

GEL2150

Felt- og metodekurs i geologi og
geofysikk

Oppbygging av kurset

- Geofysiske undersøkelsesmetoder (MH, ØP)
 - Teori
 - Praktiske øvelser
- Syntetisk seismikk (MH, JJ)
 - Innledning
 - Feltkurs Ringerike
- Tektonikk og Sedimentasjon (JPN, JJ)
 - Innledning
 - Feltkurs Mjøsa-traktene
- Geologiske Feltmetoder (ON)
 - Forelesninger
 - Feltkurs Nevlunghavn

Geofysiske undersøkelsesmetoder

- **Mål:** Praktisk innledning i de viktigste geofysiske metodene som blir brukt i industrien og forskningen
- **Arbeidsplan:**
 - **Forelesning:** Innføring geofysiske metoder (26.3)
 - **Praksis:**
 - Seismisk tolkningsøvelse (27.3; 1 dag)
 - Innsamling seismikk øvelse (29.3; 1 dag)
 - Innsamling tyngdeanomali øvelse (30.3; 1 dag)

Geofysiske undersøkelsesmetoder

- Teori
- Innsamling og Prosessering
- Styrke og Svakheter

Geofysiske undersøkelsesmetoder

- **Passiv:**

Metode som bruker Jordens naturlige egenskaper, f.e. tyngde og magnetisme

- **Aktiv:**

Metode som krever input av kunstig generert energi, f.e. innsamling av seismisk refleksjons data

- **Mål med geofysikk**

er å lokalisere eller oppdage tilstedeværelsen av strukturer og legemer som befinner seg under jordoverflaten og bestemme deres størrelse, omfang, dybde og fysiske egenskaper (tetthet, hastighet, porositet o.l.) + væske innhold

Geofysiske undersøkelsesmetoder

Metode	Engelsk	Parameter som måles	Fysiske egenskap	Anvendelse
Tyngde	Gravity	Romlige variasjoner i styrken til Jordens tyngdefelt	Tetthet	Fossile brennstoffer Mineral avsetninger Konstruksjon
Magnetisme	Magnetics	Romlige variasjoner i styrken til det geomagnetiske felt	Magnetisk mottagelighet og "remanence"	Fossile brennstoffer Metalliske mineral avsetninger Konstruksjon
Seismikk	Seismic	Gangtid av reflekterte/refrakterte seismiske bølger	Seismisk hastighet (og tetthet)	Fossile brennstoffer Mineral avsetninger Konstruksjon
Elektromagnetisme (SeaBed Logging)	Electromagnetics	Respons til elektromagnetisk stråling	Elektrisk ledningsevne/motstand og induktanse	Fossile brennstoffer Metalliske mineral avsetninger
Elektrisk -Motstand	Electrical -Resistivity	Jordens motstand	Elektrisk motstand	Utbredt brukt, bl.a. i brønnlogging
-Egenpotensial	-Self Potential	Elektriske potensialer	Elektrisk ledningsevne	
Radar	Radar	Gangtid av reflekterte radar pulser	Dielektrisk konstante	Miljø Konstruksjon

Litteratur

- Keary, P. & Brooks, M. (1991) An Introduction to Geophysical Exploration. Blackwell Scientific Publications.
- Mussett, A.E. & Khan, M. (2000) Looking into the Earth – An Introduction to Geological Geophysics. Cambridge University Press.*

<http://www.learninggeoscience.net/modules.php>

Gravity

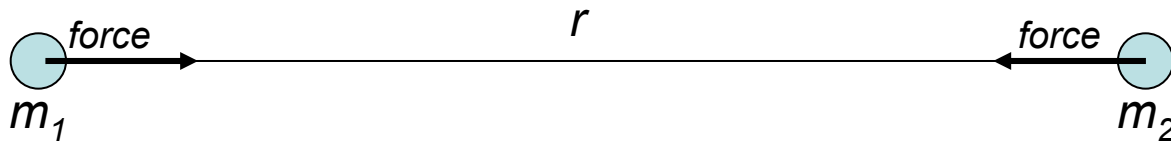
- Gravity surveying measures spatial variations in the Earth's gravitational field caused by differences in the *density* of sub-surface rocks
- In fact, it measures the variation in the *acceleration* due to gravity
- It is expressed in so called *gravity anomalies* (in milligal, 10^{-5} ms^{-2}), measured in respect to a reference level, usually the *geoid*
- Gravity is a scalar

Gravity: Newton's Law of Gravitation

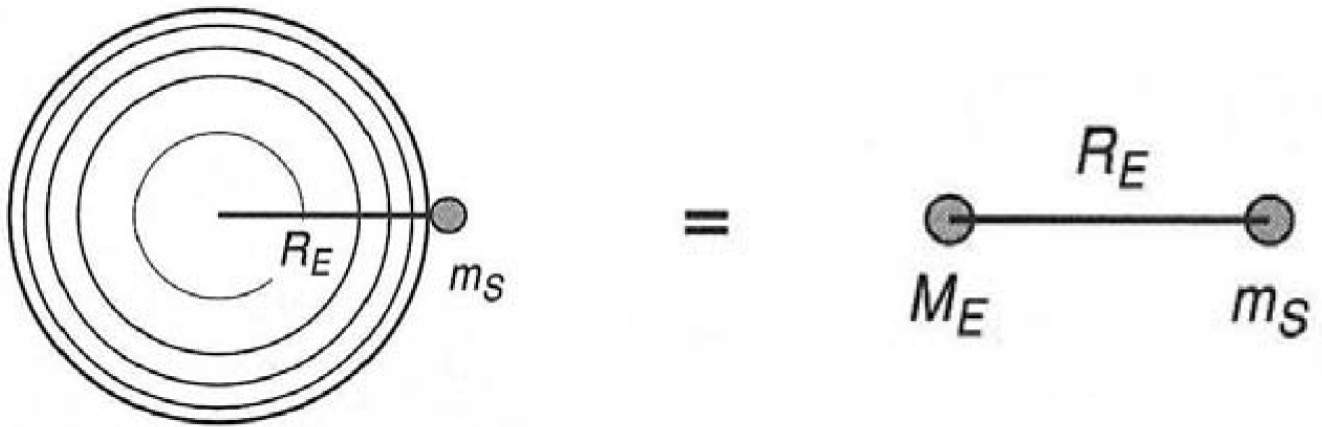
- Newton's Universal Law of Gravitation for small masses, m_1 and m_2 separated by a distance r , at the earth surface:

$$\text{Attractive force, } \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{G} \frac{\mathbf{m}_1 \mathbf{m}_2}{\mathbf{r}^2}$$

- With G ('big gee') is the Universal Gravitational Constant: $6.67 \times 10^{-11} \text{ m}^3/\text{kg}^1 \cdot \text{s}^2$



Gravity: Earth



$$\mathbf{F}_E = \frac{\mathbf{G} \times M_E \times m_s}{R_E^2} = m_s \mathbf{g} \rightarrow \mathbf{g} = \frac{\mathbf{G} \times M_E}{R_E^2}$$

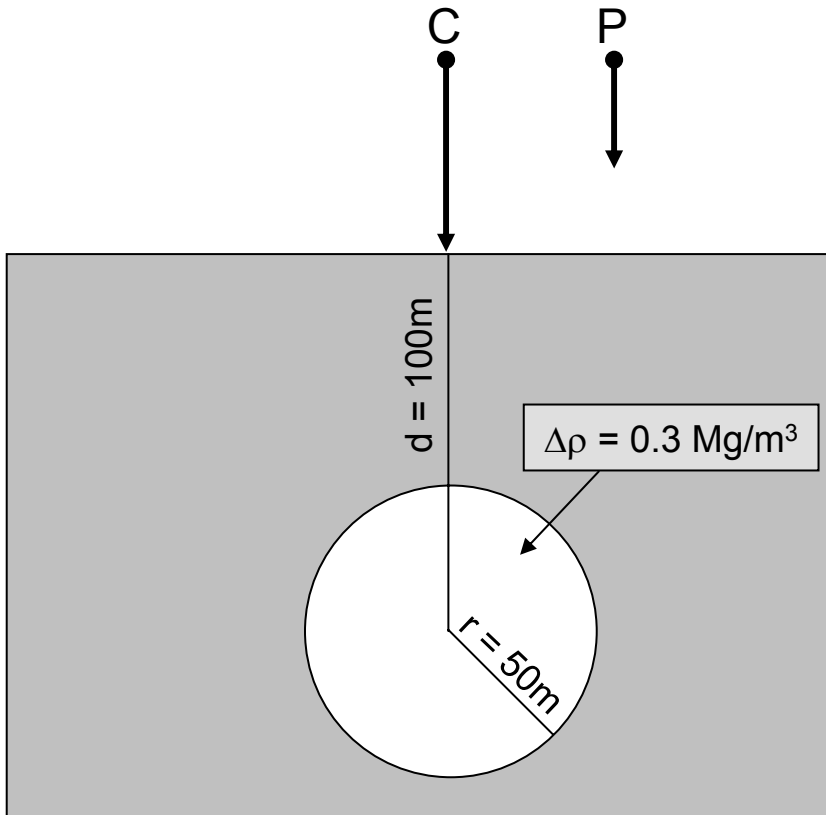
- Spherical
- Non-rotating
- Homogeneous

→ g ('little gee') is constant!

Gravity

- Non-spherical → Ellipse of rotation
 - Rotating → Centrifugal forces
 - Non-homogeneous
 - Subsurface heterogeneities
 - Lateral density differences in the Earth
- g ('little gee') is NOT constant

Gravity units



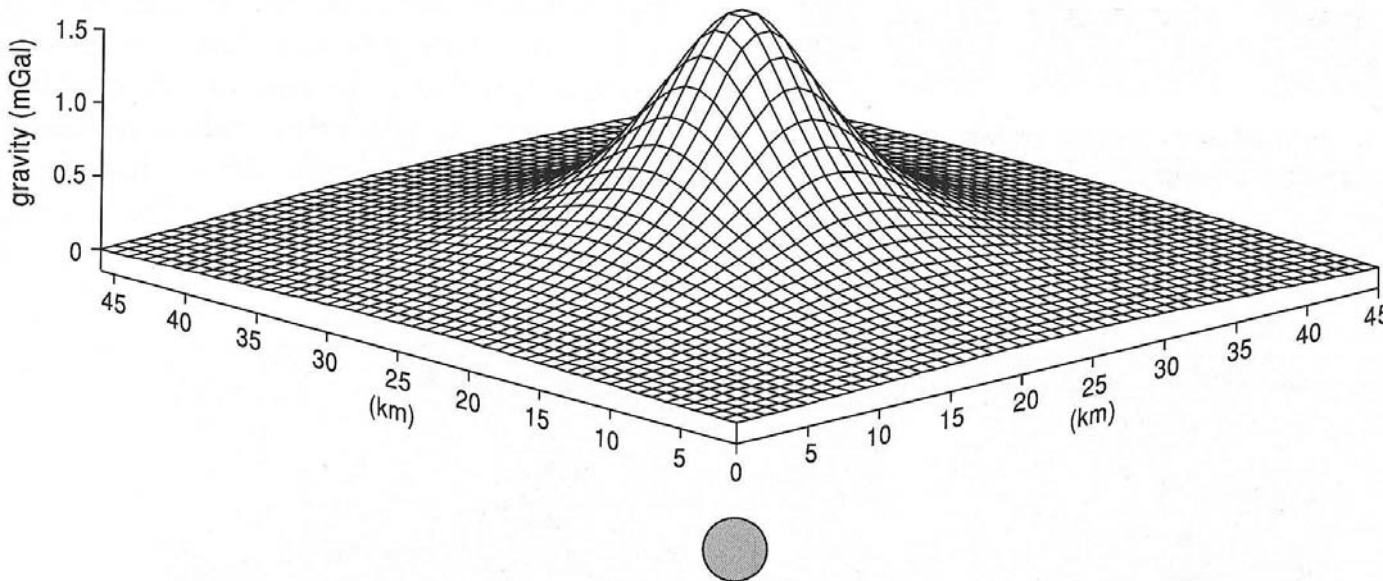
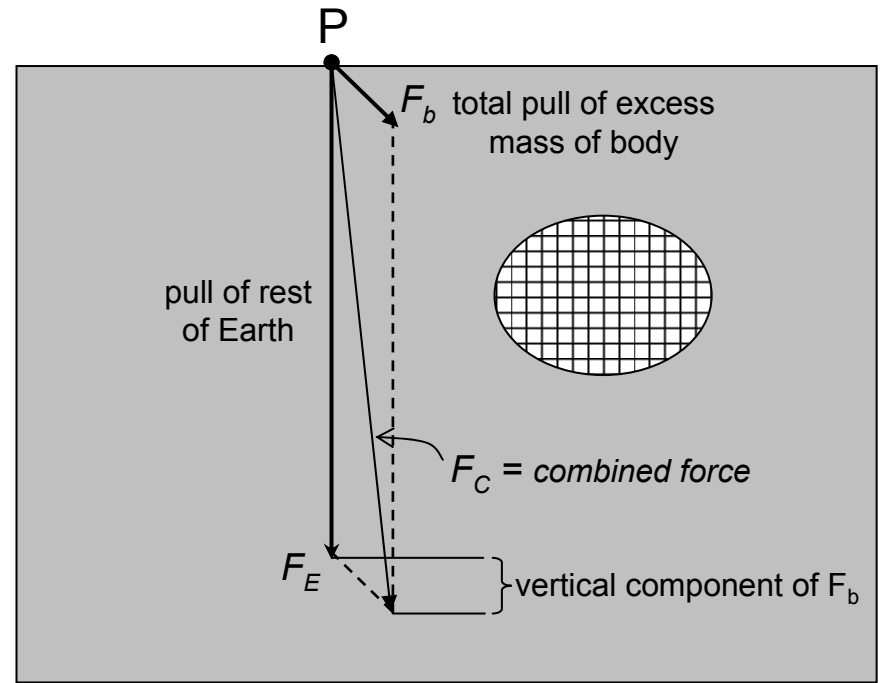
- An object dropped at C falls with a little greater acceleration than at P
- Difference in acceleration can be measured:

$$\delta g = G \frac{\Delta m}{d^2} = \frac{G}{d^2} \frac{4}{3} \pi r^3 \delta \rho$$

- Here: $\delta g = 1.048 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ m/s}^2$
- Small values, therefore we measure gravity anomalies in milliGals (mGal), or gravity units, g.u.
- $1 \text{ mGal} = 10 \text{ g.u.} = 10^{-5} \text{ m/s}^2 \sim 10^{-6} \cdot g$

Gravity anomalies

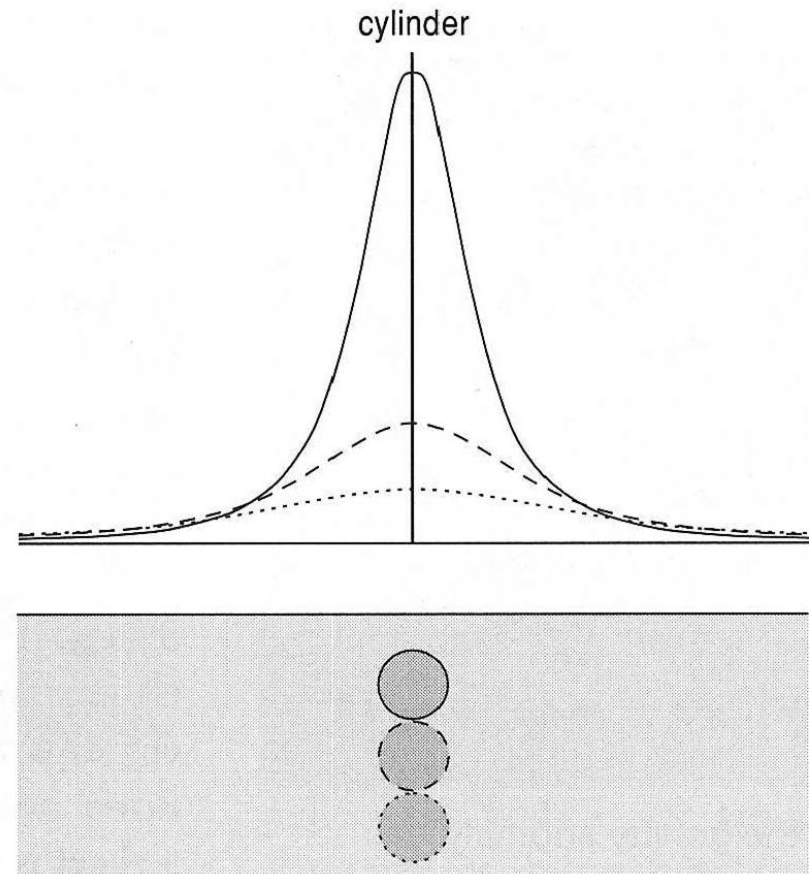
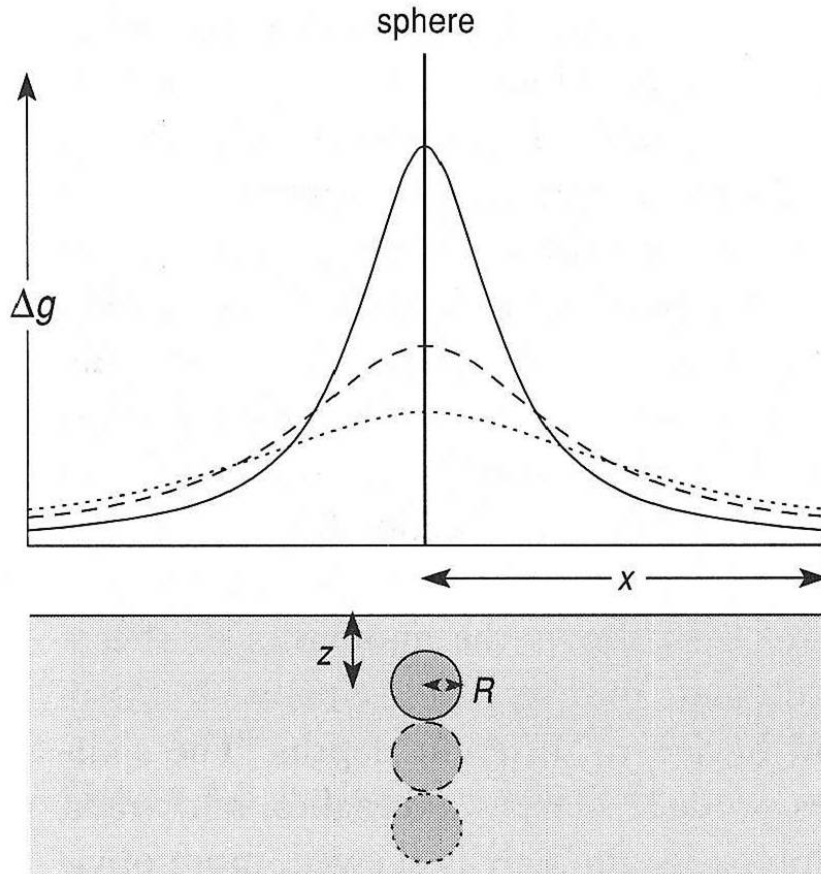
The Gravity anomaly is positive if the body is more dense than its surroundings, negative if less



Gravity is a scalar: the combined pull has approx. the same direction as the Earth pull; we measure therefore only the size, or magnitude, of g

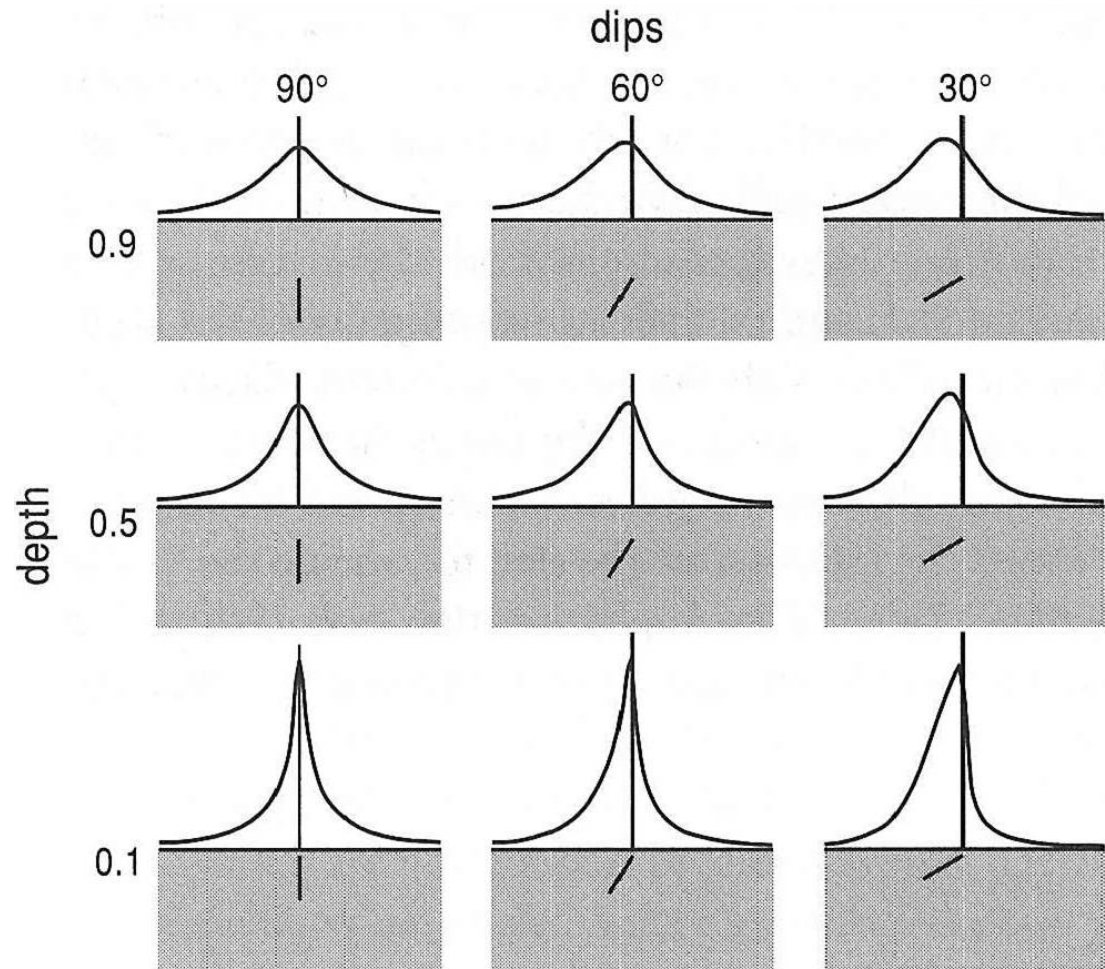
Gravity anomalies of specific bodies

sphere & horizontal cylinder at different depths



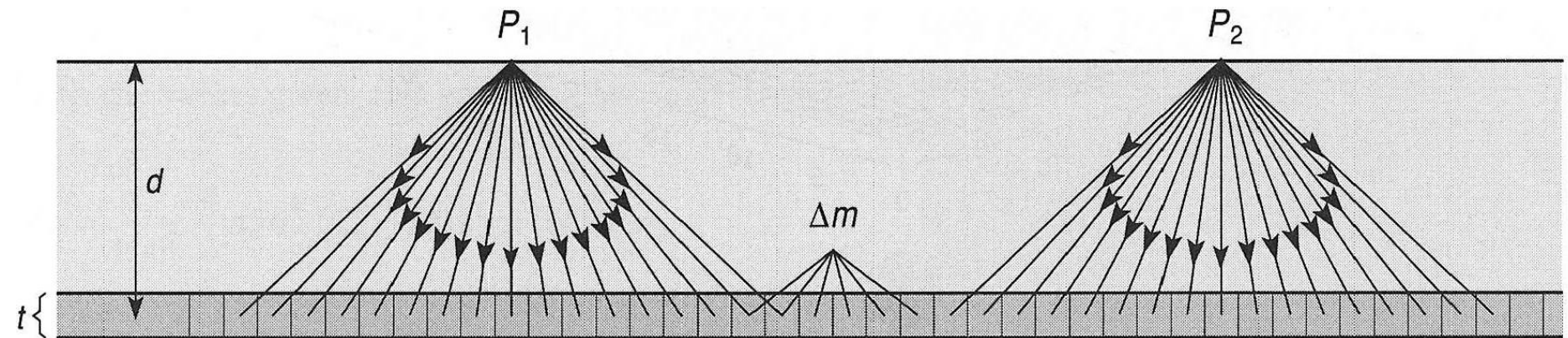
Gravity anomalies of specific bodies

sheets (dykes or veins)



