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The Physical Basis for the Lg/P Discriminant: Signal Characteristics and Modeling

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13. ABSTRACT (Maximum 200 words) Effective monitoring of the Comprehensive Test Ban Treaty (CTBT) for low-magnitude events can only be achieved through the use of regional seismic observations. One of the most widely heralded regional discrimination techniques is based on the measurement of L _g /P ratios at regional seismic stations. Although this technique seems to separate events of different source types in many geographic regions, the physical basis for the discriminant and the significance of regional propagation effects on the ratio measurements have generally not been resolved. This study has sought to determine the salient characteristics of L _g /P ratios as a function of frequency for events of different source types from various geographic regions, to assess how the measurements should have been affected by propagation path conditions, and to analyze the results in terms of physical properties of the seismic source mechanism and the propagation path.					
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1. Introduction

1.1 Objectives

Regional discrimination methods for distinguishing different types of seismic sources, including potential underground nuclear explosions, earthquakes, chemical explosions, and rockbursts, will provide an important tool for monitoring the Comprehensive Test Ban Treaty (CTBT). Although regional discrimination procedures have been studied for many years, there remain many outstanding issues which need to be resolved before these methods can be relied on for identifying seismic sources. Development of regional discrimination techniques has been impeded by limitations on the database available for testing proposed discriminant measures and by the lack of theoretical understanding of the dependence of regional phase behavior on physical properties of the source and propagation path. In the research project reported here, we have sought to investigate the physical basis for L_g/P ratio measurements as regional discriminants. Such measurements have been one of the most enduring and promising of the proposed methods. We believe that improving understanding of the effects of source conditions and propagation can make L_g/P ratios a reliable discrimination technique for widespread application.

To accomplish these research objectives, the program included an empirical element to describe the characteristics of L_g/P ratios as a function of frequency observed from different types of seismic sources and for various propagation paths representative of those which will be encountered in global CTBT monitoring. In these empirical studies, we developed a consistent procedure to determine spectral L_g/P ratios and established a basis to correct the L_g/P measurements for prior knowledge of regional attenuation. The second element of the research program involved the use of theoretical modeling techniques to predict the dependence of L_g/P ratios on source mechanisms and propagation properties. We attempted to use the observed regional phase behavior to constrain the theoretical models and to investigate the sensitivity of the ratios to the physical behavior in different seismic source mechanisms and to propagation conditions in different tectonic regions. Such physical understanding is critical to knowing why and

where the discriminant will work and what might cause observed discriminant measures to vary from the expected behavior.

1.2 Accomplishments

In the empirical element of this research program, we collected regional waveform data from different source types including nuclear explosions, earthquakes, rockbursts, and chemical blasts for a variety of propagation conditions. We have analyzed the distribution of this database with respect to source types, epicentral distances, and tectonic regions. Nuclear explosions in the database were limited to a few source areas (viz. the Nevada Test Site (NTS) in the United States, the former Soviet test sites in eastern Kazakhstan and at Novaya Zemlya, and the Chinese test site at Lop Nor). In addition, the data included several PNE explosions in the former Soviet Union recorded at a single regional station. The observations were recorded at near and intermediate regional distances for NTS, at intermediate and far-regional distances from the former Soviet test sites, and at intermediate and far-regional distances from the Lop Nor explosions. For comparison, earthquakes and other source types in the same or similar tectonic regions and at comparable epicentral distances have been analyzed using consistent procedures. We determined preliminary L_g/P ratios for different source types using a band-pass filtering procedure during the first phase of this research. These observations showed differences in the L_g/P ratio measurements as a function of frequency between the different source types, but there were also differences between similar source types in different regions. For the L_g/P ratio discriminant to be effective, these kinds of differences would need to be resolved.

One way to reduce the variability for common source types might be through refined measurement procedures. As part of the empirical element of this research program, we tested several alternative algorithms for obtaining spectral estimates to use in forming the L_g/P ratios; and we have settled on a systematic scheme which utilizes fairly narrow Gaussian filters, for which the RMS output amplitudes tend to match Fourier spectral estimates computed for the corresponding regional phase group velocity windows. This band-pass filtering procedure appears to offer some operational

advantages; however, it did not seem to change the measurements of the L_g/P ratios and would not improve the variability between observations for similar source types in different regions. Although spectral L_g/P ratios are relatively unaffected by differences in the source magnitudes and the seismic station recording system, they can be strongly affected by propagation characteristics. In these studies, we used a model of regional phase attenuation to analyze the effects of propagation on the L_g/P_g ratio measurements as a function of frequency and to correct the L_g/P_g ratio measurements for selected events. These analyses showed that predicted attenuation corrections can have a great effect on L_g/P_g ratio measurements as a function of frequency. We found that such corrections altered L_g/P_g ratios, with greatest effects at higher frequencies, and that there appeared to be some tendency for corrections to reduce the scatter between stations for individual events. The results suggested that even more significant reductions in L_g/P_g scatter may be achievable when the stations are at larger epicentral distances; however, more precise knowledge of P_g attenuation and its relationship to L_g attenuation are required before much reliance can be placed on such correction procedures.

To improve physical understanding of the L_g/P_g measurements as a function of frequency and their dependence on source and propagation effects, we have used the observed behavior of L_g/P_g ratios to constrain theoretical models. We examined synthetic L_g/P_g ratios for 1-D layered continental crustal models and sought to answer the question whether the gross features of L_g/P_g ratios for shallow explosions and deeper (mid-crustal) earthquakes could be explained with layered crustal models and frequency-dependent intrinsic attenuation. We chose a set of models representative of the diverse range of continental crusts (including thick and thin crusts, thick and thin sedimentary layers, and high and low moho velocities). We then examined several Q models for these crusts (including both frequency and depth dependence of intrinsic attenuation, $Q(f,z)$), and we settled on a relationship that satisfies observed gross features of L_g/P ratios. Green's functions were computed at several distances for each model with shallow and mid-crustal sources; and the dependence of synthetic regional P and L_g amplitudes as a function of frequency and distance were examined, as well as the corresponding L_g/P ratios. It is a common paradigm for regional calibration that the observed attenuation of

regional P and L_g waves from earthquakes can be used to predict similar behavior for explosions. This calibration strategy assumes that the only differences between regional explosion and earthquake signals are imparted by differences in excitation by the sources. These differences can be associated with both the seismic mechanism and the source depth. The synthetic Green's functions contain both the source excitation (including mechanism and depth effects) and the propagation effects of the crustal waveguide. If layered earth synthetics are representative of "average" regional propagation, then these exercises should provide insight into the ability to discriminate earthquakes and explosions using L_g/P_g ratio measurements in diverse crustal structures.

In a separate study under this contract, we performed a discrimination analysis on an event which occurred in the Kara Sea southeast of the former Russian test site at Novaya Zemlya on August 16, 1997. Although L_g/P ratios could not be used to investigate this event because of the weak L_g signals, we did analyze S/P ratios determined from band-pass filter analyses similar to those which we used for L_g/P ratios. We compared the S/P ratios for several events in the vicinity of Novaya Zemlya observed at common stations and found that the ratio measurements for the 1997 Kara Sea event appeared to be consistent with behavior seen in prior earthquakes and different from that seen in explosions from Novaya Zemlya and elsewhere.

1.3 Report Organization

This report is divided into six sections including these introductory remarks. Section 2 describes the event database which we have been working with. Section 3 discusses the results of the empirical studies including comparisons of the measurement algorithms and corrections of the L_g/P_g ratio measurements based on prior knowledge of regional attenuation. Section 4 describes the modeling studies which have been performed, focusing on investigations of the physical mechanism and efficiency of generation of L_g signals by explosion and other types of seismic sources. Section 5 describes the discrimination analysis of the August 16, 1996 Kara Sea event. Section 6 summarizes the results of this research and offers some recommendations for further study.

2. Database for Regional Discrimination

2.1 Limitations on Regional Data for Discrimination Studies

The available seismic data are not well-suited for testing the reliability of regional discrimination techniques for use in CTBT monitoring. In particular, the database is limited geographically because of the locations of past nuclear explosion tests and the pattern of natural seismicity and other source types; it is also incomplete because many modern seismic stations, which are key to treaty monitoring, have a very limited experience history which may or may not include nuclear explosions recordings and probably does not include observations at regional distances from nuclear explosions and earthquakes for most stations. In our prior report under this contract, we reviewed the characteristics of a large database which has been developed over the years for use in testing potential regional seismic discrimination techniques. We believe that this database coupled with improved theoretical understanding of regional phase behavior and its relationship to the source can provide the basis for forming reliable regional discrimination techniques.

The existing empirical database is valuable because it includes regional seismic recordings from underground nuclear explosions in several different source areas as well as other source types (viz. earthquakes, chemical blasts, and induced events) at comparable epicentral distances and similar propagation conditions. We have noted that the data for the U.S. tend to include more events at nearer regional distances (i.e. less than 1000 km) and that the event magnitudes for these U.S. events are often smaller in order to enable a more direct comparison between the explosions and small earthquakes for the region around NTS. In contrast, many of the Eurasian explosions in the database were only recorded at a limited number of more distant, far-regional stations (i.e. beyond 1000 km); the event magnitudes tend to be larger; and the alternative source types used for comparison tend to have locations removed from the explosion test areas. Therefore, we often encounter differences between nuclear explosions and other source types with respect to source size and propagation conditions when attempting to demonstrate the validity of regional discriminant measures and to identify their dependence on source

characteristics. It should be noted that magnitude differences and station response are probably less critical for the L_g/P ratio discriminant considered here than for some other regional discriminants like regional phase spectral ratios, but propagation differences may be very important.

2.2 Data Used for These Studies

The objective in the empirical element of the present study has been to determine specific procedures for use in measuring L_g/P amplitude ratios as a function of frequency and to determine how those ratios are likely to be affected by propagation path properties. To accomplish this objective we have compared alternative spectral estimation techniques applied to the L_g and regional P signals for selected events from the western U.S. and Eurasia. We have also developed and applied propagation path corrections to the L_g/P_g measurements from several events and analyzed how the corrections affected the L_g/P_g ratios as a function of frequency.

Figures 1 and 2 show the locations of stations and events in the U.S. and Eurasia respectively for which the records were collected and reviewed for use in evaluating the L_g/P ratio measurement techniques and determining effects of propagation path on the measurements during this phase of the study. The western U.S. data tend to be dominated by the near-regional observations of NTS explosions and nearby earthquakes recorded by the Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory (LLNL) seismic network, as noted above, although we also supplemented the database with other nuclear explosions, earthquakes, and chemical explosions recorded at additional regional stations in the western U.S., including some at farther regional distances. However, it should be noted that signal-to-noise level at many of the distant stations is reduced particularly at high frequencies; so that such measurements may not always be useful.

The Eurasian data used in these studies (cf. Figure 2) included nuclear explosions from eastern Kazakhstan in the former Soviet Union, Lop Nor in China, and Novaya Zemlya in northern Russia. We also reviewed the observations from earthquakes in Eurasia at comparable regional distances to the nuclear explosions. As noted above, the seismic stations available for Eurasian nuclear explosions were often at far-regional

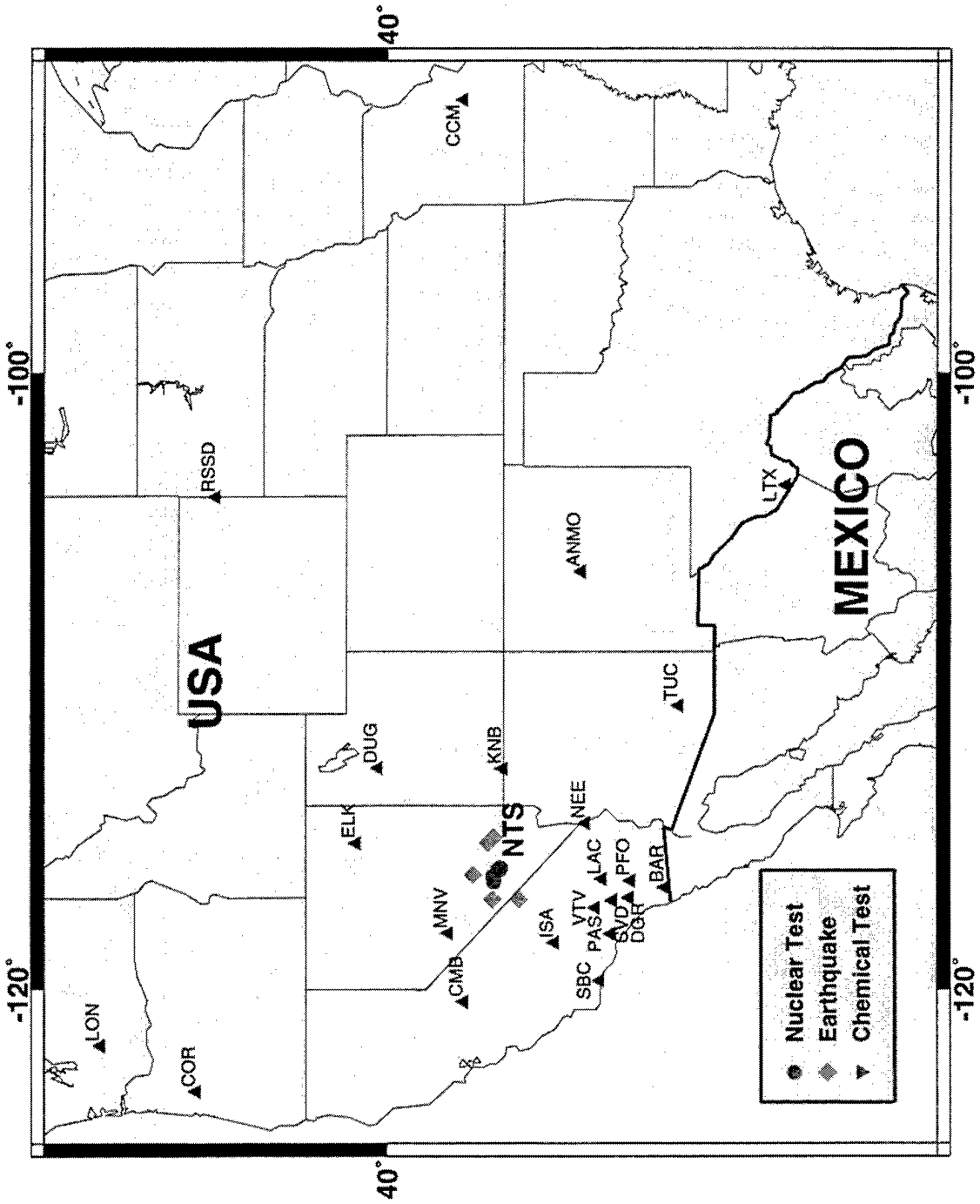


Figure 1. Locations of selected explosions, earthquakes, and stations used in analyzing regional signals from western U. S. events.

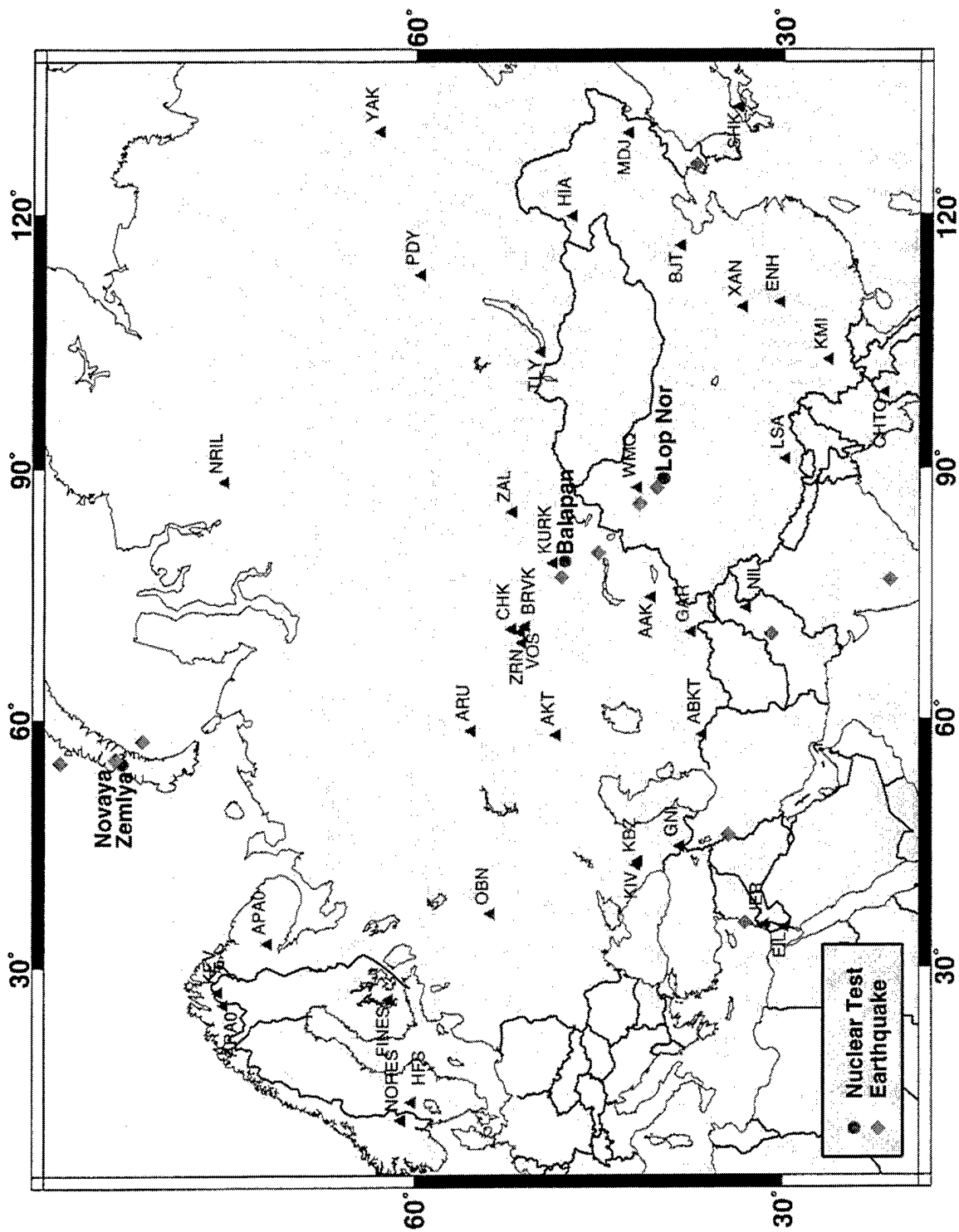


Figure 2. Locations of selected explosions, earthquakes, and stations used in analyzing regional signals from Eurasian events.

distances and beyond; this tends to limit the frequency band over which L_g/P ratios can be reliably measured. Furthermore, along some paths L_g signals are totally blocked and cannot be measured at stations which would normally be in the regional distance range. This is in particular true for events in the vicinity of Novaya Zemlya, which provide a challenge to traditional regional discrimination methods, as described in Section 5 below, although seismic stations often record regional S signals from that source area which appear to provide diagnostic capability.

3. Analyses of the Observed Behavior of L_g/P Ratios

3.1 Background

The L_g/P ratio has long been regarded as one of the most reliable regional discriminants (cf. Blandford, 1981; Pomeroy et al., 1982). Some of the first observations of the use of L_g/P ratios for discriminating explosions from earthquakes were made by Willis (1963) and Willis et al. (1963), who found that nearly 80 percent of earthquakes had larger L_g/P ratios than explosions. However, over the years conflicting evidence has been raised (cf. Pomeroy, 1977; Pomeroy and Nowak, 1979; Murphy and Bennett, 1982) about the reliability of simple L_g/P ratios derived from time-domain peak amplitude measurements to distinguish between explosions and earthquakes. Taylor et al. (1989) found significant separation in L_g/P_g ratios for western U.S. earthquakes and NTS nuclear explosions recorded by the LLNL seismic network. Blandford (19981) discovered that adjusting L_g/P ratio measurements for propagation effects, derived from empirical studies, improved the separation in the discriminant for different source types. Bennett et al. (1989) found that L_g/P ratios for western U.S. events were effective in certain frequency bands but not in others, which possibly explained some of the conflicting evidence found in some of the prior studies.

Bennett et al. (1989, 1992) found that L_g/P ratios for Eurasian events, including nuclear explosions in eastern Kazakhstan, at Lop Nor in China, and at Novaya Zemlya in Russia, and earthquakes at similar distance ranges (i.e. mainly far-regional), were frequency dependent. They showed that the ratios for different event types were mixed

at frequencies of 1 Hz and below, but that they tended to separate at higher frequencies; they also found station-dependent variations in the measurements between events which suggested propagation effects. Baumgardt and Young (1990) and Dysart and Pulli (1990) also looked at the L_g/P ratios from small events in northern Europe recorded at nearer regional stations and found that earthquakes generally produced higher ratios than mineblasts with the differences again being emphasized at higher frequencies.

Based on this experience, regional measurements of L_g/P ratios appear to offer some potential for discriminating underground nuclear explosion tests from earthquakes and other source types. However, there are a number of outstanding issues which must be addressed before L_g/P ratios can be considered to provide a reliable discrimination technique. Probably the most important step in establishing the reliability of any regional discriminant is to determine a physical understanding of how the discriminant behaves and what features of the source and propagation path it may be sensitive to. The goal of the current research has been to improve theoretical understanding of the L_g/P ratio and its dependence on the source. To lay the basis for such theoretical understanding, we have sought to identify the characteristics of L_g/P ratio behavior and its dependence on frequency using consistent procedures to determine regional phase signal spectra for events in different regions.

3.2 Processing Scheme for L_g/P Ratio Measurements

In a prior report under this contract (cf. Bennett et al., 1997a), we used a common band-pass filter analysis procedure to determine L_g/P ratios as a function of frequency for samples of nuclear explosions, earthquakes, rockbursts, and mine explosions from a variety of different tectonic regions including the western U.S. and Eurasia. Figures 3a and 3b show the average L_g/P amplitude ratios for nuclear explosions and earthquakes respectively, as determined by Bennett et al. (1997a). The L_g/P ratios have their highest values at low frequencies and decline toward higher frequencies. At 1 Hz and below, the L_g/P ratios are above one for explosions and earthquakes; and the ratios show little distinction with respect to source type. However, above 2 Hz the explosion L_g/P ratios drop off more rapidly and fall to well below one while the earthquake ratios remain at or

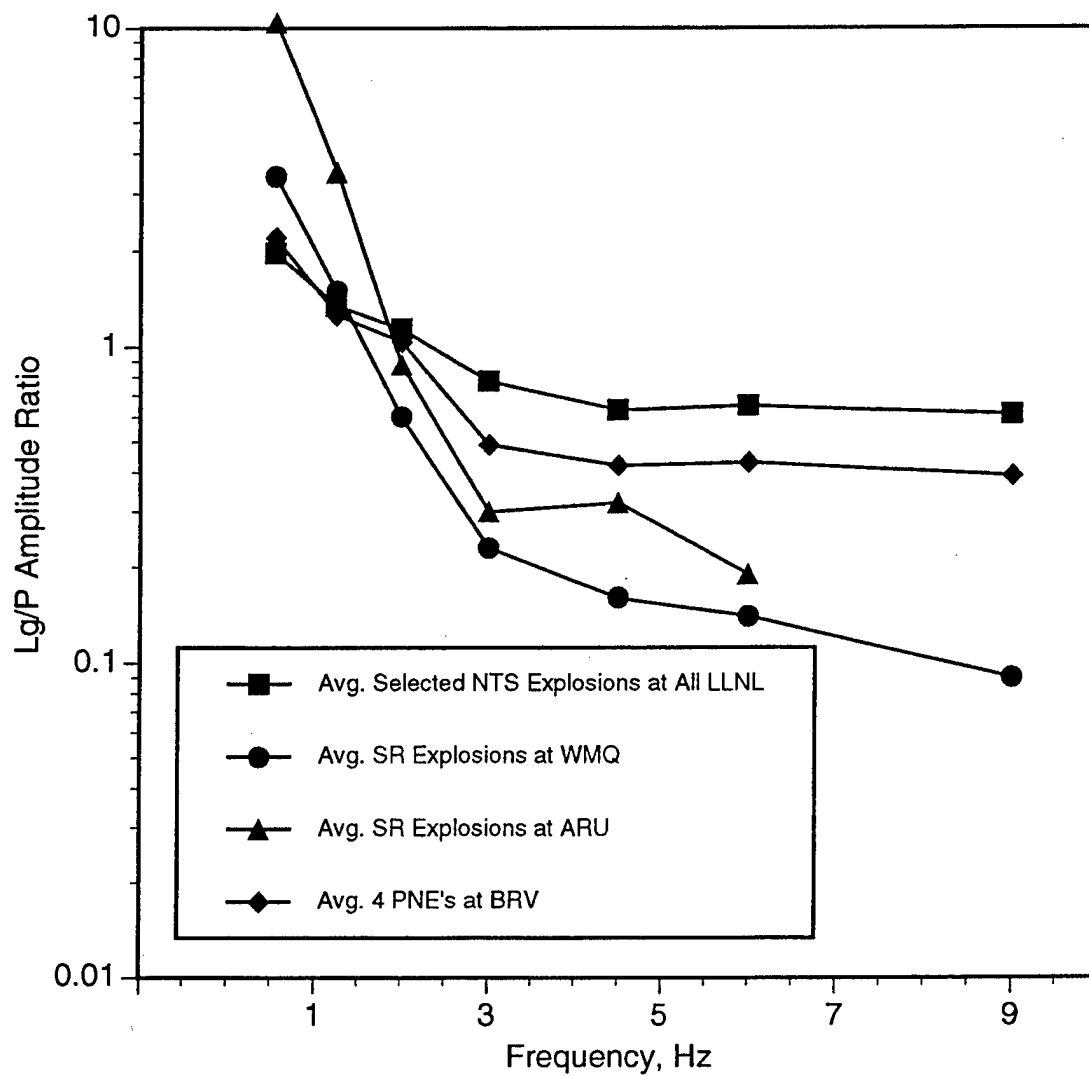


Figure 3a. Average Lg/P ratios as a function of filter center frequency determined from traditional broad band-pass filter analysis for nuclear explosions in the western U.S. and Eurasia (adapted from Bennett et al., 1997).

