

The Bremen ocean bottom tiltmeter (OBT) – a technical article on a new instrument to monitor deep sea floor deformation and seismicity level

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Abstract The Bremen ocean bottom tiltmeter is a new 6000 m-depth deep sea instrument for autonomous observation of sea floor tilt with signal periods longer than 7.5 s. The instrument also records vertical acceleration in the frequency range from DC to 1 Hz. The tiltmeter has an Applied Geomechanics Inc. 756 wide angle biaxial bubble tilt sensor with a resolution of 1.0μ rad (0.2 arc second). A Kistler Corp. MEMS accelerometer of type Servo K-Beam 8330A2.5 with about 10^{-5}m/s^2 resolution is used for the acceleration measurements. An Oceanographic Embedded Systems AD24 24 bit Sigma-Delta converter, which is controlled by a low-power Persistor Inc. embedded computer system of type CF 2, samples the data. The duration of tiltmeter operation is more than one year, which is controlled by the battery life. In our design the tiltmeter does not need active leveling devices, i.e., servo motors or other moving components to adjust sensors or frame. We designed the instrument for deployments by means of a remote operated vehicle. Since May 2005 the Bremen ocean bottom tiltmeter has recorded sea floor deformation and seismicity level in the Logatchev hydrothermal vent field, Mid-Atlantic Ridge. The tiltmeter is a part of the monitoring system of project ‘Logatchev Long-Term Environmental Monitoring,’ called LOLEM, of the German research program with the name ‘Schwerpunktprogramm 1144: Vom Mantel zum Ozean.’

Keywords Logatchev hydrothermal vent field · Long-term monitoring · Low power data logging · MEMS accelerometer · Mid Atlantic Ridge · Ocean bottom tiltmeter · Offshore precision measurements

Introduction

Hydrothermal activity at mid-ocean ridges, like diffuse venting and black or white smoker outflow, is controlled in space and time by a number of geodynamic processes (Cooper and Elderfield 2000; Fornari et al. 1998; Goto et al. 2002; Kingston-Tivey et al. 2002). Davis and Becker (1999), Eberhart et al. (1988) and Crone and Wilcock (2005) have investigated the influence of ridge tectonic activity on hydrothermalism. Kasahara and Sato (2001), for instance, explored the tidal loading influence on hydrothermal systems. German and Parson (1998) and Wright et al. (1995) worked on the geological structure and the influence of deeper magmatic processes on the Mid-Atlantic Ridge. In contrast, sea floor deformation and magma chamber inflation or deflation, as well as earthquake activity on the Juan de Fuca Ridge were assessed by Tolstoy et al. (1998, 2002), Chadwell et al. (1999) and Chadwick et al. (1999, 2006).

Despite several studies on these hydrothermal processes, investigations have mostly depended on short observation periods or single samples. Continuous long-term development of hydrothermal systems is very sparsely observed. On the other hand, it is assumed that during long time spans, hydrothermal systems contribute a significant amount to the bulk chemistry of the oceans and magmatic events can affect the vent chemistry (Lilley et al. 2003). Hydrothermal

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systems harbour a rich array of biological communities, but, because of the scarcity of long-term data, predictions of budget- or process-models are not very reliable (Tyler and Young 2003). There is thus an urgent need for instruments and experimental set-ups that can provide the necessary environmental data over long time periods and with high precision. Two key environmental variables, which are directly related to ground dynamic processes, are sea floor tilt and acceleration.

Results from local and regional tilt measurements on land and on the sea floor (Anderson et al. 1997; Tofani and Horath 1990) demonstrate that these parameters are valuable indicators of ground deformation, which are generated over various time scales. For instance, such ground deformations may be triggered by changes in subsurface fluid flow (Fabian and Kämpel 2003; Fabian 2004; Jahr et al. 2005; Vasco et al. 2002), tidal loading (Sleeman et al. 2000; Tolstoy et al. 1998; Tolstoy et al. 2002) or tectonic activity (Bilham and Beavan 1979; Savage et al. 1979).

Tilt monitoring provides quasi-continuous high precision data of seafloor dynamics at any given site. Therefore, these data provide information about processes, which might take place between those times at which single, non-continuous measurements are done on the same site by other methods, or at which only singular samples have been collected. Hence, quasi-continuous tilt data are useful to fill the general gap of information between regular monitoring opportunities e.g., fluid sampling or collecting biological species during a research cruise. On-shore, continuous tilt measurements are used to interpolate data collected during geodetic campaigns of GPS, leveling and gravimetry on reference-points, e.g. (Campbell et al. 2002; Kämpel et al. 2001; Kämpel and Fabian 2003). Off-shore, a comparable combination of tilt measurements coupled with acoustic techniques described by Spiess et al. (1998) and Gagnon et al. (2005), or with the sea floor leveling techniques described by Chadwick et al. (2006) is also possible.

The Bremen ocean bottom tiltmeter (OBT) is designed as a monitoring tool for processes, which are related to slow ground deformation, i.e., deformation with signal periods from minutes to months, e.g., caused by magmatic activity, crustal formation and fluid circulation in the upper sea floor.

As a complementary parameter to tilt, the OBT also records vertical acceleration in the low frequency range from DC to 1 Hz. To sense these signals, a Micro-Electro-Mechanical System (MEMS) accelerometer (Bernstein et al. 1999; Moore and Syms 1999; Varadan and Varadan 2000) is implemented in the

OBT. Geophysical studies using these MEMS sensors, especially in the low frequency range below 1 Hz, are quite rare. Nonetheless, technical sensor data, our own laboratory tests, the report of the vendor (Kistler 2004) and commercial applications (Holland 2003) demonstrate that these sensors have enough sensitivity to register even weak ground accelerations. The sensor we use, has a nominal resolution of about 10^{-5}m/s^2 , which is close to the background noise level on the sea floor. Crawford and Webb (2000) show that ocean floor noise spectra has a comparable level. Therefore, the sensor is best suited to detect accelerations, which are not covered by sea floor background noise.

