

GEOPHYSICAL IMAGING

METHOD 1: physics → processing → application (geophysics, metal detection) → software

Geophysics: obtain measures of some physical values of earth.

We have a radar sending sym to earth and this gets reflected (method to look below the surface).

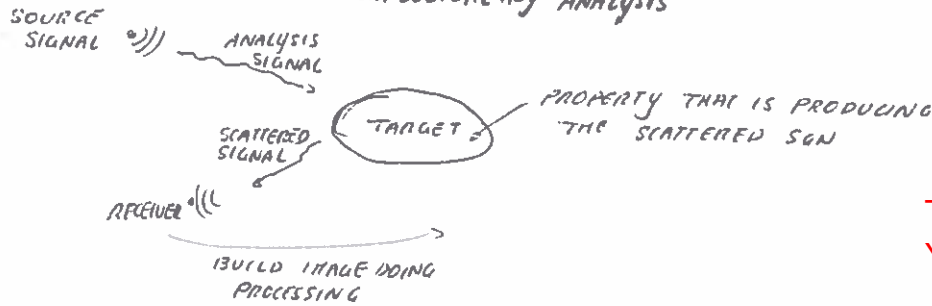
Subsurface: can be the well

We can find an object in a metallic pipe for oil using acoustic waves



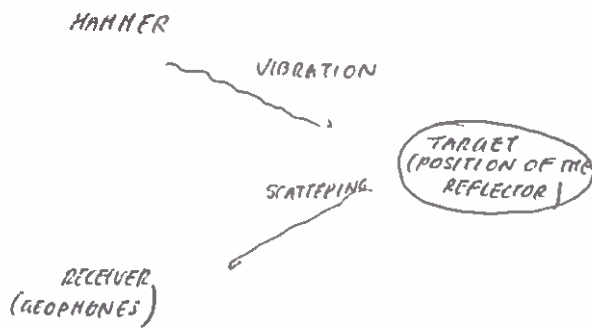
Physics here is using acoustic waves to have an image of the pipe

REFLECTOMETRY ANALYSIS



Thanks to
Yasmin Sarbaoui

SEISMIC METHODS



An example of common situation is a target like salt body. We know that a lower density material than to get out from the surface



The positions of PINCH OUT are good candidates to have oil if the rock is porous. The oil is up in the pinch out position because it floats over water.

We have two methods: elastic method and electrical method and electromagnetic waves

ELECTRICAL METHOD



Capacity of the subsurface to propagate the current. Why we can have a current flow in the subsurface?

If we have water → good conductivity. So we normally use the electrical method in presence of water. It can be used to check if we have

contaminants going out of a landfill.

Water is conductive while oils and gas are not

ELECTROMAGNETIC WAVES



We will see:

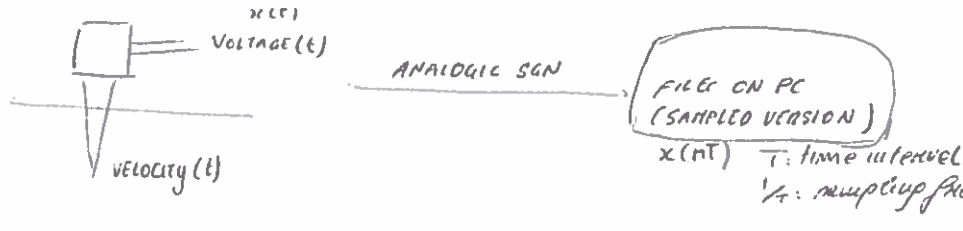
- Low frequency EM: METAL DETECTOR (10KHz)
- High frequency EM (>10MHz): GROUND PENETRATING RADAR

We have two problems: resolution and observability. Some applications are impossible. With the elastic method we have no conductivity, with GPR we cannot go below 100m

What if we have two mediums?

Flash properties ^{• source}

| | | |
|------|---|-------------------|
| • RX | 1 | => DA FARE A CASA |
| • RX | 2 | |



$\frac{1}{T}$: sampling freq \rightarrow how many samples you take per second

Analogic world \Rightarrow Digital world
cassette audio \Rightarrow CD, MP3
vinyl disc

The data lasts forever unless you destroy the file

In digital world we have to deal with several processes like copy, communication, life, reproduction, one way (PC), processing, while in analogic world we have velocity, wave field and electronics.

$x(t)$ will be the physical parameter we are measuring and t the independent parameter

$\left. \begin{matrix} x_1(t) \\ x_2(t) \end{matrix} \right\} x(t)$ This is the multichannel signal (eg. a set of geophones or sensors)
 $x_3(t)$ $x(t, \text{space})$ - where the space is the dimension

ELASTIC MEDIA

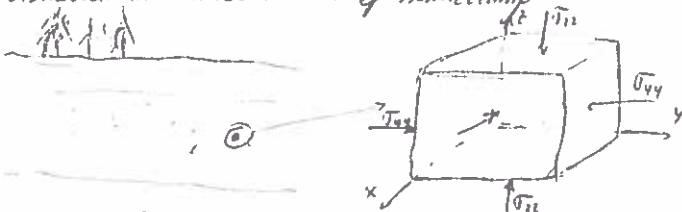
We use the vibrations to investigate the subsurface.



The signal coming back gives information on the target.
We will talk about vibrations, ie ELASTIC WAVES.

We will talk now about ELASTIC MEDIA.

A vibration is a movement of something



We consider an equilibrium situation we have normal forces acting on the cube's faces to keep the equilibrium.

Then forces can provoke a deformation

The state of the FORCES ~~are~~ in the STRESS, ie the composition of all the forces that are acting on the faces. We can have a normal stress (like compression) or shear stress that is trying to apply a deformation. I divide everything by the area: $\frac{N}{m^2} = P_0$

I define $\kappa, \ell = \{x, y, z\}$ with κ direction of the stress and ℓ the face where the stress is applied ($\perp \kappa$)

$T_{\kappa\ell} \rightarrow$ eg if i have σ_{xx} means that i have the force going like \hat{x} axis on the face \perp to \hat{x} axis.

For $\kappa = \ell$ the force is perpendicular to the face so we are compressing or expanding

For $\kappa \neq \ell$ we have a shear stress

STRAIN

So we define the strain (deformation) by the displacement of the vector

Displacement: $\vec{u} = u_x \vec{i}_x + u_y \vec{i}_y + u_z \vec{i}_z = [m]$

We want to define the new position of the vector, a percentage displacement.

$$\epsilon_{mn} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\left| \frac{du_m}{dn} \right| + \frac{du_n}{dm} \right) \quad m, n = x, y, z \Rightarrow \text{STRAIN}$$

Incrementation on the m axis with respect to n axis

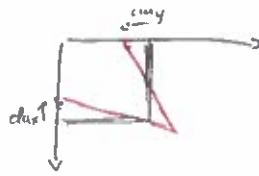
Example

$\epsilon_{xx} = \frac{du_x}{dx} \rightarrow$ displacement along the x direction with respect to the original total dimension



Example 2

$$\epsilon_{xy} = \left(\frac{du_x}{dy} + \frac{du_y}{dx} \right)$$



- For $m \neq n$ we have an angular deformation
- For $m = n$ we have an angle-compressing compression

HOOKE'S LAW

There is a linear link between stress and strain

$$\sigma_{kl} = C_{klmn} \epsilon_{mn}$$

C_{klmn} is a matrix of constants where $klmn = \{x, y, z\}$

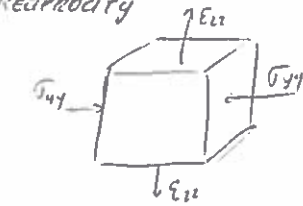
So how many combinations do we have? $klmn \rightarrow 81$ comb.

This combination is true for small stresses.

The bodies that don't have an elastic behaviour are PLASTIC MEDIA (eg plasticine) and they don't go back to the original shape. An earthquake can produce a plastic deformation.

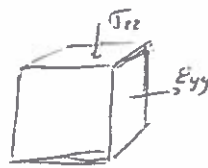
To obtain the possible combinations we notice that there is reciprocity

Reciprocity



$$\sigma_{yy} = C_{yyxx} \epsilon_{xx}$$

=



$$\sigma_{xx} = C_{xxyy} \epsilon_{yy}$$

$$C_{yyxx} = C_{xxyy}$$

Thanks to this we can reduce the combinations to 21.

It exists a medium with 21 numbers (molecular crystal)

If we have an ISOTROPIC MEDIUM (properties don't change with direction) we have that:

$$C_{xxxx} = C_{yyyy} = C_{zzzz} \text{ and this means that the elastic constants become two}$$

This numbers are in telling the behaviour of the body with respect to compression and shear.

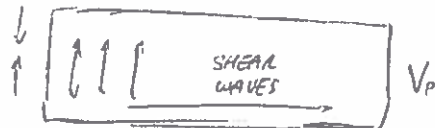
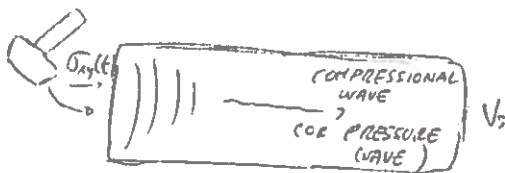
Normally the mediums of real world are ANISOTROPIC. Due to sedimentation we have horizontal layers (thin layers) so the vertical behaviour is different by the horizontal one.

We can talk about TRANSVERSE ISOTROPY and we have 5 elastic constants

HOMOGENEOUS MEDIUM (elastic)

A medium is homogeneous if the properties don't change with the position

PROPAGATION OF STRESS

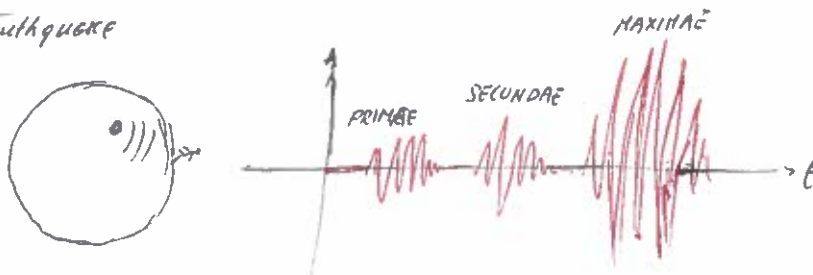


Both of this waves exist and this was discovered by a Chinese studying earth quakes

The pressure waves are the primary, the fastest, the others are the secondary and the maximum in another solution of the wave equation.

In the graphic it's shown how exactly an earthquake arrives.

earthquake

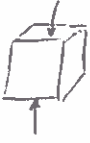


$\sigma_{ik} = C_{ikmn} \epsilon_{mn} \rightarrow$ valid for a small stress
 Force pushing the face \rightarrow stress: $F/\text{AREA} = \text{PRESSURE} = \text{PA SCAL}$

To fill the matrix constant we need 21 numbers for a general medium and 2 for an isotropic medium. We are gonna see how to obtain this two numbers (compression and shear)

C is small for a sponge and big for steel (hard to deform)

EXPERIMENT 1 to obtain a number related to c



Take a sample, compress and measure the deformation w.r.t. the other directions (usually happens when u compress in one direction you get an enlargement in the other direction).
 So we define the poisson coeff.

POISSON COEFFICIENT:
$$\nu = - \frac{\frac{\partial u_y}{\partial y}}{\frac{\partial u_x}{\partial x}}$$

 This can be any 1 direction ②
 It can be also x
 applied force ①

If the body maintains the volume, if i compress by one direction, i have the same expansion in the other directions so $\boxed{\nu = 0.5}$

If the body get compressed by one direction without expanding in the others (sponge) $\boxed{\nu = 0}$

So we get $\boxed{0 \leq \nu \leq \frac{1}{2}}$

ν is not defined for fluid (gas and liquid)

ν can go down to -1 , means you compress in one direction and get a compression in the others. This happens with some crystal's that has to maintain the angles. (Auxetic materials)
 So $-1 \leq \nu \leq 0.5$.

ν is adimensional and it's related with the elastic constants.

EXPERIMENT 2 YOUNG MODULUS

Young modulus: $E = \frac{\sigma_{xx}}{\epsilon_{xx}}$ ratio between stress in one dimension and deformation in the same direction.

We notice that $E = \frac{\sigma_{xx}}{\epsilon_{xx}} = C_{xxxx} = \frac{\sigma_{yy}}{\epsilon_{yy}} = \frac{\sigma_{zz}}{\epsilon_{zz}} = C_{yyyy} = C_{zzzz} [\text{Pa}]$
 for isotropic medium

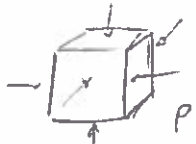
So this is the elastic constant responsible for compression

For steel we have $2.1 \cdot 10^{11} \text{ Pa}$

This can't be used for liquids

For liquids there is another quantity called the BULK MODULUS

related to a sample that is getting forces from all the directions.



we take a container and apply pressure on all the faces
 We measure the Bulk Modulus:

$$\boxed{K = \frac{P}{\Delta V/V}}$$

Ratio between pressure applied and the volume deformation where V is the volume

For steel: $K = 160 \cdot 10^9 \text{ Pa}$

There is a relation between ν , E and K since we only need two parameters

$$\boxed{K = \frac{1}{3} \frac{E}{1-2\nu}}$$

• So the two common parameters are the LANE PARAMETERS

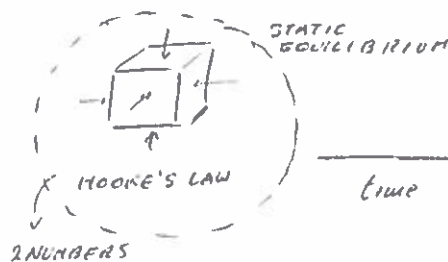
$$\mu = \frac{\sigma_{ik}}{\epsilon_{ik}} \quad (\text{with } i \neq k) = C_{ikik} \rightarrow \text{Elastic constant for shear stress}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{\nu E}{(1+\nu)(1-2\nu)} \quad [\text{Pa}] \quad \text{rigidity of the volume}$$

For all fluids $\mu = 0 \rightarrow C_{ikik} = 0$ so we need only one elastic constant.

There are called ACOUSTIC MEDIA that are part of the elastic media (simpler). Fluids are air, liquids etc.

Now everything is defined for the elastic equilibrium of the cube



DYNAMIC EQUILIBRIUM

$$\frac{F}{A} \begin{cases} \sigma_{ik}(t) = C_{ikmn} \epsilon_{mn}(t) & \text{HOOKE'S LAW} \\ \vec{F} = m \vec{a} = \rho V \frac{d^2 u}{dt^2} & \text{L} \rightarrow \text{displacement} \\ & \text{L} \rightarrow \text{STARTING EQUATIONS} \end{cases}$$

Going from static to dynamic we see that we have a dependency on density

So there is a link between forces (t), displacement (t).

Our parameters become two elastic constants + density; so 3 parameters

The density is $\rho = \left[\frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}^3} \right] = \left[\frac{\text{g}}{\text{cm}^3} \right]$

$\rho_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} = 1000 \text{ kg/m}^3$ $\rho_{\text{air}} = 1 \text{ kg/m}^3$ $\rho_{\text{SAND STONE}} = 2000 \text{ kg/m}^3$

$\rho_{\text{MAGNET GRANITE}} = 6000 \text{ kg/m}^3$ $\rho_{\text{oil}} = 800 \text{ kg/m}^3$

WAVE EQUATION

Link between displacement of forces and elastic constants

$$V^2 \nabla^2 f = \rho \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial t^2} \quad (\text{similar to wave eq of EM field that has } \vec{E} \text{ and } \vec{B} \text{ as a space and } t \text{ as time dimension})$$

Where:

V is the velocity and it contains the elastic constants
 f is something like the pressure

We will then use a finite approximation of the derivative like $\frac{df}{dt} = \frac{\Delta f}{\Delta t}$

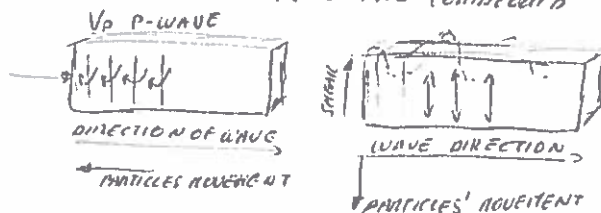


For a HOMOGENEOUS MEDIUM we have two solutions of the wave equation:

- one is travelling with velocity V_p that is the velocity of the pressure wave
- one is travelling with velocity V_s that is equivalent to a vibration that is propagating and a shear wave.

