

Strings and 1D wave equation



Important Concepts/Assumptions:

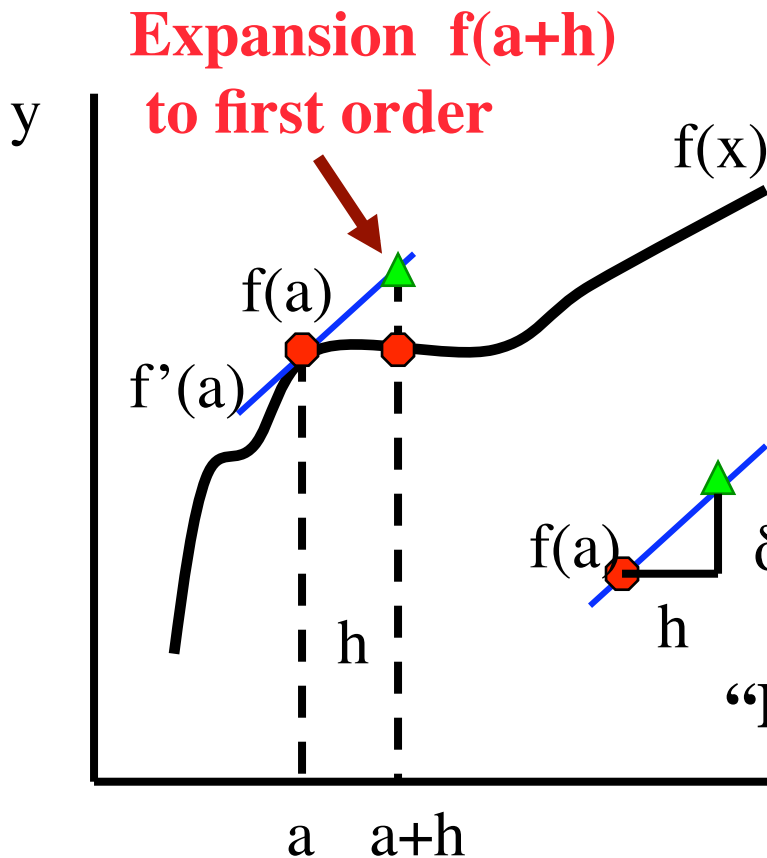
(1) Taylor expansion

$$f(a+h) = f(a) + hf'(a) + \frac{h^2}{2!}f''(a) + \frac{h^3}{3!}f'''(a) + \mathcal{O}(h^4).$$

Accuracy \propto function smoothness + #terms

What it is:

An approximation for the function f at a given value ($a+h$) from function $f(a)$. For example, see the left fig for expansions up to second term.



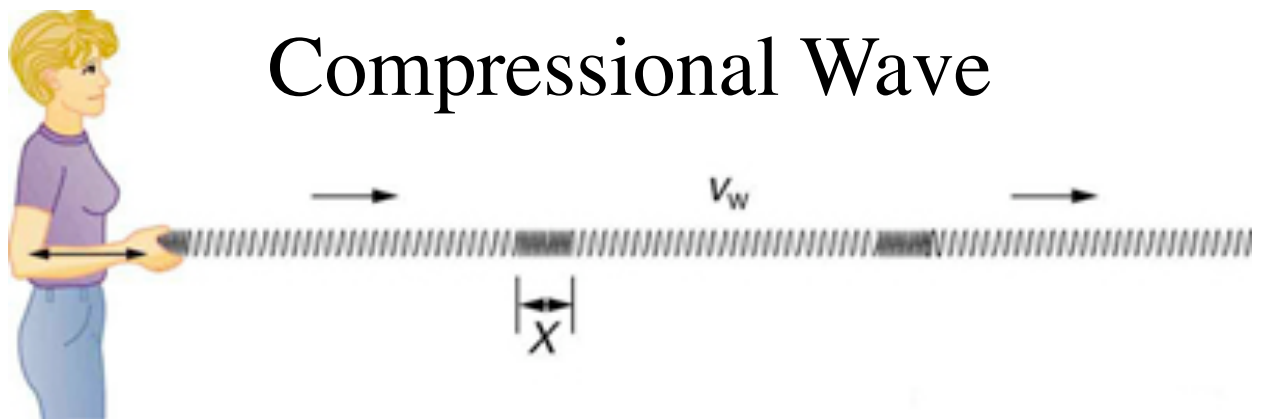
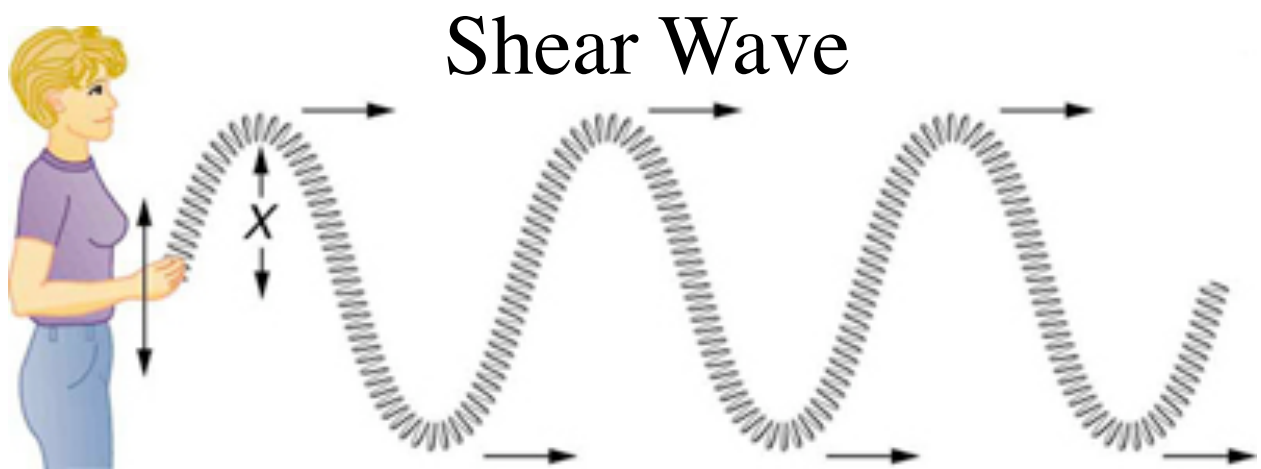
$$f'(a) = \delta f / h$$

$$h * f'(a) = \delta f$$

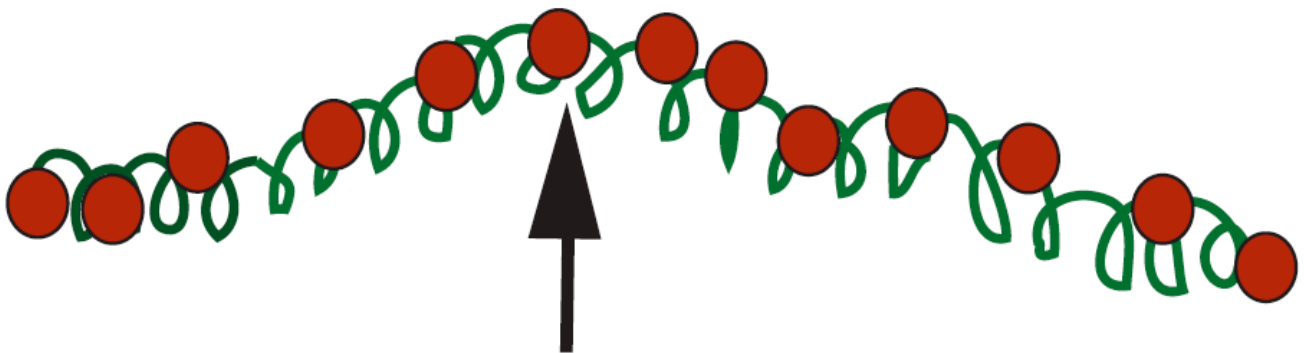
“Linear Approximation”

(2) **Continuum:** continuous distribution of material in space.

