

Receiver Function Inversion

*Advanced Studies Institute on
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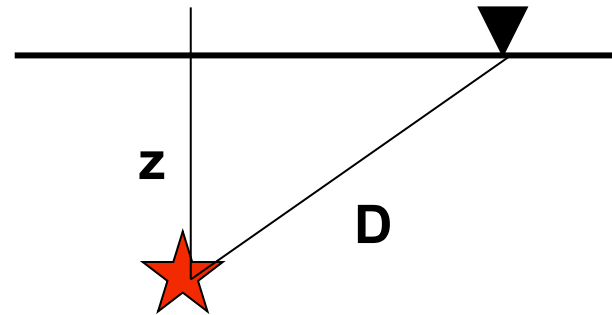
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Outline

- **Introduction to Inverse Theory:**
 - Forward and inverse problems
 - Iterative solution: LSQ and damped LSQ
 - Generalized inverse
- **Inversion of Receiver Functions:**
 - Method of Ammon *et al.* (1990).
 - The non-uniqueness problem.
- **Case Studies in Spain:**
 - Ebre basin (Julià *et al.*, 1998)
 - Neogene Volcanic Zone (Julià *et al.*, 2005)

Forward Problem / Inverse Problem

- Seismic location:
 - **Data:** travel times
 - **Unknowns:** hypocentral coordinates and origin time.
 - ***A priori* information:** station locations and propagating medium velocities.



$$t_i = t_0 + D_i/V$$

- Forward problem:
 - Predict travel times from known hypocentral location and origin time.
- Inverse problem:
 - Obtain hypocentral location and origin time from observed travel times.

Setting up the (forward) problem

We define a vector of observations \mathbf{d} and a vector of parameters \mathbf{m} as:

$$\mathbf{d} = (t_1, t_2, \dots, t_N)^T \quad \mathbf{m} = (t_0, x_0, y_0, z_0)^T$$

so that

$$\mathbf{d} = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{m})$$

where $F_i(\mathbf{m})$ is

$$t_i = t_0 + (1/v) [(x_i - x_0)^2 + (y_i - y_0)^2 + (z_i - z_0)^2]^{1/2}$$

Inverse theory provides means for finding an operator $\mathbf{F}^{-1}(\mathbf{d})$, so that

$$\mathbf{m} = \mathbf{F}^{-1}(\mathbf{d})$$

Iterative solution

The forward problem for seismic location is **non-linear**.
An approach is to turn it linear by doing a Taylor expansion around a trial solution \mathbf{m}_0

$$\mathbf{d} \approx \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{m}_0) + \nabla \mathbf{F}|_{\mathbf{m}_0} \cdot (\mathbf{m} - \mathbf{m}_0)$$

and drop 2nd and higher order terms, so that

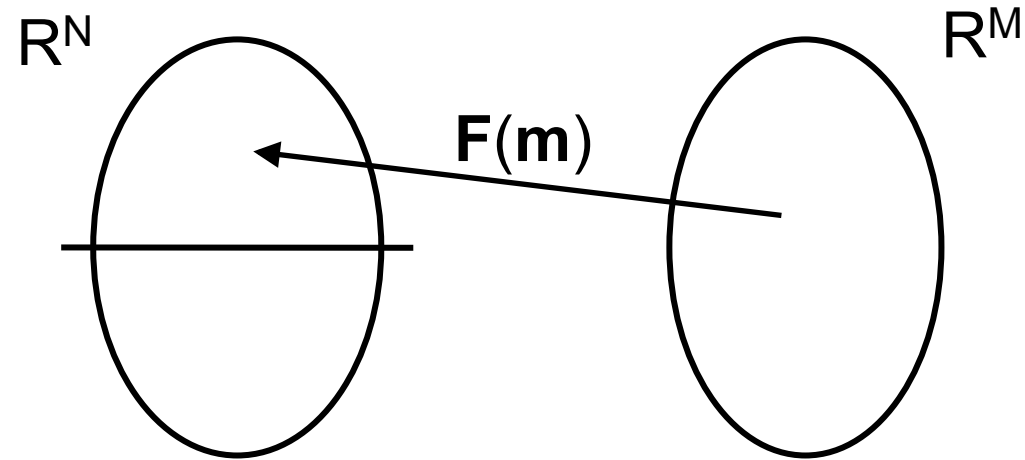
$$\Delta \mathbf{d} = \mathbf{G} \cdot \Delta \mathbf{m}$$

Where $\Delta \mathbf{d} = \mathbf{d} - \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{m}_0)$, $\Delta \mathbf{m} = \mathbf{m} - \mathbf{m}_0$, and

$$\mathbf{G} = \nabla \mathbf{F}|_{\mathbf{m}_0} = \begin{bmatrix} \partial t_1 / \partial t_0 & \partial t_1 / \partial x_0 & \partial t_1 / \partial y_0 & \partial t_1 / \partial z_0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \partial t_N / \partial t_0 & \partial t_N / \partial x_0 & \partial t_N / \partial y_0 & \partial t_N / \partial z_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

If we can determine \mathbf{G}^{-1} , then $\mathbf{m}_{i+1} = \mathbf{m}_i + \Delta \mathbf{m}_i$

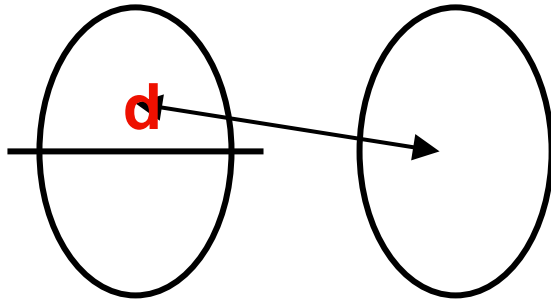
Classifying Inverse Problems



The (linear) vector function $\mathbf{d}=\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{m})$ maps the parameter space into a subspace of the data space.

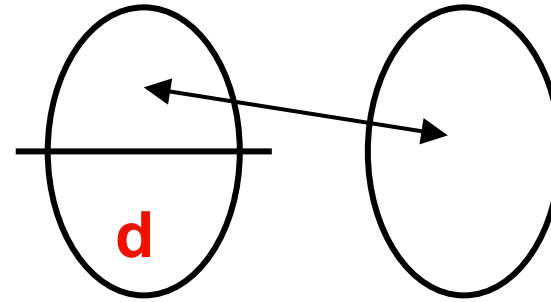
The ability of establishing an inverse mapping $\mathbf{m}=\mathbf{F}^{-1}(\mathbf{d})$ depends on the details of the forward mapping.

Ideal case



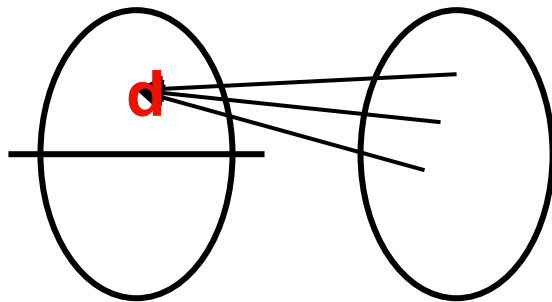
Each vector \mathbf{d} relates to one and only one vector \mathbf{m} .

Overdetermined case



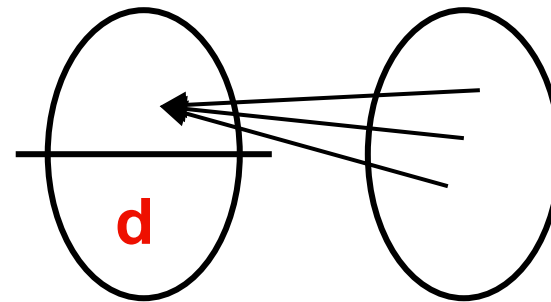
There is no exact solution, so we must choose one that is close enough.

Underdetermined case



There are multiple solutions. We must pick one.

Mixed-determined case



There are no exact solutions and many that are equally close.

