

1 Causal and uncertainty-aware digital-twin framework for ultra-low-noise geoscientific inertial sensors

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4 Antonino D'Alessandro

5 Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanologia, Osservatorio Nazionale, Rome, Italy

6 antonino.dalessandro@ingv.it

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9 Abstract

10 Ultra-low-noise inertial sensors are a cornerstone of modern geoscientific instrumentation, enabling high-
11 resolution observations across seismology, geodesy, gravimetry, and vibration isolation. Achieving and reliably
12 predicting their performance requires a rigorous treatment of physical causality, noise propagation, and
13 uncertainty, particularly in force-feedback architectures operating near fundamental limits. In this study, we
14 introduce a causal and uncertainty-aware digital-twin framework for the design and metrological assessment
15 of ultra-low-noise geoscientific inertial sensors. The proposed framework integrates mechanical dynamics,
16 force-feedback control, transduction, and digital acquisition within a physically realisable model that explicitly
17 enforces causality and stability constraints. Starting from a minimal equation-of-motion description, the digital
18 twin is formulated in the frequency domain to construct causal transfer functions and a comprehensive noise-
19 budget model. The framework enables the systematic separation of fundamental thermal noise limits from
20 implementation-dependent noise sources, including readout, actuation, and digital acquisition effects. We
21 introduce quantitative performance metrics based on self-noise spectra, dominant noise regimes, crossover
22 frequencies, and near-plateau bandwidths, allowing complex spectral behaviour to be condensed into
23 actionable design indicators. Parameter uncertainties are propagated through the digital twin to provide
24 uncertainty-aware performance estimates and robustness diagnostics. Through a series of illustrative analyses,
25 we demonstrate how the proposed digital twin supports informed design trade-offs, identifies performance
26 bottlenecks, and prevents non-physical or overly optimistic sensitivity estimates arising from non-causal
27 modelling assumptions. While focused on inertial sensors, the methodology is general and transferable to other

28 classes of geoscientific instruments. The framework provides a transparent and extensible foundation for next-
29 generation sensor design, virtual experimentation, and metrologically consistent performance prediction.

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32 **1. Introduction**

33 The design and metrological assessment of ultra-low-noise inertial sensors for geoscientific applications
34 remains a central challenge in measurement science and engineering. These sensors — including broadband
35 seismometers, compact accelerometers, MEMS-based seismic sensors (D'Alessandro and D'Anna, 2013), and
36 advanced gravimetric devices (Prasad et al., 2022) — are critical for resolving weak ground motions across
37 broad frequency bands, enabling high-precision environmental monitoring, earthquake early warning, and
38 advanced observational geodesy. In practice, instrument performance is constrained by a combination of
39 fundamental thermomechanical limits and implementation-dependent noise sources such as thermal
40 (Brownian) noise of mechanical suspensions, readout electronics noise, quantization error in digital
41 acquisition, and control-loop artefacts (Ubhi et al., 2022; Zhao et al., 2022; van Dongen et al., 2023).

42 Traditional sensor development has often proceeded through incremental improvements of individual
43 components, with performance characterised post-facto via laboratory calibration and field testing. While such
44 approaches are effective for benchmarking specific prototypes, they provide limited insight into the system-
45 level trade-offs between sensitivity, bandwidth, dynamic range, and robustness, particularly when uncertainty
46 propagation across the entire measurement chain is of interest. The need for rigorous uncertainty frameworks
47 in sensor design is well recognised in inertial navigation and metrology communities, where stochastic error
48 modelling and error budgeting have been emphasised (El-Sheimy et al., 2020).

49 In parallel, the concept of a digital twin has emerged as a powerful paradigm for unifying physics-based
50 simulation with real-time measurement data, enabling advanced prediction, optimisation, and uncertainty
51 quantification in complex engineered systems. Digital twin methodologies have been extensively reviewed in
52 industrial and infrastructure domains, highlighting their potential for model-based monitoring and decision
53 support (Sun et al., 2024; Carlin et al., 2024). Recent developments have increasingly focused on uncertainty-
54 aware and physics-informed digital twins for metrological applications, with particular emphasis on
55 traceability, virtual experimentation, and hybrid modelling approaches that combine physical models with

56 data-driven components (e.g., Wright and Davidson, 2024; Maculotti et al., 2024; Sun et al., 2024). In
57 metrology, digital twins are gaining traction as tools for virtual calibration, uncertainty evaluation, and
58 traceability analysis across diverse measurement systems, including coordinate measuring machines, optical
59 scanners, and virtual metrological experiments (Vlaeyen et al., 2021; Poroskun et al., 2022).

60 Despite these advances, the digital-twin literature remains fragmented with respect to sensor-centric, causal,
61 and uncertainty-aware frameworks that encompass both physical dynamics and digital acquisition processes.
62 Many digital twin formulations in metrology still focus on high-level concepts or specific subsystems, without
63 enforcing physical causality and realisability constraints essential for accurate modeling of closed-loop, force-
64 feedback inertial sensors. Furthermore, the representation and propagation of uncertainty through the digital
65 twin's internal variables and across the physical–digital boundary is often treated qualitatively or post hoc
66 rather than systematically (Ríos et al., 2020).

67 In the field of inertial sensing, contemporary research continues to push performance boundaries through
68 innovative mechanics and novel readout schemes, such as interferometric sensing with enhanced dynamic
69 range and low noise floors (Kranzhoff et al., 2023), as well as advanced tilt and vibration measurement systems
70 that delineate thermal and readout noise dominance across frequency (Bai et al., 2025). In particular, recent
71 work has demonstrated significant progress in ultra-low-noise interferometric readout systems and compact
72 inertial sensor architectures, pushing noise floors closer to fundamental limits while maintaining practical
73 deployability (Carter et al., 2024; Carter et al., 2025; Bai et al., 2025). These efforts, together with recent
74 reviews on MEMS-based seismic instrumentation and low-noise inertial sensing technologies (D'Alessandro
75 et al., 2019), underscore the importance of integrated noise budgeting and uncertainty analysis, yet a
76 comprehensive, unified framework that couples physical system dynamics, sensor signal chains, and digital
77 data acquisition with rigorous uncertainty propagation is still absent.

78 This manuscript addresses these gaps by introducing a causal and uncertainty-aware digital-twin framework
79 for ultra-low-noise geoscientific inertial sensors. The framework enforces physical causality and realisability
80 constraints while systematically propagating uncertainty from mechanical parameters and control elements
81 through to spectral performance metrics. It integrates mechanical modelling, transduction chains, force-
82 feedback architectures, and digital acquisition within a single, physically consistent representation (Fig. 1). By
83 decomposing self-noise into fundamental and implementation-dependent contributions and identifying

84 dominant noise regimes, the framework facilitates quantitative evaluation of design choices and metrological
85 limits.

86 Rather than relying on experimental datasets, the methodology is conceived as a design-stage tool to guide
87 sensor architecture choices and parameter selection prior to hardware realisation. The remainder of this paper
88 is organised as follows: Section 2 formalises design requirements and problem scope; Section 3 presents the
89 digital-twin architecture; Section 4 develops the comprehensive noise model; Sections 5 and 6 analyse spectral
90 performance and design trade-offs; Section 7 synthesises performance metrics and optimisation strategies;
91 Section 8 discusses broader implications and limitations; and Section 9 concludes with final remarks.

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94 **2. Design requirements and problem formulation**

95 The design of ultra-low-noise inertial sensors for geoscientific applications constitutes a multi-objective
96 optimisation problem in which sensitivity, bandwidth, dynamic range, robustness, and practical
97 implementation constraints must be addressed simultaneously. Unlike post-deployment performance
98 assessment or component-level optimisation approaches, the present study formulates the sensor design
99 problem explicitly at the pre-implementation stage, adopting a system-level perspective aimed at predicting
100 achievable performance prior to hardware realisation.

101 The conceptual scope of the problem is illustrated in Fig. 1, which summarises the functional elements of a
102 force-feedback inertial sensor and their interactions. Within this framework, design requirements are not
103 treated as independent specifications but as coupled constraints that jointly define the admissible design space.

104 The primary requirement considered in this work is the attainment of ultra-low self-noise levels over a broad
105 frequency band spanning the ultra-low-frequency (ULF) regime to the classical broadband (BB) seismic band.
106 Such performance is essential for a wide range of geoscientific applications, including broadband seismology,
107 gravimetry, and long-term environmental monitoring, where weak ground motions must be resolved across
108 several decades in frequency (Collette et al., 2012; Carter et al., 2024).

109 A second key requirement concerns dynamic range and saturation behaviour. Ultra-low-noise operation must
110 coexist with the capability to accommodate large transient signals without loss of linearity, control stability, or
111 actuator authority (Sider et al., 2023). In force-feedback architectures, this requirement couples mechanical

112 design parameters, actuation strength, and control loop characteristics, precluding their independent
113 optimisation (Zhao et al., 2022).

114 Additional constraints arise from digital acquisition and system-level resources, including power consumption,
115 telemetry bandwidth, and data resolution, particularly in distributed or urban seismic monitoring
116 configurations based on compact MEMS instrumentation (D'Alessandro et al., 2014). Finite analog-to-digital
117 converter (ADC) resolution, clock jitter, and digital signal processing limitations introduce noise contributions
118 that may dominate the self-noise spectrum over specific frequency ranges, particularly at higher frequencies.
119 These effects must therefore be incorporated explicitly into the design formulation rather than treated as
120 secondary implementation details (El-Sheimy et al., 2020; Ubezio et al., 2023).

121 Finally, the design requirements implicitly assume a set of environmental and operational conditions, including
122 mechanical coupling to the ground, thermal stability, and station infrastructure. While these factors are not
123 modelled explicitly in the present framework, they define the operating context within which the sensor is
124 expected to meet its performance objectives and delimit the interpretation of the resulting performance bounds.
125 On the basis of the above requirements, the design problem is formulated as follows: given a target sensitivity
126 spectrum, a frequency band of interest, and a set of implementation constraints, determine whether a physically
127 realisable inertial sensor architecture can achieve the desired performance and identify the dominant
128 mechanisms limiting that performance.

129 A central aspect of this formulation is the explicit separation between fundamental physical limits, such as
130 thermal noise associated with mechanical dissipation, and implementation-dependent limits arising from
131 readout electronics, actuation mechanisms, feedback control, and digital acquisition. This distinction is
132 essential for meaningful interpretation of noise budgets and for guiding design decisions toward genuinely
133 performance-limiting components rather than secondary contributors (Collette et al., 2012; Maculotti et al.,
134 2024).

