

## CHARACTERIZATION OF SHALES WITH LOW FIELD NMR

M. Fleury

IFP Energies nouvelles, 1 avenue de Bois-Préau, 92852 Rueil-Malmaison, France.

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### ABSTRACT

Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR) relaxation methods are key techniques for evaluating shales, both from cores and logging data. First, very small pore sizes, down to nano-meter length scales, can be detected and quantified if the NMR tool has the ability to measure relaxation times in the range [0.1 – 1 ms], and second the different proton populations (water, oil, gas, organic matter) can be distinguished using 2D  $T_1$ - $T_2$  maps. In this work, we show two techniques to characterize shales: 2D relaxation techniques to identify fluids, and deuterium tracer techniques to identify connectivity of the pore network system, providing also a measure of tortuosity. We used a NMR instrument working at a higher frequency (20 MHz) that yields a much higher sensitivity than standard plug-size benchtop apparatus.  $T_1$ - $T_2$  maps were acquired on different samples at different saturation states (dry, 100% water and 100% gas saturated). In such maps, the fluid typing is based on the  $T_1/T_2$  ratio and  $T_2$  values. One can detect different populations of protons: hydroxyls from the clay ( $T_2 < 0.1$  ms,  $10 < T_1/T_2 < 100$ ), water ( $T_1/T_2 \sim 2$ ), and in certain situations organic matter ( $10 < T_1/T_2 < 100$ ). Methane can be clearly distinguished with  $T_1/T_2 \sim 10$ .

### INTRODUCTION

The characterization of gas shales remains a challenge and cannot be performed using conventional petrophysical techniques. Even for basic properties such as porosity and permeability, appropriate protocols and instrumentation are required. For the visualisation of the pore space, we rely on recent microscopy techniques (Scanning Electronic Microscopy coupled with Focused Ion Beam) that are appropriate at nanometre scale. NMR relaxation techniques are also very appropriate in this context because it can detect small quantity of water or gas, in very small pore sizes. For example in the interlayer space of smectites, it is possible with an appropriate instrument to detect and quantify the water content even when the pore width is only one or two water layers thick [1]. However, for complex porous media such as shales, standard  $T_2$  relaxation distributions provide limited information. There are many recent efforts to use advanced and/or multidimensional NMR techniques for separating the different proton contributions [2–

4]. As with conventional reservoirs, diffusion contrasts between gas, oil and water can be used to identify fluid phases. Another method is to use the  $T_1/T_2$  contrast, and this is developed in this work.

We first recall the NMR relaxation theory for different proton populations and in the context of nano-porous media, for liquid, gas, and also for solids. The NMR instrument and the methane high pressure cell are then described. We studied organic matter extracted from different shales, and shales in different saturation states. We finally propose a  $T_1$ - $T_2$  fluid mapping based on our observations.

## NMR THEORY

### Relaxation of water in nanoporous media

For water in porous media, the dominant relaxation process is the result of interactions between the spins carried by molecules exploring the pore space by diffusion, and the electronic spins at the solid surface. These interactions are effective only close to the surface in a layer of thickness  $\varepsilon_S$  ( $<0.5$  nm) and are characterized by a decay time constant  $T_S$ . Similarly, far from the surface, the intra and intermolecular interactions are characterized by a much longer decay time constant  $T_B$ . In a pore, let us define two regions: a bulk volume with a volume fraction  $f_b$ , and a surface layer with a volume fraction  $f_s$  ( $f_b + f_s = 1$ ). Due to molecular diffusion, there is an exchange between the surface and bulk volumes with a typical exchange time  $\tau_{ex}$ . In the so-called fast exchange regime ( $\tau_{ex} \ll T$ ) or fast diffusion regime, the measured relaxation rate  $1/T$  is an average of the bulk and surface relaxation rates weighted by the volume fraction:

$$\frac{1}{T_2} = \frac{f_s}{T_{2s}} + \frac{f_b}{T_{2B}} \approx \frac{S_p}{V_p} \frac{\varepsilon_S}{T_{2s}} + \frac{1}{T_{2B}} \quad (1)$$

