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The inversion of geoelectrical data for hydrogeological applications in crystalline basement areas of Nigeria

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The inversion of geoelectrical data for hydrogeological applications in crystalline basement areas of Nigeria

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Abstract

A methodology is presented for the inversion of two-dimensional (2-D) geoelectrical data for solving hydrogeological problems in crystalline basement areas. The initial step entails compiling an earth model using all available geological, borehole and geophysical information. This model then served as the input to a 2-D inversion algorithm based on the Simultaneous Iterative Reconstruction Technique (SIRT). The algorithm tries to find a model that is as close as possible to the starting model. To demonstrate the usefulness of this procedure, two field examples from Nigeria, conducted as part of a borehole siting programme, are described. In the first example, borehole information regarding the thickness of the weathered zone overlying a gneissic bedrock was used to constrain the 1-D inversion of sounding data and the model thus compiled was used as the starting model for 2-D inversion. In the second example, only sounding information was used to determine the starting model. If the starting model has incorporated all the available information as constraints, it is generally possible to compute a model that not only fits the measured data but is also a good approximation of the subsurface geology, more so when several 2-D models can fit the same set of field measurements on account of the limitations posed by equivalence.

Keywords: crystalline basement; electrical resistivity; geoelectrical prospection; inversion algorithm; Nigeria; non-uniqueness

1. Introduction

Although the solution to a geophysical inverse problem is seldom unique, the conventional approach to the inversion of direct current resistivity data requires no prior information on the distribution of resistivity in the subsurface

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(Smith and Vozoff, 1984; Tripp et al., 1984; Shima, 1990; Loke and Barker, 1995, 1996). However, the resulting image, being just one out of several probable models, is not necessarily free from the interpreter's bias. Simms and Morgan (1990) have shown that in the 1-D inversion of sounding data the indirect method, in which the geophysicist prescribes the initial model parameters, gives better results than an automatic inversion which requires no initial model. It has been suggested (Ellis and Oldenburg, 1994) that all a priori information should

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be used in generating a base model which would serve as a constraint for an inversion algorithm.

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The application of electrical imaging or electrical tomography in geology normally involves the deployment of an array of colinear, equidistant electrodes. A series of constant separation traverses is measured, using a computer-controlled system (Griffiths and Turnbull, 1985; Griffiths et al., 1990; Griffiths and Barker, 1993), the electrode separation being increased with each successive traverse. The data are classically presented in the form of pseudosections (Edwards, 1977). The unit electrode spacing affects the length of the profile, depth of investigation and resolution. In field surveys cost considerations dictate that a large area be covered in minimal time; hence the unit spacing could be very large. This inevitably leads to a loss of geoelectrical information about the near-surface materials.

In the 2-D interpretation of resistivity pseudosection data from crystalline basement areas it is often possible to calculate a rather simplistic equivalent 2-D model that fits the measured data in which the entire overburden is lumped together as having a single resistivity (Olayinka, 1988). This resistivity can be visualized as a weighted average of the resistivity of the various geoelectrical units that make up the overburden. In the absence of any supplementary information this is possibly the best that could be done. However, significant lateral and vertical variations have been reported in the lithologic characteristics of the weathered profile developed upon the crystalline basement in several parts of Africa (Chilton and Foster, 1995). In these areas, the depth to the fresh bedrock varies from 0 to 70 m and the vertical profile can be subdivided into three main parts, namely the topsoil, the saprolite (saturated regolith), and saprock (weathered bedrock). The resistivity of the topsoil varies from less than 50 to over 1000 Ω m; that of the saprolite from 10 to 600 Ω m, the saprock 300 to 3000 Ω m and the fresh bedrock over 3000 Ω m (Aina et al., 1996). The highly heterogeneous nature of the overburden implies that situations could arise in which the images on pseudosections do not emulate the geologic structure.

In this paper, we have examined how the inclusion of borehole control and the results obtained from the 1-D inversion of vertical electrical sounding (VES) data can be used in compiling a 2-D geoelectrical model which could subsequently serve as the starting model for an inversion algorithm. The field measurements were acquired as part of hydrogeological investigations in crystalline basement areas of Nigeria. It is demonstrated that this approach to the inversion of 2-D pseudosection data leads to an improvement in the resolution of subsurface structures than is hitherto possible, especially when the unit electrode spacing in the survey is very large. Moreover, the solution is achieved after a fewer number of iterations than in automatic inversion, with a considerable saving in computer time.

