- 1 This is a non-peer-reviewed pre-print of a manuscript
- ² which has been submitted for consideration.
- ³ Manuscript title: Array-based seismic measurements of
- 4 OSIRIS-REx's re-entry
- 5 Authors: Fernando, B. et al

Array-based seismic measurements of OSIRIS-REx's re-entry

Benjamin A. Fernando¹, Constantinos Charalambous², Nick Schmerr³, Timothy J. Craig⁴, Jonathan Wolf⁵, Kevin Lewis¹, Eleanor K. Sansom^{6,7}, Christelle Saliby⁸, Meaghan McCleary⁹, Jennifer Inman¹⁰, Justin LaPierre¹¹, Miro Ronac Giannone¹², Karen Pearson¹³, Michael Fleigle¹⁴, Carene Larmat¹⁵, Ozgur Karatekin¹⁶, Lavender Elle Hanson¹⁰, Shivani Baliyan¹⁷, David Buttsworth¹⁸, Hiu Ching Jupiter Cheng¹⁹, Neeraja S. Chinchalkar²⁰, Luke Daly²¹, Hadrien A. R. Devillepoix⁴, Aly Muhammad Gajani²², Carina T. Gerritzen²³, Harish²⁴, Daniel C. Hicks²⁵, Roy Johnson²⁶, Sabrina Y. Khan¹⁰, Sarah N. Lamm²⁷, Cara Pesciotta¹⁰, Tom Rivlin²⁸, Lucie Rolland²⁹, Maxwell Marzban Thiemens³⁰, Alice R. Turner³¹, and Fabian Zander¹⁸

Abstract

The return home of the OSIRIS-REx spacecraft in September 2023 marked only the fifth time that an artificial object entered the Earth's atmosphere at interplanetary velocities. Although rare, such events serve as valuable analogues for natural meteoroid re-entries; enabling study of hypersonic dynamics, shockwave generation, and acoustic-to-seismic coupling. Here, we report on the signatures recorded by a dense (100-m scale) 11-station array located almost directly underneath the capsule's point of peak atmospheric heating in northern Nevada. Seismic data are presented which allow inferences to be made about the shape of the shockwave's footprint on the surface, the capsule's trajectory, and its flight parameters.

Cite this article as Fernando, B. et al (2022). Array-based seismic measurements of OSIRIS-REx's re-entry, *Seismol. Res. Lett.* XX, 2–12, doi: 00.0000/00000000.

Supplemental Material

1. Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland, United States, https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7321-8401 BF, D https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3412-803X KL, D https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2298-8382 LEH, https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4212-4848 SK, https://orcid.org/0009-0007-6910-6347 CP; 2. Department of Electrical and Electronic Engineering, Imperial College London, London, United Kingdom, D https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9139-3895 CC; 3. Department of Geology, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland, United States, https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3256-1262 NS; 4. Institute of Geophysics and Tectonics, School of Earth and Environment, University of Leeds, Leeds, United Kingdom, bttps://orcid.org/0000-0003-2198-9172 TC; 5. Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences, University of California, Berkeley, California, United States, b https://orcid.org/https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5440-3791 JW; 6. International Centre for Radio Astronomy Research, Space Science and Technology Centre, Curtin University, Perth, Western Australia, Australia, b https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2702-673X ES, bttps://orcid.org/0000-0001-9226-1870 HD; 7. Space Science and Technology Centre, School of Earth and Planetary Science, Curtin University, Perth, Australia, ¹⁰ https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2702-673X ES; 8. Observatoire de la Côte d'Azur, Université Côte d'Azur, CNRS, IRD, Géoazur, Valbonne, France, D https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0101-723X CS; 9. Analytical Mechanics Associates, Inc./NASA Langley Research Center, Hampton, Virginia, United States, https://orcid.org/0009-0008-5233-2820 MM; 10. NASA Langley Research Center, Hampton, Virginia, United States, b https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6213-3181 JI; 11. Sandia National Laboratories, Albuquerque, New Mexico, United States, D https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9377-6331 JL; 12. Department of Earth Sciences, Southern Methodist University, Dallas, Texas, United States, b https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8752-2263 MRG; 13. Independent Researcher, Bowie, Maryland, United States, KP; 14. Sandia National Laboratories, Albuquerque, New Mexico, United States, MF; 15. Los Alamos National Laboratory, New Mexico, United States, 10 https://orcid.org/00000002-3607-7558 CL; 16. Royal Observatory of Belgium, Uccle, Belgium, https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0153-7291 OK; 17. Independent Researcher, Boulder, Colorado, United States, https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9475-0870 SB; 18. Institute for Advanced Engineering and Space Sciences, University of Southern Queensland, Queensland, Australia, https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6787-9580 DB, (1) https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0597-9556 FZ; 19. Department of Geological Sciences, University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa, Alabama, USA, https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0883-5059 JC; 20. University of Western D Ontario, London, Ontario, Canada, b https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3541-3791 NC; 21. School of Geographical and Earth Sciences, University of Glasgow, Glasgow, United Kingdom, D https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7150-4092 LD; 22. Institute of Space Science and Technology, University of Karachi, Karachi, Pakistan, D https://orcid.org/0009-0001-5249-9873 AMG; 23. Archaeology, Environmental Changes & Geo-Chemistry, Vrije Universiteit Brussel, Brussels, Belgium, https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1494-2643 CTG; 24. Laboratory for Atmospheric and Space Physics, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado, United States, D https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4152-4295 H; 25. United States Department of Defense (KBR Consultant), Las Cruces, New Mexico, United States, DCH; 26. NASA Ames Research Center, Moffett Field, California, United States, https://orcid.org/0009-0008-9028-9843 RJ; 27. Earth, Energy, and Environment Centre, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas, United States, D https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3810-1213 SNL; 28. Atominstitut, Technische Universität Wien, Vienna, Austria, D https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9275-2917 TR; 29. Laboratoire Géoazur - Université de Nice Côte d'Azur, b https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5197-963X LR; 30. Department of Geosciences, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, Scotland, 10 https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7835-4402 MMT; 31. Institute for Geophysics, University of Texas, Austin, Texas, United States, D https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3743-6428 ART *Corresponding author: bfernan9@jh.edu © Seismological Society of America

