Normal modes

Jessica Irving

Princeton University
Normal modes

Spheroidal, $n=0$, $\ell=4$
period $\approx 26$ minutes

Visualisations from http://icb.u-bourgogne.fr/nano/manapi/saviot/terre/index.en.html
Normal mode spectrum

We look at normal modes in the frequency domain. Here is an observation of some of the lower frequency normal mode oscillations generated by the 2004 Sumatra Earthquake.

Splitting of the peaks, so they are not at one distinct frequency, is caused by Earth's rotation, ellipticity, anisotropy and lateral heterogeneity – see second half of the lecture.

Figure from Park et al, Science 20 May 2005: 308 (5725), 1139-1144
Spheroidal normal modes

There are two types of normal modes.
• Spheroidal modes are analogous to modes with P-SV motion.

Spheroidal modes $S_0$ (20.5 min), $S_2$ (53.9 min) and $S_3$ (25.7 min)

Figure from http://www.iris.iris.edu/sumatra/free_oscillations_second.htm
Toroidal modes are analogous to Love waves or SH motion. They are labelled by $T_2$ (44.2 min), $T_2$ (12.6 min) and $T_3$ (28.4 min).

The normal modes of a string - a “1D” object - with fixed endpoints look like sines and cosines.

Figure from http://www.iris.iris.edu/sumatra/free_oscillations_second.htm
Spherical harmonics

There is lots of lovely matlab code on Frederik Simons webpage (frederik.net) for spherical harmonics and other geophysical applications, some of which was used to make these figures.

$Y_{4,0}(\theta, \phi)$  $Y_{4,1}(\theta, \phi)$  $Y_{4,2}(\theta, \phi)$

$Y_{4,3}(\theta, \phi)$  $Y_{4,4}(\theta, \phi)$

Plotted are spherical harmonics for $l=4$, $m=0,1,2,3,4$.

There is lots of lovely matlab code on Frederik Simons webpage (frederik.net) for spherical harmonics and other geophysical applications, some of which was used to make these figures.
What are normal modes?

So what are Earth's normal modes?

- Whole Earth oscillations
- Other planets and moons will also undergo free oscillations and the oscillations of the sun are studied by astrophysicists: 'helioseismology'. See tutorial by Philippe Lognonné on Thursday afternoon.
- Normally excited by an earthquake; may also be excited by atmosphere-solid Earth coupling (continuous hum).

Why should I care?

- Normal modes can tell us about the gross properties of the Earth!
- They care about density as well as seismic velocities.
A FIRST OBSERVATION?

Fig. 8--Seismogram of Kamchatka earthquake, November 4, 1952, recorded by Benioff strain seismograph at Pasadena, drafted with 22 fold reduced recording rate

The origin of these ultra-long-period oscillations is not clear. The very long-period dilatation beginning at 30 min may represent a readjustment of the world crustal strain pattern in response to the release of a compressional strain on the Kamchatka fault. The 57-min and 100-min oscillations may represent free vibrations of the Earth as a whole or of the mantle as a whole. A possible mode for the 57-min vibration is one in which the Earth takes on the forms of a prolate and oblate ellipsoid alternately. In Figure 8 the straight portion of the seismogram between $R_1$ and $P'R_1$ represents the mean line position for a long train of Rayleigh waves on the original seismogram with periods too short (approximately 20 sec) to be resolved in the drafted copy.

Deriving a (simple) set of normal modes

Some mathematics:

We will consider the normal modes of a homogeneous liquid sphere. The sphere will have a constant density, \( \rho \), a constant bulk modulus, \( \kappa \), and a radius \( r_0 \).

If there are small perturbations in pressure, \( P \) which cause the excitation of normal modes, the equation of motion can be written as:

\[
\rho \ddot{u} = -\nabla P
\]

And we have simplified Hooke's law to

\[
P = -\kappa \nabla \cdot u
\]

Because there is only the normal stress to consider in a liquid.

