

Wave-Field Extrapolation

As we have seen, the existence of lateral velocity jumps causes reflections from near-vertical faults. A more serious problem is that the extrapolation equations themselves have not yet been very carefully stated. The most accurate derivation so far has been done from dispersion relations which themselves imply velocity constant in x . We have never answered the question of how a dispersion relation containing $v k_x^2$ term should be represented. Should we use $v(x, z) \partial_{xx}$ or $\partial_x v(x, z) \partial_x$ or $\partial_{xx} v(x, z)$ or some combination? Each of these expressions implies a different numerical value for the internal reflection coefficient. Worse still, by the time all the axes are discretized it turns out that one of the most sensible arrangements of the term leads to reflection coefficients greater than unity and to numerical instability.

A weak instability is worse than a strong one. A strong instability will be noticed immediately. A weak instability might avoid notice, and ultimately lead to incorrect conclusions. A data processing anomaly could be mistaken for a geophysical anomaly. Such a mistake could be very costly. Weak instability is a production program with a built-in accident waiting to happen. Fortunately, the situation has now been corrected by means of stability analysis leading to a *bullet-proof* method.

The Magic of Color

In this chapter we attend to those details which enable performance of a *high-quality* job of downward continuation wave fields. From the point of view of the use of the seismic wave equation theory tells us what filters to be no new concepts. There are several new and very interesting mathematical concepts which will be introduced:

1. The frequency dispersion differential operators by directions

2. The anisotropy distortion of the end of the survey line.

3. The effect of truncation at some stretching techniques which are used to facilitate use of Fourier methods.

Briefly we will also look at lateral velocity variation can create instability from $v(x)$

Production Pitfall: Weak instability

Some quality problems can be introduced unless very carefully handled, the

ability

sion can lead to a consid

Filtered Data

Mixed Appearance of Dips raised against dip angles (for choice of contractor?) has been frustrated by accidental change in cosmetic parameters. Nor are cosmetic processes totally outside the world of wave-equation analysis. Indeed they can be made even more effective when built into a process rather than added on at the end.

Dip filtering often comes under suspicion as being a deceptive violator of the purity of real data. It can be misused to create events at will. But dip filtering does occur naturally and it also occurs as a by-product of various other processes. Our purpose here is to see how it can be used to advantage in a perfectly justifiable way.

False Semi-Circles in Migrated Data

A commonly missed opportunity is the failure to make effective use of dip filtering to suppress multiples. Without going into a detailed exposition of the theory and properties of focused multiple reflections, it can be stated that multiples are unlike primaries in one important respect. Their strength may change rapidly need not be spread out in the horizontal direction. They must. This difference arises because they often spend much time focusing themselves in the irregular near-surface areas. Common evidence for this behavior is contained in the appearance of wide-angle migrated sections. Such sections often show semi-circular arcs coming all the way up to the surface. Such arcs are obviously not primary reflections. They can be multiples or unassociated impulsive noise. In either case they can be partially suppressed without affecting primaries.

¹ SEP-85, pp 271-276.

4.1 Physical and Cosmetic Aspects of Wavefield Extrapolation¹

Dip filtering and gain control are two processes whose purpose seems to be largely cosmetic. It is time changes they make to the data are planned to improve its appearance. Criteria invoked to choose quantitative parameters of such processes are often vague and relate to human experience or visual perception. Objective criteria as signal and noise dip spectra are rarely used in a quantitative way. But the importance of cosmetic processes

filtering is that adjacent channels give data that are no longer independent. It is in this sense that the horizontal resolution decreases with frequency. There are two reasons for this. First, as frequency increases, the velocity of the waves reaches the high-frequency, horizontal velocity. To ignore this fundamental velocity energy. As with frequency filtering, it is always to be avoided for the same reason. Low-velocity features play a role in low-velocity, incoherent, signal processing. Gaussian, vector may be limiting. But accentuates dips in the range of wide angles and steeply dipping. Sharp cutoffs are not desirable. Wide angles are desirable that help achieve these goals are

Space

Zapping Multiples in Definition of CDP Space

Think of the migration velocity in the (ω, k_x, z) -space. Ordinarily, the velocity forward continuation procedure area from bites out more and more of the primary. This cutoff does not occur as soon as it is desired. This should be suppressed. A desirable drop in

Decomposition of the 45 Degree Equation into Effects

There are various means of entering viscosity into wave propagation theory. A well known means is to introduce a complex velocity into the ω^2/v^2 term of the scalar wave equation. This is much like introducing the complex ω . It may be recalled from Fourier transform theory that multiplication of a time function by a decaying exponential $\exp(-\alpha t)$ is equivalent to replacing $-i\omega$ by $-i\omega + \alpha$ in the transform domain. The latter section on impedance functions it is shown that replacing $-i\omega$ by $(-i\omega/v)^\gamma$ describes the so-called "constant Q " absorption which accurately matches laboratory measurements.

Performing two iterations of the Muir square root expansion we get an expression like

$$i/k_z^{(45)} = -i\omega_0 + \frac{X^2}{-i\omega_1^2 + \frac{X^2}{-i\omega_2^2}} \quad (1)$$

In this expression X^2 denotes $V^2 k_x^2$ [or the positive definite matrix $(V\partial_x)(V\partial_x)^T = -V\partial_{xx}V$]. Previously, in expressions like (1) we have always written simply $-i\omega$, never expecting to want to make the distinction between $\omega_0, \omega_1, \text{ or } \omega_2$. Indeed, we usually want each ω to have the same real part. However, by introducing different imaginary parts we can introduce a viscosity which is angle dependent.

For example, we could choose each $-i\omega_j$ in (1) to be the constant Q impedance function $(-i\omega)^\gamma$. The implied migration equation would then back out presumed frequency dissipation in the rocks. But this would lead to a ridiculous enhancement of high frequencies. A better idea would be to keep ω_0 non-viscous but choose $-i\omega_1 = (-i\omega)^\gamma$. With this idea there would be no attempt to back out the Q of the velocity, but there would be compensation of non-zero offsets to a zero-offset.

The choice of different real parts for the $-i\omega_j$ functions creates an amplification or attenuation which depends on dip. We could select the real part of $-i\omega_1$ for the for-mentioned compensation of offset for the Then we could use the real part of $-i\omega_2$ for the purpose of suppressing evanescent energy. It would be simple if we could choose the real part of $-i\omega_2$ so as to attenuate all dips above (i.e. velocities below) the medium's cutoff. What happens is almost as good but not quite as simple. Larry Morley discovered (SEP-16, p 109-119) that the absorption turns out to be extremely strong at 3/4 of the medium velocity but

so strong at low velocities. (The 45° dispersion relation at $V/k/\omega = 4/3$) The width and depth of the absorption curve his zero velocity noise is better eliminated by some other massive very low means. In summary, the gain effect of terms in the 45° equation

term	Real Part (traveltime)	Imaginary Part	physical
ω_0	conversion	metric	absorption
ω_1	(influences tracking vel.	filter	Q-offset compensation
ω_2	time/depth	enhancement	evanescent junk
	migration/s	steep dip suppress	
	migration/st		

Dip Filtering Too

Essentially gained upward before migration, then hyperbolic. This is certainly before migration moves them in with a dip-enhancement feature. Let us take the Z-transform of a time function $A(Z) = a_0 + a_1 Z + a_2 Z^2 + \dots$ exponentially gained time function by $Z = a_0 + a_1 e^{ik_x Z} + a_2 e^{2a_k Z^2} + \dots$ indicative of the exponential gain. Mathematically \uparrow is replaced by $\uparrow a_k Z$. Consider a polynomial multiplication of time functions $C(Z) = A(Z) B(Z)$

Obviously, do exponential gain either before or after convolution. This means we can forward-continue the fixed k_x It is a function of ω which may be Think of the ω fixed z and so on

Substitutions for

[all preserve Exponential Gr.]
Time expansion (Inverse) Constant Q

the substitution of the constant Q dis-

Z-transform variable Z	$C(Z) = A(Z)B(Z)$
with	$Z \rightarrow Ze^{\alpha}$ $(i\omega \rightarrow i\omega + \alpha)$
$\alpha > 1$	$Z \rightarrow Z^{\alpha}$
dissipation	$-i\omega \rightarrow (-i\omega)^{\gamma}$

ical point of view dictates that cosmetic functions like dip filtering should be done after processing, say $\uparrow(AB)$. The upward gained data. In practice it is common to forget the $\uparrow C = \uparrow(A)\uparrow(B)$. I like such cosmetics in the sense that I want to carry more information than flat ones. But going to Z , no attenuation seems to be preferable. The decomposition into the three main parts gives much flexibility for these goals.

Coherence or Rejection by Filtering?

oid the pitfall of judging a supposed non-cosmetic pro-
ic effect. I once got caught. The process was migration
ic feature deemed desirable was the relative strength of
ar event on the record, a fault plane reflection. But even
affect dip spectra! I hoped the process was working by
ating some of the rejection of steep dips by CDP stack.
but how could I know whether this was really happening
process had an accidental ability to enhance dips by spa-

Z Operator

\uparrow operator has been defined to mean the substitution
main property of this operator is that if $C = AB$ then
This property would be shared by any algebraic substitu-
just the one for exponential gain. Another relatively
tion may be used to achieve time-axis stretching or
or example replacing Z by Z^2 stretches the time axis
or substitution which has a considerably deeper meaning

cess by a constant
before stack. Tr
the steepest dip
gain control
correctly eliminating the coefficients of positive powers of Z is associ-
Perhaps it was, using negative powers. So $\uparrow A$ has a weakened recur-
on whether the attenuate flanks rather than moving them; and it is said
tial filtering?

The Substitution

$Z \rightarrow Ze^{\alpha}$
 $\uparrow C = \uparrow(A)\uparrow(B)$
trivial substitution
compression
by two. Another

expressed in the
move upward an
cate by

Exponentially
ated with gain
sor, it leads to a
to be viscous

A purely phy-
gain control and
But this is equiv-
on exponentially
viscosity and err
think flipping ev
beyond 45° dip,
of the 45° equat
reaching toward

Rejection by the time domain as a filter a_1 . But the hyperbola flanks
We should a migration. So the filter is *anticausal* which we can indi-

than either of the previous two is t
sipation operator $(-i\omega)^{\gamma}$. In sum

from the 45° extrap-
 These are depicted by
 and the heart are distal
 zone, and the z-axis is at
 the aliasing frequency
 (x,t)-plane when; acquir
 ing in figure 2 and 3.

h. Anisotropy and Wave-Migration Accuracy¹

anisotropy types of errors in wave migration. Of greatest
 ent about frequency dispersion, occurring when different
 re, and the different speeds. This may be reduced by
 eyes, of finite difference approximations to
 s. A wide cure is sufficient refinement of the
 and to its secondary importance, and the topic of the
 ate by dispersion. This occurs when waves pro-
 coped motions do so at different speeds. It is remedied
 on by the well-known 45° equation. It is not that we do
 particular angles; we often do. The problem at large
 and also edge of seismic velocity is seldom, if ever,
 may rectify the trouble involved in using wide angle
 data will be
 u.s. is associated with propagation of light in cry-
 stology anisotropy is occasionally invoked to
 between borehole velocity measurements (verti-
 cally) by determined by normal moveout (horizontal
 reference) arise as an undesirable side effect in seismic
 velocity processing. This subject was analyzed in detail in
 in a separate paper.
 and in a
 a rather sev-

4.2 Anisotropy

There are two reasons why a Huygen's secondary source is a semicircle that actually results from the 15° extrapolation. The secondary source that actually results from the equation is an interesting, heart-like shape. In practice the top parts of the ellipse are observed because they are in the evanescent domain defined sufficiently for them to be below the center of the heart is sometimes seen in the program is used. It is depicted by a line drawing a 45° diffraction program in figure 3.