For our measurements with the OBT in the Logatchev hydrothermal vent field (Mazarovich and Sokolov 1998), we expect ground acceleration related to tremor-like seismicity, which might be caused by hydrothermally forced fluid flow and circulation in the upper subsurface or which is generated by tectonic activity. McClain et al. (1993) and Sohn et al. (1995) report on these types of signals from the northern and the southern Juan de Fuca Ridge, respectively. Fox (1999) and Tolstoy et al. (2002) show similar data, measured on Axial Volcano, Juan de Fuca Ridge. Chouet (1996) reported on long-period volcano seismicity on-shore. These studies present seismic signals, which have a highly variable wave form pattern that differs between single seismic events. The seismic events originate from different sources in the upper subsurface where wave-trains overlay each other. Accordingly, the signal amplitude is highly variable from signal to signal and can hardly be estimated. The strongest signal components are reported to be in the frequency range between 1 and about 50 Hz, which is above the measuring range of the OBT. Therefore, acceleration data from the OBT (or low-frequency seismicity level) are regarded as a proxy for background hydrothermal and tectonic activity in the Logatchev hydrothermal vent field. An intensified activity level, which might be related to local tremors or regional earthquakes, can indicate possible changes in stress field and alterations in the subsurface fracture system that serves as pathways for hydrothermal fluids (Fisher et al. 1996).

Here we provide an overview of our design concept of the OBT and present in detail the selected sensors and data logger. We also report on relevant technical details and show laboratory data for validation. We point out differences with other designs known from ocean bottom seismometers (OBS), ocean bottom hydrophones (OBH) and other OBT. Finally, we summarize the deployment of our OBT in the Logatchev hydrothermal vent field at the Mid-Atlantic Ridge (Lackschewitz et al. 2005), which was done in May

2005 by means of the remote operated vehicle (ROV) of ‘Zentrum für Marine Umweltwissenschaften’ (MARUM) of the University of Bremen.

Design concept

Development of the OBT requires a problem specific selection and design of sensor components, pressure cases and a supporting sensor frame. One has to take into account (1) adequate sensor resolution, (2) low power consumption and suitability of data logger for autonomous operation, (3) good coupling to the ground, (4) uncomplicated leveling and remote-controlled installation on the sea floor and (5) robustness against high pressure, sea water and handling by a ROV and on board a research vessel.

Generally, our main strategy was to maximize reliability and to minimize the number of error sources by using approved off-the-shelf components and by using as few components as possible. As we can use a ROV for deployment and recovery we do not need a release and pop-up mechanism with buoyancy, as often used in OBS and OBH surveys, e.g. (Bialas and Flueh 1999; Kovachev et al. 1997; Suetsugu et al. 2005). This allows a compact and rigid construction that has a minor drag in bottom currents. Furthermore, in contrast with the designs of Shimamura and Kananzawa (1988) and Tolstoy et al. (1998, 2002) we omit adjusting devices or other mechanical or electronic components to level the frame of the OBT or its sensors.

The model of the OBT shown in Fig. 1 gives an overview of the instrument and its constituent parts. The aluminium frame consists of a triangular base plate, a bar for handling and three legs with hollow tips. An aluminium pressure case, which is screwed to

the base plate, houses the tilt and acceleration sensor. The larger titanium case that lies horizontally in a plastic tray contains the data logger, electronics and batteries. Underwater connectors in the end caps of both pressure cases feed the analog sensor signals from the aluminium pressure case into the titanium case, which houses the data logger. A newly developed analogue deep sea level (Fabian and Heesemann 2006) adjusts the instrument by means of an ROV.

Sensors

The OBT has two main sensors: A biaxial bubble tilt sensor and an absolute accelerometer that has a response curve starting from DC. In addition, a thermistor incorporated in the tilt sensor measures the temperature inside the sensor pressure case, whereas the bottom water temperature is recorded with a miniaturized high-resolution (1 mK) temperature logger (Pfender and Villingner 2002), which is lashed to the frame of the OBT.

Tilt

We use an Applied Geomechanics Inc. (AGI) 756 wide angle biaxial bubble tilt sensor with a resolution of 1.0μ rad (0.2 arc second) and a repeatability of 2.0μ rad (AGI 2000). This type of sensor is known for its reliability and long-term stability (d’Orey de Lantremange 1998; Menten et al. 1996; Tofani and Horath 1990). The comparatively broad effective range of $\pm 8^\circ$ is particularly useful for our application. Hence, we do not need to level the sensor (or the frame) very precisely when installing it with an ROV on the sea floor.

Compared with data of Tolstoy et al. (1998, 2002), who used a 0.05μ rad resolution tilt sensor within an OBS with a gimbal system, and assuming the same sea floor conditions, we can clearly resolve long-term signals with high quality. Tolstoy et al. (1998) also report tidal related tilts of amplitude below 1.0μ rad. However, the signal strength depends on the sea floor compliance and is position-dependent (Willoughby et al. 2000; Crawford 2004; Hulme et al. 2005). Therefore, we can not exclude the possibility that we will observe tide-related tilt in the Logatchev hydrothermal vent field.

The tilt sensor electronics include a signal conditioning card with two switchable gains of ratio 10 (high) to 1 (low) (AGI 2003). High gain amplifies small tilt signals within a reduced effective range of $\pm 0.8^\circ$. For OBT operation we use the low gain setting and feed the signals into a 24-bit data logger, so that a final signal resolution of better than 1.0μ rad is achieved.

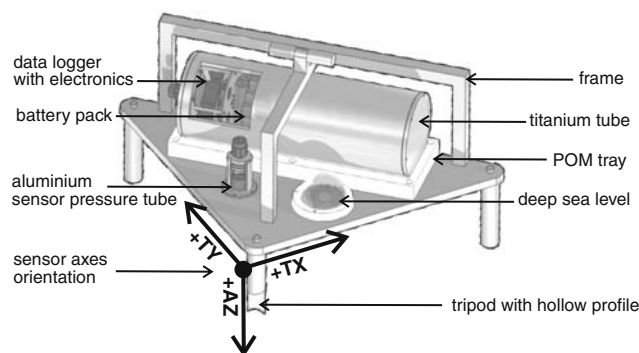


Fig. 1 CAD-model of the OBT. Physical dimensions of the base plate: 0.85 m (long edge) $\times$ [0.6 $\times$ 0.6 m]. Height of the OBT: 0.45 m, weight in water: 450 N. Orientation of sensor axes, x-tilt, +TX, y-tilt, +TY and vertical acceleration, +AZ is shown

The signal conditioning card also has a built-in switchable low-pass Butterworth filter with cut-off periods of 0.05 s and 7.5 s both with 6 dB/octave roll-off. For OBT operation we use the 7.5 s setting to reduce aliasing.

