# Principles of Seismology Part I

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### Introduction

- \* **Every** day there are about fifty earthquakes worldwide that are strong enough to be felt locally, and every few days an earthquake occurs that is capable of damaging structure.
- \* Each event radiates seismic waves that travel throughout Earth, and several earthquakes per day produce distant ground motions that, although too weak to be felt, are readily detected with modern instruments anywhere on the globe.

### Introduction

- \* Seismology is the science that studies these waves and what tell us about the structure of Earth and the physics of earthquakes.
- Seismology is the primary means by which scientists learn about Earth's deep interior, where direct observations are impossible.
- Seismology occupies an interesting position within the more general fields of geophysics and Earth sciences.

- Seismology is a comparatively young science that has only been studied quantitatively for about 100 years.
- \* Historical perspective:
- 1678 Hooke, Hooke's Law  $\sigma = E\varepsilon$
- 1760 Mitchell, Recognition that ground motion due to earthquakes is related to wave propagation.

- 1821 Navier, Equation of motion
- 1828 *Poisson*, Wave equation
  - $\rightarrow$  P & S waves
- 1885 Rayleigh , Theoretical account surface waves
  - → Rayleigh & Love waves
- 1892 Milne , First high quality seismograph → being of observational period

- 1897 Wiechert, Prediction of existence of dense core (based on meteorites → Fe-alloy
- 1900 *Oldham*, Correct identification of *P*, *S* and surface waves
- 1906 *Oldham*, Demonstration of existence of core from seismic data
- 1906 Galitzin, First feed-back broadband seismograph
- 1909 *Mohorovičić*, Crust -mantle boundary

- 1911 *Love*, Love waves (surface waves )
- 1912 Gutenberg, Depth to core mantle boundary: 2900 km
- 1922 *Turner*, Location of deep earthquakes down to 600km
- 1928 Wadati, Accurate location of deep earthquakes
  - → Wadati Benioff zones

- 1936 Lehman, Discovery of inner core
- 1939 Jeffreys & Bullen, First travel-time tables
  - → 1D Earth model
- 1948 Bullen, Density profile
- 1977 *Dziewonski & Toksöz* , First 3-D global model

#### Observations:

- 1964 *ISC* (International Seismological Centre ) – travel times and earthquake locations
- 1960 WWSSN ( Worldwide Standardized Seismograph Network ) – (analog records)

- 1978 GDSN (Global Digital Seismograph Network) - (digital records)
- 1980 IRIS (Incorporated Research Institutes for Seismology)

### Stress and Strain

 The seismic waves basically result from the balance between stress and strain.

#### **Stress**

- -Stress is force per unit area, and the principle unit is Newton per square meter ( $Nm^{-2}$ ) or Pascal ( $1Nm^{-2} = 1$  Pa).
- There are two types of Stress (Fig. 1):
- 1. Normal stress ( $\sigma_n$ ): It is the force F per unit area that is perpendicular to the plane or the surface
- element ( $\delta S$ ).

# Stress or traction on a plane Normal stress Shear stress

Figure 1

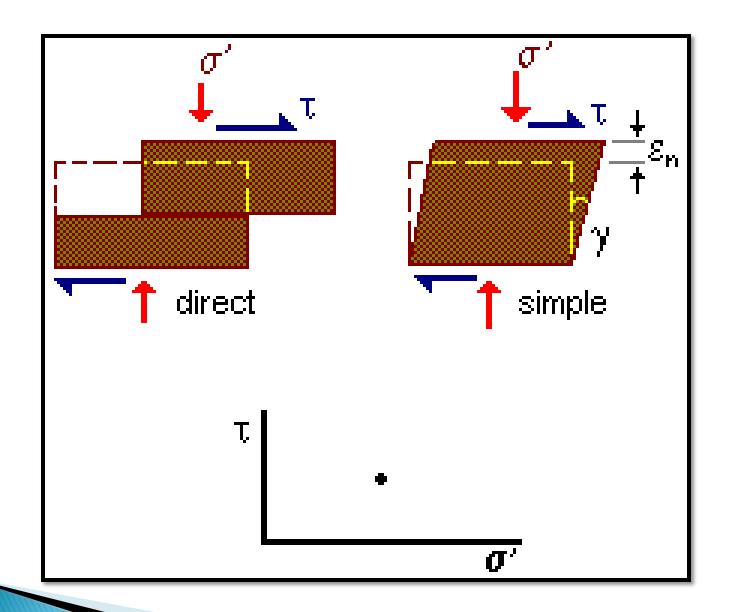
## Stress and Strain

- 2. Shear stress( $\tau$ ): It is the force per unit area that is parallel to plane or the surface element  $\delta S$ .
- For stress we define the *traction* as a vector that represents the total force per unit area on  $\delta S$ .
- Units of stress: Nm-2 or Pa.

