

Super-resolution reconstruction of hydrate-bearing sediment computed tomography images for microscopic detection of pore structure

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Abstract

The pore structure of marine sediments varies with the distribution of gas-hydrate, hence affecting the gas-water permeability. CT image is a conventional approach to view the internal structure, while for hydrate-bearing sediment investigation, rather poor resolution of obtained image has limited the accuracy of the analysis. Recently, super-resolution (SR) reconstruction techniques have been used to enhance the spatial resolution of CT images with varying degrees of improvement. Typical Image Pairs-Based SR (PSR) methods require higher resolution matching images for training, which is challenging for hydrate samples in dynamic temperature and pressure conditions. Here, we introduced a self-supervised learning (SLSR) method that only relies on a single input image to complete the process of training and reconstruction. We conducted a complete training to establish an end-to-end network consisting of two sub-networks, an SR network and a downscaling network. Self-built datasets from three hydrate samples with different sediment grains were trained and tested. Compared with the typical method, the SR results show that our method provides higher resolution while improving clarity. Moreover, in the subsequent calculation of porosity parameters, it has the highest consistency with the liquid saturation method. This study contributes to investigating the water seepage and energy transfer in the gas hydrate bearing sediments, which is particularly important for the exploration and development of marine natural gas hydrate resources. The image super-resolution method established by us has also a broad application prospect in the field of CT imaging.

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1 **Super-resolution reconstruction of hydrate-bearing sediment computed tomography**
2 **images for microscopic detection of pore structure**

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15 **Key Points:**

- 16 • Further breakthrough the CT imaging limits, presenting more clear internal structure of
17 sediment pores.
18 • Enables super-resolution image reconstruction technique for fine structure detection in
19 sediment pores.
20 • The pore structure of sediments is more clearly resolved and the porosity parameters are
21 calculated more accurately.

22

23 Abstract

24 The pore structure of marine sediments varies with the distribution of gas-hydrate, hence
25 affecting the gas-water permeability. CT image is a conventional approach to view the internal
26 structure, while for hydrate-bearing sediment investigation, rather poor resolution of obtained
27 image has limited the accuracy of the analysis. Recently, super-resolution (SR) reconstruction
28 techniques have been used to enhance the spatial resolution of CT images with varying degrees
29 of improvement. Typical Image Pairs-Based SR (PSR) methods require higher resolution
30 matching images for training, which is challenging for hydrate samples in dynamic temperature
31 and pressure conditions. Here, we introduced a self-supervised learning (SLSR) method that only
32 relies on a single input image to complete the process of training and reconstruction. We
33 conducted a complete training to establish an end-to-end network consisting of two sub-networks,
34 an SR network and a downscaling network. Self-built datasets from three hydrate samples with
35 different sediment grains were trained and tested. Compared with the typical method, the SR
36 results show that our method provides higher resolution while improving clarity. Moreover, in
37 the subsequent calculation of porosity parameters, it has the highest consistency with the liquid
38 saturation method. This study contributes to investigating the water seepage and energy transfer
39 in the gas hydrate bearing sediments, which is particularly important for the exploration and
40 development of marine natural gas hydrate resources. The image super-resolution method
41 established by us has also a broad application prospect in the field of CT imaging.

42 Plain Language Summary

43 When trying to break through the hardware limitation of X-ray images by some machine
44 learning methods, it always requires higher resolution images for a training process. That is
45 impossible to operate with gas hydrate samples, for it is hard to keep them stable without a low-
46 temperature and high-pressure environment. We introduced an optimized process that uses only
47 the original images without paired higher-resolution images. We trained and tested this algorithm
48 on actual X-ray images taken from homemade and field hydrate samples. The processed images
49 were presented with higher resolution and higher image quality, which can give more accurate
50 microstructure information hidden in the images. The results show that this method has broad
51 application prospects in marine sediment microscopic detection.

52 1 Introduction

53 The morphology of gas hydrate in Marine sediment pores has a significant influence on
54 the physical characteristics such as acoustic velocity, resistivity, and permeability, which largely
55 determines the accuracy of hydrate geophysical exploration and resource evaluation (PRIEST *et*
56 *al.*, 2005; REN *et al.*, 2010; ZHANG *et al.*, 2020). So far, the natural gas hydrate in the pores of
57 marine sediments is still distributed in a dispersed manner, which is invisible to the naked eye.
58 For example, gas hydrate is mainly filled in the pores of muddy or sandy sediments of Shenhu
59 area, South China Sea (LIU *et al.*, 2017). X-ray micro-computed tomography (micro-CT) has
60 been widely leveraged to explore microscopic hydrate-bearing sediments since it can visually
61 present the microstructure characteristics and phase changes of different components without
62 destroying samples. The researchers leverage advances in micro-CT image acquisition and
63 analysis techniques to create 3D digital images of gas hydrate samples, which are used for
64 computational modeling and simulations to calculate physical property parameters of interest,
65 such as saturation, porosity, and permeability (Wang *et al.*, 2018). However, the accuracy of
66 calculated parameters is crucially dependent on the quality of digital images, which is currently

67 limited by the resolution of the micro-CT scanning technology. High-resolution data, however,
68 results in a small field of view (FOV), and thus a trade-off between image FOV and image
69 resolution is made (Wildenschild & Sheppard, 2013), which leads to non-representative results
70 (Li *et al.*, 2017). Recent developments in Image Super-Resolution (SR) methods allow images of
71 low resolution (LR) to have fine details compared to high-resolution images (HR) using deep
72 learning, which may be an effective means to circumvent the trade-off between high resolution
73 and FOV to assist in more accurate physical analysis.

74 Image Super-Resolution techniques, an ill-posed and indeterminate inverse problem with
75 an infinite solution space, reconstruct higher resolution output from the LR observation to obtain
76 images with a resolution beyond the limit of hardware. In recent years, SR methods based on
77 deep learning especially convolutional neural networks (CNN), have increasingly become a
78 robust way to improve the performance of Single Image Super-Resolution (SISR) (Dong *et al.*,
79 2016; Kim *et al.*, 2016; Tai *et al.*, 2017; Ledig *et al.*, 2017; Wang *et al.*, 2019), which have been
80 used in digital rock micro-CT images. Wang *et al.* (2019) compared SR-Resnet, Enhanced Deep
81 SR (EDSR), and Wide-Activation Deep SR (WDSR) methods on the performance of super-
82 resolving micro-CT images of sandstone and carbonate rocks, which were trained on paired
83 synthesized LR-HR images where the LR images were bicubically downsampled from original HR
84 images. Hou *et al.* (2021) proposed a generative adversary network of an image segmentation
85 network as a discriminator constrained by perspective information and prior information
86 (SCPGAN) to enhance micro-CT digital rock images resolution which shows GAN based model
87 with prior information has excellent anti-noise capacity. Janssens *et al.* (2020) used a generative
88 adversarial network (GAN) to improve the CT image resolution of the reservoir and some
89 physical parameters of the reservoir such as pore network properties and single-phase,
90 unsaturated, and two-phase flow were compared after super-resolution. The results showed
91 relevant small pores and pore surfaces are better resolved thus providing better estimates of
92 unsaturated and two-phase flow.

93 Note that, the SR methods mentioned above focus more on the super-resolution of synthetic
94 images whose LR images are down-scaled from corresponding HR images, which may cause
95 some problems in practical applications. Firstly, the mapping between downsampled images and
96 original HR images may deviate from the realistic model, which makes state-of-the-art SR
97 methods trained on LR-HR image pairs produced with the assumption suffer from significant
98 performance degradation. Secondly, there is a need to super-resolve the highest resolution
99 images with the best FOV the instrument can achieve, whether it is feasible to apply the model
100 trained based on this hypothesis to super-resolution HR images is still lack of sufficient evidence.

