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Fluid Effects on Shear for Seismic Waves in Finely Layered Porous Media

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Fluid Effects on Shear Waves in Finely Layered Porous Media

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ABSTRACT

Although there are five effective shear moduli for any layered VTI medium, one and only one effective shear modulus of the layered system (namely the uniaxial shear) contains all the dependence of pore fluids on the elastic or poroelastic constants that can be observed in vertically polarized shear waves. Pore fluids can increase the magnitude the shear energy stored in this modulus by an amount that ranges from the smallest to the largest effective shear moduli of the VTI system. But, since there are five shear moduli in play, the overall increase in shear energy due to fluids is reduced by a factor of about 5 in general. We can therefore give definite bounds on the maximum increase of overall shear modulus, being about 20% of the allowed range as liquid is fully substituted for gas. An attendant increase of density (depending on porosity and fluid density) by approximately 5 to 10% decreases the shear wave speed and, thereby, partially offsets the effect of this shear modulus increase. The final result is an increase of shear wave speed on the order of 5 to 10%. This increase is shown to be possible under most favorable circumstances – *i.e.*, when the shear modulus fluctuations are large (resulting in strong anisotropy), and the medium behaves in an undrained fashion due to fluid trapping. At frequencies higher than seismic (such as sonic and ultrasonic waves for well-logging or laboratory experiments), resulting short response times also produce the requisite undrained behavior and, therefore, fluids also affect shear waves at high frequencies by increasing rigidity.

INTRODUCTION

Our main goal in this paper will be to show in some detail how liquids in the earth influence shear wave propagation speeds through mechanical effects that increase rock rigidity. To accomplish this goal, we choose to make use of an exactly solvable model for layered elastic and/or poroelastic media. Layered earth models are well justified by experience, and provide a simple means of studying fairly general behavior of the elastic and poroelastic characteristics of seismic waves in the earth. Thomsen's anisotropy parameters (Thomsen, 1986; 2002) for weak elastic and poroelastic anisotropy are now commonly used in exploration, and can be conveniently expressed in terms of the layer averages of Backus (1962). Since our main interest in exploration geophysics is usually finding the fluids underground, it would be helpful to have a set of general equations relating the Thomsen parameters as directly as possible to the fluid properties. This end can be achieved in a rather straightforward fashion for these layered earth models, and the present paper develops and then discusses these relations.

Gassmann's fluid substitution formulas for bulk and shear moduli (Gassmann, 1951) were originally derived for the quasi-static mechanical behavior of fluid saturated rocks. It has been shown recently (Berryman and Wang, 2001) that deviations, especially for shear modes, from Gassmann's results at higher frequencies can be understood when the rock is heterogeneous on the microscale, and in particular when the rock heterogeneity anywhere is locally anisotropic. A convenient model of anisotropy in the earth for our present purposes is fine layering (*i.e.*, layers whose thickness is small compared to wavelength). Then, Backus' averaging (Backus,

1962) of the mechanical behavior of the layered isotropic media at the microscopic or mesoscopic levels produces anisotropic mechanical behavior at the macroscopic level. The Backus averaging concept can also be applied to fluid-saturated porous media, and thereby permits us to study how deviations from Gassmann’s predictions could arise in an analytical and rather elementary fashion. Our main goal then is to provide a set of simple, exact analytical examples showing under what circumstances shear modulus becomes dependent on fluid mechanics, and how this affects wave propagation.

The experimental situation has been clear at least since the work of Skempton (1954), when two pertinent coefficients A and B were first defined for quasi-static measurements. The coefficient B is closely related to the well-known Gassmann fluid substitution formula for bulk modulus (as we shall see later in the text). The coefficient A , or rather the product AB , is a direct measure of the influence of uniaxial shear on saturating pore-liquid pressure in undrained soils. Skempton also provides estimates for the range of values observed for coefficient A in clays. It turns out that these numbers are in fact roughly consistent with the quantitative results found in the present work.

Analysis of laboratory ultrasonic data (Berryman *et al.*, 2002a; Berryman, 2004b) also shows clearly that high frequency shear waves in rocks — especially those having lower porosity and permeability — have very clear indications that the rock shear modulus is stiffer in the presence of liquids than might be inferred from Gassmann’s predictions. In fact it is these observations that have motivated the present work.

In some earlier theoretical work, it was shown explicitly by Berryman *et al.* (2002b) — using a differential effective medium (DEM) theory as the modeling tool to compute estimates of elastic constants for composite containing penny-shaped cracks — that shear modulus is indeed a function of liquid content of the cracks. These results confirm and extend earlier work of Mavko and Jizba (1991) on rocks containing saturated cracks. However, some readers might not find the DEM results entirely convincing, and it therefore seems appropriate to seek other (more rigorous) methods and models for confirming these results.

Here we choose to study layers of elastic/poroelastic materials because this is a simple, explicit, and exactly solvable model. The results obtained for this choice of modeling tool are therefore rigorous for the models considered. We treat layers composed of isotropic constituents, but nevertheless find some unanticipated results on the overall poroelastic shear modulus behavior. Isotropic layers are treated, because — if we had considered instead layers of anisotropic poroelastic materials — the effects we want to study here concerning fluid-shear interactions would arrive before we begin the analysis. Shear dependence on fluids is often automatically present in anisotropic poroelastic materials as was shown much earlier by Gassmann (1951) and others (Schoenberg and Douma, 1988; Sayers, 2002). So we could not study what we have set out to study about the fluid effects by considering such models. Treating both closed-pore and open-pore boundary conditions between layers within this model, we learn in great detail just how violations of Gassmann’s predictions can arise quasistatically in undrained (versus drained) conditions, or for waves at high (versus low) frequencies.

Results obtained here are also intimately related to earlier work of the author (Berryman, 2004a) concerning quasi-static behavior of the same type of layered poroelastic system. It was shown there that the uniaxial shear mode is the one and only one that can couple poroelastic shear deformation to the fluid mechanics. But, for waves there is also a density effect — in

addition to this shear modulus effect. Increasing liquid saturation always increases the density and thereby reduces each elastic-wave speed. In contrast, the shear modulus effect induced by the liquid always increases the shear wave speed whenever it is operative. But the density changes also have exactly the same diminishing effect on all three wave speeds (quasi- V_p , quasi- V_{sv} , and V_{sh}), and this factor can therefore be eliminated altogether when any two of the wave speeds have been measured. In particular the ratio of quasi- V_{sv} to V_{sh} is a convenient measure of shear-wave birefringence due to all effects including fluid mechanics, and it would not be contaminated by density effects.

We review some standard results concerning layered VTI media in the next two sections. Then, we discuss singular value decomposition of the elastic (or poroelastic) stiffness matrix in order to introduce the interpretation of the single pertinent shear modulus (out of the five shear moduli present) that as previously noted has been shown recently (Berryman, 2004a,c) to contain all the important behavior related to pore fluid influence on the quasi-static shear deformation response. These results are then incorporated into our wave propagation analysis of the Thomsen parameters (usually applied for weak anisotropy, but used here for arbitrary levels of anisotropy). For purposes of the analysis, expressions are derived for the quasi-P- and quasi-SV-wave speeds and these results are then discussed from this new point of view. Numerical examples show that the approximate analysis presented is completely consistent with the full theory for layered media. Our conclusions are summarized in the final section of the paper. Appendix A expands on some analytical approximations to phase velocity dispersion introduced in the main text. Appendix B presents a more detailed discussion of the numerical layer models used to produce the examples.

NOTATION AND SOME PRIOR RESULTS

Notation for VTI media

We begin by introducing some notation needed in the remainder of the paper. For transversely isotropic media with vertical symmetry axis, the relationship between components of stress σ_{kl} and strain $e_{ij} = \frac{1}{2}(u_{i,j} + u_{j,i}) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_i} \right)$ (where u_j is the j th component of the displacement vector) is given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{11} \\ \sigma_{22} \\ \sigma_{33} \\ \sigma_{23} \\ \sigma_{31} \\ \sigma_{12} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b & f \\ b & a & f \\ f & f & c \\ & & 2l \\ & & 2l \\ & & 2m \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} e_{11} \\ e_{22} \\ e_{33} \\ e_{23} \\ e_{31} \\ e_{12} \end{pmatrix}, \quad (1)$$

where $a = b + 2m$ (e.g., Musgrave, 1970; Auld, 1973), with i, j, k, l obviously each ranging from 1 to 3 in Cartesian coordinates. The matrix describes isotropic media in the special case when $a = c = \lambda + 2\mu$, $b = f = \lambda$, and $l = m = \mu$.

The Thomsen (1986) parameters ϵ , δ , and γ are related to these stiffnesses by

$$\epsilon \equiv \frac{a - c}{2c}, \quad (2)$$

$$\delta \equiv \frac{(f+l)^2 - (c-l)^2}{2c(c-l)}, \quad (3)$$

$$\gamma \equiv \frac{m-l}{2l}. \quad (4)$$

Certain interpretations are allowed for these parameters when they are small enough. For P-wave propagation in the earth near the vertical, the important anisotropy parameter is δ . For SV-wave propagation near the vertical, the combination $(c/l)(\epsilon - \delta)$ plays essentially the same role as δ does for P-waves. For SH-waves, the pertinent anisotropy parameter is γ . All three of the Thomsen parameters vanish for an isotropic medium, and the interpretations mentioned are valid for weakly anisotropic media such that all these parameters are relatively small (< 1). However, the definitions are also useful outside the range of these constraints, and we will use the same definitions (and also continue to call them the “Thomsen parameters”) even when the smallness condition is violated; there is no fundamental problem doing this as long as it is recognized that the interpretations already mentioned in this paragraph are not necessarily valid any more when the parameters are large. This usage of the Thomsen parameters will however require us to be careful in our subsequent discussion of the parameters, as they cannot always be assumed to be small here as is usual in many other treatments. Unless explicitly stated otherwise, the parameters ϵ , γ , and δ are *not* small quantities in this paper.

It is also useful to note for later reference that

$$a = c(1 + 2\epsilon), \quad m = l(1 + 2\gamma), \quad \text{and} \quad f \simeq c(1 + \delta) - 2l, \quad (5)$$

where smallness of δ was in fact assumed in the third expression. In TI media, $(c/\rho)^{1/2}$ and $(l/\rho)^{1/2}$ are the velocities normal to the layering. Then, ϵ , γ , and δ measure the deviations from these normal velocities at other angles. We present the relevant details of the phase velocity analysis later in the paper.

