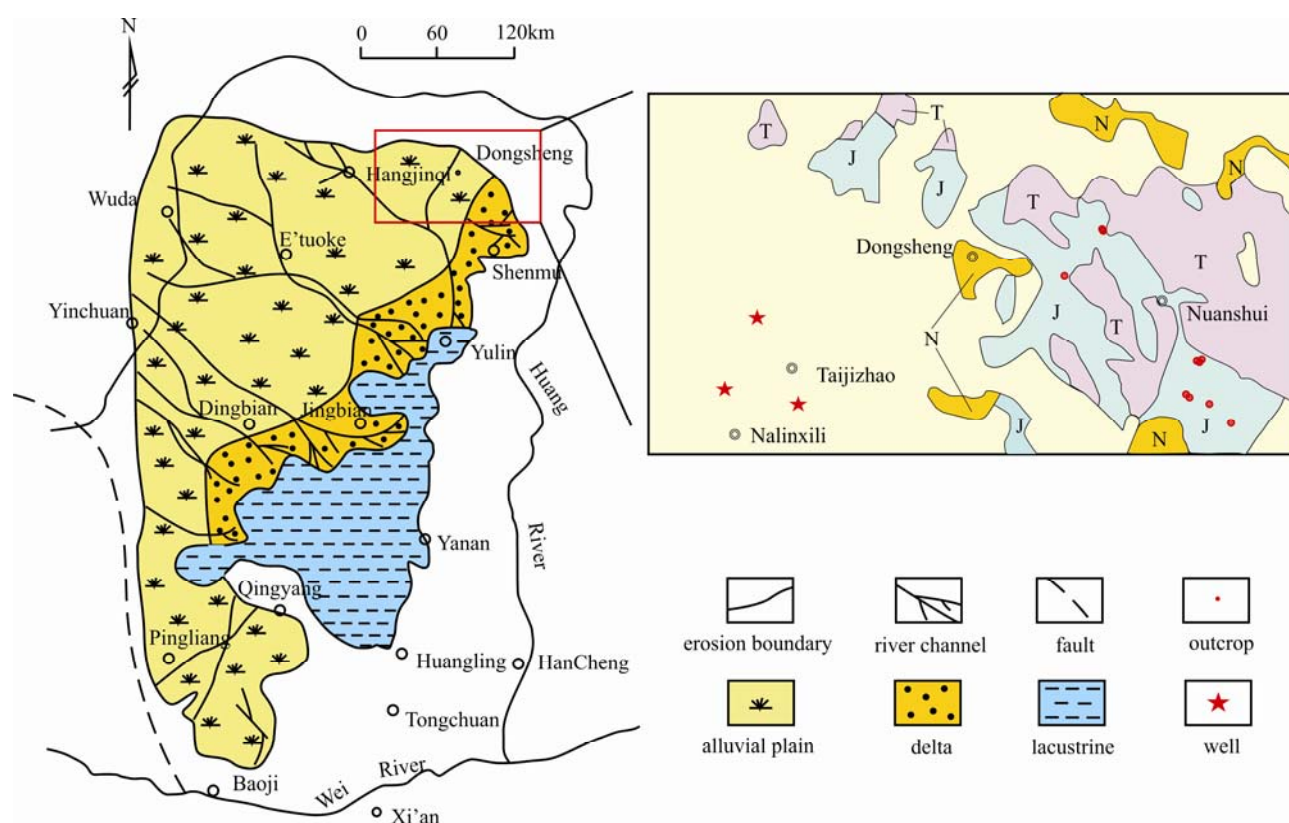


Fig. 1. Sedimentary environment of the Yanan Formation in the Ordos Basin (sedimentary environment map was modified from Wang Shejiao, 2011), and outcrop exposure map show distribution of core wells and outcrops in the study area.

The total organic carbon (TOC) content and Rock-Eval pyrolysis parameters were measured separately by a Leco C230 carbon analyzer and a Rock-Eval 6 instrument. Through Rock-Eval pyrolysis, the free hydrocarbon (S_1 mg HC/g rock), hydrocarbon-generating potential (S_2 mg HC/g rock), and peak temperature during S_2 generation (T_{max}) were measured. Corresponding hydrogen index (HI) and production index (PI) were calculated in accordance with Behar et al. (2001).

The organic petrological characteristics were examined by observing isolated kerogen under transmitted light and fluorescence using an optical microscope. The type of the organic matter was identified following the Chinese Oil and Gas Industry Standard of SY/T 5152-2014, in which macerals are classified into four basic groups: sapropelinite, liptinite, vitrinite and inertinite. The relative percent of the macerals were measured based on 300 particles counts for each sample and the organic matter type was determined using both the ternary plate (Hou Dujie and Zhang Linye, 2003) and the equation of organic type index (TI) as described as Cao Qingying (1985). A MPV-SP microphotometer was used to determine the vitrinite reflectance (R_o) which is a general thermal maturity indicator. More than 25 maximum reflectance values were measured for each sample and the vitrinite reflectance in this paper was reported as the mean value.

X-ray diffraction (XRD) was used to analyze the mineral composition of the shale samples using a Bruker D8-Discover X-ray diffractometer. Quantitative estimation of the mineral content was conducted following the Standard of SY/T 5163-2010. Ar-ion milling and Field emission scanning electron microscope (FE-SEM) techniques were combined to observe the microstructure and the pore structure. The milling was conducted parallel to the bedding using a Gatan Ilion II 697 milling system. Both before and after slightly Au coating (Leica EM SCD5000 High Resolution Sputter Coater), the milled surface was observed using a Hitachi S8010 scanning electron microscope under accelerating voltage of 10 kV and an energy disperse spectroscopy (EDS) was used to identify minerals. All the images were taken under secondary electron (SE) mode with back-scatter signal. The procedure has been discussed in detail in Chen et al. (2016). To quantitatively evaluate the pore system, low-pressure N_2 adsorption (LNA) was also applied to determine the surface area, pore volume and pore size distribution. A Quadrasorb SI apparatus was performed under low-pressure condition (<127 kPa) at 77 K. The surface area and pore volume were calculated using the multi-point BET equation (Braunauer et al., 1940) and Brunauer, Emmett, and Teller (BJH) (Barrett et al., 1951) model, respectively.

Strata	Depth (m)		Lithology	Description	Photographs
	Sys.	Form.			
Jurassic	Yanan	880	Grey black mudstone with visible plant stem and leaf fragments.		
		900	Grey white thick middle-fine sandstone.		
		920	Black coal intercalated with sandstone.		
		940	Grey sandy mudstone with visible plant stem and leaf fragments.		
		960	Grey white middle sandstone and grey sandy mudstone with charcoal fragments.		
		980	Grey white thick middle sandstone.		
		1000	Grey medium thick sandy mudstone.		
		1020	Grey fine sandstone and sandy mudstone.		
		1040	Grey white thick middle sandstone.		
		1060	Grey sandy mudstone intercalated with thin coal seam.		
			Grey white thick coarse sandstone.		

Fig. 2. Lithology and sample photographs of the Yanan Formation in well X6-2 (the sampling sections are outlined by the red box).

4 Results

4.1 Organic geochemistry

Total organic carbon (TOC) content of the 48 shale samples ranges from 0.33% to 24.12% (Table 1). Wherein, the TOC content of the ten outcrops ranges from 0.33% to 15.16% with an average of 4.79%, whereas that of the core samples ranges from 0.72% to 24.12% with an average of 6.33%. The statistical column is bimodal with two peaks locating at 2% and 10%–12% (Fig. 3). For more than half of the samples (29), the TOC content is lower than 4%, while a quarter of them (12) have TOC content higher than 10%.

