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3D Tight Sandstone Digital Rock Reconstruction with Deep Learning

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Key Points:

- Reconstructing 3D heterogeneous tight sandstone digital rock based on DCGAN with 3D convolution used in the generator and the discriminator.
- A more comprehensive method for evaluating reconstructed 3D digital rock with strong heterogeneity is adopted.
- The reconstructed 3D digital rock has the similar porosity distribution with the original heterogeneous tight sandstone.

Abstract

Tight oil and gas reservoirs have attracted many attentions and are one of the hottest research fields in recent years. Tight sandstones have complex pore structures and narrow pores and throats with pore sizes varying from nanometers to micrometers, studying flow mechanisms in tight sandstones is of significance to tight oil/gas reservoir development. Reconstructing the digital rock which can comprehensively represent petrophysical properties of tight sandstone is the key to simulate the fluid flow in micro/nano pores. This paper proposes a new method of reconstructing 3D digital rock from CT image of tight sandstones based on a deep convolutional generative adversative network (DCGAN), and 3D convolution in the generator and discriminator are adopted to realize reconstruction from one dimensional data to 3D digital rock model. Studies show that when the training effect is slightly poor, the generated digital rock model will have noise, which can be reduced by post-processing; when the training effect is well, DCGAN can accurately reconstruct the 3D digital rock of tight sandstones, the reconstructed digital rock is very consistent in pore size, geometric structure, and connectivity of natural tight sandstones. When multiple 3D tight sandstone CT images are used for training, the DCGAN can learn the pore structure characteristics of entire tight sandstones, and the porosity distribution obtained from generated digital rock are similar to original tight sandstones.

Keywords: digital rock; tight sandstone; generative adversarial neural network; deep learning

1 Introduction

Unconventional oil and gas are important alternative energy in the future (Jia, 2017). Tight oil/gas reservoirs in China are mainly continental deposits, and a great deal of micro and nano-pores are widely developed with poor connections, complex structures and strong heterogeneity (Yao et al., 2013; Li et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2019), therefore, the seepage mechanisms in tight oil/gas reservoirs are quite complicated. It is necessary to study the microscopic flow mechanism and figure out its influencing factors for developing the tight oil/gas reservoirs efficiently and economically. Digital rock is an advanced technology to study the physical properties and flow behaviors insides of sedimentary rock (Berg et al., 2017), which will play an important role in the exploration and development of tight oil/gas reservoirs.

In order to investigate the characteristics of sedimentary rock, the key is constructing a 3D digital rock model which can accurately characterize the pore structure of micro and nano-pores. At present, the methods of 3D digital rock reconstruction can be divided into two main categories: physical experiments and numerical reconstructions (Yao et al., 2013). Physical experiments have to use a high-resolution scanning instruments, these methods are time consuming with high cost (Izadi et al., 2017). The common physical experiments methods includes serial sectioning, magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) (Ouellette et al., 2015), X-ray computed tomography (Elbakri and Fessler, 2002), focused ion beam (FIB)-scanning electron microscopy (SEM) (Bera et al., 2011), and etc. Numerical reconstruction method reconstructs digital rock with computer based on the statistical information of pore structures, and can be divided into two categories: random field method and process-based method (Øren and Bakke, 2002). The random field method also has multiple types, including Gaussian random field method(Yuan et al., 2010), simulated annealing method (Yeong and Torquato, 1998), Markov chain Monte Carlo Method (Wu et al., 2004), sequential indicator simulation method (Keehm et al., 2004) and multiple-point statistics method(Lei, 2020), and etc.

66 Recently, artificial intelligent has been gradually widely applied in oil industry, including
67 seismic data processing and interpretation (Cao and Wu, 2017; Imamverdiyev and Sukhostat,
68 2019), well drilling (Chen et al., 2019; Noshi and Schubert, 2018), oil and gas exploitation
69 (Ahmadi and Chen, 2019; Li et al., 2019). It is a trend that the whole oil industry will pay more
70 attentions on intelligent system development. Generative adversarial networks (GAN) is a neural
71 network model proposed by Goodfellow et al. (Goodfellow et al., 2014), which can capture the
72 distribution of data and generate a data sample consistent with the distribution of real data. The
73 main ideal of GAN is derived from the zero-sum game in game theory, the generator can learn
74 the distribution of data through the continuous game between the generator and the
75 discriminator, which can produce an output that is more consistent with real data. It has been
76 widely used in intelligent fusion(Ma et al., 2019), intelligent generating(Wang et al., 2018),
77 super-resolution reconstruction(Bulat et al., 2018), classification(Zhou et al., 2018), etc. It also
78 has been used in the construction of 3D psychical models, such as face model (Gecer et al., 2019;
79 Gecer et al., 2019), bed/chair/table model (Li et al., 2019), archaeological objects (Hermoza and
80 Sipiran, 2018).

81 As mentioned above, the GAN provides a new method for digital rock reconstruction,
82 and different GAN model has been used in digital rock reconstruction. Mosser et al (Mosser et
83 al., 2017; Mosser et al., 2018) firstly introduced GAN to reconstruct digital rock. They generated
84 a 3D digital rock model ($64 \times 64 \times 64$) , and used autocorrelation function to evaluate the
85 reconstructed digital rock, but the process of model training is time consuming. DCGAN adapts
86 the convolutional neural network (CNN) as the generator and discriminator, which is very good
87 at dealing with image processing problem (Radford et al., 2015). In 2018, Guan (2018) used
88 DCGAN to generate 2D images rather than 3D models, and another GAN model, Wasserstein
89 GAN (Arjovsky et al., 2017), was introduced for comparison in their presentation. Liu et al.(Liu
90 et al., 2019)used Berea sandstone ($64 \times 64 \times 64$) and Estailades carbonate ($128 \times 128 \times 128$) binary
91 data respectively to train DCGAN model and for 3D digital rock reconstruction; Shams et
92 al.(2020) coupled GAN and auto-encoder neural network (AE) for reconstructing a porous media
93 with inter-grain and intra-grain pores. The function of GAN is producing 3D porous media
94 ($64 \times 64 \times 64$) with inter-grain pores, and the AE (256×256) is to generate intra-grain pore in the
95 images outputted from the GAN. Valsecchi et al.(Valsecchi et al., 2020)designed the generator
96 with 3D convolution and the discriminator with 2D convolution for generating a 3D model with
97 2D image stacks output (64×64), and three types of brainy image data was used to validate the
98 model by two-point probability function and Minkowski functionals. The conditional generative
99 confrontation network (CGAN) (Mirza and Osindero, 2014), which adds constraints to the
100 original GAN by introducing a conditional variable ‘y’ into the generative model and the
101 discriminant model to guide the generation of data, is another model for digital rock
102 reconstruction. Feng et al.(2019a; 2019b) applied CGAN to reconstruct complete 2D core images
103 (128×128) based on less information of images and real core data. Volkhonskiy et
104 al.(2019)added autoencoders before the generator of CGAN to extract pore structure information
105 and input it to the generator as constraints, and different natural core samples were used to
106 evaluate its performance but the consuming time of generative model training is about 10 hours.

