

# GEOL/PHYS 6670

# Geophysical Inverse Theory

Prof. Anne Sheehan

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Office: Benson Rm 440A

Class web page on Canvas

*Monday office hours changed to 3:30-4:20*

# Lecture 2

*Start recording!*

Finish Menke Ch 1 - Describing  
Inverse Problems

Start Menke Ch 2 - Probability

Homework 1 – due now (on Canvas)  
(math review, try LinkedIn Learning)

Homework 2 – due next week – available on Canvas  
(setting up inverse problems, look up a paper)

# **Last Lecture**

Forward vs. inverse problems

Setting up inverse problems

A few examples (line fit, tomography)

# **This Lecture**

Moment Tensor Example

Linear versus nonlinear

Probability

2<sup>nd</sup> hour of class –Python tutorial (Optional)

Where we left off last time...

- **Grid search – Forward modeling**

- try many models, calculate misfit

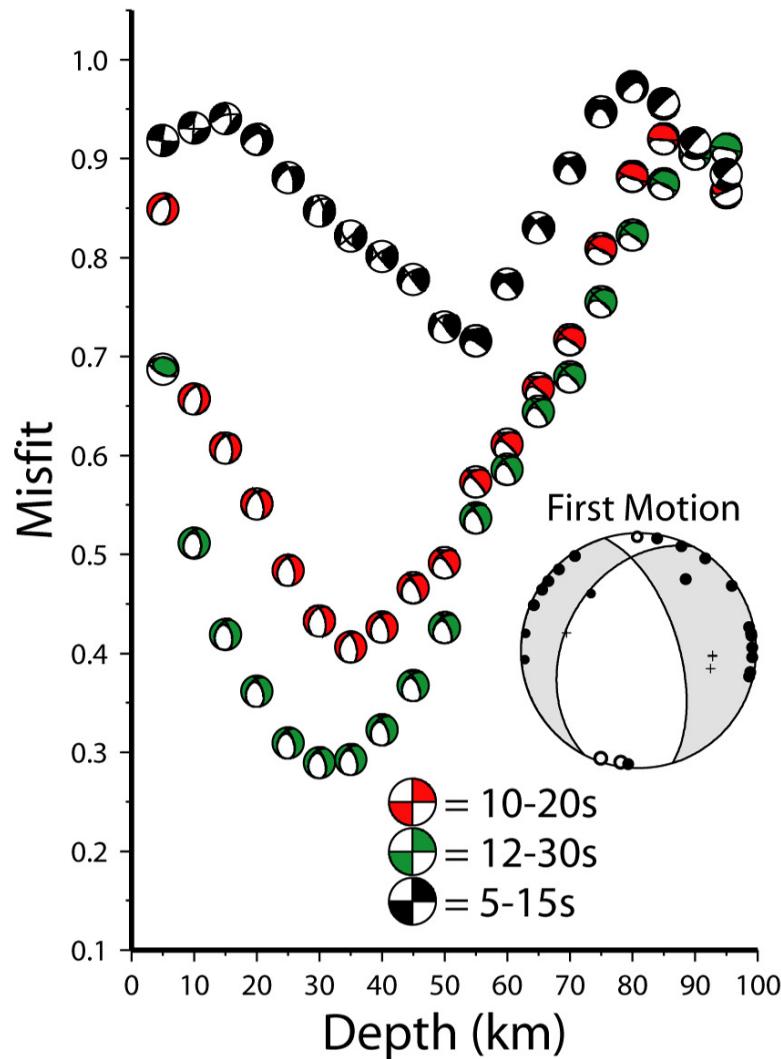
- look for minimum difference in misfit

- ok for small number of parameters

## Grid Search Example:

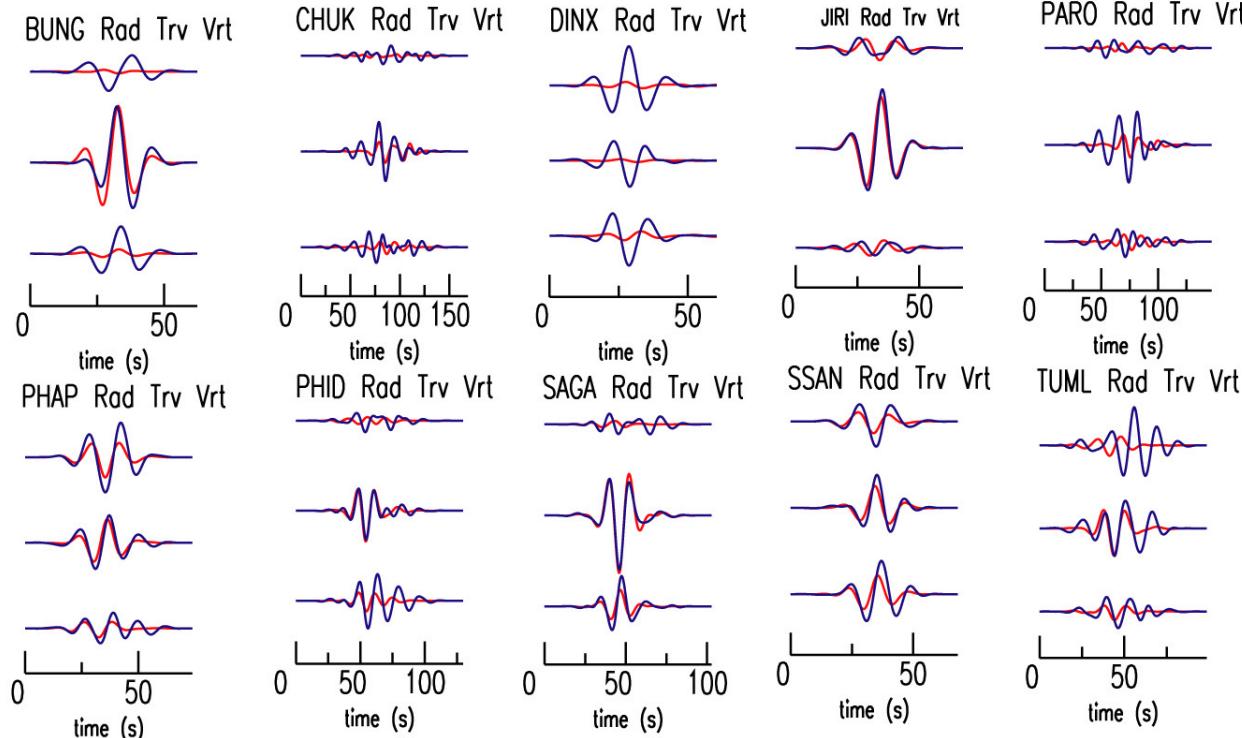
Find depth that minimizes misfit in moment tensor inversion

a) Event No. 32 5/2/02

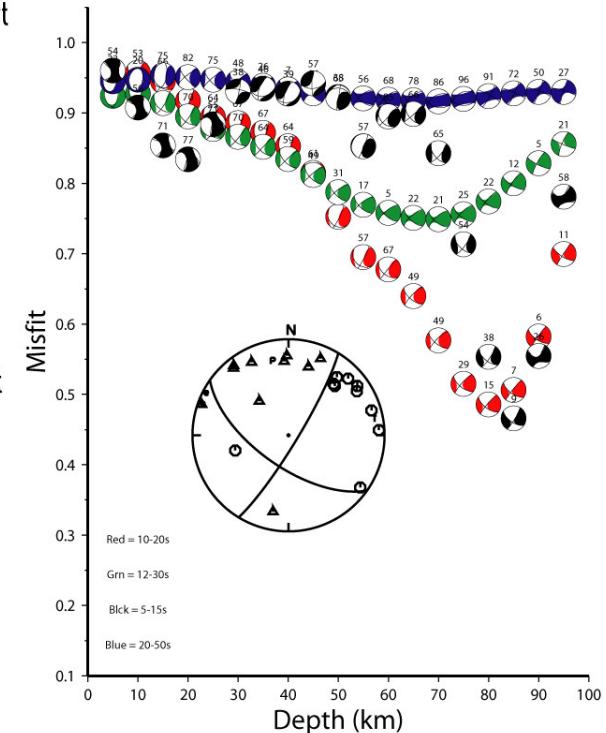


# Full waveform earthquake moment tensor inversion

No. 14



Blue waveforms = Observed data  
Red waveforms = synthetics



Moment Tensor Inversion with grid search over depth and bandpass  
Red = 10-20 sec Green = 12-30 sec  
Black = 5-15 sec Blue = 20-50 sec

# USGS moment tensors (focal mechanisms) (an example of inversion)

## Recent earthquakes – Haiti, Alaska

### M 7.2 – Nippes, Haiti

2021-08-14 12:29:08 (UTC) | 18.408°N 73.475°W | 10.0 km depth

#### Moment Tensor

[View all moment-tensor products \(1 total\)](#)

Contributed by US<sup>4</sup> last updated 2021-08-14 16:01:57 (UTC)

- ✓ The data below are the most preferred data available
- ✓ The data below have been reviewed by a scientist