Different rocks classified based on hand-specimen observation are found to be related to organic matter richness (Fig. 4). The TOC contents of grey silty or sandy shale samples are generally concentrated into the interval from 1% to 3% and only three of these samples have TOC content higher than 5%. Dark homogeneous shales are similar with silty-sandy shales but have a wider range of TOC content and a little higher proportion of organic-rich samples. TOC contents of the black carbonaceous shale

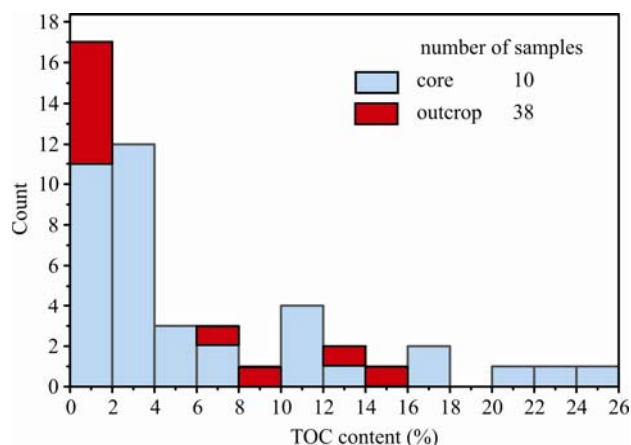


Fig. 3. Frequency distribution histogram of TOC content.

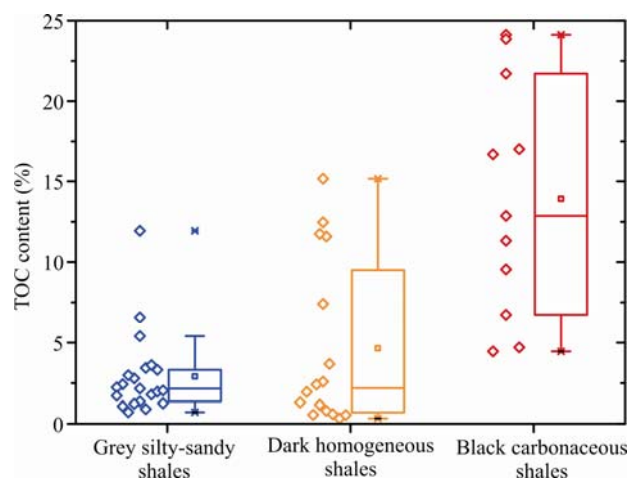


Fig. 4. Box-chart of TOC content of shale samples in lithology.

samples are the highest and majority of them are higher than 5%.

Free hydrocarbon (S_1) yielded in the shale samples from the pyrolysis ranges from 0.01 mg/g to 1.21 mg/g and the potential hydrocarbon (S_2) ranges from 0.37 mg/g to 33.77 mg/g (Table 1). Statistically, the core samples exhibit both higher S_1 and S_2 content than the outcrop samples (Table 1), and that suggests the residual hydrocarbon and hydrogen in the OM of the outcrops were decreased by weathering (Tan et al., 2014). The peak pyrolysis temperature (T_{max}) varies in a small interval between 426°C and 439°C, indicating that the samples are mostly matured source rocks just entering the oil-generating window. Hydrogen index (HI) ranges from 43.31 mg/g to 330.58 mg/g. The cross plot of T_{max} versus HI suggests that the organic matter in the samples is mainly II-III type (Fig. 5).

4.2 Organic petrology

Under the transmitted light, the identification of organic matter is basically dependent on their occurrence, morphology and transparency. According to the

Table 1 Total organic carbon (wt%) and rock-eval pyrolysis parameters of shale samples

Sample ID	Sample Type	Lithology	TOC (%)	Rock-Eval pyrolysis parameters				
				S ₁ (mg HC/g rock)	S ₂ (mg HC/g rock)	T _{max} (°C)	HI (mg HC/g OM)	PI
NP02DH04-1	Outcrop	DHS	12.47					
NP07DH11-2	Outcrop	DHS	0.81					
DHND2001	Outcrop	DHS	1.17	0.02	1.12	433	95.73	0.02
DHND2012	Outcrop	DHS	0.60	0.02	0.37	434	61.67	0.05
DHND1006	Outcrop	DHS	0.54	0.02	0.47	434	87.04	0.04
NP06DH08-1	Outcrop	DHS	0.56	0.02	0.67	437	119.64	0.03
NP01DH12-1	Outcrop	BCS	9.55					
NP01DH14-4	Outcrop	BCS	6.75	0.19	7.14	428	105.78	0.03
BP01DH5-2	Outcrop	DHS	15.16					
BP01DH15-2	Outcrop	DHS	0.33					
X1-2-20	Core	GSS	1.38	0.02	1.42	436	102.90	0.01
X1-2-19	Core	BCS	17.01					
X1-2-18	Core	DHS	7.42					
X1-2-21	Core	BCS	24.12					
X1-2-17	Core	DHS	11.59	0.05	5.02	434	43.31	0.01
X1-2-16	Core	GSS	5.41	0.11	10.48	426	193.72	0.01
X1-2-14	Core	GSS	2.17					
X1-2-15	Core	GSS	2.80	0.08	2.74	429	97.86	0.03
X1-2-12	Core	GSS	3.44					
X1-2-13	Core	GSS	2.99	0.06	4.14	435	138.46	0.01
X1-2-11	Core	DHS	2.59					
X1-2-10	Core	GSS	3.62	0.06	3.40	435	93.92	0.02
X1-2-9	Core	GSS	2.43					
X1-2-8	Core	GSS	1.23					
X1-2-7	Core	BCS	12.86	1.21	33.63	435	261.51	0.03
X1-2-22	Core	DHS	3.68					
X1-2-25	Core	GSS	0.91					
X1-2-26	Core	DHS	1.32					
X1-2-27	Core	GSS	6.59					
X1-2-28	Core	GSS	3.32					
X1-2-29	Core	GSS	0.72	0.09	0.52	442	72.22	0.15
X1-2-30	Core	DHS	11.74					
X1-2-31	Core	BCS	23.86					
X1-2-32	Core	GSS	2.24	0.07	2.44	434	108.93	0.03
X1-2-33	Core	GSS	1.80	0.05	2.30	435	127.78	0.02
X1-2-34	Core	GSS	1.08	0.03	1.98	434	183.33	0.01
X1-2-35	Core	GSS	1.97	0.04	2.68	435	136.00	0.01
JX1-1	Core	BCS	16.69	0.16	17.97	431	107.67	0.01
JX1-3	Core	GSS	1.72	0.34	2.26	439	131.40	0.13
JX1-4	Core	DHS	1.96	0.09	3.55	435	181.12	0.02
JX1-5	Core	GSS	2.05	0.08	4.45	429	217.07	0.02
JX1-6	Core	DHS	2.42	0.14	8.00	429	330.58	0.02
JX1-7	Core	BCS	4.71	0.13	12.72	430	270.06	0.01
JX2-7	Core	BCS	4.46	0.1	4.53	433	101.57	0.02
X5-3-28	Core	BCS	21.71	0.53	33.77	430	155.55	0.02
X5-3-22	Core	GSS	1.26	0.01	1.92	435	152.38	0.01
X6-2-21	Core	GSS	11.93					
X5-3-16	Core	BCS	11.32					

Notes: HC, Hydrocarbon; OM, Organic matter; PI, Production index; DHS, Dark homogeneous shale; BCS, Black carbonaceous shale; GSS, Grey silty-sandy shale.

occurrence, the organic particles in the Yanan shale samples are classified as amorphous organic matter (AOM) and morphological organic matter (MOR).

