

Reflection Seismology

The Seismic Reflection Method:

A dynamic geophysical technique of generating a sound wave at a source and recording the time it takes for components of that seismic energy to return to the surface and be recorded by receivers

Ground Penetrating Radar:

Utilizes similar theory, but the source is electromagnetic waves

Seismic Reflection

- Things to know before we start...
 - Seismic reflection is the single most important technique for seeing into the Earth.
 - It is useful for shallow and deep depths
 - Massively used by the oil and gas industry
 - It can detect:
 - Stratigraphy
 - Faults
 - Folds
 - Oil & Gas Reservoirs
 - Groundwater Resources
 - Why so popular?
 - Produces results that actually look a lot like an actual geologic cross section!!

Reflection Seismology

- 1920's - 1930's, seismic reflection developed for oil/gas exploration in sedimentary basins.
- Since 1970's, valuable in understanding structure of mid-lower crust.
- Popular for three main reasons:
 - Reflection data is commonly portrayed as profile resembling “geologic cross sections”.
 - Offers high resolution of subsurface data.
 - Cheaper than blindly drilling

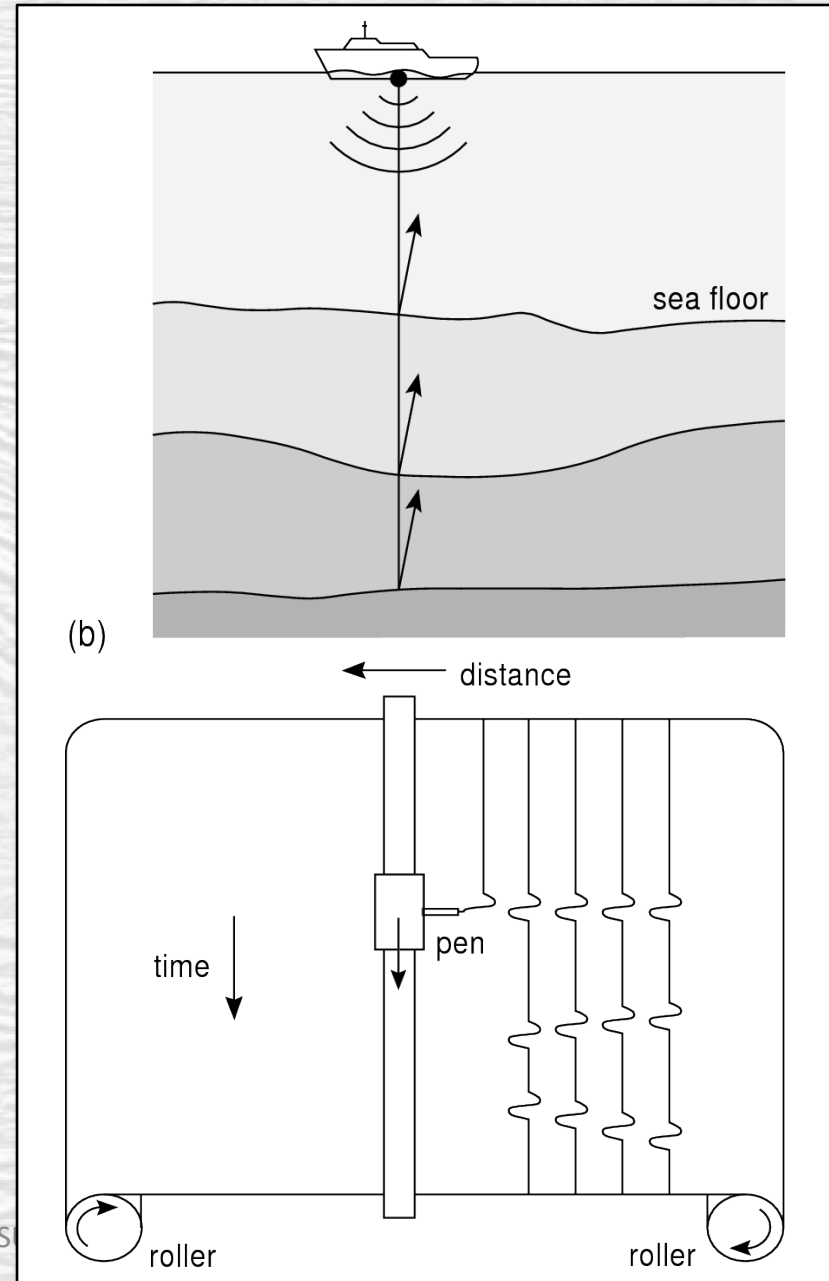
Refraction vs. Reflection

- So, what are the main take-home differences between these two seismic techniques?

<u>Refraction</u>	<u>Reflection</u>
Resolves gross crustal velocities	Resolves fine subsurface details
critical refraction requires large v gradient	requires a change in v or density
$X=5-10x$ the depth of interest	$X=1x$ the depth of interest
Processing is relatively easy	Processing can be very CPU intensive

Seismic Reflection :: The Basics

- In the simplest sense seismic reflection is echo sounding.
 - Echoes come from layers in the Earth, not fish or the sea floor
- E.g. a ship sends out a seismic pulse
 - The pulse is reflected back to a receiver on the ship's bottom after some time has passed
 - The various arrivals can be used to map out subsurface “reflectors” or layers

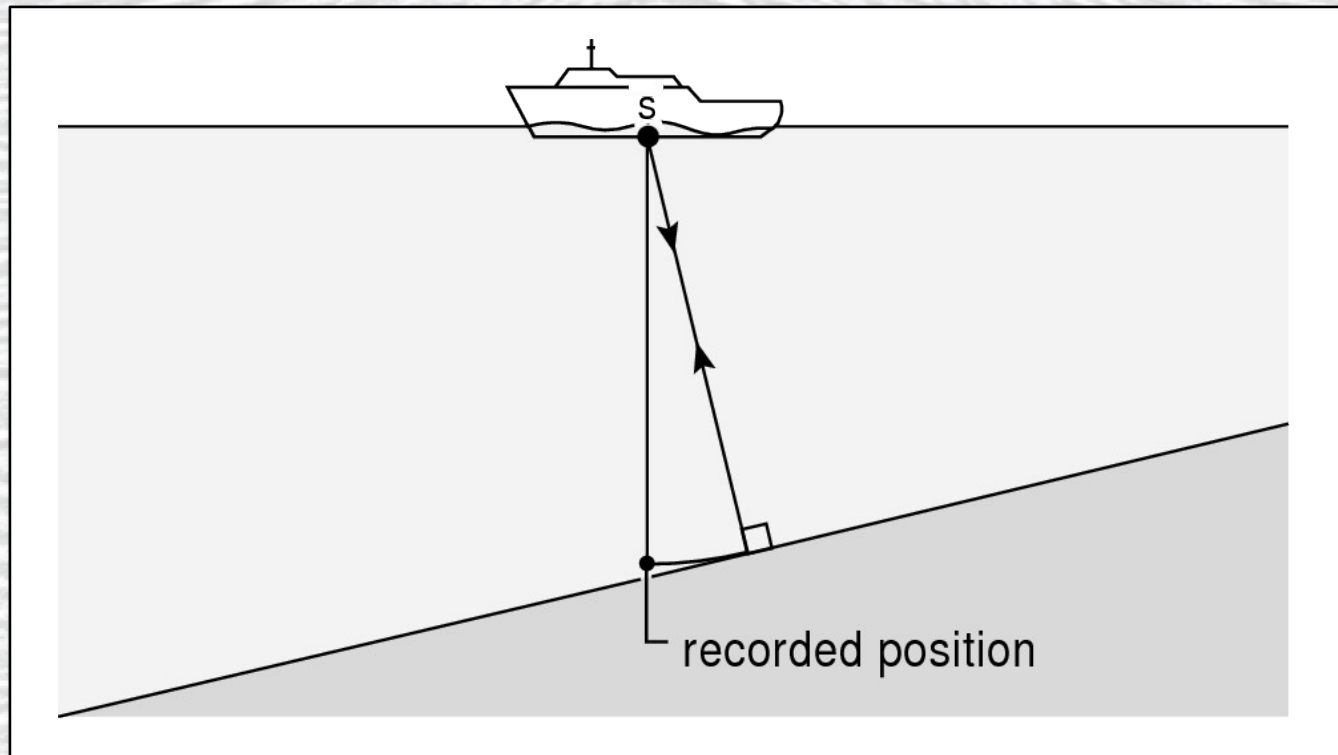


Seismic Reflection Caveats

1. The vertical scale on seismic reflection profiles is time, not depth
 - Velocity varies with depth, so time cannot be easily converted to depth
2. Reflections may not come from directly below the source
 - Reflections occur perpendicular to the interface. Receivers / Geophones / Seismometers cannot directly detect this.
3. There may be multiple reflections off of single interfaces
 - Called multiples
4. There are other caveats, but we'll deal with these later

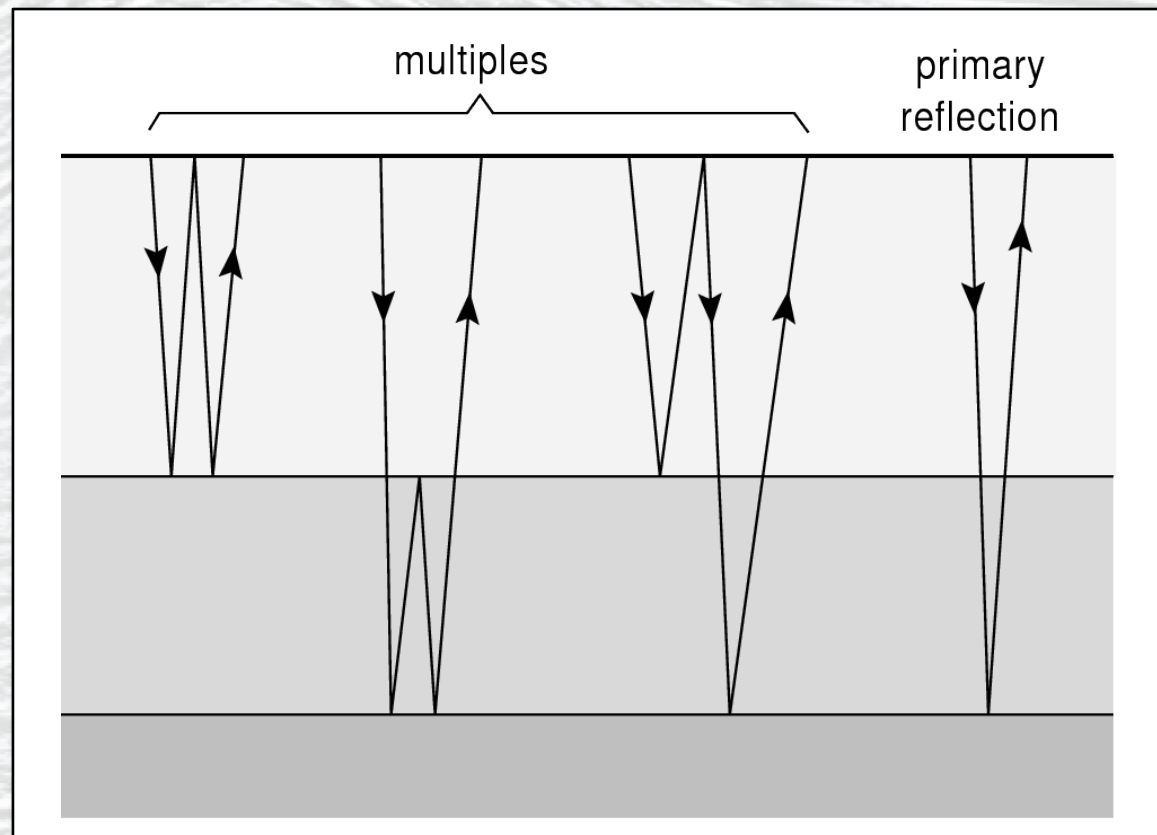
Non-Vertical Reflection

- Reflected rays travel back to the source following a path perpendicular to the interface
 - The receiver will record an arrival time that is too short and a dip that is too shallow
 - We'll talk more about this later...

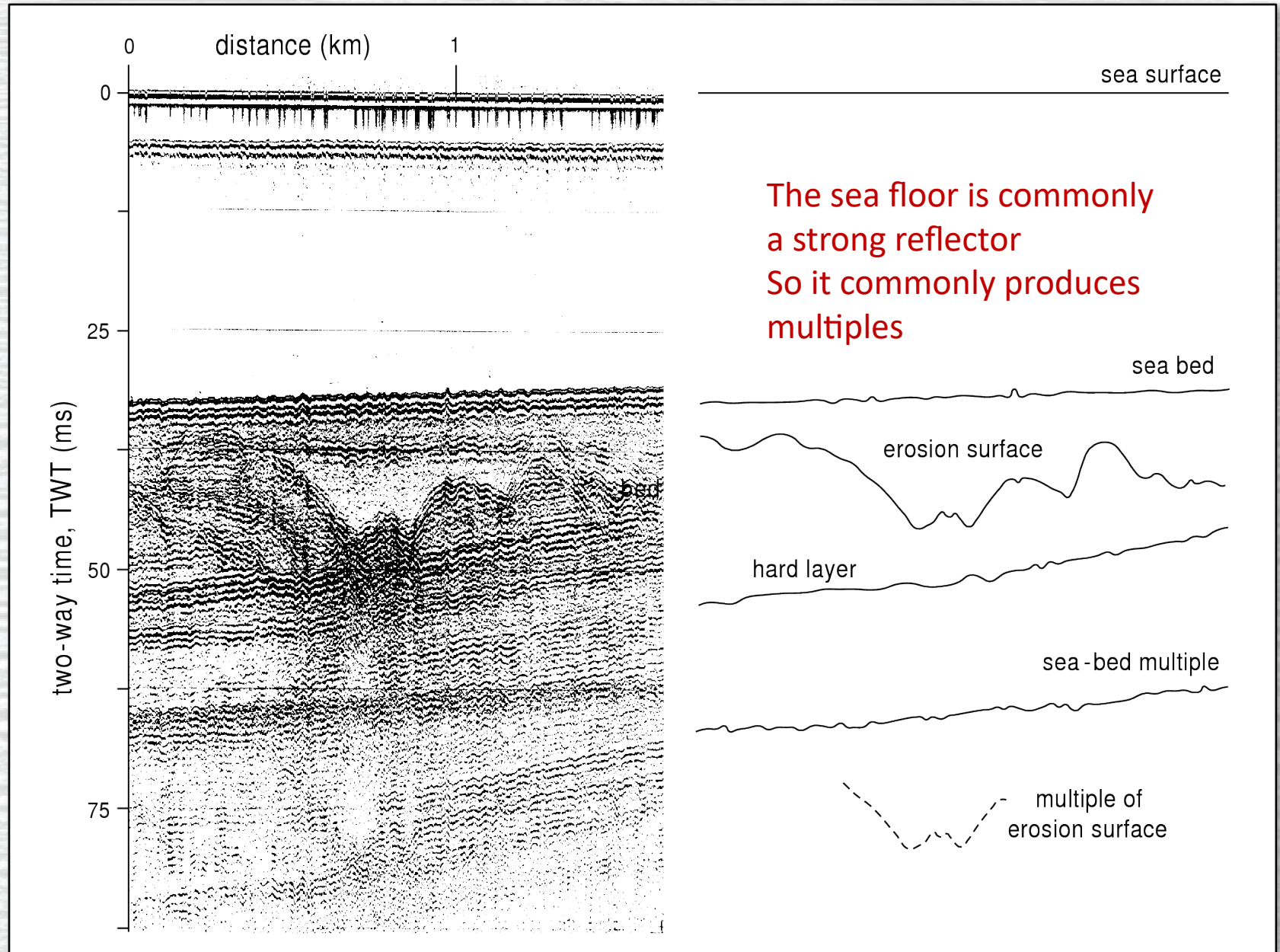


Multiples

- On their return to the surface...
 - Reflected rays can also reflect back down and then later be reflected back up
- This causes a single reflector to potentially produce several “multiples”
- Short path (less reflections) multiples are usually stronger
- These artifacts can be removed by migration
 - We’ll talk about migration later...



Multiples in a Seismic Section

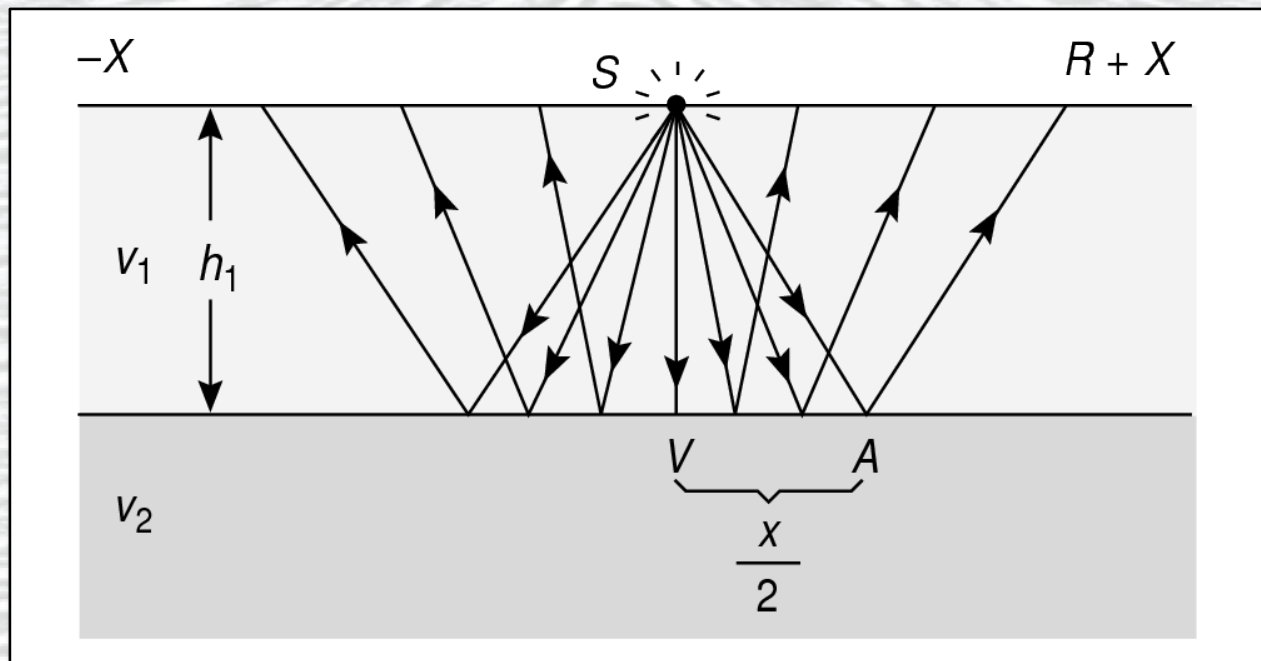


Velocity Determination Using Normal Move out

- To deduce the velocity structure, multiple receivers are needed so that most rays do not travel vertically
- For a **horizontal reflector**...
 - The shortest path is the vertical one
 - Rays that reach receivers to each side travel increasingly longer distances

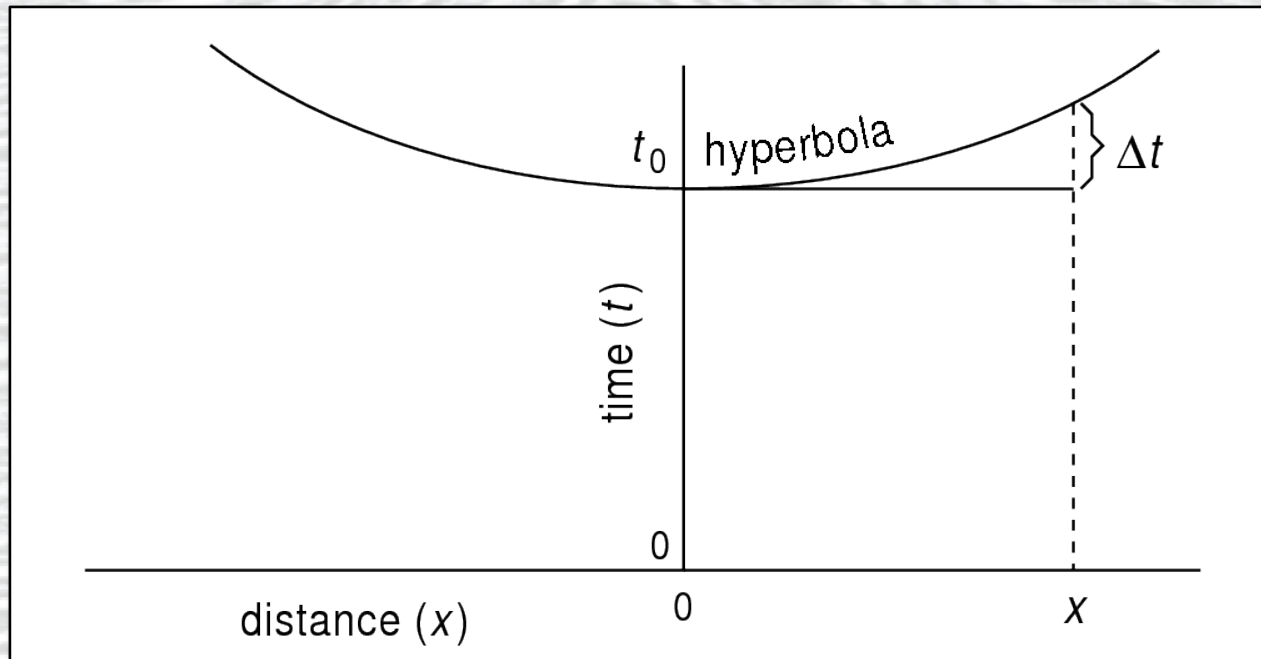
This is the
Fixed Source
Method

There are
also other
methods:
e.g. the
Common
Midpoint
Method



Velocity Determination Using Normal Move out

- Normal Moveout = The later time of arrival of the reflected rays at receivers offset from the source **for a horizontal reflector**.
- On a t-x diagram, the Normal Moveout (NMO) produces a hyperbola.