We show here the transverse relaxation time  $T_2$  but the equation is also valid for the longitudinal relaxation with, however, a different value of  $T_{2s}$ . The above equation yields the well-known dependence with the surface to volume ratio ( $S_p/V_p$ ) of a single (closed) pore (Figure 1). The strength of interactions with the solid is usually expressed as the surface relaxivity  $\rho_2$  or relaxation velocity at the pore surface defined as  $\rho_2 = \varepsilon_S / T_{2s}$ . Using typical values of surface relaxivities between 1 and 10  $\mu\text{m/s}$ , the relaxation time of water located in a sheet-like pore of thickness 1 nm for example (hence  $V/S=1\text{nm}$ ) will be in the range 0.1 to 1 ms. Such values are easily accessible to most commercial spectrometers and to some in-situ logging instruments. Therefore, NMR has the capability for detecting and quantifying the mass of water present in very small pores. However, there are two important issues. First, in nanopores, the measured relaxation time may not give an indication of the pore size (or thickness for a sheet) according to equation 1 because the length scale of the NMR interactions are comparable to the thickness (a few nanometer compared to  $\varepsilon_S \sim 0.5$  nm). This is indeed the case in the interlayer space of smectites [1] in which equation 1 has been found not to be valid. Second, the diffusive exchange between pores [5] may lead to a  $T_2$  distribution that does not represent anymore a pore size distribution, and hence the classical method for deducing capillary bound water using a cut-off is not applicable. Indeed, taking a typical macroscopic water effective diffusivity of  $1 \cdot 10^{-10}$   $\text{m}^2/\text{s}$  (as shown later), a typical

diffusion length  $(6Dt)^{1/2}$  at time  $t=1\text{ms}$  is 800 nm. This is well above the typical range of pore size usually encountered in shales. We will give experimental proofs of the diffusive coupling in future work.

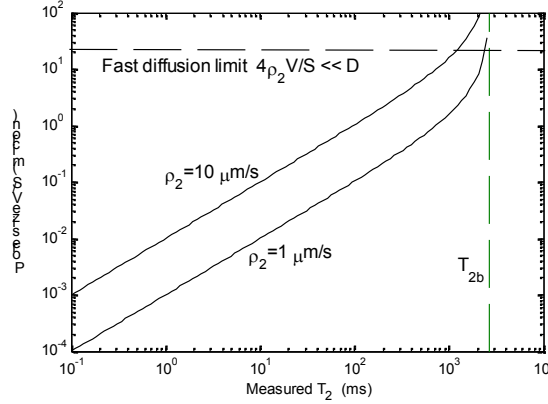


Figure 1: Graphical representation of equation 1 with two surface relaxivities covering the range of usual values.

### Relaxation of pseudo-solid material

A consequence of the fast exchange model described above is that the measured relaxation time cannot be smaller than  $T_{2s}$ . Very short relaxation times ( $<0.1$  ms or less than  $T_{2s}$ ) are produced by processes related to the mobility of protons. The theoretical framework is the so-called Bloembergen-Purcell-Pound (BPP) model relating the longitudinal and transverse relaxation times to the correlation time  $\tau$  of the dipolar interaction:

$$\frac{1}{T_1} = 2C \left[ \frac{2\tau}{1 + \omega^2 \tau^2} + \frac{8\tau}{1 + 4\omega^2 \tau^2} \right] \quad (2)$$

$$\frac{1}{T_2} = C \left[ 6\tau + \frac{10\tau}{1 + \omega^2 \tau^2} + \frac{4\tau}{1 + 4\omega^2 \tau^2} \right]$$

where  $\omega$  is the Larmor frequency and  $C$  is a constant. A single value of correlation time is assumed here for simplicity. For fast isotropic molecular tumbling, as is the case in the above mentioned fast diffusion model,  $\omega\tau \ll 1$  and  $T_1/T_2=1$  (in fact, due to the heteronuclear dipole-dipole interactions with the electronic spins, we have  $T_1/T_2 \sim 2$ ). When molecules are not mobile, the correlation time is several orders of magnitude larger,  $\omega\tau \gg 1$ , and the ratio  $T_1/T_2 \sim \omega^2 \tau^2$  is much larger than 1 and depends on the Larmor frequency. For example for ice,  $T_1=70$  s and  $T_2=8$   $\mu\text{s}$  at 30 MHz. A large  $T_1/T_2$  ratio is seen in many materials of interest for the petroleum industry: heavy oil, coal, organic matter.

### Relaxation of methane

For bulk methane in the gas phase (i.e. at temperature of interest here), the longitudinal and transverse relaxation mechanisms are dominated by spin rotation [6], in contrast with intra and intermolecular interaction occurring in simple liquids (or in liquid methane).  $T_1$

and  $T_2$  are still equal and governed by equation 2, but they increase with pressure and are in the range [500-5000 ms] for methane pressure between 25 up to 200 bar. More interestingly in rock core materials [7] or for adsorbed gas in nanoporous material [8] at low temperature (100K), the  $T_1/T_2$  ratio of methane increases considerably (~10 or more). This is due to anisotropic rotational motions at the surface, with the existence of two correlation times.  $T_1$  will then be sensitive to the fast correlation time, while  $T_2$  to the slow one. In a partially saturated porous media, relaxation of methane still occurs although weaker despite water wetting the surface [7].