Most of the AMO from the Yanan kerogen are brown in color under transmitted light and show weak or no fluorescence (Figs. 6a and b). These organic particles are identified as humic AOM which is originated from alteration of higher plants or benthic algae by bacteria. In the samples, cutinite is another type of OM showing fluorescence (Figs. 6c and d). Though not common, the cuticle in the liptinite group is also observed, and can be identified through its unique ductile and folded appearance and moderate fluorescence (Fig. 6e).

The MOR organic matter particles have clear outlines

and sometimes they retain part of the original structure of plants (Figs. 6f and g). Some of them are brown-reddish brown in color and have irregular shapes with sharp corners (Figs. 6f, g and h), and others are totally opaque black and exhibit more simple morphology (Figs. 6i and j). These two kinds of MOR are separately recognized as vitrinite and inertinite groups (Guan et al., 2016).

According to quantitative statistics of kerogen macerals, the liptinite and vitrinite groups are most abundant and contribute more than 80% of the organic matter in the samples (Table 2). The liptinite content varies from 38% to 72% with an average of 56%, and the vitrinite content varies from 13% to 41% with an average of 30%. The content of Sapropelinite plus inertinite is generally less

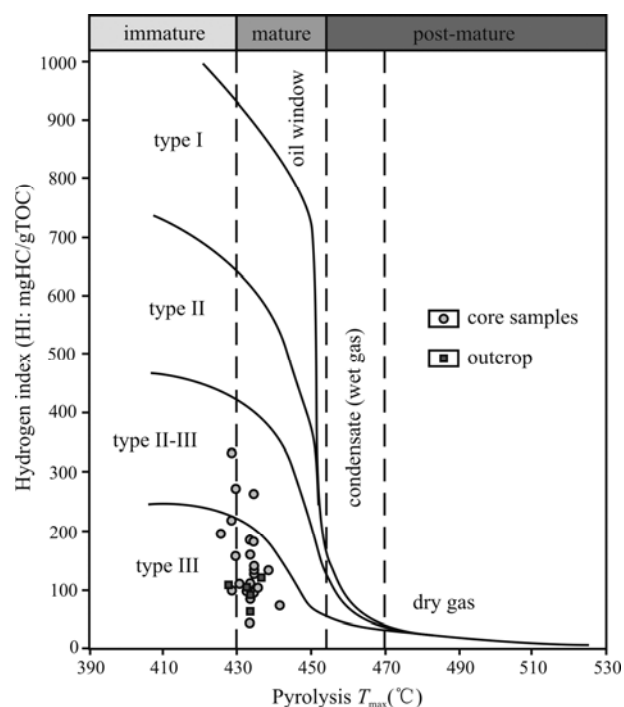


Fig. 5. Organic matter type and hydrocarbon generation stage defined by plots of pyrolysis $T_{\max}$ to hydrogen index (HI) (modified from Makeen et al. (2015)).

than 10%. The type index (TI) of the organic matter ranges from -22.5 to 31.25 (Table 2), indicating that about half of the samples have type III kerogen while the other half have type II₂ kerogen which is comparable to the II-III organic matter determined by using pyrolysis parameters (Fig. 5). This outcome also agrees well with the organic matter type determined by the ternary plate (Fig. 7).

The vitrinite reflectance of the shale samples ranges in a small interval from 0.48% to 0.60% (Table 2). This interval also fits with the $T_{\max}$ according to the conversion equation between this two maturity parameters (Wüst, 2013). Nevertheless, no obvious positive relationship was found between R_o and $T_{\max}$ in the study area. Interestingly, R_o exhibit a negative relationship with TI (Fig. 8). Previous studies suggest this relationship is probably a sign of suppression of R_o caused by amorphous-rich kerogen (Price and Baker, 1985). The more hydrogen-rich macerals, such as sapropel components (Hulton and Cook, 1980; Xie and Qiu, 2005; Tang et al., 2016), liptinite (Kalkreuth, 1982; Raymond and Murchison, 1991) or even hydrogen-rich vitrinite (Hao and Chen, 2010; Zhang Juan, 2017) exist in the kerogen, the lower the R_o becomes. Therefore, the unexpected high liptinite content mostly resulted from humic AOM in the Yanan samples is probably the cause of this relationship, and the R_o values may be underestimated or inaccurate. Lo et al., (1993) has established a R_o -HI plate to correct R_o with high hydrogen

in maceral, and the plate suggests there is small discrepancy between the measured R_o and correction values. As the Yanan shale has relatively low HI (generally lower than 300 mg/g) and the R_o generally fit with the level of $T_{\max}$, the underestimation of R_o is probably slight.

4.3 Mineralogy

Mineral composition is one of the most important factors with respect to hydrocarbon storage and production in shales (Bowker, 2007). Previous studies have proved that mineral composition can affect the pore space (Schieber, 2010; Loucks et al., 2012; Gupta et al., 2013; Zuo Zhaoxi, 2017), hydrocarbon adsorption capacity (Ji et al., 2012; Heller and Zoback, 2014) and mechanical property (Sone and Zoback, 2013; Kumar et al., 2015; Nicolás-López and Valdiviezo-Mijangos, 2016) of shale.

According to the XRD results (Table 3 and Fig. 9), the Yanan shale samples mainly consist of quartz, feldspar, clay and a minor amount of carbonate mineral. The quartz content ranges from 30.92% to 59.40% with an average of 40.18% . The K-feldspar content ranges from 1.93% to 13.78% with an average of 5.14% and the plagioclase content ranges from 1.59% to 20.63% with an average of 9.59% . The clay mineral is composed of kaolinite, chlorite, illite/smectite mixed layer and illite, and the total clay content ranges from 31.27% to 47.31% with an average of 41.47% . The kaolinite and illite/smectite are generally prevailing in the Yanan shale samples and the content of both chlorite and illite are generally no more than 10% .

The provenance of the Yanan Formation, according to Huang Gang et al. (2009), is granitoids, gneiss system and epi-metamorphic rocks from the Yin Mountain at the northern boundary of the Ordos Basin, which can explain why the feldspar content in the shale samples is high. An overall negative relationship is found between quartz and feldspar (Fig. 10). Due to the fact that feldspar is much more volatile than quartz during weathering, their relationship has been usually used as an indicator of sedimentary rocks' weathering intensity (Pettijohn, 1975) that varies with transported distance (time) and climate (Kuhn and Diekmann, 2002; Andersson et al., 2004). With increasing distance from the source area, the fraction of quartz in the sum of feldspar and quartz increase because of less atmospheric contributions of volcanic ash (Jones and Blatt, 1984). Therefore, the negative relationship may be explained as a result of the fluctuation of transportation and climate. Another possible reason which can be directly linked to this negative relationship is that the dissolution of feldspar generally releases additional silica for authigenic quartz forming during diagenesis (Jones and