101 To overcome these challenges, Real-World Image Pairs-Based methods, Domain
102 Translation-Based methods, and Self-Supervised Learning-Based methods have been introduced.
103 Real-World Image Pairs-Based methods directly collect the images of the same scenario with
104 different resolutions to model the direct mapping of realistic LR-HR image pairs (Chen *et al.*,
105 2019; Zhang *et al.*, 2019; Cai *et al.*, 2019). However, it is difficult to get completely matched
106 LR-HR image pairs in the real world while misalignment may cause blur artifacts. And in the
107 field of gas-bearing hydrate, whose formation and decomposition process may cause a great
108 challenge to collect the realistic LR-HR image pairs. As it is hard to obtain datasets with well-
109 aligned LR-HR image pairs, the Domain Translation-Based methods translate texture from a
110 high-resolution domain to a low-resolution domain without one-to-one correspondence between
111 LR and HR images (Yuan *et al.*, 2018; Kim *et al.*, 2020; You *et al.*, 2020). The Domain
112 Translation-Based methods use Cycle-Consistent Adversarial Networks (Cycle-GAN), based on

113 Unpaired image-to-image Translation. (Zhu *et al.*, 2017). Niu *et al.* (2021). used paired and
114 unpaired micro-CT images of a carbonate rock sample with complicated micro-porous textures
115 to train a convolutional neural network (CNN) and Cycle-GAN respectively, whose quantitative
116 results show that the unpaired GAN approach can reconstruct super-resolution images as precise
117 as paired CNN method. Chen *et al.* (2020) proposed a cycle-consistent generative adversarial
118 network (Cycle-GAN)-based SR approach for real-world rock micro-CT images super-resolution,
119 which is trained on a set of unpaired rock images at different resolutions. The experimental
120 results showed great consistency with the targets in terms of both the visual quality and the
121 statistical parameters such as the porosity, the lineal-path function, and the pore size distribution.
122 Niu *et al.* applied a cycle-in-cycle generative adversarial network (CinCGAN) using unpaired
123 training images to improve the resolution of 3-D micro-CT data, which results demonstrated that
124 CinCGAN provides physically accurate images with an order of magnitude larger field of view
125 when compared to other typical methods (Yuan *et al.*, 2018; Niu *et al.*, 2020).

126 As most existing SISR methods use external datasets such as paired or unpaired training
127 data to train SR models, Self-Supervise Learning-Based methods were proposed to exploit the
128 internal information of the single specific LR input. KernelGAN (Bell-Kligler *et al.*, 2019)
129 estimates a downscaling kernel for the blind SR based on internal learning, which can be plugged
130 into the reconstruction module ZSSR (Shocher *et al.*, 2018) to enhance performance. DBPI (Kim
131 *et al.*, 2020) and DualSR (Emad *et al.*, 2021) assumed that the SR network not only depends on
132 the estimated kernel but also can improve downscaling kernel estimation, which trained the
133 downscaling kernel along with kernel estimation network and SR network. As Self-Supervise
134 Learning-Based methods train on a single input image, which only utilizes the internal
135 information of LR input while a great deal of external information is neglected because online
136 training with time-consuming. The application of self-supervised learning for super-resolving the
137 micro-CT images in the field of the digital core has not been reported yet.

138 In this work, the DRRN, SRDenseNet, DualSR, DBPI and the improved DBPI methods
139 were used to enhance the resolution of gas hydrate micro-CT images which were collected in the
140 laboratory. The DRNN and SRDenseNet methods were trained on paired synthesized LR-HR
141 images where the LR images were bicubically downscaled from original HR images which is the
142 same as those approaches used in this field before. The DualSR and DBPI methods are based on
143 self-supervised learning which reconstruct SR images from a single input image. And the
144 improved DBPI method combines the advances of self-supervised learning and Image Pairs-
145 Based method. The SR results show that compared with Image Pairs-Based methods, self-
146 supervised learning methods can obtain CT images with higher resolution and contrast, however,
147 it is greatly affected by image noise, leading to a large change degree of gray value near the
148 center of sand component in CT image before and after reconstruction. In order to overcome the
149 above defects, we improved the DBPI method that performs best previously, which further
150 improved the sharpness and contrast of the image while alleviating the above symptoms. After
151 that, the watershed image segmentation algorithm was used to segment the pores and skeletons
152 in the original CT image, the bicubic interpolation image, the results obtained by DBPI and the
153 results obtained by the improved DBPI. Finally, the porosity parameter was calculated based on
154 the segmentation results, and the mean porosity of the result of the improved DBPI closest to the
155 that measured by the saturated liquid weighing method. The results show that the improved
156 DBPI method can help to distinguish the porosity and skeleton better, so as to calculate more
157 accurate porosity parameters.

158 2 Materials and Methods

159 The basic model of SISR follows equation 1, which assumes that the low-resolution input
 160 image I_{LR} is the result of downscaling a high-resolution image I_{HR} by a scaling factor s using
 161 some kernel k_s and with an additional blur factor n :

$$162 \quad I_{LR} = (I_{HR} * k_s) \downarrow_s + n, \quad (1)$$

163 where $*$ and \downarrow_s represent the convolution and the subsampling with a scale factor of s
 164 respectively. Image Pairs-Based SR (PSR) methods and Self-Supervised Learning-Based SR
 165 (SLSR) methods were used to enhance the resolution of micro-CT images for a comparison.

166 2.1 SISR by PSR

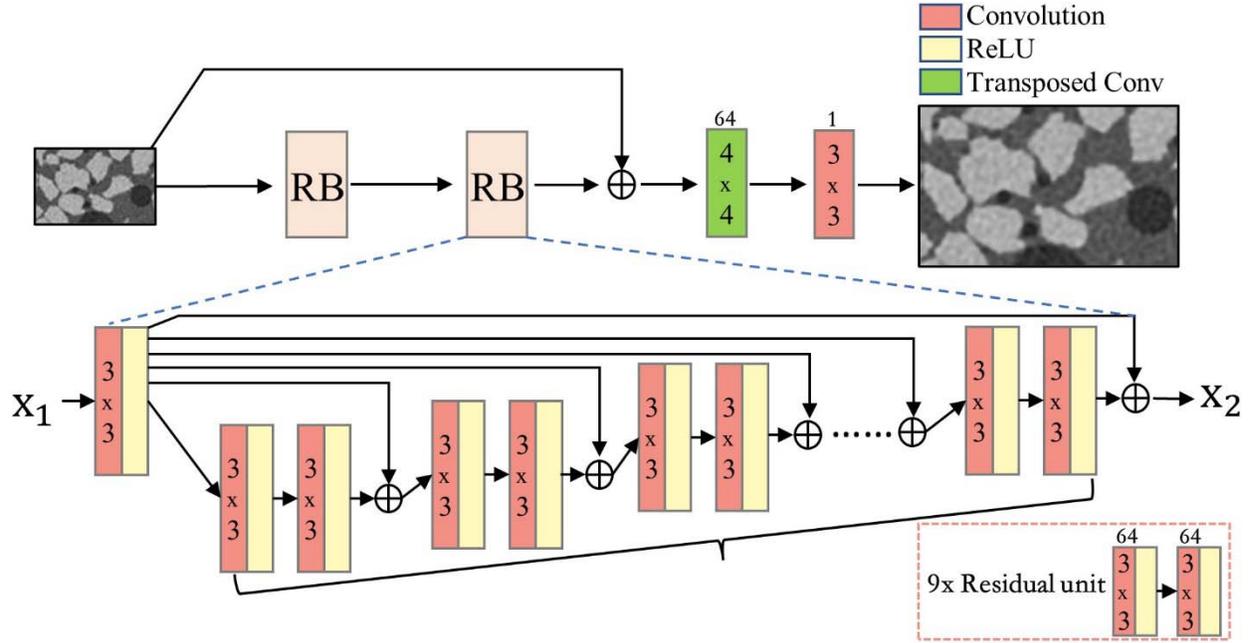
167 PSR methods assume that k_s is a Gaussian Kernel which usually is a bicubic
 168 downscaling kernel with antialiasing, and learn the direct mapping of paired LR-HR images to
 169 reconstruct high-resolution images from low-resolution images which were bicubically
 170 downscaled from HR images.

171 2.1.1 DRRN-PSR

172 The DRRN-PSR structure (Figure 1) used in this study is inspired by Tai et al. (2017).
 173 DRRN-PSR has two substructures: the residual unit and the recursive block. The residual unit
 174 contains two convolutional layers of kernel size 3 with rectified linear units (ReLU) activation
 175 function and each convolutional layer applies 64 filters. The recursive block contains a
 176 convolutional layer in the beginning, and then several residual units are stacked at the behind of
 177 the first layer. The recursive block number B and the residual unit number U in each recursive
 178 block are the two key parameters in DRRN-PSR. The network structure of DRRN-PSR with $B=2$
 179 and $U=9$ was designed to super-resolve the micro-CT images in our implementation, the whole
 180 structure of our implementation of DRRN-PSR is shown in Figure 1.