Anisotropy is
 stals. In reflect
 explain the discor
 cal propagation
 propagation) in
 calculation and
 SEP-8 and the res

Point Source Res
 The ideal way
 cle. The seconda
 tion equation is

¹ SEP-20, p 207-220

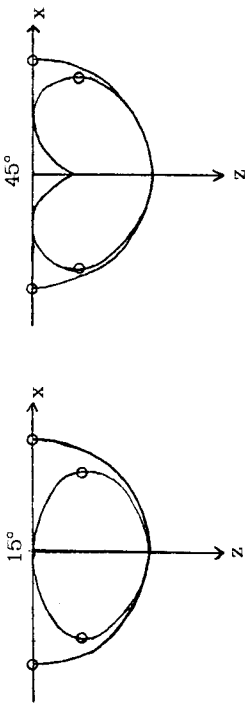


FIG. 1. Wavefronts of 15° and 45° extrapolation equations, inscribed within the exact semicircle. Waves with $\sin \theta = v k_x / \omega = \pm 1$ are marked with small circles.

Wave Front Direction and Energy Velocity

In wave propagation we are familiar with the idea of energy propagating perpendicular to a wavefront. When there is anisotropy dispersion the two directions differ. The apparent horizontal velocity seen along the surface is dx/dt . The apparent velocity along the vertical, seen in a borehole, is dz/dt . Because of geometrical considerations, both of these apparent speeds exceed the wave speed. A vector perpendicular to the wavefront with a magnitude inverse to the velocity is called the slowness vector:

$$\text{slowness vector} = \left(\frac{dt}{dx}, \frac{dt}{dz} \right)$$

A vector perpendicular to the wavefront scaled to the speed of the wavefront is evidently the slowness vector divided by its squared magnitude. It is called the phase velocity vector:

$$\text{phase velocity} = \frac{\left(\frac{dt}{dx}, \frac{dt}{dz} \right)}{\left[\left(\frac{dt}{dx} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{dt}{dz} \right)^2 \right]^{1/2}}$$

FIG. 2. 45° heart theory.

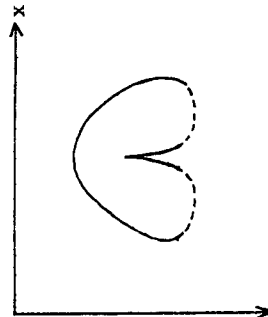
$$\text{slowness vector} = \left(\frac{k_x}{\omega}, \frac{k_z}{\omega} \right) \quad (1a)$$

The direction of energy propagation is somewhat more difficult to derive, but it turns out to be the so-called *group velocity*.

$$\text{group velocity} = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial k_x}, \frac{\partial}{\partial k_z} \right) \omega(k_x, k_z) \quad (1b)$$

For the scalar wave equation $\omega^2/v^2 = k_x^2 + k_z^2$, the group velocity and the slowness vector are in the same direction, as may be verified with equation (1). The most familiar type of dispersion is frequency dispersion, where different frequencies travel at different speeds. It is shown in SEP-8 that the familiar (15°, 45°, etc.) extrapolation equations do not exhibit frequency dispersion. Specifically, as functions of ω and k_x/ω , the velocities do not depend on ω . In other words, the elliptical and heart shapes of figure 1 are not frequency-dependent.

The most interesting aspect of anisotropy dispersion is that energy appears to be going in one direction when it is actually going in another. To illustrate this phenomenon we will consider an exaggerated instance



In a disturbance with sinusoidal form, the phase may be set equal to a constant, and the derivatives may be determined, giving

(Morley) 45° heart example

was a downward component and the velocity component. Figure 4 depicts the dispersion equation. A slowness vector, which the velocity has an upward component, is projected by drawing an arrow from the dispersion relation of the 45° example. The values of the dispersion relation are plotted perpendicular to the dispersion relation. Graphically by noting that group velocity may now be determined from equation (1b). Think of ω as a constant. The slowness vector points north and k_x points east. Then the group velocity is defined by the gradient of the dispersion relation. Different numerical values of ω are shown in figure 4 to different scales. The dispersion relation is a constant from data. The gradient, is perpendicular to the dispersion relation. In the direction of constant ω , the phenomenon is most clearly recognized in figure 5.

Figure 6 is a line drawing of an area of the figure which is sufficiently large and finally entered the phase fronts to be recognized as energy and uncluttered forward but the direction can propagate upward in figures 5 or 6. The phenomenon is most clearly recognized in figure 5. Figure 6 is a line drawing of an area of the figure which is sufficiently large and finally entered the phase fronts to be recognized as energy and uncluttered forward but the direction can propagate upward in figures 5 or 6. The phenomenon is most clearly recognized in figure 5.

FIG. 4. Dispersion relation for downgoing extrapolation equation showing group velocity vector and slowness vector (perpendicular to wavefront).

figure 5. The program does not have the entire frame in memory, it produces one horizontal strip at a time from the strip just above. Thus the movie's phase fronts, which appear to be moving upward, seem very curious. Theoretically we do not expect wave extrapolation, particularly the 45° equation, to handle angles to 90°. Yet the example shows that these extreme cases are indeed handled, although in a somewhat perverted way.

I once observed a similar circumstance on reflection seismic data from a geologically overthrust area. The data could not be made available to me at the time, and by now it is probably long lost in the owner's files, so you will have to be content with the recollected line drawing in figure 7. The increasing velocity with depth causes the ray to bend upward and reflect from the underside of the overthrust. To see what is happening in the wave equation, it is helpful to draw the dispersion curve at two different velocities, as in figure 8. Downward continuation of a bit of energy with some particular stepout $dt/dx = k_x/\omega$ begins at a quite ordinary angle on the near surface, slow velocity dispersion curve. But as deeper velocity material is encountered at depth, that same stepout implies a negative phase velocity. The situation resembles that in figures 5 and 6. Although the thrust angle is unlikely to be quantitatively correct, the general picture is appropriate.

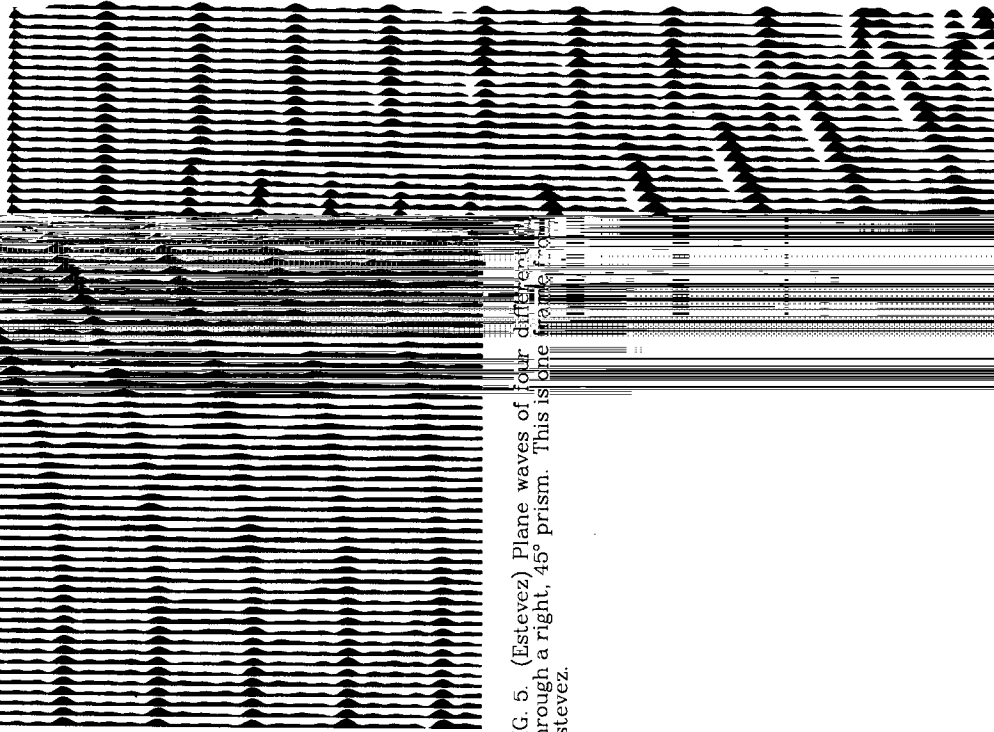
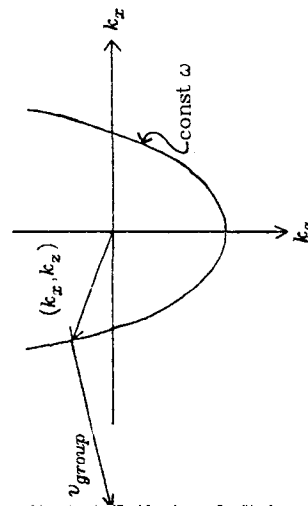


FIG. 5. (Estevez) Plane waves of four different frequencies propagating through a right, 45° prism. This is one frame from a movie made by Raul Estevez.

frequencies propagating
a movie made by Raul



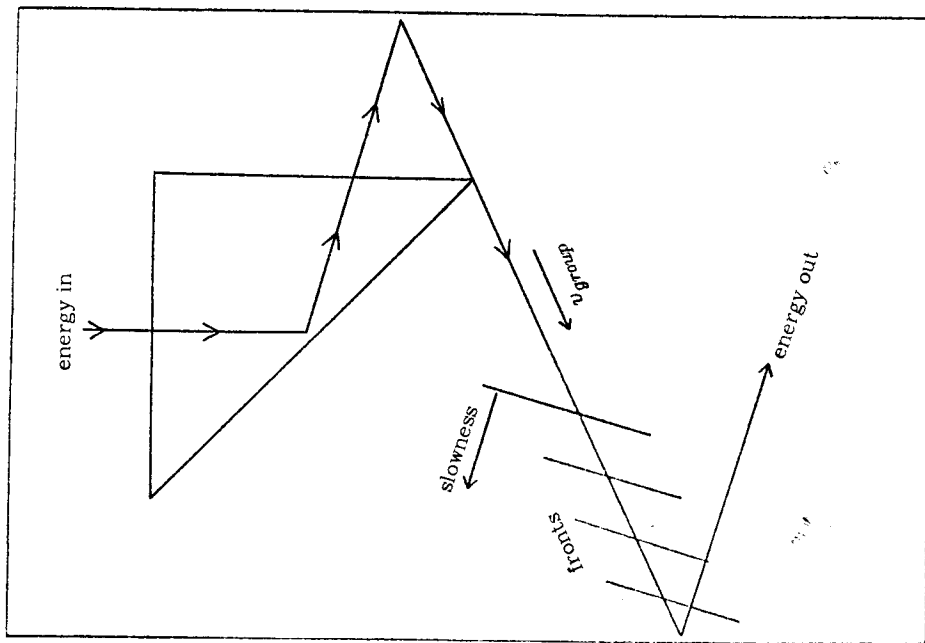


FIG. 6. Interpretation of some energy flow in figure 5 which illustrates different directions of energy and wavefront normal.

