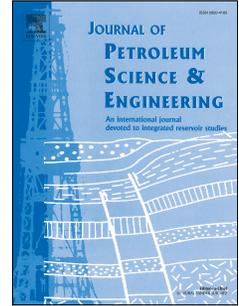


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Ultrasonic wave attenuation dependence on saturation in tight oil siltstones

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2 **Ultrasonic wave attenuation dependence on saturation in** 3 **tight oil siltstones**

4

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9 **Abstract**

10 Ultrasonic P-wave attenuation was measured in tight oil siltstones, carbonates
11 and a tight sandstone with two independent estimation methods. The dependence on
12 saturation in gas-water partially-saturated siltstones at in-situ conditions shows a
13 different behavior compared to the other rocks. The siltstones in our experiments
14 exhibit a behavior characterized by a gradual decrease of attenuation with increasing
15 water saturation in the presence of gas, and full-gas saturation shows more attenuation
16 than full-oil and full-water saturations. However, previous theoretical and
17 experimental studies show that gas-water saturated carbonates and sandstones have
18 the highest attenuation at high water saturations, and generally, a liquid-saturated rock
19 shows more attenuation than a gas-saturated one. Poroelasticity theory shows that the
20 two dominant loss mechanisms (due to fabric heterogeneity and patchy saturation)
21 have peaks at different frequencies for siltstones, resulting in a gradual decrease of
22 attenuation with water saturation, while these mechanisms overlap at ultrasonic

23 frequencies for carbonates and sandstones, leading to an attenuation peak at high
24 water saturations. The predicted attenuation dependence on fluid type agrees with the
25 measurement for most samples. Regarding the tight oil siltstones, although the model
26 fails to explain the experimental results for oil-water saturation, it can be concluded
27 that for gas-water saturation the squirt flow caused by fabric heterogeneity dominates
28 the attenuation, which differs from carbonates and sandstones. Experimental studies
29 show that the attenuation dependence on saturation in tight oil reservoirs can be
30 associated with fabric texture. The theory describes these behaviors, which can
31 potentially improve the practices of detecting and monitoring multi-phase fluids in the
32 reservoirs.

33 **Key words:** Elasticity and anelasticity; Microstructure; Permeability and porosity;
34 Acoustic properties; Seismic attenuation; Wave propagation.

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36

37 **Introduction**

38 Studies on the effects of minerals, fabric and pore fluid on acoustic wave
39 attenuation in rocks play an important role in fundamental and applied geophysics,
40 since they provide the basic constraints on supporting the quantitative interpretation of
41 subsurface rock properties. For each rock lithology or texture, the attenuation
42 dependence on fluid properties and saturation remains unclear so far.

43 A number of works (e.g., Nur and Wang, 2001; King, 2005) dealt with the
44 acoustic wave attenuation characteristics in sandstones and carbonates (although wave
45 velocity was always the main issue), with sandstones the most investigated since the
46 1970s (White, 1975; Winkler and Nur, 1979; Johnston and Toksöz, 1980; Dvorkin and
47 Nur, 1996; Best and Sams, 1997; Tao *et al.*, 1995; Chapman *et al.*, 2016). Carbonates
48 have attracted increasing attention during the last two decades (Cadoret *et al.*, 1998;
49 Agersborg *et al.*, 2008; Adam *et al.*, 2009; Borgomano *et al.*, 2017). On the other hand,
50 there are only few works on tight oil siltstones, which are mainly composed of fine
51 grains of quartz, feldspar and clay. Siltstones have a higher porosity than mud/shale,
52 but have a much lower permeability than sandstone of the same porosity. As an
53 unconventional petroleum resource, there is no consistent strict definition of tight oil.
54 Generally speaking, tight oil refers to the accumulation of oil in a tight rock, whose
55 permeability can be less than 0.1 mD. Reservoir lithology mainly includes tight
56 sandstones, tight siltstones and carbonate rocks with mud. Compared with
57 conventional reservoir rocks, the pore throat diameter is smaller, pore permeability is
58 lower, and mud content is higher (Jia *et al.*, 2012; Zou *et al.*, 2013; Wu *et al.*, 2018).

59 This type of rocks have a great potential as a hydrocarbon source rock, which is of
60 interest to exploration geophysics and geological studies (Clarkson *et al.*, 2012; Cao
61 *et al.*, 2017). To our knowledge, the attenuation dependence on fluid saturation in
62 tight oil siltstones has never been investigated.

63 Experimental studies on water and gas partially-saturated sandstones and
64 carbonates have shown that compressional (or extensional) wave attenuation generally
65 increases with water saturation and has a peak at high water saturations (Murphy,
66 1982; Yin *et al.*, 1992; Cadoret *et al.*, 1998; Amalokwu *et al.*, 2014). In most
67 measurements, the attenuation at full liquid saturation is higher than that at full gas
68 saturation (Toksöz *et al.*, 1979; Winkler and Nur, 1982; Adam *et al.*, 2009;
69 Kuteynikova *et al.*, 2014). Different theoretical approaches involving patchy
70 saturation of water and gas (e.g., Norris, 1993; Helle *et al.*, 2003; Müller and
71 Gurevich, 2004; Sun *et al.*, 2014) suggest a similar relationship. However, our
72 measurements on siltstones at in-situ conditions show dependencies distinct from
73 those in coarse-grained rocks (e.g., P-wave attenuation decreases with increasing
74 water saturation), reflecting a different state of wave relaxation.

75 Siltstones with fine grains and clay have low permeability and are heterogeneous
76 at a submicroscopic scale, leading to different relaxation frequencies compared to
77 sandstones and carbonates. Two distinct squirt-flow mechanisms (crack- and clay-type)
78 were considered by Best (1997) to distinguish clean sandstones/limestones from
79 siltstones with amounts of compliant minerals. The former is the main loss
80 mechanism in sandstones, while the clay-type squirt flow dominates in siltstones.

81 Furthermore, the low permeability in silt/mud-rocks hinders the migration of light gas
82 in geologic times, and the occurrence of mesoscopic patches, so as to cause grain-size
83 gas pockets at the pore scale, as was recently discussed by Glubokovskikh and
84 Gurevich (2017).

85 In this work, we estimate P-wave attenuation in partially-saturated siltstones,
86 sandstones and carbonates, at the ultrasonic frequency band (around 1 MHz). The
87 attenuation dependency on saturation in siltstones is compared with that of the
88 coarse-grained carbonates/sandstones, and with published experimental and
89 theoretical studies. The results are interpreted with the poroelasticity theory by
90 incorporating fabric and fluid heterogeneities simultaneously.

