# **Locally Varying Anisotropy‐Based Linearized Post‐Stack Inversion**

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*Spatial inverse problems aim to characterize spatially distributed phenomena being a subclass of more gen‐ eral inverse problems. Fundamentally, any inference from an indirect measurement could be posed as an inverse problem. Modern inverse modeling within the Earth science context has been mostly developed in geophysical community with gradually growing involvement of relevant adjacent disciplines. The current work is concerned with joint application of geostatistics and regularized seismic inversion. Vast majority of inverse problems are ill‐posed with some of the most important difficulties being non‐linearity, instability and non‐uniqueness. While non‐linear probabilistic inversion presents the research frontier, it is outside the scope of the current work. Linearized solution is adopted in the presented methodology and Tikhonov reg‐ ularization is imposed as a constraint to address the latter two issues. Such mathematical simplicity and tractability come at a price of oversimplification of complex physical processes and their geological manifes‐ tation. Nevertheless, this presentation is intended to demonstrate that quantification of spatial continuity from geostatistical methods can significantly improve even a fairly basic linearized Gaussian inversion for acoustic impedance. Covariance matrices in the inversion estimates are the key components of a realistic solution. Reliable spatial covariance inference requires redundant measurements in all directions. However, a typical petroleum exploration issue is the lack of sufficient data points for robust horizontal covariance esti‐ mation. The main proposed idea is to use locally varying anisotropy (LVA) field estimated from seismic data to calculate the covariance matrix. The orientations could be derived directly from seismic which would also address nonstationarity. The proposed methodology is compatible with the state‐of‐the‐art geostatistical, geophysical and geological modeling components of the reservoir characterization workflow at the explo‐ ration and appraisal stages.*

## **Introduction**

Inverse problems in geophysics count a few decades of history prompting rigorous mathematical treatment. Three major schools of thought emerged historically in Russia([Tikhonov](#page-4-0), [1943,](#page-4-0) [1963\)](#page-4-1), in USA [\(Backus &](#page-3-0) [Gilbert,](#page-3-0) [1967,](#page-3-0) [1970\)](#page-3-1) and in France [\(Tarantola](#page-4-2), [2004](#page-4-2); [Tarantola & Valette](#page-4-3), [1982\)](#page-4-3).

The scope of this presentation is limited to seismic inversion constrained by the information on spatial conti‐ nuity from geostatistical analysis. Note it is not the technique known by practitioners as geostatistical inver‐ sion [\(Deutsch](#page-3-2), [2001\)](#page-3-2) which also involves sequential simulation to generate realizations. Within petroleum industry context, inversion plays an important role in the reservoir characterization linking quantitative in‐ terpretation of the seismic data and well logs with the target properties of interest such as porosity, perme‐ ability, fluid saturation etc.

# **Problem formulation**

Main issues with inverse problems are non-linearity, instability and non-uniqueness of solution. We only consider linearized solutions in the work presented here. For some of the latest developments on non‐linear inversion we refer to, e.g.([Liu et al.,](#page-4-4) [2018\)](#page-4-4).

Seismic data contains much information on the geological structures than conventional geostatistical and geophysical methods use. Local anisotropy incorporated in geophysical inversion has been done by some researchers([Bongajum, Boisvert, & Sacchi](#page-3-3), [2013;](#page-3-3) [Pereira, Calçôa, Azevedo, Nunes, & Soares](#page-4-5), [2020](#page-4-5)). The current work capitalizes on achievements of the former with main differences being extraction of the orien‐ tations directly from seismic data rather than from the true model of acoustic impedance and calculation of the varying magnitudes in the LVA field.

In geophysical context, linearized forward problem is typically expressed as

$$
\mathbf{d} = G \mathbf{m} \tag{1}
$$

where

d is the measured observations dataset,

 $X$  is the set of model parameters,

 $G$  is a forward operator representing a theory which predicts **d** from  $m$ .

Specifically, in this project,  $\mathbf{d} \equiv \mathbf{s}$  — the seismic record,  $\mathbf{m} \equiv \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{P}}$  — logarithmic impedance and  $G$  — geophysical transform matrix, resulting in a convolutional model of a seismic trace without noise:

$$
\mathbf{s} = G \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{P}} \tag{2}
$$

Therefore, the cost function in least-squares sense with  $\hat{\bf L_p}$  being the estimate of  ${\bf L_p}$  and assuming  $G$  can be constructed from a known wavelet  $w$  and a differential operator  $D$  [\(Madsen, Hansen, & Omre,](#page-4-6) [2020\)](#page-4-6) could be written as

$$
J(L_P) = \|\mathbf{s} - G\hat{\mathbf{L}_P}\|_2^2 \tag{3}
$$

Formulations with explicit performance metrics for image quality assessment acoustic property models, such as structural similarity index (SSIM)([Li et al.,](#page-4-7) [2020](#page-4-7)) have been considered but simple root mean square error (RMSE) suits the current project better.

