#### **UNIVERSITY OF CALGARY**

P-wave seismic imaging through dipping transversely isotropic media.

by

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#### **A THESIS**

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#### **ABSTRACT**

P-wave seismic anisotropy is of growing concern to the exploration industry. The transmissional effects through dipping anisotropic strata, such as shales, cause substantial depth and lateral positioning errors when imaging subsurface targets. Using anisotropic physical models the limitations of conventional isotropic migration routines were determined to be significant. In addition, these models were used to validate both anisotropic depth migration routines and an anisotropic, numerical raytracer.

In order to include anisotropy in these processes, one must be able to quantify the anisotropy using two parameters,  $\varepsilon$  and  $\delta$ . These parameters were determined from headwave velocity measurements on anisotropic strata, in the parallel-, perpendicular- and  $45^{\circ}$ -to-bedding directions. This new method was developed using refraction seismic techniques to measure the necessary velocities in the Wapiabi Formation shales, the Brazeau Group interbedded sandstones and shales, the Cardium Formation sandstones and the Palliser Formation limestones. The Wapiabi Formation and Brazeau Group rocks were determined to be anisotropic with  $\varepsilon$ =0.23±0.05,  $\delta$ =-0.05±0.07 and  $\varepsilon$ =0.11±0.04,  $\delta$ =0.42±0.06, respectively. The sandstones and limestones of the Cardium and Palliser formations were both determined to be isotropic, in these studies.

In a complementary experiment, a new procedure using vertical seismic profiling (VSP) techniques was developed to measure the anisotropic headwave velocities. Using a multi-offset source configuration on an appropriately dipping, uniform panel of anisotropic strata, the required velocities were measured directly and modelled. In this study, the geologic model was modelled using an anisotropic raytracer, developed for the experiment. The anisotropy was successfully modelled using anisotropic parameters based on the refraction seismic results.

With a firm idea of the anisotropic parameters from the aforementioned studies, these parameters were then used in the anisotropic depth migration of a real dataset from the Alberta Foothills. The final anisotropic section demonstrated several improvements over

the isotropic section. This anisotropic section is considered to be more accurate, in terms of depth and lateral position of reflectors, and thus a more complete solution than the isotropic result.

In conclusion, seismic velocity anisotropy can seriously affect the imaging of subsurface play targets and every effort should be made to take these effects into account using anisotropic processing routines.

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To My Parents

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#### CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Introduction

Seismic anisotropy is the variation of the velocity of seismic waves, with direction, through a medium. This is true for both compressional (P-waves) as well as shear (Swaves). This dissertation is primarily concerned with P-wave anisotropy. It is known that the main causes of seismic anisotropy are due to aligned mineral grains, aligned cracks, aligned crystals and periodic thin layering [Helbig, 1994]. The simplest form of anisotropy is referred to as transverse isotropy (TI) where all directions perpendicular to the axis of symmetry are equivalent or isotropic [Helbig, 1994]. When the axis of symmetry is normal to the free surface, the material is considered to have vertical transverse isotropy (VTI) [Crampin, 1986]. It is known that the majority of sedimentary basins are composed, primarily, of shales and are also the main location of hydrocarbon reserves [Schoenberg, 1994; Sayers, 1994; Hornby et al., 1994]. Hence, the anisotropy due to the periodic thin layering of shales is very important and needs to be studied. Seismic anisotropy will affect time-to-depth conversions of seismic data which, in turn, will result in incorrect images of subsurface structures. This misrepresentation can seriously alter the location of interpreted exploration targets. Therefore, by studying seismic anisotropy, one can better assess a play target, thereby reducing the risks and costs involved.

Banik (1984) discovered a strong correlation between the presence of shales and measured velocity anisotropy. It has since been shown that shales exhibit TI, with a symmetry axis perpendicular-to-bedding, when probed with wavelengths that are longer than the thickness of the layers [Postma, 1955; Backus, 1962; Levin, 1979; Schoenberg, 1994; Johnston and Christensen, 1995]. Hence, shales exhibit an intrinsic anisotropy, resulting from the fine layering of the minerals, and the difference between the fast and slow velocities can be as much as 30% [Backus, 1962; Berryman, 1979; Levin, 1979; Jones and Wang, 1981; Banik, 1984; Gaiser, 1990; Sayers, 1994; Hornby et al., 1994; Kebaili and Schmitt, 1996]. Extrinsic anisotropy is a result of alternating layers of

isotropic or anisotropic media, with the layering of these materials being less than the wavelength of the probing seismic wave. Both intrinsic and extrinsic anisotropy is considered to exist in interbedded shales and sandstones in the Rocky Mountain Foothills, where folding and thrusting further compound the problem. No longer are the stratigraphic horizons horizontal, but are thrusted, often at steep angles, to the surface. These dipping layers are expected to induce changes in slowness and result in velocity anomalies in seismic data [Crampin, 1977; Gaiser, 1990]. The difference between the perpendicular-to- and parallel-to-bedding, hence the respective fast and slow, velocities is significant, increasing with the degree of anisotropy. This variation in velocity is assumed to have a significant effect on the traveltimes to the horizons below dipping clastic sequences, resulting in an apparent velocity anomaly in the seismic data.

## 1.2 Anisotropic P-wave Propagation

In order to understand and model geometric *P*-wave raypaths through any 2-D model, in the presence of elliptical and anelliptical anisotropy, some general theory must be established. Snell's law and both phase and group angles need to be considered across each interface [Crampin, 1977; Chapman and Pratt, 1992, Pratt and Chapman, 1992; Keith and Crampin, 1977a; Berryman, 1979; Gaiser, 1990; Dellinger and Vernik, 1994; Vestrum, 1994; Slawinski, 1995]. Computation of both reflection and transmission coefficients at anisotropic boundaries has previously been considered; however, none has considered interfaces that were not normal to the interface [Daley and Hron, 1977, Keith and Crampin, 1977a,b; Levin, 1978; Byun, 1982; Gaiser, 1990; Slawinski et al., 1995]. An elliptical wavefront solution, the simplest anisotropy assumption, was first considered to determine whether a complete, general anisotropic solution could be obtained for all ray angles. Also a solution that allows the major and minor axes of the ellipse to be oriented arbitrarily in 2-D space with respect to the interface, was developed.

#### 1.2.1 Elliptical Anisotropy Solution

In this section, the relationship between the phase,  $v(\theta)$ , and group,  $V(\phi)$ , velocities are derived, as well as the critical angle, under the assumption of elliptical anisotropy and a

general rotation of the symmetry axis of the incident and refracted media. The basis of the elliptical solution was a combination of equations derived by Levin (1978) and Byun (1982) for an elliptically anisotropic medium. In this type of medium, a wavefront will be elliptical, and the equation of the phase velocity surface is given by [Byun, 1982],

$$v^{2}(\theta) = v_{u}^{2} \cos^{2}(\theta) + v_{b}^{2} \sin^{2}(\theta)$$
 (1.1)

where,  $v_v$  is the vertical or perpendicular-to-bedding velocity,  $v_h$  is the horizontal or parallel-to-bedding velocity and the phase angle,  $\theta$ , is measured from the slow velocity axis. In this thesis, the terms  $v_{slow}$  and  $v_{fast}$  are sometimes used to describe  $v_v$  and  $v_h$ , respectively, in order to generalize the theory for dipping TI media. The phase velocity,  $v(\theta)$ , refers to the velocity of the seismic wavefront in a direction parallel to the wavefront normal. In contrast, the group or ray velocity,  $V(\phi)$ , is the velocity of the wave surface, in a direction radially outward from a point source in the anisotropic medium (Figure 1.1) [Winterstein, 1990; Thomsen, 1986].

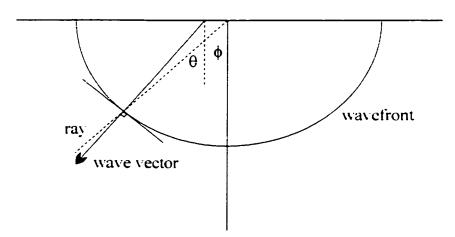


Figure 1.1. Diagram illustrating the difference between phase angle  $(\theta)$  and group or ray angle  $(\phi)$  for the VTI case [adapted from Thomsen (1986)].

The relationship between phase and group velocity is given by [Byun, 1982],

$$\frac{v(\theta)}{V(\phi)} = \cos(\phi - \theta) \tag{1.2}$$

where  $V(\phi)$  and  $\phi$  relate to the group velocity surface and  $v(\theta)$  and  $\theta$  relate to the phase velocity surface.

Also given by Byun (1982) is,

$$\tan(\phi) = \left(\frac{v_h}{v_v}\right)^2 \tan(\theta). \tag{1.3}$$

The group velocity surface is derived by the following procedure. Squaring equation (1.2) gives,

$$v^{2}(\theta) = V^{2}(\phi)\cos^{2}(\phi - \theta) = V^{2}(\phi)\left[\cos(\phi)\cos(\theta) + \sin(\phi)\sin(\theta)\right]^{2} \quad (1.2')$$

Equating equations (1.1) and (1.2),

$$V^{2}(\phi)\left[\cos^{2}(\phi)\cos^{2}(\theta)+2\cos(\phi)\cos(\theta)\sin(\phi)\sin(\theta)+\sin^{2}(\phi)\sin^{2}(\theta)\right]=v_{v}^{2}\cos^{2}(\theta)+v_{h}^{2}\sin^{2}(\theta)$$

Multiplication by  $\binom{1}{\cos^2(\theta)}$  yields,

$$V^{2}(\phi)\left[\cos^{2}(\phi) + 2\sin(\phi)\cos(\phi)\tan(\theta) + \sin^{2}(\phi)\tan^{2}(\theta)\right] = v_{v}^{2} + v_{h}^{2}\tan^{2}(\theta)$$

Substituting for  $tan(\theta)$  from equation (1.3) results in,

$$V^{2}(\phi) \left[ \cos^{2}(\phi) + 2\sin(\phi)\cos(\phi) \left\{ \frac{v_{v}^{2}\sin(\phi)}{v_{h}^{2}\cos(\phi)} \right\} + \sin^{2}(\phi) \left\{ \frac{v_{v}^{4}\sin^{2}(\phi)}{v_{h}^{4}\cos^{2}(\phi)} \right\} \right] = v_{v}^{2} + v_{h}^{2} \left\{ \frac{v_{v}^{4}\sin^{2}(\phi)}{v_{h}^{4}\cos^{2}(\phi)} \right\}$$

Multiplication by  $(v_h^4 \cos^2(\phi))$  yields,

$$V^{2}(\phi)\left[v_{h}^{4}\cos^{4}(\phi)+2v_{v}^{2}v_{h}^{2}\sin^{2}(\phi)\cos^{2}(\phi)+v_{v}^{4}\sin^{4}(\phi)\right]=v_{v}^{2}v_{h}^{4}\cos^{2}(\phi)+v_{h}^{2}v_{v}^{4}\sin^{2}(\phi)$$

Rearranging gives,

$$V^{2}(\phi) \left[ v_{h}^{2} \cos^{2}(\phi) + v_{v}^{2} \sin^{2}(\phi) \right]^{2} = v_{v}^{2} v_{h}^{2} \left[ v_{h}^{2} \cos^{2}(\phi) + v_{v}^{2} \sin^{2}(\phi) \right]$$

Therefore,

$$V^{2}(\phi) = \frac{v_{v}^{2}v_{h}^{2}}{\left[v_{h}^{2}\cos^{2}(\phi) + v_{v}^{2}\sin^{2}(\phi)\right]}$$

or,

$$\frac{1}{V^{2}(\phi)} = \frac{\sin^{2}(\phi)}{v_{h}^{2}} + \frac{\cos^{2}(\phi)}{v_{v}^{2}}$$
(1.4)

which is the equation for the group velocity surface.

Figure 1.2 illustrates a ray being transmitted through an interface. All angles are measured counterclockwise positive and angle direction is important. Angles  $\phi$  and  $\theta$  are the ray (group) and phase angles, respectively, and are measured from the slow velocity axis of the ellipse,  $v_{slow}$ , or, in other words, the axis of symmetry of the medium. If the axis of symmetry is rotated from the normal of the interface, the rotated angle  $\gamma$ , is measured from the interface normal. When  $\gamma \neq 0$ , the interface is not parallel to the fast velocity axis, or shale laminations, which is often the case in folded and faulted environments. This allows for a general elliptical solution to be obtained.

In order to develop the general elliptical numerical raytracer described in Chapter 2, the following relationships must be established. Note that all equations are valid in both the incident and refracted media and the angle definitions for each medium is given in Figure 1.2.

In the incident medium, the ray incident propagation angle,  $\alpha$ , and rotation angle of the symmetry axis,  $\gamma$ , are known. Hence, from Figure 1.2, the ray incident and refracted propagation angles are described by:

$$\alpha = \phi + \gamma. \tag{1.5}$$

The horizontal slowness, or ray parameter p, which is conserved across an interface according to Snell's Law, is defined as,

$$p = \frac{\sin(\theta)}{v} \tag{1.6}$$

for the isotropic case (i.e.  $\theta = \phi$ , and  $\gamma = 0$ ). This becomes,

$$p = \frac{\sin(\theta + \gamma)}{\nu(\theta)} \tag{1.7}$$

for the anisotropic case. Note that the phase velocity is dependent upon  $\theta$  and the rotation angle of the symmetry axis ( $\gamma$ ) is also included.

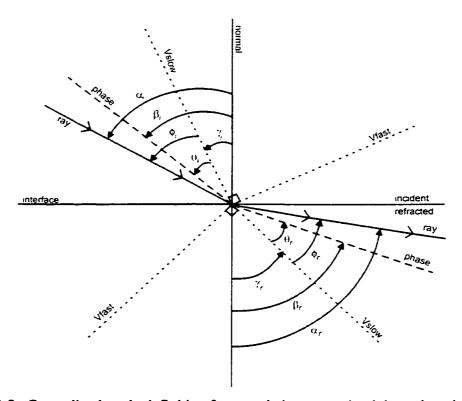


Figure 1.2. Generalized angle definition for a ray being transmitted through an interface.

Now, by expanding equation (1.7), the ray parameter may then be expressed as a function of vertical and horizontal velocities,  $v_v$  and  $v_h$  respectively, phase velocity,  $\theta$ , and axis rotation angle,  $\gamma$ ,

$$p = \frac{\sin(\theta)\cos(\gamma) + \cos(\theta)\sin(\gamma)}{\sqrt{v_v^2\cos^2(\theta) + v_h^2\sin^2(\theta)}}.$$

Multiplying the numerator and denominator of the previous equation by  $\binom{1}{\cos(\theta)}$  yields,

$$p = \frac{\sin(\gamma) + \cos(\gamma)\tan(\theta)}{\sqrt{v_v^2 + v_h^2 \tan^2(\theta)}}$$
 (1.8)

which is the ray parameter in terms of  $v_v$ ,  $v_h$ , axis rotation angle,  $\gamma$  and phase angle,  $\theta$ .

Substituting for  $tan(\theta)$  from equation (1.3) yields,

$$p = \frac{\sin(\gamma) + \cos(\gamma) \left[ \frac{v_v^2}{v_h^2} \tan(\phi) \right]}{\sqrt{v_v^2 + v_h^2 \left[ \frac{v_v^4}{v_h^4} \tan^2(\phi) \right]}}$$

Multiplying the numerator and denominator by  $\frac{1}{v^2}$ , gives,

$$p = \frac{v_v^{-2} \sin(\gamma) + v_h^{-2} \cos(\gamma) \tan(\phi)}{\sqrt{v_v^{-2} + v_h^{-2} \tan^2(\phi)}}$$
(1.9)

which is the ray parameter in terms of  $v_v$ ,  $v_h$ , axis rotation angle,  $\gamma$  and ray angle,  $\phi$ . This allows for the calculation of the ray parameter in the incident medium, directly from given information.

Since the ray parameter is conserved across the interface, it is necessary to obtain the refracted ray angle,  $\phi$ , in terms of the ray parameter, p, in order to calculate the refracted ray propagation angle,  $\alpha$ . Rearranging equation (1.4) results in,

$$\frac{1}{V(\phi)\cos(\phi)} = \sqrt{v_v^{-2} + v_h^{-2}\tan^2(\phi)}$$
 (1.4')

Substituting equation (1.4') into equation (1.9),

$$p = V(\phi) \left| v_v^{-2} \sin(\gamma) \cos(\phi) + v_h^{-2} \cos(\gamma) \sin(\phi) \right|$$
 (1.10)

Squaring equation (1.9),

$$p^{2} = \frac{v_{v}^{-1} \sin^{2}(\gamma) + 2v_{v}^{-2}v_{h}^{-2} \sin(\gamma)\cos(\gamma)\tan(\phi) + v_{h}^{-1}\cos^{2}(\gamma)\tan^{2}(\phi)}{v_{v}^{-2} + v_{h}^{-2}\tan^{2}(\phi)}$$

Cross-multiplying and rearranging yields,

$$p^{2}v_{v}^{-2} + p^{2}v_{h}^{-2}\tan^{2}(\phi) = v_{v}^{-4}\sin^{2}(\gamma) + 2v_{v}^{-2}v_{h}^{-2}\sin(\gamma)\cos(\gamma)\tan(\phi) + v_{h}^{-4}\cos^{2}(\gamma)\tan^{2}(\phi)$$

Hence,

$$\left( p^2 v_h^{-2} - v_h^{-1} \cos^2(\gamma) \right) \tan^2(\phi) - \left( 2 v_v^{-2} v_h^{-2} \sin(\gamma) \cos(\gamma) \right) \tan(\phi) + \left( p^2 v_v^{-2} - v_v^{-4} \sin^2(\gamma) \right) = 0$$

Using the quadratic formula to solve for  $tan(\phi)$  yields,

$$\tan(\phi) = \frac{2v_v^{-2}v_h^{-2}\sin(\gamma)\cos(\gamma) \pm \sqrt{4v_v^{-4}v_h^{-4}\sin^2(\gamma)\cos^2(\gamma) - 4\left(p^2v_h^{-2} - v_h^{-4}\cos^2(\gamma)\right)\left(p^2v_v^{-2} - v_v^{-4}\sin^2(\gamma)\right)}}{2\left(p^2v_h^{-2} - v_h^{-4}\cos^2(\gamma)\right)}$$

Multiplying the numerator and denominator by  $v_v^2 v_h^4$  yields,

$$\tan(\phi) = \frac{v_h^2 \sin(\gamma) \cos(\gamma) \pm p v_h^2 \sqrt{v_v^2 \cos^2(\gamma) + v_h^2 \sin^2(\gamma) - (p v_h v_v)^2}}{v_v^2 (p^2 v_h^2 - \cos^2(\gamma))}$$

Therefore,

$$\tan(\phi) = \left(\frac{v_h^2}{v_v^2}\right) \frac{\sin(\gamma)\cos(\gamma) \pm p\sqrt{v_v^2\cos^2(\gamma) + v_h^2\sin^2(\gamma) - (pv_h v_v)^2}}{p^2 v_h^2 - \cos^2(\gamma)}$$
(1.11)

which is the ray angle,  $\phi$ , in terms of the ray parameter, p, axis rotation angle,  $\gamma$ ,  $v_{\nu}$ , and  $v_h$ . This allows for the calculation of the refracted ray angle,  $\phi$ , and hence the ray refracted propagation angle,  $\alpha$ , using the known parameters of the refracted medium.

Note that for a normal ray, p=0, equation (1.11) reduces to,

$$\tan(\phi) = -\left(\frac{v_h^2}{v_v^2}\right) \tan(\gamma).$$

The refracted phase angle,  $\theta$ , may also be described in terms of the refracted medium's parameters. Squaring equation (1.8) and rearranging gives,

$$p^2 v_v^2 + p^2 v_h^2 \tan^2(\theta) = \sin^2(\gamma) + 2\sin(\gamma)\cos(\gamma)\tan(\theta) + \cos^2(\gamma)\tan^2(\theta)$$

Hence,

$$(p^{2}v_{h}^{2} - \cos^{2}(\gamma))\tan^{2}(\theta) + (-2\sin(\gamma)\cos(\gamma))\tan(\theta) + (p^{2}v_{v}^{2} - \sin^{2}(\gamma)) = 0$$

Using the quadratic formula to solve for  $tan(\theta)$  yields,

$$\tan(\theta) = \frac{2\sin(\gamma)\cos(\gamma) \pm \sqrt{4\sin^2(\gamma)\cos^2(\gamma) - 4(p^2v_h^2 - \cos^2(\gamma))(p^2v_v^2 - \sin^2(\gamma))}}{2(p^2v_h^2 - \cos^2(\gamma))}$$

Multiplying and rearranging results in,

$$\tan(\theta) = \frac{\sin(\gamma)\cos(\gamma) \pm p\sqrt{v_{\nu}^{2}\cos^{2}(\gamma) + v_{h}^{2}\sin^{2}(\gamma) - \left(pv_{h}v_{\nu}\right)^{2}}}{\left(p^{2}v_{h}^{2} - \cos^{2}(\gamma)\right)}$$
(1.12)

which is the phase angle,  $\theta$ , in terms of the ray parameter, p, axis rotation angle,  $\gamma$ ,  $\nu_{\nu}$ , and  $\nu_{h}$ .

Note that substitution of equation (1.12) into equation (1.11) yields,

$$\tan(\phi) = \left(\frac{v_h^2}{v_v^2}\right) \tan(\theta). \tag{1.3}$$

For completeness, the phase incident and refracted propagation angles are defined as,

$$\beta = \theta + \gamma \tag{1.13}$$

as in Figure 1.2.

Note that equation (1.7) becomes,

$$p = \frac{\sin(\beta)}{v(\theta)}. (1.14)$$

for the anisotropic case. Critical refraction must also be considered, which occurs when,

$$\theta_c \ge \sin^{-1}(\frac{v_i}{v}) \tag{1.15}$$

for the isotropic case.  $v_i$  and  $v_r$  refer to the incident and refracted phase velocities, respectively. For the elliptically anisotropic case, critical refraction occurs when,

$$\left| v_h^2 \sin^2(\gamma) + v_v^2 \cos^2(\gamma) - (p v_h v_v)^2 \right| < 0. \tag{1.16}$$

#### 1.2.2 Anelliptical Anisotropy Solution

For weakly anisotropic media, the following Thomsen (1986) equations can be used:

$$\varepsilon = \frac{c_{11} - c_{33}}{2c_{33}} = \frac{v_h - v_v}{v_v} \tag{1.17}$$

$$\delta = \frac{(c_{13} + c_{44})^2 - (c_{33} - c_{44})^2}{2c_{33}(c_{33} - c_{44})} = 4\left(\frac{v_{45}}{v_v} - 1\right) - \left(\frac{v_h}{v_v} - 1\right)$$
(1.18)

where  $c_{ij}$  are the elastic stiffness coefficients and  $v_v$ ,  $v_{45}$  and  $v_h$  are the perpendicular-to-,  $45^{\circ}$ -to- and parallel-to- bedding phase velocities, respectively. An anisotropic medium is considered weakly anisotropic when the difference between the bedding-normal and bedding-perpendicular velocities is less than 20% [Thomsen, 1986]. Also, for an anisotropic medium to be considered elliptically anisotropic, the parameters  $\varepsilon$  and  $\delta$  must be equal [Thomsen, 1986]. However, this is only a mathematical simplification as  $\varepsilon$  and  $\delta$  usually differ in actual rock samples [Thomsen, 1986; Tsvankin and Thomsen, 1994].

It is worthy to note that the percentage (%) anisotropy is calculated as follows, throughout this thesis:

% anisotropy = 
$$\frac{v_h - v_v}{v_h} \times 100 \%$$
 (1.19)

Using Thomsen (1986) notation, the phase velocity is given by,

$$v(\theta) = \alpha_a (1 + \delta \sin^2(\theta) \cos^2(\theta) + \varepsilon \sin^4(\theta)). \tag{1.20}$$

where  $\alpha_o = v_v$ . The relationship between the group and phase angles is,

$$\tan(\phi) = \tan(\theta) \left| 1 + 2\delta + 4(\varepsilon - \delta) \sin^2(\theta) \right|. \tag{1.21}$$

The ray velocity can be obtained by,

$$V(\phi) = \alpha_a (1 + \delta \sin^2(\phi) \cos^2(\phi) + \varepsilon \sin^4(\phi)). \tag{1.22}$$

#### 1.3 Measuring $\varepsilon$ and $\delta$

In order to use the Thomsen (1986) notation for computing the propagation of P-waves through anisotropic media, one must have knowledge about the values of both  $\varepsilon$  and  $\delta$ . Obtaining accurate values for these parameters has been widely investigated, mainly

•

through the investigation of nonhyperbolic moveout, from surface seismic data, in homogeneous, flat lying layers. Tsvankin and Thomsen (1994) first investigated the relationship between anisotropy and (non)hyperbolic moveout in seismic data. Note also that the hyperbolic moveout equation is strictly valid only for a reflector below an homogeneous isotropic or elliptically anisotropic layer. Tsvankin and Thomsen (1994) determined that the presence of anisotropy resulted in nonhyperbolic moveout, even in an homogeneous layer, and that for P-waves, the relative magnitude of deviations from hyperbolic moveout increases with increasing  $|\varepsilon - \delta|$ . They also discovered that the short-spread moveout velocity is not equal to the rms velocity, even for horizontal layers, in the presence of anisotropy. Thus the P-wave moveout from horizontal reflectors is insufficient to recover the VTI parameters, even when using long offsets [Tsvankin and Thomsen, 1994; Alkhalifah and Tsvankin, 1995]. As a result, the process of inverting for the anisotropic parameters is complicated using surface seismic data. It was also shown that the vertical S-wave velocity has a minimal effect on the P-wave traveltimes. This allows for the P-wave traveltimes to then be characterized by only three independent parameters: vertical P-wave velocity  $(v_v)$ ,  $\varepsilon$  and  $\delta$  [Tsvankin and Thomsen, 1994; Alkhalifah and Tsvankin, 1995; Tsvankin, 1996 and 1997].

Alkhalifah and Tsvankin (1995) have developed an inversion routine, using modified equations from Tsvankin (1995), which provides sufficient information to perform *time* processing steps. These include DMO, pre- and post-stack time migration but not depth migration. The time-to-depth conversion requires an accurate knowledge of the vertical P-wave velocity, which cannot be determined from the P-wave NMO velocities alone [Tsvankin and Thomsen, 1994; Alkhalifah and Tsvankin, 1995]. Unfortunately, this inversion routine is only valid for a homogeneous, TI medium above a moderately dipping reflector ( $<50-60^{\circ}$ ). In addition, this process yields only the vertical P-wave NMO velocities and an effective anisotropic parameter  $\eta$ , which is defined by Alkhalifah and Tsvankin (1995) as follows:

$$\eta = \frac{\varepsilon - \delta}{1 - 2\delta} \tag{1.23}$$

This parameter,  $\eta$ , is an indication of the deviation from ellipticity of a material. However, in order to obtain the individual values of  $\nu_{\nu}$ ,  $\epsilon$  and  $\delta$ , required for depth processing routines, one must have additional external information, such as well logs, cross well information or a check shot survey.

When working in a complexly structured environment, such as the Rocky Mountain Fold and Thrust Belt, one does not encounter flat-lying structures very often. Generally, the rocks are often folded and thrusted to steep dip angles, which may or may not outcrop at surface. With this in mind, the process of obtaining the anisotropic parameters from surface seismic data is not feasible, particularly when the wavelength of structures is significantly less than the seismic recording aperture. An additional problem is that the rock formations in the Southern Alberta Foothills may possess varying degrees of anisotropy, as a result of both intrinsic (e.g. Wapiabi and Blackstone shales) and extrinsic (e.g. Lower Brazeau/Belly River interbedded shales and sandstones) properties. See Figure 1.3 for stratigraphic column of the southern Rocky Mountain Foothills. This may result in lateral inhomogeneity in anisotropic parameters as well as velocity in the subsurface, especially when these formations are folded and thrusted. In these environments, the optimal approach to subsurface imaging is pre-stack depth migration, but this process requires prior knowledge of the anisotropic parameters of various formations.