2 Seismological Research Letters

6 Introduction

7 Sample return capsules and seismoacoustics

8 Sample return capsules arriving from deep space are the

9 only artificial objects which re-enter the Earth's atmosphere

10 at speeds and trajectories comparable to natural meteoroids.

This makes them ideal for studying hypersonic re-entry dynamics as said capsules have known mass, dimension, speed, and trajectory (Silber et al., 2023). Because they have known parameters, they can serve as controlled analogues for natural objects during the EDL (Entry, Descent, and Landing) phase of the mission.

In seismoacoustic studies of meteor phenomena, the 17 atmospheric shockwaves and low-frequency sound pro-18 duced by natural meteoroids re-entering the atmosphere are 19 used to identify and track them on either infrasound sensors 20 or seismometers (e.g. Edwards et al. (2008)). The complexi-21 ties of shockwave generation and propagation down through 22 the turbulent atmosphere (and coupling into the ground 23 in the case of seismic recordings) mean that recordings 24 of hypersonic capsules acting as 'artificial meteoroids' are 25 particularly valuable in understanding the seismoacoustic 26 processes involved. 27

Such events are rare, having occurred only four times on Earth previously. ReVelle et al. (2005) made seismic and acoustic measurements of NASA's Genesis spacecraft's EDL, and ReVelle and Edwards (2007) did the same for NASA's Stardust. More recently, comparable measurements were made during the EDLs of two JAXA missions, Hayabusa and Hayabusa2 (Yamamoto et al., 2011; Sansom et al., 2022).

The potential value of such recordings for being able to study shockwave propagation and air-to-ground coupling in particular also resulted in two (unsuccessful) attempts by NASA's InSight spacecraft to record EDLs seismoacoustically on Mars, of NASA's Mars 2020 mission (Fernando et al., 2021, 2022) and China's Tianwen-1 (Fernando et al., 2021).

41 The OSIRIS-REx mission

In September 2023, the OSIRIS-REx (ORX) sample return 42 capsule became the fifth artificial object to re-enter the 43 Earth's atmosphere at interplanetary speeds. With many 44 improvements in instrumentation having been made since 45 Stardust's landing in 2006, the ORX EDL presented an ideal 46 opportunity to make seismoacoustic measurements of an 47 'artificial meteoroid' re-entry over a similar geographical 48 area to two previous missions. 49

A number of different teams took part in this instrumentation campaign, using both ground-based and airborne infrasound sensors, and conventional and optical seismometers. For a full review of the instruments deployed as part of this campaign see Silber et al. (2024). Fernando et al. (2024) presented initial results from a separate part of this observation campaign, using a single seismic-acoustic station from

⁵⁷ which the data was live-streamed over the internet.

EDL profile

In this section, we briefly describe the planned trajectory of ORX between atmospheric interface and peak heating. Note that all times and locations are based on pre-landing model predictions (e.g. Ajluni et al. (2015)), as a post-landing 'asflown' trajectory has not yet been released.

Atmospheric interface was due to occur over the Pacific Ocean, west of San Francisco, California at 14:41:55 UTC on Sunday, 2023-09-24. The defined altitude of interface was 132 km, at which time the spacecraft was expected to be travelling at approximately Mach 25 (43,000 km/h; 11.9 km/s).

