

### NPTEL ONLINE CERTIFICATION COURSES

### **EARTHQUAKE SEISMOLOGY**

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Module 11: Source parameters, Earthquake statistics. Lecture 02: Source spectra and magnitude saturation

# **CONCEPTS COVERED**

- > Source Spectra
  - Convolution of two boxcar functions
  - Corner frequency and moment magnitude
  - $\succ$  Saturation Of M<sub>s</sub> and m<sub>b</sub>
- > Summary



#### Recap

- The general form of earthquake magnitude is M = log<sub>10</sub> (A/T) + F(h, Δ) + C
   A is the amplitude of the signal,
   T is its dominant period,
   F is a correction for the variation of amplitude with the earthquake's depth h
   Δ is epicentral distance,
   C is a regional scale factor.
  - Richter Scale magnitude is:

$$M_L = \log A + 2.76 \log \Delta - 2.48$$

- Body wave magnitude  ${\sf m}_{\sf b}$  is  $m_b = \log_{10}{(A/T)} + Q(h,\Delta)$
- Surface wave magnitude M $_{\sf s}$  is:  $M_s = \log_{10}{(A/T)} + 1.66 \log_{10}{\Delta} + 3.3$
- Body and surface wave magnitudes do not correctly reflect the size of large earthquakes and saturate about 6.2 and 8.3 respectively.



#### Recap

 Different techniques (body waves, surface waves, geodesy, geology) can yield different estimates.

$$M_w = \frac{\log M_o}{1.5} - 10.73$$

- Moment magnitude is given as:
- It gives a magnitude directly tied to earthquake source processes that does not saturate.





We may begin with a simple model where rupture start from rest with rupture velocity  $v_r$ . They reach to its full velocity in time  $\tau_r$ .









Displacement pulses (s(t)) can be represented by a convolution of boxcar functions with width  $\tau_r$  (rise time) and  $\tau_d$  (rupture duration time). This will yield a trapezoid:





#### Source spectra

- Our aim: In order to understand magnitude saturation of M<sub>s</sub> and M<sub>b</sub>, we first have to briefly discuss about source spectra.
- The source-time spectrum of an earthquake can be approximated by slip function that is shown below.
- This in turn can be represented by T<sub>D</sub>\*T<sub>R</sub>





#### A simple mode for time function: Convolution of two boxcar time functions

- A boxcar function is chosen due to finite length of the fault and the infinite rise time of the faulting at any point
- The Fourier transform of the resulting time function is the product of the transforms of boxcars





#### **Convolution of two boxcar time functions**

The transform of a boxcar of height 1/T and length T is  $F(\omega) = \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} \frac{1}{T} e^{i\omega t} dt = \frac{1}{Ti\omega} \left( e^{i\omega T/2} - e^{-i\omega T/2} \right) = \frac{\sin(\omega T/2)}{\omega T/2}$ 

This function sometimes written as  $x = (\sin x)/x$ , it appear in applications in which only part of the signal is selected.

https://www.google.com/search?client=ubuntu&hs=W9p&hl=en&sxsrf= AB5stBhNmeA9HQ-6XtUVFXFBSAwFthl8g:1688102525153&q=fourier+transform+of+convolution+of++two+b ox+car+function&tbm=isch&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwiNq-z6nr\_AhWHcGwGHSzRDysQ0pQJegQICxAB&biw=1920&bih=995&dpr=1 #imgrc=cNEAM2juXeZE6M

Fig. 11.5: A shortcut to the Fourier transform of the product of two sinc functions through the convolution of two boxcars.

sinc(x)

times

convolution

 $sinc^{2}(x)$ 



#### **Convolution of two boxcar time functions**

Thus the spectral amplitude of the source signal is the product of the seismic moment and two sinc term

$$|A(\omega)| = M_0 igg| rac{\sin{(\omega T_R/2)}}{\omega T_R/2} igg| igg| rac{\sin{(\omega T_D/2)}}{\omega T_D/2} igg|$$

where  $T_R$  and  $T_D$  are the rupture and rise times. The above equation is used in the form of logarithm