We then find that:

\[
c^2 \nabla^2 P = \frac{\partial^2 P}{\partial t^2}
\]

\[
c = \sqrt{\frac{\kappa}{\rho}}
\]

Here we follow Aki & Richards; nonetheless I commend to you Dahlen and Tromp - it is the best reference for anything normal mode-esque.
A stress free boundary condition requires that at the surface, \( P=0 \) for all times. This is clearly easiest to consider in spherical polar coordinates.

\[
\nabla^2 P = \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( r^2 \frac{\partial P}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left( \sin \theta \frac{\partial P}{\partial \theta} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin^2 \theta} \left( \frac{\partial^2 P}{\partial \phi^2} \right)
\]

We will look for a separable solution to this equation, where

\[
P = P(r, \theta, \phi, t) = R(r) \Theta(\theta) \Phi(\phi) e^{i \omega t}
\]

The solution to the angular terms of this equation can be written in terms of spherical harmonics (solution not derived here):

\[
\Theta(\theta) \Phi(\phi) = Y_l^m(\theta, \phi) = (-1)^m \left[ \frac{2l+1}{4\pi} \frac{(l-m)!}{(l+m)!} \right]^{1/2} P_l^m(\cos \theta) e^{im\phi}
\]

Where we have written the spherical harmonics in terms of the Legendre polynomials:
The spherical harmonics are the images on screen a few slides back:

We have found the angular dependence of our solutions: \( P = R(r) \Theta(\theta) \Phi(\phi) e^{i\omega t} \)

So the remaining term to solve for is the radial term:

\[
\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( r^2 \frac{\partial R}{\partial r} \right) + \left[ \frac{\omega^2}{c^2} - \frac{l(l+1)}{r^2} \right] R = 0
\]

Which contains a dependence on \( l \), but not on \( m \).

As we also want our solutions to have no singularities, it turns out that the radial dependence of \( P \) is given by

\[
R \propto j_l \left( \frac{\omega r}{c} \right)
\]

where \( j_l(x) = x^l \left( \frac{-1}{x} \frac{d}{dx} \right)^l \left( \frac{\sin x}{x} \right) \)

are Bessel functions.
Deriving a (simple) set of normal modes

All of these letters! \( n \), \( l \) and \( m \) are:

- \( n \) – overtone number or radial order – think of this as the number of zeros along the radius of the earth for a mode with \( l=0 \)

- \( l \) – angular order – think of this as the number of zeros across the surface of the sphere the radius of the earth for a mode

- \( m \) – azimuthal order – think of this as telling us about how those lines zeros are ordered on the surface of the sphere

lower 5 figures from Stein & Wysession, p 106
Then for \( l = 0 \)

\[
R(r) \propto \frac{c}{r \omega} \sin \left( \frac{r \omega}{c} \right)
\]

For \( l = 1 \)

\[
R(r) \propto \frac{c^2}{r^2 \omega^2} \sin \left( \frac{r \omega}{c} \right) - \frac{c}{r \omega} \cos \left( \frac{r \omega}{c} \right)
\]

And so on.

We still need the stress free boundary condition to be satisfied: \( P(r_0) = 0 \)

This places restrictions on the allowable values of \( \omega \):

\[
n \omega_0 = \frac{(n + 1) \pi c}{r_0}
\]

Where we have now found the frequencies of the radial modes for the homogeneous, liquid sphere.
The radial functions of the pressure term can be plotted:

\[ P(r, \theta, \phi, t) = R(r) \Theta(\theta) \Phi(\phi)e^{i\omega t} \]
Normal modes!

These normal modes are clearly much less complex than those of the earth, but already have the properties of Earth's normal modes.

Notice as well that they are degenerate – the frequencies of oscillation are not dependent on \( m \), but only on \( n \) and \( l \).

The modes form a complete, orthogonal, basis set. We have considered a fluid, homogeneous sphere, without taking into account self gravitation. We have also not considered attenuation in the formalization of this problem – something which will clearly affect the Earth's normal modes. Finally we have not talked about how the initial pressure perturbations are generated.

