

# Geometrical Seismics

## (Seismic phenomenology)

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- *P*- and *S*-waves, typical velocities;
- Wavefronts;
- Rays;
- Reflection, Refraction, Conversion;
- Head wave (critical refraction);
- Huygens' principle;
- Fermat principle;
- Snell's law of refraction;
- Seismic wave nomenclature.

- Reading:

- Reynolds, Sections 5.1-3, 6.1-6.2.2
- Shearer, 4.1-4.3, 4.9
- Telford et al., Sections 4.3-4.

# Seismic Method

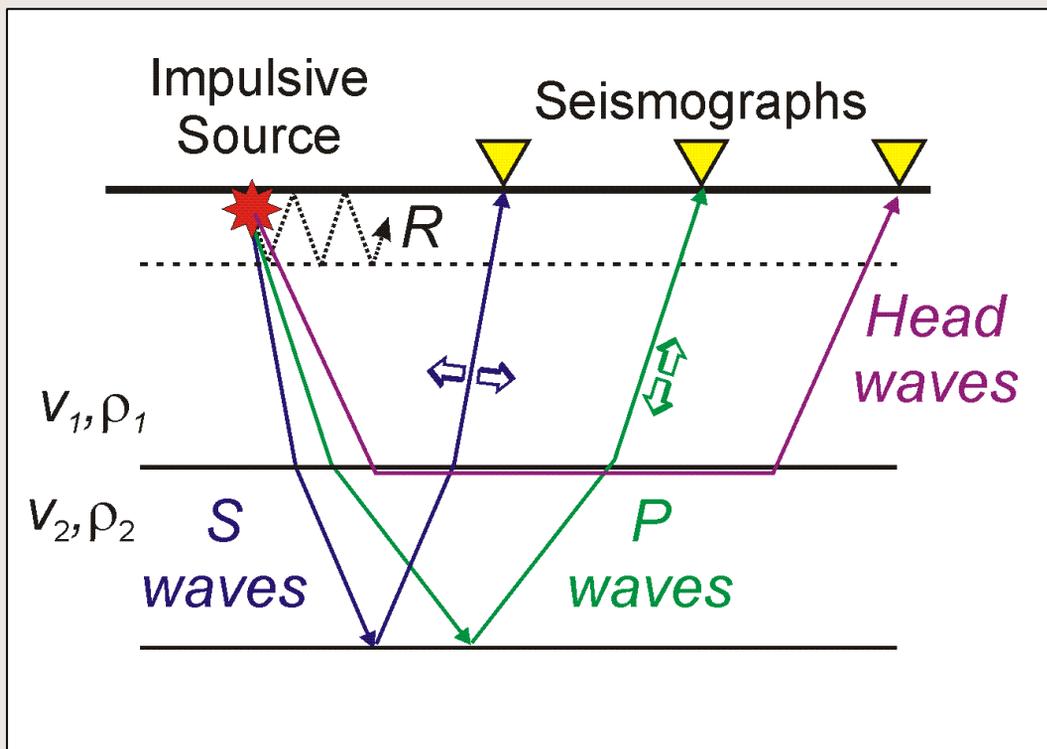
## Basic Principles

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- Generate a mechanical elastic *signal*.
  - ◆ “**Controlled source**”: Locations and times are known with precision.
  - ◆ “**Passive source**”: Locations and times need to be determined.
- Several types of seismic waves are generated.
  - ◆ So we have to be able to recognize them!
- Signal travels through the subsurface.
- At boundaries between different media, the energy is *reflected*, *transmitted*, or *refracted*.
- The transformed signal is recorded by the receivers on the surface (or borehole, *etc.*)
  - ◆ Locations of all detectors are known with precision.
- *Arrivals* are identified and their *times* (and amplitudes) are determined.
- Travel-times are used to determine the subsurface *velocities* and the *positions of boundaries*.

# Forward and Inverse Seismic Problems

- Forward problem
  - ◆ Layer thicknesses and velocities are known.
  - ◆ *Calculate arrival times* (easy to do).
- Inverse problem
  - ◆ Arrivals are identified (where possible).
  - ◆ Arrival times are known.
  - ◆ Find *velocities* and *depths* (not so easy to do).



# Seismic Properties

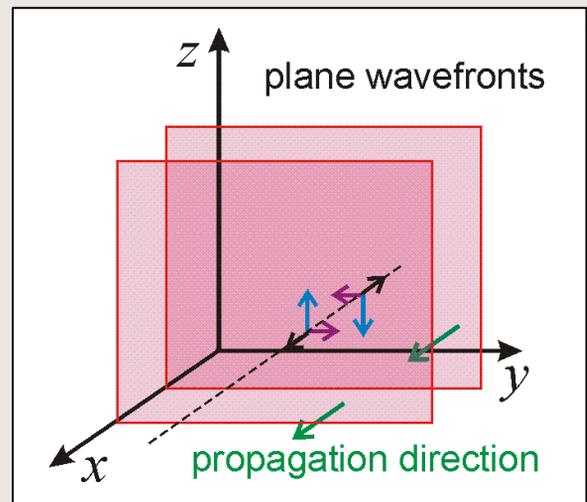
- *P-* (*compressional*, faster) and *S-* (*shear*, slower) waves are of primary importance.
- Their propagation and reflection depend on *elastic velocities* ( $V_P$ ,  $V_S$ ) of the medium and its *density*.