Gravity anomalies of specific bodies

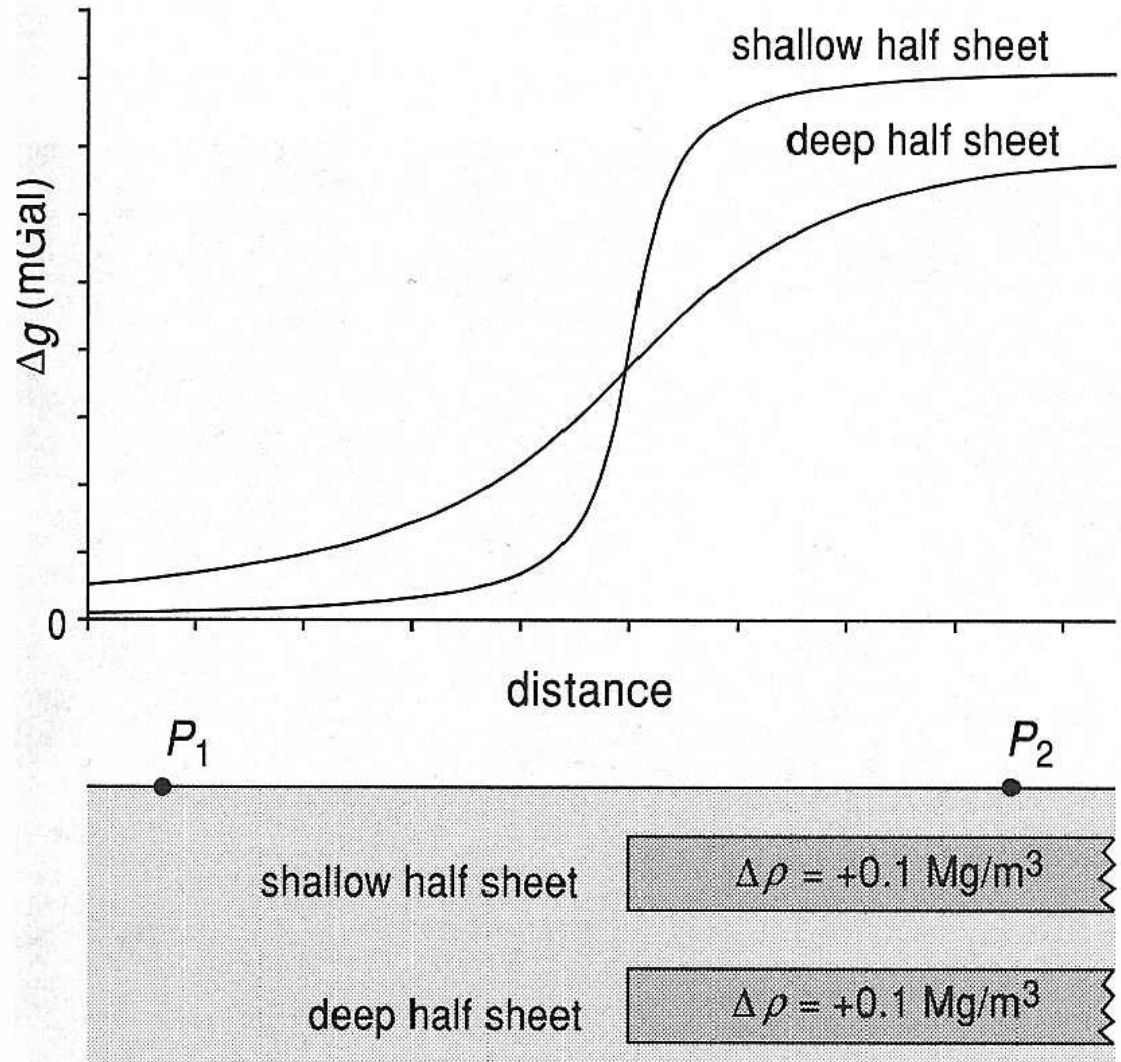
horizontal sheet/slab



$$\delta g = 2\pi G \Delta \rho t$$

Gravity anomalies of specific bodies

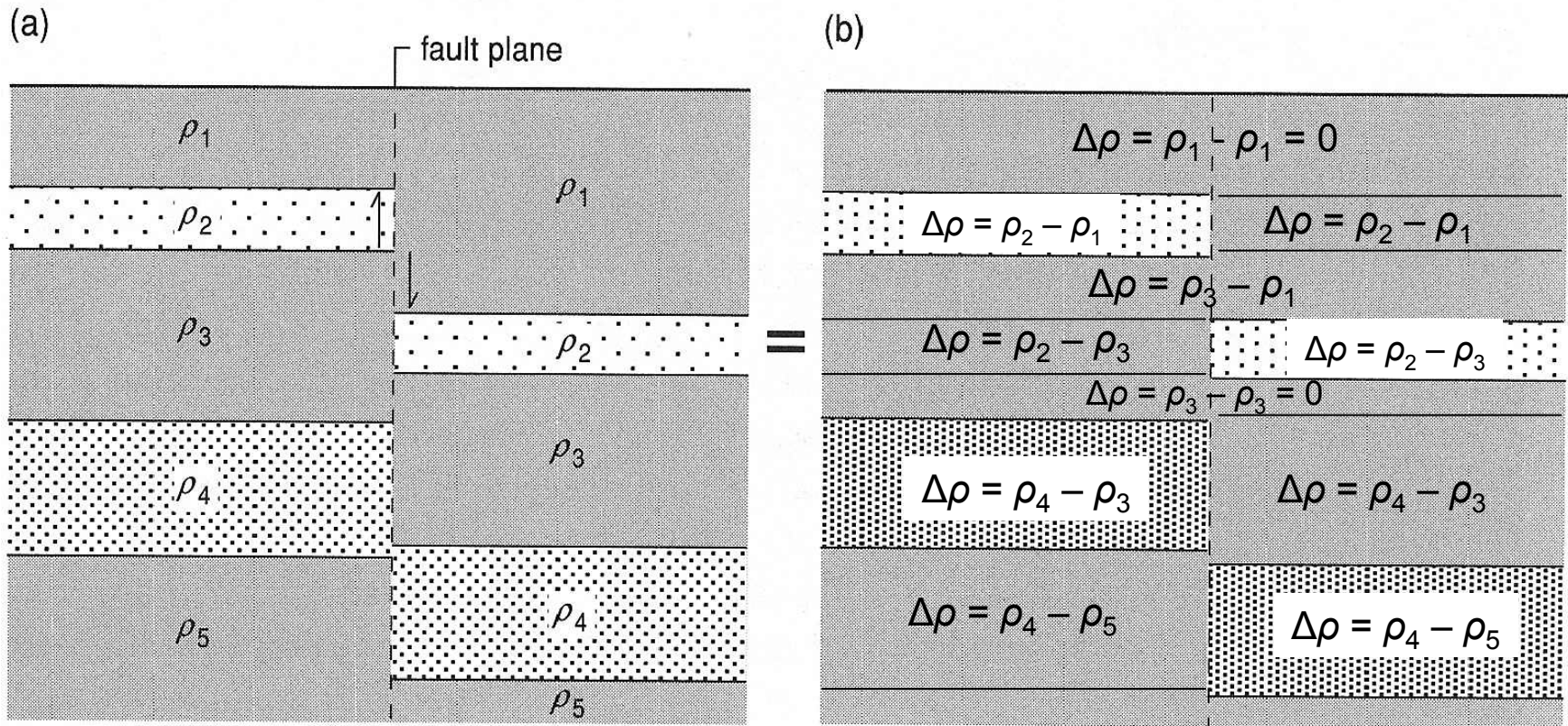
horizontal half-sheet/half-slab



$$\delta g = 2\pi G \Delta\rho t$$

Gravity anomalies of specific bodies

horizontal layers offset by vertical faulting

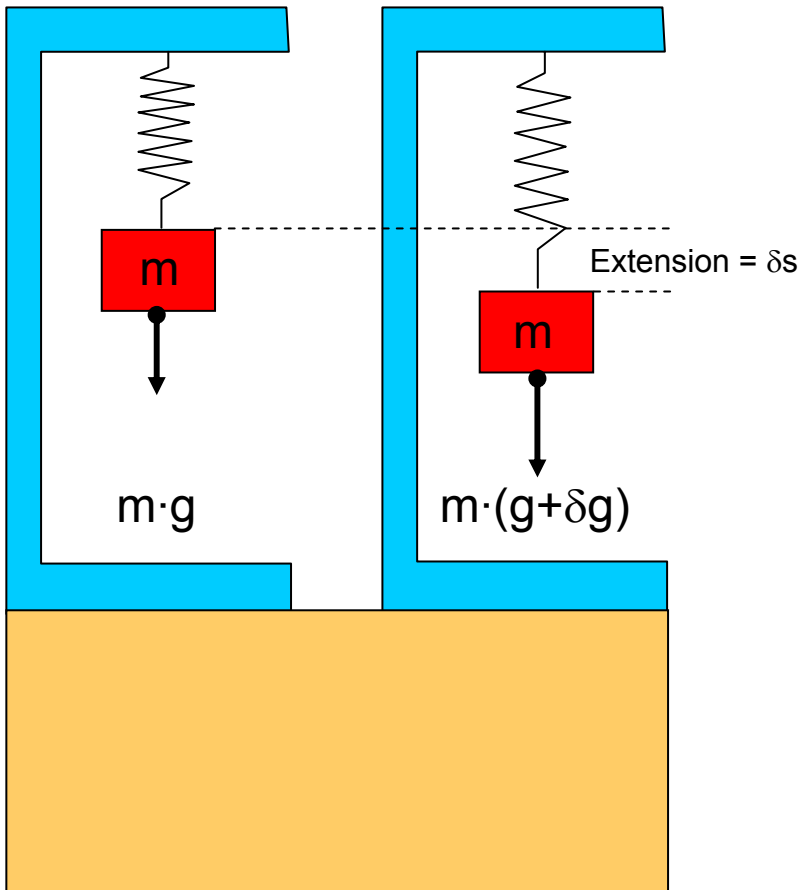


$$\delta g = 2\pi G \Delta\rho t$$

Measurement of Gravity

- Absolute gravity difficult to measure
- Relative values of gravity, i.e. difference of gravity between locations is simpler and standard procedure in gravity surveying
- Absolute value at a location is obtained by measuring the relative gravity between that location and a location with a known absolute gravity value (IGSN, 1971)

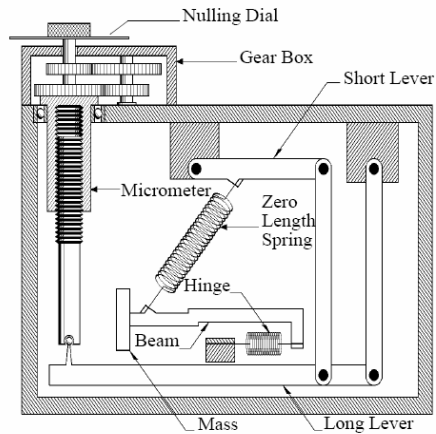
Measurements of Gravity



- Spring or Beam
 - Hooke's Law:
 - $m\delta g = k\delta s$
with k is the elastic spring constant
- Corrections
 - Instrumental drift and tidal
 - Latitude
 - Elevation
 - Eötvös

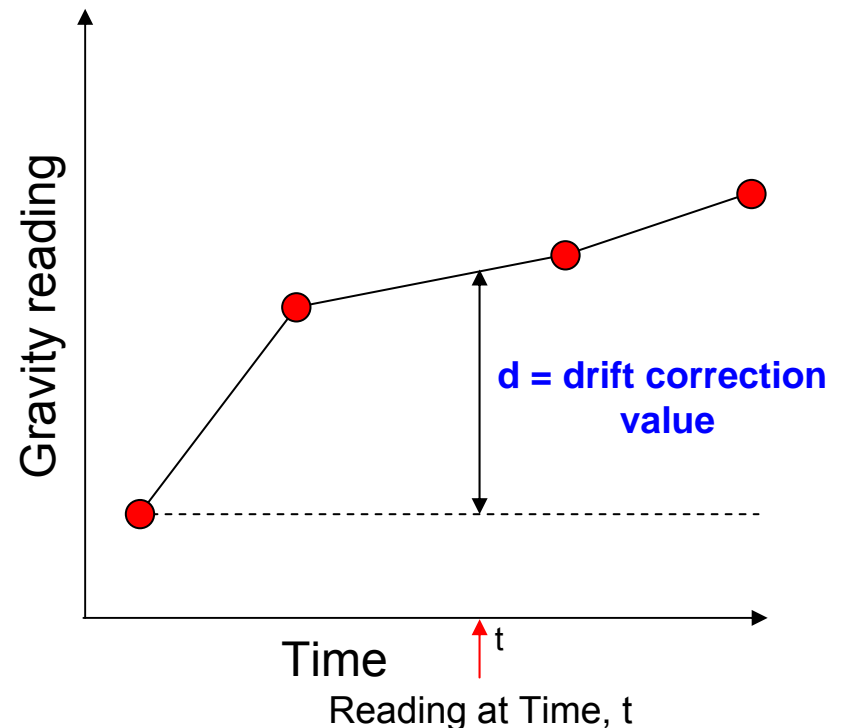
Gravity meter at IG, UiO

LaCoste & Romberg Model G



Gravity correction - *Drift*

- Correction for instrumental drift and tidal influence is based on repeated reading at the base station (red dots) at recorded times during the day
- Drift correction, d , is subtracted from the observed value
- After drift correction, the difference in gravity between an observation point and the base is found by multiplication of the difference in meter reading with the calibration factor of the gravimeter



- Lat
- Ear
-
-
- Co
- Grav



the
 distance
 from
 the

$$g_{\lambda} = 978031.8(1 + 0.0053024 \sin^2 \lambda - 0.0000059 \sin^2 \lambda) \text{ mGal}$$

- For surveys not extending more than some tens of kilometers, the variation can be regarded as simply proportional to distance:

$$\delta g = 0.812 \sin 2\lambda \quad \text{mGal/km polewards}$$

Gravity correction - *Eötvös*

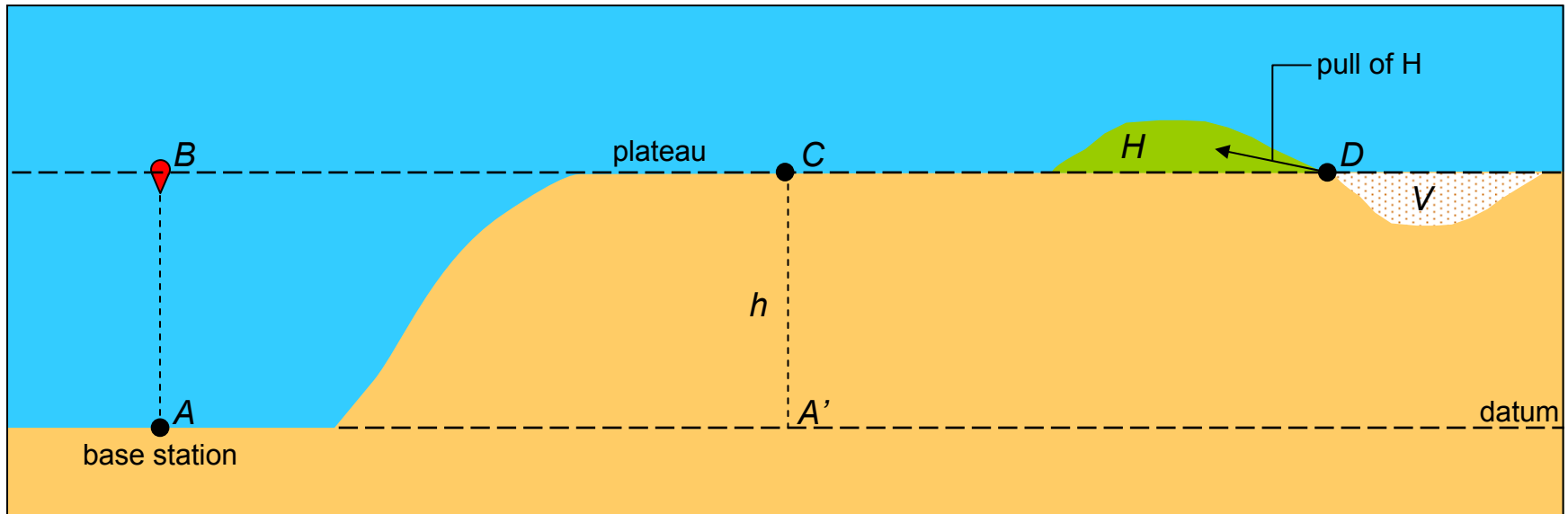
- Only needed if gravity is measured from a moving vehicle, like a ship or air-plane
- The motion of the vehicle causes a centrifugal force, depending on which way the vehicle is moving
- The correction is:

$$\delta g_{\text{Eötvös}} = 4.040 v \sin \alpha \cos \lambda + 0.001211 v^2 \text{ mGal}$$

- with v is the speed in km/h
 - λ is the latitude
 - α is the direction of travel measured clockwise from north, since only E-W motion matters
- For 55°N , the correction is about $+2\frac{1}{2}$ mGal for each km/h in an east-west direction

Gravity correction - *Elevation*

- Correction is necessary for changes in elevation; three separate effects have to be taken into account:
 - Free-air correction (FAA)
 - Bouguer correction (BC)
 - Terrain correction (TC)
- Bouguer Anomaly*



$$\delta g = g_A - g_B = GM_E (R_A^2 - R_B^2)^{-1}$$

g decreases with 0.3086 mGal/m
FAC = 0.3086 · h mGal

infinite sheet:

$$\delta g = g_{A'} - g_C = 2\pi G\rho h$$

BC = 0.04192 ρh mGal

Pull of H reduces g

$$\delta g = h(0.3086 - 0.04192\rho) \text{ mGal}$$

Gravity Anomalies

- Free Air Anomaly (FAA):

$$= g_{\text{obs}} - g_{\lambda} + \text{FAC} (\pm \text{EC})$$

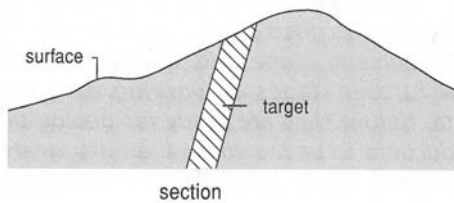
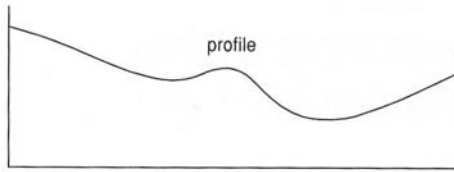
- Bouguer Anomaly (BA)

$$= g_{\text{obs}} - g_{\lambda} + \text{FAC} - \text{BC} (+ \text{TC} \pm \text{EC})$$

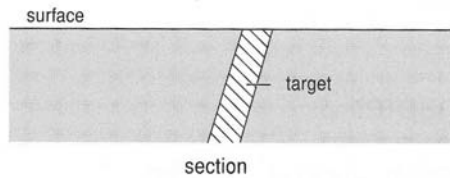
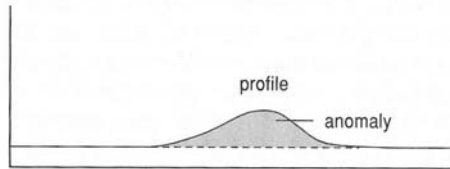
Residual and Regional anomalies

residual anomaly = observed field – regional field

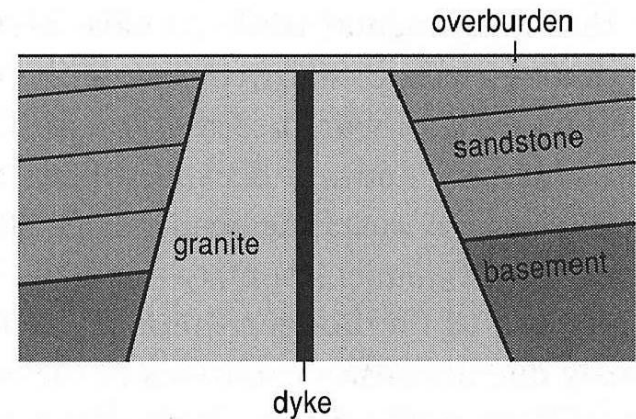
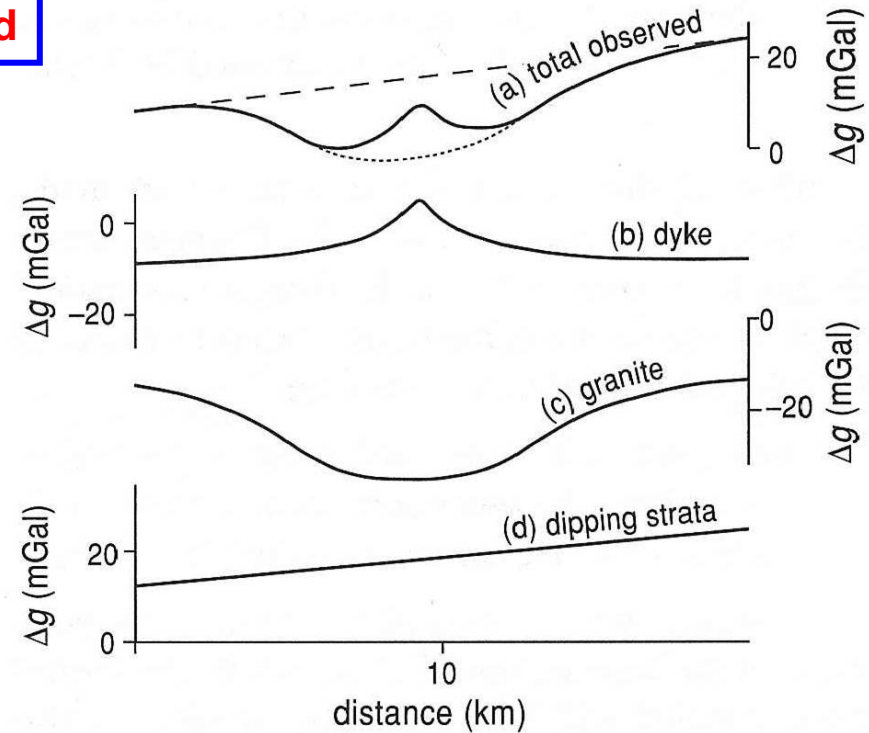
(a) before reduction



(b) after reduction for topography



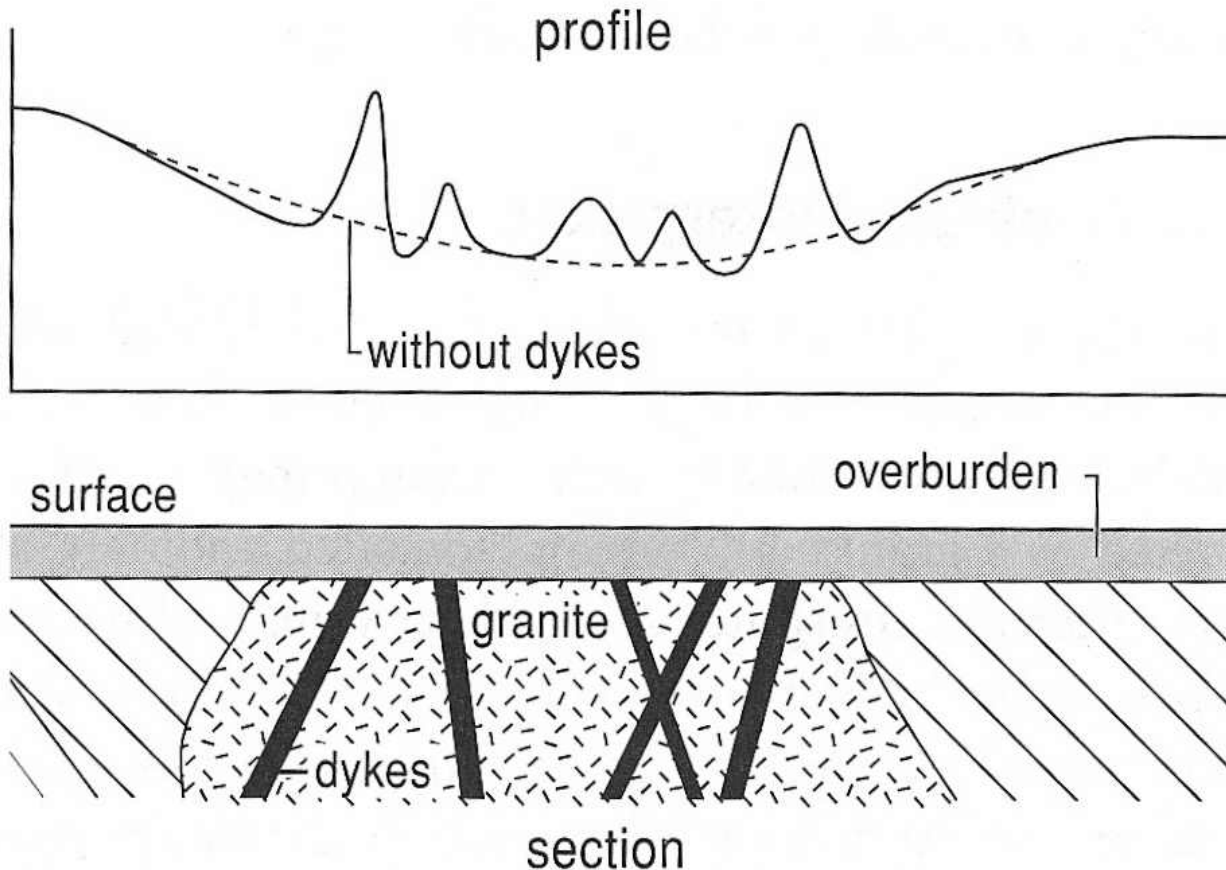
background
value of g



→ signal vs. noise
→ residual anomaly vs. regional field/anomaly
concepts depending on the survey target interest

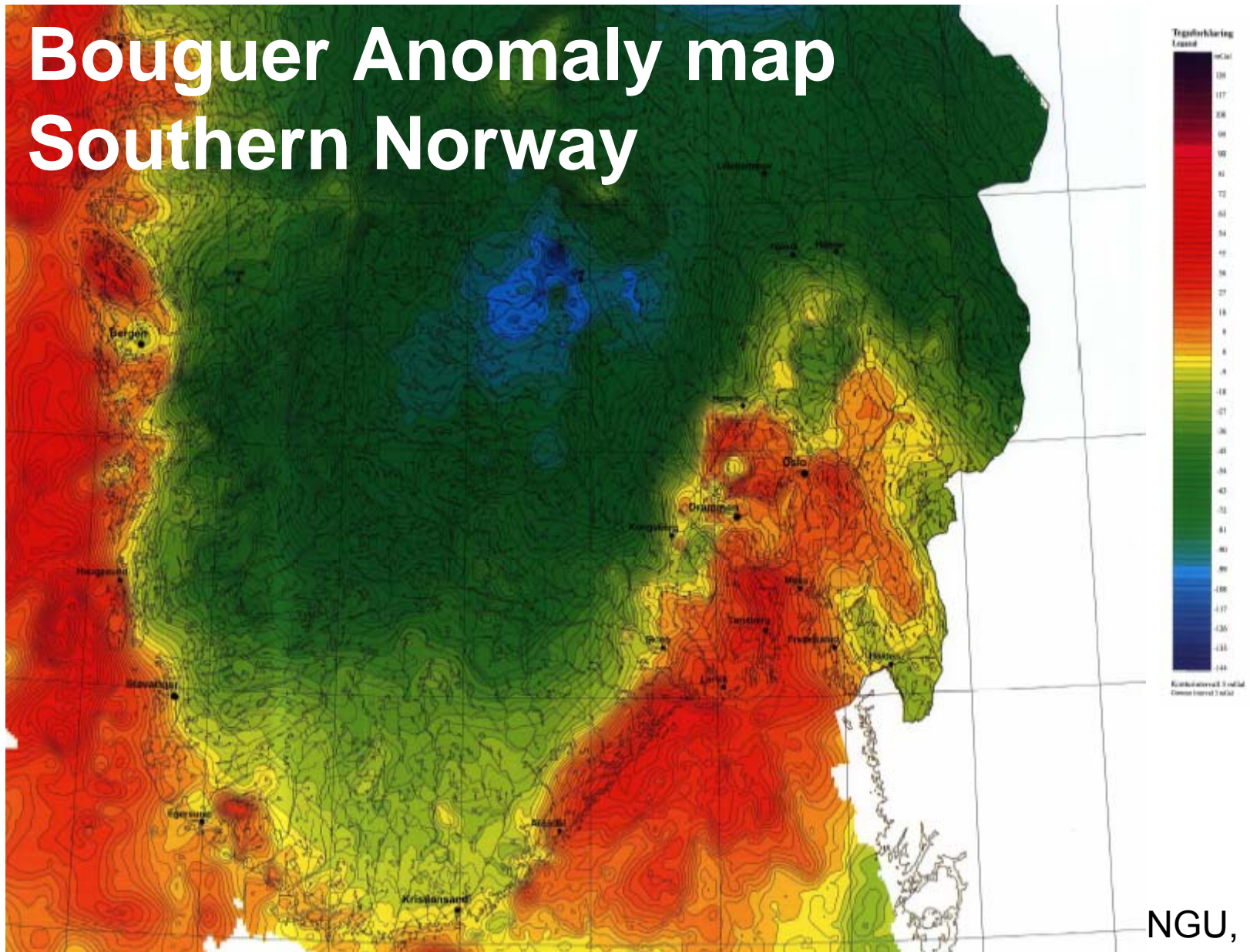
Residual and Regional anomalies

→ signal vs. noise
→ residual anomaly vs. regional field/anomaly
concepts depending on the survey target interest