107 Digital rock reconstruction with GAN is an emerging technology, there are many
108 challenges need to overcome, such as a long training time, complex model, small size of
109 generated model, and representativeness, generalization ability and interpretability are still weak.
110 In this paper, a new method of digital rock reconstruction based on DCGAN is developed, and
111 the 3D convolution networks are adopted in the generator and discriminator of DCGAN. The CT

images of tight sandstones from Yanchang formation, Ordos Basin, NW China are used to validate the newly proposed model. The geometry and connectivity of pores in the reconstructed digital rocks are analyzed with three case studies.

2 Methodology

2.1 GAN

As a classical unsupervised learning model, GAN combines the game theory and deep neural network, has some advantages those generative models don't have. It avoids inference during training, and can produce a clearer sample. If the discriminator is well trained, the generator can learn the distribution of data perfectly in theory by training. The value function of GAN $V(D, G)$ is defined as (Goodfellow et al., 2014):

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

where x is the real data; z is the noise; $p_{data}(x)$ is the distribution of real data; $p_z(z)$ is the distribution of noise; $G(z)$ is the output of generator; $D(x)$ represents the probability that x is real data judged by the discriminator.

In the training process, backpropagation algorithm is used to optimize the parameters of network. When the distribution of real data and the distribution of generator is equal, the value function is the lowest, and the generative model can perfectly learn the data distribution. In order to avoid the generator falling into local minima, the discriminator will train several times while the generator updates once.

DCGAN scales up GAN using CNN, and three changes were made to the structure and activation function of CNN. First, the pooling layer in conventional CNN is replaced by convolution. Then, the generator uses ReLU activation for all layers except the output layer, which uses tanh activation, but the discriminator uses Leaky ReLU activation in all layers. Finally, both the generator and the discriminator apply batch normalization for stabilizing training.

2.2 Network architecture

The schematic diagram of applying DCGAN for 3D digital rock reconstruction is shown in **Figure 1**, and the detail parameters of discriminator and generator are shown in **Table 1**.

The discriminator is a CNN model to discriminate the input data is real data or the data from generator. It has four convolutional layers, and each convolutional layer consists of a batch normalization layer with momentum of 0.8, a drop layer with loss ratio of 0.25, and the Leaky ReLU with activation of 0.2. The last layer is a fully connect layer, its activation is sigmoid function. The structure of discriminator is shown in **Figure 2**.

The generator receives a random noise conforming to normal distribution, and converts the random noise to a 1D vector by a fully connect layer, then reshapes the random noise to a four-dimensional vector. Three up sampling layers are used to enlarge the 3D images, the followed convolutional layer of each up sampling layer can learn the kernel by training, and then the data flows into batch normalization layer and ReLU activation. The last layer is a

convolutional layer, and the activation function is tanh function. The momentum of batch normalization layer is set to 0.8. The structure of the generator used in this manuscript is shown in **Figure 3**.

3 Data and platform

3.1 Data sets

As shown in **Figure 4**, the Micro XCT-510 scanner was used to obtain the CT images of tight sandstones Yanchang formation, Ordos Basin, NW China. The resolution of CT images is 1.22 μm .

There are always some noises in the CT images due to the influence of equipment, environment, and the minerals of the rock itself. The image noises have significant influences on pore structure analysis, thus the image preprocessing must be conducted. The common methods of image denoising includes Gaussian filter, median filter, adaptive Wiener filter, mean filtering, and wavelet thresholding (Buades et al., 2005; Zhang and Desai, 2002). Here the median filter was used to remove the noise in CT images. After that, the images will be divided into pore and matrix two parts, and binary image can reduce the calculation time comparing with grey images.

Considering the calculation ability of our computer, the data for training was sub-sampled from the binary CT images. Binary CT images for training ($32 \times 32 \times 910$) are shown in **Figure 5**, the black is the pore and the gray is the matrix. According to the statistics of porosity of 910 core slices, the binary images with porosity less than 10% account for 60% of total CT images, indicating that most pores are small pores, which reflects strong heterogeneity of tight sandstone pore structures. The 2D images must be transform into 3D data, and the normalization of binary data (0~255) also are also needed. The range of data after normalization is between -1 and 1 because the distribution of the tanh function ranges from -1 to 1.

3.2 Platform

Several platforms have been developed for machine learn, such as Tensorflow (Abadi et al., 2016), Keras (Gulli and Pal, 2017), Caffe (Jia et al., 2014), Pytorch (Paszke et al., 2017), Theano (Al-Rfou et al., 2016). In this paper, Keras is used to build the DCGAN model, which is an advanced neural network API written in Python and be coupled with Tensorflow or Theano as the backend. As the network has a complex structure and needs a large amount of calculation, the configuration of computer will have a great impact on the training and application of deep learning. A computer with a single NVIDIA GTX 1050 GPU was used in this paper.

4 Results and discussion

4.1 Case 1

The input data is 3D binary image with the size of $32 \times 32 \times 32$, and the value function of the generator and the discriminator are optimized by Adam method. The learning rate is set to 0.002, the exponential decay rate for the moment estimation is 0.5, the number of training epoch is 6000, and the batch data size is 1. The generated digital rock by is shown in **Figure 6**. Compared with the original digital rock, the generated digital rock has similar pores, but some isolated pores are also generated. Compared 9 pores in the original digital rock, there are 30 pores in the generated digital rock. **Figure 7** shows the distribution of pore area and pore volume

of original digital rock and generated digital rock, which can be found that most of pores in the generated digital rock is the small pores.