Velocity Determination Using Normal Move out

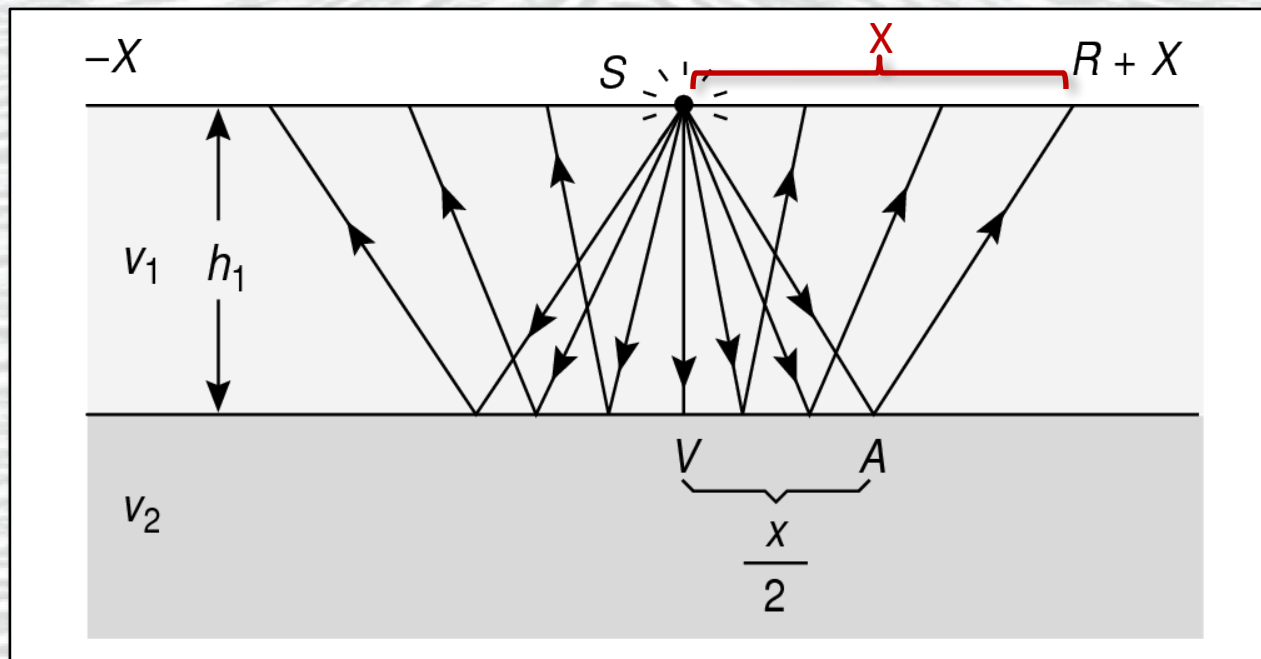
- Using the Fixed Source Method, we can estimate seismic velocity

$$t^2 = t_0^2 + \frac{x^2}{v_1^2}$$

- These parameters are read off of the t-x diagram
- If layer thickness is large compared to receiver offset...

$$v_1 \approx \frac{x}{\sqrt{2t_0\Delta t}}$$

But where does this come from??



Velocity Determination Using Normal Move out

(“TWTT”)

- t_0 = vertical “two-way travel time” (book calls it “TWT”)

- Measured along SV

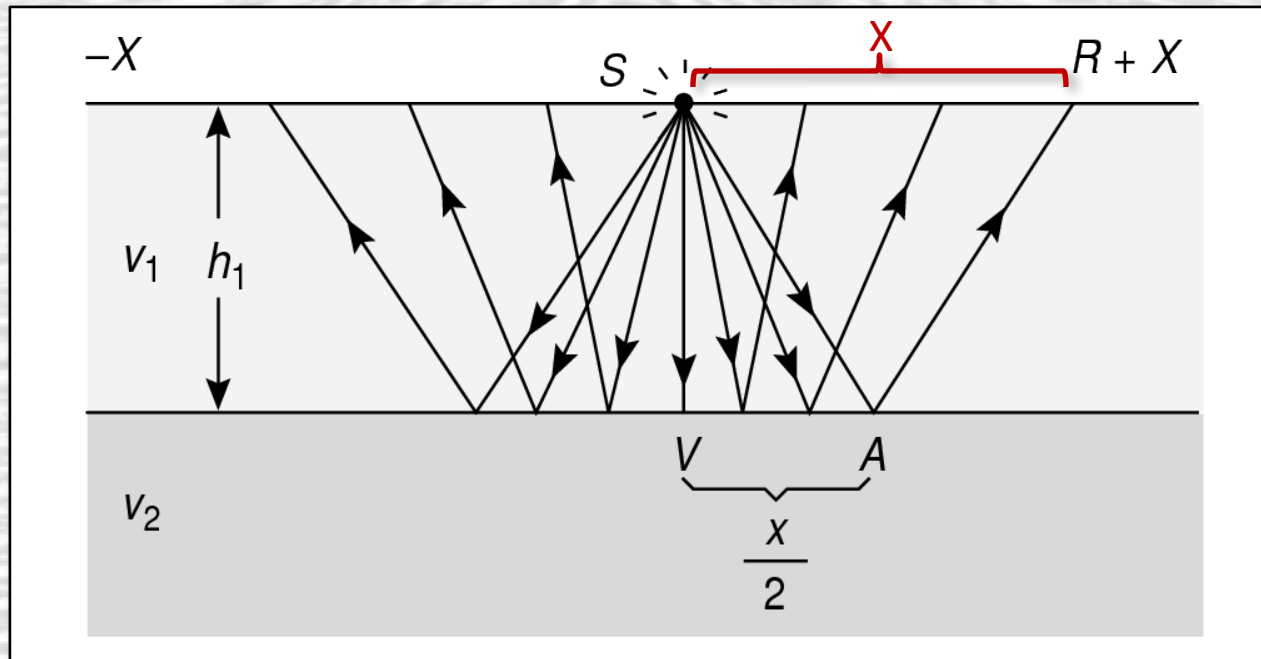
$$t_0 = \frac{2h_1}{v_1}$$

- t = total two-way travel time to receiver R (at distance = X)

- Use triangle SVA:

- Travel time, t , is $2 \cdot SA / v_1$

$$t = (t_0 + \Delta t) = \frac{2}{v_1} \sqrt{h_1^2 + \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^2}$$



This isn't helpful because we don't know v_1 or h_1



Velocities From Normal Move out

- Given some basic geometry and data from the t-x diagram, we can do some mathematical magic...

– Given:

$$t = (t_0 + \Delta t) = \frac{2}{v_1} \sqrt{h_1^2 + \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^2}$$

– Square both sides:

$$t^2 = (t_0 + \Delta t)^2 = \frac{4}{v_1^2} \left(h_1^2 + \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^2 \right) = \frac{4}{v_1^2} \left(h_1^2 + \frac{x^2}{4} \right)$$

– Do some algebra...

$$\cancel{t^2} = (t_0 + \Delta t)^2 = \frac{4h_1^2}{v_1^2} + \frac{4x^2}{4v_1^2} = \frac{4h_1^2}{v_1^2} + \frac{x^2}{v_1^2} = \left(\frac{2h_1}{v_1} \right)^2 + \frac{x^2}{v_1^2} = t_0^2 + \frac{x^2}{v_1^2}$$

Replace $2h_1/v_1$ with t_0

– Expand

$$\cancel{t_0^2} + 2t_0\Delta t + \Delta t^2 = \cancel{t_0^2} + \frac{x^2}{v_1^2}$$

Almost there...

Now we know all of these terms from t-x graph except v_1 , so we can solve this!!

Velocities From Normal Moveout

- From previous page...

$$2t_0\Delta t + \cancel{\Delta t^2} = \frac{x^2}{v_1^2}$$

- If the receiver offsets are small compared to the layer thickness (this is common)

– Then Δt will be small...and thus $\Delta t^2 \approx 0$

$$\Delta t = t - t_0 \approx \frac{x^2}{2v_1^2 t_0}$$

- Rearrange to solve for v_1

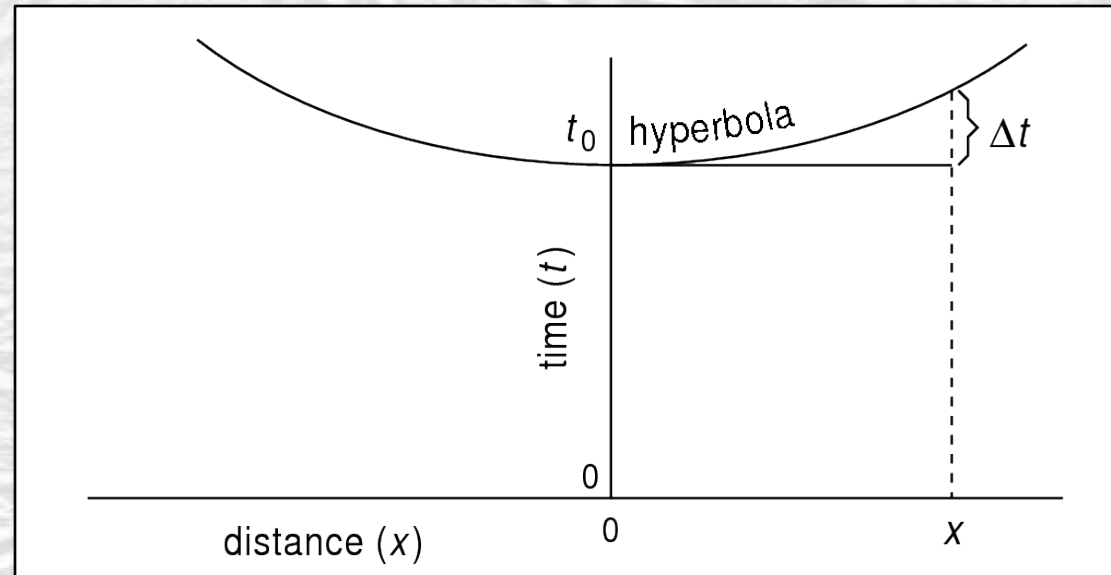
$$v_1 \approx \frac{x}{\sqrt{2t_0\Delta t}}$$

Look at the t-x diagram.
This makes sense right?

*The bad news...

This process is only for the first layer / topmost reflector.

We must account for refraction in the subsequent layers...

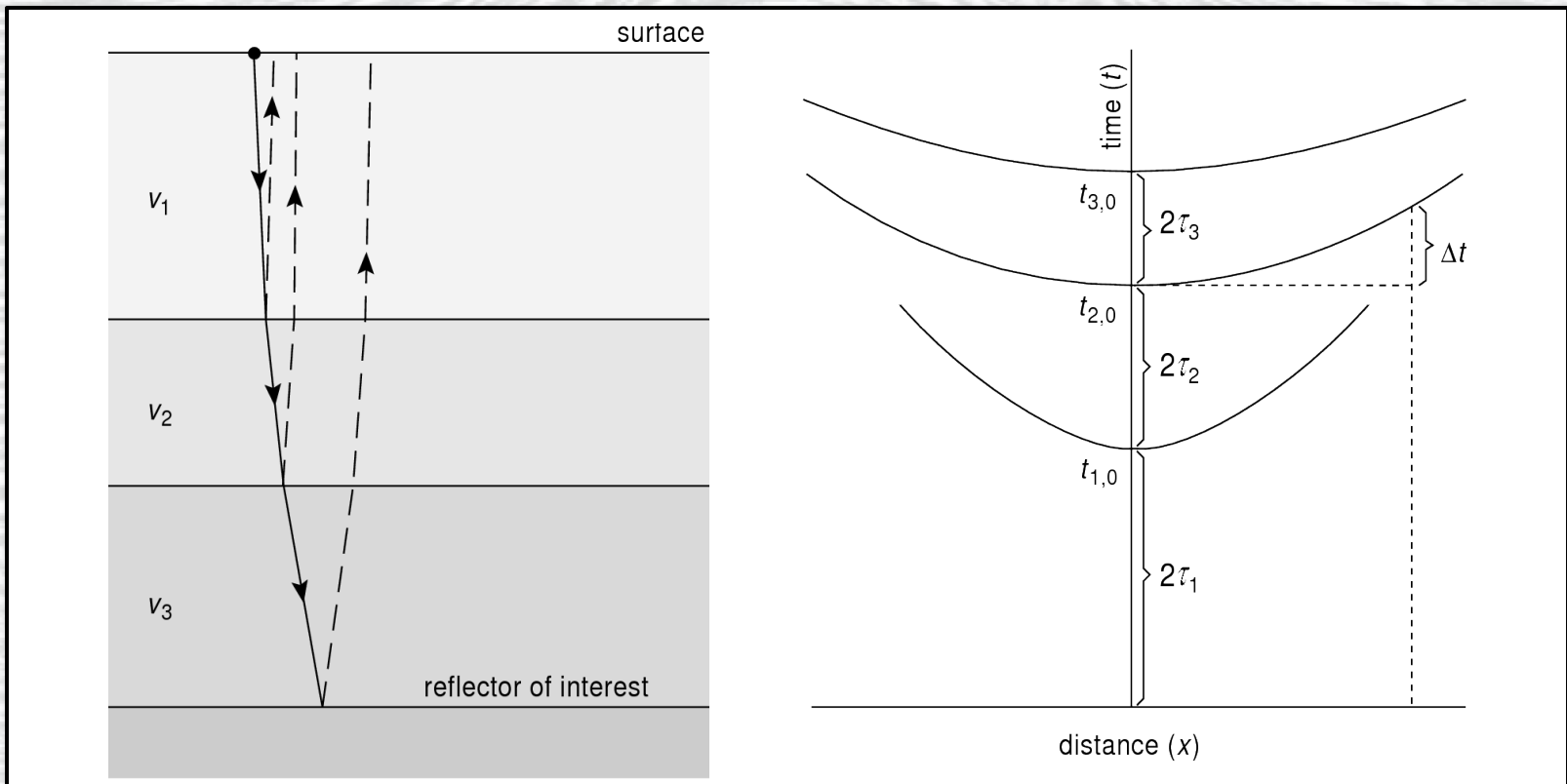


Multiple Horizontal Layers

- If multiple reflectors are encountered
 - This is almost always the case
- The preceding formulas still work, however:
 - We must keep track of the t-axis intercepts ($t_{1,0}$, $t_{2,0}$, etc...) for each interface
 - We must also account for refraction through the various interfaces
- If we do this, we can still use the previous process
 - The previous equations will then yield RMS velocities.
 - What are RMS velocities?
 - We'll look at this later...

Multiple Horizontal Layers

- When multiple reflectors are encountered, multiple NMO hyperbolas are produced
 - The shallowest reflector arrives first at $t_{1,0}$
 - Each reflector's TWTT for vertical reflection ($t_{1,0}$, $t_{2,0}$, $t_{3,0}$, etc...) and NMO (Δt) can be read off of the graph.
 - We can then easily calculate the one-way travel times in each layer, τ_n



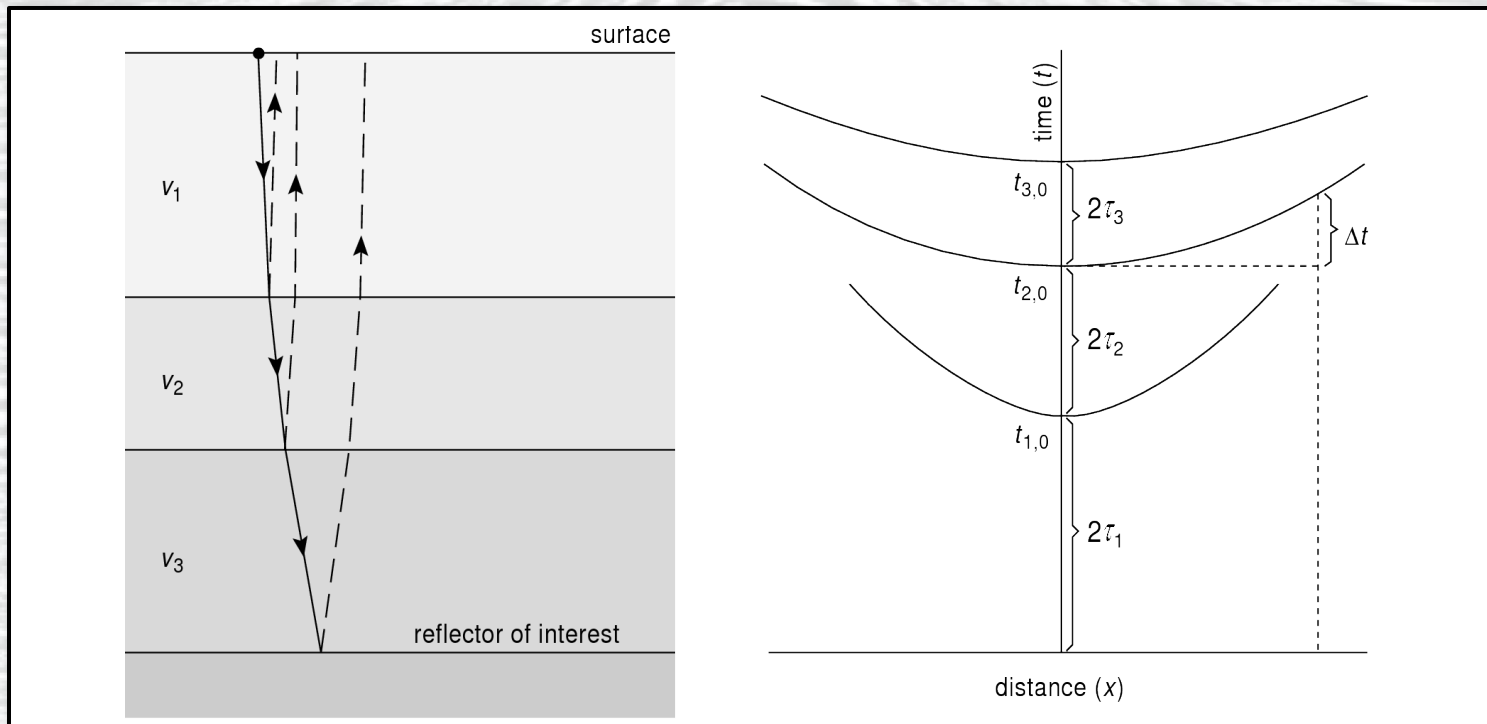
RMS Velocity

- Root-Mean-Square (RMS) Velocity: A weighted average across n-layers that factors out the differences in travel time spent in layers of differing velocity

$$v_{rms} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n v_i^2 \tau_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n \tau_i}}$$

τ_i = the one-way travel time for vertical reflection in i^{th} layer

v_i = the interlayer velocity of the i^{th} layer



Two-Layer Example

For a simple two layer model...

