TRIBHUVAN UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTE OF ENGINEERING

PULCHOWK CAMPUS

A

PROJECT REPORT

ON

SEISMIC IMAGE DENOISING AND FAULT SEGMENTATION

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April, 2025

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The undersigned certifies that they have read and recommended to the Institute of Engineering for acceptance of a project report entitled **"SEISMIC IMAGE DENOISING AND FAULT SEGMENTATION"** submitted by **Amrit Sharma**, **Ashim Sapkota**, **Biraj Acharya** in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Bachelor's degree in Electronics & Computer Engineering.

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1. Acknowledgments

We are deeply thankful to the **Department of Electronics and Computer Engineering, Pulchowk Campus**, for granting us the chance to pursue this project. As we embark on this exciting venture, we eagerly await the support and guidance of our esteemed faculty members and advisors.

We express our heartfelt gratitude to our project supervisor,**Bibha Sthapit** mam for her inspiring encouragement. Her unwavering support has been a significant motivator and we value your trust in our capabilities. In addition, we express our appreciation to the department for reviewing our project proposal. The invaluable feedback shared during this process has tremendously helped us refine our approach, significantly improving our perspective on the project.

As we progress with our project, we have a firm belief in the invaluable support faculty, advisors, and department will provide. We are excited about the collaborative efforts that will unfold as we progress on this journey. Gratitude goes to all who have contributed to the initial stages of this project, and we look forward to the discoveries and innovations that will define the success of our project.

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2. List of Abbreviations

CNN	Convolutional Neural Network
PSNR	Peak Signal-to-Noise Ratio
SSIM	Structural Similarity Index Measure
MSE	Mean Square Error
MSE	Mean Absolute Error
VS	Visual Studio
GPU	Graphics Processing Unit
TPU	Tensor Processing Unit
IEEE	Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers
CV	Computer Vision
MS-SSIM	Multi scale Structural Similarity Index Measure

3. Introduction

3.1 Background and Overview

Seismic profiling is a fundamental technique in geophysical exploration which is widely used in oil and natural gas exploration, geological surveys, and earthquake studies. It provides a detailed view of underground structures by analyzing how seismic waves traverse through the Earth's subsurface. However, seismic images often suffer from noise and low resolution, which makes it difficult to accurately interpret geological features such as faults, fractures, and hydrocarbon reservoirs.

This project focuses on utilizing deep learning techniques, particularly Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) and Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs), to enhance the seismic image quality. By reducing random noise and improving resolution, our approach aims to facilitate better fault detection and geological interpretation, ultimately aiding exploration and resource management.

3.1.1 Seismic Data

Seismic data is collected from seismic surveys that are conducted using reflective seismology, where an energy source generates seismic waves that travel through the subsurface and reflect off different geological layers. These reflections are recorded by an array of geophones or hydrophones, and the collected data is processed to create seismic images.

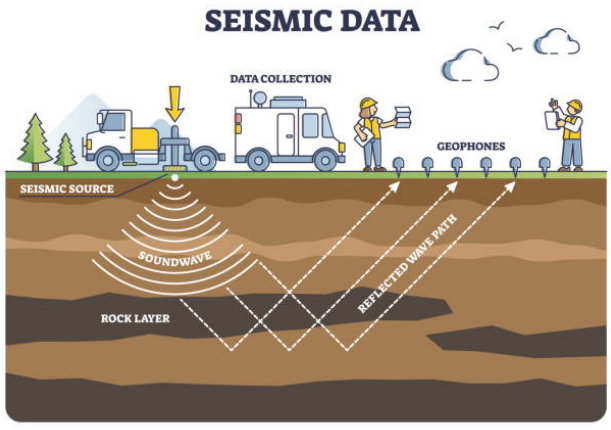

Figure 3.1: Seismic Data Collection

Processing involves the following steps:

- **Data Acquisition:** Geophones capture seismic wave reflections from subsurface layers.
- **SEG-Y Storage:** The recorded signals are formatted in SEG-Y, an industry-standard format for seismic data storage.
- **Preprocessing:** Includes filtering, de-noising, amplitude correction, and conversion of seismic traces into 2D/3D images.
- **Interpretation:** Processed seismic images are analyzed to identify faults and geological structures, aiding subsurface exploration.

3.1.2 Seismic Image

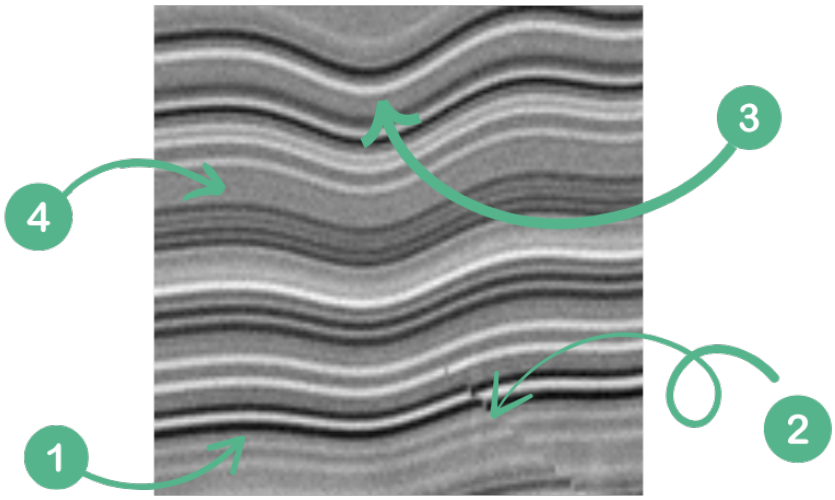

Figure 3.2: Sample Seismic Image

Seismic images, also known as seismic sections, contain various line patterns that represent different geological features. These lines can be classified into the following categories:

1. Reflectors (Stratigraphic Layers)

The most common lines in seismic images represent reflections from subsurface rock layers. These reflections occur due to differences in **acoustic impedance** (density × velocity) between adjacent rock layers.

- **Parallel and continuous reflectors** usually indicate undisturbed sedimentary layers.

- **Wavy or chaotic reflectors** may indicate folded or deformed strata due to tectonic activity.

2. Faults (Discontinuities in the Reflectors)

Faults appear as breaks or offsets in the continuous reflectors. They indicate areas where rock layers have been displaced due to **tectonic movements**. Major faults may create:

- Gaps in the reflectors.
- Step-like patterns.
- Abrupt shifts in the seismic reflections.

3. Diffractions (Scattered Energy)

Small, curved, or hyperbolic patterns in seismic images often correspond to **diffractions**. These are caused by small-scale subsurface features such as:

- Fractures.
- Voids.
- Sharp edges in the geology.

Diffractions are useful for detecting **unconformities, buried faults, or localized features**.

4. Noise and Artifacts

Not all lines in seismic images represent geological structures. Some are caused by external factors, such as:

- **Acquisition noise** (instrumental limitations, environmental factors).
- **Processing artifacts** (errors in filtering, migration, or interpolation).
- **Multiples** (false reflections caused by seismic waves bouncing multiple times between layers).

3.1.3 Challenges in Seismic Imaging

- **Noise Contamination:** Seismic images contain random and coherent noise from various sources such as environmental conditions, instrumentation, and processing errors. Conventional denoising techniques often struggle to remove noise while preserving critical geological structures.
- **Low Resolution:** Due to limitations in acquisition technology and subsurface complexities, seismic images often suffer from low spatial resolution, making fault interpretation difficult.
- **Manual Interpretation:** Traditional fault detection methods rely on manual tracking of reflection discontinuities in post-stack seismic data, a time-consuming and labor-intensive process.

3.2 Problem statements

Seismic images are vital for understanding underground structures, but they are often unclear due to random noise and low resolution. This makes it hard to interpret the data accurately, risking misidentification of features like fractures and faults. Existing methods to clean up these images are not always effective, so we need a better approach to improve the quality of seismic data without losing important details. Manual fault interpretation is a time consuming, labor intensive and expensive task since we need the help of qualified geophysicist to interpret the faults. Thus, automating the process of fault segmentation from the cleaned and noiseless image saves a lot of resources and time.

3.3 Objectives

1. Creating a method to separate noise from the useful seismic image while preserving important geological details especially faults.
2. Testing the solution on synthetic and real seismic images to demonstrate its effectiveness in improving image clarity and aiding geological interpretation.

3.4 Scope

The scope of this project includes:

- **Data Acquisition & Preprocessing:** Collecting synthetic seismic image data from various sources. Also collecting seg-y files for real seismic image generations.

- **Deep Learning Model Development:** Implementing GANs for noise removal and CNNs for fault detection.
- **Loss Function Optimization:** Experimenting with different loss functions to improve model accuracy and generalization.
- **Performance Evaluation:** Using objective metrics and qualitative analysis to compare model outputs with ground truth data.
- **Software Development:** Building an interface for deploying the trained models, enabling geophysicists to enhance seismic images efficiently.
- **Documentation & Research Findings:** Providing a comprehensive report on methodology, implementation, results, and future applications in geophysical exploration.

4. Literature Review

4.1 Related theory and work

Recent studies on seismic image processing have significantly advanced techniques for super-resolution, denoising, and fault segmentation. Below, we present related work in these domains:

4.1.1 Seismic Image Super-Resolution and Denoising

Li, Wu, and Hu (2022) proposed a deep learning model for simultaneous seismic image super-resolution and denoising in the paper *Simultaneous Seismic Image Super-Resolution and Denoising*. This method improves image clarity by handling both super-resolution and denoising tasks, although it faces challenges when dealing with extreme noise levels (1) . Wu and Guo (2021) introduced *Fast Explicit Diffusion for Seismic Image Enhancement*, a combination of deep learning and explicit diffusion techniques. It enhances the quality of seismic images while preserving important geological features, though it can be computationally expensive (2) . Yu, Zhang, and Wu (2024) developed the *MAE-GAN model, MAE-GAN for Seismic Image Super-Resolution and Denoising*, which incorporates multi-scale attention encoder-decoder with GANs for simultaneously handling super-resolution and denoising. However, this method requires large datasets for training (3) .

