

Weighing geophysical data with trans-dimensional algorithms: An earthquake location case study

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Key Points:

- We develop a novel approach for automatic weighting of data in geophysical inverse problems, based on a trans-dimensional algorithm
- We apply the novel approach to seismic event location in mines
- Our approach outperforms standard approaches, when limited information are known about data uncertainties

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Abstract

In geophysical inverse problems, the distribution of physical properties in an Earth model is inferred from a set of measured data. A necessary step is to select data that are best suited to the problem at hand. This step is performed ahead of solving the inverse problem, generally on the basis of expert knowledge. However, expert-opinion can introduce bias based on pre-conceptions. Here we apply a trans-dimensional algorithm to automatically weigh data on the basis of how consistent they are with the fundamental assumptions made to solve the inverse problem. We demonstrate this approach by inverting arrival times for the location of a seismic source in an elastic half space, under the assumptions of a point source and constant velocities. The key advantage is that the data do no longer need to be selected by an expert, but they are assigned varying weights during the inversion procedure.

Plain Language Summary

In the Big data era, automated approaches to data evaluation are needed for two main reasons: to be able to process a large amount of data in a limited time, and to avoid bias introduced by data analysts. In this study we present a novel approach to data analysis, where the data themselves measure their consistency with our hypotheses. The approach is applied to earthquake location in mines, where millions of seismic events occur every year, and automatic processing of seismic data is mandatory. We demonstrate that our approach outperforms standard ones when almost nothing is known about the data and their measurement errors.

1 Introduction

Measured scientific data make possible a quantitative analysis of observations (e.g., a seismometer can record seismic waves, which are only felt by humans as transient phenomena). Scientific data are routinely processed before making inferences on the spatio-temporal distribution of physical quantities and/or physical processes (e.g., arrival times for seismic P-waves are extracted from continuous seismic recordings to infer the position of a seismic source). Processing steps can be necessary to remove spurious data (e.g., arrival times from seismic sensors that are not synchronized), but also to enhance data to better represent the most relevant signal for the problem being investigated (e.g., seismic waveforms may be filtered in the frequency domain before picking relative arrival times by cross-correlation (VanDecar & Crosson, 1990), for a clear identification of phases and for removing noise-site-effect interferences with targeted signal wavelet).

Geo-scientific data are especially challenging, because they are generally used to make inferences on physical quantities which are not directly measurable, but need to be estimated by solving an inverse problem (Tarantola, 2005), where processed measurements (e.g., P-wave arrival times or maximum wavelet amplitudes) are combined with hypotheses about the physics of the system (e.g., models of seismic wave propagation in the rock volume or seismic energy released by source). In this case, data processing typically includes selecting a subset of the data that is most relevant for the problem at hand (e.g., by removing arrival times for P-waves that do not travel directly from source to receiver). Additionally, seemingly less accurate data are often excluded or a priori down-weighted to make them less influential in the final solution (e.g., arrival times recorded at distant seismic sensors that are likely to show larger effect of influence by attenuation or scattering along the ray-path). These data processing steps are usually based on expert opinion, but expert decisions made a priori before solving the inverse problem can be somewhat arbitrary and bias the inversion results.

66 Here we propose a novel approach to incorporate the choice of weights for the data
 67 in the inversion process (or, more precisely, the variance of data noise). Our approach
 68 is based on trans-dimensional Markov chain Monte Carlo (McMC) sampling (Piana Agostinetti
 69 et al., 2021; Piana Agostinetti & Sgattoni, 2021) and works by proposing and accept-
 70 ing/rejecting data weighing schemes following the Metropolis algorithm (Sambridge &
 71 Mosegaard, 2002) where the data weighing schemes have a variable number of param-
 72 eters (Malinverno, 2002; Sambridge et al., 2006). The complexity of the weighing scheme
 73 is dictated by the data themselves, rather than by user-defined choices made during pre-
 74 processing. The assigned weights depend on how closely different data match the fun-
 75 damental assumptions made in solving the inverse problem.