- Get velocity of first layer using NMO equations
- Get RMS Velocity down to 2nd layer from NMO eq's
- Solve for the second interlayer velocity
- Use the various $t_{n,0}$ values

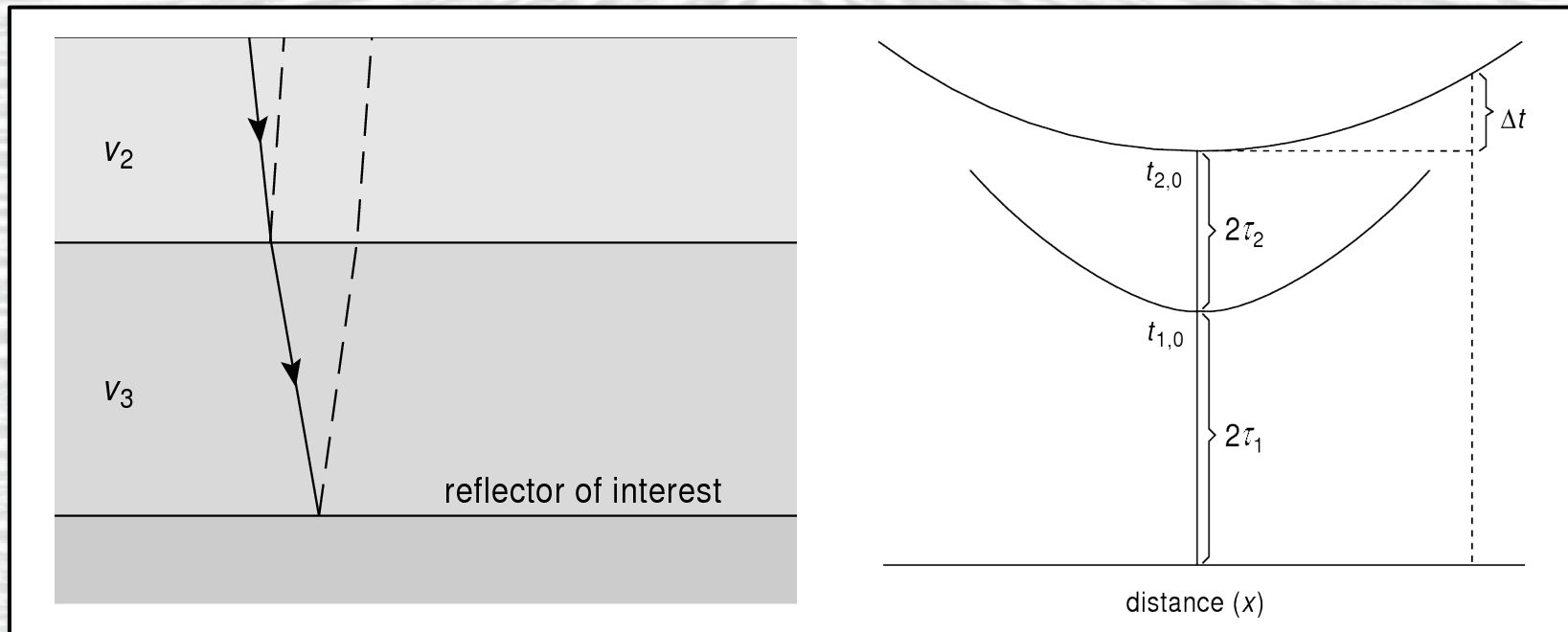
To get thicknesses

$$t_{n,0} - t_{n-1,0} = \frac{2h_n}{v_n}$$

$$v_1 \approx \frac{x}{\sqrt{2t_{1,0}\Delta t}}$$

$$v_{rms} \approx \frac{x}{\sqrt{2t_{2,0}\Delta t}}$$

$$v_{rms} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n v_i^2 \tau_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n \tau_i}} = \sqrt{\frac{(v_1^2 \tau_1 + v_2^2 \tau_2)}{(\tau_1 + \tau_2)}}$$



N-Layer Example

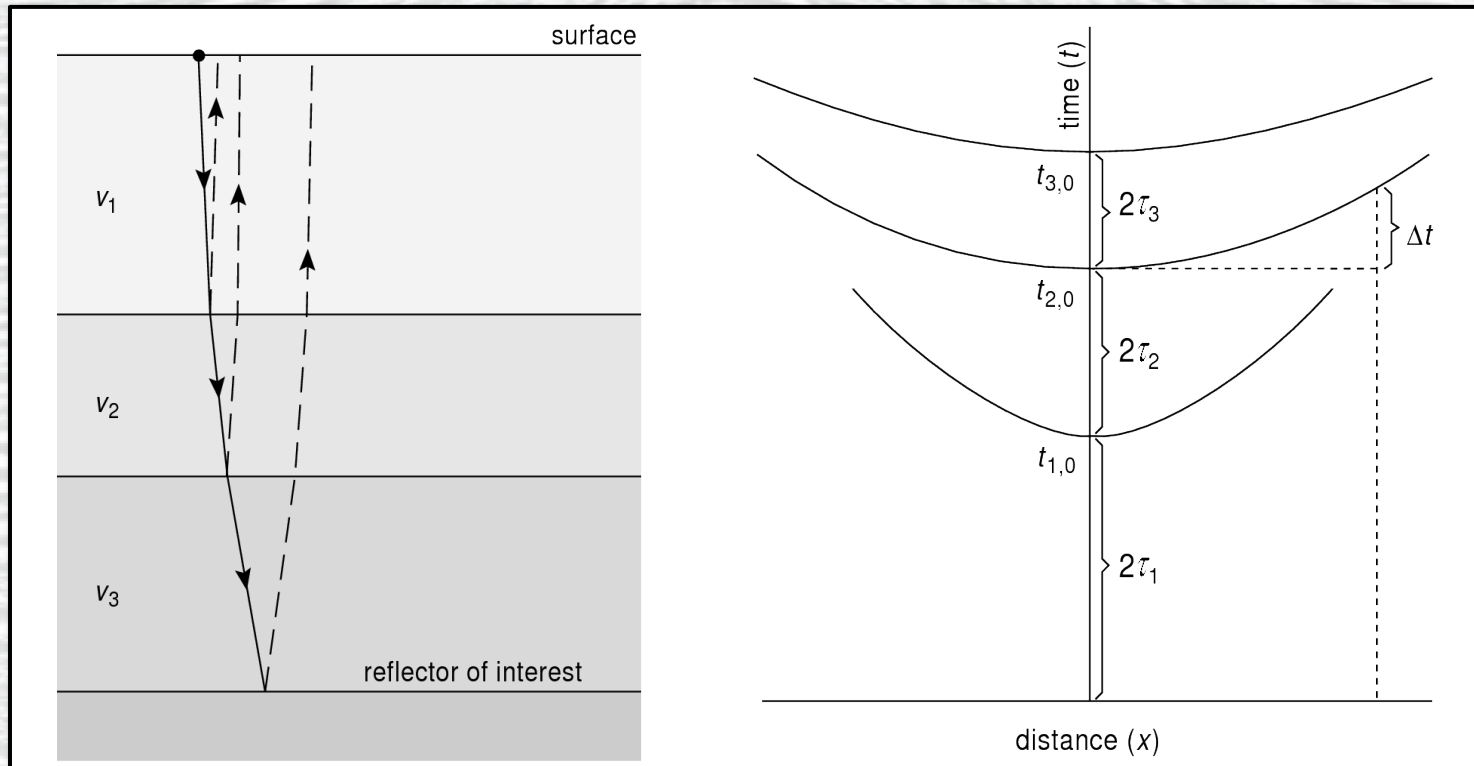
For an n-layer model...

- You could follow the previous procedure for each layer
- If you only want to know a certain interlayer velocity
 - Only need to know the information for the reflectors directly above and below the layer of interest.
 - Dix Formula ::

$$v_{layer} = \sqrt{\frac{(v_{rms.B}^2 t_n - v_{rms.T}^2 t_{n-1})}{(t_B + t_T)}}$$

t_B = the TWTT to the deeper (bottom) reflector

t_T = the TWTT to the shallower (top) reflector



N-Layer Example

To Find Layer Thicknesses...

- Use the intercepts and calculated velocities to calculate thicknesses of each layer

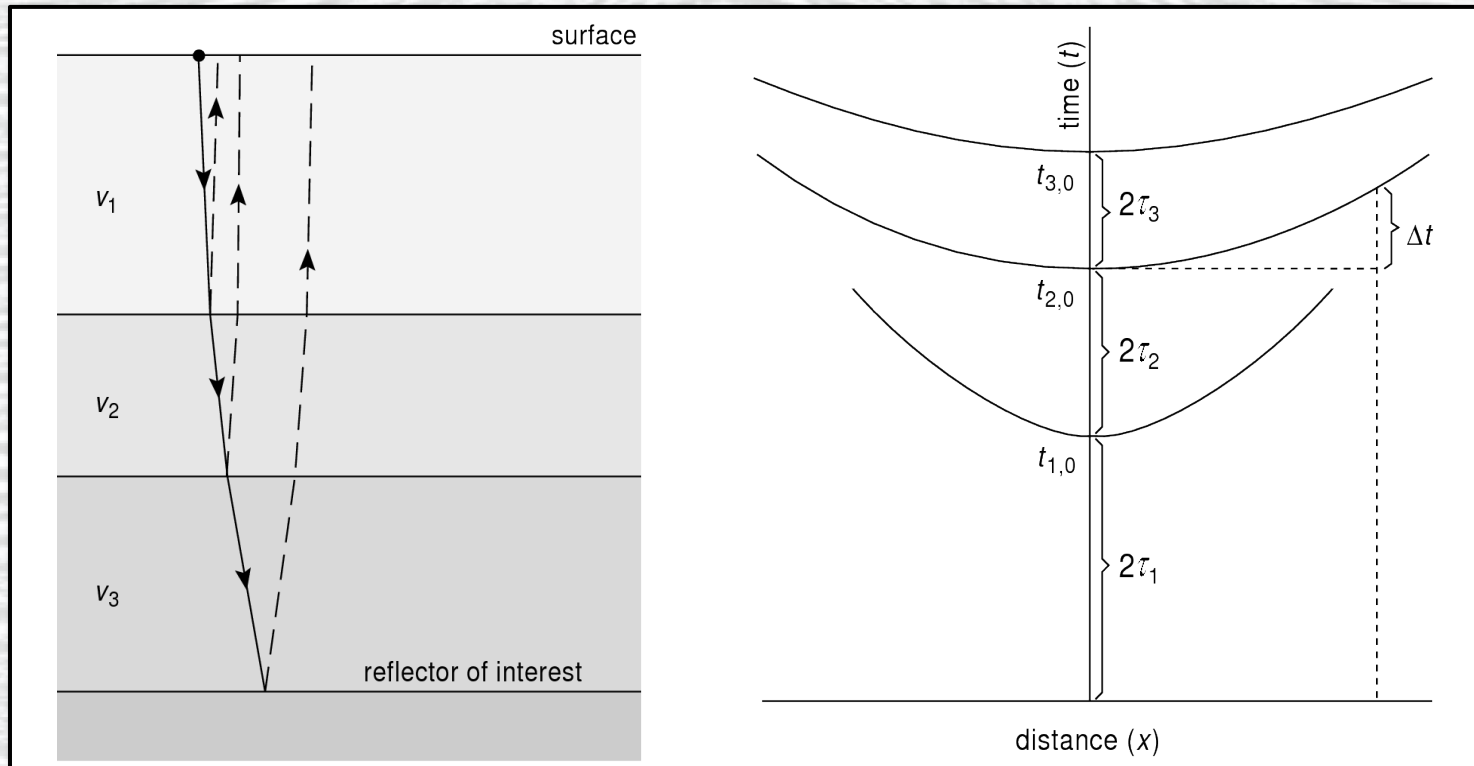
$$t_{n,0} - t_{n-1,0} = \frac{2h_n}{v_n}$$

Rearrange and solve for h_n

$$h_n = v_{layer} \left(\frac{t_{n,0} - t_{n-1,0}}{2} \right)$$

Warning! Your book says

~~$$h_n = v_{layer} \left(\frac{\tau_B - \tau_r}{2} \right)$$~~

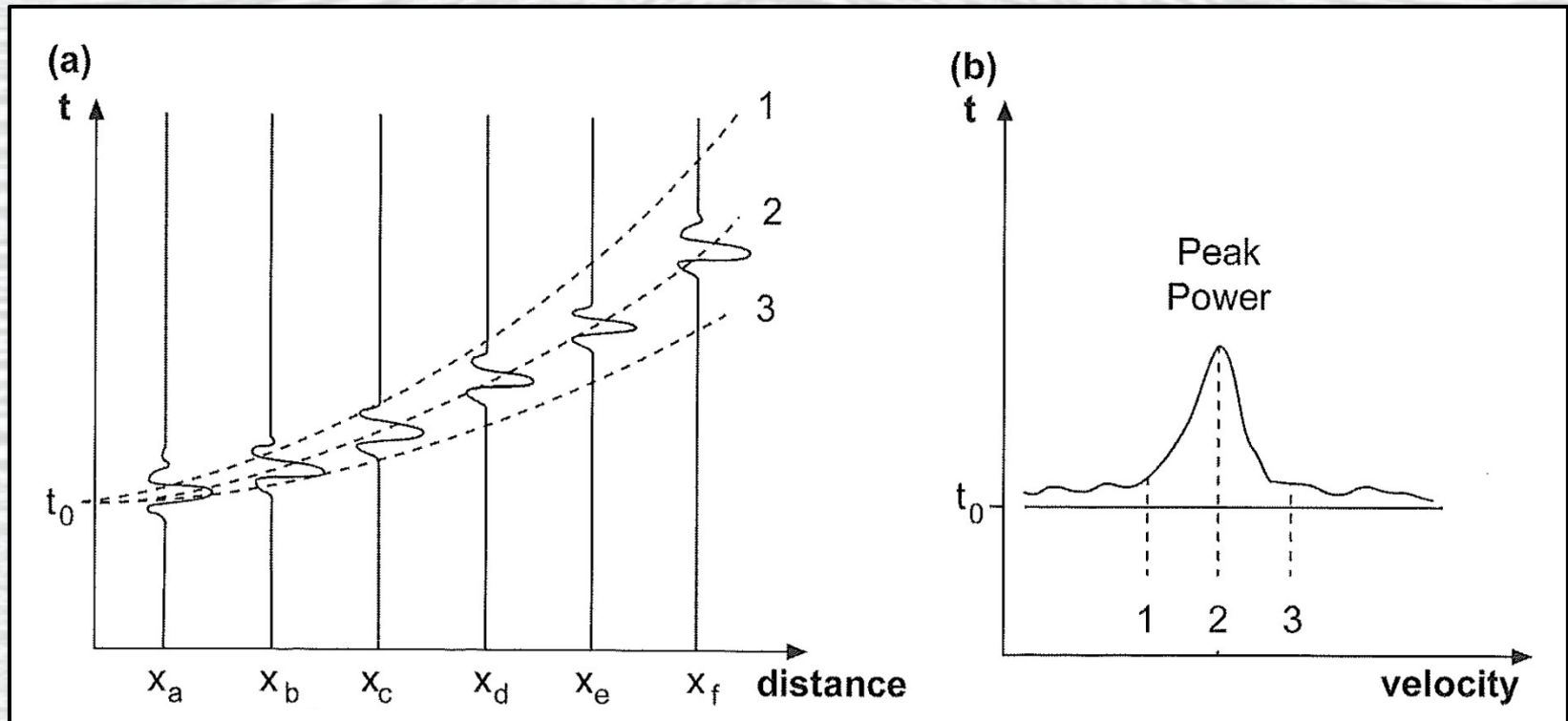


Stacking

- Often reflections are weak, particularly from deep interfaces
 - The downgoing pulse loses energy
 - As the wave front spreads out
 - Each reflection removes some energy
- Noise is therefore an issue
 - Stacking increases the signal to noise ratio
 - In refraction seismology: repeat the shot and stack the results
 - In reflection seismology: The records of the line of receivers from a single shot are used
 - First, the line of receivers must be corrected for moveout. This turns hyperbolas into lines.
 - Because moveout is difficult to calculate with weak arrivals, finding velocities and stacking are done together...

Stacking and Determination of Velocity

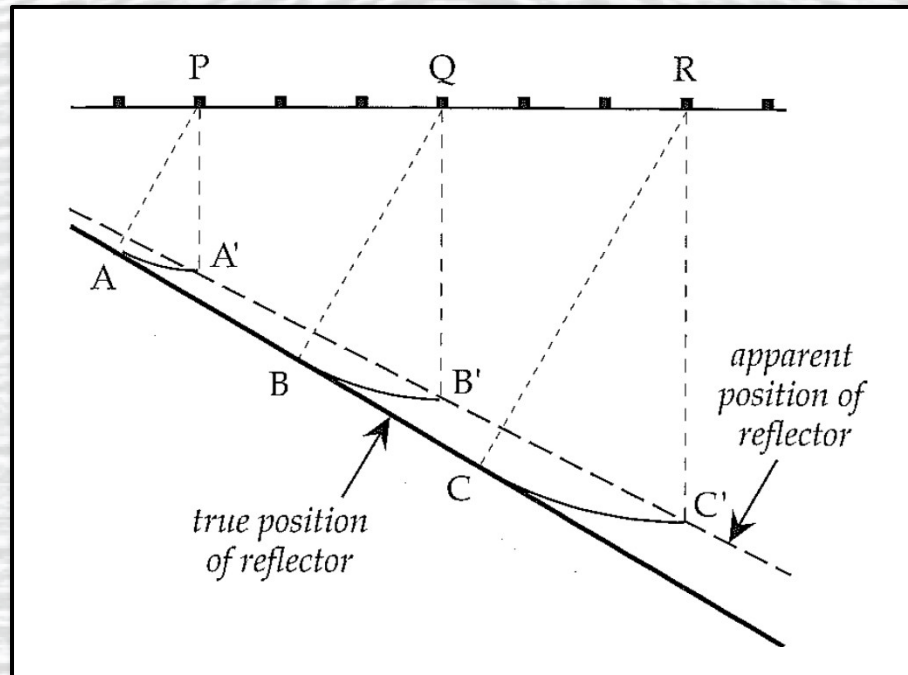
- In practice, the interlayer velocities are guessed
 - If the guess is bad, the stacked records will show a weak or no clear arrival
 - If the guess is good, the stacked records will show a strong arrival
 - Much stronger than the raw data



Dipping Reflectors

If a reflector is dipping...

- Both its position and dip on a raw seismic section are incorrect
 - The receiver (geophone) records the arrival and assumes that the reflection came from straight below.
 - As a result, the interface will appear less steep, shallower, and offset down-dip from its actual location



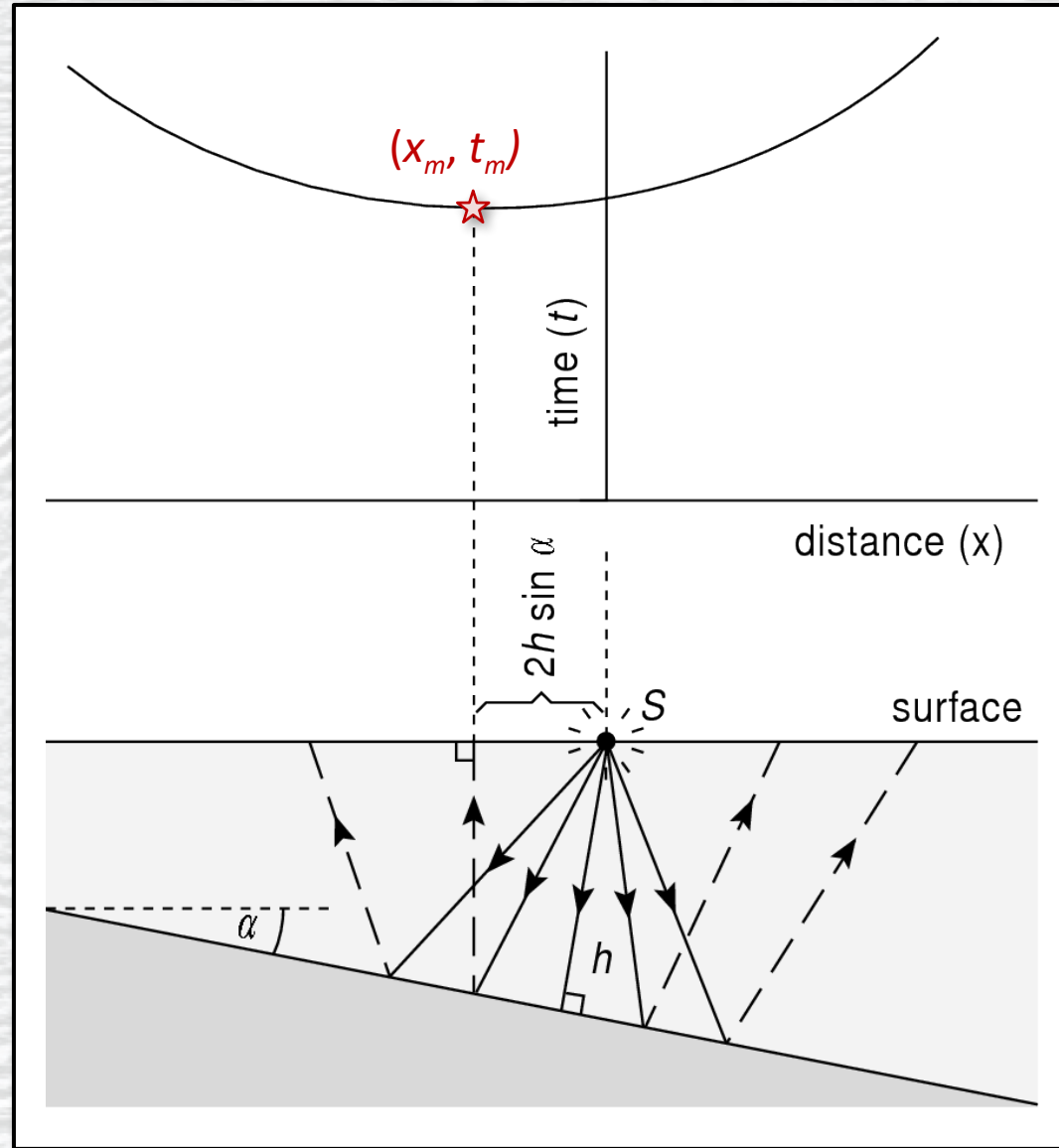
Given the single receiver system shown here, we cannot correct for this...

However, a line of receivers offset from the shot point, can detect and correct for this...

