

A long term geomagnetic deep sounding analysis from a two-dimensional magnetometer array in Central Italy

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Abstract

Following the earthquake that hit the city of L'Aquila on the 6th April 2009, a scientific project was proposed with the aim of investigating the Abruzzo area by means of different disciplinary approaches including geological, seismic, and physical studies. Electromagnetic field monitoring in the 0.01-500 mHz frequency band was implemented for the investigation of electromagnetic signals in the Earth's crust. Three measurement stations were installed in a tectonically active with a radius of about ten kilometres. Each site was equipped with a fluxgate magnetometer with a 1 Hz sampling rate. This paper describes a long term geomagnetic deep sounding analysis for each site in order to investigate the dimensionality of the electrical structure of the subsoil in the area involved in the survey.

1 Introduction

Electromagnetic signals produced by tectonic activity span a wide frequency range from DC to HF (Johnston M.J.S., 1997; Molchanov O.A. et al., 1998). ULF electromagnetic phenomena are more likely to be detected from ground observations than signals at higher frequencies because of the greater skin depth. Different mechanisms are thought to generate electromagnetic emissions in response to crustal deformations (changes in magnetization or electrical resistivity of crustal rocks, electric currents generated by fluids flowing in the Earth's crust, charge generation mechanisms) (Johnston M. J. S, 2002; Molchanov O.A. et al., 1995). As they propagate through the terrestrial crust, the waves are attenuated by a factor that depends on the electrical structure of layers traversed. Knowledge of this parameter is

30 important when studying electromagnetic signals related to tectonic activity. Geomagnetic
31 Deep Sounding (GDS) is one of the most widely used techniques to investigate the vertical
32 distribution of electrical conductivity. This method allows qualitative analysis of lateral
33 discontinuities using only the magnetic measurements from a single site (Banks R.J, 1973).
34 GDS is a passive method based on the inductive response of the Earth's crust and upper
35 mantle to electromagnetic signals originating from magnetospheric and ionospheric currents.
36 Magnetometer array data makes it possible to map conductive structures and study their
37 tectonic implications. (D. Ian Gough, 1989). Simultaneous data from two (Palangio et al.,
38 2009) or more sites (Alabi, 1983) enables a quantitative interpretation. In a way analogous
39 the magnetotelluric method, the gradiometric magnetic approach can be used to estimate
40 apparent resistivity (Hermance, 1995; Schmucker, 1970). This paper presents a GDS analysis
41 for each station in the magnetic network.

42

43 **2 The network stations**

44 Within the framework of the National "Firb Abruzzo" project, a network of three
45 electromagnetic stations was installed near L'Aquila (central Italy). The stations were set out
46 in an array scaled to match the depth of the sismogenetic zone (10-15 Km). This positioned
47 each station in the near field of sismogenetic sources in the frequency band up to 100 Hz
48 (Meloni et al., 2015). Magnetic data were acquired using a triaxial fluxgate magnetometer
49 (Lemi 18) with a 1 Hz sampling rate, and a triaxial search coil magnetometer (Metronix
50 ADU-07) with a 256 Hz sampling rate. Electric field was measured using two horizontal
51 ADU-07 sensors. Figure 1 shows the array layout of the three stations: Collebrincioni (CLB),
52 Paganica (PGN), and Preturo (PRT). They are located at the vertices of a nearly isosceles
53 triangle on a plane inclined by about 3° to the horizontal. These sites were selected after a
54 magnetic measurement campaign at eight points in the chosen area. A maximum distance
55 between the measuring stations of less than 13 km was chosen on the basis of the structure of
56 the electrical conductivity of the subsoil in the area, evaluated in a previous magnetotelluric
57 study (Palangio et al., 2009). Noise analysis was performed by Principal Component Analysis
58 with Singular Value Decomposition (or the discrete Karhunen-Loève transform) applied to
59 the covariance matrix. This methodology enabled separation of the magnetic signal from the
60 surrounding noise (Clifford G.D., 2005). Figure 2 shows the first eight eigenvalues of the
61 covariance matrix obtained for the PGN station as an example. The first three eigenvalues are

62 those associated with the principal external natural sources while the last five eigenvalues
63 represent the largest sources of noise. Total magnetic noise is represented in figure 3 and was
64 obtained by the linear combination of the eigenvalues associated with the noise with their
65 relative eigenfunctions at the PGN station. The analysis involved separating the two time
66 segments 03-21 UT (day) and 21-03 UT (night). The root mean square values for each
67 magnetic component in the two time intervals are shown in the figure. The peak intensity
68 during day-time is due to human activities. Despite its low level, the noise is greater than the
69 amplitude of the endogenic signals, requiring the use of high sensitivity measuring
70 instruments, in the order of picoTesla, like search coil magnetometers. However, to
71 discriminate very weak signals from the Earth's interior, a single site measurement is not
72 sufficient and a gradiometric approach is required using simultaneous measurements from the
73 three stations. This technique, which will be published at a later date, makes it possible not
74 only to eliminate the contribution of external natural field signals whose gradient is null
75 across the distance between the measurement stations, but also to discriminate internal signals
76 from external signals by analysing the phase difference of the gradient of magnetic signals
77 (Clark, 2012). The magnetic sensors at the stations were housed in two fiberglass tanks buried
78 at a depth of about 2 meters in order to achieve passive temperature stabilization, eliminate
79 wind induced vibrations, and increase the mechanical stability of the sensors. Solar panels
80 were used to power the system with a linear charge controller to charge the batteries
81 supplying all the instrumentation. All power devices were mounted on an aluminium trellis
82 about 100 meters away from the instrumentation to prevent interference, with all power cables
83 and signal transmissions being "twisted" and shielded for the same reason. The trellis also
84 housed the power supply system and antennas of a GSM-UMTS router for data transmission,
85 connecting the equipment to the Internet through the local telephone network. Figures 4, 5,
86 and 6 show the three sites, and figures 7 and 8 show the search coil magnetic sensors and
87 fluxgate magnetometers. All the sensor are orientated along the geomagnetic reference system
88 H, D, and Z. The CLB station is shown in figure 4 as an example, and more details about the
89 station implementations are available in Di Lorenzo et al. 2016.

90

91 **3 Geomagnetic Deep Sounding Analysis**

92 At mid latitudes, magnetic field variations on the Earth's surface produced by the electrical
93 currents in the most conductive layer of the ionosphere (altitude ~100 Km) are almost

94 horizontal and uniform over hundreds of kilometres. The principal source of these currents is
 95 a dynamo mechanism due to differential solar heating of the ionospheric plasma which drives
 96 a sheet current in the day side hemisphere, which is responsible for the so called ‘diurnal
 97 variation’ (Matsushita S., 1967, 1968). At higher frequencies (ULF band), magnetic signals
 98 are produced by an interaction between the solar wind and the Earth’s magnetosphere, known
 99 as geomagnetic micropulsation. (McPherron et al., 1972). Both these external natural sources
 100 are usually employed when sounding the electrical structure of the Earth’s crust and upper
 101 mantle. The propagation into the Earth of magnetic waves with periods from 1 to 10^5 s is a
 102 diffusive process ($\sigma \gg \omega\epsilon$) because the Earth’s conductivity varies from 10^{-4} to 10 S/m.
 103 According to the expression of the *skin depth*:

$$104 \quad \delta = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\mu_0 \sigma \omega}} \quad (1)$$

105 when $\mu_0 = 4\pi \cdot 10^{-7}$ H/m is magnetic permeability in a vacuum and σ is the Earth’s mean
 106 conductivity integrated across the transit layers. Lower frequencies penetrate deeper into the
 107 ground. In a simple horizontally stratified structure, the induced currents are also horizontal
 108 and would produce a horizontal magnetic field in the case of an infinitely extended conductor.
 109 A vertical magnetic component appears in the case of lateral discontinuities due to electrical
 110 currents flowing along the boundaries separating regions of different conductivity. This
 111 component is therefore defined the ‘anomalous’ induced field. Using data from a single
 112 measurement station, a geomagnetic induction study is reduced to a problem of an ‘input-
 113 output system’ in which the inputs are the horizontal magnetic variations H and D of external
 114 origin, and the output is the induced vertical magnetic field Z caused by electrical currents
 115 flowing along the discontinuity boundaries. In the frequency domain the relation between the
 116 horizontal and vertical magnetic components is expressed by the linear equation:

$$117 \quad Z(f) = A(f)H(f) + B(f)D(f) + \epsilon(f) \quad (2)$$

118 when the last term represents the non inductive component due to the vertical component of
 119 external sources (although the horizontal field of external sources is a good approximation, it
 120 was not possible to ignore the presence of a small vertical component produced by toroidal
 121 currents in the ionosphere). A and B are defined the magnetic transfer functions (TF) and are
 122 complex quantities, usually represented as a vector, the *induction arrow* or *tipper* [A B].
 123 Since the solutions of the diffusive problem are related to the electrical structure of the