#### 1.4 Structure and Objectives of Thesis

The majority of work published to date does not adequately address the problem of reflection seismic imaging in anisotropic media with a tilted symmetry axis. Most of the examples published-to-date describe horizontally layered media with a vertical symmetry axis (VTI), or vertically aligned cracks with a horizontal symmetry axis (HTI), and virtually nothing with intermediate dip angles [for example, Tsvankin, 1997]. Thus the focus of this dissertation is to address the tilted symmetry axis problem of the complexly structured environment, in the pre-stack depth migration domain. This includes the development of both refraction seismic and VSP field techniques to determine the

Era	Period	Formation or Group	Lithology	Average Seismic Velocities (m/s)
Mesozoic	Tertiary	Paskapoo		3300-3700
	S	Edmonton  State  Bearpaw Shale		
	A Mabiabi	Flower Belly River		3800-4100
		3900-4150		
	ower	Blairmore		4200-4400
	Jurassic	Kootenay Fernie		4100-4300
Paleozoic	Mississ ippian	Mount Head Do Turner Valley Shunda Pekisko Banff Exshaw		5500-6000
	Devonian	Palliser Fairholme		
	Cambrian			

Figure 1.3. Stratigraphic column from the Southern Alberta Foothills [adapted from Slotboom, 1992].

individual anisotropic parameters necessary for the depth migration process. These experimental techniques have not been previously employed for the determination of anisotropic parameters of rocks at a seismic wavelength scale.

Two physical models, representative of structures found in the foothills of central Alberta and incorporating anisotropic material were used to demonstrate the 'pull-up' effects of anisotropy due to steeply dipping shales. These physical models are extremely useful for assessing the effects of anisotropy on seismic images since the velocities, anisotropic parameters, dip angles, and the exact location and geometry of the thrust sheets are known a priori. The objective of the experiments with physical models was to determine if the effects of anisotropy, particularly transverse isotropy, would significantly affect isotropic migration results. Initially, numerical analysis was undertaken on these model data, described in Chapter 2, to assess the magnitude of the anisotropic effects of dipping strata, which can affect traveltimes significantly.

Pre-stack depth migration was then performed on both physical model datasets, and these results are described in Chapter 3 using both isotropic and anisotropic velocity models. The first physical model dataset was examined using the isotropic, pre-stack depth migration (PSDM) routine at Amoco Canada, in the summer of 1996. This was done to assess the limitations of the isotropic PSDM. To evaluate the differences between isotropic and anisotropic PSDM, both physical model datasets were subsequently analyzed using the software provided by Kelman Technologies Inc., in the spring of 1998.

Current methods of time-to-depth conversion of P-wave seismic data do not address the traveltime and velocity distortions caused by seismic anisotropy, especially in areas of complex geological structure. The first step in addressing this problem is to know which rock units are anisotropic and to quantify their anisotropic parameters. This quantification can be done using laboratory studies on core and outcrop samples; however, this can be very difficult, particularly when examining the notoriously anisotropic rock type of shales. Also, it is difficult to mimic the *in situ* conditions in the

laboratory and, secondly, the friable shale samples also tend to break apart under the saturated conditions necessary to determine their anisotropic parameters. Hence, in situ measurements of the rocks are preferred since they give a more robust characterization of their properties. In this thesis, refraction seismic techniques have been developed, in Chapter 4, to measure anisotropic parameters of shales and other clastic sequences, in situ. By laying out seismic lines parallel, perpendicular and at  $45^{\circ}$  to the local strike directions, the Thomsen (1986) anisotropic parameters,  $\varepsilon$  and  $\delta$  have been determined from the bedding-parallel, bedding-perpendicular and intermediate ( $45^{\circ}$  azimuth) velocities. These refraction techniques were developed and applied in seven different field experiments, measuring the velocity variations in the Wapiabi, Cardium and Palliser formations as well as rocks of the Brazeau Group (Figure 1.3).

VSP technology has been previously considered for the determination of velocity anisotropy in rocks; however, these methods are limited to dips less than  $5^{\circ}$  [Kebaili and Schmitt, 1996; Sayers, 1997; MacBeth, 1998]. Therefore, with this limitation, these applications are not appropriate in moderate to steep dip environments, such as in the Foothills of the Rocky Mountain Fold and Thrust Belt. In Chapter 5, a new approach to using VSP technology to determine the anisotropic parameters is developed and tested in an Alberta Foothills well. To calculate the anisotropic parameters,  $\varepsilon$  and  $\delta$ , in the presence of moderate to steep dips, accurate determinations of the bedding-normal, bedding-perpendicular and  $45^{\circ}$  velocities are required. Using multi-offset VSP technology, these velocities were determined from the first arrival information through a thick homogeneous, moderately dipping (30-60°), uniformly dipping panel of rocks and a multi-offset source configuration.

In Chapter 6, the migration of an Alberta Foothills surface seismic dataset is described and processed using anisotropic pre-stack depth migration. This required a geologically controlled velocity model, and the anisotropic parameters determined from the refraction (Chapter 4) and VSP (Chapter 5) surveys. Anisotropic depth migration was used to provide an optimally imaged depth section.

#### 1.5 Geology and Study Areas

This thesis involved several field sites in southern Alberta where experiments were undertaken. A stratigraphic column of formations in the foothills of southern Alberta is shown in Figure 1.3. The main geologic formations of interest belong to the Devonian. Mississippian and Upper Cretaceous periods. The Mississippian rocks are the oldest and deepest rocks involved in structural deformation in the areas studied, most of which were in the Triangle Zone, a structural feature at the leading edge of the fold and thrust belt [Lawton et al., 1994; Gordy et al., 1977]. The top of the Paleozoic strata, which are comprised mainly of carbonate rocks, is a major marker of interest in seismic data as this is the boundary between the overlying clastic rocks and the underlying carbonate rocks. It is in this seismic reflector that the effects of anisotropy in the overlying sediments are evident. The Mississippian rocks overlie the Devonian Exshaw and Palliser Formations and Fairholme Group. The Exshaw Formation is a black shale which is often a major glide horizon in the southern Alberta foothills [Slotboom, 1992]. The Palliser Formation and Fairholme Group are mainly composed of carbonate rocks. In strata of Mesozoic age, Alberta Group rocks, comprising the Wapiabi, Cardium and Blackstone formations, are of greatest interest in this study. The Blackstone and Wapiabi formations are marine shales and are both important detachment horizons [Slotboom, 1992]. They range in thickness from 300-450 m and exhibit intrinsic anisotropic properties. Between these formations lies the Cardium Formation, which is composed mainly of sandstones and conglomerates [Slotboom, 1992]. Above the Alberta Group lie the interbedded sandstones and shales of the Belly River Formation of the Brazeau Group (Figure 1.3). This formation is also of interest due to the extrinsic anisotropic properties of the interbedded layers.

The locations of the various surveys are shown on a map of Alberta, Canada, shown in Figure 1.4. Refraction seismic surveys were undertaken at sites near Jumpingpound Creek, Longview, Seebe, and Exshaw. The VSP survey was performed at Wildcat Hills.

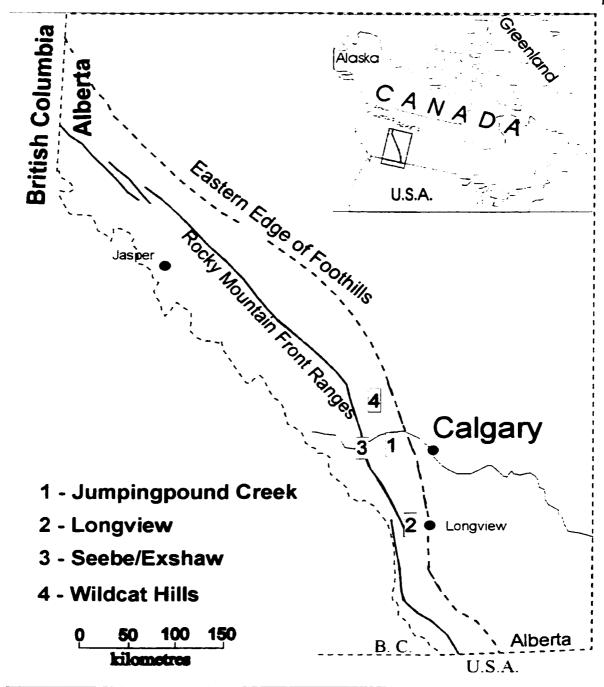


Figure 1.4. Map of Alberta indicating the field survey areas examined in this dissertation. Seven refraction surveys were performed in various locations near Jumpingpound Creek, Longview and Seebe/Exshaw. The VSP survey was performed at Wildcat Hills.

# CHAPTER 2 PHYSICAL AND NUMERICAL MODELLING THROUGH ANISOTROPIC MEDIA

#### 2.1 Introduction

Physical models, representative of structures found in the foothills of central Alberta and incorporating anisotropic material, e.g. phenolic laminate, were used to demonstrate the pull-up effects of anisotropy due to steeply dipping shales. These physical models are extremely useful for assessing effects of anisotropy on seismic reflectors below dipping strata since the velocities, anisotropic parameters, dip angles, and the exact location and geometry of the thrust sheets are known a priori. By studying physical models, it is also easier to predict and understand the results obtained in the field. Also, this allowed for the determination of the effects of anisotropy, particularly transverse isotropy, and whether they significantly affect isotropic migration results.

Initial work involved the development of a numerical raytracer to predict the traveltimes of primary waves, or *P*-waves, through these physical models. The purpose of this work was to numerically model geometric *P*-wave raypaths though any 2-D model, in the presence of elliptical or anelliptical anisotropy. The raytracing program was then tested by two different physical models, to determine the stability of the subroutine written for the general elliptically anisotropic case with a variable symmetry axis.

#### 2.2 Principles of the Traveltime Raytracing Program

The numerical raytracer was modified to calculate traveltimes from reflectors within an arbitrary 2D model, incorporating non-vertical symmetry axes. To run the raytracing program, a model file is required, which contains all of the reflector and interface information, including all rotational angles, or  $\gamma$ 's, for each interface between media, either or both of which may be anisotropic. Another file, containing the acquisition geometry information of the sources and receivers, is also needed. Once these files have been created, the raytracing program then begins with the starting shot, as defined by the geometry file. A fan of rays is emitted into the model, each of which honours anisotropic

Snell's law across each interface and calculates the group velocity through each layer. At this point, the starting receiver is activated, searching for rays that straddle it. An iterative process is used to determine the ray, which emerges within the capture radius of this receiver. The traveltime for the ray, or rays, is calculated and the process continues for the following receiver. This process is repeated for each receiver defined in the geometry file, after which, the next shot is considered. Once all of the shots have been completed, an output file of the traveltimes is generated. The raytracer was developed to initially model elliptically anisotropic media and later extended to raytrace through anelliptic TI media.

### 2.3 Testing the Elliptical Anisotropy Subroutine

A Fortran subroutine was written to compute the raypath, the associated velocities and the traveltimes through general anisotropic media. Refer to Figure 1.2 for all angle definitions. This subroutine computes the incoming ray angle ( $\phi_i$ ) upon an interface from the ray incident propagation angle ( $\alpha_i$ ), (equation 1.5) and uses the ray parameter and equation 1.9 to calculate the refracted angle ( $\phi_i$ ) from equation 1.11. The refracted propagation angle ( $\alpha_i$ ) and associated ray velocities were then calculated using equations 1.5 and 1.4, respectively. The rotational angles of the axis of symmetry,  $\gamma$ 's, must be defined, for each anisotropic interface of the model, before the calculations can be made. Note that the rotational angle of an isotropic medium is zero. Initially, the elliptical anisotropy code was tested alone using user-defined input angles, after which it was inserted, as a subroutine, into the raytracing program. The code for this subroutine is presented in Appendix I.

The following conditions, to constrain all of the required angles, were found to be sufficient for a general solution of rays impinging on an interface:  $|\alpha_i| \le 90^\circ$ ;  $\phi_i \le 90^\circ$ ;  $\beta_i$  and  $\beta_r < 0$  or,  $\beta_i$  and  $\beta_r > 0$ ; and,  $|\alpha_r| \le 90^\circ$ . Since the phase angle,  $\theta$ , is always less than the ray angle, in elliptically anisotropic media the condition that  $-90^\circ < \phi_i < 90^\circ$ 

was sufficient to constrain  $\theta_i$ . The fact that  $\theta_r$  and  $\phi_r$  are calculated via an arctangent function, results in,  $\theta_r$  and  $\phi_r$ , also being constrained to  $\pm 90^\circ$ . However, a constraint on  $\alpha_r$  is still needed since it must be between  $\pm 90^\circ$  for the ray to be physically valid.

Sometimes  $\alpha_r$  was refracted towards the interface normal and, for other cases, away from it. This is one of the important reasons for using the elliptical anisotropy equations, since, the isotropic models do not result in this phenomenon. This minor change in the angles can have a significant effect on the raypaths and traveltimes through the models. It is also noted that the phase angles were always closer to the slow velocity axis than the ray angles. In some models the phase angles are very different from the ray angles, which can have a significant affect on the *P*-wave traveltimes, compared with isotropic raytracing programs, in which both the phase and the ray angles are always equal. One solution that was non-intuitive was that a negative  $\alpha_i$  resulted in a positive  $\alpha_r$  (Figure 2.1). In this particular case, with a moderately large  $\gamma_i$  and a small negative ray incident propagation angle  $(\alpha_i)$ , resulted in a slightly positive phase incident propagation angle  $(\beta_i)$ . As it is the phase angle that is refracted according to Snell's law, both the phase and ray refracted angles are also positive. Thus it looks as though the propagating ray refracts back onto itself in the refracted medium, hence on the same side of the interface normal, which is counterintuitive.

#### 2.4 Development of the Anelliptical Anisotropy Subroutine

There are two main problems with the anelliptical solution. Firstly, the phase incident angle,  $\theta_i$ , cannot be determined explicitly from the ray incident angle,  $\phi_i$ , using equation 1.21; thereby, complicating the calculation of the ray parameter, p, at the first interface. By assuming a thin isotropic layer at the top of the model, such that  $\theta$  and  $\phi$  are equal, this non-explicit conversion may be eliminated. Secondly, once the ray parameter has been calculated at the interface from the incident parameters, the refracted phase angle,  $\theta_p$  cannot be explicitly determined from the calculated ray parameter, p, using equation 1.7. Hence, the refracted phase angle values have to be determined iteratively. Initially

this was achieved by a spreadsheet, which calculated all the possible ray parameters, between 0 and 90°, using equation (1.7), incorporating all possible  $\gamma$ 's. Thus, from the incident medium ray parameter, the refracted phase propagation angle,  $\beta_r$  and associated velocity could be determined from the corresponding ray parameter, calculated in the spreadsheet. From this value the refracted phase angle,  $\theta_r$ , ray angle ( $\phi_r$ ) and velocity could be calculated. At which time the refracted ray propagation angle,  $\alpha_r$ , could be determined from equation (1.5).

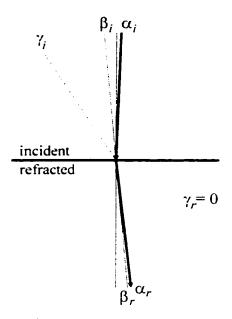


Figure 2.1. Diagram depicting a ray, propagating at an angle  $(\alpha)$ , impinging on an interface in the incident medium and being refracted back towards the direction of origin in the refracted medium.

It is important to note that all angles were measured with respect to the slow axis of the assumed pseudo-ellipse: the direction perpendicular to the laminations of the phenolic. Hence  $\phi$  and  $\theta$  are measured with respect to the slow velocity axis of the pseudo-ellipse and  $\gamma$  is measured from the interface normal, counterclockwise positive, as shown in Figure 1.1. Also note that the phase angles and velocities were calculated across the interfaces where the ray angles and velocities were then calculated. This procedure was also incorporated into the raytracing code.

#### 2.5 Physical Modelling

P-wave transducers, vertically polarized with respect to the horizontal plane, were used as both sources and receivers in the acquisition of the two physical model datasets. The transducers are flat-faced and cylindrical, with an active element 12.6 mm in diameter [Cheadle et al., 1991]. When acquiring the data, the contact faces are coupled to the models. The source transducer is driven with a square wave tuned to produce a broadband wavelet with a central frequency of 300 kHz [Cheadle et al., 1991]. The transducers are moved across the model and traces are recorded sequentially and stored on disk, in SEG-Y format. The models are built from materials, such as solid laminates and Plexiglass, which are glued together. Distance and time scaling factors of 1:10 000 are typically used. The details of each model survey are presented in the sections below.

A consideration as to whether group or phase velocities were measured, also had to be taken into account [Keith and Crampin, 1977a; Berryman, 1979; Gaiser, 1990; Dellinger and Vernik, 1994; Vestrum, 1994; Slawinski et al., 1995]. It was determined that the group velocity was measured in these models since the ray length is very much greater than the diameter of the transducers (20cm vs. 1cm).

#### 2.6 Physical Model 1

A 1:10 000 scale model of an anisotropic thrust sheet was constructed in the physical modelling lab of the Department of Geology and Geophysics at the University of Calgary. The model mimics structures found in the central Alberta Foothills (Figure 2.2). Phenolic laminate, consisting of layers of cloth which have been glued together with epoxy, was used as the anisotropic material because it has well understood elastic properties [Cheadle et al., 1991]. A simulated thrust sheet was constructed from the laminate, with corresponding slow and fast velocities of  $V_{\text{slow}} = 2925$  m/s and  $V_{\text{fast}} = 3365$  m/s, and the Thomsen (1986) anisotropic parameters were  $\delta = 0.081$  and  $\varepsilon = 0.150$  [Cheadle et al., 1991]. The geometry is a good representation of structures found in the Southern Alberta Foothills. The surrounding isotropic medium was made of Plexiglass, which has a measured velocity of 2740 m/s. The marker of interest was the reflection from the

horizontal, aluminum base of the model, at approximately 2 km depth (scaled), below the thrust sheet. The scaled line length is 5160 m.

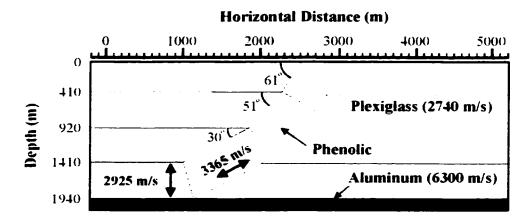


Figure 2.2. Diagram of first physical model built for the FRP. The reflector of interest is the flat aluminum base of the model at 1940 m (scaled).

The results of the 2-D, zero-offset, ultrasonic survey across the model show an apparent structure in this basal reflector, with an amplitude of approximately 100 ms (Figure 2.3). The trace spacing of the zero-offset data is 10 m. By modelling the data, isotropically, using the slow velocity of the phenolic material, the effects of the larger volume of faster material in the thrust sheet, in comparison to the slower velocity of the Plexiglass, could be determined. It was decided that half of the time anomaly, present in the data, was due to these isotropic effects and that the residual anomaly, due solely to anisotropy, was 50 ms. This represents a residual depth structure of approximately 100 m, in this case, which is the magnitude of structures that are considered prospects in the foothills. Hence the effects of anisotropy due to steeply dipping clastics are represented and significant in the seismic data obtained from the physical model. The data gap in the basal reflector of this model is due to critical refraction of rays along the bottom of the steepest dipping block of phenolic.

The results of using zero-offset raytracing to calculate the traveltimes to the flat, basal reflector from model 1 are shown in Figure 2.4. Calculated traveltimes agreed to within

±10 ms of those observed (scaled) from the physical modelling experiment. As shown in Figure 2.4, the results agree exceptionally well with the seismic data, displaying a 100 ms anomaly in the basal horizon. The gaps in the data from the raytracer correspond to shadow zones where there are no geometric raypaths. Diffractions were not included in the traveltime modelling.

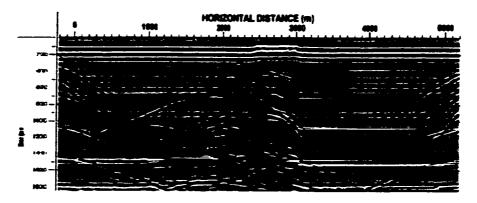


Figure 2.3. Zero-offset data from the ultrasonic survey performed on the first physical model. Note the pull-up (~100 ms) in the basal reflector located at approximately 1400 ms.

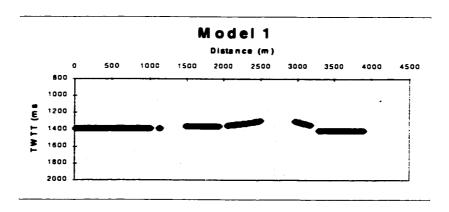


Figure 2.4. Results of raytracing of model 1. Note the 100ms velocity anomaly predicted, which is the same as that in the raw data. Note that the horizontal scale is slightly different from the raw data, as the origin for the raytracing was taken at a slightly different location than the recorded data.

Multi-offset data were also collected over this model and records were combined from forward and reverse passes over the model into 86 shot gathers, at 60 m intervals. The

source-receiver offsets were 200-2000 m and the receiver interval was 20 m. The processing of these data is discussed in Chapter 3.

### 2.7 Physical Model 2

Another 1:10 000 scale model of an anisotropic thrust sheet was constructed in the physical modeling laboratory (Figure 2.5). The model is comprised completely of phenolic laminate, with alternating layers of linen, such that traveltime anomalies from reflectors at the base of the model could be attributed solely to the anisotropic effects of the variably dipping layers in the model. The velocities of this material were assumed to be  $V_{slow} = 2925$  m/s and  $V_{fast} = 3365$  m/s, respectively, and  $\delta = 0.081$  and  $\varepsilon = 0.150$ , similar to those of model 1 [Cheadle et al., 1991; Thomsen, 1986]. The resulting percentage anisotropy (equation 1.19) is then 13%. The phenolic hanging wall thrust sheet consists of four segments of increasing dip, from 0° to 67.5°. The footwall, flat layers are also made of the same material. The marker of interest was again the reflection from the horizontal base of the model, at approximately 2 km depth (scaled), below the thrust sheet. This model did not have an aluminum base to it. The scaled line length is 5320 m.

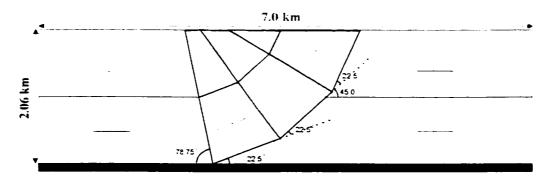


Figure 2.5. Diagram of second physical model built for the FRP. The reflector of interest is the base of the model at 2050 m (scaled).

The 2-D, zero-offset, ultrasonic survey data are shown in Figure 2.6. The trace spacing of the zero-offset data is 10 m. The amount of pull-up is less than 100 ms since the

surrounding isotropic material had been replaced with the higher velocity phenolic laminate, compared with lower velocity Plexiglass in model 1. Hence the velocity contrast is less compared to the first model, resulting in a smaller velocity anomaly, but one which is caused entirely by velocity anisotropy.

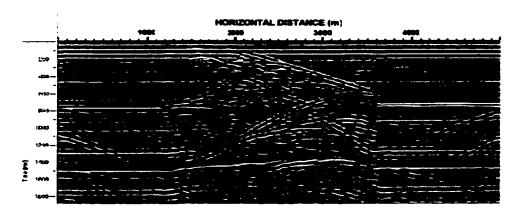


Figure 2.6. Resultant data from the ultrasonic survey performed on the second physical model. Note the pull-up (~50 ms) in the basal reflector located at approximately 1450 ms.

Figure 2.7, shows the results from model 2. The predicted results of this model are as expected, considering the results from model 1, and match observed values within  $\pm 10$  ms. The amount of pull-up is less than 100 ms since the surrounding isotropic material had been replaced with the higher velocity phenolic laminate. Hence the average ray velocity contrast is less, resulting in a smaller velocity anomaly.

Again multi-offset data were combined from forward and reverse passes over the model into 134 shot gathers, at 40 m intervals. Source-receiver offsets were 200–2000 m with a receiver interval of 20 m. These data are also discussed in Chapter 3.

#### 2.8 Discussion

By assuming elliptical anisotropy in this study, the first order issues arising from the anisotropy could be addressed, simply and easily. This allowed for a simple application to a complicated problem and, thus, a good starting place for the analysis of anisotropy in

seismic data. Also, with the use of zero-offset data, the problem of moveout due to varying  $\varepsilon$  and  $\delta$  values, is eliminated. Hence, the elliptical solution is considered valid, for first-order effects, in this situation. This is not the case, such as in the following chapters, where multi-channel data were used.

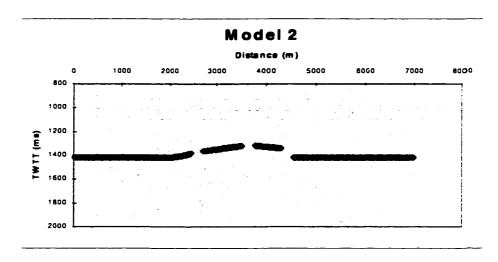


Figure 2.7. Results of the elliptical raytracing on model 2. Note the similarity to the results from model 1, except with a smaller velocity anomaly. Again the horizontal scale is different from the raw data due to a shift in the origin from the recorded data.

The raytracing code was well constrained and the numerical modelling results indicate that a general, elliptical, raytracing solution had been found. The results for each comparison model were as expected and the correlation to the actual data was exceptionally good, within ±10 ms. Thus the elliptical assumption was a reasonable solution for the zero-offset data.

### CHAPTER 3 DEPTH MIGRATION OF PHYSICAL MODEL DATA

#### 3.1 Introduction

Pre-stack depth migration was undertaken on multi-channel data collected over the two physical models, as described in Chapter 2, using both isotropic and anisotropic velocity models. The isotropic solution was examined at Amoco Canada as a summer project in 1996, using their in-house pre-stack depth migration code. A good understanding of the limitations of isotropic migration code ensued. The anisotropic solution was then pursued in conjunction with Kelman Technologies Inc. in the spring of 1998. The difference between isotropic and anisotropic migrations is that the traveltime generator for the anisotropic, Kirchhoff, pre-stack depth migration was developed such that anisotropic group velocities were used to propagate the wavefronts for traveltime computation [Vestrum et al., 1999]. In the isotropic case, a point on the wavefront propagates normal to the wavefront using the local velocity. In the anisotropic case, a point on the wavefront propagates radially outwards from the sourcepoint at the group velocity, which may be oblique to the wavefront normal [Vestrum et al., 1999].

One of the methods used, in this dissertation, to determine the validity of migration velocities was to look at the common image gathers (CIGs). A CIG is a display of prestack migration traces versus the source-receiver offset corresponding to a fixed reflector point [Zhu et al., 1998]. The migration moveout effects are prominent on CIGs and allow for effective velocity analysis, as a result. Zhu et al. (1998) give a detailed analysis of the mathematical relationships between high and low migration velocities and the pre- and post-stack migrated seismic section. Essentially, a high migration velocity, with respect to the 'true' velocity, will produce a 'frown' on the CIG and the migrated depth of the event will be too large. Whereas, a low migration velocity, with respect to the 'true' velocity, will produce a 'smile' on the CIG and the migration depth will be too shallow. If the migration velocity is equal to the true velocity, the image will be at the correct depth and event on the CIG will show no residual moveout.

# 3.2 Amoco Pre-Stack Depth Migration - Model 1

Data from model 1 (Figures 2.1 and 2.2) were pre-stack depth migrated using code made available by Amoco Canada. The model data were initially processed with a spiking deconvolution and a 500 ms AGC. The data were then migrated to determine if the anomaly present in the basal aluminum marker could be eliminated using isotropic velocities only. Hence, the objective was to determine whether assigning appropriate isotropic velocities could minimize the depth anomaly caused by anisotropic components of the model. Several velocity models were tested and two are discussed here. The best solution was considered to be the one that gave the closest representation of the physical model in terms of reflector image and location in depth. Figure 3.1 shows the result of using only the fast velocity for the anisotropic thrust sheet. The depth anomaly has been eliminated from the basal reflector, but the reflector is located 100 m too deep under the thrust sheet, as known from the physical model. Also, the CIGs are over-corrected (i.e. smiling) under the thrust sheet, indicating that this migration velocity is too low and that it should be higher (Figure 3.2). Nevertheless, this would further compound the migration error if higher velocities were used.

