

1 **Finite Element inversion of DInSAR data from the Mw 6.3 L'Aquila**
2 **Earthquake, 2009 (Italy)**

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12 **Abstract**

13 Fault slip distribution is usually retrieved from geodetic data assuming that the local crust is an
14 elastic, homogeneous and isotropic half-space. In the last decades spatially dense geodetic data (e.g.
15 DInSAR maps) have highlighted complex patterns of coseismic deformation that require new
16 modeling tools, such as numerical methods, able to represent rheological and geometrical
17 complexities of the Earth's crust. In this work, we develop a procedure to perform inversion of
18 geodetic data based on the Finite Element method, accounting for a more realistic description of the
19 local crust. The method is applied to the 2009 L'Aquila earthquake (M_w 6.3), using DInSAR images
20 of the coseismic displacement. Results highlight the non-negligible influence of the medium
21 structure: homogeneous and heterogeneous models show discrepancies up to 20% in the fault slip
22 distribution values. Furthermore, in the heterogeneous models a new area of slip appears above the
23 hypocenter. We also perform a resolution study, showing that the information about fault slip
24 distributions retrieved from geodetic data should be considered as averaged on surrounding patches.

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27 **1. Introduction**

28 On April 6th 2009, at 3:32 local time (1:32 UTC), a M_w 6.3 earthquake occurred in the Abruzzi
29 region (central Italy), followed by five $M > 5$ aftershocks, the largest ones occurring on April 7th
30 ($M_w = 5.5$) and 9th ($M_w = 5.4$) (Figure 1a). The mainshock, located at about 9 km depth, produced
31 severe damage in the ancient city of L'Aquila and in many neighboring villages. Moment tensor
32 solutions reveal normal faulting mechanism consistent with the NE-SW extensional trend of the
33 central Apennines [e.g., Amato et al., 1998]. According to recent geodetic studies, surface
34 geological observations and aftershocks relocations [Atzori et al., 2009; EMERGEO Working
35 Group, 2010; Chiarabba et al., 2009], the main fault is identified as the NW striking and SW
36 dipping Paganica Fault.

37 Inversions of geodetic data for seismic source purposes are often performed implementing the
38 analytical model of Okada [1992] of a fault embedded in an elastic, homogeneous and isotropic
39 half-space. It is reasonable to ask: how can material complexities affect slip distribution providing
40 different surface displacement patterns? Analytical and semi-analytical codes such as Wang et al.,
41 [2003] provide a partial answer to this question, since they allow describing the lithosphere with a
42 1D vertical layering. However, local asperities, anisotropy and the presence of topography are likely
43 to be present in faulted zones. The above mentioned complexities can be managed only by means of
44 numerical tools. Masterlark [2003] tested the sensitivity of Finite Element (FE) computed slip
45 distributions to common assumptions (e.g., homogeneous, isotropic, Poisson-solid and half-space
46 medium), finding that differences in displacement predictions exceeded the uncertainty bounds.
47 Hearn and Bürgmann, [2005] investigated the effect of depth-dependent elasticity on slip inversions
48 using FE solutions of a shear dislocation in layered and uniform elastic Earth models. They found
49 that incorporating realistic increases of shear modulus with depth in the inversions modifies the
50 recovered centroid depth and seismic potency with respect to uniform elastic half-space models.
51 Dubois et al., [2008] analyzed the influence of structural and rheological heterogeneities on the

52 earthquake deformation cycle, showing significant differences in slip distribution (beyond the
53 associated uncertainty bounds) when using models with fault damage zones and elastic layering.

54 In this paper, taking advantage of the FE method, we optimize the coseismic displacement data
55 due to the L'Aquila earthquake to retrieve fault slip distributions. We also perform a resolution
56 study to quantify the information we can extract from large coverage DInSAR data.