By filtering away the large wavelengths of the regional field, we obtain gravity anomalies that represent small scaled bodies at shallow depth

Bouguer Anomaly map Southern Norway



NGU, 1992

Magnetics

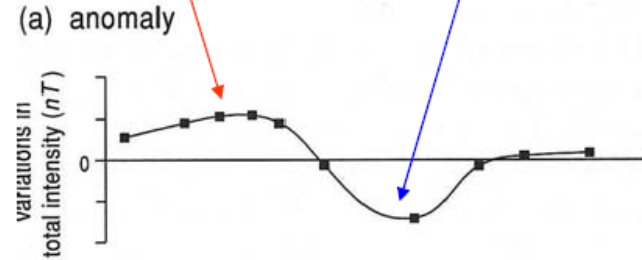
- Magnetic surveying aims to investigate the subsurface geology by measuring the strength or intensity of the Earth's magnetic field.
- Lateral variation in *magnetic susceptibility* and *remanence* give rise to spatial variations in the magnetic field
- It is expressed in so called *magnetic anomalies*, i.e. deviations from the Earth's magnetic field.
- The unit of measurement is the *tesla* (T) which is $\text{volts}\cdot\text{s}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$
In magnetic surveying the *nanotesla* is used ($1\text{nT} = 10^{-9}\text{T}$)
- The magnetic field is a vector
- Natural magnetic elements: iron, cobalt, nickel, gadolinium
- Ferromagnetic minerals: magnetite, ilmenite, hematite, pyrrhotite

dipole field similar in direction to Earth's field, so measured total field is greater (than the Earth's field) giving a **positive anomaly**

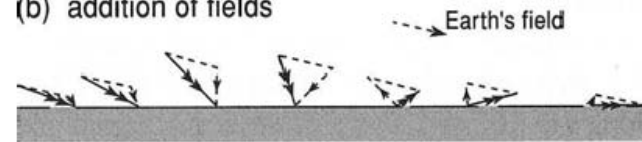
dipole field opposite in the direction to Earth's field, so measured total field is less (than the Earth's field) giving a **negative anomaly**

- Magnetic surveying depends on the target producing a **magnetic anomaly by locally modifying the Earth's magnetic field**
- the relationship of the anomaly to its source is **more complex than for gravity**
- for as well as depending on the *source's shape and magnetic properties*, it also depends on its **orientation**, the **latitude** at which the anomaly occurs and if it has a **remanent magnetisation** (as is usual) upon its history

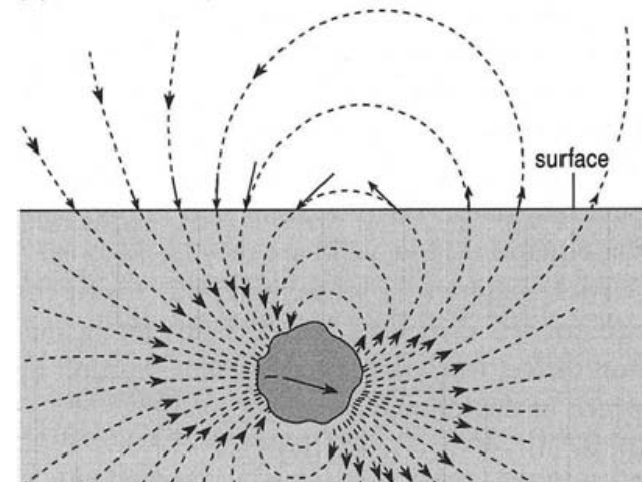
the measured **total field** derives from **adding together** the *field of the body* and the *Earth's field*:
vector addition of strengths and directions



(b) addition of fields



(c) field of body

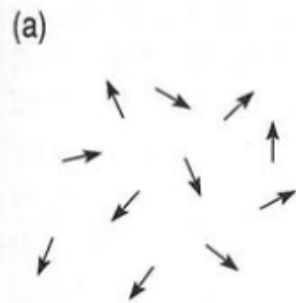
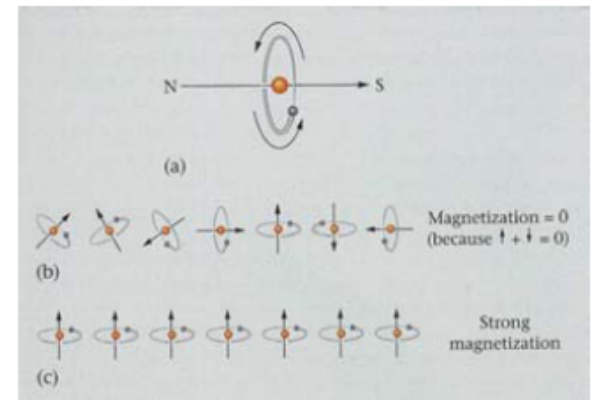


Buried: short, but powerful dipole



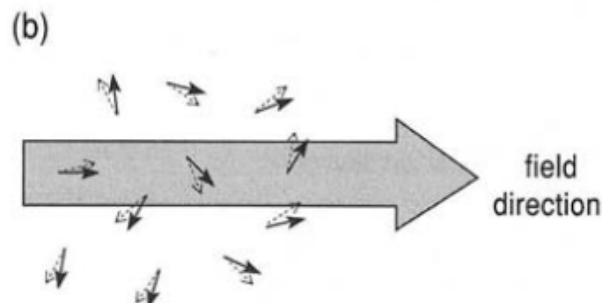
Remanent & Induced Magnetisations

remanent magnetisation: the ability to retain magnetisation in the absence of a field or in the presence of a different magnetic field



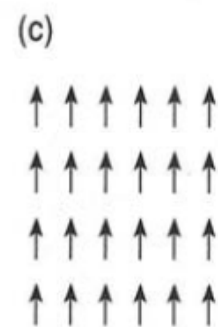
paramagnetism:
no field

alignment and hence magnetisation disappears as soon as the field is removed



paramagnetism:
field applied

field
direction



ferromagnetism

directions of the magnetisations of the magnetic atoms spontaneous align [iron materials & its compounds, e.g. magnetite]

Mineral magnetism

Mineral	Chemical formula	Saturation remanence (kA/m)	Curie temperature (°C)	Susceptibility* (rationalised SI units)
magnetite	Fe ₃ O ₄	5–50†	585	0.07–20
haematite	Fe ₂ O ₃	1	675	0.0004–0.038
maghaemite	Fe ₂ O ₃	80–85	c. 740	
goethite	FeO·OH	≤1	c. 120	
pyrrhotite	c. Fe ₇ O ₈	1–20	c. 300	0.001–6.3
(iron)	Fe		780	0.2

*Defined in Section 10.6

†All ranges, which are from various sources, are approximate.

Magnetic susceptibility (χ): the ability of a rock to become temporarily magnetised while a magnetic field is applied to it

paramagnetic materials → become magnetised only when the field is present

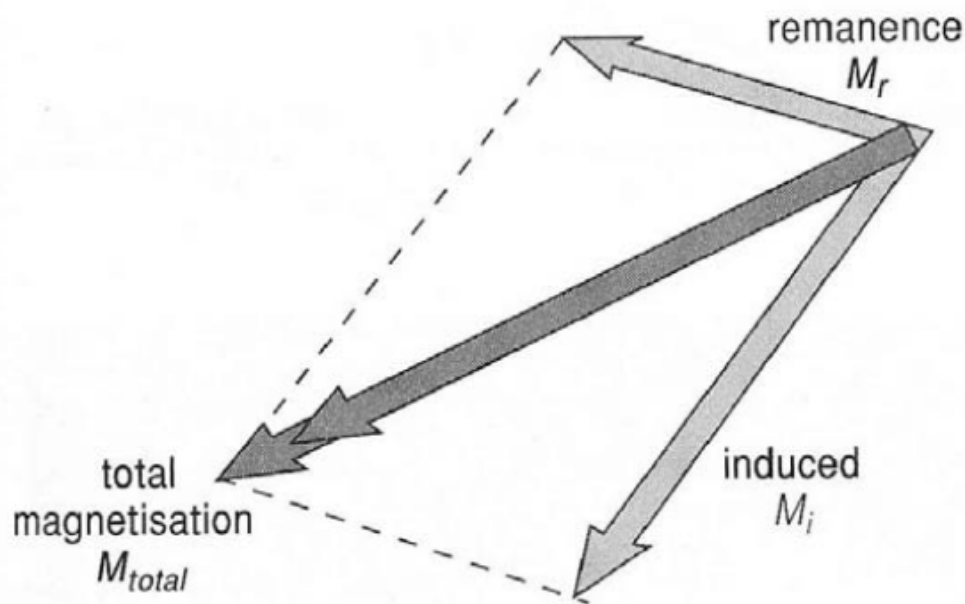
ferromagnetic materials → increase their magnetisation while a field is applied

} this temporary magnetisation is called **induced magnetisation**

$$M_i = \chi \times H$$

induced magnetization = susceptibility × field

strength of the magnetic field

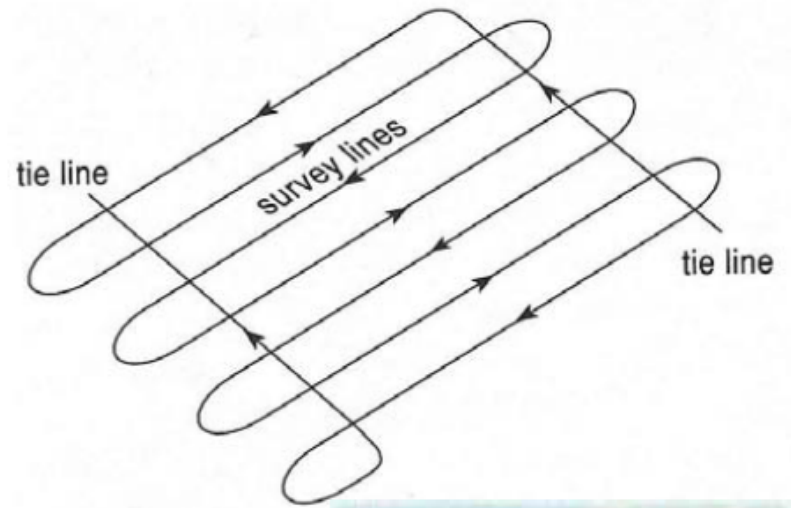
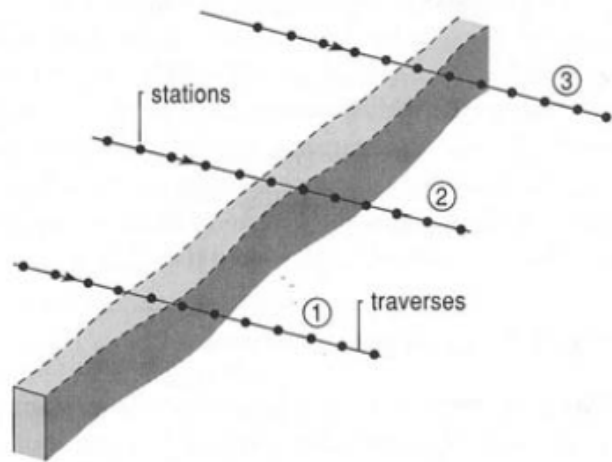


Rock type	Susceptibility (rationalised SI units)
<i>Sediments</i>	
chalk	c. 0
limestone	0.00001-0.025*
salt	-0.00001
sandstone	0-0.2
shale	0.0006-0.02
<i>Igneous and metamorphic</i>	
basalt	0.0005-0.18
gabbro	0.0008-0.08
gneiss	0-0.003
granite	0.00002-0.05
peridotite	0.09-0.2
rhyolite	0.0002-0.04
serpentinite	0.003-0.08
slate	0-0.04
<i>Other</i>	
water, ice	-0.000009

*Ranges, which are from several sources, are approximate.

Magnetic Data Acquisition

Land surveys



Aeromagnetic surveys



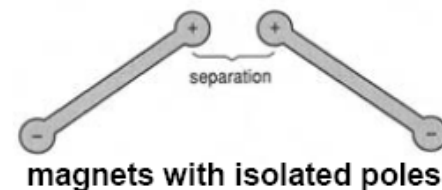
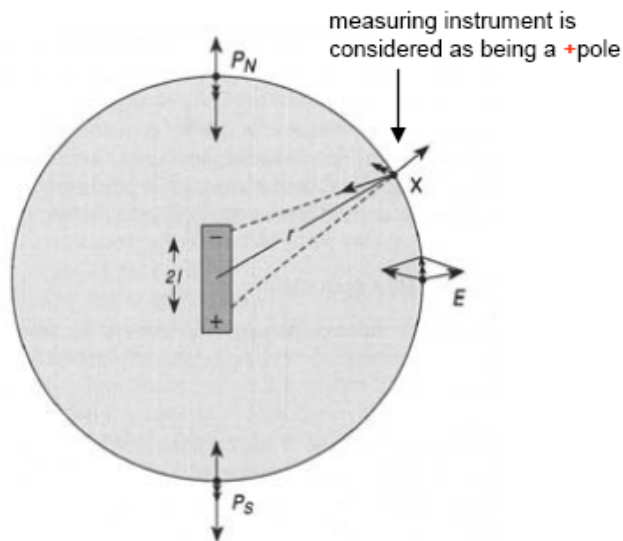
- covers large and, otherwise, inaccessible areas
- loses in resolution [due to the height of the plane]



Magnetic anomalies of simple shaped bodies

1. The field of a dipole

the field of each pole is found separately and then added



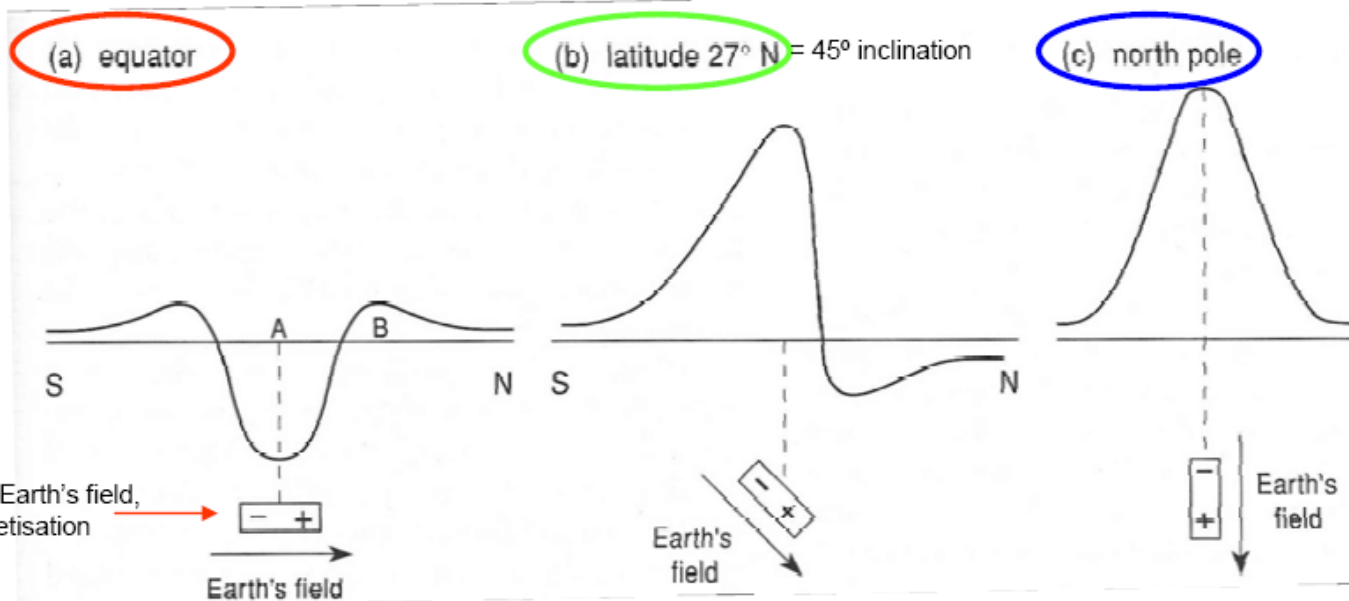
magnets with isolated poles

a magnetic body is thought of as being made of +/- magnetic poles

$$\tan I = 2 \tan \lambda$$

inclination latitude

2. Anomaly of a dipole, or small body

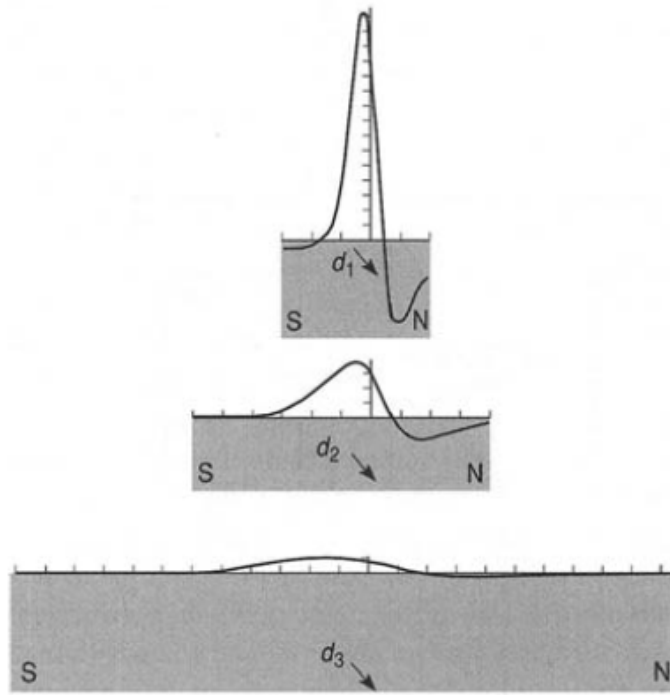


Depth of a magnetic body

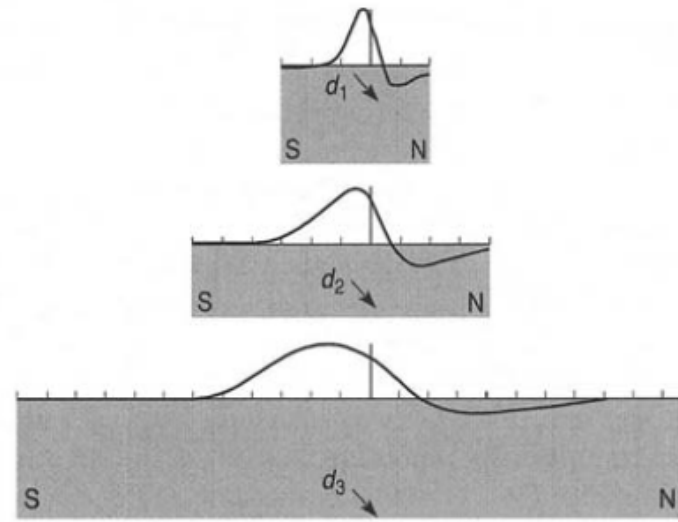
similar with gravity:

- ***the shallower a body, the sharper & larger the anomaly***
- ***the deeper the body the broader the anomaly***

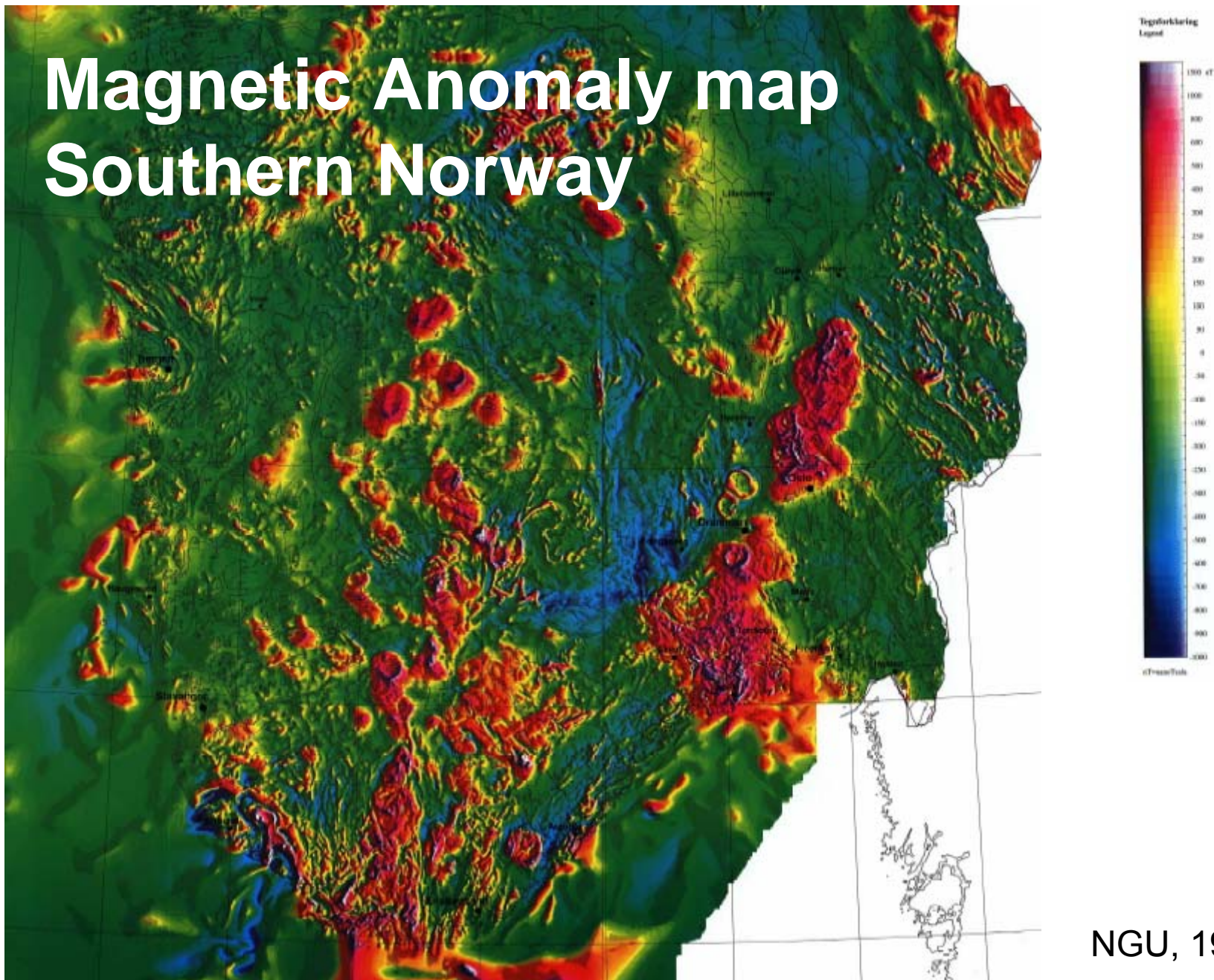
(a) actual profiles



(b) adjusted profiles



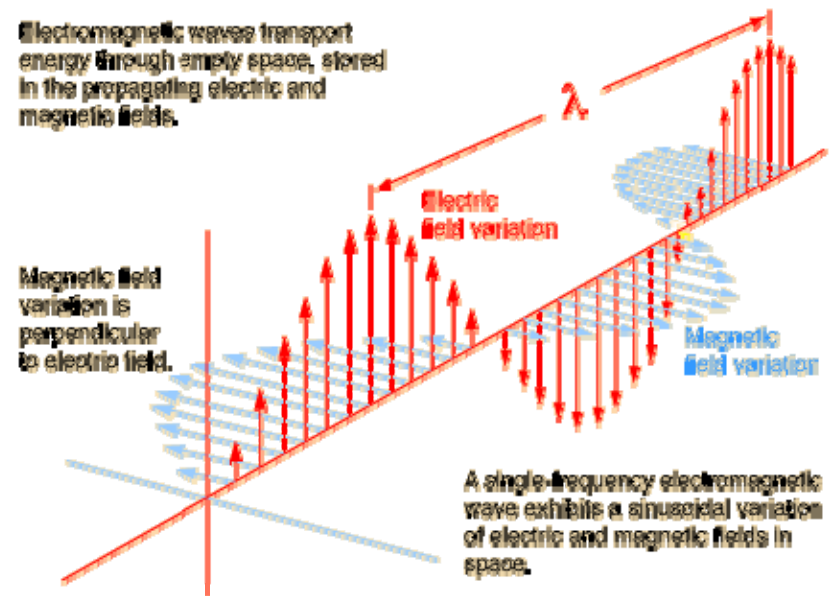
Magnetic Anomaly map Southern Norway



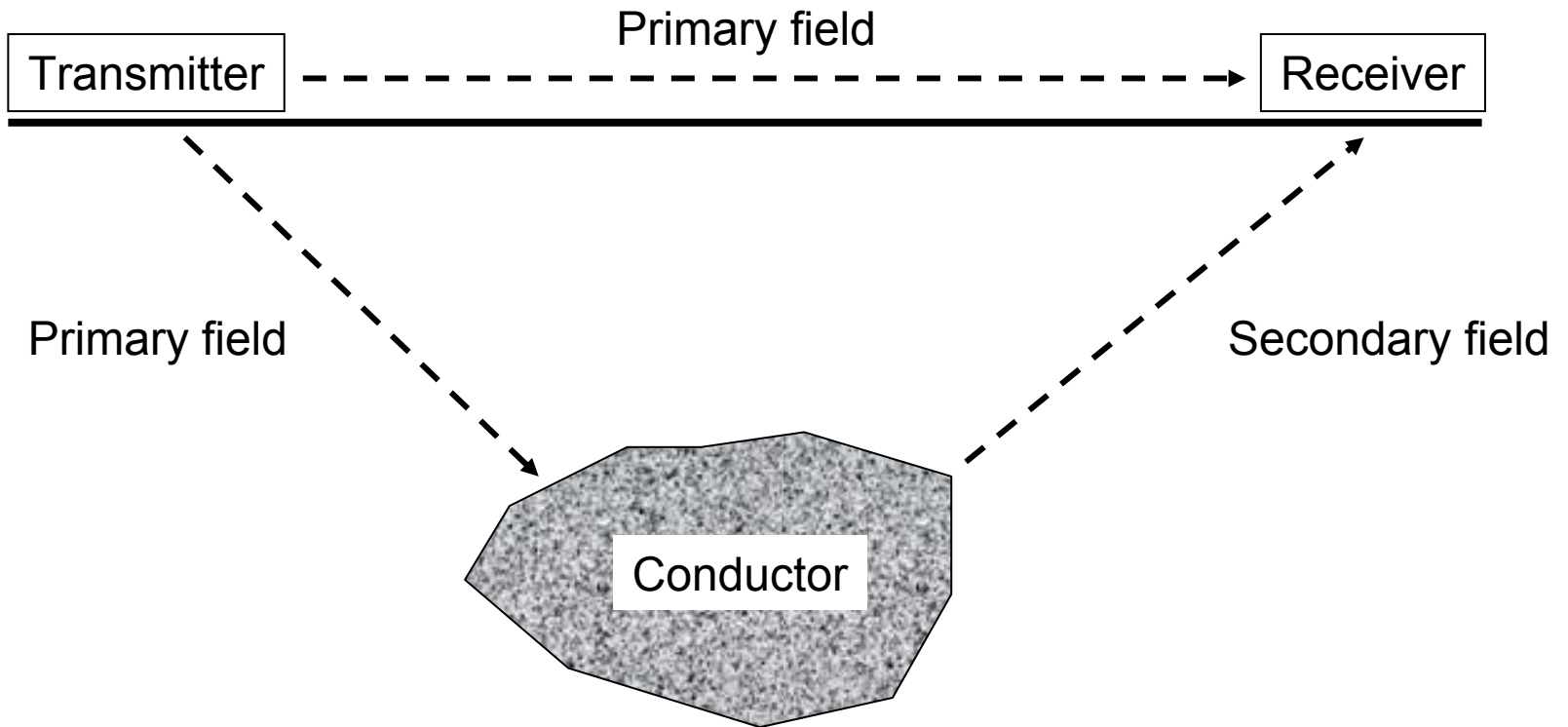
NGU, 1992

Electromagnetics

Electromagnetic methods use the response of the ground to the propagation of incident alternating electromagnetic waves, made up of two orthogonal vector components, an electrical intensity (E) and a magnetizing force (H) in a plane perpendicular to the direction of travel