(3) **Lagrangian description:** follows a particle and “feel” the action, perfect for seismic instrument that senses particle¹ motion!



Particle motion of shear wave



Simple Proof of Wave Equation :

An idealized mathematical string extends in the x direction, initially straight with tension force τ along it.

Initial condition: $u(x, t=0) = 0$ in y direction, where u = displacement. **Now plucking the string.**

Problem: Describe the displacement $u(x, t)$

Solution:

Condition: u is vertical displacement, dx is small

Vertical tension along y :

$$\tau \sin \theta_2 - \tau \sin \theta_1$$

Newton II:

$$F = ma = \rho dx \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2}$$

$$\tau \sin \theta_2 - \tau \sin \theta_1 = \rho dx \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2}$$

Taylor expansion about 0:

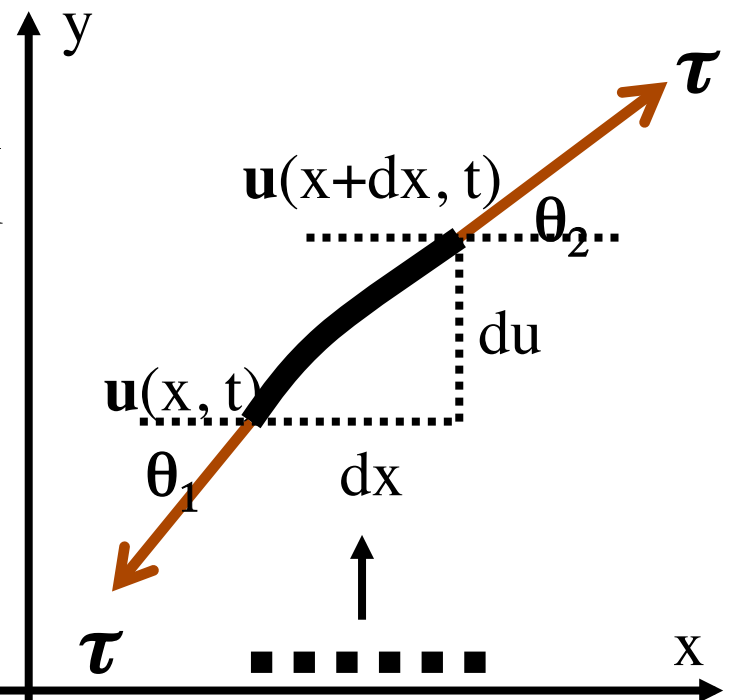
$$\sin(\theta) = \theta - \theta^3/3! + \theta^5/5! - \dots \sim \theta \quad (\text{coef} = 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ -1 \ \dots)$$

$$\tan(\theta) = \theta + \theta^3/3 + 2\theta^5/15 \dots \sim \theta$$

Hence $\sin \theta = \tan \theta = \theta$ Another way to derive $\sin(x) = \tan(x)$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos x}{1} = 1 \quad (\text{used L'Hopitals rule})$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\tan x}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sec^2 x}{1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1/\cos^2 x}{1} = 1$$



$$\begin{aligned} \text{Tension along y} &= \tau \sin \theta_2 - \tau \sin \theta_1 \\ \text{---->} \quad \tau(\tan \theta_2 - \tan \theta_1) &= \rho dx \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} \\ \tau \left(\frac{\partial u(x+dx, t)}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial u(x, t)}{\partial x} \right) &= \rho dx \frac{\partial^2 u(x, t)}{\partial t^2} \end{aligned}$$

Taylor expand $u(x+dx, t)$ with respect to x , remove higher order terms,

$$\begin{aligned} u(x+dx, t) &= u(x, t) + \frac{\partial u(x, t)}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial^2 u(x, t)}{2 \partial x^2} dx^2 + \dots \\ &\approx u(x, t) + \frac{\partial u(x, t)}{\partial x} dx \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \tau \left(\frac{\partial u(x, t)}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial^2 u(x, t)}{\partial x^2} dx - \frac{\partial u(x, t)}{\partial x} \right) &= \rho dx \frac{\partial^2 u(x, t)}{\partial t^2} \\ \tau \frac{\partial^2 u(x, t)}{\partial x^2} dx &= \rho dx \frac{\partial^2 u(x, t)}{\partial t^2} \end{aligned}$$

remove dx terms, reorganize,

$$\frac{\partial^2 u(x, t)}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{(\sqrt{\tau/\rho})^2} \frac{\partial^2 u(x, t)}{\partial t^2} = \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{\partial^2 u(x, t)}{\partial t^2} \quad \text{where } v = \sqrt{\tau/\rho}$$

or commonly written as a homogeneous solution,

$$\nabla^2 u - \frac{1}{v^2} \partial_t^2 u = 0 \quad \text{Wave equation!}$$

Note

$$v = \sqrt{\tau/\rho} \quad \text{----> tension increases, } v \text{ increases (in } \mathbf{x} \text{)}$$

density increases, velocity decreases

To verify the formula, can work out units,

$$v = (\text{force/density})^{1/2} = [(\text{density} \cdot \text{m} \cdot \text{m/s}^2) / \text{density}]^{1/2} = \text{m/s}$$

Rays and Body Waves

Wave equation: A second-order differential equation that describes how a wave propagates in a medium with velocity v . In 1D, let's assume u is the displacement of a particle at a given time. $\nabla^2 u - \frac{1}{v^2} \partial_t^2 u = 0$

Note: this is a relationship between 2nd time derivative of displacement/potential with 2nd spatial derivative. time u and v do not have to be in the same direction,

Solutions:

Any function of the type $u(x, t) = f(x \pm vt)$

$$\frac{\partial^2 u(x, t)}{\partial x^2} = f''(x \pm vt) \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial^2 u(x, t)}{\partial t^2} = v^2 f''(x \pm vt)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 u(x, t)}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{\partial^2 u(x, t)}{\partial t^2}$$

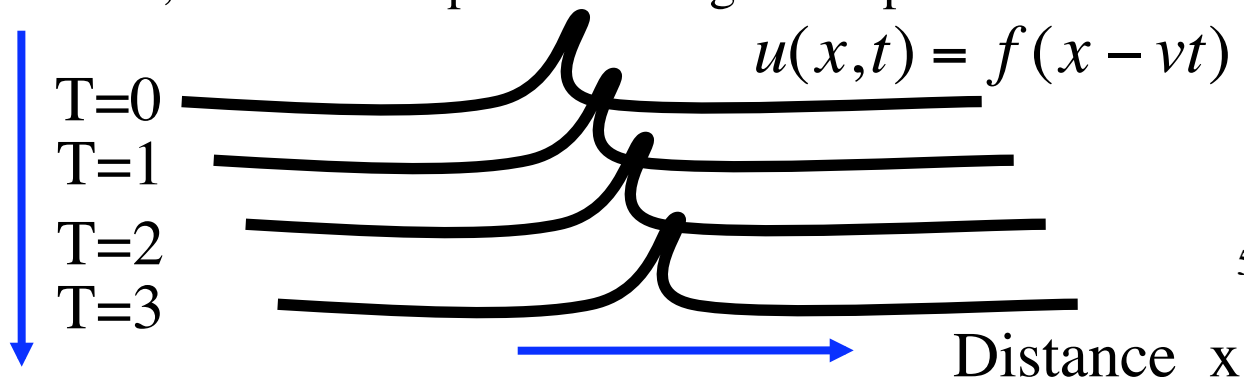
Example:

$$f(x, t) = 2(x - vt)^3$$

$$\frac{\partial u(x, t)}{\partial x} = 6(x - vt)^2 \quad \frac{\partial^2 u(x, t)}{\partial x^2} = 12(x - vt)$$

$$\frac{\partial u(x, t)}{\partial t} = -6v(x - vt)^2 \quad \frac{\partial^2 u(x, t)}{\partial t^2} = 12v^2(x - vt)$$

In fact, “-” shows a pulse moving in the positive x direction.



