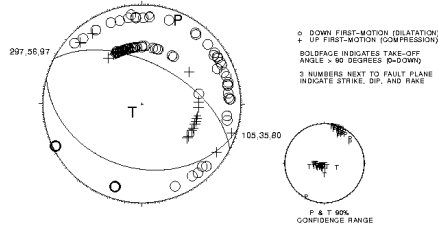
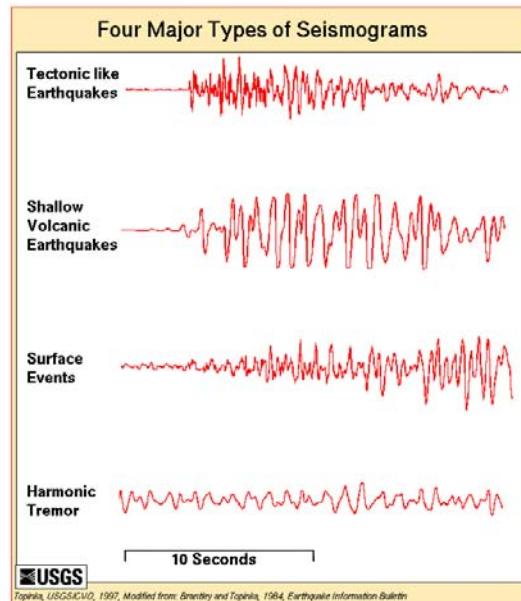


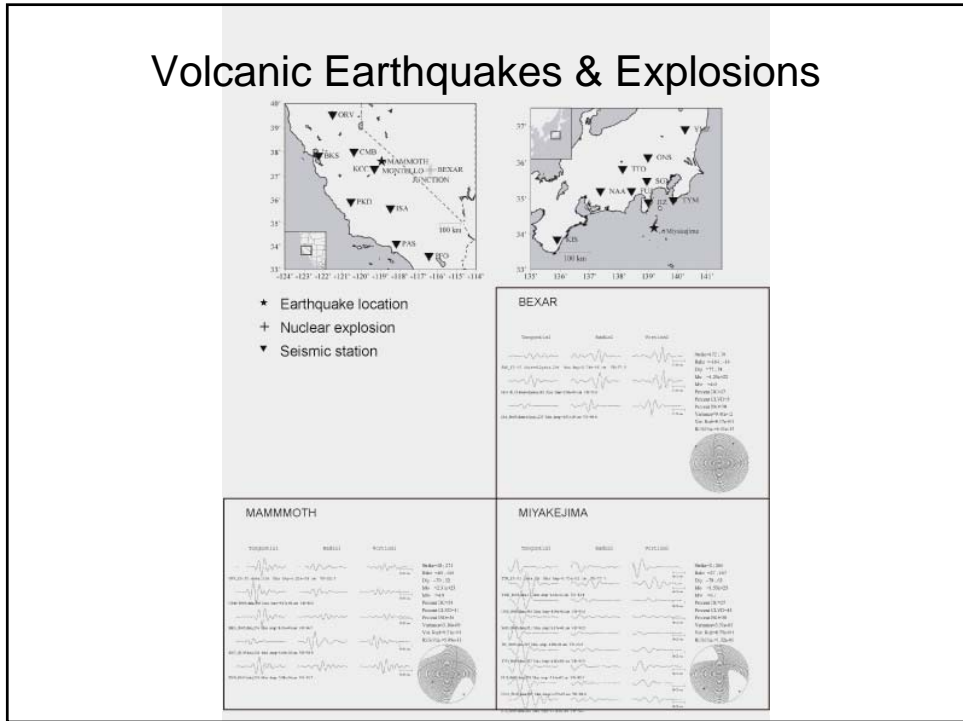
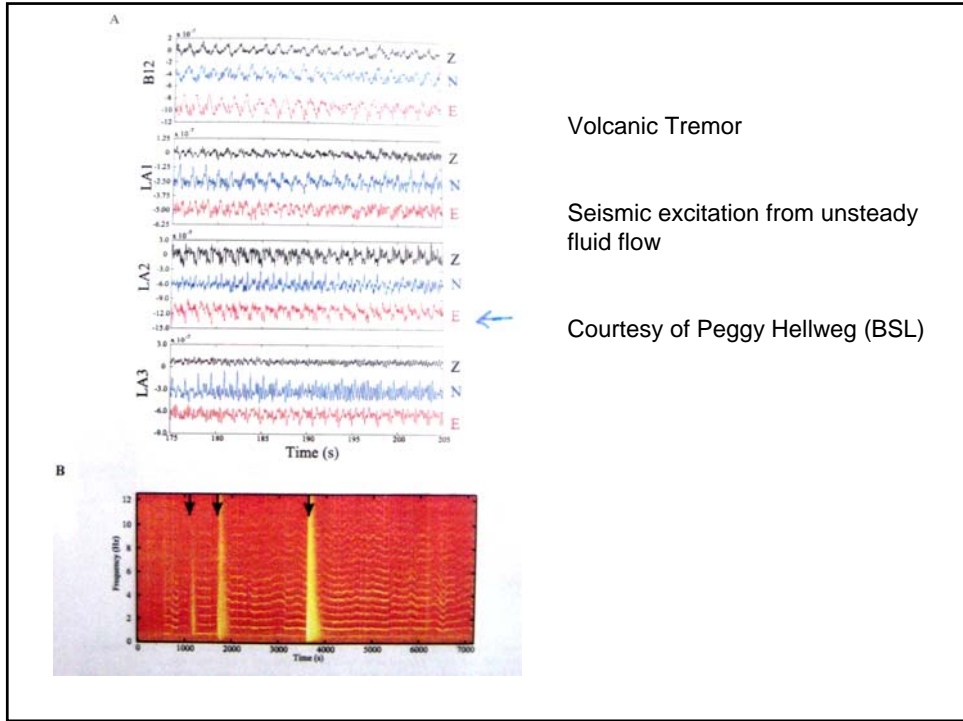
Sources of Seismic Waves