An other criterion for sensor selection is the power consumption. Our AGI 756 with signal conditioning card needs about 15 mA at ± 12 V at an inclination smaller than 2° . The AGI 756 also needs up to 27 mA for larger angles in both axes. If the sensor is leveled almost exactly then the required current drops to 11 mA. For autonomous long-term monitoring it is desirable to reduce these values further in the future. However, presently there are no sensors now on the market with similar resolution, repeatability, long-term stability and significantly less power consumption than the AGI 756.

Acceleration

For measurement of vertical acceleration we choose the Kistler Servo K-Beam 8330A2.5 (Kistler 2004). This is a MEMS class sensor, which is already used in reflection seismic surveys (Byerley et al. 2003) and also is suitable for seismological applications (Holland 2003). Micro-Electro-Mechanical Systems (MEMS) integrate mechanical elements as well as sensor elements and electronics on a single small silicon wafer. Similar to computer processor fabrication, the MEMS sensor is fabricated through micro fabrication. Due to the small size and high fabrication precision, these sensors consume only a fraction of the power used by a comparable classical sensor. Therefore, the MEMS sensors noise level is relatively low and the resolution as well as accuracy is quite high (Bernstein et al. 1999; Hierold 2004; Moore and Syms 1999; Mougnot and Thorburn 2004; Varadan 2000).

Nominal signal resolution of the Servo K-Beam is close to 10^{-5} m/s^2 with a sensitivity of about 150 mV/(m/s^2). Frequency range is from DC to 300 Hz (resonance frequency is 5000 Hz). To reject high frequency components, which can not be sampled by our data acquisition system due to power limitations, we connected the output of the sensor to a passive low-pass filter with 1 Hz corner frequency and a roll-off of 18 dB/decade.

As mentioned above, the strength of low frequency background noise on the sea floor is in the same range as the resolution of the Servo K-Beam (Crawford and Webb 2000; Duennbier and Sutton 1995; Romanowicz et al. 1998; Zverev 1997), so that the sensor's resolution is sufficient for monitoring seismicity level. For long-term deep sea measurements the MEMS

sensor has several advantages. Compared to a classical seismograph these are small physical dimensions ($27 \times 27 \times 16$ mm), operation without precise leveling, relatively low power consumption (≈ 17 mA, ± 12 V), robustness against mechanical shocks during transport and deployment, low cost, light weight and easy handling.

The Servo K-Beam works in any orientation. It measures absolute acceleration in the direction of the sensor axis (here in the vertical instrument axis of the OBT). Because of this particular capability to measure gravity, the combination of long-term acceleration and tilt helps to verify long-term trends. Significant changes in tilt have to be accompanied by a deviation of the OBT, and as well by a comparable change in absolute acceleration. On the other hand, with tilt data, vertical acceleration can be corrected for deflections (Crawford and Webb 2000).

Recently, Kistler Corporation has replaced the Servo K-Beam 8330A2.5 by its successor the Servo K-Beam 8330A3.0. With respect to the 8330A2.5, the nominal noise density of the 8330A3.0 decreased by 50% and the nominal resolution is enhanced by the same factor. The measuring range is 20% broader and the sensitivity is reduced by about 20%. The temperature coefficient has been increased by a factor of nearly four. Minor modifications concern the frequency range, resonant frequency and the phase-shift (Kistler 2004, 2005). However, the test data we show in section 'Tests' from both sensors, does not report large differences between the sensors in practical operation.

Data logger and low power operation

The data logger has to fulfill several requirements, which are (1) a suitable number of input channels with a sufficiently high dynamic range and a sampling interval small enough to resolve signals related to seismicity, (2) storage capacity for at least one year of data, (3) low power consumption and, (4) small size and low cost. The battery capacity and the memory size of the data logger have to be designed for a one year long monitoring period at the sampling intervals described below.

The Oceanographic Embedded Systems AD 24 24 bit AD-converter controlled by a Persistor Instruments Inc. CF 2 (PersistorInc 2005) is a data logging system, whose technical specifications meet our requirements. The AD 24 is an add-on module that can be plugged in the CF 2's upgrade socket. The AD 24 implements two Cirrus Logic Inc. CS 5534-BS 24 bit Sigma-Delta converters, which provide four multiplexed input channels each. Each of the channels can be configured freely.

The CF 2 is a Motorola 68332 based embedded computer system with 1 MB RAM and a slot for CompactFlash cards. During logging, the RAM can be used as a data buffer whose content is dumped to the CompactFlash card when the buffer is full. The AD 24 board and CF 2 controller come with a suite of C-libraries. Customers can incorporate functions of the C-libraries in their own C-Code and build a customized acquisition and processing software package.

The most important settings for an input channel of the AD 24 are the conversion time, which is directly related to the resolution, and the sampling period, which has to be longer than the conversion time. At a conversion time of 600 ms, a resolution of 22 effective bits for an input signal of ± 2.5 V can be achieved, but the resolution depends somewhat on the individual Sigma-Delta chip. Conversion time must be reduced, if the sampling period is reduced to a time equal or shorter than the conversion time. Accordingly, the effective resolution is reduced. On the other hand, if the highest resolution is not necessary (e.g., because of limited sensor resolution), one can configure the corresponding channel to run at a shorter conversion time, even if the sampling period is much longer. The remaining time between sampling period and conversion time can be used for dumping the content of the data buffer from the RAM to the CompactFlash card, or it can be used for switching the AD 24 and/or the CF 2 to its power saving mode. The latter is a very advantageous setting for autonomous long-term operation.