Least squares solutions

In order to define “close” in the data space we need to introduce a **metric**. A popular choice is the L_2 norm, where the “distance” E between vectors is

$$E = (\mathbf{d}-\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{m}))^T(\mathbf{d}-\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{m}))$$

The “closest” solution is obtained by minimizing E and is given by

$$\mathbf{G}^{-1} = [\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{G}]^{-1}\mathbf{G}^T$$

To choose among the multiple solutions that are equally “close” we pick the one that is **minimum length**

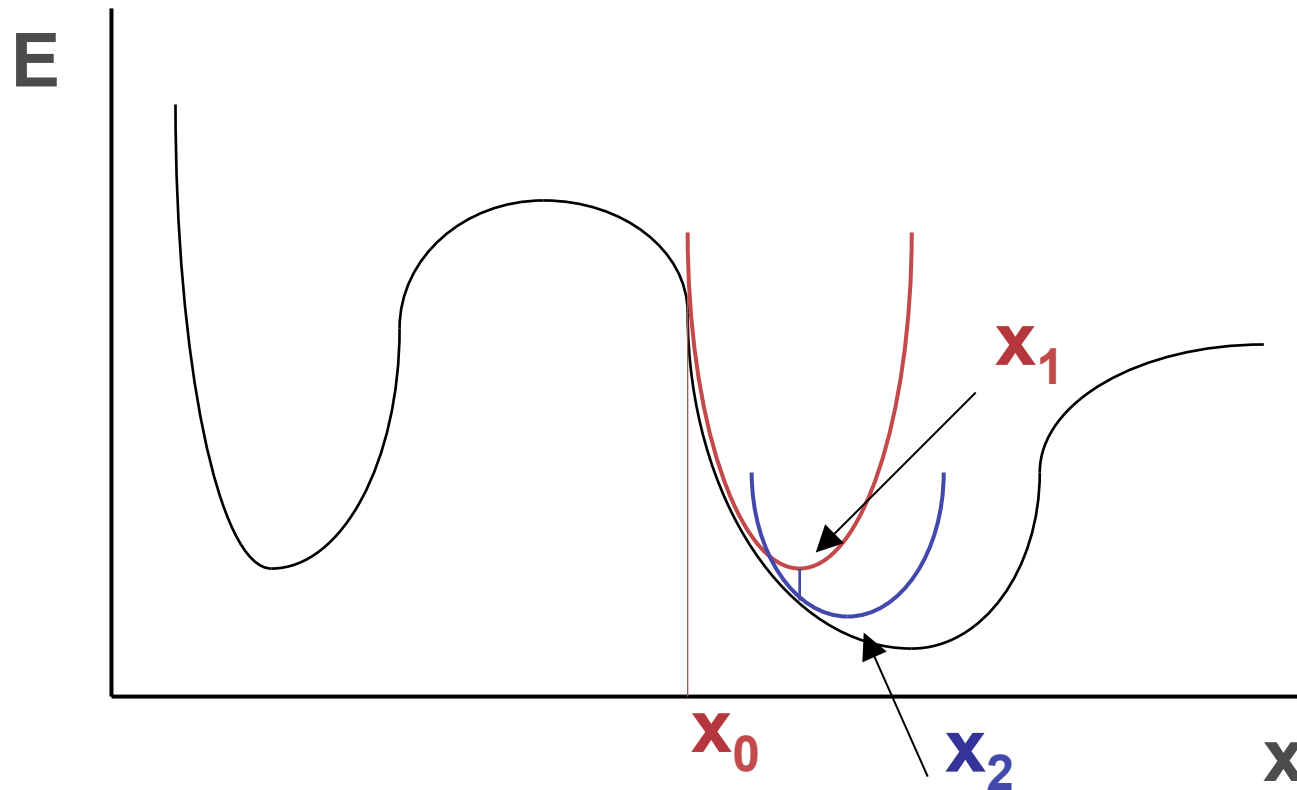
$$E = (\mathbf{d}-\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{m}))^T(\mathbf{d}-\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{m})) + \vartheta^2 (\mathbf{m}^T\mathbf{m})$$

This is called the “damped least squares” solution and is given by

$$\mathbf{G}^{-1} = [\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{G}+\vartheta^2 \mathbf{I}]^{-1}\mathbf{G}^T$$

Iterative least squares solution

The figure below gives a graphical illustration of how iterative least squares works:



Generalized Inverse Solution (I)

Another way of obtaining G^{-1} is based on the singular value decomposition (SVD) of matrix G .

It can be shown that, in general, any matrix G can be decomposed according to

$$G = U \Lambda V^T$$

Where $U = [\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_N]$ is a base in the data space, $V = [\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_M]$ is a base in the parameter space, and Λ is a $N \times M$ matrix given by

$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \Lambda_p & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

where Λ_p is a $p \times p$ diagonal matrix, with $p \leq M$. The diagonal values λ_i are called the **singular values**.

Generalized Inverse Solution (II)

If we define $V=[V_p, V_0]$ and $U=[U_p, U_0]$, we can write that

$$G = U_p \Lambda_p V_p^T$$

so that

$$G^{-1} = V_p \Lambda_p^{-1} U_p^T$$

The difficult part is to choose a value for p , as singular values can be small but **NOT** necessarily zero. Options are:

- 1) We choose $\lambda^{-1} = \lambda / (\lambda^2 + \vartheta^2)^{-1}$. Then the SVD inverse is the damped least squares solution.
- 2) We choose $\lambda^{-1} = 0$, for λ small. Then the SVD inverse is called **generalized inverse** or **natural solution**.

Inversion of Ammon *et al.* (1990)

The inversion scheme developed by Ammon *et al.* (1990) is based on the “jumping” version of the iterative LSQ solution:

- Creeping

$$\mathbf{d} = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{m})$$

$$\mathbf{d} = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{m}_0) + \nabla F|_{\mathbf{m}_0} (\mathbf{m} - \mathbf{m}_0)$$

$$\delta \mathbf{y} = \nabla F|_{\mathbf{m}_0} \delta \mathbf{m}$$

- Jumping

$$\mathbf{d} + \nabla F|_{\mathbf{m}_0} \mathbf{m}_0 = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{m}_0) + \nabla F|_{\mathbf{m}_0} \mathbf{m}$$

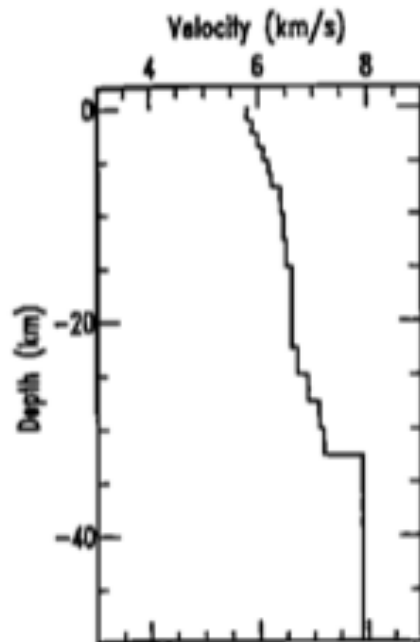
$$\Delta \mathbf{d} + \nabla F|_{\mathbf{m}_0} \mathbf{m}_0 = \nabla F|_{\mathbf{m}_0} \mathbf{m}$$

- LSQ Norm

$$E = \|\Delta \mathbf{d} - \nabla F|_{\mathbf{m}_0} (\mathbf{m} - \mathbf{m}_0)\|^2$$

Over-parameterization & regularization

Velocity models are **over-parameterized** through a stack of many thin layers of constant thickness and unknown S-velocity. A **smoothness constrain** is needed to stabilize the inversion.



$$\begin{cases} \Delta \mathbf{d} + \nabla F \mathbf{m}_0 = \nabla F|_{\mathbf{m}_0} \mathbf{m} \\ \mathbf{0} = \sigma \mathbf{D} \mathbf{m} \end{cases}$$

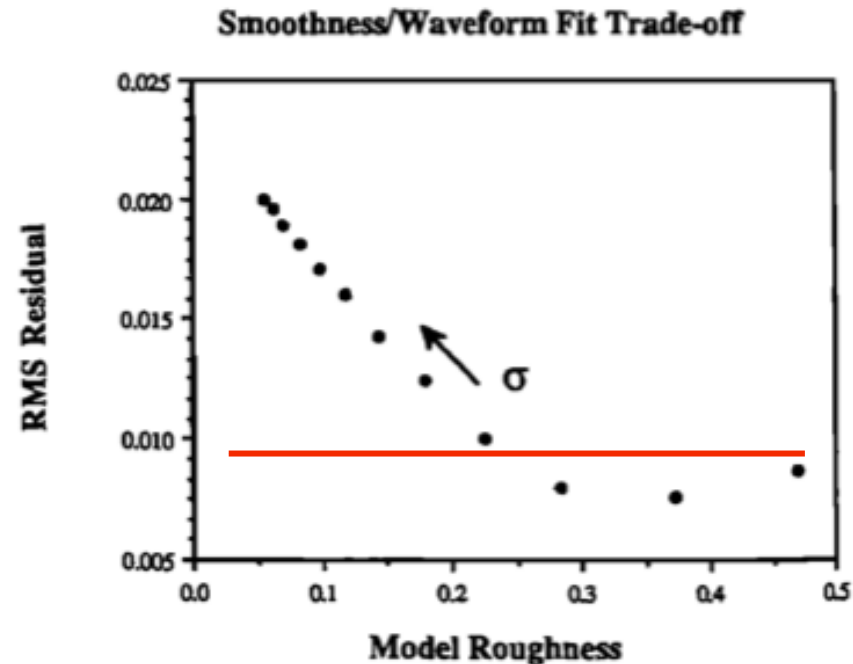
$$\mathbf{D} \mathbf{m} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 1 \\ & 1 & -2 & 1 \\ & & \vdots & \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} m_1 \\ m_2 \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

$$E = \|\Delta \mathbf{d} - \nabla F (\mathbf{m} - \mathbf{m}_0)\|^2 + \sigma^2 \|\mathbf{D} \mathbf{m}\|^2$$

Choosing the smoothness parameter

To determine the smoothness parameter σ a “preliminary” inversion is performed and a trade-off curve is built from the RMS error and the model roughness.