Now, we can write any change in the pressure in the material in sphere in terms of a sum of our normal modes:

\[
P = \sum_{n,l,m} A_n^m R(r) Y_l^m(\theta, \phi) \exp(i n \omega_l^m t)
\]

And the corresponding displacements could also be obtained.
More realistic normal modes

The same type of modeling of normal modes can be applied to the more complex structure we know to exist on Earth. Just as we did with body waves, and surface waves, we can break the motions of the earth into two types – toroidal and spheroidal. The P-SV motions are the counterpart of the spheroidal (sometimes poloidal) normal modes, and the SH motions are the toroidal modes (which were forbidden in the liquid planet we just considered).

We will use three different vector spherical harmonics:

\[ R_l^m(\theta, \phi) = Y_l^m \hat{\mathbf{r}} \]

\[ S_l^m(\theta, \phi) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{l(l+1)}} \left( \frac{\partial Y_l^m}{\partial \theta} \hat{\mathbf{\theta}} + \frac{1}{\sin \theta} \frac{\partial Y_l^m}{\partial \phi} \hat{\mathbf{\phi}} \right) \]

\[ T_l^m(\theta, \phi) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{l(l+1)}} \left( \frac{1}{\sin \theta} \frac{\partial Y_l^m}{\partial \phi} \hat{\mathbf{\theta}} - \frac{\partial Y_l^m}{\partial \theta} \hat{\mathbf{\phi}} \right) \]

Let us write the displacement of a normal mode with a particular \( n, l \) and \( m \) as:

\[ \left[ n U_l(r) R_l^m(\theta, \phi) + n V_l(r) S_l^m(\theta, \phi) + n W_l(r) T_l^m(\theta, \phi) \right] \exp(-i_n \omega_n t) \]

we could do the same for the traction, and then use the elastic tensor to relate the two.
Two types of normal modes

Doing some rearranging, we would find we have split the modes into two parts – the one which contains motion described by the $R''_l$ and $S''_l$ vector fields, and one whose motion is described by the $T''_l$ vector field.

The first of these, the spheroidal modes, have the radial component of $\nabla \times \mathbf{u}$ equal to zero.

The second of these, the toroidal modes have both $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$ and $u_r = 0$. 
Normal modes!

A quick reminder of the terminology we've got so far:

- $n =$ radial order
- $l =$ angular order
- $m =$ azimuthal order

Labeling modes:

$n S_l$  \hspace{2cm} $n T_l$

- Spheroidal mode
- Toroidal mode
We can now consider the more complex problem of the self-gravitating Earth.

Gravity is the reason that planetary bodies are (roughly) spherical.

We can start with Poisson's equation:

$$\nabla^2 V_0 = -4\pi G \rho_0$$

Where $V_0$ is the gravitational potential and is a function of $r$, $G$ is the gravitational constant and $\rho_0$ is the density and also a function of $r$.

Equilibrium exists when

$$\rho_0 \nabla V_0 = \nabla P_0 = -\rho_0(r) g_0(r) \hat{r}$$

We could then consider a small perturbation in displacement, with corresponding density and gravitational potential perturbations:

Displacement perturbation

$$u(X) \exp(-i\omega t)$$

Density

$$\rho(X,t)$$

Gravitational potential

$$V_0 + K(X) \exp(-i\omega t)$$
We get to a point where we have a set of first order differential equations which relate the first derivatives of $U(r)$, $R(r)$, $V(r)$, $S(r)$ and $G(r)$, to $U(r)$, $R(r)$, $V(r)$, $S(r)$, $G(r)$ and $K(r)$ together with the equation above which relates the first derivate of $K(r)$ to $K(r)$ and $G(r)$.