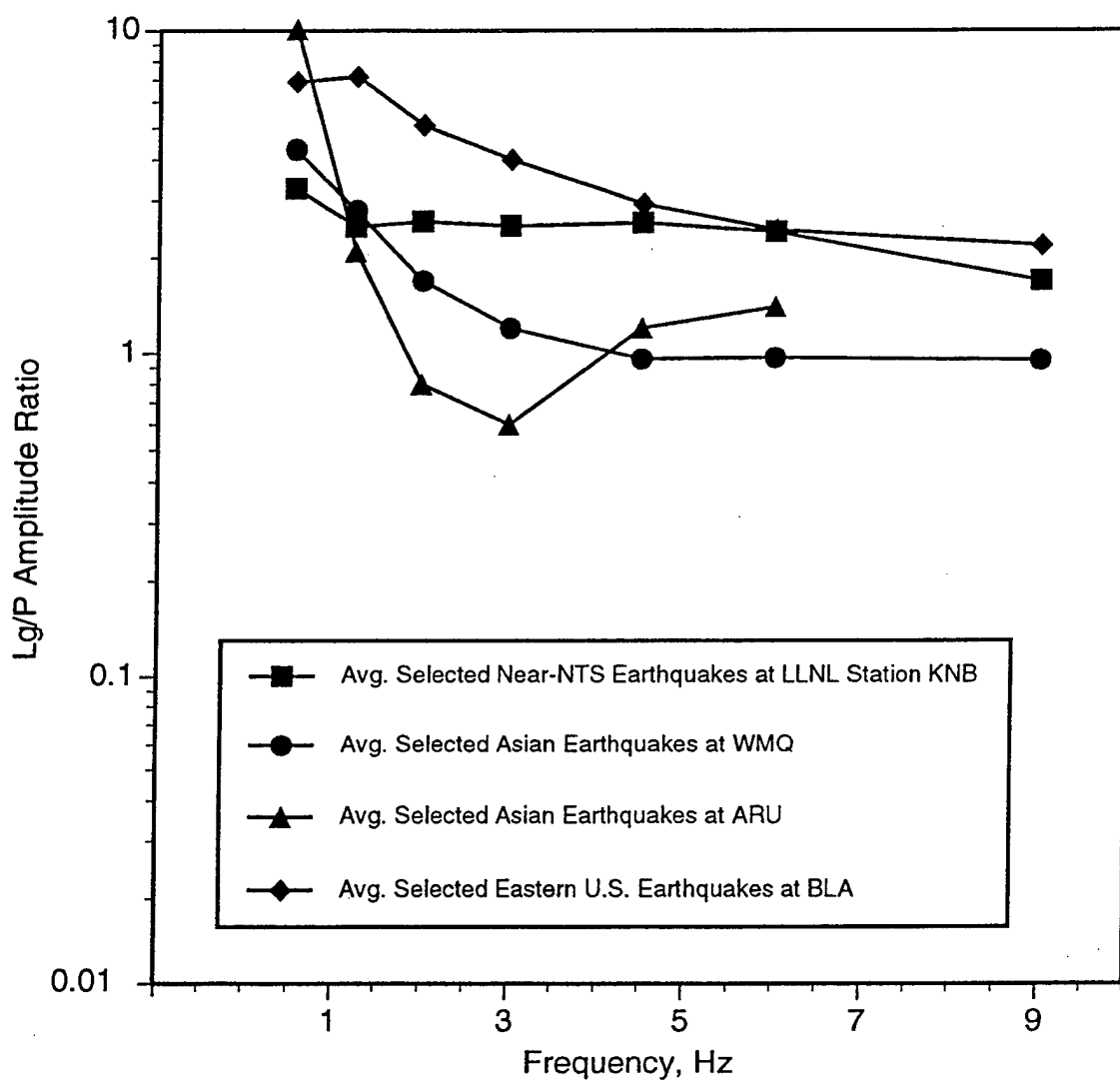


Figure 3b. Average Lg/P ratios as a function of filter center frequency determined from traditional broad band-pass filter analysis for earthquakes in the U.S. and Eurasia (adapted from Bennett et al., 1997).

above one at higher frequencies. As can be seen in Figures 3a and 3b, there remain significant differences in the L_g/P_g ratios. Some of the differences are probably related to propagation path effects caused by differences in the source-station distance and in propagation efficiency associated with regional geologic properties in the different regions where the measurements were obtained. In Section 3.3 below, we investigate how regional attenuation is expected to affect frequency-dependent L_g/P_g amplitude ratios. In this section we focus on a comparison of the processing scheme used to generate the measurements in Figures 3a and 3b with several alternative procedures to obtain the spectral estimations for the L_g/P_g ratios.

The band-pass filters used in many of our previous studies (cf. Bennett et al., 1992, 1995) and those used to develop the measurements in Figures 3a and 3b were fairly broad; the high-frequency corner was usually selected to be twice the low-frequency corner at most frequencies, and beyond the corner frequencies the filter response fell off at 60 dB per octave. The filter spacing was selected so that there was considerable overlap in the passbands between adjacent measurements. Since this technique differs from more established techniques of spectral analysis (e.g. Fourier transform), we ran several test cases to compare alternative methods for spectral analyses of regional phase signals and, in particular, their effect on L_g/P_g ratio measurements. The first two spectral estimation methods involved variations in the amplitude measure for the overlapping broad band-pass filters, as described above. In both of these processes, we used eight filter passbands: 0.5 - 1.0 Hz, 0.75 - 1.5 Hz, 1.0 - 2.0 Hz, 1.5 - 3.0 Hz, 2.0 - 4.0 Hz, 3.0 - 6.0 Hz, 4.5 - 9.0 Hz, and 6.0 - 12.0 Hz. In one case, we followed the approach of prior investigations and simply picked the maximum amplitude of the filter output in the appropriate group velocity window (viz. 3.6 - 3.0 km/sec for L_g and 6.1 - 5.0 km/sec for P_g) to obtain the spectral estimates to form the L_g/P_g ratios. In the alternative method, we computed a RMS average of the amplitudes over the same group velocity windows for each of the filter outputs and used that to determine the spectral estimates and the L_g/P_g ratios. Figure 4 shows a comparison of the results of applying these two approaches to obtain the L_g/P_g ratios as a function of frequency (i.e. filter center frequency) for five NTS nuclear explosions recorded at station KNB ($R \approx 290$ km). The two procedures are

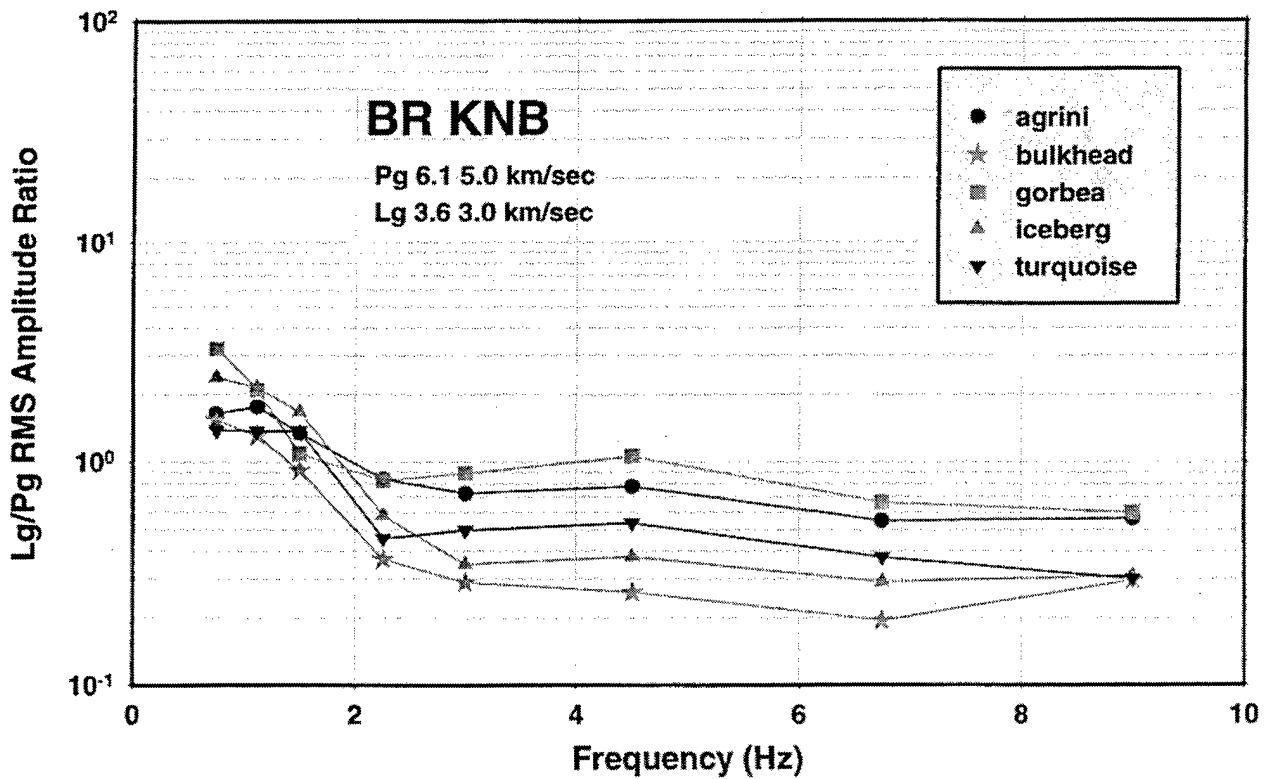
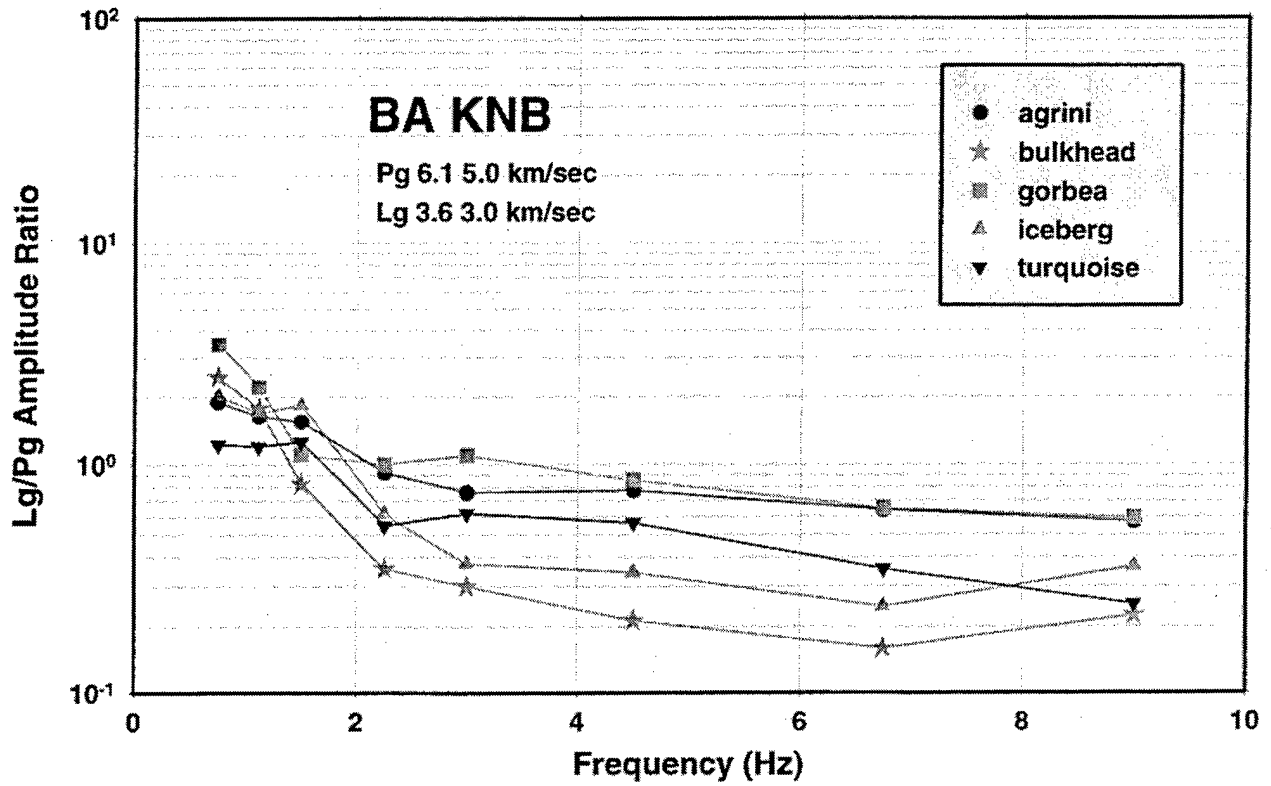


Figure 4. Comparison of L_g/P_g ratios as a function of frequency from peak amplitude (top) and RMS amplitude (bottom) measurements derived using broad bandpass filters for NTS explosions recorded at LLNL station KNB.

seen to produce very similar results. The L_g/P_g ratios for the NTS explosions are generally greater than one at frequencies below about 2 Hz, but fall to below one at higher frequencies. Although we see some differences in the spectral measurements between events, these differences are minor. We have found this to be true also for similar measurements for other regional events in the database and for the individual regional phases as well (cf. Bennett et al., 1997b); spectral estimates based on peak amplitude measurements were nearly identical to those based on RMS average amplitudes.

In our prior report on this contract (cf. Bennett et al., 1997a) and in related studies (cf. Murphy et al., 1996), we briefly described a band-pass filtering scheme which used Gaussian filters to determine the spectra from regional phase signals. These Gaussian filters have much narrower passbands than the filters described above; the Gaussian filters used in our studies had quality factors equal to six times the center frequencies for each band. In our processing we used a suite of filters with center frequencies uniformly spread at intervals of 0.25 Hz over the band from 0.25 Hz to 10 Hz. The spectral estimates were obtained from a RMS average of the amplitudes from the filter output over the regional phase window. For P_g the window covered a group velocity range from 6.1 to 5.0 km/sec and for L_g from 3.6 to 3.0 km/sec. The top of Figure 5 shows the L_g/P_g ratios determined from the Gaussian filter analyses for the same NTS explosions recorded at KNB, as in Figure 4. Comparing between Figure 5 (top) and Figure 4, there appears to be little difference in the general trends of the L_g/P_g ratios determined by the different methods; however, the L_g/P_g ratios from the Gaussian filters seem to have much more detail while the ratios from the broad filter tend to smooth over the differences. Bennett et al. (1997b) noted that the broad filters used to determine regional phase spectral ratios tended to not only smooth the spectra but also inflate the values at higher frequencies. The latter does not seem to hold for the L_g/P_g ratios, presumably because L_g and P_g , determined from the broad filters, experience similar spectral leaking which is eliminated when the ratios are formed.

For comparison we have plotted at the bottom of Figure 5 the L_g/P_g ratios determined from the same five NTS explosions using Fourier analyses to compute the

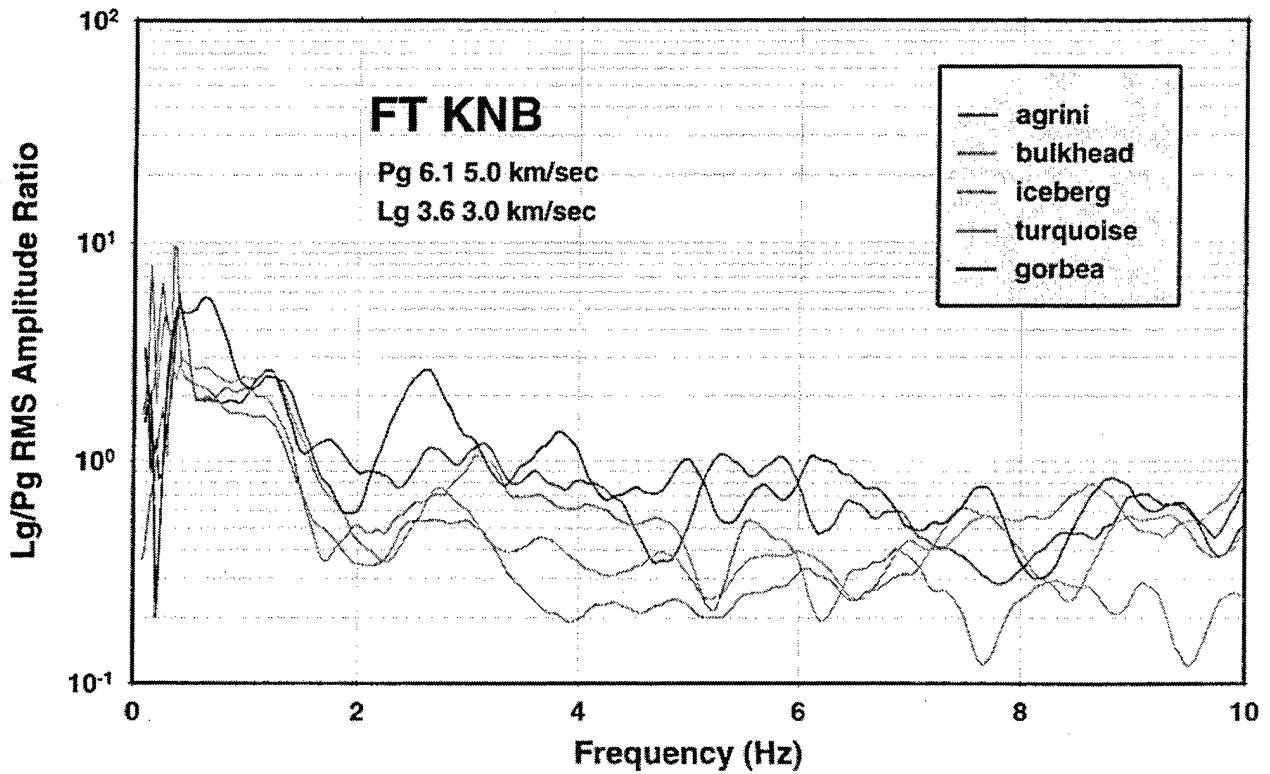
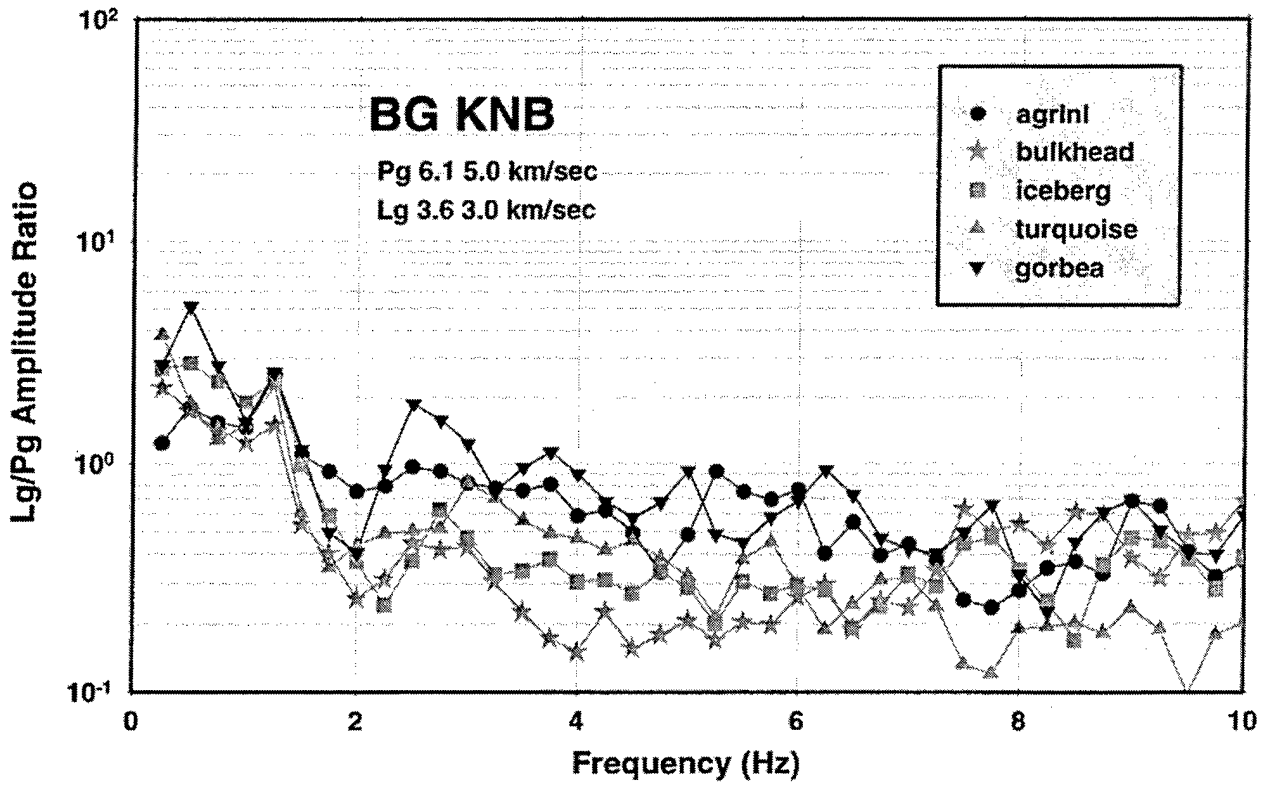


Figure 5. Comparison of L_g/P_g ratios as a function of frequency using narrow bandpass Gaussian filters (top) and Fourier analyses (bottom) for NTS explosions recorded at LLNL stations KNB.

spectra for the P_g and L_g windows before taking the ratios. These Fourier spectra have been smoothed using a running average to achieve approximately the same resolution as for the Gaussian filters. Comparison of the top and bottom plots in Figure 5 indicates that the L_g/P_g ratios determined using the Gaussian filters closely match the ratios determined from Fourier analyses at all frequencies. We have tested this procedure on several additional record samples from the database and found similar results. The Fourier analyses procedures are generally faster than the Gaussian filters for estimating spectra, but we believe that the Gaussian filters offer some operational advantages for real-time processing, because they do not require prior knowledge to set the window for the regional phase spectral estimates.

We would conclude from the kinds of comparisons shown here in Figures 4 and 5 that the specific method used to estimate the regional phase amplitudes as a function of frequency is not, in general, critical to the L_g/P_g ratio measurements. The different band-pass filtering methods which we have applied here produced about the same results as Fourier analyses when used to compute L_g/P_g ratios as a function of frequency. The main differences between the methods appears to be in the frequency resolution, as the broader filters tend to smooth over a range of frequencies. However, for the L_g/P_g ratios the broader filters produce approximately the same overall trend and level as the narrower filters.

3.3 Correction of L_g/P_g Ratios for Path Attenuation

3.3.1 Model for Attenuation Corrections

The behavior of the L_g/P_g discriminant as a function of frequency is critically dependent on properties of the propagation path between the source and the observing seismic station. In particular, L_g and P_g signal measurements at regional distances are affected by attenuation and geometrical spreading characteristic of the propagation path. In this section we analyze how these factors affect the regional phase signals and the corresponding L_g/P_g ratios and describe correction factors, based on prior knowledge of regional attenuation, which may be useful in eliminating path effects from the observations.

The observed regional phase spectrum from a seismic source can be represented as the result of a linear process in which the seismic source spectrum is modified by 1) the site response of the earth's crust in the vicinity of the source, 2) transmission effects along the propagation path between the source and receiver, 3) the site response of the earth's crust in the vicinity of the seismic station, and 4) the response of the recording instrument. In analyzing L_g/P_g ratios as a function of frequency, the response of the recording instrument can be considered the same for L_g and P_g signals; and the recording response factor can be eliminated. Although crustal responses at the source and receiver may affect the L_g/P_g ratios, we are not considering those factors here but are focusing on the propagation path effects alone. We can thus represent the observed regional phase spectrum $A(f,r)$ from the seismic source as

$$A(f,r) = S(f) \cdot G(r,r_0) \cdot e^{-\pi f t / Q(f)} \quad (1)$$

where $S(f)$ = the spectrum of the seismic source (and including other site factors noted above)

f = frequency

r = distance

r_0 = the reference distance

t = travel time

$G(r,r_0)$ = the geometrical spreading term and

$Q(f)$ = the frequency-dependent quality factor describing attenuation.

The frequency-dependent $Q(f)$ is represented by

$$Q(f) = Q_0 \cdot f^\eta \quad (2)$$

where Q_0 = attenuation at 1 Hz and

η = the frequency dependence of Q .

The earth is not homogeneous, and it is assumed that Q_0 and η vary with location and depth. However, because the L_g and P_g phases are confined to a waveguide, we make the simplifying assumption that the average Q_0 and η of the crustal waveguide for each of these phases are representative of the effective attenuation and ignore the depth dependence. Thus, we assume that the Q model consists of point samples (i.e. a grid)

representing the distribution of the Q_0 and η over the earth's crust. The gridded models can be used to calculate the effects of attenuation on the L_g and P_g signals for specific paths. This is done by tracing the source-to-receiver path through the grid of Q values and summing the attenuation contributions from each cell. Thus, for an individual phase and frequency the attenuation factor is

$$\Gamma(f) = e^{-\pi f \sum_{i=1}^n t_i^*} \quad (3)$$

where

$$\sum_{i=1}^n t_i^* = \frac{t_1}{Q_1} + \frac{t_2}{Q_2} + \dots + \frac{t_n}{Q_n} \quad (4)$$

The t_i in Eq. 4 are the travel times spent in the individual grid cells along the path, and the Q values as a function of frequency are given by Eq. 2 for each cell. For geometrical spreading, we assume spherical spreading for distances less than or equal to the reference distance, r_0 , after which spreading is assumed to be cylindrical (e.g. Sereno et al., 1987):

$$G(r, r_0) = \frac{1}{r} \quad \text{for } r \geq r_0 \quad (5)$$

$$G(r, r_0) = \frac{1}{r_0} \cdot \left(\frac{r_0}{r}\right)^{0.5} \quad \text{for } r < r_0 \quad (6)$$

The r_0 used throughout this study is taken to be roughly twice the average thickness of the crust, or about 100 km. Corrections to the L_g/P_g ratio as a function of frequency along any path through the attenuation model can be estimated using this procedure.

Routine application of the attenuation path corrections to observed L_g/P_g ratios from events that might be at any location require a model that includes all continental crustal paths where L_g and P_g may propagate. Gridded L_g coda Q models have been developed for Africa, Eurasia, and the U.S. by Mitchell and his colleagues (cf. Xie and Mitchell, 1990; Mitchell et al., 1996; Mitchell, 1997) using a back projection algorithm that produces a tomographic image of $Q(L_g)$ through inversion of L_g coda amplitude measurements. This model includes attenuation from both intrinsic and scattering mechanisms and, thus, represents an effective Q . The African and Eurasian models were

represented by 3°-by-3° grid cells of fixed Q_0 and η , while the U.S. model had somewhat smaller grid spacing with 2°-by-2° cells. Figures 6 and 7 show composites of the models for Q_0 and η respectively covering all three regions. It should be noted that the η model for Eurasia has been modified somewhat from that originally produced by Mitchell et al., but the modifications do not greatly affect the corrections. The maps are generally consistent with the observed behavior of L_g with relatively high Q in shield and stable platform regions where the attenuation is low and relatively low Q in more active and structurally complex regions where the attenuation is high. We used these models to calculate the attenuation corrections for the L_g spectral measurements, as described above.

Corresponding attenuation models for the P_g phase do not currently exist, and so we decided to estimate the behavior for P_g based on theoretical considerations and using some simple assumptions for the relationship to L_g propagation. The P_g phase has roughly the same path as the L_g phase, both are assumed to propagate in the same crustal waveguide. So, it is not unreasonable to assume that $Q(P_g)$ should be related to $Q(L_g)$. If the crust were a Poisson solid (i.e. all loss is related to shear), the $Q(P_g)$ would be equal to 2.25 $Q(L_g)$. However, synthetic seismograms computed as part of this study, as described in Section 4, suggest that $Q(P_g)$ approximately equal to $Q(L_g)$ often seems to provide predictions which are more consistent with observed behavior of the L_g/P_g ratios. As scattering increases at high frequencies, the ratio of $Q(P_g)$ to $Q(L_g)$ would be expected to decrease (cf. Taylor et al., 1986). A reasonable approach then might be to assume a large value of the ratio at low frequencies where scattering is minimal and a lower value of the ratio at high frequencies where more crustal scattering is expected. The final development of such a relationship is beyond the scope of the work presented here. However, we have attempted to explore some of the expected effects of the potential range in the relationship between $Q(P_g)$ and $Q(L_g)$ and how that would affect the attenuation corrections to the L_g/P_g ratios.