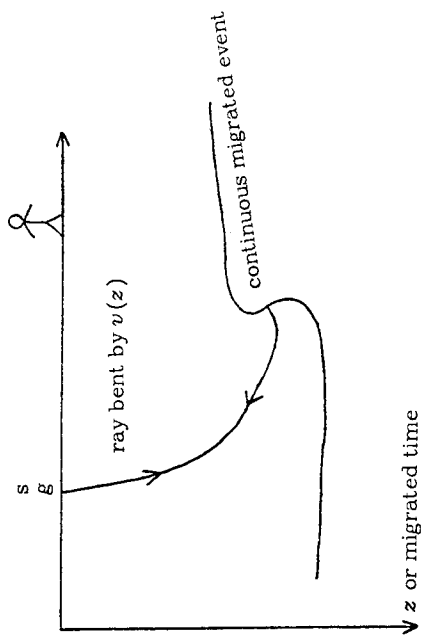


FIG. 7. Ray reflected from underside of overthrust.

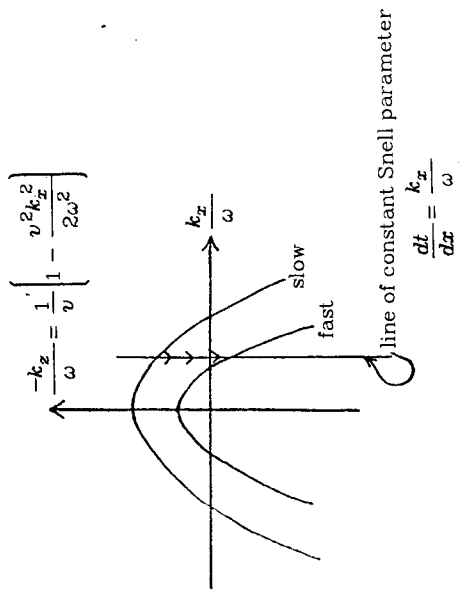
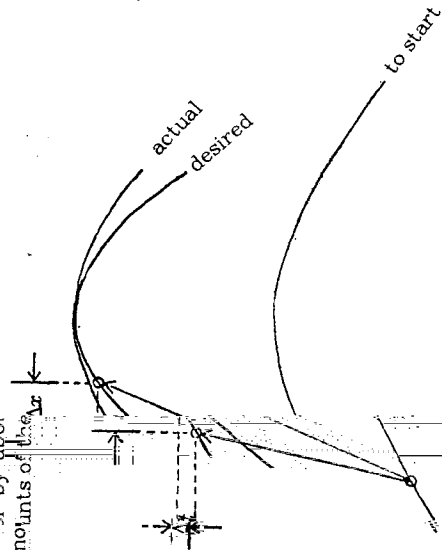


FIG. 8. Dispersion curve at two different velocities v_{fast} and v_{slow} .

at 25°.

ne the error in the collapse of a hyperbola. Figure
ward continuation of a hyperbola. For clarity the
ion was not taken all the way to the focus. We will

Next, we determine of some Snell's parameter $p = dt/dx$ by selecting
10 depicts the downward constructing a tangent line segment of slope p to
downward continuation. If there were a little amplitude anomaly where
keep track of a ray would be able to identify it on each of the hyper-
some slope p and velocity is needed because either a curved event or
each of the hyperboloids requires a range of plane wave angles to be
the slope is p . You analogous to a time series wavelet's need for a
boloids. The group velocity to represent it. You will notice in figure 9 that the
an amplitude anomaly moved is too little; likewise, the actual lateral dis-
represented. This is small; so in practice, the errors are sometimes com-
range of frequencies it a six percent increase of either z or v . The
actual amount of time errors are shown to be
tance moved is too st
pensated for by abo
actual amounts of the



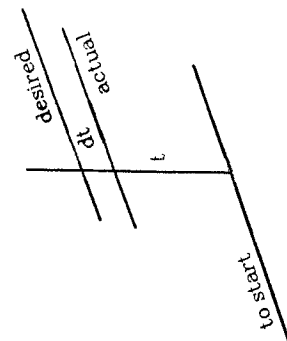
rbola collapse. Note that the actual curve is above
the actual point is below the desired point.

FIG. 10. Error of hyperbola collapse. Note that the actual curve is above the desired curve, but the actual point is below the desired point.

Errors of Migration

A reflector that is flat and regular may be analyzed in its
the phase velocity concept. The group velocity concept is
y when more than one angle is simultaneously present, as
case when we analyze the point scatterer response. In addi-
ing bed with reflection amplitude variable along the bed must
with group velocity. Figure 9 depicts a smooth, flat, dipping
entirely will be root approximation because the k_z defined by some
required only the correct square root value of k_z .

tion, a dipping
be analyzed
bed which
rational square
did not mat



migrated dipping reflector.

er in this case is entirely a time shift error. Since in this case
then the reflection coefficient to be constant along the
FIG. 9. Under lateral shift error can be recognized. The time error may
ally determined by

$$\frac{dt}{t} = \frac{k_z - k_z}{k_z} \quad (2)$$

The error
we have the
reflector, no
be theoretic

For the so-

$$\left[\right] = \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial k_x} - \frac{x}{t} \tag{7a}$$

$$\left[\right] = \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial k_z} - \frac{z}{t} \tag{7b}$$

$$0 = \frac{\partial}{\partial k_x} \left[t \left(\frac{\partial \omega}{\partial k_x}, \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial k_z} \right) \right] \tag{8}$$

urbances will be located at
 So in conclusion, at time t the disturbance is located at

$$(x, z) = \text{position}$$

which justifies the definition of group velocity. You take depth to be large in the

Derivation of Energy Migration Eqn.

Energy migration in (x, t) -space is analyzed in a fashion similar to the derivation of group velocity. You take depth to be large in the integral

$$\int \int e^{i z [k_x(\omega, k_x) - \omega]} \left[-\frac{\partial k_z}{\partial k_x}, \frac{\partial k_z}{\partial \omega} \right] d\omega dk_x \tag{9}$$

The result is that the energy goes to $(x, t) = z_1$ on that (3) can be used to analyze

$$(x, t) = z_1$$

This justifies our previous assertion that energy propagation errors.

$$\frac{\Delta t}{t} = \frac{\frac{\partial}{\partial \omega} (\hat{k}_z - k_z)}{\frac{\partial}{\partial \omega} k_z} \tag{3a}$$

$$\frac{\Delta x}{x} = \frac{\frac{\partial}{\partial k_x} (\hat{k}_z - k_z)}{\frac{\partial}{\partial k_x} k_z} \tag{3b}$$

where k_z is taken to be a function of ω and k_x . It turns out that for the 15° equation, about a half-percent group velocity error occurs at 20°. Thus the group velocity error is generally worse than the phase velocity error.

Derivation of Group Velocity Equation

We can make up an impulse function at the origin in (x, z) -space by superposing Fourier components:

$$\int \int e^{+i k_x x + i k_z z} dk_x dk_z \tag{4}$$

Physics and possibly numerical analysis lead to a dispersion relation which is a functional relation between $\omega, k_x,$ and k_z , say, $\omega(k_x, k_z)$. The most common example is the scalar wave equation $\omega^2 = (k_x^2 + k_z^2)/v^2$. The solution to the equations is

$$e^{-i \omega t + i k_x x + i k_z z} \tag{5}$$

Integrating (5) over (k_x, k_z) will produce a monochromatic time function which at $t=0$ is an impulse at $(x, z)=(0,0)$. The expression at some very large time t is

$$\int \int e^{-i t [\omega(k_x, k_z) - k_x x/t - k_z z/t]} dk_x dk_z \tag{6}$$

At t very large, the integrand is a very rapidly oscillating function of unit magnitude. Thus the integral will be nearly zero unless we can get the quantity in square brackets to become nearly independent of k_x and k_z for some sizable area in (k_x, k_z) -space. To find such a flat spot we proceed as if we were finding the max or min of a two-dimensional function, that is, by setting derivatives to zero. This analytical approach is known as the stationary phase method.

4.3 Frequency Dispersion and Wave-Migration Accuracy¹

Frequency dispersion is a result of different frequencies propagating at different speeds. The physical phenomenon of frequency dispersion is rarely heard in daily life, although many readers may have heard it while ice skating on lakes and rivers. Elastic waves caused by cracking ice propagate dispersively changing pops into percussive noises. Even while frequency dispersion is a barely perceptible phenomenon in reflection seismology, it is a substantial nuisance in seismic data processing, where we often see artful displays of the difference between differential operators and difference operators. As such, it is an embarrassing element to process builders. Dispersion is not an essential feature of data processed by finite differences: it can always be suppressed by sampling more densely, and it is the job of the production analyst to see that this is done. Figure 1 depicts some dispersed pulses.

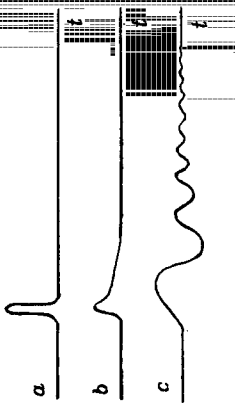


FIG. 1. (a) A pulse. (b) A pulse slightly dispersed as by the physical dissipation of high frequencies. (c) A pulse with a substantial amount of frequency dispersion, as could result from careless data processing.

But dispersion can be a useful warning to the seismologist that the data itself is in danger of transgressing the boundary into aliased space. Frequency-domain methods do not depend on difference operators so they have the advantage that they do not show dispersion. Penalties for this advantage are: (1) limitation to constant material properties, (2) wraparound, (3) occurrence of spatial aliasing without the warning of dispersion.

¹ SEP-24, p 299-309.

Spatial Aliasing

Aliasing can occur on the axes of time, depth, geophone, shot, midpoint, offset, or crossline. We will begin on the horizontal space axis where the problem is worst. The dispersion relation of the wave equation enables us to compute the vertical spatial frequency k_z from the temporal frequency ω , the velocity v , and the horizontal spatial frequency k_x by the semicircle relation $k_z(\omega, k_x) = \sqrt{\omega^2/v^2 - k_x^2}$. Sampling on the x -axis gives an upper limit to k_x equal to the Nyquist frequency $\pi/\Delta x$. Both frequency-domain methods and finite-difference methods treat higher frequencies as if they were folded at the Nyquist frequency. Thus the semicircle dispersion relation is replicated above the Nyquist frequency as shown in figure 2.

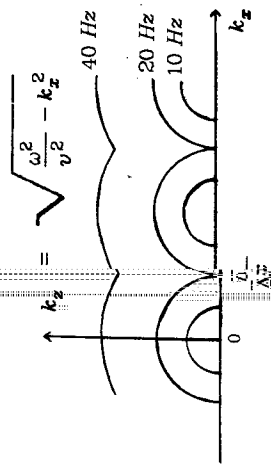


FIG. 2. The effective dispersion relation of the wave equation when the horizontal axis is sampled. Values are given for zero-offset migration where $\Delta y = 25$ meters and velocity $v = 2000m/sec$. The semicircular arcs correspond to frequencies of 40, 20, and 10 Hz.

The problem of spatial aliasing begins when two circles touch each other, as is shown at 20 Hz in figure 2. This occurs when a half wavelength $v/2f = \pi v/\omega$ equals the spatial sample rate Δx . We must be sure to use half the rock velocity or else we need to consider the two way travel time. Thus the aliasing problem is avoided if $2f \Delta x < 1/2 v_{rock}$. For rock velocity equal 2 km/sec safe frequencies are below those in the table.