Those are linked to the elastic constants

$$V_p = \sqrt{\frac{\lambda + 2\mu}{\rho}} \quad V_s = \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\rho}}$$

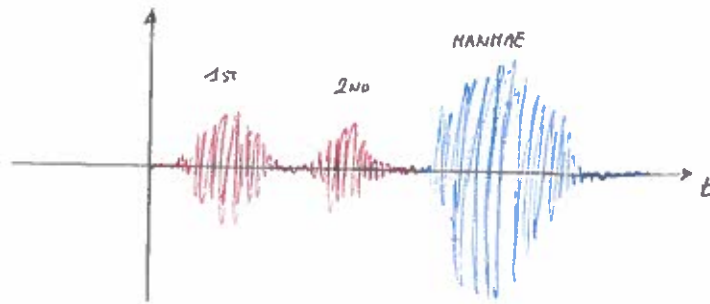
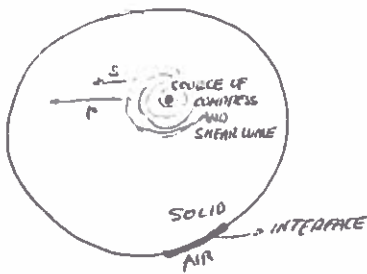


For $\mu > 0$ and $\lambda > 0 \Rightarrow V_p > V_s$

Acoustic media doesn't support shear waves ($\mu = 0$), so $V_s = 0$. They only support pressure wave.

$$V_p = \sqrt{\frac{\lambda}{\rho}}$$

P and S waves travel in the volume of the rock



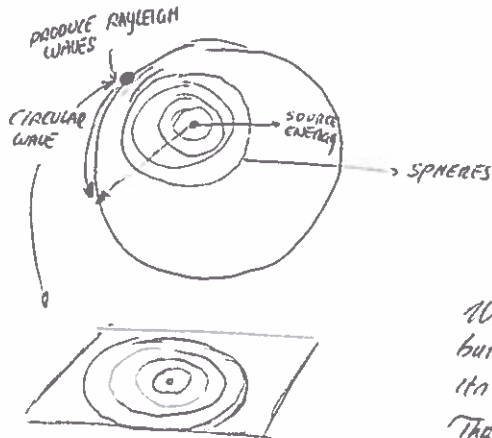
For every position in earth we have the first arrival (P-wave) and second arrival (S wave) and they are body (or volume) waves since they propagate within the volume.

Then we have a third wave (RAYLEIGH) that is produced at the interface. These are the M-WAVES i.e. SURFACE WAVES that are the solution of the wave equation at the contact between two media (e.g. solid and air)

SURFACE WAVES

RAYLEIGH WAVE is one particular solution at the solid-air interface AIR SOLID.

This solution shows that the velocity is $V_R < V_S$ and it propagates in the solid media

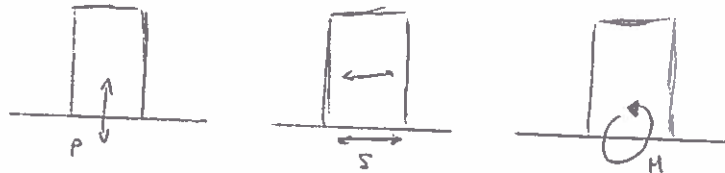
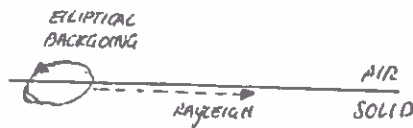


We have some source with an initial energy. The waveforms are spheres with increasing radius. The same energy is distributed on the spheres.

The energy at one point of the sphere is $\frac{\text{ENERGY}}{\text{RADIUS}^2}$

The energy decays like the distance square. $\rightarrow \frac{1}{r^2}$ SURFACE OF SPHERE

When the wave reaches the surface we don't have volume anymore, but still the energy decays with the radius ($\frac{\text{ENERGY}}{\text{RADIUS}}$) and not with its square anymore. That's why the maxims are due to Rayleigh wave.



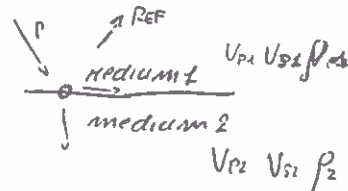
So we have a wave equation by which we can simulate propagations

WAVE PROPAGATION

↓
SIMULATE PROPAGATION OF VIBRATIONS

- V_P
- V_S
- ρ

We will see what happens with discontinuity



WAVE EQUATION: $V^2 \nabla^2 \Phi = \frac{d^2 \Phi}{dt^2}$ The velocity depends on two elastic constants + density

$$V_P = \sqrt{\frac{\lambda + 2\mu}{\rho}} \quad V_S = \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\rho}}$$

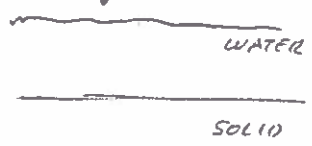
By dividing all the constants we obtain $\frac{V_P}{V_S} = \sqrt{\frac{2(1-\nu)}{1-2\nu}}$ with $0 < \nu < \frac{1}{2}$ poisson coefficient

We see that $\sqrt{2} < \frac{V_P}{V_S} < \infty$

By the THUMB RULE we have that $V_P \approx \sqrt{3} V_S$ or $V_S = \frac{V_P}{\sqrt{3}}$ while for the fluids $V_S = 0$, $\frac{V_P}{V_S} = \infty$
Rayleigh waves have an elliptical movement.

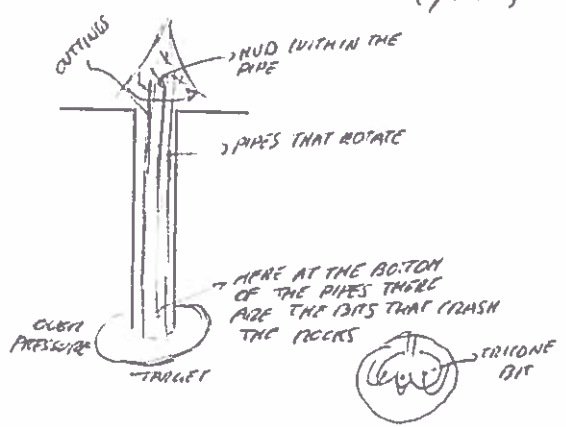
OTHER SURFACE WAVES

STONELEY-SCHOLTE WAVES



A common wave in the solution of the wave equation at the water and solid interface
This is not a dangerous situation but it can be useful for some measurements if you have sensors.

We see some applications of this waves
- Measurements in a well (pozzo)



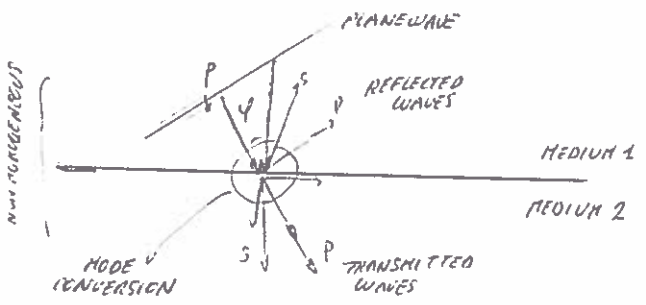
The mud helps removing the cuttings and the overpressure.
If you remove a pipe from a pt high pressure place you have "cave collapse" effect

It can be useful to take some acquisition while getting to the target like vibration analysis

To during the perforations it's a common use to do the VERTICAL SEISMIC PROFILE and it helps to get a better image of the target.



To couple the geophone we can mix water so that we will have water-rock situation => STONELEY
Here we will have TUBE WAVES



PLANE WAVES AND INTERFACES

We define the reflection and transmission ^{coeff} parameters that are functions of the elastic parameters of the two media

$$V_{P1} \quad V_{S1} \quad \rho_1 \quad V_{P2} \quad V_{S2} \quad \rho_2 \quad \varphi \quad \text{poisson numbers}$$

P_i P_r Reflection coefficient

$$R_{PP} = \frac{\text{Amplitude of reflected } P}{\text{Amplitude of incident } P}$$

where R_{PP} ^{normalized} incident

We can also have R_{PS} R_{SS} R_{SP}

Transmission coefficient $T_{PP} = \frac{\text{AMP TRANSMITTED } P}{\text{AMP INCIDENT } P}$, T_{PS} , T_{SS} , T_{SP}

Eight numbers that completely define the nature properties of the interface

We have to impose the continuity of displacement and stress at the interface to be able to define the formula to obtain these numbers

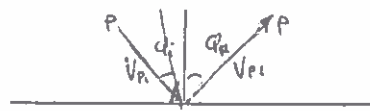
To define the angle (direction) we introduce the SNELL LAW: $\frac{\sin \varphi}{\text{Velocity}} = \text{constant}$

From it we get: $\frac{\sin \phi_{\text{incident}}}{V_{\text{incident}}} = \frac{\sin \phi_{\text{reflected}}}{V_{\text{reflected}}}$

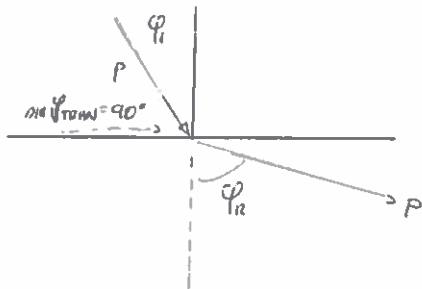
$\frac{\sin \phi_{\text{incident P}}}{V_{P1}} = \frac{\sin \phi_{\text{refl S}}}{V_{S1}}$

$V_{P1} > V_{S1}$

$\phi_{\text{inc P}} > \phi_{\text{refl S}}$



The steeper the wave, the smaller the angle



$\frac{\sin \phi_{\text{inc P}}}{V_{P1}} = \frac{\sin \phi_{\text{trans P}}}{V_{P2}}$ It depends on velocities.

$V_{P2} > V_{P1}$ (very usual situation)

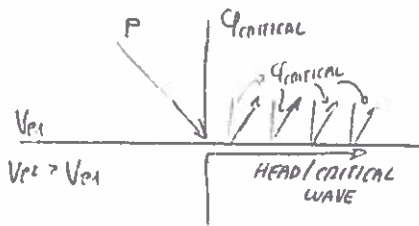
We have the special case where the ^{transmitted} incident angle is 90°

$\frac{\sin \phi_{\text{inc P}}}{V_{P1}} = \frac{\sin 90^\circ}{V_{P2}}$ This is called CRITICAL ANGLE. So ϕ_{inc} is ϕ_{critical}

And we have ϕ_{critical} when the transmitted wave has $\phi_{\text{trans}} = 90^\circ$

This can happen only if $V_2 > V_1$

We have a wave travelling along the interface in the second layer called CRITICAL WAVE (or HEAD WAVE) a very fast wave



VELOCITIES OF P AND S WAVE DEPENDING ON PROPERTIES OF MEDIUM (Porosity, Depth, Pressure ...)

$V = \sqrt{\frac{\text{RIGIDITY}}{\rho}}$

Steel: $V_P = 5000 \text{ m/s}$

Water: $V_P = 1500 \text{ m/s}$

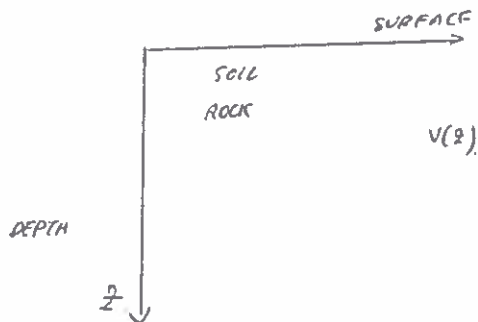
Soundstone: $V_P = 2000 \text{ m/s}$

SOIL: $V_P = 500 \text{ m/s}$

Air: $V_P = 340 \text{ m/s}$ (sound)

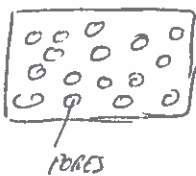
Basalt: $V_P = 6000 \text{ m/s}$

Increasing density we increase the rigidity (that grows faster than density). So we can still say that the higher the density the faster the velocity even if the formula is saying the opposite

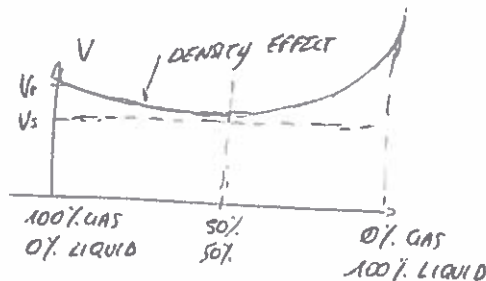


$\uparrow \text{DEPTH} \Rightarrow \uparrow \text{PRESSURE} \Rightarrow \uparrow \text{COMPACTION} \Rightarrow \uparrow \text{DENSITY} \Rightarrow \uparrow \text{RIGIDITY}$
We have an increase of velocity with depth

porous rocks



LIQUID
GAS



V_S : shear \rightarrow not sensitive to the liquid part

$V_P \rightarrow$ sensitive to liquids. At the beginning the rock becomes more dense than liquid when filling with water. Then it becomes more rigid and velocity goes up.

We can detect the pressure with this shape. By the dropping of velocity we can detect over-pressure zones

SCATTER COEFFICIENT

Let's consider acoustic media
ACOUSTIC MEDIA (Normal incidence)

R_{pp} and T_{pp} and we consider normal incidence (angle = 0)

$R = \frac{Z_2 - Z_1}{Z_2 + Z_1}$ where Z is the acoustic impedance $Z = v \cdot \rho$

$T = \frac{2Z_1}{Z_2 + Z_1}$

Suppose two really different media:

| AIR MEDIUM 1 | WALL MEDIUM 2 |
|--|--|
| $v_1 = 340 \text{ m/s}$ $\rho_1 = 1.2 \text{ kg/m}^3$ $Z_1 = v_1 \rho_1$ | $v_2 = 3000 \text{ m/s}$ $\rho_2 = 3000 \text{ kg/m}^3$ $Z_2 = v_2 \rho_2$ |

$Z_2 \gg Z_1$
If Z_2 is negligible we have that $R = \frac{Z_2 - Z_1}{Z_2 + Z_1} \approx 1$
 $T = \frac{2Z_1}{Z_2} \approx 0$

If a speaker against the wall the ρ voice is not going ahead

For $Z_2 \gg Z_1$ we have $R = \frac{Z_2 - Z_1}{Z_2 + Z_1} \approx 1$ $T = 0$ I hear a sound that is the double of the sound coming from the wall (like earthquake)

Pressure

RICQUARD VIDEO 3/10/2019 YOUTUBE

$\nabla^2 \Phi = \frac{d^2 \Phi}{dt^2}$ with Φ displacement pressure. In volume homogeneous isotropic $\Rightarrow v_p, v_s$

AIR SOLID \Rightarrow Rayleigh Wave WATER SOLID \Rightarrow STONELEY-SCHOLTE (TUBE) WAVE

If we have a big difference between the impedance of the two interfaces we get to the two extremes:

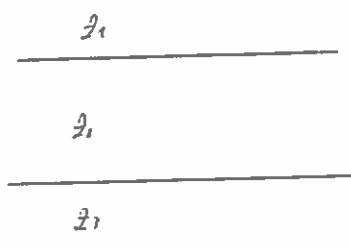
$Z_2 \gg Z_1$ wave totally reflected eg AIR WATER

GUIDED WAVES

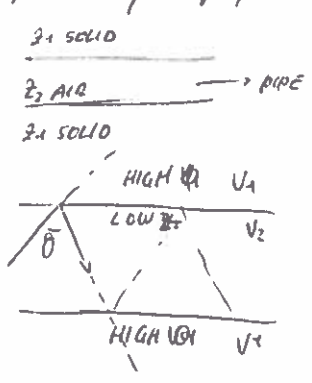
PSEUDO RAYLEIGH WAVE

$Z_1, Z_2 \gg Z_3$

In this case we have a completely guided wave



An example of pseudo-Rayleigh wave is:

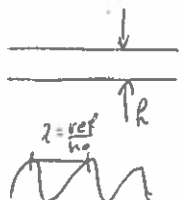


Big jump between Z_1 and Z_2 . The wave remains within the tube and no the energy

We have two kinds of pseudo Rayleigh waves:
- Leaky: Every time that the wave hits the interface we have an energy loss
- Non Leaky: Those are waves that remain stuck in the middle due to big difference of the materials

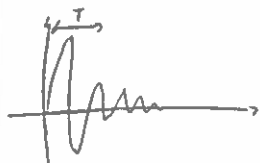
$\theta < \theta_c$ Leaky
 $\theta > \theta_c$ non-Leaky
 $v_1 \gg v_2$

For guided waves we have Pseudo Rayleigh and another way

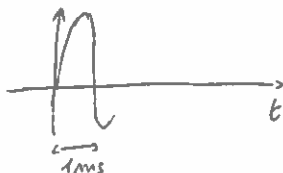


$k \propto \text{wavelength}$
 it makes sense to talk about wavelengths for sinusoidal materials
 $k \propto \frac{1}{\lambda}$
 $\lambda \rightarrow \text{wavelength}$

Duration of the main lobe

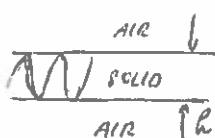


Wavelet length



$\lambda = T \cdot V$ where T is the duration of the wavelet

How long does the wavelet become in a material at a certain velocity?



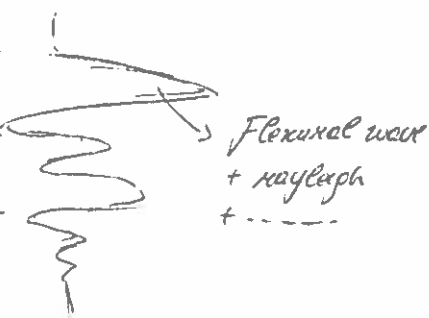
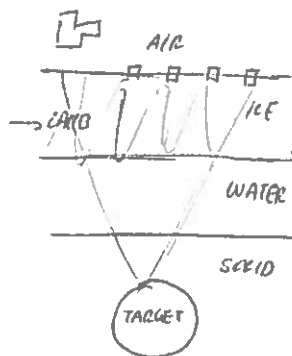
$k \propto \text{wavelength}$

LAMB WAVES (PLATE WAVES; FLEXURAL WAVE)

Two types symmetric

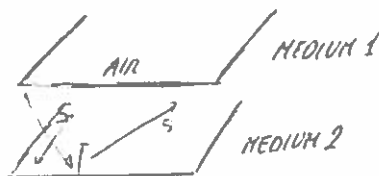


Antisymmetric



Abbiamo diversi tipi d'onda che nascono
 l'onda riflessa generata dal target.