At the point of peak atmospheric heating from frictional 70 drag, the capsule was expected to be in the mesosphere 71 at around 62 km altitude over 39.5585°N, 116.3852°W in 72 northern Nevada. This is a relatively remote region with no 73 permanent seismometers within several dozen kilometres, 74 and we are not aware of any publicly accessible infrasound 75 stations within the wider area. This necessitated deploy-76 ment of these temporary seismic arrays. 77

Temperatures during peak heating were expected to reach approximately 3100 K at a speed of Mach 30 (39,000 km/h; 10.8 km/s) and a deceleration approaching 300 m/s² (31 g). Note that the Mach number at peak heating is actually higher than at atmospheric interface despite the capsule's deceleration, due to the increase in sound speed with altitude through the thermosphere.

As the point of peak heating is where the maximum amount of energy is being dissipated into the atmosphere, the expectation was for an intense shockwave to be generated in this area. This shock was expected to transition to a linear acoustic wave during propagation down through the atmosphere and be audible at the surface as a sonic boom.

On a seismic network, the sonic booms themselves are 91 primarily recorded via the production of an itinerant strain 92 field in response to the surface loading and unloading from 93 wavefront-induced compression and rarefaction (Kanamori 94 et al., 1992). Small contributions to the observed displace-95 ment after the initial motion may also come about from 96 more complex effects, such as compliance-induced ground 97 deformation (Sorrells, 1971; Kenda et al., 2020). 98

Instrumentation campaign

The deployment discussed in this paper involved eleven100individual seismic stations, each consisting of a three-axis101Fairfield ZLand 3C Nodes set to 24dB gain and 2000 samples102per second.103

The deployment location for these nodes was chosen to be as close to the point of projected peak heating as possible, to try to capture the shockwave at its strongest point. For natural meteoroids, peak emission is expected to occur around the point of peak heating, and hence measurements made

99 100

58

78

79

80

81

82

83

of artificial capsules in this region of flight are of particularinterest as analogues.

The array was located at Bean Flats, on United States 111 Bureau of Land Management land, in an area shared with 112 large herbivorous creatures (cows). Despite the presence of 113 topographic variation in the wider region, this area itself 114 was very flat, with less than 4 m of undulation between 115 the array's centre and edge in any direction. Given a sound-116 speed in air of approximately 330 m/s, this corresponds to 117 a very small elevation-induced correction to phase arrival 118 times, on the order of 0.01 s. 119

Instruments were deployed in a cross-shaped array, with
an instrument spacing of approximately 100 m. This configuration, and wider geographical context, are shown in Fig. 1
alongside the ORX EDL trajectory. The long axis of the array
was chosen to be parallel to ORX's trajectory footprint.

Each instrument was manually levelled and pointed toward north using multiple compasses as references, with errors in orientation estimated to be less than $\pm 2^{\circ}$. The reported GPS coordinates of each station are the mean of readings made on multiple handheld instruments.

The sensors were buried with their tops a few centimetres 130 below the ground's surface to reduce environmental noise. 131 Some of the surface covering was removed by rain and wind 132 (and possibly the actions of the previously mentioned her-133 bivores) between deployment and collection. In particular, 134 signals from instrument 4 (the most uprange) were found to 135 be particularly noisy. The ground at this location was ascer-136 tained to be soft, mostly dry superficial alluvium. Detailed 137 geophysical surveys from this area of Nevada suggest soil 138 properties described by $V_p = 585$ m/s and $V_s = 350$ m/s, 139 Poisson ratio $\nu = 0.22$, and Young's Modulus E = 0.45 MPa 140 (Allander and Berger, 2009). 141

142 Seismic data

Data were recorded at all eleven stations, and are shown in
Fig. 2. Seismograms were processed by removing the instrument response and Butterworth-bandpass filtering between
1 and 100 Hz. The beam shown in 4 uses a slightly broader
frequency range, 2 to 200 Hz.

148 Detailed N-wave structure

A clear, rounded (smoothed) N-wave signature is observed
just after 14:46:04.5 UTC. A downwards, near-instantaneous
first motion associated with the acoustic compression is followed by an upwards ground motion associated with the
atmospheric rarefaction.

The rounding of the N-wave is characteristic of a shockwave which has decayed in the turbulent atmosphere (in particular the planetary boundary layer) to become a linear sound wave, though retaining its characteristic N-wave shape in a more rounded form (Ben-Menahem and Singh, 1981; Plotkin, 2002; Pierce and Maglieri, 1972). The arrival time is commensurate with the expected capsule overflight a few minutes previously (around 14:42 UTC). The overall duration of the N-wave phase within the wavetrain is around 0.20-0.25 s, depending on which station is examined and how the end of the rarefaction period is chosen (we use the first zero-crossing after the rarefaction).

Differences are observed in the structure of the rounded N-wave (Fig. 2), even between stations which are separated by only 100 m. Frequencies up to 500 Hz are recorded at some stations (e.g., 2 and 10), while others (e.g., 1 and 3) are limited to highest frequencies around 400 Hz. The rarefaction has a narrower frequency content than the compression, and is accordingly broader.