	Δx	frequency
standard	25m	20 Hz
reconnaissance	50m	10 Hz
3-D cross line	100m	5 Hz

Another view is that steeply dipping waves are suppressed by the geophone group. (This disregards shot-space aliasing.) In this view the limitation should be thought of in terms of angles at which energy is missing from the data. Taking the ray angle to be 30° instead of 90° doubles horizontal wavelengths. Thus for 30° safety from aliasing at rock velocity of 2km/sec, we need frequencies less than

	Δx	frequency
standard	25m	40 Hz
reconnaissance	50m	20 Hz
3-D cross line	100m	10 Hz

Some perspective on the significance of wide-angle processing is gained by realizing that data commonly exhibit good signals above 40 Hz.

Second Space-Derivatives

The defining equation for a second-derivative operator is

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} P = \frac{P(x + \Delta x) - 2P(x) + P(x - \Delta x)}{(\Delta x)^2} \tag{1}$$

The second derivative operator is defined by taking the limit

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} P = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} P \tag{2}$$

Many different equations can all go to the same limit as Δx goes to zero. So the problem is to find an expression which is accurate when Δx is larger than zero. The practical problem is to find an accurate expression which is not too complicated. Our first objective is to see how to evaluate quantitatively the accuracy of equation (1). Second, we will look at an expression that is slightly more complicated but much more accurate.

The basic method of analysis is Fourier transformation. More simply, we take derivatives of the complex exponential $P = P_0 \exp(ikx)$ and look at errors as a function of the spatial frequency k . For the second derivative we have

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} P = -k^2 P \tag{3}$$

We define \hat{k} by an analogous expression with the difference operator

$$\delta_{xx} P = \frac{\delta^2}{\delta x^2} P = -\hat{k}^2 P \tag{4}$$

Ideally \hat{k} would equal k . Inserting the complex exponential into (1) we get an expression for \hat{k} in terms of k

$$-\hat{k}^2 P = \frac{P_0}{\Delta x^2} [e^{ik(x+\Delta x)} - 2e^{ikx} + e^{ik(x-\Delta x)}] \tag{5a}$$

$$-\delta_{xx} = \hat{k}^2 = \frac{2}{\Delta x^2} [1 - \cos(k\Delta x)] \tag{5b}$$

It is a straightforward matter to make plots of $\hat{k}\Delta x$ versus $k\Delta x$ from (5). The half-angle trig formula allows an analytic square root of (5) which is

$$\hat{k}\Delta x = 2 \sin \frac{k\Delta x}{2} \tag{5c}$$

Series expansion shows that for low frequencies \hat{k} is a good approximation to k . At the Nyquist frequency, defined by $k\Delta x = \pi$, the approximation $\hat{k}\Delta x = 2$ is a poor approximation to π .

The 1/6 Trick

Increased absolute accuracy may always be purchased by reducing Δx . Increased accuracy relative to the Nyquist frequency may be purchased at a cost of computer time and analytical clumsiness by adding higher order terms, say

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \approx \frac{\delta^2}{\delta x^2} - \frac{\Delta x^2}{12} \frac{\delta^4}{\delta x^4} + etc. \tag{6}$$

As Δx tends to zero (6) tends to the basic definition (1) and (2). Coefficients like the 1/12 in (6) may be determined by the Taylor-series method if great accuracy is desired at small k . Or a somewhat different coefficient may be determined by curve-fitting techniques if accuracy is

desired over some range of k . In practice I believe (6) is hardly ever used because there is a less obvious expression which offers much more accuracy at less cost! The idea is indicated by

$$\frac{\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}}{\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}} \approx \frac{\frac{\delta^2}{\delta x^2}}{1 + \frac{\Delta x^2}{6} \frac{\delta^2}{\delta x^2}} \quad (7a)$$

The accuracy may be numerically evaluated by substituting from (5) to get

$$\left[\frac{k \Delta x}{2} \right]^2 = \frac{\sin^2 \frac{k \Delta x}{2}}{1 - \frac{1}{6} 4 \sin^2 \frac{k \Delta x}{2}} \quad (7b)$$

The square root is plotted in figure 3.

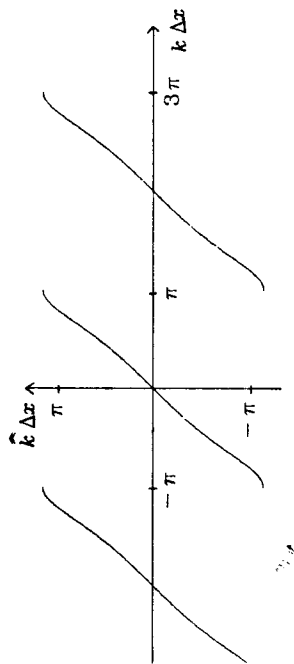


FIG. 3. (Hale) Accuracy of the second-derivative representation of (7) as a function of spatial wavenumber. The sign of the square root of (7b) was chosen to agree with k in the range $-\pi$ to π and to be periodic outside the range.

If the $1/6$ in (7) were replaced by $1/12$ then (7) and (6) would agree to second order in Δx . Actually the $1/12$ comes from series expansion but the $1/6$ fits over a wider range and is a value in common use. F. Muir pointed out that the value $(1/\pi^2 - 1/4) \approx 1/6.7$ gives an *exact* fit at the Nyquist frequency and a quite accurate fit over all lower frequencies!

Indeed, in 1980 it may be said that few explorationists consider the accuracy deficiency of (7) to be large enough to warrant interpolation of field-recorded values.

Rather than pursue this further to provide a thorough analysis of errors, let us be sure it is clear how (7) is put into use. The simplest prototype equation is the heat-flow equation.

$$\frac{\partial q}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial^2 q}{\partial x^2} \approx \frac{\delta_{xx} q}{1 + \frac{\Delta x^2}{6} \delta_{xx}} \quad (8)$$

Just multiply through the denominator thus

$$\left[1 + \frac{\Delta x^2}{6} \delta_{xx} \right] \frac{\partial q}{\partial t} \approx \delta_{xx} q \quad (9)$$

Time-Derivatives and the Bilinear Transform

You might be inclined to think that a second derivative is a second derivative and that there is no mathematical reason to do time-derivatives differently than space-derivatives. This is wrong. A hint of fundamental disparity is found by considering boundary conditions. With time-derivatives (and often with the depth z -derivative) we generally have a concept of causality, which means that the future is determined solely from the present and past. Appropriate boundary conditions on the time axis are initial conditions - that is, specification of the function (and perhaps some derivatives) at *one* point, the initial point in time. For depth z that special point is the earth surface at $z=0$. But lateral space-derivatives are different. They require boundary conditions at two widely separated points, usually at the left and right sides of the volume under consideration.

Causal differentiation is a deep subject. Its importance to stability in wave analysis merits more lengthy consideration in a later chapter on advanced wave extrapolation. But we have already seen the main idea, which is embedded in the Crank-Nicolson differencing scheme. It remains to examine accuracy and frequency dispersion.

Begin with a time function p_t . We define its Z -transform by

$$P(Z) = \dots p_{-2}Z^{-2} + p_{-1}Z^{-1} + p_0 + p_1Z + p_2Z^2 + \dots \quad (10)$$

Define an operator $-i\hat{\omega}\Delta t$ by

(11)

Q of another

(12a)

(12b)

(12c)

s out to be a

(13a)

(13b)

t. expressions represents accuracy of substituting

(14)

$$\frac{1}{-i\omega\Delta t} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1+Z}{1-Z}$$

as apply this operator on P to get the Z-transform function q_t.

$$Q(Z) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1+Z}{1-Z} P(Z)$$

ply both sides by (1-Z):

$$(1-Z)Q(Z) = \frac{1}{2}(1+Z)P(Z)$$

Multi te the coefficient of Z^t on each side:

$$q_t - q_{t-1} = \frac{p_t + p_{t-1}}{2}$$

Equa

g p_t to be an impulse function we see that q_t turns into t. function, that is,

$$p = \dots 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, \dots$$

$$q = \dots 0, 0, \frac{1}{2}, 1, 1, 1, \dots$$

Tak; step

t approximates the integral of p_t from minus infinit. 2 g Z = exp(i\omega\Delta t) equations (10), (11), and (12a,b) are the Fourier transform domain and the operation of (12) is a circular integration by the Crank-Nicolson method. The taking integration (or differentiation) is evaluated by the exp(i\omega\Delta t) into (11), say

$$-i\omega\Delta t = 2 \frac{1 - e^{i\omega\Delta t}}{1 + e^{i\omega\Delta t}} = 2 \frac{e^{-i\omega\Delta t/2} - e^{i\omega\Delta t/2}}{e^{-i\omega\Delta t/2} + e^{i\omega\Delta t/2}}$$

$$= -2i \frac{\sin(\omega\Delta t/2)}{\cos(\omega\Delta t/2)}$$

$$\frac{\omega\Delta t}{2} = \tan \frac{\omega\Delta t}{2}$$

ion (14) is the fundamental statement of the accuracy which is any n of the first-derivative operator by the Crank-Nicolson expansion shows that \omega goes to \infty as \Delta t goes to zero

Equals in \omega at (4, 10, and 20) points per wavelength are (math) these errors are quite large, calling for either a choice of more accurate method than (14). The bad news is that error seem to exist a representation of causal differentiation (1%).

or a r not sr

more accurate than Crank-Nicolson. In other words we have nothing like the 1/6 trick for time-derivatives. So we must reduce the time sample interval \Delta t considerably from the Nyquist criterion.

On the other hand most geophysical differential equations have time-invariant coefficients so we can solve them in the \omega-domain rather than in the time domain. Or we might find we do not need to have causal time-derivatives. antisymmetric derivatives might do. With the depth z-axis we are largely stuck with causal derivatives, although we could use Fourier methods over layers. But the depth axis is not so troublesome, not data z- and t-axes because it usually affects computer time only, not data storage.

The practical picture may not be as dreary as the one I am painting. Many people are very pleased with both the speed and accuracy of time-domain migrations at \Delta t = 4 milliseconds.

Accuracy = Time: Contractor's View

A chain of links should all be made of equal strength. Likewise, in the construction of a production program for wave-equation migration, weakness arises from approximations made in many different places. Again, economy dictates that funds to purchase accuracy should be distributed to where they will do the most good. Geophysical contractors naturally become time experts on accuracy-cost trade-offs in the migration of stacked data. Certain broader questions also merit study, such as the error associated with velocity uncertainty and the error associated with migration affected with velocity uncertainty and the error associated with the more obvious considerations.

Migration is basically just a process of downward extrapolating surface data. All the various approximations imply timing errors, which for a single frequency are just phase errors. It is easy to write equations for these phase errors. The true phase \zeta at a depth z is given by the integral of k_z with depth. But we may as well replace the integral by the average integrand times the depth:

(15a)

$$\zeta_{true} = z k_z$$

Discretizing the z-axis into N levels,

(15b)

$$\zeta_{diff} = N \Delta z \hat{k}_z = N \Delta z \frac{2}{\Delta z} \tan \left[\frac{k_z \Delta z}{2} \right]$$

es!