76 We test our approach in the geophysical inverse problem of locating a seismic point
 77 source using P- and S-wave arrival times recorded by sensors in a seismic network. In
 78 this inverse problem, data are generally downweighted with distance of the sensor from
 79 the seismic source or are removed in a pre-processing step if the sensors are farther than
 80 a chosen distance from the source. In our novel approach, we define a set of spherical
 81 shells centered on the source (Figure 1a). All sensors within a shell are assigned the same
 82 weight (Figure 1b), but more complex weight assignments can be made (e.g., weights that
 83 vary linearly with distance from the source within each shell; see Figure 1c). The num-
 84 ber of shells, their radii and weights are unknown, and will be defined by the McMC sam-
 85 pling. The stations that receive the largest weights will be those that measure arrival
 86 times consistent with the fundamental assumptions made in the inverse problem (namely,
 87 a point-wise seismic source and constant P- and S-wave velocities in the rock volume).

88 Our natural laboratory is Kiirunavaara mine (Sweden), a 6km-long active mine with
 89 more than 200 seismic sensors in a 3D configuration that spans along the exploited rock
 90 volume (Dineva et al., 2022). Given such an extensive seismic network, events can be
 91 well located in three dimensions. We selected two seismic events. The first is a man-made
 92 blast, used to calibrate the seismic network (Figure 1d). The actual location of this seis-
 93 mic source is known within < 1 meter and can be immediately used to evaluate our re-
 94 sults. The second is a natural M_w 4.2 multi-phase seismic event that occurred on May
 95 18th 2020 (Dineva et al., 2022) and it was recorded on all working sensors in the mine
 96 (Figure 1e). Our experiment is structured as follows. We first compute a reference so-
 97 lution for the calibration blast by applying a standard McMC algorithm (see “Materi-
 98 als and Methods” and (Riva & Piana Agostinetti, 2023)). In this reference solution, we
 99 do not use our novel approach, but we solve for the source location by removing data
 100 from sensors at a range of distances from a preliminary location of the seismic source,
 101 as done in standard seismological workflows in mines. This is intended to simulate a range
 102 of possible expert opinions on the distance threshold for data selection (here we assume
 103 that the hypocentral distance is of such utmost importance that observational quality
 104 differences may be neglected, which is not the case in crustal studies). We then apply
 105 our novel approach to the complete data set for the calibration blast and compare the
 106 results with those in the reference solution. Finally, we apply our methodology to the
 107 natural seismic event. All the necessary details of our novel approach are in the Support-
 108 ing On-line Materials.

109 2 Results

110 The reference solution results are in Figure 2. Starting with all the available data
 111 (all 57 seismic sensors that recorded the blast to a maximum distance of 800 meters from
 112 the source), we get a posterior mean event location which is about 12 meters away from
 113 the blast, with estimated uncertainties as large as 7 meters. We then start removing data
 114 from sensors farther than 700 meters, 600 meters, etc., in steps of 100 meters (see Fig-
 115 ure 2 and “Materials and Methods”). The event location uncertainties and the differ-
 116 ences with the actual blast position reach a minimum for a maximum sensor distance

117 of 300 meters (19 sensors). Considering sensors closer to the source (200 meters, 5 sen-
 118 sors) results in an increase in uncertainties and location error.

119 Our novel approach applied to the blast data gives results that are consistent with
 120 those obtained in the reference solution (Figures 3 and ??). The variation of weights with
 121 distance for both P- and S-wave arrival times follows a simple pattern, with a single step
 122 decrease at about 380 ± 30 meters from the source (Figure 3b,c). The weights for S-wave
 123 arrival times decrease much more sharply than those for P-waves. This main step is well
 124 defined, as seen from the histogram of the sampled shell radii (Figure 3d), although the
 125 histogram of the number of shells has a maximum between 5 and 7 (Figure 3a). The sam-
 126 pled weights result in a cloud of event locations that closely reproduces what was found
 127 in the reference solution for a maximum distance of 400 meters (red vs. black dots in
 128 Figure 3e).

129 In crustal studies, it has been observed that event location uncertainties depend
 130 on the azimuthal coverage (Husen et al., n.d.). Here we computed the azimuthal cov-
 131 erage of the 3D distribution of seismic sensors (see “Materials and Methods”). Azimuthal
 132 coverage reaches a nearly stable value at a distance of ca. 300 meters from the source,
 133 and it does not change substantially at greater distances (Figure 3d). The best reference
 134 solution was found when selecting stations only within 300 m from the source, which is
 135 also close to the distance where the weights obtained in our new method decrease sub-
 136 stantially.

