Modern Seismology Lecture Outline

- Seismic networks and data centres
- Mathematical background for time series analysis
- Seismic processing, applications
 - Filtering
 - Correlation
 - Instrument correction, Transfer functions
- Seismic inverse problems
 - Hypocentre location
 - Tomography

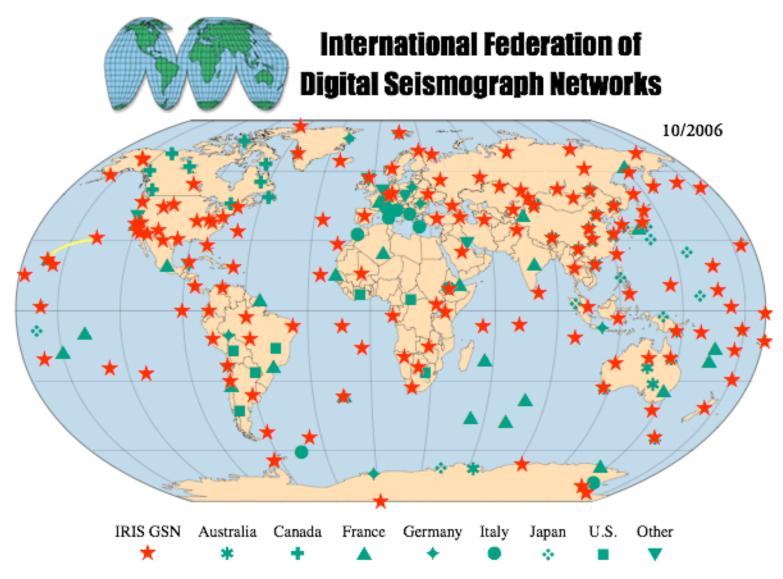
Key questions

- What data are relevant in seismology?
- Where are they acquired?
- What observables are there?
- What are acquisition parameters?
- How to process seismic observations?
- How to solve seismic inverse problems?
- What information can we gain?

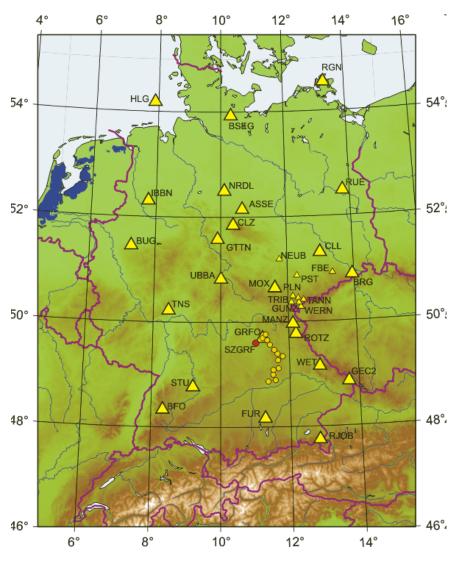
Literature

- Stein and Wysession, An introduction to seismology, earthquakes and earth structure, Blackwell Scientific (Chapts. 6, 7 and appendix) see also http://epscx.wustl.edu/seismology/book/ (several figures here taken from S+W).
- Shearer, Introduction to Seismology, Cambridge University Press, 1990, 2009 (to appear in July)
- Aki and Richards, Quantitative Seismology, Academic Press, 2002.
- Tarantola, Inverse Problem Theory and Model Parameter Estimation, SIAM, 2005.
- Gubbins, Time series analysis and inverse problems for geophysicists, Cambridge University Press
- Scherbaum, Basic concepts in digital signal processing for seismologists

