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1 ***Seasonal and co-seismic velocity variation in the region of L'Aquila from single station***
2 ***measurements and implications for crustal rheology***
3

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15 ***ABSTRACT***

16 *We performed time lapse measurements of velocity variations using empirical Green's*
17 *functions reconstructed by autocorrelation of seismic noise recorded during a period of 17*
18 *years in the region of l'Aquila, Italy. The time lapse approach permitted us to evaluate the*
19 *spatial (depth) dependence of velocity variation (dv/v). By quantitatively comparing the 17*
20 *years of dv/v time series with independent data (e.g. strain induced by earthquakes,*
21 *hydrological loading) we unravel a group of physical processes inducing velocity variations*
22 *in the crust over multiple time and spatial scales. We find that rapid shaking due to three*
23 *magnitude 6+ earthquakes mainly induced near surface velocity variations. On the other hand,*
24 *Slow strain perturbation (period 5 years) associated with hydrological cycles, induced velocity*
25 *changes primarily in the middle-crust. The observed behavior suggests the existence of a large*
26 *volume of fluid filled cracks exist deep in the crust. Our study, beyond shedding new light into*
27 *the depth dependent rheology of crustal rocks in the region or l'Aquila, highlights the*
28 *possibility of using seasonal and multiyear perturbations to probe the physical properties of*
29 *seismogenic fault volumes.*
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31 ***1. Introduction***

32 Detailed laboratory protocols exist to estimate how rocks respond to strain
33 perturbations, and show that a variety of non-linear responses exists for variable rock types
34 with different physical properties (e.g. cracks density, microstructure, presence of fluid,
35 temperature and pressure effects—Guyet & Johnson, 1999;2009; Ostrovsky and Johnson,
36 2001; Renaud et al., 2009, 2012, Riviere et al., 2015).

37 One approach to describing nonlinear elastic and plastic properties of rock is applying
38 'effective viscosity' (e.g. Lyakhovskiy et al., 2001, Ben-Zion, 2008). Numerical simulations
39 (Lyakhovskiy et al., 2001, Hamiel et al., 2006; Lott et al.2018) show how this effective
40 parameter plays a fundamental role in how rocks respond to strain perturbation, and thus
41 controls phenomena occurring during the seismic cycle (e.g. clustering of seismicity,
42 foreshocks, style of nucleation, amount of aseismic slip). The effective viscosity parameter
43 has similarities to the hysteretic nonlinear parameter in the Priesach-Mayergoyz description
44 of elasticity (McCall and Guyet 1993; Guyet and Johnson 2009). The latter has a direct
45 link with damage intensity (e.g., Guyet and Johnson 1999; Johnson 1998, Van Den Abeele
46 and Visscher, 2000, Ostrovsky and Johnson 2001). Other models that describe these
47 behaviours, as well including Arrhenius approaches for hysteresis, exists (e.g., Ostrovsky
48 et al., 2019; Sens-Schoenfelder et al., 2018).

49 It is thus fundamental to characterize the physical properties of rocks surrounding
50 seismogenic faults, to better understand the role of rheology and elasticity during the

51 seismic cycle, and associated phenomena that can arise in fault(s). Field observations
52 emulating laboratory protocols have been attempted, by studying velocity variations due to
53 strong, surface active-source induced shaking (e.g., Johnson et al., 2009), as well as rocks
54 subjected to cycles of tidal forcing and induced seismicity (e.g., Delorey et al, 2017; van
55 der Elst et al, 2017 and active seismic experiments probing the effects of Earth tides (e.g.
56 Yamaura et al., 2003). More recently, the ability of estimating the Green's function from
57 seismic noise (Shapiro & Campillo, 2004), has made it possible to monitor velocity
58 variations (e.g. Brenguier et al., 2014) without the need of active sources (e.g. explosions;
59 vibrators), and more recent studies applied this method to study the response of rocks to
60 tidal strain (Takano et al., 2014, Hillers et al., 2015b). However, at present only the
61 shallowest portions of the crust (primarily less than 1km of depth) have been explored
62 (Takano et al., 2014, Hillers et al., 2015b) and at most, depths to 5 km, following the 2004
63 M6.0 Parkfield earthquake (Wu et al., 2017), thus permitting the characterization of
64 shallow damage zones, but not deeper regions, where the most seismicity occurs and large
65 earthquakes nucleate (see Ben-Zion, 2008, and reference therein).

66 It has been demonstrated that detailed lapse-time monitoring applying coda waves
67 reconstructed from correlation of seismic noise can provide important information about
68 the deeper part of the crust (Obermann et al., 2013, Obermann et al., 2014, Hillers et al.,
69 2018). These results have been validated with numerical experiments, providing clues
70 regarding the depth resolution of velocity variation (dv/v) as function of coda lapse-time
71 (Obermann et al., 2013).

72 In this work, we performed time lapse monitoring of dv/v near to the city of L'Aquila,
73 in the central Apennines (Italy). This region is characterized by active normal faulting that
74 accommodates the ongoing ~ 3 mm/yr tectonic extension (D'Agostino, 2014, Fig. 1). As a
75 result, normal faults capable of producing magnitude 6+ events are present along the entire
76 Apennine chain. The region of L'Aquila itself is characterized by significant seismic
77 hazard, and was recently struck by 3 magnitude 6+ earthquakes (<http://iside.rm.ingv.it>, Fig.
78 1).

79 We here estimate the spatial (depth) response (dv/v) of the medium to periodic
80 perturbations. Instead of relying of tidal strain as has been applied by others (e.g., Hillers
81 et al., 2015), we exploit periodic perturbations associated with multiyear-long hydrological
82 cycle related to the recharge of karst aquifers (e.g. Silverii et al., 2019). These perturbations
83 provide significant strain at the surface (relative baseline elongation up to 10-6 mm within
84 few tens of kilometers, mostly horizontal) with poorly resolved extension at depth.
85 Correlation with seismicity rate in the 1.2-3.9 magnitude range in the southern Apennines
86 (D'Agostino et al., 2019) suggests that stress perturbations induced by the hydrological
87 forcing may extend to a depth larger than 5 km and thus affect the seismogenic portion of
88 the crust (Fig. 1). In particular, we assess how dv/v over different time windows, evolves
89 for episodes of dilatation and compression of the crust (Silverii et al., 2019). We further
90 estimate the response of the medium to earthquakes ($M > 6$) that occurred during the study
91 period (2000-2016).

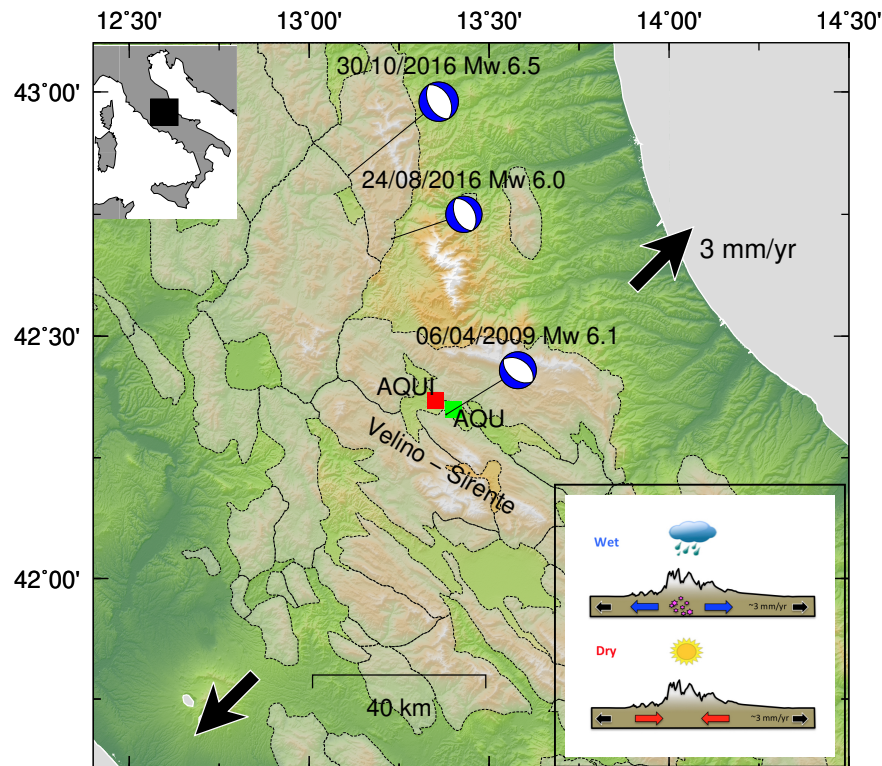
92 In the following, we begin by describing the procedures to derive estimates of the
93 Green's function and measure velocity variations (sec. 2). We then analyze evolution of
94 dv/v for periodic perturbation and during coseismic periods (sec. 3 and 4). Finally, we
95 discuss the results and the peculiar evolution of dv/v as a function of lapse-time that we
96 observed (sec. 5). Our results suggest that an isolated region extended into the middle-
97 lower crust is particularly sensitive to deformations. We interpret this observation as due
98 to the presence of significant amounts of fluid filled cracks at depth that make the material
99 more susceptible to the nonlinear elastic changes we observe.

