Lithology Identification by Support Vector Machine Using Well Logging Data

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Abstract: The Jurassic formation in the Fengcheng area of Junggar Basin has complicated lithofacies because of its depositional environment supported the rapid deposition of sediment from a nearby provenance. The main lithofacies of this formation are mudstone, fine-grained sandstone, medium-grained sandstone and conglomeratic sandstone. Based on core and well logging data from the study area, this paper summarizes the characteristics of the rock and analyzes the logging response characteristics of the lithology. We use acoustic(AC), compensated neutron(CNL), density(DEN), gamma ray(GR) and resistivity(RT)logging data as training and test samples to establish a lithofacies recognition model by using a support vector machine(SVM). Additionally, we use a genetic algorithm to optimize the kernel parameter σ and penalty factor C. The results show that the model predicts that the overall coincidence rate is 85.1%, which is better than that predicted from a back-propagation(BP) neural network, and the model clearly improves the lithofacies recognition accuracy and efficiency.

1 INTRODUCTION

The sandy conglomerate bodies of the Lower Jurassic Badaowan Formation and Sangonghe Formation in the Fengcheng area are mostly rapid deposits, with features such as large vertical and horizontal lithological changes, low compositional maturity, and strong heterogeneity in various lithologies (Bai et al., 2012). The logging response characteristics are not significantly apparent in these bodies. In the Fengcheng area, the formation generally contains mud, ash, and pebbles, representing a complex lithofacies formation that lithologic identification complicates of the conglomeratic sandstone (Liu et al., 2013). However, considering the cost of the exploration and development process, obtaining considerably more core data is not possible and cutting logging requires large sampling intervals. Therefore, it is impossible to completely and accurately restore the true lithology of the entire formation (Sebtosheikh et al., 2015). Compared with core data, well logging data are detailed, comprehensive and generally continuous and are highly accurate in the longitudinal direction, more comprehensively reflecting the characteristics of the formation (Rider, 2002). So, in the field of lithology identification, it

is particularly important to determine the interdependence of core data and logging data and to integrate geological core data and logging data. At present, conventional lithology identification methods include several mathematical statistical methods such as cross-plot methods (Fan et al., 1999), principal component analysis, artificial neural networks (Liu et al., 2007) and clustering methods (Ghosh et al., 2016). However, the two-parameter cross-plot method can effectively identify only the well-characterized lithology from well logging data, and it is difficult to recognize the lithology of an entire well section or interpreted well section. When we use the clustering method to identify lithology, selecting different numbers of cluster centers has a greater impact on the recognition accuracy. The artificial neural network method is challenging because of its network topology, and it is easy to fall into a local minimum, resulting in a poor performance of lithologic identification (Yu et al., 2005). Although the principal component analysis method can effectively reduce the logging data dimensions and improve the recognition accuracy, it is easy to ignore the well log attributes that have a small value but have a great impact on the lithology identification (Zhong and Li, 2009).

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Zhang, Z., Fang, S. and Shen, W. Lithology Identification by Support Vector Machine Using Well Logging Data. In Proceedings of the International Workshop on Environment and Geoscience (IWEG 2018), pages 400-405 ISBN: 978-989-758-342-1 Copyright © 2018 by SCITEPRESS – Science and Technology Publications, Lda. All rights reserved Support vector machines is a machine learning algorithm for both classification and regression tasks. Based on the SVM method, the genetic algorithm is used to optimize the parameters of the SVM. In the case of limited core data, the logging data are used to identify the lithology of the complex conglomeratic sandstone in the Fengcheng area (Mohammad and Ali, 2015; Mou et al., 2015). The results of back-propagation (BP) neural network prediction and SVM prediction are compared to demonstrate the efficiency and feasibility of lithography identification by using SVM.

2 METHODOLOGY

2.1 Support Vector Machine

SVM is a kind of machine learning method developed on the basis of statistical learning theory. SVM searches for the best trade-off between the complexity and learning ability of the model according to the limited sample information. SVM is advantageous for solving problems with small sample sizes, and nonlinear and high-dimensional data recognition; additionally, SVM can find global optimal solutions (Suykens and Vandewalle, 2000; Vapnik, 1995). The main idea of SVM is to establish a classification hyperplane as the decision-making curve, which maximizes the isolation margin between positive and negative examples (Gholam-Norouzi et al., 2012). Its basic structure is shown in Figure 1.