## MATERIALS AND NMR METHODS

### NMR methods

The experiments have been carried out on a Maran Ultra proton spectrometer from Oxford Instruments with a proton Larmor frequency of 23.7 MHz. Standard free induction decay (FID) and transverse magnetization CPMG decay curves were measured. When needed, we used a modified CPMG sequence in which the inter-echo time is initially set at the lowest possible and then increased gradually up to 100  $\mu\text{s}$  or more in order to catch at the same time very short and very long relaxation times. 2D  $T_1$ - $T_2$  maps were determined using an inversion recovery sequence followed by a CPMG sequence:

$$P_{180} - \tau_1 - P_{90} - (\tau - P_{180} - \text{echo})_n$$

where  $\tau_1$  takes usually 40 discrete values spaced logarithmically, and the number of echo  $n$  is adjusted in order to reach zero signal (noise level). Hence, we obtain a magnetization function of two times,  $\tau_1$  and  $n\tau$ , later analyzed in terms of a  $T_1$ - $T_2$  2D map computed with an in-house 2D inverse Laplace transform software.

Table 1: Main characteristics of the NMR instrument. P90 is the 90° pulse duration.

Probe diameter (mm)	Probe dead time ( $\mu\text{s}$ )	P90 ( $\mu\text{s}$ )	Filter dead time 100kHz/1MHz ( $\mu\text{s}$ )	$\tau$ spacing ( $\mu\text{s}$ )	1 <sup>st</sup> FID ( $\mu\text{s}$ )
10	5	2	15	25	21
			5	15	11
18	15	6	15	30	33

We used two NMR probes of diameter 10 and 18 mm depending on the desired information and size of samples. The capacity of detecting "solid like protons" with very short relaxation times depends critically on the probe dead time. Using a small probe diameter of 10 mm reduces significantly the dead time down to 5  $\mu\text{s}$  compared to the standard 18 mm probe (Table 1). It also reduces the 90° pulse duration to insure a larger frequency bandwidth when detecting solid protons. In addition, the filter dead time can be reduced significantly using a 1 MHz bandwidth, at the expenses however of the signal to noise ratio. Note that the smallest  $\tau$  spacing available is 15  $\mu\text{s}$  and hence, the first acquired point in the CPMG decay is at 30  $\mu\text{s}$ .

For diffusion measurements, we used a deuterium exchange technique described in detail elsewhere [9]. For water saturated samples, it allows the determination of tortuosity and the detection of non-connected porosity, if any.

The high pressure NMR cell is custom-build and entirely made of non-magnetic and non-conducting material (PEEK). Such material gives a NMR signal at around 0.08 ms and is therefore not suited for detecting this range of relaxation times, corresponding mostly to hydroxyls in clay rich rock samples. It was designed for the 18 mm probe, the maximum sample size is 8 mm in diameter and 20 mm in length (Figure 2). It can sustain up to 200 bar at 30 °C and it has been tested up to 541 bar, at which pressure it will leak (but not break). The cell is connected to a 500 cc single cylinder pump to vary the pressure from 20 up to 200 bar. With low porosity samples such as shales, dead volumes around the samples can represent 90 % of the signal. Hence, a fine sand was introduced around the sample and in the tube above to reduce these dead volumes.

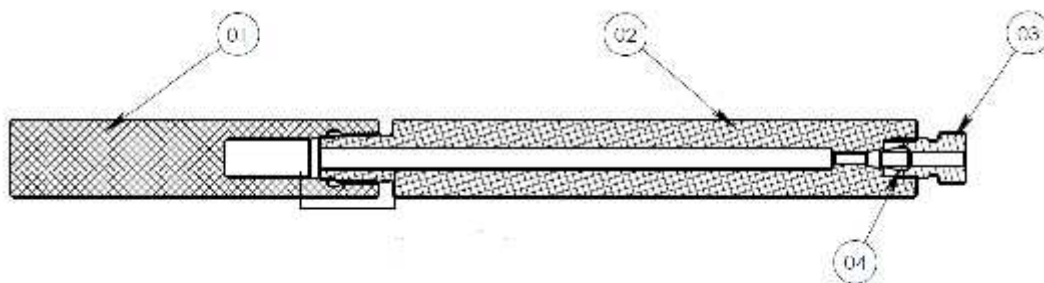


Figure 2: High pressure NMR cell (200 bar). The sample can be placed in the compartment at the left (in part 1, dia. 8mm, length 20mm).