- Impact
- Volcanic
- Landslide
- Explosion
 - Buried or surface
- Harmonic Tremor
 - Unsteady fluid flow
- Continuous Excitation
 - Wind, microseism, couple ocean/atmosphere (hum)
- Earthquakes

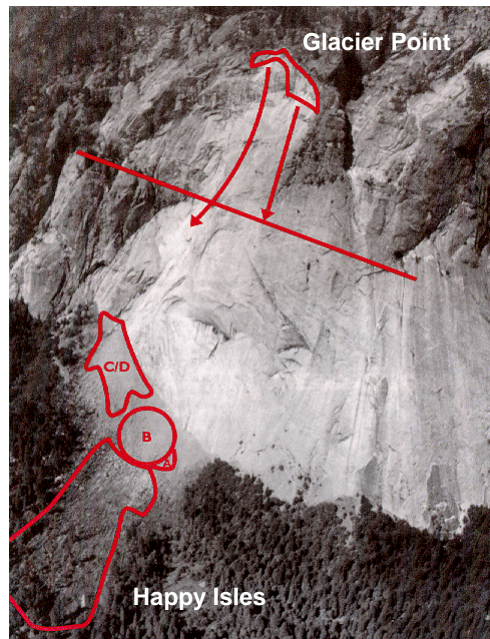


Types of Seismograms



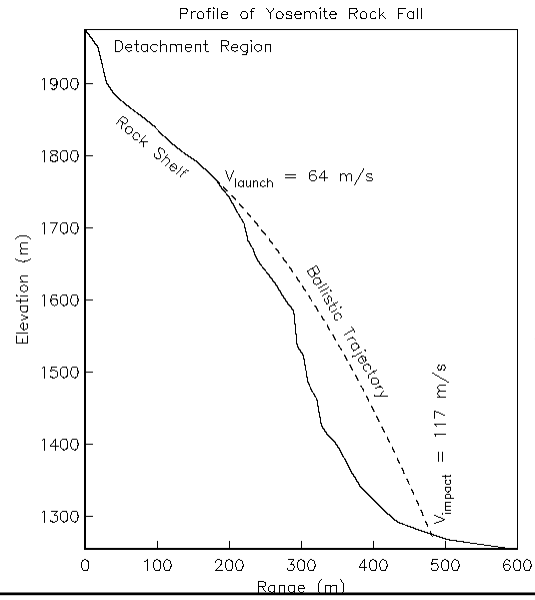


Yosemite Rock Fall



80,000 ton
(72.5 MKg)

