

Preliminary Report

Automated Analysis of Thin Section Images

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Project Motivation

In geology thin sections (TS) are samples of a rock sliced, encased in epoxy and polished (to $\sim 30\mu\text{m}$ thick) for inspection. These are then imaged with a petrographic or electron microscope, often illuminated by polarised light. TS images can be interpreted to give information about the sample, such as mineral composition, porosity and grain geometry. This gives insight into the geological environment, hence thin sections are an important tool for Exploration and Production in the petroleum industry.

Traditionally this analysis is done by modal analysis, where an experienced geologist categorises several hundred random points in the image to obtain a distribution over the whole sample. This is laborious process and highly subjective, making comparison between samples very unreliable. Hence, a consistent automation of this process is highly desirable. One potential method of automation is to segment the image into regions of different material, then by discerning between rock grain, matrix material (e.g. clay) and porous space both the porosity and grain geometries are found. There has been significant research into such automation, specifically with regard to segmentation of grains¹.

This projects goals are split into two sections. Firstly, to implement, and potentially improve upon, pre-existing automatic segmentation algorithms. Secondly, to identify the type of each segmented region as grain, matrix or pore to determine porosity and average grain size. Potentially the grain material could also be identified to find the mineral composition.

Literature Review

Image Segmentation

Automatic image segmentation has been implemented since 1980s, originally by performing edge detection and attempting to form enclosed regions². More recently superpixel algorithms^{1,3} have been developed which instead work on a principle of grouping pixels together based on proximity in some higher dimensional feature space. Such methods are often implemented in computer vision for the identification of a specific object within an image⁴, however in the case of thin sections the desired segments are very similar making the problem somewhat harder.

Within the topic grain separation a commonly used methodology is the watershed transformation⁵. This is illustrated by taking a greyscale image's gradient, interpreting this result as a two dimensional surface and flooding each valley separately to form segments. Drawbacks here include the need for initial "flooding" markers from which to feed the water in, commonly chosen as local minima in the image. Also only a grey scale is used, removing the information contained in the color channels.

In the last decade the Simple Linear Iterative Clustering (SLIC³) algorithm is being used more. This method uses unsupervised k-means clustering in a 5D feature space of position and color. This takes into account all information in a single algorithm and only requires the number of segments to be specified. Significant hyperparameters for this are the relative scaling of the position and color space, determining the priority of each in the algorithm. If multiple images of the same sample are available then these can be used in conjunction to perform a better segmentation. The MSLIC¹ algorithm does this by taking the maximum distance between a pixel and a centroid across all images.

For an unknown number of regions one can initially over segment an image, then recombine similar pixels⁶. Pixels are identified to merge either by similarity or evaluating their adherence to boundaries, for example texture comparisons and evaluating the color gradients across a boundary respectively. MSLIC segmentation and recombination applied to TS images has shown¹ more accurate segmentation of rock grains than watershed transformations, as well as several other segmentation algorithms including Minimum Spanning Trees⁷ and Linear Spectral Clustering⁸.

Unsupervised Texture Analysis

The grouping of similar textures in an unsupervised manner is another common problem in computer vision, with numerous studies into different methods. Use of hierarchical clustering algorithms is relatively common due to their simplicity and often high performance in spite of this. A drawback is the relatively large computation time, often at $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ where n is the number of data points.

In the specific case of comparing image segments the Agglomerate Nesting (AGNES⁹) is shown to be effective at pairing similar segments. AGNES clusters in a bottom up manner. Initially each data point is considered a cluster, then at each iteration nearest neighbours are merged to form a larger cluster. The choice of new cluster centre calculation gives rise to many variants of this algorithm. Termination occurs when a desired number is reached or clusters are all above a threshold distance apart. The latter has the advantage of forming an unknown number of segments as well as being robust against outliers, sorting them into small clusters, often containing only themselves.

Porosity from Thin Sections

Often experimental data or more complex imaging methods, such as a CT-scan, are used to obtain accurate porosity values. The value found by model analysis is less reliable, as a 2D slice is a sample for the overall rock which might not be representative¹⁰. However, correction factors and judgement can still find meaning from point counted porosity.

Algorithms which automatically discern the area ratio of rock grain to porous space by color spectrum analysis have been shown to yield reasonable accuracy¹¹. This relies on the epoxy filling pores so they have a distinct and consistent color. Previous work¹⁰ identified a multi-threshold method in HSV space as the most accurate for this, with $< 0.1\%$ error in the porosity estimate compared to model analysis. This method is very sensitive to the threshold parameters, which vary for different TS images.