A particularly useful class of solutions:

$$u(x,t) = Ae^{i(\omega t \pm kx)} = A[\cos(\omega t \pm kx) + i \sin(\omega t \pm kx)]$$

A is amplitude, real part of the exponent is phase that describes the current “state” within its cycle, i.e., if a cycle is 360 degrees, the current angle.

Now differentiate:

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = Ak^2 e^{i(\omega t \pm kx)} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} = A \frac{\omega^2}{v^2} e^{i(\omega t \pm kx)}$$

Equate them, $k^2 = \frac{\omega^2}{v^2} \Rightarrow k = \frac{\omega}{v}$

k = wave number, v = speed, ω = angular frequency

To be physical, we usually use

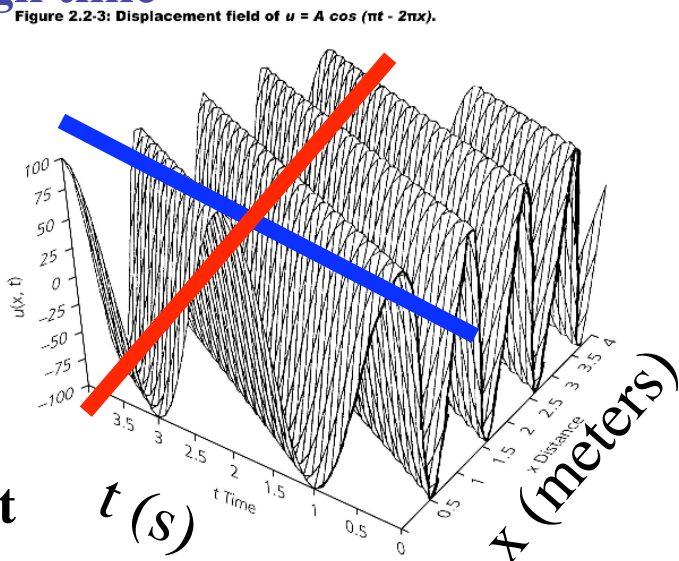
$$u(x,t) = A \cos(\omega t - kx) = \text{real}[Ae^{i(\omega t - kx)}]$$

(since displacement is real, “-” is harmonic wave moving in positive x direction)

Displacement field (1D)

A cut through time

A cut through space



Assume constant values of ω and k , u will look like ----->

Note: the vertical cut in x or t will yield a periodic function

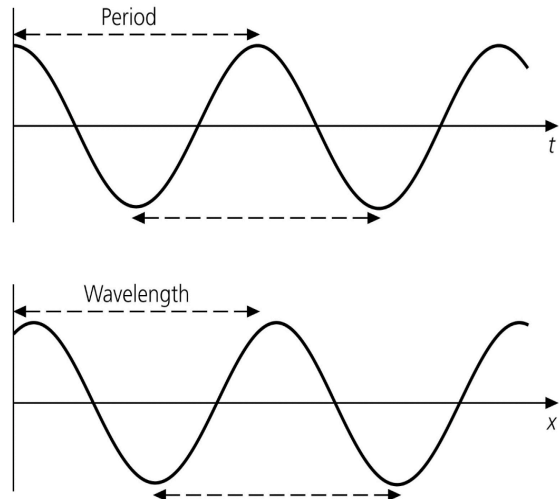
Periodicity

$$T = 2\pi / \omega$$

$$\lambda = 2\pi / k$$

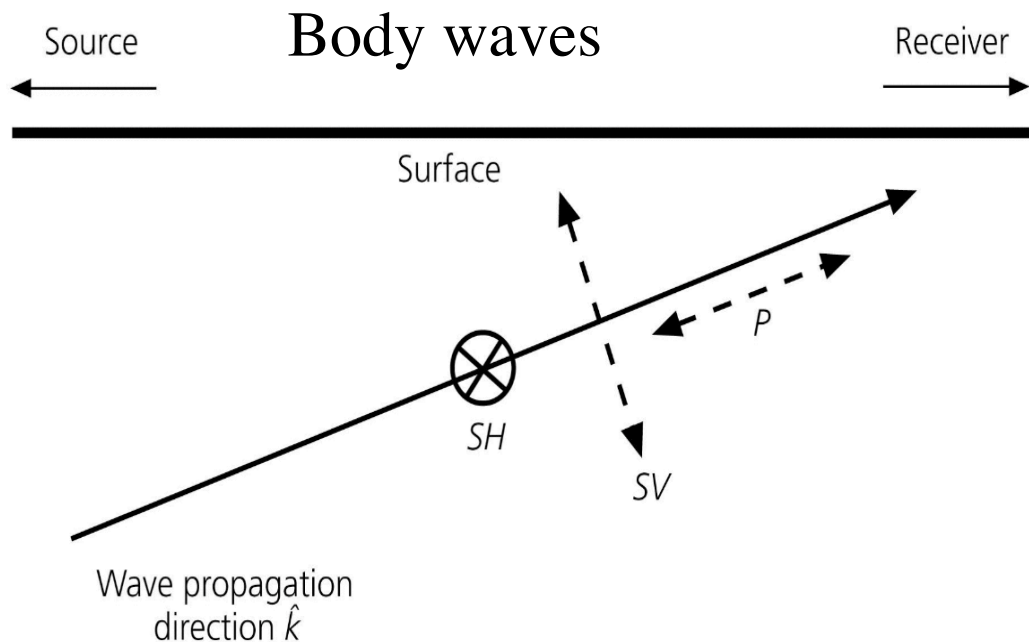
$$v = \omega / k = \lambda / T$$

Figure 2.2-4: Harmonic wave, $u = A \cos(\omega t - kx)$.



Note: going from one medium to another, T is almost constant, wavelength (which depends on k) will change!

Figure 2.4-4: Displacements for P, SV, and SH.



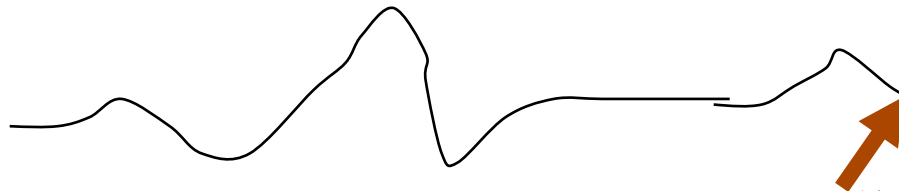
SH waves: transverse particle motion, normal to P-SV plane

SV waves: normal to wave propagation direction, within the P-SV (blackboard) plane