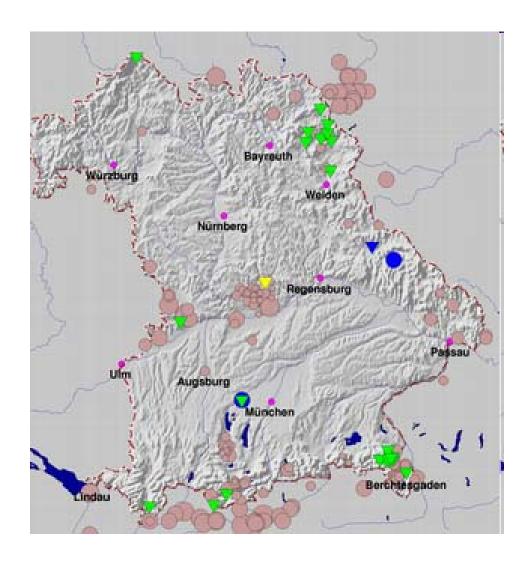
Global seismic networks



Regional seismic networks



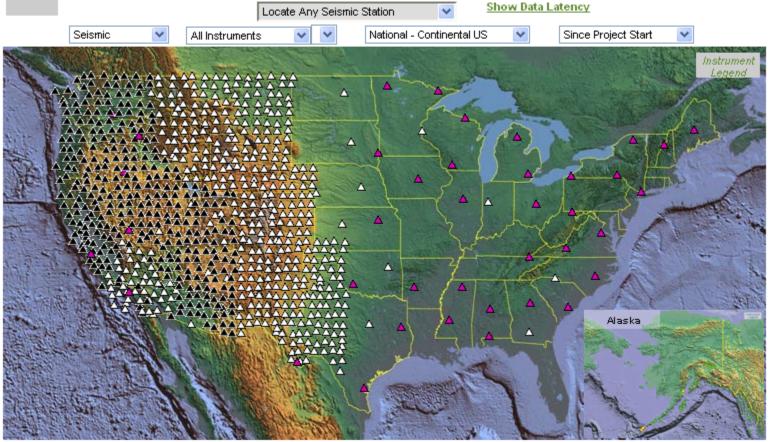
Local seismic networks



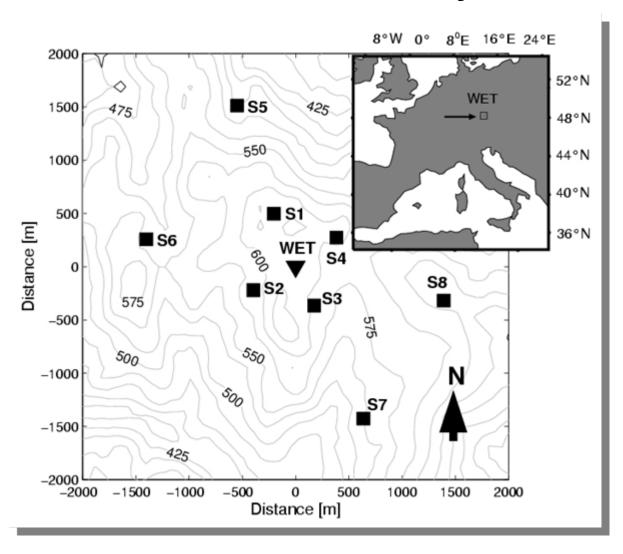
Temporary (campaign) networks

EarthScope Instruments - Updated at 9:18 GMT Wednesday May 6, 2009

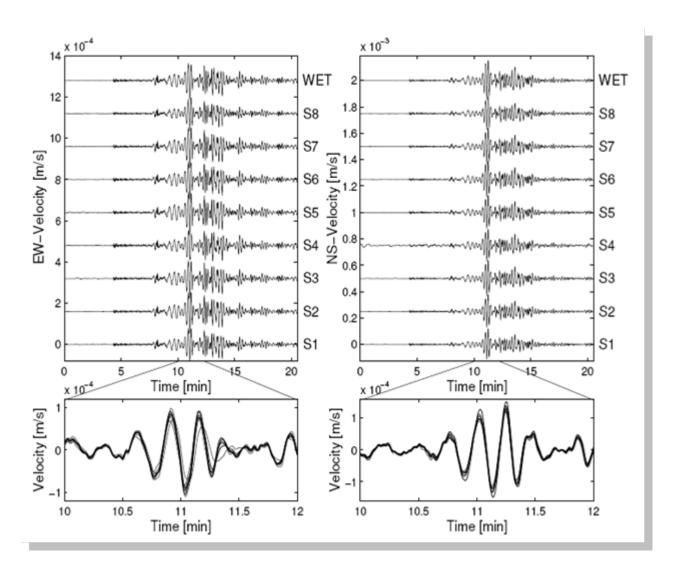
Click here to display table for all stations shown on this map