In the standard OBT settings one channel is configured to log the acceleration sensor output (i.e., output behind the low-pass filter) every 750 ms. To achieve 21 effective bits resolution, which corresponds to the sensors resolution, we set the conversion time to 300 ms. Therefore, every 750 ms, a period of 300 ms is used to convert the acceleration values. The remaining 450 ms are used to sample tilt (x-tilt, y-tilt) and internal temperature, to dump the data buffer to the CompactFlash card, or to switch the data logger to sleep mode. To determine both digital tilt values a 200 ms conversion time, corresponding to 19 bit effective resolution, is used. A 30 ms conversion time, which corresponds to an effective resolution of 17 bit, is applied for the internal temperature. Again, these settings match the sensor's dynamic ranges.

A timing diagram of one sampling cycle in standard settings is shown in Fig. 2. The cycle is implemented in the acquisition software as a loop. Eight individual tasks of the data logger are executed in a sequence of eight periods within this loop. Every task is controlled by the real time clock of the CF 2. The clock is also

used to record a time stamp for the first data point of every cycle. Clock drift measured during laboratory tests with two different CF 2's is about + 0.5 s/day at room temperature (20–23°C). The time stamp is determined at the beginning of every loop/sampling cycle and parallel to the conversion of the first acceleration value. This moment is denoted by 'DATE+TIME' in Fig. 2. The eight individual tasks are: (1) take acceleration data (AZ) – sleep (2) take acceleration data (AZ) – take x-tilt data (TX) – sleep (3) take acceleration data (AZ) – take y-tilt data (TY) – sleep (4) take acceleration data (AZ) – take temperature data (T_{int}) – sleep (5) take acceleration data (AZ) – sleep (6) take acceleration data (AZ) – sleep (7) take acceleration data (AZ) – sleep (8) take acceleration data (AZ) – dump data to the buffer (BUFF)/CompactFlash card (CF-CARD) or sleep. Because the sampling period of acceleration data is 750 ms the loop repeats every 6000 ms, which is the sampling period for tilt and temperature data. The loop runs until the CompactFlash card is full.

With these settings the data logger (AD 24 and CF 2) has a mean current consumption of 15 mA that is independent from the operation voltage of the logger, which should always be between 3.3 V and 15 V. For power saving on the one hand and endurance of operation on the other we chose a battery supply with 7.5 V output, deliberately not too close to the threshold values.

At maximum inclination ($\geq 8^\circ$ in both directions TX, TY) the maximum power consumption of all OBT components is about 641 mW, which decreases to 497 mW at a mean inclination below 2° and is minimal at 449 mW. With a safety factor of two the battery pack of the OBT is budgeted to power the instrument for 269 days (maximum power consumption), over 332 days (mean power consumption) to 367 days (minimum power consumption). We use a 512 MB CompactFlash card that can store data from more than 600 days of standard OBT operation.

Ground coupling, leveling devices and the frame

Good coupling of the sensor to the ground is very important for tilt and low frequency acceleration measurements (Agnew 1986). Therefore, there are no moving parts between the sensors and the contact points of the tripod on the ground. For platform tiltmeters like the OBT, the best possible coupling should be attained. A pure passive gimbal leveling system, for instance, needs additional mechanical components, which itself needs a thorough mechanical design and testing procedure. Moreover, actions of the gimbal

about 1 mm/s^2 , which is about 50 times stronger than the resolution of the acceleration measurements at the conversion time of 200 ms. Compared to this, noise level in tilt data TY, TX has an amplitude of about $10 \mu\text{rad}$, i.e., nearly five times the resolution, which can be achieved at the used settings of 100 ms conversion time.

Figure 3 shows the data recorded from 15th December 2004 to 24th January 2005. Measurements were started on 14th December, but we excluded data from the first 24 h, because there were disturbances in the acceleration record, caused by laboratory work, and a settling of about $95 \mu\text{rad}$ in both tilt components. The filtered time-series of acceleration data AZ shows that spike-like events on 1st, 7th and 13th of January are disturbances that contain only high frequencies. Apart from the short period noise, the acceleration signals strongly correlate with the internal sensor temperature, T_{int} . In particular, during phases when the temperature fluctuated strongly, e.g., on 15th, 16th, 21st, 24th, 25th, 29th December or during the 6th and the 21st, 22nd and 23rd January the correlation between T_{int} and the vertical acceleration AZ is quite strong. On 21st December this correlation was somewhat weak, and it reduced further on 11th and 12th January. A very similar relation applies to the correlation between the temperature and the tilt components. However, this picture is not uniform. For instance, on 17th, 18th, 22nd, 31st December and 4th, 7th, 10th, 12th, 15th and 17th January, the correlation between both tilt-components and temperature is rather similar and strong. In contrast, on 16th, 24th, 25th, December and on 19th January correlation with temperature is significant, but quite different between both tilt-components. A very similar correlation of acceleration with temperature and tilt with temperature is only recorded on 15th January. The reason for the strong, but quite non-uniform influence of temperature variations is most likely a complex expansion and contraction of the metal constructions of sensors, the metal base plate and the workbench.