P waves: parallel to wave propagation direction

Components and Particle Motion

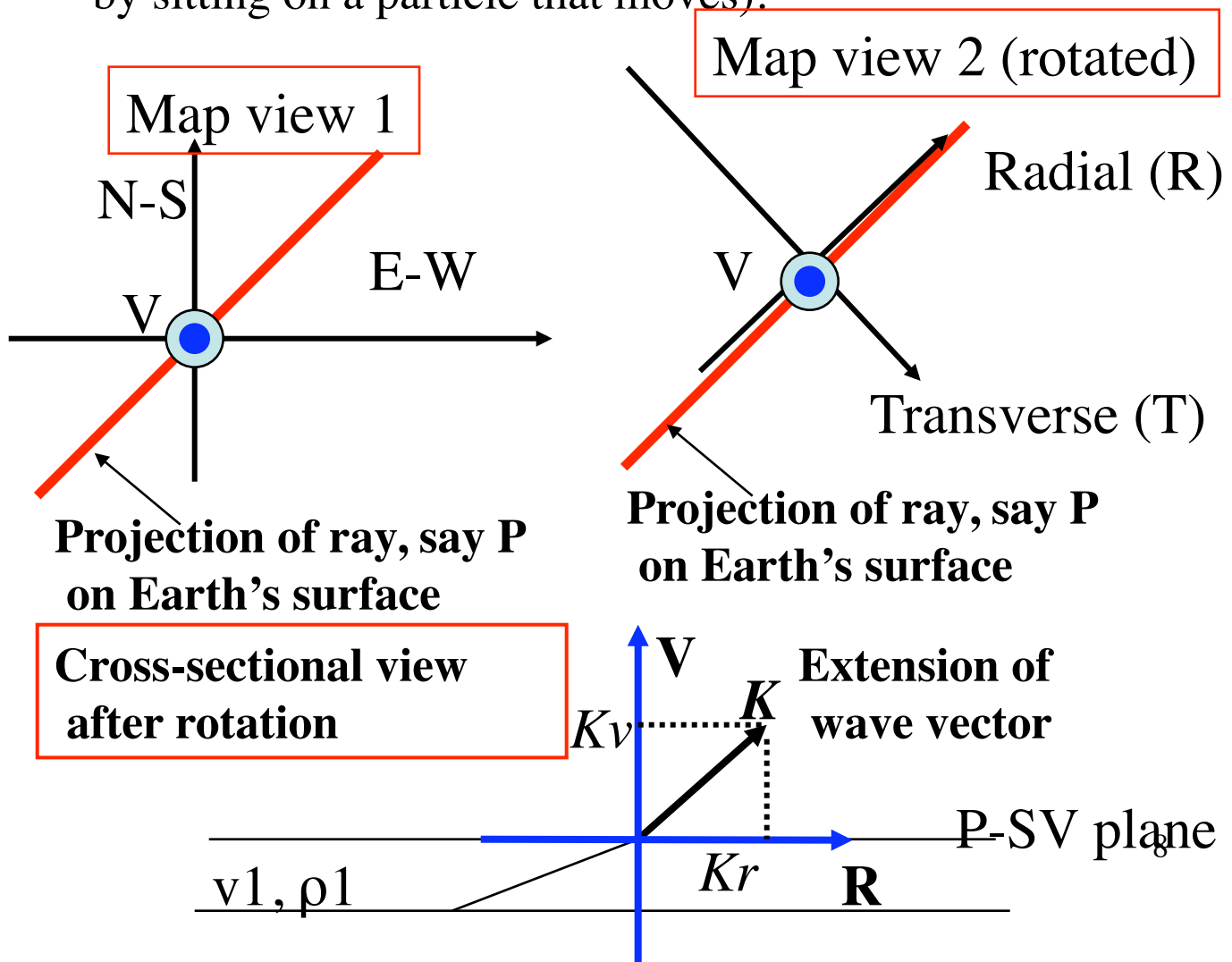
Imagine a seismometer needle:



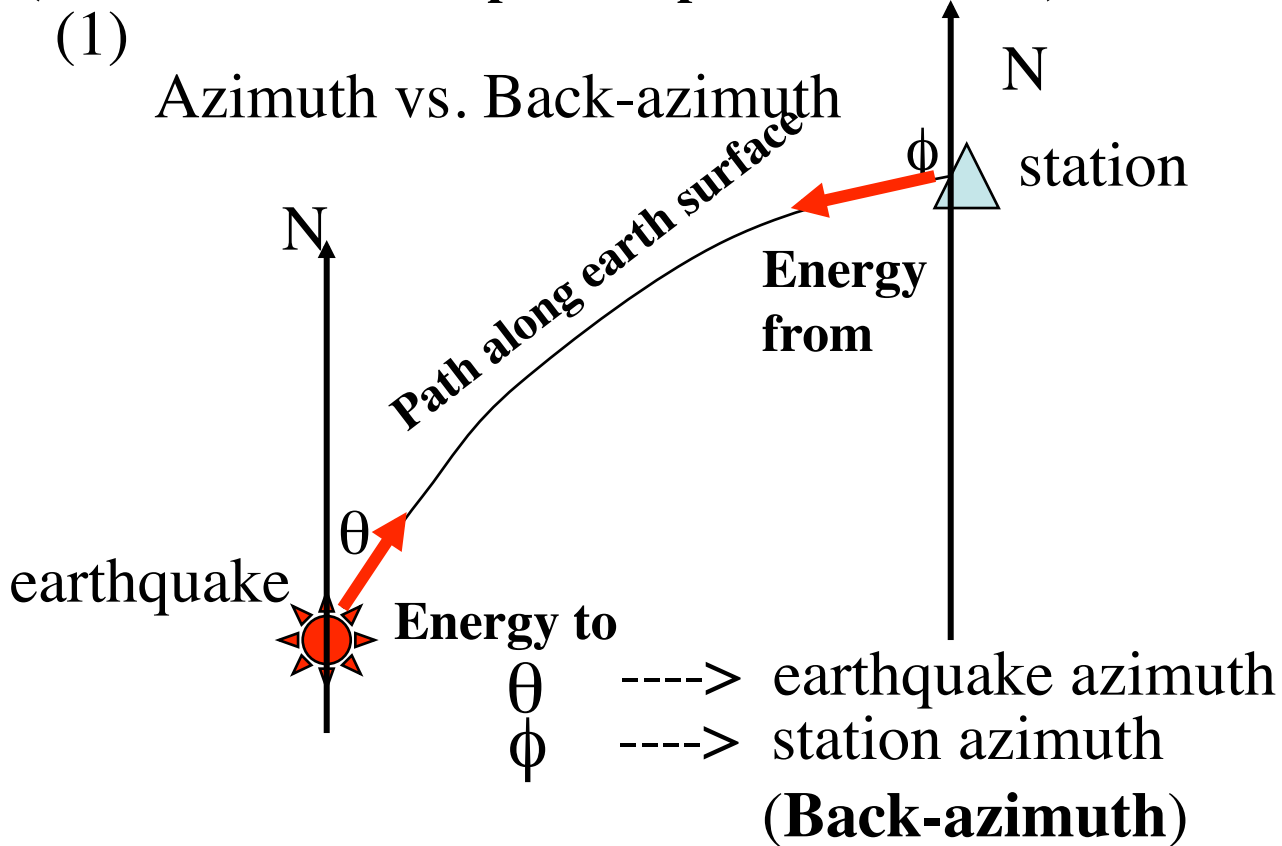
Needle

Suppose there is 3 cm displacement in east-west component, what does that really mean?

Answer: That means a particle positioned at the needle tip moves by 3 cm, i.e., particles on the ground/rock moves by 3 cm due to seismic wave. Seismometer is a Lagrangian motion recorder (meaning observing motion by sitting on a particle that moves).