124 Earth's subsoil, the magnetic transfer functions provide information about geoelectric
125 dimensionality. For a 1D Earth the solutions that satisfy the problem predict a completely
126 horizontal magnetic field. As a consequence the predicted A and B values would both be null.
127 A vertical magnetic field would appear in a 2D structure, associated to the transverse electric
128 (TE) mode. In this case only the horizontal component perpendicular to the *strike* (the
129 direction along which conductivity is constant) is responsible for the induction. As a
130 consequence only the corresponding coefficient (A or B) will differ from zero. Magnetic
131 transfer function are therefore useful to identify the direction of geoelectric discontinuity.
132 However, this method requires a further step before interpreting the data. This is because the
133 strike direction is usually not known *a priori* and so magnetic measurements are generally
134 made in a general reference system rotated relative to the strike. Methods based on the
135 maximisation of coherence between the horizontal and vertical magnetic fields make it
136 possible to find the strike direction *a posteriori* (G.D. Naidu, 2012). A more immediate
137 analysis independent of the orientation of the measurement system makes use of the
138 combination of A and B as a vector (the tipper/induction arrow) of amplitude and phase
139 defined as:

$$140 \quad T_{amp}(f) = \sqrt{A^2(f) + B^2(f)} \quad (3a)$$

$$141 \quad T_{phase}(f) = a \tan(B(f) / A(f)) \quad (3b)$$

142 The first is rotationally invariant. In a 2D structure the position of the tipper identifies the
143 strike orientation. It is perpendicular to the strike and its magnitude is proportional to the
144 intensity of anomalous currents. In the Wiese (Gubbins, D., Herrero-Bervera E., 2007)
145 convention the tipper arrow points towards the region of lower conductivity or, by adding
146 180°, the reversed *Parkinson vector* points towards the region of higher conductivity where
147 the anomalous currents are concentrated (HOBBS, 1992). Another rotational invariant is the
148 *tipper skew*. This is a measure of dimensionality or noise for GDS data, its expression being
149 related to the determinant of the TF tensor as:

$$150 \quad S(f) = \frac{2}{T} \begin{vmatrix} A_{re}(f) & B_{re}(f) \\ A_{im}(f) & B_{im}(f) \end{vmatrix}$$

151 When T is given by:

$$152 \quad T = \sqrt{A_{re}^2(f) + A_{im}^2(f) + B_{re}^2(f) + B_{im}^2(f)}$$

153

154 More explicitly:

155

$$156 \quad S(f) = \frac{2[A_{re}(f)B_{im}(f) - A_{im}(f)B_{re}(f)]}{\sqrt{A_{re}^2(f) + A_{im}^2(f) + B_{re}^2(f) + B_{im}^2(f)}} \quad (4)$$

157

158 If the underground structure is 1D or 2D and environmental noise is zero, then the skew will
159 be zero. Skew values below 0.2 are indicative of a 2D structure, skew values above 0.2 are an
160 indication of 3D geology and/or higher noise levels.

161

162 **3.1 Data analysis (preliminary considerations)**

163 A Geomagnetic Deep Sounding analysis was performed for each of the three stations in the
164 network array using sampled 1 Hz magnetic data. First the original data was filtered with a
165 Butterworth filter (order 4) in the frequency band 1-450 mHz in order to eliminate the
166 contribution of diurnal variation. The purpose was to investigate the electrical properties of
167 the crust and upper mantle in the 1-100 Km range, and so this study used ULF signals of a
168 skin depth (eq. 1) comparable to these values, considering a mean resistivity of $10^2 \Omega\text{m}$. The
169 upper limit of the frequency band chosen for the filter was the Nyquist frequency. Next, a
170 survey was conducted for frequencies that satisfied the hypothesis of external field
171 uniformity. This was achieved by searching for the ‘spectral zone’ where the coherence
172 between the horizontal components calculated for each pair of magnetic stations is maximum
173 (at least 0.8). Figure 9 shows an example (day 05 March 2015) of inter station coherence of
174 the analogous magnetic components plotted against frequency. Coherence was calculated for
175 all the possible pairs of magnetic stations. The vertical dotted lines indicate the limits of the
176 applied ‘selected’ band: 10-50 mHz. This is the higher-frequency portion of the Pc4 and the
177 lower-frequency portion of the Pc3 geomagnetic micropulsations band. These signals
178 penetrate the Earth’s interior down to distances of about 5-15 Km, which are the typical
179 depths at which earthquakes hypocentres are located in the area investigated. They arise from
180 electrical currents in the ionosphere excited by the magnetospheric Alfvén waves propagating
181 along the geomagnetic field lines. They typically occur in daytime and are controlled by

182 various parameters like solar wind velocity, Interplanetary Magnetic Field intensity, and the
183 cone angle value (Villante et al., 1992). Upstream waves driven by the solar wind through the
184 magnetosphere are believed to be the principal mechanism responsible for the generation of
185 Pc3-Pc4 micropulsations (Meloni et al. 2015). Figure 10 shows the mean daily values of the
186 interstation coherence calculated in the 10-50 mHz frequency band from 2014 to May 2017.
187 There is no data for 2013 because only the CLB station was working at the time. The lower
188 coherence between the vertical components is due to different local inductive effects. Figures
189 11a, 11b, and 11c show the spectral amplitude ratio between the horizontal and vertical
190 components calculated for three different frequency bands (1-10 mHz, 10-50 mHz, and 50-
191 200 mHz) at CLB, PGN, and PRT, respectively. At lower frequencies, the horizontal
192 components prevail over the vertical ones as foreseen on the basis of the sources cited above.
193 The anomalous behaviour observed at the end of 2013 (at CLB, the only working station)
194 seems to be caused by a greater influence of the Z component. Villante et al. (1998)
195 conducted a long term (1985-1994) statistical analysis of man-made noise contamination in
196 micropulsation measurements from the geomagnetic observatory of L'Aquila. They found a
197 significant noise contribution to the local signal power in the 50-100 mHz band affecting
198 mainly the X and Z components during weekdays (from Tuesday through Friday) with a
199 minimum at weekends. Similar features are also observed at lower frequencies (5-45 mHz)
200 with smaller weekly variations. A further analysis of magnetic measurements taken at the
201 same site during a marked minimum in solar and magnetospheric activity (2008-2010)
202 (Villante et al., 2014) revealed the existence of a persistent artificial signal that affects the
203 natural daytime spectrum caused by a DC electrified railway located ~33 Km away from the
204 L'Aquila geomagnetic observatory. The same characteristics are exhibited in the H and Z
205 components above 50 mHz, while the D component is less explicitly affected and in a
206 different manner. These studies suggest a possible influence of railway noise on the magnetic
207 measurements taken at CLB at the end of 2013. An analysis of the coherence between each
208 pair of magnetic components measured at CLB (fig. 12) shows that there is high coherence
209 (~0.8) between H and Z. Moreover, the wave polarization characteristic (fig. 13) is well
210 defined in this period. The wave vector was almost horizontal for many days, with a strong Z
211 component contribution. The polarization analysis was achieved by calculating the amplitude
212 and position of the pseudovector obtained from the spectral magnetic matrix. The first is
213 proportional to the area of polarization ellipse, while the second corresponds to the wave
214 vector direction. (Means J.D., 1972). The hypothesis of the influence of railways noise is

215 further supported by the analysis of the magnetospheric activity. Analysing the Kp index
 216 trend calculated at the Duronia geomagnetic observatory (fig. 14), a local minimum in
 217 magnetic activity can be observed at the end of 2013. Provided the railway traffic was not
 218 changed during this period, natural lower intensity signals allowed artificial noise to emerge.

219 3.2 Data analysis (results)

220 The real and imaginary parts of the induction arrow were evaluated minimizing the residual ϵ
 221 (eq. 2) relative to A and B by means of the standard least-squares method. (Everett and
 222 Hyndman, 1967, Gough and Ingham, 1983). They were calculated from the cross spectral
 223 densities as:

$$A(f) = \frac{\langle Z(f)X^*(f) \rangle \langle Y(f)Y^*(f) \rangle - \langle Z(f)Y^*(f) \rangle \langle Y(f)X^*(f) \rangle}{\langle X(f)X^*(f) \rangle \langle Y(f)Y^*(f) \rangle - \langle X(f)Y^*(f) \rangle \langle Y(f)X^*(f) \rangle} \quad (5)$$

$$B(f) = \frac{\langle Z(f)Y^*(f) \rangle \langle X(f)X^*(f) \rangle - \langle Z(f)X^*(f) \rangle \langle X(f)Y^*(f) \rangle}{\langle Y(f)Y^*(f) \rangle \langle X(f)X^*(f) \rangle - \langle Y(f)X^*(f) \rangle \langle X(f)Y^*(f) \rangle}$$

