



## Original Paper

# Multifractal estimation of NMR $T_2$ cut-off value in low-permeability rocks considering spectrum kurtosis: SMOTE-based oversampling integrated with machine learning

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## ABSTRACT

The transverse relaxation time ( $T_2$ ) cut-off value plays a crucial role in nuclear magnetic resonance for identifying movable and immovable boundaries, evaluating permeability, and determining fluid saturation in petrophysical characterization of petroleum reservoirs. This study focuses on the systematic analysis of  $T_2$  spectra and  $T_2$  cut-off values in low-permeability reservoir rocks. Analysis of 36 low-permeability cores revealed a wide distribution of  $T_2$  cut-off values, ranging from 7 to 50 ms. Additionally, the  $T_2$  spectra exhibited multimodal characteristics, predominantly displaying unimodal and bimodal morphologies, with a few trimodal morphologies, which are inherently influenced by different pore types. Fractal characteristics of pore structure in fully water-saturated cores were captured through the  $T_2$  spectra, which were calculated using generalized fractal and multifractal theories. To augment the limited dataset of 36 cores, the synthetic minority oversampling technique was employed. Models for evaluating the  $T_2$  cut-off value were separately developed based on the classified  $T_2$  spectra, considering the number of peaks, and utilizing generalized fractal dimensions at the weight  $<0$  and the singular intensity range. The underlying mechanism is that the singular intensity and generalized fractal dimensions at the weight  $<0$  can detect the  $T_2$  spectral shift. However, the  $T_2$  spectral shift has negligible effects on multifractal spectrum function difference and generalized fractal dimensions at the weight  $>0$ . The primary objective of this work is to gain insights into the relationship between the kurtosis of the  $T_2$  spectrum and pore types, as well as to predict the  $T_2$  cut-off value of low-permeability rocks using machine learning and data augmentation techniques.

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## 1. Introduction

Deeply understanding the global pore structure of porous rocks is the crucial step to addressing microcosmic challenges in petroleum science (Dullien, 2012; Gao and Li, 2016; Blunt, 2017). Among various experimental methods, nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectra of transverse relaxation time  $T_2$  have emerged as a unique

downhole-calibration technique, offering numerous opportunities to probe pore structure. This includes studying pore deformation and evolution, pore types, fluid distribution and migration, capillary pressure curve reconstruction, porosity inversion, as well as permeability and irreducible water saturation estimations in recent decades (Yan et al., 2019; Guo et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2020b; Tang et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2022). NMR  $T_2$  spectra provide rich quantitative information on pore structure, such as pore size distribution, porosity, and fluid saturation. This information can be obtained by combining  $T_2$  spectra in fully water-saturated and centrifuged states (Li et al., 2020a; Wang et al., 2020; Yan et al.,

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2020; Liu et al., 2021b). Compared to other experimental methods like fluid-intrusion testing (Wang et al., 2019; Jiao et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2020a) and imaging (Blunt et al., 2013; Bultreys et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2016; Mehmani et al., 2020), NMR provides unique advantages in exploring various aspects of pore structure in porous rocks.

In NMR  $T_2$  spectra, the “ $T_2$  cut-off value” is a crucial parameter used to classify pore systems into different pore types (Yao et al., 2010). It separates pores into two categories: “free fluids” for pores with  $T_2$  values higher than the cut-off value, where fluids can flow freely, and “bound fluids” for pores with  $T_2$  values below the cut-off value, where fluids are trapped (Morriss et al., 1997). The  $T_2$  cut-off value serves as a boundary for estimating permeability and irreducible water saturation and is determined by comparing the cumulative curves of NMR  $T_2$  spectra in fully water-saturated and centrifuged states. However, experimental determination of the  $T_2$  cut-off value is often challenging and time-consuming. In practical applications, an empirical  $T_2$  cut-off value is commonly assigned to all samples of a specific lithology. For example, sandstone may be assigned a  $T_2$  cut-off value of 33 ms, carbonate 90 ms, and limestone 100 ms (Coates et al., 1999; Hidajat et al., 2004). Nevertheless, increasing experimental evidence suggests that using a fixed  $T_2$  cut-off value is inadequate for estimating reservoir properties, even within different porous rocks of the same lithology (Wang et al., 2004; Ge et al., 2011). For instance, the  $T_2$  cut-off value ranges for coal and shale are approximately 2–40 ms and 0.1–3 ms, respectively (Yao et al., 2010; Testamanti and Rezaee, 2017; Li et al., 2020b).

Various estimation models have been proposed to determine the  $T_2$  cut-off value, considering different factors related to the  $T_2$  spectrum. Some models employ simple statistical methods, such as the weighted sum of  $T_2$  amplitudes (Oraby et al., 1997), linear arithmetic average of  $T_2$  cut-off values (Kleinberg and Boyd, 1997),  $T_2$  geometric mean of the last peak (Mai and Kantzas, 2002), and magnetic susceptibility (Nicot et al., 2016). However, the  $T_2$  cut-off value is influenced by several factors, including lithology (Ge et al., 2011), pore types (Westphal et al., 2005), wettability, and temperature (Godefroy et al., 2002).

The complete NMR  $T_2$  spectrum represents a complex and highly disordered system with self-similar characteristics (Wang et al., 2018a). Therefore, it is more appropriate to evaluate the  $T_2$  cut-off value based on the distribution characteristics of the entire  $T_2$  spectrum, rather than relying solely on specific morphological parameters. Fractal theory, including monofractal and multifractal analysis, has demonstrated the feasibility of NMR  $T_2$  spectrum analysis (Wang et al., 2018b; Guo et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2021a). While monofractal analysis has inherent limitations and cannot fully capture the complex distribution characteristics across different pore scales (Chen et al., 2017; Fu et al., 2019), multifractal and generalized fractals provide a hierarchical approach to determine the multi-scale and heterogeneous pore characteristics of the target of interest (Zhao et al., 2017, 2019).

Multifractal parameters play a significant role in determining the pore size distribution, which in turn is utilized to estimate the  $T_2$  cut-off values in coal and shale reservoirs. Several studies have been conducted in this area. Ge et al. (2015) proposed a fractal  $T_2$  cut-off model using multiple linear regression of generalized fractal dimensions for sandstones with complex pore structures. Xiao et al. (2018) developed new normal distribution functions to simulate fully water-saturated NMR  $T_2$  spectra and estimated various  $T_2$  cut-off values. Zheng et al. (2019) developed a new model for the  $T_2$  cut-off value, which was tested on 15 samples of bituminous coals and anthracite coals using multiple linear fitting. Hu et al. (2020) introduced the flow zonation index into the  $T_2$  cut-off fractal model using multiple linear regression for 10 tight sandstones in

the eastern Ordos Basin. Zhao et al. (2021) tested five predictive models developed by multiple linear fitting of multifractal parameters and  $T_2$  cut-off values on four types of coal samples. Sun et al. (2021) found strong positive correlations between generalized fractal dimensions, singularity strength, and  $T_2$  cut-off values in three ranks of coals. Liu et al. (2021b) observed a slight negative correlation between NMR  $T_2$  cut-off values and fractal dimensions calculated from centrifugal  $T_2$  spectra in oil shale reservoirs. Although the aforementioned studies have achieved significant success in estimating the  $T_2$  cut-off value, the relationship between  $T_2$  spectrum kurtosis and pore types remains unclear. Additionally, previous studies have mainly focused on shale, coal rock, and tight sandstone (Table 1), with limited attention given to the NMR morphological features and estimation of  $T_2$  cut-off values in low-permeability sandstones. Due to the high cost of NMR experiments, the number of available samples is often limited (Table 1). Therefore, the utilization of the latest data augmentation methods is desirable for estimating NMR  $T_2$  cut-off values.

In this study, an experimental investigation was conducted to analyze the kurtosis characteristics of  $T_2$  spectra from 36 low-permeability cores and examined their relationships with different pore types. The multifractal characteristics of the  $T_2$  spectra were also analyzed. The correlations between the  $T_2$  cut-off value and various petrophysical parameters, geometric morphological parameters, and multifractal parameters were established. To enhance the dataset, the synthetic minority oversampling technique (SMOTE) was employed to augment the multifractal dataset with measured  $T_2$  cut-off values. Subsequently, we compared and analyzed the performance of three commonly used machine learning algorithms for predicting the  $T_2$  cut-off values. Furthermore, we employed the SHapley Additive exPlanation (SHAP) method to identify the main factors influencing the modeling of  $T_2$  cut-off values. Additionally, we discussed the impact of the  $T_2$  spectrum's location relative to the X-axis on multifractal spectra. The main objective of this study is to gain insights into the pore types and improve the prediction of  $T_2$  cut-off values for low-permeability rocks by considering  $T_2$  spectrum kurtosis and employing machine learning techniques with data augmentation.

## 2. Experimental and multifractal analysis

### 2.1. Theory of NMR, fractal, and multifractal

NMR  $T_2$  time of pore fluids in porous media comprises three components: surface relaxation time  $T_{2S}$ , bulk relaxation time  $T_{2B}$ , and diffusion relaxation time  $T_{2D}$ , which satisfy the following relationship (Kleinberg and Boyd, 1997; Coates et al., 1999):

$$\frac{1}{T_2} = \frac{1}{T_{2B}} + \frac{1}{T_{2S}} + \frac{1}{T_{2D}} = \frac{1}{T_{2B}} + \rho_2 \left( \frac{S}{V} \right) + \frac{D(\gamma G T_E)^2}{12} \quad (1)$$

where  $\rho_2$  represents the transverse surface relaxation rate, m/s;  $S/V$  is specific surface area, the ratio of pore surface area and pore volume;  $D$  represents diffusion coefficient,  $m^2/s$ ;  $\gamma$  represents the gyromagnetic ratio, MHz/T;  $G$  represents the field intensity gradient, T/ $\mu\text{m}$ ;  $T_E$  is the echo interval, ms. For cores fully saturated with water, the free relaxation time of hydrogen nuclei in water is so long that  $\frac{1}{T_{2B}} \approx 0$  in the uniform external magnetic field  $G = 0$ . Thus,  $T_2$  can be simplified as (Daigle and Johnson, 2016):

$$\frac{1}{T_2} = \frac{1}{T_{2S}} = \rho_2 \frac{S}{V} \quad (2)$$

In the capillary bundle model, the specific surface area of the

**Table 1**  
Summary of predicting NMR  $T_2$  cut-off values for different reservoir rocks using fractal and multifractal theory.

