

2D Seismic Data Classification using Convolutional Neural Network and 2D Synthetic Data

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Abstract

The following paper looks at classifying 2-dimensional seismic data extracted from South African geo-location using a Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) that is trained with synthetic data. The purpose of this paper illustrates the difficulties in working with seismic data and the precision needed for automating feature extraction within the CNN architecture in order to achieve a 90%. The CNN architecture is mainly constructed using 2D convolutional and max-pooling layers.

Keywords: 2D Seismic Data, Convolutional Neural Network, Synthetic Data

1. Introduction

In the recent years, Artificial Intelligence (AI) has grown exponentially and is applied to various disciplines and it is no surprise that it has found its way into amongst geologists in the geology field. Given that geologists work with large quantities of geological data to map both the surface of the earth and the mapping of faults below the surface, there is an enormous data and potential for AI. The traditional method of interpreting subsurface data includes manual fault picking and horizons on section, which is then followed by qualitative enhancements [1]. The qualitative enhancement techniques involve structurally-oriented semblance, tensor, dip, and etc. for highlighting the fault structure within the subsurface seismic dataset [1].

This paper addresses alternative approaches for classifying seismic data using Artificial Intelligence and more specifically, using the Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) for classifying 2D seismic image data. The objective of the proposed technique is to detect whether there is intersecting fault or

16 none-intersecting within 2D seismic data. The paper is structured in such a
 17 manner where Section 2 gives a brief background of the techniques used in
 18 the proposed technique. Section 4 describes the methodology and the process
 19 of achieving the results addressed in Section 5 before finally concluding in
 20 Section 7.

21 2. Background

22 2.1. Convolutional Neural Network

23 The Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) is a subsidiary of supervised
 24 technique within in the deep learning field. It is commonly employed for
 25 image classification purposes due to its exceptional ability to purpose image
 26 analysis using the mathematical convolutional operation and obtaining high
 27 classification accuracies [2, 3]. Due to the CNN’s high classification accu-
 28 racy, it has been utilised within multiple fields including the geological realm
 29 for earthquake detection and location [4], seismic inversions [5], and fault
 30 detection [6, 7].

31 Given that the CNN is a supervised neural network, it learns images fea-
 32 tures based in order to form an end-to-end model with the trained parameters
 33 through the gradient descent method. Therefore, the CNN model makes use
 34 of connected weights within the network as a form of sharing “knowledge”
 35 and reducing the number of training parameters, and as a result also reducing
 36 redundant complexity [3, 8]. In general, the first few layers of the CNN archi-
 37 tecture consists of convolution and pooling layers, whilst the layers following
 38 there after are fully-connected network [3, 9].

39 The training of the CNN is conducted mainly using both back- and for-
 40 ward propagation algorithms to adjust the weights of the neurons based on
 41 the given training data. The objective of the back-propagation algorithm is
 42 to adjust the weights to minimise loss based on the network’s overall outcome
 43 and the target. The network’s overall outcome is obtained using the forward
 44 propagation. The back-propagation loss function, $E(W, b)$ is expressed in (1)
 45 as the Mean Squared Error (MSE).

$$E(W, b) = \frac{1}{|Y|} \sum_{i=1}^{|Y|} (Y(i) - \bar{Y}(i))^2, \quad (1)$$

46 where W is the weight value and b is the bias value. Both the weight
 47 value, W and bias value, b are updated during the back-propagation training

48 according to (2) and (3), respectively.

$$W_i = W_i - \eta \frac{\partial E(W, b)}{\partial W_i} \quad (2)$$

$$b_i = b_i - \eta \frac{\partial E(W, b)}{\partial b_i}, \quad (3)$$

49 where η is the learning rate.

50 3. Literature Review

51 Wu, X. et al. performed image-to-image binary fault detection using a
 52 fully-supervised CNN [6]. The authors made use of 3D seismic images which
 53 where labelled with ones for fault and zeros elsewhere. The CNN model was
 54 trained with 200 3D synthetic seismic images with a $128 \times 128 \times 128$ dimension
 55 for each fault and non-fault category. The training of the neural network was
 56 performed on a TITAN Xp GPU which took the authors approximately 2
 57 hours to train. The authors validated the network with 20 pairs of unseen
 58 synthetic image data, in which the network achieved a 95% classification
 59 accuracy. The generated synthetic data consists of faults at varying angles,
 60 specially at 90° , 180° , and 270° . Additionally, the authors applied the trained
 61 CNN to detect faults on surveyed 3D data from four different locations,
 62 namely the Netherlands off-shore data, Clyde Petroleum Plc., Costa Rica
 63 margin North West of Osa Peninsula, and Campos Basin which is off-shore
 64 of Brazil.

65 Zheng, Y. et al. presents two separate case studies involving supervised
 66 deep learning as an alternative for the conventional techniques in seismic
 67 data interpretation and inversion [10]. In the first case study, the authors
 68 apply the CNN for seismic image classification as a way of interpretation.
 69 The CNN is trained with 3D seismic volumes, such that images are classi-
 70 fied into two categories, namely, fault and non-fault. The fault data consists
 71 of certain dips as well as azimuth, which are distinguishing features in the
 72 data considered as faults. In the second case study, the authors present an
 73 elastic model building, in which a CNN is trained to perform predictions
 74 of 1D velocity and density profiles within the given seismic data. In both
 75 case studies, the authors have trained the CNN models using synthetic data
 76 and tested the models on survey field data. The authors have found that
 77 both CNN models obtained effective and efficient predictions when testing

on field data, therefore showing high-quality fault picks. However, challenges are presented when the authors worked with pre-stacked seismic inversions, where subsurface geological variations and preconditioning of the input seismic data plays an important factor in the ability of the CNN models to perform accurate predictions.

The author, Zhao, T. presents an encoder-decoder CNN model for seismic facies classification [11]. The architecture of the encoder-decoder CNN model consists of an encoding component, in which the input data given to the model is reduced and a decoding component, whereby the reduced data is then expanded once again. The purpose of the encoding component is to reduce the input data such that only the significant portions of the input data is kept, whilst the decoding component further highlights and expands on the significant data such that contributing noise within the input data is removed. This allows for enhanced fault predictions in seismic faces. Additionally, the author has compared the presented CNN model to the architecture of the more traditional patch-base CNN model, in which the author found that the patch-base CNN model requires less training effort compared to the encoder-decoder CNN model, however the patch-based CNN produced suboptimal predictions compared to the encoder-decoder CNN.