### Samples

We used various samples from various origins in order to test the NMR responses of pseudo-dry materials and in the presence of methane. Core samples and organic matter samples extracted from core samples were used and are described in details elsewhere [10]. Three samples of different maturity were available (see figure 9 in Romero-Sarmiento et al. 2014): from a gas (Blakely) and an oil zone (Mesquite), and immature (outcrop).

The results on another shale sample (labelled RM9, Horn River) are also presented. The sample originates from a gas zone and has a total organic content of about 7%. No particular cleaning was performed. To ensure full water saturation, the sample was kept under high static pressure during several days. To dry the sample, a standard protocol was applied (oven dry at 60°C until a stable mass is reached). Since no particular care was taken to keep the sample in dry air, this is only a pseudo dry state since water vapour can adsorb in the smallest pores, in equilibrium with the ambient humidity at laboratory temperature, a well-known effect. This is further discussed below. NMR porosity is 7.1% and gas permeability is 2 nD in the dry state, using a steady state technique. For this sample, high pressure mercury injection (HPMI) performed on a nearby sample reveal

very small pore entry sizes (Figure 4). Clearly, in this case, the limit of resolution is reached and HPMI experiments are able to explore only half of the porosity compared to NMR.

Despite the very small pore size distribution, the deuterium exchange experiment reveal a very good connectivity of the pore network. The curve shown in Figure 4 represents the average concentration of water (w.r.t. deuterium) as a function of time while deuterium is diffusing inside the core and water outside. Unconnected porosity would show up as a residual signal at the end of the experiment, but this was not observed. Experimental data can be matched very well with a homogeneous diffusion model. We find an effective diffusion coefficient  $D_{eff}=0.62 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$ . Defining a tortuosity  $\tau$  as  $D_m/D_{eff}$  (the diffusion coefficient of free water  $D_m=2.60 \cdot 10^{-5} \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$  at  $30^\circ\text{C}$ ), we obtain  $\tau=41.8$ . The diffusion coefficients can also be compared to a standard Archie relationship according to:

$$\frac{D_{eff}}{D_m} = \Phi^{m-1} \quad (3)$$

where  $m$  is the Archie's cementation exponent. We obtain  $m=2.45$ .

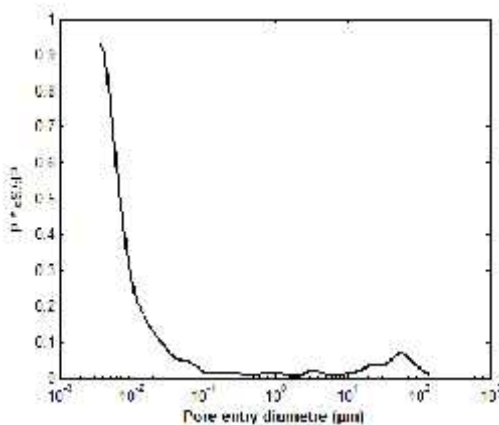


Figure 3: Pore entry size distribution from mercury injection experiments representing reservoir sample RM9. The limit of resolution is reached.

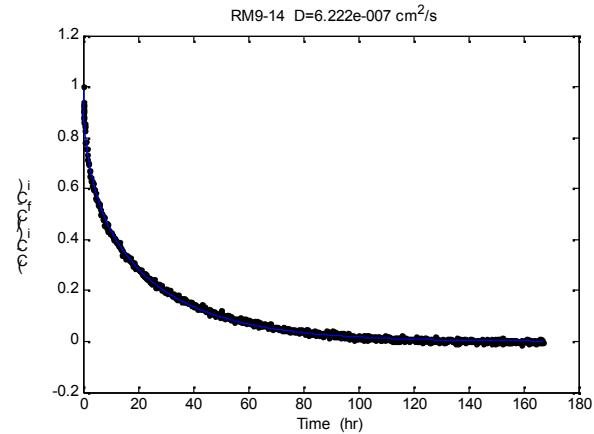


Figure 4: Deuterium diffusion experiment for reservoir sample RM9 ( $d=15\text{mm}$ ,  $L=15 \text{ mm}$ ) performed at  $30^\circ\text{C}$ . Data (dots) and fit (line).

## RESULTS

The instrument used for this study is able to detect all protons present in the samples. For pseudo-dry samples (i.e. samples at equilibrium with the ambient humidity), we are able to detect hydroxyls part of the clay structure and protons from the organic matter. For water or methane saturated samples, the signal will be dominated by water or methane signals and it may be difficult to detect at the same time weak signal originating from

organic matter. Hence, in order to evidence the signature of each element, we studied separately the samples in dry or saturated conditions: dry organic matter (OM) alone, dry samples with the same organic matter, organic matter saturated with methane, dry shale sample, water and methane saturated shale sample.