181 Given a training set $\{X^{(i)}, \tilde{X}^{(i)}\}_{i=1}^N$, where N is the number of training patches and $\tilde{X}^{(i)}$ is
 182 the ground truth HR patch of the LR patch $X^{(i)}$, the loss function with parameter set Θ of DRRN-
 183 PSR is

$$184 \quad \mathcal{L}(\Theta) = \frac{1}{2N} (\tilde{X}^{(i)} - \mathcal{D}(X^{(i)}))^2. \quad (1)$$



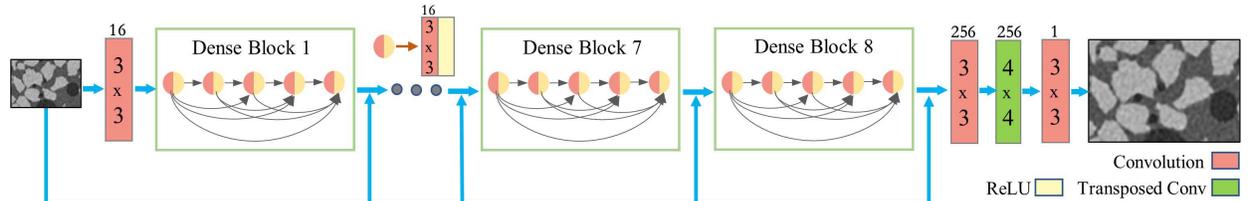
185
 186 Figure 1. The whole structure of our implementation of DRRN-PSR with $B=2$ and $U=9$, where B is the
 187 recursive block number and U is the residual unit number in each recursive block. “ $k \times k$ ” in convolution
 188 layers represents filter size. The number of filters for each convolution layer is presented above each layer.

2.1.2 SRDenseNet-PSR

190 SRDenseNet-PSR connects each layer to every other layer in a feed-forward fashion, was
 191 proposed by Huang et al. (2018) to strengthen feature propagation, encourage feature reuse, etc.
 192 The main body of SRDenseNet-PSR contains dense blocks consisting of several dense layers.
 193 Each dense layer are convolutional layers with activation functions such as ReLU. The i^{th} layer
 194 in each dense block receives the feature maps of all preceding layers as input:

$$X_i = \mathcal{F}_i([X_0, X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}]), \quad (2)$$

196 where $[X_0, X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}]$ refers to the concatenation of the feature maps produced in layers
 197 $0, \dots, i - 1$ of each dense block, \mathcal{F} is a composite function of convolution and ReLU operations.
 198 There has a skip connection after each dense block in our implementation, as shown in Figure 2,
 199 and the loss function used is the same as equation 1 in DRRN-PSR.



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 201 Figure 2. The whole structure of our implementation of SRDenseNet-PSR with eight dense blocks and each
 202 dense block has five dense layers (two color colors in the dense block).

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2.2 SISR by SLSR

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SLSR methods train an image-specific network that learns low-to-high resolution mapping using only patches of the input test image compared to PSR methods which need plenty of paired images for training. A two-stage optimization problem is modeled in this approach, which conducts downscaling kernel estimation followed by SR network training with the estimated kernel.

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2.2.1 DualSR-SLSR

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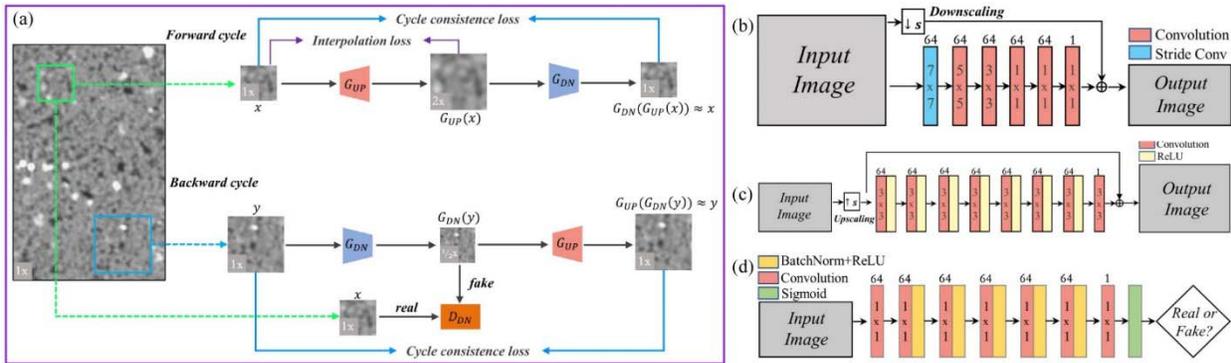
213

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215

The whole network architecture of DualSR-SLSR is shown in Figure 3(a), where the G_{UP} is SR network that trains to super-resolve the input LR image, the G_{DN} is the downscaling network that estimates the downscaling kernel, and the D_{DN} is the discriminator that learns to distinguish between real (patches of the input LR image) and fake (output patches generated by G_{DN}). The downscaling network, SR network, and discriminator are shown in Figure 3 (b), Figure 3 (c) and Figure 3 (d), respectively.

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Figure 3. The whole network architecture of DualSR-SLSR (a) contains of the downscaling network (b), the upscaling network (c), and the discriminator (d).

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Figure 3(a) demonstrates the forward and backward cycles process with cycle-consistence-loss which are similar to CycleGAN. In the forward cycle, the G_{UP} generates a 2x upsampled image patch, and then G_{DN} is applied and converts the upsampled image patch back to 1x. Similarly, a $1/2x$ downsampled version of the image patch is generated by G_{DN} and then the G_{UP} upscales the image patch back to the original scale in the backward cycle. Denoting the input image patch as x in the forward cycle and as y in the backward cycle respectively, the cycle-consistence-loss is

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$$\mathcal{L}_{cycle} = \mathbb{E}_x \|G_{DN}(G_{UP}(x)) - x\|_1 + \mathbb{E}_y \|G_{UP}(G_{DN}(y)) - y\|_1. \quad (3)$$

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In order to estimate the degradation model accurately, a GAN is used to preserve the distribution of patches across scales of the input image that the output $G_{DN}(y)$ is indistinguishable by the discriminator D_{DN} from input image patches. The adversarial loss for the generator is

230

$$\mathcal{L}_{GAN} = \mathbb{E}_y [D_{DN}(G_{DN}(y)) - 1]^2. \quad (4)$$

231

Then, the final loss function for training the G_{DN} , G_{UP} , and D_{DN} is

232

$$\mathcal{L}_{total} = \mathcal{L}_{GAN} + \mathcal{L}_{cycle}. \quad (5)$$

233 2.2.2 DBPI-SLSR

234 Similar to DualSR-SLSR, the DBPI-SLSR network has a downscaling network G_{DN} , an
 235 SR network G_{UP} , the Up-Down process (forward cycle), and the Down-Up process (backward
 236 cycle) are shown in Figure 4. In the down-up side, a patch of the input image is first downscaled
 237 by G_{DN} , and then the G_{UP} upscales the downscaled one to the original size. Then a \mathcal{L}_1 loss is
 238 applied to reduce the difference between the input patch x and the output of the Down-Up
 239 process, as shown in equation 6:

$$240 \quad \mathcal{L}_U = \frac{1}{m \times n} \|G_{UP}(G_{DN}(x)) - x\|_1, \quad (6)$$

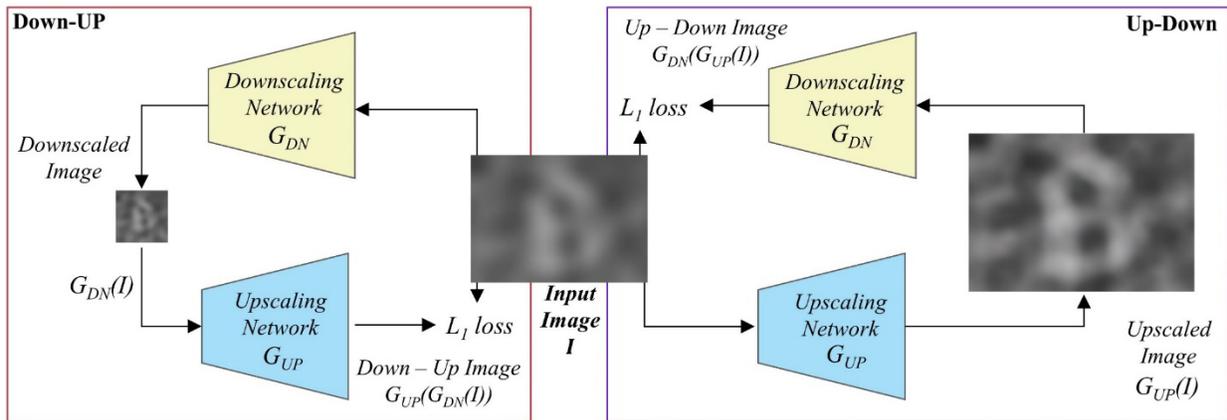
241 where m and n are the height and width of input patch x , respectively. In parallel, a patch of
 242 input image is first upscaled by G_{UP} and then G_{DN} downscales the upscaled one to generate an
 243 up-down image patch. Then, in the same manner, a \mathcal{L}_1 loss is applied to reduce the difference
 244 between the input patch x and the output of the Up-Down process, as shown in equation 7:

$$245 \quad \mathcal{L}_D = \frac{1}{m \times n} \|G_{DN}(G_{UP}(x)) - x\|_1. \quad (7)$$

246 In the training process, \mathcal{L}_U is used to train G_{UP} and \mathcal{L}_D is used to train G_{DN} . The \mathcal{L}_U and
 247 \mathcal{L}_D loss consist of the dual back-projection loss, which is

$$248 \quad \mathcal{L}_{DBP} = \mathcal{L}_U + \mathcal{L}_D = \frac{1}{m \times n} (\|G_{UP}(G_{DN}(x)) - x\|_1 + \|G_{DN}(G_{UP}(x)) - x\|_1). \quad (8)$$

249 The blur kernel of the input image is estimated by the dual back-projection loss implicitly
 250 that is different from DualSR-SLSR which uses a GAN to estimate the blur kernel. The network
 251 of G_{DN} and G_{UP} of DBPI-SLSR are the same as the network shown in Figure3(b) and Figure 3(c)
 252 used in DualSR-SLSR.



