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**A HIGH-RESOLUTION WIDE-ANGLE SEISMIC STUDY
OF THE CRUST BENEATH THE NORTHUMBERLAND TROUGH**

by

TRACEY ELIZABETH WEST

**A thesis submitted for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy at the University of Durham**

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Department of Geological Sciences

January 1992



26 AUG 1992

"Ever since God created the world, his invisible qualities, both his eternal power and his divine nature, have been clearly seen; they are perceived in the things that God has made"

Romans 1: 20

ABSTRACT

In June 1987, during the BIRPS MOBIL normal-incidence seismic profiling programme, off the East coast of England, the University of Durham recorded simultaneously at several land based seismic stations in Northern England. The resulting wide-angle data, particularly from Line 1, have excellent resolution in both space and time due to the airgun source and 50 m shot spacing.

The interpretation of the Line 1 wide-angle data at Durham used **BEAM87**, Cerveny's Gaussian beam modelling package. The main arrivals interpreted include the upper crustal refraction (**Pg**), the Moho wide-angle reflection (**PmP**), the upper mantle refraction (**Pn**), and a very high amplitude arrival (**D**) which merges into **PmP**. Modelling gave a crust about 30 km thick with a change in velocity gradient and a slight velocity contrast at about 20 km depth. There are several wide-angle reflections from interfaces at mid-crustal depths, between 10 and 20 km depth, and the bottom 2 km of the crust has a high velocity of about 7 kms^{-1} .

Two interesting results are that a lateral velocity change about 40 km offshore is required to fit the **Pg** travel times; also that arrival **D** is modelled best as the remnant of a step on the Moho at the same location. These appear to be borne out by the normal incidence data for line 1, which show a lateral decrease in the mid-crustal reflectivity above a set of strong, westerly-dipping reflections at Moho depths.

These results suggest the presence of a major crustal fault about 40 km offshore. It is suggested that this fault may be the northward continuation of the Dowsing Fault Zone.

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I have thoroughly enjoyed working alongside Tricia, Gordon, Joao, Samsudin and Stuart. Encouragement has been crucial throughout the whole period of study and I am very fortunate to have many supportive friends, especially Sandy, Ellie, Ray and many friends at St. Nicholas' Church, Durham, but above all, I am indebted to my parents and Jo-anne, Vicky and Peter for their love and support.

For Nana

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

One of the most important tools for the investigation of the structure of the Earth's lithosphere today is the use of controlled source seismology. Over the last two decades, the normal-incidence seismic reflection method in particular has attained a very high level of sophistication in terms of acquisition and processing. Since 1981, the British Institutions Reflection Profiling Syndicate (BIRPS) has collected 12500 km of deep crustal normal-incidence profiles on the continental shelf around the UK. This huge amount of data has generated a comprehensive map of this portion of the continental crust, giving rise to the concept of a "typical BIRP" (Matthews 1986) which represents the main features of the crust of this region as seen by normal-incidence data: transparent upper crust apart from surface sedimentary basins and some low-angle faults, reflective lower crust, a variably continuous Moho reflection and (usually) a transparent upper mantle.

However, it is well known that the normal-incidence technique alone does not produce a complete picture of the crust; wide-angle reflection data is a far more accurate method of determining seismic velocity structure although the spatial resolution of wide-angle surveys has until recently been poor by comparison with normal-incidence surveys on the same scale. An understanding of the physical properties of crustal structures imaged by normal-incidence data may only be obtained by the use of coincident wide-angle reflection seismic data.

Mooney and Brocher(1987) have reviewed 46 coincident normal-incidence and wide-angle datasets obtained worldwide over continental crust up to 1986, comparing results and concluding that "reflection profiles allow us to refine our simplistic refraction models, and the refraction models allow us to better constrain the geometric interpretations of reflection models". Since 1986, several datasets have been recorded exactly coincidentally, obtaining wide-angle data of almost equal resolution to the normal-incidence by using a common source and the same shot or receiver spacing, usually with a large airgun array as the source. These include GLIMPCE, shot in the Great Lakes in 1986 (GLIMPCE

Seismic Refraction Working Group,1989) and MOBIL, the dataset upon which this study is based.

The BIRPS MOBIL programme (Measurements Over Basins to Image the Lithosphere) was the first successful attempt to record on land the shots from BIRPS profiles. The programme was shot in 1987, due to the gift from Mobil North Sea Ltd of two weeks ship time on the RV Mobil Search, and collected nearly 1500 km of normal-incidence data in eight profiles off the East Coast of England, as shown in Fig. 1.1 (Blundell et al. 1990). Wide-angle recording was carried out by Durham University in Northumberland and in North Humberside, and by the Universities of Leeds and East Anglia at stations in Hull and Norfolk.

This study has mainly concentrated on the wide-angle recordings obtained from line 1 in the Northumberland area. This region had previously been studied as part of the Caledonian Suture Seismic Project (CSSP) of 1982 (Bott et al 1985), a "traditional" wide-angle survey described later in this chapter. MOBIL line 1 was shot along exactly the same line as the explosive marine shots used in the CSSP, facilitating the selection of sites for recording stations and enabling a comparison between the CSSP sea-bottom explosive shots and the large airgun array used by the RV Mobil Search.

The interpretation of MOBIL line 1, which employed one of the most recently developed synthetic seismogram packages, BEAM87, reveals considerable lateral variation in the crust compared to the CSSP model of Lewis (1986) and has brought to light interesting details of the geology of this region. This chapter presents a broad picture of the background to this experiment, starting with the geological history of the area. The other seismic work carried out in the region up to now, including the CSSP, is then discussed, and finally, similar experiments using closely-spaced airgun shots or closely spaced stations are described, as an introduction to the MOBIL experiment.

1.2 Regional geological structure and history

Fig. 1.2 shows the location of the MOBIL normal-incidence profiles (solid black lines) and Durham's land recording stations (black dots) against the background of the geological structure of the region. The geology of the whole of the area still reflects the ENE-WSW grain of the early Palaeozoic Caledonian orogen, which set the pattern for the ensuing crustal development of Northern England. The

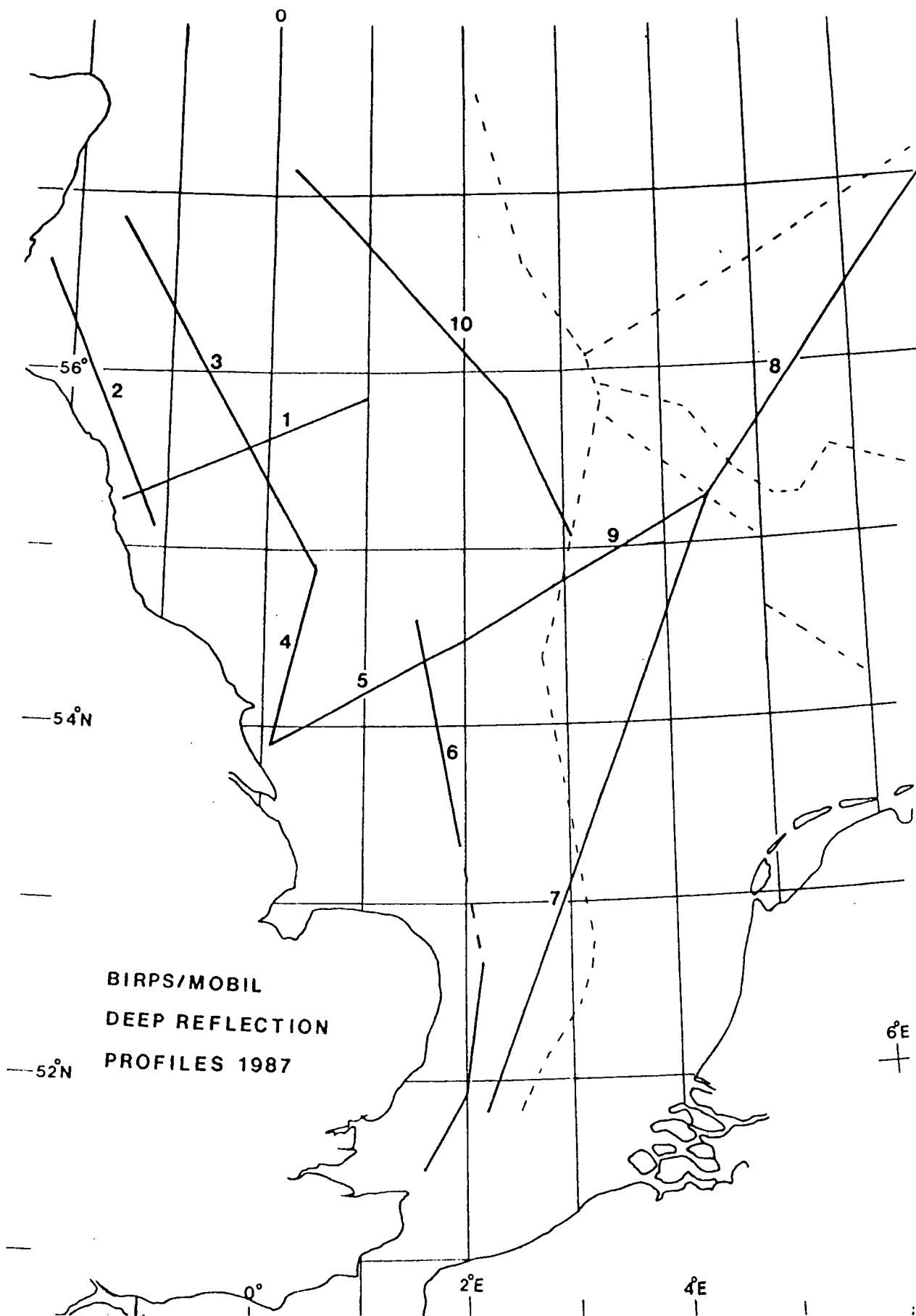


Fig. 1.1 Map of BIRPS MOBIL deep normal-incidence profiles.

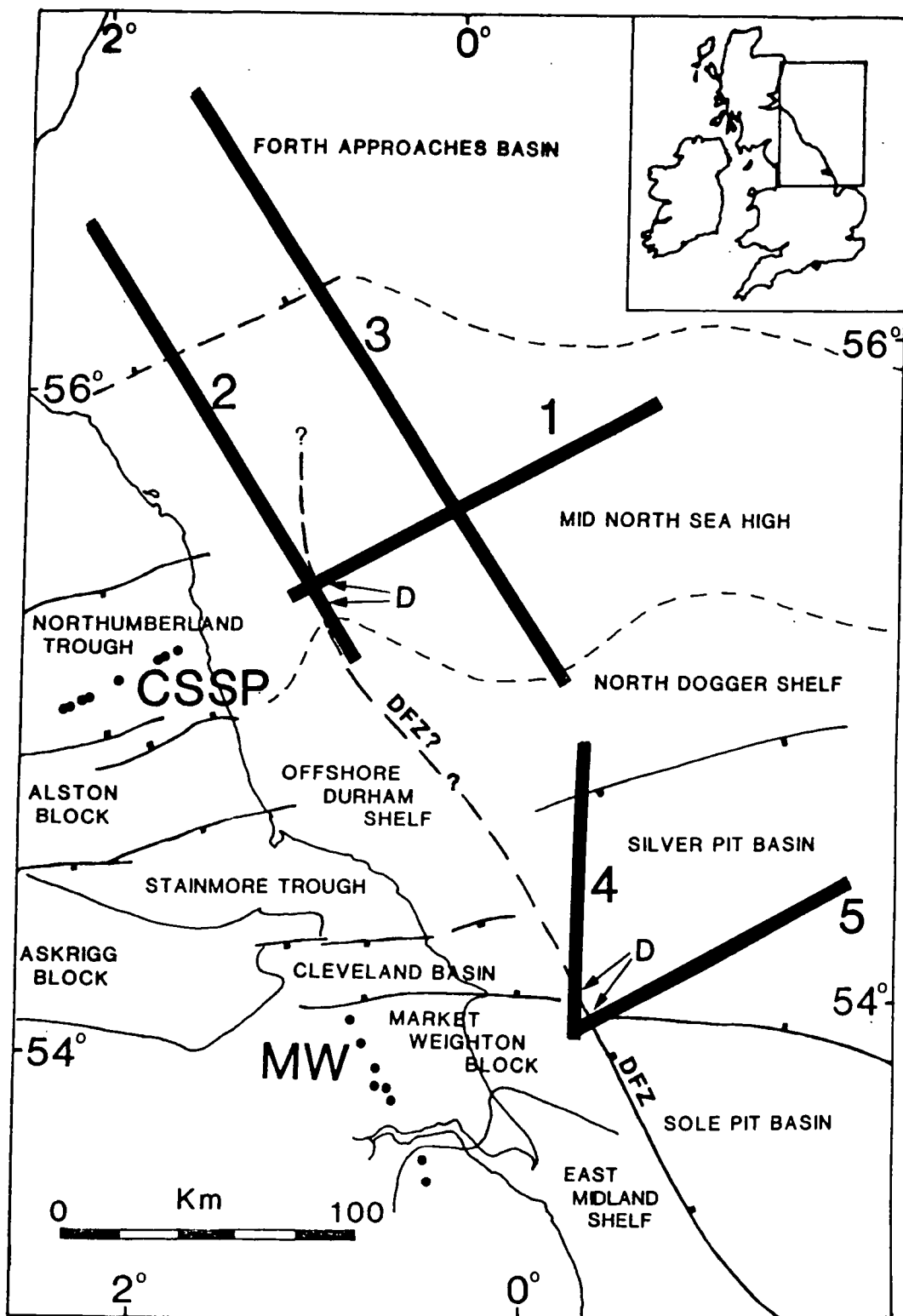


Fig. 1.2

Map of the major geological features of North-East England and the adjacent region of the North Sea, showing the BIRPS MOBIL normal-incidence profiles and the wide-angle reflection recording stations. DFZ: Dowsing Fault Zone. Onshore geology from Fraser and Gawthorpe (1990); Offshore geology (except the DFZ extension) from Glennie (1986).

onshore geology is therefore dominated by roughly east-west trending sedimentary basins and structural highs which developed during the Carboniferous. The area sampled by the MOBIL profiles 1, 2 and 3 falls within the Northumberland Trough onshore and the Mid-North Sea High offshore. The High also trends roughly east-west and has been a structural high since the late Palaeozoic (Donato et al., 1983).

The marine area south of this, sampled by the MOBIL lines 4 and 5 off the coast of East Yorkshire and North Humberside, has been more visibly affected by the Mesozoic and Tertiary tectonic events in Europe, including the opening of the North Sea and the Alpine orogeny. These events have caused extension, inversion and some strike-slip activity along the major faults in this region. This complexity is reflected in the quality of both normal-incidence and wide-angle records from the area.

Green(1984), has described the surface geology of the area in which the CSSP was carried out, and Lewis(1986) gave a detailed account of the Caledonian orogen and the terranes visible today. The following account does not attempt to repeat these; it is merely an attempt to provide the geological context for the MOBIL programme.

1.2.1 Caledonian geology

Broadly speaking, the Caledonian orogeny involved continental rifting and separation during the late Precambrian, eventual closure of the Tornquist Sea in the late Ordovician, and closure of the Iapetus Ocean during the Late Silurian/ Early Devonian (Cocks and Fortey, 1982). This brought together the continents Laurentia, Baltica and Gondwanaland, during the formation of the supercontinent Pangaea. The Grampian orogen is believed to have been caused by the collision of a microcontinent (now the Midland Valley) with the Northern continent, Laurasia (Laurentia and Baltica) before the closure of Iapetus (Watson 1984). An approximate time-plan for the orogen and its associated igneous and metamorphic events is shown in Fig. 1.3.

Large-scale strike slip movements have played an important role in the development of the present-day Caledonides(Soper and Hutton 1984). Large movements along the Great Glen Fault are believed to have taken place during the Devonian, shortly after the closure of Iapetus further south and Hutton (1987) interprets many of the different geological provinces of the Caledonides of Great Britain

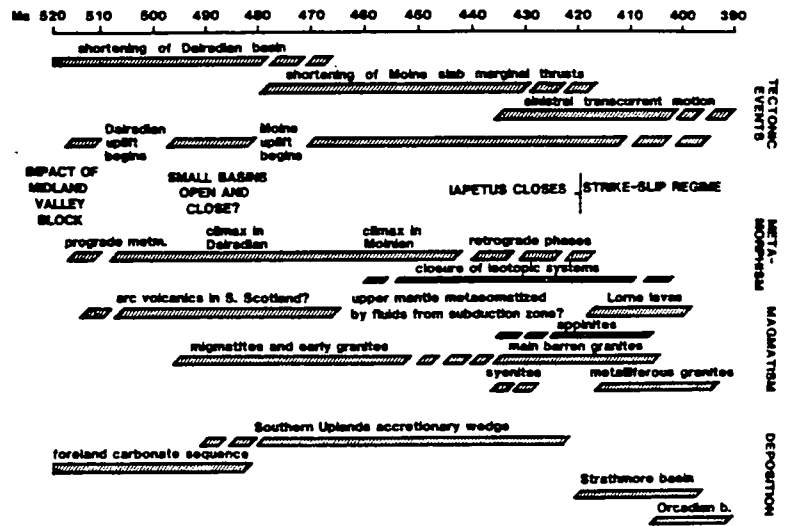


Fig. 1.3 Chart summarising the chronology of the late Caledonian events. From Watson (1984).

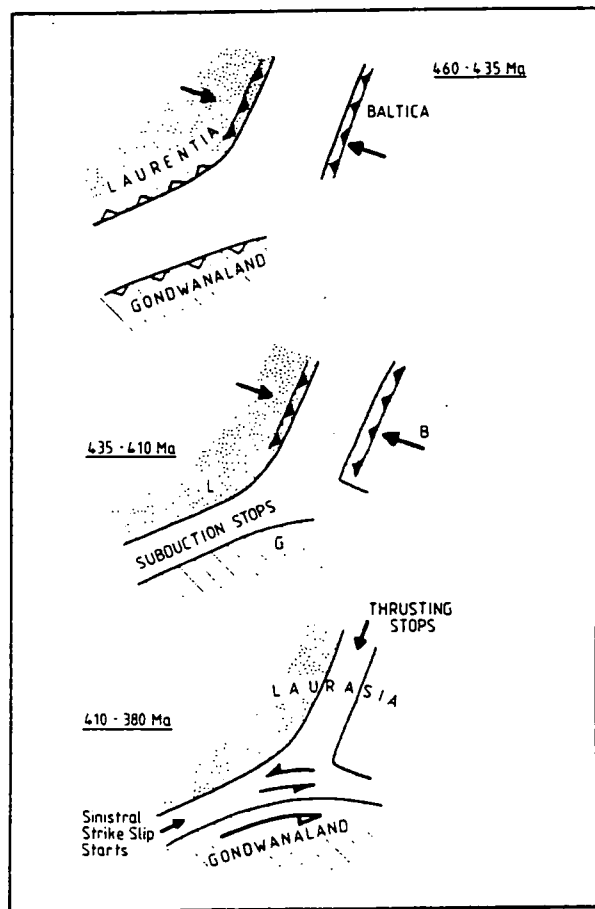


Fig. 1.4 (a) 3-plate scheme for the Caledonides from Hutton (1987)

and Ireland as the result of strike slip movements which docked the different terranes against each other after continental collision (Fig 1.4).

The wide-angle recording of MOBIL line 1 was located close and probably parallel to the "Iapetus Suture", the location of subduction of the Iapetus Ocean beneath the northern Laurasian continent and the junction between the Laurasian and Gondwanan continents. The Southern Uplands accretionary complex north of the Suture is interpreted as the product of this ancient subduction zone and the Suture itself is believed to be buried beneath the approximately ENE-WSW trending Northumberland Trough.

1.2.2 The Northumberland Trough

The Northumberland recording stations, annotated as CSSP on the map, were located along the Northumberland Trough, an approximately east-west structure which comprises the Northumberland Basin in the east and the Solway Basin to the west. The whole Trough was initiated during the early Carboniferous and strong differential subsidence took place during the Dinantian, when some 2000 m sediments were deposited in the Northumberland basin compared to the 550 m thick sequence on the Cheviot block and 700 m over the Alston block (Johnson,1984). To the south, the Stublick-Ninety Fathom fault system acted as a hinge belt against the Alston block; to the north, the basin is not fault bounded but subsided relative to the stable Southern Uplands and the Cheviot block.

The rapid differential subsidence of the Dinantian slowed down throughout the Namurian and by the Westphalian, uniform epeirogenic sinking of blocks and troughs was taking place, bringing the total thickness of Carboniferous sediments in the Northumberland basin to at least 3 km. At the end of the Carboniferous, either inversion and uplift caused by the Variscan orogeny (Fraser and Gawthorpe, 1990) or a eustatic fall in sea-level (Johnson 1984) caused the emergence of the region and led to the weathering and erosion of the land surface.

Swinburn (1975) has proved a maximum depth of 3 to 4 km for the Northumberland Basin by inversion of time terms from quarry blast refraction seismic data. The depth to basement, which is the depth of the Carboniferous determined from this work is shown in Fig. 1.5.

The mechanism of formation of the Northumberland Trough, especially the differential

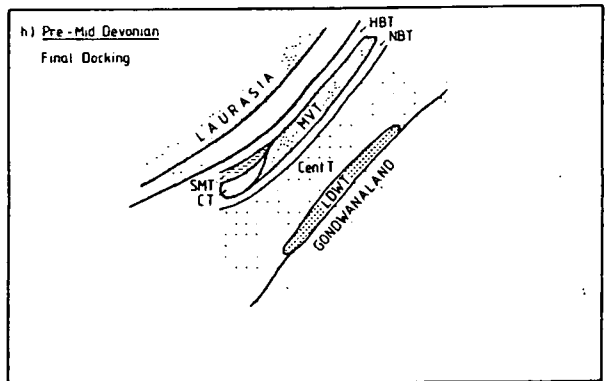
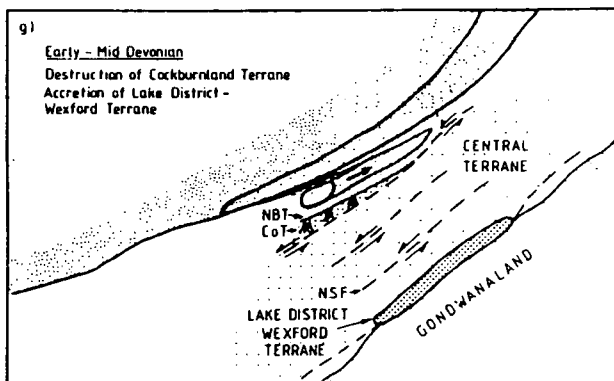
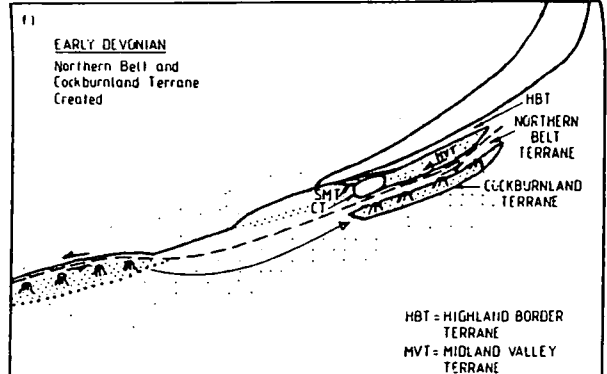
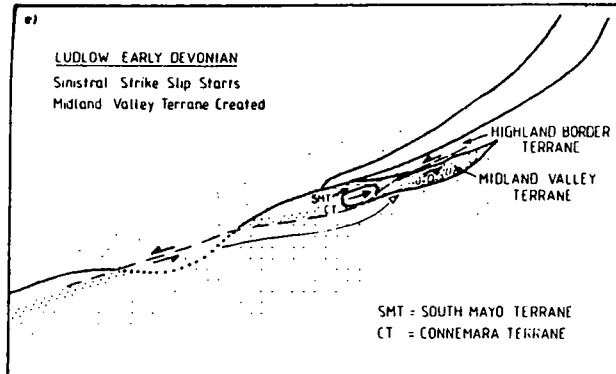
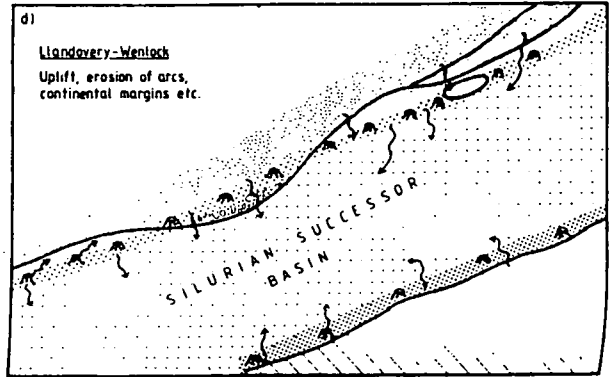
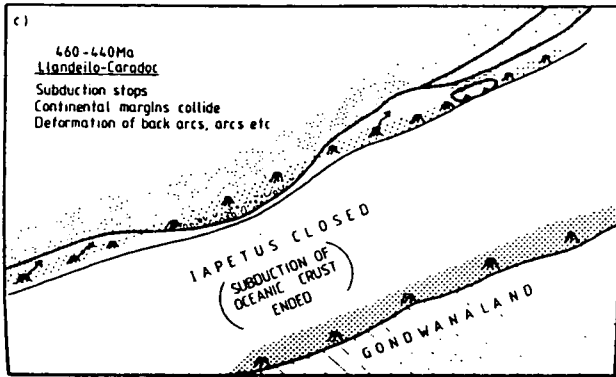
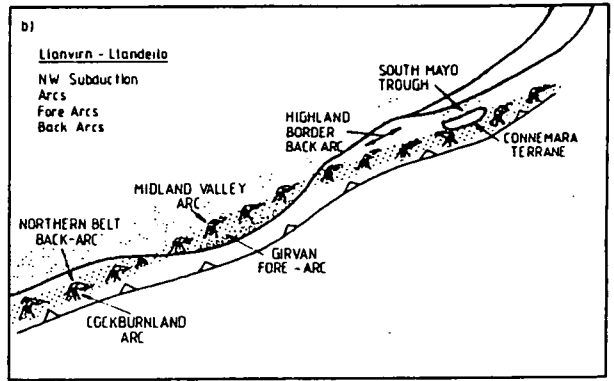
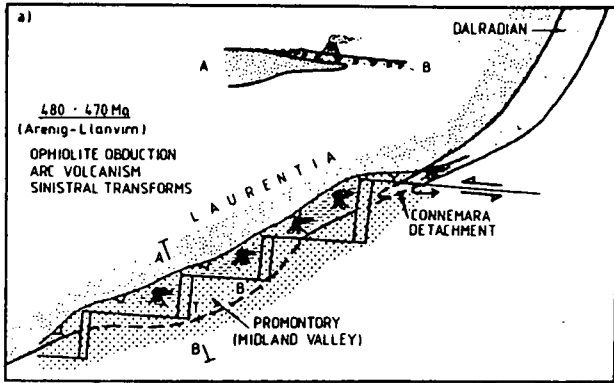


Fig. 1.4 (b) Highly stylised model for the evolution of Iapetus in the British Isles sector in the Arenig to mid-Devonian interval. From Hutton (1987).

subsidence, has been debated by **Leeder(1982)** and **Bott et al.(1984)** and summarised by **Johnson(1984)**. The structural trends which defined the blocks and basins of Northern England at this time were inherited from the Caledonian orogeny and the faults reactivated as a result of the north-south tension which prevailed, particularly during the Dinantian. This gave rise to the pattern of east-west basins which subsided between granite supported blocks and which is still reflected in the present-day geology (see fig. 1.2).

Leeder suggested that the strong differential subsidence during the Dinantian was due to an initial stretching event, along the lines of the **MacKenzie(1978)** model, and attributed the later regional subsidence to the thermal subsidence effect which would be expected to follow such stretching. However, **Bott et al.** argue that thermal subsidence alone cannot explain the subsidence rates indicated for the Namurian and Westphalian in the central Pennines, also that the subsidence rate increased into the Westphalian instead of showing exponential decay, which would be expected of thermal subsidence.

The cause of the early Carboniferous crustal tension has been attributed to the "slabpull" force (or trench suction) which arose from the subduction taking place to the south as the Hercynian marginal sea (Rheic Ocean) was closing. **Bott et al.** believe that the crust was stretched differentially, the lower, more ductile crust being stretched more and subducted faster than the brittle upper crust. The upper crustal response to this was to form blocks and troughs by normal faulting. The later regional subsidence would be the isostatic response to the thinning of the lower crust and to some extent, thermal subsidence as the lithosphere cooled and contracted.

As the Carboniferous came to an end, the tensional regime evolved into a compressional regime due to continental collision (the Variscan orogen) to the south. This caused mild inversion of the Carboniferous basins, with some gentle folding and uplift of the area (**Fraser and Gawthorpe, 1990**).

1.2.3 The Mid-North Sea High

The Mid-North Sea High is a major structural high, trending roughly east-west from the Northumberland coast, which is known to have formed a barrier between the Northern and Southern North Sea basins from the early Permian to the Early Cretaceous (**Ziegler,1982**). It was a relatively

continuous feature across the North Sea until the opening of the Central Graben, which now splits it into the Mid-North Sea High and the Rynkobing-Fyn High.

The High spent some time from the end of the Carboniferous as an emergent feature, so the thickness of sediments from then until the Middle Jurassic were considerably reduced compared to the neighbouring Northern and Southern North Sea basins. Donato et al. (1983) have proposed the presence of granite bodies within the Lower Palaeozoic basement of the High, to explain the gravity anomalies. These granites would have contributed to the faulting and stability of the High over the period in which it had greatest effect.

However, the High was not a complete barrier between the North and South sedimentary basins. Jenyon et al. (1984) identified one or more passages across the central part of the High, (off the eastern end of MOBIL line 1) which formed a connection between the Northern and Southern Zechstein basins. More significant for this study is the suggestion from sedimentological and geophysical evidence of a Permian "North-west Passage" across the Mid-North Sea High which ran close to the present coastline (Smith and Taylor, 1989). The inferred Permian outline of the High is shown in Fig. 1.6. The passage is believed to have been filled by later Zechstein deposits so that its effect on later sedimentation was minimal. Smith and Taylor suggest that the channel was bounded to the east by a roughly N-S fault, shown in Fig. 1.7.

Although relatively little is known so far about the detailed structural history of the Mid-North Sea High, it has obviously played an important role in the development of the offshore sedimentary basins since at least the Early Permian. Its emergence may be connected to the effect of the Variscan orogeny and the resulting uplift which also inverted the Northumberland basin (Fraser and Gawthorpe, 1990). The Northumberland basin and the Mid-North Sea High now seem to be part of the same structural unit, although the Upper Carboniferous sediments are known to thin out to the east onto the High.

The fault proposed by Smith and Taylor (Fig. 1.7) may therefore define the boundary between the thicker Upper Carboniferous sediments of the basin against the Middle Devonian to Lower Carboniferous sequence which is present on the High. This fault occurs directly beneath the western end of MOBIL line

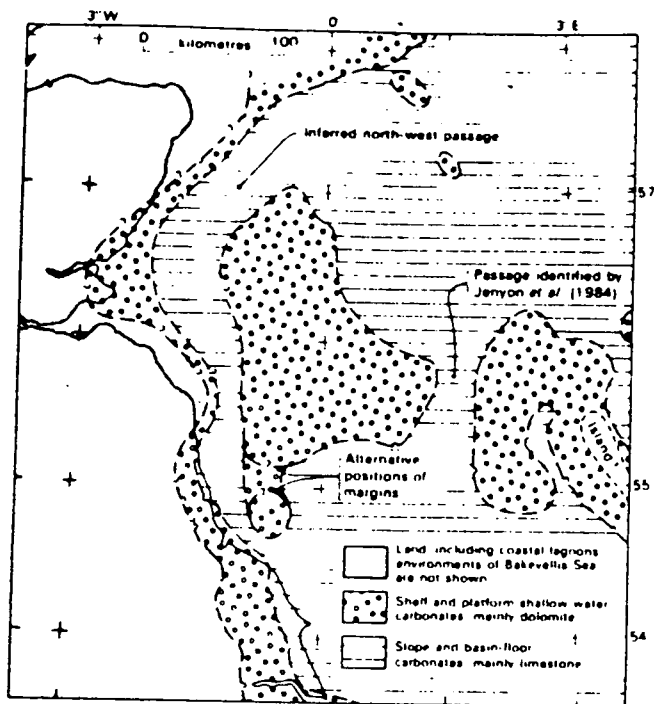


Fig. 1.6 Tentative palaeogeographical reconstruction of the Mid North Sea High during carbonate sedimentation of English Zechstein cycle 2, showing position of inferred passage or channels. From Smith & Taylor (1990).

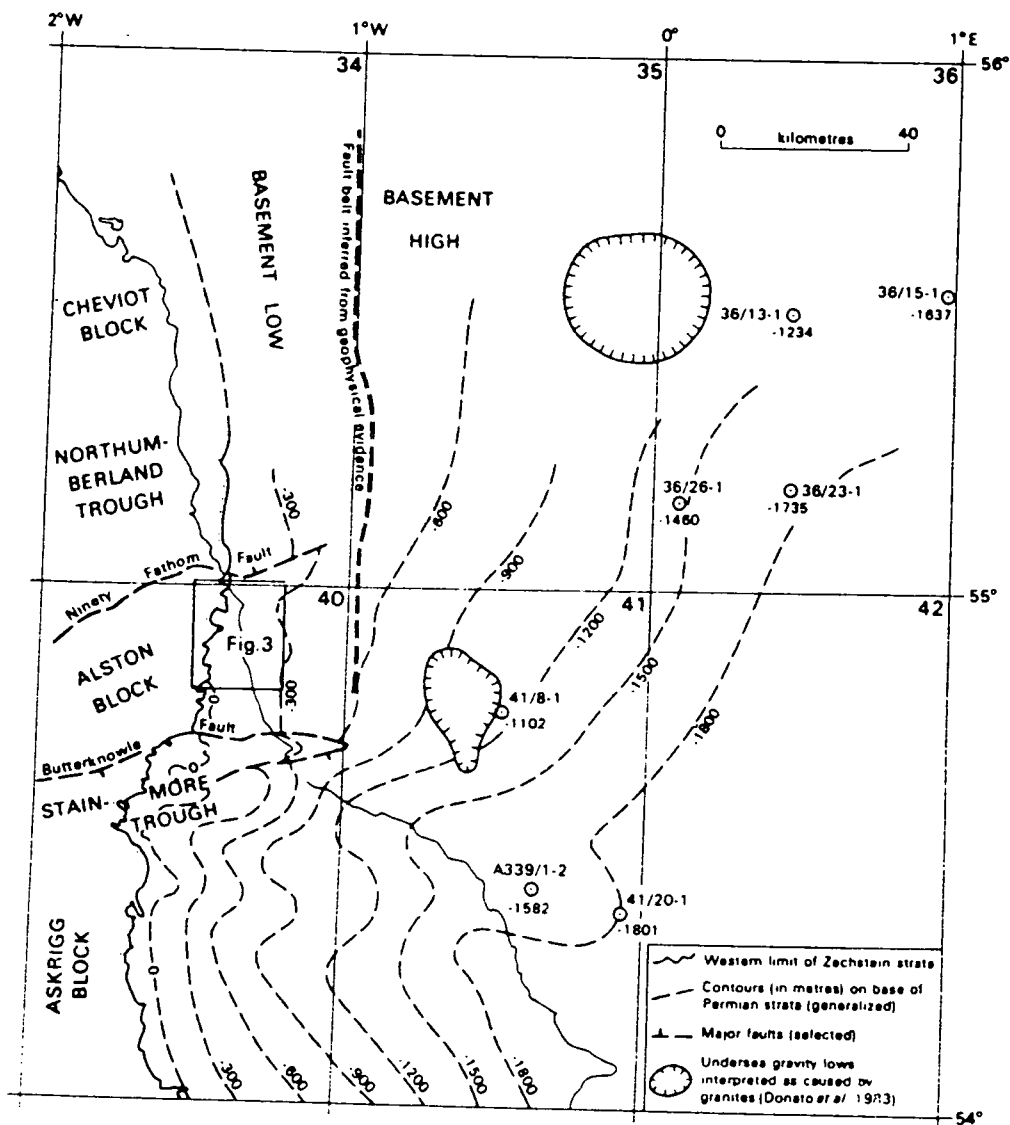


Fig. 1.7 Main structural features of late Permian and other rocks of the north-east coastal area of England. Note the proposed fault. From Smith & Taylor (1989).

1 shots, and so it may be detected by both the normal-incidence and wide-angle seismic data of this experiment. This had important implications for the interpretation and modelling of the datasets, as will be seen from later chapters of this thesis.

1.2.4 The geology of the Southern North Sea

MOBIL line 5 runs approximately ENE from the North Humberside coast onto a complicated system of highs, basins and inverted basins, as can be seen from Fig. 1.2. A rough sketch of the history of this region derived mostly from Glennie (1986) follows, and is summarised in Fig. 1.8.

Following the Caledonian orogeny of the Lower Palaeozoic, the Variscan orogeny completed the building of the supercontinent Pangaea. It was within this supercontinent that the subsidence of the Northern and Southern North Sea basins (separated by the Mid-North Sea High) took place during the Permian. The initiation of the Viking and Central Grabens took place in the late Permian/Triassic, when most of North-west Europe was undergoing extension and graben formation; maximum graben development was reached in the late Jurassic/early Cretaceous, coinciding with the opening and development of the Central Atlantic spreading centre and the sea-floor spreading which parted Laurasia from Africa, producing the Tethys Ocean.

This graben development ceased when initial sea-floor spreading in the North Atlantic parted Laurasia into North America and Europe. By the Tertiary, sea-floor spreading in the North Atlantic was taking place along the present Mid-Atlantic Ridge and the whole of the North Sea was undergoing regional subsidence. Also at this time, the closure of the Tethys Ocean between Africa and Eurasia was causing the Alpine orogeny.

The part of the southern North Sea basin which is sampled by MOBIL lines 4 and 5 has been affected by the above tectonic events far more than the stable Mid-North Sea High which is crossed by lines 1 to 3. The southern region now consists of a relatively stable basin margin (the North Dogger, Offshore Durham and East Midland shelf areas), two inverted basins (the Sole Pit Trough and the Cleveland Hills), and the Silver Pit basin.

Most of the faults which have shaped the present day geology are again inherited Caledonian

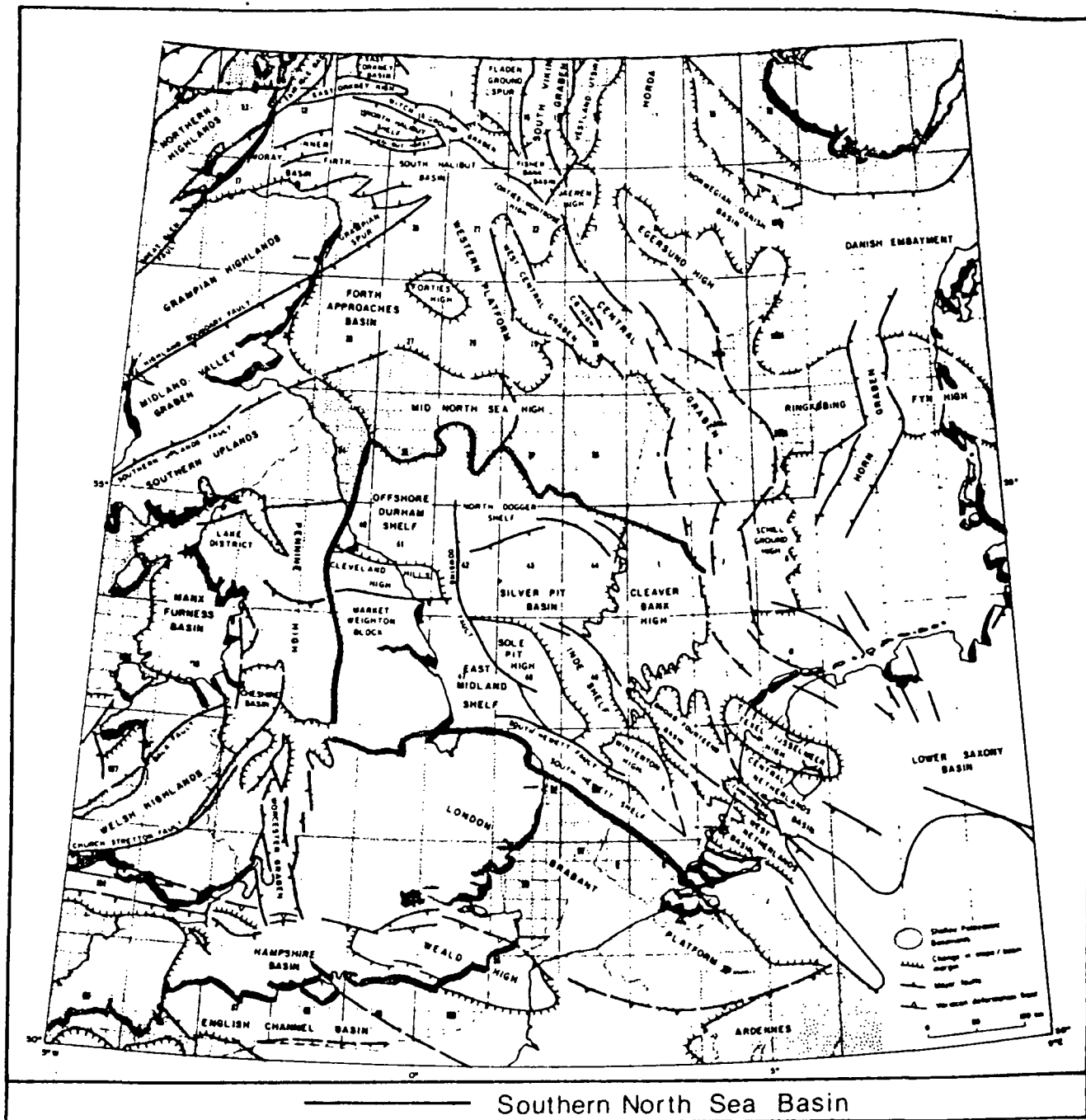


Fig. 1.8 Structural map of the Southern North Sea. From Glennie (1986)

NE-SW and NW-SE trends which have been reactivated in different roles during their history. The one of most interest to this study is the Dowsing Fault Zone which is crossed by both lines 4 and 5 (see Fig. 1.2). This seems to have played an important role in first the formation of the Sole Pit Trough (and possibly the Cleveland Hills Basin) and then later the two phases of inversion during the Late Cretaceous and the Mid-Tertiary. The recognition of flower structures (Glennie 1986) and the vertical nature of the fault support the idea that considerable strike-slip displacement has taken place. Van Hoorn (1987) relates the Permian to mid-Jurassic subsidence of the Sole Pit Trough to late Hercynian pull-apart movements and the periods of inversion to reactivation of the existing faults in a transpressional sense.

The continuation of the Dowsing Fault Zone north of line 5 is variously mapped as continuing northwards (Glennie,1986) or running onto land into the Flamborough Head fault system (Kent, 1975). In fact, it is poorly known. The location of the Fault zone in Fig. 1.2 is that postulated as a result of this study and will be discussed further in chapter 7.

1.2.5 The Market Weighton block

The Market Weighton block has been a relatively stable area since at least the Jurassic, causing reduced sedimentation from the early Jurassic to early Cretaceous period. Bott et al.(1978) have interpreted the cause of this stability as a granite in the underlying pre-Carboniferous basement rocks. This interpretation is reinforced by the regional gravity and magnetic data, although Aveschough (1986) has argued that the observed gravity anomaly would be consistent with the presence of a Carboniferous sedimentary basin instead.

The Market Weighton seismic network was installed to resolve this question from teleseismic data, and the existence of the network provided the opportunity to record wide-angle reflection data from the MOBIL lines 4 and 5 during the MOBIL survey. In fact, Lewis (1988) found that the delay times from the teleseismic data and the wide-angle data seem to support the hypothesis of an underlying granite.

The wide-angle recording at this location yielded high-quality records containing a great deal of information about the crustal structure (Lewis 1988, Bassom 1988, Matthews 1989) and has also shed

extra light on the interpretation of features visible on the line 1 wide-angle data.

1.3 The Caledonian Suture Seismic Project

The Caledonian Suture Seismic Project (Bott et al, 1985) was designed to obtain a picture of the velocity structure of the crust relatively uncomplicated by major lateral structural features. For this reason, it was located across Northern England approximately parallel to Caledonian strike, just south of the proposed Iapetus Suture. The map in Fig. 1.9 shows the layout of the experiment, which used over 60 land recording stations located across the country at 2 km spacing and explosive, sea-bottom shots fired at 4 km spacing: 27 in the Irish Sea and 30 in the North Sea. Two shots were also detonated on land, around the middle of the profile.

The fieldwork was co-ordinated and the preliminary interpretation of the data carried out by Green(1984), who concentrated on the shallow structure to be extracted from the data. His interpretation of the shallow structure beneath the North Sea is shown in Fig. 1.10. The deep crustal interpretation and synthetic seismogram modelling was carried out by Lewis(1986), whose model is shown in Fig. 1.11. The positions of the stations re-occupied during the MOBIL programme are marked, with the location of the airgun profile. This model, and the near-surface interpretation of Green were used as a starting model for the MOBIL line 1 data. This will be described further in chapter 6.

The CSSP P-wave data were of excellent quality for an experiment of such shot and station spacing; the signal to noise ratio of the recordings is very good (see section in Fig. 4.10). However, the data has been completely superseded by the high resolution of the MOBIL dataset. Most of the phases picked from CSSP were picked very differently on the MOBIL records.

Nevertheless, the S-wave data recorded from some CSSP stations were excellent, and since the MOBIL airgun shots did not generate S-waves, it is the only S-wave information available from the area. Although some preliminary interpretations were made from the S-wave records before the acquisition of MOBIL (described further in chapter 7), full use has not yet been made of them. Using the P-wave model established from the MOBIL data, a further interpretation of CSSP S-wave records would be a very worthwhile exercise.

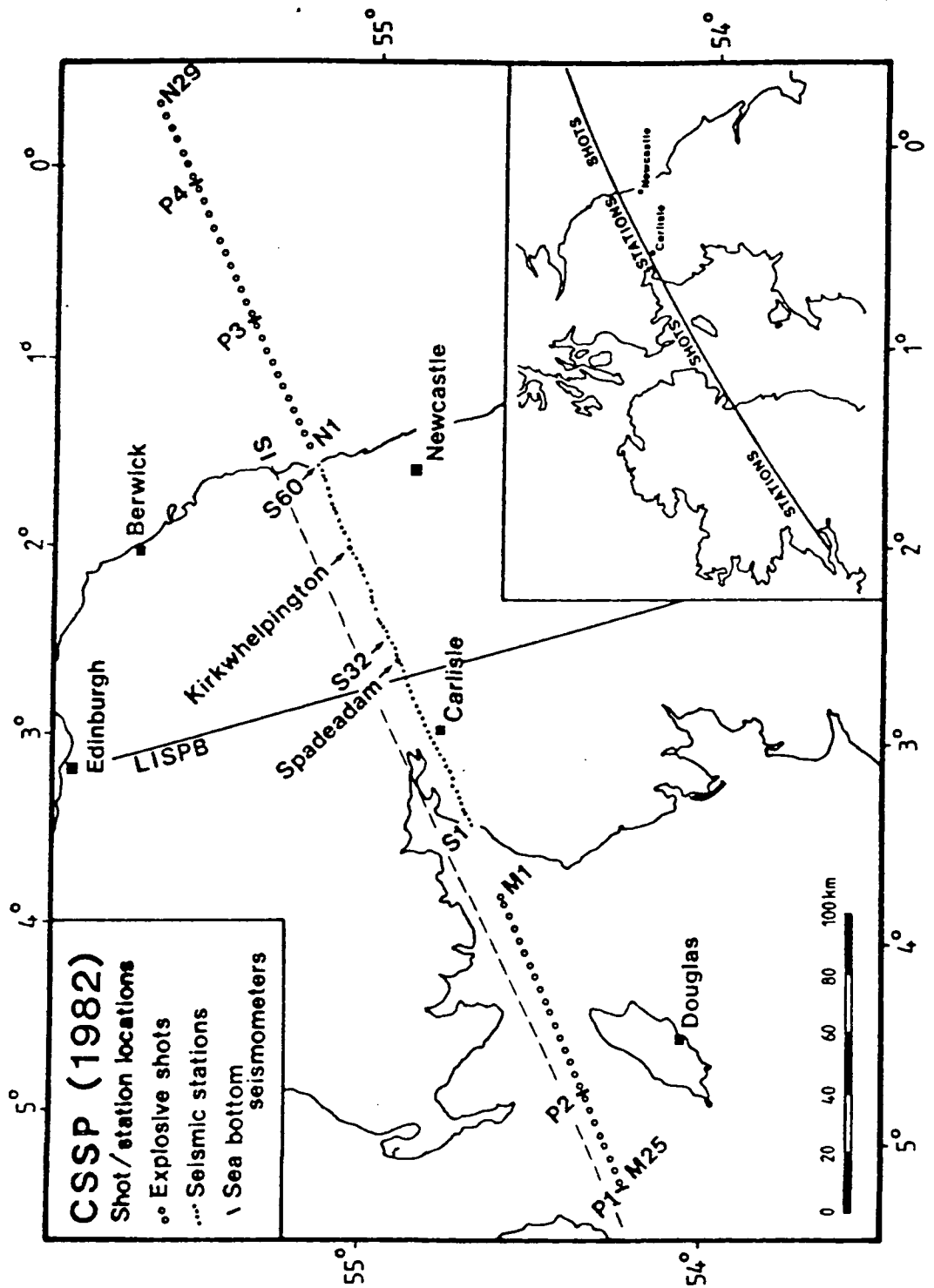


Fig. 1.9 Location of the Caledonian Suture Seismic Project of 1982. From Green (1984).

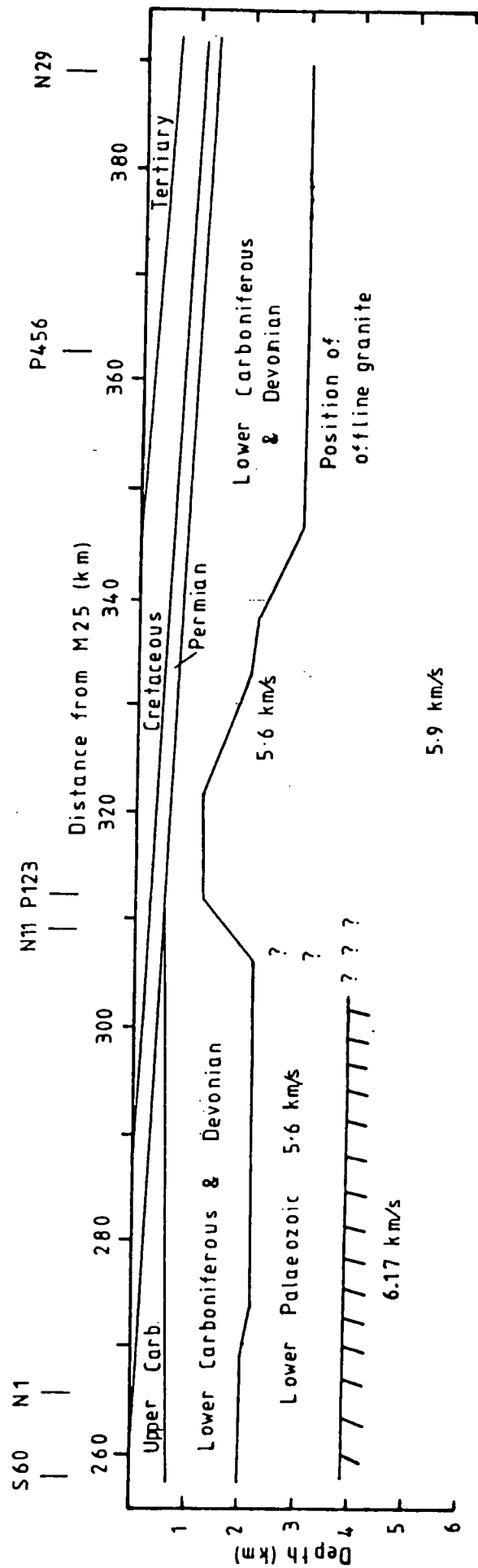


Fig. 1.10 Interpretation of the upper crustal structure beneath the North Sea from the CSSP. From Green (1984).

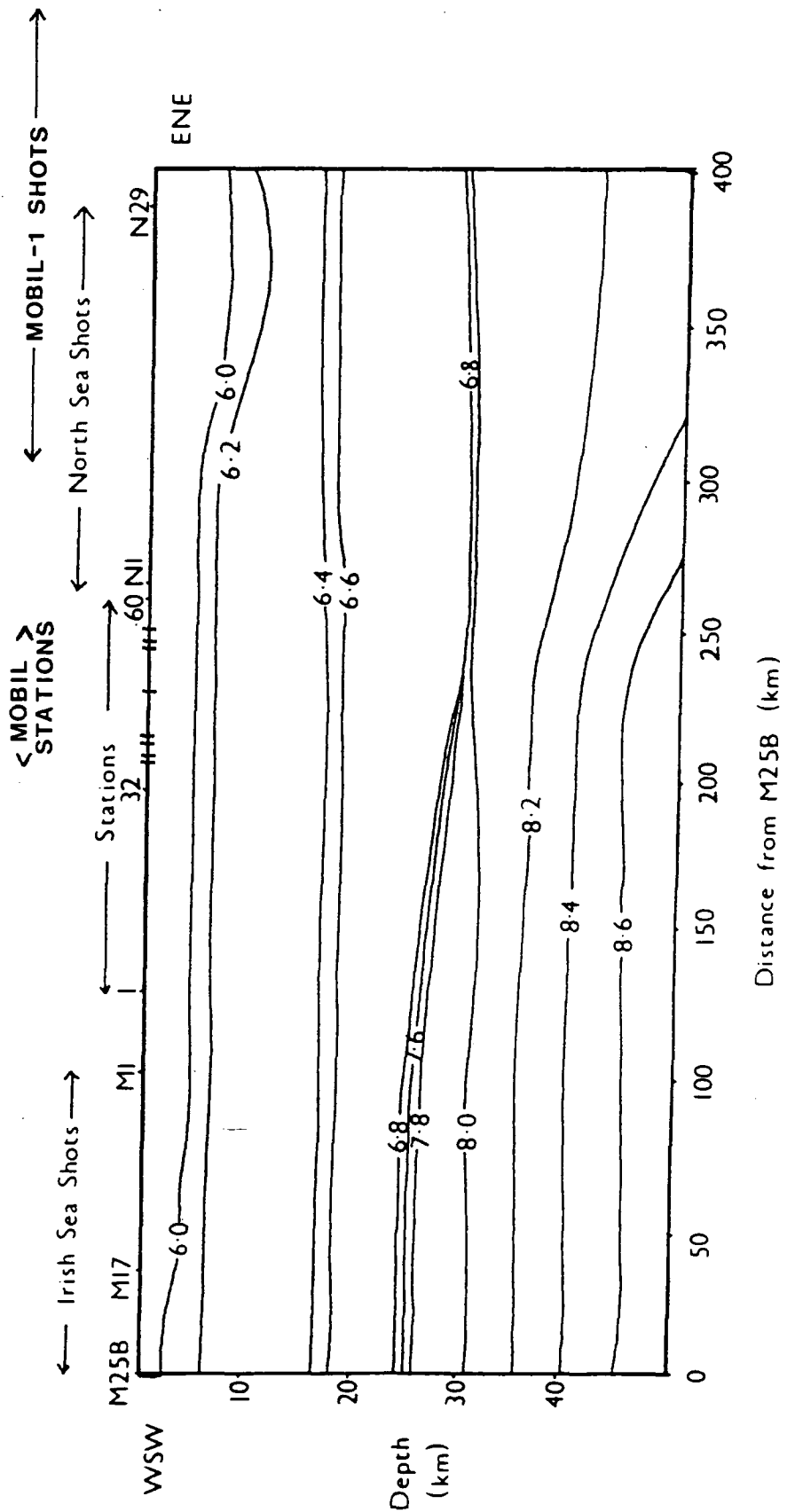


Fig. 1.11 Final laterally varying model obtained from the CSSP by Lewis (1986).

1.4 Other regional seismic surveys

Previous refraction/wide-angle reflection surveys in this area and their interpretations are described by Lewis(1986), and include LISPB, shot approximately north-south to cross Caledonian strike, and NERL, which was recorded from the explosive shots of LISPB. Fig. 1.12 shows the locations of these experiments relative to MOBIL-CSSP. These interpretations were incorporated, where possible, into Lewis' model for the CSSP data. Collette et al (1970) shot several refraction profiles in the region of lines 4 and 5, providing a starting model for Matthews'(1989) interpretation of line 5.

The most important development since the CSSP was carried out is the accumulation of so much deep normal-incidence seismic reflection data around the UK by BIRPS. Normal-incidence profiles of particular interest to this study include WINCH, which was shot in the Irish Sea across the line of Irish Sea explosive shots used for CSSP, and NEC, the North East Coast profile shot almost parallel to the Northumberland coast, approximately 20 km offshore.

Both these profiles show the usual transparent upper crust beneath surface sedimentary basins, reflective lower crust and fairly clearly defined Moho. However, they also image a northward-dipping lower crustal reflector in both the Irish and North Sea, just north of the location of CSSP and now MOBIL line 1. This is especially distinct on NEC and has been interpreted by Klemperer and Matthews(1987) as the buried trace of the Iapetus Suture. Freeman et al.(1988) recognise four different lower crustal terrane types along the length of NEC (from Hartlepool to Montrose), shown in Fig.1.13. The dipping reflector, or Iapetus Suture, forms the boundary between two terrane types: the Southern Uplands subduction complex, which would have constituted the continental margin of Laurasia, and the "Lake District" crust, which would have been the southern continent, Gondwanaland.

The MOBIL programme was shot to investigate further these different types of lower crust, particularly the suture zone. Line 2, shot parallel to and only 10 km away from NEC, was recorded to 24 s TWTT in order to see if the "suture" reflector penetrated the upper mantle on a migrated record section. Line 3 was shot 70 km from NEC, and again parallel in order to give further along strike information about the "suture". This dataset brings the total number of BIRPS profiles which cross the Iapetus suture

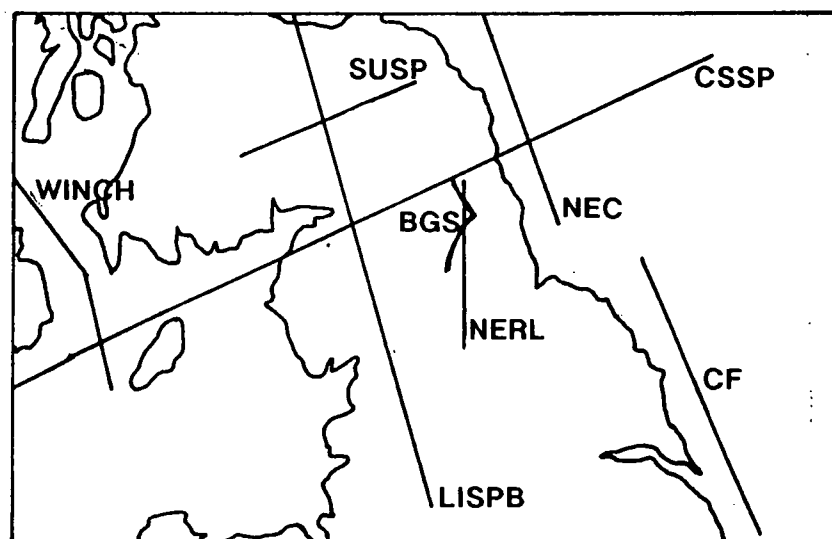


Fig. 1.12 Previous crustal seismic surveys carried out in Northern England in addition to the CSSP. SUSP: Hall et al. (1983); NERL: Swinburn (1975); LISPB: Bamford et al. (1978); CF: Collette et al. (1970); WINCH: Brewer et al. (1983); NEC: Freeman et al. (1988); BGS: Chadwick et al. (1989).

NEC Unmigrated time sections (Distance in km)

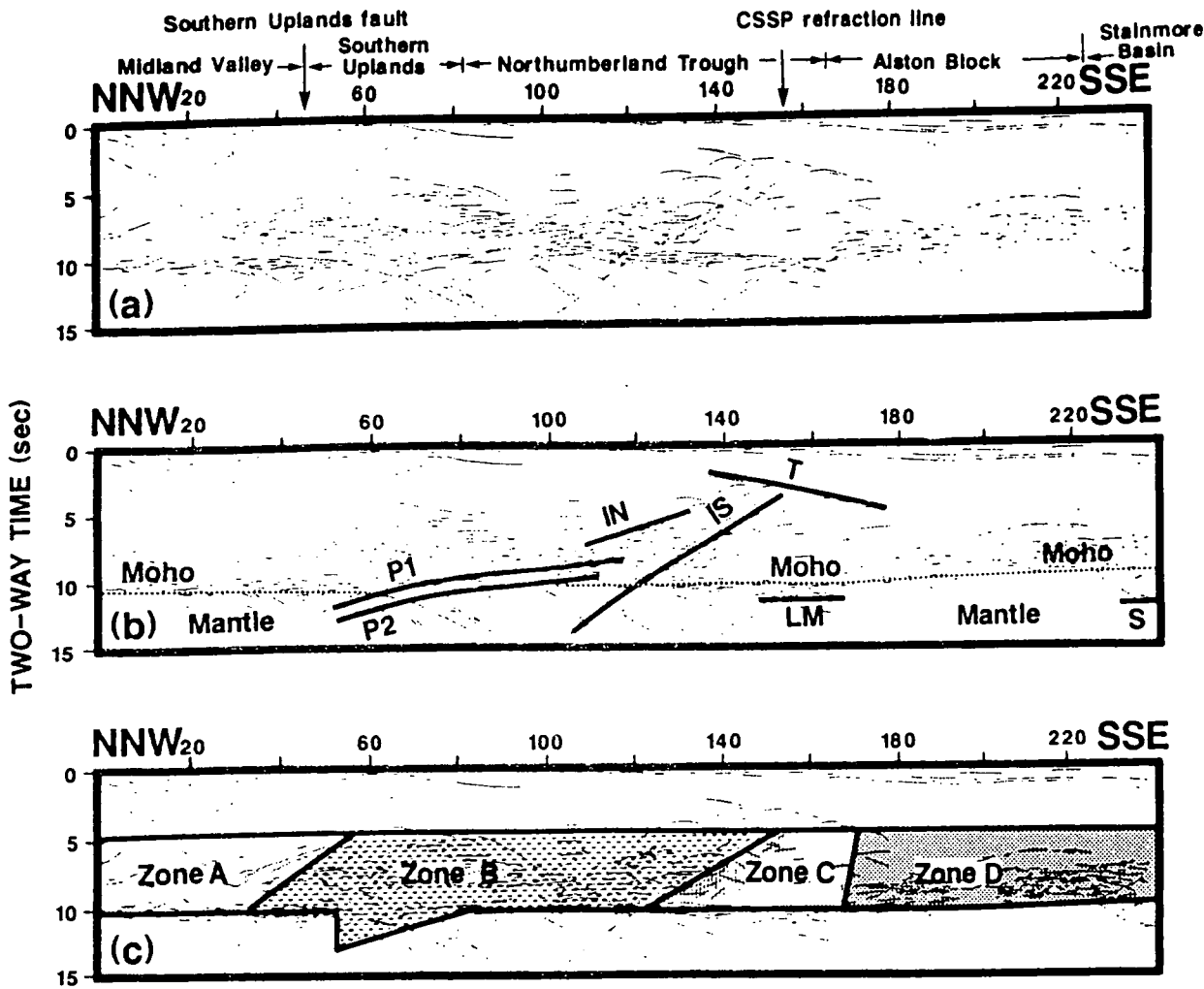


Fig. 1.13 NEC unmigrated time section and interpretation by Freeman et al. (1988).

in the UK to six (Fig.1.14): the others include NSDP, WINCH and WIRE (Klemperer et al.,1990).

MOBIL line 1 essentially provides a "strike" section over the Caledonian crust, with which to tie in the other "dip" sections over the suture. The wide angle recording of these profiles, to very high resolution, enables the derivation of the velocity structure to tie into the reflection interpretation.

1.5 High-resolution wide-angle reflection data

Although MOBIL was the first fully coincident seismic experiment of its kind in the UK, there has been an increasing trend in other countries to decrease either shot or receiver spacing in wide-angle reflection experiments. "Piggy-back" experiments during deep normal-incidence seismic reflection profiles, particularly those shot across land, have also become increasingly popular. Some of the most imaginative piggy-back experiments have been carried out by groups working with DEKORP in West Germany (Bittner et al.,1987) generating large wide-angle datasets to which various new inversion and processing methods have been applied.

One of the first experiments to use airguns for recording wide-angle data was EUGENO-S, shot in Sweden in 1984 (Lund et al., 1987) with great success. The increased resolution of the data, both spatially and temporally, means that many relatively low-amplitude crustal arrivals are correlated on record sections. Airgun shots were also used for wide-angle experiments in Maine, U.S.A. (Hutchinson and Klitgord, 1986) and during the GLIMPCE programme shot in the Great Lakes in 1986 (GLIMPCE Seismic refraction working group, 1989).

The ease with which the coincident wide-angle and normal-incidence recording of marine seismic profiles may be carried out and the relative inexpensiveness of the operation (compared to the cost of the normal-incidence acquisition) has led to a number of further similar experiments being planned. Since the acquisition of MOBIL, similar experiments have been shot off the coast of Alaska, TACT MCS and EDGE MCS (Moses et al. 1989, Brocher et al. 1989), and central California; in 1989, BIRPS shot a large coincident experiment in the Gulf of Bothnia and the Baltic (BABEL) which also appears to have been very successful.

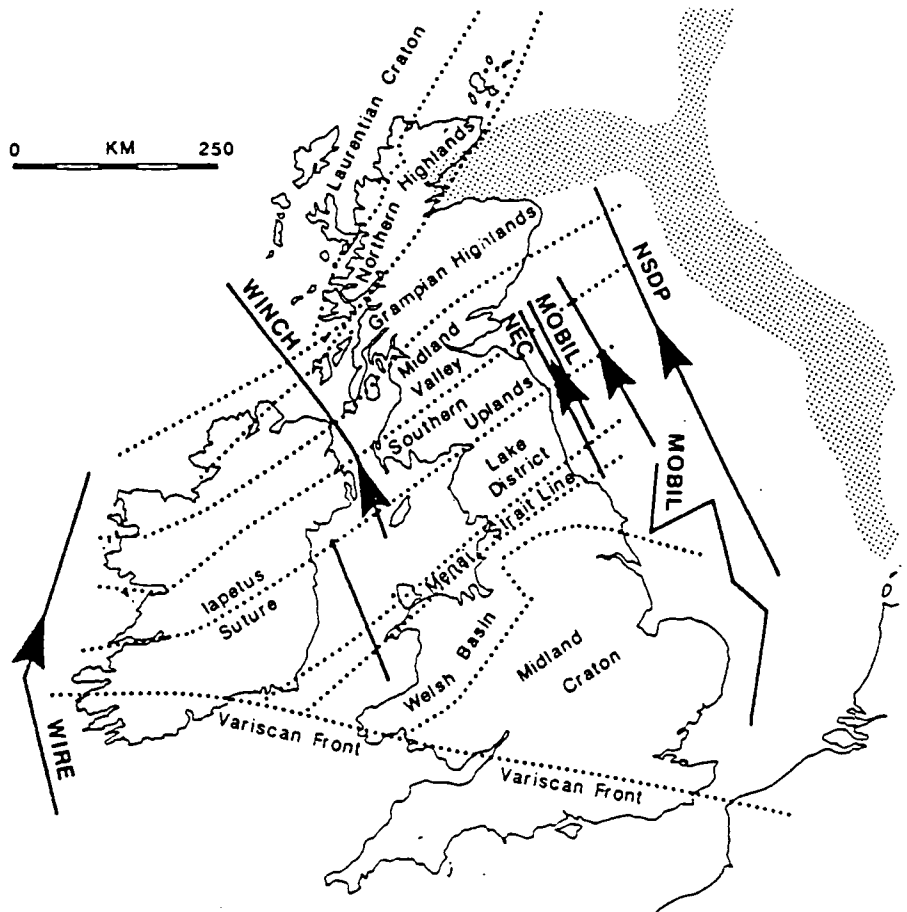


Fig. 1.14 Location of BIRPS profiles around the British Isles which cross the "Iapetus Suture", from Klempner et al. (1990). Arrows represent the intersection of the suture and reflect its dip.

CHAPTER 2 : DATA ACQUISITION

2.1 Introduction

The fieldwork for this study was carried out in June 1987, when Durham was given two weeks notice of BIRPS' intention to carry out deep reflection profiling in the south eastern North Sea, made possible by Mobil's gift of two weeks' shiptime on the research vessel M/V Mobil Search. Hence the programme was named Measurements Over Basins to Image the Lithosphere (MOBIL).

As mentioned in chapter 1, line 1 was shot along the exact location of the explosive shots of the Caledonian Suture Seismic Project and so this was an ideal opportunity to re-install some of the CSSP seismic stations to record simultaneous wide-angle and normal-incidence reflection seismic data. The land recording network in Northumberland has been called MOBIL-CSSP, and provided a linear wide-angle reflection profile as far as line 1 was concerned and fan profiles with respect to lines 2 and 3. The installation of seismic stations was helped considerably by the careful notes of the CSSP sites which were produced by A.S.P.Green in 1982. These saved the large amount of time usually required to research favourable geology, land ownership and noise conditions.

Immediately prior to notification of the MOBIL programme, a wide-aperture seismic network had just been installed across the Market Weighton area by Dr. R.E. Long, J.F.B.D. Fonseca and the author, initially designed to study the deep structure of the area using teleseismic data. As it turned out, the network was suitably positioned to record wide-angle data from the MOBIL profiles 4 and 5, shot off the coast of Humberside and North Yorkshire. This network was therefore called MOBIL-MW and its installation proved to be good practice for the hurried installation of the more important Northumberland seismic stations in only one week between the completion of the Market Weighton exercise and the commencement of the MOBIL shots.

Shooting commenced on June 6th 1987 with line 1. Profiles 1 to 5 were recorded by both networks (Fig. 2.1) and the eastern (Morpeth) group of Northumberland stations was left running in the

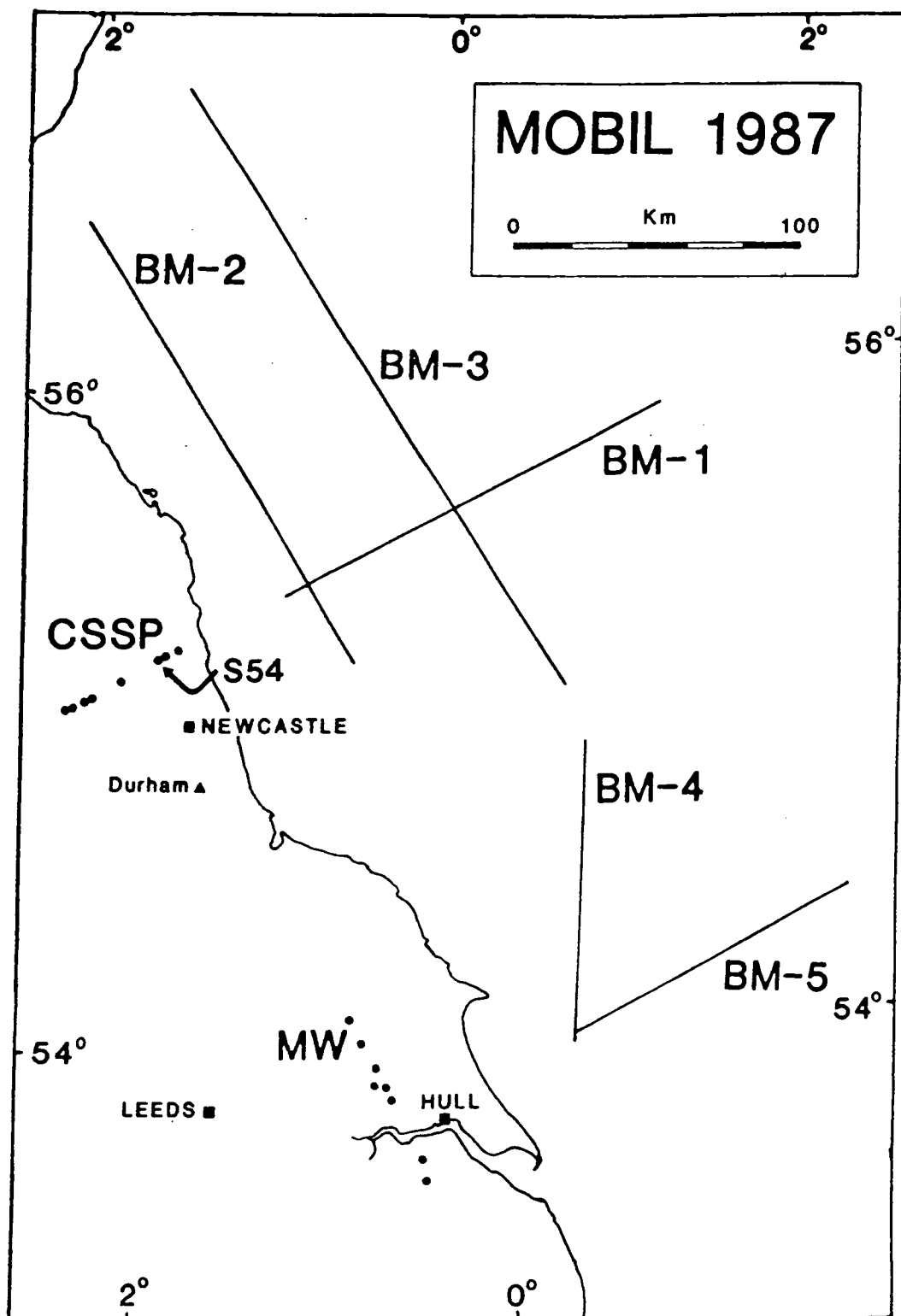


Fig. 2.1 Map of Northern England showing locations of Durham's wide-angle recording seismic stations relative to the BIRPS MOBIL normal-incidence profiles. CSSP: re-occupied CSSP station locations; MW: temporary Market Weighton seismic network.

hope that some records might be visible from the planned line 10, further out into the centre of the North Sea, although in the end this line was not shot.

2.2. Seismic recording stations

In Northumberland, eight of the original CSSP sites were chosen for re-installation, using the CSSP records to select those which were least noisy and in the optimum distance range for crustal arrivals. The stations were located in two groups: one close to Morpeth, not far from the coast (stations 54,55 and 57), the other near Bellingham in the Northern Pennines (stations 36, 37,39 and 40). In-line horizontal seismometers were installed at stations 55 and 40 to provide two-component coverage in case good shear waves were observed. An extra station, 47, was installed at the last minute between the two groups to improve coverage. As it turned out, the records from this station played a very important part in the interpretation of the dataset, providing coverage where there might otherwise have been a 30 km gap in information. The width of the whole network was approximately 45 km. These station locations are shown in detail on the map in Fig 2.2.