Di, H et al. introduces a CNN model for the application of salt-body delineation from 3D seismic data [12]. The authors have found the implementation of the CNN model is far more superior when compared to the traditional schemes of sample-based multi-attribute classification. The implemented CNN model takes the local seismic patterns which are distinguishing features within the target salt-body. Furthermore the CNN allows for optimal mapping relationship between the seismic signals and the salt-bodies, and as a result it does not require laborious manual attribute selection as performed in the traditional classification schemes. The CNN model was trained using synthetic data from the SEG-SEAM dataset.

Xiong, W. et al. developed a method which employs the CNN to automate and map fault detection in 3D seismic images to mimic the traditional approach by interpreters. The CNN is trained with image cubes obtained from field data which are labelled as either fault or non-fault. The trained CNN is then applied to unseen field data to predict the fault probabilities at every location with given cube images. The authors have been able to obtain a 99% classification accuracy using the trained CNN.

114 4. Methodology

115 The technique consists of two processes. The first process is training the
 116 CNN and the second is applying the trained CNN to unseen 2D seismic data
 117 extracted from South African geological sub-surfaces. The two processes are
 118 illustrated in Figure 1, in which the training process is depicted on the left
 and the testing process on the right.

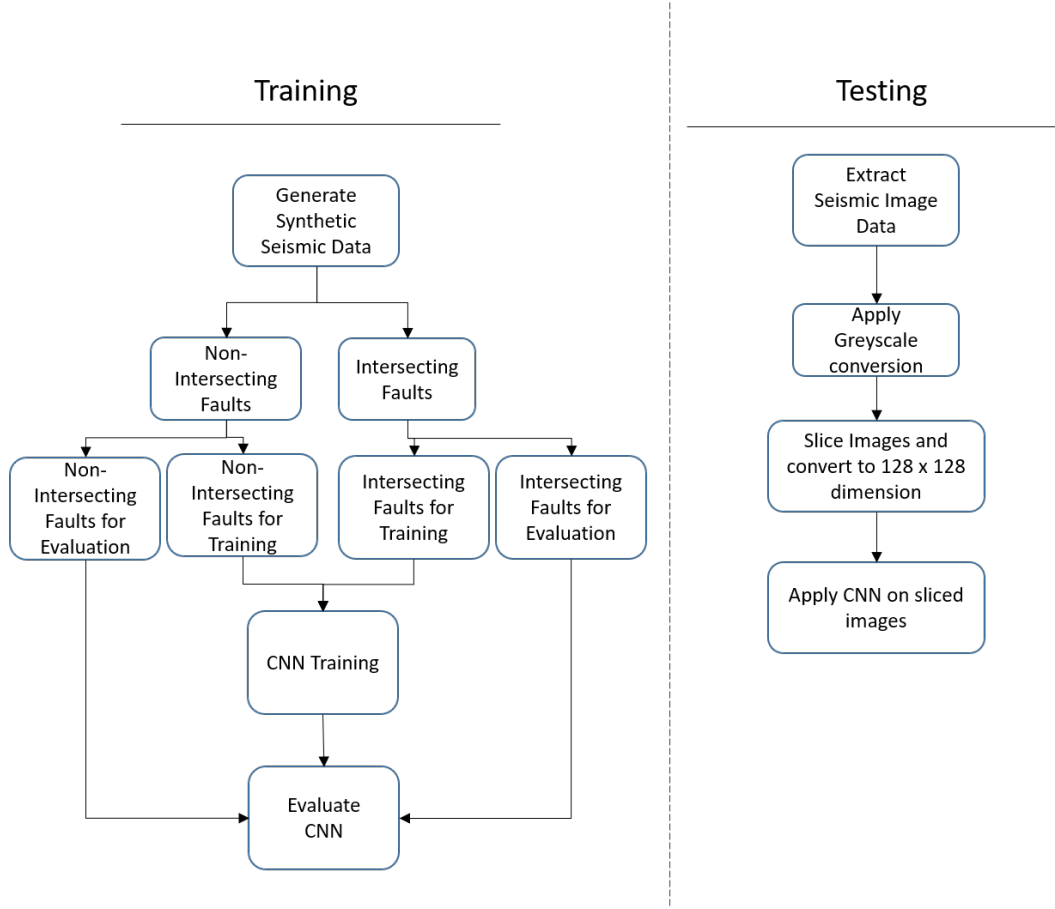


Figure 1: Diagrams illustrating the training and testing processes involving the Convolutional Neural Network.

119

120 4.1. Training Images

121 The data used for training the CNN is taken from <https://github.com/xinwucwp/faultSeg>, whereby the data is given as 3D $128 \times 128 \times 128$
 122

123 seismic data, which is generated by Wu, X. et al [6]. The data is transformed
 124 from 3D to 2D, by taking slices of the 3D block to generate 2D 128×128
 125 seismic data. From the synthetic data, only the seismic data which has
 126 intersecting and none-intersecting faults are selected. Figures in 2 and 3
 127 illustrates the training data. Both images 2(b) and 3(b) are not used as part
 128 of the training data, however are used to assist in the labelling of intersecting
 129 and non-intersecting fault data. A total of 350 seismic images are used in
 130 each category for the training of the CNN.

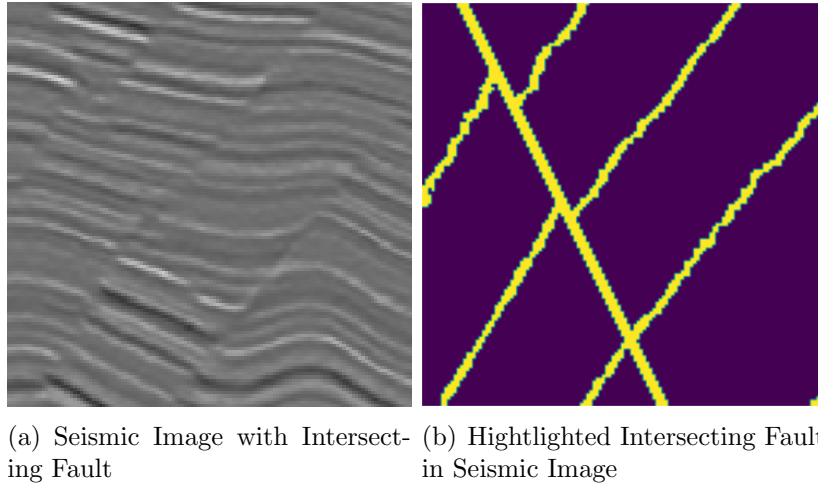


Figure 2: Images illustrating the Intersecting Seismic Data and Highlighted Faults in the Seismic image.