57

58 **2. Data**

59 Differential SAR Interferometry (DInSAR), a technique commonly used to measure coseismic
60 ground displacements, provides spatially dense deformation fields with great accuracy [e.g., Chini
61 et al., 2010]. The data used in this work are from the COSMO-SkyMed and ENVISAT satellite
62 missions and their characteristics are summarized in Table 1. Phase noise is mitigated by an
63 adaptive filter [Goldstein and Werner, 1998], while unwrapped interferograms are obtained by a
64 Region Growing algorithm [Reigber and Moreira, 1997]. The topographic contribution is removed
65 by a 5 meter resolution Digital Elevation Model (DEM). The three resulting interferograms (Figure
66 1), generated with a pixel spacing of 80 m, measure a congruent deformation pattern [Stramondo et
67 al., 2011]. The maximum displacement is located between the city of L'Aquila and the town of
68 Fossa, reaching respectively -16 cm (COSMO-SkyMed), -24 cm (ENVISAT ascending) and -27 cm
69 (ENVISAT descending) in the SAR Line of Sight. Variations are due to the different look angles
70 and orbits. In addition to DInSAR data, we consider GPS horizontal and vertical measurements of 8
71 sites within about 30 km from the epicenter [Anzidei et al., 2009], from continuous stations (Figure
72 1a, AQUI, INFN, INGP, SMCO) and from GPS receivers installed a few days before the main
73 event (CADO, ROIO, SELL, CPAG).

74 The large amount of seismic data acquired during the L'Aquila sequence was subsequently used
75 to investigate the characteristics of the local lithosphere. Di Stefano et al., [submitted to *Geophys.*
76 *Res. Lett.*] performed a 3D tomography study using 1276 aftershocks until the end of June 2009.
77 The images reveal vertical and lateral v_p heterogeneities. The main feature is a high v_p volume

84 placed below the city of L'Aquila between 4-10 km depth. Furthermore, a receiver function study
85 by Bianchi et al., [2010] shows lateral v_s heterogeneities along the fault in the uppermost crust. The
86 analysis of the AQU receiver function, the largest peak ground motion station [Cirella et al., 2009],
87 highlights a high v_s body (values up to 4.2 km/s) of 4-6 km thickness. This high velocity body,
88 absent in the SE portion of the fault, may have influenced the kinematics of the L'Aquila seismic
89 source.

84 **3. FE models of the seismic source**

85 We initially constrain the fault geometry using 5955 subsampled DInSAR data and 8 GPS data.
86 We adopt the Okada [1992] fault as forward model to solve the non-linear optimization problem.
87 The fault inversion is performed by a two-step algorithm consisting in a global search
88 (Neighbourhood Algorithm) followed by a Bayesian inference on the generated ensemble of models
89 [Sambridge 1999a,b]. This procedure extracts the most probable set of solutions, instead of a single
90 best-fit model. The method has been largely tested for inversions of geodetic data in volcanic areas
91 [Trasatti et al., 2008]. We perform tests aimed to find a reasonable balance between DInSAR and
92 GPS points in the computation of the total misfit function, which is composed by the weighted sum
93 of the reduced chi-square of each dataset (the three interferometric images are considered as a
94 unique dataset). The relative weight of each dataset is fixed at 95% DInSAR and 5% GPS (see
95 auxiliary material, Figure S1). The choice of the weights is due to the low uncertainty of the GPS
96 data (few mm) which 'attracts' the misfit function towards a lowering of the GPS chi-square. The
97 best-fitting fault parameters resulting from the optimization are reported in Table 2. All the
98 parameters are well defined since they show peaked bell-like Posterior Probability Density (PPD)
99 curves (Figures S2 and S3 for 1D and 2D PPD distributions, respectively). The resulting fault plane
100 dimension and position are compatible, within their uncertainties, with previous findings [e.g.
101 Atzori et al., 2009]. Regarding the fault orientation of our best model, the strike value of $142^\circ \pm 2^\circ$
102 follows the line of converging DInSAR fringes (strike between 140° and 145°), emphasizing the
103 primary role of large coverage data for fault geometry determination. The fault trace is compatible

104 with the Paganica Fault surface trace as well (see Fig. 1a). The retrieved mean dip value is $42^\circ \pm 2$,
105 within the acceptable range of 40° - 50° , typical for the NE trending structures of the Central
106 Apennines [Amato et al., 1998].