Project Plan

Whenever Wintershall-DEA explores a site for well production a various number of TS samples from different depths are selected to be studied. These are photographed in high resolution ($\sim 10^4 \times 10^4$ pixels) from hundreds of images stitched together. This is repeated for both white and polarised light illumination. Model analysis of at least 100 points is then implemented for each image.

Carbonates and shale composites typically contain a wider range of rock types, so are harder to identify. Therefore for the proof of concept we will focus on sandstone samples, of which there are a several hundred wells on record. From these a small number of images (< 10) with easily determinable grains will be used to develop algorithms. Since these images are of high resolution, they can be subdivided to make a larger number of easier to process samples, provided the image size is still large compared to the image features (i.e. grains and pores). This is important as many of the algorithms used scale poorly with image size.

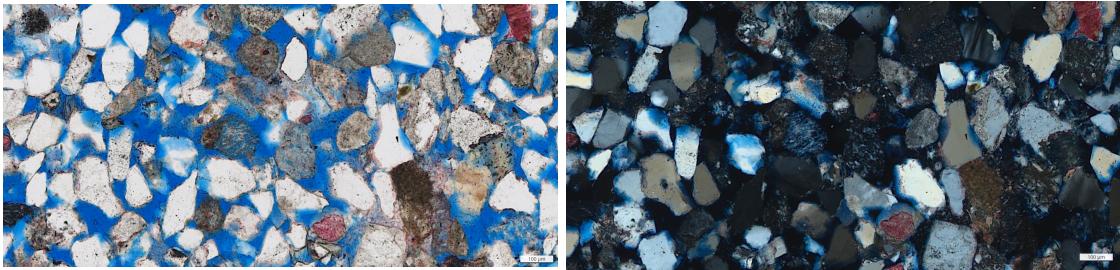


Figure 1: Thin section images of Lithic Sandstone from offshore rigs in Brazos, Texas, USA. Left is the region under white light and right is under polarised light. These images are $\sim 1.5 \times 0.5\text{mm}$, with the whole image being $\sim 20 \times 20\text{mm}$. The whole TS image gives approximately 350 of these size regions

Proposed Method

The planned image analysis workflow is shown in figure 2 and the timeline for developing this is shown in figure 3.

An initial color space transformation is to recognise that image segmentation by most methods are sensitive to this choice. This is therefore a hyperparameter to be chosen. Segmentation will follow the proven method of over segmentation with MSLIC followed by recombination, since the exact number of grains in any one TS image is unknown. Though implementations of SLIC exist in the scikit-learn package, a key difficulty will be incorporating both polarised and white light image. No publicly available implementation of MSLIC has been found. Recombination will use multiple merging criteria following previous work^{1,6} and will likely include color similarity via spectrum comparison and texture similarity via Gabor filters⁹.

The classification of segments will be another unsupervised clustering problem, though now of smaller scale. Features will include the shape, texture and color distribution of each segment. Hierarchical clustering approaches, namely AGNES⁹, are likely a good choice here as we expect grains of different material to be significantly different that a minimum distance between them in feature space can be defined. Also the ability for outliers to not impede the algorithm is very advantageous as they are common in sedimentary rocks. Dimension reduction through Principal Component Analysis (PCA) or Autoencoders might also be useful here to assist with the run time of the algorithm as well as allow for more features to be considered in the clustering. Once clustered into distinct types a human can label each group, making the process semi-automated. This is not ideal, however it makes the problem more achievable and robust. Classifying this way also makes the extension of identifying each grains type a simple matter hyperparameter tuning and more user identification.

Once separated grain size and porosity can be compared with known values to assist in estimating hyperparameters. Testing this routine on unseen images of similar type (i.e. a test set) will then evaluate its performance.