### Stress and Strain

## **Strain**

- Strain is defined as extension per unit length.
- Strain = extension / original length
- Strain has no units because it is a ratio of lengths.
- Figure 2 shows the types of shear strain.



## Seismic waves-Body waves

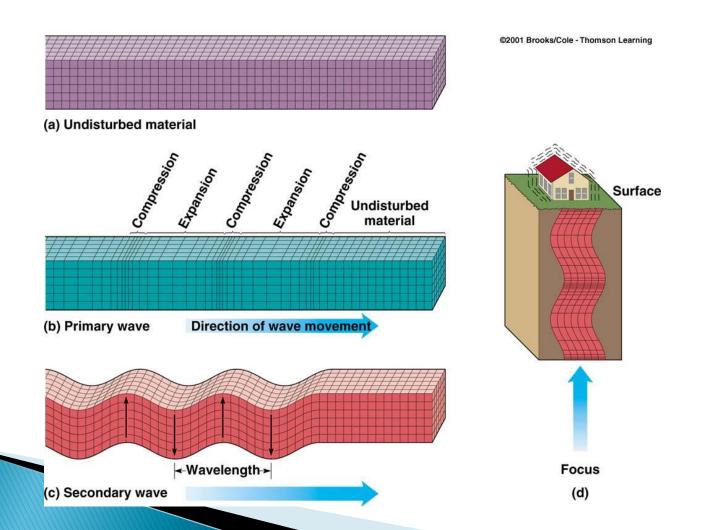
#### Longitudinal waves:

- They are faster than transversal waves and thus arrive first.
- The particles oscillate in the direction of spreading of the wave.
- Compressional waves
- P–waves

#### Transversal waves:

- The particles oscillate in the direction perpendicular to the spreading direction.
- Shear waves they do not propagate through liquids (e.g. through the outer core).
- S-waves

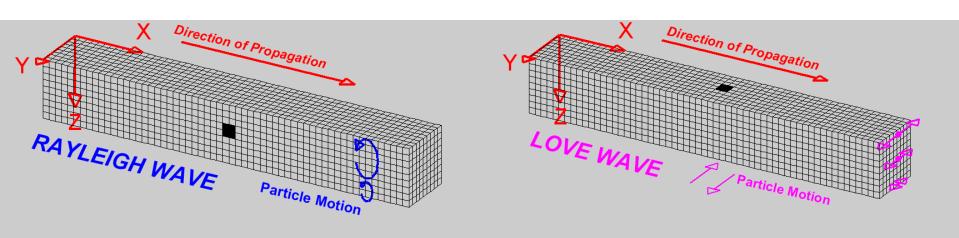
## Seismic waves-Body waves



## Seismic waves - surface waves

### Surface waves: Rayleigh and Love waves

- Their amplitude diminishes with the depth.
- -They have large amplitudes and are slower than body waves.
- These are dispersive waves (large periods are faster).



## Velocity of Seismic Waves

- The main factors that determine seismic wave velocity are:
  - 1. *Density*
- 2. Elastic properties of the Earth. These vary with depth, location and composition.
- 3. Frequency of the seismic energy
- 4. Number, orientation and shape of cracks or other voids in the ground.

## Velocity of Seismic Waves

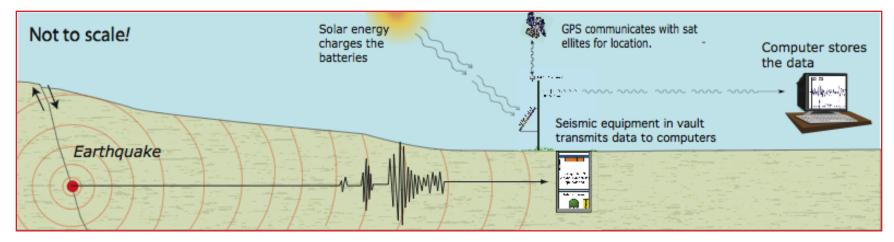
$$V_p = \sqrt{\frac{\kappa + \frac{4}{3}\mu}{\rho}}$$

$$V_s = \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\rho}}$$

$$V_R = \sqrt{\frac{E}{\rho}}$$

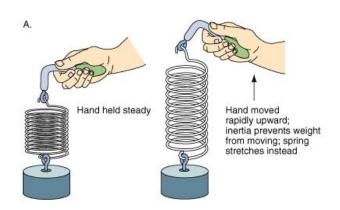
#### Where:

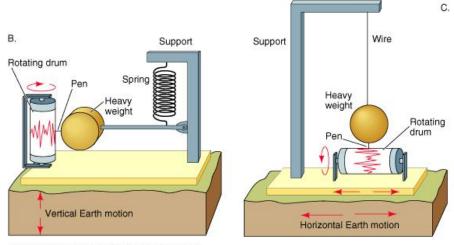
 $\rho$  is the density  $\kappa$  is the bulk modulus  $\mu$  is the shear (or rigidity) modulus E is Young's modulus



When an earthquake occurs the seismic waves travel through the Earth to the seismic station where the information is transmitted to distant computers.

- \*The "seismometer" is the instrument that is supersensitive to ground motions and therefore can detect the minute ground motions produced by a distant earthquake.
- \* Some *seismometers* record horizontal movement (N-S or E-W) while other seismometers record vertical movement (up-down).

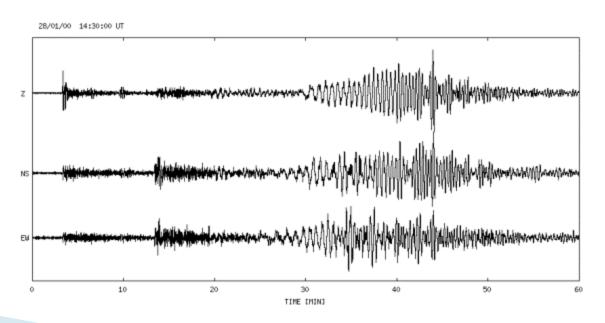




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- \* A "seismogram" is the graphical representation that the seismometer makes of a particular earthquake.
- \* As seen on the seismograph in the bottom figure, the order of arrival of seismic waves is: P wave, then S wave, then surface waves.
- \*When interpreted for us, a seismogram looks pretty simple. In actuality, it takes a trained eye to spot the arrivals of different kinds of seismic waves on the seismogram.

Earthquake in Japan Station in Germany Magnitude 6.5



- Modern digital broadband seismographs are capable of recording almost the whole seismological spectrum (50 Hz - 300 s).
- Their resolution of 24 bits (high dynamic range) allows for precise recording of small quakes, as well as unsaturated registration of the largest on

#### The Seismometer



#### The seismograph



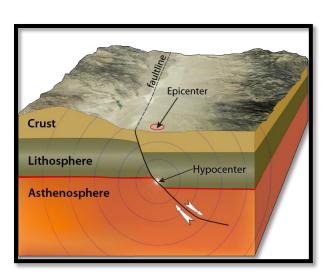
## Epicenter & Focus of Earthquakes

#### - Epicenter:

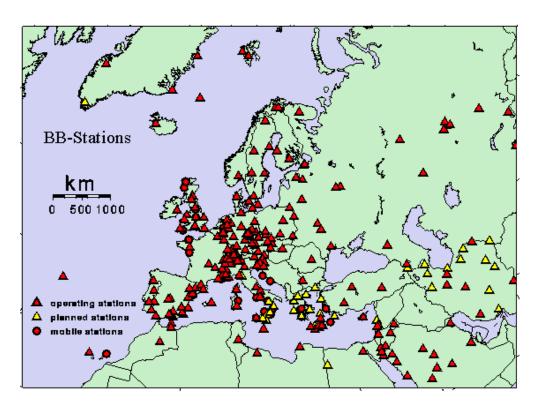
Location on Earth's surface directly above the hypocenter.

- Focus (or hypocenter):

Location within the Earth where the earthquake occurred.