Further remarkable features of Fig. 3 are noted on the record for the 29th December, when an increase in T_{int} seems to cause a jump in acceleration data AZ, but could additionally be biased by a change in tilt TX and TY. The strong jump in TX on the 6th January of about $75 \mu\text{rad}$ is accompanied by a very small change in TY, which appears to be somewhat unusual, as well as a stronger signal in AZ. Another similar jump in TX, but about three times smaller, is seen on the 18th January. Both signals are actually gradual changes over a short time interval, but appear as jumps on the compressed time scale of Fig. 3. Generally, the signal

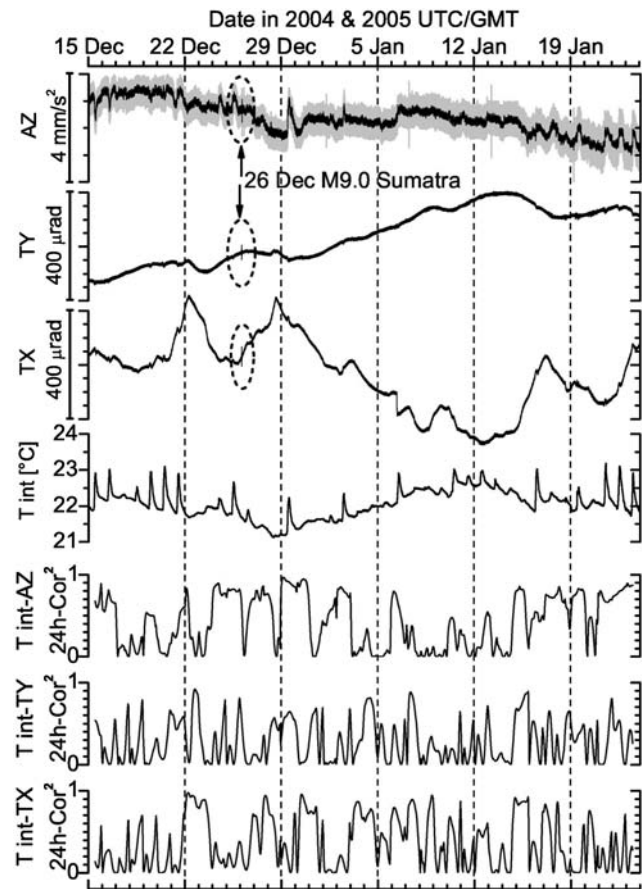


Fig. 3 Long-term test data over 40 days from December 15, 2004 until January 24, 2005 and moving-window correlation with temperature. From top to bottom the upper four time-series show: original vertical acceleration AZ (Kistler Servo K-Beam 8330A2.5) in light-grey, which is painted-over by filtered vertical acceleration in black (filter-frequency is 0.15 Hz). The diagram-panels below show the two perpendicular tilt components TY and TX and the sensor temperature, T_{int} (from AGI 756 biaxial tiltmeter with thermistor). Compare Fig. 1 for the sign and orientation of sensor axes to each other. The lower three time-series show moving-window calculations of the square of the cross-correlation between the sensor temperature T_{int} and the other data. Width of the moving-window is 24 h with a shift of 1 h between two windows. T_{int} -AZ is the correlation between the sensor temperature and the filtered acceleration data, T_{int} -TY the correlation with the Y-component of tilt, and T_{int} -TX the correlation with the X-component of tilt. On the whole, noise originating from temperature variations and most likely caused by human activity dominates the data. Nonetheless, signals, which were caused by teleseismic waves of the M9.0 Sumatra earthquake of 26th December, with a epicentral distance of 9527 km, appear in the time series of tilt and of acceleration (see also the Fig. 4 that has an enlarged view on the signals from the seismic waves)

of TY seems to be smoother than that from TX. In other test configurations we checked both tilt components, but could not determine a difference between them. The long term change in temperature T_{int} between the 29th December and 24th January seems to

correlate quite well with the long term trend of TX and TY. However, the accelerometer measures absolute values, i.e., gravity, and all sensors are mounted on the same base plate. Hence, the long-term change in TY of about $250\mu\text{rad}$ over the complete time series might cause the accompanying drop in acceleration values. We note that there is no comparable change in the temperature T_{int} , which starts and ends at about 22°C . On the other hand, the strong long-period tilt variation in TX between the 22nd and 29th December and around the 17th January did not appear to be significant in the acceleration data AZ.

The teleseismic waves of the M9.0 Sumatra earthquake of 26th December are mostly buried in the broad range of signals in Fig. 3 but cause a clear signal in tilt and acceleration. Shaking of our institute building is clearly visible in tilt TX, TY, but acceleration values also rise above the ambient noise level. Details are shown in Fig. 4.

In Fig. 4 we smoothed the original acceleration data with the same digital low-pass filter that was applied to the data in Fig. 3 and that had a cut-off frequency of 0.15 Hz (6.67 s). Because of this data smoothing, noise is reduced and the seismic waves (mostly the surface waves that have their main frequency content below 0.15 Hz) appear quiet well. This proves that the Servo K-Beam MEMS accelerometer is well suited to detect motions in the frequency range between about 1 mHz and 1 Hz, and especially in the frequency range of teleseismic waves.

The amplitude spectra in the lower four panels of Fig. 4 show significant frequency components in the acceleration as well as the tilt registration. The strongest frequency components, which are caused by teleseismic waves, and which clearly correspond to the spectrum calculated from the seismological data of Bad Segeberg (BSEG-Z), are between 0.03 and 0.09 Hz. The tilt spectra also correspond to the spectrum BSEG-Z in the lower frequencies between about 0.017 and 0.03 Hz. These spectra (BSEG-Z, TY, TX) become nearly flat in the frequency range down to 1 mHz. Spectra lines of the acceleration spectrum are not so striking. The acceleration spectrum also shows increasing components in the low frequency range down to values of 1 mHz. Single spectra lines did not correspond across all spectra. For instance, a spectra line at 0.041 Hz in TY corresponds very well with the spectra line in BSEG-Z, but it does not correspond with the other spectra of AZ and TX. Different orientation of the sensors in space may explain this discrepancy.