RMSE has been chosen as a loss function as it is fairly straightforward and suitable for the task:

$$
RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \Sigma_{i=1}^{N} (\mathbf{r} - \hat{\mathbf{r}})^{2}}
$$
(4)

Pearson correlation coefficient has been selected as a measure of success:

$$
PCC = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \bar{y})^2}},
$$
\n(5)

where  $\bar{x}$  and  $\bar{y}$  are the averages for  $x$  and  $y$ , respectively.

*Regularized inversion.* A deterministic formulation of the linear inverse problem without is presented in ([Scheidt, Li, & Caers,](#page-4-8) [2018,](#page-4-8) p. 168) citing([Tikhonov & Arsenin,](#page-4-9) [1977\)](#page-4-9):

<span id="page-1-0"></span>
$$
J(\mathbf{m}) = ||G\mathbf{m} - \mathbf{d}_{obs}||_2^2 + \mu ||\mathbf{m} - \mathbf{m}_0||_2^2,
$$
 (6)

where  $m_0$  is a reference model.

The solution to the objective function [6](#page-1-0) is:

$$
\mathbf{\hat{m}} = (G^T G + \mu I)^{-1} (G^T \mathbf{d}_{obs} + \mu \mathbf{m}_0) \tag{7}
$$

Next, a formulation with weighting matrices is given:

$$
J(\mathbf{m}) = ||W_d^T(G\mathbf{m} - \mathbf{d}_{obs})||_2^2 + \mu ||W_m^T(\mathbf{m} - \mathbf{m}_0)||_2^2
$$
 (8)

Let us substitute the weighting matrices  $W_d$  and  $W_m$  with inverse of covariance  $\Sigma_d^{-1}$  and  $\Sigma_m^{-1}$ :

<span id="page-1-1"></span>
$$
J(\mathbf{m}) = \|\Sigma_d^{-1/2} (G\mathbf{m} - \mathbf{d}_{obs})\|_2^2 + \mu \|\Sigma_m^{-1/2} (\mathbf{m} - \mathbf{m}_0)\|_2^2
$$
 (9)

Denote the factorization of data covariance (assumed a diagonal matrix, i.e. uncorrelated noise):

$$
\Sigma_d^{-1} = Q_d Q_d^T; [n \times m][m \times n] = [n \times n], \qquad (10)
$$

and similarly the model covariance:

$$
\Sigma_m^{-1} = Q_m^T Q_m; [m \times n][n \times m] = [m \times m]
$$
\n(11)

now expression [9](#page-1-1) becomes:

$$
J(\mathbf{m}) = ||Q_d Q_d^T (G\mathbf{m} - \mathbf{d}_{obs})||_2^2 + \mu ||Q_m^T Q_m (\mathbf{m} - \mathbf{m}_0) ||_2^2
$$
 (12)

Take the partial derivatives and equate to zero:

$$
\frac{\partial J}{\partial \mathbf{m}^T} = 2G^T Q_d Q_d^T G \mathbf{m} - 2G^T Q_d Q_d^T \mathbf{d}_{obs} + 2\mu Q_m^T Q_m \mathbf{m} - 2\mu Q_m^T Q_m \mathbf{m}_0 = 0
$$
\n(13)

$$
\mathbf{m}(G^T Q_d Q_d^T G + \mu Q_m^T Q_m) = G^T Q_d Q_d^T \mathbf{d}_{obs} + \mu Q_m^T Q_m \mathbf{m}_0
$$
\n(14)

$$
\mathbf{\hat{m}} = (G^T Q_d Q_d^T G + \mu Q_m^T Q_m)^{-1} (G^T Q_d Q_d^T \mathbf{d}_{obs} + \mu Q_m^T Q_m \mathbf{m}_0)
$$
\n(15)

The estimate above is equivalent to equation 6.55 in([Scheidt et al.,](#page-4-8) [2018](#page-4-8), p. 168). Next, let us take equation [9](#page-1-1) assuming  $\mathbf{m}_0 = 0$  and the regularization term  $\mu = 1$ :

$$
J(\mathbf{m}) = \|\Sigma_d^{-1}(G\mathbf{m} - \mathbf{d}_{obs})\|_2^2 + \|\Sigma_m^{-1}(\mathbf{m})\|_2^2
$$
 (16)

$$
\frac{\partial J}{\partial \mathbf{m}^T} = 2G^T \Sigma_d^{-1} G \mathbf{m} - 2G^T \Sigma_d^{-1} \mathbf{d}_{obs} + 2\Sigma_m^{-1} \mathbf{m} = 0 \tag{17}
$$

$$
\mathbf{m}(G^T \Sigma_d^{-1} G + \Sigma_m^{-1}) = G^T \Sigma_d^{-1} \mathbf{d}_{obs}
$$
\n(18)

$$
\hat{\mathbf{m}} = (G^T \Sigma_d^{-1} G + \Sigma_m^{-1})^{-1} (G^T \Sigma_d^{-1}) \mathbf{d}_{obs}
$$
\n(19)

#### **Model setup**

For the purposes of the current project, SEAM Phase I data has been generated from a simple geological model (Figure [1\)](#page-5-0). The clastic subsection in the red dashed box consists of 125 traces with 40 m separation. Random Gaussian noise with signal‐to‐noise ratio has been added to the data.