135 The sensor is modelled as a linear, time-invariant system operating around a stable equilibrium point. Its
136 behaviour is described through transfer functions linking ground acceleration to the measured output quantity.
137 Nonlinear effects such as actuator saturation, hysteresis, and large-amplitude geometric nonlinearities are
138 neglected. These assumptions are standard in the analysis of ultra-low-noise inertial sensors and are justified
139 when the focus is on noise-limited performance under nominal operating conditions (Carter et al., 2024).

140 Within this framework, the observable of interest is the output acceleration estimate, whose power spectral
141 density is determined by the combined effect of the sensor dynamics and all internal noise sources propagated
142 through the system. The design objective is therefore the optimisation of the total self-noise spectrum, subject
143 to causality, stability, and realisability constraints, rather than the minimisation of individual noise sources in
144 isolation.

145 The formulation adopted here deliberately excludes experimental calibration data and site-specific noise
146 conditions. This choice reflects the intended role of the framework as a design-stage and feasibility-assessment
147 tool, rather than as a post-deployment diagnostic method. While this limits direct comparison with specific
148 instruments, it enables the identification of general trends, trade-offs, and performance bounds that are
149 transferable across sensor classes and deployment scenarios (Wright and Davidson, 2024; Ríos et al., 2020).

150 Model parameters, including mechanical damping and electronic noise levels, are assumed to be characterised
151 by probability distributions reflecting their uncertainty. The systematic propagation of these uncertainties
152 through the digital-twin framework is addressed in subsequent sections. The implications of these assumptions,
153 and their potential impact on real-world performance, are discussed in Section 8.

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155

156 **3. Digital-twin architecture and causal modeling**

157 The digital twin developed in this study is conceived as a physics-based, causal, and uncertainty-aware
158 representation of an ultra-low-noise inertial sensor, explicitly designed to support metrological analysis and
159 design-stage optimisation. Unlike generic simulation models or reduced-order representations, the proposed
160 digital twin integrates mechanical dynamics, transduction, actuation, control, and digital acquisition within a
161 unified framework that preserves physical causality and realisability.

162 A frequency-domain representation of the digital-twin response is shown in Fig. 2, illustrating the effect of
163 force-feedback control on the system dynamics. This architecture reflects the functional decomposition of a
164 force-feedback inertial sensor and provides the basis for subsequent noise propagation and performance
165 analysis. In particular, Fig. 2(a) compares the open-loop mechanical response with the closed-loop response
166 obtained under force-feedback control. The open-loop configuration exhibits a pronounced resonance at the
167 natural frequency, whereas the closed-loop system suppresses this resonance and reduces proof-mass motion

168 over a broad frequency band. Fig. 2(b) shows the corresponding force-balance transfer function, highlighting
169 how the feedback force tracks the inertial force at low frequencies and progressively rolls off at higher
170 frequencies due to the finite bandwidth of the control loop.

171 The mechanical subsystem is modelled as a single-degree-of-freedom inertial plant characterised by an
172 effective mass, elastic stiffness, and dissipative damping. This representation captures the dominant dynamics
173 governing the sensor response in the frequency range of interest and is commonly adopted in the analysis of
174 broadband and ultra-low-noise inertial sensors (Collette et al., 2012; Carter et al., 2024).

175 The validity of the single-degree-of-freedom (SDOF) approximation is restricted to the frequency range in
176 which the fundamental mode dominates the mechanical response. In practice, this corresponds to frequencies
177 sufficiently below the first higher-order structural resonance of the sensor assembly, where multi-mode effects
178 and internal deformation of the mechanical structure can be neglected (Collette et al., 2012).

179 At very low frequencies, additional effects such as tilt coupling, foundation compliance, and environmental
180 interactions may introduce deviations from the idealised inertial response. These effects are not explicitly
181 modelled in the present framework and therefore delimit the lower bound of applicability of the SDOF
182 representation.

183 The model further assumes rigid coupling between the sensor frame and the ground, negligible rotational
184 degrees of freedom, and operation in the linear regime around a stable equilibrium configuration. Under these
185 conditions, the SDOF approximation provides an accurate and physically consistent description of the
186 dominant sensor dynamics relevant for noise-limited performance analysis.

187 Thermal noise associated with mechanical dissipation is treated as an intrinsic property of the plant and
188 constitutes a fundamental performance limit. The mechanical model is assumed to operate in the linear regime
189 around a stable equilibrium point, and temperature is treated as a stationary parameter. Spatially distributed
190 modes, geometric nonlinearities, and thermoelastic coupling effects are neglected, an assumption justified
191 when focusing on noise-limited performance well below structural resonance frequencies.

192 The transduction stage converts the mechanical state of the plant into an electrical signal. The digital twin
193 represents this stage through a linear gain and an additive readout noise term, which may encompass optical,
194 capacitive, or electromagnetic sensing mechanisms depending on the sensor implementation. This abstraction
195 allows the framework to remain agnostic with respect to the specific readout technology while retaining its

196 metrological relevance. Compact interferometric readout implementations have recently been integrated in
197 suspended interferometers, providing practical benchmarks for low-noise readout assumptions (Carter et al.,
198 2025; Mitchell et al., 2025).

199 Readout noise is explicitly modelled as a stochastic process whose spectral characteristics can be prescribed
200 or parameterised based on design assumptions. This representation is consistent with recent advances in ultra-
201 low-noise front-end electronics for inertial sensors, where circuit-level optimisation plays a critical role in
202 approaching fundamental sensitivity limits (Chen et al., 2024). This approach is consistent with modern inertial
203 sensor analyses, where readout noise often dominates the self-noise spectrum outside the thermal-noise-limited
204 band (Zhao et al., 2022; Carter et al., 2024).

205 Force-feedback actuation is incorporated into the digital twin to stabilise the mechanical plant and to linearise
206 the sensor response. The actuation subsystem is represented by a causal transfer function linking the control
207 signal to an applied force on the mechanical mass. Actuator noise and finite authority are treated as
208 implementation-dependent limitations and are included explicitly in the model.

209 The control architecture is described by a stabilising controller acting on the measured output. Particular care
210 is taken to ensure that the closed-loop system satisfies causality and stability constraints, as these conditions
211 directly influence noise propagation and achievable performance. Non-causal inversions or idealised feedback
212 laws are deliberately avoided, in contrast to some analytical treatments that neglect realisability constraints,
213 often relying on idealised or non-causal representations of system transfer functions (Oppenheim and Schaffer,
214 2010; Bendat and Piersol, 2010).

215 The final stage of the digital twin represents the digital acquisition process, including analog-to-digital
216 conversion, finite resolution, and timing uncertainty. Quantisation noise and clock jitter are modelled explicitly
217 and propagated through the system in subsequent analyses. This treatment reflects the growing recognition
218 that digital acquisition can impose dominant performance limits in ultra-low-noise sensors, particularly at
219 higher frequencies or under stringent power constraints (El-Sheimy et al., 2020; Ubezio et al., 2023).

220 Discretisation effects are treated consistently with the causal structure of the system. Continuous-time transfer
221 functions are mapped to their discrete-time counterparts using stable and physically meaningful
222 transformations. This ensures that the digital twin remains a faithful representation of a realisable sensor
223 system rather than an idealised mathematical construct. Open-source simulation toolchains widely used in

224 precision interferometry provide a reproducibility baseline for digital-twin implementations (Brown et al.,
225 2020).

226 All model parameters within the digital twin are assumed to be affected by uncertainty arising from
227 manufacturing tolerances, environmental variability, and modelling approximations. These uncertainties are
228 represented through probability distributions assigned to the relevant parameters and are propagated through
229 the digital twin in subsequent sections.

230 It is assumed that parameter uncertainties are statistically independent unless otherwise stated. While this
231 assumption may not hold in all practical cases, it provides a tractable starting point for uncertainty propagation
232 and is consistent with existing metrological digital-twin frameworks (Wright and Davidson, 2024; Maculotti
233 et al., 2024). The implications of this assumption are discussed in Section 8.

234 Within the proposed digital-twin framework, the mechanical plant and the force-feedback actuation are
235 compactly described by the equation of motion

236

$$238 \quad m \ddot{x}(t) + c \dot{x}(t) + k x(t) = - m a_g(t) + F_{fb}(t), \quad (1)$$

237

239 where $x(t)$ denotes the relative displacement of the inertial mass with respect to the sensor frame, $a_g(t)$ is the
240 ground acceleration to be measured (in Fig. 1, the same quantity is represented using the kinematic notation
241 \ddot{u}), m , c , and k represent the effective mass, damping coefficient, and stiffness of the mechanical plant, and
242 $F_{fb}(t)$ is the feedback force applied by the actuator. Equation (1) provides the physical backbone of the digital
243 twin, from which the causal transfer functions and noise propagation relationships are derived in the frequency
244 domain in the following section.

245

246

247 **4. Metrological noise modeling and uncertainty propagation**

248 The metrological performance of an ultra-low-noise inertial sensor is ultimately determined by the propagation
249 of multiple stochastic noise sources through the causal dynamics of the sensor system. Building on the physical
250 model introduced in Section 3, this section formalises the noise modeling framework adopted in the digital

251 twin and defines the methodology used to propagate uncertainty from individual noise sources to the total self-
252 noise spectrum.

253 A schematic overview of the noise budget and its decomposition into individual contributions is shown in Fig.
254 3, which provides a graphical representation of the formalism developed below.

255 Starting from the equation of motion introduced in Eq. (1), the system is transformed into the frequency domain
256 under the assumption of linear, time-invariant dynamics. Taking the Fourier transform of Eq. (1) and using the
257 standard correspondence $d/dt \rightarrow i\omega$, the equation of motion can be written in the frequency domain as

258

$$260 \quad (-m\omega^2 + ic\omega + k)X(\omega) = -mA_g(\omega) + F_{fb}(\omega). \quad (2)$$

259

261 Denoting Fourier-transformed quantities by capital letters, the relative displacement $X(\omega)$ of the inertial mass
262 can be written as

263

$$265 \quad X(\omega) = \frac{-mA_g(\omega) + F_{fb}(\omega)}{k - m\omega^2 + ic\omega}, \quad (3)$$

264

266 where $A_g(\omega)$ is the ground acceleration spectrum and $F_{fb}(\omega)$ represents the feedback force in the frequency
267 domain. Equation (3) defines the mechanical susceptibility of the plant and provides the basis for constructing
268 the transfer functions linking each noise source to the sensor output.

269 In a force-feedback configuration, the measured output is typically proportional to an estimate of the ground
270 acceleration derived from the control signal and the plant response. The digital twin represents this relationship
271 through a set of causal transfer functions $T_q(\omega)$, each associated with a specific noise source q .