La soluzione è battere una pala di tubo fino alla
 parte solida e farlo generare l'onda



I don't have compression because medium 2 keeps on moving

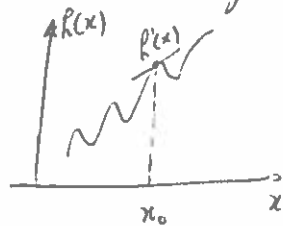
$$V(x,y,z) \nabla^2 \Phi(x,y,z,t) = \frac{d^2 \Phi(x,y,z,t)}{dt^2}$$

$\Phi = \Phi(x,y,z,t) \rightarrow \text{pressure of the field}$

$V = V(x,y,z) = V_e$
 \downarrow Velocità dell'onda

Utilizzeremo questa approssimazione per poterla utilizzare nei calcoli

$$\nabla^2 \Phi = \frac{d^2 \Phi}{dx^2} + \frac{d^2 \Phi}{dy^2} + \frac{d^2 \Phi}{dz^2}$$



$$h'(x_0) = \frac{h(x_0 + \Delta x) - h(x_0)}{\Delta x} \quad \Delta x \rightarrow 0$$

Δx lo sostituiamo con Δx

$$h'(x_0) = \frac{h(x_0 + \Delta x) - h(x_0)}{\Delta x} \rightarrow \text{finite difference approximation of derivative}$$

$$f''(x_0) = \left[\frac{f(x_0 + \Delta x) - f(x_0)}{\Delta x} - \frac{f(x_0) - f(x_0 - \Delta x)}{\Delta x} \right] \frac{1}{\Delta x} \approx \frac{f(x_0 + \Delta x) - 2f(x_0) + f(x_0 - \Delta x)}{\Delta x^2}$$



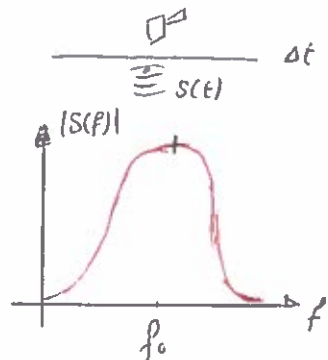
x, z variabile (in y everything is constant)

$$V^2(x,z) \left[\frac{d^2 \Phi(x,z,t)}{dx^2} + \frac{d^2 \Phi(x,z,t)}{dz^2} \right] = \frac{d^2 \Phi(x,z,t)}{dt^2}$$

$$V^2(x_0, z_0) \left[\frac{\Phi(x_0 + \Delta x, z_0, t_0) - 2\Phi(x_0, z_0, t_0) + \Phi(x_0 - \Delta x, z_0, t_0)}{\Delta x^2} + \frac{\Phi(x_0, z_0 + \Delta z, t_0) - 2\Phi(x_0, z_0, t_0) + \Phi(x_0, z_0 - \Delta z, t_0)}{\Delta z^2} \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{\Delta t^2} [\Phi(x_0, z_0, t_0 + \Delta t) - 2\Phi(x_0, z_0, t_0) + \Phi(x_0, z_0, t_0 - \Delta t)]$$

We have this model: elastic media + source where we produce a variation



$s(t) \Leftrightarrow S(f)$ f_{max} : sampling theorem — $f_{sampling} = \frac{1}{\Delta t} > 2f_{max}$

We use the RICKER WAVELET that is completely described by the central frequency f_0
 $f_{max} \approx 3-4f_0 \Rightarrow$ This criteria says that $f_{sampling} > 2f_{max} = 2(3-4f_0) = 6-8f_0$

The second criteria describes the discretisation of the space.
 We want $\Delta t \cdot v < \Delta x$ in order to visit all the points

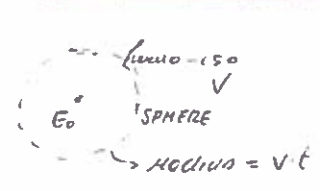
$\frac{\Delta t \cdot v}{\Delta x} < C$ Condition of Courant, Friedrichs, Levy. In practice $\frac{\Delta t \cdot v}{\Delta x} < 1$

Recall the approximation $\frac{d\phi}{dt} \approx \frac{\phi(t+\Delta t) - \phi(t)}{\Delta t}$ We analyse the Fourier transform
 $\frac{d}{dt} \rightarrow j2\pi f \Phi(f) = \frac{\Phi}{\Delta t} [e^{-j2\pi f \Delta t} - 1] = \frac{\Phi(f)}{\Delta t} e^{-j2\pi f \frac{\Delta t}{2}} [e^{-j2\pi f \frac{\Delta t}{2}} - e^{j2\pi f \frac{\Delta t}{2}}] = \frac{\Phi(f)}{\Delta t} e^{j2\pi f \frac{\Delta t}{2}} j \sin(2\pi f \frac{\Delta t}{2})$
 If $\pi f \Delta t \ll 10^\circ$ we have that $\sin x \approx x$ so we can cancel the numerators
 $\frac{d}{dt} \approx \frac{\Phi(f)}{\Delta t} e^{j2\pi f \frac{\Delta t}{2}} j \sin(2\pi f \frac{\Delta t}{2}) = \frac{\Phi(f)}{\Delta t} e^{j2\pi f \frac{\Delta t}{2}} j 2\pi f \frac{\Delta t}{2} = j2\pi f \Phi(f) e^{j2\pi f \frac{\Delta t}{2}}$ \rightarrow small delay
 $\pi f \Delta t \ll 10$ and this should be true for all the frequencies of the signal

ATTENUATION

We use the acoustic wave equation to talk about attenuation
 During propagation the amplitude decays with the distance. $\sim \frac{1}{r}$ $\sim \frac{1}{r^2}$
 There are 3 phenomena produced with this decay:

• GEOMETRICAL SPREADING

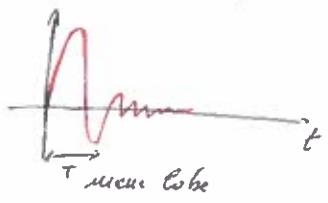


Energy in one point: $E = \frac{E_0}{4\pi r^2} \div \frac{E_0}{(vt)^2} = \frac{E_0}{t^2} = \frac{E_0}{\text{distance}^2}$

It decays very quickly with the distance. This is not losing energy, it's just distributing it over a bigger area

• BI-SCATTERING

In reality we have a lot of small heterogeneities, so the wave that is going in one direction is scattered in all directions
 The total energy that arrives to the surface is lower and the scattered signals are like noise.
 Small means small wrt the wavelength



Wavelength: $\lambda \cdot v >$ dimension of heterogeneities

• ABSORPTION

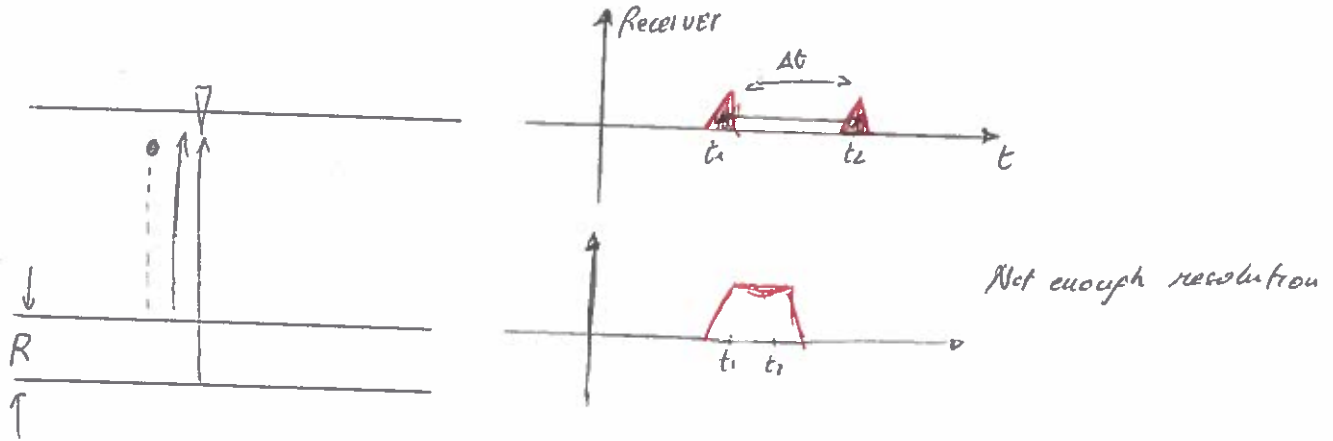
A wave is a displacement of the particles wrt the original position
 Due to FRICTION some elastic energy goes to heat (this course in reality the medium is not fully elastic i.e. rock)
 The higher the frequency the higher the absorption and it's LINEAR w.r.t distance
 Then way we are changing the shape of the signal: $E_0 \cdot e^{-\alpha \cdot \text{distance}}$
 α = absorption coefficient $\div \frac{1}{Q} \rightarrow$ Quality factor of the rock

Question for exam: please tell me why a wave during a propagation attenuates

↳ you have 5 phenomena: Geometrical, Biscott and absorption and the only one that is changing the shape is absorption due to multiple with exponential

There is another phenomenon that is connected to absorption and it's DISPERSION for which the v changes with the frequency

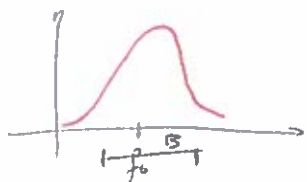
We want to know the resolution we can have by reflections



Resolution is ability to detect 2 targets — measuring distance between two targets so that you can distinguish the two targets

$$\Delta t = \frac{2R}{V} \rightarrow \text{duration of wavelet (main lobe duration } T)$$

$$T = \frac{1}{B} \quad \frac{2R}{V} > \frac{1}{2B}$$



In many systems $B \approx f_0$ central freq (eg radar)

$$R \cdot \frac{\lambda}{4}$$

$$\text{HAMMER HIT: } 100 \text{ Hz} = B \approx f_0$$

↳ on soft soil

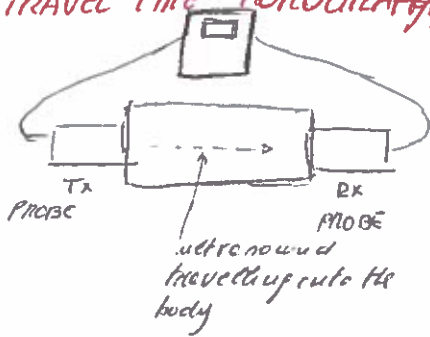
$$V = 500 \text{ m/s}$$

$$\lambda_0 = \frac{V}{f_0} = 5 \text{ m} \quad R \approx 1 \text{ m}$$

$$\nearrow V \quad \searrow R$$

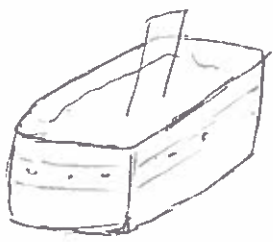
TRAVEL TIME TOMOGRAPHY

10/10/2017 (8)

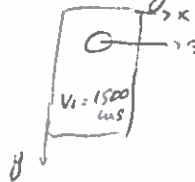


System to measure the travelling time of an acoustic wave.

If I know the distance and measure the time, I can get the velocity

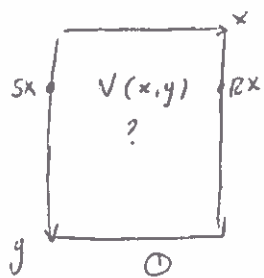


Plastic container. It's full of water and inside I put some anomaly seen from the top

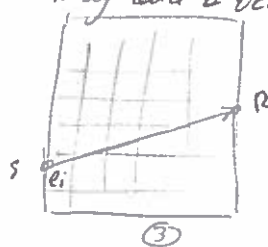


Through the travel time, I want to get the velocity

Problem of deriving the velocity



There's a body and a velocity field



1) N cells, N_i , N_r receivers, N_s sources

2) We approximate the trajectory from S to R as a straight line.

$$t_{k,m} = \sum_{\text{along cells}} \frac{l_i}{V_i} = \sum_{\text{cells crossing the ray}} \frac{l_i}{V_i}$$

l is the length of cell

$\frac{1}{V} = 8 = \text{Slowness [s/m]}$

$l = \sum s_i l_i \rightarrow \text{time}$

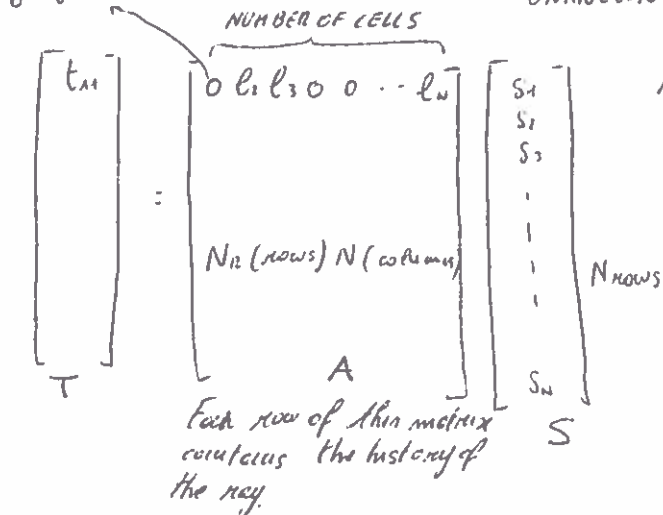
If we have 10 sources and 10 receivers we have 100 equations

$$t_{k,m} = \sum_i \frac{l_i}{V_i} = \sum_i \frac{l_i}{V_i}$$

0 = cells that are not crossed measured

UNKNOWN

So in our system of equations we are looking for S



dimension of vector T

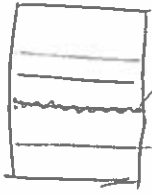
$N \times T (N \times (N_r \cdot N_s + 1))$

$$T = A \cdot S$$

Compute A^{-1} , then $\Rightarrow A^{-1T} \cdot A^{-1}AS = S$

We have ~~too~~ ^{some} complications:

- It's complicated to calculate the inverse of a matrix
- If we have a lot of cells we can have many of them that are not connected by any way. A lot of null columns. This means the solution is unconditional (in the inversion problem)
- For some reason we have two rows which are the same



→ In this case two rows are the same that wouldn't be a real problem with no more

If we have big grids we operate with the average

→ To fight against singularity we can also operate with the REGULARIZATION

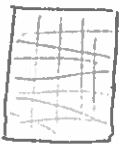
I want to maximize the derivative of velocity versus x . We chose a smooth model with no big jumps

Suppose we have already computed one solution $S(x, y)$ but we don't have an initial choice but we have straight rays which I DON'T WANT



So what I can do is to iterate.

So from this first model I do a new ray tracing

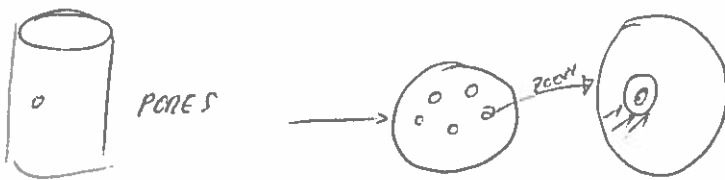


So we have curved rays and here we compute the values of S_i . We do this up to the S_i of the n model

With wave numbers we have one more problem. we are at very high frequency

$$\text{Resolution} = \frac{\lambda_0}{4} = \frac{V}{f_0} \frac{1}{4}$$

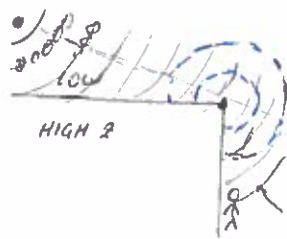
In a body with pores



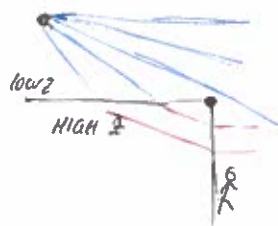
There is a scattering due to air bubbles

DEFINITION OF RAY WRT WAVE EQUATION

(9)



Can I hear the person speaking? Yes, for the HUYGENS PRINCIPLE:
 Each point on the wavefront in the source of small spherical wavefronts.
 So the new wavefront is the envelope of all these spherical waves
 The point that is on the wave is fitting with spherical wavefronts the space behind the corner



If we do ray tracing we have straight lines as long as we are on the same medium.
 When we hit the high 2 zone we have the Snell's law
 Rays don't contain all the information of the wave equation. We have some approximations.

WAVE EQUATION (Acoustic): $\nabla^2 \Phi = \frac{d^2 \Phi}{dt^2}$

We approximate the derivatives with finite difference; that is not an approximation if we properly chose $\Delta x, \Delta y, \Delta z, \Delta t$

If we pass to frequency domain we have $x, y, z, t \rightarrow x, y, z, f$, $\Phi \rightarrow \Phi$, $\nabla^2 \Phi = -\omega^2 \Phi$

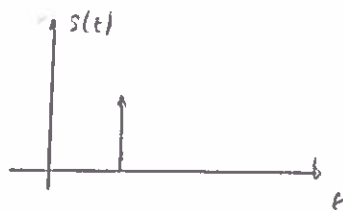
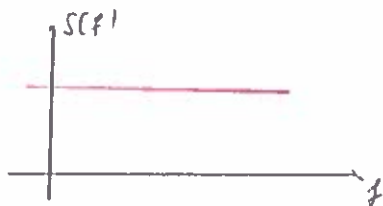
Then we suppose there is a solution of the form $\Phi(x, y, z, f) = A(x, y, z, f) e^{-i\omega T(x, y, z)}$

If we put this into the wave equation we obtain a form like $Re() + Im() = 0$
 This implies $Re() = 0$ and $Im() = 0$

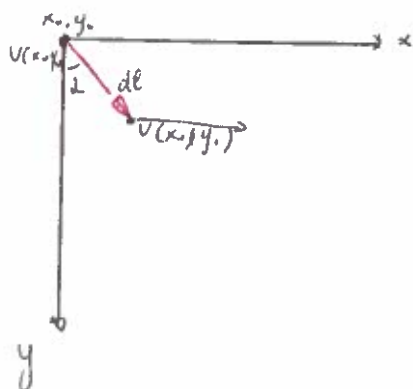
$Re() \rightarrow \frac{\nabla^2 A}{A\omega^2} - |\nabla T|^2 = \frac{1}{v^2}$ for $\omega \rightarrow \infty$ (The source signal has infinite values). From this approx we get the RAYSONAL EQUATION: $\nabla T = \frac{1}{v} = S$

$Im() \rightarrow 2 \nabla A \cdot \nabla T + A \nabla^2 T = 0$ me the trajectories
 TRANSPORT EQUATION

What does it mean that a source has an infinite bandwidth?



