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Three-dimensional magnetotelluric inversion using conjugate gradients

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SUMMARY

We have developed an inversion procedure that uses conjugate gradient relaxation methods. Although one can generalize the method to all inverse problems, we demonstrate its use to invert magnetotelluric data for 3-D earth models. This procedure allows us to bypass the actual computation of the sensitivity matrix **A** or the inversion of the $\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{A}$ term. In fact, with the relaxation approach, one only needs to compute the effect of the sensitivity matrix or its transpose multiplying an arbitrary vector. We show that each of these requires one forward problem with a distributed set of sources either in the volume (for **A** multiplying a vector) or on the surface (for $\mathbf{A}^T$ multiplying a vector). This significantly reduces the computational requirements needed to do a 3-D inversion. For this paper, we have simplified the boundary conditions by assuming the model is repeated in the horizontal directions, but this is not a necessary constraint of the method. The algorithm reduces data errors to the 2 per cent level for noise-free synthetic 3-D magnetotelluric data.

Key words: magnetotellurics, 3-D inversion, conjugate gradient relaxation

INTRODUCTION

Inversion is the procedure of estimating physical earth parameters from a set of observed data, perhaps subject to certain constraints. Linearized inversion schemes provide one method for dealing with non-linear inversion problems (those problems where the data are non-linearly related to the model parameters). They involve expanding the model response in a Taylor series around some point in the model space, and then solving for the model changes that minimize the error between the model response and the observed data. Many such schemes exist, such as the non-linear least-squares method, but we prefer to use the maximum likelihood inversion procedure (Mackie, Bennett & Madden 1988). The maximum likelihood solution is the solution that maximizes the joint probability of fitting the observed data (subject to the data covariance) and adhering to an *a priori* model (subject to the model covariance). One obtains this solution with the help of the sensitivity matrix, which is the matrix that relates small changes in the model parameters to changes in the observed data.

For the 3-D magnetotelluric inversion problem, we apply conjugate gradient relaxation methods (Hestenes & Stiefel 1952) to solve the maximum likelihood system of equations instead of solving the system directly using matrix inversion routines. In doing so, we avoid having to explicitly construct the sensitivity matrix; indeed, we only need to know the effect of the sensitivity matrix, or its transpose, multiplying an arbitrary vector. We will show that each of these operations requires one forward problem, with sources distributed either in the volume, for the sensitivity matrix multiplying a vector, or on the surface, for its transpose multiplying a vector. This implementation greatly reduces the computational enormity of 3-D inversion, making practical 3-D inversions a possibility rather than an impossibility. One can generalize this method to any other inverse problem, but here we demonstrate the procedure for the magnetotelluric problem.

MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD INVERSE

The maximum likelihood inverse is one method to obtain a solution to a non-unique inverse problem. There are many procedures for obtaining solutions, and each one biased, but the maximum likelihood inverse clearly exposes its biases. The maximum likelihood inverse is an example of a linearized inversion scheme. One can find the derivation of the maximum likelihood inverse in Mackie *et al.* (1988) and Madden (1990), and it closely follows the work of Tarantola & Valette (1982) and Tarantola (1987). Our maximum likelihood inverse, however, is somewhat different from that of Aki & Richards (1980). Their maximum likelihood inverse first minimizes the weighted data errors, then out of that resulting model space finds the minimum model. The

maximum likelihood inverse we use,

$$(\mathbf{A}_k^{\mathrm{H}}\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{dd}}^{-1}\mathbf{A}_k + \mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{mm}}^{-1})^{-1}\,\Delta\mathbf{m}_k = \mathbf{A}_k^{\mathrm{H}}\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{dd}}^{-1}[\mathbf{d} - \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{m}_k)] + \mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{mm}}^{-1}(\mathbf{m}_0 - \mathbf{m}_k). \quad (1)$$

is similar to the stochastic inverse of Franklin (1970), and it gives the solution that minimizes a weighted sum of the variance of the difference between the model response and observed data, and the difference between the model parameters and an *a priori* model. In eq. (1), we make the following definitions:

$\mathbf{A}$ = sensitivity matrix ($A_{ij} = \partial d_i/\partial m_j$),
$\mathbf{d}$ = observed data vector,
$\mathbf{m}$ = model vector,
$\mathbf{g}$ = operator that maps a model $\mathbf{m}$ to the data space,
$\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{dd}}$ = data covariance matrix,
$\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{mm}}$ = model covariance matrix,
$\mathbf{m}_0$ = *a priori* model,
$\Delta\mathbf{m}$ = model changes for current iteration.

The sensitivity matrix is so named because its entries describe the perturbations in the data (or sensitivity of the data) due to perturbations in the model parameters. The superscript H stands for Hermitian, or complex conjugate transpose. Since the problem is non-linear, $\Delta\mathbf{m}$ describes only local changes so that one must iterate the inversion, each time updating the model. The model at the $k+1$ step is given by $\mathbf{m}_{k+1} = \mathbf{m}_k + \Delta\mathbf{m}_k$.

Equation (1) has a straightforward interpretation. The model changes calculated at each step represent a compromise between fitting the data and adhering to an *a priori* model. The compromise is weighted by the inverse of the data and model covariance matrices. We usually do not explicitly know $\mathbf{g}$, but we can calculate the model response $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{m})$ by use of a forward modelling code.

In our implementation of the maximum likelihood inverse, we use logarithmic parameterization of the data and model parameters. This is useful for several reasons. First, it removes any bias associated with using either conductivity or resistivity as model parameters. Furthermore, it guarantees the positiveness of the model parameters (i.e. no negative resistivities or conductivities are allowed). In addition, it is the natural way of dealing with complex-valued data that are separated into log amplitude and phase ($\ln \mathbf{Z} = \ln|\mathbf{Z}| + i\theta$). Finally, logarithmic parametrization allows for larger changes in the model parameters as one iterates the inversion. For the electrical problem, where the resistivity can vary by several orders of magnitude, this reduces the total number of iterations needed to reach an acceptable solution.

The data covariance is a measure of the uncertainties in the data and can be computed or measured directly. The model covariance, on the other hand, is much more subjective because it cannot be measured directly. One can use the model covariance to apply a set of weights, filters, or constraints to the model parameters. Some simple constraints include imposing smoothing between neighbouring points, forcing certain parameters to be correlated with each other, or increasing/decreasing the freedom with which certain parameters can change. In the logarithmic parametrization scheme, the covariance matrices actually represent the covariances of the logarithms of the data and model parameters.

SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS AND RECIPROCITY

Madden (1990) and Mackie (1991) detail the sensitivity analysis and reciprocity relationship for the magnetotelluric problem. These are important issues in the relaxation inversion algorithm, and hence, we will review the salient points here.

One can write Maxwell's equations in matrix form as

$$\begin{bmatrix} -\sigma & \nabla x \\ \nabla x & -i\mu\omega \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{E} \\ \mathbf{H} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{J} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (2)$$

where $\mathbf{J}$ are the media current sources, which for the MT problem are usually represented by a uniform current sheet far above the Earth's surface. If the media conductivity is perturbed by an amount $\delta\sigma$, then the $\mathbf{E}$ and $\mathbf{H}$ fields will also be perturbed by amounts δE and δH respectively

$$\begin{bmatrix} -(\sigma+\delta\sigma) & \nabla x \\ \nabla x & -i\mu\omega \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{E}+\delta\mathbf{E} \\ \mathbf{H}+\delta\mathbf{H} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{J} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (3)$$

Expanding this equation, subtracting it from eq. (2), and dropping second-order terms, we obtain

$$\begin{bmatrix} -\sigma & \nabla x \\ \nabla x & -i\mu\omega \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} \delta\mathbf{E} \\ \delta\mathbf{H} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{E}\,\delta\sigma \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (4)$$

Thus, the $\mathbf{E}$ and $\mathbf{H}$ field perturbations satisfy the original EM equations except that the current sources are equal to the media perturbations multiplying the original $\mathbf{E}$ field. That is, one can solve for the field perturbations by doing forward problems with the proper current source distribution. We can rewrite eq. (2) in terms of Green's functions as (Kong 1986)

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{E}(r) \\ \mathbf{H}(r) \end{bmatrix} = \iiint d^3s\,\mathbf{G}(r,s)\cdot\mathbf{J}(s) \quad (5)$$

where $\mathbf{G}(r,s)$ is the dyadic Green's function. The elements of the dyadic Green's function are $G_i(r,s)_j$ where r is the observation point, s is the source point, i represents the observed field component ($i = 1, 2, \ldots, 6$ corresponding to $E_x, E_y, \ldots, H_z$) and j represents the source component ($j = 1, 2, 3$ corresponding to J_x, J_y, J_z). Using this notation, we can express eq. (4) as

$$\begin{bmatrix} \delta\mathbf{E}(r) \\ \delta\mathbf{H}(r) \end{bmatrix} = \iiint d^3s\,\mathbf{G}(r,s)\cdot\mathbf{E}(s)\,\delta\sigma(s). \quad (6)$$

Thus, it would appear that one needs to compute a dyadic Green's function for every point in the media where one wishes to determine the electrical properties.

Employing reciprocity, however, we find that we only need to compute Green's functions for every surface location where a measurement was made. One can derive the reciprocity relation from the bilinear identity along with the use of adjoint operators (Lanczos 1961), and it is given by

$$\underline{\mathbf{G}}_j^*(\mathbf{s},\mathbf{r})_k = \mathbf{G}_k(\mathbf{r},\mathbf{s})_j, \quad (7)$$

where $\underline{\mathbf{G}}$ refers to the Green's function for the adjoint operator. Since the curl operator and real constants are self adjoint (imaginary constants have a change in sign), the adjoint operator for Maxwell's equations is

$$\mathbf{D}^{\mathrm{H}} = \begin{bmatrix} -\sigma & \nabla x \\ \nabla x & i\mu\omega \end{bmatrix}. \quad (8)$$

Thus, the adjoint to Maxwell's equations is also the electromagnetic equations except with backwards time, or alternatively, negative frequencies. Since the adjoint in the frequency domain is simply the complex conjugated electromagnetic equations, $\underline{\mathbf{G}}^* = \mathbf{G}$, we arrive at the desired reciprocity relation,

$$\mathbf{G}_j(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{r})_k = \mathbf{G}_k(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{s})_j. \tag{9}$$

This simple relation is of tremendous importance for solving the inverse problem. It means that the effect at the surface due to a source in the interior is equivalent to putting a source on the surface and solving for the effect in the interior (one must also take into account the proper interchange of vector components). In the magnetotelluric case, for example, the term $G_1(r, s)_2$ is the E_x effect at r (at the surface) due to a unit J_y dipole source at s (in the interior). By reciprocity, this is equal to $G_2(s, r)_1$, which is the E_y effect at s (in the interior) due to a unit J_x dipole source at r (at the surface). Similarly, the term $G_4(r, s)_2$ is the H_x effect at r (at the surface) due to a unit J_y dipole source at s (in the interior). Again by reciprocity, this is equal to $G_2(s, r)_4$, which is the E_y effect at s (in the interior) due to a unit H_x magnetic source at r (at the surface). Thus, if one were actually constructing the sensitivity matrix for the 3-D MT problem, one would only need to do forward modelling runs with sources at each surface measurement site instead of doing forward modelling runs with sources in each model block. This results in tremendous time savings. As we will see, however, our inversion algorithm does not actually require computing the sensitivity matrix, but the reciprocity relationship will still play an important role.