Electromagnetics



Electromagnetic anomaly = Primary Field – Secondary Field

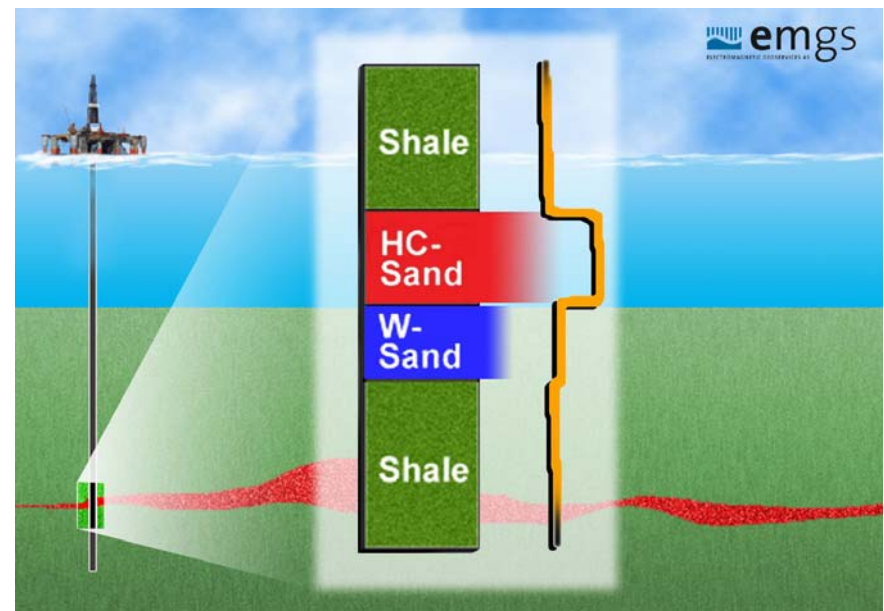
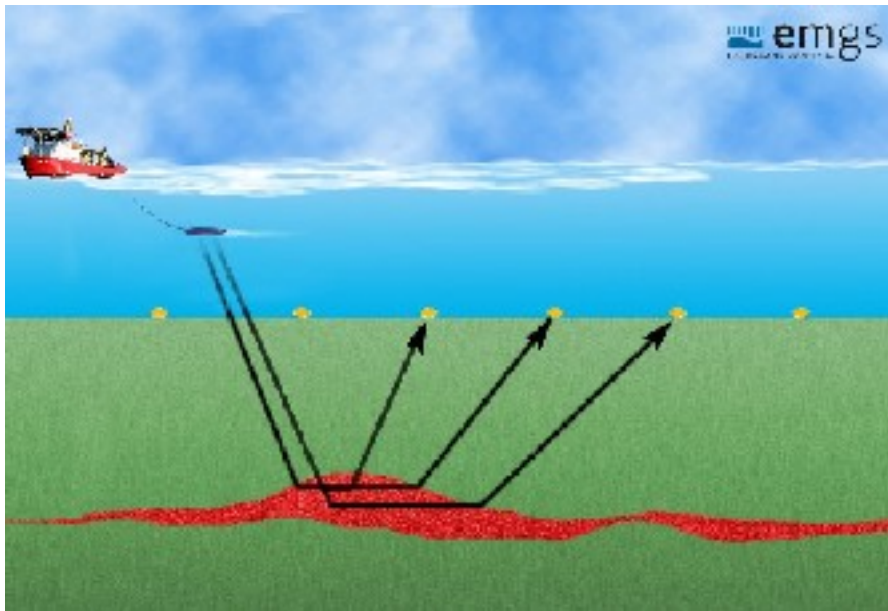
Electromagnetics – Sea Bed Logging

SBL is a marine electromagnetic method that has the ability to map the subsurface resistivity remotely from the seafloor.

The basis of SBL is the use of a mobile horizontal electric dipole (HED) source transmitting a low frequency electromagnetic signal and an array of seafloor electric field receivers.

A hydrocarbon filled reservoir will typically have high resistivity compared with shale and a water filled reservoirs.

SBL therefore has the unique potential of distinguishing between a hydrocarbon filled and a water filled reservoir



Reflection Seismology

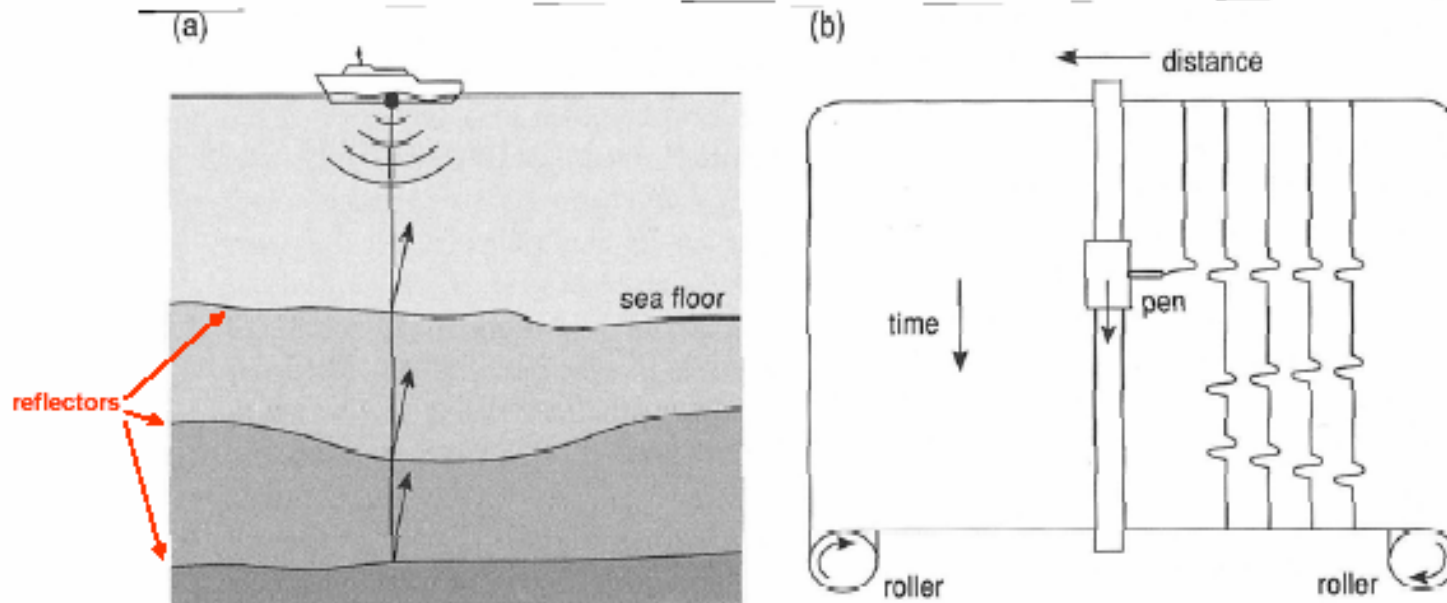
- Principle of reflection seismology
 - What is reflection seismology
 - Seismic wave propagation
 - Acquisition – collecting seismic data
 - Processing
- Limitations and Pitfalls
 - Resolution (Horizontal and Vertical)
 - Velocity Effects (Seismic velocities – Depth Conversion)
 - Geometrical Effects (Migration)
 - Seismic Modelling (Synthetic seismograms)
- 2D vs. 3D seismic reflection

Reflection Seismology

Reflection Seismology

- most important tool for **2D/3D mapping of subsurface**
[reveals layering, structural features such as faulting & folding]
- extensively used by the **oil & gas industry** to search for hydrocarbon fields

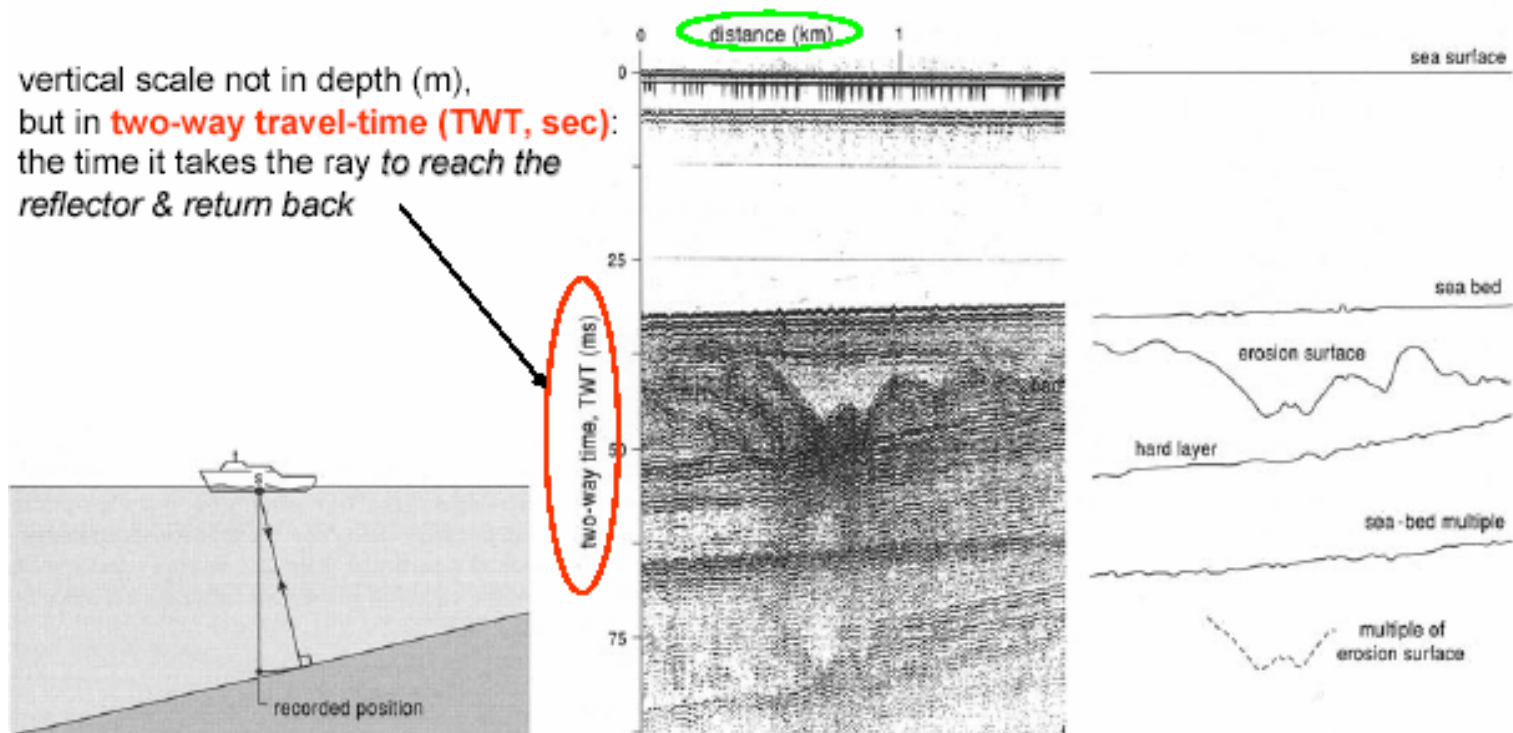
Reflection seismology can be considered as echo or depth sounding & it is easier performed at **sea** than on **land**



Reflection Seismology

Reflection seismics output: seismic section (seismic reflection profile)

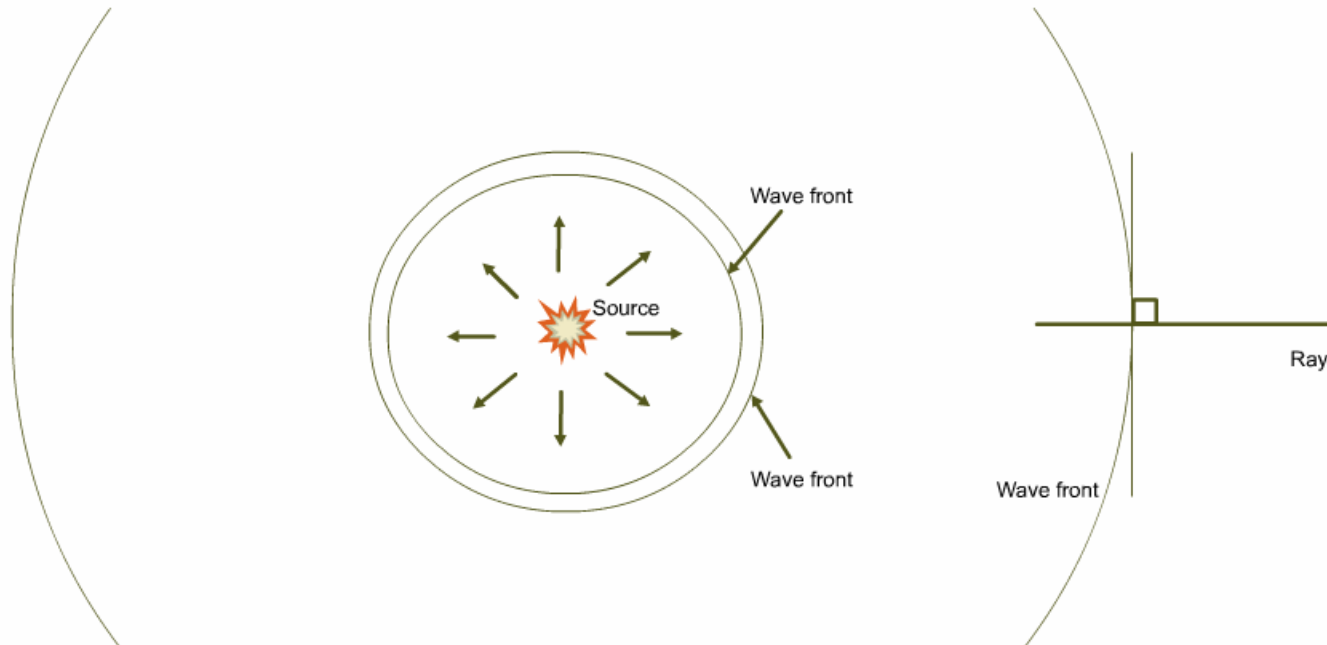
vertical scale not in depth (m),
but in **two-way travel-time (TWT, sec)**:
the time it takes the ray to reach the
reflector & return back



one of the problems: reflections may not come directly below the source,
since they reflect at right angle to the interface, but the recording takes
no account of this

Reflection Seismology

Seismic waves can be considered both as energy distributed along wave fronts, and as rays. In an isotropic (same velocity in all directions) and homogeneous medium the energy will propagate spherically from the source.

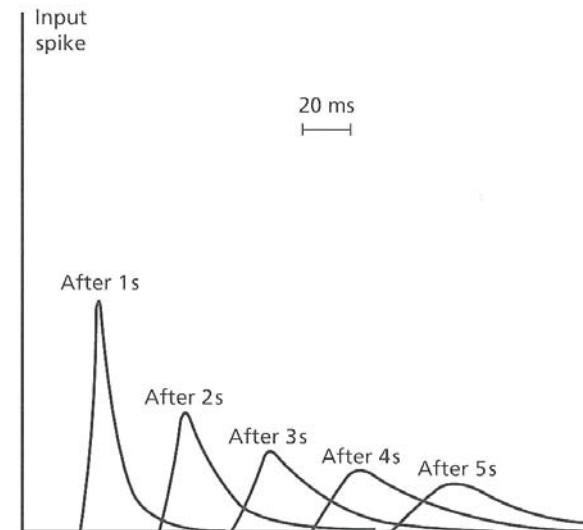
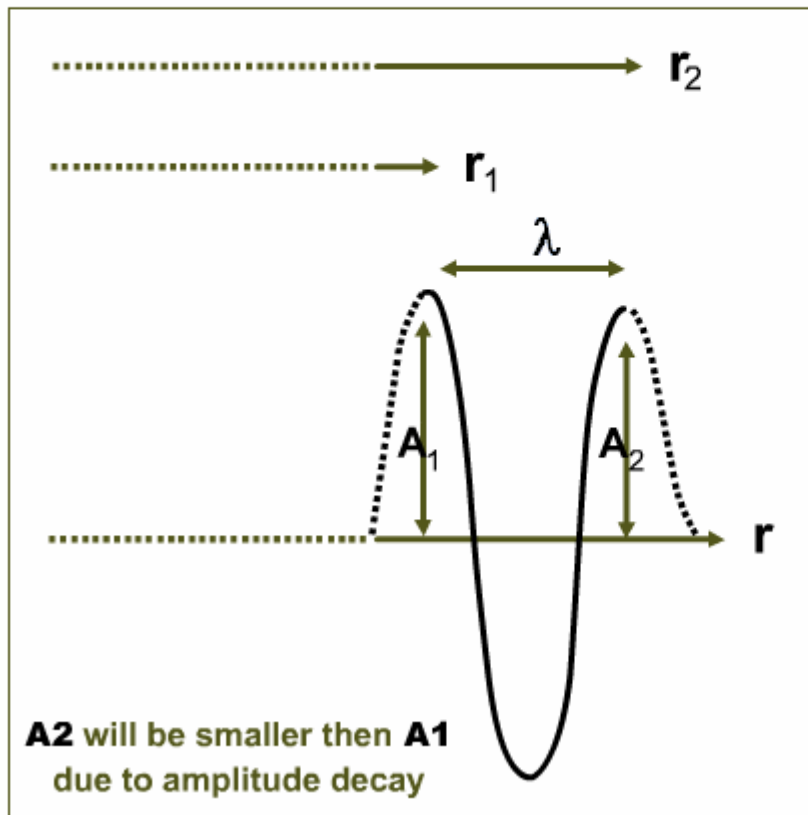


The seismic wave along one wave front has always the same phase. At large distance from the source the wave front is close to planar, and the wave is called a plane wave.

The seismic ray points in the direction of propagation and is perpendicular to the wave front in isotropic media

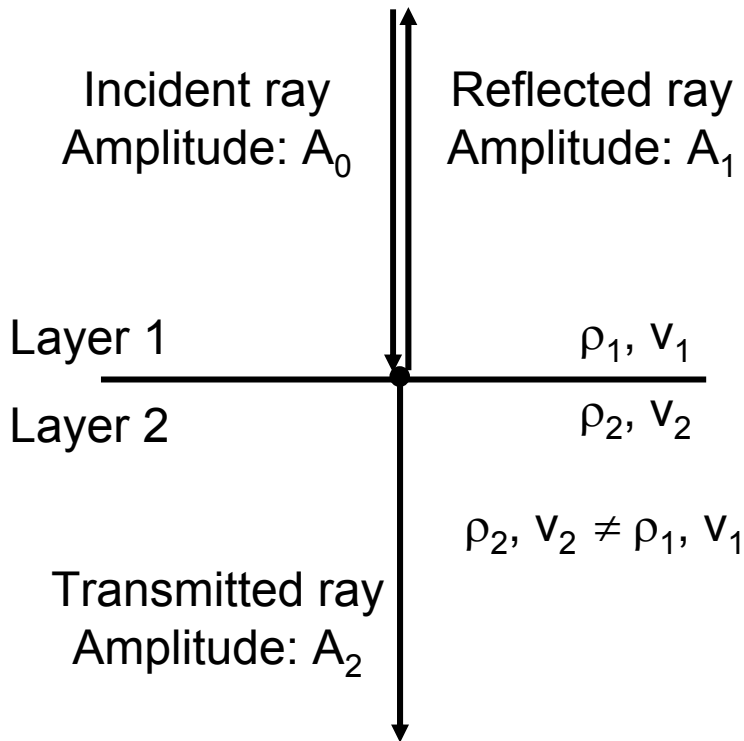
Reflection Seismology

The amplitude of a seismic waves decays due to spherical spreading, as the energy in the wave is distributed along a wave front increasing steadily in size, absorption, which is friction in the rock as the wave propagates, and reflections and P-S conversions at each interface.



- Spherical spreading
- Absorption
- Transmission/conversion

Reflection Seismology



Acoustic Impedance: $Z = \rho \cdot v$

Reflection Coefficient: $R = A_1/A_0$

$$R = \frac{\rho_2 v_2 - \rho_1 v_1}{\rho_2 v_2 + \rho_1 v_1} = \frac{Z_2 - Z_1}{Z_2 + Z_1}$$

Transmission Coefficient: $T = A_2/A_0$

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

$$-1 \leq R \leq 1$$

$R = 0 \rightarrow$ All incident energy transmitted ($Z_1=Z_2$) \rightarrow no reflection

$R = -1$ or $+1 \rightarrow$ All incident energy reflected \rightarrow strong reflection

$R < 0 \rightarrow$ Phase change (180°) in reflected wave

Reflection Seismology

reflected energy: R^2
transmitted energy: T^2

$$R^2 + T^2 = 1$$

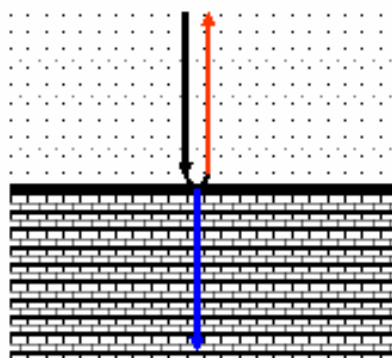


Table 7.1 Seismic velocities and densities either side of an interface

Rock	Range of velocity, v_p	Range of density, ρ
Upper layer: sandstone	2 to 6 km/sec	2.05 to 2.55 Mg/m ³
Lower layer: limestone	2 to 6 km/sec	2.60 to 2.80 Mg/m ³

$$R = \frac{(2.80 \times 6) - (2.05 \times 2)}{(2.80 \times 6) + (2.05 \times 2)} = 0.608 \quad \& \quad \text{reflected energy} = 0.608^2 = 0.37$$

(strong reflector with 37% of energy reflected)

If top & lower layers have the same acoustic impedance then:

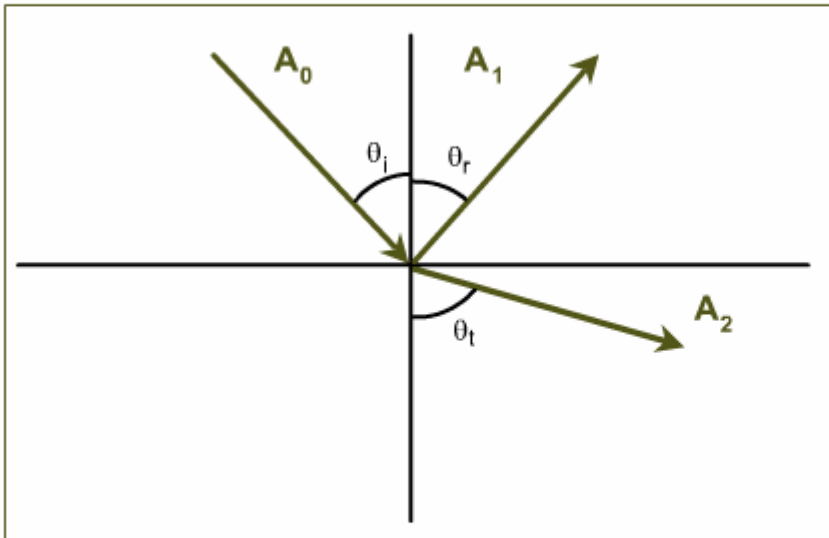
$$R = \frac{(2.64 \times 3) - (2.40 \times 3.3)}{(2.64 \times 3) + (2.40 \times 3.3)} = 0$$

- meaning that although there is a lithological boundary there is no seismic reflector
- rare to have similar acoustic impedance [more common weak reflection]
- geological interface \neq seismic interface

Reflection Seismology

The angle with which the reflected wave departs from an interface is equal to the incoming angle.

teta r = teta i



The transmitted wave is refracted according to Snell's law.....

