

Imaging a near-surface feature using cross-correlation analysis of multi-channel surface wave data

Kevin Samyn, Adnand Bitri, Gilles Grandjean

▶ To cite this version:

Kevin Samyn, Adnand Bitri, Gilles Grandjean. Imaging a near-surface feature using cross-correlation analysis of multi-channel surface wave data. Near Surface Geophysics, 2013, 11 (1), pp.1-10. 10.3997/1873-0604.2012007. hal-00687133

HAL Id: hal-00687133 https://brgm.hal.science/hal-00687133

Submitted on 12 Apr 2012

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

1	Imaging a near-surface feature using cross-correlation analysis of multi-
2	channel surface wave data
3	
4	K. Samyn ^{1*} , A. Bitri ¹ , G. Grandjean ¹
5	¹ BRGM, Bureau de recherches géologiques et minières, French Geological
6	Survey, Risks Department, France
7	
8	*Corresponding author:
9	Kévin SAMYN
10	BRGM, Risks Department
11	3 Avenue Claude Guillemin BP36009 45060 Orléans Cedex 2, France.
12	Tel.: +33 (0)2 38 64 34 54.
13	Fax: +33 (0)2 38 64 36 89.
14	E-mail address: <u>k.samyn@brgm.fr</u>

17 Abstract

In this study, we demonstrate that cross-correlation gathers of multi-channel 18 and multi-shot configurations provide accurate estimations of shear wave 19 20 velocity (VS) perturbations from Rayleigh wave data for the reconstruction of 21 two-dimensional (2D), high-resolution velocity distributions without requiring the systematic calculation of surface wave dispersions, as in the spectral analysis 22 of surface waves (SASW). Data acquisition for cross-correlation analysis is 23 similar to that for a 2D seismic common midpoint reflection survey. The data 24 25 processing involved is similar to the coda wave interferometry used for seismological data but differs in the sense that the cross-correlation of the 26 original waveform is calculated for active source seismic data. Data processing 27 28 in cross-correlation analysis consists of the following three steps: First, crosscorrelations are calculated for every trace in each shot gather with the same 29 offset trace as a reference shot to flatten the linearly sloping events of surface 30 waves. A common receiver location stack section can then be obtained, which 31 allows for the assessment of lateral variations in the elastic properties of the 32 33 medium. Second, the maxima of the time-shifted cross-correlation gathers and the maxima of the shot gathers' envelope traces are picked for different 34 frequencies, and trace values having the same receiver location are averaged 35 to calculate Vs perturbations, as described in the theory of coda wave 36 interferometry. Finally, a 2D Vs profile is reconstructed by applying the lateral 37 Vs perturbation to a homogeneous Vs velocity profile obtained by inversion of 38 39 the surface wave dispersion of the reference shot gather. Analyses of waveform

data from numerical modelling and field observations indicate that this new
method is valid and greatly improves the accuracy and resolution of nearsurface imagery using surface waves and reconstructed subsurface velocity
distributions compared with a conventional SASW or multi-channel application.

44

45 Keywords

46 surface wave, cross-correlation, shear-wave velocity (Vs)

48 Introduction

49

The delineation of shear wave velocity (Vs) structures down to a depth of 50 approximately 30 m is of fundamental interest in engineering and environmental 51 problems. P-wave and S-wave (PS) velocity logging has been adopted for this 52 purpose for a number of years. The expense of drilling a borehole and operating 53 a logging tool has led to a demand for more convenient methods for 54 determining shallow surface wave structures. It is well known that the dispersion 55 of the phase velocities of surface waves is mainly determined by the ground 56 57 structure. The use of surface waves for near-surface delineation has been the subject of many studies in the past decade. For example, the spectral analysis 58 of surface waves (SASW) has been used for the determination of 1D Vs 59 60 structures down to a depth of 100 m (Nazarian et al. 1983; Stokoe et al. 1989; Grandjean and Bitri 2006). The majority of the surface wave methods described 61 to date employ a shaker or a vibrator as a wave source and exploit calculated 62 phase differences between two receivers using a simple cross-correlation 63 technique. Park et al., 1998a and Debeglia et al. (2006) also discuss the 64 65 feasibility of detecting near-surface features using dynamic linear moveout (dlmo) for surface wave imagery. A multi-channel analysis of surface waves 66 (MASW) has been proposed by several authors (Song et al. 1989; Park et al. 67 1999a; Xia et al. 1999). This method determines phase velocities directly from 68 multi-channel surface wave data after applying an integral transformation to the 69 frequency-domain waveform data. The integration directly converts time-domain 70 71 waveform data (time-distance) into an image of phase velocity versus frequency