RELAXATION SOLUTION OF THE INVERSE PROBLEM

To carry out a linearized inversion using the maximum-likelihood inverse, one must determine the sensitivity matrix $\mathbf{A}$, compute $\mathbf{A}^H\mathbf{A}$, and then invert $\mathbf{A}^H\mathbf{A}$ (for the moment we are neglecting the data covariance weighting). In the 3-D case, computing $\mathbf{A}$ is a computationally enormous task even when using reciprocity. This is because the total number of forward problems needed to construct the sensitivity matrix is on the order of (no. measurement sites) x (no. frequencies). For a nominal 3-D problem, there might be 20 measurement sites and eight frequencies, thereby requiring on the order of 160 forward problems simply to set up the sensitivity matrix for one iteration of the inversion (of course one must also take into account source polarization and vector components of the fields so this estimate is just a lower bound). In addition, for this modest 3-D problem, there might be on the order of several thousand model parameters ($20 \times 20 \times 10$ model = 4000 model parameters). Inverting the matrix $\mathbf{A}^H\mathbf{A}$, which has the dimension of the number of model parameters, is also a big computational task. To make 3-D inversions computationally tractable, a way must be found to circumvent these problems.

Smith & Booker (1991) derived an efficient iterative inversion technique that is called the rapid relaxation inverse (RRI). The important feature of their inversion scheme is that they approximate the lateral gradients of the electric and magnetic fields by the electric and magnetic field values at the previous iteration. Furthermore, they solve the forward problem with a relaxation scheme, thus yielding a quick and efficient algorithm. Their algorithm requires the solution of one forward problem per inversion iteration, but to date, has only been tested on 2-D models.

We take a somewhat different approach in that we use conjugate gradient relaxation techniques to solve the maximum likelihood equations (Madden & Mackie 1989; Madden 1990; Mackie 1991). At each iteration of the inversion, we use conjugate gradient relaxation to obtain an approximate solution for $\Delta\mathbf{m}$ in the maximum likelihood equations. This bypasses the need to do a large matrix inversion at each iteration of the inversion procedure. We can use standard conjugate gradient techniques because the system is positive definite and Hermitian. We should make clear that when using relaxation methods to solve the non-linear inversion, there are two levels of iteration involved. The outer loop is the iteration of the non-linear maximum likelihood equations. The inner loop is the iteration of the conjugate gradient relaxation procedure that is used to solve for the approximate $\Delta\mathbf{m}_k$ at each iteration of the inversion. It is our contention that only a few relaxation iterations are necessary at each inversion iteration since one must update the model and begin the whole process again. Furthermore, when using relaxation techniques, we never need to explicitly know $\mathbf{A}$, the sensitivity matrix. We only need to know the effect of $\mathbf{A}$ or $\mathbf{A}^H$ multiplying a vector. We will show that one can do these operations without actually constructing the sensitivity matrix.

Our motivation for this procedure came from our experiences in implementing it in 1-D and 2-D geometries (Madden & Mackie 1989). In 1-D and 2-D geometries, there are no time savings involved in using relaxation methods because the models are not too large, and the sensitivity terms can be computed quickly and accurately. However, we found that in 1-D and 2-D, the relaxation technique gave results comparable to the direct results (those results obtained by explicitly computing the sensitivity matrix and solving the maximum likelihood equations by matrix inversion). We therefore extended these concepts to the 3-D inversion problem.

We will first outline our 3-D inversion algorithm before we discuss its details:

For $k = 1$ to max # inversion iterations	**NON-LINEAR INVERSION**
$\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{m}_k)$	response of current model
$\mathbf{d} - \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{m}_k)$	data residuals
$\mathbf{m}_0 - \mathbf{m}_k$	model residuals
$\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{A}^H\mathbf{R}_{dd}^{-1}[\mathbf{d} - \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{m}_k)] + \mathbf{R}_{mm}^{-1}(\mathbf{m}_0 - \mathbf{m}_k)$	one forward problem with surface sources per frequency
$\Delta\sigma_0 = 0,\ \mathbf{r}_0 = \mathbf{b}$	initialize conjugate gradient algorithm

	RELAXATION SOLUTION
For $i = 1$ to max # relaxation iterations	
$\beta_i = \mathbf{r}_{i-1}^T \mathbf{r}_{i-1} / \mathbf{r}_{i-2}^T \mathbf{r}_{i-2}$	$(\beta_0 = 0)$
$\mathbf{p}_i = \mathbf{r}_{i-1} + \beta_i \mathbf{p}_{i-1}$	$(\mathbf{p}_1 = \mathbf{r}_0)$ update search direction
$\mathbf{B}\mathbf{p}_i = [\mathbf{A}^H \mathbf{R}_{dd}^{-1} \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{R}_{mm}^{-1}]\mathbf{p}_i$	two forward problems per frequency
$\alpha_i = \mathbf{r}_{i-1}^T \mathbf{r}_{i-1} / \mathbf{p}_i^T \mathbf{B}\mathbf{p}_i$	step length along search direction
$\Delta\sigma_i = \Delta\sigma_{i-1} + \alpha_i \mathbf{p}_i$	update model perturbations
$\mathbf{r}_i = \mathbf{r}_{i-1} - \alpha_i \mathbf{B}\mathbf{p}_i$	update residuals
end loop on relaxation iterations	
$\sigma_{k+1} = \sigma_k + \Delta\sigma$	update model parameters
end loop on inversion iterations.	

Mora (1987) developed a similar approach that used the conjugate gradient method of non-linear least squares to invert seismic reflection data for *P*-wave and *S*-wave velocities and density variations in two dimensions. He correctly showed that the operation of $\mathbf{A}^H$ multiplying a vector was equivalent to doing one forward-modelling problem with sources distributed on the surface. In addition, he described how the operation of $\mathbf{A}^H$ multiplying the surface data residuals is very similar to migration in that one properly images reflectors, but one does not obtain the correct amplitudes of the physical properties (Mora 1987). What he did not point out, however, is that the operation $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$ is equivalent to doing one forward problem, except that in this case, as opposed to the $\mathbf{A}^H$ problem, sources are distributed throughout the volume and not on the surface. Consequently, he approximated the term $[\mathbf{A}^H \mathbf{R}_{dd}^{-1} \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{R}_{mm}^{-1}]$ in his stochastic inversion procedure by $\eta \mathbf{R}_{mm}^{-1}$, where the model covariance matrix was assumed a diagonal matrix and η was a step length that ensured his error functional was minimized. Although Mora (1987) obtained good results with his algorithm for the inversion of seismic reflection data, he stated that for highly non-linear problems, the method probably would not work well. Electrical properties are very non-linear and can vary over several orders of magnitude, so we feel that it is important to treat the $\mathbf{A}^H\mathbf{A}$ term more rigorously. Furthermore, since one can compute the $\mathbf{A}^H\mathbf{A}$ effect on a vector with just two forward-modelling runs, as we will show, it is obviously worthwhile to proceed in this manner.

One can write the maximum likelihood eq. (1) as $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{b}$ where $\mathbf{B} = (\mathbf{A}^H \mathbf{R}_{dd}^{-1} \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{R}_{mm}^{-1})$, $\mathbf{u} = \Delta\mathbf{m}$, and $\mathbf{b} = \{\mathbf{A}^H \mathbf{R}_{dd}^{-1}(\mathbf{d} - \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{m})] + \mathbf{R}_{mm}^{-1}(\mathbf{m}_0 - \mathbf{m})\}$. In the standard conjugate gradient procedure (Hestenes & Stiefel 1952), we need to know the initial residual, $\mathbf{r}_0 = \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{B}\mathbf{u}_0$, and we need to be able to compute what $\mathbf{B}$ multiplying an arbitrary vector yields at each iteration. Therefore, in terms of the maximum likelihood equation, we need to be able to compute the initial residual $\mathbf{r}_0 = \{\mathbf{A}^H \mathbf{R}_{dd}^{-1}[\mathbf{d} - \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{m})] + \mathbf{R}_{mm}^{-1}(\mathbf{m}_0 - \mathbf{m})\}$, and at each relaxation step the effect of $(\mathbf{A}^H \mathbf{R}_{dd}^{-1} \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{R}_{mm}^{-1})$ on the some vector. Since $\mathbf{R}_{dd}^{-1}$ and $\mathbf{R}_{mm}^{-1}$ are known, we only need to be able to compute quantities like $\mathbf{q} = \mathbf{A}^H\mathbf{y}$ and $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$. We can compute these quantities using one forward-modelling run each without ever constructing the actual sensitivity matrix.

The sensitivity matrix describes the perturbation in a surface measurement due to a small perturbation in a physical property of the media. Although we have not stated explicitly which surface measurements we will invert for, they will involve derivatives of the surface $\mathbf{E}$ and $\mathbf{H}$ fields, and will consist of terms like $\partial E_x/\partial\sigma$, $\partial E_y/\partial\sigma$, $\partial H_x/\partial\sigma$, $\partial H_y/\partial\sigma$. The row space of the sensitivity matrix corresponds to the model parameter space. That is, the ith element in a particular row represents the perturbation in one of the surface fields at one site, one frequency, and one polarization due to a perturbation of the ith model parameter. If one were actually constructing the sensitivity matrix, one would put a unit current source at each surface measurement site for each frequency, and then compute the fields in the interior due to that current source (this utilizes the reciprocity relationship). Since from eq. (6) it follows that $\partial(\mathbf{E}, \mathbf{H})/\partial\sigma = \mathbf{G}(r, s) \cdot \mathbf{E}(s) \cdot (\text{volume})$, these fields multiplying the original $\mathbf{E}$ fields would yield the values $\partial\mathbf{E}/\partial\sigma$ and $\partial\mathbf{H}/\partial\sigma$. One could then compute the desired sensitivity terms.

