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Authors

Zhang, Zhishuai
Rector, James W
Nava, Michael J

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Simultaneous inversion of multiple microseismic data for event locations and velocity model with Bayesian inference

Zhishuai Zhang[†], James W. Rector, and Michael J. Nava, University of California, Berkeley

Summary

We applied Bayesian inference for simultaneous inversion of multiple microseismic data for event locations and velocity models. The traditional method of using a predetermined velocity model for event location is subject to large uncertainty if prior information of the velocity model is poor. Our study shows that microseismic data can improve the velocity model, which is usually a major source of location uncertainty. Also, the developed method can quantify the uncertainty of the microseismic location estimation. Its successful application on both synthetic examples and Newberry enhanced geothermal system (EGS) demonstrates its robustness over the traditional least-square traveltimes inversion. Comparison with location result of the traditional method shows that we can effectively improve the accuracy of microseismic event location thanks to the improved velocity model.

Introduction

Traditional methods for microseismic event location include least-square traveltimes inversion (Aki and Richards, 1980), coherence scanning (Drew et al., 2005; Duncan Peter and Eisner, 2010), double-difference (Waldhauser and Ellsworth, 2000), etc. Due to the lack of information on velocity models and limited spatial coverage of monitoring stations, microseismic

method of treating parameters as a joint probability density, it has been very successful in model parameter estimation and uncertainty analysis.

We applied the Bayesian inference for simultaneous velocity inversion and event location using multiple microseismic event data. Maximum A Posteriori (MAP) estimation is used to solve for posterior probability density. The successful application of the developed method on synthetic and real microseismic survey demonstrates its effectiveness in simultaneous velocity inversion and event location.

Theory

The central idea of Bayesian inference is representing all the information (forward model, observation, and prior information) with probability densities and then using inversion theory to infer the posterior probability density of the model parameters we would like to know.

Inverse problem theory

We can denote the model parameters and observable parameters (data) of a physical system as m and d , respectively. The inverse problem theory (Tarantola, 2005) gives the joint posterior probability density:

$$\rho_D(d)\rho_M(m)\theta(d|m)$$

location uncertainty can be significant (Eisner et al., 2009; Maxwell, 2009; Hayles et al., 2011; Warpinski et al., 2009).

$$\sigma(d, m) = k \mu_D(d), \quad (1)$$

As such, it is crucial to obtain a quantitative understanding of microseismic event location uncertainty before drawing any further conclusions on microseismic data.

Velocity information is usually obtained independently from microseismic data, such as from sonic logs, active source survey, or subsurface calibration/perforation shots. However, in a realistic survey, it can be challenging to build even a one-dimensional model due to lacked or poor quality of information. On the other hand, the seismic waveform carries information

where $\rho_D(d)$ is the probability density in data space representing the information given by a measurement, $\rho_M(m)$ is the prior information on model parameters, $\theta(d|m)$ is the conditional probability density of data d given model parameters m , and $\mu_D(d)$ is the homogeneous probability density in data space.

The marginal probability density of model parameters m is the integration of the joint probability density over the entire data space D :

on earth structure. Given the abundance of microseismic events in a normal survey, they are a good source of information to calibrate or even construct a velocity model for microseismic location (Douglas, 1967).

$$\sigma(d, m). \quad (2)$$

Various techniques have been developed to improve a velocity model with arrival times (Zhang and Thurber, 2003; Zhang et al., 2009; Zhou et al., 2010; Li et al., 2013). Though effective to a certain extent, these methods do not follow a rigorous statistical framework. This makes the determination of various parameters, such as weighting and regularization, very challenging (Monteiller et al., 2005). Bayesian inference is a widely used algorithm in subsurface inverse problems (Oliver et al., 2008; Tarantola and Valette, 1982; Tarantola, 2005; Zhang et al., 2014). It provides a

good solution to earthquake location (Monteiller et al., 2005; Myers et al., 2007, 2009) and microseismic event location problems (Poliannikov et al., 2014; Templeton et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2015a,b). Thanks to its spaceIf the model and data space of the system are both linear, under Gaussian assumption, the posterior probability density of the model parameters can be expressed by

$$\sigma_M(m) = c \exp[-O(m)], \quad (3)$$

and

$$O(m) = \frac{1}{2} [g(m) - d_{obs} - D]{}^T C^{-1} [g(m) - d_{obs} - D] + \frac{1}{2} (m - m_{prior}){}^T C^{-1} (m - m_{prior}), \quad (4)$$

where $g(\cdot)$ is the forward modeler for the prediction of observable parameters from model parameters m . m_{prior} is the prior information on the model parameters. The covariance matrix

C_D is the addition of observation uncertainty covariance matrix C_d and theoretical uncertainty covariance matrix C_T . C_M is the covariance matrix of the prior information uncertainty. c is a normalization constant. A derivation of equation 3 and equation 4 is presented by Tarantola (2005).