Impulsive. It has a resolution equal to zero



The vector is travelling with velocity $\vec{v}(x, y)$
 Then for the movement we have to derive the position

$dl < dx = d\cos\alpha$ $dy = d\sin\alpha$ $dT = \frac{dl}{v}$ $dp_x = S_x dl$ $dp_y = S_y dl$

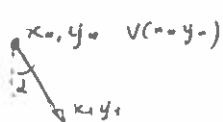
V_x, V_y derivatives

Locally we have the small law

$P_x = \frac{\sin\alpha}{v}$ $P_y = \frac{\cos\alpha}{v}$ When α is the direction of the ray

$P_x^2 + P_y^2 = \frac{1}{v^2} = S^2$ So S_x is the derivative of the slowness
 $S_x = \frac{dS}{dx}$

In this equation we can trace rays



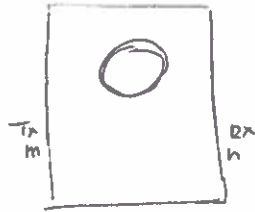
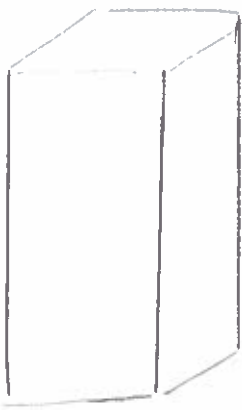
x_0, y_0 : starting point

$$\begin{cases} x_1 = x_0 + dx = x_0 + dl \sin \alpha \\ y_1 = y_0 + dy = y_0 + dl \cos \alpha \\ T_1 = T_0 + \frac{dl}{V(x_0, y_0)} \\ P_{x1} = P_{x0} + dP_x = S_x(x_0, y_0) dl + P_x \\ P_{y1} = P_{y0} + dP_y = S_y(x_0, y_0) dl + P_y \end{cases}$$

o o o o Velocity grid

o o o o

TRAVEL TIME TOMOGRAPHY

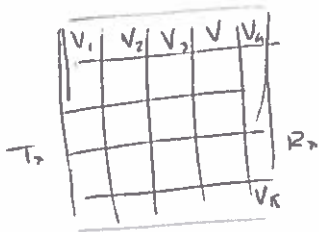


We are simulating a portion of column with an anomaly

We are sending an elastic vibration from T_x to R_x

m and n are the positions of T_x and R_x

t_{mn} travelling time. I will get a collection of travelling time



K cells
 V_i ?

$$t_{mn} = \sum_{\substack{\text{All the cells} \\ \text{covered by the} \\ \text{ray}}} \frac{l_i}{V_i} = \sum_i l_i \cdot S_i \quad \text{where} \quad S_i = \frac{1}{V} \left[\frac{s}{m} \right]$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} t_{11} \\ t_{mn} \\ T \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \text{FIRST RAY} \\ l_1 \dots l_s \dots 0 \dots 0 \dots \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} (K+1) \\ S_i \end{bmatrix}$$

A

$$T = A \cdot S \rightarrow A^{-1} T = A^{-1} A S \rightarrow S = A^{-1} T$$

$N_{Tx} \times N_{Rx}$

In many cases this relation doesn't work eg a cell isn't covered by any ray \Rightarrow no ray
no solution
If you are not measuring the first arrival, the threshold is triggered by some other ray.

See experiment min 30 youtube

Box of water with some anomaly inside
it produced strange results.

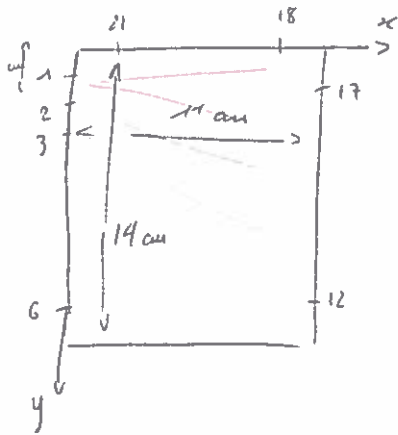


TIME TOMOGRAPHY

Use thin time hot glue with an anomaly inside

We map the velocity of the body by measuring the travelling time from all the points to all the points

See experiment on youtube

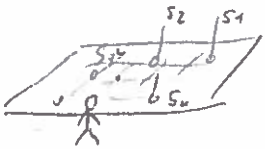


| SOURCE | RECEIVER | | | | | |
|--------|----------|------|------|------|------|------|
| | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 |
| 1 | | | | | | |
| 2 | 106 | 96.7 | 92.1 | 80 | 71.9 | 70.3 |
| 3 | 95.2 | 100 | 73.9 | 73 | 66.6 | 69.3 |
| 4 | 86 | 91 | 72.2 | 66.8 | 65.4 | 66.6 |
| 5 | 81.8 | 78.8 | 66.1 | 65.9 | 66 | 76.7 |
| 6 | 74 | 71 | 74.1 | 74.3 | 79.2 | 82.5 |
| 18 | 74 | 72 | 75.2 | 75.8 | 83.5 | 85 |
| 19 | | | | | | |
| 20 | | | | | | |
| 21 | | | | | | |

$$W_{ex} : \frac{3.8 \text{ cm}}{19.8 \mu\text{s}} = 1910 \text{ m/s}$$

$$\text{Hot glue} : \frac{4.6 \text{ cm}}{29.1 \mu\text{s}} = 1580 \text{ m/s}$$

AUTOLOCALIZATION



One at a time produce a sound and at the end there will be auto-localize.
So there is a self positioning procedure with geophones
SAS TEAM in the name of this procedure

Suppose we have a pipe with an anomaly, and we try within the echo to localize the anomaly

This is a guided wave (acoustic) while in the free space we'd have ripples
There is no geometrical divergence and no diff scattering. There is less absorption.



So the responsible of the attenuation is the air and the shell
Within the pipe each piece of air is producing pressure. [TTF]

There is also some friction that happens due to the interaction with the pipe shell



Same pressure in different areas. I have more energy in the second
To the attenuation factor $e^{-\text{distance}}$

\rightarrow α becomes proportional to the $\frac{1}{\text{distance (radius)}}$

For radius 5cm \rightarrow 100 cm
50cm \rightarrow 10 mm

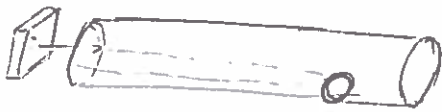
For the mode (0,0) \rightarrow 0 c/fc first cut-off

mode (0,1), (1,0) ...



A lot of different modes

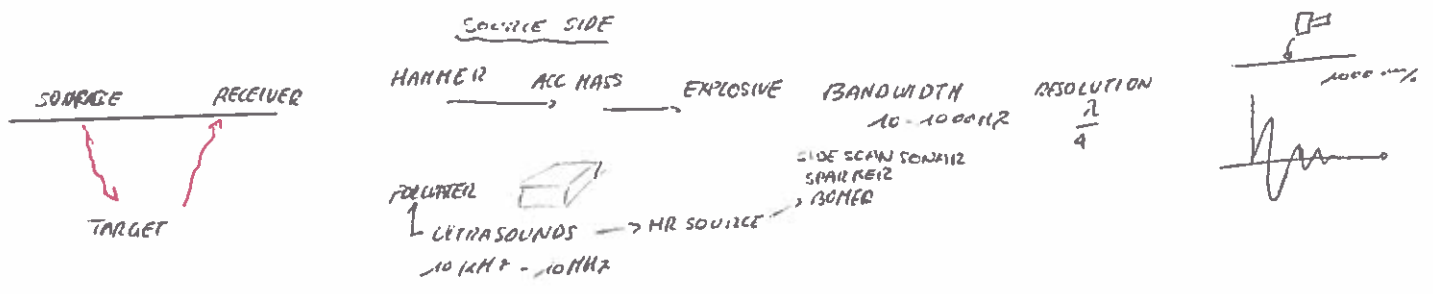
Let's suppose we have a speaker



Chirp

We will generate a chirp (musical $\sin(2\pi f(t)t)$)
So we produce a chirp $s(t) \rightarrow s(f)$
We do $s(f) \cdot s^*(f)$

We have what produce vibrations and what records vibrations

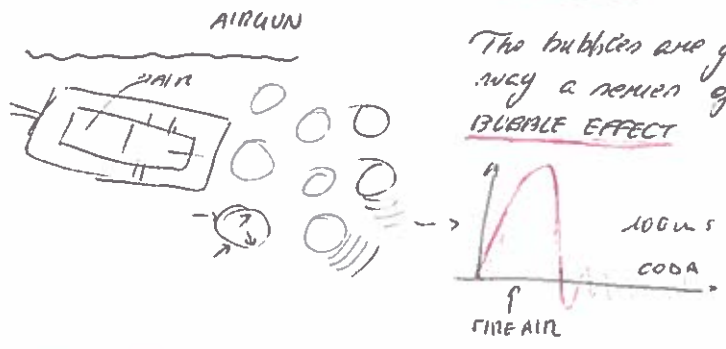


Due to the bandwidth all the sources are ~~bandwidth~~ have a limited resolution

When you put the wave in the medium you can measure the time

To have a higher resolution we need a different source. We can use ultrasounds for example but it's not working in all the mediums.

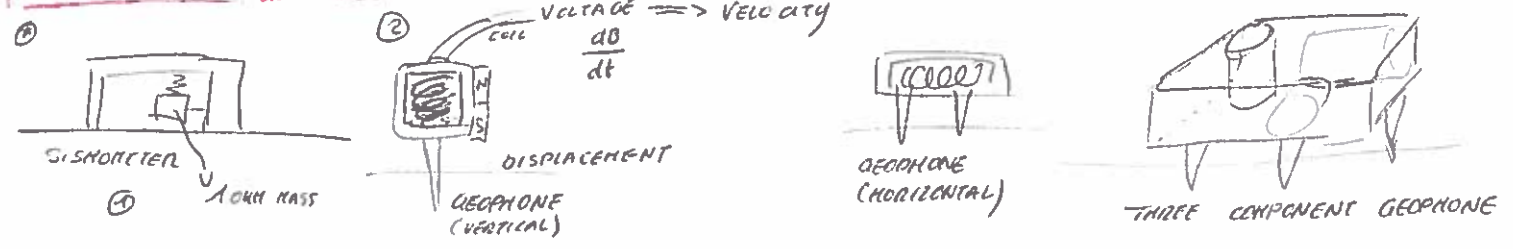
For **SOURCE SIDE** For marine environment we use AIR GUN that in practice find air under the water



The bubbles are getting bigger and smaller producing this way a series of P-waves. So the AIRGUN causes the so-called BUBBLE EFFECT

The coda is an effect we don't want. To solve the problem we can find more than one airgun at a time (GI AIRGUN)

RECEIVER SIDE GEOPHONES



We are using something similar to a manometer (1st pic). The mass is oscillating for inertia and written on a paper

We use something similar 2. We have something that can oscillate, a moving mass suspended within a magnet, then we have something we can connect to earth, and the coils that have connection to external world. Coil moving (magnet moving) produce voltage. The displacement in producing magnetic field that varying in time produce a voltage that is proportional to velocity. This is called GEOPHONE. Due to directivity this is sensitive only to vertical movements so it's the vertical geophone. For the horizontal field we have to tilt the system. For both we need a three component geophone.

Geophones are cheap and not sensitive to acceleration

* ACCELEROMETER

More sensitive for small variations



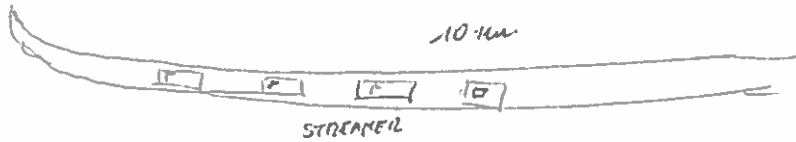
The mass gives the inertia to the system => The bigger the mass the more it's sensitive to low freq.

It produces a voltage & a pressure => $\frac{Force}{Air} = \frac{m \cdot a}{Air}$
A geophone can catch both small and high amplitudes

* HYDROPHONE

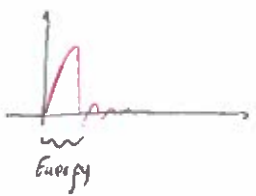


Piece of plastic that has elastic properties similar to water
Thin pipes are made in a plastic pipe called STREACHER filled with oil



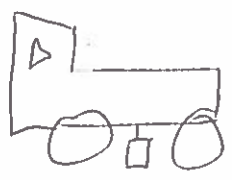
∴ hydrophones measure the pressure in the water. → The pipe must be in the water

We want to dimension another source.

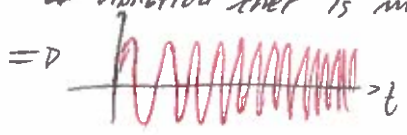


There are impulsive noises when the main energy is in the main lobe and we can increase it by increasing time and on amplitude (chirp)
 $E = \int |S(f)|^2 df$
 SPECTRUM OF THE HAMMER.

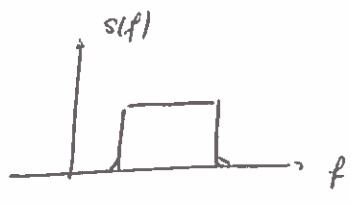
The idea is to use a long duration signal that doesn't produce damages to building. This signal can be a chirp and we can produce something like this with a VIBROSEIS



It's a truck with metal feet pressing against earth and it produces a vibration that is moving like a chirp



The signal is very long and the chirp can go from 10 Hz to 100 Hz



The difference with the Hammer spectrum is in the phase. Hammer is minimum phase while here is FIXED PHASE



So what we do is to send the signal and receive all the signals + echoes back:

$$r(t) = \sum A_i S(t - \tau_i) \quad \text{with } \tau \text{ delay and } A \text{ amplitude}$$

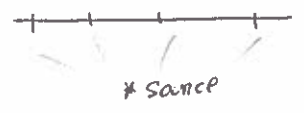
$$R(f) = \sum A_i S(f) e^{-j2\pi f \tau_i}$$

We can do this: → Run the signal on the computer and transform it in the equivalent short duration → DECONVOLUTION (minimum phase wave replacement)

$$r(t) \rightarrow \frac{R(f)}{S(f)} \xrightarrow{\text{Hammer}} \sum A_i S(f) e^{-j2\pi f \tau_i} \rightarrow \text{Minimum phase deconvolution (or wave replacement) because we are passing to a minimum phase signal}$$

4 This way we have the response of the impulse and we can compute a hypothetical feedback we'd have with an explosion

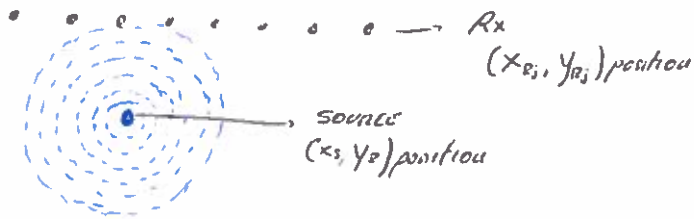
Next time → How to detect the position of a source



Two different ways: processing time of arrival (TOA) or differential TOA

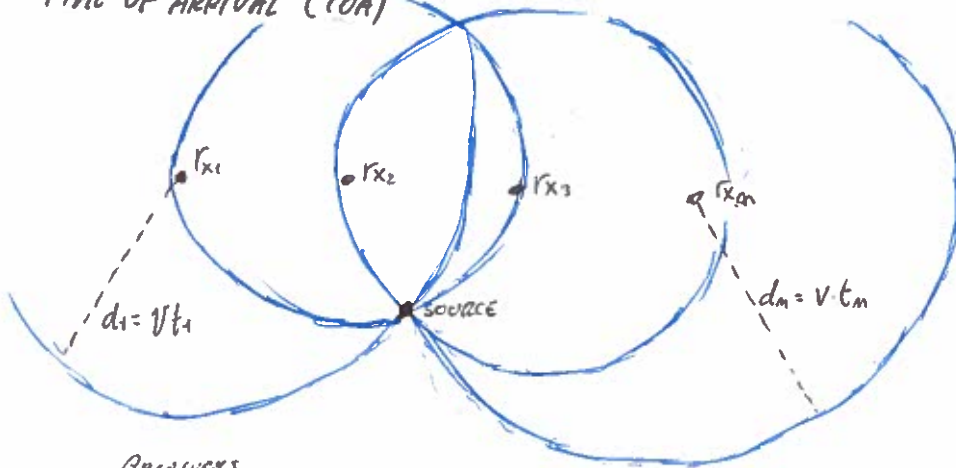
• detecting the energy

Seismic source localization — Application of seismic "seismology". A source can be unknown, dynamic.
 k_p = known and constant velocity.