Snell's Law

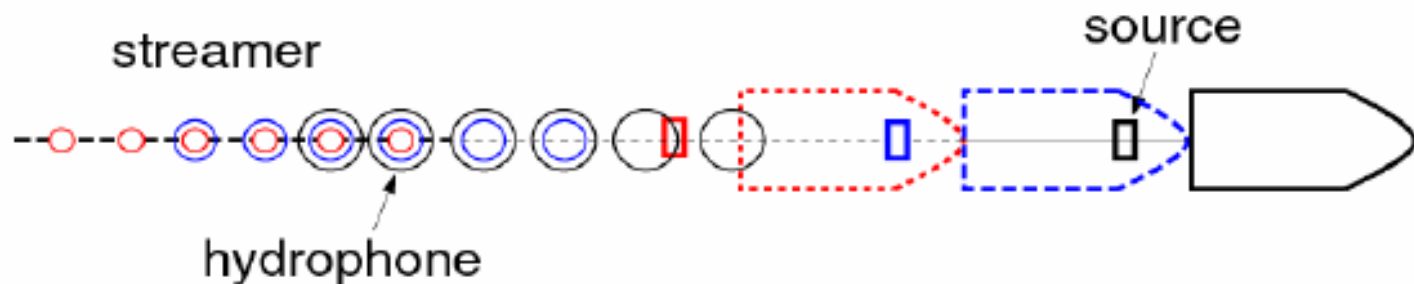
$$\frac{\sin\theta_t}{V_t} = \frac{\sin\theta_i}{V_i} \quad \frac{\sin\theta_r}{V_r} = \frac{\sin\theta_i}{V_i}$$

When the transmitted wave propagates along the interface, the incoming angle is called critical angle, and the transmitted wave is called head wave. In case of a velocity gradient in the layer, the wave will 'dive' within this layer (diving wave).

Reflection Seismology

SEISMIC REFLECTION SURVEYING: Data Acquisition

2D Multi-channel Reflection Surveying: Marine Surveys



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[Seismic source 1234](#)

[Seismic receiver 1234](#)

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OCEAN BOTTOM SEISMICS

4D SEISMICS

Acquisition – Seismic source 1 of 4

Marine seismic surveys use air guns to send out the seismic signal. An air-gun works by releasing air under high pressure (140 bar) into the water. The air-gun is towed, usually in an array with other guns, 5-15 m depth behind the ship.

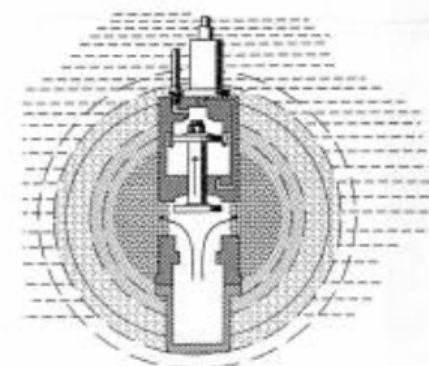
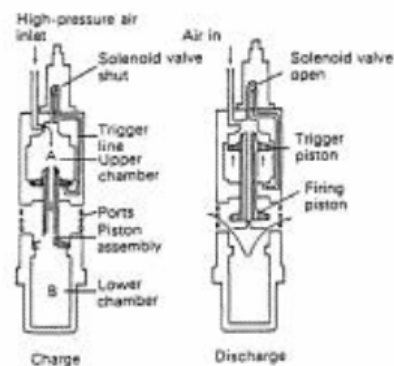
The high pressured air is generated by a compressor on the ship, and the timing of the shot comes from the navigation system via a gun controller.

The high-pressured air is stored in two chambers inside the air-gun (see figure).

The firing signal is sent as an electric signal to the magnetic sensor on the air-gun. Air is released under the upper piston causing the air in the lowermost chamber to be released instantaneously as an explosion.

When the shot has been fired, a signal is sent from the magnetic sensor to the gun controller.

If the shot was not fired at exactly zero time, the gun controller will adjust the shot-time for the next shot.



Seismic data – How it works

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4D SEISMICS

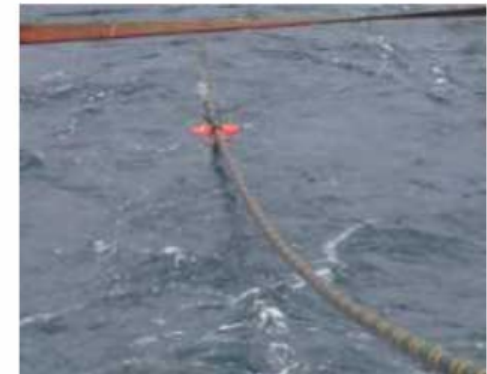
Acquisition – Seismic receiver 2 of 4

The streamer lead signals from the receivers to the registration instruments.

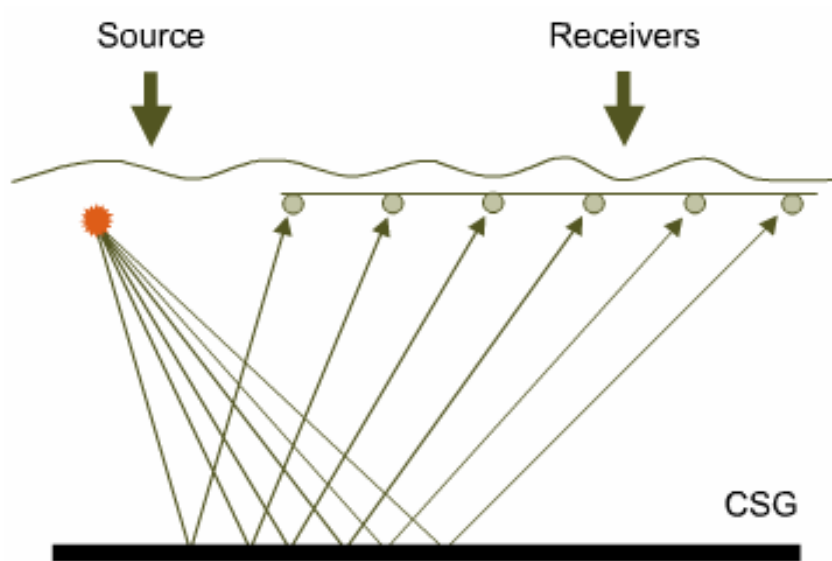
The components of a streamer-system (advanced):

- Deck-cable from recording laboratory to the reel.
- Cable reel.
- Lead-in cable.
- Depressor paravane; weight.
- Compliant section. This is a stretch section to reduce drag in the streamer.
- Active streamer: 2.5-12 km long, divided in 100 m sections with hydrophones coupled in series and parallel; group length 6.25, 12.5, 25 or 50 m. The skin of the streamer is flexible, and it is filled with oil to assure natural buoyancy. Thin steel cables inside provide strength.
- Compliant section.
- Towing cable.
- Tail-buoy with radar reflector and navigation system.
- 10-15 birds with compass are distributed along the streamer. These measure and adjust the depth of the streamer.

Modern 3-D vessels can handle up to 20 streamers, with 25-100 m spacing towed behind the boat.



Reflection Seismology

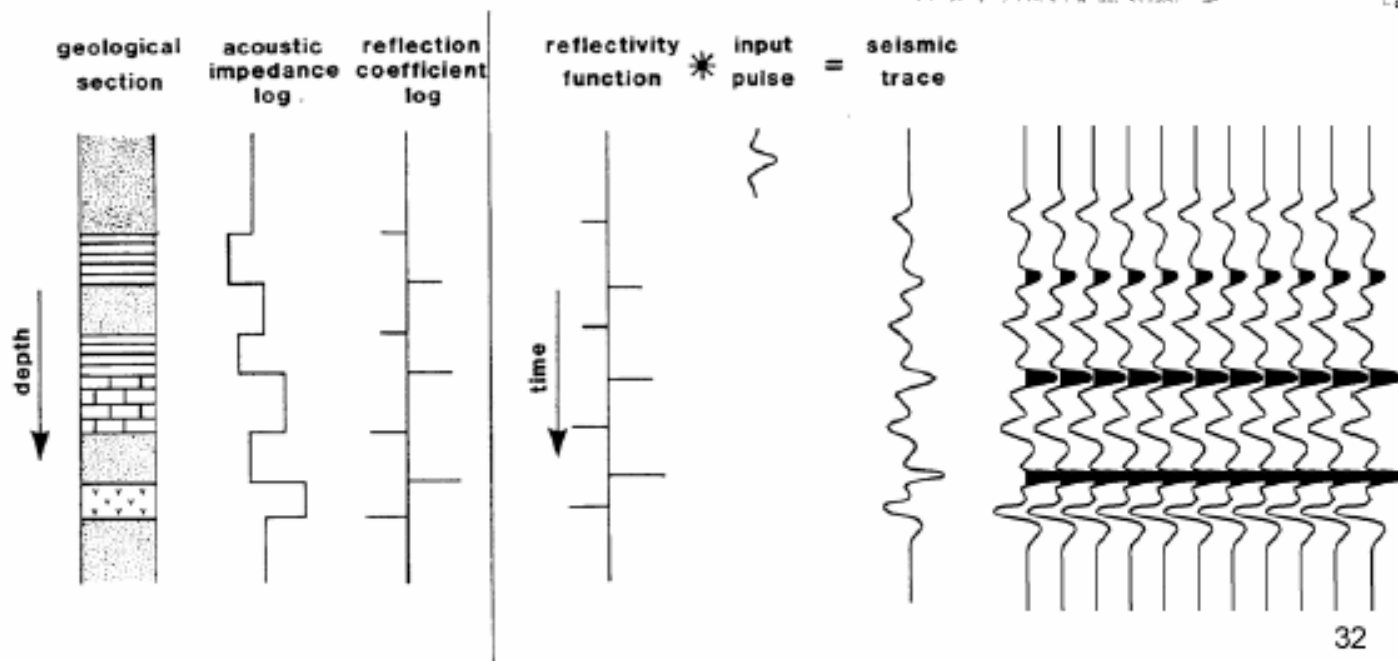
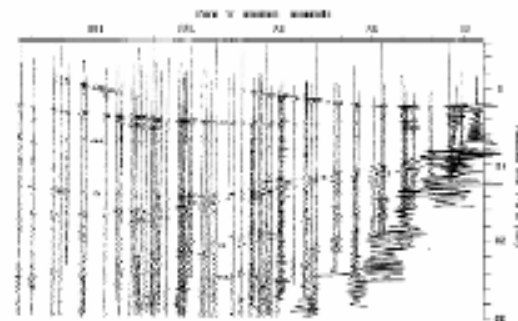


- Shotpoint interval 60 seconds
- 25-120 receivers
- Sampling rate 4 milliseconds
- Normal seismic line ca. 8 sTWT

Reflection Seismology

SEISMIC TRACE (REFLECTION SEISMOGRAM)

Seismic trace:
*amplified oscillographic recording of
 each detector (geo-/ hydro-phone)*



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NMO

NMO correction

Stacking

Scheme

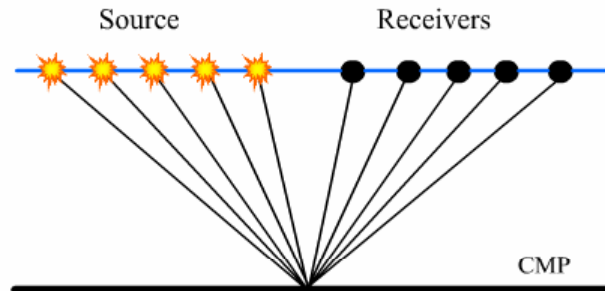
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OCEAN BOTTOM SEISMICS

4D SEISMICS

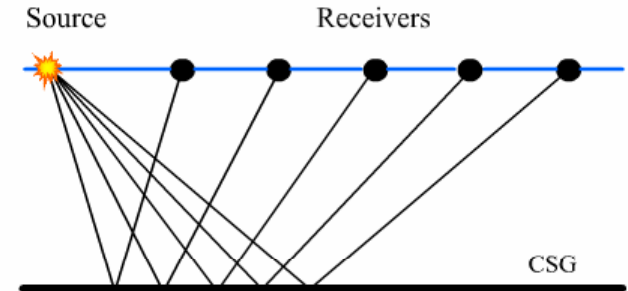
Processing – CMP - CSG

Common Shot Gather and Common Mid-Point are two essential terms used in seismic processing. Look at the animations below to understand how it works.



CMP animation

CSG: Common Shot Gather, all seismic traces recorded from one shot.



CSG animation

CMP: Common Mid-Point Gather, all seismic traces from subsequent shots rearranged in order to map the same point; the mid point between shot and receiver.

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- NMO correction*
- Stacking*
- Scheme*

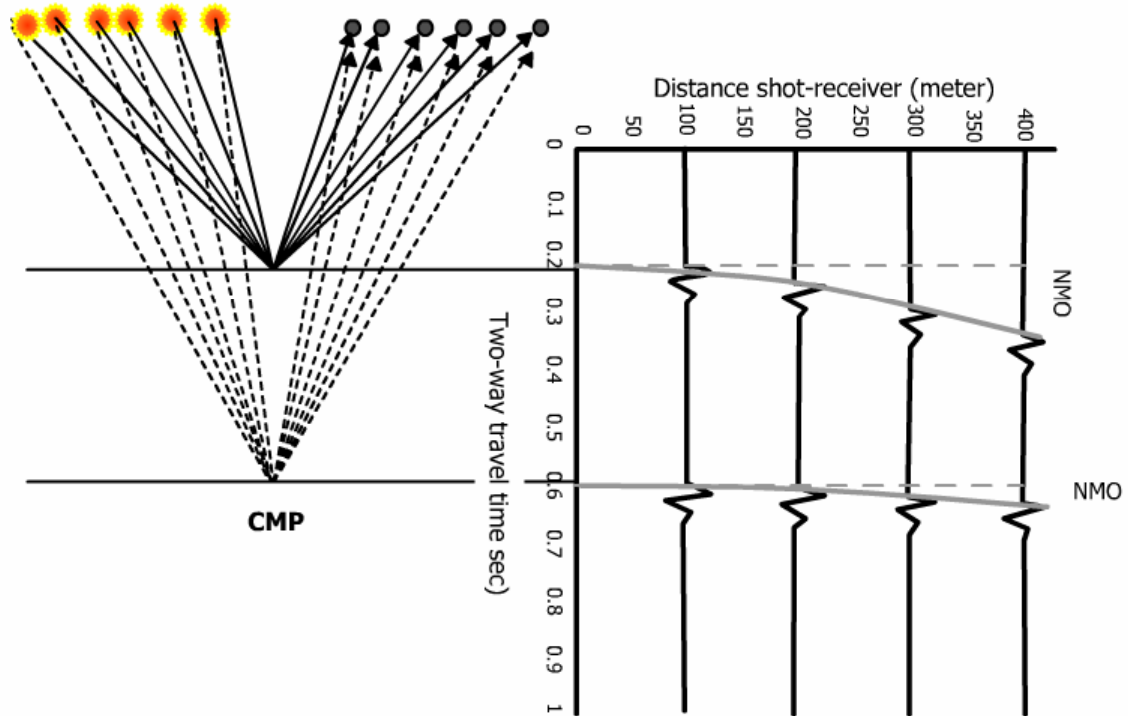
Interpretation

OCEAN BOTTOM SEISMICS

4D SEISMICS

Processing – NMO

The figure shows an example of a CMP-gather, containing reflections from two reflectors recorded by four channels (assuming straight ray-paths). The figure shows that increasing the shot-receiver distance, increases the travel-time. The difference between (assumed) vertical two-way travel-time and observed travel-time is called normal-move-out (NMO).



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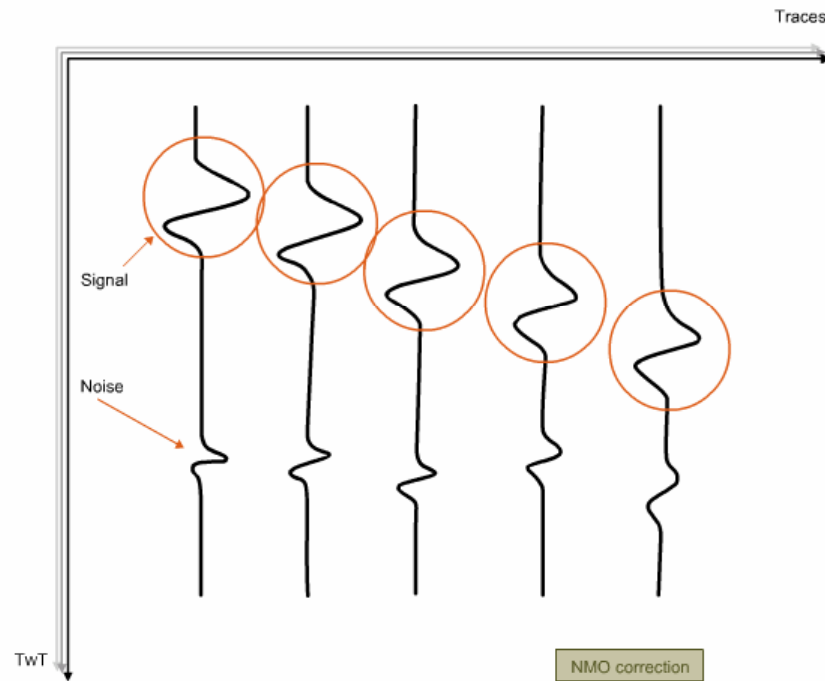
Scheme

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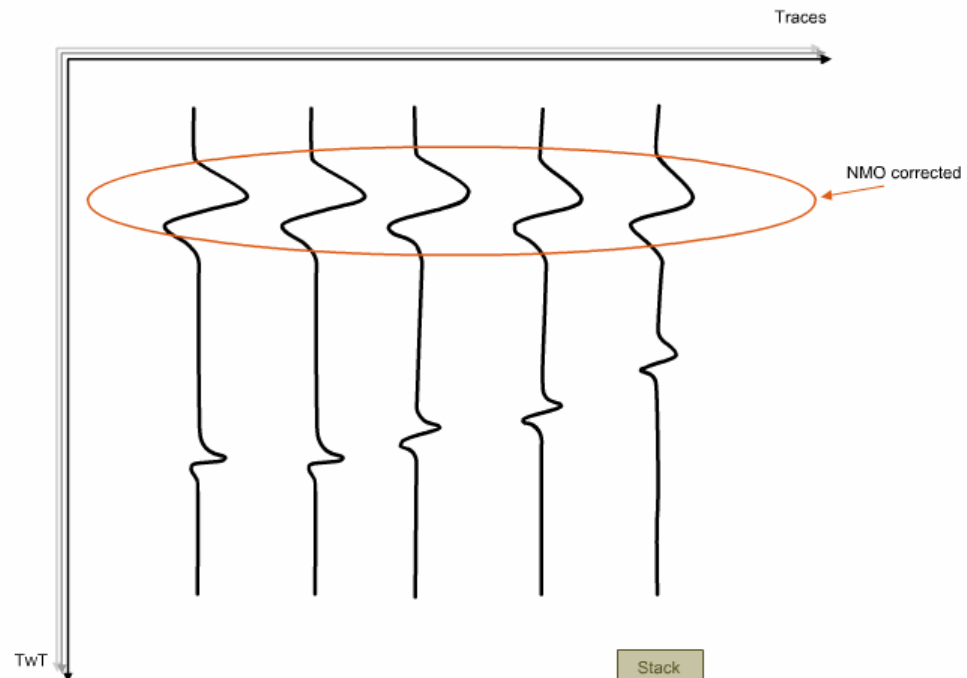
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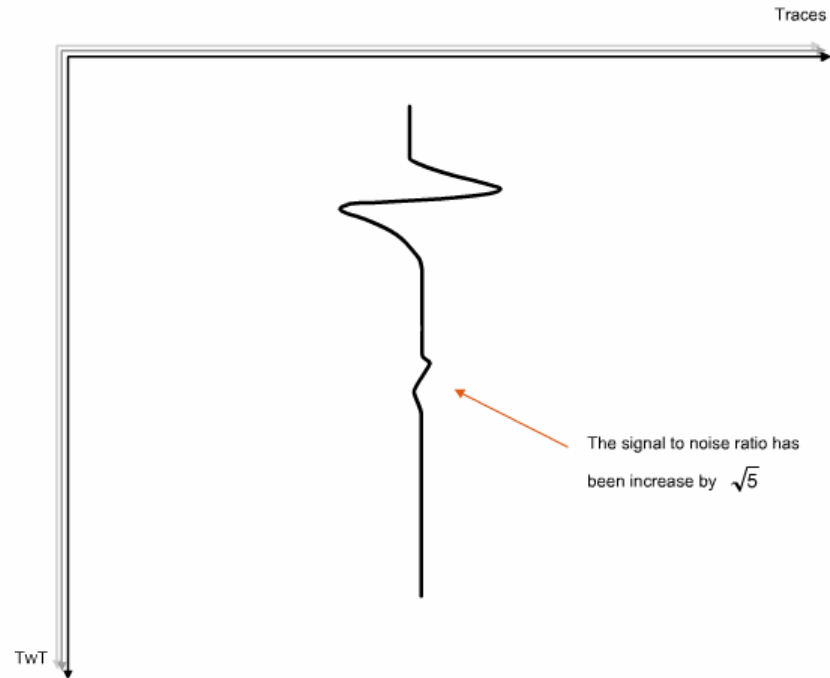
Scheme

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OCEAN BOTTOM SEISMICS

4D SEISMICS

Processing – Stacking



Reflection Seismology

- SEISMIC PROSESSING
 - The objective of seismic prosessing is to enhance the signal-to-noise ration by means of e.g. filtering

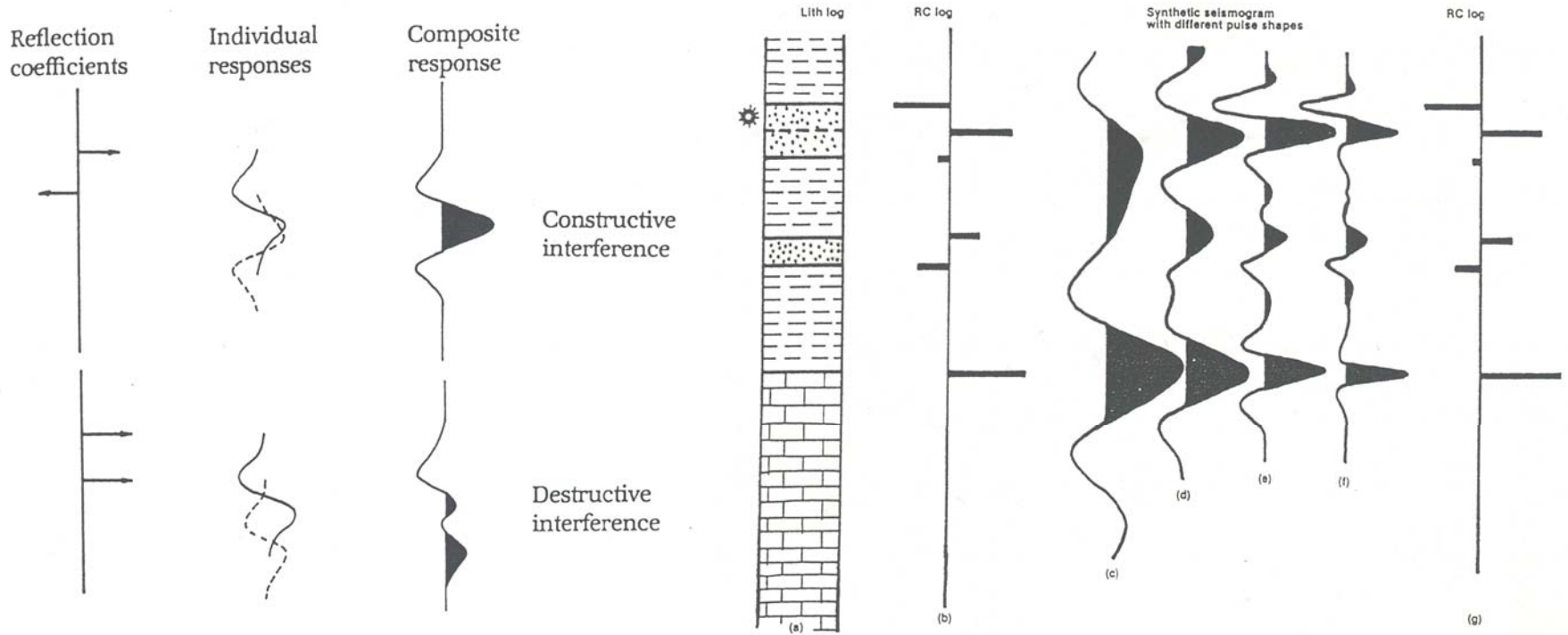
Reflection Seismology

- Limitations and Pitfalls
 - Interference
 - Horizontal and Vertical Resolution
 - Velocity Effects
 - Geometrical Effects
 - Multiples

INTERFERENCE

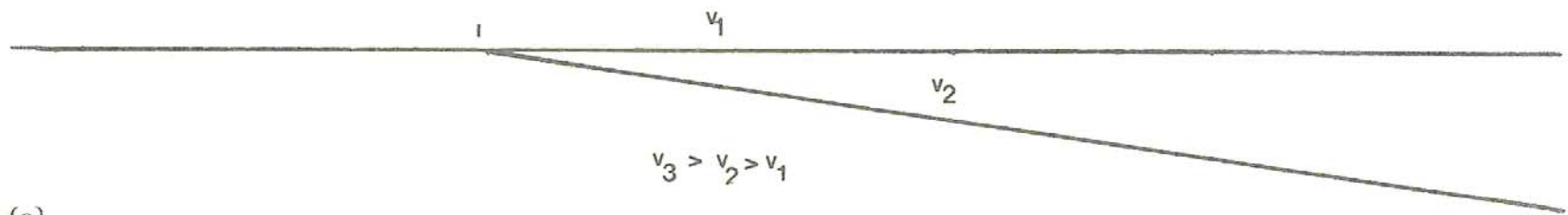
Reflection Seismology

Interference

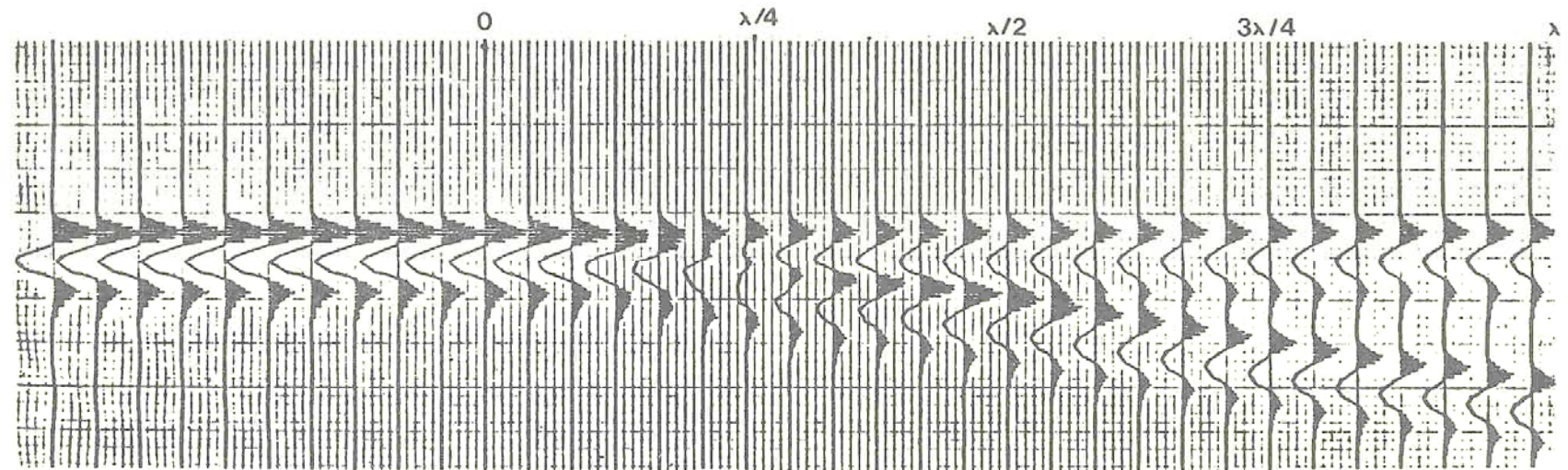


Reflection Seismology

Interference



(a)