For the relaxation solution, however, we do not need to construct the sensitivity matrix. Notice that the sensitivity matrix multiplying an arbitrary vector $\mathbf{x}$ is simply a sum over all model parameters of the sensitivity term multiplying the vector component for that model block:

$$\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \sim \sum_{\substack{\text{model} \\ \text{parameters} \\ j}} \frac{\partial(E, H)}{\partial\sigma_j} x_j. \tag{10}$$

Each component of the vector $\mathbf{p}$ is defined at a particular surface measurement site and a particular frequency. We can use the principle of linear superposition to compute the vector $\mathbf{p}$ without computing the sensitivity matrix $\mathbf{A}$. The superposition principle states that if $\mathbf{T}$ is the linear system transformation, then for any two inputs in_1 and in_2 and any scalar constant c,

$$\begin{aligned} &\mathbf{T}[\text{in}_1 + \text{in}_2] = \mathbf{T}[\text{in}_1] + \mathbf{T}[\text{in}_2], \text{ and} \\ &\mathbf{T}[c\ \text{in}_1] = c\mathbf{T}[\text{in}_1]. \end{aligned} \tag{11}$$

If this is true for two inputs, then it can be shown to be true for any number of inputs. In our case, the linear system $\mathbf{T}$ is represented by Maxwell's equations, and the inputs are current and magnetic sources. We saw that the sensitivity in the surface fields is the response due to a unit current source in the media multiplying the original $\mathbf{E}$ field at that location. Therefore, the vector $\mathbf{p}$ goes like

$$\begin{aligned} &\mathbf{T}[J_0(1)E_0(1)]x(1) + \mathbf{T}[J_0(2)E_0(2)]x(2) + \cdots \\ &\quad + \mathbf{T}[J_0(n)E_0(n)]x(n) \end{aligned} \tag{12}$$

where $J_0(i)$ is a unit current source, $E_0(i)$ is the original $\mathbf{E}$ field, $x(i)$ is the component of the vector $\mathbf{x}$, and i specifies the model block. Employing the superposition principle

allows us, however, to alternatively express the vector $\mathbf{p}$ as

$$\mathbf{T}[J_0(1)E_0(1)x(1) + J_0(2)E_0(2)x(2) + \cdots + J_0(n)E_0(n)x(n)]. \quad (13)$$

We see that this is equivalent to putting all the sources in the media at the same time and computing one forward problem to determine the effect at the surface. The surface fields from this calculation give the desired result of the sensitivity matrix multiplying the vector $\mathbf{x}$ at every surface measurement site at one frequency, and this is done without ever actually computing the sensitivity matrix. We have defined one forward problem as corresponding to two polarizations at one frequency. We see that we have gained tremendously in terms of computation time by using this approach. Computing the sensitivity matrix by the traditional, 'non-reciprocal' method required doing one forward problem for each model parameter for each frequency. Utilizing the reciprocity relationships reduces the number of forward problems to the number of surface measurement sites for each frequency. However, our approach for computing $\mathbf{Ax}$ requires only one forward problem for each frequency.

Likewise, we can employ a similar procedure for $\mathbf{A}^H$ multiplying an arbitrary vector $\mathbf{y}$. We express the vector $\mathbf{q} = \mathbf{A}^H\mathbf{y}$ in terms of another vector $\mathbf{Q}$ where $\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{y}^*$ and $\mathbf{q} = \mathbf{Q}^* = (\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{y}^*)^* = \mathbf{A}^H\mathbf{y}$. The column space of the sensitivity matrix corresponds to the data space, and each element in a particular column corresponds to a perturbation in one of the surface fields at one of the measurement sites and one frequency for one particular model parameter. The vector $\mathbf{Q}$ therefore goes as,

$$\mathbf{Q} \sim \sum_{\text{freq}} \sum_{\text{surf}} \frac{\partial(E, H)_{\text{surf}}}{\partial \sigma} y^*_{\text{surf}}, \quad (14)$$

which is a sum over all frequencies and all surface measurements of the sensitivity term multiplying the component of the vector $\mathbf{y}$ for that particular frequency and surface measurement, the result being given at an interior model block. As before, we can use the principle of linear superposition to compute the vector $\mathbf{Q}$. Using reciprocity, we saw that the sensitivity in the surface fields is the response due to unit current or magnetic sources on the surface, depending on whether one is solving for the perturbed $\mathbf{E}$ fields or $\mathbf{H}$ fields. Therefore, the vector $\mathbf{Q}$ goes like

$$\{\mathbf{T}[S(1)]y^*(1) + \mathbf{T}[S(2)]y^*(2) + \cdots + \mathbf{T}[S(k)]y^*(k)\}E_0(i) \quad (15)$$

where $S(k)$ represents a unit surface current or magnetic source, $y(k)$ is the component of the vector $\mathbf{y}$, and k specifies the surface location. As before, $E_0(i)$ is the original $\mathbf{E}$ field in the ith model block. The principle of linear superposition, however, allows us to rewrite the vector $\mathbf{Q}$ as

$$\{\mathbf{T}[S(1)y^*(1) + S(1)y^*(1) + \cdots + S(k)y^*(k)]\}E_0(i), \quad (16)$$

which corresponds to one forward-modelling run with all the sources distributed at the surface simultaneously. This computation is similar to a downwards propagation of surface fields, but it is actually a downwards propagation in *backwards* time. Since we are really computing $\mathbf{A}^H\mathbf{y}$, and since by reciprocity $G_j(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{r})_i = G_i(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{s})_j$, the $\mathbf{A}^H\mathbf{y}$ operation is actually a sum of the complex conjugate of the Green's function responses to the surface sources, and the complex conjugate of the Green's function involves negative frequencies, or equivalently, backwards time.

Therefore, we can carry out iterations of the conjugate gradient procedure without ever explicitly computing the sensitivity matrix. For each iteration we need to compute two forward problems per frequency with sources distributed throughout the volume and across the surface. At the initial iteration, one additional forward problem is required to compute $\mathbf{A}^H$ multiplying the data residuals. The surface sources for this calculation are simply $\mathbf{R}_{dd}^{-1}[\mathbf{d} - \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{m}_k)]$, which are given at each surface measurement location and frequency. For each iteration of the conjugate gradient procedure, one must first compute $\mathbf{Ap}_i$ where $\mathbf{p}_i$ is the search direction at the ith iteration. The sources for this calculation are therefore the vector $\mathbf{p}_i$, which has a value at each interior model block. One must then compute $\mathbf{A}^H\mathbf{R}_{dd}^{-1}\mathbf{Ap}_i$. The sources for this calculation therefore are $\mathbf{R}_{dd}^{-1}\mathbf{Ap}_i$, which is a vector with values given at each surface measurement location and frequency.

FORWARD MODELLING

The forward-modelling routine used in our 3-D MT inversion algorithm is the direct solution described in Mackie (1991) and Mackie, Madden & Wannamaker (1993). This algorithm solves for the electromagnetic fields in a 3-D model by propagating an impedance matrix from the bottom of the model up to the Earth's surface (this is very similar to a Ricatti equation approach). The impedance matrix relates the horizontal electric fields within a layer to the magnetic fields within that same layer. Instead of doing a direct decomposition on the entire 3-D operator, this algorithm achieves its speed by doing a smaller matrix inversion for each layer in the model. The advantage of using this algorithm in the inversion routine is that once the forward problem has been solved to compare the model response to the observed data, one can then quickly compute the fields for any source configuration if the layer inverses have been stored. Thus, additional conjugate gradient relaxation steps, which comprise the inner loop of the inversion algorithm, come at little added time and cost above that required to solve the problem once for the current model response.

Alternatively, we have developed a conjugate direction relaxation algorithm for the 3-D MT forward problem (Mackie 1991; Mackie & Madden 1993). This is an approximate algorithm that is accurate, quick, and requires much less memory than the direct solution. The advantage of using this algorithm over the direct algorithm is that it is much quicker for solving the 3-D MT forward problem. The disadvantage is that completely independent forward solution relaxations are required to compute the responses for the different source configurations needed in the inversion relaxations (the inner loop of the inversion algorithm). This would start to be an issue if many relaxation steps (the inner loop of the inversion) were desired at each inversion iteration (the outer loop of the inversion).

3-D MT DATA PARAMETERS

In magnetotellurics, we typically measure the impedance tensor over a range of frequencies at each measurement site. One can write the impedance tensor, which relates the horizontal **E** fields to the horizontal **H** fields, as

$$\begin{bmatrix} E_x(\omega) \\ E_y(\omega) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} Z_{xx} & Z_{xy} \\ Z_{yx} & Z_{yy} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} H_x(\omega) \\ H_y(\omega) \end{bmatrix}. \tag{17}$$

Assuming that there are two linearly independent source polarizations, one can express the impedance tensor as

$$\mathbf{Z} = \frac{\begin{bmatrix} (E_{x1}H_{y2} - E_{x2}H_{y1}) & (E_{x2}H_{x1} - E_{x1}H_{x2}) \\ (E_{y1}H_{y2} - E_{y2}H_{y1}) & (E_{y2}H_{x1} - E_{y1}H_{x2}) \end{bmatrix}}{H_{x1}H_{y2} - H_{x2}H_{y1}} \tag{18}$$

where the subscripts 1 and 2 refer to the fields from the two different source polarizations. At first glance, it might seem logical to just invert for the four complex impedance elements. The difficulty with this, however, is that in many situations, Z_{xx} and Z_{yy} are zero or close to zero. This is a problem when using logarithmic parameterzation. Since $\partial \ln Z / \partial \ln \sigma = \sigma / Z(\partial Z / \partial \sigma)$, we see the possibility for a division by zero if any of the impedance elements are zero.

Instead, we take an approach similar to the eigenstate formulations of Eggers (1982), and LaTorraca, Madden & Koringa (1986). They were mainly concerned with extracting physically meaningful scalar parameters from the complex impedance tensor, especially for 3-D geometries. We use a somewhat simpler approach and decompose the impedance tensor in terms of two complex vector fields (*cf.* Jackson 1975). We consider the **E** field due to a unit H_x field, which is $\mathbf{E}_{Hx} = [\hat{\mathbf{x}}Z_{xx} + \hat{\mathbf{y}}Z_{yx}]$, and the **E** field due to a unit H_y field, which is $\mathbf{E}_{H_y} = [\hat{\mathbf{x}}Z_{xy} + \hat{\mathbf{y}}Z_{yy}]$. These two vectors can serve as the basis set for the impedance tensor. Every complex vector can be described in terms of four scalar quantities: amplitude, phase, direction, and ellipticity. These quantities for the **E** vectors given above are closely related to the apparent resistivity, phase, direction, and ellipticity values usually computed from field data. In our 3-D inversion scheme, we invert for the amplitude, phase, and direction of the **E** vectors described above. Ellipticities are diffcult to determine accurately from field data, and therefore, we have excluded them from our inversion scheme. The derivatives of these quantities are found in Appendix 1.