Material	$V_P$ (m/s)	$V_P$ (ft/s)	$V_S$ (m/s)	$V_S$ (ft/s)	$\rho$ (g/cm <sup>3</sup> )
Air	332	1090			0.0038
Water	1,400 - 1,600	4,600 - 5,250			1.0
Soil	300 - 900	980 - 2,950	120 - 360	390 - 1,180	1.7 - 2.4
Sandstone	2,000 - 4,300	6,560 - 14,100	700 - 2,800	2,300 - 9,190	2.1 - 2.4
Chalk	2,200 - 2,600	7,220 - 8,530	1,100 - 1,300	3,610 - 4,270	1.8 - 3.1
Limestone	3,500 - 6,100	11,490 - 20,000	2,000 - 3,300	6,560 - 10,830	2.4 - 2.7
Dolomite	3,500 - 6,500	11,490 - 21,330	1,900 - 3,600	6,240-11,810	2.5 - 2.9
Salt	4,450 - 5,500	14,600 - 18,050	2,500 - 3,100	8,200 - 10,170	2.1 - 2.3
Granite	4,500 - 6,000	14,770 - 19,690	2,500 - 3,300	8,200 - 10,830	2.5 - 2.7
Basalt	5,000 - 6,400	16,400 - 21,000	2,800 - 3,400	9,190 - 11,160	2.7 - 3.1
Quartz	6,049	19,846	4,089	13,415	2.65
Calite	6,640	21,783	3,436	11,273	2.71

- Velocities are sensitive to multiple factors:
  - ◆ Lithology,
  - ◆ Pressure, depth of burial (*increase*)
  - ◆ Temperature (*decrease*)
  - ◆ Fractures, porosity, fluid content (*decrease*)
  - ◆ Anisotropy,...

# Wavefronts and Rays

- Vibrations originate at the source and propagate away from it
- **Wavefronts** are defined as surfaces of constant propagation time
- **Rays** are lines that are perpendicular to the wavefronts at every point.
- Wavefronts propagate along the rays at the local wave velocity within the medium.
- Rays generally indicate wave propagation direction and energy flux.
  - However, only in relatively simple cases free of 'caustics' and 'diffractions'.
- In a uniform medium, wavefronts are spheres of progressively increasing radii.
  - At greater distances, spherical wavefronts approach planar shapes:

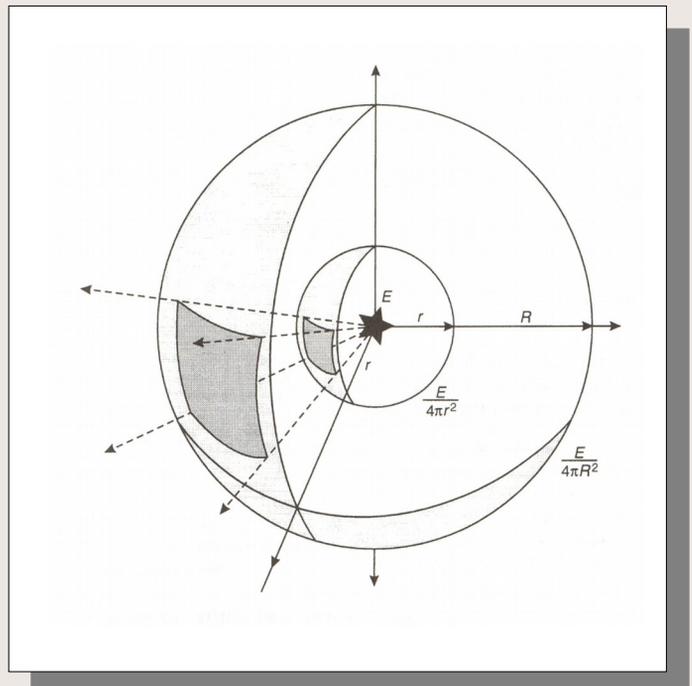


# Spherical divergence

- **Waveform/Ray picture is very commonly used in the seismic method.**
- Ray diagrams also allow estimation of the *wave amplitude decay* due to *geometrical (spherical) spreading*:

The amplitude progressively decreases so that the energy flux across the shaded spherical shell remains constant:  $E \sim 1/R^2$ .

Therefore, for spherical wavefronts (and straight rays), the amplitude decreases with distance,  $R$ , as  $A \propto 1/R$ .