The most significant origins of these differences are likely 173 propagation effects associated with inhomogeneity and tur-174 bulence in the atmosphere (Pierce and Maglieri, 1972) and 175 local variations in sediment properties (causing different 176 coupling behaviour, McDonald and Goforth (1969)). The 177 spatially varying nature of the seismic source itself (i.e., the 178 fact that the capsule is descending and decelerating over 179 time) may also have had a small effect. 180

We now consider a more detailed analysis of the signal recorded at a single station, as shown in Fig. 3. These data are for station 1, as it is located at the array centre, but similar features are recorded across the array.

As per Fig. **3A)**, the N-wave is most clearly detectable on the vertical component, as is expected for a wavefront travelling almost vertically downward (McDonald and Goforth, **1969**).

Fig. **3B)** shows a vertical component spectrogram. Weak 189 background noise, with energy predominantly at frequen-190 cies up to 30 Hz, is apparent before the rounded N-wave 191 arrival. The amplitude variations across the array (higher 192 noise levels closer to the road), the move-out of the energy, 193 and the identification of similar signatures in the seismic 194 record at a later time (15:25-15:27 UTC) collectively indi-195 cate a vehicular origin for this particular noise source. This 196 is discussed further in the Traffic section. 197

Finally, Fig. **3C**) shows the ground particle motion associated with the initial N-wave (orange) and the rest of the wavetrain (blue). The overwhelmingly vertical motion associated with the N-wave is clear. A potential elliptical polarisation can be seen in the rest of the wavetrain, suggesting the presence of Rayleigh waves here.

Slowness and origin azimuth



Figure 1. Top panel: the ORX EDL trajectory (side view), from the point of atmospheric interface to landing. Bottom panel: geographical context (top-down view) of the trajectory. We refer to directions towards landing as 'downrange' and those towards atmospheric interface as 'uprange'. The inset panel shows the seismometer array deployment. Note that the long

arm of the array is parallel to the expected trajectory (i.e. runs uprange/downrange). The cross arm is perpendicular to the trajectory (i.e. crossrange). The lateral distance between the centre-line of the array and the trajectory footprint on the ground is approximately 2300 m.

$$\mu = \arcsin\frac{1}{M} \tag{1}$$

2

where M is the Mach number, in this case 30 – corresponding to an opening angle of 1.9°. This narrow Mach cone means that the seismic source may effectively be considered to be a cylinder (Karakostas et al., 2018). The acoustic rays themselves are emitted at the complement of the Mach angle (Cates and Sturtevant, 2002), which in this case is 88.1°, i.e., nearly normal to the shock front.

The intersection of the Mach cone with the ground produces a hyperbola along which a sonic boom is audible, and the passage of the hyperbola over the surface sweeps out a221sonic boom 'carpet'. As per Eqn. 1, the hyberbolic footprint222also becomes narrower with increasing Mach number.223



Figure 2. Seismic data recorded by the array. Traces are vertical ground velocity in the 1-100 Hz range and are arranged in **A**) by downrange distance from the westernmost station in the arra and in **B**) by cross-range distance from the

northernmost station. Station numbers are indicated in red on the left hand side. The weak signal at station 4 is thought to be due to issues with the instrument, which displayed higher noise levels throughout the deployment.

the array as this is < 4 m across an array aperture of ~ 600 m and hence the impact of elevation variation is small.

The beampack shows the maximum arrival amplitude with a 0.025 s window around the overall maximum amplitude stack, as a function of slowness in east (s_x) and north (s_y) directions. As Figure 4**A**,**B**) shows, there is a clear peak in amplitude associated with wavefront arrival at a slowness of $[s_x, s_y] = [-0.209, -0.063]$. The actual signal is convolved with an array response function leading to amplitude artefacts associated with the orientation of the arms of the array in the uprange and crossrange directions, these are visible as bright lines in the beampack. The fact that the array response function passes slightly northwest of [0,0] in slowness space indicates the array was slightly to the south of the actual re-entry trajectory (consistent with pre-landing pre-245





frequency recorded between different stations. At station 2, a resonance around 200 Hz is also observed, which could correspond to excitation in a thin playa layer around 1-2 m thick. **B)** Velocity spectrogram for the vertical component. **C)** Particle motion, with the N wave shown in orange (14:46:04.4 - 14:46:04.8 UTC) and the remainder of the wavetrain in blue.

dictions, and indicating that the spacecraft was either on or
ever so slightly south of its nominal re-entry line).

The 2D slowness of the wavefront arrival indicates that 248 the point of apparent wavefront emission is at an azimuth 249 of 253° (roughly WSW), and an apparent slowness of 250 0.214 s/km. The derived azimuth is very close to the pre-251 landing nominal prediction of 2490. The beampacked is 252 extremely well resolved, given the frequency of the over-253 pressure wave and array aperture. The vespagrams in Figure 254 4C,D) show evidence for either a slight variation in slowness 255 across the array, or equivalently, the detection of wavefront 256 curvature. In this case, where source-array distance is likely 257 to be only around two orders of magnitude higher than 258 the array aperture, slight wavefront curvature is more likely 259 than the impact of a consistent atmospheric gradient on the 260 lengthscale of the array aperture. The latter would also be 261 expected given that the sonic boom footprint on the ground 262 is a hyperbola. 263

264 Source location analysis

Given the azimuth and slowness resolution of the array, we are also able to estimate origin location of the shockwave. Without a full atmospheric model and inversion of the data, which are beyond the scope of this paper, this involves making a number of assumptions.