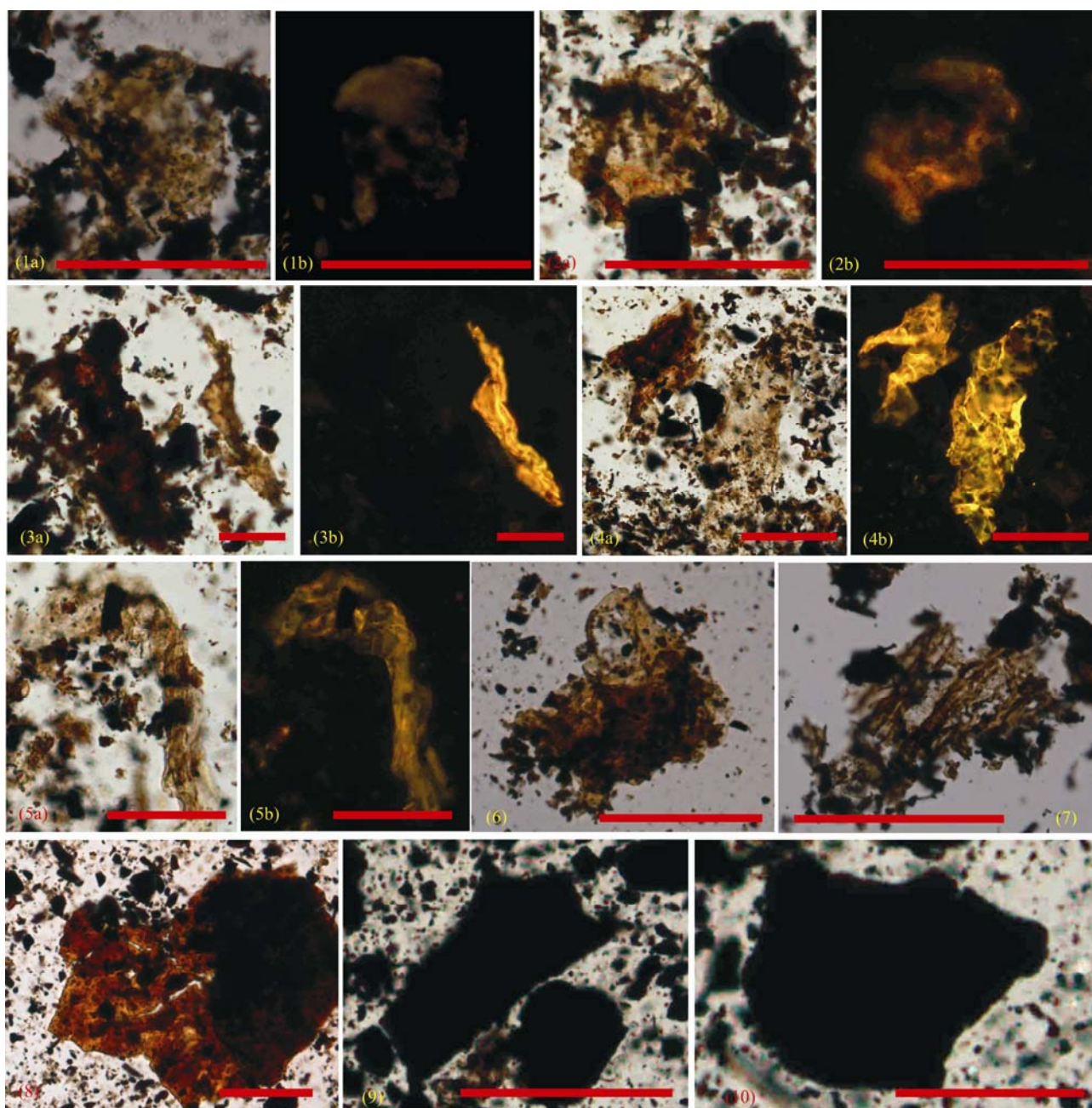


Fig. 6. Photomicrographs of macerals in shale samples under transmitted light and fluorescence (scale=50 μm).

(a), Brown humic AOM show weak fluorescence, (X1-2-10, well X1-2, 1002m); (b), brown humic AOM show moderate fluorescence, (X1-2-32, well X1-2, 1045m); (c), dark brown cutinite show strong fluorescence, (X1-2-20, well X1-2, 873m); (d), brown cutinite show strong fluorescence, (X1-2-17, well X1-2, 920m); (e), brown cutinite show folded structure and moderate fluorescence, (X1-2-17, well X1-2, 920m); (f), dark brown vitrinite with irregular shape, (NP01DH14-4, outcrop, Jungar Banner, Ordos Basin); (g), dark brown vitrinite with original structure of plants (X1-2-20, well X1-2, 873m); (h), reddish brown vitrinite with sharp corners, (BP01DH5-2, outcrop, Jungar Banner, Ordos Basin); (i), black inertinite, (X1-2-32, well X1-2, 1045m); (j), black inertinite, (X1-2-16, well X1-2, 976m).

Blatt, 1984; Gold, 1987; Wilkinson et al., 2001). However, we believe this mechanism maybe subordinate for the Yanan shale because the high feldspar content and smectite/illite content (see below) suggest the dissolution of feldspar is not extensive. In addition, according to the estimation of the silica released by mineral transformation (van de Kamp et al., 2008), the amount of free silica contributed from alteration of feldspar is less comparing to

clay mineral transformation, and the free silica generated from clay mineral transforming is more likely to migrate from rather than retain in shale. Therefore, it can be inferred that the mineral transformation leads to loss rather than concentration of silica (van de Kamp et al., 2008).

Smectite illitization is another important reaction in clastic rocks and the illite/smectite is the intermediate product during this progress (Lynch, 1997; van de Kamp,

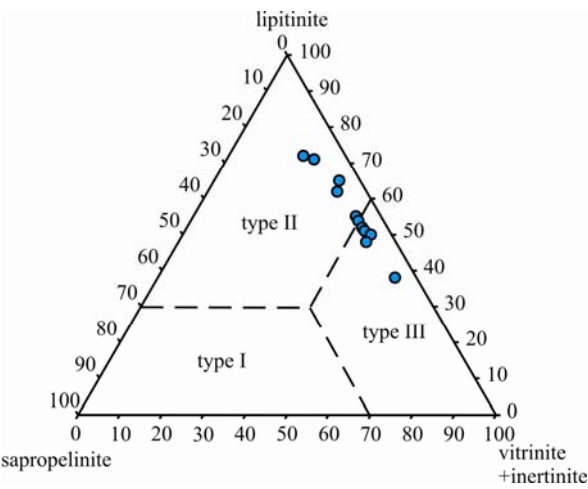


Fig. 7. Organic matter type defined by three terminal graph of maceral composition of shale samples (modified after Hou and Zhang, 2003).

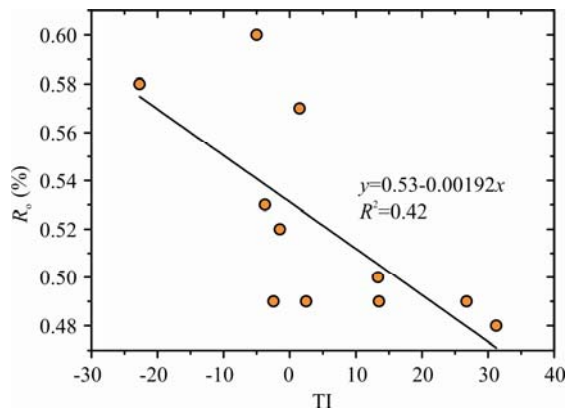


Fig. 8. Negative relationship between R_o and Tl of shale samples.

2008). This reaction takes place over the same temperature (Perry, 1970; Johns and Shimoyama, 1972) interval as hydrocarbon generation and can be enhanced with increasing burial depth (Lynch, 1997). It also requires additional K^+ (Berger et al., 1997), most of which come from the dissolution of K-feldspar (Milliken et al., 1994; Chuhan et al., 2000). In light of the low organic matter maturity as well as the appearance of K-feldspar in the Yanan shale samples, the low illite content and the high

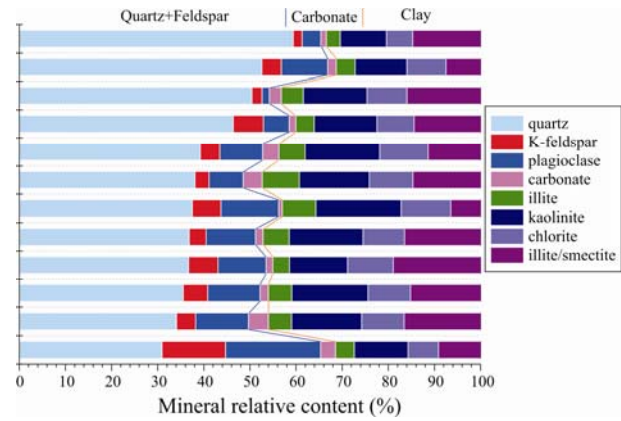


Fig. 9. Mineral composition of shale samples identified by XRD method.