Since electrical resistivity imaging is aimed at a more accurate delineation of subsurface structures any technique that could aid in the attainment of a realistic earth model is definitely welcome. The utilization of all a priori information including borehole control and sounding interpretation in the inversion of pseudosection data as described here is one such approach.

2. Inversion procedures

Geoelectrical measurements are performed in order to gather information on the subsurface resistivity distribution. Since each measured apparent resistivity is influenced by both the resistivity distribution in a large volume of earth and the electrode configuration the pseudosections cannot in most cases reflect the real subsurface structures. The reconstruction of a possible resistivity distribution can only be performed by inversion techniques, and the non-uniqueness in 2-D and 3-D interpretation can be reduced by including all available information into the inversion process.

The objective of inversion consists in finding a resistivity model which can approximate the measured data within the limits of data errors and which is in agreement with all a priori information. The inversion can be done manually by forward modelling in which changes in the model parameters are made by trial and error until a sufficient agreement between measured and synthetic data is achieved (Olayinka, 1988).

For more complicated geological structures where the number of parameters increases automatic inversion procedures are applied. Most of them work iteratively. The steps involved are as follows:

(1) The subsurface is subdivided into blocks of constant resistivity. The number of blocks Nis equal to the number of model parameters. All parameters may be described by a parameter vector $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_N)^T$. The parameter x_j is defined as the logarithm of the resistivity of the *j*th block.

(2) The measured data are compiled in a data vector $\hat{\mathbf{y}} = (\hat{y}_1, \dots, \hat{y}_M)^T$ where *M* corresponds to the number of measurements. The element \hat{y}_i of the data vector $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ is the logarithm of the apparent resistivity of the *i*th measurement in the survey.

(3) A starting model is chosen. The parameter vector is initialized $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^{(0)}$.

(4) The forward modelling for the model $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$ is performed where k denotes the number of the model. The apparent resistivity is calculated for all M configurations of electrodes used in the field survey. The calculated data are compiled in a data vector $\mathbf{y}^{(k)}$. The forward modelling is described by an operator S which is applied to the parameter vector $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$:

$$\mathbf{v}^{(k)} = S(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}). \tag{1}$$

(5) The residual $\mathbf{r}^{(k)}$ between measured and computed data is determined:

$$\mathbf{r}^{(k)} = \hat{\mathbf{y}} - \mathbf{y}^{(k)}. \tag{2}$$

If a norm of the residual $\|\mathbf{r}^{(k)}\|$ is less than a predetermined value ε the iteration process can

be stopped. The last model is accepted as a solution of the inversion.

(6) If the residual fails the stopping criterium the differences are applied to correct the resistivity model according to the inversion scheme and the next iteration is started with the forward modelling in step (4).

The use of the logarithms of resistivities instead of resistivities has proved to be more appropriate in resistivity inversion because negative resistivities are avoided and relative changes are emphasized.

We used two different inversion techniques which can be described by the above mentioned iteration scheme. The first one is based on the Zohdy–Barker algorithm (Barker, 1992), which is only applicable to Wenner measurements. The discretization grid is designed such that each resistivity block is representative for one data point in the pseudosection. Thus, the number of data corresponds to the number of resistivity blocks M = N. The depth to the centre of each block is one-half of the spacing between adjacent electrodes. The measured apparent resistivity data are used as starting model for a 2-D inversion ($\mathbf{x}^{(0)} = \hat{\mathbf{y}}$). The forward modelling is performed by a finite difference algorithm



Fig. 1. Simplified geological map of Nigeria showing the study area (A =Agbamu; I = Ira).

(Dey and Morrison, 1979; Weller, 1986). The ratio between measured and computed apparent resistivity is used to correct only the resistivity in the corresponding block. In logarithmic notation the correction is written as:

$$x_{i}^{(k+1)} = x_{i}^{(k)} + \omega r_{i}^{(k)}, \tag{3}$$

where j is the number of measurement or the corresponding resistivity block, and ω is a relaxation factor which was set to unity in the original version. From our experience a relaxation factor of $\omega = 1.2$ accelerates the convergence. In our modified version we use also a weighting between adjacent resistivity blocks in

the horizontal direction to ensure a better convergence.