4.1.2 Seismic Image Denoising

Klochikhina et al. (2020) proposed deep learning-based models for seismic image denoising in Deep Learning Approaches for Seismic Image Denoising. Their model effectively preserves geological features while removing noise, although it requires careful tuning to avoid overfitting (4). Zheng and Zhang (2023) developed a GAN-based framework for seismic data denoising in *A Comprehensive Denoising Framework for Seismic Data Using GANs*, which separates noise from critical features. However, it may struggle with more complex seismic data patterns (5).

4.1.3 Fault Segmentation

Li, Wu, and Hu (2020) presented *Fault Segmentation Using CNNs*, demonstrating the effectiveness of CNNs for automatic fault detection and segmentation. While it reduces manual interpretation efforts, the method struggles with identifying small or poorly defined

faults (6) . Xiong, Zhao, and Liu (2020) proposed *Seismic Fault Detection Using Windowed Seismic Slices*, a novel technique that classifies windowed seismic slices to identify fault zones. However, the method requires significant computational resources due to the high number of individual slices (7) . Wu et al. (2021) introduced *3D FaultSeg3D: A CNN-Based Fault Detection Model*, which extends 2D CNN techniques into 3D space, improving fault segmentation accuracy in volumetric seismic data (8). Wang et al. (2022) combined classification and segmentation networks for seismic fault detection in *Combining Classification and Segmentation Networks for Seismic Fault Detection*. This hybrid approach improves fault detection by using the classification network to identify fault regions and the segmentation network to refine their boundaries. However, it struggles with noisy data (9). Dou et al. (2020) optimized CNNs for fault segmentation in *Improving Fault Segmentation with CNNs*, modifying layer architectures to better retain fine features, though it still faces challenges with complex fault structures (10).

4.1.4 Seismic Fault Segmentation Using Transformers

Xie et al. (2021) proposed *Segformer: Transformer-Based Network for Seismic Fault Segmentation*, which employs self-attention mechanisms to capture long-range dependencies. The model improves segmentation accuracy in complex geological environments and outperforms CNN-based methods in many cases (11). Liu et al. (2022) adapted the Swin Transformer for seismic fault segmentation in *Swin Transformer for Seismic Fault Segmentation*, showing that the hierarchical architecture helps capture both local and global features effectively (12). Dou et al. (2021) introduced hybrid models in *Enhancing Seismic Fault Segmentation with Transformer Models*, combining CNNs with transformers to capture local and global contexts for better fault segmentation (13). Zhao et al. (2023) proposed *FaultSeg-Transformer: A Transformer-Based Framework for Fault Segmentation*, which is designed specifically for seismic fault segmentation and improves fault detection in noisy and complex datasets (14).

4.1.5 Seismic Data Augmentation Using GANs

Pham et al. (2020) explored the use of GANs for data augmentation in seismic fault detection in *Seismic Data Augmentation Using GANs for Fault Detection*. They demonstrated how synthetic data generated by GANs can supplement limited labeled seismic data, improving fault detection accuracy (15).

5. Methodology

5.1 Theoretical background

5.1.1 CNN

Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) are a type of deep learning algorithm primarily used for processing structured grid data such as images. They are particularly effective in tasks that involve spatial hierarchies, like image recognition, object detection, and various other image and video processing tasks. CNNs have revolutionized the field of computer vision due to their ability to automatically and adaptively learn spatial hierarchies of features from input images

5.1.2 U-Net

UpSampling

In Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs), upsampling refers to the process of increasing the spatial dimensions (height and width) of a feature map. It is commonly used in tasks where the goal is to generate an output with higher resolution than the input, such as in image generation, segmentation, or super-resolution tasks.

Transpose Convolution

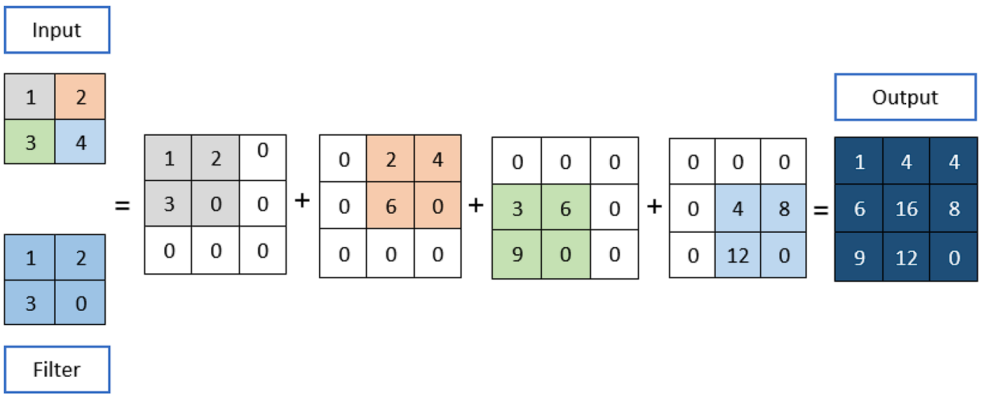

Figure 5.1: Transpose Convolution

It is a popular method in architecture like in Auto encoder and GANs.It works by "re-

versing" the convolution operation, i.e., spreading the input feature map over a larger space, filling in the gaps based on learned weights.

5.1.3 Residual Network

The ResNet (Residual Neural Network) architecture was introduced by Kaiming He, Xiangyu Zhang, Shaoqing Ren and Jian sun in their paper titled "Deep residual Learning for Image Recognition " in 2015.A Residual Network (ResNet) is a type of neural network architecture that uses skip connections or residual connections to solve the vanishing gradient problem and allow for the training of deeper networks. The key idea behind ResNet is the use of a residual block, where the input to a layer is added to the output of a layer further ahead, effectively allowing the network to "skip" layers.

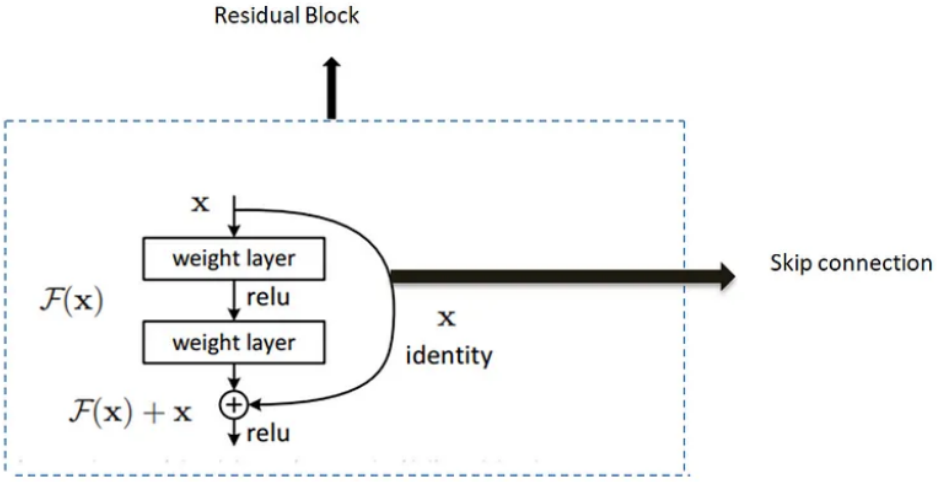

Figure 5.2: Residual Network

5.1.4 Multi-Scale Structural Similarity Index Measure(MS-SSIM)

SSIM(Structural Similarity Index) measures the similarity between two images based on luminance, contrast, and structure, with a value between 0 and 1, where 1 indicates perfect similarity.In MS-SSIM, the images are downscaled over multiple levels or scales (usually using a Gaussian pyramid), and SSIM is computed at each scale. The idea is that human vision perceives images at multiple resolutions, so comparing them at multiple scales gives a better perceptual similarity score.MS-SSIM gives a more human-perception-based similarity measure compared to traditional metrics like Mean Squared Error (MSE) or Peak Signal-to-Noise Ratio (PSNR).It captures both fine and coarse image details by analyzing images at multiple scales.

