

# Final Technical Report

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## **Earthquake Magnitude Estimation from Fault Dimensions and Slip Rate**

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## Abstract

This study addresses whether knowing the geological slip rates on a fault improves estimates of magnitude ( $M_W$ ) of shallow, surface-rupturing earthquakes. Based on 43 earthquakes from the database of Wells and Coppersmith (1994), Anderson et al. (1996) suggested that estimates of  $M_W$  from rupture length ( $L_E$ ) are improved by incorporating the slip rate of the fault ( $S_F$ ). We re-evaluate this relationship with an expanded database of 80 events, including 57 strike-slip, 12 reverse, and 11 normal faulting events. When the data are subdivided by fault mechanism, magnitude predictions from rupture length are improved for strike-slip faults, but not for reverse or normal faults. A linear model with  $M_W \sim \log L_E$  over all rupture lengths implies that the stress drop is a strong function of the rupture length - an observation that is not supported by teleseismic observations. With a slight improvement in the quality of fit, we find a model with slope  $2 \log L_E$  at low rupture length that transitions to a slope of  $(2/3) \log L_E$  at high rupture length, and has constant stress drop over the entire range. The dependence on slip rate for strike-slip faults is a persistent feature of all considered models. The observations support the conclusion that for strike-slip faults, the static stress drop, on average, tends to decrease as the fault slip rate increases.

# Fault Scaling Relationships Depend on the Average Geological Slip Rate

John G. Anderson, Glenn P. Biasi, Steven G. Wesnousky

## 1 Abstract

This study addresses whether knowing the geological slip rates on a fault improves estimates of magnitude ( $M_W$ ) of shallow, surface-rupturing earthquakes. Based on 43 earthquakes from the database of Wells and Coppersmith (1994), Anderson et al. (1996) suggested that estimates of  $M_W$  from rupture length ( $L_E$ ) are improved by incorporating the slip rate of the fault ( $S_F$ ). We re-evaluate this relationship with an expanded database of 80 events, including 57 strike-slip, 12 reverse, and 11 normal faulting events. When the data are subdivided by fault mechanism, magnitude predictions from rupture length are improved for strike-slip faults, but not for reverse or normal faults. A linear model with  $M_W \sim \log L_E$  over all rupture lengths implies that the stress drop is a strong function of the rupture length - an observation that is not supported by teleseismic observations. With a slight improvement in the quality of fit, we find a model with slope  $2 \log L_E$  at low rupture length that transitions to a slope of  $(2/3) \log L_E$  at high rupture length, and has constant stress drop over the entire range. The dependence on slip rate for strike-slip faults is a persistent feature of all considered models. The observations support the conclusion that for strike-slip faults, the static stress drop, on average, tends to decrease as the fault slip rate increases.

## 2 Introduction

Models for estimating the possible magnitude of an earthquake from geological observations of the fault length are an essential component of any state-of-the-art seismic hazard analysis. The input to either a probabilistic or deterministic seismic hazard analysis requires geological constraints because the duration of instrumental observations of seismicity are too short, by 1-2 orders of magnitude, to observe the size and estimate the occurrence rates of the largest earthquakes. Thus, wherever the rupture of past earthquakes remain visible in the geological record, or whenever a fault is well mapped, it is essential for the seismic hazard analysis to consider the hazard from that fault, and an estimate of the magnitude of the earthquake that might occur is an essential part of the process. The primary goal of this study is to determine if magnitude estimates can be improved by incorporating the geological slip rate of the fault. The effect of slip rate is tested against three model shapes for the scaling relationship to confirm if it is not an artifact of a particular assumption for how magnitude depends on

rupture length.

Numerous models for estimating magnitude from rupture length have been published. Early studies were by Tocher (1958) and Iida (1959). Wells and Coppersmith (1994) published an extensive scaling study based on 244 earthquakes. Some of the more recent studies include Anderson et al., (1996), Hanks and Bakun (2002, 2008), Shaw and Wesnousky (2008) and Leonard (2010, 2012, 2014). For probabilistic studies, and for earthquake source physics, it is valuable to try to reduce the uncertainty in these relations. Anderson et al. (1996) (hereafter abbreviated as ASW96) investigated whether the slip rate on a fault improves magnitude estimates given rupture length. The relationship that they found is  $M_W = 5.12 + 1.16 \log L_E - 0.20 \log S_F$ . Since publication of that report, the number of earthquakes with magnitude, rupture length, and slip rate estimates available has approximately doubled. This paper considers whether these new data improve their estimate.

One consideration in developing a scaling model is seismological observations that the stress drop in earthquakes is practically independent of magnitude. Kanamori and Anderson (1975) is one of the early papers to make this observation. Recent studies that have supported this result include Allman and Shearer (2009) and Baltay et al. (2011). As magnitude decreases, attenuation and decreasing stress drop have a similar effect on the spectral shape (e.g. Anderson, 1986), but studies that have taken considerable care to separate the effects have generally concluded that the stress drop remains independent of magnitude down to extremely small magnitudes (e.g. Abercrombie, 1995; Ide et al., 2003; Baltay et al., 2010, 2011). A caveat is that for any given fault dimension the range of magnitudes can vary considerably (e.g. Kanamori and Allen, 1986). In spite of this variability, it seems reasonable to evaluate whether a scaling relationship that is based on a constant stress drop can be proposed that performs well with the data for magnitude and rupture length. A discussion of models for the relationship of stress drop and the fault dimensions is deferred to an appendix. The following sections describe the data, fit some alternative models to the data, and discuss the results.

### 3 Data

Table 1 lists the earthquakes used in this analysis. A complete list of considered events is given in the spreadsheet *aMasterEventTable\_2015-10-6b.xlsx*. This spreadsheet, together with citations for all values, is given in an Online Supplement. Events considered for analysis come from Biasi and Wesnousky (2016) and Anderson et al. (1996). Some events they considered were not included because they did not have surface rupture or because fault slip rate was not sufficiently well known. The events that are used are listed in Tables 1 and 2.

Figure 1 shows the cumulative number of earthquakes used as a function of time. From 1944-2013, the rate of usable events is relatively steady, about 0.9 events per year. The rate is lower prior to  $\sim 1930$ , reflecting the smaller fraction of well documented surface ruptures. Considering the frequency of usable events

in the most recent half century, Figure 1 suggests that there were potentially a few dozen earthquakes from the late 19th and early 20th century that might eventually be added in a future compilation.

The earthquakes were separated into general categories of strike-slip, normal, and reverse faulting. Figure 2 shows the exceedance rates of earthquakes in each of these categories as a function of magnitude, both combined and separated by focal mechanism. To estimate the rates, the number of earthquakes for each of the curves was divided by 100 years. Considering Figure 1, this is obviously an approximation, but the events prior to  $\sim 1910$  may roughly compensate for the missing events since 1910, so we consider the result to be useful. For instance, Figure 2 finds that events that cause surface rupture with  $M_w \geq 7$  have occurred roughly once every two years, that 80% of those events were strike slip, about 15% had reverse mechanisms, and about 5% had normal mechanisms. Anderson et al. (2005) previously estimated the relative rates of surface-rupturing events for purposes of assessing the rates at which strong motion data might be gathered from large crustal earthquakes. The assessment in Figure 2 updates those estimates.

Figure 3 shows maps with locations of all events, using different types of symbols for different mechanisms. The insets show more details on locations of events from the western US, the eastern Mediterranean region, and Japan.

Table 1: Earthquakes from 1968-2011 used in this study.

Event Number	Event Name	Event Date	Mw	Rupture Length, km	Slip Rate, mm/yr
2	Fukushima-Hamadori, Japan	11-Apr-2011	6.7	15	0.02
4	Yushu, China	14-Apr-2010	6.8	52	12
5	El Mayor Cucapah	4-Apr-2010	7.3	117	2.5
6	Wenchuan, China	12-May-2008	7.9	240	1.3
7	Kashmir, Pakistan	8-Oct-2005	7.6	70	3.1
8	Chuya, Russia (Gorny Altay)	27-Sep-2003	7.2	70	0.5
9	Denali, Alaska	3-Nov-2002	7.8	340	12.4
10	Kunlun, China	14-Nov-2001	7.7	450	10
11	Duzce, Turkey	12-Nov-1999	7.1	40	15
12	Hector Mine, California	16-Oct-1999	7.1	48	0.6
13	Chi-Chi, Taiwan	21-Sep-1999	7.7	72	12.9
14	Izmit, Turkey	17-Aug-1999	7.5	145	12
15	Fandoqa, Iran	14-Mar-1998	6.6	22	2
16	Manyi, China	8-Nov-1997	7.4	170	3
17	Sakhale Island (Neftegors)	27-May-1995	7	40	4
18	Northridge	17-Jan-1994	6.7	21	0.4
19	Landers	28-Jun-1992	7.2	77	0.4
20	Luzon	16-Jul-1990	7.7	112	15
21	Rudbar	20-Jun-1990	7.4	80	1
22	Loma Prieta	17-Oct-1989	6.8	35	3.2
25	Superstition Hill	24-Nov-1987	6.6	25	3
26	Edgecumbe	2-Mar-1987	6.4	15.5	2
28	Marryat	3-Mar-1986	5.8	13	0.005
29	Morgan Hill	24-Apr-1984	6.1	20	5.2
30	Borah Peak	28-Oct-1983	6.8	36	0.15
31	Coalinga,	2-May-1983	6.4	25	1.4
32	Sirch	29-Jul-1981	7.1	65	4.3
33	Corinth	25-Feb-1981	6.1	14	1.7
34	Corinth	4-Mar-1981	5.9	15	0.3
35	Daofu	24-Jan-1981	6.7	44	12
36	El Asnam (Ech Cheliff)	10-Oct-1980	6.9	36	0.8
37	Imperial Valley,	15-Oct-1979	6.4	36	17
38	Coyote Lake,	6-Aug-1979	5.8	14	11.9
40	Tabas	16-Sep-1978	7.4	90	1.3
41	Bob-Tangol	19-Dec-1977	5.8	19.5	4
42	Motagua	4-Feb-1976	7.5	230	12
43	Luhuo	6-Feb-1973	7.5	90	14
44	San Fernando	9-Feb-1971	6.8	19	1.8
45	Tonghai	4-Jan-1970	7.2	60	2
46	Dasht-e-Bayaz	31-Aug-1968	7.1	80	5
47	Borrego Mntn	9-Apr-1968	6.6	33	6.7

Table 2: Earthquakes from 1848 - 1967 used in this study.