225 where the symbol $\langle \rangle$ indicates the mean values of cross spectra calculated over temporal sub
 226 intervals of equal length. The study applied a Hanning window of 512 seconds (frequency
 227 resolution is 2 mHz) covering the entire day without overlapping. Figures 15a, 15b, and 15c
 228 show the analysis for the three sites. The annual mean and standard deviation of both
 229 amplitude and phase are also reported. At CLB the real and imaginary tipper are almost
 230 parallel ($\sim 70^\circ$) except during periods of greater variation (real $\sim 25^\circ$ and imaginary $\sim 40^\circ$ at the
 231 end of 2013, real $\sim 90^\circ$ and imaginary $\sim 70^\circ$ at the beginning of 2017). Their intensities are
 232 always comparable except at the end of 2013 when the amplitude of the real tipper prevails
 233 considerably over its imaginary part. Unlike 2013, the change observed during the spring of
 234 2017 is only on the real tipper position. Furthermore, no corresponding greater influence of
 235 the Z component was observed, as seen from the spectral amplitude (fig. 11a) and polarization
 236 analysis (fig. 13) of the 10-50 mHz frequency band. The real tipper (amplitude and phase)
 237 appears to be most sensitive to changes involving its imaginary part. At PGN the tipper values
 238 were almost constant over the whole period. The real and imaginary tipper positions always
 239 differ by almost 30° (real $\sim 70^\circ$, imaginary $\sim 40^\circ$) and the amplitude is different, the real tipper
 240 always being slightly greater. Finally, at PRT no significant changes were observed in the real
 241 and imaginary parts for both amplitude and position ($\sim 70^\circ$). The data was more scattered
 242 compared to the other stations due to the greater artificial noise. To conclude, since the real

243 and imaginary induction arrows are approximately parallel for all three stations (lower
244 subplot of figures. 15a, 15b, and 15c) the structure of the investigated area is dominated by a
245 two-dimensional feature, with the induction arrows perpendicular to the conductivity contrast.
246 Considering the position of the real tipper at $\sim 70^\circ$ for all the stations, it can be deduced that
247 the area investigated is characterised by a geoelectric discontinuity (strike) along $\sim 160^\circ$ from
248 magnetic North. This direction approximately coincides with the orientation ($\sim 140^\circ$ from
249 geographic North) of the fault system (Galadini F. And Galli P., 2000); (Vezzani L. and
250 Ghisetti F., 1998) in the L'Aquila area. The flow of anomalous induced electric currents, due
251 to horizontal magnetic field variations, in response to the electrical discontinuity, is parallel to
252 the geoelectric strike. Finally, a further analysis of dimensionality was conducted by
253 calculating the skew as defined by equation (4). The results are represented in figures 16a,
254 16b, and 16c. All the three stations exhibit 2D structures with different noise levels: for
255 station PRT, skew mean value is slightly above 0.2, which may be due to higher artificial
256 noise.

257 **3.3 Discussion**

258 The electrical properties of subsoil can be expressed by a simple RL circuit (resistance and
259 inductance) (see appendix). The RL circuit model (fig. 17) can best represent the average
260 properties of the EM response. The amplitude of the real (in-phase) and imaginary (out-of-
261 phase) components of the EM response (TF) derive from the different sensitivity to the
262 electrical characteristics, either reactive or resistive, of the conductors carrying the induced
263 currents. In structures with electrical properties dominated by inductance rather than by
264 resistance, the induced currents will be largely in-phase with the inducing fields, and so in this
265 case the real part of the TF prevails. In structures in which resistance exceeds inductance, a
266 considerable phase difference will occur between the induced and inducing fields, leading to a
267 substantial imaginary part of TF accompanying the real part. The limit situations are
268 represented by electric circuits whose impedance is totally inductive ($R \sim 0$) or totally resistive
269 ($\omega L \sim 0$). The corresponding phase of the induced magnetic field, given by the equation in the
270 Appendix, would become 0° in the first case and $\pi/2$ in the second case. However, the upper
271 limit is not real because for low frequencies ($\sigma \gg \omega \epsilon$) the Earth's interior behaves as a good
272 conductor ($\varphi \sim \pi/4$) but not as a super conductor ($\varphi \sim \pi/2$). So the expected angle varies
273 between 0° (circuit completely inductive) and $\pi/4$ (circuit with resistance equal to
274 inductance). Figure 18 shows the calculated phase shift between the induced (Z) and the

275 inducing (H and D) magnetic fields, related by equation (2). At CLB and PRT the subsoil
276 presents a greater resistive component ($30^\circ < \varphi < 60^\circ$) than at PGN ($\varphi \sim 30^\circ$). The CLB subsoil
277 exhibits the greatest temporal variations in its electrical properties. According to the electrical
278 model, the anomalous behaviour at the end of 2013 could be ascribed to a reduction in the
279 electrical resistivity of the subsoil. This could explain the high inductive response at this time
280 in the amplitude of the tipper, mainly in the real part (fig. 15a). On the other hand, this
281 conclusion is in contradiction with the idea that at the end of 2013 the Z component of an
282 artificial noise source prevailed over the magnetic measurements. This is because if resistivity
283 reduces, the induced currents will oppose external signals (even noise) more strongly. These
284 conclusions induce support for the idea that the anomalous behaviour of TF at CLB at the end
285 of 2013 was due to a strong inductive response, rather than the presence of an external
286 artificial noise that emerges from natural signals. According to the position of the real tipper
287 arrows, this strong inductive response appears to be due to anomalous currents located at $\sim 25^\circ$
288 from magnetic North, maybe produced by the migration of a conductive fluid that could have
289 modified the conductivity of the area under the CLB site. However, further analyses are
290 required before this hypothesis can be confirmed. First of all, the nature of the vertical
291 magnetic field observed at CLB at the end of 2013 needs to be better understood.

292

293 **4 Conclusions**

294 A long term (about four years, from 2013 to 2017) Geomagnetic Deep Sounding analysis was
295 conducted in an area surrounding L'Aquila (central Italy), the city seriously damaged by the 6
296 April 2009 earthquake. One Hertz sampled data from an array of three magnetic stations
297 (CLB, PGN, and PRT) were used for this purpose. The study was included within the
298 framework of the Fibr Abruzzo Project, a scientific project supported by the MIUR, aimed at
299 investigating the Abruzzo area under different disciplinary approaches (geological, seismic,
300 and physical). The inductive response of the subsoil to magnetic variations due to
301 magnetospheric Pc3-Pc4 micropulsation sources (10-50 mHz) was analysed, computing the
302 amplitude and position of the tipper arrow. The results revealed a 2D electrical structure for
303 all three measurement sites. The real tipper, which is related to the inductive reactance of the
304 subsoil, indicated a geoelectric discontinuity with an orientation of about $\sim 160^\circ$ relative to
305 magnetic North. This orientation matches the typical fault disposition in the area investigated.
306 The skew analysis confirmed the two dimensionality of the electrical structure. The real tipper

307 seems to be more sensitive to time variations than the imaginary part. According to a simple
 308 RL electrical circuit model, this implies that the inductive reactance of the subsoil is more
 309 susceptible to changes than the resistive reactance. At CLB and PRT the resistive component
 310 is greater than at PGN. PRT was seen to be the noisiest station. The major variation in
 311 inductive response observed at CLB at the end of 2013 was due to a reduction in the electrical
 312 resistivity of subsoil, probably caused by movement of some electrically charged fluid.
 313 According to the tipper position, the resulting anomalous electrical currents appear to be
 314 running at $\sim 25^\circ$ from magnetic North.

315

316 **5 Appendix**

317 *The electrical RL model*

318 A schematic representation is provided in figure 17.

319 The inducing magnetic field is given by:

$$320 \quad B_{ext}(t) = B_0 e^{-j\omega t}$$

321 Where B_0 is the amplitude of the alternating magnetic induction field and ω is its angular
 322 frequency.

323 The induced electromotive force in the conductor is:

$$324 \quad emf = -\frac{d\phi}{dt} = j\omega S B_0 e^{-j\omega t}$$

325 where S is the coil area. Thus, the current in the conductor is:

$$326 \quad i(t) = \frac{j\omega S B_0 e^{-j\omega t}}{R + j\omega L}$$

327 The magnetic induction field corresponding to this current is:

$$328 \quad B_{induced}(t) = c \frac{j\omega B_0 e^{-j\omega t}}{R + j\omega L}$$

329 Where the c parameter depends on several parameters, including the geometry of the
 330 conductor. Explicating:

$$331 \quad B_{induced}(t) = -\frac{c\omega^2 L B_0 e^{-j\omega t}}{R^2 + \omega^2 L^2} + j \frac{c\omega R B_0 e^{-j\omega t}}{R^2 + \omega^2 L^2}$$

332 the phase shift between the induced and inducing field is

$$333 \quad \phi = \tan^{-1} \frac{R}{\omega L}$$

334

335 For $\omega L \gg R$:

$$336 \quad B_{induced}(t) \approx -c \frac{B_0 e^{-j\omega t}}{L}$$

$$337 \quad \phi = \tan^{-1} \frac{R}{\omega L} \cong 0$$

338 so the inductive component gives an in-phase contribution relative to the inducing field B_0

339

340 For $R \gg \omega L$:

$$341 \quad B_{induced}(t) \approx c \frac{j\omega B_0 e^{-j\omega t}}{R}$$

$$342 \quad \phi = \tan^{-1} \frac{R}{\omega L} \cong \frac{\pi}{2}$$

343 the resistive component has a phase delay that approaches 90° .