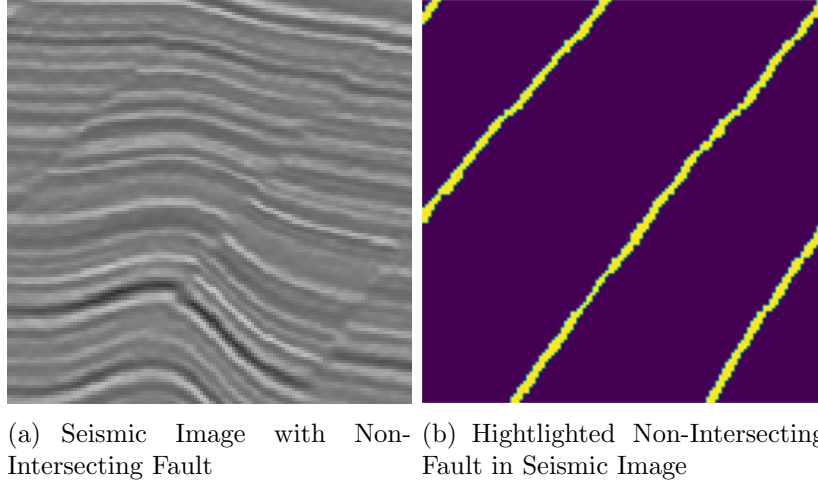


Figure 3: Images illustrating the Non-Intersecting Seismic Data and Highlighted Faults in the Seismic image.

131 4.2. Convolutional Neural Network Architecture

132 The CNN is comprised of three distinct layers excluding the input and
 133 output layer, namely 2D convolutional, max pooling and fully connected
 134 layers. There are a total of four hidden layers in the neural network ar-
 135 chitecture. The 2D convolutional layer makes use of the Rectified Linear
 136 Unit (Relu) function. Figure 4 shows the detailed architecture of CNN. The
 137 CNN is trained with 25 epochs. Figure 5 shows the accuracy and validation
 138 accuracy of the CNN at each epoch.

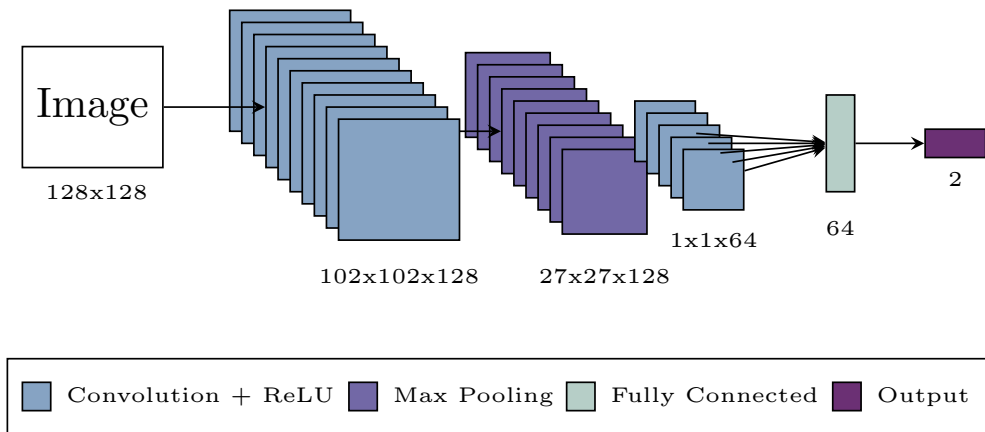


Figure 4: Figure illustrating the architecture of the Convolutional Neural Network

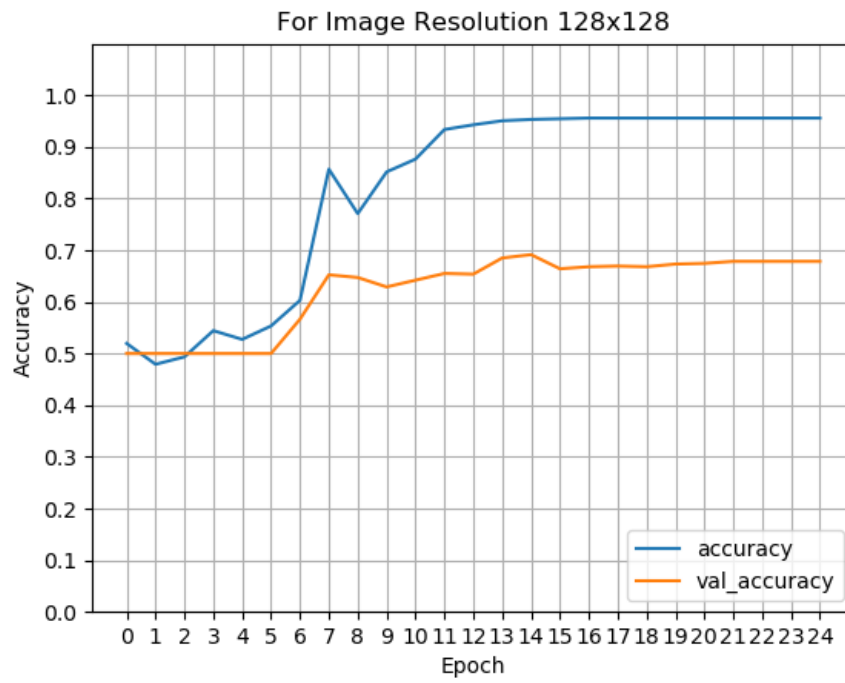


Figure 5: Figure illustrating accuracy of the CNN at each epoch

139 *4.3. Seismic Data Testing*

140 The seismic testing data consists of surface and edge detected images of
141 the orebody. The two image considered as shown in Figures 6 and 7, in which
142 both images are taken from a South African gold mine.