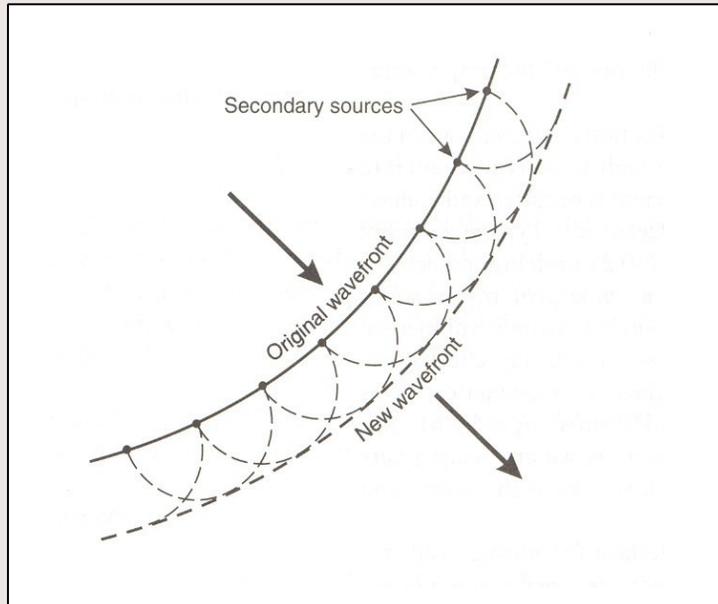


**Exercise:** show that for cylindrical waves, spreading is

$$A \propto 1/\sqrt{R}$$

# Huygens' Principle

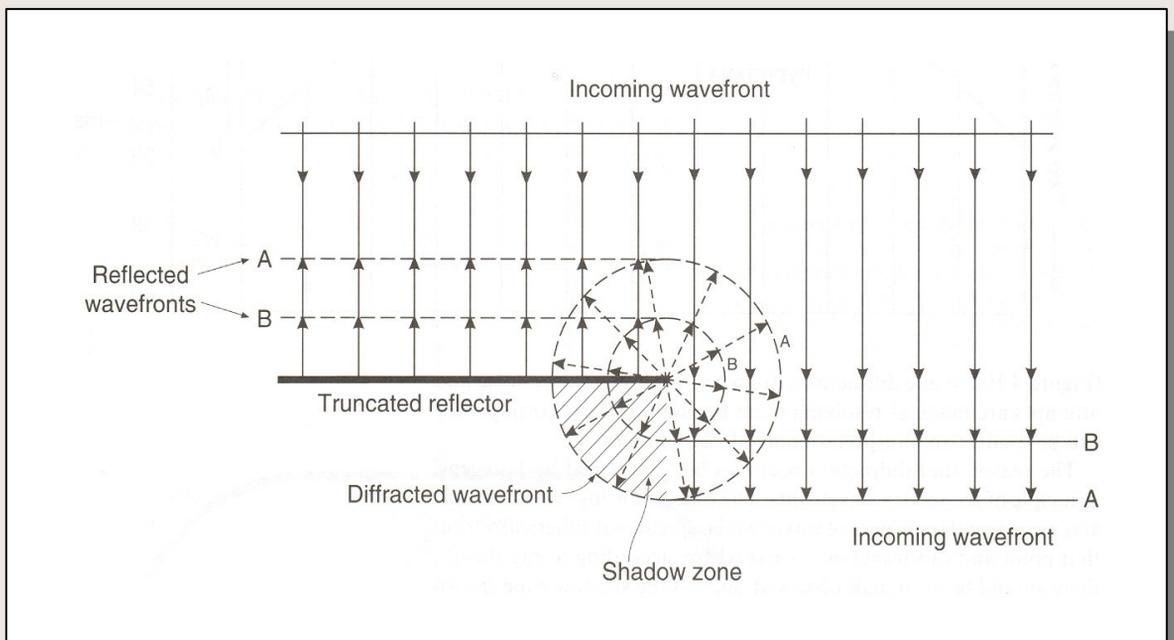
- Energy spreads from a point source in a spherical manner. So, near the source, the wavefronts are spherical (circular in 2-D).
- Every point on a wavefront can be viewed as a source of secondary waves that spread out in spheres (circles). Envelope of these spheres is the new wavefront.



- In Lab 1, you will use this principle to work out the head wave propagation problem.
- A more rigorous treatment of this principle is known as the **Kirchhoff theory**.

# Diffraction

- Secondary wavefronts can penetrate into '*shadow zones*' into which the normal, '*specular*' rays from the source cannot enter.
- This is a fundamental effect of wave propagation called *diffraction*.