Gassmann results for isotropic poroelastic media

To understand the significance of the results to follow, we briefly review a well-known result due to Gassmann (1951) [also see Berryman (1999b) for a tutorial]. Gassmann’s equation relates the bulk modulus K^* of a saturated, undrained isotropic porous medium to the bulk modulus K of the same medium in the drained case:

$$K^* = K/(1 - \alpha B), \quad (6)$$

where the parameters α and B [respectively, the Biot-Willis parameter (Biot and Willis, 1957) and Skempton’s pore-pressure buildup coefficient (Skempton, 1954)] depend on the porous medium and fluid compliances. For the shear moduli of drained (μ) and saturated (μ^*) media, Gassmann’s quasi-static theory gives

$$\mu^* = \mu. \quad (7)$$

We want to emphasize once more that (7) is a result of the theory, not an assumption. The derivation of (6) and (7) shows that both results are elementary (and coupled) consequences of

the theory. Furthermore, the two equations (6) and (7) taken together show that, for isotropic microhomogeneous media, the entire fluid effect on the overall elastic behavior is all contained in the parameter $\lambda^* = K^* - \frac{2}{3}\mu^*$, where λ and μ are the well-known Lamé parameters. This result is crucial for understanding the significance of our later results to oil and gas exploration.

Backus averaging

Backus (1962) presented an elegant method of producing the effective constants for a thinly layered medium composed of either isotropic or anisotropic elastic layers. This method applies either to spatially periodic layering or to random layering, by which we mean either that the material constants change in a nonperiodic (unpredictable) manner from layer to layer or that the layer thicknesses might also be random. For simplicity, we will assume that the physical properties of the individual layers are constant and isotropic. [For applications to porous earth materials, we implicitly make the typical assumptions of spatial stationarity within these layers as well as scale separation — *i.e.*, the sizes of the pores are much smaller than the thickness of the individual layers in which they reside.] The key idea presented by Backus is that these equations can be rearranged into a form where rapidly varying (in depth) coefficients multiply slowly varying stresses or strains.

The derivation has been given many places including Schoenberg and Muir (1989), Helbig (1994), and Berryman (1999a). Another illuminating derivation has been given recently by Milton (2002). We will not repeat any of the derivations here. The final results will be expressed in terms of averages $\langle Q \rangle$, where the brackets $\langle \cdot \rangle$ surrounding a variable $Q(z)$ indicate the volume average (or equivalently the linear average with depth z in the vertically layered medium under consideration) of the quantity Q . It follows that the anisotropy coefficients in equation (1) are then related to the layer parameters by the following well-known expressions:

$$c = \left\langle \frac{1}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle^{-1}, \quad (8)$$

$$f = c \left\langle \frac{\lambda}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle, \quad (9)$$

$$l = \left\langle \frac{1}{\mu} \right\rangle^{-1}, \quad (10)$$

$$m = \langle \mu \rangle, \quad (11)$$

$$a = \frac{f^2}{c} + 4m - 4 \left\langle \frac{\mu^2}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle, \quad (12)$$

and

$$b = a - 2m. \quad (13)$$

When the layering is fully periodic, these results may be attributed to Bruggeman (1937) and Postma (1955), while for more general layered media including random media they should be attributed to Backus (1962). The constraints on the Lamé parameters λ and μ for each individual layer are $0 \leq \mu \leq \infty$ and $-\frac{2}{3}\mu \leq \lambda \leq \infty$. Although, for physically stable materials, μ and the bulk modulus $K = \lambda + \frac{2}{3}\mu$ must both be nonnegative, these relations mean that λ (and also Poisson's ratio ν) may be negative (but nevertheless bounded below, since $\nu \geq -1$, and $\lambda \geq -2\mu/3$). Large fluctuations in λ for different layers are therefore entirely possible, in principle, but may or may not be an issue for any given region of the earth.

Large fluctuations in μ are also possible, and the Backus averaging technique is fully capable of handling all such fluctuations properly. But, if these fluctuations are too large, then the weak anisotropy assumption of Thomsen's original work (Thomsen, 1986) will be violated and some care must be taken when using approximate equations. We do *not* at any point assume weak anisotropy in this paper [except equations (5) and (29)], since the shear behavior we are trying to study will be shown to depend on the presence of strong anisotropy in this sense. We will also find it useful to develop alternatives to some of Thomsen's formulas in order to deal with the strong anisotropy that arises in our analysis.

One very important fact known about the Backus averaging equations (Backus, 1962) is that they reduce to isotropic results with $a = c$, $b = f$, and $l = m$, if the shear modulus is a constant ($= \mu$) — regardless of the behavior of λ . So velocities are also anisotropic. This fact is also very important for applications involving partial and/or patchy saturation (Mavko *et al.*, 1998; Johnson, 2001). Furthermore, this fact is closely related to the well-known bulk modulus formula of Hill (1963) for isotropic composites having uniform shear modulus, and also to the Hashin-Shtrikman bounds (Hashin and Shtrikman, 1961), which can be used to provide an elementary proof of Hill's equation. Nevertheless, this limit will not be of much interest to us here except as a boundary condition on the results obtained. Furthermore, one of the main purposes of the paper is to show how deviations from these limiting and rather restrictive results affect the predictions of the referenced work on partial and patchy saturation.

THOMSEN PARAMETERS ϵ AND δ

Thomsen's ϵ

An important anisotropy parameter for quasi-*SV*-waves (which is our main interest in this paper) is Thomsen's parameter ϵ , defined in equation (2). Formula (12) for a may be rewritten as

$$a = \left\langle \frac{(\lambda + 2\mu)^2 - \lambda^2}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle + c \left\langle \frac{\lambda}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle^2, \quad (14)$$

which can be rearranged into the convenient and illuminating form

$$a = \langle \lambda + 2\mu \rangle - c \left[\left\langle \frac{\lambda^2}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle \left\langle \frac{1}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle - \left\langle \frac{\lambda}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle^2 \right]. \quad (15)$$

This formula is very instructive because the term in square brackets is in Cauchy-Schwartz form [$\langle q^2 \rangle \langle Q^2 \rangle \geq \langle qQ \rangle^2$], so this factor is either positive or zero. Furthermore, the magnitude

of this term depends mainly on the fluctuations in the λ Lamé parameter, largely independent of μ , since μ appears only in the weighting factor $1/(\lambda + 2\mu)$. Clearly, if $\lambda = \text{constant}$, then this bracketed factor vanishes identically, regardless of the behavior of μ . Large fluctuations in λ will tend to make this term large. If in addition we consider Thomsen's parameter ϵ written in a similar fashion as

$$2\epsilon = \left[\langle \lambda + 2\mu \rangle \left\langle \frac{1}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle - 1 \right] - \left[\left\langle \frac{\lambda^2}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle \left\langle \frac{1}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle - \left\langle \frac{\lambda}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle^2 \right], \quad (16)$$

we find that the term enclosed in the first bracket on the right hand side is again in Cauchy-Schwartz form showing that it always makes a positive contribution unless $\lambda + 2\mu = \text{constant}$, in which case it vanishes. Similarly, the term enclosed in the second set of brackets is always non-negative, but the minus preceding the second bracket causes this contribution to make a negative contribution to 2ϵ unless $\lambda = \text{constant}$, in which case it vanishes. So, in general the sign of ϵ is indeterminate for such layered materials. The Thomsen parameter ϵ may have either a positive or a negative sign for a TI medium composed of arbitrary thin isotropic layers. Thomsen (2002) states that $\epsilon > 0$ if K and μ are positively correlated. If we take as an example of positive correlation the case in which K and μ are proportional with proportionality constant α , then $0 < K = \lambda + 2\mu/3 = \beta\mu$. So β must be positive since both K and μ are positive. Then, we have $\lambda = (\beta - 2/3)\mu$, and so

$$2\epsilon = \frac{12(3\beta + 1)}{(3\beta + 4)^2} \left(\langle \mu \rangle \left\langle \frac{1}{\mu} \right\rangle - 1 \right) > 0 \quad (17)$$

for all positive values of β , as long as μ itself is not constant. This example is equivalent to having constant Poisson's ratio throughout the layered system.

Fluctuations of λ in the earth have important implications for oil and gas exploration. As we recalled in our earlier discussion, Gassmann's well-known results (Gassmann, 1951) show that, when isotropic porous elastic media are saturated with any fluid, the fluid has no mechanical effect on the shear modulus μ , but — when these results apply — it can have a significant effect on the bulk modulus $K = \lambda + \frac{2}{3}\mu$, and therefore on λ . Thus, observed (high frequency) variations in layer μ should have no direct information about fluid content, while such variations observed in layer λ , especially if they are large variations, may contain important clues about variations in fluid content. So the observed structure of ϵ in (16) strongly suggests that small positive and all negative values of ϵ may be important indicators of significant fluctuations in fluid content (Berryman *et al.*, 1999).

Thomsen's δ

Thomsen's parameter δ defined by Eq. (3) is pertinent for near vertical quasi- P -waves and can also be rewritten as

$$\delta = -\frac{(c + f)(c - f - 2l)}{2c(c - l)}. \quad (18)$$

This parameter is considerably more difficult to analyze than either γ or ϵ for various reasons, some of which we will enumerate shortly. Thomsen (2002) provides some insight into the

behavior of δ by noting that its sign depends only on the variations of the layer ratio $V_s^2/V_p^2 = \mu/(\lambda + 2\mu)$, since within each layer $\rho V_s^2 = \mu$ and $\rho V_p^2 = \lambda + 2\mu$. This can be seen to be true from its definition by noting that

$$c - f - 2l = 2cl \left[\left\langle \frac{1}{\mu} \right\rangle \left\langle \frac{\mu}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle - \left\langle \frac{1}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle \right] = -2cl \left\langle \frac{1}{\mu} \cdot \Delta \left(\frac{V_s^2}{V_p^2} \right) \right\rangle, \quad (19)$$

where the symbol Δ is used here to indicate

$$\Delta \left(\frac{V_s^2}{V_p^2} \right) \equiv \frac{V_s^2}{V_p^2} - \left\langle \frac{V_s^2}{V_p^2} \right\rangle. \quad (20)$$

Because of a controversy surrounding the sign of δ for finely layered media (*e.g.*, Levin, 1988; Thomsen, 1988; Anno, 1997), Berryman *et al.* (1999) performed a series of Monte Carlo simulations with the purpose of establishing the existence or nonexistence of layered models having positive δ . Those simulation results should be interpreted neither as modeling of natural sedimentation processes nor as an attempt to reconstruct any petrophysical relationships. The main goal was to develop a general picture of the distribution of the sign of δ using many choices of constituent material properties.

The analysis of Berryman *et al.* (1999) established a similarity in the circumstances between the occurrence of positive δ and the occurrence of small positive ϵ (*i.e.*, both occur when Lamé λ is fluctuating greatly from layer to layer). The positive values of δ are in fact most highly correlated with the smaller positive values of ϵ . We should also keep in mind the fact that $\epsilon - \delta \geq 0$ is always true for models with isotropic layers (Postma, 1955; Berryman, 1979) and this fact also plays a role in these comparisons, determining the unoccupied upper left hand corner of a δ vs. ϵ plot.

SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION

The singular value decomposition (SVD), or equivalently the eigenvalue decomposition, of the real symmetric stiffness matrix appearing in (1) is relatively easy to perform. We can immediately write down four eigenvectors:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (21)$$

and their corresponding eigenvalues, respectively $2l, 2l, 2m$, and $a - b = 2m$. All four correspond to shear modes of the system. The two remaining eigenvectors must be orthogonal to all four

of these and therefore both must have the general form

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ X \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (22)$$

Applying (22) to the stiffness matrix in (1) shows that the corresponding eigenvalue is

$$\chi = a + b + fX, \quad (23)$$

where the remaining condition that determines both X and χ is

$$\chi X = 2f + cX. \quad (24)$$

After substitution for χ , we obtain a quadratic equation having the solutions

$$X_{\pm} = \frac{1}{2} \left(- \left[\frac{a+b-c}{f} \right] \pm \sqrt{8 + \left[\frac{a+b-c}{f} \right]^2} \right). \quad (25)$$

The ranges of values for $X_{\pm}$ are $0 \leq X_+ \leq \infty$ and, since $X_- = -2/X_+$, $-\infty \leq X_- \leq 0$. The interpretation of the solutions $X_{\pm}$ is simple for the isotropic limit where $X_+ = 1$ and $X_- = -2$, corresponding respectively to pure compression and pure shear modes. So, except for special angles of propagation, these two modes always have mixed character, indicating that pure compression cannot be excited in the system, and must always be coupled to shear. Some types of pure shear modes can still be excited even in the nonisotropic cases, because the other four eigenvectors in (21) are unaffected by this coupling, and they are all pure shear modes. Pure compressional and shear modes are obtained as linear combinations of these two mixed modes according to

$$r \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ X_+ \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ X_- \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = (1+r) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -2 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (26)$$

with $r = -2(X_+ - 1)/[X_+(X_+ + 2)]$ for pure shear, and

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ X_+ \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + s \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ X_- \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = (1+s) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (27)$$

and with $s = X_+(X_+ - 1)/(X_+ + 2)$ for pure compression.

To understand the behavior of X_+ in terms of the layer property fluctuations or, alternatively, in terms of the Thomsen parameters, it is first helpful to note that the pertinent functional $F(x) = \frac{1}{2} [-x + \sqrt{8 + x^2}]$ is easily shown to be a monotonic function of its argument x . So it is sufficient to study the behavior of the argument $x = (a + b - c)/f$.

Exact results for isotropic layers

Combining results from Eqs. (8)–(12), we find after some work on rearranging the terms that

$$\frac{a + b - c}{f} = \left\langle \frac{\lambda}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle^{-1} \left[\left\langle \frac{\lambda}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle + 6 \left\langle \frac{m - \mu}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle - 8 \left\{ \left\langle \frac{\mu^2}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle \left\langle \frac{1}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle - \left\langle \frac{\mu}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle^2 \right\} \right], \quad (28)$$

where the correction involving $m - \mu$ in the numerator is the difference of the shear modulus from the layer-averaged shear modulus m , and will be the dominant correction when fluctuations in μ are small. The fact that $\langle (m - \mu)/\mu \rangle = \langle \mu \rangle \langle 1/\mu \rangle - 1 \geq 0$, suggests that this dominant correction to unity (since the leading term is exactly unity) for this expression will be positive if λ and μ are positively correlated throughout all the layers, but the correction could be negative in cases where there is a strong negative correlation between λ and μ . On the other hand, the term in curly brackets in (28) is again in Cauchy-Schwartz form (*i.e.*, $\langle q^2 \rangle \langle Q^2 \rangle - \langle qQ \rangle^2 \geq 0$), and therefore is always non-negative. But, since it is multiplied by -1 , the contribution to this expression is non-positive. This term is also quadratic in the deviations of μ from its layer average, and thus is of higher order than the term explicitly involving $m - \mu$. So, if the fluctuations in shear modulus are very large throughout the layered medium, the quadratic terms can dominate — in which case the overall result could be less than unity. Numerical examples developed by applying a code of V. Grechka [used previously in a similar context by Berryman *et al.* (1999)] confirm these analytical results.

Our main conclusion is that the shear modulus fluctuations giving rise to the anisotropy due to stacks of thin isotropic layers are (as expected) the main source of deviations of (28) from unity. But now we can say more, since positive deviations of this parameter from unity are generally associated with smaller magnitude fluctuations of the layer shear modulus, whereas negative deviations from unity must be due to large magnitude fluctuations in these shear moduli.

Approximate results if Thomsen parameters have small values

Using the definitions of the Thomsen parameters, we can also rewrite the terms appearing in (28) in order to make connection with this related point of view. Recalling (5) and the fact that $b = a - 2m$, we have

$$\frac{a + b - c}{f} \simeq 1 + \frac{3}{c - 2l}(c\delta + 4l\gamma) + \frac{4}{c - 2l}[c(\epsilon - \delta) - 4l\gamma], \quad (29)$$

with some higher order corrections involving powers of δ and products of δ with ϵ and γ that we neglected in this equation. We have added and subtracted equally some terms proportional to δ , and others proportional to γ , in order to emphasize the similarities between the form (29) and that found previously in (28). In particular, the difference $\epsilon - \delta$ is known (Postma, 1955; Berryman, 1979) to be non-negative and its deviations from zero depend on fluctuations in μ from layer to layer, behavior observed to be similar to that of the final term in (28). Since the formula (29) is only approximate and its interpretation requires the use of various other results we derive subsequently for other purposes, for now we will delay further discussion of this to a point later in the paper. [See the discussion of Eq. (64).]

DISPERSION RELATIONS FOR SEISMIC WAVES

The general behavior of seismic waves in anisotropic media is well known, and the equations are derived in many places including Berryman (1979), Thomsen (1986), and Helbig (1994). The dispersion relations for phase velocities are

$$\rho\omega_{\pm}^2 = \frac{1}{2} \left\{ (a+l)k_1^2 + (c+l)k_3^2 \pm \sqrt{[(a-l)k_1^2 - (c-l)k_3^2]^2 + 4(f+l)^2 k_1^2 k_3^2} \right\}, \quad (30)$$

for quasi-compressional (+) waves and quasi-SV (−) waves (*i.e.*, vertically polarized quasi-shear waves, by which we mean the plane normal to the cross-product of the polarization vector and the propagation vector is vertical) and

$$\rho\omega_s^2 = mk_1^2 + lk_3^2, \quad (31)$$

for horizontally polarized shear waves. In these equations, ρ is the overall density (including pore fluids when present), ω is the angular frequency, k_1 and k_3 are horizontal and vertical wavenumbers (respectively), and the phase velocities are determined simply by $V = \omega/k$ with $k = \sqrt{k_1^2 + k_3^2}$. Elastically, the SH wave depends only on the two parameters l and m , which are not dependent in any way on layer λ and therefore will play no role in the poroelastic analysis. The densities of any fluids present affect all three wave speeds equally, and cannot therefore contribute to shear wave birefringence by itself. Thus, we can safely ignore SH except when we want to check specifically for shear wave splitting — in which case the SH results will be most useful as a baseline for such comparisons.

The dispersion relations for quasi-P- and quasi-SV-waves can be rewritten in a number of instructive ways. One of these that we will choose for reasons that will become apparent shortly is

$$\rho\omega_{\pm}^2 = \frac{1}{2} \left[(a+l)k_1^2 + (c+l)k_3^2 \pm \sqrt{[(a+l)k_1^2 + (c+l)k_3^2]^2 - 4[(ak_1^2 + ck_3^2)lk^2 + \{(a-l)(c-l) - (f+l)^2\}k_1^2 k_3^2]} \right]. \quad (32)$$

Written this way, it becomes obvious that the following two relations hold:

$$\rho\omega_+^2 + \rho\omega_-^2 = (a+l)k_1^2 + (c+l)k_3^2, \quad (33)$$

and

$$\rho\omega_+^2 \cdot \rho\omega_-^2 = (ak_1^2 + ck_3^2)lk^2 + [(a-l)(c-l) - (f+l)^2]k_1^2k_3^2, \quad (34)$$

either of which could have been obtained directly from (30) without the intermediate step of (32).

We are motivated to write the equations in this way in order to try to avoid evaluating the square root in (30) or (32) directly. Rather, we would like to arrive at a natural approximation that is quite accurate, but does not involve the square root operation. The desire to do this is not new (Thomsen, 1986; Fomel, 2004), but our goal is somewhat different since we *must necessarily* treat strong anisotropy in the present paper. From a general understanding of the problem, it is clear that a reasonable way of making use of (33) is to make the identifications

$$\rho\omega_+^2 \equiv ak_1^2 + ck_3^2 - \Delta, \quad (35)$$

and

$$\rho\omega_-^2 \equiv lk^2 + \Delta, \quad (36)$$

with Δ still to be determined. Then, substituting these expressions into (34), we find that

$$(ak_1^2 + ck_3^2 - lk^2 - \Delta)\Delta = [(a-l)(c-l) - (f+l)^2]k_1^2k_3^2 \quad (37)$$

Solving (37) for Δ would just give the original results back again. So the point of (37) is not to solve it exactly, but rather to use it as the basis of an approximation scheme. If Δ is small, then we can presumably neglect it inside the parenthesis on the left hand side of (37) — or we could just keep a small number of terms in an expansion.

The leading term, and the only one we will consider here (but see Appendix A for further discussion), is

$$\Delta = \frac{[(a-l)(c-l) - (f+l)^2]k_1^2k_3^2}{(a-l)k_1^2 + (c-l)k_3^2 - \Delta} \simeq \frac{[(a-l)(c-l) - (f+l)^2]}{(a-l)/k_3^2 + (c-l)/k_1^2}. \quad (38)$$

The numerator of this expression is known to be a positive quantity for layers of isotropic materials (Postma, 1955; Berryman, 1979). Furthermore, it can be rewritten (without approximation) in terms of Thomsen's parameters as

$$[(a-l)(c-l) - (f+l)^2] = 2c(c-l)(\epsilon - \delta). \quad (39)$$

Using the first of the identities noted earlier in (5), we can also rewrite the first elasticity factor in the denominator as $a-l = (c-l)[1 + 2c\epsilon/(c-l)]$. Combining these results in the limit of $k_1^2 \rightarrow 0$ (for relatively small angles of propagation), we find that

$$\rho\omega_+^2 \simeq ck^2 + 2c\delta k_1^2, \quad (40)$$

and

$$\rho\omega_-^2 \simeq lk^2 + 2c(\epsilon - \delta)k_1^2, \quad (41)$$

with $\Delta \simeq 2c(\epsilon - \delta)k_1^2$ for very small angles from the vertical. These two equations may be recognized simply as small angle approximations to the weak-anisotropy equations of Thomsen (1986). However, the main thrust of this paper (as we will soon see) requires strong anisotropy and therefore also requires improved approximations, which can be obtained to any desired order with only a little more effort by using (37) instead of the first approximation derived here in (38). Note that Eqs. (40) and (41) were derived without assumptions about the smallness of ϵ or δ .