If the attenuation model described here is to be proven reliable for correcting L_g/P_g amplitude ratio measurements on a routine basis, several outstanding issues must be resolved. The L_g attenuation model needs to be validated with additional observations

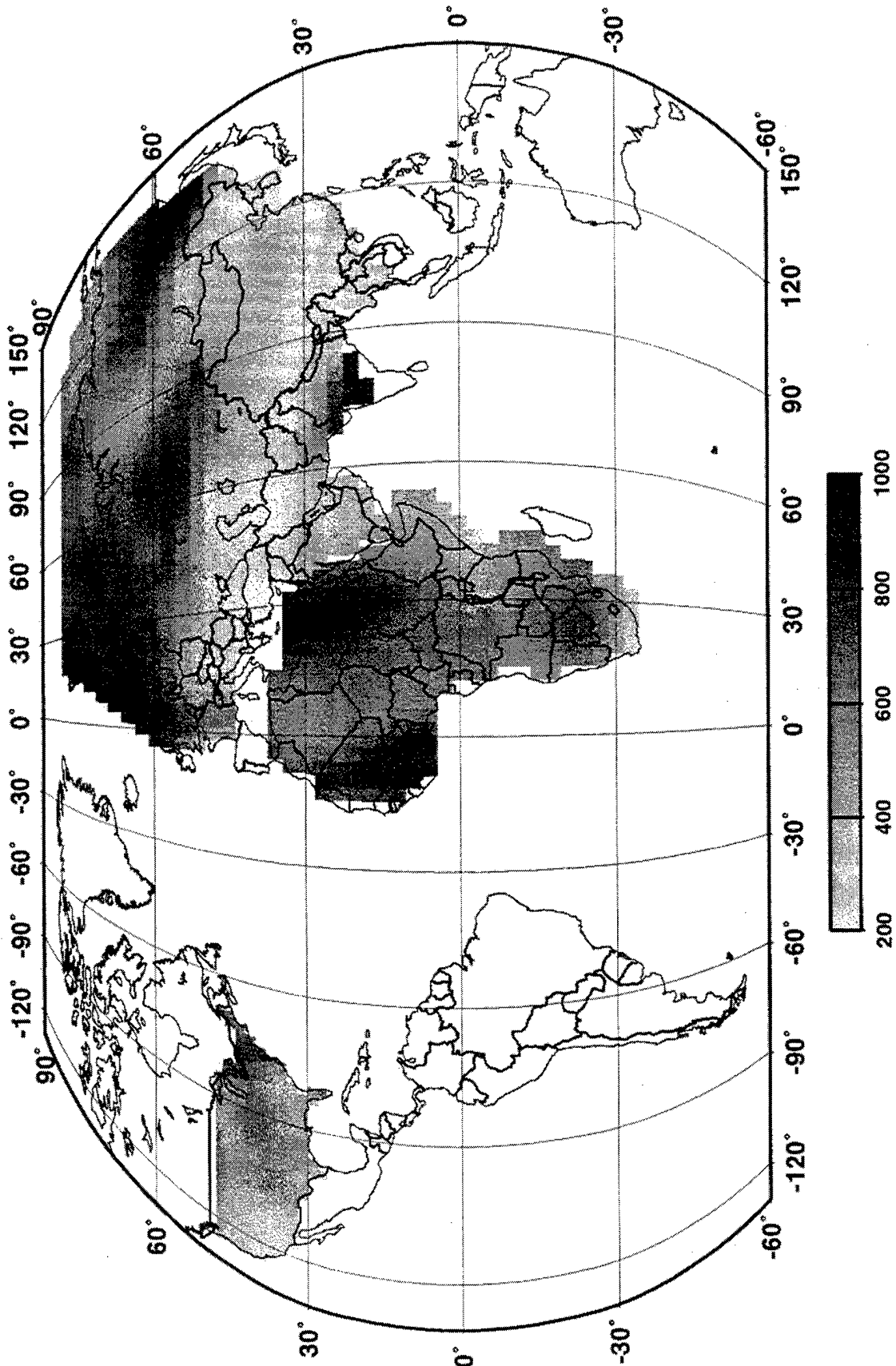


Figure 6. Attenuation at 1Hz (Q_0) from Lg Coda adapted from coda-Q studies of Mitchell et al. (cf. Xie and Mitchell, 1990, Mitchell et al., 1996)

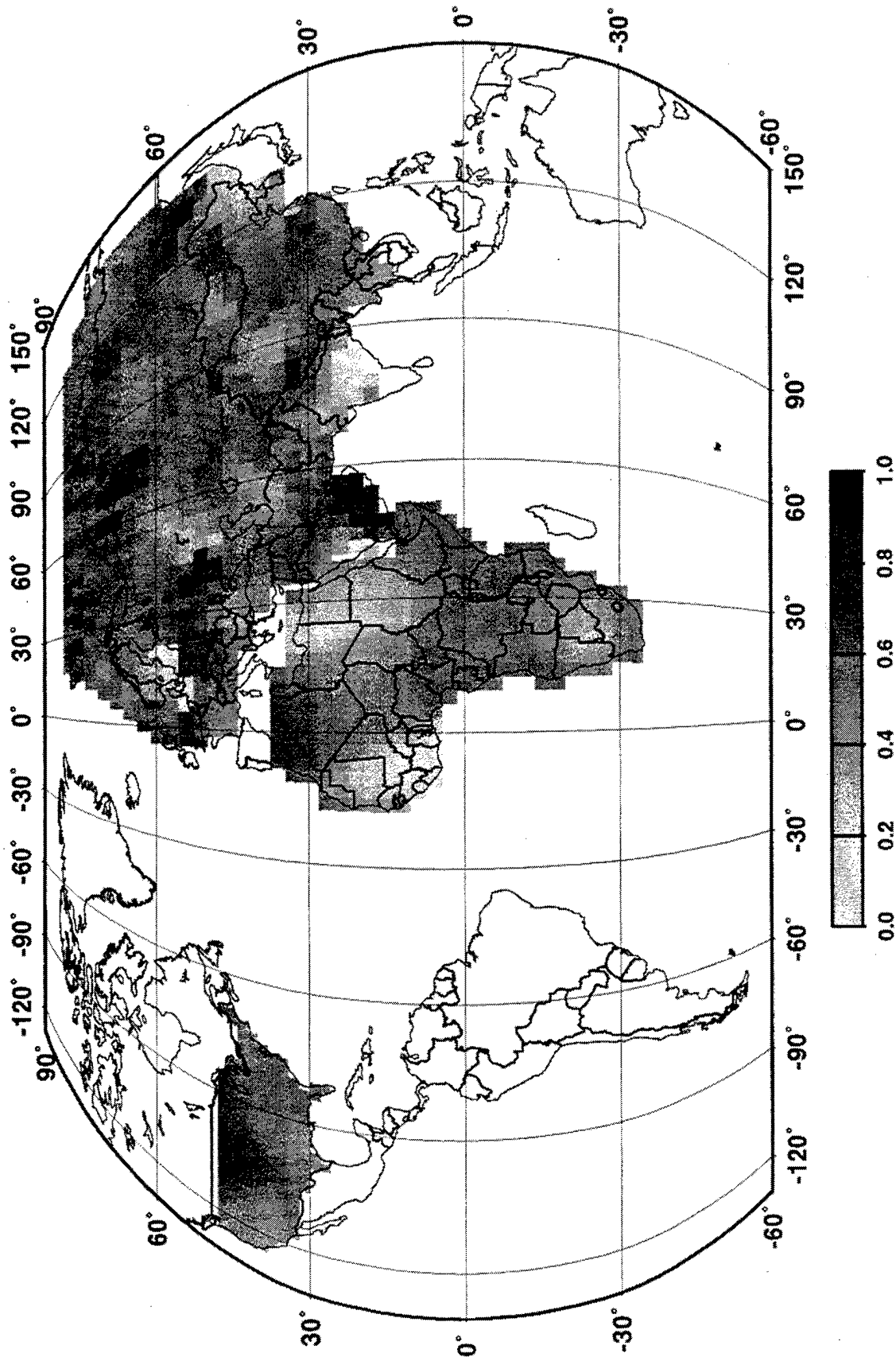


Figure 7. Frequency dependence of attenuation (η) from L_g coda adapted from work by Mitchell et al. (cf. Xie and Mitchell, 1990, Mitchell et al., 1996)

from L_g signals in various areas, and a corresponding model for P_g attenuation needs to be derived and similarly validated. Rather than undertake this large task in the short time allotted for this study, we have assumed that the attenuation model for L_g is accurate (it was derived from independent studies as noted above); and then we have explored the range in the corrections to the L_g/P_g ratios that would be applied under different assumptions about the relationship between the L_g and P_g attenuation models.

To obtain a feeling for the relative size and importance of the L_g/P_g corrections, we can generate maps of the L_g/P_g attenuation corrections derived from the models described above for selected frequencies. Such maps can be developed either for the region surrounding a regional seismic station or (using the principle of reciprocity) for the region surrounding a source. The station maps would represent the corrections that would be applied to the L_g/P_g observations at that station for events in the surrounding region; and source maps would give the attenuation corrections to the L_g/P_g observations from a particular event at stations in the region around that source. For this study we have focused on events located at NTS and Lop Nor as recorded at stations in the surrounding regions, and we show the maps of the corrections for frequencies of 1 Hz, 2 Hz, 4 Hz, and 8 Hz. These maps are shown in Figures 8 and 9 for the regions surrounding NTS and Lop Nor respectively. In generating these maps we assumed that $Q(P_g)$ was equal to $1.67 Q(L_g)$; this relational value falls roughly in the middle of the range of likely values for the $Q(P_g)/Q(L_g)$ ratio. Many subtleties of the attenuation corrections are difficult to discern in the gray-scale map presentations shown. The effects of the lateral variations in the Q models are generally seen much more for the high-frequency plots than for the low-frequency plots. At 1 Hz the plots of the L_g/P_g attenuation corrections appear nearly radially symmetric; there appears to be only slightly larger correction factors for paths toward southerly azimuths from the vicinity of Lop Nor. At 1 Hz the correction factors are all fairly modest, covering a range from 10^{-1} to about 10^1 for the region around NTS and a range from 10^{-1} to about 10^2 for the region around Lop Nor, with the corrections increasing outward with distance from the source area. At 2 Hz the correction factors show somewhat greater range, between 10^{-1} and 10^2 around NTS and between 10^{-1} and 10^3 around Lop Nor, but corrections continue to show

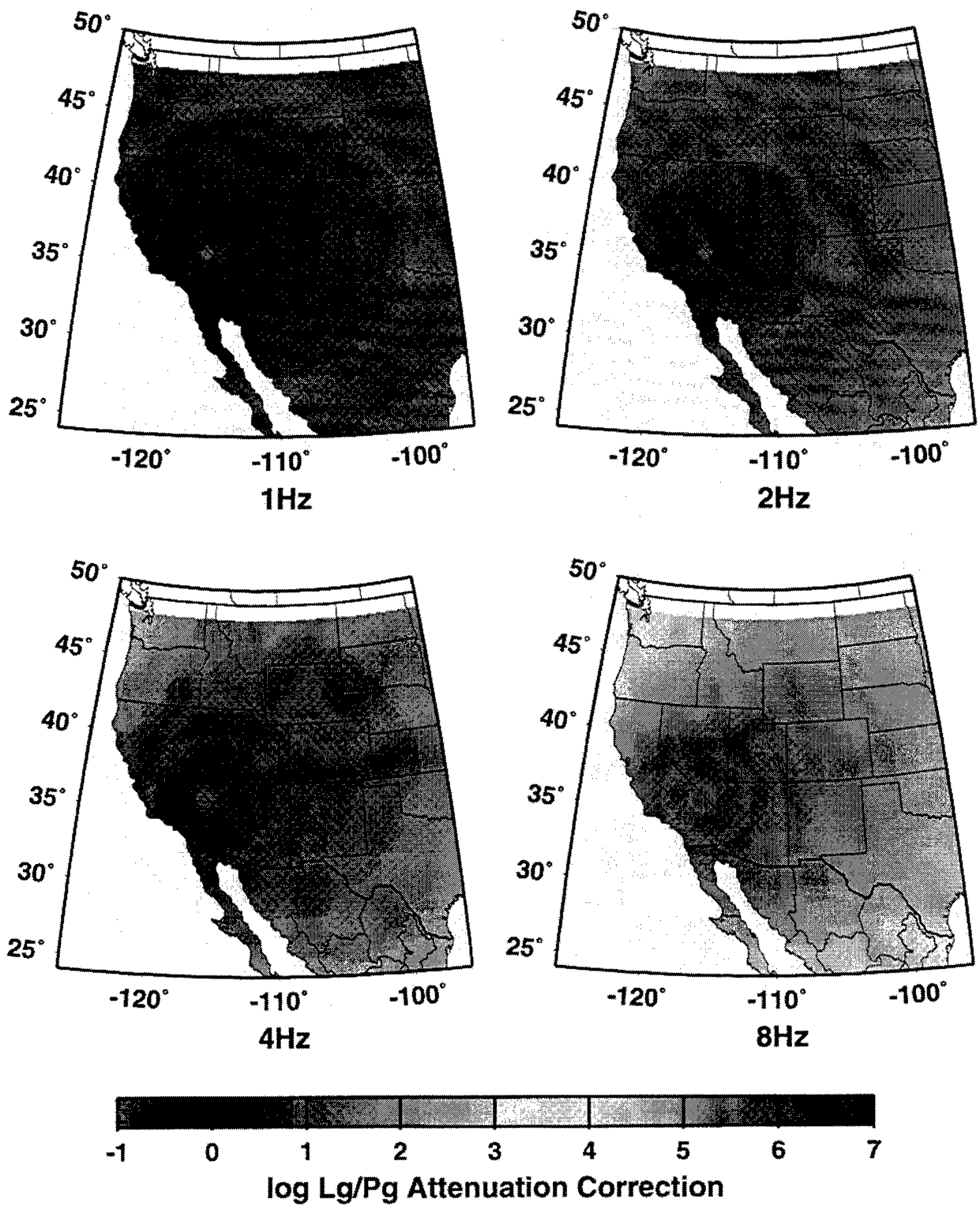


Figure 8. Predicted L_g/P_g attenuation correction factors in the surrounding region of a source at NTS for four frequencies assuming $Q_{Pg}=1.67Q_{Lg}$.

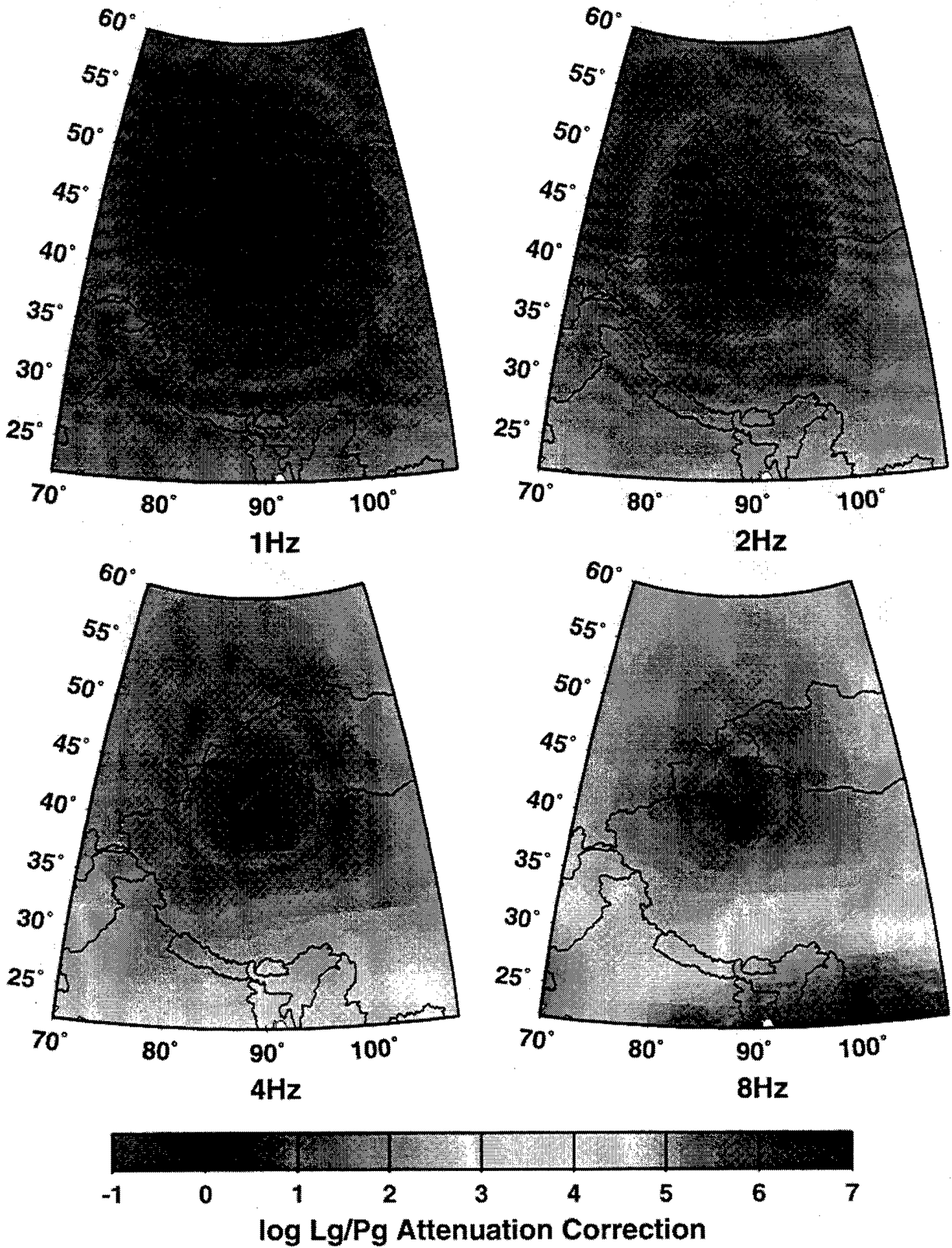


Figure 9. Predicted L_g/P_g attenuation correction factors in the surrounding region of a source at Lop Nor China for four frequencies assuming $Q_{Pg}=1.67Q_{Lg}$.

generally a uniform increase outward except for again slightly greater factors at southerly azimuths and at northeasterly azimuths from Lop Nor. The range around NTS at 4 Hz is between 10^{-1} and $10^{2.5}$ and between 10^{-1} and $10^{4.5}$ around Lop Nor. At 4 Hz the corrections are somewhat greater at southeasterly and northwesterly azimuths from NTS, and they are greater at southerly and northeasterly azimuths from Lop Nor. Finally, at 8 Hz the L_g/P_g correction factors range from about 10^{-1} to 10^4 around NTS and from 10^{-1} to nearly 10^7 around Lop Nor; the correction factors increase more rapidly along southeasterly and northwesterly azimuths from NTS and along southeasterly and northeasterly azimuths from Lop Nor. To the southwest of Lop Nor there appears to be a tongue of less-rapid attenuation followed by a rapid increase in the attenuation factor.

Our studies have also found that the attenuation factors for the L_g/P_g ratios can be fairly sensitive to the relation between $Q(P_g)$ and $Q(L_g)$, which has been assumed to be a constant multiplicative factor

$$Q(P_g) = B \cdot Q(L_g) \quad (7)$$

With this assumption the ratio of the L_g/P_g attenuation terms from Eq. (1) above simplifies to

$$\frac{L_g}{P_g} \text{ Ratio} = e^{\left(-\pi f \frac{d}{v_{L_g} Q(f)} + \pi f \frac{d}{v_{P_g} B Q(f)} \right)} \quad (8)$$

where d is the source-station distance and v_{L_g} and v_{P_g} are group velocities corresponding to those regional phases. As B increases so does the attenuation correction factor (which is simply the inverse of Eq. (8)) for the L_g/P_g amplitude ratios; the effect should be larger at large distances and at higher frequencies.

The effect of the parameter B on the L_g/P_g amplitude ratio correction can be seen by looking at the ratio of the correction terms for two different assumed values of B : $B = 2.25$ (Poisson solid) and $B = 1.0$ (high degree of scattering). We mapped the differences in the L_g/P_g attenuation correction factors for the regions surrounding NTS and Lop Nor at the same set of frequencies (viz. 1 Hz, 2 Hz, 4 Hz, and 8 Hz). These are shown in Figures 10 and 11 respectively. For the region surrounding NTS, the difference in the attenuation correction factors is between 10^{-1} and 10^1 at 1 Hz, between 10^{-1} and 10^2 at 2

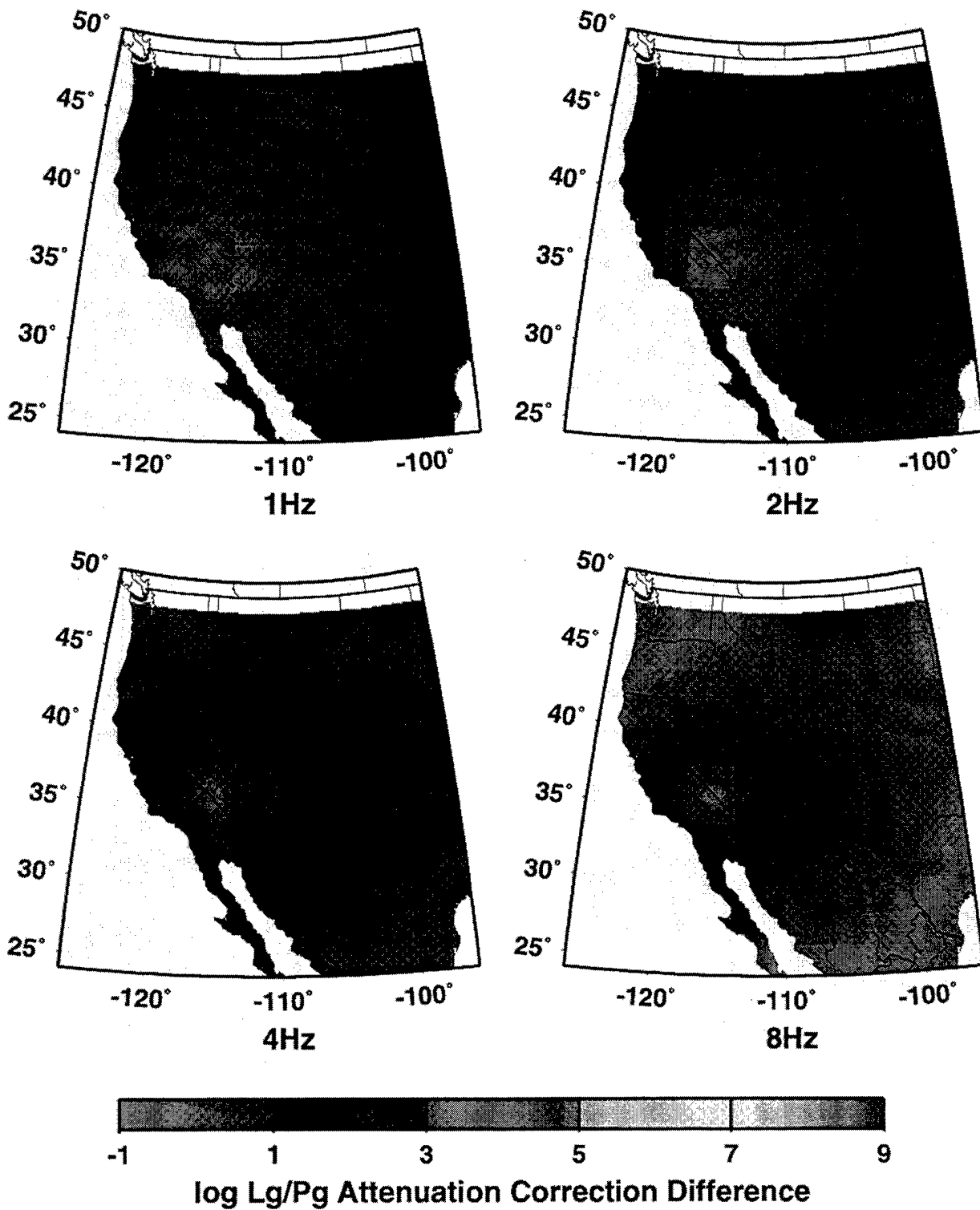


Figure 10. Predicted differences in L_g/P_g attenuation correction factors in the surrounding region of a source at NTS for four frequencies based on assumptions of $Q_{Pg}=2.25Q_{Lg}$ and of $Q_{Pg}=1.0Q_{Lg}$.

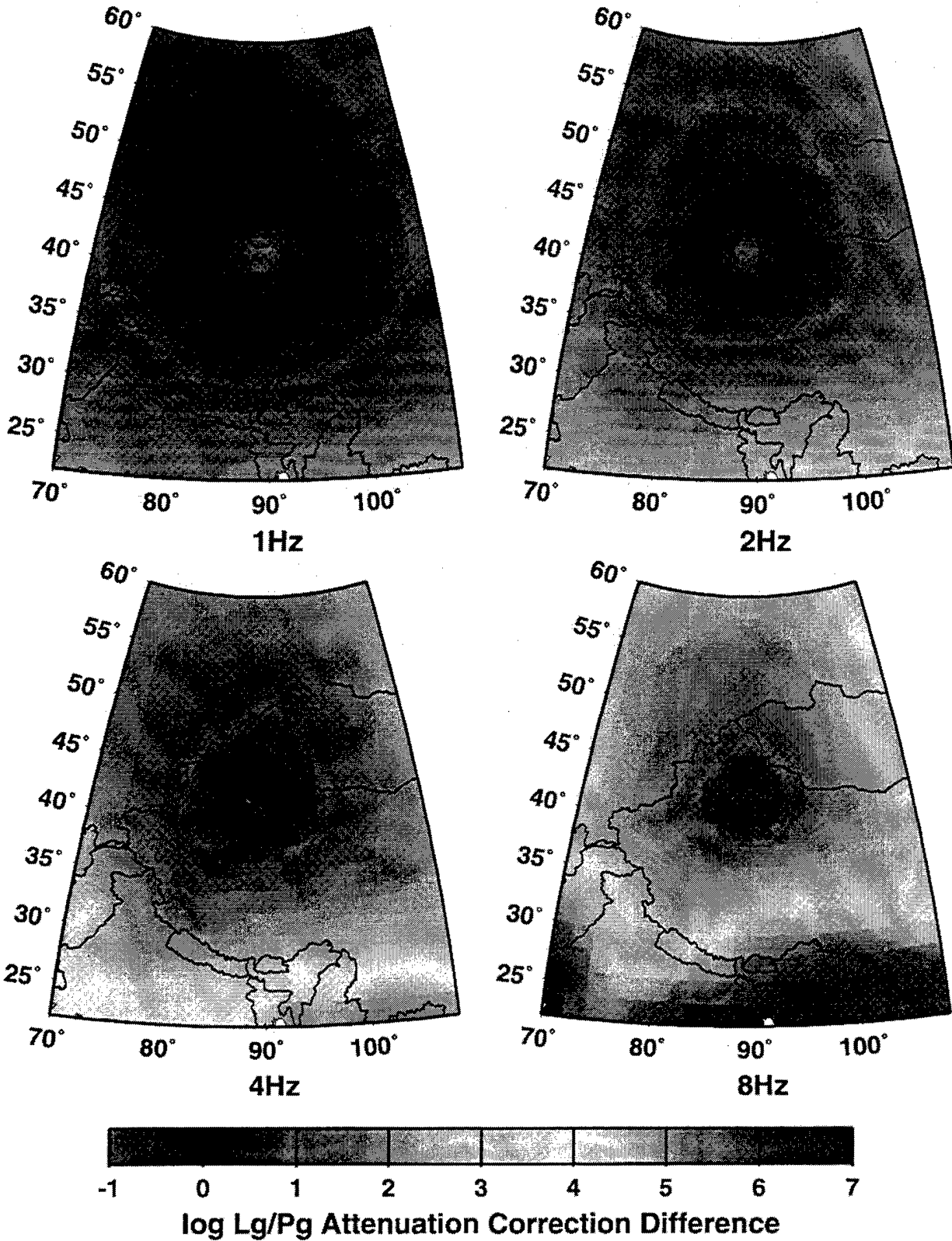


Figure 11. Predicted differences in L_g/P_g attenuation correction factors in the surrounding region of a source at Lop Nor China for four frequencies based on assumptions of $Q_{Pg}=2.25Q_{Lg}$ and of $Q_{Pg}=1.0Q_{Lg}$.

Hz, between 10^{-1} and 10^3 at 4 Hz, and between 10^{-1} and 10^4 at 8 Hz. Again, the correction differences are seen to follow a generally radial pattern of increasing values with increasing distance; although there again appears to be a slight tendency for more rapid increase to the northwest and southeast away from the NTS source region, which is only really apparent at the highest frequencies. For the region surrounding Lop Nor in Figure 11, the difference in the L_g/P_g attenuation correction factors is between 10^{-1} and $10^{2.5}$ at 1 Hz, between 10^{-1} and $10^{3.5}$ at 2 Hz, between 10^{-1} and $10^{5.5}$ at 4 Hz, and between 10^{-1} and $10^{7.5}$ at 8 Hz. For the Lop Nor region the correction differences again appear to increase more rapidly toward southerly azimuths. Therefore, it seems clear that the range in the L_g/P_g attenuation correction will depend fairly strongly on the correct choice of the B parameter. It is anticipated that with some calibration efforts (particularly for P_g attenuation) it should be possible to more closely resolve L_g/P_g path corrections. Until then, it would appear to be expedient to place the most reliance on comparisons at comparable epicentral distances and at similar frequencies. In particular, these studies suggest that observations at closer regional distances and at lower frequencies should be less prone to variations introduced by propagation effects.

