

Elasticity and Seismic Waves

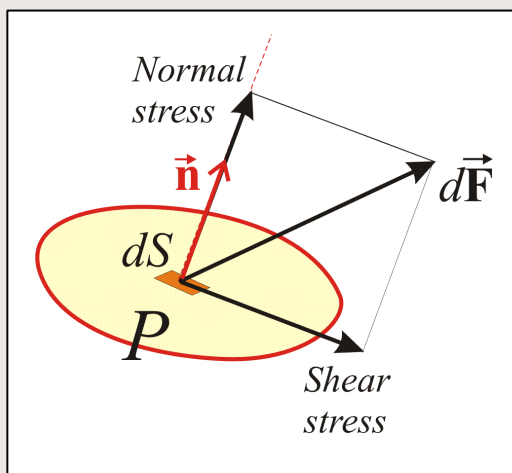
- Concepts of macroscopic mechanics of solids
- Rock as 'elastic continuum'
 - ♦ Elastic body is deformed in response to stress
 - ♦ Two types of deformation (**strain**): Changes in **volume** and **shape**
- Equations of motion
- Wave equations
- Plane and spherical waves
- **Reading:**
 - › Shearer, Sections 2, 3
 - › Telford *et al.*, Section 4.2.

Mechanical properties of continuous solids (or fluids)

- In seismic waves, we consider only small deformations (one part out million or less)
 - ♦ Particles only oscillate slightly near equilibrium points, and the behaviour of fluids/gases is similar to solids
- I try explaining mechanics of continuous solid media through analogies with a mass suspended on a spring:
 - ♦ Mass of the body m is analogous to density ρ
 - ♦ Force vector \mathbf{F} is analogous to stress tensor $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$
 - ♦ Extension of the spring \mathbf{x} – to strain tensor $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$
 - ♦ Hooke's law $\mathbf{F} = -k\mathbf{x}$ – to Hooke's law for solids
 - ♦ Elastic constant k – to elastic “moduli” for solids
 - ♦ Newton's law $m\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{F}$ also applies in both cases
 - ♦ Oscillations of mass m correspond to waves and multiple forms of free oscillations of solid bodies
- In the following slides, we go through these concepts one by one

Stress

- Consider the interior of a deformed body:



At point P , force $d\mathbf{F}$ acts on any infinitesimal area dS

$d\mathbf{F}$ is proportional to dS (shown on the next slide)

Stress, with respect to direction \mathbf{n} , is a vector equal:

$$\lim(d\mathbf{F}/dS) \text{ (as } dS \rightarrow 0)$$

- Stress is measured in [*Newton/m²*], or *Pascal*
 - Note that this is a unit of pressure
- $d\mathbf{F}$ can be decomposed in two components relative to the surface or \mathbf{n} :
 - Orthogonal to the surface (parallel to \mathbf{n} ; this called *normal stress*)
 - Tangential to the surface (*shear stress*)

Stress

- Stress, in general, is a *tensor*:
 - ◆ It is described in terms of 3 force components acting across each of 3 mutually orthogonal surfaces
 - ◆ 6 independent parameters
 - ◆ Force $d\mathbf{F}/dS$ depends on the orientation \mathbf{n} , but stress *does not*
 - ◆ Stress is best described by a matrix:

