



Originally published as:

Parolai, S., Bindi, D., Ullah, S., Orunbaev, S., Usupaev, S., Moldobekov, B., Echtler, H. (2013): The Bishkek vertical array (BIVA): acquiring strong motion data in Kyrgyzstan and first results. - Journal of Seismology, 17, 2, 707-719

DOI: [10.1007/s10950-012-9347-y](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10950-012-9347-y)

1           The Bishkek Vertical Array (BIVA): acquiring strong  
2           motion data in Kyrgyzstan and first results.

3           S. Parolai<sup>1,\*</sup>, D. Bindi<sup>1</sup>, S. Ullah<sup>1</sup>, S. Orunbaev<sup>2</sup>, S. Usupaev<sup>2</sup>, B. Moldobekov<sup>2</sup>, H. Echtler<sup>1</sup>.

4           <sup>1</sup>Deutsches GeoForschungsZentrum GFZ, Helmholtzstrasse 7, 14467 Potsdam, Germany.

5           <sup>2</sup>Central Asian Institute for Applied Geosciences Timur Frunze rd.73/2 720027 Bishkek,  
6           Kyrgyz Republic

7           \*Corresponding author: Helmholtz Centre Potsdam, GFZ German Research Centre for  
8           Geosciences, Centre for Early Warning, Helmholtzstrasse 7, H7 103, 14467 Potsdam,  
9           Germany. Tel.:+493312881290, fax: +493312881204, E-mail: parolai@gfz-potsdam.de

10       **Abstract**

11       We present results from a vertical array of accelerometers that was recently installed in  
12       Bishkek (Kyrgyzstan) with the long-term aim of recording strong motion data. Taking  
13       advantage of recordings of a Mb 4.7 earthquake that occurred 40 km from the array site  
14       during the installation phase, we provide results of some preliminary data analysis. First,  
15       estimates of the S-wave velocity and Qs structure are deduced by the inversion of the  
16       deconvolved wavefield between the sensors in the borehole. Furthermore, the application  
17       of the nonstationary ray decomposition (Kinoshita, 2009) allowed at least 3 reflectors in the  
18       shallow velocity structure below the array to be identified. The complex nature of the  
19       wavefield (with upgoing, down-going waves, and converted phases) due to the coarse,  
20       unconsolidated subsoil structure is highlighted by means of numerical simulations of ground  
21       motion.

22        **1. INTRODUCTION**

23        The city of Bishkek (the capital of Kyrgyzstan) is located in one of the highest seismic hazard  
24        areas of the world (Zhang *et al.*, 1999) directly adjacent to the active orogenic front of the  
25        Northern Tien Shan ridge. Recent seismic risk assessment studies (e.g., Erdik *et al.*, 2005;  
26        Bindi *et al.*, 2011) have shown that due to the high vulnerability of the building stock, very  
27        high direct losses (human and economic) would be expected in the case of a plausible event  
28        in the seismically active zones around the city.

29        Unfortunately, both the probabilistic seismic hazard assessment and the seismic hazard  
30        scenarios calculated for this area suffer from a lack of local strong ground motion data, and  
31        in particular, the behavior of the thick unsorted alluvial sediments underlying Bishkek during  
32        strong ground shaking can only be guessed at (Parolai *et al.*, 2010 and references therein).  
33        Parolai *et al.* (2010) showed that site amplification is significant over a wide frequency band  
34        and that it varies across different parts of the town. They also showed, on the basis of  
35        seismic noise measurements, that the shear wave velocity ranges between 500 and 600 m/s  
36        in the shallowest few tens of meters in the coarse conglomerates, and that therefore the  
37        large observed amplifications are a result of strong impedance contrasts at depths of  
38        hundreds to a few thousands of meters (the crystalline basement depth is expected to be  
39        about 3000 m below the site investigated). It is therefore of great interest to understand  
40        better how the shallow velocity structures within the basin affect wave propagation, and  
41        how it can behave during strong shaking.

42        In order to provide/discuss answers to these questions, the GFZ German Research Centre for  
43        Geosciences, in cooperation with the Central Asian Institute of Applied Geosciences (CAIAG),  
44        within the framework of the Global Change Observatory Central Asia (GCO-CA) initiative of

45 the GFZ, established the Bishkek Vertical Array (BIVA) of accelerometers at the same site  
46 where the seismic noise measurements were carried out by Parolai *et al.*, (2010). Downhole  
47 measurements are a valuable complement to *in situ* surface and laboratory geotechnical  
48 investigation techniques. In fact, they provide critical constraints for both the interpretation  
49 methods of surface observations as well as information about the real material behavior and  
50 overall site response over a wide range of loading conditions (Assimaki *et al.* 2008). The  
51 amount and quality of information from downhole arrays in seismically active areas is the  
52 key to improving our understanding of *in situ* soil behavior, to assess modeling and  
53 parametric uncertainties associated with employed methodologies for strong-motion site-  
54 response analysis, and for shallow geological investigations.

55 In this paper we will first describe the vertical array configuration and the motivation behind  
56 its establishment, and second, taking advantage of recordings of a Mb 4.7 earthquake that  
57 occurred 40 km from the array site during the installation phase, we will show the results of  
58 data analysis that allow us to estimate the S-wave velocity and  $Q_s$  structure at the array site,  
59 following the approaches outlined in Parolai *et al.* (2009; 2010; 2012). We will also show the  
60 results of the nonstationary ray decomposition (Kinoshita, 2009) that allowed at least 3  
61 reflectors in the shallow velocity structure below the array to be identified.

## 62 **2. VERTICAL ARRAY DESCRIPTION**

63 A 150 m depth borehole was drilled in the courtyard of CAIAG in Bishkek (Figure 1). The  
64 borehole, cased along its entire length, crossed different Quaternary sedimentary layers  
65 (Parolai *et al.*, 2010 and reference therein). In particular, the uppermost 80 meters is  
66 dominated by alternating layers of coarse gravel-shingle, and sandy layers with varying  
67 thicknesses (Figure1), while below 80 m depth only one thick gravel-shingle layer is present.  
68 The main ground water table was encountered at a depth of about 55 m. Parolai *et al.*

69 (2010) estimated by Rayleigh wave dispersion curve inversion that the average S-wave  
70 velocity is around 600 m/s in the uppermost 25 m, increasing to 750 m/s between 25 and 50  
71 m depth and from nearly 1000 m/s to 1350 m/s over the next 100 m.

72 The borehole is equipped with a 3-component accelerometer at the surface and a chain of  
73 five 3-component borehole accelerometers at depths of 10, 25, 45, 85 and 145 m. The  
74 sensors are connected to two 24 bit digitizers. The output was set to +/- 2 g and the  
75 sampling rate in 500 samples per second (s.p.s.). The data are stored locally and transmitted  
76 in real time via the internet (after being re-sampled to 50 s.p.s.) to CAIAG and the GFZ. In  
77 case of a significant event, the 500 s.p.s data can be manually downloaded. During the  
78 installation it was possible to orient with respect to the cardinal points only the horizontal  
79 components of the sensor located at the surface.

### 80 **3. THE Mb 4.7 18:03:2011 EARTHQUAKE RECORDINGS**

81 On March 18<sup>th</sup> 2011 during the installation phase of the vertical array, an earthquake of Mb  
82 4.7 (Mw 4.1) occurred nearly 40 km north-northeast of the array site (Figure 1) at an  
83 estimated depth of only 2 km. The earthquake was recorded by the sensors installed at 10  
84 m, 25 m, 45 m, and 145 m depth. Unfortunately, due to malfunctions during the installation,  
85 phase recordings are not available for the sensors at 85 and 0 m depth. The recordings of  
86 the earthquake clearly show a strong arrival (at 398 s, Figure 2) before the S-wave one (at  
87 around 399 s, Figure 2). This earlier arrival is also observed in the horizontal components,  
88 although less clearly. A simple cross correlation analysis on these seismograms (not shown  
89 here) showed that this pulse is propagating at a velocity very similar to that of the direct P-  
90 wave arrival. We therefore speculate, and will show the feasibility of this idea in this paper,  
91 that this is a SP phase due to a conversion at the seismological bedrock of the basin which is

92 expected to be at around 3 km depth (Bullen *et al.*, 2001). Considering the location of the  
93 hypocenter and the polarities of the first P-wave arrival in the vertical and horizontal  
94 components, it is possible to assess the orientation of the nominal north-south and east-  
95 west component with respect to the cardinal points (see NMSOP, 2002). In fact, knowing the  
96 position of the epicenter, it is possible to compare the observed polarities of the first arrival  
97 with the expected ones from theory, and therefore to estimate to a first order the  
98 orientation of the sensors' components in the borehole. In order to obtain the radial and  
99 transverse component seismograms, the horizontal recordings have been rotated,  
100 considering from the previously obtained information about the first order orientations,  
101 until the energy is maximized (minimized) in the signal window, including the converted SP  
102 phase, therefore determining the radial (transverse) direction.