Dipping Reflectors

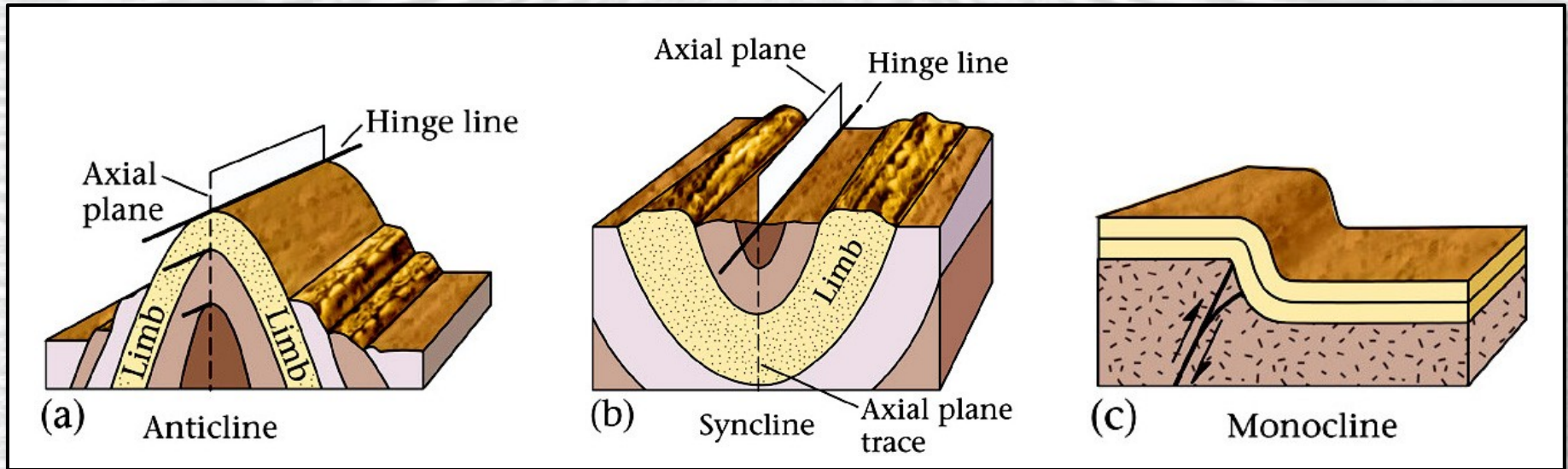
- When a multi-receiver system is used...
- The moveout hyperbola is offset for dipping layers
 - The coordinates of the minimum TWTT, (x_m, t_m)

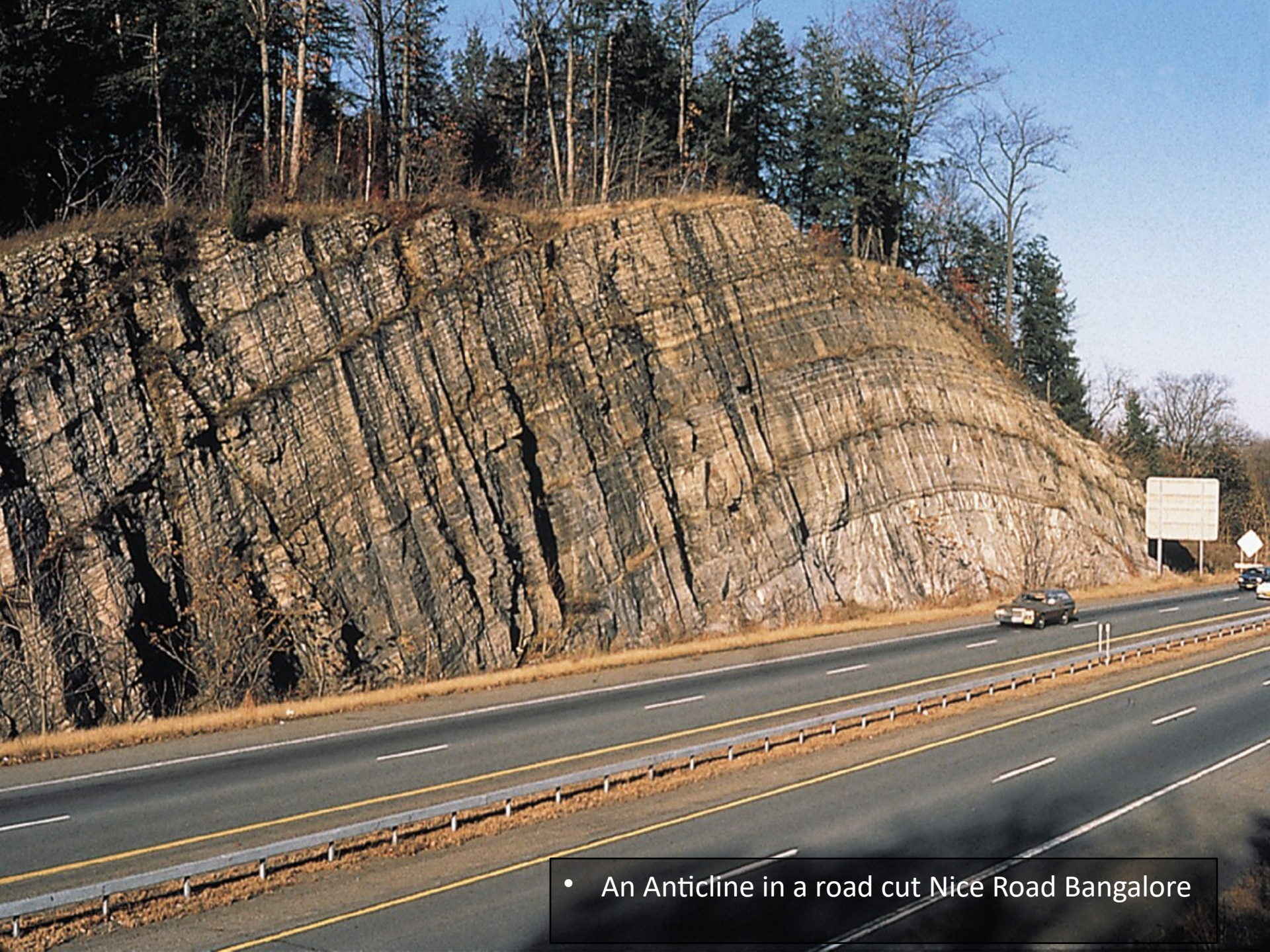
$$\begin{aligned}x_m &= 2h(\sin \alpha) \\ t_m &= \frac{2h \cos \alpha}{v}\end{aligned}$$



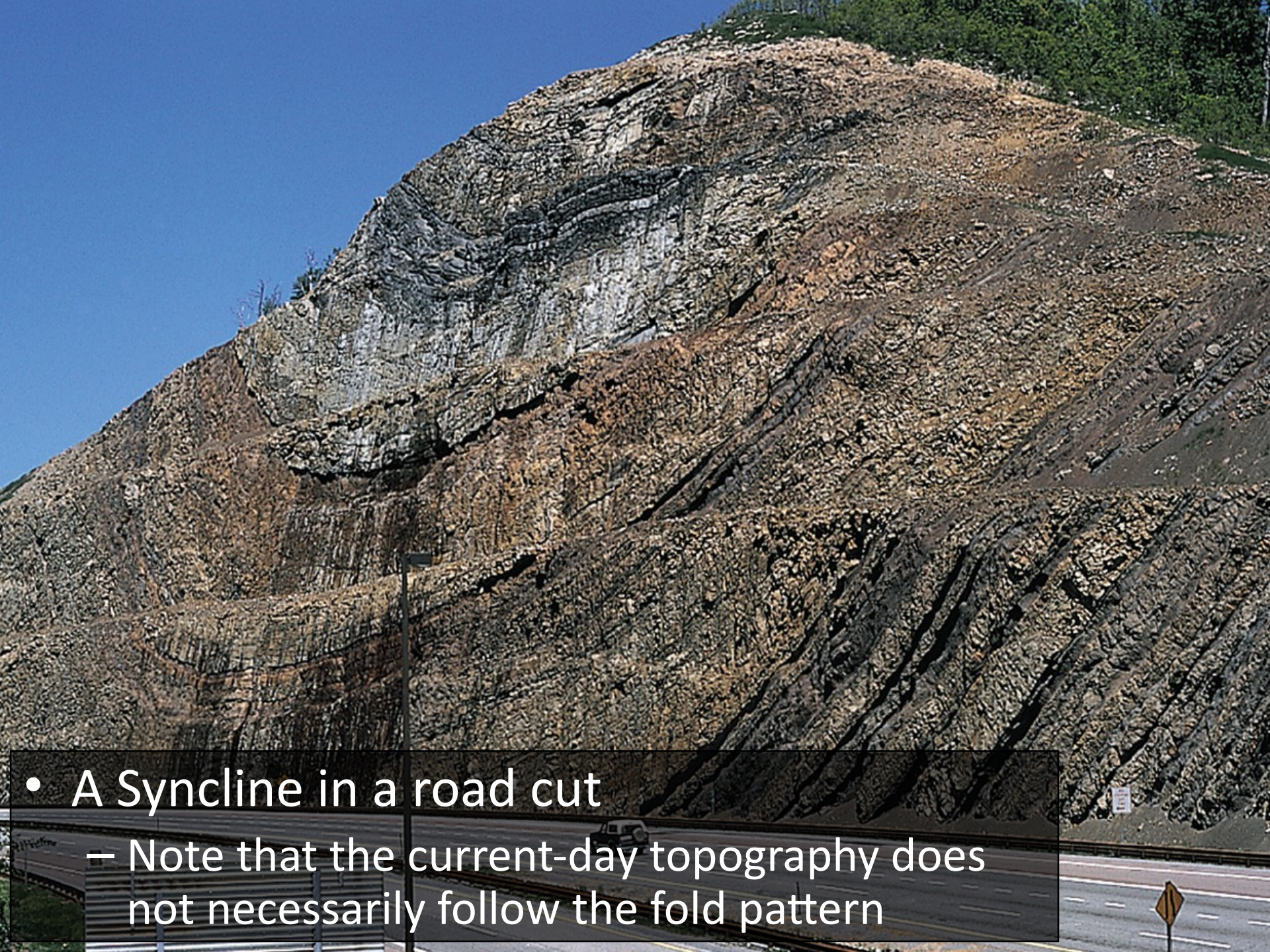
Curved Reflectors

- If the reflector is curved, distortions may be more complex
 - There may be many paths between the reflector and receiver
- Because the pre-requisites for this course are just one intro-level GLY course, we should do a quick review of the basic fold types...
 - Be sure to know the following terms: anticline, syncline, monocline, fold train...





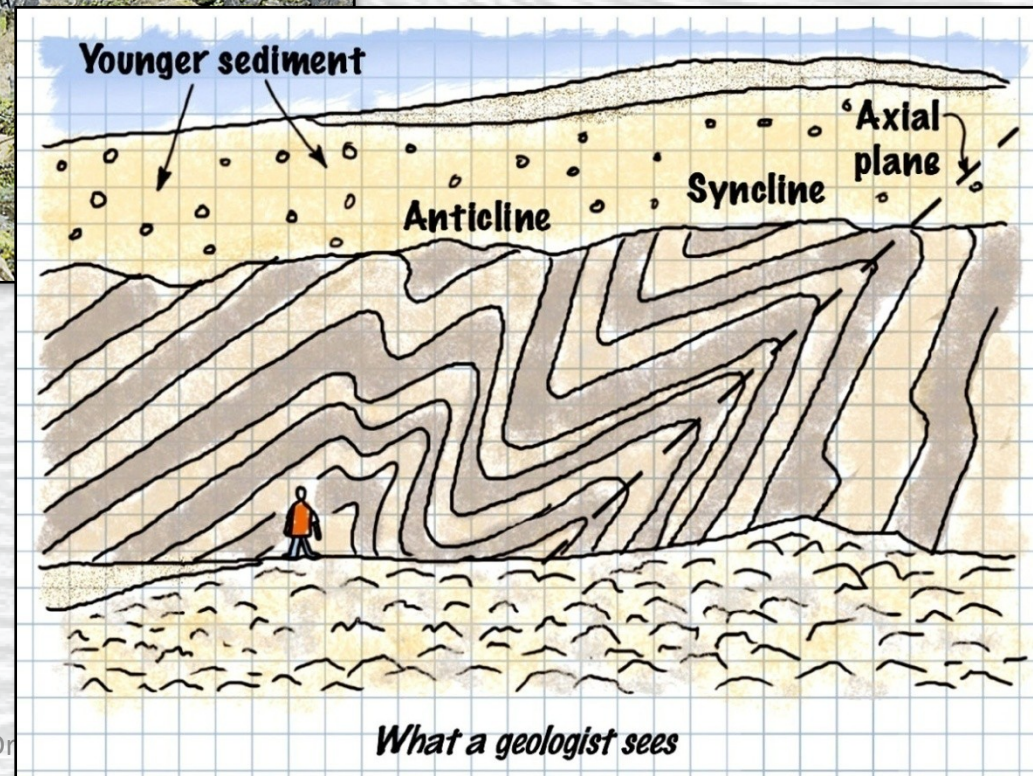
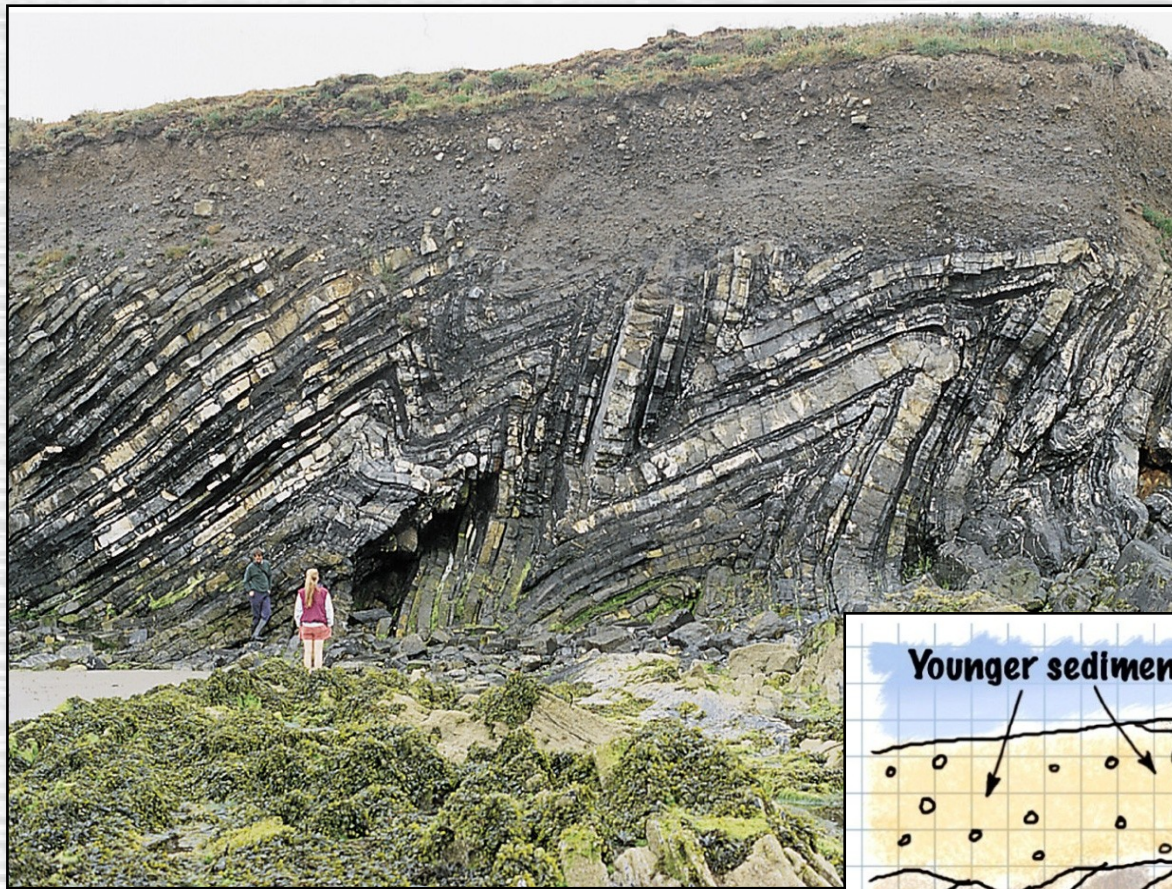
- An Anticline in a road cut Nice Road Bangalore



- A Syncline in a road cut
 - Note that the current-day topography does not necessarily follow the fold pattern

Fold Trains

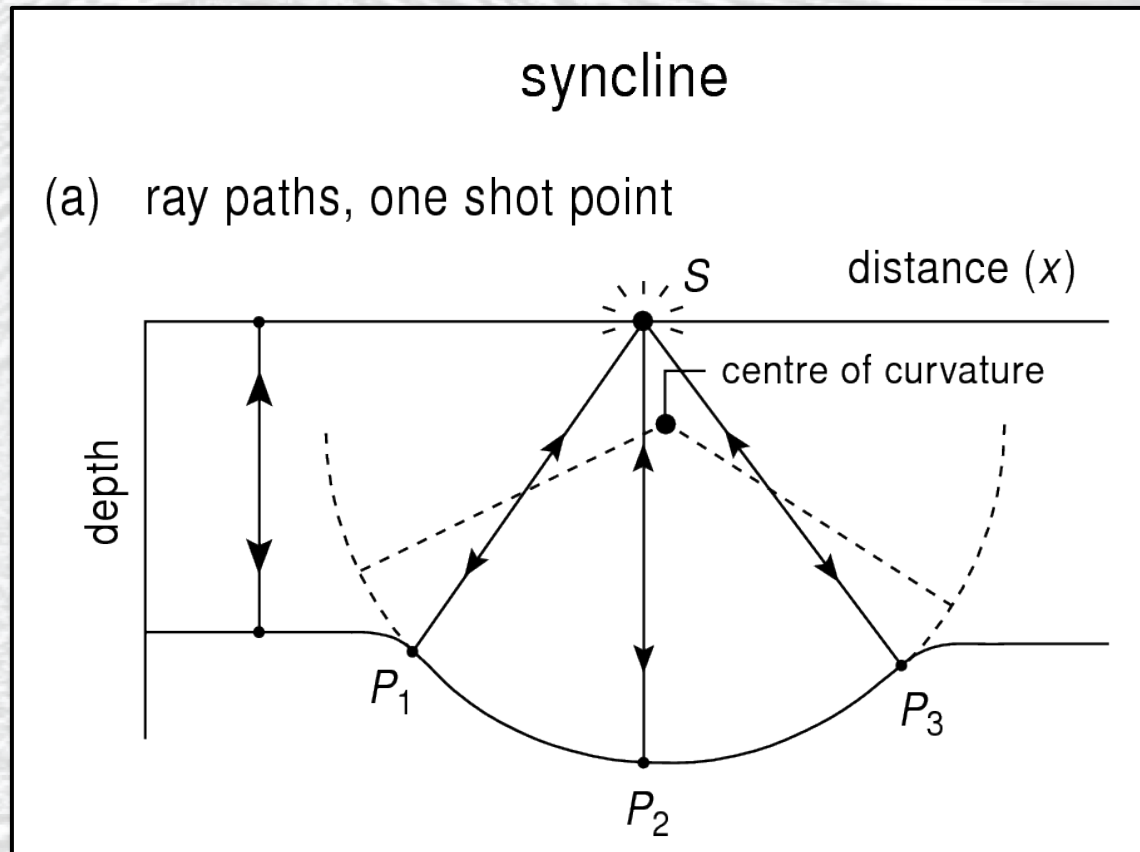
- Folds exposed along a cliff in eastern Ireland



- Anticlines and synclines are commonly found together in trains of folds.
- Note that in these particular folds, the fold axes are not vertical.