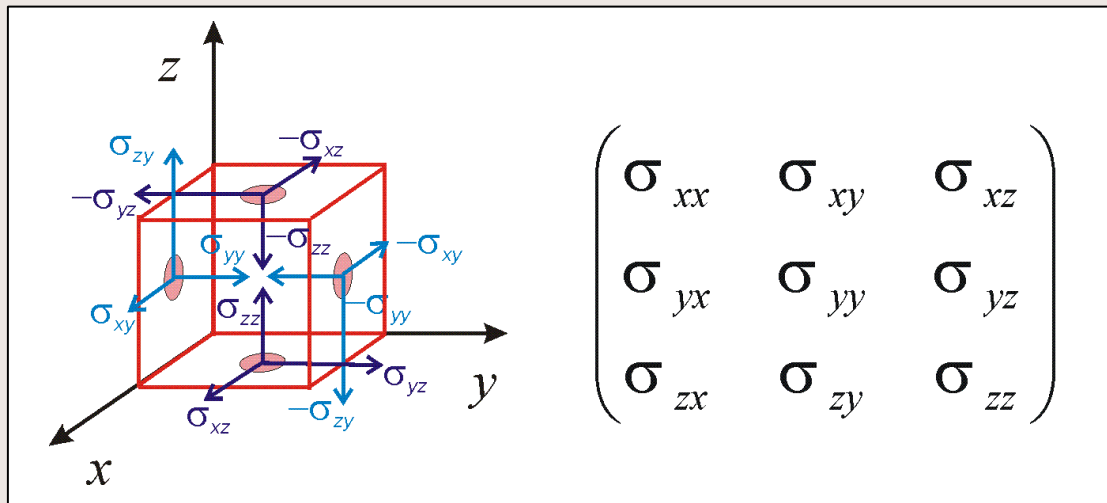
$$\begin{pmatrix} dF_x \\ dF_y \\ dF_z \end{pmatrix} = dS \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{xx} & \sigma_{xy} & \sigma_{xz} \\ \sigma_{yx} & \sigma_{yy} & \sigma_{yz} \\ \sigma_{zx} & \sigma_{zy} & \sigma_{zz} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} n_x \\ n_x \\ n_x \end{pmatrix},$$

$\sigma_{xy} = \sigma_{yx}$,
 $\sigma_{xz} = \sigma_{zx}$,
 $\sigma_{yz} = \sigma_{zy}$

- In a continuous medium, stress depends on (x,y,z,t) and thus it is a *field*

Forces acting on a small cube

- Consider a small cube within the elastic body. Assume dimensions of the cube equal '1'
- Both the *forces* and *torque* acting on the cube from the outside are balanced:



- In consequence, the stress tensor is *symmetric*:

$$\sigma_{ij} = \sigma_{ji}$$
- The stress tensor is given by just 6 independent parameters out of 9