BOUNDARY CONDITIONS

Up to this point, we have not dealt specifically with the issues of the boundary conditions. The 3-D forward modelling algorithm described in Mackie *et al.* (1993) assigns tangential **H** field values on the boundaries of the 3-D model. In this work, we use a modified version of the algorithm that assumes the model is repeated in the horizontal directions; that is, no side boundary terms are assigned. In this way, we avoid having to deal with the boundary values and their effect on the sensitivity terms. We made this assignment to simplify the programming and to test our concepts about relaxation inversion. In the future, however, we will include the boundaries and their effect on the sensitivity terms in order to deal with more realistic earth models.

RESULTS FOR THEORETICAL DATA

In this section, we present results using the relaxation inversion routine for inverting numerically computed, noise-free 3-D magnetotelluric data. We have not extensively tested the algorithm on a wide variety of models, but nonetheless, we can demonstrate that even at this stage in the development of the algorithm, it works as intended.

The model used to generate the data is shown in Fig. 1 and consists of a conductive, 3-D inhomogeneity embedded at a shallow depth in an otherwise layered media. The

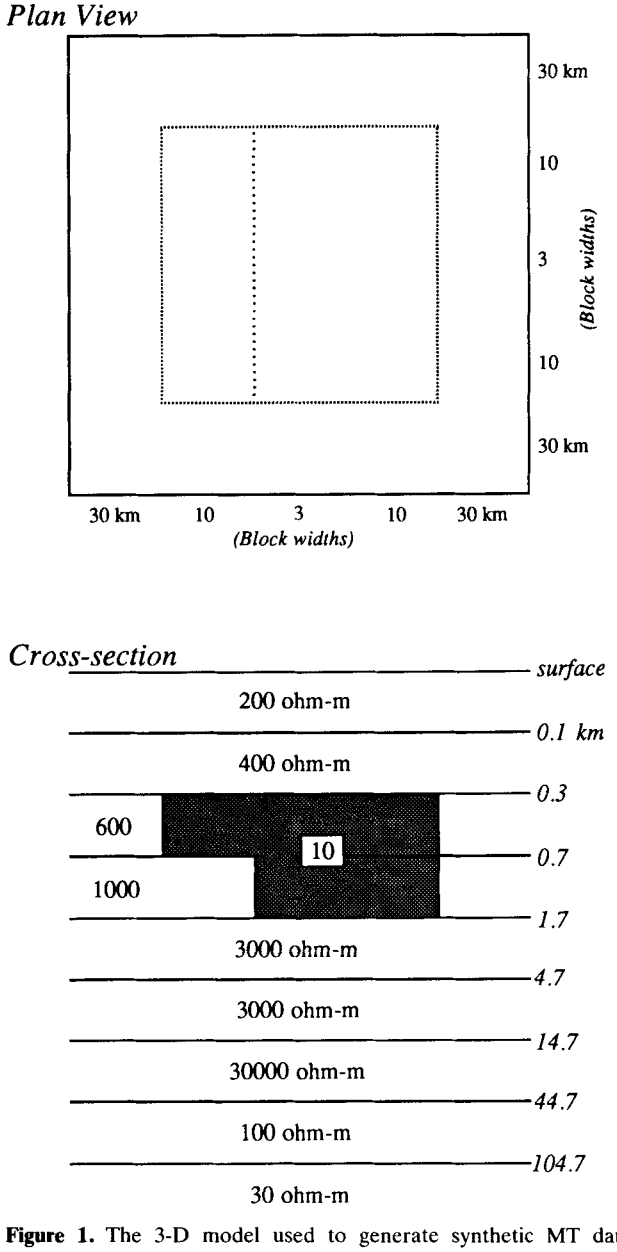
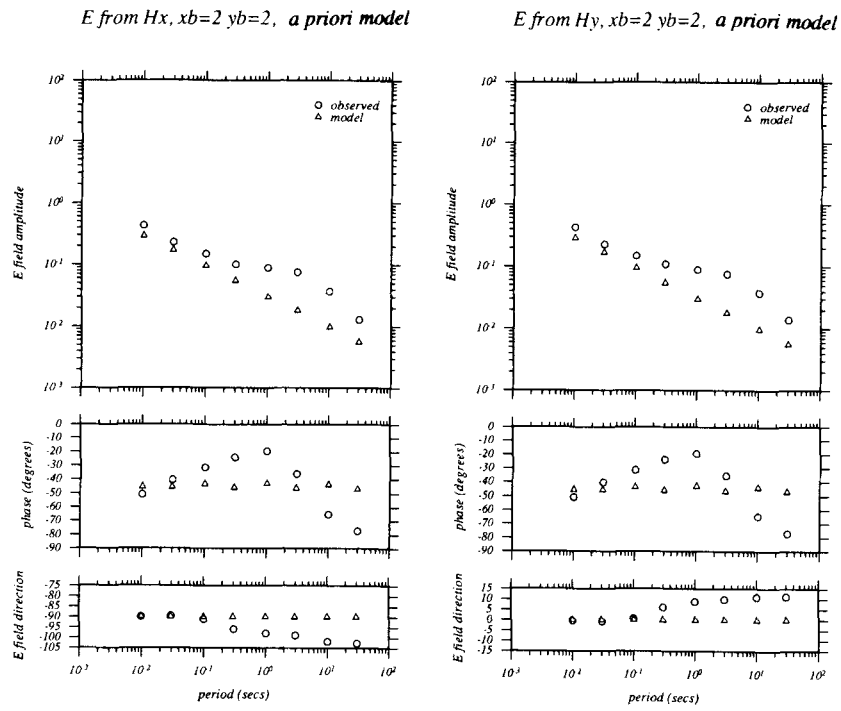


Figure 1. The 3-D model used to generate synthetic MT data. These data were used to test the 3-D MT inversion algorithm. The model was 5 blocks by 5 blocks by 9 layers. A 10 Ωm inhomogeneity was buried in an otherwise layered earth.



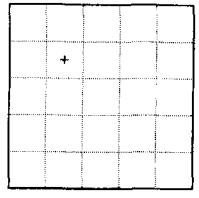
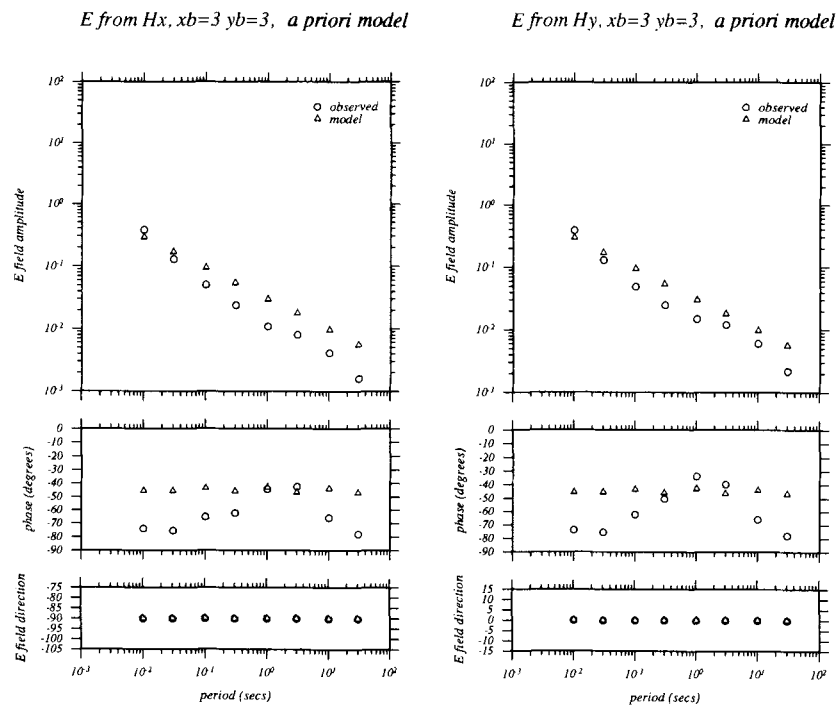


Figure 2. The observed and *a priori* model responses for the surface location $xb = 2$, $yb = 2$. Shown are the amplitudes, phases (in degrees), and directions (in degrees clockwise from the positive x-axis, which runs to the right) versus period. We define these values in the appendix.



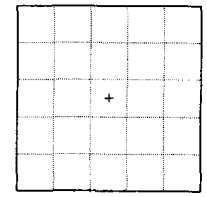


Figure 3. The observed and *a priori* model responses for the surface location $xb = 3$, $yb = 3$. Shown are the amplitudes, phases (in degrees), and directions (in degrees clockwise from the positive x-axis, which runs to the right) versus period. We define these values in the appendix.