Firstly, we assume that the sonic boom can be repre-270 sented as a plane wave propagating through the atmosphere, 271 which, as we justify above, is an approximation which is 272 reasonable in the far-field. Secondly, we assume that the 273 shockwave has decayed sufficiently such that it propagates 274 at the speed of sound v_0 , which we calculate to be 332 m/s 275 (see Weather section for more details on this calculation). 276 Geometrically, we consider the apparent slowness ($s_{app} =$ 277 $\frac{1}{v_{ann}}$) of the wavefront across the array (e.g. Rost and Thomas 278

$$s_{app} = \frac{\sin\theta}{v_0} \tag{2}$$

In the downrange direction, the apparent velocity v_{app} of 281 the wavefront across the array is 4,581 m/s. Note that this 282 is an apparent, rather than physical, velocity and yields an 283 estimated angle of emission which is 4.15° from the vertical. 284 This is the equivalent point-source angle of emission, and 285 does not reproduce the actual, extended-line source nature 286 of the capsule as a seismic source; but it does indicate that 287 the signal was produced almost exactly overhead the array, 288 as expected. When combined with the derived bearing from 289 the previous section of 253°, this indicates an origin for 290 the shockwave which is slightly to the south-west of the 291 array and almost vertically above it. Note that this result 292 also suggests that the effects of atmospheric refraction of the 293 acoustic rays is minimal, as each different layer of the verti-294

cally stratified atmosphere is encountered at a near-normal angle to its interface. 296

Pre- and post-cursors

Similarly to Fernando et al. (2024), no clear pre-cursor 298 phases are noted, and there are no coherent sources detected 299 by our array. This is as expected, because pre-cursors 300 are normally restricted to settings where the supersonic 301 source is 'slow' as compared to the compressional speed in 302 the ground, such that surface waves induced immediately 303 beneath the source can 'overtake' a slower direct airwave 304 due to the higher wave speeds in the ground (Cook and 305 Goforth, 1970). In this case, the capsule's velocity is very 306 much greater than V_p , thus explaining the absence of pre-307 cursor phases (McDonald and Goforth, 1969). Furthermore, 308 the sound speed in the ground is only slightly higher (less 309 than factor 2) than the sound speed in the air. 310

We do note that there is an increase in noise levels around 14:45:50 UTC, around twenty seconds before the ORX signal (see *Traffic* section for more details). We exclude this as being a pre-cursor, as it arrives too early as compared to the airwave and has a move-out consistent with a vehicular origin, specifically a lorry/truck that arrived at the nearby rest area and idled until 14:47 UTC.

Conversely, a relatively rich set of seismic waves is appar-318 ent immediately after the initial rounded N-wave. These 319 are visible as an extended set of oscillations in Figs. 2A) 320 and B). These have similar slowness to the airwave arrival, 321 and hence are potentially associated with acoustic waves 322 propagating in the atmosphere after the initial compres-323 sion/rarefaction, or longer-duration complex deformation 324 associated with the wavefront's passage over the station. It is 325 also likely that Rayleigh waves are present in this wavetrain. 326 Given that V_s in playa is extremely close to the sound-speed 327 in air, the air-to-ground coupling should be strong. However, 328 this closeness of speeds also makes phase separation chal-329 lenging. 330

Comparison to known flight parameters

331

297

In theory, the detailed seismic recordings made at this array could be inverted for the capsule's trajectory and flight parameters. However, this is extremely challenging in practice, due to the lack of an exact atmospheric state model or an as-flown trajectory.

Nonetheless, we note that a comparison of the boom duration (τ) to theoretical predictions given by Kanamori et al. (1992) is possible. Following the approach of Whitham (1974) (though with slightly different notation, and correction for a missing exponent noted by Kanamori et al. (1992)), given a capsule speed u at height h we expect τ to be approximately given by: 337

$$\tau \approx \frac{2\sqrt{2k_1}k_2h^{\frac{1}{4}}}{u} \tag{3} \qquad 344$$



Figure 4. Array analysis of the ORX re-entry signal. (a) and (b) show the results of a beampack through slowness in x and y, taking the maximum amplitude with \pm -50 samples (0.025 seconds) of the absolute maximum amplitude for the shockwave arrival (at 14:46:04.621 and at a slowness of [-0.209, -0.063]). (c) and (d) show vespagrams in y and x slowness space, respectively. In each vespagram, the other

slowness is fixed at the value giving the absolute maximum amplitude for the shockwave arrival. All plots are normalised to the peak value. (e)-(g) show the optimal-slowness beam for vertical, downrange and crossrange components, respectively in pass band 1 - 100 Hz. All beams are normalised to the peak value of the vertical component beam.

where k_1 is a constant dependent on the ratio of specific heats within the atmosphere γ and the Mach number *M*:

₃₄₇
$$k_1 = \frac{(\gamma + 1)M^4}{\sqrt{2}(M^2 - 1)^{\frac{3}{4}}}$$
 (4)

and k_2 is a constant related to the capsule's geometry,

$$_{349} \quad k_2 = \delta l^{\frac{3}{4}}$$
 (5)

where δ is the ratio of maximum effective capsule radius to capsule length.