Strain

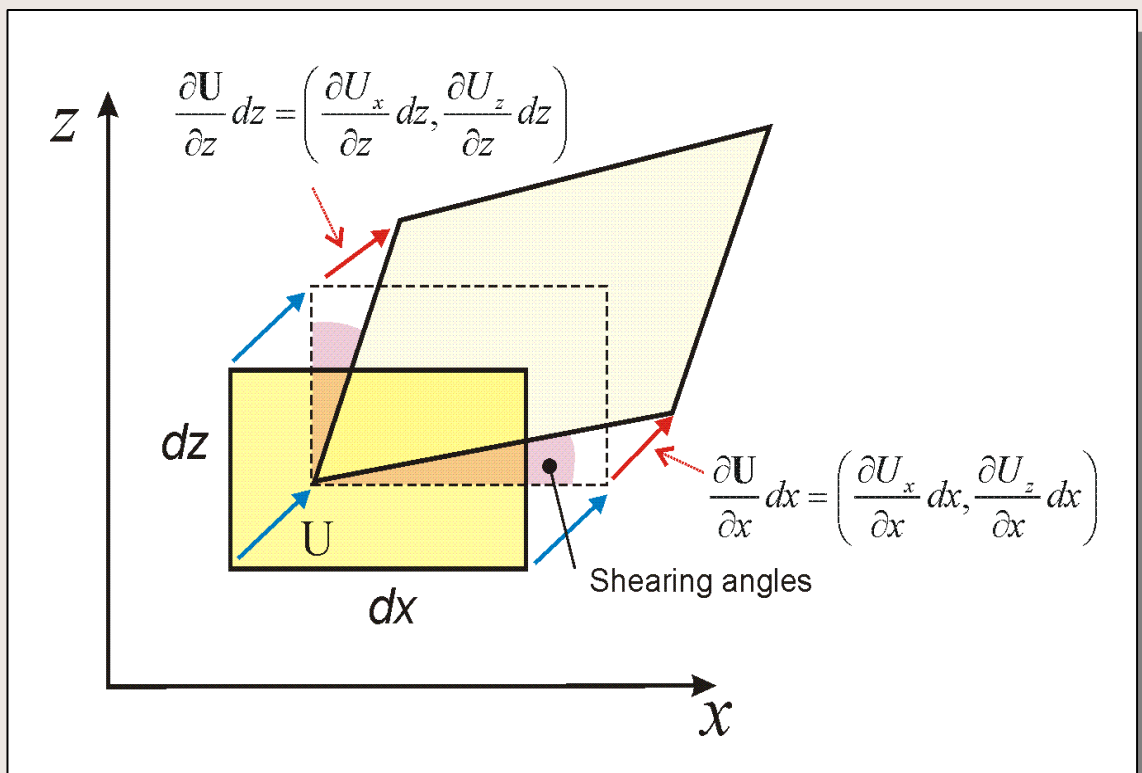
within a deformed body

- Strain is a measure of deformation, *i.e.*, *variation of relative displacement* as associated with a *particular direction* within the body
- It is, therefore, also a *tensor*
 - Represented by a matrix
 - Like stress, it is decomposed into *normal* and *shear* components
- Seismic waves yield strains of 10^{-10} - 10^{-6}
 - So we rely on infinitesimal strain theory

Elementary Strain

- When a body is deformed, *displacements* (\mathbf{U}) of its points are dependent on (x,y,z) , and consist of:
 - Translation (**blue arrows** below)
 - Deformation (**red arrows**)
- Elementary strain is simply

$$e_{ij} = \frac{\partial U_i}{\partial x_j}$$



Strain Components

However, certain forms of $U(x,y,z)$ dependencies correspond to simple rotations of the body without changing its shape:

- ◆ Deformation in which $\frac{\partial U_z}{\partial x} = -\frac{\partial U_x}{\partial z}$ is actually a rotation about the 'y' axis.
- ◆ So, the case of $\frac{\partial U_z}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial U_x}{\partial z}$ is called *pure shear* (no rotation)

To characterize deformation without rotations, only the symmetric combination of the elementary strains is used:

$$\epsilon_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial U_i}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial U_j}{\partial x_i} \right),$$

$$\epsilon_{ij} = \epsilon_{ji}, \text{ where } i, j = x, y, \text{ or } z$$

$$\epsilon = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial U_x}{\partial x} & \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial U_x}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial U_y}{\partial x} \right) & \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial U_x}{\partial z} + \frac{\partial U_z}{\partial x} \right) \\ \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial U_y}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial U_x}{\partial y} \right) & \frac{\partial U_y}{\partial y} & \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial U_y}{\partial z} + \frac{\partial U_z}{\partial y} \right) \\ \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial U_z}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial U_x}{\partial z} \right) & \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial U_z}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial U_y}{\partial z} \right) & \frac{\partial U_z}{\partial z} \end{pmatrix}$$

Dilatational Strain

(relative volume change during deformation)

- Original volume: $V = \delta x \delta y \delta z$
- Deformed volume:
 $V + \delta V = (1 + \varepsilon_{xx})(1 + \varepsilon_{yy})(1 + \varepsilon_{zz}) \delta x \delta y \delta z$
- Dilatational (volumetric) strain:

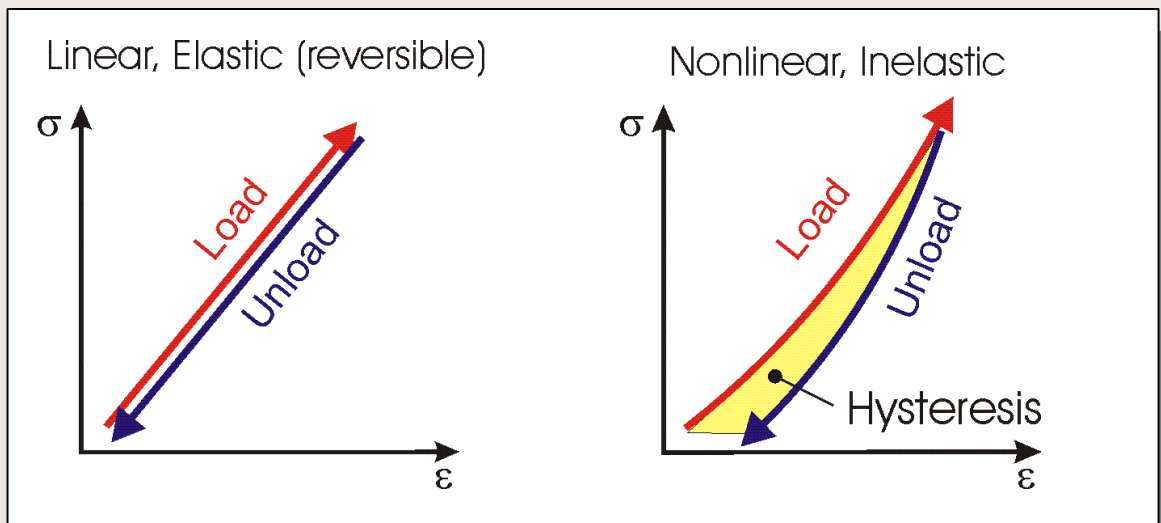
$$\Delta = \frac{\delta V}{V} = (1 + \varepsilon_{xx})(1 + \varepsilon_{yy})(1 + \varepsilon_{zz}) - 1 \approx \varepsilon_{xx} + \varepsilon_{yy} + \varepsilon_{zz}$$