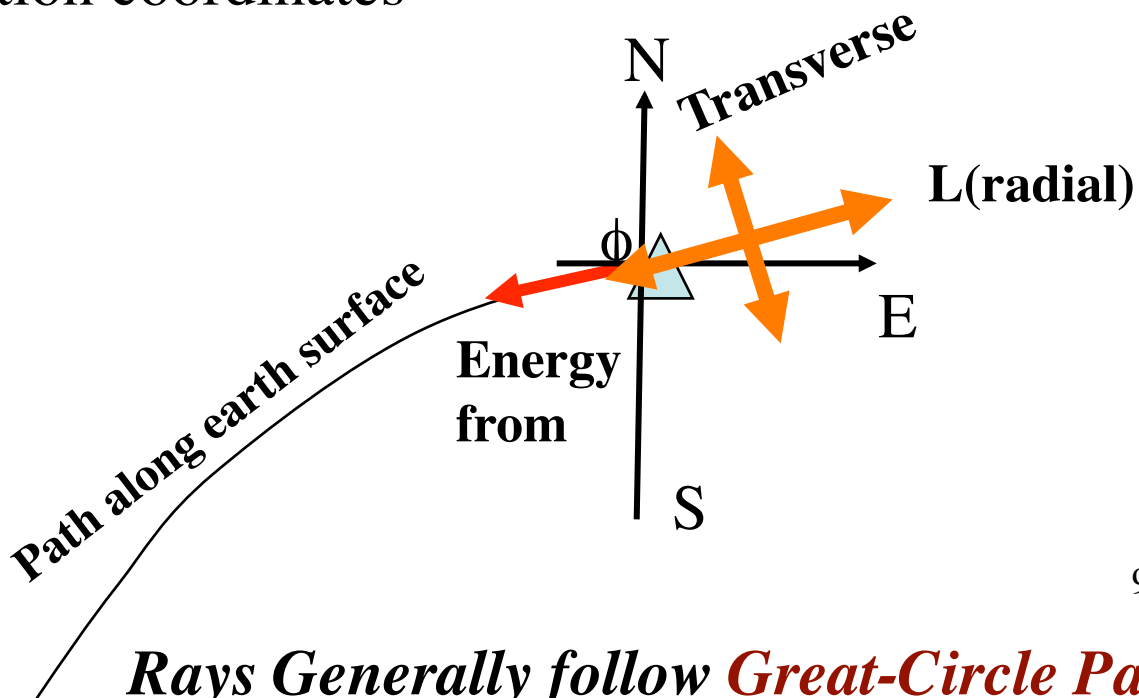


Typical Observations: E-W, N-S, Vertical ground motions
(not a natural description of particle motions)



So does $\theta + \phi = 360$?? **NO.**

(2) Rotate by back-azimuth to natural particle motion coordinates

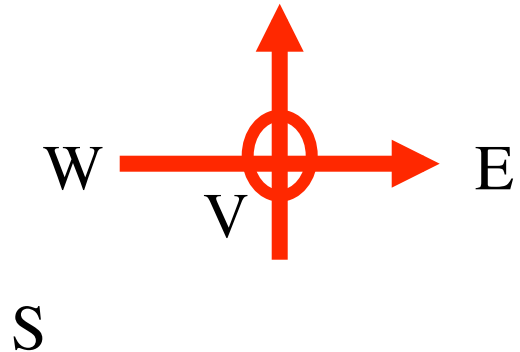


Recording: **3 component displacement/velocity:**
North-South
East-west
Vertical



Rotation around vertical

$$\begin{pmatrix} u_R \\ u_T \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \phi & \sin \phi \\ -\sin \phi & \cos \phi \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u_{EW} \\ u_{NS} \end{pmatrix}$$

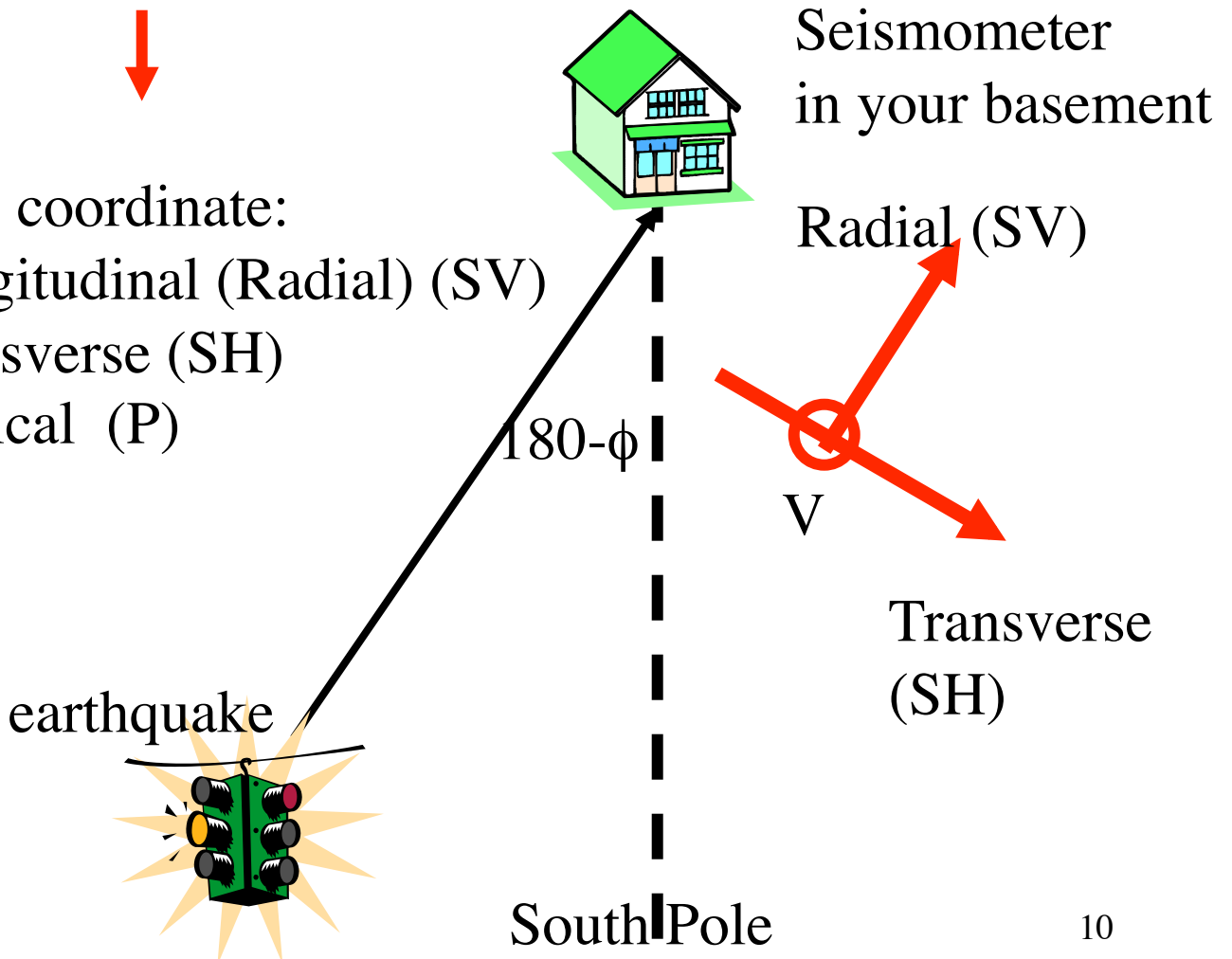


New coordinate:

Longitudinal (Radial) (SV)