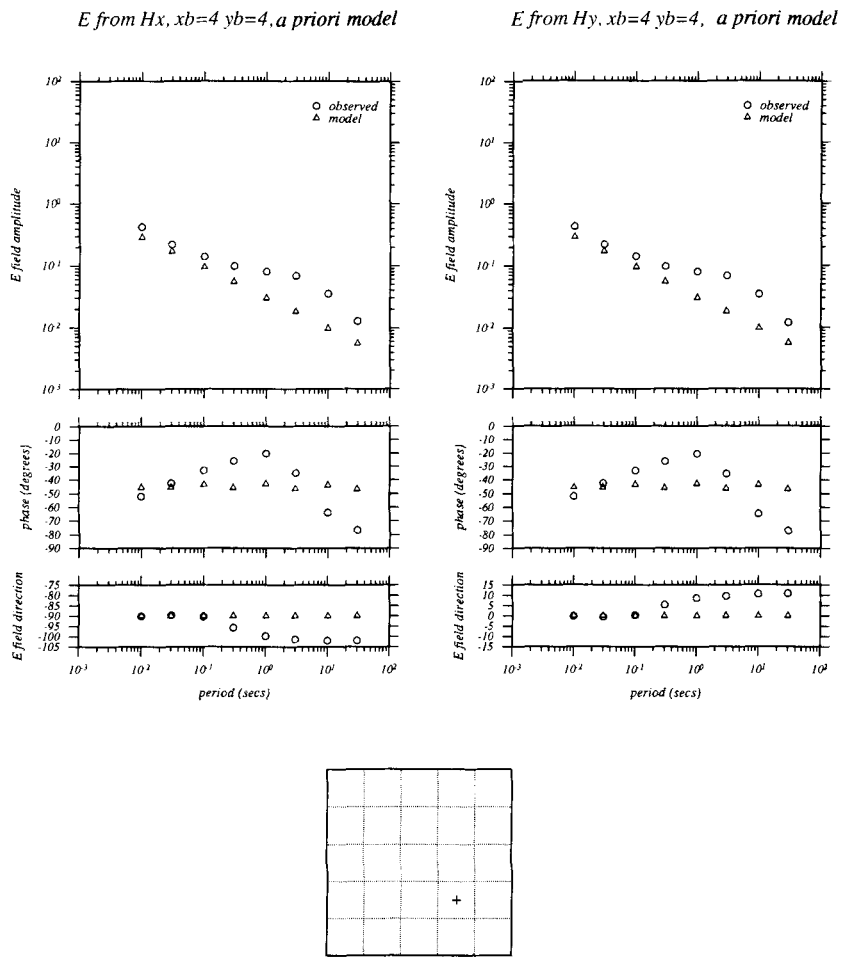


Figure 4. The observed and *a priori* model responses for the surface location $xb = 4$, $yb = 4$. Shown are the amplitudes, phases (in degrees), and directions (in degrees clockwise from the positive x-axis, which runs to the right) versus period. We define these values in the appendix.

model is composed laterally of five blocks in the x-direction and five blocks in the y-direction. Vertically, there are eight layers and a half-space. The impedance for a 30 Ωm halfspace is used at the bottom of the layers in the 3-D model, and it was held fixed throughout all the inversions. Data were output for eight frequencies equally spaced in the logarithm of period from 0.01 s to 30 s. The *a priori* model used for all inversions had the same dimensions as the one used to generate the 'observed data', but with a uniform resistivity of 100 Ωm and a 30 Ωm half-space.

Shown in Figs 2, 3 and 4 are the observed and *a priori* model responses for three different locations on the surface of the 3-D model. These three sites were chosen because it would be too voluminous to show the responses at all the sites, and the sites at $xb = 2$, $yb = 2$ and $xb = 4$, $yb = 4$ represent sites where 3-D effects are the severest. Fig. 5 shows the error progression versus inversion iteration for an inversion with five relaxation steps per inversion. We define the data error as

$$\sqrt{\frac{\sum_{n\text{dat}}\sum_{n\text{freq}}\sum_{n\text{pol}}\left[\left(\ln\frac{|E_o|}{|E_m|}\right)^2+(\theta_o-\theta_m)^2+(\Psi_o-\Psi_m)^2\right]}{n\text{dat}\times n\text{freq}\times 2}}\times 100 \quad (19)$$

where θ and ψ are given in radians, the subscripts o and m refer to observed and model respectively, $n$dat is the number of data locations, $n$freq is the number of frequencies, and $n$pol is the number of polarizations ($n$pol = 2). The right-hand-side error is the error in the right-hand side of the maximum likelihood equations, eq. (1). When the maximum likelihood equations are exactly satisfied, the right-hand side goes to zero. This does not necessarily correspond to the solution in which the model responses and observed data are exactly equal because the fit is actually a compromise between fitting the data and adhering to the *a priori* model. We computed the right-hand-side error plotted in Fig. 5 by the following equation, where $r(i)$ represents the element of the right-hand side corresponding to the ith model block:

$$\sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n\text{mod}} r(i)r(i)}{n\text{mod}}}\times 100. \quad (20)$$

For this example, we used five relaxation steps per inversion iteration, and we assumed that both the model covariance and the data covariance matrices were of the form $\sigma^2\mathbf{I}$. That is, we set $\mathbf{R}_{dd} = \sigma_d^2\mathbf{I}$ and $\mathbf{R}_{mm} = \sigma_m^2\mathbf{I}$, where the ratio

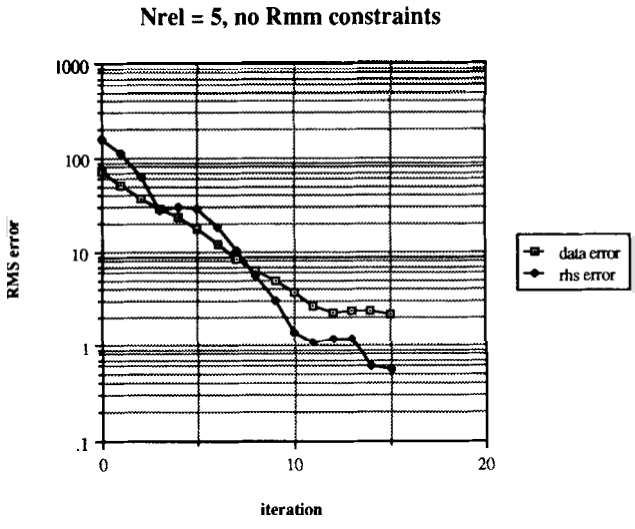


Figure 5. The RMS error progression as a function of the inversion iteration step. This particular run used five conjugate gradient relaxation steps per inversion iteration. The ratio of σ_d^2/σ_m^2 was equal to 3×10^{-5}. We defined the data error in eq. (19), and the right-hand-side error (rhs error) in eq. (20). The right-hand-side error should go to zero when one obtains the solution to the maximum likelihood equations.

$\sigma_d^2/\sigma_m^2 = 3 \times 10^{-5}$. This simply means that the variance of the fit to the *a priori* model was assumed greater than the variance of the data errors. In other words, the data were trusted much more than the *a priori* model, and the fit to the observed data was more important in the inversion than was the fit to the *a priori* model. We added an additional damping term to stabilize the inversions and we tied it to the error in the right-hand side so that the damping decreased as the error decreased. The damping term was equal to $(1.0) * (1/\sigma_d^2) *$ (right-hand-side error). Damping terms reduce the influence of the small eigenvalues in the early stages of the inversion, then allow them to become more influential at the latter stages. Damping terms should depend on the magnitudes of the eigenvalues, but the damping term added in these 3-D inversions came about largely from our experience with 2-D inversions and experimenting with the damping factor for 3-D inversions. This damping is somewhat larger than what we are use to dealing with in 2-D inversions, but this is probably due to the increased degrees of freedom in 3-D inversions as compared to 2-D inversions.

For this particular example, 15 iterations reduced the error in the fit to the data to approximately 2 per cent and the right-hand-side error to 0.6 per cent. We show both the resulting model and the actual model for this inversion in Fig. 6, where the numbers are the resistivity values in Ωm. Note that the resistivity structure of the top four layers is fairly well resolved, but that the image of the conductive feature is smeared into the lower layers. This is a common by-product of many inversion schemes where one only has data coverage on one side of the feature one is trying to image. The inherent difficulty magnetotellurics has of resolving resistive bodies, especially if they are underneath more conductive layers or bodies, enhances this phenomenon. Figs 7, 8 and 9 show the responses for the model of

Number of relaxation steps = 5
Number of inversion iterations = 15
No Rmm constraints

Rmmfac=3.0e-5
Damping=1.0

RESULTS FROM INVERSION PROGRAM

layer1				
239	237	242	240	235
245	263	266	267	234
231	260	254	250	240
246	263	266	269	235
236	235	240	240	240
layer2				
344	347	353	353	343
333	194	248	198	367
306	249	253	267	397
333	193	248	199	369
340	344	351	353	350
layer3				
531	537	491	510	545
578	11	11	10	485
586	10	13	13	458
578	11	11	10	486
527	536	488	509	553
layer4				
1196	1281	1218	1155	1278
1280	154	9	9	1139
1302	121	14	13	1228
1281	154	9	9	1139
1193	1290	1213	1149	1275
layer5				
2346	2651	2681	2725	2444
2792	490	99	126	2637
2833	231	99	82	2630
2801	491	99	125	2625
2366	2676	2686	2710	2418
layer6				
3041	4717	4813	4938	3033
4811	829	356	1021	4787
4980	192	154	111	4462
4826	828	355	1016	4804
3074	4713	4823	4919	3001
layer7				
19461	14747	9627	14495	22294
18683	373	173	365	12812
17577	149	94	131	5318
18702	368	172	361	12847
19390	14820	10843	14680	22130
layer8				
90	86	85	85	88
87	114	102	102	86
86	107	99	99	86
87	114	102	102	86
90	86	85	86	89

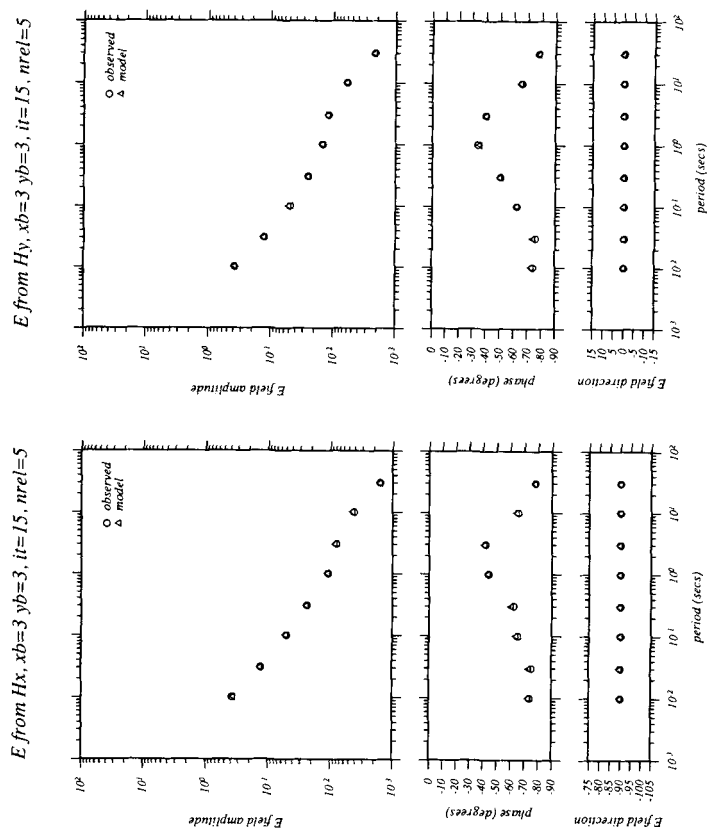
ACTUAL MODEL

layer 1				
200	200	200	200	200
200	200	200	200	200
200	200	200	200	200
200	200	200	200	200
200	200	200	200	200
layer 2				
400	400	400	400	400
400	400	400	400	400
400	400	400	400	400
400	400	400	400	400
400	400	400	400	400
layer 3				
600	600	600	600	600
600	10	10	10	600
600	10	10	10	600
600	10	10	10	600
600	600	600	600	600
layer 4				
1000	1000	1000	1000	1000
1000	1000	10	10	1000
1000	1000	10	10	1000
1000	1000	10	10	1000
1000	1000	1000	1000	1000
layer 5				
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
layer 6				
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
layer 7				
30000	30000	30000	30000	30000
30000	30000	30000	30000	30000
30000	30000	30000	30000	30000
30000	30000	30000	30000	30000
30000	30000	30000	30000	30000
layer 8				
100	100	100	100	100
100	100	100	100	100
100	100	100	100	100
100	100	100	100	100
100	100	100	100	100

Figure 6. On the left is the resulting model after 15 iterations of the inversion procedure, and on the right, for comparison, is the actual model. The resistivity values for each block are in Ωm. We held the 30 Ωm bottom half-space, which is not shown here, fixed during the inversion.

