Laboratory measurement of dispersion and attenuation in the seismic frequency
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Summary
We have continuously made progress in dispersion/attenuation study in laboratory measurement. We calibrated the lab low frequency measurement system for velocity dispersion and wave attenuation. And we test the system by measuring some dry samples, which shows our system can produce repeatable and reasonable result. Currently, we’re conducting the system calibration with confining pressure and pore pressure under different saturation.

Introduction
Dispersion is the variation of velocity with frequency, whereas attenuation is the loss of wave amplitudes with distance. The details in dispersion and attenuation depend on the rock microstructure, larger-scale geology, and fluids. In past decade, we saw continuous progress in theoretical study of seismic wave attenuation and dispersion in reservoir rocks. (Muller 2010, Tang 2011, Gurevich 2011).

There are three reasons that a low frequency measurement system is essential to the study of velocity dispersion and attenuation. First, the traditional laboratory measurements of the velocities in reservoir rocks are conducted in MHz frequency range. Sonic well logs are in 10 kHz and surface seismic in several Hz to hundred Hz. Low frequency measurement can help integrate all kinds of data satisfying today’s challenging exploration. Second, it can verify various dispersion and attenuation mechanisms and proposed model, which can expand the understanding of rock properties. Also, recent theoretical works reveal that the dispersion and attenuation in reservoir rock is closely related to the interaction between pore fluid and rock frame. It’s necessary to collect sufficient lab test results to establish some robust relationships that can serve as fluid indicator.

Progress in laboratory measurement of the dispersion and attenuation in seismic frequency is still in primary stage in terms of quality of the data produced. This is due to two factors. First, different techniques cover different frequency ranges, none of them can fully cover seismic to ultrasonic range. Second, in the most used method, force-deformation method, S/N ratio is too small and thus data is not stable and repeatable. Meanwhile, lack of calibration on system errors prevent us from being confident with the data.

Our recent effort on improving the quality data of low frequency measurement includes two corresponding two aspects: enhancement of S/N signal and result verification, which also can help extend the measurement frequency range. And testing measurements show very good repeatability.

Low frequency measurement system and principles
From Fig.1, the system consists of three parts, platen, measurement column and PZT actuator. The hydraulic pressure on the upper platen can help make the whole column tighter and thus stress on the column is uniform. The PZT actuator vibrate as a sine function with different frequency. It can provide a much higher force than a coil-magnet pair vibrator and the strain amplitude can easily reach $10^{-7}$ and even $10^{-6}$. Furthermore, the standard is repeatedly used, which can make data from different sample comparable. On the other hand, by using different standards, we can compare the data of same sample.

The standard core plug is stacked with the rock sample, and the strain of the standard and sample core are measured. Since the standard and rock sample are subject to the same stress field, the ratio of their strains should be equal to the reverse ratio of their Young’s modulus. In our system, solid Aluminum core and hollow Titanium core are used as the standard, whose Young’s modulus are respectively 69 GPa and 17.8 GPa. Applying the vertical stress with specified frequency on the measurement column, the vertical strain can be used to calculate the Young’s modulus of the rock core plug.

$$E_{sample} = E_{std} \times \left( \frac{E_{std, y}}{E_{sample, y}} \right)$$

The horizontal strain of the sample are recorded at the same time, and Poisson’ ratio can be calculated by,

$$\gamma = \frac{E_{sample, H}}{E_{sample, V}}$$

Also, Aluminum and Titanium can be viewed as pure elastic medium, so the phase of its strain should be equal to the
phase of the stress. Then we can use the phase difference $\theta$ between standard and sample to calculate the inverse quality factor of the rock sample. (White, 1983; Paffenholz and Burkhardt, 1989)

$$Q = 1/\tan(\theta)$$

The next important thing is to install stain gauges on both sample and standard to record the strain at each frequency point. Wheatstone bridge becomes our choice. In the Fig. 3, it consists of two resistors and two strain gauges (azimuth angle 180 degree) with the nominal resistance (at zero strain) equal to the standard resistors. The relationship between strain and output voltage signal, which is recorded in our low frequency system, is

$$V_{out} = V_{ex} \cdot \varepsilon \cdot GF \cdot AF/2$$

Where $V_{out}$ is output voltage, $V_{ex}$ is excitation voltage, $\varepsilon$ is strain, GF is gauge factor, and AF is amplification factor. In the right hand, except for stain, all others are constant in our system, so the stain is proportional to the output voltage, and the strain ratio can be represented by output voltage ratio. In our system, $V_{ex}$ is 12V, GF is 130 and AF is 200, so the output signal is 156000 times as the orginal strain.