Authors	Rock type	Number of cores	Location <sup>a</sup>	Range of $T_2$ cut-off value <sup>b</sup>	$T_2$ spectrum kurtosis	Methods for $T_2$ cut-off value models
Westphal et al. (2005)	Carbonate Rocks	36 (12-PP; 30-IP; 8-MP; 5-V; 6-FP)	USA; Canada; Abu Dhabi; Norway.	PP:60.4; IP:64.7; MP:68.7; V:442.9; FP:24.1.	N/A	N/A
Ge et al. (2015)	Siltstone	15	Guantao Formation, China	41.179 (7.243–69.327).	Bimodal	Multiple linear regression
Testamanti and Rezaee (2017)	Shales	4	Carynginia Formation, PB, Western Australia	0.24(n = 3); 0.26(n = 1).	Trimodal all	N/A
Wang et al. (2020)	SR, CR	8 (4-SR; 4-CR)	Shahejie Formation, BBB	SR: 5.61(1.55–9.64); CR: 3.985(5.57–1.86).	half of Unimodal, half of Bimodal.	Multiple linear regression
Xiao et al. (2018)	Tight sandstones	36	Triassic tight sandstones, SOB	17.896 (6.31–50.1).	Unimodal; Bimodal; Trimodal.	Integrate with the simulated curve
Zheng et al. (2019)	Coals	15 (5-SJ; 5-NQ; 5-SQ)	SJB; NQB; SQB	SJ:4.396 (0.62–11.11); NQ:4.264 (2.02–8.24); SQ:7.274 (1.82–12.66).	Trimodal mainly, Bimodal partly.	Multiple linear regression
Wang et al. (2020)	SR, CR	8 (4-SR; 4-CR)	Shahejie Formation, BBB	SR: 5.61(1.55–9.64); CR: 3.985(5.57–1.86).	Half of Unimodal, half of Bimodal.	Multiple linear regression
Hu et al. (2020)	Sandstone	10	Benxi, Taiyuan and Shanxi Formations, EOB	21.057 (9.72–35.16).	Unimodal mainly, Bimodal partly.	Multiple linear regression
Zhao et al. (2021)	Coals	32 (8-CZ; 8-GD; 8-GHS; 8-PDS)	CZ, GD, GHS PDS coal mines, China	CZ: 0.558 (0.37–0.74); GD: 0.51 (0.3–0.6); GHS: 0.524 (0.39–0.63); PDS: 0.161 (0.13–0.21).	Trimodal mainly, Bimodal partly.	Multiple linear regression
Sun et al. (2021)	Coals	10- anthracite; 10- bitumite 10- lignite	Henan, Shanxi, and Inner Mongolia, China	0.38–0.62, 0.22–0.32, 0.11–0.23.	Depends on coal rank	BP neural network
This study	Low-permeability sandstones	36 cores with 525 augmented samples	Huangliu, Liushagang Formations, YSB, QDNB, BBWB, PRMB	24.08 (7–50).	Unimodal and Bimodal mainly, Trimodal rarely.	Machine Learning integrated with SMOTE

<sup>a</sup> Note: SJB-Southern Junggar Basin, NQB-Northern Qinshui Basin, SQB-Southern Qinshui Basin, EOB-eastern Ordos Basin, BBB-Bohai Bay Basin, PB-Perth Basin, CZ-Chengzhuang, GD-Guandi, GHS-Guhanshan, PDS-Pingdingshan, SR-Siliciclastic Rocks, CR-Carbonate Rocks, PP-Primary pores, IP-Intercrystalline pore, MP-Moldic Pore, V-Vuggy, FP-Infilled pore.

<sup>b</sup> Average (min-max).

porous medium is a function of mean pore radius  $r$  (Sigal, 2015):

$$\frac{1}{T_2} = \rho_2 \frac{F_s}{r} \quad (3)$$

where  $F_s$  represents the geometric factor, dimensionless. For cylindrical pores,  $F_s$  is equal to 2. Thus,  $T_2$  spectrum is a function of pore radius, reflecting the pore size distribution (Fig. 1) (Yan et al., 2020). In the NMR experimental results, the  $T_2$  spectrum obtained after porosity correction is a frequency histogram of  $T_2$  where the y-axis is the porosity increment, which can be expressed as:

$$T_2 = f(r) = \{P_{2i}\} \quad (4)$$

$T_2$  is a discrete variable where  $P_{2i}$  represents the porosity increment at the corresponding time  $T_{2i}$ . Thus, the  $T_2$  spectrum is a one-dimensional (1D) mass field of porosity increment. For a 1D mass field, the box-counting method was used to calculate the multifractal dimensions (Stanley and Meakin, 1988; Lopes and Betrouni, 2009). After a viewing scale  $\varepsilon$  was specified, the  $\{P_{2i}\}$  was divided into  $N$  equal-size interval with a length size of  $\varepsilon$ . In  $i$ -th interval, the cumulative porosity increment  $M_i(\varepsilon)$  was counted. The mass probability function  $P_i(\varepsilon)$  of the  $i$ -th box can be calculated as:

$$P_i(\varepsilon) = \frac{M_i(\varepsilon)}{\sum_1^{N(\varepsilon)} M_i(\varepsilon)} \quad (5)$$

For an inhomogeneous 1D mass field satisfying a multifractal,  $P_i(\varepsilon)$  satisfies a fractal up-scaling relationship with the box scale  $\varepsilon$ , which can be written as:

$$P_i(\varepsilon) \propto \varepsilon^{-a_i} \quad (6)$$

where  $a_i$  represents the Lipschitz-Hölder singularity exponent,

characterizing the singularity strength of the data distribution. The total number of sub-intervals with the same  $P_i(\varepsilon)$  value was counted as  $N_\alpha(\varepsilon)$ . Similarly,  $N_\alpha(\varepsilon)$  also satisfies the fractal scale law:

$$N_\alpha(\varepsilon) \propto \varepsilon^{-f(\alpha)} \quad (7)$$

where  $f(\alpha)$  vs.  $\alpha$  is the multifractal spectrum, describing how dense the distribution is. With the moment method, a partition function,  $\chi_q(\varepsilon)$ , is used:

$$\chi_q(\varepsilon) = \sum_{i=1}^N P_i^q(\varepsilon) \propto \varepsilon^{\tau(q)} \quad (8)$$

where  $\tau(q)$  is the quality index, commonly ranging from  $-10$  to  $10$  to reflect the contributions of  $P_i(\varepsilon)$ , which will be affected by sub-intervals with large  $P_i(\varepsilon)$  at  $q > 0$ , and vice versa.  $\tau(q)$  can be calculated by taking the log of Eq. (8) on both sides:

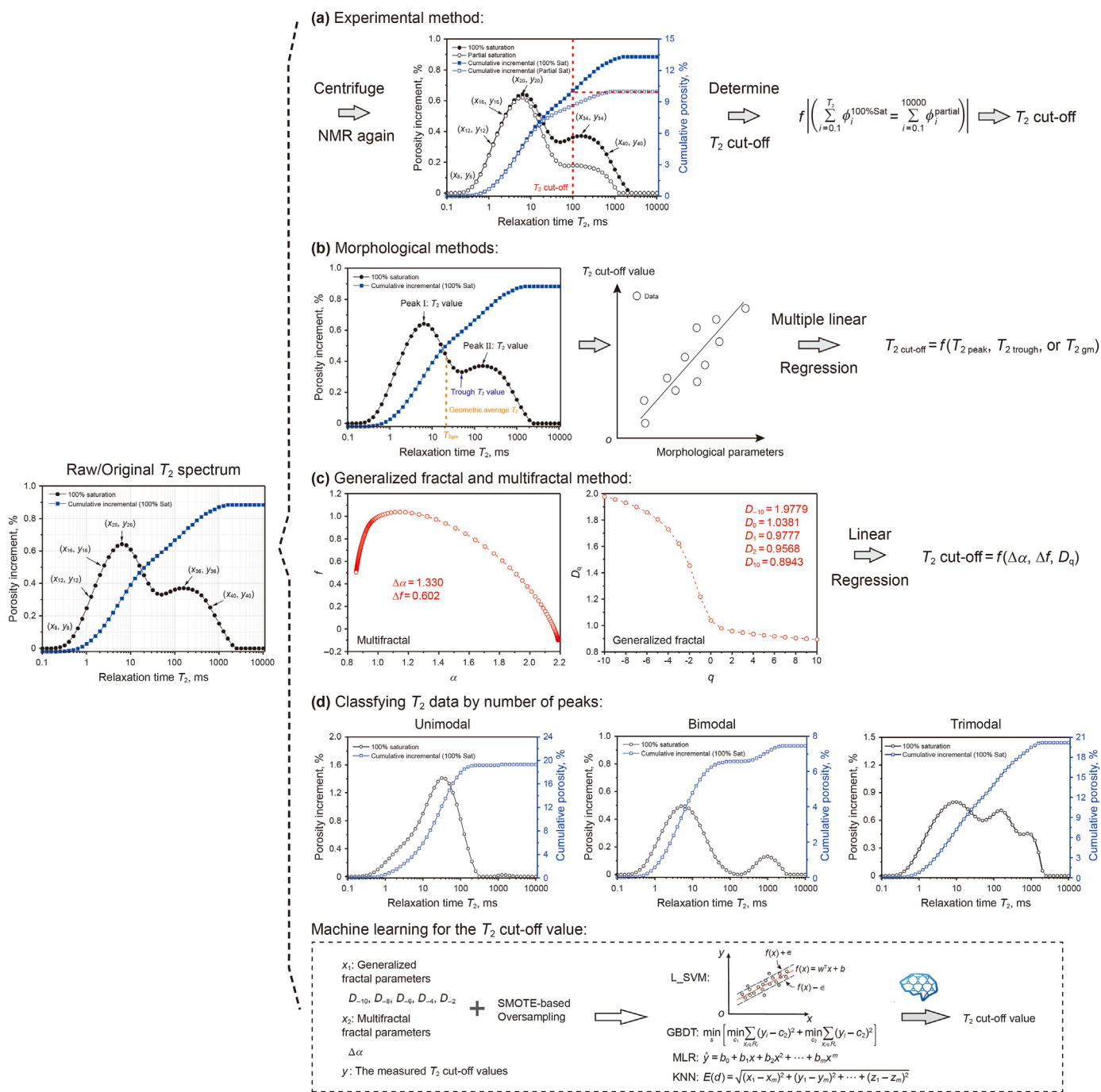
$$\tau(q) = - \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{\log \chi(q, \varepsilon)}{\log \varepsilon} = - \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N(\varepsilon)} P_i^q \varepsilon}{\log \varepsilon} \quad (9)$$

$f(\alpha)$  vs.  $\alpha$  can be obtained by Legendre transform as (Chhabra and Jensen, 1989; Lopes and Betrouni, 2009):

$$\alpha = \frac{d(\tau(q))}{dq} = \frac{d}{dq} \left( \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{\log \chi_q(\varepsilon)}{\log \varepsilon} \right) \quad (10)$$

$$f(\alpha) = \alpha q - \tau(q)$$

For the mathematically perfect fractal subjects (in 1D, 2D, and 3D), the multifractal spectrum of  $f(\alpha)$  vs.  $\alpha$  is a symmetric smooth convex curve. However, for the multifractal subjects, the multifractal spectrum shows a symmetrical characteristic (Cheng, 1999).



**Fig. 1.** Schematic diagram illustrating the conventional and developed methods for determining the  $T_2$  cut-off value using the saturated  $T_2$  spectrum, including (a) the conventional centrifugal experimental method with NMR test again; (b) the morphological method combined with the mathematical fitting; (c) fractal and multifractal methods with unclassified  $T_2$  data; (d) the developed method combining multifractal analysis with SMOTE-based machine learning regressions on the classified  $T_2$  data by curve kurtosis.

Generally, the singular intensity range  $\Delta\alpha$  ( $\alpha_{\max} - \alpha_{\min}$ ) and the corresponding multifractal spectrum function difference  $\Delta f [= f(\alpha_{\min}) - f(\alpha_{\max})]$  are two key parameters to investigate the multifractal features, and to characterize the heterogeneity of pore information reflected by NMR  $T_2$  spectrum.

Through the  $\tau(q)$ , the generalized fractal spectrum  $D_q$  can be defined as:

$$D_q = \frac{1}{q-1} \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{\log \sum_{i=1}^N P_i^q(\epsilon)}{\log \epsilon} = \frac{\tau(q)}{q-1} \quad (q \neq 1) \quad (11)$$

where  $D_0 = - \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{\log N(\epsilon)}{\log \epsilon}$  ( $q = 0$ ), known as the capacity dimension, single fractal dimension;  $D_1 = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N(\epsilon)} P_i(\epsilon) \log P_i(\epsilon)}{\log \epsilon}$  ( $q = 1$ ), called as information dimension;  $D_2 = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N(\epsilon)} P_i^2(\epsilon)}{\log \epsilon}$  ( $q = 2$ ), called



correlation dimension. Similarly, for the mathematically perfect fractal subjects (in 1D, 2D and 3D), the generalized fractal spectrum of  $D_q$  vs.  $q$  is a horizontal line. However, for the multifractal subjects, the generalized fractal spectrum commonly shows an S-shaped characteristic (Chen et al., 2017; Zhao et al., 2019). Next, pore system, morphological, and multifractal analysis of the  $T_2$  spectrum were performed (Fig. 1).