Although the approximations being discussed in this section are of some practical interest in their own right, their elaboration at this point would lead us away from the issue of fluid effects on shear modulus. So, to avoid further digression here from the main theme of the paper, we collect our remaining results concerning these dispersion relation approximations in Appendix A.

INTERPRETATION OF P AND SV COEFFICIENTS FOR LAYERED MEDIA

General analysis for VTI media

The correction terms, *i.e.*, those contained in the factor Δ in (36) for quasi-SV waves in anisotropic media, are proportional to the factor

$$\mathcal{A} \equiv (a - l)(c - l) - (f + l)^2 = 2c(c - l)(\epsilon - \delta), \quad (42)$$

which is sometimes called the *anellipticity parameter*. Similarly, we will call Δ in (38) the *anellipticity correction*. For the case of strong anisotropy considered here, the presence of $2c(\epsilon - \delta) = \mathcal{A}/(c - l)$ in the small k equation (41) already introduced anellipticity into the move out; the higher order corrections that we neglected there tend to amplify this effect.

Clearly, from (41) for quasi-SV-waves [and in layered media at this order of approximation], the anellipticity parameter holds all the information about the presence or absence of fluids that is not already contained in the density factor ρ . So it will be worth our time to study this factor in more detail. First note that, after rearrangement, we have the general identity

$$\mathcal{A} = (f + l)(a + c - 2f - 4l) + (a - f - 2l)(c - f - 2l), \quad (43)$$

which is true for all transversely isotropic media.

In some earlier work (Berryman, 2004a), the author has shown that it is convenient to introduce two special-purpose effective shear moduli μ_1^* and μ_3^* associated with a and c , namely,

$$\mu_1^* \equiv a - m - f \quad \text{and} \quad 2\mu_3^* \equiv c - f. \quad (44)$$

Furthermore, it has been shown that the combination defined by

$$G_{\text{eff}} = (\mu_1^* + 2\mu_3^*)/3 \quad (45)$$

plays a special role in the theory (Berryman, 2004a,c), and it is also the only effective shear modulus for the anisotropic system that can also contain information about fluid content. It

turns out that (43) can be rewritten in terms of this effective shear modulus if we first introduce two more parameters:

$$\mathcal{K} = f + l + \left[\frac{1}{a - f - 2l} + \frac{1}{c - f - 2l} \right]^{-1} \quad (46)$$

and

$$\mathcal{G} = [3G_{\text{eff}} + m - 4l] / 3. \quad (47)$$

Then, (43) can be simply rewritten as

$$\mathcal{A} = 3\mathcal{K}\mathcal{G}. \quad (48)$$

This result is analogous to, but distinct from, a product formula relating the effective shear modulus G_{eff} and the bulk modulus

$$K = f + \left[\frac{1}{a - m - f} + \frac{1}{c - f} \right]^{-1} \quad (49)$$

to the eigenvalues of the elastic matrix according to

$$\chi_+ \chi_- = 6K G_{\text{eff}}. \quad (50)$$

Plausibility of Eq. (50) can be established by noting that, in the isotropic limit, the eigenvalues are $\chi_+ = 2\mu$ and $\chi_- = 3K$. In this limit, $G_{\text{eff}} = \mu$. One derivation of (50) is given in Berryman (2004a) and another in Berryman (2004d).

[Aside concerning layered materials: In the isotropic limit, when $\mu \rightarrow \text{constant}$, we have $K \rightarrow f + 2\mu/3$, while $\mathcal{K} \rightarrow f + \mu$. So these two parameters are not the same, but they do have strong similarities in their behavior. In contrast, $G_{\text{eff}} \rightarrow \mu$, while $\mathcal{G} \rightarrow 0$ in the same limit. It is also possible to show for layered materials that in general $l \leq \mathcal{K} - f \leq m$, with the lower limit being optimum.]

Also, since Thomsen's δ plays an important role in (40), it is helpful to note that (18) can also be rewritten as

$$c\delta = -(c - f - 2l) \left[1 - \frac{c - f - 2l}{2(c - l)} \right], \quad (51)$$

which shows that, at least for weakly anisotropic media (in which case the deviation from unity inside the brackets is neglected), $c\delta$ is very nearly a direct measure of the quantity $c - f - 2l$. [See (46) above and (53) in the next subsection for some applications of this observation.]

Analysis for isotropic layers

The analysis presented in the previous subsection is general for all VTI elastic media. But we can say more by assuming now that the anisotropy arises due to layers of isotropic elastic (or possibly poroelastic) media. Then, using (8)-(12), we have the following relations

$$f + 2l = c \left\langle \frac{\lambda + 2l}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle, \quad (52)$$

$$c - f - 2l = 2c \left\langle \frac{\mu - l}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle, \quad (53)$$

and

$$a - f - 2l = 2c \left\{ \left\langle \frac{2m - \mu - l}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle - 2 \left[\left\langle \frac{\mu^2}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle \left\langle \frac{1}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle - \left\langle \frac{\mu}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle^2 \right] \right\}. \quad (54)$$

Eq. (52) is an easy consequence of the Backus averaging formulas. Then, (53) shows that c differs from $f + 2l$ only by a term that measures the difference in the weighted average of μ and l . Eq. (54) shows that a differs from $f + 2l$ in a more complicated fashion that depends on the difference in the weighted average of $(2m - l)$ and μ , as well as a term that is higher order in the fluctuations of the layer μ values. Combining these results, we have

$$G_{\text{eff}} = m - \frac{4c}{3} \left[\left\langle \frac{\mu^2}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle \left\langle \frac{1}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle - \left\langle \frac{\mu}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle^2 \right], \quad (55)$$

showing that all the interesting behavior (including strong μ fluctuations in the layers leading to anisotropy, together with the pore-fluid influenced λ dependence) is collected in G_{eff} . Since the product of (53) and (54) is clearly of higher order in the fluctuations of the layer shear moduli, it is not hard to see that, to leading order when these fluctuation effects are small,

$$\mathcal{A} \simeq (c - l)(3G_{\text{eff}} + m - 4l). \quad (56)$$

To provide a quick estimate, note that if all the layers have the same value of Poisson's ratio, then the ratio $r = \lambda/\mu$ is constant. Then, it is easy to show that $G_{\text{eff}} = m - 4(m - l)/3(2 + r)$. Since $-2/3 \leq r \leq \infty$, the effective shear modulus for this class of models lies in the range $l \leq G_{\text{eff}} \leq m$. From this fact, we can conclude that the important coefficient in (41) is given to a good approximation by

$$2c(\epsilon - \delta) \simeq 3G_{\text{eff}} + m - 4l, \quad (57)$$

and ranges from $2l\gamma$ to $8l\gamma$.

To study the fluid effects, the drained Lamé parameter λ in each layer should be replaced under undrained conditions by

$$\lambda^* = K^* - 2\mu/3, \quad (58)$$

where K^* was defined by (6). Then, for small fluctuations in μ , Eq. (57) shows that the leading order terms due to shear modulus variations contributing to $2c(\epsilon - \delta)$ actually do not depend on the fluids at all (since $m - l$ does not depend on them). With or without fluid in the pores, there is a contribution to the shear wave speed for SV in layered media from (57), just due to the fluctuations in the shear moduli. One part of contribution is always independent of any fluids that might be present, but the magnitude of this contribution (which is always positive) is small whenever the difference $m - l$ is also small. [Recall that the quantity $(m - l)$ is not dependent on liquids at all.] If $m - l$ is large, then the magnitude of the additional increase in G_{eff} due to liquids in the pores can be very substantial as we shall see in the following

examples. So the effects of liquid on G_{eff} will generally be weak when the fluctuations in μ are weak, and as strong as they can be when fluctuations are large.

Furthermore, when the product $\alpha B \neq 0$, we first choose to define

$$ratio_{\alpha B} \equiv \frac{m - G_{\text{eff}}}{m - l}. \quad (59)$$

For all possible layered models, we have $0 \leq ratio_{\alpha B} \leq 1$. Then, we want to plot the quantity

$$F(\alpha B) \equiv 1 - ratio_{\alpha B}/ratio_0 \quad (60)$$

versus γ . The reasoning behind such a plot is as follows: The value $ratio_0$ is $ratio_{\alpha B}$ evaluated when $\alpha B = 0$ [see Eq. (6) again for the physical significance of the product αB], which we take to be a good approximation to the expected result when the system is fully saturated by gas. So as B ranges from $B = 0$ (gas or vacuum) to $B = 1$ (full liquid saturation by a liquid whose bulk modulus is large – *i.e.*, comparable to that of the solid), $F(\alpha B)$ ranges monotonically (as a function of its argument αB) from 0 to some as yet unknown positive value. But, because of the known constraints on G_{eff} , it is easy to see that F in (60) cannot exceed unity. We also treat Thomsen's $\gamma = [\langle \mu \rangle \langle 1/\mu \rangle - 1]/2$ as a convenient quantitative measure of the fluctuations in the layer shear moduli μ . Clearly, γ vanishes when the fluctuations vanish, and γ increases as the fluctuations increase.

To generate a class of 900 models for three choices of $\alpha = 0.5, 0.8$, and 0.9 (where α is treated as a single constant for all layers in each particular model) in order to illustrate the behavior of these quantities, I made use of a code of V. Grechka [used previously in a joint publication (Berryman *et al.*, 1999)]. This code chooses layer parameters randomly from within the following (generally reasonable) range of values: $1.5 \leq V_p \leq 5.0$ km/s, $0.1 \leq V_s/V_p \leq 0.8$, and $1.8 \leq \rho \leq 2.8 \times 10^3$ kg/m³. (This procedure ignores empirically observed correlations of V_p , V_p/V_s , and ρ . But such correlations could be included in future studies.) The results are displayed in Figure 1 for these three choices of α . We find empirically that (for $B = 1$) the values never exceed α for any set of choices for the layer model parameters. This apparent fact does not appear to be easy to prove from the general formula. But one relatively simple calculation we can do is based again on an assumption that the bulk moduli in the layers are always proportional to the shear modulus so $K = s\mu$, for some fixed value of $s > 0$. (This assumption is equivalent to assuming uniform Poisson's ratio for all the layers. But note that no such assumption is actually used in our numerical modeling.) For a given model, we can infer from this condition that

$$F(\alpha B) = \frac{\alpha B}{1 + 4(1 - \alpha B)/3s} \leq \alpha B, \quad (61)$$

in agreement with the empirical result from the synthetic data shown in Figure 1. So although this is not a proof, it does establish the plausibility of the empirically observed result.