(c-f). Hayashi et al. (2004) show that the accuracy and resolution of (c-f) 72 images can be improved using common mid-point (CMP) cross-correlation 73 74 analysis of multi-channel surface wave data. The MASW method is more effective than the SASW method because MASW allows the fundamental mode 75 of Rayleigh wave dispersion to be distinguished visually from body waves and 76 from higher modes of the Rayleigh waves. Additionally, the MASW method 77 avoids spatial aliasing, which is a problem in the SASW method (Foti et al. 78 2001; Neducza 2007). Xia et al. (2005) and Miller et al. (1999) applied the 79 MASW method to continuous-profiling shot records and delineated 2D Vs 80 structures and their resolution to determine phase velocities at low frequencies. 81 82 Importantly, Park et al. (1999a) noted that it is essential for the MASW method to use a receiver array that is as long as is practical. However, a longer receiver 83 array can decrease the lateral resolution of a survey because the conventional 84 MASW method provides a velocity model averaged over the total length of the 85 array. We developed a novel method to address this trade-off. Developing an 86 87 alternative to conventional surface wave methods for the determination of lateral variations in Vs structure required a unique approach based on the multi-88 channel recording of surface waves and a cross-correlation analysis. 89

90

91 Surface wave response to a near-surface feature

92

93 A near-surface anomaly is defined here as a component of the near-surface 94 materials that has elastic properties differing significantly from those of the

95 remaining components, which are termed normal zones. The transition from a 96 normal to anomalous zone may be either abrupt or gradual. During a surface 97 waves survey, a near-surface anomaly leaves a signature of its presence in 98 several forms on a multi-channel recording, the most common form being 99 different phase velocities for those frequencies propagating through or near the 100 anomaly; another form consists of differing attenuation characteristics.

In addition to differing phase velocities and attenuation characteristics, an 101 anomaly may reveal its presence in the form of the generation of higher modes 102 (Bath 1973; Gucunski and Woods 1991), or reflected and diffracted 103 (Yanovskaya 1989; Sheu et al. 1988) surface waves. The generation of these 104 105 higher modes is closely related to the existence of a low-velocity zone underlain 106 by and overlying high-velocity zones (a zone of velocity inversion) (Stokoe et al. 1994), and the energy of the higher modes typically becomes more significant 107 at high frequencies (short wavelengths) (Tokimatsu et al. 1992). Reflected and 108 diffracted surface waves are generated when the transition from normal to 109 110 anomalous zones is abrupt. All of these anomaly signature types may appear 111 on a multichannel record when either the source or the receivers are located at or near the surface location of an anomaly. 112

Theoretically, surface waves cannot penetrate through a void filled with air or fluid because of the lack of shear modulus inside the void. However, considering the retrograde elliptical motion of mass underneath a roll disturbance, the surface waves that penetrate above and below the void with dimensions of elliptical motion that significantly exceed the dimensions of the

void may still propagate horizontally but with altered propagation characteristics
with respect to attenuation, variations in phase velocity, or both.

120

121 Methodology

122

123 Principles

124

To improve the lateral resolution of multichannel surface wave methods, we 125 126 considered the Vs perturbation relative to a reference shot gather through the 127 cross-correlation of Rayleigh wave shot gather data recorded at different positions along a line. Cross-correlation is a standard method of estimating the 128 129 degree to which two series are correlated. The cross-correlation function, $R(\Delta t)$, represents the correlation coefficient between two seismic signals at time t = 0, 130 S(0), and a later time t, S(t). The cross-correlation function can be expressed as 131 follows: 132

$$_{133} \qquad R(\Delta t) = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^{M-m} S_1(i\tau) S_2(i\tau + m\tau)}{\langle S_1 \rangle \langle S_2 \rangle (M-m)} \qquad (1)$$

where m is an integer multiple of a time interval, τ , such that $\Delta t=m \tau$ (where 0<m<M). S₁(t) and S₂(t) are the time-dependant surface wave signals from traces 1 and 2, respectively. Both traces comprise M+1 data points spanning the period from t=0 to t=M τ . <S₁> and <S₂> are the mean intensities of the surface wave signal in traces 1 and 2, respectively. 139 Herein, we compare the surface wave signals. Our goal is to determine whether the two signals are correlated (i.e., fluctuating in concert) or uncorrelated 140 141 (fluctuating independently). In modelling the autocorrelation in time, we assume 142 that the correlation of a surface wave signal with itself decays from a perfect correlation at time zero to no correlation at infinite time. For the cross-143 correlation between two surface wave signals at different locations, assuming 144 seismic source repeatability, near-surface features and near-surface Vs 145 146 structures create perturbations, and the two signals then fluctuate independently; thus, the correlation between them decays at a certain 147 propagation time. 148

Cross-correlation temporally correlates the intensity fluctuations of the seismic traces. In cross-correlation, only pairs of coherent samples from two distinct traces appear as a positive result at time *t*, whereas fluctuations in the surface wave signal created by a Vs perturbation generate a positive result at time *t*+*dt*, accounting for the travel-time perturbation *dt*.