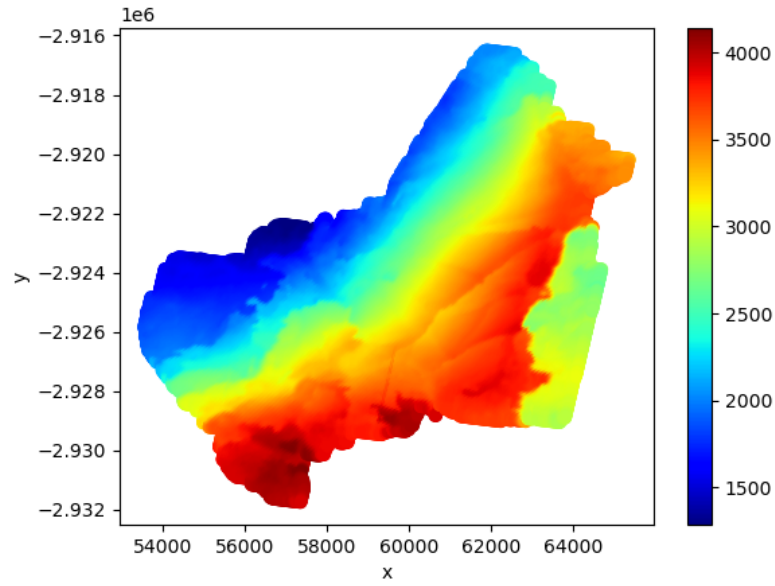


Figure 6: Figure illustrating the orebody surface extracted from a gold mine.

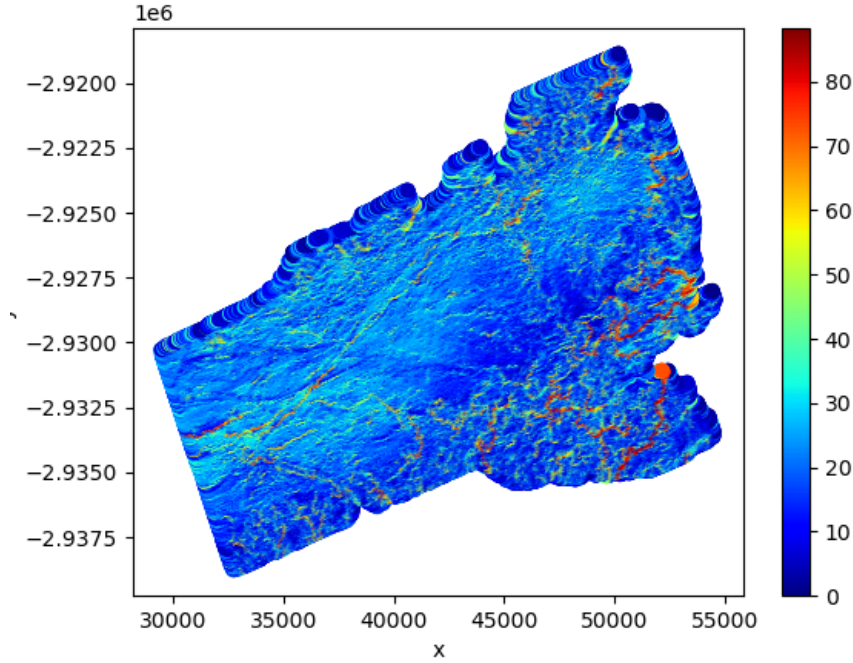


Figure 7: Figure illustrating the orebody surface with highlighted edges extracted from a gold mine.

Figure 7 has been further processed in order for the fault edges to be highlighted. A closer and more detailed illustration of both Figures 6 and 7 are shown in Figures 12(a) and 12(b). The detailed images are generated through the process of slicing the original seismic image data. The process is illustrated in Figure 10, whereby the process consists of converting the original image into greyscale, followed by slicing the images into equal segments before finally resizing the segmented images to images with the dimensions of 128×128 , using the k-nearest neighbour method. In addition to the gold mine image data, image data taken from oil and gas mines are considered when testing the CNN model, which is illustrated in Figure 13.

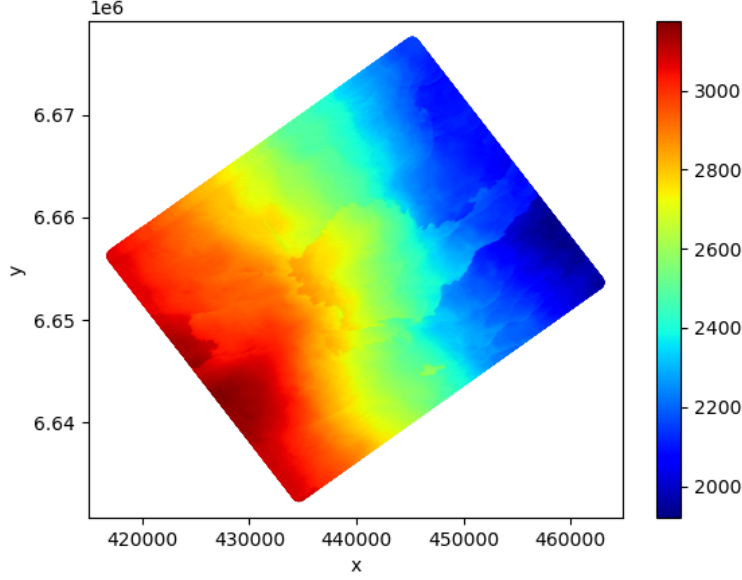


Figure 8: Figure illustrating the orebody surface extracted from an oil and gas mine.

153 5. Results

154 The segmented images from the different mines are fed into the CNN. The
 155 results of the CNN are shown in the following section for the datasets from
 156 gold, and oil and gas mines. Figures 15 and 16 illustrates the classification of
 157 crossing faults (“x”) and none-crossing faults (“none-x”) are present in the
 158 surface orebody image and highlighted edge image, respectively.

159 The result of the CNN for Figure 15 indicates that the CNN has classified
 160 the surface image data as being an image with crossing faults based in the
 161 training of the CNN, in which the classification is based on a 53% assurance.
 162 This shows that CNN identifies 47% of none-crossing faults within the given
 163 image. However since there are more crossing faults presented, the image is
 164 classified in the category of having crossing faults.

165 Figure 16 shows the result of the CNN for highlighted edges for data
 166 taken in a gold mine. With the highlighted edges the CNN can distinctively
 167 identify with 99% confidence that the image is categorised as having crossing
 168 faults, whilst there is still a 1% chance that there is non-crossing faults within
 169 the section of data.