The original purpose of the Market Weighton teleseismic network was to attempt to establish whether the low density body giving rise to the gravity anomaly is a buried granite or a sedimentary basin (Bott et al. 1978, Lewis 1988). The network was therefore installed in a roughly north-south linear profile centred on the gravity minimum but extending beyond its limits. It stretched approximately 80km from Acklam (near Malton) in North Yorkshire to Brigg in Lincolnshire. One off-line station was located at Holme-on-Spalding-Moor, in the Royal Observer Corps observation bunker which was also used as the base station for the network. Approximate station locations are shown in Fig. 2.1.

All the Northumberland sites were located in rather isolated areas, although relatively easily accessed by road, and hence suffered little cultural interference. Station 36 was the noisiest locality since it was located on Forestry Commission property with a generator nearby which produced continuous 22 Hz noise. Site 54 was located at Beacon Hill in a field containing a herd of Highland Cattle and several sheep, but in spite of this, the records from this station were the best of all at the crucial periods. Station

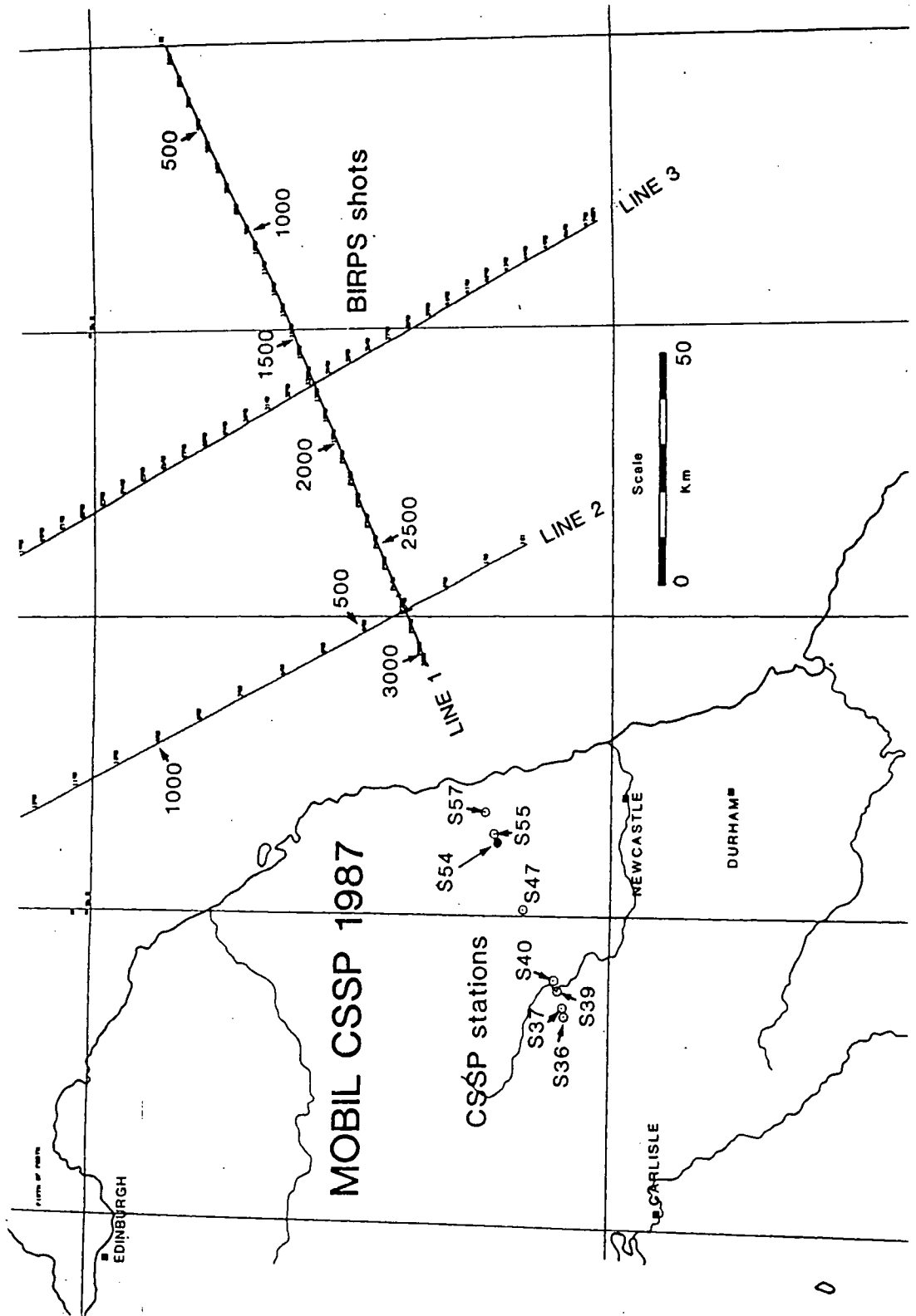


Fig. 2.2 Map of MOBIL-CSSP station locations across Northumberland.

47, the only CSSP station without a cemented base, also produced very good records, so the benefits of a cemented base are debatable. Station 55 was the noisiest of all, since the base of the seismometer pit was clay - bedrock was more deeply buried at this location. At all other sites, bedrock was encountered at a convenient depth of between 1 and 3 feet.

The Market Weighton sites were generally noisier than the CSSP sites. This was mainly due to the local geology which was Upper Cretaceous chalk, a notoriously bad horizon for seismic coupling and propagation of cultural noise. Also, since the region is much more densely populated and more industrial than Northumberland the sites could not be so isolated as those in CSSP.

2.3 Seismic Equipment

Both networks used Geostore equipment, with the network of outstations radiolinked to a central FM Geostore recorder. The equipment used in the CSSP part was loaned by the NERC seismic equipment pool, although this was only possible because of a delay in the RESTE project in Portugal (Fonseca 1989), for which the equipment had initially been loaned. The equipment used at Market Weighton is jointly owned by the Universities of Durham and Liverpool.

Each outstation used a Willmore Mk III seismometer, an amplifier modulator, a radio transmitter, an aerial and a 12-volt battery as power supply. Two Geostore recorders were used in Northumberland, one based at Hebron Hill Farm, near Morpeth, the other at High Carry House near Wark. Both locations provided good shelter for the equipment : the base of a water tank at Hebron Hill and a barn at High Carry House. Each base station consisted of the Geostore recorder itself, an MSF radio, aeriels and receivers to receive the incoming signals from outstations and two 12 volt batteries for power.

Each seismic station was installed by digging a pit down to bedrock (between one and three feet deep), lining this with 12-inch PVC piping and (with the exception of the Market Weighton network and station 47 in Northumberland) cementing the base of the pit to maximise coupling. An aerial was erected nearby with a transmitter strapped to it, connected to the seismometer and amplifier modulator within the pit and to a battery buried in a plastic bag. The pit would be covered with a board wrapped in polythene

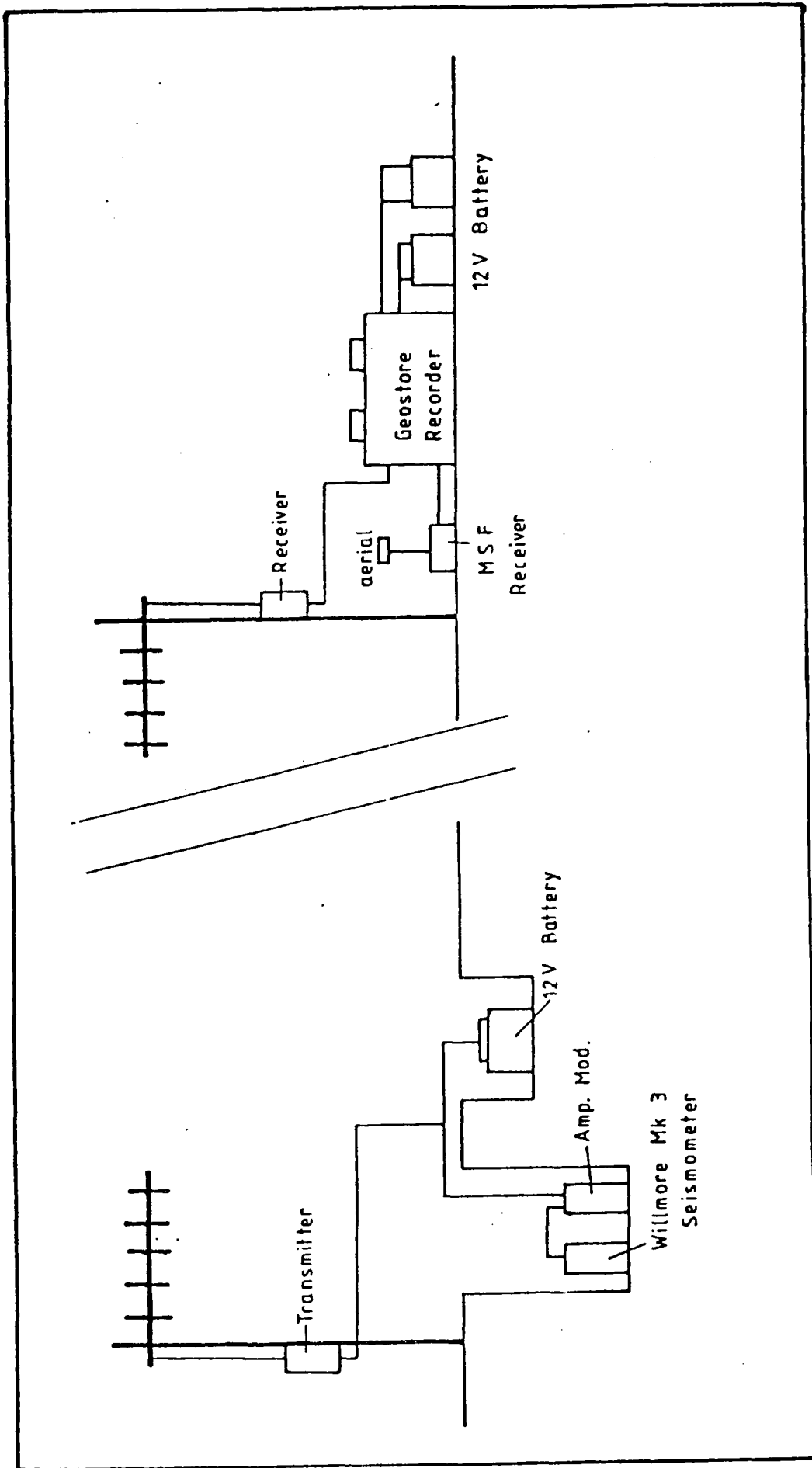


Fig. 2.3 Diagram of Geostore recording apparatus, from Green(1984).

and turf placed over this for protection. The arrangement of this apparatus is depicted in Fig. 2.3.

The Geostore recorder is a 14-channel F.M. recorder with two flutter tracks, one channel recording VELA time code generated internally and eleven data channels. One of the data channels was employed to record the MSF radio time signal, by which to calibrate the recordings to Universal Time. The analog data was recorded on 0.5 inch magnetic tape at 15/160 inches per second, which was considered adequate for this experiment since that provided a bandwidth of 0-32 Hz and a recording time of 2 to 3 days per tape. The suitability of this bandwidth is discussed in the next chapter. The recorder accepts F.M. data with a carrier frequency of 676 Hz and a maximum deviation of 40%. The recorders were left running continuously throughout the experiment except for the short breaks required for tape changes.

It was possible to check the signals on the geostore tape heads by means of an inbuilt test box. This made it possible to listen to each channel individually and to detect noise problems and equipment failures such as short-circuiting on aerials, breakdown of a transmitter or receiver, battery failure or damage at the outstation from man, beast or the elements. There was a failure of the Hebron Hill geostore for about 30 minutes towards the end of the recording of line 1, which caused the loss of 5 km data, but apart from that there were only minor equipment failures at this base station which were easily fixed. Unfortunately the Geostore recorder used at Wark had a faulty internal VELA clock, which meant that although recording was not affected, replay and digitisation of the tapes (as described in the following chapter) proved problematic. There were few problems at the CSSP outstations.

In the Market Weighton network, all equipment worked satisfactorily until the day before the shooting of line 4, when the Geostore itself broke down. Since by this time all the profiles off the Northumberland coast had been shot, the recorder from Wark was rushed down overnight to the Market Weighton base and installed in time to record lines 4 and 5. The only problem with this development was that the clock problem on that geostore was also transported. This meant that the replay and digitisation of the Market Weighton dataset was also problematic. One of the outstations, Station 5, was regularly disrupted by the harvesting and ploughing of the field in which it was located, but fortunately only after the MOBIL programme had finished.

The amplifier modulators amplify and frequency modulate the seismometer signal to give the full 40% deviation of the carrier frequency in the range 250mV to 0.25mV (1-10 on the instrument). During the MOBIL-CSSP experiment, most gains were set to 7, suitable for quiet sites, with only stations 55 (horizontal) and 54 requiring lower gains due to noisier conditions. All MOBIL-MW sites were set to gain 6.

The frequency of the UHF radio links was between 458 and 459 MHz with 25 kHz band separation. All the MOBIL CSSP sites except that at station 40 were linked in this way to a base. The Hebron Hill base received the signal from stations 47, 54, 55 (horizontal and vertical) and 57; the Wark base was actually located at station 40 and was therefore directly connected to the horizontal and vertical seismometers installed there, but also received from stations 36,37 and 39. Most links had line of sight between receiver and transmitter. Station 40, used as a base station in the original CSSP experiment, was known to satisfy this condition but Hebron Hill was newly chosen as a location with both shelter for the recorder and line of sight to stations 54, 55 and 57. The fact that it probably also had line of sight to station 47 was a happy coincidence which decided the installation of station 47.

A table of recorded tapes, base station and outstation information from the MOBIL-CSSP experiment is to be found in Appendix A.

2.4 Marine shots

As previously mentioned, the airgun shots recorded by Durham were fired by M/V Mobil Search for the BIRPS deep normal incidence profiles. The source consisted of 60 airguns in four sub-arrays 58.8 m long, 11 m apart with a total capacity of 9100 cu.in. It was actually operated at 8500 cu.in capacity, 1800 psi air pressure and 7.5 m depth during the MOBIL programme. The shot interval was 20 s, corresponding to 50 m spacing, for all the lines recorded at wide-angle except line 2 which was shot at 100 m (40 s) spacing.

The shotpoint times, according to the shipboard atomic clock, were recorded separately to the normal incidence data onto floppy disk. The West German radio time signal DCF-77, which transmits

Universal Time (UTC), was recorded on an auxiliary channel, alongside the normal-incidence data. This allowed synchronisation between land and sea recordings and proved crucial during playout of the wide-angle records, when it transpired that the ship's clock, by which the detailed shot times had been logged, had a tendency to jump almost whole seconds for no recorded reason. Hence all the shot times for line 1, listed in Appendix B, are 0.961 s early. This error was not discovered until comparison of the MOBIL CSSP wide-angle records with the original CSSP records was carried out. Initially the mistake was thought to be in the wide-angle recording or processing, which used the Geostore recording of MSF radio time code to calibrate to Universal Time (UTC). Since the playout of line 2 wide-angle recordings showed a difference of almost 1 s when correlated with line 1, it became evident that it was not a recording fault. Upon studying the BIRPS playout of DCF-77 triggered at the shot times, it was possible to determine that the clock jump was 0.961 s, and to correct the travel time picks from the wide-angle data by this amount. This is constant for the whole of line 1. Since line 2 is correctly timed, the clock must have been reset between the shooting of the two lines.

The shot times for line 3 are still unavailable due to the accidental deletion of the shipboard floppy disk on which they were recorded and only one paper listing of the line details exists. Lines 4 and 5, as described by Lewis (1988) and Bassom (1988) require correction of the shot times by 0.965 s.

Navigation and position location at sea was based on satellite TRANSIT/PADS and sonar DOPPLER/SPEEDLOG systems. It should be noted that the shot positions printed onto the floppy disc for seismic processing have not been reprocessed to allow for navigational drift. This means that at a few places on the record sections, there is a gap due to an update in the navigation system. The largest gap produced by this problem is 500 m, which affects the reduced travel time by 0.5/6.0 s, that is, 0.083 s. Since this is the maximum error produced by this effect, and is of the same order of magnitude as the picking error (see section 4.3.3), it does not cause great problems.

CHAPTER 3 : WIDE-ANGLE DATA PROCESSING

3.1 Introduction

As described in Chapter 2, the wide-angle seismic data from MOBIL were acquired in analogue form on magnetic tape, so the first step involved in processing the data was to convert it to digital form in order to transfer information to Durham's main frame computer. This was carried out in the Seismic Refraction Processing Laboratory, using the PDP-11 system to convert the data and write to digital tape.

These tapes were then transferred to the mainframe computer, an AMDAHL 470 (updated during 1988 to the more powerful AMDAHL 5860), which uses the Michigan Terminal System (MTS) operating system. On this system the data was demultiplexed, separated into individual shot records, sorted into common station gathers, corrected in various ways (for different gain settings, shot times and locations and station locations), filtered and then plotted.

Line 1 consisted of 3000 shots and line 2 of 1800, so compared to the traditional CSSP-style refraction survey, the quantity of data for processing was huge, and the existing Seismic Processing System (SPS) software written at Durham by D.L.Stevenson had to be adapted. Fortunately, this was not too time-consuming since the software was written very flexibly. The actual use of the programmes was very lengthy, however, due to the volume of the data. The MTS multi-user operating system is not the ideal system to use for this since by day it tends to be heavily used and therefore slow, and the nature of the work is not suited to batch jobs.

It took approximately 3 months to digitise, process and plot roughly the data recorded on the Hebron Hill Geostore from Line 1; Line 2 recordings at this base have also been fully processed, the final tidying up and plotting of the data being completed by E.P. Jarvis, who also carried out preliminary modelling of the profile (Jarvis, 1988). Full records are therefore available of lines 1 and 2 from stations 47, 54, 55 and 57. However, due to the problem with the internal clock of the Wark Geostore, only half of Line 1 as recorded at Wark has been completely processed and plotted, which alone was very time

consuming. This data includes the stations 36, 37, 39 and 40, the more distant group, and in view of the time-consuming nature of the work it was considered unnecessary to digitise further, since judging from the quality of the preliminary sections from the Hebron Hill stations at this offset, it did not seem likely that good records would be obtained beyond 150 km offset. However, on examination of the final record sections, the data quality does appear good enough to justify digitising the other half of the recordings in the future. The Wark recordings of Line 2 have not been processed at all to date, since the lesser quality of the line 2 data at the Morpeth stations compared to those of Line 1 does not give much hope of the records from Wark being worth the effort required to process them.

The Market Weighton recordings of profiles 4 and 5 were digitised, processed and plotted by S.A. Lewis and C. H. Bassom, who also made preliminary interpretations. Further modelling has since been undertaken by P.A. Matthews (Lewis, 1988, Bassom, 1988, Matthews, 1989).

3.2 Digitisation of the data

3.2.1 Seismic Processing Laboratory Digitising Software

The wide-angle MOBIL recordings were digitised and copied to multiplexed computer tape in Durham's Seismic Refraction Processing Lab, using the PDP-11 system and software written for this purpose by D.L. Stevenson. The equipment consisted of a Honeywell FM tape deck, a jet pen recorder, a VT100 terminal, a Tektronics 619 graphics screen with bit pad and the PDP-11 which incorporates three disc drives and two digital tape drives. The three discs include a system disc (DL0), control disc (DL1) and the user disc (DL2) to which digitised data is written.

The programme used for the MOBIL data was DIG2, since this is able to digitise large blocks of data at once. The main limitation was the space on the user disc, which restricted the block sizes to approximately 40 minutes recording (equivalent to about 120 shots) time and eight channels, sampled at 100 Hz. The channels digitised were the 5 seismic data channels, the VELA and MSF channels for time code and the flutter track, also for time information from the carrier.

The digitising sequence is illustrated by the flow chart in Fig. 3.1. The analog field tapes were mounted on the Honeywell tape deck which is controlled by the system. DIG2 initially decodes the

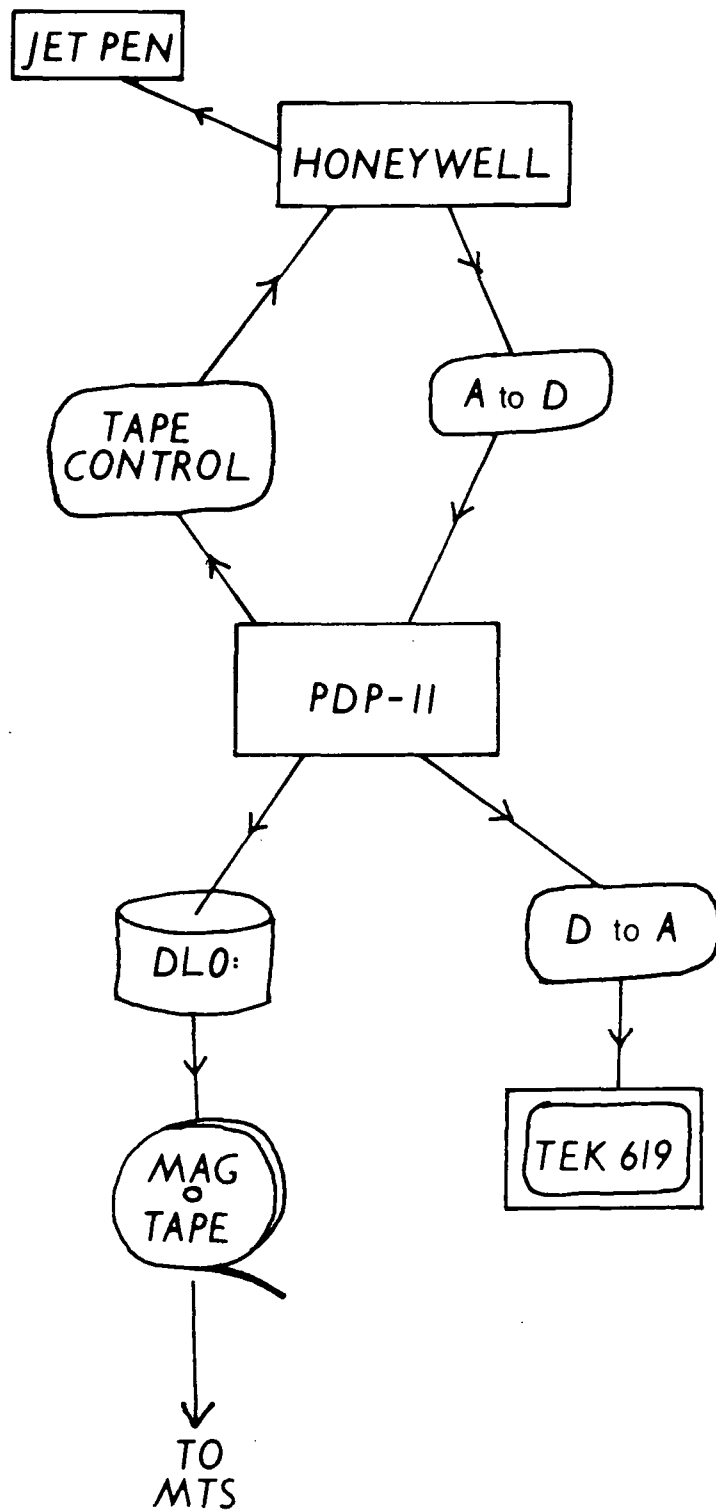


Fig. 3.1 Flow chart of digitisation procedure using the PDP-11 system.

VELA time from the analog tape, positions it at the start time specified by the user and proceeds to replay the tape at ten times the recording speed, in this case 15/16 inches per second, for the specified duration. The data is converted from analog to digital form en route to the PDP -11, then written to disc and/or digital tape in multiplexed format. During the analog tape positioning and replay, the flutter track is used to estimate the tape time, not VELA. Two control files are required by the programme DIG2 to specify the analog tape parameters and the clock correction to be applied to the VELA decoded time. The clock correction was obtained by playing out MSF (Universal Time, UTC) against VELA on the analog jet pen recorder.

Once digitised, the first 20 seconds of data in each block could be viewed using the programme CHECK, which would convert the data back to analog form to display all the digitised channels as raster lines on the Tektronics 619 graphics screen.

3.2.2 Digitisation of the Wark Geostore recordings

The analog tapes from the Hebron Hill Geostore, once the above technique was established and reasonably streamlined, were digitised without problems. However, as mentioned in Chapter 2, the Geostore used at Wark and also at Market Weighton had a faulty internal clock which meant that the VELA tape time could not be determined by the digitising software. The code did consist of a regular pulse, however, and 'decoded' to read the same time everywhere on the tape, so it was possible to digitise by positioning the tape manually - using the jet pen and decoding MSF by hand - and specifying the start time for DIG2 as the erroneous time generated by VELA. Thus the system was manipulated into digitising the tape, since after the initial decode, the programme uses the flutter track for timing. This process was slightly more time-consuming than the digitisation of the Hebron Hill data due to the extra manual effort involved but could still be relatively streamlined. More problems were encountered with this data at the demultiplexing and editing stage, since the multiplexed files contained the wrong times. The way this was dealt with is described later in section 3.3.1.

3.2.3 Frequency response of the system

As mentioned in chapter 2, the bandwidth of the geostore recorder at the recording speed was 32 Hz. The anti-alias filter has a cutoff frequency of about 25 Hz, which narrows the window a little further. Whether this window is adequate for this type of data or not was checked by carrying out spectral analysis of some of the arrivals seen on the data.

Fig. 3.2 shows an analysis of the trace recorded at station 54 from shot 2633 of line 1. The arrival in this window is PmP, the wide-angle reflection from the Moho. From the amplitude-frequency plot, it may be seen that the dominant frequency is about 15 Hz. This therefore falls well within the window of the recording system. The smoothed version of this plot is sketched in Fig. 3.3.

However, there is considerable energy at above 25 Hz, which is beyond the -3dB point of the playback equipment and therefore being suppressed. A quick calculation of the original amplitude-frequency response for some of these suppressed frequencies produces the dotted curve on Fig. 3.3. From this it may be seen that the spectrum of the data has a gentle slope and a considerable amount of higher-frequency information has been eliminated by the recording system and the playback system used.

3.3 Main frame processing

3.3.1 Processing sequence

The flow chart in Fig. 3.4 shows the sequence of processing carried out on the digitised tapes of the wide-angle data. The names in boxes correspond to the programmes used during the sequence - most being SPS programmes written by D.L. Stevenson. The SPS system was developed to enable convenient handling of seismic data, using a standard disc file format for the time series data known as Trace Data (TD) format, which is similar to SEG-Y format. The data may thus be handled on a trace-by-trace basis by each programme using routines stored in subroutine libraries. The system presents a user interface independent of the operating system since all system dependent routines are located in a system dependent library.

PSPECT DLS 87 Trace 2633 554 Delay 14.438s Dist 0.0 Azim 0.0 DT = 0.010s

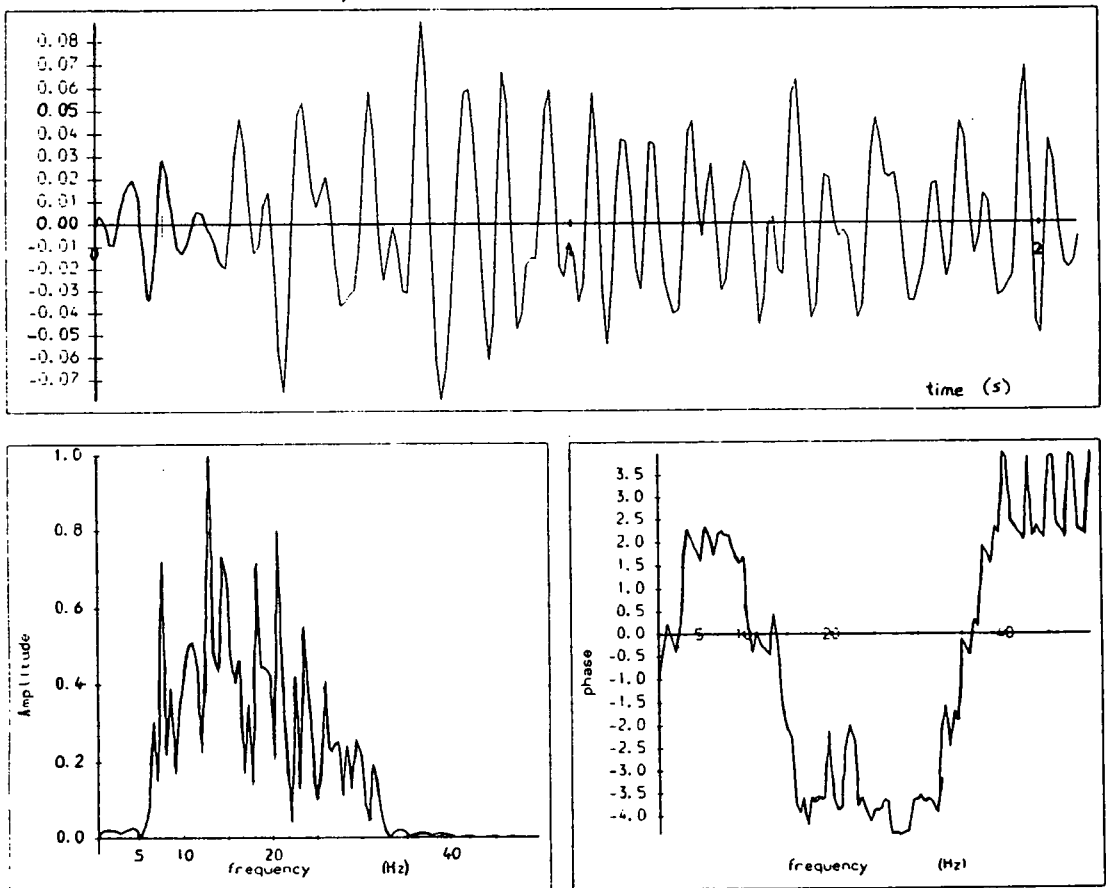


Fig. 3.2 Spectral analysis of PmP phase seen at station 54 from shot 2633.

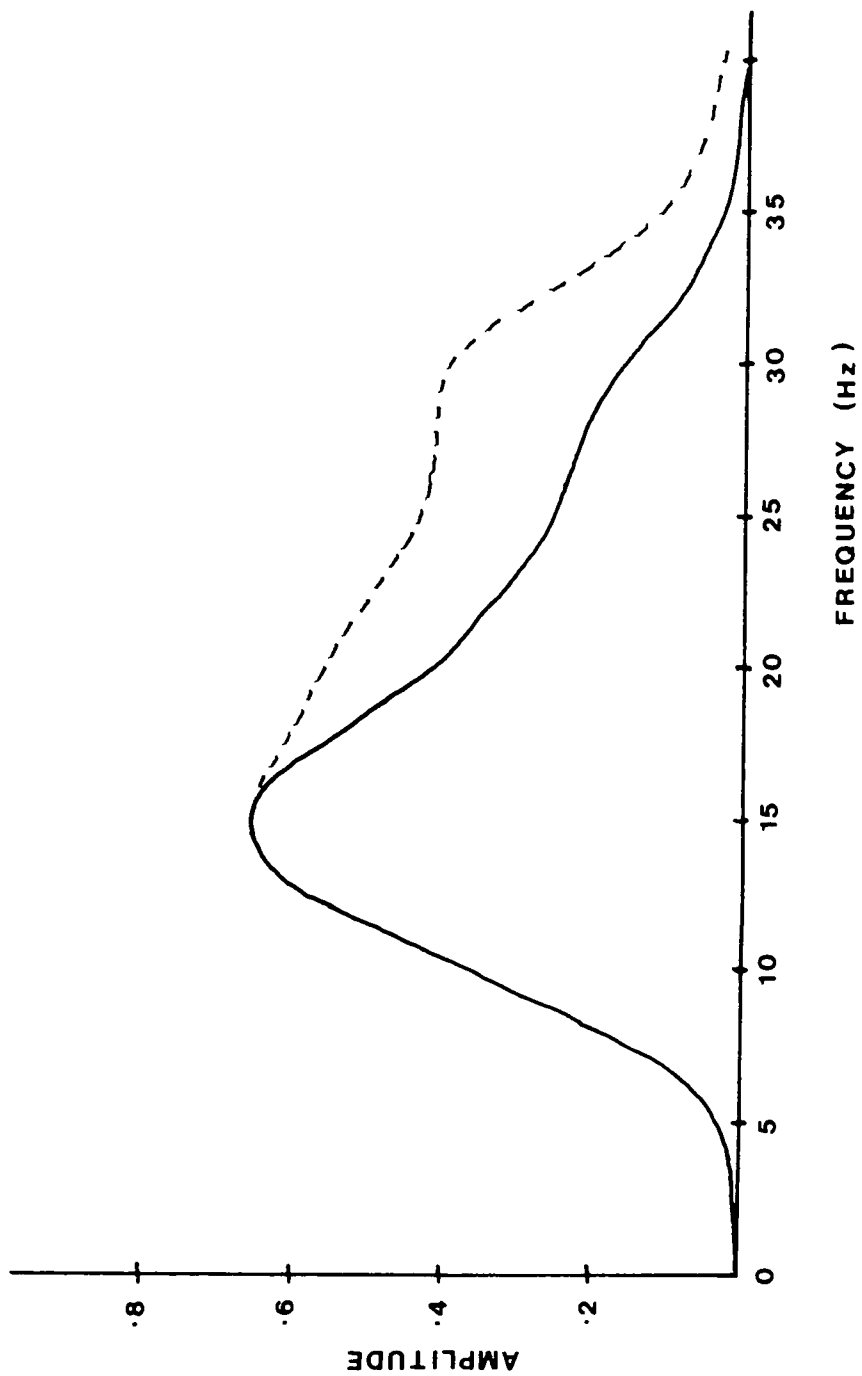


Fig. 3.3 Smoothed frequency spectrum for PmP arrivals (solid line) with correction for recording bandwidth (dotted line).

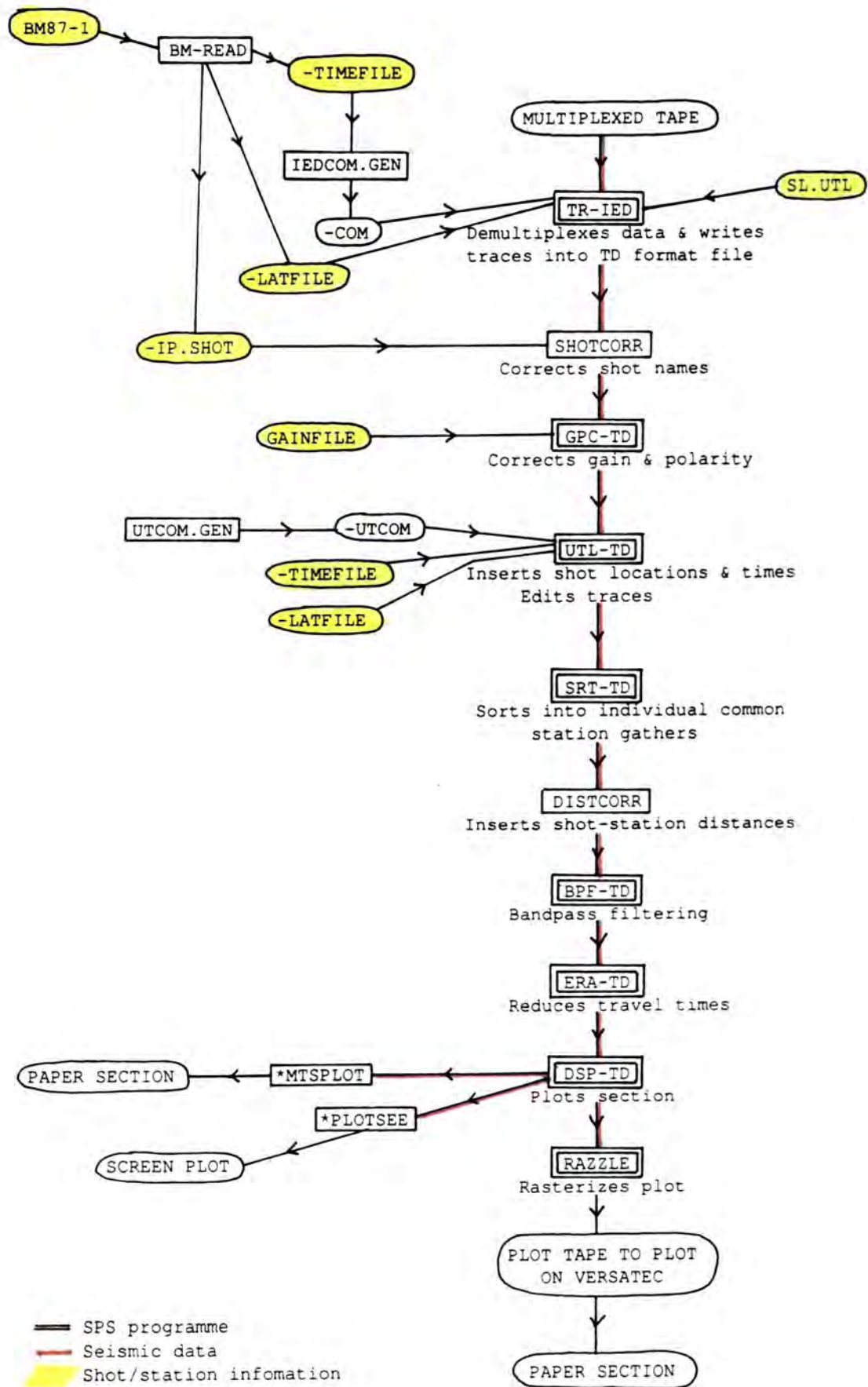


Fig. 3.4 Flow chart of processing procedure on main frame computer.

Up to 9999 traces may be stored in a TD file. The file structure is made up of a **FILE HEADER**, 4 lines of information describing the file contents, followed by the trace entries, which each consist of a **TRACE HEADER** (one line of information about the trace: shot and station location, shot time, gain setting and other relevant information) and the **TRACE BINARY DATA** stored as 2 byte binary integers. The file header, trace headers and each trace binary data line are read and written using specific routines from the SPS library.

The first step in the processing chain is therefore to convert the multiplexed digital data on tape to TD format. This requires the programme **TR-IED** (Tape Read- Interactive Edit & Demultiplex) which reads the appropriate file from tape, demultiplexes it and extracts the seismic data from requested shots and channels, writing them into a TD format datafile. The method used to run this for the **MOBIL** programme was to generate a command file, given the times of shots known to be included in the multiplexed file, which would then supply all the necessary information to the computer as the programme ran. This saved the need to type in by hand the time for every shot (about 120 per block). Eight traces were extracted per shot (one per recording channel), starting at the shot detonation time and lasting for 60 seconds. When all shots were extracted from the multiplexed file in this way, the programme would write the file header before closing the file.

The shot information required for the processing was obtained from a **BM87** matrix file for the profile being processed. These matrices were recorded on floppy discs on board **M/V Mobil Search** while the profiles were actually being shot. They contain all the information about the shot times, latitudes, longitudes and gyro details. Appendix B contains a listing of **BM87-1**. A routine, **BM-READ** was written to read these matrices and to generate the input files required by SPS routines, containing shot numbers, shot locations and shot times. Another routine, **IEDCOM.GEN**, uses the file of shot times to generate the command file to run **TR-IED**.

One of the problems caused by digitising en bloc was that the same shot name would be attributed to all the shots extracted from a multiplexed file. The next stage was therefore to correct these throughout the TD file, using the routine **SHOTCORR** and the file of shot names generated by **BM-READ**.

The gain setting of the amplifier modulator at each station was then required to be specified within the trace headers throughout the TD files. This was carried out by the programme GPC-TD (Gain & Polarity Correction) using a control file which contained details of the gain setting and polarity of each station.

Next, the individual shot times and locations need to be corrected, using the SPS Utility programme UTL-TD and the shot location and shot time files generated by BM-READ.

After this, the large data file would be sorted into separate files, each containing a common station gather, to enable easier handling. This was carried out using the programme SRT-TD. Before or after this process, the shot-station distance for each trace could be written into each trace header by the routine DISTCORR. The data had at this stage reached a usable form, ready to have any filtering carried out upon it, using BPF-TD (Band Pass Filtering routine), or any other enhancement techniques before plotting.

Minimal processing was carried out on the data, merely bandpassing between 3 and 30 Hz to eliminate low-frequency noise and reducing the travel times by 6.0 kms^{-1} for plotting in order to align horizontally the crustal arrivals of approximately 6 kms^{-1} apparent velocity. Time did not permit further experiments with processing.

The actual plotting of the data was carried out using the programme DSP-TD. This will be further described in section 3.4.

The most time-consuming and expensive operation in the sequence was the running of TR-IED, due to the length of time and large amount of virtual memory required to read in the large multiplexed files from tape. The rest of the execution of the programme was streamlined as far as possible by the use of the command file and by not viewing graphically the traces being edited.

UTL-TD and BPF-TD were the only other programmes in the chain which involved manipulation or editing of the trace binary data, hence these were also quite expensive routines to run. The whole sequence of processing, from TR-IED to 'wiggly line' plot, took about one day per two blocks of 120 traces each, subject to the availability of disc space.

3.3.2 Demultiplexing and editing Wark recordings

As described in section 3.2.2, the digitisation of the data recorded at the Wark base produced multiplexed files with the wrong time information due to the faulty VELA clock code on the Geostore. This meant that during the running of TR-IED the time information had to be inserted manually in order to write the traces into TD files.

This operation employed the program's **TIME** option, which displays requested channels of the data, enabling the user to pick and specify a start time, pick an end point and specify the duration of the picked interval. This time definition is extrapolated over 240 seconds. This was carried out using the MSF channel for specifying the time, since the code was good enough to decode by eye from the display screen. The most accurate method of carrying out the operation was to pick the start time by decoding MSF, move the display forward and decode again, in order to make the picked interval 240 seconds long.

This method was obviously slow, since every 4 minutes of a 40- minute datafile had to be calibrated in this way. It was possible to use a command file to run the programme again, but a pre-run of TR-IED was necessary in order to determine the time specifications to be inserted in the command file, and the picking was a manual operation, using the bit pad attached to the Tektronics 619 graphics screen. The demultiplexing and editing therefore took twice the amount of time required for the Hebron Hill recordings, even when practice had made the operation relatively streamlined. This also applied to the data recorded at Market Weighton, which was digitised and processed by S.A. Lewis and C.H. Bassom. Once this was carried out, the rest of the processing was identical to that applied to the Hebron Hill data.

3.4 Plotting

3.4.1 'Wiggly line' record sections

Initially the processed data was plotted as the 'wiggly line' record sections traditionally used for CSSP-type refraction/wide-angle reflection surveys, with one block of shots (120) per record. These sections were bandpass filtered between 3 and 30 Hz to remove low frequency seismic noise, then plotted directly with no enhancement techniques applied, since the quality of the data was best displayed this

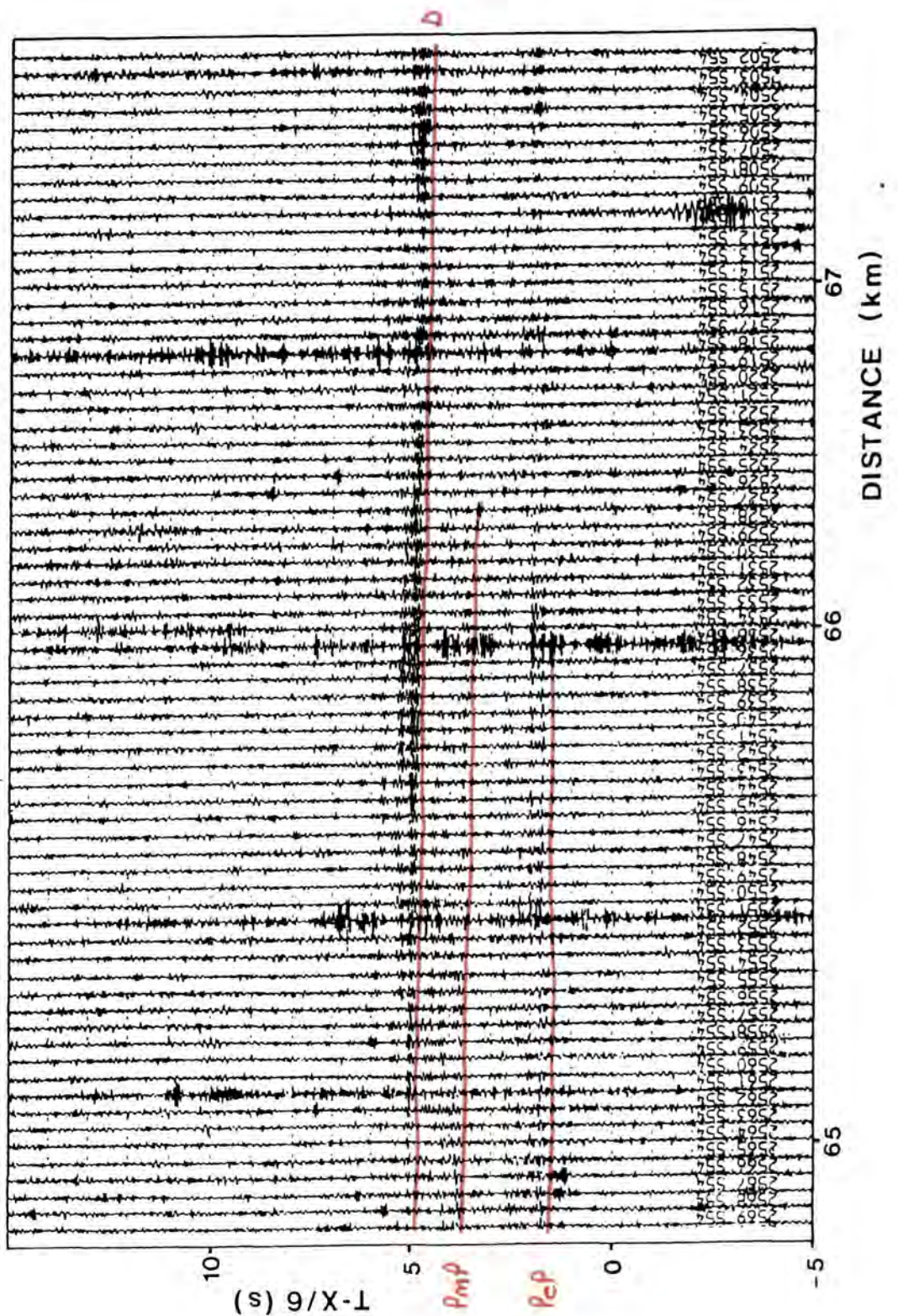


Fig. 3.5 Wiggly line MOBIL line 1 wide-angle record section from station 54; red lines = travel time picks for $T^2 - X^2$ fitting (see section 4.2).

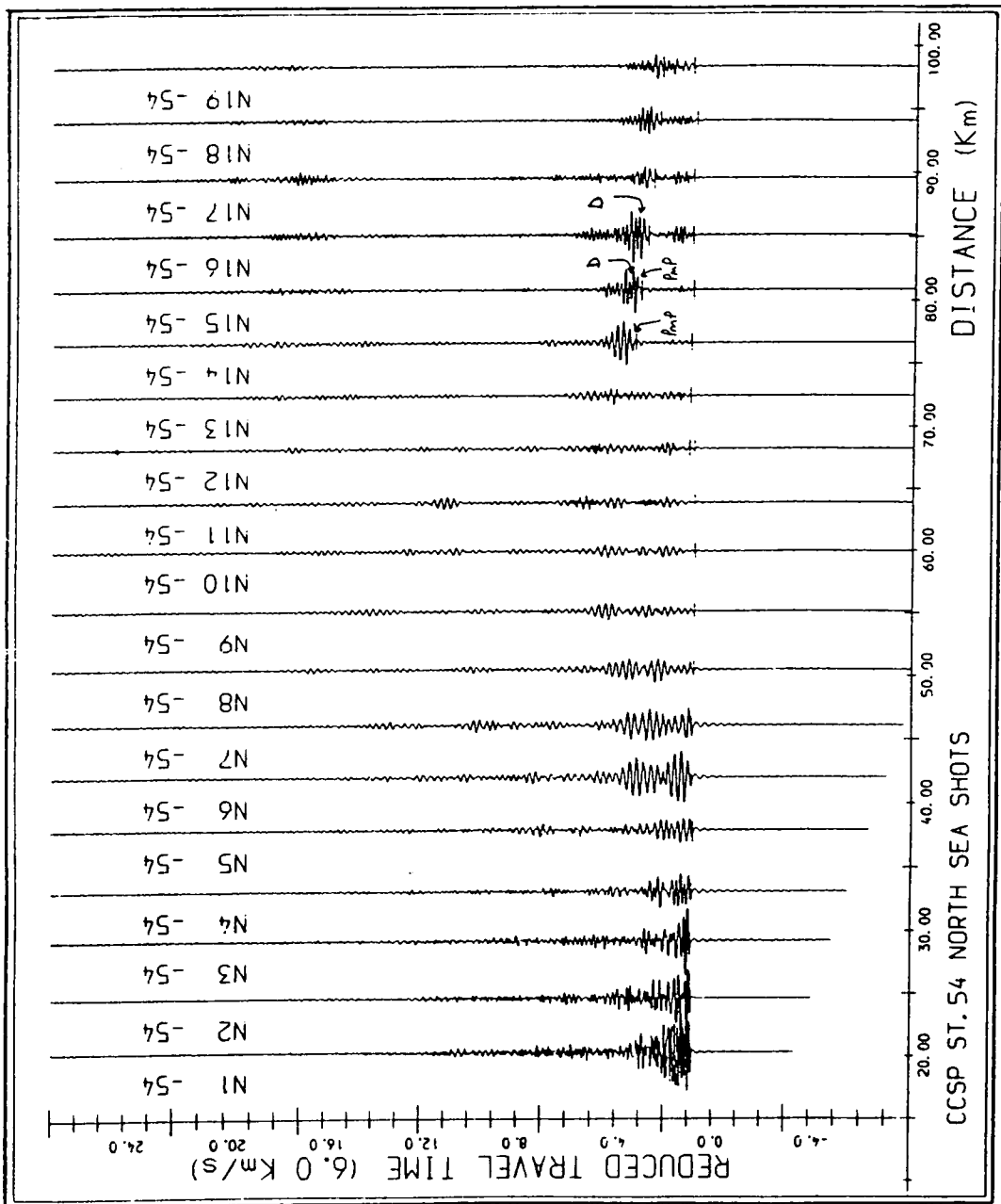


Fig. 3.6 CCSP record section from station 54 for North Sea explosive shots.

way. Such plots were obviously cumbersome, however, so that a method of producing more compressed area sections was necessary in order to be able to view the relationships of the arrivals better.

Fig. 3.5 shows a typical 'wiggly line' section, a common station section from station 54 for shots 2502 to 2569. The high quality of the data is well displayed on this type of section - the low noise level, the sharply defined arrivals (due to the relatively high frequency of the source), and the obvious repeatability of the source.

Fig. 3.6 is included for comparison and shows a common station record section for station 54 from the CSSP data, which used explosives as the marine source. Even allowing for the large separation of the shots in CSSP (4km), the difference in the signatures of the shots from trace to trace is quite large. These shots were detonated on the sea bed and would therefore be affected by the water depth at each location.

3.4.2 Variable area compressed record sections

Experimenting with gain scaling, including applying automatic gain control or normalising the traces, it turned out that the best sections were produced by merely plotting the bandpassed traces at real amplitudes in compressed variable area sections. Although amplitudes of the relative arrivals were better seen on the 'wiggly line' sections, more arrivals were revealed on the variable area plots and their complex relationships highlighted. The final sections of the common station sections, were plotted in this way, with a horizontal scale of approximately 1.5 km per inch, which corresponds to about 30 traces per inch. An example of a variable area plot can be seen in Fig. 3.7, which is a common station section from station 54, including shots 2479 to 2625. The only processing carried out on the section is bandpass filtering and clipping the true amplitudes (in order to prevent the high amplitudes swamping the section). The plot shows quite well the detail of the arrivals in all their complexity.

The dataset would be an ideal one on which to experiment with further plotting, processing and enhancement techniques but time did not permit such experiments in this study. Further methods which could profitably be tried are discussed in chapter 8.

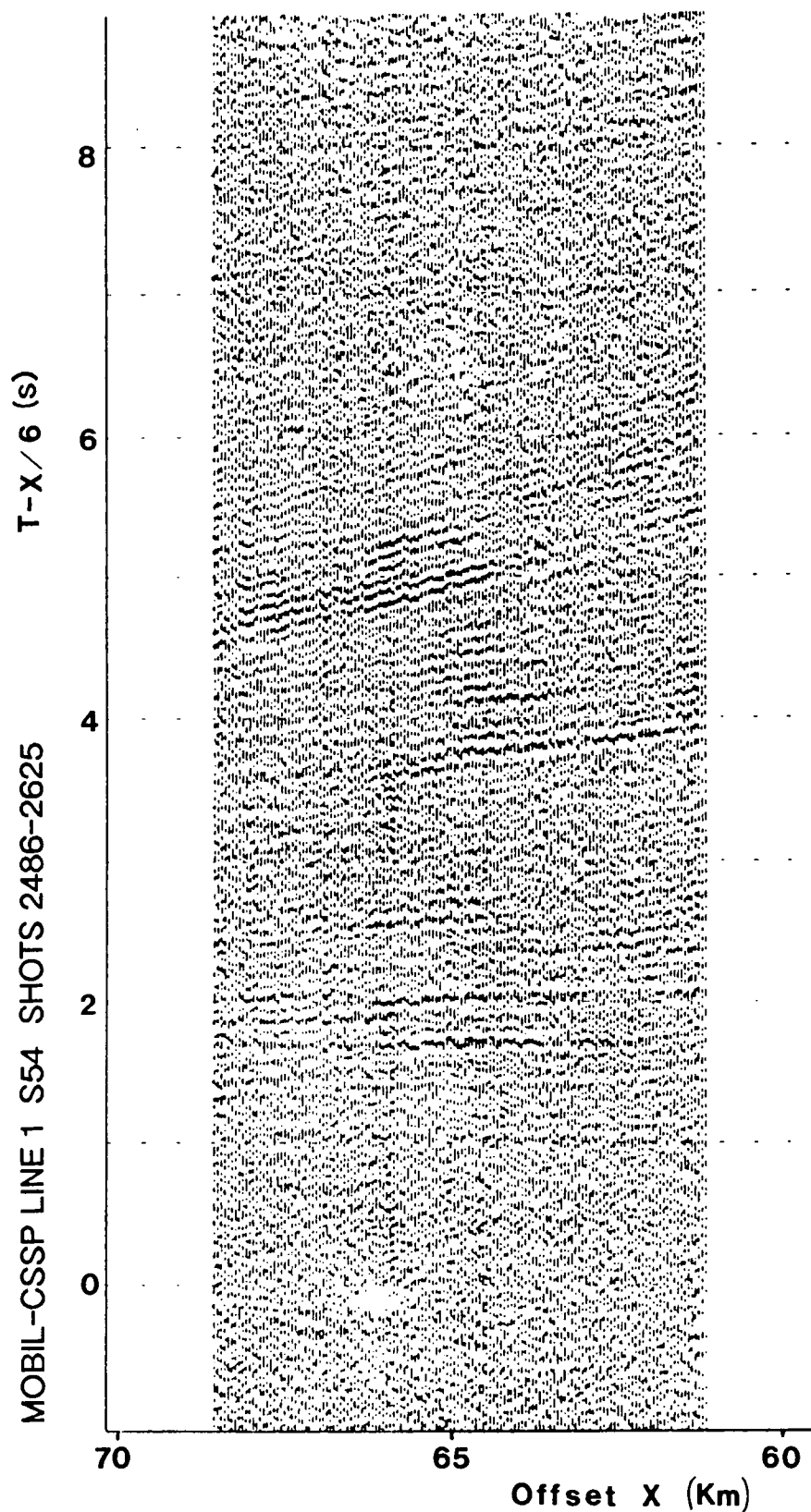


Fig. 3.7 Variable area compressed record section from station 54 MOBIL airgun data.

Both methods of plotting used the same SPS programme, DSP-TD, which allowed a large choice of plotting parameters, such as clipping or muting the traces, automatic selection of amplitude scaling factor and trace spacing, variable area or wiggly line traces, different types of amplitude scaling and different extrapolation methods for the data. For the compressed plots, the datafiles were merged together into larger gathers as far as possible without the files becoming too unwieldy, in order to reduce handling time. The whole of Line 1 was thus placed in 3 files per Morpeth station and 2 files per station for the stations recorded on the Wark Geostore.

Once a wiggly line section was plotted, a paper copy of the plot was obtained via *MTSPLOT, the University Calcomp plotter. Variable area plots however, took hours to plot in this way, so that it was far faster to convert the plotfiles to raster format, copy them to tape and then obtain paper copies from the Seismic Processing Laboratory VERSATEC plotter. This produces good quality plots very quickly and efficiently. The data sections in Appendix C were produced in this way.

The other data sections presented in this thesis are the transparencies (i) to (vi) which are included in Chapter 6, to facilitate comparison of the synthetic seismogram sections with real data. The transparency sections are plotted at 1 km spacing in order to plot the same size as the synthetics, compared to the 50 m spacing of the long data sections of Appendix C. Otherwise the plotting parameters are similar, with clipped true amplitudes and variable area display.

3.4.3 Final record sections

The total range of each of the Morpeth record sections is 152.5 km from shot -95 (one of the 95 test shots) at the eastern end of line 1, to 3037, the closest shot to the coast. The smallest offset in the wide-angle profile is 33.5 km, the distance from station 57 to shot 3037, the largest is 208.5 km between station 47 and shot -95.

The total range of the Wark records is only 78 km, approximately half that of the Morpeth records since the recordings were only digitised from shot 1492 to 3037, the closest half of line 1 to land. As previously mentioned, it was not thought worthwhile to process the more distant shots so the maximum offsets of these records are between 150 and 158 km. However, judging from the quality of these data

sections and the information visible in the last 50 km of the Morpeth sections, it may be useful to digitise a further 50 km or so of the shots recorded at Wark.

The time axis of the record sections runs from -1.0 to 9.0 s reduced travel time, where the reduction velocity is 6.0 km s^{-1} . As previously mentioned, this makes most of the arrivals from the crust correlate horizontally on the sections and therefore easier to detect.

The record sections themselves and their preliminary interpretation are described in Chapter 4. The further modelling of the data, using synthetic seismograms, is described in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION OF WIDE-ANGLE RECORDINGS

4.1 Introduction

Having plotted the common station seismic wide-angle records from line 1, as described in Chapter 3, the interpretation was carried out as simply as possible in order to obtain a basic model which could be applied to all stations. The huge amount of data and the detail of the record sections made selection of seismic phases difficult, especially correlating arrivals from one record section to another. Most attention throughout the whole of the interpretation process was given to the records from stations 54 and 47, which were the clearest of all the record sections. These were evidently located at very favourable sites as far as both bedrock-seismometer coupling and noise levels were concerned.

Picking the phases as well as modelling was an iterative process. Initially, the picks obtained from the wiggly line record sections were fitted to a $T^2 - X^2$ curve, in order to obtain a rough idea of the depth of and average velocity above the interfaces which gave rise to the wide-angle reflections. This process is described in section 4.2.

After the $T^2 - X^2$ fitting, the record sections were plotted as compressed, variable area plots (Appendix C) which showed up the relationships of the seismic phases to each other far better than the wiggly line records and gave a far better picture of the apparent velocities of the arrivals. The final travel time picks were made on these sections, as described in section 4.3, and subsequently used in synthetic seismogram modelling, for which the starting model was that obtained from the CSSP (Lewis, 1986).

4.2 $T^2 - X^2$ regression analysis

The initial record sections of the wide-angle data, as described in section 3.6.1, were wiggly line plots, as wide-angle/refraction data has traditionally been displayed. The apparent velocities of the

different phases and their relationships to each other, in the case of the MOBIL wide-angle dataset, are not easily seen on this type of section but the initial travel time picks were made from these sections for regression analysis and initial seismic modelling.

Only the records from stations 54 and 47 were used for $T^2 - X^2$ regression or linear regression (T-X fitting for refractions). The phases selected for this were **Pg**, the refracted arrival from crystalline basement, **PcP**, a mid-crustal wide-angle reflection, **PmP**, which at this stage of the interpretation was thought to be a lower crustal wide-angle reflection, and an arrival which has since been named **D**, initially thought from its high amplitude on the wiggly line sections to be the Moho wide-angle reflection.

Fig. 3.5 showed a wiggly line section of line 1 as recorded at station 54, with the phases selected. All of these arrivals were observed on the record sections of the CSSP, although not so well resolved in space and time - on CSSP records, arrival D was not resolved as a separate arrival to PmP.

4.2.1 The $T^2 - X^2$ method

The $T^2 - X^2$ method is used to obtain a very rough idea of the depth to a reflecting interface and the average seismic velocity above that interface. Assuming that the medium above a reflector is uniform, the travel time for reflected rays is described by the equation:

$$T^2 = X^2 / V^2 + 4D^2 / V^2$$

where T is the travel time, X is the distance between source and receiver, D is the depth to the reflector and V is the average P-wave velocity to the reflector. It therefore follows that a plot of T^2 against X^2 will be a straight line of gradient $1/V^2$ and y-axis intercept $4D^2/V^2$.

This is used in the programme TTREG (see Appendix D), which plots the T^2, X^2 graph for input travel time picks for the particular phase concerned and fits a straight line through these values, returning the slope and intercept of the graph and calculating from these the depth and average velocity above the reflector.

4.2.2 The regression results

The $T^2 - X^2$ plots (or, in the case of Pg, the straight travel time graph) for all the above mentioned phases as seen at station 54 are shown in Figs. 4.1(a) to 4.1(c), with the straight line fits. Those for station 47 are shown in Figs. 4.2(a) to 4.2(d). The travel time picks and therefore the straight line fits are not highly accurate, but since the method is a very simplistic one, the aim was solely to obtain a rough idea of the quantities involved.

The PcP fit (Fig. 4.1(a)) for station 54 gives an average depth of 21.25 +/- 0.89 km to a mid-crustal reflector and an average velocity of 6.51 +/- 0.10 kms⁻¹ for the upper crust, compared to 23.39 +/- 0.55 km and 6.29 +/- 0.04 kms⁻¹ respectively at station 47 (Fig. 4.2(a)). The disparity between the figures from the two stations is inevitable since no correction was made for near-surface delays and it is highly unlikely that the structure is laterally homogeneous (the assumption upon which the method is based). There are also several wide-angle reflections on the records from within the crust, so it is not easy to be sure that the phase picked as PcP on station 54 records is the same one picked at station 47. This will be discussed further in section 4.4.2.

The PmP fits (Figs. 4.1(b) and 4.2(b)) from the two stations yield depths of 33.43 km +/- 1.48 and 29.08 +/- 1.56 km for 54 and 47 respectively, and average velocities of 6.66 +/- 0.33 and 6.15 +/- 0.18 kms⁻¹. These values are also rather disparate, again probably due to the lack of correction for near-surface structure and the one dimensional assumption. However, they are of the same order of magnitude, which should mean that they may be explained as wide-angle reflections from a major crustal discontinuity.

The fits for D were rather poor (Figs 4.1(c) and 4.2(c)) and produced unrealistic answers for the depth and velocity, making it highly unlikely that the arrival was a wide-angle reflection. The figures obtained were depths of 71.22 +/- 1.03 and 61.19 +/- 1.21 km at 54 and 47 respectively and average velocities to the boundary of 10.28 +/- 0.64 and 8.34 +/- 0.27 kms⁻¹. The arrival therefore needed an alternative explanation.

The Pg travel times were plotted directly against distance to obtain a fit for a refracted headwave from station 47 arrivals only. The travel time plot and straight line fit are shown in Fig. 4.2(d) and yield a

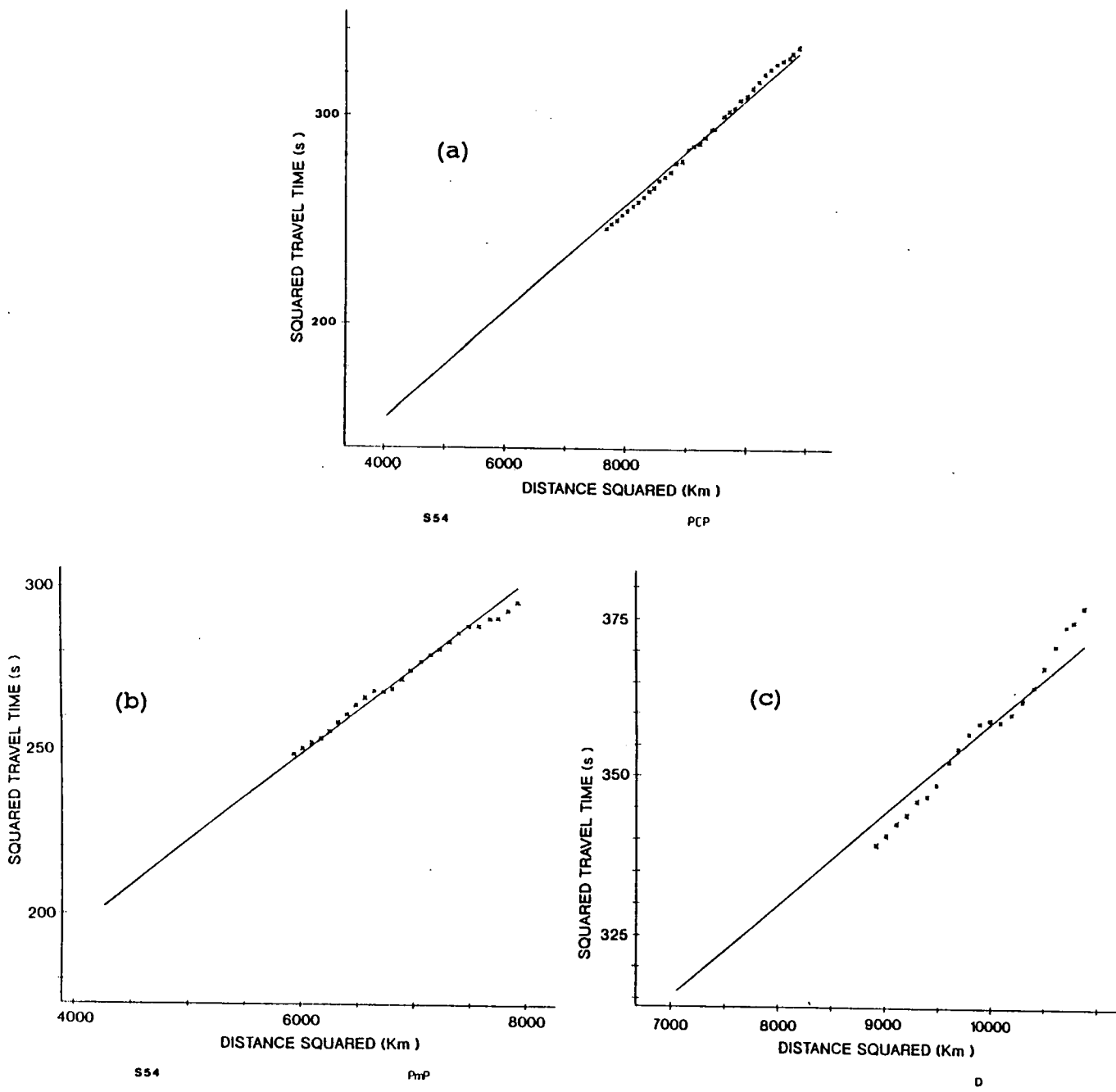


Fig. 4.1 $T^2 - X^2$ fits for station 54 picks: (a) PcP phase; (b) PmP phase; (c) D phase. Straight lines represent least squares fits.

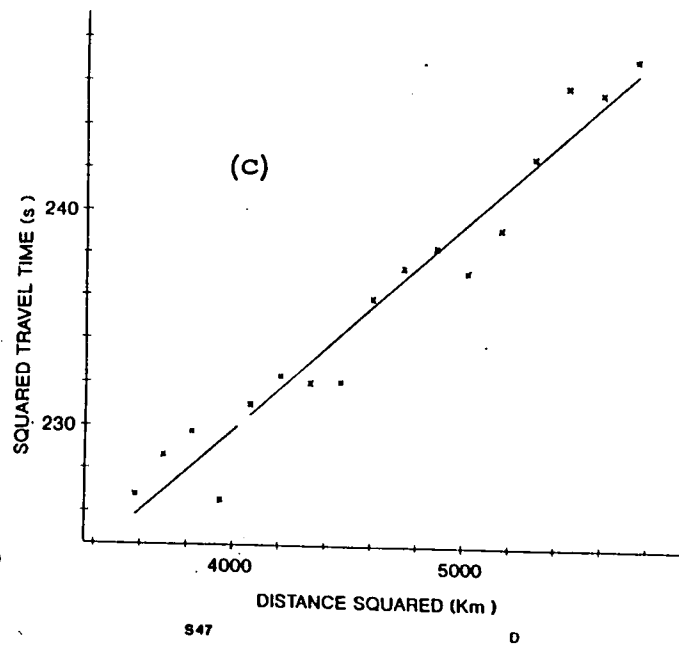
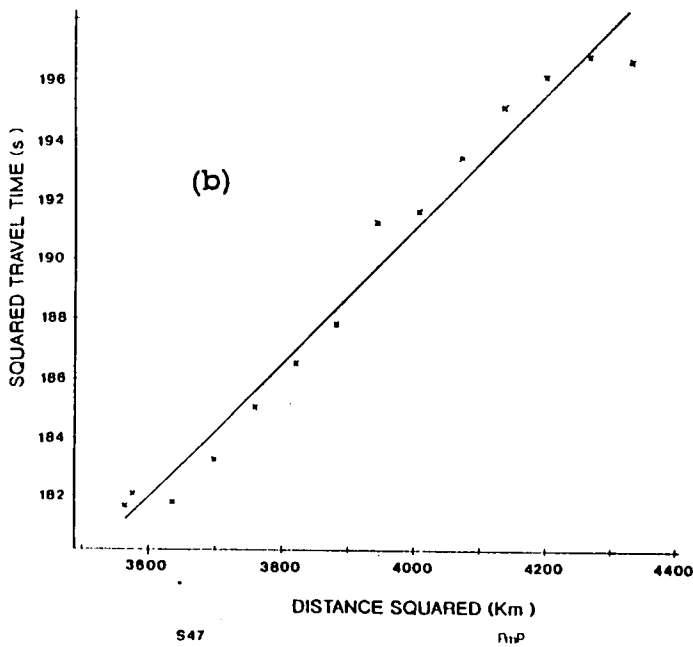
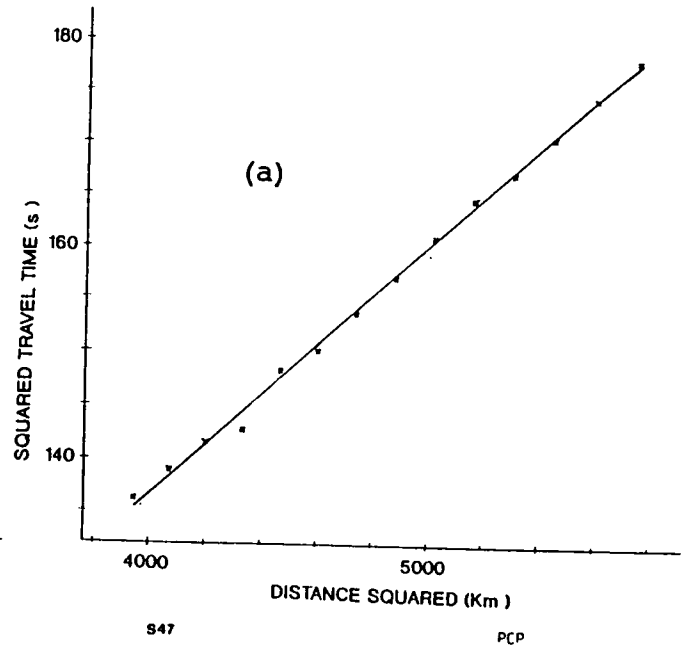
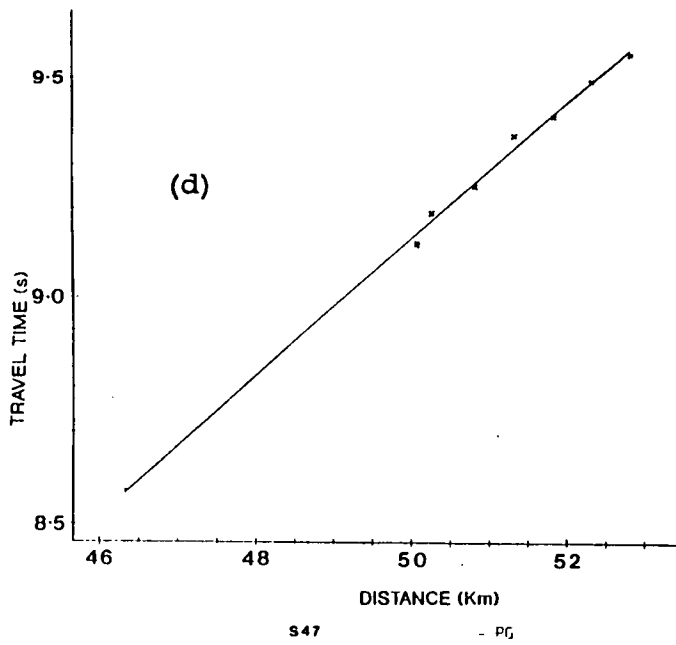


Fig. 4.2 $T^2 - X^2$ fits for station 47 picks: (a) PcP phase; (b) PmP phase; (c) D phase; (c) Pg phase. Straight lines represent least squares fits.

result of 4.44 +/- 1.03 km depth to the refracting boundary and 6.29 +/- 0.10 kms⁻¹ as the velocity of the refractor.

The outcome of this fitting was to obtain approximate ideas of the locations of the major discontinuities in order to commence the synthetic seismogram modelling. It has served this purpose, backing up the model of Lewis (1986) for the CSSP data as a starting model, with a refracting boundary at about 4 km, a mid-crustal discontinuity at about 20 km and the Moho at about 30 km depth. The arrival D is clearly not explained by a reflecting interface and is studied in detail in section 4.4.

4.3 Picking seismic phases

4.3.1 Description of the compressed record sections

The variable area common station record sections for all the vertical component MOBIL-CSSP recording stations are displayed in Appendix C. As stated in chapter 3, the line 1 record sections from the Morpeth area (stations 47, 54, 55 and 57) have a range of offsets of 152.5 km for all shots (-95 to -1, the test shots, then 101 to 3037), whereas the Wark data (stations 36, 37, 39 and 40) covers a range of 78 km, from shot 1492 to 3037.

The station 54 data extends from 40.5 km to 193.0 km, that of station 47 from 56.0 km to 208.5 km. The station closest to the coast, 57, starts from 33.5 km offset. This is the smallest offset in the whole wide-angle dataset, which means that refractions and wide-angle reflections are not seen from shallow interfaces. The Wark stations (stations 36, 37, 39 and 40) were further inland with an even greater minimum offset - station 40 starts at 72.0 km offset and station 36, the most distant, starts at 80.0 km offset. These distance ranges mean that most seismic information is received from the mid and lower crust and the Moho, which is the main area of interest in this study. The shallow structure, described in chapter 6, was obtained from the normal-incidence data, the CSSP data and other geological information on this area.