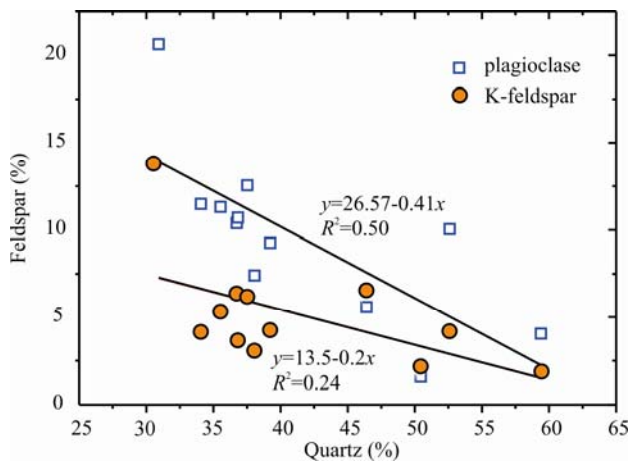


Fig. 10. Plots of quartz content to feldspar content of shale samples.

content of the intermediate product illite/smectite may suggest smectite-illite transformation is an ongoing process underground, however, the reaction intensity is constrained by the insufficient K^+ and lower temperature.

4.4 Microstructure and pore

Through SEM images, clastic mineral grains, clay mineral aggregates, and organic matter can be distinguished (Fig. 11a). They make up the shale’s skeleton between which are tortuous flaky clay and

Table 3 Mineral composition of shale samples

Sample ID	Quartz (%)	Feldspar (%)		Carbonate (%)		Clay (%)			
		K-feldspar	Plagioclase	Dolomite	Siderite	Illite	Kaolinite	Chlorite	Illite/Smectite
X1-2-17	36.73	6.37	10.40	0.00	1.45	3.60	12.62	9.9	18.93
X1-2-15	30.92	13.76	20.63	0.94	2.29	4.09	11.64	6.61	9.12
X1-2-10	34.07	4.15	11.49	0.00	4.28	5.06	15.18	9.20	16.57
X1-2-7	59.40	1.93	4.06	0.00	1.18	3.01	10.03	5.68	14.71
X1-2-26	38.07	3.07	7.40	0.00	4.15	8.04	15.14	9.46	14.67
X1-2-29	37.53	6.18	12.55	0.00	0.74	7.31	18.49	10.75	6.45
X1-2-32	39.22	4.25	9.26	0.00	3.55	5.68	16.17	10.49	11.38
X1-2-35	52.60	4.19	10.06	0.00	1.88	4.07	11.25	8.44	7.51
JX1-1	50.45	2.17	1.59	0.97	1.63	4.75	13.82	8.64	15.98
JX1-3	35.53	5.33	11.32	0.00	1.82	5.06	16.56	9.20	15.18
JX1-4	36.83	3.66	10.71	0.00	1.66	5.66	16.02	8.96	16.50
JX1-6	46.40	6.55	5.58	0.55	0.86	4.0	13.62	8.01	14.43

organic matter paralleling to the bedding. The organic particles are usually with varying shapes and the size of them ranges from several to tens of micrometers (Figs. 11a and b). It has also been observed that small amorphous and isolated organic particles are filled in pore spaces (Fig. 11b). Unlike deep burial shales (Loucks et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2016), the intergranular pores between clastic grains are very common (Fig. 11c). It is also noted that porous mineral aggregates exist in some shales supported by larger mineral grains (Fig. 11d). This may be a result of loose compaction and suggests that interparticle pores (InterP) in the shale with non-uniform grain size such as the silty and sandy materials have a better chance to survive from pressure.

Compared to marine shale (Loucks et al., 2009; Jiao et al., 2014; Nie Haikuan et al., 2015), the organic matter-hosting pores (OM pores) are much less in the Yanan shale samples at the resolution of SEM. However, though not common, some porous organic matter particles were found in some samples (Figs. 12a, b and c). Nevertheless, these pores are different in shape and size from the immature (Löhr et al., 2015) and mature shales as previous studies have characterized. They are more likely to be polygonal and angular instead of circular-elliptical (Loucks et al., 2009; 2012; Tian et al., 2013). As for size,

they mostly range from hundreds of nanometers to several micrometers in diameter which is much larger than general OM mesopore (2–50 nm) in other shales (Loucks et al., 2009, 2012; Milliken et al., 2013; Jiao et al., 2014; Chen et al., 2016). Therefore, instead of hydrocarbon generation (Jarvie et al., 2007), these OM pores may derive from the original intrinsic texture of the organic matter or gelatination and dehydration caused by compaction during early diagenesis (Figs. 12b and c). In addition, some of the OM pores may also be a result of porous clay within the organic matter particles (Figs. 12c and d). Compared with the highly matured marine organic-rich shale, the lack of visible OM pores in the Yanan shale samples probably mainly comes from their lower maturity and predominant type III kerogen (Schieber, 2010; Curtis et al., 2012; Bernard et al., 2012; Chen and Xiao, 2014).

Because of the shallower burial depth, the InterP and

Table 4 Pore parameters of shale samples

Sample ID	BET surface area (m ² /g)	BJH pore volume (ml/g)	Average pore diameter (nm)
NP01DH12-1	6.62	0.022	6.72
X1-2-15	5.08	0.015	5.90
X1-2-35	5.06	0.014	5.35
JX1-6	6.86	0.022	6.32
X1-2-17	6.57	0.028	8.38
X1-2-16	5.58	0.019	6.78