103 Figure 2 shows the obtained radial and transverse component of ground motion after  
104 rotation. We note, as would be expected if this was correctly done, that the P-wave energy  
105 of the first arrival is minimized in the transverse component. Figure 3 shows the pseudo  
106 acceleration response spectra (5% damping) for the different components of ground motion  
107 at different depths. They clearly show that the variability of amplitude of ground motion at  
108 different frequencies and at different depths cannot be simply related to the impedance  
109 variation in the vertical direction.

110 The polarization of the SP phase (Figure 4) is consistent with that of the P-wave arrival  
111 (nearly in the vertical direction) as opposed to the S-waves, which are nearly polarized in the  
112 orthogonal direction. Note that only the first impulse is considered for all the phases in the  
113 analysis (double pulse in acceleration). The deviation from linearity of the polarization of  
114 these phases might be related to the effect of down-going waves that, due to the shallow  
115 depth of the sensors, can interfere with the direct first pulse arrival.

#### 116        **4. Inversion of the deconvolved wavefield spectra**

117        The inversion of the deconvolved wavefield spectra (obtained by deconvolving the ground  
118        motion recorded at different depths with that measured by a reference accelerometer at a  
119        chosen depth) to obtain the S-wave velocity and Qs profile in the borehole was carried out.  
120        Although the inverse problem is non-linear, as shown in Parolai *et al.* (2012), it can be  
121        linearized when a suitable starting model is available, for example when using the  
122        information from the travel time propagation estimated by the borehole recordings. Since  
123        this is valid also in the case at hand, we carried out the inversion following the linear  
124        inversion scheme proposed in Parolai *et al.* (2012). The inversion was run considering SH  
125        waves and therefore only the spectra of the transverse components were used. Different  
126        inversions were carried out considering incidence angles at the bottom of the array ranging  
127        between 0° and 30°, including an angle of 17.4° which would be expected considering the  
128        hypocentral position and a 1D crustal velocity model for the area (Abdrakhmatov personal  
129        communication).

130        A starting model for the inversion was chosen that combined the available stratigraphic data  
131        with results obtained following the Parolai *et al.* (2010) approach, where the Fourier spectra  
132        of the deconvolved wavefield between the shallowest sensor and a borehole one (from now  
133        on also referred to as “data”) are fitted by an analytical transfer function via a grid search  
134        procedure. We should remark here that differently from the data used in Parolai *et al.*  
135        (2010), the wavefield of the 18.03.2011 earthquake was not recorded at the surface sensor  
136        of the BIVA array and the deconvolution must therefore be carried out using as the  
137        reference sensor the one located at 10 m depth. Although a preliminary examination of the  
138        spectra of the transverse component (not shown here) showed that the main effect of the  
139        down going waves is to generate a spectral trough at nearly 12 Hz (that is, at a frequency

140 higher than the frequency band where the effect of downgoing waves is expected to occur in  
 141 the deeper borehole recordings), the low  $Q_s$  in the shallowest layer and the presence of the  
 142 spectral trough might also bias the spectral amplitude of the recording at 10 m at  
 143 frequencies much lower than 10 Hz. This, in turn, would of course bias the deconvolved  
 144 wavefield fit results if not correctly accounted for in the analytical expression of the  
 145 deconvolved wavefield. For this reason, the analytical expression of the deconvolved  
 146 wavefield  $S(h, h1; f)$  for the vertical propagation of S-waves, where  $f$  is the frequency,  $h$  the  
 147 depth of the deepest sensor and  $h1$  the depth of the reference shallow sensor, had to be  
 148 modified in this study, with respect to that used in Parolai *et al.*, (2010) in the following way:

149

150

$$S(h; h1; f) = \frac{\sqrt{1 + e^{-4\pi f \beta} + 2e^{-2\pi f \beta} \cos(4\pi f t)}}{\sqrt{e^{-2\pi f(t-t1)/Qs} + e^{-2\pi f \alpha} + 2e^{-\pi f(t-t1)/Qs} e^{-\pi f \alpha} \cos(2\pi f(t-t1)) \cos(2\pi f(t+t1)) + 2e^{-\pi f(t-t1)/Qs} e^{-\pi f \alpha} \sin(2\pi f(t-t1)) \sin(2\pi f(t+t1))}}$$

151

152 (1)

153

154 With:

$$\alpha = \frac{(q1(t-t1) + 2Qs t1)}{q1Qs} \quad (2)$$

156

157

$$\beta = \frac{(q1(t-t1) + Qs t1)}{q1Qs} \quad (3)$$

158



159 where  $t$  and  $t_1$  are the travel times between the depths  $h$  and  $h_1$  and the surface,  
160 respectively.  $q_1$  and  $Q_s$  are the quality factors above  $h_1$  and between  $h$  and  $h_1$ , respectively.  
161 The deconvolution of the transverse component wavefield was carried out using a  
162 regularized Tikhonov deconvolution approach (Tikhonov and Arsenin 1977; Bertero and  
163 Boccacci 1998; Mehta *et al.* 2007b) as in Parolai *et al.* (2010).

164 The grid search fit was first carried out considering the 25 m depth recordings with  $t$ ,  $q_1$  and  
165  $Q_s$  as free parameters. In this step, it was assumed that  $q_1$  and  $Q_s$  are equal, and we used  
166 this constraint in the grid search. While this assumption is justified by the shallow depth of  
167 both instruments, the geological profile and the estimation of very similar  $V_s$  in the  
168 uppermost 25 m from the geophysical investigation of Parolai *et al.* (2010) allows one  
169 degree of freedom to be eliminated from the inversion procedure, making the results more  
170 stable. In the following steps, the grid search was carried out considering the 45 m and the  
171 145 m depth recordings. In these cases,  $q_1$  was fixed to the value obtained in the first step.  
172 The grid search was carried out in both steps with  $Q_s$  values ranging from 1 to 500 over steps  
173 of 1. The  $t$  ranges and the  $t_1$  value were selected considering the travel time that could be  
174 estimated by examining the first spectral trough in the spectra of the recordings (Parolai *et*  
175 *al.* 2010) that is generated by the down going wave interference.

176 Note that by only including the effect of down-going waves in the shallowest depth  
177 recording (10 m), it is possible to explain the lower amplitude of the second trough with  
178 respect to the third one as in the 10m/45m deconvolution wavefield spectra (see the spectra  
179 in Figure 5). An average  $Q_s$  of 5, 5, 20 and 21 were estimated for the layers between 0m-  
180 10m, 10m-25m, 10m-45m and 10m-145m, respectively, while the average  $V_s$  values  
181 estimated were 524m/s, 440m/s, 560 m/s and 950 m/s between 0m-10m, 10m-25m, 10m-  
182 45m and 10m-145m, respectively.

183 The target frequency band for the inversion was chosen to be 0.5 Hz to 10 Hz in order to  
184 avoid problems due to the regularization of the spectral trough contained in the  
185 denominator (which is here the spectrum of the 10 m depths recording, Parolai *et al.* 2010;  
186 Parolai *et al.* 2012).