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4.4 Absorbing Sides

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The Ends of the Survey

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mainly affects the ideal solution is not a model. Such an ideal extra-
 graphical boundary solution is some kind of a model. Usually we settle for
 two important ingredients to stacking, the zero padding
 In each of these two situations, a wave-propagation signal may be analogous to stacking
 padding. The only way, if ever, approached in practice, is actually the two situations
 the dataset. This is also possibly some tapering. For each migration we can have
 noise model, and possibly some tapering. For each migration we can have
 a migration situation seems to move toward the end of the sec-
 tion is real-worlds are collapsed to points. Migration will tend to move
 zero padding because of the data itself. With the case with stacking in
 has no cost. Tapering either downward or upward, the back toward zero offset.
 in that hyperbolic energy dips downward, then occurs only with migration,
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 the energy dips from the far end of the cable, philosophically, the best
 that energy dips from the far end of the cable, philosophically, the best
 It is in the other kind of an extrapolation of the data, it tends to falsely reflect
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1 SEP-25, pp 277-283.

$$(16)$$

$$(17)$$

$$(18)$$

$$(19)$$

$$k_z = \frac{\omega^2 - k_x^2 - k_y^2}{v}$$

$$k_z = \frac{1}{v} \left(\omega^2 - k_x^2 - k_y^2 \right)$$

$$k_z = \frac{\omega^2 - k_x^2 - k_y^2}{v}$$

$$k_z = \frac{\omega^2 - k_x^2 - k_y^2}{v}$$

scalar waves,

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ay simplify the algebra with no approximation. Then k_z becomes

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k_z becomes

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problem may be reduced by appending zeros to the sides of the box, thus providing the dipping energy with a place to go. This is not done but it does not solve the whole problem for two reasons. The first and more basic reason is that some kind of an edge diffraction pattern will be produced. A secondary reason is that the zero padding cannot continue for an infinite distance. A diminishing value-for-cost ratio is that the zeros terminate somewhere beyond the end of the surface, the termination there is a reasonable chance of finding remaining energy which we would prefer to absorb rather than reflect. It is this in which Engquist solved. The main practical benefit is the reduction of one of the number of padded zeros. To understand Engquist's solution we begin with a different problem, which is considerably easier.

Simplest Boundaries for the Scalar Wave Equation

The simplest boundary condition is that a function should vanish on the boundary. A wave incident onto such a boundary reflects with a polarity (so that the incident wave plus the reflected wave will be zero on the boundary). The next-to-simplest boundary condition is the Dirichlet boundary condition. It is also a perfect reflector, but the wave coefficient is $+1$ instead of -1 . Two points at the edge of the computational mesh are required to represent the zero-slope boundary. The most general boundary condition usually considered is a linear combination of function and slope. This is also a two-point boundary condition, so happens that our extrapolation equations contain only a single derivative so that on the z -axis they are a two-point condition. In this, Björn Engquist recognized a new application for extrapolation equations. Many researchers in other disciplines are interested in modeling, that is, evolving forward in time with an equation like the scalar wave equation, say $P_{xx} + P_{zz} = P_{tt}/v^2$. These people usually suffer the consequences of limited memory. Engquist's idea was they should use our extrapolation equation as their boundary condition. Suppose they desire an infinite absorbing volume surrounding the (x, z) -plane. Then they need a boundary condition going all the way around the box. They could use our outgoing wave equation on the top of the box and our incoming wave equation on the bottom edge. These could be handled analogously with an interchange of x and z . This idea was thoroughly tested and confirmed by Robert Clayton. An example of one of his comparisons is in figure 1.

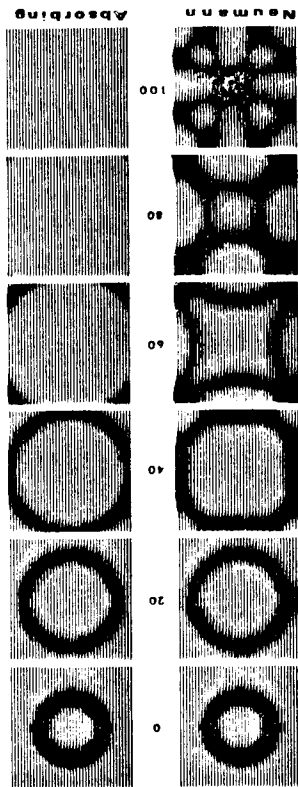


FIG. 1. (Clayton). Expanding circular wavefront in a box with absorbing sides (top) and with zero-slope sides (bottom).

Engquist Side Conditions for the Extrapolation Equations

In data processing we use the extrapolation equation in the interior of the region under study. This is unlike the forward modeling in which the full scalar wave equation is used in the interior and an extrapolation equation can be used on the boundary. The scalar wave equation has a circular dispersion relation whereas the extrapolation equation ideally has a semi-circular one. Reasoning by analogy, Engquist speculated that a quarter-circular dispersion relation might be some sort of ideal side boundary for wave-extrapolation problems. To be more specific and immediately applicable he proposed that the quarter circle be approximated by a straight line. This is depicted in figure 2.

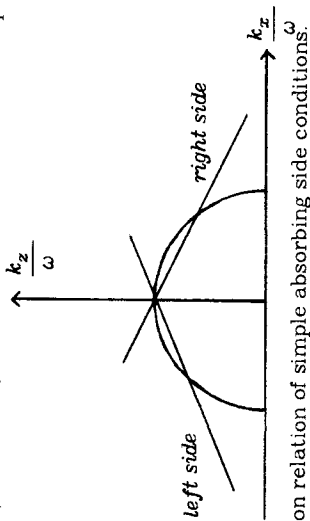
The advantage of the straight-line dispersion relation is that in the space domain it represents a very simple, first-order, differential equation. A first-order equation has first derivatives which can be expressed over just two data points. Thus it can be used as a conventional, two-point, side-boundary condition. The right-side equation on figure 2 defines the boundary dispersion relation D .

$$0 = \frac{vk_z}{\omega} - 1 + \text{const} \frac{k_x}{\omega} = D(\omega, k_x, k_z) \quad (1)$$

z)-space it is

$$0 = (v \frac{\partial}{\partial z} + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \text{const} \frac{\partial}{\partial x}) P \quad (2)$$

At time, $\partial/\partial z$ may be eliminated with the interior equation.



Dispersion relation of simple absorbing side conditions.

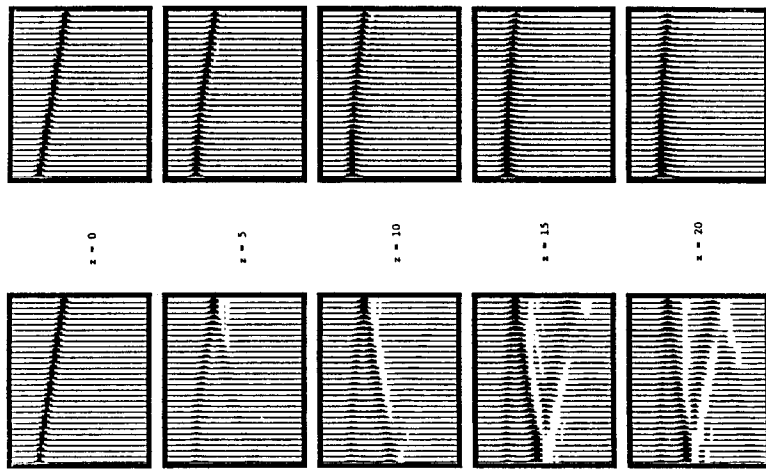
mathematical point of view which is non-physical is to imagine peculiar physics which prescribe that the physical equation which in some region is just that which has the dispersion relation of absorbing side condition. Aside this fictitious region is another in the extrapolation equation applies. At the point of contact the boundary reflections occur where the two dispersion relations are a good fit over the range of angles of interest. A nice example of boundary absorption for the diffraction equation is shown in figure 3, a reproduction of a result of Clayton in SEP-10, p 24.

The Reflection Coefficient

As look at some of the details of the reflection coefficient calculation, a mathematical expression for a unit amplitude monochromatic wave incident on the side boundary superposed with a reflected wave of magnitude c is given by

$$P(x, z) = e^{-i\omega t + ik_x x} \left[e^{+ik_z z} + c e^{-ik_z z} \right] \quad (3)$$

FIG. 2



"Reflecting Sides" "Absorbing Sides"

FIG. 3. (Clayton) A comparison of zero-slope side conditions versus absorbing sides. In this figure it is the diffraction equation, not the migration equation, which is used. The first arriving energy is drifting rightward and being absorbed at the right boundary. No energy enters at the left boundary. So we see a weakening diffraction on the left. On the right the amplitudes appear unchanged because each trace is rescaled to unit amplitude for display.

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ation (3) we understand ω and k_x to be arbitrary and k_z to be determined from ω and k_x by the dispersion relation (2) which represents the interior solution of the wave equation. Assuming $\partial/\partial x$ on the reflected wave, and $\partial/\partial z$ on the incident wave, $\partial/\partial z$ converted to ik_z . The second term in (3) produces the dispersion relation $D(\omega, k_x, k_z)$, times P . The first term in (3) produces the dispersion relation $D(\omega, k_x, k_z)$, times c .

$$c = \frac{-D(\omega, k_x, k_z)}{D(\omega, -k_x, k_z)}$$

use of zero reflection arises when the interior equation at (ω, k_x) and the dispersion relation D of the side. We try to match the quarter circle numerical value of k_z happens also to satisfy boundary condition. That is, we can. You can relation corresponds to a relation which is expressible with an extra parameter b_3 which fits even better.

$$D(\omega, k_x, k_z) = \left[1 - b_3 \frac{vk_z}{\omega} \right] \left[b_1 - b_2 \frac{vk_x}{\omega} \right]$$

choice was considered in more detail by Claerbout and Clayton in their paper is side condition.

and Clayton established absorption boundaries for the 15° equation including the framework of the Muir impedance. Unfortunately an air-tight analysis of the stability has been established for the stability of absorbing the stability analysis may even be done. Consequently I don't know if the 45° equation. I'd like to see a pure speculation. It has always will.

4.5 Stretching Tricks

Stretching tricks enable Fourier analysis to work, at least approximately. I've never really been too interested in this myself, so I'll do a lousy job of presenting it. Since it might be useful in practice, I'll give you the idea, and point to the references.

Gazdag's Method for V(x) not here yet

Stolt's Stretch not here yet

define $U(Z)$ by $U(Z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} u_n Z^n$. Notice that this range includes $Z=0$ and $Z=\infty$. More generally, $U(Z)$ is causal if $u_n = 0$ for $n < 0$.

It is not difficult to prove that $U(Z)$ is causal if and only if $U(Z)$ has no poles in the region $|Z| < 1$. Let us have a look at the terms of $U(Z)$. Let us take a pie and divide it into two eighths. Then take one eighth and divide it into two eighths. No matter how many times we do this, we will always have a finite number of pieces.

Let us say that the sum of the terms of $U(Z)$ are called absolute convergence. Then let us say that the sum of the terms of $U(Z)$ are called absolute convergence. Then let us say that the sum of the terms of $U(Z)$ are called absolute convergence.

Of course this does not prove that one equals zero. Another infinite series where it is perfectly clear that the terms do not go to zero is $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 1/n$. Then let one of the halves be divided into two quarters. Continue likewise. The matter how the pie is divided into quarters and eighths are rearranged, they should still be the same.

The danger of the finite series is not they have terms that may sum to infinity. Safety is in the absolute values of the terms is finite. Such a series is called absolutely convergent.