Event Number	Event Name	Event Date	Mw	Rupture Length, km	Slip Rate, mm/yr
48	Mudurnu Valley	22-Jul-1967	7.3	80	18
49	Parkfield	28-Jun-1966	6.2	28	30
51	Alake Lake - or - Tuosuohu Lake or Dulan	19-Apr-1963	7	40	12
52	Ipak or Buyin-Zara	1-Sep-1962	7	100	1
53	Hebgen Lake	18-Aug-1959	7.3	25	0.5
54	Gobi-Altai	4-Dec-1957	8.1	260	1
55	San Miguel	14-Feb-1956	6.6	20	0.3
56	Fairview Peak	16-Dec-1954	7.1	46	0.14
57	Dixie Valley	16-Dec-1954	6.6	47	0.5
58	Gonen-Yenice	18-Mar-1953	7.3	60	6.8
60	Gerede-Bolu	1-Feb-1944	7.3	155	18
61	Tosya	26-Nov-1943	7.6	275	19
62	Tottori	10-Sep-1943	6.9	33	0.3
63	Niksar-Erbaa	20-Dec-1942	6.8	50	19
64	Imperial Valley,	19-May-1940	7.1	60	17
65	Erzincan	25-Dec-1939	7.8	330	19
66	Tuosuo Lake - Huashixia	7-Jan-1937	7.6	150	11
67	Parkfield	8-Jun-1934	6.2	25	30
68	Long Beach	10-Mar-1933	6.4	22	1.1
69	Changma	25-Dec-1932	7.6	149	5
70	Fuyun	10-Aug-1931	7.9	160	0.3
71	N. Izu	25-Nov-1930	6.9	28	2.4
72	Laikipia	6-Jan-1928	6.8	38	0.18
73	Tango	7-Mar-1927	7	35	0.3
74	Luoho-Qiajiao(Daofu)	24-Mar-1923	7.3	80	10
75	Haiyuan	16-Dec-1920	8	237	7
76	Pleasant Valley	3-Oct-1915	7.3	61	0.1
77	Chon-Kemin (Kebin)	3-Jan-1911	8	177	2
78	San Francisco	18-Apr-1906	7.9	497	21
79	Bulnay	23-Jul-1905	8.5	375	3
80	Laguna Salada	1892-02-23	7.2	42	2.5
81	Rikuu	1896-08-31	7.2	40	1
82	Nobi/ Mino-Owari	28-Jun-1908	7.4	80	1.6
83	Canterbury	1888-09-01	7.1	65	14
84	Sonora	1887-05-13	7.2	101.8	0.08
85	Owens Valley	1872-03-26	7.4	110	3.5
86	Hayward	1868-10-21	6.9	61	8
87	Fort Tejon	1857-01-09	7.8	339	25
88	Marlborough	1848-10-16	7.5	134	5.6

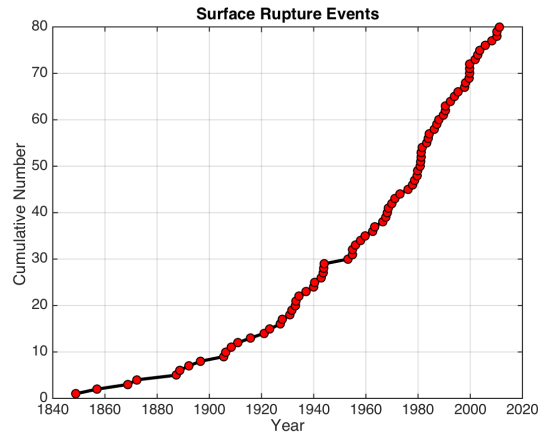


Figure 1: Cumulative number of events used in this analysis (Table 1 and 2), shown as a function of time.

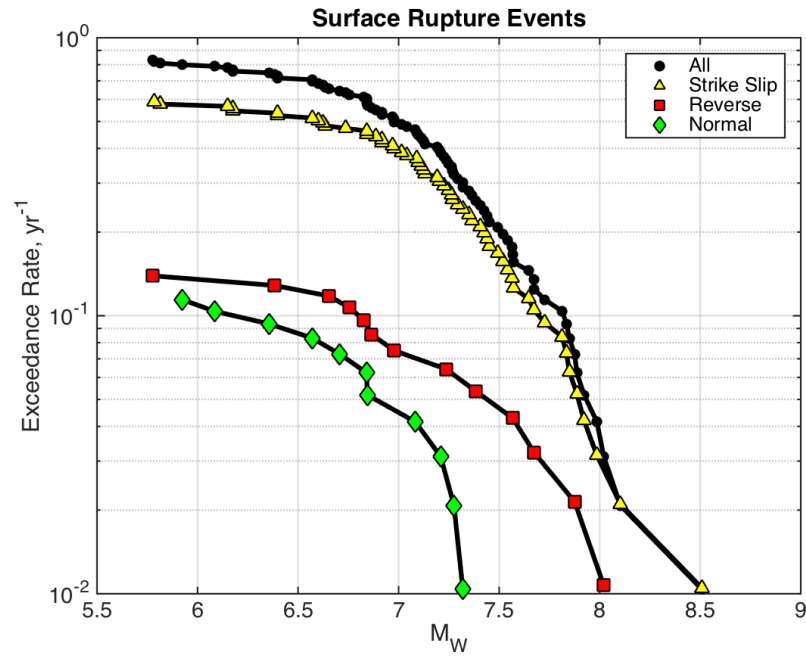


Figure 2: Event rates, as a function of magnitude and event types. The rates are estimated based on the approximation that the data represent about 100 years of seismicity, as discussed in the text.



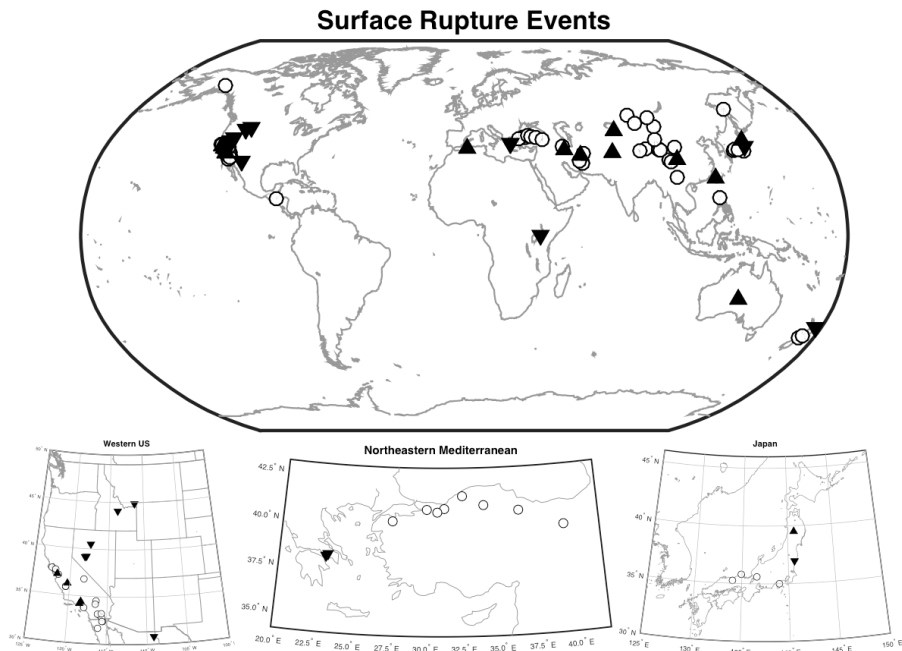


Figure 3: Locations of events considered in this study. Open circles show locations of events with a strike-slip mechanism. Upward-pointed triangles represent reverse events, and downward-pointed triangles represent normal mechanisms.

## 4 Modeling Approaches

We fit the data with three models, each of which is described in greater detail described in the Appendix. The first, M1, explores a linear regression of  $M_W$  with the logs of length and slip rate:

$$M_W = c_0 + c_1 \log L_E + c_2 \log \frac{S_F}{S_0} \quad (1)$$

where  $L_E$  is the rupture length measured along strike,  $S_F$  is the long-term average geological slip rate on the fault,  $M_W$  is moment magnitude (Kanamori, 1977), and  $c_0$ ,  $c_1$ , and  $c_2$  are three unknown coefficients. Mathematically,  $c_0$  trades off with  $c_2 \log S_0$ , so the parameter  $S_0$  is set equal to the log average slip rate for the ensemble of events with the considered focal mechanisms. Based on equations in the Appendix, the stress drop varies continuously with  $L_E$  in model M1. With this convention, Equation 1 with  $c_2 = 0$  provides the best model when  $S_F$  is unknown. Two misfit parameters are considered. The first,  $\sigma_1$  is the standard deviation of the difference between observed and predicted magnitudes when  $c_2 = 0$ , while  $\sigma_3$  is the corresponding standard deviation when the slip rate term in Equation 1 is incorporated.

The second, M2, has constant stress-drop slopes for small and large earthquakes:

$$\begin{aligned} M_W &= M_{bp} + c_{1C} \log\left(\frac{L_E}{L_{bp}}\right) + c_2 \log\left(\frac{S_F}{S_0}\right) & L_E < L_{bp} \\ M_W &= M_{bp} + c_{1L} \log\left(\frac{L_E}{L_{bp}}\right) + c_2 \log\left(\frac{S_F}{S_0}\right) & L_E \geq L_{bp} \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where  $c_{1C} = 2$  and  $c_{1L} = 2/3$ . As described further in the Appendix, models for the scaling of a small fault with constant stress drop have slope  $c_{1C} = 2$ , while models for a long fault have slope  $c_{1L} = 2/3$  (e.g. Kanamori and Anderson, 1975). Equation 2 does not require the stress drop to be the same for small and large earthquakes. The three unknown parameters in model M2 are  $L_{bp}$ , the rupture length where the slope changes from 2 to 2/3,  $M_{bp}$ , the magnitude at that transition, and  $c_2$  which is again the sensitivity of magnitude to fault slip rate. Thus Equation 2 has the same number of unknown parameters to be determined from the data as Equation 1.