Maximum A Posteriori estimation

Both stochastic and deterministic approaches are considered in the literature for characterization of the resulting posterior probability density. Here, we use the Maximum A Posteriori (MAP) estimation, which aims to estimate the mode of the posterior probability density:

$$m_{MAP} = \arg \max_m \sigma_M(m). \quad (5)$$

Or frequently minimizes equation 4. It provides incomplete, yet important characterization of the conditional parameter distribution.

The above minimization can be implemented using the classical Gauss-Newton method. Once the MAP estimate m_{MAP} is found, the posterior covariance matrix $C_{m,MAP}$ can be approximated through linearization about the MAP estimate as

$$C_{m,MAP} = C_M - C_M C_{MAP}^T (G_{MAP} C_m G_{MAP}^T + C_D)^{-1} G_{MAP} C_M, \quad (6)$$

The velocity model used for dataset construction is a multiple-layer model based on Matzel et al. (2014)'s interferometry estimation of the velocity model at Newberry EGS site (yellow line in Figure 1). P- and S-wave travel times are calculated for each event station pair, and a Gaussian noise with standard deviation of 0.050 s is added as a representation of picking error. We assume there is little prior information on microseismic event locations and velocity model parameters. A multivariate normal distribution with reasonable mean and sufficiently large standard deviation can approximate a null probability density for prior information and initial model. The prior velocity model is represented by the red line in Figure 1.

The comparison between true microseismic locations and the estimated 50 % error ellipsoids is also shown in Figure 1. About half of the true locations lie in the 50 % error ellipsoids. This verifies the effectiveness of both MAP estimation and uncertainty approximation. We can see from Figure 1 that the true velocity model can be successfully captured by simultaneous inversion using multiple microseismic data. The MAP estimated velocity model is much closer to the true one compared with the prior model.

The standard deviation of the misfits between observed and modeled arrival times is 0.049 s. This is very close to 0.050 s, which is the Gaussian random noise standard deviation added to the true arrival times. This means the covariance matrix

where, G

space
MAP

is the sensitivity matrix at the MAP point with

C_D is dominated by the observation error C_d . The theoretical uncertainty covariance matrix C_T is very small compared with elements $G_{ij} =$

C_d in this model. Therefore, it is reasonable to use a two-

Multiple-event microseismic location implementation

We include the velocity model in the model space in addition to the origin coordinates and times of all microseismic events. The velocity model used is a two-layer model with constant velocity gradient for each layer. The velocity model parameters to be estimated include P-wave velocity at a reference depth, P-wave velocity gradient for each of the two layers, the elevation of the two layers interface, and V_p/V_s . For the prior information on model parameters, we use a homogeneous probability density since the number of observable parameters is redundant compared with model parameters. The measurement includes any available P- and/or S-wave arrival times for each event at each station. The forward model is for calculation of arrival time from microseismic event location to seismic station. The ray path between two points in a constant velocity gradient layer can be obtained analytically (Slawinski and Slawinski, 1999). We solve the two-layer problem semi-analytically by iterating for the ray parameter that is common to the seismic rays in both layers.

space
 ∂m_j

Synthetic example

We begin with a synthetic model as shown in Figure 1. The dataset was constructed from 30 shallow borehole stations in three lines. The stations spacing is 0.6 km in easting direction and 2 km in northing direction. All the stations share a common elevation of 1.8 km. Microseismic events on three horizontal planes at the elevations of -0.5 km, -1.0 km, and -1.5 km were assumed. The areal coverage of the stations is approximately twelve times that of the microseismic events. spacelayer model for the simultaneous inversion problem, and the theoretical uncertainty covariance matrix C_T can be ignored in this case.