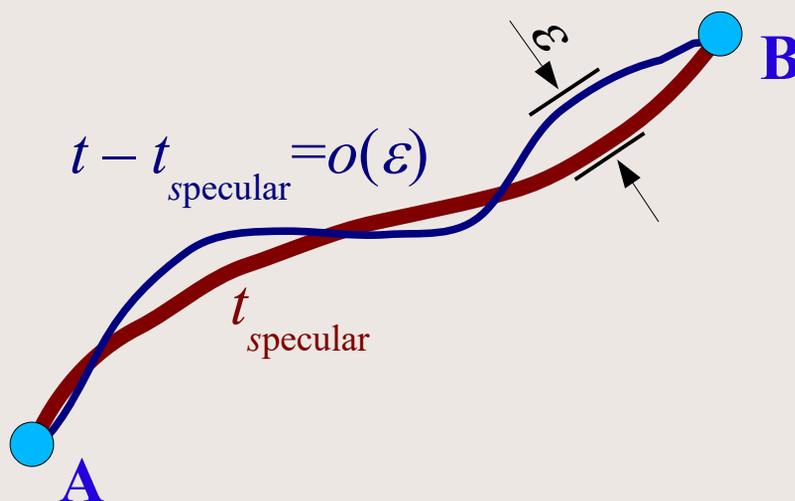


*From Reynolds, 1997*

# Fermat Principle

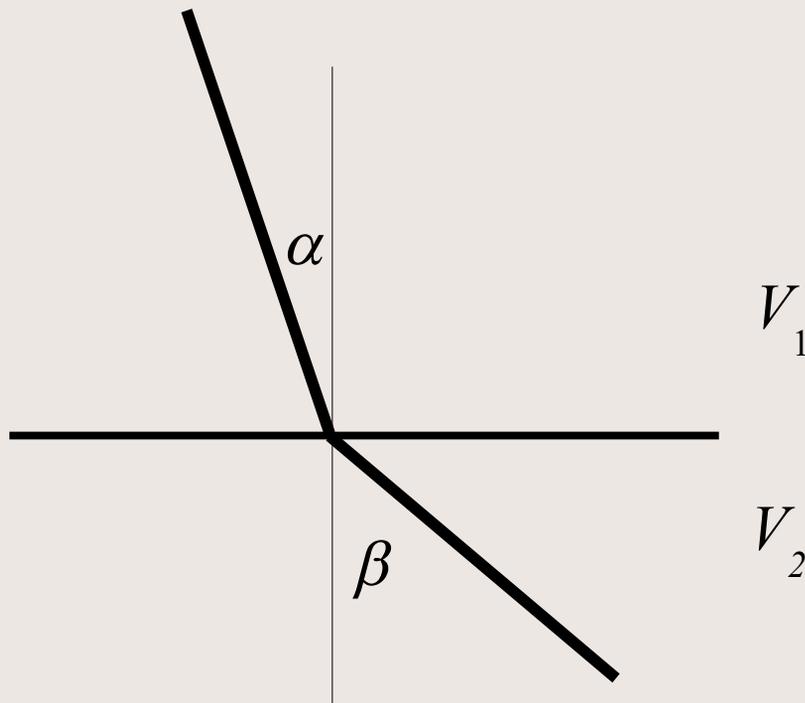
(Least-time path, *brachistochrone*)

- A wave will take the path for which the travel time is *stationary* with respect to minor variations of the ray path.
  - Stationary means when the ray path is slightly perturbed, variation of its travel time is zero (to the first order of perturbation).
- Usually, the ray path has the smallest travel time among its small perturbations.



# Example of using Fermat principle: refraction

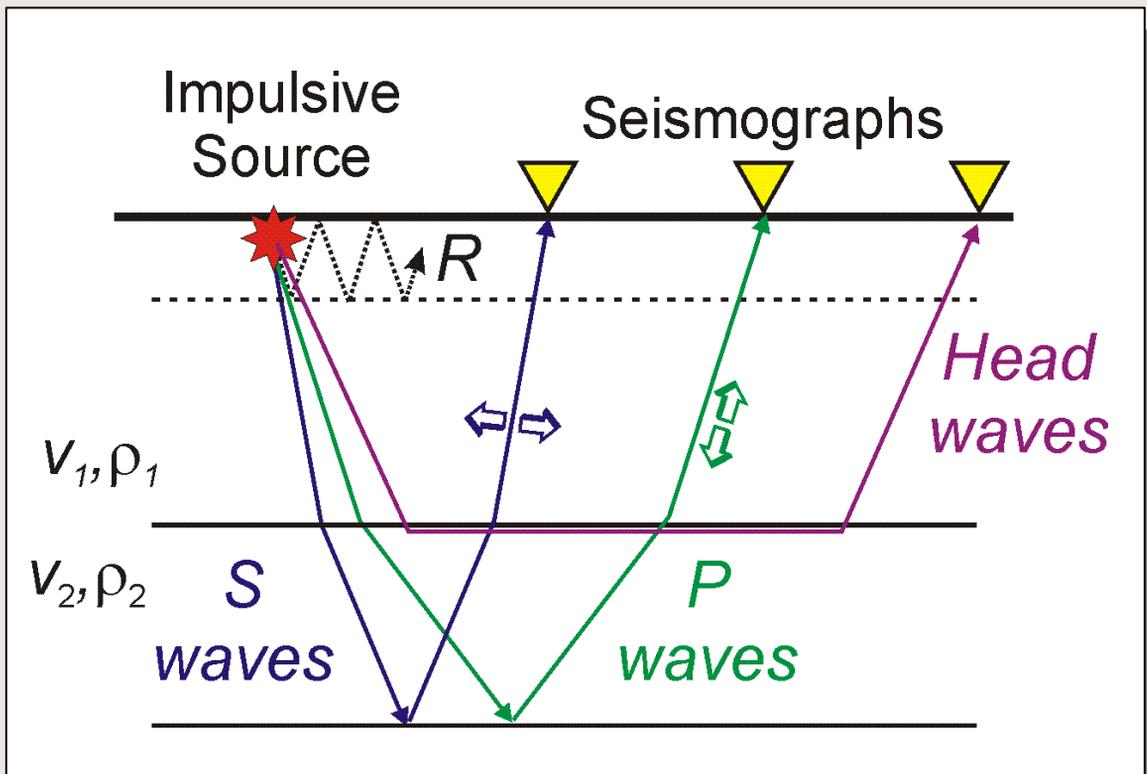
- **Show** that the travel time is stationary ( $\delta t = 0$ ) for a ray bending at the velocity interface; so that: 
$$\frac{\sin \alpha}{V_1} = \frac{\sin \beta}{V_2}$$
- This relation is called the Snell's law or refraction



# Seismic Phases

used in refraction/reflection seismics

- *P*- and *S*- body waves:
  - ♦ Refracted (bending) across velocity interfaces.
  - ♦ 'Head waves' traveling along velocity discontinuities.
  - ♦ Reflected from *velocity* and/or *density* contrasts.
- Sometimes surface waves (called 'Rayleigh' and 'Love')