344

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350

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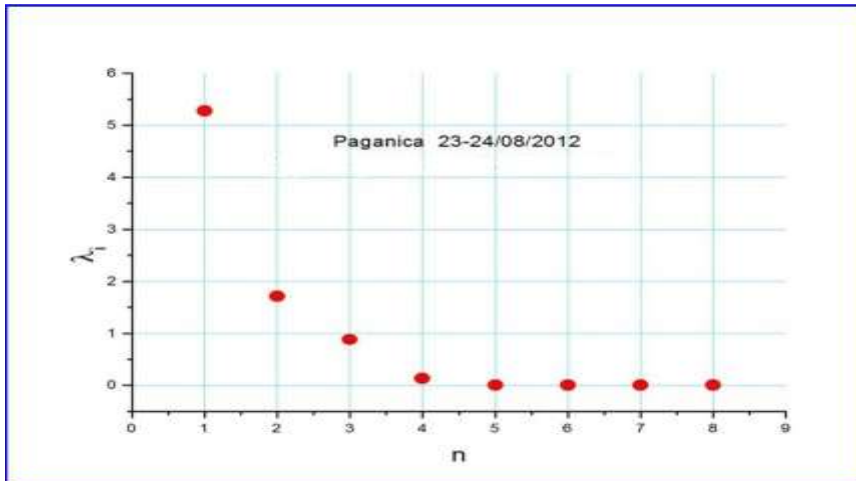
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454 Figure 1. The interferometric array.

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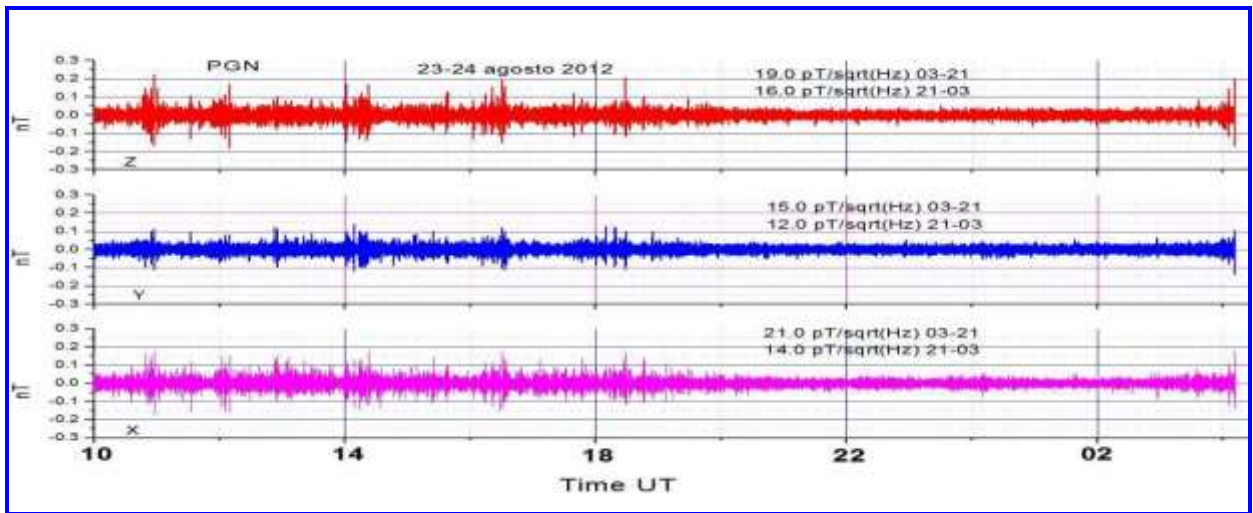


456

457 Figure 2. The first eight eigenvalues of the covariance matrix.

458

459



460

461

462 Figure 3. Noise at PGN.

463



464

465 Figure 4. The CLB site.

466



PGN Paganica

Instrument shelter

Fibreglass tank

Fibreglass tank

467

468 Figure 5. The PGN site.

469

470



PTR Preturo

471

472 Figure 6. The PRT site.



473

474 Figure 7. Search coil magnetometer sensors.

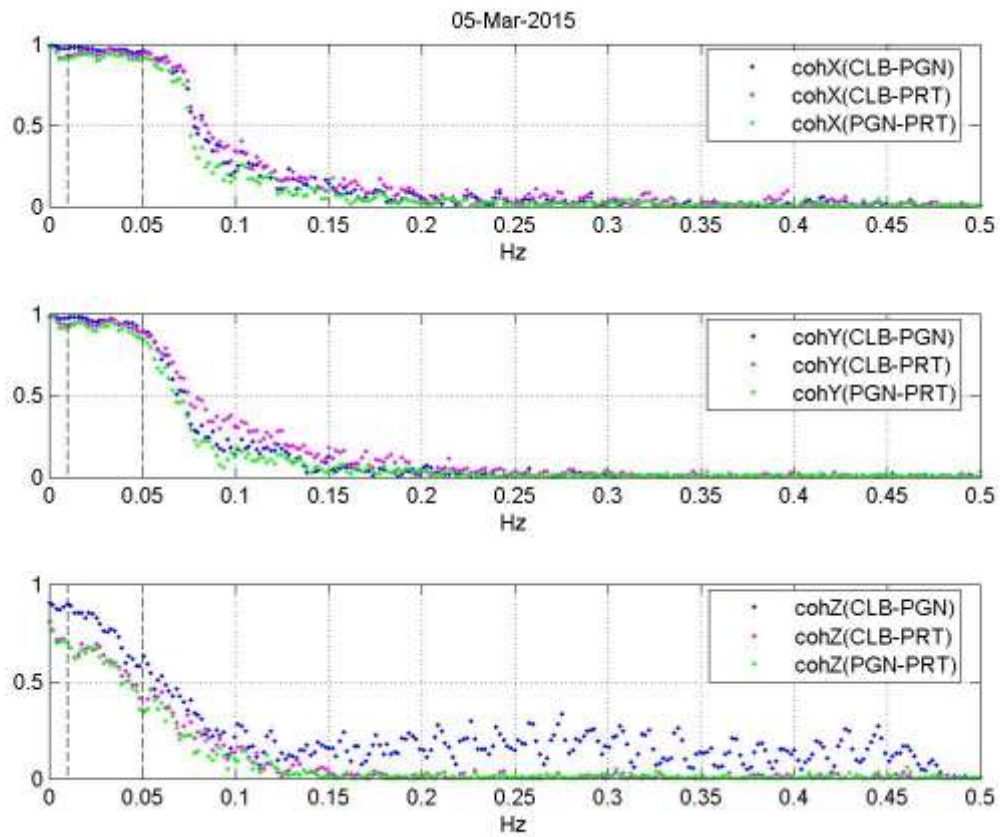
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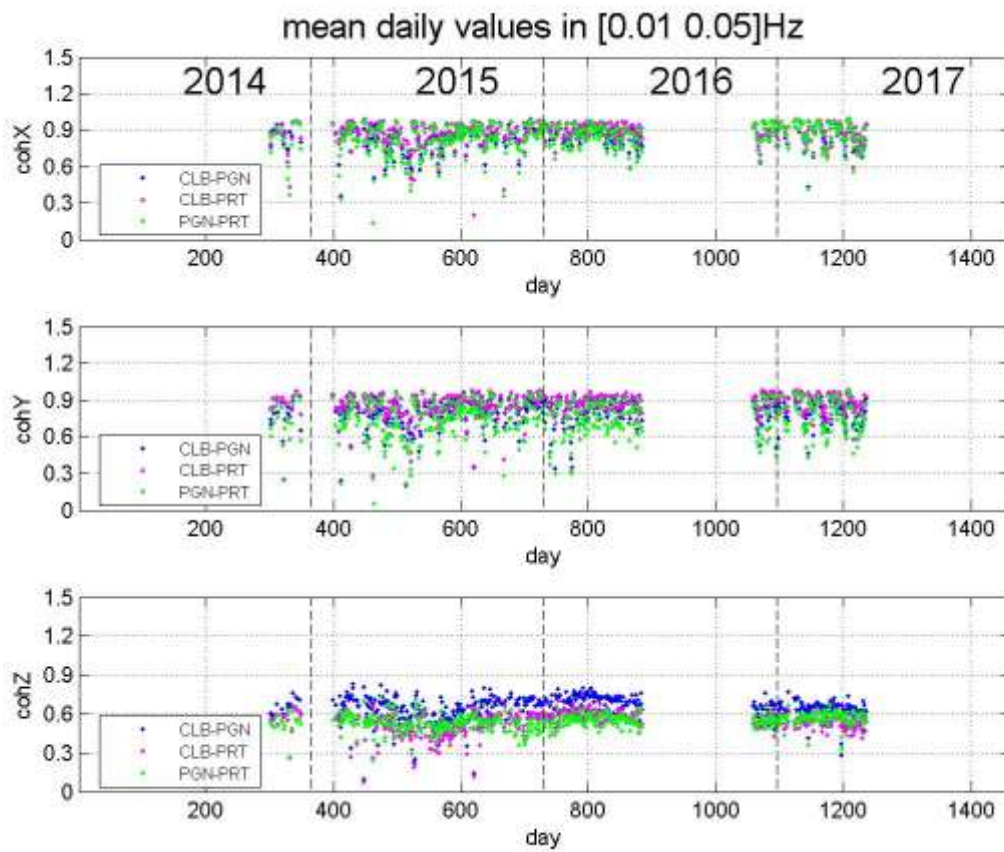
477 Figure 8. Flux gate magnetometer sensors.