In the third model, M3, maintains a constant stress drop,  $\Delta\tau_C$ , for all rupture lengths according to the relationships of Chinnery (1964):

$$M_W = \begin{cases} 2 \log L_E + \frac{2}{3} \log \Delta\tau_C + \frac{2}{3} \left( \log \frac{2\pi}{C_{LW} C(\gamma)} - 16.1 \right) + c_2 \log \left( \frac{S_F}{S_0} \right) & \frac{L_E}{C_{LW}} < W_{max} \\ \frac{2}{3} \log L_E + \frac{2}{3} \log \Delta\tau_C + \frac{2}{3} \left( \log \frac{2\pi W_{max}^2}{C(\gamma)} - 16.1 \right) + c_2 \log \left( \frac{S_F}{S_0} \right) & \frac{L_E}{C_{LW}} \geq W_{max} \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

where

$$C(\gamma) = 2 \cos \gamma + 3 \tan \gamma - \frac{\cos \gamma \sin \gamma (3 + 4 \sin \gamma)}{(1 + \sin \gamma)^2} \quad (4)$$

and  $\gamma$  is the angle from the top center of the fault to either of the bottom corners, i.e.  $\tan \gamma = 2W_E/L_E$ . The Appendix describes the Chinnery (1964) model, and its adaptation to obtain Equation 3. This model depends on four parameters. These are the aspect ratio of the fault for small ruptures,  $C_{LW} = L_E/W_E$ , the maximum fault width  $W_{max}$  at which, if the selected aspect ratio implies a width greater than  $W_{max}$  the width is set to  $W_{max}$ , the stress drop,  $\Delta\tau_C$ , and  $c_2$ , the coefficient that quantifies the slip rate dependence.

Model Equations 1, 2, and 3 require different strategies to obtain their unknown coefficients. The simplest way to find the unknown coefficients for Equation 1 is by using a linear least-squares regression, which minimizes the misfit of the prediction of  $M_W$ , but does not account for uncertainties in  $L_E$  or  $S_F$ . ASW96 approached this difficulty by carrying out multiple regressions for points chosen at random within the range of allowed values of all three parameters, and then looked at the distribution of derived values of the inferred constants. Alternative approaches to find the coefficients, described variously as “total least squares” or “general orthogonal regression” (e.g. Castellaro et al., 2006; Castellaro and Borman, 2007; Wikipedia article “Total Least Squares” accessed Feb. 15, 2015) were also considered. The approach by ASW96 turned out to give the least biased results for a set of synthetic data with an uncertainty model that we considered to be realistic and consistent with the actual data, so their approach is also used in this study.

Equation 2 has the additional complication of being non-linear in  $L_{bp}$ . We approach the solution by reorganizing Equation 2 as

$$M_{bp} + c_2 \log \left( \frac{S_F}{S_0} \right) = M_W - c_{1x} \log \left( \frac{L_E}{L_{bp}} \right) \quad (5)$$

where  $c_{1x}$  is either  $c_{1C}$  or  $c_{1L}$  depending of  $L_E$ . Assuming a value for  $L_{bp}$ , it is straightforward to find the unknown coefficients  $M_{bp}$  and  $c_2$ . We considered a set of closely-spaced values of  $L_{bp}$  from the smallest to the longest rupture length in the data, and choose the value with the smallest total misfit. As in the linear case, we solved for the coefficients of Equation 5 multiple times with randomized values of  $M_W$ ,  $L_E$ , and  $S_F$ , and our preferred model is the mean of the coefficients from the multiple realizations.

Model M3 (Equation 3) has four unknown parameters, where the effects of  $C_{LW}$  and  $W_{max}$  are nonlinear (Appendix, Figure 18). For this reason, a grid search was performed. For each of 506 combinations on a grid of  $C_{LW}$  and  $W_{max}$ , 10,000 realizations of fault parameters were fit with optimal values of  $\Delta\tau_C$  and  $c_2$ . The combinations that optimized magnitude misfit neglecting the slip rate ( $\sigma_1$ ) and including the slip rate ( $\sigma_3$ ) were identified. The minima in  $\sigma_1$  and  $\sigma_3$  did not generally occur for the same combinations of  $C_{LW}$  and  $W_{max}$ , so some judgement was involved in the parameter selection. Because the results of model M3 might potentially be used for faults where slip rate is unknown, we favored minimizing  $\sigma_1$ , but as the minimum in  $\sigma_1$  was broad, it was possible to select  $C_{LW}$  and  $W_{max}$  to nearly minimize  $\sigma_1$  where  $\sigma_3$  was also small. The grid limits were chosen to only include maximum fault widths that were considered reasonable from a physical standpoint, while also noting the suggestions of Shaw and Scholz (2001), King and Wesnousky (2007), and Shaw and Wesnousky (2008) that a dynamic rupture in a large earthquake might reasonably extend deeper than the brittle crustal depths associated with microearthquakes.

## 5 Analysis Results

Figures 4, 5, and 6 show results for strike-slip data sets for the three models. Next, Figures 7, 8, and 9 show equivalent results for the set of reverse faults. Figures 10, 11, and 12 show equivalent results for the normal faults. Finally, for continuity with ASW96, Figures 13, 14, and 15 show the results for combined data sets, but as will be discussed subsequently the value of this combined model is subject to challenge and we do not recommend its use. Model coefficients for models M1, M3, and M3 are given in Tables 3, 4, and 5, respectively. For each model, the coefficients and their uncertainties in Tables 3, 4, and 5 are based on 10,000 regressions where, for each,  $M_W$ ,  $L_E$ , and  $S_F$  are chosen at random from the range of uncertainties given in the Online Supplement. The standard deviations of  $M_W$  from the models without considering slip rate,  $\sigma_1$ , and including the effect of the slip rate,  $\sigma_3$ , are the average values from the

10,000 realizations. These are also given in Tables 3, 4, and 5, and shown on the figures.

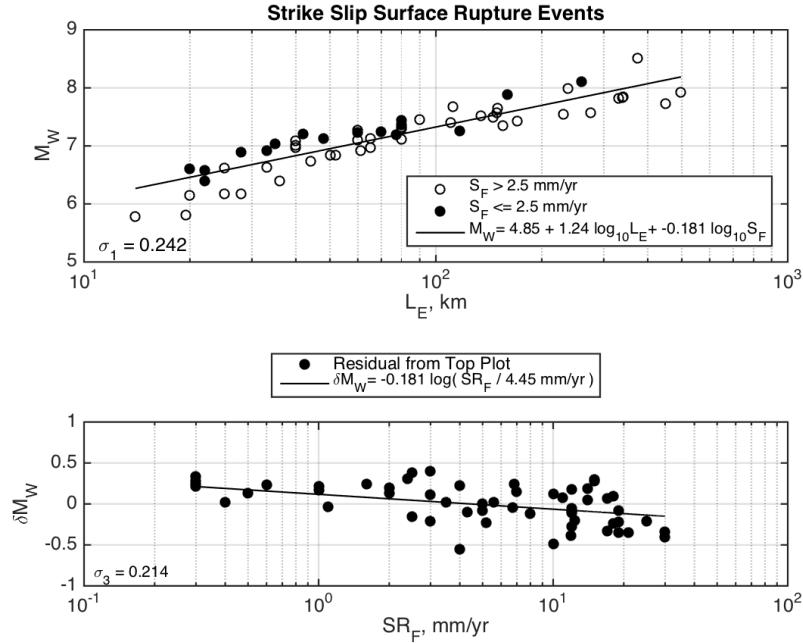


Figure 4: The linear model, M1, applied to the strike-slip earthquakes in Tables 1 and 2. *Upper frame* shows  $M_W$  plotted as a function of  $L_E$ . Points are all the preferred values, as given in the Tables. Solid points represent low slip-rate faults. The solid line uses coefficients given in Table 3 and the average value of  $S_F$ , 4.45 mm/yr in this case. The lower frame shows the residuals of the points in the upper frame from the shown linear model. The solid line shows the predicted effect of  $S_F$  based on the coefficients in Table 3. The significant effect of fault slip rate is seen in the clear separation of low and high slip-rate faults in the upper panel, and the significant slope in the lower panel.

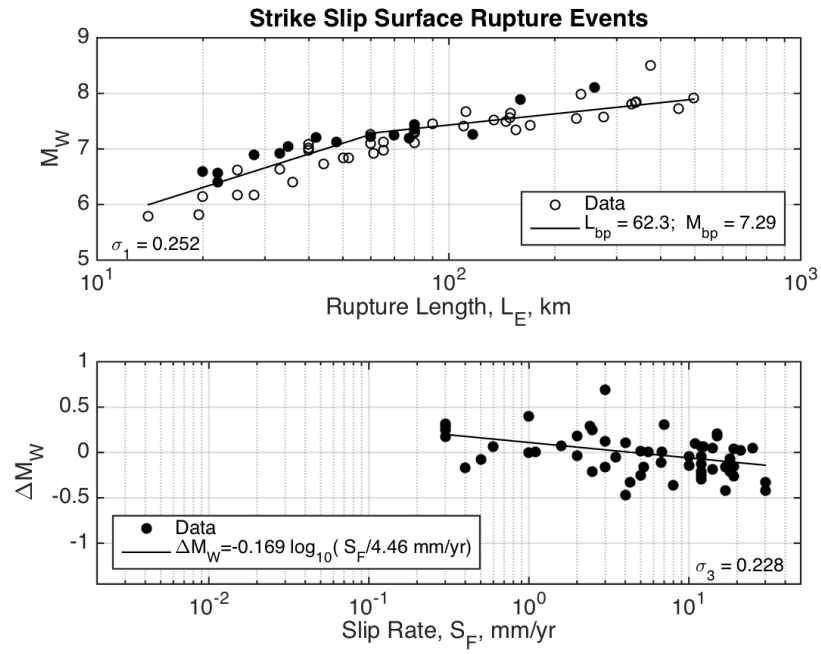


Figure 5: The bi-linear model, M2, applied to the strike-slip earthquakes in Tables 1 and 2. Other figure details are as in Figure 4. Coefficients for the lines are given in Table 4.