Removing all the isolated small pores with the pore volume less than $5 \mu\text{m}^3$ in the generated digital rock, only 9 large pores are left, which are same to the pores in the original digital rock. As shown in **Table 2**, the barycenter coordinates of the pores in the generated digital rock are very close to those in original rock, except for the pores nos. 1, 6, and 7. For other pores, the distances between the generated pores and original pores are less than $1 \mu\text{m}$. In addition, the distributions of pore volumes and pore areas in the original digital rock and generated digital rock are very close, as shown in **Figure 8**.

Two-point probability function can reflect the pore distribution insides of digital rock. As shown in **Figure 9**, the curves of two-point probability functions of the original digital rock and generated digital rock are very close to each other, which can demonstrate that the method of digital rock reconstruction based on deep learning is reliable, and can accurately reconstruct digital rock. The porosity of original rock and generated digital rock is about 4.5%, but the porosity of generated digital rock is a little higher, due to there are several isolated small pores in the generated digital rock. Even that, the reconstructed digital rock by deep learning can accurately represent the original digital rock.

4.2 Case 2

The input data is another 3D binary images with size of $32 \times 32 \times 32$, and the original digital rock is shown in **Figure 11(a)**. Using the parameters of DCGAN obtained from training above, the generated digital rock reconstructed by deep learning is shown in **Figure 11(b)**. As shown in **Table 4**, the barycenter coordinates of the pores in the original digital rock and generated digital rock are the same.

As shown in **Figure 11**, the porosity of the original digital rock and generated digital rock is 46.8%, and the curves of two-point probability functions of the original digital rock and generated digital rock coincide. It could be concluded that a well-trained DCGAN can generate the same digital rock as the original input dataset.

4.3 Case 3

Different from only 32 slices of CT images used in case 2, total 910 slices of CT images are used for training DCGAN. The initial parameters for GCGAN are same to those in cases 1 and 2, except the batch size in case 3 is 4 rather than 1. It means that four digital rocks with the size of $32 \times 32 \times 32$ are used as the input data for DCGAN training, and also four digital rock with the size are generated. **Figure 13** shows the four digital rocks generated by DCGAN after training. As the original digital rock with the size of $32 \times 32 \times 910$ has strong heterogeneity, and the size of generated digital rock is different from the original digital rock, the two-point probability function is not suitable for comparing the difference of pore size distribution between generated digital rock and original digital rock. As shown in **Figure 13**, the distribution of area porosity in 2D images of the four generate digital rocks (32×4 slices) is similar to that in the original digital rock (910 slices). The images with porosity between 0% and 10% both account for about 60% of total images, and the small pores account for a larger proportion.

5 Conclusions

This paper proposed a new method of reconstructing 3D digital rock based on deep learning, and the DCGAN with 3D convolution in generator and discriminator is built for 3D digital rock reconstruction. The reconstructed digital rock is evaluated by the statistical results of pore size distribution and two-point probability function. The results show when DCGAN is well trained, it can generate a representative digital rock similar to original one. When the DCGAN is not well trained, the post processing such as image filtering can improve the accuracy of digital rock reconstruction. The well-trained DCGAN can generate the digital rock with different pore structures, but the porosity distribution is similar to the original digital rock. The reconstructed digital rock is helpful for study the characteristics of pore structures and flow mechanism insides of porous media. The future work can focus on improving the accuracy of reconstructed digital rock, reducing training time, strengthening model generalization ability, and model explanation and evaluation.

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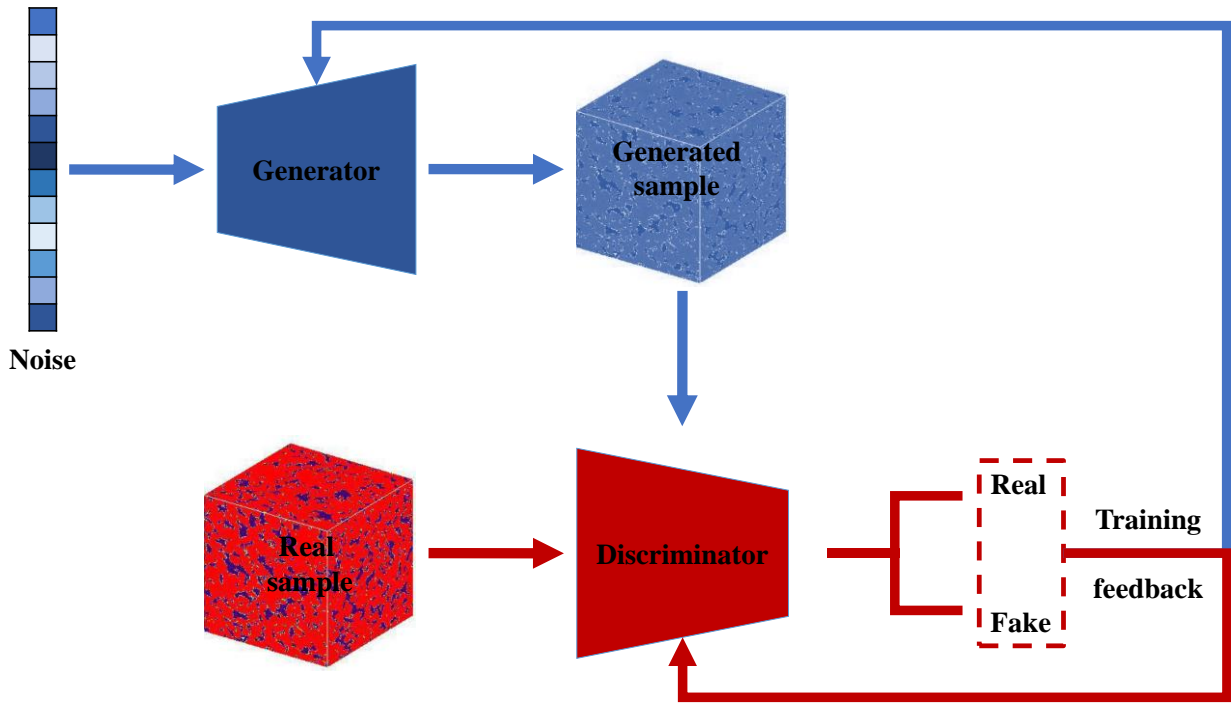


Figure 1 The schematic diagram of 3D digital rock reconstruction with DCGAN.