The most striking feature of the MOBIL sections is the amount of detail in both space and time. Many arrivals, which have not even been considered in this interpretation, are resolved, even those which only appear over short offsets. Fig. 4.3 shows a variable area compressed record section from station 54

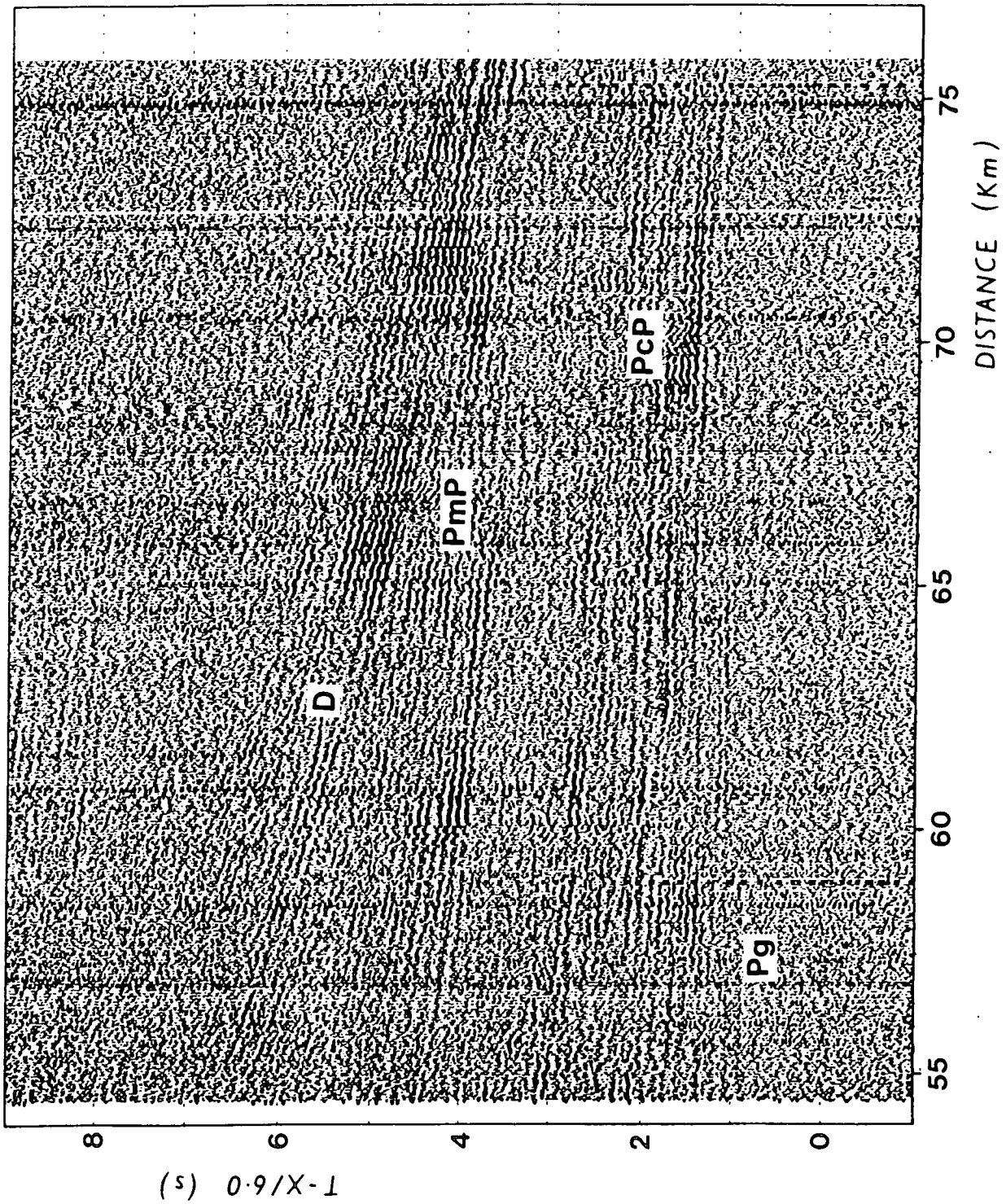


Fig. 4.3 Variable area compressed record section from station 54 with main phases of interest labelled. Shot range: 2338-2766 (see Fig. 2.2).

which illustrates the quality of the data and the many arrivals visible.

This detail means that the major arrivals are difficult to distinguish from secondary phases, multiples and diffractions. It can be seen from the section (Fig. 4.3) that there is frequently a packet of reflections rather than a single distinct arrival. Since these appear after some of the strongest arrivals with the same delay after each one, it seems likely that they are multiple reflections from the near-surface. These are discussed further in section 4.4.2 .

The amplitude of arrivals varies rapidly along the record sections, which, combined with interference between arrivals, complicates the correlation of the main phases further. Phases such as PmP, which have been assumed to be continuous, now appear to be very discontinuous when seen at greater resolution, consisting of separate segments along their length. At the points where phases merge (for example, at about 70 km offset, 1 s travel time on Fig. 4.3) it is particularly difficult identify separate phases.

4.3.2 Travel-time picking from the sections

In the face of the complexity of the record sections described above, selection of individual phases for modelling was extremely difficult at times, especially when attempting to correlate between stations. Selection of phases was carried out several times to provide a consistent set of picks for all stations.

The phases identified and picked from the record sections are Pg, PcP, PmP, Pn and D, which are described in the next section. The first picks were obtained only from the records of station 54 and 47 for preliminary modelling, but the latest set of picks were made from all stations, with close reference between the individual records. Since the shots are every 50 m on the line 1 records, picking each trace, as has been traditional in wide-angle work, was not possible. Therefore the method used was a similar approach to that used in near-vertical reflection interpretation, laying sheets of tracing paper over the record sections and drawing along the onset of the main phases with a coloured pencil, a different colour for each phase.

These tracings are also included in Appendix C, overlaying the record sections. Tracing the onset

of the phases (phase correlation) was a long process due to the complexity mentioned in section 4.3.1 caused by interference, reverberations and multiples besides lateral amplitude variations. A great deal of cross reference between stations was made to observe the trends of particular phases. Amplitudes were not measured for study since it was not possible to measure them from the clipped variable area sections and the modelling of amplitudes (as described in Chapter 6) was more qualitative than quantitative.

After this exercise, the travel time picks were transferred to the mainframe computer for modelling using the PERQ digitising table in Durham's Computer Centre to digitise the tracings of the phases. A digitising interval of about 0.5 km was used. The values obtained by this digitisation are converted very simply to the travel-times and distances in the appropriate format for use with BEAM87 or SEIS83 and stored in this format.

4.3.3 Accuracy

The sources of uncertainty involved in the interpretation of a seismic dataset such as this include:

a) Instrument properties, illustrated very well by the ship's clock, which jumped by 0.961 s, as described in section 2.4. However, apart from these jumps, the determination of time is accurate to about 10 ms.

b) Lack of correction of the shot locations for navigational drift, which caused small distance errors on the record sections, as mentioned in section 2.4. The maximum error was of the order of 500 m, producing a travel time error of approximately 0.08 s.

c) The loss of some of the high-frequency contribution of the data due to the frequency response of the recording and playback equipment. This decreases the resolution of each arrival and therefore affects the travel time picking (see section 3.2.3).

d) Errors involved in picking and digitising travel times from the sections, since this is a manual process. If the phases may be picked to the nearest millimetre on the paper records, this corresponds to a timing accuracy of about +/- 0.05 s.

The above inaccuracies are all areas which may be improved in the future, as instruments become

more sophisticated and the resolution of data increases. However, seismic sounding is inevitably an approximate surveying tool and resolution is restricted to the seismic wavelength (which at Moho depths for this type of source is of the order of 0.5 km). Synthetic seismogram modelling is also a somewhat approximate method, especially in terms of modelling amplitudes. Most emphasis is given to the fitting of travel times, which is, in effect, modelling two variables (seismic velocity and depth) on the basis of one known parameter (Matthews, 1989). Interpretations such as this must bear this restriction of accuracy in mind when generating an earth model.

4.4 The main seismic phases

A rough sketch of the main wide-angle arrivals at stations 54 and 47 can be seen in Figs. 4.4 and 4.5. Not all the arrivals illustrated on these sketches have been picked for all the stations, only those described below.

4.4.1 Pg

Pg behaves for the first 12 km as it was seen on the CSSP records, that is, as a strong arrival which appears to terminate at a specific shot point, suggesting (Green, 1984) that a feature of the near-surface geology has cut it out. Lewis (1986) modelled this termination as a lateral change in the basement velocity from 6.15 to 5.8 kms^{-1} .

However, from close scrutiny of the station 54 records, it seems that the phase does continue eastward with greatly reduced amplitude, and merges into other arrivals which appear to be wide-angle reflections. At the junction with the reflected phase, the amplitude becomes very bright but gradually decreases again with increasing offset. This happens repeatedly along the record section, producing alternately bright and dim sections along Pg.

Pg may therefore be interpreted as a diving ray from the upper crust and the arrivals which merge into it as wide-angle reflections and multiple reflections generated by the shallow structure beneath the shots. In fact this is supported by observations from other stations, the merging arrivals corresponding to

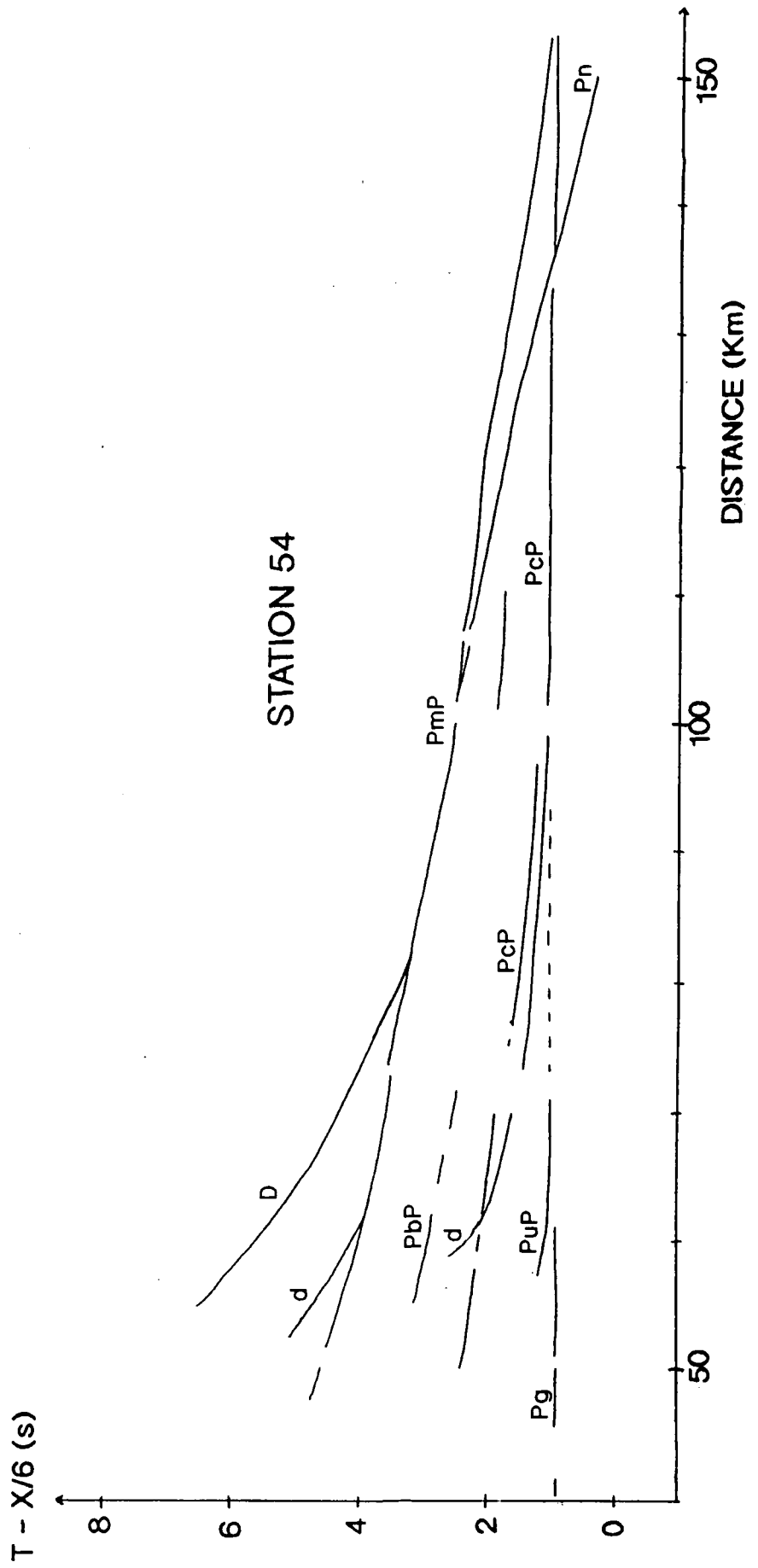


Fig. 4.4 Sketch of main arrivals from station 54 wide-angle line 1 data

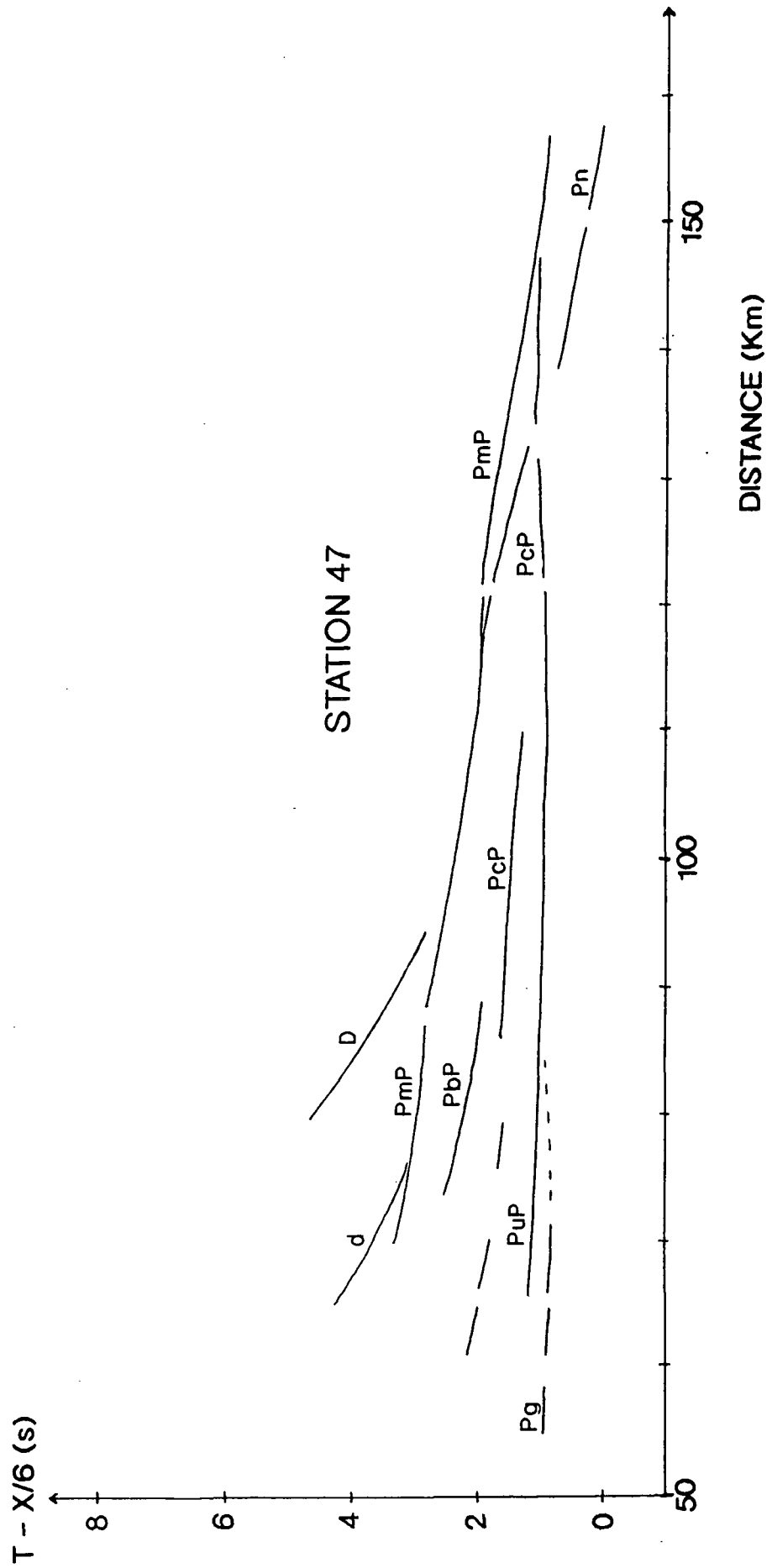


Fig. 4.5 Sketch of main arrivals from station 47 wide-angle line 1 data

the same shots as at station 54 rather than to the same offsets. The effect is visible but not so clear on the Wark records.

Alternatively, the converging arrivals could be explained by the suggestion of Mereu et al.(1990), who have observed similar arrivals on high-resolution wide-angle data from the GLIMPCE project, calling the effect "shingling". They suggest that it is an effect caused by wide-angle reflections from numerous interfaces within the crust, which do not necessarily need to have a high density contrast. When the angle of incidence exceeds the critical angle for a boundary, most of the seismic energy is reflected as P-waves, and the effect of many such interfaces throughout the crust, which may be long or short length reflectors, is illustrated in Fig. 4.6. Successive branches, each with a higher apparent velocity than the previous one, converge to make up what has the appearance of a crustal diving ray. This idea has not been tested on the MOBIL wide-angle records.

However, as already noted, the "merging points" on the MOBIL records seem to correspond to particular shot points (and therefore probably to near-surface features) rather than to specific offsets, whereas Mereu et al.'s explanation would be expected to be more offset-dependent than shot dependent, as is the case here.

The lateral change in strength of Pg after the first 12 km of record section also corresponds to a decrease in apparent velocity. This effect cannot be generated by a horizontal low velocity zone in the basement since the change appears over a particular shotpoint, not at a specific offset. It would therefore seem that a lateral change in velocity such as that suggested by Lewis has caused the change in appearance of Pg. The synthetic seismogram modelling of this effect is described in section 6.4.2.

4.4.2 PcP

From the record sections, there appear to be several wide-angle reflections from the mid-crustal region seen at all stations. For the majority of stations, three main reflections have been picked and modelled, although it is not absolutely certain whether these correspond to the same reflectors due to the complexity of the record sections.

As mentioned in section 4.3.1, a packet of arrivals is usually seen rather than a single event.

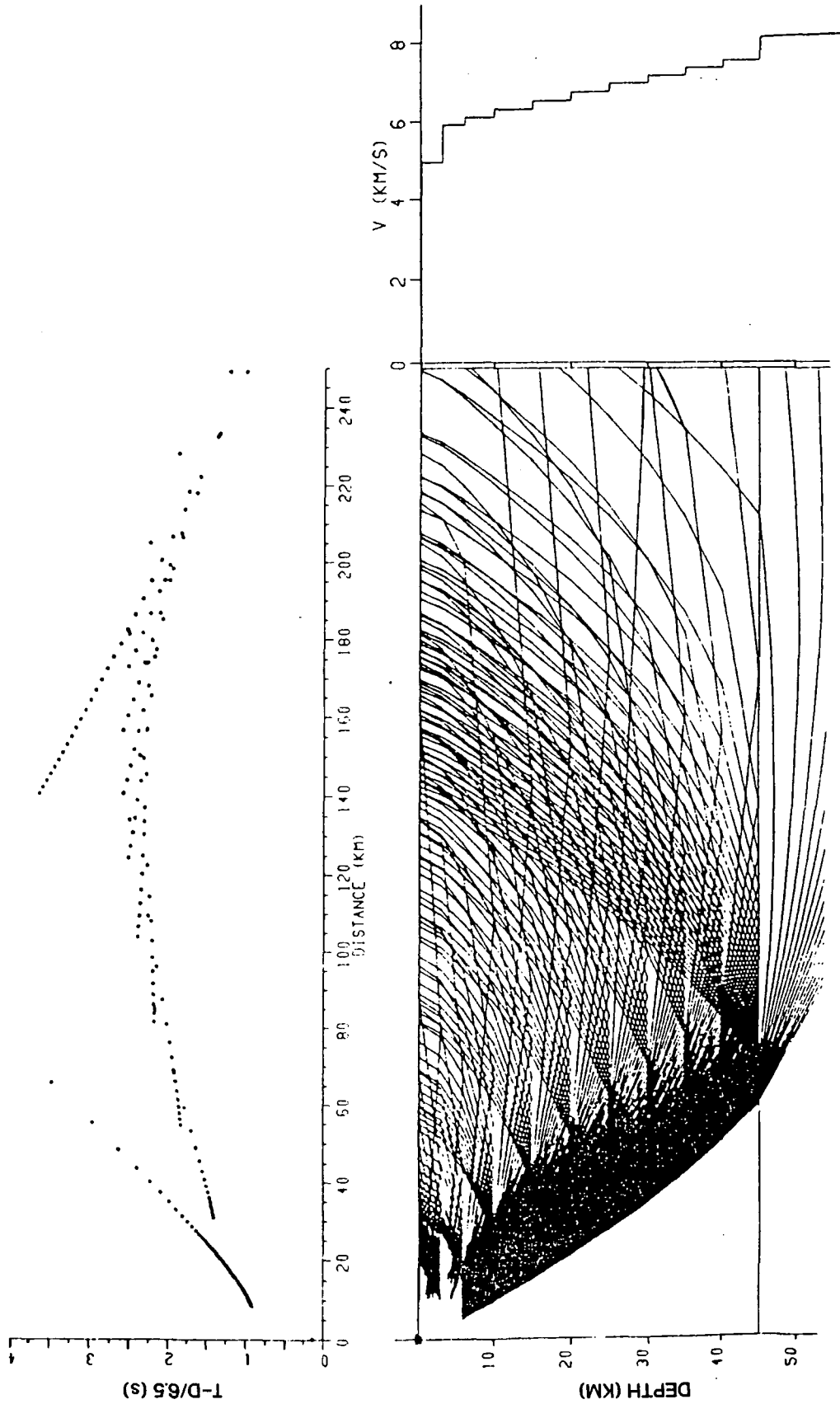


Fig. 4.6 Ray-tracing diagram illustrating wide-angle "shingling" effect observed on GLIMPCE data, from Mereu et al. (1990)

Fig. 6. Ray-tracing diagram showing how wide-angle reflection shingling effects can arise in a simple multi-layered earth model. Only super-critical reflected ray paths are shown.

There is one phase in particular which follows PcP, PmP and D arrivals by about 0.5 s and is often particularly bright over certain shot points. This is particularly clear on station 54, for example at 65 km and 71 km offset, but is seen to a lesser extent on all the other sections, and therefore seems likely to be a peg-leg multiple from within the near-surface geology beneath the shots. Placing the record sections in Appendix C against each other so the the same shotpoints, not the same offsets, are adjacent reveals that the strongest multiples are present at the same region of shots at the different stations.

Matthews (1990) has successfully modelled similar, even stronger phases from the Market Weighton MOBIL line 5 wide-angle records as peg-leg multiples in the surface geology. Modelling these multiples would enable further constraint of the near-surface structure and therefore of the whole modelling process. The near-surface Zechstein geology beneath line 1 is known to produce strong multiples at normal-incidence and is therefore the likely cause of multiple arrivals at wide-angle.

Lying record sections side by side with shotpoints adjacent also reveals that the ringing observed on some arrivals is also a shot-dependent effect, caused by reverberation in the sea layer at these shotpoints. This is to be expected at some point on a marine survey. The water depth over most of the profile is of the order of 100 m, which would be expected to generate reverberations at a delay of 0.13 s. The ringing observed in the train of PcP, PmP and D seems to have a delay of this order.

The earliest primary wide-angle reflection (PuP) seems to come from fairly shallow depths and merges into Pg at about 75 km offset at station 54 and a fairly late phase which is particularly bright at station 54 (PbP). These and the reflection which should correspond to that picked as PcP from the wiggly line records have been picked from all station records. They are labelled in Fig. 4.3. The synthetic seismogram modelling of these phases is described in section 6.4.3.

4.4.3 PmP

PmP is a dominant arrival on all record sections although on the Morpeth records it is obscured in places at pre-critical offsets by the very bright arrival D which was initially confused with it. PmP has been traced without difficulty to offsets of about 110 km and then it seems from station 54 records to form a triplication with PcP and Pn which extends out to offsets of approximately 160 km. At station 57

it is difficult to observe a pre-critical Moho reflection due to the interference of the arrival D, but the triplication may be observed. The associated multiples described in section 4.4.2, presumably caused by the near-surface structure beneath the shots, are particularly strong in association with PmP and confuse the picking operation considerably especially at large offsets.

4.4.4 Pn

Another important feature of the record sections is Pn, the refracted headwave from the upper mantle. This was detected for the first time when the first variable area compressed section for the whole of line 1 was produced for station 54. It was not convincingly observed on the CSSP record sections but is very clearly seen, even as a second arrival, on the variable area compressed record sections of the MOBIL stations (see Appendix C), with an apparent velocity of 8.14 kms^{-1} . It was not fitted by travel time regression since it is not visible on the wiggly-line sections, but it provides a valuable restraint in modelling the Moho and especially the thickness of the crust.

On the station 54 section, Pn can be seen best where it emerges as a first arrival from beneath the triplication at 133 km offset. Its amplitude varies considerably, almost disappearing in places and then reappearing again at greater offset. The point of emergence varies slightly from station to station, but is usually between 133 and 135 km offset, indicating a constant crustal thickness along the profile.

4.4.5 D

The most interesting phase observed in this study is arrival D, which was first mistaken for PmP due to its high amplitude near what was expected to be the critical distance (about 80 km offset) and the fact that it merges into PmP. However, from the results of the $T^2 - X^2$ modelling and some ray tracing, it is obvious that it is not a wide-angle reflection.

On the variable area record section of Fig. 4.3 from station 54, for shots 2338-2766, arrival D is the most dominant phase of all in terms of amplitude. Fig. 4.7 shows a record section from station 47 with the same phase at offsets between 80 km and 100 km offset. D can be observed on all the Morpeth record sections at different offsets, in fact at station 57, as already mentioned, it masks the pre-critical

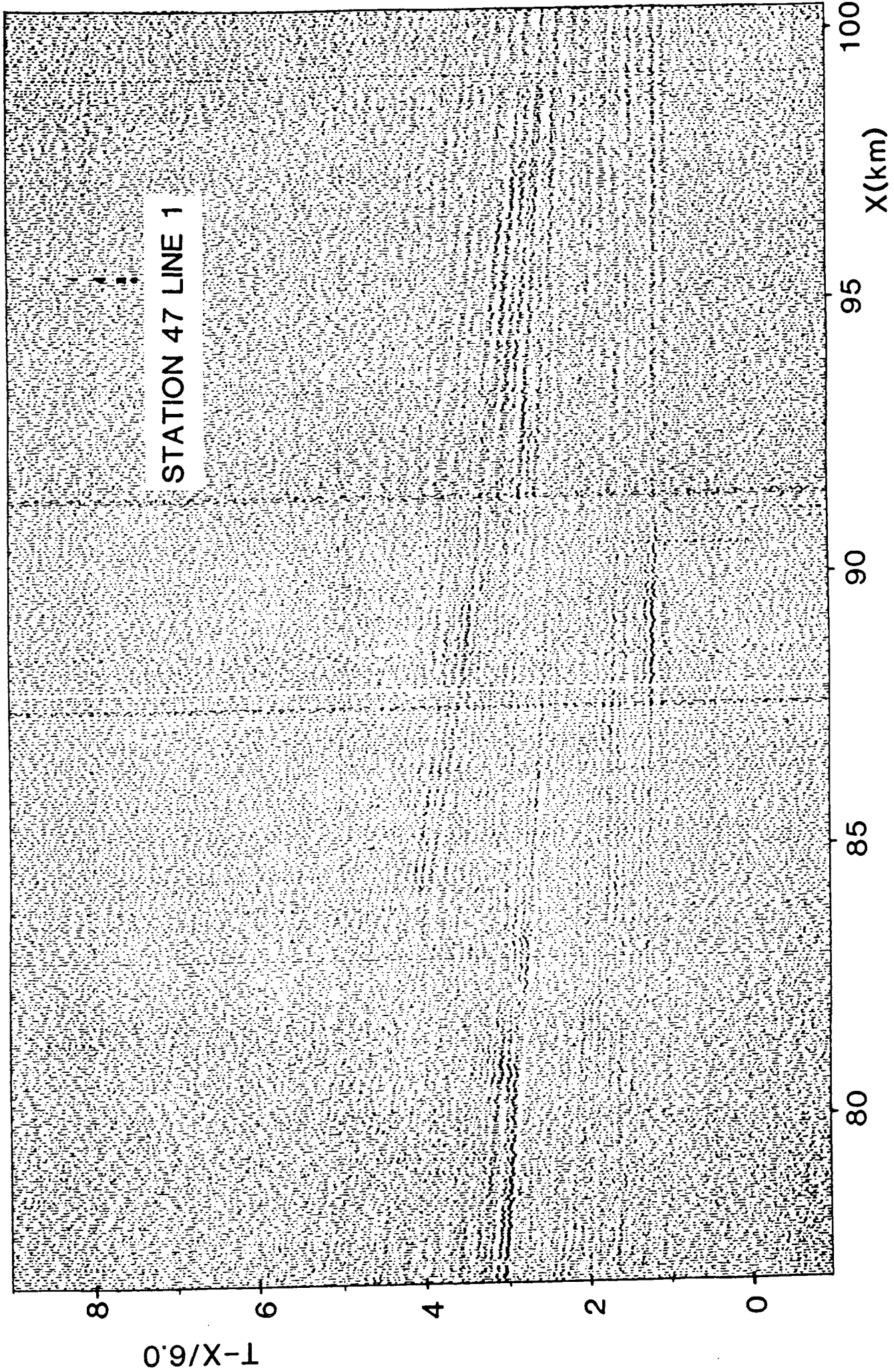


Fig. 4.7. Variable area compressed record section from station 47

PmP. It is not seen so well on the Wark sections although it is visible on station 40 records between approximately 105 km and 115 km offset. With hindsight, it is possible to observe this arrival in the original CSSP records from these stations (Fig. 3.6), but caught up in the wavetrain of PmP and therefore difficult to pick.

On all the sections where it is observed, the distinguishing characteristics of D are its high amplitude, very high apparent velocity and the fact that it merges into the Moho wide-angle reflection. The high apparent velocity is particularly interesting, tending to infinity over a particular shotpoint rather than at a specific offset.

Plotting the travel times of D as observed at stations 47, 54 and 57, unreduced, yields Fig. 4.8, which shows the characteristic shape of a diffraction with a minimum for each curve at the distance which corresponds to shotpoint 2768 (see Fig.2.2 for the location). In normal incidence reflection seismology, such an arrival, viewed in an unreduced record section, would automatically be recognised as a diffraction event, which in this case seems to be derived from Moho depths. This was not immediately the case in this interpretation due to the different appearance of a reduced record section to begin with, and also the fact that diffractions have never before been recognised as such on wide-angle records.

Fig. 4.9(a) shows the ray paths for wide-angle reflections from an interface at 30 km depth (that is, the Moho) and diffractions from a point on that interface. Calculating the travel times for both types of ray, with a uniform velocity of 6.2 kms^{-1} , produces an unreduced travel time section (b), which converts to a reduced travel time section (c)...which closely resembles the appearance of arrival D. Using a routine **DIFFR**, written to calculate the travel time curve for a diffraction event, the travel time curve was computed for three different stations and plotted with the observed travel times for D at those stations. This produces the fit shown in Fig. 4.10 for stations 57, 54 and 47, where the dots represent observed travel times and the lines are the calculated times. The fit is very good and provides a convincing argument for the explanation of D as a type of diffraction event.

Once D had been distinguished from wide-angle reflections as a 'diffraction-type' phase, other similar phases of smaller amplitude became apparent all over the records, obviously from similar

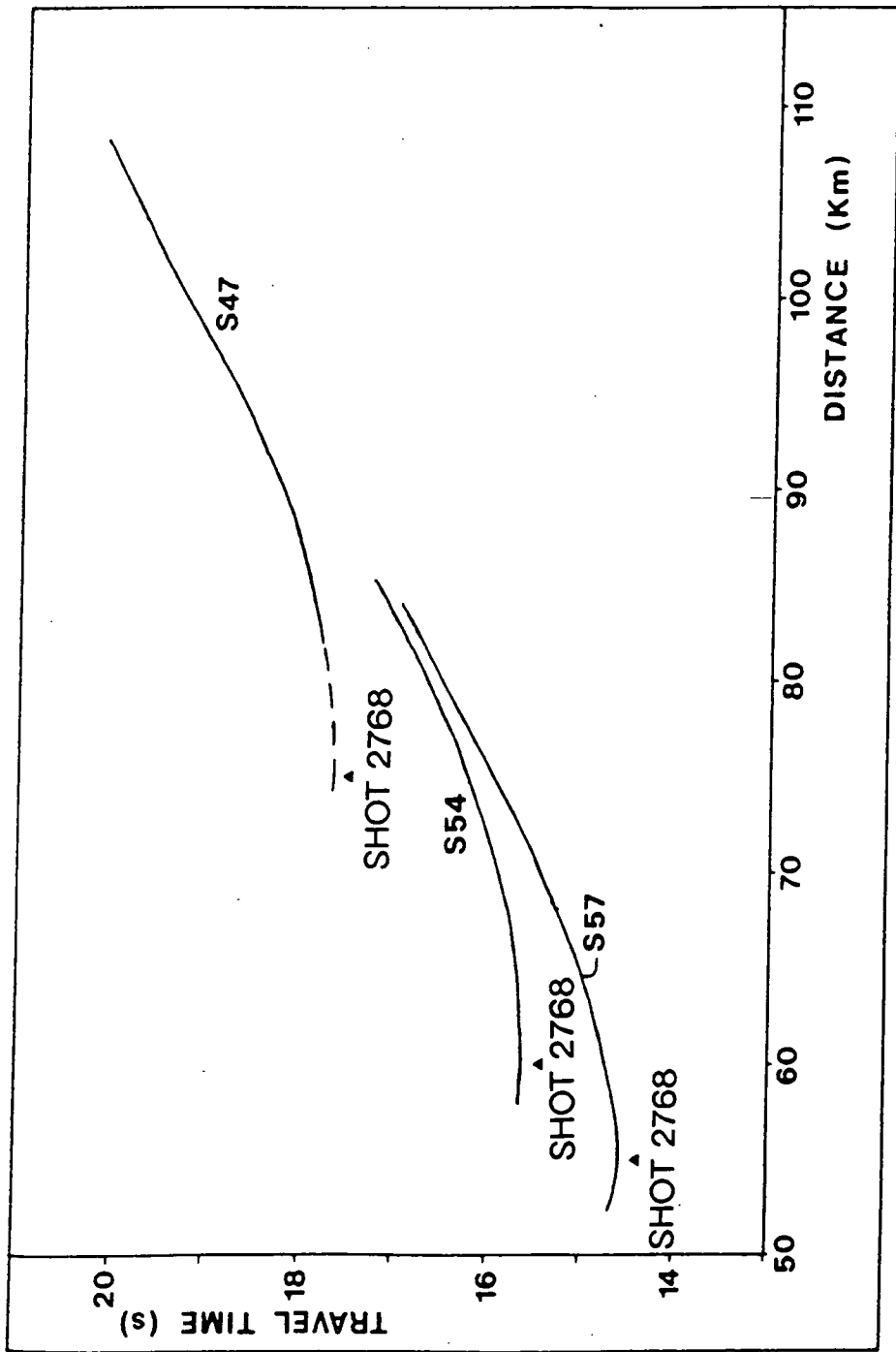


Fig. 4.8 Unreduced travel times of arrival D as observed at stations 54, 47 and 57. The arrows indicate the location of shotpoint 2768.

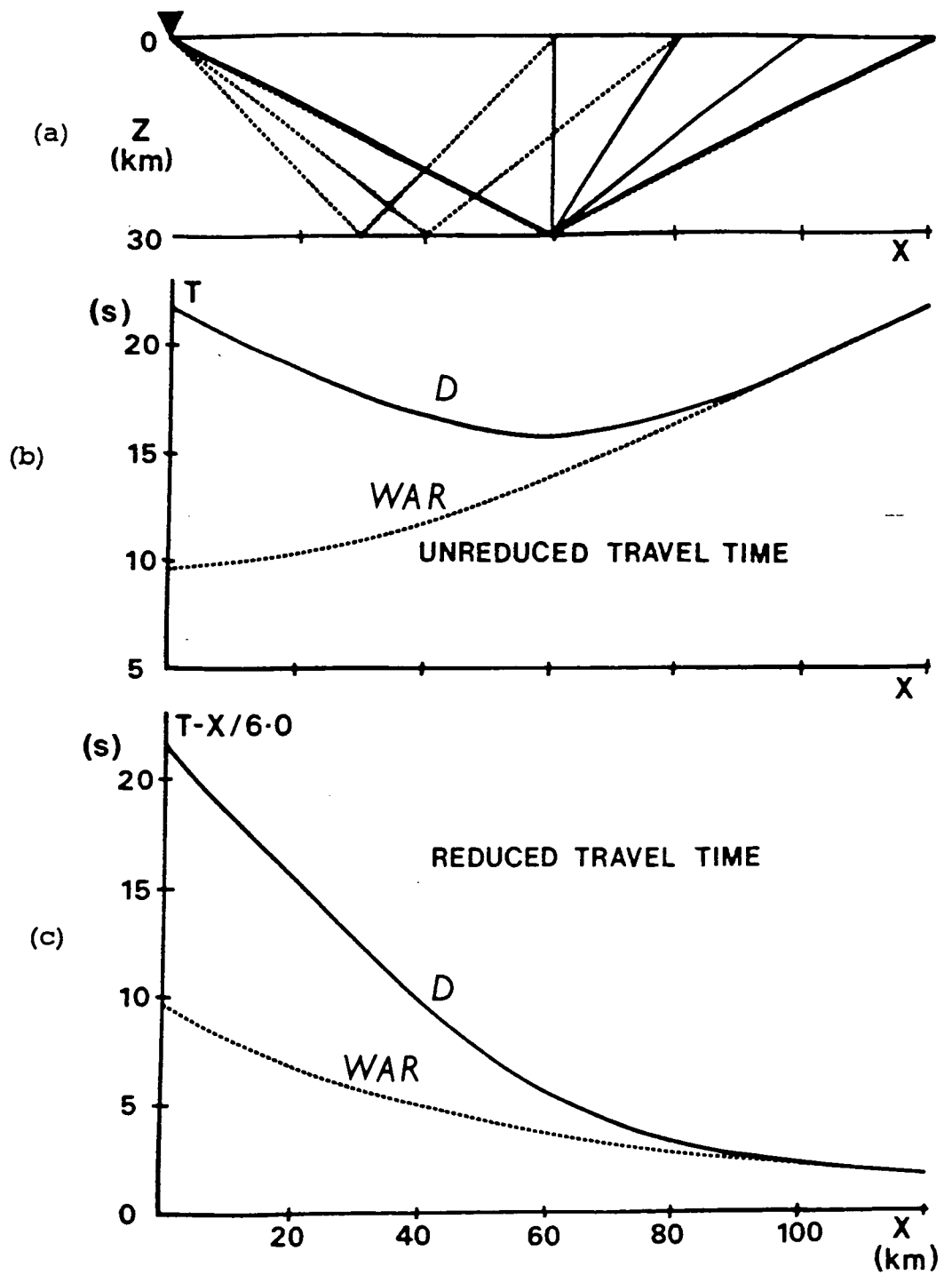


Fig. 4.9 Travel time behaviour of a diffraction in a homogeneous layer.
 D: diffraction travel time; WAR: wide-angle reflection travel time.

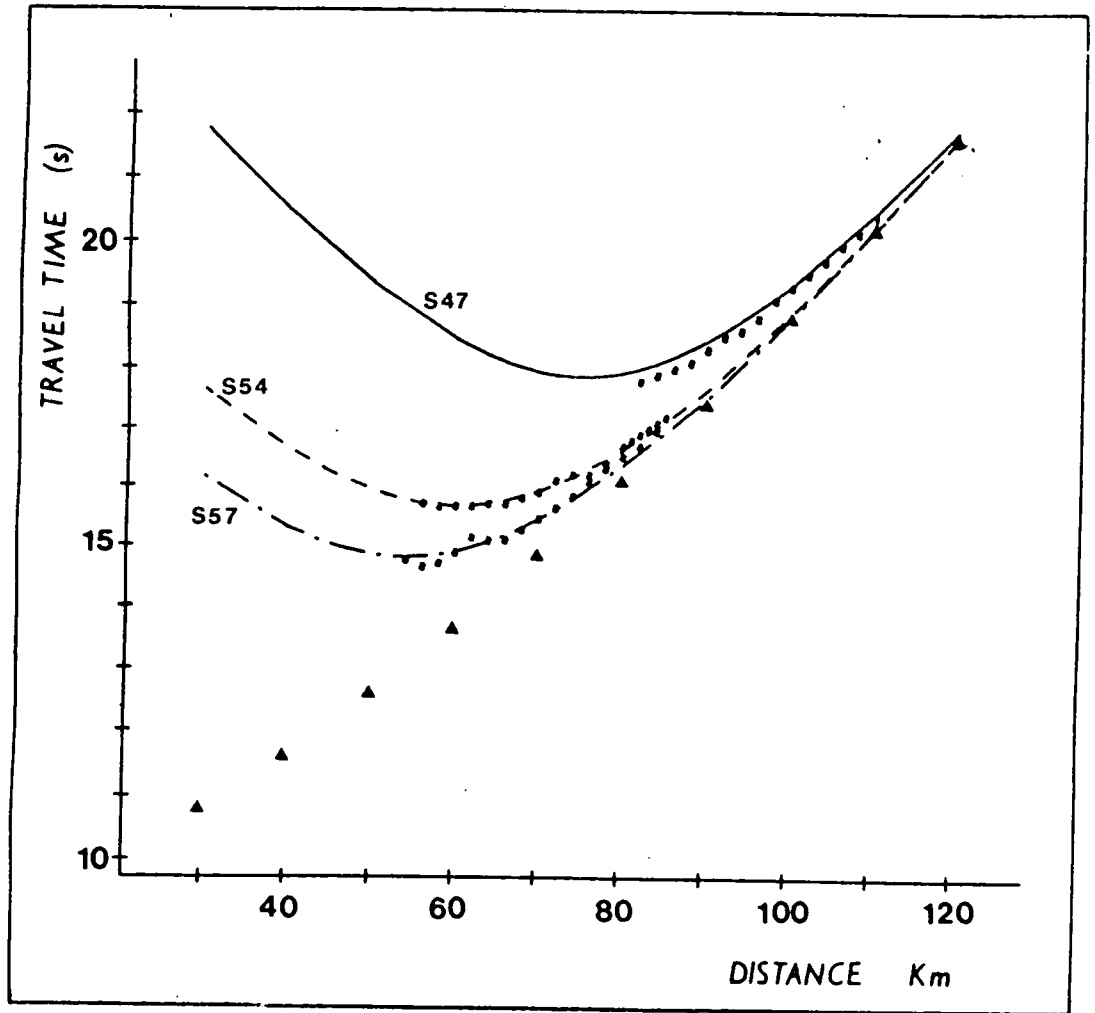


Fig. 4.10 Comparison of observed travel times for D with those calculated for a diffraction from a point at 30 km depth within a homogeneous layer. Triangles: the computed travel times for a wide-angle reflection from 30 km depth; dots: observed travel times; lines: calculated travel times for the diffraction.

structural features. Some of these also merge into PmP, some into PcP or other wide-angle reflections so it seems that this type of arrival may come from any depth in the crust and is only resolved by wide-angle reflection seismic experiments of this kind of resolution. Some of these arrivals are labelled *d* in the two sketches of Figs. 4.4 and 4.5.

However, the high amplitude of phase D has yet to be explained satisfactorily. The maximum amplitude of D is observed, as it would be expected for a diffraction, where it merges with and becomes PmP, the Moho wide-angle reflection. This may be seen in Berryhill (1977), although his discussion was based upon the near-vertical incidence case and implications for stacking. The maximum amplitude of a diffraction when observed at near-normal incidence is half the amplitude of the vertically reflected phase. Little is published about the behaviour of diffractions at wide-angle due the scarcity of their occurrence, but a pure diffraction could hardly be expected to show amplitudes on the scale seen here. Other diffraction-type arrivals are seen on the record section, as mentioned in section 4.3.2, but none of such high amplitude.

It would therefore seem to be necessary to model the phase D in terms of rays which would follow the paths of diffraction-type events as reflections from curved or dipping structures which have concentrated the seismic energy in some way. This modelling is described in the chapter 6. First, however, the following chapter describes the synthetic seismogram packages used to carry out the modelling of the features described in this chapter.

CHAPTER 5 : SYNTHETIC SEISMOGRAM PACKAGES

5.1 Introduction

After study of the wide-angle reflection seismic sections, identification and picking of the main crustal phases, described in the previous chapter, the largest part of the interpretation of the dataset consisted of the forward modelling of the selected phases, using synthetic seismogram packages.

There are two main types of synthetic seismogram package available at Durham: the Reflectivity Method of Fuchs and Mueller (1971) and various packages which use Asymptotic Ray Theory (ART) or a modification of it. The Reflectivity Method package, SYNSEI, is the only exact method and is the most accurate. It is restricted to modelling horizontally uniform (one-dimensional) structures and cannot therefore be used where strong lateral variations in velocity are expected. The most flexible package, until the arrival of BEAM87, was SEIS83, which uses ART to carry out ray tracing and compute synthetic seismograms in laterally varying (two-dimensional) media. BEAM87, which supersedes SEIS83, uses the Gaussian Beam approximation which makes the method more stable in regions where the ray method (ART) is unreliable. These three packages have all been tried for the Mobil dataset and are therefore described in the following sections.

There are several other packages at Durham which use modifications of ART. These include: AIMS, ANRAY, RAYAMP and RAYSYN, although ANRAY and RAYAMP are not yet fully implemented. None of these methods were actually applied to the modelling of the MOBIL wide-angle dataset but for completeness, a brief account of them is given in section 5.5.

5.2 The Reflectivity Method

5.2.1 Reflectivity theory

The reflectivity method itself belongs to the group of synthetic seismogram computation methods which use wavenumber or slowness integration to compute the full wavefield seismic response for the

models. It is a frequency domain method, as compared to the time-domain approach of the ray method. The integration of the reflectivity of a layered medium is carried out in the horizontal wavenumber (or angle of incidence) domain. Multiplying the result by the spectrum of the source signal yields the full seismic response of the medium.

The method was extended by **Fuchs and Mueller (1971)** to include the elastic transmission losses and time shifts due to stacks of layers above the reflection zone, that is, above the region which returns seismic phases of interest. **Kennett (1975)** extended the technique further to allow for varying structure beneath shots and receivers, thus allowing some degree of lateral inhomogeneity, at a shallow level.

The strength of this method is its high accuracy and the fact that the full wavefield is computed, as compared to only the specified phases in the ray method. However, it requires large amounts of computer time and disc space to calculate the reflectivity matrix for the integration even for a relatively simple model and limiting the slownesses to those of interest. It therefore requires a supercomputer or the programme to be rewritten for a vector processor (**Sandmeier and Wenzel, 1986**), for practical modelling. Its use is also restricted in modelling by the fact that it is a one-dimensional method, allowing only for vertically inhomogeneous media beneath the level of the shallow structure beneath the shots and receivers.

Other slight computational problems, although they do not affect the accuracy of the real phases, are the tendency of high energy arrivals to 'wrap around' onto the seismograms and the appearance of numerical phases on the synthetic sections. The wraparound phases are seen when high energy arrivals are generated for the model outside the time window of interest and these are aliased into the sections. The numerical phases appear with the limiting slowness set for the integration. These may sometimes be reduced in amplitude by applying a cosine taper to the ends of the slowness interval (**Mueller, 1985**).

In spite of the problems with the method however, the synthetic seismograms it produces are far more reliable than those computed by the ray method especially with regard to amplitudes. The best approach to use in modelling was therefore to use the ray method to obtain a rough idea of the one-dimensional structure, then use the reflectivity method to check this model, particularly the synthetic amplitudes, and continue to model in two dimensions using the ray method again.

5.2.2 SYNSEI / SYN86

The package at Durham which incorporates the reflectivity method was originally called SYNSEI, the programme written by Fuchs and Mueller, and adapted by Brian Kennett. This was modified in 1986 by D.L. Stevenson and the author to adapt better to running on Durham's main frame computer, under the name SYN86.

The whole package was split into three parts, the main programme, a new library of subroutines and another library which included all the original subroutines. The programme was converted to Fortran77 from FortranIV, and the graphics changed to Ghost80. The new subroutines, written by D.L. Stevenson were to enable the input to the programme to be made in 5 files, instead of the original one. Each new input file contains the details of one specific aspect of the model:

- 1) The shallow structure beneath the shots and details of the source.
- 2) The shallow structure beneath the receivers.
- 3) The velocity structure of the reflection zone, that is, the region of interest.
- 4) The distances of the shots and receivers from each other.
- 5) The control file with miscellaneous details.

SYNSEI contained two options for the method to carry out the wavenumber (or angle of incidence) integration, by the trapezoidal rule or Simpson's rule. The trapezoidal rule is the better method to use, but another option was added to SYN86, which uses Filon's method (Frazer and Gettrust, 1984) in a subroutine written by M.H.P. Bott. This is apparently even better than the trapezoidal rule for the integration. Two examples of synthetic seismogram are shown in Fig. 5.1(a) and (b), (a) computed using Filon's method for the integration, (b) using the trapezoidal rule. It may be seen from the figure that the method removes the slight distance aliasing visible at offsets over 125 km. This figure also demonstrates one of the other computational problems mentioned in the previous section: strong numerical phases across the section.

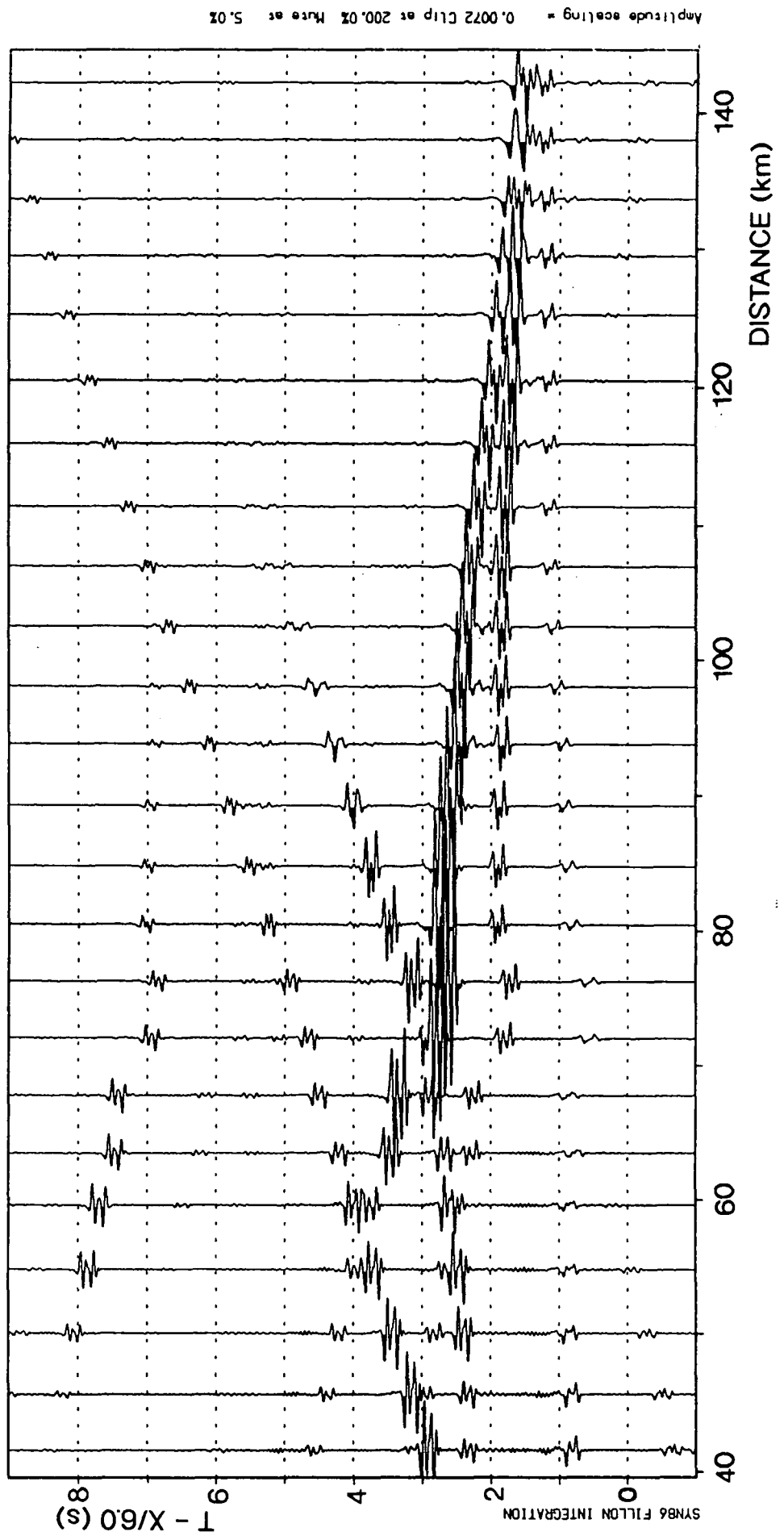


Fig. 5.1(a) Synthetic seismogram computed using the reflectivity method (SYNSEI) with the Filon integration method. The model used for computation is shown in (c).

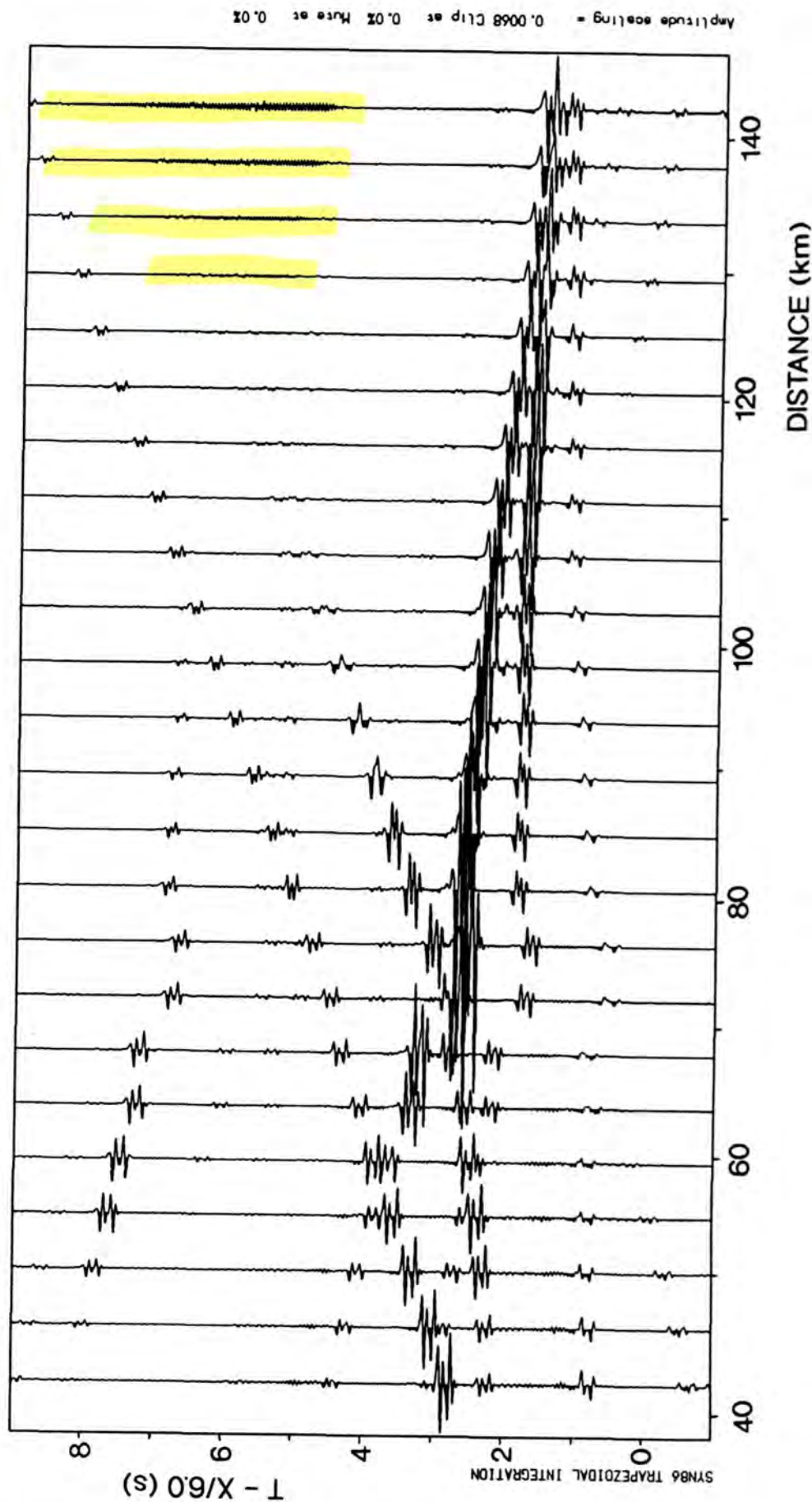


Fig. 5.1(b) Synthetic seismogram computed using the reflectivity method (SYNSEI) with the trapezoidal integration method. The model used for computation is shown in (c).

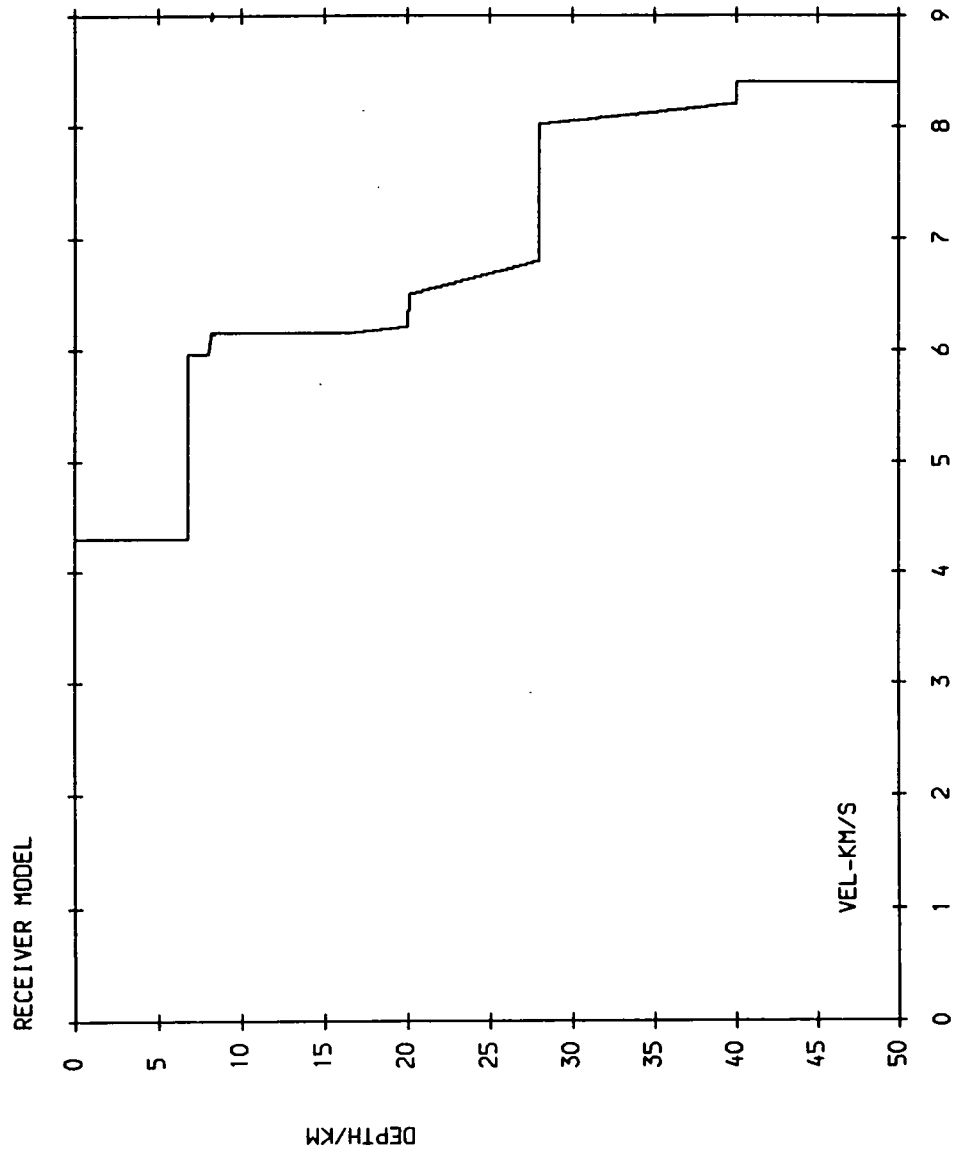


Fig. 5.1(c) Model used for computation of synthetic seismograms shown in (a) and (b).

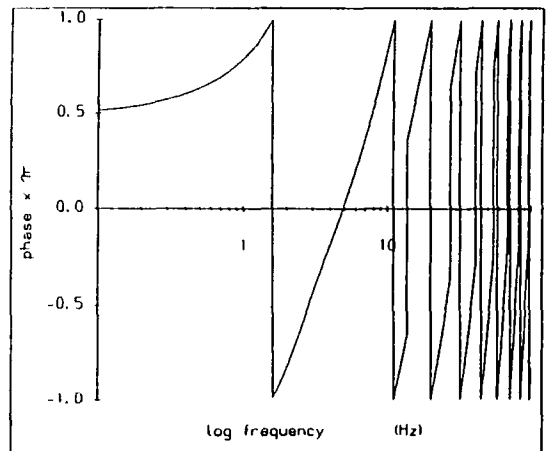
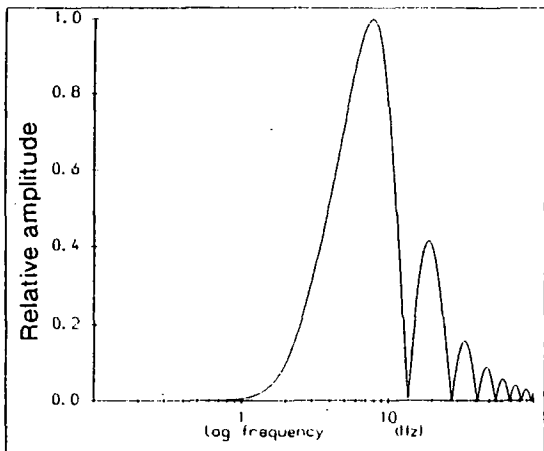
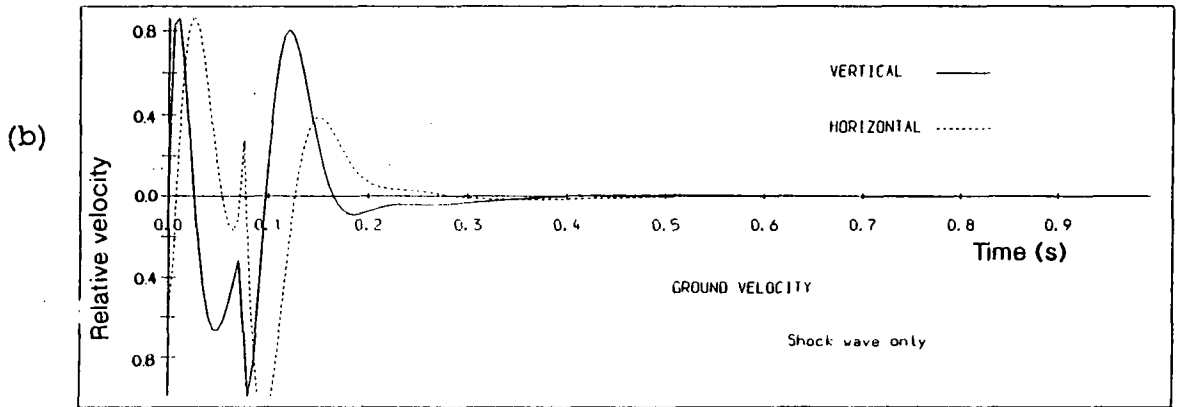
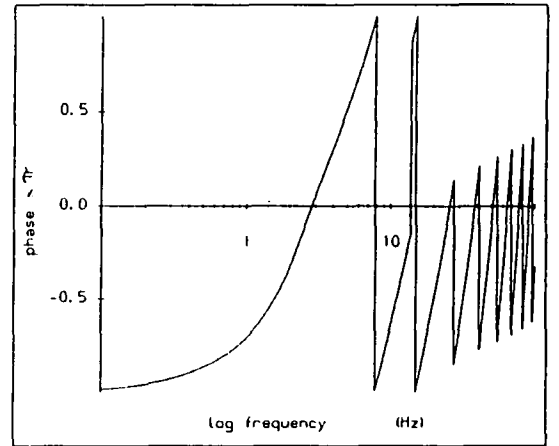
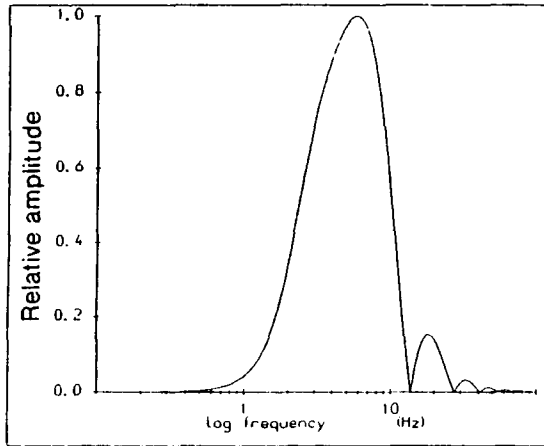
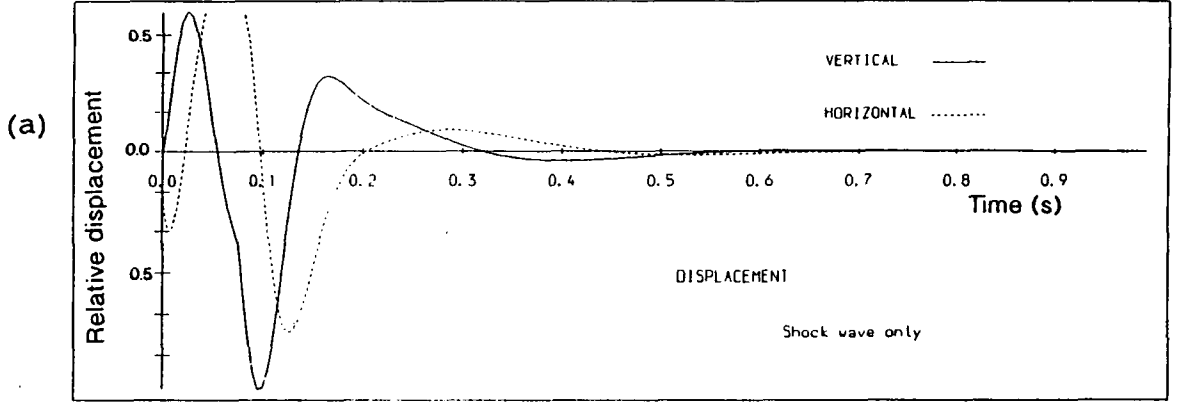


Fig. 5.2 Source signatures computed for the reflectivity method to yield: (a) ground displacement and (b) ground velocity synthetic seismograms.

The original package computed either the ground displacement or the pressure as recorded at the Earth's surface. Seismometers actually measure ground velocity, so for direct comparison during modelling, computation of the ground velocity by the package is more useful. SYN86 was therefore modified to provide this option. Fig. 5.2 shows the differences between the waveforms for the different options, ground velocity and ground displacement (in the time domain), also the amplitude and phase spectra. This particular example is computed for a marine explosive shot.

The package is fairly flexible to use, providing many options which are useful in modelling wide-angle reflection/refraction surveys, such as the automatic generation of an explosive source signal (subroutine BANGIN), being able to input the seismometer characteristics and being able to approximate a vertical velocity gradient in terms of homogeneous layers (subroutine INHOM), to name but a few. The results are very reliable and realistic. The main drawbacks, as outlined above, are the length of time required for the computations, especially for models with many layers, and the restriction to laterally homogeneous media.

Durham does now possess the version of SYNSEI (SYNCYB) vectorised by Karl-Josef Sandmeier at Karlsruhe University for use on a CDC CYBER 205 high-speed computer. Run on this machine, the computation time using the reflectivity method is speeded up by a factor of 20 to 30 compared to the time required to run SYN86 on Durham's AMDAHL main frame computer. It is hoped that the vectorised version may be implemented onto the CYBER 205 at the University of Manchester or the Rutherford Appleton Laboratory. This version does not yet use all the convenient additions which are part of SYN86, but makes seismic modelling far easier and faster.

5.3 The Ray Method

5.3.1 Ray theory (Asymptotic Ray Theory)

The ray method for computing synthetic seismograms is based on the idea of splitting up the wavefield in a region into several elementary waves, each of which may be described by the path it takes through a model. For each of these elementary waves, rays of infinitesimally narrow cross-section are traced through the model, by solving a set of ordinary differential equations which yield the ray

trajectory, slowness vectors and the travel time T . The mathematics and detailed theory are described in detail in Cerveny et al.(1977), and a good general account may be found in Cerveny (1985a), from which most of the information in this section is derived. In the case of fixed source and receivers, two-point ray tracing is required in order to obtain rays which start and finish at the necessary points. The most crucial assumption of the method is that the dimensions of structures in the model are larger than the wavelength of the seismic waves. This is therefore a high frequency approximation.

The two-point ray tracing is carried out by means of a "shooting" mechanism, whereby rays are traced from a starting point (a "shot") in an iterative loop, the initial conditions changing slightly each time through the loop. In the source-to-receiver computations, this means in practice varying the take-off angle of the ray from the source each time. The amplitudes of the rays are corrected for geometrical spreading and modified by reflection and transmission at interfaces.

The actual synthetic seismograms are evaluated either by (a) direct summation of all the elementary seismograms, or (b) evaluating the frequency response, multiplying by the source spectrum and inverse Fourier transforming, or (c) by a convolutive approach, calculating a complex-valued impulse response and convolving this with the analytic source signal. In practice, the method of summation is the most useful for a small number of elementary waves. In fact, the ray method is on the whole most practical for a small number of elementary waves since it would otherwise become rather cumbersome.

The advantage of this method lies in the relatively short time required for computation and in the flexibility of the technique, since the assumption holds for many models. It allows computation in two-dimensional models for no more computational time than one-dimensional, whereas more accurate methods such as the reflectivity method are unable to cope with laterally inhomogeneous media.

The method does fall down, however, in that for the high-frequency assumption to be valid, the velocity field cannot vary too rapidly (small oscillations in the velocity field cause spurious arrivals) and ray theory breaks down in some crucial regions of the wave field such as the critical region and caustics. Shadow areas are very pronounced on ray synthetic seismograms instead of amplitudes decaying into them. It cannot compute diffractions from edges, although these may be 'tacked on' without accurate

amplitude or phase information. The accuracy of the method therefore leaves something to be desired, compared to exact methods, and relies on the user's knowledge of the weaknesses to identify spurious arrivals and 'fill in the gaps'.

However, the method is easy to use, widely available and flexible, which has meant that it is the most popular method for modelling wide-angle reflection and refraction data in terms of laterally varying media. Perhaps the best known package of its kind is SEIS83, written by Cerveny and Psencik.

5.3.2. SEIS83

Written in 1983 as an update and improvement on the older SEIS81, this package uses the ray method to compute synthetic seismograms in laterally varying media. It carries out two-point ray tracing by means of a modified shooting method, evaluating the synthetic seismograms by the summation of the elementary seismograms. It uses a Gaussian envelope for the source signal, in which the central frequency may be specified by the user.

The representation of the model is relatively straightforward: four interfaces bound the model, two straight vertical and two horizontal, either curved or straight (defining the Earth's surface and the base of the model). Within these bounds, interfaces cross the model from right to left, defined by a maximum of 30 points per interface and interpolated by a cubic spline.

The velocity field may be represented by one of three methods: either as a system of grids of velocity specifications, a different grid in each layer, which are then interpolated over the whole layer by a bicubic spline; or again as grids but using a piecewise bilinear interpolation; or by specifying the velocities at the top and bottom of each layer (as defined by the interfaces) and a linear interpolation of the velocity applied vertically within each layer, in which case the interfaces are equivalent to velocity isolines.

The relative merits of the velocity specifications are debatable. The bicubic spline method is probably the most popular since it allows lateral velocity variations within layers, but unfortunately it has a tendency to produce small oscillations in the velocity structure even after being smoothed. The linear interpolation method is probably the most reliable but it cannot represent laterally varying velocities. The

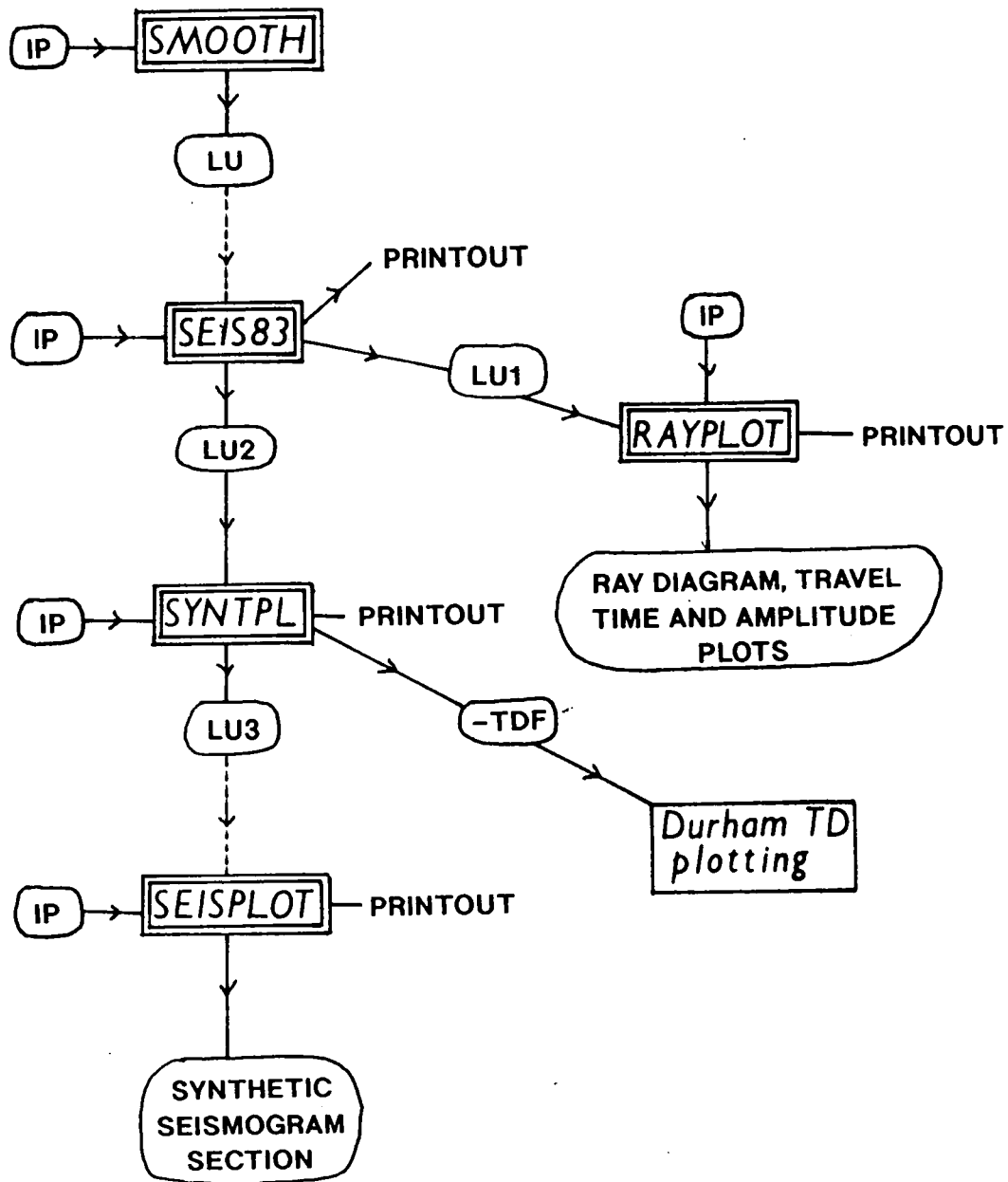


Fig. 5.3 Flow chart of the use of SEIS83.

piecewise bilinear interpolation method apparently produces spurious arrivals and unstable results (Lewis,1986).

