

A.A. 2020-2021

Corso di Laurea Magistrale in GEOSCIENZE

Metodi Elettromagnetici in Geofisica (6 CFU) - MEMAG -

<u>UD-1</u>: Introduzione

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What is Geophysics?

"Geophysics is the application of physical principles and methods to problems in Earth Sciences"

and/or

"Geophysics is a branch of experimental physics dealing with the earth" (SEG)

We describe "Methods" because Applied geophysics deals with **specific techniques and instruments** developed for different applications and based on peculiar **physical parameters (properties)** of the subsurface.

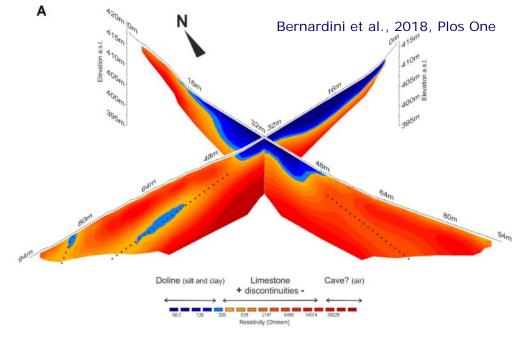
To select the **most appropriate geophysical method** to investigate a certain task/problem many integrated aspects need to be considered:

> What are the relevant *physical parameters*? (density, EM velocity, electrical resistivity, ...)

- > What *spatial scales* are relevant?
- > What about the achievable resolution (i.e. level of detail)
- > What are the *field conditions* and *noise level*? (e.g. urban, offshore, ...)
- > Which *acquisition geometries* are optimal? (e.g. 1D vs 2D vs 3D)
- > Is there useful *a priori information*?
- ➢ Is there a *cheaper* alternative?



Unfortunately, the answer to these questions will depend strongly on the particular task/problem and it is strictly site-dependent!

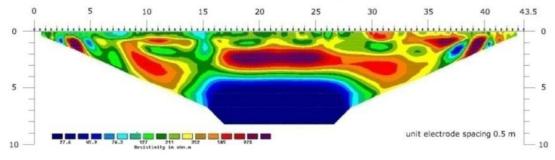


A detailed analysis is mandatory in order to asses the actual applicability of a method in a specific geological context.

Direct extrapolations can be very dangerous!

Collepino Spring Wenner array inverse model resistivity section

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Ercoli et al., 2012, Journal of Applied Geophysics



Why electromagnetic methods?

Rock & Mineral Resistivities

- · Largest range of values for all physical properties.
- Native Silver = 1.6 x 10⁻⁸ Ohm-m (Least Resistive)
- Pure Sulphur = 10¹⁶ Ohm-m (Most Resistive)

Table 12.1 Resistivities of s	some rocks and minerals	Minerals and ores silver	1.6×10 ⁻⁸				
Rocks, minerals, ores	Resistivity (ohm-m)	graphite, massive ore galena (PbS)	10 ⁻⁴ -10 ⁻³ 10 ⁻³ -10 ²				
Sediments		magnetite ore	1-105				
chalk	50-150*	sphalerite (ZnS)	103-106				
clay	1-100	pyrite	1 × 100				
gravel	100-5000	chalcopyrite	$1 \times 10^{-5} - 0.3$				
limestone	50-10 ⁷	quartz	1010-2 × 1014				
marl	1-100	rock salt	10-1013				
quartzite	10-10 ⁸						
shale	10-1000	Waters and effect of water an	d salt content				
sand	500-5000	pure water	1 × 10 ⁶				
sandstone 1–10 ⁸		natural waters	1-103				
		sea water	0.2				
Igneous and metamorphic	rocks	20% salt	5 × 10 ⁻²				
basalt	10-107	granite, 0% water	1010				
gabbro	1000-106	granite, 0.19% water	1×10^{6}				
granite	100-106	granite, 0.31% water	4×10^{3}				
marble	100-10 ⁸						
schist	10-104	*Values or ranges, which have come from several sources are only approximate.					
slate	100-107						