\[
\frac{dU}{dr} = \frac{1}{\lambda + 2\mu} \left[ R - \frac{\lambda}{r} [2U - \sqrt{l(l+1)1}] \right],
\]

\[
\frac{dR}{dr} = -\omega^2 \rho_0 U + \frac{2}{r} \left( \lambda \frac{dU}{dr} - R \right) + \frac{1}{r} \left[ \frac{2(\lambda + \mu)}{r} - \rho_0 g_0 \right] [2U - \sqrt{l(l+1)V}] + \sqrt{l(l+1)} S - \rho_0 \left( G - \frac{l+1}{r} K + \frac{2g_0}{r} U \right),
\]

\[
\frac{dV}{dr} = \frac{1}{\mu} S + \frac{1}{r} [V - \sqrt{l(l+1)1}],
\]

\[
\frac{dS}{dr} = -\omega^2 \rho_0 V - \frac{\lambda}{r} \sqrt{l(l+1)} \frac{dU}{dr} - \frac{\lambda + 2\mu}{r^2} [2\sqrt{l(l+1)1} - l(l+1)V] + 2\mu [\sqrt{l(l+1)1} - V] \frac{3}{r} S - \rho_0 \sqrt{l(l+1)1} (K - g_0 U),
\]

\[
\frac{dK}{dr} = G + 4\pi y \rho_0 U - \frac{l+1}{r} K,
\]

\[
\frac{dG}{dr} = \frac{l-1}{r} (G + 4\pi y \rho_0 U) + \frac{4\pi y \rho_0}{r} [2U - \sqrt{l(l+1)1}].
\]

C&P from Aki & Richards, p 361; suffices n and l have been omitted.
These equations can also be written in matrix form and solved for the $n \omega_l$ and the displacements which are given by $U(r)$ and $V(r)$.

Gravity does not affect the toroidal modes, so the matrix equation for $W(r)$ and $T(r)$ is simpler.

\begin{align*}
0S_2 & \quad 0S_3 & \quad 0S_4 & \quad 0S_5 & \quad 0S_6 & \quad 0S_7 & \quad 0S_8 \\
\end{align*}

\begin{align*}
\text{remember displacement looks like} \quad & \quad \left[ n \ U_l(r) \ R_l^m(\theta, \phi) + n \ V_l(r) \ S_l^m(\theta, \phi) + n \ W_l(r) \ T_l^m(\theta, \phi) \right] \exp(-i \ n \ \omega_l \ t) \\
\end{align*}
These equations can also be written in matrix form and solved for the \( \omega \) and the displacements which are given by \( U(r) \) and \( V(r) \).
The equations for the normal modes have $2l+1$ degeneracy – there are $2l+1$ singlets which are excited as part of every mode, corresponding to different values of $m$.

For a toroidal mode, the different singlets have motions with $l-1$ nodal planes on the surface:

From Stein & Wysession, p 105
LATERAL VARIATIONS OF THE MODES

The equations for the normal modes have $2l+1$ degeneracy – there are $2l+1$ singlets which are excited as part of every mode, corresponding to different values of $m$.

For a spheroidal mode, the different singlets have motions with $l-1$ nodal planes on the surface:

Figure 2.9-7: Examples of the displacements for several spheroidal modes.

From Stein & Wysession, p 106
Normal mode branches

n=0;
I increasing

Diagram showing frequency (mHz) vs angular order (I) with a linear increase as I increases.
These equations can also be written in matrix form and solved for the $\omega_n$ and the displacements which are given by $U(r)$ and $V(r)$.