We will use three different methods to find the position (x_s, y_s) of the source

TIME OF ARRIVAL (TOA)



We know the exact moment in which the sound was emitted by the source.

Knowing that the velocity v is constant and knowing the time of arrival to each receiver we can cross several circumferences of ray $d_i = vt_i$.

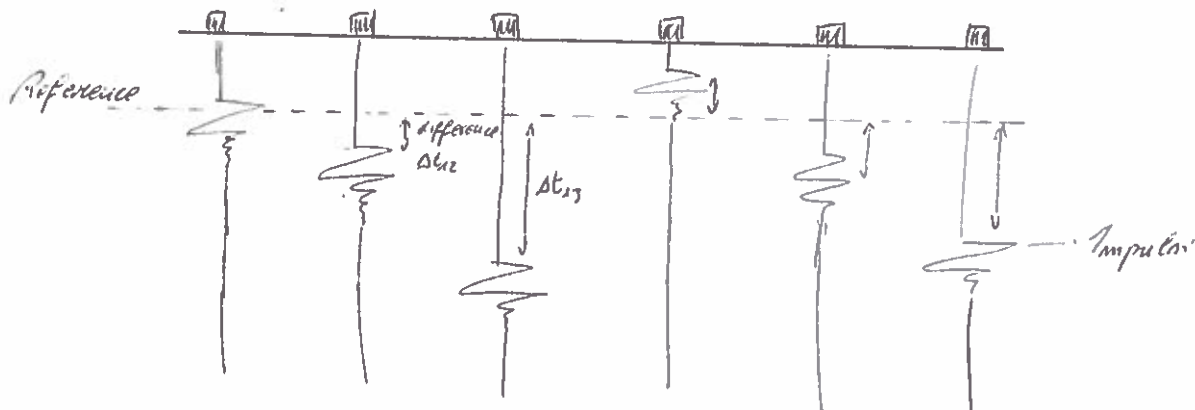
The intersection of the circles will correspond to the source position.

$$\sqrt{(x_Rj - x_s)^2 + (y_Rj - y_s)^2} = \frac{1}{v} = t_j \quad \text{--- circumferencia equation}$$

we will have n equations corresponding to the number of receivers
 unknown (x_s, y_s)

DIFFERENTIAL TIME OF ARRIVAL (DTOA)

The interval of emission of the signal is unknown. So DTOA is the difference between the time of arrival detected (taken as reference time) and the other times of arrival



$$\frac{\sqrt{(x_1 - x_s)^2 + (y_1 - y_s)^2}}{v} - \frac{\sqrt{(x_i - x_s)^2 + (y_i - y_s)^2}}{v} = \Delta t_i$$

$n-1$ linear equations where the first one doesn't add any extra information

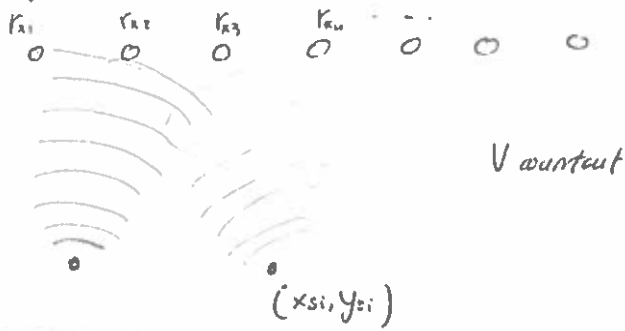
TOA — They work well when we have one source at a time (one signal at a time)

Let's suppose we have a continuous source (not impulsive). We can correlate the signals

$$S_1 \otimes S_2 \rightarrow \text{max in } t_0$$

$$S_1 \otimes S_2 \rightarrow \text{max in } t_1 - t_2$$

MANY CONTINUOUS SOURCES



STEERING IN ACOUSTIC ENVIRONMENTS

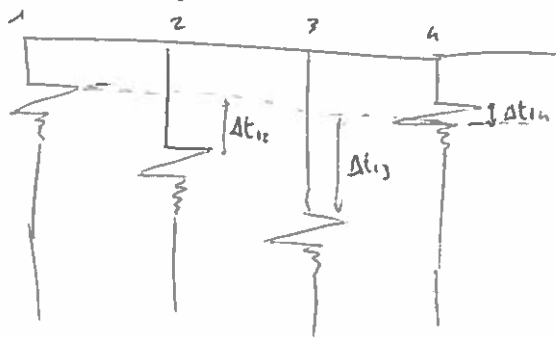
Robust performance in adverse acoustic environments. The algorithm can be interpreted as a beamforming-based approach that for the candidate position that maximizes the output.

I rotate the receiver in such a way to find the maximum received power.

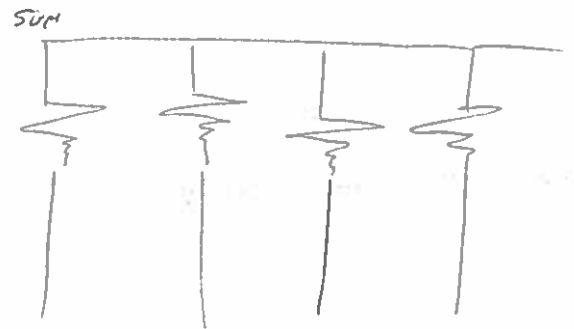
$S_i(t)$ signal in a certain position

S_1 reference signal $\rightarrow \Delta t_{12}, \Delta t_{13}, \Delta t_{14}$
 \uparrow
 $\frac{d_1}{V} - \frac{d_2}{V}$

Now recording



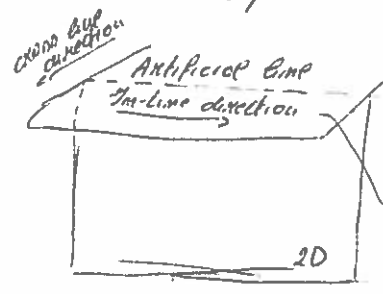
We correct the time using Δt and we sum all the signals



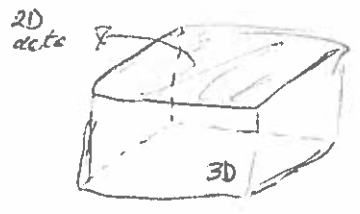
This way we amplify N times the same signal

We obtain a SUPERTRACE that contains all the signals and different receivers

2D SEISMIC
 If we have one receiver and one source, it becomes very hard to find the right position of the source. Dynamic acquisition is made by multiple sources and receivers.

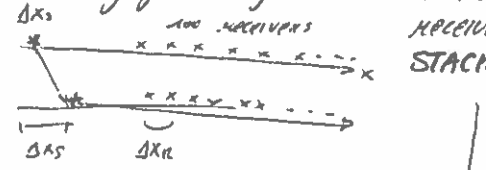


2D seismic \rightarrow Data collected on a line. Image on the vertical plane below the line.
 This works if also the subsurface is more or less 2D
 Constant features

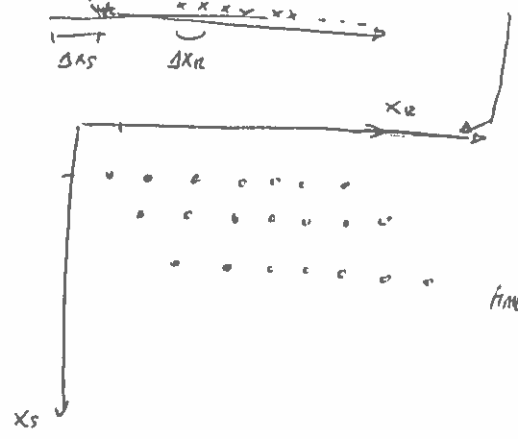


If I want the full volume of the subsurface (3-D seismic)

Normally for every source we have hundreds of receivers. When we move the source we also move the receiver.



STACKING CHART Defines the position of the sources and the receiver



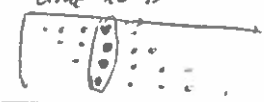
We move step by step the first receiver to the last position.
 Every point (receiver) in a seismic trace

$x_r(x_s) \rightarrow$ position of a receiver with a specific source

If we take all the data along one horizontal line it's called **COMMON SHOT GATHER**



If we take all the data along a vertical line it's called **COMMON RECEIVER GATHER**

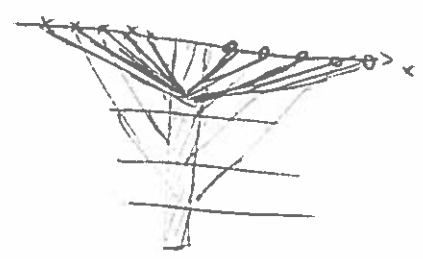


If we take those on the diagonal we get the **COMMON OFFSET GATHER**



Offset is the distance between shot and receiver

The data on the anti-diagonal are **COMMON MID-POINT GATHER**

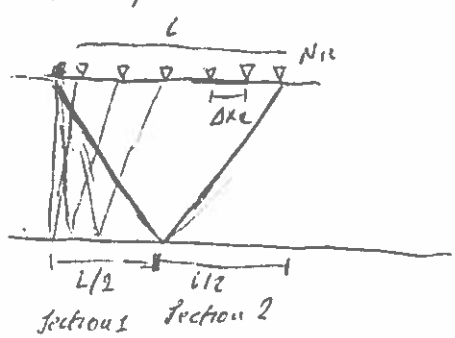


Common mid-point

If layers are flat horizontal, all this traces are giving information of the same reflection. So the common mid-point is also the common depth point \Rightarrow Multi Coverage (more traces with diff. angles)

We define the **COVERAGE** as the number of traces CMP gather
 $100\% \cdot NR = \cdot i. coverage$

Suppose flat and horizontal earth



For an extension of L , we are illuminating a portion of the subsurface along $L/2$

If we move everything by $\Delta x_s = L/2$ we take a picture of section 2

If $\Delta x_s = L/2 \rightarrow CNR = 1 trace \Rightarrow$ Simple coverage (100%)

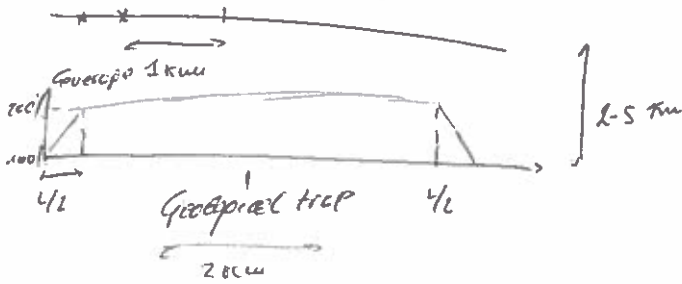
If $\Delta x_s = \Delta x_r = \frac{L}{NR} \rightarrow Coverage = \frac{NR}{2}$

How to choose Δx ?

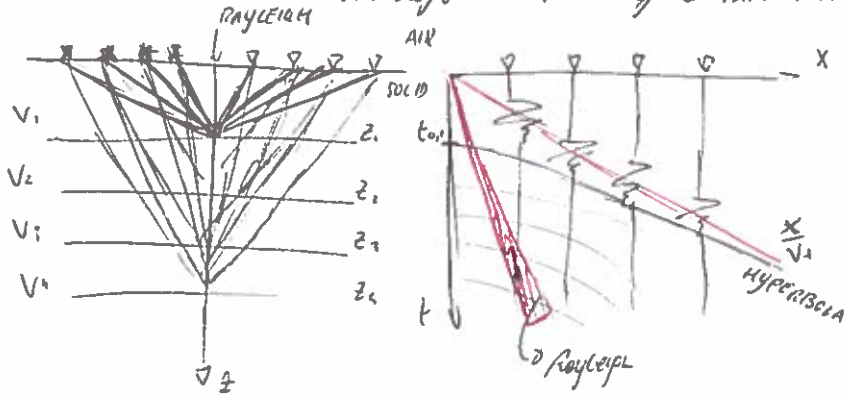
$\Delta x \approx$ wavelength length

100 receivers, $\Delta x = 10 \text{ m}$

Total time = 10 min \rightarrow 100 shots \rightarrow 100,000 traces



In the common mid-point gather we see the same point many times \rightarrow this is helpful
We are interested to the reflection time of a situation like this:



$$t_{\text{direct}} = \frac{x}{V_1}$$

direct

$$t_{\text{reflected},1} = \frac{2}{V_1} \sqrt{z_1^2 + \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^2} = \frac{1}{V_1} \sqrt{(2z_1)^2 + x^2}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{(2z_1)^2}{V_1^2} + \frac{x^2}{V_1^2}}$$

Vertical time of trip

$$t_{\text{reflected},1} = \sqrt{t_{0,1}^2 + \left(\frac{x}{V_1}\right)^2}$$

I want to check if there's a law describing the continuity of the reflection of the same point on different receivers

We see that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} t_{r,1}(x) = \frac{x}{V_1}$

We have Rayleigh waves at AIR-SOLID interface. They travel really slowly

We have to consider also the reflections given by the other layers



$$t_{\text{reflected},j}(x) = \sqrt{t_{0,j}^2 + \left(\frac{x^2}{V_{\text{trans},j}^2}\right)}$$

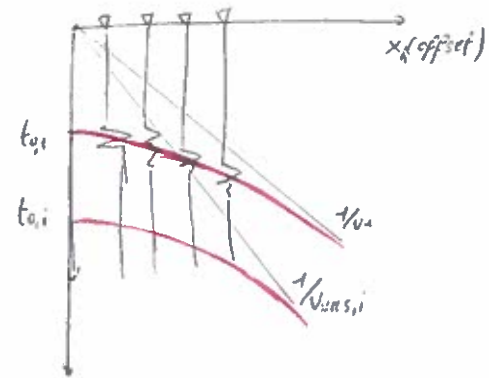
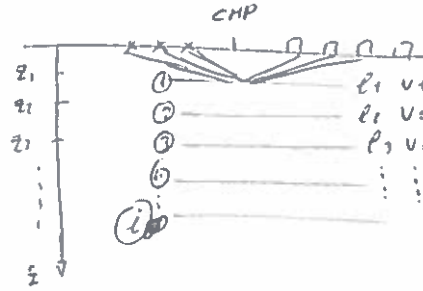
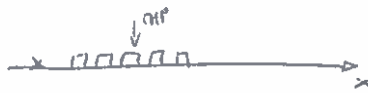
\hookrightarrow weighted average of V_i with $i=1 \div j$

We still have hyperbolas

REFLECTION SEISMIC

Seismic waves to have an image of the subsurface

2D Acquisition — multi-covered data.



$x_h = x_R - x_S = \text{offset}$

$$t_i(x_h) = \sqrt{t_{0,i}^2 + \left(\frac{x_h}{v_i}\right)^2} \quad \text{where } t_{0,i} \text{ is the two way travel time to the interface} \rightarrow \text{hyperbola}$$

$$t_i(x_h) = \sqrt{t_{0,i}^2 + \left(\frac{x_h}{v_{rms,i}}\right)^2} \quad v_{rms,i} \rightarrow \text{mean of all the velocities up to the layer } i$$

$$v_{rms,i} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{k=1 \dots i} v_k^2 \cdot T_k}{\sum_{k=1 \dots i} T_k}} \quad \rightarrow \text{two way travel time within the layer } k$$

More on lens to hyperbola are converging to v_{rms} . From the slope of the hyperbola we can get info about the velocity —> This way we get the depth

It's very complicated to detect hyperbola very close to each other.