272 The total self-noise of the sensor is defined as the output noise spectrum obtained in the absence of ground
273 motion, i.e. for $A_g(\omega) = 0$. Under the assumption of linearity and mutual incoherence of the noise sources,
274 the total output power spectral density can be expressed as the sum of the individual contributions propagated
275 through their respective transfer functions. This follows from standard results in linear systems theory, where
276 each noise source is treated as an independent stochastic input and its contribution is weighted by the squared
277 magnitude of the corresponding transfer function (e.g., Bendat and Piersol, 2010; El-Sheimy et al., 2020).

278 Under this condition, the output acceleration noise power spectral density (PSD) can be expressed as the
279 incoherent sum of the contributions from all internal noise sources,

$$280$$
$$282 \quad S_{a,\text{self}}(\omega) = \sum_q |T_q(\omega)|^2 S_q(\omega), \quad (4)$$
$$281$$

283 where $S_q(\omega)$ denotes the PSD of the q -th noise source and $T_q(\omega)$ is the corresponding transfer function from
284 that source to the output acceleration estimate. Equation (4) constitutes the central metrological relation of the
285 framework and formalises the noise-budget decomposition illustrated in Fig. 3.

286 The noise sources considered in this work include: (i) thermal (Brownian) noise associated with mechanical
287 dissipation, (ii) readout noise originating from the transduction stage, (iii) actuation noise introduced by the
288 force-feedback mechanism, (iv) digital acquisition noise, including quantisation and timing uncertainty.
289 Similar PSD-based and variance-based approaches for inertial sensor self-noise characterization have been
290 previously applied to MEMS accelerometric systems (D'Alessandro et al., 2017).

291 Thermal noise associated with mechanical damping represents a fundamental physical limit that cannot be
292 reduced without modifying the underlying dissipation mechanisms. Its contribution is governed by the
293 fluctuation–dissipation theorem and depends on temperature, damping, and mechanical susceptibility (Collette
294 et al., 2012).

295 In contrast, readout, actuation, and digital acquisition noises are implementation-dependent and reflect
296 technological and design choices. Their relative importance varies across frequency and design parameter
297 space, and they often dominate the self-noise spectrum outside the thermal-noise-limited band (Zhao et al.,
298 2022; Carter et al., 2024). The explicit separation between these two classes of noise sources is essential for
299 interpreting metrological bounds and guiding effective design optimisation.

300 All noise sources and model parameters entering Eq. (4) are subject to uncertainty arising from manufacturing
301 tolerances, environmental variability, and modelling assumptions. Within the digital-twin framework, these
302 uncertainties are represented through probability distributions assigned to the relevant parameters.

303 Uncertainty propagation is performed by evaluating the statistical distribution of the self-noise spectrum
304 resulting from Eq. (4), given the distributions of $S_q(\omega)$ and the parameters defining $T_q(\omega)$. This approach is

305 consistent with recent developments in digital twin-based uncertainty mapping and error propagation in
306 metrological systems, where spatial and parametric uncertainties are explicitly quantified within virtual
307 representations (Sepahi-Boroujeni and Khameneifar, 2024). This approach enables the estimation of
308 confidence intervals on the predicted self-noise and provides a quantitative measure of robustness with respect
309 to parameter variability, in line with modern metrological digital-twin concepts (Scholz et al., 2022; Wübbeler
310 et al., 2022; Wright and Davidson, 2024; Maculotti et al., 2024).

311 Parameter correlations are neglected unless explicitly stated. While this assumption may not hold in all
312 practical implementations, it allows the identification of dominant uncertainty drivers and represents a
313 reasonable first-order approximation for design-stage analysis.

314 The noise modeling framework assumes linearity, stationarity, and mutual incoherence of the noise sources.
315 Cross-correlations between noise processes and non-stationary effects are not considered. These assumptions
316 are standard in inertial sensor metrology and are justified when the objective is to characterise noise-limited
317 performance under nominal operating conditions.

318 The implications of these assumptions, and their potential impact on real-world sensor behaviour, are discussed
319 in Section 8.

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321

322 **5. Spectral performance and self-noise regimes**

323 This section analyses the spectral performance predicted by the digital twin and characterises the resulting self-
324 noise in terms of dominant noise regimes across frequency. The objective is to translate the metrological
325 formulation introduced in Section 4 into physically interpretable performance metrics that are directly relevant
326 for sensor design.

327 A representative example of the self-noise spectrum and its decomposition into individual contributions is
328 shown in Fig. 4, which illustrates how fundamental and implementation-dependent noise sources shape the
329 achievable performance across the frequency band of interest.

330 The parameter ranges adopted in this analysis, including mechanical properties, damping ratios, and
331 representative noise levels, are consistent with those reported for state-of-the-art broadband and ultra-low-

332 noise inertial sensors (e.g., Collette et al., 2012; Carter et al., 2024), ensuring that the simulated performance
333 remains representative of physically achievable instrument designs.

334 The total self-noise spectrum $S_{a,\text{self}}(\omega)$, defined in Eq. (4), typically exhibits distinct frequency-dependent
335 behaviours governed by the interplay between mechanical susceptibility and noise transfer functions. Of
336 particular interest is the presence of noise plateaus, i.e. frequency intervals over which the self-noise remains
337 approximately constant.

338 To formalise this concept, the acceleration self-noise amplitude spectral density (ASD) is defined as

339

$$341 \quad N_a(\omega) = \sqrt{S_{a,\text{self}}(\omega)}. \quad (5)$$

340

342 A plateau region is identified when the logarithmic slope of $N_a(\omega)$ with respect to frequency satisfies

343

$$345 \quad \left| \frac{d \log N_a(\omega)}{d \log \omega} \right| < \varepsilon, \quad (6)$$

344

346 where ε is a small threshold chosen to discriminate between flat and sloped spectral behaviour. While the
347 precise value of ε is application-dependent, the qualitative identification of plateau regions is robust with
348 respect to reasonable threshold variations.

349 Plateaus are of particular metrological relevance because they define frequency bands in which the sensor
350 sensitivity is maximised and least sensitive to modelling uncertainties.

351 Across the full frequency band, different noise sources dominate the self-noise spectrum. At low frequencies,
352 the response is typically governed by thermal noise associated with mechanical damping, reflecting the
353 fundamental limit imposed by dissipation mechanisms. In intermediate frequency ranges, readout or actuation
354 noise may dominate, depending on the chosen transduction and control architecture. At higher frequencies,
355 digital acquisition noise, including quantisation and timing uncertainty, often becomes the limiting factor.

356 These dominant noise regimes are identified by comparing the individual terms in Eq. (4) and determining, at
357 each frequency, the noise source contributing the largest fraction to $S_{a,\text{self}}(\omega)$. This regime-based interpretation

358 is illustrated in Fig. 4, where transitions between thermal-limited and implementation-limited behaviour are
359 clearly visible.

360 The identification of dominant regimes is a consolidated result, as it directly follows from the noise budget
361 formalism and does not depend on subjective interpretation. In contrast, the precise frequency boundaries
362 between regimes should be regarded as model-dependent and may shift as design parameters or uncertainty
363 assumptions are varied.

364 A central outcome of the spectral analysis is the explicit comparison between the total self-noise and the
365 thermal noise floor. The ratio

366

$$368 \quad R(\omega) = \frac{S_{a,\text{self}}(\omega)}{S_{a,\text{th}}(\omega)} \quad (7)$$

367

369 provides a frequency-dependent measure of the margin to the thermal limit, where $S_{a,\text{th}}(\omega)$ denotes the thermal
370 noise contribution. Values of $R(\omega)$ close to unity indicate near-thermal-limited performance, whereas larger
371 values highlight the dominance of implementation-dependent noise sources.

372 This ratio constitutes a key diagnostic metric for sensor design, as it directly indicates whether further
373 performance improvements require fundamental changes to the mechanical plant or, alternatively,
374 technological improvements in readout, actuation, or digital acquisition. The interpretation of $R(\omega)$ across
375 frequency is illustrated in Fig. 4, where near-thermal and implementation-limited bands can be clearly
376 distinguished.

377 The spectral features identified in this section are a direct consequence of the causal structure of the digital
378 twin and the noise modeling assumptions introduced in Section 4. While the existence of plateaus and dominant
379 noise regimes is a robust qualitative result, their quantitative characteristics depend on model parameters and
380 uncertainty distributions.

381 Nonlinear effects, cross-correlations between noise sources, and non-stationary behaviour are not considered
382 in this analysis. These factors may alter the detailed spectral structure in real instruments, particularly under
383 extreme operating conditions. Nevertheless, the regime-based interpretation presented here provides a
384 physically meaningful and practically useful framework for guiding sensor design.

385

386

387 **6. Crossover frequencies and design trade-offs**

388 While the identification of dominant noise regimes provides a qualitative understanding of sensor performance,
389 practical design decisions require quantitative metrics capable of capturing transitions between regimes and
390 their dependence on key design parameters. In this section, such metrics are introduced through the concept of
391 crossover frequencies, which mark the boundaries between noise-dominated regimes and provide a compact
392 description of performance trade-offs.

393 A representative mapping of crossover frequencies and dominant regimes in the design parameter space is
394 shown in Fig. 6, which synthesises the spectral analyses discussed in the previous section.

395 For any pair of noise sources q_1 and q_2 , a crossover frequency $\omega_c^{(q_1, q_2)}$ is defined as the solution of

396

$$398 \quad |T_{q_1}(\omega_c)|^2 S_{q_1}(\omega_c) = |T_{q_2}(\omega_c)|^2 S_{q_2}(\omega_c), \quad (8)$$

397

399 i.e. the frequency at which the contributions of the two noise sources to the total self-noise spectrum are equal.

400 Below and above this frequency, the dominant contribution switches from one noise source to the other.

401 In practice, the most relevant crossover frequencies involve transitions between thermal noise and
402 implementation-dependent noise sources, such as readout or digital acquisition noise. These transitions
403 delineate frequency intervals in which further performance improvements require fundamentally different
404 design strategies.

405 Building on the plateau definition introduced in Section 5, the near-plateau bandwidth is defined as the
406 frequency interval over which the self-noise remains within a prescribed margin of the minimum achievable
407 level. Formally, this interval is given by

408

$$410 \quad N_a(\omega) \leq (1 + \delta) N_{a,\min}, \quad (9)$$

409

411 where $N_{a,\min}$ is the minimum value of the self-noise ASD and δ is a tolerance parameter. The near-plateau
412 bandwidth provides a concise metric for assessing the usable frequency range over which the sensor operates
413 close to its optimal sensitivity.