As shown in the Fig 4, all 6 channels are displayed, Ch1 and Ch2 are vertical stain signal of the sample, Ch3 and Ch4 are horizontal stain signal of the sample and Ch5 and Ch6 are vertical stain signal of the standard. In reality, the strain ratio is obvious but the phase difference is very small and difficult to extract from data. By using virtual lock-in amplifier, this problem was solved.

**Measurement results and analysis**

Eight samples are measured to test our low frequency measurement system. In all the samples, there are one Aluminum sample, one PEEK sample, one Lucite sample, one Berea sandstone sample, three Mancos shale samples and one Jimsar shale sample. All the samples are vacuumed for 48 hours before measurement. No confining pressure and pore pressure is applied. Plus, two standards made of Aluminum and Titanium are used to measure the samples’ Young’s modulus and Poission’s ratio. Frequency points range from 2Hz to 800Hz covering the whole seismic frequency domain.

First we measured Young’s modulus of the Aluminum sample(69 GPa) to calibrate the system. In the Fig.5, the result from both Aluminum and Titanium standards match the expectation, which shows the stablity and reliablity of our low frequency mesurement system.

The second sample is PEEK, namely Polyether ether ketone, which is treated as elastic in engineering applications. As shown in the Fig.6 we can see the Young’s modulus of PEEK is almost constant as frequency increases; but interestingly its quality factor goes down with the increase.
of frequency. Lucite’s Young’s modulus is in the Fig.7, which increases by 30% as frequency increases from 2Hz-800Hz. This is because Lucite is viscous, which is reflected by its low quality factor.

![Figure 6. Young’s modulus and quality factor of PEEK sample](image1)

![Figure 7. Young’s modulus and quality factor of Lucite sample](image2)

As shown in the Fig.8, the Young’s modulus of Berea sandstone sample has nearly no dispersion but its quality factor goes up as frequency increases.

![Figure 8. Young’s modulus and quality factor of Berea sandstone sample](image3)

Three shale samples from Mancos are measured. V1 is a vertical sample and H2 and H3 are horizontal samples. In the Fig.9, H2 and H3 have no dispersion but V1 has a little dispersion, which is corresponding with the quality factor result. H2 and H3 have higher quality factors but V1 has a lower one less than 50.

![Figure 9. Young’s modulus and quality factor of Mancos Shale sample](image4)
From Fig. 10, we can see an obvious increase of Young’s modulus of Xinjiang shale sample and its quality factor is very low less than 30. One possible explanation is the effect of organic matter inside the rock. Since we have its density, we can translate the Young’s modulus and Poisson’s ratio into P-wave and S-wave velocity. Also, we measured its ultrasonic velocity. From the Fig. 11, the velocity dispersion is very large and the trend of low frequency measurement is consistent with the ultrasonic data.

The last figure is the Poisson’s ratio of five samples, since there is no horizontal strain gauge on Aluminum sample, PEEK sample and sandstone sample. We can notice that the Poisson’s ratio changes little with frequency.

Figure 12. Poisson’s ratio of Lucite, Mancos shale and Xinjiang shale sample

**Conclusion**

To sum up, large stress by PZT atuator can increase the strain amplitude; output signal can be amplified 156000 times as orginal strain with application of high-gauge-factor strain gauge and high-amplication amplifier. The final S/N ratio is essentially improved. Also, the dispersion and attenuation of rock sample can be extracted under the low S/N ratio condition by virtual lock-in amplifier and low frequency measurement software. Meanwhile, the introduction of repeatable standard, we can verify the low frequency measurement result and repeat the measurement to acquire a more accurate result. In future, we’ll conduct low frequency measurement with applying confining pressure and pore pressure under different saturation.

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EDITED REFERENCES
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