107 In the following, we build FE models with the fault geometry determined above. Even if the
108 fault plane is not fully optimized in the FE models, it is reasonable to suppose that potential
109 variations of dip and strike values are within their previously determined uncertainty. Once the fault
110 plane is constrained, our inverse problem is linear, provided we use linear elasticity. We set up a
111 method consisting of three steps: *i*) building FE models of a fault embedded in a 3D domain,
112 including topography and other characteristics; the fault is mapped by small patches; *ii*) computing
113 a matrix of elementary 'Green's functions' for every slip patch; *iii*) performing linear inversions of
114 the FE-computed matrix to retrieve the slip distribution. The FE models are composed of about
115 100'000 3D-brick elements contained in a cylindrical domain having radius of 100 km and height
116 of 80 km. The fault plane dimensions in Table 2 are expanded up to 20 km in length and 15 km in
117 width in order to map the slip distribution without edge artifacts, and subdivided into 300 1x1 km
118 patches. The FE models also include the elastic structure, computed from the v_p and v_s anomalies
119 resulting from the tomography by Di Stefano et al., [submitted]. We use a density profile of 2600
120 kg/m^3 above 4 km depth and 2800 kg/m^3 below it [Di Luzio et al., 2009]. The resulting Lamé
121 constants assume values such as $\mu = 18$ GPa and $\lambda = 30$ GPa at shallow depths (1-3 km) and $\mu = 30$
122 GPa and $\lambda = 50$ GPa below 10-14 km depth. The asperity found below the L'Aquila city at 4-10 km
123 depth [Di Stefano et al., submitted; Bianchi et al., 2010] is reproduced by our FE model and is
124 characterized by very high elastic parameters: $\mu = 40$ GPa and $\lambda = 54$ GPa. The models include the
125 topography of the area, generated using a DEM with pixels of 90 m. Four different models are
126 considered: HOF, HOMogeneous with Flat topography medium, HEF, HETerogeneous with Flat
127 topography, HOT, HOMogeneous with Topography and HET, HETerogeneous with Topography.
128 For each model we perform the steps outlined above. We compute four 'Green's function' matrices,

129 by collecting all the surface displacements for each model considered. The linear inversion is
130 performed adopting the Occam's smoothing scheme [deGroot-Hedlin and Constable, 1990],
131 minimizing the chi-square and the second order derivative (Laplacian) to avoid large oscillations in
132 slip values. Positivity constraints are placed on slip to elude thrust components during the inversion,
133 in contrast with the normal mechanism of the fault.