## Observational Seismology

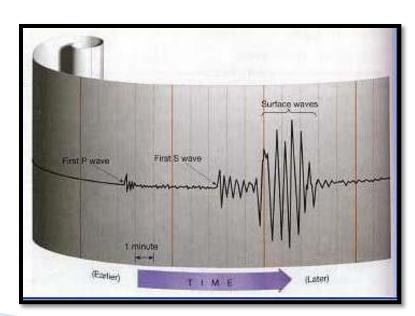


Broad-band seismological stations in Europe

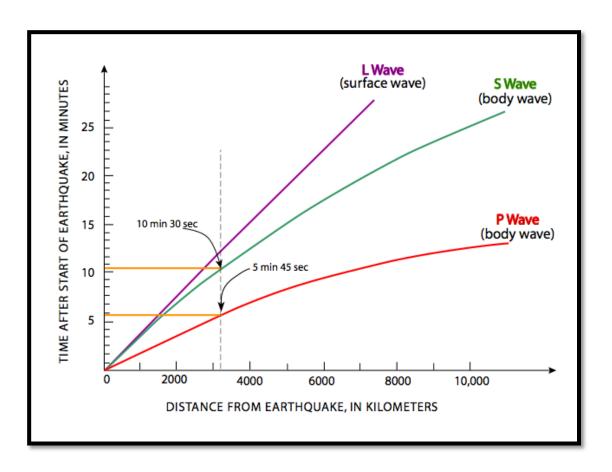
## Observational Seismology

- We are now equipped to start recording and locating earthquakes. For that we need a seismic network of as many stations as possible.
- -Minimal number of stations needed to locate the position of an earthquake epicentre is three.

- To locate an earthquake we need precise readings of the times when P- and S-waves arrive at a number of seismic stations.
- Accurate absolute timing (with a precission of 0.01 s) is essential in seismology!



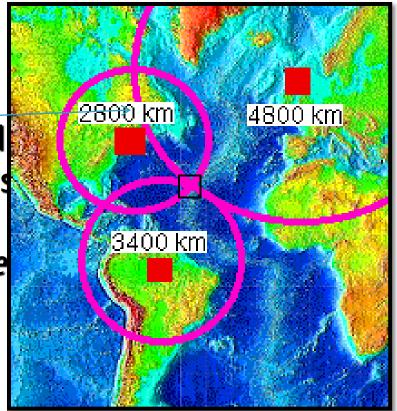
- ✓ Knowing the difference in arrival times of the two waves, and knowing their velocity, we may calculate the distance of the epicentre.
- ✓This is done using the travel-time curves which show how long does it take for P- and S-waves to reach some epicentral distance.



The travel-time curves.

✓ After we know the distance of epicentre from at least three stations we may Like this find the epicentre

There are more sofisticated methods of locating positions of earthquake foci. This is a classic example of an inverse problem.

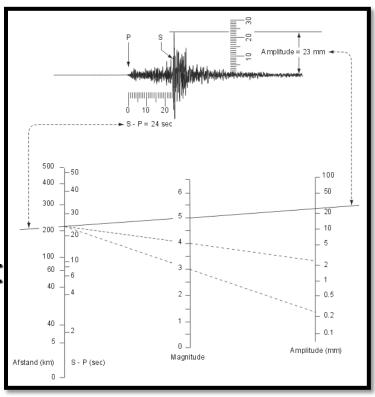


## Observational Seismology Magnitude determination

Besides the position of the epicentre and the depth of focus, the earthquake magn

is another defining element of each earthquake.

Magnitude (defined by Charles Richter in 1935) is proportional to the amount of energy released from the focus.



## Observational Seismology Magnitude determination

-Magnitude is calculated from the amplitudes of ground motion as measured from the seismograms. You also need to know the epicentral distance to take attenuation into account.

#### Formula:

$$M = \log(A) + c_1 \log(D) + c_2$$

where A is amplitude of ground motion, D is epicentral distance, and  $c_1$ ,  $c_2$  are constants.

# Observational Seismology Magnitude determination

- There are many types of magnitude in seismological practice, depending which waves are used to measure the amplitude: M<sub>L</sub>, m<sub>b</sub>, M<sub>c</sub>, M<sub>s</sub>, M<sub>w</sub>, ...
- Increase of 1 magnitude unit means ~32 times more released seismic energy!