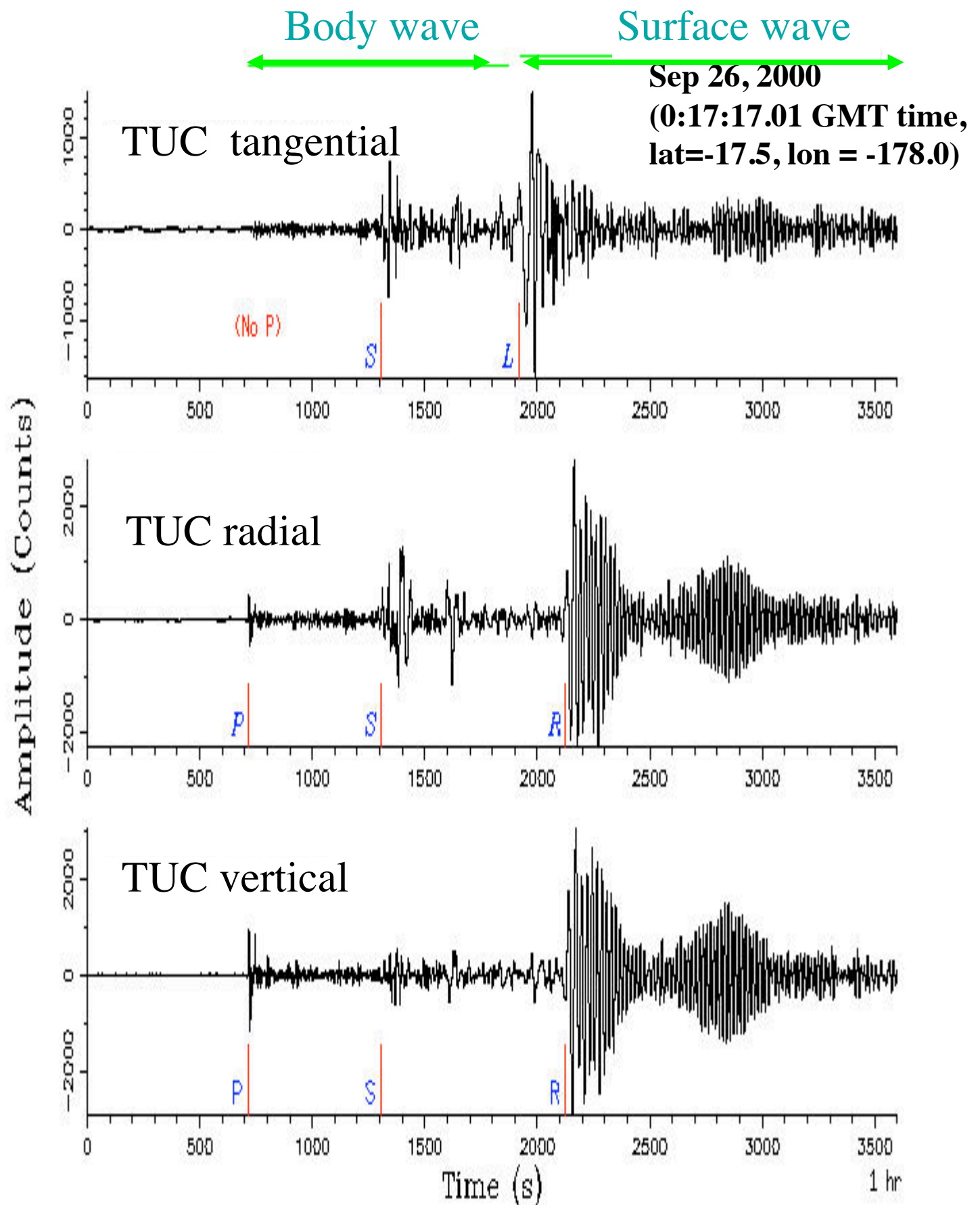
Transverse (SH)

Vertical (P)



Seismic Observations

Rotated, a rough view

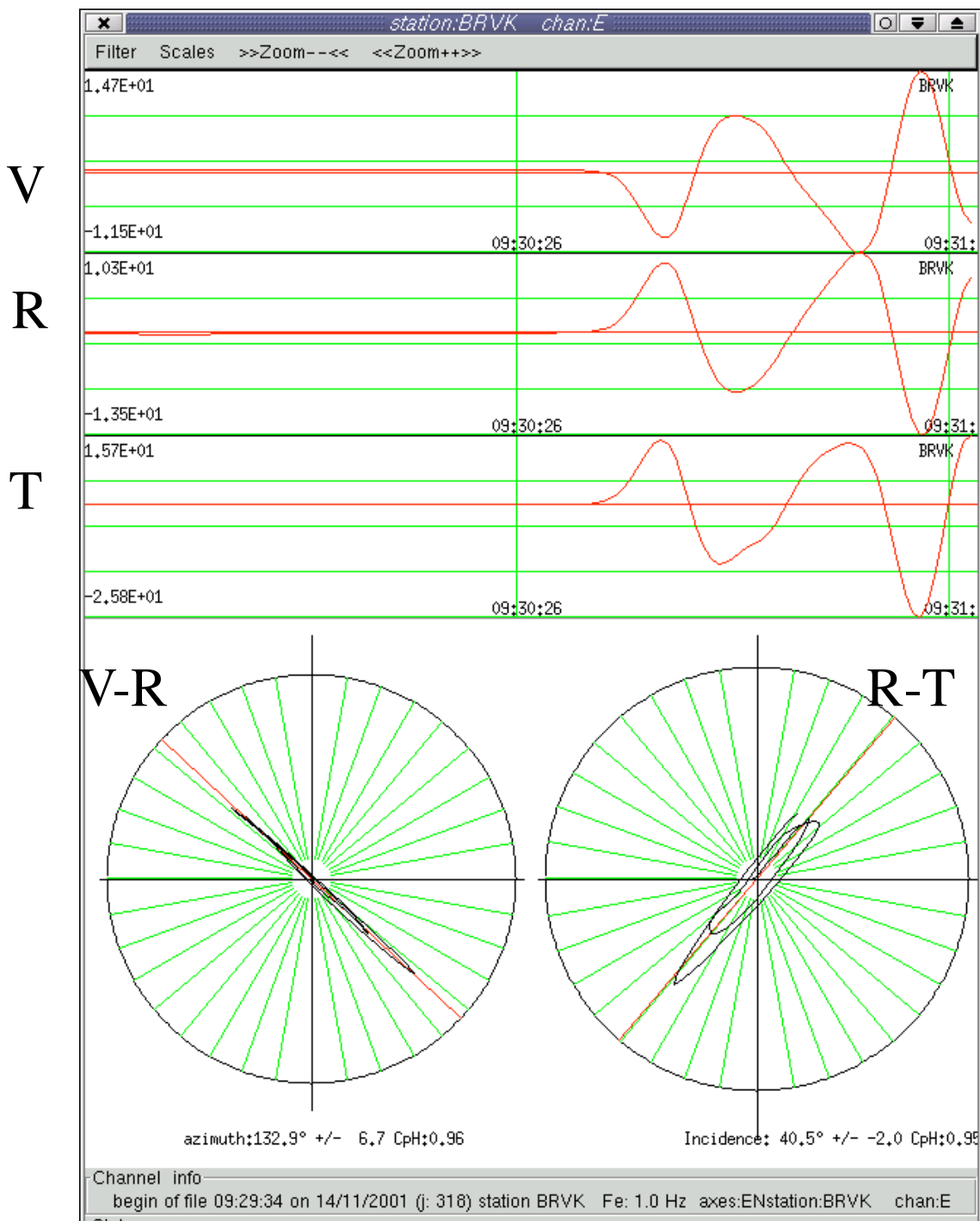


Polarization/particle motion

What is it: Plotting the two recorded components of a given seismic phase, say P, or SS, etc.

Why useful:

- (1) V-R (vertical-radial) plot give first motion + arrival angle + strength of vertical vs. radial components.
- (2) R-T (radial vs. transverse) plot gives presence of anisotropy
- (3) E-N (eastwest vs. northsouth) gives back-azimuth!



(1) Notational confusion:

P wave, S wave --- related to particle motions

PcP, ScS --- these are called *Seismic phases* or *seismic arrivals*, they belong to either P or S types of particle motions

(2) Many S-type seismic phases come in preferred polarizations,

S --- Strong on both Radial and Transverse

SS --- Strong on Transverse

ScS --- Strong on Transverse

SP, PKP, or anything with P or K or I in name --> SV type --> Radial

(3) P waves travel faster than S waves because

$$V_p = \sqrt{\frac{\lambda + 2\mu}{\rho}} \quad V_s = \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\rho}}$$

Where λ and μ are Lamé parameters, λ is related to bulk modulus κ of materials (coefficient on how easily a piece of material can be compressed) and μ is shear modulus that tells how easily something can be “torn” or sheared.

