

$$\begin{aligned} \text{curl } \mathbf{u} = & \hat{\mathbf{e}}_r \frac{1}{r \sin \theta} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} (\sin \theta u_\phi) - \frac{\partial u_\theta}{\partial \phi} \right) \\ & + \hat{\mathbf{e}}_\theta \frac{1}{r \sin \theta} \left(\frac{\partial u_r}{\partial \phi} - \sin \theta \frac{\partial}{\partial r} (r u_\phi) \right) \\ & + \hat{\mathbf{e}}_\phi \frac{1}{r} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial r} (r u_\theta) - \frac{\partial u_r}{\partial \theta} \right) \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla^2 \psi = & \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r^2 \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left(\sin \theta \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \theta} \right) \\ & + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin^2 \theta} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi^2}. \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

These expressions are used when we discuss spherical waves in Section 2.4 and the earth's normal modes in Section 2.9.

A final point worth noting is that the elements of volume and surface used in integrals are different in spherical coordinates from rectangular coordinates. In spherical coordinates (Fig. A.7-5) there are several scale factors, so an element of surface area is

$$dS = r^2 \sin \theta d\theta d\phi, \quad (18)$$

and an element of volume is

$$dV = r^2 \sin \theta dr d\theta d\phi. \quad (19)$$

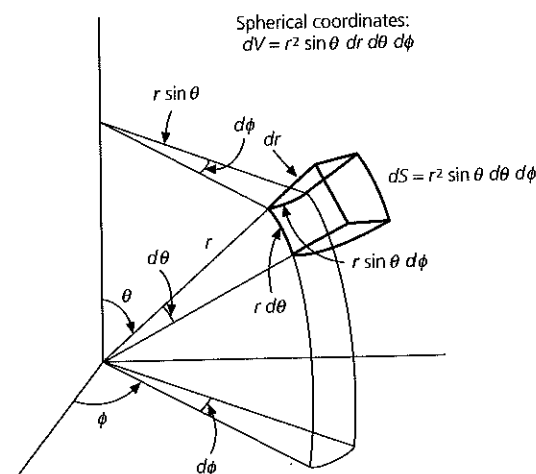


Fig. A.7-5 Definition of the element of volume in spherical coordinates. Unlike the case of Cartesian coordinates, the volume element in spherical coordinates is not a cube. (Marion, 1970. From *Classical Dynamics of Particles and Systems*, 2nd edn, copyright 1970 by Academic Press, reproduced by permission of the publisher.)

A.8 Scientific programming

Most seismological applications require computers, and these requirements, especially in exploration applications with very large data volumes, have spurred the development of computer software and hardware. Some remarks about the use of computers in seismology thus seem appropriate.

Computer usage in seismology includes several broad and overlapping categories:

- Computers are often used in data acquisition and recording systems.
- Data are initially displayed and manipulated using computers.
- Subsequent analysis is frequently done using computers. For example, seismograms can be filtered to enhance certain frequencies or combined to better resolve certain features.
- Theoretical, or *synthetic*, seismograms are often computed for a range of the parameters under study and compared to data to find the best fit.
- Computers are used to *invert* seismological data to determine the parameters of a model which best matches the data.
- Computer modeling is often used to draw geological inferences from seismological observations. For example, seismic velocity data are compared to the predictions of models for the velocity of rock as a function of composition, temperature, and pressure.

These applications often require *scientific programming*, a programming style used for essentially mathematical applications. Some problems in this book also require scientific programming. Although programming is a matter of personal style, this section discusses several points that may be helpful. The suggested reading provides some starting points for readers interested in pursuing these topics further.