3.3.2 Effects of Attenuation Corrections on Observed L_g/P_g Ratios

Given the uncertainties of P_g propagation characteristics and lacking a firm relationship between L_g and P_g attenuation, it would be premature to apply propagation corrections to large samples of L_g/P_g ratio observations. However, we did apply a nominal attenuation correction, based on the procedures described in the preceding section, to the L_g/P_g ratio measurements from a small sample of selected events to see what effects such adjustments might have on the discriminants. For the selected database, we used the regional signals at LLNL station KNB for five NTS nuclear explosions, all at distances of about 270 km, and for five earthquakes in the vicinity of NTS, at ranges from 200 km to 380 km. The same Gaussian band-pass filtering process, as described in Section 3.2 above, was used to determine the L_g/P_g ratios as a function of frequency. For P_g attenuation we assumed $Q(P_g) = 1.67 Q(L_g)$ and derived the corrections to the L_g/P_g ratios following the method developed in Section 3.3.

Figure 12 shows the L_g/P_g ratios as a function of frequency for the five NTS explosions after corrections for attenuation. By comparing Figure 12 with Figure 5 above, we can see the effect of the corrections. The L_g/P_g ratios before the corrections showed an overall trend decreasing by about a factor of ten (from a ratio of about 2.5 to a ratio of about 0.3) between 0.5 Hz and 10 Hz. After the corrections, the L_g/P_g ratios over the same frequency range show a trend which is nearly flat with frequency, with the ratio values averaging about two. The corrections clearly have little effect on the scatter in the measurements between the different events; but this is to be expected since all five explosions have nearly the same path to KNB, and the signals would, therefore, experience approximately the same attenuation. We can conclude from this that the kind of variability (about a factor of five) seen in the L_g/P_g ratio measurements in Figure 12 is inherent in the observations and may be associated with source or random measurement differences. Figure 13 shows similar attenuation-corrected L_g/P_g ratios as a function of frequency for five earthquakes recorded at KNB. The overall trend of the L_g/P_g ratios in this case shows an increase of about a factor of three to four over the frequency range from 0.5 Hz to 10 Hz. So, after the attenuation corrections there still appears to be differences in the L_g/P_g ratios between earthquakes and explosions, with the earthquakes showing significantly higher ratios with the biggest differences at higher frequencies. Somewhat surprisingly the scatter in the earthquake observations isn't any greater than that of the explosions, and at some frequencies it may actually be less.

Figure 14 shows a comparison of the L_g/P_g ratio measurements and their associated standard deviations for the explosions and earthquakes in the small event sample before (top) and after (bottom) the attenuation corrections. The measurements for both the corrected and uncorrected L_g/P_g ratios are generally intermingled at frequencies below about 2 Hz, but above 2 Hz we see nearly complete separation at the mean $\pm 1 \sigma$ level for both the corrected and uncorrected ratios. After the attenuation corrections have been applied, the average L_g/P_g ratios for the explosions are nearly level at a value of about two over the frequency from 3 Hz to 10 Hz. Over the same band the corrected earthquake L_g/P_g ratios show a slight increase with frequency and an average value of about ten. In fact, the factor of five difference in the ratios between the

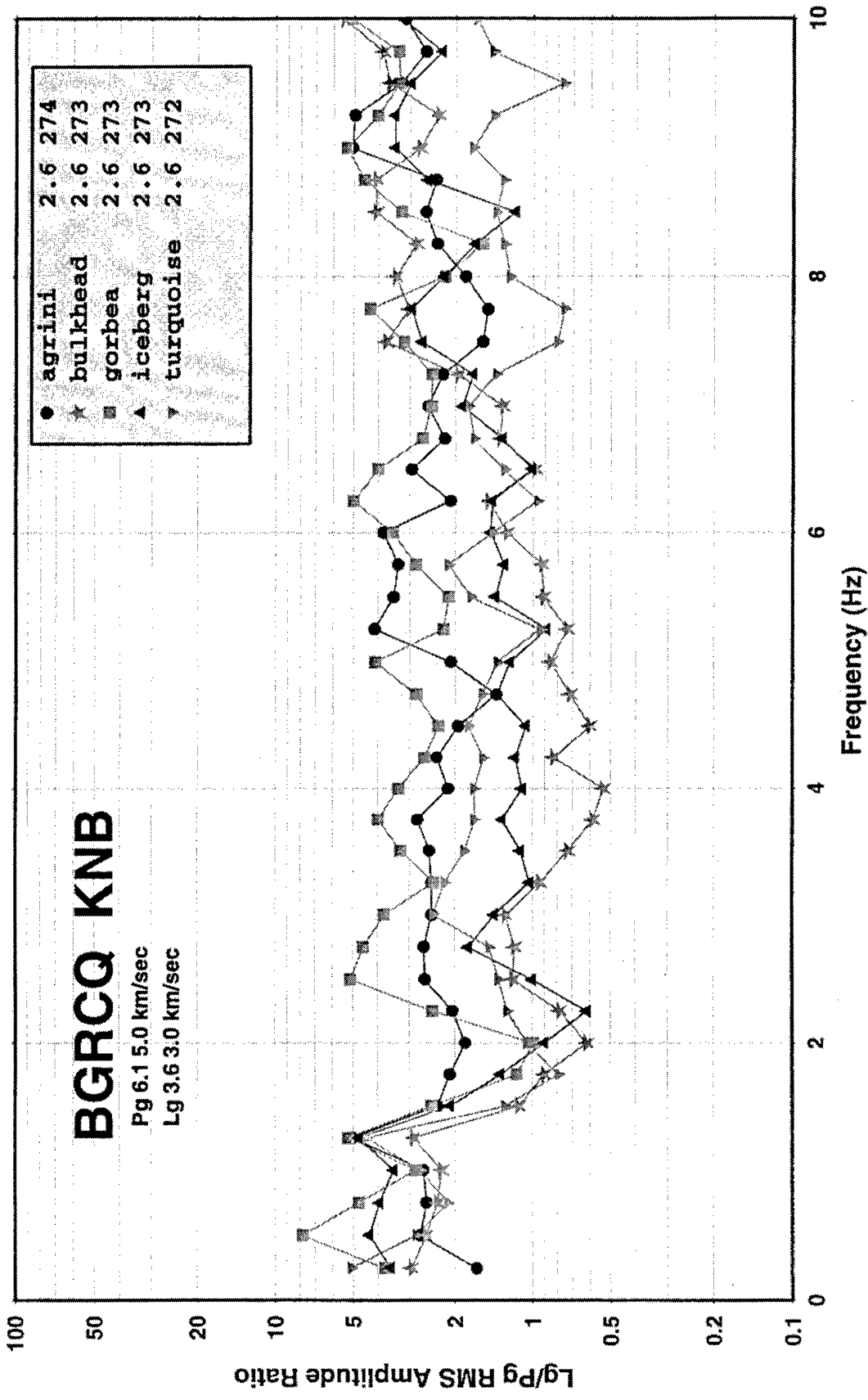


Figure 12. L_g/P_g ratios as a function of frequency at station KNB for 5 NTS explosions after corrections for attenuation.

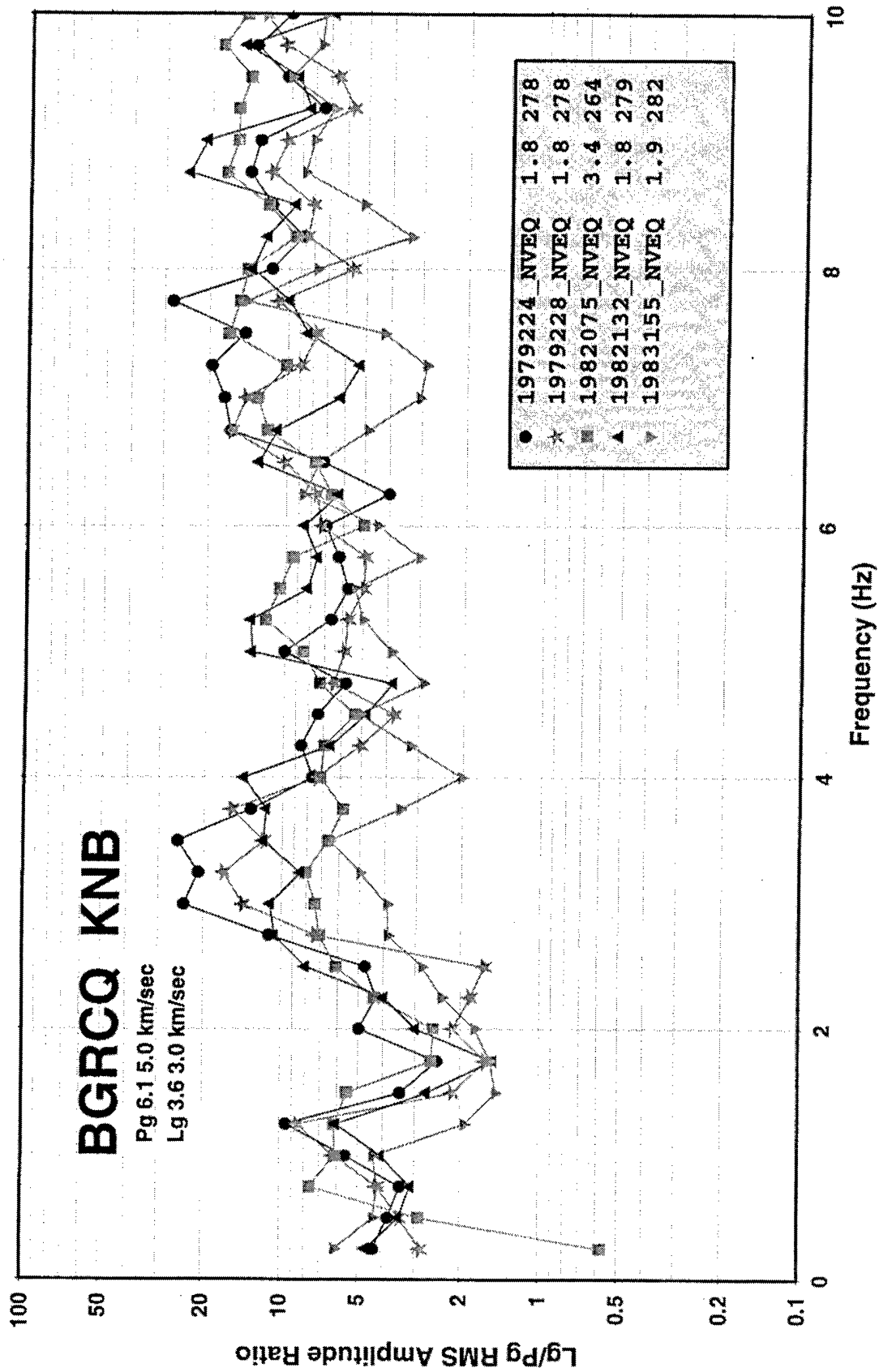


Figure 13. L_g/P_g ratios as a function of frequency at station KNB for 5 earthquakes near NTS after corrections for attenuation.

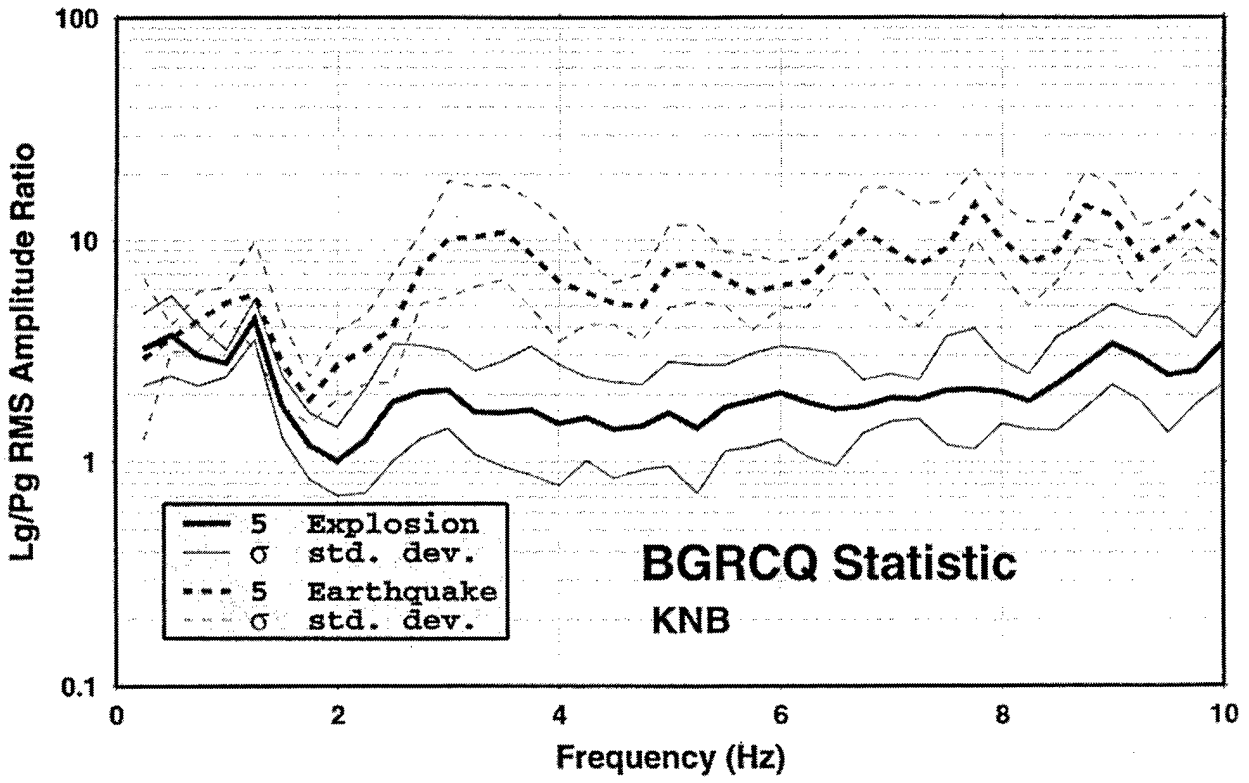
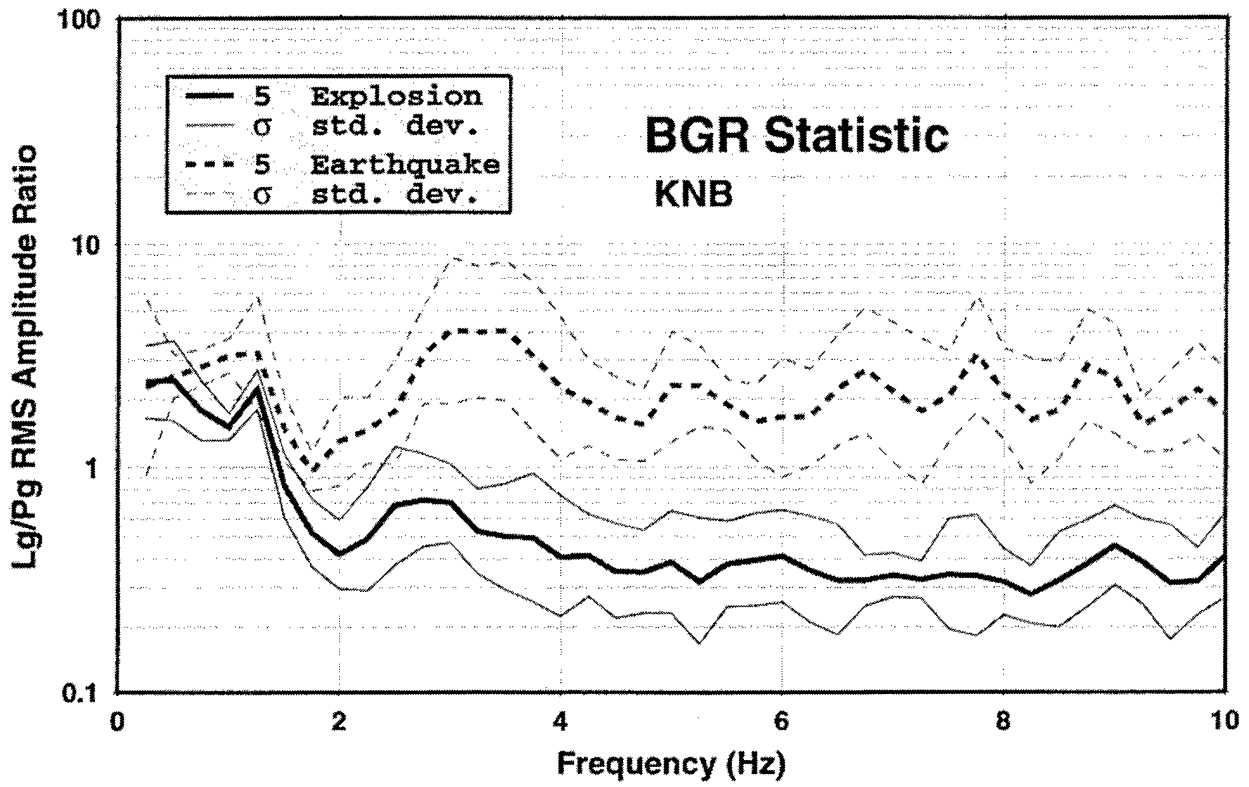


Figure 14. Comparison of mean and standard deviations for L_g/P_g ratios as a function of frequency for NTS explosions and nearby earthquakes recorded at LLNL station KNB before (top) and after (bottom) corrections for attenuation.

earthquakes and explosions does not seem to be affected much by the attenuation corrections. However, there does appear to be a slight improvement in the scatter for the measurements after the corrections have been applied. We notice the reduction in the scatter mainly for the earthquakes, because the source-station path for the explosions does not change much between events so that the path corrections there cannot do much to improve the scatter, as noted above.

4. Theoretical Modeling of L_g/P_g Ratio Behavior

4.1 Constraints on $Q(L_g)$ -vs- $Q(P_g)$ From L_g/P_g Ratio Observations

Many researchers have adopted a simple empirical attenuation model for regional phases. The model pre-supposes that regional phases are waves propagating in the crustal and upper mantle waveguides. They assume that the problem may be broken into source, path and receiver sections. The source type determines the initial spectral composition of the regional phase, the path consists of geometrical and anelastic attenuation, and receiver effects account for local site effects at each station. If we take the simple "empirical" L_g and P_g amplitude-frequency-distance model on face value then we would predict $\text{Log}_{10}(L_g/P_g)$ values as a function of frequency, f , and distance, Δ , of the form:

$$\text{Log}_{10}\left(\frac{L_g}{P_g}\right) = \text{Log}_{10}\left[\frac{A_{L_g}(f)}{A_{P_g}(f)}\right] \cdot (\pi \text{Log}_{10}(e) \cdot \Delta) \cdot \left[\frac{f(1-\eta_{L_g})}{Q_0(L_g)U_{L_g}} - \frac{f(1-\eta_{P_g})}{Q_0(P_g)U_{P_g}}\right] + \varepsilon$$

where $\text{Log}_{10}[A_{L_g}(f)/A_{P_g}(f)]$ is the initial relative excitation of L_g and P_g as a function of frequency for the specific source at distance. The Q_0 and η describe the attenuation at 1 Hz and frequency dependence for the regional phases L_g and P_g which are propagating with group velocities of U_{L_g} and U_{P_g} . It is commonly assumed that this "source term" is the reason for differences between earthquake and explosion L_g/P_g spectral ratios and the physical basis for L_g/P_g discrimination.

It is also commonly assumed that intrinsic attenuation is dominated by shear attenuation. If the P-waves and S-waves pass through the same material, then we might

expect that the ratio of attenuation of the two wave types is given by the familiar 9/4's rule for a Poisson solid, $Q(P_g)/Q(L_g) = 2.25$. Assuming $U_{L_g} = 3.5$ and $U_{P_g} = 6.5$, we plot predicted L_g/P_g spectral ratios in Figure 15 for some representative Q values assuming the initial L_g/P_g excitation ratio is flat with respect to frequency. If we compare the shapes of these plots with observed L_g to P_g plots from Bennett et al. (1997a) in Figures 3a and 3b above, we see that non-zero values of η are favored by observations. L_g/P_g spectral ratios fall off too quickly as a function of increasing frequency if Q does not increase with increasing frequency. There may also be some tradeoff between η and the $Q(P_g)/Q(L_g)$ ratio. If η is not as large as 0.5 then observed L_g/P_g ratios may be consistent with $Q(P_g)/Q(L_g)$ ratios less than 2.25.

4.2 Synthetic Amplitudes from a World-Wide Collection of Crustal Models

We started with a collection of representative crustal models assembled by Mooney et al. (1997). Based on an extensive literature search, Mooney et al. have assigned a representative model for each 5 degree by 5 degree region upon the Earth. From their continental crustal models, listed in Table 1, we have constructed layered models suitable for computation of synthetic seismograms by placing each model on top of a PREM upper mantle model. Stevens and McLaughlin (1997) used these layered earth models as starting models in a world-wide surface wave inversion using 50- to 20-second group and phase velocity data to refine the S-wave velocities of these models. In this work we used the refined continental models of Stevens and McLaughlin to compute suites of synthetic seismograms at selected distances. We then measured P_g and L_g amplitudes from these synthetic seismograms using selected band-pass filters.

A map of the 5 by 5 degree regionalization of the Earth is shown in Figure 16. The continental models span a wide range of crustal types; they range from thin tectonic crusts to thick cratonic shields and from thin sediment cover to thick sediment cover. We have not used the oceanic crustal models in this study. In order to compute regional seismograms, we re-layered the models into maximum 1 km thick layers, applied an Earth flattening approximation, and assigned $Q(f)$ as a function of depth and frequency. We describe in the next section our choice of $Q(f)$ model.

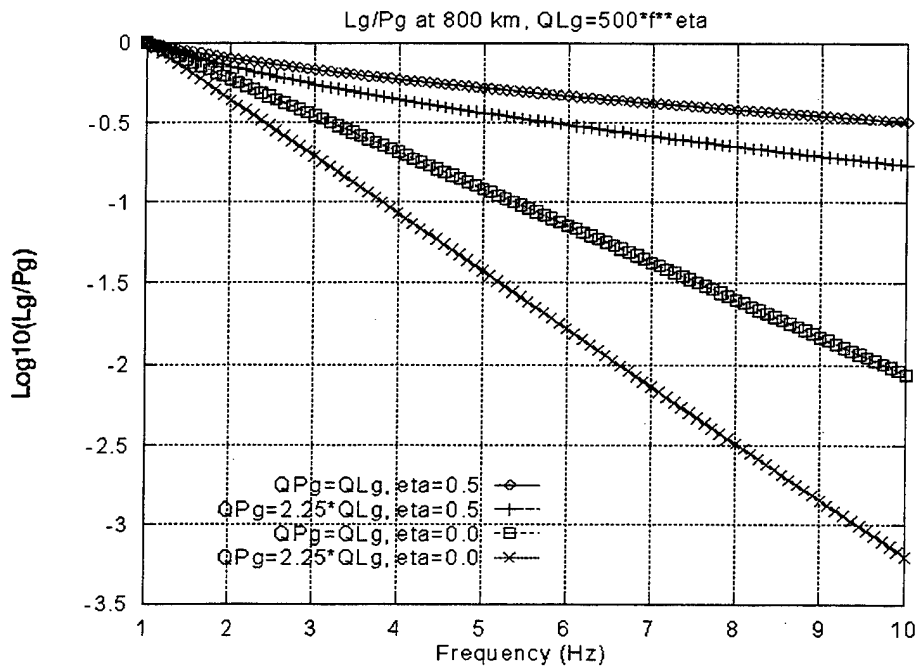


Figure 15. Predicted L_g/P_g spectral ratios normalized to 1 at 1 Hz for $Q(L_g) = 500 \cdot f^\eta$, for two ratios of $Q(L_g)/Q(P_g)$ and two values of η . L_g/P_g ratios fall off too quickly as a function of increasing frequency if Q is independent of frequency, i.e. $\eta = 0$.

Table 1. Listing of Mooney et al. (1997) CRUST 5.1 representative models with “two letter” designations used in the current work.

Model Code - Description
D2 Platform 10 km sediments. Stable Continental
D3 Platform 38 km, 5 km sediments Stable Continental
D4 Platform 46 km, 5 km sediments Stable Continental
D5 Thick Platform 2 km sediments Stable Continental
D6 Platform 2 km sediments Stable Continental
D7 Platform 4 km sediments Stable Continental
D8 Thick Platform 3 km sediments Stable Continental
D9 Platform 1 km sediments Stable Continental
DA Platform 6 km sediments Stable Continental
DB Platform 3 km sediments Stable Continental
DC Platform 0.5 km sediments Stable Continental
DD Platform 5.0 km sediments Stable Continental
DE Thick Platform 1 km sediments Stable Continental
G0 Archean 1 km sediments, Hudson Platform Stable Continental
G1 Archean, no sediments Stable Continental
G2 Archean 0.5 km ice, no sediments Stable Continental
G3 Archean 1 km ice, no sediments Stable Continental
G4 Archean 1.5 km ice, no sediments Stable Continental
G5 Archean 2.0 km ice, no sediments Stable Continental
G6 Archean 2.5 km ice, no sediments Stable Continental
G7 Archean 3.0 km ice, no sediments Stable Continental
G8 Archean 3.5 km ice, no sediments Stable Continental
G9 Archean 4.0 km ice, no sediments Stable Continental
GA Archean 0.5 km sediments Stable Continental
GB Archean 2.0 km sediments Stable Continental
GC Archean 3.5 km sediments Stable Continental

GD	Archean 6.5 km sediments	Stable Continental
GE	Archean, no sediments	Stable Continental
T1	Margin/shield transition, East Siberia, 2 km sediments	Stable Continental
T2	Margin/shield 0.5 km ice, 2 km sediments	Stable Continental
T3	Margin/shield 1 km ice, 2 km sediments	Stable Continental
T4	Margin/shield 1.5 km ice, 2 km sediments	Stable Continental
T5	Margin/shield transition, 5 km sediments	Stable Continental
T6	Margin/shield transition, 1 km sediments	Stable Continental
T7	Margin/shield transition, 3.5 km sediments	Stable Continental
T8	Margin/shield transition, 8.0 km sediments	Stable Continental
H0	early/mid Proterozoic., Finland thick, no sediments	Stable Continental
H1	early/mid Proterozoic., no sediments	Stable Continental
H2	early/mid Proterozoic shield, Finland, no sediments	Stable Continental
H3	early/mid Proterozoic shield, Finland, 0.5 km sediments	Stable Continental
H4	early/mid Proterozoic shield, Africa, 1.5 km sediments	Stable Continental
H5	early/mid Proterozoic shield, Africa, 3 km sediments	Stable Continental
I1	late Proterozoic thin sediments, no sediments	Stable Continental
I2	late Proterozoic thicker sediments, 1 km sediments	Stable Continental
I4	late Proterozoic thicker sediments, 2 km sediments	Stable Continental
I5	late Proterozoic thicker sediments, 5 km sediments	Stable Continental
I6	late Proterozoic thicker sediments, 3 km sediments	Stable Continental
I7	late Proterozoic thicker sediments, 1 km sediments	Stable Continental
I8	late Proterozoic thicker sediments, 7 km sediments	Stable Continental
K1	forearc, New Zealand, California, 2 km sediments	tectonic Continental
K2	forearc, New Zealand, California, 1 km sediments	tectonic Continental
K3	forearc, New Zealand, California, 3 km sediments	tectonic Continental
L1	continental arc, Kamchatka, Cascades, 2 km sediments	tectonic Continental
L2	thin continental arc, Mexico, 2 km sediments	tectonic Continental
L3	continental arc, Southern Andes, 1.0 km sediments	tectonic Continental