(b)

VERTICAL RESOLUTION

Reflection Seismology

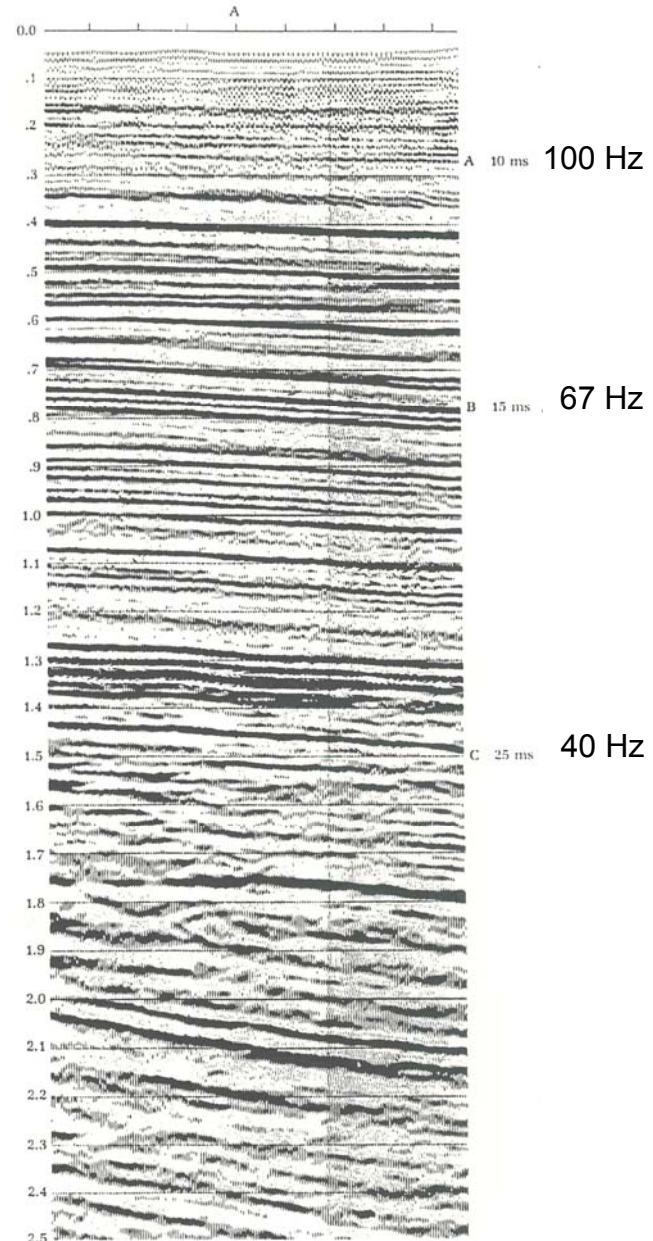
Wavelength increases
Frequency decreases

> with depth

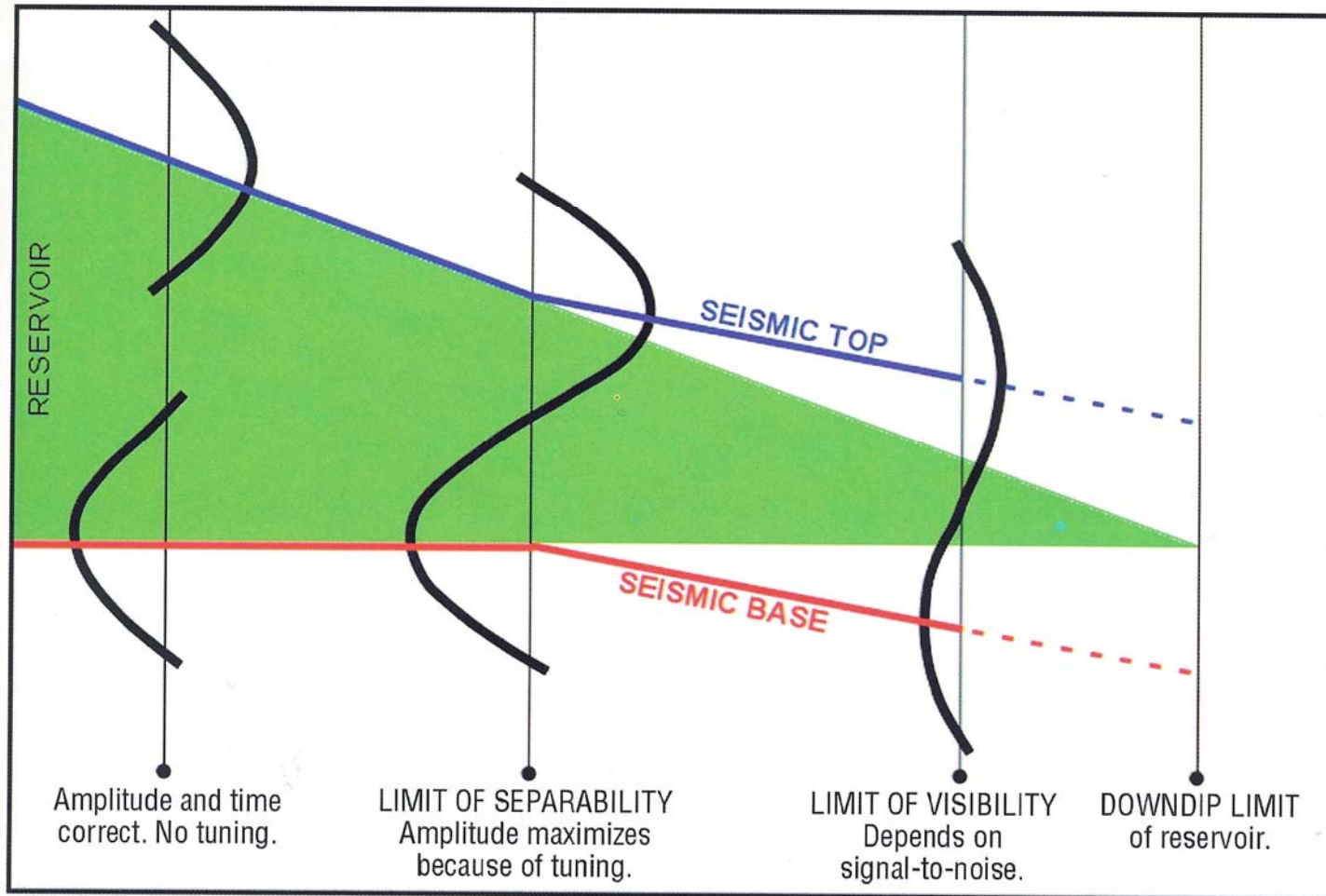


Reduced vertical resolution

f	v	λ	$\lambda/4$	z
100 Hz	2 km/s	20 m	5 m	~250 m
40 Hz	4 km/s	100 m	25 m	~2250 m



Reflection Seismology



(Brown 1999)

Reflection Seismology

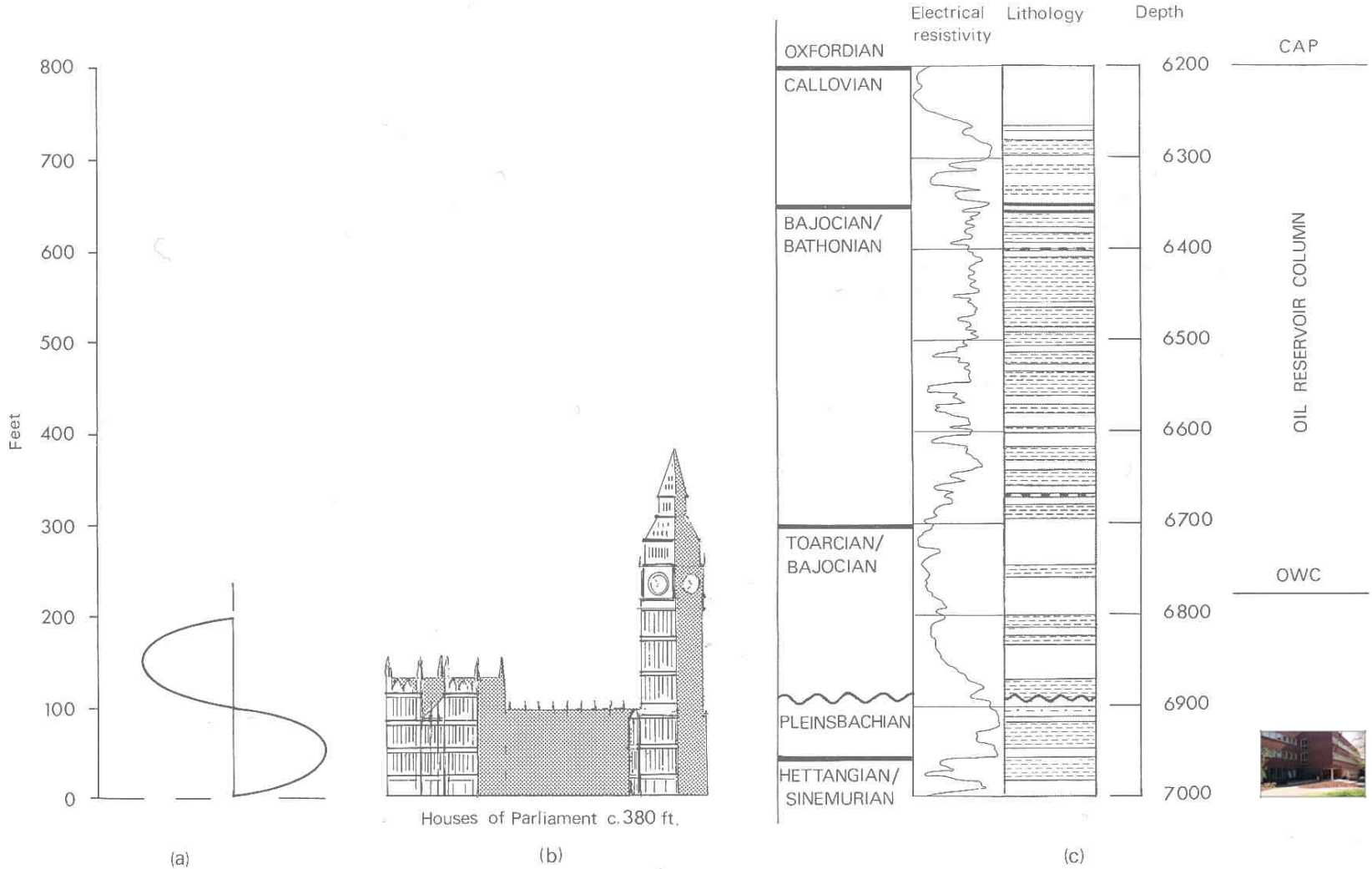
Table 1-1. Typical Limits of Visibility and Separability for a range of geologic situations.

		Age of rocks	VERY YOUNG	YOUNG	MEDIUM	OLD	VERY OLD	
		Depth of target	VERY SHALLOW	SHALLOW	MEDIUM	DEEP	VERY DEEP	
		Formation Velocity (m/s)	1600	2000	3500	5000	6000	
		Predominant Frequency (Hz)	70	50	35	25	20	
		Wavelength (m)	λ	23	40	100	200	300
		LIMIT OF SEPARABILITY	$\frac{\lambda}{4}$	6	10	25	50	75
LIMIT OF VISIBILITY	Poor S/N	e.g. Water sand poor data	$\sim \frac{\lambda}{8}$	3	5	13	25	38
	Moderate S/N	e.g. Water or oil sand fairly good data	$\sim \frac{\lambda}{12}$	2	3	8	17	25
	High S/N	e.g. Gas sand good data	$\sim \frac{\lambda}{20}$	1	2	5	10	15
	Outstanding S/N	e.g. Gas sand excellent data	$\sim \frac{\lambda}{30}$	<1	1	3	7	10

units are meters

(Brown 1999)

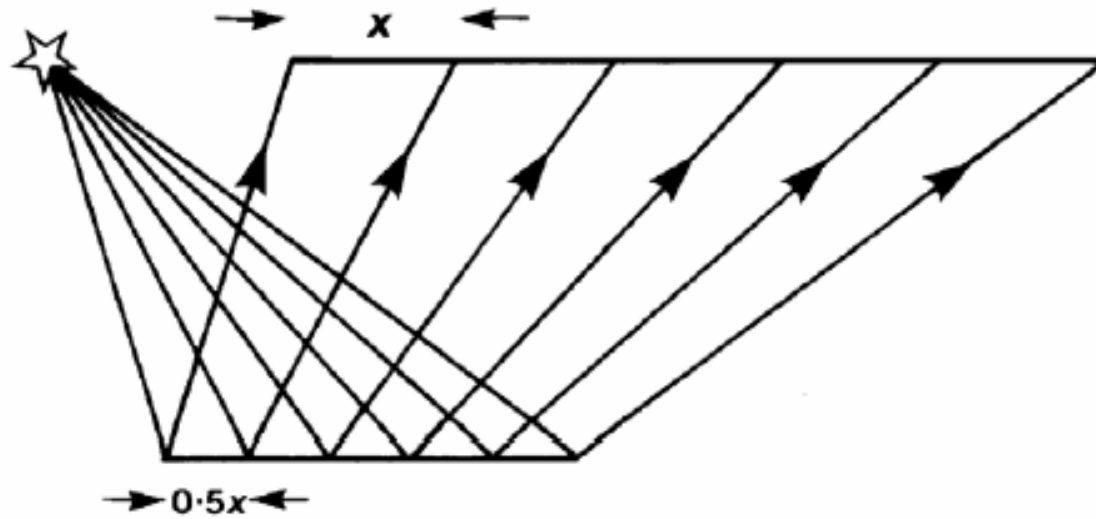
Reflection Seismology



HORIZONTAL RESOLUTION

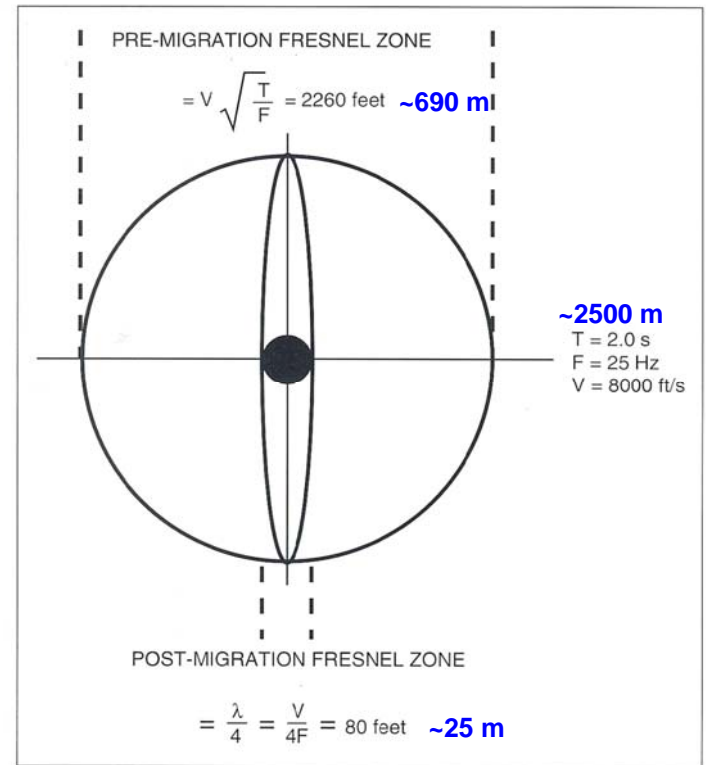
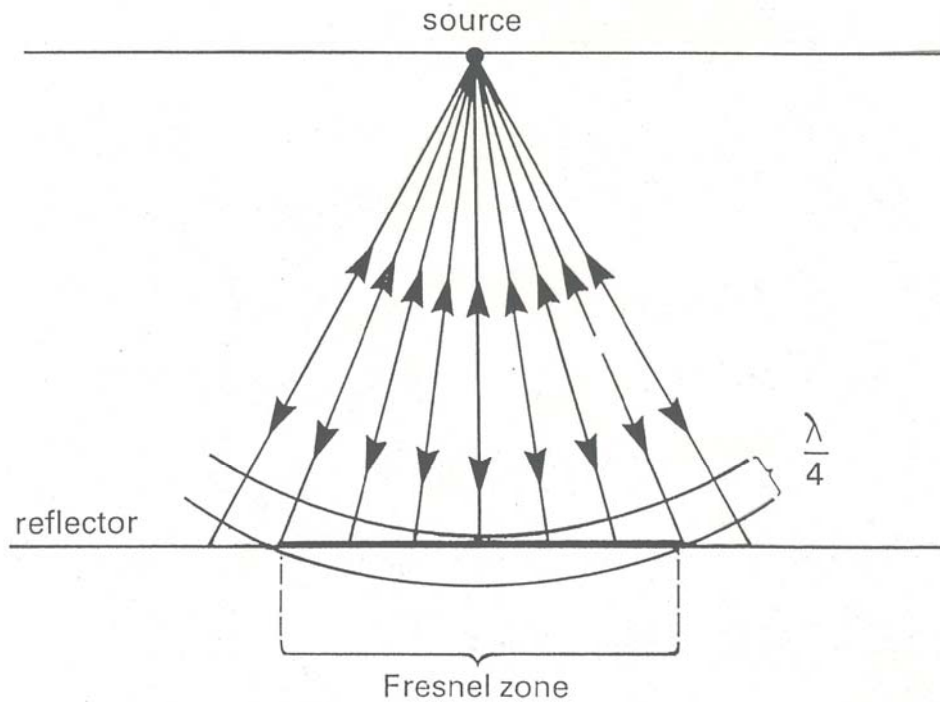
Reflection Seismology

Horizontal Resolution

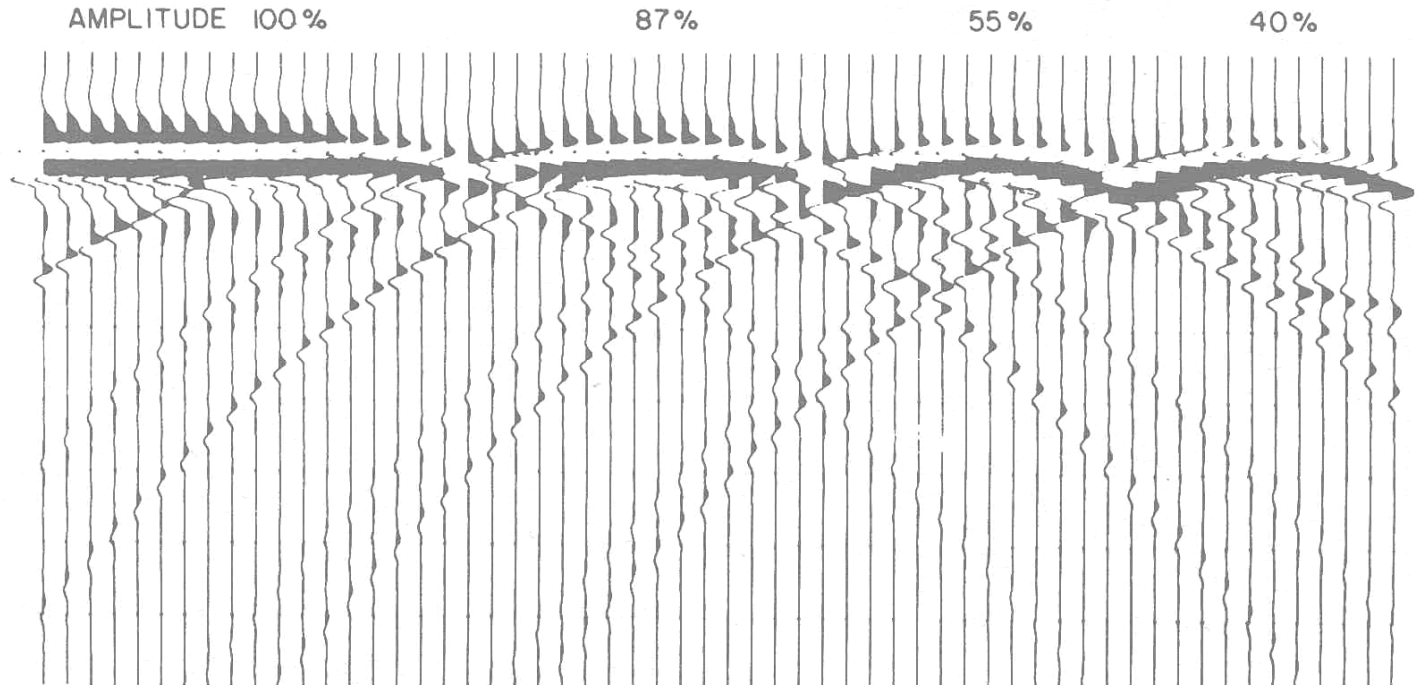
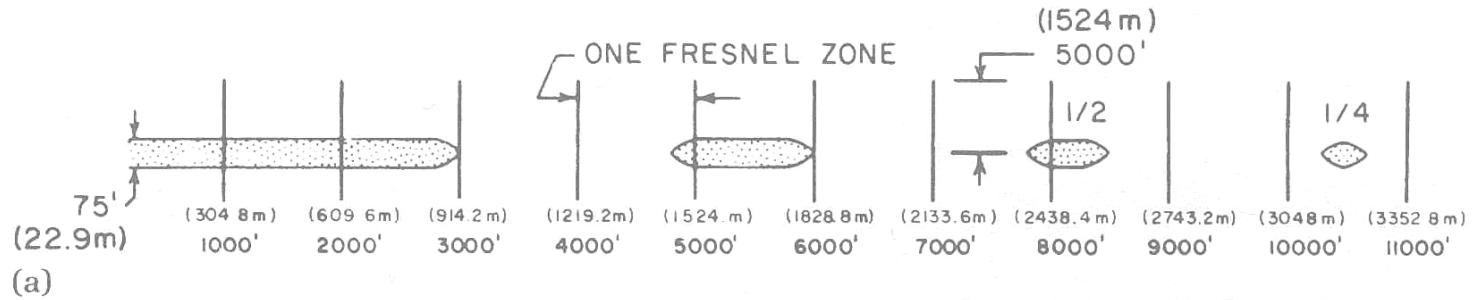


Horizontal Resolution = half the detector spacing

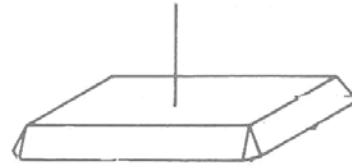
Reflection Seismology



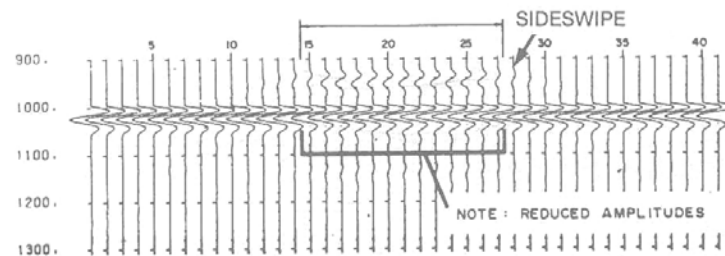
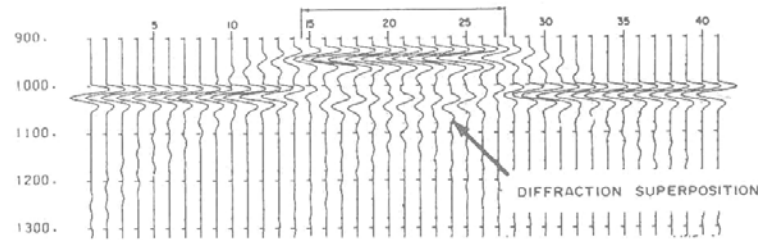
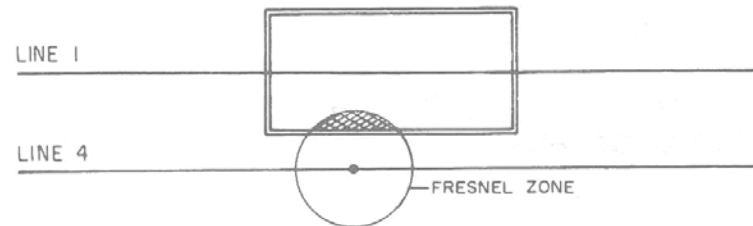
Reflection Seismology



Reflection Seismology



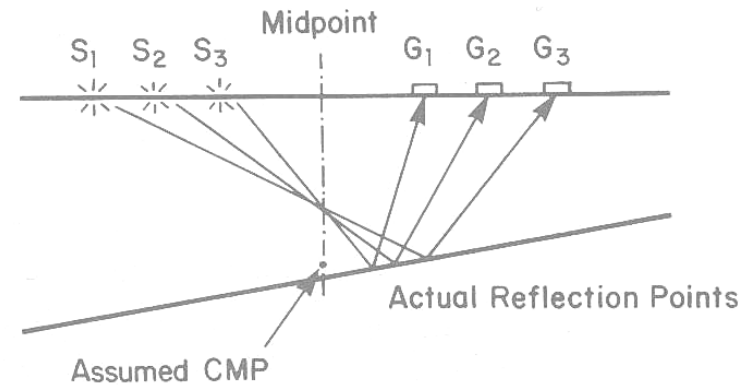
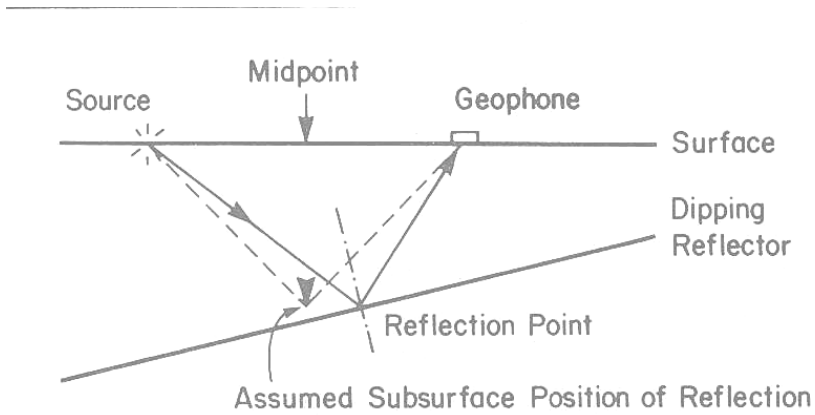
(a)