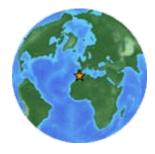


Seismic arrays

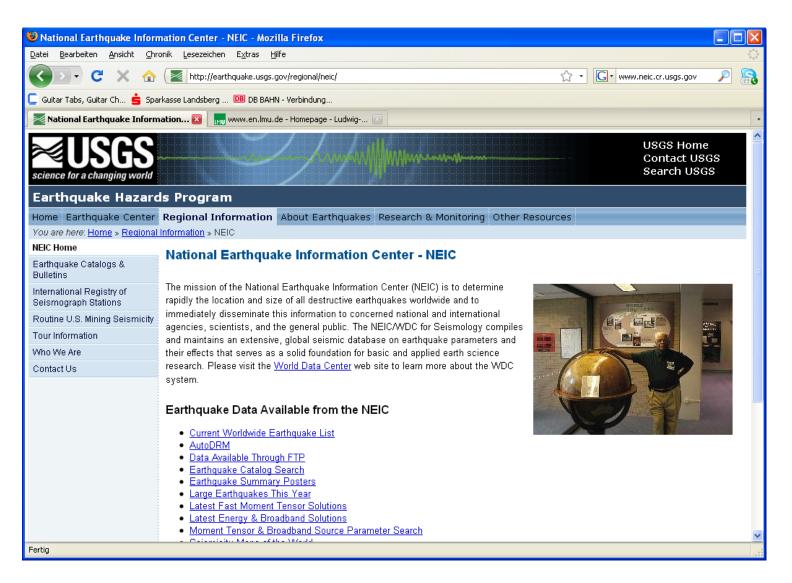


Seismic arrays

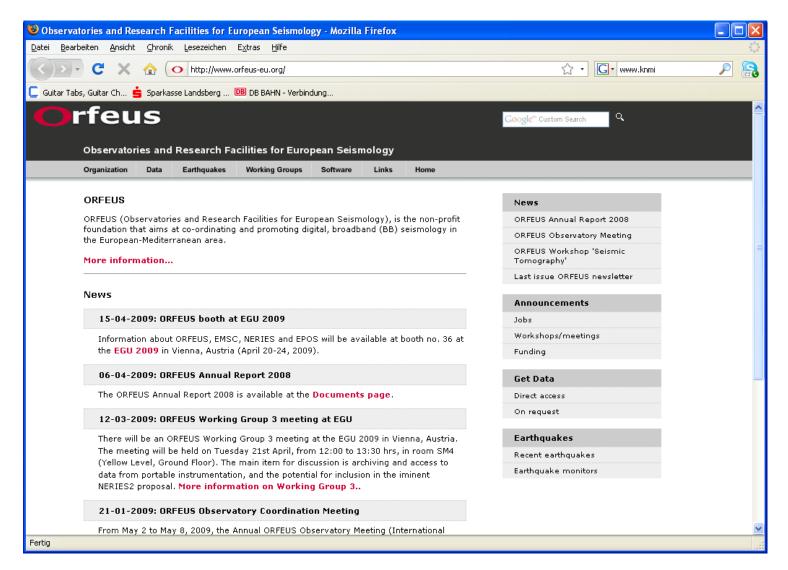




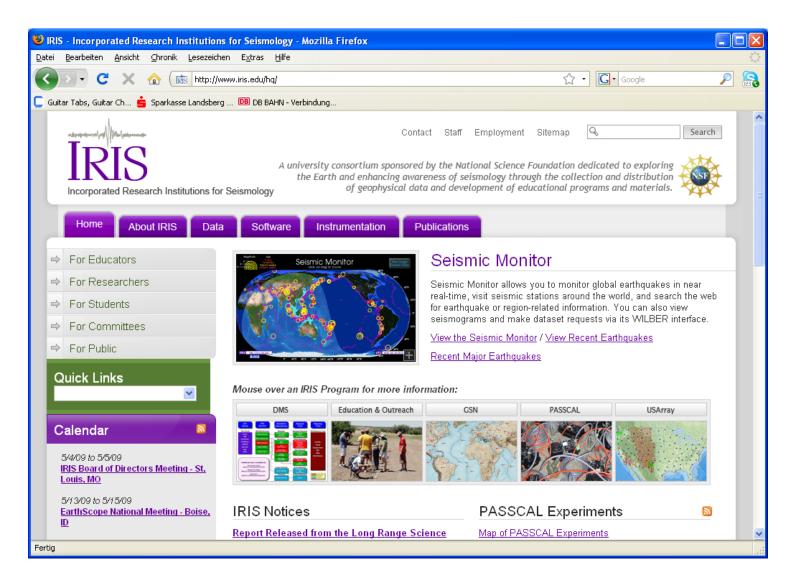
Seismic data centres: NEIC



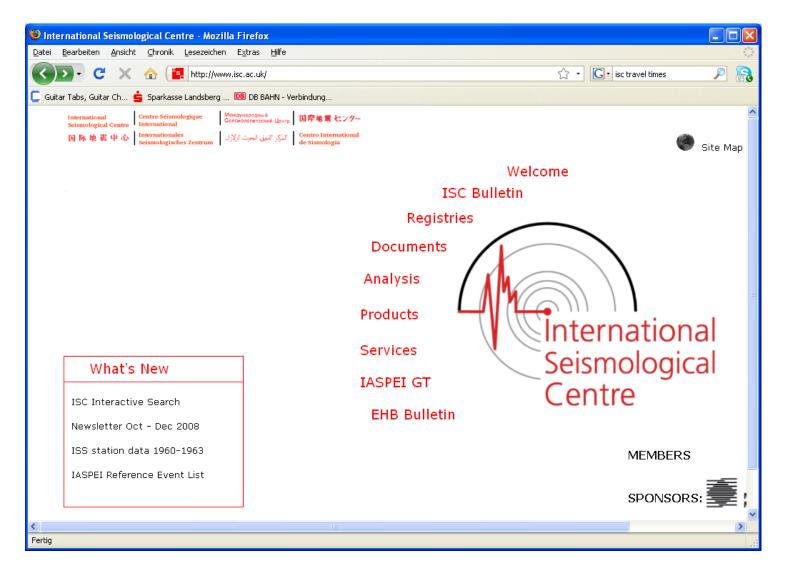
