

with axial thermal structure, where regions of low and high numbers of events correspond to thinner (hotter) and thicker (colder) lithosphere.

Bohnenstiehl et al. (2002, 2003) and Dziak et al. (2004a) used hydrophone seismicity at the MAR to quantify the completeness level of the hydrophone earthquake catalog (magnitude  $\geq 2.5$ ) and the temporal distribution of ridge-crest aftershock sequences. Location comparisons again demonstrated significant improvements relative to more distant land-based seismic monitoring (Bohnenstiehl and Tolstoy, 2003; Pan and Dziewonski, 2005).

Dziak et al. (2004b) showed that a 2001 earthquake swarm at Lucky Strike Seamount (MAR at 37°N) was likely caused by magma intrusion. Subsequent submersible observations confirmed increased venting and microbial activity at the summit. Goslin et al. (2005) documented several large earthquake sequences along the Reykjanes Ridge south of Iceland. These sequences exhibited spatio-temporal patterns consistent with involvement of magmatic or hydrothermal processes. Escartín et al. (2008) showed that high rates of hydroacoustic seismicity at the northern MAR correlate with the locations of detachment faults that bring lower crust and upper mantle rocks to the seafloor and are typically associated with hydrothermal activity. Simao et al. (2010) showed that *T*-phase earthquakes along the MAR north and south of the Azores tend to cluster on mantle Bouguer gravity anomaly maxima. Most of these clusters seemed to be caused by magma intrusion and propagation along the ridge axis. An array of eight hydrophones is currently deployed along the equatorial MAR.

The results of this monitoring effort are expected to provide new insight into volcano-tectonic processes along this poorly understood section of the ridge.

Royer et al. (2008) located more than 2,000 *T*-phase earthquakes during a 16-month deployment of autonomous hydrophones in the Indian Ocean. Southeast Indian Ridge seismicity occurs predominantly along transform faults, the Southwest Indian Ridge exhibits some periodicity in earthquake activity between adjacent ridge segments, and two large tectono-volcanic earthquake swarms were observed along the Central Indian Ridge near the triple junction.

Autonomous hydrophone arrays also have been deployed at two back-arc spreading centers, the Bransfield Strait in Antarctica (Dziak et al., 2010) and the Lau Basin in the western Pacific (Bohnenstiehl et al., 2010). The Bransfield Strait array detected 3,900 earthquakes during a two-year deployment, including eight earthquake swarms located on the 400 km long central rift zone. Only five months of the Lau Basin data have been analyzed to date; however, preliminary results indicate many of the 26,900 earthquakes detected so far are focused on the main transform (Peggy Ridge) and the large (~ 50 km) overlapping spreading center in the region.

#### Additional Cabled and Deployed Hydroacoustic Arrays

Sohn and Hildebrand (2001) used the Spinnaker hydrophone array (Figure 3) in the Arctic Ocean to detect tectonic earthquakes from the Gakkel Ridge and further established the effectiveness of using of *T*-phases in the Arctic for long-range earthquake detection beneath the ice canopy. Schlindwein

et al. (2005) deployed seismometers on an Arctic iceflow to record the acoustic phases of volcanic explosions from the Gakkel Ridge. During 11 days, a total of 200 explosions were located at a large volcanic center, and a recent lava flow was discovered in 1999 (Edwards et al., 2001).

OBHs also have been used to study ridge-crest seismicity. Kong et al. (1992) employed seven OBHs to detect micro-earthquakes over a three-week period from the TAG segment of the MAR at 26°N. The high seismicity levels at 26°N have recently been interpreted as due to slip on the local detachment fault (deMartin et al., 2007). Sohn et al. (1999) recorded microseismicity using OBHs following a large eruption at Axial Volcano on the Juan de Fuca Ridge in 1998. These local earthquakes were interpreted as either slip along the caldera rim fault or shear along the volcano's southeast flank. Haxel et al. (2010) have maintained an array of four OBHs within Axial's summit caldera since 2006. The OBHs have recorded thousands of earthquakes annually, which have steadily increased through time, consistent with geodetic observations of caldera floor uplift caused by a renewed influx of magma (Nooner and Chadwick, 2009) and leading to discovery of a summit eruption in April 2011.