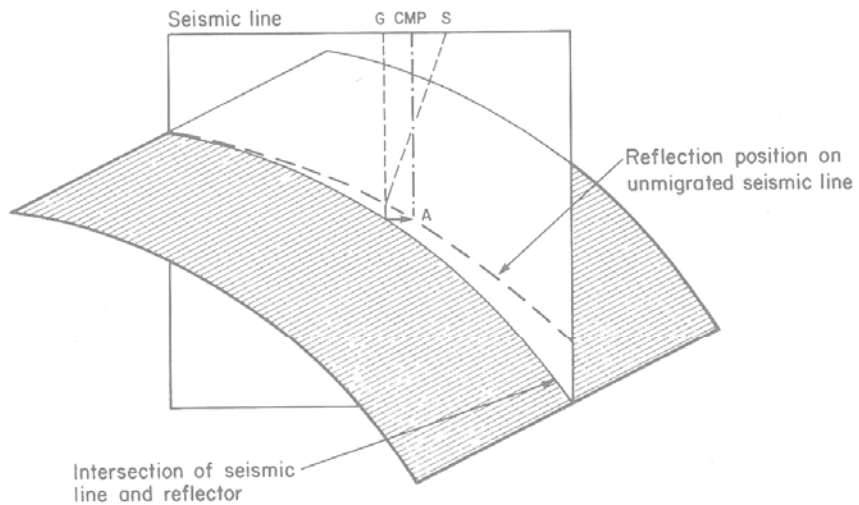
(b)

GEOMETRICAL EFFECTS

Reflection Seismology



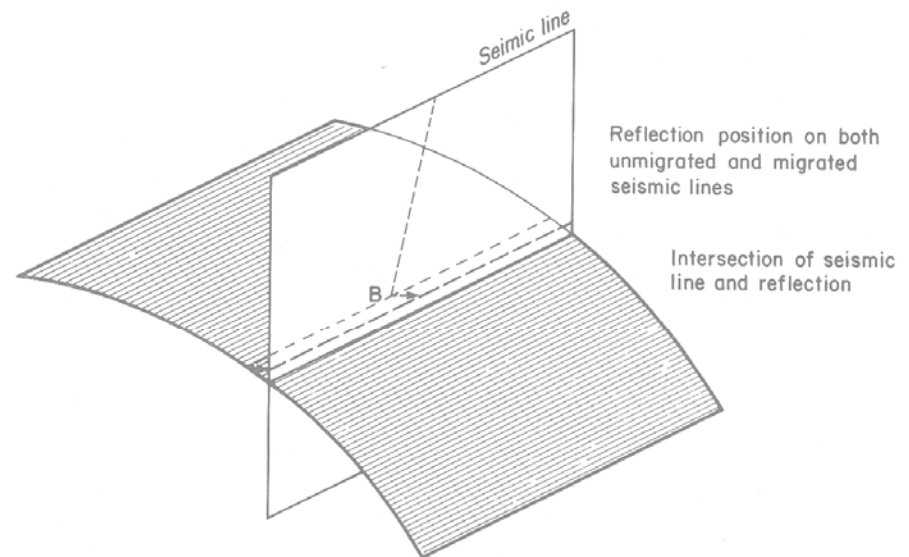
Reflection Seismology



A - assumed position of the reflector
 S - source
 G - geophone
 CMP - common mid-point

▨ - reflector

(a)

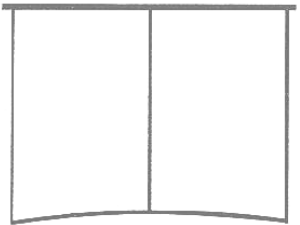
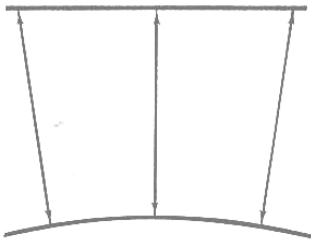
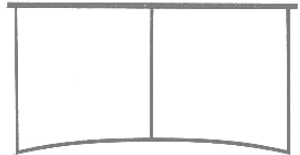
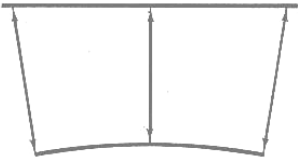
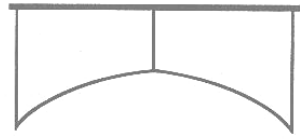
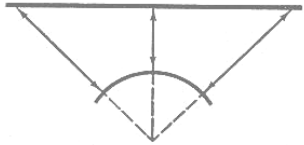
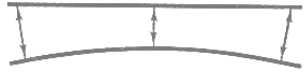


B - reflection originates updip from, and out of the plane of the seismic section

▨ - reflector

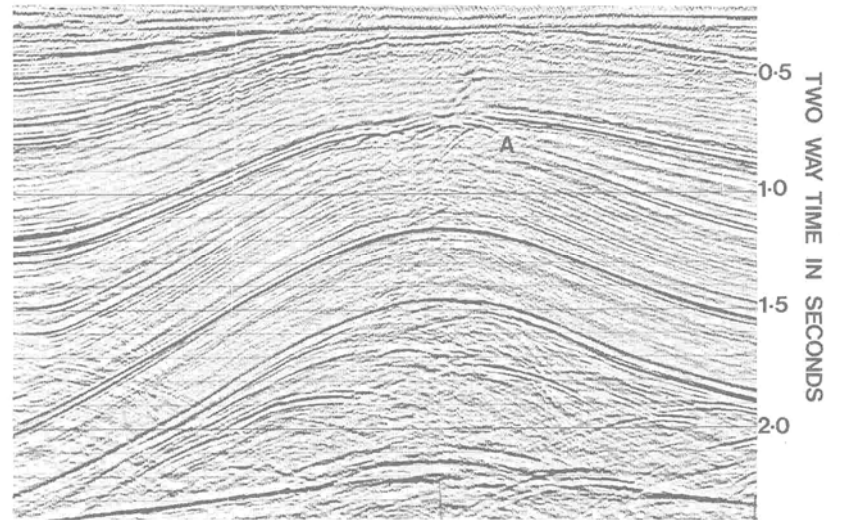
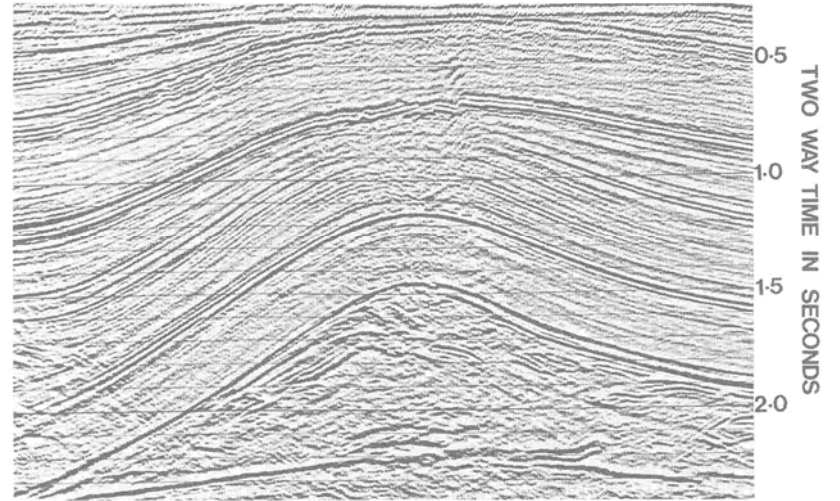
(b)

Anticline

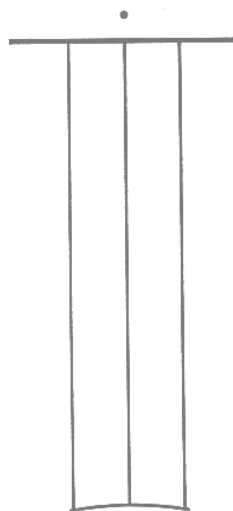
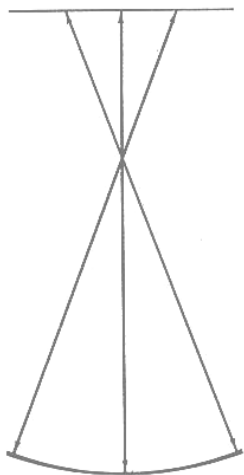
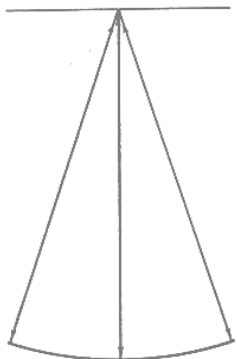
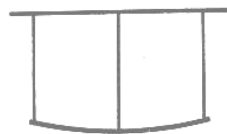
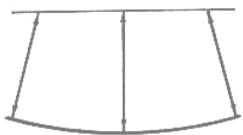


Real

Seismic

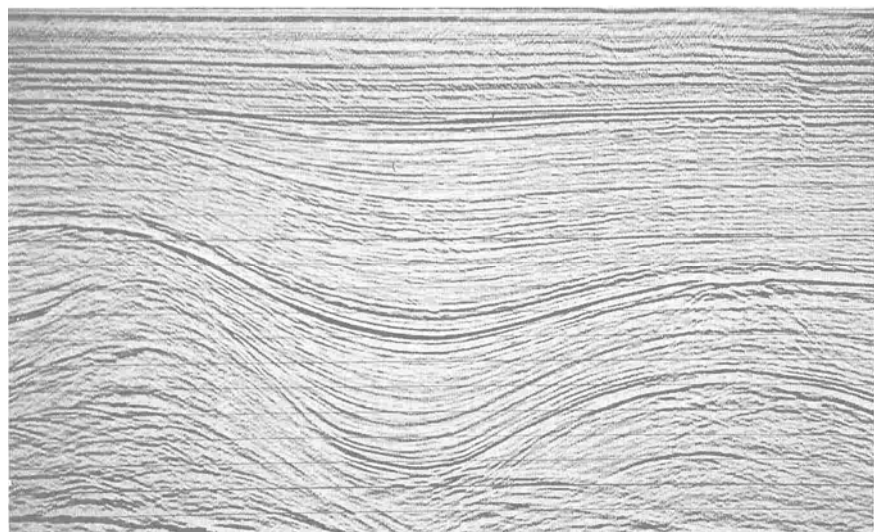


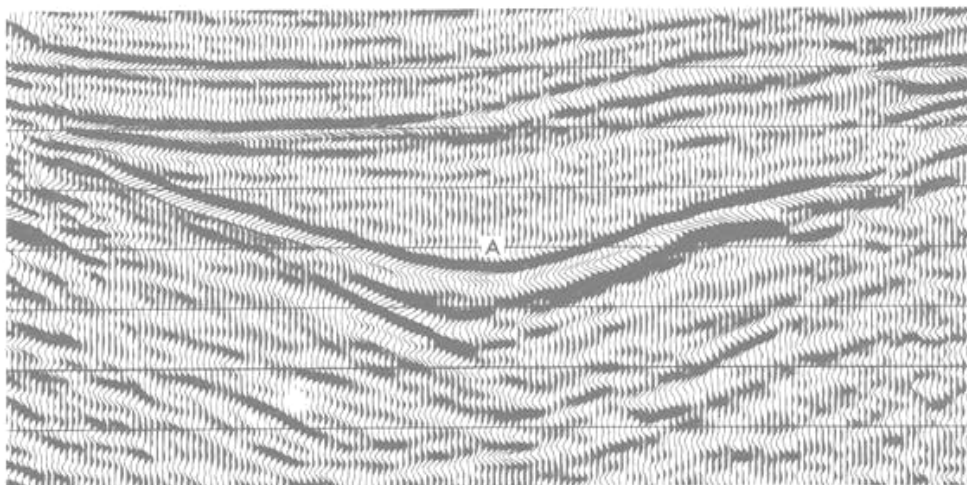
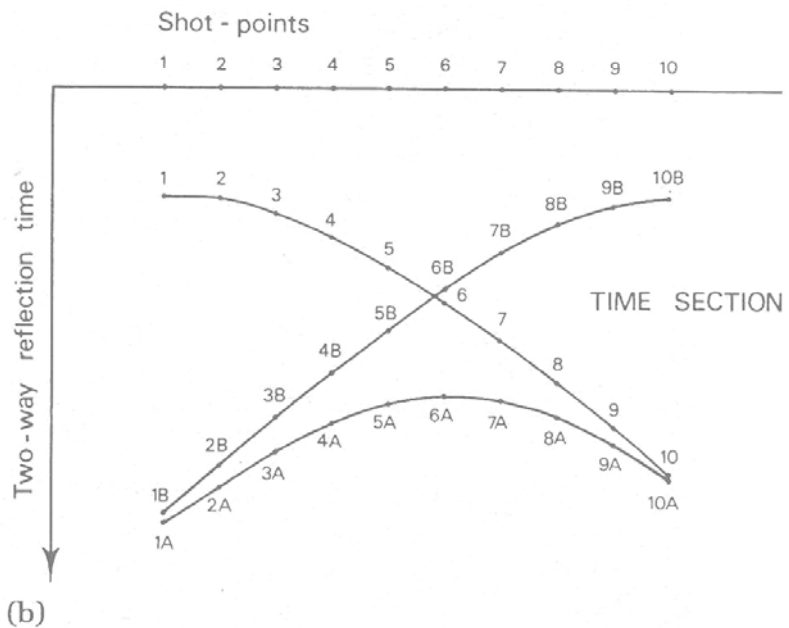
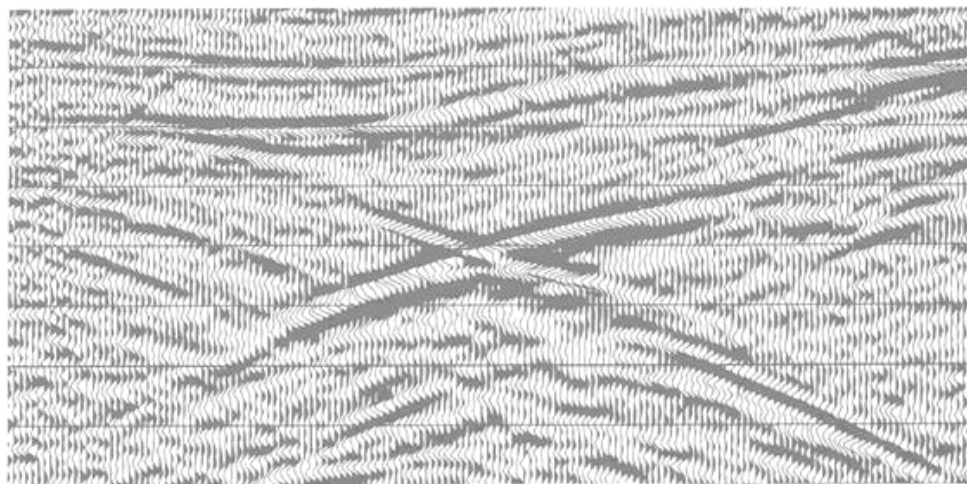
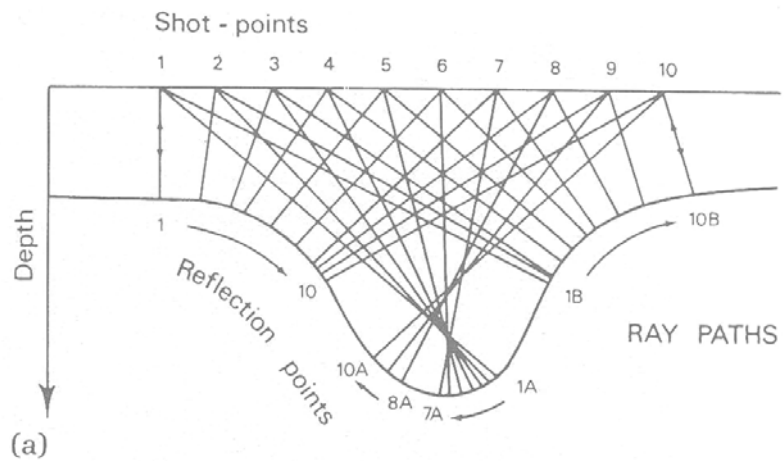
Synclines

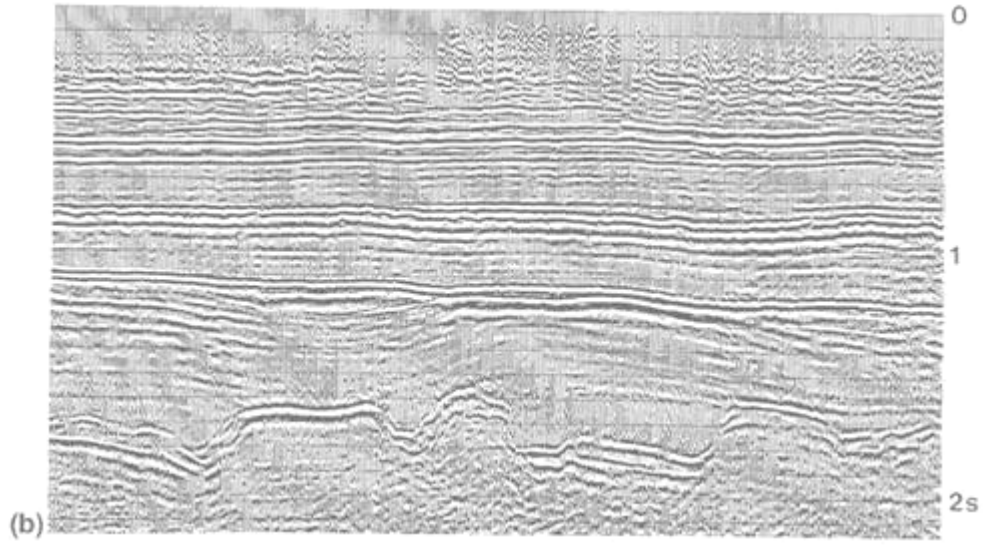
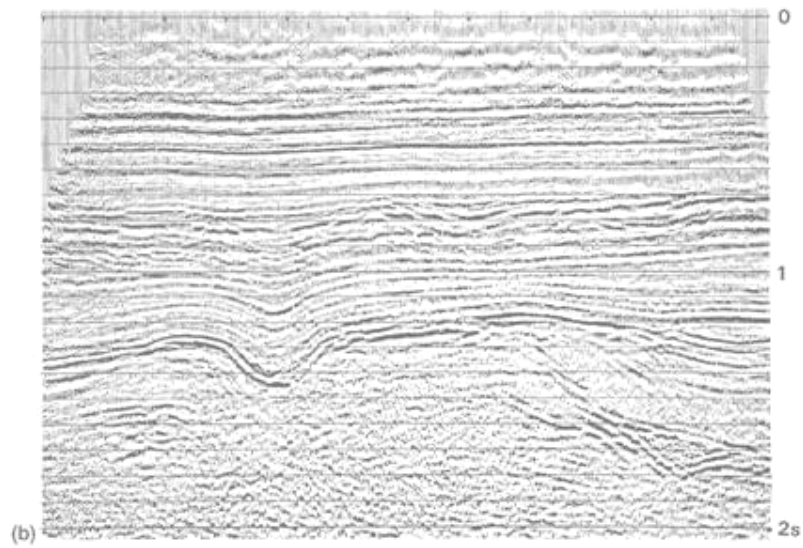
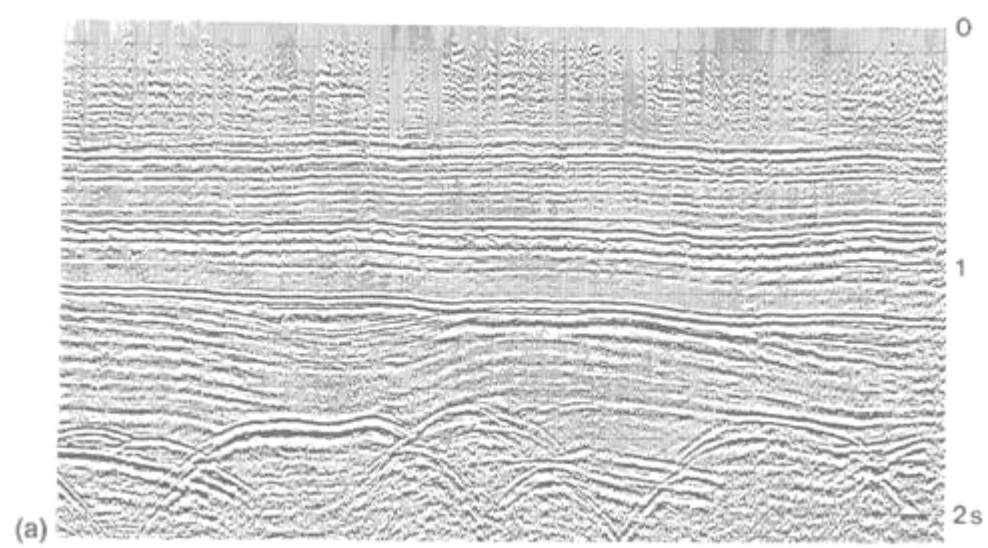
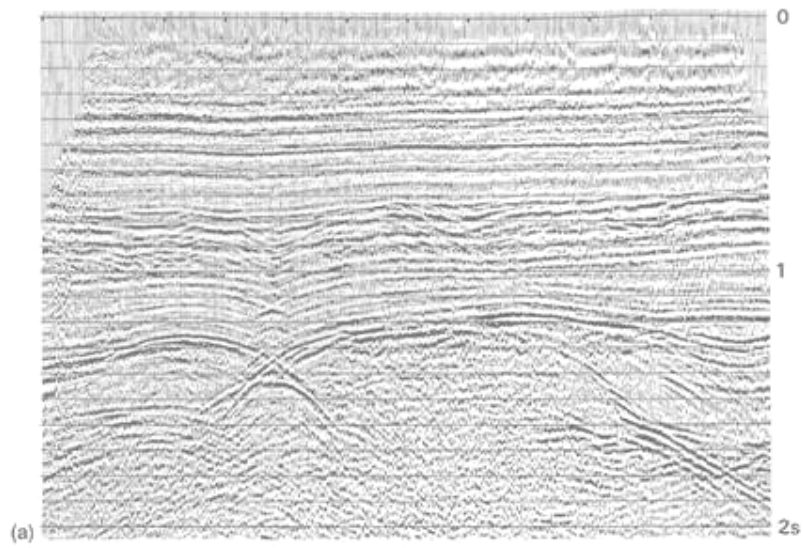


Real

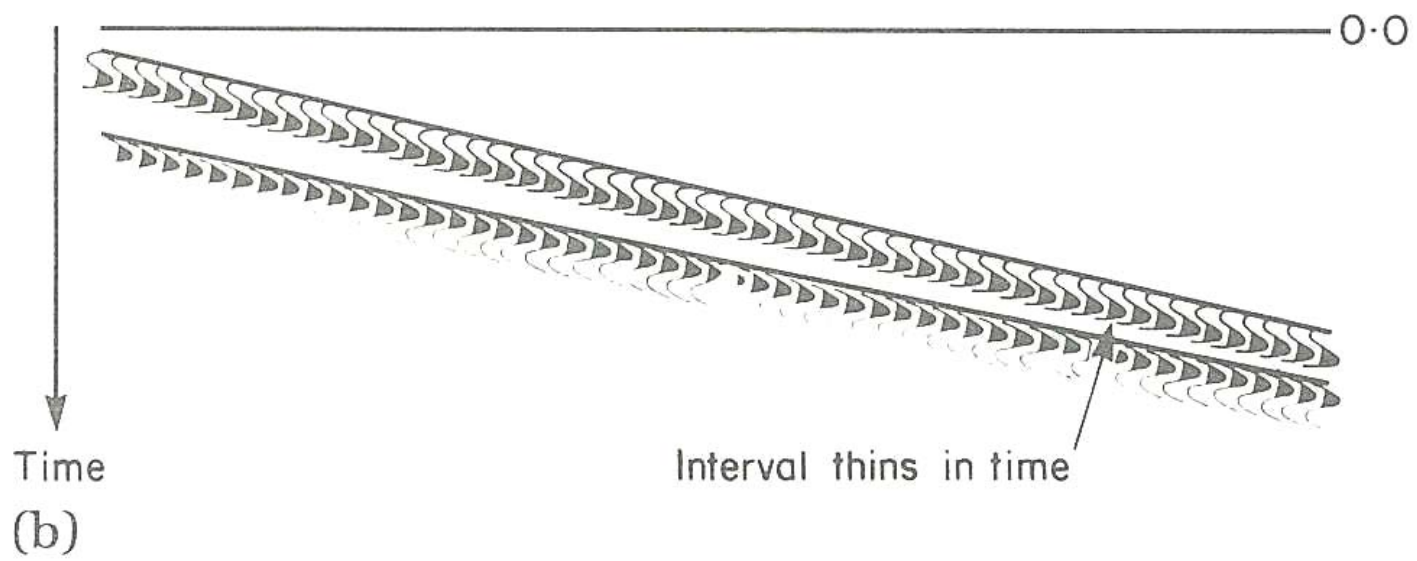
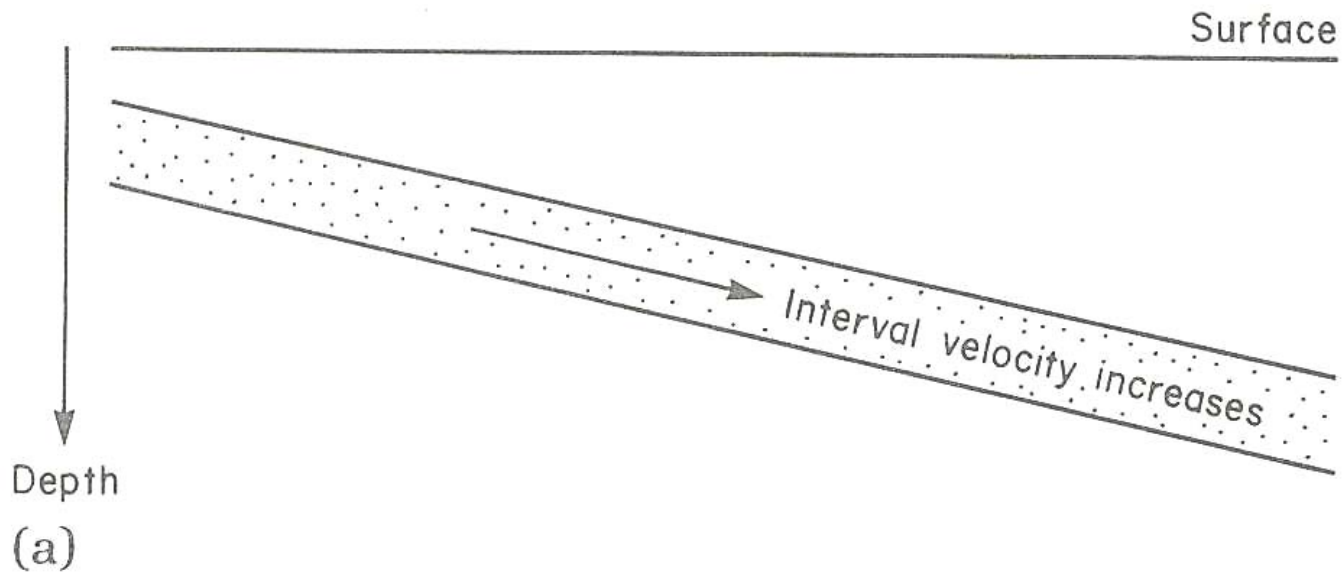
Seismic