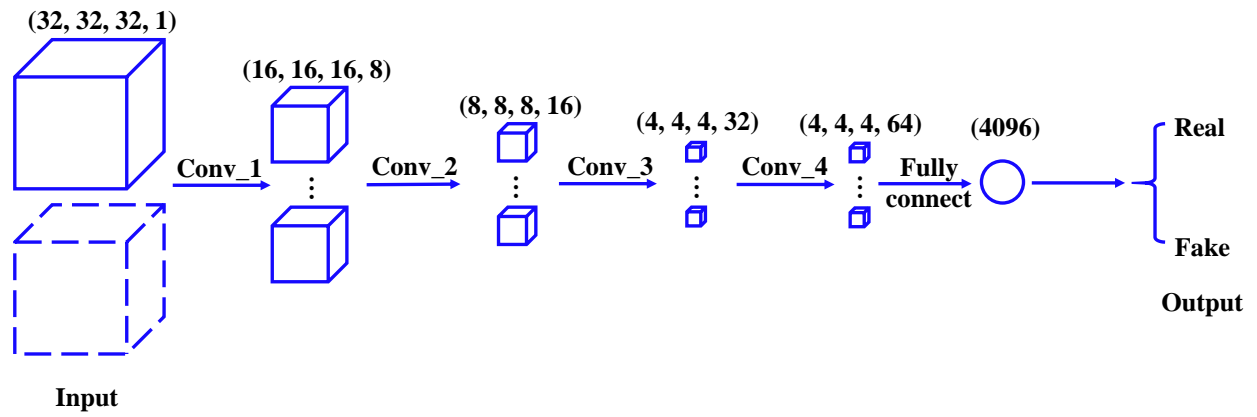


Figure 2 The structure of discriminator.

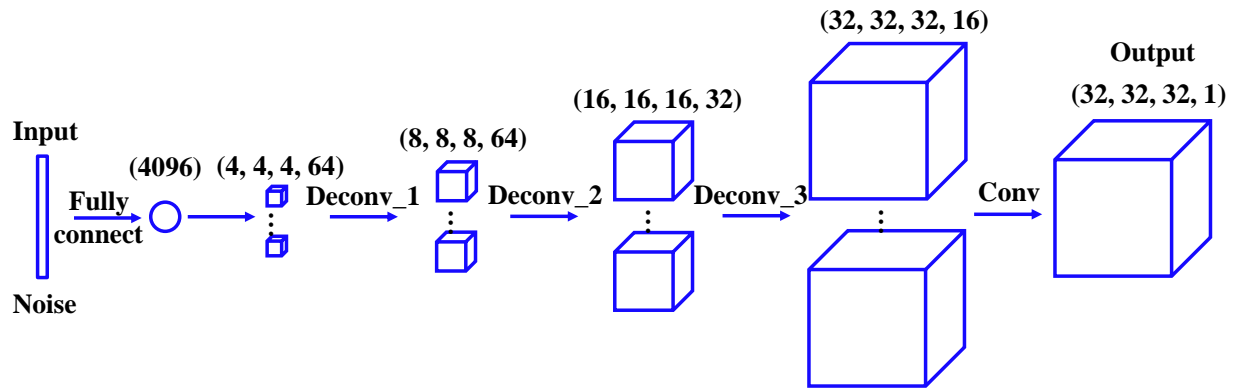


Figure 3 The structure of generator

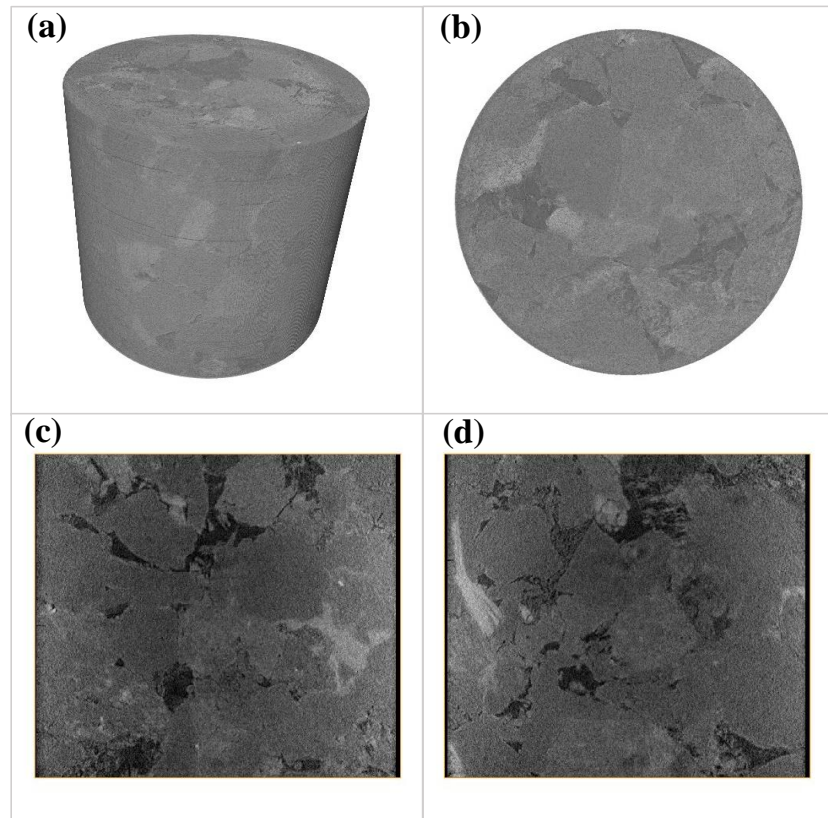


Figure 4 CT images of tight sandstones from Yanchang formation, Ordos Basin, NW China ((a) 3D view of core samples, (b) CT slice in XY direction, (c) CT slice in XZ direction, (d) CT slice in YZ direction)

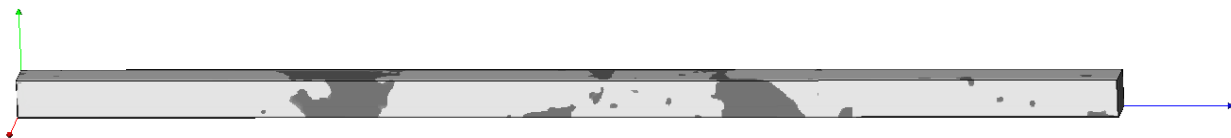


Figure 5 The binary CT images of tight sandstones for training, and the size of images are $32 \times 32 \times 910$.