Table 1.1 Geophysical methods and their main applications

Geophysical	Chapter	apter Dependent physical Applications (see key bel					belo	w)				
method	number	property	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Gravity	2	Density	Р	Р	s	s	s	s	!	!	s	!
Magnetic	3	Susceptibility	Р	Р	Р	s	!	m	!	Р	Р	!
Seismic refraction	4,5	Elastic moduli; density	Р	Р	m	Р	S	S	!	1	1	1
Seismic reflection	4.6	Elastic moduli: density	Р	Р	m	s	s	m	i	1	1	Ì
Resistivity	7	Resistivity	m	m	Р	Р	Р	Р	Р	s	Р	m
Spontaneous potential	8	Potential differences	!	!	Р	m	Р	m	m	m	!	!
Induced polarization	9	Resistivity: capacitance	m	m	Р	m	s	m	m	m	m	m
Electromagnetic (EM)	10	Conductance; inductance	s	Р	Р	Р	Р	Р	Р	Р	Р	m
EM-VLF	11	Conductance: inductance	m	m	Р	m	S	S	S	m	m	1
EM – ground	12	Permitivity; conductivity	!	!	m	Р	Р	Р	s	Р	Р	Р
penetrating radar Magneto-telluric	11	Resistivity	s	Р	Р	m	m	!	!	!	!	!

 \mathbf{P} = primary method; s = secondary method; m = may be used but not necessarily the best approach, or has not been developed for this application; (!) = unsuitable

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Rock type	Resistivity (\Omegam)					
Clay and marl	1–67					
Top soil	67–100					
Clayey soil	100-133					
Sandy soil	670-1,330					
Limestone	67–1,000					
Lignite	9–200					
Sandstone	33-6,700					
Sand and gravel	100-180					
Schist	10-1,000					
Granite	25-1,500					
Basalt	$10^3 - 10^6$					
Quartzite	$10^2 - 2 \times 10^8$					
Surface water (in igneous rock)	30-500					
Sea water	0.20					
Saline water 3 %	0.15					
Saline water 20 %	0.05					
Groundwater (in igneous rock)	30-150					
	Telford et al., 1976					

From a large **resistivity** contrast

→ a wide applicability

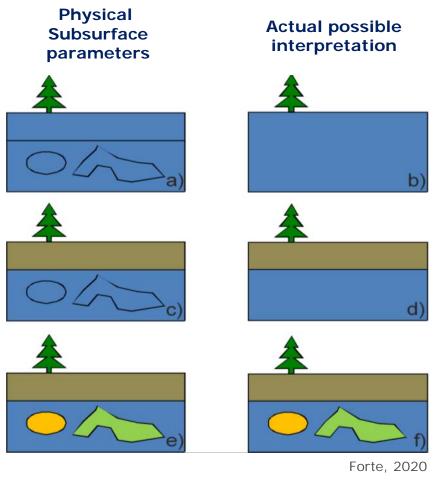
Applications

- 1 Hydrocarbon exploration (coal, gas, oil)
- 2 Regional geological studies (over areas of 100s of km²)
- 3 Exploration/development of mineral deposits
- 4 Engineering site investigations
- 5 Hydrogeological investigations
- 6 Detection of sub-surface cavities
- 7 Mapping of leachate and contaminant plumes
- 8 Location and definition of buried metallic objects
- 9 Archaeogeophysics
- 10 Forensic geophysics

Telford et al., 2004



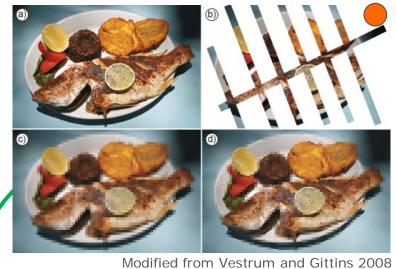
Is it a method suitable? ... It depends!