The computer package is shown in Fig. 5.3 as a flow chart. The first and main programme, SEIS83, constructs the model from the data points specified in the input and computes the requested rays through this medium, calculating the travel times and amplitudes to store in two output files. The output is used by RAYPLOT to plot the ray diagrams, travel time plots and amplitude versus distance curves and by SYNTPL, which computes the synthetic seismograms by summation of the elementary seismograms, writing the output in either Durham's TD format for plotting or in the correct format for plotting with SEISPLOT, the package's plotting routine for seismic sections. Using the TDF writing option enables the plotting of the synthetic sections with the same plotting parameters as the original data sections, for easier comparison. The optional programme SMOOTH performs smoothing of the input for the velocity model when the bicubic spline interpolation method is to be used. Each routine is thoroughly documented. The plotting routines RAYPLOT and SEISPLOT use *PLOTSYS graphics subroutines which are still available at Durham.

5.4 The Gaussian Beam Method

5.4.1 Gaussian beam theory

There are several adaptations of asymptotic ray theory which aim to compensate for the inaccuracies within the ray method whilst retaining its versatility and convenience. A much-documented example is the Gaussian beam method which is now implemented at Durham.

The Gaussian beam approach involves solving the wave equation close to the central ray, so that singularities involved in the ray method are eliminated. This means that instead of narrow rays, beams of seismic energy are being traced through the medium, with bell-shaped amplitude cross sections. This gives rise to the name Gaussian beam. The seismic response at receivers is computed by superposition of all the beams arriving in the vicinity of the receiver, since the beams have a broader range than rays.

The method is described in Cerveny (1985b) and Weber (1988). The execution of the method consists of ray tracing in exactly the same way as in the ray method, breaking the wavefield up into

individual elementary waves, carrying out initial value or interval ray tracing to generate a regular network of ray endpoints around the receivers. Dynamic ray tracing is then performed and spreading-free amplitudes calculated. All the information generated so far is stored, then the contributions of the Gaussian beams evaluated by expanding the source wavefield. The seismogram at any receiver is evaluated by superposition of all the beams in the vicinity of the receiver. Whether or not a beam may contribute to a receiver near its endpoint depends upon the beamwidth, L .

The properties of the beam, namely the beamwidth and its phase front curvature, are modified by each interaction with a boundary within the model. The beam parameters may be selected by the user to provide the most appropriate beams for the model under consideration. Weber (1988) has researched how the choice of beam parameter affects the accuracy of modelling, observing that for slowly varying media, the beamwidths should be broad, whereas for more complicated media, the beams should be narrow in order to yield accurate amplitudes. The phase front curvature should not be too strong. Weber's preferred method of selection of beam parameter, (in a medium approximated by triangles) is one in which the parameters are influenced by the size of the triangles which defined the velocity structure of the model.

Cerveny's preferred beam parameter selection provides an effectively plane phase front near the endpoints of the rays and sets L^2 (the square of the beamwidth) to a minimum at the source. This causes broad beamwidths to result from beams with a large radius of phase-front curvature and narrow beams from small radii of curvature. This usually suppresses spurious arrivals and numerical oscillations although Weber's recommended method yields the most accurate seismograms overall (Weber, 1988).

The Gaussian beam method has many advantages as a technique over either the ray method or the reflectivity method, its main competitors. It is far more stable than the ray method in singular regions such as critical regions and caustics, and yields more reliable amplitudes (Cerveny, 1985b). The synthetic seismograms produced are far more realistic than those produced by the ray method, due to the better amplitudes and the fact that phases are not abruptly cut off by shadow zones but decay realistically, as would be expected for a full wave solution. This means that even diffractions may be artificially represented, although the amplitude and phase information is not accurate (Kennett and Harding, 1985).

It is no more time-consuming than the ray tracing method and can in fact be faster since there is no requirement for two-point ray tracing to be carried out.

There are still problems with the method in that the treatment of reflections and transmissions at interfaces ignores the effect of surface curvature and the method cannot cope accurately with diffractions. However, it is certainly far faster to run than the reflectivity package for adequate accuracy. It combines some of the accuracy of wave methods with the flexibility of ray tracing and therefore provides a most versatile option for synthetic seismogram modelling.

5.4.2 BEAM87

The Gaussian beam package in use at Durham is **BEAM87**, written by Cerveny during his stay at the University of California, Berkeley. It was from Berkeley that the package was actually obtained to implement onto Durham's mainframe computer. Since the package used **CALCOMP** plotting routines, easily convertible to Durham's ***PLOTSYS** graphics facility, implementation was relatively simple.

The package is very similar in structure to **SEIS83**, since the original programme **BEAM81** was written as a modification of **SEIS81** (Cerveny, 1983) and later updated to **BEAM84** (Cerveny 1985b) before being improved further and documented in English in 1987.

The flow chart in **Fig. 5.4** shows the overall scheme of the package:

RT is basically identical to the main programme of **SEIS83**. It performs the initial value or interval ray tracing, then the dynamic ray tracing, evaluating the travel times, ray paths and spreading-free amplitudes. This information is stored in two files, one of which is used as input for the programme **RAYPLOT** for plotting ray diagrams, travel time plots and amplitude versus distance plots. The model representation in **RT** is identical to that used in **SEIS83**, again with a choice of three ways of interpolating the velocity. There is also a programme **SMOOTH** which serves the same purpose as in **SEIS83**, smoothing input to use in the bicubic spline method of velocity interpolation.

GB uses input from **RT** to compute the frequency response at the receivers, initial parameters of the Gaussian beams, radiation patterns, absorption mechanism and frequency dependent effects. It is

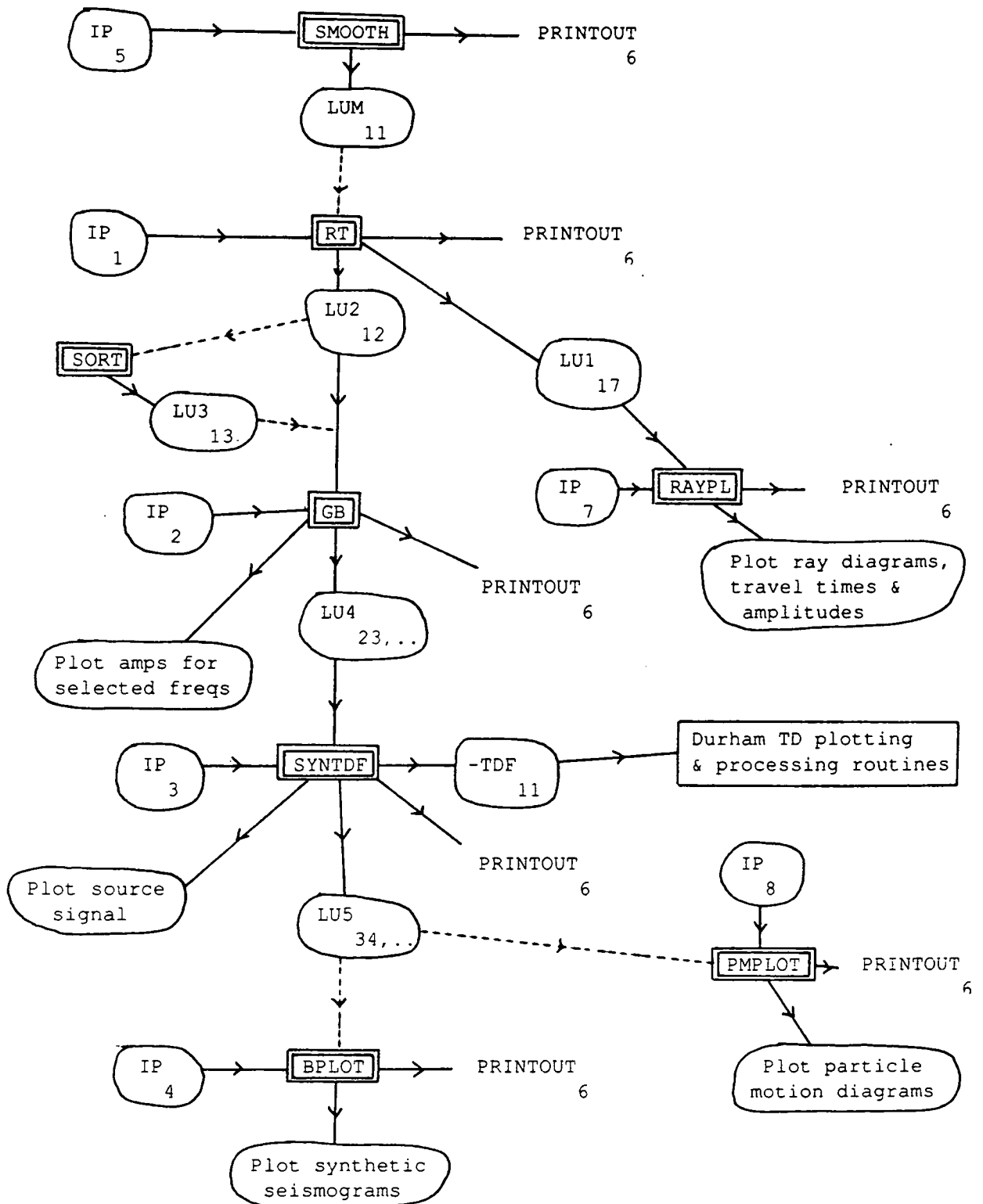


Fig. 5.4 Flow chart of the use of BEAMB7.

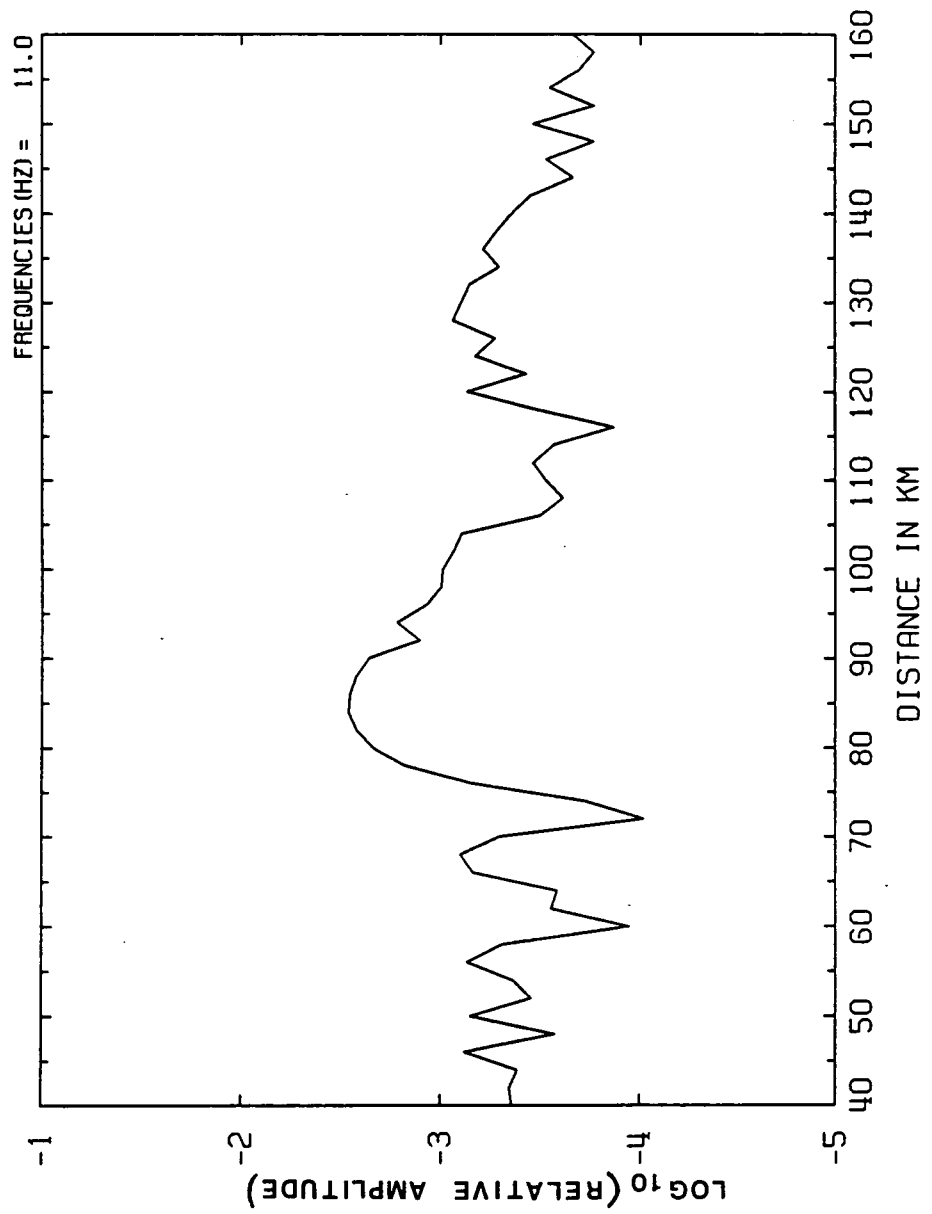


Fig. 5.5 Sample plot of amplitude variation against distance for Pg phase at specific frequency, from the program GB.

GAMMA=4.0 (GABOR)

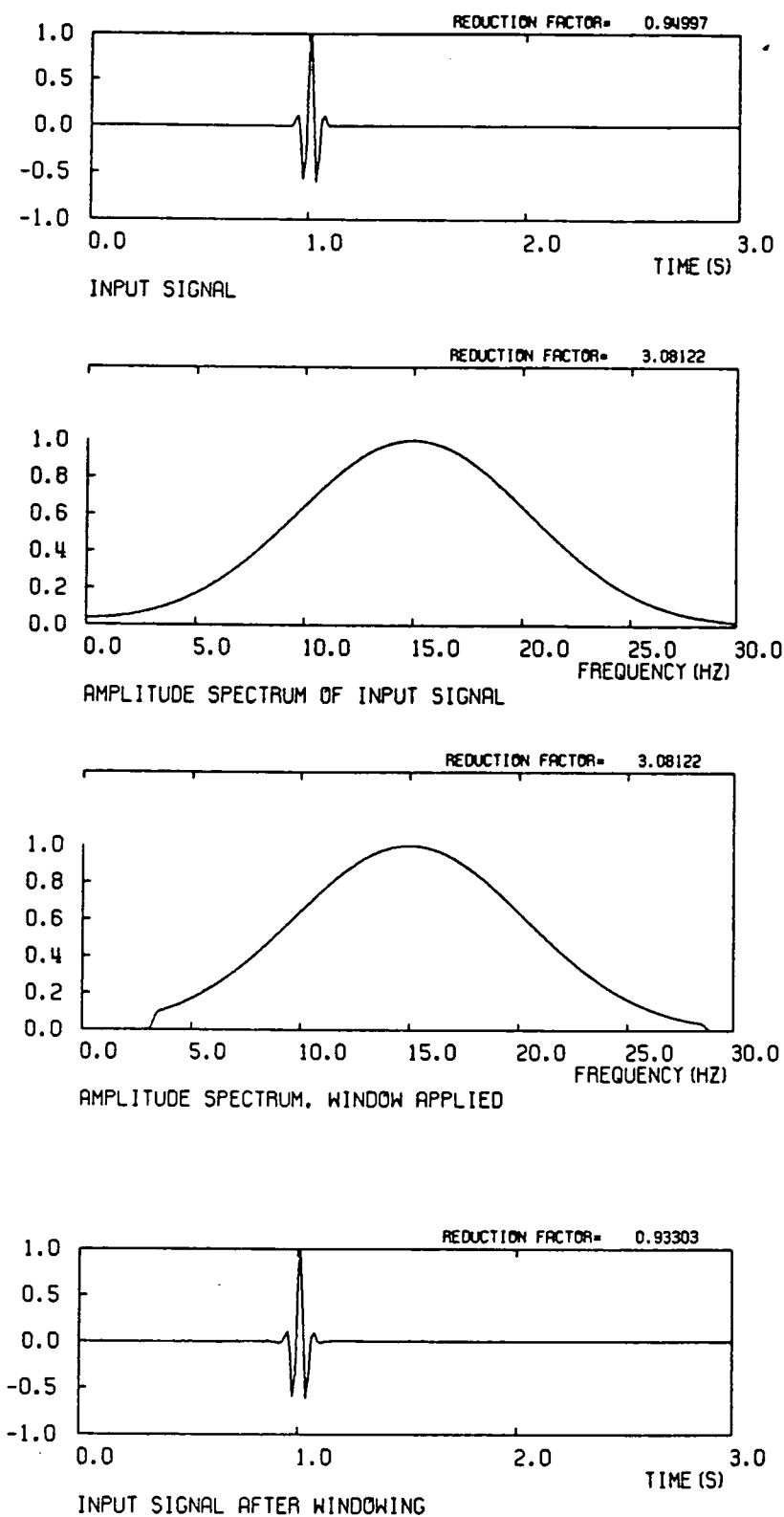


Fig. 5.6 Example of plot of input signal generated by program SYNT.

possible to generate plots of the amplitude-distance response for specific frequencies. An example of such a plot for Pg is shown in Fig. 5.5.

SYNT uses the output from GB to compute the seismograms at the specified receivers, using any high-frequency source signal chosen by the user. It contains the option of plotting the input signal, its spectrum and the results of filtering the signal, in addition to the spectra of the synthetic seismograms. The Durham version of this version has been modified to SYNTDF, which writes additional output in TD format, so that it may then be processed and plotted identically to the real dataset. Fig. 5.6 shows examples of the plots which may be generated by SYNT or SYNTDF.

BPLOT may be used to plot sections of the synthetic seismograms generated by SYNT. Other programmes included in the BEAM87 package are SORT, which rearranges the rays computed by RT to increase monotonically, if they were computed in a different order, also PMPLOT, which plots particle motion diagrams of the shear wave components.

The whole package BEAM87 is a very flexible one which is straightforward to learn to use, especially after experience with SEIS83.

5.5 Other computational methods

5.5.1 Kirchhoff theory - AIMS

Another of the packages available for use at Durham is AIMS, the Advanced Interpretive Modelling System produced by GeoQuest. This uses ray theory to compute the seismic response of laterally varying models, primarily for near-vertical incidence seismic profiling. It also has the option of using Kirchhoff wave theory for modelling interfaces and most importantly, diffractions. An algorithm developed by Trorey (1970) is used, which enables the calculation of the response of a planar surface, and this is developed to apply to non-planar interface.

The most important feature of the Kirchhoff approach is that it considers not only specular reflections from interfaces but the whole surface response to the seismic waves. This makes the method particularly important in normal-incidence seismic reflection, where diffraction events play an important role in the interpretation of complex structures. It also means that the seismic response of curved

interfaces receives better treatment. This is becoming more important in the realm of wide-angle reflection (or refraction) profiling also, due to the increased resolution of profiles such as those of the MOBIL wide-angle programme.

5.5.2 RAYSYN

RAYSYN is a method written by Cassell at the University of Cambridge, which also uses ART to carry out ray tracing and computation of synthetic seismograms in laterally inhomogeneous media, but differs from Cerveny and Psencik's method in that the medium is approximated by boxes of constant seismic parameters (Cassell, 1982). This simplifies the ray propagation and amplitude computation.

Unfortunately, the selection of initial parameters for families of rays is rather time-consuming and some spurious shadow zones arise as a result of rays encountering the corners of boxes (Howson, 1982). Although the computation is very fast it does not produce such reliable seismograms as SEIS83, for example.

5.5.3 RAYAMP

RAYAMP also uses ray theory to compute the seismic response of models which are laterally varying. Like RAYSYN, the principles are similar to SEIS83 except for the method of representation of the model, which in this case is carried out by breaking the model up into polygonal blocks. This approach could facilitate the representation of complex structures which are awkward to picture in terms of interfaces crossing the model from left to right, as in SEIS83, but may have the same weaknesses as RAYSYN at the vertices of the polygons.

Since the package is not yet fully implemented, it has yet to be tested and compared with SEIS83. The programme was written by G.D.Spence using an algorithm produced by K.P.Whittall and R.M.Clowes. It is described and used in examples in Spence et al (1984).

5.5.4 ANRAY

ANRAY also uses ray theory to carry out ray tracing and travel time computations for **three-dimensional** laterally varying isotropic and anisotropic media. A fully general case of anisotropy with 21 independent laterally varying constants may be considered. The package was written by Psencik and Gajewski in Prague and sent to Durham with BEAM87 from the University of California, Berkeley. Since it is not documented, it has not yet been implemented, but it may prove to be a valuable package, especially because it may be used for ray tracing S-waves through anisotropic media, which no or few other packages do at present. It may also be configured for borehole seismic modelling.

5.6 Conclusion

There are many other approaches to the computation of synthetic seismograms besides those available at Durham. A wide range of methods apply specifically to horizontally stratified, one-dimensional media, including generalised ray theory, full wave theory, WKBJ theory (equivalent to Maslov theory but in one-dimensional media), wavenumber or slowness integration methods (which include the Reflectivity Method), wavenumber summation techniques (which include the Alekseev-Mikhailenko Method, AMM) and modal summation. The Reflectivity Method is probably the best-known of these methods and due to its high accuracy, it is widely used.

For accurate two-dimensional modelling, the most powerful method is considered to be the **finite-difference** method, which is based on direct numerical solutions of the elastodynamic wave equations. This and the finite-element method are known as exact methods since they yield complete and highly accurate seismograms including head waves, diffractions and surface waves. The drawback is the amount of computational power required to use this approach. Also, the seismograms produced are very complex and are often as difficult to interpret as the original data sections (Weber, 1988).

Other two-dimensional methods include **perturbation theory** and other modifications of ART such as **Maslov theory** (Chapman 1985). The latter essentially corresponds to the use of broad beam widths in the Gaussian beam method. As discussed by Kennett and Harding (1985), the main weakness

of the **modified** ray methods lies in their treatment of reflection and transmission at interfaces, which means that they are unable to cope with curved or discontinuous interfaces accurately.

However, practically speaking, the Gaussian beam approach seems to be the best all-round package in terms of accuracy, computer expense and flexibility. It produces reliable and realistic seismograms, and for this reason it has been used for the computation of synthetic seismograms used in the modelling of the MOBIL wide-angle dataset, the results of which are described in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 6: SYNTHETIC SEISMOGRAM MODELLING

6.1 Introduction

The synthetic seismogram modelling of the MOBIL wide-angle dataset was carried out in two stages, first aiming to fit as many of the main arrivals as possible to a one-dimensional model; this is described in section 6.3. The deviations of the real data from output generated from the model then highlighted the areas where lateral velocity variations needed to be introduced to the model. The final fit was then obtained from a two-dimensional model (section 6.4).

Initially, the seismic modelling was carried out using SEIS83 but this was soon superseded by the more accurate BEAM87; SYN86 was used for some of the one-dimensional interpretation and the CYBER version of SYNSEI at Karlsruhe for a small part of this modelling.

6.2 CSSP model

The final model obtained from the CSSP wide-angle reflection data is shown in Fig. 6.1, as presented by Lewis (1986). This extends from the Irish Sea shots across Northern England to the furthest North Sea shot (N29), so that the distance axis along the base of the plot represents the distance from the westernmost shot in the Irish Sea (M25B). The approximate locations of the MOBIL-CSSP stations and MOBIL line 1 shots have also been inserted.

The main features of the model are:

(a) A lateral decrease in basement velocity eastward from shot N10, which was thought to cause the observed "disappearance" of Pg at this offset.

(b) A mid-crustal gradient zone located between 15.5 and 18 km depth and an average upper crustal velocity of 6.16 kms^{-1} excluding sediments.

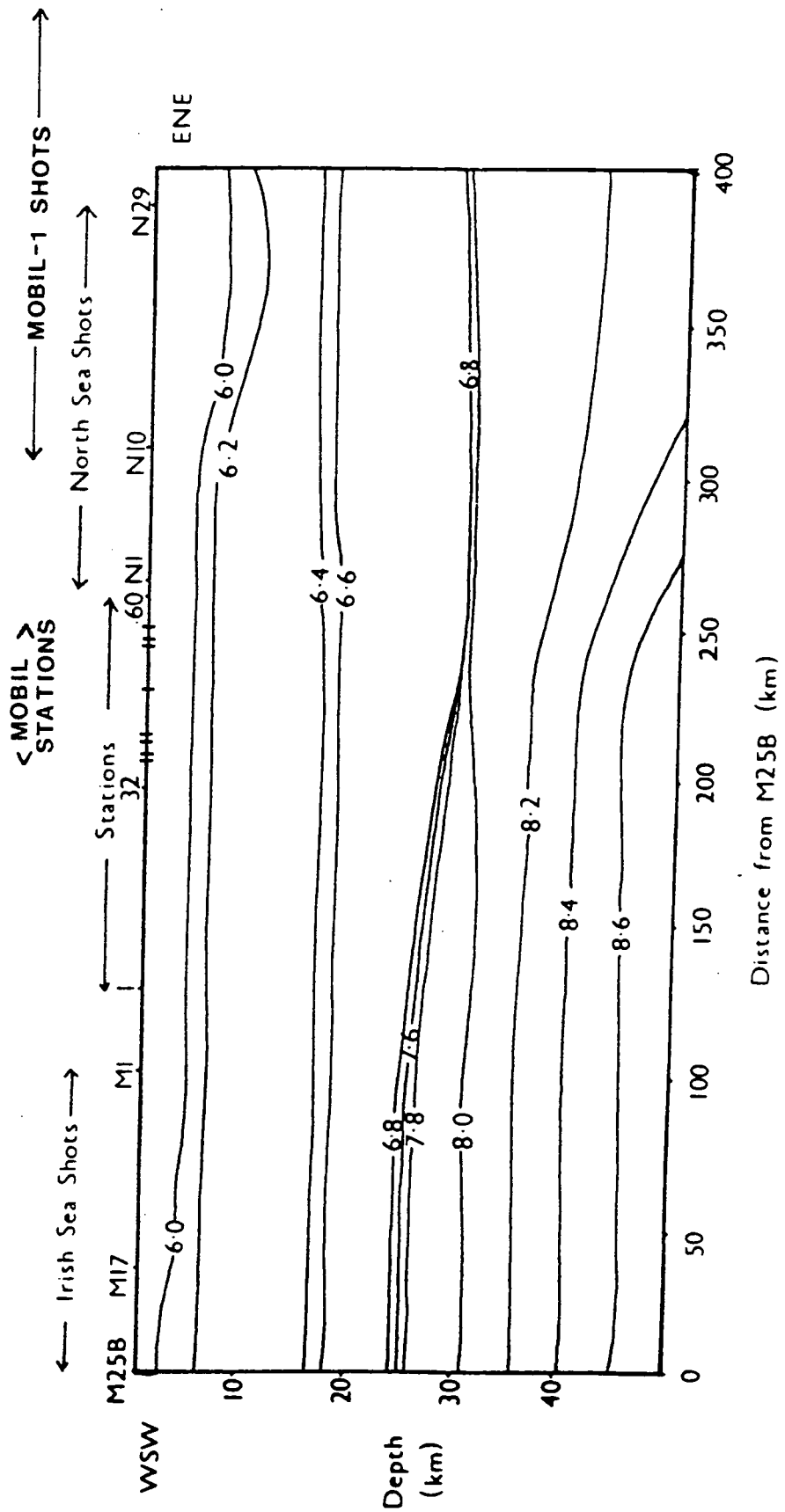


Fig. 6.1 The CSSP velocity model from Lewis (1986).

(c) A strongly reflective Moho at approximately 30 km depth. According to A.H.J. Lewis (1986), this becomes a gradational zone further West, beneath the Irish Sea, in order to explain the depth interpretations from the PmP and Pn arrivals from beneath the Irish Sea. The average crustal velocity beneath the North Sea was calculated to be 6.54 kms^{-1} excluding sediments.

(d) A gentle velocity gradient in the upper mantle with a velocity of 8.02 kms^{-1} just below the Moho.

It was hoped that the improved resolution of the MOBIL-CSSP dataset would enable a more detailed interpretation of these features and that using BEAM87, which is far more reliable in terms of amplitude modelling than SEIS83, would produce a robust model which goes some way towards an explanation of the observed seismic amplitudes.

In actual fact, the high resolution of the MOBIL dataset seems to have generated yet more problems to be explained, rather than solving the old ones. The lateral behaviour of Pg is rather different on MOBIL records - as described in section 4.4.1, it does not simply disappear. The mid-crustal gradient may well exist but there also seem to be several other crustal boundaries which generate wide-angle reflections. PmP is far more complex on the MOBIL records than it appeared to be from CSSP, and many diffraction-type events, described in section 4.3.2, are observed from crustal interfaces, but most notably the Moho. The one phase which is crisply defined on the new dataset and may therefore be fitted more accurately is Pn.

6.3 One-dimensional seismic modelling

6.3.1 Initial modelling

Modelling was commenced by approximating the crust to laterally homogeneous layers, starting with the rough results of the T^2-X^2 fitting and the CSSP model and using SEIS83 to carry out the initial computations. The linear interpolation method was used to interpolate the velocities within the layers. The travel time picks from station 54 were used for fitting, since the arrivals on these record sections

seemed from close study to reflect the most laterally uniform structure of all, and the arrivals were the clearest to interpret.

The approach taken was to start at the top and work down, so that the first problem to emerge was that Pg cannot be fitted by a one-dimensional model, as suggested by the change in apparent velocity of Pg on the record sections. As discussed in section 4.4.1, a low velocity zone would not explain the fact that the velocity change occurs at a specific shotpoint. The evidence points more towards a lateral change in velocity in the basement.

The best apparent fit to the Pg travel times for the first 12 km of the section was obtained using a 4 km thick surface layer of average seismic velocity 4.83 kms^{-1} , followed by a velocity gradient which increases from 6.05 to 6.26 kms^{-1} between depths of 4 km and 7 km. The corresponding ray diagram and travel time fit for this arrival, computed using SEIS83, is shown in Fig 6.2. This model cuts off the arrivals at the offset of 55 km, although the observed arrivals continue up to offsets of 60 km at this station, so it seems likely that the gradient continues to greater depths than 7 km.

The travel times of Pg beyond the first 12 km of the section are best fitted by the model shown in Fig. 6.3 (again computed using SEIS83). This features a surface layer of velocity 4.75 kms^{-1} underlain by basement in which there is a velocity gradient from 5.95 to 6.35 kms^{-1} between 4 and 28 km depth. This is a significantly lower velocity gradient than that required to fit the first part of Pg.

Incorporating the model for the observations of Pg beyond 12 km into one which also fits the travel times of PmP produced the model shown in Fig. 6.4. As in the case of Fig. 6.3, this incorporates a surface layer of velocity 4.75 kms^{-1} , with a velocity gradient beneath it from 5.95 to 6.21 kms^{-1} down to 20 km depth, then an even steeper velocity gradient from 6.5 to 6.8 kms^{-1} between 20 and 30 km depth. The Moho occurs at 30 km depth as a jump in velocity from 6.8 to 8.02 kms^{-1} . An upper mantle velocity gradient from 8.02 to 8.2 kms^{-1} over a depth of 10 km gives rise to the refracted arrival Pn.

Up to this stage in the modelling, SEIS83 was used, but for the rest of the modelling process described in this chapter, BEAM87 was used.

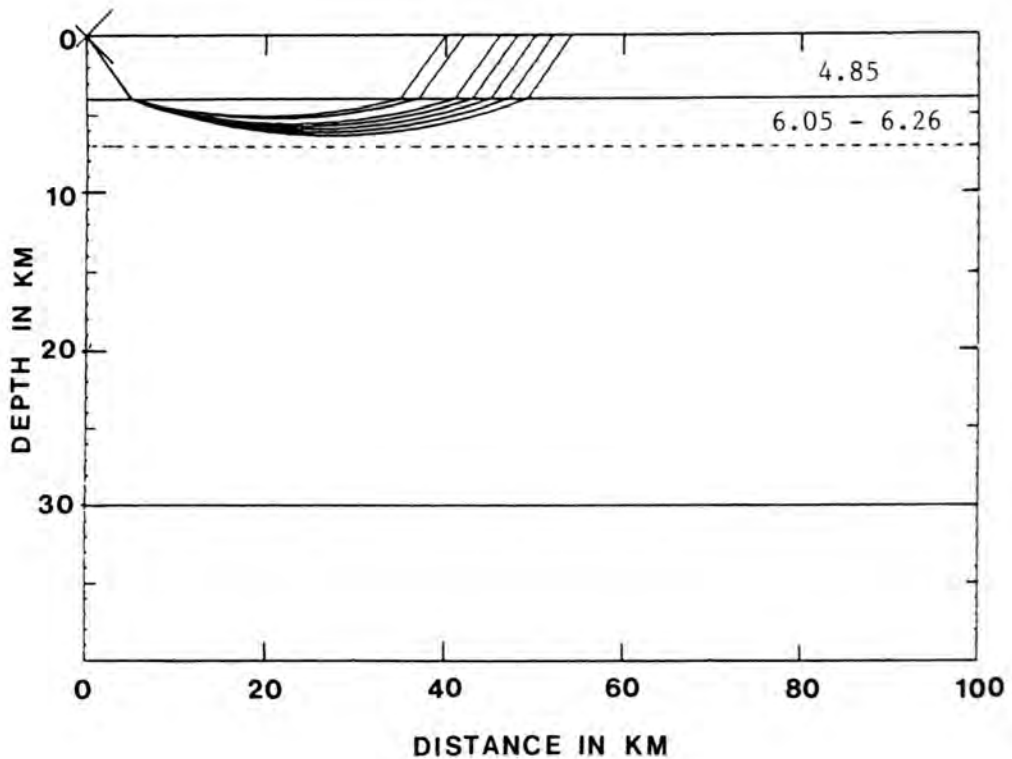
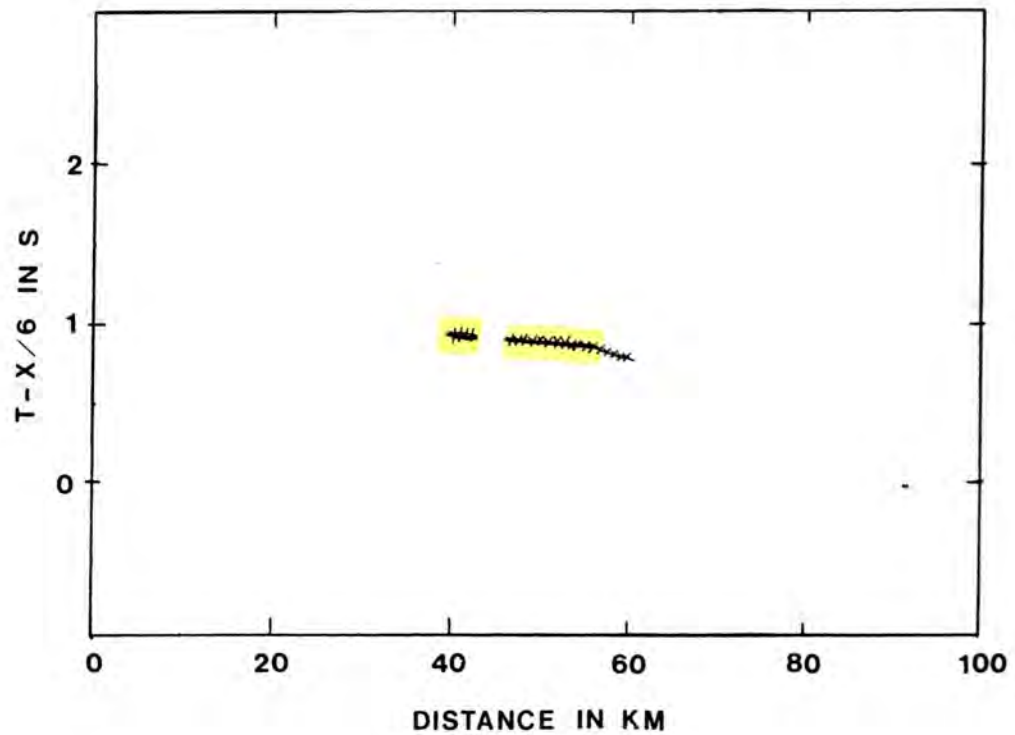


Fig. 6.2 SEIS83 one-dimensional model for station 54: ray diagram and travel time plot for Pg at near offsets (< 60 km). Continuous line: calculated travel time; crosses: observed travel times; numbers within model: seismic p-velocities in km s^{-1} .

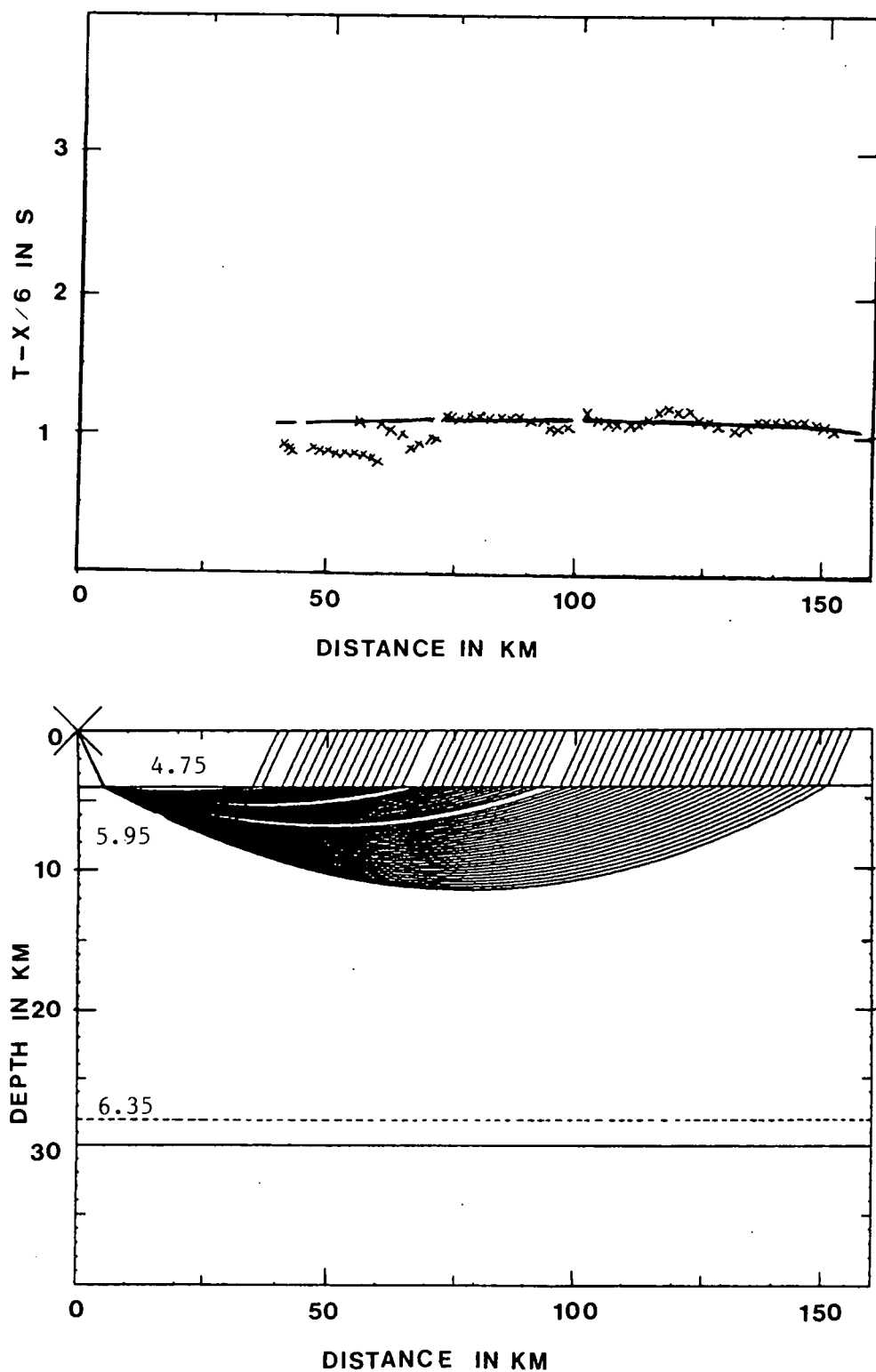


Fig. 6.3 SEIS83 one-dimensional model for station 54: ray diagram and travel time plot for Pg at greater offsets. Continuous line: calculated travel time; crosses: observed travel times; numbers within model: seismic p-velocities in km s^{-1} .

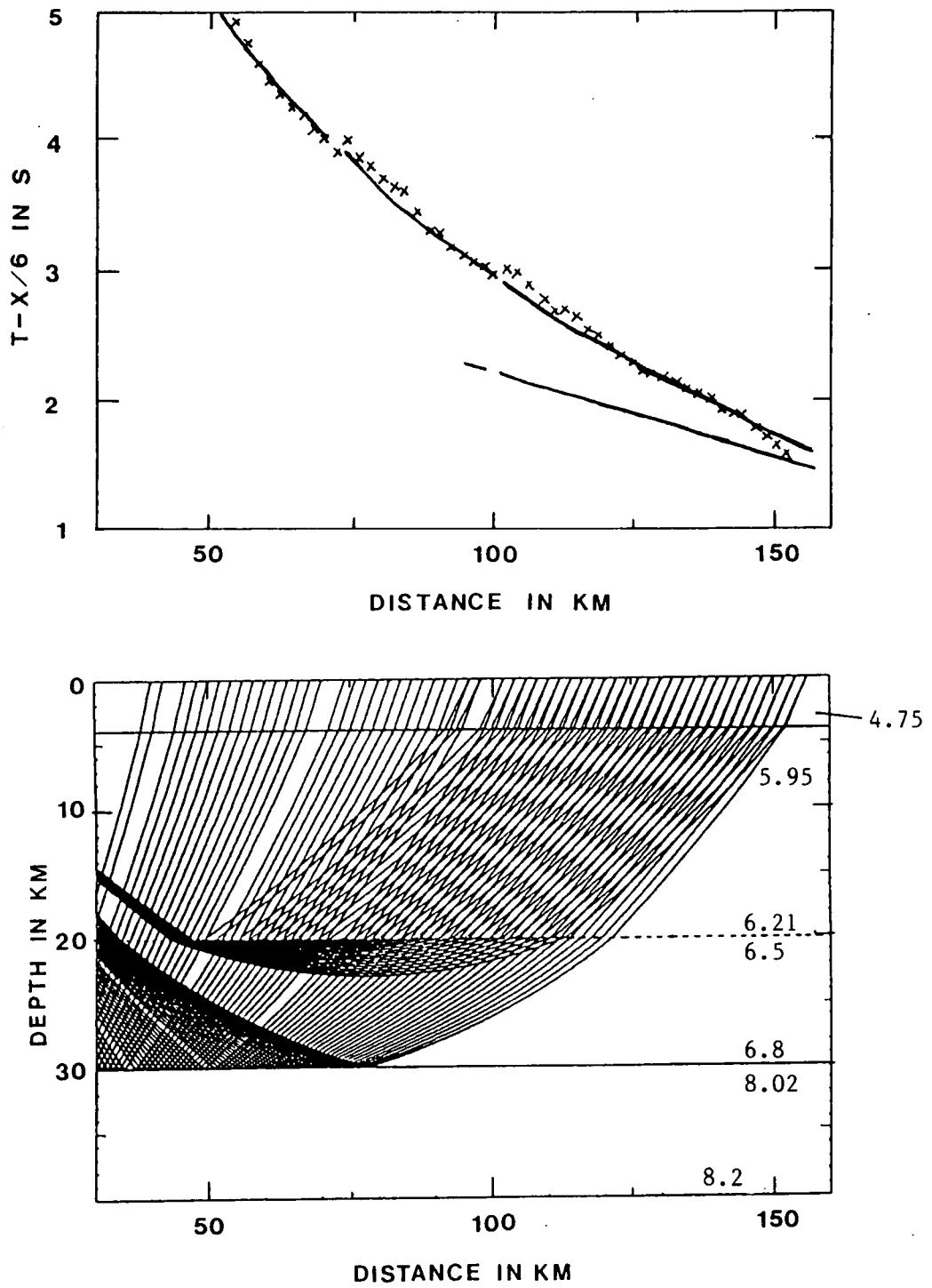


Fig. 6.4 SEIS83 one-dimensional model for station 54: ray diagram and travel time plot for PmP. Continuous line: calculated travel time; crosses: observed travel times; numbers within model: seismic p-velocities in km s⁻¹.

6.3.2 Correcting for the shallow velocity structure

As mentioned in section 4.3.1, the smallest offset of the record sections was 33.5 km at station 57. This means that the first arrival on any of the sections is the refraction from seismic basement, Pg. The refracted or wide-angle reflected arrivals which may have resulted from the near-surface geology cannot be seen as first arrivals on the dataset. As a result of this, information about the shallow structure had to be obtained from other surveys and other geophysical data.

Study of the British Geological Survey's newly-published Farnes Sheet (BGS, 1989), Green's (1984) shallow interpretation along the CSSP line, and the MOBIL line 1 normal-incidence data produced reasonable agreement in the geological interpretation shown in Fig. 6.5 down to a depth of approximately 4 km. This incorporates the easterly-dipping, onlapping sedimentary sequence of the North Sea basin to the east, from the Permian to the Triassic. Beneath this sequence lies the Carboniferous, of which the Upper Carboniferous is present onshore and continues offshore into a syncline, then dies out against the Lower Carboniferous (BGS, 1989). This truncation is supported by a small gravity anomaly described in section 7.3. The lower Carboniferous is believed to lie conformably on Devonian sediments (Donato et al., 1983) and this continuous unit underlies the whole profile.

However, this model does not include the topography of the Lower Palaeozoic surface, which includes granites (Donato et al 1983, see also Chapter 7), neither does it explain the small-scale travel time variations on the Pg arrival. Modelling of the Pg travel times by adjusting the Lower Palaeozoic topography was then carried out starting with station 54 and extending to the other stations in the line. The result of this operation is shown in Fig. 6.6 for station 54 - a picture of the model with associated rays and the travel time curve generated by BEAM87 (as are all the travel times and synthetic seismograms which follow throughout this chapter). The travel time fit for this station is very close and the behaviour of the amplitudes very similar to the observed pattern of Pg on the record sections.

The travel time fit for Pg at the other CSSP stations for the near-surface structure of Fig. 6.6 can be seen in Fig. 6.7, which shows travel times computed at stations 57, 47, 40 and 36. The fit at the Morpeth stations (57 to 47) is very reasonable. Those at the Wark stations (40 to 36) vary considerably, however, due possibly to incorrect picking of the phases on the record sections (particularly at stations 36

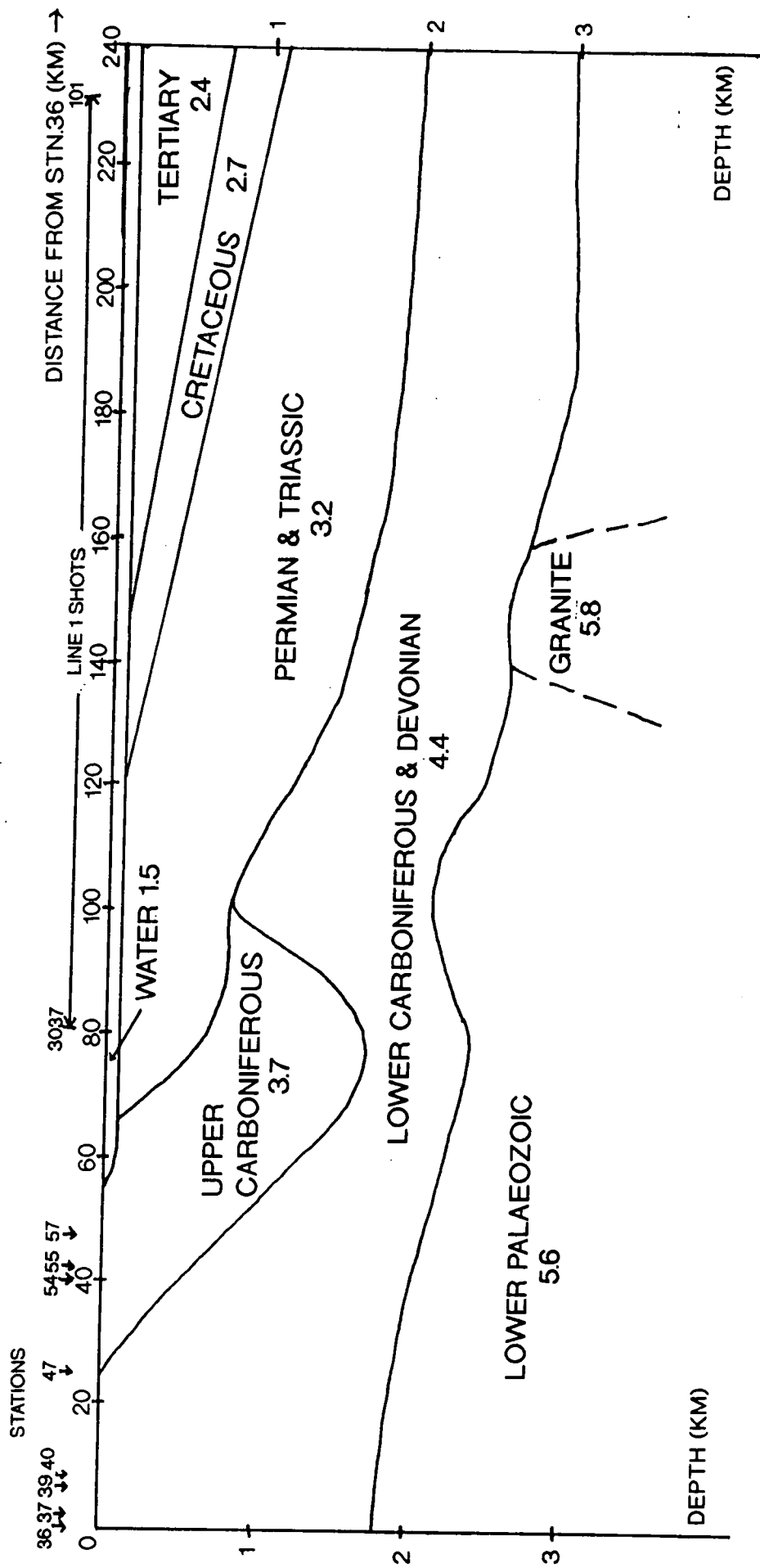
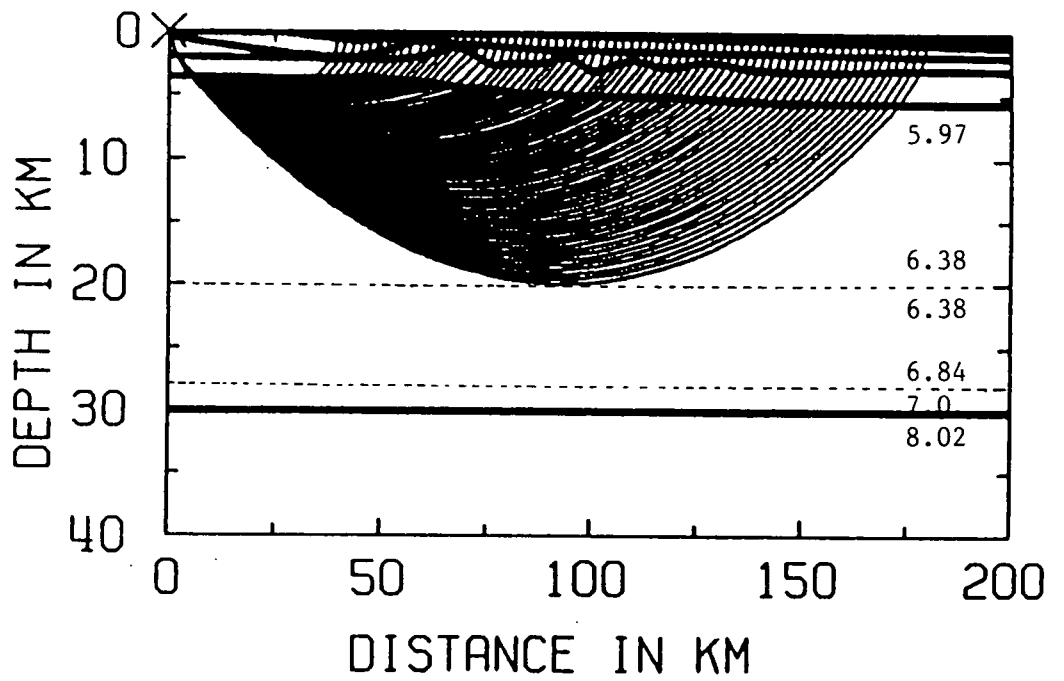
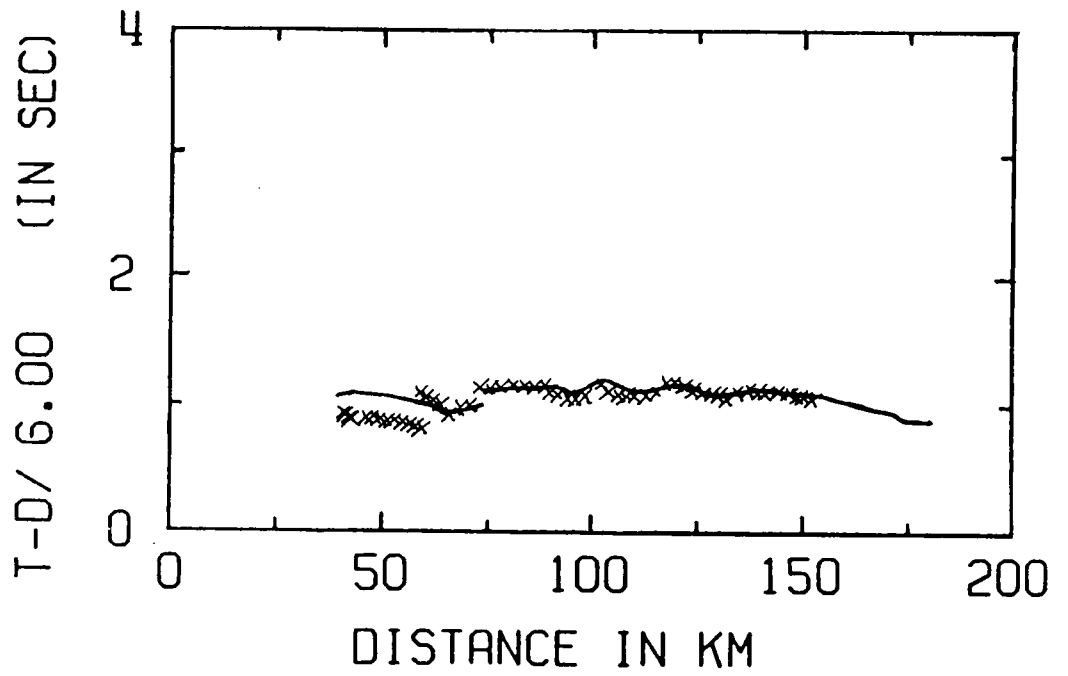


Fig. 6.5 Shallow geological and seismic structure beneath Line 1. The figures within the layers represent p-velocity in km s^{-1} .



LINE1 S54 PCP

Fig. 6.6

Shallow structure beneath Line 1 incorporating structure on the Lower Palaeozoic surface: station 54 BEAM87 ray diagram and travel times for Pg. Continuous line: calculated travel time; crosses: observed travel times; numbers within model: seismic p-velocities in km s^{-1} .

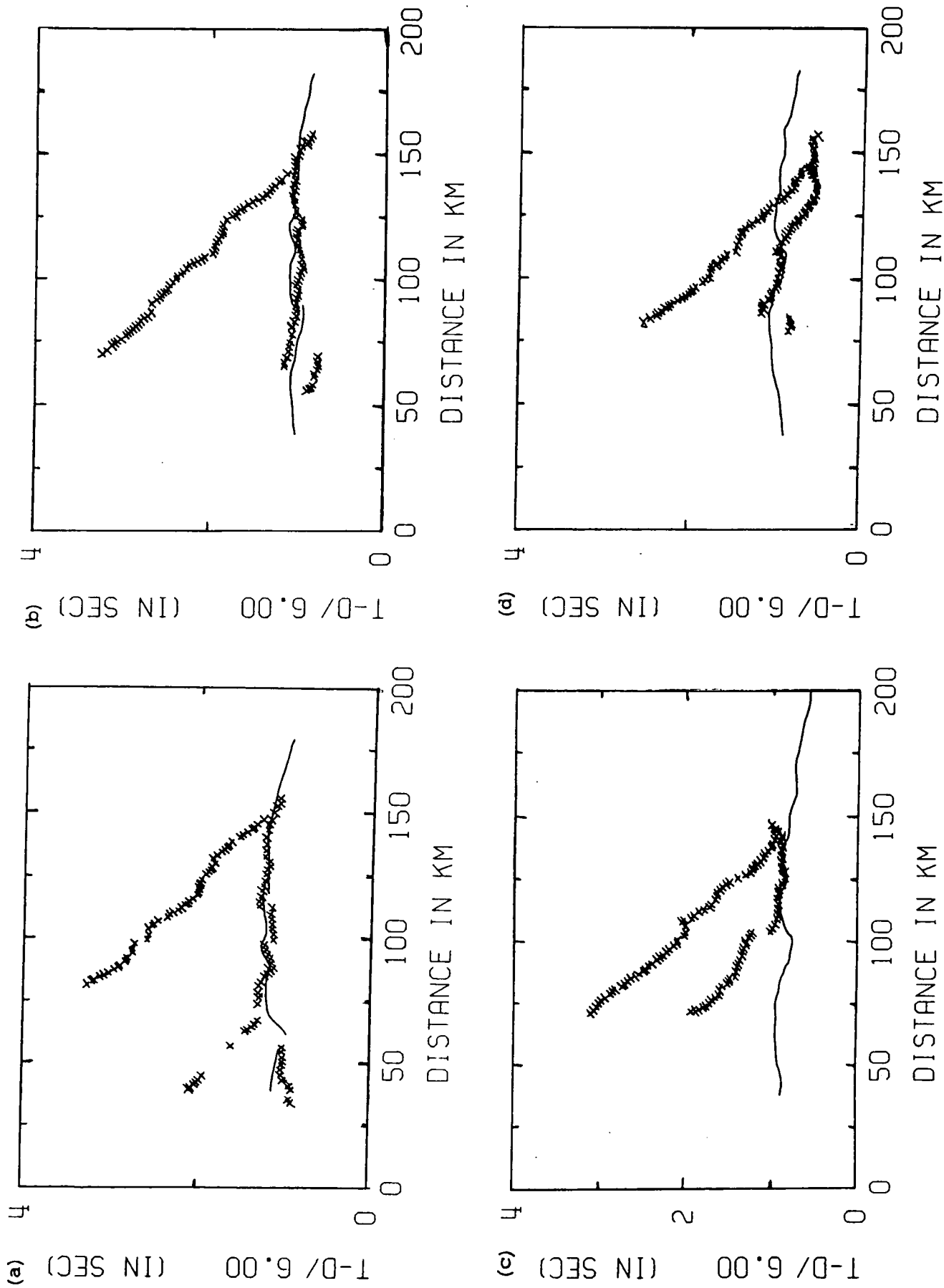


Fig. 6.7

BEAM87 travel time plots for computations of P_g at (a) station 57, (b) station 47, (c) station 40, (d) station 36. Continuous line: calculated travel time; crosses: observed travel times.

and 37) and other variations in near-surface geology which have not yet been modelled. Overall, the Pg fit for this shallow structure is adequate for modelling the deeper structure of the region, which is the main interest of this study.

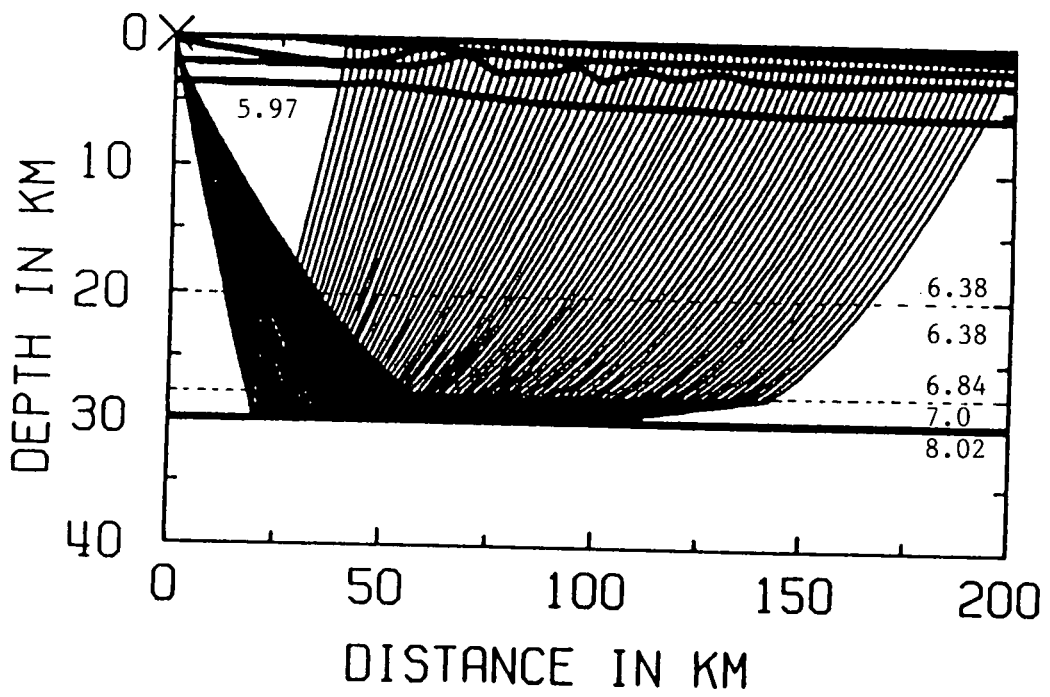
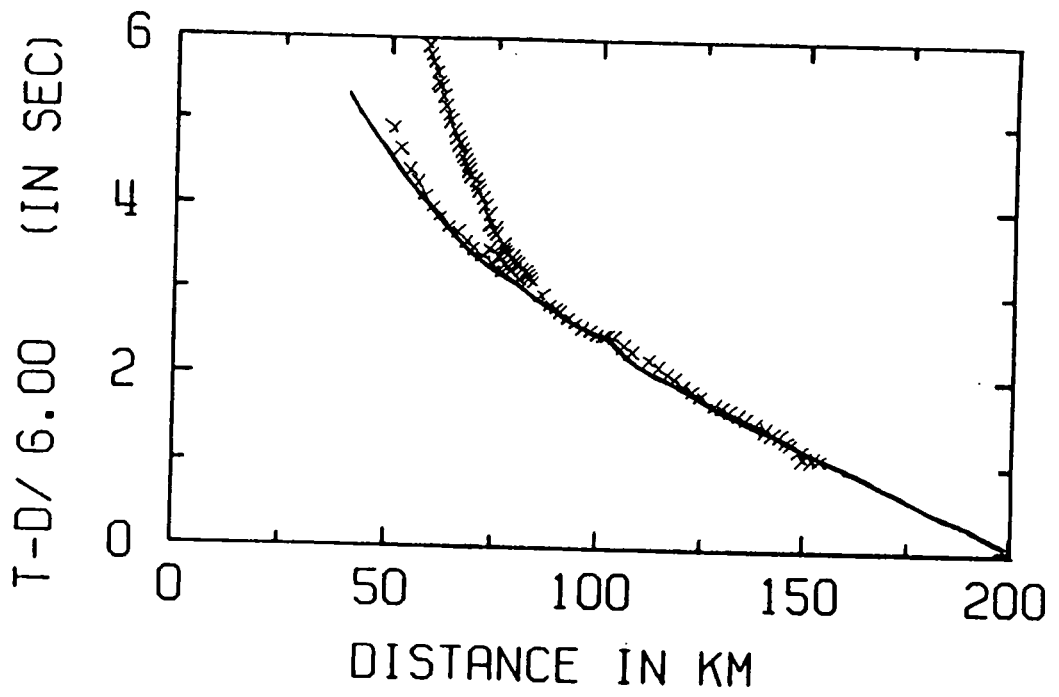
6.3.3 One-dimensional model

Further one dimensional modelling after correcting for the shallow structure concentrated on fitting PmP, the wide-angle reflection from the Moho, and attempting to explain Pg, while trying to keep the model as simple as possible.

The velocity gradients through the crust depicted in Fig. 6.4 fit the major part of the PmP travel time curve, but the steep part of the curve which occurs just before PmP merges with Pg at about 150 km offset, and the actual offset of the merge are not explained by these gradients alone (this steep part of the PmP travel time curve is not obvious on the record sections in Appendix C, but does become apparent on the smaller plots of the travel time picks, for example, Fig. 6.10). It was therefore necessary to include an extra layer of higher seismic velocity (7.0 kms^{-1}) at the base of the crust to fit this portion of the travel time graph. This model is shown in Fig. 6.8 with the computed travel time curve.

A synthetic seismogram section generated from this model is shown in Fig. 6.9. Transparency (i), a record section of the real data plotted to the same scale, is included here for comparison with the synthetic. The data section has 1 km trace spacing in order to facilitate correlation between traces; the synthetic section does not have a noise problem so it has only been plotted at 2 km spacing, and the amplitudes are much higher than those of the real data. The amplitudes of both sections are also clipped so that a direct comparison of amplitudes is not possible. The most important point of the comparison is the distance range over which maximum amplitudes occur and the amplitudes of different phases relative to each other, both of which may be studied in the sections presented here.

In this case, comparing Fig. 6.9 with the transparency, the maximum PmP and Pg amplitudes are observed over the same distance regions of both sections, so the synthetic appears to show reasonable agreement with the real data. It therefore provides a good starting model for the two-dimensional modelling described in the next section.

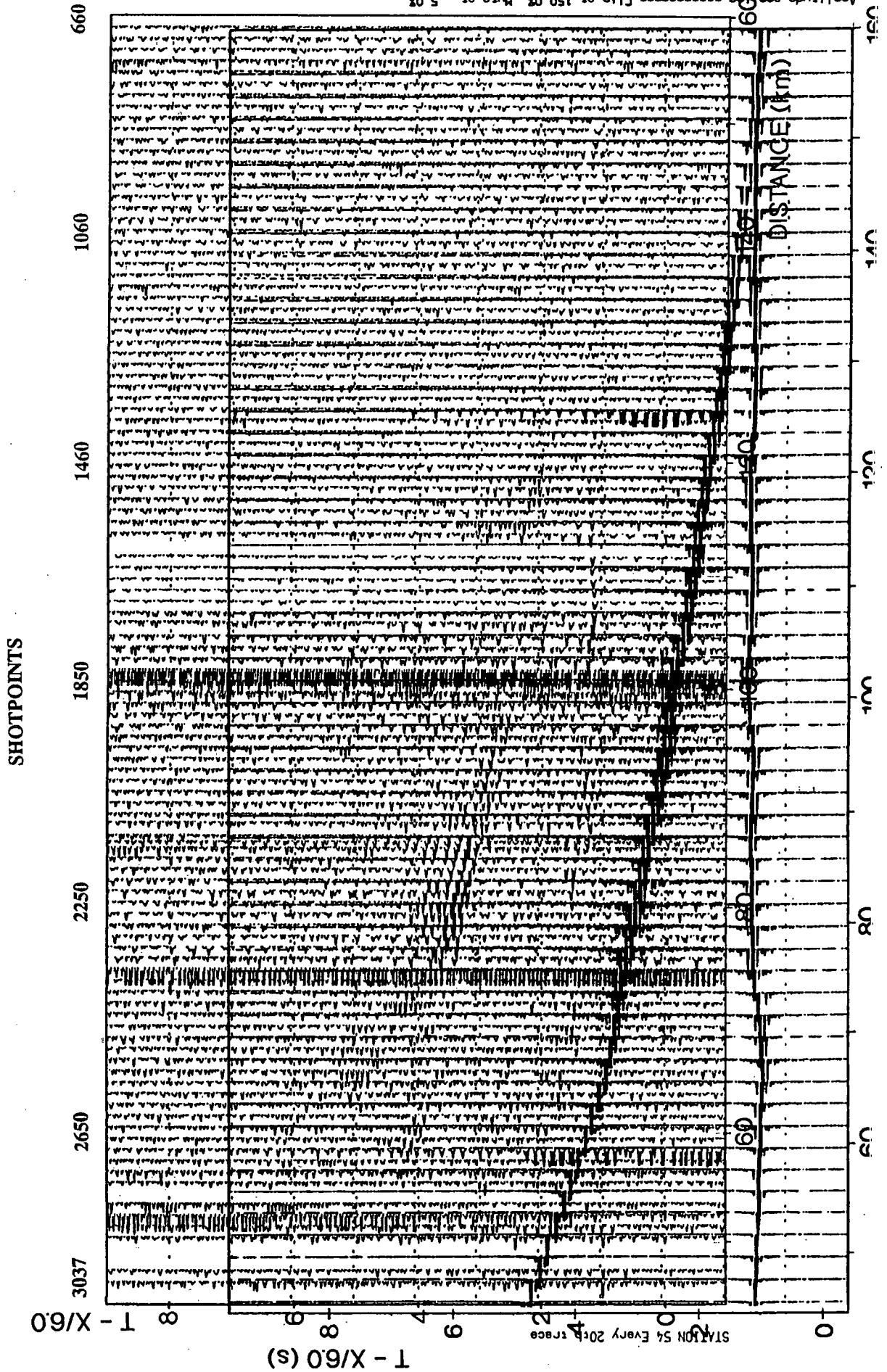


LINE1 S54 PMP + D

Fig. 6.8

BEAM87 ray diagram and travel times for PmP through final 1-D model, computed for station 54. Continuous line: calculated travel time; crosses: observed travel times; numbers within model: seismic p-velocities in km s^{-1} .

Amplitude scaling = 2.0000 Clip at 150.0% Rate at 30.0%



TATION 54 DATA SECTION FOR COMPARISON WITH SYNTHETIC SECTIONS (Section).

6.4 Two-dimensional seismic modelling

6.4.1 Introduction

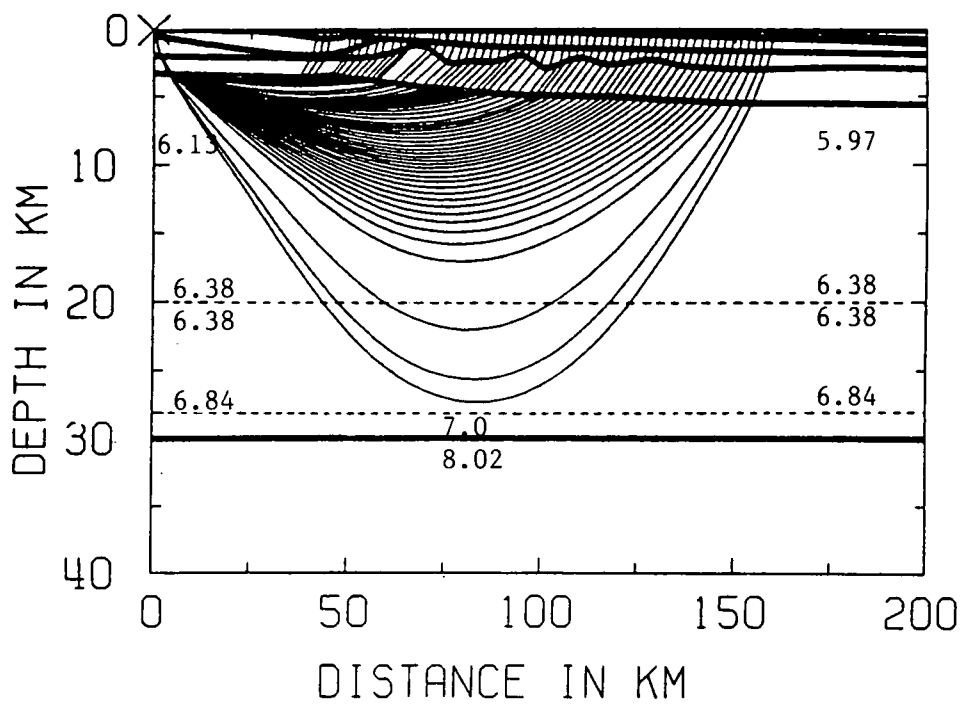
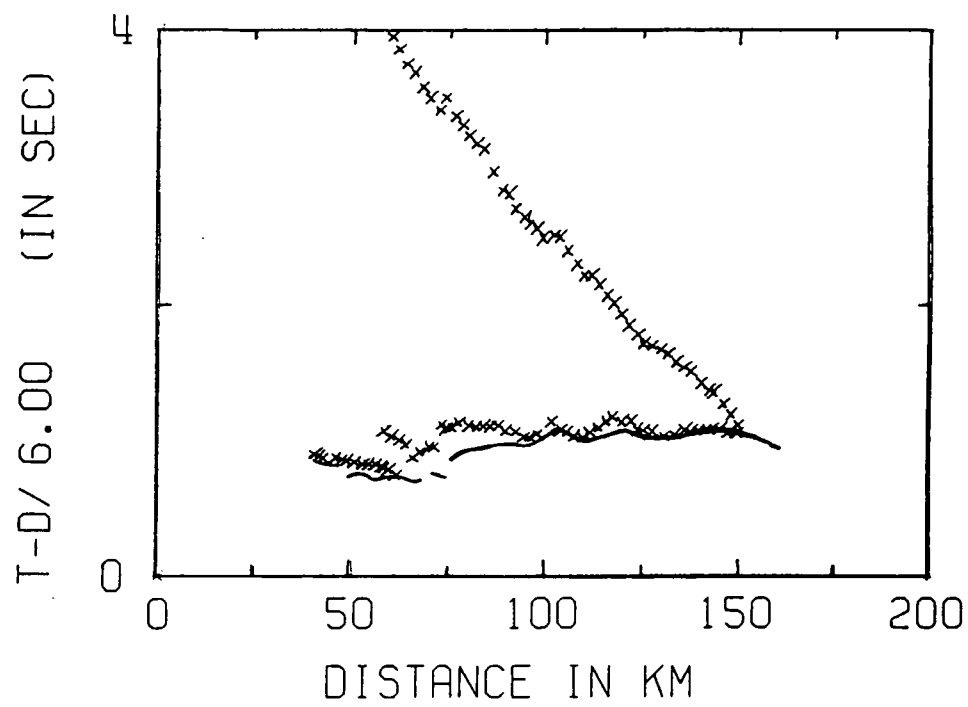
Serious departures of the one-dimensional synthetic section of Fig. 6.9 from the real data are seen in the lack of early Pg, Pn, or the phase D, none of which may be generated by this one-dimensional model. These arrivals dictated the course of the development of a laterally varying model, described below. Starting at the top, the first problem to be tackled was the fitting of the arrival Pg as far as possible (section 6.4.2). The next major phase to be tackled was D, the dominant arrival, and Pn (sections 6.4.3 and 6.4.4). The modelling of the wide-angle reflections from the mid-crustal region, including PcP (described in section 4.4.2) was undertaken last of all since these phases were picked with least confidence.