Z transform

The Z transform of an arbitrary function x_t is $X(Z) = \sum_{t=-\infty}^{\infty} x_t Z^{-t}$. Give Z the physical interpretation of time shift by Z^{-1} . $X(Z)$ and $X(Z^{-1})$ are time units. Expressions like $X(Z) = \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} x_t Z^{-t}$ are useful because they imply convergence of the series for $|Z| > 1$.

Going on to consider numerical values for the $X(Z)$ series. We should ask whether $X(Z)$ is finite for all values of Z . We should ask whether $X(Z)$ is finite for all values of Z . We should ask whether $X(Z)$ is finite for all values of Z . We should ask whether $X(Z)$ is finite for all values of Z .

Wave-Field Extrapolation. The common feature of these processes rarely is much attention to the physical equations. The common feature of these processes rarely is much attention to the physical equations. The common feature of these processes rarely is much attention to the physical equations.

Quite the opposite of the above is the case where we learn some stability algorithm (e.g., modularly, etc.). In any practical situation of the above, two series are usually in case we learn some stability algorithm (e.g., modularly, etc.).

To prove them thus: $1, -1, +1, -1, +1, \dots$

- 1) Mathematical may be used
- 2) Approximate range of in

Wave-Field Extrapolation. The common feature of these processes rarely is much attention to the physical equations. The common feature of these processes rarely is much attention to the physical equations.

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Wave-Field Extrapolation. The common feature of these processes rarely is much attention to the physical equations. The common feature of these processes rarely is much attention to the physical equations.

1 SEP-24, p 310-330.

$|Z| \leq 1$.

Now consider an example from time-series analysis. The expression $1/(1-2Z)$ can be expanded into powers of Z in (at least) two different ways. We have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{1-2Z} &= 1 + 2Z + 4Z^2 + 8Z^3 + \dots \\ &= -\frac{1}{2Z} \frac{1}{1-\frac{1}{2Z}} = -\frac{1}{2Z} \left[1 + \frac{1}{2Z} + \frac{1}{4Z^2} + \dots \right] \end{aligned}$$

Which of these two infinite series is convergent depends on the magnitude of Z . For $|Z|=1$ the first series is divergent, but the second converges. So the only acceptable filter is *anticausal*. Can we say that series expansion is unique? To do so, we must demand that it converges. Complex-variable theory goes into this with greater depth.

Now go a little further and define an inverse filter $A(Z)=1/Z$. It is clear we have seen that whether $A(Z)$ is causal is a question of whether it converges *everywhere* inside the unit disk. This is really a question of whether $B(Z)$ vanishes *anywhere* inside the disk. For example, at $Z=1/2$, $B(Z)=1-2Z$ vanishes at $Z=1/2$. There $A(Z)=1/B(Z)$ must go to infinity, that is to say, the series $A(Z)$ must be non-convergent. $Z=1/2$. So a_t would be non-causal. A most interesting case, however, is *minimum phase* is when both a filter $B(Z)$ and its inverse are causal. In summary

<i>causal</i>	$ B(Z) < \infty$ for $ Z \leq 1$
<i>causal inverse</i>	$ 1/B(Z) < \infty$ for $ Z \leq 1$
<i>minimum phase</i>	<i>both above conditions</i>

Review of Impedance Filters

Use Z -transform notation to define a filter $R(Z)$, its input X and output $Y(Z)$. Then

$$Y(Z) = R(Z)X(Z)$$

The filter $R(Z)$ is said to be *causal* if the series representation of R has no negative powers of Z . In other words, y_t is determined by x_t and past values of x_t .

ally, the filter $R(Z)$ will be a power series in Z . This means that y_t is determined by x_t and past values of x_t .

present and past values of x_t . Addition of a *minimum phase* filter $1/R(Z)$ has no negative powers of Z and can be determined from present and past values of x_t by straightforward polynomial division in Z .

$$X(Z) = \frac{Y(Z)}{R(Z)} = \sum_t \text{voltage} \times \text{current}$$

Given that $R(Z)$ is already minimum phase, additionally it can be represented by an impedance function if positive energy or work is represented by

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \leq \text{work} &= \sum_t \text{force} \times \text{velocity} = \sum_t \left[Y(Z) + \bar{Y}\left(\frac{1}{Z}\right) X(Z) \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_t (\bar{x}_t y_t + \bar{y}_t x_t) \\ &= \text{coef of } Z^0 \text{ of } \left[\bar{X} \left\{ = \int \bar{X} X \text{Re}(R) d\omega \right. \right. \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \text{Re}(\bar{X} Y) d\omega \\ &= \int \text{Re}(\bar{X} R X) d\omega \end{aligned}$$

located at any ω , it therefore follows that $\text{Re}[R(\omega)] \geq 0$ for all real ω .

In summary,

<i>impedance function:</i>	
$ R(Z) < \infty$ for $ Z \leq 1$	
<i>causality</i>	$r_t = 0$ for $t < 0$
<i>causal inverse</i>	$ 1/R(Z) < \infty$ for $ Z \leq 1$
<i>dissipates energy</i>	$\text{Re}[R(\omega)] \geq 0$ for real ω

Since $\bar{X}X$ could be an impulse function, it follows that $\text{Re}[R(\omega)] \geq 0$ for all real ω .

<i>Conditions for a function to be an impedance function:</i>	
<i>causality</i>	$r_t = 0$ for $t < 0$
<i>causal inverse</i>	$ 1/R(Z) < \infty$ for $ Z \leq 1$
<i>dissipates energy</i>	$\text{Re}[R(\omega)] \geq 0$ for real ω

Adding an impedance function to its purely positive function (imaginary part is zero) like a power spectrum, say

$$\left[r_0 + r_1 Z + r_2 Z^2 + \dots \right] + \left[\bar{r}_0 + \bar{r}_1 \frac{1}{Z} + \bar{r}_2 \frac{1}{Z^2} + \dots \right] \geq 0 \text{ for real } \omega$$

$$R(Z) + \bar{R}\left(\frac{1}{Z}\right) \geq 0 \text{ for } |Z| \leq 1$$

which is the basis for the statement that "the impedance time function is one side of an autocorrelation function."

Impedances also arise in economic theory where X and Y are price and sales volume. Then I suppose that the positivity of the impedance means that in the game of buying and selling you are bound to lose!

Causal Integration

Begin with a time function p_t . We define its Z -transform by

$$P(Z) = \dots p_{-2}Z^{-2} + p_{-1}Z^{-1} + p_0 + p_1Z + p_2Z^2 + \dots$$

Define an operator $-i\omega\Delta t$ by

$$\frac{1}{-i\omega\Delta t} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1+Z}{1-Z}$$

We define another time function q_t with Z -transform $Q(Z)$ by applying the operator to P

$$Q(Z) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1+Z}{1-Z} P(Z)$$

Multiply both sides by $(1-Z)$

$$(1-Z) Q(Z) = \frac{1}{2} (1+Z) P(Z)$$

Equate the coefficient of Z^t on each side

$$q_t - q_{t-1} = \frac{p_t + p_{t-1}}{2}$$

Taking p_t to be an impulse function we see that q_t turns out to be a step function, that is,

$$p = \dots 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, \dots$$

$$q = \dots 0, 0, 0, 0, \frac{1}{2}, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, \dots$$

So q_t is the discrete domain representation of the integral of p_t from minus infinity to time t . It is the same as a Crank-Nicolson style integration of the differential equation $dQ/dt = P$. The operator $(1+Z)/(1-Z)$ is called the bilinear transform. The accuracy of the approximation to differentiation is seen to be

$$-i\omega\Delta t \frac{1-Z}{1+Z} = \frac{Z^{-.5}-Z^{.5}}{Z^{-.5}+Z^{.5}} = -i \frac{\sin(\omega\Delta t/2)}{\cos(\omega\Delta t/2)} = -i \tan(\frac{\omega\Delta t}{2})$$

We may note that the integration operator has a pole at $Z=1$ which is exactly on the unit circle. This raises the possibility of the paradox of infinity. In other words there are other non-causal expansions too. To avoid any ambiguity we introduce a small positive number $\epsilon = 1 - \rho$. Now the integration operator becomes

$$I = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1+\rho Z}{1-\rho Z}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (1+\rho Z) [1 + \rho Z + (\rho Z)^2 + (\rho Z)^3 + \dots]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} + \rho Z + (\rho Z)^2 + (\rho Z)^3 + \dots$$

Because ρ is slightly less than one this series converges for any value of Z on the unit circle. If we had chosen a small negative ϵ instead of a positive one we would have found it necessary to make an expansion in negative powers of Z instead of positive powers.

Now the big news is that the causal integration operator is an example of an impedance function. It is clearly causal with a causal inverse. Let us check in the frequency domain that the real part is positive. Rationalizing the denominator we have

$$I = \frac{1}{2} \frac{(1+\rho Z)(1-\rho/Z)}{(1-\rho Z)(1-\rho/Z)} = \frac{(1-\rho^2) + \rho(Z-1/Z)}{\text{positive}}$$

$$= \frac{(1-\rho^2) - 2i\rho \sin \omega\Delta t}{\text{positive}}$$

Again it is our choice of a positive ϵ which has caused $1 - \rho^2$, hence the real part to be positive for all ω as shown in figure 1.

As multiplication by $-i\omega$ in the frequency domain is associated with differentiation d/dt in the time domain, so is division by $-i\omega$ associated with integration. People usually associate the asymmetric operator $(1,-1)$ with differentiation. But notice that the inverse to the causal integration operator, namely

$$I^{-1} = 2 \frac{1-\rho Z}{1+\rho Z}$$

$$I^{-1} = 2 - 4\rho Z + 4(\rho Z)^2 - 4(\rho Z)^3 + \dots$$

also represents differentiation, but it is completely causal and not at all asymmetric. In fact, in linear systems analysis this is often the preferred discrete representation of differentiation. As we will see, the construction of higher-order stable differential equations must now be

Clearly both B_+ and B_- are causal another. A minimum phase filter is the inverse. So B_+ and B_- are minimum phase filters.

Theorem 3 refers to the phase angle minimum phase filter. The phase angle of the ratio $[\text{Im } B(Z)] / [\text{Re } B(Z)]$. As arctangent must return to the same value augmented by 2π if the phase curve is not a periodic function of ω , minimum phase function $U(Z) = Z = e^{i\omega}$, not a periodic function of ω even though $B(Z)$ is always causal.

$$B = e^{U(Z)} = \exp \left[\sum_{k=0}^N U_k \cos k\omega \right] \quad (3a)$$

$$= \exp[r(\omega) + i\psi(\omega)] \quad (3b)$$

The phase ψ being a sum of periodic functions of ω , which means that in the phase representing $B(\omega)$ does not enclose the origin.

Now we set out to establish the phase ψ is defined by the arctangent Theorem 4, that the logarithm of a minimum phase filter is a periodic function of ω and form the Z -derivative. But the phase itself would be enclosed the origin. So the phase ψ has a phase equal ω which is its tangent is a periodic function of ω .

$$U = \ln B = \ln \left[\sum_{k=0}^N U_k \cos k\omega \right]$$

$$\frac{dU}{dZ} = u_1 + 2u_2 Z + \dots + \frac{dU}{dZ} = \frac{i}{B} \left[\sum_{k=0}^N U_k \sin k\omega \right]$$

$$= \frac{i}{B} \left[\sum_{k=0}^N U_k \sin k\omega \right] \quad (\omega)$$

actions, is itself a periodic function of $(\text{Re} B, \text{Im} B)$ the curve origin.

$$(4a)$$

$$(4b)$$

$$\frac{dB}{dZ} \quad (4c)$$

$$B(Z) = e^U = 1 + U + \frac{U^2}{2!} + \dots$$

It is clear that no negative powers of Z will have no negative powers of Z . Also to assure us that (2) always converges.