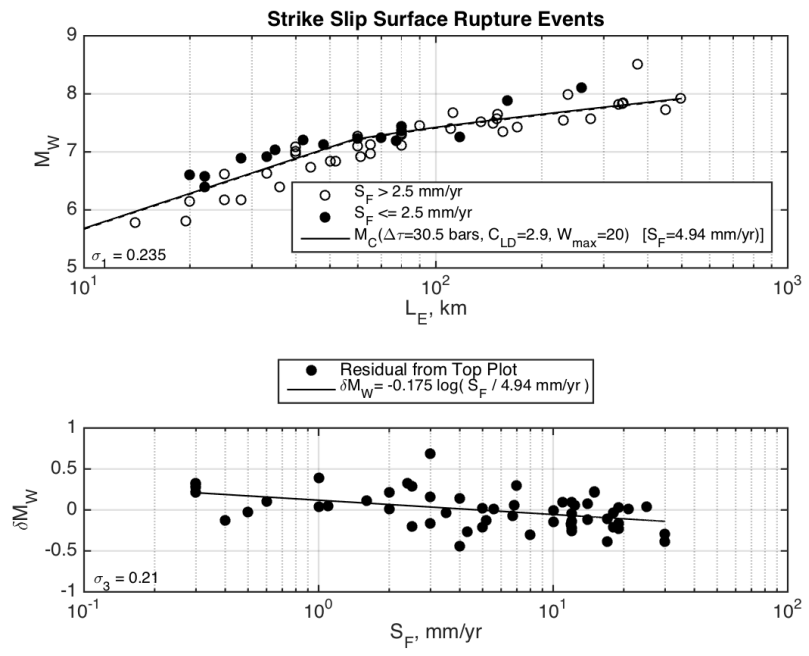


Figure 6: Model M3, applied to the strike-slip earthquakes in Tables 1 and 2. Other figure details are as in Figure 4. Coefficients for the lines are given in Table 5.

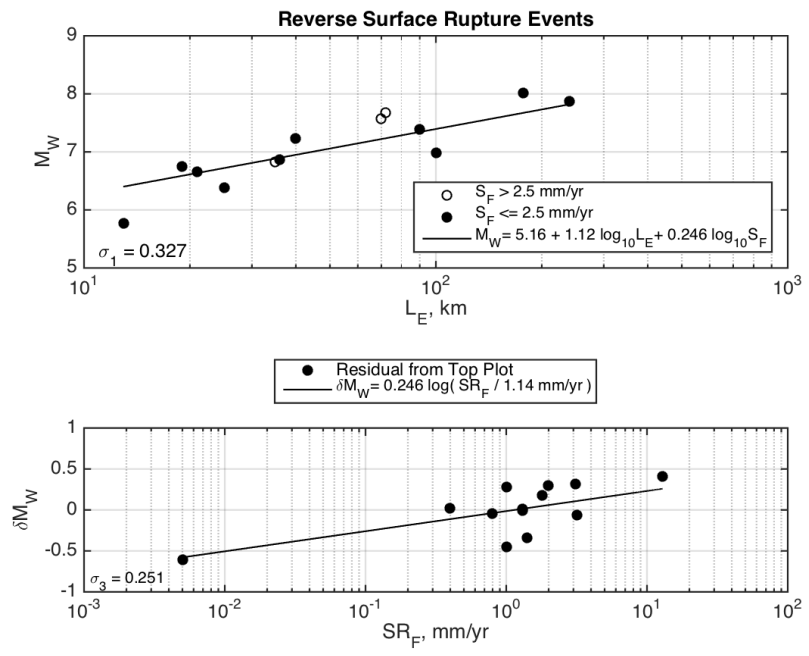


Figure 7: Linear model, M1, is applied to the reverse earthquakes in Tables 1 and 2. Other figure details are as in Figure 4. Coefficients for the lines are given in Table 3.

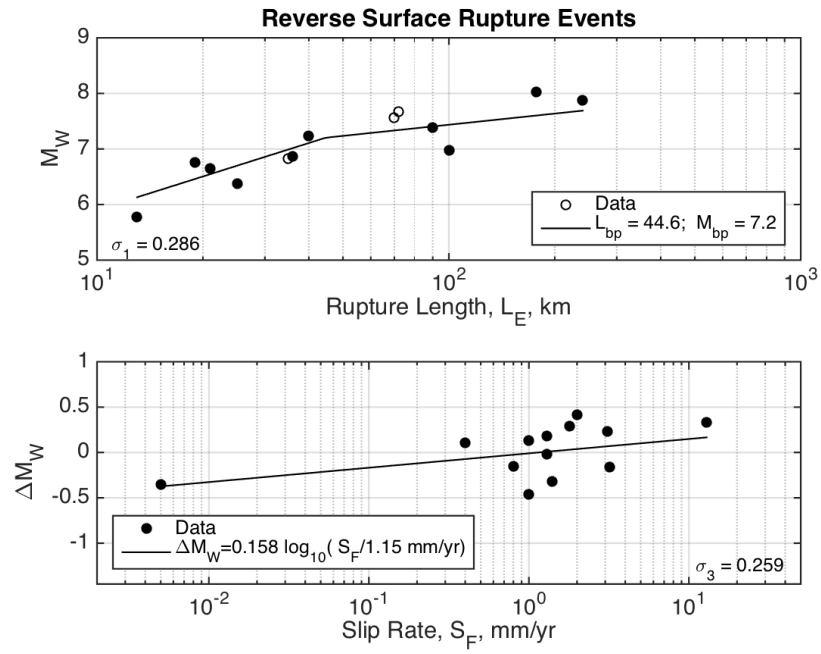


Figure 8: Bi-linear model, M2, applied to reverse earthquakes in Tables 1 and 2. Other figure details are as in Figure 4. Coefficients for the lines are given in Table 4.



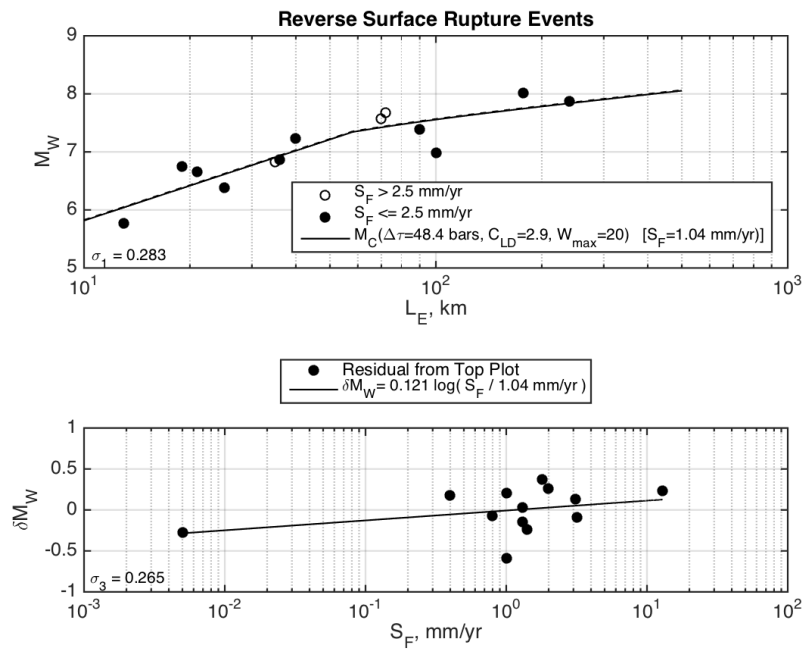


Figure 9: Model M3, applied to the reverse earthquakes in Tables 1 and 2. Other figure details are as in Figure 4. Coefficients for the lines are given in Table 5.

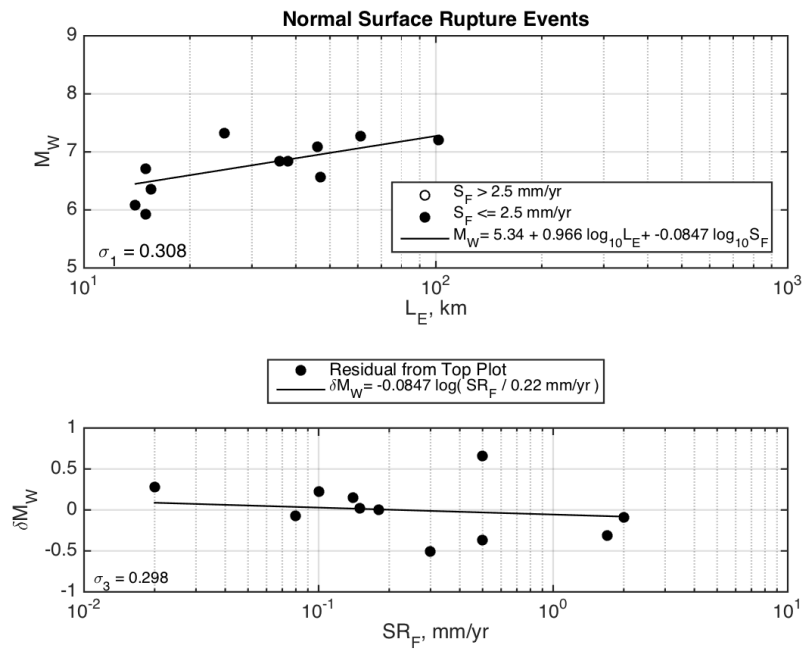


Figure 10: Linear model, M1, applied to the normal earthquakes in Tables 1 and 2. Other figure details are as in Figure 4. Coefficients for the lines are given in Table 3.

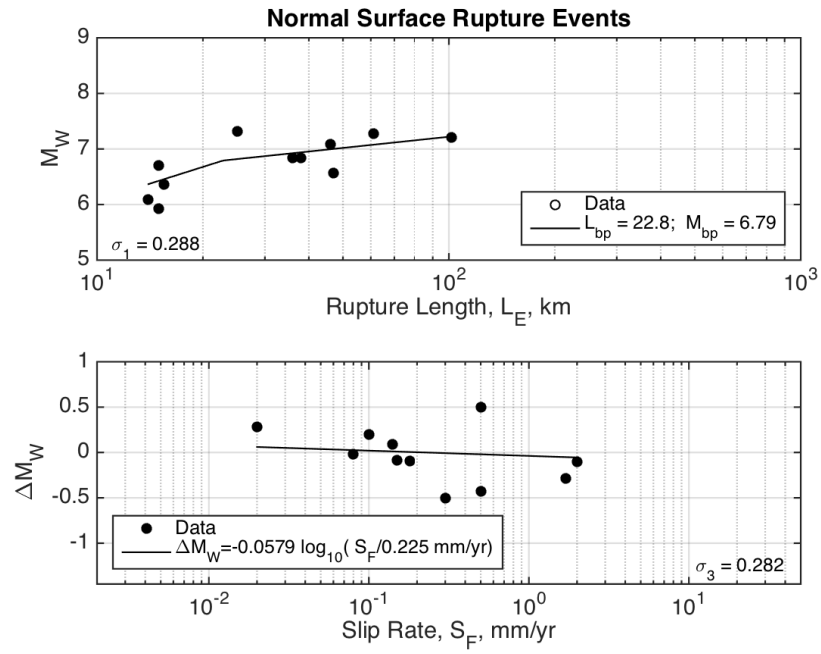


Figure 11: Bi-linear model, M2, applied to the normal earthquakes in Tables 1 and 2. Other figure details are as in Figure 4. Coefficients for the lines are given in Table 4.