Yosemite Rock Fall



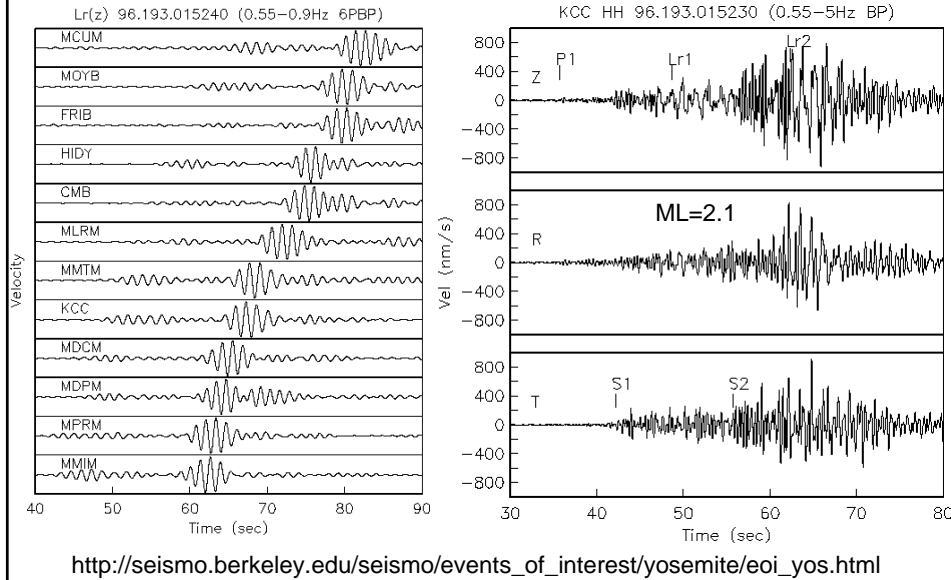
Transverse velocity
is 78 m/s (174mph)

Debris filled
wind
blast

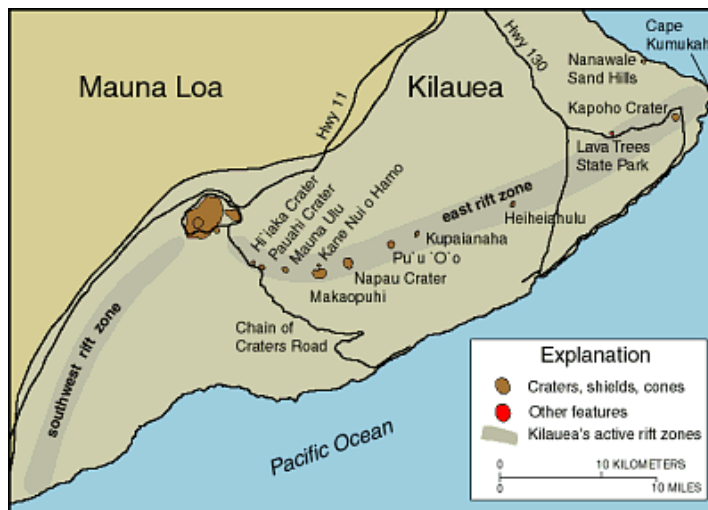
Yosemite Rock Fall



Yosemite Rock Fall



Kalapana Earthquake??