#### W-phase Moment Tensor (Mww)

Moment 7.598e+19 N·m

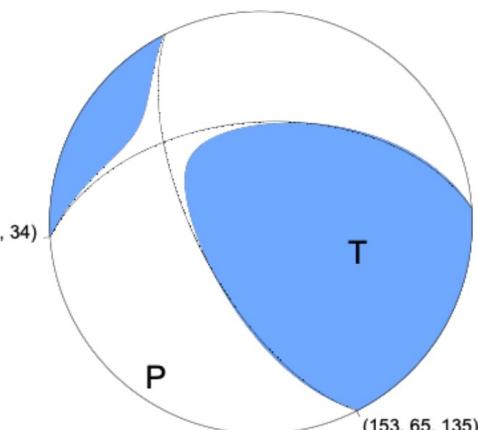
Magnitude 7.19 Mww

Depth 15.5 km

Percent DC 90%

Half Duration 16.00 s

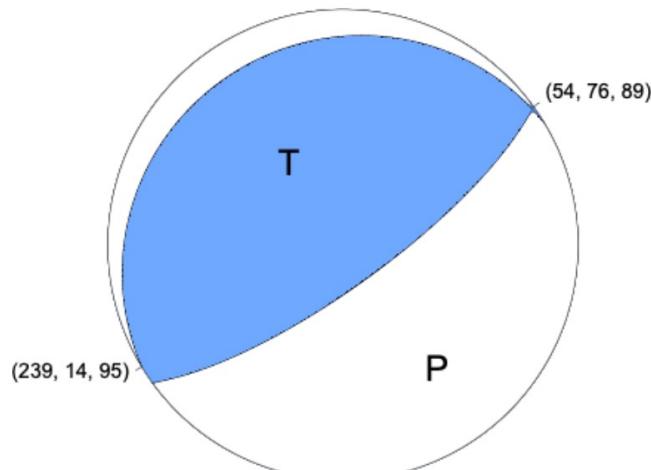
Catalog US



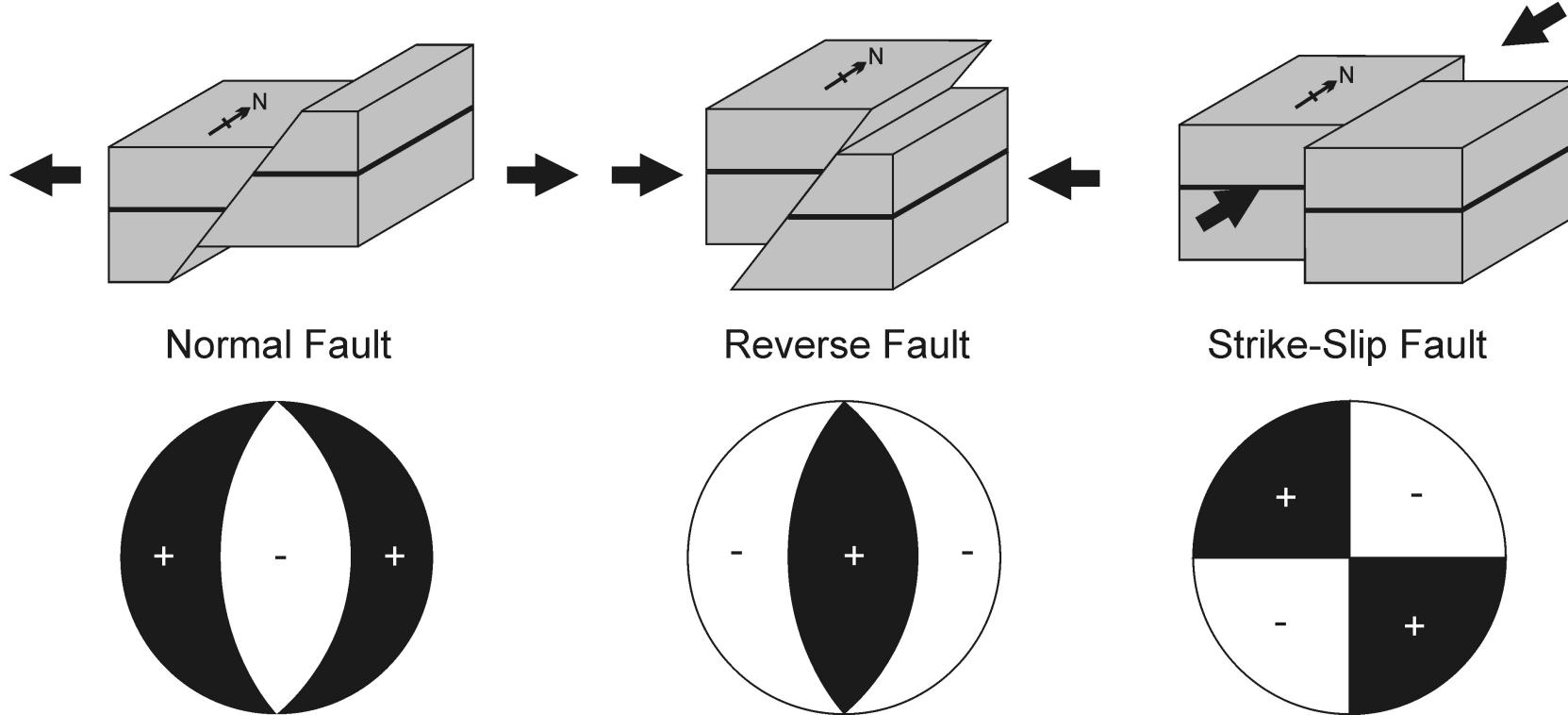
### M 8.2 – 99 km SE of Perryville, Alaska

2021-07-29 06:15:49 (UTC) | 55.364°N 157.888°W | 35.0 km depth

#### Moment Tensor

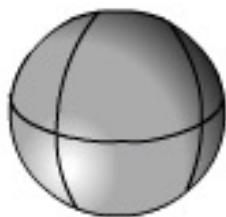
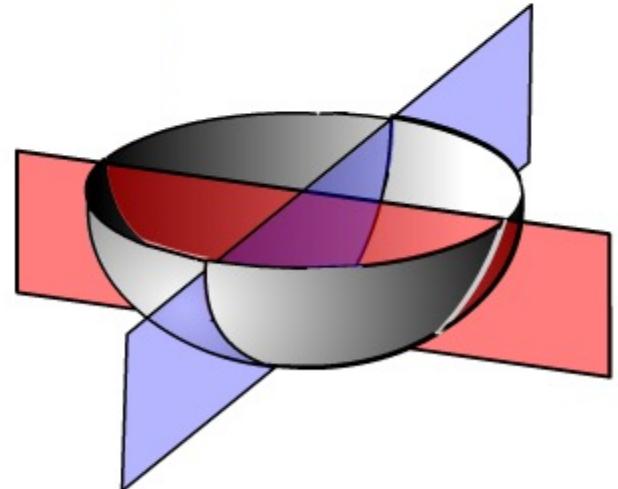


# Fault types and “Beach Ball” plots

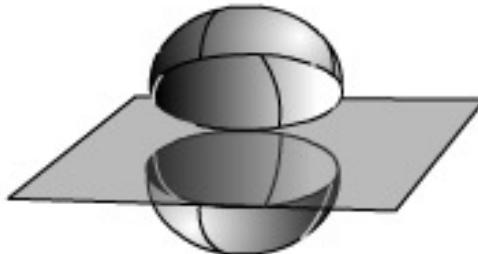


# Stereographic projection

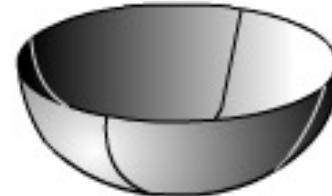
- A method of projecting half a sphere onto a circle.
- e.g. planes cutting vertically through the sphere plot as straight lines



Sphere



Sphere cut by horizontal plane



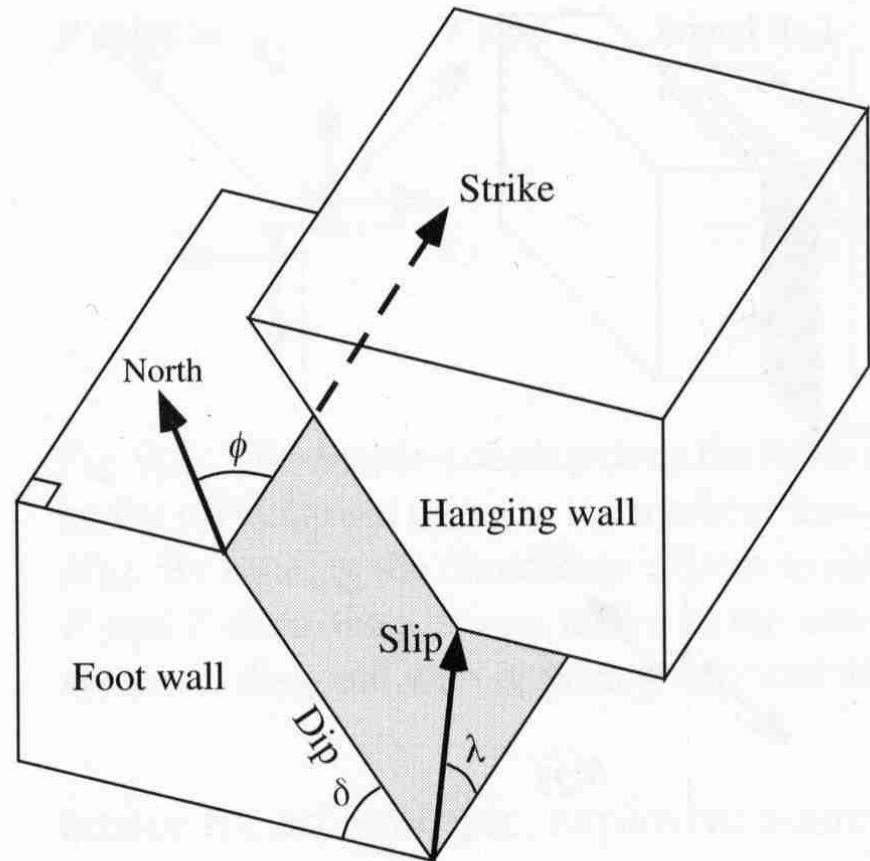
Projection of one half of the sphere



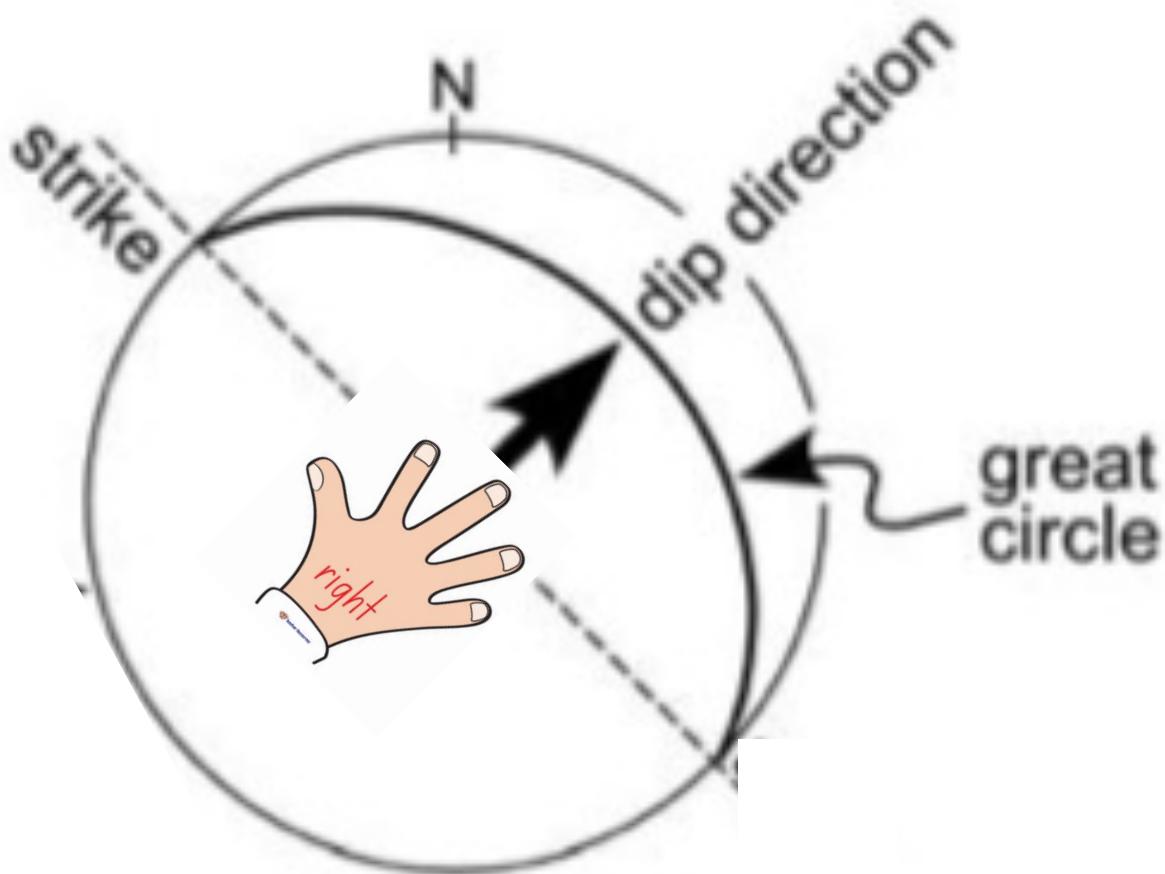
Circle

# Strike, Dip, and Rake

- Strike, the azimuth of fault plane (usually given relative to N)
- Dip, angle with the horizontal
- Rake, angle between slip vector and strike



(Shearer, 1999)



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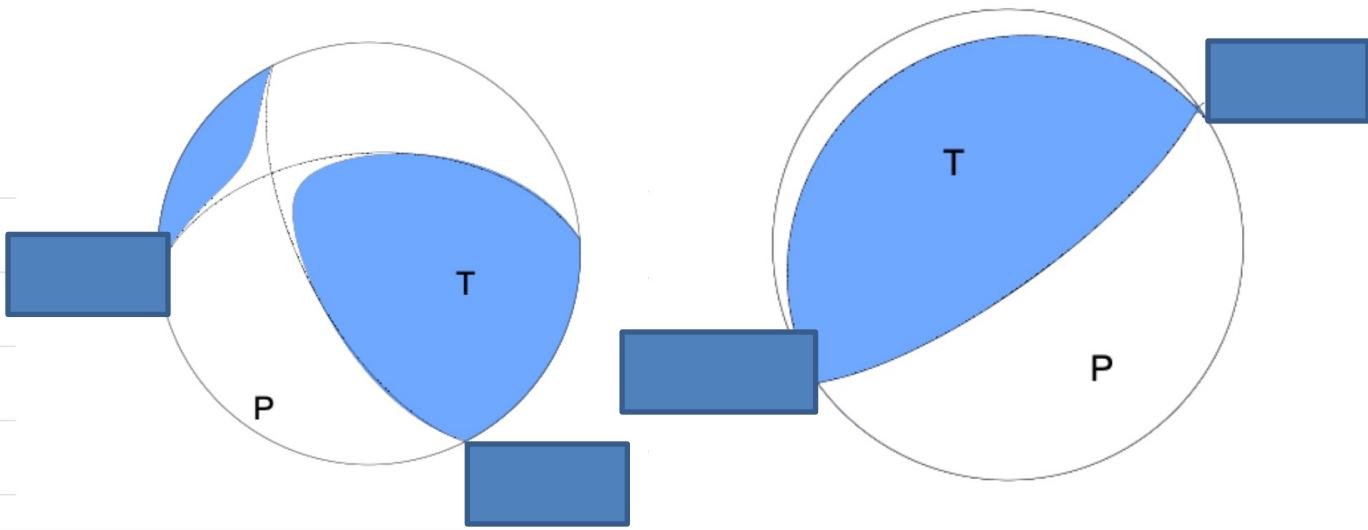
Half Duration 16.00 s

Catalog US

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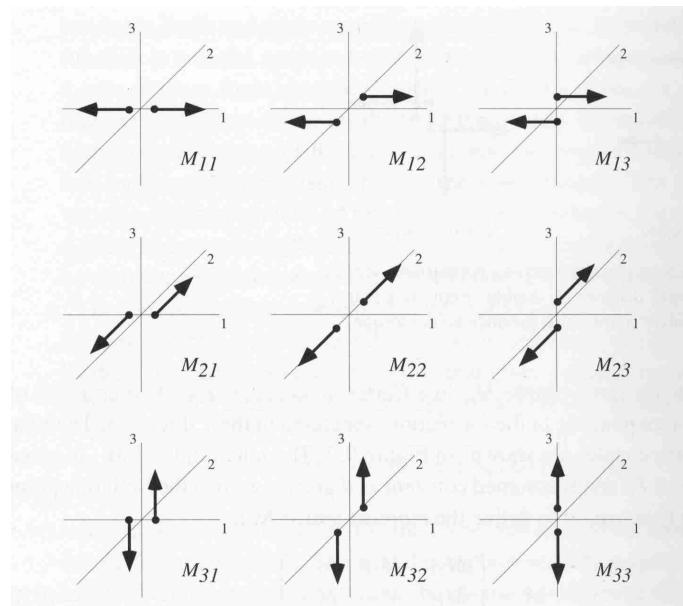
#### Moment Tensor



# Moment Tensor Basics

- A moment tensor is a complete description of equivalent forces of a general seismic point source (Jost and Herrmann, 1989) in an elastic medium(Shearer 1999).