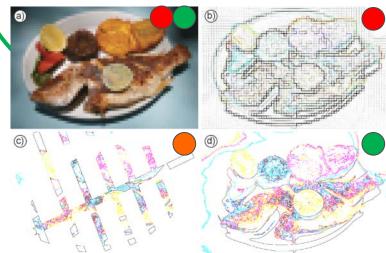
By the geophysical contrast (anomaly)

By data density, resolution, geometry

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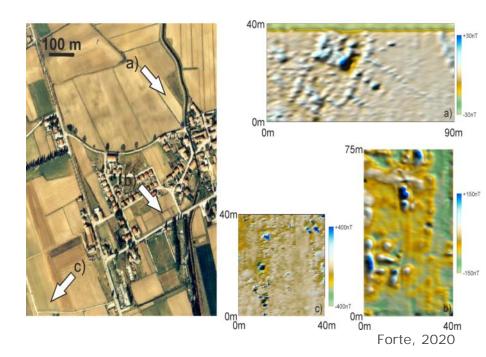
By the applied processing and its parameters



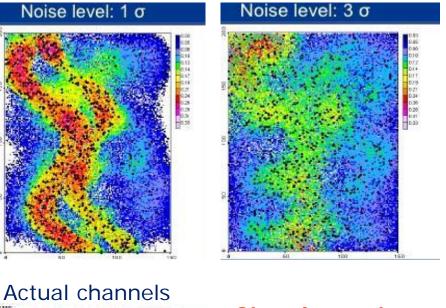
Modified from Vestrum and Gittins 2008 Forte, 2020 MEMAG A.A. 2020-2021 5

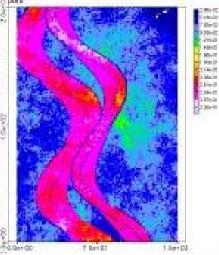


Is it a method suitable? ... It depends!



By the site characteristics/conditions





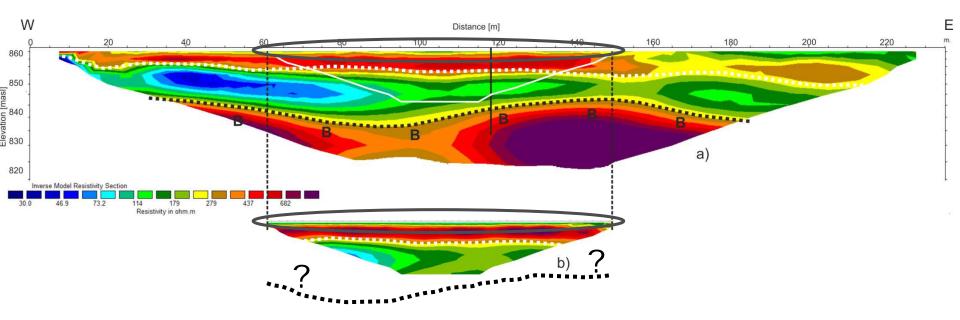
Signal to noise ratio (S/N)

Demyanov et al., 2018, Mathematical Geosciences



What about scales?

The same geophysical method can be adapted (up to a point) to different scales, but...



All the parameters of the experiments (i.e. of geophysical surveys) have to be tailored on the target:

For instance, just by increasing the number of measurements, we cannot assure an actual increasing of the resolution or imaging. Moreover, just by adopting a more sophisticated (... and longer, more expensive) algorithm, we cannot assure better results.

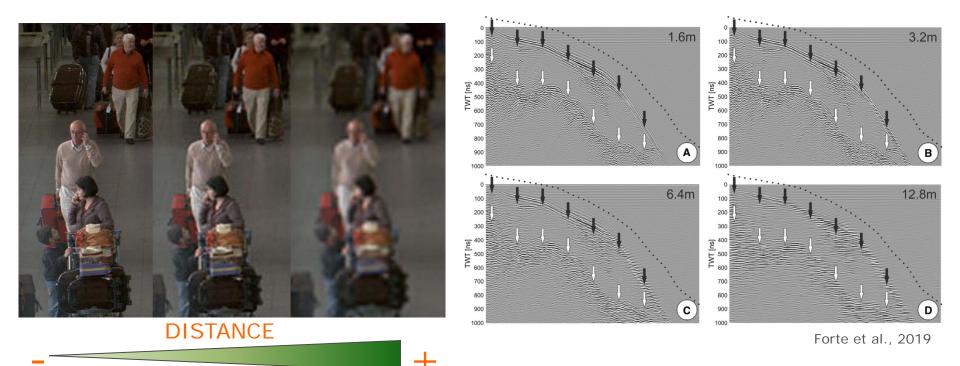
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What about resolution?

Keeping constant all the other parameters, the resolution always decreases for increasing penetration depths (i.e. distance)!