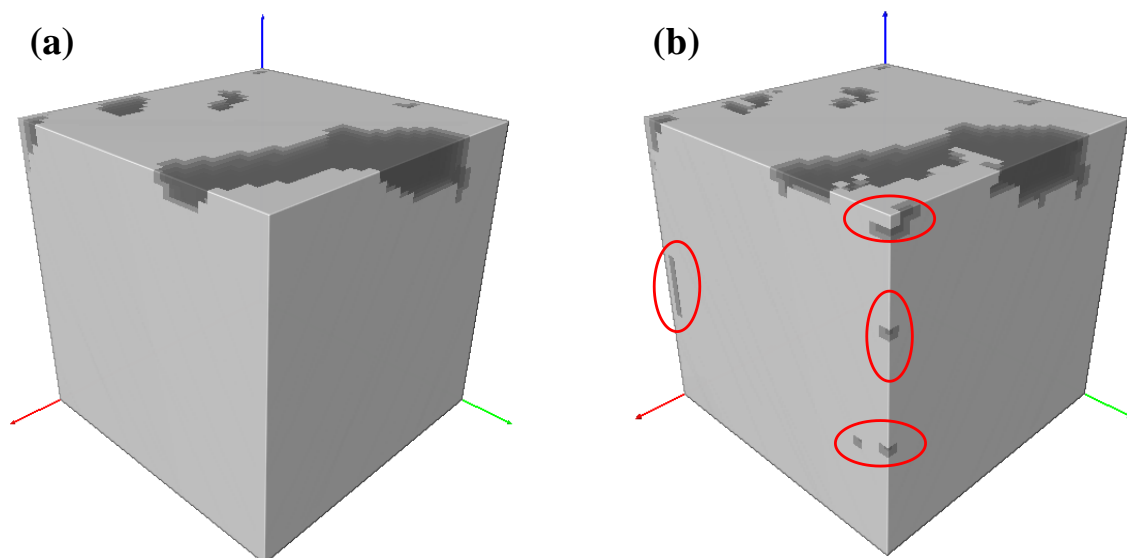


Figure 6 Comparison of the original digital rock (a) and the generated digital rock reconstructed by deep learning (b)

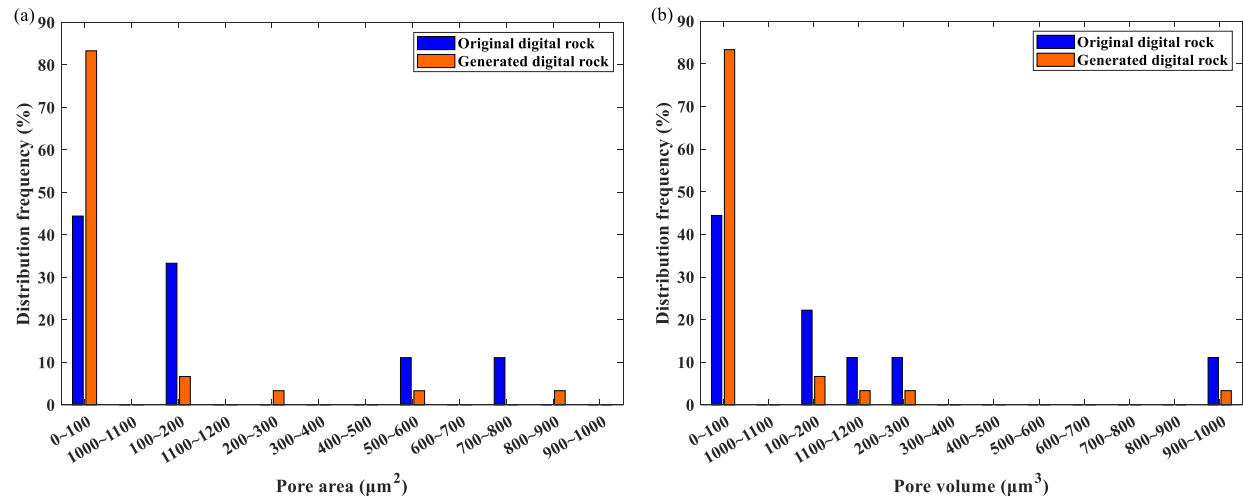


Figure 7 Comparison of the pore area (a) and pore volume (b) in the original digital rock

