Elastic P- and S-wave autofocus imaging with primaries and internal multiples

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ABSTRACT
Conventional seismic imaging methods rely on the single-scattering Born approximation, requiring the removal of multiply scattered events from reflection data prior to imaging. Additionally, many methods use an acoustic approximation, representing the solid earth as an acoustic (fluid) medium. We have developed imaging methods for (solid) elastic media that use primaries and internal multiples, including their PS and SP conversions, thus obviating the need for internal multiple removal and improving handling of internal conversions. Our methods rely on the elastic autofocusing method, which estimates full multicomponent elastodynamic Green’s functions from virtual sources interior to the medium to receivers placed on the surface. They require only surface seismic reflection data and estimates of the direct waves from virtual sources interior to the medium, both of which are commonly available at the imaging step of seismic processing. We tested our methods on a synthetic model with constant P and S velocities and vertical and horizontal density variations, by producing, for the first time to our knowledge, PP and SS images from elastic autofocusing that are compared to reference seismic images based on conventional methods. The effects of multiples are greatly attenuated in the images, with fewer spurious reflectors than are observed when using Born imaging.

INTRODUCTION
Imaging the subsurface of the Earth is an important part of seismic exploration and monitoring. When using standard seismic data that always record multiply scattered wavefields, two different approaches to seismic imaging are identified: those that use only primaries, and those that use both primaries and multiples to form the image. Conventional and commonly used methods such as Kirchhoff migration (Schneider, 1978; Kuo and Dai, 1984; Bleistein, 1987), wave equation migration (Claerbout, 1971; Stoffa et al., 1990), reverse time migration (RTM) (Baysal et al., 1983; Chang and McMechan, 1986, 1994), and least-squares migration (Nemeth et al., 1999) assume that all energy is singly scattered; the data used in these methods cannot contain multiply scattered or multiply reflected waves. Falling in the first category, these methods make use of multiple-removal techniques as a common pre-imaging procedure.

Free-surface-related multiples generate particularly strong spurious structures in images, although their removal is generally straightforward and various methods are available for marine pressure streamer data (Verschuur, 1991, 1992), ocean-bottom cable (OBC), and multicomponent marine steamer data (Ziolkowski et al., 1999; Amundsen, 2001; Majdański et al., 2011). The same is not true for internal multiples, which often require detailed subsurface information for their effective removal. Some methods require a model of the subsurface (Pica and Delmas, 2008), whereas others require manual identification of primaries (Jakubowicz, 1998). Data-driven methods for multiple prediction exist, but each has their own drawbacks. Inverse-scattering-series-based methods (Weglein et al., 1997) accurately estimate the kinematics of multiples, but for their removal, requires knowledge of the seismic source wavelets that must either be recorded or estimated. The common-focus-point method (Berkhout and Verschuur, 2005) requires some manual interpretation of the data. Reshef et al. (2006) offer a method for estimating the kinematics of internal multiples that does not need prestack data but is limited to hyperbolic moveouts. Ikelle (2006) also proposes a data-driven method for internal multiple attenuation, but which needs the user to select time windows containing primaries. Recently, another kind of data-driven method has been proposed, which uses the method of autofocus to predict multiples that must be adaptively subtracted (Meles et al., 2014). Autofocusing is at the foundation of the current paper and is explained below. In the above methods, adaptive filtering and subtraction must
be used, and this may harm the primary energy content (Abma et al., 2005) or it may not remove all multiple energy, and imperfect multiple removal often results in spurious structures in images that hamper their interpretation (Malcolm et al., 2007).

The second category of imaging methods comprises those which use multiply scattered wave energy to create the image, thus bypassing the need for multiple removal. One of the first such methods was proposed by Reiter et al. (1991), which used ray-based Kirchhoff migration to migrate deepwater multiples. Berkhourt and Verschuur (2006) develop a model-independent method to image using any surface-related multiple. Youn and Zhou (2001) devise a prestack depth migration method that used a model-based estimate of the internal multiples. Data-driven methods for imaging using internal multiples include least-squares migration (Brown and Guittton, 2005), interferometric imaging (Jiang et al., 2005), one-way wave equation migration (Malcolm et al., 2009), full wavefield migration (Berkhourt, 2012), RTM for internal multiples (Liu et al., 2011; Fleury, 2013), and generalized internal multiple imaging (Zuberi and Alkhalifah, 2014).

A rather different class of imaging methods that use internal multiples have been developed recently. At the core of these methods is the autofocusing algorithm, a data-driven method to estimate the response of a medium to up- or downgoing sources at any of its internal points. These fields may be used directly for imaging using crosscorrelation or single-channel deconvolution-based imaging conditions, which is called autofocus imaging (Behura et al., 2014; Broggiini et al., 2014a). So-called Marchenko imaging (Wapenaar et al., 2014), on the other hand, uses these fields to redatum the reflection data prior to performing a conventional imaging method such as RTM.

Rose (2001, 2002) first proposed the autofocusing method for 1D scattering media. He showed that it was possible to design incident wavefields that focus at one particular time at any chosen point interior to the medium (and only there): such focused fields then diverge similarly to waves from a subsurface source placed at a focusing location. Rose’s method requires that the scattered field from and to one side of the medium (the reflection response) be known, as well as the traveltimes of a direct wave from the focus point to the same side of the medium. It was subsequently used by Broggiini et al. (2012) for the construction of the Green’s function resulting from a virtual source interior to an Earth-like medium, and extended to 3D scalar acoustic waves (Wapenaar et al., 2012, 2013). As opposed to 1D media where only the traveltimes of the direct wave from the interior point to the exterior is needed, in the general 3D formulation the direct wavefield from the interior focus point to the surface is required. This can be estimated using a smooth, approximate macromodel of the subsurface velocity distribution, an estimate of which is commonly available at the imaging stage. The method also assumes that no free-surface multiples are present in the reflection response, an assumption that we maintain here but that is not an absolute requirement of the autofocusing method (Singh et al., 2014, 2015).

The above autofocusing-based methods are all valid only for acoustic (fluid) media. When used for seismic imaging, the earth is therefore implicitly approximated by a fluid, and thus solid effects such as S-waves and conversions are ignored. Autofocusing has recently been extended to elastic media using two different approaches. One approach uses P- and S-wave measured potentials from P- and S-wave potential sources (Wapenaar, 2014; Wapenaar and Slob, 2014), and another uses velocity-stress recordings from force and deformation sources (da Costa et al., 2014a, 2014b, 2014c). Here, we propose an elastic autofocus imaging method that correctly handles primaries and internal multiples, including converted-wave internal multiples, based on the latter method (da Costa et al., 2014a, 2014b, 2014c). Thus, we extend autofocus imaging to solid media, which is more appropriate than its acoustic counterpart for real seismic field data, especially those arising from land or ocean-bottom acquisitions.

We begin by introducing the necessary components of autofocus imaging theory using full velocity-stress data, and an approximation that uses only single-component velocity data. We then introduce a class of migration using conventional methods and contrast that with autofocus imaging theory. By applying the methods to synthetic data, we then compare their results for PP and SS imaging in a case in which the true subsurface model is known exactly. Autofocusing-based methods are shown to provide greatly reduced energy from spurious reflections and crosstalk, resulting in clearer, more interpretable images.

