than one CMP gather in each analysis. This extension allows proper treatment of dipping events and yields velocity information that is more appropriate for use in migration. By using the intermediate wave field at each step of downward extrapolation, we need only do a single constant-velocity migration of the unstacked data followed by a simple mapping procedure in order to recover the velocity information.

D. Messfin and W. Moon. Seismic approaches for structural studies of the Sudbury basin

This study investigates the feasibility of applying seismic techniques in the search for ore deposits, with particular emphasis given to locating orebodies at great depths. The basic procedure followed was essentially an understanding of the forward problem, whereby the effects of the subsurface structure in a typical mining district were thoroughly studied. The initial stage of the study was devoted to determining the elastic parameters by laboratory measurement of seismic velocities and densities of core samples obtained from the Sudbury basin, Canada. By virtue of its ability to handle lateral as well as vertical inhomogeneities, fast computing time and flexibility, the asymptotic ray theory was judged to be more suitable for studying the effect of geologic structures typically found in the Sudbury basin. Both large-scale and small-scale models, representing actual geologic conditions in Sudbury, were constructed. The computed seismic response of the large-scale models shows that the micropogemmatite/oxide-rich quartz gabbro and the mafic norite/granite gneiss contacts are characterized by substantially strong reflections, indicating that these two interfaces can serve as marker horizons in future seismic surveys. In the small-scale models of mineralized structures, the sulfide body was outlined by a distinctly high amplitude of reflection. Both the traveltime and the dynamic characteristics of these models have features that are indicative of the presence of mineralized structures.

A. C. Tripp, G. W. Hohmann and C. M. Swift Jr. Two-dimensional resistivity inversion

Resistivity data on a profile often must be interpreted in terms of a complex two-dimensional (2-D) model. However, trial-and-error modeling for such a case can be very difficult and frustrating. To make interpretation easier and more objective, we have developed a nonlinear inversion technique that estimates the resistivities of cells in a 2-D model of predetermined geometry, based on dipole–dipole resistivity data. Our numerical solution for the forward problem is based on the transmission-surface analogy. The partial derivatives of apparent resistivity with respect to model resistivities are equal to a simple function of the currents excited in the transmission surface by transmitters placed at receiver and transmitter sites. Thus, for the dipole–dipole array the inversion requires only one forward problem per iteration. We use the Box–Kanemasu method to stabilize the parameter step at each iteration. We have tested our inversion technique on synthetic and field data. In both cases, convergence is rapid and the method is practical if the number of parameters is not too large. The main limitations of the method are that the geometry of the model must be specified in advance, and that it is difficult to determine whether model misfit is due to 3-D effects or to underparameterization in the 2-D model. The technique should be used interactively, with models constrained by geologic information.

D. Fenati and F. Rocca. Seismic Reciprocity field tests from the Italian peninsula

The conditions for applicability of the reciprocity theorem, commonly invoked in seismic data gathering, are rarely met in usual practice. A field test was conducted in an area characterized by remarkable inhomogeneities of the surface layers to assess quantitatively the discrepancies between direct and reciprocal traces; the energy sources used were both of vibratory and impulsive type. The results show that the coherence between the two traces is good, except for the case of short offsets and early times with explosive sources. The vibratory source, even if theoretically 'more reciprocal' than the explosive one, yields coherencies in the same range, and is less uniform along the frequency axis.

W. Daily. Underground oil-shale retort monitoring using geotomograph

Geophysical tomographs (geotomographs) were made of two underground oil-shale retorts: (1) the Occidental Oil Shale Inc. miniretort constructed for ignition tests at the demonstration mine at Logan Wash, Colorado; and (2) the Geokinetics Oil Shale Inc. Retort 25 near Vernal, Utah. These experiments demonstrate that geotomography may be a valuable diagnostic tool for underground oil-shale retorting processes. At the Geokinetics in-situ retort, the technique delineated the zones of high permeability in a cross-section of the retort. At the Occidental modified in-situ miniretort, the technique imaged the high-temperature zone of the retort with a spatial resolution of about 2 m, and showed its temporal development over a period of eleven days.

G. L. Oppliger. Three-dimensional terrain corrections for mise-à-la-masse and magnetometric resistivity surveys

Three dimensional modeling of topographic effects in mise-à-la-masse and magnetometric resistivity surveys is accomplished using the surface integral equation method. The technique provides a means for (1) analyzing these effects on earth models of homogeneous conductivity; and (2) removing terrain effects from field data. A new method combining current source images with surface charge is developed to treat the electric field boundary conditions at the air–earth interface. The method uses an image of each subsurface current source positioned above the surface, so as to induce a surface charge distribution which approximately cancels the charge distribution induced by the subsurface current source. The resulting residual surface charge distribution varies spatially more gradually than either of the original charge distributions, and hence may be represented accurately on a coarsely segmented model surface with simple basis functions. The topographic surface is modeled by a finite number of facets, each with constant slope and surface charge density. Charge values are obtained with an iterative solution technique. Surface electric fields are calculated from the surface charge distribution, current sources, and images. The