6.4.2 Pg modelling

Since it was known from the one-dimensional modelling that the initial Pg could be fitted by a basement velocity gradient starting at 6.05 kms^{-1} and at greater offsets by a gradient starting at 5.97 kms^{-1} , the logical conclusion, supported by the CSSP interpretation of Green(1984), is that there is a lateral change in velocity gradient which causes Pg to appear at first with the higher apparent velocity, then to become weaker and decrease in apparent velocity.

Initially, an attempt was made to represent this using the linear interpolation method of BEAM87, with an extra layer at the top of the basement containing a velocity gradient from 5.97 to 6.04 kms^{-1} , very thin on the western side of the model and thickening to the east. This might conceivably have worked with enough time spent on producing the right shape for the layer, but the better approach seemed to be to use the **bicubic spline** method of interpolation for the velocity structure within the layers, which enables the specification of seismic velocities in a grid within the layer and therefore allows for a lateral change in the velocity gradient without changing the shapes of the boundaries.

This approach was therefore adopted, concentrating as before on the records from station 54 to produce the model shown in Fig. 6.10. This comprises a vertical velocity gradient on the western side



LINE1 S54 PCP+PMP

Fig. 6.10 2-D model for station 54: BEAM87 ray diagram, and travel times for Pg. Continuous line: calculated travel time; crosses: observed travel times; numbers within model: seismic p-velocities in km s^{-1} .

from 6.13 kms^{-1} at the basement surface to 6.38 kms^{-1} at 20 km depth, which changes between 40 and 60 km offset to a vertical gradient from 5.97 kms^{-1} to 6.38 kms^{-1} over the same depth range. This produces the travel time fit shown in the figure. The fit is not good for the Pg travel times at offsets between 60 and 100 km, but at shorter offsets and beyond 100 km, it is adequate. Fitting this model to the records from stations 55 and 57 also produces a satisfactory travel time fit, so this model was accepted as the best one for the situation.

6.4.3 Arrivals D and Pn

The combination of the one-dimensional model with the upper crustal fit to Pg yielded a crustal velocity model which fitted the travel times for PmP, as observed at all stations, very well (Fig.6.11). The next problem was then modelling the strong phase D which has a very high seismic amplitude especially on the station 54 record section. As described in section 4.4, the travel times may be fitted excellently by those of a diffraction from a point on the Moho at about 60 km offset from station 54. However, a diffraction does not explain the high amplitude of the phase so it was necessary to consider other explanations.

The possible explanations considered in the course of the modelling process include:

- (a) a high velocity gradient at the base of the crust;
- (b) a dipping reflector just above the Moho, possibly corresponding to the truncation of the high-velocity slab at the base of the crust;
- (c) a dipping reflector in the upper mantle;
- (d) a lateral velocity change at the base of the crust;
- (e) a "step" of some sort on the Moho itself.

Some combinations of these possibilities were considered. First, (a) was discounted since this would produce the arrival D at the same offset at all the stations, which is not the case. Also, a gradient of sufficient strength to produce arrivals of the observed travel times does not then allow rays to travel through it to produce reflections from the Moho, PmP, or Pn, the refraction from the upper mantle.

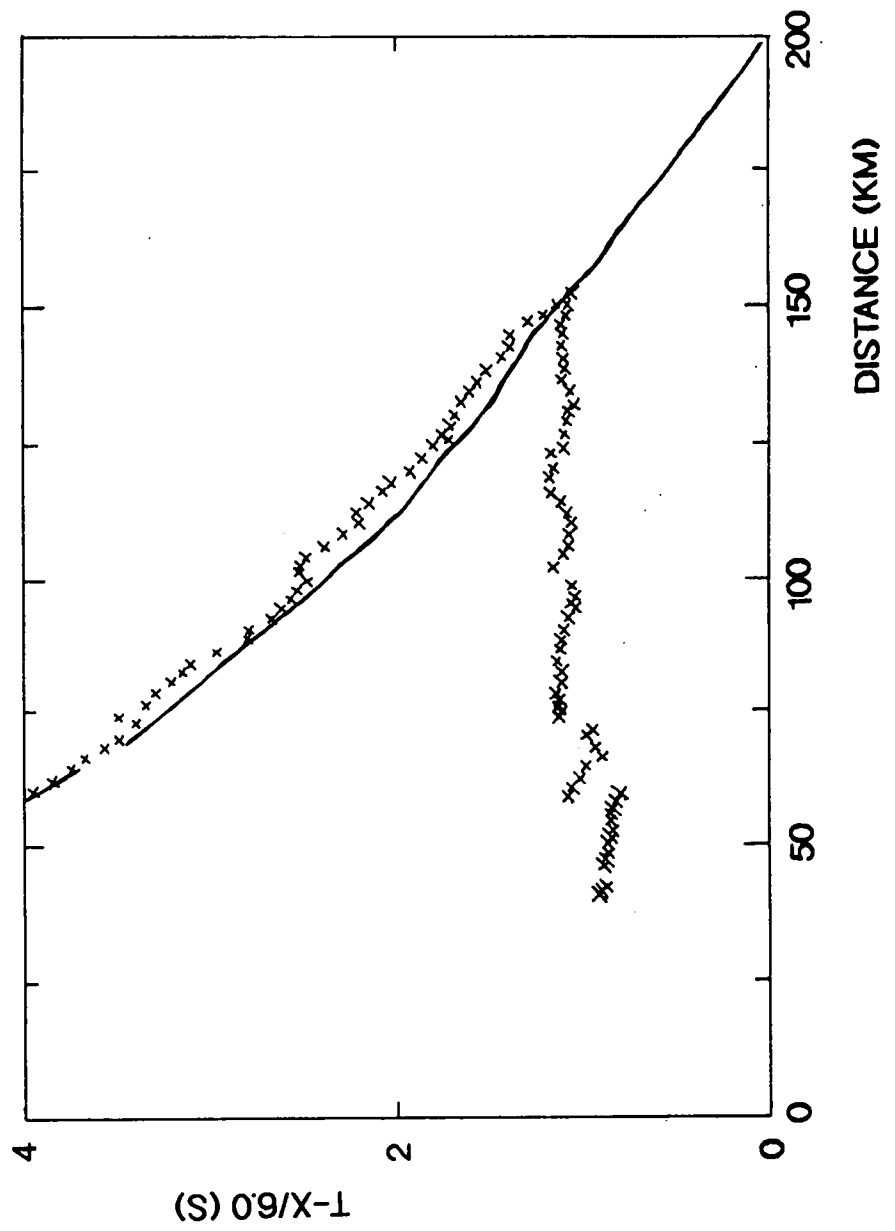


Fig. 6.11 BEAM87 PmP fit for 2-D model at station 54. Continuous line: calculated travel time; crosses: observed travel times.

Model (b) could have produced the appropriate arrivals to fit the travel times of D but without a high enough amplitude to be appropriate and some difficulty then arises in getting rays to penetrate the slab to produce PmP or Pn arrivals.

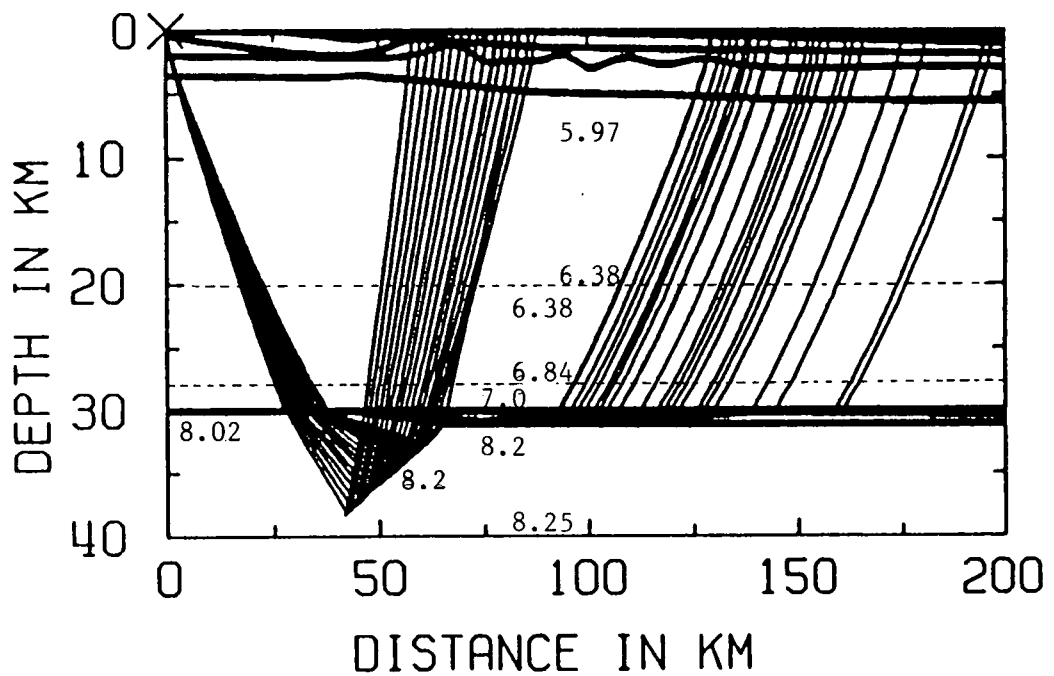
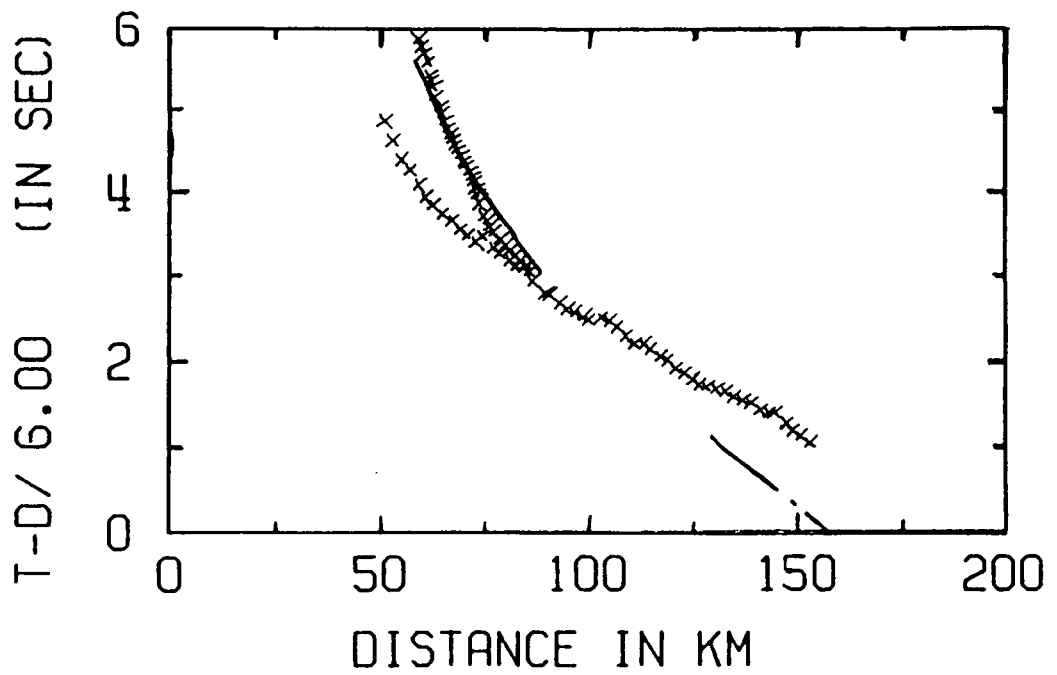
Model (c) was pursued further since this still enabled the production of wide-angle reflections from the Moho. It was also possible for this model to produce a good travel time fit to the observed PmP curve and Pn (Fig. 6.12). However, the synthetic seismogram produced by this model, shown in Fig. 6.13, shows a very poor amplitude for the reflection from the dipping reflector when compared with D on the transparency (i) of the data section. This model can generate one or two isolated rays of high amplitude immediately over the corner of the dipping slab but this is evidently not sufficiently high to affect the synthetic section of Fig. 6.13.

Model (d) cannot be defined by the bicubic spline interpolation method. To produce rays with travel times of a diffraction would require a very strong velocity gradient over a very narrow horizontal range, which would be very difficult to achieve unless a more accurate modelling package could be used.

The last option, (e), gave the most successful result overall. This is discussed in the next section.

6.4.4 A step on the Moho

Picking up the fact that the corner of the slab model (c) produced some high amplitude rays, model (e) incorporated a rigid step, with corner points defined for the edges. This produced the initial result shown in Fig. 6.14: two "pseudo-diffracted" arrivals which fit exactly onto the travel time curve for D, Moho wide-angle reflections for most of the section and Pn arrivals which fit the observed travel times excellently. A shadow zone is seen on the PmP ray diagram between 80 and 120 km offset due to the effect of the step on PmP rays. This effect is not observed on the real data and may be due to the bicubic spline velocity interpolation method distorting the seismic velocity field around the step, but the synthetic seismogram in Fig. 6.15 shows that BEAM87 has coped with this and does not produce a shadow zone on the record section. However, as seen on the synthetic seismogram, the amplitude of the "diffraction" is small (**highlighted**) and it does not increase towards PmP (as would be expected of a diffraction), showing that the arrivals are actually more specular reflections than they are diffractions.



LINE1 S54 PMP + D

Fig. 6.12 2-D model for D and Pn at station 54: BEAM87 ray diagram and travel times for dipping mantle reflector. Continuous line: calculated travel time; crosses: observed travel times; numbers within model: seismic p-velocities in km s^{-1} .

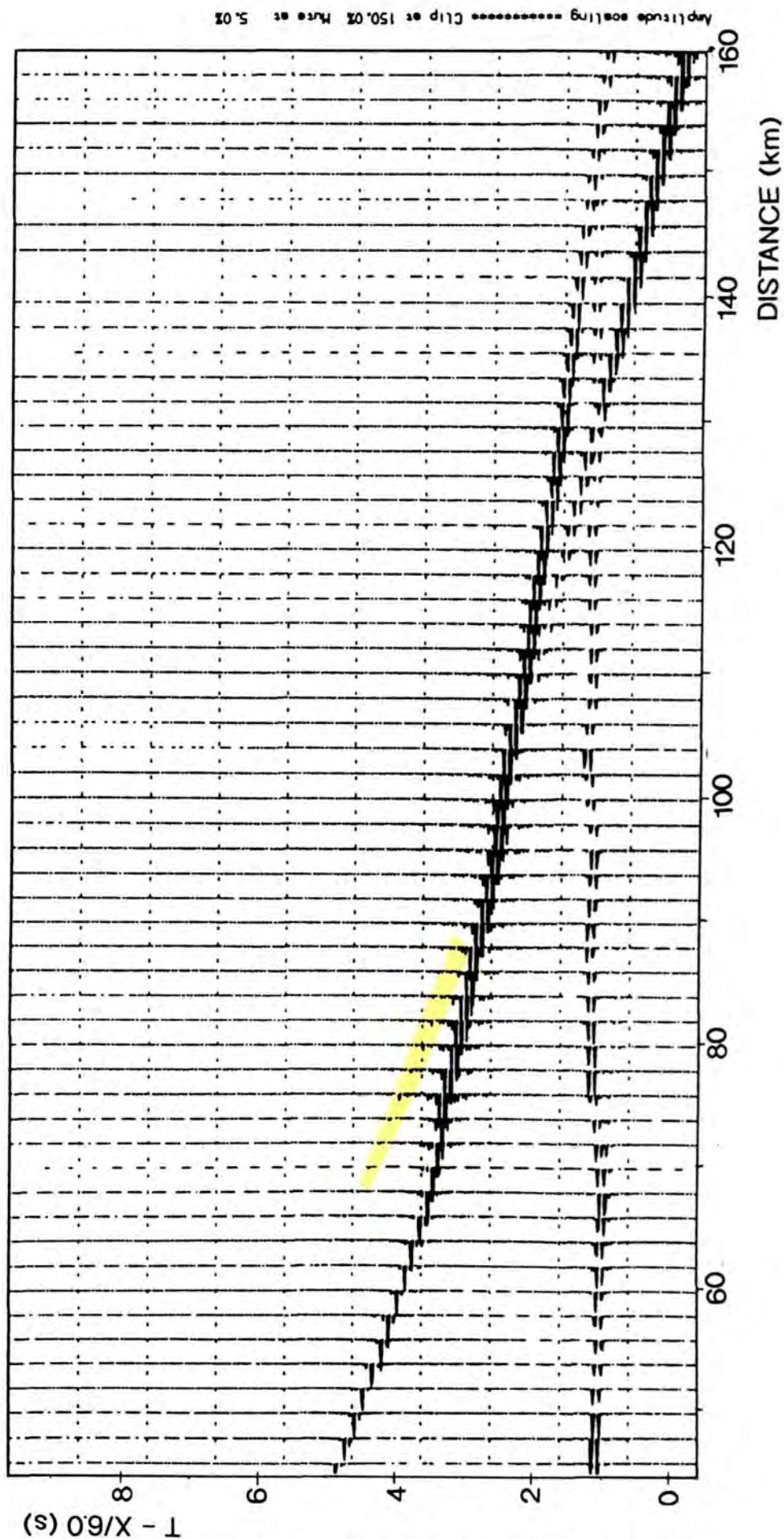
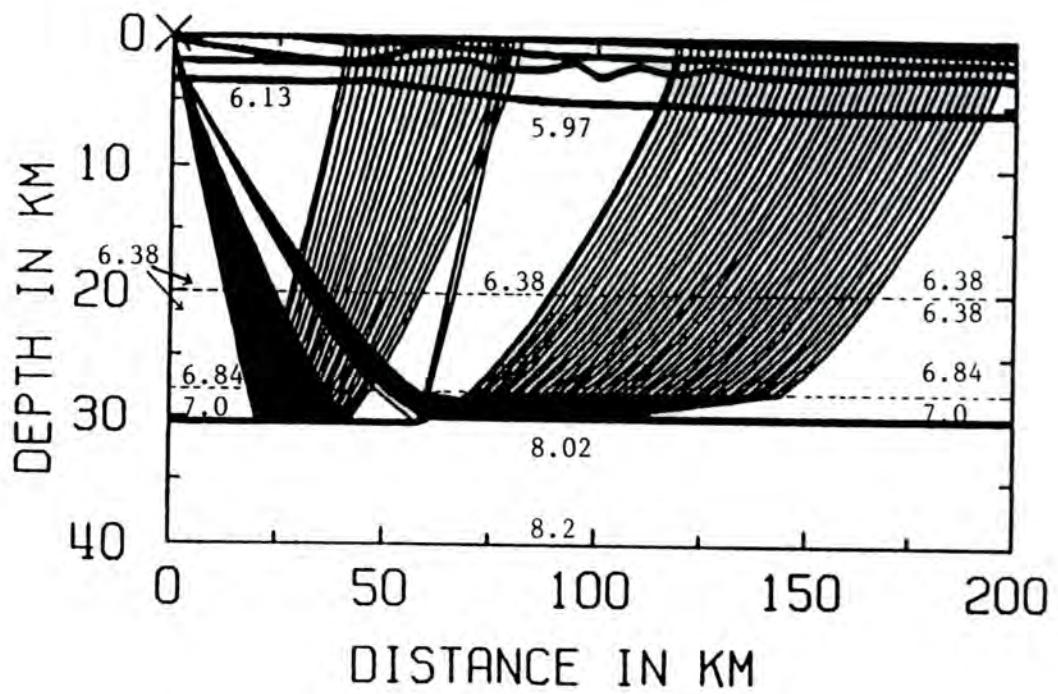
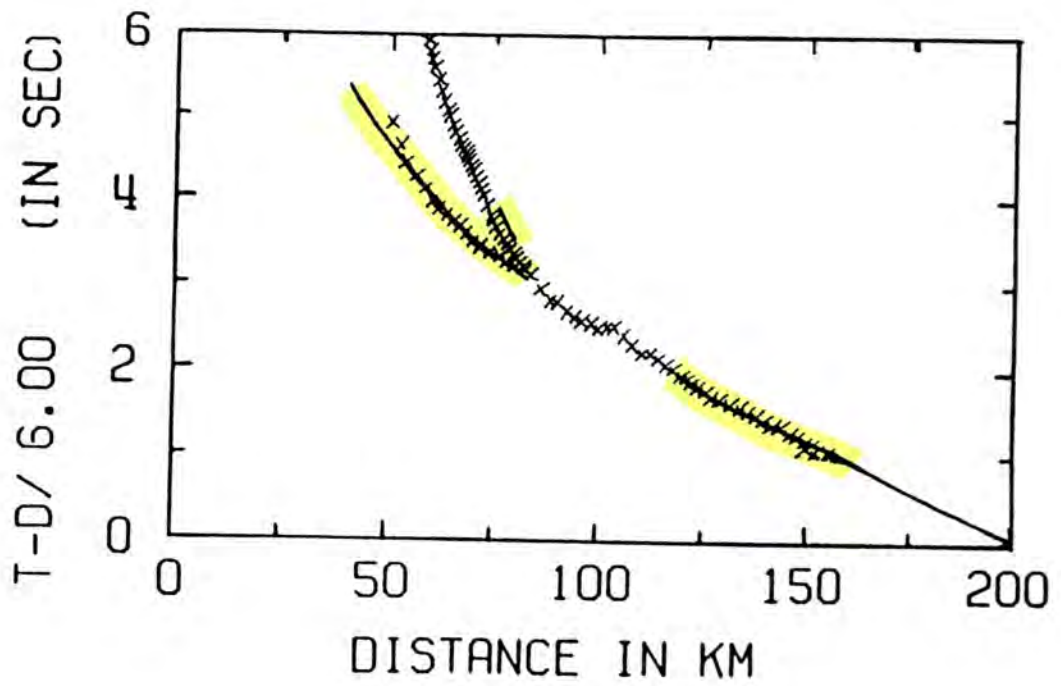
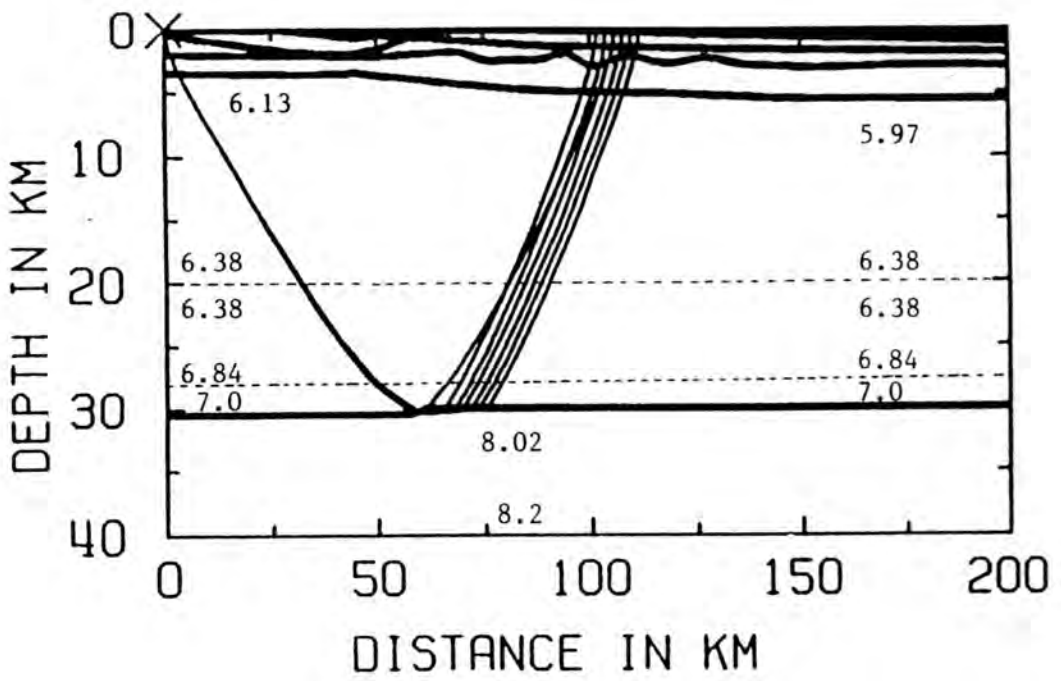
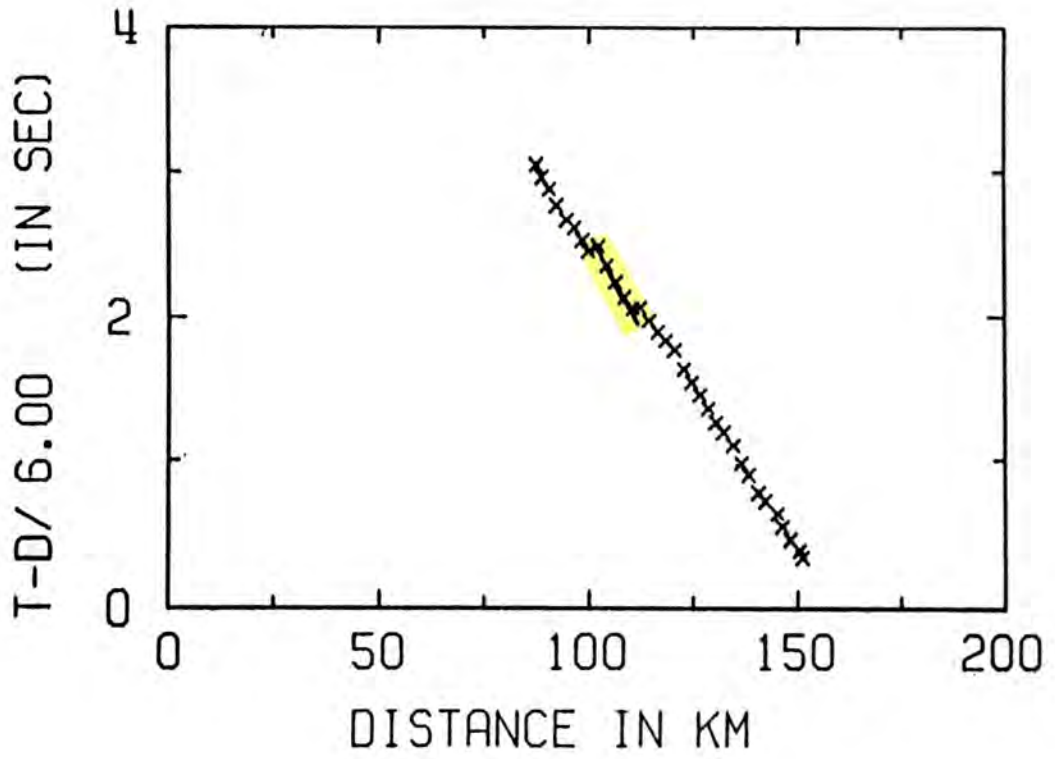


Fig. 6.13 Dipping mantle reflector model at station 54: BEAM87 synthetic seismogram (bicubic spline interpolation).



LINE1 S54 PMP + D

Fig. 6.14(a) 2-D model for D and PmP at station 54: BEAM87 ray diagram and travel times for "diffracting" Moho step. Continuous line: calculated travel time; crosses: observed travel times; numbers within model: seismic p-velocities in km s^{-1} .



LINE1 S54 PN

Fig. 6.14(b) 2-D model for Pn at station 54: BEAM87 ray diagram and travel times. Continuous line: calculated travel time; crosses: observed travel times; numbers within model: seismic p-velocities in km s^{-1} .

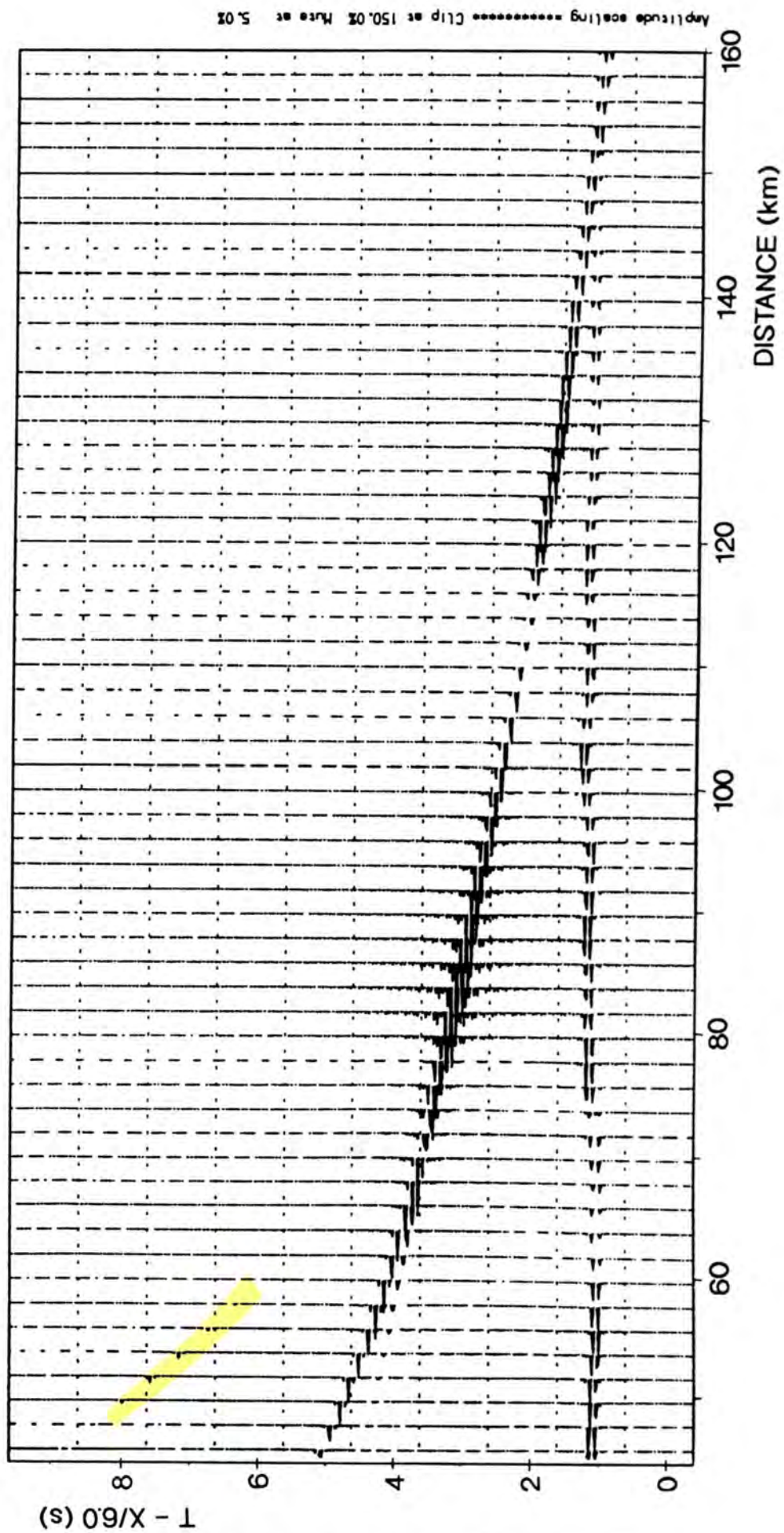


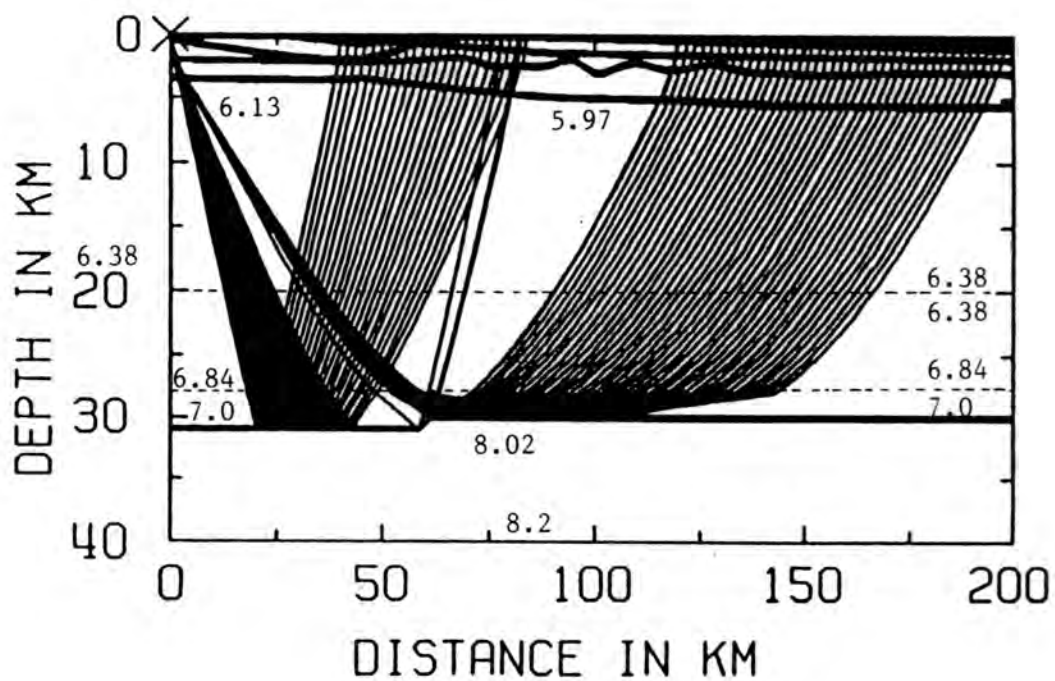
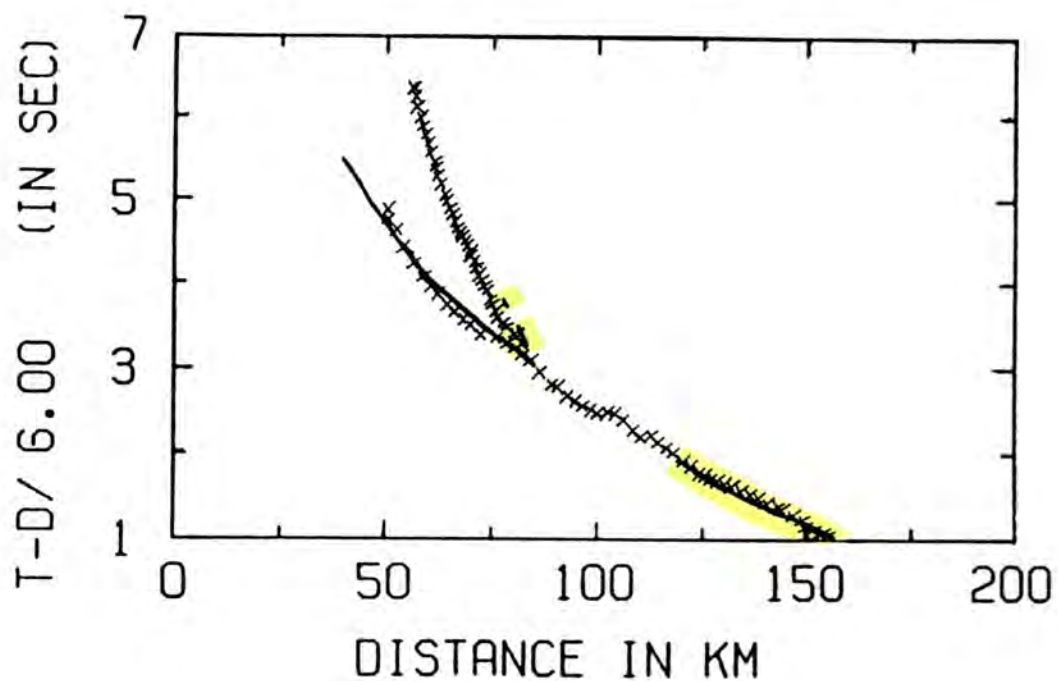
Fig. 6.15 2-D model for D and Pn at station 54: BEAM87 synthetic seismogram for "diffracting" Moho step. D is highlighted.

A further development of this model, to try to obtain "real" reflections from the sloping step, produced the model shown in Fig. 6.16, where three rays are seen to be reflected from the slope. In spite of producing yet another slightly narrower shadow zone as far as the Moho reflection is concerned, this does produce an arrival more like D on the synthetic section in Fig. 6.17. However, although Pn is also generated by this model, the amplitude of D is still far from high enough when compared with the data transparency (i).

The next step in the development of the model was to smooth the edges of the step slightly, both to make the step more realistic and to attempt to increase the amplitude of the reflections from it. The result was very successful. The ray diagram and travel time plot for this model, computed at station 54, may be seen in Fig. 6.18. In this model, the rays which produce the arrival D are reflected from the curved part of the step on the Moho, as shown in the blown-up plot in Fig. 6.19. The ray diagram plotting routine RAYPLOT does not actually manage to draw the true shape of the step at this scale, producing a straight sloping step instead, but the true shape of the boundary is seen in the location of the reflection points.

As seen from these plots, the travel time fit for station 54 is excellent for D, Pn and PmP although the PmP arrivals are not reflected from the top part of the step when the bicubic spline method of velocity interpolation is used. However, the amplitude of the phase D is very high at the same offset where it is highest on the record sections from station 54. The synthetic seismogram section from this model, using the bicubic spline method, is shown in Fig. 6.20. The section is the best synthetic section yet due to the high amplitude of D, the generation of Pn (although the amplitude of Pn beyond 140 km offset is rather higher than that of the observed), the upper crustal arrival and the high energy in the seismograms between 75 and 90 km offset, which is also observed in the data transparency.

The two main weaknesses with the section are that PmP does not continue beyond about 110 km offset, and the amplitude of the Pg phase. The lack of PmP beyond 110 km offset is very likely to be due to the bicubic spline interpolation method for the velocity representation within the model, rather than a real result for the velocity distribution represented. The computed Pg amplitude is similar to the pattern of the observed amplitudes but differs slightly in that the higher apparent velocity of the phase continues



LINE1 S54 PMP + D

Fig. 6.16 2-D model for D and Pn at station 54: BEAM87 ray diagram and travel times for reflecting Moho step. Continuous line: calculated travel time; crosses: observed travel times; numbers within model: seismic p-velocities in km s^{-1} .

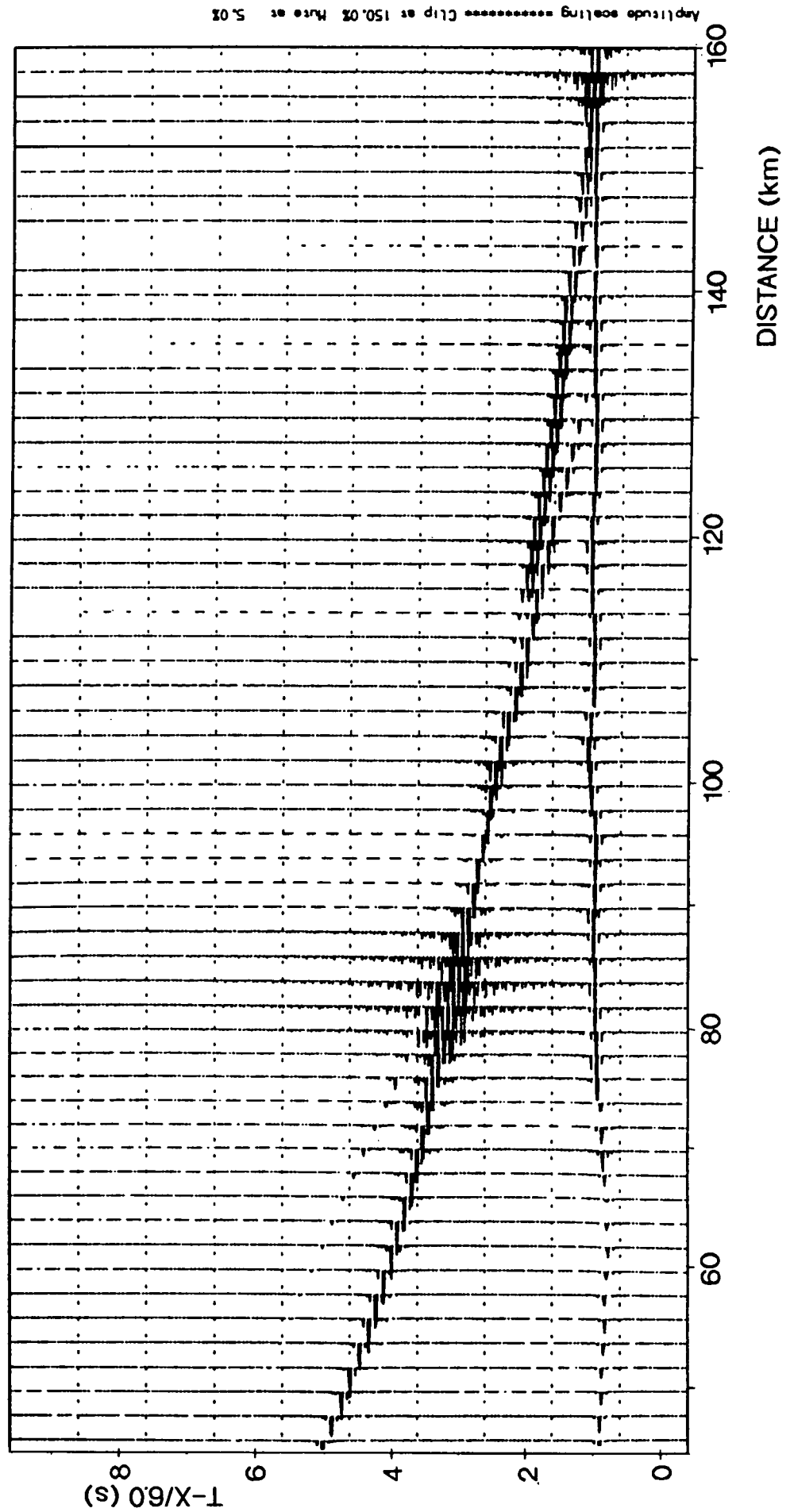
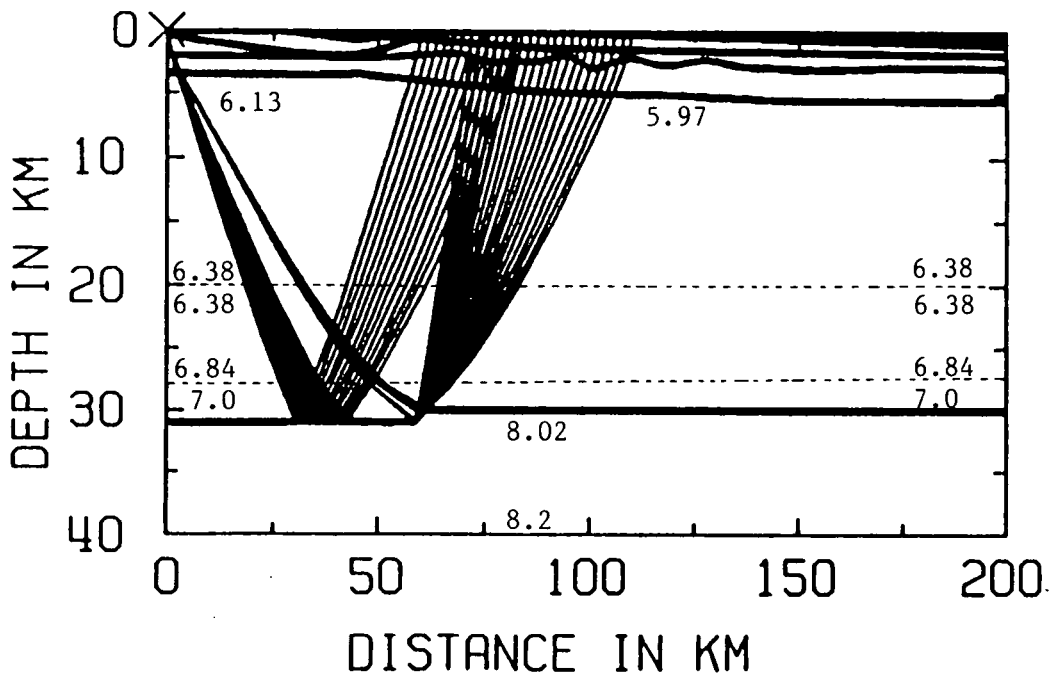
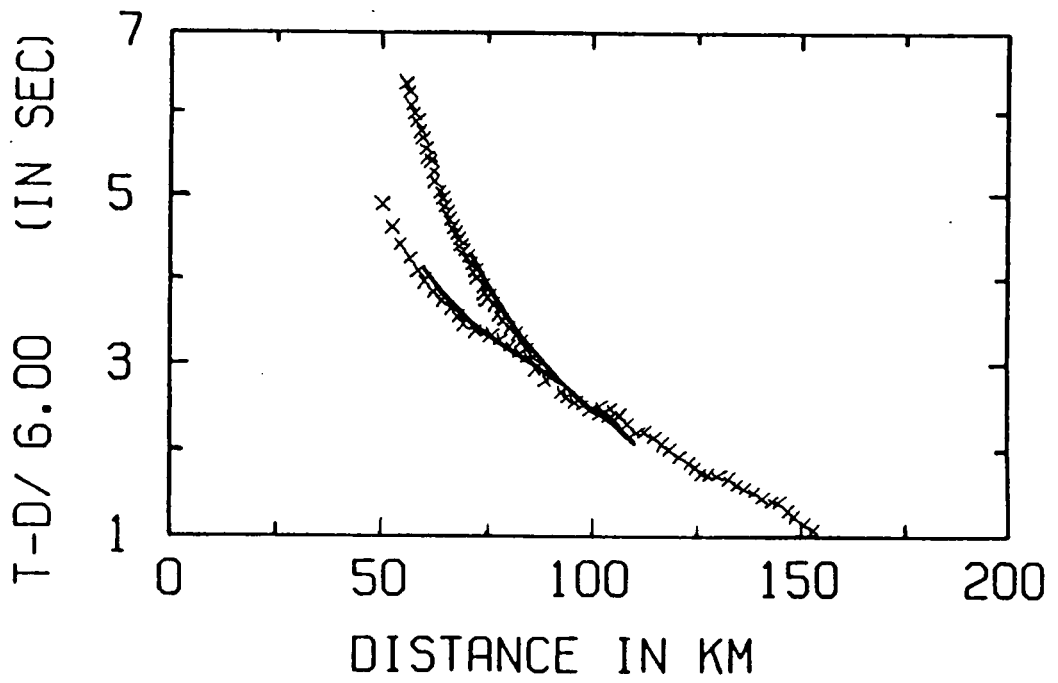


Fig. 6.17 Reflecting Moho step model at station 54: BEAM87 synthetic seismogram (bicubic spline interpolation).



LINE1 S54 PMP + D

Fig. 6.18 2-D model for D and Pn at station 54: BEAM87 ray diagram and travel times for curved Moho step. Continuous line: calculated travel time; crosses: observed travel times; numbers within model: seismic p-velocities in km s^{-1} .

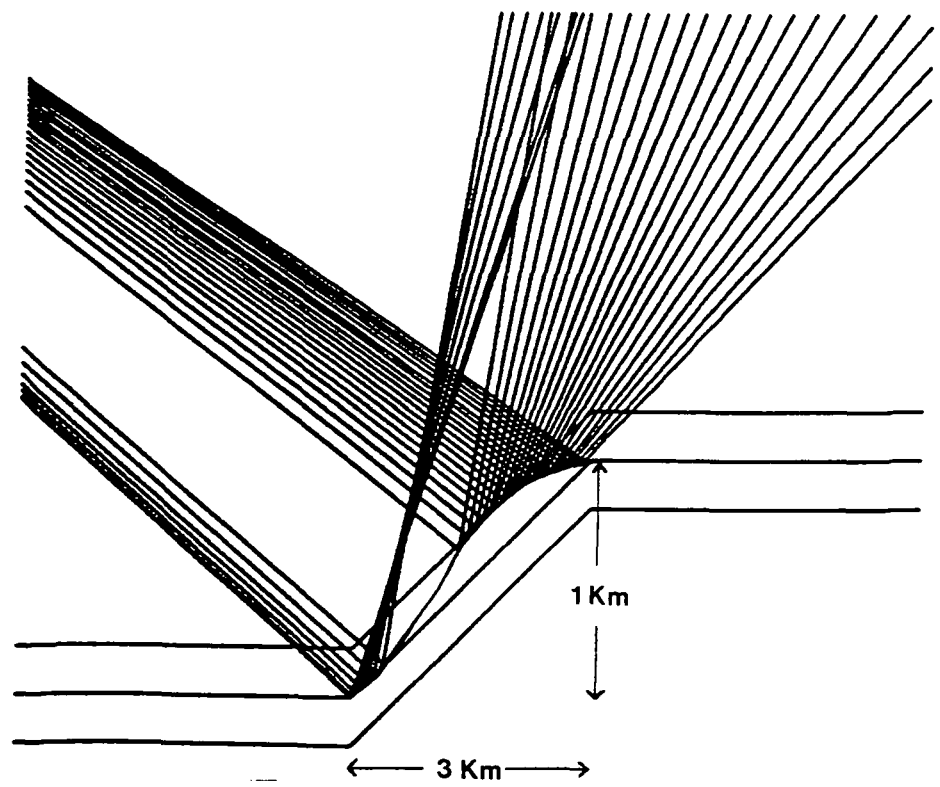
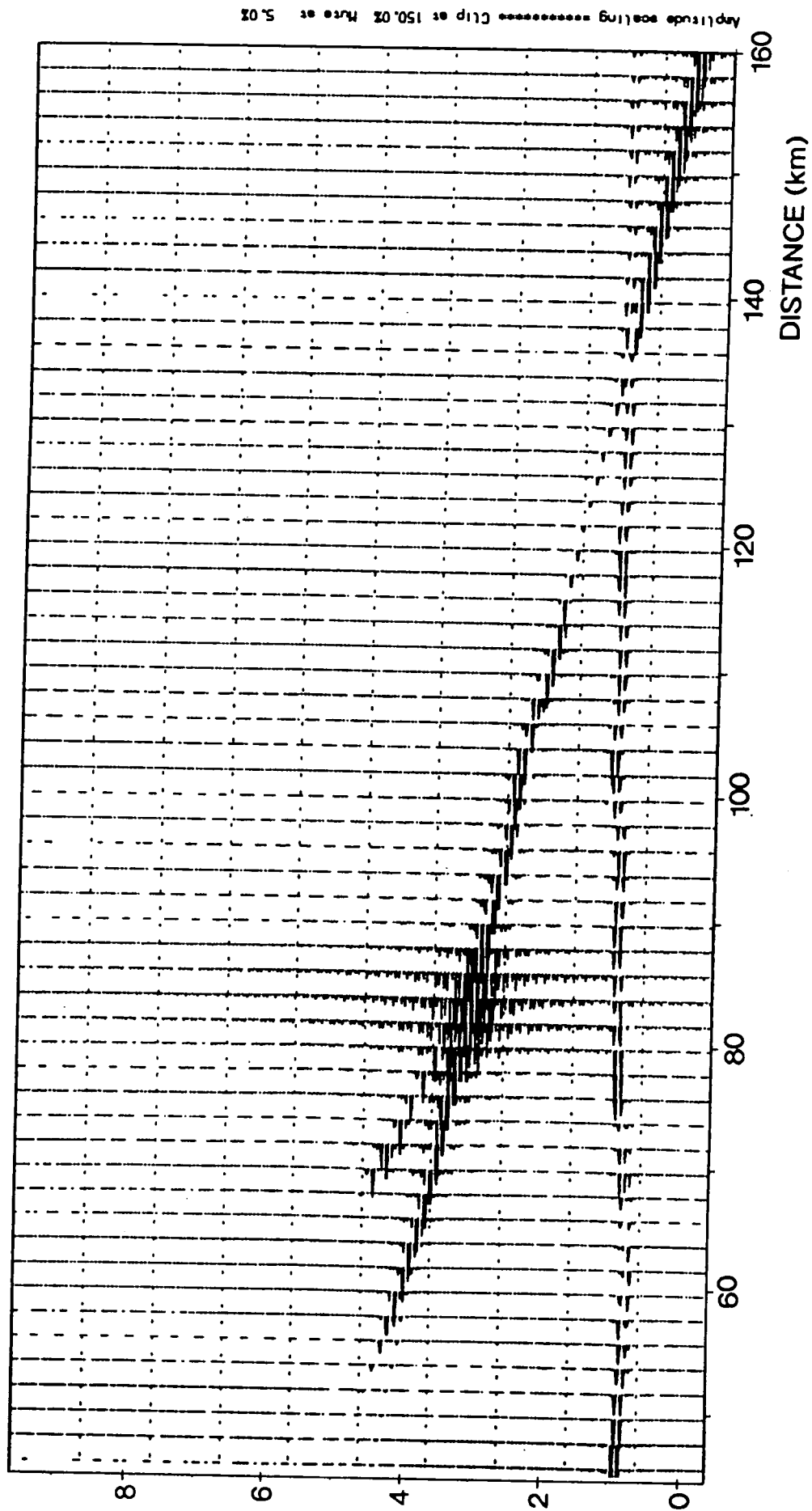


Fig. 6.19 Blown-up plot of curved Moho step



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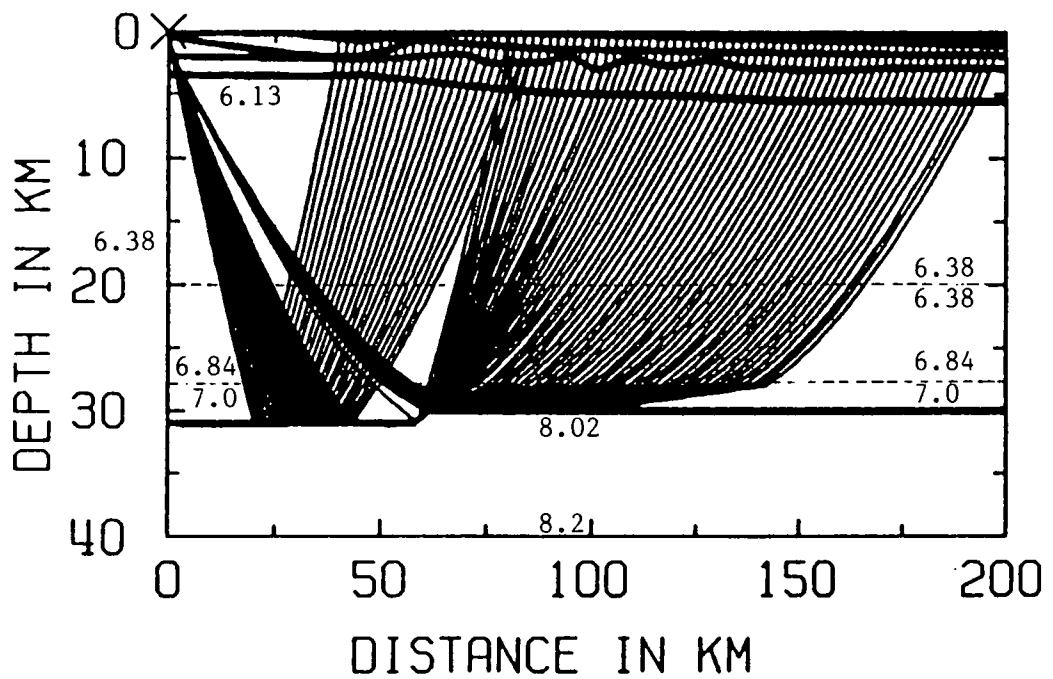
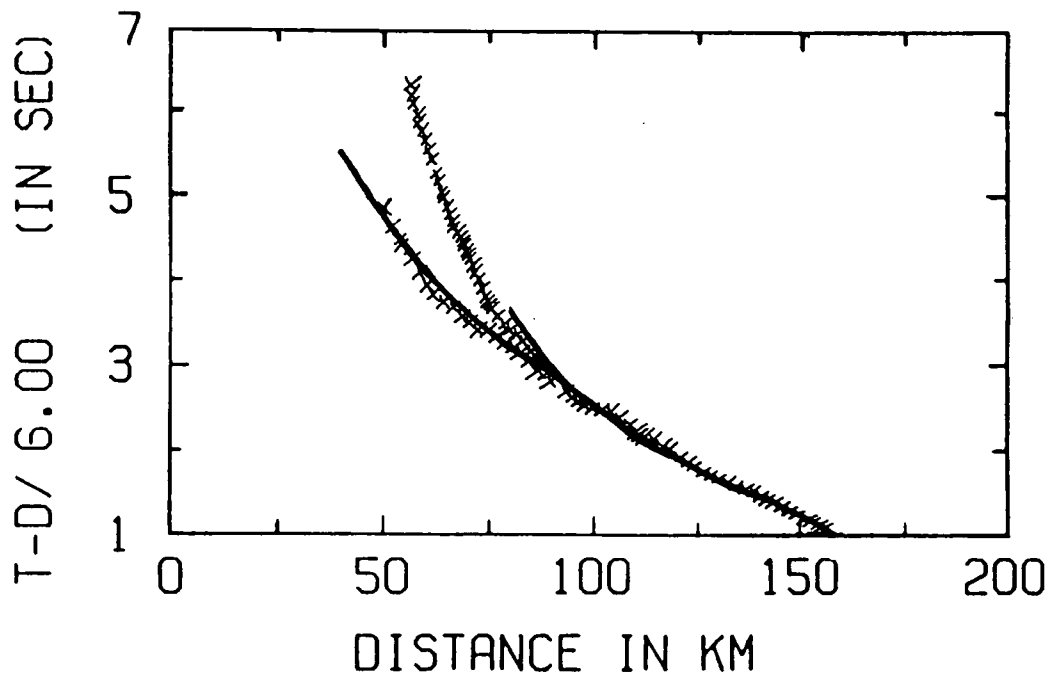
Fig. 6.20 2-D model with curved Moho step at station 54: BEAM87 synthetic seismogram computed using the bicubic spline interpolation method.

at a high amplitude too far, and at greater offsets this phase has far too high an amplitude by comparison with PmP.

An execution of this model using the linear interpolation method of BEAM87 was also attempted in order to obtain an idea of the dependence of the model results on the interpolation method itself. This meant that the lateral velocity change in the upper crust modelled by the bicubic spline method could not be represented so the travel time fit for the upper crustal phase is not so good. However, this made surprisingly little difference to the travel time fit of PmP, D and Pn. The ray diagrams, travel time plots and synthetic seismogram are shown in Figs. 6.21 and 6.22. This method also produces an amplitude for D comparable to that of PmP, although the high energy region on the section from the bicubic spline method section is not evident here. PmP is produced across the whole section, which implies that it must have been the use of the bicubic spline method for velocity representation which prevented the generation of PmP rays east of the step in Fig. 6.18.

Applying this model to all the stations, it was only possible to compute seismograms through the model using the bicubic spline interpolation method for stations 54, 55 and 57. The failure of the program to shoot rays through the bicubic spline model at the other stations may be due to the bicubic spline representation of the shallow velocity structure, which features the edge of the outcrop of the upper Carboniferous.

However, stations 55 and 57 show reasonable agreement between computed and observed arrivals. Figs. 6.23 and 6.24 show the ray diagrams and travel time plots for stations 55 and 57, in which it can be seen that the PmP and D travel time fits are good. As at station 54, PmP is not computed east of the Moho step, again probably due to the bicubic spline velocity interpolation producing spurious gradients in this region. However, Pn is not generated by the model for either station, although it is seen on the data sections and the reason for this discrepancy could not be found. The upper crustal arrival is fitted very well at station 57 but differs slightly from the travel time picks of station 55. The travel time picks may not be exact since the station 55 records are the least clear of the whole dataset. The synthetic seismogram in Fig. 6.25, computed for station 57, seems to compare well with the actual section from



LINE1 S54 PMP + D

Fig. 6.21 2-D model for D and Pn at station 54: BEAM87 ray diagram and travel times for curved Moho step using the linear interpolation method. Continuous line: calculated travel time; crosses: observed travel times; numbers within model: seismic p-velocities in km s^{-1} .

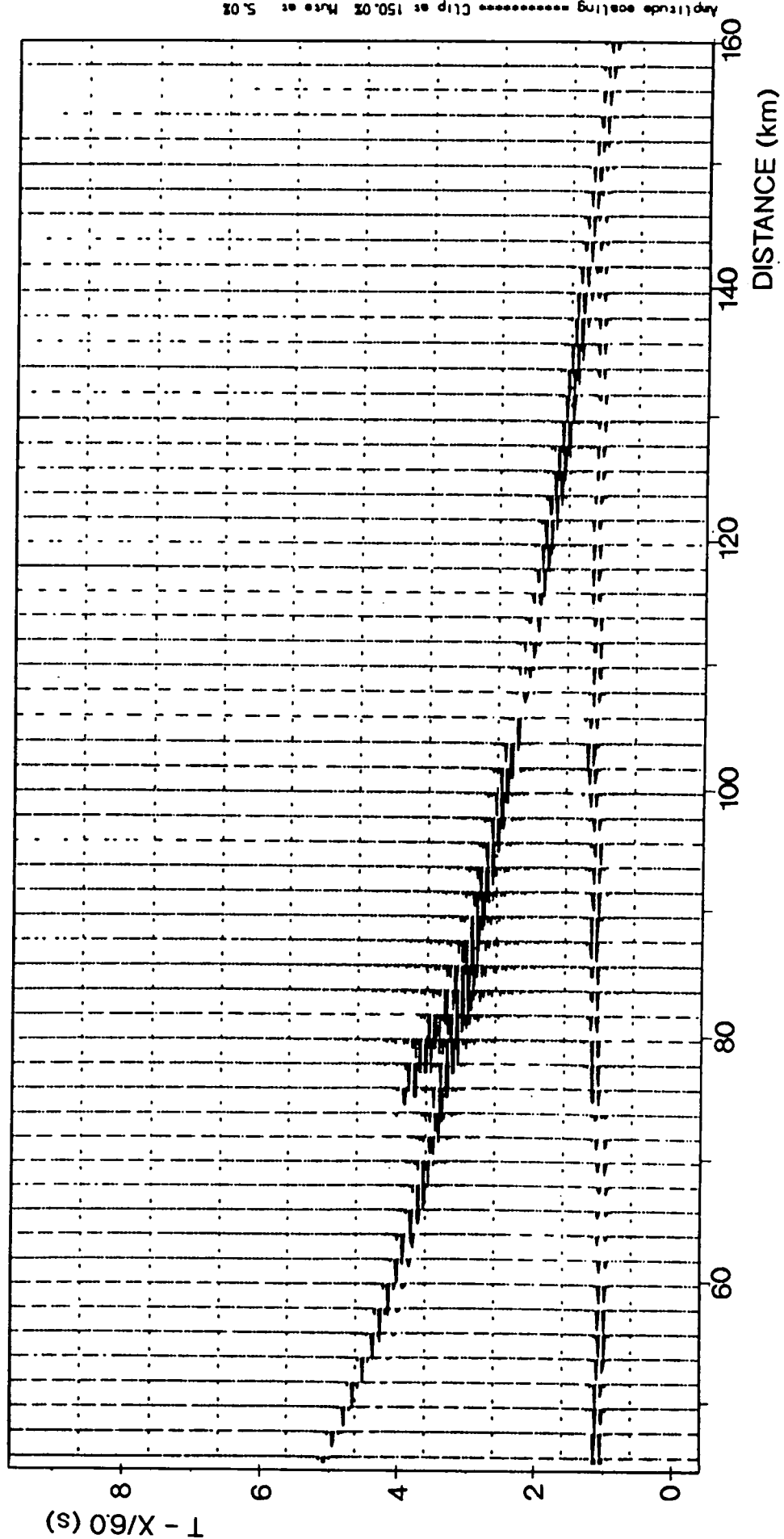
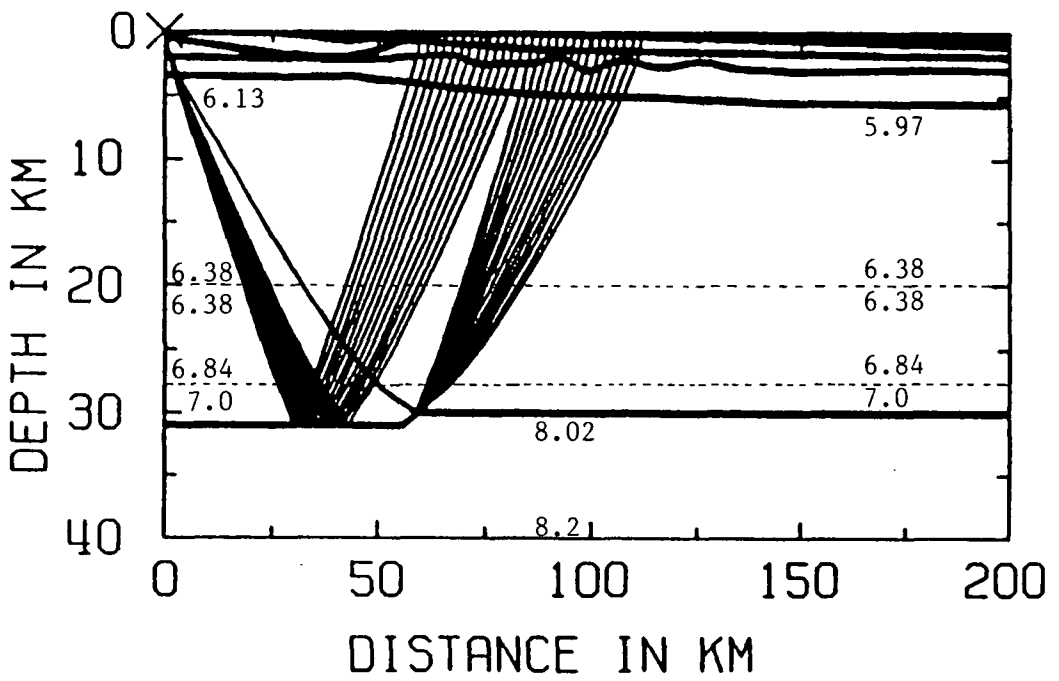
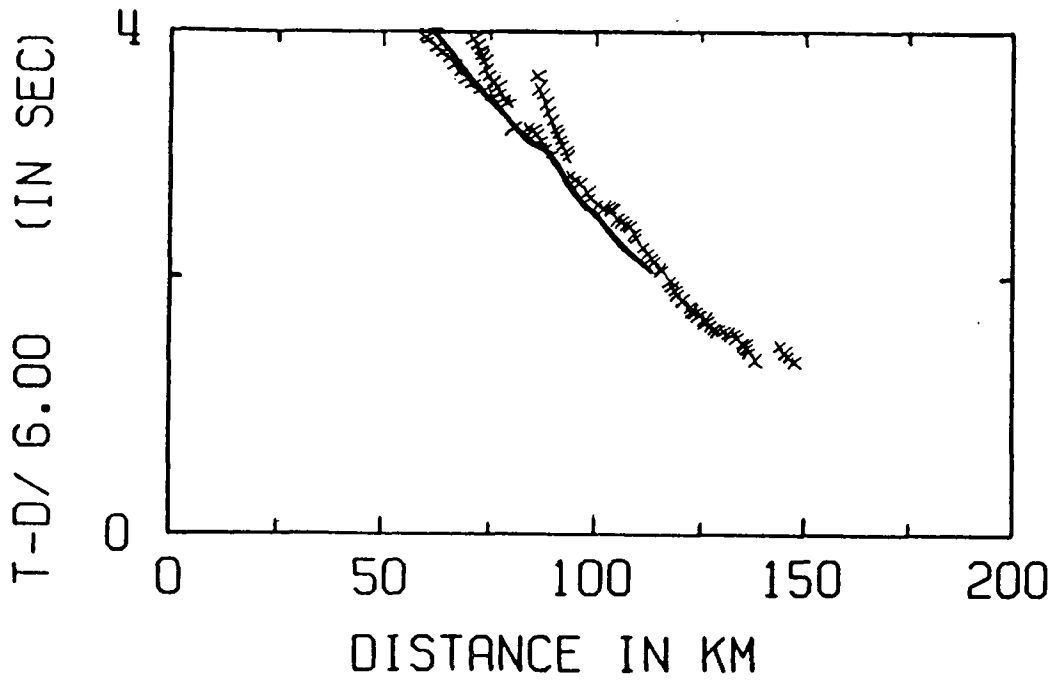
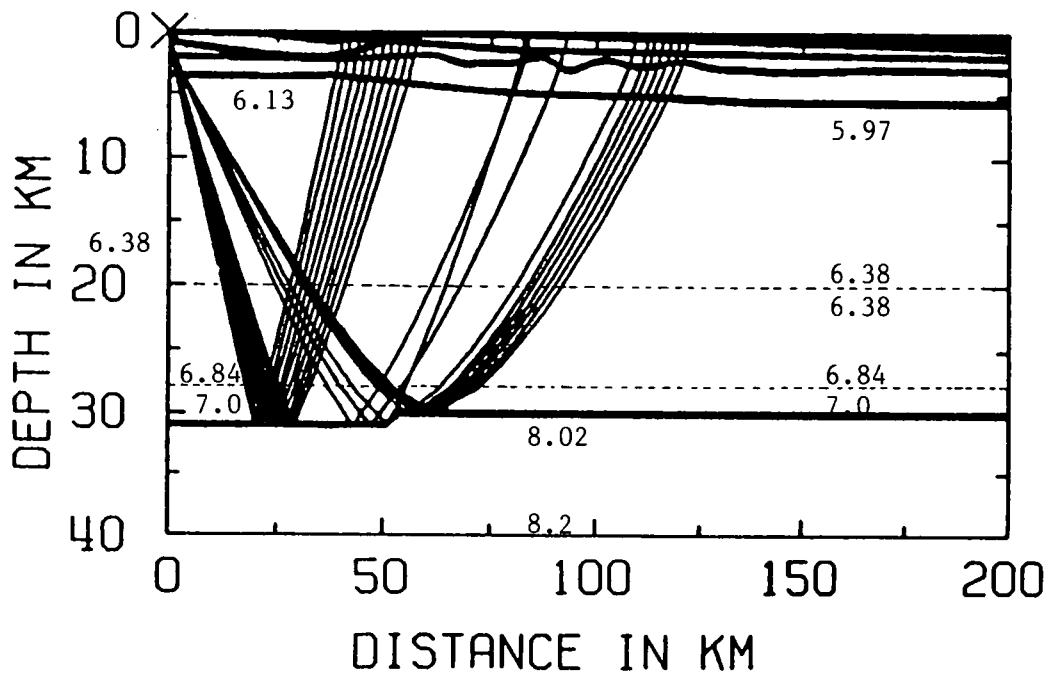
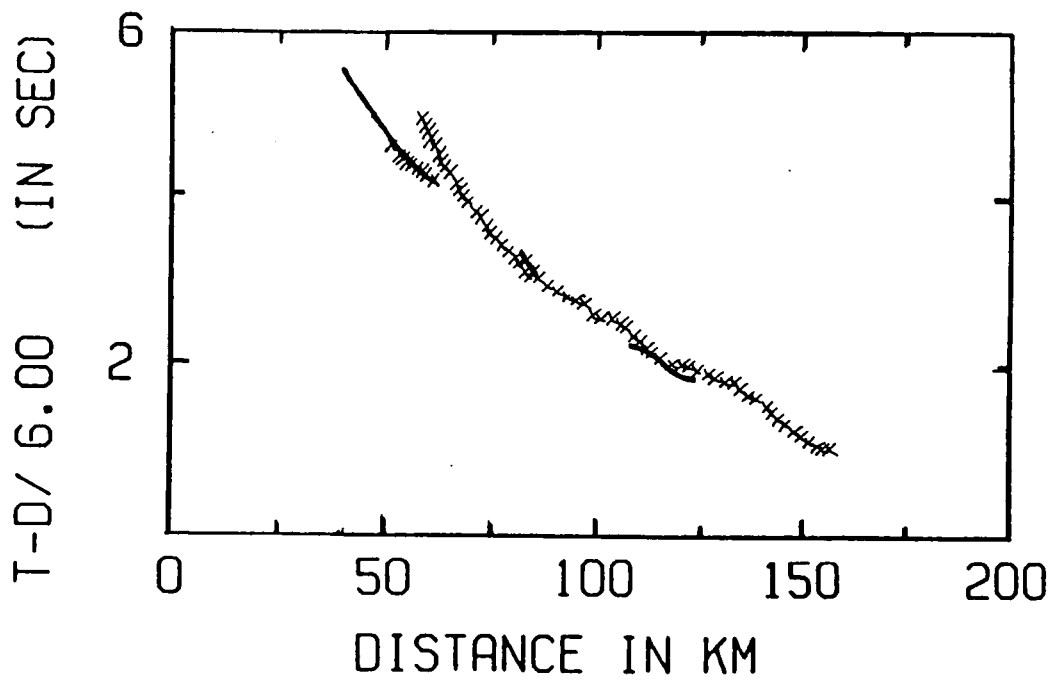


Fig. 6.22 2-D model with curved Moho step at station 54: BEAM87 synthetic seismogram computed using the linear interpolation method.



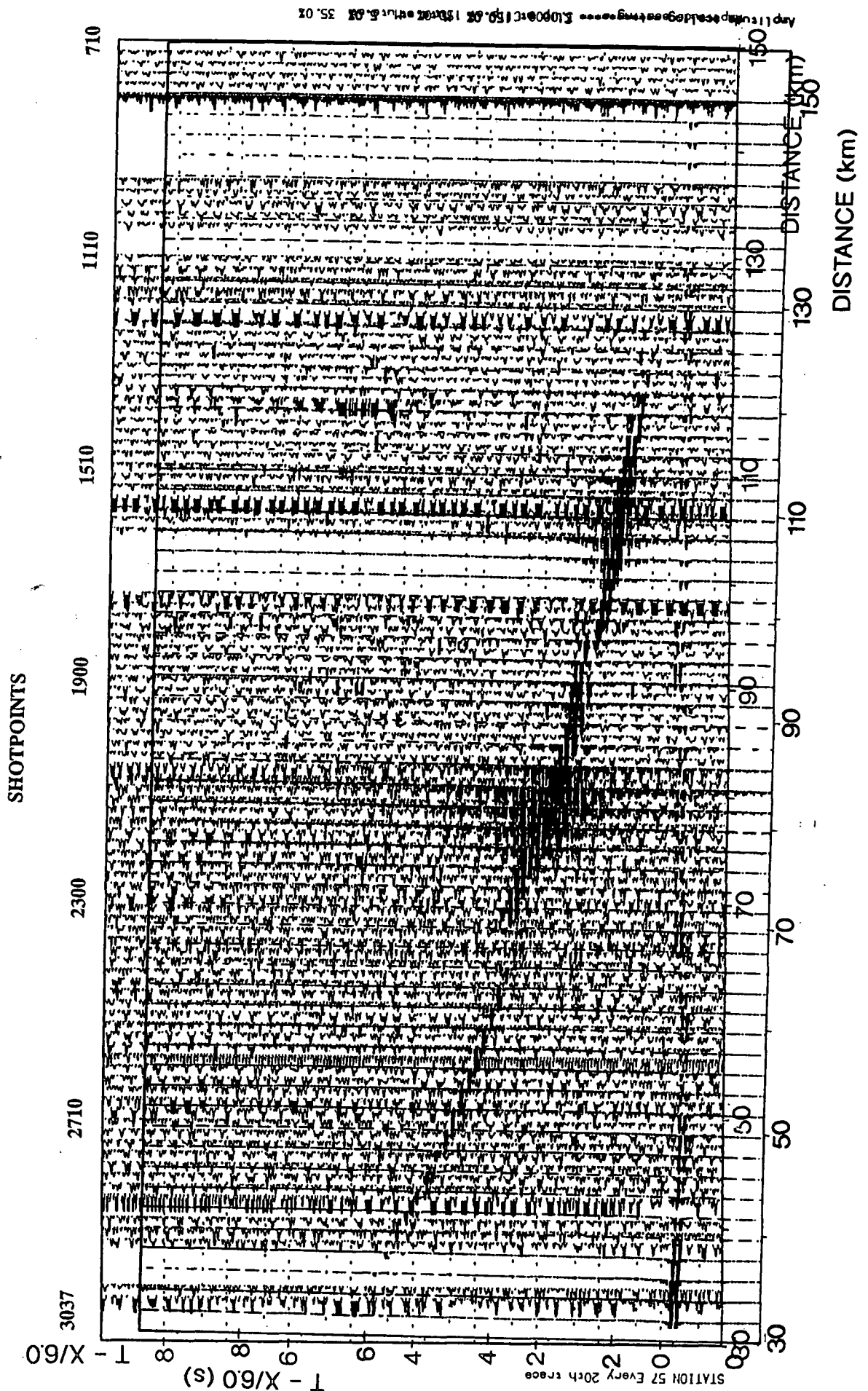
LINE1 S55 PMP + D

Fig. 6.23 Curved Moho step model at station 55: BEAM87 ray diagram and travel times (bicubic spline interpolation). Continuous line: calculated travel time; crosses: observed travel times; numbers within model: seismic p-velocities in km s^{-1} .