# Travel-Time Dependencies ("Travel-Time Curves")

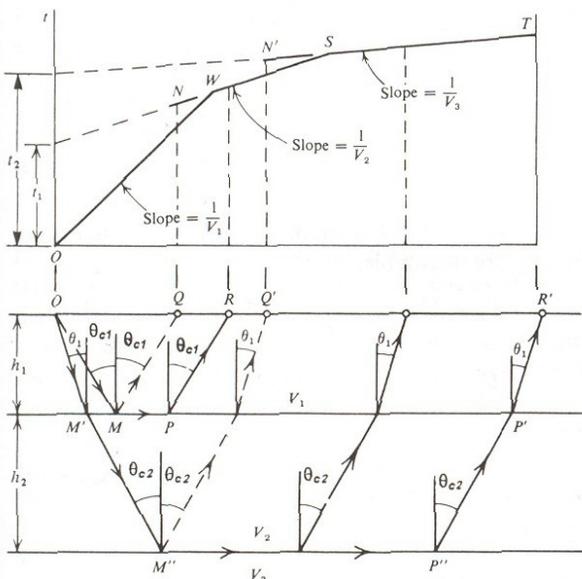
When an arrival is identified in a dense geophone grid within a range of source-receiver *offsets* (distances), its travel times form a set of  $t(\text{offset})$  points, called the *travel-time curve* (TTC).

- Convex, piecewise-linear segments in the *first arrivals* are characteristic of *refractions*, strong,
- Concave, hyperbolic secondary arrivals are typically reflections.

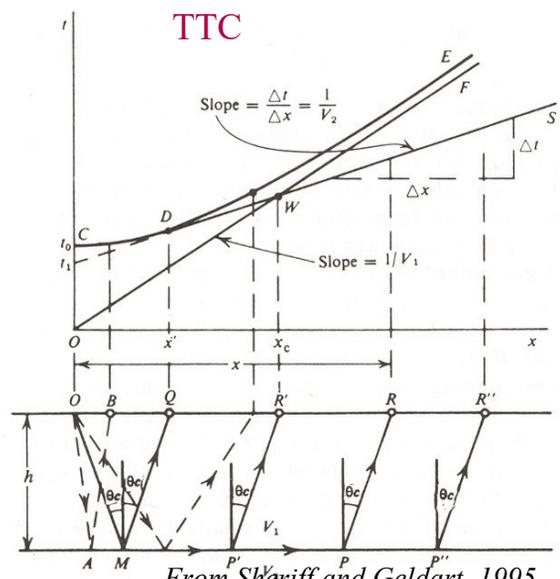
The goal of interpretation is to derive the velocity structure that could explain both:

- Shapes of all the observed TTCs.
- Offset ranges within which the arrivals are observed.