Figure 1: Support vectors and margin.

SVM evolves from the optimal separation hyperplane in the case of linear separability. For a second-class classification problem, given a training data set on the feature space $D=\{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), ..., (x_N, y_N)\}$, where $x_i \in X = R^n, y_i \in Y =$ $\{+1 - 1\}$, i=1,2,...,N, N is the total number of training samples and n is the dimension of the input features. In sample spaces, the linear equation to divide the hyperplanes is given as follows:

$$\omega^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b} = 0 \tag{1}$$

where ω is a normal vector that determines the direction of the hyperplanes and b is a displacement term that determines the distance between the origin point and hyperplanes. Therefore, the distance between any point (in the space) and the optimal hyperplane can be written as follows:

$$r = \frac{|\omega^{T}x + b|}{||\omega||}$$
(2)

If the hyperplane can correctly separate training samples, for(x_i, y_i) \in D, it satisfies Eqs(3).

$$\begin{cases} \omega^{T} x_{i} + b \ge +1, & y_{i} = +1; \\ \omega^{T} x_{i} + b \le -1, & y_{i} = -1. \end{cases}$$
(3)

Figure 1 shows several learning samples, and the nearby hyperplanes are called "support vectors". The sum of the distances between the two heterogeneous support vectors to the hyperplane are satisfy Eq. (4).

$$\gamma = \frac{2}{\|\omega\|} \tag{4}$$

To move the positive and negative samples of the training data set as far as possible from the hyperplane, the maximum classification interval has to satisfy Equation (5).



Figure 2: Two-category and Nonlinear classification.

In the nonlinear classification problem, no hyperplanes in the original sample can correctly classify the two types of samples (Figure 2) (Cheng and Guo, 2010). For such a problem, we can add a slack variable and a penalty factor into the SVM to solve the problem, while using the Lagrange multiplier method to transform the hyperplane problem by dividing it into a dual problem. (Figure 2). This process satisfies Equation (6): $L(w,b,\alpha) = \frac{1}{2} ||w||^2 - \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i y_i(w \cdot x_i + b) + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i \quad (6)$ where α_i are Lagrange multipliers .() Equation (6) can be changed into Equation (7):

$$\min_{\alpha} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j (x_i \cdot x_j) - \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i \qquad (7)$$
Subject to
$$\int_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i y_i = 0, \quad \alpha_i \ge 0, \quad i=1,2\cdots, N$$

Solving the above equation to obtain the classification decision function Eq.(8).

 $f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i k(x_i, x_i) + b$ (8)

This paper introduces the "kernel function" method to solve the problem of nonlinear classification. The original sample space data can be transformed into a high-dimensional feature space through nonlinear conversion to obtain the optimal hyperplane. The most commonly used kernel functions are the polynomial kernel, radial basis kernel (RBF) and Sigmoid kernel. The RBF is used as the kernel function in this paper.

$$K(x_i, x_j) = \exp(-\frac{\|x_i - x_j\|}{2\sigma^2})$$
(9)

2.2 Genetic Algorithm

A genetic algorithm randomly searches for the optimal solution, simulating the natural process of evolution and the genetic mechanism in nature (De, 1975). It is a self-organizing and adaptive artificial intelligence technology (Goldberg and Holland, 1988; Holland, 1975). The establishment of a SVM model is essentially performed to identify two key parameters: the kernel function parameter σ and penalty factor C (Wu et al., 2009). The determination of these two parameters has a great influence on the accuracy and generalization ability of this model. Here, we mainly introduce how to use a genetic algorithm to realize the optimization of the lithology recognition parameters of SVMs(Han et al., 2012):

Input standardized lithology samples as training samples.

Randomly generate a set of SVM parameters, each parameter is encoded by using a binary coding scheme to construct an initial population.

Calculate the cost function to determine fitness, A greater cost function result indicates a lower fitness.