The second technique is a more general inversion algorithm which is applicable to variable electrode configurations including buried electrodes. It can be applied to both 2-D and 3-D inversion. In the 2-D case, the subsurface is subdivided in a rectangular grid. The resistivity of each grid element is a parameter which should be determined during the reconstruction algorithm. Since the number of grid elements is generally much higher than the number of data, a strongly underdetermined system has to be solved. The forward modelling uses a finite



Fig. 2. Interpretation of Agbamu Line 4. (a) Measured apparent resistivity pseudosection. (b) Model derived from VES interpretation. (c) Pseudosection calculated from the model in (b).



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Fig. 3. Inversion of Agbamu VES 38, constrained by borehole information.

difference algorithm which allows the modelling of both resistivity and induced polarization data (Weller et al., 1996a). The inversion is based on a Simultaneous Iterative Reconstruction Technique (SIRT), which has been applied to several tomographic algorithms to solve linear equation systems (e.g., Dines and Lytle, 1979; Van der Sluis and Van der Vorst, 1987). Although the forward modelling operator *S* is nonlinear, we tried to use the SIRT for a linearization of Eq. (1) in the vicinity of the model $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y}^{(k)} + \mathbf{S}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{(k)}). \tag{4}$$

The matrix S is the Jacobian or sensitivity matrix

$$\mathbf{S} = \{s_{i,j}\}_{\substack{i=1,\dots,M\\j=1,\dots,N}}$$
(5)

with the elements

$$s_{i,j} = \frac{\partial y_i}{\partial x_j}.$$
 (6)

SIRT determines in each iteration step a correction of all model parameters using the residual and the sensitivities according to the following general equation

$$x_{j}^{(k+1)} = x_{j}^{(k)} + \omega \frac{1}{\sum_{n} |s_{n,j}|^{\alpha}} \sum_{i} \frac{s_{i,j}}{\sum_{l} |s_{i,l}|^{2-\alpha}} r_{i},$$
(7)

with $0 \le \alpha \le 2$ and $0 \le \omega \le 2$. In our inversion algorithm, we use Eq. (7) with an exponent $\alpha = 1$ and a relaxation factor $\omega > 1.5$. A change in the model results also in a change of the sensitivities (Weller et al., 1996b). A test has shown that an update of the sensitivity matrix in each iteration results only in a slight improvement of the rate of convergence compared with the use of unchanged sensitivities. Since the computational effort of a sensitivity update is considerable, our experience suggests that it should be performed only after every five or ten iterations.

3. Data acquisition and choice of starting model

Two field examples are described in the following section. These field measurements were made in the area around Ilorin, southwestern Nigeria (Fig. 1), as part of a borehole siting programme for rural water supply. A microprocessor-controlled resistivity traversing system (Griffiths and Barker, 1993) was used. The unit electrode spacing was 45 m and the maximum was 180 m for the fourth level of the Wenner pseudosection. The survey should provide information down to depths of about 90 m (Edwards, 1977).

Vertical electrical sounding data were acquired with the offset Wenner array (Barker,



Fig. 4. Inversion results of Agbamu Line 4. (a) Zohdy-Barker method, 5 iterations. (b) SIRT, 10 iterations, starting with backprojection. (c) SIRT, 10 iterations, starting with model from VES. (d) Pseudosection calculated from (c).

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1981) mainly in the vicinity of low resistivity anomalies identified on Wenner pseudosections. Such lows are normally thought to be caused by conductive fissure/fracture zones within the basement, containing water (Palacky et al., 1981). The orientations of the soundings were the same as those of the respective 2-D surveys. The soundings were measured up to a spacing of a = 64 m. In order to increase the number of data points, vertical columns of the pseudosection data beneath the respective electrode positions were added, thus extending the sounding curves. Where steep gradients were suspected, from an inspection of the resistivity contour pattern, the geometric average of two or three laterally adjacent data points was taken.

A 1-D inversion of the sounding data was carried out using a curve fitting algorithm based on a Marquardt-type least squares optimization method (Rösler and Weller, 1983). Soundings along a given traverse were correlated and common attributes searched for. Borehole information, where available, was also incorporated as a constraint, especially in respect of the thickness of the weathered zone. In this way, the influence of equivalence on the inversion results was reduced (Dorn, 1985). A simplified 2-D model was then compiled from the sounding interpretation by creating rectangular blocks of homogeneous resistivities, the depths to the boundary planes and layer resistivities being those from the plane layer solution. This model was subsequently used as the input for the 2-D inversion algorithm based on the SIRT. If no starting model is available a backprojection can be performed to initialize the model parameters:

$$c_{j}^{(0)} = \frac{\sum_{i} s_{i,j} \hat{y}_{i}}{\sum_{i} s_{i,j}}.$$
 (8)

Only positive sensitivities $s_{i,j}$ are considered in the summation of Eq. (8) while the negative sensitivities are set to zero.