Microseismic survey in Newberry EGS demonstration

We applied the developed simultaneous inversion algorithm on a microseismic data set from Newberry EGS demonstration site. Fluid injection for the hydroshearing purpose has induced microseismic events in this area. These event locations have been estimated by a contractor with P- and S-wave arrival times. With the same arrival time picking information, we relocated the microseismic events with our developed algorithm.

Newberry EGS demonstration

The EGS system under study is located at the Newberry volcano in central Oregon. According to the plan (Petty et al., 2013; Osborn et al., 2010, 2011), an existing well, NGC 55-29, was stimulated with hydroshearing technique due to the high temperature and lack of permeability of the nearby formation. The well NGC 55-29 has a total depth of 3066 m with an open hole from 1790 m to its total depth. In contrast to the well-known hydraulic fracturing, the hydroshearing technique used in this demonstration stimulated the formation below its minimum principle stress. The stimulation induced shear failures of pre-existing natural fractures in the target formation. The process was monitored with seismometers both on the surface as well as in shallow boreholes.

Microseismic survey

The survey was conducted with fifteen seismic stations, which include seven seismometers placed on the surface and eight placed in shallow boreholes as shown in Figure 2. A permitting issue leads to the poor azimuthal coverage of shallow borehole stations. Surface stations provide complimentary coverage. The eight shallow monitoring holes were drilled to depths between 213 and 246 m. The primary objective is to reach below the water table and highly attenuating cinders and debris flows (Cladouhos et al., 2013). The stimulation of NGC 55-29 began on October 17, 2012 and concluded December 7, 2012. The first microseismic event occurred on October 29, 2012. A total of 204 events with reasonably high S/N were recorded until December 31, 2012.

To process the microseismic dataset, a contractor has picked P- and/or S-wave arrival times for all event-station pairs whenever possible. They also derived the 1D velocity model by conducting dedicated active source seismic survey (red line in Figure 3). With the obtained velocity model, they located the microseismic events by minimizing the misfit between observed and modeled P- and/or S-wave arrival times. Figure 3 also shows the velocity model constructed by Matzel et al. (2014) with interferometry.

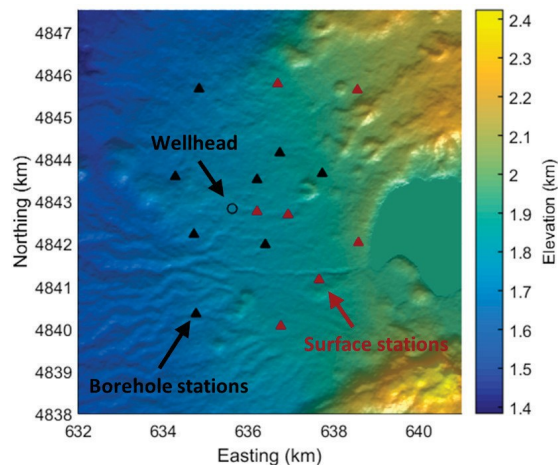


Figure 2: Map of surface stations and shallow borehole stations for microseismic monitoring. Surface stations provide complimentary coverage to the shallow borehole stations.

Results and Discussion

Figure 3 shows our location result along with the result processed by the contractor. Both of the two results show two event clusters: the shallow events above 0 km elevation, and the deep events near the open hole portion of the well. The target zone of the stimulator is the formation at the depth of the open hole. However, we see much more microseismic events in the shallow area. Borehole television survey found it is a result of a fluid loss from a cracked casing. Even though these two results share a similar microseismic distribution pattern, we find the microseismic event locations provided by contractor (orange dots) are much more scattered than those estimated by our method (blue dots). The contractor's traditional method even located some events above the surface (elevation

space of 1.77 km). In addition, microseismic events estimated by our method are mostly confined within or below the unit of mixed tuffs, rhyolites, and andesites which may act as a barrier to hydraulic fractures.

The right side of Figure 3 is the plot of the velocity models used by the contractor, estimated by our simultaneous inversion using microseismic arrival times, and obtained with seismic interferometry by Matzel et al. (2014). From the comparison, we find the velocity model estimated with our method matches the result of seismic interferometry very well. However, the velocity model used by the contractor is higher than these two results at the elevation interval between 0.5 km and 1.5 km. This is the reason for the unrealistic high elevation events estimated by the contractor.