253
 254 Figure 4. The overall framework of DBPI-SLSR. The downscaling network G_{DN} and the SR network G_{UP} of
 255 DBPI are the same as the network shown in Figure3(b) and Figure 3(c).

256 2.2.3 Our improved SLSR based on DBPI (I-DBPI)

257 The whole framework of I-DBPI is the same as DBPI-SLSR, however, they differ in the
 258 training strategy. More intuitively, I-DBPI learns low-to-high resolution mapping using images
 259 of the whole dataset, since the feature information of CT slice images of the same sample is
 260 highly coincident. It can make up for the lack of thin feature information when Self-Supervised
 261 Learning methods use single image for training, and improve the robustness.

2.3 Performance Evaluation Criteria

2.3.1 Image Similarity Metrics

Peak Singal-to-Noise Ration (PSNR) and Structure Similarity Index (SSIM) are two objective evaluation metrics to measure the difference between the ground truth image and the super-resolved image, which need corresponding reference images. For a better description, let $X \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times C}$ and $\hat{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times C}$ denote the ground truth image and the super-resolved image where H , W , and C are width, height, and channel numbers of the image respectively.

(1) PSNR. PSNR is the most widely used full-reference objective quality assessment metric for image super-resolution, which is more concerned with the proximity between X and \hat{X} . Given X and \hat{X} , the PSNR can be calculated by equation 9:

$$PSNR = 10 \times \log_{10} \left(\frac{L^2 - 1}{MSE} \right), \quad (9)$$

where L denotes the maximum pixel value (*i.e.*, 255 for 8-bit images) and MSE is the mean square error between X and \hat{X} .

(2) SSIM. SSIM is a full-reference objective quality assessment metric that measures structural similarity between X and \hat{X} . More specifically, SSIM compares the luminance, contrast, and structure between X and \hat{X} . SSIM is defined as

$$SSIM = [l(X, \hat{X})]^\alpha [c(X, \hat{X})]^\beta [s(X, \hat{X})]^\gamma. \quad (10)$$

Further, equation 11 can be simplified when $\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 1$ and $C_3 = \frac{C_2}{2}$ as

$$SSIM = \frac{(2\mu_X\mu_{\hat{X}} + C_1)(2\sigma_X\sigma_{\hat{X}} + C_2)}{(\mu_X^2 + \mu_{\hat{X}}^2 + C_1)(\sigma_X^2 + \sigma_{\hat{X}}^2 + C_2)}. \quad (11)$$

2.3.2 Image Clarity Metrics

In this paper, we need to evaluate the image quality when super-resolving the original micro-CT images which have no reference images to calculate the PNSR and SSIM indicators. Since image clarity is an important indicator in the quality evaluation of non-reference images which corresponds better with the subjective feelings of people's eyes, the SMD (Sum of Mean Modulus Difference) is used to quantitatively evaluate the images super-resolved on the original images. The SMD is the sum of the absolute value of the gray difference of the adjacent pixels, which is defined as:

$$SMD = \sum_i \sum_j (|I(i, j) - I(i, j - 1)| + |I(i, j) - fI(i + 1, j)|), \quad (12)$$

where i and j is the width and height index of the input image, respectively, and $I(i, j)$ denotes the pixel value.

293 **2.4 Datasets and Training Details**

294 **2.4.1 Datasets**

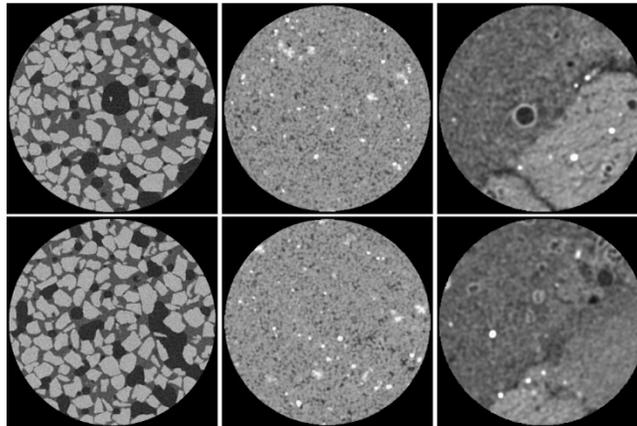
295 Three self-built datasets from three hydrate samples were shuffled and split 8:1:1 into
 296 training, validation, and testing sets in this study. The three datasets are S1, S2, and S3, as the
 297 porosity decreases progressively. They were described in detail as follows:

298 *S1. Quartz sand_Hyd.* This dataset contains 800 HR micro-CT images of gas hydrate-
 299 bearing quartz sand. The sample is prepared manually in the laboratory and contains four
 300 components, methane gas, hydrate, water and quartz sand. The grain size of quartz sand ranges
 301 from 500-700 μm . Each image has a spatial resolution of 18 μm and a size of 510×510 .

302 *S2. Berea Sandstone_Hyd.* This dataset contains 520 HR micro-CT images of gas
 303 hydrate-bearing Berea sandstone. The sample is also prepared manually in the laboratory and
 304 contains four components, methane gas, hydrate, water and Berea sandstone. The grain size
 305 range of Berea sandstone is 150-240 μm . Each image has a spatial resolution of 16.5 μm and a
 306 size of 450×450 .

307 *S3. South China Sea sediment_Hyd.* This dataset contains 250 HR micro-CT images of
 308 gas hydrate-bearing sediment from the South China Sea. There are four components in the
 309 image, gas, hydrate, water and sediment. The South China Sea sediment contains foraminiferal
 310 shells with coarse particles and clay with fine particles, so its particle size range is large, ranging
 311 from 0.02-2000 μm . In addition to argillaceous matrix, there are a small amount of sand and
 312 foraminifera shells in the sediments. Each image has a spatial resolution of 18 μm and a size of
 313 450×450 .

314 Figure 5 presents some images of the three datasets mentioned above. From a perspective
 315 of pore morphology and image characteristics, the samples differ significantly.



316
 317 Figure 5. Visualization of images in the proposed datasets *S1 : Quartz sand_Hyd (left)*, *S2 : South China Sea*
 318 *sediment_Hyd (middle)*, and *S3 : Berea Sandstone_Hyd (right)*.

319 **2.4.2 Training Details**

320 While the DRRN-PSR and SRDenseNet-PSR need paired LR-HR images for training,
 321 however, the proposed datasets only contain HR images. Thus, the LR datasets were prepared
 322 using images bicubically downsampled from the corresponding HR images. For data
 323 augmentation, we crop images to 64×64 size and 32×32 size for the HR and LR training

324 datasets, respectively. The DRRN-PSR and SRDenseNet-PSR were trained using ADAM
325 optimizer with initial learning rate of 0.0001 for 150 iterations, and the batch size is set to 128.

326 By contrast, the DualSR-SLSR and DBPI-SLSR were trained for every single input
327 image. For the former, the generators and the discriminator were trained successively, a batch of
328 64×64 and 128×128 batches (patches x and y in Figure 3) were sampled from the input image
329 for each iteration. The networks G_{DN} , G_{UP} , D_{DN} were trained for 3000 iterations with ADAM
330 optimizer. The initial learning rate is 0.001 for G_{DN} and 0.0002 for G_{UP} and D_{DN} , and the
331 learning rate was divided by 10 for every 750 iterations. For the latter, a patch of size 64×64
332 was sampled from the given image to train the downscaling and upscaling networks successively
333 for each iteration. The networks G_{DN} and G_{UP} were trained with ADAM optimizer for 3000
334 iterations. The initial learning rate is 0.0001 for both G_{DN} and D_{UP} , and the learning rate was
335 divided by 10 for every 750 iterations. The final super-resolved image is obtained by running the
336 trained upscaling network on the input image.

337 For I-DBPI, a patch of size 64×64 was sampled from all images of each dataset to train
338 the downscaling and upscaling networks successively for each iteration. The networks G_{DN} and
339 G_{UP} were trained with ADAM optimizer for around 60000 iterations that larger than 3000
340 iterations in DBPI. The initial learning rate is 0.0001 for both G_{DN} and D_{UP} , and the learning rate
341 was divided by 10 for every 750 iterations.