137 We apply our data-space exploration algorithm to the arrival times of the natu-
 138 ral event (Figure 4). This event has a magnitude M_w 4.2, it is composed of several sub-
 139 sequent processes, where the extent of the very first sub-event S1 is likely ca. 100-200
 140 meters (Dineva et al., 2022)). The final posterior distribution of the source location is
 141 close to that initially estimated (Figure 4a, b). The pattern of weights with distance is
 142 more complex compared to that obtained for the blast. There is a main step at about
 143 1230 ± 70 m, but also three other maxima in the histogram of shell radii (marked with
 144 colored arrows in Figure 4c). The weights for the P-wave arrival times slightly increase
 145 from the origin to 150 ± 50 meters (grey arrow) and remain near a maximum value be-
 146 tween 150 ± 50 and 500 ± 60 meters (red dashed arrow). At greater distances, the weight
 147 decrease slightly to a nearly constant value out to 1230 ± 70 meters (red arrow), where
 148 there is a sharp decrease of almost one order of magnitude. The weights increase again
 149 at about 1900 ± 60 meters (blue arrow).

150 We also conducted a test to check whether the overall pattern of weights with dis-
 151 tance is significantly affected by the simple parameterization of constant weights in each
 152 spherical shell. To this end, we implemented an alternative parameterization where weights
 153 are defined at the shell boundaries and vary linearly within each shell (Figure 1c). The
 154 pattern of weights with distance obtained with linearly varying weights is very similar
 155 to that obtained with constant weights (see yellow contours in Figure 4c and Support-
 156 ing On-Line Materials). The choice of parameterization does not seem to strongly con-
 157 trol the variation of weights with distance.

158 3 Discussion

159 In our first test with a controlled blast the reference solution seems to outperform
 160 our novel approach, as the best event location is slightly closer to the blast position for
 161 sensors at a maximum distance of 300 meters from the source (whereas the weights in
 162 our approach decrease at distances > 380 meters). This difference is small, however (less
 163 than 2 meters), and the pattern of the weights closely mimics a step function. We con-
 164 clude that in this simple case the performance of the two methods is similar (i.e the clas-
 165 sical approach outperforms our approach only in the case where the maximum distance
 166 is correctly chosen, 300 m, which is rarely the case).

167 Comparing the results obtained in the two tests carried out with our novel approach,
168 we note that the pattern of weights with distance seems to be event-dependent and is
169 not a constant in a particular sensor network. While further research would be neces-
170 sary to determine which event parameters (e.g., magnitude, location) affect the weight
171 pattern, the results indicate that a static workflow for all events would probably intro-
172 duce artifacts and underestimate the actual uncertainties. In contrast, our approach is
173 adapted to each single event, giving a solution that is statistically consistent and par-
174 simonious (in terms of complexity of the weight pattern parameterization).

175 The relationship between azimuthal coverage of the event and our results is not straight-
176 forward. In the controlled blast, the main decrease in the weights we obtains is near the
177 distance where the azimuthal coverage increases substantially (Figures 3d and 4c). On
178 the other hand, there is no clear correspondence between weight patterns and azimuthal
179 coverage in the test with a natural event. This suggests that azimuthal coverage is only
180 one of the factors affecting the reliability of the inverted source location. A workflow based
181 on this parameter (e.g., where distant seismic sensors are removed once the azimuthal
182 gap decreases below a certain threshold) may not give optimal results. In fact, if the gap
183 is larger than 180 degrees with stations in the epicenter near vicinity, a moderately dis-
184 tant station closing this gap may be very useful if the real subsurface velocities are not
185 perfectly well known (which is almost never the case). On the other hand, closing a gap
186 to significantly less than 180 degrees with a single very distant station is at least ques-
187 tionable (if not useless) when considering the uncertainties of phase identification and
188 frequency difference in first arriving/visible wavelets.