On a simplistic level, cross-correlation analysis is coincidence analysis. The cross-correlation function between traces therefore enables a determination of the manner in which the Vs structure varies in the near surface.

157

158 Data processing procedure

159

A cross-correlation analysis of surface waves (CCASW) is applied to each shot
 gather in the dataset. Data acquisition for the CCASW method is similar to that

for a 2D seismic common midpoint reflection survey. The source-receiver geometry is based on the end-on spread, and both the source and the receivers move up along a survey line. The processing for the CCASW is summarised in the following:

First, cross-correlations are calculated for every trace in each shot gather along 166 the entire seismic line using the same offset trace of a user-selected reference 167 shot gather from the overall dataset, which is considered to be unperturbed. 168 The reference location is a presumably normal zone within the survey line. The 169 170 cross-correlation process allows us to correct for the offset effect and therefore, to flatten the linearly sloping events of surface waves in the same way as a 171 172 dlmo (Park et al. 1998a, b). All of the common receiver location traces in cross-173 correlated shot gathers can then be stacked together. The above procedure achieves the following effects after stacking: 174

• Frequencies that have the same phase velocity as that at the reference location will have large stacked amplitudes due to constructive interference.

For those shot gathers obtained at or near the surface location of an anomaly,
cross-correlation will result in time-shifted stacked traces or weak amplitudes
traces due to destructive interference.

• All of the higher modes will be attenuated through destructive interference due
to their different phase velocities.

• All non-planar, body waves will be attenuated due to destructive interference
because of their nonlinear occurrence on a multi-channel record or because of
wrong velocities used for moveout correction.

• All reflected surface waves will appear as diffractions in the final stack section.

• Random noise will be attenuated.

When the stacked traces are displayed, all of the normal zones will show large amplitudes, and the anomalous zones will be denoted by diffractions, attenuated amplitudes or time-shifted events. Such a stack section is thus a good method to obtain an initial view of the lateral variations in elastic properties along the survey line.

To quantify the observations made on the stack section, we then applied coda wave interferometry to our active source survey, stipulating that a homogeneous relative change in seismic velocity, dv/v, results in a time-shift dt(Snieder *et al.* 2002; Wegler and Sens-Schönfelder 2006) of:

$$_{196} \quad dt = -t\frac{dv}{v} \tag{2}$$

For this purpose, the maxima of the cross-correlated gather is then picked to obtain the travel-time perturbation *dt*, and the maxima of the shot gather's envelope traces are used to obtain the surface wave travel time, *t*. The trace envelope is an attribute of seismic traces computed using the function suattributes of the Seismic Unix (SU) package and corresponds to the envelope amplitude of the trace.

These two variables are inserted into equation (2) to calculate the Vs perturbations dv/v. The Vs perturbations with the same receiver location are averaged. A Vs profile is reconstructed by applying the velocity perturbation

206 model at different frequencies to a homogeneous Vs profile obtained by 207 inversion of the surface wave dispersion of the reference shot gather.

208

209 Numerical modelling

210

Two numerical tests were performed to evaluate the proposed method. Fig. 1 211 212 shows the source-receiver configuration used for data acquisition. Fig. 2 shows 213 the velocity models used for numerical modelling. Both directions of the moving-214 source observations of surface waves on the survey line were tested. The two models are composed of a homogeneous half-space with Vp=1200 m/s and 215 Vs=600 m/s and a low-velocity, vertical and buried defect with Vp=1000 m/s 216 and Vs=500 m/s. The Seismic Unix (SU) suea2df function (Juhlin, 1995), which 217 is based on a stress-velocity, staggered grid, 2D finite-difference method 218 (Levander, 1988; Virieux, 1986), was used for the waveform calculation. 219 220 Synthetic seismic gathers were generated using a zero-phase Ricker wavelet. 221 The finite difference calculation was performed using 321 and 213 0.5×0.5 m cells, respectively, for the x and z axes and 12000 samples with a sample 222 223 interval of 0.1 ms. The synthetic model size was chosen to be sufficiently large to get free from border effects. After the calculations, the data were resampled 224 225 to 48 traces with 1 m spacing and 1000 samples with a 1 ms sample interval and processed using CCASW. 226

Fig. 3 presents a flow diagram illustrating the processing procedure for the synthetic shot gather data obtained through numerical modelling. Fig. 3a

illustrates the cross-correlation operation for selected synthetic examples. The variables dt, t, and dv/v are highlighted in Figure 3b.