Normal mode branches

$0S_2$  $0S_{12}$  $0S_{22}$  $0S_{32}$  $0S_{42}$

$0S_{52}$  $0S_{62}$  $0S_{72}$  $0S_{82}$  $0S_{92}$
A surface wave which has \( l + \frac{1}{2} \) wavelengths equivalent to the circumference of the Earth can be compared to the mode with angular order \( l \). The surface wave will then move with a horizontal phase velocity of \( c_x = \frac{n \omega_l}{|k_x|} = \frac{n \omega_l a}{l + 1/2} \).
NORMAL MODE BRANCHES

Rayleigh-like

PKIKP-like
PKP-like
SKS ScS-like

Frequency (mHz)
Angular order (l)

Labels after Lay & Wallace (1995)
Radial normal modes

$l=0$; $n$ increasing
Normal mode branches

$0T_2$  $0T_{12}$  $0T_{22}$  $0T_{32}$  $0T_{42}$  $0T_{52}$
For toroidal modes:

NORMAL MODE BRANCHES

For toroidal modes:

- ScS-like
- Love-like

![Plot showing normal mode branches for toroidal modes.](image)
NORMAL MODE BRANCHES
With no attenuation in the Earth, what would happen to normal modes generated by an earthquake?

Attenuation, or anelasticity in the earth causes a mode to decay over time. It is one of the reasons a mode will appear as a broadened peak in a normal mode spectrum.

\[ e^{i \frac{n \omega_l^m t}{2 \sqrt{n Q_l^m}}} \]
Normal mode properties

Observations of frequency and Q plotted

Red circles: PREM
Blue circles: observations

Fig. 4. Comparison of Chilean and Alaskan earthquake. Record length, 7854 min beginning 285 min after origin time for both events; sample interval, 3 min; bandwidth, $180,000^{-1}$ cps.

(7854 min = 130.9 hours = 5.45 days)
NORMAL MODE SPECTRUM

Figure from Park et al, Science 20 May 2005: 308 (5725), 1139-1144
NORMAL MODE STRENGTHS

The frequencies of normal modes can be a powerful tool in probing the Deep Earth:

Table from Dziewonski & Gilbert, *Nature*, 1971

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Mean period (s)</th>
<th>No. of observations</th>
<th>s.e.m. (s)</th>
<th>Comp. period</th>
<th>Rel. error (%)</th>
<th>Inner core energy</th>
<th>Rel. error (%)</th>
<th>Comp. period</th>
<th>Rel. error (%)</th>
<th>5.08M Compr. period</th>
<th>5.08M Rel. error (%)</th>
<th>HB1 Compr. period</th>
<th>HB1 Rel. error (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$S_0$</td>
<td>613.57</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.236</td>
<td>614.59</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.181</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>607.39</td>
<td>-1.02</td>
<td>610.06</td>
<td>-0.57</td>
<td>607.4</td>
<td>-1.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S_0$</td>
<td>398.54</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>0.084</td>
<td>397.59</td>
<td>-0.24</td>
<td>0.206</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>392.31</td>
<td>-1.59</td>
<td>391.42</td>
<td>-1.81</td>
<td>394.0</td>
<td>-1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S_0$</td>
<td>305.84</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.129</td>
<td>306.00</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.233</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>301.36</td>
<td>-1.48</td>
<td>301.84</td>
<td>-1.31</td>
<td>300.9</td>
<td>-1.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S_0$</td>
<td>243.59</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.067</td>
<td>243.80</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.192</td>
<td>0.007</td>
<td>241.11</td>
<td>-1.03</td>
<td>241.55</td>
<td>-0.84</td>
<td>239.9</td>
<td>-1.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S_2$</td>
<td>904.23</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>0.487</td>
<td>904.43</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.080</td>
<td>914.94</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>917.80</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>915.1</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S_2$</td>
<td>397.36</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.157</td>
<td>397.03</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
<td>0.015</td>
<td>0.102</td>
<td>399.93</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>398.20</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>399.1</td>
<td>0.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S_1$</td>
<td>348.41</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td>348.23</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>0.068</td>
<td>0.011</td>
<td>347.10</td>
<td>-0.38</td>
<td>347.38</td>
<td>-0.30</td>
<td>346.6</td>
<td>-0.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S_3$</td>
<td>281.37</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.113</td>
<td>281.59</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>0.022</td>
<td>282.77</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>283.34</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>282.1</td>
<td>0.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S_1$</td>
<td>272.10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.144</td>
<td>271.79</td>
<td>-0.11</td>
<td>0.115</td>
<td>0.052</td>
<td>271.00</td>
<td>-0.46</td>
<td>270.92</td>
<td>-0.43</td>
<td>270.5</td>
<td>-0.59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nine modes—r.m.s. 0.12 1.01

Table from Dziewonski & Gilbert, *Nature*, 1971
Which is your favorite bit of the Earth?