91 **Experimental results**

92 **Rock samples and experiment procedure**

93 During the last five years, we have performed systematic ultrasonic P- and
94 S-wave measurements on three sets of rock samples, which are listed in Table 1 as set
95 1 labelled A-L (Ba *et al.*, 2016) (siltstones), set 2 labelled DT1-5 and DS1-3 (Ba *et al.*,
96 2017) (DT and DS refer to two different types of dolomites), and set 3 labelled DS 4-8
97 and TSM2 (a tight sandstone), including twelve siltstone samples (25.2 mm in
98 diameter, 50-56 mm long cylinders; collected from tight-oil reservoirs of the
99 Qingshankou Formation, Northeast China), thirteen carbonates (25.2 mm in diameter,
100 30-42 mm long cylinders; collected from reservoirs of the Ordovician and Cambrian
101 Formations, West China), and one sandstone (25.2 mm in diameter, 42.4 mm long
102 cylinder; collected from a gas reservoir in South China Sea). The samples of set 1 are

103 tested at in-situ conditions, i.e., a confining pressure of 50 MPa, a pore pressure of 25
104 MPa and a temperature of 80°C. For sets 2 and 3, the experiments are performed at a
105 confining pressure of 80 MPa, a pore pressure of 10 MPa and 20°C (in-situ confining
106 pressure, pore pressure and temperature are 80 MPa, 40 MPa and 140°C, respectively;
107 a pore pressure of 10 MPa and 20°C are set in the experiments for safety reasons).

108 The siltstone samples, composed of fine grains (quartz/feldspar) and clay, have
109 low porosity and very low permeability. The scale of the fabric heterogeneity (i.e.
110 intrapore clay in host rock) is smaller than the pore size (Fig. 1a). In the carbonates
111 (with dissolved pores) and tight sandstone, grain contacts (or microcracks) can be
112 observed (Fig. 1b and 1c). The carbonates and sandstone have coarser grains and
113 higher permeability than the siltstones (see Table 1).

114 The experimental set-up of Guo *et al.* (2009) is used for the ultrasonic-wave
115 measurements. The procedure of Ba *et al.* (2016) is adopted to measure the ultrasonic
116 waveforms at partial-saturation conditions for samples H-L, DT1-5 and DS1-8
117 (gas-water and oil-water tests), and TSM2 (gas-water tests). Nitrogen (gas) and
118 kerosene (oil) are used for all the measurements. In the experiments with gas and
119 water saturation, the full water-saturated sample is dried in an oven to vary the
120 saturation. The water saturation is calculated by weighing the sample and comparing
121 the weight with those at full saturations. Then the sample is jacketed and subject to a
122 confining pressure, and gas is injected into the sample up to a given pore pressure.
123 Waveforms are recorded at 80°C for set 1 and 20°C for sets 2-3. In the oil-water case,
124 the sample is first fully saturated with oil and then dried in the oven to vary the

125 saturation. Water is injected into the sample up to a given pore pressure.

126 Waveforms are acquired for sets 1-3 and for aluminum standards (with the same
127 sizes and shapes of the samples) for sets 1 and 3. Waveforms are recorded and
128 velocities are obtained by picking the first arrivals.

129 **Attenuation estimation**

130 We independently applied the spectral-ratio and centroid frequency-shift methods
131 on the same set of compressional waveforms acquired from rocks and reference
132 standards to obtain the quality factors (Q). Therefore, the attenuation dependence on
133 the rock/fluid properties can be verified and established through a comparative
134 analysis between the two Q sets.

135 The quality factor Q can be determined by the spectral-ratio method (Picotti and
136 Carcione, 2006) using a reference standard material with a very high quality factor
137 (Toksöz *et al.*, 1979; Guo and Fu, 2006) from

$$138 \quad \ln\left(\frac{A_1(f)}{A_2(f)}\right) = -\frac{\pi x}{QV} f + \ln\frac{G_1(x)}{G_2(x)}, \quad (1)$$

139 where f is frequency, $A_1(f)$ and $A_2(f)$ are the amplitude spectra of the rock sample
140 and standard material, respectively, Q is the quality factor of the rock sample, x is
141 wave propagation distance, V is the wave velocity and $G_1(x) / G_2(x)$ is the
142 sample/standard geometrical factor.

143 For set 2, the waveforms were not obtained using the standard material. The
144 attenuation dependence on saturation for each sample is estimated by using the
145 measurement at full gas saturation as a reference,

$$146 \quad \ln\left(\frac{A_1(f)}{A_2(f)}\right) = -\frac{\pi x}{Q_r V} f + \ln\frac{G_1(x)}{G_2(x)} = \left(\frac{\pi x}{Q_{\text{gas}} V_{\text{gas}}} - \frac{\pi x}{QV}\right) f + \ln\frac{G_1(x)}{G_2(x)}, \quad (2)$$

147 where $Q_r = (Q^{-1} - Q_{\text{gas}}^{-1} V / V_{\text{gas}})^{-1}$ is the relative quality factor, and Q_{gas} and V_{gas} are
 148 the quality factor and P-wave velocity at full gas saturation, respectively. A negative
 149 Q_r indicates that less attenuation is observed for the considered state than that at full
 150 gas saturation.

151 The centroid frequency-shift method assumes that the amplitude spectrum is
 152 subject to a Gaussian distribution (Quan and Harris, 1997; Matsushima *et al.*, 2016),
 153 and

$$154 \quad Q = \frac{\pi \sigma^2 \Delta t}{\Delta f_c}, \quad (3)$$

155 where Δf_c is the difference of centroid frequency between the sample and the
 156 reference standard, Δt is the travel-time difference and σ^2 is the spectral variance
 157 of the standard.

158 The compressional waveforms in the siltstone, carbonate, and sandstone samples
 159 at different saturations are shown in Figure 1d, 1e and 1f, respectively. It is observed
 160 in the siltstone that energy loss increases with increasing gas saturation, and
 161 attenuation at full gas-saturation is more significant than that at full liquid saturation,
 162 a behavior that differs from the carbonate and sandstone. Four periods of oscillations
 163 after the first arrival are used in the spectral-ratio analysis. Figure 1g shows the
 164 spectra with the centroid frequencies and Figure 1h shows the spectral-ratio
 165 experimental points and least-squares fittings.

166 **Attenuation in siltstones, carbonates and sandstone**

167 For samples L, DS8 and TSM2 at gas-water partial saturation, the measured
168 P-wave attenuation Q^{-1} dependences on saturation (Q^{-1} DS) corresponding to the
169 two methods are given in Figure 2a. The errors of Q^{-1} by the spectral-ratio method are
170 calculated according to Zhubayev *et al.* (2016), which are given in Figure 2a.
171 According to Johnston and Toksöz (1980), the strict interpretation of the errors by
172 fitting a straight line to the spectral ratios only determines the modulation character of
173 the ratios and not the accuracy of the method, which can only be based on
174 reproducibility and comparison with other methods. Both the methods provide similar
175 results, verifying the reliability of the Q estimation. The siltstones generally show a
176 gradual decrease of attenuation with increasing water saturation, which we define as
177 type-A behavior of Q^{-1} DS. On the other hand, in the Q^{-1} DS of the carbonates and
178 sandstone saturated with gas and water, attenuation increases with water saturation
179 and has a peak in the range [51-100] % (we define it as a type-B behavior; e.g. DS8
180 has a Q^{-1} peak at 79% water saturation in Figure 2a). The Q^{-1} DS and peak- Q^{-1}
181 water saturation of each sample are given in Table 1. In the oil-water tests, no clear
182 trend can be observed for the siltstones (see Table 1).