101 **2. Seismic noise correlation and time lapse velocity variation**

102
103 **a. Estimation of the Green's function from noise correlation**

104 We calculate the three-component (ZZ, EE, NN) autocorrelation using continuous
105 seismic data recorded at the AQU station located in central Italy (Fig. 1). We focus on the
106 time period from January 1 2000 to December 31 2017 (17 years). Each daily trace of
107 seismic data is split in 10min windows with 50% overlap, after the deconvolution of the
108 instrumental response and filtering between 0.5 and 1Hz. After analyzing several frequency
109 bands, we choose to focus on 0.5-1Hz range as it provides the highest quality correlation,
110 while limiting the amount of stacked days, thus increasing the time resolution of our
111 analysis.

112 To remove spurious spikes and contributions from earthquakes, we calculate the sum
113 of the squared signal (energy) for each window, and remove those exceeding the daily mean
114 of the energy plus 3 standard deviations (Poli et al., 2012). We ensure that, after this test,
115 at least 20 hours of data are still contained in the daily trace; otherwise the daily trace is
116 rejected. The time windows passing the amplitude test are one-bit normalized to further
117 reduce transient signals (e.g. earthquakes), which may escape our processing.
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123 **Figure 1.** Map of the study area. The upper inset shows the location of the study
124 area in Italy. The squares indicate the location of the seismic (AQU, in green) and GPS
125 (AQU1, in red) stations. Beach balls show focal mechanism of the main events from 2009
126 to 2016 (from Scognamiglio et al., 2006). Shaded areas include regions where carbonate
127 lithologies host large karst aquifers (see Silverii et al., 2019). The lower inset shows a
128 conceptual drawing of the modulation of crustal deformation and seismicity by seasonal
129 and multi-annual recharge/discharge phases of of karst aquifers.
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b. Measurement of velocity variation (dv/v)

We measure the velocity variations using both stretching (Lobkis & Weaver, 2003) and doublet (Poupinet et al., 1984) techniques. While the two methods provide similar results (Fig. S3), additional tests have shown that the stretching technique provides less noisy measurements, and therefore will be used here.

In detail, the velocities are obtained by stacking 90 days using a 89 day overlap of correlations, to ensure stable dv/v measures (Sabra et al., 2005). Each stacked correlation is then compared, using the methods mentioned above, with a reference signal (the stack of the correlation over the full-time period) to estimate the dv/v over different coda waves lapse-time (table 1). We then average the dv/v over different components, weighting with squared correlation coefficients estimated after stretching. Only signals with correlation larger than 0.9 are retained, and a stack is performed if all the 3 components are available.

c. Lapse time and depth sensitivity of dv/v

In this section, we estimate the first order depth resolution for our velocity variation measures. It should be kept in mind however, that the sensitivity to absolute depth requires detailed measures of the scattering properties of the medium, which are not available for the study area (Obermann et al. 2013; 2016, Kanu and Snieder, 2015). Nevertheless, we can reason around existing theoretical and numerical results to gain insights about relative depth resolution of coda waves measured at different lapse time of the coda (Obermann et al. 2013; 2016, Kanu and Snieder, 2015).

Despite the depth sensitivity of coda waves has not been fully quantitatively solved yet, it is well known that the sensitivity to dv/v in a medium varies with frequency and time lapse of the coda waves used (i.e., deeper sampling for larger lapse-time) (e.g. Pacheco & Snieder, 2005, Obermann et al., 2013, Wu et al., 2017). Numerical simulations (Obermann et al. 2013, 2016) reported that the sensitivity of coda waves is due to a combination of the sensitivities of body waves and surfaces waves. In the early normalized lapse-time, t less than ~ 6 (t is normalized by mean free time t^*), the coda wave sensitivity is controlled by the surface wave sensitivity. With increasing lapse-time, the body wave sensitivity becomes progressively more important.

We thus start by estimating the sensitivity of surface waves (Hermann, 2013), using a local velocity model (Chiaraluce et al., 2009) and a frequency of 0.75Hz (Fig. 2b). The resulting surface wave kernel suggest sensitivity in the uppermost 4km of the crust.

We furthermore evaluate the sensitivity of the scattered body waves by considering a 3-D sensitivity kernel formulation by Pacheco and Snieder (2005). The energy propagator p is calculated by the radiative transfer solution approximation for isotropic scattering (Paasschens, 1997; Planès et al., 2014). We estimate the theoretical depth sensitivities of the body wave velocity changes with scattering mean free paths from 10 km and 100 km, proxies for the high and low frequency regimes (Lacombe et al., 2003, Hiller et al., 2019). The energy velocity is determined by the equipartition state. We take the theoretical equipartition ratio as 10.4 and 3 for a Poisson solid (Margerin et al., 2000; Weaver, 1982), the same as Wang et al. (2019), for further calculation. We solved for the body wave depth sensitivity normalized to 30 km depth with each layer 1 km thick layer.

Figure 2a gives the calculated normalized body wave kernel. The calculation follows the details described by Obermann et al., (2013), Planès et al. (2014), Obermann et al. (2016), and Wang et al., (2019). We clearly observe that using the mean free path (l) equal to 100 km (low frequency regime), the depth sensitivity is deeper than using the smaller mean free path l as 10 km. This is an indication of the frequency-dependent depth