From $v_{rms,i}$ we can get the DIX FORMULA but it's really unstable (too much sensitive to error)

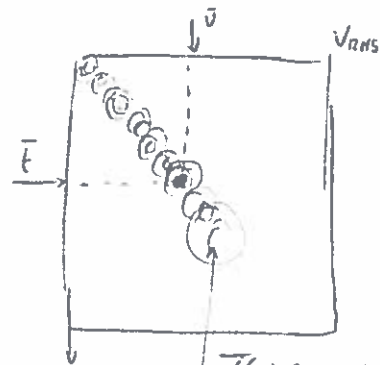
$$v_i = f(v_{rms,i})$$

We need to recognize hyperbola possibly in an automatic way

SEMIANCE GATHER (AUTOMATIC HYPERBOLA DETECTOR)

We need two parameters:

$$t(x) = \sqrt{\bar{t}^2 + \left(\frac{x}{\bar{v}}\right)^2} \quad \bar{t}, \bar{v} \rightarrow \text{two numbers that define our hyperbola}$$



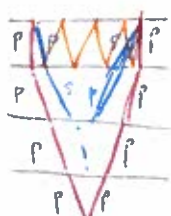
$$S(\bar{t}, \bar{v}) = \frac{\left| \sum_{\text{along hyperbola } i} d(x, t) \right|^2}{\sum_{\text{along hyperbola } i} |d(x, t)|^2}$$

We are testing if this hyperbola exists in the data
We will have a big value if it's following a true hyperbola

These measure are the hyperbola $0 \leq S \leq 1$

In more processing it's called HALF INTEGRAL

We can have more hyperbola at the same time:



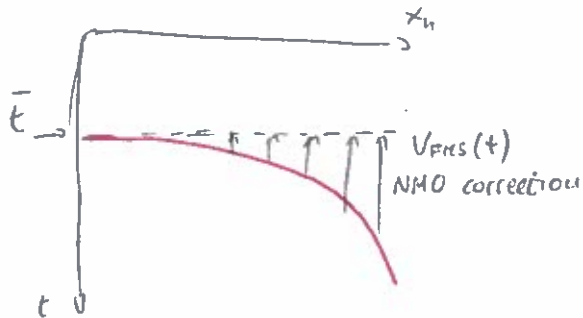
- direct arrivals
- wave conversions (converted arrivals)
- Multiples

We have to choose which one is the v_{rms} we are looking for: we choose the HIGHEST v_{rms} for each t to get the true $v_{rms}(t)$ of direct arrivals (Posttest)

At the end of this process we have done the **VELOCITY ANALYSIS**

- ① Multi coverage acquisition
- ② Select our CMP (our position along x)
- ③ Compute semblance (random transform)
- ④ On semblance follow the maximum and highest V_{rms}
- ⑤ $\Downarrow V_{rms}(t)$ **VELOCITY ANALYSIS**

We are trying to sum all the trace hyperboles \rightarrow we make the hyperboles flat and sum horizontally: NORMAL MOVEOUT CORRECTION

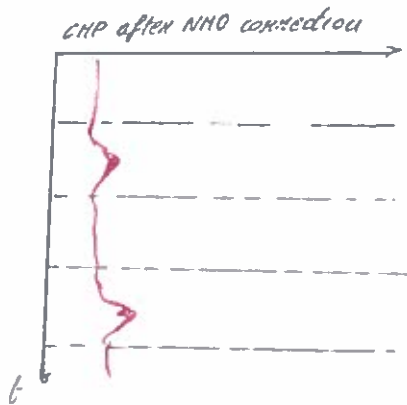


$$t \rightarrow \sqrt{\bar{t}^2 + \left(\frac{x_n}{V_{rms}(\bar{t})}\right)^2} - \bar{t} = t_{NMO}(x_n, \bar{t})$$

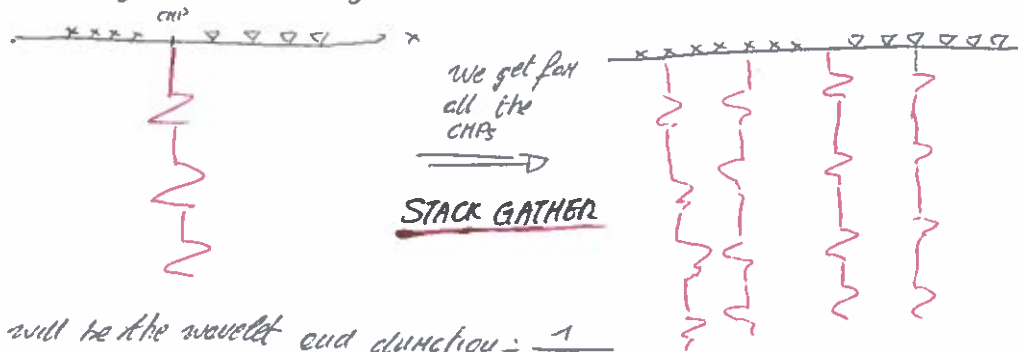
For every time we draw the hyperbole and move up to the flat velocity

For high offsets we see wavelet distortion.

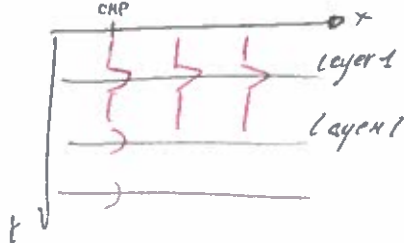
So in the graphic we will see the CMPNMO correction



The operation of summation along the x axis is called **STACK OF CMP** along x_n . The image of the subsurface that we get is:

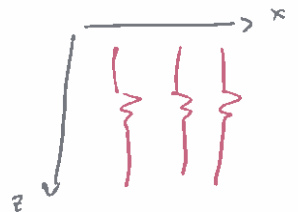


What we get is that the interface will be the wavelet and duration: $\frac{1}{\text{Bandwidth}}$



The duration is proportional to the resolution

From this we define the time to depth to get to the **DEPTH STACK GATHER**



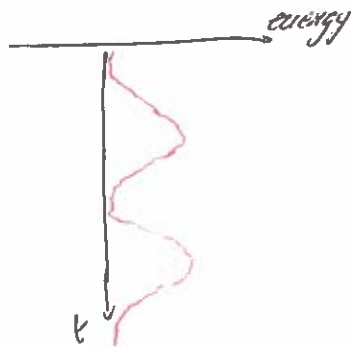
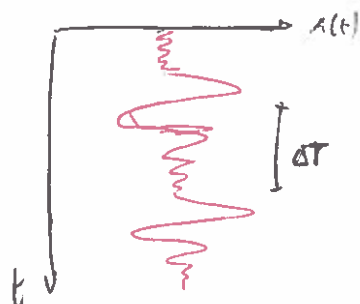
REFLECTION SEISMIC PROCESSING

19/11/17 (18)
COPATA DA
NOTES DEC
PREF SUMME

- Demultiplexing: re-order data after acquisition
- Gelfing: noise trace cancellation (mute) on "noisy geophone" traces
- Gain recovery: amplification of high attenuated parts of traces

$$A \propto \frac{K_1}{t} e^{-K_1 t} \xrightarrow{\text{recovery}} r(t) \approx r(t) \frac{1}{K_1} t e^{K_1 t}$$

OR AUTOMATIC GAIN RECOVERY (AGR)



$$r(t) = r(t) \frac{1}{\sqrt{\int_{t-\frac{\Delta T}{2}}^{t+\frac{\Delta T}{2}} |r(t)|^2 dt}}$$

This way i obtain traces without big jumps in amplitude

$$\Delta T = \frac{2}{3} \cdot T$$

wavelet duration

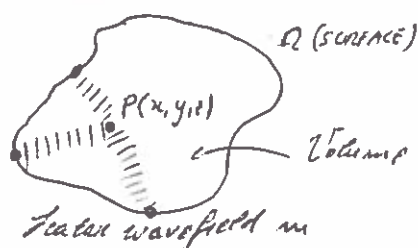
→ If it's too small we have signal distortion. If it's too big we do no recovery

- Geometry inputs: information on the geometry of the system
- Application of statics
- Deconvolution
- Filtering: Given a source we have to choose the right geophone and the right sampling freq ($\geq 2 \cdot f_{max}$), filtering the noise out of the bandwidth
- Trace equalization
- Real time tomography: use travel time to get velocity model of an object

SEISMIC ACQUISITION

- Pre-processing
- CMP Sorting
- VGE Amplitude → pre stack (data + velocity)
- NMO correction
- Stack → artefacts (CMP is not locally horizontal)

KIRCHHOFF INTEGRAL

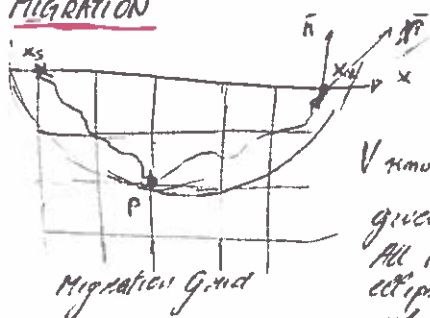


If you know $m(\Omega)$ you can derive m in any partion of the volume

$$m(x, y, z) = \int_{\Omega} m(\Omega) G(\Omega, P) d\Omega$$

Green function (it describes the propagation between two points)

MIGRATION



→ t_p we consider a close surface with respect to the volume of interest.

For each point P on the grid, trace a ray from x_s to x_n and calculate the total travel time \bar{t}

$$\bar{t} = t_{x_s \rightarrow P} + t_{P \rightarrow x_n}$$

given $r(x_n, x_s)$
All the points on the ellipse will have the same value

The couple (x_s, x_a) is related to a certain trace $r(x_s, x_a)$. For each point, assign to it the value of $r(x_s, x_a)$ given t :

$r(x_s, x_a)$



Repeat this process for each trace. Each point will have a vector of values, each one corresponding to one trace; summing this values and coloring the point wrt the result we'll obtain the image of the subsurface

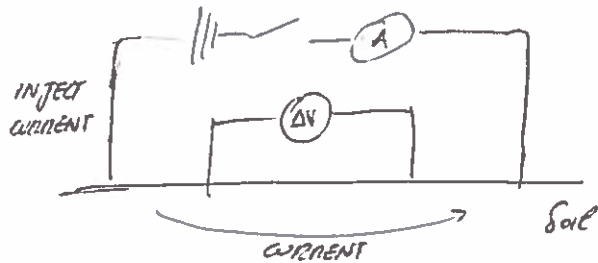
We can also find the result by using the Kirchhoff integral

$$m(p) = \int \int_{\text{All Traces}} \underbrace{A_s A_r \cdot e^{j\omega(t_{x_r} + t_{x_a})}}_{\substack{\text{Green} \\ \text{Attenuation } x_s \rightarrow p}} \underbrace{r(x_s, x_a) \cdot \vec{n} \cdot \nabla t_p x_a}_{\substack{\text{Recorded} \\ \text{Field}}}_{\cos \theta} dx_a$$

ELECTRICAL METHOD

21/11/2017

19



Current \rightarrow moving charges
Metal \rightarrow electronic conduction

① ELECTRONIC CONDUCTION

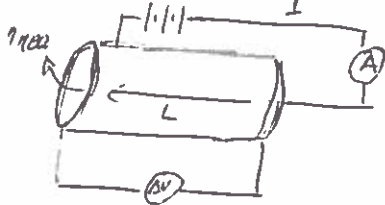
Ion \rightarrow charged atoms / charged molecules

Sol \rightarrow contains a lot of salt

The ions are transmitted to the soil and they "close" the circuit

② ELECTROLYTIC CONDUCTION

Ohm law: $R = \frac{\Delta V}{I}$



High resistivity: the current has difficulty to "flow" due to the presence of few ions

$$R = \frac{L}{A \sigma}$$

We introduce the resistivity ρ

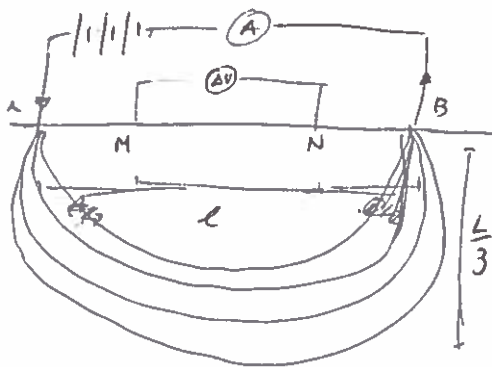
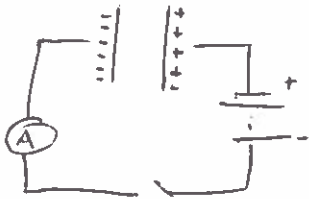
$$R = \rho \frac{L}{A}$$

It defines how hard or easy is for the current to flow into a body
 $\rho = R \frac{A}{L} [\Omega \cdot m]$

Metal resistivity: $10^{-12} \div 10^{-8} \Omega \cdot m$

Electrolytic conduction $10^{-2} \div 10^3 \Omega \cdot m$

Polarization conduction \rightarrow insulator $\rho \sim 10^{10}$



A, B current electrodes \rightarrow one injects current, the other puts it out

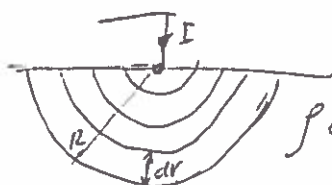
M, N measure a potential

Bigger L, bigger depth

$\rho(x)$ constant separation technique (used to visualize the lateral variations of resistivity)

$\rho(z)$ vertical electrical sounding (estimation of electrical conductivity or resistivity of the medium)

$\rho(x, z) \rightarrow$ PSEUDOSECTION



distribution of the current

$$\frac{dV}{dr} = -\rho J$$

$$E = \rho \bar{J}$$

$$V(r) = \int_0^r -\rho \frac{\bar{J}}{2\pi r^2} dr \quad V(r) = \rho \frac{\bar{J}}{2\pi r}$$

$$V_M = \rho \frac{\bar{J}}{2\pi} \left(\frac{1}{AM} - \frac{1}{BM} \right) \quad V_N = \rho \frac{\bar{J}}{2\pi} \left(\frac{1}{AN} - \frac{1}{NB} \right)$$

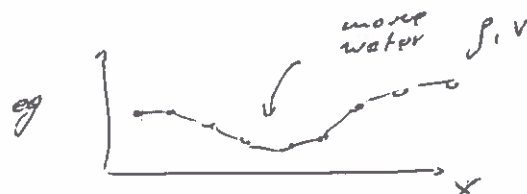
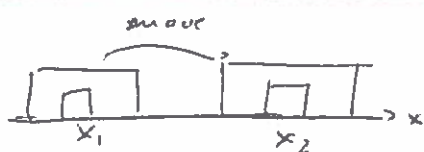
distance between A and M

$$\Delta V = V_M - V_N = \rho \frac{\bar{J}}{2\pi} \left(\frac{1}{AM} - \frac{1}{BM} - \frac{1}{AN} + \frac{1}{NB} \right) \rightarrow \text{geometric factor } K^{-1}$$

$$\rho = \frac{\Delta V}{\bar{J}} K (\Omega \cdot m) \quad \text{For a constant resistivity}$$

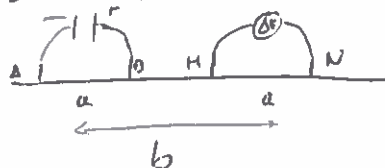
The one we obtain in the field experiments is the apparent resistivity ρ_a

① CONSTANT SEPARATION TRAVERSE (CST)

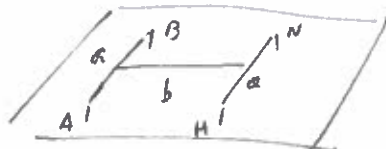


1 meter everything on left and right to obtain the resistivity variations along x

DIPOLE-DIPOLE



TRANSVERSE DIPOLE DIPOLE



We can get different resistivities by changing the geometries:

② VERTICAL ELECTRICAL SOUNDING (VES)

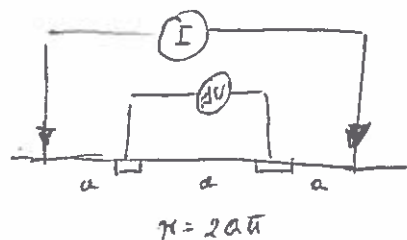


Here distance between A and B to go deeper

Two common arrays are used for VES:

- Wenner
- Schlumberger

↳ WENNER ARRAY



$$K = 2\pi a^2$$

For sounding measurements the electrodes in a Wenner array are expanded around a center point by equally increasing the spacing

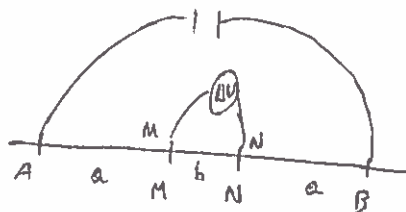
Advantages:

- high SNR
- good resolution of horizontal layers
- good depth resistivity

Disadvantages:

- not good in determining the lateral location of deep inhomogeneities since the large a-spacing degrades lateral resolution

SCHLUMBERGER



$$a \gg b$$

$$\pi \approx \pi \frac{a}{b}$$

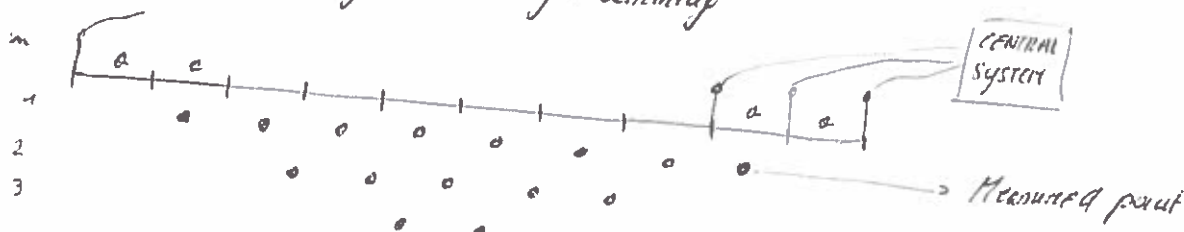
Vantages:

- High SNR
- Good resolution of horizontal layers
- Good depth sensitivity
- Faster than Wenner

③ PSEUDO-SECTION

Obtained by VES/CST

Apparent resistivity obtained by measuring



The inverse problem is ill conditioned. We can enrich the info by other methods

LIMITS OF ELECTRICAL METHOD

① Depth of sensitivity $\boxed{Z = \frac{L}{3}}$

② Need to close the circuit

It doesn't work in dry sand, ice, hard media (no possibility to plant electrodes)

ELECTRICAL RESISTIVITY TOMOGRAPHY

ARCHIE'S LAW

It relates the electrical conductivity of a sedimentary rock with its porosity

$$C_t = \frac{1}{a} C_w \phi^m S_w^n$$

C_w electrical conductivity ϕ : porosity

C_t electrical conductivity of fluid saturated rock

n : water saturation

m : cementation exponent of the rock

n : saturation exponent

a : tortuosity factor

porosity in relation with ~~rock~~ salt changes with temperature and concentration

$$R_t = a \phi^{-m} S_w^{-n} R_w$$

R_t : fluid saturated
or resistivity

R_w : brine
resistivity

a, m, n = constant depend on the location

$$0.5 < a < 2.5$$

$$1.3 < m < 2.5$$

$$m \approx 2$$

to use the formula in practice to get the porosity

$$\rho = a \phi^{-m} S_w^{-n} \rho_w$$

ρ : Apparent
resistivity
inverse

ϕ : porosity

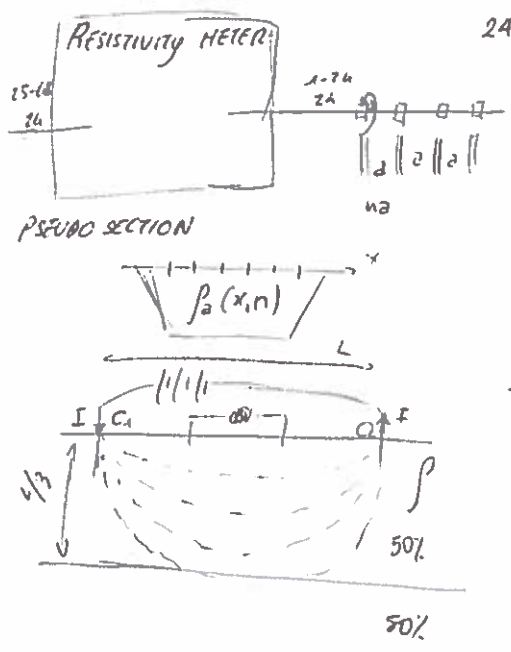
ρ_w : to be measured

MISE A LA MASSE

Electrical resistivity method that has been used in the mining industry since 1926 for delineating conductive subsurface or bodies. By injecting current into a conductive underground body it gets

Moving \odot we can measure how big is the body

ELECTRICAL METHOD



24 + 48 cables

System choosing 5 electrodes at a time that measure ΔV , ρ_a etc
We'll have many measurements for every 4 electrodes

We call apparent resistivity since we get an average of the anomalies
We can measure how deep in the area

If we go $\frac{L}{3}$ deep, we have 50% of the current flowing in the first $\frac{L}{3}$ part.