183 The relation between the measured P-wave attenuation and porosity at the three
184 full-saturation states are given in Figures 2b (Q^{-1} for the siltstones and sandstone) and
185 2c (Q_r^{-1} for the carbonates). In most siltstones, higher attenuation can be observed at
186 full gas saturation compared to full oil or full water saturation. Sample D (a silty
187 mudstone) shows significantly less Q^{-1} at full oil saturation than that at full water
188 saturation, a behavior that differs from that of the other siltstones. Figure 2c shows

189 that Q^{-1} at full water saturation is higher than that at full gas saturation (i.e., Q_r^{-1} at
190 full water saturation is positive) for most of the carbonates except for DS2 and DS7,
191 while the relation between Q^{-1} at full oil saturation and that at full water saturation
192 shows no trend. The attenuation dependence on fluid type for each sample is given in
193 Table 1.

194 **Attenuation versus saturation: Experiments and theory**

195 **Attenuation dependencies on fluid properties**

196 Most of the published experimental measurements show that attenuation at full
197 liquid saturation (oil, water or brine) is higher than that at full gas saturation or at
198 "dry" (air-saturated) conditions. Moreover, full water saturation shows less attenuation
199 than full oil saturation (e.g., the selected data in Figure 3a). The opposite behavior is
200 shown by Amalokwu *et al.* (2014) for a synthetic sandstone, where attenuation at full
201 gas saturation is higher than that at full water saturation. Aqueous sodium silicate gel
202 was used by Amalokwu *et al.* (2014) to make the silica-cemented synthetic sandstone,
203 which may lead to the intrinsic viscoelasticity of the matrix and cause the high
204 attenuation at full gas saturation. The observed attenuation at full gas saturation in
205 siltstones is higher than that at full liquid saturations (e.g. sample J in Figure 3a).

206 Figure 3b compares the observed Q^{-1} DSs in K and DS4 with those reported in
207 the literature for different lithologies and frequencies (ultrasonic: Amalokwu *et al.*
208 (2014), 0.65 MHz, Qi *et al.* (2014), 0.5 MHz; seismic: Murphy *et al.* (1982), 571-647
209 Hz, Yin *et al.* (1992), 700 Hz), while Figure 3c compares those of samples K and DT5
210 with the trend of typical theoretical models. The published measurements show a

211 type-B behavior with an attenuation peak at high water saturations, which differs with
212 the type-A behavior of the siltstones in the present study. The theoretical or numerical
213 models of patchy-saturation also describe a type-B behavior, and because the fabric
214 heterogeneity is not considered in these models, no attenuation is present at full
215 saturations.

216 **Poroelasticity modeling of attenuation**

217 A double-porosity structure consisting of a host-rock and inclusion frames has
218 been applied by Ba *et al.* (2017) to model the clay squirt-flow mechanism (Marketos
219 and Best, 2010) in siltstones and the crack squirt flow in carbonates. Both the
220 mechanisms are associated with fabric heterogeneity, where the two pore phases (stiff
221 and soft) correspond to the intergranular pores of the host frame and micropores of the
222 clay aggregates, or the intergranular pores and cracks. When compressional wave
223 squeezes a double-porosity rock, fluid flows from soft pores to stiff pores due to the
224 difference of pore compressibility, resulting in wave relaxation.

225 For a rock partially saturated with gas and water, clay micropores or grain
226 contacts tend to be fully water-saturated due to the water-wettability of minerals and
227 the effect of capillary forces (Li *et al.*, 2001). Therefore, clay and grain
228 contacts/cracks are fully water-saturated, while water is the host fluid and gas is the
229 patch fluid in the intergranular pores. The wave dissipation corresponding to the
230 coupling effects of fabric heterogeneity and patchy saturation can be described with
231 the following equations (Ba *et al.*, 2017):

$$\begin{aligned}
& N\nabla^2 \mathbf{u} + (A + N)\nabla e + Q_1\nabla(\xi^{(1)} + \phi_2\zeta_{12} + \phi_3\zeta_{13}) + Q_2\nabla(\xi^{(2)} - \phi_1\zeta_{12}) \\
232 \quad & + Q_3\nabla(\xi^{(3)} - \phi_1\zeta_{13}) = \rho_{00}\ddot{\mathbf{u}} + \rho_{01}\ddot{\mathbf{U}}^{(1)} + \rho_{02}\ddot{\mathbf{U}}^{(2)} + \rho_{03}\ddot{\mathbf{U}}^{(3)} \quad , \quad (4a) \\
& + b_1(\dot{\mathbf{u}} - \dot{\mathbf{U}}^{(1)}) + b_2(\dot{\mathbf{u}} - \dot{\mathbf{U}}^{(2)}) + b_3(\dot{\mathbf{u}} - \dot{\mathbf{U}}^{(3)})
\end{aligned}$$

$$233 \quad Q_1\nabla e + R_1\nabla(\xi^{(1)} + \phi_2\zeta_{12} + \phi_3\zeta_{13}) = \rho_{01}\ddot{\mathbf{u}} + \rho_{11}\ddot{\mathbf{U}}^{(1)} - b_1(\dot{\mathbf{u}} - \dot{\mathbf{U}}^{(1)}), \quad (4b)$$

$$234 \quad Q_2\nabla e + R_2\nabla(\xi^{(2)} - \phi_1\zeta_{12}) = \rho_{02}\ddot{\mathbf{u}} + \rho_{22}\ddot{\mathbf{U}}^{(2)} - b_2(\dot{\mathbf{u}} - \dot{\mathbf{U}}^{(2)}), \quad (4c)$$

$$235 \quad Q_3\nabla e + R_3\nabla(\xi^{(3)} - \phi_1\zeta_{13}) = \rho_{03}\ddot{\mathbf{u}} + \rho_{33}\ddot{\mathbf{U}}^{(3)} - b_3(\dot{\mathbf{u}} - \dot{\mathbf{U}}^{(3)}), \quad (4d)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& \phi_2(Q_1e + R_1(\xi^{(1)} + \phi_2\zeta_{12} + \phi_3\zeta_{13})) - \phi_1(Q_2e + R_2(\xi^{(2)} - \phi_1\zeta_{12})) \\
236 \quad & = \frac{1}{3}\rho_f^{(1)}\ddot{\zeta}_{12}R_{12}^2\frac{\phi_1^2\phi_2^2\phi_{20}}{\phi_{10}\phi_2} + \frac{1}{3}\dot{\zeta}_{12}R_{12}^2\frac{\eta_f^{(1)}\phi_1^2\phi_2^2\phi_{20}}{\kappa_1\phi_2} \quad , \quad (4e)
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& \phi_3(Q_1e + R_1(\xi^{(1)} + \phi_2\zeta_{12} + \phi_3\zeta_{13})) - \phi_1(Q_3e + R_3(\xi^{(3)} - \phi_1\zeta_{13})) \\
237 \quad & = \frac{1}{3}\rho_f^{(1)}\ddot{\zeta}_{13}R_{13}^2\phi_1^2\phi_3 + \frac{1}{3}\dot{\zeta}_{13}R_{13}^2\frac{\eta_f^{(1)}\phi_1^2\phi_3\phi_{10}}{\kappa_1} \quad , \quad (4f)
\end{aligned}$$