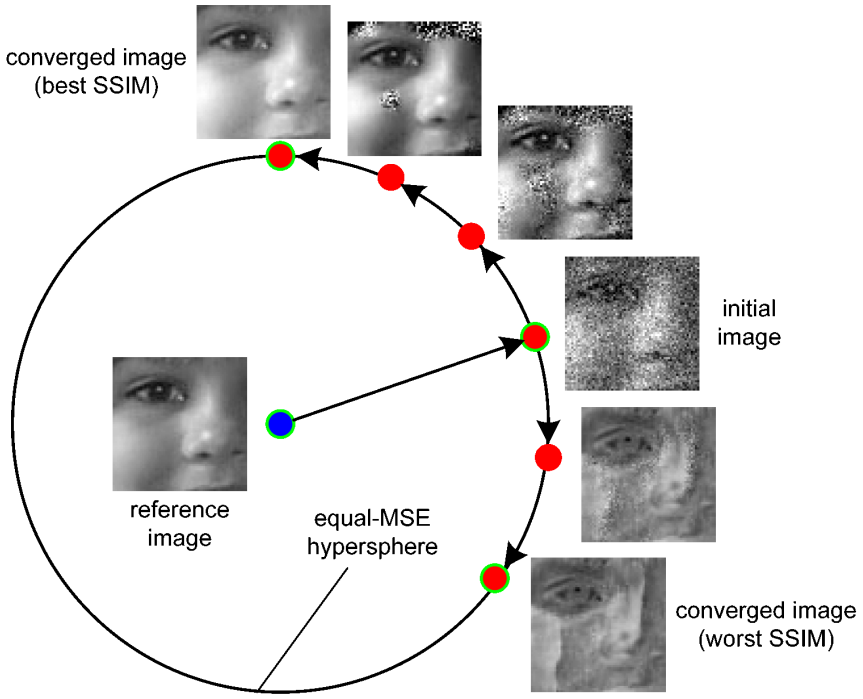

Figure 5.3: MS-SSIM

5.1.5 Sub-Pixel convolution layer

A sub-pixel convolution layer is used in the context of image super-resolution, where the goal is to increase the resolution of an image (i.e., upsample it). It was introduced in the paper "Real-Time Single Image Super-Resolution Using an Efficient Sub-Pixel Convolutional Neural Network" by Wenzhe Shi et al. (2016). The layer achieves upscaling by rearranging lower-resolution feature maps into a higher-resolution output.Instead of upsampling the feature maps in the final stages using interpolation, it reshapes the feature maps to a higher resolution using a pixel-shuffling technique.The idea is to output a higher-resolution image

directly by rearranging the feature maps.The input to the sub-pixel convolution layer is a set of low-resolution feature maps, and these feature maps are rearranged in a way that directly produces a high-resolution output. While performing pixel shuffle at the last layer of the network to recover the LR image does not need padding operation.Combining each pixel on multiple-channel feature maps into one r × r square area in the output image. Thus, each pixel on feature maps is equivalent to the sub-pixel on the generated output image.

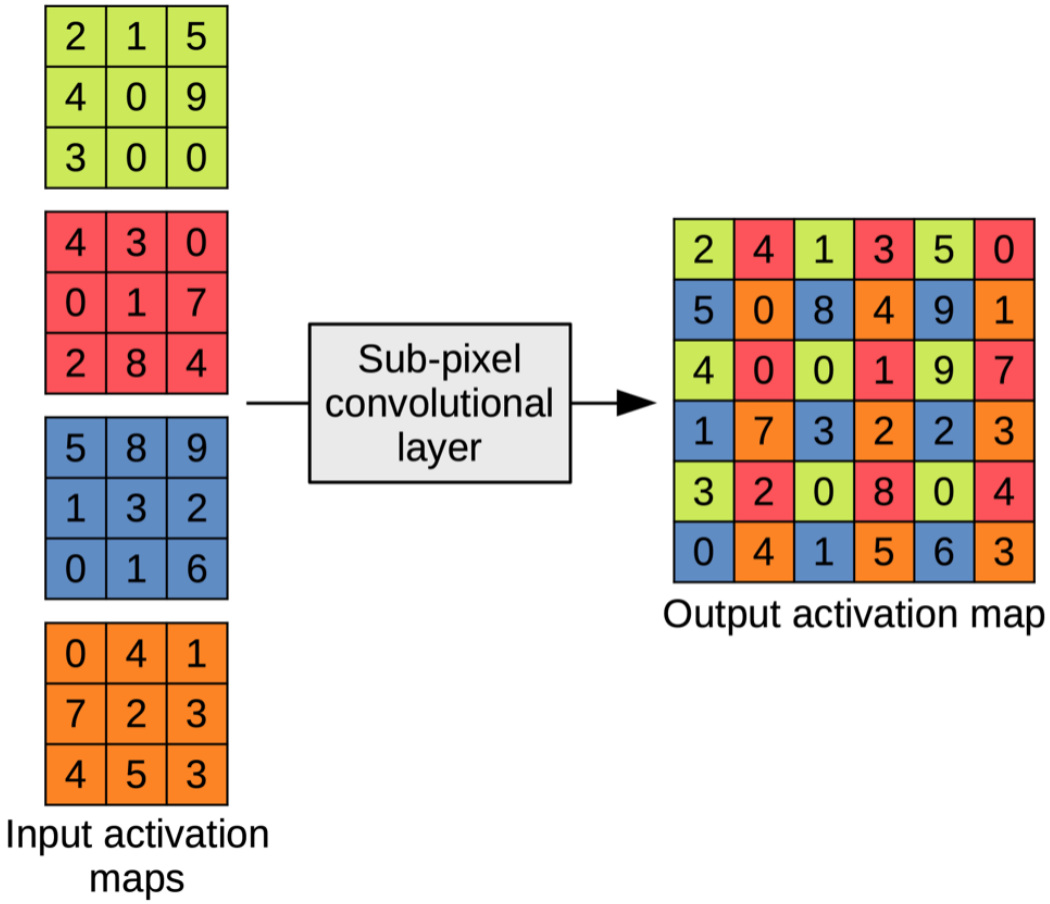

Figure 5.4: Sub-Pixel Convolution Operation

5.1.6 Generative Adversarial Network (GAN)

Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) are a kind of generative models that belong to the field of unsupervised learning. Generative models aim to learn the underlying data distribution $p(x)$ where as discriminative models, which learn decision boundaries between classes . This allows them to generate new, synthetic samples that resemble the real data.

GANs consist of two neural networks trained in a competitive framework:

- **Generator** $G(z; \theta_G)$: A neural network that maps a random noise vector z (sampled

from a prior distribution, e.g., Gaussian or uniform) to the data space x, attempting to generate realistic synthetic samples.

- **Discriminator** $D(x; \theta_D)$: A neural network that evaluates whether a given sample is real (from the actual dataset) or fake (generated by G). It outputs a probability value in the range $(0, 1)$.

Both networks are trained in an adversarial setting: the generator tries to fool the discriminator by producing realistic data, while the discriminator aims to distinguish real from fake samples. The objective function is a minimax optimization problem:

$$\min_G \max_D E_{x \sim p_{\text{data}}}[\log D(x)] + E_{z \sim p_z}[\log(1 - D(G(z)))]$$

where:

- p_{data} is the distribution of real data.
- p_z is the prior distribution of the noise input.

Despite their success, traditional GANs suffer from training instability, mode collapse, and vanishing gradients, motivating the development of improved variants such as Wasserstein GAN (WGAN).

Wasserstein GAN (WGAN)

Wasserstein GANs address key limitations of standard GANs by introducing the Wasserstein (Earth Mover's) distance as a more stable measure of divergence between real and generated data distributions. Instead of the traditional binary classification approach of the discriminator, WGAN reformulates the problem as learning a critic function that estimates the Wasserstein distance between distributions.

The Wasserstein distance is defined as:

$$W(p_{\text{data}}, p_G) = \inf_{\gamma \in \Pi(p_{\text{data}}, p_G)} E_{(x,y) \sim \gamma}[\|x - y\|]$$

where $\Pi(p_{\text{data}}, p_G)$ represents the set of all possible joint distributions with marginals p_{data} and p_G.

The key modifications in WGAN include:

- Replacing the discriminator $D(x)$ with a **critic** $f(x)$ that outputs real-valued scores instead of probabilities.

- Optimizing the loss function:

$$\mathcal{L}_D = E[f(x)] - E[f(G(z))]$$

  ensuring that the critic assigns higher scores to real samples.

- Enforcing the Lipschitz constraint using **weight clipping** or **gradient penalty** (WGAN-GP).

Gradient Penalty (WGAN-GP)

To further stabilize training, WGAN-GP replaces weight clipping with a gradient penalty, ensuring smooth optimization. The penalty is defined as:

$$\lambda \left(\|\nabla_{\hat{x}} f(\hat{x})\|_2 - 1 \right)^2$$

where $\hat{x}$ is an interpolated sample between real and fake data.

By using the Wasserstein distance, WGAN improves training stability, reduces mode collapse, and allows for better convergence, making it a preferred choice for seismic image enhancement and super-resolution tasks.

5.2 Data Collection and Preprocessing

5.2.1 For Denoising and Superresolution Model

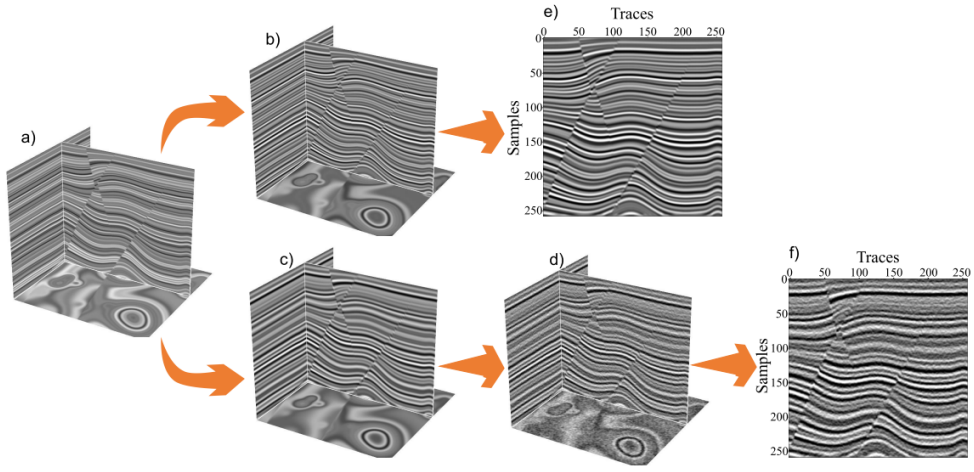

Figure 5.5: Data Preparation

Before training a model for super-resolution and denoising together, we need many 2-D high resolution pure seismic images as the ground truth. In practice, however, such data sets

are rare.In our project, we utilized a pre-prepared seismic dataset created by Lei Lin1, Zhi Zhong, Chuyang Cai, Chenglong Li, Heng Zhang, following the workflow provided by Wu et al. for synthetic seismic data generation.The dataset consists of 800 synthetic 3D seismic cubes, each sized $256 \times 256 \times 256$, initially generated using a reflectivity model with flat layers. To simulate real-world seismic data, folding and faulting structures were introduced into the reflectivity model. The folding was achieved by vertically shearing the flat-layer model, and faulting was simulated by applying volumetric vector fields.