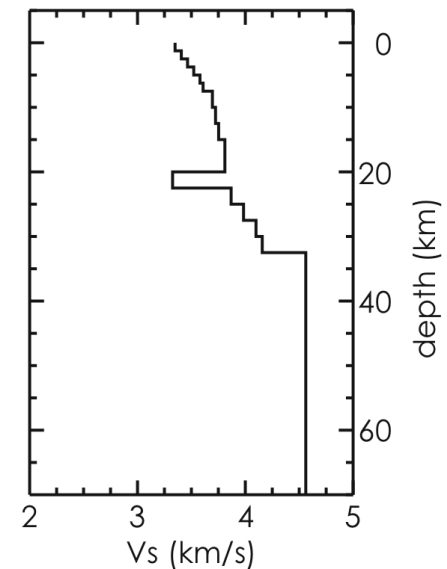
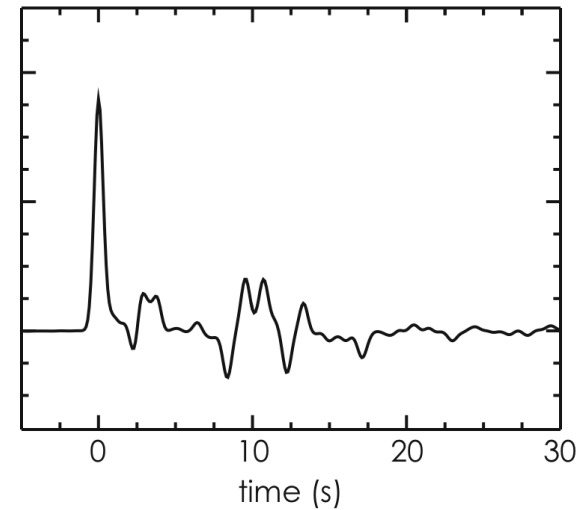
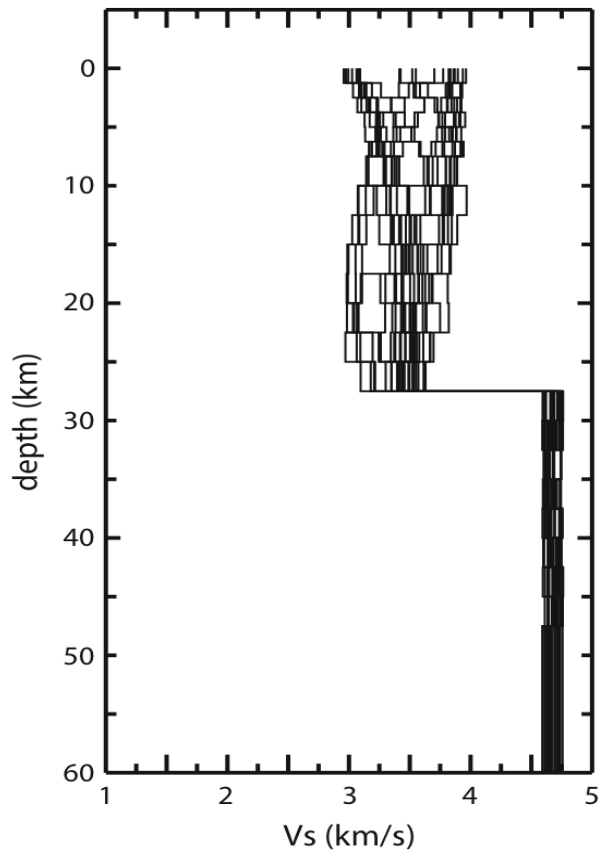
$$\text{roughness} = \sum_{i=1}^{n-2} \frac{|\alpha_i - 2\alpha_{i+1} + \alpha_{i+2}|}{(n-2)}$$