L4	thin continental arc, Central America, 3.5 km sediments tectonic Continental
L5	thick continental arc, Southern Andes, 2.0 km sediments tectonic Continental
N1	extended crust, 3 km sediments tectonic Continental
N2	extended crust, 2 km sediments tectonic Continental
N3	extended crust, 1.5 km sediments tectonic Continental
N4	extended crust, 3 km sediments tectonic Continental
O1	highly extend crust, no ice tectonic Continental
O2	highly extended crust, 0.5 km ice tectonic Continental
O3	highly extended crust, 1 km ice tectonic Continental
O4	highly extended crust, 1.5 km ice tectonic Continental
O5	highly extended crust, 2 km ice tectonic Continental
O6	highly extended crust, 2.5 km ice tectonic Continental
O7	highly extended crust, 3 km ice tectonic Continental
X1	Rift, Rio Grande, Baikal tectonic Continental
P1	orogen/46km, Urals, Tethian Orogen, 2 km sediments tectonic Continental
P2	orogen/38km, Alps and Foreland, 2 km sediments tectonic Continental
P3	orogen/50km, Urals, Tethian Orogen, 6 km sediments tectonic Continental
P4	orogen/50km, Urals, Tethian Orogen, 1 km sediments tectonic Continental
Q0	orogen/46km no ice, Rockies, Tarim Basin, 4 km sediments tectonic Continental
Q1	orogen/40km no ice, Appalachians, North Andes Stable/tectonic Continental
Q2	orogen/40 km 0.5 km ice tectonic Continental
Q3	orogen/40 km 1 km ice tectonic Continental
Q4	orogen/40 km 1.5 ice tectonic Continental
Q5	orogen/40 km 2 km ice tectonic Continental
Q6	orogen/40 km 2.5 ice tectonic Continental
Q7	orogen/40 km 3 km ice tectonic Continental
Q9	orogen/40km no ice, Appalachians, North Andes, 1 km sediments Stable/tectonic Continental
QA	orogen/46km no ice, Appalachians, 3 km sediments Stable/tectonic Continental
R0	orogen/60km Tibet Transition, 1 km sediments tectonic Continental

R1	orogen/70km Tibet, 1 km sediments tectonic Continental
R2	orogen/65km Bolivia, 3 km sediments tectonic Continental
R3	orogen/70km Chile, 1 km sediments tectonic Continental
Z1	Phanerozoic, 1 km sediments Stable Continental
Z2	Phanerozoic, 0.5 km sediments Stable Continental
Z3	Phanerozoic, 2 km sediments Stable Continental
Z4	Phanerozoic, 4 km sediments Stable Continental
A0	normal oceanic, 0.15 km sediments Stable Oceanic
A1	normal oceanic 0.5 km sediments Stable Oceanic
A2	normal oceanic 1 km sediments Stable Oceanic
A3	normal oceanic 2 km sediments Stable Oceanic
A4	normal oceanic 3 km sediments Stable Oceanic
A5	normal oceanic 4 km sediments Stable Oceanic
A6	normal oceanic 5 km sediments Stable Oceanic
A7	normal oceanic 6 km sediments Stable Oceanic
A8	normal oceanic 7 km sediments Stable Oceanic
A9	normal oceanic 9 km sediments Stable Oceanic
AA	normal oceanic 10 km sediments Stable Oceanic
B0	melt affected o.c. and oceanic plateaus, 0.20 km sediments Tectonic Oceanic
B1	melt affected o.c. and oceanic plateaus, 0.5 km sediments Tectonic Oceanic
B2	melt affected o.c. and oceanic plateaus, 1 km sediments Tectonic Oceanic
B3	melt affected o.c. and oceanic plateaus, 2 km sediments Tectonic Oceanic
B4	melt affected o.c. and oceanic plateaus, 3.5 km sediments Tectonic Oceanic
B5	thick melt affected o.c., no sediments Tectonic Oceanic
B6	thick melt affected o.c., 0.5 km sediments Tectonic Oceanic
B7	thick melt affected o.c., 1 km sediments Tectonic Oceanic
B8	melt affected o.c. and oceanic plateaus, 4.5 km sediments Tectonic Oceanic
C0	continental shelf, 0.25 km sediments Stable Continental
C1	continental shelf, 0.5 km sediments Stable Continental

C2	continental shelf, 1 km sediments	Stable Continental
C3	continental shelf, 2 km sediments	Stable Continental
C4	continental shelf, 3.5 km sediments	Stable Continental
C5	continental shelf, 5.5 km sediments	Stable Continental
C6	continental shelf, 7.5 km sediments	Stable Continental
C7	continental shelf, 6.5 km sediments	Stable Continental
C8	continental shelf, 10 km sediments	Stable Continental
J1	island arc, Japan, Antarctic, 1 km sediments	tectonic Continental
J2	island arc, 3.5 km sediments	tectonic Oceanic
J3	island arc, 2.5 km sediments	tectonic Oceanic
J4	island arc, 5.0 km sediments	tectonic Oceanic
Y1	thinned cont. crust, Red Sea	tectonic Oceanic
Y2	intermediate. Continental./Oceanic. crust, Black Sea	tectonic Oceanic
Y3	inactive ridge 2 km sediments, Alpha Ridge	tectonic Oceanic
Y4	oceanic plateau with Continental. crust, 0.25 km sediments	Stable Oceanic
Y5	oceanic plateau with Continental. crust, 1 km sediments	Stable Oceanic
Y6	oceanic plateau with Continental. crust, 2 km sediments	Stable Oceanic
Y7	Caspian depression, 12 km sediments	tectonic Oceanic
Y8	oceanic plateau with Continental. crust, 4 km sediments	Stable Oceanic
S1	continental slope, margin, transition 1 km sediments	Stable/tectonic Oceanic
S2	continental slope, margin, transition 2 km sediments	Stable/tectonic Oceanic
S3	continental slope, margin, transition 3.5 km sediments	Stable/tectonic Oceanic
S4	continental slope, margin, transition 5.5 km sediments	Stable Oceanic
S5	continental slope, margin, transition 8 km sediments	Stable Oceanic
S6	continental slope, margin, transition 4.5 km sediments	Stable Oceanic
S7	continental slope, margin, transition 7 km sediments	Stable Oceanic

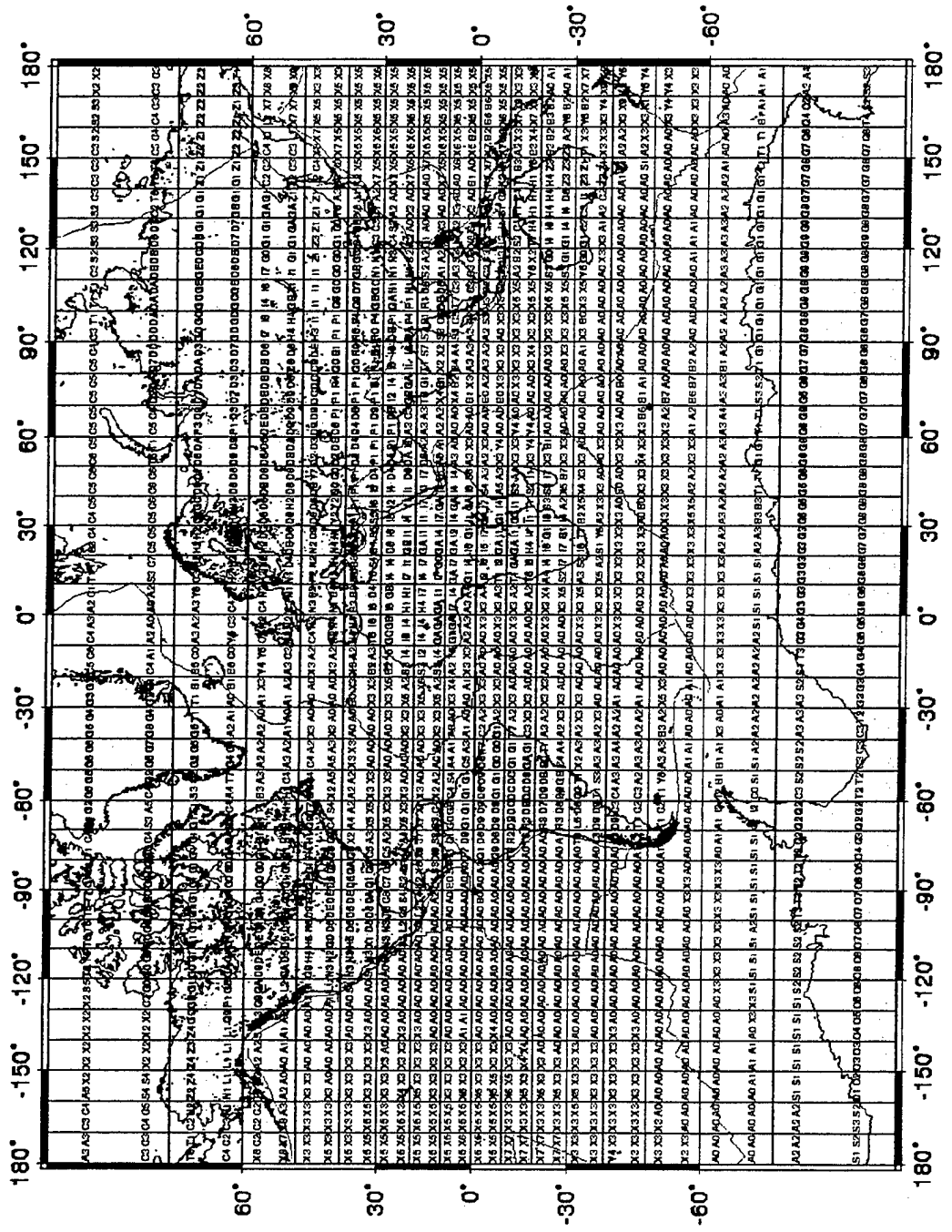


Figure 16. Map showing the Mooney et al. (1997) world-wide regionalization for the two letter code representative models listed in Table 1. Only the continental models were used to construct regional synthetics for L_g/P_g analysis.

4.3 Random Layering and Choice of a $Q(f,z)$ Model

Attenuation in each layer is specified by bulk, $Q_k(f)$, and shear, $Q_\mu(f)$. The bulk $Q_k(f)$ was assumed to be infinite. Recall that for the compressional wave, $Q_p = 1/(x/Q_\mu + (1-x)/Q_k)$ where $x = 4/3(\beta/\alpha)^2$ while for the shear wave, $Q_s = Q_\mu$. For a Poisson solid this leads to $Q_p/Q_s = 2.25$. Frequency dependence of Q was parameterized by $Q(f) = Q_0 * f^\eta$, where Q_0 is the value at 1 Hz. Calculations were done for $\eta = 0$ (frequency independent) and $\eta = 0.5$. Except at the shallowest depths, we assumed Q_0 equal to $\beta/5$ (β in m/s) at depths less than 100 km. The uppermost 1 km layer was assigned a shear Q_0 of 25 and the next two 1 km thick layers were assigned Q_0 values of 75 and 150 respectively. The low Q layers near the surface served to attenuate short-period R_g from shallow sources. For comparison, a set of calculations were done with Q_0 equal $\beta/10$ and $\eta = 0$ (frequency independent Q) in all layers (high Q surface layers).

It has been suggested that introduction of random velocity variations into a layered crustal model produces more realistic looking regional phases (Harvey, 1992). Therefore, a 5% RMS random velocity variation was introduced into both P and S wave velocities through-out each model (cf. Figure 17). Figures 18 and 19 show comparisons of synthetic seismograms for one of the crustal models with and without the 5% random variation. The dependence of L_g and P_g upon this form of random layering is described in more detail in McLaughlin et al. (1997). We find that random layering of 5 to 10% has some desirable but secondary effects upon the L_g and P_g waveforms. The L_g/P_g spectral ratios as a function of frequency are largely unaffected with 0, 2.5%, 5.0%, 7.5% and 10% RMS random velocity layers (cf. Figure 20 and Figure 21). A wavenumber integration synthetic seismogram program (Apsel and Luco, 1983; McLaughlin, 1996) was used to compute Green's functions for sources at 1 km and 15 km at ranges of 200, 400, 600, and 800 km from 0 to 5 Hz. The individual Green's functions were then used to construct synthetic seismograms for isotropic explosion sources, G_i , horizontally oriented tension crack, G_{tc} , a vertically oriented CLVD, G_{clvd} , and strike-slip, G_{ss} , thrust, G_{th} , and dip-slip, G_{ds} , double couples.

Figure 22 and Figure 23 compare synthetics computed for the D2 crustal model with three different Q models:

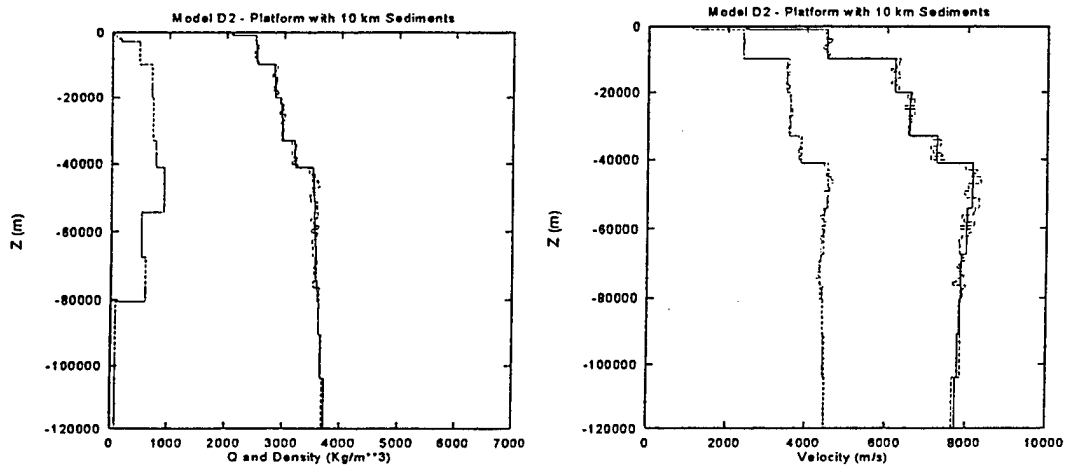


Figure 17. The D2 crustal model with and without a 5% RMS random velocity variation used to construct regional synthetics. Shear Q at 1 Hz and density are shown on the left while shear and compressional velocities are shown on the right.

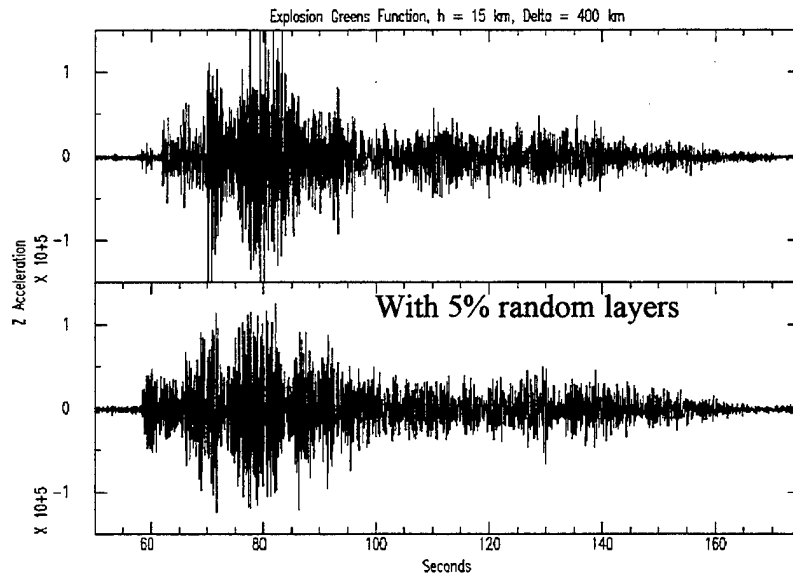


Figure 18. Comparison of synthetic seismograms with and without the 5% random velocity variation in the layered model shown in Figure 17. Note the more developed P_n signals and the reduced “spikes” in the P_g from the randomized structure.

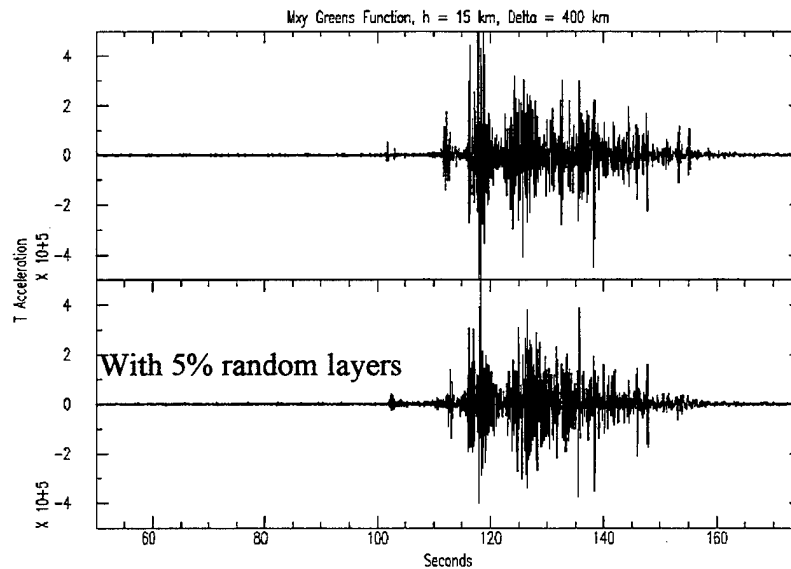


Figure 19. Comparison of synthetic seismograms with and without the 5% random velocity variation in the layered model shown in Figure 17. Note that the more developed S_n arrival from the random layered structure and that the isolated “spikes” in the L_g signal are reduced.

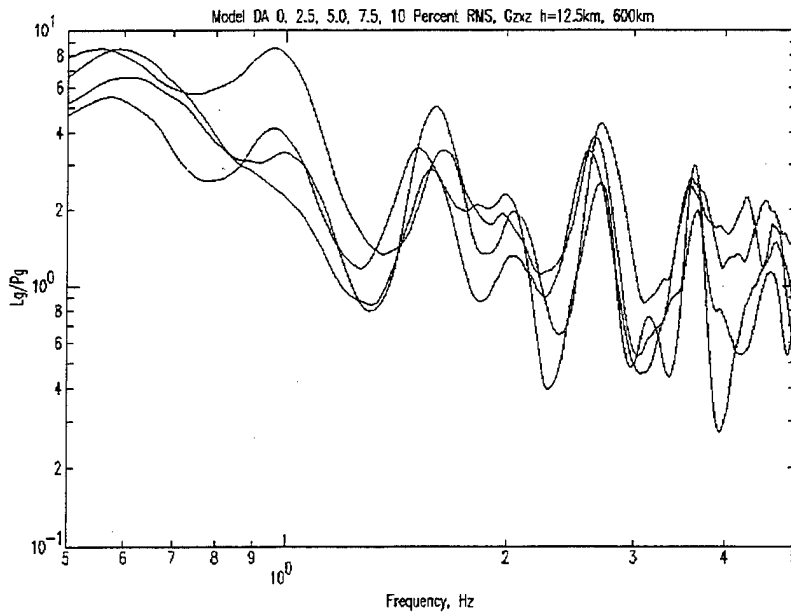


Figure 20. L_g/P_g earthquake spectral ratios at 600 km for crustal model DA with 0, 2.5, 5.0, 7.5, and 10% RMS random layering. General character of the L_g/P_g spectral ratio is unaffected by the random layering.

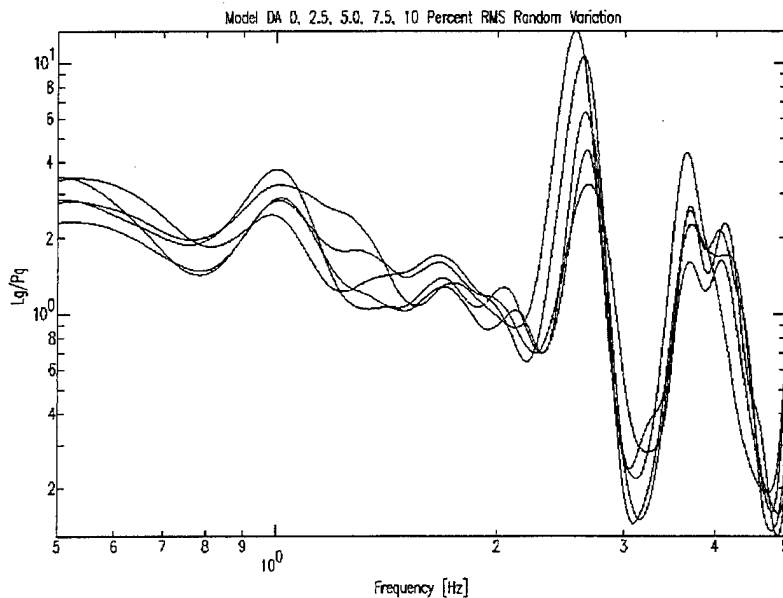


Figure 21. L_g/P_g explosion spectral ratios at 400 km for crustal model DA with 0, 2.5, 5.0, 7.5, and 10% RMS random layering. Shallow sediments in this model exhibit a rather large resonance for an explosion source at 1 km depth.

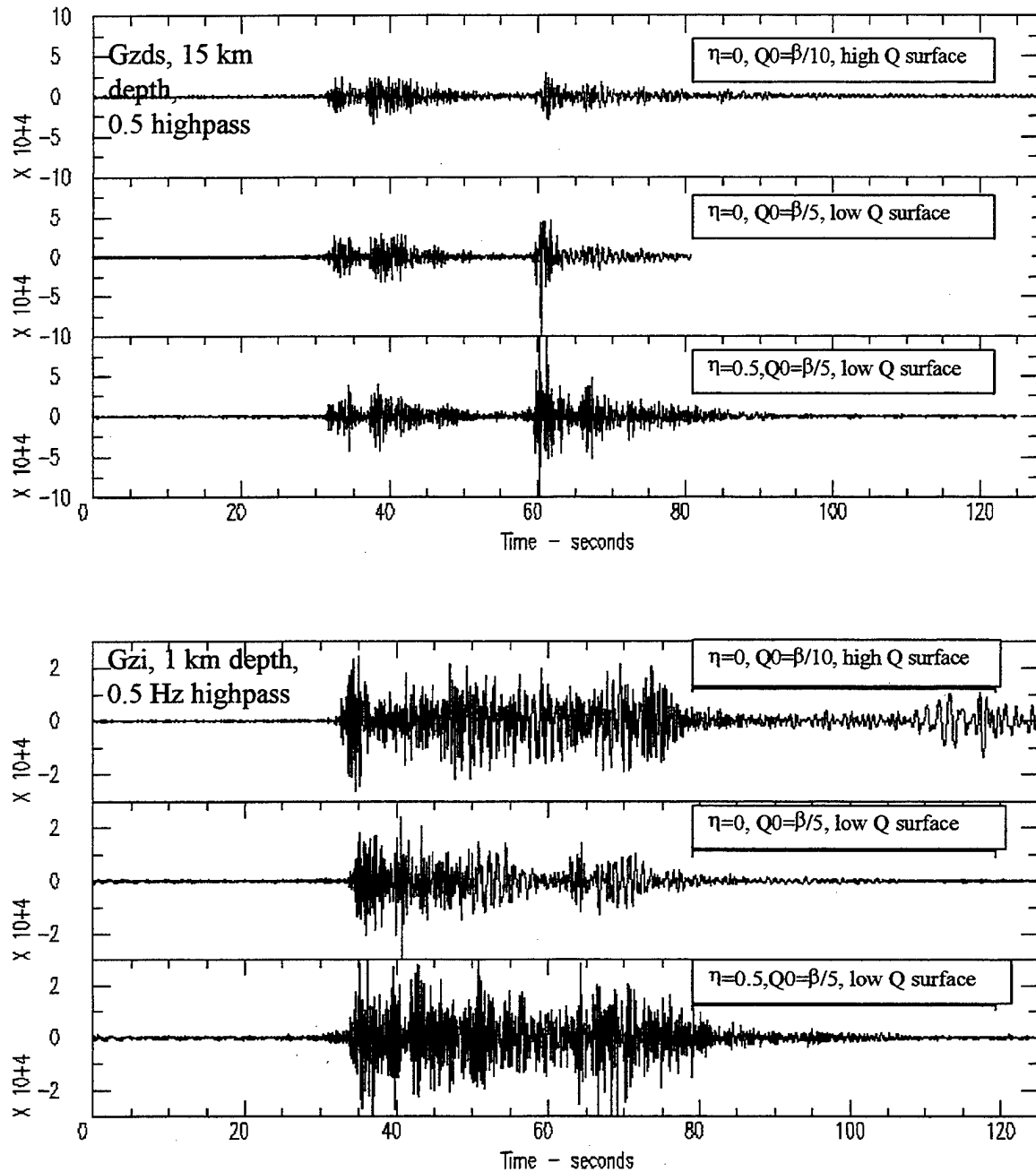


Figure 22. Comparison of vertical component synthetics (high pass at 0.5 Hz) at 200 km for three $Q(f)$ models and the randomized crustal velocity model D2 shown in Figure 17. A dip-slip double-couple source (Gzds) at 15 km depth is shown above and an explosive source (Gzi) at 1 km depth is shown below. The earthquake L_g amplitude is significantly increased relative to the P_g amplitude for the $\eta=0.5, Q_0=\beta/5, Q$ model. The high Q surface layer model does not sufficiently attenuate the late arriving fundamental surface waves excited by the shallow explosive source. Also, it is clear that the $\eta=0, Q_0=\beta/10, \text{high Q}$ surface layer model contains much shallow propagating energy in the L_g window that is absent in the low Q surface layer models.

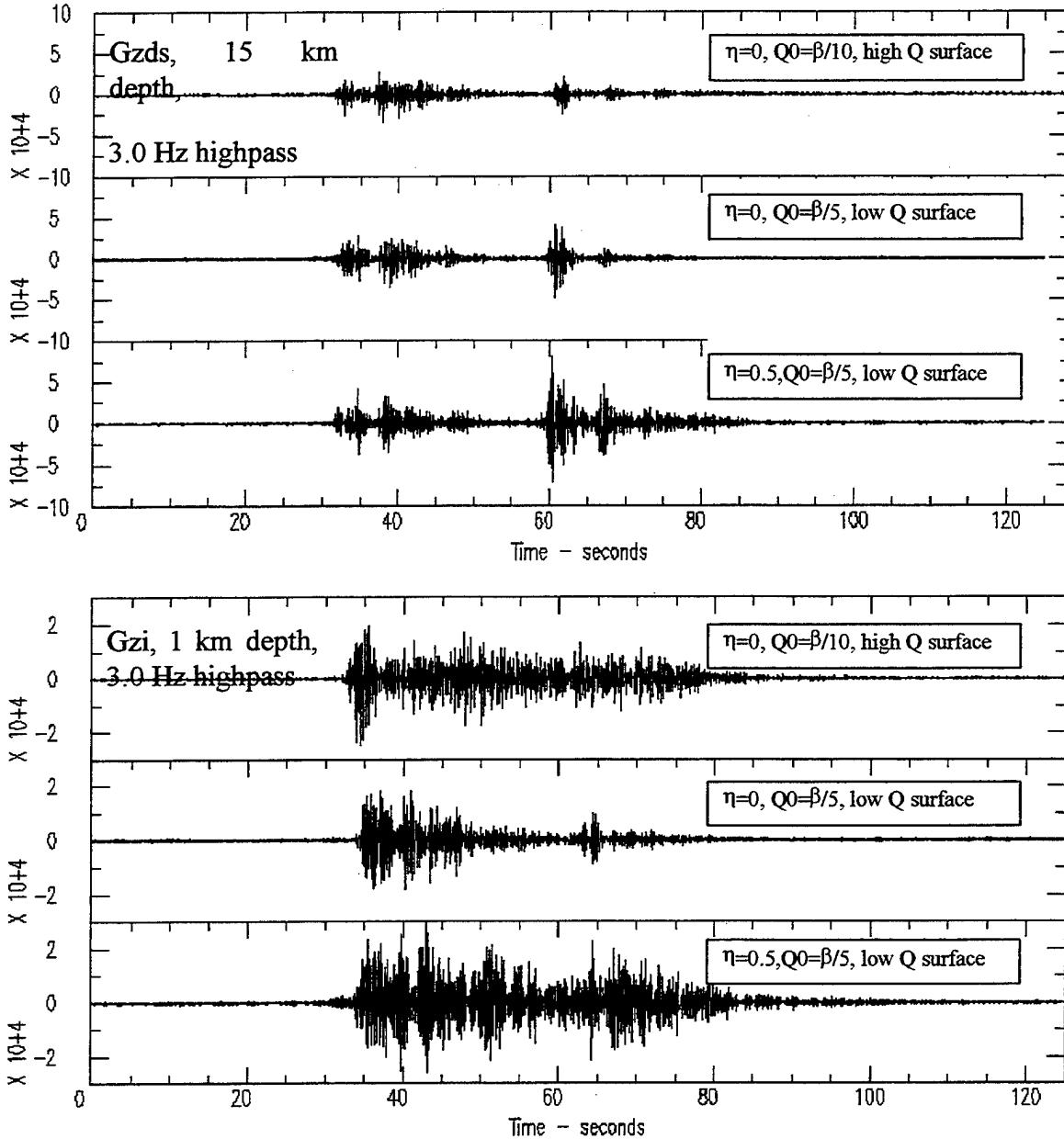


Figure 23. Comparison of vertical component synthetics (high pass at 3.0 Hz) at 200 km for three $Q(f)$ models and the randomized crustal velocity model D2 shown in Figure 17. A dip-slip double-couple source (Gzds) at 15 km depth is shown above and an explosive source (Gzi) at 1 km depth is shown below. Earthquake L_g/P_g ratios greater than 1 at frequencies above 3 Hz favor either the $\eta=0.5, Q_0=\beta/5$ or $\eta=0.0, Q_0=\beta/5$ models over the $\eta=0.0, Q_0=\beta/10$ model. Even at frequencies above 3 Hz, the shallow explosion Green's function for the high Q surface layer model contains shallow propagating energy in the L_g window not apparent in the low Q surface layer models.