Curved Reflectors

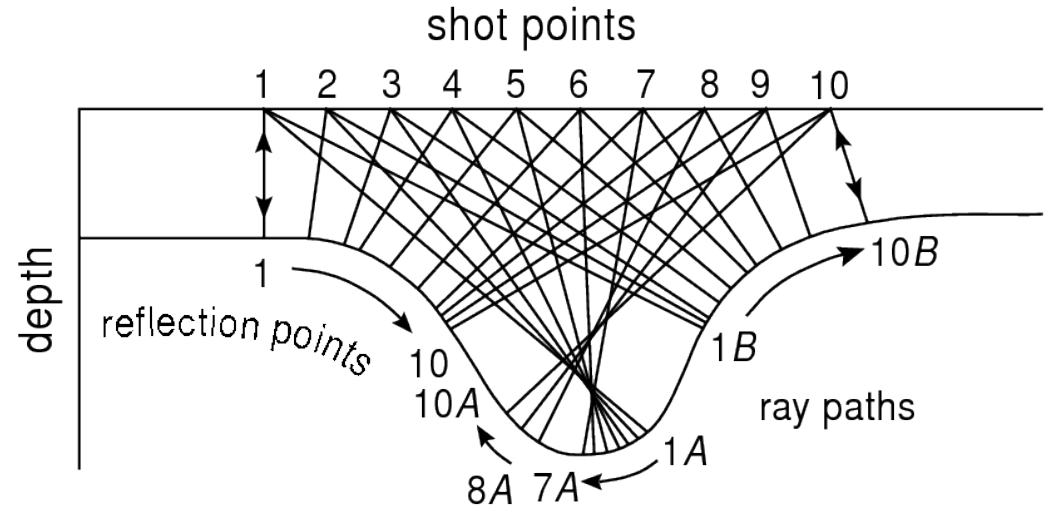
- If the reflector is curved, distortions may be more complex
 - There may be many paths between the reflector and receiver
- The vertical ray is generally not first to arrive
 - Only true if the center of curvature is below surface of earth
 - Common for tight folds
 - Open folds don't usually produce multiple arrivals



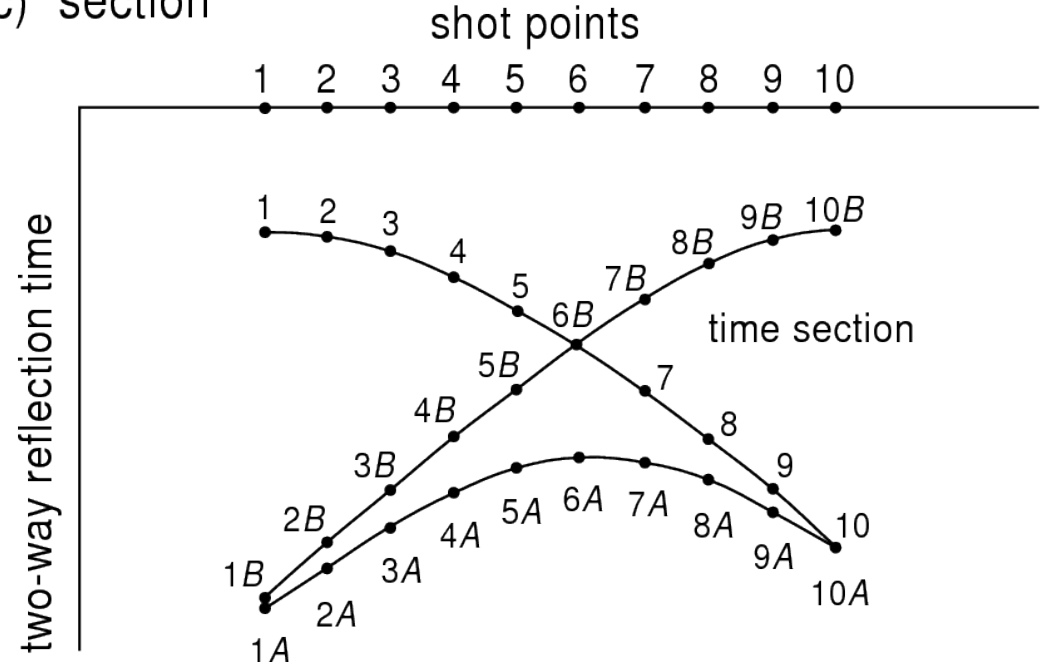
Synclines

- Raw data from a multi-shot reflection survey produce...
- A “bow tie” pattern for synclines
- If center of curvature is above the surface...
 - A narrowed syncline is produced

(b) ray paths, succession of shot points

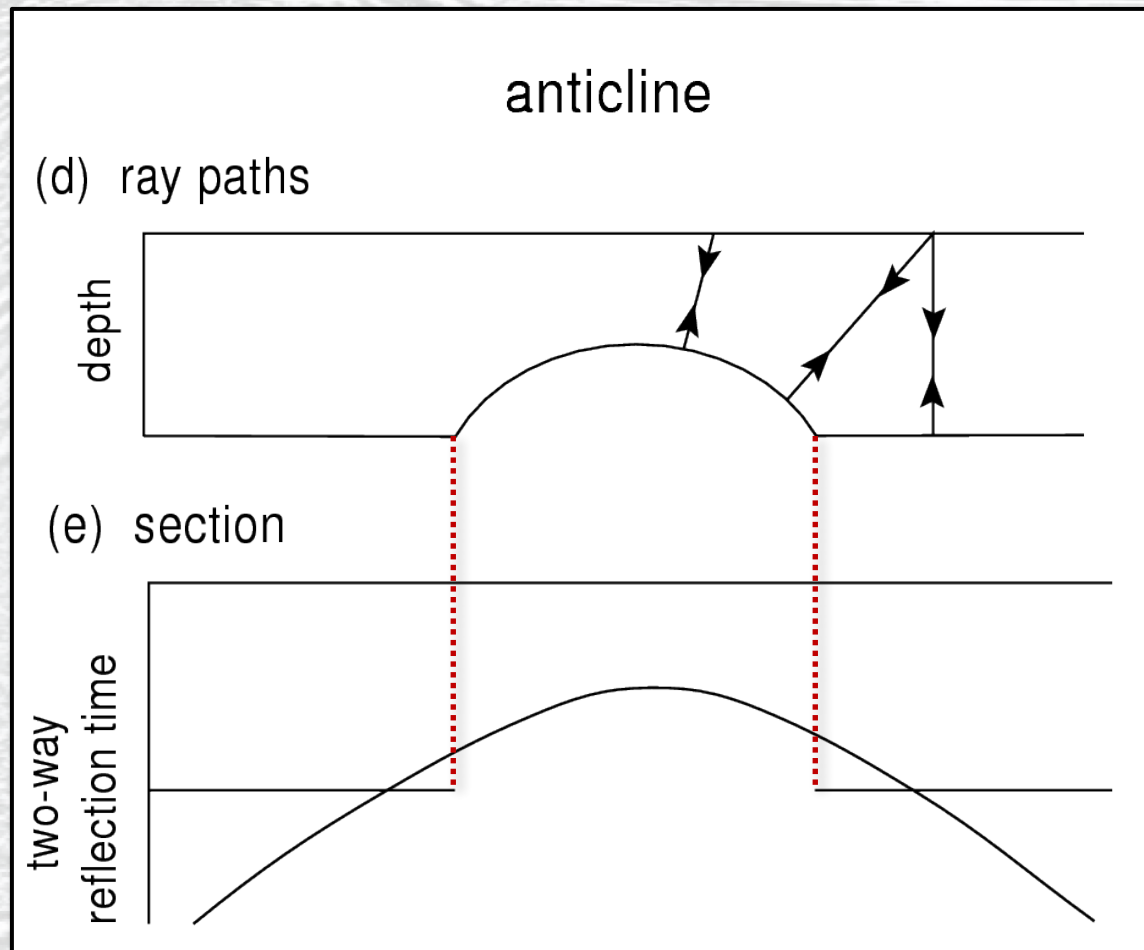


(stacked)
(c) section



Anticlines

- For subsurface anticlines...
- A broadened or widened anticline pattern with multiples near the anticline margins



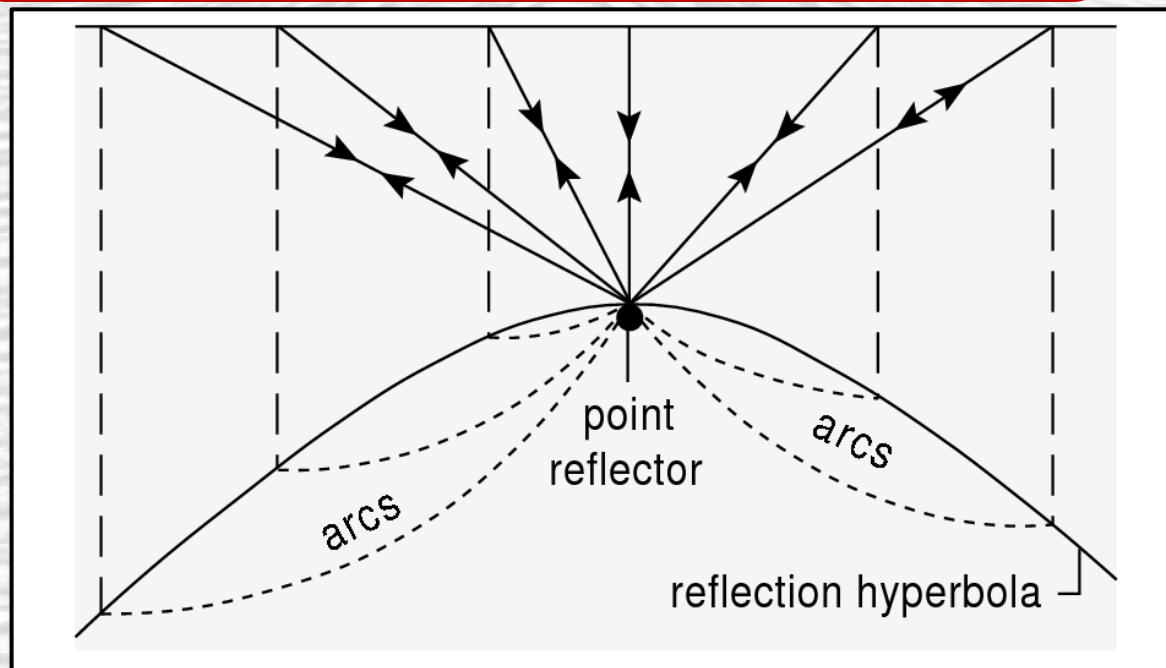
Migration

- Migration: Correcting for the displacement of position and the shape of a non-horizontal reflector
 - Also includes several other geometric corrections
 - So, the previous examples were examples of migration!
- **Extremely complicated process**
 - This is the main reason why ~30% of the world's CPU time is spent on seismic reflection
 - Requires sophisticated numerical routines to detect and correct these patterns.
 - Sometimes reflection profiles are left “unmigrated”
 - Saves time and money
 - Reflection seismology experts can look at unmigrated sections and immediately see the migrated image in their head.

Diffraction

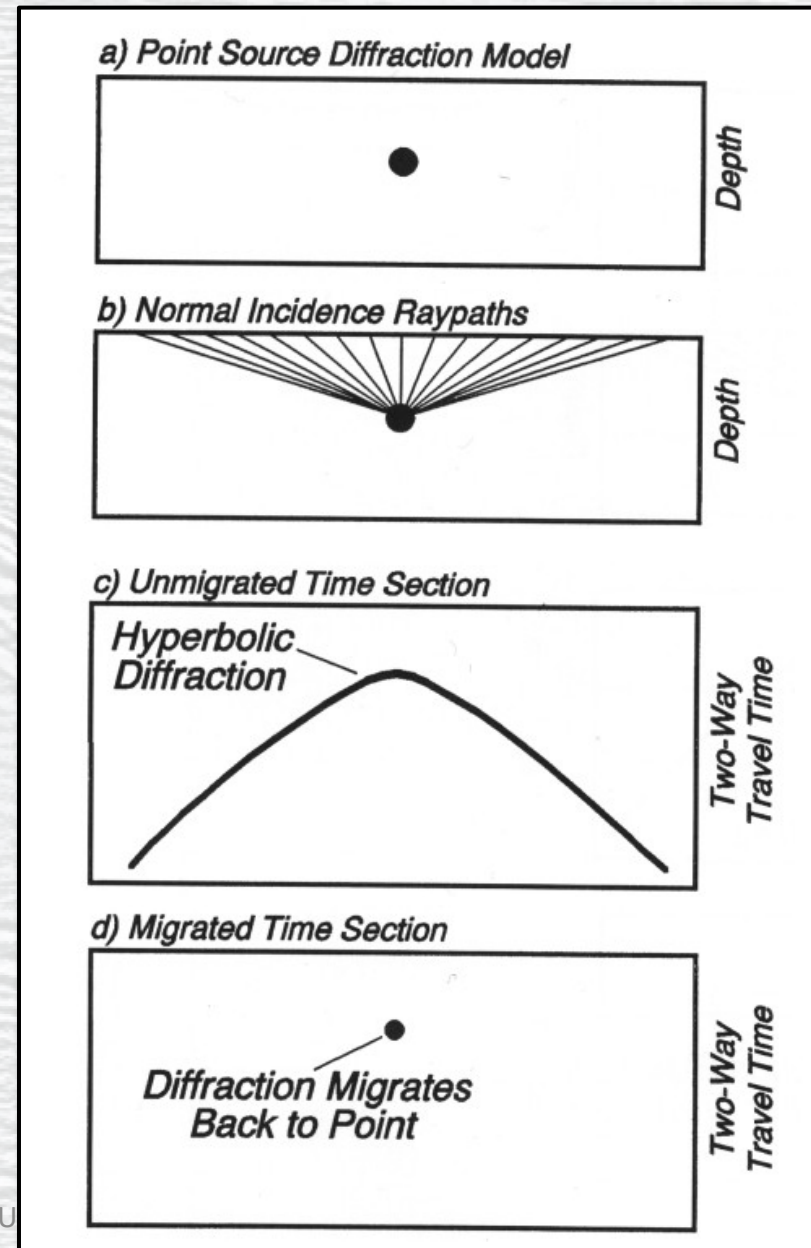
- Although many reflectors are laterally continuous, often discontinuous reflectors are encountered
 - Discontinuous reflectors produce diffracted waves
 - Remember Huygen's Wavelets?
 - Three main causes of diffraction...
 - Faulted rock layers
 - Pinchouts (a stratigraphic layer that thins to nothing)
 - Point sources (usually non-geologic)

Migration also corrects these artifacts!



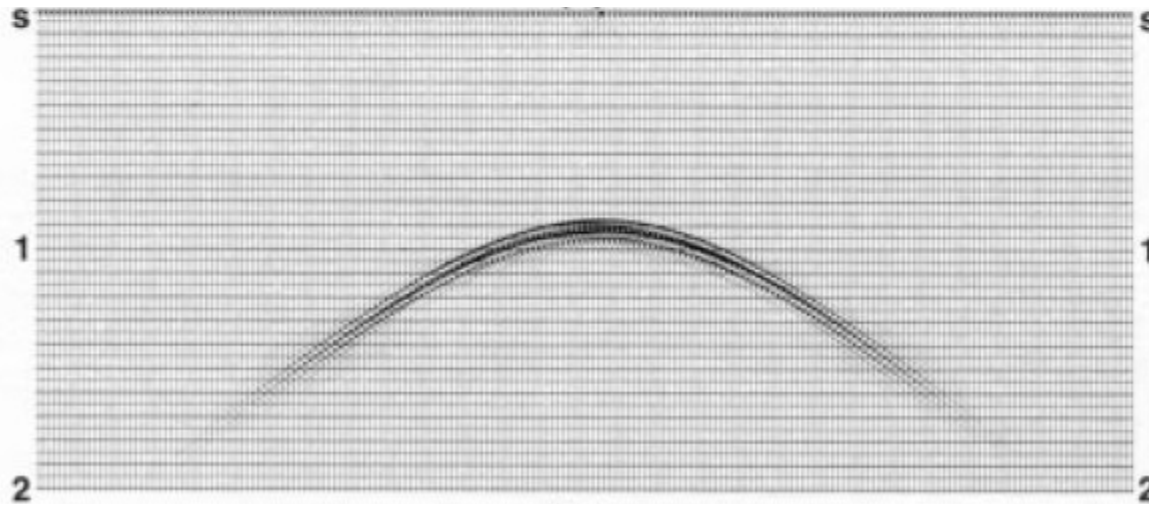
Point-Source Diffraction and Migration

- Although point sources are geologically uncommon...
 - They are common in environmental or civil engineering surveys
 - E.g. Buried pipes / wires
- Reflection of energy from a small sphere produces diffracted waves
- An unmigrated point source produces a hyperbolic pattern.
- Migration collapses the hyperbola back into a point.