189 The pattern of weights allows us to interpret the results in terms of specific prop-
190 erties of the rock volumes at different distances from the source. We suggest that the
191 seismic sensors closest to the natural event (at distances < 150 meters, first grey cir-
192 cle in Figure 4a), very likely are in the source area, where the assumption of a point-wise
193 seismic source is not realistic for such a large event. Between the grey and the dashed
194 red circle (distances of 150-500 meters) the weights reach their highest values, indicat-
195 ing where the inverse problem assumptions should be valid. Indeed, all sensors within
196 the red dashed circle in Figure 4a are located on the same side of the ore body, where
197 the rock volume is expected to be comparatively homogeneous. Between the dashed and
198 solid red circles in Figure 4a (distances of 500-1200 meters) the weights are still high,
199 but less than in the previous interval. This is likely due to some ray-paths partially cross-
200 ing the ore body and thus violating the homogeneous rock assumption. Farther than 1200
201 meters from the source (red circle in Figure 4a), the seismic rays start to densely sam-
202 ple the ore body and the surrounding rocks on both sides of the ore body itself. Here
203 we can expect that the assumption of a homogeneous rock finally breaks down, and the
204 weights decrease significantly. Further investigations are needed to confirm our hypoth-
205 esis and to check how complex pattern in weights could be related to a less circularity
206 in the data distribution around the seismic source in the case of the natural event than
207 in the case of the blast.

208 In a more general context, our novel approach can be applied to most of the sci-
209 entific inference problems, where huge amount of data need to be pre-processed in some
210 way, without introducing bias related to preconceptions of the data-analysts. We men-
211 tion that our approach only works if data can be ordered or clusterized in some way. Here
212 for example, they are “ordered” with regards to the source-sensor distance. In this case,
213 “ordering” is necessary, but it is not the only way of performing the trans-dimensional
214 data-space exploration. To apply our approach, we need either a metric to be used to
215 “measure” some kind of data-point distance in the data-space, or, equivalently, some kind
216 of data characterization which enables data clustering, where the trans-dimensional ap-
217 proach is used to define the number of data cluster from the data themselves.

218 **Software and Data Availability Statement**

219 Software and data (i.e., P- and S- arrival times for the blast occurred in the mine)
 220 has been archived on Mendeley Data Repository (REF) at <https://data.mendeley.com/XXXXX>.
 221 *For the Editor: Software and data will be made available upon publication*

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 226 The Generic Mapping Tools software has been used for plotting the figures of this manuscript
 227 (Wessel & Smith, 1998).

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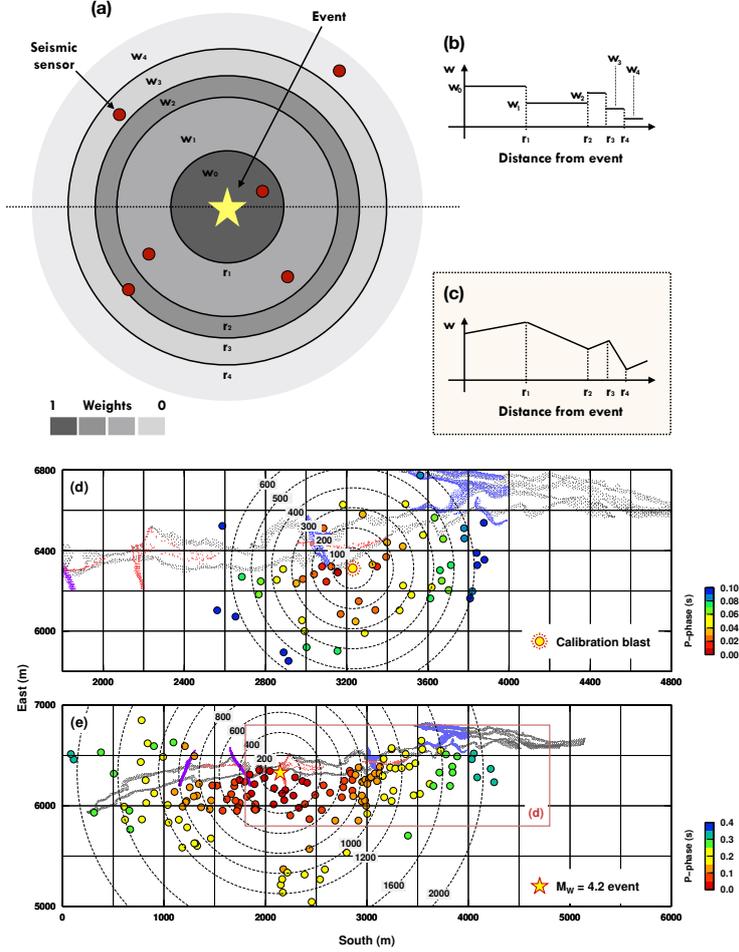