To check the corresponding result for P-waves, we need to estimate δ . Making use of (51), we also have

$$c\delta = -2c \left\langle \frac{\mu - l}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle \left[1 - l^{-1} \left\langle \frac{\lambda + \mu}{\mu(\lambda + 2\mu)} \right\rangle^{-1} \left\langle \frac{\mu - l}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle \right]. \quad (62)$$

Working to the same order as we did for the final expression in (57), we can neglect the second term in the square brackets of (62). What remains shows that pore fluids would have an effect on this result. The result is

$$c^*\delta^* \simeq -2c^* \left\langle \frac{\mu - l}{\lambda^* + 2\mu} \right\rangle. \quad (63)$$

If desired, a similar replacement can also be made for G_{eff} in (45) using the fact that $2(\mu_3^* - l) = c - f - 2l$. Eq. (63) shows that, since c^* and δ^* both depend on the λ^* 's (although in opposite ways, since one increases while the other decreases as λ^* increases), the product of these factors will have some dependence on fluids. The degree to which fluctuations in λ^* and μ are correlated, or anticorrelated as they vary from layer to layer, will also affect these results in predictable ways.

Now we have derived all the results needed to interpret Eq. (29) and show how it is related to (28). First, we note some of the main terms missing from (29) were those due to approximations made to δ and the denominators of (28), which have been approximated as $f \simeq c - 2l$ instead of $f \simeq c(1 + \delta) - 2l$. Then, from (57), it is easy to see that the final term in (29) vanishes to lowest order, and that the remainder is given exactly by the shear modulus fluctuation terms in brackets in (54) — in complete agreement with the final terms of (28). Then, from (62), it follows that the leading contribution to the factor $c\delta + 4l\gamma$ is

$$c\delta + 4l\gamma \simeq 2c \left\langle \frac{m - \mu}{\lambda + 2\mu} \right\rangle, \quad (64)$$

in complete agreement with the second term on the right hand side of (28).

In the case of very strong fluctuations in the layer shear moduli, then (54) and (62) both show that pore-fluid effects are magnified due to the fluctuations in layer shear moduli and, therefore, contribute more to the anisotropy correction factors $2c^*(\epsilon^* - \delta^*)$ and $2c^*\delta^*$ for undrained porous media. So these effects will be more easily observed in seismic, sonic, or ultrasonic data under these circumstances. Changes of two types are observed: (a) The values of the wave speeds at $\theta = 0$ and $\pi/2$ are shifted down by the increased-density effect and — for quasi- V_p — shifted up by the magnification factor from Gassmann's equation for the bulk modulus. (b) The second change is the angular dependence of wave speed due to the anisotropy. When these effects are present, the vertically polarized quasi-shear mode will show the largest magnitude effect, the horizontally polarized shear mode will show no effect, and the quasi-compressional mode will show an effect of intermediate magnitude. It is known that these angular effects, when present, are always strongest at 45° , and are diminished when the angle of propagation is either 0° or 90° relative to the layering direction. We will test these analytical predictions with numerical examples in the next section.

To summarize our main result here: The most significant contributions of the liquid dependence to shear waves comes into the wave dispersion formulas through coefficient a (or equivalently ϵ). Equations (54) and (55) show that

$$a = 2f - c + m + 3G_{\text{eff}}. \quad (65)$$

For small fluctuations in μ , coefficients a and c have comparable magnitude dependence on the fluid effects, but of opposite sign. For large fluctuations, the effects on a are much larger

(quadratic) than those on c (linear). Propagation at normal incidence will never show much effect of liquids on the shear modulus. But, propagation at angles closer to 45° can show significant enhancements in wave speeds for both quasi-P and quasi-SV waves (when shear fluctuations are large). Nevertheless, there will still be no effect on SH waves except the ubiquitous density effect.

COMPUTED EXAMPLES

From previous work (Berryman, 2004a), we know that large fluctuations in the layer shear moduli are required before significant deviations from Gassmann’s quasi-static constant result, thereby showing that the shear modulus dependence on fluid properties can become noticeable. To generate a model that demonstrates these results, again I made use of the same code of V. Grechka as described when presenting Figure 1. But this time I arbitrarily picked just one of the models that seemed to be most interesting for the present purposes. The parameters of this model are displayed in TABLE 1. The results for the various elastic coefficients and Thomsen parameters are displayed in TABLE 2. The results of the calculations for V_p and V_{sv} are shown in Figures 2 and 3.

Under the assumption that most readers will trust that the modeling was done correctly and will be primarily interested in the results relating to the impact of fluids on shear waves, we relegate the rest of the discussion concerning details of the modeling approach to Appendix B.

TABLE 1. Bulk modulus K , shear modulus μ , and normalized thickness z (or volume fraction) for the three materials in a simple layered medium used to produce the examples in Figures 2 and 3. For this model, $\gamma = 0.344$ (indicating fairly strong anisotropy).

<i>Constituent</i>	K (GPa)	μ (GPa)	z (m/m)
1	9.454	0.097	0.477
2	14.793	4.029	0.276
3	43.585	8.779	0.247

TABLE 2. The VTI elastic coefficients and Thomsen parameters for the materials (see Table 1) used in the computed examples of Figures 2 and 3.

<i>Elastic Parameters</i> <i>and Density</i>	<i>Case</i> $B = 0$	<i>Case</i> $B = \frac{1}{2}$	<i>Case</i> $B = 1$
a (GPa)	33.835	50.352	132.700
c (GPa)	33.195	50.472	134.204
f (GPa)	22.206	38.586	120.701
l (GPa)	4.014	4.014	4.014
m (GPa)	6.778	6.778	6.778
G_{eff} (GPa)	5.280	5.884	6.242
δ	-0.0847	-0.0733	-0.0399
$\epsilon - \delta$	0.0943	0.0745	0.0343
γ	0.344	0.344	0.344
ρ (kg/m ³)	2120.0	2310.0	2320.0

We took the porosity to be $\phi = 0.2$, and the overall density to be $\rho = (1 - \phi)\rho_s + \phi S\rho_l$, where $\rho_s = 2650.0$ kg/m³, S is liquid saturation ($0 \leq S \leq 1$), and $\rho_l = 1000.0$ kg/m³. Then, three cases were considered: (1) Gas saturation $S = 0$ and $B = 0$, which is also the drained case, assuming that the effect of the saturating gas on the moduli is negligible. (2) Partial liquid saturation $S = 0.95$ and $B = \frac{1}{2}$ [which is intended to model a case of partial liquid saturation], intermediate between the other two cases. For smaller values of liquid saturation, the effect of the liquid might not be noticeable, since the gas-liquid mixture when homogeneously mixed will act much like the pure gas in compression, although the density effect will still be present. When the liquid fills most of the pore-space, being generally connected throughout, and the gas occupies less than about 3% of the entire volume of the rock, then the gas starts to become disconnected. We expect the effect of the liquid to start becoming more noticeable (the cushioning effect of the gas is no longer dominant), and therefore we choose $B = \frac{1}{2}$ to be representative of this case. And, finally, (3) full liquid saturation $S = 1$ and $B = 1$, which is also the fully undrained case. We assume for the purposes of this example that a fully saturating liquid has the maximum possible stiffening effect on the locally microhomogeneous, isotropic, poroelastic medium.

The results shown in Figures 2 and 3 are in complete qualitative and quantitative agree-

ment with the analytical predictions described. As B increases from $B = 0$ to $B = 1$, G_{eff} increases. But it remains bounded between the values of l and m (which are both clearly constants, independent of B). Models having smaller values of γ and, therefore, smaller levels of fluctuation in the layer shear moduli, will produce l 's and m 's that are closer together, thus greatly constraining the range of values allowed for G_{eff} as B varies over the physical range. This concludes our summary of the conditions needed for the fluid dependence of shear waves described here to be observable.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The quasi-static analysis of Berryman (2004a) has shown that, although there are five effective shear moduli for any layered VTI medium, there is just one effective shear modulus for an isotropic-layers system that contains *all* the dependence of elastic or poroelastic constants on pore fluids — *i.e.*, all that can be observed in vertically polarized shear waves in VTI media. The relevant modulus G_{eff} is related to uniaxial shear strain and the relevant axis of symmetry is the vertical one — normal to the bedding planes. The pore-fluid effects on this effective shear modulus can be substantial when the medium behaves in an undrained fashion, as might be expected at higher frequencies such as sonic and ultrasonic for well-logging or laboratory experiments, or at seismic frequencies for lower permeability regions of reservoirs. However, bounds on the variation of this effect are known precisely since G_{eff} can never be lower than $l = c_{44}$ and never greater than $m = c_{66}$. These predictions are clearly illustrated by the scatter plot in Figure 1, which also shows that there is no simple correlation between the magnitude of shear modulus fluctuations (parameterized by γ) and the coupling between pore fluids and shear that we are studying here. This writer had initially expected to see correlations, but found none to be present — at least none were found within the uncorrelated modeling scheme used here. The present work has been an application and extension of the quasi-static analysis from Berryman (2004a) to seismic wave propagation.

The primary question addressed in this paper was this: Does the effective shear wave speed of a long-wavelength quasi-SV wave in a finely layered VTI material depend on the bulk modulus of the fluid in the isotropic poroelastic layers? Gassmann's results (Gassmann, 1951) say that — without doubt — the shear modulus in each individual isotropic layer is mechanically independent of the fluid. So, perhaps surprisingly, we have found that the answer to the question is positive. The quasi-SV wave *always* does depend on the fluid mechanics, unless the shear modulus of all the layers is exactly a uniform constant. Furthermore, the magnitude of this effect is largest when the layer shear modulus fluctuations are large.

In contrast, if the layers themselves can be anisotropic, there is nothing new introduced by the layering process. Gassmann (1951) had already proved in his original paper that anisotropic poroelastic media can have quasi-static shear modes that are dependent upon the fluid mechanics. So, in this sense, it was already known 50 years ago that layers of anisotropic porous media will show shear behavior that depends on pore-fluid mechanics. What is new here concerns the perhaps surprising result that layers of isotropic porous media also show this same effect, even though isolated isotropic media do not show the effect. We can view this therefore as an up-scaling result, introduced by treating microstructural effects not usually accounted for in the simpler poroelastic treatments. The discussion here was limited to isotropic layers in order

to emphasize these important distinctions.

The stiffness coefficients a , b , c , and f , all contain contributions from fluid effects for undrained layers. However, only stiffness a and Thomsen parameter ϵ contain terms quadratic in layer shear modulus fluctuations, and these contributions are the ones creating the most significant effects on shear waves for strong anisotropy.

In addition, the analysis used here also leads us to consider some different ways of expanding the formulas for the phase velocity dispersion relations of the quasi-P and quasi-SV modes. These secondary results may also have some practical benefits and are collected and illustrated in Appendix A.