The second isotropic depth migration is a result of using a vertical velocity gradient within the thrust sheet, decreasing from the fast velocity to the slow velocity of the phenolic at the bottom of the thrust sheet. This is designed to approximate the anisotropy in the phenolic material, through use of isotropic velocities, with faster velocities at the top of the thrust sheet where the beds are almost vertical, decreasing in velocity to where the beds are flat lying at the base of the thrust sheet. The result of isotropic depth migration using this velocity model is shown in Figure 3.3. This section shows that the depth anomaly has been eliminated, for the most part, while maintaining the correct depth to the reflector. However, again the gathers indicate that the migration velocity of the thrust sheet is too low (Figure 3.4), since the events are over-corrected. Hence, the discrepancies in reflector location and gather shape indicate that anisotropy cannot be properly accounted for using the isotropic, pre-stack depth migration.

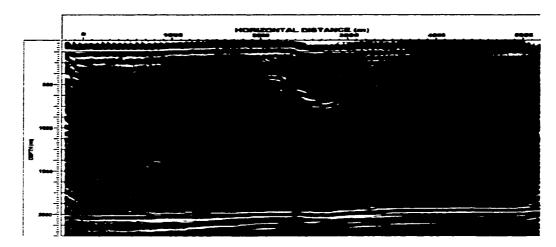


Figure 3.1. Isotropic, pre-stack depth migrated section of model 1 using a constant, fast velocity in the thrust sheet. Note that the basal reflector is located too deep under the thrust sheet (Amoco software).

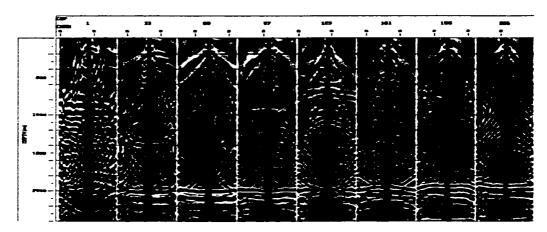


Figure 3.2. A sampling of depth gathers, evenly distributed across the model, resulting from the migration in Figure 3.1. Note that the gathers indicate that the migration velocities used are too low under the thrust sheet (third from left) and too high in the Plexiglass section (second and third from right).

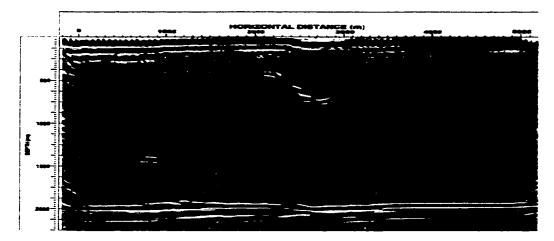


Figure 3.3. Isotropic, pre-stack depth migrated section of model 1 using a vertical velocity gradient in the thrust sheet. Note that the basal reflector is located at the correct depth under the thrust sheet; however, some residual structure is present in this reflector (Amoco software).

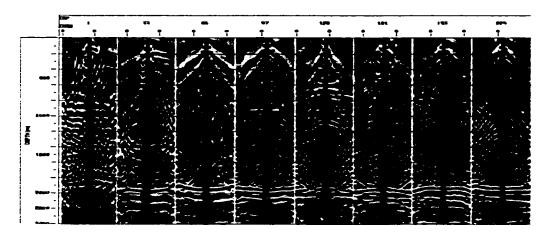


Figure 3.4. A sampling of depth gathers, evenly distributed across the model, resulting from the migration in Figure 3.3. Note the distorted nature of the gathers, especially under the thrust sheet (second, third and fourth gathers from left), which indicate that the migration velocity used was too low. Again the second and third gathers from the right demonstrate that the migration velocity in the Plexiglass was too fast.

# 3.3 Kelman Pre-Stack Depth Migration - Model 1

The purpose of this part of the study was to duplicate the results of the Amoco experiment and then to use the model data to test the anisotropic depth migration code. The physical model 1 data were processed as follows: mute; pre-stack depth migration (isotropic and anisotropic); scale; and filter (bandpass Ormsby 8-12, 50-60 Hz). The data were first migrated isotropically, with a velocity model built using the constant fast velocity of the thrust sheet and its actual spatial location for the migration, similar to that done for the Amoco study. As before, the objective was to eliminate the anomaly in the basal reflector and to obtain the correct depth image of the reflector. The results of this migration are shown in Figure 3.5 and the associated CIGs in Figure 3.6 (near offsets on the right and far offsets on the left of each CIG). The continuity of the basal reflector is good; however, again it is located too far in depth under the thrust sheet, compared to Figures 3.1 and 3.2. In addition, the gathers in this location indicate that the migration velocity is too low, due to the 'smiling' image on the CIGs, and should be increased. In doing so, the reflector would be pushed even farther in depth, which is incorrect. This result is the same as was determined in the Amoco study.

The second isotropic velocity model used a horizontal velocity gradient in the thrust sheet, grading from the fast velocity of the phenolic in the top right corner of the thrust to the slow velocity in the flat lying phenolic in the bottom left. This was done in attempt to account for the anisotropy of the phenolic material. Note that this model is slightly different from the Amoco study in that this velocity model used a horizontal velocity gradient and the Amoco model used a vertical velocity gradient. The result is a correctly placed reflector, under the thrust sheet, but the continuity of the reflector is somewhat compromised (Figure 3.7). This is a similar result to that found in the Amoco study (Figure 3.3). Again, events in the CIGs are smiling, which indicates that, although the reflector is correctly located in depth, a higher migration velocity should have been used to correctly migrate the data (Figure 3.8, compared with Figure 3.4). This would also be incorrect, according to the known physical model. Again, the results of the Kelman study

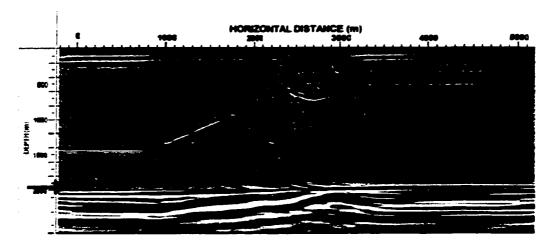


Figure 3.5. Isotropic, pre-stack depth migrated section of model 1 using a constant, fast velocity in the thrust sheet. The arrow indicates the true depth position of the basal reflector. Note that the basal reflector is located too deep under the thrust sheet (Kelman software).

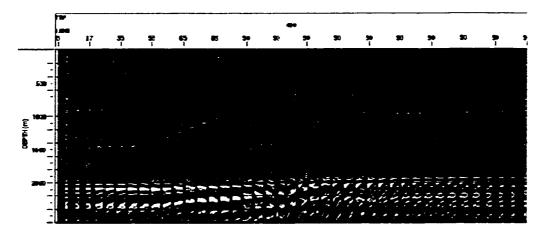


Figure 3.6. A sampling of depth gathers, evenly distributed across the model, resulting from the migration in Figure 3.5. Note that the near offsets are at the right side of each gather and the far offsets at the left. The basal reflector gathers located under the thrust sheet are over-corrected, demonstrating the need for a faster migration velocity.

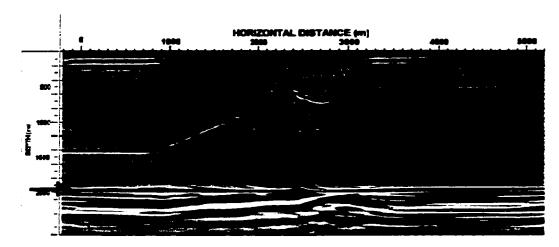


Figure 3.7. Isotropic, pre-stack depth migrated section of model 1 using a horizontal velocity gradient in the thrust sheet. Note that the basal reflector, at arrow, is located at the correct depth beneath the thrust sheet; however, some residual structure is present in this reflector (Kelman software).

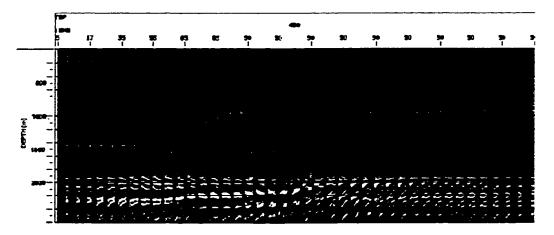


Figure 3.8. A sampling of depth gathers, evenly distributed across the model, resulting from the migration in Figure 3.7. Note the distorted nature of the basal reflector in the gathers, especially under the thrust sheet, which indicate that the migration velocity used was too low.

were successful in duplicating the results of the Amoco study, further indicating that isotropic velocities are insufficient to migrate data collected over an anisotropic model.

The only way to eliminate the discrepancy between correct depth and residual moveout on image gathers is to use anisotropic pre-stack depth migration. By using the correct velocity model, and all the correct parameters ( $\varepsilon$ ,  $\delta$  and dip) from the physical model, one obtains a correct depth image of the original model (Figure 3.9) which is supported by the associated CIGs (Figure 3.10). Reflector continuity is maintained, it is correctly located in depth and events within the CIG are flattened. Hence, all the discrepancies from the isotropic depth migration process have been eliminated. It should be noted that the small amount of residual moveout in the CIG is associated with the velocity model building process. The migration velocity model is built in time. However, the structural geometry of the model, is measured in depth, and the conversion from depth to time in the velocity model building process introduces small irregularities into the velocity model and, subsequently, in the migration. In conventional migration, the depth model is not known, thus the velocity model must be built deterministically.

# 3.4 Kelman Pre-Stack Depth Migration - Model 2

Data from physical model 2 (Figures 2.4 and 2.5) were processed using a mute, pre-stack depth migration (isotropic and anisotropic), scale and filter (bandpass Ormsby 8-12, 50-60 Hz). Again, for comparison purposes this model dataset was first processed isotropically, using a gradient velocity model, in order to attempt to eliminate the anomaly in the reflector from the base of the model. The base of the thrust was defined and a horizontal velocity gradient was applied to the dipping part of the thrust: grading from the fast velocity of the phenolic in the top right corner to the slow velocity of the phenolic in the flat-lying layers, in the bottom left. The resultant isotropic depth migration is comparable to the results of the first model (Figure 3.11). The basal reflector is located correctly in depth, with some minor structure present; however, the CIGs exhibit considerable residual moveout which indicates that a higher velocity should have been used to properly migrate the data (Figure 3.12). It is also interesting to note that the

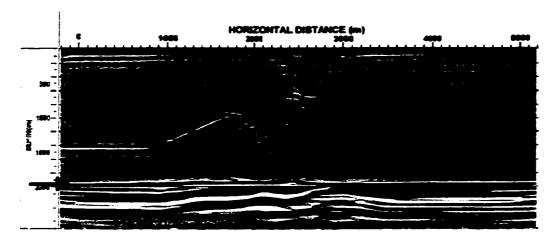


Figure 3.9. Anisotropic, pre-stack depth migrated section of model 1 using the correct parameters of the physical model. Note that the arrowed basal reflector is located at the correct depth beneath the thrust sheet and the residual structure in the reflector of interest has been eliminated (Kelman software).

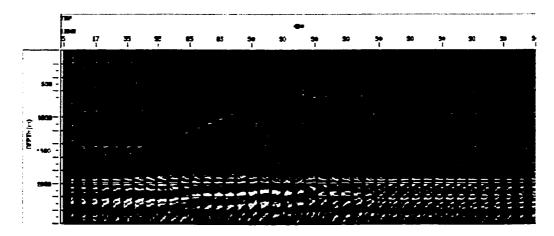


Figure 3.10. A sampling of depth gathers, evenly distributed across the model, resulting from the migration in Figure 3.9. The minor residual moveout present in the basal reflector gathers is attributed to the velocity model building process.

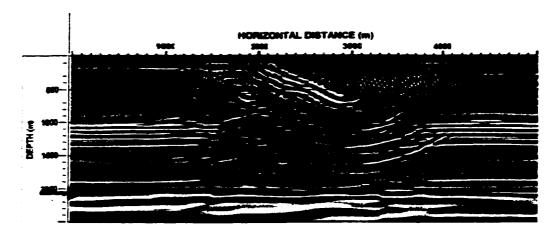


Figure 3.11. Isotropic, pre-stack depth migrated section of model 2 using a horizontal velocity gradient in the thrust sheet. Arrow indicates the true depth location of the basal reflector. Note that the basal reflector (trough) is located at the correct depth beneath the thrust sheet; however, some residual structure is present in this reflector (Kelman software).

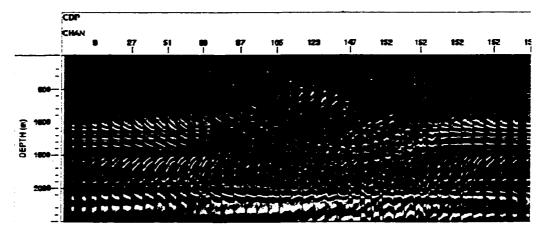


Figure 3.12. A sampling of depth gathers, evenly distributed across the model, resulting from the migration in Figure 3.11. Note the distorted moveout of the basal reflector in the gathers, especially under the thrust sheet, which indicate that the migration velocity used was too low.

CIGs also exhibit considerable moveout in the shallow, flat lying reflectors, on the edges of the model at approximately 1 km scaled depth. The CIGs are also over-corrected in this region, demonstrating that a higher migration velocity is necessary to properly migrate the data. This is incorrect according to the model geometry, which also indicates that the isotropic velocities are insufficient to migrate even the flat lying geology in the anisotropic model.

The continuity of the basal reflector is compromised because model 2 does not have an aluminum base. Since the model is sitting on a tabletop, thus going from a high velocity medium to a slow velocity medium, there is a negative impedance contrast at the base of the model. Also, there is a multiple which destructively interferes with the basal reflector, resulting from the horizontal seam, about halfway down the model, at approximately 1 km scaled depth. Thus the basal reflector is very strong in the middle of the section and weak at the edges (Figure 3.11).

Data from the second model were then migrated incorporating the known anisotropic parameters into the velocity model. This velocity model consisted of the definition of the thrust base, the actual parameters of the model (slow P-wave velocity,  $\varepsilon$  and  $\delta$ ) and a continuous definition of dip through the thrust sheet and across the model. No distinctions were made between the different blocks of dipping phenolic as the thrust sheet was modelled as having continuous, smooth curvature in the velocity model. After migration, the basal reflector is correctly located in depth, although it is severely distorted (Figure 3.13). The gathers are comparably distorted as well (Figure 3.14). Given that the input velocity model linearly interpolates the dips between defined values, whereas the actual model has distinctly dipping sections, the results are not surprising. This result illustrates the sensitivity of the depth migration to the geometry model.

In the final anisotropic velocity model, each distinct, dipping section of phenolic was correctly located, with appropriate dip as well as all the correct parameters of the physical model. The result, after migration, is a correct depth section with good reflector

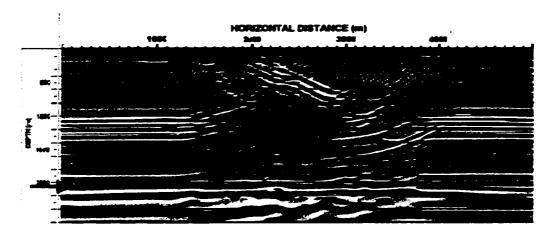


Figure 3.13. Anisotropic, pre-stack depth migrated section of model 2 using a continuous dip definition (no distinctly dipping sections) in the thrust sheet. Note that the arrowed basal reflector is located at the correct depth beneath the thrust sheet; however, there is an excessive amount of residual structure present in the basal reflector (Kelman software).

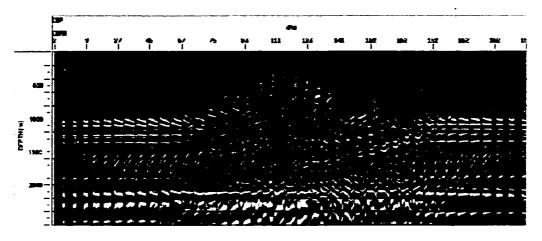


Figure 3.14. A sampling of depth gathers, evenly distributed across the model, resulting from the migration in Figure 3.13. Note the distorted nature of the basal reflector gathers, which indicate that the dips were not assigned accurately.

continuity (Figure 3.15), correct reflector depth and flattened events on the CIGs (Figure 3.16). Again the gathers show some minor residual moveout due to small depth-time conversion errors, as was noted in the results of the first physical model (Figures 3.9 and 3.10). Thus, the same sensitivity to the model building process is also present in the second physical model data.

#### 3.5 Discussion

Physical models are very useful for the study of seismic anisotropy. Since all the necessary parameters of the model can be determined, the seismic data collected over the models are ideal for the testing of processing software, in particular, migration routines. In this study, it has been demonstrated that isotropic, pre-stack depth migration is limited in its ability to correctly migrate seismic data collected over anisotropic physical models, as it leads to discrepancies between the correct reflector depth and the residual moveout in image gathers. The testing completed in this study indicates that conventional pre-stack depth migration is not able to properly compensate for the effects of TI, and the results verify that anisotropic effects cannot be accounted for using isotropic velocities. Therefore, anisotropic, pre-stack depth migration is required to properly process seismic data from these models and, in general, data from foothills environments where anisotropic strata exist.

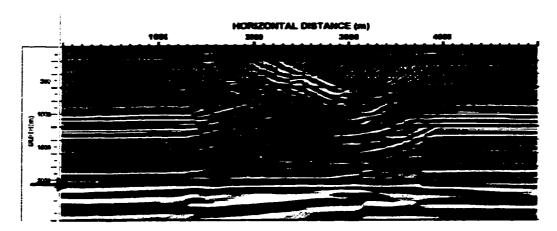


Figure 3.15. Anisotropic, pre-stack depth migrated section of model 2 using distinctly dipping sections in the thrust sheet. Note that the basal reflector, at arrow, is located at the correct depth under the thrust sheet and the residual structure has been eliminated (Kelman software).

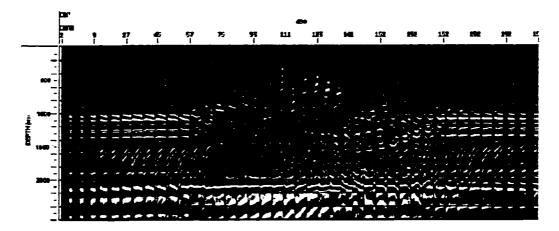


Figure 3.16. A sampling of depth gathers, evenly distributed across the model, resulting from the migration in Figure 3.15. The residual structure present in the basal reflector gathers is attributed to the velocity model building process.

#### 4.1 Introduction

Clearly, there is a need to determine the anisotropic parameters of rocks in a field experiment, where the bulk response of the rocks can be assessed on the scale of several seismic wavelengths, for direct application to the analysis of reflection seismic data. The approach taken in this study was to undertake a multiazimuth refraction seismic experiment in an area where the rocks of interest outcrop at surface and the strata have a uniform, steep dip, preferably vertical. This structural geometry is relatively common in fold-thrust belts. By laying out seismic lines parallel, perpendicular and at 45° to the local strike directions (Figure 4.1), the Thomsen (1986) anisotropic parameters,  $\varepsilon$  and  $\delta$ can be determined using equations 1.17 and 1.18 (Chapter 1). For instance, for vertically dipping strata, the measured velocities along the local dip and strike directions are the bedding-normal and bedding-parallel velocities respectively, equivalent to the vertical and horizontal velocities described by Thomsen (1986) for the VTI case. parameters were obtained by measurement of headwave velocities along the seismic lines, which were of sufficient length to ensure that the refractor velocities measured are from rocks that are below the near-surface weathered layer. A similar, successful study was undertaken previously by Gendzwill (1993) except that he evaluated anisotropic effects caused by vertical fractures rather than vertical bedding.

Seven multi-azimuthal refraction seismic field studies were performed over a period of three years, 1996-98, on shales of the Wapiabi Formation, interbedded shales and sandstones of the Brazeau Group, Palliser Formation limestones and sandstones of the Cardium Formation. These formations are tabulated in Figure 1.3. These surveys were executed in various locations along the foothills of the Rocky Mountain Fold and Thrust Belt in southern Alberta, Canada (Figure 1.4), after careful consideration of surface geology through the study of both maps and air photos. The Wapiabi shales are strongly suspected of possessing velocity anisotropy, as are the shales and sandstones of the Brazeau Group. Rocks of the Palliser Formation, which are composed primarily of

limestones, are not expected to exhibit intrinsic anisotropy, as do shales, but they may exhibit anisotropy due to fracture orientation. The same is true for the sandstones of the Cardium Formation.

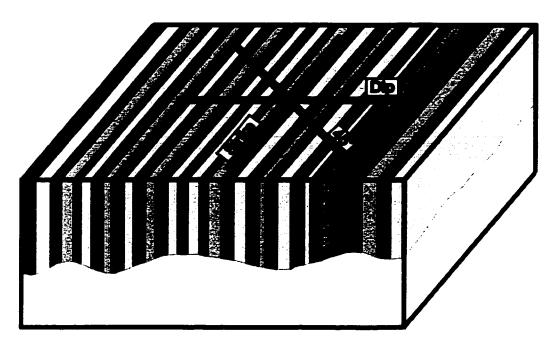


Figure 4.1. Schematic diagram showing the layout of the refraction seismic lines to determine the bedding-parallel, bedding-perpendicular and 45° azimuth velocities.

The first survey was conducted in 1996 at Jumpingpound Creek (Figure 1.4, location 1) with measurements on the steeply dipping shales of the Wapiabi Formation. The second group of surveys incorporated four locations west of Longview (Figure 1.4, location 2), in 1997 and 1998, and measured the anisotropy of the steeply dipping rocks of the Wapiabi Formation, Brazeau Group and Cardium Formation. The third set of experiments investigated the strata of the Palliser and the shallowly dipping Wapiabi formations at two locations near Seebe and Exshaw, respectively (Figure 1.4, location 3), in 1998.

# 4.2 Data Acquisition

Refraction seismic data were acquired according to the parameters given in Table 4.1. The specific geometries for each location are described in the appropriate sections, later

in this chapter. The source used was a Bison Elastic Wave Generator (EWG Model 3) owned and operated by the University of Calgary and was used in all of the refraction surveys for anisotropic parameter studies in this thesis project. It is a weight drop source, utilizing a 270 kg hammer, which is accelerated onto the ground by gravity, assisted by pre-tensioned elastic bands. An aluminum strike plate laid on the ground below the hammer was necessary to enhance energy coupling and was used in the 1998 surveys. Two different instrument systems were used during the surveys. A 24-bit, 96 channel Bison system operating at 0.25 ms sampling interval and a record length of 0.5 s was used for the 1996-97 surveys and a 24-bit, 60-channel Bison system operating at 0.125 ms sample interval and a record length of 0.25 s was used in the 1998 surveys. A transducer mounted on the EWG sources triggered the instruments for the 1996-97 surveys; however, a more reliable switch closure between the hammer and strike plate was developed and used for the 1998 surveys. The data were recorded directly onto hard disk in SEG-2 format and later copied to either a tape or a high density removable disk. Typically, two to three hammer impacts were summed at each source location to provide optimum signal to noise ratio for the first arrivals. At each shotpoint, the source hammer was offset approximately 1.5-2 m perpendicular to the line direction. Data quality was generally very good with clear first arrivals pickable over the full recording aperture.

# 4.3 Data Analysis

#### 4.3.1 Geometry

The geometry file for each survey location was built in ProMax establishing the source and receiver locations in Cartesian co-ordinates. The SEG-Y seismic files were imported into ProMax and the following necessary information for each line was set up: number of traces per receiver for each shot; number of shots; and field file number for each shot. The geometry information was also maintained in a spreadsheet in order to produce a basemap, including bearings, at each survey location.

Table 4.1. Survey parameters of refraction seismic lines

Location/ Formation	Line	Azimuth (°)	Length (m)	# Receivers	Receiver Interval (m)	Shot Interval (m)
Jumpingpound	Strike	157	285	96	3	6
Creek '96/	Dip	67	380	96	4	8
Wapiabi	45°	112	380	96	4	8
Longview '97/	Strike	161	188	48	4	12
Wapiabi	Dip	71	188	48	4	~12
	45°	116	188	48	4	12
Longview '97/ Brazeau Gp.	Strike	155	284	72	4	18
	Dip	65	284	72	4	18
	45°	110	284	72	4	18
Longview '98/ Brazeau Gp.	Strike	160	236	60	3	48
	Dip	70	236	60	3	48
	45°	25	<del></del>			
Longview '98/ Cardium	Strike	170	236	60	4	48
	Dip	80	236	60	4	48
	45°	35	236	60	4	48
Seebe '98/ Wapiabi	Strike	166	95	20	5	10
	Dip	76	95	20	5	10
	45°	121	95	20	5	10
Exshaw '98/ Palliser	Strike	150				
	Dip	60	95	20	5	10
	45°	105				

# 4.3.2 First Break Picking

Initially bad traces were removed from each shot record. The first breaks were picked for the first shot record after which the automatic first break picker was initialized. To run the automatic picker in ProMax, a time gate was defined. This was the window within which the neural network picker picked the first breaks. To assess the accuracy of the automatic picker, the first shot record was repicked and the new picks appeared over the original picks. The picks were considered to be precise to  $\pm 2$  ms and the neural network picker then proceeded to pick the first breaks from all the records within the dataset. Any bad picks were then edited manually. The result was a fairly straight lines of picks, diverging from the shot point. The first break data obtained in ProMax were transferred to a spreadsheet for further analysis.

# 4.3.3 Velocity Analysis

For inline shots and receivers at each of the survey sites, refractor velocities were generally determined using a 'minus-time' analysis, developed by Hagedoorn (1959) and described, in detail, by Reynolds (1997). In this method, the traveltime data from forward and reverse seismic records are used, hence, requiring a fixed receiver spread with a shot at each end. The minus-time is defined as the time recorded at a receiver from shot A on the forward record  $(T_{AR})$ , minus the time recorded at the same receiver from shot B on the reverse record  $(T_{BR})$ , minus the total shot-to-shot traveltime of the record  $(T_{AB})$ . Hence the minus-time  $(T_{AB})$  can be described, as follows:

$$T^{-} = T_{AR} - T_{BR} - T_{AB} \tag{4.1}$$

The minus-time is a mathematical formulation, which eliminates any static effects of both surface and refractor topography from the data. A reliable velocity of the refractor can then be calculated as twice the inverse slope of the minus-time vs. distance graph. At some locations, variations from the minus-time analysis were required and details are provided in the appropriate sections.

### 4.4 Jumpingpound Creek '96 - Wapiabi Formation

Rocks of the Wapiabi Formation are of Cretaceous age (Alberta Group) and are fine-grained, black, marine shales up to 300m thick, with millimeter scale laminations. The first survey site was at Jumpingpound Creek, approximately 30 km west of Calgary (Figure 4.2). At this location, shales of the Wapiabi Formation dip to the east at a constant angle of about 70° and form part of the eastern flank of the triangle zone in this region [Slotboom et al., 1996]. Here, the regional strike direction is 157°. Figure 4.3 is a photograph of an outcrop of Wapiabi shales immediately along strike from the field survey site. A diagram showing the layout of seismic lines occupied during the survey is given in Figure 4.4. Line lengths were dictated essentially by the available aperture at the site, which was located on a flat floodplain, and generally were longer in the dip direction than in the strike direction (Table 4.1). Each line was recorded by a fixed spread of 96 single, 28 Hz geophones.

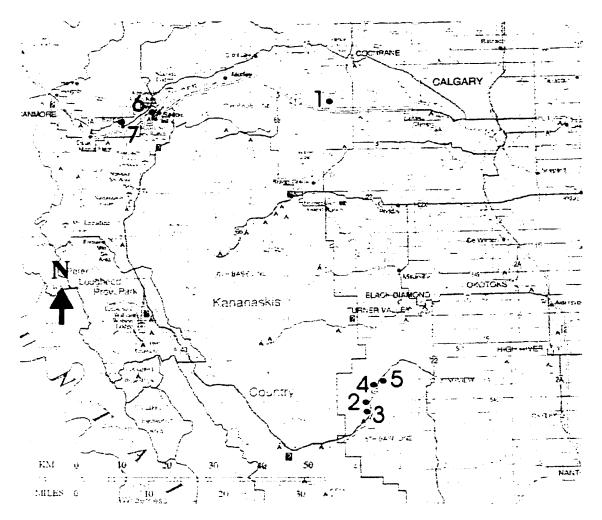


Figure 4.2. Location map of the seven refraction survey experiments, performed in southern Alberta: 1-Jumpingpound Creek '96 (Wapiabi); 2-Longview '97 (Wapiabi); 3-Longview '97 (Brazeau); 4-Longview '98 (Brazeau); 5-Longview '98 (Cardium); 6-Seebe '98 (Wapiabi); 7-Exshaw '98 (Palliser). Base map after Gem Trek Publishing, 1995.