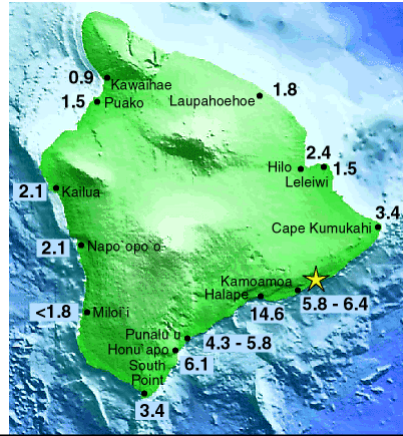


Material from:
<http://hvo.wr.usgs.gov/earthquakes/destruct/1975Nov29/>

Kalapana Earthquake??

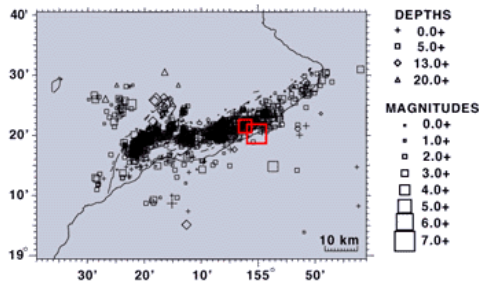


Land subsidence of 12 ft
 Tsunami runup 47 ft
 Two deaths & \$4.1 million in damage

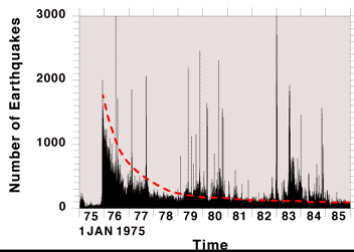


Kalapana Earthquake??

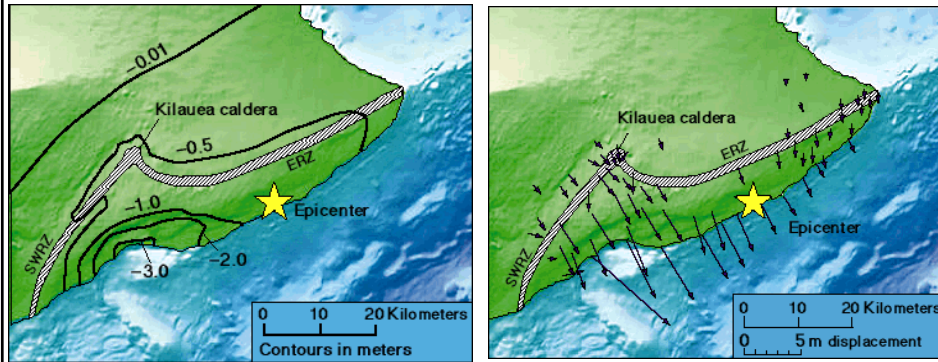
November 29 - December 31, 1975



10 Year Aftershock Sequence

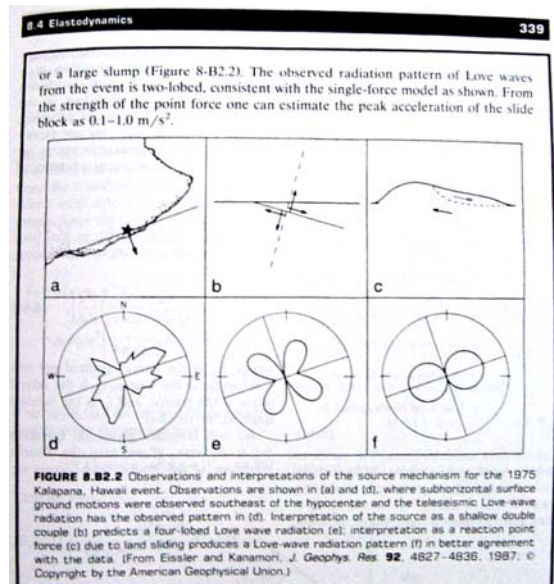


Kalapana Earthquake??



Geodetic data are consistent with a slump

Kalapana Earthquake??



Kalapana Earthquake??