414 As illustrated in Fig. 6, this bandwidth is strongly dependent on implementation parameters such as ADC
415 resolution and control-loop design, and it often represents a more informative performance metric than the
416 absolute minimum noise level alone.

417 The crossover frequencies and near-plateau bandwidth jointly define a design trade-off space in which
418 improvements along one dimension may degrade performance along another. For example, increasing digital
419 resolution can extend the near-plateau bandwidth toward higher frequencies but may impose penalties in power
420 consumption or system complexity. Conversely, modifying mechanical damping may shift thermal-to-readout
421 crossover frequencies at the expense of increased sensitivity to environmental perturbations.

422 The regime maps shown in Fig. 6 summarise these trade-offs by identifying, for each region of the parameter
423 space, the noise source that ultimately limits performance. These maps constitute a consolidated result, as they
424 are derived directly from the noise-budget formalism and the causal structure of the digital twin. However, the
425 precise boundaries between regimes should be interpreted as model-dependent, reflecting assumptions on
426 parameter uncertainty and noise spectra.

427 From a design perspective, crossover-based metrics provide actionable guidance by indicating whether further
428 optimisation efforts should focus on fundamental mechanical improvements or on technological enhancements
429 in readout, actuation, or digital acquisition. In this sense, crossover frequencies act as decision thresholds
430 separating regimes where different design strategies are effective.

431 It is important to note that crossover frequencies are not intrinsic properties of the sensor but emerge from the
432 interaction between physical dynamics and implementation choices. As such, they should be interpreted within
433 the context of the assumed operating conditions and uncertainty model. The broader implications of this
434 dependence are discussed in Section 8.

435

436

437 **7. Performance metrics and design optimization**

438 The spectral analyses and crossover-based diagnostics introduced in the previous sections provide detailed
 439 insight into the noise-limited behaviour of ultra-low-noise inertial sensors. For design purposes, however, it is
 440 often desirable to condense this information into a limited set of performance metrics that can guide
 441 optimisation decisions and enable comparisons between alternative architectures. This section introduces such
 442 metrics and illustrates their role within the digital-twin framework.

443 A synthesis of the performance metrics discussed below and their dependence on key design parameters is
 444 shown in Fig. 7, which summarises the design space explored in this study.

445 A primary metric is the minimum self-noise level, defined as

446

$$448 \quad N_{a,\min} = \min_{\omega} N_a(\omega), \quad (10)$$

447

449 where $N_a(\omega)$ is the self-noise ASD defined in Eq. (5). While $N_{a,\min}$ provides a compact measure of ultimate
 450 sensitivity, it does not capture the frequency extent over which this sensitivity is achieved. As such, it should
 451 not be used in isolation to rank sensor designs.

452 Complementary information is provided by the near-plateau bandwidth introduced in Section 6, which
 453 quantifies the usable frequency interval over which the self-noise remains close to its minimum value.
 454 Together, these two metrics define a sensitivity–bandwidth trade-off that is central to sensor design.

455 To assess how closely a given design approaches the fundamental thermal noise limit, the margin to the thermal
 456 bound is evaluated using the ratio defined in Eq. (7). For practical design optimisation, a scalar metric can be
 457 introduced by averaging this ratio over a frequency interval of interest $[\omega_1, \omega_2]$,

458

$$460 \quad \bar{R} = \frac{1}{\omega_2 - \omega_1} \int_{\omega_1}^{\omega_2} \frac{S_{a,\text{self}}(\omega)}{S_{a,\text{th}}(\omega)} d\omega. \quad (11)$$

459

461 Values of \bar{R} close to unity indicate near-thermal-limited performance over the selected band, whereas larger
 462 values highlight the dominance of implementation-dependent noise sources. This metric is particularly useful

463 for identifying whether further optimisation efforts should focus on mechanical design or on technological
464 improvements in readout and digital acquisition.

465 Beyond absolute performance, robustness with respect to parameter uncertainty constitutes a critical aspect of
466 sensor design. Within the digital-twin framework, robustness is assessed by analysing the variability of the
467 performance metrics introduced above under the assumed parameter uncertainty distributions.

468 Designs that achieve marginally lower self-noise but exhibit strong sensitivity to parameter variations may be
469 less desirable than slightly noisier but more robust configurations. This consideration is especially relevant for
470 long-term geoscientific deployments, where environmental variability and ageing effects can significantly
471 impact performance (Wright and Davidson, 2024).

472 The optimisation strategy adopted here therefore prioritises uncertainty-aware performance, favouring regions
473 of the design space in which sensitivity, bandwidth, and robustness are jointly optimised. The regime maps
474 shown in Fig. 7 illustrate how such regions can be identified and compared across alternative design choices.

475 Within the proposed framework, design optimisation proceeds iteratively. Initial design choices define a
476 candidate digital twin, whose performance metrics are evaluated using the methods described above. Identified
477 bottlenecks then guide targeted modifications to mechanical parameters, control architecture, or digital
478 acquisition settings, and the analysis is repeated until the desired performance objectives are met.

479 This optimisation process is methodologically consolidated, as it relies on physically interpretable metrics
480 derived directly from the causal digital twin. At the same time, specific optimisation outcomes remain context-
481 dependent, reflecting application-specific requirements and constraints. The broader implications of this
482 balance between generality and specificity are discussed in Section 8.

483

484

485 **8. Discussion**

486 Recent advances in digital-twin methodologies for metrology have emphasised the importance of uncertainty
487 quantification, traceability, and physically consistent virtual experimentation (Wright and Davidson, 2024;
488 Maculotti et al., 2024). The present framework aligns with these developments by extending such principles
489 to force-feedback inertial sensors and explicitly incorporating causality constraints within the modeling
490 architecture.

491 This section discusses the implications of the proposed causal and uncertainty-aware digital-twin framework,
492 placing the results presented in Sections 4–7 in a broader methodological and instrumental context. The
493 discussion focuses on the generality of the approach, its limitations, and its relevance for the design of ultra-
494 low-noise geoscientific inertial sensors.

495 A conceptual synthesis of the workflow and its role in guiding design decisions is illustrated in Fig. 8, which
496 integrates the individual analysis steps into a unified methodological framework.

497 A key outcome of this study is that enforcing physical causality and realisability constraints at the digital-twin
498 level is essential for obtaining meaningful metrological predictions. Non-causal or idealised representations
499 may lead to overly optimistic noise estimates and obscure the distinction between fundamental and
500 implementation-dependent limits. (Wright and Davidson, 2024; Maculotti et al., 2024).

501 The practical relevance of these metrics can be illustrated through representative design scenarios based on
502 Figs. 4–7.

503 In a first scenario, consider a design operating close to the thermal noise limit over a restricted frequency band,
504 as indicated by $R(\omega) \approx 1$ in Fig. 4. In this regime, further improvements in sensitivity cannot be achieved
505 through readout or digital optimisation alone, and require modifications of the mechanical plant, such as
506 reducing dissipation or increasing effective mass. This identifies the thermal-to-readout crossover as a key
507 decision threshold between mechanical and electronic optimisation strategies.

508 In a second scenario, Fig. 6 shows that increasing ADC resolution shifts the crossover between digital and
509 actuation noise toward higher frequencies, effectively extending the near-plateau bandwidth. However, as
510 illustrated in Fig. 7, this improvement saturates beyond a certain ENOB (Effective Number of Bits), beyond
511 which actuator or readout noise becomes dominant. This demonstrates that digital optimisation alone cannot
512 ensure broadband performance gains.

513 A third scenario concerns the role of damping, as shown in Fig. 5. Variations in damping primarily affect low-
514 frequency performance through their impact on thermal noise and feedback dynamics, while high-frequency
515 behaviour remains largely unchanged. This indicates that mechanical and digital parameters act on distinct
516 spectral regions, enabling targeted and decoupled optimisation strategies.

517 The performance metrics introduced in Sections 6 and 7 provide a compact representation of complex spectral
518 information and facilitate comparison between alternative sensor architectures. In particular, crossover

519 frequencies and near-plateau bandwidths offer actionable indicators of where design effort is most effectively
520 directed.

521 The proposed framework can be further contextualised by comparison with conventional sensor design
522 methodologies. Traditional noise budgeting approaches typically evaluate individual noise contributions
523 independently and combine them a posteriori, often neglecting system-level coupling effects introduced by
524 feedback control and digital acquisition. While such approaches are effective for first-order performance
525 estimation, they may lead to inconsistencies when applied to closed-loop architectures, where transfer
526 functions are inherently interdependent.

527 Simplified digital twin models, on the other hand, often represent individual subsystems or rely on non-causal
528 inversions to estimate idealised performance limits. Although computationally efficient, these formulations
529 may overlook constraints imposed by causality and realisability, leading to optimistic predictions of achievable
530 sensitivity.

531 In contrast, the present framework enforces causal system dynamics at all stages and propagates all noise
532 sources through a unified set of transfer functions, enabling a consistent system-level evaluation. The resulting
533 performance metrics, including crossover frequencies (Eq. 8) and near-plateau bandwidth (Eq. 9), provide
534 quantitative indicators that are not directly accessible through conventional noise budgeting approaches.

535 From a quantitative perspective, the ratio to the thermal limit (Eq. 7) and its band-averaged form (Eq. 11)
536 enable a direct comparison between designs, while explicitly accounting for implementation-dependent
537 constraints. These metrics highlight how different design strategies shift regime boundaries rather than
538 uniformly improving performance, an effect that is not captured by traditional component-wise optimisation.

539 This comparison indicates that the main advantage of the proposed digital twin lies not in redefining
540 fundamental limits, but in providing a physically consistent and uncertainty-aware framework to approach
541 them in a controlled and interpretable manner.

542 A schematic comparison of the different methodological approaches is provided in Fig. 10, highlighting how
543 the proposed framework enables physically consistent and uncertainty-aware system-level design.

544 The regime maps derived from these metrics should be interpreted as decision-support tools rather than as
545 absolute performance predictors. While the existence of distinct noise-dominated regimes is a robust outcome
546 of the noise-budget formalism, the precise boundaries between regimes depend on modelling assumptions and

547 uncertainty characterisation. This sensitivity underscores the importance of uncertainty-aware optimisation
548 strategies in sensor design.

549 Although the digital twin is formulated with force-feedback inertial sensors in mind, the underlying
550 methodology is not restricted to a specific sensor type. The same framework can be adapted to other classes of
551 geoscientific instruments, such as tiltmeters, gravimeters, or strain sensors, including atom-interferometry
552 gravimeters demonstrated in harsh volcanic environments (Antoni-Micollier et al., 2022), provided that their
553 dynamics can be represented within a linear, causal system framework.