342 We use PyTorch for training and testing on an NVIDIA TITAN RTX GPU for these SR
343 methods mentioned above.

344 3 Results

345 3.1 Experiments on Synthesized LR Micro-CT Images for $2 \times$ SR

346 The present study was designed to determine the SR methods' effectiveness on micro-CT
347 images through conducting super-resolution experiment on synthesized LR micro-CT images
348 that were bicubically downsampled from the proposed three datasets for $2 \times$ super-resolution. Both
349 quantitative and qualitative evaluation between the SR micro-CT images and the corresponding
350 ground truth images can be performed in this experiment, as each synthesized LR micro-CT
351 image has its HR counterpart.

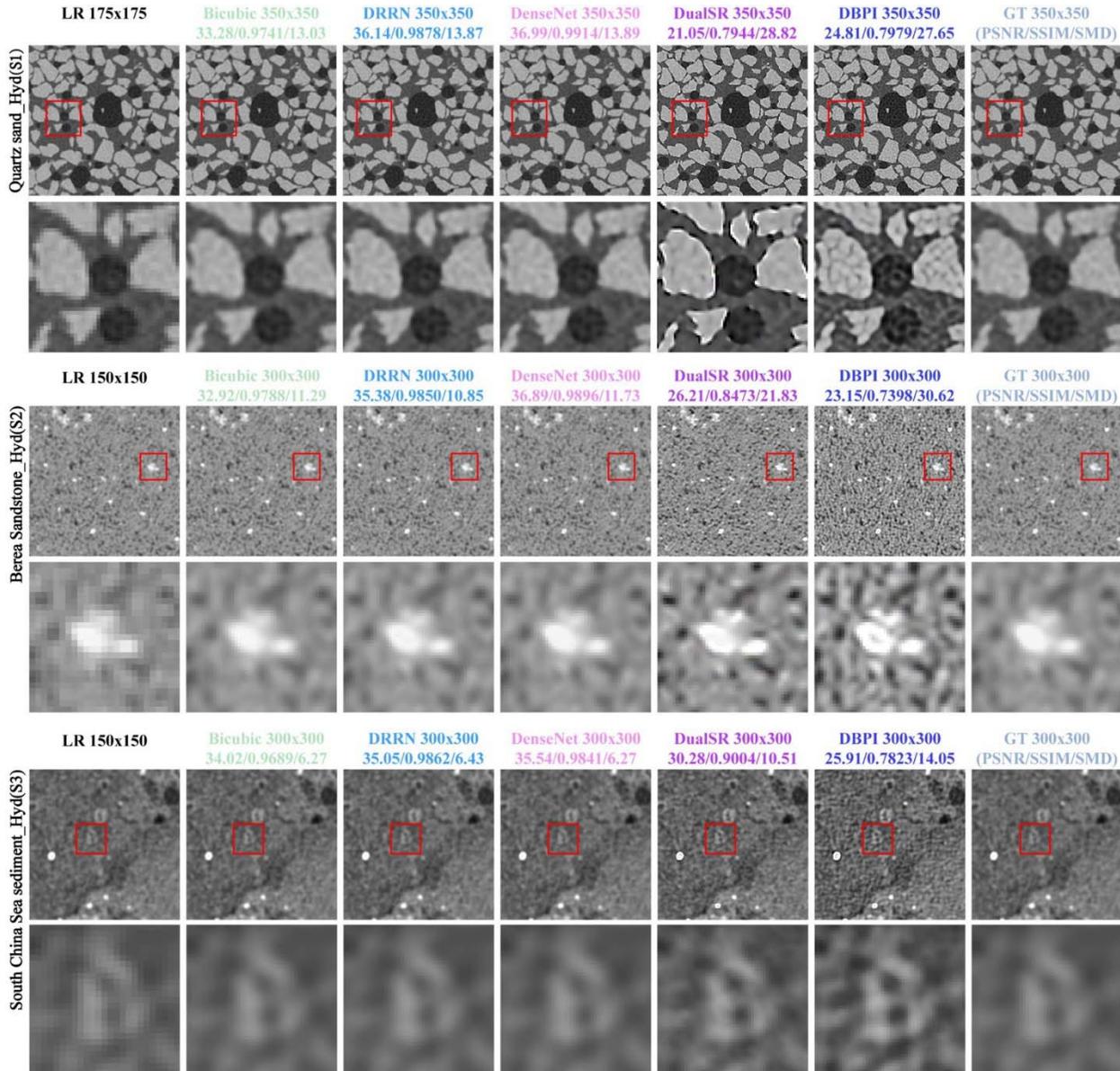
352

353 Tabel 1. Quantitative results (PSNR / SSIM / SMD) for $2 \times$ SR of different methods on synthesized LR
354 micro-CT images of the proposed three datasets.

| Method | <i>S1</i> | <i>S2</i> | <i>S3</i> |
|----------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| Bicubic | 33.10 / 0.9739 / 13.07 | 32.92 / 0.9789 / 11.40 | 33.66 / 0.9683 / 6.47 |
| DRRN-PSR | 35.94 / 0.9877 / 13.90 | 35.37 / 0.9849 / 10.94 | 34.92 / 0.9838 / 6.65 |
| SRDenseNet-PSR | 36.77 / 0.9913 / 13.94 | 36.77 / 0.9897 / 11.83 | 35.31 / 0.9862 / 6.50 |
| DualSR-SLSR | 22.12 / 0.8210 / 27.07 | 26.80 / 0.8453 / 22.55 | 30.67 / 0.9186 / 10.16 |
| DBPI-SLSR | 24.99 / 0.8000 / *27.62 | 23.64 / 0.7493 / *29.87 | 25.75 / 0.7687 / *14.76 |

355 * represents the best performance.

356 Table 1 summarizes the quantitative results (PSNR / SSIM / SMD) for $2\times$ SR on the
 357 synthesized LR micro-CT images of the proposed three datasets *S1*, *S2*, and *S3*. According to
 358 Table 1, the PSR methods achieve much better PSNR / SSIM than the SLSR methods, and
 359 SRDenseNet-PSR performs the best. By contrast, the SLSR methods achieve much better SMD,
 360 among which DBPI-SLSR achieves the best. A possible explanation is that the PSNR and SSIM
 361 are used to quantify the similarity between the SR images and the ground truth images, and the
 362 PSR methods were trained with multiple paired LR-HR images, thus results in better PSNR and
 363 SSIM. In comparison, the SLSR methods consider the information from the image itself, thus
 364 results in much sharper images with better SMD.



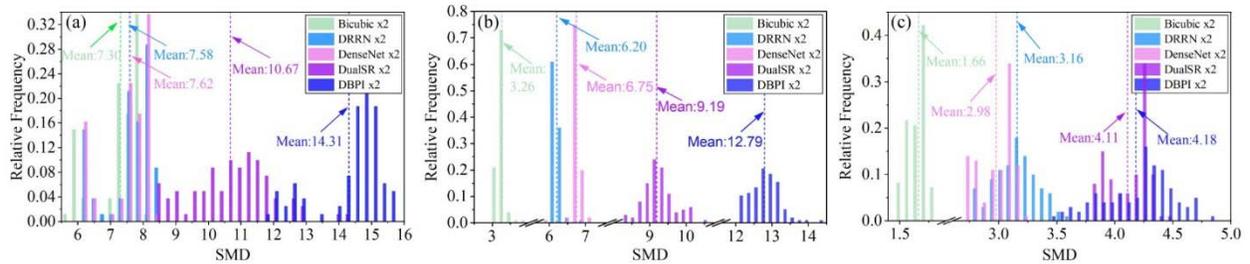
365
 366 Figure 6. Zoom-in visual comparison for $2\times$ SR on synthesized LR micro-CT images ($2\times$ downscaling from
 367 the GT) by different SR methods. The images in every other rows are an enlargement of the red box of the
 368 previous row. The numbers in the right of different SR methods are the resolution of images and the below are
 369 PSNR, SSIM and SMD, respectively. (GT: Ground Truth Image)

370 The qualitative comparison of different SR methods is shown in Figure 6. It can be seen
 371 that the ground truth images are visually blurry, although the ground truth images in our
 372 proposed datasets have the best resolution which consider the balance between FOV and
 373 resolution. Although the PSR methods tend to achieve comparable visual quality with the ground
 374 truth images, however, the performance are limited by the quality of the ground truth images
 375 because of the direct mapping learning between the LR-HR images. By contrast, the SLSR
 376 methods produce much clearer and sharper results which are not limited to the ground truth
 377 images. Furthermore, the SLSR methods enhance the resolution using only the input information
 378 of the image itself, no additional fake information would be introduced by contrast to GAN. This
 379 benefits us to find more realistic details from the super-resolved micro-CT images and will be
 380 helpful to the construction of super-resolution digital core, the accurate image segmentation, and
 381 the accurate calculation of physical property parameters.