### 2.2. Sampling and experiments

A total of 36 low-permeability sandstone cores were collected from various basins, formations, and wells. The specific sampling locations are depicted in Fig. 2. These core samples were obtained from 19 wells with available core data, and they were extracted from depths ranging from 1200 m to 4000 m. Each core sample has a diameter and length of 3.5 cm. At the Zhanjiang Experimental Center of China National Offshore Oil Corporation (CNOOC), all cores underwent analysis for petrophysical properties, including porosity and corrected permeability. Additionally, for this analysis, four conventional reservoir sandstones were selected, with low-permeability rocks constituting 89% of the samples.

To prevent any water-rock reactions, the cores were fully saturated with brine using a 1% KCl concentration. The saturation process was conducted at a pressure of 30 MPa for 48 h. The NMR experiments were carried out at a temperature of 28 °C and a relative humidity ranging from 50% to 70% RH. The experimental parameters for NMR included a waiting time of 3000 ms, an echo interval of 0.2 ms, and a total of 4096 echoes were collected. The  $T_2$  spectrum inversion was performed using the Butler-Reeds-Dawson algorithm (Butler et al., 1981) based on the measured Carr-Purcell-

Meiboom-Gill echo trains (Ge et al., 2017). During the centrifugation experiments, the CSC-12 high-speed refrigerated centrifuge from Shanghai Lu Xiangyi centrifuge instrument Co., Ltd. Was utilized. The cores were subjected to centrifugation at a speed of 8000 rpm for 3 h, generating a centrifugal pressure of 2.425 MPa. These centrifugation conditions adhere to the guidelines specified in the National Standard SY/T 6490–2014.

### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Characteristics of samples and NMR $T_2$ spectra

The petrophysical properties of the low-permeability rocks exhibit significant variability. The porosity values determined using helium-based measurements range from 7.40% to 26.8%, with an average value of 16.79%. The NMR-based porosity calculations yield a range of 7.46%–26.60%, with an average value of 16.77%. The scale factor  $F$  for the porosity component falls within the range of 22–24. The NMR-based porosity is in good agreement with the porosity measured from the cores (Fig. 3), indicating that all relaxation signals can be captured within the current echo interval, and the samples do not contain fast relaxation components (Ge et al., 2021). The permeability of the low-permeability rocks ranges from 0.02 mD to 30.10 mD, with an average value of 7.38 mD. In contrast, the permeability of the four conventional sandstones is 93.6 mD, 168.00 mD, 496.00 mD, and 702.00 mD, respectively. The  $T_2$  cut-off values for the low-permeability rocks range from 7 ms to 50 ms, with an average value of 23.25 ms. For the four conventional cores, the  $T_2$  cut-off values are 20 ms, 30 ms, 30 ms, and 40 ms. Importantly, the  $T_2$  spectra of the low-permeability sandstones exhibit a

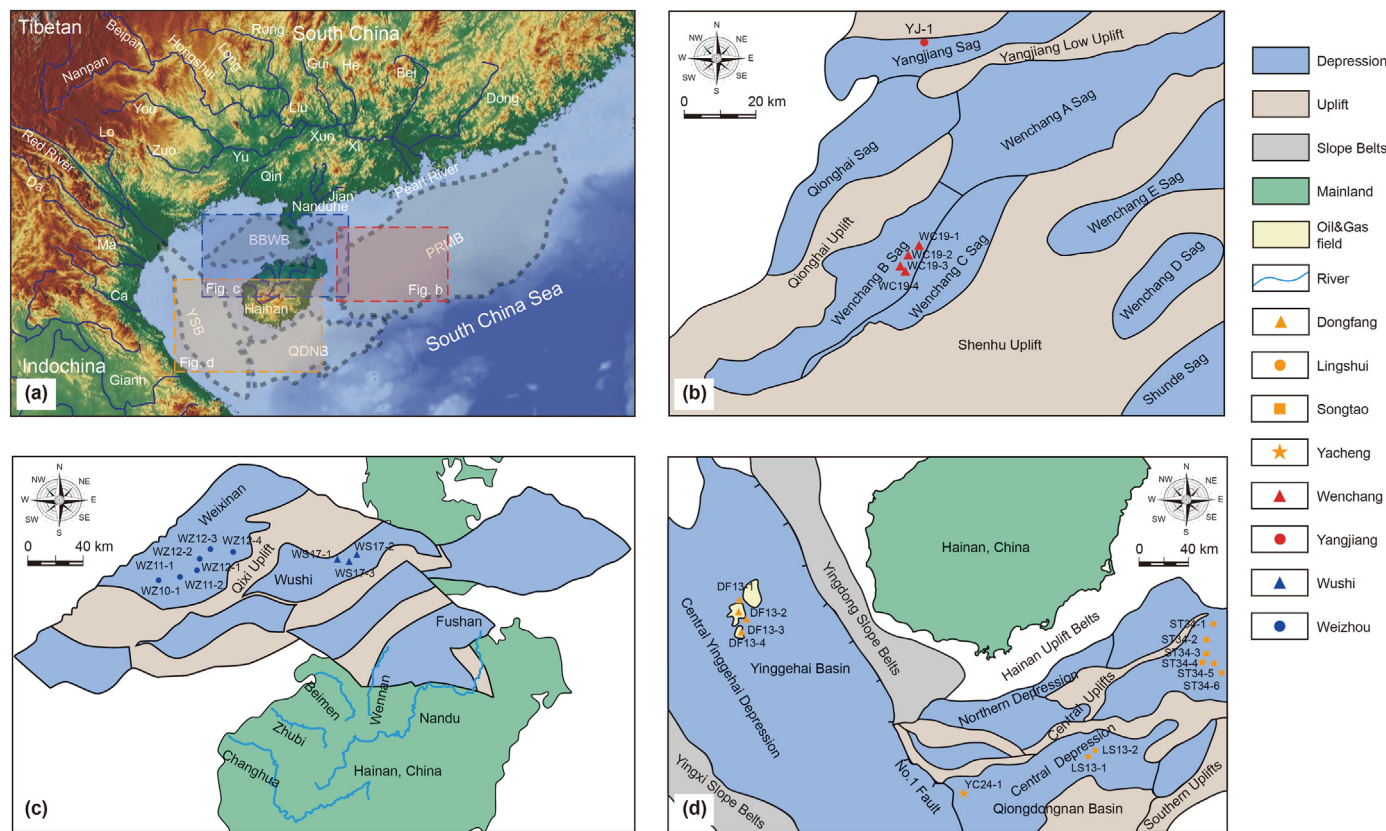
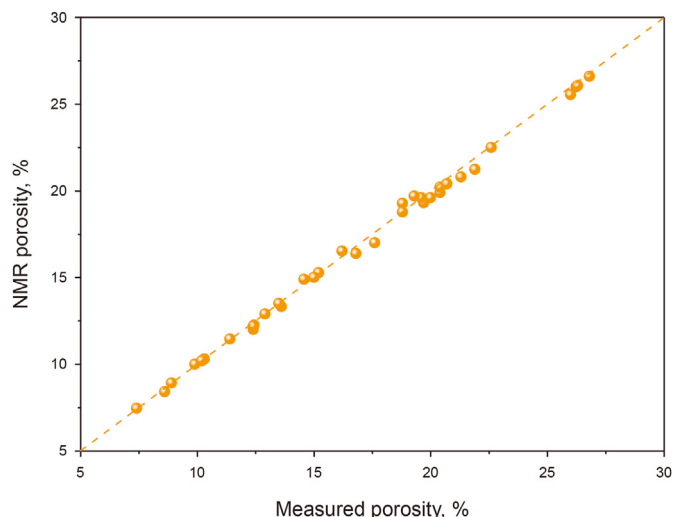


Fig. 2. Sampling location map of 36 low permeable cores. (a) Geographical location of the four basins sampled: Yinggehai Basin (YSB), Qiongdongnan Basin (QDNB), Beibuwan Basin (BBWB), Pearl River Mouth Basin (PRMB); (b) Structural map of Wenchang and Yangjiang Sags of PRMB; (c) Structural map of Weizhou and Wushi Sags of BBWB; (d) Structural map showing the Dongfang Sag of YSB, the Songtao, Yacheng and Lingshui Sags of QDNB.



**Fig. 3.** Cross plot of NMR-based porosity and helium-based porosity where the dotted line is a 1:1 standard line.

multimodal morphological feature, including unimodal, bimodal, and trimodal modes, which are rarely observed in other rock types such as shale and coal (Fig. 4). Specifically, in this dataset, there are 13 samples with unimodal modes, 19 samples with bimodal modes, and four samples with trimodal modes (Fig. 4).

### 3.2. Pore system vs. $T_2$ spectrum kurtosis

The multimodal morphological feature observed in the  $T_2$  spectra of low-permeability sandstones is closely related to the complex pore system present in these rocks. The 2D pore morphological characteristics were examined using thin sections, while the 3D pore size distribution characteristics were quantitatively analyzed using mercury intrusion capillary pressure (MICP). The complex diagenesis and deposition processes of low-permeability sandstones contribute to the presence of various pore types (Chen et al., 2018; Zhao et al., 2022a). The hybrid pore system in low-permeability sandstones comprises different pore types, as illustrated in Fig. 5. These pore types can be classified based on their origin and include primary, mold, dissolution, fracture, and clay-associated pores (Westphal et al., 2005). Each pore type exhibits distinct morphological features and size distributions. Furthermore, the  $T_2$  spectrum can be converted into a pore size distribution, allowing for the identification of different pore types (Xiao et al., 2018). Based on the peak locations in the  $T_2$  spectrum, pores can be categorized into four types: non-pore, micro-pore, meso-pore, and macro-pore regions. These regions correspond to grains and matrix (non-pore), clay-bound water (micro-pore), capillary-trapped water (meso-pore), and mobile water (macro-pore) in the NMR signal, respectively (Fig. 5) (Zhong et al., 2020).

The morphology of the  $T_2$  spectrum (Fig. 6a) is determined by the combination of different pore types present in the rock. In the case of the trimodal type, the  $T_2$  spectrum is influenced by the presence of extra-large dissolution pores along with primary pores and clay-associated pores, resulting in a trimodal distribution (Fig. 6c). The dissolution of feldspar grains leads to the precipitation of kaolinite clay minerals. In the  $T_2$  spectrum, the  $T_2$  cut-off value (=20 ms) is located between the first and second peaks, indicating that the determination of the  $T_2$  cut-off value cannot solely rely on the positions of the three peaks. MICP analysis provides insights into the pore types within the rock, revealing an undulating characteristic. Specifically, at a mercury saturation of 36%, mercury fluid

enters the rock from the extra-large dissolution pores and moves into the primary pores, with a pore-throat radius boundary of 3.66  $\mu\text{m}$  (Fig. 6b). As the mercury saturation increases to 69.5%, the mercury fluid further penetrates into the clay-associated pores, which have a smaller pore-throat radius boundary of 0.061  $\mu\text{m}$ . This demonstrates the presence of different pore types and their connectivity within the rock, contributing to the complex pore structure observed in the  $T_2$  spectrum and the determination of the  $T_2$  cut-off value.

In the case of the bimodal mode, the combination of two different pore types leads to a bimodal  $T_2$  spectrum. Two specific combinations of pore types result in the bimodal mode as observed in Fig. 6d, 6g. In one case, primary pores are combined with mold pores, along with clay-associated pores characterized by a pore-throat boundary of 1.63  $\mu\text{m}$  (Fig. 6e, 6f). In the second case, moderate dissolution pores are combined with micro-fractures and clay-associated pores, with a pore-throat boundary of 3.64  $\mu\text{m}$  (Fig. 6h, 6i). Interestingly, in both cases, none of the positions of the two  $T_2$  cut-off values correspond to specific features such as two peaks or middle troughs, indicating that the determination of the  $T_2$  cut-off value cannot be solely based on a simple morphological analysis of the  $T_2$  spectrum. For the unimodal mode, which is commonly associated with clay-associated pores (Fig. 6l), this is confirmed by the MICP analysis where no fluctuations and pore boundaries are detected (Fig. 6k). The location of the  $T_2$  cut-off value is found in the vicinity of the peak (Fig. 6j). However, it is worth noting that three out of the four conventional cores also exhibit a unimodal mode, where the dominant pore system is primarily composed of uniform intergranular primary pores. Therefore, the dominant pore system varies depending on the degree of permeability even in the unimodal mode.