238 where \mathbf{u} , $\mathbf{U}^{(1)}$, $\mathbf{U}^{(2)}$ and $\mathbf{U}^{(3)}$ are the particle displacements of the rock frame,
239 water in intergranular stiff pores, gas in intergranular stiff pores, and water in soft
240 pores (clay micropores in siltstone, and cracks in carbonate/sandstone), respectively,
241 and e , $\xi^{(1)}$, $\xi^{(2)}$, and $\xi^{(3)}$ are the corresponding displacement divergence fields.
242 The scalar ζ_{12} represents the variation of fluid content in squirt flow between stiff
243 pores and soft pores. The scalar ζ_{13} represents the variation of fluid content in fluid
244 flow between water-saturated stiff pores and gas-saturated stiff pores. ϕ_{10} is the
245 absolute porosity of the stiff pores. ϕ_{20} is the absolute porosity of the soft pores. ϕ_1 ,
246 ϕ_2 and ϕ_3 are the relative porosities ($\phi = \phi_1 + \phi_2 + \phi_3$ is the rock porosity).
247 $\phi_2 = v_{\text{clay}}\phi\phi_{20}$ for siltstone (v_{clay} is clay content), and $\phi_2 = p(1-\phi)\phi_{20}$ for
248 carbonate/sandstone (p is the volume ratio of cracked grains to all grains).
249 $\phi_3 = \phi(1 - S_w)$ (S_w is water saturation). κ_1 is the permeability of the host rock frame.
250 $\eta_f^{(1)}$ and $\rho_f^{(1)}$ are the viscosity and density of the host fluid (water), respectively.

251 R_{12} is the radius of clay aggregates in siltstones and the radius of compliant cracks in
 252 carbonates or sandstone. The gas pocket radius is R_{13} . The stiffnesses A , N , Q_1 ,
 253 Q_2 , Q_3 , R_1 , R_2 , R_3 , the density coefficients ρ_{00} , ρ_{01} , ρ_{02} , ρ_{03} , ρ_{11} , ρ_{22} ,
 254 ρ_{33} , and the Biot's dissipation coefficients b_1 , b_2 , b_3 can be determined in terms of
 255 the rock physical properties (Ba *et al.*, 2011, 2017).

256 By substituting a plane P-wave kernel into equation (4), the Christoffel equation
 257 is derived. Its solutions yield the phase velocity and quality factor (Carcione, 2014).

$$258 \quad V_p = \frac{2\pi f}{\text{Re}(k)}, \quad Q = \frac{\text{Re}(k)}{2\text{Im}(k)}. \quad (5)$$

259 where f is the frequency and k is the complex wave number.

260 Figure 4a shows Q^{-1} as a function of the logarithm of f / κ_1 , compared with
 261 the experimental data, for the gas-water saturated samples K and DS4. Porosity,
 262 permeability and dry-rock density are given in Table 1 and the fluid properties are
 263 obtained from Batzle and Wang (1992). For siltstones, the experimental
 264 compressional wave velocity V_p and Q^{-1} at full gas saturation and full water
 265 saturation are used to determine the dry-rock moduli, clay size (R_{12}) and clay bulk
 266 modulus. For carbonates and sandstone, the V_p and Q^{-1} (Q_r^{-1} for set 2) at full
 267 water saturation are used. $\phi_{20}=0.02$ or 0.09 for the clay or cracks, and v_{clay} is
 268 determined from measurements. By adjusting the gas pocket size (R_{13}), the
 269 attenuation at partial saturation is modeled. As shown in Figure 4a, the theoretical
 270 Q^{-1} agrees well with the experimental data. At ultrasonic frequencies, the full-gas
 271 saturated siltstone presents strong dissipation due to the fabric-heterogeneity effect.
 272 The two relaxation peaks of fabric heterogeneity and patchy-saturation are separated,

273 with the former dominating in the ultrasonic band, leading to a type-A Q^{-1} DS in
274 siltstones. On the other hand, in the partially-saturated carbonate, the two mechanisms
275 overlap at ultrasonic frequencies, causing a higher attenuation than that at full
276 saturations. The difference in fabric structure between the lithologies results in
277 different behaviors. The mechanism of Biot global flow is incorporated in Equation (4)
278 (Ba *et al.*, 2017), together with the dissipation due to fluid-solid friction along the
279 wave propagation direction, causing the weak Biot peak in the full-gas-saturation
280 curve of DS4 (Fig. 4a). Nitrogen at 10 MPa and 20% is light in DS4 and the predicted
281 attenuation due to crack squirt flow is negligible.

282 Figure 4b compares the modeling results with the experiments for the gas-water
283 saturation cases, for type-A (siltstones) and type-B (carbonates and sandstones). The
284 average Q^{-1} DS is given for each type. The modeling results are generally in
285 agreement with the measurements. As shown in Table 1, the measured Q^{-1} DS can be
286 explained by the poroelasticity theory except for samples DS2 and DS8, where more
287 complex structures may exist.

288 Figure 4c shows theoretical results in agreement with the experimental
289 attenuation dependence on fluid type for all the modeled rocks (the average is given
290 for each lithology), and in general, Q^{-1} at full gas saturation is higher than that at
291 full water saturation for the siltstones, while it is lower than that at full water
292 saturation for the carbonates and sandstone. The model underestimates the carbonate
293 Q^{-1} at full gas saturation (also shown in Figure 4a), suggesting that the crack model
294 is not enough to describe the anelasticity of some carbonates (pore-related clay and

295 bitumen can be observed in the thin section associated with samples DS1-3, DS5-8).
296 Best and Sams (1997) considered the presence of two distinct squirt flow mechanisms
297 (crack- and clay-related) in sandstones and carbonates. We consider only the crack
298 squirt flow in the carbonates and sandstone of this study. The model describes well the
299 observed attenuation in clean dolomites (we assume that the cracks are not completely
300 closed at the tested pressure). However, the theory underestimates Q^{-1} at full gas
301 saturation in set 3 (e.g. see the prediction of DS4 in Figure 4a), which may contain
302 compliant minerals. To incorporate the two squirt-flow mechanisms and
303 patchy-saturation into the same poroelasticity framework will require an extension of
304 the theory.

305 In this work, the siltstones are measured at a pore pressure of 25 MPa and at
306 80 °C, while carbonates and sandstone at 10 MPa and 20 °C. The difference in fluid
307 properties between the two conditions may affect the attenuation. The red triangles in
308 Figure 4b and 4c give the predictions of the siltstones by substituting the fluid
309 properties at 10 MPa and 20 °C in clay squirt-flow modeling. It is shown that with a
310 lighter gas and a more viscous water/oil at 10 MPa and 20 °C, the ultrasonic P-wave
311 attenuation decreases. However, the general trend of attenuation dependence on
312 saturation or fluid type is consistent with those observed/predicted at 25 MPa and
313 80 °C. If the fluids are at a lower pressure (e.g., the ambient conditions), the trend may
314 change, since the gas is too light to cause any attenuation. This case is quite different
315 from that at in-situ (depth) conditions.