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} M_{11} & M_{12} & M_{13} \\ M_{21} & M_{22} & M_{23} \\ M_{31} & M_{32} & M_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$



(Shearer, 1999)

# Moment Tensor Types

- Isotropic (Explosion)
- Double Couple (Shear dislocation)
- Compensated Linear Vector Dipole

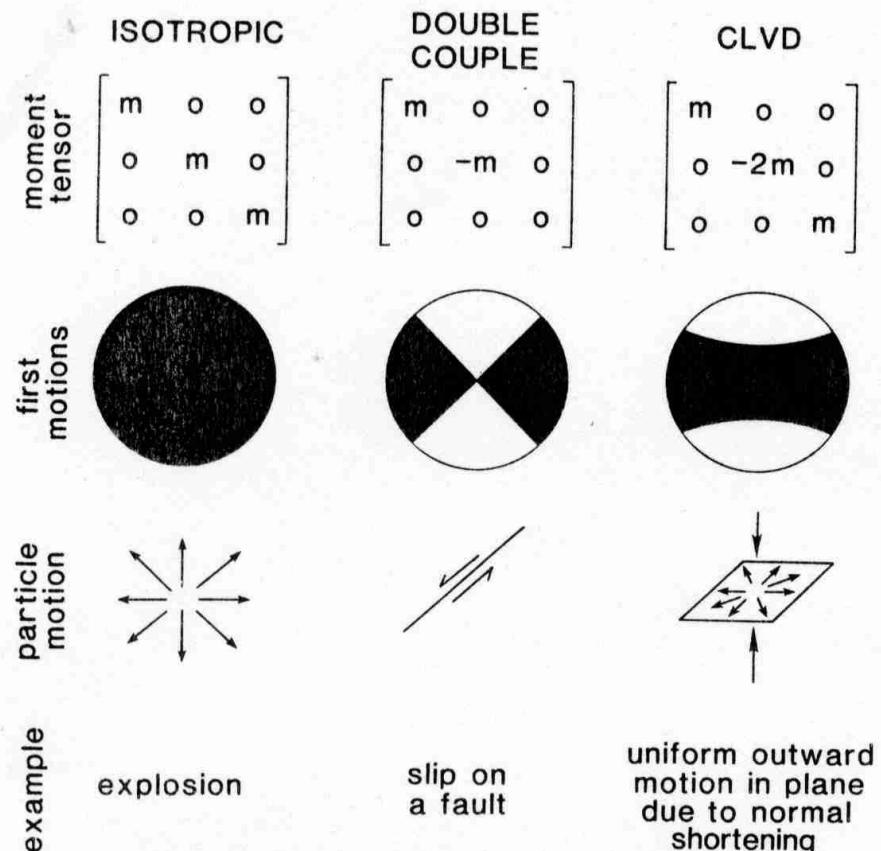


Fig. 2. Depiction of “pure” earthquake source models. The figure shows isotropic, double couple, and compensated linear vector dipole (CLVD) source models as moment tensors, equal-area projections of P wave first motions, and near-source particle motions. (From Apperson [1991].)

(Frohlich and Apperson, 1992)

# Basic Equation for Moment Tensor Inversion

$$\mathbf{d} = \mathbf{G} \mathbf{M}$$

- $\mathbf{d}$  = vector containing  $n$  sampled values of observed ground displacement at various times and stations, the DATA
- $\mathbf{G}$  =  $6 \times n$  matrix of the synthetic Green's function
- $\mathbf{M}$  = contains the six independent moment tensor elements to be determined in the inversion

# Moment tensor inversion

(Eqn 4.3.15). Here, we define  $G_{ij}(t)$  as the seismogram at the  $i^{\text{th}}$  seismometer due to the moment tensor component  $m_j$ .  $G_{ij}(t)$  includes the effects of the seismometer and earth structure along the path from the source to this seismometer, so the  $i^{\text{th}}$  seismogram is the sum of the Green's functions weighted by the moment tensor components,

$$u_i(t) = \sum_{j=1}^6 G_{ij}(t)m_j. \quad (22)$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} G_{11} & G_{12} & G_{13} & G_{14} & G_{15} & G_{16} \\ G_{21} & G_{22} & G_{23} & G_{24} & G_{25} & G_{26} \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ G_{n1} & G_{n2} & G_{n3} & G_{n4} & G_{n5} & G_{n6} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} m_1 \\ m_2 \\ m_3 \\ m_4 \\ m_5 \\ m_6 \end{pmatrix}.$$

# Setting up inverse problems

1. Find the equations that relate your data to a model
2. Be able to do the forward problem
3. **Check whether your system of equations is linear or not**
4. Decide how to solve
  - ie damping, weighting, parameterization of model,  
linearize, grid search, etc. (regularization)
5. Evaluate solution(s)
  - Does the solution make sense? What does the data suggest?
  - Uniqueness - there is usually not a single model that is the only possibility

# Linear or nonlinear?

Function  $f(x)$  is linear if

$$f(ax) = af(x)$$

Example

$$f(x) = mx \quad \text{linear}$$

$$f(x) = mx^2 \quad \text{nonlinear}$$

test it

$$f(ax) = m(ax)^2 = ma^2x^2 = a^2(mx^2) \neq a(mx^2)$$

# Linear or nonlinear?

$$d_1 = 2m_1 + 4m_2$$

$$d_1 = 2m_1 + 4m_1^2m_2$$

# Linear or nonlinear?

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Recall, function  $f(x)$  is linear if

$$f(ax) = af(x)$$

$$f(m_1, m_2) = 2m_1 + 4m_2$$

$$f(am_1, am_2) = ?$$

$$f(m_1, m_2) = 2m_1 + 4m_1^2m_2$$

$$f(am_1, am_2) = ?$$

# Ways to linearize

## 1. Reparameterize

Example 1: solve for slowness instead of velocity  
time = distance / velocity = distance x slowness

Example 2: natural log parameterization

$$d = m_1 e^{m_2 z^2}$$

take natural log of each side

$$\ln d = \ln m_1 + m_2 z^2$$

and use  $\ln d$  instead of  $d$ , and solve for  $\ln m_1$  instead of  $m_1$

# Ways to linearize

1. Reparameterize
2. Taylor series expansion about an initial guess

# Ways to linearize

1. Reparameterize
2. Taylor series expansion about an initial guess  
(we will come back to this later in the term)
3. Keep it nonlinear and forward model (can use many grid search type methods)

## Setting up inverse problems

Homework 2 – due next Tuesday

- 
1. Find the equations that relate your data to a model
  2. Be able to do the forward problem
  3. Check whether your system of equations is linear or not
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ie damping, weighting, parameterization of model,  
linearize, grid search, etc.
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Does the solution make sense? What does the data suggest?  
Uniqueness - there is usually not a single model that is the only possibility

# Setting up inverse problems

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3. Check whether your system of equations is linear or not
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  - ie damping, weighting, parameterization of model, linearize, grid search, etc.
5. **Evaluate solution(s)**

Does the solution make sense? What does the data suggest?  
Uniqueness - there is usually not a single model that is the only possibility

With inverse problems, what kind  
of solution are we looking for ?

# A: Estimate of model parameters

numerical values

$$m_1 = 10.5$$

$$m_2 = 7.2$$

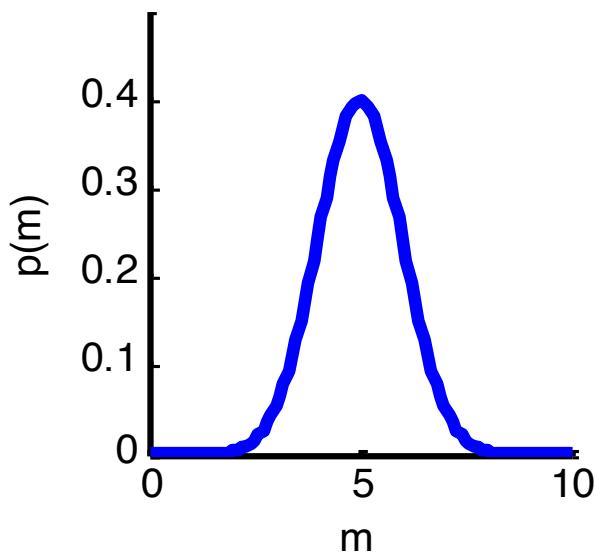
But we need confidence limits, too

$$\begin{aligned} m_1 &= 10.5 \pm 0.2 \\ m_2 &= 7.2 \pm 0.1 \end{aligned} \qquad \text{or}$$

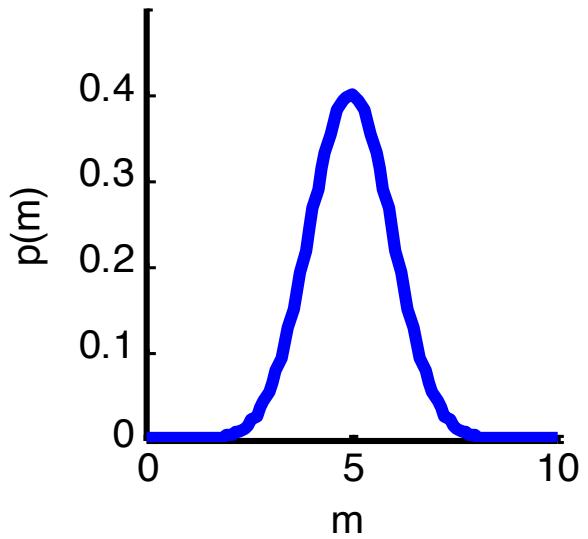
$$\begin{aligned} m_1 &= 10.5 \pm 22.3 \\ m_2 &= 7.2 \pm 9.1 \end{aligned}$$

completely different implications!

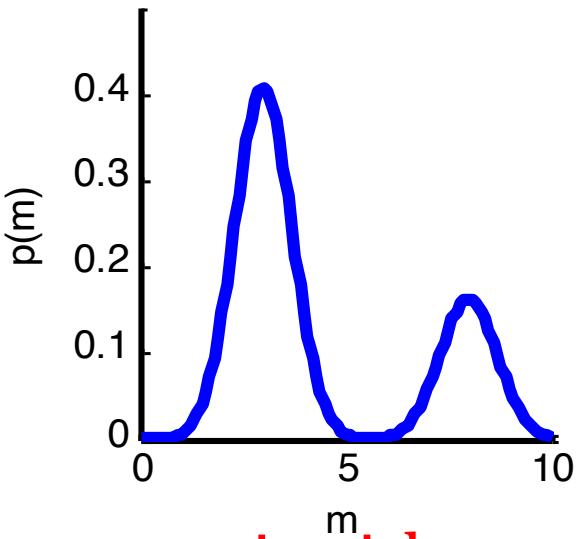
# B: probability density functions



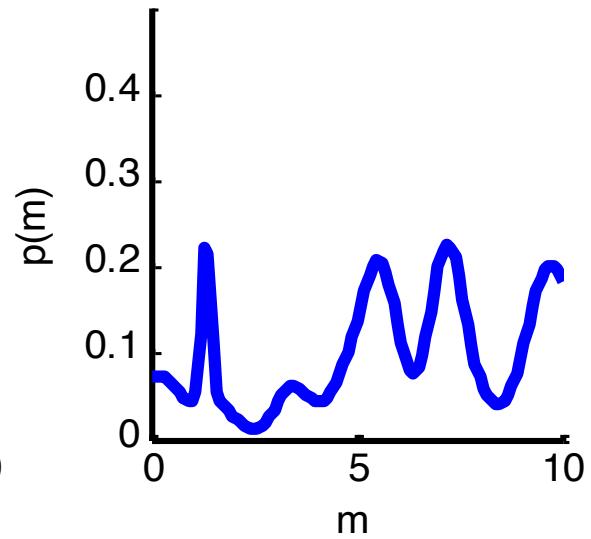
if  $p(m_1)$  simple  
not so different than confidence intervals



m is about  
5  
plus or  
minus 1.5



m is either  
about 3  
plus or minus 1  
or about 8  
plus or minus 1  
but that's less  
likely



we don't really  
know anything  
useful about  $m$

Fig 1.9

## C: localized averages

$$A = 0.2m_9 + 0.6m_{10} + 0.2m_{11}$$

might be better determined than either  
 $m_9$  or  $m_{10}$  or  $m_{11}$  individually

Is this useful?