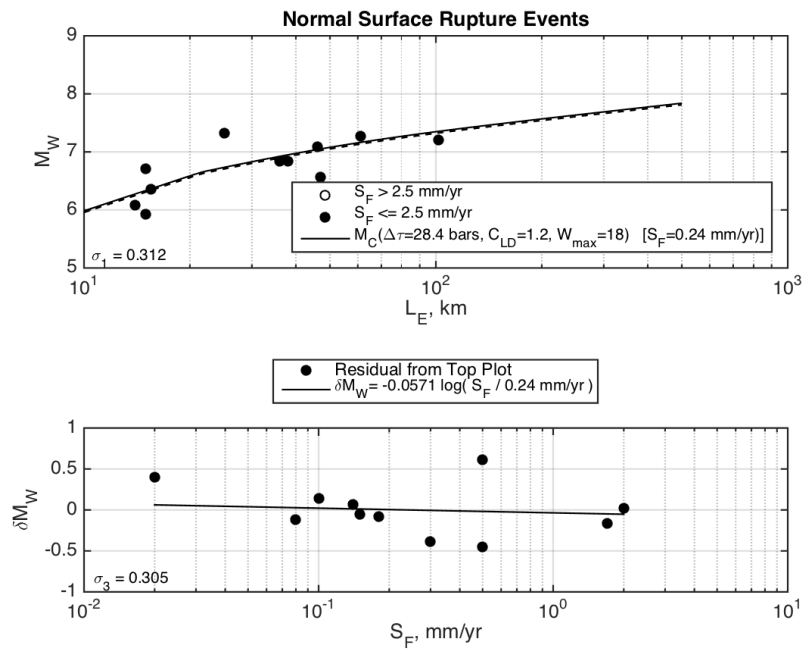


Figure 12: Model M3, applied to the normal earthquakes in Tables 1 and 2. Other figure details are as in Figure 4. Coefficients for the lines are given in Table 5.

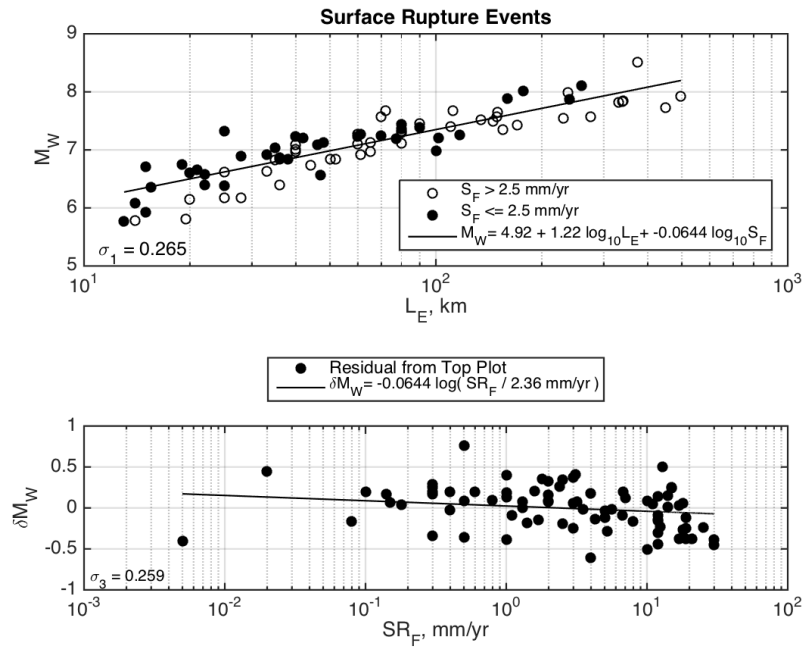


Figure 13: Linear model, M1, applied to all earthquakes in Tables 1 and 2, regardless of mechanism. Other figure details are as in Figure 4. Coefficients for the lines are given in Table 3.

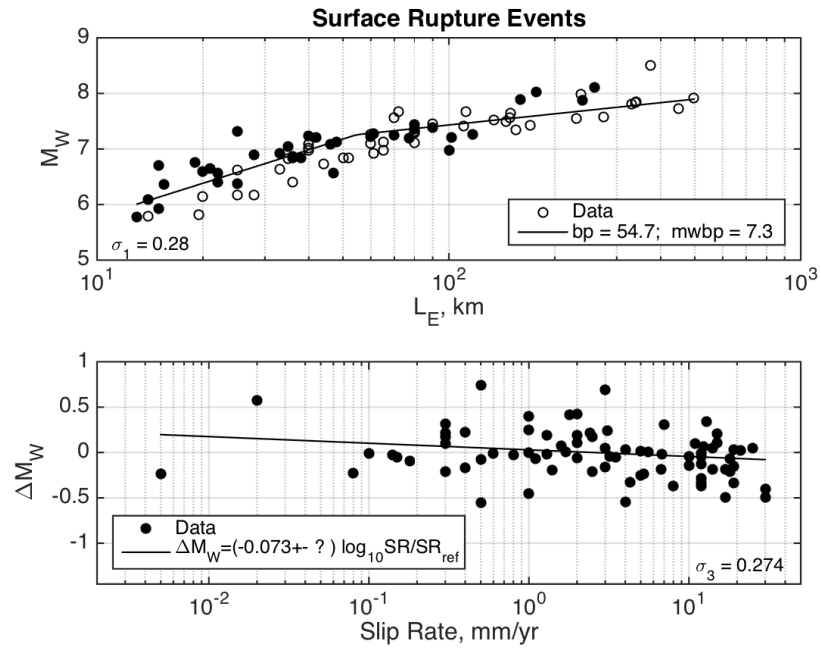


Figure 14: Bi-linear model, M2, applied to all earthquakes in Tables 1 and 2, regardless of mechanism. Other figure details are as in Figure 4. Coefficients for the lines are given in Table 4.

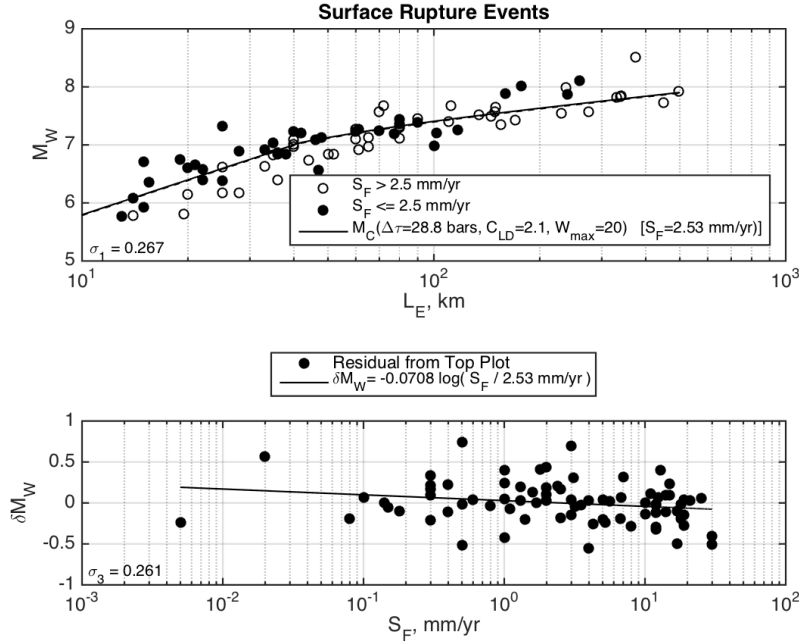


Figure 15: Model M3, applied to all earthquakes in Tables 1 and 2, regardless of mechanism. Other figure details are as in Figure 4. Coefficients for the lines are given in Table 5.

## 5.1 Linear model

The parameters for the linear models are given in Table 3. As noted previously, the linear model is obtained by solving for the coefficients  $c_0$ ,  $c_1$ , and  $c_2$  of Equation 1 using a standard least-squares regression. Figure 16 shows the distribution of coefficients found for 10,000 trials for strike-slip faults. The widths of these distributions are used to estimate the uncertainty in each coefficient. The coefficients  $c_0$ ,  $c_1$ , and  $c_2$  are found simultaneously, as opposed to a possible alternative approach in which  $c_0$  and  $c_1$  could be found first, and then  $c_2$  determined by a second independent line fit to the residuals.

For strike-slip events, which dominate the data,  $c_2 = -0.18$ , similar to ASW96 (Figure 4). The data with a reverse mechanism support magnitude increasing, rather than decreasing, with increased slip rate (Figure 7), while for the events with a normal mechanism the slip-rate dependence is not distinguishable from zero (Figure 10). Considering the distribution of slip rate data in Figure 7, it is apparent that the event with slip rate of 0.005 mm/yr has a very strong influence on the slope of the slip-rate dependence. This is the 1968 Marryat Creek, Australia earthquake, M5.8, #28 in Table 1. As an intracontinental event, one could legitimately question whether it should be included. Relevant

points in this regard are, first that the physics of rupture of crystalline rocks with a crustal composition are not, a-priori, different merely because the fault is located far from a plate boundary. The second point is that the Marrayat Creek event tends to decrease the slope of the slip rate dependence, as a consideration of the remaining points will reveal. Nonetheless, if this point were excluded, the domain of the remaining slip rates would be reduced so much that the slope of the line, while positive, would not be distinguishable from zero.