Figs. 4a, 4b, and 4c show the resultant stack section and calculated Vs 231 232 perturbation (dv/v) for the vertical defect synthetic model. Evident velocity perturbation artefacts appear on both sides of the perturbation peak according 233 to the direction of the moving-source observation. In fact, when the source 234 location is centred on the position of the defect, the waveform is perturbed for 235 all the shot gathers even when some traces lie outside of the anomaly. To 236 237 remedy this phenomenon, only the maxima of both calculated Vs perturbations (dv/v) of the two moving-source datasets are retained. Fig. 4c shows that the 238 value of dv/v around -20% obtained from CCASW of the whole seismic line is 239 240 coherent with the inferred true Vs perturbation value of -17%, which provides a consistency check for the method. 241

To characterise the in-depth velocity perturbation, a zero-phase, sine-squared, tapered band-pass filter centred on the frequencies 10 Hz to 45 Hz, in increments of 5 Hz, was applied after the cross-correlation analysis. The variables *dt* and *t* were then obtained for different frequencies of the surface wave. A "pseudo-depth" for the calculated dv/v was retrieved considering the approximation of the half wavelength of the surface wave (Wightman *et al.* 2003):

$$_{249} \quad d = 0.53 \frac{V_{ph}}{f}$$
 (3)

where d is the depth, Vph is the phase velocity of the surface wave, and f is the frequency. Fig. 5 shows the 2D Vs profiles reconstructed by applying the calculated lateral velocity perturbation (dv/v) to the homogeneous half space. Here, we observe that the CCASW allows for the reconstruction of the synthetic velocity models used for numerical modelling, and that the buried low-velocity defect is resolved using the frequency-depth conversion approximation.

256

257 Field test: Detection of a buried pipe

258

259 Data acquisition

260

261 Rayleigh wave shot gathers were acquired along a linear profile over a known buried pipe. To increase the speed and efficiency of the data recording and 262 thereby reduce acquisition costs, a multichannel seismic cable was designed 263 and manufactured with 24 takeouts at fixed intervals of 2 m. Each takeout is 264 attached to a single self-orientating, gimballed, vertical geophone with a 265 resonance frequency of 10 Hz. To ensure proper coupling, each gimballed 266 geophone is housed in a heavy casing (~1 kg). To damp the motion of the 267 sensor around its rotational axis, the inside of the casing is filled with viscous 268 oil. The seismic cable was towed behind a vehicle. A 24-channel seismograph 269 was used to record the impacts of a weight-drop electronic seismic source. The 270 source-to-nearest-receiver offset was 2 m, whereas the source stations were 271 separated by 10 m along the survey line. In this way, measurements were 272

273 performed with a recovering distance, as shown in Fig. 1, between each 274 position of the seismic antenna (meaning that consecutive shots have several 275 common geophones) to improve the signal-to-noise ratio in the CCASW stack 276 section.

277

278 Field test: Detection of a buried karst

279

280 Geological setting

281

As a feasibility test of the previously outlined method, an experiment was conducted to detect a near-surface buried karst as an anomaly. The geological information is provided by 3 the geotechnical soundings performed on the investigation site (Fig. 6a):

The levee embankment consists of loamy materials and brown silt. This
 formation extends vertically from the surface to a depth around 4–5 m.

A sedimentary formation is represented by the Loire River sandy
 alluviums and gravels. This formation extends vertically from depths between
 4–5 m to 12–13 m.

The bedrock formation is composed of differentially weathered white limestone and marls that extend to a depth around 13 m. The presence of such easily dissolved bedrock (limestone and dolomite) near the ground surface is characteristic of karst terrain. Because carbonate rocks can be dissolved by

groundwater, karst areas are often characterised by sinkholes, springs, and
underground streams whereby some surface flows are lost to groundwater
(Waltham *et al.* 2005; Halbecq 1996).

298

299 Data acquisition

300

301 Rayleigh wave shot gathers were acquired along a linear profile at the top of a flood-protection levee along the Loire River in France (Fig. 6a). The survey site 302 303 was located in a karst terrain near an area of surface collapses (Fig. 6b), which are among the known subsidence features of karst activity (Waltham et al. 304 2005; Halbecq 1996). The purpose of the survey was to detect potential buried 305 karstic features at the location of the collapse. The configuration used for this 306 field test is the same as that used for the detection of the buried pipe and for the 307 karst investigation in Debeglia et al. (2006); Which one gave good results in 308 detecting karstic features to a depth around 15-20 m Simultaneously, 3 309 310 geotechnical soundings (S1, S2, and S3) were performed with the aim of verifying the validity and accuracy of the CCASW method. 311

312

313 Results

314

315 Detection of a buried pipe

316

A prerequisite to the application of the CCASW to field data was the 317 identification of a reference shot gather that was representative of an 318 319 unperturbed area for the survey line. The first shot gather was selected for the 320 reference as it was situated at a location where no buried pipe was indicated on the pipeline plan. A CCASW stack section was then computed and a 321 conventional dlmo processing (Park et al., 1998a,b) was also applied to the 322 entire field surface wave dataset for comparison. Fig. 7 shows the comparison 323 324 between the dlmo stack section (Fig. 7a) and the CCASW stack section (Fig. 7b). The buried pipe is revealed as a diffraction at X=70 m on both stack 325 sections. The apex of the diffraction appears at the time 0.1 s. Here, we see 326 327 that the CCASW better resolves the diffraction and allows for improved accuracy and resolution compared with conventional dlmo imagery. 328