134 Slip distribution results are shown in Figure 2. The misfit lowers from 6.2, in case of the non-
135 linear inversion, to 4.2 (HEF), 4.3 (HET) and 4.7 (HOF, HOT). Smoothing curves are shown in the
136 auxiliary material, Figure S4. Results for all the models show that there is a large slip area in the
137 central-SE part of the fault. The effect of topography can be appreciated by comparing results from
138 HOF and HOT models, but differences are of second order. The small effect on the slip distribution
139 could be related to the small topographic variations. Indeed, in areas with a strong topography, the
140 effects on the slip distribution are larger [e.g, Kyriakopoulos et al., 2010]. More interesting features
141 appear in the presence of an elastic structure. In the heterogeneous model HEF, the slip is
142 distributed along the strike direction and it is concentrated between 3 and 7 km depth. A new local
143 maximum of slip appears above the hypocenter, according to seismological inversions [Cirella et
144 al., 2009]. The presence of the slip concentration above the hypocenter may be attributed to the
145 presence of the high rigidity body, absent in the homogeneous models. The rake varies in the range
146 $-90^{\circ}\pm 4^{\circ}$ in the high slipping areas. In the HET model the topography partially masks out the effect
147 of the elastic structure, so that the resulting new high slip area due to the internal heterogeneities is
148 more visible in the HEF model than in the HET model. The maximum slip is about 120 cm in the
149 homogeneous models and 110 cm in the heterogeneous models. To better appreciate the changes
150 introduced by the 3D elastic structure, Figure 2c,f show the differences between HEF and HOF, and
151 between HET and HOT, respectively, reaching up to 20% of the maximum slip in both cases. The
152 fault's hanging wall area shows low residual values (from 0 to 2.5 cm) for all three DInSAR images
153 (Figure S5). In the foot wall area there are positive residuals for ENVISAT descending data and
154 negative residuals for ENVISAT ascending data, reaching an absolute value of 5 cm in both cases.

155 An uncertainty analysis is performed to assess the reliability of our results. We compute the data
156 covariance matrix **covd** and calculate the model covariance matrix **covm** [Menke, 1989]. The
157 diagonal terms of **covm** are the variances of the slip values. Figure 3a shows the standard deviation
158 associated with the slip distribution. Single slip values are acceptable since their uncertainty
159 amounts to 2-4 cm for most part of the fault, degrading at fault bottom and borders. Following the
160 approach outlined by Funning et al., [2005], we define a linear dimension of model resolution in
161 order to assess the degree to which single slip values are averaged with the surroundings. In Figure
162 3b we observe that the resolving power rapidly decreases with depth. At hypocentral depths, the
163 model resolves slip features larger than about 6 km. Thus, we must be aware that only general
164 features of slip predictions based on geodetic data (even large coverage DInSAR data) should be
165 considered, according to the intrinsic data resolving power and smoothing artifacts.

166 As a final remark, we perform inversions of new HOT and HET models with a steeper fault
167 characterized by dip equal to 50° , based on recent seismological studies [e.g., Di Stefano et al.,
168 submitted]. Results are in general agreement with those previously obtained (Figure S6).

169 **4. Discussion and conclusions**

170 All the slip distributions show a wide slip area located in the central-SE part of the fault, in
171 agreement with previous results [Atzori et al., 2009, Cirella et al., 2009]. However, Cirella et al.,
172 [2009] retrieved a slip distribution deeper than the hypocenter, making use of seismological data.
173 This result cannot be obtained from geodetic data. Indeed, in Figure 3 we show that even dense
174 DInSAR data are unsuitable to resolve deep slip features. We also show that using heterogeneous
175 models such as HEF and HET, the maximum slip area is flattered and shifted NW, and a new patch
176 of slip appears above the hypocenter. This feature doesn't appear in geodetic inversions with Okada
177 [1992] models [e.g., Atzori et al., 2009] but it is common only to inversions in non-homogeneous
178 models [e.g., Cirella et al., 2009]. We can compare the results for the slip distributions with the
179 elastic characteristics close to the fault plane (Figure 4). In the HEF model, the slip is concentrated

180 between 5-10 km depth, and distributed along the strike direction. This could be due to the low
181 shear modulus of the shallow layers, which amplifies the deformation in extension and absolute
182 value. However, the inversion algorithm, trying to fit the observed data, produces an opposite
183 behavior. Indeed, in the heterogeneous models the slip distribution is more concentrated, we get a
184 lower maximum slip and a new slip area appears in correspondence of the high rigidity body below
185 L'Aquila city. The most important result of our inversions is that the 3D elastic structure introduces
186 differences in the slip distribution that are not negligible. We obtain differences up to 20%.
187 Topography does not have a critical influence on slip distribution since the main differences are due
188 to the presence of elastic heterogeneities.