Select a number of individuals with high fitness, and determine the next generation with direct genetic.

Using the crossover, mutation and other genetic operators to address the current generation of groups, generate the next generation of groups.

Repeat step b, evolving a set of initially determined SVM parameters until the training objective satisfies the condition.

3 DATA PREPARATION

The Fengcheng area is located in the northwestern part of the Junggar Basin (Figure 3). The strata in the basin are thin in the north but thick in the south, creating wedge shape that thickens into the basin. Among the formations in the basin, the Lower Jurassic Badaowan Formation is dominated by braided river deposits and developed lithologies such as mudstone, siltstone, fine-grained sandstone, medium-grained sandstone and conglomeratic sandstone (Wang et al., 2012). The Sangonghe Formation is generally composed of braided riverdelta deposits. The lithologies of the Sangonghe Formation are mudstone, silty mudstone, siltstone, fine-grained sandstone, medium to coarse-grained sandstone and conglomeratic sandstone (Zhu et al., 2017). This paper combines the lithologies and logging data and takes the Jurassic formation as an the logging response example, analyzing characteristics under different lithologies, and extracting the logging response parameters that are sensitive to lithology to establish a GA-SVM lithology model, to study a method for the conglomeratic sandstone lithology identification and its application (Feng et al., 2002).



Figure 3: The location of study area.

Due to the complexity of the lithology in the study area, four major lithologies were identified based on the available data: mudstone, fine-grained sandstone, medium-grained sandstone and conglomeratic sandstone. In this paper, 274 representative lithological samples were selected from 20 wells with accurate core identification data in the study area. The samples included 75 mudstone, 62 fine-grained sandstone, 47 mediumgrained sandstone, 90 conglomeratic sandstone samples. We extract density (DEN), neutron porosity (CNL), acoustic (AC), true formation resistivity (Rt), and gamma ray (GR) response characteristics from conventional logging data to establish a sample space of 5 dimensions and 4 types. Table 1 shows the logging response characteristics of four lithologies in the study area. Table 1 shows that many differences exist among the different logging parameters for each lithology and provides the initial conditions for the lithology identification. Additionally, to eliminate the influence of the different dimension of the features, the logging parameters of the samples were normalized and uniformly included in the range of (0,1).

Table 1: Logging response of sandy conglomerate in Fengcheng area.

lithology	$AC/(\mu s \cdot m^{-1})$	CNL/(%)	DEN/(g·cm ⁻¹)	GR/(API)	$RXO/(\Omega \cdot m)$	Logging response
mudstone	108~145	30~42	1.7~2.2	74~104	4~9	low RXO medium-low DEN
Fine-grained sandstone	112~129	29~41	2.0~2.2	50~78	21~96	low GR medium-high RXO
medium-grained sandstone	104~117	29~36	2.0~2.3	55~67	13~28	low RXO low GR
conglomeratic sandstone	65~110	18~31	2.1~2.4	56~103	36~91	low AC low CNL high RXO

Donth/m	AC	CNL	DEN(g·cm ⁻¹)	GR	$RXO(\Omega \cdot m)$	1241 - 1	
Depui/m	$(\mu s \cdot m^{-1})$	(%)	7	(API)		lithology	
386	120.0022	33.14312	2.245676	85.88315	7.251	1	
439	131.3215	34.71169	2.256805	101.3727	4.984		
440	120.5571	32.04662	2.29659	92.85284	9.829	1	
462	129.7608	38.39526	2.176265	93.98495	4.984	1	
252	134.9082	32.97143	2.265457	92.06599	4.305	1	
661	110.3771	29.9864	2.245051	56.77773	38.888	2	
628	94.20476	31.01351	2.244652	69.63533	45.213	2	
621	100.1302	28.73366	2.228544	61.22003	66.728	2	
392	104.1054	29.8592	2.22488	65.2195	49.2	2	
426	89.4013	29.24075	2.28078	81.11826	39.253	2	
391	115.2215	29.44463	2.193363	67.0258	24.766	3	
534	129.3597	40.09695	2.143977	71.84998	68.099	3	
619	127.3185	33.00572	2.105721	55.42553	52.74	3	
352	127.3506	33.68263	2.104538	72.79697	23.696	3	
354	125.9028	33.70022	2.083479	77.45229	26.639	3	
638	107.1057	29.46306	2.247549	58.19688	15.851	4	
639	101.8406	36.56046	2.260366	58.03394	19.848	4	
632	107.1129	32.45584	2.244591	55.58301	28.541	4	
636	108.4648	33.97344	2.210082	63.91458	18.279	4	
606	116.9149	32.27015	2.152229	64.24762	16.201	4	

Table 2: Learning samples.