Fig. 6 for the three surface locations shown earlier. We see excellent agreement in both polarizations for amplitudes, phases and directions. We find similarly good fits to the observed data at all other locations, but we do not show them here.

As a further example, we inverted the same data starting from the same *a priori* model, except this time, we included $\mathbf{R}_{mm}$ constraints to keep the bottom four layers 1-D (that is, in each layer, all the resistivity values in that layer are tied together). We ran this inversion for different numbers of relaxation iterations per inversion iteration. Fig. 10 shows the resulting model after 15 inversion iterations using only one relaxation step per inversion iteration. Fig. 11 shows the resulting model after 15 inversion iterations using three relaxation steps per inversion iteration, and Fig. 12 shows the resulting model after 15 inversion iterations using 10 relaxation steps per inversion iteration. The results using only one relaxation step per iteration are surprisingly good, although the results using 10 relaxation steps per iteration are clearly the best. Tying together the resistivities within each of the bottom four layers has removed the smearing caused by the shallow conductive body and improved the estimates of the resistivities for these layers. Of course, in this example, we had the luxury of knowing beforehand that the bottom four layers should be uniform, but nonetheless, this demonstrates the usefulness of *a priori* information if it



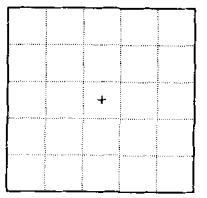


Figure 8. Here we plot the responses for the model of Fig. 6 for the surface location $xb = 3$, $yb = 3$ and the observed data for the same location.

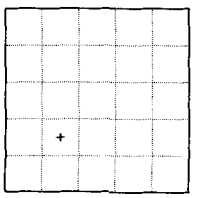


Figure 7. Here we plot the responses for the model of Fig. 6 for the surface location $xb = 2$, $yb = 2$ and the observed data for the same location.

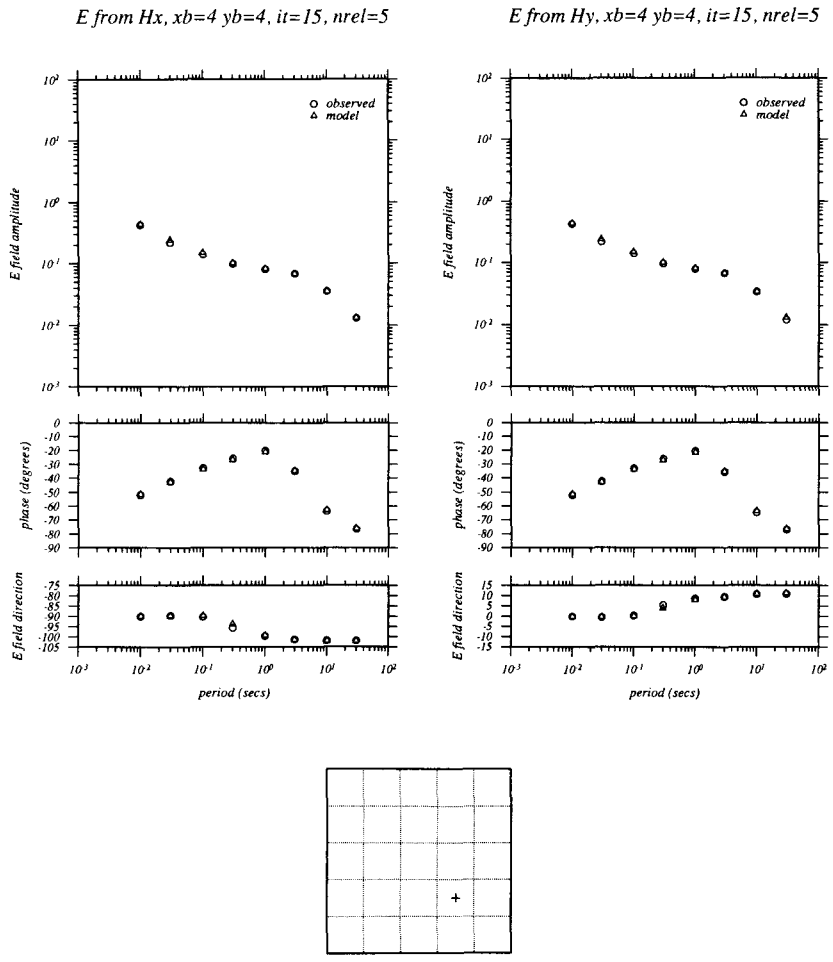


Figure 9. Here we plot the responses for the model of Fig. 6 for the surface location $xb = 4$, $yb = 4$ and the observed data for the same location.

```
Number of relaxation steps = 1                    Rmmfac=3.0e-5
Number of inversion iterations = 15               Damping=1.0
Rmm constraints to keep layers 5,6,7,8 1D
```

RESULTS FROM INVERSION PROGRAM

layer1				
204	218	218	220	194
213	253	282	258	223
205	270	207	267	219
213	253	282	258	223
204	218	218	220	194
layer2				
381	357	339	345	362
345	196	249	198	356
330	244	194	240	349
345	196	249	198	356
381	357	339	345	362
layer3				
690	565	508	497	662
553	11	16	8	514
543	16	24	14	533
553	11	16	8	514
690	565	508	497	662
layer4				
1291	1223	1113	1078	1268
1186	68	16	9	1108
1206	64	22	13	1128
1186	68	16	9	1108
1291	1223	1113	1078	1268
layer5				
1795	2493	2179	2536	1753
2411	450	244	263	2400
2220	333	216	209	2112
2411	450	244	263	2400
1795	2493	2179	2536	1753
layer6				
4626	6279	4062	5827	4559
6293	866	570	936	5873
4600	465	360	368	3722
6293	866	570	936	5873
4626	6279	4062	5827	4559
layer7				
15301	7318	2739	7194	14479
8984	617	339	604	6277
3604	325	222	297	2295
8984	617	339	604	6277
15301	7318	2739	7194	14479
layer8				
63	74	83	74	63
74	88	92	88	74
83	92	93	92	83
74	88	92	88	74
63	74	83	74	63

ACTUAL MODEL

layer 1				
200	200	200	200	200
200	200	200	200	200
200	200	200	200	200
200	200	200	200	200
200	200	200	200	200
layer 2				
400	400	400	400	400
400	400	400	400	400
400	400	400	400	400
400	400	400	400	400
400	400	400	400	400
layer 3				
600	600	600	600	600
600	10	10	10	600
600	10	10	10	600
600	10	10	10	600
600	600	600	600	600
layer 4				
1000	1000	1000	1000	1000
1000	1000	10	10	1000
1000	1000	10	10	1000
1000	1000	10	10	1000
1000	1000	1000	1000	1000
layer 5				
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
layer 6				
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
layer 7				
30000	30000	30000	30000	30000
30000	30000	30000	30000	30000
30000	30000	30000	30000	30000
30000	30000	30000	30000	30000
30000	30000	30000	30000	30000
layer 8				
100	100	100	100	100
100	100	100	100	100
100	100	100	100	100
100	100	100	100	100
100	100	100	100	100

Figure 10. The resulting model after 15 iterations of the inversion procedure when we constrained the bottom four layers to be 1-D. For this run, we used 1 relaxation step per inversion iteration. We show the actual model on the right for comparison.

Number of relaxation steps = 3
Number of inversion iterations = 15
Rmm constraints to keep layers 5,6,7,8 1D

Rmmfac=3.0e-5
Damping=1.0

RESULTS FROM INVERSION PROGRAM

layer1				
241	247	244	235	234
247	262	276	260	231
231	268	255	261	247
247	256	278	267	250
235	231	245	253	235
layer2				
342	366	356	339	342
357	178	255	178	338
327	255	255	262	383
346	175	256	182	373
334	334	357	374	343
layer3				
507	559	464	479	528
577	10	11	8	467
535	10	15	13	450
538	11	11	8	517
505	503	465	532	524
layer4				
1193	1410	1263	1247	1321
1441	145	10	10	1221
1438	102	14	13	1217
1382	148	10	10	1242
1222	1349	1260	1291	1259
layer5				
2116	2347	2301	2346	2394
2459	1564	1070	1209	2301
2346	1076	1072	968	2351
2467	1538	1073	1213	2238
2262	2336	2303	2373	2144
layer6				
3335	4135	4601	4251	3794
4211	3090	2503	2881	4119
4662	2168	2239	2035	4415
4285	3067	2517	2932	3984
3630	4202	4625	4281	3305
layer7				
14505	11338	9014	11118	15182
12526	3787	3138	3708	10802
10454	3081	2800	3009	7924
12516	3791	3141	3718	10860
14621	11379	9166	11250	14952
layer8				
87	84	82	83	86
84	85	84	84	83
82	84	84	84	82
84	85	84	84	83
87	84	82	83	86

ACTUAL MODEL

layer 1				
200	200	200	200	200
200	200	200	200	200
200	200	200	200	200
200	200	200	200	200
200	200	200	200	200
layer 2				
400	400	400	400	400
400	400	400	400	400
400	400	400	400	400
400	400	400	400	400
400	400	400	400	400
layer 3				
600	600	600	600	600
600	10	10	10	600
600	10	10	10	600
600	10	10	10	600
600	600	600	600	600
layer 4				
1000	1000	1000	1000	1000
1000	1000	10	10	1000
1000	1000	10	10	1000
1000	1000	10	10	1000
1000	1000	1000	1000	1000
layer 5				
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
layer 6				
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
layer 7				
30000	30000	30000	30000	30000
30000	30000	30000	30000	30000
30000	30000	30000	30000	30000
30000	30000	30000	30000	30000
30000	30000	30000	30000	30000
layer 8				
100	100	100	100	100
100	100	100	100	100
100	100	100	100	100
100	100	100	100	100
100	100	100	100	100

Figure 11. The resulting model after 15 iterations of the inversion procedure when we constrained the bottom four layers to be 1-D. For this run, we used three relaxation steps per inversion iteration. We show the actual model on the right for comparison.