During a second long-term test with a spare system of the OBT's sensors and data logger we recorded a

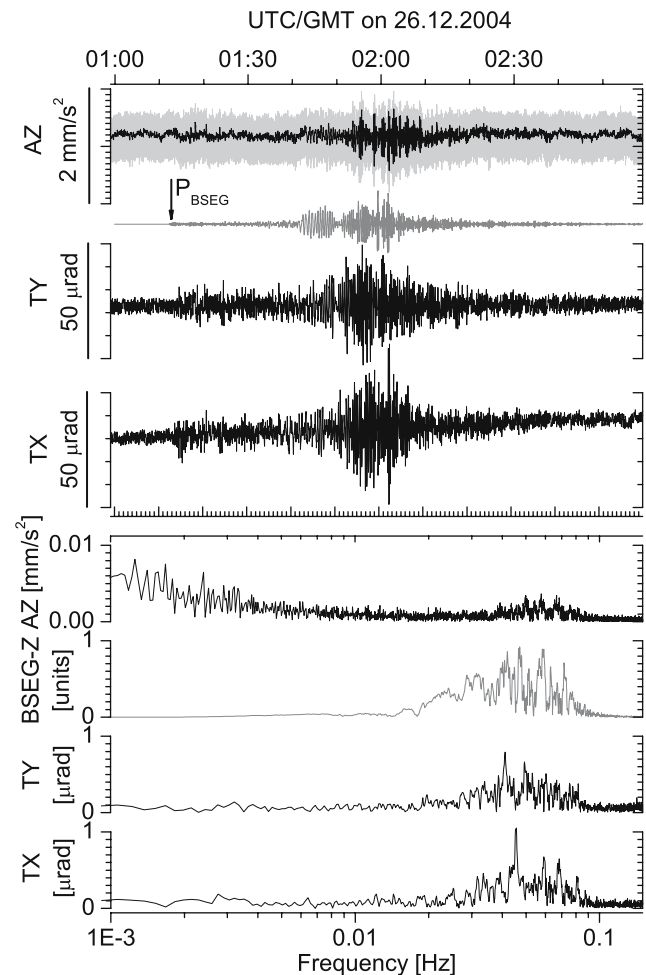


Fig. 4 Teleseismic waves of the M9.0 Sumatra earthquake of December 26, 2004, 00:59 Universal Time Coordinated (UTC/GMT), and corresponding amplitude spectra. The signals denoted by AZ were recorded with a Kistler Servo K-Beam 8330A2.5 accelerometer, and the signals denoted by TX, TY with an AGI 756 tilt sensor. Epicentral distance is 9527 km. To the comparison we included between the records AZ and TY the uncalibrated record of the vertical component of the German seismological station in the town Bad Segeberg (Henger et al. 2002), which is about 150 km northeast of our laboratory in Bremen. This record is in grey. The p -wave arrivals are denoted by the arrow and P_{BSEG} . In all, the notation is the same as used in Fig. 3. AZ shows the original data in light-gray; over-printed data in black is filtered with a digital low-pass filter with 0.15 Hz cut-off frequency. Both TX and TY show original and unfiltered data. The lower four panels of the diagram show the amplitude spectra. The spectra of the vertical acceleration AZ is calculated from the filtered data

second teleseismic event. The logger was set up to run in OBT standard mode (see section ‘Data logger and low power operation’). As in the first test (Figs. 3, 4) the recording system worked very reliable, in this case for over two months, and produced time series of quite similar quality. In this test we changed the accelerometer type and tested the new Kistler Servo K-Beam

8330A3.0. The data shown in Fig. 5 confirms that this new sensor is also appropriate for our application. The teleseismic waves of the M7.6 Pakistan earthquake of 8th October 2005 (BGR 2004a) appear clearly. At a first glance, wave form data from our sensors is not as obvious as in Fig. 4. Inspected more precisely and compared with the recordings of the seismological station in Bad Segeberg (northern Germany; (Henger et al. 2002)) the event becomes obvious. However, energy release of this earthquake is several times smaller than of the M9.0 Sumatra, even if epicentral distance is roughly halved. For this test we used an-

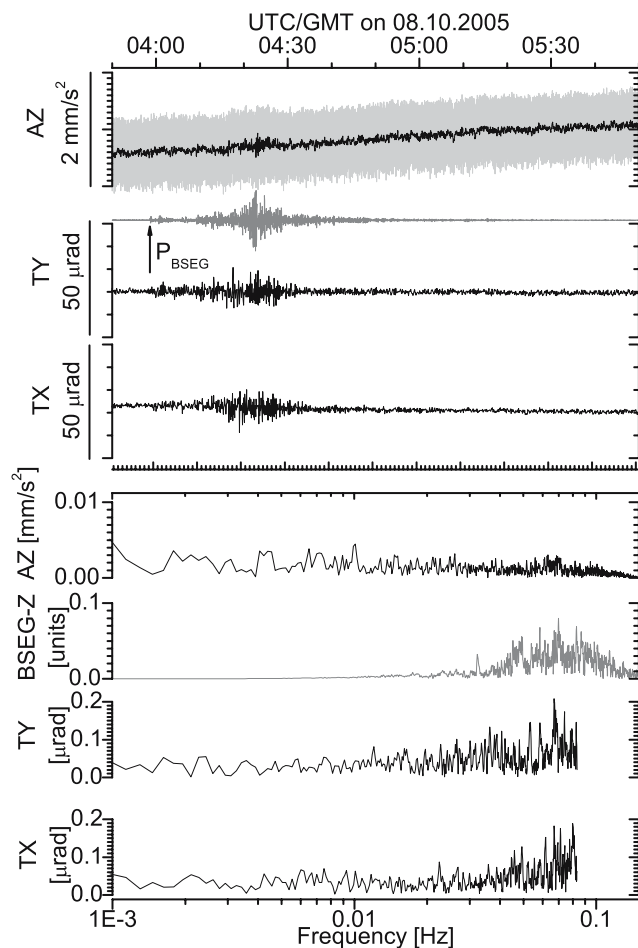


Fig. 5 Teleseismic waves of the M7.6 Pakistan earthquake of October 8, 2005, 03:50 Universal Time Coordinated (UTC/GMT) (BGR 2004a), and corresponding amplitude spectra. The representation is as in Fig. 4. Here, the signals denoted by AZ were recorded with a Kistler Servo K-Beam 8330A3.0 accelerometer, and the signals denoted by TX, TY with an AGI 756 tilt sensor. Epicentral distance is 5364 km. Again, for a better identification of the seismic waves we added (in grey) the uncalibrated record of the vertical component of the German seismological station in Bad Segeberg, which is about 150 km northeast of Bremen. The p -wave arrivals are denoted by an arrow and P_{BSEG} . TX and TY show original data

other tilt sensor (but of the same AGI 756 type) compared to the former test shown in Fig. 4. The difference in the noise level of tilt before and after the teleseismic waves in Figs. 4 and 5 are due to the better resolution of the data logger, which was switched to the OBT standard mode.