Notes: 1- mudstone; 2- conglomeratic sandstone; 3- Fine-grained sandstone; 4- medium-grained sandstone

			lithology	GA SVM	BDNN			
Depth/m	AC	CNL	DEN(g·cm ⁻¹)	GR	$RXO(\Omega{\cdot}m)$	actual	uradiat	prodict
	$(\mu s{\cdot}m^{-1})$	(%)		(API)		actual	predict	predict
465	147.3778	34.18616	2.169473	90.90363	7.037	1	1	1
351	108.135	33.05614	2.24345	75.90002	7.415	1	2	3
352	117.9064	34.04599	2.253468	91.61892	8.069	1	1	2
386	121.4397	33.79903	2.221189	87.09536	7.416	1	1	1
428	69.20372	18.59011	2.404825	102.4146	67.4	2	2	2
426	72.99623	18.92969	2.369991	96.1902	57.358	2	2	1
358	125.9543	35.29397	2.103536	76.91651	25.319	3	3	4
350	127.6563	34.53033	2.066431	70.86774	20.841	3	3	3
606	117.9348	34.07982	2.171098	73.35375	14.199	4	4	4
634	116.7718	33.65931	2.160615	78.34065	18.599	4	3	1
604	104.3699	33.76941	2.263324	61.09675	18.379	4	4	2
608	109.3916	33.06219	2.285016	73.96328	18.728	4	2	4

Table 3: Test samples.

4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The quality of the SVM classification largely depends on the choice of the parameter σ and penalty factor C of the kernel function. Choosing unreasonable parameters will directly affect the prediction accuracy. Therefore, in this paper, based on the selection of a radial basis kernel function as the kernel function used by the SVM, the optimal parameter value (23.679, 4.4169) is calculated by the genetic algorithm.

After obtaining the optimized kernel function parameter σ and penalty factor C, 200 lithologic samples are trained as learning sets (Table 2) to obtain a corresponding SVM model, while 74 lithologic samples are used as test sets to test the lithologic identification model, the results of which are compared with the BP neural network method. Table 3 lists the input parameters and identification results of some of the test samples. Table 4 shows the classification of all the test samples.

Table 3 and Table 4 show that the GA-SVM method provides good lithologic identification results. Compared with the BP neural network model, which trained with the same samples, the accuracy of the GA-SVM result is higher. The GA-SVM method correctly identified 63 samples from all the test samples, for an accuracy rate of 85.1%,

while the identification accuracy of the BP neural network was only 60.8%.

Table 4: Accuracy of SVM	lithology identification.
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Lithology	samples	GA-	BPNN	GA-SVM	BPNN
.0G	y F	SVM		accuracy	accuracy
		/		/%	/%
1	15	12	10	80	66.6
2	22	18	13	81.8	59
3	20	19	14	95	70
4	17	14	8	82.3	47
total	74	63	45	85.1	60.8

5 CONCLUSIONS

The formation environment of conglomeratic sandstone is complex: major structural and compositional changes occur, and the heterogeneity is strong. This environment creates challenges for the identification conglomeratic sandstone lithology. To reduce the multiplicity of corresponding relations between logging responses and lithologiesy, we identify the correlation between conventional logging data and the lithology of a conglomeratic sandstone. By using the classification advantage of support vector machines for nonlinear problems with small samples sizes, we can precisely categorize the lithology of the conglomeratic sandstone.

The genetic algorithm can effectively search for the optimal parameters of support vector machines. Using the genetic algorithm to build the support vector machine lithology identification model, the overall prediction rate of the test samples is 85.1%, which is better than that using the BP neural network.

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