189 The resulting scalar moments are $M_0 = 2.5 \times 10^{18}$ Nm for HOF and HOT, using an average shear
190 modulus value of 30 GPa, corresponding to $M_w = 6.2$, and $M_0 = 1.2 \times 10^{18}$ Nm for HEF and HET,
191 corresponding to $M_w = 6.0$. The value in the heterogeneous models is lower than the observed $M_w =$
192 6.3 because of the low shear modulus values near the fault at shallow depths. While the 'Green's
193 function' feels the effect of the whole elastic structure, as described above, the moment density is
194 proportional to the local shear modulus and slip. Therefore, the scalar moment computed in the
195 heterogeneous models is lower than the homogeneous ones because of the combined effect of the
196 slip concentration and of the low shear modulus values at shallow depths.

197 Dense and large coverage DInSAR data is very useful to determine the fault geometry, but we
198 must keep in mind that geodetic data, even DInSAR data, is characterized by poor resolution at
199 large depths. Furthermore, the information about fault slip distribution should be considered as
200 averaged on surrounding patches, even in complex models such as those shown.

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270 **Figure captions**

271 Figure 1. a) Map of the L'Aquila region. The focal mechanisms of the mainshock and the larger
272 aftershocks are in accordance with the NW-SE extensional trend of the central Apennines. The
273 aftershock sequence until the end of April 2009 is shown in blue and GPS stations are drawn with
274 black triangles. The surface trace of the Paganica Fault is shown in red and the fault retrieved by
275 non-linear inversion is drawn with white dashed line. b) COSMO-SkyMed wrapped phase
276 (ascending orbit) of the coseismic displacement. c) ENVISAT ascending wrapped phase. d)
277 ENVISAT descending wrapped phase. Coordinates are in UTM-WGS84 projection, zone 33.

278 Figure 2. Slip distributions retrieved by linear inversions. a) HOF model; b) HEF model; c)
279 difference between HEF and HOF; d) HOT model; e) HET model; f) difference between HET and
280 HOT. Models: HOF, homogeneous and flat; HEF, heterogeneous and flat; HOT, homogeneous with
281 topography; HET, heterogeneous with topography. The grey arrows represent the rake. The star
282 indicates the hypocenter.

283 Figure 3. a) Standard deviation associated with the slip distribution for the HET model. Similar
 284 results are obtained with the other models. b) Resolution study. The linear resolution parameter
 285 represents the dimension at which patch features may be resolved.

286 Figure 4. a) Fault slip distribution within the FE HET model; b) elastic properties (shear
 287 modulus) next to the fault plane, as implemented in the model.

288

289 Tables

290 Table 1. Characteristics of the interferograms used.

Mission	Orbit	Acquisition Date	Perpendicular Baseline (m)	Incidence angle (°)	Fringe Rate (cm)
COSMO-SkyMed	Ascending	04/04/2009 12/04/2009	435	38	3.1
ENVISAT	Ascending	11/03/2009 15/04/2009	237	23	5.6
ENVISAT	Descending	27/04/2008 12/04/2009	41	23	5.6

291

292 Table 2. Fault parameters retrieved by non-linear inversion.

Easting ^{a,b} (km)	Northing ^{a,b} (km)	Depth ^b (km)	Length (km)	Width (km)	Strike (°)	Dip (°)	Slip (cm)	Rake (°)
368.9±0.7 ^c	4693.9±0.7 ^c	-2.3±0.7 ^c	12.5±0.5 ^c	10.8±0.8 ^c	142±2 ^c	42±2 ^c	53±5 ^c	-96±4 ^c

293 ^a Easting and Northing coordinates are in UTM-WGS84 projection, zone 33.

294 ^b The fault position (Easting, Northing, depth) is referred to the top left corner.

295 ^c The standard deviation of every parameter is estimated from the half-width of the PPD
 296 distributions (auxiliary material Figure S2).