554 The abstraction of transduction, actuation, and digital acquisition as modular subsystems facilitates such
555 extensions and supports the development of sensor-specific digital twins within a common metrological
556 structure. This generality is consistent with recent efforts to standardise digital-twin methodologies across
557 measurement domains (Ríos et al., 2020; Ubezio et al., 2023).

558 Several limitations of the present framework should be acknowledged. First, the analysis assumes linearity,
559 stationarity, and mutual incoherence of noise sources. While these assumptions are standard in inertial sensor
560 metrology, they may be violated under extreme operating conditions or in the presence of strong environmental
561 coupling.

562 Second, parameter uncertainties are treated as statistically independent unless explicitly stated. In real
563 instruments, correlations between mechanical, electronic, and environmental parameters may exist and could
564 affect uncertainty propagation. Incorporating such correlations would require additional modelling effort and
565 data, which lies beyond the scope of the present study.

566 Finally, the framework does not incorporate site-specific noise conditions or experimental calibration data. As
567 a result, the predicted performance should be interpreted as an intrinsic sensor capability rather than as a
568 guarantee of field performance. This distinction is particularly important when comparing digital-twin
569 predictions with observational data.

570 A further limitation of the present study is the lack of direct experimental validation against specific sensor
571 prototypes. This reflects the intended role of the proposed digital twin as a design-stage and feasibility-
572 assessment tool, rather than as a post-deployment calibration framework.

573 In this context, the objective is not to reproduce the performance of a particular instrument, but to provide a
574 physically consistent and causality-constrained environment for exploring design trade-offs and identifying
575 fundamental and implementation-dependent performance limits.

576 Nevertheless, the integration of the digital twin with experimental data represents a natural and important
577 extension of the present work, as demonstrated by recent metrology-integrated digital twin frameworks that
578 explicitly combine physical models with measurement data for validation and calibration purposes (Samadi et
579 al., 2025). Future developments may include the use of laboratory or field measurements to calibrate model
580 parameters, validate predicted self-noise spectra, and refine uncertainty distributions within a data-informed
581 framework.

582 Despite these limitations, the proposed framework provides a solid foundation for future extensions. Potential
583 developments include the incorporation of nonlinear effects, the integration of experimental calibration data
584 to refine parameter distributions, and the coupling of the digital twin with real-time monitoring systems. Data-
585 driven denoising approaches have also been explored for inertial sensors/accelerometers and may complement
586 model-based digital twins (Yang et al., 2023).

587 Such extensions would further enhance the utility of digital twins as tools for both design-stage optimisation
588 and operational performance assessment in geoscientific instrumentation.

589

590

591 **9. Conclusions**

592 This work introduces a causal and uncertainty-aware digital-twin framework for the design and metrological
593 assessment of ultra-low-noise geoscientific inertial sensors. The framework integrates mechanical dynamics,
594 force-feedback control, transduction, and digital acquisition within a physically realisable and causally
595 consistent representation.

596 A central contribution is the formulation of a unified noise-budget model that distinguishes between
597 fundamental thermal limits and implementation-dependent noise sources, enabling physically interpretable
598 self-noise predictions and uncertainty-aware performance assessment.

599 The results demonstrate that enforcing causality and realisability is essential for obtaining reliable performance
600 estimates, particularly in ultra-low-noise regimes where idealised formulations may lead to overly optimistic
601 predictions.

602 Despite the simplifying assumptions adopted, the proposed framework provides a robust and extensible
603 foundation for design-stage optimisation and virtual experimentation. Potential extensions include the
604 incorporation of nonlinear effects, correlated uncertainties, and experimental calibration data.

605 Beyond inertial sensors, the methodology is readily transferable to other classes of geoscientific instruments,
606 supporting the broader adoption of digital twins as design and decision-support tools in geoscientific
607 instrumentation.

608

609

610 **Competing interests:**

611 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest

612

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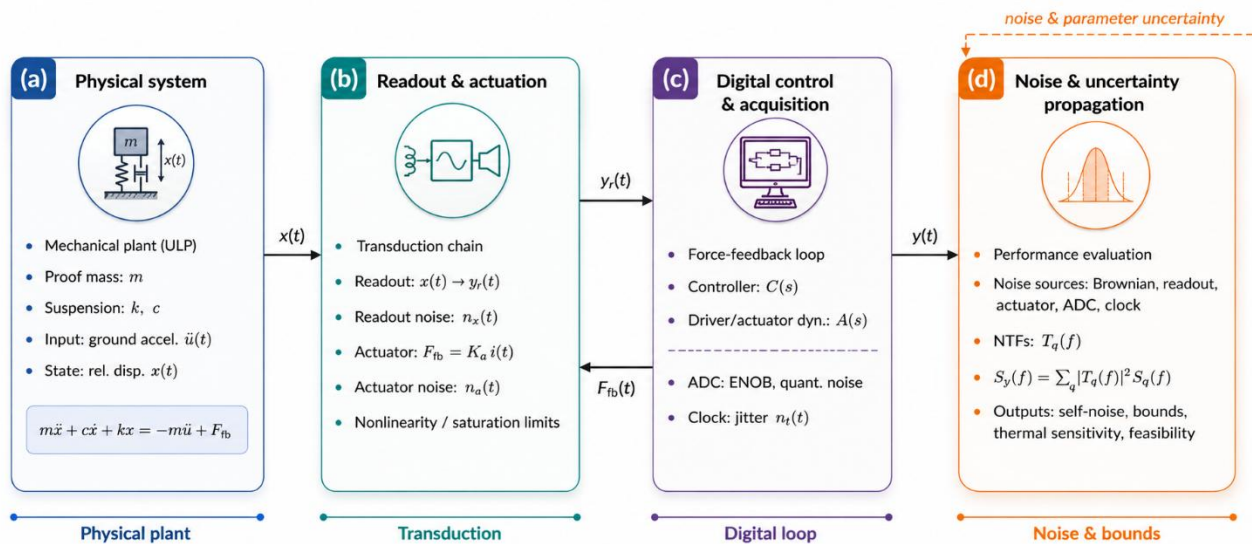
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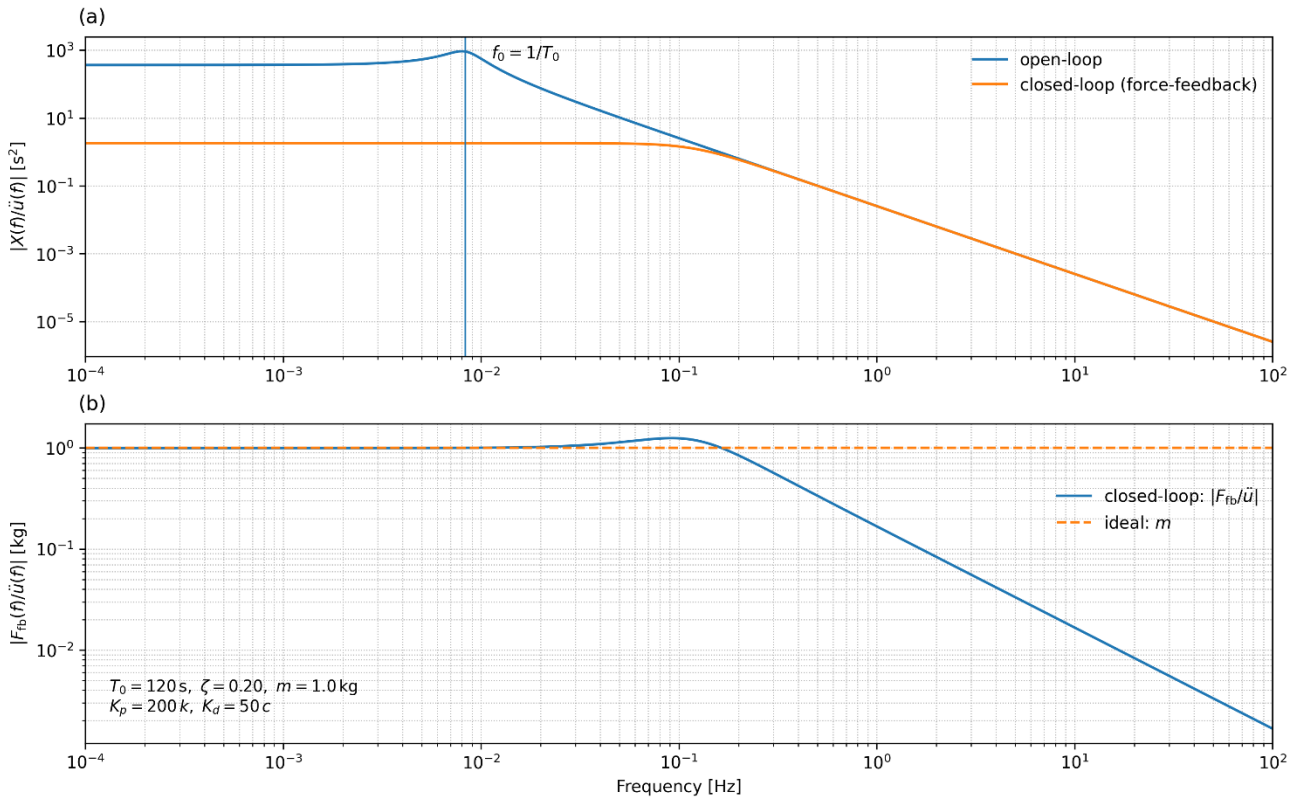
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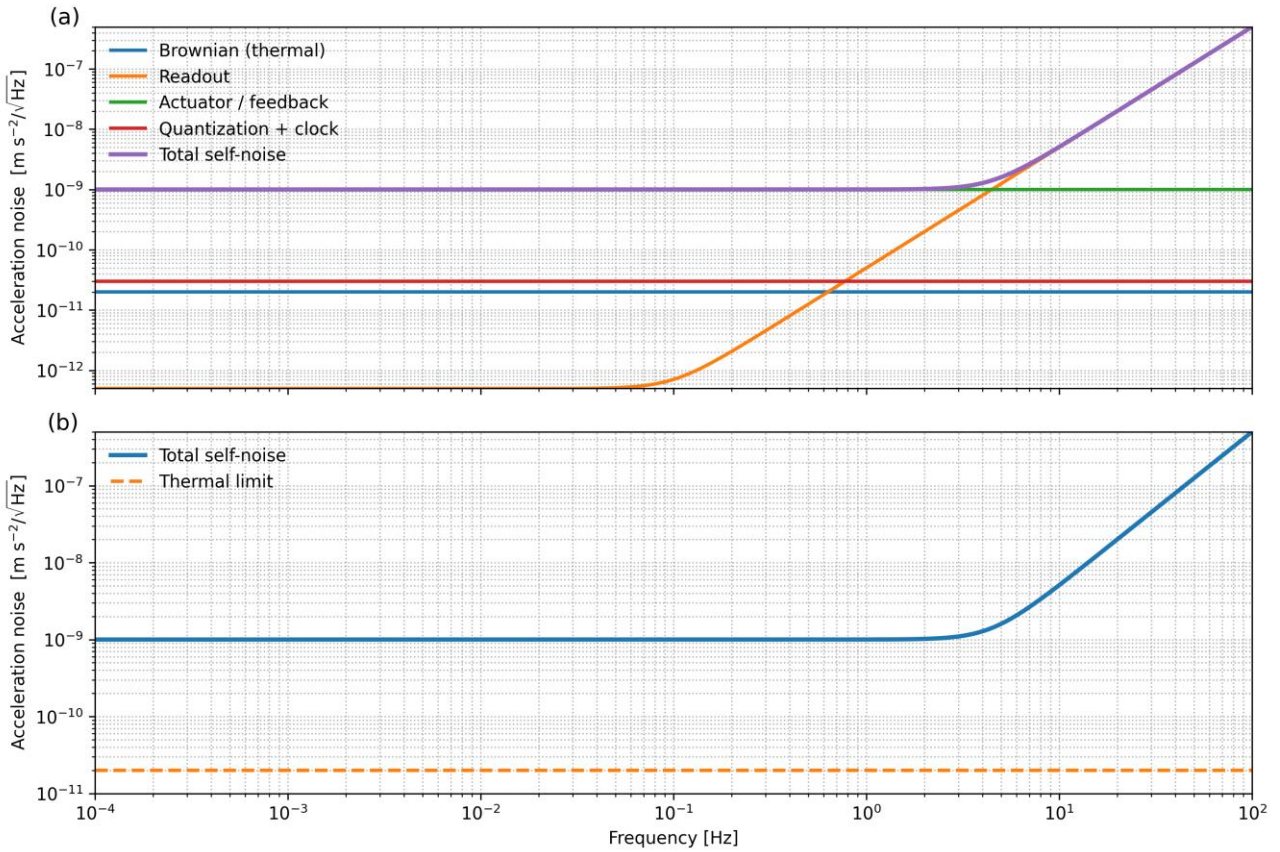
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731 **Figure 1.** Conceptual block diagram of the digital-twin framework adopted for the analysis and design of a
 732 force-feedback ultra-long-period (ULP) seismometer. (a) Physical system: mechanical plant modeled as a
 733 proof mass–spring–damper system, driven by ground acceleration and controlled via feedback force, described
 734 by the equation of motion $m\ddot{x} + c\dot{x} + kx = -m\ddot{u} + F_{fb}$. (b) Readout and actuation: transduction chain
 735 mapping the relative displacement $x(t)$ into the readout signal $y_r(t)$, including readout noise and actuator
 736 dynamics, force generation, and nonlinearity or saturation effects. (c) Digital control and acquisition: closed-
 737 loop force-feedback architecture comprising the digital controller $C(s)$, driver/actuator dynamics $A(s)$,
 738 analog-to-digital conversion (ENOB and quantization noise), and clock jitter, yielding the output signal $y(t)$ in
 739 physical units. (d) Noise and uncertainty propagation: evaluation of the contribution of independent noise
 740 sources (Brownian, readout, actuator, ADC, and clock) through their corresponding noise transfer functions
 741 $T_q(f)$, resulting in the output power spectral density $S_y(f) = \sum_q |T_q(f)|^2 S_q(f)$. The framework enables
 742 quantitative assessment of self-noise, theoretical performance bounds, thermal sensitivity, and overall
 743 feasibility of the instrument design.