A.8.1 Example: synthetic seismogram calculation

Consider a program to compute a synthetic seismogram for waves in a one-dimensional constant-velocity medium, a mathematically idealized string that illustrates features of wave behavior. The program is based on $u(x, t)$, the displacement as a function of position x and time t . The displacement is zero at the fixed ends of the string, $x = 0$ and $x = L$, between which waves travel at speed v . As in Section 2.2.5, the displacement can be written as the sum of the normal modes of the string, each of which is a standing wave with n half wavelengths along the string,

$$u_n(x, t) = \sin(n\pi x/L) \cos(\omega_n t), \quad (1)$$

and vibrates at a characteristic frequency, or *eigenfrequency*,

$$\omega_n = n\pi v/L. \quad (2)$$

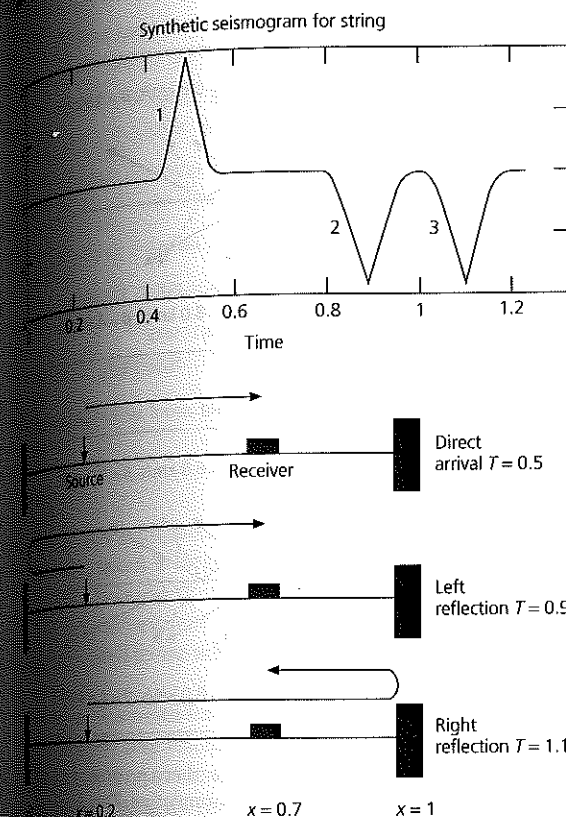


Fig. A.8-1 Synthetic seismogram for a string showing the direct wave and reflections (2, 3) from both ends. Bottom: Geometry of source and receiver positions, and the times of the direct and reflected waves.

At position x_s generates a pulse at time zero with amplitude A ; the propagating waves are described by a weighted sum of modes

$$u(x, t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sin(n\pi x/L) \sin(n\pi x_s/L) \cos(\omega_n t) \exp[-(\omega_n \tau)^2/4]. \quad (3)$$

The displacement $u(x, t)$ for any position and time, x and t , is computed ("stringogram") giving the displacement versus time at a receiver position x_r is $u(x_r, t)$. Alternatively, a plot of the displacement everywhere on the string at time t is possible.

Write a program to evaluate a synthetic seismogram for a string. For simplicity, we use a string of length 1 m¹ and wave speed 1 m/s, a source at $x_s = 0.2$ m and a receiver at $x_r = 0.7$ m. To approximate the infinite sum, the program adds 10 modes. The seismogram (Fig. A.8-1, top) is calculated in 50 time steps, covering 1.25 s. This program is written in

Fortran, a language that is especially suitable for scientific programming and is therefore commonly used in seismology (and thus in this book). The program could be also written in other languages, but the general points would still apply.

```
C SYNTHETIC SEISMOGRAM FOR HOMOGENEOUS STRING
C DISPLACEMENT U AS FUNCTION OF TIME T
C CALCULATED BY NORMAL MODE SUMMATION
  DIMENSION U(200)
  PI = 3.1415927

C
C PARAMETERS (NORMALLY WOULD COME FROM INPUT)
C STRING LENGTH (M)
  ALNGTH = 1.0
C VELOCITY (M/S)
  C = 1.0
C NUMBER OF MODES
  NMODE = 200
C SOURCE POSITION (M)
  XSRC = 0.2
C RECEIVER POSITION (M)
  XRCVR = 0.7
C SEISMOGRAM TIME DURATION (S)
  TDURAT = 1.25
C NUMBER TIME STEPS
  NTSTEP = 50
C TIME STEP (S)
  DT = TDURAT/NTSTEP
C SOURCE SHAPE TERM
  TAU = .02

C
C LIST PARAMETERS
  WRITE (6,3000)
3000 FORMAT('SYNTHETIC SEISMOGRAM FOR STRING')
  WRITE (6,3001) NMODE
3001 FORMAT('NUMBER OF MODES', I6)
  WRITE (6,3002) ALNGTH, C
3002 FORMAT('LENGTH (M)' F7.3, 'VELOCITY, X (M/S)', F7.3)
  WRITE (6,3003) XSRC, XRCVR
3003 FORMAT('POSITION (M): SOURCE', F7.3, X 'RECEIVER', F7.3)
  WRITE (6,3004) TDURAT, NTSTEP
3004 FORMAT('SEISMOGRAM DURATION (S)', F7.3, X I6, 'TIME STEPS')
  WRITE (6,3005) TAU
3005 FORMAT('SOURCE SHAPE TERM', F7.3)

C
C INITIALIZE DISPLACEMENT
  DO 5 I = 1, NTSTEP
    U(I) = 0.0
  5 CONTINUE

C
C OUTER LOOP OVER MODES
  DO 10 N = 1, NMODE
    ANPIAL = N*PI/ALNGTH
```