The same occurs when sampling (spatial and or temporal) and frequencies decrease

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What about data **accuracy** and **precision**?

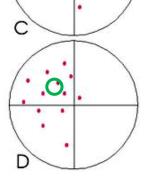


Precision: how close the measured values are to each other → A,B more PRECISE than C,D.

Accuracy: how measurements are close to the true value → A,C more PRECISE than B,D.

Precision and Accuracy depend by the instrument you are measuring with.

The precision is related to the repetiveness of a measure The degree of accuracy is half a unit each side of the unit of measure



Q;

В

ATTENTION: When we measure something several times and all values are close, they may all be wrong if there is a Bias \rightarrow systematic coherent error/noise

MOREOVER: in geophysics often we don't know the true value \rightarrow How to estimate the data accuracy?



Lest men suspect your tale untrue, keep probability in view, J. Gay

What is Noise?

As geophysicists, the data at our disposal will always contain some features that we will not bother to explain. If we accepted our data as being absolutely precise and reproducible, then no model whose response disagreed with the observations even to the slightest degree could be correct. But **we don't believe that our data are exact and exactly reproducible**. And further, because we cannot calculate the exact response of our Earth models (because we cannot afford to put all the physics on the computer) and because we have only approximate models anyway (we cannot use an infinite number of parameters), there are likely to be deterministic aspects of the data that we cannot or do not want to explain.

Scales and Snieder, 1998, Geophysics

Therefore, "NOISE" is the undesirable part of data that does not give any information. The information is instead often referred as "SIGNAL" or simply "DATA". This concept is strictly related with the concept of measurement

This concept is strictly related with the concept of measurement ERRORS, considering $\varepsilon = x - x_m$

Sometimes, in geophysics, some parts of the recorded SIGNAL are no longer used to obtain information of the subsurface and are thus considered as noise (e.g. spontaneous – self - electric potentials in active electrical methods or surface seismic waves – Ground roll – in reflection seismics).



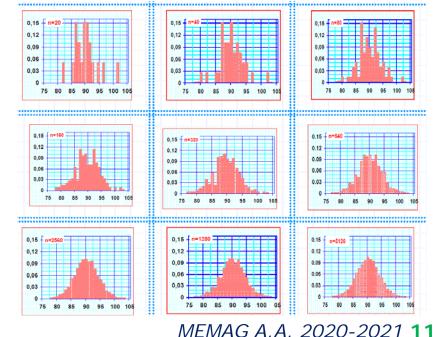
Random noises

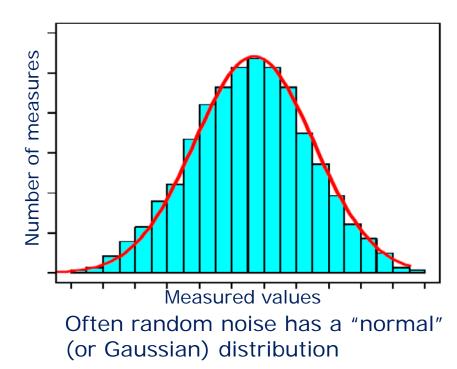
Random (or incoherent) noises is due to not controllable and not unidirectional (i.e. with a null mean value) errors within a series of measurements. Such a noise is responsible of the variability of the measures around a mean value with constant experimental conditions.



Subg et al., 2015 - AEU









Random noises

Therefore if we consider a normal distribution of the errors we can made statistical calculations on it: Maximum

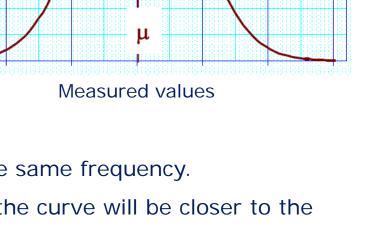
$$\mathsf{F}(\mathsf{x}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2}$$

- σ Is the standard deviation
- μ Is the **mean** of all the measured values

We remark that the random errors (or noise)

 $\epsilon = x - \mu$ have a behavior such that:

- Smaller errors are more frequent than large ones
- Positive and negative errors have (statistically) the same frequency.
- By increasing the total number of measurements the curve will be closer to the Gaussian function.