\section*{ELASTIC AUTOFOCUSING}

In an isotropic elastic medium, with density $\rho(x)$ and stiffness tensor $c_{ijkl}(x)$, an elastodynamic wavefield with particle velocity $v_i(x,t)$ satisfies the following wave equation:

$$\partial_j c_{ijkl}(x) \partial_i v_k(x,t) - \partial_i \rho(x) v_j(x,t) = s_j(x,t). \quad (1)$$

Indices $i, j, k$ and $l$ may be $x$ or $y$ for the horizontal coordinates and $z$ for the vertical coordinate, and Einstein notation is used, meaning that there is an implicit summation over all possible values of indices that are repeated within the same term. The source function can be written as

$$s_j(x,t) = -\partial_t f_j(x,t) + \partial_j c_{ijkl}(x) h_{kl}(x,t), \quad (2)$$

where $f_j(x,t)$ and $h_{kl}(x,t)$ represent external sources of volume force density and deformation rate density, respectively. We define Green’s functions $G$ as solutions to the wave equation in 1 from impulsive unidirectional force or deformation sources in equation 2, and we denote them as $G^{(v^r)}_{(ijkl)}(x,x_0,t) \text{ or } G^{(\tau^r)}_{(ijkl)}(x,x_0,t)$, respectively. The first and second Green’s function superscripts represent the observed quantity and source type, whereas the two subscripts indicate the particular receiver and source components, respectively; its arguments, from left to right, are observation position, source position, and time. For example, $G^{(v^r)}_{(ijkl)}(x,x_0,t)$ corresponds to the $i$th component of the particle velocity measured at $x$ from an impulsive force source at $x_0$ in the $q$ direction. Moreover, stress Green’s functions $G^{(\tau^r)}_{(ijkl)}(x,x_0,t)$ can be defined from the velocity Green’s functions using the generalized Hooke’s law (Chapman, 2004):

$$\partial_j G^{(\tau^r)}_{(ijkl)} = c_{ijkl} \partial_j G^{(v^r)}_{(kl)}. \quad (3)$$

Finally, we will also consider receiving (emitting) P, SV, or SH potentials. These can be obtained from the aforementioned Green’s functions by applying to them the appropriate elastic wavefield decomposition differential operators described by Wapenaar and Haimé (1990), as long as the region around the receiver (source) is isotropic. They will be denoted by receiver (source) type $\phi$ with component $N$, where the latter can take values P, SV, or SH. For example,
the P potential may be obtained by applying the differential operator $(i\omega)^{-1}c_p^2\partial^2/\partial t^2$ in the angular frequency domain, where $c_p$ is the velocity of the P-wave and $\partial^2/\partial t^2$ is the divergence of a vector field.

The purpose of elastic autofocus imaging is to estimate at surface receivers those Green’s functions that have sources at points interior to the medium. Conversely, by reciprocity (Wapenaar and Fokkema, 2006), it also provides the Green’s functions from surface sources measured at subsurface virtual receivers. Consider a point $\mathbf{x}_f$ in the subsurface, and points $\mathbf{x}_0$ and $\mathbf{x}_0'$ on the surface $\partial D_0$, according to Figure 1. To derive a method for recovering the Green’s functions from points $\mathbf{x}_0$ and $\mathbf{x}_0'$ to $\mathbf{x}_f$, we rely on a representation theorem given by da Costa et al. (2014a), which relates the Green’s functions to so-called focusing functions. These focusing functions are solutions of the elastodynamic wave equation defined in a reference medium that is reflection-free above $\mathbf{x}_0$ and below $\mathbf{x}_f$. Their name stems from their property of focusing at a specific location at zero time (see Appendix A). We use one type of focusing function in a version of the representation theorem of da Costa et al. (2014a) that states that the receiver-side $N$-wave potential of a Green’s function measured at $\mathbf{x}_f$ from a force source at $\mathbf{x}_0'$ can be expressed in terms of focusing functions $\mathbf{H}$ and the upgoing fields $\mathbf{G}^-$ at the surface:

$$
\mathbf{G}^{(\phi)}_{(N)}(\mathbf{x}_f, \mathbf{x}_0', t) = \mathbf{H}^{(\phi)}_{(N)}(\mathbf{x}_f, \mathbf{x}_0', -t)
+ \int \int \int_{\partial D_0} \mathbf{G}^{-}(\mathbf{x}_0', \mathbf{x}_0, t - \tau) \mathbf{H}^{(\phi)}_{(N)}(\mathbf{x}_f, \mathbf{x}_0, \tau) d\tau \, d\mathbf{x}_0,
$$

where

$$
\mathbf{G}^{(\phi)}_{(N)} = \left( \mathbf{G}_{(N,x)}^{(\phi)} \mathbf{G}_{(N,y)}^{(\phi)} \mathbf{G}_{(N,z)}^{(\phi)} \mathbf{G}_{(N,xyz)}^{(\phi)} \right)^T,
$$

and

$$
\mathbf{H}^{(\phi)}_{(N)} = \left( \mathbf{H}_{(N,x)}^{(\phi)} \mathbf{H}_{(N,y)}^{(\phi)} \mathbf{H}_{(N,z)}^{(\phi)} - \mathbf{H}_{(N,x)}^{(\phi)} \mathbf{H}_{(N,y)}^{(\phi)} - \mathbf{H}_{(N,x)}^{(\phi)} \mathbf{H}_{(N,y)}^{(\phi)} \right)^T.
$$

This theorem relates the one-sided reflection response of the medium $\mathbf{G}^-$, to the medium response $\mathbf{G}^{(\phi)}_{(N)}$ measured at point $\mathbf{x}_f$ in the subsurface from sources on the surface. However, the focusing function $\mathbf{H}^{(\phi)}_{(N)}$ is initially unknown; elastic autofocus prescribes a way to construct it by iteration. First, adopt the ansatz (or model) for the sought focusing function:

$$
\mathbf{H}^{(\phi)}_{(N)}(\mathbf{x}_f, \mathbf{x}_0, t) = \mathbf{G}^{(\phi)}_{(N)}(\mathbf{x}_f, \mathbf{x}_0, -t)
+ \theta(t + t^{0}_{(N)}(\mathbf{x}_f, \mathbf{x}_0)) \mathbf{M}^{(\phi)}_{(N)}(\mathbf{x}_f, \mathbf{x}_0, t),
$$

where $\mathbf{G}^{(\phi)}_{(N)}(\mathbf{x}_f, \mathbf{x}_0, t)$ is the direct (nonscattered, nonconverted, first arriving) $N$-wave from $\mathbf{x}_f$ to $\mathbf{x}_0$, $t^{0}_{(N)}(\mathbf{x}_f, \mathbf{x}_0)$ is its traveltime, $\theta$ is the Heaviside step function, and $\mathbf{M}^{(\phi)}_{(N)}$ is a scattered coda. Although the inclusion of $\mathbf{G}^{(\phi)}_{(N)}(\mathbf{x}_f, \mathbf{x}_0, -t)$ mirrors time-reversal approaches to wavefield focusing, the inclusion of $\mathbf{M}^{(\phi)}_{(N)}(\mathbf{x}_f, \mathbf{x}_0, t)$ is essential for the cancellation of events that are introduced when propagating the time-reversed direct wavefield through the medium. An extensive analysis of these cancellations may be found in Wapenaar et al. (2014) for 2D acoustic media and in Wapenaar (2014) for 2D horizontally layered elastic media.

According to the analysis in Appendix A, $\mathbf{H}^{(\phi)}_{(N)}$ should be the inverse of the transmission operator. This means that instead of using only the direct (nonscattered, nonconverted, first arriving) $N$-wave followed by a scattered coda, a better estimate would include also forward-scattered converted events. This would also alter the window $\theta$ imposed on $\mathbf{M}^{(\phi)}_{(N)}$ that would have to mute before the first-arriving event, be it converted or not. Wapenaar (2014) analyzes how the lack of these converted events hinders the quality of the focus and its associated Green’s function retrieval. Wapenaar and Slob (2015) show that using the exact inverse of the transmission (including conversions) and the appropriate windows provides an exact reconstruction of the Green’s functions in 2D, layered, isotropic elastic media, whereas omitting conversions causes artifacts. However, due to the difficulty of estimating the conversions without a detailed model of the reflectivity (which we lack prior to imaging), and the fact that most of the transmitted energy is contained in the nonconverted event, we neglect converted arrivals in the transmission operator.