For the ORX capsule with radius 0.4 m and length 0.5 m, $k_2 = 0.48$ (noting that in practice, the effective radius of the capsule may be larger due to shockwave stand-off).

Given the nominal pre-landing predictions of h = 62,000 m and u = 10,800 m/s, and assuming a canonical $\gamma = 1.4$ (as per Kanamori et al. (1992), though it is likely lower at M = 30), we derive $k_1 \approx 47,500$. Using the 'effective' (slant) height makes little difference to this calculation given that the capsule is almost directly overhead.

These results yield an estimate of $\tau = 0.43$ s. This is in remarkably close agreement with our measured value of 0.20-0.25 s given the significant simplifications made in the calculation of the constants above and the unknown capsule height and atmospheric conditions at the time of overflight.

Ancillary data

We will briefly discuss ancillary data which was collected 367 as part of this deployment by part of a team of volunteers, 368 working remotely with data provided online by the Nevada 369 Department of Transport (NVDOT). All of this data, and 370 similar readings from nearby potentially of interest to other 371 portions of the ORX EDL instrumentation campaign, are 372 available in our online repository (see Data and Resources 373 section for link). 374

366

375

Weather data

The proximity of the array to US Highway 50 ('The Loneliest 376 Road in America') had the advantage that meteorological 377 data could be sourced from a nearby NVDOT weather sta-378 tion. This station ('US50 Bean Flats Rest Area') was only 379 275 m from the array centrepoint. The closest reading to the 380 capsule's overflight and the arrival of the sonic boom was 381 made at 14:44:00 UTC, with measurements shown in Table 382 1. 383

Whilst the lack of wind during this period represents only a single measurement at the surface, it may be indicative of a quiescent planetary boundary layer at the time in question. This may have led to less turbulent dissipation of the wavefront (one of the sources of rounding in the N-wave). 386

TABLE 1.

Meteorological data recorded by the Nevada Department of Transport Weather Station at US 50 Bean Flats Rest Area at 14:46:00 UTC. Data are shared as provided, surface temperature has been averaged over two sensors.

Variable	Value
Air temperature	+4.5°C
Surface temperature	+8.2°C
Dewpoint	-3.3°C
Relative humidity	56%
Wind direction	302°
Wind speed	0.0 m/s
Gust direction	291°
Gust speed	0.22 m/s
Precipitation	None

389 Traffic data

We also made use of the traffic camera installed at the Bean Flats Rest area to record traffic movements, with the aim of being able to identify contamination in the ORX signal

³⁹³ if needed.

Data for around five minutes before and after the over-394 flight are given in Table 2. Because the traffic camera feeds 395 are not archived, multiple volunteers were asked to record 396 vehicles passing the array, thereby eliminating some of ran-397 dom the error associated with streaming lag (we find a sys-398 tematic error of around 40 s delay in video data as compared 399 to when a vehicle becomes apparent in the seismic data). 400 The data provided is a synthesis of that from all volunteers, 401 with the lower, mean, and upper bounds on vehicle passage 402 times given. The streaming lag has not been corrected for in 403 2. 404

In two cases, the vehicle may have been towing a trailer, but this could not be determined due to poor video resolution. In order to corroborate readings between different volunteers who recorded slightly different vehicle arrival times due to streaming lag, car colour was also recorded – but this is not noted in Table 2 as it is not relevant to seismic observations.

As per Table 2, no moving vehicles were noted at
14:46 UTC, when the ORX signal was detected.

A truck which passed the camera at 14:47 UTC was identified in the seismic dataset as being a source of noise beginning at 14:45:50 UTC, and extending out to 14:49 UTC. Given this long duration, and its slow speed observed in the video data, we suspect it was idling in the layby prior to driving away.