The next step involved generating seismic volumes by convolving the reflectivity model with wavelets. A high-frequency wavelet was used to generate high-resolution seismic volumes, while a low-frequency Ricker wavelet, combined with random noise, was used to simulate low-resolution seismic volumes. From both the high- and low-resolution volumes, 2D seismic sections were extracted to create training pairs with the same structural information but at different resolutions. The high-resolution images exhibit a wider frequency band with more high-frequency components, while the low-resolution images were downsampled and included noise to simulate real field conditions.

To increase the diversity of the dataset, the wavelet peak frequencies were randomly chosen between 5–25 Hz, ensuring that the high-resolution images always have a wider frequency spectrum compared to the corresponding low-resolution ones. Additionally, random colored noise was added to further simulate realistic seismic data, with the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) of each sample randomly varied between 4 and 14. This dataset, prepared through an above mentioned workflow, was directly utilized in our project for training our models.

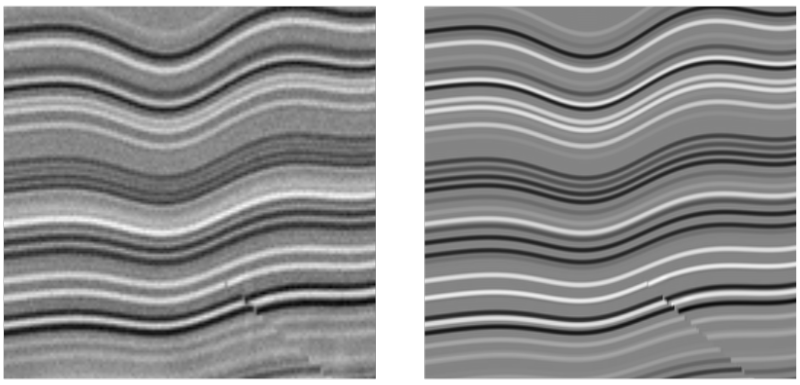

Figure 5.6: Noisy and Corresponding noiseless sample data

5.2.2 For Fault Segmentation Model

We collected seismic image data for fault segmentation from multiple sources, including the Harvard dataset. The data was primarily stored in .npz and .dat formats. We used NumPy to extract these files and Pillow to convert them into images. These images were then used as training data for our U-Net model. The dataset consisted of two types of images: seismic images and their corresponding fault masks. The fault masks served as labels, marking areas in the seismic images where faults were present. The Harvard dataset contained real seismic images, but the image quality was low, and the fault masks were only moderately accurate. Due to these limitations, we decided not to use this dataset. However, the dataset provided by Mr. Xinming Wu was of high quality, with well-labeled fault masks. It also covered diverse fault-labeled images for different orientations (depth, inline, and crossline) of 3D seismic cubes. Because of this, we chose to proceed with this dataset for our fault segmentation model.

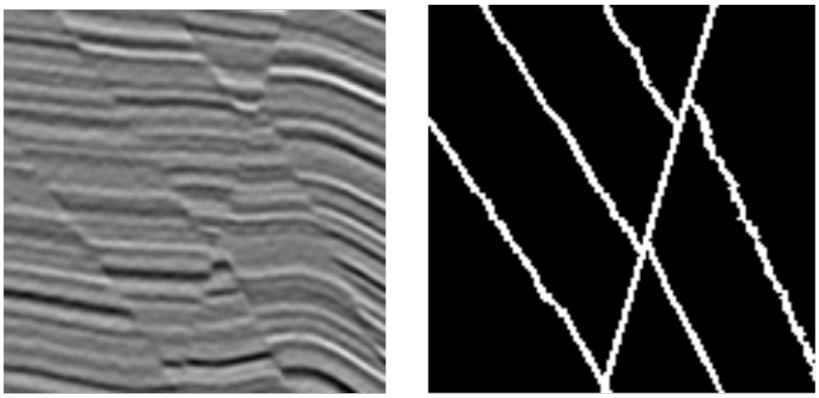

Figure 5.7: Seismic Image and Corresponding Fault Mask

5.3 Model Architecture

5.3.1 GAN based denoising and super resolution

1. **Generator Network**

   The generator is designed to enhance low-resolution seismic images by learning a residual mapping. It comprises:

   - An initial feature extraction layer using a 9×9 convolution, followed by a PReLU activation.
   - A core network of 12 residual blocks, each containing:
     - Two 3×3 convolutional layers with batch normalization and PReLU activation.
     - A skip connection to retain essential features.
   - Feature aggregation using a 3×3 convolution with batch normalization and residual addition.
   - An upsampling module consisting of two convolutional layers ($64 \rightarrow 256$ and $256 \rightarrow 512$), followed by a PixelShuffle operation for $\times 4$ upsampling and PReLU activation.
   - A final reconstruction layer employing a 9×9 convolution with a Tanh activation to generate the output image.

2. **Discriminator Network**

   The discriminator follows a PatchGAN architecture to evaluate image authenticity at the patch level. It consists of:

   - A sequence of convolutional layers with increasing depth and decreasing resolution.
   - Eight convolutional layers with batch normalization and LeakyReLU activation.
   - Fully connected layers that map extracted features to a probability score.
   - An initial convolutional layer processing input images from 1 to 64 channels.
   - Progressive increase to 512 channels using strided convolutions for downsampling.
   - Final layers including:
     - A 1×1 convolution reducing 512 channels to 1024.
     - Another 1×1 convolution mapping to a single-channel output representing patch authenticity.

The generator and discriminator work in tandem to enhance fault structures in seismic images while maintaining realistic textures. The integration of residual learning, pixel-wise upsampling, and multi-loss optimization ensures improved interpretability of seismic fault structures.

Loss Function

The loss functions play a crucial role in optimizing the performance of the GAN-based model. The discriminator loss is based on Wasserstein loss with a gradient penalty, ensuring stable training by enforcing the Lipschitz constraint. The generator loss consists of multiple components, balancing pixel fidelity, perceptual quality, and smoothness.

1. **Discriminator Loss**
   The discriminator aims to distinguish real seismic images from generated ones. Its loss function is defined as:

$$\mathcal{L}_D = E[D(x)] - E[D(G(z))] + \lambda_{gp} \cdot GP$$

   where:

   - $D(x)$ is the discriminator output for real images.
   - $D(G(z))$ is the discriminator output for generated images.
   - GP is the gradient penalty enforcing the Lipschitz constraint.
   - λ_{gp} is a hyperparameter controlling the penalty strength.

2. **Generator Loss**
   The generator loss is a weighted sum of multiple loss components:

$$\mathcal{L}_G = \mathcal{L}_{MSE} + \beta\mathcal{L}_{VGG} + \alpha\mathcal{L}_{adv} + \lambda\mathcal{L}_{TV}$$

   where:

   - $\mathcal{L}_{MSE} = \|G(z) - x\|^2$ ensures pixel-level accuracy.
   - $\mathcal{L}_{VGG}$ is the perceptual loss computed from VGG features, ensuring high-level feature similarity.
   - $\mathcal{L}_{adv} = -E[D(G(z))]$ promotes adversarial learning, encouraging the generator to produce realistic images.

- $\mathcal{L}_{TV}$ is the total variation loss, defined as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{TV} = \sum |x_{i+1,j} - x_{i,j}| + \sum |x_{i,j+1} - x_{i,j}|$$

  which helps reduce artifacts by enforcing spatial smoothness.

- The hyperparameters β, α, and λ control the relative importance of each loss term.

These loss functions collectively guide the model in generating high-quality super-resolved seismic images while preserving structural integrity and perceptual realism.

Evaluation Metrics

In the context of seismic image super-resolution and fault segmentation, it is crucial to employ objective metrics to quantitatively evaluate the performance of the proposed models. The following key evaluation metrics are utilized: Peak Signal-to-Noise Ratio (PSNR), Structural Similarity Index (SSIM), Frequency Distance, and Mean Squared Error (MSE).

1. **Peak Signal-to-Noise Ratio (PSNR)** PSNR measures the quality of reconstructed images by quantifying the level of noise or distortion compared to the ground truth. Higher PSNR values indicate better image quality. It is computed using the mean squared error (MSE):

$$\text{PSNR} = 10 \cdot \log_{10} \left(\frac{1}{\text{MSE}} \right)$$

   where MSE is given by:

$$\text{MSE} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_i - y_i)^2$$

   If the MSE is zero (i.e., identical images), PSNR is set to 100, indicating a perfect reconstruction.

2. **Structural Similarity Index (SSIM)** SSIM evaluates the perceptual similarity between two images, incorporating luminance, contrast, and texture. It ranges from -1 to 1, with 1 indicating perfect similarity. SSIM is defined as:

$$\text{SSIM}(x, y) = \frac{(2\mu_x\mu_y + c_1)(2\sigma_{xy} + c_2)}{(\mu_x^2 + \mu_y^2 + c_1)(\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2 + c_2)}$$

   where:

   - μ_x, μ_y are the mean intensities of images x and y.
   - σ_x^2, σ_y^2 are the variances.

- σ_{xy} is the covariance between the images.
- c_1 and c_2 are small constants for numerical stability.