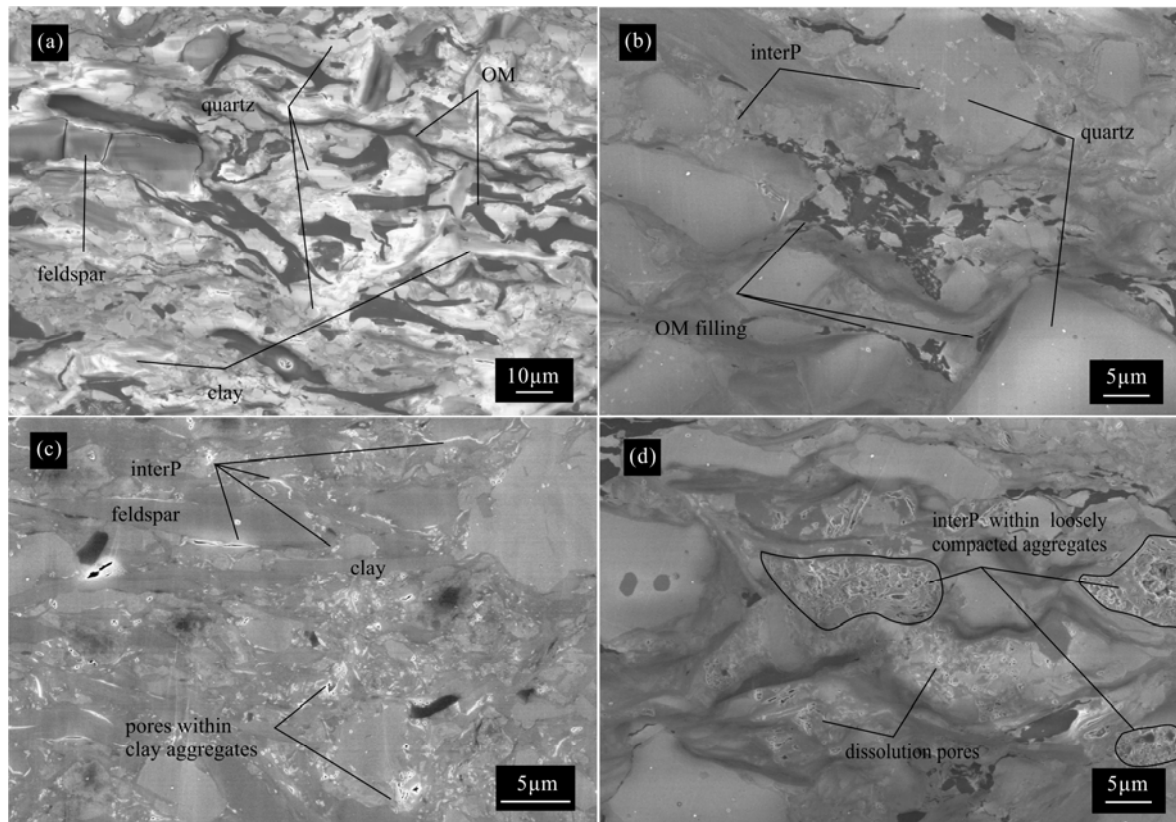


Fig. 11. Bulk microstructure of the Yanan shale samples.

(a), SE image show microstructure, (X1-2-18, well X1-2, 875m); (b), SE image show microstructure, (X1-2-13, well X1-2, 995m); (c), SE image show intergranular pores, (X5-3-22, well X5-3, 911m); (d), SE image show porous mineral aggregates, (X1-2-13, well X1-2, 995m).

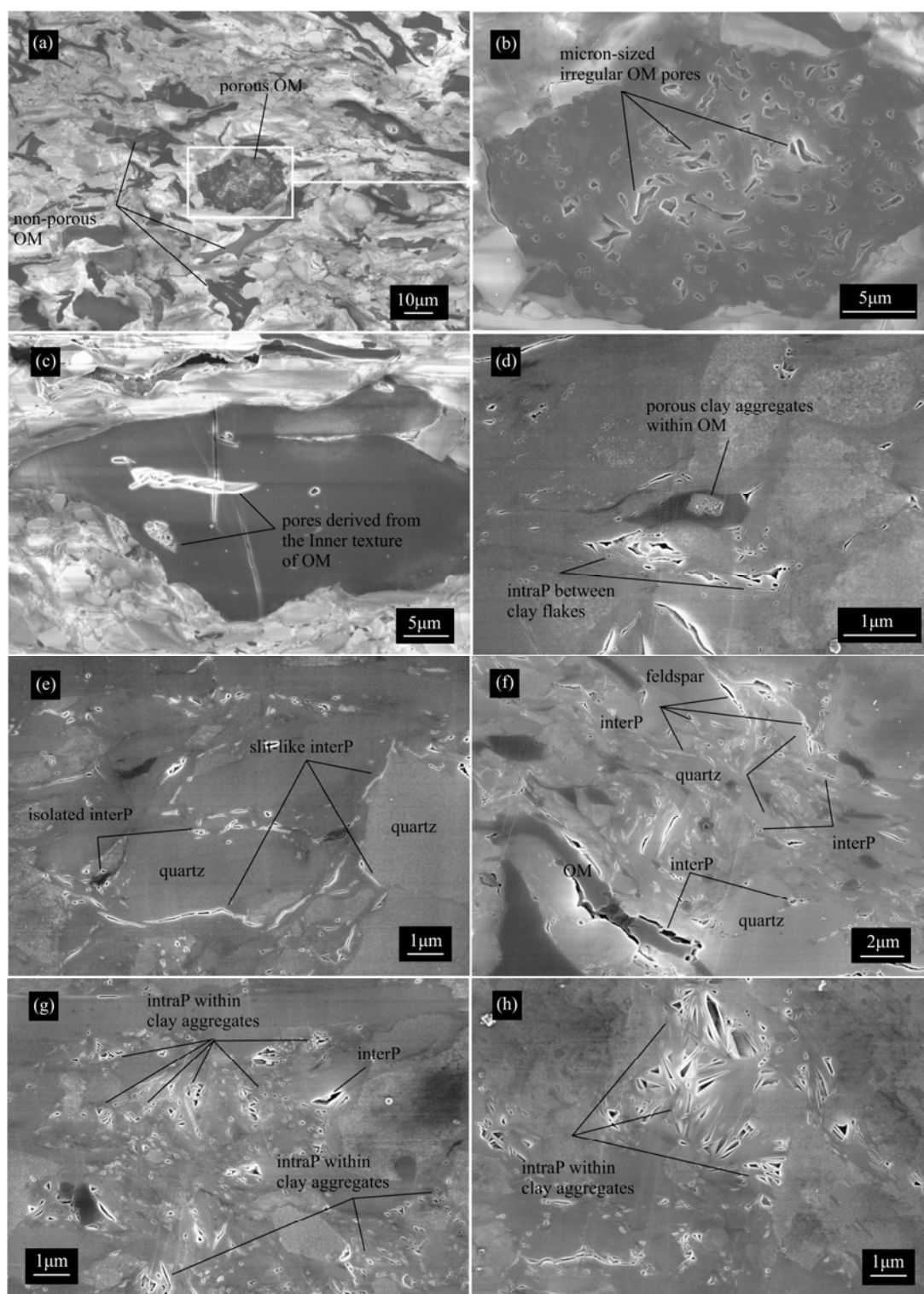


Fig. 12. Pore characteristics of the Yanan shale samples.

(a), SE image show OM pore distribution, (X1-2-18, well X1-2, 875m); (b), SE image show micron-sized irregular OM pores, (X1-2-13, well X1-2, 995m); (c), SE image show isolated OM pores probably derived from the inner texture of OM, (X1-2-18, well X1-2, 875m); (d), SE image show porous clay mineral, (X6-2-21, well X6-2, 983m); (e), SE image show interP between detrital minerals, (X6-2-21, well X6-2, 983m); (f), SE image show developed interP, (X1-2-18, well X1-2, 875m); (g), SE image show intraP within clay aggregates in various shapes, (X1-2-11, well X1-2, 1000m); (h), SE image show intraP within clay aggregates, (X1-2-13, well X1-2, 995m).

intraparticle pores (IntraP) are abundant between clastic grains or within clay aggregates. The interparticle pores

occur as either isolated or slit-like pores along the boundary of grains (Figs. 12e and f) depending on the

contact with other particles. The intraparticle pores within clay aggregates are recognizable as they are mostly triangle or slit-like in shape (Figs. 12g and h). That is probably a result of stacking of the flaky clay layers (Slatt and O'Brien, 2011).

According to the LNA result (Table 3), the BET surface area of the Yanan shale samples ranges from 5.06 to 6.86 m^2/g with an average of 5.96 m^2/g . The BJH pore volume ranges from 0.014 to 0.028 ml/g with an average of 0.020 ml/g . The average diameter of pores between 0.38 nm and 300 nm in diameter (Chalmers et al., 2012) ranges from 5.35 nm to 8.38 nm, and the average value is 6.58 nm. Compared to the Cambrian and Silurian marine shales from Southeast Chongqing and Northwest Guizhou, South China (Wu Jingshu et al., 2013; Han Shuangbiao et al., 2013; Xue Bing et al., 2015; Chen Lei et al., 2017), the

Yanan shale samples have lower BET surface area and higher BJH pore volume. The pore size distribution graphs (Fig. 13) demonstrate that although the number of pores decreases with increasing pore size, the contribution of mesopore (2–50 nm) and macropore (>50 nm) to pore volume is much greater than micropore (<2 nm) according to the pore size classification of shale suggested by Chalmers et al., (2012), which has been a consensus for coal measure shale (Pan et al., 2017; Wang Anmin et al., 2017). For the highly matured marine shale, surface area is positively correlated with TOC content, suggesting the high surface area is mainly contributed from the abundant OM micromesopores. When the FE-SEM images and LNA result are combined, it is inferred that the Yanan shale samples have less OM micro-mesopores and more macropores than the marine shale.