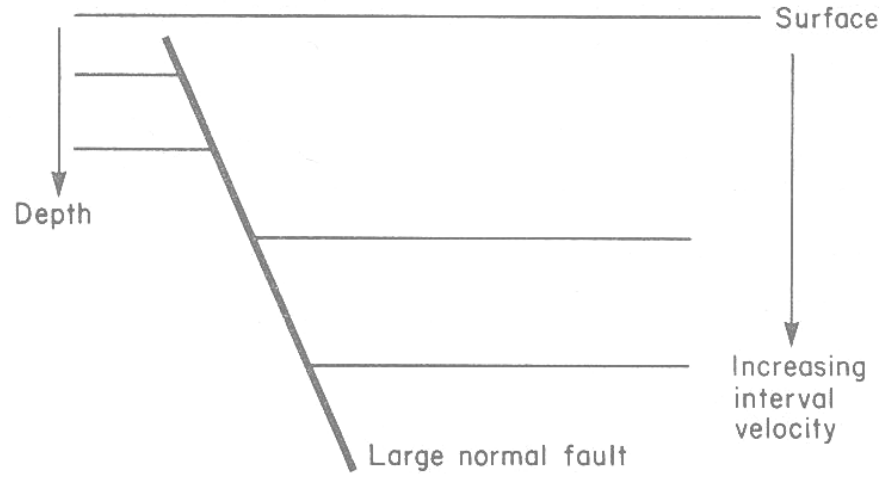




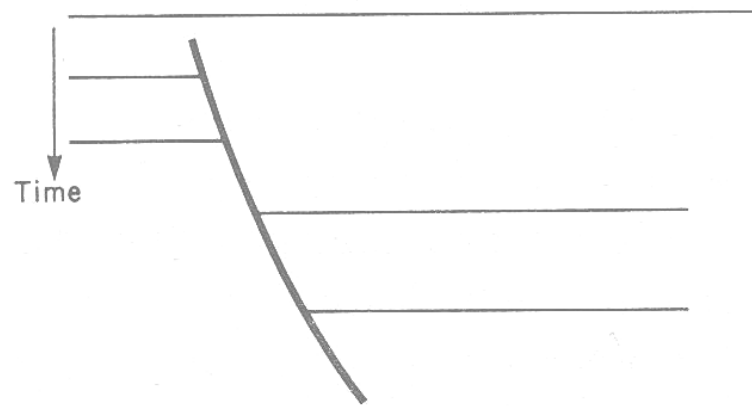


VELOCITY EFFECTS

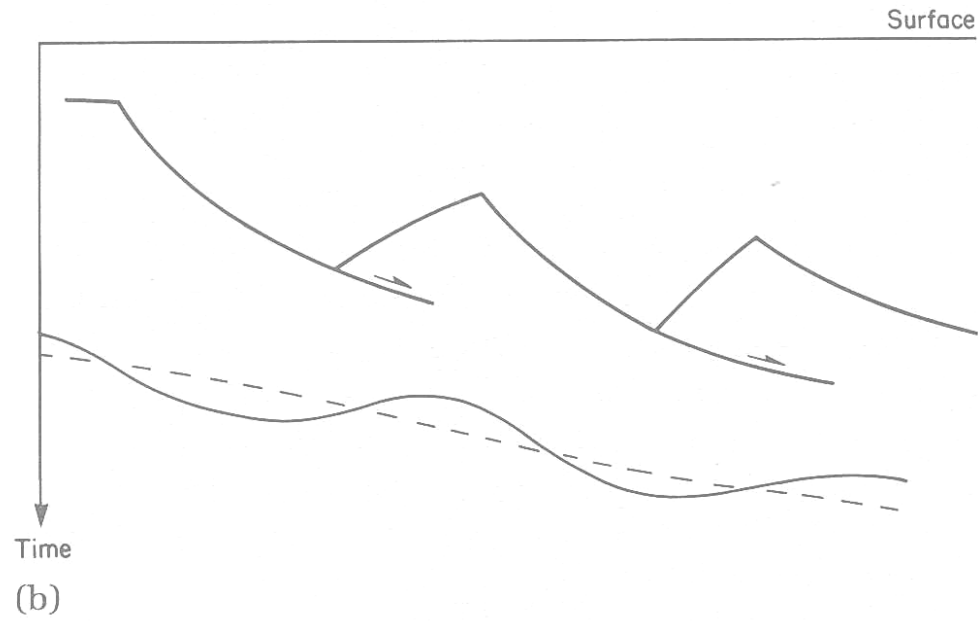
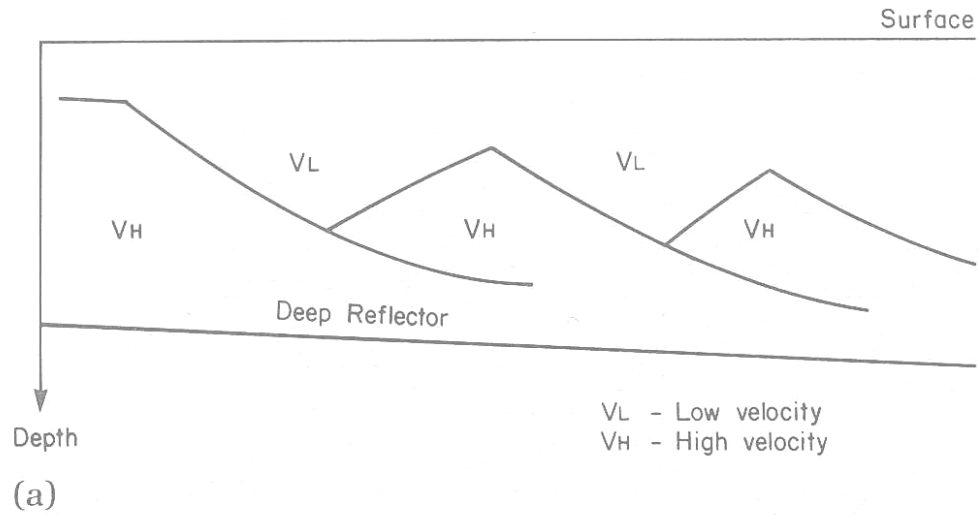


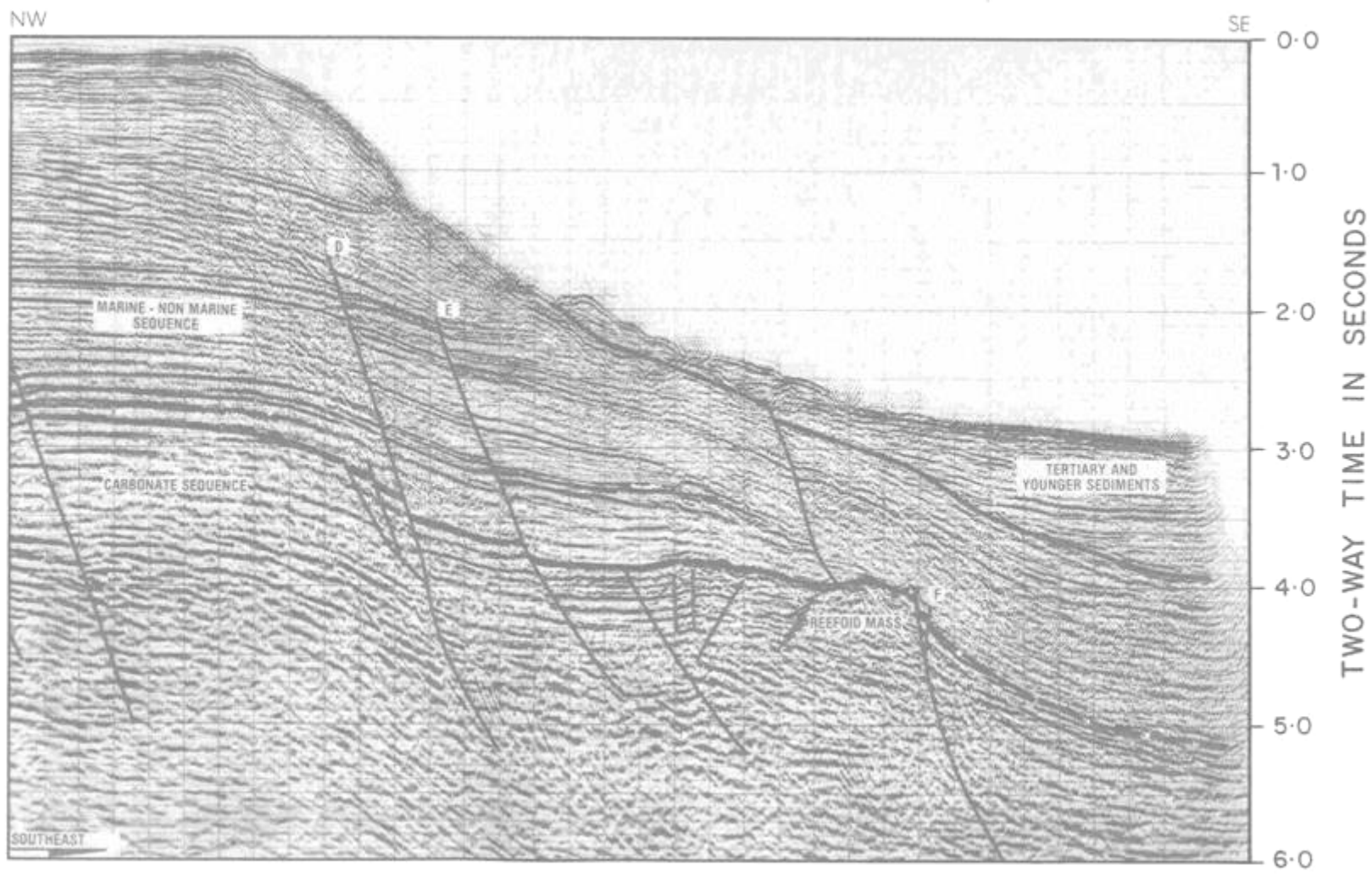


(a)

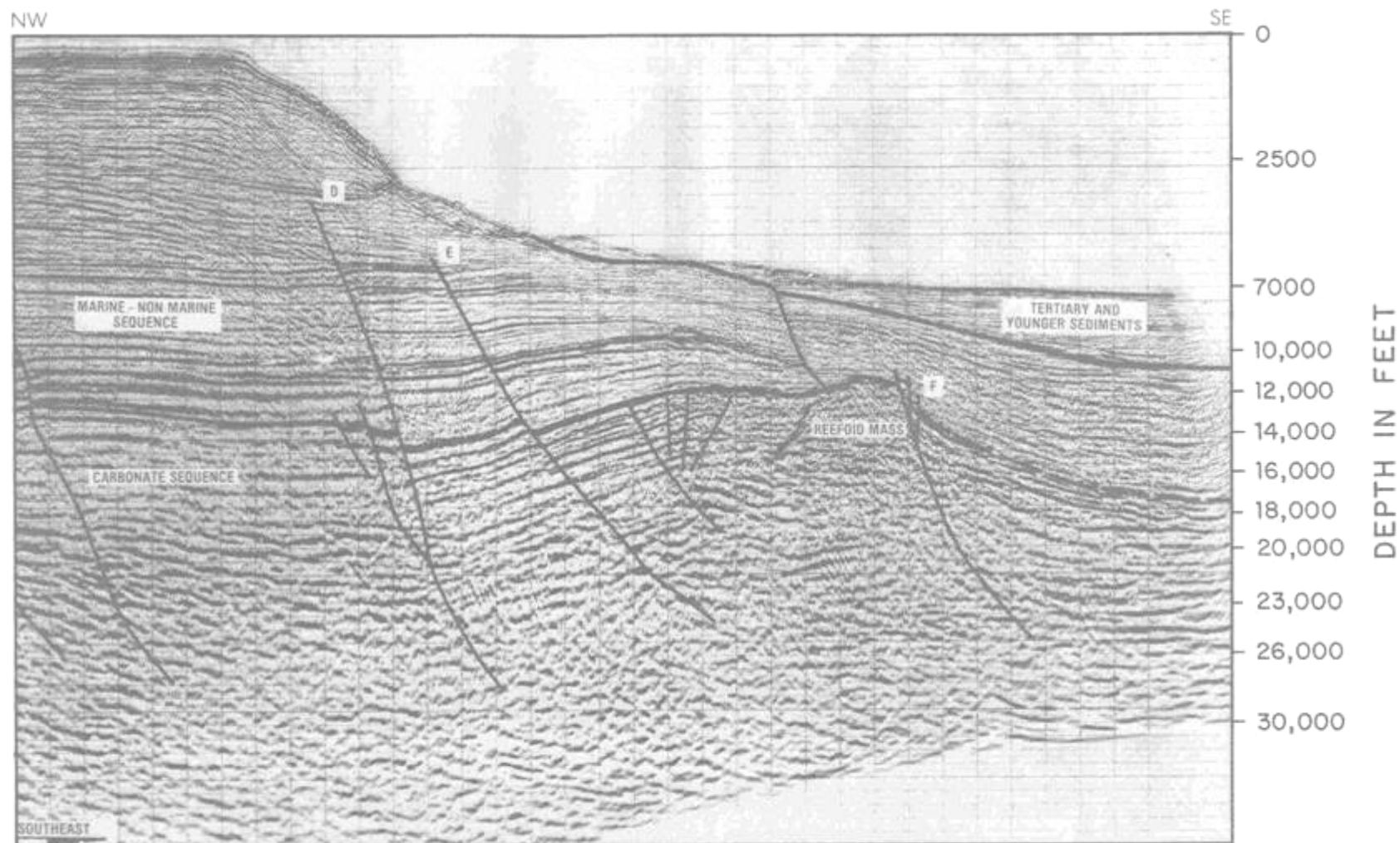


(b)



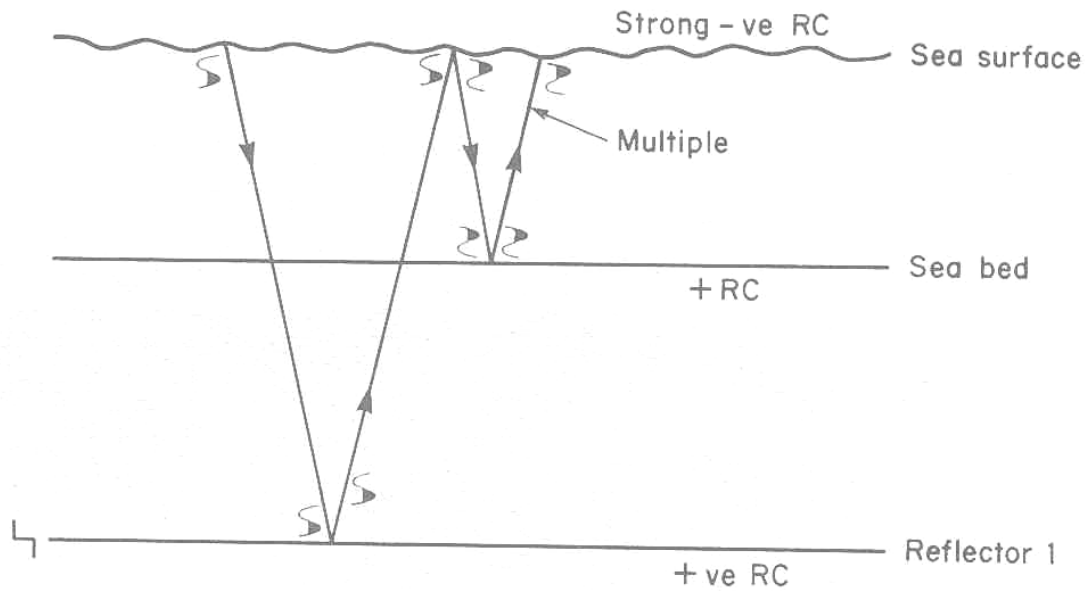


(a)

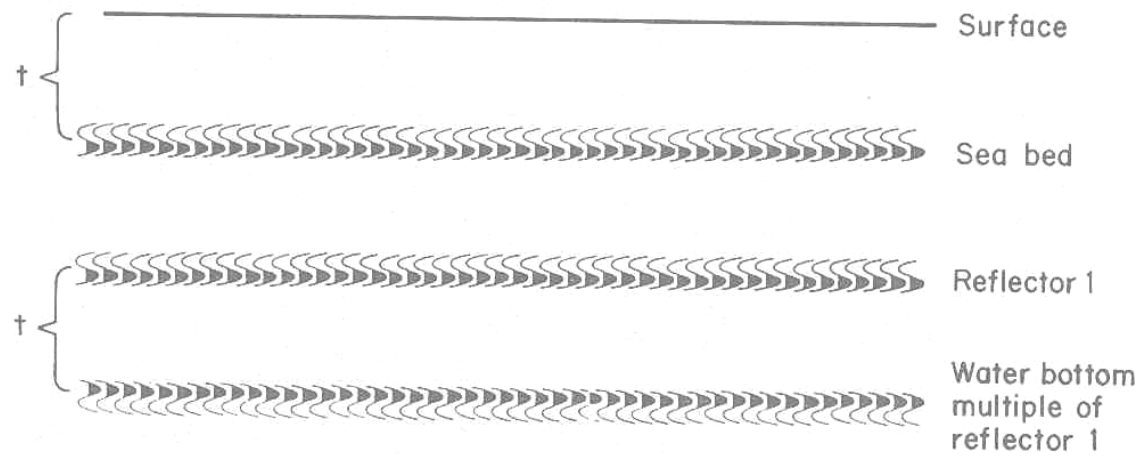


(b)

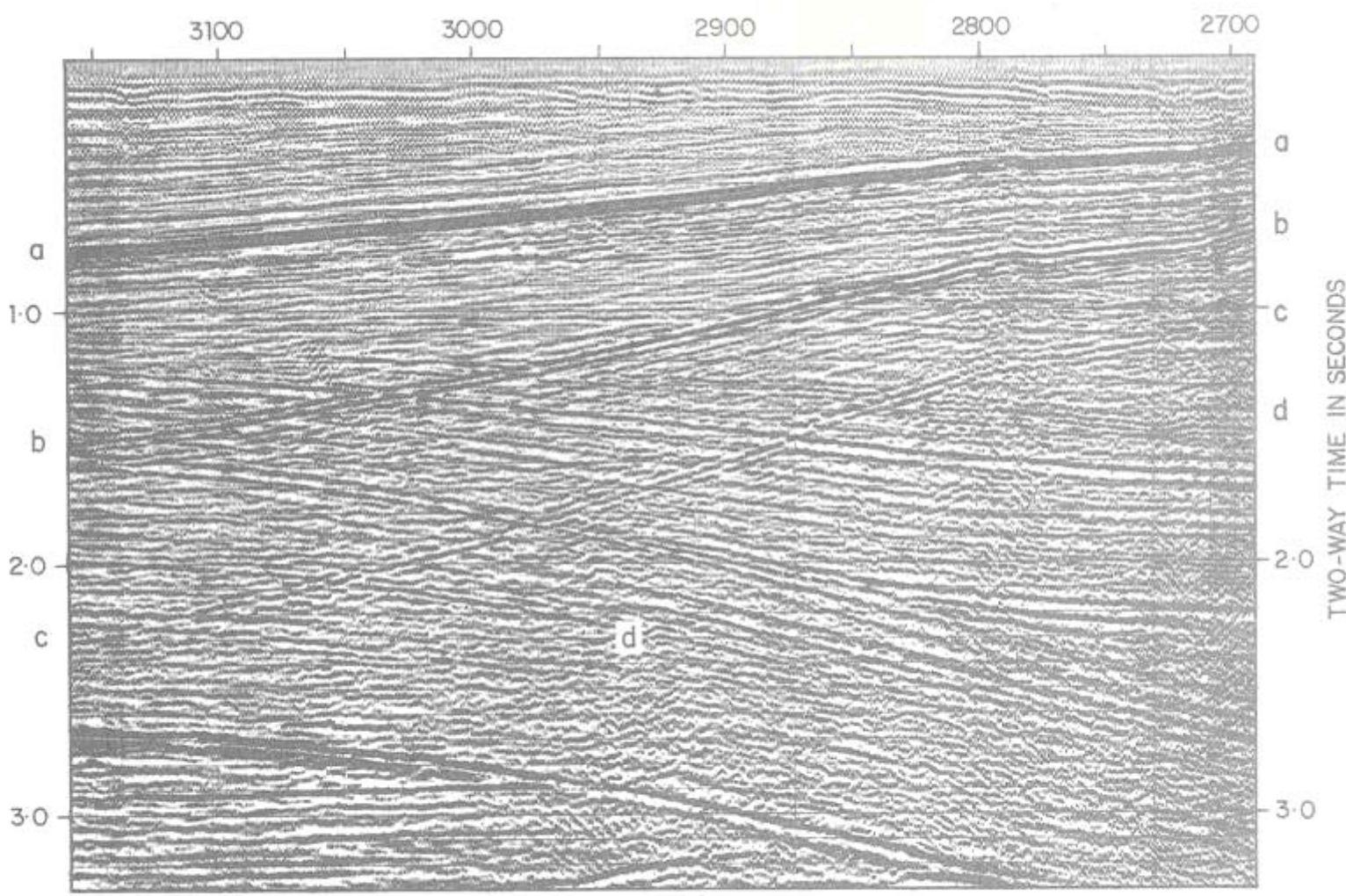
MULTIPLES

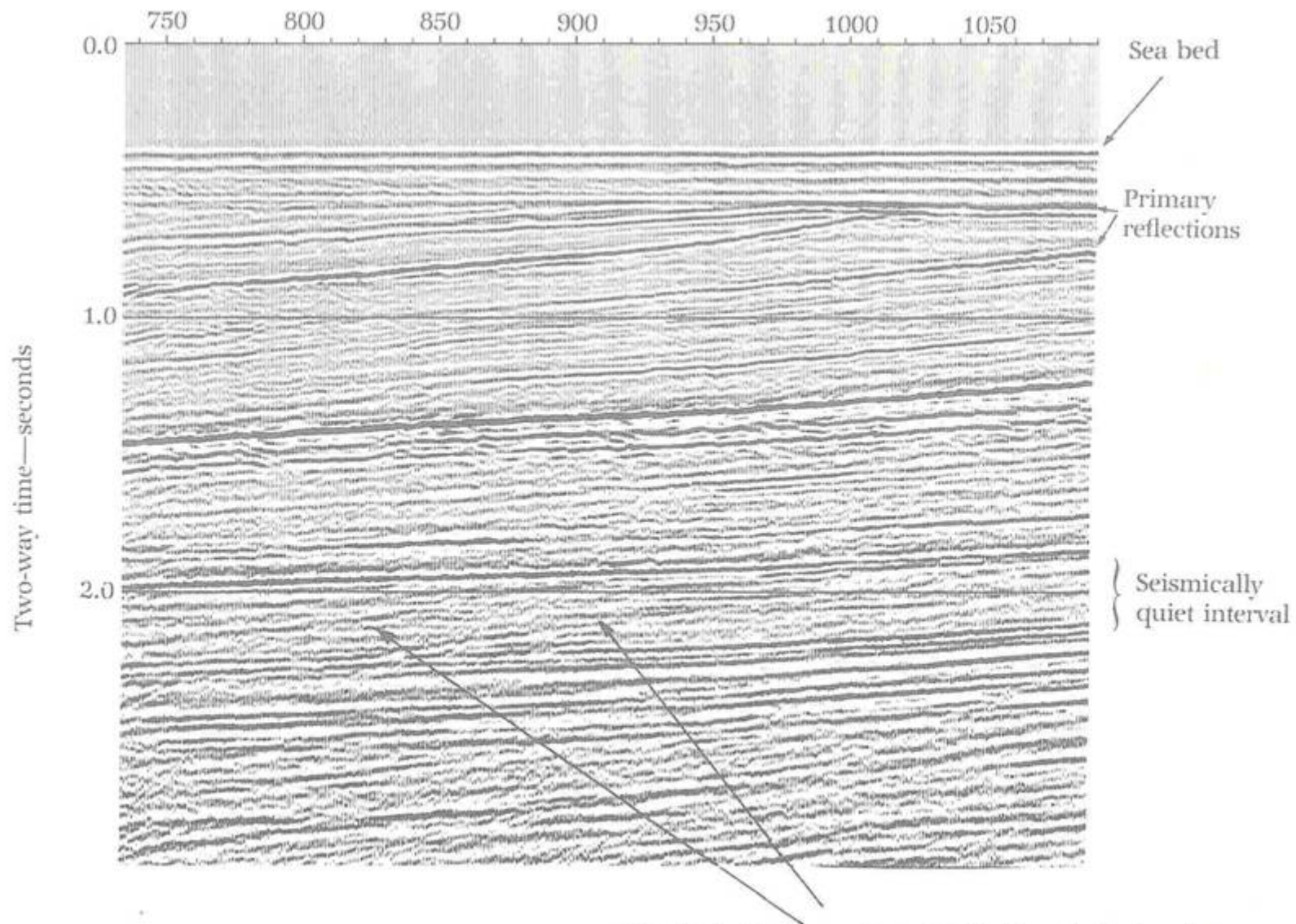


(a)



(b)





Dipping reflections in a seismically quiet interval—
 multiples from the dipping primary reflections above.

Magnetics

- *Magnetic susceptibility*

a dimensionless property which in essence is a measure of how susceptible a material is to becoming magnetized

- Sedimentary Rocks
 - Limestone: 10-25.000
 - Sandstone: 0-21.000
 - Shale: 60-18.600
- Igneous Rocks
 - Granite: 10-65
 - Peridotite: 95.500-196.000
- Minerals
 - Quartz: -15
 - Magnetite: 70.000- 2×10^7

Magnetics

- Induced and remanent magnetization
- Intensity of magnetization, J
- Magnetic anomaly = regional - residual