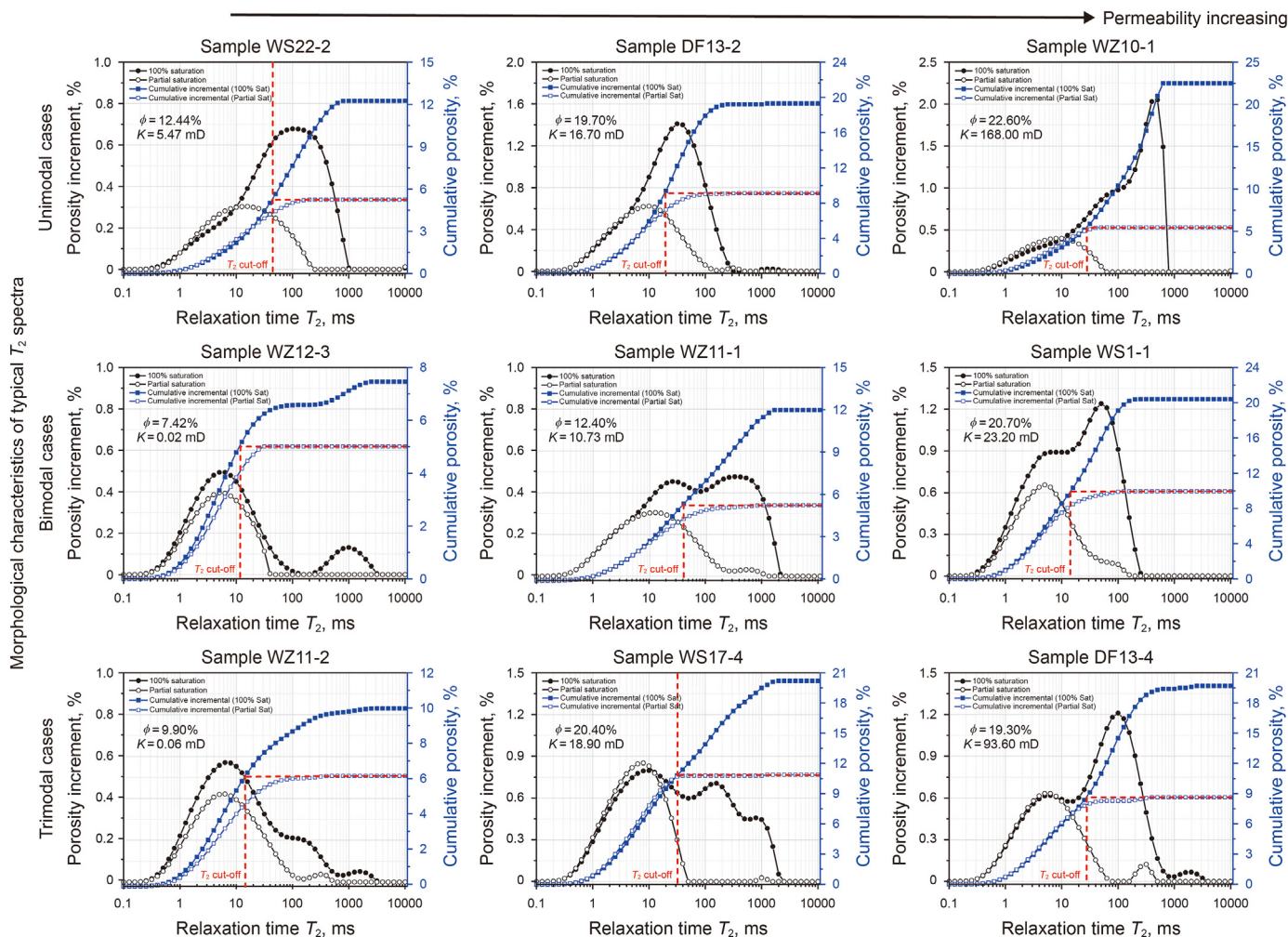
### 3.3. NMR multifractal characteristics

The fractal analysis of the  $T_2$  spectrum began by plotting  $T_q$  vs.  $q$ , which helps in detecting the fractal behavior of the 1D NMR  $T_2$  distribution. For a 1D dataset with a single fractal distribution, such as the Cantor Set, the plot of  $T_q$  vs.  $q$  appears as a straight line. However, in the case of the tested  $T_2$  data, the plots of  $T_q$  vs.  $q$  exhibit a curved pattern, indicating the presence of multifractal characteristics (Fig. 7). Subsequently, the generalized fractal and multifractal spectra were calculated for all the cores. The calculated results were categorized into three modes based on the number of peaks observed: unimodal, bimodal, and trimodal modes. In the generalized fractal spectra, the fractal dimension at  $q = -10$  is referred to as  $D_{\text{max}}$ , while the fractal dimension at  $q = 10$  is referred to as  $D_{\text{min}}$ . All the calculated fractal spectra were plotted and presented in Fig. 8.

Generalized fractal spectra from all cores exhibit an “S” shape (Fig. 8a, b, c). In these spectra,  $D_q$  shows a sharp decrease when  $q$  is less than 0, while it decreases more gradually when  $q$  is greater than 0. This pattern is consistent with observations in coal and shale studies (Testamanti and Rezaee, 2017; Zheng et al., 2019). The calculated average (min-max) distributions of  $D_q$  for different numbers of peaks are as follows: for the unimodal,  $D_{\text{min}}$  2.162 (1.530–2.479),  $D_{-8}$  2.115 (1.496–2.428),  $D_0$  0.989 (0.923–1.066),  $D_1$  0.905 (0.865–0.984),  $D_2$  0.876 (0.800–0.968),  $D_{\text{max}}$  0.805 (0.649–0.946); for the bimodal,  $D_{\text{min}}$  2.009 (1.599–2.339),  $D_{-8}$  1.965 (1.564–2.287),  $D_0$  1.001 (0.884–1.079),  $D_1$  0.921 (0.815–1.014),  $D_2$  0.892 (0.780–0.997),  $D_{\text{max}}$  0.837 (0.697–0.959); for the trimodal,  $D_{\text{min}}$  2.067 (1.958–2.191),  $D_{-8}$  2.021 (1.916–2.141),  $D_0$  1.052 (1.038–1.066),  $D_1$  0.969 (0.940–0.995),  $D_2$  0.943 (0.906–0.986),  $D_{\text{max}}$  0.880 (0.817–0.966).

From the above  $D_q$  distributions, compared with the unimodal mode, the bimodal mode has a larger mean value and a wider range





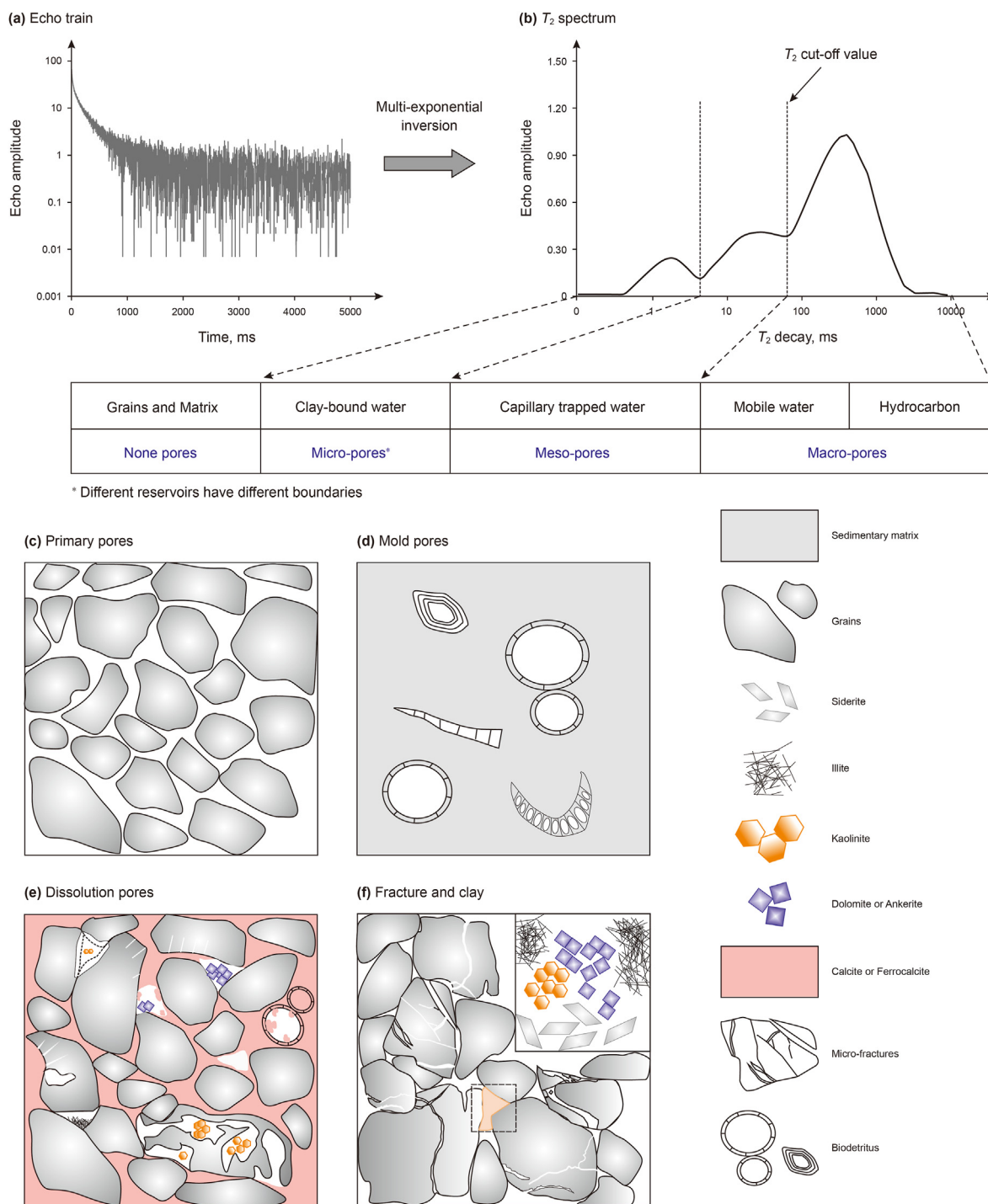
**Fig. 4.** Using saturated and centrifugal  $T_2$  spectra to obtain  $T_2$  cut-off value, typical experimental results of three types of saturated NMR  $T_2$  spectra, including (a) unimodal mode of samples #WS22-2, #DF13-1, and #WZ10-1; (b) bimodal mode samples #WZ12-3, #WZ11-1, and #WS1-1; (c) trimodal mode samples #WZ11-2, #WS17-4, and #DF13-4. The permeability and porosity values of each type of NMR data vary greatly, indicating that physical properties are not the factor affecting the number of peaks of saturated  $T_2$  spectrum.

of  $D_q$  (Fig. 8a, 8b). The maximum value of  $D_{min}$  in bimodal modes reaches as high as 2.479 but that of unimodal mode is only 2.339. This can be attributed to the greater variability and volatility in the morphology of the  $T_2$  spectrum in the bimodal mode compared to the unimodal mode. However, the trimodal mode in this analysis does not follow this trend (Fig. 8c). This may be due to the relatively weaker fluctuation in the  $T_2$  spectrum of the trimodal mode compared to the bimodal mode. Additionally, the limited number of samples ( $n = 4$ ) in this study may not fully represent the range of the trimodal mode. Furthermore, the value of  $D_q$  ( $q < 0$ ) is more sensitive to the shape of the  $T_2$  spectrum and exhibits a wider range (1.5–2.5). In contrast, the variation range of  $D_q$  ( $q > 0$ ) is very narrow (0.65–0.95). Therefore,  $D_q$  ( $q < 0$ ) rather than  $D_q$  ( $q > 0$ ) is expected to have more superior performance when examining the differences in  $T_2$  cut-off values.