We are sensitive only to this first part

L : distance between C_1 and C_2 \rightarrow depth = $\frac{L}{3}$

There are a lot of currents flowing and bodies producing potential currents \Rightarrow NOISE
To limit the noise we have to limit the distance

$$0 < L < 1000m$$

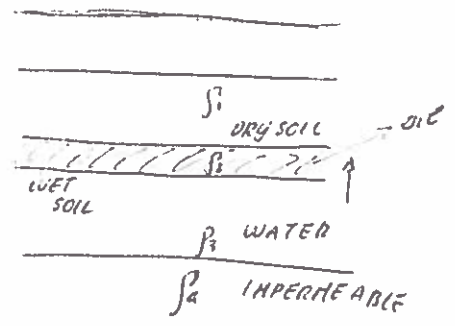
$$0 < depth < 300m$$

The resistivity is associated to the presence of VOIDS (caves, caverns, tunnels), WATER (dissolved salts),

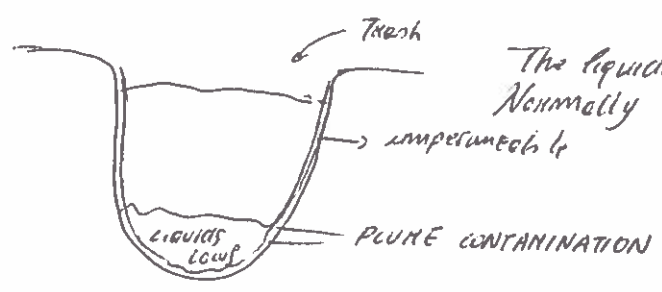
SALT WATER (is more conductive so lower resistivity), DISTILLED WATER (highly resistive)

APPLICATIONS: looking for water, quality of water, oil, hydrocarbons
 \rightarrow CONTAMINANTS

Materials like oil/diesel/fuel are highly resistive ($\rho = 1000 \Omega m$). **LNAPL** \rightarrow It floats over the water
Light Non Aqueous Phase Liquids



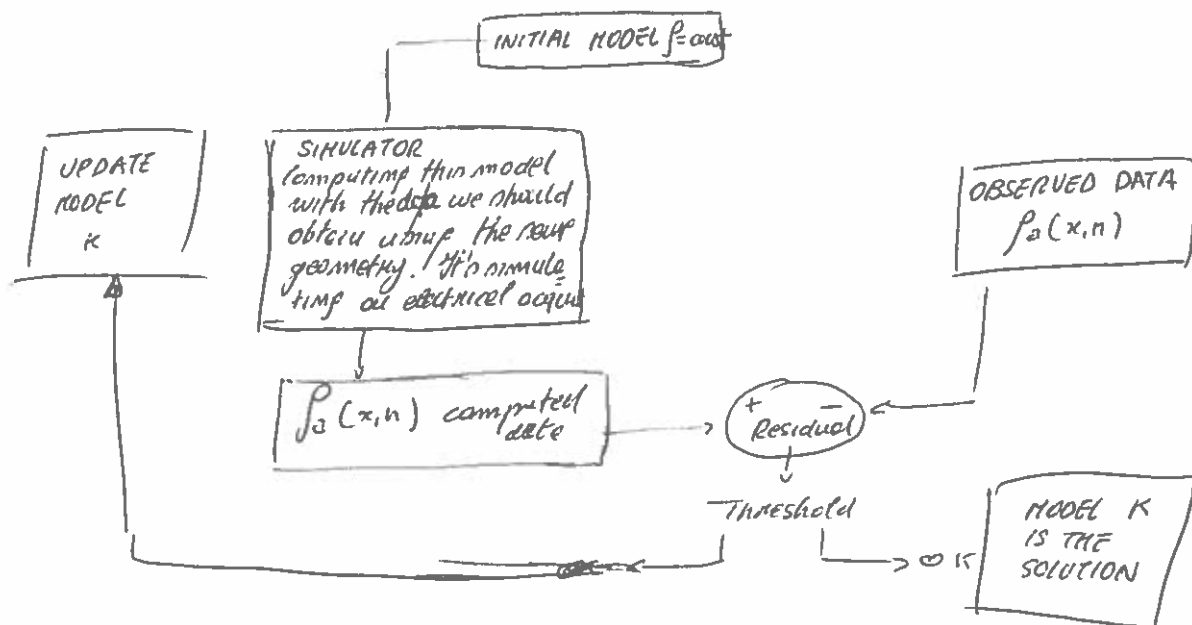
These mix of liquids are not water contaminants



The liquids produced by rubbish have a high resistivity
Normally they put an impermeable layer

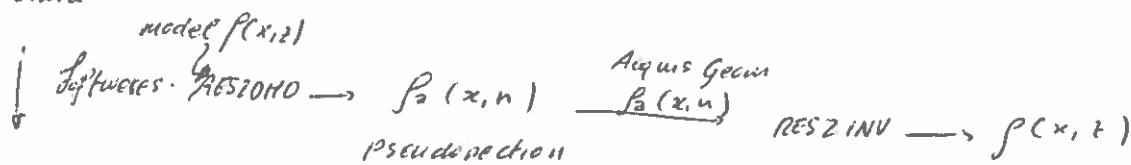
How to pass from apparent resistivity $\rho_a(x, n)$ to the real one $\rho(x, z)$.
It's made by a software

We have the OBSERVED DATA $\rho_a(x, n) \rightarrow$ **REAL $\rho(x, z)$** ?



The electrical problem is **ILL CONDITIONED** \rightarrow We have many solutions totally equivalent from the point of view of the residual.

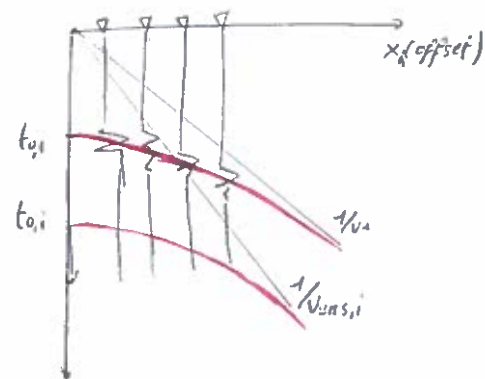
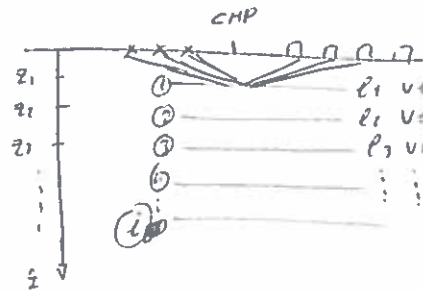
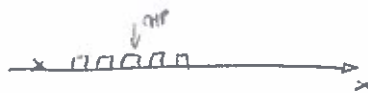
So if we have **A PRIORI INFO** (that comes from other methods) I can add it to make a better choice



REFLECTION SEISMIC

Seismic waves to have an image of the subsurface

2D Acquisition → multicoverage data.



$x_h = x_R - x_S = \text{offset}$

$$t_i(x_h) = \sqrt{t_{0,i}^2 + \left(\frac{x_h}{V_i}\right)^2} \quad \text{where } t_{0,i} \text{ is the two way travel time to the interface}$$

$$t_i(x_h) = \sqrt{t_{0,i}^2 + \left(\frac{x_h}{V_{rms,i}}\right)^2} \quad V_{rms,i} \rightarrow \text{mean of all the velocities up to the layer } i$$

$$V_{rms,i} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{k=1 \dots i} V_k^2 T_k}{\sum_{k=1 \dots i} T_k}} \quad \text{two way travel time within the layer } k$$

More on lens to hyperbola are converging to V_{rms} . From the slope of the hyperbola we can get info about the velocity → This way we get the depth.

It's very complicated to detect hyperbolas very close to each other.

From $V_{rms,i}$ we can get the DIX FORMULA but it's really unstable (too much sensitive to error)

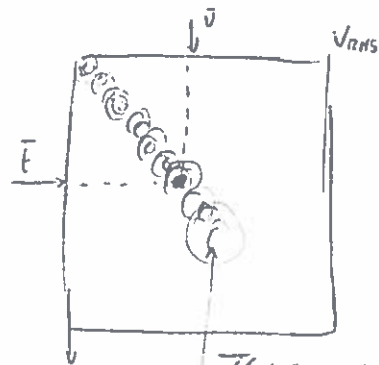
$$V_i = f(V_{rms,i})$$

We need to recognize hyperbolas possibly in an automatic way

SEMBLANCE GATHER (AUTOMATIC HYPERBOLA DETECTOR)

We need two parameters:

$$t(x) = \sqrt{\bar{t}^2 + \left(\frac{x}{\bar{v}}\right)^2} \quad \bar{t}, \bar{v} \rightarrow \text{two numbers that define our hyperbola}$$



$$S(\bar{t}, \bar{v}) = \frac{\left| \sum_{\text{along hyperbola}} d(x,t) \right|^2}{\sum_{\text{along hyperbola}} |d(x,t)|^2}$$

We are testing if this hyperbola exists in the data

We will have a high value if it's following a true hyperbola

These are the hyperbolas $0 \leq S \leq 1$

In image processing it's called HALF INTEGRAL

We can have more hyperbolas at the same time:



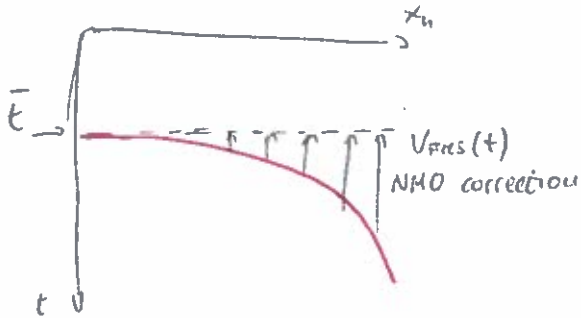
- direct arrivals
- Non converted arrivals (converted arrivals)
- Multiples

We have to choose which one is the V_{rms} we are looking for: we choose the HIGHEST V_{rms} for each t to get the true $V_{rms}(t)$ of direct arrivals (first test)

At the end of this process we have done the **VELOCITY ANALYSIS**

- ① Multi coverage acquisition
- ② Select our CMP (one position along x)
- ③ Compute semblance (NMO correction)
- ④ On semblance follow the maximum and highest V_{rms}
- ⑤ $\Downarrow V_{rms}(t)$ **VELOCITY ANALYSIS**

We are trying to sum all the trace hyperboles \rightarrow we make the hyperboles flat and sum horizontally: **NORMAL MOVEOUT CORRECTION**

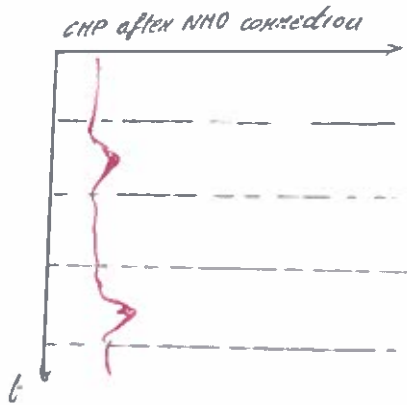


$$t \rightarrow \sqrt{\bar{t}^2 + \left(\frac{x_n}{V_{rms}(\bar{t})}\right)^2} - \bar{t} = t_{NMO}(x_n, \bar{t})$$

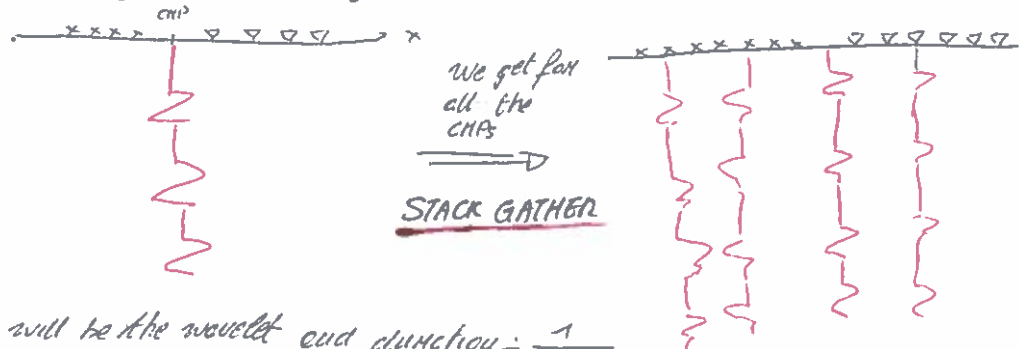
For every time we draw the hyperbole and move up to the flat velocity

For high offsets we see wavelet distortion.

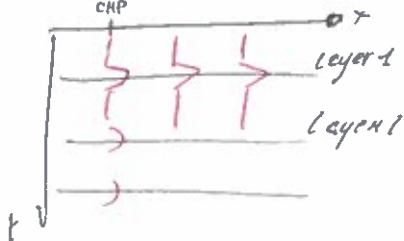
So in the graphic we will see the CMPNMO correction



The operation of summation along the x axis is called **STACK OF CMP** along x_n . The image of the subsurface that we get is:

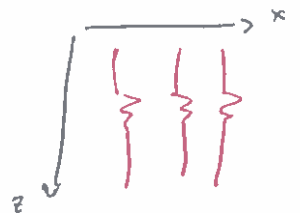


What we get is that the interface will be the wavelet and duration: $\frac{1}{\text{Bandwidth}}$



The duration is proportional to the resolution

From this we define the time to depth to get to the **DEPTH STACK GATHER**



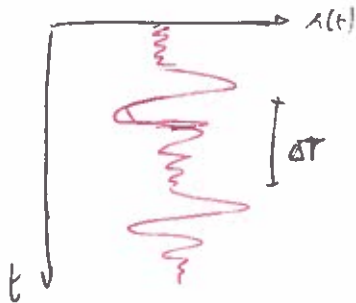
REFLECTION SEISMIC PROCESSING

19/11/17 (18)
COPIATA DA
NOTES DEC
PROF SUMER

- Demultiplexing: re-order data after acquisition
- Gating: remove noise cancelling (mute) on "noisy geophone" traces
- Gain recovery: amplification of high attenuated parts of traces

$$A \propto \frac{K_1}{t} e^{-K_1 t} \xrightarrow{\text{recovery}} r(t) \approx r(t) \cdot \frac{1}{K_1} t e^{K_1 t}$$

or AUTOMATIC GAIN RECOVERY (AGR)



$$r(t) = r(t) \frac{1}{\sqrt{\int_{t-\frac{\Delta T}{2}}^{t+\frac{\Delta T}{2}} |r(t)|^2 dt}}$$

This way i obtain traces without big jumps in amplitude

$$\Delta T = 2/\beta \cdot T$$

wavelet duration

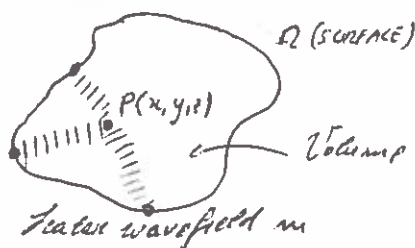
— If it's too small we have signal distortion. If it's too big we do no recovery

- Geometry inputs: information on the geometry of the system
- Application of statics
- Deconvolution
- Filtering: Given a source we have to choose the right geophone and the right sampling freq (22.5kHz), filtering the noise out of the bandwidth
- Trace equalization
- Real time tomography: use travel time to get velocity model of an object

SEISMIC ACQUISITION

- Pre-processing
- CMP Sorting
- VGL Amalgam → pre stack (data + velocity)
- NMO correction
- Stack → artifacts (CMP is not locally horizontal)

KIRCHHOFF INTEGRAL

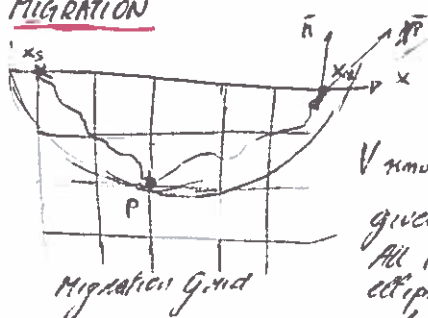


If you know $m(\Omega)$ you can derive m in any partion of the volume

$$m(x, y, z) = \int_{\Omega} m(\Omega) G(\Omega, P) d\Omega$$

Green function (it describes the propagation between two points)

MIGRATION



• If we consider a close surface with respect to the volume of interest

For each point P on the grid, trace a ray from x_s to x_r and calculate the total travel time \bar{T}

$$\bar{T} = t_{x_s \rightarrow P} + t_{P \rightarrow x_r}$$

given $r(x_r, x_s)$
All the points on the ellipse will have the same value

The couple (x_s, x_a) is related to a certain trace $r(x_s, x_a)$. For each point, assign to it the value of $r(x_s, x_a)$ given t :

$r(x_s, x_a)$



Repeat this process for each trace. Each point will have a vector of values, each one corresponding to one trace. Summing this values and coloring the point with the result we'll obtain the image of the subsurface.