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M. Nettles and G. Ekström

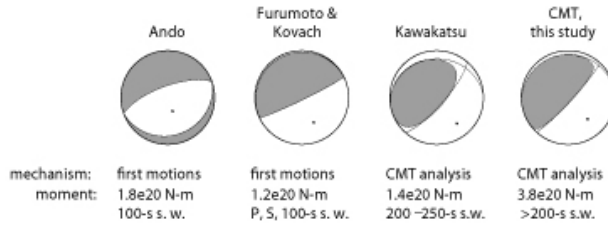


Figure 2. Comparison of teleseismically determined focal mechanisms for the Kalapana earthquake. The method by which the focal mechanisms were determined is listed to the right of the heading "mechanism"; the scalar moment determined in each study is listed to the right of the heading "moment." The data set used to determine the moment is also indicated (e.g., "100-s s.w." = 100-sec surface waves). The focal mechanisms are from (left to right) Ando (1979), Furumoto and Kovach (1979), Kawakatsu (1989), and this study. Ando (1979) used crustal deformation data and surface-wave radiation patterns to help constrain the focal mechanism he determined from the P-wave radiation pattern.

Kalapana Earthquake??

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M. Nettles and G. Ekström

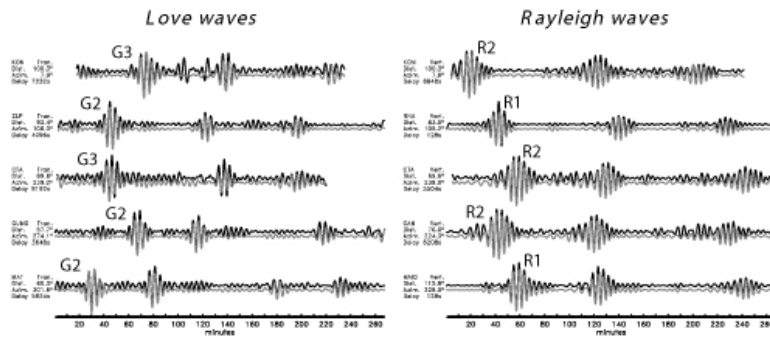


Figure 3. Examples of the fit to Love and Rayleigh waves (vertical component is shown) achieved in this study. Data seismograms are shown in black and synthetic seismograms in gray. The synthetic seismograms are offset slightly from the data for clarity. The distance and azimuth to the earthquake epicenter are indicated for each station. "Delay" gives the time of the first sample of each seismogram with respect to the origin time of the earthquake. The timescale refers to the start time of each record shown. The first wave group in each trace has been labeled.

Kalapana Earthquake??

Long-Period Source Characteristics of the 1975 Kalapana, Hawaii, Earthquake

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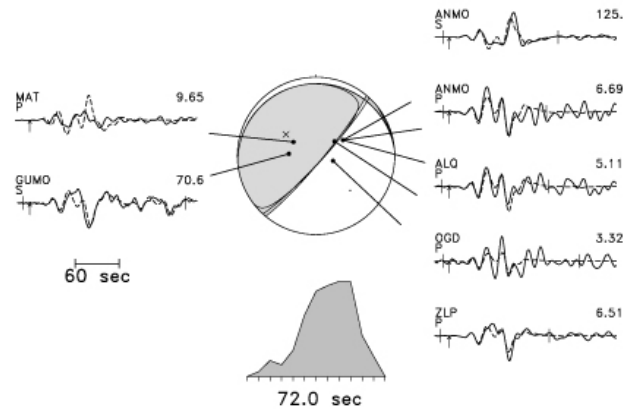
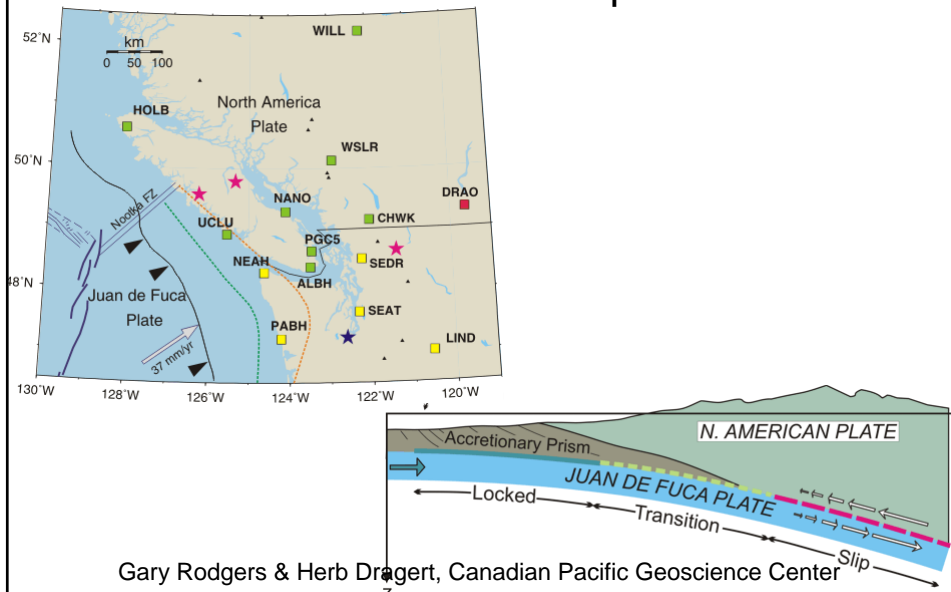