316 In the fully oil-saturated or partially oil-water saturated cases, the observed

317 attenuation dependence on saturation and fluid type are quite complex (Table 1) and
318 our model fails to provide a plausible explanation. Additional effects may be due to
319 the complex geometry of the oil and water patches or the viscoelasticity of oil.

320 **Conclusions**

321 The properties of tight oil reservoirs are different from those of conventional oil
322 and gas reservoirs. In tight oil rocks with strong heterogeneities and small pore
323 channels, the microscopic pore structure and hydrocarbon accumulation are more
324 complex. Wave attenuation is closely related to the rock structure and the presence of
325 pore fluids. Here, we analyze the influence of microstructure and fluid distribution
326 on attenuation. Ultrasonic measurements in rocks saturated with gas and water show
327 that the compressional-wave attenuation decreases with increasing water saturation
328 in tight oil siltstones. The behavior is different for carbonates and sandstone, where
329 attenuation generally increases with water saturation and has a peak at water
330 saturations in the range [51-100] %. For most of the siltstones, the measured
331 attenuation at full gas saturation is higher than that at full liquid saturation, while the
332 behavior is the opposite for most carbonates. The trends for siltstones are also
333 different from those reported in the literature. Poroelasticity theory provides a
334 reasonable explanation of the observed phenomena for gas-water partial saturation.
335 For siltstones, the two loss mechanisms, due to fabric heterogeneity and patchy
336 saturation, have peaks at different frequencies, with the former dominating in the
337 ultrasonic band. On the other hand, for carbonates and sandstones, the relaxation
338 peaks overlap. Modeling with the two different sets of fluid properties matches the

339 general trend of attenuation dependence on saturation/fluid for siltstones at
340 underground conditions. The observed attenuation in partially or fully oil-saturated
341 samples cannot be explained by our model, where other effects may be present, such
342 as pore-fluid viscoelasticity and a complex fluid-patch geometry.

343 We conclude that the observed attenuation in tight oil siltstones is likely to be the
344 result of squirt-flow, related to its fine-grain characteristics and low permeability. The
345 attenuation in carbonates and sandstones is caused by the mechanisms of
346 patchy-saturation and the two types of squirt flow. The implications obtained here are
347 useful for further studies of attenuation-based geophysical exploration techniques for
348 detecting underground fluids in tight oil reservoir, since the attenuation dependence
349 on saturation is closely associated with lithology, structure and fluid properties.

350 Wave attenuation plays an important role in applied geophysics for oil and gas
351 exploration. This work shows that the general trend of ultrasonic attenuation
352 dependence on saturation in siltstones is quite different from that observed in
353 carbonates or sandstones. This new trend and phenomena have not been reported in
354 the literature. The interpretation will contribute to a better understanding of
355 attenuation for varying saturation and different lithologies. It is shown that, based on
356 the wave attenuation attribute, dry/gas-saturated tight siltstones can be distinct from
357 liquid-saturated ones. However, it is difficult to identify fluid properties or saturation
358 in tight oil reservoirs partially saturated with oil and water, where the model fails to
359 explain the observed data. This may be related to the low permeability, differences in
360 fluid viscosity and the presence of capillary force. These factors need to be considered

361 to establish a new model for interpreting the observed attenuation in oil-water
362 saturated siltstones.

363 Experimental measurements explained a poroelasticity model yield the
364 relationship between compressional wave attenuation and pore fluids in tight oil rocks.
365 The characteristic frequency of peak attenuation is shown to be dependent on the
366 heterogeneity scale. Mesoscopic heterogeneities (10^{-4} – 10^{-2} m) in actual reservoirs
367 may result in high attenuation in the sonic-seismic frequency band. Although the
368 results obtained from ultrasonic measurements may not be directly applicable at
369 seismic-exploration frequencies, they are instructive for seismic interpretation,
370 because the poroelasticity model can be applied at the seismic frequency band, by
371 considering large-scale heterogeneous inclusions or more viscous liquids.

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376 waveform data associated with this article can be accessed at
377 <https://zenodo.org/record/1240378>.

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489 **Figure Captions:**

490 **Figure 1.** (a) SEM analyses on the siltstone from the target formation show pore-related clay
491 forming a secondary micro-porous medium; Thin section analyses on the dolomite (b) and the
492 tight sandstone (c) show grain contacts or microcracks connected to intergranular pores; Measured
493 ultrasonic compressional waveforms in sample K and the corresponding standard (d), sample DS4
494 (e), and sample TSM2 (f) with different fluids and saturations (for each waveform, the first arrival
495 and the end of the first four periods are indicated, and the time window between them is used in
496 the attenuation analysis); (g) Amplitude spectra of P-waves in K at different saturation states
497 (centroid frequencies are labeled); (h) Best least-square fits of the logarithm of the spectral ratios
498 in K.

499 **Figure 2.** (a) P-wave attenuation dependence on saturation estimated with the spectral-ratio (SR)
500 and centroid frequency-shift (CFS) methods in the gas-water partially-saturated L, DS8 and TSM2
501 (measurements are performed at six intermediate saturations for sample set 1, and seven
502 intermediate saturations for sets 2 and 3; error bars are given for the SR estimation results); (b)
503 Measured Q^{-1} as a function of porosity for the elastic rocks at the full gas, water and oil
504 saturation states; (c) Measured Q_r^{-1} as a function of porosity for the carbonates. Q^{-1}/Q_r^{-1} in
505 Figure 2b/2c is estimated by using the SR method and then verified with CFS method.

506 **Figure 3.** (a) Measured P-wave attenuation dependence on fluid type in samples J and DS4
507 compared to published experimental results; (b) Measured attenuation dependence on saturation in
508 gas-water partially-saturated K and DS4, compared to published experimental results; (c)
509 Measured attenuation (Q_r^{-1}) dependence on saturation in gas-water partially-saturated K and DT5,
510 compared with the trend of typical curves of theoretical models published in the scientific

511 literature. Porosity is given for each sample/model.

512 **Figure 4.** (a) Modeling results of attenuation as a function of the logarithm of frequency divided
513 by permeability in K and DS4, compared to the experimental data (each peak is labelled with the
514 corresponding mechanism); (b) Averaged attenuation dependences on saturation predicted by the
515 theory and the experimental data of type-A, compared to those of type-B (red triangles give
516 another set of type-A predictions of the siltstones by substituting the fluid properties at 10 MPa
517 and 20□); (c) Averaged attenuation dependence on fluid type for different rock types predicted by
518 the theory and compared to the experimental data (red triangles give another set of predictions of
519 the siltstones by substituting the fluid properties at 10 MPa and 20□).
520