Refraction TTC

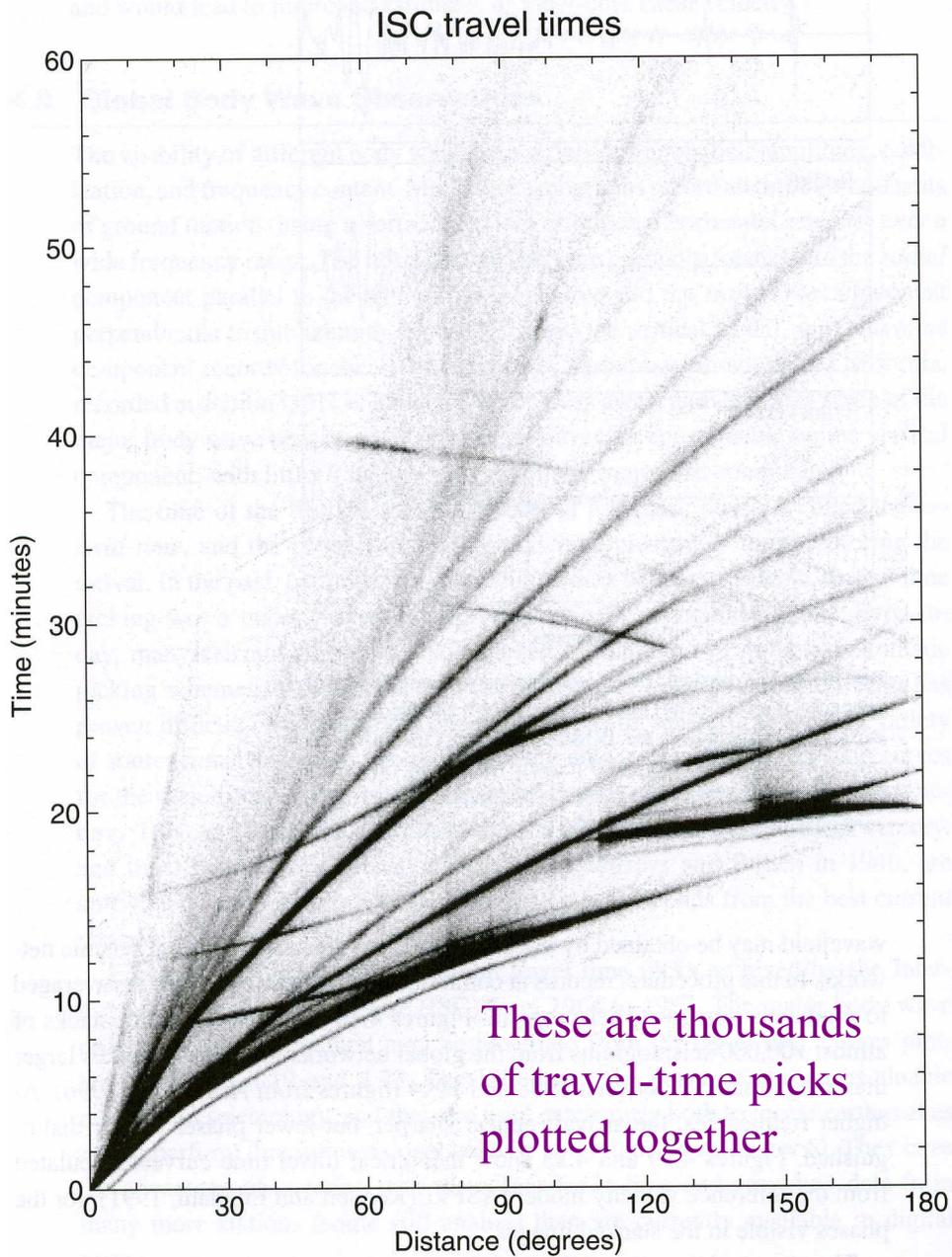


Reflection TTC

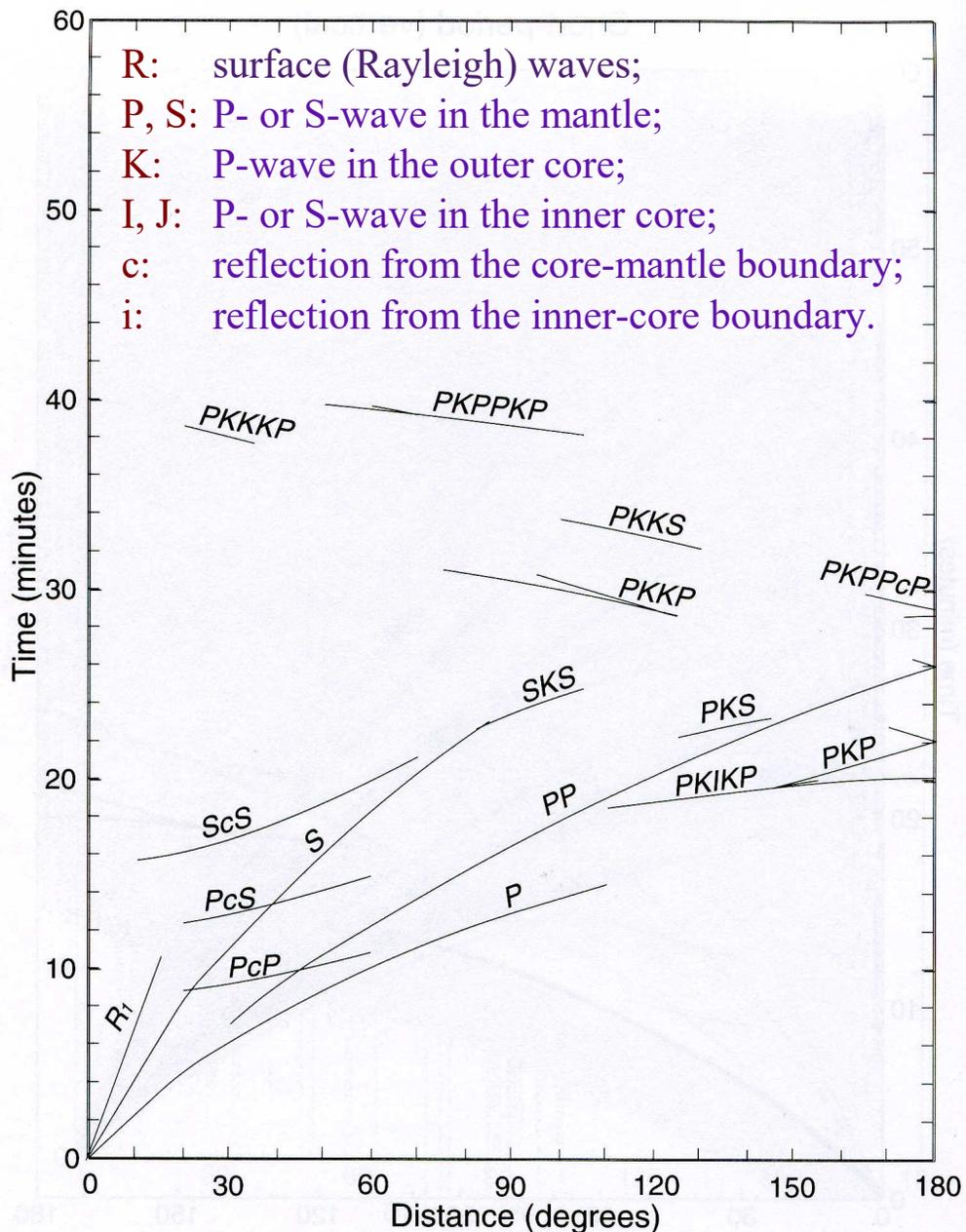


From Sheriff and Geldart, 1995

# Global travel times

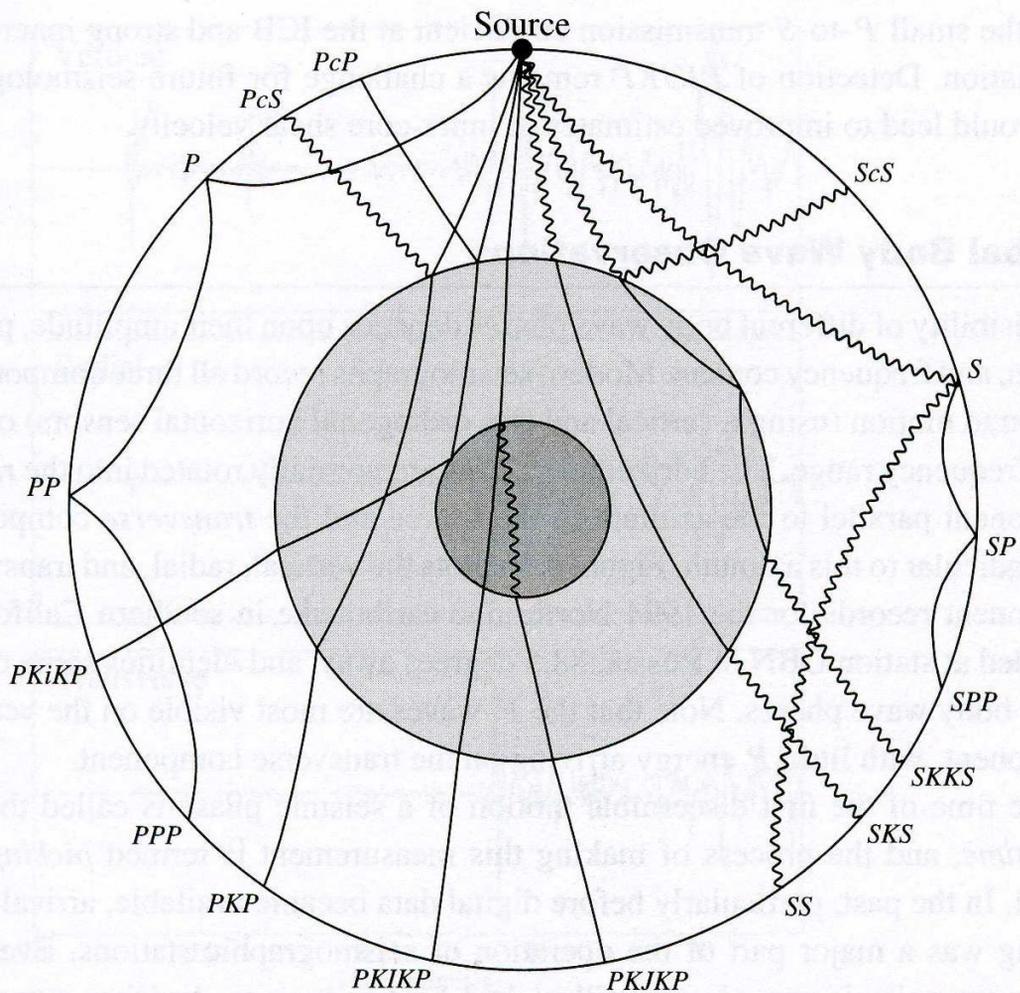


# Global seismic phase nomenclature



# Global seismic