In order to provide data redundancy and allow for detailed static corrections for the surficial weathering layer at the Jumpingpound Creek location, shotpoints were occupied at every second receiver location along the fixed receiver spread for each line. At each shotpoint, the source hammer was skidded 1.5 m perpendicular to the line direction. The program resulted in 49 records being obtained for each line.



Figure 4.3. Photograph of outcropping shales of the Wapiabi Formation at the Jumpingpound Creek location. Note the 60-70° dip of the shales, as indicated by the white horizons in the picture. The refraction survey was performed on the flat floodplain in the foreground.



Figure 4.4. Diagram indicating the layout of the refraction seismic survey lines at the Jumpingpound Creek '96, Wapiabi location. Strike line is oriented at 157°.

# 4.4.1 Refractor Velocity Analysis

Data quality was good with clear first arrivals pickable over the full recording aperture. A plot of the first break picks from the strike line at Jumpingpound Creek is shown in Figure 4.5, with short-wavelength distortions in the curve interpreted to be due to variations in thickness and velocity of the surface layer. This layer is interpreted to be approximately 2 m thick and is composed of reworked glacial sediments and alluvial sands and gravels deposited by Jumpingpound Creek. Traveltimes to the receivers closest to the shot indicate the velocity of this layer at surface is approximately 120 m/s. A minus-time analysis was attempted at this site but the data did not lie on a straight line, indicating turning rays in the shallow depths. In this case, an alternate analysis of the data had to be performed. By applying shot and receiver statics to the data, the low velocity surface layer was effectively reduced from the first break data. Figure 4.6 is a representative first break plot with the static corrections applied. It can be seen from this graph that there were two segments to each record. The segment closest to the shot location is curved, indicating that turning rays needed to be incorporated into the velocity analysis, using a process described by Lawton (1993). By curve-fitting the data and assuming a linear velocity function,  $v(z) = v_0 + kz$ , the velocity gradient, k, was found to be largest in the strike direction with a value of 35 s<sup>-1</sup>, whereas in the dip direction, the gradient is lower with a value of 20 s<sup>-1</sup>. The velocity gradient is attributed to weathering of the shales, which extends to a depth of approximately 100 m, as calculated from the raw data plots. At far offsets, the traveltime-distance data became linear with offset, indicating that the base of the weathering layer had been reached. Velocity analysis for anisotropic parameter determination used the data from these longer source-receiver offsets.

### 4.4.2 Results

As expected, the dip line exhibits a slower velocity than both the strike (fastest) and 45° (intermediate) lines and these velocities are summarized in Table 4.2. The errors in the velocities were determined using the procedure of maximum/minimum slopes. Subsequently, the errors in the anisotropic parameters were determined from the

calculated error in the velocities, using standard error propagation methods for sums and products. The anisotropic parameters for these deeper shales were calculated using the Thomsen (1986) equations from Chapter 1 (equations 1.17 and 1.18) and are summarized in Table 4.2. The bedding-normal and bedding-parallel velocities have been generalized in order to account for the dip of the strata. Note also that the phase and group velocities are equal in both the bedding-normal and bedding-parallel directions. Furthermore, it was determined that the small error in the  $45^{\circ}$  azimuthal velocity, due to the difference between the phase and group angles, is within the calculated error in  $\delta$  (Table 4.2).

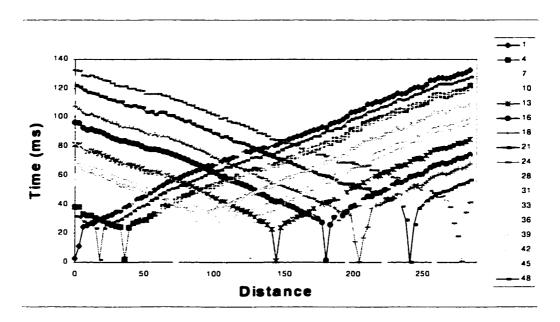


Figure 4.5. Raw first break data for the strike line at Jumpingpound Creek. Only every third record was plotted for clarity.

The calculated velocities for this formation are slightly slower than the sonic velocity values obtained from well logs in the area. This is thought to be a result of weathering of the sediments in this location, perhaps due to the proximity to Jumpingpound Creek. The weathering of these rocks is suspected to cause the curved nature of the minus-time data, implying a near surface velocity gradient, thus requiring a turning ray analysis of the data. Nevertheless, the weathering of the rocks has been consistent in the three velocity directions, thus the calculated anisotropic parameters are expected to be representative of

this formation. The parameter values also lie within the stated limits established by Thomsen (1986).

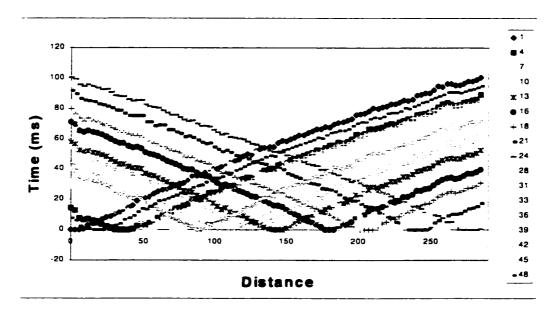


Figure 4.6. First break data for the strike line at Jumpingpound Creek with the source and receiver weathering statics applied. Only every third record was plotted for clarity.

Table 4.2. Summary of velocities calculated from first break data for the shales at the Jumpingpound Creek location.

Location/	Velocity (±100 m/s)			Anisotropic Parameters	
Formation	Strike	Dip	45°	ε	δ
Jumpingpound Creek '96 /Wapiabi	3200	2800	2900	0.14±0.05	0.00±0.08

#### 4.5 Longview '97 – Wapiabi Formation

The second survey site was located immediately west of highway 541, approximately 20 km west of Longview, Alberta (Figure 4.2). The terrain at this location was variable with one minor creek that cut across the dip line. At this site, the shales of the Wapiabi Formation dip west at a relatively constant angle generally greater than 80°. The regional strike of the shales at this location is 161°. Figure 4.7 is a photograph of the sub-vertical shales of this location, as seen in outcrop in Flat Creek, which is located immediately

adjacent to the survey site. Each line was recorded by a fixed spread of 48 single, 28 Hz geophones with a group interval of 4 m (Table 4.1). Figure 4.8 indicates the seismic line layout for this site. The weathering layer was determined to be considerably thinner (<1m) than at Jumpingpound Creek and 5 records/line were adequate for reliable headwave velocity analysis. At each shotpoint, the source hammer was skidded 2 m perpendicular to the line direction.



Figure 4.7. Photograph of the Wapiabi shale outcrop in Flat Creek, immediately south of the Longview '97 refraction survey site.

#### 4.5.1 Results

At offsets greater than the crossover distance, the first break data plotted on straight lines (Figure 4.9), with some short-wavelength scatter, indicating that there is no vertical velocity gradient in these shales. The approach taken here for velocity analysis was a reciprocal method using 'minus-times' as described by Hagedoorn (1959). Minus-time versus distance graphs for all three lines are given in Figure 4.10. Except for a few noisy data points, the data lay on straight lines indicating that a velocity gradient was not present at this location. The velocities were calculated as twice the inverse slope of each

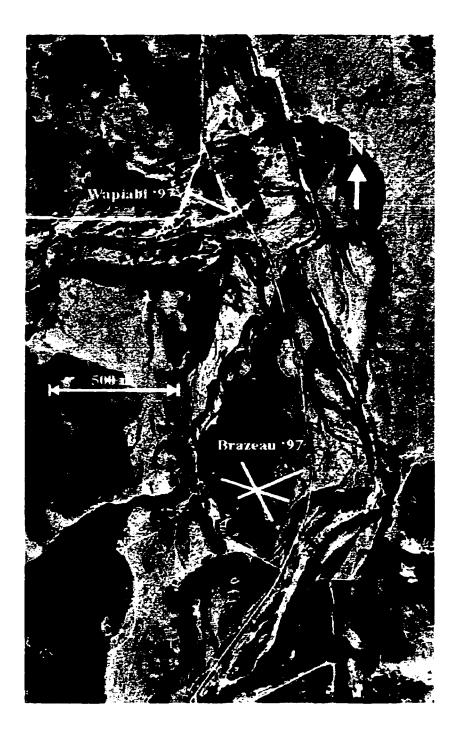


Figure 4.8. Diagram indicating the layout of the Longview '97 refraction seismic surveys.

line and are tabulated in Table 4.3. The anisotropic parameters were calculated using equations 1.17 and 1.18, from Chapter 1, and are also contained in Table 4.3. Again, the errors in the velocities were determined using the procedure of maximum/minimum slopes, as was discussed previously. Subsequently, the errors in the anisotropic parameters were statistically determined from the calculated error in the velocities, again using standard error propagation methods for sums and products. The calculated velocities at this location are close to the values typically recorded on sonic logs through the Wapiabi Formation. Hence, the lack of velocity gradient, combined with the higher velocities and greater degree of anisotropy measured, suggests that the shales at this location are less weathered and possibly less deformed than those shales at the Jumpingpound Creek location. The calculated anisotropic parameters are within the range of values published by Thomsen (1986) and  $\epsilon$  is slightly higher than the value at the Jumpingpound Creek location.

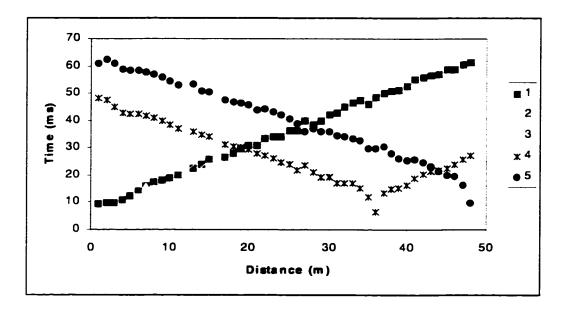


Figure 4.9. Raw first break data of the strike line at the Longview '97, Wapiabi location.

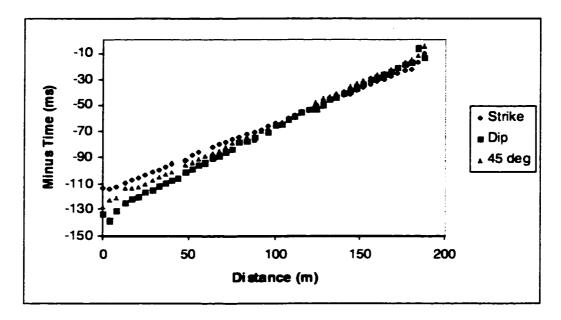


Figure 4.10. Minus-time analysis for the Longview '97, Wapiabi location. Note that the data for each azimuth lie on well-defined straight lines (excluding the endpoints), which have different slopes, allowing for accurate determination of the refractor velocities.

Table 4.3. Summary of velocities calculated from first break data for the shales at the Longview location.

Location/ Formation	Velocity (±100 m/s)			Anisotropic Parameters	
	Strike	Dip	45°	ε	δ
Longview '97 /Wapiabi	3800	3100	3200	0.23±0.05	-0.05±0.07

# 4.6 Longview '97 - Brazeau Group

The third survey was located west of highway 541, approximately 20 km west of Longview, Alberta (Figure 4.2). The site was an open field, with no significant topography, on the Eadie Ranch, approximately 2 km south of the Flat Creek bridge. In the outcrop along the Highwood River immediately south of this site, rocks of the Belly River Formation dip west at a constant angle of approximately 75°. Figure 4.11 is a photograph of the outcropping Brazeau Group shales and sandstones in the area. The regional strike in this location is 155°. Each line was recorded by a fixed spread of 72

single, 28 Hz geophones with a group interval of 4 m. Figure 4.8 indicates the seismic line layout for this site.



Figure 4.11. Photo of Brazeau Group rocks near the Longview '97 and '98 survey sites, looking southeast.

#### 4.6.1 Results

The first break picks of these data are represented by an example in Figure 4.12. During the minus-time analysis it became apparent that there was a discontinuity in the data (Figure 4.13). The minus-time analysis of the Belly River data reveals a break in the slope of data on both the dip and 45° lines. This has been interpreted as a change in lithology across the refractor, resulting in two different refractor velocities. One possible explanation for this is that the Belly River/Wapiabi contact was not mapped properly on the geologic map of the area. The refraction data show a distinct fast to slow velocity break along the refractor, in the dip direction, 150 m west of where the geologic contact is mapped. This is feasible for wavefronts travelling through the fast Wapiabi Formation to the contact, then through the slower Belly River Formation past the contact. The strike line does not demonstrate a break in slope, indicating that it lies wholly within one

formation. Re-evaluation of the survey confirms that the strike line probably lies within the Belly River Formation but is within 50 m of the contact. The 45° line also shows a break in slope but it is less distinct than on the dip line and is located approximately at the intersection of the strike line. Taking this information into account, the velocities of the Belly River Formation were calculated and the results are tabulated in Table 4.4, although they are considered to be tentative. The percentage anisotropy was calculated to be 18% (equation 1.19) and the anisotropic parameters were calculated to be  $\varepsilon = 0.21\pm0.05$  and  $\delta = 0.50\pm0.08$  (equations 1.1.7 and 1.18). The calculated value of  $\delta$  is considered anomalous, since it is rare to have  $\delta$  significantly larger than  $\varepsilon$  [Thomsen, 1986]. It is possible that this experiment was compromised by the change in lithology along the dip line.

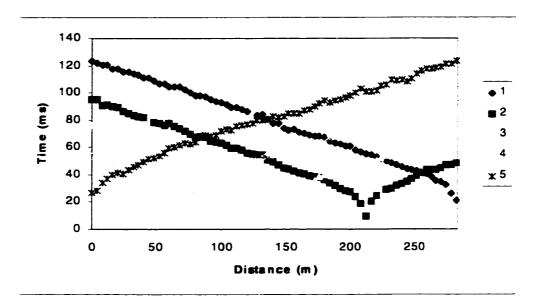


Figure 4.12. Raw first break data of the strike line at the Longview '97, Brazeau Group (Belly River) location.

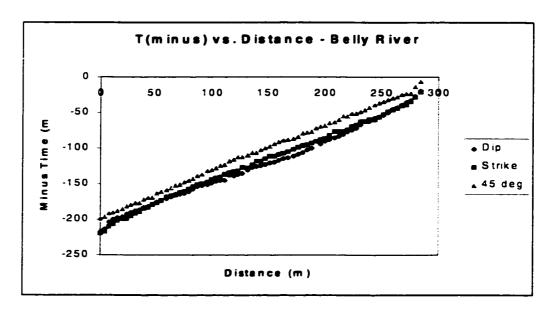


Figure 4.13. Sample minus-time analysis for the Longview '97, Brazeau Group (Belly River) location. Note that the refractor data have a break in slope in the dip line, at approximately 190m, indicating a change in lithology along that line.

Table 4.4. Summary of velocities calculated from first break data for the interbedded shales and sandstones at the Longview location.

Location/ Formation	Velocity (±100 m/s)			Anisotropic Parameters		
	Strike	Dip	45°	ε	δ	
Longview '97	3200	2600	3100	0.21±0.05	0.50±0.08	
/Brazeau Gp.			•			

# 4.7 Longview '98 - Brazeau Group

The second Brazeau Group survey was performed immediately west of highway 541, approximately 15 km west of Longview, Alberta (Figure 4.2). The site was an open field on the ranch owned by Mr. Bill Bews, immediately north of the first road south of the Sullivan Creek bridge (Figure 4.14). The field had minor topography and a small, soggy depression in the northwest corner, which affected the last 10 geophones of the strike line. At this location, rocks of the Belly River Formation (Alberta Group) dip west at a constant angle of approximately 70°. The regional strike, at this location, was 160°. The strike and dip lines were recorded by a fixed spread of 60 single, 28 Hz geophones with a group interval of 4 m (Figure 4.14). The 45° velocity was determined by recording four

offline shots into the fixed spread of the dip line (Figure 4.15). Survey parameters for each line are summarized in Table 4.1.

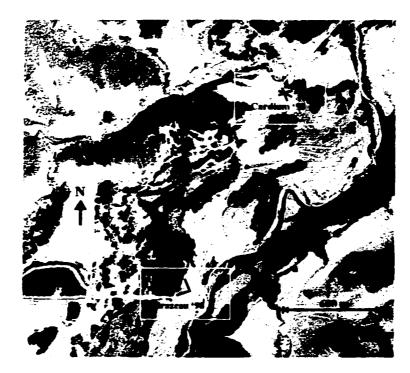


Figure 4.14. Diagram indicating the layout of the Longview '98 refraction seismic surveys. The survey areas are highlighted with rectangles.

# 4.7.1 Refractor Velocity Analysis

A plot of the raw first break data, for the strike line, are shown in Figure (4.16). The data from both the strike and dip lines were analyzed using a minus-time analysis. The minus-time plots for each line are given in Figure 4.17, from which the strike and dip velocities were computed (Table 4.5). Since a  $45^{\circ}$  line was not laid out due to physical access limitations, the  $45^{\circ}$  velocity had to be calculated using a combination of plus and delay times, from the strike and dip lines. As defined by Hagedoorn (1959) the plus time ( $T^{-}$ ) is defined as,

$$T^{-} = T_{AR} + T_{BR} - T_{AB} \tag{4.2}$$

where:  $T_{AR}$  is the time to a particular receiver on the forward record, from shot A.  $T_{BR}$  is the time to the same receiver on the reverse record, from shot B, and  $T_{AB}$  is the total travel time from shot A to shot B.

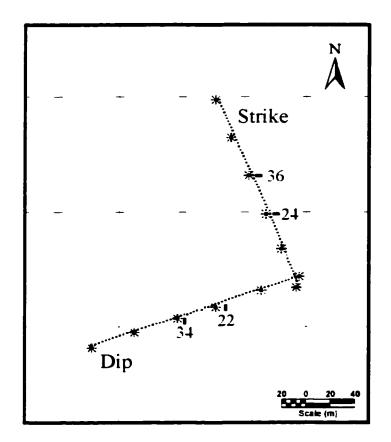


Figure 4.15. Basemap indicating shot and receiver locations for the second Longview '98, Brazeau Group survey.

The delay time of a receiver ( $\delta_r$ ) is defined as,

$$\delta_r = \frac{T_r}{2} \tag{4.3}$$

For example, consider a shot 60 m from the receiver line (i.e. at receiver 24 on the strike line) and receiver 22 in the dip line (Figure 4.15). The delay time of the shot ( $\delta_s$ ) at 60 m

can then be estimated by the plus-time at the corresponding receiver on the strike line (receiver 24),

$$\delta_{s_{60}} = \frac{1}{2} T_{60}^{-} \tag{4.4}$$

where:  $T_{60}^{+}$  is the plus-time at the corresponding receiver located 60 m from the dip line (i.e. receiver 24 on the strike line).

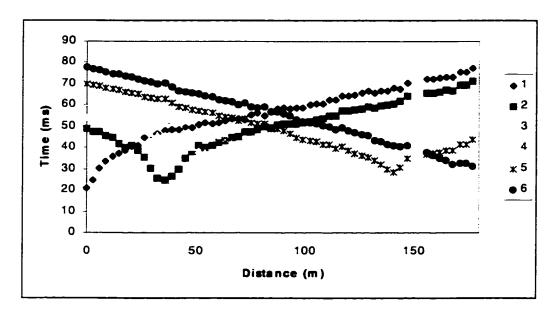


Figure 4.16. Raw shot record from strike line at the Longview '98 survey.

The 45° velocity can then be calculated from,

$$v_{45} = \frac{X_{60-r22}}{\left(T_{r22} - \delta_{s_{60}} - \delta_{r22}\right)} \tag{4.5}$$

where:  $T_{r22}$  is the time from the shot at 60 m to receiver 22, and  $X_{60-r22}$  is the distance between the shot at 60 m and receiver 22.

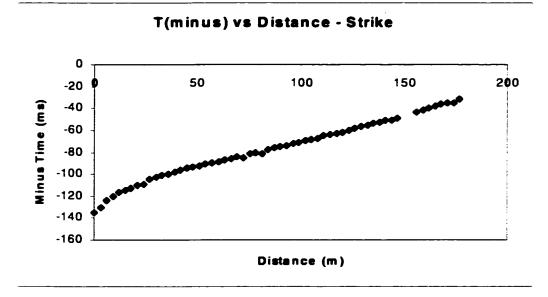


Figure 4.17a. Minus-time results from the strike line at the Longview '98, Brazeau Group location.

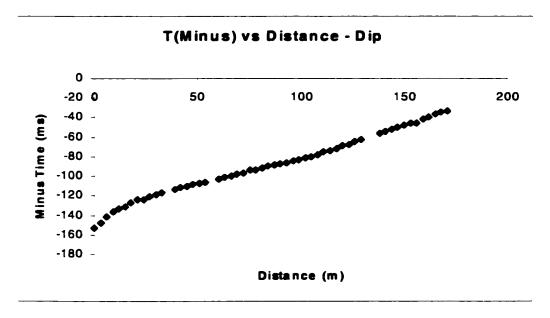


Figure 4.17b. Minus-time results from the dip line at the Longview '98, Brazeau Group location.

The above calculations can be repeated for shot 96m 'north' to receiver 36 to obtain an additional estimate of  $v_{45}$ , at this location. The location 132 m 'north' to receiver 48 was

not adequate to provide an accurate estimate of  $v_{45}$ , due to the soggy depression in the northwest corner of the field. The average  $45^{\circ}$  velocity was then calculated between the shot at receiver 24 (strike line) and receiver 22 (dip line) as well as the shot at receiver 36 (strike line) and receiver 34 (dip line). The geometry is displayed in Figure 4.15.

#### 4.7.2 Results

The minus-time analysis was robust for these data (Figure 4.17). Except for a few noisy receivers, all data lay on well-defined line segments. There is a definite break in slope in the minus-time data from the dip line, indicating a transition from a fast velocity medium to a slower velocity medium. This change is interpreted to be the contact between the Brazeau Group and Alberta Group rocks. The azimuthal velocities of the Belly River Formation were calculated and tabulated in Table 4.5. There is a minor surface weathering layer present on the east side of the field. The velocity anisotropy was calculated to be 10% (equation 1.19) and the anisotropic parameters were determined to be  $\varepsilon = 0.11$  and  $\delta = 0.42$  (equations 1.17 and 1.18). Again these values indicate a large value of  $\delta$  for this formation, which substantiates the values calculated from the Brazeau '97 survey. These values indicate that the anisotropic wavefronts through the Brazeau Group are very different from those through the Wapiabi Formation. As different as these parameters may be, they are still within the Thomsen (1986) values.

Table 4.5. Summary of velocities calculated from first break data for the Longview - Brazeau Group location.

Location/	Vo	Velocity (±100 m/s)			Anisotropic Parameters	
Formation	Strike	Dip	45°	ε	δ	
Longview '98 /Brazeau Gp.	4200	3800	4300	0.11±0.04	0.42±0.06	

## 4.8 Longview '98 - Cardium Formation

This survey was performed immediately east of highway 541, approximately 15 km west of Longview, Alberta (Figure 4.2). The site was an open field on the ranch owned by Mr. Joe Bews, immediately south of the Sullivan Creek bridge (Figure 4.14). No significant

topography was present. At this location, rocks of the Cardium formation (Alberta Group) have near-vertical dips, as indicated by the photograph in Figure 4.18. The regional strike was measured to be 170°. Each line was recorded by a fixed spread of 60 single, 28 Hz geophones with a geophone interval of 4 m (Figure 4.14). Survey parameters for each line are summarized in Table 4.1.

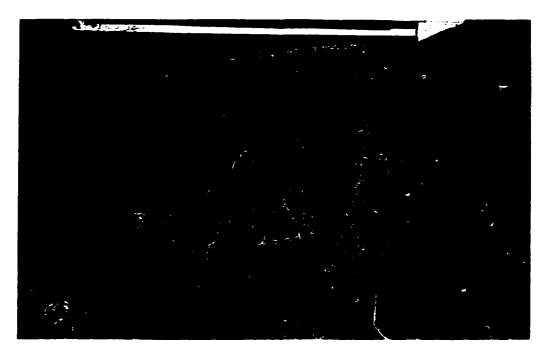


Figure 4.18. Photo of Cardium outcrop at the Sullivan Creek Bridge, Longview, Alberta, looking northwest.

## 4.8.1 Results

Figure 4.19 represents the raw data for the strike line in this location. The minus-time plots for each line are given in Figures 4.20a,b,c. These data indicate a few noisy receivers and a thick weathering layer in the west side of the field. The velocities were calculated, excluding the weathering layer, and tabulated in Table 4.6. As all three velocities are quite similar, within the error limits, these rocks are interpreted to not exhibit any significant velocity anisotropy.

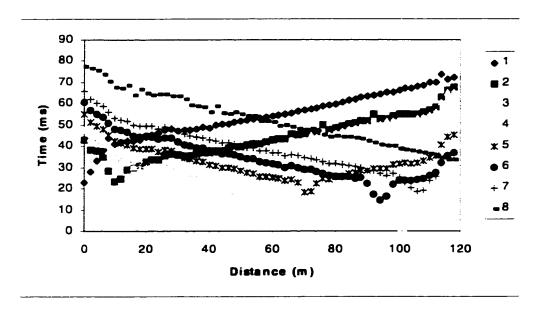


Figure 4.19. Raw shot record for strike line at the Longview '98, Cardium location.

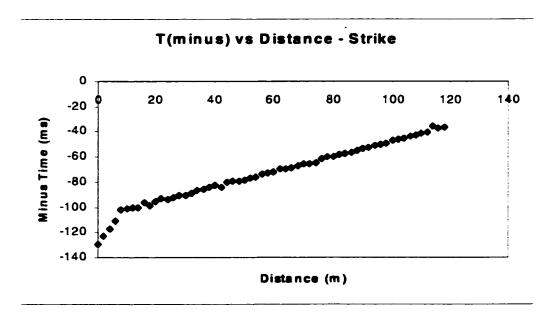


Figure 4.20a. Minus-time results from the strike line at the Cardium location.

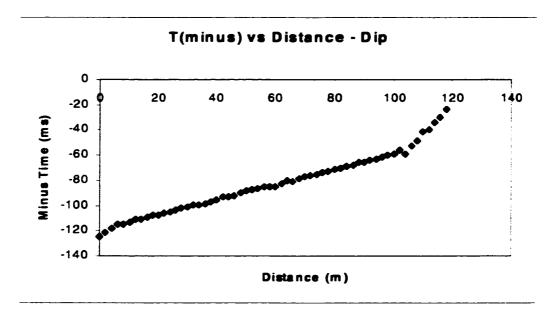


Figure 4.20b. Minus-time results from the dip line at the Cardium location.

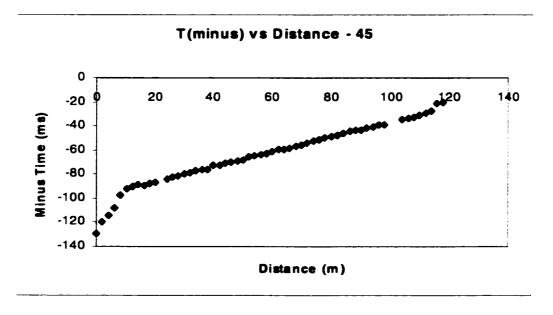


Figure 4.20c. Minus-time results from the 45° azimuth line at the Cardium location.

Table 4.6. Summary of velocities calculated from first break data for the Longview - Cardium Formation location.

Location/	Velocity (±100 m/s)			Anisotropic Parameters	
Formation	Strike	Dip	45°	ε	δ
Longview '98 /Cardium	3300	3300	3200	0	0

# 4.9 Seebe '98 - Wapiabi Formation

This survey was performed at the Lafarge Shale Quarry just outside of Seebe, Alberta, approximately 80 km west of Calgary (Figure 4.2). The refraction survey was performed on the floor of the shale quarry, where shales of the Wapiabi Formation (Alberta Group) dip west at a constant angle of approximately 17° (Figure 4.21). The regional strike in this location is 166°. Three lines of data were acquired, in the strike, dip and 45° directions (Figure 4.22). Each line was recorded by a fixed spread of 20, three-component geophones, with a group interval of 5 m. The geophones were also buried, in order to increase coupling and decrease wind noise. Survey parameters for each line are summarized in Table 4.1.