### Organic matter

The signal from dry organic matter extracted from core samples is shown in Figure 5.  $T_2$  values are around 0.1 ms and below in the gas window. When the organic matter is immature, the  $T_1/T_2$  tends to be smaller ( $\sim 50$ ) than in the oil and gas windows ( $180 < T_1/T_2 < 250$ ). This observation is consistent with the fact that the mobility of protons is expected to be larger for immature organic matter. From FID data and in a similar way as for smectites [1], we can also estimate the total amount of hydrogen present in the samples: from immature, oil and gas OM, we obtain respectively 59 mg/g, 30 mg/g and 21 mg/g of hydrogen per gram of dry material. This is in agreement with the general trend that hydrogen content decreases with maturity. However, no detailed relationship with hydrogen content from standard Rock-Eval analysis could be established.

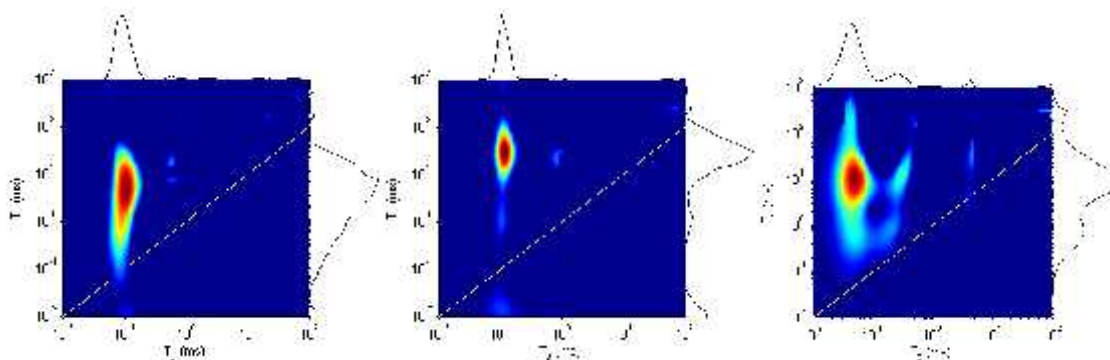


Figure 5:  $T_1$ - $T_2$  maps on three types of organic matter extracted from shale samples. For left to right: immature ( $T_1/T_2 \sim 50$ ), oil ( $T_1/T_2 \sim 250$ ) and gas ( $T_1/T_2 \sim 180$ ) window.

Analyzing now the core samples from which the organic matter was extracted (only two of them were available, Figure 6), we first observe a large signal in the range  $0.01 < T_2 < 0.1$  ms, at the limit of  $T_2$  resolution. It is also spread over a wide  $T_1$  range (and easily resolved) and this is typical of hydroxyls from the clay structure. In the oil window, organic matter appears as a secondary peak located at  $T_2 \sim 0.5$  ms and  $T_1 \sim 100$  ms, in relative agreement with its location when extracted from the samples ( $T_2 \sim 0.1$  ms and  $T_1 \sim 50$  ms). In the gas window, the OM signal cannot be identified because it overlaps with the hydroxyl signal.

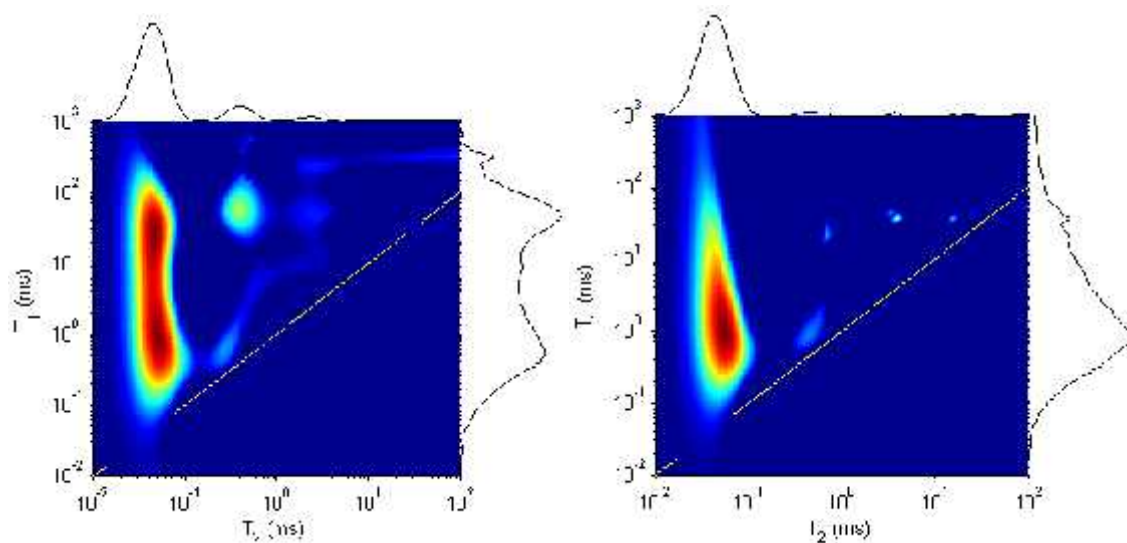


Figure 6:  $T_1$ - $T_2$  maps on two dry shale samples from which organic matter was extracted. Left: oil window; right: gas window. In the gas window, organic matter cannot be distinguished.