382 3.2 Experiments on HR Micro-CT Images for $2\times$ SR

383 The results above have demonstrated the effectiveness of the SLSR methods on micro-
 384 CT images super-resolution. Since our goal is to get higher resolution images beyond the HR
 385 images (HR-SR), we need to apply super-resolution on the actually obtained HR micro-CT
 386 images, these SR methods mentioned above were also carried out on the HR micro-CT images.
 387 The model parameters of DRRN-PSR and SRDenseNet-PSR used in this experiment are the
 388 same as those in section 3.1.

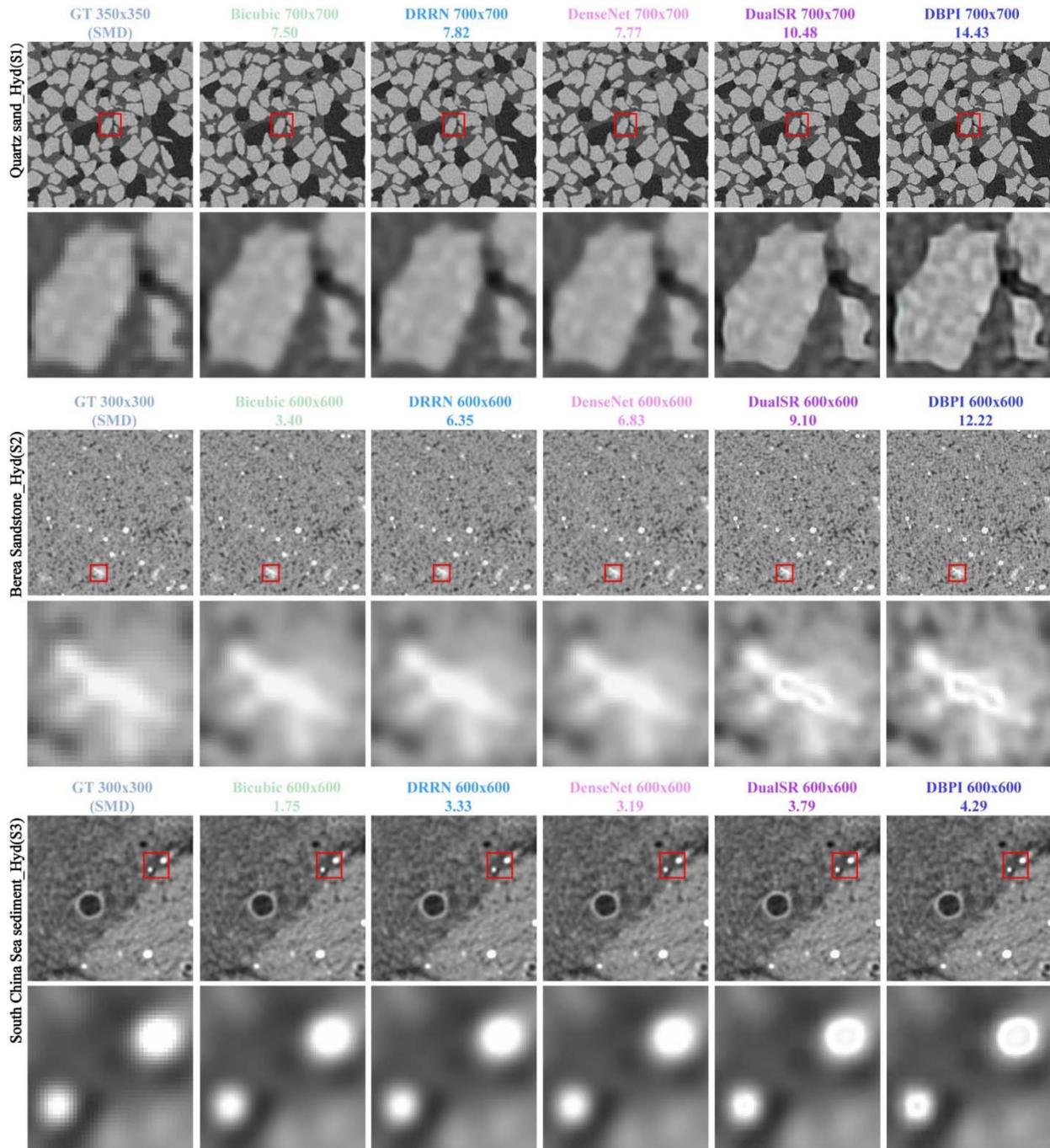
389 The quantitative and qualitative comparison of different SR methods for $2\times$ super-
 390 resolution on the actually obtained HR micro-CT images in our proposed three datasets are
 391 shown in Figure 7 and Figure 8, respectively. As shown in Figure 7, only the SMD is used in that
 392 the SR results have no counterpart higher resolution images to measure the performance of both
 393 PSNR and SSIM. In Figure 7, an intuitive comparison of the SMD performance of different SR
 394 methods on test sets of the three datasets are illustrated in each graph. In all graphics, the much
 395 higher SMD values were achieved by SLSR methods and among them the DBPI-SLSR did the
 396 best.



397
 398 Figure 7. SMD comparison for $2\times$ SR on the actually obtained HR micro-CT images in *Quartz sand_Hyd(S1)*
 399 *(a)*, *Berea Sandstone_Hyd(S2)* *(b)*, *South China Sea sediment_Hyd(S3)* *(c)*. by different SR methods.

400 Looking at Figure 8, it is apparent that the SLSR methods created much clearer and
 401 sharper images compared to not only the results of both bicubic interpolation and PSR methods,
 402 but also the actually obtained HR images. Internal feature information was extracted by self-
 403 supervised learning to make up the missing details for the magnified image, in that improves
 404 image contrast while enhancing the resolution. However, one unexpected problem that emerged
 405 from the results was that the noise of CT images was enlarged as well, especially in the hydrate
 406 samples with lower grain size. One issue is the gray values near the center of sands are much

407 lower than the edge region as shown in the enlargement images in the last two rows of Figure 8.
408 A possible explanation for this might be that the instrumental noise that resulted in the lower
409 gray values near the center than the edge region. Limited by image resolution, it is difficult to
410 find this phenomenon, however, it becomes apparent as image resolution increases. This
411 phenomenon can be more easily found in the results of bicubic interpolation and PSR methods,
412 and was more obvious in the results of SLSR methods, which shows self-supervised learning can
413 explore more image details in comparison. In accordance with the present results, although self-
414 supervised learning amplifiers noise, previous studies have demonstrated that it can produce
415 clearer and sharper results even on the actually obtained HR micro-CT images. However,
416 additional uncertainty arises from the results that the great gray scale difference of sands
417 components may affects the accuracy of image segmentation and physical property parameter
418 calculation. Therefore, in order to attenuate the noise effects in further study, we do efforts to
419 make some improvements based on DBPI-SLSR methods to make better results.



420

421 Figure 8. Zoom in visual comparison for $2\times$ SR on the actually obtained HR micro-CT images. The images in
 422 every other rows are an enlargement of the red box of the previous row. The numbers in the right of different
 423 SR methods are the resolution of images and the below is SMD values.

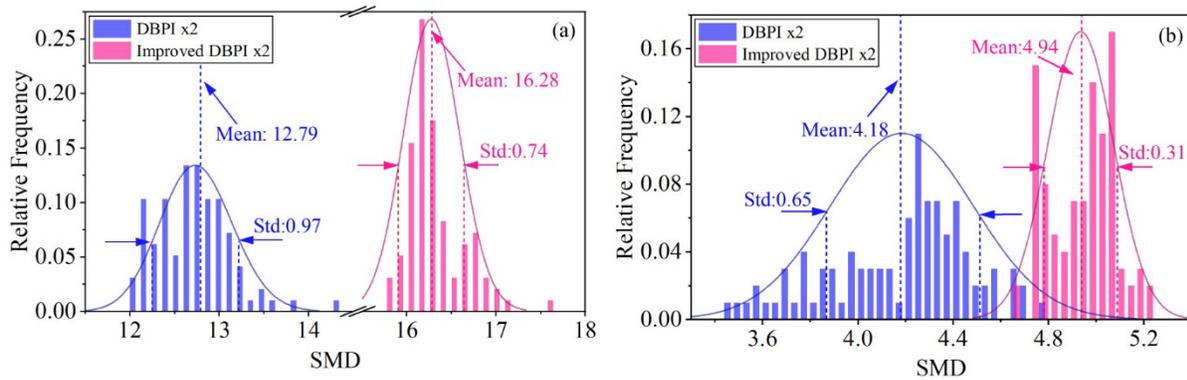
424 3.3 Results of I-DBPI for $2\times$ SR on HR Micro-CT Images

425 The results obtained from the previous experiments show that the self-supervised
 426 learning has ability to produce high quality images while enhancing the resolution by training on
 427 a single input image compared to the PSR methods, however, affects by image noise. In order to

428 create better results, some improvements were made based on the DBPI-SLSR that performed
 429 the best in previous experiments. The yields from the I-DBPI were compared with the DBPI-
 430 SLSR on *S2* and *S3* in the aspect of quantitative and qualitative which shown in Figure 9 and
 431 Figure 10, respectively.