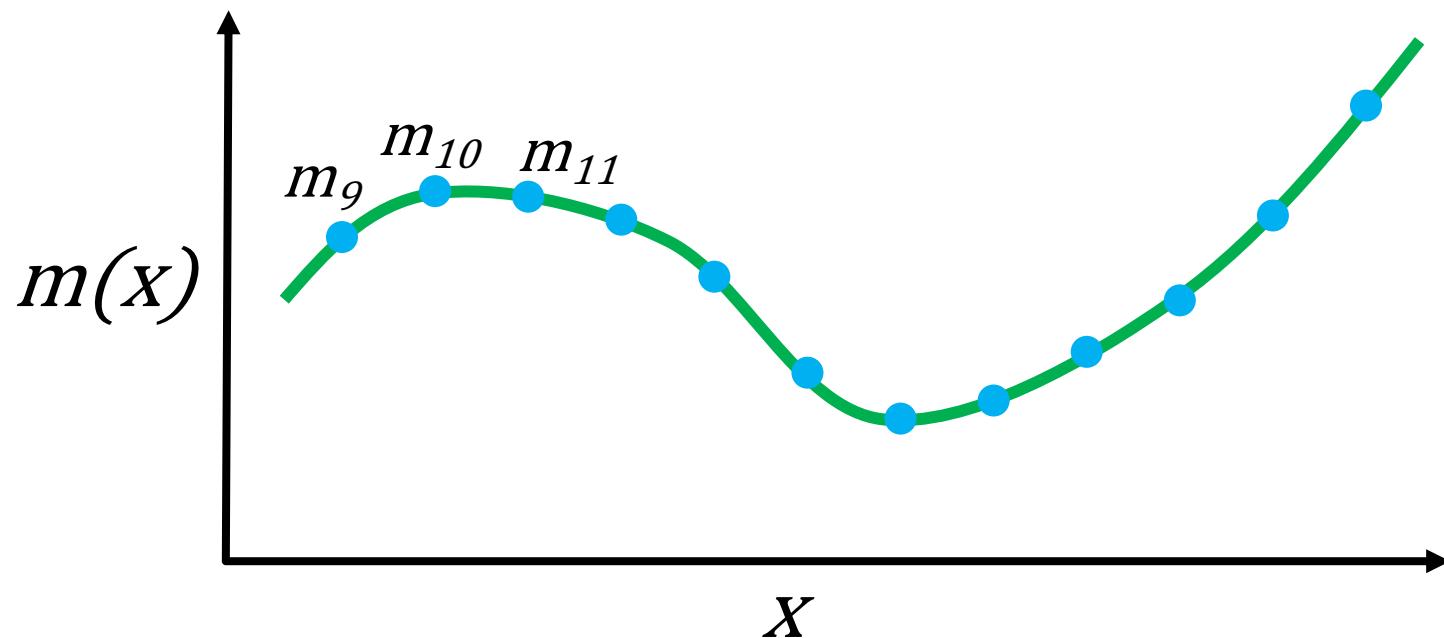
Do we care about

$$A = 0.2m_9 + 0.6m_{10} + 0.2m_{11}$$

?

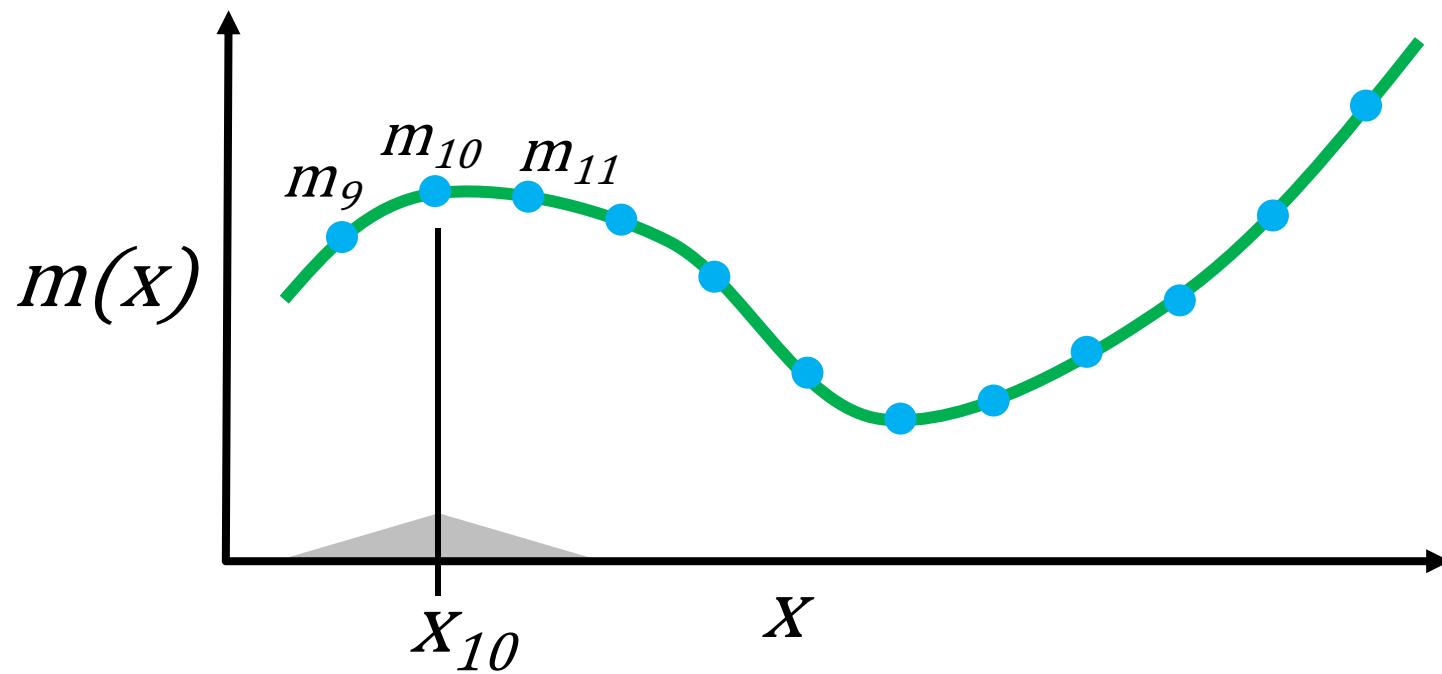
Maybe ...

Suppose  
if  $\mathbf{m}$  is a discrete approximation of  $m(x)$

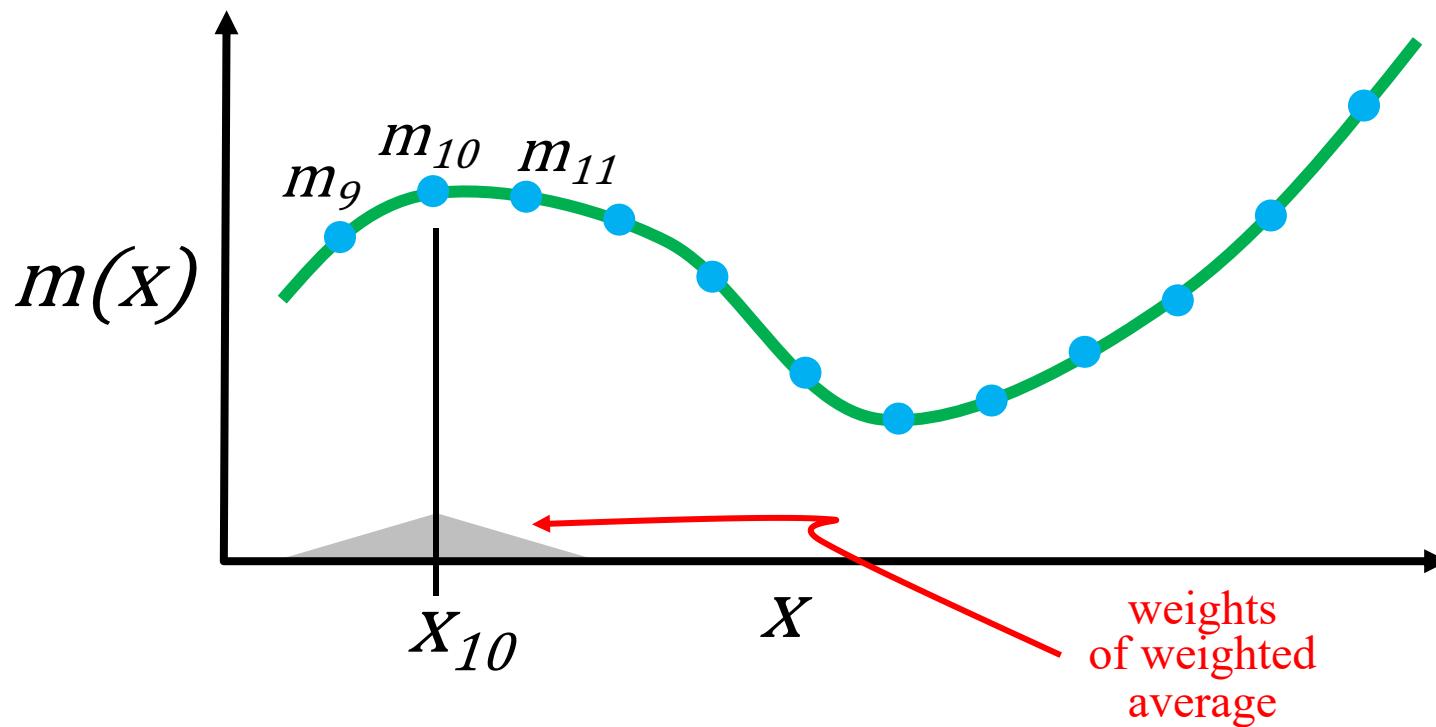


$$A = 0.2m_9 + 0.6m_{10} + 0.2m_{11}$$

weighted average of  $m(x)$   
in the vicinity of  $x_{10}$



average “localized”  
in the vicinity of  $x_{10}$



Localized average mean  
can't determine  $m(x)$  at  $x=10$   
but can determine  
average value of  $m(x)$  near  $x=10$

Such a localized average might very  
well be useful

C H A P T E R

2

# Some Comments on Probability Theory

O U T L I N E

2.1 Noise and Random Variables	17	2.6 Conditional Probability Density Functions	32
2.2 Correlated Data	21	2.7 Confidence Intervals	34
2.3 Functions of Random Variables	23	2.8 Computing Realizations of Random Variables	35
2.4 Gaussian Probability Density Functions	27	2.9 Problems	37
2.5 Testing the Assumption of Gaussian Statistics	30	Reference	37