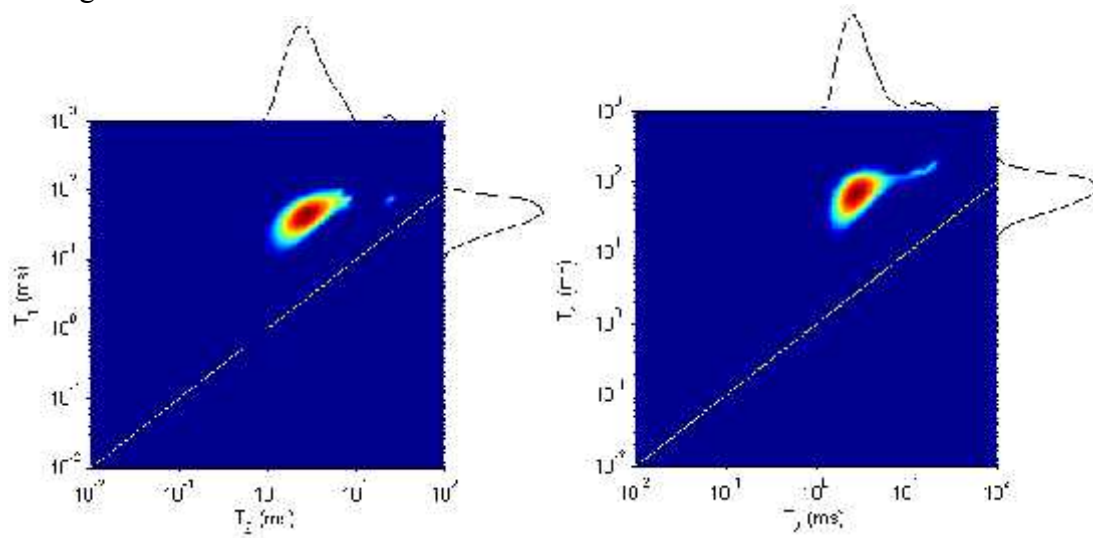


Figure 7: Methane saturated organic matter in the gas window. Left: 100 bar ( $T_1/T_2 \sim 15$ ); right: 200 bar ( $T_1/T_2 \sim 20$ ).

Finally, we also identified the signal of methane saturated organic matter (Figure 7). Because organic matter is a powder and no more compacted in the sample, the signature identified here includes inter and intra-granular porosity. Contrary to water saturated situations, the diffusivity of methane is such that there is an exchange between inter and intra granular pores and therefore, the two porosity compartments cannot be distinguished. The relaxation time  $T_2$  should then be interpreted as proportional to the total volume divided by the total surface; the surface is driven by the internal surface



inside the grains but the volume is driven by the inter-granular porosity. Hence, we expect that the true signature of methane in organic matter in the sample be shifted to lower  $T_2$  values due to smaller volumes in the absence of inter-granular porosity. The  $T_1/T_2$  ratio (between 15 and 20 depending on pressure) is typical of gas interactions with a solid, as will be seen also later.

### Shale samples

The RM9 shale sample was also analyzed at different saturation states: dry, water and methane saturated. For the dry sample, the  $T_1$ - $T_2$  map is dominated by the hydroxyl signal with  $T_2$  less than 0.1 ms (Figure 8) and a wide range of  $T_1$  values. Between 0.1 and 1ms, there is some residual water, mainly distinguishable in the  $T_2$  distribution. When saturated with water, we can clearly distinguish the water signal with  $T_1/T_2 \sim 2$ . To calculate porosity, we took only this signal into account. The water  $T_2$  distribution has essentially two modes, due to an heterogeneity clearly visible in micro-tomography images (not shown, a thin layer of with a high organic matter content in the longitudinal direction). For the methane saturated case (Figure 9), the situation is very different and we have a large contrast between  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ , as already expected and observed in organic matter. For this experiment, the large peak ( $T_2 \sim 60$  ms and  $T_1 \sim 1000$  ms) represents methane in the sand around the sample, and the small peak ( $T_2 \sim 10$  ms and  $T_1 \sim 1000$  ms) methane in the shale sample. Indeed, even though the shale total volume is dominant, its small porosity (7%) is such that the pore volume in the sand around and at the top of the sample is dominant.