LINE1 S57 PMP + 0

Fig. 6.24 Curved Moho step model at station 57: BEAM87 ray diagram and travel times (bicubic spline interpolation). Continuous line: calculated travel time; crosses: observed travel times; numbers within model: seismic p-velocities in km s^{-1} .



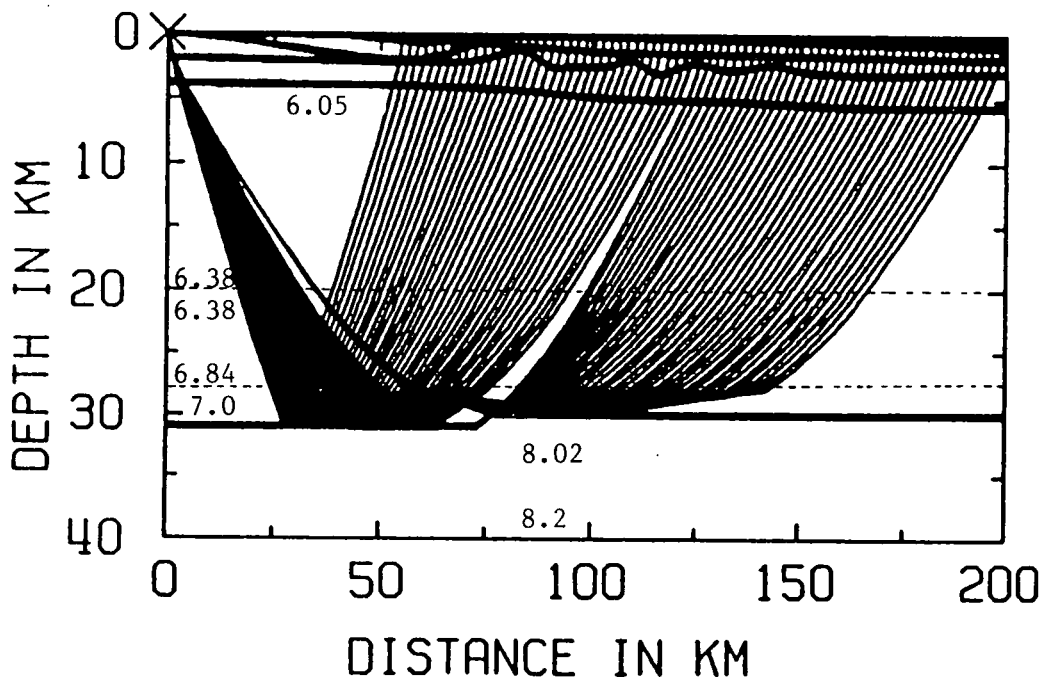
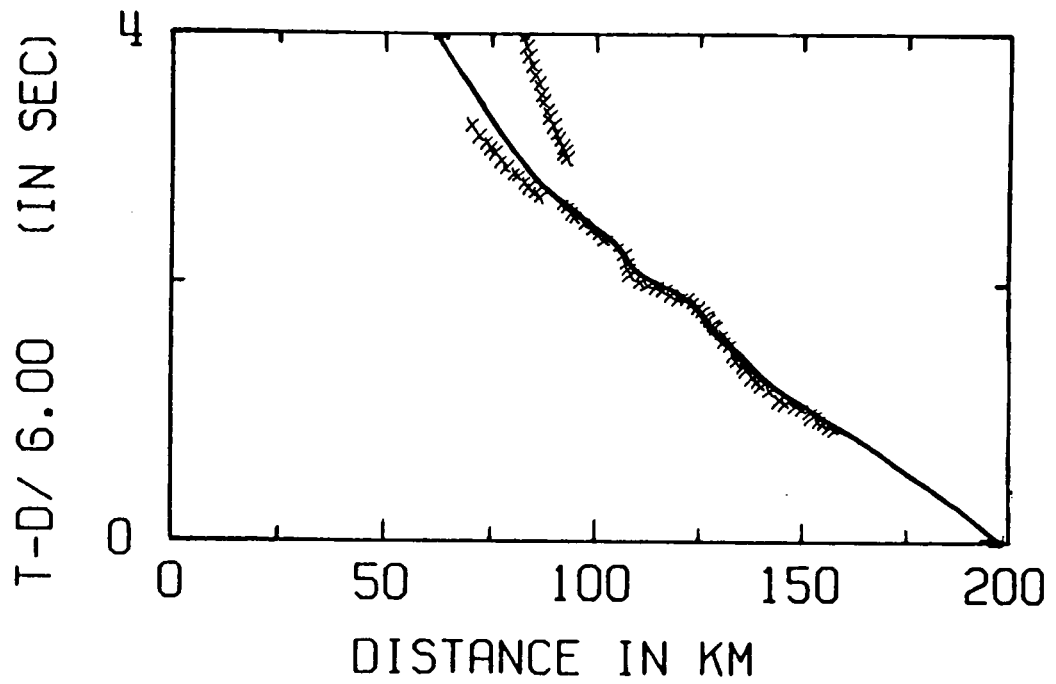
STATION 57 DATA SECTION FOR COMPARISON WITH SYNTHETIC SEISMIC SEISMOGRAM (bicubic spline interpolation).

this station on transparency (ii), although the quality of this data section is poor due to high noise levels and it is therefore not very clear.

Computing synthetic seismograms for the western stations (stations 36, 37, 39, 40 and 47) using the linear interpolation method obviously does not allow for the lateral variation in the crustal velocity gradient. However, since the linear interpolation method did not produce drastically different results for station 54 except in the fit of Pg, this method was used for stations 36 to 47. For these computations, no arrivals were computed from the step on the Moho but the fit to PmP is excellent for station 47. For stations 40 and 36, the basement velocity of 5.97 kms^{-1} was too low, producing late travel times for PmP. A basement velocity of 6.05 kms^{-1} was found to remedy this problem for station 40 and to improve it for station 36, but it was also necessary to incorporate a higher velocity of 7.1 kms^{-1} in the 2 km thick slab at the base of the crust in order to fit the travel times of PmP. The ray diagrams and travel time plots in Figs. 6.26, 6.27 and 6.28 represent this model, and Figs. 6.29 and 6.30 are the synthetic seismograms generated for stations 47 and 40. These synthetics may be compared with transparencies (iii) and (iv), although these sections, like transparency (ii), are too noisy to plot well at this scale. Nevertheless, the synthetic main arrivals PmP and PcP compare reasonably well with the real sections in terms of amplitude, although the models fail to generate Pn and D.

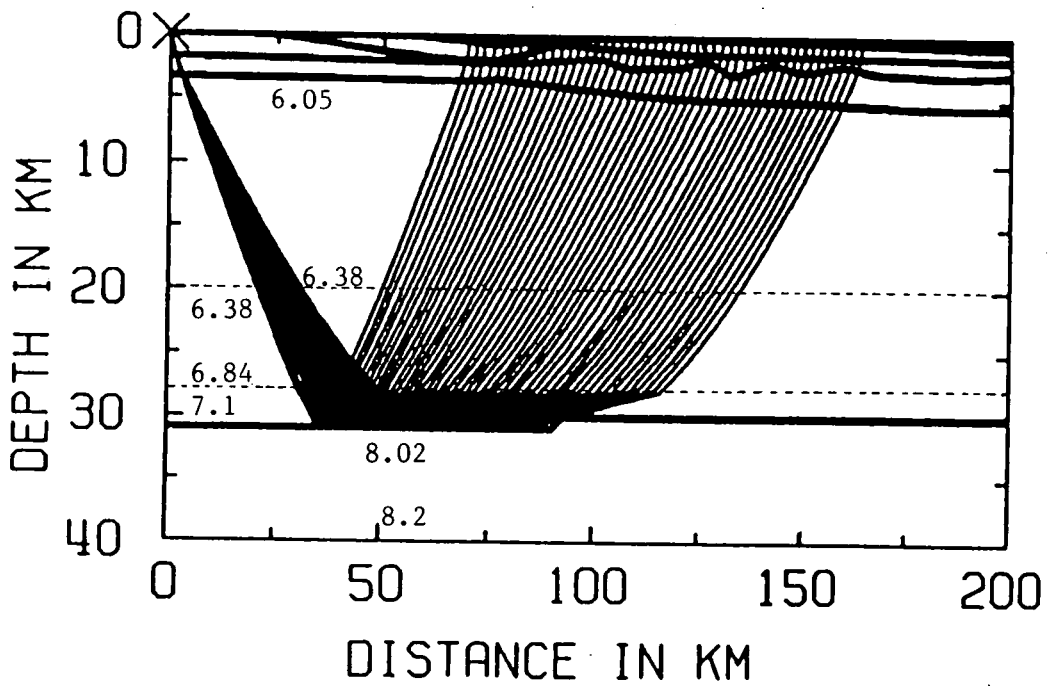
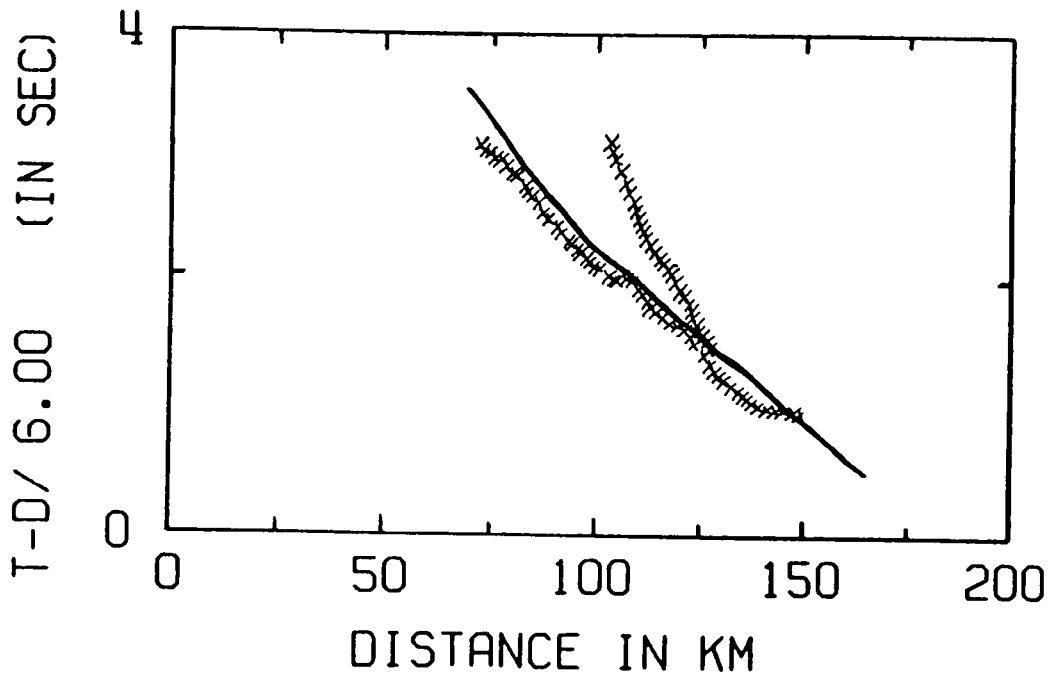
The final attempt to model this arrival was inspired by Kuszniir and Matthews(1988), who modelled the decay of a Moho step with time, reaching the conclusion that such decay is extremely wavelength dependent. In the process of ductile flow in the lower crust, intermediate wavelengths of topography on the Moho tend to be obliterated, whereas short and long wavelengths are still present after long periods of time. Figure 6.31 illustrates the result of such a process. Since the evidence from phase D seems to point towards a Moho step, this step would have been expected to decay with time and probably produce the result predicted by Kuszniir and Matthews.

This approach was therefore tried, and is shown in Fig. 6.32. It produces an excellent travel time fit for D and PmP, and synthetic amplitudes which, although still not high enough, show a maximum at an offset closer to the observed offset of maximum amplitude than to that obtained from the curved step of Fig. 6.18. Unfortunately, the distance ranges of PmP and Pn are still restricted, although this must be



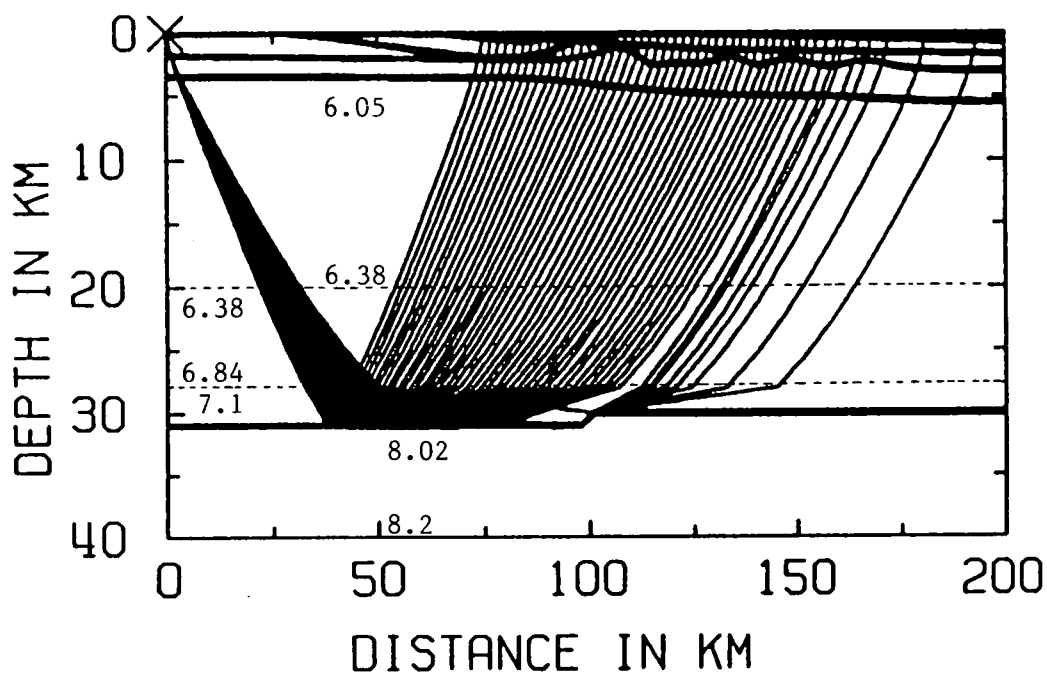
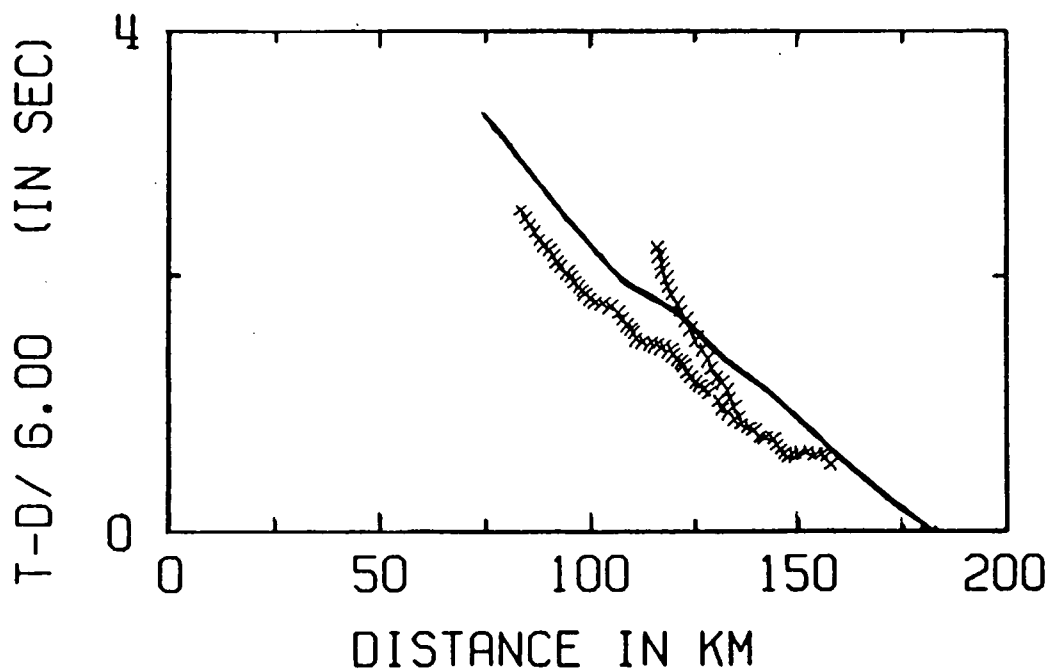
LINE1 S47 PMP + D

Fig. 6.26 Curved Moho step model (linear interpolation) at station 47: BEAM87 ray diagram and travel times. Continuous line: calculated travel time; crosses: observed travel times; numbers within model: seismic p-velocities in km s^{-1} .



S40 PMP + D

Fig. 6.27 Curved Moho step model (linear interpolation) at station 40: BEAM87 ray diagram and travel times. Continuous line: calculated travel time; crosses: observed travel times; numbers within model: seismic p-velocities in km s^{-1} .



S36 PMP + D

Fig. 6.28 Curved Moho step (linear interpolation) at station 36: BEAM87 ray diagram and travel times. Continuous line: calculated travel time; crosses: observed travel times; numbers within model: seismic p-velocities in km s^{-1} .

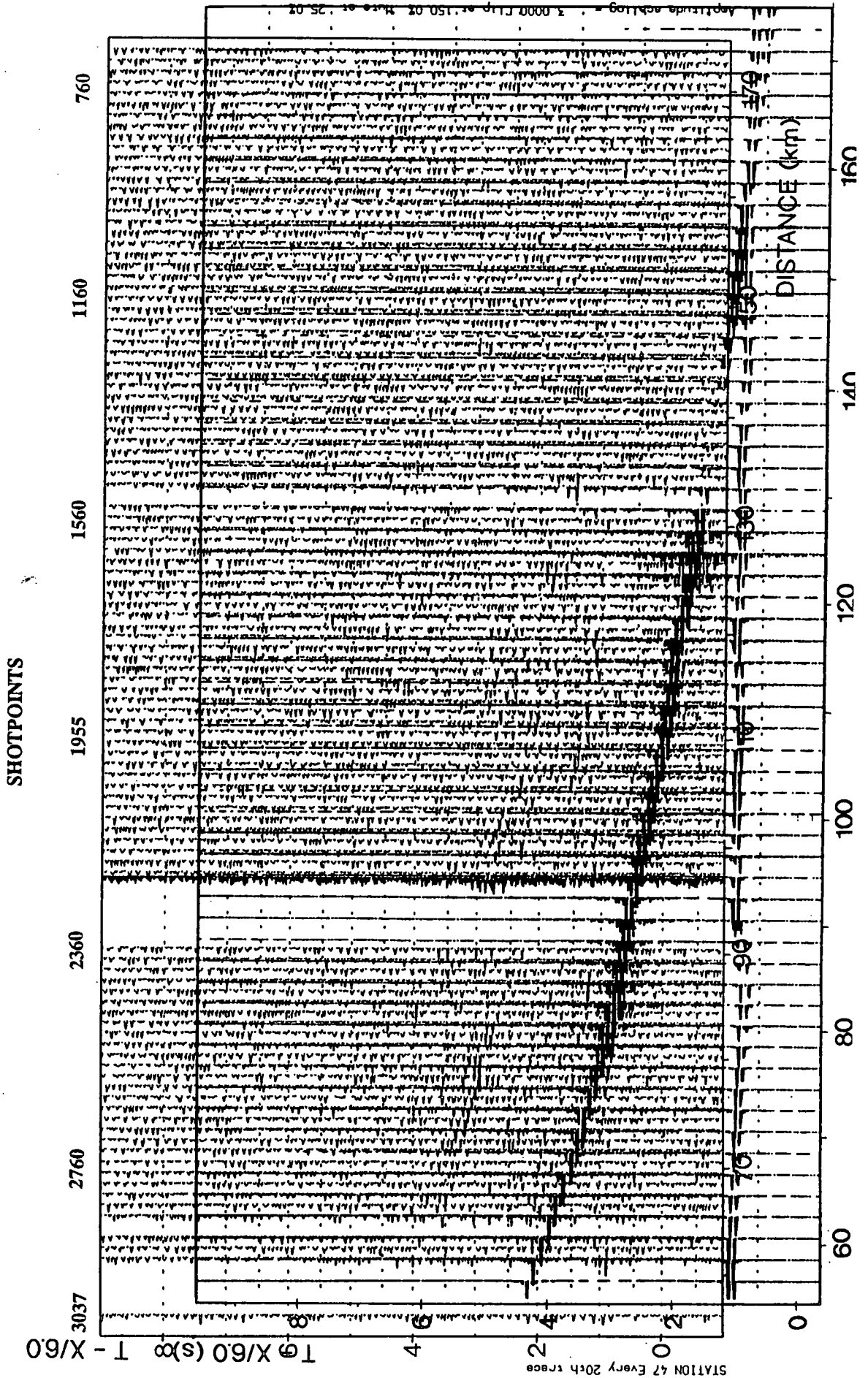


Fig. 6.29 Curved Moho step model at station 47: BEAM87 synthetic seismogram (linear interpolation)

STATION 47 DATA SECTION FOR COMPARISON WITH SYNTHETIC SECTIONS

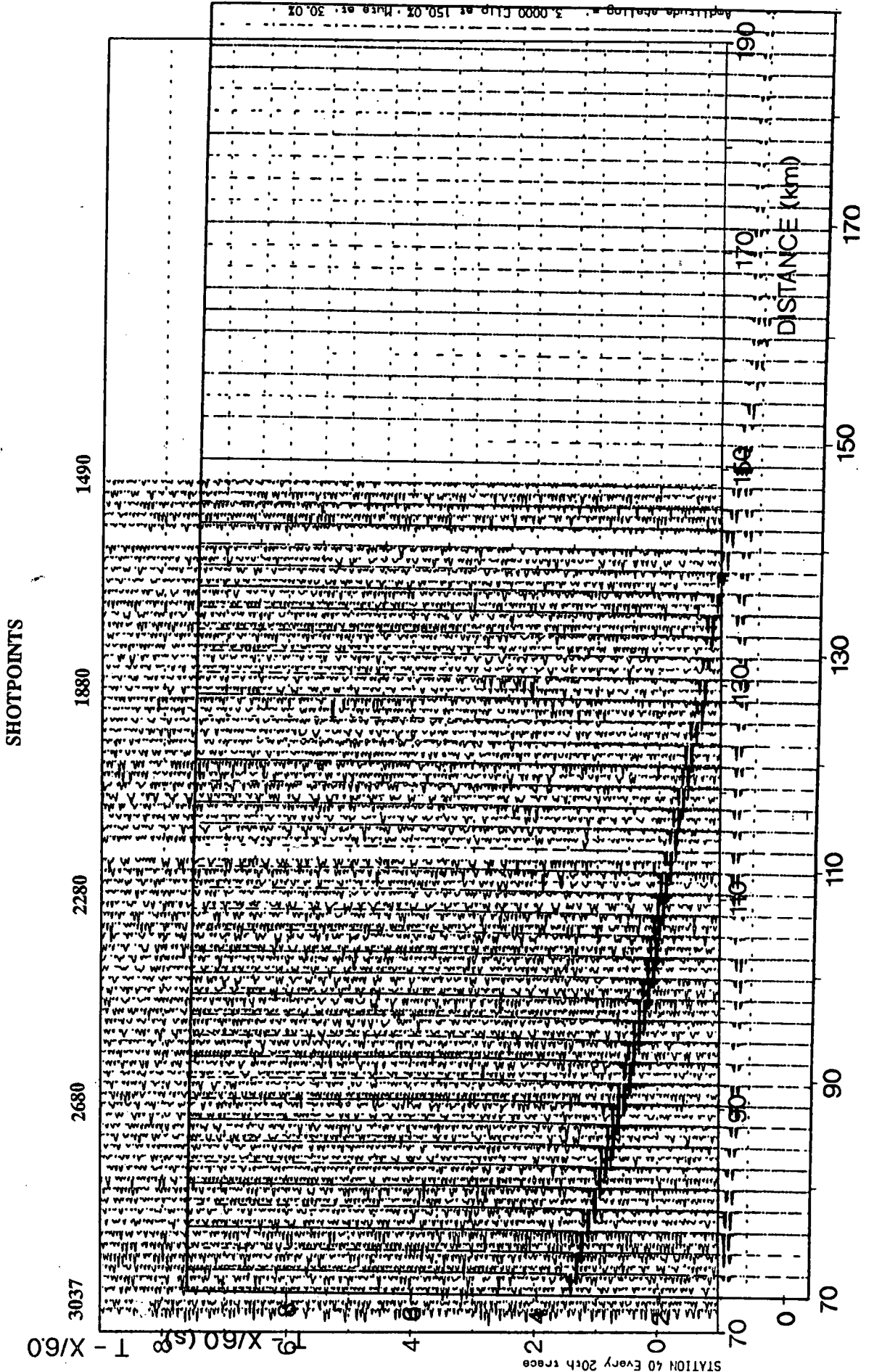


Fig. 6.30 Curved Moho step model at station 40: BEAM87 synthetic seismogram (linear interpolation)

STATION 40 DATA SECTION FOR COMPARISON WITH SYNTHETIC SECTIONS

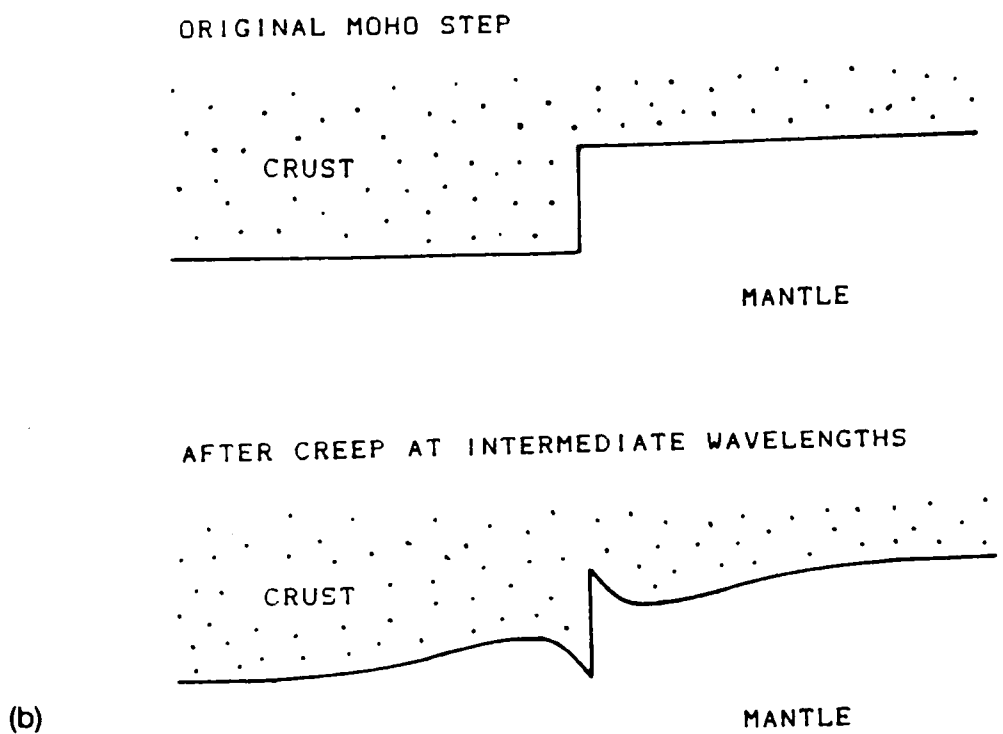
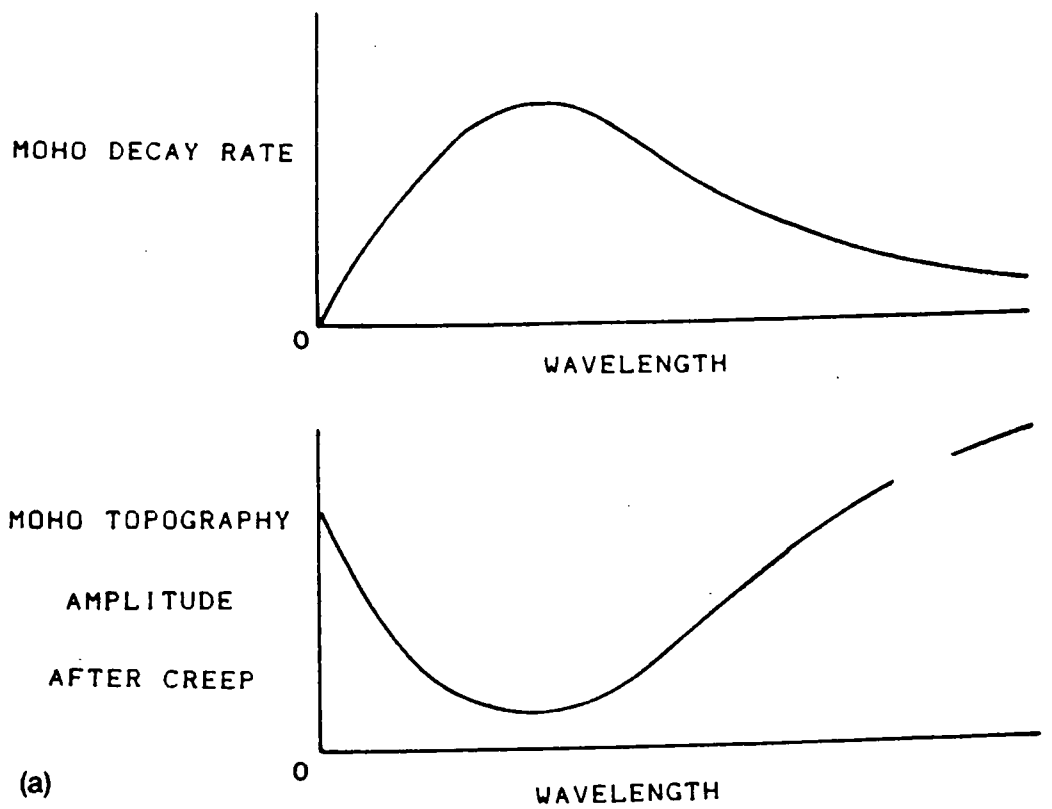
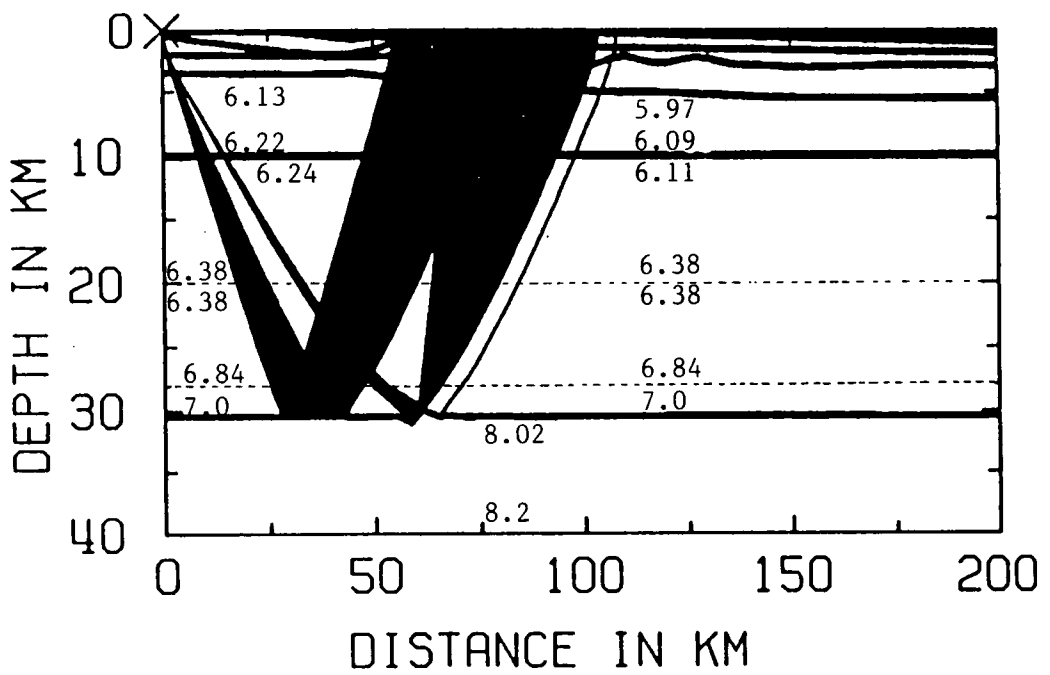
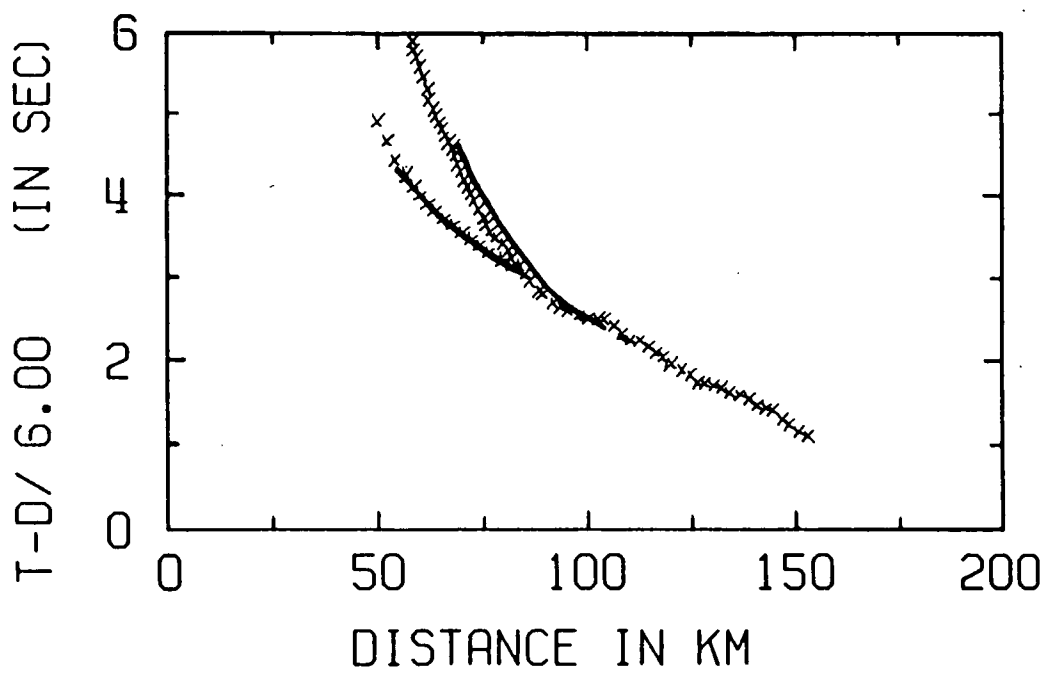


Fig. 6.31

(a) Wavelength dependence of the decay of Moho topography: decay rates tend to zero at short and long wavelengths.

(b) Modification of a Moho step after removal of intermediate wavelengths by ductile flow in the lower crust.

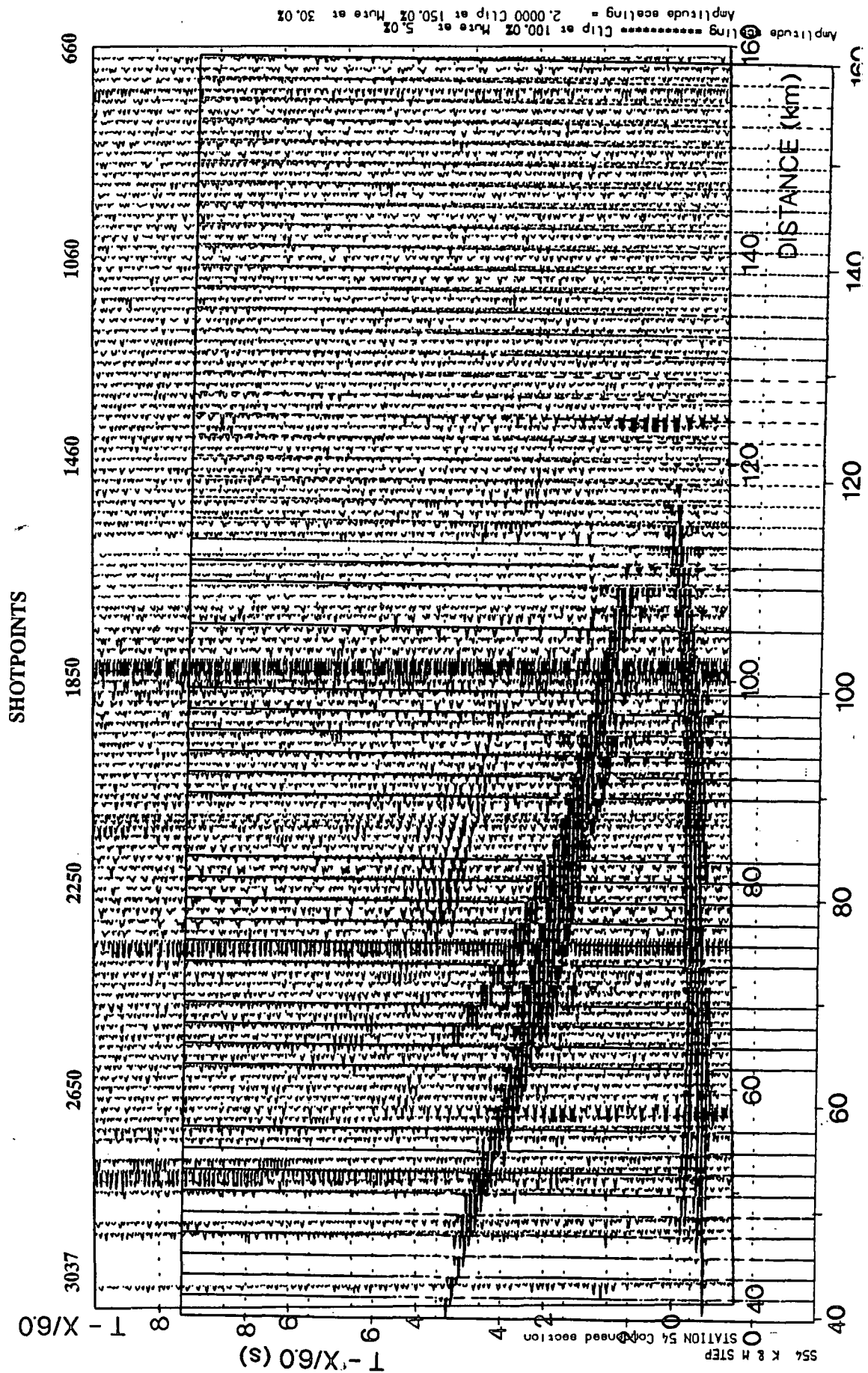
Both figures from Kusznr & Matthews (1988); figures show qualitative results only.



LINE1 S54 PMP + D

Fig. 6.32 BEAM87 ray diagram and travel times for a "decayed" Moho step, modelled at station 54. Continuous line: calculated travel time; crosses: observed travel times; numbers within model: seismic p-velocities in km s^{-1} .

Enclosure (v)



STATION 54 DATA SECTION FOR COMPARISON WITH SYNTHETIC SECTIONS
 Fig. 36 Delayed Moho step model at station 54. BEAM87 synthetic

due to the bicubic spline representation of the velocity field around the "decayed" step. Transparency (v) is enclosed here for comparison with the synthetic seismogram of Fig. 6.33, generated by this model.

6.4.5 Wide-angle reflections from the mid crust

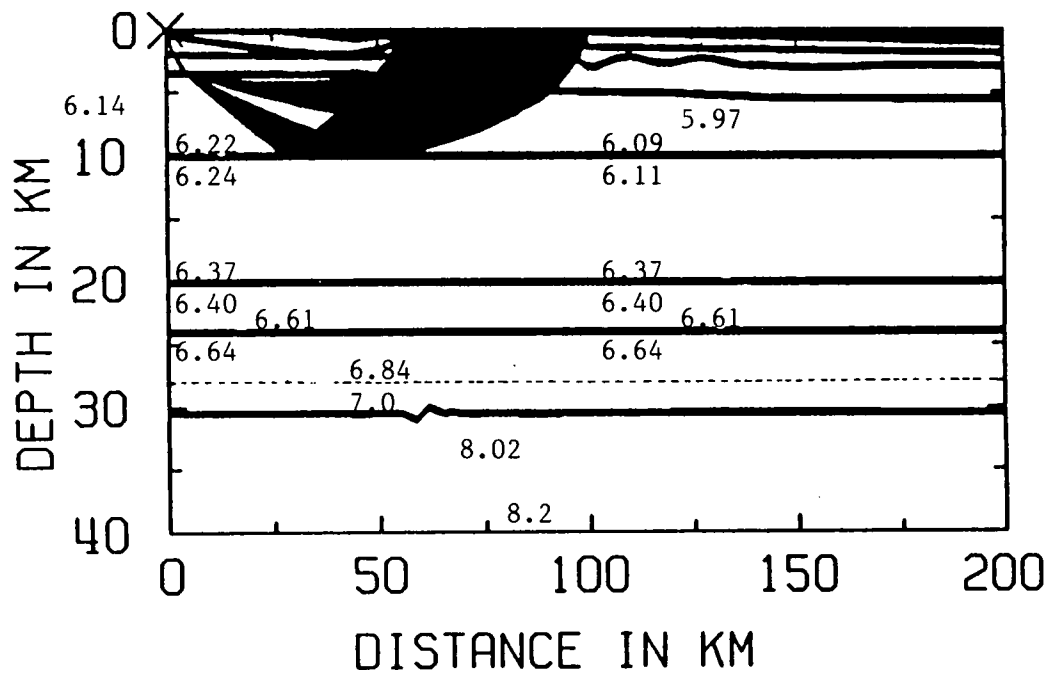
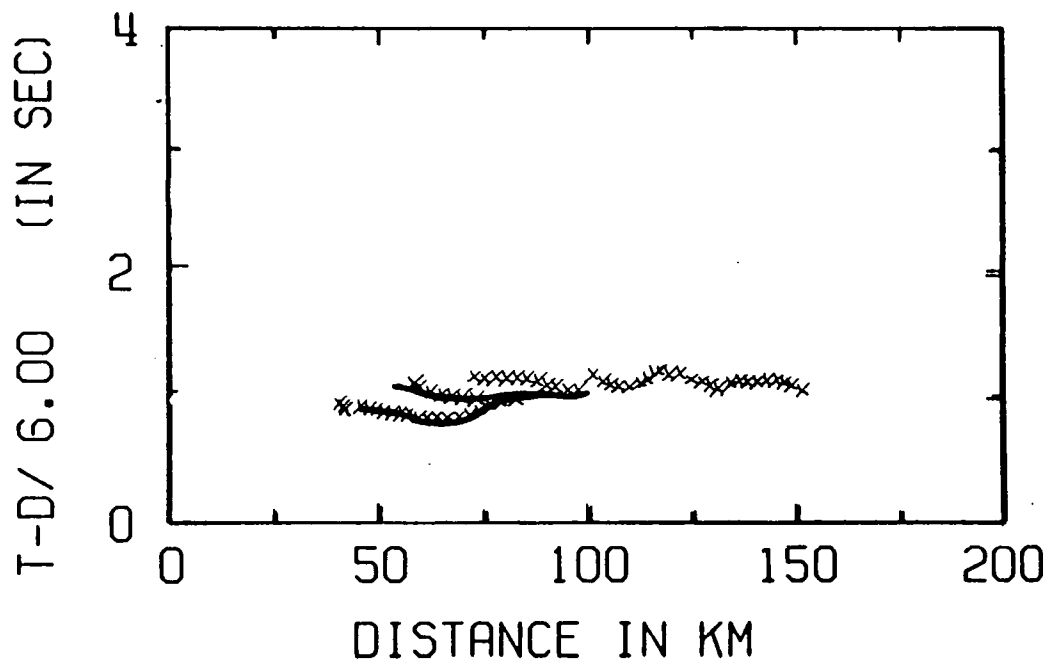
As mentioned in section 6.4.1, the phases from the mid-crustal region were modelled last of all since there was least certainty about the picking of the travel times, particularly with respect to correlation of the phases between recording stations. The modelling of the crust so far had produced velocity gradients through the crust, (the lower crust slightly higher than the upper crustal gradient) in order to fit both Pg and PmP. The mid-crustal reflectors which give rise to wide-angle reflections have been superimposed onto this gradient. Only preliminary modelling of these phases has been carried out.

The earliest reflection, picked as PuP (see section 4.4.2) is obviously from fairly shallow depths and appears to be fitted at station 54 by a 10 km deep reflector with a slight velocity contrast of 0.02 kms^{-1} (Fig. 6.34). It has not been possible to generate rays which reflect from this horizon for any other stations except 54, 55 and 57, again possibly due to the representation of the near surface structure at stations 36 to 47.

The PcP phase seems to be fitted reasonably well by reflections from the top of the higher velocity gradient which defines the lower crust. This occurs at 20 km depth and there must therefore be a change not only on the velocity gradient but also a slight change in velocity at that depth. A change of approximately 0.03 kms^{-1} has been used for this model. However, the travel time fit deteriorates east of shotpoint 3037. A slope on the reflector, dipping to the west, could possibly explain the travel times, but this has not yet been modelled. Figs. 6.35, 6.36 and 6.37 show the travel time fits for this phase at stations 37, 47 and 54 respectively.

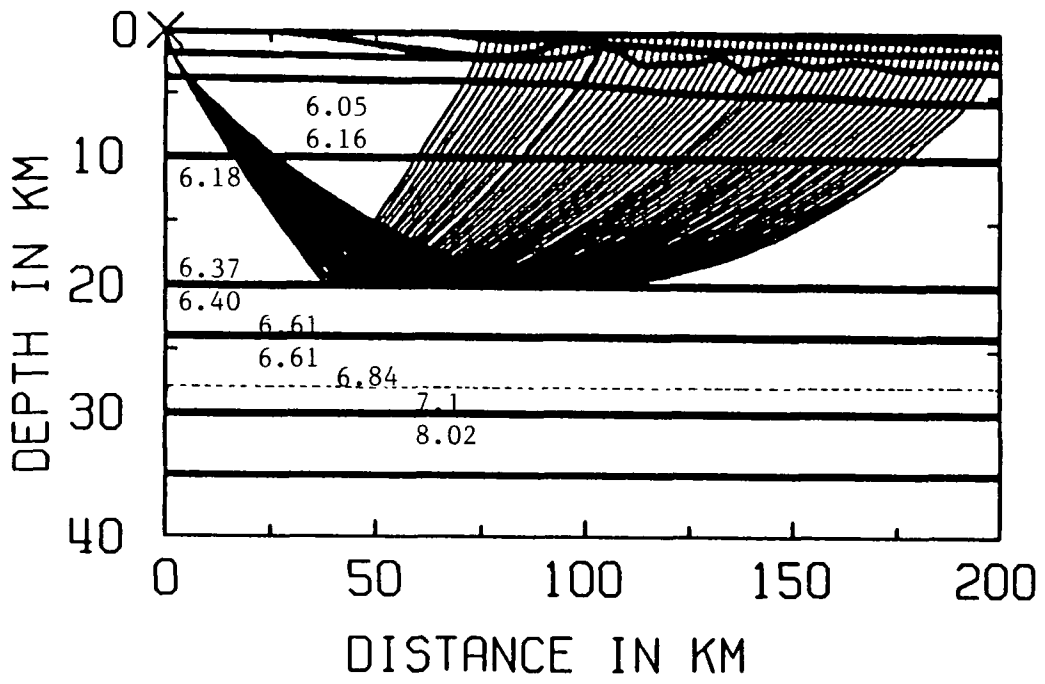
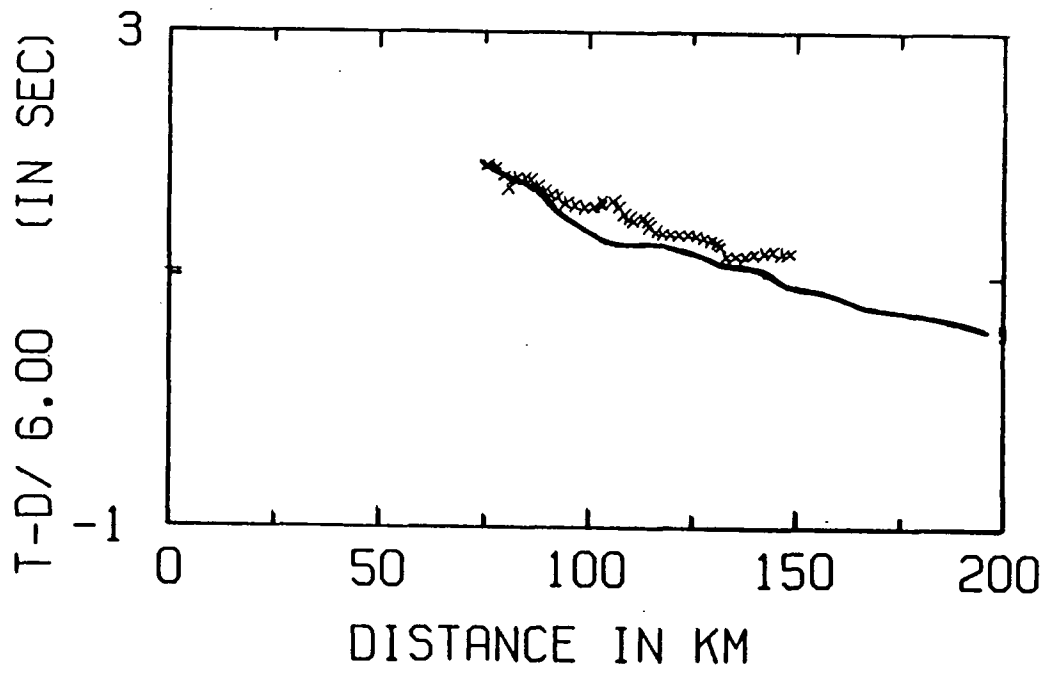
The late PbP phase seems to be generated by a velocity change of about 0.03 kms^{-1} at approximately 24 km depth, according to the approximate travel time fitting carried out so far. The fit at stations 37, 47 and 54 is shown in Figs. 6.38 to 6.40 respectively.

As already stated, these interpretations are only tentative, to give some idea of the explanation of the most prominent of the mid-crustal wide-angle reflections. Sketching the approximate lateral limit of



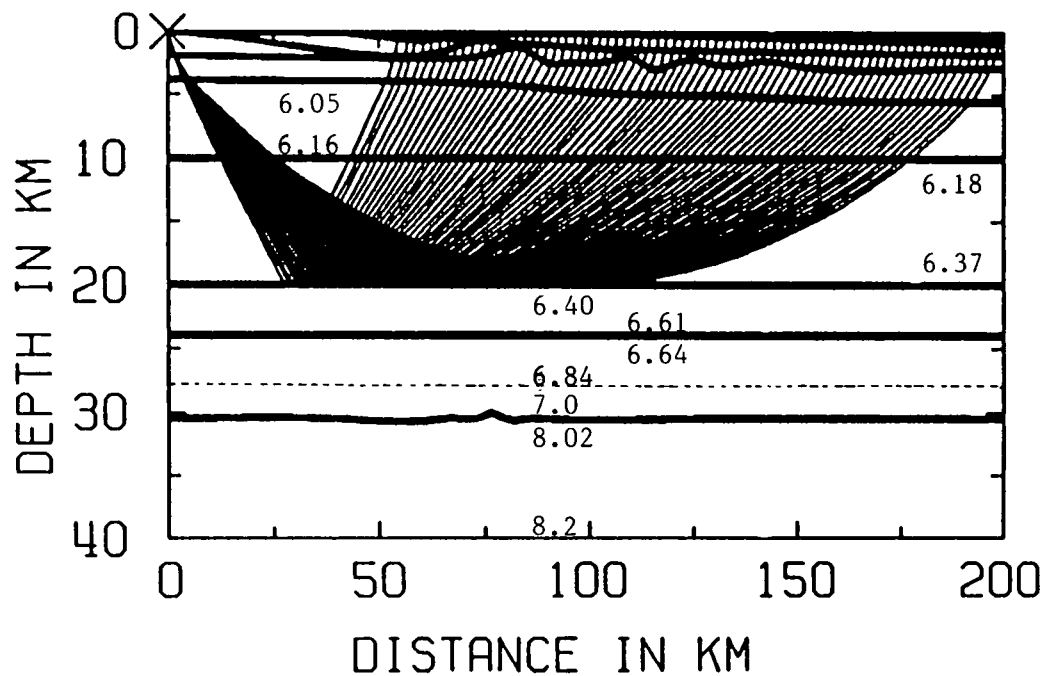
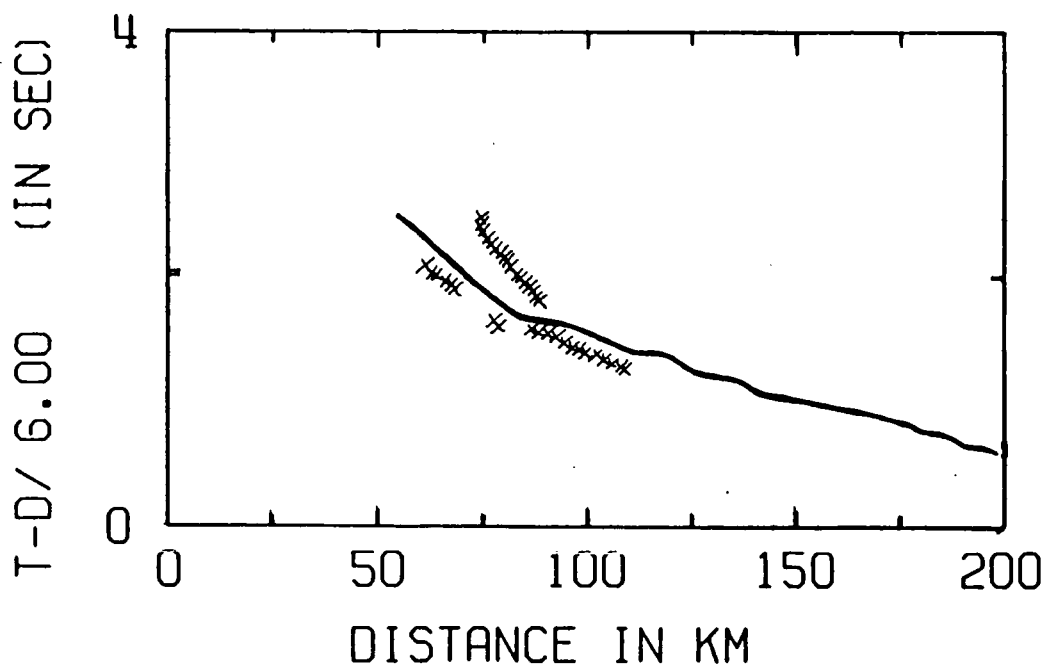
LINE1 S54 PCP

Fig. 6.34 BEAM87 ray diagram and travel times for a wide-angle reflection from a mid-crustal reflector (PuP) modelled at station 54. Continuous line: calculated travel time; crosses: observed travel times; numbers within model: seismic p-velocities in km s⁻¹.



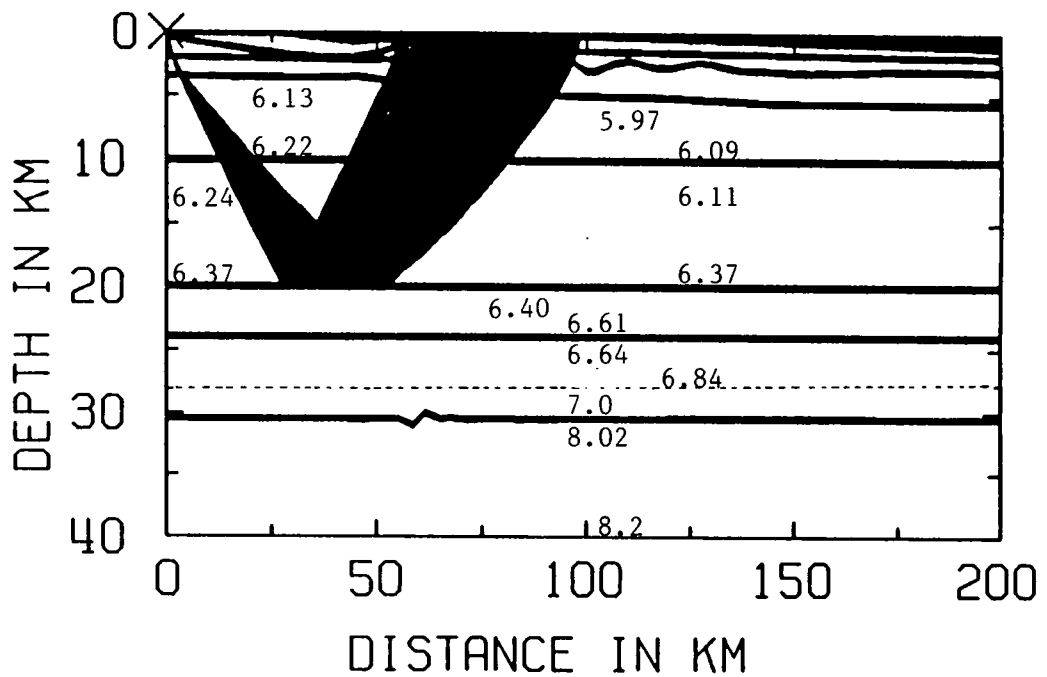
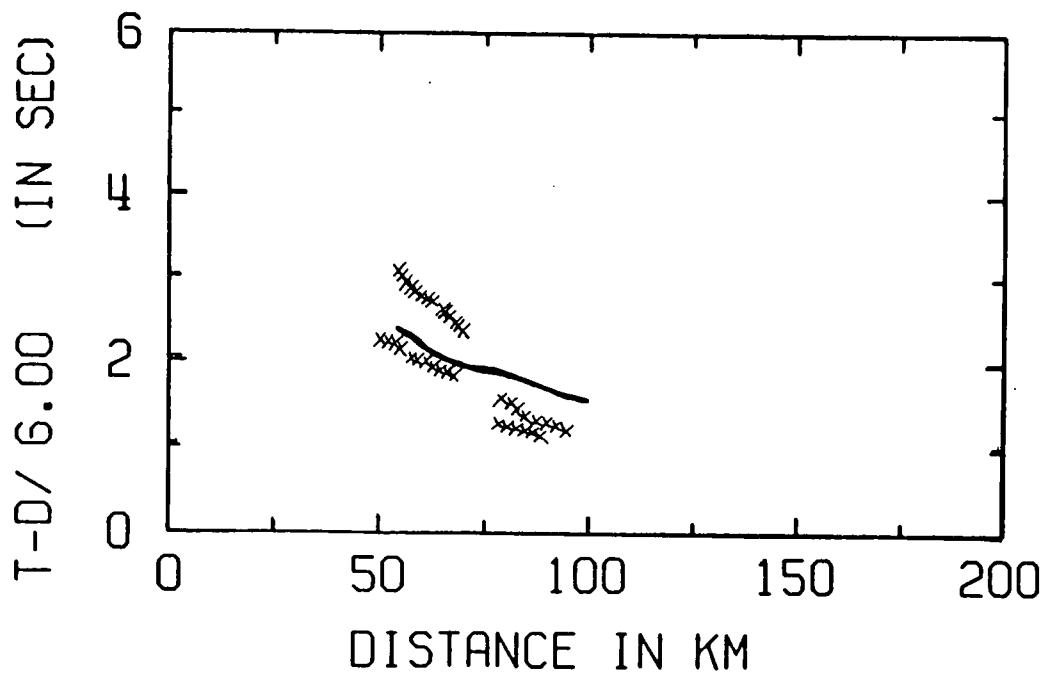
S37 MID CRUSTAL REFLECTORS

Fig. 6.35 BEAM87 ray diagram and travel times for a wide-angle reflection from the top of the lower crust (PcP) modelled at station 37. Continuous line: calculated travel time; crosses: observed travel times; numbers within model: seismic p-velocities in km s^{-1} .



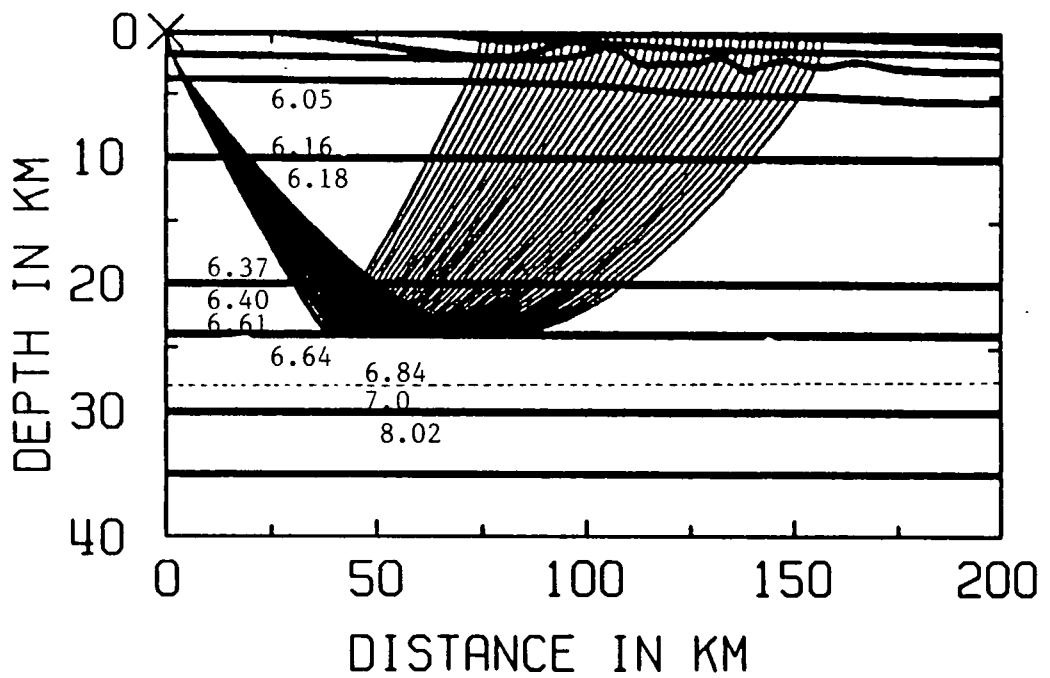
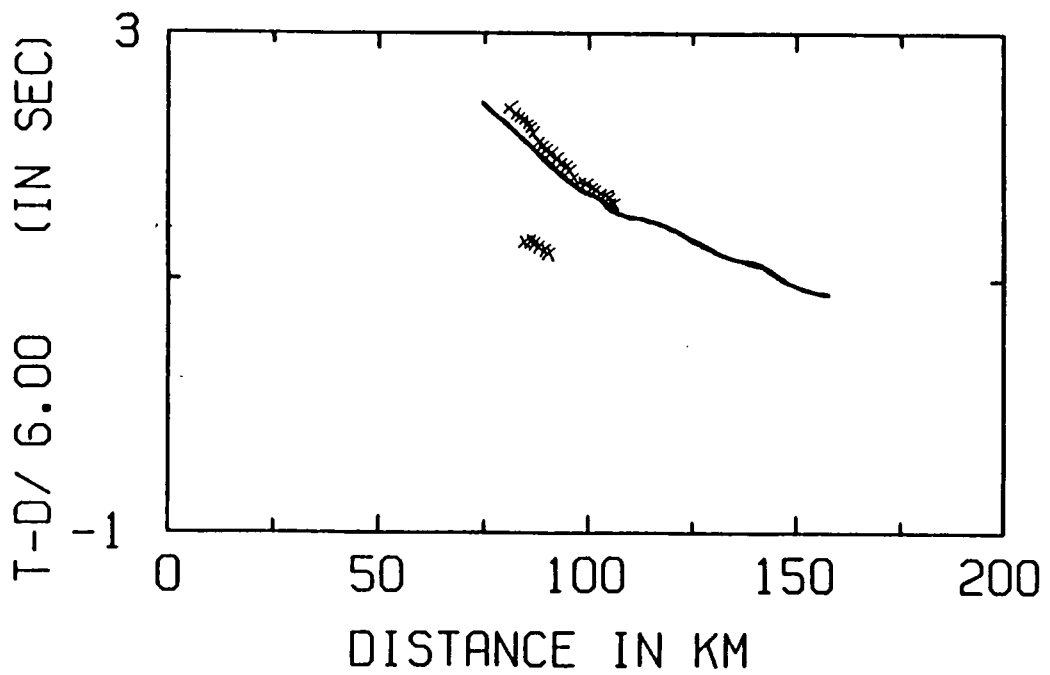
LINE1 S47 MID-CRUSTAL REFLECTORS

Fig. 6.36 BEAM87 ray diagram and travel times for a wide-angle reflection from the top of the lower crust (PcP) modelled at station 47. Continuous line: calculated travel time; crosses: observed travel times; numbers within model: seismic p-velocities in km s^{-1} .



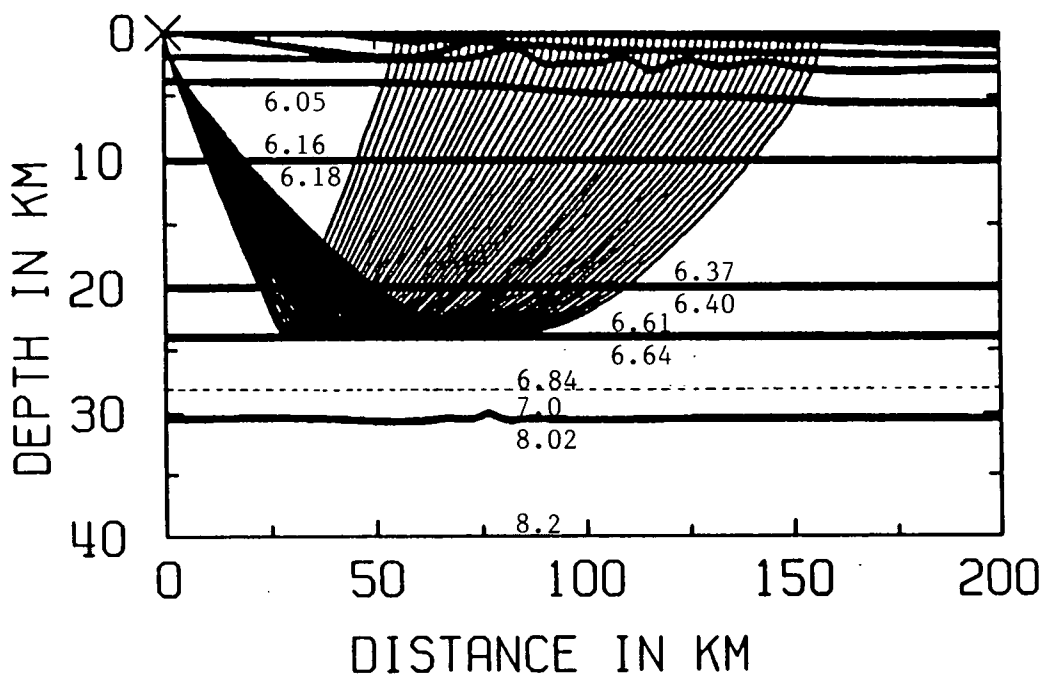
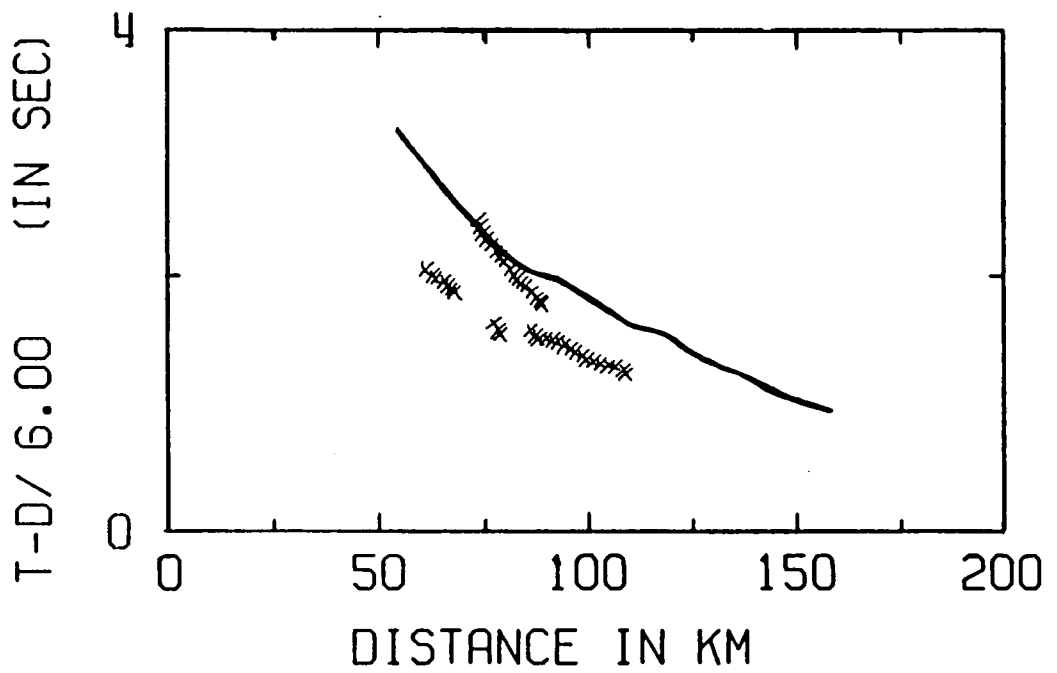
LINE1 S54 MID CRUSTAL REFLECTIONS

Fig. 6.37 BEAM87 ray diagram and travel times for a wide-angle reflection from the top of the lower crust (PcP) modelled at station 54. Continuous line: calculated travel time; crosses: observed travel times; numbers within model: seismic p-velocities in km s^{-1} .



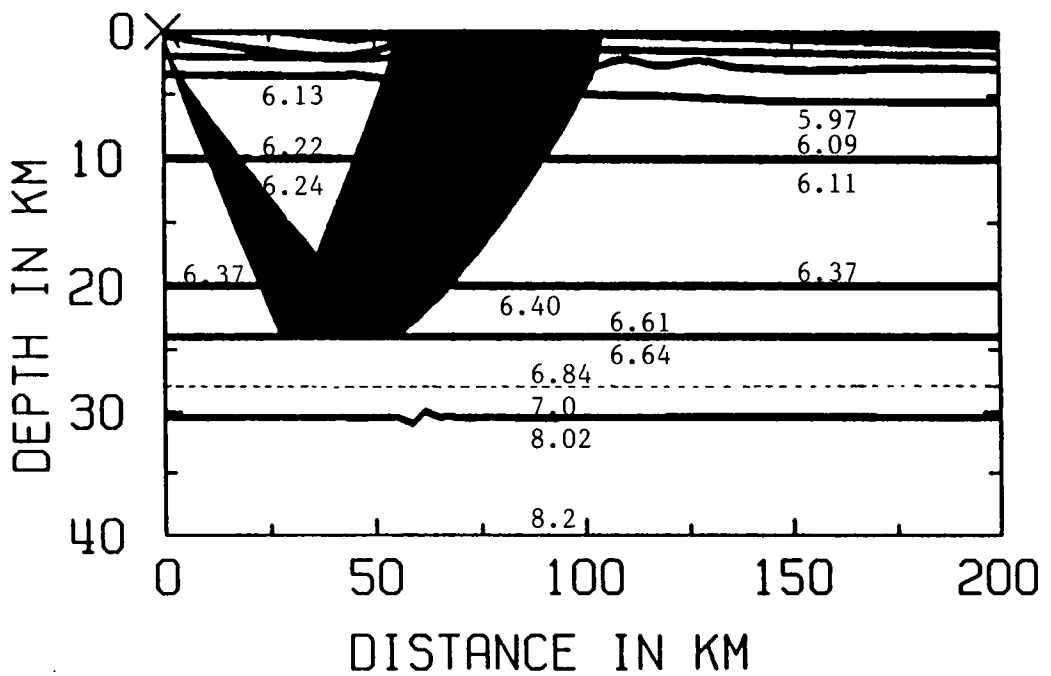
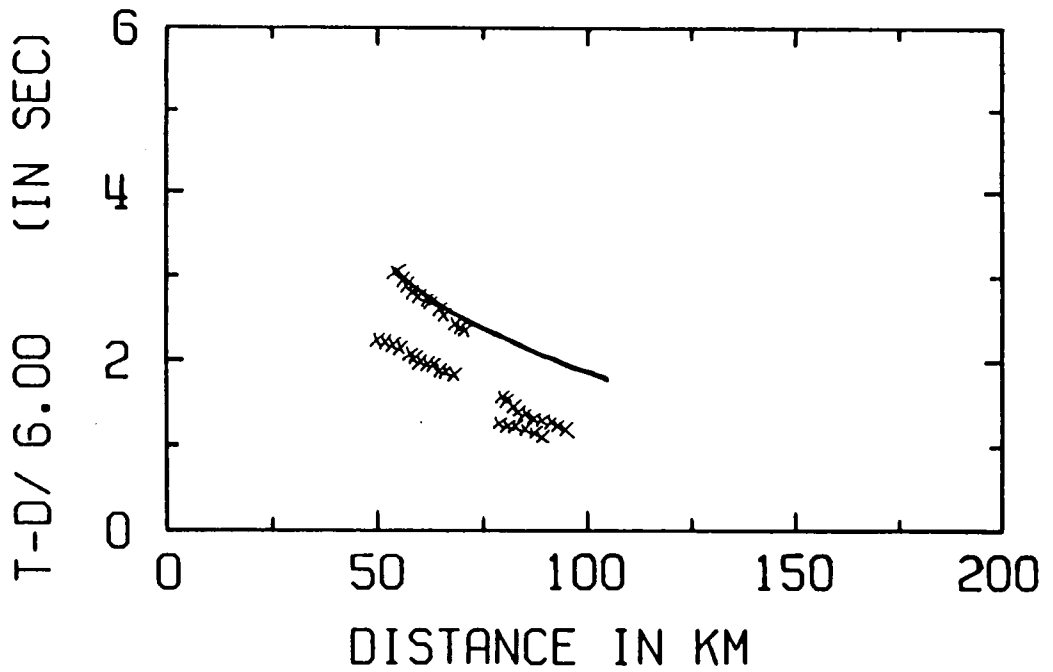
S37 MID CRUSTAL REFLECTORS

Fig. 6.38 BEAM87 ray diagram and travel times for a wide-angle reflection from within the lower crust (PbP) modelled at station 37. Continuous line: calculated travel time; crosses: observed travel times; numbers within model: seismic p-velocities in km s^{-1} .