$$\Delta = \varepsilon_{ii} = \partial_i U_i = \nabla_i U_i = \text{div } \mathbf{U}$$

- Note that (as expected) shearing strain does not change the volume

Hooke's Law (general)

- Describes the **stress** developed in a **deformed body**:
 $\mathbf{F} = -k\mathbf{x}$ for an ordinary spring (1-D)
 $\sigma \sim \varepsilon$ (in some sense) for a '*linear*', '*elastic*' 3-D solid.
 This is what it means:



- For a general (*anisotropic*) medium, there are 36 coefficients of proportionality between six independent σ_{ij} and six ε_{ij}

Hooke's Law (isotropic medium)

For isotropic medium, the strain/stress relation is described by just two constants:

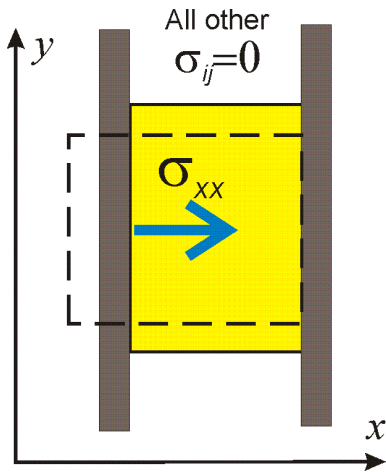
$$\sigma_{ij} = \lambda\Delta + 2\mu\varepsilon_{ij} \text{ for normal strain/stress } (i=j, \text{ where } i,j = x,y,z)$$

$$\sigma_{ij} = 2\mu\varepsilon_{ij} \text{ for shear components } (i \neq j)$$

♦ λ and μ are called the *Lamé constants*.

Four Elastic Moduli

- Depending on boundary conditions (*i.e.*, experimental setup) different combinations of λ and μ may be convenient. These combinations are called *elastic constants*, or **moduli**:
 - Young's modulus** and **Poisson's ratio**:
 - Consider a cylindrical sample uniformly squeezed along axis X :



All other $\sigma_{ij} = 0$

$$\sigma_{xx} = \lambda' \Delta + 2\mu \varepsilon_{xx}$$

$$\sigma_{yy} = \lambda' \Delta + 2\mu \varepsilon_{yy} = 0,$$

$$\sigma_{zz} = \lambda' \Delta + 2\mu \varepsilon_{zz} = 0 \Rightarrow \varepsilon_{yy} = \varepsilon_{zz} = \frac{-\lambda' \Delta}{2\mu}.$$

Young's modulus: $E = \frac{\sigma_{xx}}{\varepsilon_{xx}} = \frac{2\mu(3\lambda' + 2\mu)}{\lambda' + \mu}$

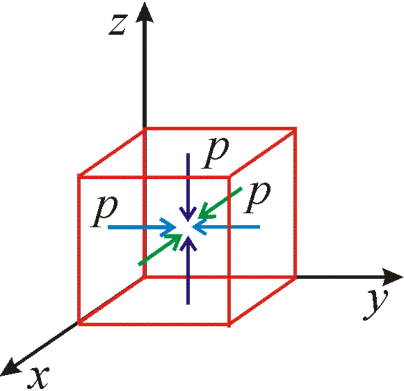
Poisson's ratio: $\nu = -\frac{\varepsilon_{zz}}{\varepsilon_{xx}} = \frac{\lambda'}{2(\lambda' + \mu)}$

Often denoted σ .