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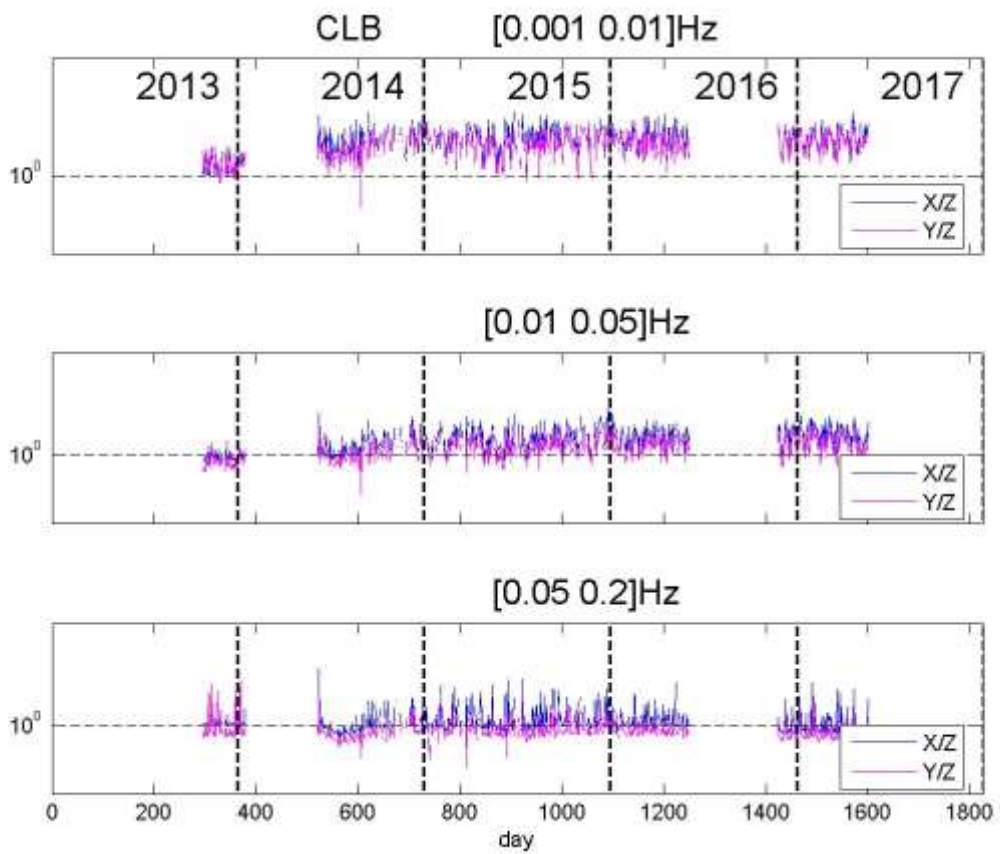
479
 480 Figure 9. An example of interstation coherence between the analogous magnetic components
 481 plotted against frequency. The vertical dotted lines indicate the chosen frequency band limits
 482 where the coherence between horizontal components is maximum.

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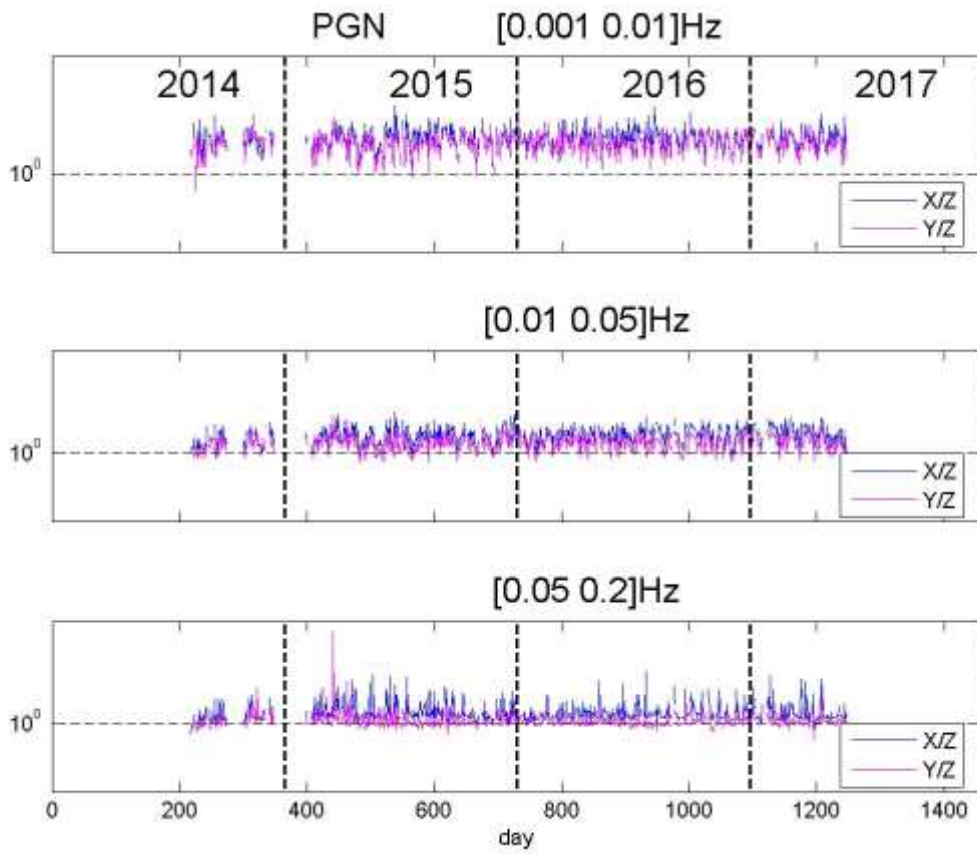
485 Figure 10. Mean daily values of interstation coherence between analogous magnetic field
 486 components calculated in the 10-50 mHz frequency band.



487

488 Figure 11a. Spectral amplitude ratio between horizontal and vertical components at the CLB
 489 station, calculated for three different frequency bands.

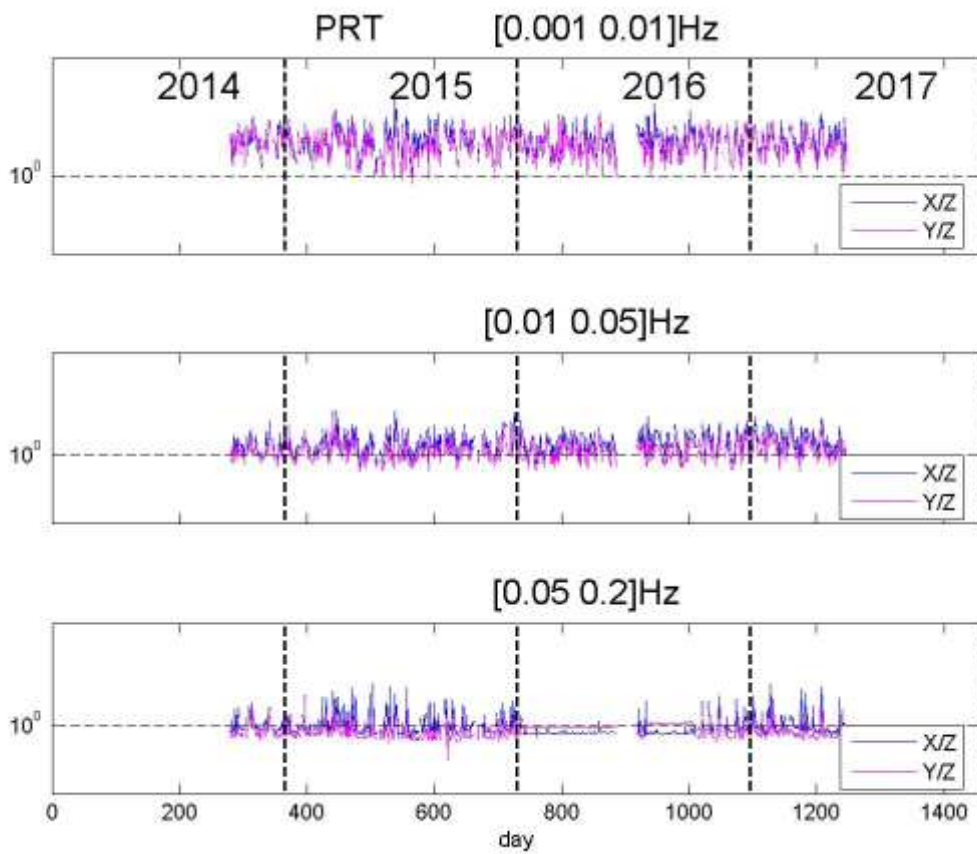
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491

492 Figure 11b. Spectral amplitude ratio between horizontal and vertical components at the PGN
 493 station, calculated for three different frequency bands.