Inserting this ansatz into the representation theorem in equation 4, evaluating the result for times before $t^{0}_{(N)}(\mathbf{x}_f, \mathbf{x}_0)$, and neglecting converted waves that might arrive before the direct wave, all components on the left side equal zero, and we obtain a 3D vector-valued elastodynamic Marchenko equation as

![Figure 1. The conceptual solid-earth model used herein. The boundary $\partial D_0$ is transparent and represents the Earth’s surface, separating the true subsurface from a homogeneous medium above it. Surface sources (and receivers) are represented by $x_f$ and $x_0$, with the arrows representing the direction of propagation of their Green’s functions. The focus point $x_p$ is in the subsurface and the arrows around it show the direction of the upgoing ($G^+$) and downgoing ($G^-$) Green’s functions that arrive there.](image-url)
0 = \int_0^\infty \int_{d\Omega_0} \mathbf{G}^{-}(x'_0, x_0, t-\tau) \mathbf{G}^{0(\phi)}_{(N)}(x_F, x_0, -\tau) d^3x_0 \\
+ \int_0^\infty \int_{d\Omega_0} \mathbf{G}^{-}(x'_0, x_0, t-\tau) \mathbf{M}^{(\phi)}_{(N)}(x_F, x_0, \tau) d^3x_0 \\
+ \mathbf{M}^{(\phi)}_{(N)}(x_F, x'_0, -\tau). \quad (9)

This equation can be solved by a two-step iteration: Initialize a wavefield \( \mathbf{P}^{+}_{(-1)}(x_F, x_0, t) = 0 \) and for \( k \geq 0 \) set

\[
\mathbf{P}^{+}_k(x_F, x_0, t) = \mathbf{G}^{0(\phi)}_{(N)}(x_F, x_0, -t) \\
- \theta(t + t^0_{(N)}(x_F, x_0)) \mathbf{P}^{(-)}_{k-1}(x_F, x_0, -t) \quad (10)
\]

and

\[
\mathbf{P}^{+}_k(x_F, x'_0, t) = \int_0^\infty \int_{d\Omega_0} \mathbf{G}^{-}(x'_0, x_0, t-\tau) \mathbf{P}^{+}_k(x_F, x_0, \tau) d\tau d^3x_0 \\
(11)
\]

It can be shown (da Costa et al., 2014a) that if the iteration converges, \( \mathbf{P}^{+}_k(x_F, x_0, t) = -\mathbf{M}^{(\phi)}_{(N)}(x_F, x_0, -t) \), and consequently, from the representation theorem of equation 4,

\[
\mathbf{G}^{(\phi)}_{(N)}(x_F, x_0, t) = \mathbf{P}^{+}(x_F, x_0, -t) + \mathbf{P}^{+}(x_F, x_0, t), \quad (12)
\]

where we use \( \mathbf{P}^{+} \) and \( \mathbf{P}^{-} \) for \( \mathbf{P}^{+}_k \) and \( \mathbf{P}^{-}_k \), respectively, at the final iteration \( k \) of equations 10 and 11.

Provided that no evanescent waves exist at the subsurface virtual receiver location, \( \mathbf{G}^{(\phi)}_{(N)} \) can also be expressed in terms of up- and down-going fields: \( \mathbf{G}^{(\phi)}_{(N)} = \mathbf{G}^{(\phi)}_{(N)} + \mathbf{G}^{(+)}_{(N)}, \) where the \(-/+\) superscripts indicate, respectively, the up- and down-going components at the receiver location. Therefore, the quantity ultimately recovered from the iteration on the left of equation 12 is the sum of the up- and down-going parts of the Green’s function (where up- and down-going refers to the direction of travel of waves measured at the subsurface location). As shown in Appendix B, a similar iteration can be obtained to recover the difference between down- and up-going fields (see Broginni et al. [2014b] for a detailed discussion on the layered acoustic case). That is, by initializing \( \mathbf{Q}^{+}_{(-1)}(x_F, x_0, t) = 0 \) and for \( k \geq 0 \) set:

\[
\mathbf{Q}^{+}_k(x_F, x_0, t) = \mathbf{G}^{0(\phi)}_{(N)}(x_F, x_0, -t) \\
- \theta(t + t^0_{(N)}(x_F, x_0)) \mathbf{Q}^{+}_{k-1}(x_F, x_0, -t) \quad (13)
\]

and

\[
\mathbf{Q}^{-}_k(x_F, x'_0, t) = \int_0^\infty \int_{d\Omega_0} \mathbf{G}^{-}(x'_0, x_0, t-\tau) \mathbf{Q}^{+}(x_F, x_0, \tau) d\tau d^3x_0; \quad (14)
\]

at convergence, we obtain

\[
\mathbf{G}^{(+)}_{(N)}(x_F, x_0, t) - \mathbf{G}^{(-)}_{(N)}(x_F, x_0, t) \\
= \mathbf{Q}^{+}(x_F, x_0, -t) + \mathbf{Q}^{-}(x_F, x_0, t). \quad (15)
\]

This means that by performing two separate but similar autofocusing schemes, one obtains up- and downgoing Green’s functions at the subsurface location without having to perform an explicit wavefield decomposition:

\[
2\mathbf{G}^{(+)}_{(N)}(x_F, x_0, t) = \mathbf{P}^{+}(x_F, x_0, -t) + \mathbf{P}^{+}(x_F, x_0, t) \\
+ \mathbf{Q}^{+}(x_F, x_0, -t) + \mathbf{Q}^{-}(x_F, x_0, t) \quad (16)
\]

and

\[
2\mathbf{G}^{(-)}_{(N)}(x_F, x_0, t) = \mathbf{P}^{+}(x_F, x_0, -t) + \mathbf{P}^{+}(x_F, x_0, t) \\
- \mathbf{Q}^{+}(x_F, x_0, -t) - \mathbf{Q}^{-}(x_F, x_0, t). \quad (17)
\]

However, because our ansatz of the focusing function does not include converted events, this reconstruction may have minor spurious arrivals as well as incorrect amplitudes of the recovered events (Wapenaar and Slob, 2015). Evanescent fields are also absent from the focusing function because these are not constructed by the above iteration.

**SINGLE-COMPONENT ELASTIC AUTOFOCUSING**

To perform the fully tensorial elastic autofocusung shown in the previous section, one requires not only velocity measurements and force sources, but also stress measurements and deformation sources, which current acquisition technologies do not provide. Provided that the medium satisfies some assumptions of homogeneity at the surface datum in which autofocusing is performed, this requirement may be relaxed and the scheme may only require velocity from force sources. Recent work (Wapenaar and Slob, 2014; Wapenaar, 2014) uses this to recover Green’s function P- and S-wave potentials from potential sources. Here, we consider a simplification that assumes the waves travel mostly in the vertical direction (see Appendix C), and following da Costa et al. (2014b), we propose a single-component approximation to the fully tensorial version of elastic autofocusung. In this formulation, only one component of the measured velocity from a unidirectional force source is used, allowing elastic autofocusung to be applied to OBC or multi-component marine streamer data. For P-wave autofocusung, we use the vertical velocity measurements of the upgoing scattered field at the surface from vertical force sources also at the surface.
Elastic autofocus imaging

Solving for \( G^{-r,f}_{(z,c)}(x^*_0,t) \) when attempting to recover the P-wave potential at subsurface location \( x_F \) from vertical surface force sources \( G^{\phi,f}_{(p,c)}(x_F,x_0,t) \) or vice versa by source-receiver reciprocity (Wapenaar and Fokkema, 2006). In Appendix C, we show that the use of only these components is obtained as a far-field approximation to elastic autofocusing when the medium around sources \( x_0 \) is isotropic with negligible shear strength. We thus derive a Marchenko equation that can be solved by the following autofocusing iteration on scalar \( p \) that is analogous to equations 10 and 11, which define tensorial \( P \) autofocusing as

\[
p^+_k(x_F, x_0, t) = G^{\phi,f}_{(p,c)}(x_F, x_0, -t) - \theta(t + r^0_p(x_F, x_0))p^+_{k-1}(x_F, x_0, -t)
\]

and

\[
p^-_k(x_F, x_0, t) = \int_{d\Omega_0} \int_{t-x_F, x_0} \int_{t-x_F, x_0} G^{-(z,f)}(x^*_0, x_0, -\tau)p^+_k(x_F, x_0, \tau) d\tau dx_0,
\]

for \( k \geq 0 \) with \( p^-_1 = 0 \). An iteration equivalent to equations 13 and 14 for the analogous single-component approximation to \( Q \) autofocusing (here referred to as q autofocusing) is obtained by summing, instead of subtracting, the second term on the right side of equation 18 as

\[
q^+_k(x_F, x_0, t) = G^{\phi,f}_{(p,c)}(x_F, x_0, -t) + \theta(t + r^0_p(x_F, x_0))q^-_{k-1}(x_F, x_0, -t)
\]

and

\[
q^-_k(x_F, x_0, t) = \int_{d\Omega_0} \int_{t-x_F, x_0} \int_{t-x_F, x_0} G^{-(z,f)}(x^*_0, x_0, -\tau)q^+_k(x_F, x_0, \tau) d\tau dx_0,
\]

One may then recover the up- and downgoing Green’s functions with

\[
2G^{\pm\phi,f}_{(p,c)}(x_F, x_0, t) = p^+(x_F, x_0, -t) + p^-(x_F, x_0, t) \\
\pm q^+(x_F, x_0, -t) \pm q^-(x_F, x_0, t),
\]

where we drop the index \( k \) from \( p^\pm \) and \( q^\pm \) on the last iteration.