Figure 4.21. Photo of the outcrop in the shale quarry at Seebe, Alberta, looking north.

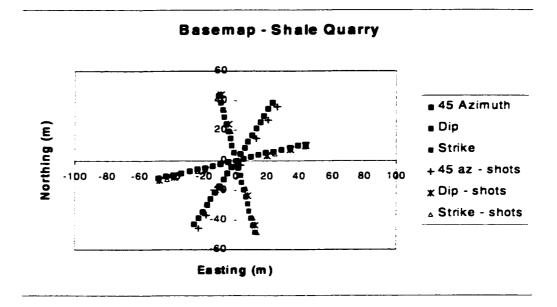


Figure 4.22. Basemap indicating shot and receiver locations for the Seebe '98, Wapiabi shale survey.

#### 4.9.1 Results

The raw data for the strike line are depicted in Figure 4.23. The minus-time plots for each line are given in Figures 4.24a,b,c. Robust velocities were obtained at this site, using this method. Except for a few noisy receivers, the data lay on a straight line and the computed velocities are tabulated in Table 4.7. There is virtually no surface weathering layer present since the survey was undertaken on the recently excavated quarry floor. The velocity anisotropy was calculated to be 19% (equation 1.19). It should be noted that since the dips in this location are rather shallow, an accurate measurement of the slow velocity (i.e. bedding-perpendicular velocity) of the shales is not possible, thus the VTI anisotropic parameters for these shales cannot be calculated. However, since a definite velocity variation with azimuth is measured, at this location, there may be an additional azimuthal anisotropy influence due to an external variable, such as fracturing. Groundwater studies by Lafarge personnel indicate open fractures parallel to strike in the Therefore a combination of both intrinsic and extrinsic quarry [Lafarge, 1998]. anisotropy was being measured. In this case, the calculated anisotropic parameters would not be truly representative of either the intrinsic or extrinsic values of the anisotropy, only

a combination of both influences. Since the two factors cannot be separated, these results cannot be compared with the other Wapiabi Formation results obtained in other surveys.

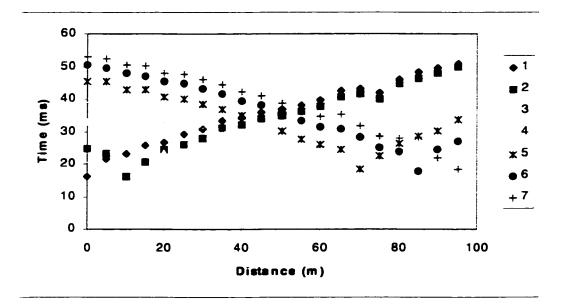


Figure 4.23. Raw shot record from strike line of Seebe '98 survey.

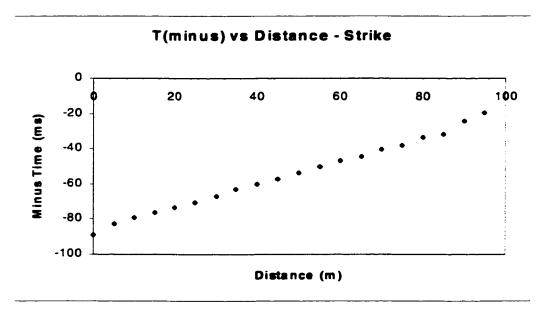


Figure 4.24a. Minus-time results from the strike line at the Seebe '98, Wapiabi shale location.

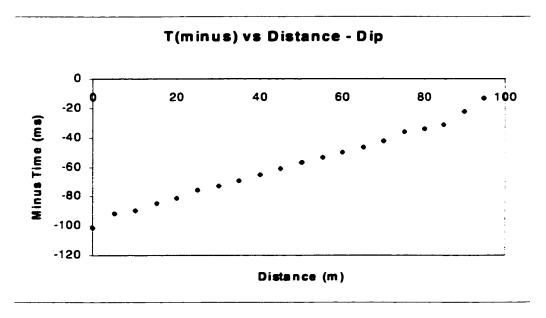


Figure 4.24b. Minus-time results from the dip line at the Seebe '98, Wapiabi shale location.

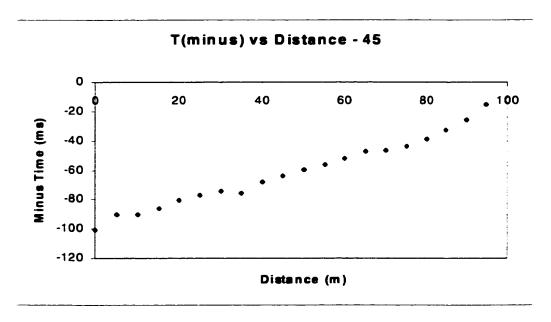


Figure 4.24c. Minus-time results from the 45° azimuth line at the Seebe '98, Wapiabi shale location.

Table 4.7. Summary of velocities calculated from first break data for the Seebe - Wapiabi Formation location.

Location/		Velocity (±100 m/s)	
Formation	Strike	Dip	45°
Seebe '98 /Wapiabi	3100	2600	2700

A second experiment was undertaken at this location, attempting to estimate the slow velocity of the shales. A hydrophone cable was lowered into two shallow wells, to a maximum of 60 m, in a VSP experiment. The first well was located along the north edge of the shale quarry and the other along the south edge. Data from several offset shots were acquired by the hydrophones but the results were inconclusive, as it was very difficult to determine first arrival traveltimes. Coupling of the hydrophones in the water-filled well appeared to be a problem.

## 4.10 Exshaw '98 - Palliser Formation

This survey was performed at the Lafarge Limestone Quarry at Exshaw, Alberta, approximately 90 km west of Calgary (Figure 4.2). At this location, limestones of the Palliser Formation (Devonian) dip west at angles generally between 50-55°, with a regional strike of 150° (Figure 4.25). Being that the limestone is resistant and the floor of the quarry is without a surficial layer of loose material, this survey was designed slightly differently than the others. A line of 20, three-component geophones was laid out in the dip direction with a geophone interval of 5 m. The geophones were cemented to the floor of the quarry using lime mud, and were also covered with earth to increase coupling with the limestone and to decrease wind noise. Three-component geophones were used to enable reliable picking of the first breaks. In the absence of a surficial weathering layer, the first arriving P-wave energy was often recorded with greater amplitude on the horizontal components than on the vertical component of the geophone. Data were then recorded into the fixed spread of geophones, with both inline and offline shots, as shown in Figure 4.26. Only one receiver line was established due to the difficulty of coupling the geophones to the cement floor of the quarry.



Figure 4.25. Photo of the Palliser limestone outcrop at the Exshaw quarry, looking north.

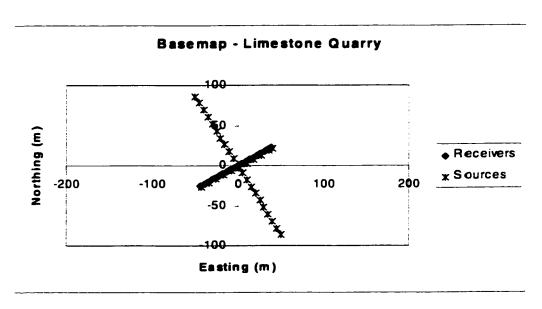


Figure 4.26. Basemap indicating the shot and receiver locations of the Exshaw '98, Palliser Formation survey.

## 4.10.1 Refractor Velocity Analysis

Raw data from the dip line are shown in Figure 4.27. The minus-time analysis record for the dip line is given in Figure 4.28, and yielded a velocity of 3000±100 m/s. Since the receiver line was not moved from the dip direction, further analysis of the data was necessary to extract the strike and 45° velocities. For the strike velocity, a common receiver gather was assembled, for receiver 11, since the offline shots were located directly crossline with this receiver (Figure 4.26). From this gather, a weighted average strike velocity was directly determined, using inverse slopes, from the first break data from shots both north and south of the dip line (Figure 4.29).

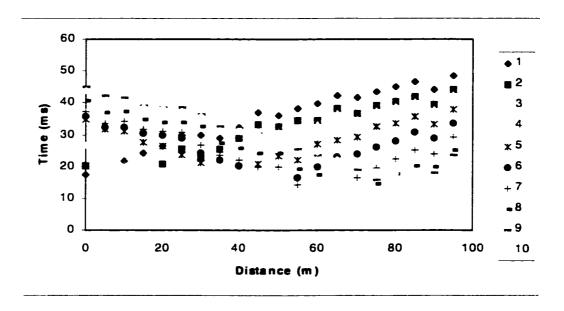


Figure 4.27. Raw shot record for the dip line at the Exshaw '98 survey.

For the  $45^{\circ}$  azimuth velocity, a combination of plus and delay times was again used (equations 4.2 and 4.3). For example, consider a shot 30 m north of the receiver line and receiver 11 in the strike line, which is 30 m from the shot line, in this location (Figure 4.26). The delay time of the shot  $(\delta_s)$ , at 30 m north, is defined as,

$$\delta_{s_{30N}} = T_{30N} - \delta_{r11} - \frac{X_{30N}}{v_N}$$
 (4.6)

where:  $T_{30N}$  is the time from the shot at 30 m north to receiver 11.

 $\delta_{r11}$  is the delay time computed at receiver 11.

 $X_{30N}$  is the distance between the shot at 30 m north and receiver 11, and  $v_N$  is the velocity calculated from the CRG, north of the receiver line.

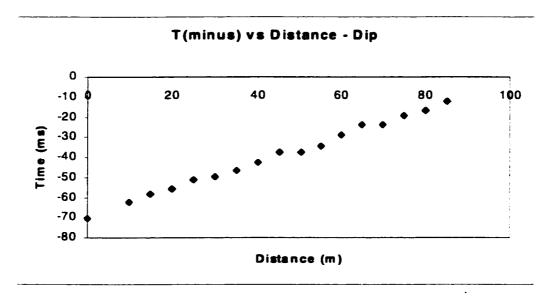


Figure 4.28. Minus-time results from the dip line at the Palliser Formation location.

The 45° velocity can then be calculated from,

$$v_{45} = \frac{X_{30N-r17}}{\left(T_{r17} - \delta_{s_{NN}} - \delta_{r17}\right)} \tag{4.7}$$

where:  $T_{c17}$  is the time from the shot at 30 m north to receiver 17.

 $X_{30N-r17}$  is the distance between the shot at 30 m north and receiver 17.

The above calculations were also repeated for shot 40N/receiver 3, shot 30S/receiver 17 and shot 40S/receiver 3 to obtain an average estimate of  $v_{45}$ , at this location.

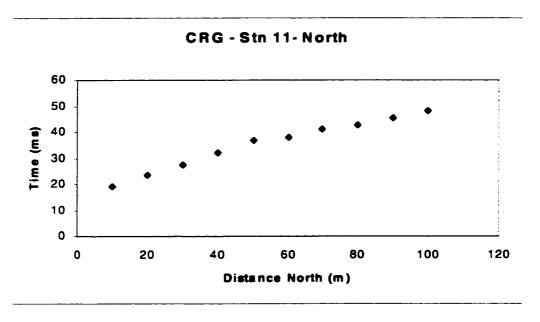


Figure 4.29a. First break traveltimes from a common receiver gather of the shots located north of the receiver line at the Palliser Formation location.

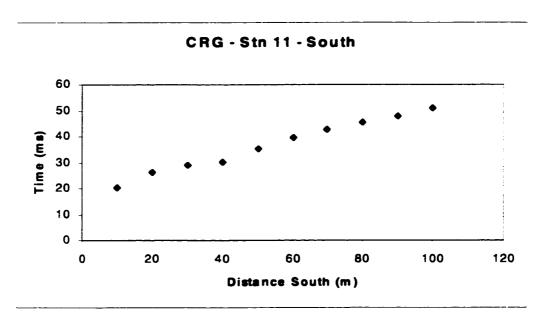


Figure 4.29b. First break traveltimes of a common receiver gather of the shots located south of the receiver line at the Palliser Formation location.

# 4.10.2 Results

The minus-time analysis worked well for the dip line data (Figure 4.28), as the data lay on a straight line. The dip line velocity was easily calculated and tabulated in Table 4.8. The strike and 45° line velocities were calculated, as above, and are also tabulated in Table 4.8. These velocities show that the same velocity (3000±100 m/s) was calculated along all three directions. There is virtually no surface weathering layer present. As all three velocities are the same, within the error limits, these rocks do not exhibit any velocity anisotropy. The velocities calculated for this limestone are lower than one would expect. These limestones are at surface, thus are not under any overburden or pore pressure, and the low velocities are attributed to extensive fracturing, either natural or induced during quarry blasts. In the quarry outcrops, there appeared to be no consistent fracture direction.

Table 4.8. Summary of velocities calculated from first break data for the Exshaw - Palliser Formation location.

Location/ Formation	Velocity (±100 m/s)			Anisotropic Parameters	
	Strike	Dip	45°	Έ	δ
Exshaw '98	3000	3000	3000	0	0
/Palliser					

#### 4.11 Discussion

The results of these surveys indicate conclusively that refraction seismic methods can be used to successfully measure velocity anisotropy, in situ, at locations where uniform panels of steeply dipping strata outcrop. The data show that there was a significant surface weathering layer in the Jumpingpound Creek survey location and that turning rays were also present. The other surveys did not show any of these effects. The Longview Wapiabi site shows generally higher velocities and a greater degree of anisotropy, thus a larger  $\varepsilon$  value, than that found in the Jumpingpound Creek Wapiabi survey. The difference is attributed to a change in the composition of the shales and a greater degree of penetrative strain at the Jumpingpound Creek location, compared with the Longview

location. The  $\delta$  values calculated from the two surveys are comparable within the calculated errors for the parameters (0.00±0.08 and -0.05±0.07).

The data from the first Longview Brazeau Group site indicate that the Belly River/Wapiabi contact was not located where it is predicted from geologic maps, thereby rendering the results from this particular survey somewhat inconclusive. However, the indication was that the Belly River Formation is anisotropic, similar to the Wapiabi Formation, and that further study of this formation is necessary to properly quantify its anisotropic parameters. The results of the second Brazeau Group survey indicate that these rocks are also anisotropic, which was implied in the first survey. These two surveys both indicate that a  $\delta$  value higher than  $\varepsilon$  best describes the wave propagation through this formation. Again the  $\delta$  values calculated from the two sites are comparable within the errors associated with the parameters  $(0.50\pm0.08$  and  $0.42\pm0.06$ ). On the other hand, the calculated  $\varepsilon$  from the Longview '98 Brazeau Group survey  $(0.21\pm0.05)$  was significantly less than the Longview '97 survey  $(0.11\pm0.04)$ . The second survey is considered to be more accurate than the first, since the first acquisition survey crossed the Wapiabi/Brazeau Group boundary. Thus the velocities obtained are considered to be more reliable, in the second survey, as are the calculated anisotropic parameters.

This study shows that rocks of the Palliser and the Cardium Formations do not exhibit significant velocity anisotropy. In both surveys, the same velocity was measured along all three azimuths, within the error of the experiment, indicating that the rocks are isotropic. The results from the Wapiabi Formation, shale quarry at Seebe indicate a strong presence of anisotropy; however, without a reliable measurement of the slow velocity, one cannot calculate the exact intrinsic anisotropic parameters. The 20% anisotropy present in these shallow dipping Wapiabi shales, is attributed more to an azimuthal anisotropy arising from aligned fractures in the shales, than to the intrinsic layer induced anisotropy of the shales themselves. Since the fracture orientation was not taken into account when the survey was designed, an accurate measure of the extrinsic anisotropy cannot be

ascertained either. Hence these values cannot be directly compared with the results from the previous Wapiabi Formation surveys at Jumpingpound Creek and Longview.

The anisotropic parameters, particularly  $\delta$  for the Brazeau Group rocks, appear to be very different from those of the Wapiabi Formation, thus, the P-wave propagation through each formation is quite different, indicating a need to characterize each formation separately. One potential problem arises from the interbedded nature of the Brazeau Group rocks, hindering an accurate assessment of the strike velocity. Due to the layering of the formation, a refraction line in the strike direction could lay entirely in a sandstone or shale layer, not to mention, along a shale/sandstone interface. representative velocity cannot be obtained without averaging over several values, which was not done in the two refraction experiments on this formation. In addition, the effects of the interbedded nature are more difficult to ascertain in the 45° azimuth velocity as the propagating energy probably travels longer and farther in the faster material (i.e. sandstones), than in the slower (i.e. shales); thereby, skewing the 45° velocity closer to the fast, or strike, velocity of the formation. This is a potential reason for the high  $\delta$ values calculated in these refraction studies. Nonetheless, the calculated anisotropic parameters for the rocks of the Brazeau Group and the Wapiabi Formation also lie within the range of values for shales as presented by Thomsen (1986) and Vernik and Liu (1997).

### CHAPTER 5 VSP EXPERIMENT

### 5.1 Introduction

Refraction methods were used successfully to measure the anisotropic parameters of rocks in various locations southern Alberta as well as for different rock types (Chapter 4). By laying out seismic lines parallel, perpendicular and at 45° to the local strike directions, the Thomsen (1986) anisotropic parameters,  $\varepsilon$  and  $\delta$  were determined from the bedding-parallel, bedding-perpendicular and intermediate (45° azimuth) velocities (Chapter 4).

Vertical Seismic Profiling (VSP) became a popular seismic technique in the early 1980's since it provides a direct relationship between surface seismic data and well information. This relationship helps to remove the ambiguities in interpretations and non-uniqueness in the inverse process. VSP's also give complementary information, such as interval velocity and zero-phase reflectivity [Stewart and Disiena, 1989]. Zero-offset VSP's, or check shot surveys, are used to find the relationship between interval velocity and depth through analysis of the first break data. Multi-offset VSP's use several stationary land shot locations for imaging purposes, using reflected wave information [Gilpatrick and Fouquet, 1989]. Multi-offset surveys are capable of looking ahead of the drill bit, imaging around the borehole, estimating the physical parameters of the rocks, identifying both primary and P-S converted waves, estimating the time-to-depth curve as well as imaging target areas [Cassell, 1984; Slawinski and Parkin, 1996]. This thesis develops a new application of the VSP method by combining zero-offset and multi-offset surveys in an area where the well intersects a uniformly dipping panel of strata. The purpose is to obtain the Thomsen (1986) anisotropic parameters of these rocks at depth.

VSP technology has been considered previously for the determination of velocity anisotropy in rocks; however, these methods are limited to dips less than 5° [Kebaili and Schmitt, 1996; Sayers, 1997; MacBeth, 1998]. Therefore, with this limitation, these applications are not suitable in moderate to steep dip environments, such as in the foothills of the Rocky Mountain Fold and Thrust Belt.

## 5.2 Design of Experiment

To calculate the anisotropic parameters,  $\varepsilon$  and  $\delta$ , in the presence of moderate to steep dips, accurate determinations of the bedding-normal, bedding-perpendicular and 45° velocities were required. Using multi-offset VSP technology, these velocities can be determined from the first arrival information through a moderately dipping (30-60°), uniformly dipping panel of rocks and a multi-offset source configuration, as shown schematically in Figure 5.1. In developing the procedure for this method, the choice of a suitable well had to be made carefully, as there are several factors that had to be considered. The well must penetrate a sufficiently thick, relatively uniform panel of moderately dipping strata (ideally 45°) and it should have no deviation through the rock panel, although minimal deviation in the dip direction is acceptable. To accommodate the need for multiple shot locations, it was required that there be appropriate access, in both the updip and downdip directions from the well, in order to obtain bedding-normal and bedding-parallel velocities to the depths of interest (Figure 5.1). Maximum offset distances of shotpoints from the well should be approximately equal to the well depth.

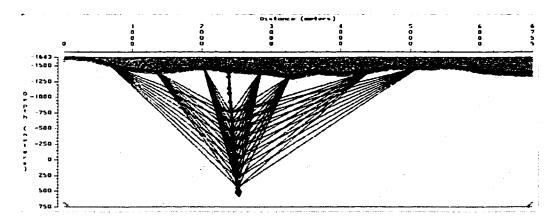


Figure 5.1. Sample design of a multi-offset VSP for a 2km thick package of shales dipping at 45°.

## 5.3 Location

For this study, Petro-Canada Resources of Calgary, Canada, provided access to a well in which to perform this experiment. The well, 11-10-28-6W5, was located ~80 km

northwest of Calgary, Alberta, in the Wildcat Hills area (Figure 1.4, location 4). The well intersected a 2 km panel of marine shales and some sandstones, dipping at approximately 40° to the southwest, and had only 5° deviation between the surface and the base of the shale panel. The strata are of Cretaceous age.

## 5.4 Geology

A geologic map of the area encompassing the well is shown in Figure 5.2 and contains clastics of the Brazeau and Alberta Group (Figure 1.3). Surface dips vary from 25° to 50° and three thrust faults were mapped, trending NW-SE, verging eastwards. A geologic cross-section through the well was constructed, based on all available geological and geophysical data. A 3D volume of seismic data was available in the area and was used to constrain the subsurface geology in both the strike and dip directions. Unfortunately, the shallow data were of poor quality and did not yield any additional information to the geologic structure at the well site. However, a high-quality 2D seismic dip line, located approximately 800 m along strike from the well, provided a robust interpretation of the subsurface structural geometry from the near surface to the maximum depth of interest, over the full VSP shot aperture. The seismic section is shown in Figure 5.3. Gamma ray log, sonic log, dip meter (Figure 5.4) and geologic formation top information were available from both the VSP well as well as from a nearby well, located 2 km further to the west (downdip) of the VSP well. A few other wells in the area also provided some geologic information to be considered in the model building process; however, the geologic model was based mainly on the information from the two primary wells, surface geology and the interpreted 2D and 3D seismic data. The final interpreted geologic crosssection through the VSP well is shown in Figure 5.5.

As can be seen by Figure 5.5, the sub-surface geology in this area is more complicated than was initially anticipated. Ideally only a uniform, single panel of shales would dominate the geology; however, this was not the case. The main stratigraphic units identified in the seismic section were; Viking, Blackstone, Cardium, Wapiabi, and Belly River. The Wapiabi and Blackstone formations are known to consist of marine shales

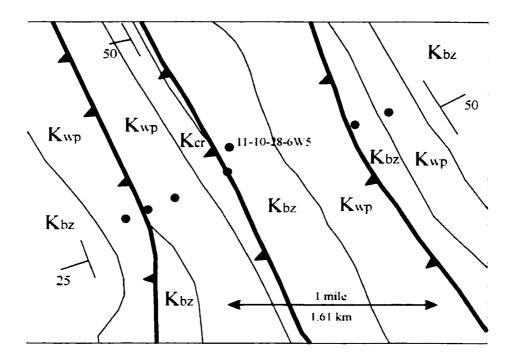


Figure 5.2. Surface geology map of area around the VSP survey (adapted from Ollerenshaw, 1972). The well and shotpoint locations are indicated as well as the Wapiabi  $(K_{wp})$ , Cardium  $(K_{cr})$  and Brazeau Group  $(K_{bz})$  Formations.

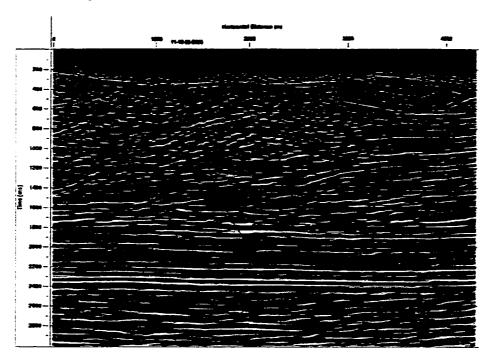


Figure 5.3. 2D seismic section that was interpreted to develop the geologic model for the raytracing analysis. The approximate location of the well is indicated by the black line.

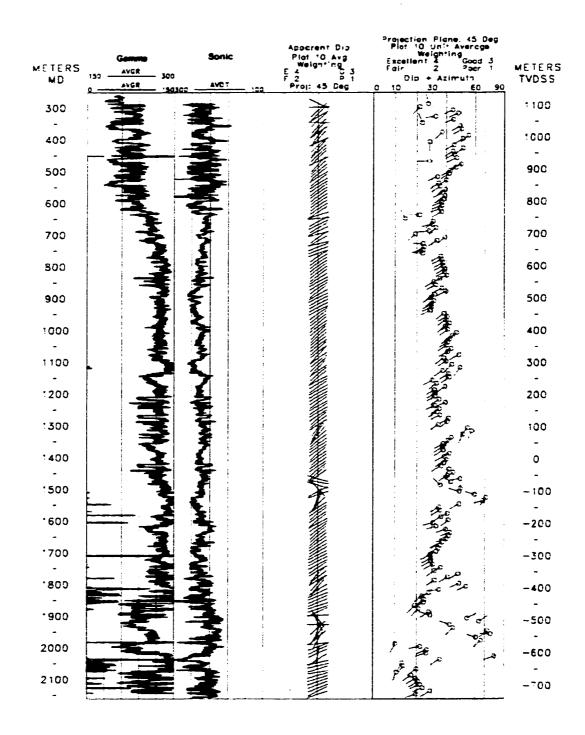


Figure 5.4. Gamma ray, sonic and dip meter logs for the well used in the VSP experiment.

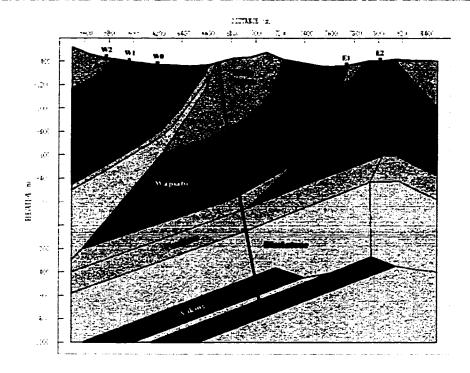


Figure 5.5. Geologic model derived from the interpretation of the 2D seismic data. This interpretation was also constrained by 3D seismic data, surface geology and well information. Five formations are present in the model: Belly River, Wapiabi, Cardium, Blackstone and Viking. The well is indicated by the black line.

and the Belly River Formation is a combination of shales and sandstones. There are three main structural zones in the interpreted section. In the west, a fairly uniform panel of rocks is thrusted to the surface. The main thrust occurs in the Blackstone Formation and a small amount of Blackstone shale is brought to the surface immediately north of the well. This is conformably overlain by the Cardium, Wapiabi and Belly River formations. The dips in this region are approximately 30°, at depth, to 60° at the surface. In the central region, another thrust sheet predominates. This thrust occurs in the Cardium Zone and has many splays associated with it. Consequently, the Cardium Formation is highly deformed, as well as thickened in this region. Above the Cardium Formation lie the Wapiabi and Belly River formations, dipping at angles of 30° to 60°. The eastern region is interpreted to be an anticline that is cored with Wapiabi shales. Small amounts of

Belly River Formation are exposed, at surface, on the flanks of the anticline. The dips on the eastern flank of the anticline, as indicated by the surface geology, are as high as 50°. At depth, it is interpreted that the Cardium Formation follows the general shape of the anticlinal structure, as does the Blackstone Formation. The actual structure at depth cannot be confirmed due to the lack of well data in this region. It is known that at least two thrusts carrying Viking Formation rocks are present at the base of the well, as the top sheet is penetrated by the well. The second sheet is easily identified by the seismic data, located immediately below the first sheet. The significant amount of sandstone present in the section was unanticipated and had to be accounted for in the analysis of the data.

# 5.5 Data Acquisition

A map view of the well and source points used in the experiment is shown in Figure 5.6. Data from five offset locations were acquired in the dip direction, away from the well, with 3 shotpoints in the downdip direction (W0, W1 and W2 in Figure 5.6) and 2 shotpoints in the updip direction (E1 and E2 in Figure 5.6). The maximum offset of the shotpoints was approximately equal to the depth to the base of the shale formations intersected in the well. A minimum of five shotpoints was determined to provide sufficient data redundancy to estimate the bedding-parallel, bedding-perpendicular and 45°-to-bedding velocities of the 2 km thick clastic package (Figure 5.5). An old seismic line, which traversed the area in the dip direction just south of the well, provided access to the five offset locations (Figure 5.6). Two zero-offset source locations (Zero and E0 in Figure 5.6) were necessary to provide adequate zero-offset imaging. Problems with tube waves arose at the source location immediately adjacent to the wellhead, thus the source had to be offset slightly (E0) to account for this. The source used for the experiment was a single Mertz HD-18 vertical vibrator using an 8 - 80 Hz linear sweep over 12 seconds. Three sweeps were summed at each shotpoint for each tool level. The VSP tool used was Schlumberger's 5-level, 3-component tool with a geophone interval of 15m. Data were collected over tool depths from ~600 m to ~2000 m in the well, with a standard tool interval of 150 m. At shots E1, E2 and W1, the tool interval was reduced to 75 m in order to acquire data for use by Petro-Canada, in part for imaging purposes.