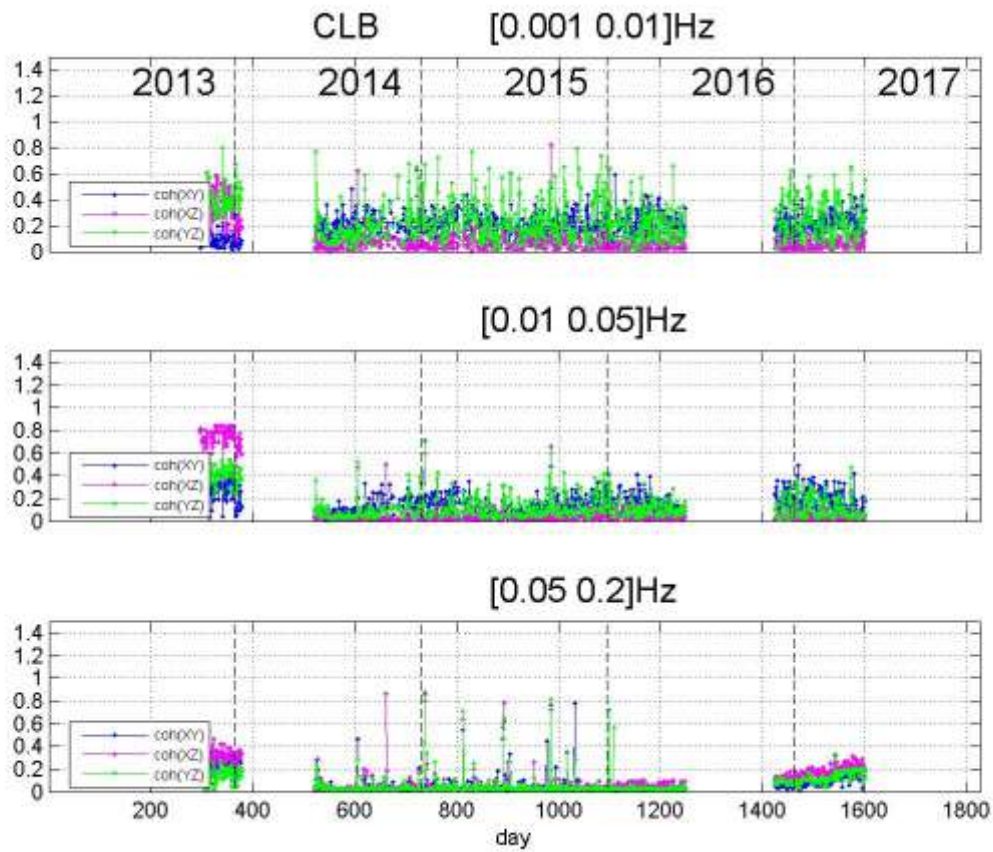
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495

496 Figure 11c. Spectral amplitude ratio between horizontal and vertical components at the PRT
 497 station, calculated for three different frequency bands.

498

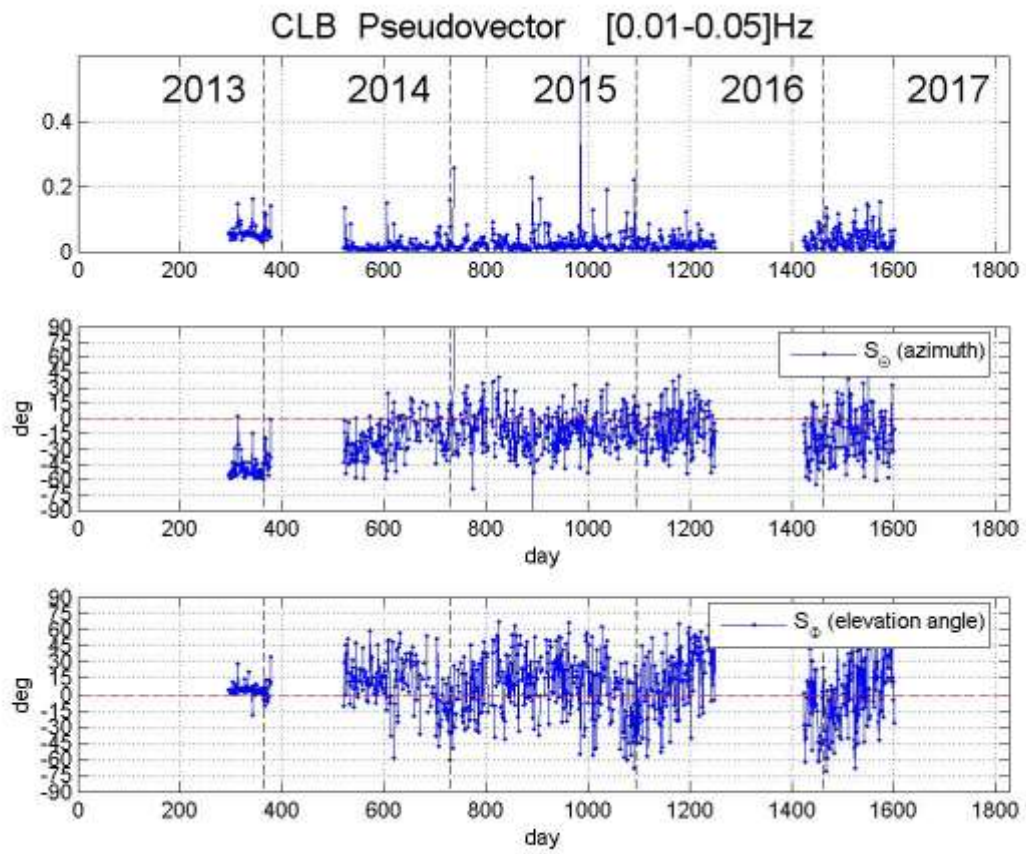


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500

501 Figure 12. Coherence between magnetic components at CLB calculated for the same
 502 frequency bands of figures 11a, 11b, and 11c. At the end of 2013 and at the beginning of 2014
 503 the [0.01 0.05] Hz band was characterised by the highest coherence between X and Z.

504

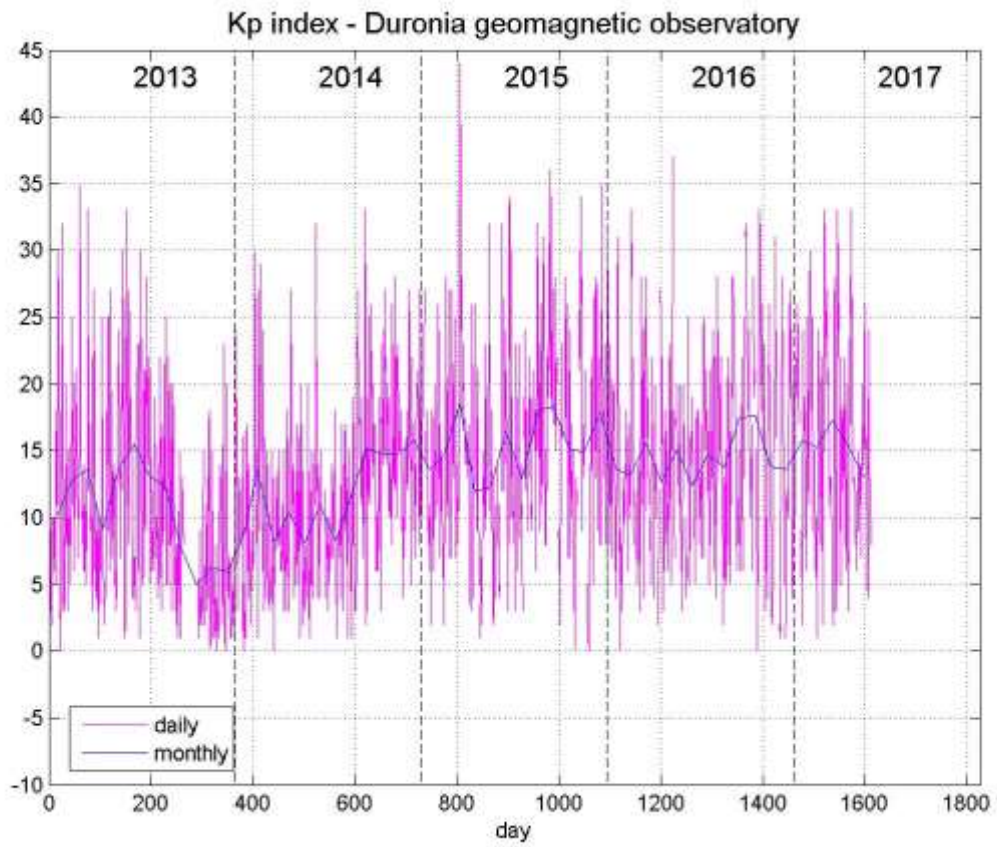


505
 506 Figure 13. The magnetic signal polarization study at the CLB station.