329

330 Detection of a buried karst

331

A prerequisite to the application of the CCASW to field data was the 332 identification of a reference shot gather that was representative of an 333 334 unperturbed area for the survey line. This selection was realised using the shape of the phase-velocity-versus-frequency (c-f) dispersion images. The c-f 335 images of the shot gathers located near (X=280 m) and far (X=50 m) from the 336 collapse (X=290 m) were then compared for this purpose. The c-f image of the 337 shot gather located near the collapse (Fig. 8b) exhibited the generation of 338 higher propagation modes, whereas this was not the case for the shot gather 339

340 located far from the collapse (Fig. 8a). As noted previously, the generation of higher modes is a good indicator of the presence of a complex medium lying 341 342 below the surface location of the seismic antenna. For this field test, and in 343 many cases, we admit that the generation of higher modes in the c-f image of a shot gather is an inadequate criterion for the choice of this shot gather as a 344 reference. The shot gather at location X=50 m was thus selected as the 345 reference shot for the study. Fig. 9 shows a shot gather located at X=100 m, 346 347 away from the collapse, a shot gather located at 280 m, and the respective results of cross-correlation with the reference shot gather. A perturbation can be 348 distinguished near the collapse on the basis of the time-shifted cross-correlation 349 350 (approximately 0.02 s), whereas no consequent time shift is observed far from the perturbed area. CCASW processing was applied to the entire field surface 351 wave dataset after a zero-phase, sine-squared, tapered band-pass filtering 352 centred on the frequencies 8 Hz to 40 Hz every 2 Hz. 353

We note that this study was conducted in the operational context of a project 354 aimed at assessing Loire River levee integrity over a total distance of 355 356 approximately 70 km, and we thus did not acquire surface wave data in the two directions of the moving source observation. The calculated Vs perturbations 357 358 (dv/v) are then likely to be somewhat distorted compared with their true values due to the effects of moving-source artefacts, as illustrated in Fig. 4. 359 360 Nevertheless, based on the numerical modelling results, we suggest that the general distribution of velocity perturbations constitutes a reasonable first-order 361 362 approximation of the actual situation in the subsurface. Fig. 10 presents the resulting calculated Vs perturbation (dv/v) for the 16 Hz frequency. Here, a Vs 363

364 perturbation (dv/v) of approximately -25% appears between the locations at 250 m and 300 m and almost centred on the location of the surface collapse. The 365 frequency-depth conversion was then applied using the half-wavelength 366 approximation, and a 2D Vs cross-section was reconstructed by applying the 367 lateral velocity perturbations to a 1D Vs profile obtained by a non-linear least-368 squares inversion (Xia et al. 1999) of the reference shot gather dispersion 369 curve. To ensure the correctness of reference shot gather's inversion, the 370 371 authors paid attention to the fit between the observed and computed dispersion fundamental curves as in common practice in surface wave methods. A 372 conventional MASW processing with fundamental mode inversion was also 373 374 applied to the entire field surface wave dataset for comparison. Following the convention, the inverse results for each shot gather were located at the mid-375 point of each position of the seismic antenna. To assess the lateral variations of 376 elastic properties with depth, the CCASW stack section was convolved with a 377 32-s linear sweep with frequencies decreasing from 40 to 5 Hz. This operation 378 379 has the effect of separating the different frequencies of the surface wave. The frequency depth conversion was then applied using the half-wavelength 380 approximation. 381

Figs 11a, 11b and 11c show the CCASW stack section and Vs profiles obtained from the MASW and the CCASW methods. The weathering index (*A-value*) curves obtained from the geotechnical soundings are superimposed on the resulting sections. This geotechnical parameter is defined as follows (Pfister 1985):

387
$$A = 1 + \left[\frac{POi}{PO\max} - \frac{VAi}{VA\max}\right]$$
(4)

where *Poi* is the pressure on the drilling tool for depth *i*, *POmax* is the maximum 388 pressure on the drilling tool during the sounding, VAi is the velocity of the drilling 389 tool as it progresses in the ground for depth *i*, and VAmax is the maximum 390 velocity of the progress of the drilling tool during the sounding; A-values vary 391 between 0 for voids and 2 for highly competent materials. A coherent, weak-392 393 amplitude, low-velocity anomaly (140-300 m/s) that trends north-west from 0 to 394 23 m depth is evident on the convolved CCASW stack and the CCASW Vs profile and is almost centred on the location of the surface collapse (X=300 m) 395 396 (Fig. 11). The attenuation area is likely caused by destructive interference due to the generation of higher modes near the location of the collapse (Fig. 8b). 397 The anomaly decreases in coherence and magnitude down to a depth of 30 m. 398 It is evident that the shape of the anomaly is roughly consistent with the low to 399 very low A-values (0-1) from the S2 and S3 soundings, revealing the presence 400 401 of highly deconsolidated materials. The A-values from S1, showing no dramatic 402 values (>1) of the weathering index, reveal the relative competency of the adjacent areas. The MASW Vs profile shows a vast zone with a lower Vs 403 404 (approximately 450 m/s) between the depths of 20 and 40 m and a vertical shift 405 related to the collapsing feature (Fig. 11b). This shift is likely due to the change in the shape of the fundamental mode in the *c-f* image, which trends towards 406 407 lower velocities in the perturbed area compared with the reference c-f image (Fig. 8). Further the velocity depression of the fundamental mode due to the 408 presence of weathered materials, generated higher modes reveal the 409