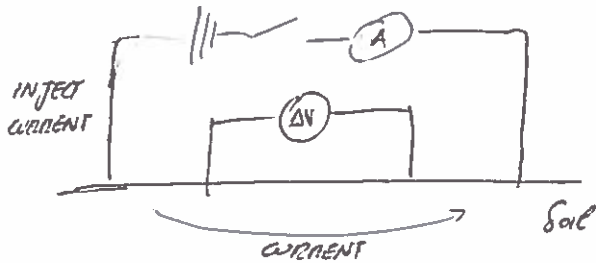
We can also find the result by using the Kirchhoff integral

$$m(p) = \int \int_{\text{All traces}} \underbrace{A_s A_a \cdot e^{j\omega(t_{x_s} + t_{x_a})}}_{\substack{\text{Green} \\ \text{Attenuation } x_s \rightarrow p}} \underbrace{r(x_s, x_a)}_{\substack{\text{Recorded} \\ \text{Field}}} \cdot \underbrace{\vec{n} \times \nabla t_p x_a}_{\text{cos } \theta} dx_u$$

ELECTRICAL METHOD

21/11/2017

19



Current \rightarrow moving charges
Metal \rightarrow electronic conduction

① ELECTRONIC CONDUCTION

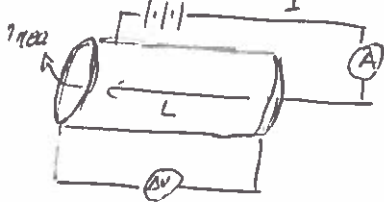
I_{ion} - charged atoms / charged molecules

I_{sol} - contains a lot of salt

The ions are transmitted to the soil and they "close" the circuit

② ELECTROLYTIC CONDUCTION

Ohm law: $R = \frac{\Delta V}{I}$



High resistivity: the current has difficulty to "flow" due to the presence of few ions

$$R = \frac{L}{A \sigma}$$

We introduce the resistivity ρ

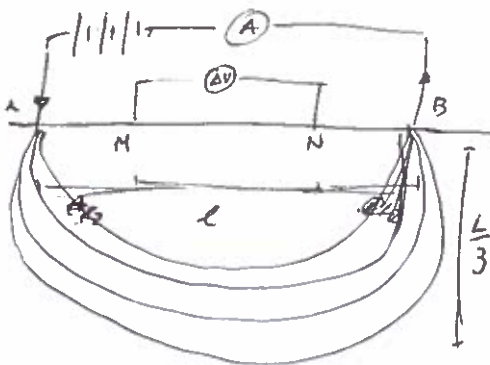
$$R = \rho \frac{L}{AREA}$$

It defines how hard or easy is for the current to flow into a body
 $\rho = R \frac{AREA}{L} [\Omega \cdot m]$

Metal resistivity: $10^{-12} \div 10^{-8} \Omega \cdot m$

Electrolytic conduction $10^{-2} \div 10^3 \Omega \cdot m$

Polarization conduction \rightarrow insulator $\rho \sim 10^{10}$



A, B current electrodes \rightarrow one injects current, the other puts it out

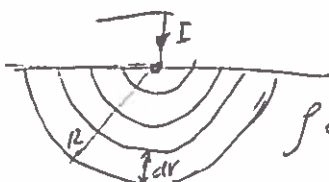
M, N measure a potential

Bigger l , bigger depth

$\rho(x)$ constant separation technique (used to visualize the lateral variations of resistivity)

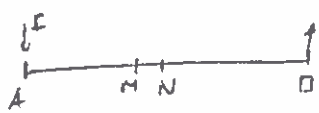
$\rho(z)$ vertical electrical sounding (estimation of electrical conductivity or resistivity of the medium)

$\rho(x, z) \rightarrow$ PSEUDOSECTION



distribution of the current
 $\frac{dV}{dr} = -\rho \bar{J}$

$$E = \rho \bar{r}$$

$$V(r) = \int_0^r -\rho \frac{I}{2\pi r^2} dr \quad V(r) = \rho \frac{I}{2\pi r}$$


$$V_M = \rho \frac{I}{2\pi} \left(\frac{1}{AM} - \frac{1}{BM} \right) \quad V_N = \rho \frac{I}{2\pi} \left(\frac{1}{AN} - \frac{1}{NB} \right)$$

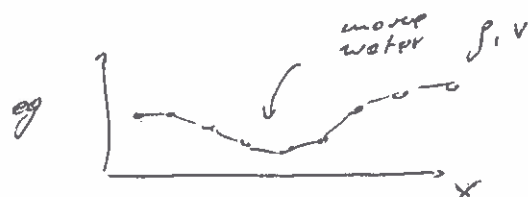
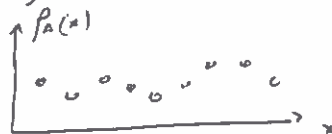
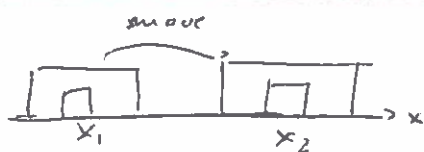
distance between A and M

$$\Delta V = V_M - V_N = \rho \frac{I}{2\pi} \left(\frac{1}{AM} - \frac{1}{BM} - \frac{1}{AN} + \frac{1}{NB} \right) \rightarrow \text{geometric factor } K^{-1}$$

$$\rho = \frac{\Delta V}{I} K (\Omega \cdot m) \quad \text{For a constant resistivity}$$

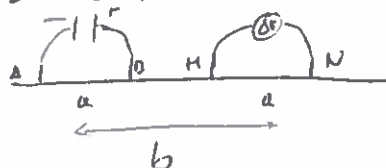
The one we obtain in the real experiments is the apparent resistivity ρ_a

① CONSTANT SEPARATION TRANSVERSE (CST)

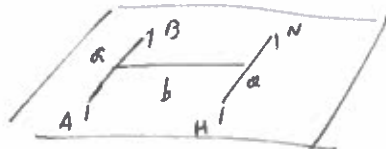


Move everything on left and right to obtain the resistivity variations along x

DIPOLE-DIPOLE

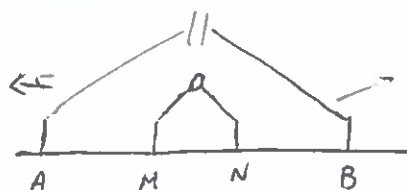


TRANSVERSE DIPOLE DIPOLE



We can get different resistivities by changing the geometries:

② VERTICAL ELECTRICAL SOUNDING (VES)

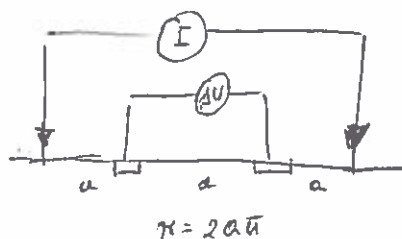


Here distance between A and B to go deeper

Two common arrays are used for VES:

- Wenner
- Schlumberger

→ WENNER ARRAY



$$K = 2a^2$$

For sounding measurements the electrodes in a Wenner array are expanded around a center point by equally increasing the spacing

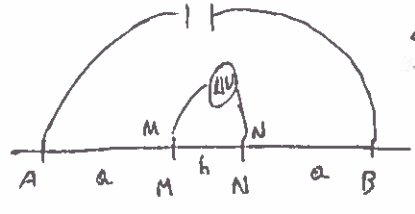
Advantages:

- high SNR
- good resolution of horizontal layers
- good depth resistivity

Disadvantages:

- not good in determining the lateral location of deep inhomogeneities since the large a-spacing degrades lateral resolution

↳ SCHLUMBERGER



$a \gg b$
 $\pi \approx \pi \frac{a}{b}$

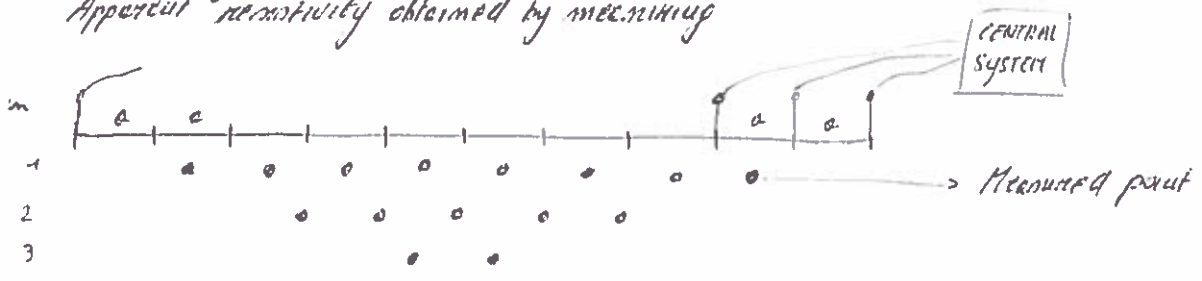
Vantages:

- High SNR
- Good resolution of horizontal layers
- Good depth sensitivity
- Easier than Wenner

③ PSEUDO-SECTION

Obtained by VES/CST

Apparent resistivity obtained by measuring



The inverse problem is ill conditioned. We can enrich the info by other methods

LIMITS OF ELECTRICAL METHOD

① Depth of sensitivity $\boxed{\bar{z} = \frac{L}{3}}$

② Need to close the circuit

It doesn't work in dry sand, ice, hard media (no possibility to plant electrodes)

ELECTRICAL RESISTIVITY TOMOGRAPHY

ARCHIE'S LAW

It relates the electrical conductivity of a sedimentary rock with its porosity

$$C_t = \frac{1}{a} C_w \phi^m S_w^n$$

C_w electrical conductivity ϕ : porosity
 C_t electrical conductivity of fluid saturated rock

S_w : water saturation m : cementation exponent of the rock n : saturation exponent

a : tortuosity factor

Sensitivity in resistivity with ~~rock~~ salt changes with temperature and concentration

$$R_t = a \phi^{-m} S_w^{-n} R_w$$

Fluid saturated rock resistivity

Brine resistivity

a, m, n = constant depend on the location

$$0,5 < a < 2,5$$

$$1,3 < m < 2,5$$

$$n \approx 2$$

How to use the formula in practice to get the porosity

$$\rho = a \phi^{-m} S_w^{-n} \rho_w$$

\uparrow Apparent resistivity inverse
 \uparrow porosity
 \uparrow ρ_w is measured

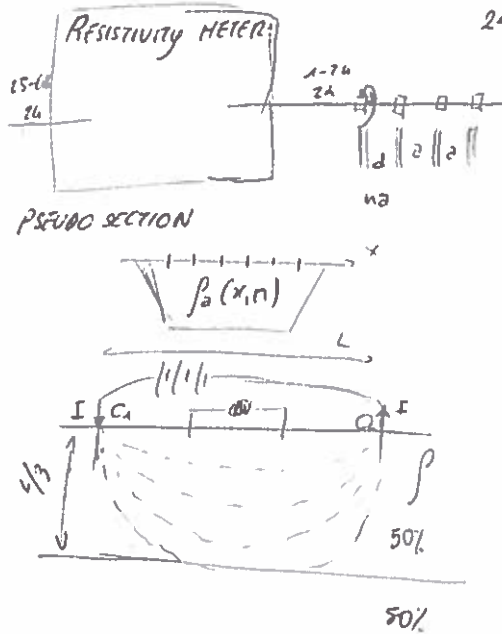
MISE A LA MASSE

Electrical resistivity method that has been used in the mining industry since 1926 for delineating conductive subsurface or bodies. By injecting current into a conductive underground body it gets

Allowing V we can measure how big is the body

ELECTRICAL METHOD

24/11/2017
(21)



24 + 48 cables

System choosing 5 electrodes at a time that measure ΔV , ρ_a etc
We'll have many measurements for every 4 electrodes

We call apparent resistivity since we get an average of the anomalies
We can measure how deep in the area

If we go $\frac{L}{3}$ deep, we have 50% of the current flowing in the first $\frac{L}{3}$ part.

We are sensitive only to this first part

L distance between C_1 and $C_2 \rightarrow \text{depth} = \frac{L}{3}$

There are a lot of currents flowing and bodies producing potential currents \Rightarrow NOISE
To limit the noise we have to limit the distance

$$0 < L < 1000 \text{ m}$$

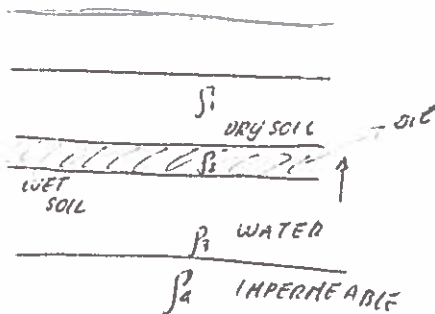
$$0 < \text{depth} < 300 \text{ m}$$

The resistivity is associated to the presence of VOIDS (cave, cavern, tunnel), WATER (dissolved salts),

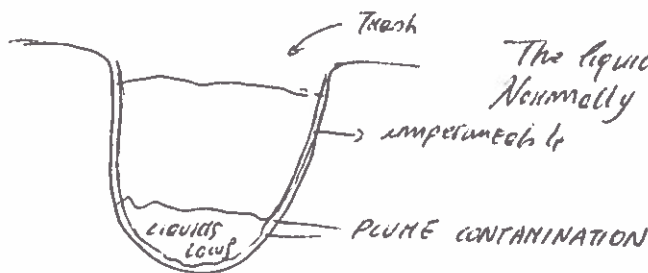
SALT WATER (is more conductive so lower resistivity), DISTILLED WATER (highly resistive)

APPLICATIONS: looking for water, quality of water, oil, hydrocarbons
CONTAMINANTS

Materials like oil/diesel/fuel are highly resistive ($\rho = 1000 \Omega \text{ m}$). LNAPL \rightarrow It floats over the water
Light Non Aqueous Phase Liquids



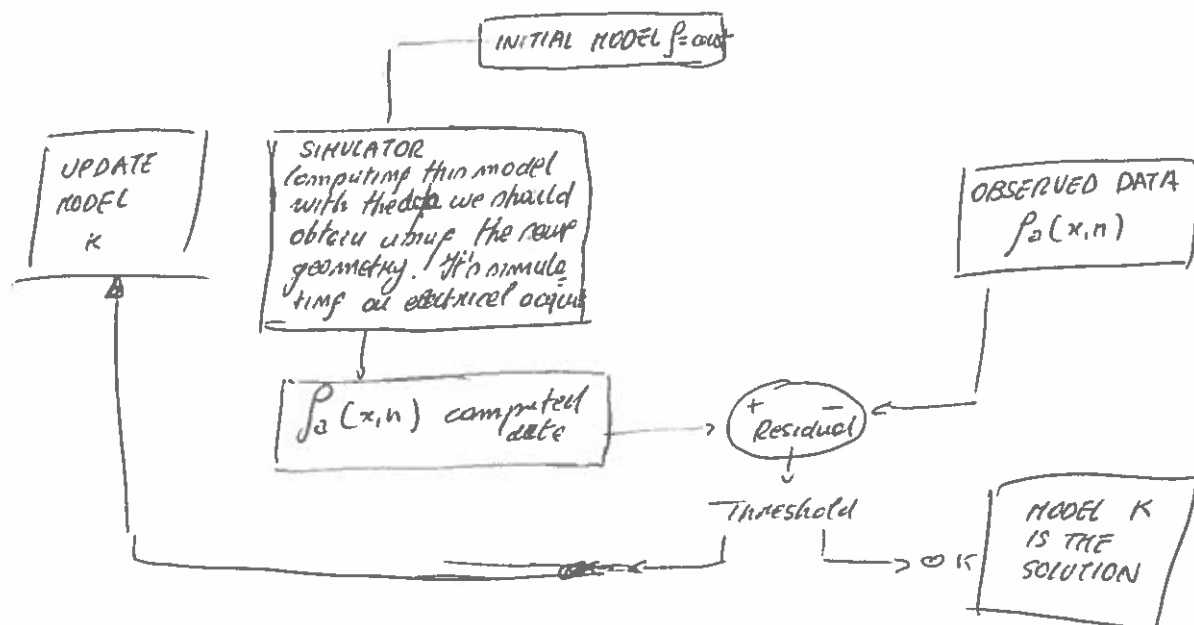
Thin mix of liquids are not water contaminants



The liquids produced by rubbish have a high resistivity
Normally they put an impermeable layer

How to pass from apparent resistivity $\rho_a(x,n)$ to the real one $\rho(x,z)$.
It's made by a software

We have the OBSERVED DATA $\rho_a(x,n) \rightarrow \left[\begin{matrix} \text{REAL} \\ \rho(x,z) \end{matrix} \right] ?$



The electrical problem is ILL CONDITIONED \rightarrow We have many solutions totally equivalent from the point of view of the residual.

So if we have A PRIORI INFO (that comes from other methods) I can add it to make a better choice