# Chapter 2 learning goals

Review random variables and their probability density functions

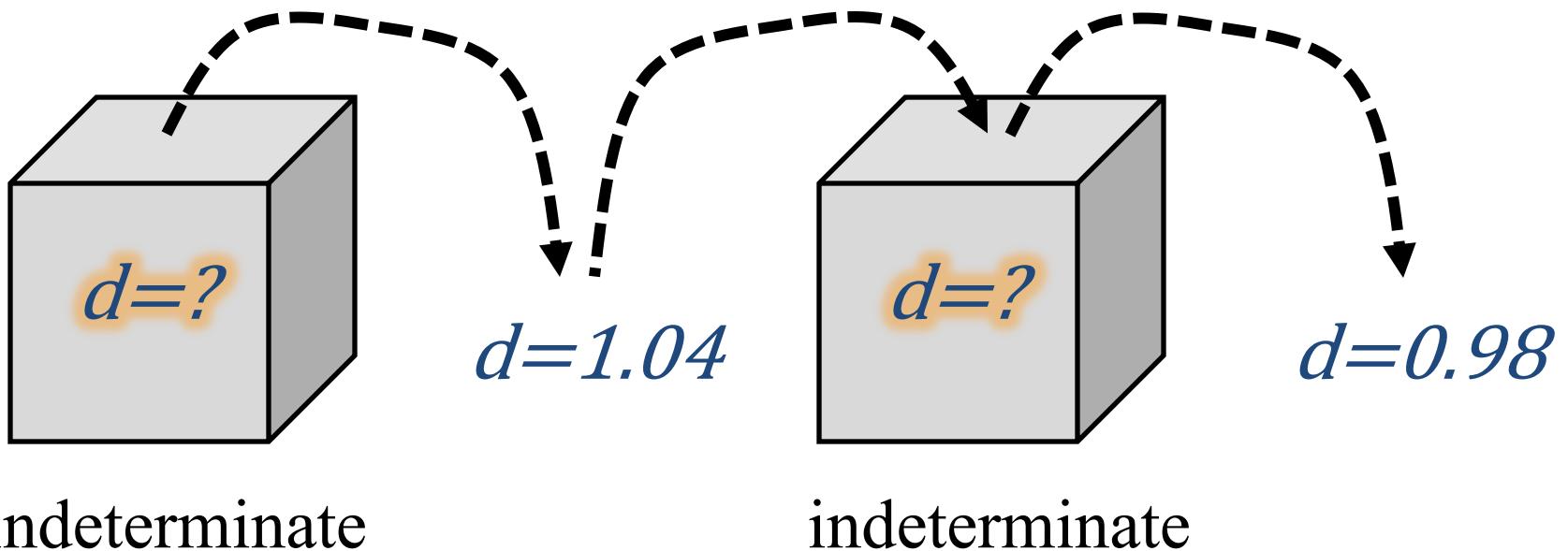
Introduce correlation and the multivariate Gaussian distribution

Relate error propagation to functions of random variables

random variables and their  
probability density functions

# random variable, $d$

no fixed value until it is *realized*



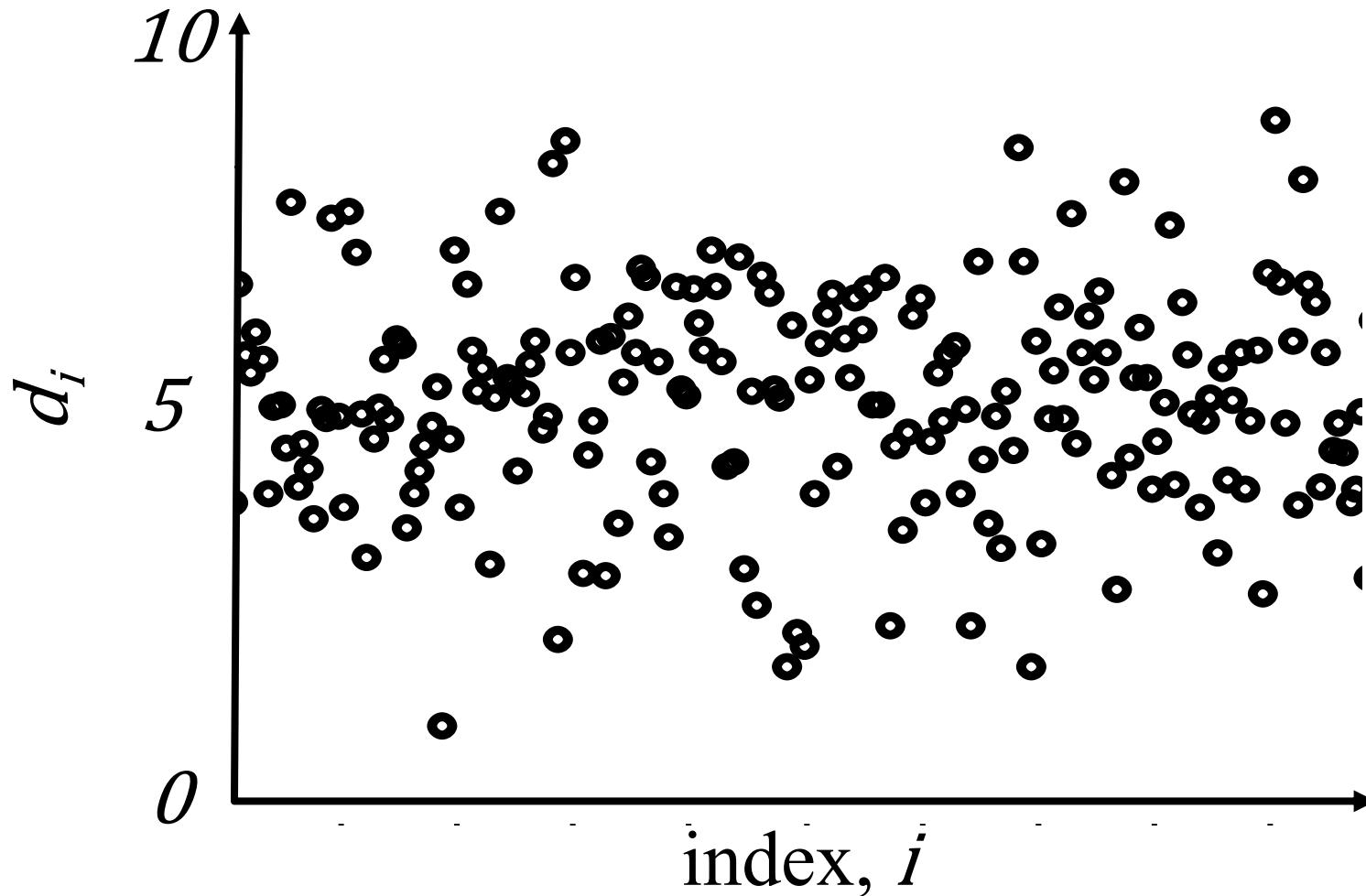
in this analogy, the random variable,  $d$ , has indeterminate value when it is in the box.  
Every time it is taken out of the box, it takes on a new value

random variables have systematics

tendency to take on some values more often than  
others

*Even though realizations of a random variable are all different,  
the underlying variable has well-defined properties.*

# 200 realizations of a random variable, d



probability density function (p.d.f.) describes the behavior of the random variable. It is the idealization of a histogram of the realizations, in the limit of an indefinitely large number of realizations.

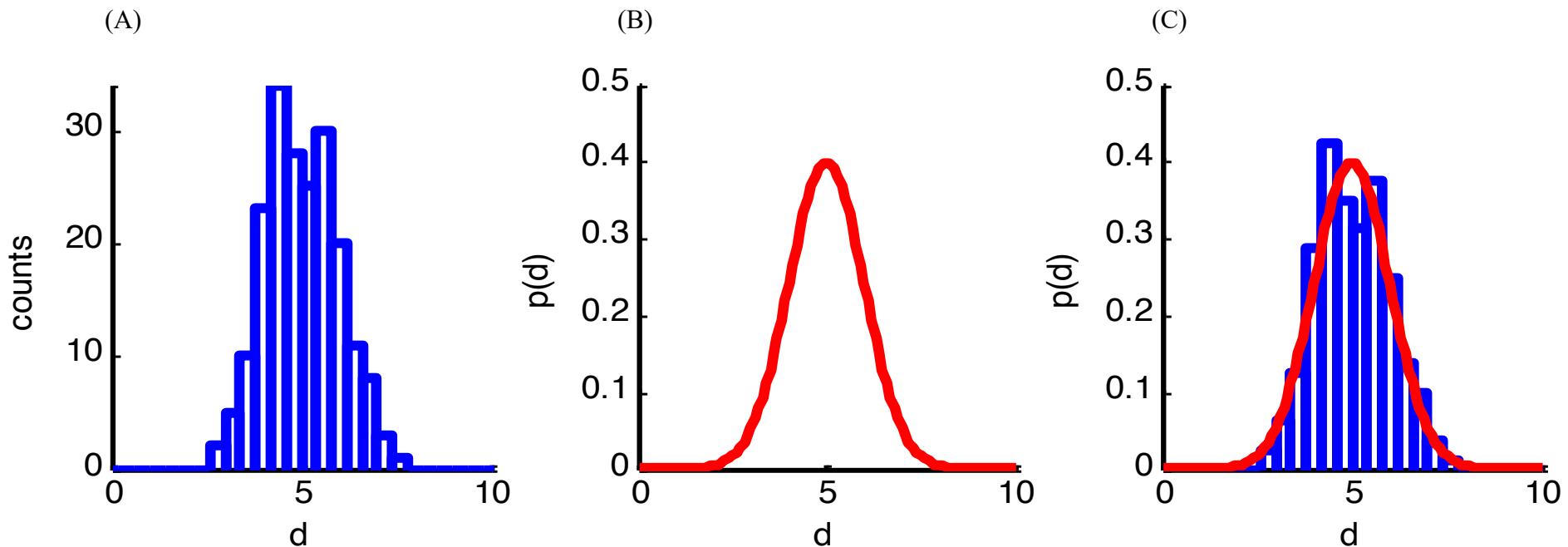
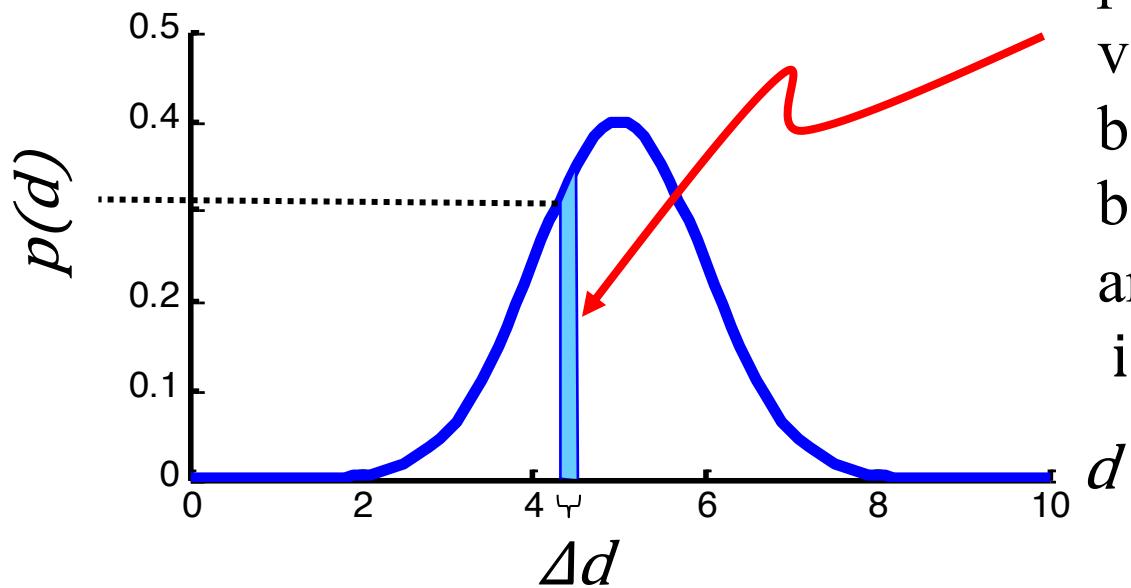


Fig 2.1. (A) Histogram showing data from 200 repetitions of an experiment in which datum,  $d$ , is measured. Noise causes observations to scatter about their mean value,  $\langle d \rangle = 5$ . (B) Probability density function (p.d.f.),  $p(d)$ , of the data. (C) Histogram (blue) and p.d.f. (red) superimposed. Note that the histogram has a shape similar to the p.d.f.. *MatLab* script `gda02_01`.



probability of  
variable  
being  
between  $d$   
and  $d+\Delta d$   
is  $p(d)\Delta d$

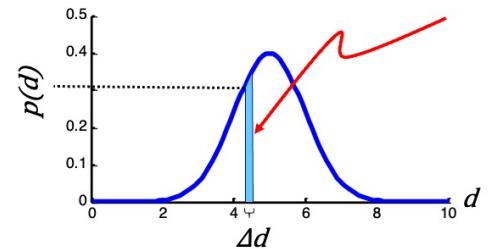
FIG. 2.2 The shaded area  $p(d)\Delta d$  of the probability density function  $p(d)$  gives the probability,  $P$ , that the observation will fall between  $d$  and  $d+\Delta d$ . MatLab script `gda02_02`.

in general  
probability is the integral

$$P(d_1, d_2) = \int_{d_1}^{d_2} p(d) \, dd$$



probability that  $d$  is between  
 $d_1$  and  $d_2$



The probability  $P$  is a number between 0 and 1 (0% and 100%).