S-wave potentials in isotropic media obey the same scalar wave equation as P-waves apart from variability in their seismic velocities (Chapman, 2004). We therefore introduce a similar single-component S-wave autofocusing algorithm with the same iterations as above, but instead of using vertical velocity measurements and vertical force sources, we use horizontal velocity measurements from horizontal force sources. Therefore, the expression for S-wave autofocusing is obtained from equations 18, 19, 20 and 21 by substituting \( z \) indices for \( x \) indices and \( P \) potentials for \( S \).

It is relevant to note that the autofocusing algorithm used to estimate the wavefields in this approach looks identical to the acoustic autofocusing algorithm of Broggini et al. (2012) and Wapenaar et al. (2013) that is entirely based on acoustic theory and hence fluid media. However, our approach is based on an approximation of elastic tensorial autofocusing and uses data containing \( P \)- and S-waves obtained from a solid subsurface medium. Although in the single-component approximation in Appendix C the medium was approximated to be isotropic and shearless around the source locations \( x_0 \), no restrictions are imposed on its attributes elsewhere. Thus, the full theory and single-component approximations account for reflections and conversions between \( x_F \) and the surface, and da Costa et al. (2014a, 2014b) show that in practice this even holds to a good approximation if the medium does not satisfy the condition of being shearless around the subsurface sources.

Elastic Imaging

Claerbout (1971) identifies that at points in the subsurface where there are reflectors, the first arrival of the downgoing wave from a source coincides in time and space with the upgoing wave resulting from its reflection (because the former creates the latter). In elastic media, relations between up- and downgoing potentials and a certain subsurface point \( x_F \) have been formalized in several similar ways (Holvik and Amundsen, 2005; Wapenaar et al., 2008; van der Neut et al., 2011). In the latter, we find the following expression:

\[
G^{-(\phi,\psi)}(M,K)(x_F, x_0, \omega) = \int_{d\Omega_F} R^{\phi,\psi}_{(M,N)}(x_F, x, \omega) G^{+(\phi,\psi)}(N,K)(x, x_0, \omega) dx
\]

where \( R^{\phi,\psi}_{(M,N)} \) is the measured upgoing \( M \)-wave potential that would have been recorded at \( x_F \) if there were a downgoing \( N \)-component virtual source at \( x_0 \). In this equation, Einstein’s convention of summing repeated indices is used.

Because the goal of imaging is to estimate the zero-offset, zero-time sample of reflection responses at each subsurface point, i.e., \( R^{\phi,\psi}_{(M,N)}(x, x, t = 0) \), the equation must be solved for each frequency, image point, and source location. Then, all frequency components are summed to give the zero-time sample. To obtain this quantity, the full \( R^{\phi,\psi}_{(M,N)} \) gather must be obtained first. This problem is usually ill posed, as one needs to estimate more quantities (the square of the number of image points) than there are equations available (the number of image points times the number of sources), and thus must be regularized. One way to do so is to consider a joint inversion with other source positions \( x_0 \) in a procedure known as multidimensional deconvolution (MDD) (Wapenaar et al., 2008). This approach has been suggested in the presence of measured borehole recordings to eliminate the effect of the overburden (Wapenaar et al., 2008; Minato et al., 2011). Marchenko redatuming provides estimates of these recordings without the need for measurements at depth and has been pioneered by Wapenaar et al. (2014) and Broginni et al. (2014a). The same is valid for elastic MDD (van der Neut et al., 2011), but this approach has so far not been used in connection to auto-
focusing. A more conventional approach is to use crosscorrelation of wavefields at each image point instead of performing an explicit inversion, and this is the type of imaging that will be used herein.

Equation 23 remains valid if the K-potential is substituted by force or deformation sources. We therefore substitute it with a unidirectional force source in the direction and evaluate the resulting equations for \( M = P, S \) to write the following system of equations:

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
G^{-\phi(f)}_{(P, i)}
G^{+\phi(f)}_{(S, i)}
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
X_F, x_0, \omega
\end{bmatrix}
= \int d\tau \begin{bmatrix}
R^{(P, P)}_{(P, i)}
R^{(P, S)}_{(S, i)}
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
X_F, x, \omega
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
G^{+\phi(f)}_{(P, i)}
G^{+\phi(f)}_{(S, i)}
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
X, x_0, \omega
\end{bmatrix} d\mathbf{x}.
\]

(24)

The crosscorrelational approach consists of left multiplying equation 24 by the Hermitian of the downgoing field and summing over all available sources \( x_0 \) yielding

\[
\mathbf{C}^{(i)}(X_F, X_{F}^{'}, \omega) = \int d\tau \mathbf{R}(X_F, x, \omega) \mathbf{I}^{(i)}(x, X_{F}^{'}, \omega) d\mathbf{x},
\]

(25)

where the correlation function matrix is given by

\[
\mathbf{C}^{(i)}(x, x) = \sum_{n} \begin{bmatrix} G^{-\phi(f)}_{(P, i)}(x, x_0)G^{+\phi(f)}_{(S, i)}(x_{F}, x_0) & G^{-\phi(f)}_{(P, i)}(x, x_0)G^{+\phi(f)}_{(S, i)}(x_{F}, x_0) \end{bmatrix}
\]

(26)

and the point-spread function (PSF) matrix is given by

\[
\mathbf{I}^{(i)}(x, x') = \sum_{n} \begin{bmatrix} G^{-\phi(f)}_{(S, i)}(x, x_0)G^{+\phi(f)}_{(P, i)}(x_{F}, x_0) & G^{-\phi(f)}_{(S, i)}(x, x_0)G^{+\phi(f)}_{(P, i)}(x_{F}, x_0) \end{bmatrix}
\]

(27)

and

\[
\mathbf{R}(X_F, x) = \begin{bmatrix} R^{(P, P)}_{(P, P)}(X_F, x) & R^{(P, S)}_{(P, S)}(X_F, x) \\
R^{(S, P)}_{(S, P)}(X_F, x) & R^{(S, S)}_{(S, S)}(X_F, x) \end{bmatrix}
\]

(28)

The frequency dependencies in the above equations have been suppressed to compact the notation. With elastic MDD, we have to invert the PSF, whereas with crosscorrelational imaging, we simply use the crosscorrelation function as a proxy for the reflection response, i.e., we calculate \( \mathbf{C}^{(i)}(x, x, t = 0) \) as our image at each point \( x_F \). Here, we will focus on the diagonals of this correlation matrix, that is PP and SS images, by defining the following imaging conditions:

\[
I^{MM;ii}(x_F, x_0, t) = \sum_{n} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G^{-\phi(f)}_{(M, i)}(x_F, x_0, t)G^{+\phi(f)}_{(M, i)}(x_F, x_0, t) dt.
\]

(29)

**Reference elastic imaging**

Although the first arrival of the downgoing wave can be modeled reasonably accurately using spatially smooth, approximate estimates of the medium parameters, modeling the upgoing wavefield and the coda of the downgoing wavefield using conventional methods would require the true medium parameters, including the non-smooth scattering heterogeneities. Many of these parameters are not known a priori; hence, most migration methods have used the surface recordings to estimate the upgoing waves in the subsurface by synthetically propagating the recorded waves from the surface, backward in time into the subsurface, a step known as wavefield extrapolation. Kirchhoff methods, for example, use ray tracing to perform the extrapolation (Schneider, 1978; Kuo and Dai, 1984; Bleistein, 1987), whereas elastic RTM (Baysal et al., 1983; Cunha, 1992; Chang and McMechan, 1994; Yan and Sava, 2008; Ravasi and Curtis, 2013) uses a wave equation to extrapolate the data backward in time. Common to all of these methods is the use of a wavefield from a single source as the downgoing wavefield and the use of a back-propagated wavefield as the upgoing wavefield. What differentiates them is how these fields are propagated or computed.