The amplitude spectra of acceleration AZ and tilt data TY, TX as well as of the seismological data from Bad Segeberg, BSEG-Z are depicted in the lower four panels of Fig. 5. Due to the lower sampling period (6000 ms), the spectra of tilt data are limited to 0.083 Hz. Compared with the data shown in Fig. 4, amplitudes of BSEG-Z are now nearly ten times smaller and amplitudes of TY and TX are about five times smaller. In both Figs. 4 and 5, the spectra of acceleration data have the same scaling. In accordance with the smaller energy release of the Pakistan earthquake, the frequency components in the spectrum of acceleration are weak and significantly appear only between 0.06 and 0.071 Hz. In the low frequencies down to 1 mHz the spectrum does not show a gradual increase of amplitudes, as seen in Fig. 4, but has some relatively prominent lines, e.g., 0.01 or 0.0043 Hz. Due to disturbances from the laboratory surroundings, high frequency noise, which can be seen in the time series as the broad grey band, is about 40% stronger than in Fig. 4. Under these circumstances, it is hard to quantitatively compare both acceleration sensors, but we can conclude that both are suited for the OBT.

A further demonstration of the capability and the suitability of the OBT's sensor system is shown in Fig. 6. During a short term test of the measuring system we observed seismic signals from a local earthquake. On October 20, 2004 a M4.5 local earthquake occurred about 45 km southeast of Bremen. Source time of the event was 06:59 Universal Time Coordinated (UTC/GMT) (BGR 2004b). The earthquake had an intensity of V+ on the European Macroseismic Scale and was felt in the Bremen geoscience institute building by some colleagues. In this case too, we used the Kistler Servo K-Beam 8330A2.5 MEMS sensor to measure vertical acceleration together with the AGI 756 tilt sensor, which were both used in the OBT. The data logger was set-up to log each of the sensors with the highest resolution, i.e. with a conversion time of 600 ms. Sampling interval was 8 s. The crosses on the time series in Fig. 6a indicate single data points. The tilt sensor clearly observed the shaking of the institute building. Because the accelerometer output was logged with the long sampling interval and because the local earthquake did not generate a significant amount of low-frequency accelerations, only a single pulse can be seen in the corresponding data. The motion sequence

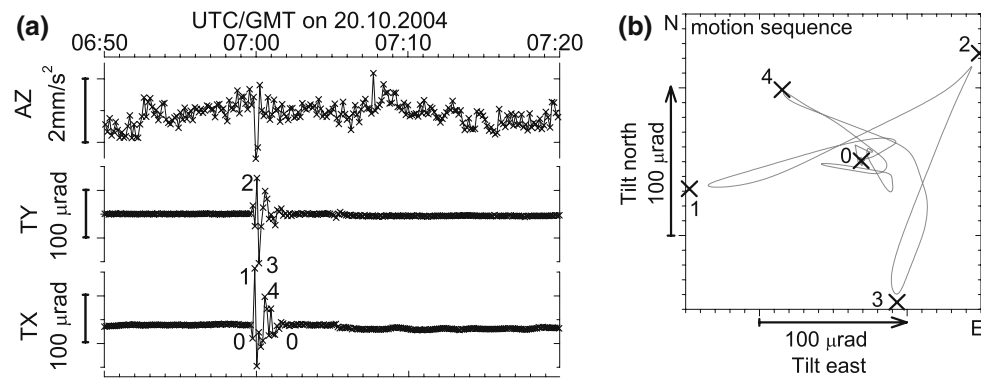


Fig. 6 Signals from a near earthquake (a) with hodograph (b). (a): Signals caused by the M4.5 local earthquake in the town Rotenburg/Wümme, which is about 45 km away from Bremen. The earthquake appeared on October 20, 2004, 06:59 Universal Time Coordinated (UTC/GMT). Notation is like in Figs. 3, 4 and 5. Sampling interval is 8 s. Data points are marked by crosses. The tilt sensor (TX, TY) recorded highly significant signals. The

Kistler Servo K-Beam 8330A2.5 acceleration sensor recorded a single pulse that just rises above the noise level of about 1 mm/s^2 . (b): Hodograph drawn by a B-spline interpolation from the tilt data TX, TY. The numbered positions in the hodograph correspond with the numbered times in part (a). The hodograph is oriented towards north

of the tilt sensor is illustrated by the hodograph in Fig. 6b, within which the tilt in northern direction is plotted against the tilt in an easterly direction. The numbers and crosses correspond with the numbered crosses in Fig. 6a. The hodograph is drawn through a B-spline interpolation between the data-points. In any case, a consistent direction of deflection, which is related to the direction of the epicenter, cannot be recognized. Similarly we analyzed the data displayed in Figs. 4 and 5 by means of hodographs, but also could not find a consistent direction of deflection.

In summary, sensors and data acquisition system work reliable, but the test data shows a lot of interfering signals, which result from temperature variations and most likely from seismic noise, shaking of the institute building or man-made electro-magnetic noise. The geological setting in the region of Bremen in northern Germany is characterized by a thick sedimentary column of several tens to thousands of meters thickness, overlying crystalline basement (Hennigsen and Katzung 1998) and favors anthropogenic-induced micro seismicity (Ibs von Seht 1999). Environmental conditions in our laboratory onshore are quite different from those predicted on the deep sea floor. The greatest differences are that temperature on the deep sea floor is very stable and that electro-magnetic and anthropogenic noise is absent. Indeed, on the deep sea floor, as found at the Logatchev hydrothermal vent field, in about 3000 m depth, temperature ranges to within 0.1 K at nearly 2°C (Davis et al. 2003). Moreover, due to the electro-magnetic shielding and the skin effect in sea water, nearly no electro-magnetic noise is expected in these large water depths (Greiner 1991).