Figure 1. The arrival time weights w_k are associated with a set of k concentric 3D spherical shells with radii r_k , centered on a preliminary event location. (a) 2D representation of the spherical shells. (b) Constant weights within each shell. (c) Alternative parameterization with linearly varying weights within each shell. (d-e) Seismic data used in this study: sensor locations projected on a horizontal plane (circles) and arrival times for P-waves relative to the earliest recorded arrival time (circle colors). Dashed circles show the distance in meters from the preliminary event location. Important geological features are depicted with coloured dots: grey = ore body; blue = clay zones; red/purple = diapiir/diabase. Panel (d) shows seismic arrival times for a calibration blast (yellow Sun symbol), and (e) for a $M_w = 4.2$ event (yellow star). The red box in (e) shows the smaller area plotted in (d).

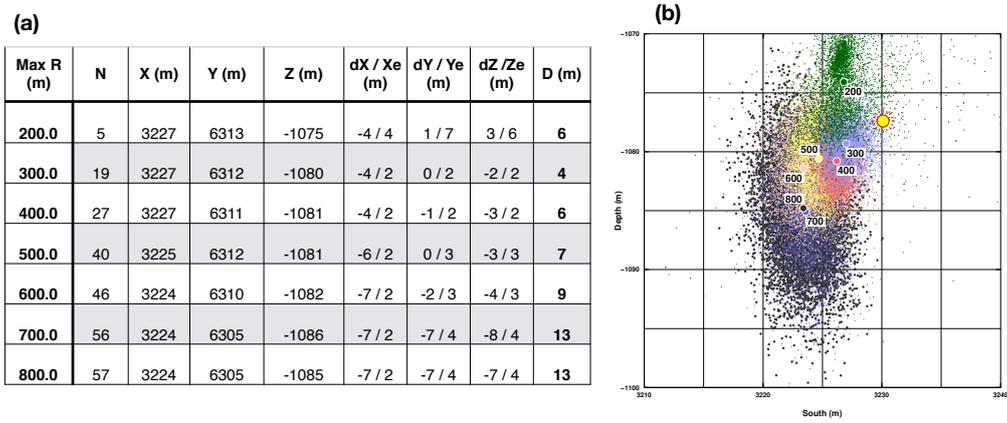


Figure 2. (a) Blast locations obtained in the reference solution with data for sensors that are within different maximum distances from the actual source location. The last column reports the distance D between the posterior mean and true location of the source. The best location (where D is minimum) is obtained with data from sensors up to 300 m from the blast. The X (South), Y (East), and Z (depth) columns list the posterior mean value for the location coordinates. (b) Source locations sampled by the MCMC algorithm for different maximum source-sensor distances projected on the X - Z vertical plane (dots). The maximum source-sensor distances are 800 m (black dots), 700 m (dark blue), 600 m (pink), 500 m (yellow), 400 m (red), 300 m (light blue), and 200 m (green). Colored circles are posterior mean locations. The yellow sun indicates the true position of the calibration blast.