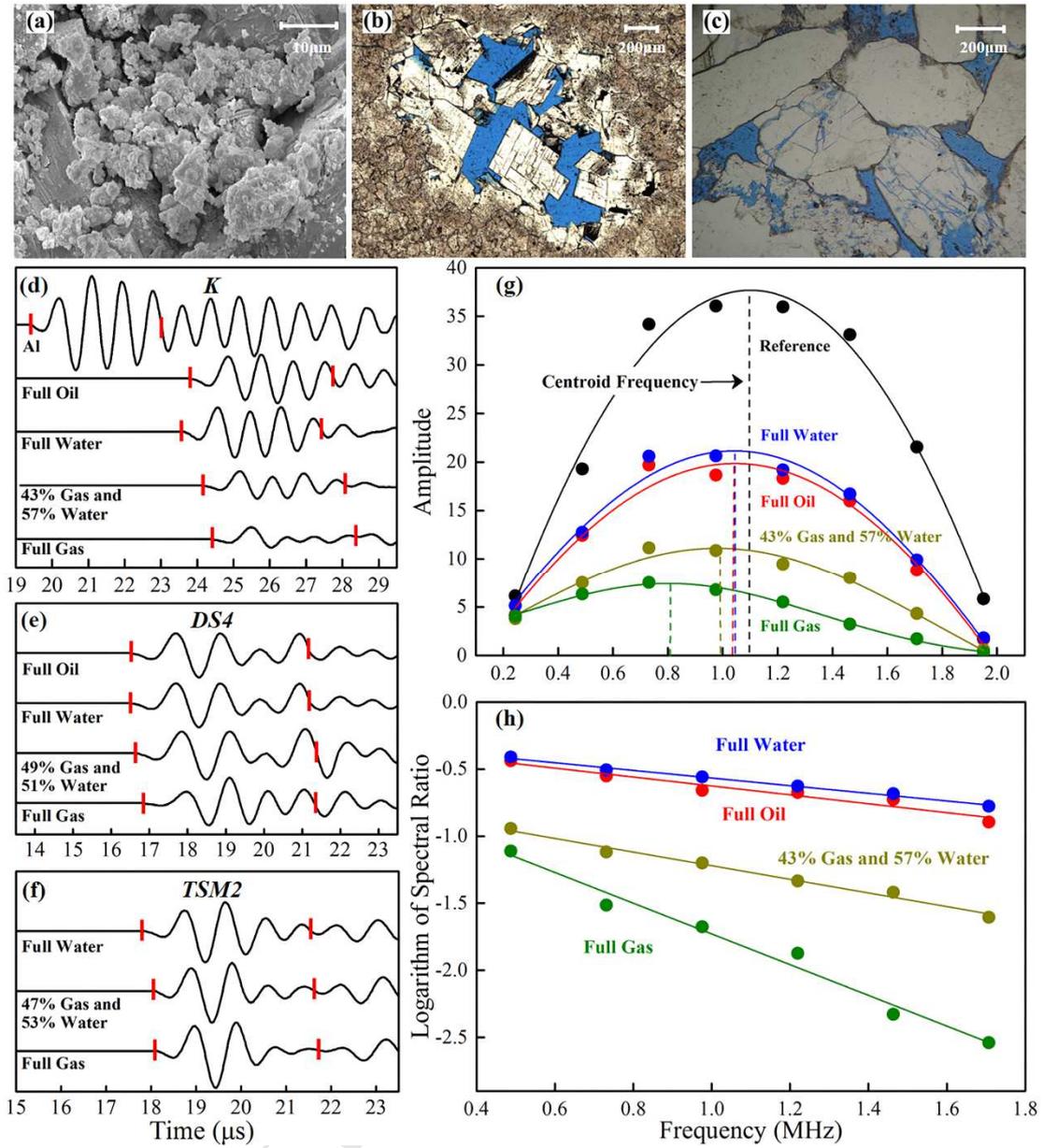
521 **Table Caption:**

522 **Table 1. Rock properties and Q^{-1} measurements (Q^{-1} s are estimated by the spectral-ratio**
523 **method and then verified with the centroid frequency-shift method), compared with the**
524 **theoretical results.** Type-A of Q^{-1} dependence of saturation (Q^{-1} DS): a gradual decrease of
525 attenuation with increasing water saturation; Type-B of Q^{-1} DS: increasing attenuation with
526 water saturation, peaking at high water saturation. Q_{gas}^{-1} : Q^{-1} at full gas saturation; Q_{water}^{-1} :
527 Q^{-1} at full water saturation; Q_{oil}^{-1} : Q^{-1} at full oil saturation.

528

Table 1.

Sample	Lithology	Porosity (%)	Permeability (md)	Dry density (g/cm ³)	Q^{-1} DS (Water-gas partial-saturation experiment)	Q^{-1} DS (Water-gas partial-saturation modeling)	Peak- Q^{-1} water saturation in water-gas partial-saturation measurements	Q^{-1} DS (Water-oil partial-saturation experiment)	Q^{-1} dependence of fluid type (Full-saturation experiment)	Q^{-1} dependence of fluid type (Full-saturation modeling)
A; set 1	Muddy Siltstone	2.88	0.0045	2.61	-	-	-	-	$Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1} > Q_{gas}^{-1}$	$Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1} > Q_{gas}^{-1}$
B; set 1	Muddy Siltstone	4.6	0.38	2.56	-	-	-	-	$Q_{gas}^{-1} > Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1}$	$Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1} > Q_{gas}^{-1}$
C; set 1	Siltstone	5.2	0.019	2.58	-	-	-	-	$Q_{gas}^{-1} > Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1}$	$Q_{gas}^{-1} > Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1}$
D; set 1	Silty Mudstone	5.56	0.011	2.53	-	-	-	-	$Q_{water}^{-1} > Q_{gas}^{-1} > Q_{oil}^{-1}$	$Q_{water}^{-1} > Q_{gas}^{-1} > Q_{oil}^{-1}$
E; set 1	Siltstone	5.6	0.017	2.52	-	-	-	-	$Q_{gas}^{-1} > Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1}$	$Q_{gas}^{-1} > Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1}$
F; set 1	Siltstone	5.79	0.035	2.41	-	-	-	-	$Q_{gas}^{-1} > Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1}$	$Q_{gas}^{-1} > Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1}$
G; set 1	Siltstone	5.8	0.02	2.55	-	-	-	-	$Q_{gas}^{-1} > Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1}$	$Q_{gas}^{-1} > Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1}$
H; set 1	Siltstone	6.45	0.097	2.38	A	A	0	No trend	$Q_{gas}^{-1} > Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1}$	$Q_{gas}^{-1} > Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1}$
I; set 1	Siltstone	10.87	0.39	2.29	A	A	0	No trend	$Q_{gas}^{-1} > Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1}$	$Q_{gas}^{-1} > Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1}$
J; set 1	Muddy Siltstone	12.75	0.17	2.3	A	A	0.13	No trend	$Q_{gas}^{-1} > Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1}$	$Q_{gas}^{-1} > Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1}$
K; set 1	Siltstone	13.09	0.08	2.28	A	A	0	No trend	$Q_{gas}^{-1} > Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1}$	$Q_{gas}^{-1} > Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1}$
L; set 1	Siltstone	13.97	0.084	2.26	A	A	0	No trend	$Q_{gas}^{-1} > Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1}$	$Q_{gas}^{-1} > Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1}$
DT1; set 2	Clean dolomite	5.10	0.091	2.69	B	B	1	A	$Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1} > Q_{gas}^{-1}$	$Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1} > Q_{gas}^{-1}$
DT2; set 2	Clean dolomite	5.34	0.458	2.66	B	B	0.85	A	$Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1} > Q_{gas}^{-1}$	$Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1} > Q_{gas}^{-1}$
DT3; set 2	Clean dolomite	5.47	0.174	2.67	B	B	0.89	A	$Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1} > Q_{gas}^{-1}$	$Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1} > Q_{gas}^{-1}$
DT4; set 2	Clean dolomite	12.08	162.753	2.41	B	B	0.86	A	$Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1} > Q_{gas}^{-1}$	$Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1} > Q_{gas}^{-1}$
DT5; set 2	Clean dolomite	12.28	22.819	2.44	B	B	0.88	A	$Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1} > Q_{gas}^{-1}$	$Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1} > Q_{gas}^{-1}$
DS1; set 2	Dolomite	11.63	0.661	2.45	B	B	0.61	A	$Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1} > Q_{gas}^{-1}$	$Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1} > Q_{gas}^{-1}$
DS2; set 2	Dolomite	11.73	0.138	2.51	No trend	-	0	A	$Q_{gas}^{-1} > Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1}$	-
DS3; set 2	Dolomite	11.75	0.075	2.45	B	B	0.89	A	$Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1} > Q_{gas}^{-1}$	$Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1} > Q_{gas}^{-1}$
DS4; set 3	Dolomite	16.87	3.31	2.32	B	B	0.51	No trend	$Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1} > Q_{gas}^{-1}$	$Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1} > Q_{gas}^{-1}$
DS5; set 3	Dolomite	4.99	1.34	2.67	B	B	0.67	No trend	$Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1} > Q_{gas}^{-1}$	$Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1} > Q_{gas}^{-1}$
DS6; set 3	Dolomite	6.93	0.601	2.64	B	B	0.77	B	$Q_{water}^{-1} > Q_{gas}^{-1} > Q_{oil}^{-1}$	$Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1} > Q_{gas}^{-1}$
DS7; set 3	Dolomite	10.37	1.430	2.52	A	-	0	B	$Q_{gas}^{-1} > Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1}$	-
DS8; set 3	Dolomite	6.08	0.130	2.65	B	B	0.79	B	$Q_{water}^{-1} > Q_{gas}^{-1} > Q_{oil}^{-1}$	$Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1} > Q_{gas}^{-1}$
TSM2; set 3	Tight sandstone	8.64	0.38	2.41	B	B	0.89	-	$Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1} > Q_{gas}^{-1}$	$Q_{water}^{-1} \& Q_{oil}^{-1} > Q_{gas}^{-1}$