Seismic data centres: ORFEUS



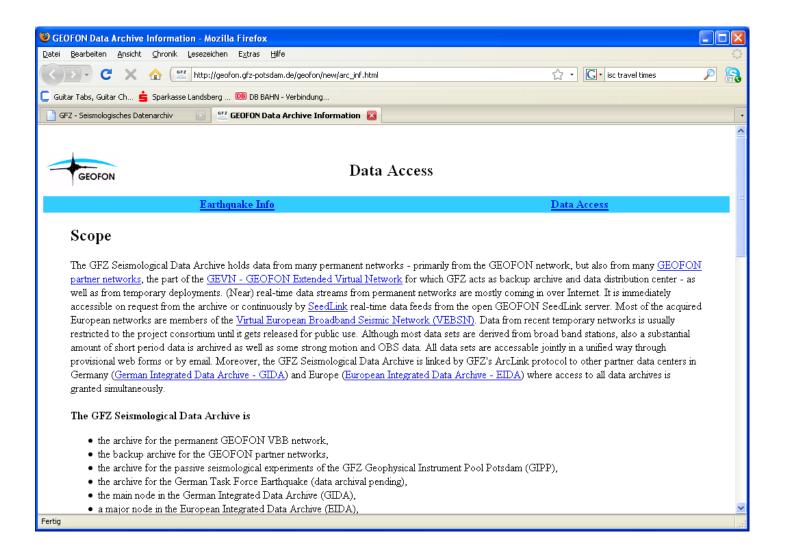
Seismic data centres: IRIS



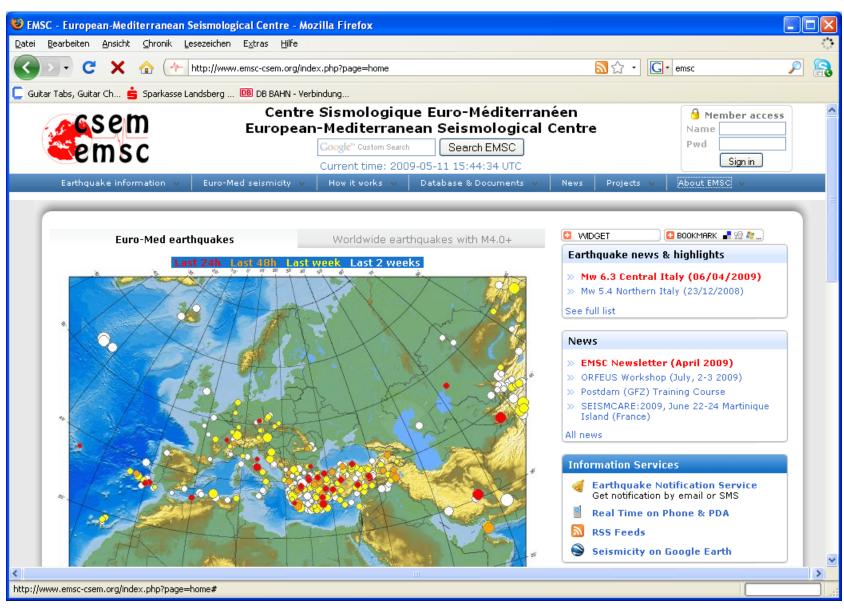
Seismic data centres: ISC



Seismic data centres: GEOFON



EMSC



Seismic data centres: EarthScope



Seismic observables Period ranges (order of magnitudes)