The probability that the random variable will take on a value between  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  is given by the integral.

the probability that  $d$  has some value is  
100% or unity

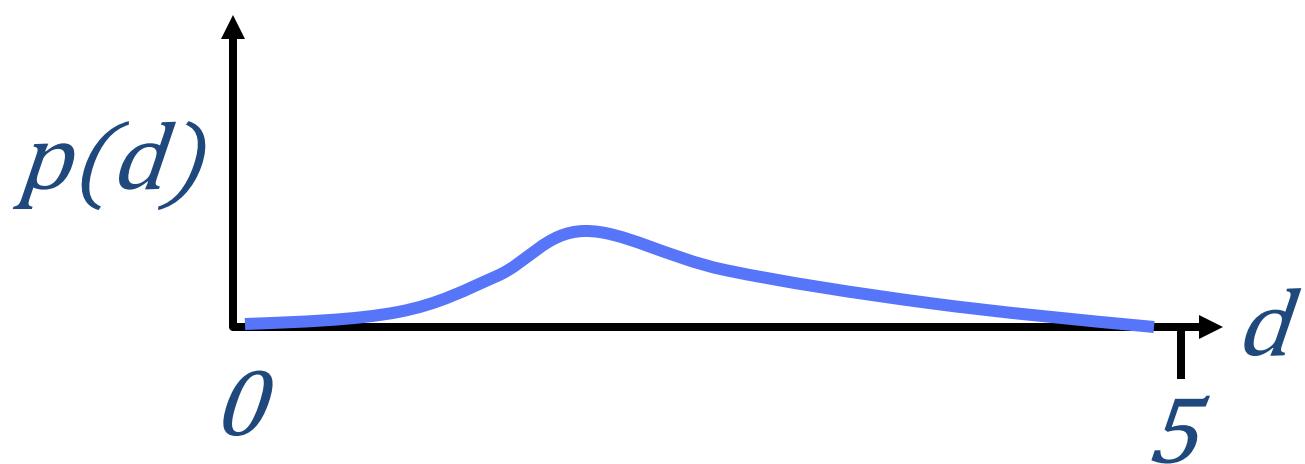
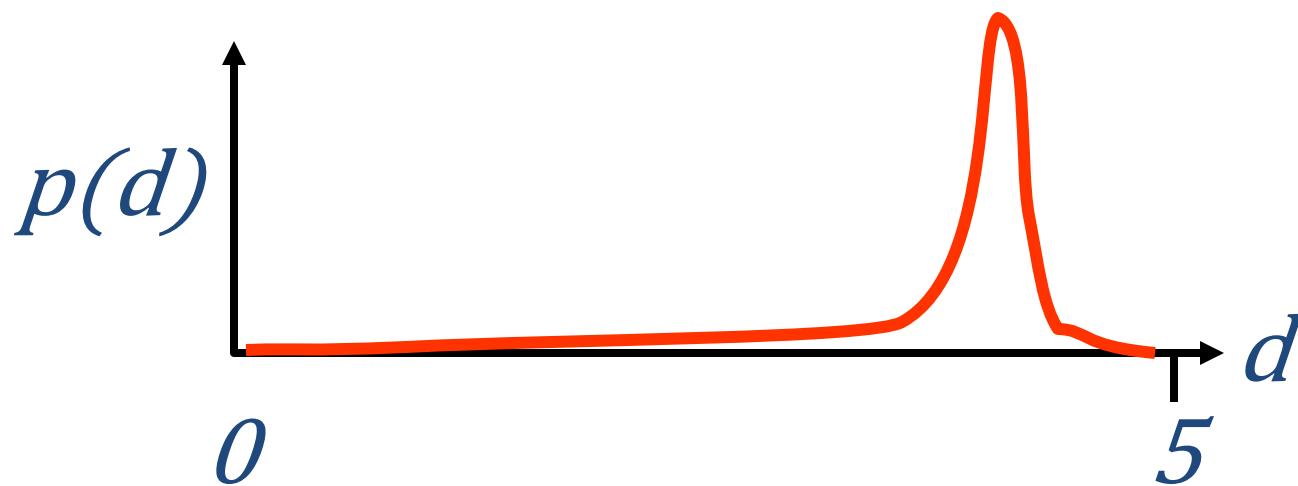
$$P(d_{min}, d_{max}) = \int_{d_{min}}^{d_{max}} p(d) \, dd = 1$$

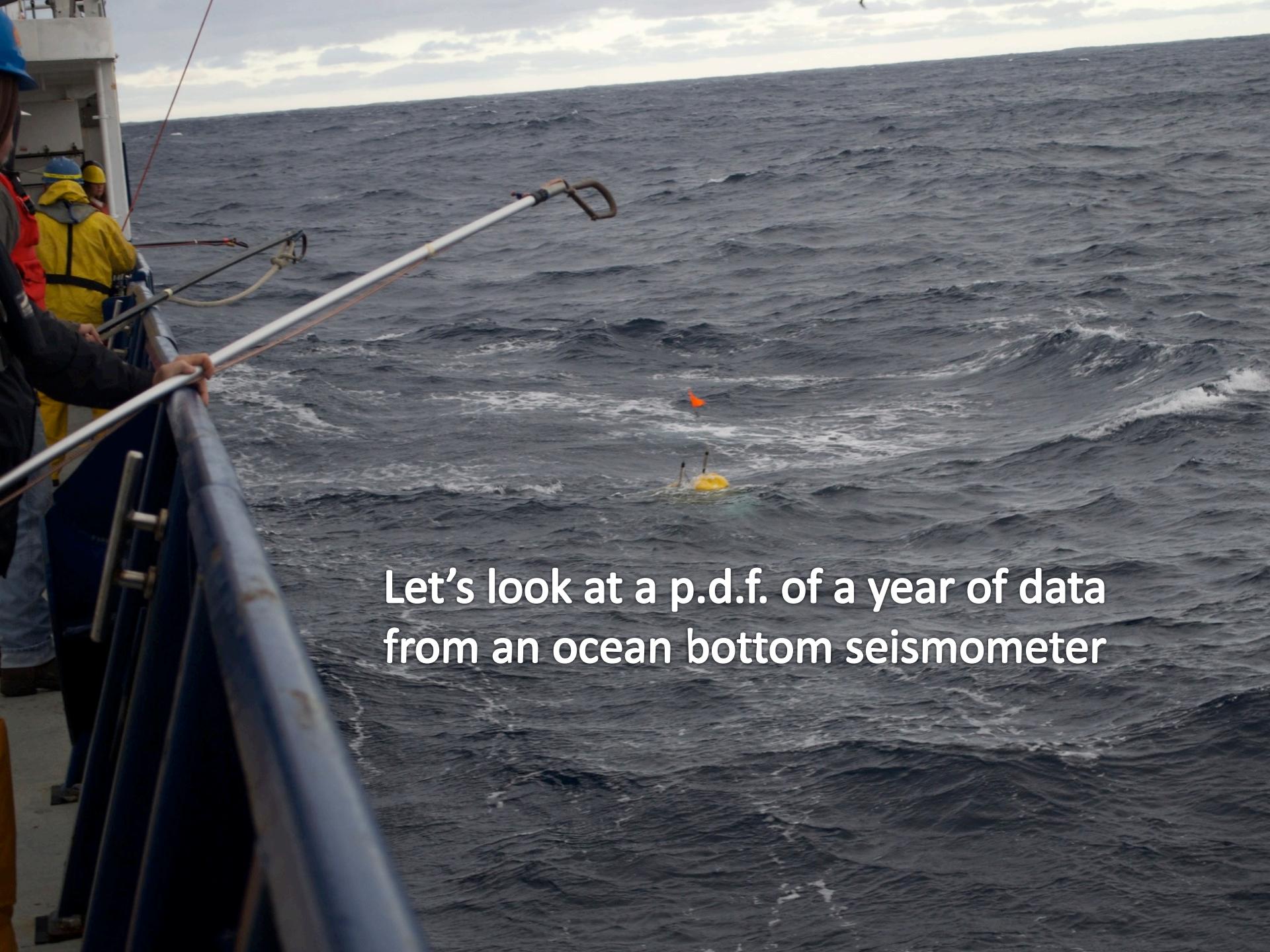


probability that  $d$  is between  
its minimum and maximum  
bounds,  $d_{min}$  and  $d_{max}$

*The random variable must take on some value, so the probability that it falls somewhere between its minimum and maximum bounds is unity (100%).*

How do these two p.d.f.'s differ?