187 Figure 5 shows the results obtained considering different incidence angles of the seismic  
188 waves. The lower misfit results (estimated as the root mean square of the differences  
189 between the observed and the calculated data) are generally obtained for incidences close  
190 to the vertical. Note that at frequencies higher than those used in the inversion, the fit is  
191 also satisfactory. Although the 0° and 10° incidence models provide very similar S-wave  
192 velocity profiles, they strongly differ in their Qs structure below 80 m depth. Considering  
193 that the large inversion affecting the Qs value at about 80 m for the 0° incidence model does  
194 not seem to be justified, neither by the available geological data nor the inferred Vs  
195 structure, and that a incidence angle of 10° is consistent with what can be expected at the  
196 bottom of the array due to the difference in velocity between the sedimentary layers and  
197 the velocity in the bedrock (used in the 1D velocity model), we consider the best model to be  
198 that derived considering a 10° incidence of the S-wave wavefield.

199 The data resolution matrix (Menke, 1989) (Figure 6, bottom), that shows how well  
200 neighboring data can be independently predicted or resolved, shows that only the troughs in  
201 the spectra of the deconvolved wavefield can be correctly retrieved in the inversion.  
202 However, as indicated by the large values of off-diagonal elements, because of the  
203 periodicity of the troughs in the spectra, part of the information is distributed to nearby  
204 spectral troughs. Figure 6, top, also shows the model covariance matrices (which describes in  
205 which way errors are mapped from the data to the model parameters) and model  
206 resolution, (showing how reliably the model parameters can be independently resolved,

207 Menke, 1989) where the parameter numbers from 1 to 7 and from 8 to 14 represent the  
208 velocity and  $Q_s$  of each layer, respectively. The model resolution matrix shows that the first  
209 layer of the model has a low resolution with respect to  $V_s$  and that strong trades off exist  
210 between the second and third layers, as well as between the fifth and sixth layer  $V_s$  values.  
211 However, a good resolution for  $Q_s$  is shown for the uppermost six layers. These results  
212 appear in contrast to the Parolai *et al.* (2012) conclusions, where generally the  $V_s$  velocity  
213 was well constrained in the inversion while  $Q_s$  suffered from a lower resolution. Indeed, in  
214 this case, the strong trade off in the uppermost layers is simply a consequence of the lack of  
215 surface recordings. In such a case, a large range of  $V_s$  values can be used to describe the  $V_s$   
216 in the first layer under the condition that it is not generating a spectral trough due to down-  
217 going waves in the spectral band used in the inversion. Consequently, the  $V_s$  in the second  
218 and third layers simply adjust with respect to that in the first layer in order to reproduce the  
219 spectral troughs at the frequency values shown by the observed deconvolved wavefield  
220 spectra. It is also worth remarking that as with Parolai *et al.*, (2012), it seems that the  
221 number of layers might therefore be reduced, independent of the stratigraphy, to a number  
222 consistent with the number of borehole sensors. In any case, we believe that the obtained  
223 model is a good representation of the underground structure in terms of average  $V_s$   
224 velocities. Finally, the covariance matrix (Fig. 6) shows that in the final model, the error  
225 propagation mainly affects the  $V_s$  estimation (parameter number from 1 to 7).

226

## 227 **5. Nonstationary ray decomposition**

228 The nonstationary ray decomposition method proposed by Kinoshita (2009) was applied to  
229 the transverse component recordings in order to identify the presence of the main velocity  
230 boundaries within the sedimentary cover and at the sedimentary layer-basement system.

231 This method assumes that the unknown subsurface is a homogeneous half-space and  
232 performs an inversion of the seismograms by decomposing them into up-going and down-  
233 going waves. The distribution of the instantaneous power of the decomposed rays,  
234 calculated for the Wigner-Ville distribution (Classen and Mecklenbrauker, 1980), is  
235 represented in the  $(t, \tau)$  space, where  $t$  is the lapse time and  $\tau$  the depth time, and used to  
236 identify possible velocity boundaries, where local maxima of instantaneous power appear at  
237 the intersections of the up-going and down-going rays. The maxima of the instantaneous  
238 power should be correlated with the largest impedance contrasts within the sedimentary  
239 cover and at the top of the seismic bedrock.

240 Figure 7 shows that under the BIVA array, at least 3 main reflectors can be identified at  
241 nearly 0.5s, 1s and 1.6 s depth time  $\tau$ , respectively. We propose, in reasonable agreement  
242 with the geological cross section shown in Figure 8, that these boundaries are those existing  
243 within the Quaternary cover, the Sharpyldak and Chu Tertiary formations, and between the  
244 sedimentary material and the Paleozoic bedrock.

245

## 246 **6. Results from synthetic seismograms**

247 In Figure 9, synthetic seismograms calculated using the Wang (1999) approach (and used in  
248 the forward propagation part of the inversion code employed by Parolai *et al.*, 2012) show  
249 the propagation of S-waves between the deepest borehole sensor and the surface by using  
250 the model estimated from the inversion. Part of the energy of the up-going S-wave, when  
251 reaching the first 75 m depth discontinuity between the loam and the gravel-shingle, is  
252 reflected back. The energy transmitted through the discontinuity is propagated towards the  
253 surface where a down-going wave is generated. When reaching the 75 m discontinuity, the

254 down-going wave is both reflected back to the surface (with a change in polarity) and  
255 transmitted down to the interior of the earth. Figure 9 clearly shows that the waveforms  
256 with greatest complexities, differently from what is generally thought, are those recorded in  
257 the borehole.

258 Figure 10 shows the synthetic P-SV seismograms calculated after adding to the shallow  
259 geological structure a layer down to 1000 m with a  $V_s$  velocity of 1600 m/s, a layer between  
260 1000 and 3000 m with a  $V_s$  of 2000 m/s, and below this a crustal model with  $V_s$  of 3300 m/s.  
261 In this way, although without any intention to identify by trial and error a structure that  
262 would allow the matching of synthetic arrivals with observed ones, we try to include at least  
263 two of the boundaries highlighted by the nonstationary ray analysis. The velocities of the  
264 added structure are based on the geological cross section of Figure 8 (Baeva, 1999) and the  
265 crustal velocity model used to locate earthquakes in the area (Abdrakhmatov pers. comm.).  
266 The synthetic seismograms show that such a geological structure is able to generate,  
267 consistent with the observed seismograms, a clear SP phase at the bottom (3 km) of the  
268 basin. Although the absolute velocities in the model are not perfectly resolved (the  
269 estimated delay time between the SP and S wave arrivals is different from that observed)  
270 the generation of converted waves is clear, as well as the presence of multiple reflections,  
271 consistent with the instantaneous power of decomposed ray images. Due to these  
272 encouraging results, future work, when a larger number of recordings will be hopefully  
273 available, should be devoted to retrieving details of the velocity structure.

## 274 **7. CONCLUSIONS**

275 In this study, recordings made by the BIVA vertical array recently installed in Bishkek  
276 (Kyrgyzstan) are presented. The array will offer the first opportunity to acquire digital strong

277 motion data at different depths in this high seismic risk area. Using the recordings of a single  
278 event by some of the borehole seismometers, we showed that even a preliminary analysis  
279 can provide interesting information about the underground structure in the basin and about  
280 the associated wave propagation.

281 In particular, the importance of large converted phases was identified and the existence of  
282 several velocity boundaries within the sedimentary cover assessed. This may allow us in the  
283 future to understand better the role of the geological structures in the spatial variability of  
284 hazard, and therefore risk, in Bishkek.

285 Refining these analyses will be the aim of future studies and, when a larger amount of data is  
286 available, a better knowledge of both the basin structure and of wave propagation within it  
287 will be possible.

## 288 **Acknowledgement**

289 We thank the associate editor J. Zahradnik, N. Mikhailova and an anonymous reviewer for  
290 comments and suggestions that helped in improving the manuscript. The figures were drawn  
291 using GMT (Wessel and Smith 1991). A. Strollo helped with the organization of the BIVA  
292 array planning and installation. R. Milkereit improved figures. Kevin Fleming kindly revised  
293 our English. This research was supported by the Global Change Observatory Central Asia of  
294 the GFZ.