To establish Theorem 2, that the minimum phase, we consider

$$B_+ = e^{U_+}$$

subject to the rules which we will develop for combining impedance functions.

Occasionally it will be necessary to have a *negative* real part for the differentiation operator. This can be achieved by taking ϵ negative which means taking $\rho > 1$ and doing the infinite series expansion in powers of Z^{-1} , that is, anticausally instead of causally. In either case the imaginary part will still be $-i\omega$ but the real part has opposite sign.

Functional Analysis

We will establish, in sequence, the following theorems about exponentials, logarithms and powers of Fourier transforms of filters:

1. The exponential of a causal filter is causal.
2. The exponential of a causal filter is a minimum phase filter.
3. The phase curve of a minimum phase filter does not enclose the origin.
4. The logarithm of a minimum phase filter is causal.
5. Any power of a minimum phase filter is minimum phase.
6. Any real fractional power $-1 \leq \rho \leq 1$ of an impedance function is an impedance function.

To establish Theorem 1 we define the Z -transform of an arbitrary causal function

$$U(Z) = u_0 + u_1 Z + u_2 Z^2 + \dots \quad (1)$$

and substitute it into the familiar power series for exponential

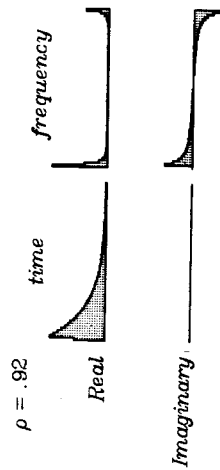


FIG. 1. The causal integration operator I . The frequency axis is represented by discrete Fourier transform over 256 points. Zero time and zero frequency are the origin.

Since we assume B is minimum phase it means that both $1/B$ and dZ on the right of (4c) are causal. Since the product of two causals is causal, we have dU/dZ causal. But clearly dU/dZ could not be causal unless U is causal. That proves it except for the remote danger that B might converge while dB/dZ diverges.

Since B might converge while dB/dZ diverges, we show in Theorem 5, which says that any power of a minimum-phase function is minimum phase. Consider

$$B^r = [e^{\ln B}]^r = e^{r \ln B} \quad (5)$$

Since B is assumed minimum phase, $\ln B$ by Theorem 4 will be causal. For r by a constant r does not change causality. Exponentiating the result, by Theorem 2, that B^r is minimum phase.

Finally we will prove Theorem 6, that an impedance function can be raised to any real fractional power $-1 \leq \rho \leq +1$ and the result is still an impedance function. An impedance function is defined as a minimum-phase function with the additional property that the real part of its real transform is positive. This means that the phase angle φ lies in the range $-\pi/2 < \varphi < +\pi/2$. Raising the impedance function to the ρ power will compress the range to $-\pi\rho/2 < \varphi < \pi\rho/2$. This will keep it causal positive. Theorem 5 states that any power of a minimum-phase function is causal, which is a lot more than we need to be certain that a non-zero power of an impedance function will be causal.

Rules for Compounding Impedance Functions

Because of the difficulties in applied geophysics this is: Results may have limited utility only in a certain limited range of frequencies, and real approximations may be made in that range. But if a spectrum of impedance becomes negative outside the applicable range, say near a quiet folding frequency, then the calculation (by Murphy's Law) is unstable and hence useless. Thus Muir's rules² for compounding impedance functions deserve careful attention. Let R' denote a new impedance function generated from old known impedance functions R_1 and R_2 .

Muir's rules are:

$$R' = a R_1 + b R_2$$

$$R' = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2}$$

Rule 1: Multiplication by positive scalar a

Rule 2: Inversion

² and communication with Francis Muir.

i3: Addition

$$R' = R_1 + R_2$$

Proofs:

- i1: Obviously preserves causality and positivity of real parts of F.T.
- i2: Causality is OK since by definition every impedance is minimum phase. Positivity follows since for any ω we have $1/(\alpha + i\omega b) = (\alpha - i\omega b)/(\alpha^2 + \omega^2 b^2)$.

i3: Causality and positivity are trivial. Proof that the inverse of $R_1 + R_2$ will be causal is a bit harder. Since the real part of $R_1 + R_2$ is positive, its phase doesn't loop around the origin. Thus it must be minimum phase so its inverse is causal.

An abstract though excellent proof of $i3$ is found in complex variable theory. The analyticity of R_1 and R_2 inside the circle implies that the sum is analytic there. Positivity of the real part on the circle and Laplace's equation inside implies that $\text{Re}(R_1 + R_2)$ does not vanish inside, so $|1/(R_1 + R_2)| < \infty$ inside $|Z| \leq 1$, which suffices.

Isomorphism with Reflectance Function C

Given any impedance function R , then the following equation defines an associated reflectance function C

$$C = \frac{1-R}{1+R} \quad (6a)$$

We will see that the reflectance function is also causal and that it is less than unity in magnitude, say

$$|C|^2 = \overline{C} \left(\frac{1}{Z} \right) C(Z) < 1$$

Causality follows because the numerator $1 - R$ is causal and the denominator, being the sum of two impedance functions, has a causal inverse. The product of two causals is causal. That the magnitude of C is less than unity follows from noting that the magnitude of the numerator is less than the magnitude of R and the magnitude of the denominator is greater. Unlike the impedance function $R(Z)$, the reflectance function $C(Z)$ is not necessarily minimum phase. An example is $R = 1 + Z/2$, $C = -5Z/(2 + Z/2)$.

Equation (6a) may be solved for R :

$$R = \frac{1-C}{1+C} \quad (6b)$$

We may now inquire if G_1 is causal and $|C| < 1$ alone will ensure that R is an impedance function and bottom by $1 + \bar{C}$:

$$R = \frac{(1-C)(1+\bar{C})}{1+C|2}$$

$$= \frac{(1-\bar{C}C) + (-C + \bar{C})}{\text{positive}}$$

$$= (\text{real}) + (i\text{mag})$$

Clearly the positivity of the real part is ensured by $|C| < 1$. The causal-ity follows since the numerator of (6b) is assumed causal and the denominator is causal with a positive real part (since $1 > |C|$). In summary, then, equation (6a) will produce an impedance function from any apparent reflectivity function.

Wide-Angle Wide-Root Extrapolation

Example: We may use the causal positive discrete representation of the differentiation operator $s = -i\hat{\omega}$ denoted, say

$$s = -i\hat{\omega}\Delta t = 2 \frac{1-\rho Z}{1+\rho Z}$$

Consider the following recursion starting from $S_0 = s$:

$$S_{n+1} = s + \frac{X^2}{s + S_n}$$

Francis Muir introduced this recursion as a means of developing wide-angle square-root approximations for migration and he developed his three rules $i_1, i_2,$ and i_3 . To see why this works, first note that the denominator $s + S_n$ is, for $n=0$, the sum of two impedance functions. Then its inverse is an impedance function, and s all preserve the properties of impedance and addition of another impedance function. As N becomes large this recursion either converges or it does not. Supposing that it does not, we can see to what it converges by setting $S_{n+1} = S_n = S_\infty = S$.

$$S = s + \frac{X^2}{s + S}$$

$$s + S = s(s + S) + X^2$$

$$S^2 = s^2 + X^2$$

$$S = \sqrt{s^2 + X^2}$$

$$S = s \sqrt{1 + \frac{X^2}{s^2}}$$

In wave extrapolation problems X^2 is $v^2 k_x^2$ where v is the velocity and k_x is horizontal spatial frequency, namely, the Fourier dual to the depth x -axis. The quantities S_n are $i k_z$ where k_z is the Fourier dual to the depth z -axis. The cases $n = 0, 1,$ and higher dual to the desirability of S being positive real is related to the fact that k_z is acceptable for $\exp(i k_z z)$ to decay with z (when k_z is cotively. The growth is almost certainly not acceptable. That it is complex), but

Exact Square Root

The general form for stable extrapolation problems seems

$$\frac{dP}{dz} = -RP$$

where convergence is assured by the positive real part of the function R . In reflection seismology there is great interest in the square-root extrapolation operator

$$R = -i k_z = \frac{-i\omega}{v} \left[1 - \frac{v^2 k_x^2}{\omega^2} \right]^{1/2}$$

At the moment we are disinterested in the space-or dependence of velocity, so we set $v=1$, obtaining

$$R = \sqrt{(-i\omega)^2 + k^2}$$

In (9) we would like a causal representation of the differential operator such as

$$-i\hat{\omega} = \frac{2}{\Delta t} \frac{1-\rho Z}{1+\rho Z} \quad -1 \ll \rho < 1 \quad \text{and } Z = e^{i\hat{\omega}\Delta t}$$

We intend to establish that the following operator is an impedance function

$$R = \sqrt{(-i\hat{\omega})^2 + k^2}$$

First note that $(-i\hat{\omega})$ is causal by (10), which means that $(-i\hat{\omega})^2$ is also causal. Also, k^2 is a delta function at the time origin. Thus R^2 given by (11) is causal. Next, let us look at the phase. Figure 2 shows how the phase of (11) is constructed from its constituents.

Now we have seen that R^2 is causal and from the figure we see that it has a "branch cut" property. That is, the phase of R has the positive real property. Theorem 5 forces R to be causal and minimum phase. That, with the phase defined by figure 1, proves that R , given by (9), is an impedance function. (Muir's proof did not extend to the evanescent region of the square root where the continued fraction expansion is not convergent.)

Fractional Integration and Constant Q

By equation (6) and Theorem 6 we know that fractional powers of integration and differentiation are also impedance functions. In fact, Kjartansson (1979) has advocated the fractional power as a stress-strain law for rocks. The conventional rock-mechanics studies begin with a stress-strain law such as

$$\text{stress} = \text{stiffness} \times \text{strain} + \text{viscosity} \times \text{strain-rate}$$

which in the transform domain is

$$\text{stress} = [(-i\omega)^0 \times \text{stiffness} + (-i\omega)^1 \times \text{viscosity}] \text{strain} \quad (12)$$

Without for the moment considering the physics of the matter, we can consider replacing the arithmetic average of the two terms by a geometric average, say

$$\text{stress} = \text{const} \times (-i\omega)^\epsilon \text{strain} \quad (13a)$$

$$= \text{const} \times (-i\omega)^{\epsilon-1} \text{strain rate} \quad (13b)$$

where ϵ close to zero gives elastic behavior and ϵ close to one gives viscous behavior. The fact that $(-i\omega)^{\epsilon-1}$ is an impedance function meshes nicely with the concepts that (1) stress may be determined from strain history and strain may be determined from stress history, and (2) stress times strain-rate is dissipated power. Kjartansson (1979) points out that $(-i\omega)^\gamma$ exhibits the mathematical property called *constant Q*, so that as a stress/strain law for fitting experimental data on rocks, it is far superior to the arithmetic average. To see the constant Q property more clearly, let us express $(-i\omega)^\gamma$, in real and imaginary parts:

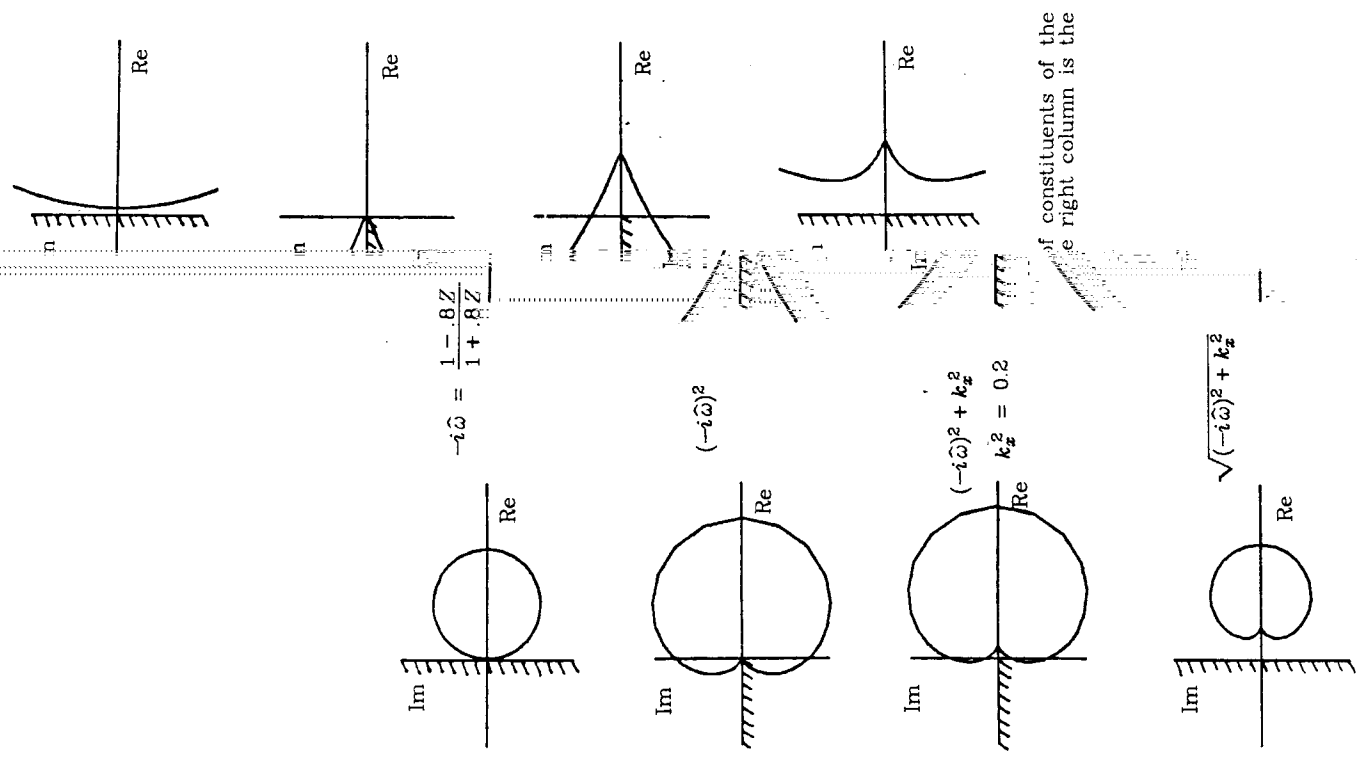


FIG. 2. (Kjartansson) Complex plane diagram extrapolation operator R as given by (11), same as the left column blown up five times.

only that any impedance
ance C_1, C_2, C' , but also that
to three rules for combining

2. The word "isomorphism"

R_1, R_2, R' can be mapped
Muir's three rules will be mean
reflectances.

- a. What are these three rules?
- b. Although $C' = C_1 C_2$ it is obviously true that three rules or concludes not mapped back into the other rule.

3. Consider the fourth-order polynomial equation

$$\frac{dP}{dz} = i\omega \left[\frac{v_1^2 k^2}{8} \left(\frac{v_1^2}{\omega} \right)^4 P \right]$$

- a. Will this equation $-i\omega = -i\omega_0 + \epsilon$? Why?
- b. Consider causal and wave equation. Which, if any,

4. Consider material velocity $v_1(x)$ can be expressed in fact stable 45° wave-extrapolation
causal integration operator,
discrete Hilbert transform,
boundary between two media
different Q is one side of the Hil-

$$\begin{aligned} (-i\omega)^\gamma &= |\omega|^\gamma [e^{-i\pi \operatorname{sgn}(\omega)/2}]^\gamma \\ &= |\omega|^\gamma \left\{ \cos \left[\frac{\pi\gamma}{2} \operatorname{sgn}(\omega) \right] - i \sin \left[\frac{\pi\gamma}{2} \operatorname{sgn}(\omega) \right] \right\} \\ &= |\omega|^\gamma \left[\cos \left[\frac{\pi\gamma}{2} \right] - i \operatorname{sgn}(\omega) \sin \left[\frac{\pi\gamma}{2} \right] \right] \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

The constant Q property follows from the constant ratio between the real and and imaginary parts of this function. This is shown in figure 3.

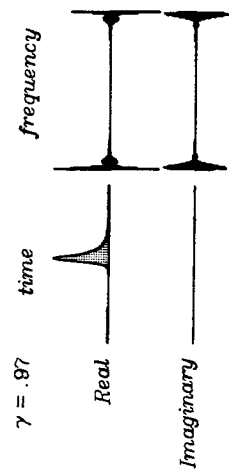


FIG. 3. The constant Q pulse given by $e^{-(-i\omega)^\gamma t_0}$. The frequency axis is represented by discrete Fourier transform over 256 points. Zero time and zero frequency are on the left end of their respective axes.

REFERENCE

Kjartansson, E., 1979, *Constant Q - Wave Propagation and Attenuation*. J. Geophys. Res., v. 84, p. 4737-4748.

EXERCISES

- 1. Take $\epsilon < 0$ and expand the integration operator for negative powers of Z . Explain the sign difference.

stable extrapolation can be assured by preserving certain symmetries. Given the differential equation

$$\frac{dq}{dz} = -Rq \quad (1)$$

and its Crank-Nicolson approximation

$$\frac{q_{n+1} - q_n}{\Delta z} = -\frac{R}{2}(q_{n+1} + q_n) \quad (2)$$

it will be shown that stability is assured in both cases, provided that $R + R^*$ is a positive definite (actually, semi-definite) matrix. In the previous section this subject was developed with the operator R being a scalar Z -transform. There the matter of *causality* receives much attention, whereas here we focus more on the *matrix* character of R . The present section, along with the previous section provides a theory for causal matrix extrapolation that is useful in time-domain migration. Our purpose for this theoretical work is to enable us to write a "bullet-proof" program for migrating seismic data in the presence of lateral velocity variation. As a final example we will see that the familiar 45° extrapolation equation can be put in the required form.

Stability of the Differential Equation

Let q^* denote the Hermitian conjugate of q . For equation (1) to be stable, we require the energy q^*q to be either constant or decaying as we extrapolate in depth z :

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dz}(q^*q) &\leq 0 \\ q^*q_z + q_z^*q &\leq 0 \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

Substituting equation (1) into (3) gives

$$\begin{aligned} q^*Rq + q^*R^*q &\geq 0 \\ q^*(R + R^*)q &\geq 0 \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

Equation (4) shows that $R + R^*$ must be positive semi-definite for the differential equation to be stable, which is what we set out to prove.

¹ SEP-16, p 63-67.

Stability of the Difference Equation

Stability of the difference equation is shown in a similar way, but with some extra clutter. Incorporating some ideas contained in a paper by Bjorn Engquist, we reduced the clutter to what is found below. First observe the identity:

$$(a^*a - b^*b) = \frac{1}{2}[(a+b)^*(a-b) + (a-b)^*(a+b)] \quad (5)$$

Let $a = q_{n+1}$ and $b = q_n$, equation (5) becomes

$$(q_{n+1}^*q_{n+1} - q_n^*q_n) = \frac{1}{2}[(q_{n+1} + q_n)^*(q_{n+1} - q_n) + (q_{n+1} - q_n)^*(q_{n+1} + q_n)] \quad (6)$$

Place the $(q_{n+1} - q_n)$ terms by equation (2):

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\Delta z}{4}[(q_{n+1} + q_n)^*R(q_{n+1} + q_n) + (q_{n+1} + q_n)^*R^*(q_{n+1} + q_n)] \\ = -\frac{\Delta z}{4}[(q_{n+1} + q_n)^*(R + R^*)(q_{n+1} + q_n)] \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

Equation (7) establishes the final result: If the $R + R^*$ is a positive semi-definite matrix, then $q_{n+1}^*q_{n+1}$ is less than $q_n^*q_n$.

Extrapolation to 45-Degree Wave-Field Extrapolation

Our scalar wave equation for extrapolation of a downgoing wave field expands to

$$\frac{dq}{dz} = ik_zq = -Rq \quad (8)$$

where the R operator takes the usual form

$$R = -ik_z = \frac{-i\omega}{v} \sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2 k_x^2}{\omega^2}} \quad (9)$$

To explain now is to approximate the square root by the usual series expansion and then identify ik_x with ∂_x to obtain a space-domain equation. The main effort stems from our refusal to make the usual approximation that $v(x, z)$ is independent of x . Since $\partial_x v$ differs from v in the space representation does not seem to be unique, and we may know the variable q relates to physical wave variables like pressure and displacement. Since (9) is purely imaginary, we will have

infinite. More details may be found in the original reference.

where \mathbf{V} is a unitary matrix that diagonalizes \mathbf{A} . The eigenvalues of \mathbf{A} are the diagonal elements of \mathbf{D} .

(13)

$\mathbf{R} + \mathbf{R}^* = \mathbf{V}^{-1/2} (\mathbf{M} + \mathbf{M}^*) \mathbf{V}^{-1/2}$

where \mathbf{M} is a real symmetric matrix whose eigenvalues are the eigenvalues of \mathbf{R} .

Since \mathbf{M} is real symmetric, it is possible to find a unitary matrix \mathbf{U} such that

the diagonal matrix \mathbf{D} commutes with \mathbf{V} . (A hazard in this kind of effort is that \mathbf{V} and \mathbf{D} do not commute with the diagonal matrix \mathbf{V} .) The matrix \mathbf{M} has the same eigenvalues as \mathbf{R} since a basic matrix theorem states that the eigenvalues of a polynomial of a real symmetric matrix are the polynomial of the eigenvalues. In other words, replacing \mathbf{T} in (12) by one of the eigenvalues of \mathbf{R} produces a complex \mathbf{M} whose real part is positive so long as \mathbf{R} is positive as required. What we need to show is that the form $\mathbf{R} + \mathbf{R}^*$ is positive definite.

$$\mathbf{R} + \mathbf{R}^* = \mathbf{V}^{-1/2} (\mathbf{M} + \mathbf{M}^*) \mathbf{V}^{-1/2}$$

is positive definite if for arbitrary \mathbf{x} , the scalar $\mathbf{x}^* \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$ is positive. The diagonal matrix $\mathbf{V}^{-1/2}$ can certainly be absorbed into \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{x} will be arbitrary, so the proof is complete.

Actually it is a nuisance to put $\mathbf{V}^{-1/2}$ on each side of $\mathbf{M} + \mathbf{M}^*$. Actually you can put \mathbf{V}^{-1} on either side. In general, a symmetric matrix can be written in the form $\mathbf{U} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{U}^*$ where \mathbf{U} is strictly positive definite and \mathbf{D} is diagonal. This is the spectral theorem.