complexity of the area near the collapse. Nevertheless, the velocity distribution
obtained using the MASW does not coincide very well with the *A-value* curves,
especially in the 10–20 m depth interval.

413

414 **Discussion**

415

416 The geology of the studied area consists of a levee embankment (brown silt) above a sedimentary formation that is composed of gravels and sand based on 417 a white limestone bedrock. The CCASW stack section and CCASW Vs profile 418 respectively reveal a weak amplitude and low velocities (approximately 140-419 300 m/s) in an area between 0 and 23 m deep at the location X=300 m, likely 420 representing the complexity of the unconsolidated near surface weathered 421 materials. The model presents significantly higher velocities in the adjacent 422 areas. The low field velocities in the CCASW Vs profile likely result from the 423 presence of a karstic collapse below a northwest-trending epikarst created by 424 the flow of sediments into the karstic cavity. The MASW Vs profile shows poor 425 agreement with the actual situation of the subsurface given by the A-value 426 curves, indicating that the CCASW method greatly improves upon the accuracy 427 and resolution of the reconstructed subsurface Vs distribution compared with 428 the conventional surface wave methods with fundamental mode inversion. 429 However, we note that this study considers only the fundamental mode and that 430 the MASW Vs profile resolution could be improved when considering the recent 431 achievements in the accurate assessment of Vs profiles using surface wave 432

methods. For example, further studies should compare the results of the
CCASW method with the multimode inversion results of *c-f* images or joint
inversion using the effective dispersion of surface waves (Hamimu *et al.* 2010).

436

437 **Conclusions**

438

439 The study presents the CCASW method, a novel approach to seismic imaging based on the cross-correlation analysis of multi-channel surface wave data. 440 This method allows for high-resolution surface wav imagery and the accurate 441 estimation of Vs perturbations and enables the reconstruction of two-442 dimensional subsurface Vs distribution with high resolution without requiring the 443 systematic processes of multichannel spectral analysis of surface waves: the 444 computation of dispersion images and the picking and inversion of dispersion 445 curves. The overall performance of the newly developed method in this study, 446 demonstrates that it is a simple, reliable, and very sensitive technique for 447 448 characterising lateral variations in near-surface mechanical properties. This method should be applicable to the detection of a variety of subsurface defects 449 450 (e.g., voids, karsts, or structural heterogeneities). The applicability of this model extends to the characterisation of material properties, integrity assessment, and 451 surface profiling in many types of geotechnical and environmental studies. Our 452 analyses of waveform data derived from numerical modelling and field 453 observations indicate that the CCASW method is valid as an operational 454 sounding method and provides strong inputs for characterisation studies of 455

456 near-surface features that allow for improved accuracy and resolution compared457 with conventional surface wave methods.

458

459 Acknowledgements

460

The study was financed by the French Research and Environment ministry. The authors thank the technicians of the BRGM for acquiring the seismic data. Finally, the authors thank the *Near Surface Geophysics* Editors, Barbara Luke and an anonymous reviewer for their comments and suggestions that led to a much-improved manuscript.

467 **References**

468 Bath, M. 1973. *Introduction to seismology*. John Wiley and Sons, New York.

Debeglia N., Bitri A. and Thierry P. 2006. Karst investigations using microgravity
and MASW; Application to Orléans, France. Near Surface Geophysics 4, 215225.

Foti, S., Lancellotta, R., Socco, L. V. and Sambuelli, L. 2001. Application of FK
analysis of surface waves for geotechnical characterization. Fourth International
Conference on Recent Advances is Geotechnical Earthquake Engineering and
Soil Dynamics and Symposium in Honor of Professor W. D. Liam Finn, San
Diego, California, March 26-31, 2001.