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APPENDIX A – APPROXIMATE PHASE VELOCITIES

Probably the most common way to write the linearized equations for the phase velocities in VTI media (Thomsen, 1986; 2002; Rüger, 2002) is

$$V_p(\theta) \simeq V_{p0} \left[1 + \delta \sin^2 \theta \cos^2 \theta + \epsilon \sin^4 \theta \right], \quad (66)$$

$$V_{sv}(\theta) \simeq V_{s0} \left[1 + \frac{V_{p0}^2}{V_{s0}^2} (\epsilon - \delta) \sin^2 \theta \cos^2 \theta \right], \quad (67)$$

and

$$V_{sh}(\theta) \simeq V_{s0} \left[1 + \gamma \sin^2 \theta \right]. \quad (68)$$

The approximations in all three cases are made based on assumed smallness of the parameters δ , ϵ , γ , which in fact may or may not hold for any particular layered medium. However, the work in this paper demands better approximations than these, because the assumptions of weak anisotropy are always violated in the cases of most interest, *i.e.*, when the SV-wave velocity actually does depend in a significant way on fluid content. Thomsen (2002) (in his Appendix III) quotes another form of the dispersion relation for $V_p(\theta)$ that is more useful for our purposes (modified here to correct an obvious typo in the leading term):

$$V_p^2(\theta) \simeq V_{p0}^2 + 2V_{nmo}^2 (\delta \sin^2 \theta + \eta \sin^4 \theta), \quad (69)$$

where $V_{p0}^2 = c/\rho$, $V_{nmo} \simeq V_{p0}(1 + \delta)$, and $\eta = (\epsilon - \delta)/(1 + 2\delta)$ is the combination of parameters introduced by Alkhalifah and Tsvankin (1996). Although (69) is still an approximation, it is much closer in form to the dispersion relation quoted here in (35). The form (69) still assumes smallness of the anisotropy parameters, but the usual square root approximation has not been made yet, so the correspondence with (35) is easier to scan. If we neglect higher order contributions to Δ and thereby make the approximation that

$$\Delta \simeq 2k^2 c(\epsilon - \delta) \sin^2 \theta \cos^2 \theta, \quad (70)$$

then (35) becomes

$$V_p^2(\theta) \simeq V_{p0}^2 + 2V_{p0}^2 \delta \sin^2 \theta + 2V_{p0}^2(1 + 2\delta)\eta \sin^4 \theta. \quad (71)$$

If in addition we also make the small anisotropy approximations $V_{p0}^2 \delta \simeq V_{nmo}^2 \delta$ and $V_{p0}^2(1 + 2\delta) \simeq V_{nmo}^2$ in (71), then the result recovers (69).

Our main goal in this Appendix is to make a direct comparison between the exact formulas (35) and (36), the approximate formulas resulting from (35) and (36) when Δ is replaced by its first approximation (38), and either standard equations (66) and (67) or approximation (69) and some yet to be determined companion equation for quasi-SV waves. The easiest and most consistent way to arrive at an appropriate approximate form for V_{sv}^2 is to use the exact relations (35) and (36) to determine what effective value of Δ_{eff} has been used in (69) and then use it again in (36). We find

$$\Delta_{eff}(\theta) \simeq 2k^2 \rho V_{p0}^2 (\epsilon - \delta) \sin^2 \theta \cos^2 \theta - 2k^2 \rho V_{p0}^2 \delta^2 (2 + \delta) \sin^2 \theta. \quad (72)$$

However, this formula has the undesirable characteristic that it does not vanish as it should for $\theta = 90^\circ$. The offending terms are second order in δ and therefore are usually neglected for weak anisotropy. But the weak anisotropy assumptions implicit in (69) are not valid in the present context, so this is nevertheless a problem for us here. Making proper allowance for this, we can arrive at a corrected Δ that has the desired behavior and still agrees with the prior results under weak anisotropy conditions:

$$\Delta_{corr}(\theta) \simeq 2k^2 \rho V_{nmo}^2 \eta \sin^2 \theta \cos^2 \theta, \quad (73)$$

and, therefore, that a good choice for V_{sv}^2 to the same level of approximation is

$$V_{sv}^2(\theta) = V_{so}^2 + \Delta_{corr}(\theta)/k^2 \rho. \quad (74)$$

But these modifications have led us back to the approximation (35) and therefore provide nothing new. So instead of comparisons to (69) and (74), we will choose to make our comparisons to (66) and (67). In particular, these two equations amount to using

$$\Delta_{eff} = 2k^2 \rho V_{p0}^2 (\epsilon - \delta) \sin^2 \theta \cos^2 \theta, \quad (75)$$

except for some higher order corrections in Δ_{eff} which would always be small if the anisotropy were really always weak. Although Eqs. (73) and (75) are apparently the same, this fact is a bit misleading since Δ and its corrections arise in the final results in different ways because of

differing square root approximations and different assumptions about the presence or absence of strong anisotropy.

Numerical comparisons of these three sets of results for quasi-P and quasi-SV waves are summarized in Figures 4 and 5 for one strong anisotropy example. The comparison is obviously not a fair one for the weak anisotropy equations since they are being used beyond their acknowledged (and expected) range of validity. The main point of the exercise is to see that the approximations made here give reasonable approximations to the exact results for phase velocities over the full range of possible incidence angles for strong anisotropy conditions, while the standard results do not fair as well. All the methods agree quite well for compressional waves in this model. The evaluation of (36) using (38) to approximate Δ gives a clear improvement over (67) for the quasi-SV wave velocity in a range of intermediate angles. Overall, the weak anisotropy formulas (66) and (67) give better results for strong anisotropy in this case than might have been expected.

The use of these ideas must be reconsidered when group (or ray) velocity is desired, for then quasi-SV waves can triplicate. None of the approximate formulas presented here can be considered adequate for such applications. Useful discussions relating to triplication and some intuitive rules about when it occurs can be found in Dellinger (1991) and Thomsen and Dellinger (2003).

APPENDIX B – MODELING DETAILS

In order to avoid cluttering the main text with myriad details concerning the finely layered earth models considered for the examples, we collect here those details for those readers who want to understand the modeling approach taken.

I made use of a code of V. Grechka [used previously in a joint publication (Berryman *et al.*, 1999)]. This code chooses layer parameters randomly from within the following range of values: $1.5 \leq V_p \leq 5.0$ km/s, $0.1 \leq V_s/V_p \leq 0.8$, and $1.8 \leq \rho \leq 2.8 \times 10^3$ kg/m³. This approach produces reasonable values of layer velocities overall, but ignores any empirical correlations among the isotropic velocities and density that might be considered valid within realistic individual layers. In particular, if it happens that the lowest allowed densities are chosen by chance to appear in the same layers as the highest velocities, it is possible that the resulting bulk and shear moduli produced by this method may seem anomalously high, and vice versa if the lowest velocities happen to appear together with the highest densities. Since our goal for these calculations is merely to illustrate a physical concept, not necessarily to produce a perfectly realistic field example, this method was deemed adequate for these purposes.

The model calculations were also simplified in another way: the value of the Biot-Willis parameter was chosen to be a uniform value of $\alpha = 0.8$ in all layers. We could have actually computed a value of α from the other layer parameters, but to do so would require another assumption about at least one other parameter in each layer. The Biot-Willis parameter is related to bulk moduli by the formula $\alpha = 1 - K/K_m$, where K is the drained modulus and K_m is the grain modulus. The routine described above for choosing velocities does not take porosity into account separately. So if porosity is nonzero, then the moduli that come out of the routine are the drained (gas-filled) constants. Only in the case of zero porosity would the

routine porosity give us values of K_m , and since we are attempting to study porous media, we assume this never happens. So we need to assign a value of K_m to each layer, but this is done implicitly by assigning instead a value of α to each layer, since $K_m = K/(1 - \alpha)$. We do not require the grain shear modulus for our modeling, so choosing any physically reasonable value of α in each layer is adequate for our purposes. We could instead choose a value of porosity ϕ and use this to estimate α using effective medium theory, but doing this seemed an exercise of little value because we are just trying to show in a simple way that the formulas given here really do produce the types of results predicted analytically. We want to get a feeling for the magnitude of the effects. Furthermore, if α is a constant, then it is only the product αB that matters. Whatever choice of constant $\alpha \leq 1$ is made, it mainly determines the maximum value of the product αB for B in the range $[0, 1]$. So, for a parameter study, it is only important not to choose too small a value of α , which is why the choice $\alpha = 0.8$ was made. This means that the maximum amplification of the bulk modulus due to fluid effects can be as high as a factor of 5 $[= 1/(1 - \alpha)]$ for the present examples.

We took the porosity to be $\phi = 0.2$. This value is in the middle of the range $0 \leq \phi \leq 0.4$ typical of relevant earth materials. We chose $\alpha = 0.8$, since this corresponds to a soft material for which strengthening due to the presence of the pore liquid will be quite noticeable. In general we have $\phi \leq \alpha$, which is easily satisfied. The overall density was taken to be $\rho = (1 - \phi)\rho_s + \phi S \rho_l$, where $\rho_s = 2650.0 \text{ kg/m}^3$, S is liquid saturation ($0 \leq S \leq 1$), and $\rho_l = 1000.0 \text{ kg/m}^3$.

Then, three cases of liquid saturation were considered: (a) Gas saturation $S = 0$ and $B = 0$, which is also the drained case, assuming that the effect of the saturating gas on the moduli is negligible. (b) Partial liquid saturation $S = 0.95$ and $B = \frac{1}{2}$ [which is intended to model a case of partial liquid saturation], intermediate between the other two cases. And (c) full liquid saturation $S = 1$ and $B = 1$, which is also the fully undrained case. For values of liquid saturation smaller than $S = 0.95$, the effect of the liquid might not be noticeable, since the gas-liquid mixture when homogeneously mixed will act much like the pure gas in compression, although the density effect will still be present. When the liquid fills most of the pore-space — being generally connected throughout — and the gas occupies less than about 3% of the entire volume of the rock, then the gas starts to become disconnected. We expect the effect of the liquid to start becoming more noticeable (the cushioning effect of the gas is no longer dominant), and therefore we choose $B = \frac{1}{2}$ to be representative of this intermediate saturation case. By taking $B = 1$, we are assuming for the purposes of our examples that a fully saturating liquid has the maximum possible stiffening effect on the locally microhomogeneous, isotropic, poroelastic medium. This would be true for example if the pores were flat cracks, or if the fluid had a bulk modulus comparable in magnitude to that of the solid grain material. In fact, taking $B \equiv 1$ is an extreme case, not likely to be observed in practice, but nevertheless most convenient for our modeling purposes.

Although these modeling choices may seem arbitrary to readers not familiar with the soils literature, they are in fact completely consistent with Skempton's original definitions. In fact, based on saturated clay data, Skempton (1954) recommends $B = 1$ when the soil is fully saturated, $B = 0$ when unsaturated, and $0.1 \leq B \leq 0.5$ for partial saturation. Data displayed in one of his plots suggests that $B = 1/2$ for a liquid saturation of about 91%, in general agreement with the arguments made here.