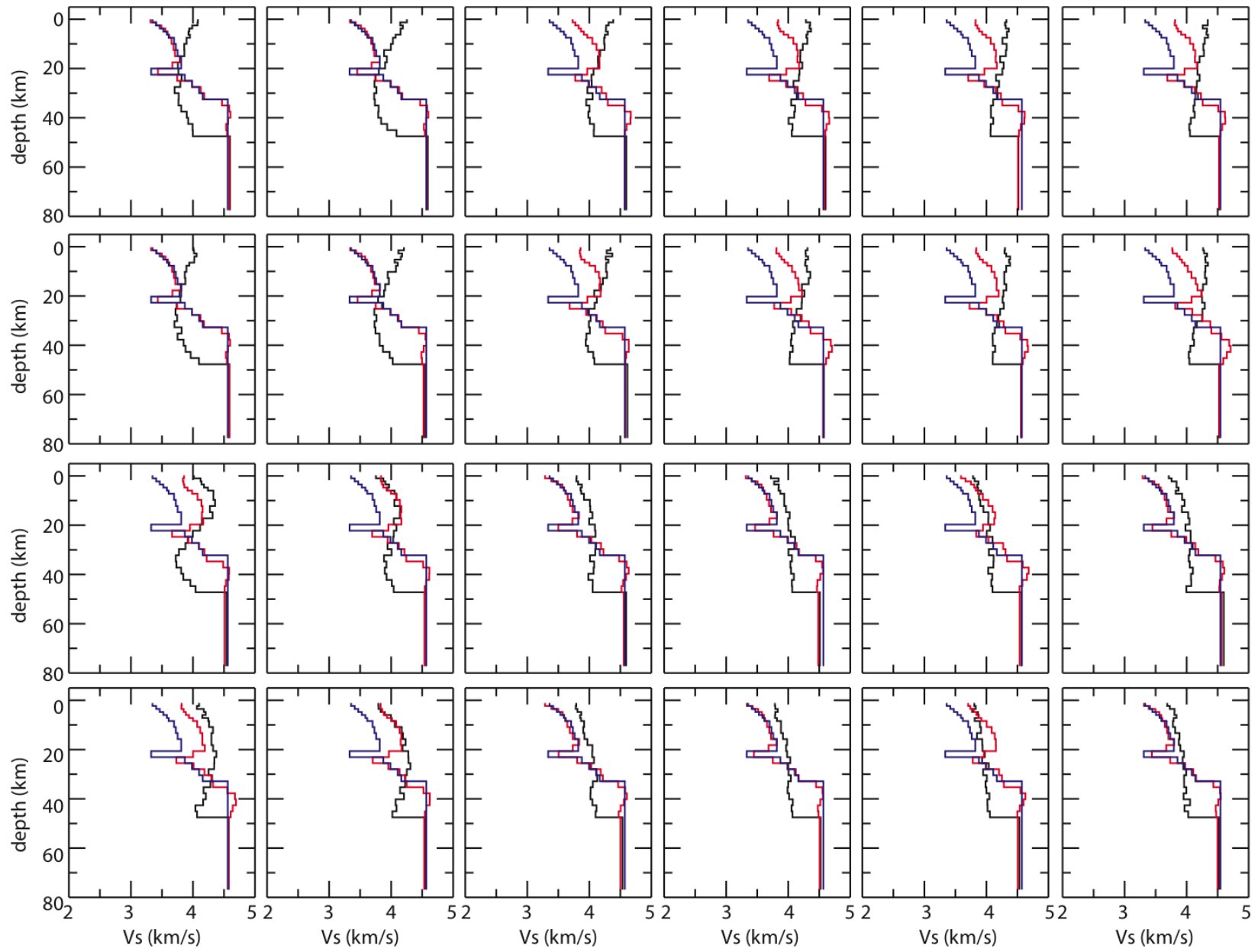


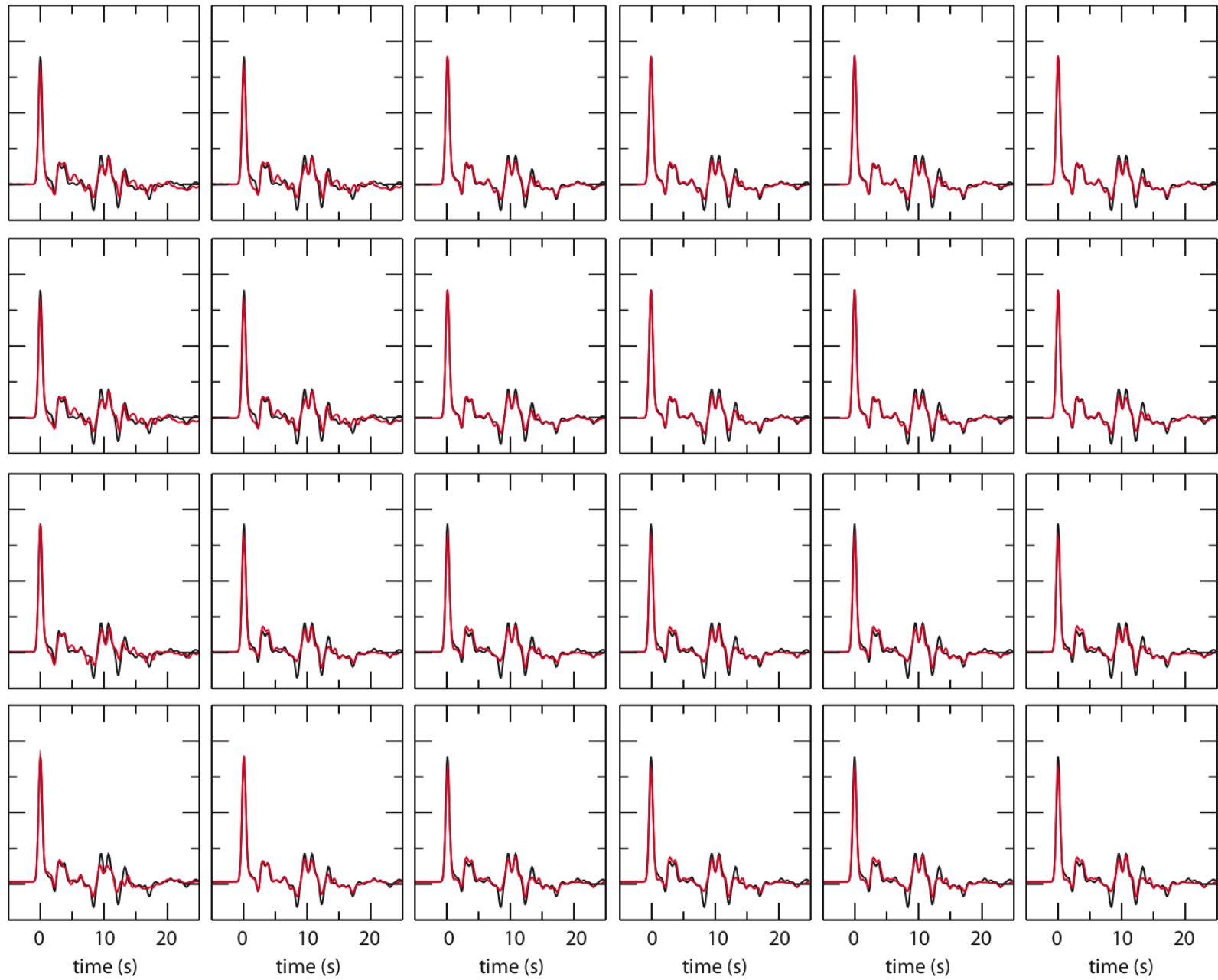
A value for σ is chosen, for instance, from the noise level from the transverse RF.

The non-uniqueness problem

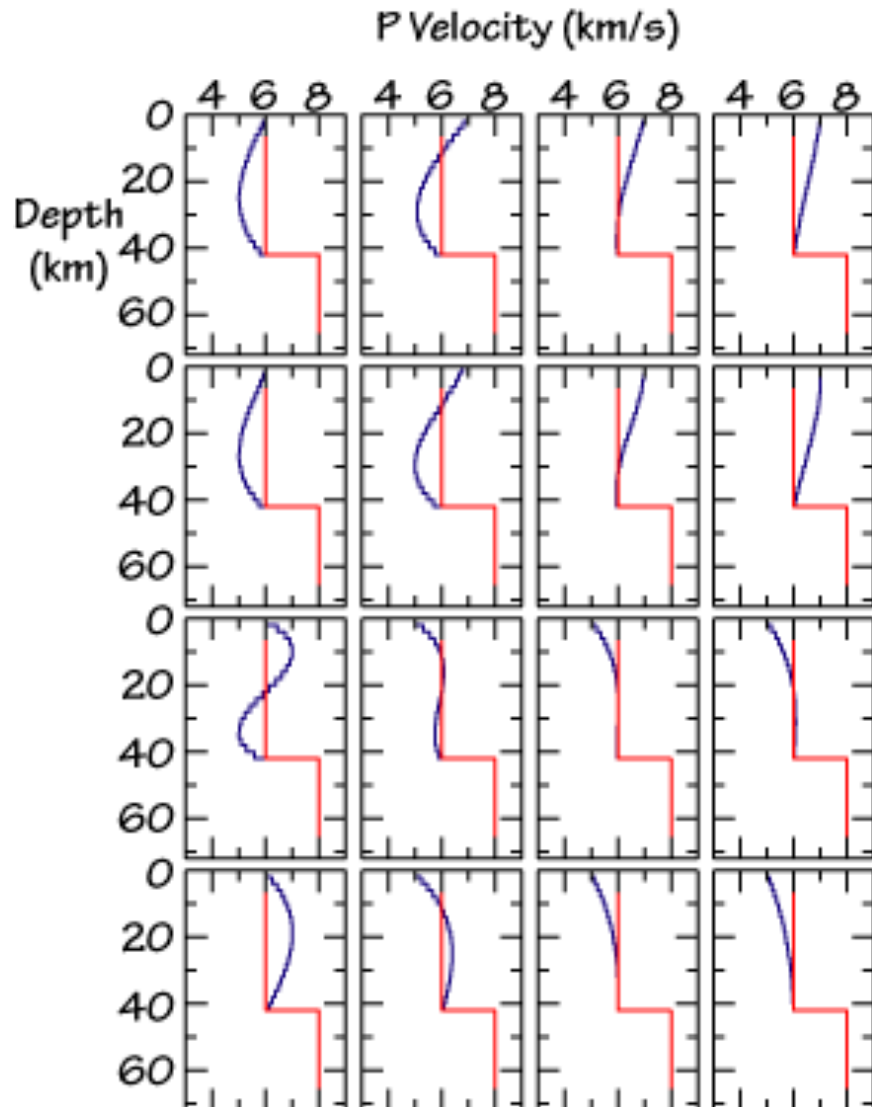
Ammon et al. (1990) showed that the modeling of receiver function waveforms is **non-unique**.



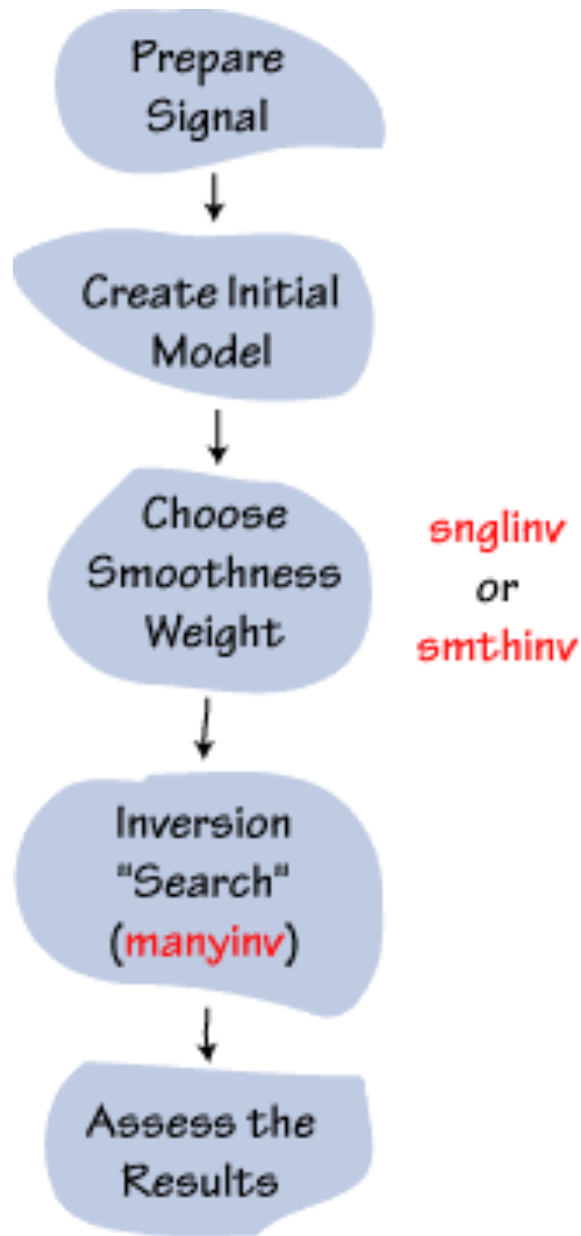




The perturbation scheme



- Many 'starting' models are obtained by perturbing an initial model.
- The perturbation scheme includes:
 - A cubic perturbation (up to a max value)
 - A random perturbation (up to a max %)
- Velocities above a cut-off value are not cubically perturbed.