3. **Frequency Distance** Frequency-based metrics assess differences in the frequency domain. In seismic imaging, this metric evaluates how well the predicted image preserves high-frequency details. It is computed using the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) and the L2 distance between magnitude spectra:

$$\text{Magnitude}(x) = |\mathcal{F}(x)|$$

The frequency distance is then given by:

$$\text{Frequency Distance} = \text{MSE}(|\mathcal{F}(x_1)|, |\mathcal{F}(x_2)|)$$

where $\mathcal{F}(x)$ is the FFT of image x.

4. **Mean Squared Error (MSE)** MSE quantifies the average squared difference between predicted and ground-truth pixel values:

$$\text{MSE}(x, y) = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}(x_i - y_i)^2$$

where N is the total number of pixels. MSE is widely used for training models by minimizing the reconstruction error.

These evaluation metrics collectively ensure a comprehensive assessment of model performance, capturing both perceptual quality and numerical accuracy in seismic image reconstruction and fault segmentation.

Model Training

We used Kaggle for training different models. The different approaches that we took during model training are as:

1. Training GAN using BinaryCrossEntropy loss function.
2. Training GAN using Wasserstein loss function with gradient penalty.

Hyperparameters

- Epochs : 120
- Generator Learning Rate : 0.0005

- Discriminator Learning Rate : 0.003
- VGG Weight :0.007
- Adversarial Weight :0.06
- Batch Size : 16

5.3.2 U-Net Based Fault Segmentation

The seismic fault segmentation model is built upon the U-Net architecture, a widely adopted deep learning framework for image segmentation tasks. U-Net employs an encoder-decoder structure that facilitates efficient feature extraction and precise localization of fault structures within seismic images.

1. **Encoder (Contracting Path)** The encoder consists of a series of convolutional layers designed to progressively extract high-level spatial features while reducing dimensionality. Each encoding block includes:
   - Two convolutional layers with a kernel size of 3×3, ReLU activation, and same padding to preserve spatial dimensions.
   - A max-pooling layer (2×2) to downsample feature maps, capturing hierarchical features.
   - Progressively increasing filter sizes, following the sequence: $64 \rightarrow 128 \rightarrow 256 \rightarrow 512$, ensuring a deeper representation of seismic features.
2. **Bottleneck Layer**
   The bottleneck layer acts as the bridge between the encoder and decoder, capturing high-level semantic information critical for fault segmentation. It comprises:
   - Two convolutional layers with 1024 filters, ReLU activation, and same padding to maintain spatial integrity.
3. **Decoder (Expanding Path)**
   The decoder reconstructs the segmentation mask by progressively upsampling feature maps while preserving spatial precision. It consists of:
   - Transpose convolution (up-convolution) layers to restore spatial resolution.
   - Skip connections that concatenate feature maps from corresponding encoder layers, preserving essential spatial details lost during downsampling.

- Convolutional layers with progressively decreasing filters:
  $512 \rightarrow 256 \rightarrow 128 \rightarrow 64$.
- Final output layer with a 1×1 convolution and a sigmoid activation function, generating a pixel-wise probability map for fault detection.

This structured approach enables the model to effectively identify fault structures within seismic images while maintaining high accuracy in segmentation.

Loss Function

To optimize the model for accurate fault segmentation, a hybrid loss function combining Binary Cross-Entropy (BCE) loss and Dice loss is employed:

1. **Binary Cross-Entropy (BCE):** Measures pixel-wise classification error by penalizing incorrect predictions at each pixel location.
2. **Dice Loss:** A segmentation-specific loss function that mitigates class imbalance by maximizing the overlap between predicted and ground truth masks. It is defined as:

$$\text{Dice Loss} = 1 - \frac{2 \times |A \cap B|}{|A| + |B|}$$

The combination of BCE and Dice loss ensures robust performance by balancing pixel-wise classification accuracy and global segmentation quality.

Evaluation Metrics

To assess the model's performance, the following evaluation metrics are utilized:

1. **Dice Coefficient:**
   - Measures the similarity between the predicted and ground truth segmentation masks.
   - Defined as:
   $$\text{Dice} = \frac{2 \times |A \cap B|}{|A| + |B|}$$
   - A higher Dice coefficient indicates better segmentation accuracy.
2. **Intersection over Union (IoU):**
   - Evaluates the overlap between the predicted mask and the ground truth.

- Defined as:
$$\text{IoU} = \frac{|A \cap B|}{|A \cup B|}$$
- IoU is a widely used metric in segmentation tasks, providing an interpretable measure of model performance.

By utilizing the UNet architecture with a carefully designed loss function and robust evaluation metrics, the model effectively enhances seismic fault segmentation accuracy, enabling more precise identification of subsurface geological features.

Model Training

We used our local machine for training this model.

Hyperparameters

- Epochs : 100
- Learning Rate : 0.0001
- Batch Size : 32

5.4 Programming Languages, Softwares and Services

5.4.1 Python

Python programming will be used for training and testing the machine learning model. Some of the prominent python libraries that we intend to use are:

- Matplotlib
- Numpy
- Pandas
- Keras
- Tensorflow
- OpenCV
- Pillow
- Tensorboard

5.4.2 Softwares

VS Code

Visual Studio Code (VS Code) is a highly versatile and powerful open-source code editor developed by Microsoft. It is designed to be lightweight while providing a robust set of features to support a wide range of programming and development tasks.

5.4.3 Services Used

Google Collab

Google Colab, short for Colaboratory, is a free, cloud-based platform that allows anyone to write and execute Python code through their browser. It's especially popular for machine learning, data analysis, and education, providing an accessible environment with no setup required. Colab supports collaboration in real-time, making it easy to share projects with others. Plus, it offers free access to powerful computing resources, like GPU and TPUs, speeding up computations and enabling more complex analyses. We used Google Collab to train our machine learning model since out personal devices will not be enough for the purpose.

Git and Github

Git is a version control system that allows multiple developers to work on the same codebase without conflicts, tracking changes and enabling collaboration. GitHub, on the other hand, is a web-based platform built on Git, providing a place for developers to store, manage, and share their code repositories online. It facilitates collaboration on projects, issue tracking, and code review, making it an essential tool for both open-source and private development projects.

Kaggle

Kaggle is a platform for data science and machine learning competitions. It provides datasets, competitions, and a community for data scientists and machine learning practitioners to collaborate and improve their skills. Users can participate in challenges, build and submit models, and see how their solutions stack up against others. Kaggle also offers courses and a forum for discussing data science topics. It's a great place for learning, sharing knowledge, and honing your data science skills.

Apart from the fact that we utilized the dataset from Kaggle, the platform was also equipped with super high powered GPU for model training purposes. We, trained all of our

models using the platform provided. The weekly GPU usage limit was 30hrs and was more than enough for us to utilize.

5.5 Frontend Development

The frontend part of the project is developed using React with Vite as the build tool, ensuring fast development and optimized performance. For styling, we utilized Tailwind CSS, which allowed for a utility-first and responsive design approach. React Router DOM was used to manage client-side routing and navigation across different pages of the application.

One of the key functionalities of the frontend is enabling users to upload .h5 files, which typically contain seismic data. Once a user selects a file, it is sent to the backend via a fetch API call for further processing. The backend performs both denoising and fault segmentation on the input data. After processing, the resulting image is returned to the frontend in Base64 encoded format.

Upon receiving the Base64 image string, the frontend dynamically decodes it and renders the corresponding image in the designated display section of the web application.

5.6 Backend Development

The backend of the application was developed using the Django REST Framework. The backend exposes a single API endpoint that accepts .h5 files uploaded from the frontend. Upon receiving the file, the backend view handles the complete processing pipeline, including denoising and fault segmentation of the seismic data. Once the seismic image has been processed, it is converted into a Base64 encoded image and returned as a response to the frontend. To ensure smooth and efficient communication between the frontend and backend during development and testing, port forwarding was used, which allow direct access to backend services running on different hosts.By performing all computationally intensive tasks on the backend, the system ensures efficient processing and keeps the frontend lightweight.