¹ We use arbitrary values on a computer; we could also use 1 km or 1 m/s. A physical 1 km string is another matter...

• *Document the program.* Computer programs can be almost useless without adequate documentation. Stonehenge has been described as "the world's largest undocumented computer system."³ Failure to document is often justified by the assumption that the program will not be used again. This rationalization is self-fulfilling, because even the author may find an undocumented program difficult to reuse once the details are forgotten.

Documentation should state the program's goals and method. The input and output variables, their units, and how they are defined should be listed. Implicit assumptions and restrictions are worth noting. Comments should identify major portions of the program and describe their functions. Documentation is best written when writing a program is fully written, it is harder to remember how it works. Documentation included in the program is less prone to be lost than that written separately.

Finally, documentation helps scientists exchange programs and work in collaboration. This can be useful, except in the apocryphal cases of programmers writing gigantic undocumented programs to maximize their job security.

• *Use modular programming.* Large programs can generally be divided into smaller subroutines or functions, which can be used like the functions (e.g., sine, square root) supplied by many computer languages. Each subroutine can be tested separately and then used in various programs. Subroutines can handle applications that frequently recur, such as reading or plotting data or carrying out a mathematical operation. This approach saves the time needed to write and debug portions of a program similar to one already available. Moreover, the overall structure of a program containing a set of calls to subroutines is generally easier to understand, because many complexities are isolated into subroutines.

• *Make programs comprehensible.* It is helpful to be able to understand programs once written. Clear documentation and modular programming help. In addition, it should be easy to tell what portions will be executed under which circumstances. For this purpose, portions of a program should be executed sequentially, rather than jumping backwards and forwards within a program. Similarly, the statements themselves can be written clearly. The use of mnemonic variable names and natural groupings of variables can help. For example, it is somewhat unclear that

$$X = 0.23873 * A / (Y * Y * Y)$$

gives the average density X of a planet with mass A and radius Y , whereas

$$RHO = AMASS / ((4.0/3.0) * PI * (RADIUS**3))$$

³ Brooks (1975).

This helps avoid the common error where, given a large collection of computer output, one is unsure what parameters were used. Moreover, subsequent "improved" versions of the program can be checked to see whether they give the same results.

The program is somewhat efficient. Some thought is generally required to optimize the program.

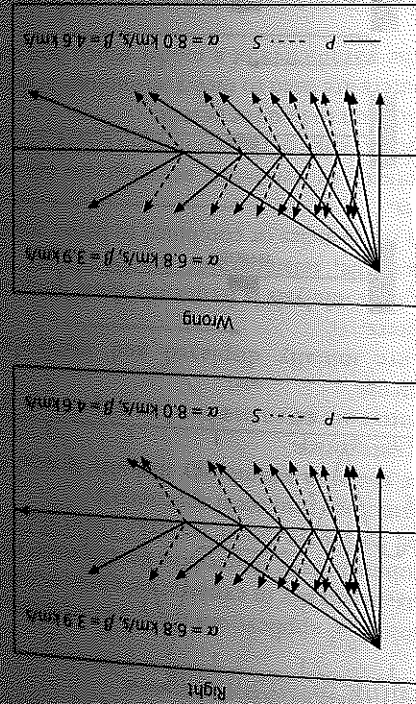
Optimization is not an end in itself, because the programmer's time and the intelligibility of the program are important. Programmers typically try to write reasonable optimized programs without making them impossible to understand and debug. Once fully tested, a program that will save time savings justify the effort required. There is no point in getting the wrong answer as fast as possible.² Certain computers, such as those using parallel processors, may require specialized optimization.