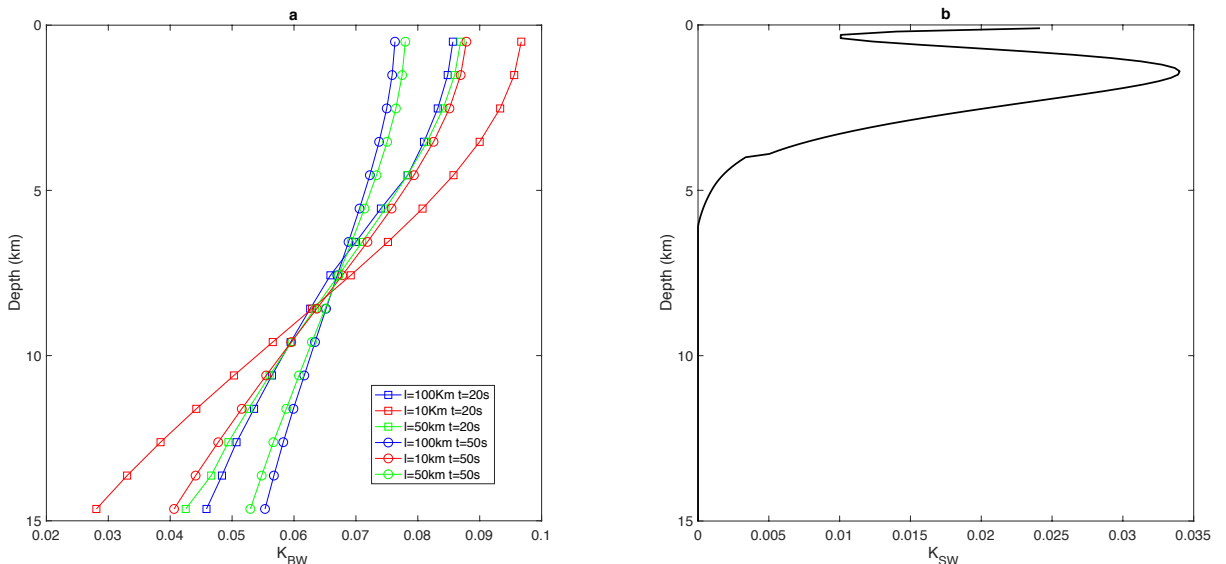
181 sensitivity of body waves, which is the same characteristic surface waves exhibit (Fig. 2a).
 182 We also observe how the depth sensitivity increases gradually as the lapse-time becomes
 183 progressively larger from 20 s to 50 s with the same mean free path. Thus, we measure the
 184 seismic velocity changes for deeper strata applying later lapse-times (Fig. 2a). This result,
 185 suggest that by observing the time-lapse evolution of dv/v across the coda, we can get
 186 insights about velocity variation into deep layers. A similar conclusion was draw by
 187 Obermann et al. (2013) by using numerical modeling.

188 Guided by the calculated kernels and results from previous studies (Obermann et al.
 189 2013), we defined a set of windows (table 1) to scan different depths of the crust, similarly
 190 to previous studies based on autocorrelation (e.g. Richter et al., 2014). In more detail, we
 191 defined 3 starting times (10, 20, and 30s) after zero time (ballistic waves arrival time). For
 192 each starting time, we vary the length of the time window to perform stretching (20, 40,
 193 60s). The goal of this coda lapse-time dependent analysis is to resolve any evolution of
 194 dv/v , which can reveal the linear and nonlinear elastic response as function of relative depth
 195 (e.g. increment of dv/v with coda lapse time will highlight larger velocity changes at depth).
 196

197 **Table 1:** Time lapse for calculation of dv/v .

<i>Window number</i>	<i>Time start (s)</i>	<i>Time end (s)</i>
1	10	30
2	10	50
3	10	70
4	20	40
5	20	60
6	20	80
7	30	50
8	30	70
9	30	90

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Figure 2: a) Body waves sensitivity kernels for variable mean free paths lapse-times.
 b) Surface waves sensitivity kernel.

d. Comparison of dv/v with other estimates

205 The velocity variation (dv/v) time series for window 4 (20s to 40s lag time) is shown
206 in figure 3 (measures for the other time lapse intervals are shown in figures 4 and 7, for
207 periodic and co-seismic perturbations respectively). Two primary velocity decreases are
208 observed. The largest decrease (relative $dv/v \sim 0.3\%$) is associated with the occurrence of
209 the magnitude 6.3 L'Aquila earthquake (iside.rm.ingv.it). The second decrease (relative
210 $dv/v \sim 0.15\%$) occurred in 2016 during the Norcia-Visso seismic sequence (Chiaraluce et
211 al., 2016), which includes 2 M6+ earthquakes. Besides of these major coseismic drops, we
212 observe cyclic variations of dv/v up to 0.05% (fig. 3b).

213 Silverii et al. (2016, 2019) analyzed GPS data in the study region, showing the presence
214 of transient deformations associated with multiyear hydrological cycles (~ 5 yrs). During
215 these cycles the crust undergoes significant extension and compression (up to 3mm/yr)
216 sustained for 2-3 years associated, respectively, with phases of recharge and discharge of
217 karst aquifers that modulate the secular, tectonic strain accumulation (see inset Fig. 1).
218 These cycles are visible in both the rain time series (shown as detrended cumulative rain in
219 fig. 3c) and in the detrended horizontal GPS motion (fig. 3e) recorded at the station AQUI
220 (fig. 1). Here we use the east-component time series of the AQUI site corrected for long-
221 term trend and instrumental offsets (see Silverii et al., 2019 for details of the processing).

222 In periods of significant aquifer recharge (e.g. 2005 to 2007) the AQUI site is subject
223 to a significant eastward displacement (~ 5 mm), while the opposite motion is recorded for
224 dry periods. As reported by Silverii et al (2019) the multi-seasonal, hydrological forcing
225 associated to the recharge of karst aquifers induces a measurable surface deformation up to
226 ~ 90 nanostrain/yr. The AQUI station is mostly sensitive to the large Velino-Sirente karst
227 system (Fig. 1) alternatively moving to the north-east during phases of high recharge and
228 to the south-west during phases of low-recharge (Silverii et al., 2019). This motion is
229 superimposed on the steady SW-NE 3 mm/yr extension across the Apennines. It is
230 important to note that this phenomenon is pervasively observed along the Apennines at
231 stations located close to main karst aquifers (Silverii et al., 2016, 2019; D'Agostino et al.,
232 2018).

233 Similarly, and in agreement with previous studies (e.g. Hillers et al., 2015a, Wang et
234 al. 2017), the dv/v follows the hydrological cycle, with a velocity drop for increasing
235 hydraulic head and vice versa. The dv/v also shows shorter term oscillations (~ 1 yr) which
236 are visually correlated with the variation of surface temperature (fig. 3d). In agreement with
237 previous studies (e.g. Richter et al., 2014) a decrease in temperature coincides with a
238 reduction of dv/v . Alternatively, these, short-term oscillations can be due to short term
239 seasonal hydrological effects similar to what is observed in the GPS time series (Silverii et
240 al., 2016).

241 In the remainder of this work we will quantify the response of the crust to periodic
242 (hydrological) and tectonic (earthquakes) forcing and assess the sensitivity of different
243 crustal levels to these deformations.

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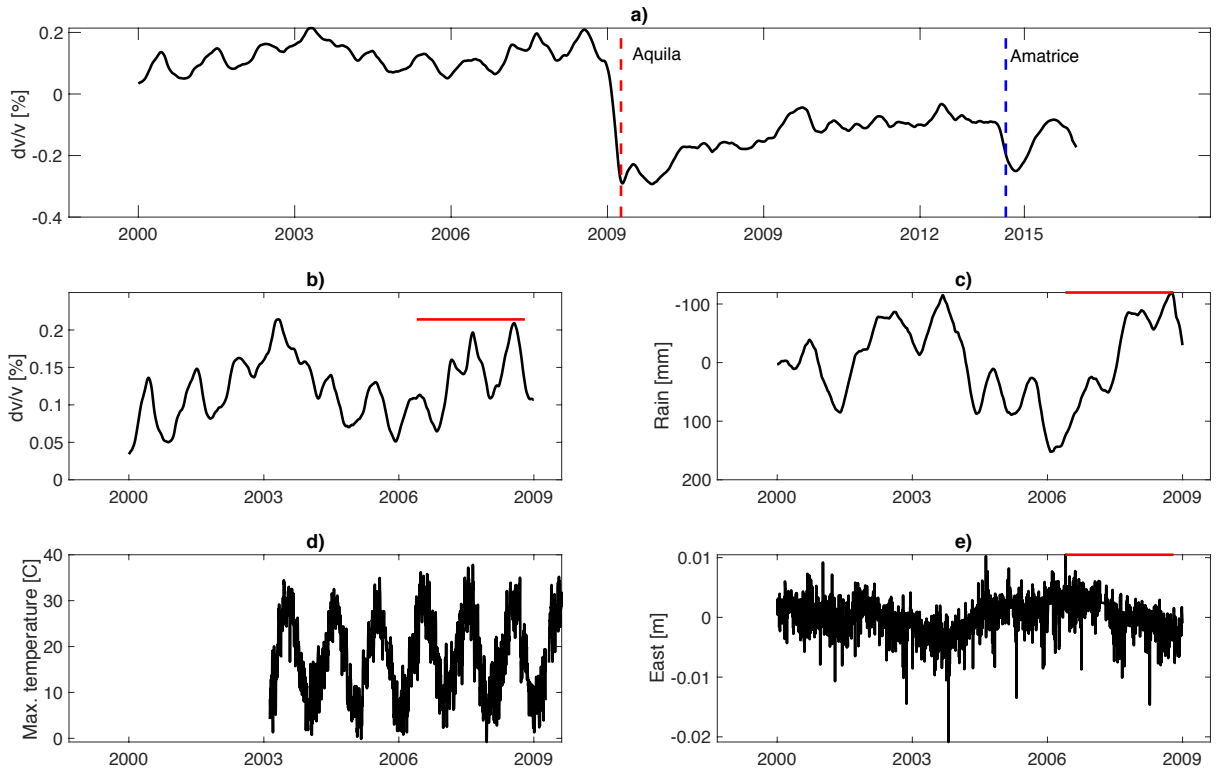