Fig. 5. RMS error curves for the 2-D inversion of Agbamu Line 4.

The results obtained from SIRT with different initializations (starting model or backprojection) have been compared with those from the Zohdy–Barker algorithm.

4. Examples looid talignation guidents vid noil

4.1. Agbamu case history

Agbamu village is situated about 53 km southeast of Ilorin (see Fig. 1). The area is

underlain by Precambrian to Upper Cambrian crystalline basement complex rocks, with the dominant rock type being gneiss. There is a pervasive presence of weathered materials. Fig. 2a shows the apparent resistivity pseudosection from one of the survey lines at this village. There is a fairly broad low resistivity anomaly which is about 350 m wide. Towards the deeper part of the pseudosection, there are two high resistivity structures centered at about the 260-m and 580-m marks along the profile.

Soundings were made at three points along



Fig. 6. Interpretation of Ira Line 12. (a) Measured apparent resistivity pseudosection. (b) Model derived from VES interpretation. (c) Pseudosection calculated from the model in (b).

the line; two of these were within the resistivity low. A borehole (BH 9) drilled at the position of VES 38 penetrated a very thick (42 m) weathered profile, comprising low permeability silty material, underlain by partially weathered and fractured gneiss (saprock) down to the total drilled depth of 93.4 m. With this information, a 1-D inversion of the sounding measurement was carried out (Fig. 3) in terms of a four-layer model. The layer resistivities are 228, 619, 110 and 10,000 Ω m, respectively. The thickness of the first layer (topsoil) is 1.0 m, that of the second (laterite) 2.5 m and the third (saprolite) 38.8 m. Similarly, at the position of borehole BH 8 the depth to basement is 40 m. This suggested that the bedrock topography along this traverse is probably fairly flat and the depth to bedrock at the three sounding locations was,



Fig. 7. Inversion results of Ira Line 12. (a) Zohdy-Barker method, 5 iterations. (b) SIRT, 10 iterations, starting with backprojection. (c) SIRT, 10 iterations, starting with model from VES. (d) Pseudosection calculated from (c).

therefore, fixed at 42 m for purpose of the resistivity data interpretation. The resistivity of the prebasement layer in VES 38 (i.e., 110 Ω m) was kept constant in the other two soundings. The interpretations of soundings VES 35 and VES 36 are similar (Fig. 2b), except that there is an intermediate layer with a low resistivity of 26 Ω m for VES 35; it is probably a clayey horizon that gave rise to the low resistivity anomaly on the pseudosection rather than a larger depth to bedrock. The apparent resistivity pseudosection calculated from this VES-derived model is presented in Fig. 2c, with an RMS error of 38.5% when compared with the measured pseudosection.

The model in Fig. 2b served as the starting model for the 2-D SIRT inversion algorithm. There is a large drop in the RMS error within the first few iterations (Fig. 5). At the end of the tenth iteration, the RMS error had fallen to 7.0%, and the resulting image is presented in Fig. 4c. It is interesting to note that when the

same field data set was inverted with the SIRT algorithm, but without a starting model being prescribed (rather it was derived from backprojection), the initial RMS error was 70.2%, dropping to 9.3% at the tenth iteration. The resistivity image from the SIRT algorithm, starting with backprojection, at the tenth iteration, is shown in Fig. 4b and that from the Zohdy–Barker algorithm at the fifth iteration is shown in Fig. 4a.

It can be observed that slightly different results were obtained from the three inversion schemes. It is obvious that the final resistivity image is strongly dependent on how the initial model was derived. In the Zohdy–Barker algorithm, the measured apparent resistivities are directly used as the starting model; subsequent iterations involve minimizing the error between the 2-D data calculated from this model and the field data. In this manner, the structures visible in the pseudosection are nearly preserved from one iteration to the other. The SIRT algorithm,



Fig. 8. RMS error curve for the 2-D inversion of Ira Line 12.

on the other hand, allows for near-surface variations in resistivity. Moreover, in the inversion with a starting model there are provisions for lateral variations in the thickness and resistivity of the various geoelectrical units within the overburden and these remain preserved in the final image while there are only minor changes in the resistivity distribution within the bedrock.