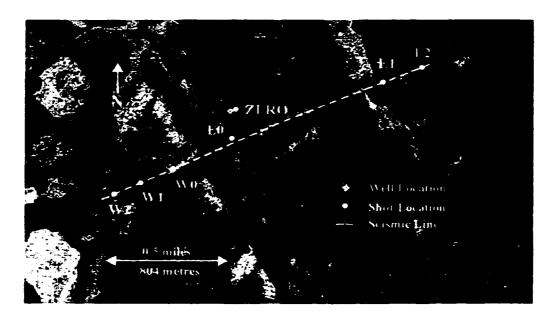


Figure 5.6. Plan view of the VSP survey.

# 5.6 Data Processing

Preprocessing of the data involved only data rotation into x, y and z coordinates with respect to the acquisition plane. Figures 5.7a-f show the data from the z component, windowed over the direct arrivals, displayed with a 500 ms agc applied. These displays show the high quality of the data from each shot location. The first-break times for each shot location were picked and exported to a spreadsheet, which was used for the main processing of the data. All raw and processed data, from all shot locations, are contained in Appendix II. Firstly the absolute x, y, and z coordinates of all the receiver locations were determined from the deviation survey of the well. The distances from each shot location to each receiver was then calculated as well as the bearing angle (from north) and inclination angle (from surface to receiver). For the five offset shot locations, located both northeast and southwest of the well, the distances and times from the shots to the receivers were projected into the plane of the shots so that a 2-dimensional traveltime analysis could be undertaken. In order to project the well into the line of the VSP shots, several relations need to be developed in order to make the transformation.

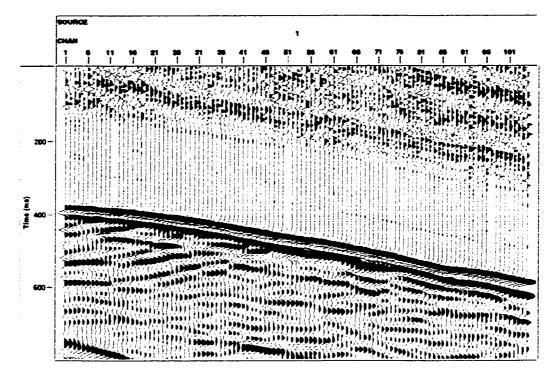


Figure 5.7a. VSP data from shot E2 after rotation.

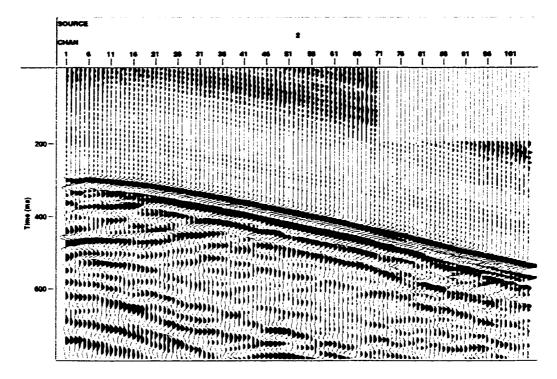


Figure 5.7b. VSP data from shot E1 after rotation.

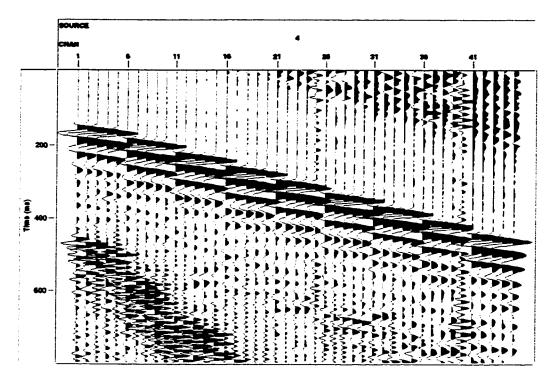


Figure 5.7c. VSP data from shot Zero after rotation.

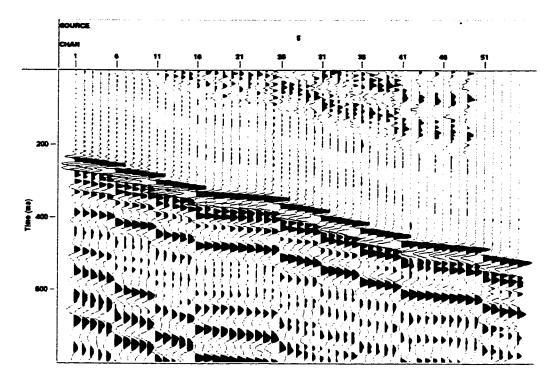


Figure 5.7d. VSP data from shot W0 after rotation.

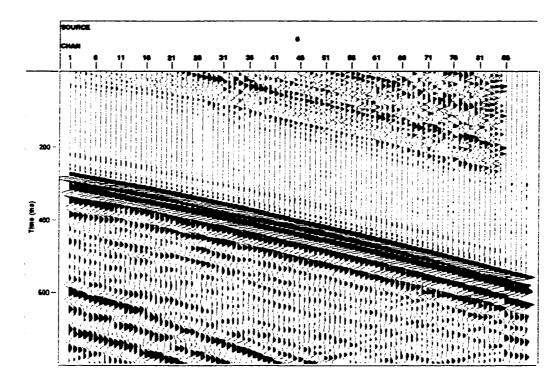


Figure 5.7e. VSP data from shot W1 after rotation.

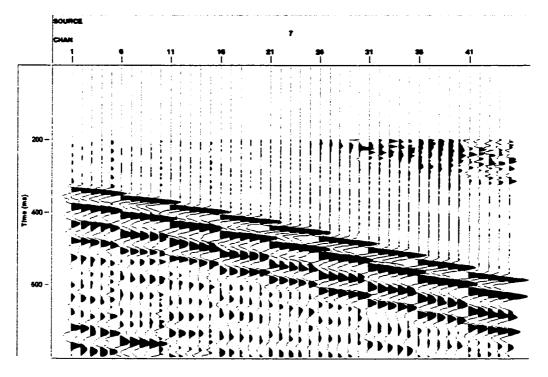


Figure 5.7f. VSP data from shot W2 after rotation.

The required variables are defined as follows and are related in Figure 5.8:

h - is the horizontal distance on the surface from the shotpoint to the well.

h' - is the projected horizontal distance from the shotpoint to the repositioned well.

 $\theta$  - is the transformation angle between the h and h' planes.

d - is the distance from the shotpoint to the receiver in the well.

d' - is the projected distance from the shotpoint to the repositioned well.

z - is the vertical depth of the receiver in the well. Note that this value is the same in both the actual and transformed planes.

I - is the angle between h and d in the untransformed plane (h).

I' - is the transformed angle between h' and d'.

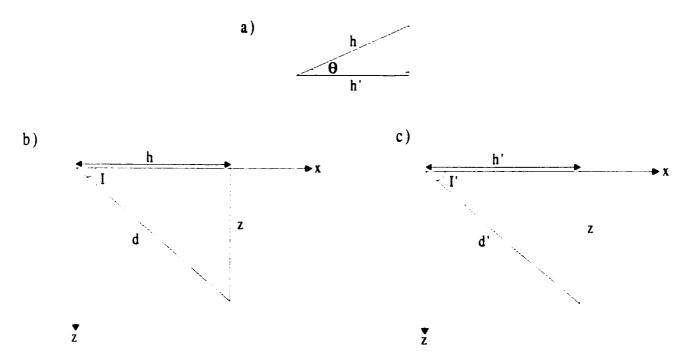


Figure 5.8. For transformation from the a) h plane to the h' plane (plan view), one must consider the relation between each of the variables in both the b) h plane (side view) and c) h' plane (side view).

From Figure 5.8a:

$$h' = h\cos\theta \tag{5.1}$$

In the h plane (Figure 5.8b):

$$h = d\cos I \tag{5.2}$$

and,

$$z = h \tan I . ag{5.3}$$

In the transformed plane (h') (Figure 5.8c):

$$h' = d'\cos I' \tag{5.4}$$

and,

$$z = h' \tan I'. ag{5.5}$$

Equating equations 5.3 and 5.5,

$$h \tan I = h' \tan I'$$

Substituting in equation 5.1,

$$h \tan I = h \cos \theta \tan I'$$

Therefore,

$$I' = \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{\tan I}{\cos \theta} \right). \tag{5.6}$$

The projected distance (d') is then, from equations 5.4 and 5.1,

$$d' = \frac{h'}{\cos I'} = \frac{h\cos\theta}{\cos I'}$$

Therefore, substituting in equation 5.2,

$$d' = \frac{d\cos I \cos \theta}{\cos I'} \,. \tag{5.7}$$

Similarly, the projected traveltime (t') is,

$$t' = \frac{t \cos I \cos \theta}{\cos I'} \,. \tag{5.8}$$

Equations 5.7 and 5.8 were used to calculate the transformed, or projected, distances and traveltimes for the 5 offset shot locations (E2, E1, W0, W1 and W2), in Appendix II. This allowed for the adjustment of the observed traveltimes, such that they could be compared to the 2D forward modelling results.

Source static corrections were evaluated from the 2D seismic line, which intersected all of the VSP offset shotpoints, immediately south of the well (Figure 5.6). Unfortunately, there was a bulk shift applied to the data, which could not be precisely determined due to the age of the data. As such, the exact shot statics could not be applied; however, the variation in source statics was determined to be less than  $\pm 10$  ms. This was used to quantify the accuracy to which the final modelling could be undertaken.

# 5.7 Data Analysis

The structural model was digitized and imported into a general TI anisotropic raytracing package that was developed for the analysis (Figure 5.5). This program traced rays through polygons of the model from a shotpoint to each receiver location in the well. Within each polygon, values of bedding-perpendicular velocity  $(v_o)$ ,  $\varepsilon$ ,  $\delta$  and the bedding dip were specified by the user. These parameters were adjusted iteratively until the modelled ray (group) traveltimes agreed with the observed traveltimes to within  $\pm 10$  ms. The structural model was not changed during the analysis.

The initial velocity model was constrained using interval velocities, determined from well data, as well as refractor velocities determined through a minus-time analysis [Hagedoorn, 1959]. Interval velocity analysis from the zero-offset source location yielded average velocities of each formation at 40°-to-bedding, as seen in Table 5.1. The 2D seismic line, immediately south of the well, was used to calculate the refractor velocities through a minus-time analysis of first arrival traveltimes. The procedure was similar to that used in the refraction surveys (Chapter 4). The calculated refractor velocities were used to constrain the velocities of the outcropping rock units at each shot location.

Table 5.1. Average interval velocity of each formation, determined at 40°-to-bedding from the zero-offset source location (E0).

Formation	Average Interval Velocity (m/s)		
Belly River	4100		
Wapiabi	4000		
Cardium	4100		
Blackstone	4000		

The starting anisotropic parameters used in the initial model were taken from the refraction survey results, described in Chapter 4. Initially only the Wapiabi and Belly River formations were modelled as being anisotropic, although, eventually the Blackstone Formation was also made anisotropic. The anisotropic parameters for this formation were assumed to be similar to those of the Wapiabi Formation. The dips assigned to these anisotropic bodies were projected from the dip meter data in the well (Figure 5.4). Once the initial model was built, the raytracing was performed. Rays from each of the offset shot locations were used to calculate the traveltime to each receiver location. The zero offset shots were not used directly in the raytracing since their raypaths are intuitively straightforward. The input parameters were adjusted independently, for each iteration of the raytracer, starting with the formation velocities and finishing with the anisotropic parameters. The model parameters were modified iteratively until the computed traveltimes matched the observed values within ± 10 ms, for all records.

### 5.8 Results

The final anisotropic velocity model is presented in Figure 5.9 and the parameters used are listed in Table 5.2. The average values of  $\varepsilon$  and  $\delta$  for each anisotropic formation are typical and within the range defined by Thomsen (1986) and the refraction surveys of Chapter 4. In this case, modelling the Blackstone Formation with a  $\delta$  value greater than  $\varepsilon$ , best fit the data, which is not typical of shales [Thomsen, 1986]. This was not expected since this formation is more similar in geology to the Wapiabi Formation than the Belly River Formation. Again this indicates that each anisotropic formation must be quantified individually in order to correctly account for velocity anisotropy in seismic data processing. It is also noted that the Wapiabi velocities, used in the modelling, varied depending on the depth of the Formation. The velocities in the near surface were slightly slower than the velocities at depth, which are attributed to either a weathering gradient at the surface or a compaction gradient at depth.

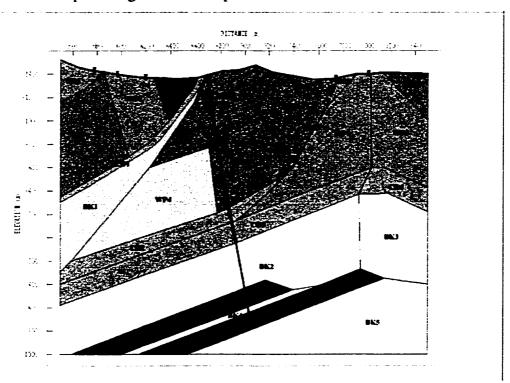


Figure 5.9. This is the final anisotropic velocity model which best fit the observed data during the raytracing procedure. The colours represent velocity, with blue being slowest and red being fastest. The polygon parameters are defined in Table 5.2.

Figure 5.10 depicts a sampling of the rays for each offset shot location. This is not a unique solution, as the input parameters could be altered in many permutations to model the observed data. However, the model shown in Figure 5.9 is an adequate solution given the geologic and geophysical constraints on the data. To complete the study, the anisotropic parameters were set to zero in this model and the traveltimes were recalculated. This provided an isotropic solution to compare with both the observed and anisotropic values.

Table 5.2. Parameters used in the final anisotropic model, applied in the raytracing procedure (Figure 5.9).

Formation	Velocity	Dip	ε	δ
	(m/s)	<b>(°</b> )		
BR1	3600	-30	0.11	0.32
BR2	3700	-45	0.11	0.32
BR3	3500	-40	0.11	0.32
BR4	3700	40	0.11	0.32
WP1	3700	-30	0.10	0.07
WP2	3600	-50	0.10	0.07
WP3	3400	-60	0.10	0.07
WP4	3900	-20	0.10	0.07
WP5	3700	-40	0.10	0.07
WP6	3700	-60	0.10	0.07
WP7	3600	-40	0.10	0.07
WP8	3600	40	0.10	0.07
CD1	4300			
CD2	4300			
CD3	4300		1	
CD4	4300			
BK1	4000	-45	0.05	0.10
BK2	4100	-40	0.05	0.10
BK3	4100	25	0.05	0.10
BK4	4100	-40	0.05	0.10
BK5	4100	-35	0.05	0.10
VK1	4500	- <del>-</del>		
VK2	4500			

The traveltimes from each shot location, observed, anisotropic and isotropic, were plotted against receiver elevation (Figure 5.10). From these plots, it is evident that the raytracing process successfully modelled the observed traveltimes to within  $\pm 10$  ms. The eastern

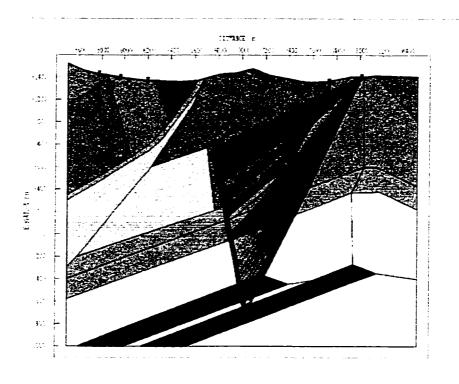


Figure 5.10a. Sample raytracing example from shot E2.

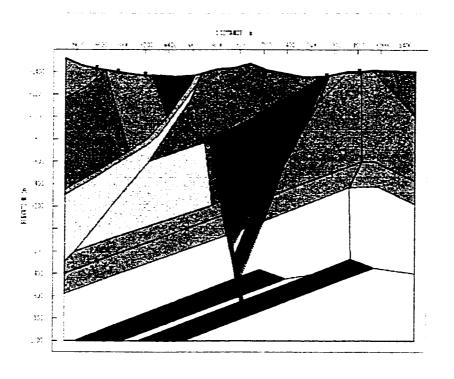


Figure 5.10b. Sample raytracing example from shot E1.

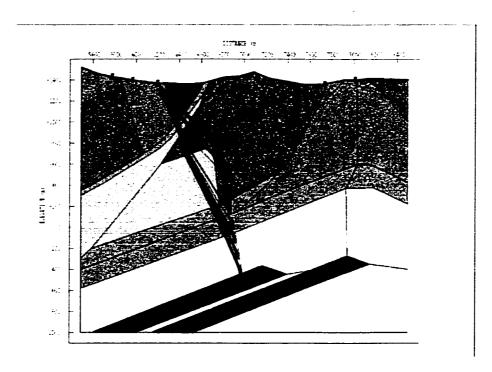


Figure 5.10c. Sample raytracing example from shot W0. Note the shadow zones for the third through sixth receiver locations down the well. This is due to the sharp edges of the polygons as well as the defined parameters therein.

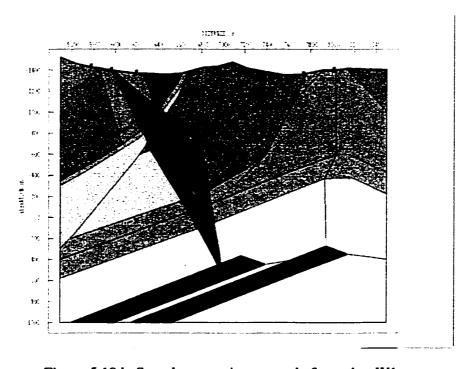


Figure 5.10d. Sample raytracing example from shot W1.

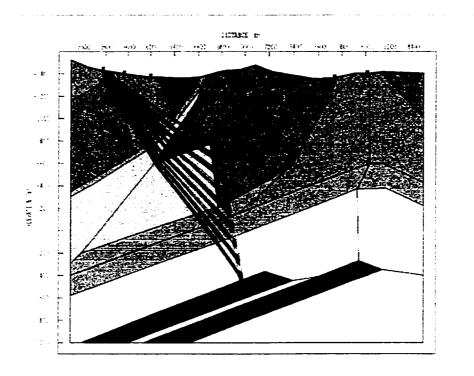


Figure 5.10e. Sample raytracing example from shot W2.

shots were modelled more closely by the anisotropic solution than the isotropic solution, whereas the difference between the solutions for the western shots is considerably less. This is expected since the eastern raypaths are parallel to the bedding of the shales and the western shots are perpendicular-to-bedding. Since the isotropic solution assumes the perpendicular-to-bedding velocity for the formation, the error will be small when the raypaths also tend to be perpendicular-to-bedding. The error will be larger when the raypaths are parallel-to-bedding, as seen in Figures 5.11a and 5.11b.

The computed traveltimes were then used to calculate the velocities for each raypath, assuming straight raypaths, and the velocities were then plotted against elevation (Figure 5.12). Note that the observed velocities from the eastern shotpoints are faster than those from the western shotpoints. This is because the raypaths from the eastern shots are approximately parallel-to-bedding (i.e. travelling at the fast velocity of the strata), whereas the western raypaths are more perpendicular-to-bedding. It can also be seen that

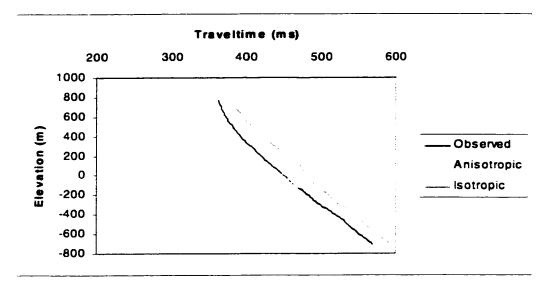


Figure 5.11a. Traveltime vs. Elevation plots for shot E2, comparing the observed data to both the isotropic and anisotropic solutions.

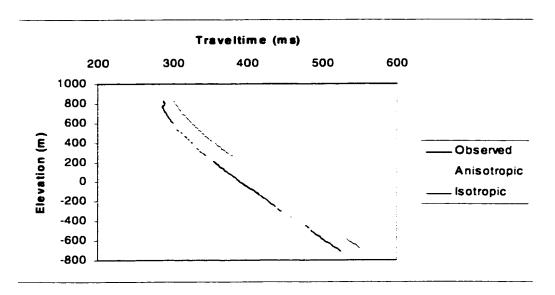


Figure 5.11b. Traveltime vs. Elevation plots for shot E1, comparing the observed data to both the isotropic and anisotropic solutions. Note the lack of data in the isotropic solution, due to the shadow zones present in the raytracing model.

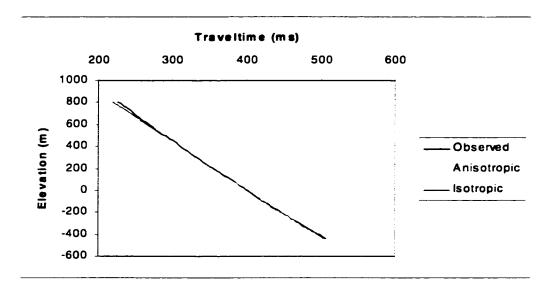


Figure 5.11c. Traveltime vs. Elevation plots for shot W0, comparing the observed data to both the isotropic and anisotropic solutions.

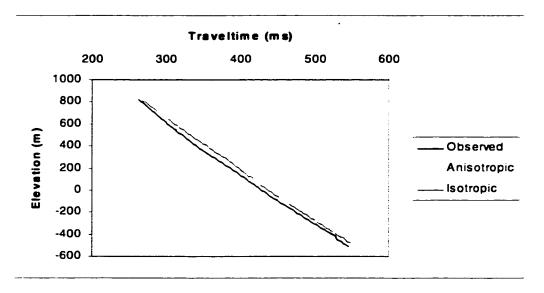


Figure 5.11d. Traveltime vs. Elevation plots for shot W1, comparing the observed data to both the isotropic and anisotropic solutions.

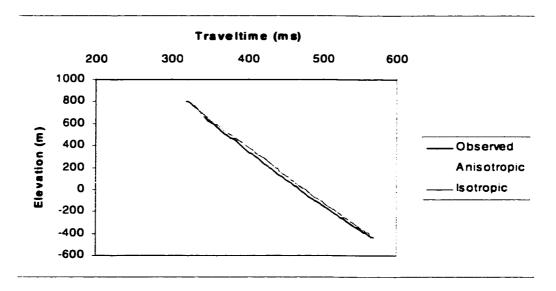


Figure 5.11e. Traveltime vs. Elevation plots for shot W2, comparing the observed data to both the isotropic and anisotropic solutions.

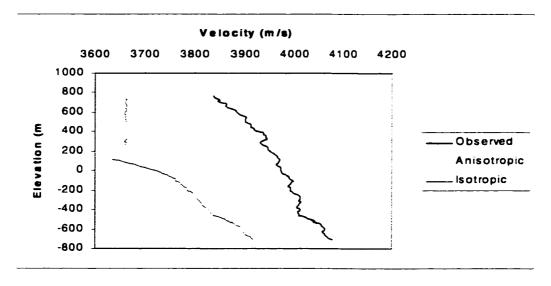


Figure 5.12a. Velocity vs. Elevation plots for shot E2, comparing the observed data to both the isotropic and anisotropic solutions.

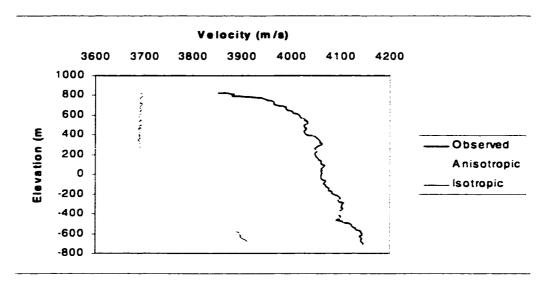


Figure 5.12b. Velocity vs. Elevation plots for shot E1, comparing the observed data to both the isotropic and anisotropic solutions.

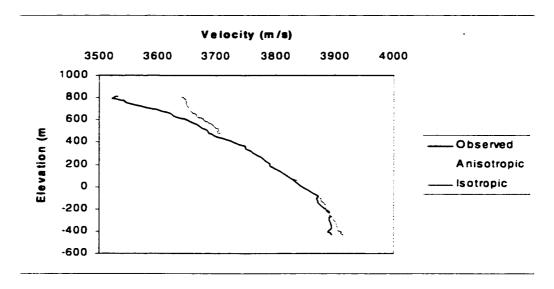


Figure 5.12c. Velocity vs. Elevation plots for shot W0, comparing the observed data to both the isotropic and anisotropic solutions.

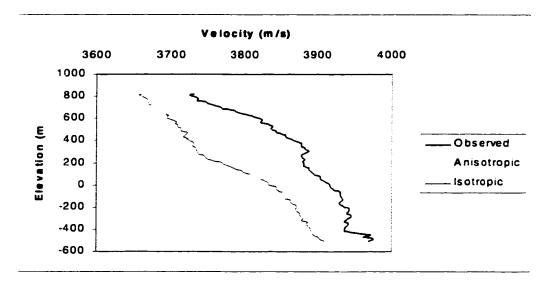


Figure 5.12d. Velocity vs. Elevation plots for shot W1, comparing the observed data to both the isotropic and anisotropic solutions.

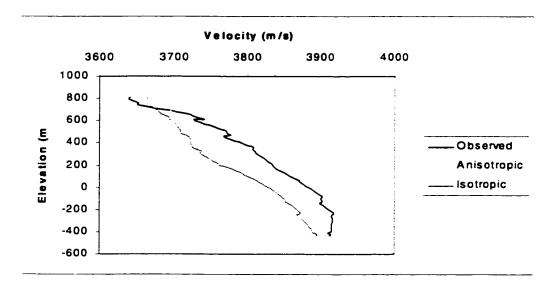


Figure 5.12e. Velocity vs. Elevation plots for shot W2, comparing the observed data to both the isotropic and anisotropic solutions.

the velocities have a larger error associated with them, in general. This is due to the propagation of the error in the traveltimes. It was determined in the refraction surveys that a 10 ms error in the first break picks resulted in approximately  $\pm 100$  m/s error in the velocity, for typical ray lengths used in these experiments. This further propagates into an order of magnitude error in the calculated anisotropic parameters, especially  $\delta$ . It is the same for these VSP calculations.

### 5.9 Discussion

The results of this survey indicate that the anisotropy can be forward modelled in this VSP experiment. This is also an indication that the geological interpretation was well constrained by the available geologic and geophysical data. Minor alterations to the geologic interpretation may be valid; however, it is doubtful that the differences in the modelled traveltimes would be significant. The observed traveltimes were modelled to a precision of  $\pm 10$  ms which is within the realm of accuracy possible for this experiment. The error in the observed traveltimes is associated with the first break picking; whereas the error in the calculated traveltimes is a result of a variation in shot statics and minor variations in the geologic model.

The anisotropic solution gave a more complete representation of the subsurface than the isotropic solution. The isotropic solution was not comparable in the parallel-to-bedding direction. The Blackstone Formation velocity used in these models is higher than predicted from the sonic data. It is expected that this formation is somewhat fractured at the well location but is more uniform away from the well, resulting in the faster modelling velocity.

The anisotropic parameters used in the anisotropic model were consistent with those obtained from the refraction surveys, within the margin of error. These parameters were also constant within each of the anisotropic formations, whether at surface or at depth. This indicates that the anisotropic parameters are not depth dependent and are not

affected by any compaction gradient. Thus, the anisotropic parameters obtained from surface methods are applicable at depth and are valid in the depth migration process.

Due to the complicated structural geology at this location, the anisotropic parameters could not be determined by direct traveltime inversion assuming straight raypaths. However, the anisotropy was modelled successfully using the forward modelling techniques. Nevertheless, it is expected that the anisotropic parameters could be directly determined from the data if the geology were sufficiently simple, such as a 2 km, uniform panel of shales. Hence, this experiment is expected to provide another method to measure velocity anisotropy, *in situ*, where steeply dipping strata outcrop. This, in turn, allows for the accurate determination of the anisotropic parameters for use in depth migration routines.

