

## GEOL 695: Geophysical Geodesy - Day 6

### Preliminaries

- Attendance and Make up policies
- Readings

### New Readings

*required:*

Turcotte, D. L., and G. Schubert (1982), *Geodynamics Applications of Continuum Physics to Geological Problems*, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York.  
Section 2-7.

*appendix of:*

Savage, J. C., W. Gan, and J. L. Svarc (2001), Strain accumulation and rotation in the eastern California shear zone, *Journal of Geophysical Research*, 106, B10, 21,995-922,007.

Shen-Tu, B., W. E. Holt, and J. A. Haines (1998), Contemporary kinematics of the western United States determined from earthquake moment tensors, very long baseline interferometry, and GPS observations, *Journal of Geophysical Research*, 103, B8, 18,087-18,117.

### Strain, Continued...

On a rotating plate, velocity gradients are not zero, but strain rate is zero.

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

Principal strain axes. These are the eigenvectors of the strain tensor i.e. the vectors that satisfy:

$$\varepsilon dx = A dx$$

where  $\varepsilon$  is the strain tensor, and  $A$  is a scalar. These two eigenvectors have directions which correspond to the principal strain rate axes. The magnitude of these two vectors are the principal strain rates  $\varepsilon_1$  and  $\varepsilon_2$ .  $\varepsilon_1$  is usually the larger value so  $\varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_2$  is always positive.

*Strain invariants* are properties of the strain tensor that do not change with changes in coordinate axes.

First Invariant:

$$\varepsilon_{xx} + \varepsilon_{yy} = \text{tr}(\varepsilon) = \varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2$$

The first invariant is always the trace of the tensor (in 2D or 3D). It corresponds to the

dilatational (volumetric) component of the shape change.

Second Invariant:

formally

$$\varepsilon_{xx}\varepsilon_{yy} - \varepsilon_{xy}^2$$

Another form is commonly used (C. Kreemer personal communication) which has the advantage of being in units of strain (not strain squared):

$$\sqrt{\varepsilon_{xx}^2 + \varepsilon_{yy}^2 + 2\varepsilon_{xy}^2} \quad (\text{sometimes shown squared})$$

This contains shear and dilatation components of deformation, and hence “invariant shear” can be accessed by taking the difference to the dilatation.

Also the difference

$$\varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_2$$

is invariant to coordinate axis changes and represents shear in the sense that if the principal strains are equal (isotropic dilatation) then the shear is zero. If  $\varepsilon_1 = -\varepsilon_2$  then dilatation is zero and shear is  $2\varepsilon_1$ .

In three dimensions the equations get a little trickier. It becomes unclear (at least to me) how the notion of a “shear invariant” works at dimensions  $> 2$ .

## Models and Data

What is a model?

discussion.

What is a *good* model?

- 1) fits data
- 2) is “reasonable”
- 3) meets *a priori* conditions.

1) What are the measures of data fit?

Small residuals to the predictions of a model.

We can impose this condition mathematically on a problem by requiring that

$$\|\mathbf{r}\| = 0$$

Misfit can be quantified

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{(d_i - d_{i, pred})^2}{\sigma_i^2}$$

$$\chi^2_\nu = \frac{1}{\nu} \chi^2$$

also used to describe the amount of 'scatter' in the residuals:

$$\text{RMS} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum r_i^2}{N}}$$

$$\text{and WRMS} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum w_i r_i^2}{\sum w_i}}$$

which is similar (though not exactly the same) as  $\chi^2_\nu$  if using the data uncertainties as your weights.

where the "degrees of freedom"  $\nu$  = number of data (N) minus number of model parameters

$\chi^2_\nu$  is always positive and follows  $\chi^2$  distributions.

2) What is reasonable?

Well that depends. But commonly we prefer simple models to complex models. This is a choice of the modeler, owing to finite human intelligence, or the belief in "Occam's razor" applied to modeling.

$$\|\mathbf{m}\| = 0$$

3) How do we meet *a priori* conditions?

Many ways have been tried. One way is to look for a model that is close to some other particular model:

$$\|\mathbf{m} - \mathbf{m}_{\text{apriori}}\| = 0$$

another choice would be to require that the model is "smooth" i.e. the norm of the Laplacian operator of  $\mathbf{m}$  is as close to zero as possible.

$$\|\nabla^2 \mathbf{m}\| = 0$$

or flat

$$\left\| \frac{\partial \mathbf{m}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \right\| = 0 \quad .$$

These are just some ways and many others are possible.

In the end a model can find a balance between the three criteria by finding a way to minimize some function of all three e.g. solve the system such that

$$\|r\| + \|m\| + \nabla^2 m = 0$$

the importance of the various terms can be controlled by using weights, i.e.

$$\alpha \|r\| + \beta \|m\| + \gamma \nabla^2 m = 0$$

where alpha, beta, gamma are imposed by the modeler, experimented with until a model with the desired properties is found.