Multifractal spectra of  $\alpha - f(\alpha)$  from all cores show a left-hook asymmetric bell-shaped characteristic, indicating a predominance of a high probability subset (Fig. 8d–f). The calculated ‘average (min-max)’ distributions of  $\Delta\alpha$  and  $\Delta f$  follows: for the unimodal,  $\Delta\alpha$  1.597(0.890–2.063),  $\Delta f$  0.445(0.060–0.802); for the bimodal,  $\Delta\alpha$  1.395(0.971–1.821),  $\Delta f$  0.543(0.103–0.831); for the trimodal,  $\Delta\alpha$

1.432(1.350–1.643);  $\Delta f$  0.560(0.379–0.832). Compared with the unimodal mode, the bimodal mode has a relatively smaller mean value and a narrower range of  $\Delta\alpha$  (Fig. 8e). The reason is attributed to the  $T_2$  distribution in the unimodal mode having a more significant polarization. However, the bimodal mode has a slightly larger mean value of  $\Delta f$ . All  $\Delta f$  values are positive, indicating that the high probability subset is dominant, which is consistent with the generalized fractal analysis. The trimodal mode was not analyzed for comparison owing to the number of samples (Fig. 8f).

The  $T_2$  cut-off value cannot be estimated by morphological parameters for low-permeability sandstones. The plots displaying the relationship between morphological parameters and  $T_2$  cut-off value are presented in Fig. 9, where no significant correlations were observed. Notably, the geometric mean  $T_2$  exhibits a higher correlation coefficient ( $=0.6903$ ) compared to the arithmetic mean (Fig. 9a). This can be attributed to the fact that the  $T_2$  cut-off value relies on the entire  $T_2$  spectrum rather than a single peak or average value of the  $T_2$  data. The morphological parameters fail to capture the full-size distribution characteristics of the  $T_2$  spectrum. Consequently, obtaining the  $T_2$  cut-off value cannot be obtained from the morphological parameters after curve normalization.



**Fig. 5.** NMR Data processing workflow and pore type classification according to pore size, the pore type in low permeable media classified according to the inherent genesis of pores. (a) Measured echo train data; (b) inverted  $T_2$  spectrum where pore size type is classified according to the trough of  $T_2$  spectrum in conventional method; (c) (d) (e) (f) the four common pore types classified according to their origins: primary pores, mold pores, dissolution pores, fracture and clay-associated pores.

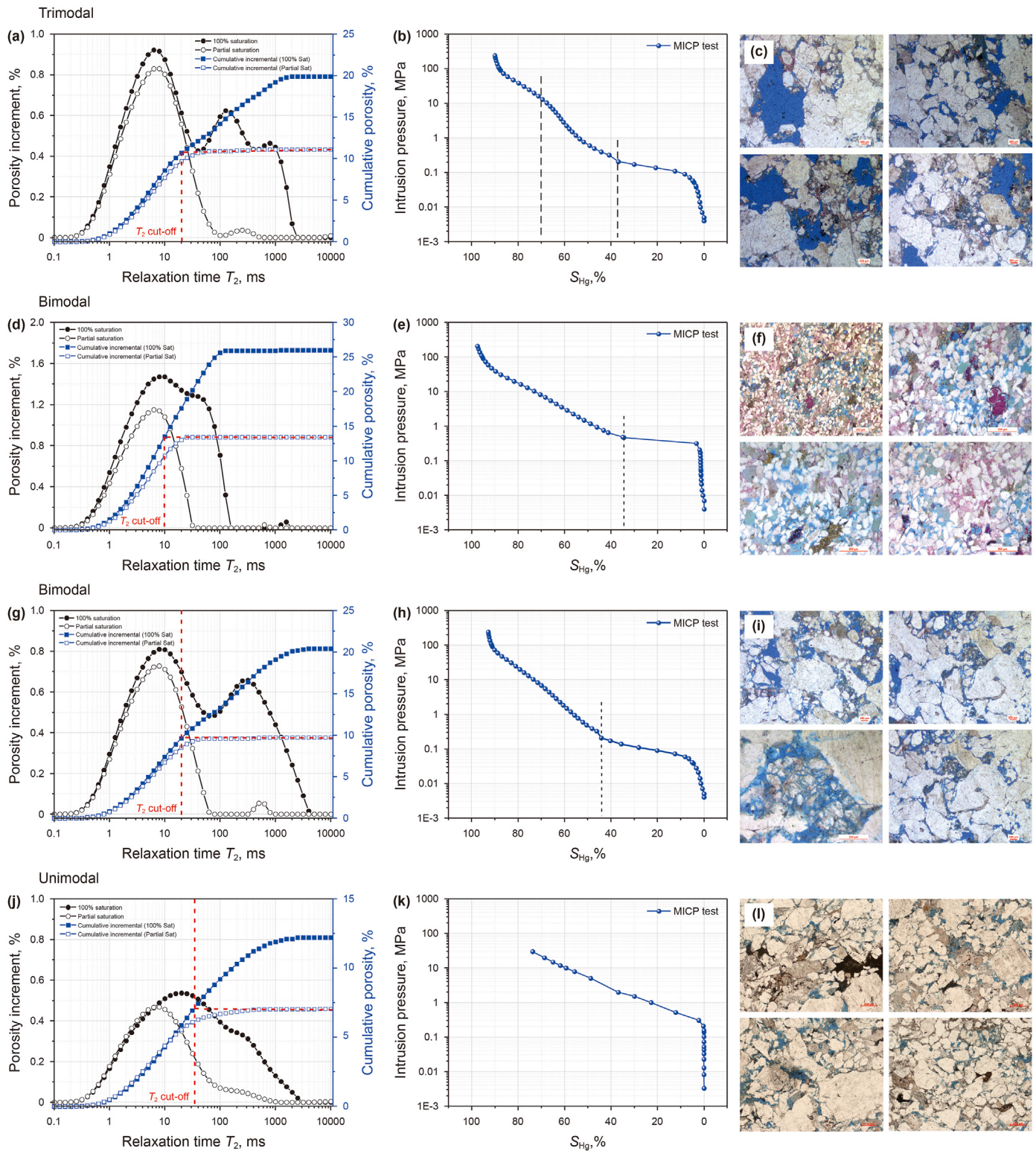
### 3.4. SMOTE oversampling

Due to the substantial cost and resource-intensive nature of NMR experiments, the number of rock cores available for NMR testing is typically severely limited (e.g., Table 1). Consequently, this often leads to constraints on the quality of core-based NMR  $T_2$  spectra. Specifically, the sample size is undersampled and insufficient for statistical analysis. In logistic regression analysis, a widely

advocated minimum standard for sample size consideration is ten events per variable (EPV) (Peduzzi et al., 1996). When the total number of samples is less than ten times the number of feature vectors, overfitting becomes more likely during regression and classification using multiple or machine learning models. Supervised learning to underlying physical mechanisms from imbalanced datasets poses a challenging task (Camacho et al., 2022).

To mitigate the issue of overfitting with small NMR





**Fig. 6.** The response relationship between the number of peaks in the saturated  $T_2$  spectrum and the pore system or pore types where system are reflected by MICP in 3D space and by thin section in 2D plane, (a) (d) (g) (j) the tested NMR  $T_2$  spectra in the saturated and centrifugal states from samples #WS17-3, #LS13-2, #WS11-1, #WZ12-1; (b) (e) (h) (k) the MICP tested results of four samples from (a) (d) (g) (j); (c) (f) (i) (l) 2D thin section for showing different pore types if four samples from (a) (d) (g) (j).

experimental datasets and develop a more robust prediction model for the  $T_2$  cut-off value, data augmentation is introduced. This technique reliably expands the training datasets, enabling the prediction model to focus on deeper and more essential features,

thereby enhancing the model's robustness and generalization. Data augmentation, similar to actual oversampling, does not directly replicate observations, but instead introduces small perturbations to replicated data points (Douzas et al., 2018). For 2D or 3D image

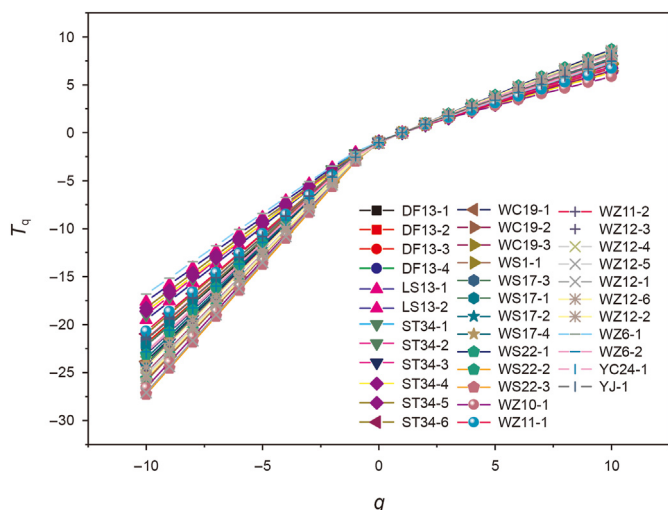


Fig. 7. The plots of quality index vs.  $q$  for all cores where the quality index between cores vary obviously at  $q < 0$ .

sets, data augmentation methods primarily involve geometric transformations such as rotation, flip, color transformation, cropping, scaling, translation, and noise, in order to generate similar yet distinct image sets. In the petroleum industry, image data augmentation is frequently employed for the transforming reservoir rocks images, including CT images, cast thin sections and scanning electron microscope (Karimpouli and Tahmasebi, 2019; Saxena et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2022). Among the algorithms used for data augmentation in 1D high-dimensional sample spaces (e.g., fractal parameter sets), SMOTE currently holds the most influence and serves as the established framework for most subsequent oversampling work. It effectively mitigates the risk of overfitting

associated with random oversampling (Douzas and Bacao, 2019; Douzas et al., 2021).

SMOTE performs data augmentation by generating synthetic data points based on existing raw data points, representing an advanced form of oversampling and a specific algorithm for data augmentation (Chawla et al., 2002). SMOTE consists of two main components: 1) selection rules for minority class instances, and 2) the mechanism for generating data after selecting these samples. Specifically, in the selection stage, different classes have been manually labeled. Regarding data generation, SMOTE follows these three steps to synthesize samples (Fig. 11):

- (1) For each sample vector  $\vec{a}$  in each mode of the NMR  $T_2$  spectra, calculate its distance to the nearest  $k$  ( $=$  sample number) points samples in the same mode using the Euclidean distance.
- (2) Determine the sampling ratio  $N$  ( $=2$ ) based on the sample imbalance ratio. For each minority class sample vector  $\vec{a}$ , randomly select several samples from its  $k$ -nearest neighbors, assuming the selected neighbors are  $\vec{b}$ .
- (3) For each randomly selected neighbor vector  $\vec{b}$ , generate a new sample vector  $\vec{x}$  using the original sample vector  $\vec{a}$  according to the following equation:

$$\vec{x} = \vec{a} + w \times (\vec{b} - \vec{a}), w = rand(0, 1) \quad (12)$$

where  $w$  ( $=0.8$ ) is a randomly generated weight from the range of 0–1. By employing SMOTE, the sample size of the multifractal parameter set with  $T_2$  cut-off value increased from 36 to 561, resulting in new sample sizes of 172, 361, and 28 for the unimodal, bimodal, and trimodal distributions, respectively. The high-dimensional data was then visualized in 2D using the principal component analysis (PCA) method (Fig. 12). As depicted, SMOTE