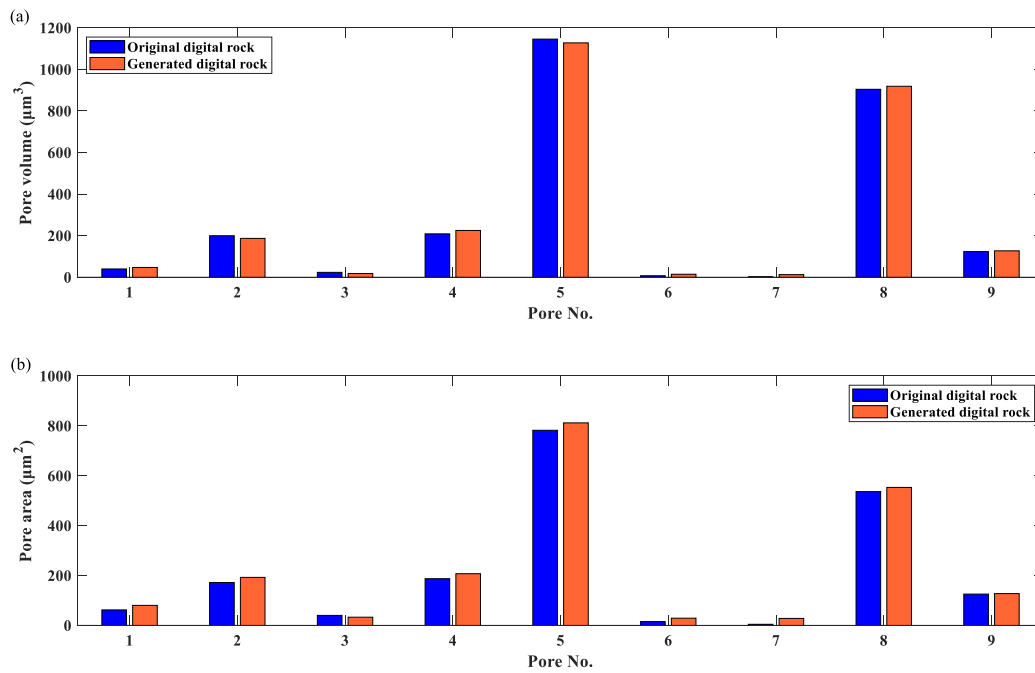


Figure 8 Comparison of pore volume (a) and pore area (b) in the original digital rock and generated digital rock

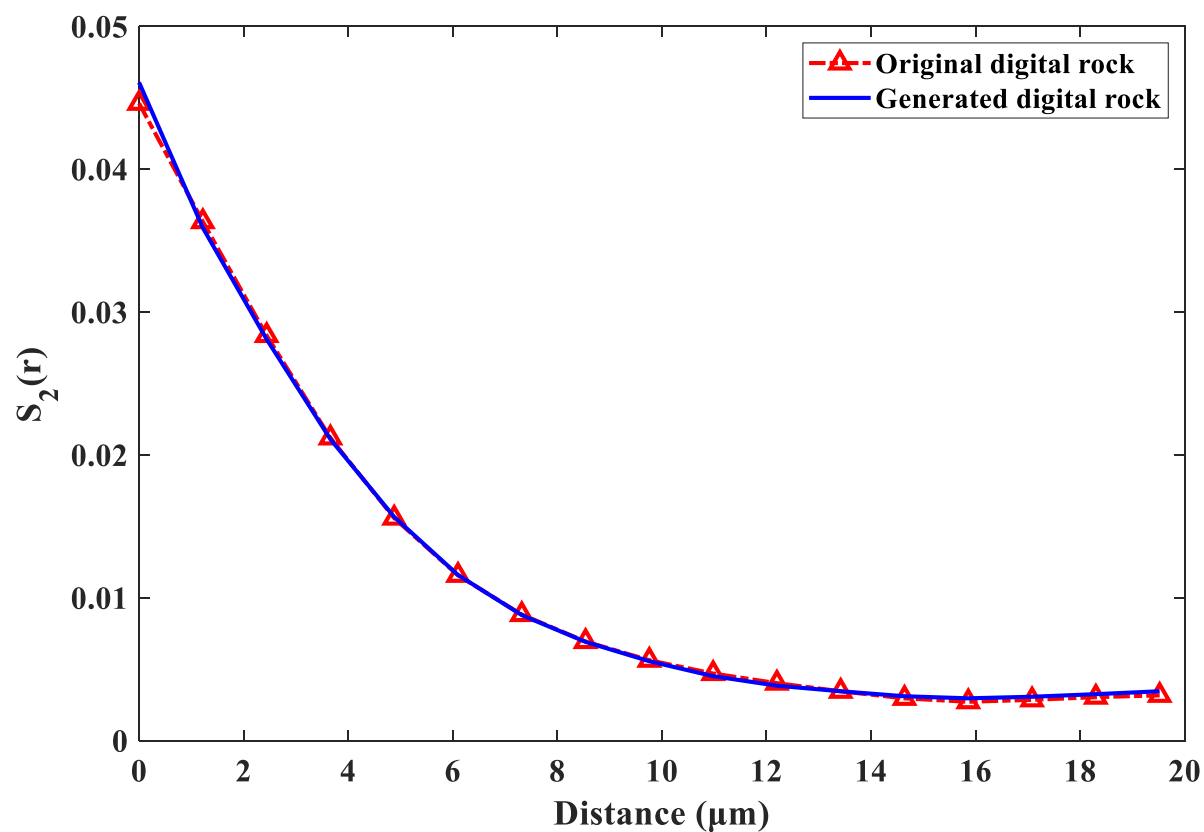


Figure 9 Two-point probability function of the original digital rock and the generated digital rock after denoising.

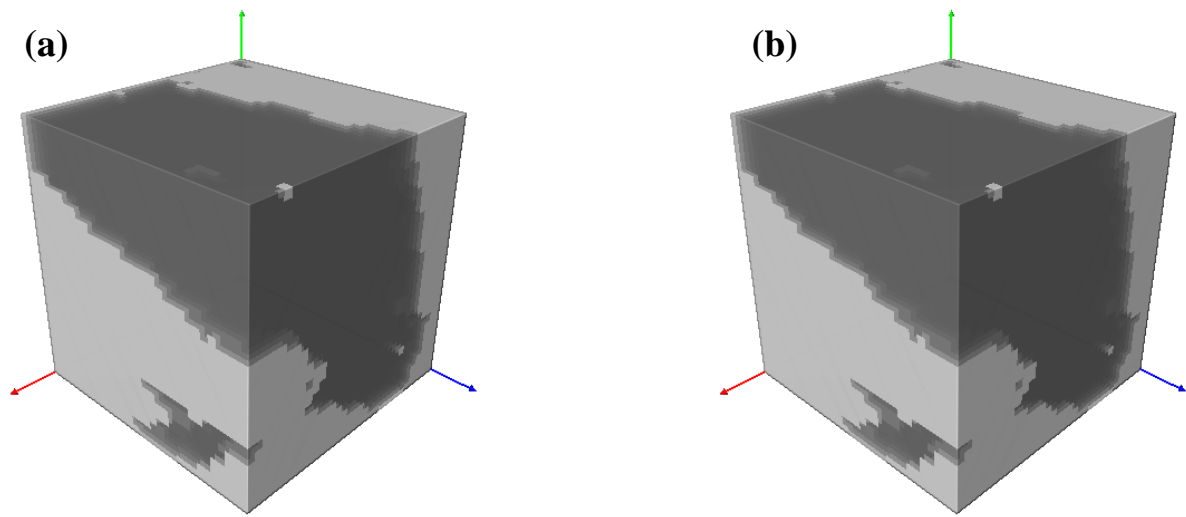


Figure 10 The original 3D digital rock (a) and the generated 3D digital rock reconstructed by deep learning (b)