Four Elastic Moduli

- Bulk modulus, K

- Consider a cube subjected to hydrostatic pressure



$$\sigma_{xx} = \sigma_{yy} = \sigma_{zz} = -p,$$

$$-3p = 3\lambda'\Delta + 2\mu\Delta$$

Bulk modulus: $K = \frac{-p}{\Delta} = \lambda' + \frac{2}{3}\mu$

- Finally, the constant μ complements K in describing the shear rigidity of the medium, and thus it is also called '*rigidity modulus*'
- For rocks:
 - Generally, $10 \text{ GPa} < \mu < K < E < 200 \text{ GPa}$
 - $0 < \nu < 1/2$ always; for rocks, $0.05 < \nu < 0.45$, for most "hard rocks", ν is near 0.25
- For fluids, $\nu = 1/2$ and $\mu = 0$ (**no shear resistance**)

Strain/Stress Energy Density

- Mechanical work is required to deform an elastic body; as a result, elastic energy is accumulated in the strain/stress field
- When released, this energy gives rise to earthquakes and seismic waves
- For a loaded spring (1-D elastic body),
 $E = \frac{1}{2}kx^2 = \frac{1}{2}Fx$
- Similarly, for a deformed elastic medium, *energy density* is:

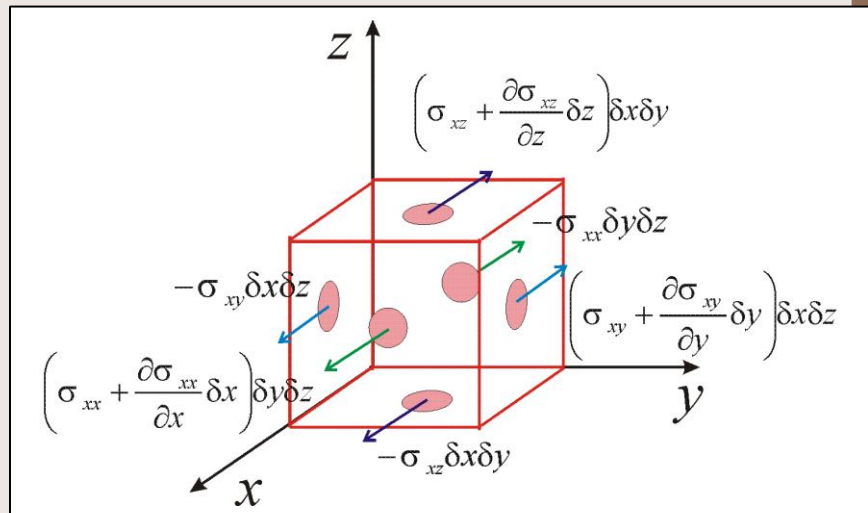
$$E = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=x,y,z} \sigma_{ij} \epsilon_{ij}$$

- Energy density (per unit volume) is thus measured in:

$$\left[\frac{\text{Newton} \times \text{m}}{\text{m}^3} \right] = \left[\frac{\text{Newton}}{\text{m}^2} \right] = [\text{Pa}]$$

Inhomogeneous Stress

If stress is inhomogeneous (variable in space), its derivatives result in a *net force* acting on an infinitesimal volume:



$$\begin{aligned}
 F_x &= \left[\left(\sigma_{xx} + \frac{\partial \sigma_{xx}}{\partial x} \delta x \right) - \sigma_{xx} \right] \delta y \delta z \\
 &+ \left[\left(\sigma_{xy} + \frac{\partial \sigma_{xy}}{\partial y} \delta y \right) - \sigma_{xy} \right] \delta x \delta z \\
 &+ \left[\left(\sigma_{xz} + \frac{\partial \sigma_{xz}}{\partial z} \delta z \right) - \sigma_{xz} \right] \delta x \delta y = \left(\frac{\partial \sigma_{xx}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \sigma_{xy}}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \sigma_{xz}}{\partial z} \right) \delta y \delta x \delta z
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus, for $i = x, y, z$:

$$F_i = \left(\frac{\partial \sigma_{ix}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \sigma_{iy}}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \sigma_{iz}}{\partial z} \right) \delta V$$

Equations of Motion

(Govern motion of the elastic body
with time)

Uncompensated net force will result in *acceleration*
(Newton's law):