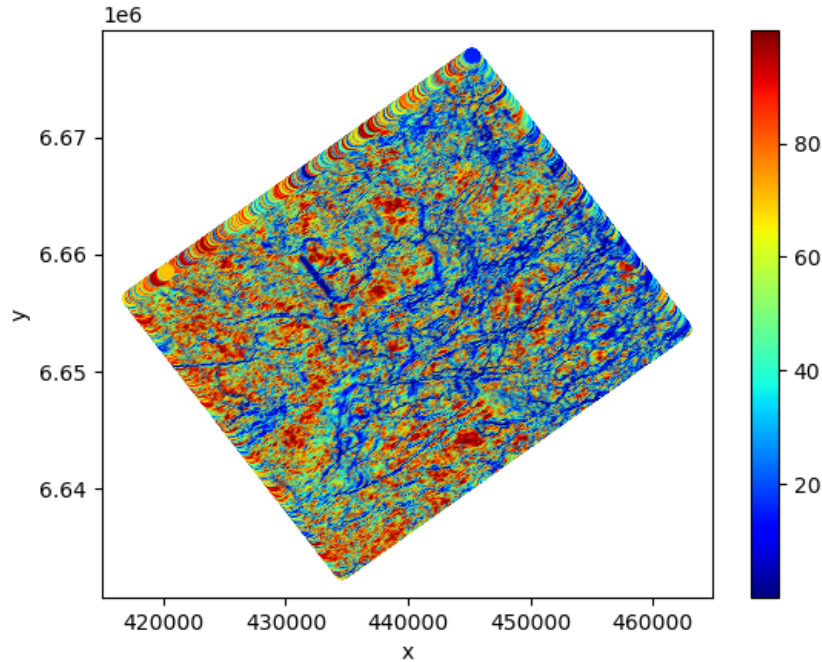


Figure 9: Figure illustrating the orebody surface with highlighted edges extracted from an oil and gas.

For the surface data taken from oil and gas mines, Figure 17 shows that the CNN has a 71% confidence in classifying the given image as having none-crossing faults, whilst having a 29% chance of having crossing faults within the image. These crossing faults are difficult to identify with the naked eye. However, it is presented in the bottom right corner within the image.

The classification of the highlighted edge image for the gas and oil mine data is similar to that of the gold mine shown in Figure 18. The CNN is 97% confident in classifying the given image as having crossing faults.

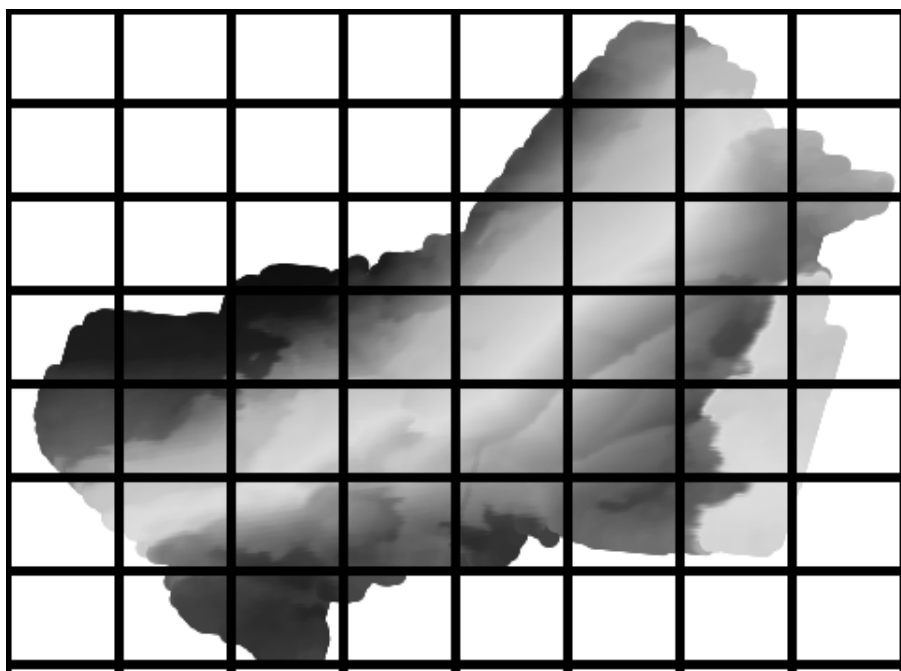


Figure 10: Slicing process of gold mine seismic image data for Figure 6.

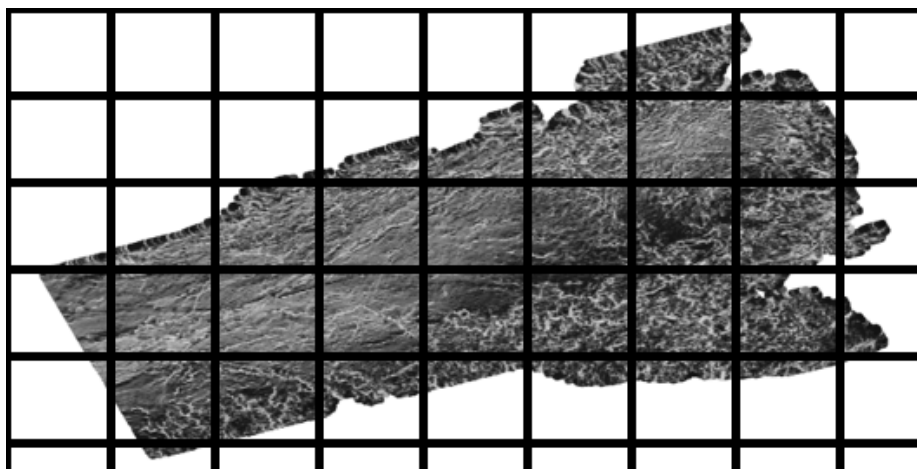


Figure 11: Slicing process of gold mine seismic image data for Figure 6.