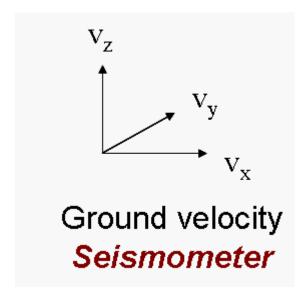
- Sound 0.001 0.01 s
- Earthquakes 0.01 100 s (surface waves, body waves)
- Eigenmodes of the Earth 1000 s
- Coseismic deformation 1 s 1000 s
- Postseismic deformation +10000s
- Seismic exploration 0.001 0.1 s
- Laboratory signals 0.001 s 0.000001 s
- -> What are the consequences for sampling intervals, data volumes, etc.?

Seismic observables translations

Translational motions are deformations in the direction of three orthogonal axes. Deformations are usually denoted by **u** with the appropriate connection to the strain tensor (explained below).

Each of the orthogonal motion components can be measured as displacement u, velocity v, or acceleration a.

The use of these three variations of the same motion type will be explained below.

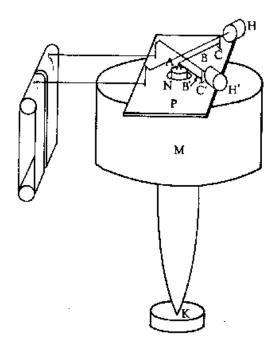


Seismic observables translations - displacements

Displacements are measured as "differential" motion around a reference point (e.g., a pendulum). The first seismometers were pure (mostly horizontal) displacement sensors. Measureable co-seismic displacements range from microns to dozens of meters (e.g., Great Andaman earthquake).

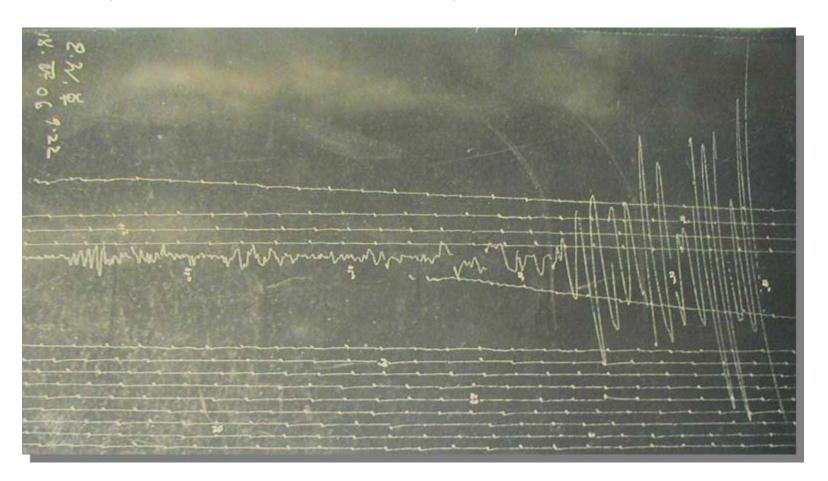
Horiztonal displacement sensor (ca. 1905). Amplitude of ground deformation is mechanically amplified by a factor of 200.

Today displacements are measured using GPS sensors.



Seismic observables translations - displacements

Data example: the San Francisco earthquake 1906, recorded in Munich



Seismic observables translations - velocities

Most seismometers today record *ground velocity*. The reason is that seismometers are based on an electro-mechanic principle. An electric current is generated when a coil moves in a magetic field. The electric current is proportional to ground velocity v.