An approximation can be made for sinc(x)

 $\operatorname{sinc}(x) \approx \begin{cases} 1, \ x < 1 \\ \frac{1}{x}, \ x > 1 \end{cases}$ 



If  $T_R > T_D$ , we can divide the equation up into three segments

$$\omega < \frac{2}{T_R}$$
 then  $\operatorname{sinc}\left(\frac{\omega T_R}{2}\right) \approx 1 \quad \operatorname{sinc}\left(\frac{\omega T_D}{2}\right) \approx 1$   
 $\log[A(\omega)] \approx \log M_0 + \underbrace{\log(1)}_{=0} + \underbrace{\log(1)}_{=0}$   
 $\frac{2}{T_R} < \omega < \frac{2}{T_D}$  then  $\operatorname{sinc}\left(\frac{\omega T_R}{2}\right) \approx \frac{2}{\omega T_R} \quad \operatorname{sinc}\left(\frac{\omega T_D}{2}\right) \approx 1$ 

$$\log[A(\omega)] \approx \log M_0 + \log\left(\frac{2}{\omega T_R}\right) + \log(1)$$
$$\log\left(\frac{2}{\omega T_R}\right) = \log\left(\frac{\omega T_R}{2}\right)^{-1}$$
$$= -1\log\left(\frac{\omega T_R}{2}\right)$$
$$= -1\left[\log\left(\frac{T_R}{2}\right) + \log(\omega)\right]$$



$$\log[A(\omega)] \approx \log M_0 - \log\left(\frac{T_R}{2}\right) - \log(\omega)$$
$$\frac{2}{T_D} < \omega \quad \text{then } \operatorname{sinc}\left(\frac{\omega T_R}{2}\right) \approx \frac{2}{\omega T_R} \quad \operatorname{sinc}\left(\frac{\omega T_D}{2}\right) \approx \frac{2}{\omega T_D}$$

$$\log[A(\omega)] = \log M_0 + \log\left[\left(\frac{2}{\omega T_R}\right)\left(\frac{2}{\omega T_D}\right)\right]$$
$$= \log M_0 - \log\left(\frac{T_R T_D}{4}\right) - \log(\omega^2)$$
$$= \log M_0 - \log\left(\frac{T_R T_D}{4}\right) - 2\log(\omega)$$



Figure 4.6-4: Approximation of the  $(\sin x)/x$  function, and derivation of corner frequencies.



Assuming  $T_R > T_D$  we have  $|A(\omega)| =$ 

 $egin{aligned} & \log M_0 & \omega < 2/T_R \ & \log M_0 - \log \left(T_R/2
ight) - \log \omega & 2/T_R < \omega < 2/T_D \ & \log M_0 - \log \left(T_R T_D/2
ight) - 2\log \omega & 2/T_D < \omega \end{aligned}$ 

- → The spectrum is flat for frequencies less than the first corner, goes as ω<sup>-1</sup> between the corners, and decays as ω<sup>-2</sup> for the high frequencies.
- → Thus the spectrum is parametrized by three factors: seismic moment, rise time, and rupture time.



#### Key Points!!

- We can use other source spectral model to add third corner frequency to this model. Model representing the effects of fault width and yielding an  $\omega^{-3}$  segment at high frequency.
- As a result, the interpretation of observed earthquake spectra depends somewhat on the source model.
- Seismic moment is the scale factor for the spectral amplitude at low frequencies ω → 0. This is the reason why it is also called the "static" moment.
- It is defined as the  $\ M_0 = \mu ar{D}S = \mu ar{D}fL^2$

Here, the fault area is written in terms of a shape factor f and the square of a dimension L



#### Key Points!!

• The rupture time needed for the rupture to propagate along the fault is approximately

$$T_R = L/v_R = L/(0.7eta)$$

we assume that the rupture velocity is about 0.7 times the shear velocity.