Finally, we are not trying to model patchy saturation conditions in this paper. We assume

that whatever value of B has been assigned, it holds throughout the entire layered medium — thereby representing a homogeneous state of saturation. Within the present modeling approach, patchy saturation could be treated instead by choosing different values of B in different parts of the model (*e.g.*, in different layers), but this extension of the approach was not pursued here.

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TABLE 3. Symbols

e_{ij}	Elastic strain tensor
σ_{ij}	Elastic stress tensor
a, b, c, f, l, m	Elastic stiffness coefficients
k	Wavenumber
k_1 & k_3	$k \sin \theta$ & $k \cos \theta$, respectively
q, Q	Arbitrary scalar functions of depth
r, s	Arbitrary scalars
x, X, χ	Scalar quantities associated with eigenvalues
z	Depth coordinate, measured either in meters or normalized by total integration depth over all layers in the layer averages
B	Skempton's coefficient
G_{eff}	Effective shear modulus [$\equiv (a + c - m - 2f)/3$], containing all pertinent fluid effects on elastic shear stiffness
K	Bulk modulus
S	Liquid saturation
V_p, V_{sv}, V_{sh}	Compressional (P) and shear (SV, SH) wave phase speeds
V_{p0}	$= \sqrt{c/\rho}$
V_{nmo}	$= V_{p0}(1 + \delta)$
$\mathcal{A}$	Anellipticity parameter
$\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{K}$	Some useful combinations of elastic coefficients
α	Biot-Willis parameter
β	scalar proportionality constant
δ, ϵ, γ	Thomsen's parameters, used for both weak (as intended) and strong anisotropy
η	$\equiv (\epsilon - \delta)/(1 + 2\delta)$
λ, μ	Lamé parameters
μ_1, μ_3	Effective shear moduli contributing to G_{eff}
ϕ	Porosity
ω	Angular frequency ($\omega = 2\pi f$)
$\omega_{\pm}, \omega_s$	Angular frequencies solving the dispersion relations for a fixed value of the wavenumber k
ρ	Overall density
θ	Angle from the vertical
Δ	Anelliptic correction ($-/+$) for quasi-P and quasi-SV waves

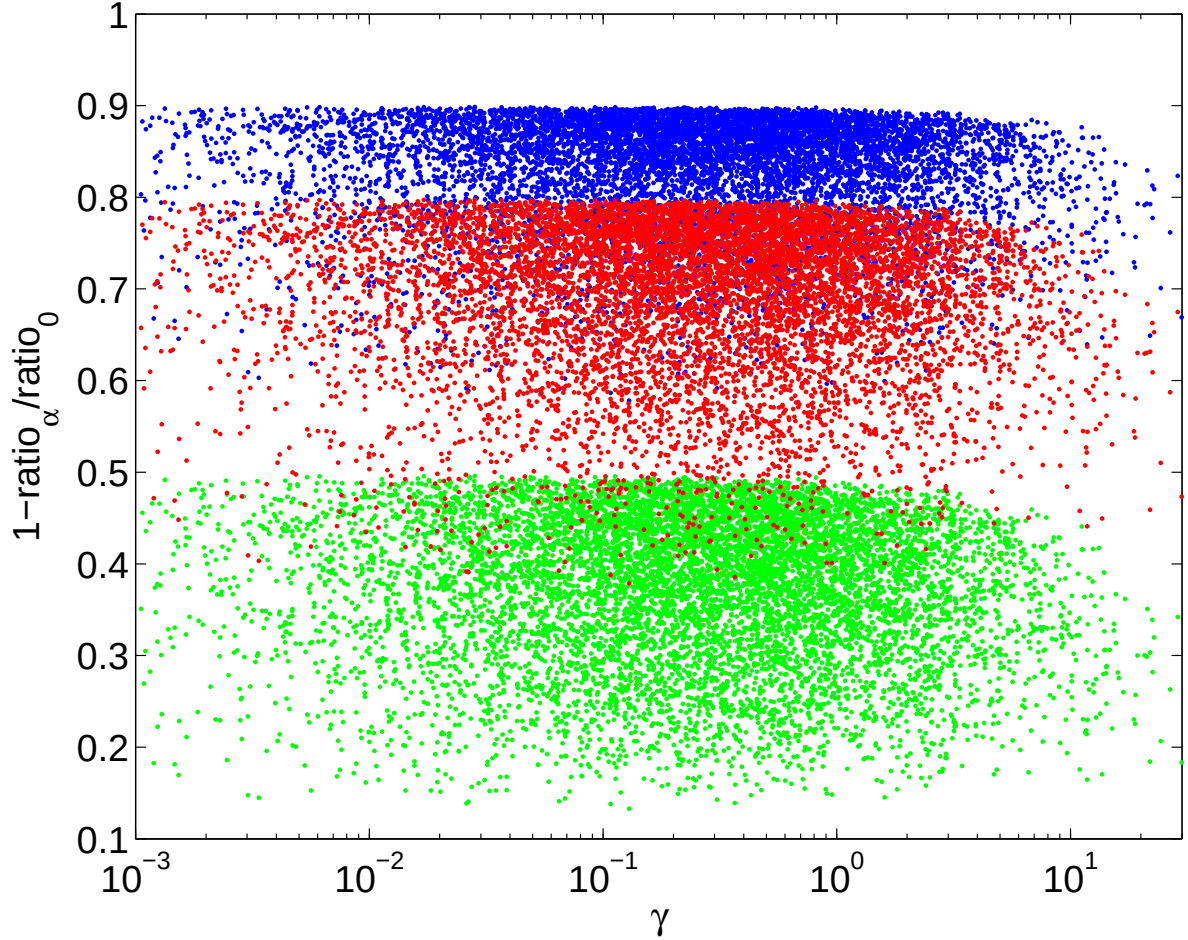


Figure 1: Scatter plot illustrating how G_{eff} varies over a physically sensible range of layered isotropic media (see text for details) with 2700 distinct models and $B = 1$ [see Eq. (58) in the text for the definition of $ratio_\alpha$]. Blue dots are for $\alpha = 0.9$, red for $\alpha = 0.8$, and green for $\alpha = 0.5$. Note, that in each case, all the points for a particular choice of α are bounded above precisely by the value of α . (A general proof of this empirical observation is currently lacking.)

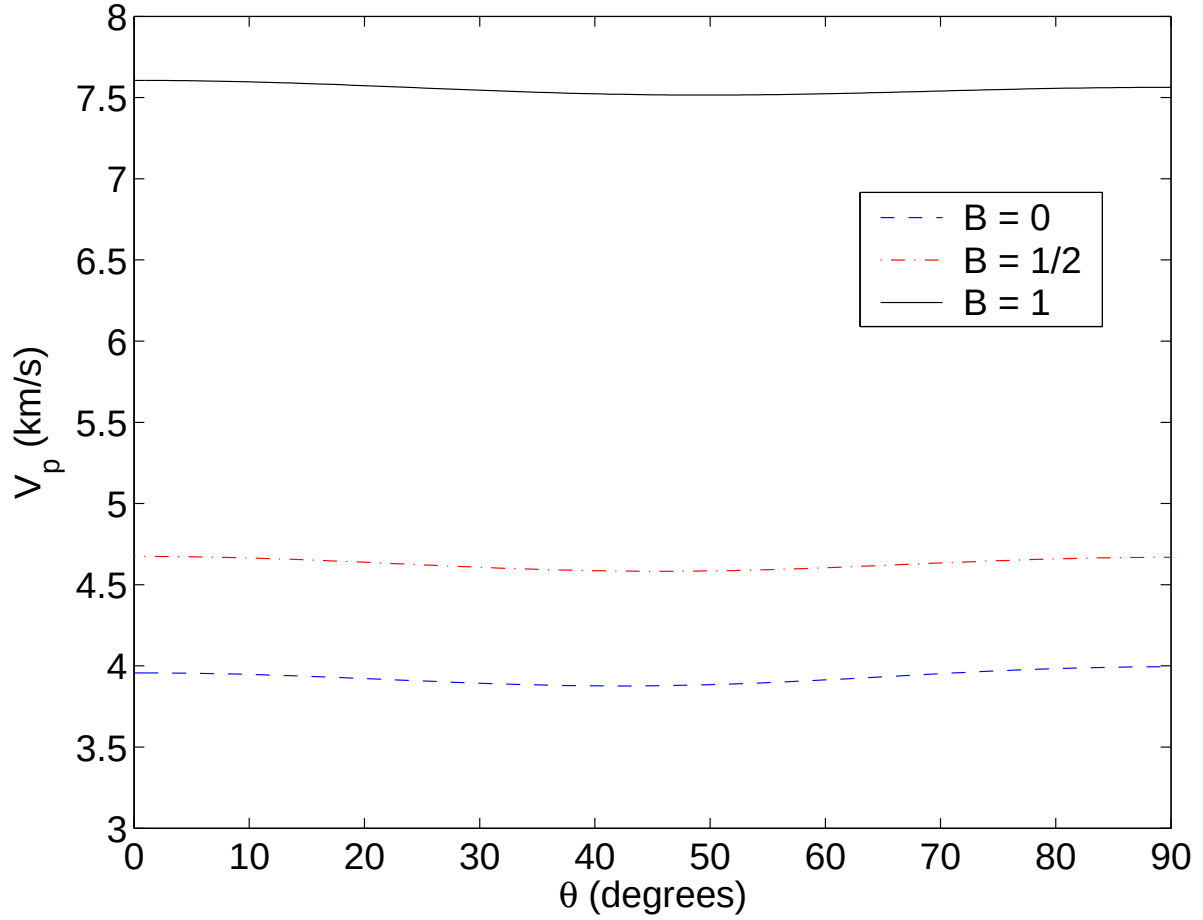


Figure 2: Compressional wave speed V_p as a function of angle θ from the vertical. Two curves shown correspond to choices of Skempton's coefficient $B = 0$ for the drained case (dashed line) and $B = 1$ for the undrained case (solid line). The case $B = \frac{1}{2}$ (dot-dash line) is used to model partial saturation conditions as described in the text. The Biot-Willis parameter was chosen to be $\alpha = 0.8$, constant in all layers.