Summary

Seismic signatures associated with the EDL of the OSIRIS-
REx spacecraft were recorded by an 11-instrument seismic
array located almost immediately under the point of peak
heating over northern Nevada.421
422

A classic rounded N-wave, characteristic of a decayed 425 sonic boom, is observed propagating across the array. The 426 entire N-wave (compression and rarefaction) lasts approx-427 imately 0.2 s, with the compressional wave extending to 428 higher frequencies (up to at least \sim 450 Hz) than the rar-429 efaction (~40 Hz). The measured duration of the N-wave 430 is in good agreement (within a factor 2) with theoretical 431 predictions. 432

The wavefront's moveout across the array is predomi-433 nantly in the downrange direction (at an azimuth of 2530, 434 close to the pre-landing prediction of 2490. The wave is 435 also propagating almost vertically downward (around 40 436 from the vertical). Following the N-wave, a set of seis-437 mic post-cursors are recorded, likely some combination 438 of air-coupled seismic waves, additional (slower) airwaves, 439 and long-period ground deformation induced by the initial 440 wavefront. 441

Data from this array are able to exclude the spacecraft being well south of its nominal trajectory. Analysis of the apparent slowness of the N-wave across the array also indicates an equivalent point-source origin which is almost exactly overhead in both the uprange-downrange and crossrange planes. 447

Further work would likely enable a more thorough inver-
sion of the capsule's trajectory, accounting for the extended
nature of the source and the effects of refraction arising from
atmospheric stratification. This would enable this dataset to
be used as a more reliable test-case for trajectory determina-
tions of natural meteoroids using their seismic signatures.448

Data and Resources

Seismic data, instrument responses, deployment locations and ancillary data (weather and traffic data) are available via in this Zenodo repository: https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo. 12210877. [Link will go live once paper is through review, so that if any additional information is needed in the repository we can add it.]

Declaration of Competing Interests

The authors acknowledge that there are no conflicts of 462 interest recorded. 463

Acknowledgments

The authors are most grateful to NASA's Scientifically Calibrated465In-Flight Imagery (SCIFLI) team for facilitating the fieldwork466component of this expedition and to the townspeople of Eureka,467Nevada for their hospitality. They are also grateful to NVDOT for468the free access to traffic and meteorological data.469

BF is funded by the Blaustein Fellowship in Earth and Planetary 470 Sciences at Johns Hopkins University. JW was funded by the Miller 471

420

454

461

TABLE 2.

Traffic data recorded by the cameras at the US 50 Bean Flat Rest Area. Note that 'Away' and 'Towards' refer to whether the vehicle was moving away from (westbound) or towards (eastbound) relative to the westward-facing traffic camera. Speeds were judged by each individual relative to the average in the 30 minutes or so preceeding the interval of interest

UTC Time - Lower Bound	UTC Time - Mean	UTC Time - Upper Bound	Direction	Speed	Туре
14:39:26	14:39:47	14:40:03	Away	Medium/Fast	Car
14:41:23	14:41:35	14:41:53	Towards	Medium	Car (with trailer?)
14:41:38	14:41:39	14:41:38	Towards	Medium	Car (with trailer?)
14:47:49	14:47:57	14:48:00	Away	Slow/stationary	Lorry/truck
14:51:47	14:51:52	14:52:00	Towards	Medium/Slow	Car with trailer

Institute for Basic Research in Science at UC Berkeley. CC is funded 472

- by the UK Space Agency Fellowship in Mars Exploration Science 473 under ST/Y005600/1. TC thanks the Royal Society for funding 474 under URF\R\231019.
- 475

References 476

- Ajluni, T., D. Everett, T. Linn, R. Mink, W. Willcockson, and 477 J. Wood (2015). OSIRIS-REx, returning the asteroid sample. In 478 2015 IEEE aerospace conference, pp. 1–15. IEEE. 479
- Allander, K. K. and D. L. Berger (2009). Seismic velocities and 480 thicknesses of alluvial deposits along Baker Creek in the Great 481 Basin National Park, east-central Nevada. Technical report, U. 482 S. Geological Survey. 483
- Ben-Menahem, A. and S. J. Singh (1981). Seismic waves and sources. 484 Springer Science & Business Media. 485
- Carlson, H. W. and D. J. Maglieri (1972). Review of sonic-boom 486 generation theory and prediction methods. The Journal of the 487 Acoustical Society of America 51(2C), 675-685. 488
- Cates, J. E. and B. Sturtevant (2002). Seismic detection of sonic 489 booms. The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America 111(1), 490 614-628. 491
- 492 Cook, J. C. and T. T. Goforth (1970). Ground motion from sonic booms. Journal of Aircraft 7(2), 126-129. 493
- Edwards, W. N., D. W. Eaton, and P. G. Brown (2008). Seismic 494 observations of meteors: Coupling theory and observations. 495
- Fernando, B., C. Charalambous, C. Saliby, E. Sansom, C. Larmat, 496 D. Buttsworth, D. Hicks, R. Johnson, K. Lewis, M. McCleary, 497
- et al. (2024). Seismoacoustic measurements of the OSIRIS-REx 498 re-entry with an off-grid Raspberry PiShake. Seismica 3(1). 499
- Fernando, B., N. Wójcicka, M. Froment, R. Maguire, S. C. Stähler, 500 L. Rolland, G. S. Collins, O. Karatekin, C. Larmat, E. K. Sansom, 501 et al. (2021). Listening for the landing: Seismic detections of 502 Perseverance's arrival at Mars with InSight. Earth and Space 503 Science 8(4), e2020EA001585. 504
- Fernando, B., N. Wójcicka, Z. Han, A. Stott, S. Ceylan, 505 C. Charalambous, G. S. Collins, D. Estévez, M. Froment, 506 M. Golombek, et al. (2021). Questions to Heaven. Astronomy 507 & Geophysics 62(6), 6-22. 508
- Fernando, B., N. Wójcicka, R. Maguire, S. C. Stähler, A. E. 509 Stott, S. Ceylan, C. Charalambous, J. Clinton, G. S. Collins, 510
- N. Dahmen, et al. (2022). Seismic constraints from a Mars 511