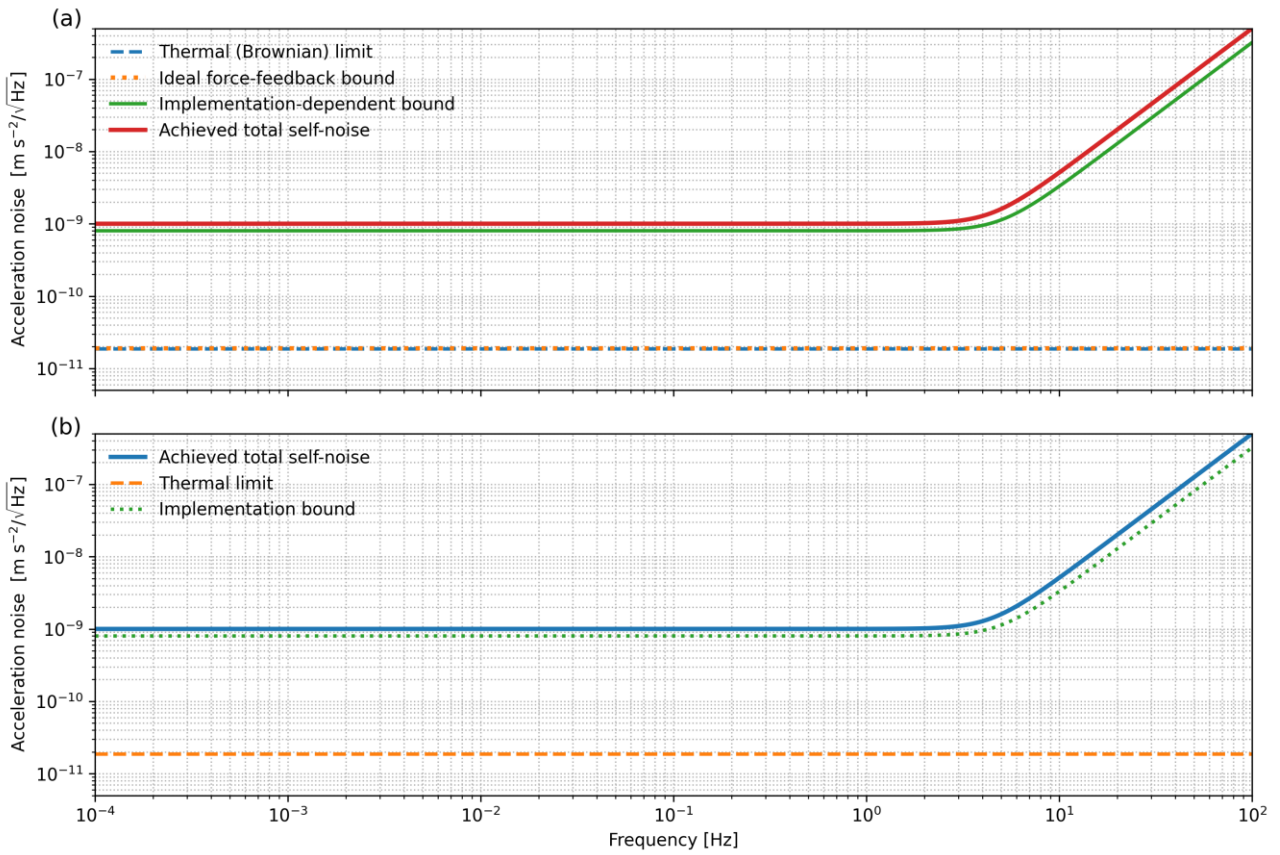
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745 **Figure 2.** Frequency-domain response of the ultra-long-period (ULP) force-feedback seismometer digital twin.
 746 (a) Magnitude of the mechanical compliance $|X(f)/\ddot{u}(f)|$, comparing the open-loop response of the
 747 mechanical plant with the closed-loop response obtained through force-feedback control. The open-loop
 748 resonance at the natural frequency $f_0 = 1/T_0$ is clearly visible, while the closed-loop configuration suppresses
 749 the resonance and significantly reduces proof-mass motion over a broad frequency band. (b) Magnitude of the
 750 force-balance transfer function $|F_{fb}(f)/\ddot{u}(f)|$ in the closed-loop configuration, compared with the ideal low-
 751 frequency limit $F_{fb}/\ddot{u} = m$. At low frequencies, the feedback force accurately tracks the inertial force
 752 associated with ground acceleration, whereas at higher frequencies the response rolls off due to the finite
 753 bandwidth of the control loop. The parameters reported in the inset correspond to a representative ULP
 754 configuration and a proportional–derivative feedback law.