• The rise time needed for the dislocation to reach its full value at any point on the fault has been predicted to be about

$$T_D = \mu ar{D} / (eta \Delta \sigma) = 16 f^{(1/2)} / ig(7 eta \pi^{1.5}ig)$$

where  $\Delta \sigma$  is the stress drop in the earthquake.





- As the fault length increases, the seismic moment, rupture time, and rise time increase.
- The moment, M<sub>0</sub>, determines the zero-frequency level, which rises as the earthquake becomes larger.







As  $T_R$  increases,  $2/T_R$  will decrease. Likewise, the  $2/T_D$  also increases. Hence, the point at which  $log(A(\omega))$  starts to roll off will move to lower and lower frequencies.







#### Saturation Of M<sub>s</sub>

- The surface wave magnitude, M<sub>s</sub>, is measured at a period of 20 s, and so depends on the spectral amplitude at this period.
- For earthquakes with moments less than about 10<sup>26</sup> dyncm, a 20 s period corresponds to the flat part of the spectrum, so M<sub>s</sub> increases with moment.
- However, for larger moments, 20 s is to the right of the first corner frequency, so M<sub>s</sub> does not increase at the same rate as the moment.
- Once the moment exceeds about  $5 \times 10^{27}$  dyn-cm, 20 s is to the right of the second corner, on the  $\omega^{-2}$  portion of the spectrum. Thus M<sub>s</sub> saturates at about 8.2, even if the moment increases.





#### Saturation Of M<sub>b</sub>

- A similar effect occurs for body wave magnitude, which depends on the amplitude at a period of 1 s. Because this period is shorter than the 20 s used for M<sub>s</sub>, m<sub>b</sub> saturates at a lower moment (about 10<sup>25</sup> dyn-cm), and remains about 6 even for much larger earthquakes.
- Similar saturation effects occur for other magnitude scales which are measured at specific frequencies.







#### Saturation Of M<sub>s</sub>

Figure 4.6-6: Demonstration of the saturation of body and surface wave magnitudes.



- M<sub>s</sub> saturates even as the moment and fault areas increase. Open and closed circles denote intraplate and interplate earthquakes, respectively.
- For earthquakes above about  $10^{28}$  dyn-cm, M<sub>s</sub> saturates even for progressively larger fault areas and thus seismic moments.
- As a result, M<sub>s</sub> is not a useful measure of the size of very large earthquakes.



#### Summary

- The relations between the moment and various magnitudes arise from the spectrum of the radiated seismic waves
- Seismic moment is the scale factor for the spectral amplitude at low frequencies  $\omega \rightarrow 0$ . This is the reason why it is also called the "static" moment and defined as the  $M_0 = \mu \bar{D}S = \mu \bar{D}fL^2$

Here, the fault area is written in terms of a shape factor f and the square of a dimension L

- The rupture time needed for the rupture to propagate along the fault is approximately  $T_R = L/v_R$
- The rise time needed for the dislocation to reach its full value at any point on the fault has been predicted to be about

$$T_D = \mu ar{D}/(eta \Delta \sigma) = 16 f^{(1/2)}/ig(7eta \pi^{1.5}ig)$$

where  $\Delta \sigma$  is the stress drop in the earthquake



#### Summary

- The moment, M<sub>0</sub>, determines the zero-frequency level, which rises as the earthquake becomes larger.
- Once the moment exceeds about  $5 \times 10^{27}$  dyn-cm, 20 s is to the right of the second corner, on the  $\omega^{-2}$  portion of the spectrum. Thus M<sub>s</sub> saturates at about 8.2, even if the moment increases. M<sub>s</sub> saturates even as the moment and fault areas increase.
- m<sub>b</sub> saturates at a lower moment (about 10<sub>25</sub> dyn-cm), and remains about 6 even for much larger earthquakes.





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