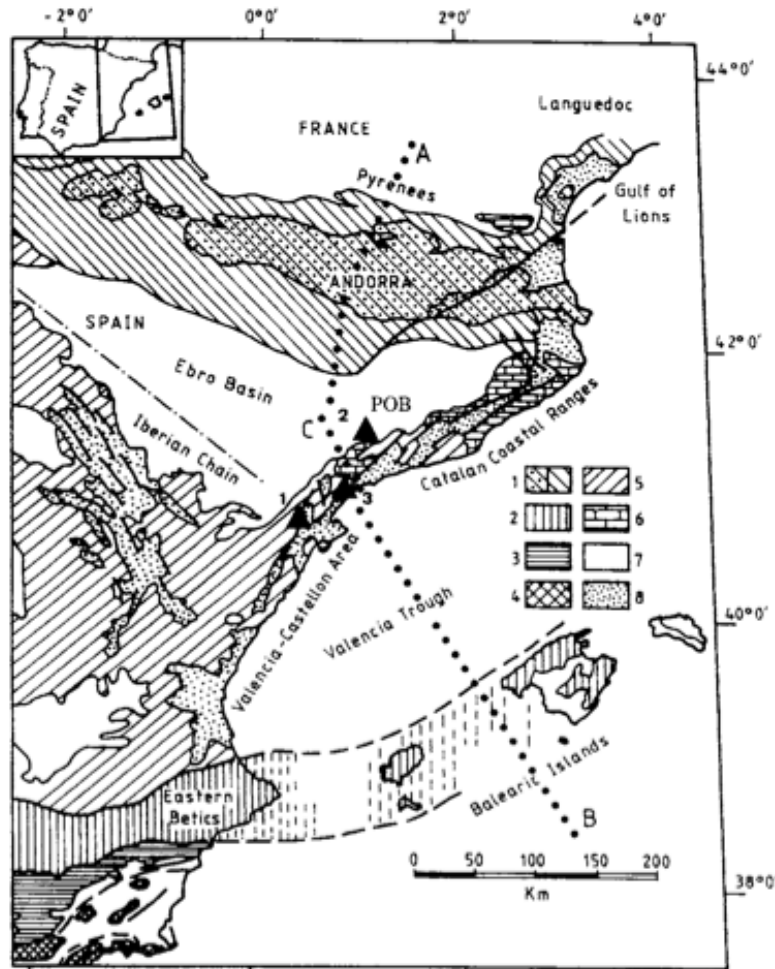
SUMMARIZING:

The inversion scheme proposed by Ammon et al. (1990) for the modeling of receiver functions is:

- 1) Construct an initial model with a stack of many thin layers.
- 2) Determine the smoothness parameter through a “preliminary” inversion.
- 3) Investigate the multiplicity of solutions by perturbing the initial model into many starting models.
- 4) Choose a model from *a priori* and independent information.

The receiver structure of the Ebre Basin

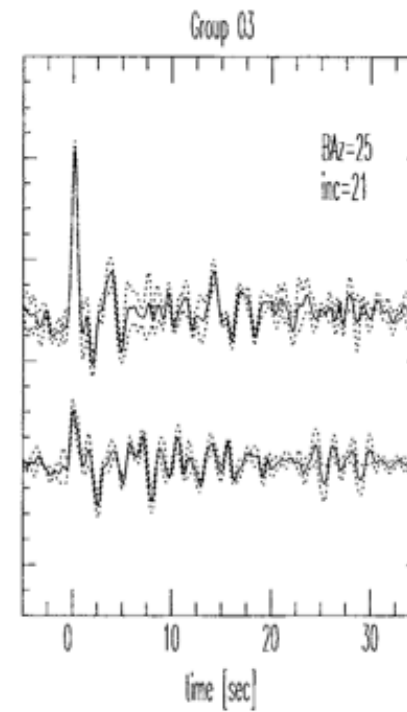
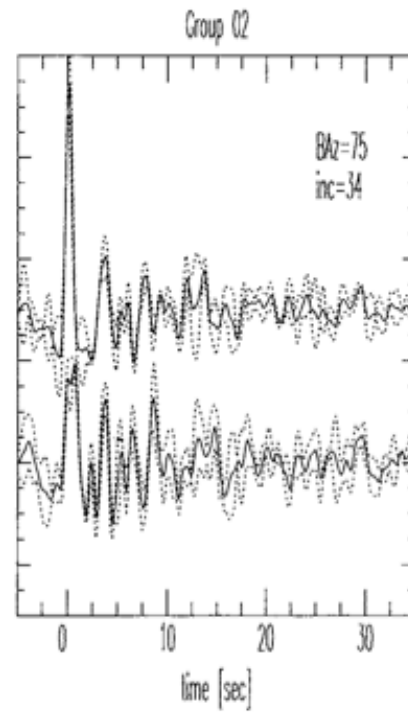
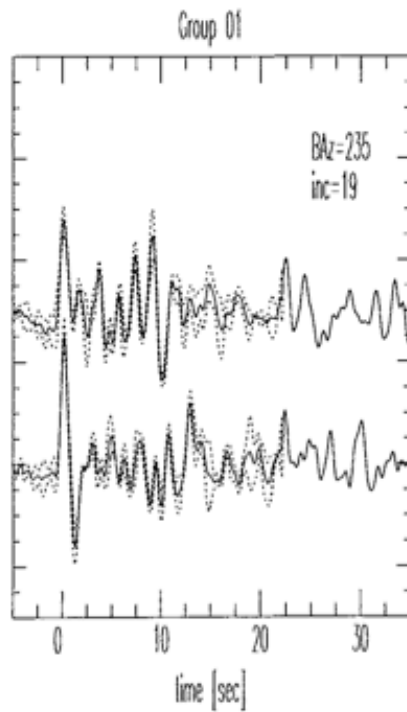
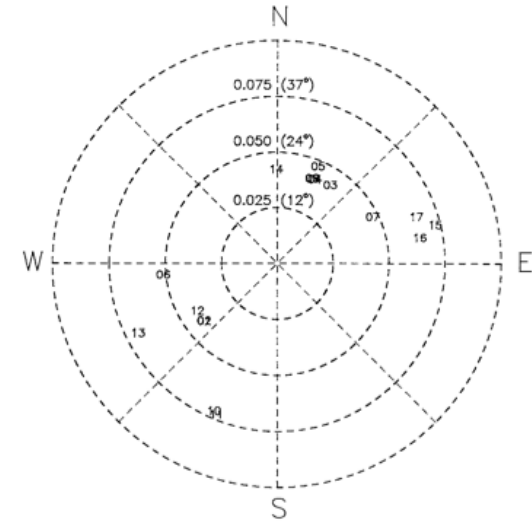
(Julià et al., BSSA, 1998)



- It's an foreland basin that formed during the Alpine orogeny.
- Filled with deposits from the adjacent mountain ranges.
- Highly non-uniform on the edges.
- Highly uniform along the central axis.

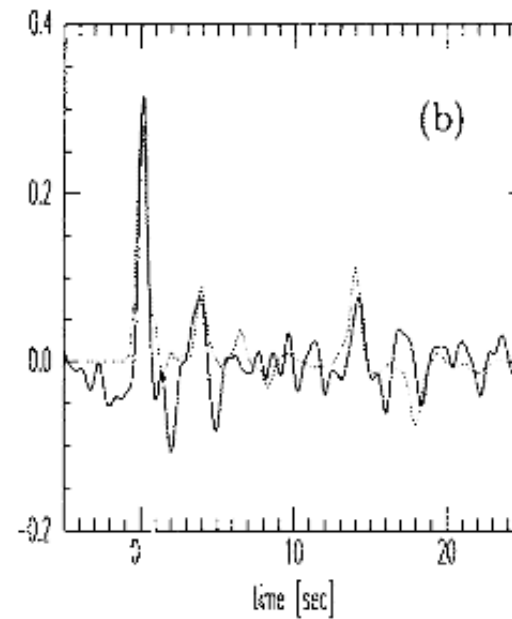
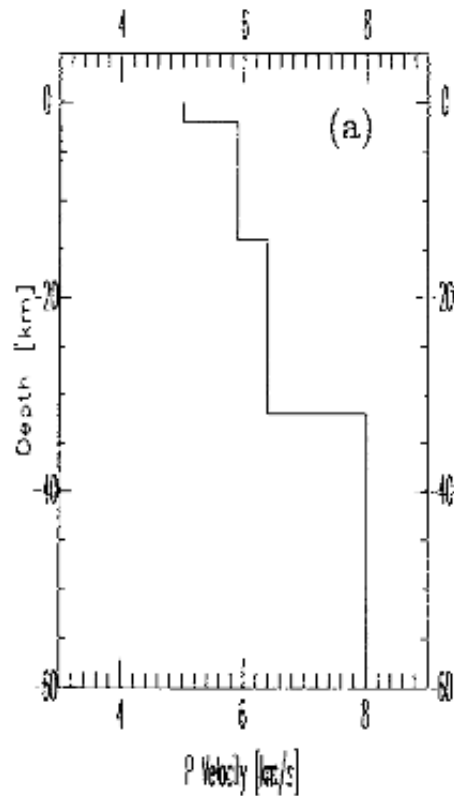
Computing receiver functions at POB

Receiver functions were computed from short-period recordings using the “water-level” method.