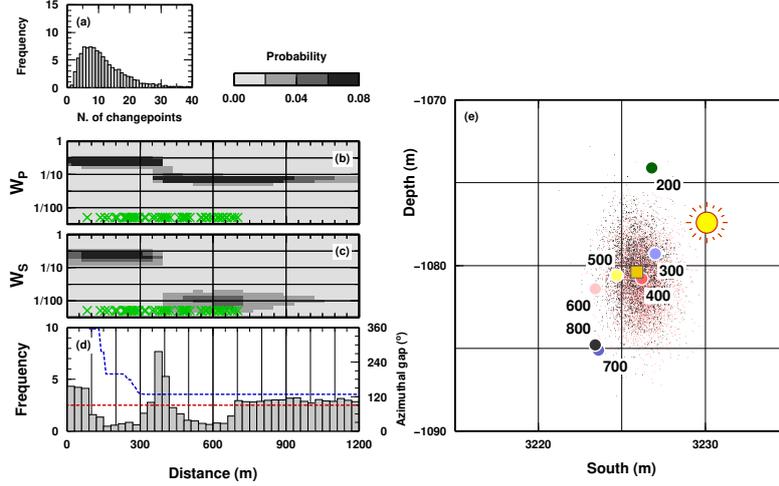


Figure 3. Application of the novel data-weighting method to blast recordings. (a) Posterior probability density function (PDF) of the number of spherical shells, approximated by the histogram obtained by MCMC sampling. (b) Posterior PDF of the weights assigned to P-wave arrival times as a function of source-sensor distance. Green crosses indicate the distance of each sensor from the source. (c) As in (b) for S-wave arrival times. (d) Posterior PDF of shell radii. The blue dashed line indicates the azimuthal gap as a function of distance from the source (see “Materials and Methods” for a definition). The red dashed line indicate the prior probability distribution for the shell distance. (e) Sampled source locations projected onto a X - Z vertical plane (black dots) compared to source locations in the reference solution for a maximum source-sensor distance of 400 meters (red dots; see Figure 2b). The yellow square shows the posterior mean source location obtained with the data-weighting method. Colored circles are the posterior mean source locations obtained in the reference solution (same as in Figure 2b). The yellow sun indicates the true position of the calibration blast.

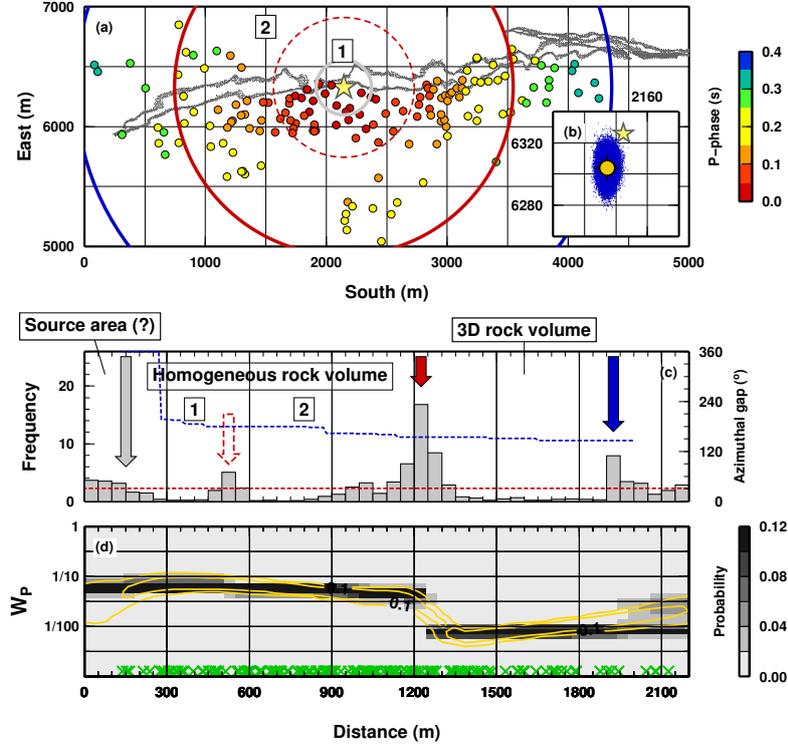


Figure 4. Application of the novel data-weighting method to recordings of the M_w 4.2 natural event. (a) Seismic network geometry (same as in Figure 1e). Colored circles report the position of the main modes in the histogram of sampled shell radii, indicated with colored arrows in panel (c). The inset (b) plots the sampled source locations projected onto a X - Z vertical plane (blue dots) compared to the preliminary location of the event (yellow star). (c) Posterior probability density function (PDF) of shell radii, approximated by the histogram obtained by MCMC sampling. The colored arrows indicate the main modes in the posterior PDF, corresponding to the boundaries of the source area (gray arrow), homogeneous rock volume with all sensors on the same side of the ore body (dashed red), homogeneous rock volume (red), heterogeneous rock volume (blue). (d) Posterior PDF of the weights assigned to P-wave arrival times as a function of source-sensor distance. Green crosses indicate the distance of each sensor from the source. The yellow contours display the posterior PDF of the data weights obtained with the alternative parameterization in Figure 1c (see also Figure Supportin On-line Materials).