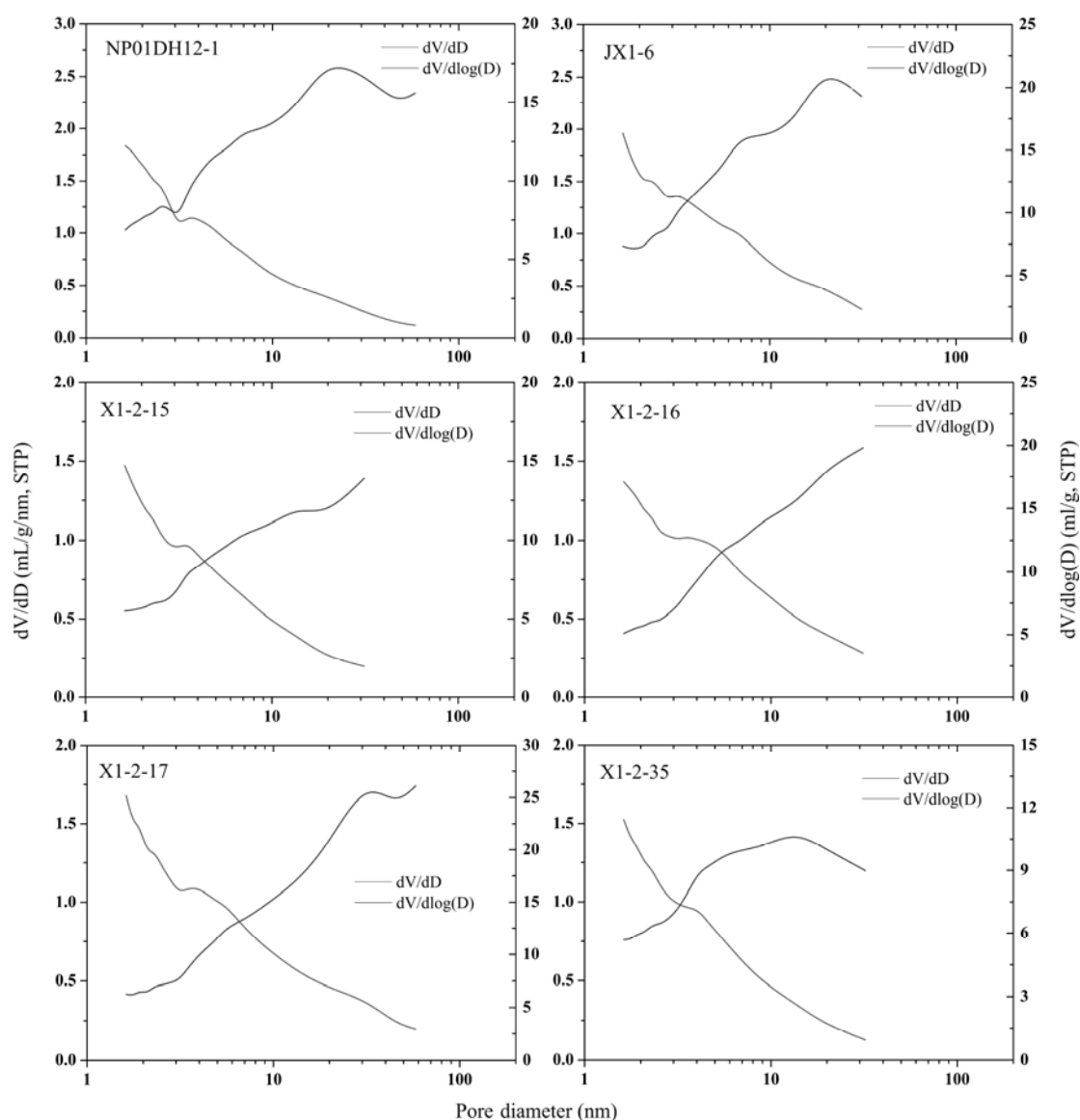


Fig. 13. LNA pore size distribution of shale samples.

5 Discussions

5.1 Evaluation of shale gas reservoir

Theoretically, shale gas is a kind of hydrocarbon accumulation both mostly self-generated and self-stored in the organic-rich shale. For the shale in coal-bearing strata, however, adjacent coal measures can also contribute hydrocarbon to shale reservoir through vertical migration in short distance (Li et al., 2018). In order to achieve economic production, the shale reservoir generally needs to be stimulated to improve permeability by hydraulic fracturing. Therefore, the quality of shale gas reservoir depends mainly on its hydrocarbon generation, storage capacity and how easily the reservoir can be fractured (Feng Dongjun et al., 2016; Wei Xiang feng et al., 2017; Zhang Yuying et al., 2018).

5.1.1 Hydrocarbon generation capacity

According to the organic geochemical analysis, the Yanan shale samples are characterized as organic-rich, early matured shale with predominantly type II₂-III kerogen. According to the microscopic examination of kerogen, continental OM derived from higher plants prevails in the Yanan shale samples. However, humic AMO, as a result of microbial actions, is rich in the samples. This outcome may suggest the original continental OM has been intensively degraded by bacteria, which could improve the quality of parent macerals by increasing hydrogen content. A plate (Fig. 14) based on the relationship between TOC and HI was used to evaluate the quality of shale. It indicates that the samples are mostly fair oil source rocks with several exceptions caused by the samples with TOC less than 1.0%. Generally, the outcrops show either low TOC or low HI values (Figs. 5 and 14) relative to the average level of the core samples, suggesting the OM in the outcrops may be decreased or degraded because of oxidization during weathering (Littke, 1991; Liu et al., 2016; Tang et al., 2017).

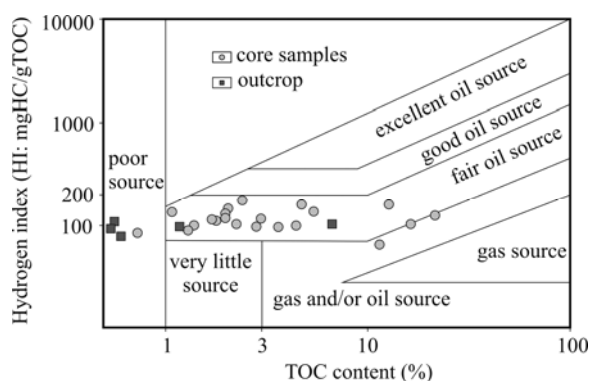


Fig. 14. TOC content versus Hydrogen index (HI) indicates quality of the source rock (modified from Varma et al., 2015).

However, the low production index (PI) (Table 1) indicates the amount of hydrocarbon has been generated was constrained probably by its low thermal maturity. Only two samples with $T_{\max}$ above 438°C have a relatively higher PI (Fig. 15). This may suggest the actual extensive thermogenic hydrocarbon generation did not begin for most of the Yanan shales in the study area.