We define vectorial and tensorial reference images \( R_{MM;ii}^{(M, i)} \) and \( R_{RL;ii}^{(M, i)} \), respectively, based on the conventional approach of using the directly modeled direct wavefield as the downgoing field in equation 30 and the back-propagated reflection data as the upgoing field. This means that in both imaging methods, we approximate the downgoing field in equation 29 with

\[
G^{+\phi(f)}_{(M, i)}(x_F, x_0, t) \approx G^{0\phi(f)}_{(M, i)}(x_F, x_0, t).
\]

(30)

In the vectorial imaging condition, the upgoing field is approximated as a simple back-propagation of a single component of the reflection data as

\[
G^{-\phi(f)}_{(M, i)}(x_F, x_0, t)
\approx \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G_{(i, i)}^{(0\phi(f))}(x_0, x_0', t - \tau) G_{(M, i)}^{(\phi(f))}(x_F, x_0', -\tau) d\mathbf{x}_0'.
\]

(31)

In the tensorial approach, we inject all appropriate components from force and deformation sources at the back-propagation step:

\[
G_{(M, i)}^{-\phi(f)}(x_F, x_0, t)
\approx \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[ G_{(i, i)}^{(\phi(f))}(x_0, x_0', t - \tau) G_{(M, i)}^{(\phi(f))}(x_F, x_0', -\tau) \right]_t d\mathbf{x}_0.
\]

(32)

where the \( i \) in notation \([\cdot]\) corresponds to the injected component: In 2D imaging, the first two components correspond to vertical-vertical and vertical-horizontal deformation sources, respectively.
Elastic autofocus imaging

Historically, obtaining all required down- and upgoing events including multiples at each point in the subsurface as required by equation 29 has been extremely difficult as the multiply-scattered wavefields cannot be modeled a priori because the reflectors that generate them are not known. We have shown above how a class of commonly used methods solve this issue by ignoring downgoing multiples and using a simple back-propagation of the data as the upgoing field. We use this as our reference imaging method. However, we have seen in the previous sections that autofocus provides a data-driven way to estimate the correct up- and downgoing wavefields, so we may use these with the imaging condition of equation 29. When autofocus has been performed with the single-component approximation, we refer to the imaging condition as \( I_{AI} \). When it has been produced using the original tensorial formulation, we denote it as \( I_{AI}^{MM} \), where subscripts AI denote autofocus imaging. In 1D acoustic media, the acoustic version of this imaging condition has been explored by Behura et al. (2014) and Slob et al. (2014), and in 2D acoustic media by Wapenaar et al. (2014), Behura et al. (2014), and Broggin et al. (2014a, 2014b).

It is relevant to note that autofocus can be seen as providing an improvement to the extrapolations in equations 30, 31, and 32, which define the fields used in our reference imaging method. The source-side extrapolation step of the reference imaging method is exactly \( p_0^\tau \) or \( q_0^\tau \). In vectorial reference imaging, the receiver-side back-propagation step of equation 31 is simply \( p_0^\phi \) or \( q_0^\phi \), as obtained in the first iteration of autofocus for the single-component approximation. If one considers the quantities of tensorial autofocus instead, \( P_0^\tau \) (or \( Q_0^\tau \)) corresponds to the receiver-side tensorial extrapolation step of equation 32 in the reference tensorial imaging method. Subsequent iterations of autofocus improve on these initial extrapolations by constructing the up- and downgoing components of the entire (direct plus scattered) Green’s function at \( x_f \). As such, autofocus imaging provides a way to use correctly the multiply scattered energy in the data, by creating the appropriate extrapolated wavefields at each point in the subsurface.

Nevertheless, crosstalk between unrelated up and downgoing events can cause artifacts in autofocus imaging, even if these fields have been estimated correctly. Because there are more events in propagated wavefields with multiples than in wavefields that only include direct waves, this effect may be significant. In particular, this may create spurious reflectors in the image, as will be shown below. To minimize these effects, deconvolution based imaging conditions such as elastic MDD may be used to attenuate them, but these are computationally more expensive.

Another way to mitigate these effects is to use an intermediate method that has elements of conventional and autofocus imaging, by taking the zero-time crosscorrelation between the autofocused upgoing field \( G^{u}(x_0,t) \) and the only direct downgoing wave \( G^{d}(x_0,t) \) based on the work of Wapenaar et al. (1987). We will denote these imaging conditions by \( I_{dAI}^{MM} \) and \( I_{dAI} \), where subscripts dAI denote direct-wave autofocus imaging, and the \( r \) and \( r \) subscripts refer to how the upgoing field was estimated, either by single component or tensorial autofocus, respectively. Although in effect we discard some of the information provided by autofocus (the scattered downgoing field), we show below that this imaging condition out-performs autofocus and reference imaging in our numerical example by removing crosstalk between up- and downgoing multiples.

NUMERICAL RESULTS

To compare reference and autofocus imaging methods, we use a 2D solid-Earth elastic model with lateral and vertical density variations shown in Figure 2. P- and S-wave velocities are constant at 2.7 and 1.5 km/s, respectively. Constant velocities simply provide an easier setting in which to interpret arrivals and are not necessary to the application of the method.

All imaging methods discussed above require as input the direct wave from the source at each subsurface point. Because the velocities were constant in the model we use in this study, the source wavefields were constructed analytically by calculating their traveltimes and inserting a Ricker wavelet of constant amplitude with a central frequency of 20 Hz at appropriate arrival times, with a phase reversal on traces to the right of the trace of smallest travelt ime for \( x \) components of the P-wave and \( z \) components of the S-wave. Improved results may be obtained by carefully introducing geometrical spreading and the \( \pi/4 \) phase shift characteristic of the 2D Green’s functions (Thorbecke et al., 2013). This method is not generalizable to variable velocity media but a variety of other

Figure 2. Density model and acquisition geometry. Sources (stars) and receivers (triangles) are co-located on the surface. The large dashed box indicates the area that will be imaged using single-component imaging conditions \( I_{RL} \), \( I_{AL} \), and \( I_{dAI} \). The smaller dotted box indicates the area that will be used for imaging using the tensorial imaging conditions \( I_{RM} \), \( I_{AM} \), and \( I_{dAM} \).
methods can then be used: Ray tracing (dynamic or otherwise) (Červený, 2001), Eikonal solvers (Vidale, 1988), and Huygens wavefront tracing (Sava and Fomel, 2001) provide fast computation of direct arrivals or their traveltimes in heterogeneous media. Furthermore, for arbitrarily complex media in which those methods might not be appropriate, highly accurate arrivals can be computed using finite-difference methods (Virieux, 1984, 1986).

The imaging methods also require the upgoing scattered wavefield at the surface. Data recorded with a wide band, wide aperture, and densely sampled seismic acquisition with collocated sources and receivers that has undergone removal of the direct wave, source or receiver ghosts, surface-related multiples, and ground roll can be used as a proxy. For this numerical example, this was produced by finite-difference modeling (Virieux, 1986) in the true and smoothed media, followed by subtraction of the two responses; this procedure removes the direct wave leaving only the upgoing scattered field. To remove surface waves, an $f-k$ filter was applied. In addition, absorbing boundary conditions guarantee that no surface-related multiples or ghosts are present. The above theory assumes delta function sources, and thus, we deconvolve the source wavelet from the reflection data prior to imaging.