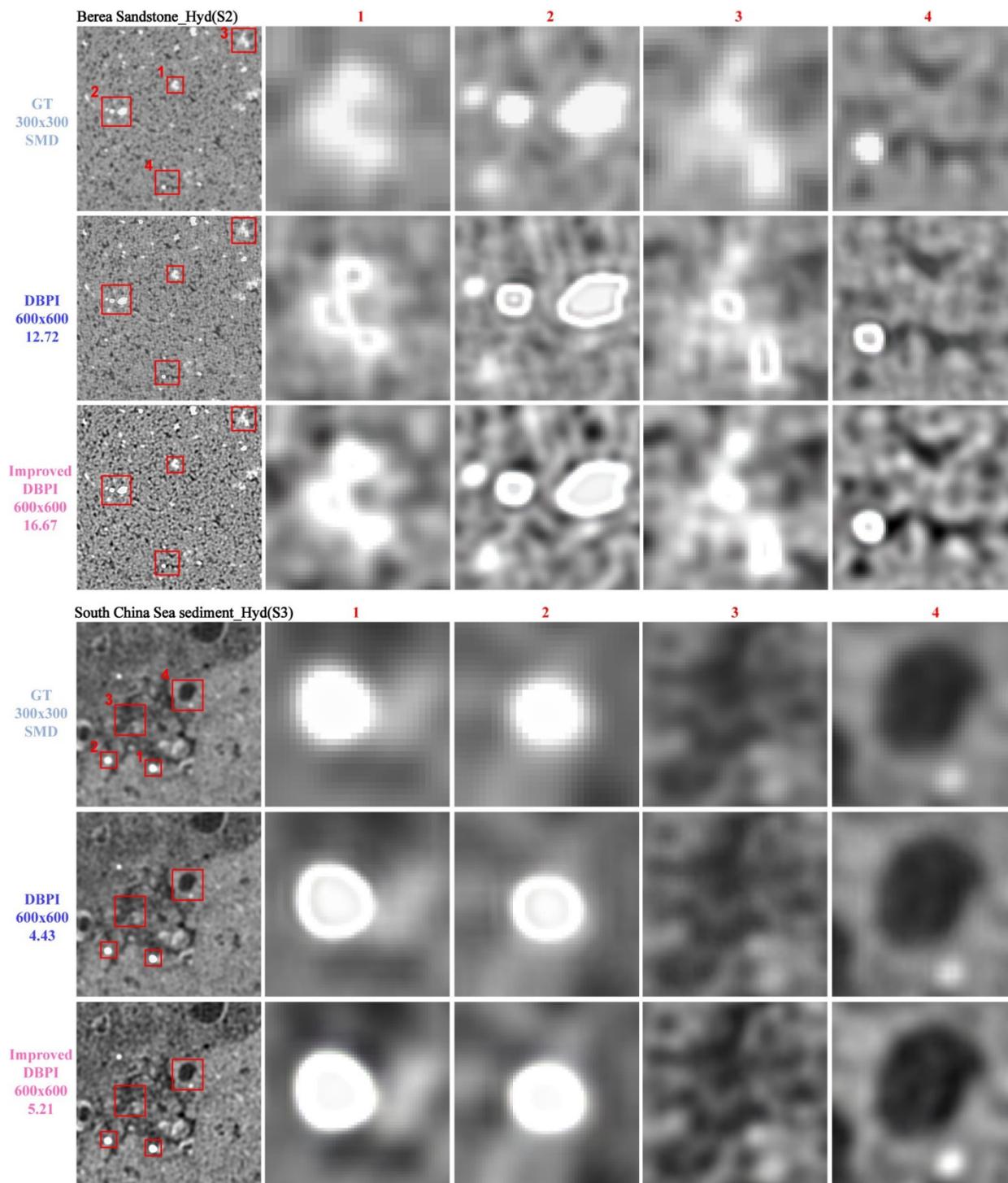
432 Figure 10 compares the image quality which is our primary concern. As shown in the
 433 enlargement images of the red box in Figure 10, the gray values of sand components in the result
 434 of the I-DBPI change smoothly and the gray range is almost the same as the original image
 435 comparing with the unsatisfactory results of the DBPI-SLSR. In addition, the contrast and
 436 sharpness of images are further enhanced by the I-DBPI, which can not only be seen intuitively
 437 from the image, but also from the distribution of SMD in Figure 9 in which the mean SMD of the
 438 I-DBPI are higher than the DBPI-SLSR in those two datasets. Moreover, the dispersion degree of
 439 SMD decreases after the improvement, indicating that the improved method is more stable and
 440 precise. Why does the improved approach work better, one possible explain is that the self-
 441 supervised learning can learn much more feature information from a large amount of data than
 442 from only one image, which can help recover more image details and make distribution stable.

443 It is worth mentioning that the process time is greatly reduced by the I-DBPI, especially
 444 when dealing with large numbers of images. More intuitively, the DBPI-SLSR method needs
 445 around two minutes to super-resolve an image of size 500×500 on an NVIDIA TITAN RTX
 446 GPU, however, the time can be shortened to two seconds for per image by I-DBPI.



447
 448 Figure 9. SMD comparison for $2 \times$ SR on the actually obtained HR images in *Berea Sandstone_Hyd(S2)* (a),
 449 *South China Sea sediment_Hyd(S3)* (b). The SMD scores are achieved by DBPI-SLSR and I-DBPI.

450



451
 452 Figure 10. Zoom in visual comparison for $2\times$ SR on the actually obtained HR micro-CT images. The images
 453 in every other cols are an enlargement of the red box of the first col. The numbers below the different SR
 454 methods are the resolution of images and SMD, respectively.

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3.4 Porosity Comparison of *Berea Sandstone_Hyd(S3)* Images

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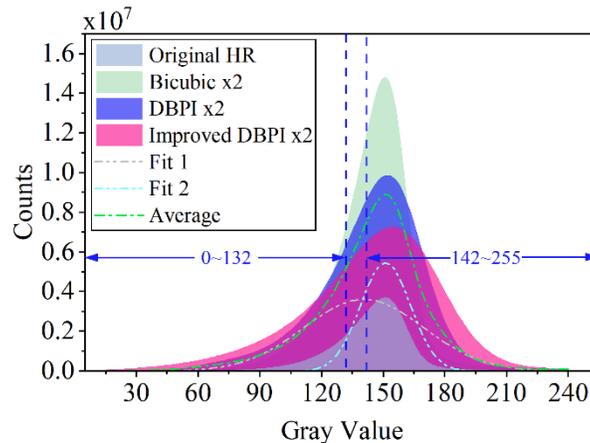
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The previous studies have demonstrated that high quality micro-CT images can be produced by the I-DBPI. Theoretically, high quality micro-CT images will help to the precise image segmentation, and the accurate calculation of physical property parameters. In order to verify this, the original HR images, the result images of bicubic interpolation, DBPI-SLSR, and the I-DBPI of *S3* were used to calculate the porosity for a comparison.



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Figure 11. Image gray value distribution of *Berea Sandstone_Hyd(S3)* images by different SR methods. The curves filled with different colors are the original distribution. The dark green curve is the average of those original curves and the gray and light green curves are the fitting results of gaussian function. The gray range 0-132 and 142-255 are the initial segmentation threshold of pore and skeleton.

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The gray value distribution of different SR methods is shown in Figure 11. However, there is no obvious trough in the gray value distribution, the watershed image segmentation algorithm is used as the segmentation threshold of pore and skeleton cannot be selected from the gray value distribution directly. In order to unify the initial threshold of watershed segmentation algorithm, all the gray value distribution were averaged firstly which is illustrated by the dark green curve in Figure 11. After that, the average distribution curve was bimodally fitted by gaussian function. The two curves obtained by the fitting are shown as gray and light green curves in Figure 11, whose intersection point is near the gray value of 140. Overall consideration, the initial segmentation threshold of pore and skeleton were set to 0-132 and 142-255 respectively, and the watershed algorithm is responsible for automatically inflating the remaining regions to different boundaries. The results of watershed image segmentation show that the boundary between the pore and skeleton of the image processed by DBPI and the improved DBPI is more obvious compared with the original image and bicubic upscaling image, which leads to more accurate segmentation results.