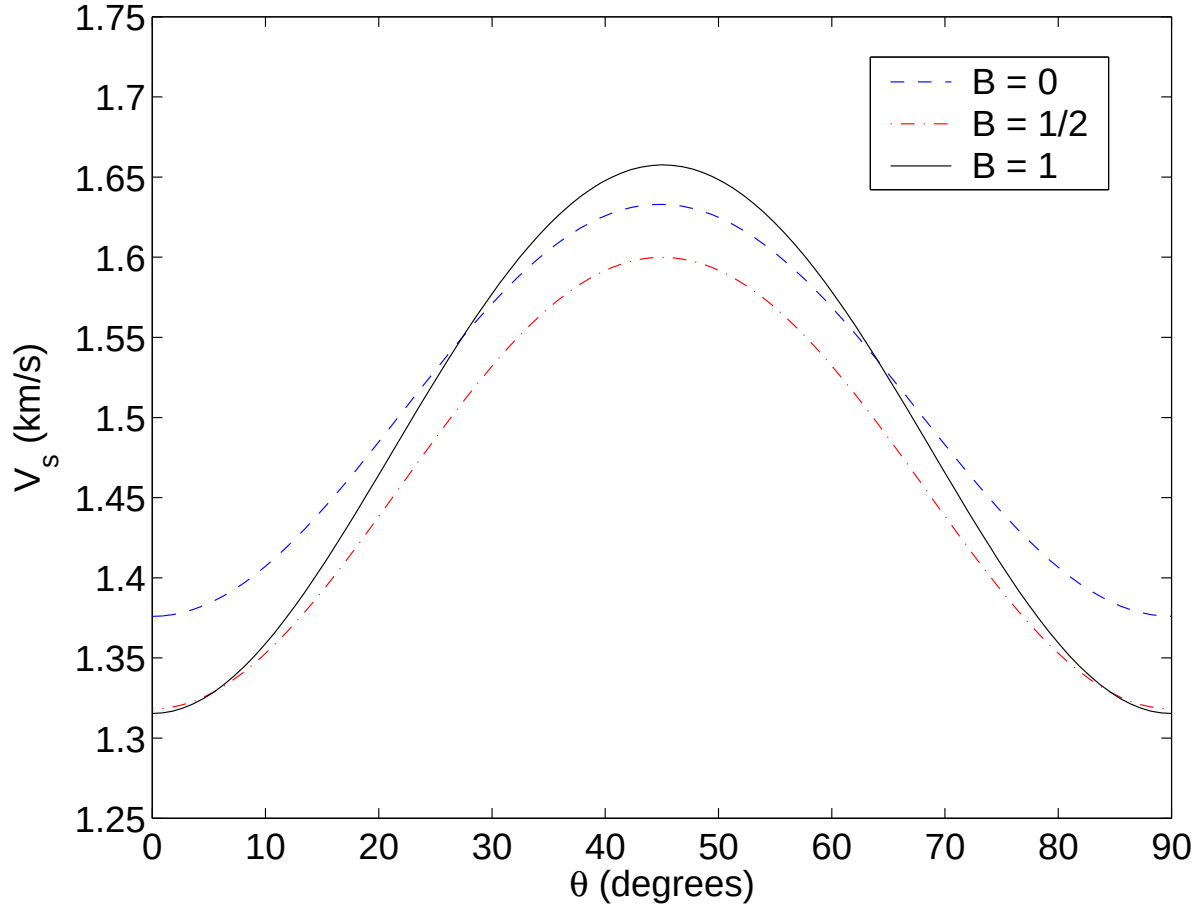


Figure 3: Vertically polarized shear wave speed V_{sv} as a function of angle θ from the vertical. Two curves shown correspond to choices of Skempton's coefficient $B = 0$ for the drained case (dashed line) and $B = 1$ for the undrained case (solid). The case $B = \frac{1}{2}$ (dot-dash line) is used to model partial saturation conditions as described in the text. The Biot-Willis parameter was chosen to be $\alpha = 0.8$, constant in all layers.

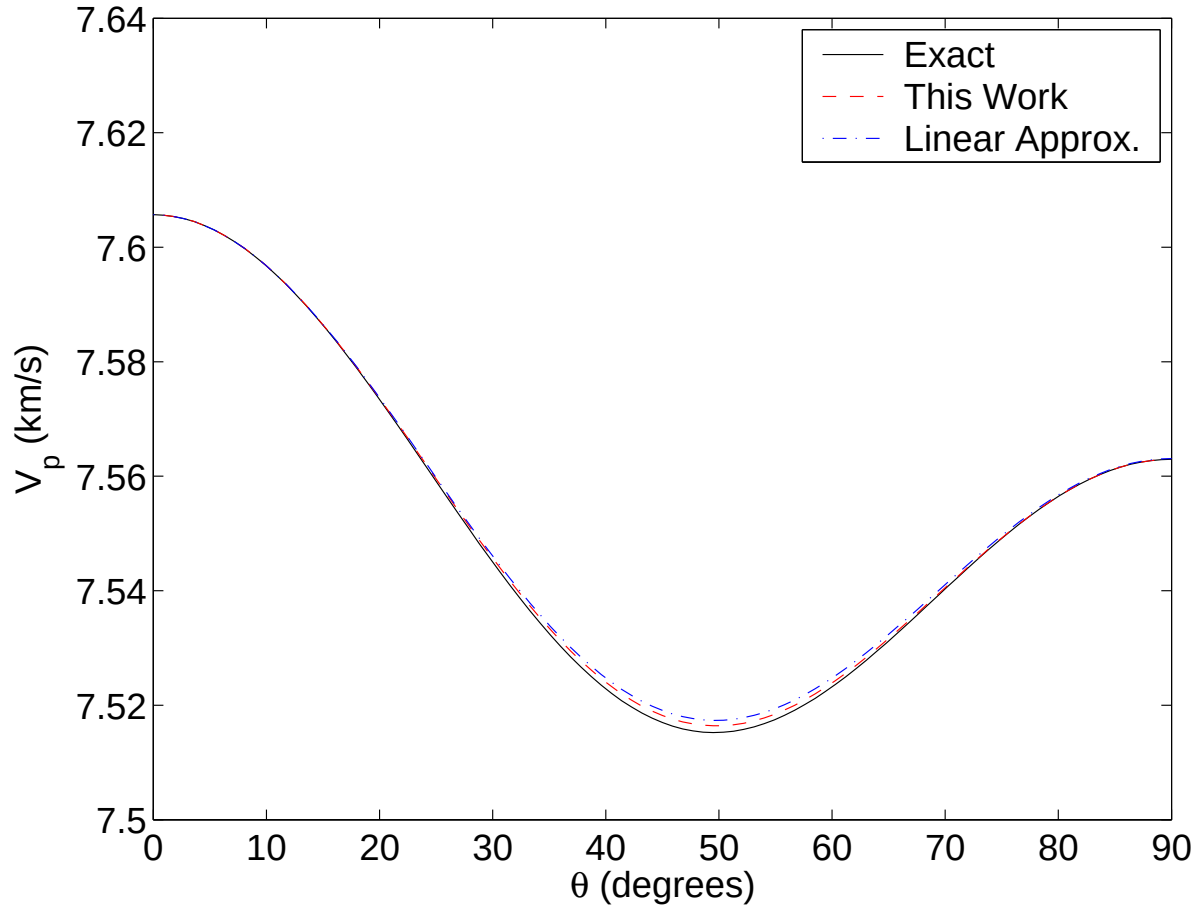


Figure 4: Compressional wave velocities as computed (a) exactly from the dispersion relation (35), (b) by (35) using approximation (38) for Δ , and (c) by the linear approximation (66). This layered model is the same as in Figures 2 and 3 for the case $B = 1$.

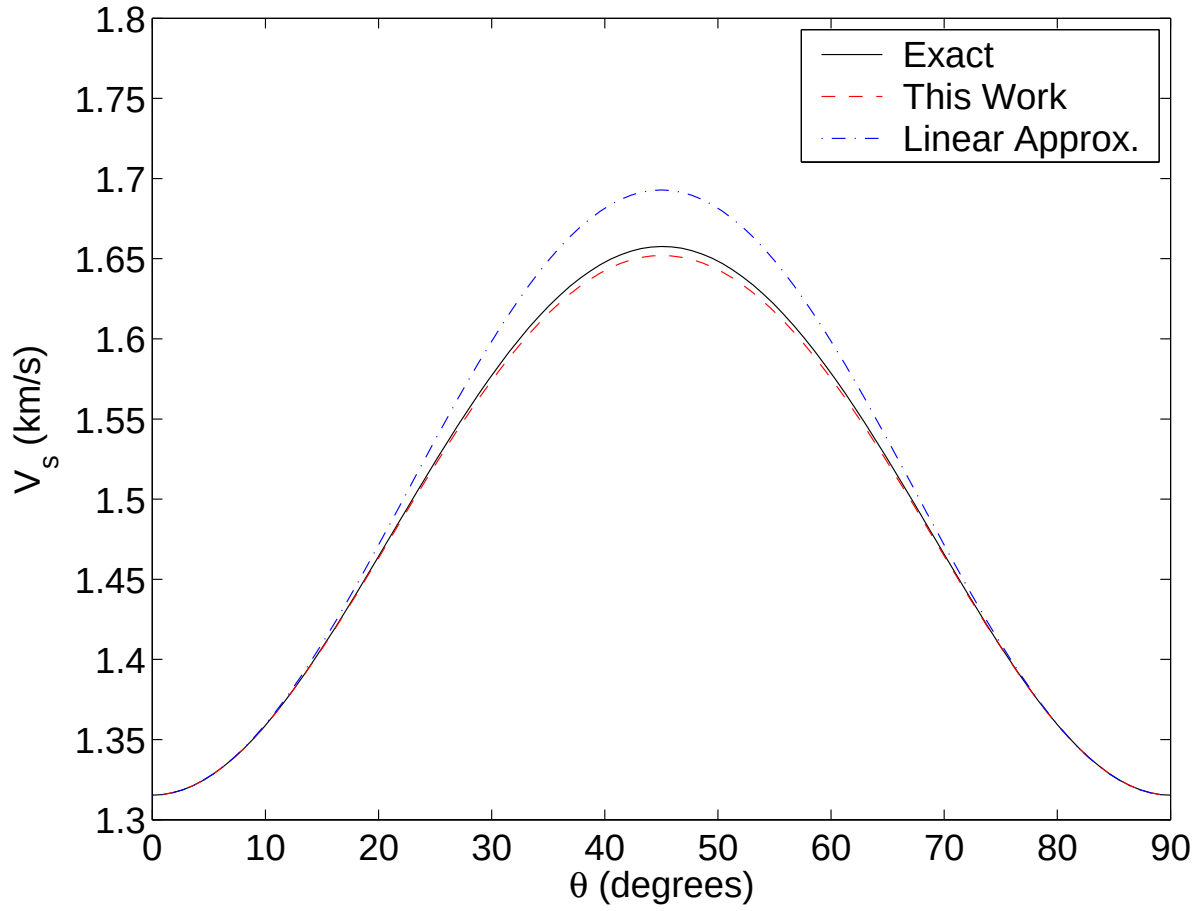


Figure 5: Shear wave velocities as computed (a) exactly from the dispersion relation (36), (b) by (36) using approximation (38) for Δ , and (c) by the linear approximation (68). This layered model is the same as in Figures 2 and 3 for the case $B = 1$.