Magnitude	Effects	Number per year
Less than 2	Not felt by humans. Recorded by instruments only	Numerous
2	sensitive. Felt only by the most Suspendedobjects swing	> 1000000
3	Felt by some people. Vibration like a passing heavy vehicle	100000
4	Felt by most people. Hanging objects swing. Dishes and windows rattle and may break	12000
5	Felt by all; people frightened. Chimneys topple; furniture moves	1400
6	Panic. Buildings may suffer substantial damage	١٦.
7–8	Widespread panic. Few buildings remain standing. Large landslides; fissures in ground	20
8-9	Complete devastation Ground waves	~7

Equivalent Magnitude	Event	Energy ( tons TNT )
2	Large quary blast	1
2.5	Moderate lightning bolt	٥
3.5	Large ligtning bolt	75
4.5	Average tornado	5100
6	Hiroshima atomic bomb	20000
7	Largest nuclear test	3200000
7.7	Mt. Saint Helens eruption	10000000
8.5	Krakatoa eruption	100000000
9.5	Chilean earthquake 1960	3200000000

## 10 LARGEST EARTHQUAKES IN THE WORLD SINCE 1900

Location	Date	Magnitude	Deaths
<ol> <li>Chile</li> <li>Alaska</li> <li>Russia</li> <li>Ecuador</li> <li>Alaska</li> <li>Kuril Islands</li> <li>Alaska</li> <li>India</li> <li>Chile</li> <li>Indonesia</li> </ol>	22 May 1960 28 March 1964 4 November 1952 31 January 1906 9 March 1957 6 November 1958 4 February 1965 15 August 1950 11 November 1922 1 February 1938	9.5 9.2 9.0 8.8 8.8 8.7 8.7 8.6 8.6 8.6 8.5	>5000 131 0 >1000 0 0 0 1530 >100

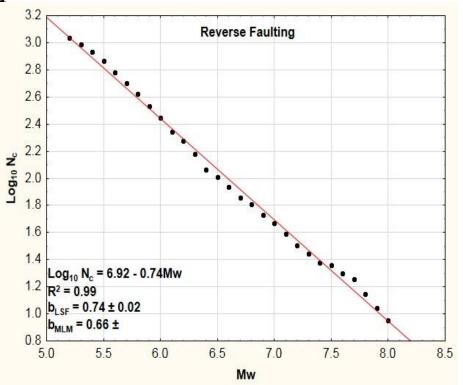
### 10 WORLD EARTHQUAKES CAUSING THE LARGEST NUMBER OF FATALITIES

Location	Date	Deaths Magnitude
<ol> <li>Shaanxi, China</li> <li>Antioch, Syria</li> <li>Tangshan, China</li> <li>Azerbaijan</li> <li>Shanxi, China</li> <li>Ningxia, China</li> <li>Qumis, Iran</li> <li>Kanto, Japan</li> <li>Aleppo, Syria</li> <li>Messina, Italy</li> </ol>	23 January 1556 13 December 0115 27 July 1976 25 September 1139 17 September 1303 16 December 1920 22 December 0856 1 September 1923 15 October 1138 28 December 1908	830,000 8.0 260,000 7.5 255,000 7.9 230,000 7.0 200,000 8.0 200,000 7.9 143,000 7.5 80,000 7.5

Gutenberg-Richter frequency-magnitude

relation:

log N = a - bM-b is approximately constant, b = 1world-wide  $\rightarrow$  there are ~10 more times N than M=6 earthquake



### Observational Seismology Macroseismology

- MACROSEISMOLOGY deals with effects of earthquakes on humans, animals, objects and surroundings.
- The data are collected by field trips into the shaken area, and/or by questionaires sent there.
- The effects are then expressed as earthquake INTENSITY at each of the studied places.
- Intensity is graded according to macroseismic scales Mercalli-Cancani-Sieberg (MCS), Medvedev-Sponheuer-Karnik (MSK), Modified Mercalli (MM), European Macroseismic Scale (EMS).
- This is a subjective method.