Da Costa et al. (2014a) show examples of the P and S wavefields extrapolated to subsurface image points using autofocusing, and Figure 3 shows more examples of P- and S-wave Green’s functions from image point $x_F$ in Figure 2 that are obtained from direct modeling and from the two elastic autofocusing schemes presented above: single-component and fully tensorial. It is relevant to note that when we show $x_F$ as a virtual receiver in the equations above, we show Green’s functions in Figure 3 as if it were the location of a subsurface source; the equivalence between these two representations is proved by the elastic source-receiver reciprocity theorem (Wapenaar and Fokkema, 2006) as

$$G_{(i,M)}(x_0, x_F, t) = G_{(M,i)}(x_F, x_0, t).$$

(33)

Although there are errors in the extrapolated fields, especially in those using the single-component approximation, it is clear that autofocusing performs well at estimating subsurface scattered fields and

Figure 3. The $v_z$ components of the Green’s functions from a subsurface P-wave source at point $x_F$ shown in Figure 2 from (a) direct modeling, (b) elastic single-component autofocusing, and (c) fully tensorial elastic autofocusing; $v_z$ components of the Green’s function from a subsurface S-wave source at point $x_F$ from (d) direct modeling, (e) elastic single-component autofocusing, and (f) fully tensorial elastic autofocusing. White arrows indicate nonphysical arrivals. For single-component autofocusing, five iterations were performed and for tensorial autofocusing, three iterations were performed. More iterations help to suppress acausal artifacts (those before the direct wave).
that fully tensorial autofocusing outperforms single-component auto-
focusing of P- and S-waves.

The PP reference image in Figure 4 was generated using imaging
condition $I_{PP}^{zz}RI_{v}$, the PP autofocus image in Figure 5 using imaging
condition $I_{PP}^{zz}AI_{v}$, and the direct-wave autofocus PP image in Figure 6
using the imaging condition $I_{PP}^{zz}dAI_{v}$.

The SS images were obtained similarly; how-
ever, the corresponding imaging conditions were
$I_{SS}^{xx}RI_{v}$ (Figure 7), $I_{SS}^{xx}AI_{v}$ (Figure 8), and $I_{SS}^{xx}dAI_{v}$
(Figure 9), all of which used instead the horizontal
component of the recorded velocity data be-
cause it provides better quality recordings of S-
waves. No smoothing or filtering has been ap-
plied to any of the images.

We also image the portion of the model inside
the white dotted box in Figure 2 using the ten-
sorial imaging conditions $I_{PP}^{zz}RI_{v};\tau$, $I_{PP}^{zz}AI_{v};\tau$, and
$I_{PP}^{zz}dAI_{v};\tau$, which are all shown in Figure 10 and $I_{SS}^{xx}RI_{v};\tau$,
$I_{SS}^{xx}AI_{v};\tau$, and $I_{SS}^{xx}dAI_{v};\tau$ are shown in Figure 11. These
images are of fundamental importance to aid our
understanding of the limitations of the single-
component approximation. Because they require
stress recordings, they are currently only practi-
cally applicable where stress can be related to
strain and where that strain can be measured,
for example when using OBC (e.g., Ravasi
and Curtis, 2013). However, they also show
the potential improvements that could be realized
if such stress or strain measurements were to be-
come more generally available.

**DISCUSSION**

The reference, autofocus, and direct-wave
autofocus images all show a recovery of the true
subsurface interfaces as shown by the solid
curves in Figures 4–9. In the reference images,
spurious reflectors are generated by the crosscor-
relation of the source wavefield (direct wave)
and the multiple reflections back-propagated
through the reference model (Guitton et al.,
2007). The reference PP and SS images exhibit
spurious reflectors, as shown by the dashed
curves in Figures 4 and 7. For example, the syn-
clinal reflector is seen to repeat at least four times
on the latter figure. Figure 12a contains a sche-
matic diagram depicting why this occurs for the
first ghost reflector (counting from top to bot-
tom): The solid lines represent the raypath of
an internal multiple contained in the reflection,
which is mistaken for a primary (dashed black
line) reflecting off of a ghost reflector (dotted
white line).

Another such event is shown under the second
dashed curve in Figures 4 and 7. The types of
raypaths that interact to create that artifact are
shown by the thicker solid black ray in Fig-
ure 12b. The white ray represents the direct wave
whose zero-offset traveltime is 0.32 s. The thick solid black ray
represents a single event in the back-propagated reflection data
that, because of the geometry of the model, also has a zero-offset
traveltime of 0.32 s. Figure 12b also explains how this event is
generated: The solid black (thin and thick) ray represents the

![Figure 4. Reference PP image $I_{PP}^{zz}RI_{v}$ from $v_z$ recordings. Solid black and white curves indicate (the left half of) true reflector positions, and dashed lines indicate spurious reflectors.](image1)

![Figure 5. Autofocus PP image $I_{PP}^{zz}AI_{v}$ from $v_z$ recordings. Key as in Figure 4.](image2)

![Figure 6. Direct-wave autofocus PP image $I_{PP}^{zz}dAI_{v}$ from $v_z$ recordings. Key as in Figure 4.](image3)
raypath present in the scattered upgoing field at the surface $G_{z;v}^{(v,f)}(x'_0, x_0, t)$, whereas the dashed black ray represents the time-reversed direct wave. The back-propagation step will cause the traveltime of the direct wave to be removed from that of the reflections, canceling the solid and dashed thin black lines in Figure 12b. The resulting event is generated by waves traveling along the thick black ray but has the same traveltimes as that of a direct wave recorded at the white imaging point and thus creates spurious energy in the image at that point.

Autofocus imaging, on the other hand, eliminates most of these artifacts by placing internal multiples correctly in their respective up- and downgoing fields. As a consequence, around the center of the imaging region, the spurious reflectors such as those previously indicated by the dashed curves in Figures 4 and 7 are greatly attenuated in Figures 5 and 8. However, Figures 5 and 8 are not entirely devoid of spurious reflectors — the dashed curves show other spurious reflectors in these images. This is because the crosstalk interactions between events with different wavepaths but equal traveltimes may also cause artifacts in autofocus imaging. The raypaths that correlate to cause the first spurious reflector (counting from top to bottom) are shown in Figure 12c. The white raypath shows a downgoing internal multiple that is present, and the black raypath represents an upgoing primary that is present. Both events arrive exactly at 0.23 s and interfere constructively to create the spurious reflector, even though the events are unrelated.

These sorts of interactions are model dependent and prominent when using correlation-type imaging conditions, but they may be attenuated by using deconvolution imaging conditions (Wapenaar et al., 2008, 2014; Brogini et al., 2014a). However, although still using correlation imaging condition, direct-wave autofocus imaging avoids these kinematic artifacts by using only the direct wave as a downgoing field, but using the estimated scattered upgoing field obtained from elastic autofocusing. This is seen in Figures 6 and 9, in which the aforementioned artifacts around the center of the model are severely attenuated.

Nevertheless, other artifacts are still present, especially away from the center of the model. To understand these artifacts, we draw attention to the section of the model enclosed by the white dotted box in Figure 2 as shown in the images of Figures 10 and 11. We observe artifacts from the synclinal interface in the three PP imaging schemes that use the single-component approximation (Figure 10a–10c) as well as in the SS images (Figure 11a–11c). The fact that they appear in the autofocus and direct-wave autofocus imaging schemes, as well as in the reference images, precludes them from being solely attributed to the Born (single-scattering) approximation. Indeed, in the single-component approximation in Appendix C, it was assumed that the waves travel mostly in the vertical direction, which fails for internal multiples that interact with the synclinal interface away from the center. Therefore, most of the dipping artifacts in Figures 10b, 10c, 11b, and 11c result from the single-component
approximation. This approximation also affects the reference images (Figures 10a and 11a), which is further harmed by the Born approximation. This explains why, when considering the tensorial PP images (Figure 10d and 10e) and tensorial SS images (Figure 11d and 11e), these dipping artifacts are attenuated. This is true for autofocus and direct-wave autofocus imaging, in which we notice that almost all dipping artifacts disappear from the PP images (Figure 10e and 10f). Furthermore, direct-wave autofocus imaging also outperforms autofocus imaging in the tensorial formulations, in which we observe fewer artifacts when comparing Figure 10e to 10f and Figure 11e to 11f.