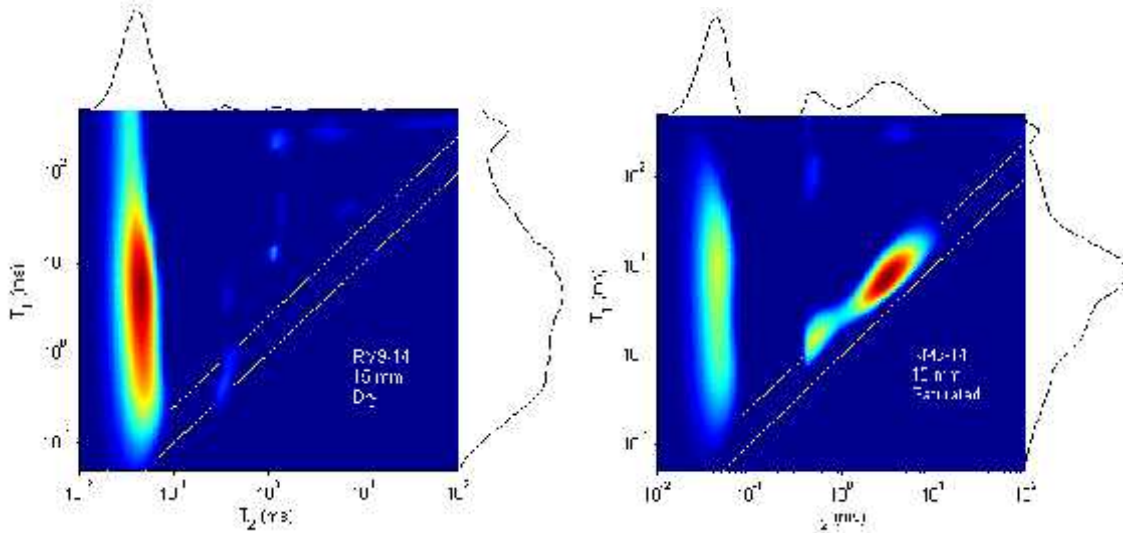


Figure 8:  $T_1$ - $T_2$  maps on 15 mm diameter miniplugs in the dry and water saturated state. The short  $T_2$  signal with a large range of  $T_1$  represents hydroxyls and organic matter. The two lines indicate  $T_1/T_2=1$  and  $T_1/T_2=2$ .

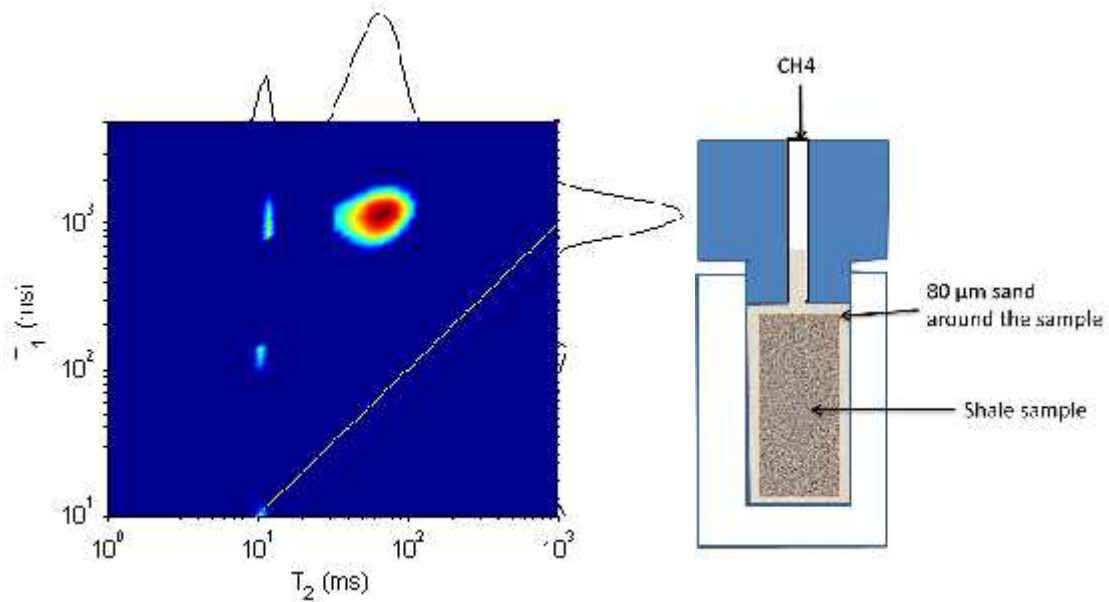


Figure 9:  $T_1$ - $T_2$  maps for methane at 200 bar for sample RM9 (small peak at  $T_2=10$  ms and  $T_1=1000$  ms). The large peak corresponds to the 80  $\mu$ m quartz sand around the sample.