LINE1 S47 MID-CRUSTAL REFLECTORS

Fig. 6.39 BEAM87 ray diagram and travel times for a wide-angle reflection from within the lower crust (PbP) modelled at station 47. Continuous line: calculated travel time; crosses: observed travel times; numbers within model: seismic p-velocities in km s^{-1} .



LINE1 S54 MID CRUSTAL REFLECTIONS

Fig. 6.40 BEAM87 ray diagram and travel times for a wide-angle reflection from within the lower crust (PbP) modelled at station 54. Continuous line: calculated travel time; crosses: observed travel times; numbers within model: seismic p-velocities in km s^{-1} . crust (PbP) modelled at station 54.

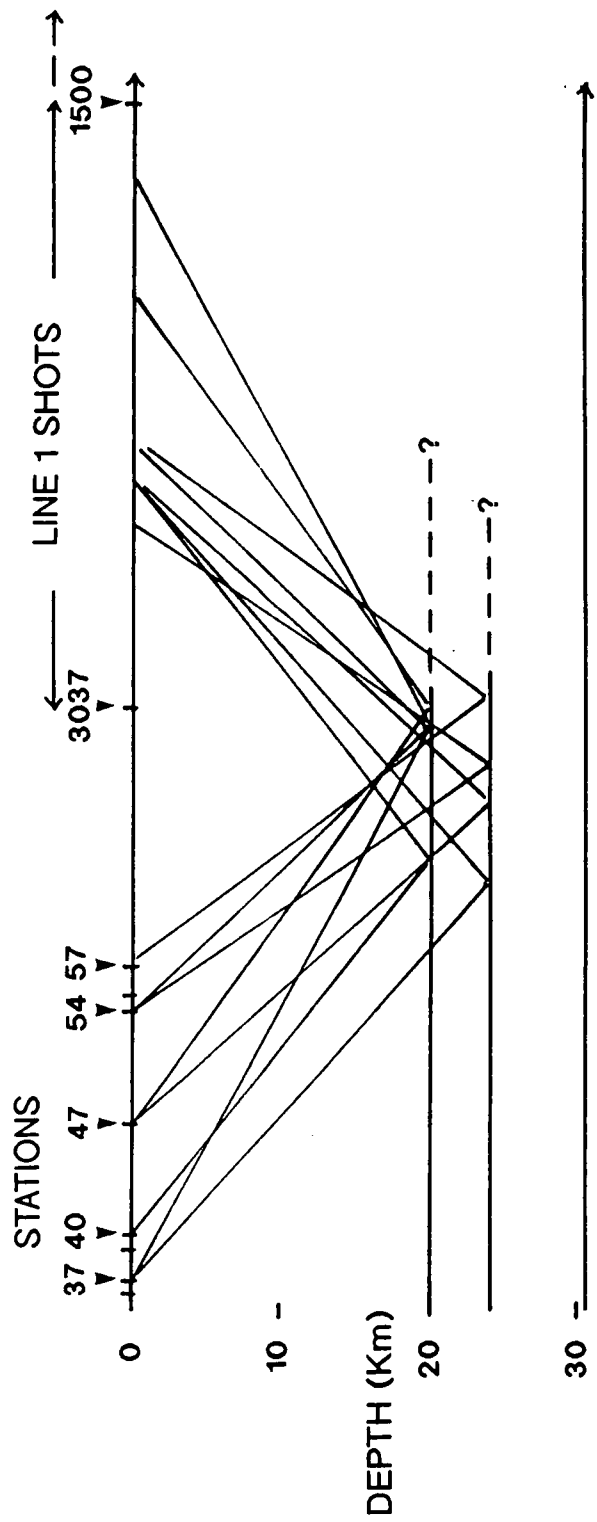


Fig. 6.41 Sketch of the lateral extent of the mid-crustal interfaces as flat reflectors.

reasonably close travel time fits for the interfaces at 20 km and 24 km depth, for the range of stations, produced Fig. 6.41. There seems to be evidence from this figure that the reflecting boundaries may be relatively flat out to approximately 50 km offshore, and that a change in slope may take place at this location. Further modelling could be undertaken in this area.

6.5 Modelling conclusions

The final wide-angle seismic model is shown in Fig. 6.42 and the synthetic seismogram generated from it is shown in Fig. 6.43. Transparency (v) is enclosed for comparison (although it is difficult to see the arrivals clearly on a section plotted at this density - see Appendix C for a clearer idea of the arrivals being compared). Up to 120 km offset, the synthetic of Fig.6.43 shows Pg, PmP, D and the three mid-crustal reflections at the correct travel time and with a comparative amplitude similar to that of the real data. However, D still does not have sufficiently high amplitude, and Pg and the three mid-crustal reflections do not show the variation in amplitude that are observed on their real counterparts. Pn may be seen on the synthetic at offsets greater than 120 km, but PmP dies out before this offset, possibly due to the way that the model represents the decayed Moho step. On the whole, this is the best all-round model it has been possible to produce, given the limitations of the modelling package.

Although BEAM87 is the most versatile and robust package to use for the synthetic seismogram modelling, its weakness is highlighted by a study of this kind, namely the difficulty in accurately representing an unusual laterally varying model, although representation of the model is a problem for most seismic modelling packages. Persevering for longer with the bicubic spline representation of the velocity field could result in better synthetic computations which generate PmP east of the Moho step and Pn. Other areas where there is room for improvement include the fitting of mid-crustal reflections and attempting to fit the other arrivals on the records which are similar to D (mentioned in section 4.4.4), using all the record sections in the dataset.

The arrival D is without doubt the most interesting arrival seen on this dataset and the first arrival to be recognised as a type of diffraction on a wide-angle dataset. It also provides the first wide-angle

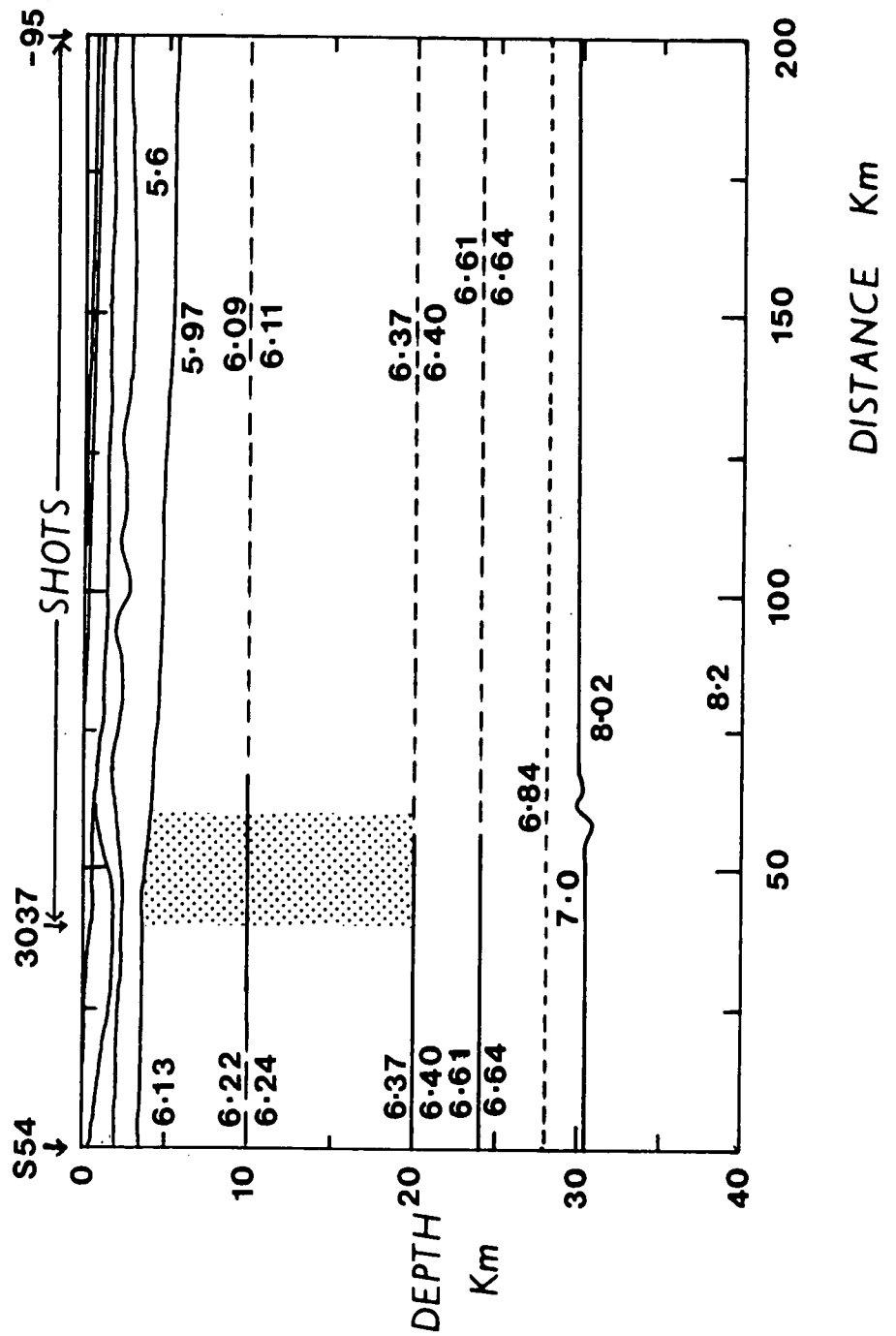


Fig. 6.42 Final wide-angle seismic velocity model. Stippled area represents the region of lateral change in velocity gradient.

Amplitude scaling = 2.0000 Clip at 150.0% Mute at 30.0%
Amplitude scaling = ***** Clip at 100.0% Mute at 5.0%

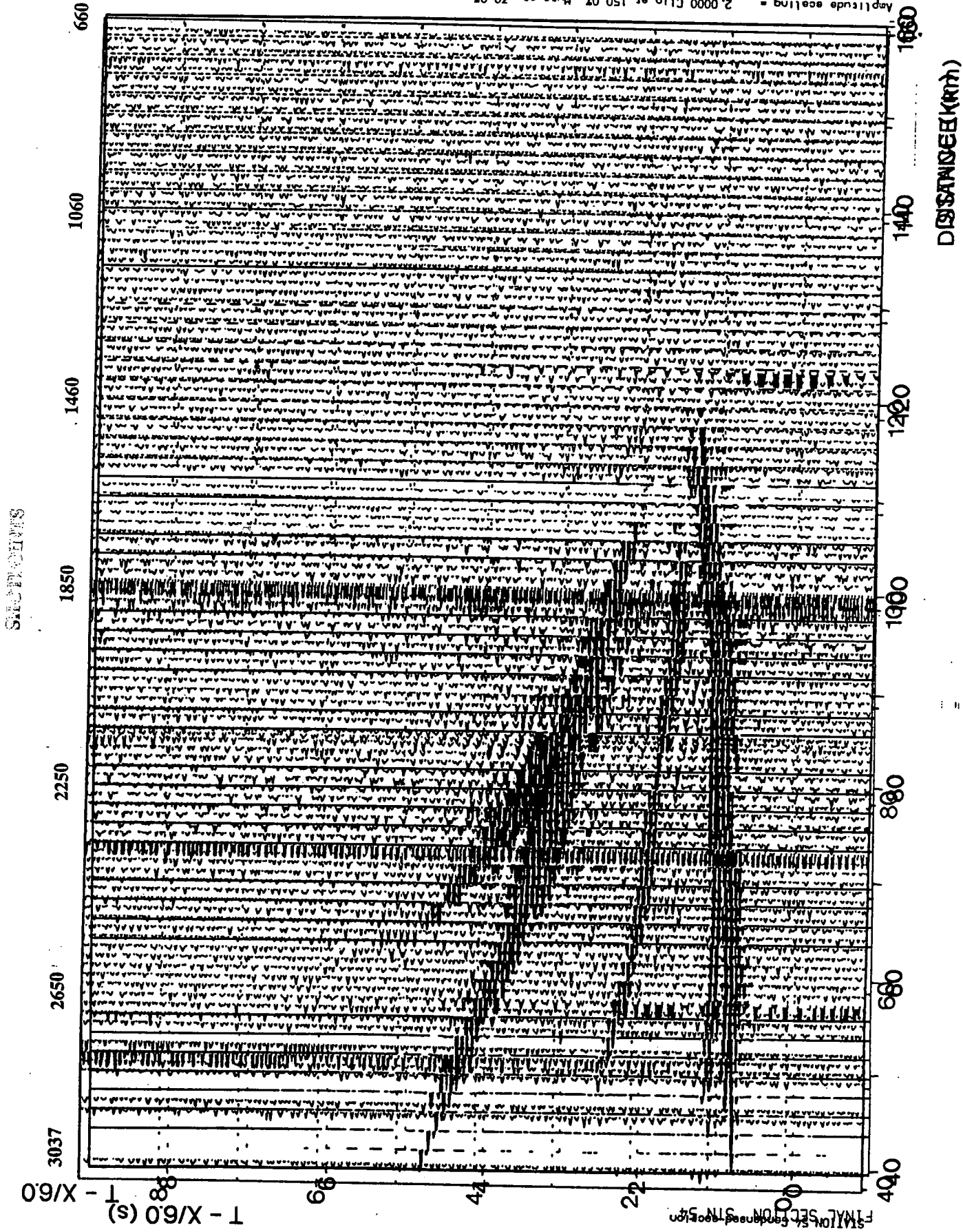


Fig. 6.43 BEAMR7 synthetic seismogram generated from station 54 for the STATION 54 DATA SECTION FOR COMPARISON WITH SYNTHETIC SECTIONS
final wide-angle seismic velocity model of Fig. 6.42

seismic support for Kuszniir & Matthews'(1988) predicted result of the decay of a Moho step. Why it has such a high amplitude, particularly at station 54, is still not wholly understood. It may be related to the fact that it occurs near the critical region for station 54, or alternatively there may be some high-velocity material around it which focuses the rays returned to station 54. It certainly has important implications for the regional geological history of the area, which will be discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 7: FURTHER INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION

7.1 Introduction

Having derived a seismic model purely from the wide-angle reflection MOBIL dataset, there remained a wealth of other geophysical information to be incorporated into a realistic geological model for this region, most significantly the exactly coincident BIRPS deep normal-incidence seismic records. The aim of using solely the wide-angle data up to this stage was to obtain an idea of the differences in the structures imaged by the wide-angle technique as compared to those imaged by the normal-incidence reflection technique. Further data collected during MOBIL includes the "fan-shoot" of Line 2 shots which were recorded at the MOBIL-CSSP stations (interpreted by Jarvis (1988)). Section 7.2 consists of an interpretation of the normal incidence records and a comparison of the results with the wide-angle model.

Section 7.3 describes the gravity information from this area, mainly from CSSP and the UK gravity database. This information is tied into the seismic interpretation and a geological model proposed in section 7.4. Other geophysical information from this area includes the explosive shot records of CSSP which show not only P-waves but S-waves. The preliminary interpretation of this S-wave data is briefly described in section 7.5. The crustal composition is discussed in section 7.6.

7.2 BIRPS deep normal-incidence seismic data

7.2.1 MOBIL Line 1

Probably the first point which should be made about any comparison between the features seen on the wide-angle seismic data and those seen on the normal incidence records for line 1 is that only the structure west of shot point 1700 is imaged by actual wide-angle reflections. This is due to the geometry of the wide-angle recording set-up, in which the mid-point of the ray travelling from the furthest shot (-95) to the station closest to the coast lies beneath shot 1700. For the stations further inland, more of the crust beneath land is sampled and less of that beneath the normal-incidence profile. The most westerly

mid-point lies approximately beneath station 54, so the model obtained from all the wide-angle reflection data essentially has a lateral extent from station 54 to shotpoint 1700. This does not apply to results obtained from Pg or Pn, however, since these are refractions, not wide-angle reflections.

A line-drawing (courtesy of BIRPS) of the brute stack of the Line 1 normal-incidence seismic data is shown in Fig. 7.1. This diagram represents fairly well the relationships between the events imaged by the final stack normal-incidence section. Considering only the left-hand side of the section, up to the line 3 crossover, which corresponds to the crust imaged by MOBIL-CSSP recording, the main features may be summarised in the sketch of Fig. 7.2, which was made from the final stack section :

(a) The upper crust is typically (for a BIRPS section) transparent down to almost 4.5 s two-way travel time (TWTT), with the exception of a short, slight reflection at about 3.5 s TWTT.

(b) There seems to be a rather thick band of mid-crustal reflections west of about shotpoint 2750, a few sparse mid-crustal reflections eastward to about shotpoint 2200, then another wider band up to the intersection with line 3. This band extends from about 4.5 s TWTT to about 7 s TWTT at the western margin of the profile.

(c) The lower crust is relatively transparent up to shotpoint 2000, east of which there are several shallowly dipping reflectors. Beneath the line 2 intersection there appears to be a subhorizontal reflection at about 8-9 s TWTT, but apart from this there is little else to be seen within the lower crust in the region sampled by the wide-angle data.

(d) The Moho is defined very sharply by a bright reflection which appears to dip slightly to the west. At the western end of the line it has a TWTT of about 10.6 s, decreasing to almost 10 s at shotpoint 2200, east of which it is slightly disrupted, reappearing beneath the line 3 intersection at almost 11 s TWTT.

(e) Beneath the Moho reflection, west of shotpoint 2500, there are several very bright dipping reflections which merge into the Moho reflection.

These features correspond very well to those seen at wide-angle, some of them the more obvious for having previously carried out the wide-angle seismic interpretation. The lack of vertical reflections,

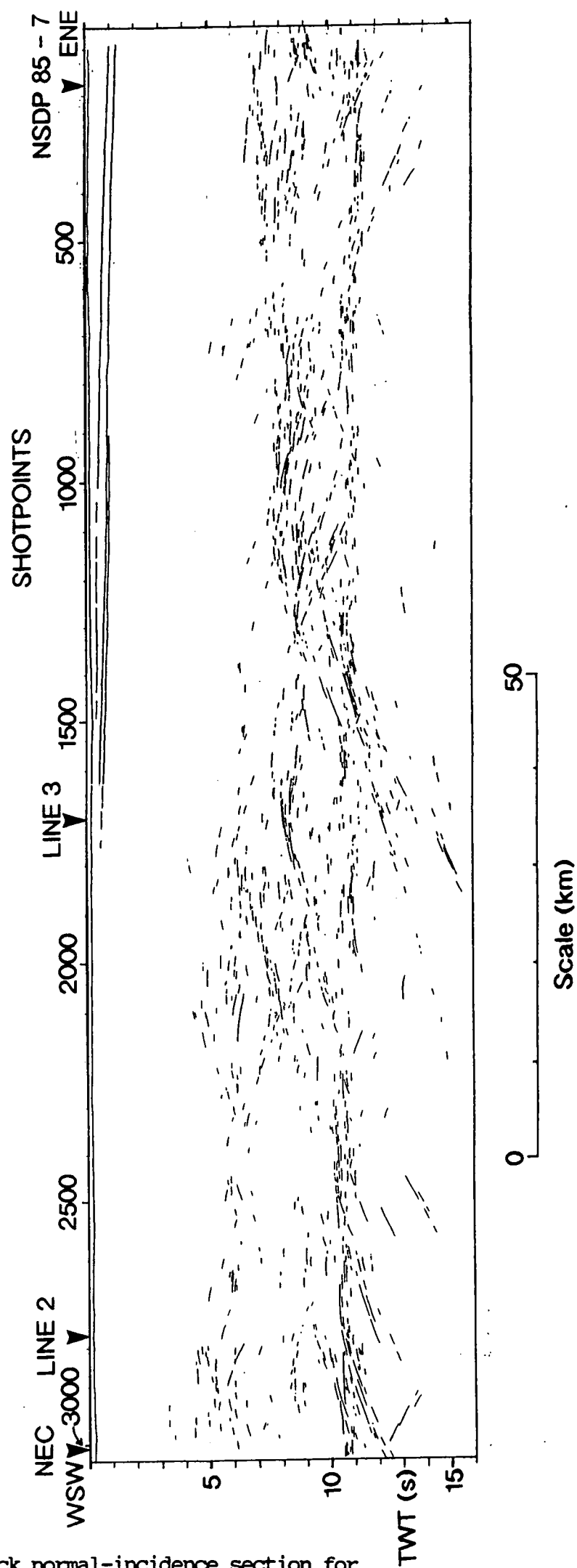


Fig. 7.1 Line drawing of brute stack normal-incidence section for MOBIL line 1 (courtesy of BIRPS).

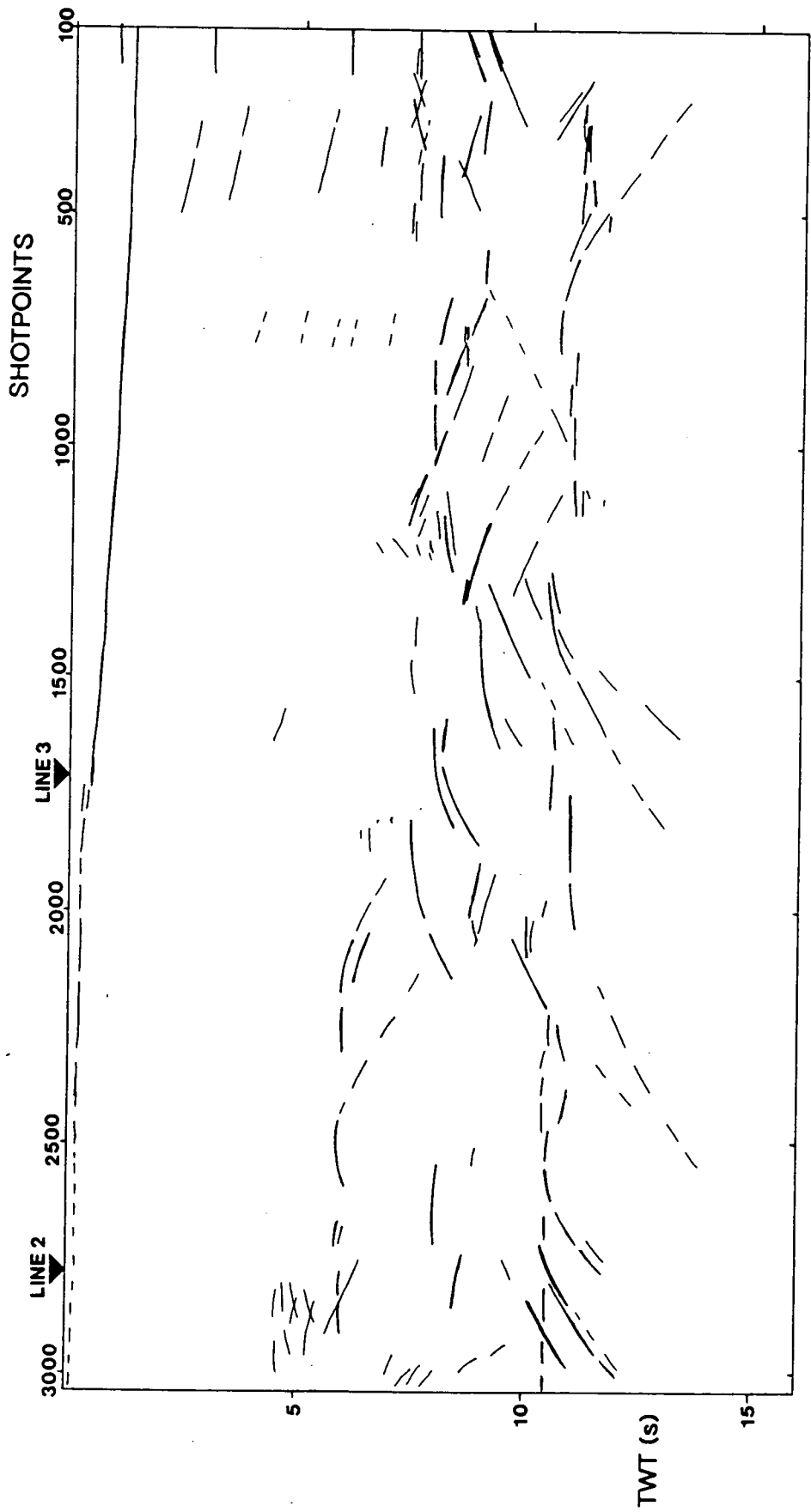


Fig. 7.2 Sketch of main features of MOBIL line 1 final stack normal-incidence section.

(a), from the upper crust is hardly surprising (remembering that shallow geological horizons are rarely well imaged, partly due to the acquisition parameters of BIRPS normal incidence data), but supports the wide-angle interpretation, which consists mostly of a steady velocity gradient beneath the crystalline basement.

However, the RMS velocity analysis used in the production of the final stack is of interest and is shown in Fig. 7.3 (courtesy of Richard Hobbs), to compare loosely with the shallow velocity model obtained during the wide-angle MOBIL interpretation (Fig. 6.5). Most of the plot is taken up by the shallow velocity structure, since the low velocities close to the surface cause the velocity variation near the top of a normal-incidence section to vary slowly. This means that the shallow velocities may be picked very precisely, whereas with increasing depth, the velocities on the record sections vary more rapidly and therefore the resolution of deeper velocities is reduced (Klemperer, 1989). However, it may be seen from the figure that the overall velocity pattern of the near surface produced by the two different methods is rather similar.

The band of mid-crustal reflectors, (b) seen on the western side of the normal-incidence section may extend westward beneath the coast, in which case it ties in well with the many observed wide-angle reflections seen from about this depth on the MOBIL-CSSP data, which merge into the upper crustal refraction, Pg. The base of this band seems to be at about 7 s TWTT beneath shot 3037. This approximately coincides with the estimated TWTT (7.2 s) for the change in velocity gradient and slight velocity contrast at about 20 km depth seen in the wide-angle model. It does not reflect strongly at normal-incidence since it is primarily a change in the velocity gradient. The fact that this band also thins east of shotpoint 2750 is interesting, since it ties in well with the lateral change in crustal velocity structure seen by the wide-angle data. The "re-thickening" again east of shotpoint 2200 does not have an obvious representation on the MOBIL-CSSP data but this may be due to the fact that the wide-angle data quality for this offset (beyond 160 km) is slightly deteriorated.

The transparent lower crust, (c), in this region was anticipated, since it was a distinguishing feature on BIRPS NEC where it crossed this point (Freeman et al., 1988). The bright Moho reflection at the base of it, (d), is also a hallmark of this "terrane type" as defined by Freeman et al. from the NEC

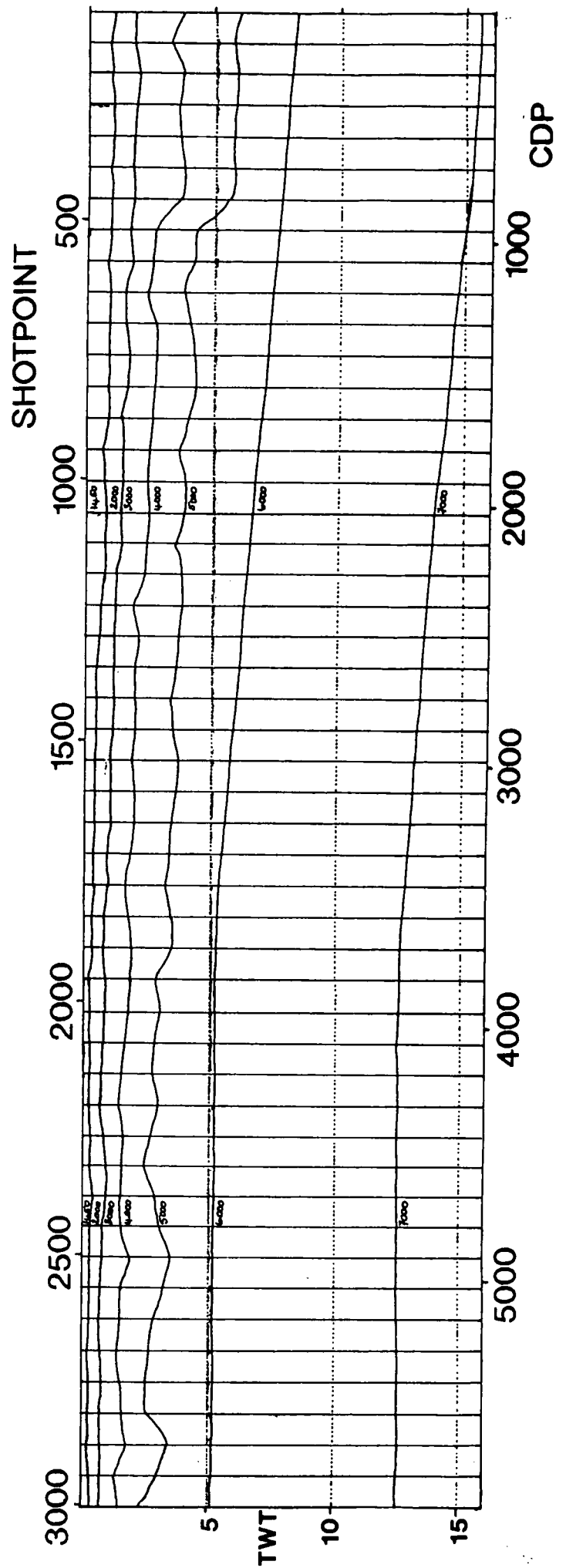


Fig. 7.3

RMS velocity analysis for line 1 final stack normal-incidence section (courtesy of BIRPS). Figures within layers represent p-velocities in ms^{-1} .

profile. The slightly dipping lower crustal reflection seen at about 8.5 s TWTT would seem to be the 24 km deep interface in the wide-angle model, which would be expected to have a TWTT of 8.8 s. The 7.0 kms^{-1} velocity required to fit the wide-angle Moho reflection travel times (which would have an estimated TWTT of approximately 10.3 s) does not appear to have a normal-incidence signature. It does not produce wide-angle reflections either, which suggests that the velocity increase to 7.0 kms^{-1} is gradational.

The estimated Moho TWTT from the wide-angle model beneath shotpoint 3037 is approximately 10.8 s, which approximately coincides with the observed normal-incidence TWTT, so it would seem that the "refraction" and "reflection" Mohos are coincident for this crustal type. The fact that the Moho appears to shallow slightly to the east supports the CSSP and the MOBIL wide-angle interpretations of a slightly shallowing Moho, but there does not seem to be any offset on the boundary which would correspond to the step interpretation of MOBIL-CSSP.

However, it turns out that the dipping reflectors mentioned in (e) and described as "dipping diffraction tails" by Blundell et al. (1990), migrate into the base of the crust. These must be the normal-incidence equivalent to D and are also likely to be more complex than straightforward diffractions. Fig. 7.4 shows this part of the normal-incidence section after migration (courtesy of Richard Hobbs) in order to attempt to clarify the shape of the structure which causes the arrivals. The result seems to be a zone of westerly-dipping, slightly concave-upwards surfaces which disrupt the Moho slightly, with only a slight change in TWTT across the zone. This image differs considerably from the wide-angle step model, which produces most seismic energy as reflections from the top, convex-upward part of the step, but looks like several cases of the "decayed" step modelled at wide-angle (Fig. 6.32). On Fig. 7.4, most of the normal-incidence reflection energy seems to be derived from the concave upward parts of the reflectors, whereas at wide-angle (Fig. 7.5), considerable energy is also reflected from the convex-upward part of the structure.

East of shotpoint 2000, where the structure is less well imaged by the wide-angle recording (and not at all east of shot 1700), the normal-incidence section becomes more complex. This is due to the presence of many multiples from the eastward-thickening sedimentary sequence throughout the upper

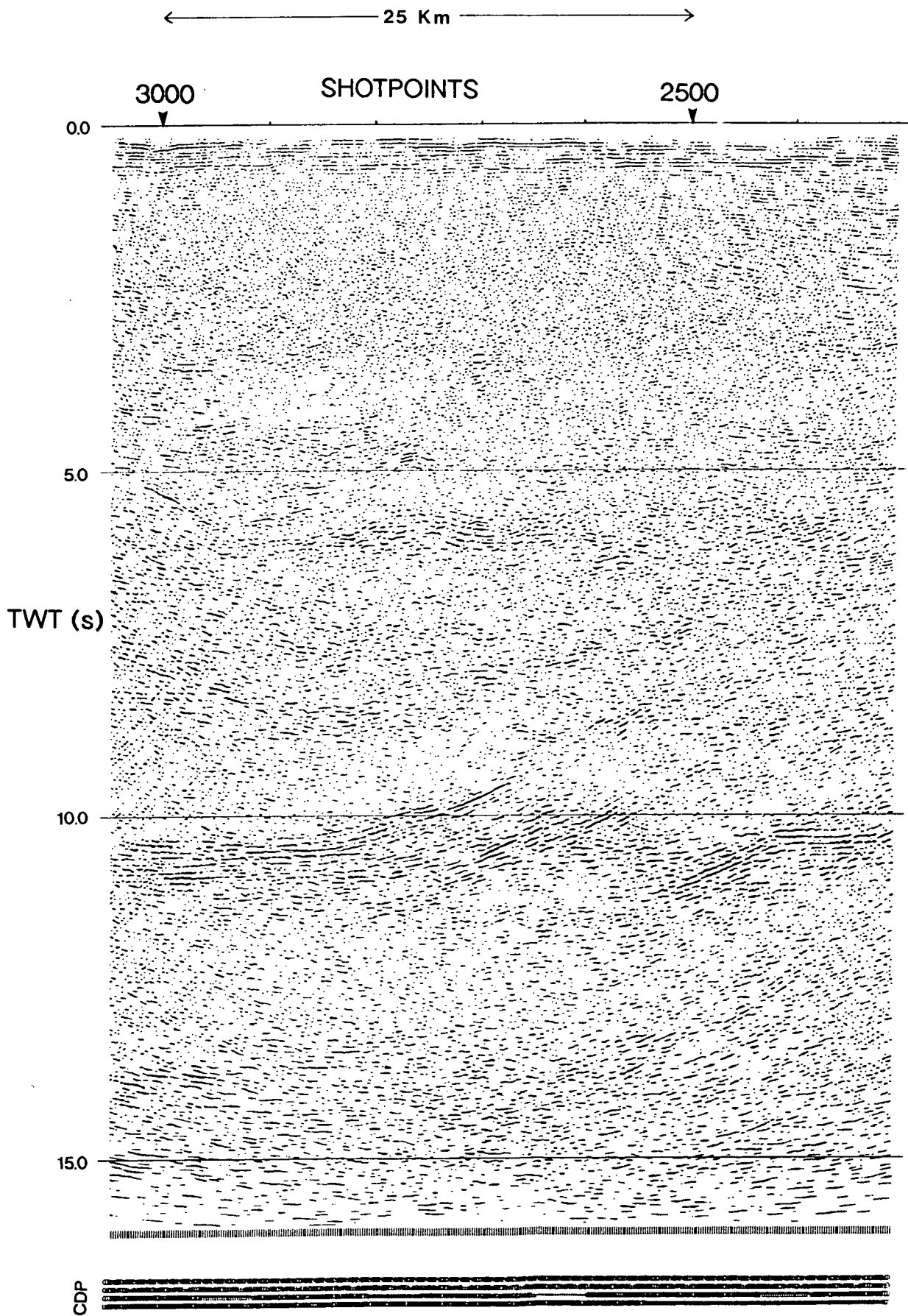


Fig. 7.4 Migrated normal-incidence section from line 1, for velocity 5.5 km s^{-1} (courtesy of Richard Hobbs, BIRPS).

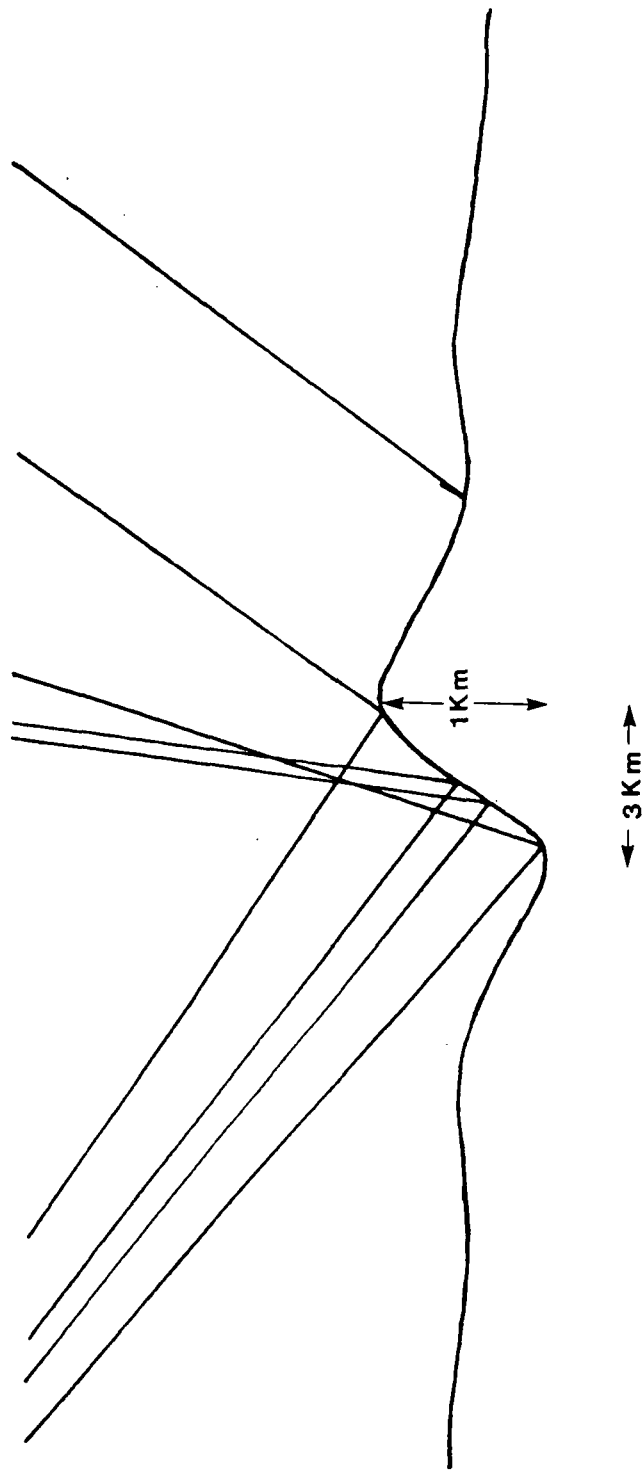


Fig. 7.5 Blown-up drawing of "decayed" Moho step modelled at wide-angle.

crust and the increased reflectivity of the lower crust. The mid-crustal band of reflections seen on the section west of shotpoint 1700 seems to practically disappear to the east. Several prominent dipping reflections are visible, cutting through the lower crust, dipping to the west (west of shotpoint 1300) and to the east (east of shotpoint 1300). Some of these appear to penetrate the Moho (beneath shotpoints 1400 and 550) although they probably migrate into the base of the crust.

The normal-incidence record section is certain to contain some seismic energy from structures out of the plane of the profile, especially from complicated features such as D. A full interpretation of this normal-incidence section must therefore incorporate a full study of lines 2 and 3, in order to obtain a three-dimensional picture of the crustal structure. The next section briefly describes the normal-incidence data collected perpendicular to line 1, in order to put the line 1 model into its crustal context.

7.2.2 NEC and MOBIL Lines 2 and 3

MOBIL lines 2 and 3 were specifically planned to resolve some of the questions raised by the BIRPS NEC profile, particularly with regard to the lower crustal dipping reflection, which is believed to represent the remnant of the Iapetus Suture. The two profiles were shot 11 km (line 2) and 65 km (line 3) northeast of, and parallel to, the location of NEC. All three of these "dip sections", lines 2, 3 and NEC, crossed line 1, which is essentially a "strike section".

Figs. 7.6, 7.7 and 7.8 show BIRPS line drawings of NEC, line 2 and line 3 respectively. It can be seen that in the region of line 1, they each show similar structural features projected along strike: transparent upper crust (with the exception of NEC, on which Freeman et al. have labelled a slightly dipping reflector T which crosses the line 1 profile at about 3.5 s TWTT) and four different types of lower crustal patterns possibly corresponding to different crustal terranes.

The region of lower crust crossed by line 1 is particularly distinct, bounded to the north by the bright, dipping lower crustal reflector identified as the Iapetus Suture, to the south by a distinct change in reflectivity, and underneath by a bright reflection Moho. On the line 2 and NEC sections, reflections beneath the Moho are also visible. After study of line 1 normal-incidence and wide-angle records, these now appear to be out-of-plane reflections from the feature which gives rise to D on the wide-angle

NEC Migrated depth sections (Distance in km)

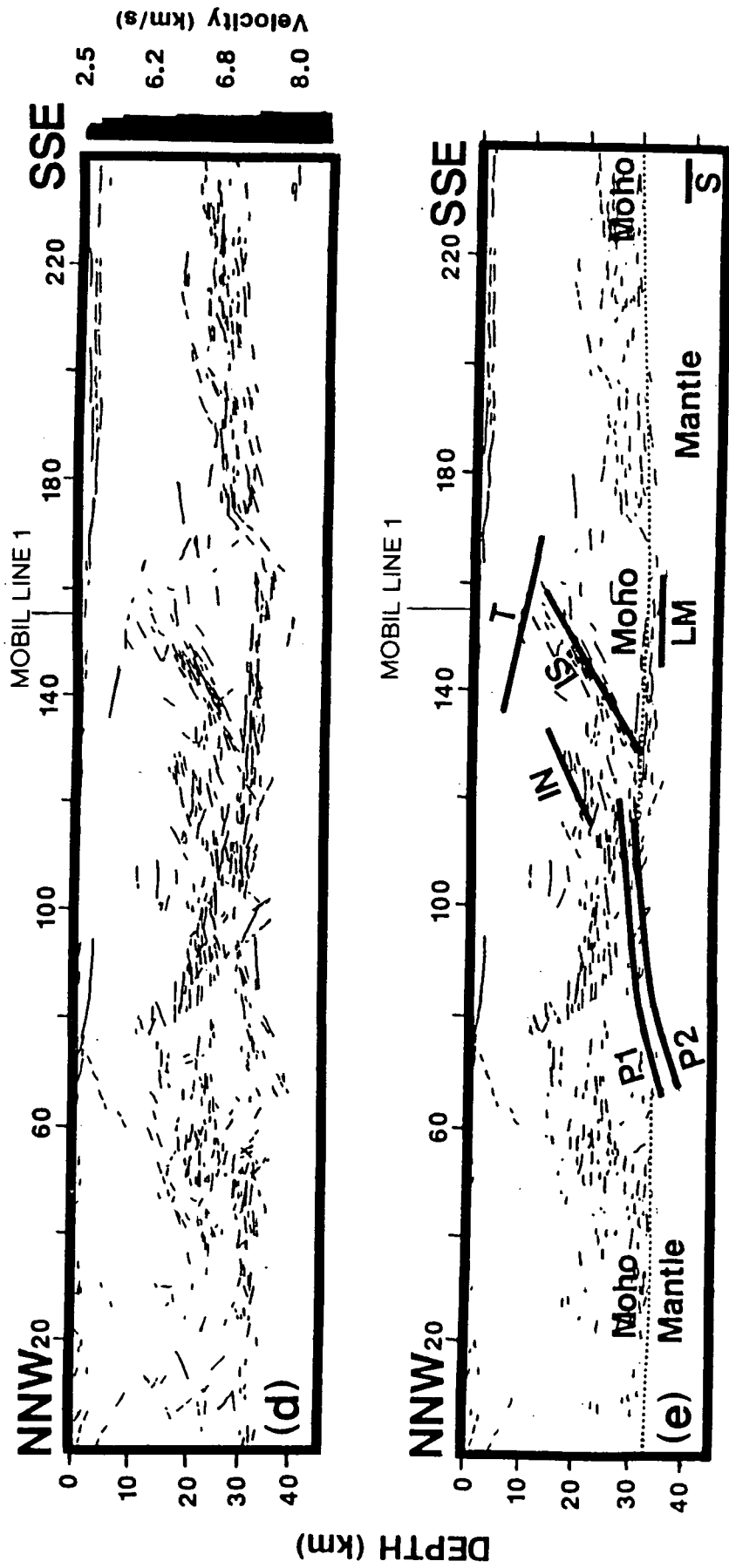


Fig. 7.6 Migrated line drawing of BIRPS NEC normal-incidence profile. From Freeman et al. (1988).

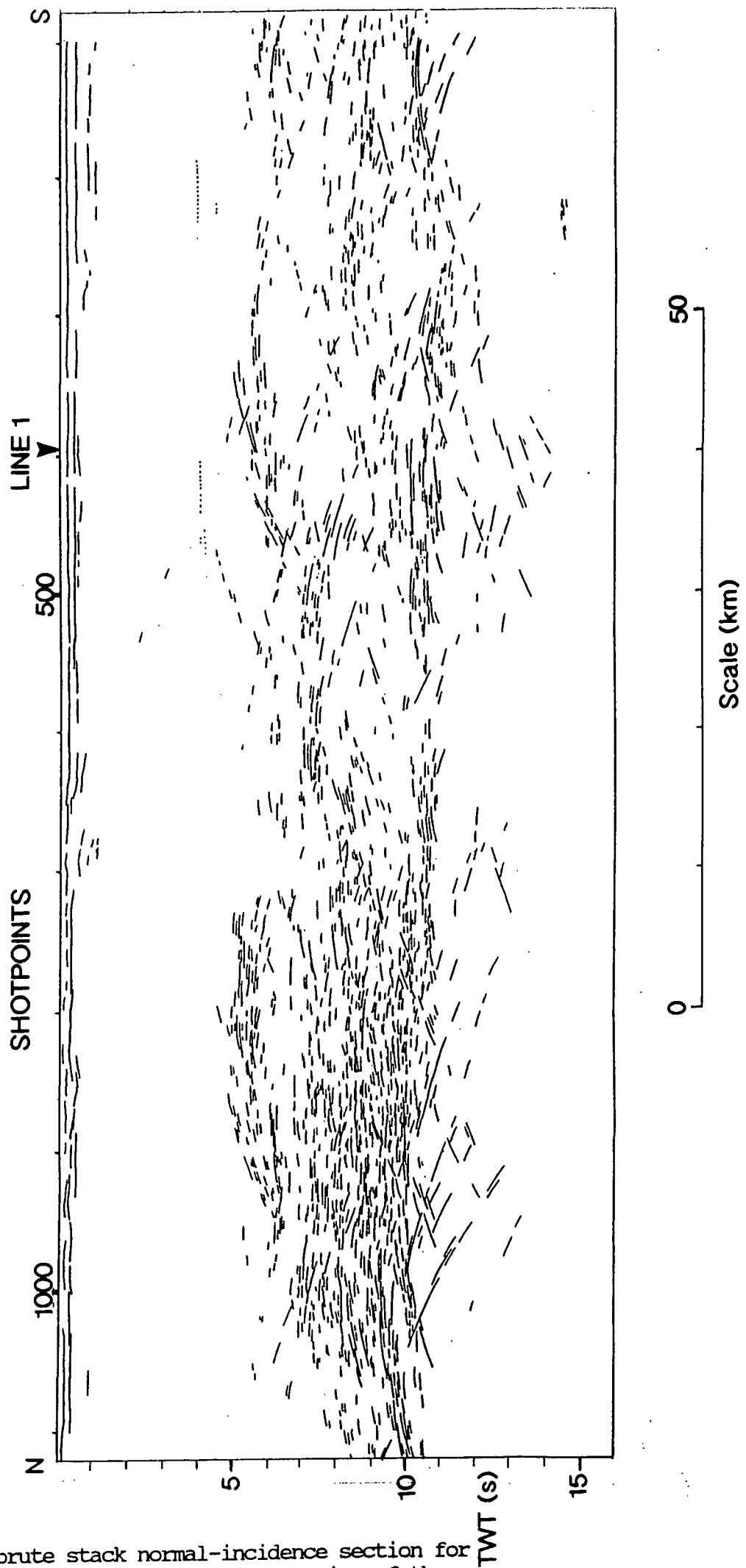


Fig. 7.7

Line drawing of brute stack normal-incidence section for MOBIL line 2 (courtesy of BIRPS), in the region of the intersection with line 1.

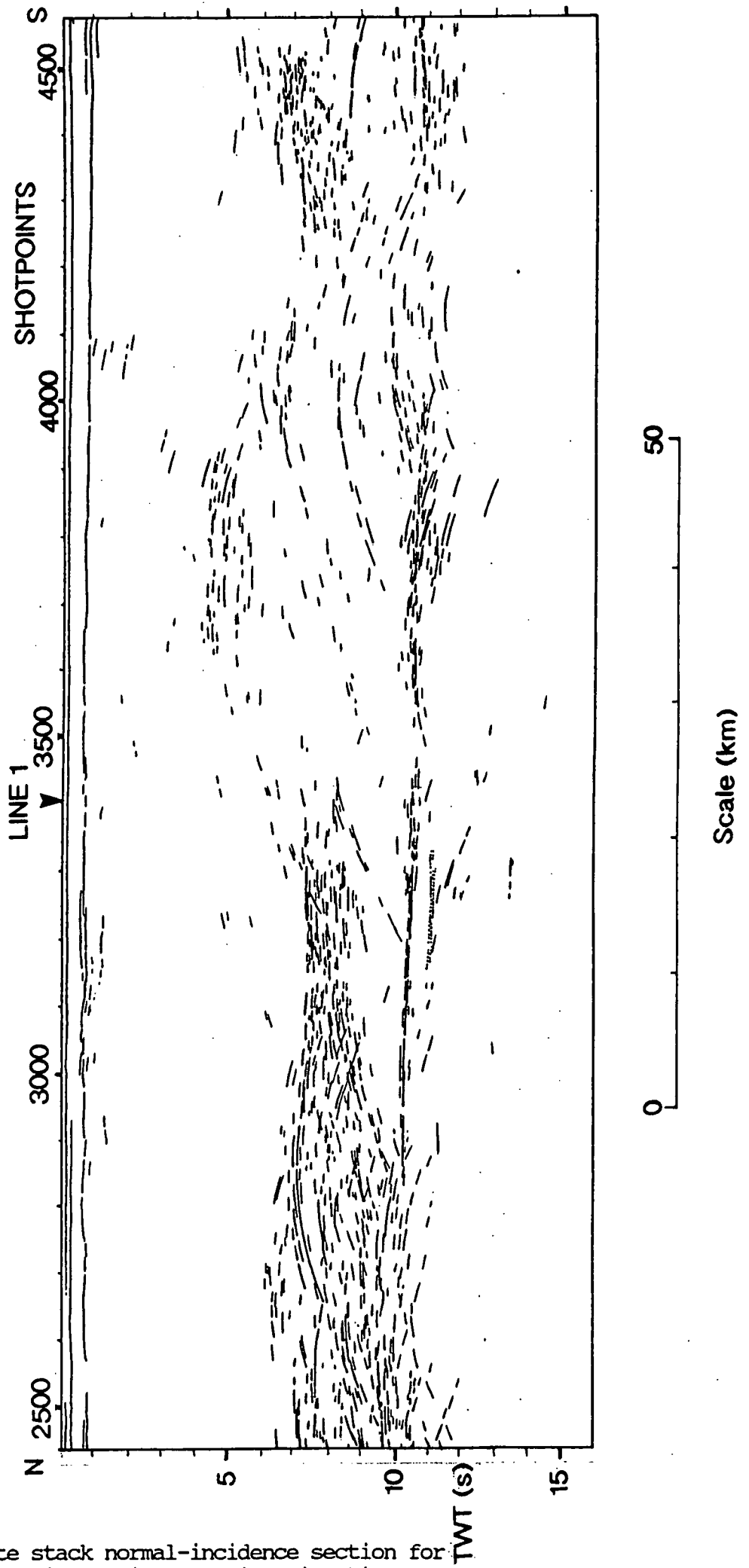


Fig. 7.8

Line drawing of brute stack normal-incidence section for MOBIL line 3 in the region of intersection with line 1 (courtesy of BIRPS).

data and the strong dipping reflectors beneath the Moho on line 1 normal-incidence data. The location of these arrivals on lines 1 and 2 indicate a NNW-SSE orientation of the Moho "step". Line 2 again shows mid-crustal reflections between 4.5 and 7 s TWTT but also shows more normal-incidence reflections apparently within the lower crust, although some may be out-of-plane effects. The 24 km interface seems to be imaged again at almost 9 s TWTT.

The main difference between the profiles which affects the observations on line 1 is that the transparent wedge beneath the lower crustal dipping reflector lies deeper within the lower crust further east, as seen on line 3. The top of the dipping reflector flattens out at about 8 s TWTT on line 3, at which point line 1 intersects, whereas it merges into the band of mid-crustal reflectors at about 7 s TWTT on NEC, which is also where it intersects line 1.

From the tie-in with lines 2 and 3, it would appear that the base of the band of mid-crustal reflectors observed on line 1 corresponds to the "Iapetus Suture" observed on these strike lines. Since this increases in depth eastward, it is evident that the Suture dips not only to the northwest (the direction of lines 2, 3 and NEC) but also slightly east-north-east along line 1. It probably intersects line 1 some way east of the line 3 intersection, giving rise to one of the easterly-dipping lower crustal reflectors.

7.2.3 MOBIL Line 2 wide-angle recording

As described in Chapter 2, the seismic wide-angle recording in Northumberland (MOBIL-CSSP) was carried out for lines 2 and 3, in addition to line 1. The records for line 1 are excellent out to almost 200 km offset from the land stations, so those recorded from the shots of lines 2 and 3 would be expected to be almost as good, if complicated more by the greater lateral variation in crustal geology. They should also provide wide-angle seismic sections perpendicular to line 1 and therefore more three-dimensional coverage. In the event, the accurate shot times for line 3 were lost, the only remaining times being to the nearest second. This would make attempted play-out of the line 3 wide-angle records impractical although the results would have been of great interest, since the mid-points of the seismic rays from these shots must lie beneath the BIRPS normal-incidence profile NEC.

However, the shot times of line 2 were recorded accurately, enabling play-out of the wide-angle

recordings by the author and their preliminary interpretation and modelling by Eric Jarvis (Jarvis, 1988). The geometry of the profile, a "fan shoot", is rather unusual and interpretation was not so straightforward as an in-line profile. A map of the shot and station locations may be seen in Fig. 7.9, illustrating the "bottoming" points of seismic rays travelling from the shots to the land recording stations, and a variable area common station section of the data for station 47 is shown in Fig. 7.10. The phases Pg, PcP, PmP and D, as identified by Jarvis, are labelled. A larger plot of a window of this data, over the area where lines 1 and 2 intersect (plotted in the same format as the line 1 sections), is to be found in Appendix C.

The method used by Jarvis for the interpretation was to extrapolate northwards the current one-dimensional model generated for line 1 and to calculate "travel time residuals" for the main phases Pg, PcP and PmP. That is, for a particular phase, he calculated the difference in travel time between that calculated from the extrapolated model and the observed data. The most important results of his interpretation are summarised below:

(a) Pg is delayed north of a point 90 km from station 54 (100 km from 47), which Jarvis suggests corresponds to the change in surface geology from Carboniferous to Silurian strata 5-15km south of the Southern Uplands Fault. The delay in Pg is attributed to a change in P-velocity across the fault rather than a deeper basement (Hall et al. 1983, Bamford et al. 1979).

(b) PcP is significantly delayed north of shot 900 (at station 54 and 47) probably due to the same cause as the delay on Pg. These rays have their mid-point at the approximate location of the "Iapetus Suture", which suggests that there is a possible associated change in upper crustal geology. This also corresponds to a change in lower crustal reflectivity as seen on the BIRPS normal-incidence records at around shot point 900. However, this does not seem to affect PmP.

(c) PmP travel times are negatively delayed immediately to the north of line 1, which suggests either a shallowing of the Moho northwards or an increase in lower crustal velocity, either of which corresponds to the observed shallowing of the Moho on the normal-incidence line 2 record sections.

These observed features of the line 2 data apply only to the region north of the line 1 intersection, lying approximately beneath the coastline. Study of the records at the intersection with line 1 enabled a comparison of common arrivals to both sets of seismic records. It is possible to correlate Pg, PcP, PmP

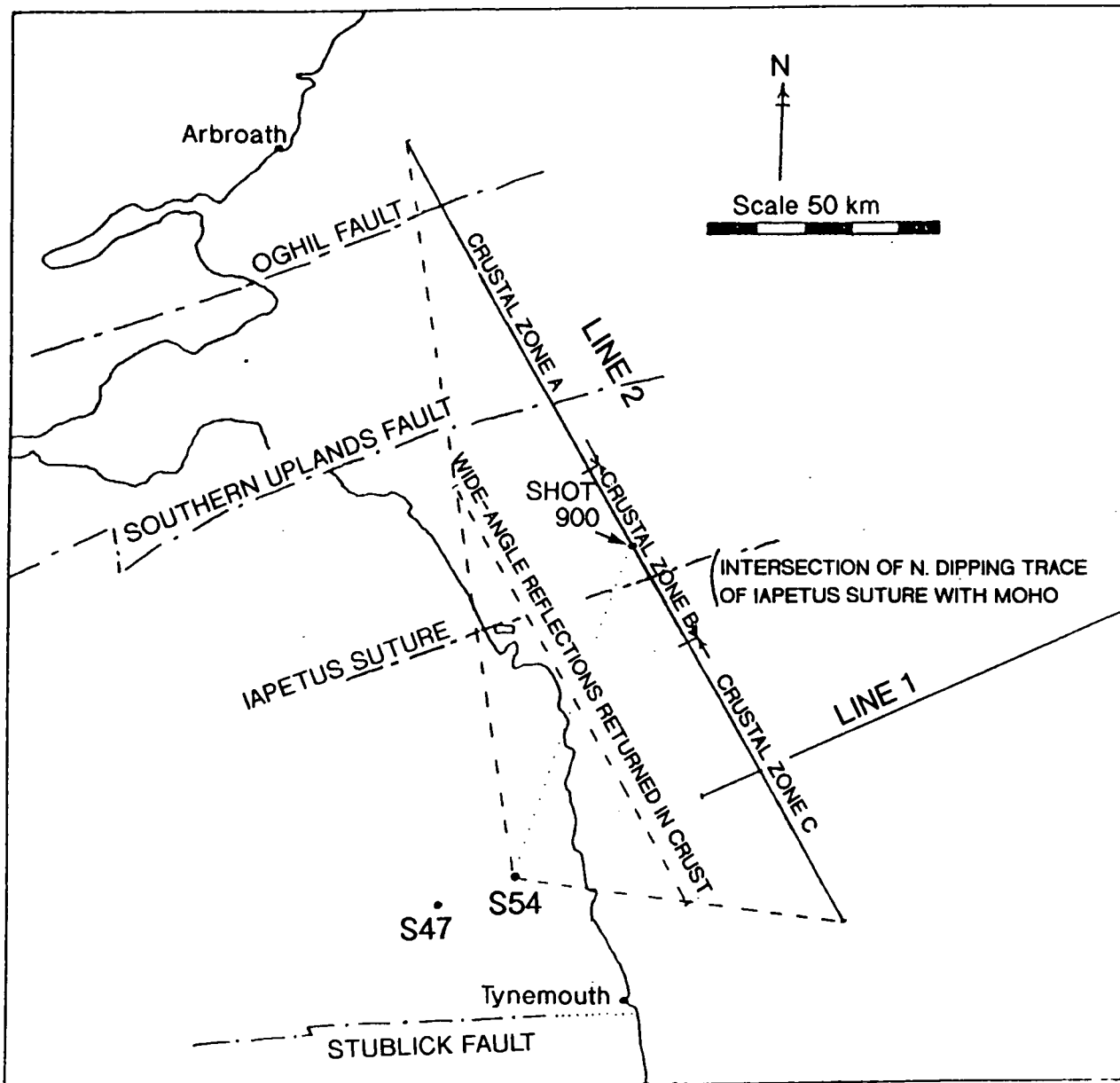


Fig. 7.9 Map showing location of MOBIL line 2 with respect to land recording stations, showing mid points for wide-angle seismic reflections. From Jarvis(1988).

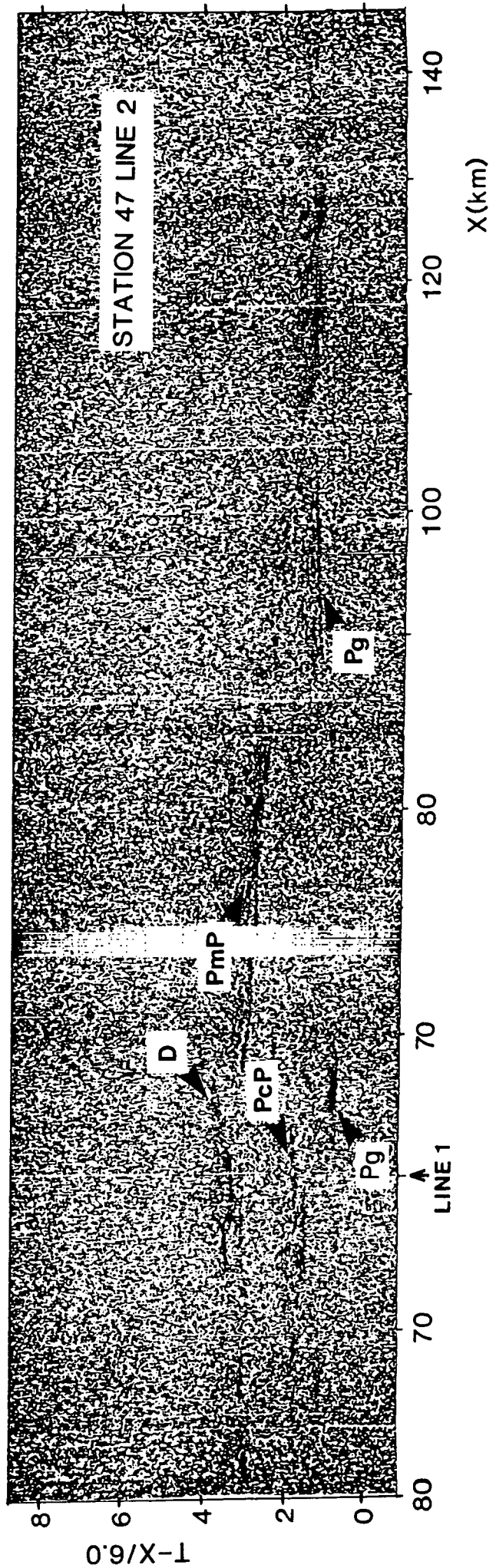


Fig. 7.10

Record section of wide-angle seismic reflection data from line 2 shots for station 47. A window of this data over the region of intersection with line 1 is contained in Appendix C, plotted in the same way as line 1 record sections.

and D from line 1 to line 2. It was this initial correlation which first revealed that the cause of the 1 s "time delay" on line 1 records was due to a jump in the shot times given out by the ship's clock.

The presence of D on the line 2 wide-angle records is interesting, since it shows that it has an effect in the plane perpendicular to that of line 1. Its appearance (see Fig. 7.10, also the section in Appendix C) is obviously rather different - it does not fully merge with PmP, and with increasing offset (away from the minimum offset of line 2) it diverges away from the PmP arrival. This is the sort of behaviour which would be expected of a diffraction or an out-of-plane dipping reflector. This arrival corresponds to the "sub-Moho" normal-incidence reflections (which are out-of plane reflections or diffractions from the "step") of the BIRPS line 2 data and NEC. The point at which this feature has a minimum on line 2 lies just south of the intersection of line 1. This therefore provides further information about the feature D out of the plane of line 1.

7.2.4 Discussion

The overall picture of the crust obtained from the deep normal-incidence profiles, with velocity information from the wide-angle data, is displayed in Fig. 7.11. The logical conclusion from comparison of the normal-incidence and wide-angle data is that the wedge of transparent crust beneath the normal-incidence "Suture" corresponds to the high velocity gradient imaged by the wide-angle data and that the mid-crustal wide-angle reflections which merge into Pg are in fact reflections from the top of the dipping slab which constitutes the "Iapetus Suture".

However, the feature which gives rise to "diffraction type" seismic arrivals at both normal-incidence and at wide-angle is without doubt the most interesting discovery of this study. Its migrated appearance at normal-incidence, seen in Fig. 7.4, shows that there is more than one case of the "decayed" step which seems to satisfy the modelling of the arrival D at wide-angle. As previously described, it appears to be made up of several concave-upward reflectors over a horizontal distance of about 10 km. The other wide-angle "diffraction-type" arrivals which merge into PmP on line 1 records, particularly on records from stations 54 and 47, are probably also imaging this region of disruption of the Moho. The fact that this disruption occurs in the vicinity of the lateral change in upper crustal velocity gradient and where there is also a visible change in mid-crustal reflectivity at normal-incidence implies

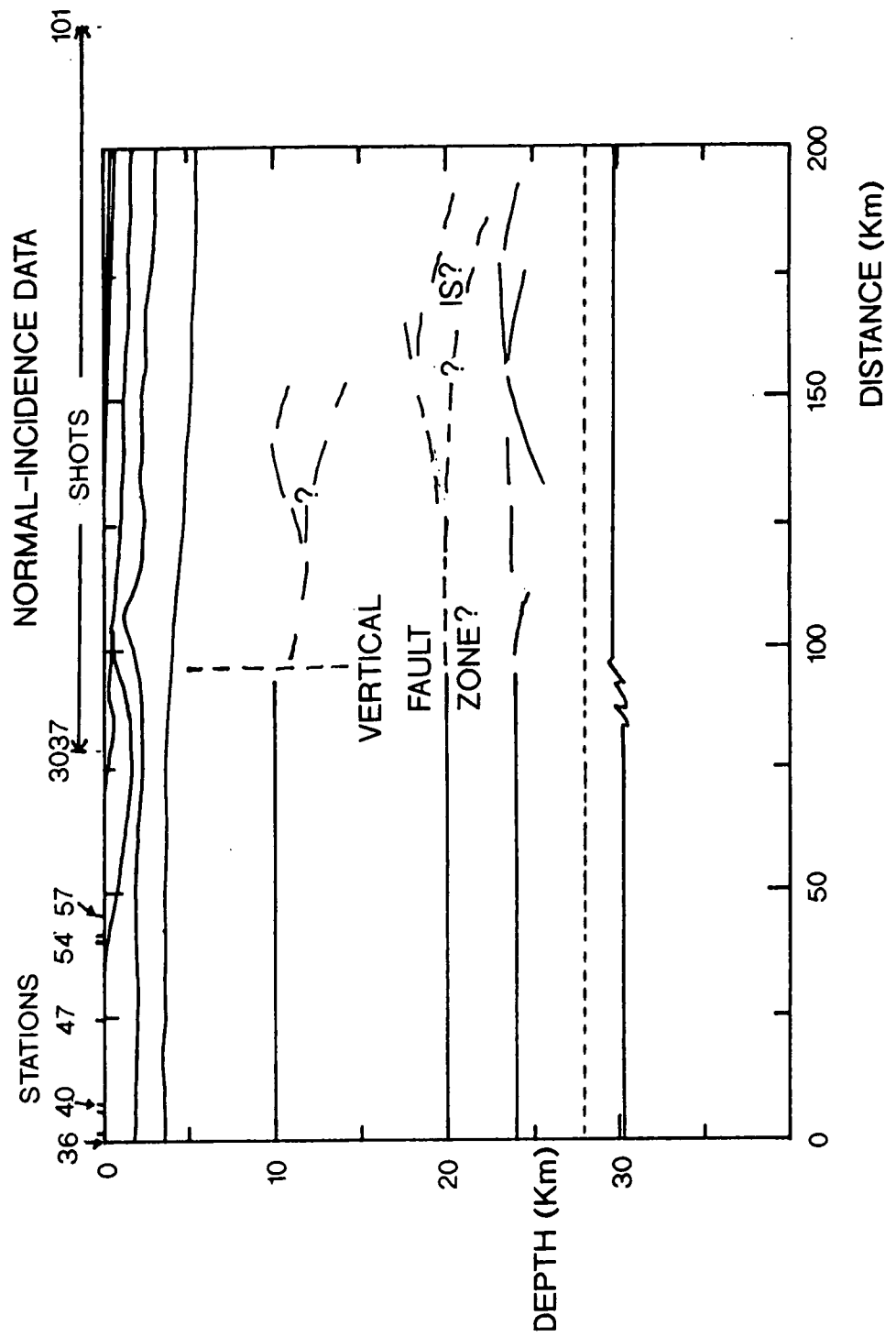


Fig. 7.11 Sketch of seismic structure beneath line 1 from combined normal-incidence and wide-angle seismic data.

that it may be connected with a deep, crust-penetrating fault. This is supported by the observation of D on line 2 wide-angle data, at a point slightly south of its intersection with line 1. This proposed fault will be discussed further in section 7.4.

7.3 Gravity interpretation

The application in recent years of image processing techniques to the analysis of potential field data has led to the use of colour and shaded-relief images of the onshore gravity and aeromagnetic datasets for Great Britain. These images highlight structural trends and lineaments which were not obvious on standard contour maps. Lee et al. (1990) have used such images to study some of the most important structural features of central Britain, including the Iapetus Suture.

However, the Suture seems to have no well-defined gravity or magnetic signature - this is hardly surprising since the only remnant seems to be the deeply buried dipping slab imaged by the BIRPS normal-incidence records, which is covered by weakly magnetic Silurian and Upper Palaeozoic sediments. The western end of the Solway Line runs between two parallel magnetic highs which may represent separate crustal blocks, but these anomalies fade towards North-East England leaving a fairly unremarkable image of the area in which the MOBIL-CSSP recording was carried out.

Also, the offshore coverage is much poorer, and such images of the North Sea gravity and aeromagnetic field would hardly be likely to be widely available anyway, but they would provide some valuable insights into the structural detail offshore. Donato et al. (1983) interpreted gravity anomalies in the region of this study, indicating the presence of granite bodies beneath the Mid North Sea High. Powell (1983) described the free air profile collected from the 1982 CSSP cruise in the North Sea and Lewis (1986) carried out gravity modelling of the Bouguer anomaly along the CSSP line in his interpretation of the CSSP explosive experiment, starting with the seismic model. No gravity modelling has been undertaken in the course of this study, although the information from gravity, particularly about the densities of the layers, identified so far by their seismic velocities, is of great value in forming a geological model. A qualitative description of the gravity information therefore follows.

The Bouguer gravity contour map for the area crossed by the CSSP, and the Bouguer anomaly profile along MOBIL-CSSP line 1 are shown in Fig. 7.12. Concentrating on the information for the area crossed by the MOBIL programme, the main features of the profile (Fig. 7.12(b)) are:

- (a) The apparent regional trend of the Bouguer anomaly, which decreases eastward towards the coast, increases by about 8 mgal over a distance of about 40 km and then decreases eastward again;
- (b) A negative gravity anomaly of about 5 mgal amplitude, occurring in the region of the coast;
- (c) A positive anomaly of about 10 mgal amplitude, which appears at about 40 km offshore;
- (d) A negative anomaly of about 10 mgal towards the eastern end of the profile.

Lewis'(1986) gravity model, pictured in Fig. 7.13, fits the overall gravity effect satisfactorily: the onshore trend, (a), decreasing towards the coast, may be explained by the increasing thickness of Carboniferous sediment in the Northumberland Trough, whilst that offshore seems likely to correspond to the thickening Tertiary sedimentary sequence of the North Sea. The MOBIL wide-angle model incorporates an increasing depth to crystalline basement which will also contribute to this effect. The negative anomaly at the eastern end of the profile, (d), has been modelled (Donato et al., 1983) as an off-line granite mass within the basement.

However, the model does not fully explain the features (b) and (c), whose short wavelengths (similar to (d)) suggest that they are caused by relatively shallow structures. The most plausible explanation of (b) would seem to be that it is caused by the local Carboniferous syncline which can be seen in the shallow velocity structure of Fig. 6.5.

It is interesting to note that (c) arises close to the location of the "Moho step" and the lateral change in upper crustal velocity gradient in the MOBIL model. This is superimposed on the long-wavelength regional increase (a) and both may be related to the proposed fault. Using the slab formula to obtain a rough idea of the effect of a Moho step of 1 km, an increase of approximately 8 mgal would be expected over the region of the step, as a long wavelength feature of the profile. The regional anomaly (a) could therefore support a decrease in Moho depth across this region of the order of 1 km.