Although presently stress measurements and deformation sources in field data are not readily available, it was noted above that by considering homogeneous and isotropic media at the surface acquisition datum, we may instead only require velocity and force sources, provided that estimates of elastic medium parameters ($\lambda$ and $\mu$) are known, reducing the need of 36 Green’s functions components to nine components in 3D media. This has not yet been attempted on real data. A similar approach using P- and S-wave potentials (Wapenaar, 2014; Wapenaar and Slob, 2014) shows it may be feasible, though this approach requires the decomposition of the data into P- and S-wave source and receiver potentials.

Despite the improvements introduced by the use of tensorial autofocusing and the direct-wave autofocus imaging conditions, a few artifacts can still be seen between the upper two true reflectors in Figures 10f and 11f, which stem from errors in the estimation of the upgoing field. Imperfect reconstruction of the Green’s functions may also be caused by other factors, including the lack of conversions in the initial estimate of the Green’s functions as discussed above, and by the incorrect separation of physical and nonphysical events introduced by time windowing before the direct wave. Furthermore, in SS images, the imaging condition introduces other artifacts because physical SP conversions from image points that do not lie on reflectors may have the same traveltime as the direct wave, causing spurious structure to be imaged.

Nevertheless, as can be seen in the comparisons above, autofocus and direct-wave autofocus imaging improve greatly over the reference images based on conventional methods by diminishing the amount of internal-multiple-related artifacts that may hamper interpretation of seismic images. The use of stress components of the Green’s function leads to even better images, as demonstrated by the tensorial imaging conditions above.

Figure 10. PP image details from the area enclosed by the white dotted box in Figure 2. Single-component (a) reference imaging $I^{PP}_{\text{RL}_x}$, (b) autofocus imaging $I^{PP}_{\text{AI}_x}$, and (c) direct-wave autofocus imaging $I^{PP}_{\text{AI}_x}$. Tensorial (d) reference imaging $I^{PP}_{\text{RL}_x}$, (e) autofocus imaging $I^{PP}_{\text{AI}_x}$, and (f) direct-wave autofocus imaging $I^{PP}_{\text{AI}_x}$. Key as in Figure 4.

Figure 11. SS image details from the area enclosed by the white dotted box in Figure 2. Single-component (a) reference imaging $I^{SS}_{\text{RL}_x}$, (b) autofocus imaging $I^{SS}_{\text{AI}_x}$, and (c) direct-wave autofocus imaging $I^{SS}_{\text{AI}_x}$. Tensorial (d) reference imaging $I^{SS}_{\text{RL}_x}$, (e) autofocus imaging $I^{SS}_{\text{AI}_x}$, and (f) direct-wave autofocus imaging $I^{SS}_{\text{AI}_x}$. Key as in Figure 4.
follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a)</th>
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<th>c)</th>
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<td><img src="Image78x580to219x719" alt="Image" /></td>
<td><img src="Image241x580to382x719" alt="Image" /></td>
<td><img src="Image400x580to542x718" alt="Image" /></td>
</tr>
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Figure 12. (a) Internal multiple reflection that resembles a primary in the reference imaging. The solid lines represent the raypath of the true internal multiple, and the dashed black lines represent the raypath of a primary that would have the same traveltime; the white dotted line indicates the ghost reflector in Figures 4 and 7. (b) Events that intersect to generate spurious reflectors under the second (counting from top to bottom) dashed curve in the reference images in Figures 4 and 7. (c) Events that intersect to generate spurious reflectors under the dashed curve in the autofocus images in Figures 5 and 8. White circles are image points and the black circle in (b) is a nonphysical apparent scattering point.

**CONCLUSION**

We present data-driven nonlinear imaging methods for isotropic elastic solid media based on the complete theory of elastic autofocus, and a single-component approximation that is more suitable for real seismic acquisition. We contrast the results with reference imaging methods based on conventional migration by imaging a subsurface model with lateral and vertical density variations and constant P- and S-wave velocities. We observe that the P- and S-wave autofocus imaging method considerably attenuates artifacts that are often present in conventional imaging approaches, caused by internal multiply scattered energy. Furthermore, the proposed direct-wave autofocus imaging method attenuates artifacts caused by the crosstalk between unrelated events that are still present in previous autofocus imaging methods.

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**APPENDIX A**

**RELATION BETWEEN FOCUSING AND TRANSMISSION FUNCTIONS**

The representation of elastodynamic Green’s functions in terms of focusing functions (da Costa et al., 2014a) is stated as follows:

\[
G^{-}(r;\omega)(x_F, x_0, \omega) = -F^{-}(r;\omega)(x_F, x_0, \omega)
\]

\[
+ \int_{\partial D_0} \left\{ G^{-}(r, h)(x_0', x_0, \omega) F^{+}(r, f)(x_0, x_F, \omega) \right\} \, d^2 x_0
\]

\[
- G_0^{-}(r, f)(x_0', x_0, \omega) F^{+}(r, f)(x_0, x_F, \omega) \right\} \, d^2 x_0
\]

\[
(A-1)
\]

and

\[
G^{+}(r;\omega)(x_F, x_0, \omega) = F^{+}(r;\omega)(x_0', x_F, \omega)
\]

\[
- \int_{\partial D_0} \left\{ G_0^{+}(r, f)(x_0', x_0, \omega) F^{-}(r, f)(x_0, x_F, \omega) \right\} \, d^2 x_0
\]

\[
+ G_0^{+}(r, f)(x_0', x_0, \omega) F^{-}(r, f)(x_0, x_F, \omega) \right\} \, d^2 x_0
\]

\[
(A-2)
\]

where \( G \) is the elastodynamic Green’s function as defined in the main text, and \( F \) is an acausal solution of the sourceless elastodynamic wave equation that focuses at \( x_F \) at zero time. This function is defined in a reference medium that is reflection free under the datum containing \( x_F \), and the condition of its focusing is expressed by the following equation (da Costa et al., 2014a):

\[
F^{+}(r;\omega)(x_F, x_0, \omega) = -\frac{1}{2} \delta_{ip} \delta(x_F - x_0) \right|_{\omega=0}.
\]

\[
(A-3)
\]

Equations A-1 and A-2 relate the down and upgoing fields of the Green’s function at \( x_F \) from force sources at \( x_0' \) to the focusing functions \( F \) and the upgoing (scattered) field at \( x_0 \). We may
sum the equations and simplify the sum by defining the following auxiliary focusing function as:

\[ H^{(v,f)}_{(p,j)}(x_F, x, \omega) = F^{+(v,f)}_{(j,p)}(x, x_F, \omega) - F^{-(v,f)}_{(j,p)}(x, x_F, \omega). \]  

(A-4)

After obtaining the stresses from the generalized Hooke’s law (equation 3), we condense the obtained simplification into the vector-valued equality of equation 4 that we refer to as the representation theorem. Therefore, \( H \) is a combination of the up- and downgoing components of \( F \), itself a focusing function. To relate the transmission operator to \( H \), we will first relate it to \( F \).