Q1.) $\eta = 0$, $Q_{0\mu} = \beta / 10$ for $z > 0$ m, high Q surface layers,

Q2.) $\eta = 0$, $Q_{0\mu} = \beta / 5.0$ for $z > 2000$ m, low Q surface layers and

Q3.) $\eta = 0.5$, $Q_{0\mu} = \beta / 5.0$ for $z > 2000$ m, low Q surface layers.

It is clear from the synthetics in Figure 22 and Figure 23 that model Q3 is better than either model Q1 or Q2. First, low Q surface layers are required to attenuate unwanted higher modes and R_g . Second, average Q values in the crust must generally produce L_g/P_g ratios greater than unity near 1 Hz for earthquake mechanisms. Third, the L_g/P_g ratio as a function of frequency must be relatively flat. Figures 3a and 3b above, based on a compilation of L_g/P_g ratios from Bennett et al. (1997a), show that earthquake L_g/P_g ratios slowly decrease with increasing frequency. Synthetics from the bulk of the crustal models suggested that, in order to produce earthquake-like L_g/P_g ratios greater than unity near 1 Hz, the higher Q_0 values of models 2 and 3 are preferred to those of model 1. Also, to keep L_g/P_g ratios relatively flat as a function of frequency, an increase in Q_μ as a function of frequency ($\eta > 0$) is needed. The L_g/P_g ratios above 1 Hz for models 1 and 2 were too small and do not agree with observations. L_g Q increasing with increasing frequency is commonly observed (Nuttli, 1981, Mitchell 1981, Campillo et al., 1985, Goncz et al, 1986, Gupta and McLaughlin, 1987;) with η between 0 and 1. It should be noted that numerous researchers have found a negative correlation between Q_0 and η ; the higher Q is at 1 Hz the slower it increases with increasing frequency. Therefore, it may be possible to reproduce many of the observed results by assuming higher Q_0 values with somewhat smaller values of $\eta < 0.5$. Since we found that Q models 1 and 2 did not even begin to reproduce observed L_g/P_g ratios, we will not discuss these models further and concentrate on synthetics generated using Q model 3.

4.4 "Empirical" Models of Excitation and Attenuation Based on Synthetic L_g and P_g

There is utility in having simple empirical models for the excitation and attenuation of P_g and L_g as a function of mechanism, distance and frequency. These simple models have application in network simulations, automatic association, magnitude determination, and event characterization. Synthetic seismograms at 200, 400, 600 and

800 km range were band-pass filtered in eight bands (0.5-1.0, 0.75-1.5, 1.0-2.0, 1.5-3.0, 2.0-4.0, 3.0-6.0, 4.0-8.0, 6.0-8.0 Hz) and the maximum of the envelope in each of several group velocity windows was recorded. Five group velocity windows (100-20, 10-6.8, 6.8-4.6, 4.6-3.8, 3.8-2.5 km/sec) were used to capture numerical noise, P_n , P_g , S_n , and L_g respectively. The synthetic amplitudes from 80 models, 4 distances, 8 bandpasses, 5 group velocity windows, and 6 combinations of depth and mechanism were saved to a small database ($80*4*8*5*6 = 76,800$ values). This database forms the basis for much of our analysis. The database of band-pass filtered amplitudes is available upon request (scatter@maxwell.com).

The P_g and L_g time-domain amplitudes, $A(f,\Delta)$, as a function of frequency and range were then fit to “empirical” models for each crustal structure and moment tensor source where

$$\text{Log}_{10}(A(f,\Delta)) = A_0 - n \text{Log}_{10}(\Delta/100) - \pi \text{Log}_{10}(e) \Delta f^{(1-n)} / Q_0/U + \varepsilon.$$

The RMS values of the error term, ε , were generally between 0.3 and 0.6 Log_{10} units for most crustal models. Note that A_0 is independent of frequency in this model for both P_g and L_g excited by the earthquake source. A geometric spreading of $n=5/6$ was used and group velocities of $U = 6.5$ and 3.5 km/sec were used for P_g and L_g respectively. Examples of the log-likelihood functions for the fit of Q_0 and η for P_g and L_g are shown in Figure 24 for crustal model D2 and a dip-slip double-couple source at 10 km depth. The log-likelihood function in this case is simply minus the L2 norm (RMS residual) normalized to its optimum value. The distinctive tradeoff between Q_0 and η is clearly seen in the elongate contours of likelihood. Synthetics were generated with an $\eta = 0.5$ and the inversion nearly recovers this value but favors a slightly higher value. The average model shear $Q_{\mu 0}$ in the crust was about 500-600 while the inversion favors a higher value. There is an apparent bias between the “empirical model” $Q(f)$ and the layered crustal model $Q(f)$ used to generate the synthetics. The amplitude versus frequency and distance methodology tends to favor bias in the estimation of both Q_0 and η . Different exponents of geometrical spreading, $n = 0.5$ and $n = 1$, were tried but resulted in even larger biases between crustal model Q values and the empirical model Q

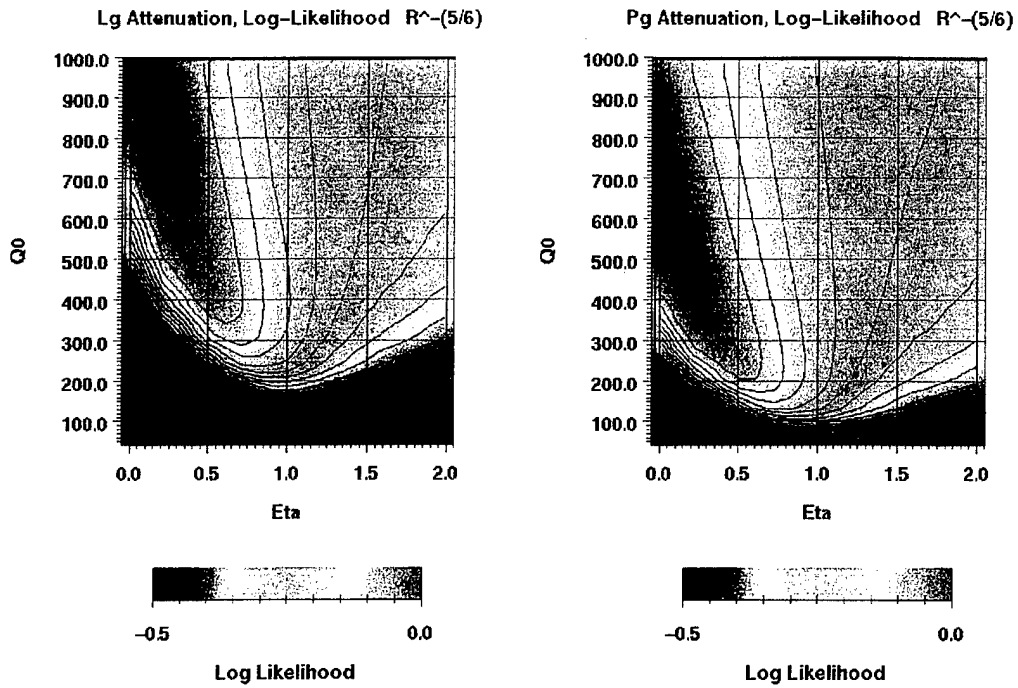


Figure 24. Log-likelihood as a function of the model parameters, Q_0 and η , for a empirical L_g and P_g Q models, $Q(f) = Q_0 * f^\eta$, based on fits to synthetic L_g and P_g amplitude versus frequency and distance time-domain measurements for a dip-slip double-couple at a depth of 15 km in the crustal model D2. The inversion assumed $n=5/6$. Note the elongate contours and trade-off between Q_0 and η .

values. The data could be fit with a variety of geometrical spreading exponents, but none were closer to the known crustal $Q(f)$ of the model.

The results of these L_g and P_g $Q(f)$ fits for mechanism and crustal model are summarized in Figures 25 through 32 in which we plot estimated “empirical” values of $Q(L_g)$ vs $Q(P_g)$ at 1 Hz and η_{L_g} vs η_{P_g} for all of the crustal models and six source mechanisms. The scatter from this population of models is surprising and enlightening. This synthetic data does not have the problems of site effects, focusing-defocusing, or scattering, yet we see that even the synthetic data exhibits trade-offs and systematic biases. Several results for the synthetic Q models are clear from examination of Figures 25 through 32:

- $Q(P_g)$ does not equal 2.25 times $Q(L_g)$ regardless of the source mechanism. The apparent earthquake $Q(P_g)$ values are usually smaller than the $Q(L_g)$ values. The earthquake mechanisms scatter about a trend with $Q_0(L_g) = Q_0(P_g) + 100$. The explosion $Q_0(P_g)$ values are distributed almost independent of the $Q_0(L_g)$ values.
- There is little difference between the population of Q models for the three shallow axi-symmetric sources. The explosion, tension crack and CLVD sources appear to excite P_g and L_g waves that propagate in a similar manner.
- There are systematic differences between the Q models fit to the different earthquake sources at depth. Dip-slip mechanisms exhibit lower Q_0 values for P_g and L_g and higher η than the other double-couple mechanisms. For many of the crustal models, the strike-slip and thrust mechanisms exhibit systematically higher Q_0 values and lower η .
- There is a strong trade-off tendency between Q_0 and η . The explosion models scatter about $\eta = 0.5$ which was used for the calculations, while values from 0.1 to 0.8 will often fit the data with a corresponding trade-off in Q_0 .
- Most crustal models were computed with an average Q_0 between 500 and 600. There is a central tendency for the results to scatter about this region. However, earthquake strike-slip and thrust mechanism Q_0 values are generally greater than 600 with η values less than 0.3.

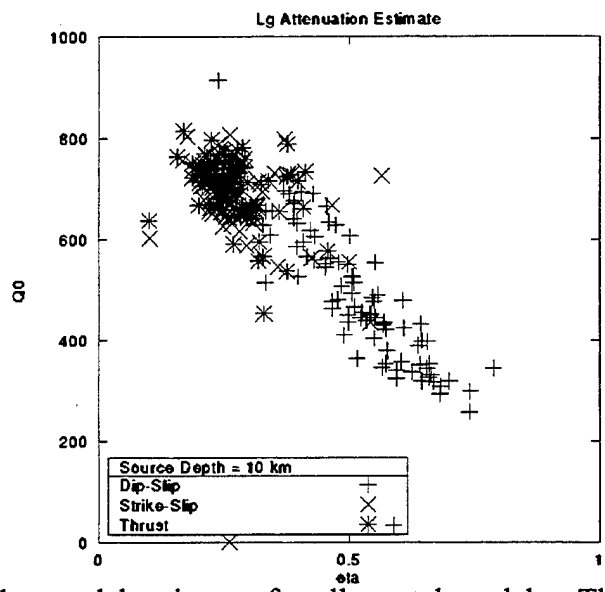


Figure 25. L_g Q_0 and η model estimates for all crustal models. Three kinds of double-couple earthquake sources are shown with depth of 10 km and dip-slip, strike-slip, and 45 degree thrust/reverse orientations. The dip-slip orientations show a systematically lower Q_0 and higher η .

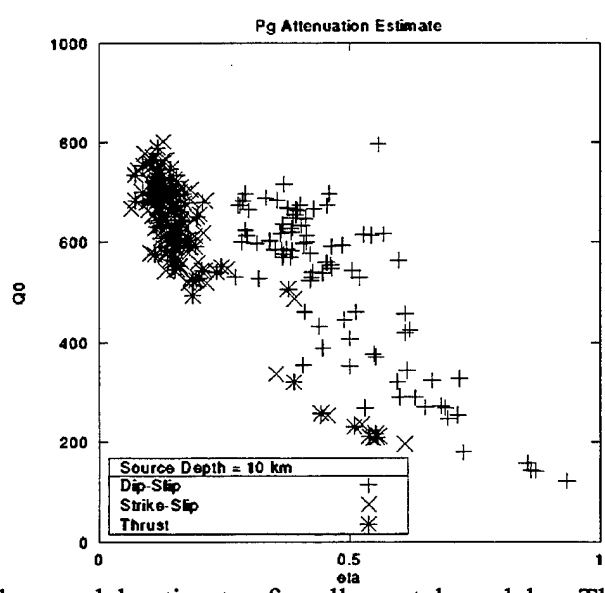


Figure 26. P_g Q_0 and η model estimates for all crustal models. Three kinds of double-couple earthquake sources are shown with depth of 10 km and dip-slip, strike-slip, and 45 degree thrust/reverse orientations. The dip-slip orientations show a systematically lower Q_0 and higher η .

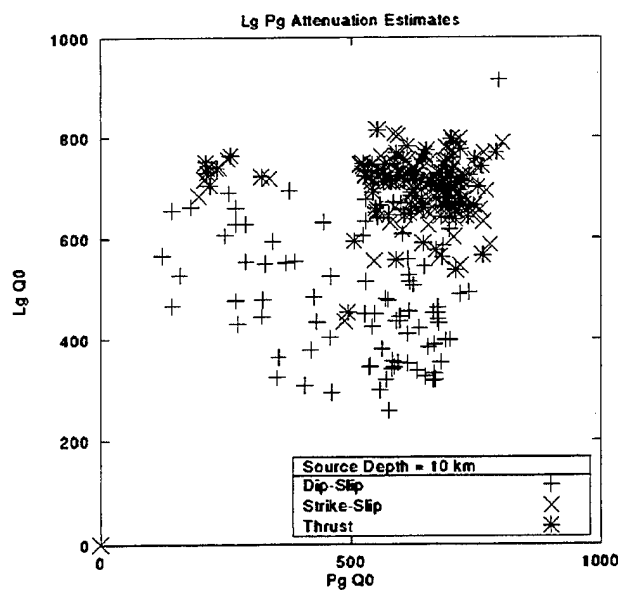


Figure 27. $L_g Q_0$ versus $P_g Q_0$ model estimates for all crustal models. Three kinds of double-couple earthquake sources are shown with depth of 10 km and dip-slip, strike-slip, and 45 degree thrust/reverse orientations. The dip-slip mechanisms have the largest scatter of the three mechanisms.

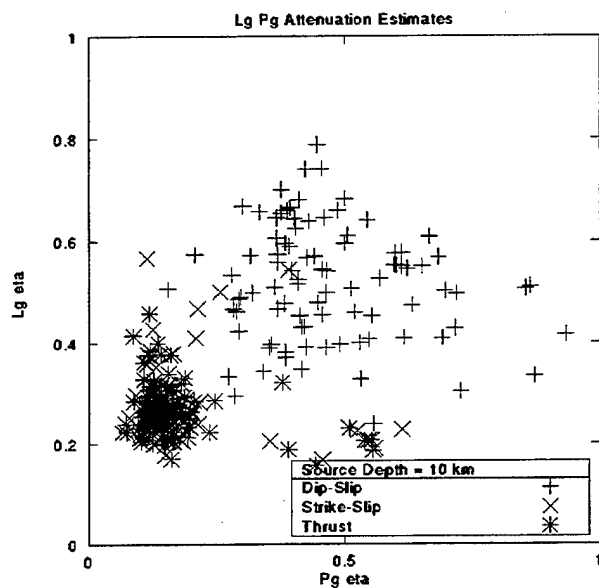


Figure 28. $L_g \eta$ versus $P_g \eta$ model estimates for all crustal models. Three kinds of double-couple earthquake sources are shown with depth of 10 km and dip-slip, strike-slip, and 45 degree thrust/reverse orientations.

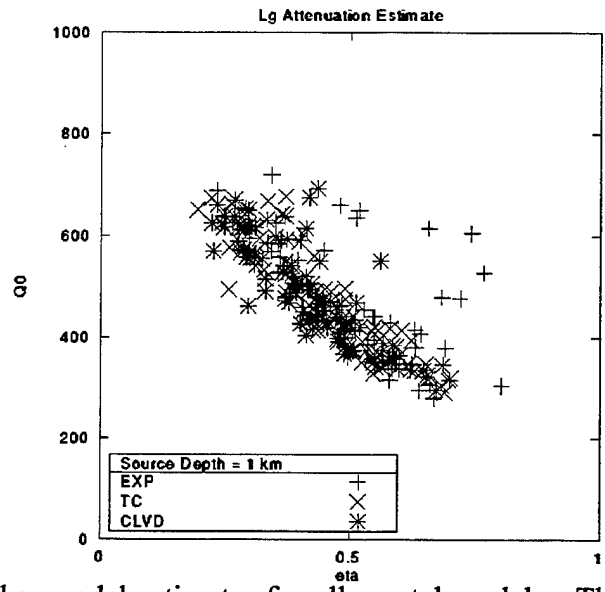


Figure 29. L_g Q_0 and η model estimates for all crustal models. Three kinds of shallow axi-symmetric source are shown with depth of 1 km, explosion (EXP), horizontal tension crack (TC), and compensated linear vector dipole (CLVD). There does not appear to be any systematic differences in the attenuation as a function of mechanism. There is however strong trade-off between Q_0 and η .

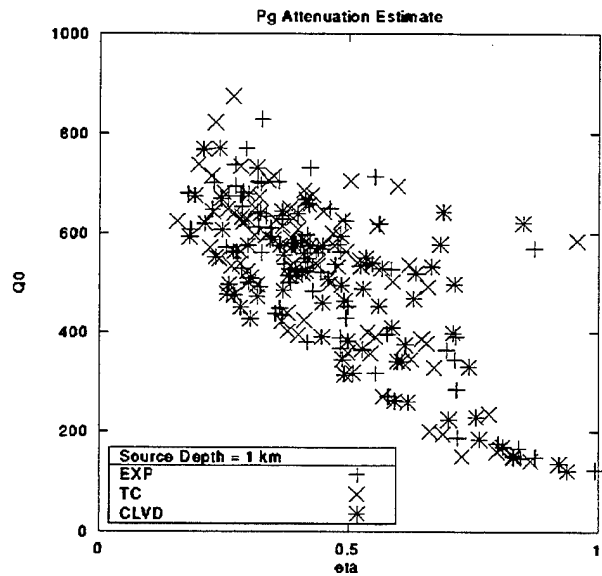


Figure 30. P_g Q_0 and η model estimates for all crustal models. Three kinds of shallow axi-symmetric source are shown with depth of 1 km, explosion (EXP), horizontal tension crack (TC), and compensated linear vector dipole (CLVD). There does not appear to be any systematic differences in the attenuation as a function of mechanism. There is however a strong trade-off between Q_0 and η . The results are somewhat more scattered than the L_g Q_0 and η estimates.

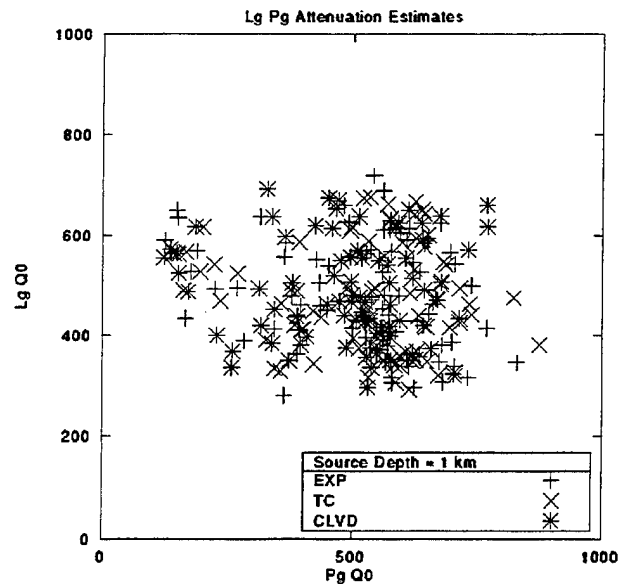


Figure 31. $L_g Q_0$ versus $P_g Q_0$ model estimates for all crustal models. Three kinds of shallow axi-symmetric source are shown with depth of 1 km, explosion (EXP), horizontal tension crack (TC), and compensated linear vector dipole (CLVD). There does not appear to be any systematic differences in the attenuation as a function of mechanism. The $P_g Q_0$ values are somewhat more scattered than the $L_g Q_0$ values.

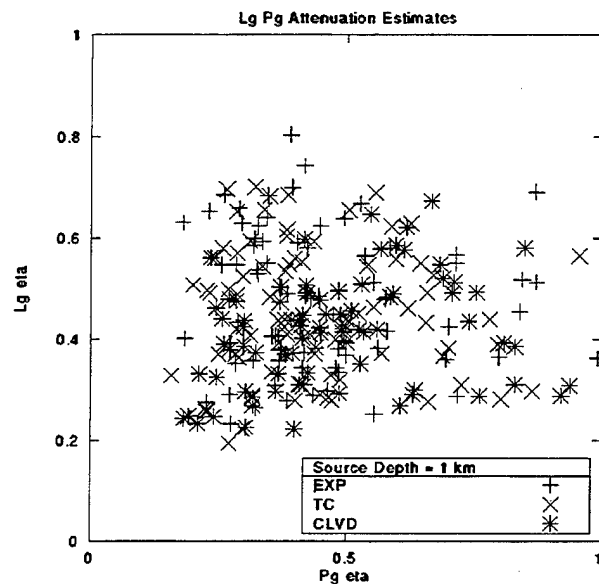


Figure 32. $L_g \eta$ versus $P_g \eta$ model estimates for all crustal models. Three kinds of shallow axi-symmetric source are shown with depth of 1 km, explosion (EXP), horizontal tension crack (TC), and compensated linear vector dipole (CLVD). There does not appear to be any systematic differences in the attenuation as a function of mechanism. The $P_g \eta$ values are somewhat more scattered than the $L_g \eta$ values.

4.5 Clustering Based on Explosion-Earthquake L_g/P_g Ratios

We extracted from each crustal model the L_g/P_g synthetic amplitude ratios at a distance of 400 km for an explosion at 1 km depth and the dip-slip double-couple source for the three passbands of 1.0-2.0, 2.0-4.0 and 4.0-8.0 Hz. We then used these 6 data points per crustal model to cluster the models. A cluster diagram is shown in Figure 33. The models fell into three natural clusters or groups. The models for each of the groupings are plotted in Figures 34 - 36. The largest group, Group #1 corresponds to all models with sedimentary layers thicker than 2 km. The explosion source at 1 km, therefore, lies within the sediments of each of these models. The second largest group, Group #2, is comprised of models with thin sediment layers on the order of 1 km thick or less. The explosion source lies near the bottom of the sediment layer in each of these models. The third group consists of models, H1, I1, G1, GE, H0, and H2 which have high velocity layers directly at the surface. The L_g/P_g ratios at 400 km for the two source types/depths are shown in Figures 37 -39. Most models exhibit earthquake L_g/P_g ratios greater than explosion L_g/P_g ratios as we expect, and the dispersion of earthquake L_g/P_g ratios tends to be smaller than the scatter of explosion L_g/P_g ratios. The biggest differences between the models are the explosion source excitations. Models with little or no low-velocity sediments in the upper 2 km have small L_g/P_g explosion source terms. The models with lower near-surface velocities have higher L_g/P_g explosion source terms and are harder to discriminate. Figure 40 shows the distribution of three model groups based upon the Mooney et al. (1997) regionalization.

4.6 Discussion of Theoretical Modeling Results

We have presented analyses of layered Earth Green's functions for models representative of large regions of the Earth. We have computed Green's function for several distances, with a common Q model and analyzed the apparent attenuation of P_g and L_g as a function of source type and model. Simple "empirical" attenuation models based on the synthetic data exhibit large variance in the estimated Q_0 and η . Strong trade-off tendencies are observed in the population of crustal models. Some systematic tendencies can be observed for some mechanisms. Q values for P_g are not related to Q

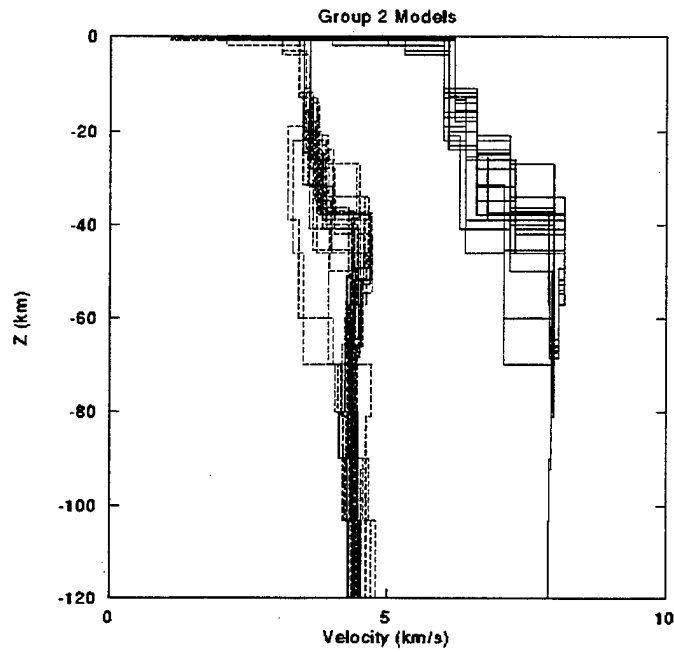


Figure 35. Group 2 consists of models with thin sedimentary layers at the surface underlain by high velocities.

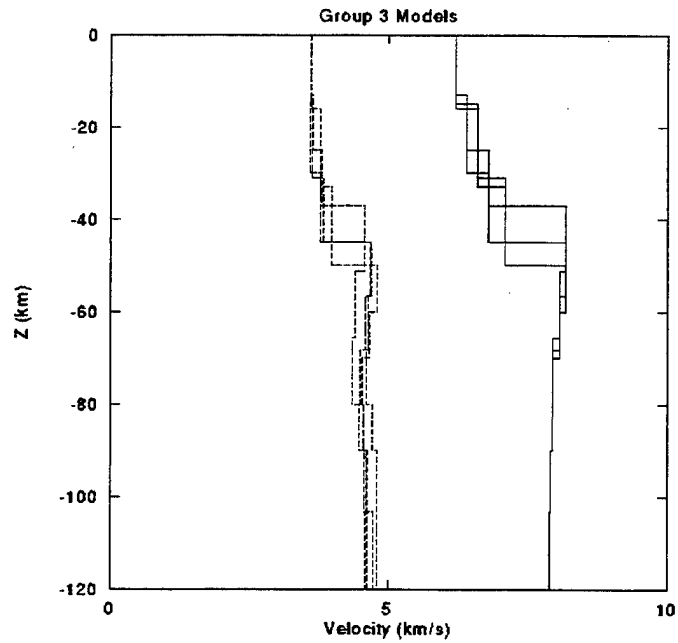


Figure 36. Group 3 consists of a small number of models with high velocities at the free surface.