LVA fields were estimated with *imorient* CCG program([Martin & Boisvert](#page-4-10), [2017\)](#page-4-10) and shown on Fig. [2.](#page-6-0) Noisier seismic data generally requires larger window size.

#### **Results**

*Relative inversion.* Conventional constant anisotropy covariance is more susceptible to variogram modeling errors as seen from the vertical striping artefacts in solution c) (Fig. [4\)](#page-8-0). The overall relative inversion lacks a trend while reproducing the major dipping events.

Upon looking at the trace 55, it could be seen that constant geometric anisotropy inversion reproduces the trace shape better than LVA(too many additional impedance variations not existing in the original impedance) and regularized solution — less pronounced layer detection.

*Absolute inversion.* Fig. [6](#page-10-0) shows how inclusion of the LFM allows to achieve significant improvement in the estimation of absolute acoustic impedance values. Due to the low frequency component  $L<sub>P</sub>$  0 being so close to the true values in the current model setup, the regularized inversion slightly outperforms LVA‐based one.

| Inversion method | PCCI <sub>D</sub> | $RMSEI_{p}$ | PCC $d_{tx}$ | $RMSE$ $d_{tx}$ |
|------------------|-------------------|-------------|--------------|-----------------|
| Regularization   | 96.453            | 0.973       | 0.003        | 0.913           |
| CGA-based        | 689.990           | 0.480       | 0.002        | 0.965           |
| LVA-based        | 107.030           | 0.957       | 0.003        | 0.935           |

**Table 1:** Performance comparison between inversion methods.

## **Conclusions and future work**

Including spatial information shows an advantage over purely mathematical regularized least squares relative inversion. Missing low frequencies are critical for the absolute impedance values estimation: they could be derived from the available migration velocity cube or well logs. The shortcoming of current numerical experiment setup is that the difference between the LFM and true acoustic impedance values is fairly small. In a real world reservoir characterization project this would not be the case and one of the intended next steps is to build a low frequency model based on interpreted horizons so the kriging interpolation is bound to stratigraphic intervals.

In petroleum exploration context, practical difficulty of horizontal variogram inference presents a challenge. Although there are techniques developed to improve horizontal variogram reliability from the seismic([Rez‐](#page-4-11) [vandehy & Deutsch,](#page-4-11) [2018\)](#page-4-11),the variogram in Euclidean  $q$ -dimensional space ([Boisvert & Deutsch,](#page-3-4) [2011\)](#page-3-4) and respective inver of covariance matrix seems to be more stable in the inversion applications.

Another potentially fruitful research direction is stochastic Bayesian inversion where geostatistics brings value through complex geological priors quantification([Hansen, Cordua, & Mosegaard](#page-3-5), [2012\)](#page-3-5) and model‐ ing multivariate relationship between the variables of different nature at different scales [\(Hadavand Siri &](#page-3-6) [Deutsch,](#page-3-6) [2018\)](#page-3-6).

More complex geological models are going to be investigated to determine the advantages of using the covariance matrix estimation with LVA with possible extension to pre‐stack inversion.

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## **Figures**

<span id="page-5-0"></span>

Figure 1: SEAM Phase I acoustic impedance converted to time domain. A small clstic section in the dashed box has been used for subsequent numercal experiments. Seismic record is generated fro reflectivity convolved with a minimum phase 25 Hz Ricker wavelet.

<span id="page-6-0"></span>

Figure 2: LVA orientation fields from the true P-impedance (left) and seismic data (right) are shown. The LVA field from seismic is used for subsequent inversion estimates.



**Figure 3:** Covariance estimation from the true P‐impedance model. Constant geometric anisotropy relies on Euclidean distances only whereas LVA covariance takes the shortest path distance and isotropic variogramin  $q$  dimensions after multidimensional scaling ([Boisvert & Deutsch](#page-3-4), [2011](#page-3-4)) is shown.

<span id="page-8-0"></span>

**Figure 4:** Comparison between relative inversion configurations. Top row represents seismograms whereas the bottom is P-impedance: a) True model; b) regularized inversion; c) constant geometric anisotropy‐based inversion; d) LVA‐based inversion.



**Figure 5:** Comparison between relative inversion configurations for trace 55: a) LVA‐based inversion; b) constant geometric anisotropy‐based inversion; c) regularized inversion; d) seismic record with trace location.

<span id="page-10-0"></span>

**Figure 6:** Comparison between absolute inversion configurations. Top row represents seismograms whereas the bottom is P-impedance: a) True model; b) regularized inversion; c) constant geometric anisotropy‐based inversion; d) LVA‐based inversion.



Figure 7: Comparison between absolute inversion configurations for trace 55: a) LVA-based inversion; b) constant geometric anisotropy‐based inversion; c) regularized inversion; d) seismic record with trace location.