Normal modes care about velocity and density there!
Normal mode splitting

We have looked at the normal modes of a self gravitating earth. You will often hear the phrase SNREI Earth -

- Spherical – not elliptical
- Non-rotating – no days and nights
- Elastic – not attenuating
- Isotropic – not even relevant to PREM which is anisotropic in the upper mantle

These approximations are logical ones, but when we observe normal modes, we see that the degeneracy of the modes has been lost in many cases:

Figure 2. Spectrum of $S_3$ at Inuyama, Japan (INU). On this remarkable record, all seven singlets are resolvable ($m = +2$ only barely), and remarkably well fit using Tsai et al.’s (2005) composite source scaled to a full moment of $1.28 \times 10^{30} \text{ dyn cm}$ (synthetic in red).

Okal & Stein, Phys. Earth Planet. Int., 2009
Normal mode splitting

Figure 1. (a) A perspective view of 140 amplitude spectra for the mode $^{18}S_4$. The spectra have been sorted according to the latitude of the recording stations: spectra recorded at polar stations are in front and spectra from equatorial stations are in the back. The fact that high-latitude stations show only one spectral peak at the high-frequency end of the multiplet is suggestive of splitting dominated by axisymmetric structure. (b) Amplitude spectra of the estimated singlet resonance functions of $^{18}S_4$. 

Here, we see the loss of degeneracy for mode 0S2 at two different stations, caused by Earth's rotation (vertical lines indicate prediction of splitting due to rotation).

Splitting of normal modes can tell us about the non-SNREI structure of the Earth. As the Earth is rotating, the θ and φ directions are clearly different to each other.

The changes in frequency for toroidal modes are given by

\[ n \omega^m_l = n \omega_l - \frac{m}{l(l+1)} \Omega \]

where \( \Omega \) is the frequency of Earth's rotation \((2\pi/\text{length of sideral day in seconds})\) and is small relative to the frequency of the toroidal modes.

For spheroidal modes, the splitting due to rotation is given by a slightly more complex formula:

\[ n \omega^m_l = n \omega_l - m \Omega \beta_l \]

where

\[ n \beta_l = \int_0^r \frac{\rho_0 (n V_l)^2}{l(l+1)} r^2 dr + 2 \int_0^r \frac{\rho_0 n V_{ln} U_l}{\sqrt{l(l+1)}} r^2 dr \]

Of the spheroidal modes, rotation affects 1S1 and 0S2 most strongly. See your favorite text book for more details/the references to original papers.
This loss of degeneracy allows us to see the different singlets (different m values) which contribute to the multiplet in different locations. Again, we see mode 0S2.
Splitting functions

The loss of degeneracy can be probed in terms of a 'splitting function'.

The terms of the splitting matrix, $H$, are given by:

$$H_{mm'} = \bar{\omega}_k \left[ (a + mb + m^2 c) \delta_{mm'} + \sum \gamma_{s}^{mm'} c_{s}^{t} + i \sum \gamma_{s}^{mm'} d_{s}^{t} \right]$$

Rotation & ellipticity 3D elastic structure 3D anelastic structure

The anelastic 3D variations of the earth are poorly known, so we will not consider those here, though they are sometimes studied.