507

508

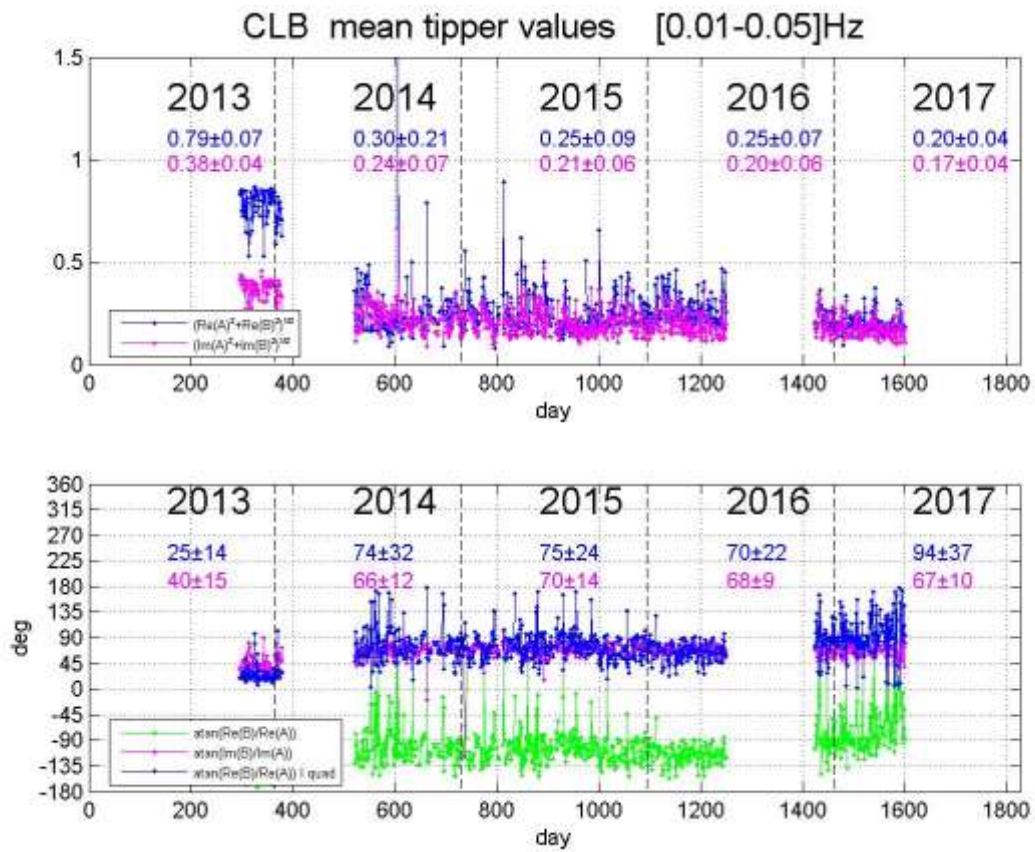
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511 Figure 14. The Kp index calculated at the Dursionia geomagnetic observatory.

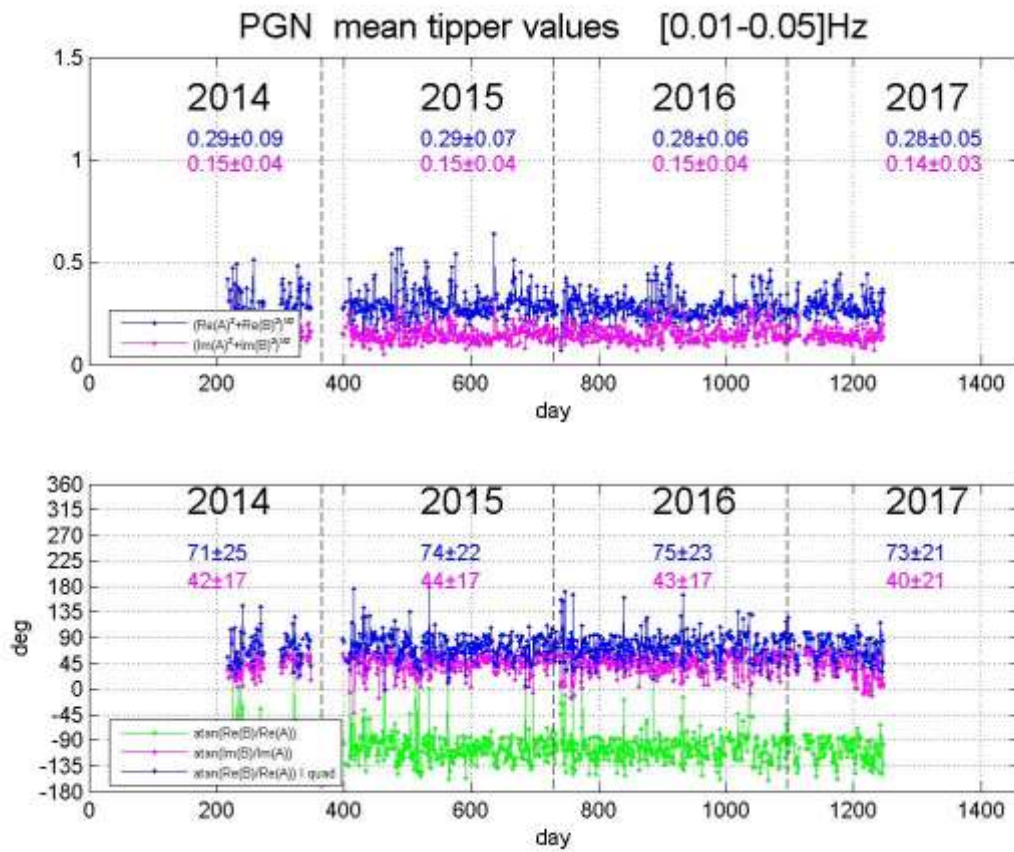
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513

514 Figure 15a. Mean daily values of magnitude and phase of induction arrow at CLB, calculated
 515 in the [0.01 0.05] Hz frequency band. (Data filtered over the whole [0.001 0.45] Hz band
 516 were used.)

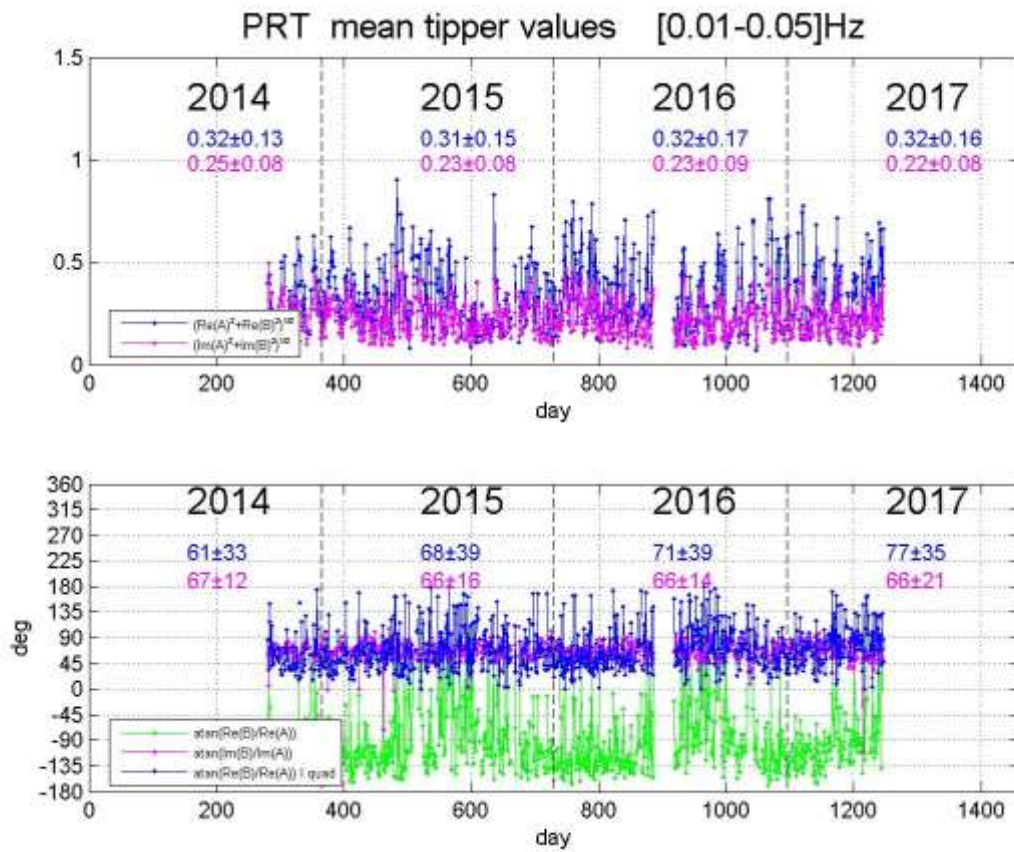
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518

519 Figure 15b. Mean daily values of magnitude and phase of induction arrow at PGN, calculated
 520 in the [0.01 0.05] Hz frequency band. (Data filtered over the whole [0.001 0.45] Hz band
 521 were used.)