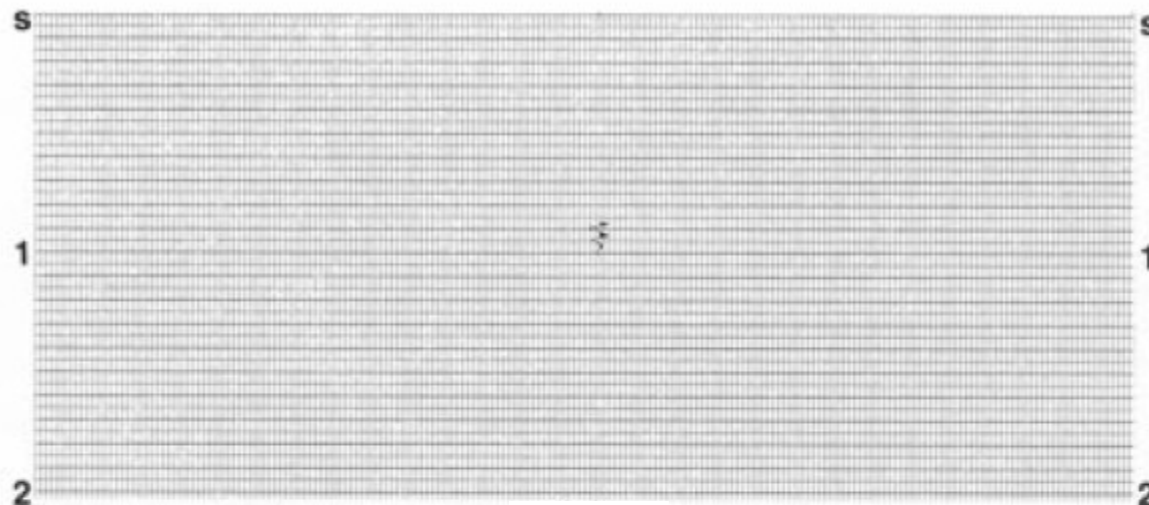


Point-Source Diffraction and Migration

Stacked Section Unmigrated

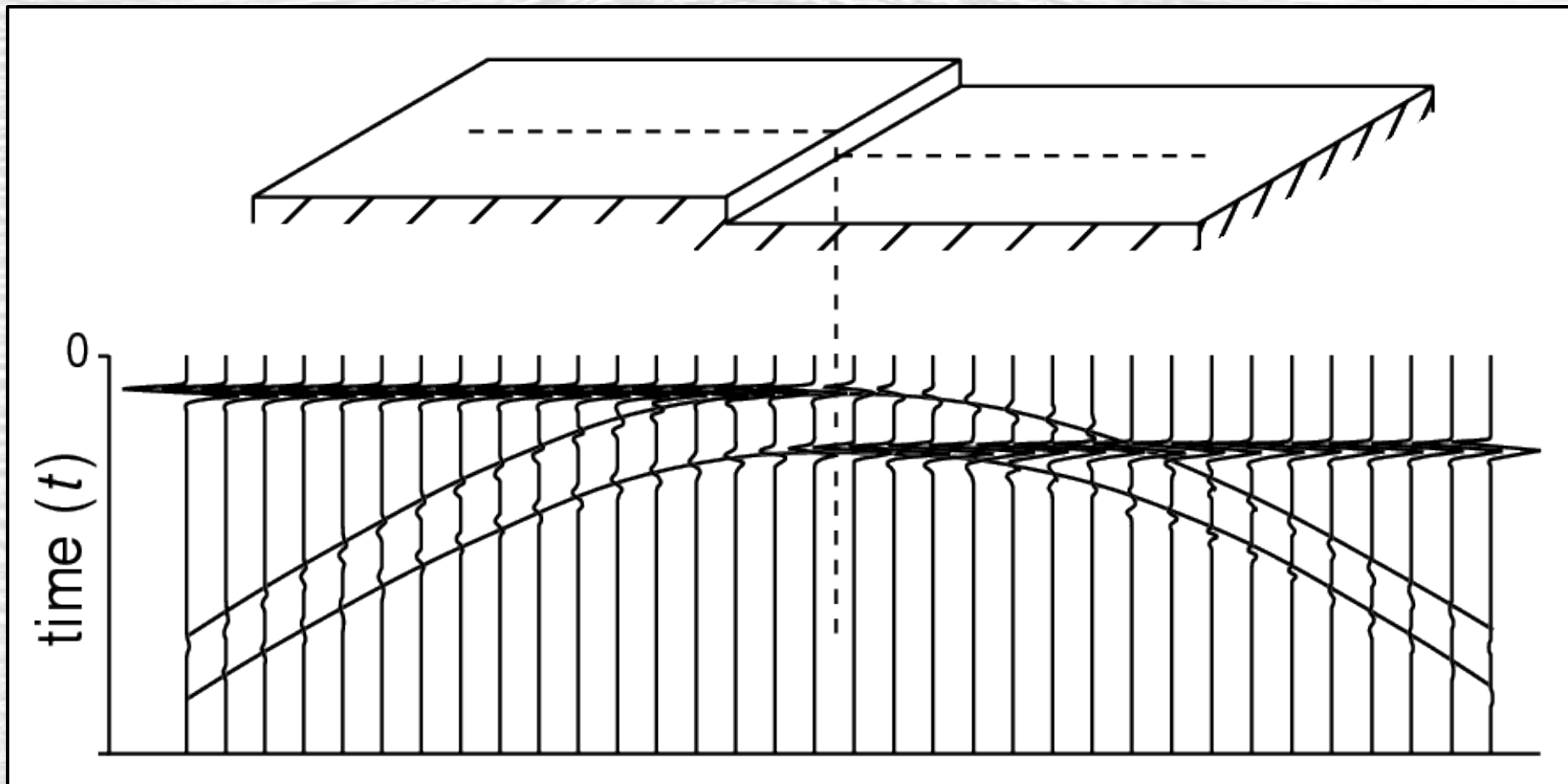


Migrated



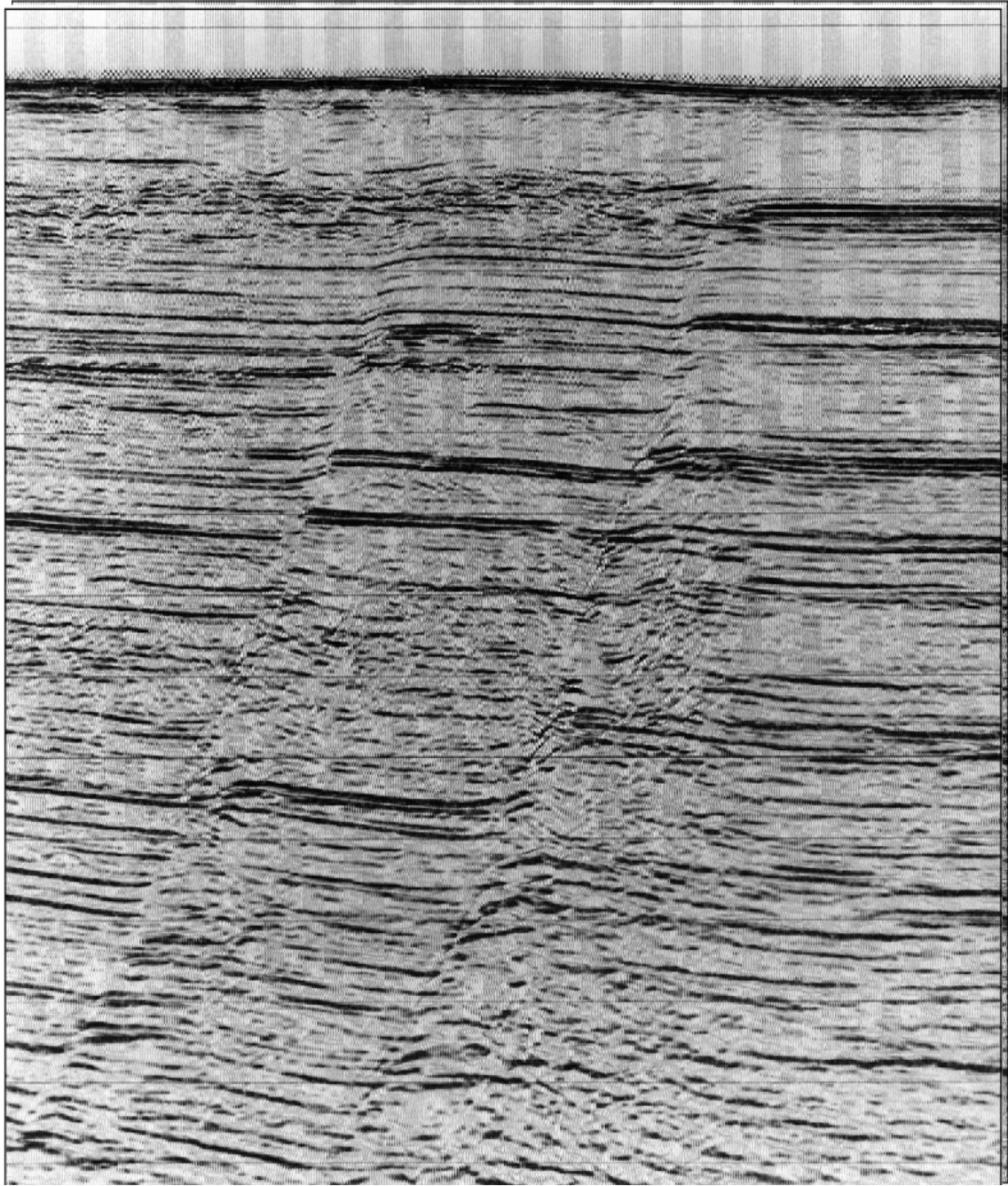
Faulted Reflectors: Diffraction

- Discontinuous layers also produce diffracted waves
 - Due to faulting or pinchouts
 - Edges act like point sources



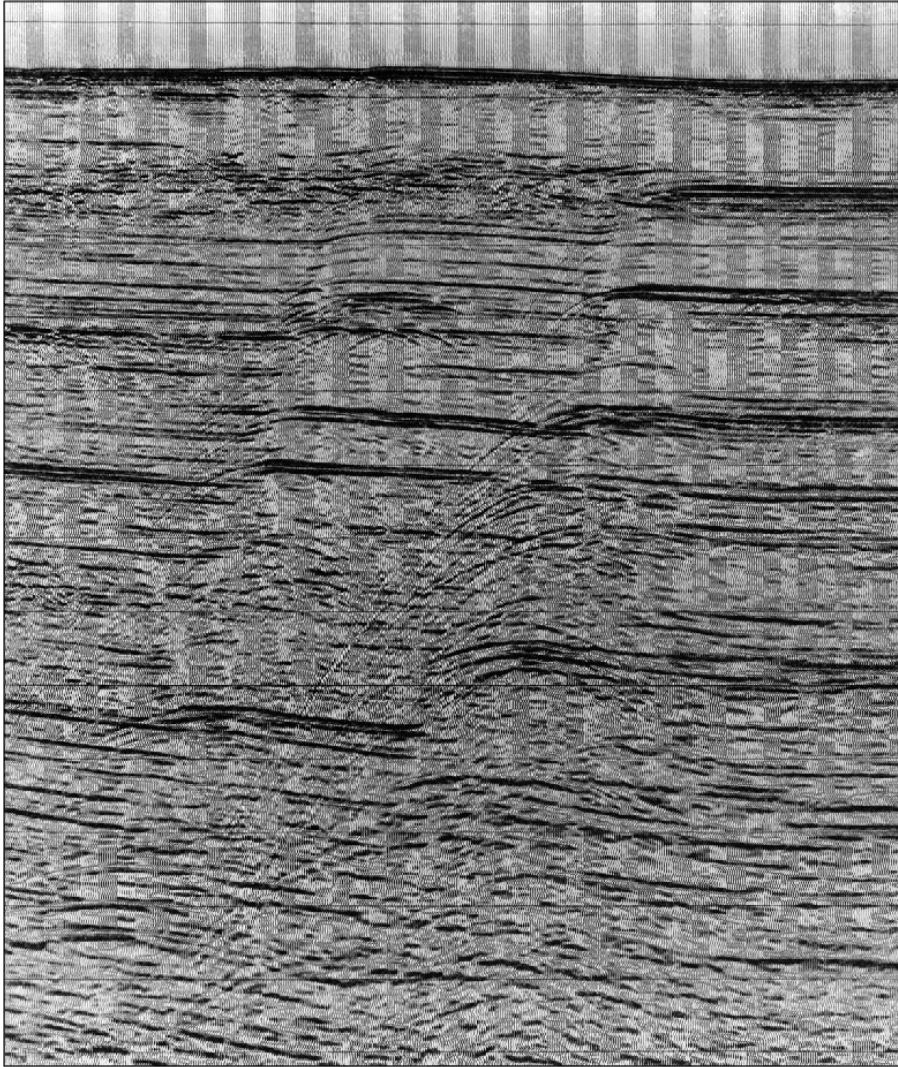
Unmigrated

Migrated

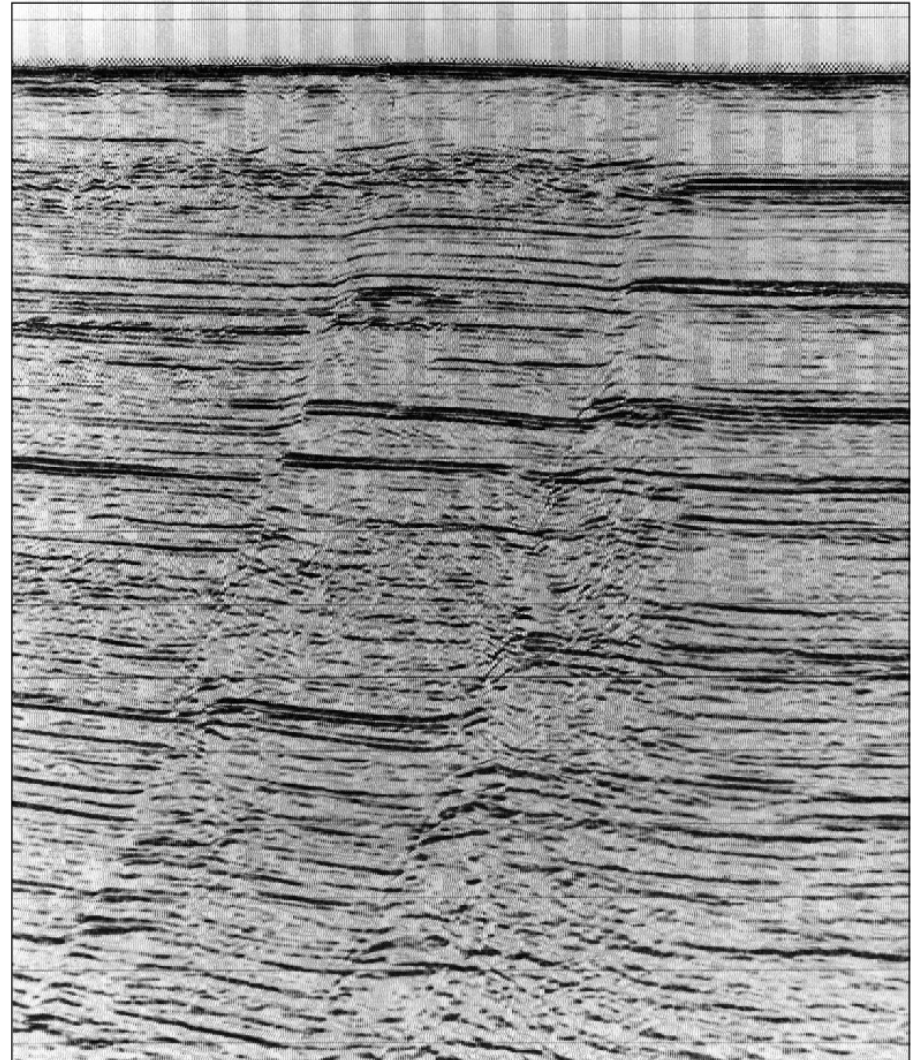


Migration Example

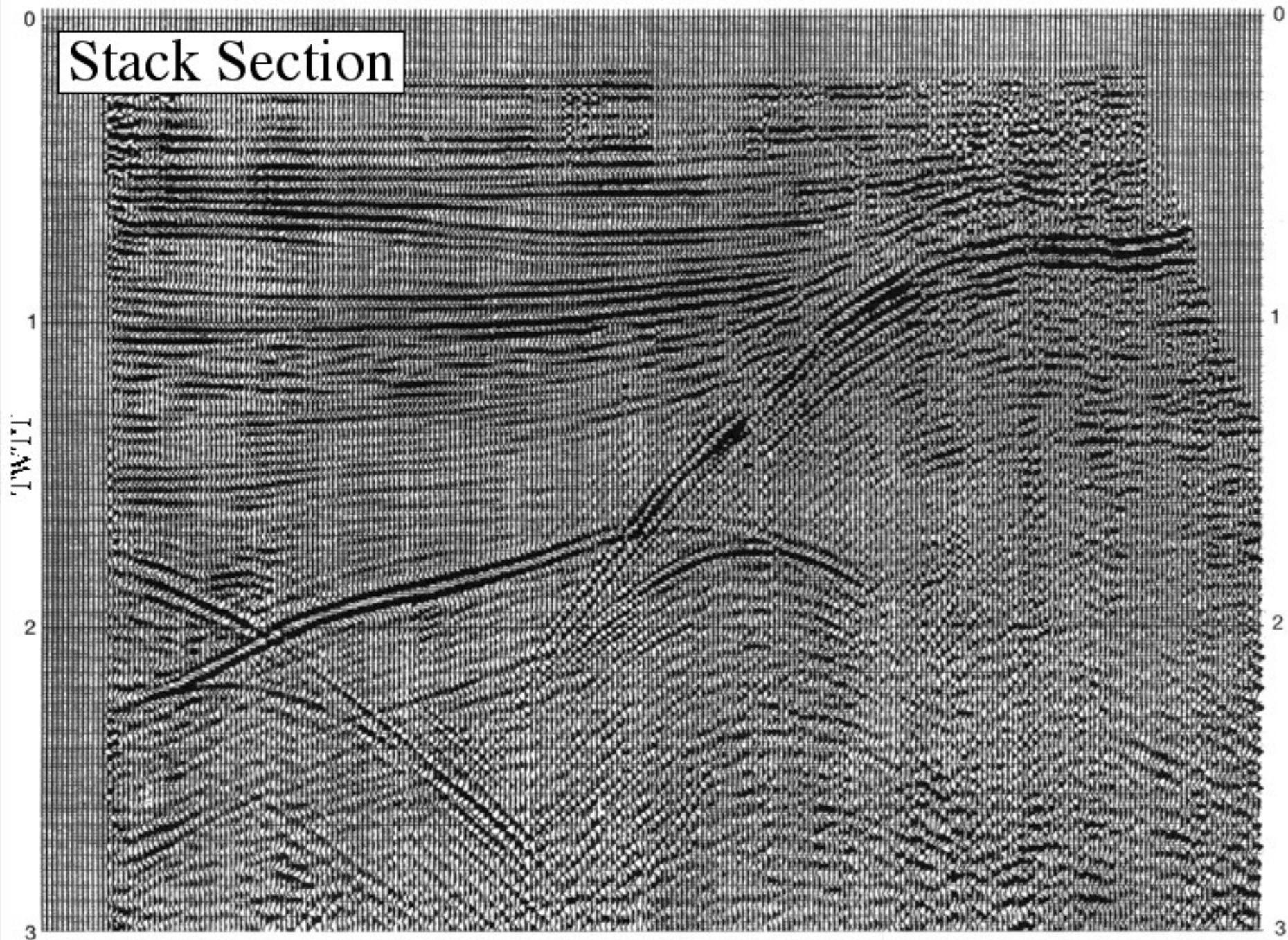
Unmigrated



Migrated



Stack Section



Migrated Section

TWT

0

0

1

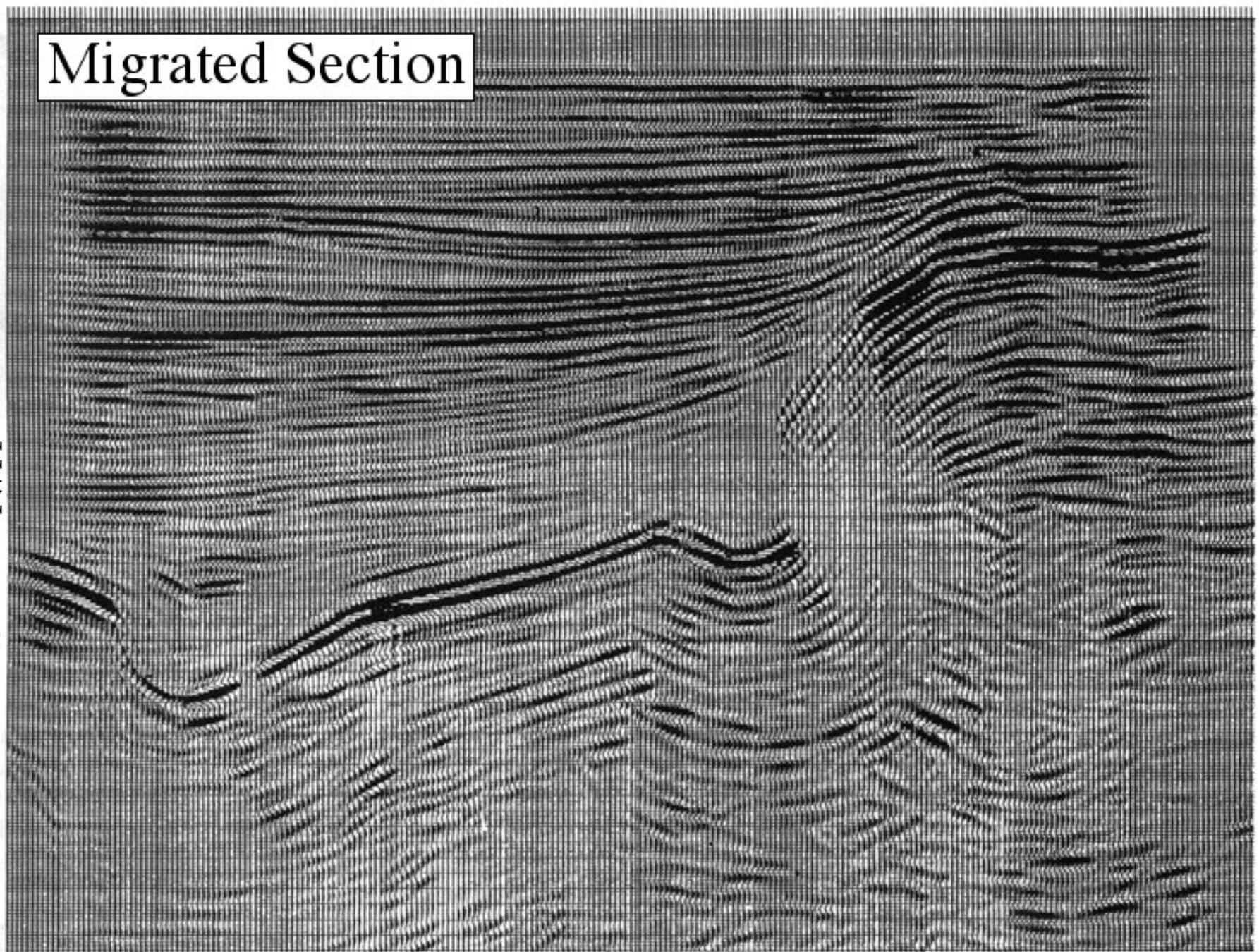
1

2

2

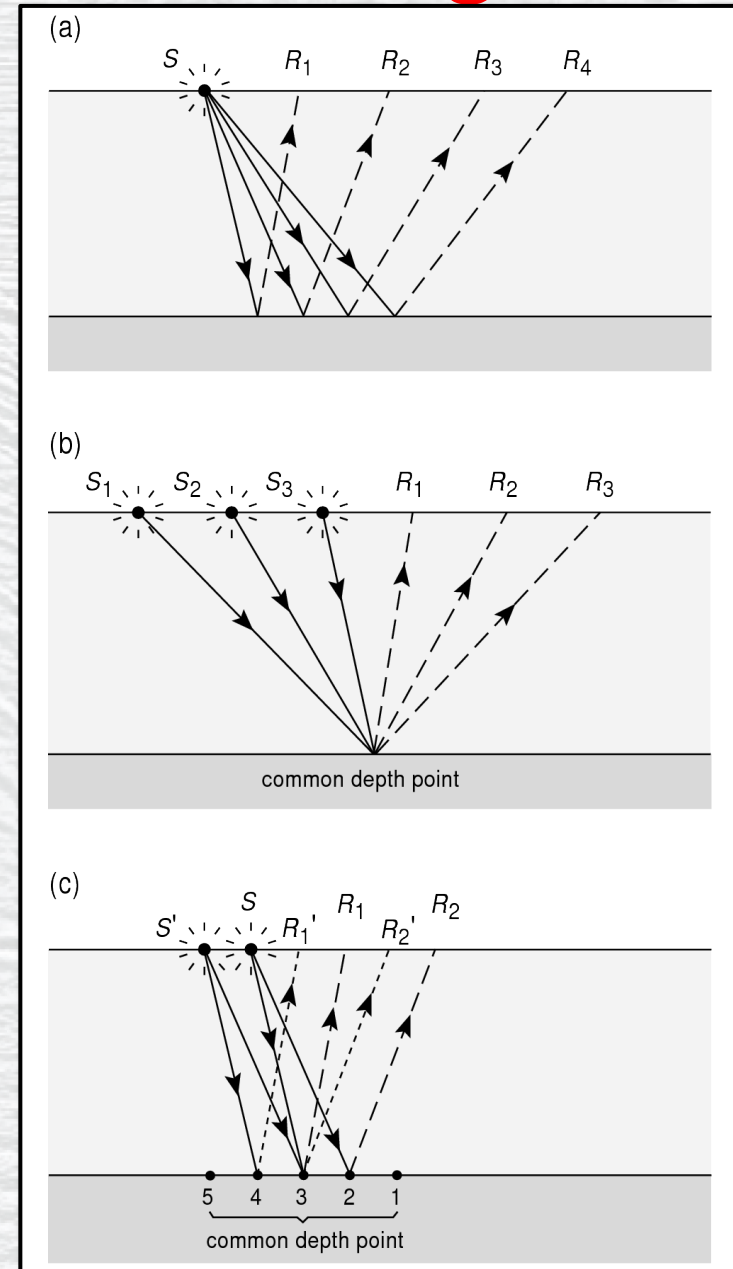
3

3



Common Depth Point Stacking

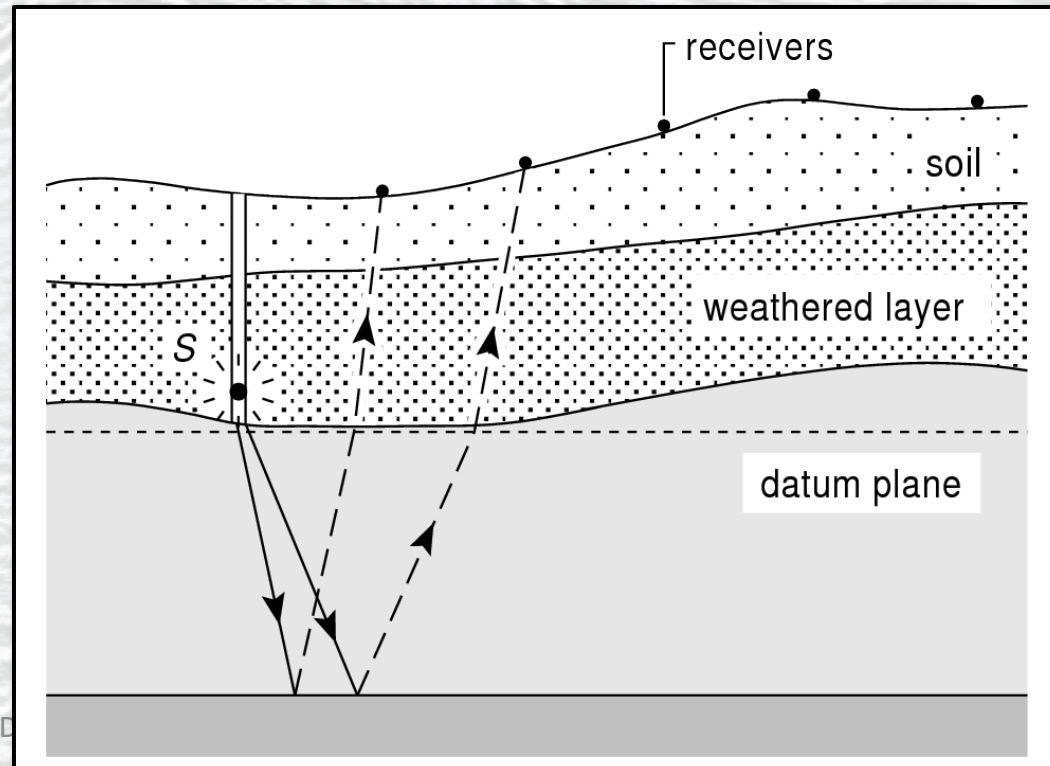
- We'll skip this...
- Basically...CDP stacking is a way to get a greater signal to noise ratio and determine the velocity structure all in one step.