- Grandjean, G. and Bitri, A. 2006. 2M-SASW: inversion of local Rayleigh wave
 dispersion in laterally heterogeneous subsurfaces: application to Super-Sauze
 landslide (France). Near Surface Geophysics, *4*, *215*-225.
- 480 Gucunski, N. and Woods, R. D. 1991. Instrumentation for SASW testing In:
- 481 Geotechnical Special Publication No. 29, Recent Advances in Instrumentation,
- 482 Data Acquisition and Testing in Soil Dynamics (eds. S. K. Bhatia and G. W.
- Blaney), pp. 1-16. American Society of Civil Engineers.
- 484 Halbecq, W. 1996. Approche géomorphologique des brèches dans les levées
- de la Loire (Geomorphologic approach of breaches in Loire levees). Phd thesis.
- 486 Orléans, Université d'Orléans.(in French).
- Hamimu, L., Safani, J. and Nawawi, M. 2010. Improving the accurate
 assessment of a shear-wave velocity reversal profile using joint inversion of the

- effective Rayleigh wave and multimode Love wave dispersion curves. Near
 Surface Geophysics 9, 1-14.
- Hayashi, K. and Suzuki, H. 2004. CMP cross correlation analysis of multichannel surface wave data. Exploration Geophysics 2004 35, 7-13.
- 493 Juhlin, C. 1995. Finite-difference elastic wave propagation in 2D heterogeneous
- transversely isotropic media. Geophysical Prospecting 43(6), 843-858.
- 495 Levander, A.R. 1988. Fourth-order finite-difference P-SV seismograms:
 496 Geophysics 53, 1425–1436.
- Miller, R.D., Xia, J., Park, C.B. and Ivanov, J.M. 1999. Multichannel analysis of
 surface waves to map bedrock: The Leading Edge 18, 1392–1396.
- Nazarian, S., Stokoe, K.H. and Hudson, W.R., 1983. Use of spectral analysis of
 surface waves method for determination of moduli and thickness of pavement
- 501 system. Transportation Research Record 930, 38–45.
- 502 Neducza, B. 2007. Stacking of surface waves, Geophysics 72, V51.
- Park, C. B., Miller, R. D., and Xia, J., 1998a, Ground roll as a tool to image
 near-surface anomaly:, Society Of Exploration Geophysicists, Annual Meeting
 Abstracts, 874-877.
- Park, C.B., Miller, R.D. and Xia, J. 1998b, Imaging dispersion curves of surface
 waves on multi-channel record:, Society Of Exploration Geophysicists, Annual
 Meeting Abstracts, 1377-1380.

- Park, C.B., Miller, R.D. and Xia, J., 1999a, Multimodal analysis of high
 frequency surface waves. In: *Proceedings of the Symposium on the Application*of Geophysics to Engineering and Environmental Problems '99, pp. 115–121.
- Park, C.B., Miller, R.D. and Xia, J. 1999b, Multichannel analysis of surface
 waves. Geophysics 64, 800–808.
- Pfister, P. 1985. Recording drilling parameters in ground engineering. Ground
 Engineering 18(3), 16–21.
- 516 Sheu, J.C., Stokoe II, K.H. and Roesset, J.M. 1988. Effect of reflected waves in
- 517 SASW testing of pavements. Transportation Research Record No. 1196, 51-61.
- 518 Snieder. R., Grêt, A., Douma, H. and Scales, J. 2002. Coda wave
- interferometry for estimating nonlinear behavior in seismic velocity, Science295, 2253–2255.
- Song, Y.Y., Castagna, J.P., Black, R.A. and Knapp, R.W. 1989. Sensitivity of
 near-surface shear-wave velocity determination from Rayleigh and Love waves.
 Technical program with Biographies, SEG, 59th Annual Meeting, Dallas, TX,
 509-512.
- 525 Stokoe II, K.H., Wright, G.W., James, A.B. and Jose, M.R. 1994. 526 Characterization of geotechnical sites by SASW method. In: *Geophysical* 527 *characterization of sites, ISSMFE Technical Committee #10* (ed. R.D. Woods), 528 Oxford Publishers, New Delhi.
- 529 Stokoe II, K.H., Rix, G.J. and Nazarian, S. 1989. In situ seismic testing with 530 surface wave. In: *Proceedings of the XII International Conference on Soil* 531 *Mechanics and Foundation Engineering*, pp. 331-334.

- Tokimatsu, K., Tamura, S. and Kojima, H. 1992. Effects of multiple modes on
 Rayleigh wave dispersion characteristics. Geotechnical Engineering 118(10),
 1529-1543.
- 535 Virieux, J., 1986. P-SV wave-propagation in heterogeneous media: velocity-536 stress finite-difference method. Geophysics 51, 889-901.
- Xia, J., Miller, R.D. and Park, C.B. 1999. Estimation of near-surface shear-wave
 velocity by inversion of Rayleigh waves. Geophysics 64, 691-700.
- 539 Xia, J., Chen, C., Tiang, G., Miller, R.D. and Ivanov, J. 2005. Resolution of high-
- frequency Rayleigh-wave data. Journal of Environmental and Engineering
 Geophysics 10(2), 99-110.
- 542 Waltham, T., Bell, F.G., Culshaw, M.G. 2005. Sinkholes and Subsidence, Karst
- and Cavernous Rocks in Engineering and Construction Series. Springer, UK.
- 544 Wegler, U. and Sens-Schönfelder, C. 2006. Fault zone monitoring with passive
- image interferometry. Geophysical Journal International 168, 1028-1033.
- 546 Wightman, W.E., Jalinoos, F., Sirles, P. and Hanna, K. 2003. Application of 547 Geophysical Methods to Highway Related Problems. Federal Highway 548 Administration, Central Federal Lands Highway Division, Lakewood, CO, 549 Publication No. FHWA-IF-04-021.
- 550
- 551 Yanovskaya, T.B. 1989. Surface waves in media with weak lateral 552 inhomogeneity. In: *Modern approaches in geophysics vol. 9, Seismic surface* 553 *waves in a laterally inhomogeneous earth* (ed. V.I. Keilis-Borok), pp. 35-70.
- 554

```
26
```