295

296

297 **References**

298 Assimaki, D., W. Li, J. Steidl, and K. Tsuda (2008). Site amplification and attenuation via  
299 downhole array seismogram inversion: A comparative study of the 2003 Miyagi-Oki  
300 aftershock sequence. *Bulletin of Seismological Society of America* **98**, 301–33.

301 Baeva, N.B. (1999) Geological profile, Government Agency of geology and mineralogy of  
302 Kyrgyz Republik. Kyrgyz-Hydro-geological expedition.

303 Bertero, M., and P. Boccacci (1998). Introduction to inverse problems in imaging, Institute Of  
304 Physics, Bristol.

305 Bindi, D., M. Mayfield, S. Parolai, S. Tyagunov, U.T. Begaliev, K. Abrakhmatov, B.  
306 Moldobekov, and J. Zschau (2011). Towards an improved seismic risk scenario for Bishkek,  
307 Kyrgyz Republic. *Soil Dynamics and Earthquake Engineering* **31**, 521-525.

308 Bullen, M. E., D. W. Burbank, J. J. Garver, and K. Y. Abdrakhmatov (2001). Late Cenozoic  
309 tectonic evolution of the northwestern Tien Shan: New age estimates for the initiation of  
310 mountain building. *Geological Society of America Bulletin* **113**, 1544-1559.

311 Classen, T. A. C. M., and W.F.G. Mecklenbräuker (1980). The Wigner Distribution — a tool  
312 for time frequency signal analysis, 3 parts. *Philips Journal of Research*, **35**, 217–250, 276–  
313 300, 372–389.

314 Erdik, M., T. Rashidov, E. Safek, and A. Turdukulov (2005). Assessment of seismic risk in  
315 Tashkent, Uzbekistan and Bishkek, Kyrgyz Republic. *Soil Dynamics and Earthquake*  
316 *Engineering* **25**, 473-486.

317 Kinoshita, S. (2009). Nonstationary ray decomposition in a homogeneous half space, Earth  
318 Planets Space, **61**, 1297-1312.

319 Mehta, K., R. Snieder, and V. Graizer (2007b). Extraction of near-surface properties for a  
320 lossy layered medium using the propagator matrix. Geophysics Journal International **169**,  
321 271-280.

322 Menke, W., (1989). Geophysical data analysis: Discrete inverse theory, Academic Press,  
323 ISBN 0-12-490921-3.

324 New Manual of Seismological Observatory Practice (NMSOP, 2002), ISBN 3-9808780-0-7

325 Parolai, S. (2009). Denoising of seismograms using the S transform. Bulletin of Seismological  
326 Society of America **99**, 226-234.

327 Parolai, S., R. Wang, and D. Bindi (2012). Inversion of borehole weak motion records  
328 observed in Istanbul (Turkey). Geophysics Journal International **188**, 535-548.

329 Parolai, S., S. Orunbaev, D. Bindi, A. Strollo, S. Usupaev, M. Picozzi, D.D. Giacomo, P.  
330 Augliera, E. D'Alema, C. Milkereit, B. Moldobekov, and J. Zschau (2010). Site effects  
331 assessment in Bishkek (Kyrgyzstan) using earthquake and noise recording data. Bulletin of  
332 Seismological Society of America **100**, 3068-3082.

333 Tikhonov, A. N., and V. Y. Arsenin (1977). Solutions of Ill-Posed Problems, Winston and Sons,  
334 New York, ISBN 0470991240

335 Wang, R. (1999). A simple orthonormalization method for stable and efficient computation  
336 of Green's functions. Bulletin of Seismological Society of America **89**, 733-741.



337 Wessel, P., and W. H. F. Smith (1991). Free software helps map and display data, Eos Trans.

338 AGU 72, **41**, 445–446.

339

340 Zhang, P., Z. Yang, H. K. Gupta, S. C. Bhatia, and K. M. Shedlock (1999). Global seismic hazard

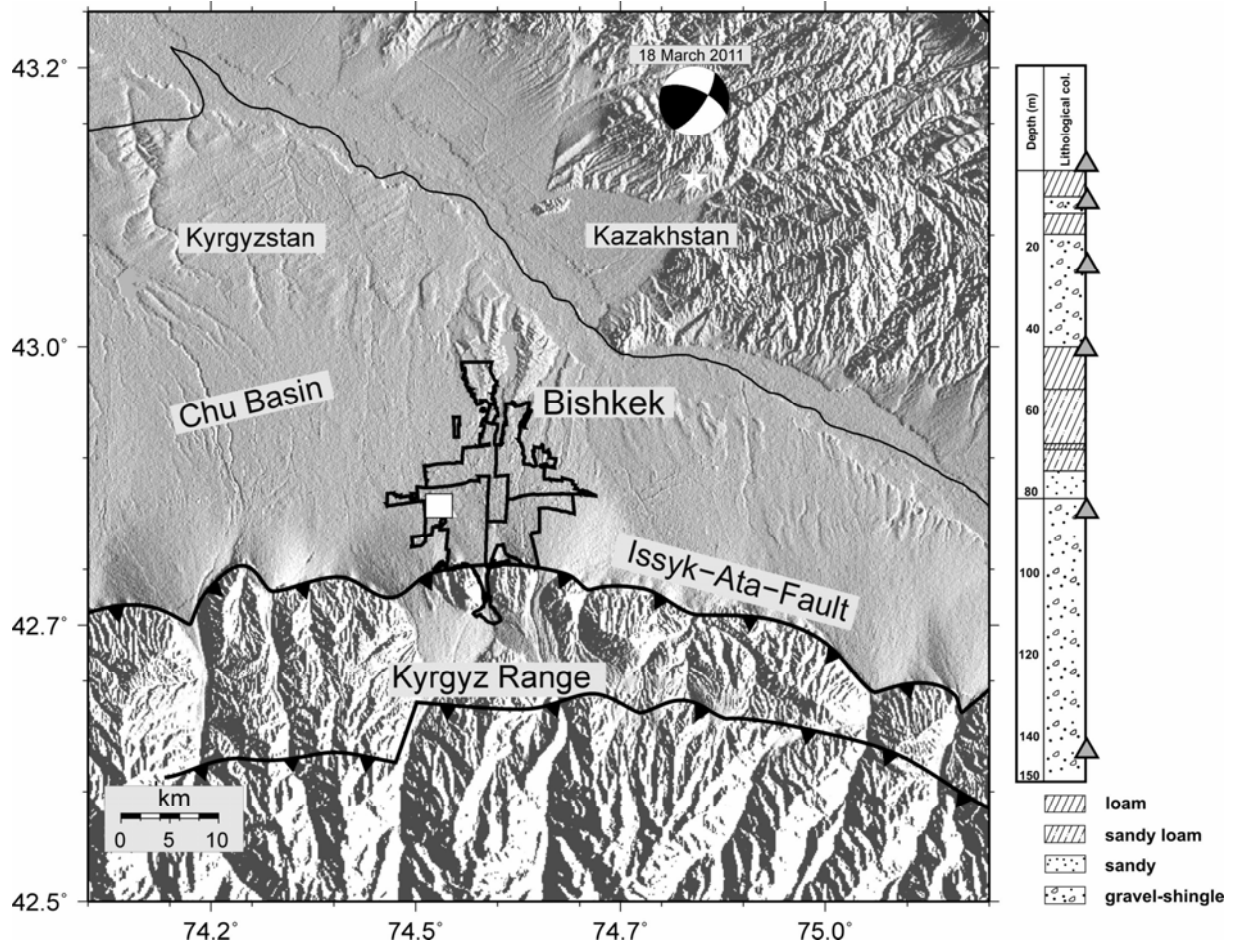
341 assessment program (GSHAP) in continental Asia, *Annali di Geofisica* **42**, 1167-90.