Acting against this long wavelength anomaly is the effect (b) of the Upper Carboniferous syncline

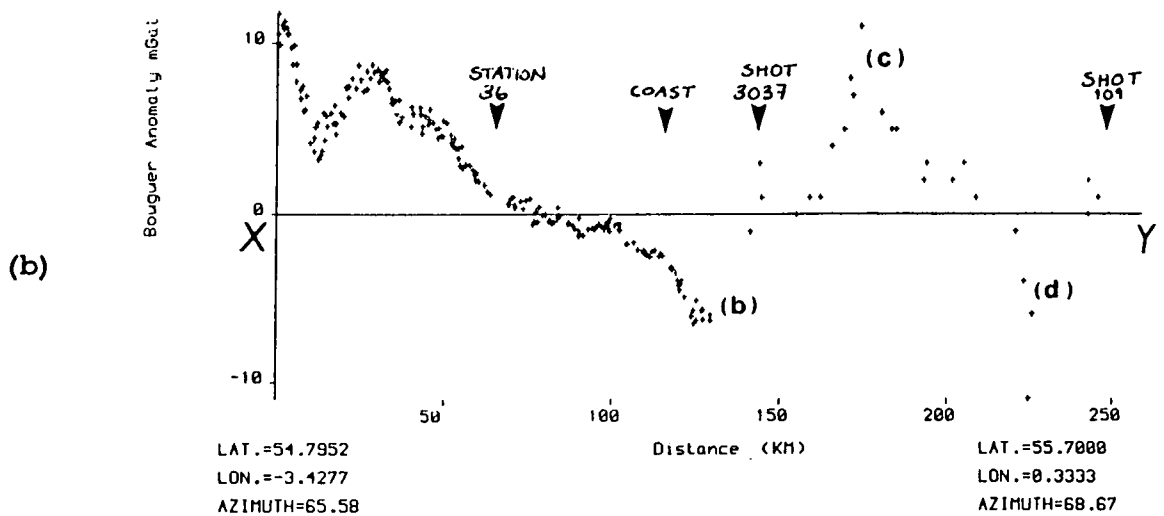
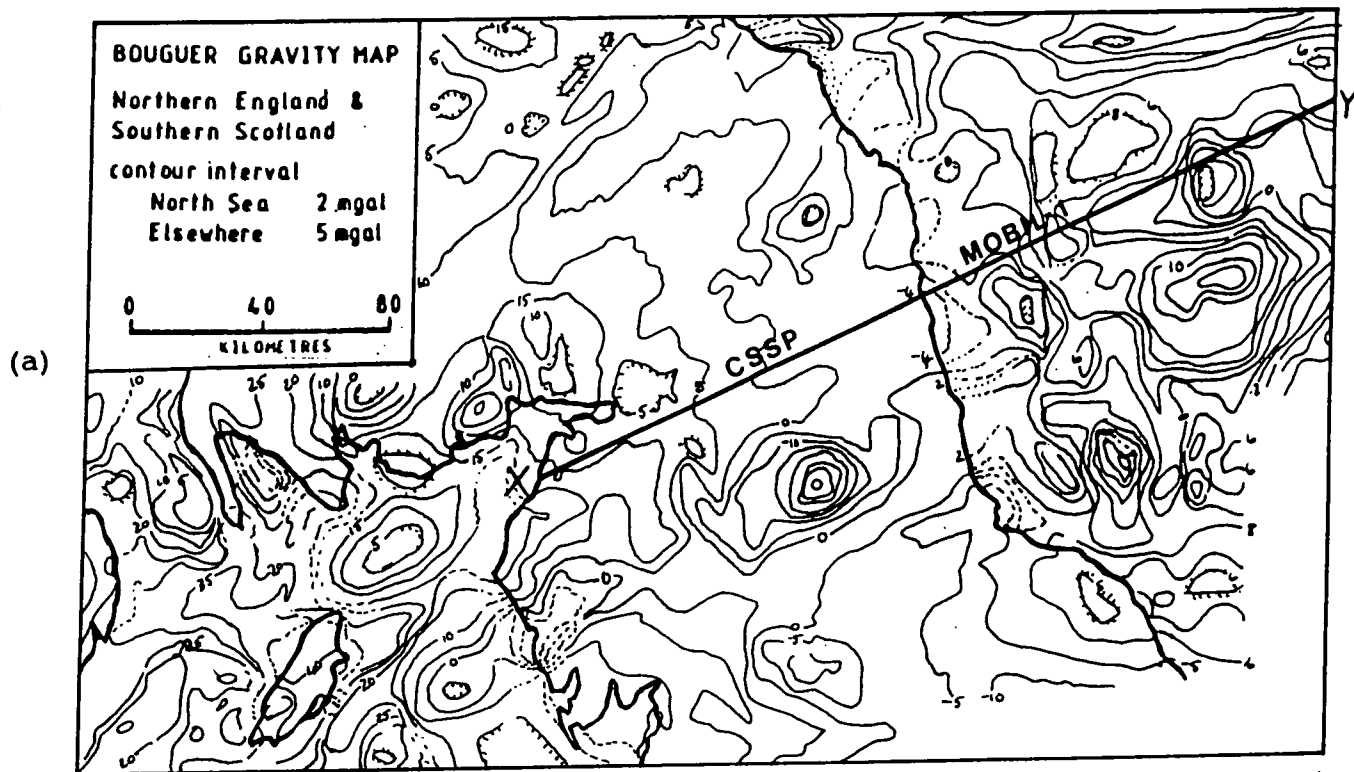


Fig. 7.12 (a) Bouguer anomaly contour map for Northern England showing location of MOBIL line 1 and CSSP recording stations (from Green, 1984).
 (b) Bouguer anomaly profile along section X-Y (courtesy of Richard Woollett).

just offshore, but then adding to it is the effect of the lateral termination of the syncline against the Lower Carboniferous. This event may be sharper than it is represented in the seismic model, so it is very likely that feature (c) on the Bouguer gravity corresponds to this. The shape of the gravity profile between 150 and 200 km is therefore a combination of the effect of the Moho step, the Upper Carboniferous syncline and its truncation against the Mid North Sea High.

The Bouguer contour map (Fig. 7.12(a)) shows at this location an apparent North-South lineament, also noticed by Smith and Taylor (1989). If this may be explained at its occurrence on the MOBIL profile by the Moho step and lateral changes above it, then this must be what is happening along the length of the lineament, which must therefore be a fault. The significant geological implications of this model, discussed in the next section, would justify more detailed modelling of the Bouguer gravity in any further work on this interpretation.

7.4 Structural interpretation

The two most important structural features imaged by the MOBIL survey, and by the wide-angle data of line 1 in particular, are the lateral change in upper crustal velocity gradient and the proposed steps of the Moho, both approximately 50 km offshore. These seem to be due to the same feature, a crust-cutting fault, which would appear from the location of the velocity change above the "step" to be vertical. The observations of D on line 2 records and of a lineament in the Bouguer gravity field have reinforced this interpretation.

The vertical nature of the fault and the apparent lack of any vertical offset across the mid-crustal velocity change suggest a wrench fault, in preference to normal or thrust faulting. The orientation, perpendicular to Caledonian strike, reduces the possibility of it being related to the "Iapetus Suture" and this location should be sufficiently distant from the central North Sea basin to rule out the likelihood of it being an extension-related structure. A possible explanation seems to be that it is a wrench fault related to the strike-slip environment which occurred further south in the Sole Pit region of the Southern North Sea Basin.

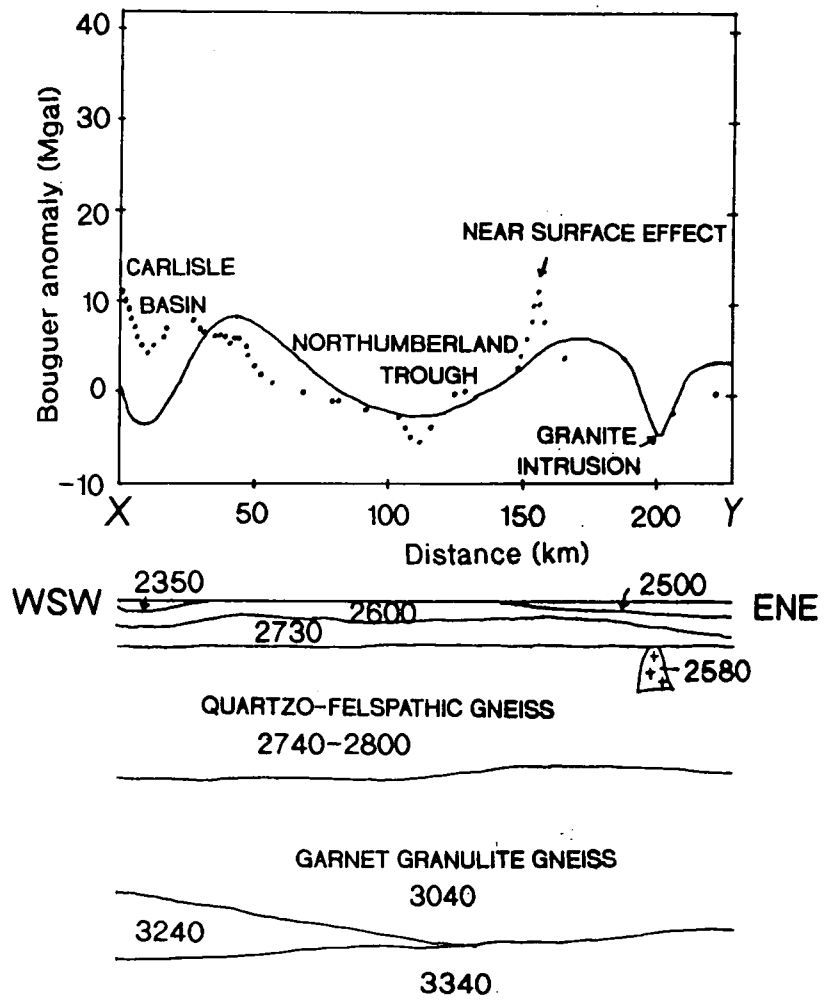


Fig. 7.13 Model obtained by Lewis (1986) by modelling the Bouguer anomaly along the CSSP profile (see Fig. 1.9 for location). Numbers within model layers represent densities in kg m^{-3} .

This idea is supported by the fact that **Matthews (1989)** has modelled a very similar "Moho step" from the MOBIL wide-angle data recorded at Market Weighton from line 5. This step occurs at the location of the Dowsing Fault zone, with which the geological history of the Sole Pit is closely associated (**Van Hoorn, 1987**). Since the location of the Dowsing Fault is poorly known north of Flamborough Head, where an offshoot of it runs ashore, it may be possible that the crustal change observed on MOBIL line 1 is caused by the northward extension of this or a similar sub-parallel fault.

On the basis of this, **Fig. 7.14** shows the proposed location of the fault, from all the geophysical evidence described so far, and in agreement with the proposed fault of **Smith and Taylor (1989)** (see also **Fig. 1.7**). If this is the Dowsing Fault, it seems to run through the Mid-North Sea High as far as the Forth Approaches basin.

The Dowsing Fault Zone is known to have played several roles during its history, in tensional, transpressional and transtensional senses (**Van Hoorn, 1987**). Although little is known of the Carboniferous development in the region of lines 4 and 5, **Donato and Megson (1990)** report that the lower Carboniferous was a period of fault-controlled subsidence for both the Sole Pit Trough and the Cleveland basin, affected by a granite buried beneath the East Midland Shelf. Like the Northumberland Trough (**Fraser and Gawthorpe, 1990**), these basins were inverted at the end of the Carboniferous due to the effect of the Variscan orogeny to the south (**Glennie and Boegner, 1981**). If, as suggested here from the geophysical evidence, the Dowsing Fault Zone continues up to the Mid North Sea High, the tectonic histories of the Northumberland Trough, the Mid-North Sea High (which was also uplifted at the end of the Carboniferous), the Cleveland basin and the Sole Pit Trough must have been linked by this major crustal fault.

Since the Carboniferous, the Dowsing Fault zone is believed to have been reactivated during the Late Cretaceous and Mid Tertiary, when it is thought to have been most active (**Van Hoorn, 1987**). If this is when a step (or series of steps, as seen on the normal-incidence data) was created, it would be expected to decay considerably over geological time. The seismic model generated from this study seems to show that this is exactly what has been observed, vindicating the **Kusznir and Matthews (1988)** model of the decay of Moho topography. It would therefore seem that the MOBIL wide-angle data has

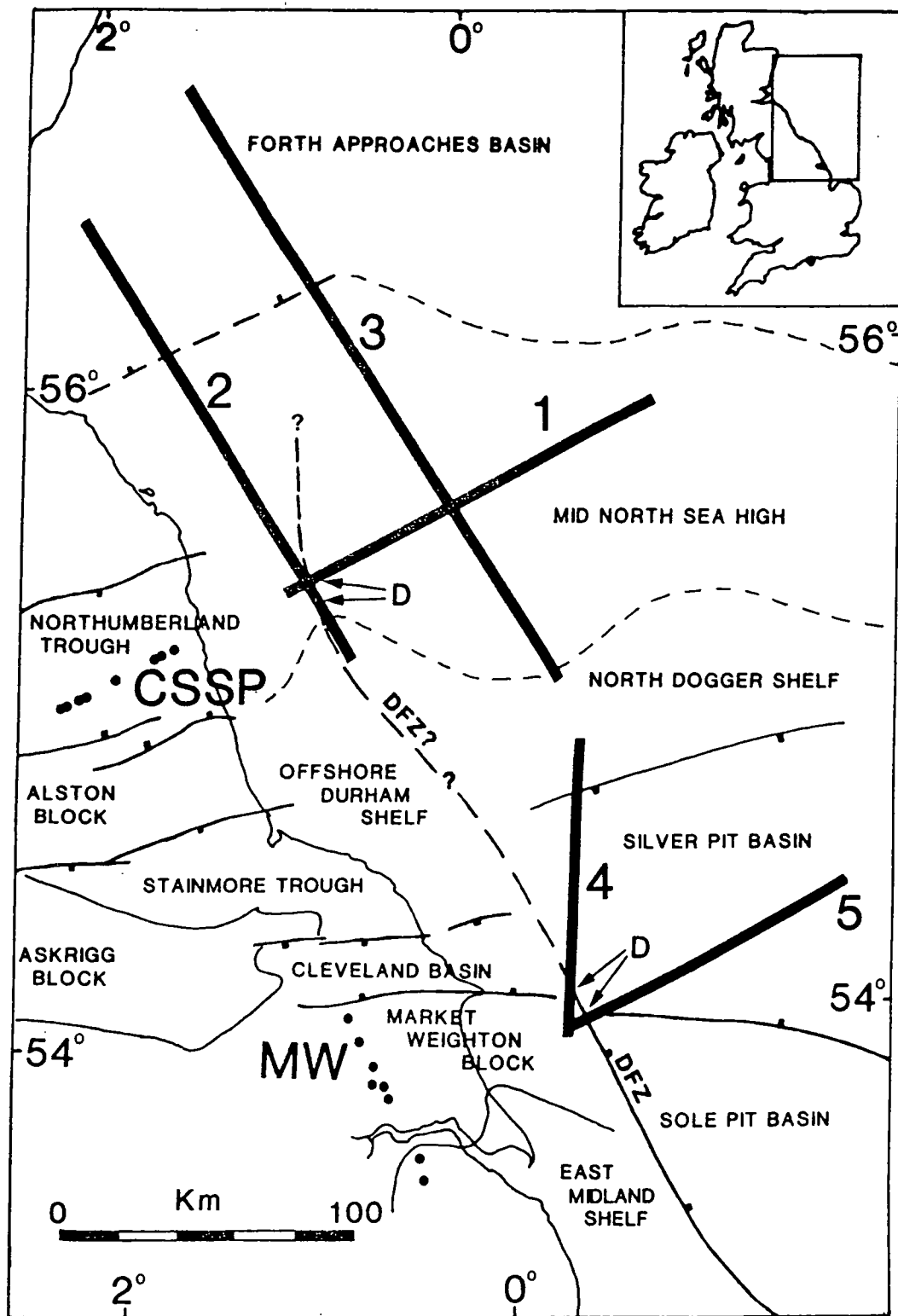


Fig. 7.14 Map of the geological structures of North-East England and the adjacent region of the North Sea, with the MOBIL normal-incidence and wide-angle reflection profiles superimposed. This shows the suggested northward continuation of the Dowsing Fault Zone (DFZ) to the Mid North Sea High. Onshore geology from Fraser and Gawthorpe (1990); Offshore geology (except the DFZ extension) from Glennie (1986). D shows the location of the observed wide-angle and normal-incidence seismic arrival from a step on the Moho.

revealed a significant geological feature of this area.

7.5 Complementary CSSP (1982) S-wave data

Although the explosive CSSP P-wave wide-angle seismic data may have been superseded by the MOBIL wide-angle data, no evidence for S-wave arrivals is seen on the MOBIL records, in spite of playing out the records to 30 s reduced travel time. Airguns are obviously unable to generate S-waves and conversions of reasonable amplitude are absent in this locality. By contrast, the CSSP sea-bottom explosive shots generated excellent shear waves, presumably by conversion at the sea-bottom refractor or at a deeper interface. A record section from station 36 of the original CSSP is shown in Fig. 7.15 to illustrate the SV phases which were observed on record sections from vertical seismometers.

Some preliminary synthetic seismogram modelling of the SV-wave data from CSSP was carried out using Lewis' (1986) P-wave CSSP model as a starting point. The result obtained was that although upper crustal rocks seemed to fit a standard Poisson's ratio of 0.25, the SmS phase (the S-wave wide-angle reflection from the Moho) was fitted considerably better by a Poisson's ratio of the order 0.30. Fig. 7.16 is a synthetic section for the same station as the real data section of Fig. 7.15, showing a good travel time fit and reasonable amplitude fit for the SmS phase.

This result has yet to be verified by further work, but it has interesting implications. Interpretation of similar S-wave refraction data from south-west Germany (Gajewski et al. 1987) has identified two different types of lower crust. Type I, found under the Black Forest and the Urach geothermal anomaly, has a high Poisson's ratio of 0.28-0.3, a high P-velocity of 6.6-6.8 kms⁻¹ and prominent layering (as imaged at normal-incidence). It returns a mid-crustal reflector from 14-16 km depth, and is therefore slightly thicker than type II, which returns a mid-crustal reflector from 18-21 km depth. Type II has a lower P-velocity, 6.3-6.4 kms⁻¹, a Poisson's ratio of 0.25-0.26, and is less laminated. It is found under the larger part of southwest Germany which is covered by Triassic sedimentation.

Insufficient work has been done on the CSSP explosive S-wave data to be able to say whether the crust beneath this region is similarly divided into different types defined by P- and S-velocity, but the

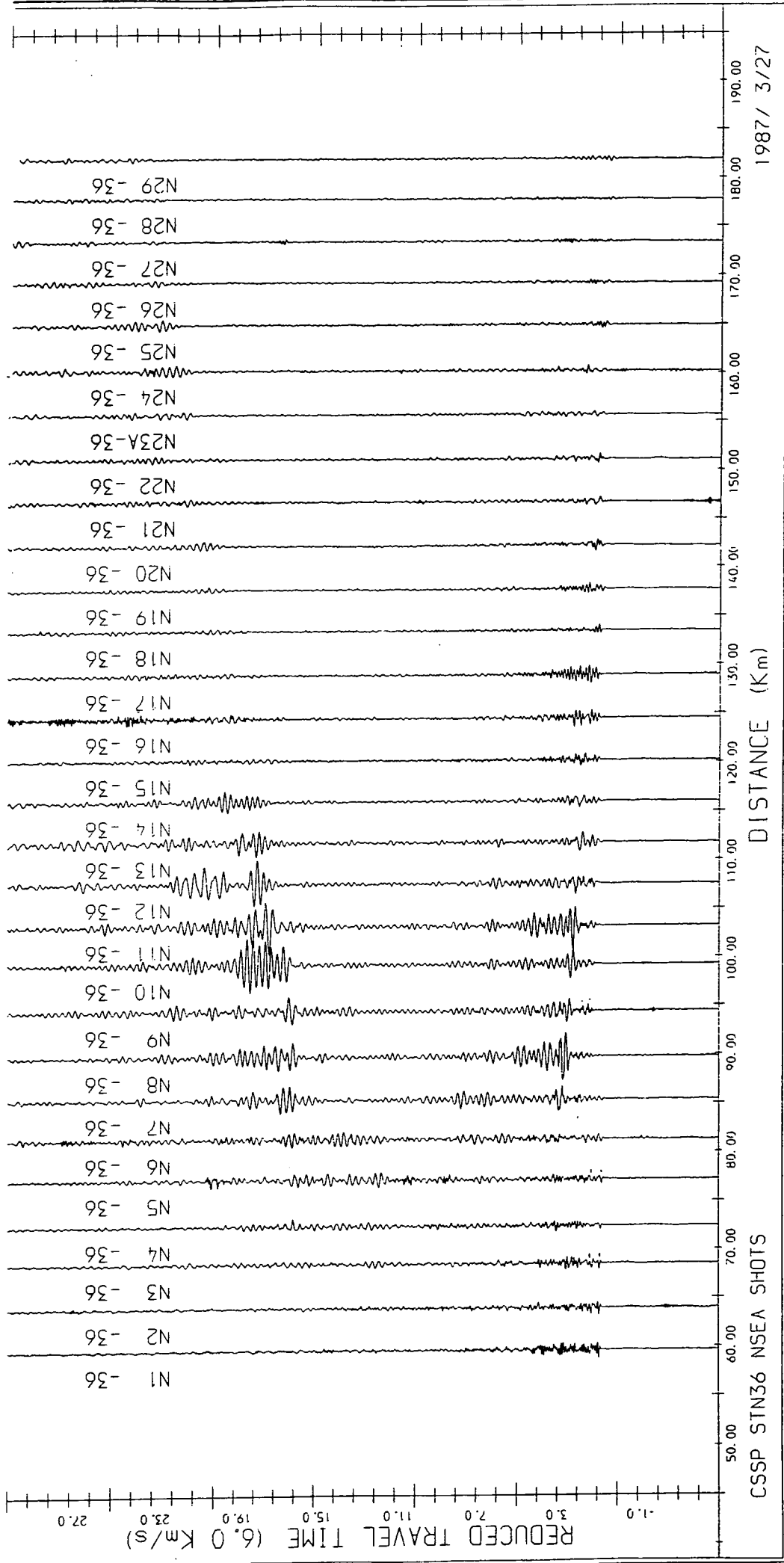


Fig. 7.15 Record section from CSSP, 1982, showing SV-wave arrivals.

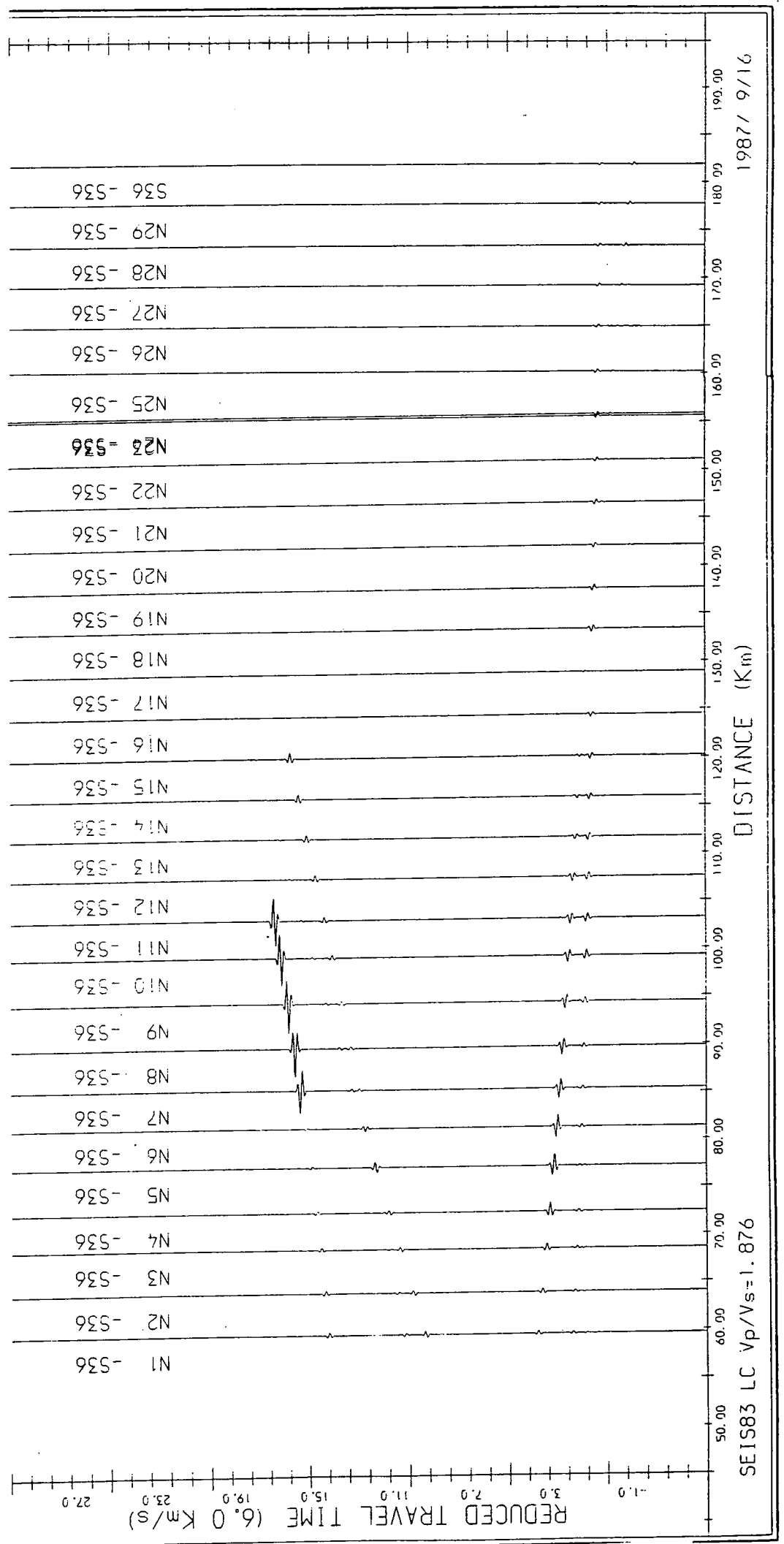


Fig. 7.16 Synthetic seismogram generated by SEIS83 for station 36 CSSP data to fit SV arrivals.

distinct lower crustal terranes postulated by Freeman et al. (1988) might well be expected to show such variation (the CSSP region seems to be rather similar to type I from this preliminary work). Obviously, a satisfactory P-wave model from the high-quality MOBIL wide-angle data needs to be obtained first, but following this by S-wave modelling of the CSSP records from the same region would be very worthwhile and would yield a better idea of the crustal composition than P-wave velocities alone.

This is illustrated by Sandmeier and Wenzel (1990), who have successfully modelled the type I lower crust beneath the Black Forest in terms of high and low P-velocity (V_p) lamellae which also have high and low Poisson's ratios. This approach produces the observed scattering of P-waves from the lower crust with only minor S-wave reflections. The low- V_p /low Poisson's ratio layers have been interpreted as corresponding to quartz-rich rock, whereas the high- V_p /high Poisson's ratio corresponds to amphibole and plagioclase-rich rocks.

7.6 Crustal composition

The upper crustal composition along the CSSP profile was interpreted by Green (1984) as Precambrian metamorphic crystalline basement and modelled as such (quartzo-feldspathic gneiss) by Lewis (1986) in his gravity interpretation of CSSP. This would have a density of 2.74-2.80 gcm⁻³, corresponding to a P-velocity of 6.15-6.17 kms⁻¹, approximately the average upper crustal P-velocity observed from MOBIL-CSSP.

Lewis' model for the lower crust, based on an average P-velocity of 6.77 kms⁻¹, was of a granulite composition, between pyroxene granulite gneiss (6.45 kms⁻¹) and garnet granulite gneiss (7.0 kms⁻¹), which gave an average density of 3.04 gcm⁻³ for gravity modelling. These compositions would fit the 6.5-6.8 kms⁻¹ and 7.0 kms⁻¹ layers identified by MOBIL-CSSP and means that there would not be significant differences between the gravity effect of the MOBIL and CSSP models. The boundary between the two lower crustal layers observed by MOBIL could then correspond to a mineralogical transition zone between the two types of granulite gneiss.

The densities used by Lewis for gravity modelling along the CSSP profile are shown in Table 7.1,

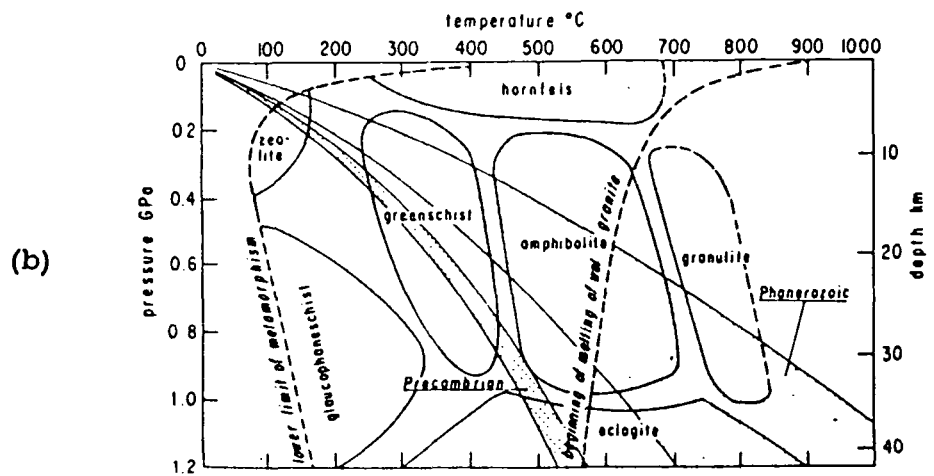
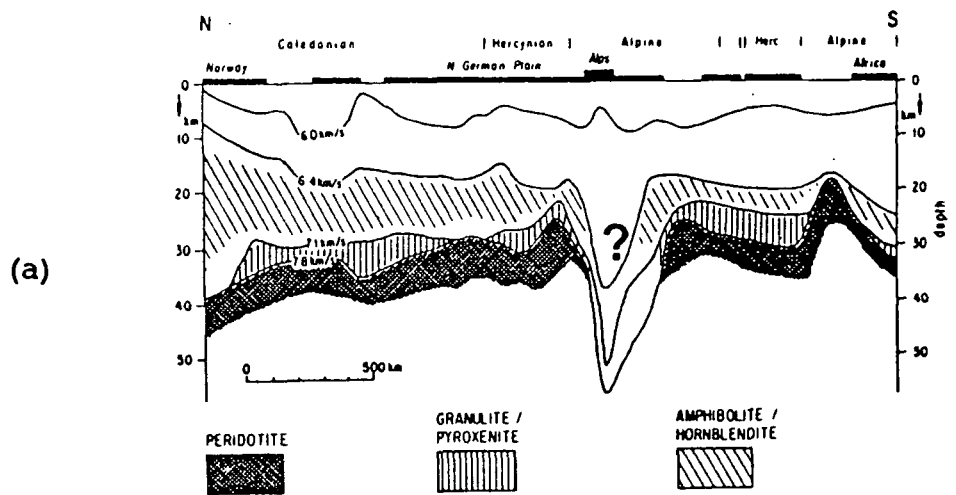


Fig. 7.17 (a) Petrological model for the European Geotraverse and (b) Turner's (1968) scheme of pressure-temperature domains for metamorphic rocks, from Rybach, (1987).

PARAMETERS USED IN GRAVITY MODELLING

Material	Velocity (km/s)	Density (kg/m)
Permo-trias sediments	3.2	2.35
Carboniferous sediments	4.5	2.60
Lower Paleozoic sediments	5.5-5.7	2.73
Upper crust (felsp. to interm. gneiss)	6.15-6.17	2.74-2.80
North Sea granite	5.8	2.58
Carlisle basic intrusion	6.15	2.89
Lower crust	6.75-6.77	3.04
Moho Layer	7.0-8.0	3.24
Upper Mantle	>8.0	3.34
From Blundell <u>et al</u> (1985)		
Moine metamorphics and Lewisian amphibolite facies quartzo-felspathic gneiss	6.15	2.74
Pyroxene granulite gneiss	6.45	2.86
Garnet granulite gneiss	7.00	3.10
Moho Layer	7.50	3.20
Upper Mantle	8.10	3.30

Table 7.1 Densities used by Lewis(1986) for gravity modelling of crustal structure.

with the equivalent seismic P-velocities. These values plot onto a velocity-density graph within the scatter of the Nafe-Drake curve (Lewis 1986).

Rybach (1987) has interpreted the lower crustal composition beneath the European Geotraverse on the basis of seismic velocity and radioactive heat production, considering the pressure-temperature domains of the different metamorphic facies. His resulting model is shown in Fig. 7.17 with Turner's (1968) representation of the metamorphic pressure-temperature domains. The model, which crosses the Caledonian crust of Norway and Sweden, incorporates similar P-velocities to those observed on MOBIL-CSSP. Most of the lower crust is interpreted as amphibolite/hornblendite, with a layer of higher velocity granulite at the base of the crust and an upper mantle of peridotite composition. However, this interpretation does not seem to have considered whether the lower crust is "wet" or "dry", and amphibolite would be the expected rock type for "wet" crust.

A likely explanation of the lower crustal composition is that it is made up of a heterogeneous mixture of different rock types, especially in areas where the lower crust is very reflective, such as the region north of the "Iapetus Suture". Freeman et al (1988) have interpreted this as a subduction complex buried in the process of continental subduction. For the transparent crustal wedge beneath the "Suture", however, a more homogeneous composition seems appropriate, in which case the model proposed by Lewis is adequate.

CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSIONS AND FURTHER WORK

8.1 Introduction

The main point to emerge from this study is how successful the recording of closely spaced airgun shots at wide-angle has proved to be. The 50 m shot spacing and high frequency of the airgun source (compared to marine explosive shots) have generated data of unprecedented resolution, which has even enabled the identification of lateral discontinuities, usually difficult to locate by wide-angle surveys. The exactly coincident recording of deep normal incidence seismic reflection has shown how well the techniques complement each other, one illuminating the features missed or not understood from the other. More exactly coincident surveys of this type are obviously the way forward in crustal seismic exploration.

The main conclusions obtained from this experiment are presented below.

8.2 The structure beneath the Northumberland Trough

As mentioned in **section 7.2**, the crust actually sampled by the MOBIL wide-angle data lies between station 54 and shot 1700, and only the western end of this line, approximately between shots 2500 and 3030, actually lies beneath the Northumberland Trough. The remainder of the profile is overlain by the eastward-thickening sedimentary sequence of the North Sea, but the whole of the line runs almost along the axis of the Mid-North Sea High, a basement High since the Late Palaeozoic, which divides the Northern and Southern North Sea basins. The structure interpreted by this survey would therefore be better described as "the deep structure beneath the Mid North Sea High".

The main features of the seismic interpretation of this study may be summarised:

(a) The whole region is underlain by crystalline basement at about 4 km depth, deepening eastward beneath the sedimentary load of the North Sea. The velocity at the top of this basement is 6.13

kms^{-1} out to about shotpoint 2800, east of which it decreases to 5.97 kms^{-1} .

(b) The upper crust is fairly homogeneous, consisting of a vertical velocity gradient down to 20 km depth of 6.13 to 6.38 kms^{-1} to the west, and 5.97 - 6.38 kms^{-1} to the east. There is, however, an interface at about 10 km depth which represents a velocity change from 6.22 to 6.24 kms^{-1} to the west, and 6.09 to 6.11 kms^{-1} to the east.

(c) At 20 km depth, the velocity gradient changes, increasing from 6.41 to 6.84 kms^{-1} between 20 and 28 km depth. There is also a slight change in velocity from 6.38 to 6.41 kms^{-1} . This interface corresponds to the top of the "Iapetus Suture" dipping reflector seen on BIRPS normal-incidence sections, and the velocity gradient corresponds to a relatively transparent zone with regard to normal-incidence reflections. However, there is a slight velocity contrast at about 24 km depth of 6.61 to 6.64 kms^{-1} .

(d) A high velocity of 7.0 kms^{-1} is present at the bottom 2 km of the crust, required in order to fit the observed travel times for the wide-angle Moho reflection. It does not generate either wide-angle or normal incidence reflections, which suggests that its upper surface is a gradational boundary.

(e) The Moho boundary is present at about 30 km depth, as a surface generating bright seismic reflections at both wide-angle and normal incidence due to a high velocity contrast of 6.84 to 8.02 kms^{-1} .

(f) A step feature, or series of steps, on the Moho, about 45 km offshore is suggested as the cause of unusual high-amplitude seismic reflections at wide-angle. The cause of this feature and the change in upper crustal velocity structure is suggested to be a vertical, crust-cutting wrench fault possibly related to the Dowsing Fault zone south of this region. These steps between them offset the Moho by up to 1 km.

(g) A velocity gradient exists in the upper mantle (8.02 - 8.2 kms^{-1} in the top 10 km), which gives rise to a Pn headwave of moderate amplitude.

8.3 Further work

The MOBIL programme has generated a huge volume of high-resolution wide-angle seismic data and normal-incidence data, of which the full interpretation has only been started. There is still work to be done on the modelling of line 1 alone, in addition to the development of techniques for enhancing and

improved plotting of the data, and fully tying in the information from all the seismic data acquired. However, the use of all this data still leaves some geological question marks over the region which can only be satisfied by further geophysical investigations. Some of the many possibilities for further work in all these fields are discussed below.

8.3.1 Development of high-resolution wide-angle seismics

Using closely-spaced airgun shots as a source for wide-angle reflection data is still a relatively new idea in seismology, but has enjoyed great success in this and many similar experiments, mentioned in Chapter 1. The detail on the record sections is remarkable, even with minimal processing. The comparable resolution of the data to normal-incidence data means that it could be very worthwhile applying some of the more sophisticated processing and enhancement techniques which have been developed for normal-incidence data, and it is obvious that improved methods of plotting need to be found in order to display better all the amplitude information as well as travel-time information.

Klemperer and Luetgert (1987) have experimented with CMP and common shotpoint stacking of closely-spaced, land-recorded wide-angle data from Maine, U.S.A., which facilitates the use of wide-angle data to recognise structural detail in addition to velocity detail. Much piggy-back wide-angle recording of the DEKORP deep seismic profiles has also led to development of plotting and interpretation techniques, plotting not only common station, common shot and common mid-point sections but also common offset sections, which reveal structural details of the boundaries which generate wide-angle reflections (**Gebrande et al., 1989**). Interpretation techniques used on this data include Tau-p inversion techniques for velocities and wide-angle migration for structural information. **Jokat and Flueh (1987)** have experimented on the airgun wide-angle data recorded during the EUGENO-S programme in Scandinavia, attempting velocity filtering based on slant-stacking, and deconvolution in the Tau-p domain, which enhance weak arrivals and reduce multiples and strong S-waves.

Most of these techniques could be applied to the MOBIL wide-angle dataset, allowing for the slightly restricting geometry of the profile, and in fact, the data would provide ideal test data for the development of such techniques for future use. Other more sophisticated processes which could be

developed include correction for near-surface statics, muting of first breaks and correcting the reflection amplitudes for the angle of incidence (**Klemperer and Luetgert, 1987**).

The implementation and modification at Durham of the existing wide-angle seismic processing software onto SUN workstations will enable the development of some of these methods and their application to MOBIL wide-angle data in future. Probably the most crucial area, which should be developed first, is the plotting method, which at present leaves much to be desired. The amount of information in the nearly-raw data would be greatly enhanced by development of variable area plotting methods which use colour to show the amplitudes of the seismic arrivals. Work on this aspect has already been started at Durham by the **BABEL Working Group**.

8.3.2 Further interpretations of existing data

In spite of the work of **Lewis, Bassom, Jarvis (all in 1988)**, **Matthews (1989)** and this study, the interpretation of all the available MOBIL and CSSP seismic data could be taken much further. Some of the further interpretation which could be carried out includes:

(a) **More detailed synthetic seismogram modelling of the line 1 records from all stations.** Arrivals which have not yet been fully modelled include the mid-crustal wide-angle reflections, multiple arrivals (which may reveal considerable detail about the near-surface structure) and other "diffraction-type" arrivals similar to D. This would be greatly helped by the digitisation and playout of the remainder of the Wark recordings.

(b) **Further interpretation of the "fan shoot" data of line 2 shots recorded at the MOBIL stations.** The Wark recordings of this data have yet to be digitised and plotted, but would probably yield interesting records, sampling the crust beneath Northumberland itself. The wide-angle recordings of the shots from **line 3** would also be of great value, if it is possible to obtain accurate shot times, since the bottoming points of the seismic rays from these shots would lie beneath Line 2 and NEC. Modelling of these profiles would be greatly helped by the implementation of a 3-dimensional package such as ANRAY (described in Chapter 5). In fact, Cervený (pers. comm.) has recently extended his Gaussian beam package for "2.5-D" cases, that is, 3-D computation in 2-D structures. Such a package would

facilitate the interpretation of this data.

(c) Having established a detailed P-wave model, **the interpretation and modelling of the CSSP S-wave data**, as mentioned in section 7.4, would be a very worthwhile exercise. Using the records from horizontal seismometers in addition to the vertical component records could yield interesting results in terms of the S-velocities and Poisson's ratio, which would give a good handle on the crustal density and composition.

(d) **The synthetic seismogram modelling of the Line 4 wide-angle data**, with a suitable modelling package, would be a useful project, especially since the normal-incidence data section for this line shows very little information from the deep crust due to strong reflections near the surface. Modelling this profile would help to tie in the observations of line 1 with those of line 5.

8.3.3 Further geophysical investigation

One of the weaknesses of this survey was the lack of reversed wide-angle coverage, which would have greatly increased the reliability of the two-dimensional wide-angle interpretation and would have extended the amount of crust sampled beneath the normal-incidence line. In view of the hurried deployment of the wide-angle recording equipment, this was inevitable, but in future experiments of this type, deployment of sea-bottom seismometers at the end of the line of shots and perhaps along the profile would greatly improve the coverage. This would also provide more information on the shallow seismic structure from shallow refraction arrivals which were not seen on the MOBIL wide-angle recordings, whose minimum offset was about 35 km.

Questions raised rather than answered by this study concern: the exact relationship of the Northumberland Trough to the Mid-North Sea High; the detailed relationship of the proposed wrench fault to these two features (or are they both part of the same structural high?); the nature of other structures, presumably also faults, which cause diffraction-type arrivals at wide-angle on this dataset; the difference in composition between the "lower crustal terrane" (as defined by Freeman et al., 1988) crossed by line 1 and the adjacent terranes observed on the BIRPS normal-incidence seismic data.

The only answer to most of these problems lies in further geophysical investigations, such as:

(a) Shallow normal-incidence reflection seismic profiling over the Mid North Sea High (or access to profiles already carried out) would probably reveal more information about the relationships of the shallow geological horizons, which are not clearly imaged by BIRPS normal-incidence profiling. Such data might show more clearly the effect of the proposed fault, and any others, in the near-surface geology.

(b) A more detailed investigation of the gravity and magnetic field of the High might reveal a great deal about the structural trends, especially in the form of illuminated colour and shaded-relief images such as those of Lee et al.(1990). The available Bouguer contour map seems to show very little in the way of structural trends.

(c) Further deep seismic profiles similar to MOBIL, but shot at strategic distances from and parallel to MOBIL line 1, would reveal more information about the nature of the other crustal terrane types adjacent to that beneath line 1. Such profiles should ideally have wide-angle recording taking place at both ends and possibly at intervals along them, in order to obtain full coverage and all the necessary shallow velocity information.

However, even without the improvements suggested above, there is a large amount of geological information to be obtained from the existing MOBIL normal-incidence and the wide-angle datasets. Further use of these datasets as suggested in sections 8.3.1 and 8.3.2 should lead to a better understanding of the evolution of the Southern North Sea Basin and the North East coast of England.

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APPENDIX A

MOBIL-CSSP STATION LOCATIONS

Station	Latitude	Longitude	Height (m)
36	55.0863666	-2.3313333	229.00
37	55.0907833	-2.3006166	206.00
39	55.1008666	-2.2400000	165.00
40	55.1068833	-2.2105666	137.00
47	55.1671333	-1.9791166	219.00
54	55.2195000	-1.7586166	181.00
55	55.2253833	-1.7275833	114.00
57	55.2422166	-1.6509666	51.00



APPENDIX B

SHOT LATITUDES, LONGITUDES AND TIMES

SHOT TIMEBREAK - GMT GYTO

Table with columns: LINE, SHOT, TIMEBREAK - GMT, GYTO, LATITUDE, LONGITUDE, BIRPS, BM87-1, and numerical values. The table lists data for 40 different shots, each with associated time, location, and performance metrics.

Table with 5 columns: ID (e.g., BIRPS, BM87-1), X-coordinate (e.g., 1325, 1326), Y-coordinate (e.g., 162, 162), Z-coordinate (e.g., 01, 47), and Value (e.g., 261.48, 261.76).

BIRPS	BM87-1	3006	162	11	50	49.875	255.41	55.3677761	-1.1420495
BIRPS	BM87-1	3007	162	11	51	11.725	254.58	55.3676226	-1.1428105
BIRPS	BM87-1	3008	162	11	51	33.192	254.09	55.3674665	-1.1435506
BIRPS	BM87-1	3009	162	11	51	54.792	254.65	55.3673026	-1.1442718
BIRPS	BM87-1	3010	162	11	52	17.609	254.98	55.3671286	-1.1449876
BIRPS	BM87-1	3011	162	11	52	40.009	254.84	55.3669499	-1.1457104
BIRPS	BM87-1	3012	162	11	53	02.092	254.96	55.3667765	-1.1464321
BIRPS	BM87-1	3013	162	11	53	24.042	255.03	55.3666130	-1.1471720
BIRPS	BM87-1	3014	162	11	53	45.642	255.47	55.3664520	-1.1479250
BIRPS	BM87-1	3015	162	11	54	06.875	255.33	55.3662752	-1.1487058
BIRPS	BM87-1	3016	162	11	54	27.909	255.65	55.3661204	-1.1494125
BIRPS	BM87-1	3017	162	11	54	48.692	254.88	55.3659523	-1.1501622
BIRPS	BM87-1	3018	162	11	55	10.292	255.27	55.3657812	-1.1508987
BIRPS	BM87-1	3019	162	11	55	32.092	255.02	55.3656277	-1.1515718
BIRPS	BM87-1	3020	162	11	55	53.725	254.27	55.3654498	-1.1523127
BIRPS	BM87-1	3021	162	11	56	15.192	254.99	55.3652612	-1.1530480
BIRPS	BM87-1	3022	162	11	56	36.459	254.72	55.3645615	-1.1538229
BIRPS	BM87-1	3023	162	11	56	57.609	253.56	55.3644107	-1.1575143
BIRPS	BM87-1	3024	162	11	57	18.592	252.23	55.3642478	-1.1582644
BIRPS	BM87-1	3025	162	11	57	40.275	250.37	55.3640591	-1.1589956
BIRPS	BM87-1	3026	162	11	58	02.192	250.34	55.3638433	-1.1597136
BIRPS	BM87-1	3027	162	11	58	23.825	251.74	55.3636431	-1.1603731
BIRPS	BM87-1	3028	162	11	58	45.042	252.07	55.3634407	-1.1611009
BIRPS	BM87-1	3029	162	11	59	07.175	252.03	55.3632271	-1.1618331
BIRPS	BM87-1	3030	162	11	59	29.025	252.35	55.3630170	-1.1625627
BIRPS	BM87-1	3031	162	11	59	50.275	253.36	55.3628366	-1.1632084
BIRPS	BM87-1	3032	162	12	00	11.859	254.40	55.3626551	-1.1639348
BIRPS	BM87-1	3033	162	12	00	33.475	255.11	55.3624758	-1.1646817
BIRPS	BM87-1	3034	162	12	00	54.742	254.75	55.3623020	-1.1654452
BIRPS	BM87-1	3035	162	12	01	15.959	254.61	55.3621462	-1.1661394
BIRPS	BM87-1	3036	162	12	01	36.727	254.28	55.3619713	-1.1669022
BIRPS	BM87-1	3037	162	12	01	57.811	250.61	55.3618343	-1.1675988

```

139  FORMAT(I4,1X,I3,1X,2(I2,1X),F6.3)
      GO TO 150
C
140  WRITE(6,'(A,I4,A)') 'PANNING ',ITDIF,' seconds'
C
150  IF(NTIME.EQ.0) WRITE(1,'(A)') 'DEC'
      WRITE(1,'(A)') 'EDIT'
      WRITE(1,200) IYR,IDY(I),IHR(I),IMIN(I),SECS(I)
200  FORMAT(I4,1X,I3,1X,2(I2,1X),F6.3)
      WRITE(1,'(A)') '60.0'
      WRITE(1,'(A)') 'SAVE'
C
      IF(I.GE.NUMB) GO TO 500
400  CONTINUE
C
500  WRITE(1,'(A)') 'END'
      WRITE(1,'(A)') 'EXIT'
C
      IF(IERR.GT.0) THEN
1000 WRITE(6,'(A)') 'File initialization error'
      ENDIF
C
      WRITE(6,'(A)') 'Temporary command file created as -IED.COM'
      WRITE(6,'(A)') 'Rename to preserve!'
C
      STOP
      END

```



```

C *****
C
C PROGRAM UTGEN
C *****
C CHARACTER*12 EFILE, ELFILE, SLFILE, CFN, FN
C INTEGER NUMB
C DATA FN/'-COM' '/'
C IERR=0
C CFN=FN
C OPEN (UNIT=7, FILE=CFN, STATUS='UNKNOWN', FORM='FORMATTED', ACCESS=
1 'SEQUENTIAL', ERR=1000)
C WRITE(6, '(A)') 'Graphics off'
C WRITE(7, '(A)') 'GRAF OFF'
C WRITE(7, '(A)') 'SET EVENT TIME'
C WRITE(7, '(A)') '-TIMEFILE'
C WRITE(7, '(A)') 'SET EVENT LOC'
C WRITE(7, '(A)') '-LATFILE'
C WRITE(7, '(A)') 'SET STAT LOC'
C WRITE(6, '(A)') 'Which stations? CSSP=0, MW=1 :'
C READ(5, *) NSTA
C
C IF (NSTA.EQ.0) THEN
C   WRITE(7, '(A)') 'SL.UTL'
C ELSE
C   WRITE(7, '(A)') 'SL.UTMW'
C ENDIF
C
C WRITE(6, '(A)') 'Enter no of traces :'
C READ(5, *) NUMB
C DO 100 I=1, NUMB
C   WRITE(7, '(A)') 'GET'
C   WRITE(7, '(A)') 'EDIT EVENT 0. 60.'
C   WRITE(7, '(A)') 'SAVE'
C   WRITE(7, '(A)') 'END'
C 100 CONTINUE
C   WRITE(7, '(A)') 'EXIT'
C
C IF (IERR.GT.0) THEN
C 1000 WRITE(6, '(A)') 'File initialization error'
C ENDIF
C
C WRITE(6, '(A)') 'Temporary command file created as -COM'
C WRITE(6, '(A)') 'Rename to preserve!'
C STOP
C END

```



```

C *****
C
C PROGRAM PUTDIS
C *****
C Program corrects distances for traces which were digitised
C en bloc, ie, which have the same stn-event distance for different
C events (wrongly).
C May also correct distance to distance of ray's mid point from
C shot 3037...this is option 1. 0 yields true shot-station distance.
C
C Assignments: 0=input tdf file
C              1=output tdf file
C              2=BM87-1
C              6=log
C
C Macro: DCORR I/P O/P LOG
C
C *****
C ***** DECLARATIONS
C
C INCLUDE ( TICCOM )
C INTEGER*4 IUNIT,OUNIT,VUNIT,SUNIT,KUNIT,NSH,NSTA
C INTEGER*2 IDATA(20000)
C CHARACTER*80 BUFFER(4),DETAIL
C CHARACTER*4 FSH,NEV
C
C DATA IUNIT,OUNIT,VUNIT,SUNIT,KUNIT,LUNIT/0,1,6,2,5,8/
C DATA FSH/'3037'/
C
C ***** START OFF
C
C WRITE(VUNIT,102)
C
102 FORMAT(' Correction required :-'/
1 ' Straight distances 0'/
2 ' Mid point locations 1'/
4 ' ,s-----')
C
C READ(KUNIT,'(I1)') ISS
C
C ***** READ LAT & LONG OF 3037
C
IF(ISS.EQ.1) THEN
DO 150 K=1,3035
READ(SUNIT,100) DETAIL,NEV,TIME,GYRO,FLAT,FLONG
100 FORMAT(A40,A4,A19,F6.0,3X,F10.0,3X,F1
10.0)
IF(NEV.EQ.FSH) GO TO 200
150 CONTINUE
C
IF(NEV.NE.FSH) GO TO 700
ENDIF
C ***** START OFF
C
200 CALL RHEAD(IUNIT,BUFFER,NTRC)
ITRACE=1
C *****
C ***** READ TRACE
C
DO 1000 J=1,NTRC
CALL RTFH(IUNIT,ITRACE,1,IERR)
LEN=16000
CALL RTID(IUNIT,ITRACE,IDATA,LEN,IERR)
C ***** CALC CORRECT DISTANCE USING DISTAZ
C
CALL DISTZ4(ELAT,ELONG,SLAT,SLONG,DIST,DAZIM)
C ***** IF OPTION 1, CALC DIST OF TRACE SHOT FROM FIRST SHOT
C
IF(ISS.EQ.1) THEN
C
CALL DISTZ4(ELAT,ELONG,FLAT,FLONG,SDIST,SAZ)
C ***** NOW MID-PT DIST FROM FIRST SHOT
C
DIST(1)= SDIST-DIST(1)/2.00
ENDIF
C ***** REWRITE TRACE
C
CALL WTRF(OUNIT,ITRACE,1)
CALL WTID(OUNIT,ITRACE,IDATA,LEN)
ITRACE=ITRACE+1
C ***** CONFIRMATION
C
WRITE(LUNIT,500) TEVENT(1),TSTAT(1),DIST(1),DAZIM(1)
500 FORMAT(' Event ',A4,' Station ',A4,' Dist = ',F10.2,' Azim= ',
1 ,F10.3)
1000 CONTINUE
C
IF(ISS.GE.1) THEN
WRITE(VUNIT,'(A)') '** Distances calc for CMP comparisons **'
ENDIF
C ***** WRITE NEW FILE HEADER & FINISH OFF
C
CALL WHEAD(OUNIT,BUFFER,NTRC)
WRITE(VUNIT,'(A)') 'PROCESSING FINISHED'
GO TO 800
C
700 WRITE(VUNIT,'(A)') '**ERROR** Shot no. not found'
800 STOP
END

```

```

C *****
C PROGRAM TTREG
C *****
C PERFORMS T-SQUARE, X-SQUARE FIT ON WAR TRAVEL-TIME
C DATA. CALLS *NAG ROUTINE G02CAF TO DO LEAST SQUARES
C FIT. ALSO CALLS DISTAZ.PLOTS T-SQ X-SQ FIT, ALSO
C EITHER REDUCED OR UNREDUCED TT PLOT USING *GHOST80.
C USES -SHOT AS INPUT FILE. ALSO REQUIRES SL.UTL,
C BM87-1 AND BM87-2.
C
C TO RUN : $R TTREG+SPLIB.OBJ+NAG*GHOST80 9=-PLOT
C *****
C IMPLICIT REAL*8 (A-H,O-Z)
C DIMENSION TT(100),XX(100),RESULT(20),XDIST(100),TPICK(100),
C INSHOT(100),TRED(100)
C CHARACTER*4 CPHASE,CHAR
C CHARACTER*80 DETAIL
C CHARACTER*12 CFN, FN(5)
C
C LOGICAL FX
C DATA FN(1) //'BM87-1'
C DATA FN(2) //'BM87-2'
C DATA FN(3) //'SL.UTL'
C DATA FN(4) //'-SHOT'
C DATA FN(5) //'-TTREG.OP'
C DATA CHAR/'PG'
C
C ***** Open all necessary files
C
C IERR=0
C CFN=FN(1)
C INQUIRE(FILE=CFN, EXIST=FX)
C IF (FX) THEN
C OPEN (UNIT=1, FILE=CFN, STATUS='OLD')
C ELSE
C WRITE(6, '(A,A,A)') 'File ', CFN, ' does not exist'
C ENDIF
C
C IERR=0
C CFN=FN(2)
C INQUIRE(FILE=CFN, EXIST=FX)
C IF (FX) THEN
C OPEN (UNIT=2, FILE=CFN, STATUS='OLD')
C ELSE
C WRITE(6, '(A,A,A)') 'File ', CFN, ' does not exist'
C ENDIF
C
C CFN=FN(3)
C INQUIRE(FILE=CFN, EXIST=FX)
C IF (FX) THEN
C OPEN (UNIT=0, FILE=CFN, STATUS='OLD')
C ELSE
C WRITE(6, '(A,A,A)') 'File ', CFN, ' does not exist'
C ENDIF
C
C *****
C ***** Find out details
C
C WRITE(6, '(A)') '&Which line required? :'
C READ(5, *) LIN
C WRITE(6, '(A)') '&Travel time plot : 0=None, 1=Reduced, 2=Unreduced'
C READ(5, '(I1)') IPLOT
C
C ***** Read no. of shots & phase
C
C READ(11, 50) NUMB, NSTA, CPHASE
C 50 FORMAT(I4, 2(IX, A4))
C IFLAG=1
C IF (CPHASE.EQ.CHAR) IFLAG=0
C
C IF (IFLAG.EQ.0) THEN
C WRITE(6, '(A)') '&Average overlying vel & error ? :'
C READ(5, *) VAV, ERRVAV
C ENDIF
C
C ***** Find station lat & long
C
C READ(0, '(I4)') NOST
C DO 100 J=1, NOST
C READ(0, 150) NS, SLAT, SLONG
C 150 FORMAT(A4, 1X, 2F15.0)
C IF (NS.EQ.NSTA) GO TO 200
C 100 CONTINUE
C
C ***** Read travel times
C
C DO 600 I=1, NUMB
C READ(11, 300) NSH, TPICK(I)
C 300 FORMAT(I4, 1X, F10.5)
C
C ***** Find shot lat & long
C
C DO 400 J=1, 3035
C READ(LIN, 450) DETAIL, NEV, IEDAY, IEHOUR, IEMIN, ESEC, CYRO, ELAT, ELONG
C 450 FORMAT(A40, I4, 1X, 13, 1X, 12, 1X, 12, 1X, F6.0, 2X, F6.0, 3X, F10.0, 3X, F10.0
C 1)
C IF (NEV.EQ.NSH) GO TO 500
C 400 CONTINUE
C
C IF (NEV.NE.NSH) GO TO 1500
C ***** Distance between shot & station
C

```

```

500 CALL DISTAZ(SLAT,SLONG,ELAT,ELONG,XDIST(I),AZIM)
C
600 CONTINUE
C
C **** Square tpick & xdist
C
DO 650 I=1,NUMB
TT(I)=0.0
XX(I)=0.0
650 CONTINUE
C
L=0
IF(IFLAG.EQ.0) THEN
DO 675 I=1,NUMB
L=L+1
TT(I)=TPICK(I)
XX(I)=XDIST(I)
675 CONTINUE
ELSE
DO 700 I=1,NUMB
L=L+1
TT(I)=TPICK(I)**2
XX(I)=XDIST(I)**2
700 CONTINUE
ENDIF
C
C **** Carry out regression
C
IF(IFLAG.EQ.0) THEN
WRITE(6,725) CPHASE
WRITE(8,725) CPHASE
725 FORMAT(/,5X, ' ----- T - X ',A4, ' REGRESSION ----- ',//)
ELSE
WRITE(6,750) CPHASE
WRITE(8,750) CPHASE
750 FORMAT(/,5X, ' ----- T-SQUARE, X-SQUARE ',A4, ' REGRESSION
1-----',//)
ENDIF
C
CALL REG(L,XX,TT,RESULT)
C
C **** Calculate depth & velocity to boundary
C
IF(IFLAG.EQ.0) THEN
CALL PGCAL(VAV,ERRVAV,RESULT,VELAV,ERRVEL,DEPTH,ERRDEP,IERR)
ELSE
B=RESULT(6)
A=RESULT(7)
VELAV=1/B**0.5
ERRVEL=RESULT(8)/(2.0*B**1.5)
C
IF(A.GE.0.0) THEN
DEPTH=VELAV*(A**0.5)/2
ELSE
A=-A
DEPTH=-VELAV*(A**0.5)/2
ENDIF
ERRDEP=DEPTH*(RESULT(8)/VELAV+RESULT(9)/(2*A))
C
500 CALL DISTAZ(SLAT,SLONG,ELAT,ELONG,XDIST(I),AZIM)
C
600 CONTINUE
C
C **** Square tpick & xdist
C
DO 650 I=1,NUMB
TT(I)=0.0
XX(I)=0.0
650 CONTINUE
C
L=0
IF(IFLAG.EQ.0) THEN
DO 675 I=1,NUMB
L=L+1
TT(I)=TPICK(I)
XX(I)=XDIST(I)
675 CONTINUE
ELSE
DO 700 I=1,NUMB
L=L+1
TT(I)=TPICK(I)**2
XX(I)=XDIST(I)**2
700 CONTINUE
ENDIF
C
C **** Carry out regression
C
IF(IFLAG.EQ.0) THEN
WRITE(6,725) CPHASE
WRITE(8,725) CPHASE
725 FORMAT(/,5X, ' ----- T - X ',A4, ' REGRESSION ----- ',//)
ELSE
WRITE(6,750) CPHASE
WRITE(8,750) CPHASE
750 FORMAT(/,5X, ' ----- T-SQUARE, X-SQUARE ',A4, ' REGRESSION
1-----',//)
ENDIF
C
CALL REG(L,XX,TT,RESULT)
C
C **** Calculate depth & velocity to boundary
C
IF(IFLAG.EQ.0) THEN
CALL PGCAL(VAV,ERRVAV,RESULT,VELAV,ERRVEL,DEPTH,ERRDEP,IERR)
ELSE
B=RESULT(6)
A=RESULT(7)
VELAV=1/B**0.5
ERRVEL=RESULT(8)/(2.0*B**1.5)
C
IF(A.GE.0.0) THEN
DEPTH=VELAV*(A**0.5)/2
ELSE
A=-A
DEPTH=-VELAV*(A**0.5)/2
ENDIF
ERRDEP=DEPTH*(RESULT(8)/VELAV+RESULT(9)/(2*A))
C
800 FORMAT(/, 'Regression results ',//, 'Average velocity to boundary =
1',F10.4,' +/-',F13.8,/,/, 'Depth to boundary = ',F10.4,' +/-',
2F13.8)
850 FORMAT(/, 'Regression results ',//, 'Average velocity of refractor=
1',F10.4,' +/-',F13.8,/,/, 'Depth to boundary = ',F10.4,' +/-',
2F13.8)
C
C **** Plot Tpicks - unreduced
C
IF(IPLOT.EQ.2) THEN
XMAX=XDIST(1)
TMAX=TPICK(1)
XMIN=XDIST(1)
TMIN=TPICK(1)
DO 900 I=2,NUMB
IF(XDIST(I).GT.XMAX) XMAX=XDIST(I)
IF(TPICK(I).GT.TMAX) TMAX=TPICK(I)
IF(XDIST(I).LT.XMIN) XMIN=XDIST(I)
IF(TPICK(I).LT.TMIN) TMIN=TPICK(I)
900 CONTINUE
EXTX=(XMAX-XMIN)/10.0
IF(EXTX.LT.0.0) EXTX=-EXTX
EXTT=(TMAX-TMIN)/10.0
IF(EXTT.LT.0.0) EXTT=-EXTT
XMAX=XMAX+EXTX
XMIN=XMIN-EXTX
TMAX=TMAX+EXTT
TMIN=TMIN-EXTT
CALL PAPER(1)
CALL MAP(XMIN,XMAX,TMIN,TMAX)
CALL PSPACE(0.1,0.95,0.2,0.95)
CALL CTRMAG(10)
CALL AXORIG(XMIN,TMIN)
CALL AXES
CALL PTPLOT(XDIST,TPICK,1,NUMB,248)
CALL MAP(0.0,10.0,0.0,10.0)
CALL PSPACE(0.0,1.0,0.0,1.0)
CALL CSPACE(0.0,1.0,0.0,1.0)
CALL PLOTCS(5.0,1.25,'Distance (km)')
CALL CTRORI(90.0)

```

```

C CALL PCSCEN(0.25,5.0,'Travel time (s)')
CALL CTRORI(0.0)
CALL CTRMAG(15)
CALL PCSCEN(5.0,0.75,'UNREDUCED TRAVEL TIMES FOR ')
CALL TYPECS(CPHASE)
C CALL GREND
C
C ELSEIF(IPLOT.EQ.1) THEN
C **** Plot reduced travel times
C
C XMAX=XDIST(1)
C XMIN=XDIST(1)
C TRED(1)=TPICK(1)-XDIST(1)/6.0
C TMAX=TRED(1)
C TMIN=TRED(1)
C DO 1000 I=2,NUMB
C IF (XDIST(I).GT.XMAX) XMAX=XDIST(I)
C IF (XDIST(I).LT.XMIN) XMIN=XDIST(I)
C TRED(I)=TPICK(I)-XDIST(I)/6.0
C IF (TRED(I).GT.TMAX) TMAX=TRED(I)
C IF (TRED(I).LT.TMIN) TMIN=TRED(I)
C CONTINUE
C
C EXTJ=(XMAX-XMIN)/10.0
C IF (EXTJ.LT.0.0) EXTJ=-EXTJ
C
C EXTT=(TMAX-TMIN)/10.0
C IF (EXTT.LT.0.0) EXTT=-EXTT
C
C XMAX=XMAX+EXTJ
C XMIN=XMIN-EXTJ
C TMAX=TMAX+EXTT
C TMIN=TMIN-EXTT
C
C CALL PAPER(1)
CALL MAP(XMIN,XMAX,TMIN,TMAX)
CALL PSPACE(0.1,0.95,0.2,0.95)
CALL CTRMAG(10)
CALL AXORIG(XMIN,TMIN)
CALL AXES
C
C CALL PTPLOT(XDIST,TRED,I,NUMB,248)
C
C CALL MAP(0.0,10.0,0.0,10.0)
CALL PSPACE(0.0,1.0,0.0,1.0)
CALL CSPACE(0.0,1.0,0.0,1.0)
CALL PLOTCS(5.0,1.25,'Distance (km)')
C
C CALL CTRORI(90.0)
CALL PCSCEN(0.25,5.0,'Reduced travel time (s)')
CALL CTRORI(0.0)
CALL CTRMAG(15)
CALL PCSCEN(5.0,0.75,'REDUCED TRAVEL TIMES FOR ')
CALL TYPECS(CPHASE)
C CALL GREND
C
C ENDIF
C **** Plot regression line
C
C XMAX=XX(1)
C XMIN=XX(1)
C TMAX=TT(1)
C TMIN=TT(1)
C DO 1100 I=2,NUMB
C IF (XX(I).GT.XMAX) XMAX=XX(I)
C IF (XX(I).LT.XMIN) XMIN=XX(I)
C IF (TT(I).GT.TMAX) TMAX=TT(I)
C IF (TT(I).LT.TMIN) TMIN=TT(I)
C CONTINUE
C
C SXLIN=XMIN
C EXLIN=XMAX
C STLIN=A+B*SXLIN
C ETLIN=A+B*EXLIN
C
C EXTJ=(XMAX-XMIN)/10.0
C IF (EXTJ.LT.0.0) EXTJ=-EXTJ
C
C EXTT=(TMAX-TMIN)/10.0
C IF (EXTT.LT.0.0) EXTT=-EXTT
C
C XMAX=XMAX+EXTJ
C XMIN=XMIN-EXTJ
C TMAX=TMAX+EXTT
C TMIN=TMIN-EXTT
C
C CALL PAPER(1)
CALL MAP(XMIN,XMAX,TMIN,TMAX)
CALL PSPACE(0.1,0.95,0.2,0.95)
CALL CTRMAG(10)
CALL AXORIG(XMIN,TMIN)
CALL AXES
C
C CALL PTPLOT(XX,TT,I,NUMB,248)
CALL POSITN(SXLIN,STLIN)
CALL JOIN(ETLIN,ETLIN)
C
C CALL MAP(0.0,10.0,0.0,10.0)
CALL PSPACE(0.0,1.0,0.0,1.0)
CALL CSPACE(0.0,1.0,0.0,1.0)
CALL PLOTCS(5.0,1.25,'Distance squared (km)')
C
C CALL CTRORI(90.0)

```

```

C          CALL CTRORI(0.0)
C          CALL CTRMAG(15)
C          CALL PCSCEN(5.0,0.0,75.0,'T-SQUARED X-SQUARED FITTING - ')
C          CALL TYPECS(CPHASE)
C
C          CALL GREND
C
C          GO TO 1550
C
C          1500 WRITE(6, '(A)') '**ERROR** Shot no. not found'
C          1550 IF(IERR.LT.0) THEN
C          1600 WRITE(6, '(A)') 'Unable to open file'
C          ENDIF
C
C          STOP
C          END
C
C          ++++++
C          SUBROUTINE REG(L,X,T,RESULT)
C          ++++++
C          Fits straight line through X,T points
C          ++++++
C          REAL*8 X(100),T(100),RESULT(20)
C          DIMENSION TVALUE(31)
C          DATA TVALUE/12.71,4.30,3.18,2.78,2.57,2.45,2.36,2.31,
C          1 2.26,2.23,2.20,2.18,2.16,2.15,2.13,2.12,2.11,2.10,
C          2 2.09,2.09,2.08,2.07,2.07,2.06,2.06,2.05,2.05,2.05,
C          3 2.04,2.04,2.02/
C          IFAIL=0
C          CALL GO2CAF(L,X,T,RESULT,IFAIL)
C
C          IF(IFAIL.EQ.1) GO TO 50
C          IF(IFAIL.EQ.2) GO TO 70
C
C          WRITE(8,10) (RESULT(I),I=1,5)
C          10 FORMAT(/,/, 'MEAN XX VALUE = ',F15.5,/, 'MEAN TT VALUE = ',F15.5,/,
C          1 'STANDARD DEVIATION OF XX = ',F15.5,/, 'STANDARD DEVIATION OF TT =
C          2 ',F15.5,/, 'CORRELATION COEFFICIENT = ',F15.5)
C
C          WRITE(8,20) RESULT(6),RESULT(8),RESULT(10)
C          20 FORMAT(/,/, 'REGRESSION COEFFICIENT = ',F15.5,/, 'STD. ERROR OF COEFF
C          1 = ',F15.5,/, 'T-VALUE FOR COEFF = ',F15.5)
C
C          WRITE(8,30) RESULT(7),RESULT(9),RESULT(11)
C          30 FORMAT(/,/, 'REGRESSION CONSTANT = ',F15.5,/, 'STD. ERROR OF CONST =
C          1 ',F15.5,/, 'T-VALUE FOR CONST = ',F15.5)
C
C          NDF=RESULT(20)
C          IF(NDF.GT.30) NDF=31
C
C          RESULT(8)=RESULT(8)*TVALUE(NDF)
C          RESULT(9)=RESULT(9)*TVALUE(NDF)
C
C          GO TO 100
C
C          **** Errors
C          50 WRITE(6,60) IFAIL
C          60 FORMAT(/,/, 'IFAIL= ',I2, ' => NO. OF SAMPLES < 2 ',//)
C
C          70 WRITE(6,80) IFAIL
C          80 FORMAT(/,/, 'IFAIL= ',I2, ' ALL X-VALUES OR ALL Y-VALUES ARE IDENTICA
C          1L')
C
C          100 RETURN
C          END
C          SUBROUTINE PGCAL(VAV,VAVER, RANAL,V,VERR,Z,ZERR,IERR)
C
C          C-T PG CALCULATION ON REGRESSION ANALYSIS
C
C          C-A Anthony Lewis original, Dave Stevenson modified 1986
C
C          C-D+
C
C          C          Calculates the BASEMENT velocity,depth(based on crustal vel supplied)
C          VAV,VAVER input of average crustal vel and standard error
C          RANAL 20 element REAL*4 array contains the results of
C          the LINFIT,LINFWT analysis in NAG form as returned
C          by these routines
C          V,VERR Calc velocity of refractor
C          Z,ZERR Calc depth to refractor
C          IERR =0 normally
C          -1 V**2-VAV**2 < 0.0
C
C          REAL*8 RANAL(20)
C
C          **** IF VAV IS UNDEFINED THEN ASSUME 4.8
C          IF(VAV.LT.0.0) VAV=4.8
C
C          IERR=0
C
C          V=1.0/(RANAL(6))
C          VERR=RANAL(8)/(RANAL(6)**2)
C          IF((V**2-VAV**2).LT.0) GOTO 1000
C
C          Z=RANAL(7)*V*VAV/(2.0*SQRT(V**2-VAV**2))
C          ZERR=Z*(RANAL(9)/RANAL(7) + VERR/V +VAVER/VAV +
C          1 (V*VERR + VAV*VAVER)/(V**2-VAV**2))
C
C          RETURN
C
C          000 IERR=-1
C          RETURN
C          END

```

```

C *****
C PROGRAM DIFFR
C *****
C Programme calculates travel-time curve for diffractions from
C a point at depth and plots the results for up to 5 stations.
C *****
C REAL*4 XSTA(5)
C CHARACTER*20 XAXIS, YAXIS, TITLE
C COMMON /CORDS/ XOFF(200), TDIF(200,5), NPTS, XMAX, XMIN, YMAX, YMIN, XDIF
C &, DEP, VEL, RVEL, TWAR(200)
C
C DATA XAXIS//DISTANCE (KM) //
C DATA YAXIS//TRAVEL TIME (S) //
C DATA TITLE//DIFFRACTION CURVES //
C
C ***** FIND OUT DETAILS
C WRITE(5, '(A)') 'eDepth & x-locn. of diffractor:'
C READ(6, *) DEP, XDIF
C WRITE(5, '(A)') '#No. of stations? (Max=5):'
C READ(6, *) ISTAT
C
C DO 100 I=1, ISTAT
C WRITE(5, I0) I
C FORMAT('eStation ', I1, ' X-location:')
C READ(6, *) XSTA(I)
C
C CONTINUE
C WRITE(5, '(A)') 'eMax. offset? (Default=250 km):'
C READ(6, *) XMAX
C WRITE(5, '(A)') 'eMin. offset?'
C READ(6, *) XMIN
C IF (XMAX.EQ.0.0) XMAX=250.0
C
C WRITE(5, '(A)') 'eAvg. crustal velocity? (Default=6.0 km/s):'
C READ(6, *) VEL
C IF (VEL.EQ.0.0) VEL=6.0
C
C WRITE(5, '(A)') 'eReduced TT plot? (0=No; 1=Yes):'
C READ(6, *) ISW
C IF (ISW.EQ.1) THEN
C WRITE(5, '(A)') 'eReduction velocity?:'
C READ(6, *) RVEL
C ENDIF
C
C ***** OK, START
C NPTS=INT((XMAX-XMIN)/10.0)+1
C DO 300 J=1, ISTAT
C ***** CALC DELAY FOR EACH RAY
C DOFF=XDIF-XSTA(J)
C *****
C TDEL=(DOFF**2+DEP**2)**0.5/VEL
C XOFF(1)=XMIN
C WRITE(7, 150) J
C FORMAT(5X, 'Offset', 7X, 'TT', 3X, 'Station no. ', I1, '/')
C DO 200 K=1, NPTS
C ***** OK, NOW DIFFRACTION TRAVEL TIME
C XSEP=ABS(XOFF(K)-DOFF)
C IF (XSEP.GE.0.0) THEN
C TDIF(K,J)=TDEL+(XSEP**2+DEP**2)**0.5/VEL
C ELSE
C TDIF(K,J)=TDEL+(DEP/VEL)
C ENDIF
C ***** NOW WAR ARRIVAL TIME
C IF (J.EQ.1) THEN
C TWAR(K)={(XOFF(K)**2+4*(DEP**2))**0.5/VEL
C ENDIF
C IF (ISW.EQ.1) THEN
C TDIF(K,J)=TDIF(K,J)-XOFF(K)/RVEL
C TWAR(K)=TWAR(K)-XOFF(K)/RVEL
C ENDIF
C ***** OUTPUT TO FILE
C WRITE(7, 175) XOFF(K), TDIF(K,J), TWAR(K)
C FORMAT(3(5X, F6.2))
C XOFF(K+1)=XOFF(K)+10.0
C CONTINUE
C CONTINUE
C CALL PLOT(XAXIS, YAXIS, TITLE, ISTAT, ISW)
C STOP
C END
C *****
C SUBROUTINE PLOT(XAXIS, YAXIS, TITLE, ISC, ISW)
C *****
C IMPLICIT REAL*4 (A-H,O-Z)
C CHARACTER*20 XAXIS, YAXIS, TITLE
C COMMON /CORDS/ X(200), Y(200,5), NPTS, XMAX, XMIN, YMAX, YMIN, XDIF, DEP, V
C &EL, RVEL, TWAR(200)
C REAL*4 YPL(200)
C ***** REDUCE TRAVEL TIMES IF NECESSARY
C IF (ISW.EQ.1) THEN
C DO 200 J=1, ISC
C DO 100 I=1, NPTS

```



```
CALL TYPENF(XDIF,1)
CALL PCSCEN(4.5,0.25,'Average velocity (km/s):')
CALL TYPENF(VEL,1)
```

```
C
C **** OK, ALL DONE
C
```

```
CALL GREND
RETURN
END
```


DECLARATION

The content of this thesis is the original work of the author and has not previously been submitted for a degree at this or any other university. The work of other people is acknowledged by reference.

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