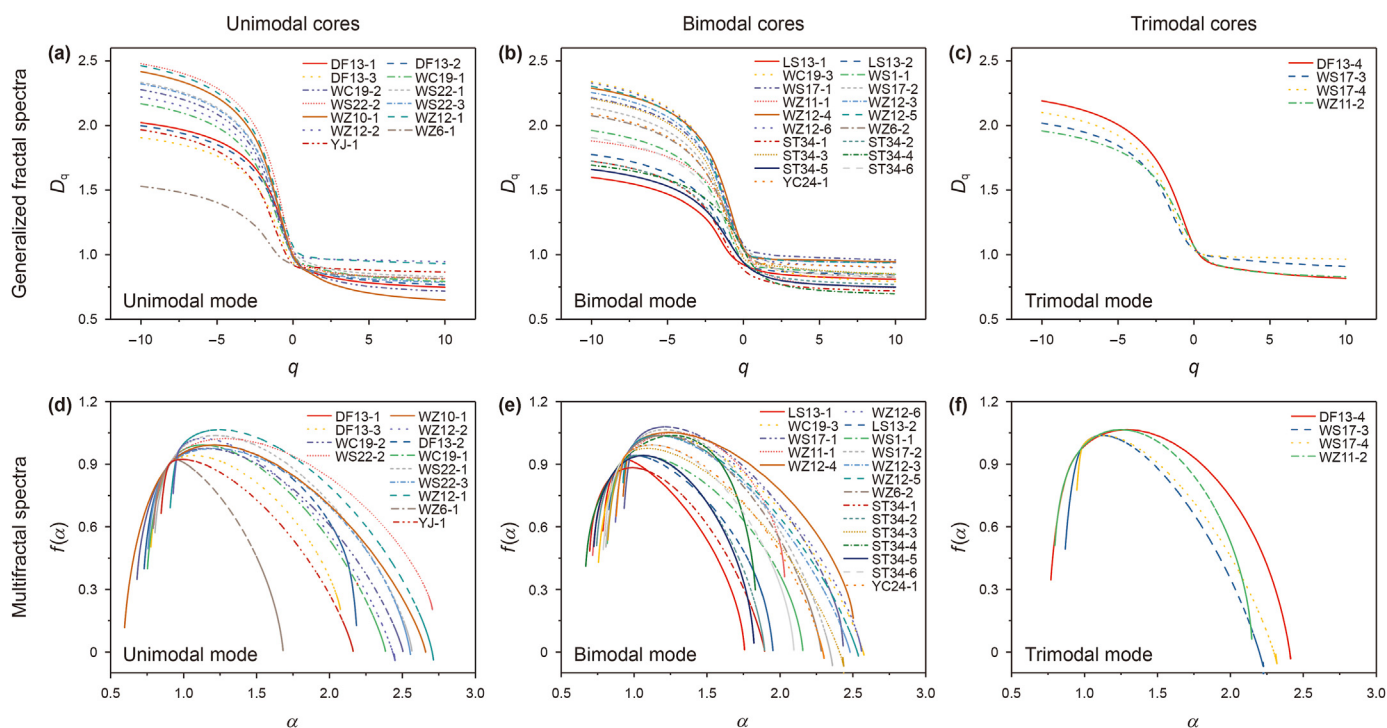
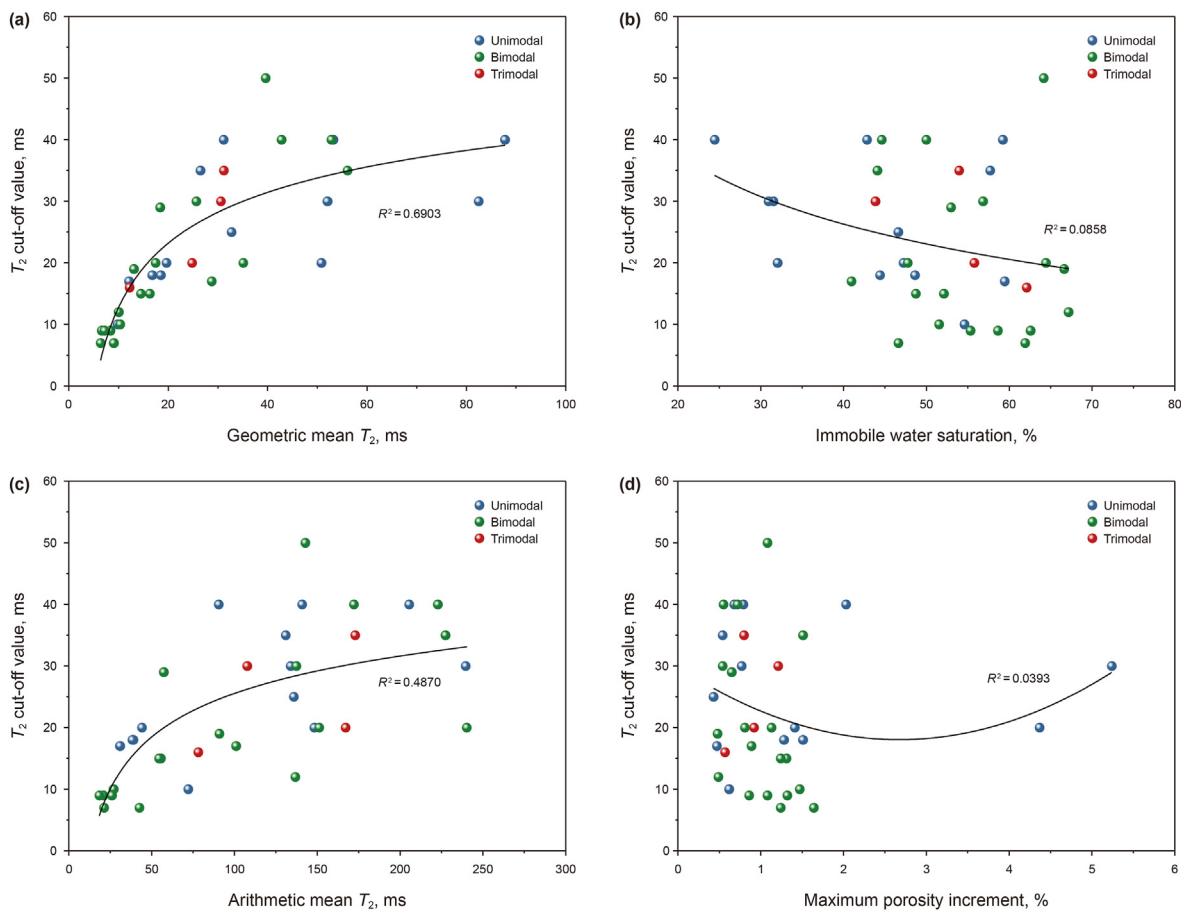
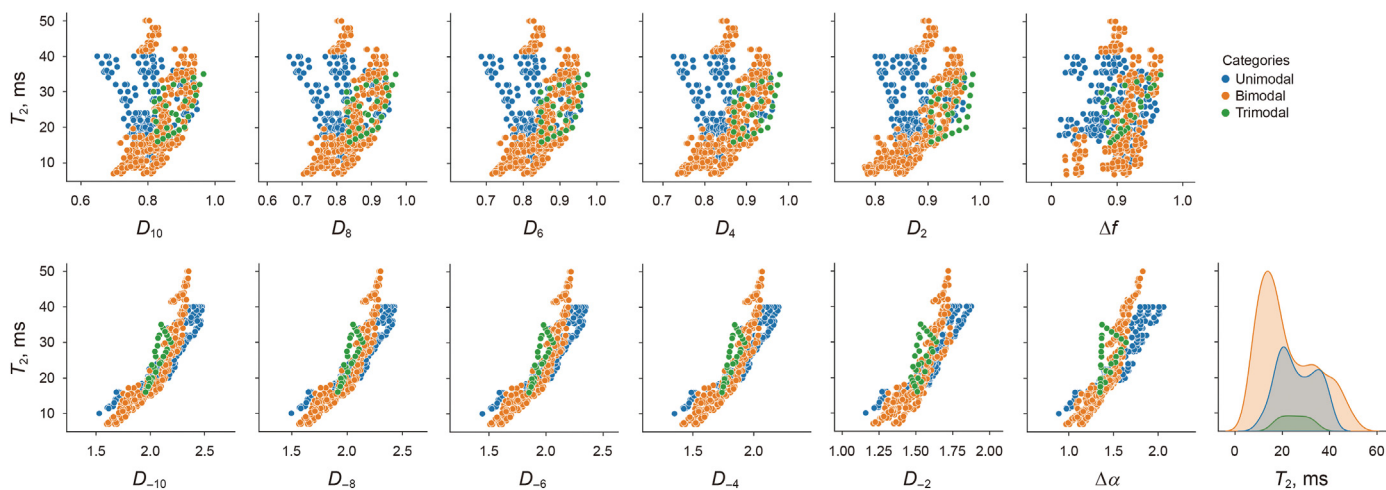


Fig. 8. Fractal spectra with  $q$  ranging from  $-10$  to  $10$  of three types of  $T_2$  spectral data (unimodal, bimodal, trimodal modes), including (a) (b) (c) generalized fractal spectra, and (d) (e) (f) multifractal spectra.





**Fig. 9.** Cross-plots of  $T_2$  cut-off values versus geometric morphological parameters, including (a) geometric mean  $T_2$  value; (b) Immobile water saturation; (c) Arithmetic mean  $T_2$  value; (d) maximum porosity increment.



**Fig. 10.** Cross-plots of  $T_2$  cut-off values versus multifractal parameters, including  $D_q$  with  $q < 0$ ,  $D_q$  with  $q > 0$ ,  $\Delta\alpha$ ,  $\Delta f$ , and  $T_2$  cut-off value distribution for the classified  $T_2$  spectra including unimodal, and bimodal types.

enhances the sampling density of the dataset without altering the original mapping relationships between features and target variables. What needs to be explained here is the following: (1) The NMR data set used in this study is not divided into small sample sets separately. Therefore, by applying SMOTE, three types of NMR datasets, including unimodal, bimodal, and trimodal samples, were

simultaneously augmented. Typically, SMOTE does not alter the correlations between the original feature variables and the target variables. For a sample set that lacks intrinsic functional correlation, the sample sets after data augmentation by SMOTE will still lack intrinsic correlations. However, for a sample set that has an intrinsic functional correlation, it enhances the internal

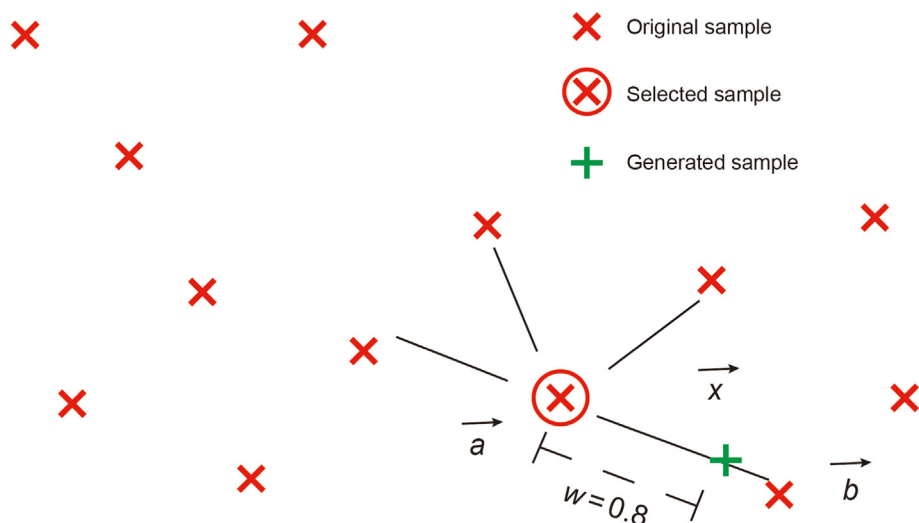


Fig. 11. Schematic diagram of the principle of generating new samples based on the original samples in the SMOTE oversampling method, where the nearest neighbor  $k = 4$ , and the weight  $w = 0.8$ .

correlations through data augmentation, making it detectable by the machine learning models. (2) If the newly generated data points in a specific sample set are scattered among other sample sets, those data points can be considered as noise, which can interfere with the identification of the above correlations (Douzas et al., 2018). To detect whether the generated data points are noise data, high-dimensional feature variables can be transformed into 2D variables using techniques such as PCA or t-SNE (t-distributed stochastic neighbor embedding). The result of this analysis is presented in Fig. 12. By employing SMOTE on this sample set, the newly generated data are valid data.