Automatic Thin Section Analysis

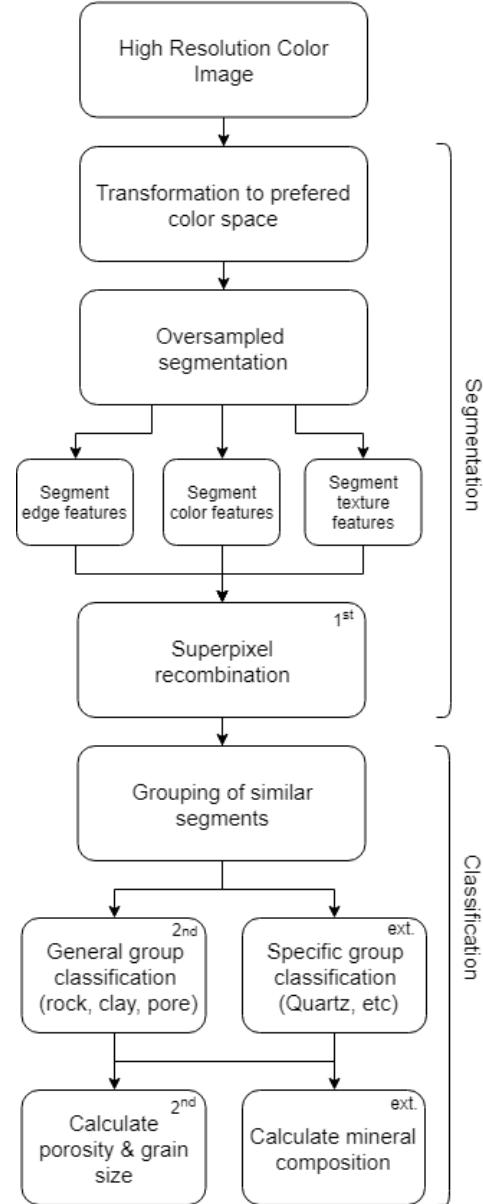


Figure 2: Flow chart for image processing pipe line. The pipeline is broken into two categories, segmentation and classification. The corner text indicates which project aims is being achieved by this process.

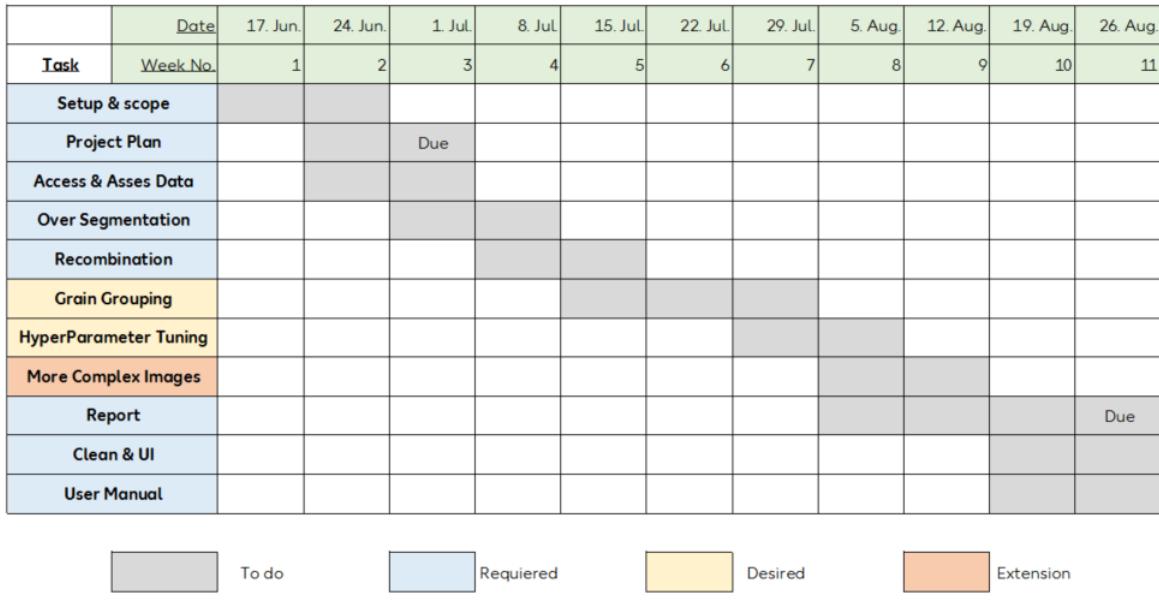


Figure 3: Gantt chart of timeline for developing the framework outlined in figure 2. Time is roughly divided equally between the segmentation and classification aims. The color of a task determines it's priority in case of delays.

Project Aims

The first aim of this project is to achieve a reasonable segmentation of grains, enough to convince an expert that the analysis was done by another expert (i.e. a segmentation Turing test). Following this, the second aim is to obtain the porosity and average grain size. If the segment classification includes grain type this can be extended to include grain composition. Success on an unseen image is defined as 80% or greater agreement with values found by model analysis.

Future Work

The natural extension to this project is the expansion to more complex images. By this we mean ones with less obvious grain boundaries and a wider range of grain colors and textures. Such images usually coincides with lower porosity as more densely compacted grains are harder to segment. Potentially the more difficult rock types shale and carbonates could also be used. Demonstrating the algorithm to work on these would be a demonstration of it's versatility. Another possible extension is to perform further classifications normally carried out by a geologist from TS images using the segmentation. These include rock type (e.g. carbonate, shale), grain sorting (variation of grain sizes) and argilaceous content (amount of non-granular material).

Word Count: 1600 (excluding references and figure captions)

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