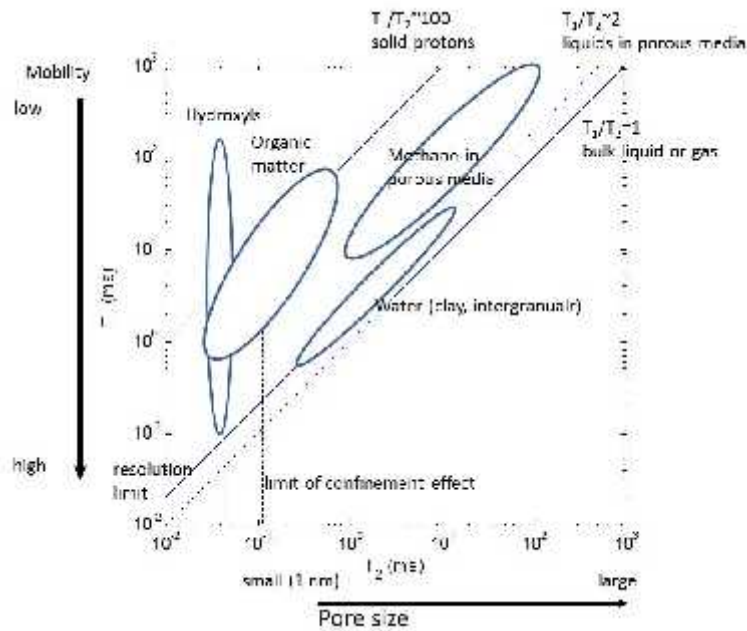


Figure 10: Fluid or proton typing using  $T_1$ - $T_2$  maps

**Synthesis :  $T_1$ - $T_2$  fluid mapping**

For shale samples, we see that the  $T_1$ - $T_2$  map is a very efficient way to separate the contributions from the different compartments containing hydrogen molecules. The sketch in Figure 10 summarizes the results obtained in this study. The  $T_2$  axis represents a pore size after scaling with the surface relaxivity. For a given sample, the distribution of relaxation times may not represent a distribution of pore sizes due to diffusive exchange already mentioned; but if two samples have a different average pore size, the average relaxation time  $T_2$  for these two samples will be different. We have two limits on the  $T_2$  axis: (i) the lowest value that can be reached when water interacts with the surface (relaxation time  $T_{2S}$  of water molecules that would be permanently at the solid surface) and (ii) the resolution limit linked to the instrument used; it can be evaluated by taking the inter-echo time; for example in our case and depending on the probe 0.06 ms. The  $T_1$  axis represents roughly the proton rotational mobility: for large  $T_1/T_2$  ratio, the mobility is small; for solid protons, it also corresponds to reduced molecular mobility.

The different protons in the  $T_1$ - $T_2$  map can be associated with the following origins:

- Hydroxyls: OH part of the clay structure or at the edges of clay platelets; this signal is always at the limit of resolution, below 0.1 ms. It can only be detected with appropriate NMR instruments,
- Protons part of the organic matter: depending on the maturity, they can overlap with hydroxyls. They can be best detected in dry samples since their hydrogen index is quite low compared to water,
- Water: this signal is typically located on or close to the line  $T_1/T_2 \sim 2$  even for very small pore sizes such as interlayer space in clays,
- Methane: when considering  $T_2$  only, this signal can overlap with the water signal, as noted by other authors [11]. However when considering  $T_1$ , it can easily be separated because  $T_1/T_2 \sim 10$ . Such ratio is consistent with other measurements [7] and depends slightly on pressure. Adsorbed methane has no specific signature because it is in fast exchange with free methane.

We did not consider yet the signature of oil. With light oil, we expect a ratio close to 2. For heavy oil or bitumen, it may increase largely [3].

**CONCLUSION**

We evidenced the signature of the 4 proton populations present in shale samples in a  $T_1$ - $T_2$  map: hydroxyls from the clay structure, protons from the organic matter, water and methane at various pressures. These signatures have been determined on organic matter alone, and shale samples at different saturation states. In a  $T_1$ - $T_2$  map, these signatures do not overlap, except for organic matter with high maturity. The position of these signatures is qualitatively well understood from NMR relaxation theory as well as existing work on methane in porous media.

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