## Observational Seismology Macroseismology

#### **European Macroseismic Scale (EMS 98)**

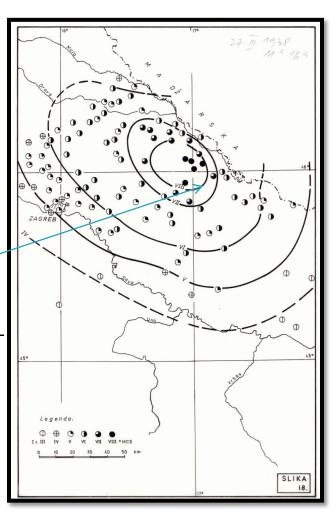
1. Not felt	Not felt, even under the most favorable circumstances.
2. Scarcely felt	Vibration is felt only by individual people at rest in houses, especially on upper floors of buildings.
3. Weak	The vibration is weak and is felt indoors by a few people. People at rest feel a swaying or light trembling.
4. Largely observed	The earthquake is felt indoors by many people, outdoors by very few. A few people are awakened. The level of vibration is not frightening. Windows, doors and dishes rattle. Hanging objects swing.
5. Strong	The earthquake is felt indoors by most, outdoors by few. Many sleeping people awake. A few run outdoors. Buildings tremble throughout. Hanging objects swing considerably. China and glasses clatter together. The vibration is strong. Top heavy objects topple over. Doors and windows swing open or shut.
6. Slightly damaging	Felt by most indoors and by many outdoors. Many people in buildings are frightened and run outdoors. Small objects fall. Slight damage to many ordinary buildings; for example, fine cracks in plaster and small pieces of plaster fall.

## European Macroseismic Scale (EMS 98) (continued)

7. Damaging	Most people are frightened and run outdoors. Furniture is shifted and objects fall from shelves in large numbers. Many ordinary buildings suffer moderate damage: small cracks in walls; partial collapse of chimneys.
8. Heavily damaging	Furniture may be overturned. Many ordinary buildings suffer damage: chimneys fall; large cracks appear in walls and a few buildings may partially collapse.
9. Destructive	Monuments and columns fall or are twisted. Many ordinary buildings partially collapse and a few collapse completely.
10. Very destructive	Many ordinary buildings collapse.
11. Devastating	Most ordinary buildings collapse.
12. Completely devastating	Practically all structures above and below ground are heavily damaged or destroyed.

### Observational Seismology Macroseismology

- -Results of macroseismic surveys are presented on isoseismal maps.
- -Isoseismals are curves connecting the places with same intensities.
- -DO NOT CONFUSE INTENSITY AND MAGNITUDE!
- Just approximately, epicentral intensity is:  $l_0 = M +$
- -One earthquake has just one magnitude, but many intensities!



### Earthquakes Belts

#### Circum-Pacific belt

About 95 percent of the energy released by earthquakes originates in a few relatively narrow zones. The greatest energy is released along a path surrounding the Pacific Ocean known as the circum-Pacific belt. Included in this zone are regions of great seismic activity such as Japan, the Philippines, and Chile. Areas of the United States that are part of the circum-Pacific belt lie adjacent to California's San Andreas Fault and along the western coastal regions of Alaska, including the Aleutian Islands.

### Earthquakes Belts (continued)

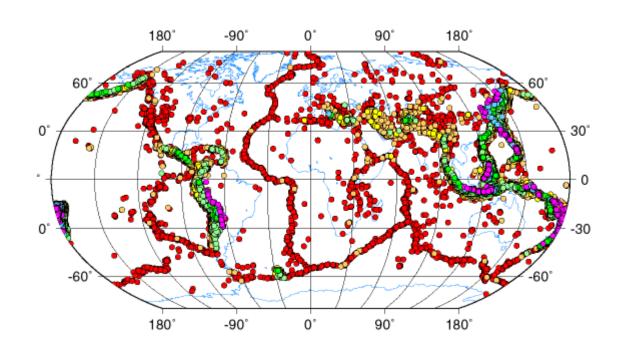
### \*Alpine-Himalayan belt

Another major concentration of strong seismic activity runs through the mountainous regions that flank the Mediterranean Sea and extends through Iran and on past the Himalayan Mountains. This zone of frequent and destructive earthquakes is referred to as the Alpine-Himalayan belt.

### - Mid - Ocean Ridge Belt

This belt extends for thousands of kilometers through the world's oceans. This zone coincides with the oceanic ridge system, which is an area of frequent but low-intensity seismic activity.

## Earthquakes Belts (continued)



### References

Stein, S. and Wysession, M. (2003) An Introduction to Seismology, Earthquakes, and Earth Structure. Blackwell Publishing Ltd.,UK, 512p.

Shearer, P. (2009) Introduction to Seismology. 2<sup>ed</sup>, Cambridge University Press, UK, 412p.