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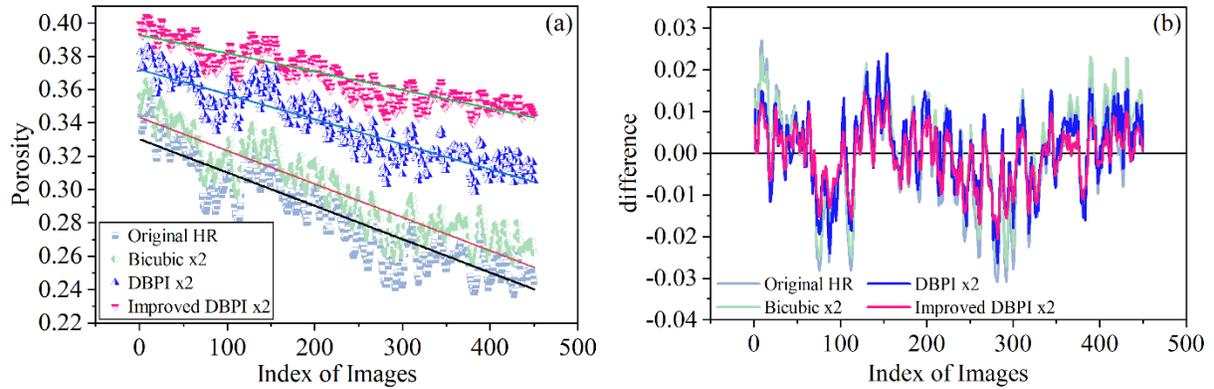
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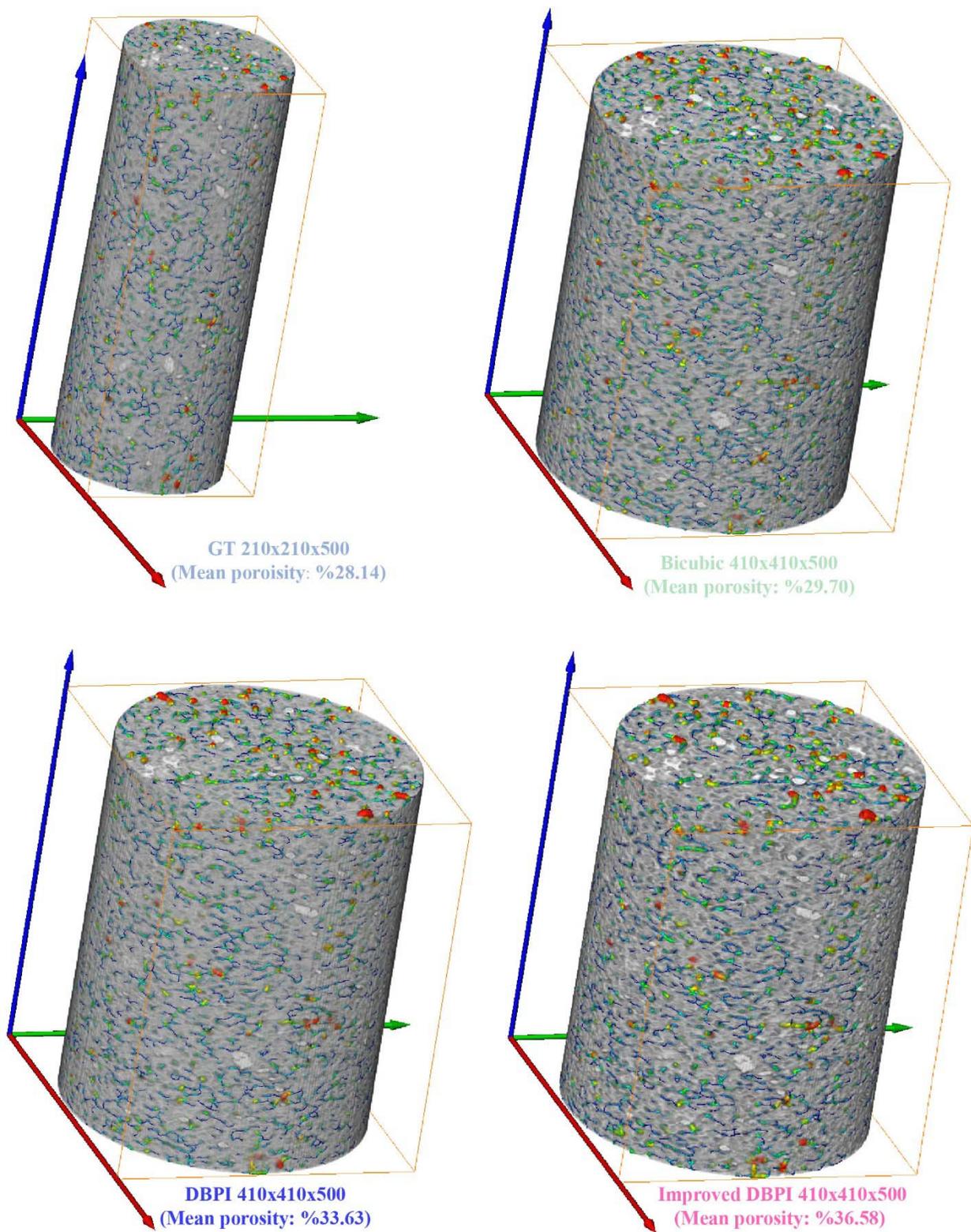
Based on the segmentation results, the porosity of 2D slices and the average porosity of 3D image were calculated by Avizo numerical simulation software. The porosity distribution of 2D slices is shown in Figure 12. From the figure, it can be seen that although the porosity values calculated by different methods varies greatly, the distribution trends of porosity are basically the same. Among them, the porosity distribution of the improved DBPI is more precise. Figure 13 shows the 3D pore skeleton image of the *Berea Sandstone Hyd* sample. The average porosity of the 3D sample are 0.2814, 0.2970, 0.3363 and 0.3658 respectively, which differ widely. For a better comparison, we measured the mean porosity by the saturated liquid weighing method

491 which is a physical means. The porosity measured by the saturated liquid weighing method was
 492 0.3648 that is basically consistent with the result of the improved DBPI, which indicates that the
 493 improved DBPI can help to distinguish the porosity and skeleton better, so as to calculate more
 494 accurate porosity parameters.



495

496 Figure 12. Porosity distribution of 2D slices of the *Berea Sandstone Hyd(S3)* sample by different SR methods,
 497 and the linear lines are the fitted trend of porosity distribution (a); Difference of the porosity and its
 498 corresponding fitted lines (b).



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Figure 13. The 3D pore skeleton image of the *Berea Sandstone Hyd* sample by different SR methods.

501 **4 Conclusions**

502 We break through the hardware limits to enhance the resolution and enlarge the pore
503 spatial structure of hydrate CT images by developing the Self-Supervised Learning-Based SR
504 (SLSR) methods. Image Pairs-Based SR (PSR) methods are also used as the most useful SR
505 means in the past. We do that by first training the PSR with synthesized LR-HR Micro-CT
506 images and the SLSR with every single input micro-CT image based on decreased porosity
507 hydrate CT image datasets S1, S2 and S3. The image quality of SLSR results exceed the PSR a
508 lot on synthesized LR images (LR-HR) as well as the actually obtained HR images (HR-SR), as
509 SLSR are not limited by the actually obtained HR images. SLSR are affected by the grain size
510 and porosity of samples a little. Qualitative and quantitative evaluation tell us the DBPI-SLSR
511 has the best performance on visual sense and clarity, however, it has certain limitations in terms
512 of that it is greatly affected by image noise, leading to a large change degree of gray value near
513 the center of the sand component in CT image before and after reconstruction. Our method
514 trained on big datasets improved from DBPI-SLSR further improve the sharpness and contrast of
515 the images while mitigating the above shortcomings. This research has made some efforts on the
516 issue of exceeding the limitation of imaging systems on FOV and resolution.

517 After that, the watershed image segmentation algorithm was used to segment the pores
518 and skeletons in the original CT image, the bicubic interpolation image, the results obtained by
519 DBPI-SLSR and the results obtained by the improved DBPI-SLSR. The segmentation results
520 showed that the watershed algorithm could expand from the set threshold to the boundary
521 between the pores and the skeleton more accurately, since the improved DBPI-SLSR increased
522 the gray difference between the pores and the skeleton in the micro-CT images. Finally, the
523 porosity parameter was calculated based on the segmentation results, and the mean porosity of
524 the result of the improved DBPI-SLSR was closest to that measured by the saturated liquid
525 weighing method.

526 Taken together, the results of this study suggest that compared to PSR methods, the
527 SLSR methods can promote the hydrate-bearing sediment micro-CT images qualities in
528 resolution and clarity, which benefits accurate segmentation and calculation of physical property
529 parameters, especially the improved DBPI-SLSR that proposed by us.

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