# CHAPTER 6 ANISOTROPIC DEPTH MIGRATION OF A CANADIAN ROCKY MOUNTAIN FOOTHILLS DATASET

#### **6.1 Introduction**

The physical modelling showed that dipping anisotropic strata will cause problems for time-to-depth conversion of seismic data when isotropic velocities are assumed during depth migration. Anomalies seen in time data can be removed effectively from the model data using anisotropic depth migration, if the anisotropic parameters are known and the correct geometric velocity model is used. The refraction and VSP surveys, described in Chapters 4 and 5, demonstrate that geologic formations, comprising a significant amount of clastic strata, will be anisotropic. The differences in velocity were measured and the Thomsen (1986) anisotropic parameters calculated for several formations in the Alberta Foothills. This allows for extra information to be included in the time-to-depth conversion of anisotropic data. The final step in this thesis is to evaluate anisotropic depth migration by the processing of a real dataset.

A modern dataset from the Canadian Rocky Mountain Foothills was graciously donated for the purpose of analysis; however, the donor and exact location cannot be published due to the confidential nature of the data. Anisotropy was suspected to be present. A geologic interpretation of the pre-stack time migrated section was necessary to identify the main velocity contrasts and the anisotropic formations, in order to build the velocity model for the anisotropic depth migration. Equipped with a geologically controlled velocity model, and the anisotropic parameters determined from the refraction surveys, the anisotropic depth migration was tested. The Kelman Technologies Inc. Kirchhoff migration algorithm was used, as described in Chapter 3.

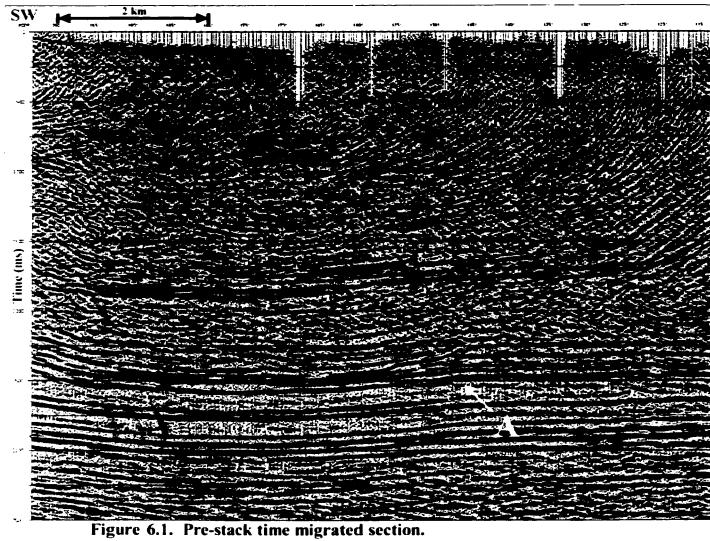
The objective of depth migration of the data, including anisotropic effects, was to determine the most coherent and correct depth section result that could be obtained. Kelman Technologies Inc. had provided a pre-stack time migrated section; however, the image contained time structural anomalies, which were interpreted to be caused by

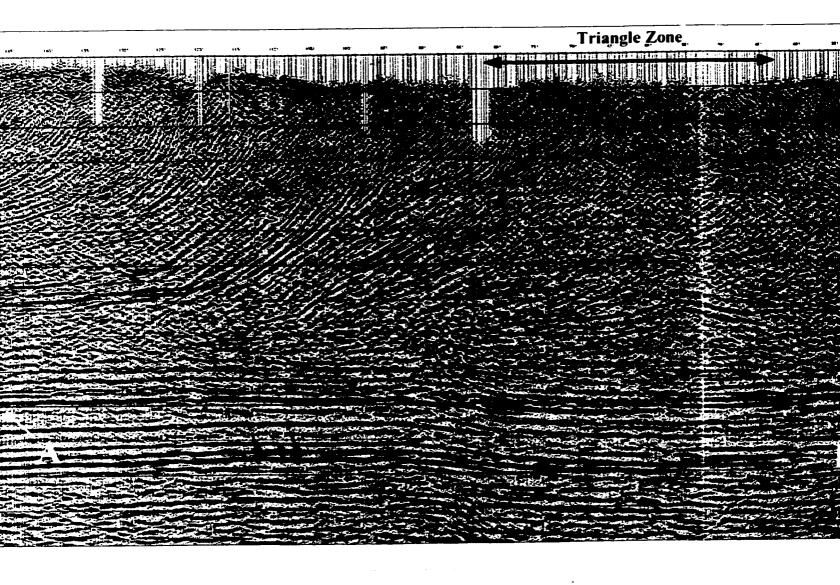
seismic velocity anisotropy in overlying, dipping clastic rocks. Also, there was no depth control for the line. Anisotropic depth migration was used to provide an optimally imaged depth section to compare with isotropic depth migration.

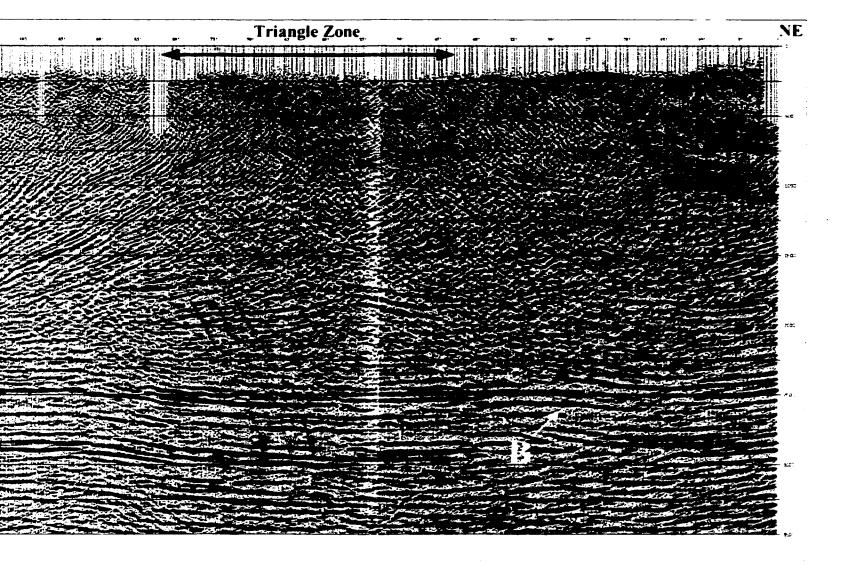
# **6.2 Interpretation**

The stratigraphy of the study area is summarized in Figure 1.3. The main stratigraphic units identified in the seismic data were; Cambrian, Devonian, Mississippian, Kootenay/Fernie, Blairmore, Blackstone, Cardium, Wapiabi, Belly River and Bearpaw/St. Mary River/Willow Creek. The Wapiabi and Blackstone formations are known to consist of marine shales and the Belly River Formation is an interbedded sequence of shales and sandstones. The refraction surveys have shown that these formations are anisotropic and require the assignment of anisotropic parameters in the migration process. As such, particular attention was made to these units in the interpretation. Data from two wells, located off the southwest end of the section, were available and were considered in the interpretation. The surface geology was also used to constrain the location of faults and formation boundaries at the surface, across the section [Stockmal, 1996].

A time migrated section of the data is presented in Figure 6.1 and is approximately 20 km in length. The group interval was 20 m, the crooked line CDP spacing is 10 m and the nominal fold is 60. The shot interval was variable but the average shot interval was 100 m. These data were processed using surface consistent deconvolution, refraction statics, residual statics, pre-stack migration velocity analysis, mute, pre-stack time migration and filter (4-8, 40-50 Hz). The data quality is good but there are few reflectors in the upper portion of the section. The Paleozoic section is well defined and there is one major reflector that runs part way across the middle section, from the southwest to the triangle zone, at a time of approximately 1800 ms. There is virtually no coherent reflectivity in the triangle zone. There is evidence of steeply dipping strata in the upper, central portion of the section, immediately west of the triangle zone. The eastward dips of reflectors on the eastern flank of the triangle zone, are also evident. The interpretation of this time section is presented in Figure 6.2. In the interpretation, the section can be broken into







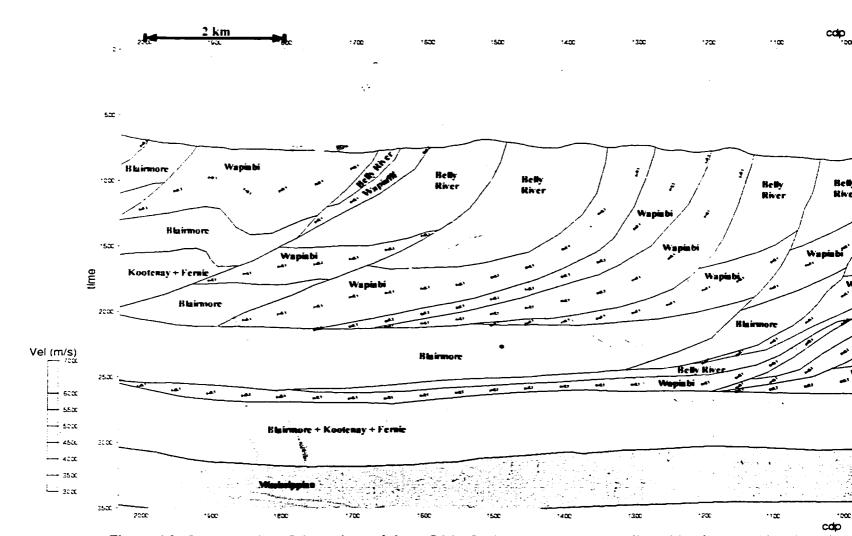
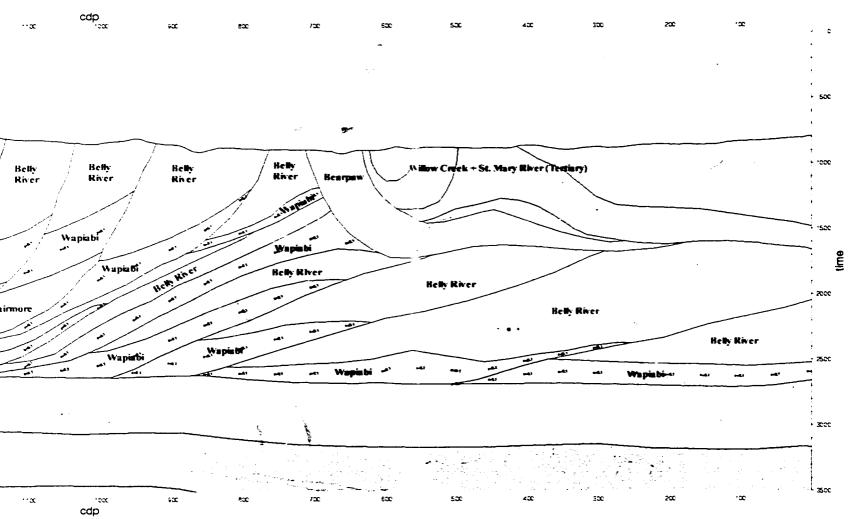


Figure 6.2. Interpretation of time migrated data. Dips of anisotropic strata are indicated by the text within the anisot



within the anisotropic formations.

three main regions: a region dominated by west-dipping reflectors; a region at the east end of the section incorporating the triangle zone and east-dipping events; and a lower region with essentially flat, coherent events below the overlying dipping sections. The upper west region of the section is dominated by lower to middle Cretaceous sediments, which have been thrusted steeply to the surface. These formations are the west dipping strata that form the western edge of the triangle zone and the hinterland. The upper eastern portion of the data contains the triangle zone structure and the gently dipping foreland structures of the Upper Brazeau and Tertiary strata. These strata dip mainly to the east. While the Mesozoic strata have been substantially folded and faulted, the deeper autochthonous Paleozoic and older basement strata are structurally undeformed. There are two locations in the basement Paleozoic strata, labelled 'A' and 'B', in Figure 6.1, where positive time structures are present. These occur below steeply dipping strata that outcrop at surface west of, and at, the triangle zone, respectively.

The west region extends from the edge of the section in the SW, to the western boundary of the triangle zone. There are two major, lower detachments located in this region. The upper of the two detachments runs through the base of the Blairmore, or top Kootenay strata, and carries all the surficial, middle and lower Cretaceous rock units. These rocks are highly faulted by several, west dipping, steep splays off the main detachment. As a result, the rocks are also steeply dipping to the west, some almost vertically dipping, as confirmed by the surface geology. This shallowest detachment is interpreted to eventually thrust to the surface as a major fault. The deeper detachment runs through the Blairmore unit, above the Paleozoic section. The rocks carried on this second detachment are interpreted to be the rocks which make up the core of the triangle zone. These consist primarily of rocks of the Belly River and Wapiabi formations, with smaller amounts of Blairmore Group strata.

The NE portion of the section contains the core of the triangle zone as well as a major eastward dipping fault, which carries the foreland dipping strata on the east side of the triangle zone. This fault is a major backthrust that brings the Bearpaw, St. Mary River

and Willow Creek formations to surface. A second east-dipping backthrust is also present in this region and converges to the first fault, at depth. In the core of the triangle zone, it has been interpreted that the rocks carried above the deep detachment of the middle region have been rotated to steep angles, which dip to the west, due to the compression of the underlying antiformal stack. Below the Upper Cretaceous/Tertiary strata, riding on the major backthrust in this region, several east-verging horses containing Belly River and Wapiabi strata have also been interpreted. These units have not been rotated to steep dip angles, as is the case in the core of the triangle zone.

## 6.3 Anisotropic Pre-Stack Depth Migration

Once the interpretation of the time migrated seismic section was completed, the interpretation was digitized into a velocity model builder. All the main horizons and major velocity contrast boundaries were included (Figure 6.2). The velocities assigned to each section, in the first migration model, were based on sonic log information provided by the two wells used in the interpretation of the seismic data. An initial value of  $\varepsilon = 0.10$  was assigned to all the Wapiabi shale locations, which was determined from the refraction surveys (Chapter 4).  $\delta$ , set to 0.025, remained constant throughout the initial depth migrations and was subsequently investigated in the final series of migrations. The dip was assigned based on the reflectors in the data. The depth migration routine used in the processing is the same as that used and described in Chapter 3. The results of this initial migration are shown in Figure 6.3. The image produced was not as coherent as the original time section (Figure 6.1). This is not unexpected since depth migration is more sensitive to migration velocities than is time migration.

Once an initial result was produced, an iterative process was then developed to improve the migrated image (Table 6.1). A velocity analysis tool was first used to refine the velocities, which allows the user to scan through several migrated sections, each with slightly different migration parameters applied. In this case, each section is migrated using a percentage of the current model velocities, typically 90 - 110%, in 2% increments. The velocity panel is then picked according to reflector continuity at the top and bottom

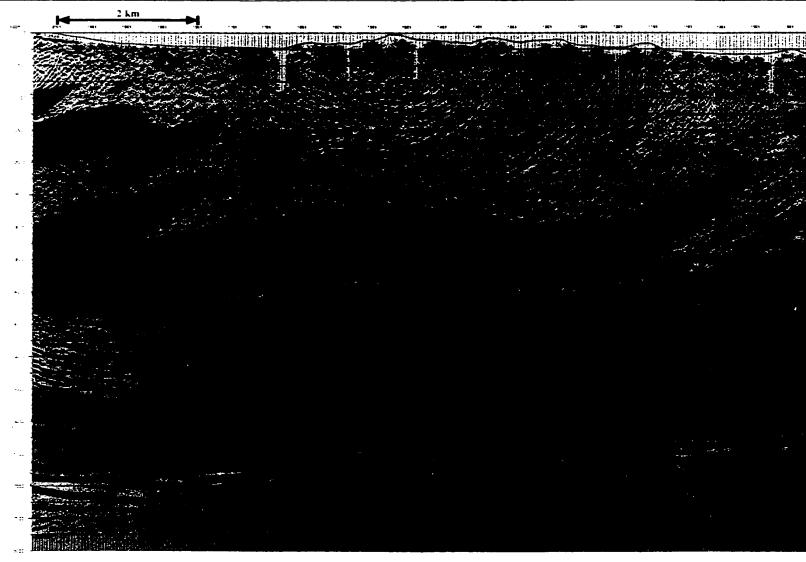


Figure 6.3. Anisotropic depth migrated section. using initial interpretation.

of each velocity zone. These velocity zones do not change location in time, but they do have different depths after depth migration using each of the interpreted velocity models. The depth changes for each horizon are reflected in changes in the interpreted interval velocity in the model. The interpreted velocities were then assigned in the velocity builder and the migration was rerun. Secondly, the updated migrated section was used to further refine the velocities by evaluating the common image gathers (CIG) [Zhu et al., 1998; Chapter 3]. The velocity model builder allowed for the gathers to be recalculated based on any velocity changes in the model. This meant that the velocities could be modified, according to whether the gather indicated that the velocity was too high or too low [Zhu et al., 1998]. Again the velocity model was updated and the migration rerun. The final result, after changes to the interval velocities and gathers, is shown in Figure 6.4. There is substantial improvement to the section, from the first iteration (Figure 6.3).

Table 6.1. Methodology used to produce final ADM section.

Step	Procedure
1	Time migrated section
2	Interpretation
3	Velocity model (time), assigning initial $v_a$ , $\varepsilon$ and $\delta$
4	Velocity model (depth)
5	Depth migration
6	Iterate over $v_o$
7	Check CIG (smiles and frowns) (back to 4)
8	Check velocity boundaries (back to 4)
9	Iterate over E
10	Iterate over $\delta$
11	Final section

It was decided that Figure 6.4 was the best anisotropic depth migrated image that could be obtained using the original geometric interpretation. Since the migrated image had been improved through several iterations, it was evident that some of the original horizon boundaries, from the initial geometric interpretation, had changed. As such, modification of the geologic model was deemed necessary. Using the velocity model builder, it was possible to make the necessary adjustments to the time horizons in order to match the data more correctly. The migration was then updated and the previous steps repeated.

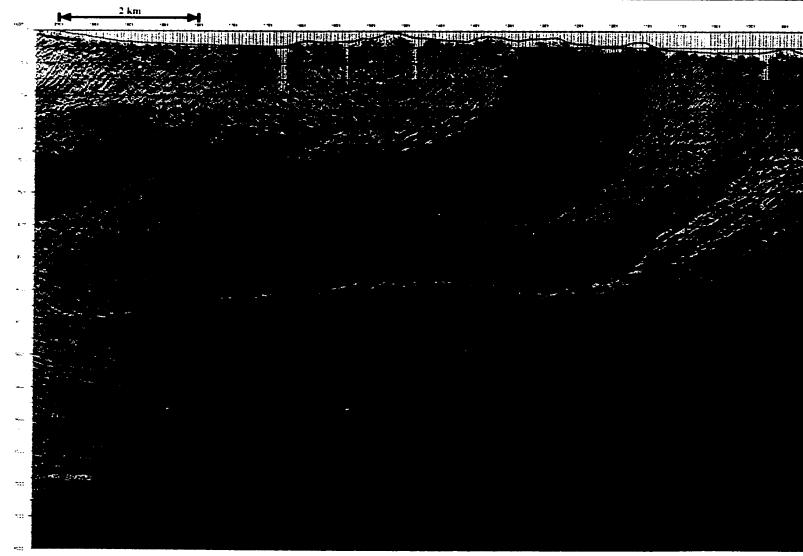
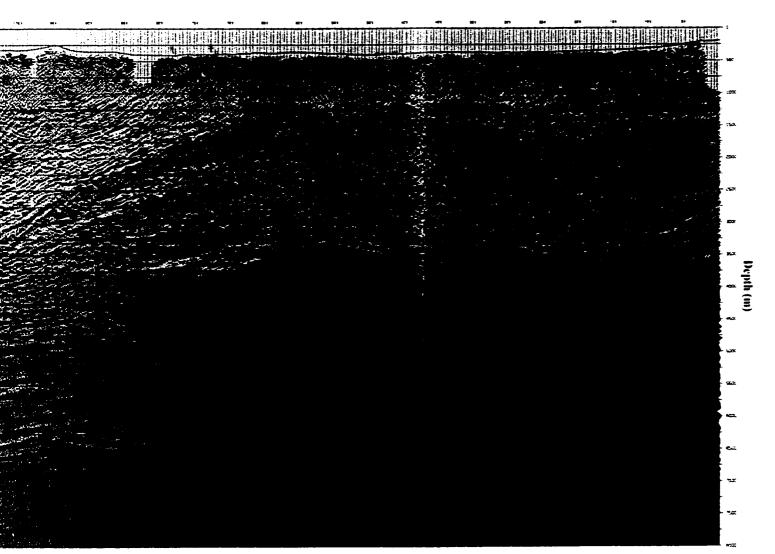


Figure 6.4. Anisotropic depth migrated section, using updated velocity model and original interpretation.



retation.

The velocity analysis tool was again used and the interval velocities were updated. Then the common image gathers were scrutinized [Zhu et al., 1998] and the velocities were updated again. The results of these changes are seen in Figure 6.5 and, once again, improvement to the image was obtained as compared to the section in Figure 6.4.

After the optimal migrated section was obtained, additional iterations were undertaken to examine the effects of the anisotropic parameters in the migration process. The velocity analysis tool was again used to independently increase and decrease the values of  $\varepsilon$  and  $\delta$  in the portions of the velocity model interpreted to be Wapiabi shales. Final anisotropic parameters of  $\varepsilon = 0.12$  and  $\delta = -0.03$  were chosen based on the values that best focussed the migrated image. These parameters were updated in the velocity model builder and the whole section was fine-tuned, again using the velocity analysis tool. The final result is depicted in Figure 6.6. The section has been greatly improved over the previous results (Figures 6.3-6.5) and it is comparable to the original time section (Figure 6.1) in terms of image quality and overall signal-to-noise ratio. In addition, for comparison, the anisotropic parameters were set to zero in the velocity model and the data were migrated using an isotropic velocity model (Figure 6.7).

# 6.4 Comparison of Migrated Sections

In order to assess the effectiveness of the anisotropic depth migration (ADM), the final anisotropic depth image was compared to both the isotropic depth (IDM) and time migrated sections. In Figure 6.8, CDP's 151-351 were compared. It can be seen that there is a time discontinuity in the Paleozoic portion of the section, at ~2500 ms, which may be interpreted as a normal fault. However this structure is not present in the ADM section. Therefore this interpreted basement fault is probably not a real structure, but rather a manifestation of the steeply dipping strata, constituting part of the triangle zone, in the shallow part of the section.

From CDP's 401-601 (Figure 6.9), it is seen that the depth images, both isotropic and anisotropic, are very similar. Some new reflectors have been imaged in these depth

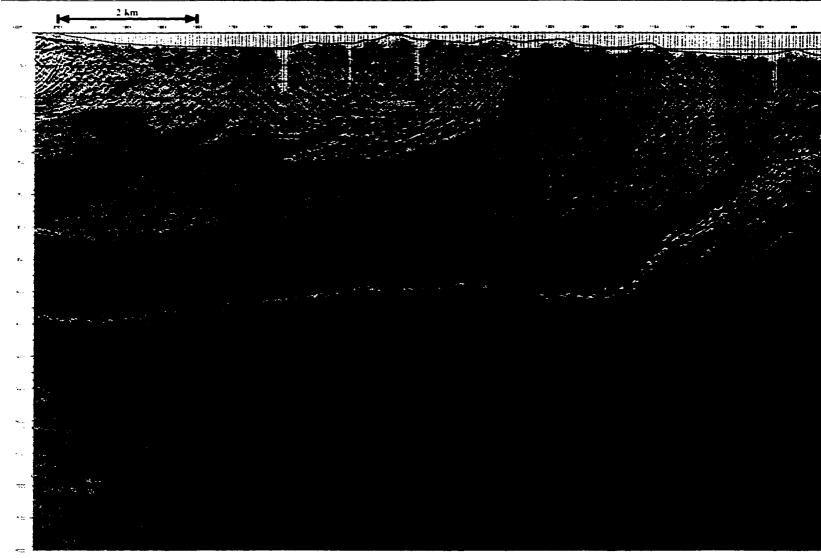


Figure 6.5. Anisotropic depth migrated section, using updated interpretational model.

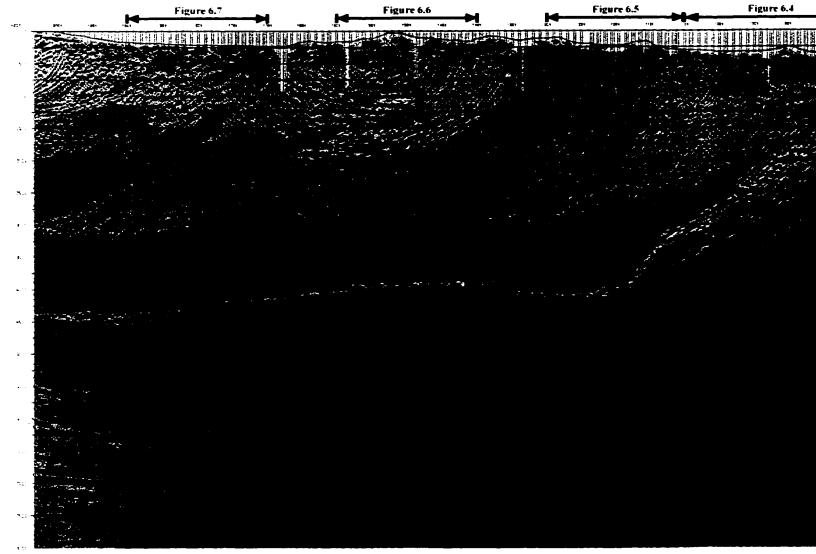
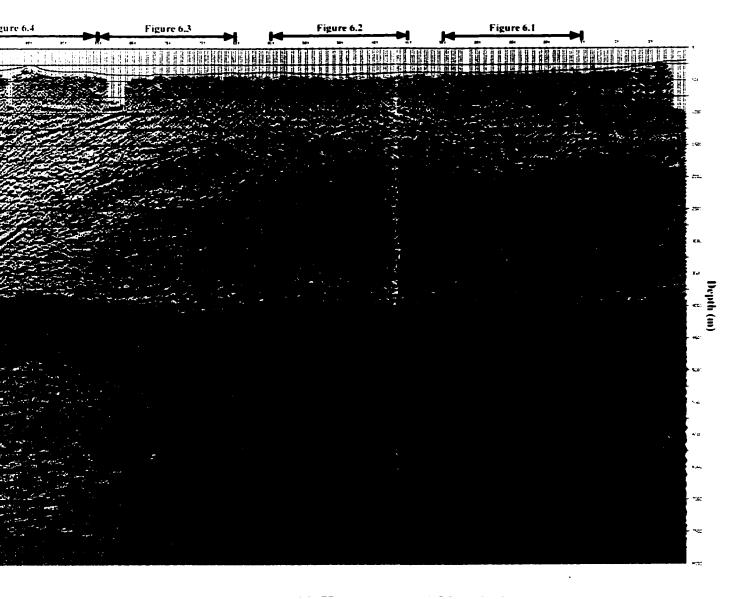


Figure 6.6. Final anisotropic depth migrated section.



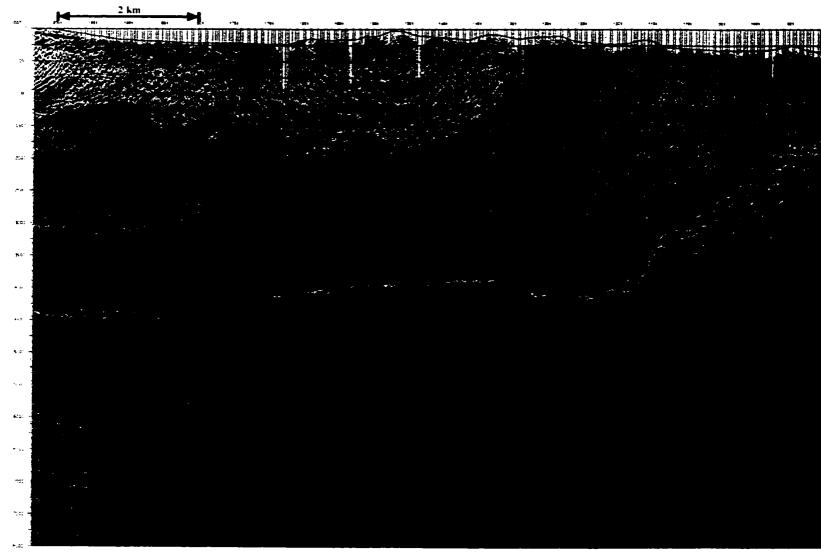


Figure 6.7. Final isotropic depth migrated section.