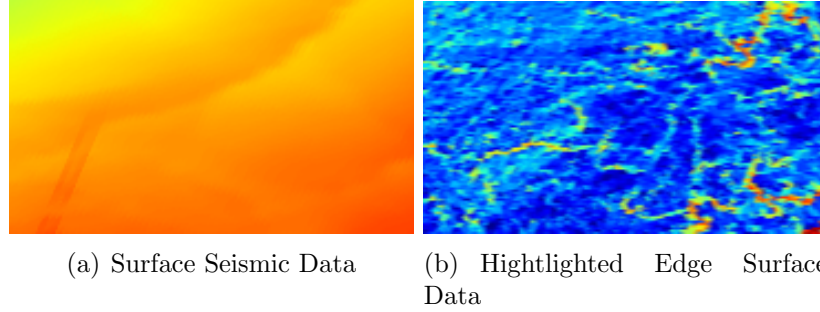


Figure 12: Images illustrating both seismic orebody surface and highlighted edge surface data taken from two different gold mines.

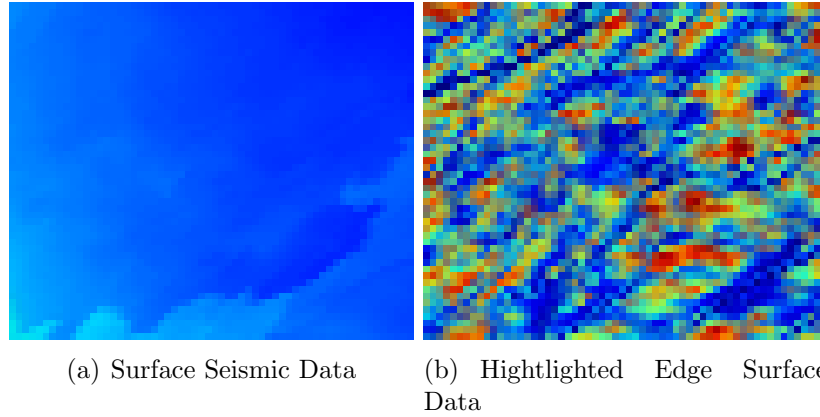


Figure 13: Images illustrating both seismic orebody surface and highlighted edge surface data taken from an oil and gas mine.

178 6. Application

179 The results of the CNN in the classification of images with crossing and
 180 non-crossing faults are promising as discussed in Section 5. Therefore, the
 181 CNN can be applied to a set of data, in which it the areas of the image are
 182 segmented into a number of images. This is illustrated in Figure 19. The
 183 segmented images are then fed into the CNN to determine areas that consist
 184 of a high density of intersecting faults, whilst all background images that
 185 holds little to no information about the image data are disregarded.

186 The process depicted in Figure 19 is applied to the Figure 6 to deter-
 187 mine the density of intersecting faults within the seismic data. The density
 188 of intersecting faults is measured by the confidence level of the CNN in its

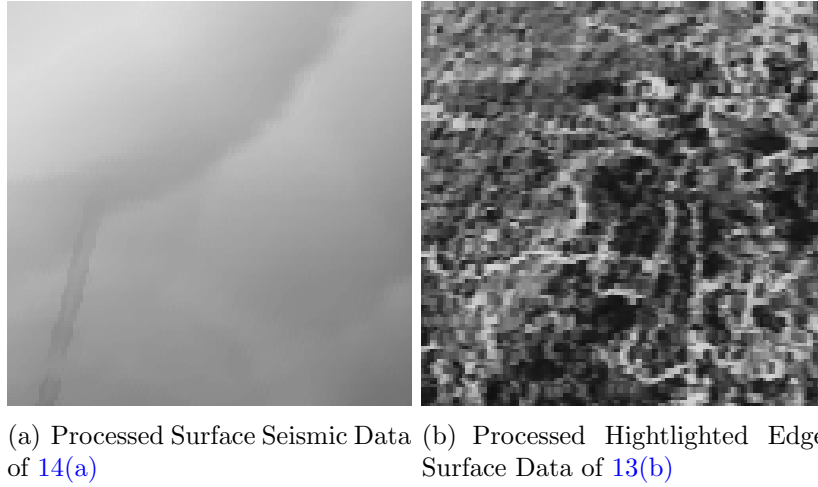


Figure 14: Images illustrating both the processed seismic orebody surface and highlighted edge surface data.

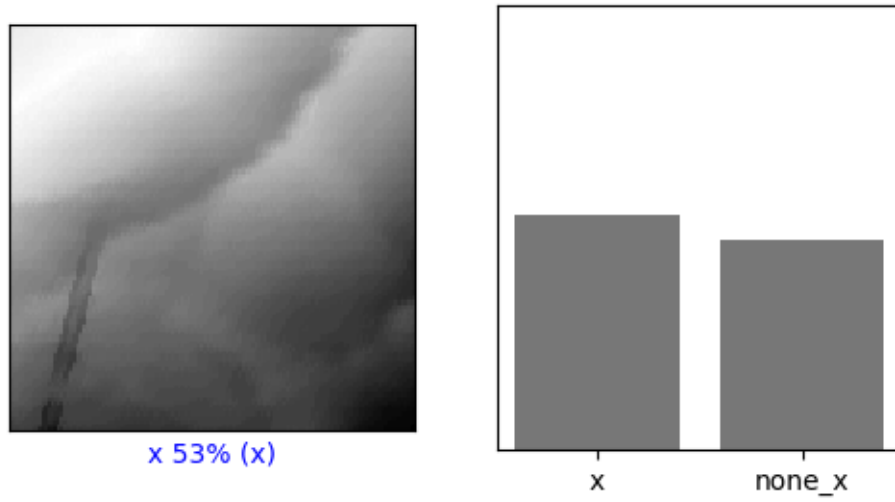


Figure 15: Figure illustrating the CNN classification result of Figure 14(a)

189 prediction of whether the segmented image is classified into the intersect-
 190 ing and non-intersecting fault categories. The measurement is based on the
 191 training of the CNN model, therefore a higher confidence in category predic-

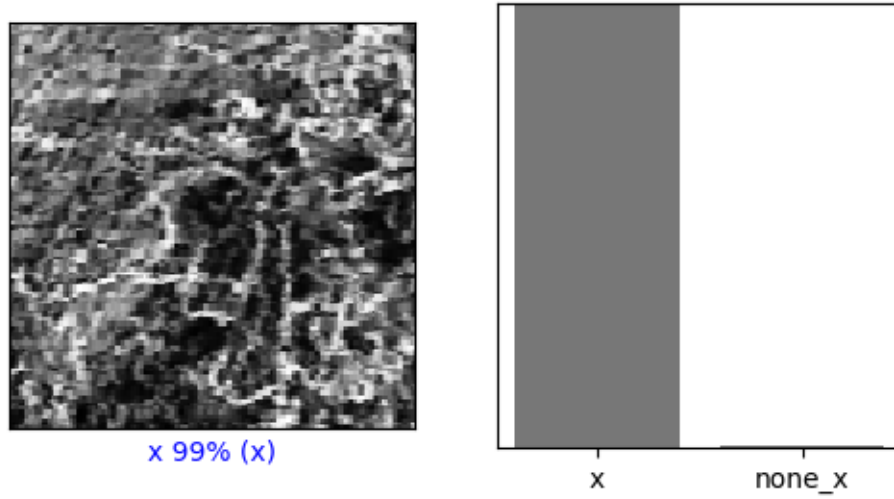


Figure 16: Figure illustrating the CNN classification result of Figure 14(b)