Conclusions

We built the framework for simultaneous inversion of multiple microseismic data for event locations and velocity model parameters with Bayesian inference. MAP estimation gives an efficient and reasonable approximation to the posterior probability distribution. Additionally, Bayesian inference enables the uncertainty to be quantified. The application of the developed location algorithm on both synthetic example and Newberry EGS data successfully estimated microseismic event locations and improved the velocity model. The Newberry microseismic location result of the developed method is more consistent with geology information compared with that from the contractor.

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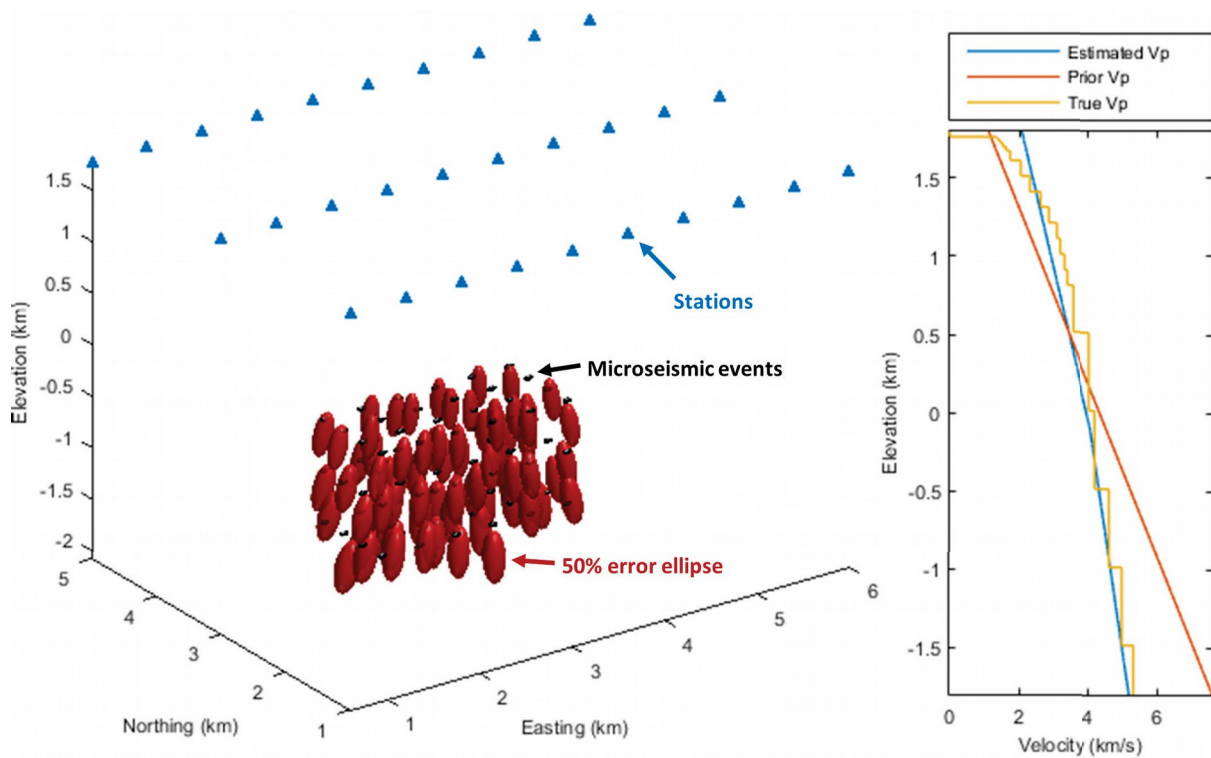


Figure 1: Synthetic example. The comparison between the true locations and estimated ones verifies the effectiveness of both MAP estimation and uncertainty approximation (left). The estimated two-layer velocity model can capture the trend of the true multiple-layer model very well (right).