Velocity is the time derivative of displacement. They are in the range of µm/s to m/s.

$$v(x,t) = \partial_t u(x,t) = \dot{u}(x,t)$$



Seismic observables translations - accelerations

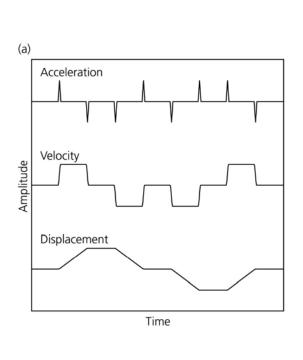
Strong motions (those getting close to or exceeding Earth's gravitational acceleration) can only be measured with accelerometers. Accelerometers are used in earthquake engineering, near earthquake studies, airplanes, laptops, ipods, etc. The largest acceleration ever measured for an earthquake induced ground motion was 40 m/s² (four times gravity, see *Science* 31 October 2008: Vol. 322. no. 5902, pp. 727 – 730)

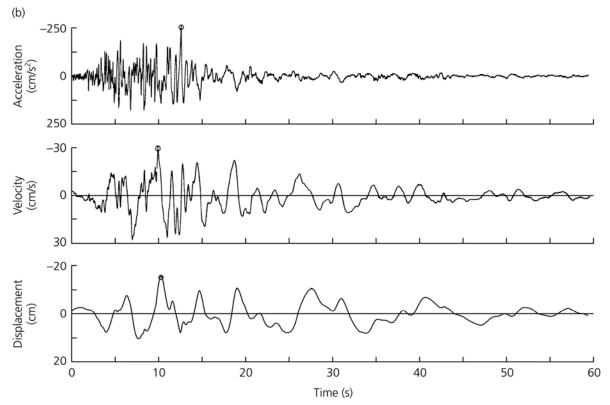
$$a(x,t) = \partial_t^2 u(x,t) = \ddot{u}(x,t)$$



Displacement, Velocity, Acceleration

Figure 6.6-14: Relation between displacement, velocity, and acceleration in the time domain.





Seismic observables strain

Strain is a tensor that contains 6 independent linear combinations of the spatial derivatives of the displacement field. Strain is a purely geometrical quantity and has no dimensions.

$$\varepsilon_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_i} \right)$$

Measurement of differential deformations involves a spatial scale (the length of the measurement tube).

What is the meaning of the various elements of the strain tensor?

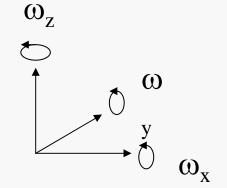
Seismic observables strain

Strain components (2-D)

$$\varepsilon_{ij} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial u_x}{\partial x} & \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial u_x}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial u_y}{\partial x} \right) \\ \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial u_x}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial u_y}{\partial x} \right) & \frac{\partial u_y}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix}$$

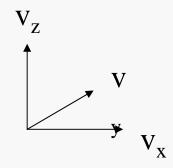
Seismic observables rotations

$$\begin{pmatrix} \omega_{x} \\ \omega_{y} \\ \omega_{z} \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \nabla \times \underline{\mathbf{v}} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} \partial_{y} v_{z} - \partial_{z} v_{y} \\ \partial_{z} v_{x} - \partial_{x} v_{z} \\ \partial_{x} v_{y} - \partial_{y} v_{x} \end{pmatrix}$$



Rotation rate

Rotation sensor



Ground velocity
Seismometer

Seismic observables rotations

- Rotation is a vectorial quantity with three independent components
- At the Earth's surface rotation and tilt are the same
- Rotational motion amplitudes are expected in the range

of $10^{-9} - 10^{-3}$ rad/s

- Rotations are only now being recorded
- Rotations are likely to contribute to structural damage

Seismic observables *tilt*

Tilt is the angle of the surface normal to the local vertical. In other words, it is rotation around two horizontal axes. Any P, SV or Rayleigh wave type in layered isotropic media leads to tilt at the Earth's free surface. In 3-D anisotropic media all parts of the seismic wave field may produce tilts.

Other causes of tilt:

- Earth tides
- Atmospheric pressure changes
- Soil deformation (water content)
- Temperature effects
- Mass movements (lawn mower, trucks, land slides)

$$\Theta(x,t) = \partial_x u_z$$

Summary Observables

- Translations are the most fundamental and most widely observed quantity (standard seismometers)
- Translation sensors are sensitive to rotations!
- Tilt measurements are sensitive to translations!
- Really we should be measuring all 12 quantities at each point (cool things can be done with collocated observations of translation, strains and rotations)

Questions

- How many independent motions are there descriptive of the motion of a measurement point (deformable, undeformable media)?
- Describe measurement principles for the three main observable types!
- What is the role of the time derivative of translational measurements? Domains of application?
- Compare qualitatively displacement, velocity, and acceleration of an earthquake seismogram!
- What is the advantage of having an array of closely spaced seismometers?
- What is the frequency and amplitude range of earthquake-induced seismic observations?