Thus, the results for the linear model challenge the validity of models that combine the different faulting types. The ASW96 model was  $M_W = 5.12 + 1.16 \log L_E - 0.20 \log S_F$ , which is only slightly different from Figure 13, and the uncertainty for the combined data set is 0.259, which is not distinguishable to the value of 0.26 in ASW96. This result demonstrates continuity with the previous study. However, the results separated by mechanism indicate that this trend is dominated by strike slip, while the normal mechanisms show little or no slip-rate dependence, and the reverse mechanisms potentially showing a different dependence. Suppose as a thought experiment that the dip-slip cases are pure noise. A strong strike-slip case plus some noise will still resolve to a decently significant trend even though we added only noise. The problem in the combined regression becomes we would use it to project back from the strong case into the noise, and say things about future dip-slip earthquake expectations that aren't likely based on the available data.

Table 3: Parameters for the linear model, M1, given by Equation 1, for the different fault types considered separately, and for the combined set of all earthquakes listed in Table 1 and 2.

	Strike-Slip	Reverse	Normal	Combined
$c_1$	$4.85 \pm 0.0588$	$5.16 \pm 0.095$	$5.34 \pm 0.175$	$4.92 \pm 0.0481$
$c_2$	$1.24 \pm 0.0292$	$1.12 \pm 0.0562$	$0.966 \pm 0.118$	$1.22 \pm 0.025$
$c_3$	$-0.181 \pm 0.0198$	$0.246 \pm 0.0326$	$-0.0874 \pm 0.0863$	$-0.0644 \pm 0.0131$
$S_0$	4.45 mm/yr	1.14 mm/yr	0.22 mm/yr	2.36 mm/yr
$\sigma_1$	0.242	0.327	0.308	0.265
$\sigma_3$	0.214	0.251	0.298	0.259



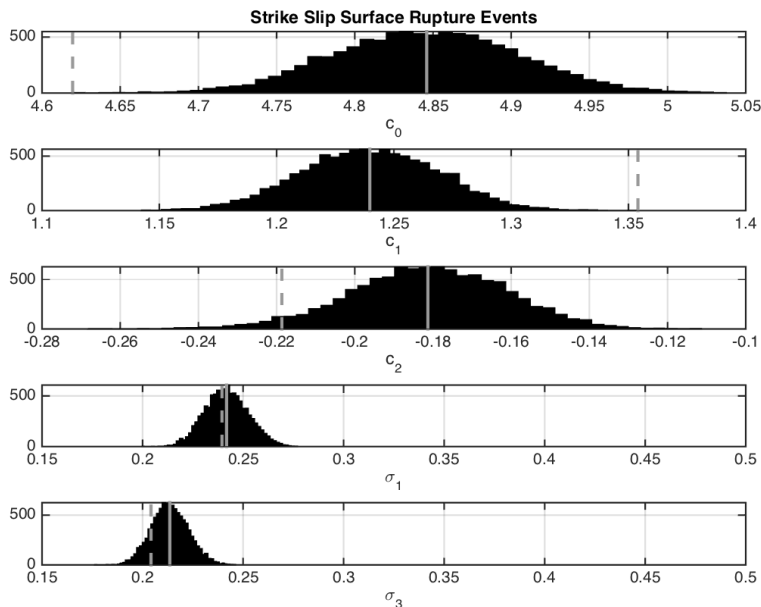


Figure 16: Coefficient distribution, linear, strike-slip case. The bar chart shows number of occurrences of parameter values among 10,000 realizations for randomly selected values of Mw, LE, and SF within the uncertainty range of each. Solid gray line shows the mean value of each parameter. The dashed gray line shows the value found for the preferred value of Mw, LE, and SF for each earthquake. The clear negative value of  $c_2$  corresponds to decreasing relative magnitude predictions with increasing slip rate.

## 5.2 Bilinear, with optimum break point

The bilinear model is calculated following the approach described in Equation 5. Figure 17 shows an example of the distribution of coefficients for the reverse mechanism case. Table 4 gives coefficients for the bilinear models. The results are mixed, with some cases showing small but generally not statistically significant increase in  $\sigma_1$  and  $\sigma_3$  compared to the linear case.

For the strike-slip case, the fit to the data in Figure 5 is better at large rupture lengths than in Figure 4. At large lengths, the point in Figures 4 and 5 plotted at 375 km and M8.5 is the 1905 Mongolia, earthquake. There is uncertainty in how to measure the rupture length, as the 375 km length does not include a spur fault that is 100 km long; at 475 km total rupture length, this event would be less of an outlier. For this and other reasons, the Bulnay, Mongolia event is recognized as exceptional. This and other complexities in how to measure rupture length need future study.

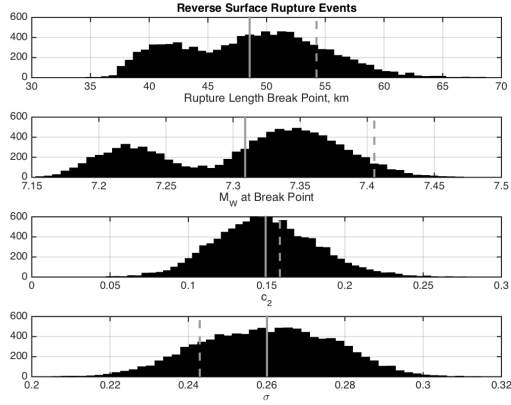


Figure 17: Bilinear - coefficients for reverse faulting. Other figure details are as in Figure 16.

Table 4: Bilinear model coefficients

	Strike-Slip	Reverse	Normal	Combined
$L_{bp}$	$62.2 \pm 5.49$	$44.6 \pm 5.07$	$22.8 \pm 1.66$	$54.7 \pm 3.23$
$M_{bp}$	$7.29 \pm 0.0432$	$7.20 \pm 0.0686$	$6.79 \pm 0.0359$	$7.26 \pm 0.0295$
$c_2$	$-0.170 \pm 0.0272$	$0.158 \pm 0.0323$	$-0.0596 \pm 0.0714$	$-0.0726 \pm 0.0151$
$S_0$	4.46	1.15	0.225	2.36
$\sigma_1$	0.252	0.286	0.288	.280
$\sigma_3$	0.228	0.259	0.282	.274

### 5.3 Constant stress drop model

Parameters for the constant stress drop model M3 are given in Table 5. For strike-slip cases, this approach has smaller values of both  $\sigma_1$  and  $\sigma_3$  than either models M1 or M2. While this improvement is small, it is encouraging that a model with constant stress drop achieves this result.  $W_{max}$  for this model is in the range suggested by King and Wesnousky (2007). The optimal aspect ratio of 2.9 is smaller than suggested by Shaw and Scholz (2001). For the reverse faulting data we considered values of  $L_{max}$  up to 30 km since reverse faults can have low dips, and that upper limit is the preferred value. M3 has a smaller value of  $\sigma_1$  than M1 or M2 for the reverse faulting case, but the slip rate was not as effective at decreasing  $\sigma_3$  in M3 as in M1. For normal faulting, M1 has a slight edge over M3.

Table 5: Chinnery model coefficients

	Strike-Slip	Reverse	Normal	Combined
$\Delta\tau_C$ , bars	30.5	48.4	28.4	28.8
$C_{LW}$	2.9	1.4	1.2	2.1
$L_{max}$ , km	20	30	18	20
$c_2$	-0.175	0.121	0.057	-0.071
$S_0$ , mm/yr	4.94	1.04	0.24	2.53
$\sigma_1$	0.235	0.283	0.312	0.267
$\sigma_3$	0.210	0.265	0.305	0.261

## 6 Discussion

The larger data set modeled here compared to ASW96 expands our understanding of slip rate dependence. Statistically significant improvements are realized with slip rate dependence for strike-slip faults for all three models considered here. On the other hand, individual models for reverse and normal faulting have, at best, an equivocal place for slip rate dependence. For linear and bilinear models of the normal faulting events, but not the constant stress drop model, at least the sign of slip rate dependence agrees with strike-slip. Thus normal faulting could have slip rate dependence toward smaller magnitudes for higher slip rate faults, but just lack sufficient data to prove it. The reverse faulting events disagree even at the sign of the effect. The disagreement is present whether we retain either or both of the apparent outliers in Figures 7-9. Thus based on the current data, we do not find support for the general reduction of magnitude with slip rate implied by the combined set regression. It appears that the strength of the slip rate effect among strike slip events and their shear numbers relative to dip slip events overwhelm the ambiguous (normal) and contrary (reverse) data, leading to an apparently general slip-rate relationship among all data. Thus our new data set contributes the understanding that slip rate dependence is dominantly a strike-slip fault effect that is not inconsistent with normal faulting, and not apparently consistent with reverse mechanism fault rupture. The data available to ASW96 did not permit this distinction.

If we are guided by studies of earthquake source physics, model M3 may be preferable to M1 or M2. Specifically, the advantage would be the apparently constant stress drop of earthquakes over the full range of magnitudes, consistent with e.g. Allmann and Shearer (2009). The slope of the linear model, M1, with rupture length implies that stress drop increases significantly with rupture length. The slopes of the bilinear model, M2, are consistent with simple models for scaling with constant stress drop in the small and large earthquake domains, but the stress drops in the two domains are different. In addition, since the buried circular rupture model by construction does not reach the surface, its applicability to the short ruptures of M2 is not obvious.

Constant stress drop model M3 has the important advantage compared to dislocation models in a half-space, in that it is explicitly designed for surface-

rupturing earthquakes. Stress differences due to the free surface effect of rupture are recognized as having significant effects on ground motion. For this reason we can expect that it will perform well where magnitude scaling is required for application to strong ground motions. In exchange the Chinnery (1964) model has a singularity of stress drop near its edges, which enables a closed form solution. This approximation is probably no more significant than those already made to summarize spatial variability in recordings of actual individual earthquakes. The application of the same functional form for dip-slip earthquakes is entirely ad-hoc, of course. Although it is more complicated, its consistency with a physical model with a constant stress drop commends it as a preferred regression. Compared with the better-known equations summarized by Kanamori and Anderson (1975), the stress drop parameter in this model is smaller, emphasizing that all stress drop estimates are model dependent.

The decreased magnitude for high-slip rate strike-slip faults implies that the stress drop on those faults is lower. The finding is consistent with the hypothesis of Kanamori and Allen (1986) that a longer healing time results in a larger stress required to initiate rupture, and thus a higher stress drop. For normal or reverse faulting, the slip-rate dependence is low, and the slip-rate coefficient  $c_2$  is indistinguishable from zero. The findings suggest that, if  $c_2$  is not zero for these cases, then  $c_2$  is positive for reverse faulting earthquakes. This is contrary to the hypothesis of Kanamori and Allen. We suggest that if this positive slope is confirmed with added data, the physical mechanism may be related to the dynamics of rupture. For a reverse fault, the dynamic stresses on a rupture propagating updip are tensile as rupture approaches the surface, so the coefficient of friction or cohesion on the fault is less relevant.