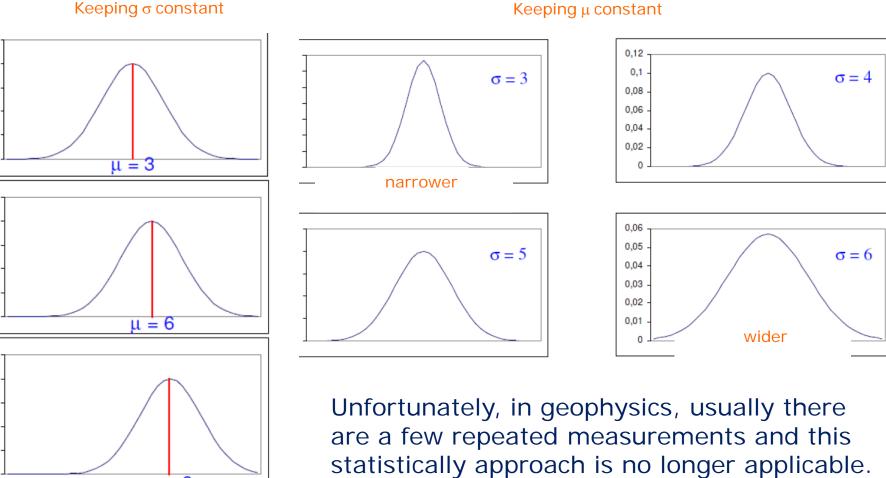
Or measured measures



 $\mu = 9$

Errors and Noises

Random noises



adopted.

Keeping μ constant

→ So the **STACKING** strategy is often



Random noises

Simpler **stacking** is just the **arithmetic mean** of all the repeated measurements:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i = \frac{x_{1+} x_{2+} \dots x_N}{N}$$

The deviation is the difference between the i-th measure and the mean:

$$d_i = \bar{x} - x_i$$

An estimate of the reliability (quality) of measurements is given by the **standard deviation**:

$$\sigma_{x} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (d_{i})^{2}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}} \qquad \qquad \text{Variance} = \sigma_{x}^{2} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (d_{i})^{2}$$

By increasing the number of stacked values (N) it is possible to increase the Signalto-Noise ratio (only if the noise is random!) by a factor:

 $S/Nincrement = \sqrt{N}$

Weighted staking can give better results when Noise is somehow correlated. Weighting factor should be proportional to the signal amplitude divided by the noise variance σ^2 MEMAG A.A. 2020-2021 14

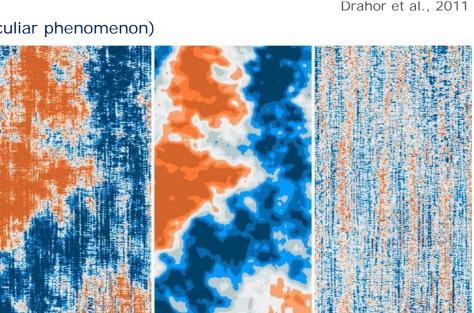


Coherent noise is any noise component which is somehow predictable and/or repetitive

It can be coherent in terms of:

- 1) Time repetitiveness
- 2) Spatial and geometrical repetitiveness
- 3) Spectral repetitiveness
- 4) Magnitude and other attributes
- 5) Physical repetitiveness (e.g. due to a peculiar phenomenon)

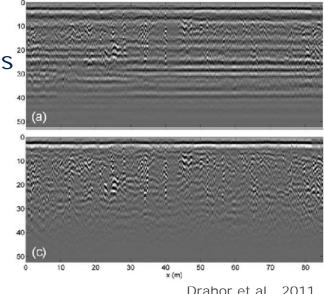
On the base of one or more of such criteria, coherent noises can be removed/attenuated



Original data

Filtered data extracted C and R noise MEMAG A.A. 2020-2021 15

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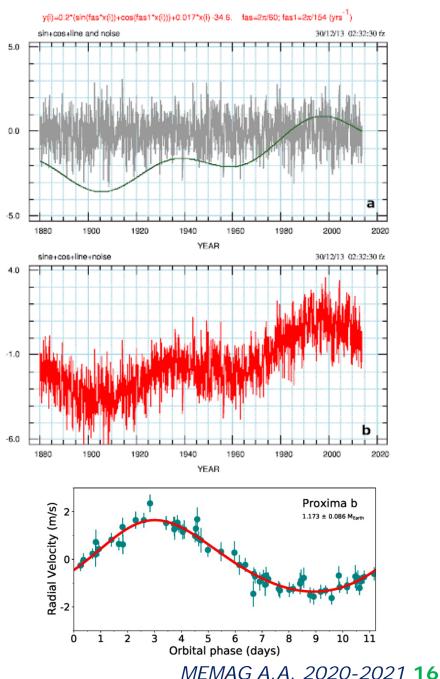


In geophysics very often more than the uncertainties of a measure the noise is crucial.