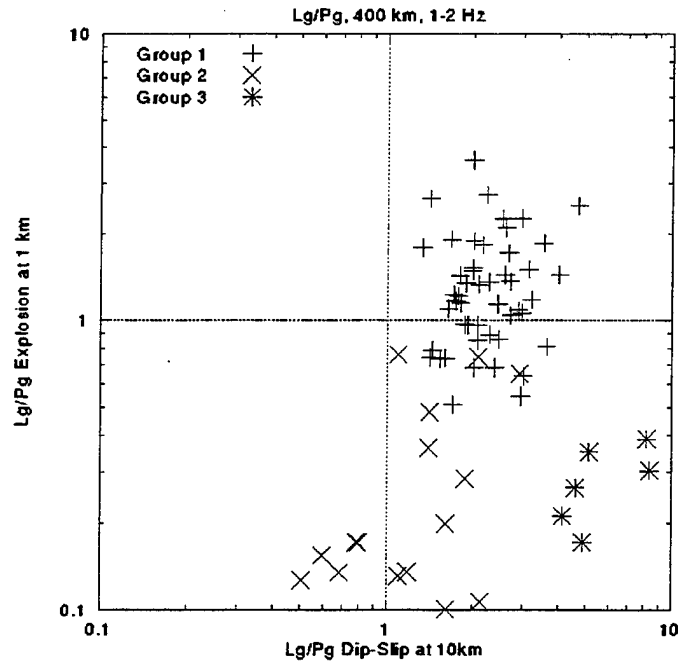


Figure 37. Plot of Explosion L_g/P_g ratio versus dip-slip L_g/P_g ratios in the 1-2 Hz passband for all models. All but a small number of Group #2 models have earthquake L_g/P_g ratios greater than unity in this bandpass. Many of the models in Group #1 have explosion L_g/P_g ratios greater than unity.

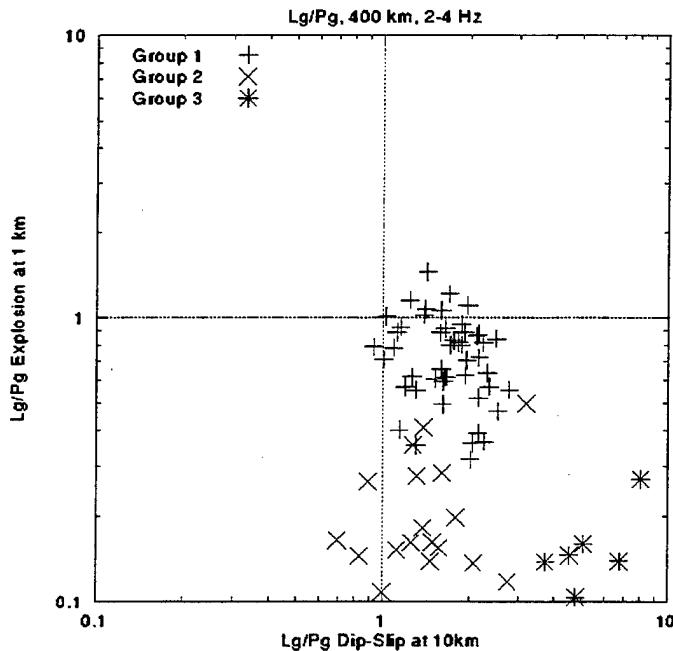


Figure 38. Plot of Explosion L_g/P_g ratio versus dip-slip L_g/P_g ratios in the 2-4 Hz passband for all models. All but a small number of Group #1 and #2 models have earthquake L_g/P_g ratios greater than unity in this passband. Only a few of the models in Group #1 have explosion L_g/P_g ratios greater than unity.

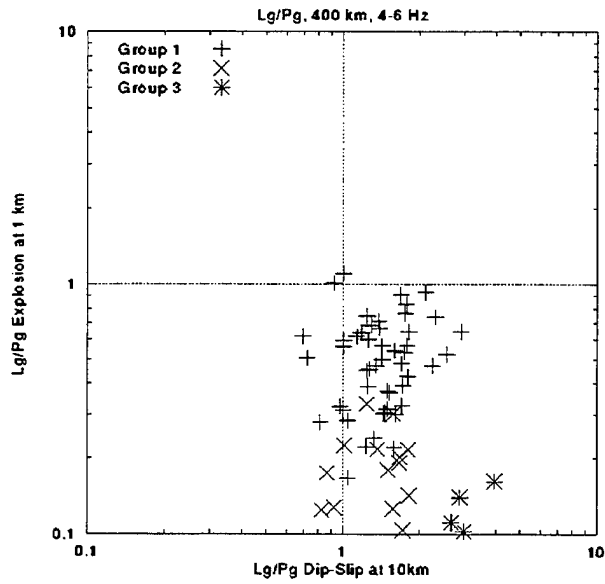


Figure 39. Plot of Explosion L_g/P_g ratio versus dip-slip L_g/P_g ratios in the 4-6 Hz passband for all models. All models have earthquake L_g/P_g ratios greater than 0.7. Only two in Group #1 have similar explosion and earthquake L_g/P_g ratios near unity.

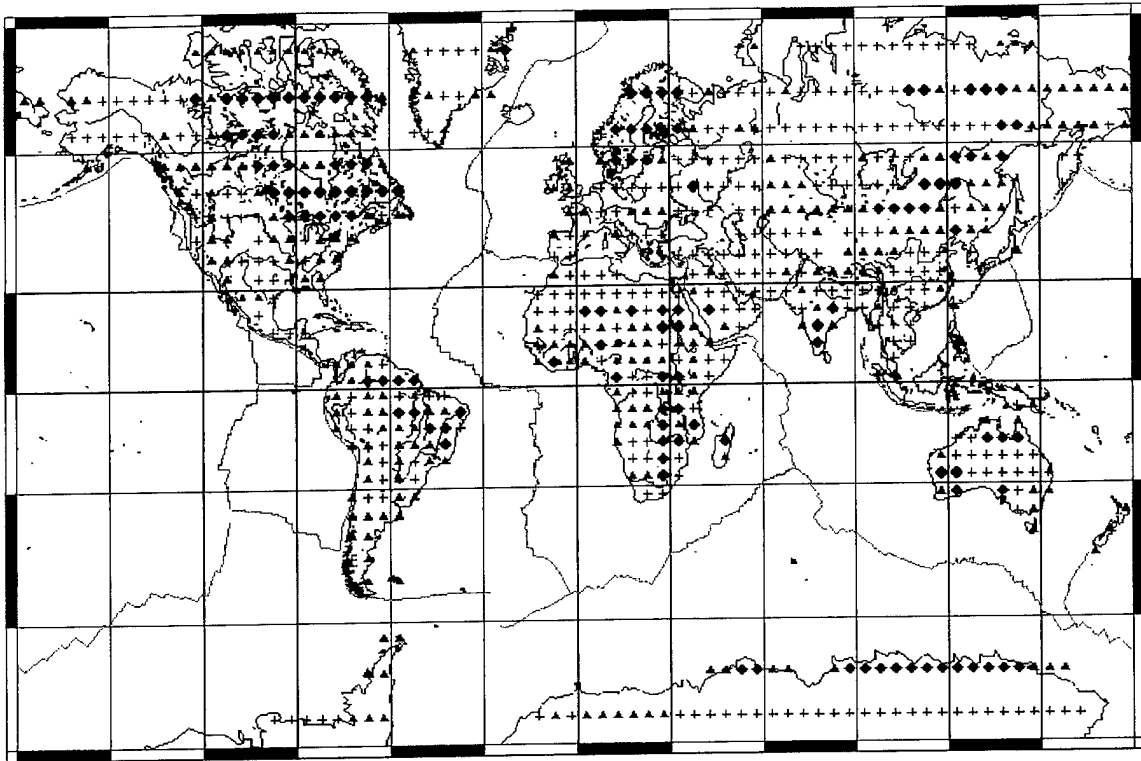


Figure 40. Distribution of the three groupings of models, Cross = Group #1, Solid Triangle = Group #2, and Solid Diamond = Group #3. Grouping/clustering is based upon L_g/P_g ratios of explosion and earthquake sources in three bandwidths.

values for L_g by the 9/4's law. Q values for synthetic P_g are often smaller than Q values for synthetic L_g , depending upon source type and crustal structure. Since P_g is composed of leaky P-SV modes, it appears to be controlled by the average shear-wave Q of the crust and not the corresponding compressional wave Q .

We find that the models fall into three general categories or groups based on explosion and earthquake L_g/P_g ratios. The three model groups correspond to regions with 1) thick, 2) thin, and 3) no sediments. The crustal thickness and upper mantle velocities were secondary to the thickness of the sediments in their effects on the model calculations.

5. Discrimination Analysis of the August 16, 1997 Kara Sea Event

5.1 General Characteristics of Regional Waveform Data

We have investigated the regional seismic signals from the 3.9 m_b event near Novaya Zemlya (72.6°N 57.4°E) on 1997/08/16. In our studies we made no attempt to review the location or origin time of the event but relied on the origin provided by the IDC at CMR. We concentrated on the signals recorded by the individual station elements and not the array-enhanced data in our processing. The waveform data were collected from eight stations at ranges from 1070 km to 2335 km. The stations were Apatity on the Kola peninsula in Russia ($R = 1070$ km), Kevo in Finland ($R = 1125$ km), Norilsk in the central Siberia area of Russia ($R = 1180$ km), Spitzbergen off the northern coast of Norway ($R = 1280$ km), the FINESSA regional array station in Finland ($R = 1815$ km), the Arti station in the Russian Ural mountains ($R = 1815$ km), the Hagfors station in Sweden ($R = 2315$ km), and the NORESS regional array station in Norway ($R = 2335$ km).

We performed band-pass filter analyses on the signals that were available and compared the results to prior experience with small regional tectonic events in this same area (e.g. 1992/12/31 $m_b = 2.8$ and 1995/06/13 $m_b = 3.8$ events), with NZ nuclear explosions (e.g. 1990/10/24 $m_b = 5.7$ nuclear test), and with experience elsewhere for a

variety of different source types. The map in Figure 41 shows the locations of events in the vicinity of NZ used in these comparisons. The best regional signals (highest signal-to-noise levels) for the 1997/08/16 NZ event were obtained at the nearer regional stations: Apatity, Kevo, Spitzbergen, and Norilsk. All four of these stations showed strong regional S-wave arrivals on the vertical-component records. Some of these stations also showed strong regional S waves on two horizontal components, which may be another diagnostic that this event was not an explosion. At the more distant stations (viz. FINESSA, Hagfors, Arti, and NORESS), the regional signals were weaker. P waves dominated the records at FINESSA, Hagfors, and NORESS; these were fairly broadband at NORESS and Hagfors but only rose above noise in a limited frequency range at FINESSA. At Arti only the S signal appeared above the background noise and was relatively weak.

5.2 Comparison of Band-Pass Filter Results

Figures 42 and 43 compare the results of band-pass filter analyses of the vertical-component signals at station Kevo for the 1997/08/16 NZ event and the 1990/10/24 NZ nuclear test. The top trace in each figure is the original broadband record, and the next traces are for filter passbands 4 - 8 Hz, 3 - 6 Hz, 2 - 4 Hz, 1 - 3 Hz, and 0.5 - 1.5 Hz respectively. We see from these analyses that for the 1997/08/16 event S/P ratios are near 1.0 for all passbands except for the lowest frequencies. In contrast, S/P ratios for the 1990/10/24 NZ nuclear explosion are above 1.0 on the broadband records and for the passbands at lower frequencies but are well below 1.0 (0.5 or less) for the higher frequency passbands (viz. 4 - 8 Hz, 3 - 6 Hz, and 2 - 4 Hz). We regard this behavior as diagnostic that the 1997/08/16 NZ event is different from NZ nuclear explosions. These kinds of differences are typical of the behavior previously seen from NZ events (cf. Bennett et al., 1993; Ringdal, 1997) as well as for comparisons of regional signals from nuclear explosions and other source types from other tectonic regions.

We performed similar band-pass filter analyses for one of the more distant stations, NORESS, using the same set of filters. The regional S signals for the 1997/08/16 NZ event were found to be very weak and apparently were masked by the

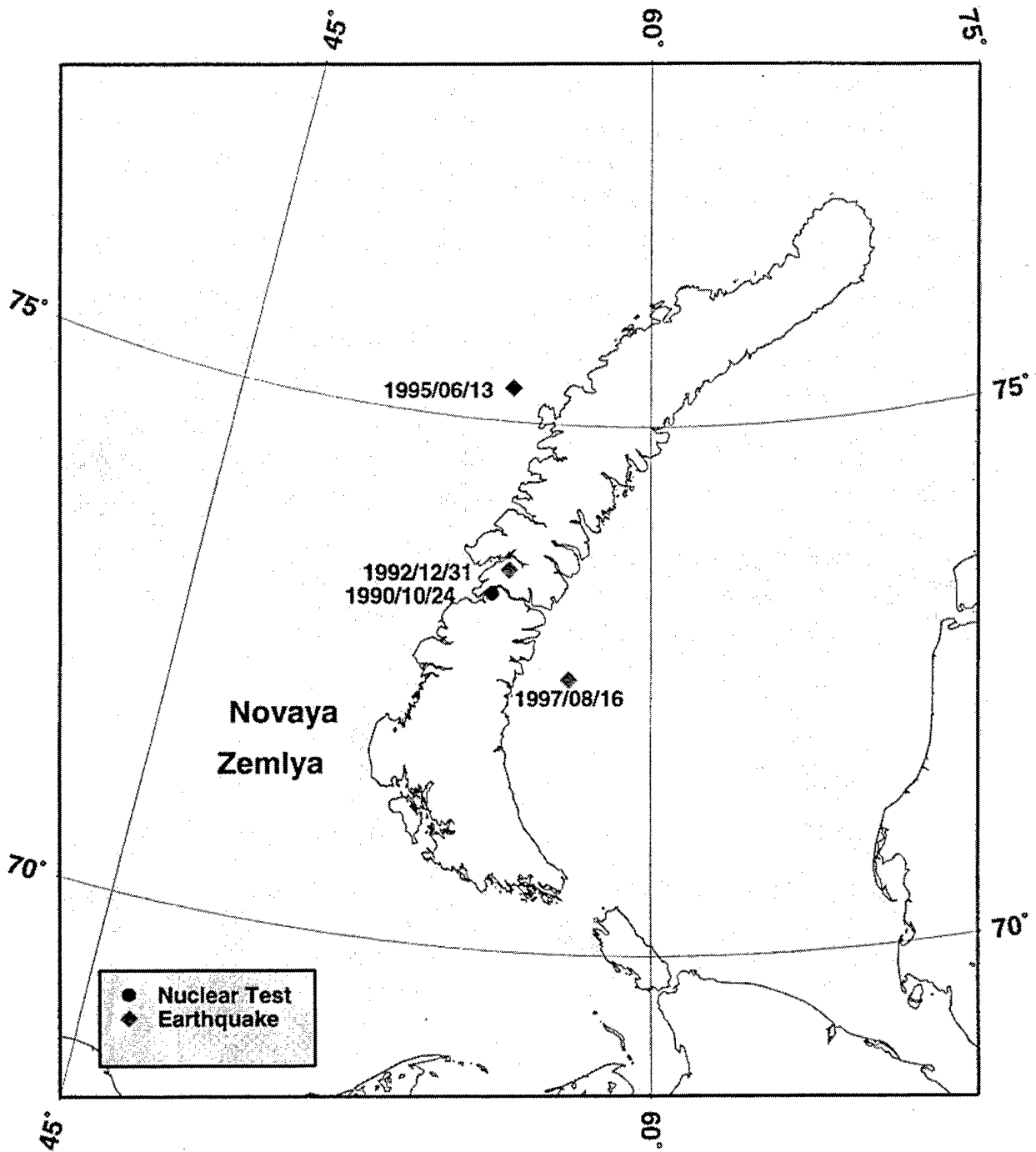


Figure 41. Events used in regional signal comparisons for the Kara Sea event of 1997/08/16.

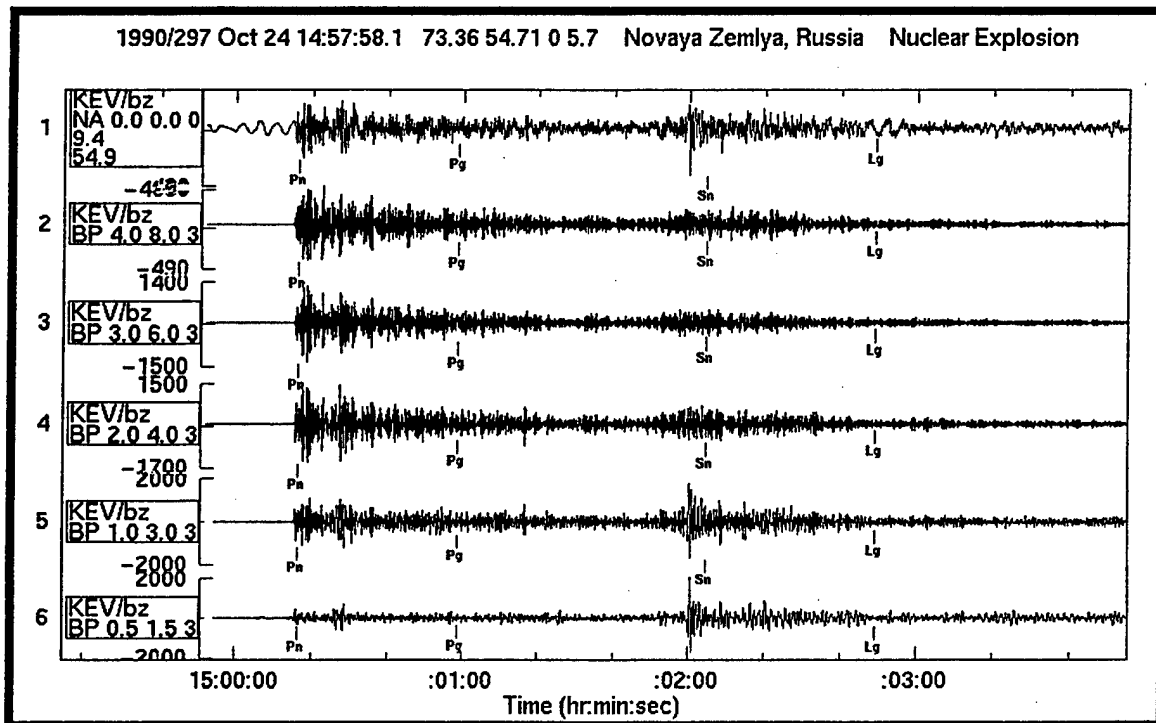
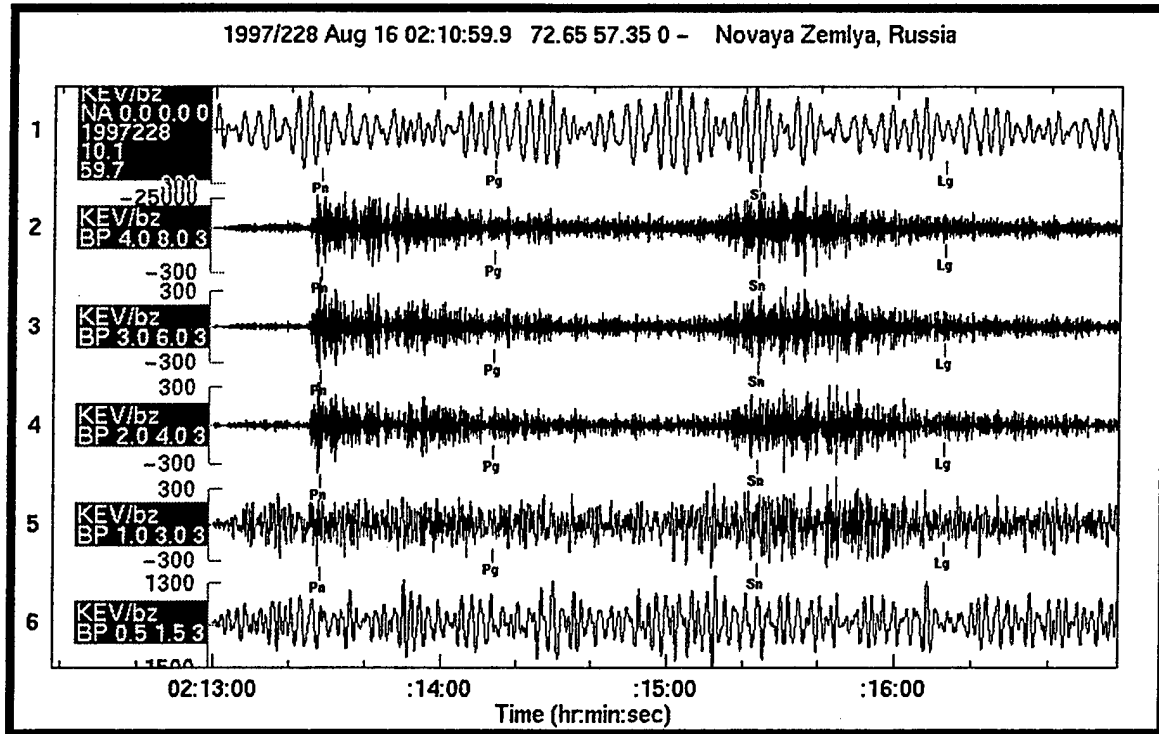


Figure 42. Comparison of band-pass filter analyses of the signals at station KEV for the 1997/08/16 Kara Sea event (top) and the 1990/10/24 NZ nuclear test (bottom)..

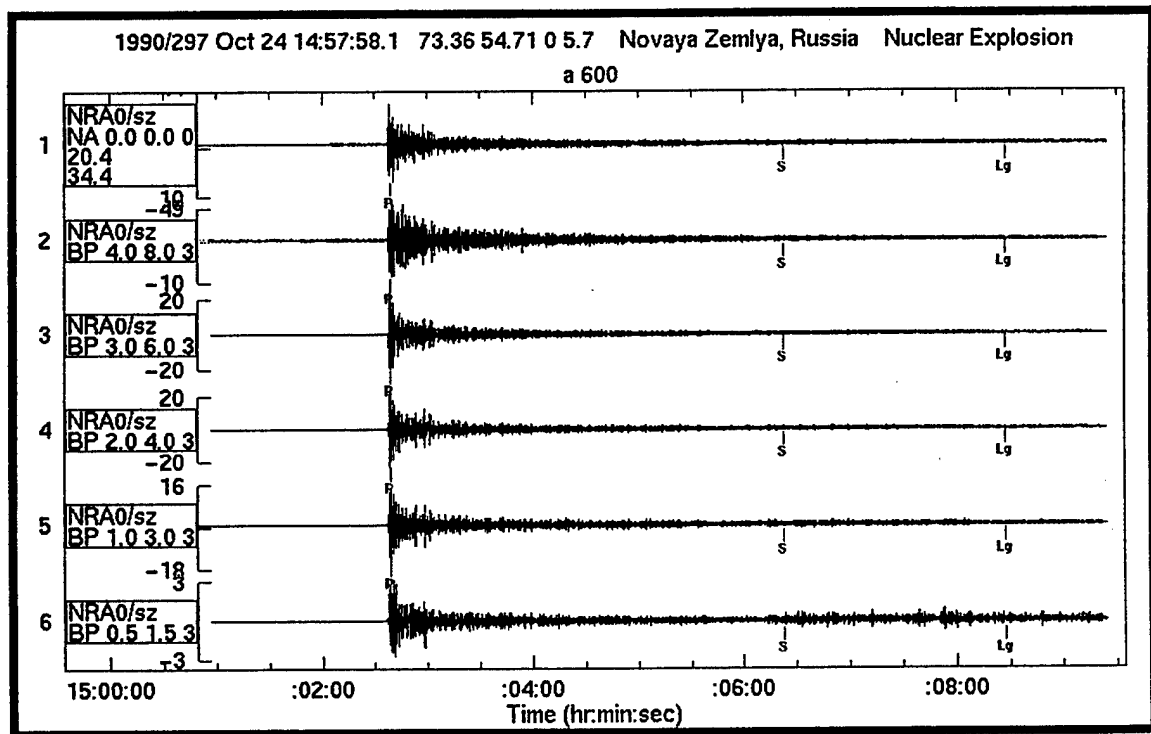
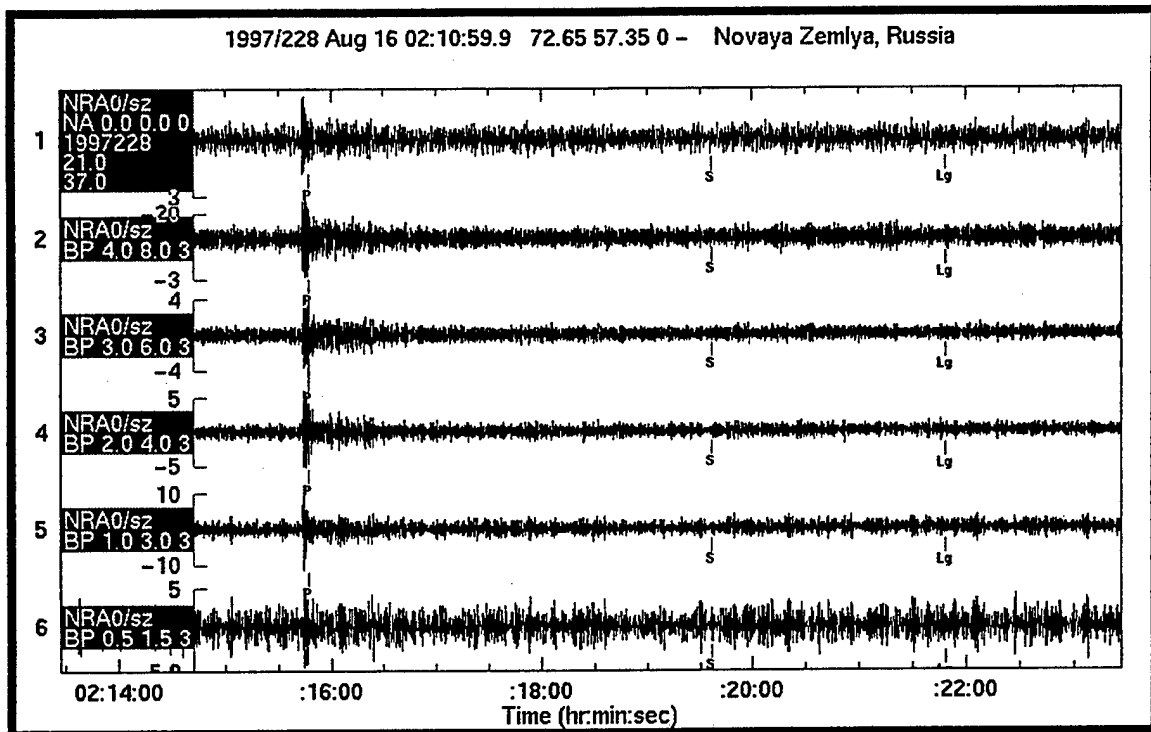


Figure 43. Comparison of band-pass filter analyses of the signals at station KEV for the 1997/08/16 Kara Sea event (top) and the 1990/10/24 NZ nuclear test (bottom)..

noise. The S/P ratio at the same station for the 1990/10/24 NZ nuclear was also very small. We found this to be true as well when we used theoretical yield-scaling relations to scale the record for the 1990/10/24 NZ explosion down to a yield equivalent to the 3.9 m_b for the 1997/08/16 event; the scaling produced only minor effects on the S/P ratios in the individual passbands, although it could affect the broadband ratios more significantly. Because the regional S signal was masked by the noise for the 1997/08/16 event, the comparisons for NORESS could not be conclusive. However, it should be noted that the small S/P ratios seen at NORESS for the 1997/08/16 event was not like the behavior in the 1992/12/31 NZ event, where similar band-pass filter analyses showed that the signals in the regional S window were much stronger than P in the higher frequency passbands. So, at NORESS the behavior for the 1997/08/16 event appeared to be more explosion-like than for the 1992/12/31 event; but the S-to-P behavior at any single station could be affected by source radiation patterns or, in the case of the 1992 event, possibly by local noise. S/P ratios in similar passbands were generally found to be larger for the 1997/08/16 event at the nearer regional stations, although we do not have data available for direct comparisons with NZ nuclear explosions. Thus, the S/P ratios at Spitzbergen were about 0.5, at Norilsk about 1.0, and at Apatity the ratios were more than 2.0. This kind of variability in the S/P ratios between stations is not considered unusual since a tectonic source would be expected to have a radiation pattern which should produce variations in the S/P ratios at different azimuths.