Newton's law: $\rho \delta V \frac{\partial^2 U_i}{\partial t^2} = F_i$

$$\rho \frac{\partial^2 U_i}{\partial t^2} = \left(\frac{\partial \sigma_{ix}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \sigma_{iy}}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \sigma_{iz}}{\partial z} \right)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \rho \frac{\partial^2 U_x}{\partial t^2} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\lambda' \Delta + 2\mu \frac{\partial U_x}{\partial x} \right) + \mu \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial U_x}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial U_y}{\partial x} \right) + \mu \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(\frac{\partial U_x}{\partial z} + \frac{\partial U_z}{\partial x} \right) \\ &= \lambda' \frac{\partial \Delta}{\partial x} + \mu \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial U_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial U_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial U_z}{\partial z} \right) + \mu \left(\frac{\partial^2 U_x}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 U_x}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 U_x}{\partial z^2} \right) \\ &= (\lambda' + \mu) \frac{\partial \Delta}{\partial x} + \mu \nabla^2 U_x \end{aligned}$$

These are the
*equations of
motion* for each
of the
components of
U:

$$\rho \frac{\partial^2 U_x}{\partial t^2} = (\lambda' + \mu) \frac{\partial \Delta}{\partial x} + \mu \nabla^2 U_x$$

$$\rho \frac{\partial^2 U_y}{\partial t^2} = (\lambda' + \mu) \frac{\partial \Delta}{\partial y} + \mu \nabla^2 U_y$$

$$\rho \frac{\partial^2 U_z}{\partial t^2} = (\lambda' + \mu) \frac{\partial \Delta}{\partial z} + \mu \nabla^2 U_z$$

Wave Equation

(Propagation of compressional/acoustic waves)

- To show that these three equations describe several types of waves, first let's apply *divergence operation* to them:

$$\rho \frac{\partial^2 \Delta}{\partial t^2} = (\lambda' + \mu) \nabla^2 \Delta + \mu \nabla^2 \Delta = (\lambda' + 2\mu) \nabla^2 \Delta$$

- This *is* a wave equation; compare to the general form of equation describing wave processes:

$$\left[\frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} - \nabla^2 \right] f(x, y, z, t) = 0$$

- Above, *c* is the wave velocity.

- We have:

$$\left[\frac{\rho}{(\lambda' + 2\mu)} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} - \nabla^2 \right] \Delta = 0$$

- This equation describes *compressional (P)* waves

- P*-wave velocity:

$$v_p = \sqrt{\frac{\lambda + 2\mu}{\rho}} = \sqrt{\frac{K + \frac{4}{3}\mu}{\rho}}$$

Wave Equation

(Propagation of shear waves)

- Similarly, let's apply the *curl operation* to the equations for \mathbf{U} (remember, $\mathbf{curl}(\mathbf{grad}) = 0$ for any field:

$$\rho \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \mathbf{curl} \mathbf{U} = \mu \nabla^2 \mathbf{curl} \mathbf{U}$$

- This is also a wave equation; again compare to the general form:

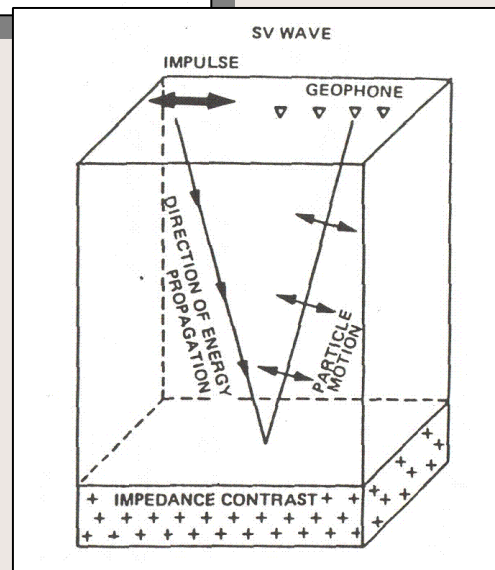
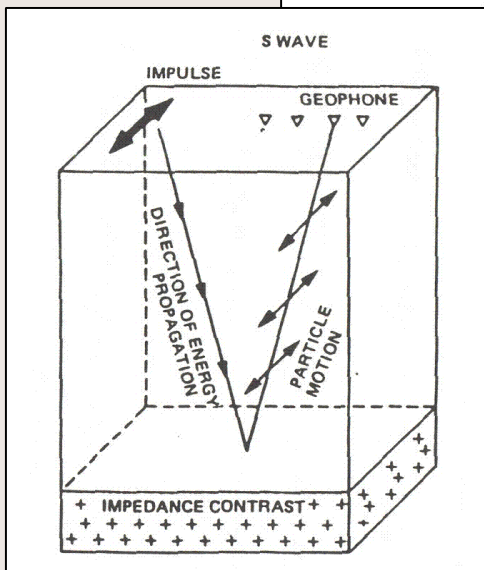
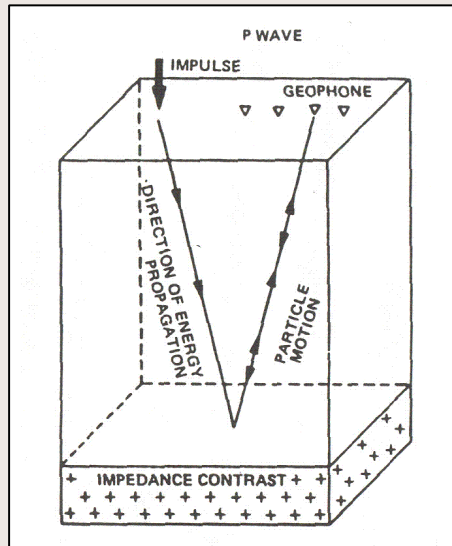
$$\left[\frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} - \nabla^2 \right] f(x, y, z, t) = 0$$

- This equation describes *shear* (S), or *transverse* waves.
- Since it involves rotation, there is no associated volume change, and particle motion is *across* the wave propagation direction.
- Its velocity: $V_S < V_P$,
- For $\nu = 0.25$, $\frac{V_P}{V_S} = \sqrt{3}$

$$V_S = \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\rho}}$$

Wave Polarization

- Thus, elastic solid supports two types of *body waves*:



$$v_P = \sqrt{\frac{\lambda + 2\mu}{\rho}} = \sqrt{\frac{K + \frac{4}{3}\mu}{\rho}}, \quad v_S = \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\rho}}$$

Waveforms and wave fronts

Plane waves

Consider the wave equation:

$$\left[\frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} - \nabla^2 \right] f(x, y, z, t) = 0$$

Why does it describe a wave? Note that it is satisfied with any function of the form:

$$f(x, y, z, t) = \varphi(x - ct)$$

$$f(x, y, z, t) = \varphi(x + ct)$$

The function $\varphi()$ is *the waveform*. Note that the entire waveform propagates with time to the right or left along the x-axis, $x = \pm ct$. This is what is called the *wave process*.

The argument of $\varphi(\dots)$ is called *phase*

Surfaces of constant phase are called *wavefronts*

◆ In our case, the wavefronts are planes:

$$x = \text{phase} \pm ct \quad \text{for any } (y, z).$$

◆ For this reason, the above solutions are *plane waves*

Waveforms and wave fronts

Non-planar waves

- The wave equation is also satisfied by such solutions (*spherical waves*):

$$f(\mathbf{r}, t) = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{r}|} \phi(|\mathbf{r}| - ct)$$

Spreading away from point $\mathbf{r} = 0$

$$f(\mathbf{r}, t) = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{r}|} \phi(|\mathbf{r}| + ct)$$

Converging to $\mathbf{r} = 0$

...and by such (*cylindrical waves*):

$$f(\rho, t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\rho}} \phi(\rho - ct)$$

Spreading away from $\rho = 0$

$$f(\rho, t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\rho}} \phi(\rho + ct)$$

Converging to $\rho = 0$

...and by various other solutions

Question: what is the problem with the second solution in each pair?

Waves and sources

- Homogeneous wave equation describes **free waves**:

$$\left(\frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} - \nabla^2 \right) f = 0$$

- plane, spherical, cylindrical...
- incoming, outgoing...

- Inhomogeneous equation describes waves generated by a **source**:

$$\left(\frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} - \nabla^2 \right) f = \textit{source}$$

- Note that this also includes all of the free waves, and so one also needs **boundary conditions** to specify a unique solution

- For example, no waves usually come from infinity toward the source (this is called the “**radiation condition**”)