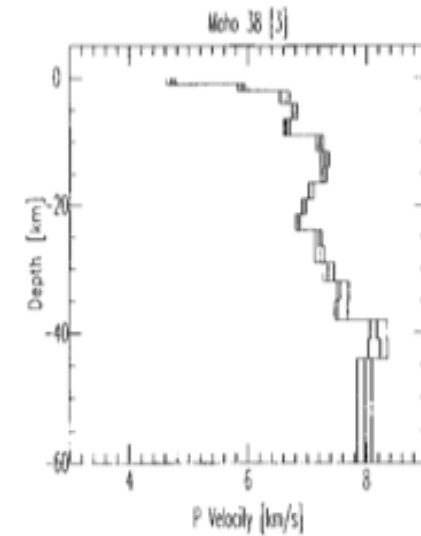
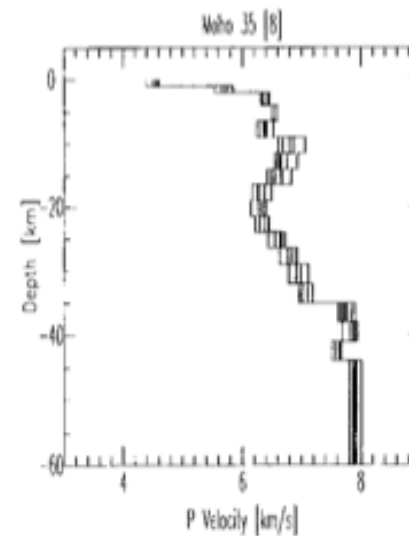
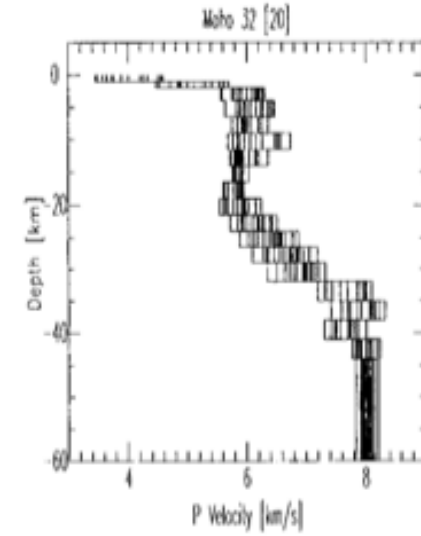
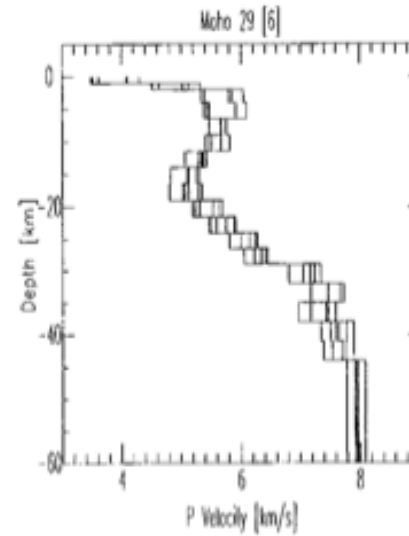
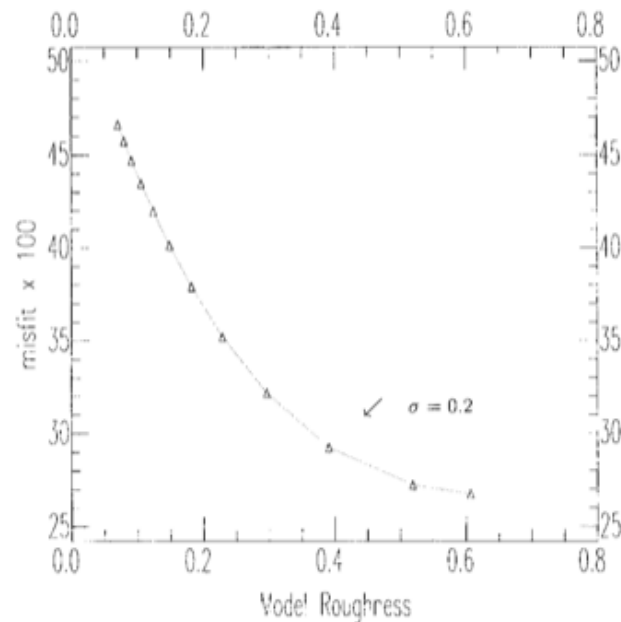
The starting model

The starting model was taken from the P-wave velocity model that the Catalan Geological Survey used to locate earthquakes.

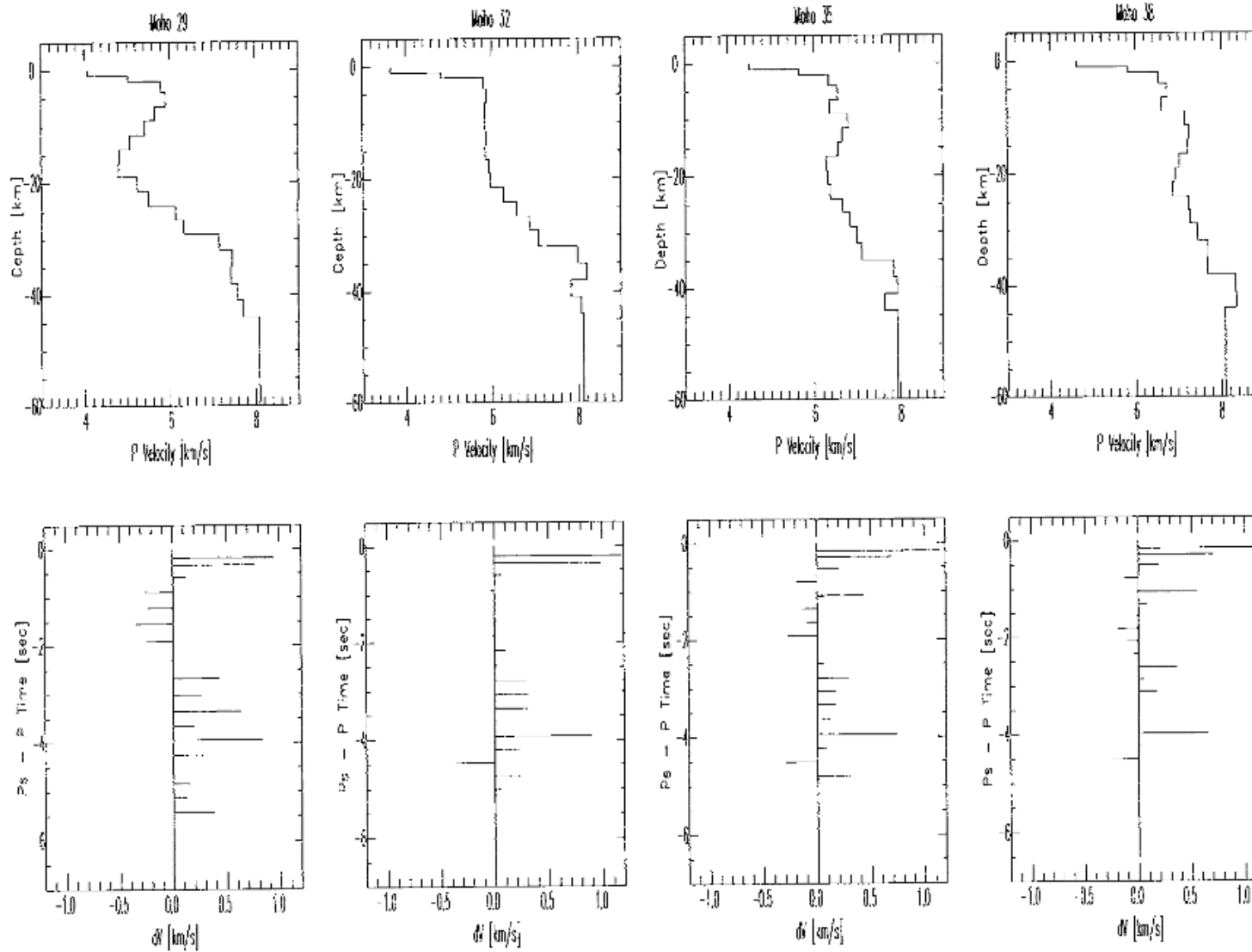


Smoothness and non-uniqueness

A smoothness parameter of 0.2 was chosen from the noise-level.
The resulting velocity models grouped into 4 families.