FIGURE 3: Summary of observations in the study area. a) Time series of velocity variation for the entire period, with major earthquakes highlighted. b) dv/v time series during the preseismic period. c) Detrended cumulative rain as in Silverii et al. (2019) (y -axis is inverted). d) Daily maximum temperature. e) East GPS displacement at station AQUA corrected for tectonic trend and antenna offset from Silverii et al. (2009). The red solid line indicate a dry period identified by Silverii et al. (2009).

3. Sensitivity to cyclic deformations and probing the mid-crust

a. Decomposition of dv/v time series

We quantitatively evaluate the seasonal and multi-years components of dv/v estimated for different lapse times (see table 1). In this section, we focus only on the pre-seismic period, using dv/v measured before L'Aquila earthquake (beginning of 2000 to end of 2008).

We start by modeling the relative contribution of the multiyear and seasonal effect on dv/v with a phenomenological model (e.g. Taira et al, 2018):

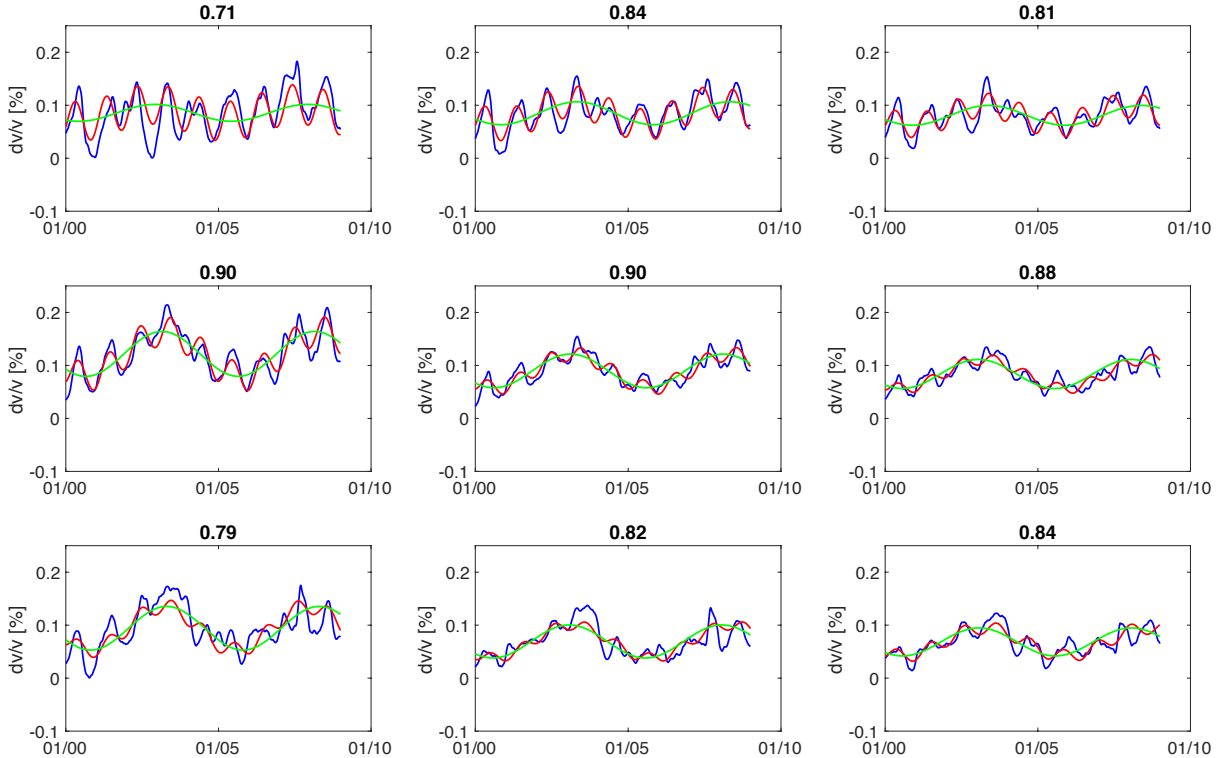
$$\frac{dv}{v_S} = A + B \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{C \cdot 365}(t - D)\right) + E \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{F \cdot 365}(t - G)\right) \quad [2]$$

In eq. 2, A is a global offset, B and E are the amplitudes of the two modelled cycles, C and F are the cycle duration in years, while D and G account for the cosine phase shift. We fit all dv/v time series using a non-linear least squares approach. From the inversion, we find that for all selected time lapses the best-fit durations of the cycles are $C=1 \pm 0.02$ yr and $F=5 \pm 0.1$ yrs.

The results of our fits are shown in figure 4 (red and green lines) together with the original data (blue lines). It can be observed that while the dv/v amplitude of seasonal 1-yr oscillation (B) is higher at earlier lapse times, progressive decreases in the later coda are observed where dv/v is more sensitive to the 5yr cycle (E). To better

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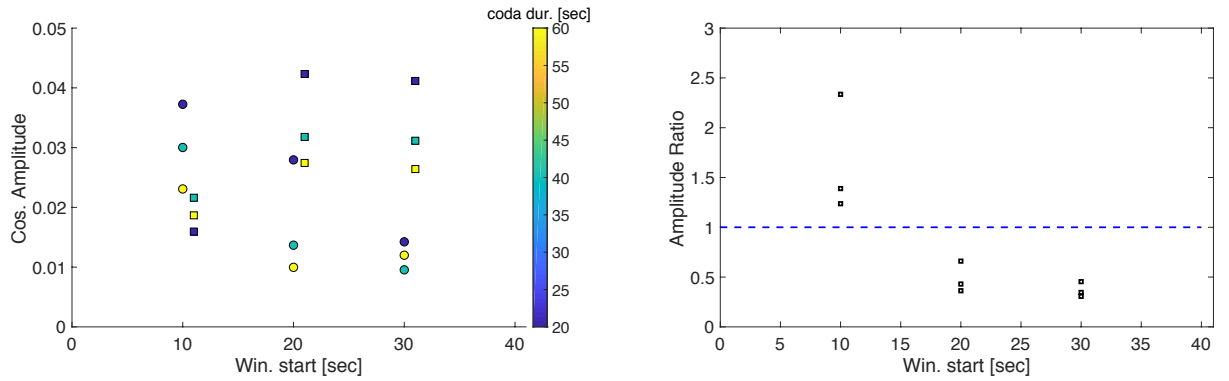
visualize the results, we plot in figure 5 the B and E terms of equation 2 as function of coda lapse time. While the amplitude of the short-term cycle decreases at larger lapse time, the opposite behavior is observed for the amplitude of the 5-yrs (E). The ratio of the B and E parameters (fig. 5b) suggests that beyond 20s lapse time dv/v is dominated by the long-term cycle.