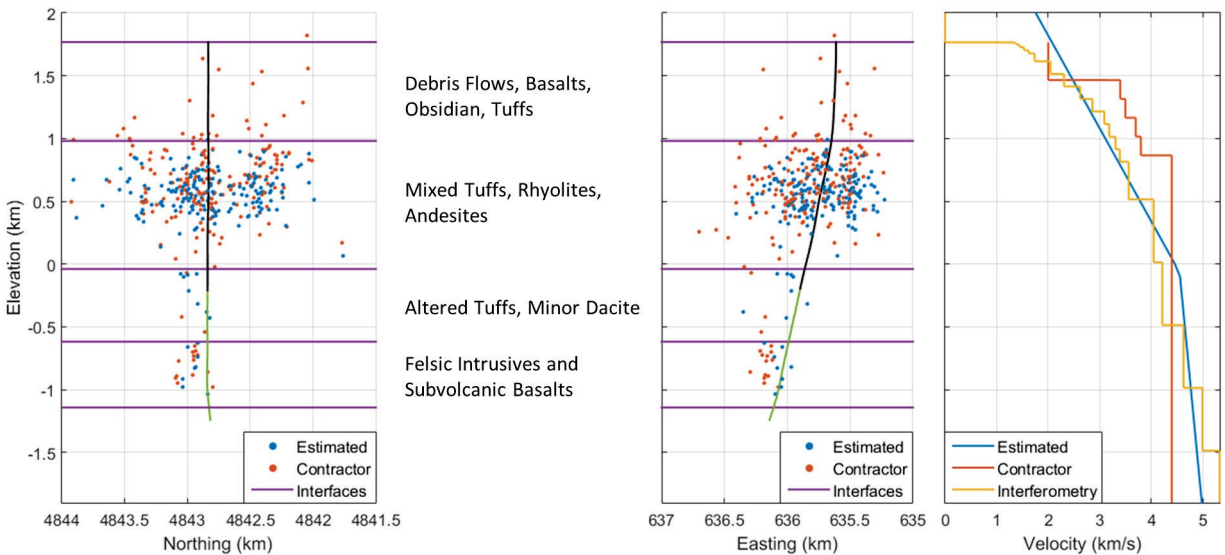


Figure 3: Comparison between our simultaneous location result and that provided by the contractor. The simultaneous location result is more clustered than the contractor's result. It is well confined below the units interface at the elevation around 1.0 km. The simultaneously inverted velocity model is very close to that obtained by seismic interferometry compared with the contractor's model.

spaceEDITED REFERENCES

Note: This reference list is a copyedited version of the reference list submitted by the author. Reference lists for the 2016 SEG Technical Program Expanded Abstracts have been copyedited so that references provided with the online metadata for each paper will achieve a high degree of linking to cited sources that appear on the Web.

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tional probability density of data \mathbf{d} given model parameters \mathbf{m} , and $\mu_D(\mathbf{d})$ is the homogeneous probability density in data space.

The marginal probability density of model parameters \mathbf{m} is the integration of the joint probability density over the entire data space \mathcal{D} :

$$\sigma_M(\mathbf{m}) = \int_{\mathcal{D}} d\mathbf{d} \sigma(\mathbf{d}, \mathbf{m}). \quad (2)$$

If the model and data space of the system are both linear, under Gaussian assumption, the posterior probability density of the model parameters can be expressed by

$$\sigma_M(\mathbf{m}) = c \exp[-O(\mathbf{m})], \quad (3)$$

and

$$O(\mathbf{m}) = \frac{1}{2} [\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{m}) - \mathbf{d}_{\text{obs}}]^T \mathbf{C}_D^{-1} [\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{m}) - \mathbf{d}_{\text{obs}}] + \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{m} - \mathbf{m}_{\text{prior}})^T \mathbf{C}_M^{-1} (\mathbf{m} - \mathbf{m}_{\text{prior}}), \quad (4)$$

yet important characterization of the conditional parameter distribution.

The above minimization can be implemented using the classical Gauss-Newton method. Once the MAP estimate \mathbf{m}_{MAP} is found, the posterior covariance matrix $\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{m},\text{MAP}}$ can be approximated through linearization about the MAP estimate as

$$\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{m},\text{MAP}} = \mathbf{C}_M - \mathbf{C}_M \mathbf{G}_{\text{MAP}}^T \left(\mathbf{G}_{\text{MAP}} \mathbf{C}_m \mathbf{G}_{\text{MAP}}^T + \mathbf{C}_D \right)^{-1} \mathbf{G}_{\text{MAP}} \mathbf{C}_M, \quad (6)$$

where, \mathbf{G}_{MAP} is the sensitivity matrix at the MAP point with elements $G_{ij} = \frac{\partial g_i}{\partial m_j}$.