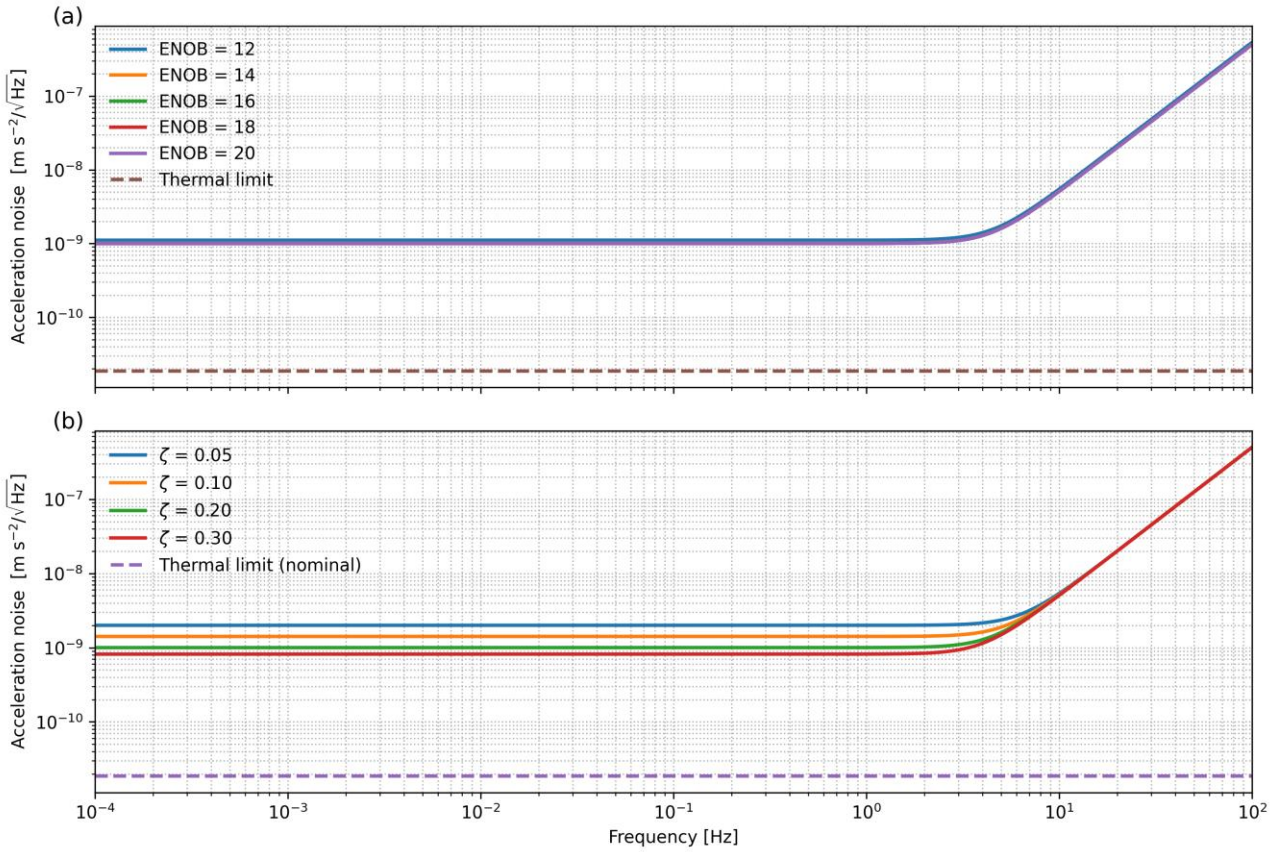
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756 **Figure 3.** Frequency-dependent acceleration self-noise budget of the force-feedback ULP seismometer derived
 757 from the digital-twin framework. (a) Individual noise contributions referred to input acceleration, including
 758 Brownian (thermal) noise of the mechanical plant, readout noise, actuator/feedback noise, and quantization
 759 plus clock jitter, together with their quadratic sum defining the total self-noise. The spectrum highlights the
 760 transition from readout- and quantization-limited performance at low frequencies to feedback- and control-
 761 limited behavior at higher frequencies. (b) Comparison between the total self-noise and the fundamental
 762 thermal limit set by the mechanical suspension. Model parameters are indicated in the panel and correspond
 763 to a nominal ultra-long-period design with force-feedback control. The separation between the total self-noise
 764 and the thermal limit quantifies the residual performance gap attributable to non-thermal noise sources and
 765 control-loop implementation.



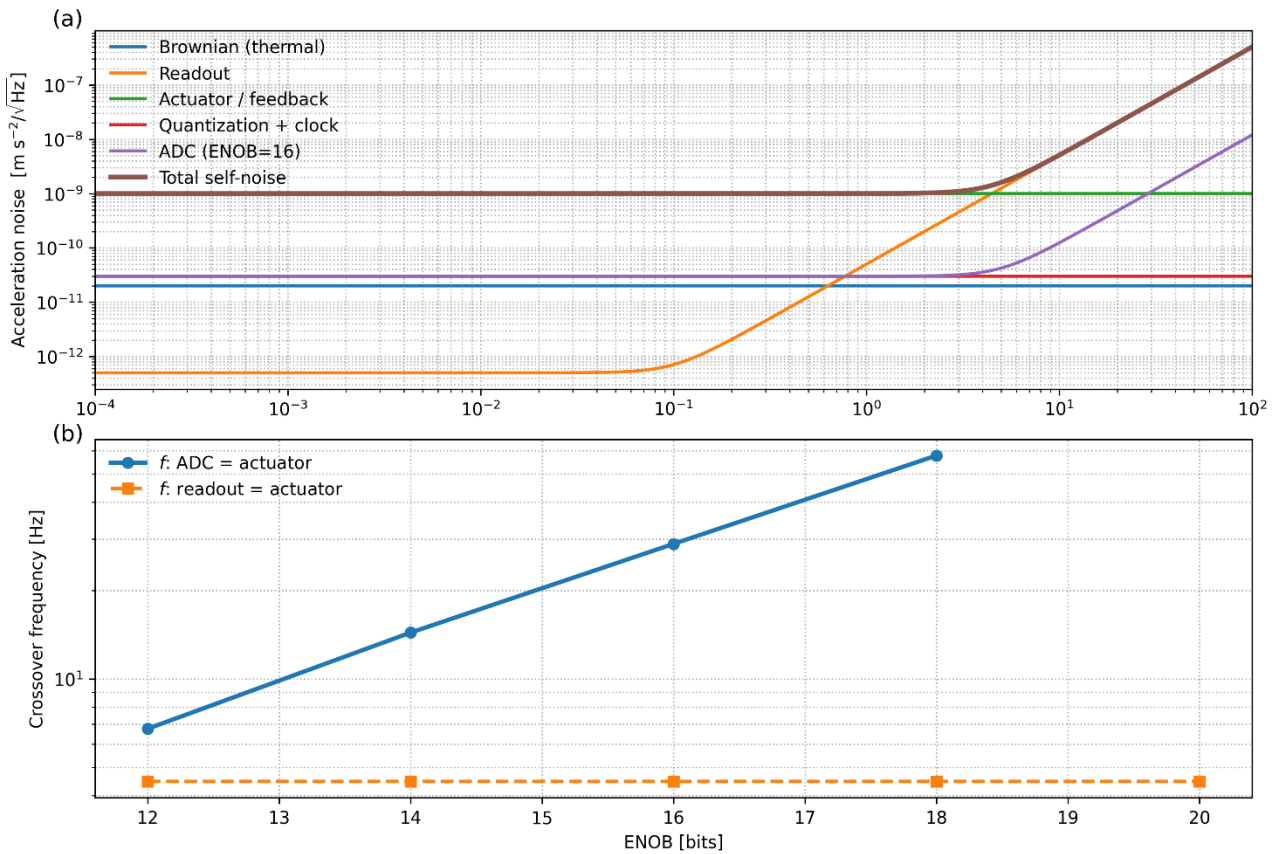
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767 **Figure 4.** Metrological acceleration-noise bounds and achieved performance of the force-feedback ultra-long-
 768 period (ULP) seismometer derived from the digital-twin framework. (a) Fundamental and implementation-
 769 dependent noise bounds referred to input acceleration. The thermal (Brownian) limit represents the irreducible
 770 noise floor imposed by mechanical dissipation in the suspension. The ideal force-feedback bound coincides
 771 with the thermal limit in the absence of electronic and control noise and is shown with a slight offset for visual
 772 clarity. The implementation-dependent bound accounts for practical non-idealities introduced by actuation,
 773 digitization, timing, and control-loop dynamics, and exhibits a frequency-dependent rise imposed by closed-
 774 loop causality. The achieved total self-noise is shown for reference. (b) Comparison between the achieved total
 775 self-noise and the theoretical bounds. The separation from the thermal limit quantifies the residual
 776 performance gap attributable to control-loop implementation and electronic noise sources, providing a direct
 777 metric to assess design margins and guide further optimization toward fundamental physical limits.



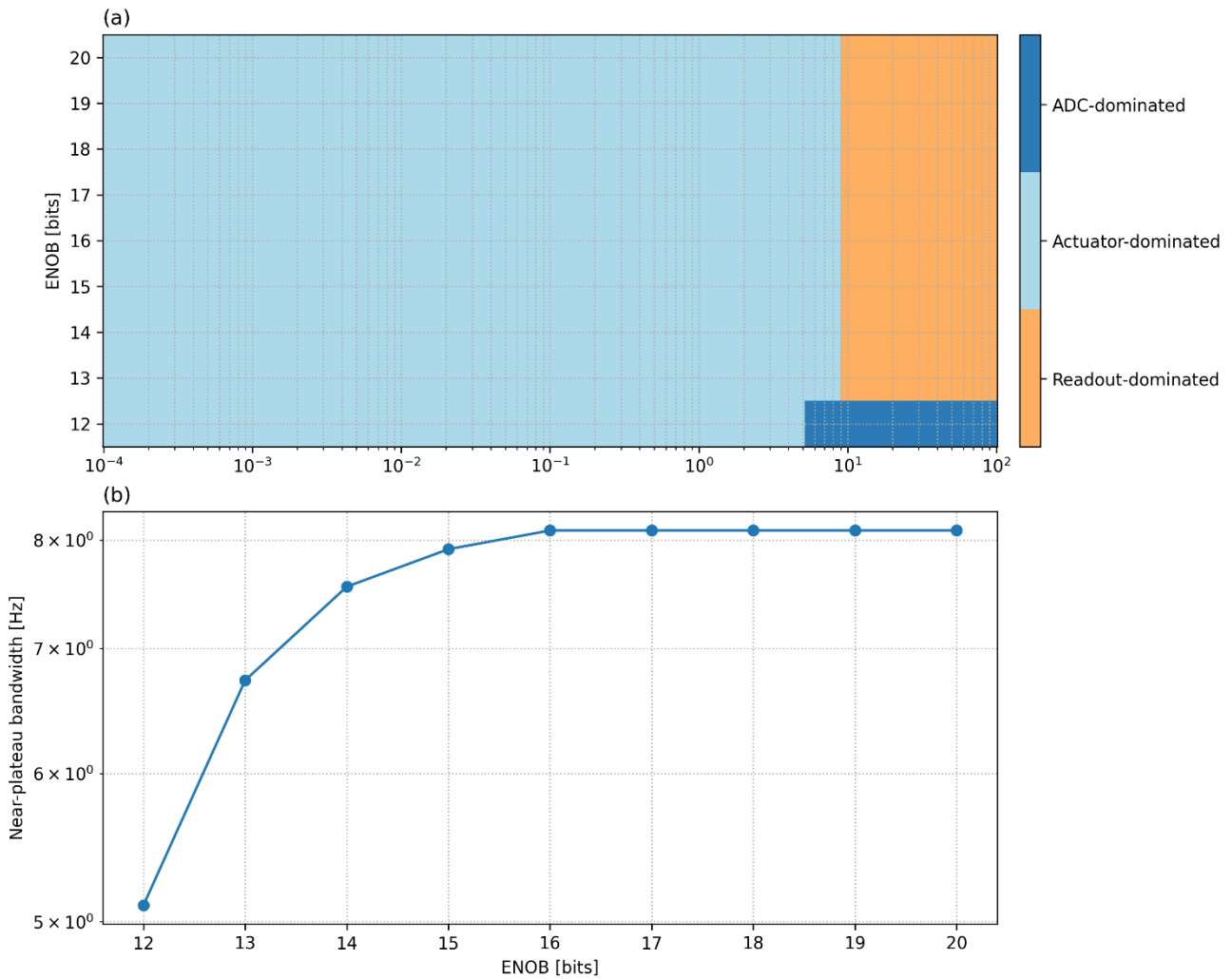
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779 **Figure 5.** Spectral sensitivity of the closed-loop instrument self-noise to key design parameters. (a) Total
 780 acceleration self-noise amplitude spectral density $N_a(f)$ for different effective ADC resolutions (ENOB = 12–
 781 20 bits), computed for a fixed mechanical plant ($m = 1$ kg, $T_0 = 120$ s, $\zeta = 0.20$) and identical control
 782 architecture. At low frequencies the spectra collapse onto a common plateau set by non-digital noise sources,
 783 whereas at higher frequencies the achievable noise floor progressively improves with increasing ENOB as
 784 quantization and digital-chain contributions are reduced. The dashed curve indicates the Brownian (thermal)
 785 acceleration limit, shown for reference. (b) Sensitivity of the total acceleration self-noise to the damping ratio
 786 ζ (0.05–0.30) at fixed ENOB (16 bits). Variations in ζ primarily affect the low-frequency noise level through the
 787 balance between thermal dissipation and feedback-related contributions, while the high-frequency rise
 788 remains controlled by the digital and readout bandwidth. The dashed line marks the nominal thermal limit.
 789 Together, the two panels illustrate how electronic resolution and mechanical damping act on distinct frequency
 790 regimes, defining complementary design trade-offs for ultra-low-frequency force-feedback inertial sensors.