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Figure 4: dv/v (blue) and modeled cycles with eq. 2 (red) for coda windows reported in table 1. The green line represents the long-term portion (first and third righthand terms of eq. 1). Numbers on top of each plot are the correlation coefficient between the model (eq. 2, red) and the data (blue).

The decay of the parameter B (fig. 3a) and the B/E ratio (fig. 3b), suggests that the source of the 1yr periodicity in dv/v is dominantly at shallow depths (Obermann et al., 2013, see also the kernels in fig. 2). It has been suggested that thermally induced stresses rapidly decays with depth (Ben-Zion & Leary, 1986), and the effects on dv/v have been reported in other regions (e.g. Richter et al, 2014). Thus, as the short-term cycle closely follows the seasonal temperature variation (fig. 3d, see fig S1) and shows a rapid decay as a function of depth, we infer that temperature plays a primary role in controlling the dv/v .



298
299 **Figure 5:** Magnitude of B (round) and E (squares) as function of coda window time
300 (left). The color indicates the duration of the window. Squares are offset by 1sec for
301 clarity. Ratio B/E as function of coda window order (right, black).
302

303 The long period oscillations of dv/v are strongly correlated with the long-term
304 variation of rainfall (fig. 3c) and GPS deformation (fig. 3e, S2). This multiyear signal
305 represents transient deformations, occurring in highly fractured crustal rock as a
306 response to variations of the hydraulic head in karst aquifers, and induces a strain rate
307 up to ~ 90 nanostrain/yr (Silverii et al., 2019). This strain rate temporarily increases
308 during high recharge, or diminishes during droughts, and can locally exceed the long-
309 term secular tectonic strain rate (D’Agostino, 2014). The dv/v for later lapse times
310 better correlates with this long period deformation (fig. 5). This observation suggests
311 that a particular depth of the crust is more susceptible to these periodic perturbations
312 (Obermann et al., 2013). Furthermore, we observe how for these late lapse-times (or
313 depths) the short-term cycle has limited effect (2 to 4 times smaller, Fig. 5). As the
314 thermally induced stress rapidly decays with depth (Ben-Zion & Leary, 1986), we can
315 further confirm that the late coda evolution of dv/v is sensitive to deeper layers.
316

317 **b. Probing the crust with long term (5yrs) periodic deformations**

318 We probe the rheological response of the crust to these perturbations using time
319 lapse measures of dv/v , similar to what has been done in other regions with tidal strain
320 (Takano et al., 2014, Hillers et al., 2015b). To reiterate, the goal is to derive a lapse
321 time (or depth) dependent measurements of dv/v representative of perturbations at
322 different crustal levels in order to reveal physical properties of rocks at different depth
323 (e.g. Obermann et al., 2015, Hillers et al., 2018).

324 The *in-situ* measurements resemble laboratory dynamic acoustoelastic testing,
325 a ‘pump-probe’ method (e.g., Renaud et al., 2009, 2012). Here, the medium changes
326 are evaluated by estimating dv/v using the reconstructed Green’s function (the ‘probe’),
327 while the medium is deformed by long period (~ 5 yrs) perturbations (the ‘pump’) shown
328 by the GPS signal (Silverii et al., 2019, Fig. 2). More precisely, we create a new set of
329 autocorrelations by stacking 300 days of data with 200 days overlap. This time
330 windowing helps us to reduce the short-term fluctuations (1yr). For each time segment
331 dv/v is estimated by comparing the estimated Green’s function, with a reference signal
332 from stacking over the full period (2000 to end of 2008). We use the stretching method
333 and the same coda time windows listed in table 1. The deformation is obtained from
334 the projection of the east and north components of the GPS time series recorded at the
335 AQUI station (Fig. 1), along the N45 direction, to maximize the amplitude of the
336 hydrologically-related deformation (\hat{d}) (Silverii et al., 2019). The GPS time series is
337 indicative for the strain in the crust (Silverii et al., 2019): negative (south-westward) \hat{d}

338 correspond to horizontal contraction, whereas positive \hat{d} (north-eastward) values are
339 representative of horizontal dilatation.

340 We then infer the sensitivity of dv/v to deformation in each time window by
341 fitting the data (fig. 6) with a linear model:

$$\frac{\delta v}{v} = \alpha + \beta \hat{d} \quad [3]$$

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343
344
345 Equation 3 is similar to strain- dv/v relationship used to study the sensitivity to
346 tidal strain (Takano et al., 2014, Hillers et al., 2015b), where β represents the sensitivity
347 to deformation while the zero-offset is α . Our phenomenological model can be
348 compared to the 1-D non-linear elasticity equation derived in Landau and Lifshutz
349 (2012) and broadly applied to Earth materials (e.g., Guyer and Johnson, 1999;2009).
350 We can interpret the sensitivity to elastic deformation (β) as the classic non-linear
351 elastic parameter that describes the slope of $\delta v/v$ over a single low frequency pump
352 cycle. α is the non-linear volumetric change (length change in 1D) related to material
353 conditioning (Guyer & Johnson, 2009). Note in eq. 3 we do not include the cubic non-
354 linear elastic parameter that describes curvature in $\delta v/v$ as the scattering in the data
355 provide similar misfit for 1st and 2nd order polynomial fit, nor the hysteretic term that is
356 common to Earth materials.

357 The results in figure 6 show that, in agreement with experimental observations
358 in laboratory rock samples (e.g. Renaud et al., 2012), velocity increases under
359 compression (negative \hat{d}) and reduces during expansion episodes (positive \hat{d}). Similar
360 results have been obtained by analyzing the relation between dv/v and tidal strain using
361 active source data (Yamamura et al., 2003) or noise correlation (Takano et al., 2014).
362 A similar response to crustal dilatation has also been observed during tectonic transient
363 deformation (Rivet et al., 2011). We also note that the parameter β decreases with
364 increasing lapse time (fig. 6). This lapse time evolution, combined with the depth
365 kernels (fig. 2), suggests that the long-period strain perturbations sample primarily at
366 depth (Obermann et al., 2015), rather than close to the free surface.

367 Before entering in the interpretation of this result, we will estimate the
368 sensitivity to co-seismic strain perturbation (sec. 4).