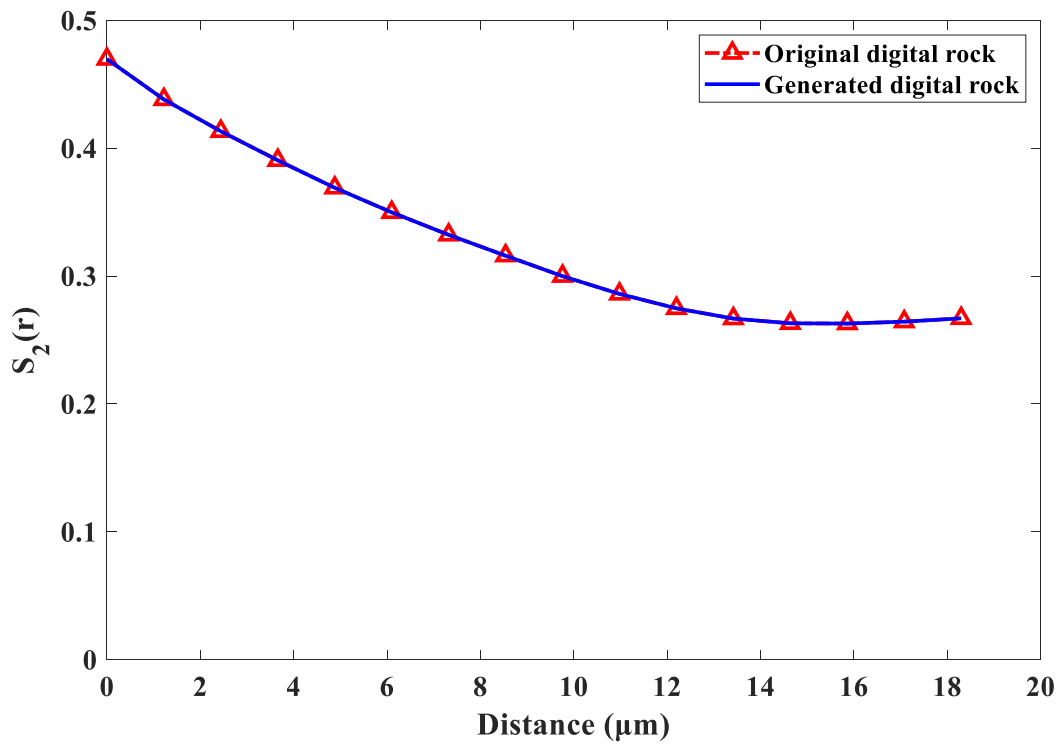


Figure 11 Two-point probability function of the original digital rock and the generated digital rock reconstructed by DCGAN.

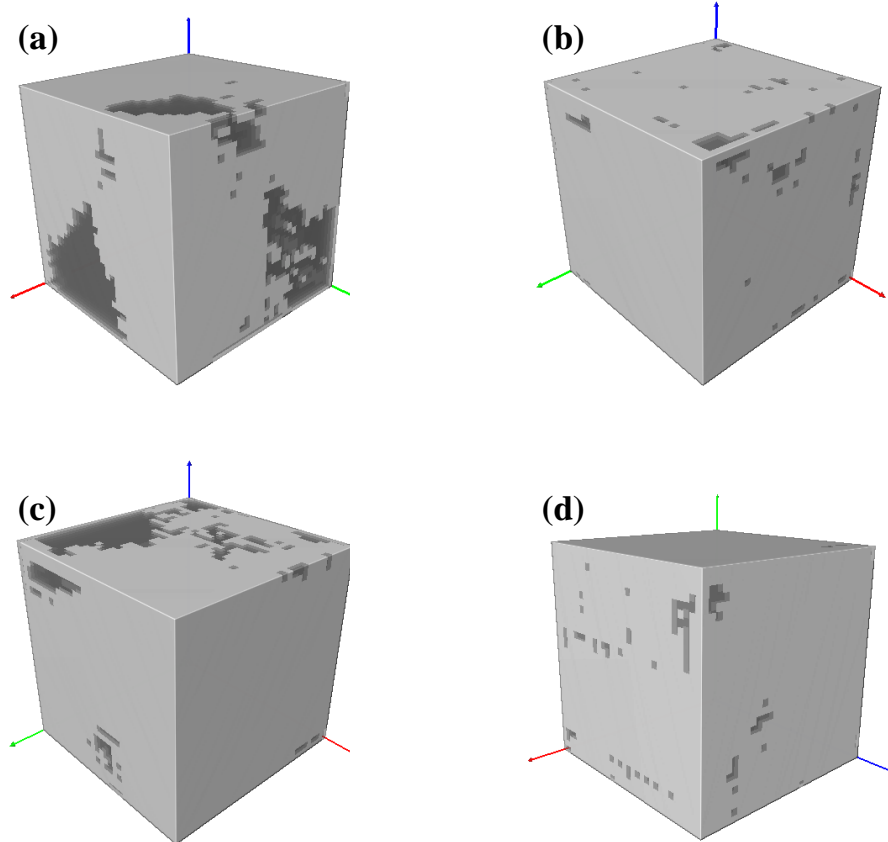


Figure 12 Four generated 3D digital rock reconstructed by DCGAN.