555 Figure captions

556

Fig. 1 The source-receiver geometry used in the numerical tests. Both directions of the moving-source observation of surface waves were tested. The shot positions for the gathers shown in Fig. 3 are highlighted.

560

Fig. 2 The Vs models used for the numerical tests. The locations of the seismic
antenna for the gathers shown in Fig. 3 are highlighted.

563

564 Fig. 3 A diagram illustrating the processing of surface wave data. a) Examples of the calculation of cross-correlations from the traces of a perturbed and an 565 566 unperturbed shot gather with the same offset trace of the reference shot gather. In the unperturbed case, the cross-correlations are centred on the time 0 s. In 567 the perturbed case, the cross-correlations show a travel-time perturbation of 568 approximately 0.01 s. b) Illustration of the calculation of the Vs perturbation 569 (dv/v) using equation (2) and the variables dt and t, which are highlighted by 570 white dotted and solid lines, respectively. In the perturbed case, the Vs 571 perturbation is approximately -10% between traces 30 and 48. 572

573

Fig. 4 a) A left-right moving source CCASW stack section for the vertical defect model. b) The calculated Vs perturbations (dv/v) for both moving-source directions. Velocity perturbation artefacts appear on the sides of the perturbation peak; c) The calculated Vs perturbation (dv/v) using only the

578 maxima of the calculated dv/v of the two moving-source datasets. The black 579 solid line marks the real velocity perturbation of the model.

580

Fig. 5 The Vs profiles obtained by CCASW processing of the data obtained through numerical modelling of the synthetic models shown in Fig. 2. The locations of the seismic antenna for the gathers shown in Fig. 3 are highlighted.

584

Fig. 6 a) An aerial photograph of the survey site. The black solid line denotes the seismic survey line near the Loire River (France). The red dots mark the locations of the geotechnical soundings (S1, S2 and S3). b) A photograph of the collapse at the top of the flood-protection levee.

589

Fig. 7. A comparison of the a) dlmo stack section and b) CCASW stack section computed for field data recorded over the buried pipe. Here, we see that the diffraction due to the buried pipe is better resolved by the CCASW stack section.

594

Fig. 8 A comparison of the *c-f* images of shot gathers located a) far from (X=50 m) and b) near (X=280 m) the collapse (X=290 m). The reverse triangle marks the location of the surface collapse, and the black solid and black dotted lines respectively indicate the fundamental and higher propagation modes of the surface waves. The c-f image of the shot gather located near the collapse exhibits the generation of higher propagation modes, although this is not the

case for the shot gather located far from the collapse. The shot gather at X=50
m was selected as the reference shot for the study. The shot positions of the
gathers shown in Fig. 9 are highlighted.

604

Fig. 9 The calculation of cross-correlations from traces of the unperturbed shot gather (located at X=100 m) and the perturbed shot gather (located at X=280 m, near the location of the collapse at X=290 m) with the same offset trace from the reference shot gather (located at X=50 m). In the unperturbed case, the cross-correlations are centred on the time 0 s. In the perturbed case, the crosscorrelations show a travel-time perturbation of approximately 0.02 s.

611

Fig. 10 The calculation of Vs perturbations (dv/v) using Equation (2) for the entire field surface wave dataset and for the 16 Hz frequency. A Vs perturbation of approximately -20% appears in the area surrounding the collapse.

615

Fig. 11 a) The convolved CCASW stack section. b) Vs profile defined by the 616 MASW method. c) Vs profile defined by the CCASW method. The A-value 617 curves overlay the profiles as solid black lines. The triangle marks the location 618 of the surface collapse. The area of attenuated amplitudes in the convolved 619 CCASW stack section is outlined by the dotted black line overlaying the Vs 620 profiles. Here, it is evident that the shape of the weak-amplitude area on the 621 CCASW stack section matches well with the low-velocity anomaly in the 622 CCASW Vs profile. 623

624



626 Figure. 1



628 Figure. 2







632 Figure. 4



634 Figure. 5







638 Figure. 7



640 Figure. 8



642 Figure. 9