ray paths

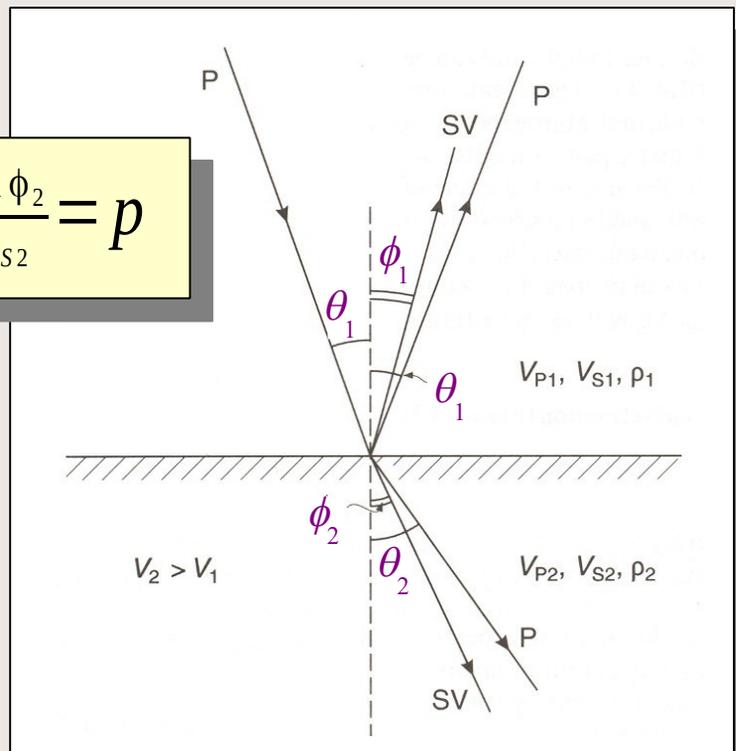
- P, S:** P- or S-wave in the mantle;
- K:** P-wave in the outer core;
- I, J:** P- or S-wave in the inner core;
- c:** reflection from the core-mantle boundary;
- i:** reflection from the inner-core boundary.