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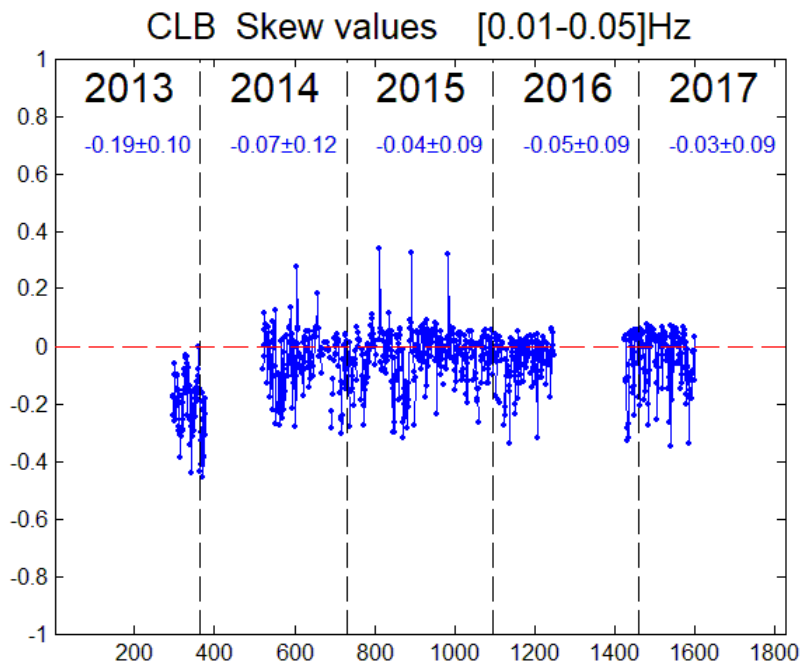


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524 Figure 15c. Mean daily values of magnitude and phase of induction arrow at PRT, calculated
 525 in the [0.01 0.05] Hz frequency band. (Data filtered over the whole [0.001 0.45] Hz band
 526 were used.)

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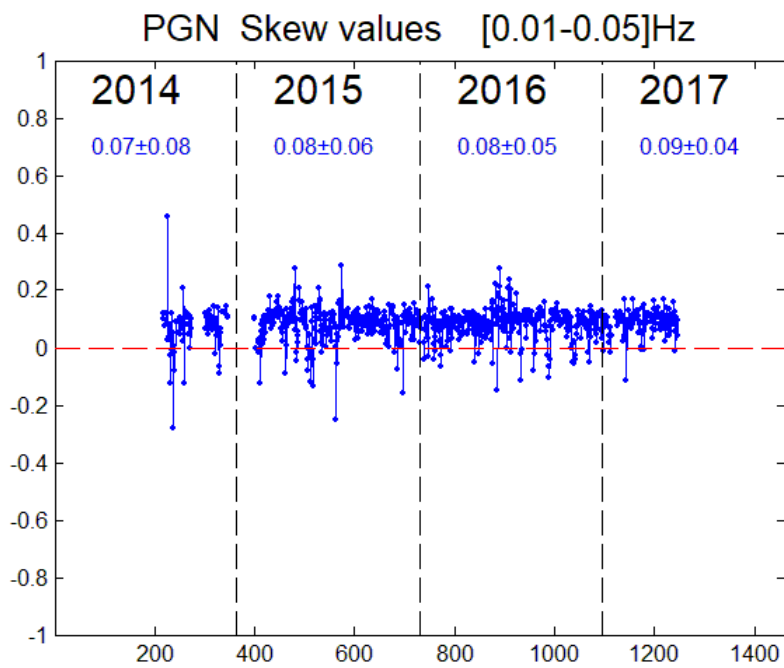


529

530 Figure 16a. The tipper skew at CLB.

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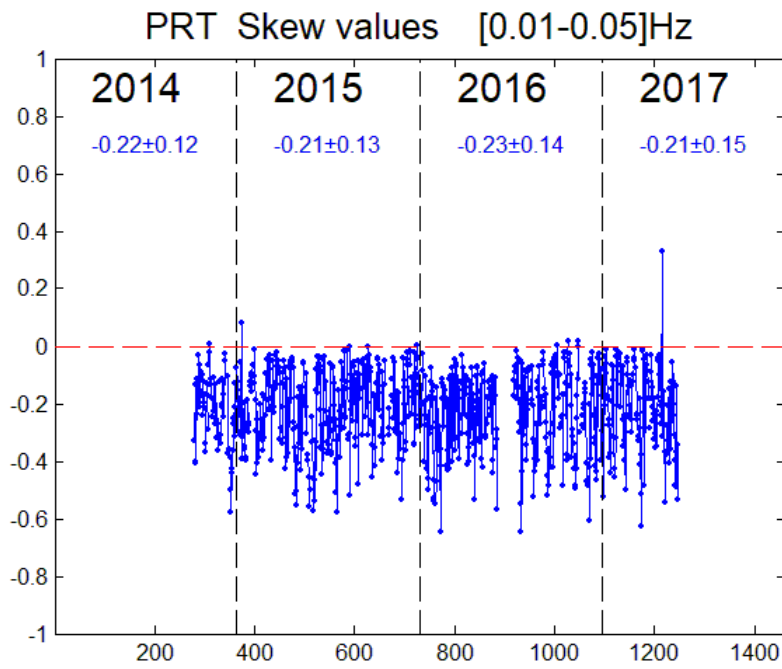
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534 Figure 16b. The tipper skew at PGN.

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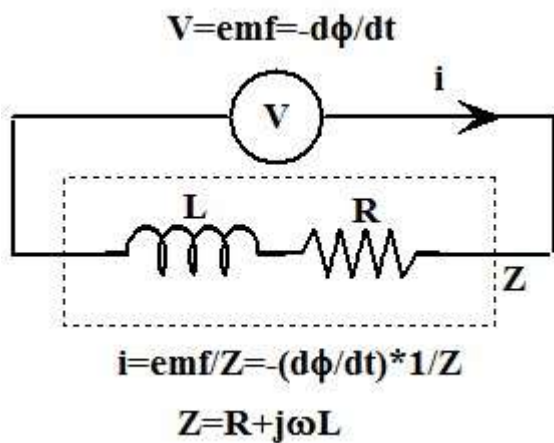
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540 Figure 16c. The tipper skew at PRT.

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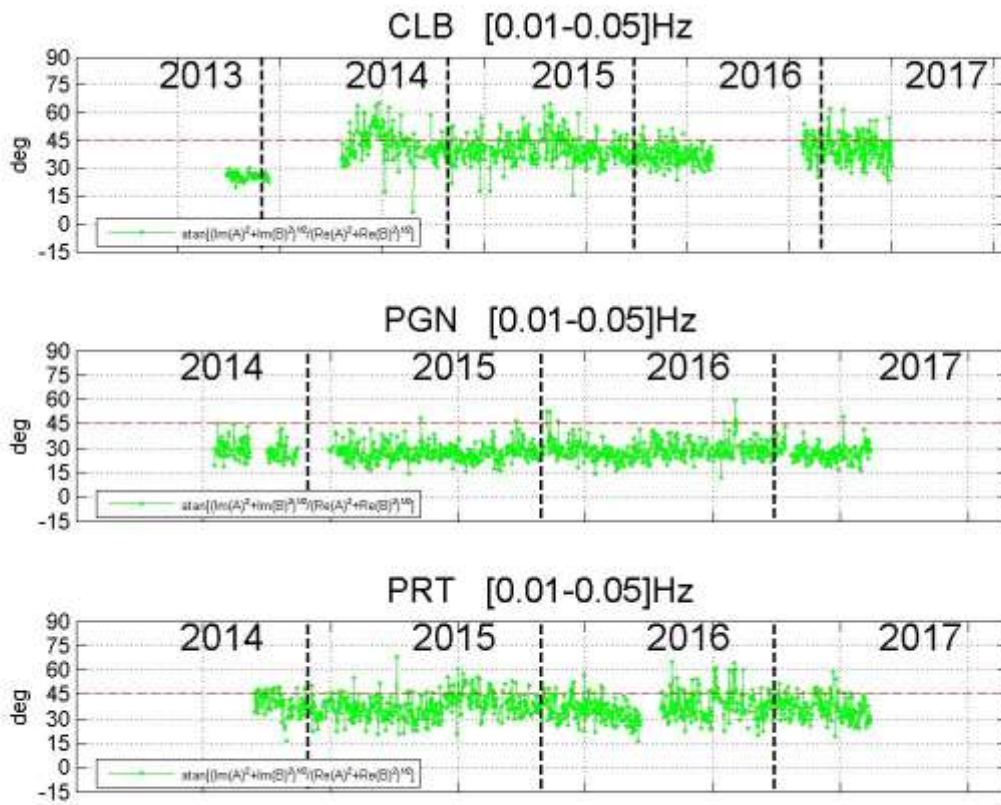
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544

545 Figure 17. Schematic electrical model of subsoil.



546

547 Figure 18. The phase between the induced vertical component (Z) and the inducing horizontal
 548 components (H and D).