Stacking of data.—The notion that averaging over repeated

realizations of an experiment (stacking) reduces noise (compared to signal) presupposes that the noise in the different experiments is uncorrelated because only then do we get the desired noise-suppression. The criterion here is that: **the correlation in the noise is zero** for the different repeated measurements.

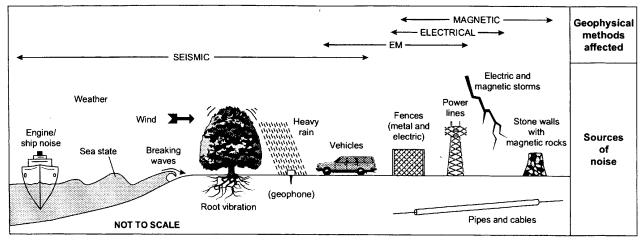
Unfortunately, not always noise is actually separable from the signal. Moreover, often we cannot be sure which are actually the noise components within a "noisy" signal.



nodel data



Noise types and characteristics depend by the geophysical method applied, i.e. by the physical parameters sampled.



Keep in mind that:

Reynolds, 2011

Figure 1.10 Schematic illustrating some common sources of geophysical noise

- 1) N(x, y, z, t, ...)
- 2) There are "natural" noises and other due to human activities
- 3) Noises can be caused by the measure equipment
- 4) Noises can be inserted in the dataset during processing/inversion steps

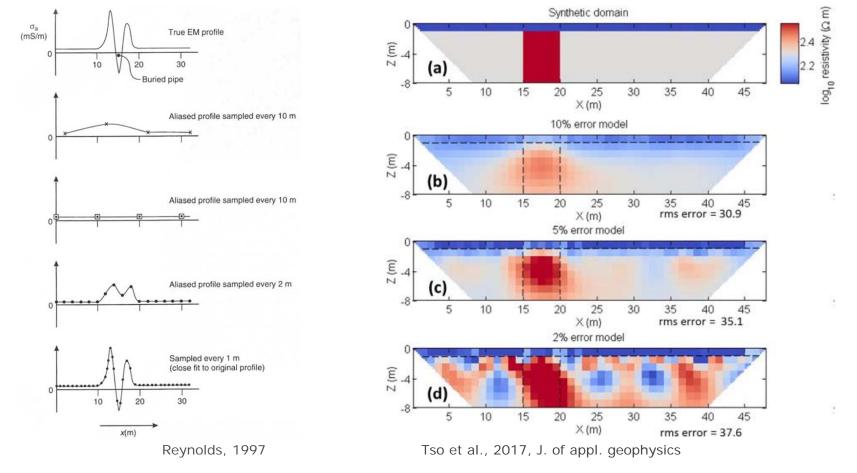
Special types of "noises" are:

- Interference (i.e. interaction between different signals or between signal with noise)
- *Bias* (related to direct current DC component shifting the signal)
- *Clutter* (related to unwanted echoes especially in GPR systems)



Data sampling

How many samples? It depends by the objectives of the survey... and often is unpredictable!





Data sampling

Geophysical data are always digitized, i.e. discretized during the acquisition process. Data exist only at fixed time and space discrete intervals Δx , Δy , Δz , Δt ,... spaced by constant or variable values

Therefore, sampling is an irreversible process reducing analog signals, which contain an infinite number of values, into smaller and numerically manageable discrete series (Proakis and Manolakis 2006). However, such procedure causes an inevitable and unrecoverable loss of information between sampled values, which prevents the exact reconstruction of the input analog signal from the recorded discrete series and can cause significant signal distortions if the sampling is not properly set.

Sampling can be define as a function of time, space or other variables.