$\lambda > 0$ and $\mu > 0$ -----> $V_p > V_s$ for most materials

(4) Most Earth materials can be

approximated by what is called a

“Poisson Solid” where $\lambda \sim \mu$ -----> $V_p \sim \sqrt{3} V_s$

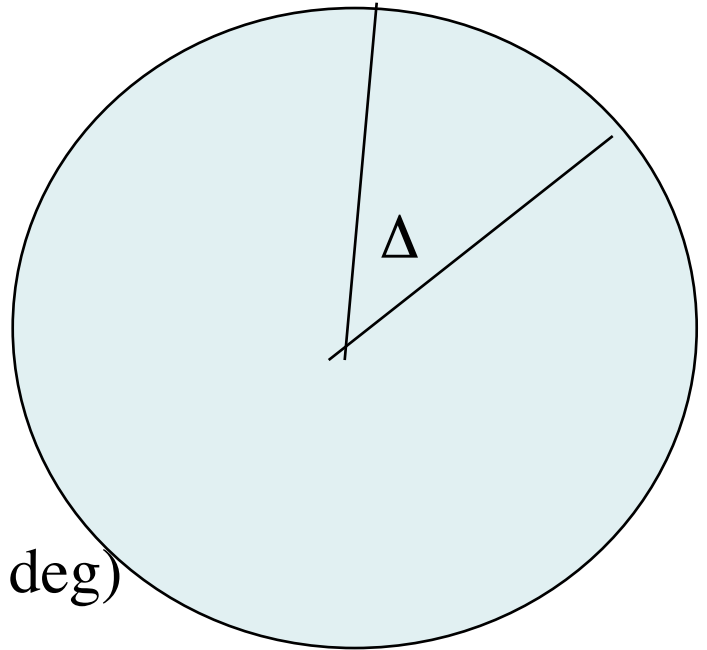
Distance Calculations in Global Earth Problems

Known:

Radius of Earth = 6371 km

Distance conversion to
degrees:

$$2 \times 3.141593 \times 6371 \text{ km} / (360 \text{ deg}) \\ = 111.195 \text{ km/deg}$$



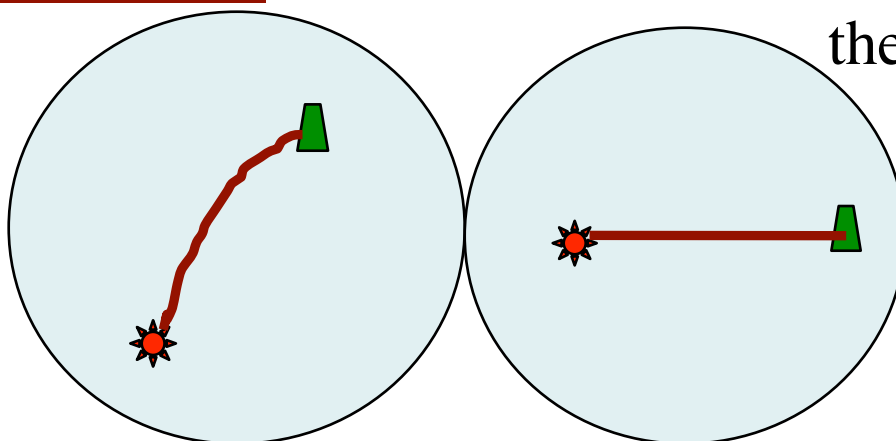
A seismic arrival that travels an *epicentral distance* (projection of raypath on the surface, same as surface wave distance) of 100 deg ~ 11119.5 km

Local distance: <10 deg, Regional distance < 30 deg, Teleseismic distance: > 30 deg

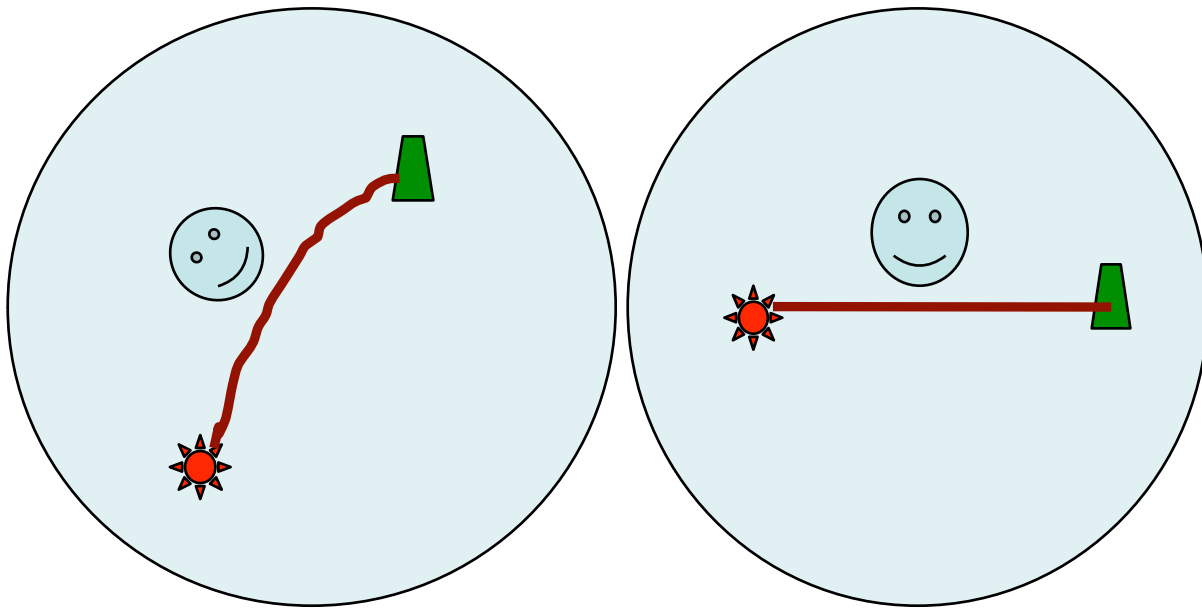
Question: How to compute distance for a random source and a given station?

Procedure:

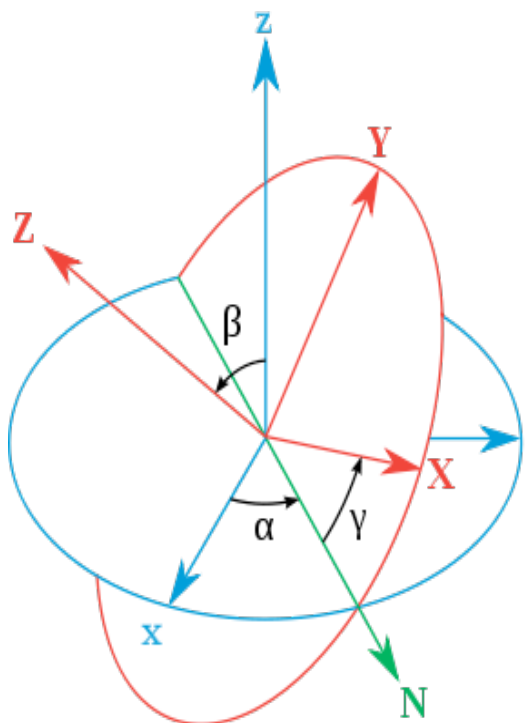
Rotate to Equator,
read off distance,
then rotate back.