### 3.5. Machine learning for $T_2$ cut-off values

Machine learning allows for the discovery of implicit correlations between multiple variables and the target variable that cannot be captured by multiple linear regression. To assess the potential of machine learning in predicting the  $T_2$  cut-off value, supervised machine learning regression was conducted using the augmented dataset. The samples were divided into two datasets for training purposes: 1) All samples ( $N = 561$ ), and 2) The unimodal samples ( $N = 172$ ) and the bimodal samples ( $N = 361$ ), respectively. For each model training, the dataset was split into an 80% training set and a 20% test set.

Compared with morphological parameters, numerous multifractal parameters ( $\Delta\alpha$ ,  $D_q$  ( $q < 0$ )) exhibited strong correlations with the  $T_2$  cut-off values (Fig. 10). However, no significant correlations were observed for  $\Delta f$  and  $D_q$  ( $q > 0$ ), (Fig. 10), which aligns with the  $T_q$  vs.  $q$  plots. The multifractal behaviors of cores varied significantly for  $q < 0$  (Fig. 8). Additionally, the correlations differed between the unimodal and bimodal samples (Fig. 10). Notably, no significant correlations were observed for the trimodal mode, which is distinct from coal and shale reservoirs.  $\Delta\alpha$  and  $D_q$  ( $q < 0$ ) proved to be more sensitive to the morphological characteristics of the  $T_2$  distribution compared to  $\Delta f$  and  $D_q$  ( $q > 0$ ) (Fig. 10). Consequently, six sensitive parameters ( $D_{-10}$ ,  $D_{-8}$ ,  $D_{-6}$ ,  $D_{-4}$ ,  $D_{-2}$ ,  $\Delta\alpha$ ) were used as input variables (Fig. 12). To conduct the prediction of  $T_2$  cut-off values, three commonly used regression models were employed: k-nearest neighbor (KNN), extreme gradient boosting (XGBoost), and gradient boosting decision tree (GBDT). Detailed methodology can be found in previous publications (Zhang and Zhou, 2007; Cai et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2022b). Finally, the  $T_2$

cut-off values, including both the unclassified dataset and the classified dataset by kurtosis, were compared with the measured results as shown in Fig. 13.

The correlation coefficients of the classified dataset (around 0.98 for unimodal, bimodal) were higher than that of the full-size unclassified dataset (approximately 0.89) (Fig. 13). Notably, all predicted data points closely align with the 1:1 line, indicating excellent agreement between the  $T_2$  cut-off values calculated by machine learning regressions and those obtained from the centrifugation experiments with NMR tests. Among the three types of machine learning algorithms, XGBoost is the recommended model (Fig. 13). Besides, It is important to highlight that for  $T_2$  cut-off values larger than 30 ms, the prediction results become more scattered, particularly for bimodal samples (Fig. 13). Additionally, special attention is required when dealing with trimodal mode in sandstones.

An error factor of  $\pm 5$  ms can serve as a reasonable standard for low-permeability sandstones (Fig. 13). The combination of multifractal analysis with machine learning data augmentation through SMOTE proves to be an effective approach for determining the  $T_2$  cut-off value in cases with limited NMR data. This method holds significant potential for  $T_2$  NMR logging applications in low-permeability oil and gas reservoirs. It should be noted that the  $T_2$  spectrum of low-permeability sandstone typically exhibits a single-peak or double-peak distribution, differs significantly from the typical three-peak distribution observed in coals and shales. Therefore, it is necessary to consider the kurtosis of the  $T_2$  spectrum, augment the original sample size through data augmentation, and test various machine learning models.

There is no direct correlation between the  $T_2$  cut-off value and the movable water saturation (Fig. 9b), since the fully-saturated  $T_2$  spectrum is required. However, by combining the measured and predicted  $T_2$  cut-off values with the fully-saturated  $T_2$  spectrum, movable water saturation can be estimated. As demonstrated in Fig. 14, movable water saturation was reliably estimated using acceptable  $T_2$  cut-off values. It is important to note that there is an error factor of 7% in the estimated water saturation due to linear interpolation of cumulative porosity at a specific  $T_2$  time. Furthermore, although the trimodal  $T_2$  cut-off values were not accurately estimated, they did not significantly impact the prediction of mobile water saturation. This may be attributed to the lower sensitivity of the  $T_2$  cut-off value to saturation in trimodal samples



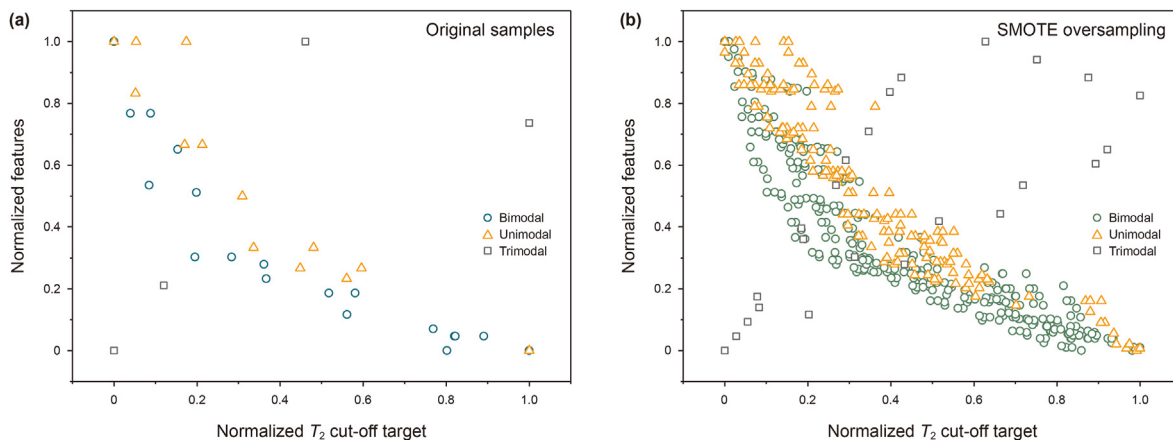


Fig. 12. Samples generated through oversampling multifractal dataset using SMOTE method.

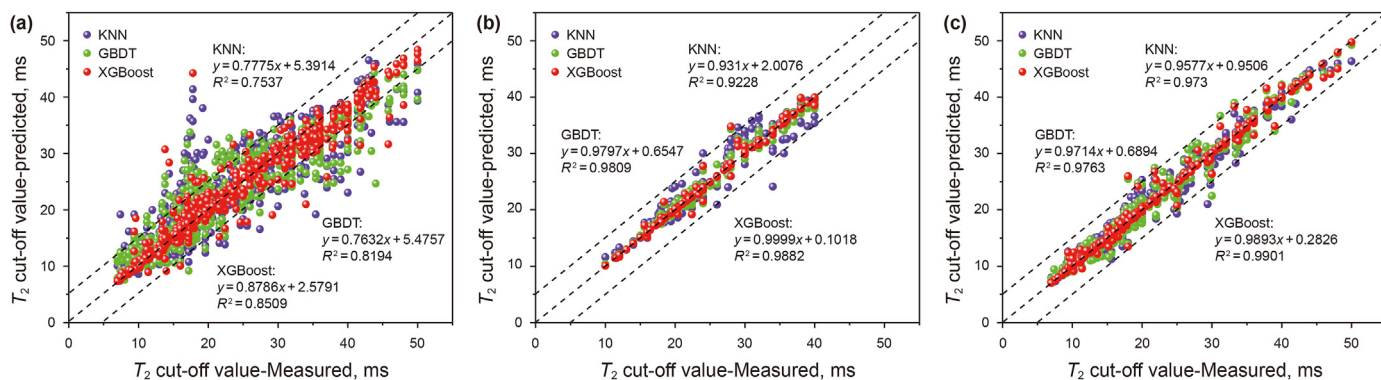


Fig. 13. Cross-plots of measured and predicted  $T_2$  cut-off values by multifractal analysis with three machine learning models from (a) all samples; (b) the unimodal samples; (c) bimodal samples.

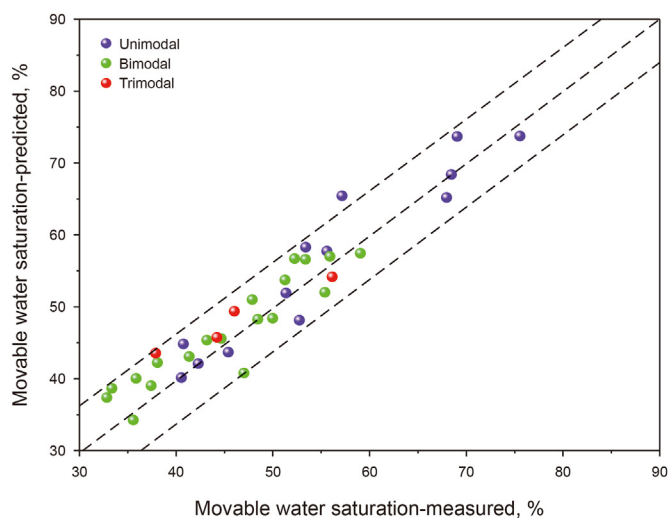


Fig. 14. Comparisons of measured and predicted movable water saturation by the measured and predicted  $T_2$  cut-off values combined the full-size  $T_2$  spectra at fully water-saturated state from 36 cores.

compared to unimodal and bimodal samples.

SHAP (SHapley Additive exPlanation) was employed to address the interpretability of the XGBoost model. Derived from game theory, SHAP quantifies the importance of each feature by

calculating the contribution of each feature to the target prediction based on the Shapley value (Shapley, 1953; Meng et al., 2022). The sum of the Shapley values for all features corresponds to the prediction output of the final model. The distribution of the global SHAP values for the six input features over the unimodal sample set was calculated (Fig. 15). In Fig. 15, the dotted line represents the base value, while the solid line represents the final output of the model. Among the features,  $\Delta\alpha$  exhibit the most importance, followed by  $D_{-2}$ ,  $D_{-10}$ . Notably,  $\Delta\alpha$  provides a negative contribution approximately half of the samples. In addition, the SHAP method provides more detailed insights into the influence of specific features compared to the importance ranking map. Taking  $\Delta\alpha$  as an example, this parameter exerted the most significant influence on the XGBoost model. When the value of  $\Delta\alpha$  is smaller, it contributed negatively, resulting in a smaller model output, and vice versa (Fig. 16).

### 3.6. Effects of $T_2$ spectrum position on multifractal analysis

Using the SHAP method, the importance of the eigenvectors was ranked. Among them,  $\Delta\alpha$  and  $D_q$  ( $q < 0$ ) were found to play a relatively significant role in predicting the  $T_2$  cut-off values. The underlying mechanism was analyzed through multifractal theory. As known, the fractals and multifractals describe the structure, singularity, scale independence, order, self-similarity, vergence, anisotropy, self-organization, randomness, and criticality of objects of interest (Cheng, 1999). However, different fractal parameters exhibit different preferences in detecting these fractal features. In

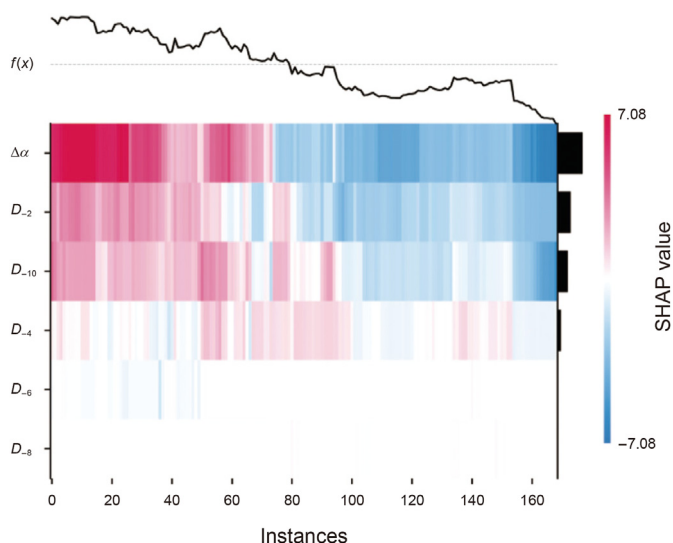


Fig. 15. The heatmap for a global interpretation by the SHAP value to all samples in predicting  $T_2$  cut-off values.

cases where two  $T_2$  spectra have the same shape but different positions relative to the X-axis, their  $T_2$  cut-off values will differ significantly (Fig. 17a, d, g). However, if all the fractal parameters of these two  $T_2$  spectra are equal, the robustness of multifractal parameters in predicting the  $T_2$  cut-off value for a wide range of porous media diminishes (Hu et al., 2020). To illustrate this, the original  $T_2$  spectrum was translated to generate two  $T_2$  spectra with the same shape but different positions relative to the X-axis. The generalized fractal dimensions and multifractal dimensions are depicted in Fig. 17. The results demonstrate that  $\Delta\alpha$  undergoes significant changes (increases), whereas  $\Delta f$  changes very little, for both unimodal (Fig. 17h) and bimodal (Fig. 17e) distributions, and even in the case of trimodal distributions (Fig. 17b).  $D_q$  ( $q < 0$ ) exhibits substantial changes, while  $D_q$  ( $q > 0$ ) changes only slightly (Fig. 17c, f, i). Hence,  $D_q$  ( $q < 0$ ) and  $\Delta\alpha$  can be used to accurately predict the  $T_2$  cut-off value. The reason for this variation is provided from a multifractal theory perspective.