At the base there are the sampling theorems (Nyquist-Shannon):

Considering time sampling at constant Δt intervals and $T=n\Delta T$

The maximum frequency (a.k.a. Nyquist freq.) that can be correctly reproduced is $f_{max} = f_N = \frac{1}{2\Delta t} = \frac{n}{2T}$ equal to

The frequency resolution is equal to

The minimum frequency that can be correctly reproduced is equal to

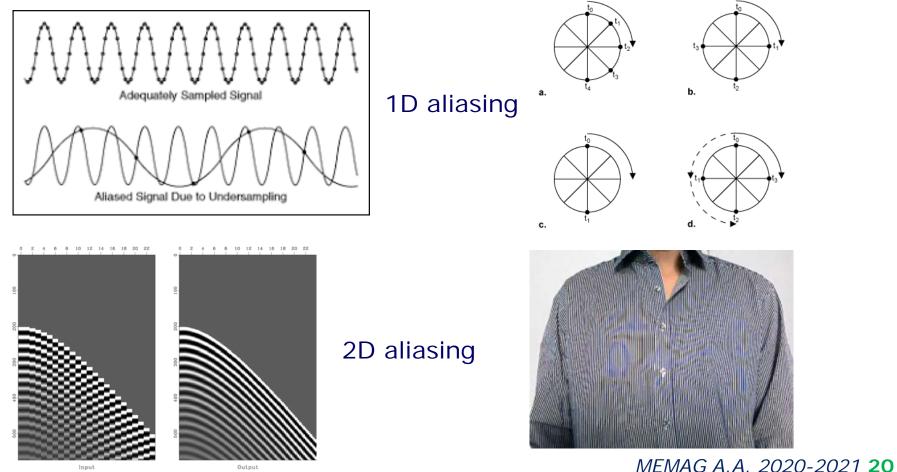
$$\Delta f = \frac{1}{T} = \frac{1}{n\Delta t} = \frac{f_s}{n} \quad \text{Where } f_s = \frac{1}{\Delta t}$$

$$f_{min} = \frac{2}{n\Delta t} = \frac{2}{T}$$

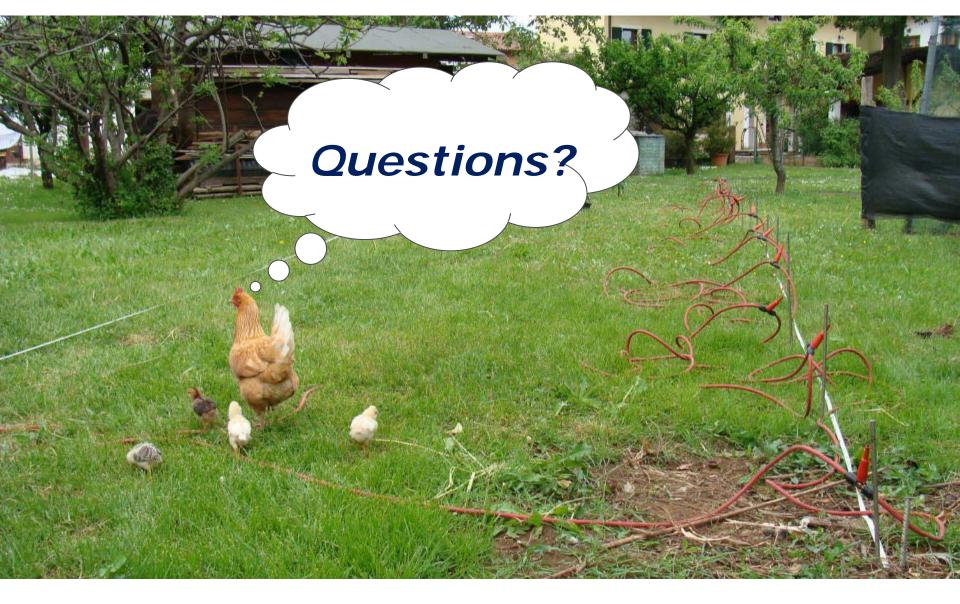


Data sampling

Outside from these limits spurious and erroneous information can arise \rightarrow ALIASING Different types of aliasing can occur, related to frequency, space, kinematic or dynamic phenomena,...







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