We start with the two-way elastodynamic representation theorem (Wapenaar and Fokkema, 2006) for two wave states \( A \) and \( B \) defined within \( \mathbb{D} \) as

\[ \int_{\mathbb{D}} \left\{ \epsilon_i^B \epsilon_j^A - \tau_i^B \tau_j^A \right\} n_j d^2x = 0 \]  

(A-5)

and assume that \( \mathbb{D} \) is composed by two infinite horizontal planes \( \mathbb{D}_0 \) and \( \mathbb{D}_F \), where \( \mathbb{D}_0 \) is the acquisition surface datum containing \( x_0 \) and \( \mathbb{D}_F \) is the datum containing \( x_F \) to obtain

\[ \int_{\mathbb{D}_0} \left\{ \epsilon_i^B \epsilon_j^A - \tau_i^B \tau_j^A \right\} d^2x_0 = \int_{\mathbb{D}_F} \left\{ \epsilon_i^B \epsilon_j^A - \tau_i^B \tau_j^A \right\} d^2x_F. \]  

(A-6)

We further simplify this expression by considering one-way wavefields that under certain conditions Wapenaar and Haimé, 1990) leads to

\[ -2 \int_{\mathbb{D}_0} \{ \epsilon_i^B \epsilon_j^A - \tau_i^B \tau_j^A \} d^2x_0 = 2 \int_{\mathbb{D}_F} \{ \epsilon_i^B \epsilon_j^A - \tau_i^B \tau_j^A \} d^2x_F. \]  

A-7

We take wave state \( A \) to represent the transmission \( T \) from a unidirectional force source in the \( q \)-direction from \( x_F^\prime \) to the surface, and wave state \( B \) to represent the function \( F \) with focusing condition defined by equation A-3. Equation A-7 can be written as

\[ G^{+(v,f)}_{(p,q)}(x_F, x_0, \omega) - G^{-(v,f)}_{(q,p)}(x_F, x_0, \omega) = \hat{H}^{(r,f)}_{(p,q)}(x_F, x_0, \omega) \]  

(A-9)

\[ \int_{\mathbb{D}_0} \{ \epsilon_i^B \epsilon_j^A - \tau_i^B \tau_j^A \} \hat{H}^{+(r,f)}_{(p,j)}(x_F, x_0, \omega) = \int_{\mathbb{D}_F} \{ \epsilon_i^B \epsilon_j^A - \tau_i^B \tau_j^A \} \hat{H}^{+(r,f)}_{(p,j)}(x_F, x_0, \omega) \]  

(A-10)

This equation states in which sense \( F^+ \) is the inverse of the transmission operator. According to equation A-4, \( H \) is a sum of \( F^+ \) and \( F^- \), and thus, an initial estimate of \( H \) should reflect that \( F^+ \) is the inverse of the transmission, containing converted events.

**APPENDIX B**

**Q AUTOFOCUSING**

In layered acoustic media, it has been shown that a modified autofocus algorithm yields the difference between up and downgoing Green’s functions, as opposed to their sum (Broggini et al., 2014b). Here, we establish this algorithm in the elastic case, starting from the decomposed Marchenko equations (Slob et al., 2014) that are provided for elastodynamic Green’s functions in equations A-1 and A-2. If we subtract one from the other, we obtain

\[ G^{+(v,f)}_{(p,q)}(x_F, x_0, \omega) - G^{-(v,f)}_{(q,p)}(x_F, x_0, \omega) = \hat{H}^{(r,f)}_{(p,q)}(x_F, x_0, \omega) \]  

(B-1)

\[ \int_{\mathbb{D}_0} \{ \epsilon_i^B \epsilon_j^A - \tau_i^B \tau_j^A \} \hat{H}^{+(r,f)}_{(p,j)}(x_F, x_0, \omega) = \int_{\mathbb{D}_F} \{ \epsilon_i^B \epsilon_j^A - \tau_i^B \tau_j^A \} \hat{H}^{+(r,f)}_{(p,j)}(x_F, x_0, \omega) \]  

(B-2)

From equation B-1, it is not difficult to show that after taking the receiver-side \( N \) potential, the difference between the down and upgoing functions satisfies the following representation theorem in the time domain as
\[
G^{(\phi)}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0, t) - G^{(-\phi)}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0, t) = \tilde{H}^{(\phi)}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0', -t)
\]

\[
- \int_{\partial D_0}^\infty \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathcal{G}^{(\phi)}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0, -\tau) \mathcal{H}^{(\phi)}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0, \tau) d\tau d^2 \mathbf{x}_0 \tag{B-3}
\]

This representation theorem is very similar to the one obtained previously. In fact, we use the same method to solve it. By proposing the following ansatz

\[
\mathcal{H}^{(\phi)}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0, -t) = \mathcal{G}^{(\phi)}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0, -t)
\]

we may derive another Marchenko equation:

\[
\mathbf{0} = \int_{\partial D_0}^\infty \mathcal{G}^{(-\phi)}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0, -t) \mathcal{M}^{(\phi)}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0, -t) d^2 \mathbf{x}_0 \tag{B-6}
\]

\[
+ \mathcal{M}^{(\phi)}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0', -t).
\]

It is straightforward to show that the iteration into equations 13 and 14 solves the Marchenko equation B-6, and at convergence,

\[
\mathcal{Q}^{(-\phi)}(\mathbf{x} F, \mathbf{x}_0, t) = \mathcal{Q}^{(\phi)}(\mathbf{x} F, \mathbf{x}_0', -t).
\]

This representation theorem is very similar to the one obtained previously. In fact, we use the same method to solve it.

\[
\mathcal{H}^{(\phi)}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0, -t) = \mathcal{G}^{(\phi)}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0, -t)
\]

\[
- \theta(t + \tau_{(\mathbf{N})}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0)) \mathcal{M}^{(\phi)}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0, \tau) d^2 \mathbf{x}_0 \tag{B-5}
\]

we may derive another Marchenko equation:

\[
0 = \int_{\partial D_0}^\infty \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathcal{G}^{(\phi)}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0, -t) \mathcal{M}^{(\phi)}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0, -\tau) d\tau d^2 \mathbf{x}_0 \tag{B-6}
\]

\[
- \int_{\partial D_0}^\infty \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathcal{G}^{(-\phi)}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0, -t) \mathcal{M}^{(\phi)}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0, \tau) d\tau d^2 \mathbf{x}_0 \tag{B-6}
\]

\[
+ \mathcal{M}^{(\phi)}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0', -t).
\]

\[
\mathcal{Q}^{(-\phi)}(\mathbf{x} F, \mathbf{x}_0, t) = \mathcal{Q}^{(\phi)}(\mathbf{x} F, \mathbf{x}_0', -t).
\]

\[
\mathcal{H}^{(\phi)}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0, -t) = \mathcal{G}^{(\phi)}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0, -t)
\]

\[
- \theta(t + \tau_{(\mathbf{N})}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0)) \mathcal{M}^{(\phi)}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0, \tau) d^2 \mathbf{x}_0 \tag{B-5}
\]

we may derive another Marchenko equation:

\[
0 = \int_{\partial D_0}^\infty \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathcal{G}^{(\phi)}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0, -t) \mathcal{M}^{(\phi)}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0, -\tau) d\tau d^2 \mathbf{x}_0 \tag{B-6}
\]

\[
- \int_{\partial D_0}^\infty \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathcal{G}^{(-\phi)}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0, -t) \mathcal{M}^{(\phi)}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0, \tau) d\tau d^2 \mathbf{x}_0 \tag{B-6}
\]

\[
+ \mathcal{M}^{(\phi)}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0', -t).
\]

\[
\mathcal{Q}^{(-\phi)}(\mathbf{x} F, \mathbf{x}_0, t) = \mathcal{Q}^{(\phi)}(\mathbf{x} F, \mathbf{x}_0', -t).
\]

\[
\mathcal{H}^{(\phi)}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0, -t) = \mathcal{G}^{(\phi)}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0, -t)
\]

\[
- \theta(t + \tau_{(\mathbf{N})}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0)) \mathcal{M}^{(\phi)}(\mathbf{x}_F, \mathbf{x}_0, \tau) d^2 \mathbf{x}_0 \tag{B-5}
\]

where according to Hooke’s law in equation 3,
\[ G(\phi(f, \psi), x_F, x_M, \alpha) = H^{(c)}(\phi(f, \psi), x_F, x_M, \alpha) + \frac{2}{c^2} \frac{\rho(x_M)}{\rho(x_F)} \int \frac{\mathcal{R}(x_F, x_M, \alpha)}{c^2} H^{(c)}(\phi(f, \psi), x_F, x_M, \alpha) dx_F. \] 

(C-9)

**REFERENCES**