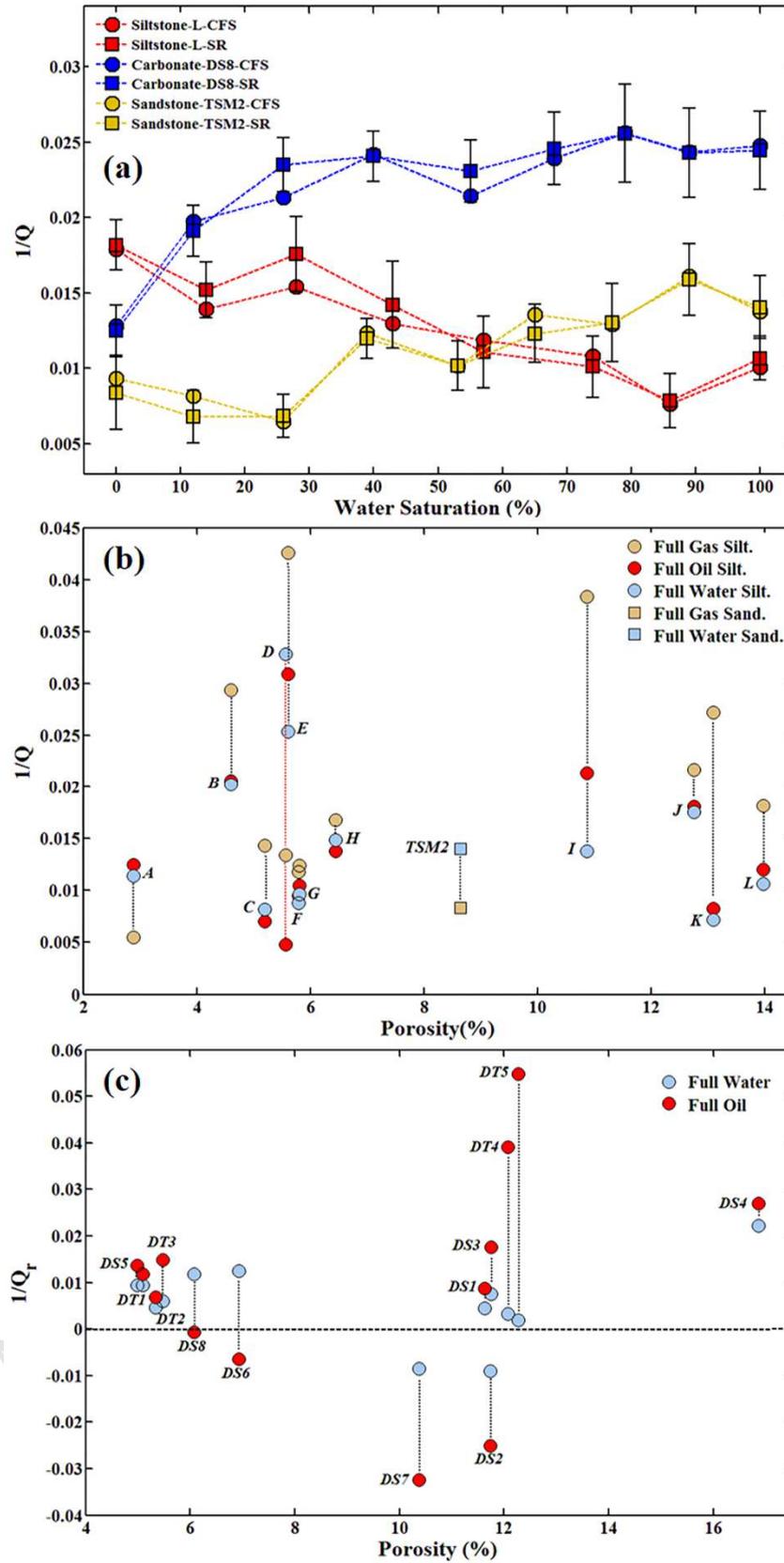


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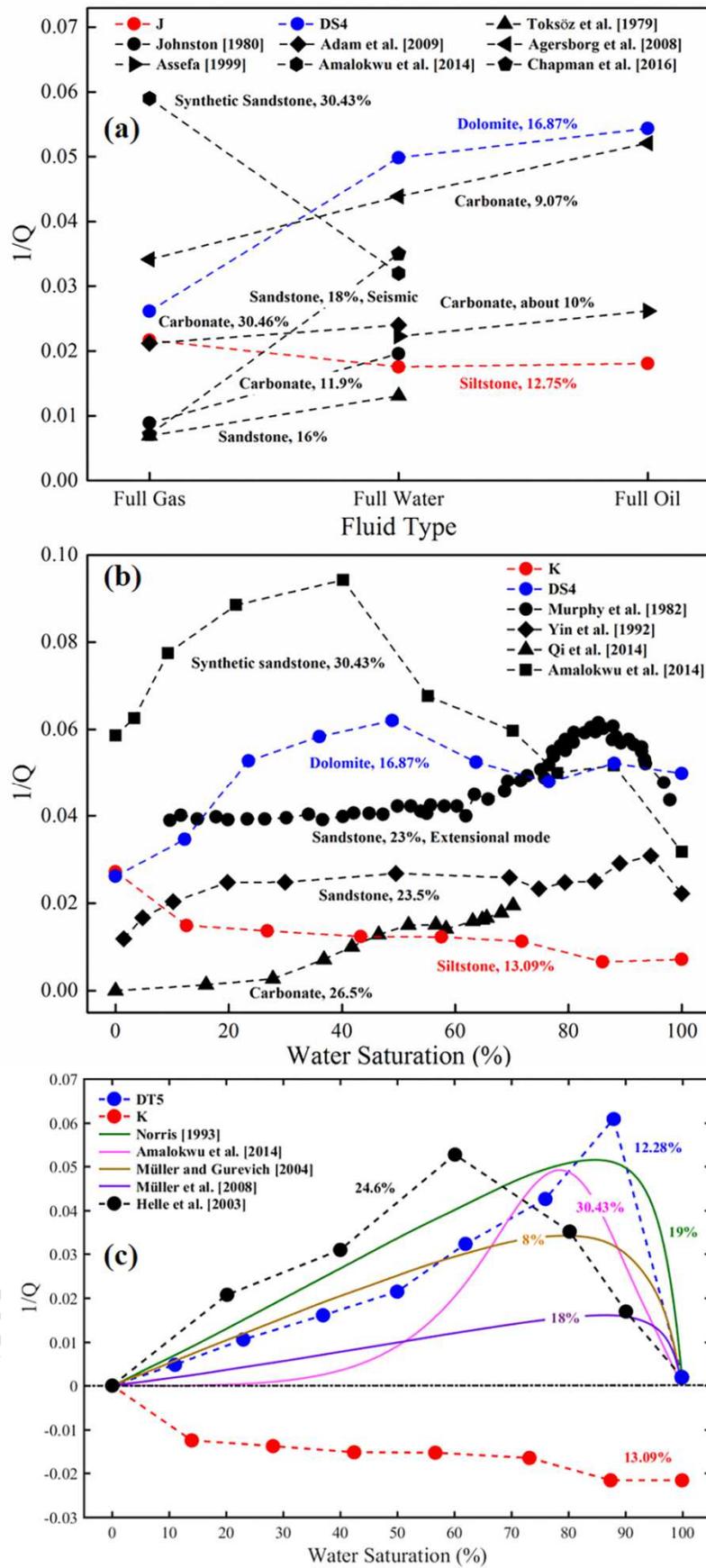
Figure 1.



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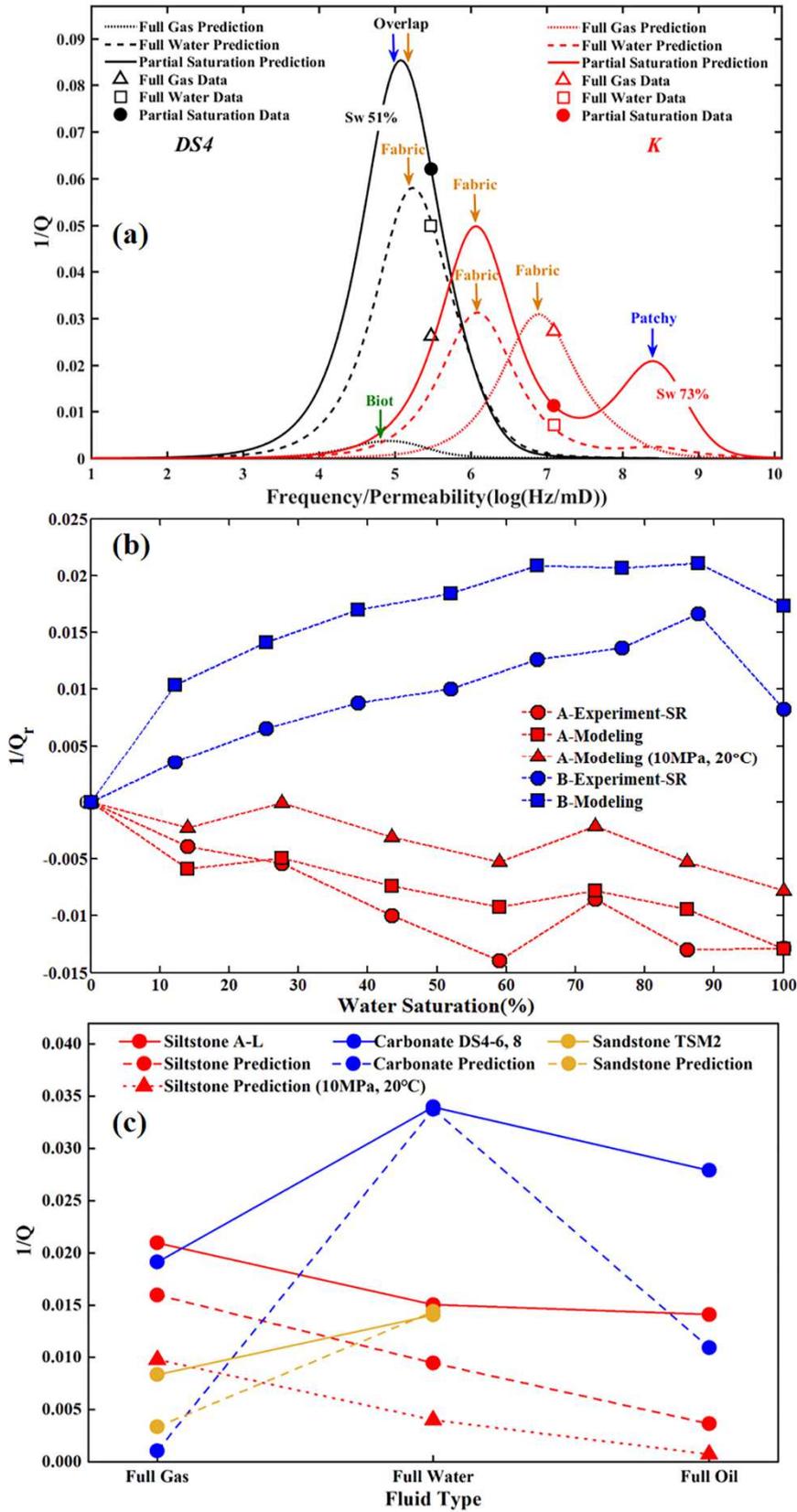
Figure 2.



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Figure 3.



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Figure 4.

Highlights

1. Ultrasonic P-wave attenuation decreases with water saturation in in-situ water-gas partially-saturated siltstones.
2. Attenuation behavior with fluid type and saturation in tight oil siltstones differ from those of carbonates and sandstones.
3. Poroelasticity modeling by incorporating fabric and fluid heterogeneities explains the observed phenomena in water-gas saturated siltstones.