During 2010, NEPTUNE Canada, a fiber-optic cabled node of deep-sea sensors deployed along the northern Juan de Fuca Ridge, became operational (Barnes and Tunncliffe, 2008). The node's seismometers and hydrophones are deployed on and off the ridge axis. The acoustic phases of hundreds of earthquakes from the ridge and nearby transforms have been recorded to date.



### International Monitoring System

During the late 1990s, a global real-time system of radionuclide, seismic, infrasound, and hydroacoustic sensors was constructed to support a Comprehensive Nuclear Test Ban. This infrastructure is collectively known as the International Monitoring System (IMS; Figure 3).

The hydroacoustic component consists of five island-based seismic stations and six cabled hydrophone installations at Diego Garcia, Cape Lueewin, and Crozet Island in the Indian Ocean; Juan Fernandez and Wake Islands in the Pacific; and Ascension Island in the Atlantic. Each hydrophone station hosts a set of three sound-channel moored sensors deployed as a small-aperture (~ 2 km) horizontal array, allowing the direction of incoming acoustic energy to

be determined and therefore enhancing the location capabilities afforded by the relatively sparse network.

Hanson and Bowman (2005) used *T*-phases recorded on the IMS stations in the Indian Ocean to locate 1,146 earthquakes from the Central and Southeast Indian Ridges during a 10-month period in 2003. The Indian Ocean *T*-phase seismicity clustered at ridge-transform intersections, with several gaps in earthquake activity occurring within ridge segments. Other projects have used *T*-phase seismicity to study the diffuse nature of the plate boundary system along the Indian Ocean spreading centers and the organization of transform faults within the basin (e.g., Bohnenstiehl et al., 2004b; Yun et al., 2009).

### THE FUTURE OF MID-OCEAN RIDGE MONITORING

It is interesting to speculate upon what developments will occur in deep-ocean acoustic monitoring. Recent improvements in autonomous underwater vehicle (AUV) technology will lead to the next significant advancement in hydroacoustic monitoring. A recent example occurred when an ocean glider capable of satellite data transmission was flown around an erupting volcano with a hydrophone in its payload (Matsumoto et al., 2011). One can envision a constellation of gliders or autonomous floats (e.g., Simons et al., 2009) circling large regions of the world's MORs, screening acoustic signals for volcano-tectonic seismicity and reporting on the latest eruption or seafloor spreading event.