A.8.2 Programming style

The style in which programs are written can make them easier to develop, debug and use. A few suggestions, though not absolute rules, may be useful.

² Langman and Plauger (1978).

Fig. A.8-2. Demonstration of the danger that a program accurately computes an incorrect mathematical formula. Top: A correct simulation of wave refraction using Snell's law, $\sin i/v_1 = \sin r/v_2$. Bottom: The same simulation using a wrong formula for Snell's law, $i/v_2 = r/v_1$.



• *The output is labeled.* The seismogram was placed in an output file for later plotting. The parameters used to compute the seismogram are included, so examination of the output

• *The program uses loops and arrays.* The seismogram is described by the array $U(j)$, and its values at successive times are calculated by looping. Using an array, rather than discrete variables $U1, U2$, etc., makes the program clearer, closer to the mathematical formulation, and simplifies output. The loop structure also makes the program clearer and allows the number of time steps to be changed simply by changing the parameter $NTSTEP$. Similarly, the number of modes is easily changed.

• *The program is reasonably comprehensible.* Several features help clarify the program. The program's purpose and method are stated. Variable names somewhat resemble those in the equation: "SXS" is $\sin x$, and so on. Comments identify the functions of portions of the program.

and optimizing the program is wasted. physical situation, then time spent debugging, documenting, because if the mathematical model is not appropriate for the at fixed times could be computed. Such tests are important, tion to synthetic seismograms, displacements along the string

• *Is the answer correct?* Two different types of error occur in scientific programs. First, the *program* may be wrong. In this case, the mathematical formulation correctly describes the physical problem, but the program incorrectly implements this formulation. This is the usual situation, in which "bugs" are identified and corrected. Second, the *formulation* may be wrong, so the program correctly implements an incorrect mathematical model. This could occur because of a mathematical error, such as an equation that does not correctly describe waves on a string. An incorrect formulation is particularly disturbing because it cannot be detected by checking the program.

For example, Fig. A.8-2 shows two computer simulations for waves bending as they pass from one medium into another with higher velocities. Figure A.8-2 (top) uses the correct formulation of Snell's law (Section 2.5), whereas Fig. A.8-2 (bottom) looks equally convincing but is wrong because the equation which the program illustrates is incorrect.

Programmers check for both types of errors by choosing cases for which the results can be predicted analytically and comparing the results to those of the program. Several tests are easily done for the string. The wave following the shortest (direct) path appears at the expected time, 0.5 s (Fig. A.8-1, bottom), because the source and the receiver are 0.5 m apart. The next two arrivals, reflections from the ends of the string, also occur at the expected times. Moreover, these arrivals have polarities opposite that of the initial pulse, as should occur (Section 2.2.3) upon reflection at the string's fixed ends. The program can also be checked for different string lengths, speeds, and source and receiver positions. Similarly, in addi-

This example brings out several points:

```

C SPACE TERMS: SOURCE AND RECEIVER
SXS = SIN(ANPIL*XSRC)
SXR = SIN(ANPIL*XRCLR)
C MODE FREQUENCY
WN = N*PI*C/ALNGTH
C TIME INDEPENDENT TERMS
DMP = (TAU*WN)**2
SCALE = EXP(-DMP/4.)
SPACE = SXS*SXR*SCALE
C INNER LOOP OVER TIME STEPS
DO 15 J = 1, NTSTEP
  T = DT*(J - 1)
  CWT = COS(WN*T)
C COMPUTE DISPLACEMENT
  U(J) = U(J) + CWT*SPACE
15 CONTINUE
10 CONTINUE
C OUTPUT SEISMOGRAM FOR LATER PLOTTING
WRITE (6, 3101) (U(J), J = 1, NTSTEP)
3101 FORMAT (7F10.4)
STOP
END

```