According to the multifractal principle,  $\Delta\alpha$  reflects the unevenness of the distribution probability of  $T_2$  value, while  $\Delta f$  indicates the structural changes among different probability subsets within the  $T_2$  distribution (Stanley and Meakin, 1988; Ge et al., 2015). Specifically, larger values of  $\Delta\alpha$  signify greater differences in the  $T_2$  distribution, more pronounced polarization trends of each subset's

probability, and a more complex shape of the  $T_2$  spectrum. Conversely, smaller values of  $\Delta\alpha$  indicate smaller distribution differences in  $T_2$  values, more concentrated and uniform distributions of each subset, and a higher degree of uniformity in the  $T_2$  spectrum shape. Thus,  $\Delta\alpha$  can quantitatively express the differences, non-uniformity, and polarization characteristics of the distribution of each subset within the  $T_2$  spectrum shape, consequently reflecting the degree of fluctuation in the  $T_2$  spectrum shape.

When  $\Delta f < 0$ , the multifractal spectrum of  $\alpha - f(\alpha)$  exhibits a “right hook” shape, indicating that a subset of the  $T_2$  distribution with a small probability dominates, and resulting in a relatively sharp  $T_2$  spectrum. Conversely, when  $\Delta f > 0$ , the multifractal spectrum of  $\alpha - f(\alpha)$  shows a “left hook” shape, signifying the dominance of the high probability subset and a sharper and rounder  $T_2$  spectrum. Namely,  $\Delta f$  reflects the characteristics and relative proportion between  $T_2$  spectral distributions. Larger  $\Delta f$  values correspond to more data points with larger actual  $T_2$  values and uneven distribution. Thus,  $\Delta\alpha$  detects the relative position of the  $T_2$  spectrum and internal differences in pore information, while  $\Delta f$  mainly detects the smoothness and sharpness of the  $T_2$  spectrum.

#### 4. Conclusions

In this study, the pore types and NMR characteristics of 36 low-permeability reservoir sandstones were investigated by NMR experiments. The multifractal characteristic of the  $T_2$  spectrum of the fully water-saturated medium was analyzed by using multifractal theory, and the correlations between  $T_2$  cut-off values and porosity as well as permeability, morphological parameters, and multifractal parameters were discussed. The following conclusions were drawn:

- (1) The  $T_2$  spectra of low-permeability reservoir sandstones exhibited three modes of peak numbers: unimodal, bimodal, and trimodal, with the trimodal mode being relatively rare. The number of peaks in the  $T_2$  spectrum was directly determined by pore types. The  $T_2$  cut-off value ranged from 7 to 50 ms, with an average of 23.25 ms. This value could not be predicted by petrophysical parameters, curve morphological parameters, or simple mathematical statistical analysis.
- (2) The  $T_2$  spectra captures the multifractal behavior of the pore system within low-permeability sandstones.  $\Delta\alpha$  and  $D_q$  ( $q < 0$ ) were found to have a strongly correlated with the  $T_2$  cut-off value. This correlation was attributed to  $\Delta\alpha$  and  $D_q$  ( $q < 0$ ) detecting the position of the  $T_2$  spectrum relative to the X-axis. However, the effects of the  $T_2$  spectrum position

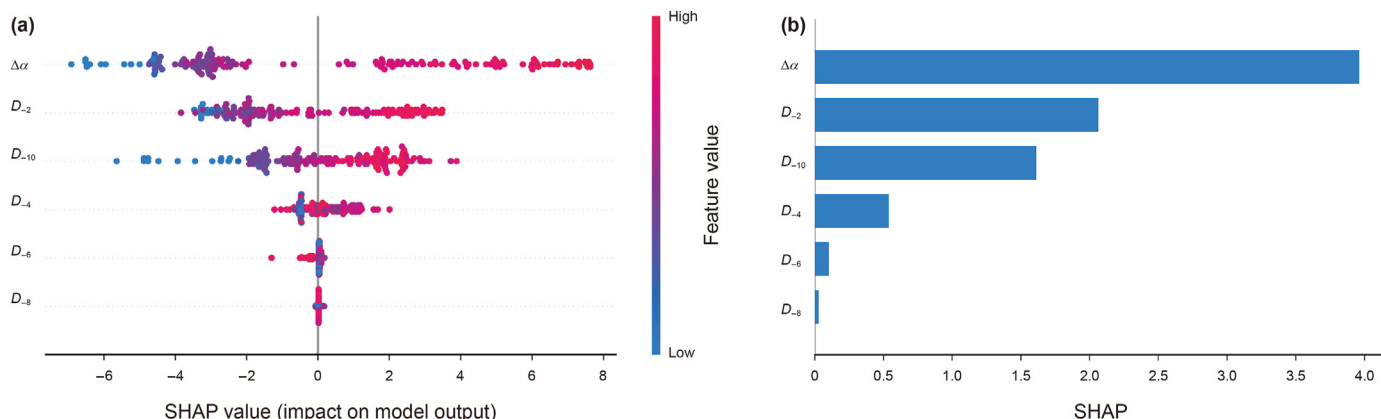
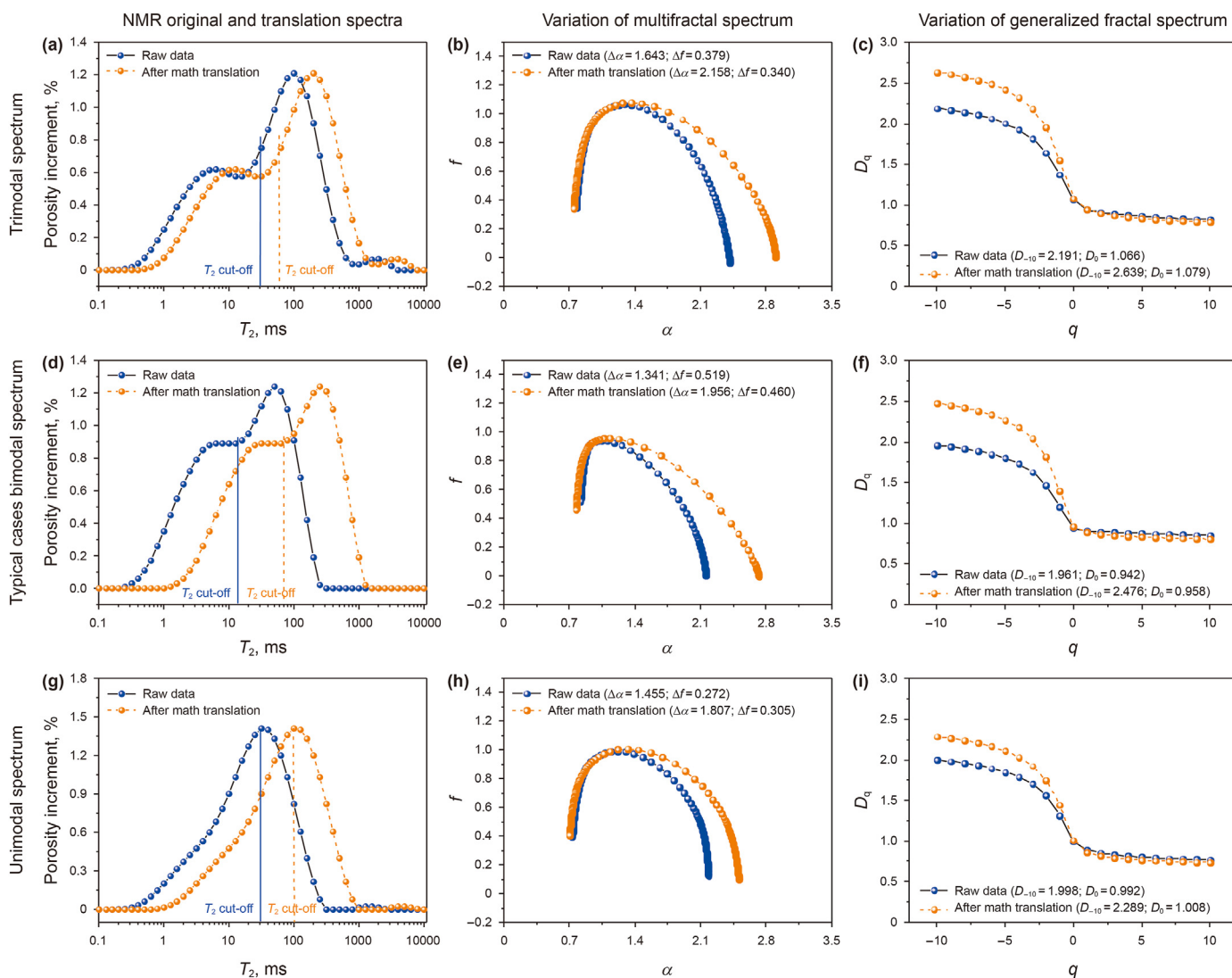


Fig. 16. (a) SHAP values assigned to different multifractal features; (b) Bar diagram showing the importance ranking of the six multifractal features.



**Fig. 17.** Effects of the location of  $T_2$  spectrum relative to X-axis on calculations of multifractal analysis using math translation to produce original and translational NMR  $T_2$  spectra from (a) sample # DF 13–4 as a trimodal case; (d) sample # WS1-1 as a bimodal case; (g) sample # DF13-2 as a unimodal case; (b) (e) (h) calculated multifractal spectra from (a) (d) (g); (c) (f) (i) calculated generalized fractal spectra from (a) (d) (g).

on  $D_q$  ( $q > 0$ ) and  $\Delta f$  were minimal, leading to the inability of  $\Delta f$  and  $D_q$  ( $q > 0$ ) to determine the  $T_2$  cut-off value.

- (3) The limitation of NMR data volume owing to experimental cost can be overcome by oversampling with the classic SMOTE technique. SMOTE can augment sample data without altering the underlying functional mapping relationships within NMR  $T_2$  dataset.
- (4) When classifying the  $T_2$  spectra of low-permeability reservoir sandstones based on the number of peaks, machine learning models showed higher correlation coefficients when using six sensitive features of  $\Delta\alpha$  and  $D_q(q < 0)$  as inputs. The XGBoost model was recommended in determining  $T_2$  cut-off values.  $\Delta\alpha$  exhibited the greatest importance according to the SHAP method. No significant correlation between the  $T_2$  cut-off value and movable water saturation was observed. Combining with the predicted  $T_2$  cut-off value with the fully-saturated  $T_2$  spectrum, movable water saturation can be reliably estimated.
- (5) However, due to the limitations in experimental data, the multifractal method did not yield satisfactory performance

for the trimodal mode. Estimations became more scattered, especially for bimodal samples, when the  $T_2$  cut-off value exceeded 30 ms. Considering the influences of random errors, an error factor of  $\pm 5$  ms can be utilized as a reliable boundaries for  $T_2$  cut-off value estimation.

**Declaration of competing interest**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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