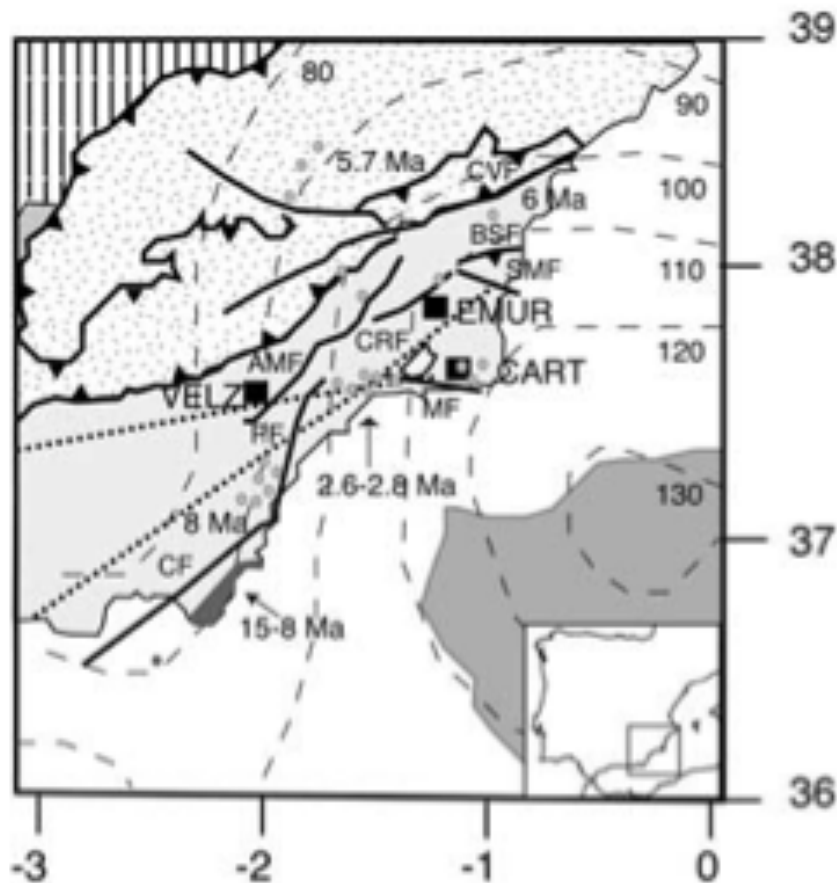


What do receiver functions constrain?



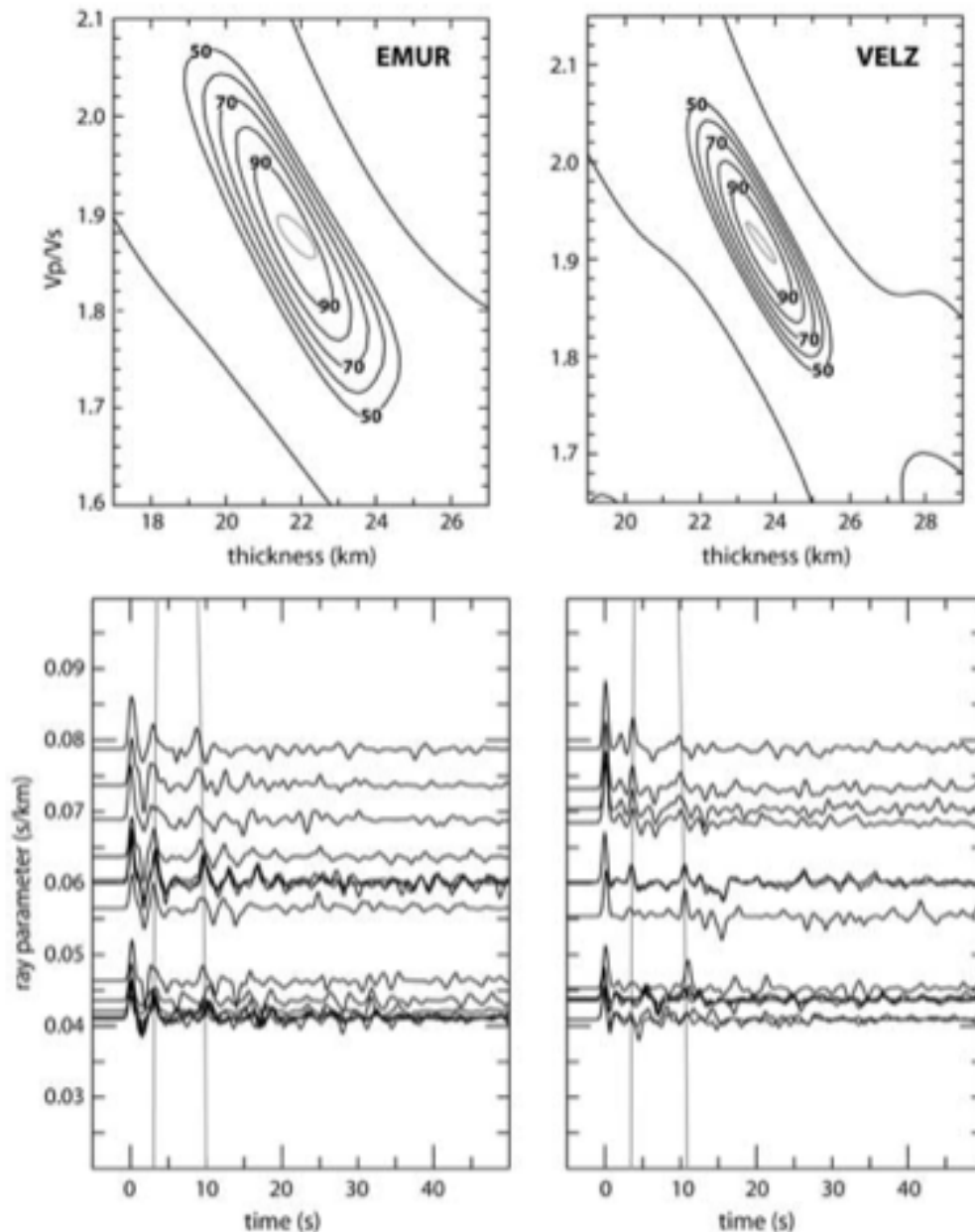
Seismic signature of intra-crustal magmatic intrusions in the Eastern Betics

(Julià et al., GRL, 2005)



- Bounded by the Palomares and Alhama de Murcia faults.
- Postulated as a structurally distinctive block.
- Characterized by high heat-flow values.
- Widespread strike-slip faulting.
- Neogene volcanism (2.6 - 2.8 Ma).