Advantage: Suppose we want to find the perpendicular distance from the Smiley to the line, by rotating to the Equatorial system, the latitude of the rotated Smiley in the new Equatorial framework IS the perpendicular distance we want.



Difficulty: Rotation (need Euler angles & poles)



Euler angles .

The xyz (fixed) system is shown in blue, the XYZ (rotated) system is shown in red.

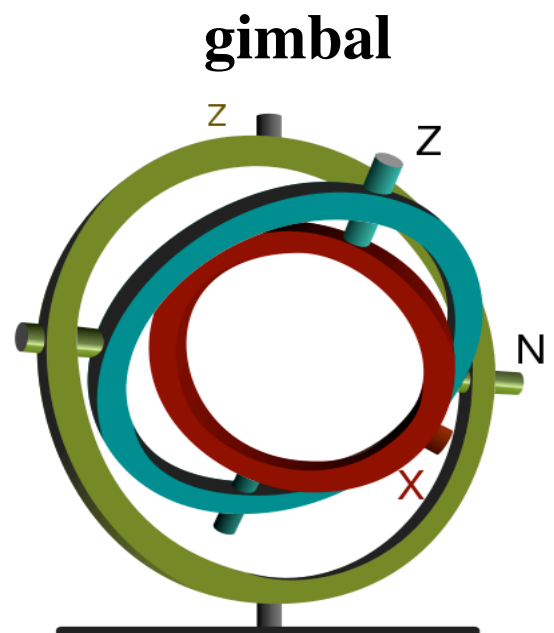
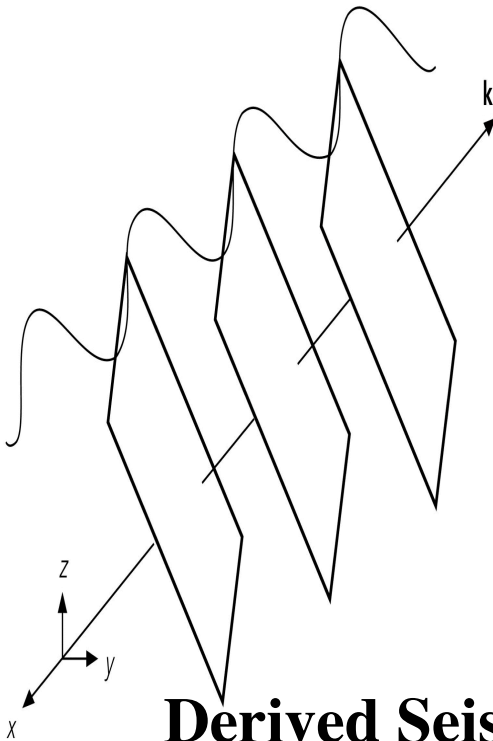


Figure 2.4-1: Plane wave fronts.



Dissecting Seismic Waves

When people say: seismic waves are solutions to the wave equation, what they really refer to is “**seismic potentials**”. This is different from Strings (*except for SH component*)!

P-SV displacement

$$\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}, t) = \bar{\nabla} \phi(\mathbf{x}, t) + \bar{\nabla} \times \Psi(\mathbf{x}, t)$$

Derived Seismic Wave Eqn from Newton’s II:

$$(\bar{\nabla}^2 \phi) = \frac{1}{v_p^2} \frac{\partial^2 \phi(\mathbf{x}, t)}{\partial t^2} \quad (\text{P waves})$$

$$\bar{\nabla}^2 \Psi = \frac{1}{v_s^2} \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial t^2} \quad (\text{SV wave, not SH})$$

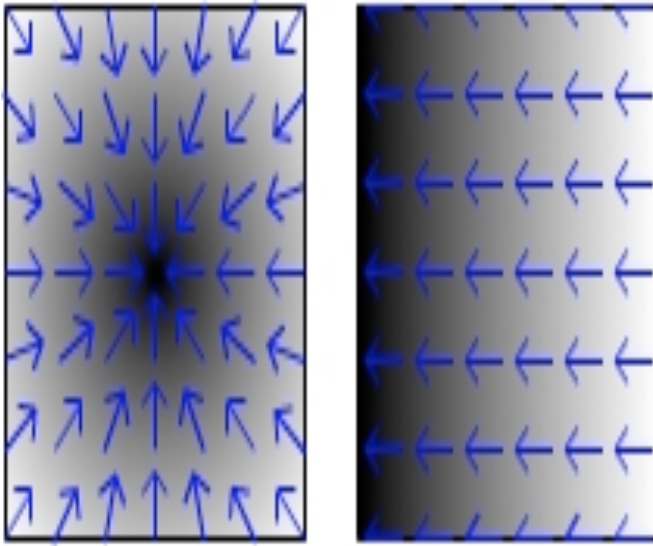
Get harmonic solutions in plane waves:

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}, t) = A e^{i(\omega t \pm \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x})} = A e^{i(\omega t \pm k_x x \pm k_y y \pm k_z z)}$$

$$\Psi(\mathbf{x}, t) = A e^{i(\omega t \pm \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x})} = A e^{i(\omega t \pm k_x x \pm k_y y \pm k_z z)} \quad 16$$

Assume a scalar field $\phi(\mathbf{x})$

Understand Potentials “Physically”



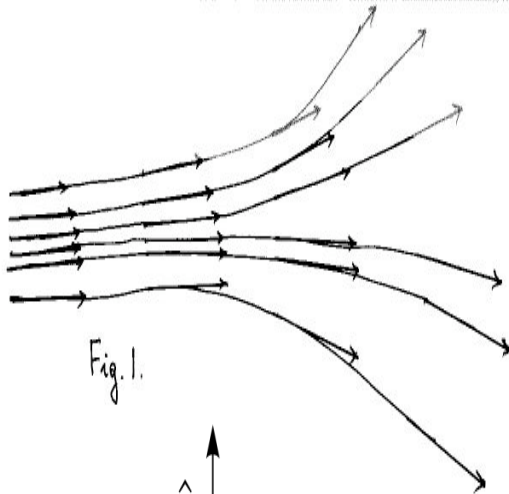
$$\nabla\phi = \frac{\partial\phi}{\partial x_1}\hat{\mathbf{x}}_1 + \frac{\partial\phi}{\partial x_2}\hat{\mathbf{x}}_2 + \frac{\partial\phi}{\partial x_3}\hat{\mathbf{x}}_3$$

Gradient of scalar field,

which makes sense to be related to P.

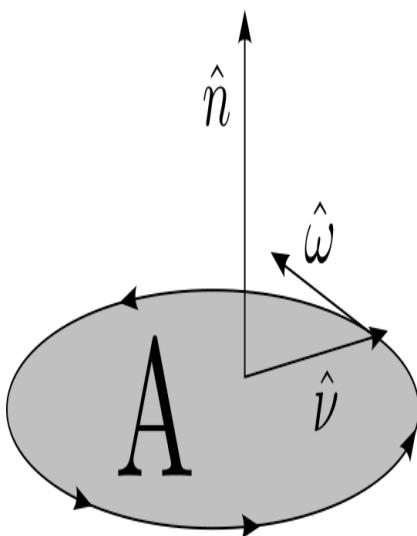
P direction = wave direction, compression

For comparison, divergence of a vector field Ψ , represents flux of vector field through a unit



$$\nabla \cdot \Psi = \frac{\partial\psi_1}{\partial x_1} + \frac{\partial\psi_2}{\partial x_2} + \frac{\partial\psi_3}{\partial x_3} = \psi_{i,i}$$

Curl of a vector field Ψ , represents rate of rotation (in this case, it makes sense that shear waves are “rotated” and “perpendicular” to direction of P.



in the case of SV waves, $\mathbf{u} = \nabla \times \Psi$