The pseudosection data calculated from the resistivity image of the SIRT algorithm with starting model are shown in Fig. 4d and a comparison with measured apparent resistivity pseudosection in Fig. 2a indicates that most of the features in the field data are preserved in the modeled pseudosection. These include the high resistivity zones near the 260-m and 580-m marks as well as the low resistivity anomaly between 340 and 700 m.

A comparison between the RMS error curves at different stages in the inversion of the 2-D data is presented in Fig. 5. The superiority of the inversion with the VES-derived initial model is obvious. It may be noted that the curves for the Zohdy–Barker method and the SIRT (with starting model) are quite close for all the iteration steps.

4.2. Ira case history

The second field example is from Ira which is a village situated about 45 km south of Ilorin. The basement rock type comprises biotite gneiss and pegmatite. This is overlain by a predomimantly silty overburden. As shown in Fig. 6b, sounding data were acquired at three points along a pseudosection traverse in this village.

In the absence of borehole control, it was still possible to have a consistent interpretation of the sounding data, with the following parameters in common: depth to bedrock 29 m; prebasement layer resistivity 300 Ω m; and bedrock model resistivity 6000 Ω m. Two of the soundings, namely VES 11 and VES 13, were interpreted by three-layer models while the third (VES 12) was interpreted with four layers. The sounding interpretation results in the resistivity model shown in Fig. 6b.

The pseudosection data calculated from this model are shown in Fig. 6c, with an RMS error of 20.6% when compared to the measured apparent resistivity pseudosection (Fig. 6a). This is a relatively good fit and this model derived from VES was used as the starting model for the SIRT inversion algorithm: a considerable improvement in the fit to the field data was observed, with the RMS error dropping to 6.3% at the tenth iteration. The image of true resistivities for this model is shown in Fig. 7c, and displays widespread lateral variations in the geoelectrical character of the overburden which are in agreement with the starting model. The pseudosection calculated from this image is presented in Fig. 7d, and indicates that the features in the measured apparent resistivity are accurately reproduced by the model, including the high resistivity structure at about the 680-m mark.angrathi Cl-2-D interpretation

By comparison, inversion of the same data set by SIRT using backprojection gave the image shown in Fig. 7b, with a much higher RMS error of 15.9% after ten iterations. The results with the Zohdy–Barker algorithm are shown in Fig. 7a, with an RMS error of 9.8% at the end of the fifth iteration. The SIRT algorithm shows only a slight drop in the RMS error after the fifth iteration, while the errors are lower in the version employing a starting model (Fig. 8).

5. Discussion and conclusion

An algorithm based on the SIRT was used for the inversion of 2-D resistivity pseudosection data (Wenner array) from a crystalline basement area of Nigeria. It has been shown that the resistivity image obtained when the prescribed starting model incorporated all available information is a better approximation of the subsurface geology than is otherwise the case for a fully automatic inversion, when the starting model is derived from backprojection. While it is desirable to attain a low RMS error between the field and calculated data, a geophysical interpretation along the lines described here which takes into account all available evidences, is a greater priority in view of the non-uniqueness of the interpretation of any given data set due to 2-D equivalence.

It should be noted that the presented algorithm provides no information on the possible existence of other solutions also consistent with both the data and the a priori information. Goldman et al. (1994) suggest in the case of 1-D interpretation of transient electromagnetic soundings to apply first a global inversion algorithm to find all possible solutions and then to use independent information in trying to fix the true solution. If more than one solution is consistent with the information the interpreter is still motivated to resolve non-uniqueness by either obtaining more information or applying other techniques or improving parameters of the method used. In the case of 2-D interpretation this approach would also be advisable. But regarding the large number of resistivity blocks and the computer time needed for a single inversion, a global search for all possible solutions with a lot of statistically distributed starting models is still not practical.

The application of the SIRT algorithm has shown that not much reduction in the RMS error is attained after five iterations. Hence, five iterations should be adequate for the inversion of 2-D data from similar geological settings.

A comparison between the Zohdy–Barker, SIRT with backprojection and SIRT with starting model algorithms suggests that the resistivity model is strongly dependent on how the initial model was found; hence if the starting model is well constrained a more realistic geological picture will likely result.

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