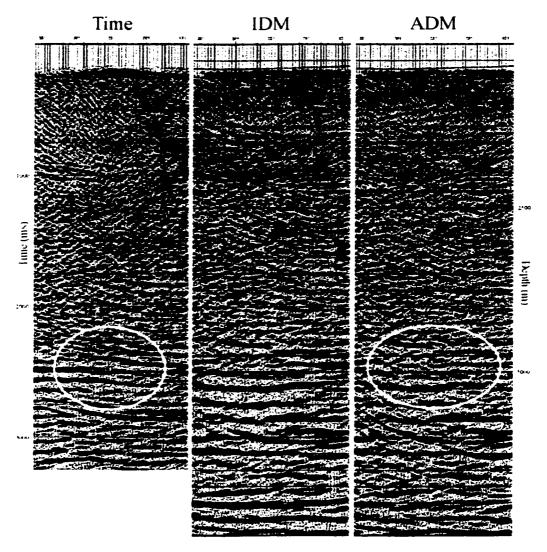


Figure 6.8. Comparison of migrated sections: at left is the pre-stack time migration; in the centre is the isotropic depth migrated section (IDM); and at right is the optimal anisotropic depth migrated section (ADM). The fault interpreted in the time section is not present in the ADM section; hence, it is considered to be a time anomaly. The ADM section also gives a more continuous, hence more interpretable, image of these deeper reflectors than the IDM section.

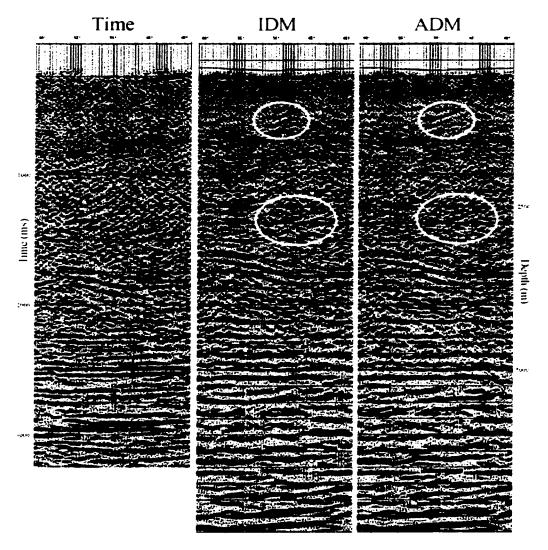


Figure 6.9. Comparison of migrated sections: at left is the pre-stack time migration; in the centre is the isotropic depth migrated section (IDM); and at right is the optimal anisotropic depth migrated section (ADM). The two depth images are very similar in this section of the data. The structures are not complicated in this area and thus the anisotropy does not significantly affect the results.

sections that were not seen in the time section. The similarity between the two depth images results from the relatively unstructured nature and gentle dips of the strata in this area.

In the triangle zone, CDP's 651-851, the ADM section has more reflectors than the time section and better continuity of reflectors than in the IDM section (Figure 6.10). The structural complexity of the triangle zone, in addition to the anisotropy, is best treated by the ADM.

In the presence of steeply dipping reflectors, CDP's 851-1101, the isotropic and anisotropic depth images give better dip images in the shallow part of the section; however, it compromises the basement structures at depth, as a direct consequence (Figure 6.11). Since imaging these dips in the near surface was one focus during the depth migrations, the assignment of short wavelength structure and dips in the shallow portion of the section complicated the migration velocity model in the near surface. The addition of structural complexity in the near surface velocity model thus complicates the imaging of deeper structures, resulting in the near surface, dipping strata being imaged better than the deeper strata, in both migrated sections (IDM and ADM). In addition, the deeper reflectors in the ADM section are imaged slightly better than in the IDM section, since the overmigration of the deeper reflectors in the ADM section is less pronounced.

Figure 6.12, CDP's 1101-1301, indicates that different depth locations of the Paleozoic strata, between the IDM and ADM sections, occur under steeply dipping surface reflectors. The IDM section places the Mississippian reflector shallower in depth than in the ADM section, as expected, since the rotation of the strata is not taken into account in the IDM result. As such, the migration velocities are too low, placing the reflector shallower in depth in the final image. Unfortunately, there were no wells on the line directly to evaluate the tie to the migrated data. Judging from the modelling results in Chapter 3; however, the ADM result is considered to be the more correct image.

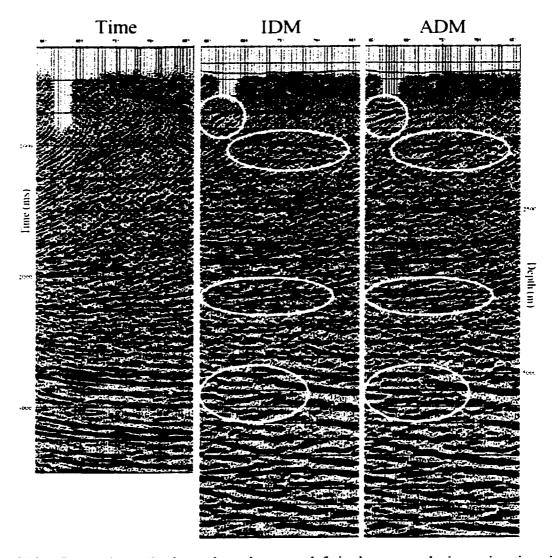


Figure 6.10. Comparison of migrated sections: at left is the pre-stack time migration; in the centre is the isotropic depth migrated section (IDM); and at right is the optimal anisotropic depth migrated section (ADM). In this section, the ADM brings out more reflectors than the time section and better continuity of these reflectors than the isotropic solution.

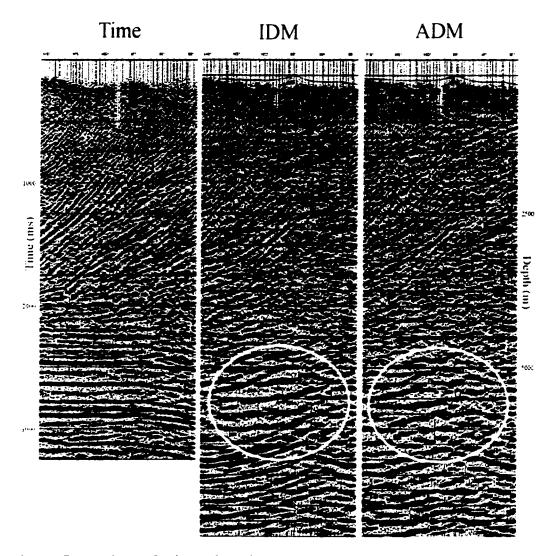


Figure 6.11. Comparison of migrated sections: at left is the pre-stack time migration; in the centre is the isotropic depth migrated section (IDM); and at right is the optimal anisotropic depth migrated section (ADM). The depth migrations give better dip information in the shallow portion of the section, however, they complicate the basement structures, as a direct result. As well, the ADM section is not as overmigrated as the IDM section, in the highlighted area.

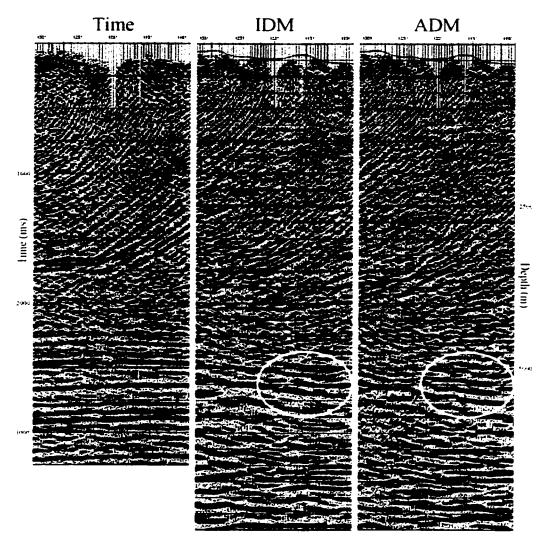


Figure 6.12. Comparison of migrated sections: at left is the pre-stack time migration; in the centre is the isotropic depth migrated section (IDM); and at right is the optimal anisotropic depth migrated section (ADM). Note the different depth location of the Mississippian reflector between the isotropic and ADM solutions. The steeply dipping strata in the near surface seriously affect the isotropic migration.

In the location of CDP's 1401-1601, in Figure 6.13, the time discontinuity of the Mississippian reflector has been enhanced in the ADM section. Since this structure remains in the depth section, it is considered a real structure, such as a duplex involving Fernie strata, and not a manifestation of the processing algorithms. In addition, the ADM section displays better continuity in the shallow reflectors than both the IDM and time sections.

In the relatively flat-lying reflectors found at CDP's 1701-1901, the three sections are comparable (Figure 6.14). Since no anisotropy was considered in this portion of the data and the structures are not complicated, the three migrations are expected to be similar in terms of image quality.

Due to the complexity of the section, it is doubtful whether any further major improvements can be made to the anisotropic depth image, at this time. In the future, with better control of the anisotropic parameters and refined migration processes, it will be possible to improve on this final image.

# 6.5 Discussion

Anisotropic depth migration is an effective tool in areas of steeply dipping anisotropic strata. Depth migration is preferred to time migration since the ultimate goal must be comparable to a geologic cross-section. Depth migration of this data resulted in better imaging of the dipping reflectors in the shallow portion of the section; however, often at the expense of the quality of the image of the deeper reflectors. If less detail is incorporated in the shallow portions of the velocity model, a better image of the deeper reflectors may be obtained. Hence, the focus of the migration needs to be determined before the data are migrated.

Anisotropic depth migration yields a more complete image than the isotropic image. The incorporation of anisotropy into the migration code adjusts for the lateral and depth mispositioning errors often found if the data were migrated isotropically. This was seen

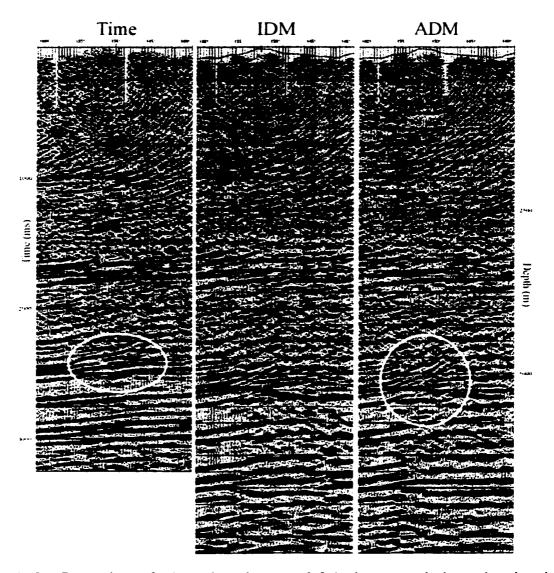


Figure 6.13. Comparison of migrated sections: at left is the pre-stack time migration; in the centre is the isotropic depth migrated section (IDM); and at right is the optimal anisotropic depth migrated section (ADM). The time structure present in the time data is also present in the ADM section. This may be a real subsurface structure, such as a duplex involving Fernie strata. Note also that the ADM image is more continuous than the IDM image. Also, the shallow portion of the section shows better continuity in the ADM section, than in both the IDM and time sections.

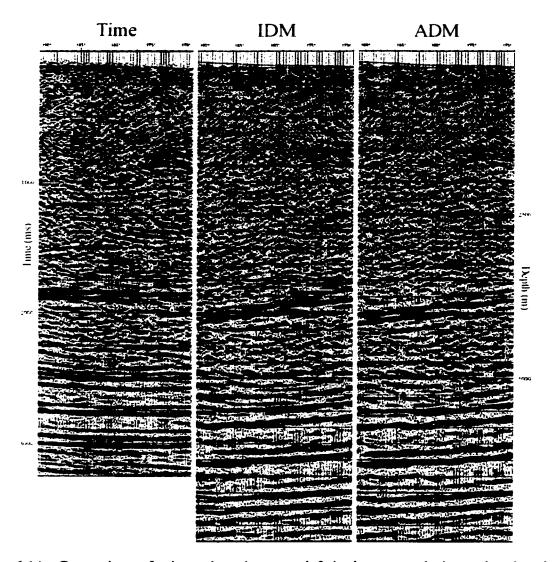


Figure 6.14. Comparison of migrated sections: at left is the pre-stack time migration; in the centre is the isotropic depth migrated section (IDM); and at right is the optimal anisotropic depth migrated section (ADM). In this section of the data, the strata are relatively flat lying and no anisotropy has been assigned to the structures. This results in all three images being similar.

in Figure 6.12 where the depth of the Mississippian reflector was located too shallow in depth in the isotropic image. In Figure 6.13, the apparent time structure was also better imaged with the anisotropic result than with the isotropic result. This reinforces the idea that the structure may be real.

The complexity of the section, at present, seems to hinder the resolution of the overall anisotropic image. With better acquisition and migration routines as well as better knowledge of the anisotropic parameters of rocks in the area, more improvement could be expected.

### CHAPTER 7 CONCLUSIONS

#### 7.1 Conclusions

One of the important contributions of this thesis is the demonstrated evidence of traveltime anomalies, in time recorded data, which are due to seismic velocity anisotropy. Traveltime anomalies were identified in the seismic data from two physical models containing dipping anisotropic layers and these anomalies could be successfully predicted using numerical modelling techniques (Chapter 2), a result considered to be significant. The close correlation between the model data and the predicted results indicates that a general anisotropic raytracer has been successfully developed. The depth migration of these model data, discussed in Chapter 3, has demonstrated that isotropic pre-stack depth migration is limited in its ability to correctly migrate data from these anisotropic physical models, as it leads to discrepancies and conflicts between the correct reflector depth and the residual moveout in image gathers. In order to account for these discrepancies correctly, anisotropic depth migration routines need to be used. However, prior knowledge of the anisotropic parameters and geometry of the velocity model is necessary for this process.

Measuring the anisotropic parameters of rocks is not an easy task. In this thesis, two new methods were developed, that allow for the *in situ* measurement of seismic velocities at various angles through bedding, from which the anisotropic parameters can be computed. These methods have not previously been considered by other researchers. By measuring the velocity of rocks *in situ*, a more accurate determination of these parameters is possible, instead of attempting to recreate these conditions in the laboratory, which is difficult. In addition, these methods allow for measurements using true seismic wavelengths, instead of high frequencies (i.e. short wavelengths), which are necessary for laboratory measurements. By using refraction techniques, developed in Chapter 4, the anisotropic parameters of steeply dipping rock formations were determined. In Chapter 5, VSP methods were extended to measure the anisotropic parameters of moderately dipping strata. Both of these methods were successful and can be performed in the Alberta

Foothills, in order to quantify the anisotropy of various anisotropic rock units. This allows for the accurate determination of the anisotropic parameters for use in depth migration routines.

Anisotropic pre-stack depth migration (ADM) methodologies were developed and tested using both synthetic data as well as a real dataset from the Alberta Foothills. The two physical model datasets were migrated using ADM techniques, presented in Chapter 3, which successfully eliminated the traveltime anomalies from the final depth sections. In Chapter 6, it was demonstrated that ADM is an effective tool in the processing of real seismic data, especially in the presence of steeply dipping strata. The depth migrated data offered a more robust section than the time migrated data and thus, yielded a more complete image of the subsurface. Also, the inclusion of anisotropic velocity models in the pre-stack depth migration process does not further complicate the problem, but allows for improved focussing of the final section through an iterative process of varying individual parameters. The key to using ADM successfully is the development of the velocity model. The assignment of the various parameters, such as perpendicular-tobedding velocity, dip and anisotropic parameters, as well as the geologic boundaries, is very important to the ADM process. Variation of these parameters, within geologic and well log constraints as developed in Chapter 6, allowed for a complete and accurate depth migrated image to be produced.

This thesis has yielded a deeper understanding of the effects of seismic velocity anisotropy on seismic imaging and has developed new methods to predict and compensate for these effects. ADM is necessary for the correct processing of seismic data recorded over anisotropic strata but it requires more input parameters than conventional processing. By incorporating the anisotropic parameters, determined through *in situ* techniques, into processing routines, velocity anomalies and other depth and lateral mispositioning errors due to anisotropy, can be mitigated in the seismic data. Consequently, the correct positioning of exploration targets, both laterally as well as in

depth, can be achieved, particularly in structurally complex areas. As a result, a more accurate depth image of the subsurface exploration target can be obtained.

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# APPENDIX I ELLIPTICAL RAYTRACING SUBROUTINE

```
implicit real (a-z)
integer med1, med2
pi = 4.0 * atan(1.0)
print *,' Enter incident medium (iso = 1,aniso = 2): '
read(5,*) med1
print *,' Enter refractive medium (iso = 1,aniso = 2): '
read(5,*) med2
if (med1 .eq. 1) then
   print *,' The incident medium is isotropic.'
else if (med1 .eq. 2) then
   print *,' The incident medium is anisotropic.'
else if (med1 .ne. 1 .and. med1 .ne. 2) then
   print *,' Please enter incident medium (iso = 1,aniso = 2):'
  read(5,*) med1
end if
if (med2 .eq. 1) then
   print *, ' The refractive medium is isotropic.'
else if (med2 .eq. 2) then
   print *,' The refractive medium is anisotropic.'
else if (med2 .ne. 1 .and. med2 .ne. 2) then
   print *,' Please enter refractive medium (iso = 1,aniso = 2):'
  read(5,*) med2
end if
```

```
print *,' Incident ray angle (deg) = '
read(5,*) alpha1
print *,' Incident gamma (deg) = '
read(5,*) gamma1
print *,' Refracted gamma (deg) =
read(5,*) gamma2
viso = 2740.0
vfast = 3365.0
vslow = 2925.0
______
--- Patch for phi > 90.0 or phi < - 90.0
alphar1 = alpha1 * pi/180
gammar1 = gamma1 * pi/180
gammar2 = gamma2 * pi/180
phir1 = alphar1 - gammar1
if (medl .eq. 1) then
  phi1 = phir1 * 180.0/pi
  rayvel1 = viso
  rayp = sin(phir1) / rayvel1
else if (med1 .eq. 2) then
  if (phir1 .lt. -pi / 2) then
     gammar1 = gammar1 - pi
     phir1 = alphar1 - gammar1
  elseif (phir1 .gt. pi / 2) then
     gammar1 = gammar1 + pi
```

```
phirl = alphar1 - gammar1
   endif
   phi1 = phir1 * 180 / pi
   tanphs = (vslow**2 / vfast**2) * tan(phir1)
   phsr1 = atan(tanphs)
  betar1 = phsr1 + gammar1
  phs1 = phsr1 * 180.0 / pi
  beta1 = betar1 * 180 / pi
   rvel1 = (sin(phir1)**2 / vfast**2) + (cos(phir1)**2 / vslow**2)
  rayvel1 = sqrt(1 / rvel1)
  raypnum = (sin(gammar1) / vslow**2) +
      ((cos(gammar1) * tan(phir1)) / vfast**2)
  raypdenom = sqrt(1 / (vslow**2) + (tan(phir1)**2 / vfast**2))
  rayp = raypnum / raypdenom
else if (med1 .ne. 1 .and. med1 .ne. 2) then
  print *,'Incident medium was not entered.'
end if
if (med2 .eq. 1) then
  rayvel2 = viso
  crit = abs(rayp * rayvel2)
  if (crit .gt. 1) then
     print *, 'Incident Angle is past critical'
     print *,'Ray Parameter =',rayp
     print *,'Incident Angle =',alpha1
     print *,'Incident Ray Velocity =',rayvel1
  else
     phir2 = asin(rayp * rayvel2)
     phi2 = phir2 * 180.0 / pi
     print *,'Ray Parameter =',rayp
```

```
print *,'Incident Angle =',alpha1
     print *,'Incident Ray Velocity =',rayvel1
     print *,'Refracted Angle =',phi2
     print *,'Refracted Ray Velocity =',rayvel2
   endif
else if (med2 .eq. 2) then
  num1 = sin(gammar2) * cos(gammar2)
  num2 = (vslow**2 * cos(gammar2)**2 +
       vfast**2 * sin(gammar2)**2 - (rayp * vslow * vfast)**2)
   if (num2 .lt. 0) then
     print *,'Incident Angle is past critical'
     print *,'Ray Parameter =',rayp
     print *,'Incident Angle =',alpha1
     print *,'Incident Ray Velocity =',rayvel1
  else
     num2 = sart(num2)
     phsdenom = (rayp**2 * vfast**2) - cos(gammar2)**2
     tanphs2a = (num1 + rayp * num2) / phsdenom
     tanphs2b = (num1 - rayp * num2) / phsdenom
     phaser2a = atan(tanphs2a)
     phaser2b = atan(tanphs2b)
     betar2 = phaser2b + gammar2
     if(betar2.gt.pi/2) then
        betar2 = betar2 - pi
     elseif(betar2.1t.-pi/2) then
        betar2 = betar2 + pi
     endif
     if (betar1 .gt. 0 .and. betar2 .lt. 0) then
        gammar2 = gammar2 + pi
        betar2 = phaser2b + gammar2
```

```
num1 = sin(gammar2) * cos(gammar2)
   num2 = (vslow**2 * cos(gammar2)**2 +
   vfast**2 * sin(gammar2)**2 ~ (rayp * vslow * vfast)**2)
   num2 = sqrt(num2)
elseif (betar1 .lt. 0 .and. betar2 .gt. 0) then
   gammar2 = gammar2 - pi
   betar2 = phaser2b + gammar2
   num1 = sin(gammar2) * cos(gammar2)
   num2 = (vslow**2 * cos(gammar2)**2 +
        vfast**2 * sin(gammar2)**2 - (rayp * vslow * vfast)**2)
  num2 = sqrt(num2)
endif
phase2a = phaser2a * 180 / pi
phase2b = phaser2b * 180 / pi
beta2 = betar2 * 180 / pi
denom = (vslow**2 / vfast**2) *
     ((rayp**2 * vfast**2) - cos(gammar2)**2)
tanphi2a = (num1 + rayp * num2) / denom
tanphi2b = (numl - rayp * num2) / denom
phir2a = atan(tanphi2a)
phir2b = atan(tanphi2b)
alphar2a = phir2a + gammar2
alphar2b = phir2b + gammar2
if (alphar2b .gt. pi / 2) then
   alphar2b = alphar2b - pi
  print *,'Refracted alpha out of range (>+90)'
elseif (alphar2b .lt. -pi / 2) then
```

```
alphar2b = alphar2b + pi
      print *, 'Refracted alpha out of range (>-90)'
   endif
   alpha2a = alphar2a * 180.0 / pi
   alpha2b = alphar2b * 180.0 / pi
   phi2a = phir2a * 180.0 / pi
   phi2b = phir2b * 180.0 / pi
   gamma2 = gammar2 * 180 /pi
   rvel2 = (sin(phir2b)**2 / vfast**2) +
        (cos(phir2b)**2 / vslow**2)
   rayvel2 = sqrt(1 / rvel2)
   print *,'Ray Parameter =',rayp
   print *,'Incident Gamma =',gamma1
   print *,'Incident Angle =',alpha1
   print *,'Incident Phi =',phil
   print *,'Incident Phase =',phs1
   print *,'Incident Beta =',betal
   print *,'Incident Ray Velocity =',rayvel1
   print *,'Refracted Gamma =',gamma2
   print *,'Refracted Angle (a) =',alpha2a
   print *,'Refracted Phase (a) =',phase2a
   print *,'Refracted Phi (a) =',phi2a
   print *,'Refracted Angle (b) =',alpha2b
   print *,'Refracted Phi (b) =',phi2b
   print *,'Refracted Phase (b) =',phase2b
   print *,'Refracted Beta (b) =',beta2
   print *,'Refracted Ray Velocity =',rayvel2
endif
```

```
else if (med2 .ne. 1 .and. med2 .ne. 2) then
   print *,'Refractive medium was not entered.'
end if
```

end

### APPENDIX II VSP DATA

The following table contains all the data acquired from the VSP experiment. This includes the transformation of the well into the plane of the shots for the 2D analysis of the data. Note that the transformation was not performed on the data from the two zero-offset shot locations (E0 and Zero). The headings for the accompanying table are as follows:

- Column A Source location.
- Column B Source elevation (m).
- Column C Source northing direction (m).
- Column D Source easting direction (m).
- Column E Field file identification number (FFID).
- Column F Measured depth of receiver in well (m).
- Column G Total vertical depth of receiver in well (m).
- Column H Total vertical depth to receiver with respect to kellybushing (m). Factor z from Figure 5.8.
- Column I Receiver northing direction (m).
- Column J Receiver easting direction (m).
- Column K First arrival times (ms) from experiment.
- Column L Horizontal distance from shotpoint to well (m). Factor h from Figure 5.8.
- Column M Total distance between shotpoint and receiver location in well (m). Factor **d** from Figure 5.8.
- Column N Calculated velocity from shotpoint to receiver in well, assuming straight raypaths (m/s).
- Column O Bearing direction between source location and well (°).
- Column P Transformation angle between h and h' planes (°). Factor  $\theta$  from Figure 5.8.
- Column Q Transformed horizontal distance from shotpoint to well (m). Factor h' from Figure 5.8.
- Column R Transformed total distance between shotpoint and receiver in well (m). Factor **d'** from Figure 5.8.

- Column S Inclination angle (°). Factor I from Figure 5.8.
- Column T Transformed inclination angle (radians). Factor I' from Figure 5.8.
- Column U Transformed first arrival times (ms). Factor t' from Figure 5.8.

<b>5</b>	363 0648	364 6225	5 1534	366 6814	3 7785	369 1549	370 104	370 9682	371 6544	373 1827	374 3417	375 4029	377.358	379 2732	380 8932	362 6762	383 9803	385 1039	20 / 00	300 1344	191 8387	6228	394 1279	1659	398 0452	2161 001	402 01 17	407 6295	92/6	111 7149	112 8558	117 2231	9560 611	121 1155	22 7686	126 7147	128 9986	130 9437	433 166	135 8754	86015	1903	M5 0424	47 4528	9514	452 1529 454 485
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σ	1241 91	1235 72	1232 359	1229 24	1228 524	1221 348	1218 783	1216 177	1213614	121	1208 367	200 000	1200 617	1198 055	1195 473	1192 877	1190 256	1187 735	1182.6	1180 212	1177 919	1175 777	1173 577	1171 437	1169 335	116/ 222	1165 122	1160 647	1158 332	1155 952	1153 622	1148 672	1146 214	1143 798	1139 267	1136 888	1344	1131 798	1129 258	1126 642	1124 04	1161461	1116 131	1113341	110517	1104 927
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9 302 58 1272 86 431 1679 66 1661 559 267 789	56 1272 86 431 1679 66 1661 559 -267 789	86 431 1679 66 1661 559 -267 789	1679 66 1661 559 -267 789	1661 559 -267 789	559 -267 789			1 99517	199 9283	496 85	1093 402	1992 498	4010 261	258 8957	13 89568	1061 403	1975 12	56 41800	1 003461	5025 061
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9 302 58 1272 86 416 1904 73 1883 483	58 1272.86 416 1904.73 1883.483	86 416 1904 73 1883 483	1904 73 1883 483	1883 483	٠	489 713		108 571	233 4188	537 46	1057 392	2163 599	4025 599	259 4275	14 42755	1024 045	2147 499	60 74358	1 073723	
9 302 58 1272 86 416 1919 64 1898 377	58 1272 86 416 1919 64 1898 377	86 416 1919.64 1898.377	1919 64 1898 377	1898 377	. 22	504 60		109 512	235 7469	539 31	1054 931	2175 411	4033 693	259 4546	14 45458	1021 538	2159 415	60 99185	1 078033	535 3444
9 302 56 1272 86 416	58 1272.86 416 1934.96 1913.265	86 416 1934.96 1913.265	1934 96 1913 265	1913 265		519 495		110 448	238 2109	541 52	1052 337	2187 194	4038 99	259 4801	14 48013	1018 909	2171 308	61 2404	1 082343	537 5869
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