There are a number of future studies that should be performed to improve upon the results presented here. The first is to examine the consistency of the models, and especially M3, with observed fault displacement. If the results, based on the definition of seismic moment (Equation 7) agree with seismic data, the scaling relationship presented here would be an alternative to the self-consistent scaling model of Leonard (2010, 2014) for earthquakes in continental crust.

A second issue that deserves study is to consider if there is an optimal way to handle multi-segment faults in the data considered here. The study needs to consider how seismic moment is distributed on multiple segments, as well as how best to measure the lengths of multiple segment ruptures. The problem with the Bulnay, Mongolia, earthquake was mentioned above as an example of the uncertainty associated with this issue. Several other faults in Table 1 and 2 have similar issues. If the result is different from the approach used by UCERF3, it could have a direct impact on future seismic hazard analyses.

## 7 Conclusions

The primary question asked by this research is if the introduction of slip rate on a fault helps to reduce the uncertainties in estimates of magnitude from

observations of rupture length. We find that such a slip rate dependence is well established for strike-slip cases: as the slip rate increases, the predicted magnitude tends to decrease. This result is robust in the sense that it is present and statistically significant for all three of the considered models relating rupture length and magnitude. For reverse and normal faulting mechanisms, on the other hand, our data do not demonstrate the presence of a significant slip rate effect in the relationship between rupture length and magnitude.

The constant stress drop model presented here has potential for progress on a standing difficulty in ground motion modeling of an internally consistent scaling of magnitude, length, down-dip width, and fault displacement. Current relations in which magnitude scales with length or area lead to unphysical stress drops or unobserved down-dip widths, respectively. Constant stress drop alternatives such as Shaw (2009) require complex scaling arguments and difficult to constrain parameters. By working from the model of Chinnery (1964) our constant stress drop model has the advantage of starting with realistic physics including the stress effects of surface rupture. Work remains in validating displacements from our model, but the fact that it fits the current magnitude-length-slip rate data as well or a bit better than the linear and bilinear models suggests that the Chinnery-based constant stress drop has promise for modeling earthquake effects.

## 8 Resources

The Wikipedia article “Total Least Squares” was accessed Feb. 15, 2015.

## 9 Acknowledgements

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## 11 Appendix 1: Fault scaling relations

### 11.1 Basics

This paper proposes models to estimate the moment magnitude of earthquakes based on observed surface rupture lengths. The moment magnitude definition that we use is, implicit in Kanamori (1977):

$$M_W = \frac{2}{3} (\log M_0 - 16.1) \quad (6)$$

The units of seismic moment,  $M_0$ , are dyne-cm in Equation 6. This definition differs slightly from the equation used by Hanks and Kanamori (1979), but is the equation recommended for seismic network operations by the International Association of Seismology and Physics of the Earths Interior (IASPEI, 2005, 2013; Borman et al, 2012), and thus is the relationship used by most seismic networks throughout the world. The seismic moment is defined as:

$$M_0 = \mu A_E \bar{D}_E = \mu L_E W_E \bar{D}_E \quad (7)$$

where  $\mu$  is the shear modulus,  $A_E$  is the fault area ruptured in the earthquake, and  $\bar{D}_E$  is the average slip over that area. For a fault that is approximately rectangular,  $A_E = L_E W_E$  where  $L_E$  is the rupture length measured along strike, and  $W_E$  is the downdip rupture width.

Substituting Equation 7 into Equation 6, one obtains (for cgs units)

$$M_W = \frac{2}{3} \log L_E + \frac{2}{3} \log W_E + \frac{2}{3} \log \bar{D}_E + \frac{2}{3} (\log \mu - 16.1) \quad (8)$$

This justifies models that relate magnitude to the log of fault length, width, and mean slip. Slopes different from 2/3 result from correlations between the parameters. Wells and Coppersmith (1996) found that the model

$$M_W = c_1 \log L_E + c_0 \quad (9)$$

predicts magnitude from rupture length with a standard deviation of the misfit,  $\sigma_1 = 0.28$ .

The possible dependence of stress drop or magnitude on slip rate was recognized by Kanamori and Allen (1986) and Scholz et al. (1986). Equation 9 with the addition of the slip rate term, used by ASW96, is:

$$M_W = c_0 + c_1 \log L_E + c_2 \log S_F \quad (10)$$



Testing for a logarithmic dependence on the geological fault slip rate,  $S_F$ , can be motivated by findings in Dieterich (1972). In this paper, we refer to Equation 10 as Model 1, or more briefly M1.

## 11.2 Constant Stress Drop Scaling

The static stress drop,  $\Delta\tau_S$ , is the decrease in the shear stress acting on the fault as a result of the earthquake, and is proportional to the ratio of average slip to a fault dimension. Seismic observations have found that the average value of  $\Delta\tau_S$  is approximately constant ( $\sim 4$  MPa,  $\sim 40$  bars) over a broad range of earthquake magnitudes (e.g. Kanamori and Anderson, 1975; Allmann and Shearer, 2009), although there is considerable scatter in these data. Seismic moment, and thus  $M_W$  through Equation 6, can be expressed as a function of fault dimension and stress drop, as recognized by Kanamori and Anderson (1975). Selected models are summarized in Table 6.

Table 6: Selected models for the relationship of fault size, stress drop, and  $M_W$ .

Case	$M_0$	Implied magnitude relations <sup>1</sup>
1. Buried, circular <sup>2</sup>	$\frac{16}{7}\Delta\tau_S R_E^3$	$M_W = \log A_E + \frac{2}{3}\log \Delta\tau_S + 3.0089$ (km, bars)
2. Strike-slip, long <sup>2</sup>	$\frac{\pi}{2}\Delta\tau_S W_E^2 L_E$	$M_W = \frac{2}{3}\log L_E + \frac{4}{3}\log W_E + \frac{2}{3}\log \Delta\tau_S + 3.1359$ (km, bars)
3. Dip-slip, long <sup>2</sup>	$\frac{\pi(\lambda+2\mu)}{4(\lambda+\mu)}\Delta\tau_S W_E^2 L_E$	$M_W = \frac{2}{3}\log L_E + \frac{4}{3}\log W_E + \frac{2}{3}\log \Delta\tau_S + 3.3141$ (km, bars)

1. Fault area,  $A_E = \pi R_E^2$ , in  $\text{km}^2$ , fault radius  $R_E$ , width  $W_E$ , and length  $L_E$  in km, and stress drop  $\Delta\tau_S$  in bars.

2. Cases 1, 2, and 3 are from Kanamori and Anderson (1975).

The equations in Table 6 indicate that constant stress drop implies the slope  $c_1 = 2.0$  for small faults (Case 1) and  $c_1 = 2/3$  for long faults (Cases 2 and 3). These observations motivate a bilinear approach to fit the data, which is model M2 in the main text of the paper. The bilinear approach is formulated as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} M_W &= M_{bp} + c_{1C} \log\left(\frac{L_E}{L_{bp}}\right) + c_2 \log\left(\frac{S_F}{S_0}\right) & L_E < L_{bp} \\ M_W &= M_{bp} + c_{1L} \log\left(\frac{L_E}{L_{bp}}\right) + c_2 \log\left(\frac{S_F}{S_0}\right) & L_E \geq L_{bp} \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

In Equation 11 the length  $L_{bp}$  is the length at which the length-dependence of the scaling relationship changes from the small fault model with slope  $c_{1C} = 2$  to the long fault model with slope  $c_{1L} = \frac{2}{3}$ . The slip rate  $S_0$  is a reference slip rate which can be chosen arbitrarily, but is conveniently chosen to be the log average slip rate in the data, so that setting  $S_F = S_0$  gives the best fit when slip rate is unknown. The constant  $M_{bp}$  is the magnitude corresponding to a fault with length  $L_E = L_{bp}$  and slip rate  $S_F = S_0$ . Note that Equation 11 has three unknown coefficients ( $M_{bp}$ ,  $L_{bp}$ , and  $c_2$ ), which is the same number as Equation 10.

However, there are issues with the applicability of the equations 1, 2, and 3 in Table 6. The foremost, for the long faults, is the width of the seismogenic zone. Table 6 shows that  $W_E$  is twice as influential as the fault length, so it needs to be considered carefully. One approach to estimate this width is to use the maximum depth of microearthquakes. By this approach, for strike-slip earthquakes the maximum depth of microearthquakes equates directly to an estimate of the fault width, while for a reverse or normal fault the dip is incorporated. The problem is that the maximum depth of seismogenic rupture in large earthquakes is difficult to observe. King and Wesnousky (2007) discuss this difficulty, and present arguments for why the downdip width might be larger in large earthquakes, at least up to some limit than in small earthquakes, because rocks below the depths of microearthquakes might experience brittle failure under high strain rates. If the width increases in general for long ruptures, stress drop is no longer as high for these events because stress drop is inversely proportional to  $W_E$ , and furthermore the slope  $c_1$  can no longer be reliably constrained by the models in Table 6. King and Wesnousky propose that this explains the proposal by Scholz (1982) that slip in large earthquakes is more nearly proportional to rupture length than to rupture width.

Another issue with the applicability of Equation 1 of Table 6 is that the circular fault model is for an event that is confined within the Earth, while by definition all of the events considered in this study rupture the surface. This motivates development of the model that is described in the next section.

### 11.3 Relations based on Chinnery (1964)

Chinnery (1963, 1964) calculated a stress drop for a rectangular, strike-slip fault that ruptures the surface. His equations assume a uniform slip on the fault. Thus the stress drop is variable over the fault, and becomes singular at the edge of the fault. His equations give the stress drop on the surface at the midpoint of the rupture. Numerical solutions in Chinnery (1963) show relatively uniform stress drop over large portions of the fault. Chinnery (1963) thus suggests that the results are valid to represent the fault stress drop so long as the zone of slip fall-off is much smaller than the area of the fault. The key advantage provided by this approach is to provide a useful analytical solution.