Number of relaxation steps = 10
Number of inversion iterations = 15
Rmm constraints to keep layers 5,6,7,8 1D

Rmmfac=3.0e-5
Damping=1.0

RESULTS FROM INVERSION PROGRAM

layer1				
240	233	236	235	224
239	269	258	266	226
239	250	240	243	226
244	267	255	264	225
235	229	234	232	233
layer2				
340	335	352	344	344
295	228	255	221	386
306	258	241	286	400
312	228	257	228	367
337	332	353	343	349
layer3				
541	559	514	517	565
577	12	12	11	527
591	11	13	12	481
587	12	11	13	505
538	551	507	519	559
layer4				
1123	1272	1144	1117	1186
1328	164	10	10	1067
1295	140	13	12	1181
1333	168	9	10	1043
1109	1299	1164	1139	1181
layer5				
2407	2561	2536	2619	2480
2625	2385	2223	1962	2551
2574	2204	2162	2074	2624
2672	2297	2219	1880	2611
2373	2611	2614	2565	2468
layer6				
3276	3506	3693	3731	3276
3585	3534	3475	3099	3480
3625	3328	3356	3197	3688
3561	3429	3467	2968	3664
3266	3574	3756	3644	3367
layer7				
17528	14841	13532	14859	17793
14980	12371	11607	12237	14863
13575	11586	11351	11538	13395
15017	12317	11592	12173	14874
17501	14822	13523	14787	17896
layer8				
96	94	94	94	97
94	93	93	93	95
94	93	93	93	94
94	93	93	93	95
97	94	94	94	97

ACTUAL MODEL

layer 1				
200	200	200	200	200
200	200	200	200	200
200	200	200	200	200
200	200	200	200	200
200	200	200	200	200
layer 2				
400	400	400	400	400
400	400	400	400	400
400	400	400	400	400
400	400	400	400	400
400	400	400	400	400
layer 3				
600	600	600	600	600
600	10	10	10	600
600	10	10	10	600
600	10	10	10	600
600	600	600	600	600
layer 4				
1000	1000	1000	1000	1000
1000	1000	10	10	1000
1000	1000	10	10	1000
1000	1000	10	10	1000
1000	1000	1000	1000	1000
layer 5				
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
layer 6				
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
3000	3000	3000	3000	3000
layer 7				
30000	30000	30000	30000	30000
30000	30000	30000	30000	30000
30000	30000	30000	30000	30000
30000	30000	30000	30000	30000
30000	30000	30000	30000	30000
layer 8				
100	100	100	100	100
100	100	100	100	100
100	100	100	100	100
100	100	100	100	100
100	100	100	100	100

Figure 12. The resulting model after 15 iterations of the inversion procedure when we constrained the bottom four layers to be 1-D. For this run, we used 10 relaxation steps per inversion iteration. We show the actual model on the right for comparison.

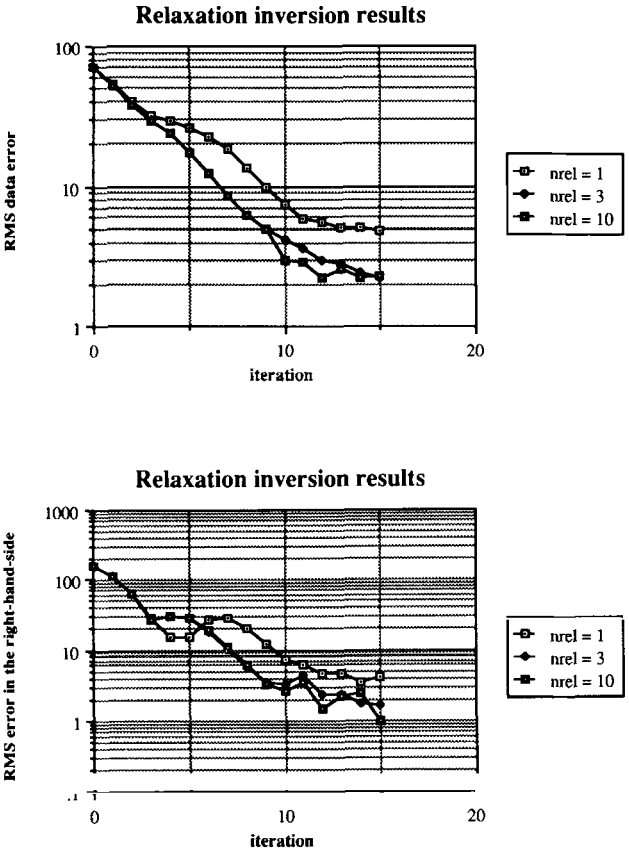


Figure 13. The RMS error progression as a function of the inversion iteration step for three different runs of the inversion algorithm. One run used one relaxation step per inversion iteration, one run used three relaxation steps per inversion iteration, and one run used 10 relaxation steps per inversion iteration. For each run, we constrained the bottom four layers of the model to be 1-D. We defined the data error and right-hand-side errors in the text, eqs (19) and (20).

is available. Fig. 13 shows the progression of the data errors and right-hand-side errors as a function of inversion iteration for the cases just described. Even though the inversions with three relaxation steps and 10 relaxation steps per inversion iteration wound up at about the same data error level, the one with 10 relaxation steps clearly did a better job at imaging the original model and adhering to the model covariance constraints.

We attempted to implement preconditioning of the relaxation scheme for the 3-D inversion as we did for the 2-D inversion (Madden & Mackie 1989). As in that case, we tried using the inverses of the 1-D sensitivity analyses for the vertical strip of blocks beneath each data site. Implementing this type of preconditioning in the 3-D case caused numerical instabilities that made the inversion diverge away from the correct solution. We do not know exactly what caused this behaviour, although we will hazard a guess. The 1-D sensitivities are more closely related to the actual 2-D sensitivities rather than the 3-D sensitivities because in both the 1-D and 2-D cases, there are sensitivity terms for the phase and resistivity, whereas in the 3-D case, there are sensitivity terms for amplitudes, phases, and directions. Furthermore, in the 3-D case, there are two electromagnetic modes that are coupled to each other. This coupling makes the 3-D inversion inherently more difficult, but may also be the reason for the numerical instabilities when we use preconditioning. This is because the preconditioning may be trying to drive the two separate electromagnetic modes in opposite directions, and this may cause the divergence we observed. Of course, the two modes increase the amount of data one has at each data site, and this fact alone should improve the convergence properties of the inversion so that the preconditioning may not be absolutely necessary for 3-D data and 3-D models. We saw in the examples presented earlier that we obtained extremely good fits to the data with just a few relaxation steps per inversion iteration without any sort of preconditioning.

CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we discussed a method to invert magnetotelluric data for 3-D earth models. This method uses conjugate gradient relaxation to solve the maximum-likelihood inversion equations. Since at each iteration of the inversion we update the model and begin the procedure anew, we need only use a few relaxation steps at each step of the inversion. Because we are using relaxation methods, we do not need to explicitly construct and store the sensitivity matrix; rather, we only need to known the effect of the sensitivity matrix or its transpose multiplying an arbitrary vector. Each of these is equivalent to solving a forward problem with a given set of sources. This results in tremendous time savings over more traditional approaches, and makes 3-D inversions much more practical. We have demonstrated that the procedure works well for simple 3-D models.

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APPENDIX 1: DERIVATION OF SENSITIVITY TERMS

We decompose the impedance tensor into two basis vectors given by $\mathbf{E}_{H_x} = [\hat{\mathbf{x}}Z_{xx} + \hat{\mathbf{y}}Z_{yx}]$ and $\mathbf{E}_{H_y} = [\hat{\mathbf{x}}Z_{xy} + \hat{\mathbf{y}}Z_{yy}]$. Any complex vector in the frequency domain, $\mathbf{E}(\omega) = \mathbf{a} + j\mathbf{b}$, can be expressed in the time domain, assuming an $e^{-i\omega t}$ dependency, as $\mathbf{e}(t) = \mathcal{R}e\,[\mathbf{E}(\omega)e^{-i\omega t}] = \mathbf{a}\cos\omega t + \mathbf{b}\sin\omega t$. The magnitude of the complex vector is simply $[\mathbf{E}^*\mathbf{E}]^{1/2}$. In the time domain, the vector traces our an ellipse, which in some cases degenerates to a circle. The major axis of the ellipse defines the direction corresponding to that vector field, and the phase is defined as the phase along that axis. The ellipticity is the ratio of the major axis to the minor axis. Ellipticities are difficult to determine accurately from field data, but magnitudes, phases, and directions are more robust in comparison. Consequently, we invert only for amplitudes, phases, and directions. Following Eggers (1982), we can write down the expressions for the magnitudes, phases (ϕ), and directions (ψ) in terms of our vector basis set:

$$|\mathbf{E}_{H_x}| = [Z_{xx}Z_{xx}^* + Z_{yx}Z_{yx}^*]^{1/2}$$
$$|\mathbf{E}_{H_y}| = [Z_{xy}Z_{xy}^* + Z_{yy}Z_{yy}^*]^{1/2}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\phi_{H_x} &= \tfrac{1}{2}\tan^{-1}\frac{2(Z_{xx}^{\mathrm{R}}Z_{xx}^{\mathrm{I}} + Z_{yx}^{\mathrm{R}}Z_{yx}^{\mathrm{I}})}{(Z_{xx}^{\mathrm{R}})^2 + (Z_{yx}^{\mathrm{R}})^2 - (Z_{xx}^{\mathrm{I}})^2 - (Z_{yx}^{\mathrm{I}})^2} \\
\phi_{H_y} &= \tfrac{1}{2}\tan^{-1}\frac{2(Z_{xy}^{\mathrm{R}}Z_{xy}^{\mathrm{I}} + Z_{yy}^{\mathrm{R}}Z_{yy}^{\mathrm{I}})}{(Z_{xy}^{\mathrm{R}})^2 + (Z_{yy}^{\mathrm{R}})^2 - (Z_{xy}^{\mathrm{I}})^2 - (Z_{yy}^{\mathrm{I}})^2} \\
\psi_{H_x} &= \tfrac{1}{2}\tan^{-1}\frac{2(Z_{xx}^{\mathrm{R}}Z_{yx}^{\mathrm{R}} + Z_{xx}^{\mathrm{I}}Z_{yx}^{\mathrm{I}})}{(Z_{xx}^{\mathrm{R}})^2 + (Z_{xx}^{\mathrm{I}})^2 - (Z_{yx}^{\mathrm{R}})^2 - (Z_{yx}^{i})^2} \\
\psi_{H_y}^{I} &= \tfrac{1}{2}\tan^{-1}\frac{2(Z_{xy}^{\mathrm{R}}Z_{yy}^{\mathrm{R}} + Z_{xy}^{\mathrm{I}}Z_{yy}^{\mathrm{I}})}{(Z_{xy}^{\mathrm{R}})^2 + (Z_{xy}^{\mathrm{I}})^2 - (Z_{yy}^{\mathrm{R}})^2 - (Z_{yy}^{\mathrm{I}})^2}
\end{aligned} \tag{A1}$$

where the terms like Z_{xx}^{R} stand for the real part of Z_{xx}, and so on. We derive the sensitivity terms by algebraically differentiating the above expressions. We first need the partial derivatives of the components of the impedance tensor, which are