5.3 S/P Ratios

Figures 44 - 47 compare S/P ratios as a function of frequency for the available regional stations from the four events near NZ shown on the map in Figure 41. The ratio measurements shown come from a band-pass filtering procedure which closely approximates Fourier spectral estimates for the regional phase group velocity windows. We show the ratios for all stations, although it is recognized that signal-to-noise conditions may degrade reliability of the measurements at some of the more-distant stations for the smaller events, as noted above. For the stations where direct comparisons are available between events, S/P ratios at higher frequencies (above about 2 Hz) are

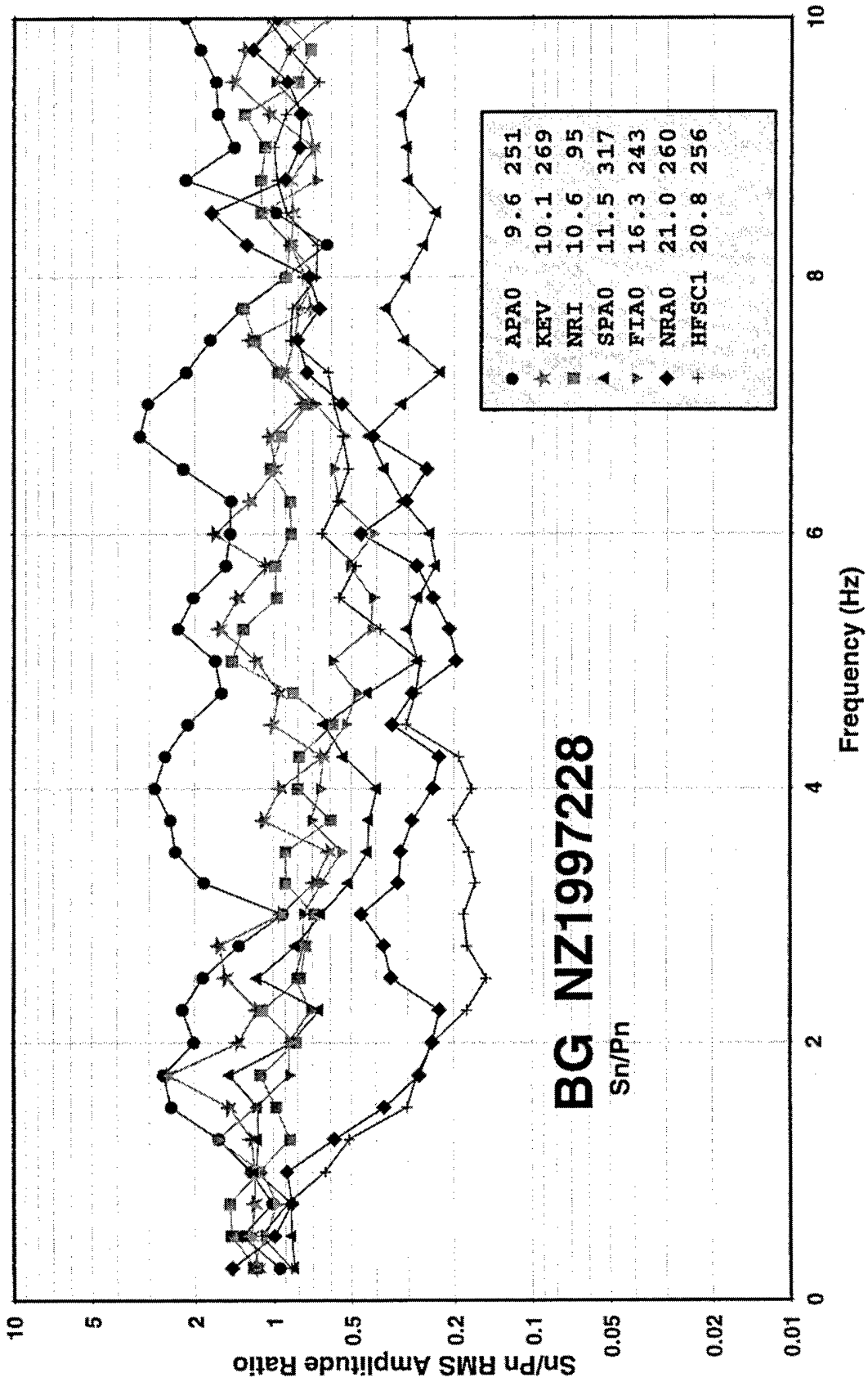


Figure 44. S/P ratios as a function of frequency observed at 7 regional stations from the 1997/08/16 Kara Sea event.

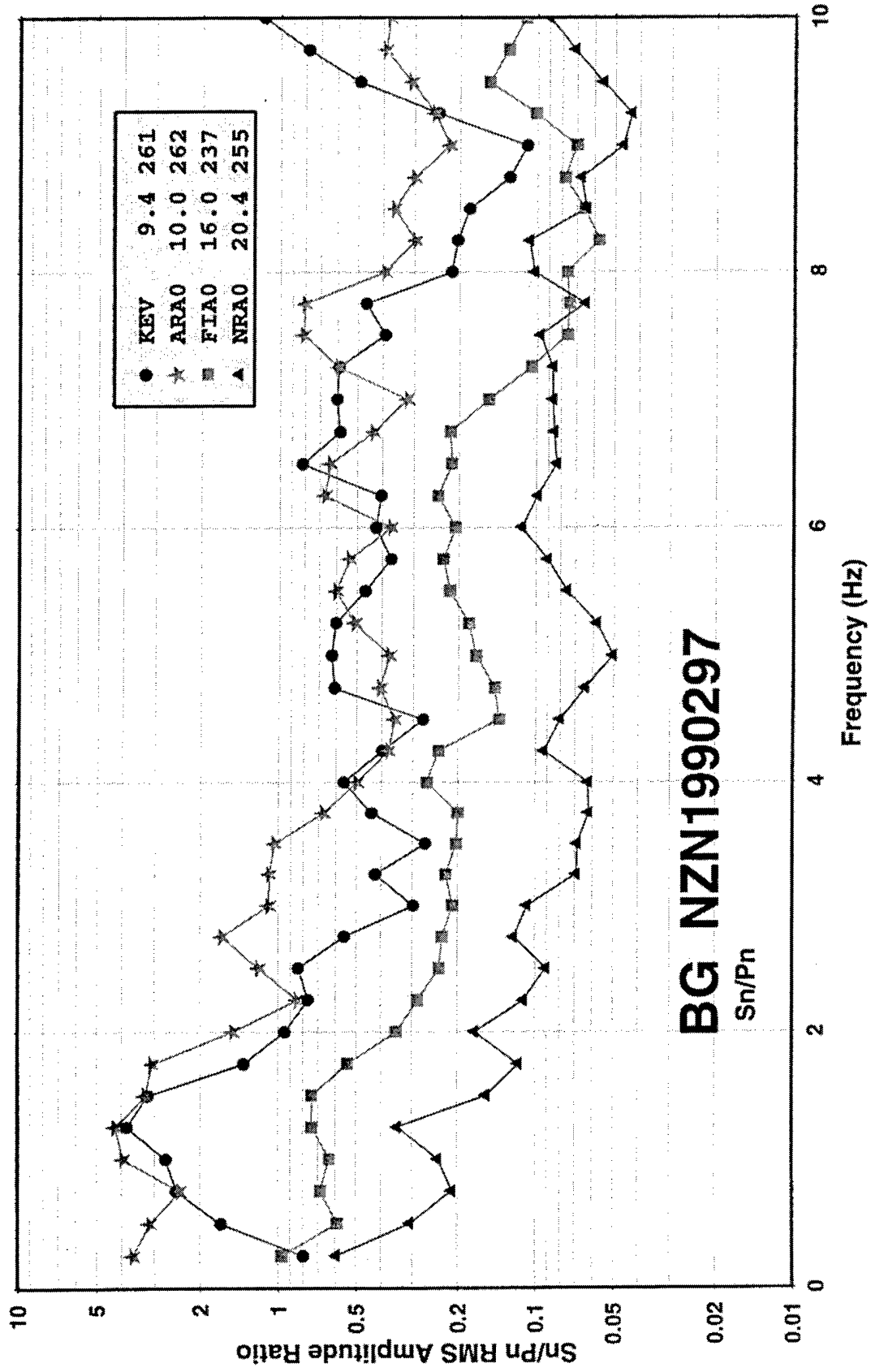


Figure 45. S/P ratios as a function of frequency observed at 4 regional stations from the 1990/10/24 NZ nuclear test.

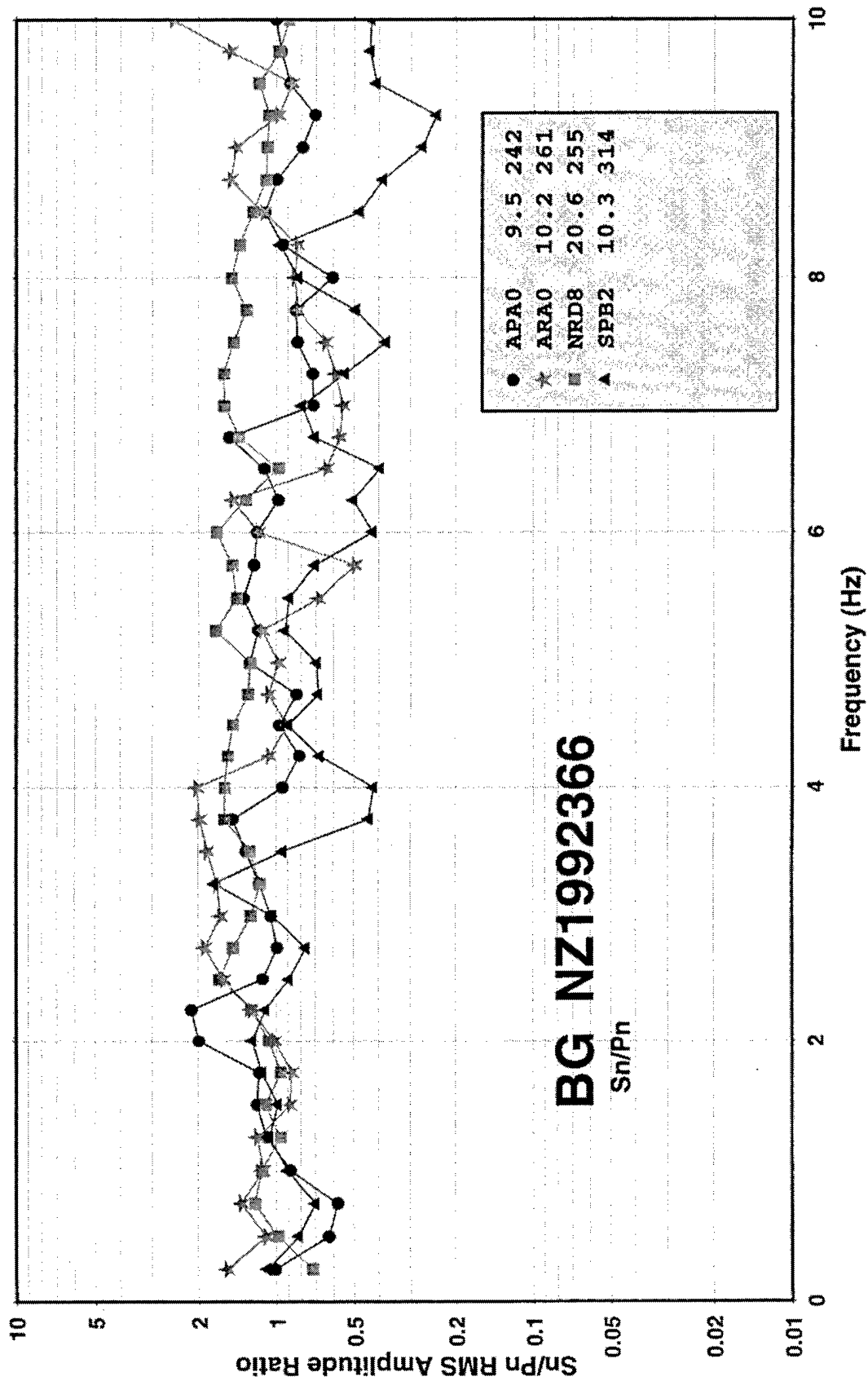


Figure 46. S/P ratios as a function of frequency observed at 4 regional stations from the 1992/12/31 event near NZ.

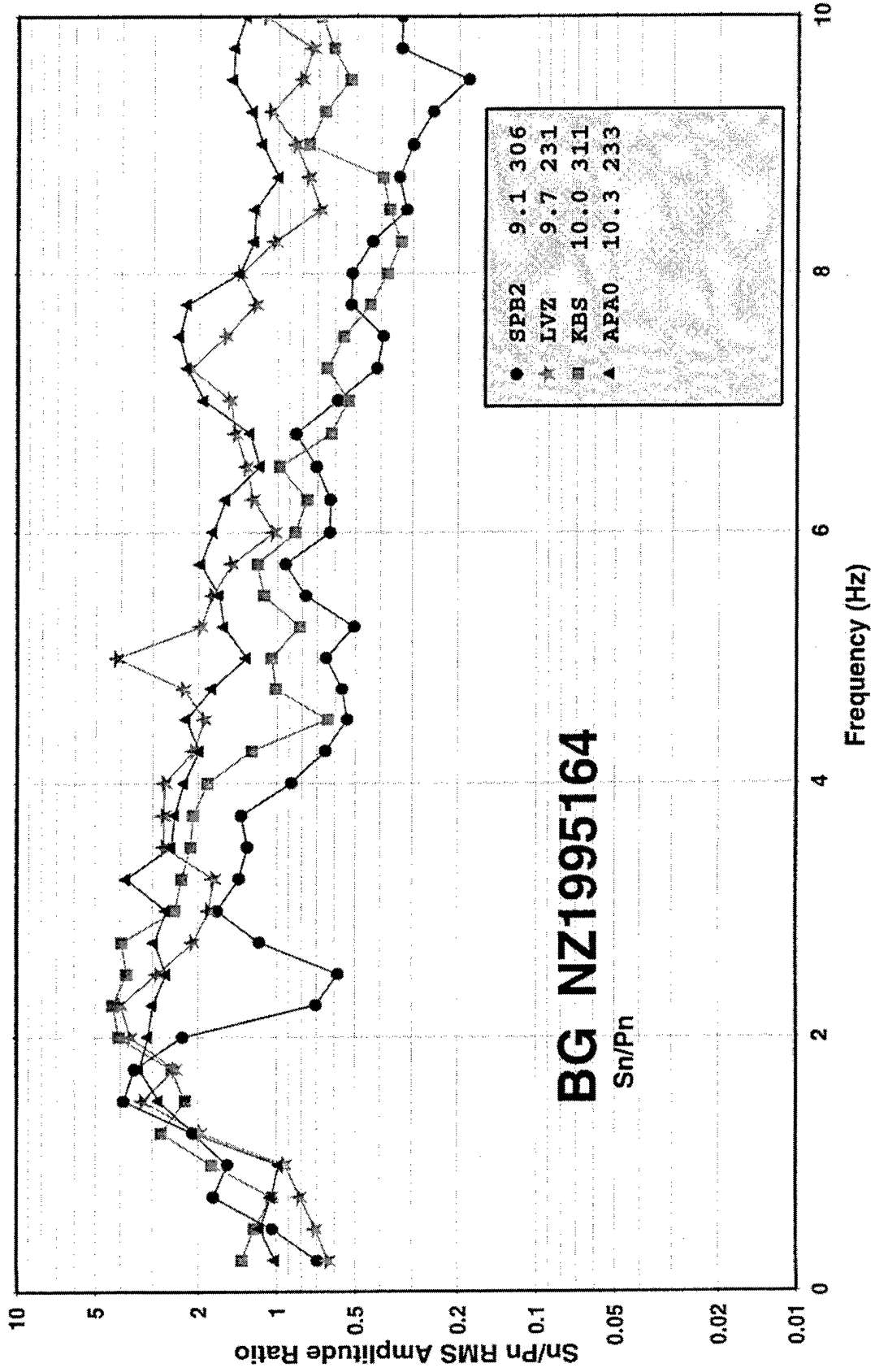


Figure 47. S/P ratios as a function of frequency observed at 4 regional stations from the 1995/06/13 event near NZ.

consistently larger for the 1997/08/16 NZ event than for the 1990/10/24 NZ nuclear explosion. This is consistent with our observation at station Kevo as discussed above in Figures 42 and 43. Similar direct comparisons of S/P ratios between the 1997/08/16 event and the 1992/12/31 and 1995/06/13 NZ events do not show consistent differences. Although S/P ratios at higher frequencies for the 1997/08/16 NZ event are lower (i.e. more explosion-like) than for the 1992/12/31 and 1995/06/13 events at some stations (e.g. Spitzbergen and NORESS), the S/P ratios are larger for the 1997/08/16 event at other stations (viz. Apatity). As noted above, this kind of variability in the S/P ratios may be explained by differences in the radiation patterns from these events which are all thought to be of tectonic origin.

5.4 Horizontal Shear-Wave Observations

Finally, we show in Figure 48 a comparison of the horizontal-component signals at four nearer regional stations for the 1997/08/16 NZ event. The N-S and E-W components for a filter passband 4 - 8 Hz are plotted one-above-the-other for each station. The strong regional S waves on the two horizontal components at three of the four stations (viz. Kevo, Norilsk, and Spitzbergen) may be another diagnostic that this event was not an explosion. Strong horizontal shear waves are generally not expected from a pure explosion source, although some horizontal shear motion is typically observed from many actual explosions. We have not systematically looked at horizontal-component regional S phases from underground nuclear explosion tests in the NZ area to verify whether the large horizontal shear waves from this 1997/08/16 event are significantly different from those seen for NZ explosions.

5.5 Results of Discrimination Analysis

In summary, we would conclude that the evidence presented strongly indicates that the 1997/08/16 event near NZ was not a nuclear explosion. We base this conclusion on the large regional S/P ratios and the strong regional S signals seen on two horizontal components at several stations. The behavior of the regional signals coupled with the offshore location of the event suggest that it was probably of tectonic origin.

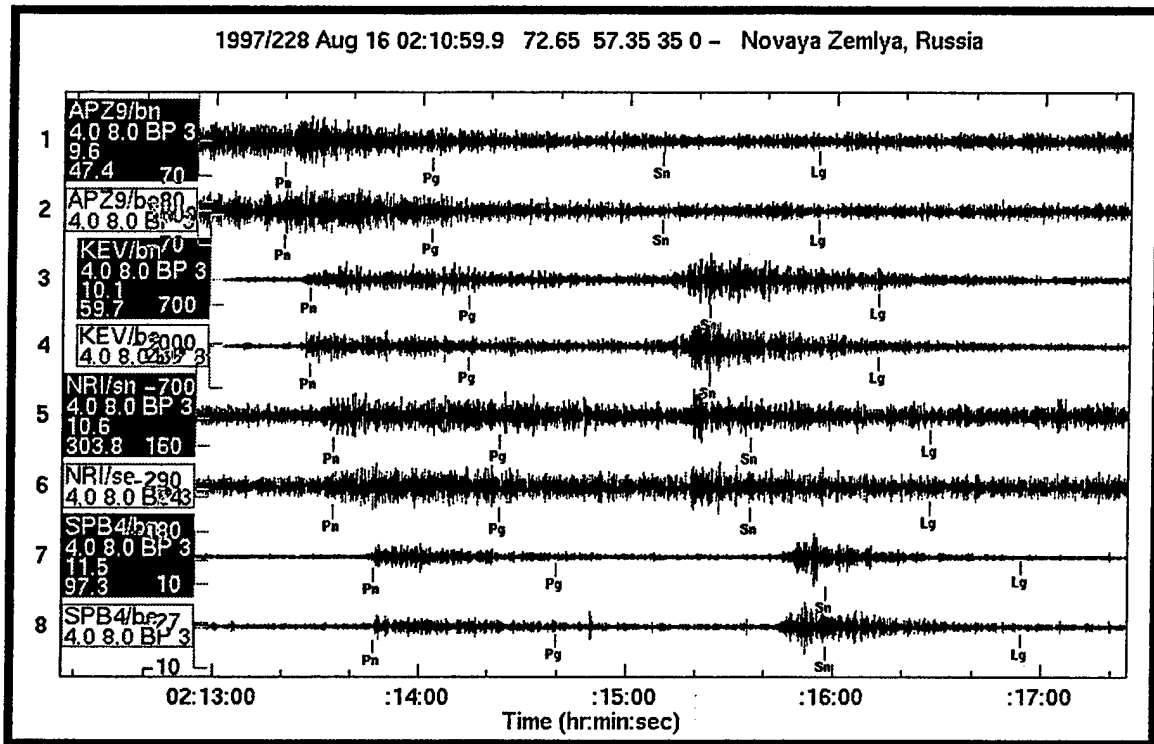


Figure 48. Horizontal-Component Records (4-8Hz Passband) at the 4 best regional stations for the 1997/08/16 Kara Sea event.

6. Summary and Recommendations

6.1 Summary of Main Findings

This research program included an empirical element and a theoretical element. In the empirical element we collected and analyzed the regional phase signals from representative samples of underground nuclear explosions, earthquakes, and other source types from a variety of source regions. We developed systematic procedures for measuring L_g/P ratios as a function of frequency; and we determined how L_g/P_g ratio measurements would likely be affected by regional attenuation and defined corrections which could be applied to specific source-station paths where the propagation effects were known.

After testing several algorithms for estimating the spectral content of regional phases, we settled on a Gaussian band-pass filtering procedure to measure the frequency-dependent L_g/P ratios. This method produces spectral estimates of regional phase amplitudes which essentially match those of Fourier methods. Although the method is slower than Fourier transforms, it offers some operational advantages. When we compared the different algorithms, we found that they seemed to make little difference in the overall behavior of the L_g/P ratio measurements; broader filters essentially produced smoothed versions of the Gaussian band-pass filter results.

Our preliminary analyses of L_g/P ratios as a function of frequency indicated that there were differences between the measurements for different source types, consistent with past experience which formed the basis for this discriminant. However, we also found that there were significant differences between the L_g/P ratios for similar source types in different regions and at different station distances. In these studies we have attempted to resolve whether these kinds of differences could be explained by propagation effects. We used a model for the known L_g attenuation and an assumed relationship between P_g and L_g attenuation to predict the effects of propagation on the L_g/P_g ratios. The predictions indicate that these propagation effects can be quite large, with the greatest effects occurring at high frequencies and large epicentral distances. When corrections based on the model were applied to a small sample of measurements,

we found some indications of a reduction in the scatter of the L_g/P_g ratios between similar events recorded at a common station. Considering the importance of this effect on L_g/P_g ratios, it seems likely that similar corrections could reduce the scatter in the observations, particularly when there are significant differences in the source-station distances or in the attenuation characteristics of the propagation paths.

In Section 4, we presented theoretical studies in which we developed synthetic seismograms and measured the corresponding L_g/P_g ratios for a range of crustal models representative of the diverse range of continental crust. The models included thick and thin crust, thick and thin sedimentary layers, and high and low moho velocities. We examined several Q models for these crustal models and determined the Green's functions corresponding to these models for sources at shallow and mid-crustal source depths. We used the synthetic seismograms resulting from these calculations to investigate the influence of source mechanism and propagation parameters on the L_g/P_g ratios.

We have found that simple attenuation models based on synthetic data exhibit large variance in the Q_0 and η . Strong trade-off tendencies are observed in the population of crustal models and there are some systematic tendencies for some mechanisms. Our results suggest that Q's for P_g are not related to Q's for L_g by the simple 9/4's law and that the Q's for P_g may even be smaller than Q's for L_g , with some dependence upon source type being indicated. The results appear to indicate that, because P_g is composed of leaky P-SV modes, it may be controlled by the average shear-wave Q of the crust and not by the corresponding compressional wave Q.

It is possible to reproduce many of the gross features of L_g/P_g ratios as a function of frequency and range for explosions and earthquakes with layered crustal models. No great significances were found in the excitation by shallow CLVD, tension crack, or explosion sources at the same depth, although the different mechanisms do introduce variability into the ratios. Likewise, the synthetic ratios were not found to vary systematically for the three double-couple mechanisms, representing earthquake sources at mid-crustal depth. Much of the variability in the effectiveness of L_g/P_g ratio discriminants near 1 Hz can be explained by crustal structure variability. The most

significant structural factor affecting the synthetic L_g/P_g ratios was found to be the thickness of the sedimentary layers.

In order to generate realistic synthetic L_g/P_g amplitude ratios as a function of distance and frequency which agree with observations, we found that it was necessary to use a frequency dependent intrinsic Q . However, there could be significant biases between the observed frequency dependence of apparent L_g attenuation and the true intrinsic attenuation of the crust. The large scatter and biases between intrinsic attenuation of the crustal models and apparent attenuation is somewhat surprising and problematic from the standpoint of calibrating regional phase behavior and predicting discriminant performance.

As part of this research effort, we also performed a discrimination analysis on a seismic event which occurred on August 16, 1997 in the Kara Sea southeast of the former Soviet test site on Novaya Zemlya. This event could not be analyzed using L_g/P ratios because the L_g signals recorded at the available far-regional stations are too weak due to regional propagation conditions. We did apply similar band-pass filter analyses to the signals at common regional stations for this event and others from the same general area. We found that the S/P ratios above about 2 Hz were consistently larger for the 1997 Kara Sea event than for Novaya Zemlya nuclear explosions. This behavior was similar to that seen from past tectonic events from the same general area. The event also generated significant regional S on horizontal-components which suggested a tectonic source rather than an explosion.

6.2 Recommendations

These studies have revealed some of the strengths and weaknesses of L_g/P ratio measurements for use in event identification. Several issues have been raised where additional investigations should produce improved discrimination capability using these kinds of discriminants. First, the empirical studies suggest that L_g/P_g ratios as a function of frequency should be analyzed more fully to discern what frequency bands are likely to be most useful for effective discrimination. Although L_g/P ratios at high frequencies appear to provide the greatest distinction between source types, they are difficult to

observe, particularly at many of the farther regional stations which will be critical to CTBT monitoring. Furthermore, the higher frequency measurements are likely to be more sensitive to propagation effects. We need to develop greater understanding of noise limitations on high-frequency regional phase monitoring for all regions and stations of interest and to determine whether propagation uncertainties might also limit the frequencies at which L_g/P ratios can be effective. It seems likely that such limitations could diminish the value of the more distant stations for use in event discrimination.

The applicability of propagation corrections to spectral L_g/P ratios is currently severely limited by lack of knowledge of attenuation of regional P (including P_g and P_n). We need to develop additional information on attenuation of P_g and P_n , comparable to that which is currently available for L_g , for the various source and propagation regions of interest in CTBT monitoring.

Once reliable regional P attenuation models have been developed and their relationship to L_g attenuation in the region has been determined, the models should be used to predict corrections to L_g/P ratio measurements as a function of frequency for the various regions. However, as discussed in connection with the theoretical modeling studies, development of these final corrections to the L_g/P measurements for propagation effects may also need to account for source mechanism and depth effects.

The theoretical modeling results have pointed out the need for several additional investigations to provide a firmer physical basis for the use of L_g/P_g ratios as discriminants and for understanding their performance in uncalibrated regions. Modeling implications from the Crust 5.1 regionalized model of Mooney et al. (1997) can and should be compared with additional data that are becoming available through the routine measurement of crustal phases at the preliminary International Data Center. The "crustal type" regionalization should be merged with attenuation models to produce and test more L_g/P_g ratios which have been collected in an automated manner.

Differences between the apparent attenuation of synthetic P_g and L_g from shallow explosion and mid-crustal double-couple mechanisms indicate that caution needs to be exercised in simply applying earthquake L_g Q to represent attenuation from both explosion and earthquake sources in all regions. The differential excitation of different

modes of P_g and L_g from shallow versus deep sources in some structures could lead to incorrect conclusions regarding the portability of L_g/P_g discriminants to regions where shallow events (e.g. depths < 1 km) have not been calibrated.

The biases between apparent synthetic L_g Q and the intrinsic Q used to generate synthetic signal amplitudes indicate that our understanding of the crustal waveguide is still naïve. We should be cautious in applying observed L_g and coda Q for a region to compute synthetic seismograms. While these Q's can serve as excellent starting values, efforts to use synthetics to transport L_g/P_g discriminants require additional calibration against multiple source types, diverse attenuation levels, and multiple crustal structures.

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