For this derivation, we follow Widmer-Schnidrig & Laske, *Treatise on Geophysics*, 2007, Chapter 1.03,
We can then define structure coefficients $c_{st}^t$, often written as $c_{st}$, which contain the information about the 3D variation:

$$c_{st} = \int_0^{r_e} M_s(r) \cdot \delta m_{st}(r) r^2 \, dr$$

where the $M$ are kernels depending on things like $U(r)$ and $V(r)$, the eigenfunctions for a particular mode and $K(r)$ (see Dahlen & Tromp appendix D4.2) which can be calculated for a known normal mode, and $\delta m$ are the 3D variations of the earth, which have been expressed in spherical harmonics so that $\delta m_{st}$ is the coefficient of the $s,t$ spherical harmonic expansion.

We have integrated over the radius of the Earth, so that the structure coefficient tells us about the depth-average reaction of the singlet to the 3D variations in the Earth.

Finally, we can write down how all of the structure coefficients for a mode can be considered:

$$f_E(\theta, \phi) = \sum_{s,t} c_{st} Y_{st}(\theta, \phi)$$

For this derivation, we follow Widmer-Schnidrig & Laske, *Treatise on Geophysics*, 2007, Chapter 1.03,
What do splitting coefficients look like?

Splitting function from http://igppweb.ucsd.edu/~gabi/rem.dir/surface/splitting.sph.eps
At the lowest frequencies, coupling due to rotation is important. Ellipticity and attenuation also cause coupling:

Fig. 4. Coupling between $0S_{11}$ and $0T_{12}$. Details as in Figure 2.

Fig. 2. Coupling between $0S_{14}$ and $0T_{15}$. (a) No coupling (plus signs) versus coupling (octagons) among all nearby ($\pm 1$ mHz) fundamental modes due to rotation, ellipticity and attenuation. (b) No coupling (plus signs) versus coupling (octagons) between $0S_{14}$ and $0T_{15}$ due to rotation, ellipticity, attenuation, and aspherical structure of Masters et al. [1982].

A toroidal observation

From Zurn et al., Geophys. J. Int., 2000

Figure 1. Comparison of amplitude spectra from the BIQ. The traces are (a) vertical-component coupled-mode synthetic for BFO including rotation, ellipticity of figure and heterogeneous elastic mantle structure, (b) C026 (J9, Strasbourg),
**Full coupling**

Multiple modes can be grouped together and cross-coupled. When enough are coupled together, it can be termed 'full-coupling'.

![Graph showing vertical-component acceleration data and synthetics for modes $S_9$, $T_4$, $T_{10}$, $S_0$, $S_7$, and $S_6$ for station PAB of the Bolivia event of 1994 June 9. The time window is 5–45 hr.](image)

**Figure 2.** Vertical-component acceleration data and synthetics for modes $S_9$, $T_4$, $T_{10}$, $S_0$, $S_7$, and $S_6$ for station PAB of the Bolivia event of 1994 June 9. The time window is 5–45 hr.

**Full coupling**

Inner core anisotropy causes strong coupling of normal modes:

![Diagram showing eigenfrequencies and Q for inner core sensitive modes using the self-coupling (SC) approximation and full-coupling (FC) for the inner core anisotropy models of (a) W,G&L (Woodhouse et al. 1986), (b) Tr (Tromp 1993), (c) D&R (Durek & Romanowicz 1999) and (d) B&T (Beghein & Trampert 2003). Only those modes with a frequency of less than 6 mHz and Q greater than 200 are shown. Mantle structure, ellipticity and rotation have not been included in these calculations—all variations in frequency and Q are due to inner core anisotropy.](image)

*Figure 3.* Eigenfrequencies and Q for inner core sensitive modes using the self-coupling (SC) approximation and full-coupling (FC) for the inner core anisotropy models of (a) W,G&L (Woodhouse et al. 1986), (b) Tr (Tromp 1993), (c) D&R (Durek & Romanowicz 1999) and (d) B&T (Beghein & Trampert 2003). Only those modes with a frequency of less than 6 mHz and Q greater than 200 are shown. Mantle structure, ellipticity and rotation have not been included in these calculations—all variations in frequency and Q are due to inner core anisotropy.