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{\partial Z_{xx}}{\partial\sigma} &= \frac{1}{\det HH}\left[E_{x1}\frac{\partial H_{y2}}{\partial\sigma} + H_{y2}\frac{\partial E_{x1}}{\partial\sigma} - E_{x2}\frac{\partial H_{y1}}{\partial\sigma} - H_{y1}\frac{\partial E_{x2}}{\partial\sigma} - Z_{xx}\,\partial HH\right] \\
\frac{\partial Z_{xy}}{\partial\sigma} &= \frac{1}{\det HH}\left[E_{x2}\frac{\partial H_{x1}}{\partial\sigma} + H_{x1}\frac{\partial E_{x2}}{\partial\sigma} - E_{x1}\frac{\partial H_{x2}}{\partial\sigma} - H_{x2}\frac{\partial E_{x1}}{\partial\sigma} - Z_{xy}\,\partial HH\right] \\
\frac{\partial Z_{yx}}{\partial\sigma} &= \frac{1}{\det HH}\left[E_{y1}\frac{\partial H_{y2}}{\partial\sigma} + H_{y2}\frac{\partial E_{y1}}{\partial\sigma} - E_{y2}\frac{\partial H_{y1}}{\partial\sigma} - H_{y1}\frac{\partial E_{y2}}{\partial\sigma} - Z_{yx}\,\partial HH\right] \\
\frac{\partial Z_{yy}}{\partial\sigma} &= \frac{1}{\det HH}\left[E_{y2}\frac{\partial H_{x1}}{\partial\sigma} + H_{x1}\frac{\partial E_{y2}}{\partial\sigma} - E_{y1}\frac{\partial H_{x2}}{\partial\sigma} - H_{x2}\frac{\partial E_{y1}}{\partial\sigma} - Z_{yy}\,\partial HH\right]
\end{aligned} \tag{A2}$$

where we have made the following definitions:

$$\begin{aligned}
\det HH &= H_{x1}H_{y2} - H_{x2}H_{y1} \\
\partial HH &= H_{x1}\frac{\partial H_{y2}}{\partial\sigma} + H_{y2}\frac{\partial H_{x1}}{\partial\sigma} - H_{x2}\frac{\partial H_{y1}}{\partial\sigma} - H_{y1}\frac{\partial H_{x2}}{\partial\sigma}.
\end{aligned} \tag{A3}$$

With these definitions, one finds the sensitivity terms for the magnitudes are

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{\partial|\mathbf{E}_{H_x}|}{\partial\sigma} &= \frac{1}{|\mathbf{E}_{H_x}|}\left[\mathcal{R}e\left(Z_{xx}^*\frac{\partial Z_{xx}}{\partial\sigma}\right) + \mathcal{R}e\left(Z_{yx}^*\frac{\partial Z_{yx}}{\partial\sigma}\right)\right] \\
\frac{\partial|\mathbf{E}_{H_y}|}{\partial\sigma} &= \frac{1}{|\mathbf{E}_{H_y}|}\left[\mathcal{R}e\left(Z_{xy}^*\frac{\partial Z_{xy}}{\partial\sigma}\right) + \mathcal{R}e\left(Z_{yy}^*\frac{\partial Z_{yy}}{\partial\sigma}\right)\right]
\end{aligned} \tag{A4}$$

where we have used relationships such as

$$Z_{xx}\frac{\partial Z_{xx}^*}{\partial\sigma} + Z_{xx}^*\frac{\partial Z_{xx}}{\partial\sigma} = 2\,\mathcal{R}e\left[Z_{xx}^*\frac{\partial Z_{xx}}{\partial\sigma}\right] \tag{A5}$$

in simplifying the expressions for the derivatives. The expressions for the derivatives of the phase terms are a bit more complicated, and are

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{\partial\phi_{H_x}}{\partial\sigma} = \frac{1}{1+u^2}\Bigg[&\left(\frac{Z_{xx}^{\mathrm{I}}}{u_{\mathrm{d}}} - \frac{2Z_{xx}^{\mathrm{R}}u_{\mathrm{n}}}{u_{\mathrm{d}}^2}\right)\frac{\partial Z_{xx}^{\mathrm{R}}}{\partial\sigma} \\
&+ \left(\frac{Z_{yx}^{\mathrm{I}}}{u_{\mathrm{d}}} - \frac{2Z_{yx}^{\mathrm{R}}u_{\mathrm{n}}}{u_{\mathrm{d}}^2}\right)\frac{\partial Z_{yx}^{\mathrm{R}}}{\partial\sigma} \\
&+ \left(\frac{Z_{xx}^{\mathrm{R}}}{u_{\mathrm{d}}} - \frac{2Z_{xx}^{\mathrm{I}}u_{\mathrm{n}}}{u_{\mathrm{n}}^2}\right)\frac{\partial Z_{xx}^{\mathrm{I}}}{\partial\sigma} \\
&+ \left(\frac{Z_{yx}^{\mathrm{R}}}{u_{\mathrm{d}}} - \frac{2Z_{yx}^{\mathrm{I}}u_{\mathrm{n}}}{u_{\mathrm{d}}^2}\right)\frac{\partial Z_{yx}^{\mathrm{I}}}{\partial\sigma}\Bigg]
\end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{\partial \phi_{H_y}}{\partial \sigma} = \frac{1}{1+v^2}\left[\left(\frac{Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{xy}}{v_{\mathrm{d}}} - \frac{2Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{xy}v_{\mathrm{n}}}{v_{\mathrm{d}}^2}\right)\frac{\partial Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{xy}}{\partial \sigma} + \left(\frac{Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{yy}}{v_{\mathrm{d}}} - \frac{2Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{yy}v_{\mathrm{n}}}{v_{\mathrm{d}}^2}\right)\frac{\partial Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{yy}}{\partial \sigma} + \left(\frac{Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{xy}}{v_{\mathrm{d}}} - \frac{2Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{xy}v_{\mathrm{n}}}{v_{\mathrm{d}}^2}\right)\frac{\partial Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{xy}}{\partial \sigma} + \left(\frac{Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{yy}}{v_{\mathrm{d}}} - \frac{2Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{yy}v_{\mathrm{n}}}{v_{\mathrm{d}}^2}\right)\frac{\partial Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{yy}}{\partial \sigma}\right] \tag{A6}$$

where we have made the following definitions

$$u = \frac{2(Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{xx}Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{xx} + Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{yx}Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{yx})}{(Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{xx})^2 + (Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{yx})^2 - (Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{xx})^2 - (Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{yx})^2}$$
$$v = \frac{2(Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{xy}Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{xy} + Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{yy}Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{yy})}{(Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{xy})^2 + (Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{yy})^2 - (Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{xy})^2 - (Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{yy})^2}, \tag{A7}$$

with u_{d} and u_{n} representing the denominator and numerator respectively of the expression given above for u, and v_{d} and v_{n} likewise representing the denominator and numerator of the expression given above for v. The sensitivity terms for the directions of the major axes are

$$\frac{\partial \psi_{H_x}}{\partial \sigma} = \frac{1}{1+s^2}\left[\left(\frac{Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{xx}}{s_{\mathrm{d}}} + \frac{2Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{yx}s_{\mathrm{n}}}{s_{\mathrm{d}}^2}\right)\frac{\partial Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{yx}}{\partial \sigma} + \left(\frac{Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{yx}}{s_{\mathrm{d}}} - \frac{2Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{xx}s_{\mathrm{n}}}{s_{\mathrm{d}}^2}\right)\frac{\partial Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{xx}}{\partial \sigma} + \left(\frac{Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{xx}}{s_{\mathrm{d}}} + \frac{2Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{yx}s_{\mathrm{n}}}{s_{\mathrm{d}}^2}\right)\frac{\partial Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{yx}}{\partial \sigma} + \left(\frac{Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{yx}}{s_{\mathrm{d}}} - \frac{2Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{xx}s_{\mathrm{n}}}{s_{\mathrm{d}}^2}\right)\frac{\partial Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{xx}}{\partial \sigma}\right]$$
$$\frac{\partial \Psi_{H_y}}{\partial \sigma} = \frac{1}{1+t^2}\left[\left(\frac{Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{xy}}{t_{\mathrm{d}}} + \frac{2Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{yy}t_{\mathrm{n}}}{t_{\mathrm{d}}^2}\right)\frac{\partial Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{yy}}{\partial \sigma} + \left(\frac{Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{yy}}{t_{\mathrm{d}}} - \frac{2Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{xy}t_{\mathrm{n}}}{t_{\mathrm{d}}^2}\right)\frac{\partial Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{xy}}{\partial \sigma} + \left(\frac{Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{xy}}{t_{\mathrm{d}}} + \frac{2Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{yy}y_{\mathrm{n}}}{t_{\mathrm{d}}^2}\right)\frac{\partial Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{yy}}{\partial \sigma} + \left(\frac{Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{yy}}{t_{\mathrm{d}}} - \frac{2Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{xy}t_{\mathrm{n}}}{t_{\mathrm{d}}^2}\right)\frac{\partial Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{xy}}{\partial \sigma}\right] \tag{A8}$$

where we have made the following definitions

$$s = \frac{2(Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{xx}Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{yx} + Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{xx}Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{yx})}{(Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{xx})^2 + (Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{xx})^2 - (Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{yx})^2 - (Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{yx})^2}$$
$$t = \frac{2(Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{xy}Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{yy} + Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{xy}Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{yy})}{(Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{xy})^2 + (Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{xy})^2 - (Z^{\mathrm{R}}_{yy})^2 - (Z^{\mathrm{I}}_{yy})^2}, \tag{A9}$$

with s_{d} and s_{n} representing the denominator and numerator respectively of the above expression for s and t_{d} and t_{n} representing the denominator and numerator of the above expression for t.