6. System design

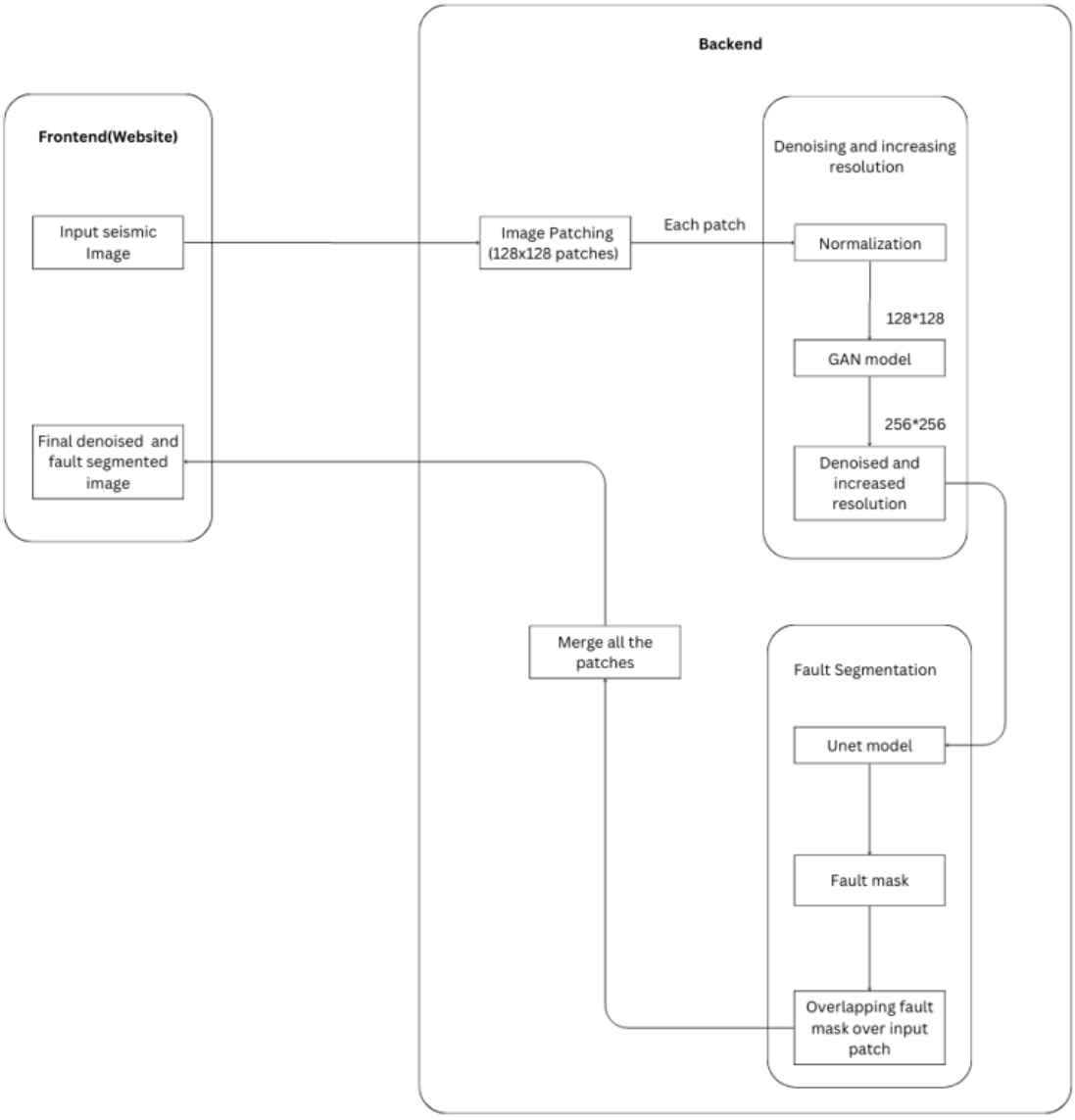

Figure 6.1: System Block Diagram

7. Results and Discussions

7.1 Results

7.1.1 For denoising and super resolution

GAN with Binary Crossentropy loss function

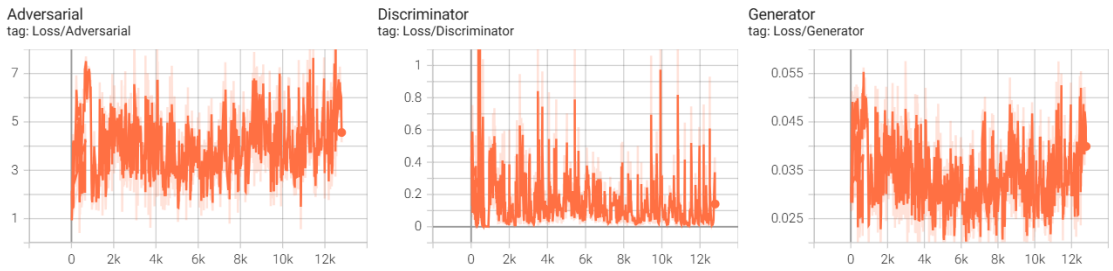

Figure 7.1: GAN using Binary Crossentropy loss function

GAN with Wasserstein loss function and gradient penalty

Discriminator and Generator Loss

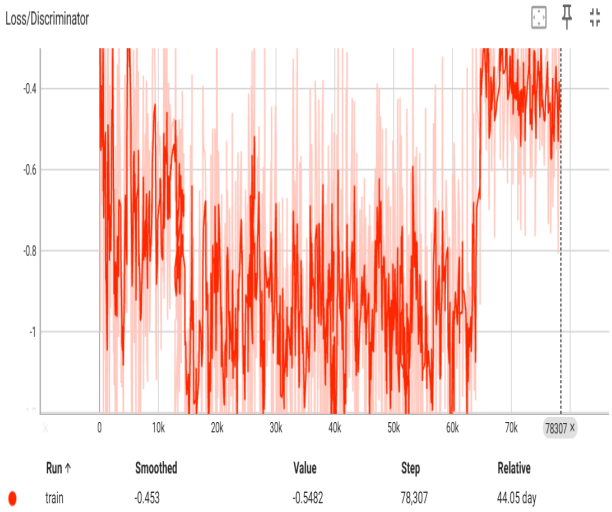

Figure 7.2: Discriminator Loss

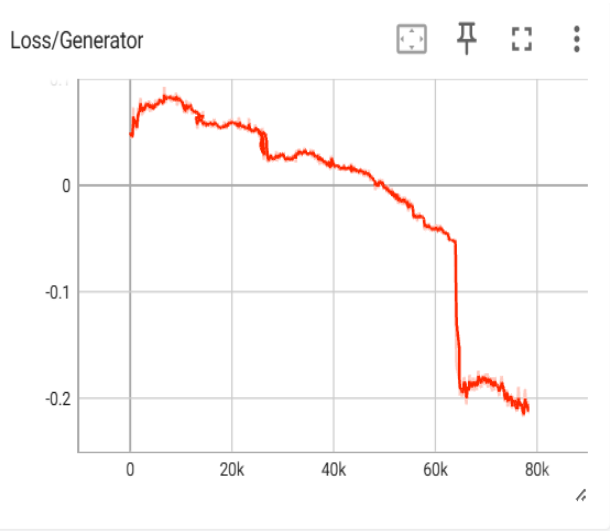

Figure 7.3: Generator Loss

MSE

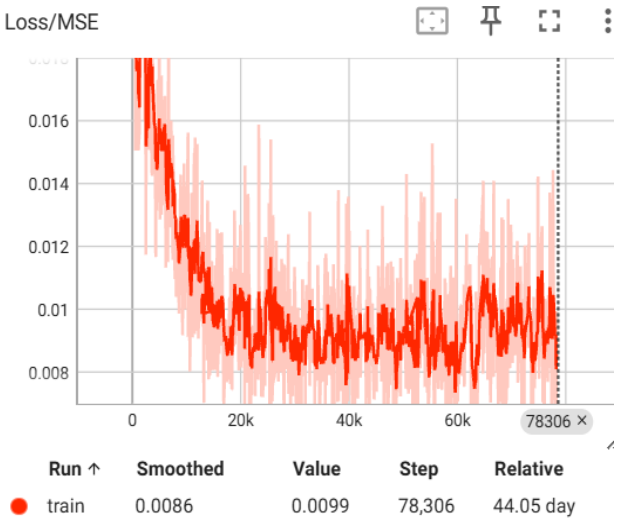

Figure 7.4: MSE training

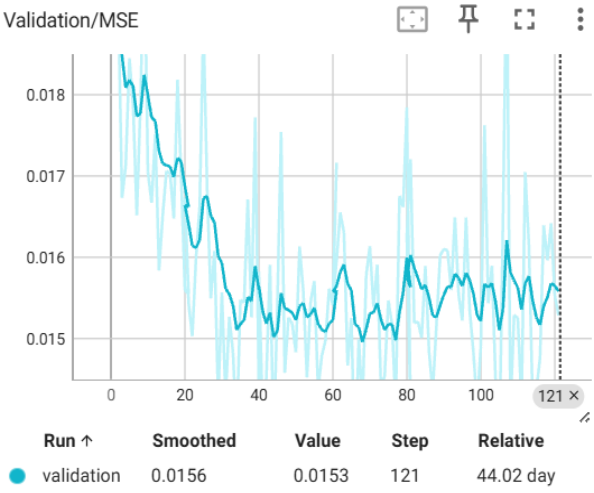

Figure 7.5: MSE Validation

VGG Loss

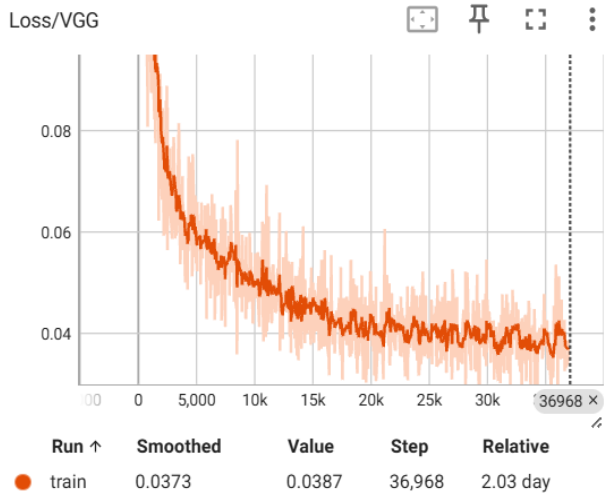

Figure 7.6: VGG$_L OSStraining$

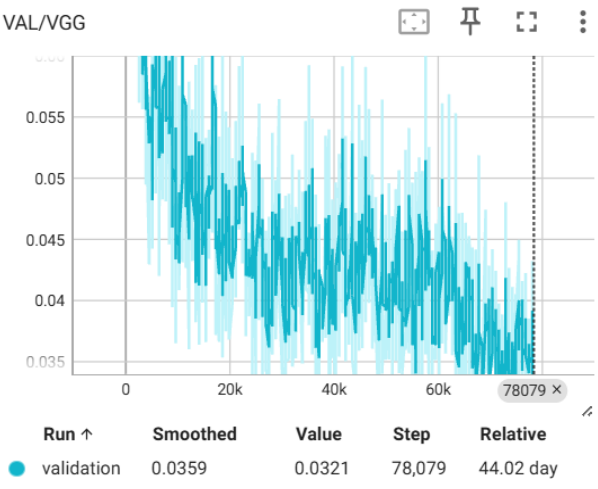

Figure 7.7: VGG$_L OSSValidation$

SSIM and PSNR

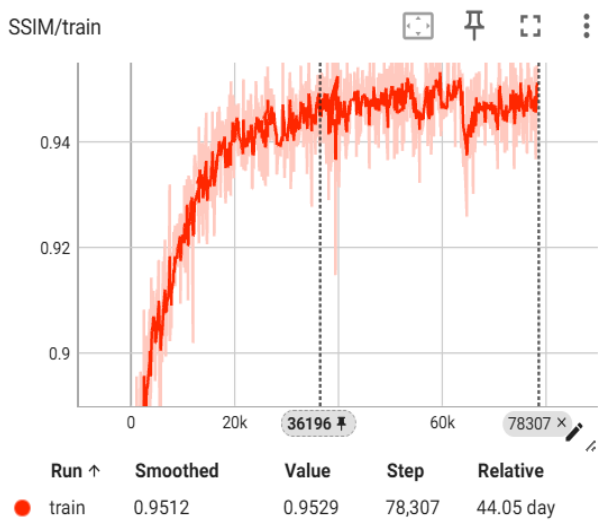

Figure 7.8: SSIM

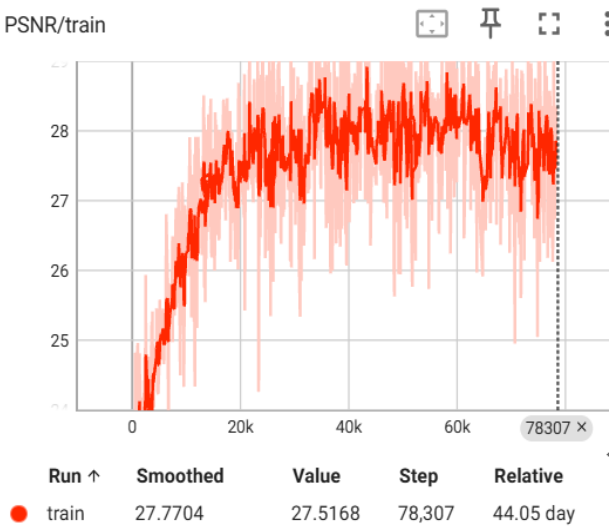

Figure 7.9: PSNR

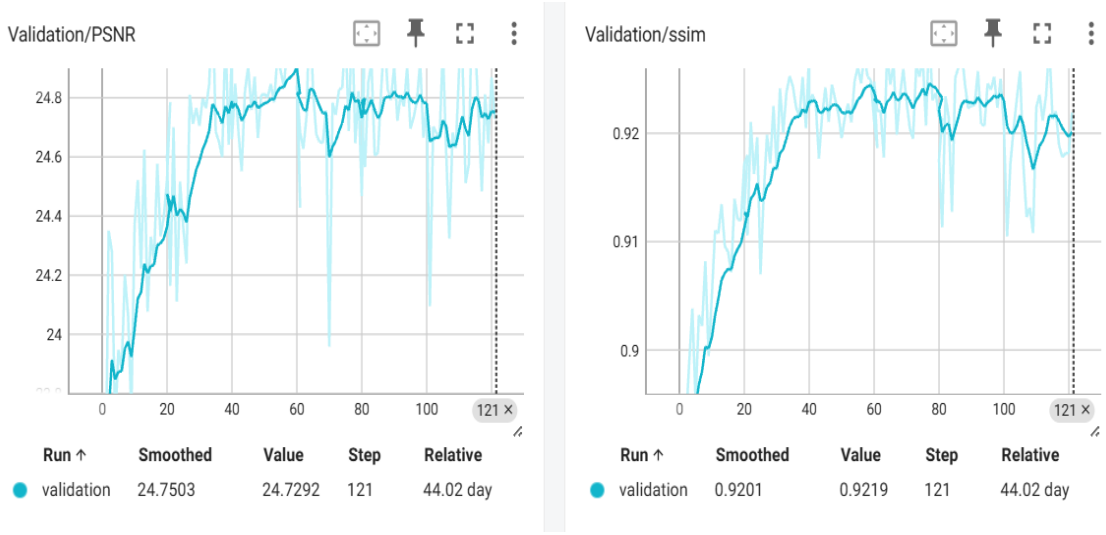

Figure 7.10: Validation PSNR and SSIM

Test PSNR and SSIM

7.1.2 Fault segmentation using U-Net

IOU metric and dice coefficient

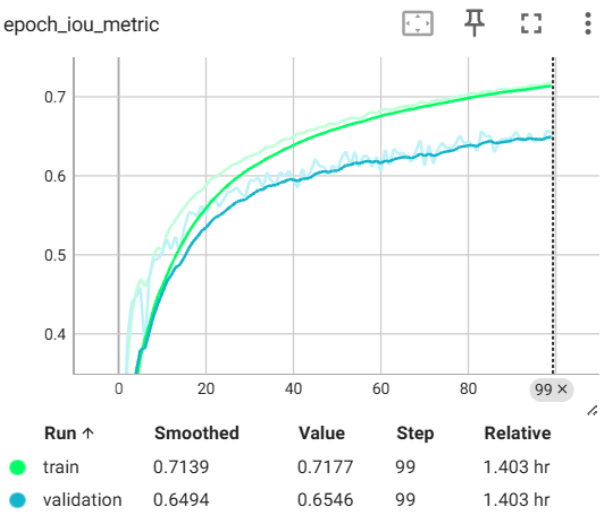

Figure 7.11: IOU metric

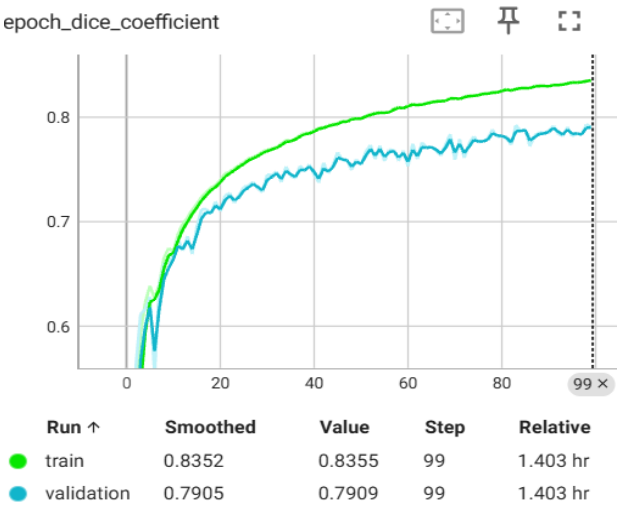

Figure 7.12: Dice coefficient

Fault loss

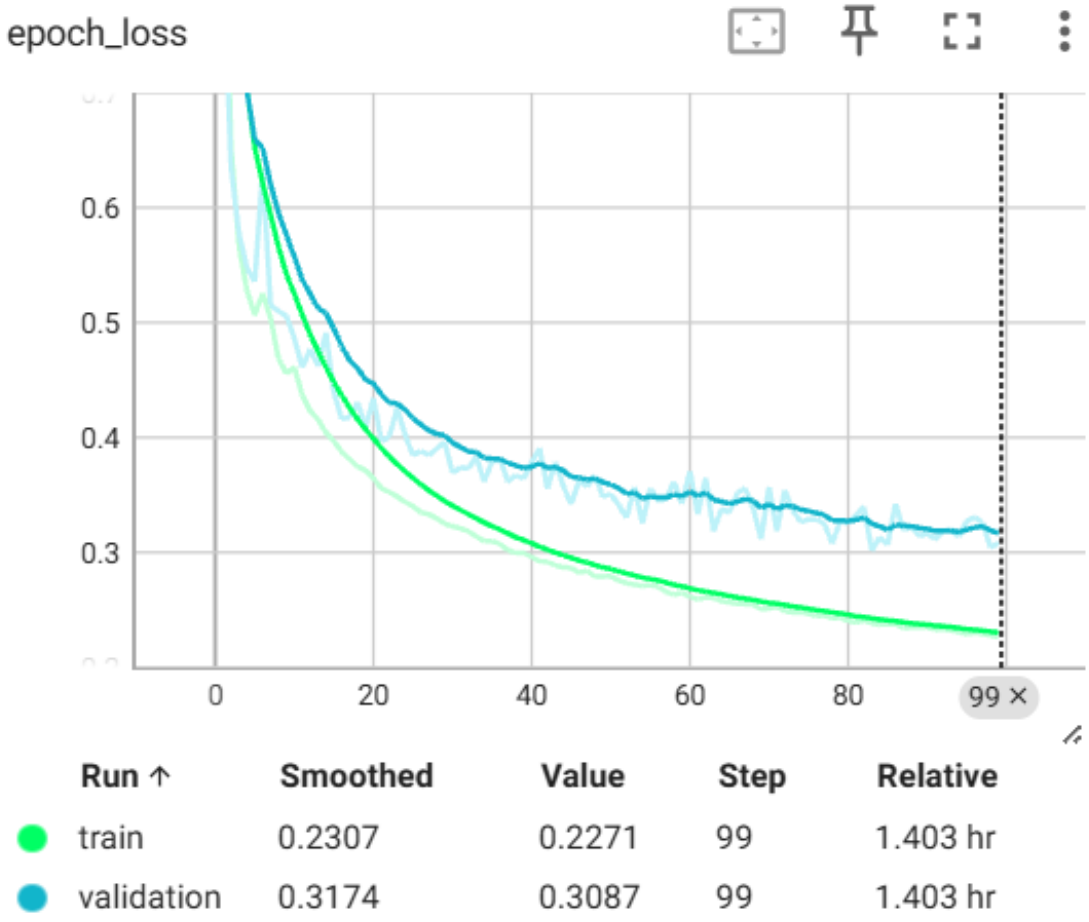

Figure 7.13: Fault Loss

Output

On synthetic test data

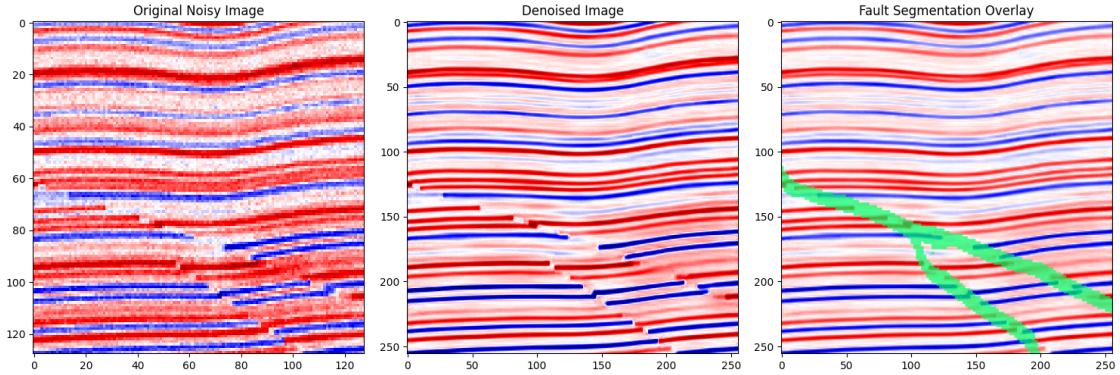

Figure 7.14: Output 1

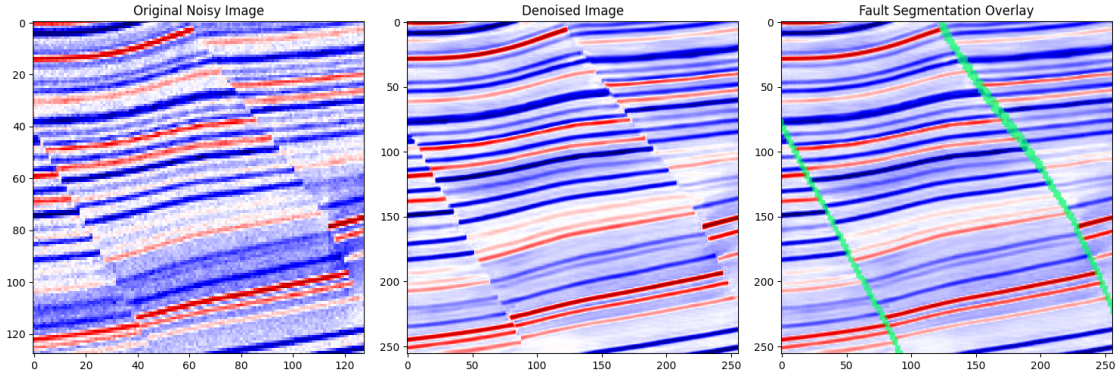

Figure 7.15: Output 2

On real data

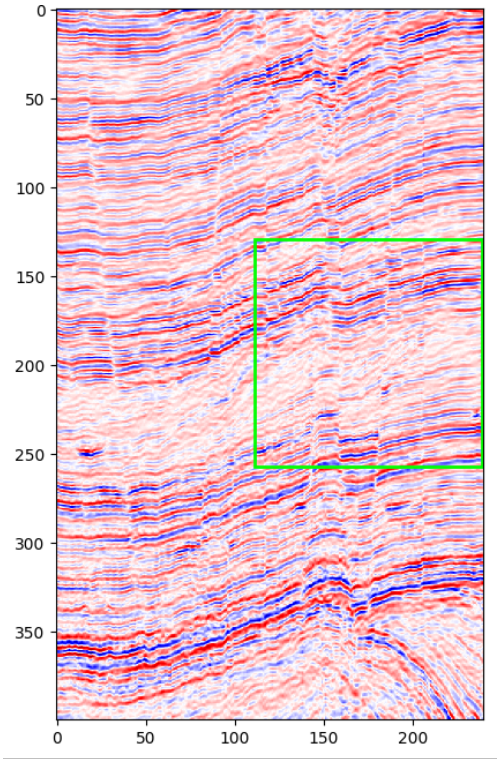

Figure 7.16: Taking out patches from original image

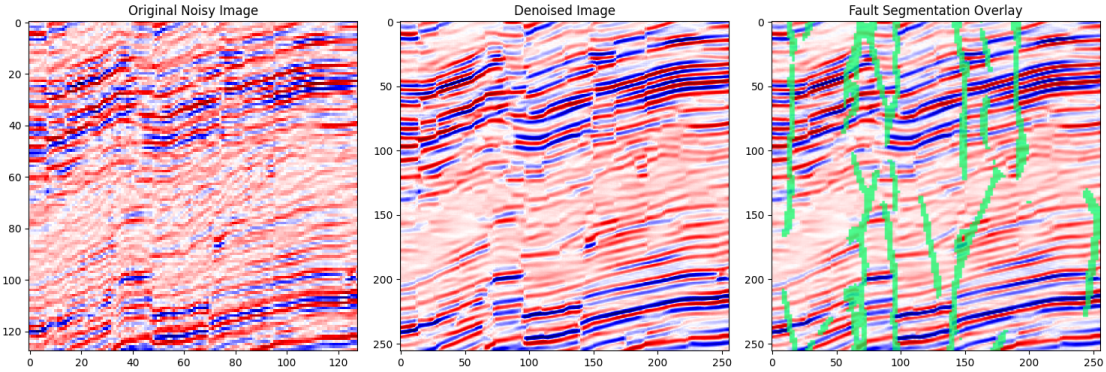

Figure 7.17: Output of the patch from above figure

7.2 Discussions

Our project focused on enhancing seismic image quality and segmenting the fault lines through deep learning approaches. The denoising and super-resolution tasks were handled using a GAN-based model, while fault segmentation was done using a U-Net model. First

BCE-based GAN was used but it was very unstable during training so WGAN was used. Significant improvement were seen in stability during training time.