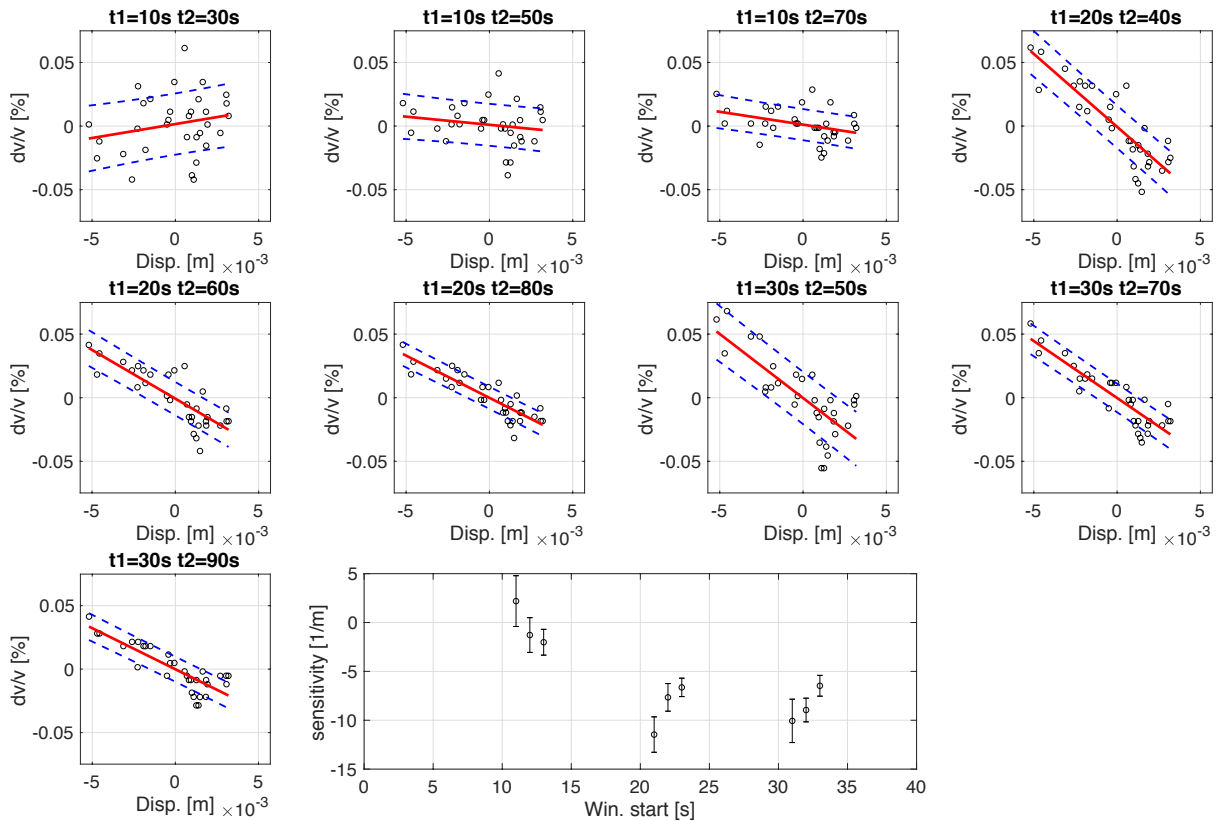


Figure 6: The scatter plot represents the fit of displacement and dv/v using equation 3. The last plot is the parameter β of equation 3 as function of coda lapse time (Table 1).

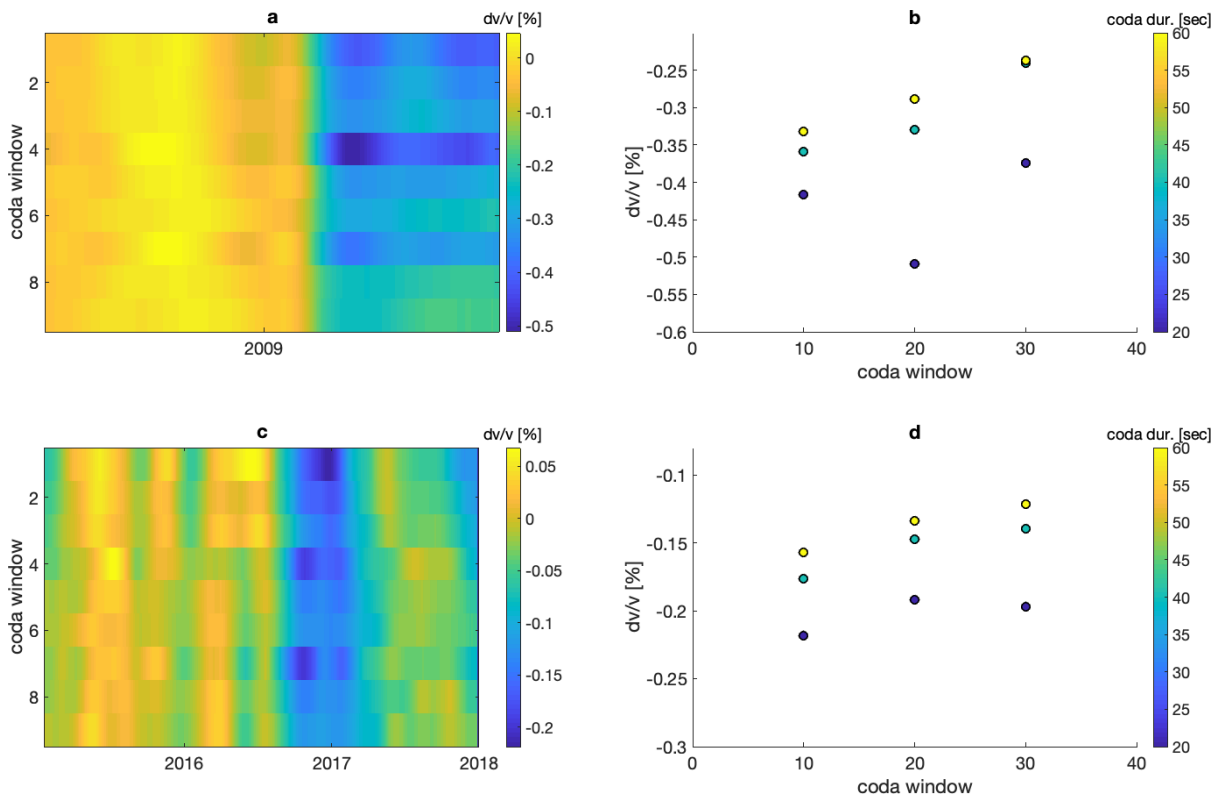
4. Estimation of sensitivity to co-seismic deformation

The study region experienced three $M > 6$ earthquakes during the period analyzed (2000-2017). The first is a magnitude $M_w 6.1$ (Scognamiglio et al., 2010) occurring in 2009 near the city of L'Aquila with hypocentral depth at 8.3km. The station used to estimate the dv/v is located close (~ 5 km) to the epicenter and experienced a peak ground velocity of 35.8cm/s (esm.mi.ingv.it). In 2016 a series of moderate-large earthquakes (Norcia-Visso sequence) struck a region ~ 40 -70km to the north of L'Aquila. The series began on the 24 of August 2016 with a magnitude 6 followed on the 30th October 2016 by a magnitude 6.5 occurring in the same region. The last two events induced a peak ground velocity ~ 9 cm/s (esm.mi.ingv.it). The peak ground velocity is used to calculate the dynamic strain for the mentioned earthquakes (Taira et al, 2018, assuming $V_s=2500$ m/s), which is respectively $1.5e-4$ for L'Aquila event and $4e-5$ for the 24th of August event in 2016.

In concomitance with the earthquakes, large velocity drops can be observed over the full range of the analyzed lapse times (fig. 7), similar to previous observations (Zaccarelli et al., 2011, Soldati et al., 2015). Nevertheless, we here measure the values of dv/v for each time lapse and each earthquake, and we are thus able to resolve any depth dependence response of the crust to rapid dynamic perturbation induced by large earthquakes. For each event, the velocity reduction is measured as the drop from the mean dv/v over the preceding year before the events, and the following minimum peak. For the 2016 events, our analysis window (90 days) prevents us from resolving the two drops (for the 24 of August and the 30 October events respectively). We thus consider the mean reference dv/v for the year before the first event (24th of August 2016).

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The co-seismic dv/v at different lapse time (Fig. 7) shows a different evolution with respect to multiyear ones (Fig. 5 and 7). For both events, we see a general reduction of dv/v as time lapse increases.



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Figure 7: Coseismic dv/v time series for different lapse time (Table 1) for L'Aquila 2009 event (a) and Visso-Norcia sequence 2016 (c). Coseismic velocity reduction as function of coda lapse time (Table 1) for L'Aquila 2009 event (b) and Visso-Norcia sequence 2016 (d).

407 Discussion

408 The analysis of the 17 years of dv/v permitted us to isolate several processes controlling
409 dv/v variations. Namely we observe velocity change due to (i) co-seismic perturbations (Fig.
410 7), (ii) yearly perturbations likely related to variation of temperature (Fig. 4, 5) and (iii) multi-
411 annual perturbations associated with hydrological cycles inducing dilatational strain in the
412 crust (Fig. 4, 5, 6, Silverii et al., 2019). By estimating dv/v over different coda lapse time (Table
413 1), we observe how the contribution from each process changes over different portions of the
414 correlation coda (see Table 2, Fig. 5, 6, 7).