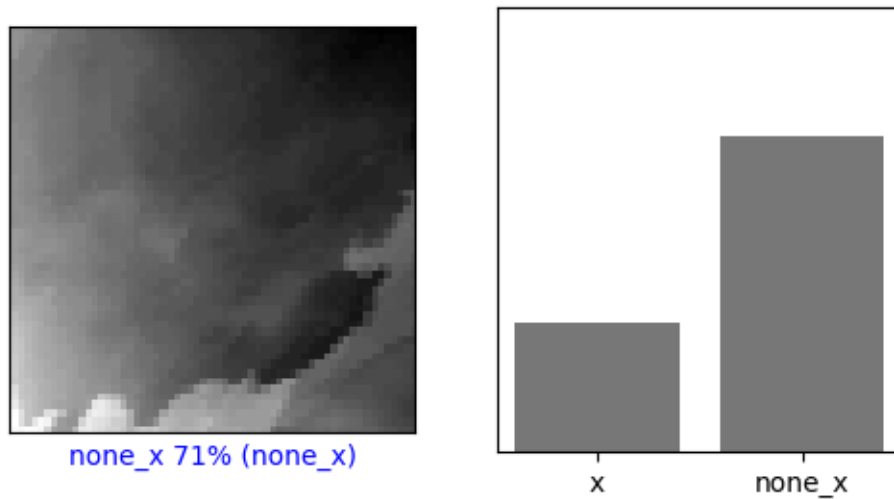


Figure 17: Figure illustrating the CNN classification result of Figure ??

tion shows that there is a higher likelihood of high density of the predicted
category. The prediction results shown in Figure 20 indicate that there is a

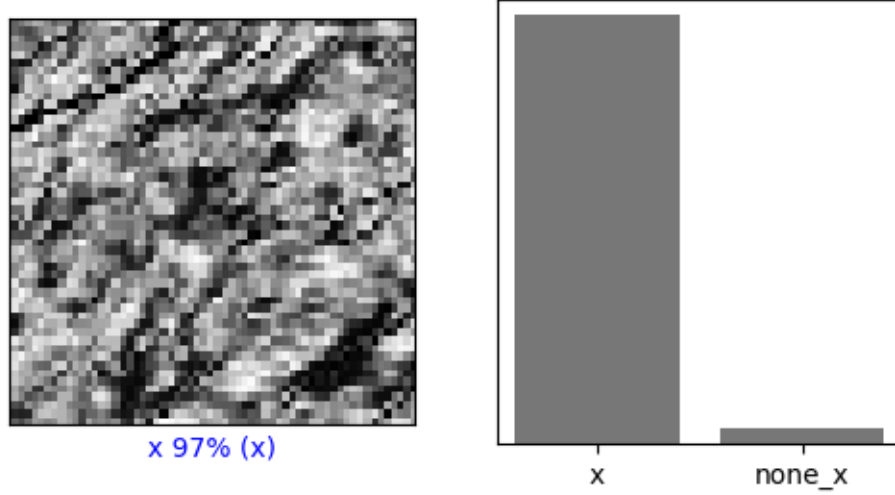


Figure 18: Figure illustrating the CNN classification result of Figure ??

low density of intersecting faults in majority of the surface image segments of Figure 6, whilst there is a single segment with 81% confidence for classifying the image segment in the intersecting fault category.

The results shown in Figure 21 is generated from Figure 7. The results show more certainty in classification by the CNN in comparison to the results shown in Figure 20. Therefore, with the highlighted edges provides additional information to the CNN model for classification purposes. However, it must be noted that the texture of within Figure 7 is similar to the training images used in the training of the CNN, in which this is a contributing factor to the increased decisiveness in categorising the image segments into intersecting and non-intersecting categories. Whereas, the texture in Figure 6 has a smooth texture in comparison to Figure 7, therefore the results presented show a more indecisive prediction in the 50% to 60% range.

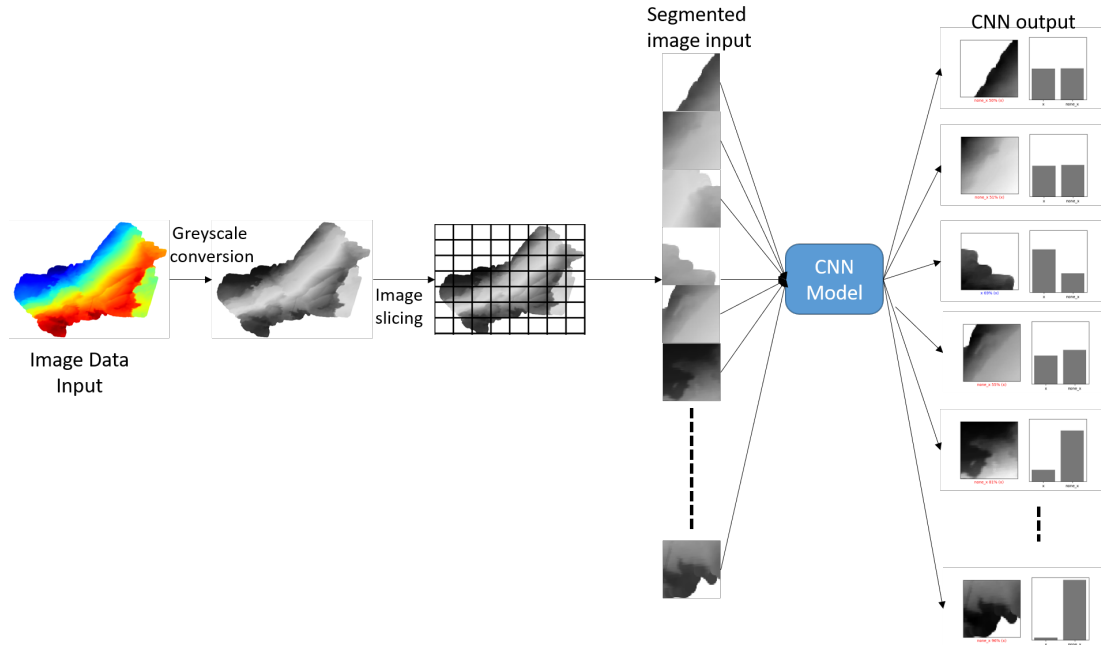


Figure 19: Diagram showing the process in the application of the CNN model. The diagram includes the processing of the seismic image data.