Weaker signals than the signals which we recorded in the tests, or tremor-like events can not be observed in our laboratory. Generally, for this purpose the level of disturbances appearing in the test data has to be reduced and the sensors have to be placed closer to the signal source. Compared our Bremen laboratory, the sediment cover in the Logatchev hydrothermal vent field is interrupted by outcropping basement. Sediment layers are much thinner, rarely exceeding more than one or two meters (Kuhn et al. 2004; Lackschewitz et al. 2005). As a result there should be no surface waveguide to generate strong interfering ground motions. Furthermore, in the Logatchev hydrothermal vent field the OBT would be close to earthquakes on the Mid-Atlantic Ridge. These environmental conditions are all very helpful to our goal of achieving high-resolution measurements with the OBT.

Deployment

During cruise M64/2 (May 2005) of research vessel ‘Meteor’ the OBT was deployed using the ROV ‘Quest’ of the MARUM Institute, University of Bremen (Lackschewitz et al. 2005). The instrument was placed on a central position in the Logatchev hydrothermal vent field. The deployment coordinates are $14^\circ, 45.201' \text{ N}$; $44^\circ, 58.784' \text{ W}$; 3053 m depth, Fig. 7. The position is southeast of site ‘Quest’ and west of site ‘Irina II’. Two assumed tectonic faults pass close by the OBT position (Kuhn et al. 2004). The site of the OBT is far enough from vent sites so that measurements are not thermally influenced by hot fluids.

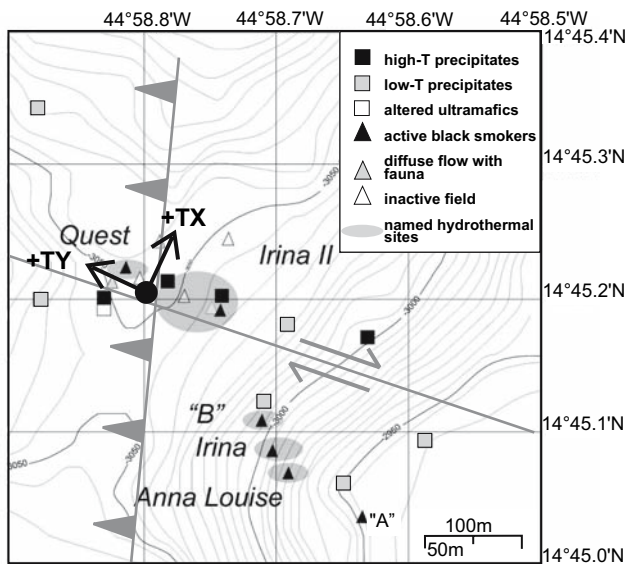


Fig. 7 Map of the Logatchev hydrothermal vent field modified after Kuhn et al. (2004). The black point with arrows, which are labeled with '+TY' and '+TX,' display the position and axes orientation of the OBT. The topography (ocean depth), special features of the site, such as black smokers and two assumed tectonic faults are printed in the background. The axis of the Mid-Atlantic Ridge is in western direction

The entire Logatchev hydrothermal vent field is mostly characterized by steep slopes of a few meters elevation separating small sediment covered plateaus. Small piles of brittle rock from the basement rise above the sediment cover. The OBT was installed on the top of a small rock pile (Fig. 8) and was levelled to within



Fig. 8 The OBT in the Logatchev hydrothermal vent field on top of a small rock pile. For installation with the ROV a floating rope was tied on the OBT above the center of mass. On the left side of the OBT frame an additional aluminium L-profil holds a miniaturized temperature logger. Steep slopes (here in the foreground of the photo) and a sediment cover of about 1 m thickness (here in the background) characterize the area. Ripples on the sea-floor in the background indicate currents

2° by firmly and carefully pressing and moving the legs of the instrument with the manipulator arm of the ROV. The floating rope seen in Fig. 8 was attached above the center of mass of the OBT and was required by the ROV team for deployment. It adds less than 1 N buoyancy to the 450 N OBT. The rope may move in bottom currents, but is assumed to have a negligible effect on the measurements. The types of rock piles seen in Fig. 8 are the most stable sea floor available in this area. Bare rock surface could not be found in the Logatchev hydrothermal vent field. Inspection of the OBT during a re-visit with the ROV 5 days after deployment showed that leveling of the OBT was still sufficient. Therefore, we assumed that the OBT has a stable location and good coupling to the ground. Orientation of the OBT was determined from the compass of the ROV by looking twice with the ROV in the direction of one of the OBT's axes. Orientation of the +TY-axis is $295^\circ \pm 3^\circ$ clockwise from north and of the +TX-axis $25^\circ \pm 3^\circ$ clockwise from north (cf., Fig. 7).

Summary

The OBT was developed to monitor seafloor deformation and acceleration, with the goal of observing signals, caused by hydrothermal activity, fluid discharge from the upper crust, seismicity level, and the coupling of those processes within the Logatchev hydrothermal vent field. We constructed a robust, easy to handle scientific tool called the OBT from as few components as possible. Deployment of the OBT is performed by means of an ROV. Hence, we were able to omit moving parts, such as automatic leveling devices for sensors or frame. A tilt sensor of type 756 from Applied Geomechanics Inc., which has a resolution of 1.0μ rad and a broad range of $\pm 8^\circ$, has a sufficient dynamic range for our scientific goal. To detect vertical acceleration we employed a MEMS accelerometer of type Kistler Corp. Servo K-Beam 8330A2.5. The MEMS accelerometers turned out to be well suited to observe seismicity levels below 1 Hz. In laboratory tests the sensors detected teleseismic waves from distant earthquakes and also recorded signals from a relatively local event. For low power data logging we implemented a Persistor Inc. CF 2 with an AD 24 analog to digital converter. We developed data logging software for the CF 2 that allows us to acquire high resolution long-term data with very low power consumption, resulting in the possibility of long-term monitoring over one year or longer. During cruise M64/2 of RV 'Meteor' in May 2005 the ROV 'Quest' of the MARUM Institute, University of Bremen

installed the OBT at a central position in the Logatchev hydrothermal vent field, Mid-Atlantic Ridge. The first data are expected by the middle 2007, and will be published in subsequent articles.

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