In the case of denoising, the GAN model was trained on synthetic seismic datasets and evaluated using standard image quality metrics such as Mean Squared Error (MSE), Structural Similarity Index Measure (SSIM), Peak Signal-to-Noise Ratio (PSNR), and VGG loss. During training, the model achieved an MSE of 0.0086, indicating a low average pixel-wise error between the denoised and ground truth images. The SSIM score reached 0.9512, suggesting a high level of structural similarity and visual fidelity in the reconstructed images. A PSNR value of 27.77 further confirms the quality of reconstruction, as higher PSNR values typically represent better preservation of image details and less distortion. Additionally, the VGG loss was relatively low at 0.0373, reflecting the model's ability to generate visually realistic outputs.

On the validation dataset, the model maintained robust performance with an MSE of 0.0156 and an SSIM of 0.9201. While the PSNR slightly dropped to 24.75, the results still indicate a strong ability of the GAN to generalize well beyond the training data. These findings show that the GAN model not only preserved fine structures but also produced denoised outputs that were visually consistent with the original clean seismic images. Importantly, the use of Wasserstein loss with gradient penalty helped achieve stable training and avoided common issues such as mode collapse, resulting in smoother convergence and higher-quality outputs.

For the task of fault segmentation, the U-Net model was trained and tested on labeled synthetic seismic images. The model's performance was analyzed using metrics like loss, Intersection over Union (IoU), and Dice coefficient. During training, the segmentation loss decreased to 0.2307, while the validation loss remained reasonably low at 0.3172, indicating effective learning. The IoU score—representing the overlap between predicted and actual fault regions—reached 0.7139 on the training set and 0.6494 on the validation set. These values suggest that the model was able to accurately localize and delineate faults, even when tested on previously unseen data.

Moreover, the Dice coefficient, which balances precision and recall in binary segmentation tasks, achieved a value of 0.833 on training data and 0.7909 on validation data. This high Dice score reflects the model's strong ability to identify fault structures with minimal false positives or negatives

7.3 Future Enhancement