415

416 a. Depth resolution of velocity variations

417 To interpret the results for different lapse times in term of depth, we calculated the
418 sensitivity kernel based on the single scattering 3D radiative transfer solution considering that
419 the measured coda waves are comprised of contributions from both body and surface waves. It
420 is important to note that, as we have no proxy to assess the coda wave constituents, this kernel
421 can be biased. The sensitivity to surface waves is more important for early lapse times
422 (Obermann et al., 2013). Here we assume the value of the mean free path ($l = 100\text{km}$ and 10
423 km) and propagation velocity of coda waves ~ 3895 m/s, for the equipartition state. Thus, the
424 inferred depth sensitivity is not absolute, but we can use the kernels as an indicator of the
425 approximate depth with lapse time. The estimated sensitivity (Fig. 2) maximum is

426 approximately ~ 10 km especially for the later coda (e.g. lapse time 20 - 50s) with 50 km
427 scattering mean free path.

428 The estimation of an absolute depth for the velocity changes will require better knowledge
429 of the scattering properties of the medium, including its layered structure, which can play a
430 fundamental role in trapping waves in some part of the medium (e.g. Kanu & Snieder, 2015).
431 Here, we can only discuss the relative depth of the velocity changes observed (multiyear,
432 seasonal, co-seismic, Fig. 5, 7) from the time lapse evolution of dv/v . For example, for multi-
433 year deformations dv/v increases for later lapse-time (Fig. 5, 7). We thus infer the existence of
434 a region at depth that exhibits sensitivity to long period forcing (Obermann et al., 2013, Hillers
435 et al., 2018). The rapid decay of the B/E ratio (eq. 2, Fig. 5b), is another indication that our late
436 coda measurements sample deeper into the crust. In fact, the thermally induced stress is
437 expected to reduce rapidly with depth (Ben-Zion & Leary, 1986) as does the ratio (Fig. 5b).

438

439

b. Origin of various velocity variation and rheology of middle crust

440

441 We begin by discussing the strain sensitivity ($e=[dv/v]/[de]$, de the dynamic strain) during
442 the co-seismic stage. Considering the dynamic strain induced by the two events we find that e
443 is respectively $-1e7$ and $-1e8$ for the L'Aquila and Amatrice earthquakes respectively. These
444 values are an order of magnitude larger than estimates in geothermal areas (Taira et al., 2018)
445 and volcanic regions (Breguier et al., 2014), suggesting that the crustal rocks in the study
446 region are very susceptible to dynamic deformations. Under rapid perturbations induced during
447 large earthquakes the dv/v decreases with depth, suggesting significant nonlinear response
448 related to damage near the surface (e.g. Obermann, 2013, 2014), or alternatively,
449 unconsolidated granular material (e.g., Brunet et al., 2008; Johnson and Jia, 2005). For the
450 2009 event, considering the shortest analysis window in the coda (20s, Fig. 7) a peak of
451 maximum velocity reduction is observed, which suggests the existence of an isolated region at
452 depth that is highly sensitive to dynamic deformations. The detailed analysis of the co-seismic
453 response is beyond the scope of the actual work, and will be addressed in future research.

454

455 While the co-seismic rapid shaking induces large dv/v near the surface, the dv/v increases
456 with lapse time for the long-term perturbations (Table 2, Figure 5, 6). We interpret this time
457 lapse evolution as due to an isolated region with stronger dv/v -sensitivity to perturbations (sec.
458 a, Obermann et al., 2013, 2014, Hillers et al., 2018). While we do not have detailed evolution
459 of strain for the long-term dv/v , we can make a back-of-the-envelope calculation of the
460 sensitivity, knowing that the strain at peak GPS deformation is $\sim 1e-6$ (Silverii et al., 2019) for
461 $\sim 1e-3$ of dv/v , which gives a dv/v -sensitivity of $\sim 1e3$. This latter value agrees with other
462 estimates based on tidal- dv/v responses (Yamamura et al., 2003, Takano et al. 2014). Our
463 estimations are also in agreement with dilatant induced velocity reduction during slow slip in
464 the lower crust (Rivet et al., 2011, Wang et al., 2019).

465

466 Laboratory studies show that nonlinear elastic modulus variation is amplitude dependent
467 (Guyet and Johnson, 2009) as well as frequency dependent, with larger modulus changes for
468 shorter periods for a given effective pressure (Riviere et al., 2016). Here we observe a lower
469 dv/v sensitivity ($1e3$) for small quasi-static strain ($1e-6$) and low frequency (~ 5 yr) in contrast
470 to large dynamic strains ($\sim 1e-4$) (lasting no more than few minutes) induced by the large
471 earthquakes. Under low strain forcing we also observe that non-linear material slow dynamics
472 (recovery) expressed in equation 3 is nearly zero (α , Table 2). However, for short time
473 perturbations a clear log-time recovery is observed (see for example the time after the
474 earthquakes in figure 3a). Thus, our measures reflect general behaviors of rocks in small scale
laboratory experiments (e.g. Riviere et al., 2016) as well as field measurements under Vibroseis
forcing (Johnson et al., 2008) and earthquake forcing (e.g., Breguier et al., 2008; Wu et al.,
2017; Ostrovsky et al, 2019).

475 To interpret our results, we consider the velocity variation as being controlled by crack
476 density (ρ_0) because it has been well documented that cracks and other damage contribute
477 dominantly to nonlinear elastic behavior (e.g., Johnson 1998; Guyer and Johnson, 2009). The
478 sensitivity to any stress perturbations (S) can then be written as (Silver et al., 2007):
479

$$480 \quad e = \frac{\delta v/v}{S} = \frac{\delta v/v}{\Delta \rho_0} \frac{\Delta \rho_0}{S} \quad [4]$$

481
482 As the crack density is expected to reduce with depth due to the lithostatic pressure (Tod,
483 2003), sensitivity should reduce for larger lapse time (or depth) assuming fluid pressures do
484 not vary radically. For a fixed depth dependence of strain, at shallow depth we expect larger
485 sensitivity for larger strains, as observed during the co-seismic shaking. We again note how
486 our results are anomalous for long-term deformation, as the sensitivity increases at depth (Table
487 2, Figure 5, 6). The observed dichotomy (shallow response during co-seismic forcing and
488 deeper response during long-term forcing) is similar to what has been observed in Wenchuan
489 area by Obermann et al., (2014).

490 The cause of velocity variation at late lapse time may be due to meteorological water
491 circulation in the crust. However, in this case we would expect velocity changes also at shallow
492 depth (early lapse time). Thus, alternative mechanism(s) inducing changes may exist. A
493 possibility is that forcing induced by water table variation, rather than water itself, is
494 responsible for velocity changes, with the loading (unloading) inducing significantly increment
495 (reduction) of the pore pressure and controlling the drop (increment) of velocity (Froment et
496 al., 2013, Obermann et al., 2014). This mechanism has also been observed and modeled in the
497 Irpinia region (D'Agostino et al., 2018).

498 The presence of pressurized fluids at depth a range 5-10km has been suggested by several
499 researchers for the region of L'Aquila, from analysis of earthquake source properties
500 (Tarekawa et al., 2010, Malagnini et al., 2012) or from Vp/Vs ratio (Di Luccio et al, 2012).
501 Other studies suggest an extensive dilatancy anisotropy in the central Apennines, related to
502 pervasive fluid-filled cracks oriented parallel to the Apennines chain (Pastori et al., 2016).
503 Furthermore, a significant presence of a damage zone comprised of near-fault cracks (up to
504 ~1km from the fault) are observed in the carbonate rocks near the region of L'Aquila (Agosta
505 & Aydin, 2006).