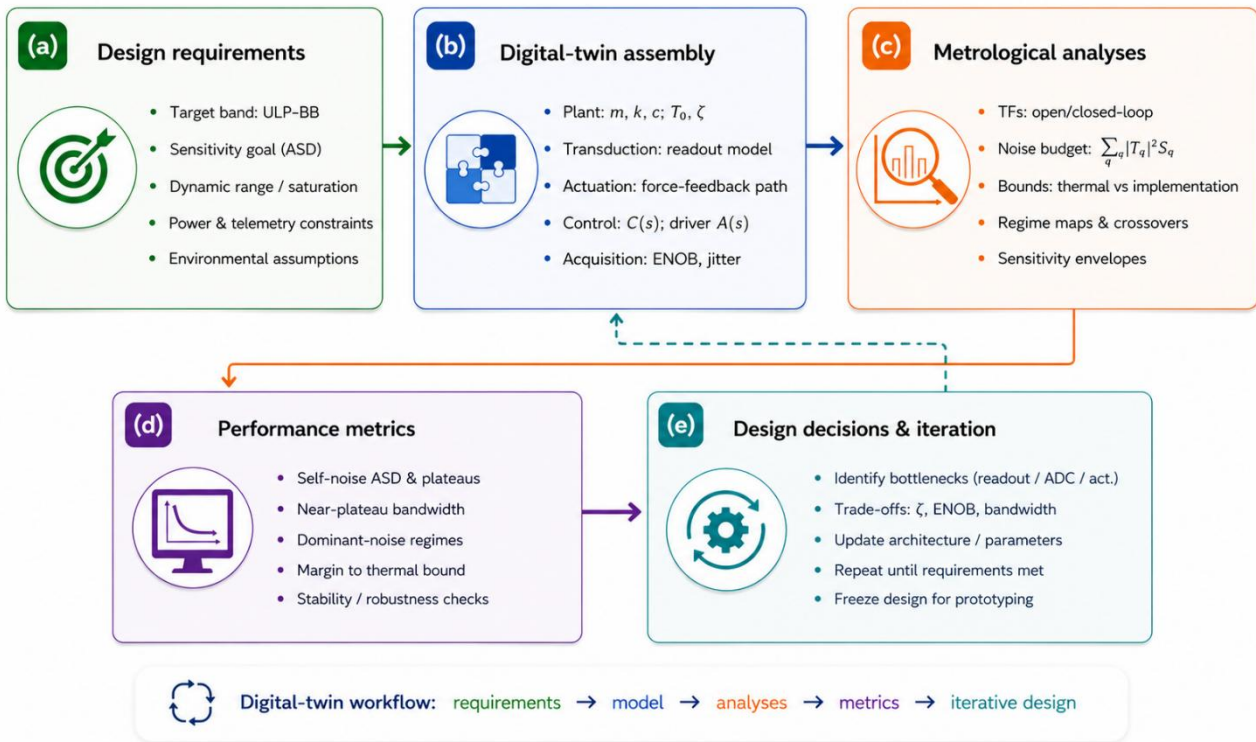
791

792 **Figure 6.** Noise regimes and crossover frequencies in a digitally controlled broadband inertial sensor. (a)
 793 Acceleration noise amplitude spectral density (ASD) as a function of frequency, showing the individual
 794 contributions from Brownian (thermal) noise, readout noise, actuator/feedback noise, quantization and clock
 795 noise, and the digital (ADC) contribution for a nominal resolution of ENOB = 16 bits. The resulting total self-
 796 noise (quadratic sum of all components) is also shown. The plot highlights the frequency-dependent dominance
 797 of different noise sources, with readout noise governing the low-frequency range, actuator/feedback noise
 798 setting the mid-band floor, and digital/ADC-related effects becoming relevant at higher frequencies due to
 799 closed-loop shaping. (b) Crossover frequencies between selected noise contributions as a function of effective
 800 ADC resolution (ENOB). The blue curve indicates the frequency at which ADC noise equals actuator/feedback
 801 noise, demonstrating the systematic extension of the near-thermal bandwidth with increasing ENOB. The
 802 orange curve shows the crossover between readout and actuator noise, which remains nearly invariant with
 803 ENOB, reflecting its weak dependence on digitization resolution. Together, panels (a) and (b) illustrate how
 804 digital resolution primarily controls the high-frequency noise budget, while low- and mid-band performance
 805 are constrained by analog sensing and actuation mechanisms.



806







807 **Figure 7.** Design regime map and effective near-plateau bandwidth. (a) Dominant self-noise contributor in
 808 the ENOB–frequency plane, classified by variance comparison between readout, actuator/feedback, and ADC
 809 noise terms. The map highlights distinct operating regimes and shows that, for typical design parameters, the
 810 system is predominantly actuator-limited over most of the seismic bandwidth, with ADC-dominated behavior
 811 confined to low ENOB and high frequencies, and readout domination emerging at the highest frequencies. (b)
 812 Near-plateau bandwidth as a function of ENOB, defined as the frequency range over which the total self-noise
 813 remains within 30% of its minimum achievable plateau. Increasing ENOB significantly extends the usable low-
 814 noise bandwidth up to $ENOB \approx 15\text{--}16$, beyond which further improvements yield diminishing returns,
 815 indicating a transition to actuator/readout-limited performance. This representation provides a compact and
 816 quantitative guideline for digitization requirements in force-feedback broadband sensors.




817

818 **Figure 8.** Conceptual workflow of the digital-twin framework adopted for the engineering design and
 819 metrological assessment of ultra-low-noise broadband inertial sensors. (a) Definition of design requirements,
 820 including target bandwidth, sensitivity objectives, dynamic range constraints, and environmental assumptions.
 821 (b) Assembly of the digital twin, integrating the mechanical plant, transduction chain, force-feedback
 822 actuation, control architecture, and acquisition system. (c) Metrological analyses performed in the frequency
 823 domain, encompassing open- and closed-loop transfer functions, full noise-budget decomposition, and
 824 theoretical versus implementation-dependent performance bounds. (d) Extraction of performance metrics,
 825 such as self-noise plateaus, near-plateau bandwidth, dominant noise regimes, and margins relative to the
 826 thermal limit. (e) Iterative design loop, where identified bottlenecks guide trade-offs among damping, ENOB,
 827 and bandwidth, leading to progressive architectural refinement and final design freeze. Solid arrows indicate
 828 the nominal forward workflow, whereas the dashed arrow highlights the feedback loop driving iterative
 829 optimization.

830

	Traditional Noise Budgeting <i>Component-wise approach</i>	Simplified Digital Twin Models <i>Subsystem-based or non-causal</i>	Proposed Framework <i>Causal and Uncertainty-Aware Digital Twin</i>
 Physical causality	❌ Not explicitly enforced Assumes ideal transformations and post-processing inversions.	⚡ Partially enforced or neglected Often relies on idealized or non-causal inversions.	✅ Explicitly enforced All transformations are causal and physically realizable.
 System-level coupling	❌ Neglected or approximated Interactions between mechanical, electrical, and digital domains are not fully captured.	⚡ Subsystem-based Models individual blocks; weak representation of cross-domain coupling and feedback.	✅ Fully integrated Mechanical, electrical, and digital domains are coupled through closed-loop dynamics.
 Uncertainty propagation	⚠️ Limited Uncertainties treated independently for each component; correlations typically ignored.	⚡ Limited or qualitative Uncertainty usually assessed qualitatively or with simplified assumptions.	✅ Systematic and distribution-based Uncertainty propagated through all transfer functions using Monte Carlo analysis.
 Noise modeling consistency	✅ Additive and a posteriori Noise contributions added after independent evaluation of subsystems.	⚡ May include idealizations Noise modeled with simplifications; non-causal operations may be introduced.	✅ Fully consistent All noise sources mapped through their physical transfer functions in a unified framework.
 Performance metrics	❌ Component-level only Provides individual noise floors but no system-level metrics such as crossover frequencies.	⚡ Limited system-level metrics Provides global sensitivity estimates but typically lacks bandwidth-related metrics.	✅ Advanced system-level metrics <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Crossover frequencies (Eq. 7) • Near-plateau bandwidth (Eq. 8) • Thermal ratio metrics (Eq. 6, 10)
 Typical limitations	⌚ Ignores feedback coupling and closed-loop effects May lead to inconsistent or non-realizable performance predictions.	⌚ Can lead to optimistic performance predictions Non-causal modeling may violate realizability and physical constraints.	⌚ Increased model complexity Requires accurate parameterization and computational resources.

Increasing physical consistency and predictive capability 

831

832 **Figure 9.** Comparative assessment of sensor design methodologies for ultra-low-noise inertial systems. The
833 diagram contrasts traditional noise budgeting, simplified digital twin approaches, and the proposed causal
834 and uncertainty-aware digital-twin framework in terms of physical causality, system-level coupling,
835 uncertainty propagation, noise modeling consistency, and performance metrics. Conventional approaches
836 either neglect feedback-induced coupling or rely on simplified or non-causal representations, limiting their
837 ability to provide consistent system-level predictions. In contrast, the proposed framework enforces causal
838 dynamics and propagates all noise sources through a unified transfer-function representation, enabling
839 physically consistent evaluation and the definition of advanced performance metrics such as crossover
840 frequencies and near-plateau bandwidth.