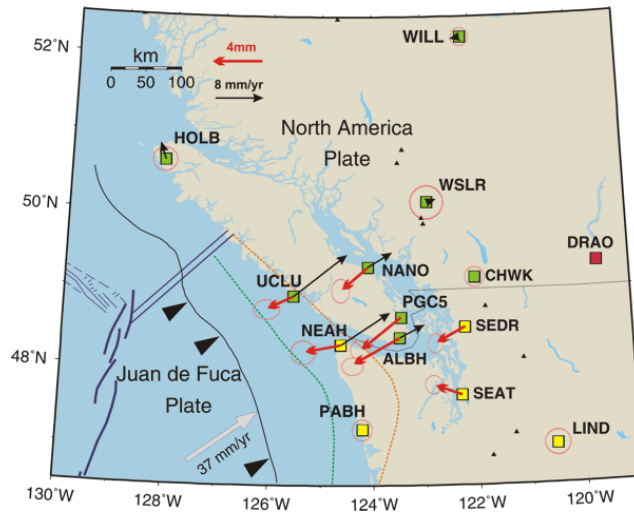
Figure 4. Results of body-wave analysis of the Kalapana earthquake. Long-period data seismograms are shown as solid lines; the calculated synthetic seismograms are shown as dashed lines. The wave type (P or S) is given below the name of each station. The maximum amplitude (in microns) for each trace is shown at right of each seismogram. Short vertical bars show the time window included for each station; where the bars are missing (MAT), the seismogram was not included in the inversion. The arrows show the arrival times of the P and S waves, as explained in the text. Shaded focal mechanism is that determined by inversion of the long-period body waves; the focal mechanism shown in outline only is that from the MAT inversion. The retrieved source time function is shown at the bottom of the plot. The depth of the earthquake was held fixed at 10 km in this inversion.

Non Volcanic Seismic Tremor & Aseismic Subduction Slip



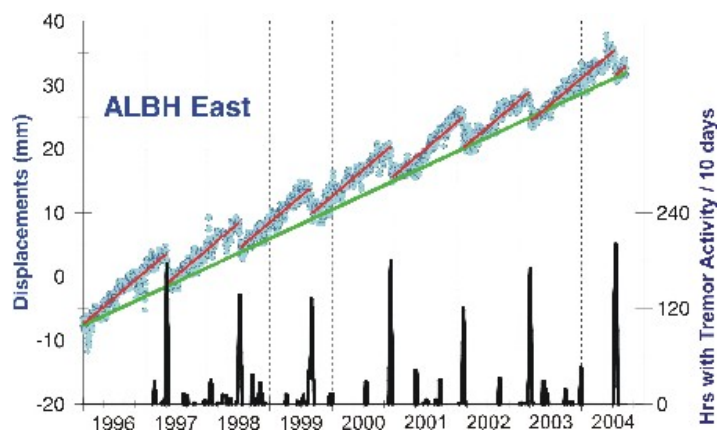
Gary Rodgers & Herb Dragert, Canadian Pacific Geoscience Center