506 Putting together our results with the other geophysical information, suggests the existence
507 of a depth-isolated and long-lived (at least 9 years), intensely cracked and fluid rich, damaged
508 region in the study area. At this depth, the strong sensitivity (equation 3 and 4) is related to the
509 presence of fluids, reducing the effective pressure, thus favoring high crack density (Hamiel et
510 al., 2006) and making the material more susceptible to dynamic or quasi-static forcing.

511 Mid-crustal damage zones have been also observed in California by analysis of seismic
512 catalogs (Ben-Zion & Zaliapin, 2019). Highlighting the existence of such a damage zone is
513 fundamental as damage plays a key role in the evolution of the seismic cycle and earthquake
514 nucleation (Lyakhovsky et al., 2001, Renard et al., 2018) and controls the amount of strain
515 released in a brittle manner during the seismic cycle (Hamiel et al., 2006). For example,
516 numerical simulations show that nucleation and growth of large earthquakes is only possible
517 with the existence of a, at least modestly, damaged region (Lyakhovsky et al., 2001). Indeed,
518 Ben-Zion & Zaliapin (2019) highlighted significant damage volumes active prior to several
519 significant earthquakes in California. In a similar manner, intense seismic activity was
520 observed, concentrated near the nucleation depth of L'Aquila earthquake, in the last year
521 preceding the mainshock (e.g. Valoroso et al., 2013). Whereas seismicity solely provides a
522 volume of damage (Ben-Zion & Zaliapin, 2019), we quantitatively estimate rheological
523 parameters (e.g. sensitivity) of rocks at depth in a region of important seismic hazard.

524 The presence of a highly fractured rocks has implication for earthquake nucleation models.
 525 The influence of damage on a critical phase transition model has been described by Renard and
 526 others (Renard et al., 2018). In this model, cracks become more interconnected as a large event
 527 is approaching, and progressively merge into a single primary fracture (the main shock). Close
 528 to the main rupture significant precursory earthquakes must occur in the damage zone (Renard
 529 et al., 2018), similarly to what is observed in the year preceding the L'Aquila earthquake in
 530 2009 (e.g. Valoroso et al., 2013).

531 We finally note (fig. 3a) how the seasonal cycle seems to disappear after the 2009 L'Aquila
 532 earthquake. Given that rain cycle remains significant after 2009, this behavior seems to suggest
 533 less sensitivity of the medium after the earthquake. However, there might exists a possible
 534 interplay between the long and slow post-seismic recovery and multiyear cycle, which will be
 535 studied in future works. Further, fluid pressures could play a key role—decreased pressures
 536 allow cracks to close and elastic non-linearity to decrease. This point needs further work.
 537

538 **Table 2: Summary of derived parameters**

539 Window 540 number	1-year cycle (eq. 2)	5 years cycle (eq. 2)	α (eq. 3)	β (eq. 3)	L'Aquila dv/v PGV=35.8cm/s Strain=1.5e-4	Amatrice dv/v PGV=9cm/s Strain=4e-5
542 1	0.036	0.01	0.006	1.65	-0.39	-0.18
2	0.02	0.02	0.005	-1.22	-0.34	-0.1543
3	0.02	0.01	0.004	-2.22	-0.31	-0.12
4	0.02	0.04	0.008	-11.56	-0.49	-0.1545
5	0.01	0.03	0.005	-7.83	-0.32	-0.11
6	0.00	0.02	0.004	-6.82	-0.28	-0.0917
7	0.01	0.04	0.008	-8.79	-0.36	-0.15
8	0.00	0.03	0.005	-8.76	-0.23	-0.1548
9	0.00	0.02	0.004	-6.36	-0.23	-0.08

550

551 **a. Towards monitoring with seasonal loading**

552 We showed that seasonal and multiyear components dominate the dv/v time series in the
 553 inter-seismic period (figs. 4, 5). These cycles are likely to mask smaller tectonic signals (e.g.
 554 fault weakening during earthquake preparation or transient tectonic deformations among).
 555 Indeed, systematic efforts have been applied to characterize the cyclic variations by modeling
 556 them (Wang et al. 2017) or by estimating the repeating patterns over several cycles and use
 557 their average as correction to isolate tectonic signals (Hillers et al., 2018).

558 Knowing the physical processes responsible for multiannual dv/v evolution (Silverii et al,
 559 2019), we assessed the lapse time dependent response of the medium to these cycles of
 560 dilatational strain, thus turning a nuisance into an opportunity to study the crust in a region of
 561 significant seismic hazard. This approach is similar to the studies of tidal induced dv/v (Takano
 562 et al., 2014, Hillers et al., 2015b), but we here assess longer cycles, and sample deeper regions
 563 in the crust near a main active fault.

564 Our lapse time dv/v analysis bears similarities to laboratory dynamic nonlinear studies
 565 applied to resolve the spatial extent of damaged regions in solids (e.g., Johnson, 1998; Ulrich
 566 et al., 2007; Guyer and Johnson, 2009; Ostrovsky and Johnson, 2001; Hauptert et al., 2014). As
 567 in these studies we observe a maximum response to deformation of the medium (β , eq. 3) in
 568 the damaged zone. Strain concentration can also produce highly localized increases in
 569 nonlinear response (Lott et al., 2016) especially at crack tips (e.g., Ulrich 2006), and thus time
 570 lapse monitoring could be used to reveal zones of anomalous strain accumulation.

571 The extension of our analysis to other regions, instrumented with dense geodetic networks
 572 and or application of InSAR allowing the accurate estimate of time-dependent strain, will help
 573 to better assess the physical properties of rocks at depth (e.g. assessing conditioning, slow

574 dynamics and hysteresis [Guyet and Johnson, 2009; TenCate et al., 2000]). Potential regions
575 for new studies include New Madrid seismic zone (Craig et al., 2017) or the Himalayan region
576 (Bettinelli et al., 2008, Bollinger et al., 2007), or Irpinia (D'Agostino et al., 2018). These
577 regions are characterized by significant seismic risk, prominent seasonal and multiannual
578 perturbations, and excellent seismological and geodetic instrumentation.

579

580 **5. Conclusions**

581 The precise analysis of time lapse velocity variations for 17 years of data in the region of
582 L'Aquila permitted us to unravel the complex behavior of multiple processes controlling the
583 dv/v evolution, over a wide range of temporal and spatial scales. The comparison of dv/v with
584 independent measurements (e.g. dynamic strain induced by earthquakes, quasi-static strain due
585 to hydrological cycles) permitted us to characterize the rheological response of seismogenic
586 rocks to various level of strain at various depths. The time-lapse analysis allowed us to resolve
587 a dichotomy in the crustal response, with significant near surface damage due to rapid strain
588 induced by large earthquakes and deeper strain sensitivity due to long period (5yrs) and small
589 strain perturbations in an inferred damage zone containing high fluid pressures, where the
590 mainshock earthquake nucleates.

591 We showed that when the physical processes responsible for seasonal or multiyear cycles
592 can be quantitatively characterized (e.g. Silverii et al., 2019), they can be exploited to evaluate
593 the rheological properties of rocks in the crust. This work extends previous approaches based
594 on tidal strain- dv/v evaluation, which are primarily sensitive to the shallowest part of the crust
595 ($< \sim 1$ km, e.g. Takano et al. 2014). Furthermore, our analysis made it possible to turn
596 hydrologically-induced cycles of dv/v , usually seen as a nuisance as they can mask tectonic
597 events, into an opportunity to reveal the rheology of crustal rocks down to the seismogenic
598 depth. Extending this work to other seismic active region, affected by significant weather-
599 related cycles (Bettinelli et al., 2008, Bollinger et al., 2007, D'Agostino et al., 2018, Craig et
600 al., 2017) will reveal new information about the physical properties of near fault rocks.

601

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