impact experiment using InSight and Perseverance. Nature 512 Astronomy 6(1), 59-64. 513

- Kanamori, H., J. Mori, B. Sturtevant, D. Anderson, and T. Heaton 514 (1992). Seismic excitation by space shuttles. Shock waves 2, 515 89-96. 516
- Karakostas, F., V. Rakoto, P. Lognonne, C. Larmat, I. Daubar, and 517 K. Miljković (2018). Inversion of meteor rayleigh waves on earth 518 and modeling of air coupled rayleigh waves on mars. Space 519 Science Reviews 214, 1-33. 520
- Kenda, B., M. Drilleau, R. F. Garcia, T. Kawamura, N. Murdoch, 521 N. Compaire, P. Lognonné, A. Spiga, R. Widmer-Schnidrig, 522 P. Delage, V. Ansan, C. Vrettos, S. Rodriguez, W. B. Banerdt, 523 D. Banfield, D. Antonangeli, U. Christensen, D. Mimoun, 524 A. Mocquet, and T. Spohn (2020). Subsurface structure at the 525 insight landing site from compliance measurements by seis-526 mic and meteorological experiments. Journal of Geophysical 527 Research: Planets 125(6). 528
- McDonald, J. A. and T. T. Goforth (1969). Seismic effects 529 of sonic booms: Empirical results. Journal of Geophysical 530 Research 74(10), 2637-2647. 531
- Pierce, A. D. and D. J. Maglieri (1972). Effects of atmospheric 532 irregularities on sonic-boom propagation. The Journal of the 533 Acoustical Society of America 51(2C), 702-721. 534

Plotkin, K. J. (2002). State of the art of sonic boom modeling. The 535 Journal of the Acoustical Society of America 111(1), 530-536. 536

- ReVelle, D. and W. Edwards (2007). Stardust-an artificial, low-537 velocity "meteor" fall and recovery: 15 January 2006. Meteoritics 538 & Planetary Science 42(2), 271-299. 539
- ReVelle, D., W. Edwards, and T. Sandoval (2005). Genesis-an 540 artificial, low velocity "meteor" fall and recovery: September 8, 541 2004. Meteoritics & Planetary Science 40(6), 895-916. 542
- Rost, S. and C. Thomas (2002). Array seismology: Methods and 543 applications. Reviews of geophysics 40(3), 2-1. 544
- Sansom, E. K., H. A. Devillepoix, M.-y. Yamamoto, S. Abe, 545 S. Nozawa, M. C. Towner, M. Cupák, Y. Hiramatsu, 546 T. Kawamura, K. Fujita, et al. (2022). The scientific observation 547 campaign of the Hayabusa-2 capsule re-entry. Publications of 548 the Astronomical Society of Japan 74(1), 50-63. 549
- Silber, E. A., D. C. Bowman, and S. Albert (2023). A review of infra-550 sound and seismic observations of sample return capsules since 551 the end of the Apollo era in anticipation of the OSIRIS-REx 552 arrival. Atmosphere 14(10), 1473. 553

554	Silber, E. A., D. C. Bowman, C. G. Carr, D. P. Eisenberg, B. R. Elbing,
555	B. Fernando, M. A. Garcés, R. Haaser, S. Krishnamoorthy, C. A.
556	Langston, et al. (2024). Geophysical observations of the 24
557	September 2023 OSIRIS-REx sample return capsule re-entry.
558	arXiv preprint arXiv:2407.02420.
559	Sorrells, G. G. (1971). A preliminary investigation into the relation-
560	ship between long-period seismic noise and local fluctuations in
561	the atmospheric pressure field. Geophysical Journal of the Royal
562	Astronomical Society 26 (1-4), 71–82.
563	Whitham, G. B. (1974). Linear and nonlinear waves. John Wiley &
564	Sons.
565	Yamamoto, My., Y. Ishihara, Y. Hiramatsu, K. Kitamura, M. Ueda,
566	Y. Shiba, M. Furumoto, and K. Fujita (2011). Detection of acous-
567	tic/infrasonic/seismic waves generated by hypersonic re-entry
568	of the HAYABUSA capsule and fragmented parts of the space-
569	craft. Publications of the Astronomical Society of Japan 63(5),
570	971–978.
571	

Manuscript Received 00 July 2024