Static Correction

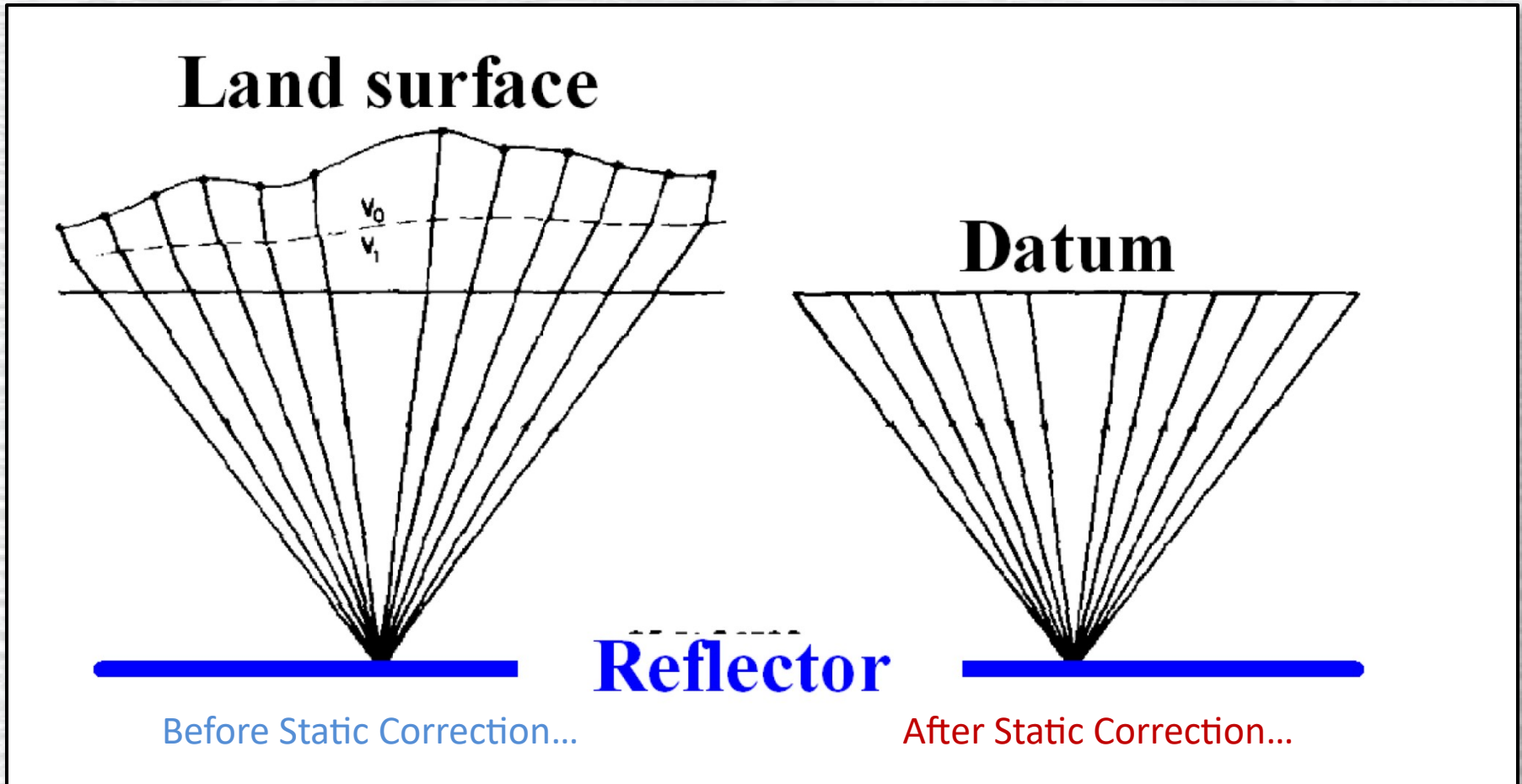
In land surveys...

- Geophones may be at different elevations
- Near-surface weathered layers (low velocity) may produce artifacts in data
 - Time spent in these shallow layers may be interpreted as thicker layers at depth.
- Static corrections make the data appear as if it were collected at some convenient constant elevation (i.e. horizontal) datum
- Why are static corrections not needed in marine surveys?



Static Correction

- ...a simpler view

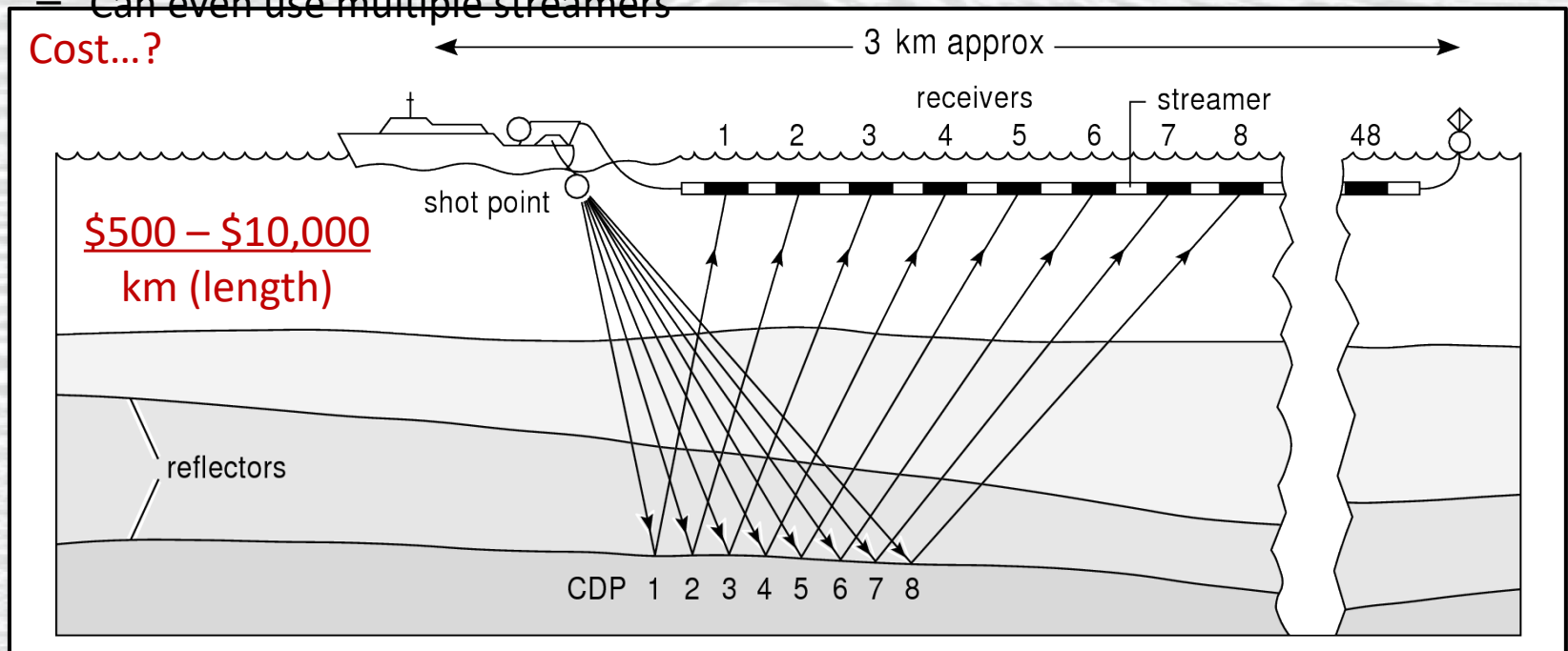


Types of Surveys

- Seismic Reflection is commonly done both on land and at sea
- Land surveys use geophones
 - Measure ground motion
- Marine surveys use hydrophones
 - Measure pressure changes in the water

Marine Surveys

- Use a variety of sources
 - Air Gun: Generates a high pressure air burst (> 100 atm)
 - Sparker: Generates a high voltage charge
 - Water Gun: Pulse of high pressure water
 - Aquapulse: Explosion of a mixture of gas and water
- The source type is unimportant, what is key is that the source can be repeated easily
- Hydrophones are floated behind the ship connected by streamers
 - Can even use multiple streamers



Land Surveys

- Use a variety of sources
 - Impulsive
 - Explosives: Shallow-buried explosives (Boom!)
 - Dropping a large weight: 
 - Usually ~ a few tons
 - Non-impulsive
 - Vibroseis
- Data recorded by geophones
 - Often clusters of geophones are used for each location to stack the data
- Moving the system is difficult
 - cost is ~ 10x of marine survey



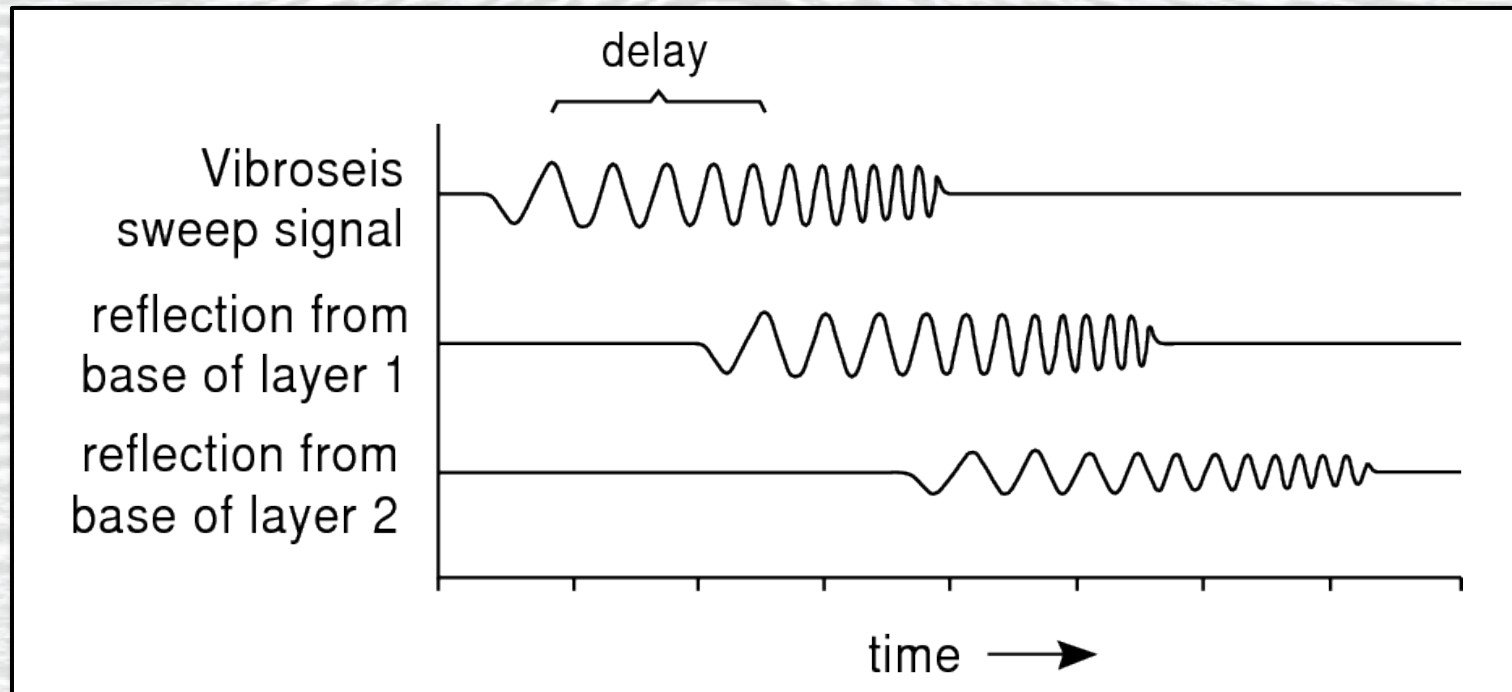
Vibroseis

- Instead of a short pulse (impulsive) Vibroseis relies on a continuous train of waves with a changing frequency (non-impulsive)
- Generated by a large truck with vibrating plate



Vibroseis

- The source “sweep signal” is known & controlled
 - Commonly 1-100 Hz; up to 30 seconds
 - Low amplitude (compared to impulsive sources)
 - Can use multiple trucks vibrating the same sweep signal to increase strength
 - Has been known to get Moho reflections!
 - Can easily identify the arrival on seismograms
 - Match multiple troughs and peaks
 - High signal to noise ratio
 - Is successful in noisy environments

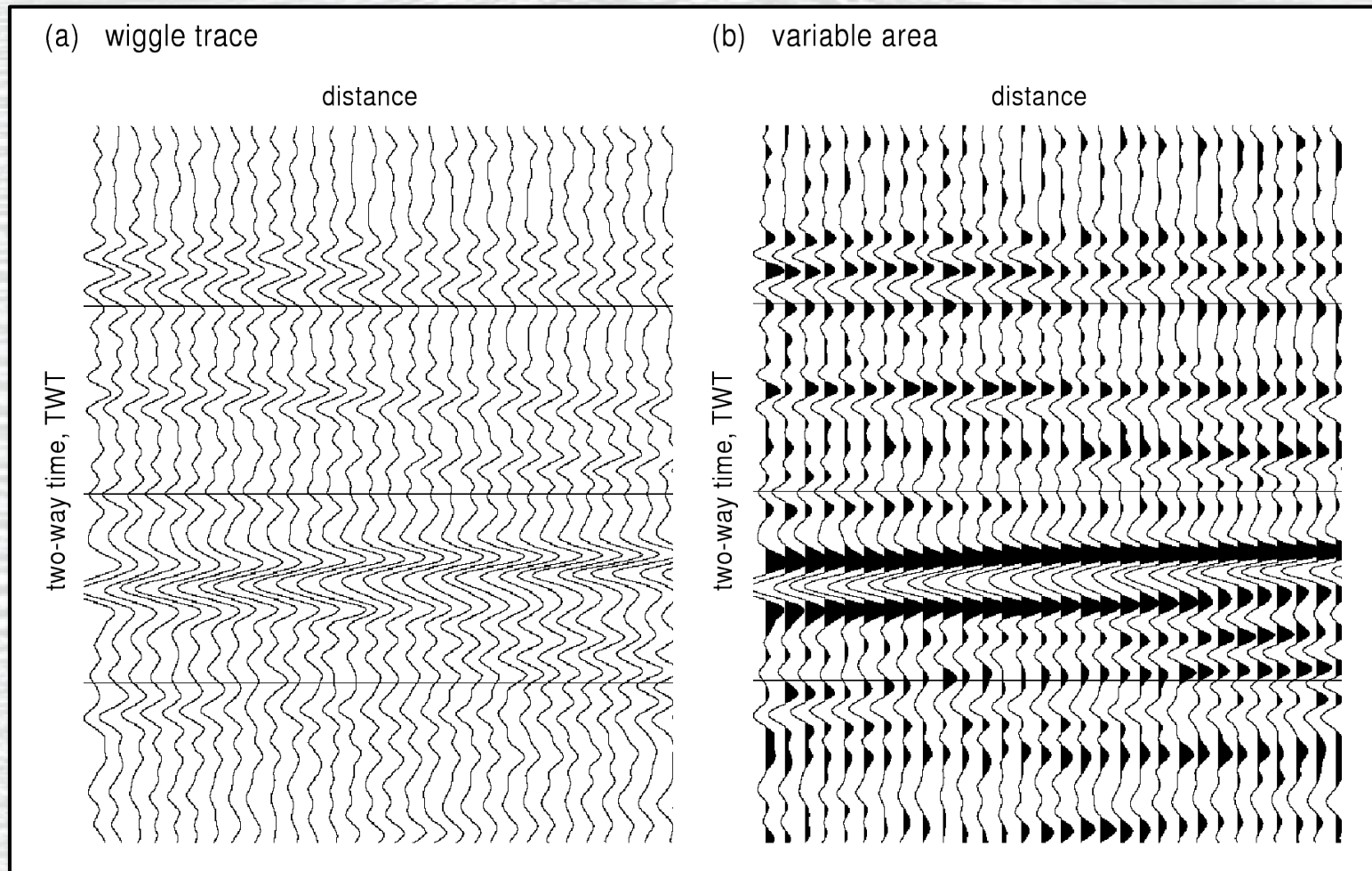


Vibroseis



Display of Seismic Reflection Data

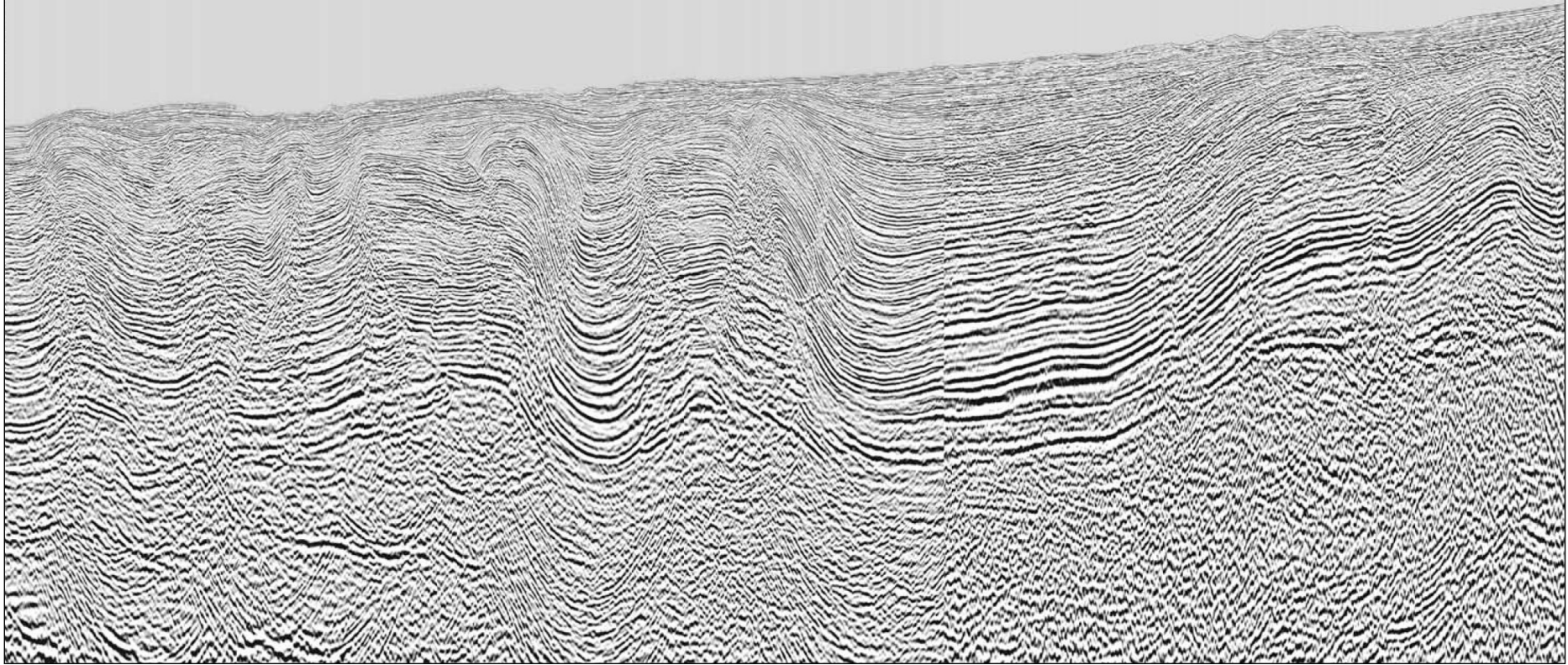
- Seismic data is almost never plotted as raw wiggle traces.
- Plotted as either **variable area** or **variable density**
 - Variable area: shades peaks but not troughs