7. Conclusion

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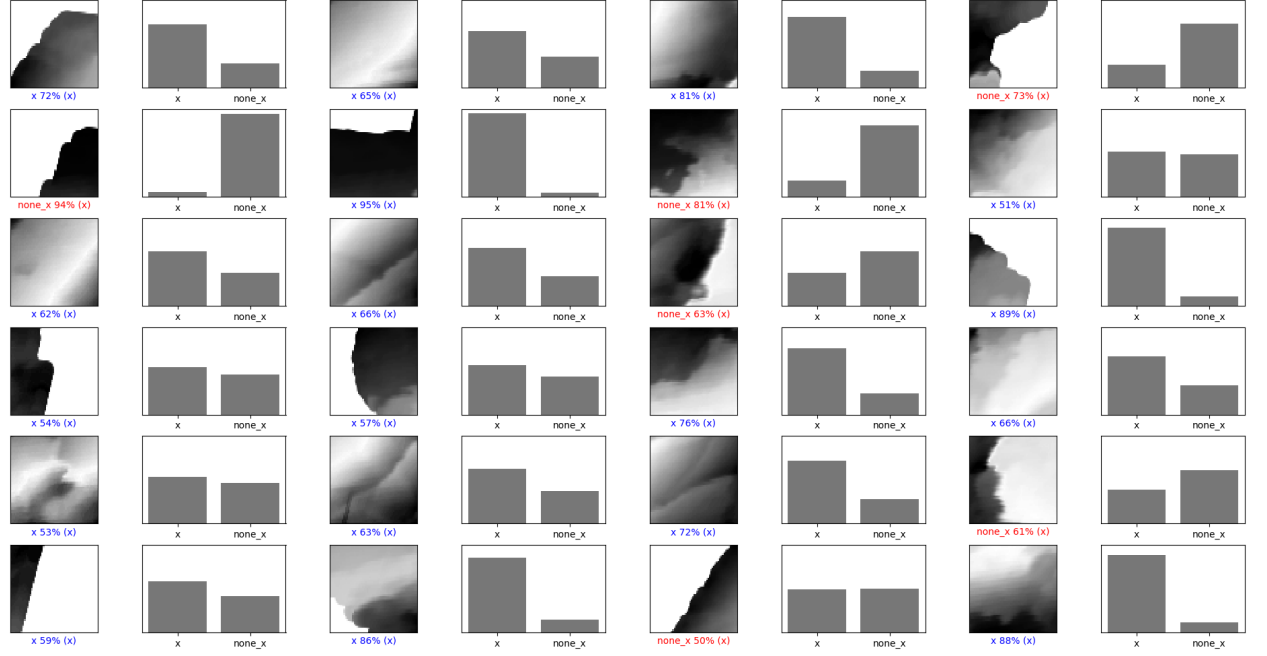


Figure 20: Figure illustrating region classification for the crossing fault detection for gold mine orebody surface.

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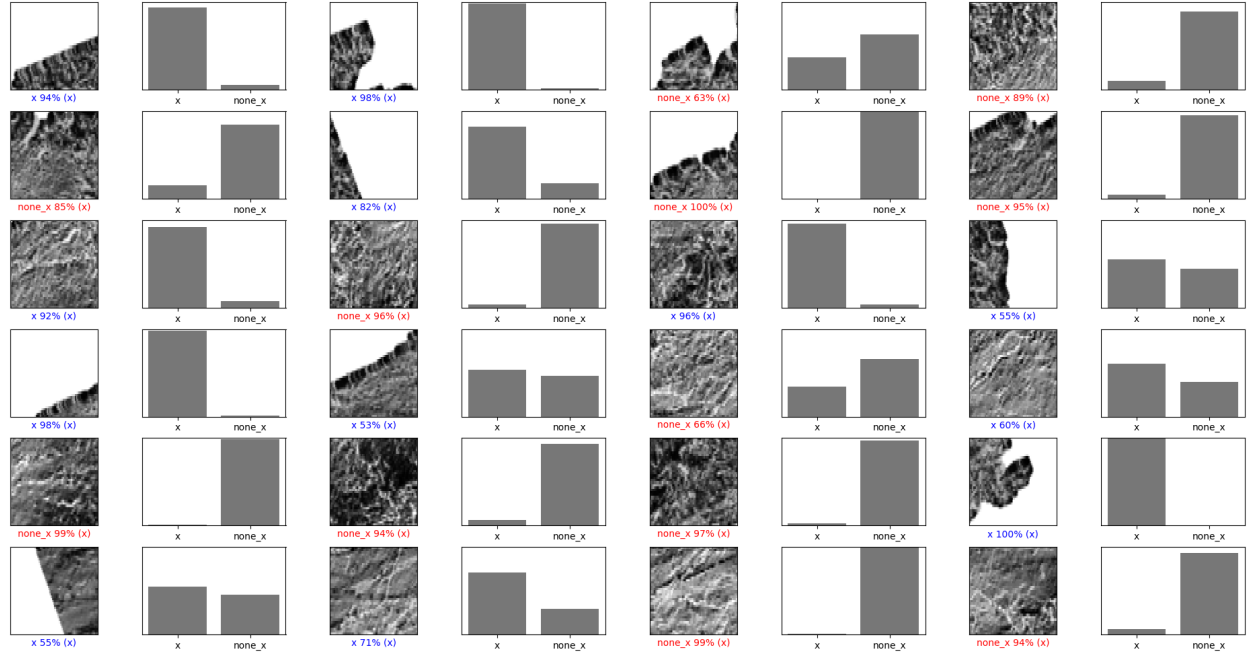


Figure 21: Figure illustrating region classification for crossing fault detection for the gold mine edge image data

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