For the rectangular fault with length  $L_E$ , width  $W_E$ , and aspect ratio  $C_{LW} = L_E/W_E$ , the stress drop in the Chinnery model,  $\Delta\tau_C$ , at the midpoint at the surface is

$$\Delta\tau_C = \frac{\mu\bar{D}_E}{2\pi} C_1(L_h, W_E) \quad (12)$$

where

$$C_1(L_h, W_E) = \left\{ \frac{2L_h}{aW_E} + \frac{3}{L_h} - \frac{L_h(3a + 4W_E)}{a(a + W_E)^2} \right\} \quad (13)$$

Note that  $L_h = L_E/2$ , and  $a = (L_h^2 + W_E^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ . Observe that  $C_1$  has dimensions of  $1/\text{length}$ , and thus  $C_1^{-1}$  is effectively the fault dimension that is used for

calculating the strain. In other words, the strain change in the earthquake is  $\sim \bar{D}_E C_1$ . An equation for the seismic moment can be obtained by solving Equation 12 for  $\bar{D}_E$  and substituting in Equation 7. The result is

$$M_0 = 2\pi \Delta\tau_C \frac{L_E W_E}{C_1(L_h, W_E)} \quad (14)$$

and thus

$$M_W = \frac{2}{3} \log L_E + \frac{2}{3} \log \Delta\tau_C + \frac{2}{3} \log \frac{2\pi W_E}{C_1(L_h, W_E)} - \frac{2}{3} \cdot 16.1 \quad (15)$$

Additional insight into the geometrical term can be obtained by observing that  $a$  is the length of the diagonal from the midpoint of the fault at the surface to either of the bottom corners. If the dip of this line is  $\gamma$ , then  $\tan \gamma = W_E/L_h = 2/C_{LW}$ ,  $L_h = a \cos \gamma$ ,  $W_E = a \sin \gamma$ , and one can rewrite

$$C_1(L_h, W_E) = \frac{1}{W_E} C(\gamma) \quad (16)$$

where

$$C(\gamma) = 2 \cos \gamma + 3 \tan \gamma - \frac{\cos \gamma \sin \gamma (3 + 4 \sin \gamma)}{(1 + \sin \gamma)^2} \quad (17)$$

Thus one can rewrite Equation 12 as

$$\Delta\tau_C = \frac{C(\gamma)}{2\pi} \mu \frac{\bar{D}_E}{W_E} \quad (18)$$

Solving Equation 18 for  $\bar{D}_E$  and substituting into Equation 7 gives the moment of a vertical strike-slip fault that ruptures the surface as:

$$M_0 = \frac{2\pi}{C(\gamma)} \Delta\tau_C L_E W_E^2 \quad (19)$$

Because  $\gamma$ , and thus  $C(\gamma)$ , depends on the fault aspect ratio, Equations 14, or 19, can be used to model a transition from small-earthquake behavior (e.g. the circular fault in Table 6) to a long-fault behavior. The strategy that is examined in this paper, similar to [refs], is to maintain a constant aspect ratio as the fault length increases, until that aspect ratio implies that the fault width would exceed some maximum. For longer faults, the width is set to that maximum. Before reaching that maximum,  $\gamma$  and  $C(\gamma)$  are constant, and

$$M_0 = \frac{2\pi}{C(\gamma)} \Delta\tau_C \frac{L_E^3}{C_{LW}^2} \frac{L_E}{C_{LW}} < W_{max} \quad (20)$$

For longer faults, for which the width is limited, Equation 19 becomes

$$M_0 = \frac{2\pi}{C(\gamma)} \Delta\tau_C L_E W_{max}^2 \frac{L_E}{C_{LW}} \geq W_{max} \quad (21)$$

In this case, as the fault length increases while width is held constant,  $\gamma$  will be decreasing. For the limit of small  $\gamma$  (roughly  $\gamma \lesssim 25^\circ$ ), Equation 17 shows that  $C(\gamma) \rightarrow 2$ , so Equation 14 approaches

$$M_0 = \pi \Delta\tau_C L_E W_{max}^2 \quad (22)$$

Equation 22 differs from Case 2 in Table 6 for the long strike-slip fault by a factor of 2 ( $\Delta\tau_S = 2\Delta\tau_C$ ), where the difference is due to the different boundary conditions used for the two solutions.

From Equations 20 and 21, converting to magnitude, the implied scaling relationship based on the Chinnery model is

$$M_W = \begin{cases} 2 \log L_E + \frac{2}{3} \log \Delta\tau_C + \frac{2}{3} \left( \log \frac{2\pi}{C_{LW} C(\gamma)} - 16.1 \right) & \frac{L_E}{C_{LW}} < W_{max} \\ \frac{2}{3} \log L_E + \frac{2}{3} \log \Delta\tau_C + \frac{2}{3} \left( \log \frac{2\pi W_{max}^2}{C(\gamma)} - 16.1 \right) & \frac{L_E}{C_{LW}} \geq W_{max} \end{cases} \quad (23)$$

Equation 23 will be the third model, M3, considered in this study, with the addition of a slip rate contribution,  $+c_2 \log \left( \frac{S_F}{S_0} \right)$ , to the two branches of the equation. The unknown parameters in M3 are  $\Delta\tau_C$ ,  $C_{LW}$ ,  $W_{max}$ , and  $c_2$ . Thus this model has four parameters to be fit, compared to three parameters in M1 and M2. Figure 18 shows the effect of the three parameters  $\Delta\tau_C$ ,  $C_{LW}$ ,  $W_{max}$  on magnitude predictions. The stress drop scales the entire curve upwards. The aspect ratio  $C_{LD}$  adjusts the level of the magnitude for short rupture lengths. The maximum width affects the curvature and how rapidly the curve approaches the asymptotic slope of  $\frac{2}{3} \log L_E$  for long rupture lengths.

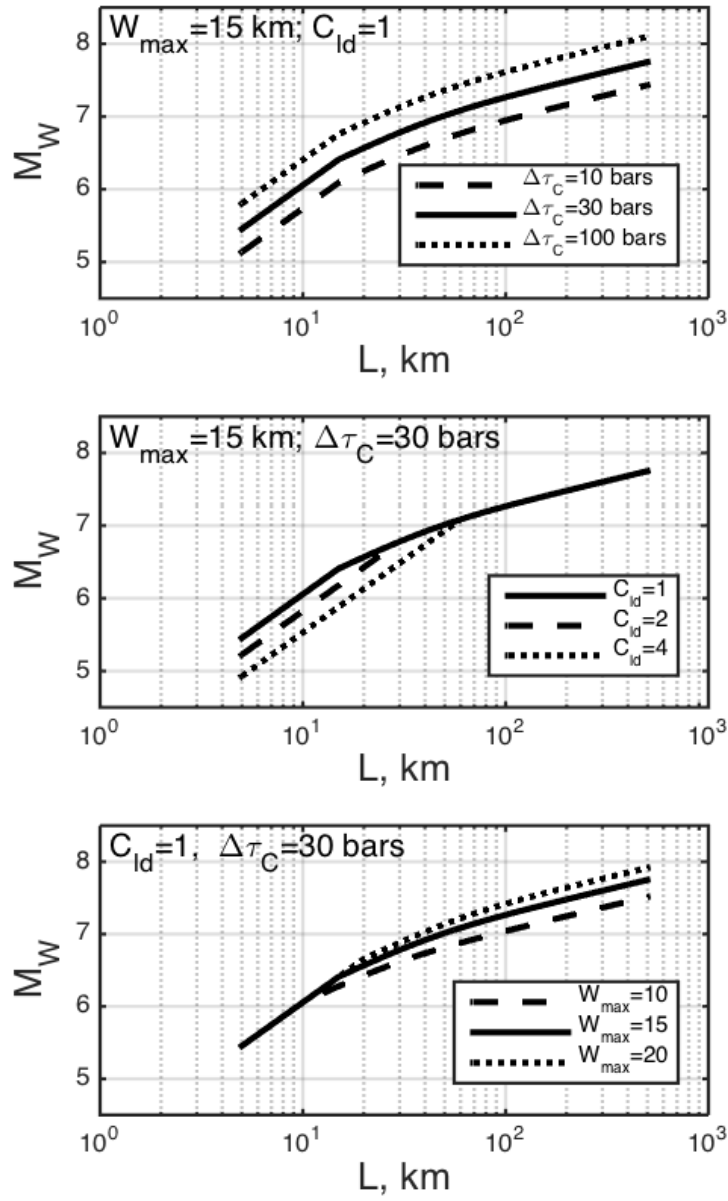


Figure 18: Model for  $M_W$  based on Chinnery (1964) scaling as given in Equation 23. Top: effect of changing the stress drop  $\Delta\tau_C$ . Center: effect of changing the aspect ratio of the fault. Bottom: effect of changing the limiting rupture width  $W_{max}$ .

## 11.4 Other models and considerations

Sato (1972) overcomes the singularity introduced by Chinnery (1963, 1964) by assuming a smooth ad-hoc slip function on a finite, rectangular/elliptical-shaped fault, and for that function, calculated the average stress drop resulting from that slip function. While the results are informative for source physics studies, the major disadvantages of this approach for our application are that the fault is embedded in a whole space, and there is no analytical solution comparable to Equation 12. Rather, the geometrical factor equivalent to  $C(\gamma)$  can be computed numerically using equations in Sato (1972) or read from a figure in the paper. Considering these limitations, this model was not considered further.

Shaw and Scholz (2001) and Shaw and Wesnousky (2008) implement a numerical model for fault slip in a half space with depth-dependent friction. They examine the statistics of events that rupture the surface. This paper is interesting for the finding that large surface rupturing events also slip below the brittle crustal depths. The scaling found in the model has properties similar to the scaling in the Chinnery model. However the scaling relationship that they determine has an ad-hoc shape, and thus we preferred the analytical functional form of Chinnery, as discussed above.

Rolandone et al (2004) found some empirical evidence for the penetration of rupture below the brittle seismogenic layer in large earthquakes. They found that the maximum depth of aftershocks of the Landers earthquake were deeper immediately after the main shock, and then the maximum depth returned to pre-earthquake levels over the next few years. This might be explained by high strain rates in the uppermost part of the ductile crust, as high strain rates favor brittle failure. However, post-seismic strain at that depth range would be high even if seismic rupture of the main shock did not extend that deep.

## 12 Supplemental Online Material

The supplemental material consists of a spreadsheet that includes all earthquakes considered and a list of references for all entries in that spreadsheet.

Spreadsheet: MasterEventTable\_2015-10-6.xlsx

References: References\_2015\_10\_06.docx

A conversion of these materials to pdf format is provided here.







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