Display of Seismic Reflection Data

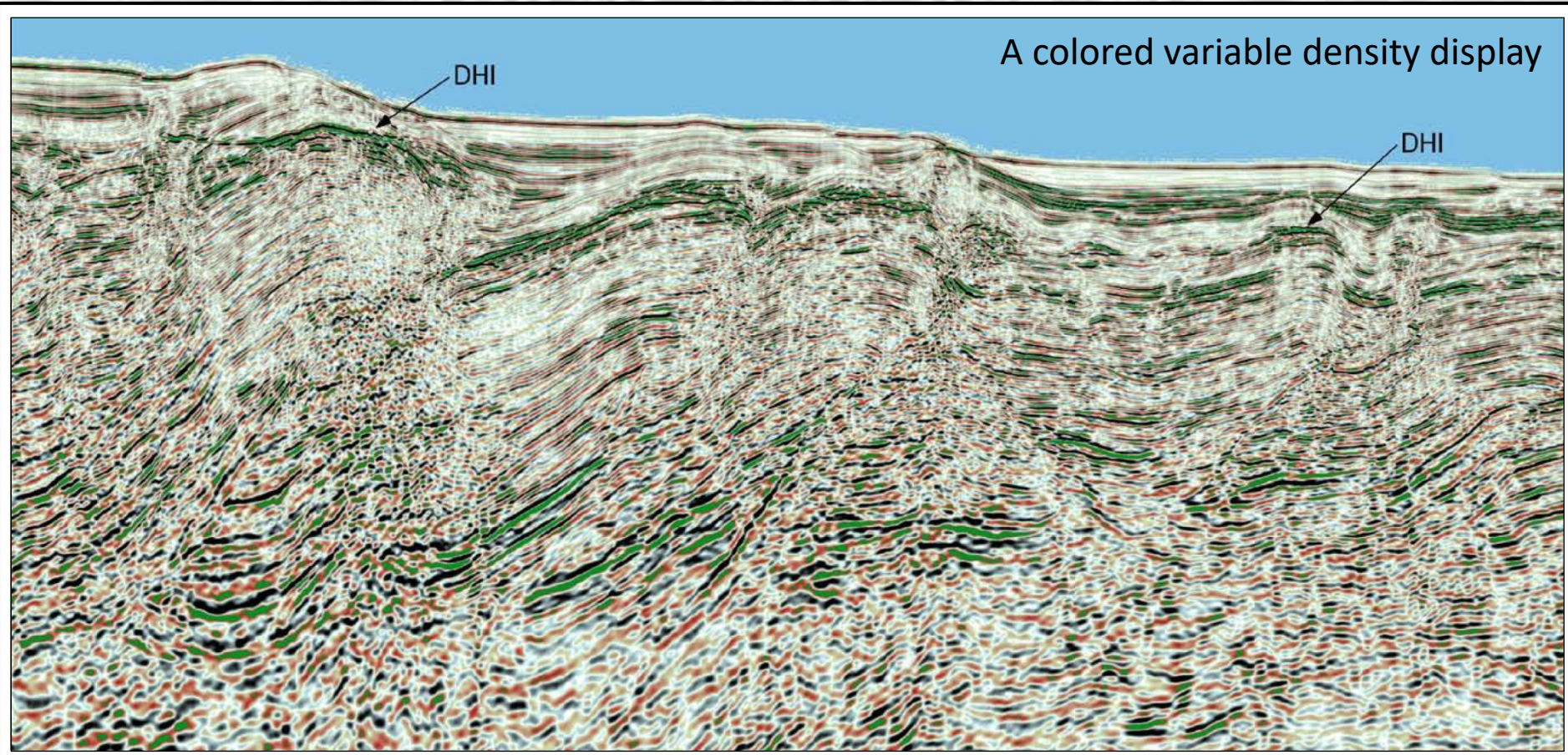
- **Variable Density:** the photographic intensity (i.e., gray value; color) is proportional to the amplitude

A grayscale variable density display



Display of Seismic Reflection Data

- **Variable Density:** the photographic intensity (i.e., gray value; color) is proportional to the amplitude



What is a Reflector?

- **Critical Reflection:** When 100% of a ray is reflected
 - Happens at angles greater than the critical angle
- **Sub-critical reflection:** Part of the total ray energy is reflected at angles less than the critical angle.
- The amount of an incident ray that is reflected depends on the **acoustic impedance**
 - So both density and velocity matter!

$$\text{Acoustic Impedance} = \rho v$$

- **Reflection Coefficient:** ratio of reflected to incident amplitudes

$$R = \frac{a_{refl}}{a_{incid}} = \frac{\rho_2 v_2 - \rho_1 v_1}{\rho_2 v_2 + \rho_1 v_1}$$

Warning!! Only true if the incident ray is nearly normal to the interface

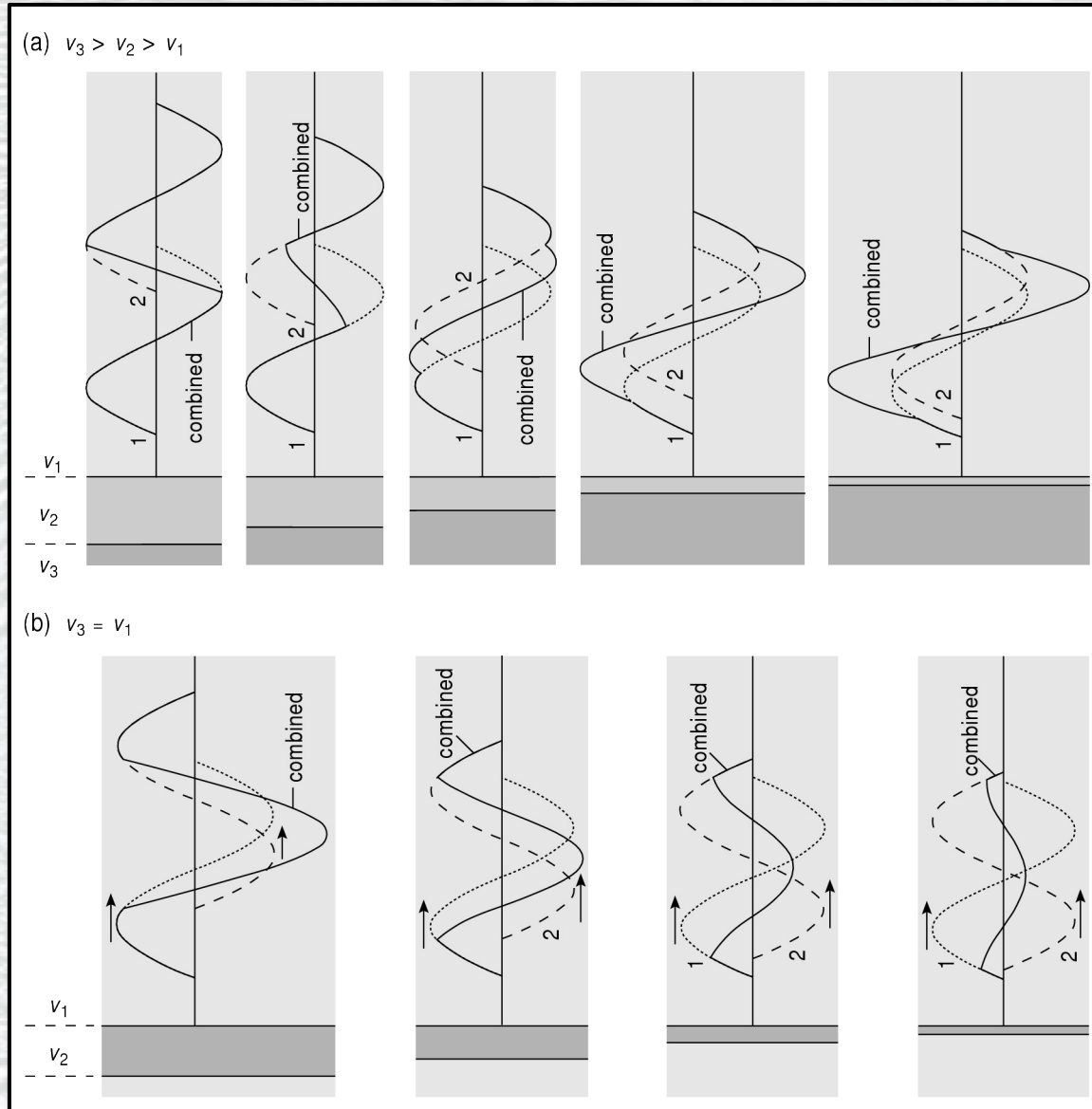
- **Transmission Coefficient:** ratio of transmitted to incident amplitudes

$$T = \frac{a_{trans}}{a_{incid}} = \frac{2\rho_1 v_1}{\rho_2 v_2 + \rho_1 v_1}$$

Interference

The equation for reflectance can produce negative values...

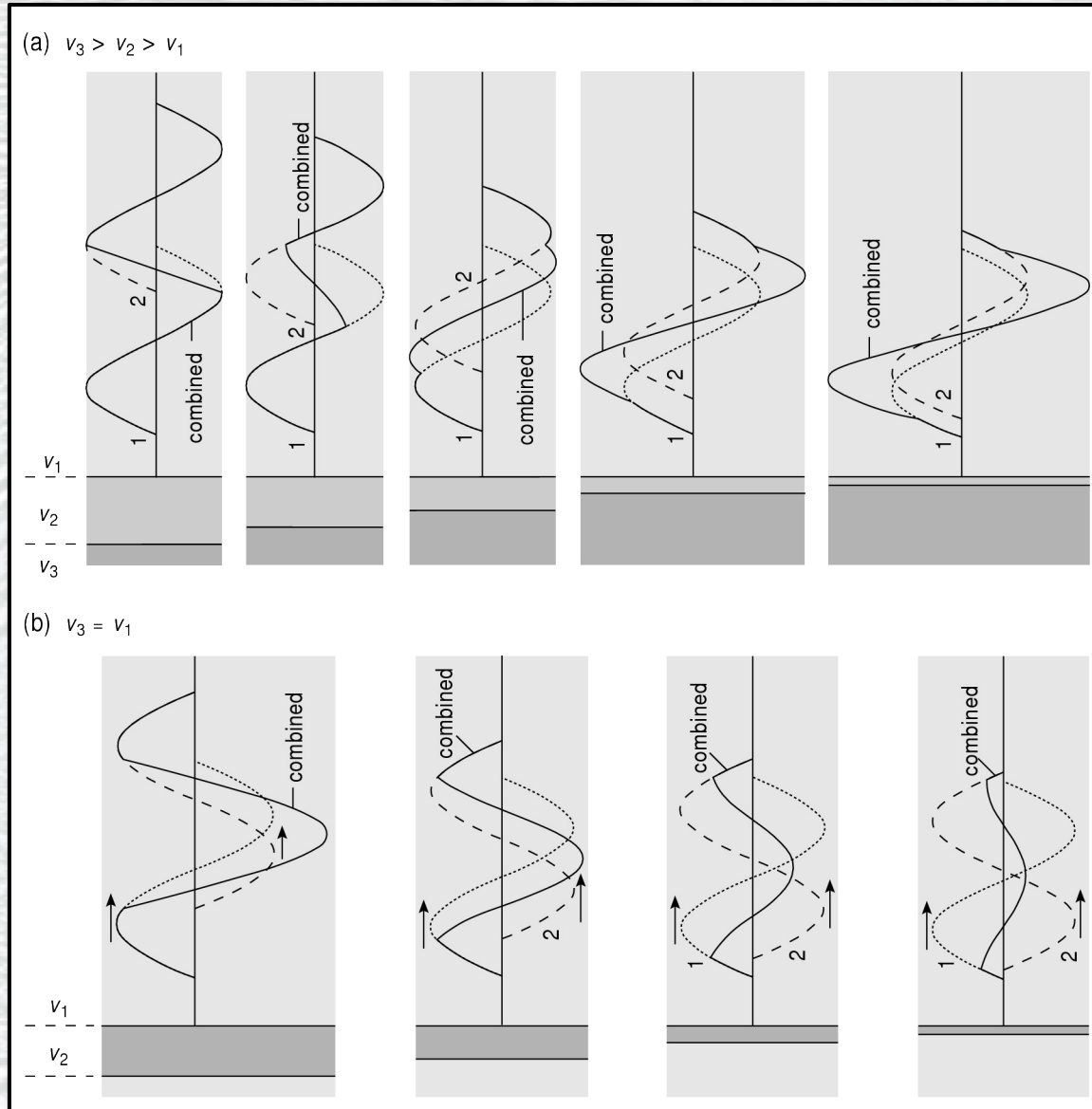
- This means that the reflected pulse will be out of phase or have troughs where the incident pulse had peaks
- Certain reflector geometries can cause either constructive interference or destructive interference
- Interference causes the vertical resolution to be $\sim 1/4 \lambda$



Vertical Resolution

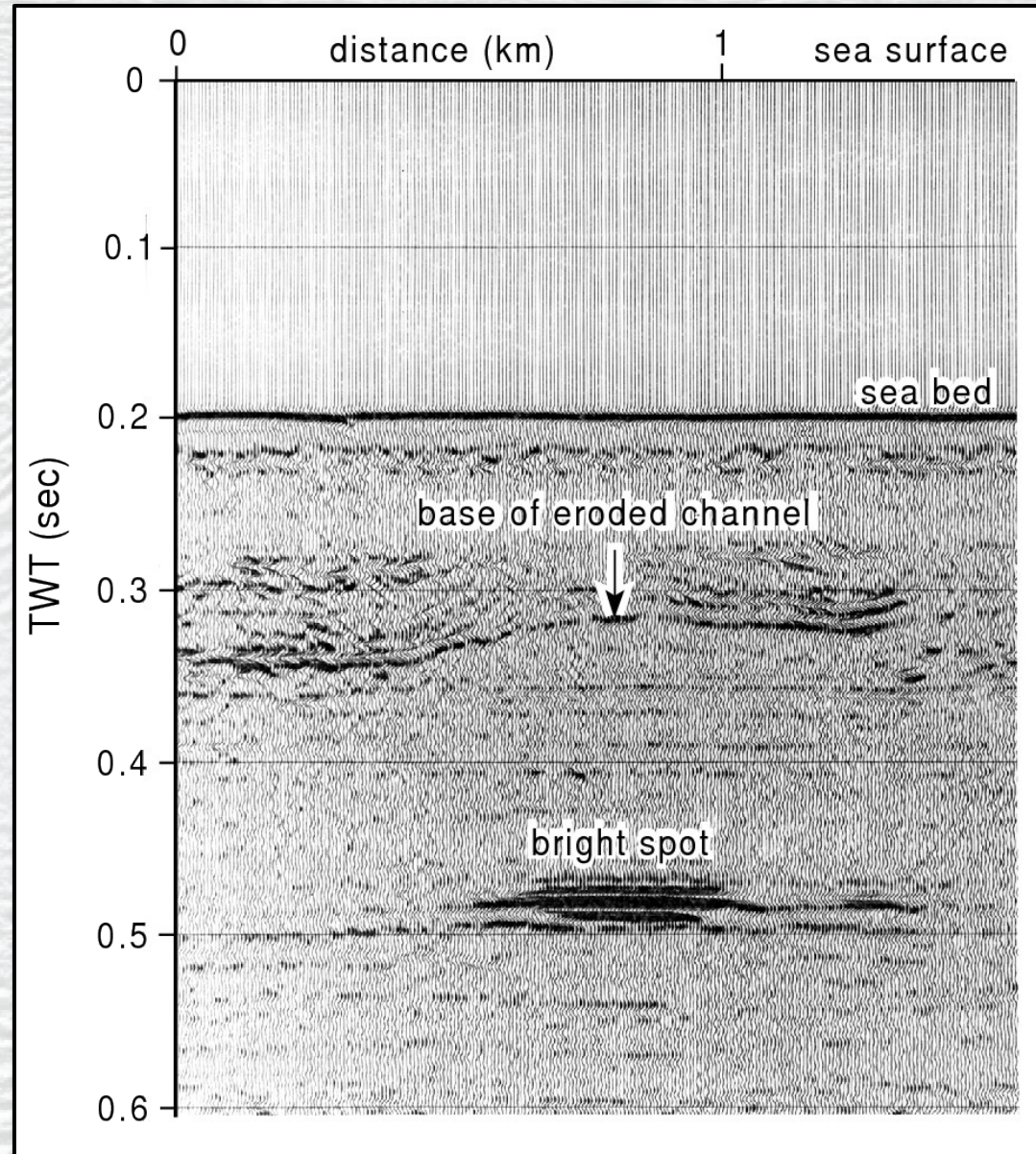
Interference with reflected waves affects the resolution...

- Vertical resolution is $\sim 1/4 \lambda$
- **Want more detail?**
 - Higher frequency source
 - Limited depth penetration
- **Want greater depth penetration?**
 - Lower frequency source
 - Lower vertical resolution
- Same is true for GPR



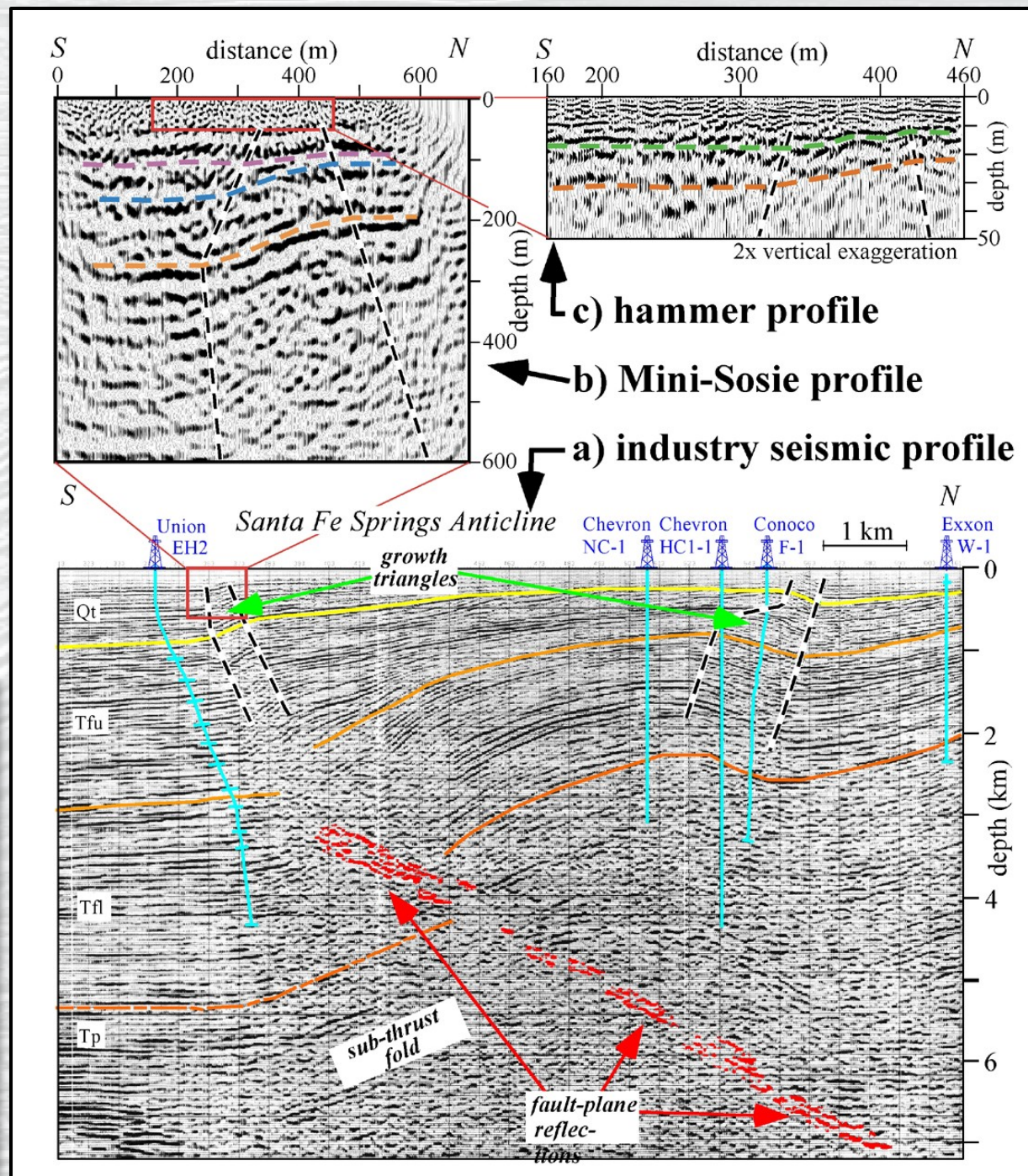
Bright Spots

- Because of large contrasts in acoustic impedance...
 - Oil and gas reservoirs produce strong reflections
 - Called “bright spots”
- No (or weak) reflections?
 - Gradational boundaries
 - Steeply dipping or vertical layers



Seismic Hazards

- Seismic reflection data are also used to help identify active faults, define their geometries, and slip histories, for the characterization of earthquake hazards.



Puente Hills thrust, LA basin