342

343

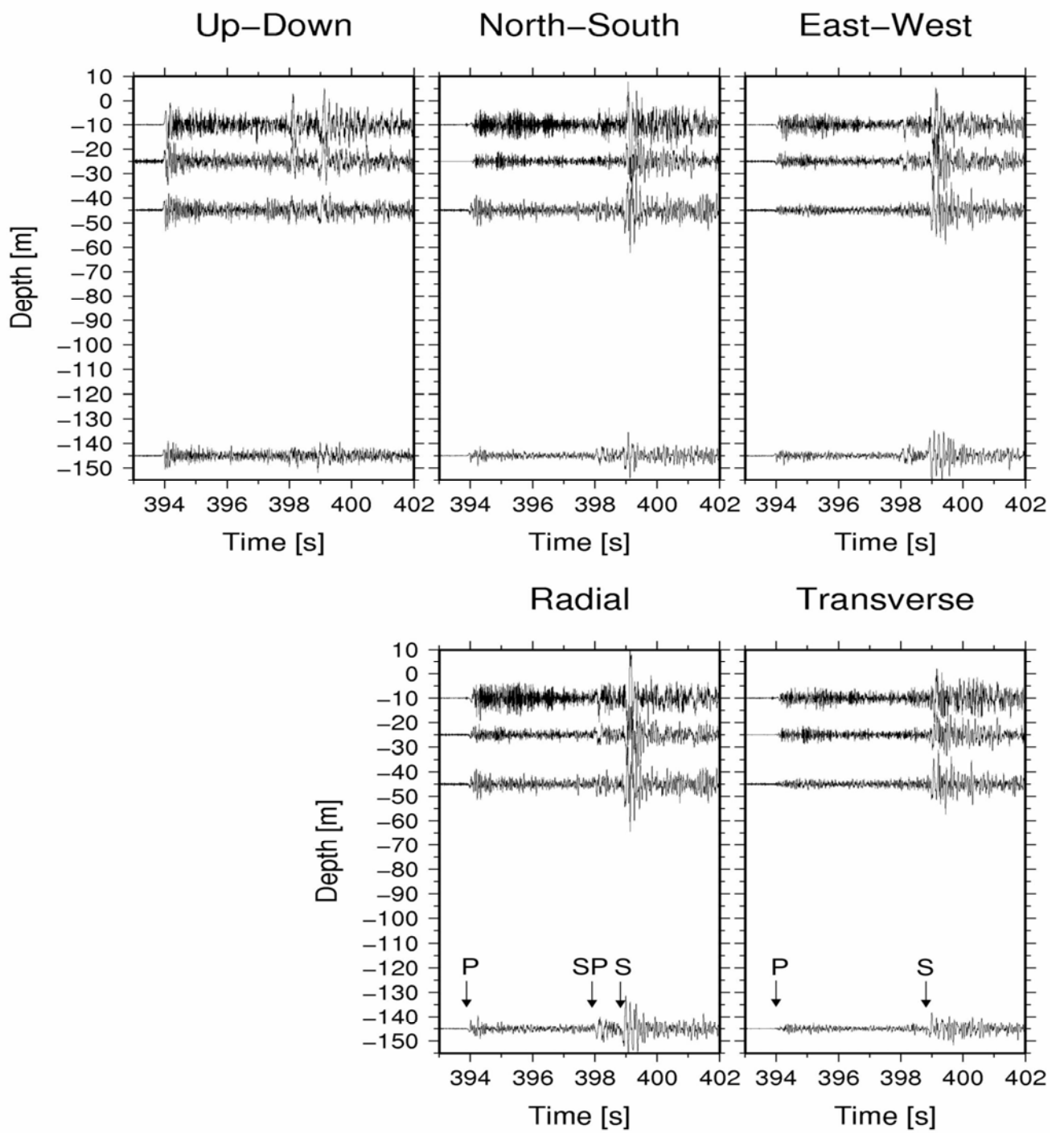
344

345



346

347 **Figure 1.**

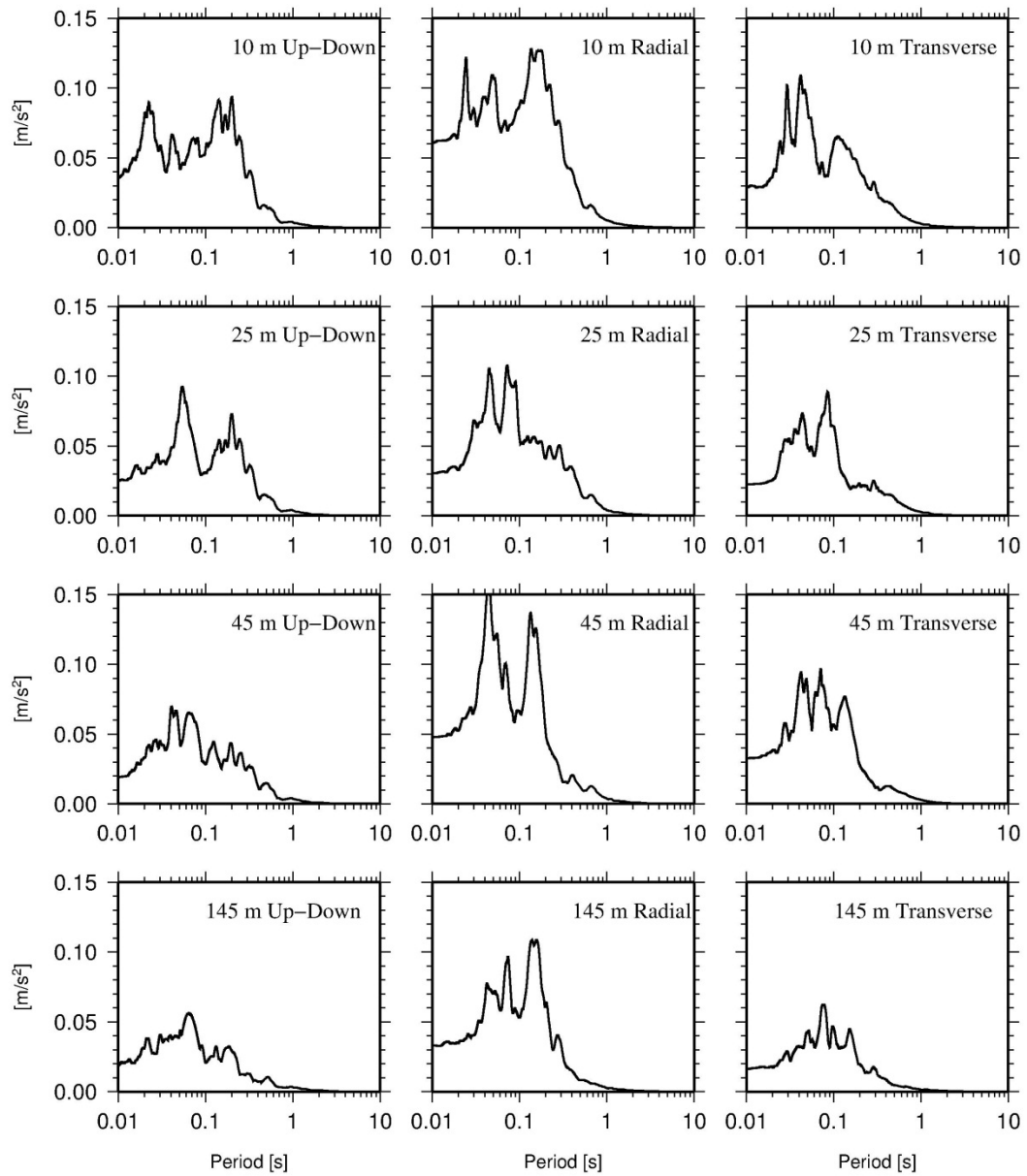


348

349 **Figure 2.**

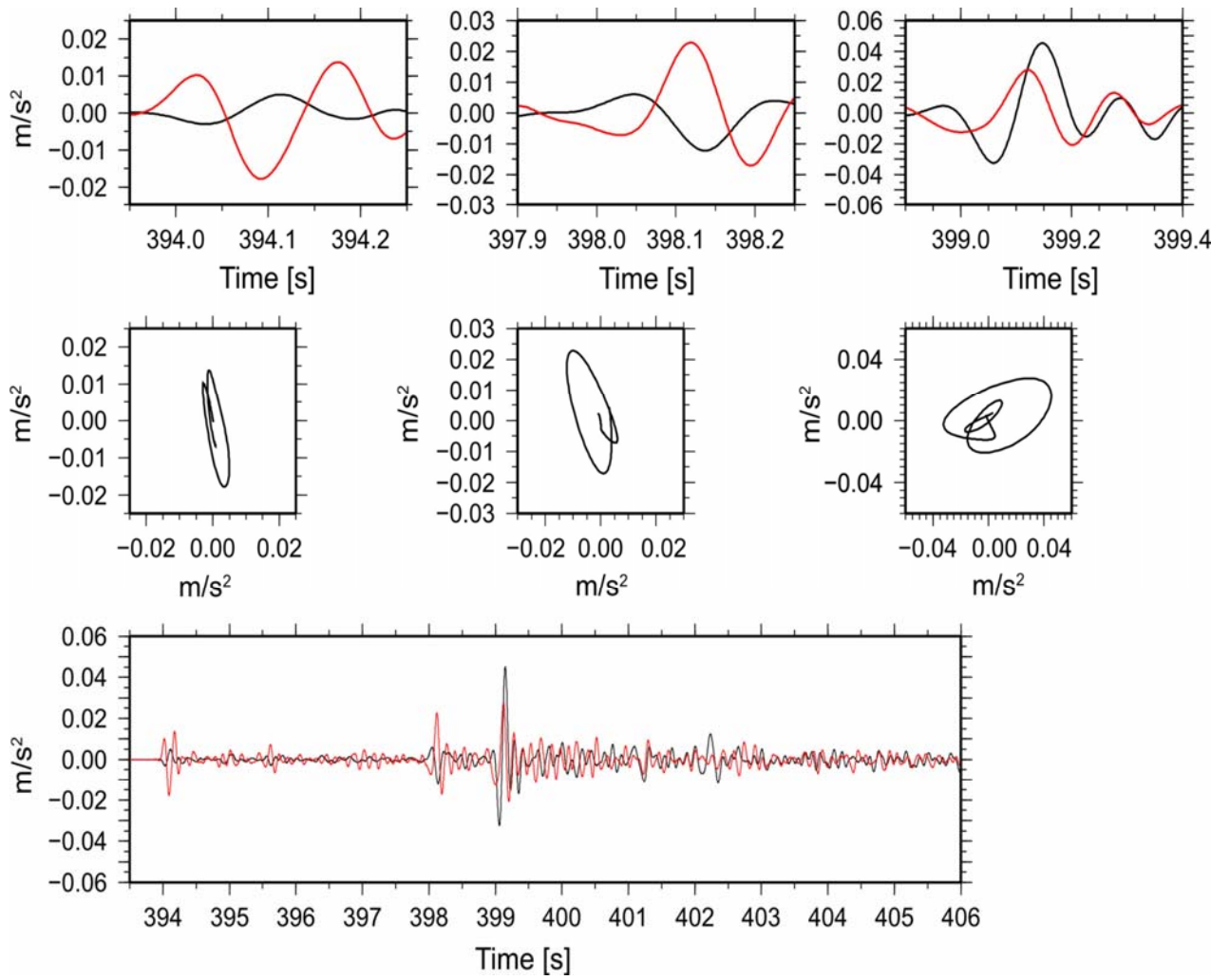
350

351



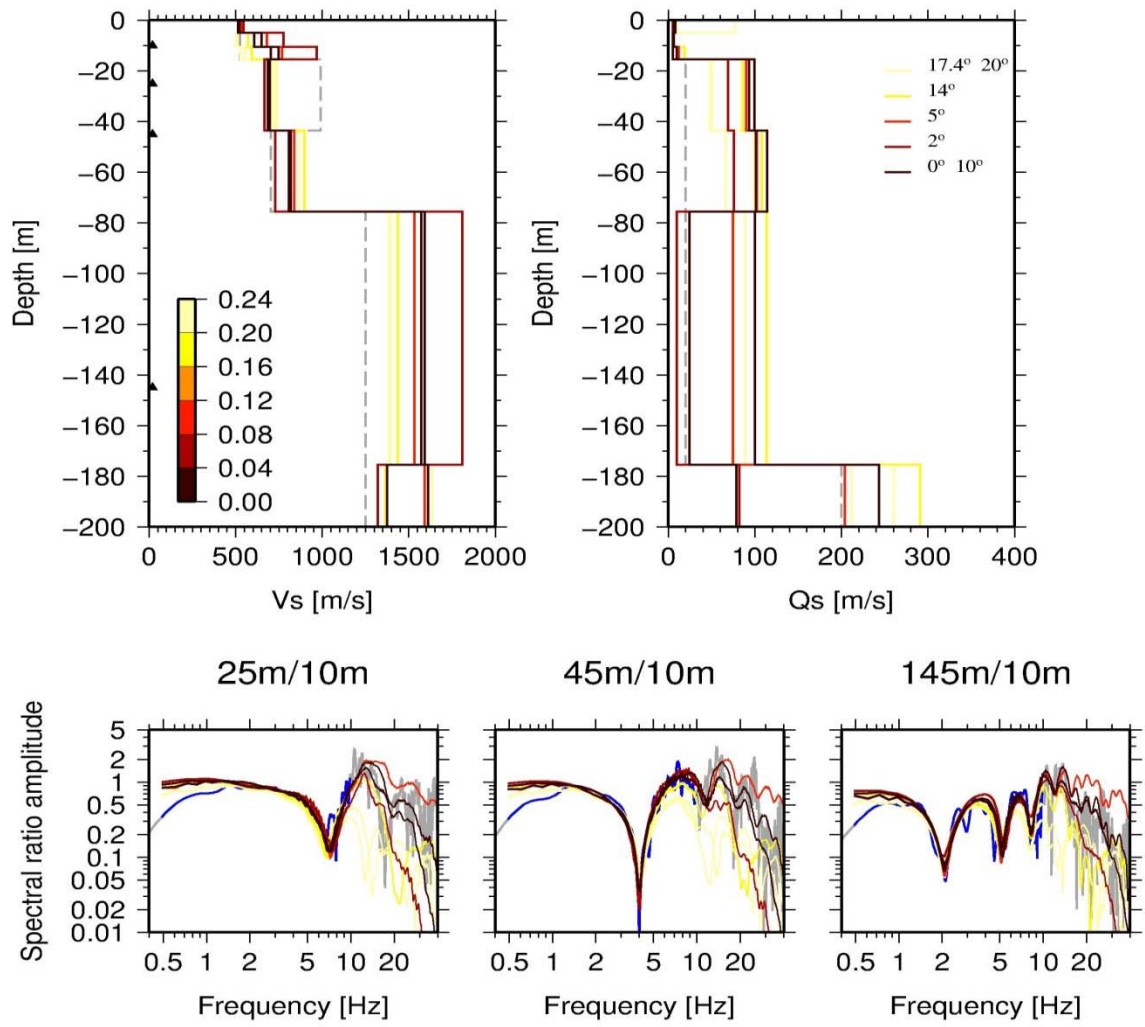
352

353 **Figure 3**



354

355 **Figure 4.**



356

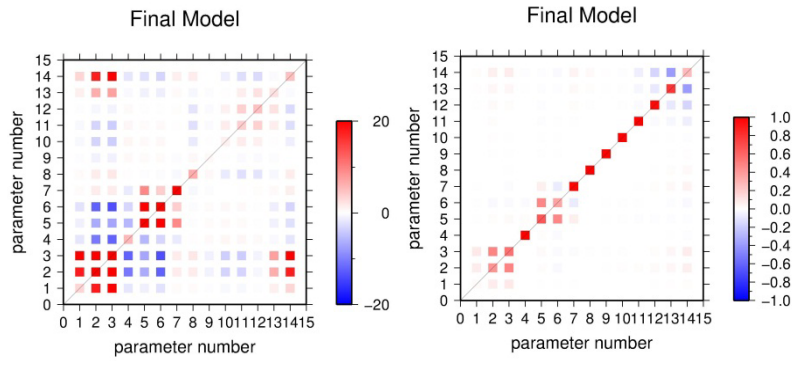
357 **Figure 5.**

358

359

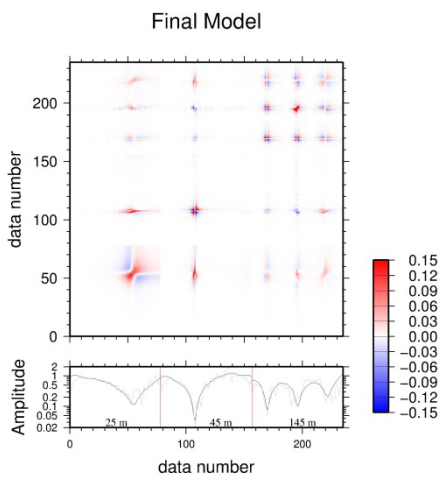
360

361



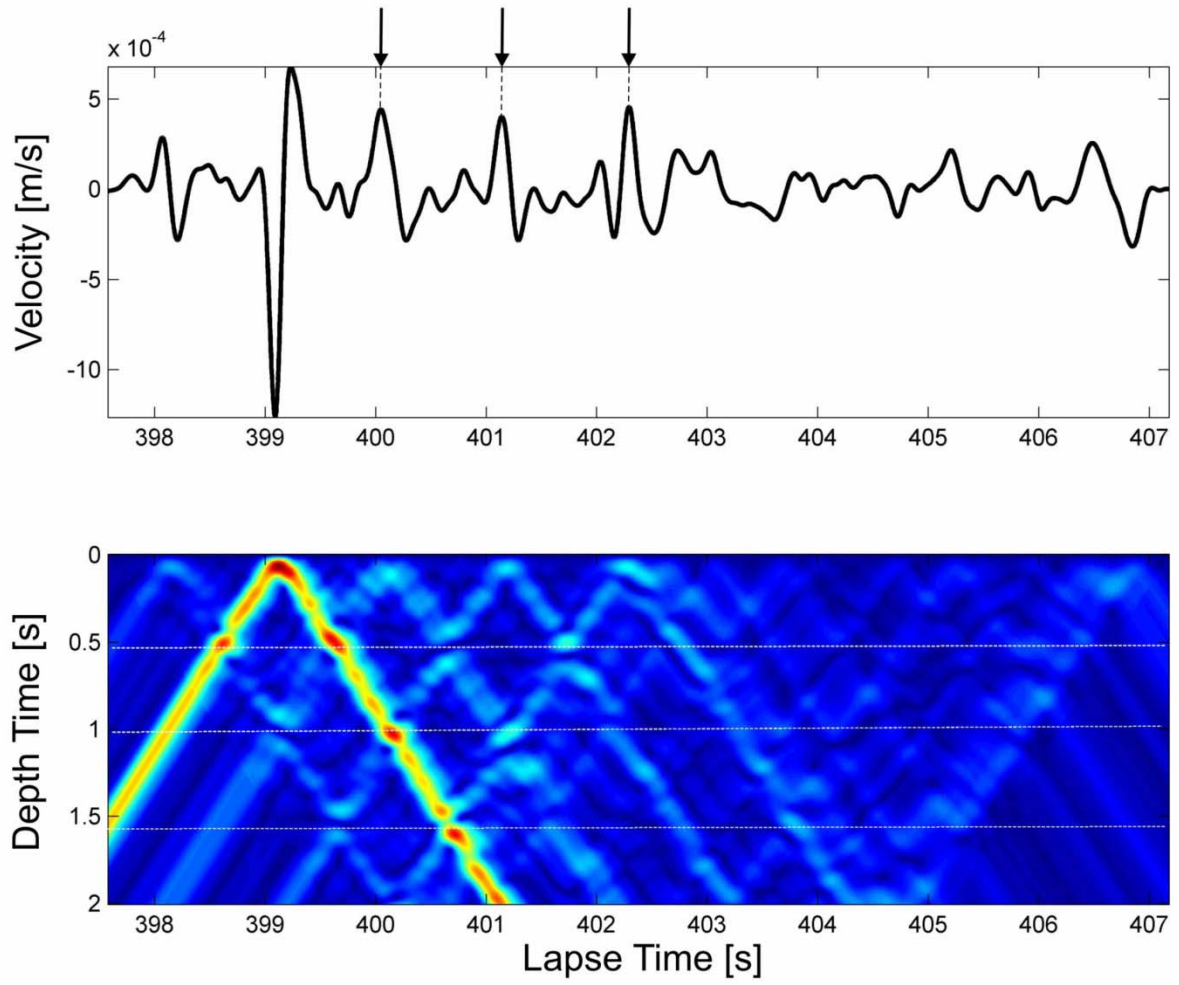
362

363



364

365 **Figure 6.**



366

367 **Figure 7.**

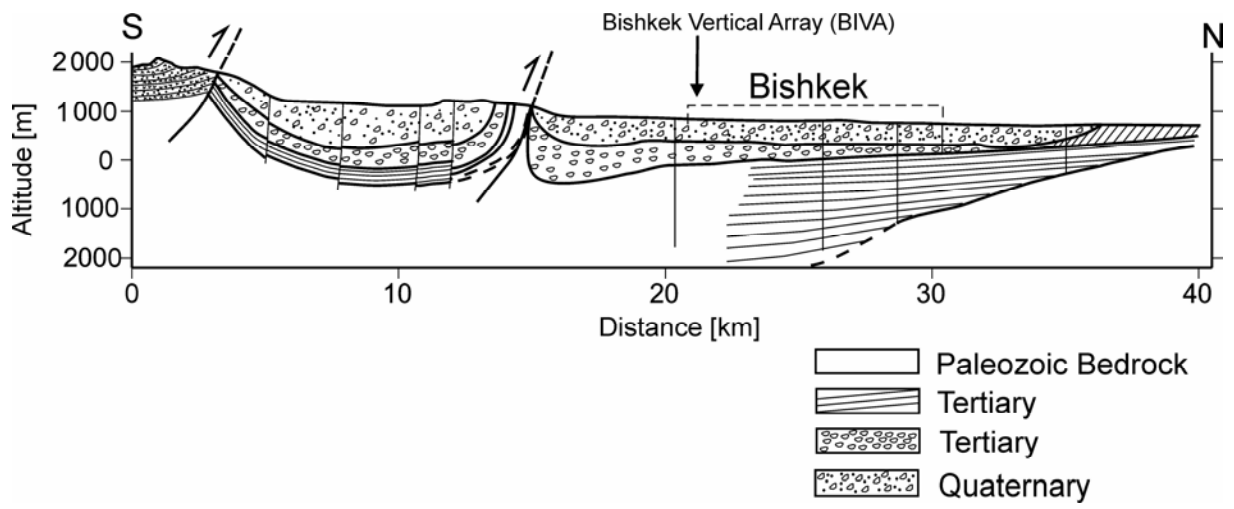
368

369

370

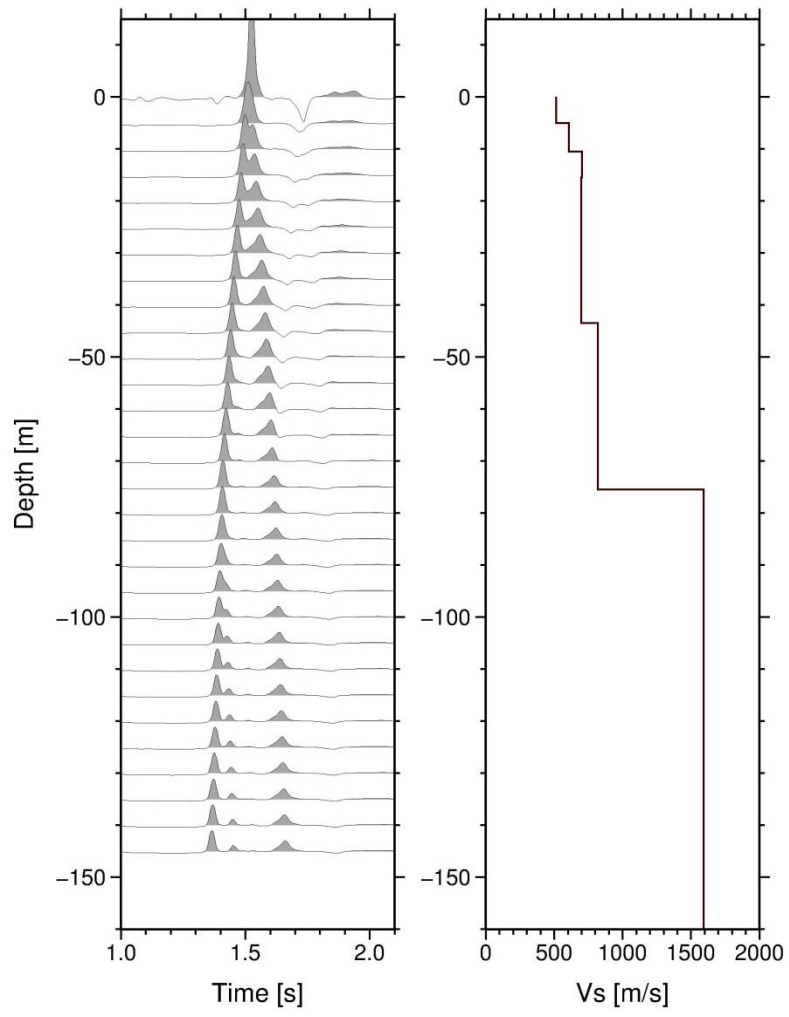
371





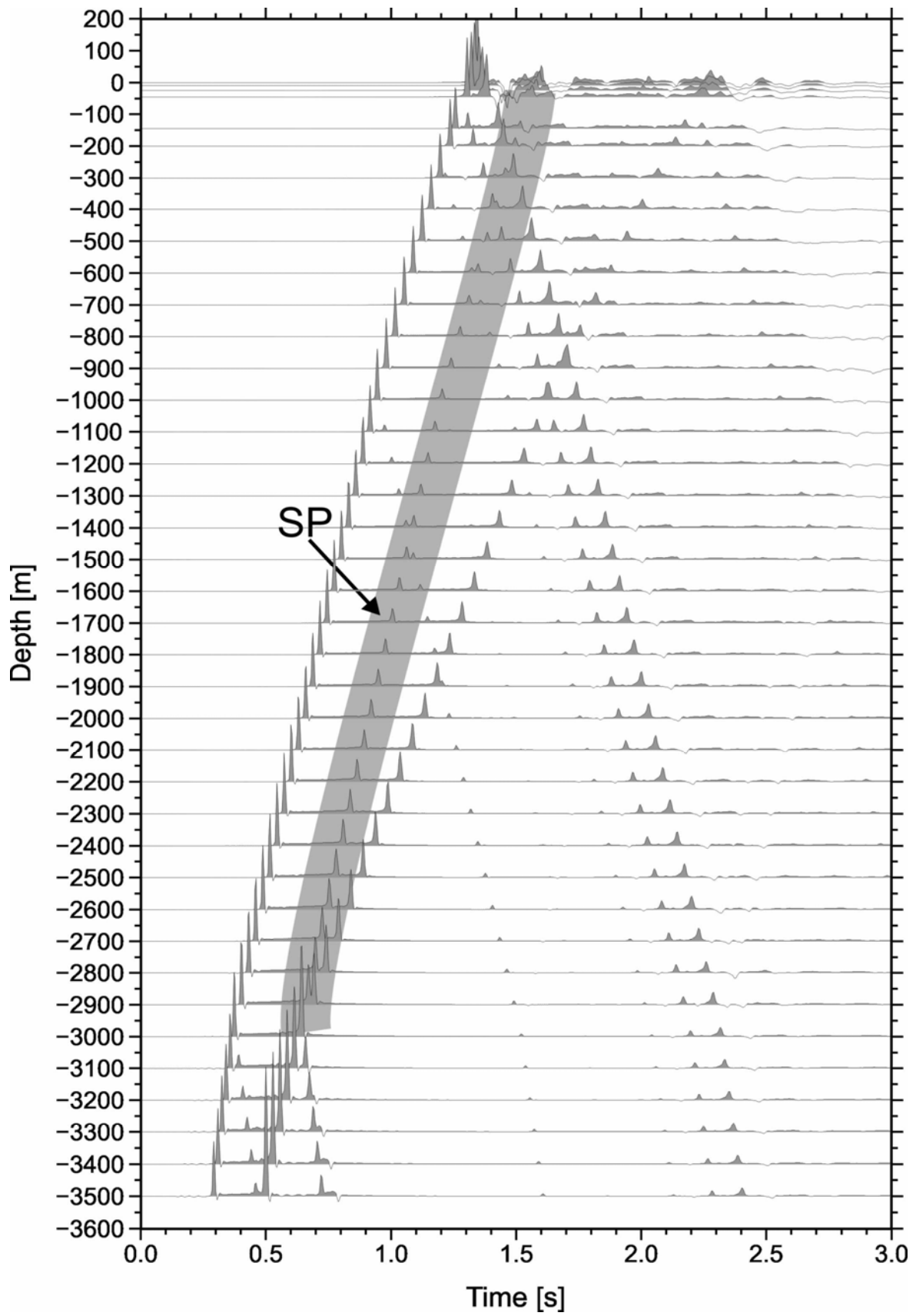
372

373 **Figure8.**



374

375 **Figure 9.**



376

377 **Figure 10.**

378 **Figure 1:** Map of the area under investigation. The white square indicates the position of the  
379 vertical array. The focal mechanism of the 18 March 2011 earthquake is depicted at the  