Nevertheless, many previous studies have suggested that biogenetic methane, which can form before the thermogenically-sourced methane, is also a significant component in low-rank coal reservoir (Liu Honglin et al., 2006, 2010; Hamilton et al., 2014; Tang Ying et al., 2017) and can be successfully explored. Sun Bin et al., (2011) have analyzed the carbon isotopes and underground water characteristics of the coalbed methane from Yanan Formation of the Wushen Qi, adjacent to the study area. It was concluded that the methane content of the Yanan coalbed vary from 0.19 m³/t to 6.7 m³/t and biogenic gas was proved to be a significant supplement to coalbed methane enrichment in the Yanan Formation in the study area.

5.1.2 Hydrocarbon storage capacity

Shale gas is mainly stored as free gas and adsorption gas. The free gas is compressed in pores like conventional sandstone natural gas while the adsorption gas is mainly adsorbed on organic matter and both internal and external surface of the clay mineral. Previous studies have proved that the methane adsorption capacity of shale can be determined by organic matter richness, clay mineral type and content. Though the surface area is relatively low, the high TOC content and microporous illite/smectite (Ji et al., 2012; Kuila and Prasad, 2013) content are beneficial to methane adsorption capacity of the Yanan shale samples. When using rock density of 2.6g/cm³, the equivalent porosity of the Yanan shale samples calculated based on BJH pore volume is between 3.64% and 7.28% with an

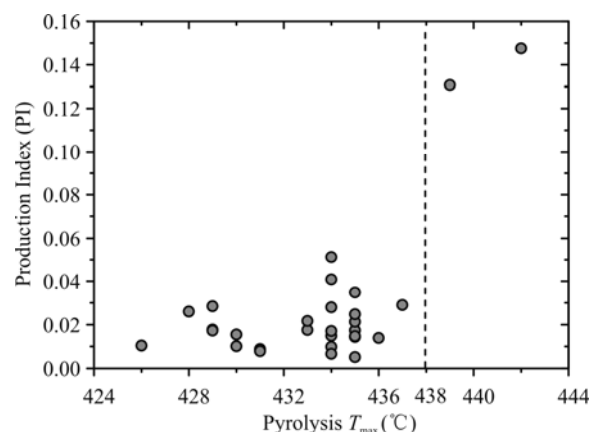


Fig. 15. Pyrolysis $T_{\max}$ versus Production index (PI) indicates the efficiency of hydrocarbon generation.

average of 5.2%, and that is comparable to the commercial shale gas reservoir at present. Since the Yanan shale has been less compacted compared to the highly matured Cambrian and Silurian shale in the Sichuan Basin, a certain proportion of micron-sized interP and intraP can be observed through SEM, providing sufficient space for free gas storage. Moreover, larger OM pores in the Yanan shale are probably the reason why the surface area is relatively lower than marine shales and that may lead to a higher proportion of free gas relative to adsorption gas in the Yanan shale.

5.1.3 Brittleness

Brittle mineral content (Bowker, 2007; Jarvie et al., 2007; Yuan Yusong et al., 2017) is an essential parameter to estimate the fracture generation ability of shale under external forces. However, the definition of brittle mineral is still ambiguous and controversial (Rybacki et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2016; Wang Ruyue et al., 2016). Except for quartz (Kumar et al., 2015; Jarvie et al., 2007), some authors argued that dolomite or total carbonate (Wang and Gale, 2009; Tan et al., 2014) and feldspar (Uffmann et al., 2012; Tan et al., 2014; Guo et al., 2015; Rybacki et al., 2016) should also be recognized as brittle mineral. Since carbonate is few in the Yanan shale samples, whether feldspar, which accounts for more than 10%, be considered as brittle mineral will significantly influence the evaluation of the brittleness of the samples. If feldspar is included into brittle minerals in this study, the content of brittle minerals of the samples reaches a rather steady level that basically between 50% and 60% (Fig. 9) as there is a negative relationship between quartz and feldspar. And that is almost equivalent to the brittle mineral content of the successful economic gas shales from North America (Chermak and Schreiber, 2014).

5.2 Regional shale gas preservation condition

The three core wells in this study locate at the Yishan slope, which is a steady uncline dipping to the west. After the deposition of Yanan Formation, this area was slightly lifted (Sun Bin et al., 2011). However, no high-angle fractures were observed in core samples (Fig. 2), suggesting the strata was not severely reformed during tectonic actions. According to the three wells, a suite of dark mudstone (10 meters in thickness) widely distributed at the top of Yanan Formation. In addition, above the Yanan Formation, 50 to 100 meters of mudstone existed in the deposition of the Zhiluo Formation (Xue Rui et al., 2017; Lei Kaiyu et al., 2017). The thick overlying mudstone is supposed to act as caprock to prevent shale gas loss from migrating upwardly. When the thickness of shale reaches up to a certain degree, gas can be confined in

shale reservoir by its own low porosity and permeability. In the coal-bearing strata, however, thick shale layers are rare because shale is usually frequently interbedded with sandstone, siltstone or coal. In the Yanan Formation, the thickness of shale in a single layer ranges from 0.55 m to 7 m with an average of 3.3 m. Therefore, gas diffusion between shale, coal and sandstone is expected to be common in the coal-bearing strata. It is suggested the whole formation should be considered as an integrated self-storage gas-bearing system, where shale gas, coalbed methane and conventional gas coexist.

6 Conclusions

The terrestrial coal-bearing Yanan Formation in north Ordos Basin has a total thickness of 150–300 m where shale contributes to half of the thickness. In this study, the richness, type and thermal maturity of organic matter, mineralogy, microstructure and pore characteristics of the Yanan shale from north Ordos Basin were analyzed to preliminary evaluate their capacity to be a shale gas reservoir.

(1) The Yanan shale is a suite of fair oil source rock with TOC content ranging from 0.33% to 24.12% and hydrogen index ranging from 43.31 mg/g to 330.58 mg/g. Majority of the organic matter-rich samples (TOC > 5%) are the carbonaceous shale associated with coal seams. The pyrolysis $T_{\max}$ (426–439°C) agrees with the vitrinite reflectance (0.48%–0.60%) and they all suggest the Yanan shale is just at the beginning of oil-generation stage. Humic amorphous organic matter and vitrinite derived from woody plants are the main components of kerogen in the Yanan shale. It suggests most of the OM was altered by bacteria and the organic matter type is II–III.

(2) The inorganic material in the Yanan shale is mainly composed of quartz, clay and feldspar. Feldspar's content is more than 10%, so whether the feldspar is brittle will significantly influence the brittleness of the Yanan shale. Among the clay minerals, kaolinite, illite/smectite are prevailing while chlorite and illite are less. The quartz content is negatively correlated with feldspar. Higher illite/smectite content and lower illite content suggest the weak smectite illitization probably due to the lower temperature and insufficient K^+ under shallow burial depth.

(3) Because of the lower thermal maturity and dominated woody kerogen, the OM pores in the Yanan shale are less common compared to other matured marine shales. However, some porous organic particles are found and the pores are considered coming from intrinsic structures of the kerogen. Interparticle pores between clastic grains and intraparticle pores associated with clay

mineral are common in the Yanan shale due to a less compaction. The BET Surface area surface ranges from 5.06 to 6.86 m²/g with an average of 5.96 m²/g and the BJH pore volume ranges from 0.014 to 0.028 ml/g with an average of 0.20 ml/g. PSD curves suggest the pore volume is more likely to be contributed by macropores.

(4) The Yanan shale is characterized as a suite of low mature fair source rock that possesses good reservoir capacity. The low maturity of the OM constrains the amount of hydrocarbon that can be thermogenically generated. However, knowledge from low-rank coalbed methane development at adjacent areas suggests biogenic gas and coal-derived gas may be a significant supplement to shale gas accumulation in the coal measure formation.

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