# Refraction in a *laterally homogeneous* structure: Snell's law

- When waves (rays) penetrate a medium with a different velocity, they *refract*, i.e. bend toward or away from the normal to the velocity boundary.
- The *Snell's Law of refraction* relates the angles of incidence and emergence of waves refracted on a velocity contrast:

$$\frac{\sin \theta_1}{V_{P1}} = \frac{\sin \theta_2}{V_{P2}} = \frac{\sin \phi_1}{V_{S1}} = \frac{\sin \phi_2}{V_{S2}} = p$$



- The constant  $p$  is called *ray parameter*
- Note that *refraction angles depend on the velocities alone!*

# Refraction in a stack of horizontal layers

Ray parameter,  $p$ , uniquely specifies the entire ray.

It does not depend on layer thicknesses or velocities.

Travel times and distances accumulate along the ray to yield the total  $T(X)$



$$T_n = \sum_{k=1}^n t_k \quad X_n = \sum_{k=1}^n x_k$$

For any layer:

$$\sin i_k = pV_k$$

$$l_k = \frac{h_k}{\cos i_k} = \frac{h_k}{\sqrt{1 - (pV_k)^2}}$$

$$t_k = \frac{l_k}{V_k} = \frac{h_k}{V_k \sqrt{1 - (pV_k)^2}}$$

$$x_k = l_k \sin i_k = \frac{h_k (pV_k)}{\sqrt{1 - (pV_k)^2}}$$

# Critical angle of refraction

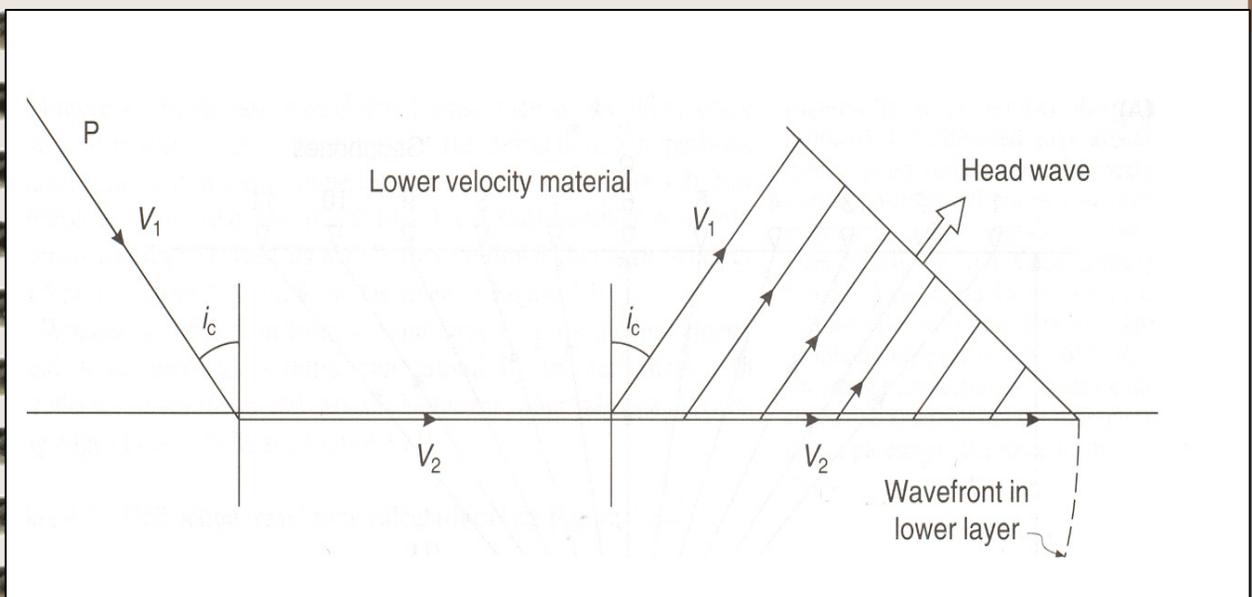
- Consider a faster medium overlain with lower-velocity layer (this is the typical case).
- *Critical angle* of incidence in the slower layer is such that the refracted waves (rays) travel horizontally in the faster layer ( $\sin r = 1$ )
- The critical angles thus are:

$$i_c = \sin^{-1} \frac{V_{P_1}}{V_{P_2}} \quad \text{for } P \text{ waves}$$
$$i_c = \sin^{-1} \frac{V_{S_1}}{V_{S_2}} \quad \text{for } S \text{ waves}$$

- Critical *ray parameter*:  $p^{\text{critical}} = \frac{1}{V_{\text{refractor}}}$
- If the incident wave strikes the interface at an angle exceeding the critical one, *no refracted or head wave is generated*.

# Critical refraction: Head Waves

- At critical incidence from the “slower” medium, a *head wave* is generated in the “faster” one.
- Although in reality head waves carry little energy, they are useful approximation for interpreting seismic wave propagation in the presence of strong velocity contrasts.
- Head waves are characterized by *planar wavefronts* inclined at the critical angle in respect to the velocity boundary:



# Head-wave travel times

- Head-wave travel-time curves are straight lines:

$$t = t_0 + \frac{x}{V_{app}}$$

Here,  $t_0$  is the *intercept time*, and  $V_{app}$  is the *apparent velocity*

Note that “apparent” often means “as observed” (but not necessarily “true”)