One of the major directions for future enhancement is extending the current approach from 2D seismic images to 3D seismic volumes. Processing 3D data would provide more

contextual information of subsurface structures, leading to better interpretation and analysis in real-world geological studies.

Adapting the existing pipeline for 3D volumes involves modifying the model architecture, updating data handling processes, and optimizing performance to manage the increased computational load. While this adds complexity, it holds significant potential for improving the accuracy and reliability of seismic denoising, super-resolution, and fault segmentation tasks in practical applications

7.4 Conclusion

In this report, we have explored the use of deep learning techniques for seismic image denoising, super-resolution, and fault segmentation. The denoising and super-resolution tasks were addressed using a GAN-based model, which demonstrated solid performance on synthetic seismic data, as evidenced by metrics like MSE, SSIM, PSNR, and VGG loss. The model successfully reconstructed clearer images with strong structural accuracy and good detail preservation. On real seismic data, the model performed reasonably well but showed potential for improvement, especially in handling more complex noise patterns. With further training and more diverse data, the GAN model's ability to generalize and improve image reconstruction can be enhanced.

For fault segmentation, the U-Net model achieved good results on both synthetic and real seismic data. The model was able to accurately identify fault structures in real-world seismic images, with performance metrics like IoU and Dice coefficient indicating strong segmentation capabilities. However, there is still room for improvements, particularly in refining the model's consistency across diverse real-world datasets. With additional fine-tuning, data augmentation, and hyperparameter adjustments, the fault segmentation model's performance on real seismic data can be further enhanced.

Overall, both models have shown encouraging results and have the potential for reliable application in real seismic image processing. With further refinements, especially in generalization to real-world conditions, these models can achieve even better performance in practical geological analysis.

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