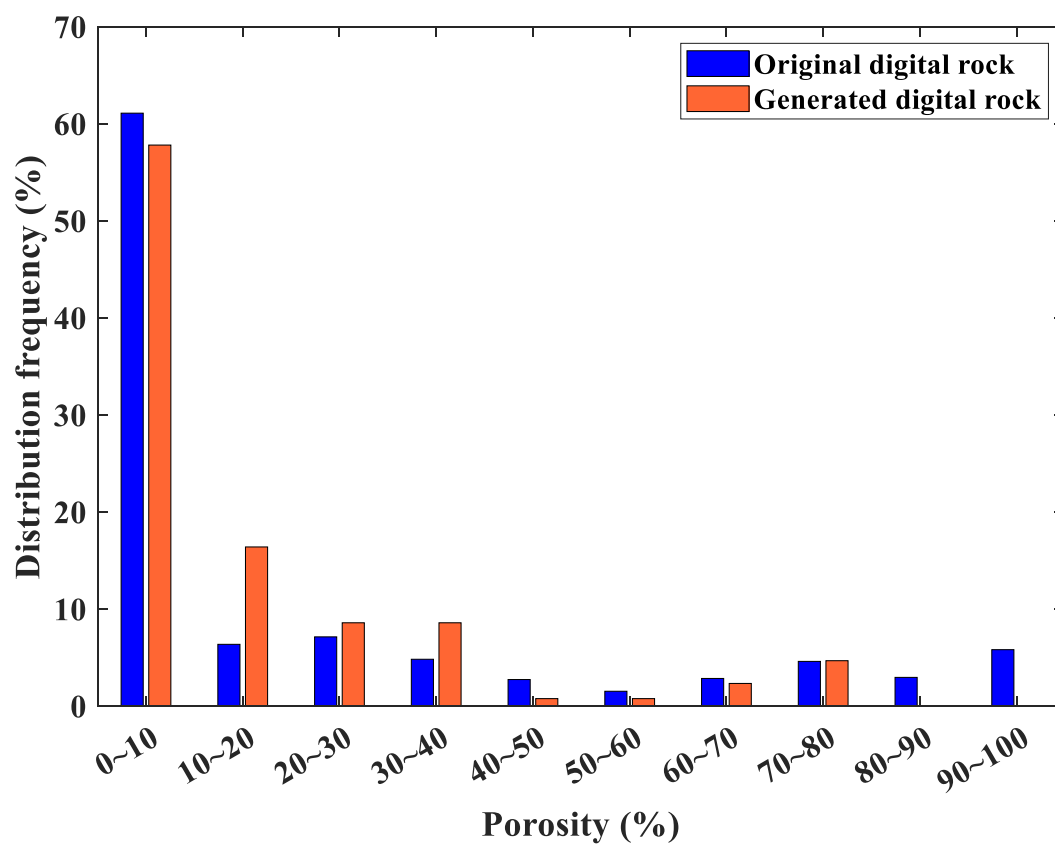


Figure 13 Comparison of porosity distribution between original digital rock and the generated digital rock.

Layer		Type	Filter number	Kernel	Stride	Padding	Batchnormalization	Dropout	Activation
Generator	1	Deconv	64	2×2×2	2	same	Yes	0	ReLU
	2	Deconv	32	2×2×2	2	same	Yes	0	ReLU
	3	Deconv	16	2×2×2	2	same	Yes	0	ReLU
	4	Conv	1	3×3×3	1	same	Yes	0	tanh
Discriminator	1	Conv	8	3×3×3	2	same	Yes	0.25	Leaky ReLU
	2	Conv	16	3×3×3	2	same	Yes	0.25	Leaky ReLU
	3	Conv	32	3×3×3	2	same	Yes	0.25	Leaky ReLU
	4	Conv	64	3×3×3	1	same	Yes	0.25	Leaky ReLU
	5	Fully Connect	4096	-	-	-	-	-	Sigmoid

440 **Table 2** Comparison of barycenter coordinates of the pores in the original digital rock and
441 generated digital rock.

Pore no.	Original digital rock			Generated digital rock			Euclidean distance (μm)
	Barycenter coordinate X (μm)	Barycenter coordinate Y (μm)	Barycenter coordinate Z (μm)	Barycenter coordinate X (μm)	Barycenter coordinate Y (μm)	Barycenter coordinate Z (μm)	
1	0.83	0.55	1.94	0.99	0.52	3.28	1.35
2	11.67	2.36	2.04	11.74	2.36	2.17	0.15
3	36.60	0.94	1.97	36.23	0.85	1.83	0.40
4	20.77	10.69	2.78	20.99	10.82	2.63	0.29
5	15.93	31.85	1.56	16.16	31.83	1.60	0.24
6	35.69	26.54	0.31	28.82	22.42	13.88	15.76
7	2.44	1.22	18.30	0.00	1.22	20.74	3.45
8	6.28	23.41	32.04	6.30	23.30	31.99	0.13
9	21.62	3.36	35.49	21.70	3.35	35.48	0.08

442
443

444 **Table 3** The barycenter coordinates of the pores in the original digital rock and generated digital
445 rock.

Label	Original digital rock			Generated digital rock			Euclidean distance (μm)
	Barycenter coordinate X (μm)	Barycenter coordinate Y (μm)	Barycenter coordinate Z (μm)	Barycenter coordinate X (μm)	Barycenter coordinate Y (μm)	Barycenter coordinate Z (μm)	
1	2.00	0.80	1.40	2.00	0.80	1.40	0.00
2	9.60	0.00	0.00	9.60	0.00	0.00	0.00
3	21.58	17.21	20.35	21.58	17.21	20.35	0.00
4	12.00	1.20	0.00	12.00	1.20	0.00	0.00
5	7.60	4.40	0.00	7.60	4.40	0.00	0.00
6	0.00	5.60	0.40	0.00	5.60	0.40	0.00
7	3.60	6.00	0.00	3.60	6.00	0.00	0.00
8	0.00	9.60	0.60	0.00	9.60	0.60	0.00
9	2.40	9.60	0.60	2.40	9.60	0.60	0.00
10	8.40	3.60	6.00	8.40	3.60	6.00	0.00
11	31.20	24.00	12.00	31.20	24.00	12.00	0.00
12	27.60	25.20	37.20	27.60	25.20	37.20	0.00