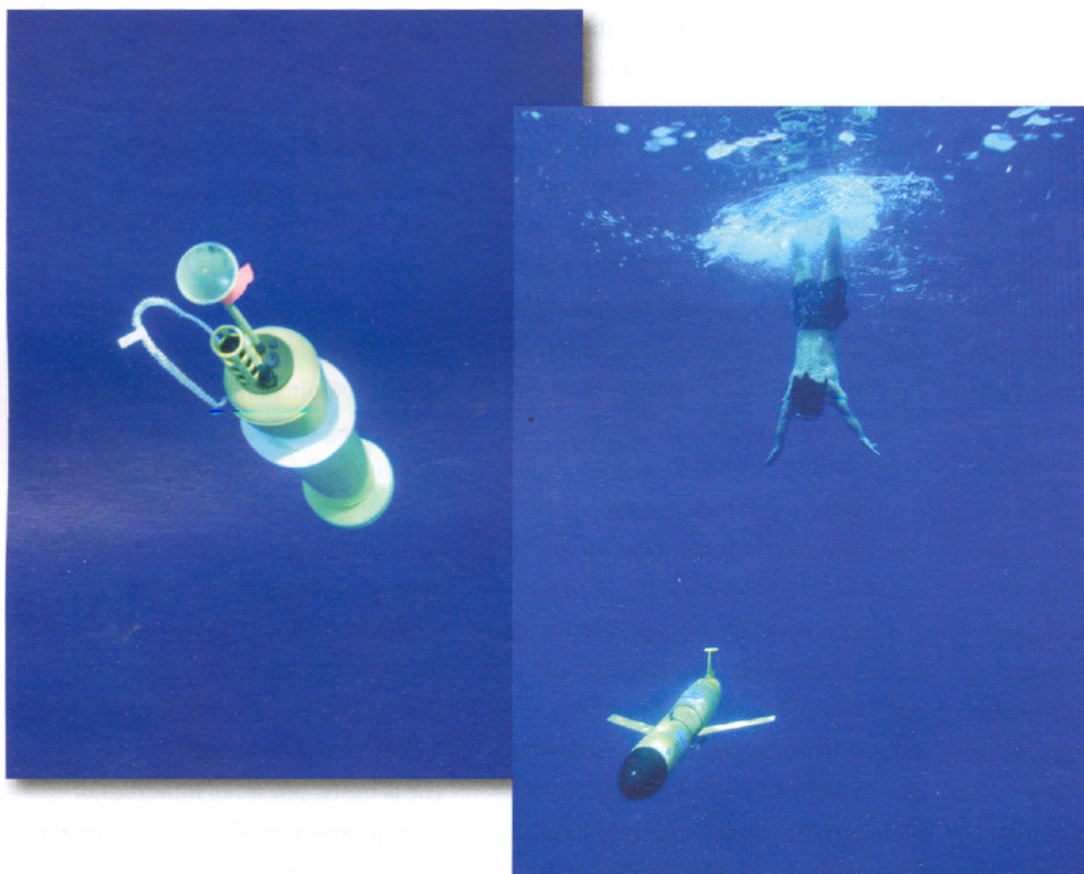


Figure 5. (Left) Image of quasi-Eulerian autonomous hydrophone (Que-phone) float. The Que-phone self controls buoyancy and can perform several ascent/descent cycles to survey the ocean sound field from seafloor to sea surface. (Right) image of an ocean glider (Webb Research Inc.) with a hydrophone and recording package mounted on the platform (Matsumoto et al., 2011). The glider is capable of a more structured survey methodology and can vertically and laterally survey the water column over a several tens of square kilometers. Haru Matsumoto is shown for scale.



Within the next few years, the US Regional Scale Nodes, a counterpart to the NEPTUNE Canada initiative, will instrument portions of the Juan de Fuca Ridge. The Axial Volcano node will include an array of seafloor seismometers and at least one hydrophone moored in the water column. These systems will enable real-time, in situ, seismo-acoustic monitoring of ridge-crest volcanic activity, albeit a spatially limited view of Northeast Pacific spreading center dynamics.


Ocean glider and AUV technology will continue to improve in both physical maneuverability and the quality and amount of data collected (Figure 5). Perhaps future developments will allow for deployment of a shoal of platforms with multiple hydrophones, which can beamform and localize acoustic sources while at sea. The instruments will then transmit their findings in real time back to shore-based researchers via satellite. Undoubtedly, future military assets will improve on the capability of the current SOSUS hydrophone system, and we optimistically envision a future military-civilian, dual-use program where the latest technology will be available to the ocean science community for deep-ocean research.

## SUMMARY

Over the last 84 years since hydro-acoustic *T*-phases were first discovered, there have been profound advances in our understanding of the physical means by which *T*-phases are generated, how they propagate, the variety of volcano-tectonic settings where they are created, and the hydroacoustic technologies used to detect them. This paper focused on the acoustic phases detected

from mid-ocean ridges and how this information was used to provide insight into spreading center processes. Given the expected improvements in global, deep-ocean monitoring technologies during the next century, we foresee a time when even a segment-scale magmatic or seafloor spreading event will be detected as it happens anywhere in the deep ocean.

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