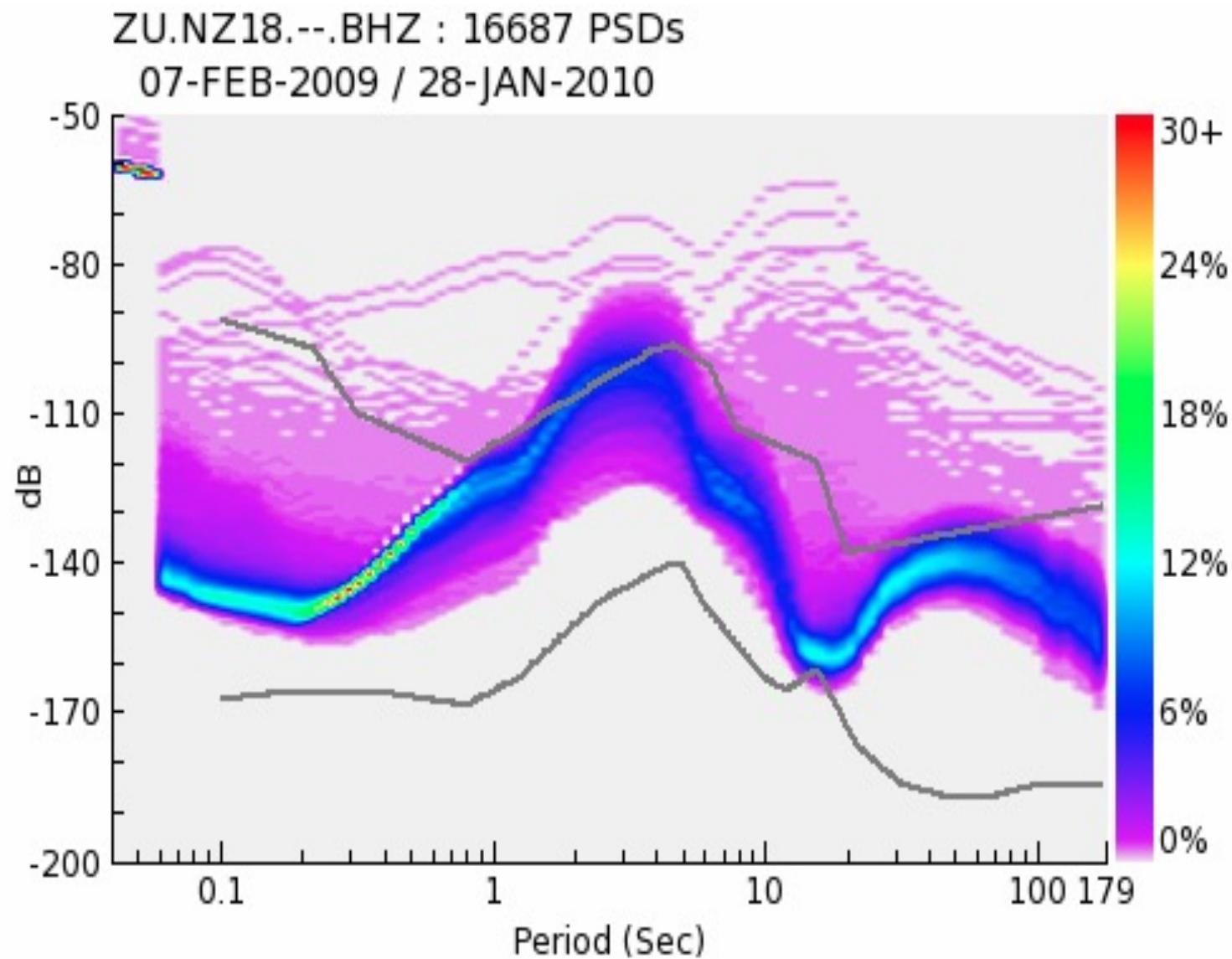




Let's look at a p.d.f. of a year of data  
from an ocean bottom seismometer

# p.d.f. of a year of data at an ocean bottom seismometer

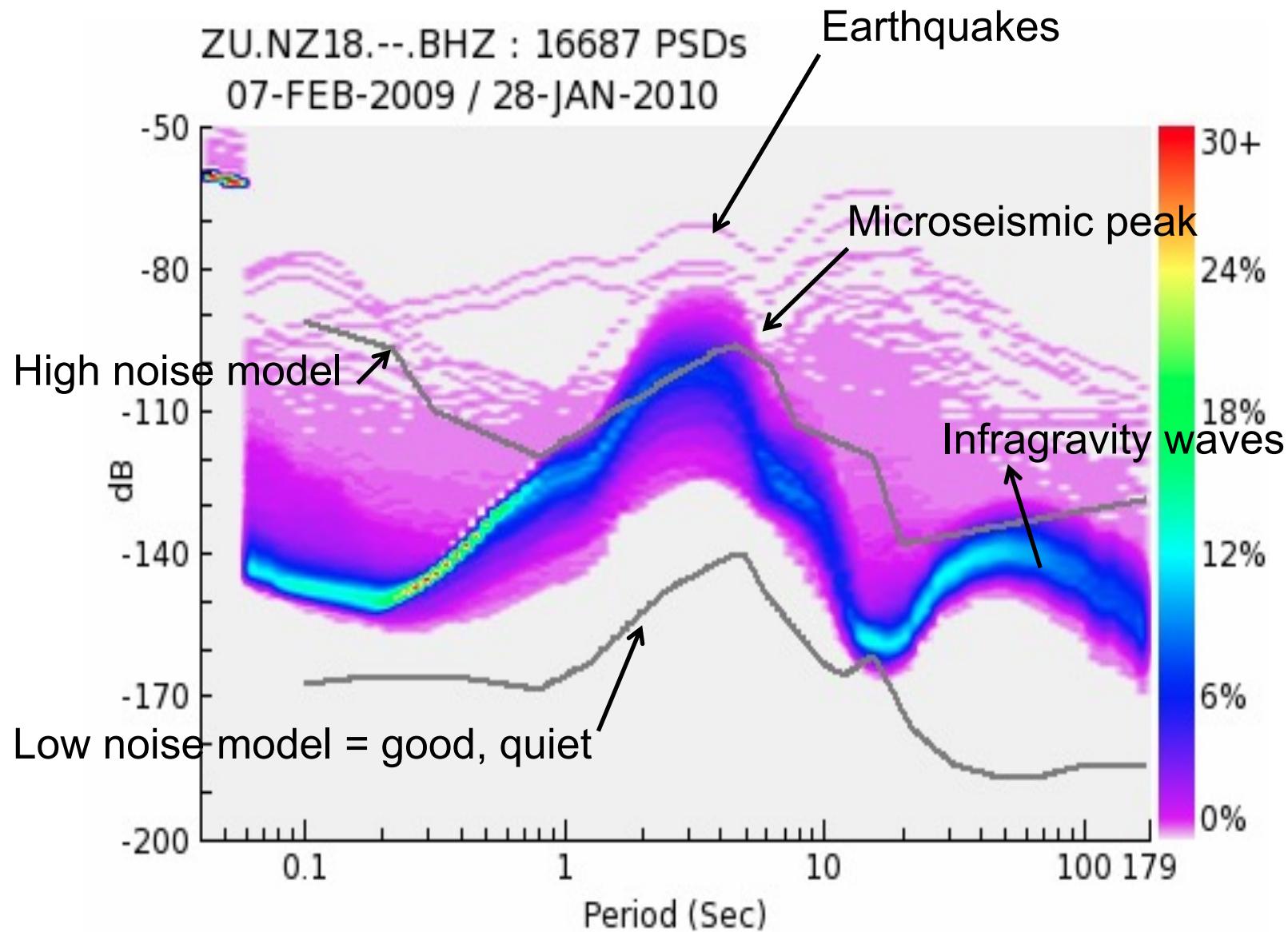
- Power spectra determined for one-hour segments of the entire year of data
- Probability density function used to display the thousands of spectra
- Blues and greens represent frequent values, light purple represents less frequent values



# Background noise spectra

Power spectral density PSD

Probability density function PDF



# Summarizing a probability density function

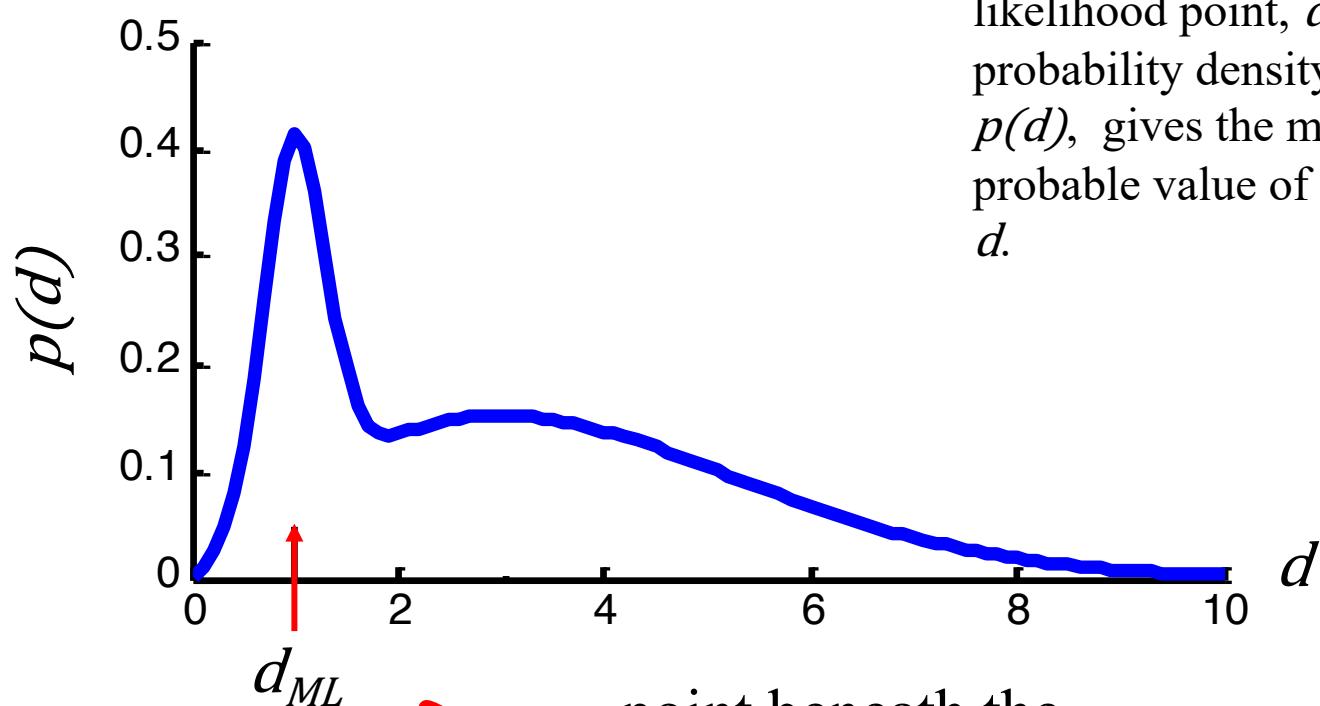
typical value

“center of the p.d.f.”

amount of scatter around the typical value

“width of the p.d.f.”

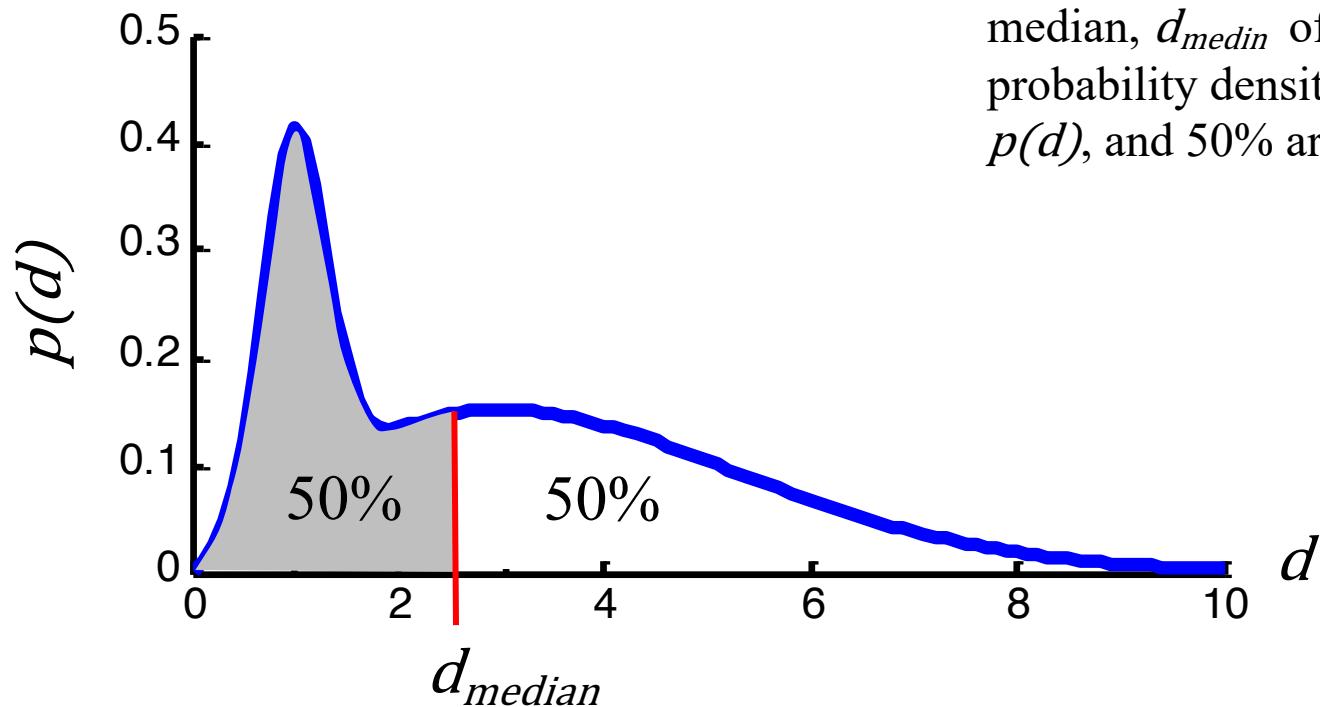
# Several possibilities for a typical value



point beneath the  
peak or “maximum  
likelihood point” or  
“mode”

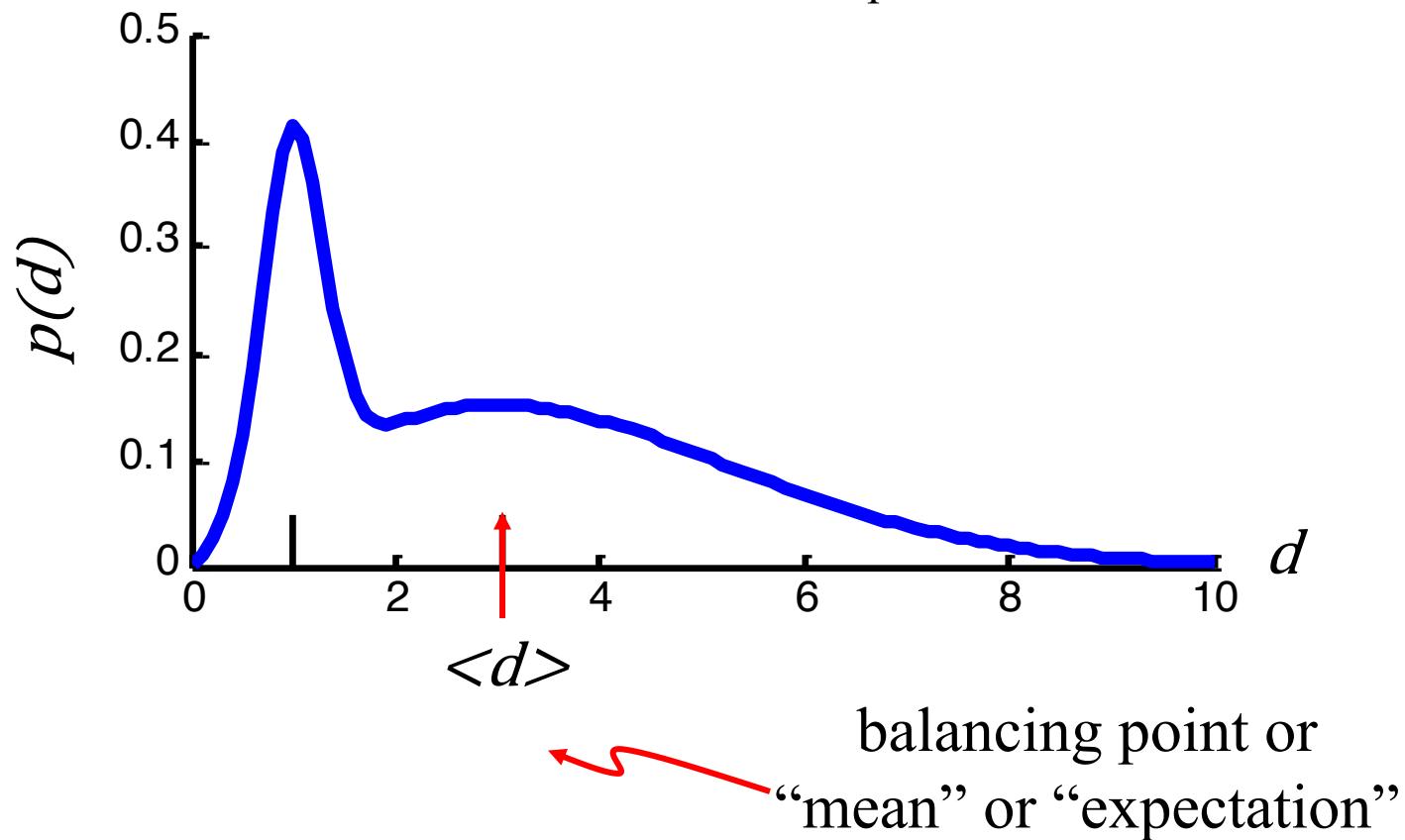
Fig. 2.3. The maximum likelihood point,  $d_{ML}$ , of the probability density function,  $p(d)$ , gives the most probable value of the datum,  $d$ .