380 epicenter position. The BIVA vertical array stratigraphic column is shown to the right.

381

382 **Figure 2.** Top panels: Horizontal and vertical ground accelerations recorded at different  
383 depths. Bottom panels: Radial and transverse components of acceleration of ground motion  
384 obtained after rotation. The P, SP and S phase arrivals are indicated.

385

386 **Figure 3.** The 5% damping pseudo-acceleration response spectra for the different  
387 components of ground motion at different depths.

388

389 **Figure 4.** Top panels: (From left to right) The signal windows used for the polarization  
390 analysis of the P, SP and S-waves recorded at 10 m depth. Black is the vertical component of  
391 acceleration, red the radial one. Middle panels: (From left to right) the polarization of the P,  
392 SP, and S-waves. The horizontal axis indicates the radial component, the vertical axis the  
393 vertical one. Bottom panel: The vertical and radial components of the acceleration at 10 m  
394 depth after low pass filtering (10 Hz).

395

396 **Figure 5.** Top left hand panel: the best fitting Vs models obtained after the inversion of the  
397 spectra of the deconvolved wavefield. Different colors indicate different degrees of fit  
398 obtained for different incidence angle of the wavefield. The dashed gray line indicates the

399 starting model of the inversion. Top right-hand-panel: The same as for the left, but for  $Q_s$ .  
400 Bottom panels: Observed (gray line) and calculated (color lines) deconvolved wavefield  
401 spectra for the best fitting. The blue line indicate the frequency band used in the inversion.  
402 Different colors indicate the different degree of fit obtained for different incidence angle of  
403 the wavefield.

404

405 **Figure 6.** Top left-hand panel: Model covariance matrix . Top right-hand panel: Model  
406 resolution matrix . Bottom : Data resolution matrix and observed and calculated data. All  
407 the matrices are for the best fit final model.

408

409 **Figure 7.** Top: Transverse component velocity time history at 10 m depth. Arrows indicate  
410 the reflected waves. Bottom: Instantaneous power of the decomposed rays in the  $(t, \tau)$   
411 domain, where  $t$  is the lapse time and  $\tau$  the depth time.

412

413 **Figure8.** The north-south geological cross-section of the Bishkek basin redrawn after Baeva  
414 (1999).

415

416 **Figure 9.** Left-hand panel: Synthetic seismogram for SH waves propagating in the estimated  
417  $V_s$  velocity structure. Right-hand panel: the  $V_s$  velocity structure.

418

419 **Figure 10.** Synthetic seismograms showing the propagation of the P-SV wavefield in the  
420 approximated geological structure below the BIVA array. The gray area indicates the SP  
421 converted phase.