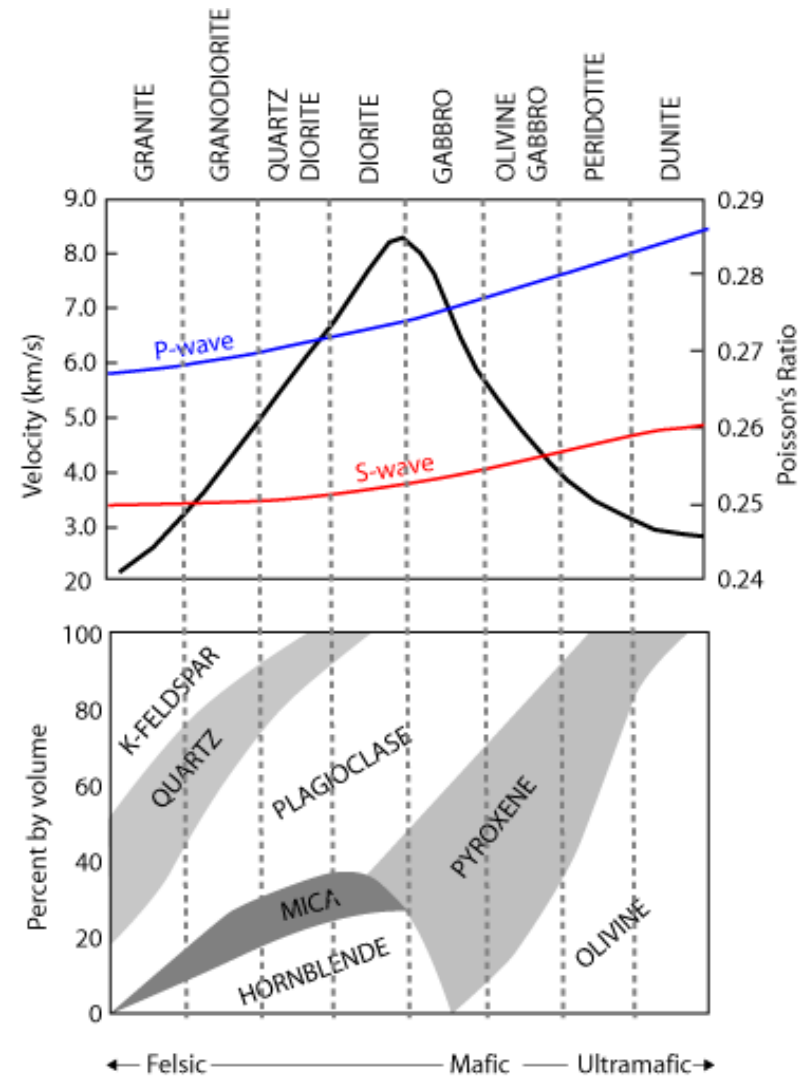
hk-stacking results



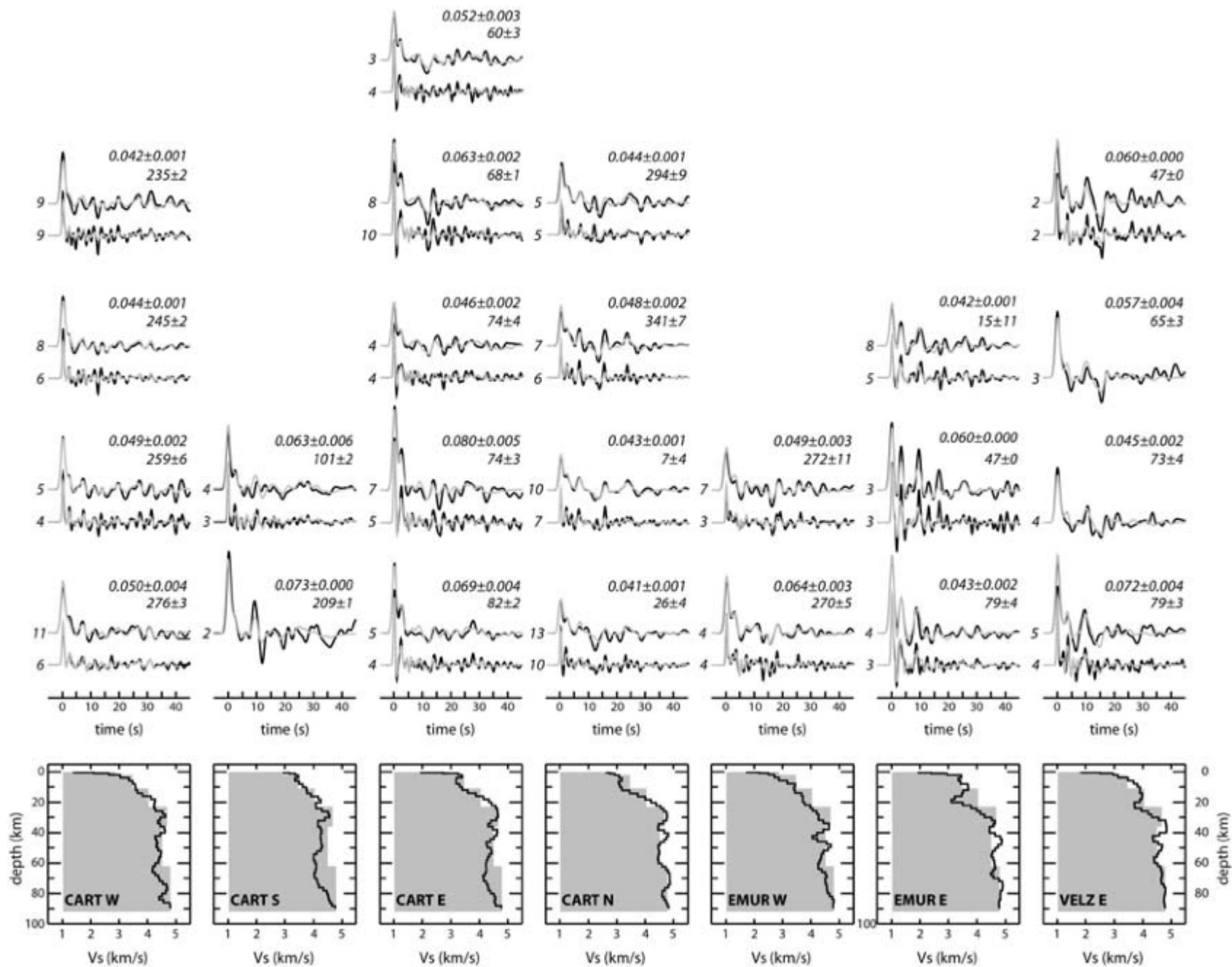
- Shallow depth for the interface, a bit over ~ 20 km.
- Very large V_p/V_s ratio, ~ 1.90 ($\sigma \sim 0.31$)
- Consistent with active-source profiling? ($V_p \sim 6.3$ km/s, $h \sim 23$ km)
- Or is there something else going on?

What does a large V_p/V_s ratio mean?

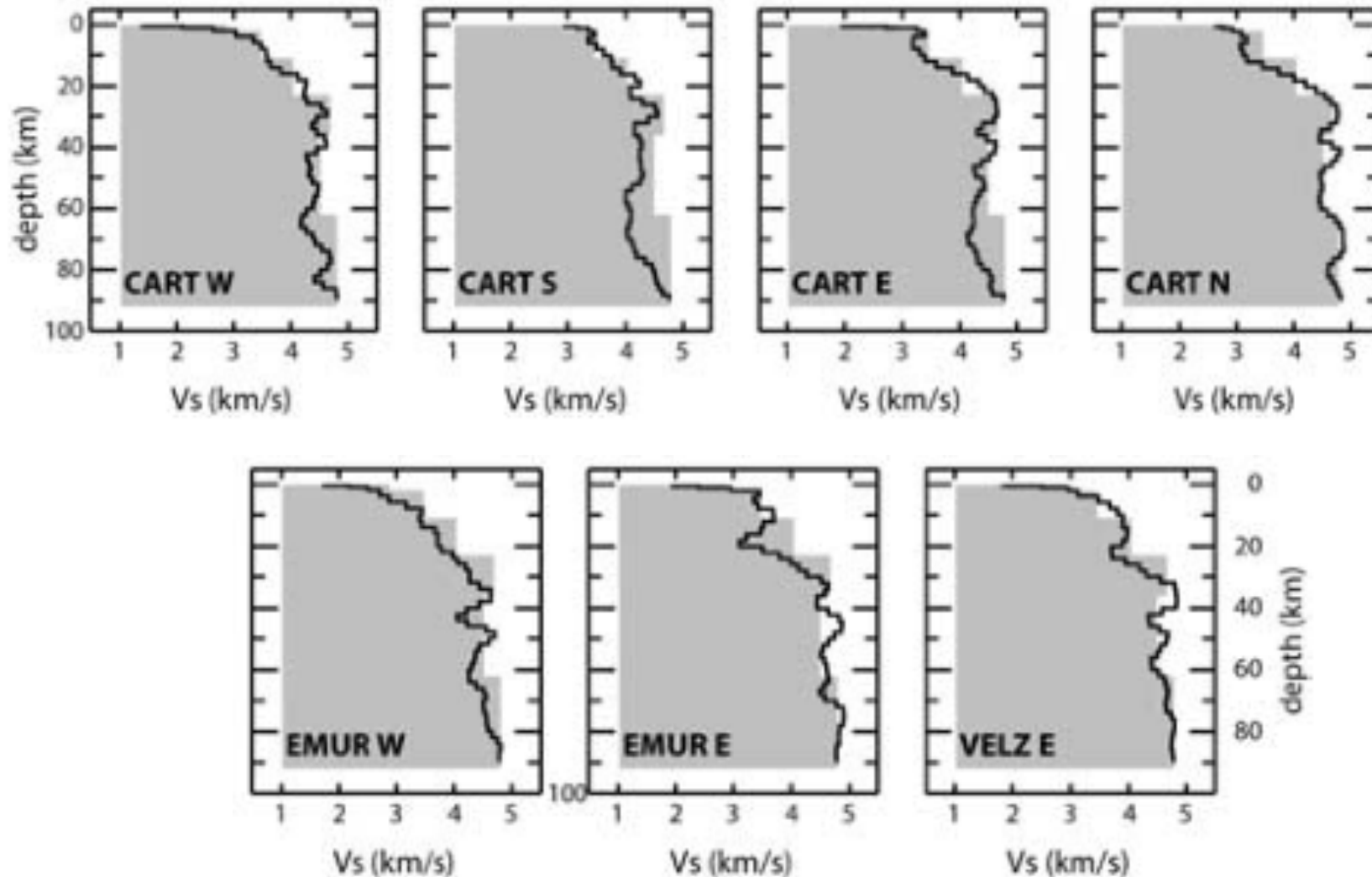
- The upper crust is made of granites and gneisses ($0.24 < \sigma < 0.26$).
- The lower crust is generally more mafic ($0.26 < \sigma < 0.29$).
- Large V_p/V_s (Poisson's) usually explained by
 - Mafic underplate
 - Fusi3n parcial



After Christensen (1996)



What do the inversion models reveal?



Summarizing ...

- Receiver function inversions are highly non-unique.
- What receiver functions constrain are:
 - Velocity contrasts across discontinuities
 - S-P travel times between the surface and the discontinuity.
- The scheme of Ammon et al. (1990) uses a stack of thin layers and requires smoothness constraints.
- Independent *a priori* information is necessary to choose among many competing models.