Fig. 2.3. Fifty percent of realization are less than the median,  $d_{median}$  of the probability density function,  $p(d)$ , and 50% are greater.



point dividing area  
in half or “median”

Fig. 2.3. The mean or “expected” datum,  $\langle d \rangle$ , is at the “balancing point” of the distribution.



Mode, median, and mean can all be different

$$d_{ML} \neq d_{median} \neq \langle d \rangle$$

(for a symmetrical distribution, such as a Gaussian, the mean, median, and maximum likelihood values are all equal)

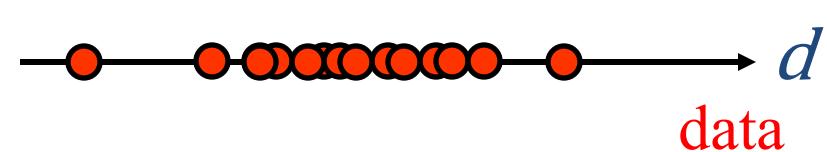
formula for  
“mean” or “expected value”

$$\langle d \rangle = \int_{d_{min}}^{d_{max}} d p(d) dd$$

To derive the integral formula for the mean:

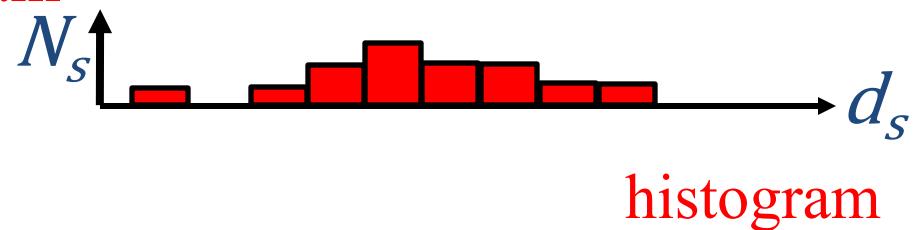
step 1: usual formula for mean

$$\langle d \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^N d_i$$



step 2: replace data with its histogram

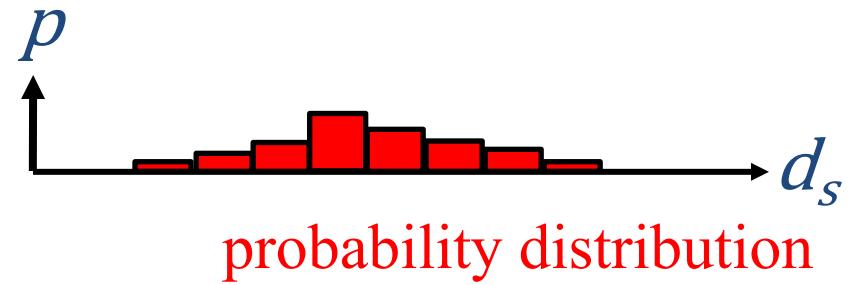
$$\langle d \rangle \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{s=0}^M d^{(s)} N_s$$



step 3: replace histogram with probability distribution.

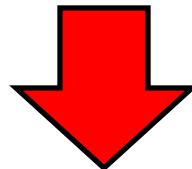
$$\langle d \rangle \approx \sum_{s=0}^M d^{(s)} \frac{N_s}{N}$$

$$\approx \sum_{s=0}^M d^{(s)} P(d_s)$$



If the data are continuous, use formula containing an integral:

$$\langle d \rangle \approx \sum_{s=0}^M d^{(s)} P(d_s)$$



$$\langle d \rangle = \int_{d_{min}}^{d_{max}} d p(d) dd$$

$$\langle d \rangle = \int_{d_{min}}^{d_{max}} d p(d) dd$$

Example:

$$f(x) = (5/4)(1-x^4) \quad \text{for } x \text{ from 0 to 1}$$

$$f(x)=0 \quad \text{all other } x$$

Find expected (mean) value of x

$$\langle d \rangle = \int_{d_{min}}^{d_{max}} d p(d) dd$$

Example:

$$f(x) = (5/4)(1-x^4) \quad \text{for } x \text{ from 0 to 1}$$

$$f(x)=0 \quad \text{all other } x$$

Expected (mean) value of x found such that

$$E(x) = \int_0^1 x f(x) dx$$

$$E(x) = \int_0^1 x (5/4)(1 - x^4) dx$$

$$\langle d \rangle = \int_{d_{min}}^{d_{max}} d p(d) dd$$

Example:

$$f(x) = (5/4)(1-x^4) \quad \text{for } x \text{ from 0 to 1}$$

$$f(x)=0 \quad \text{all other } x$$

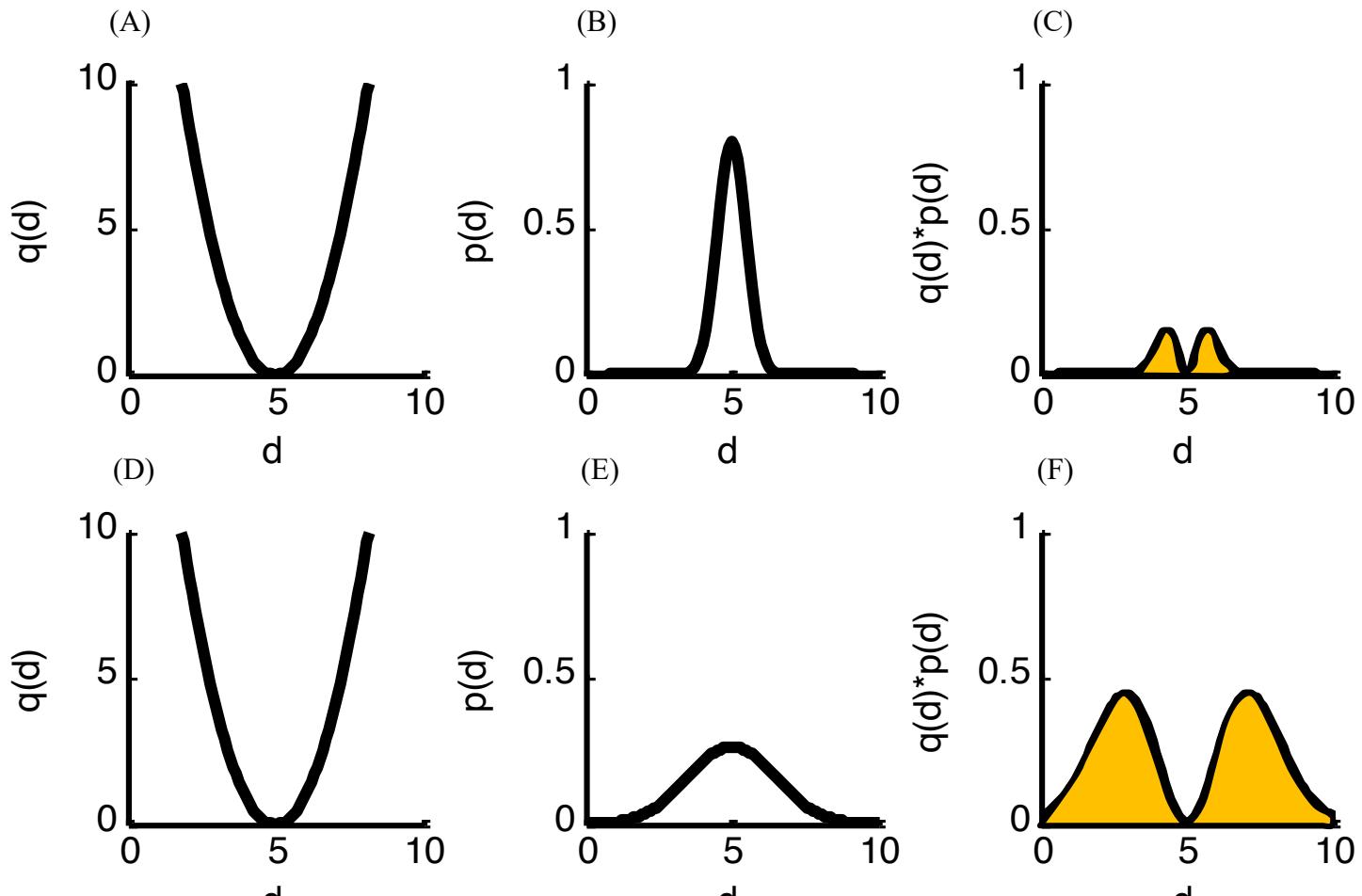
Expected (mean) value of x found such that

$$E(x) = \int_0^1 x f(x) dx \qquad E(x) = (5/4)(x^2 / 2 - x^6 / 6) \Big|_0^1$$

$$E(x) = \int_0^1 x(5/4)(1-x^4) dx \qquad E(x) = 5/12$$

$$E(x) = (5/4) \int_0^1 (x - x^5) dx$$

# Graphical representation of width



$$q(d) = (d - \langle d \rangle)^2$$

$$p(d)$$

$$q(d)p(d)$$

quantify width as the area  
under  $q(d)p(d)$

Fig 2.4

This function grows away from the typical value:

$$q(d) = (d - \langle d \rangle)^2$$

so the function  $q(d)p(d)$  is

small if most of the area is near  $\langle d \rangle$ , that is, a narrow  $p(d)$

large if most of the area is far from  $\langle d \rangle$ , that is, a wide  $p(d)$

so quantify width as the area under  $q(d)p(d)$

‘deviation’ of a given measurement is difference between that measurement and the mean

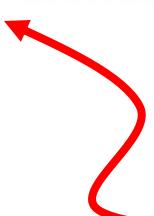
$$\textit{deviation} = (d - \langle d \rangle)$$

variance is average of the deviation squared

ie, plug  $(d - \langle d \rangle)^2$  in to

$$= \int_{d_{min}}^{d_{max}} d p(d) dd$$

# variance

$$\sigma^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (d - \langle d \rangle)^2 p(d) dd$$


mean

Standard deviation is  $\sigma$  and is a measure of the width of the distribution



## **2<sup>nd</sup> half of class today: Python tutorial**

optional  
led by Shane Zhang, Physics/Geophysics

## **Next time**

Homework 2 due (setting up problems into  $Gm=d$  form and recognizing whether the problem is linear or not. You do NOT have to solve the inverse problem, just set it up as  $Gm=d$ ).

Chapter 2 continued, Probability

# Python tutorial

you are encouraged to follow along running the jupyter notebook during the class:

<https://github.com/shane-d-zhang/PythonTutorial6670>

# Python Tutorial for 6670 Geophysical Inverse Theory

If you are interested in attending the tutorial (not required), you are encouraged to download and run the jupyter notebook along the class.

To get started:

1. Install [conda](#)
2. Clone the repo

```
git clone git@github.com:shane-d-zhang/PythonTutorial6670.git
```

3. Create a conda environment

```
cd PythonTutorial6670  
conda env create -f environment.yml  
conda activate py6670
```

4. Run the notebook

```
jupyter notebook tutorial.ipynb
```