Non Volcanic Seismic Tremor & Aseismic Subduction Slip



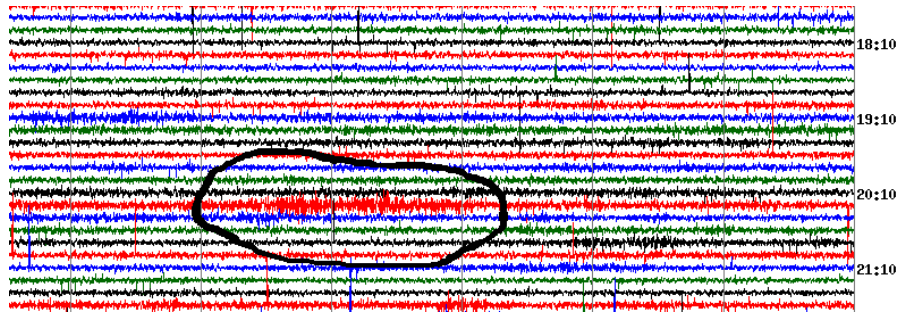
Gary Rodgers & Herb Dragert, Canadian Pacific Geoscience Center

Non Volcanic Seismic Tremor & Aseismic Subduction Slip



Gary Rodgers & Herb Dragert, Canadian Pacific Geoscience Center

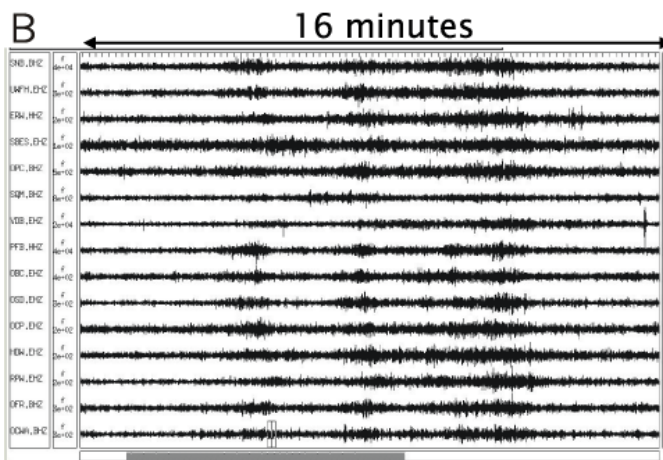
Non Volcanic Seismic Tremor & Aseismic Subduction Slip



Gary Rodgers & Herb Dragert, Canadian Pacific Geoscience Center

Non Volcanic Seismic Tremor & Aseismic Subduction Slip

Band pass filtered signal: 1 – 6 Hz



Gary Rodgers & Herb Dragert, Canadian Pacific Geoscience Center

1. Housner, H. S. *Seismicity of the Earth*. McGraw-Hill, New York, 1969.
 2. Housner, H. S. *Seismicity of the Earth*. McGraw-Hill, New York, 1969.
 3. Housner, H. S. *Seismicity of the Earth*. McGraw-Hill, New York, 1969.
 4. Housner, H. S. *Seismicity of the Earth*. McGraw-Hill, New York, 1969.
 5. Housner, H. S. *Seismicity of the Earth*. McGraw-Hill, New York, 1969.
 6. Housner, H. S. *Seismicity of the Earth*. McGraw-Hill, New York, 1969.
 7. Housner, H. S. *Seismicity of the Earth*. McGraw-Hill, New York, 1969.
 8. Housner, H. S. *Seismicity of the Earth*. McGraw-Hill, New York, 1969.
 9. Housner, H. S. *Seismicity of the Earth*. McGraw-Hill, New York, 1969.
 10. Housner, H. S. *Seismicity of the Earth*. McGraw-Hill, New York, 1969.

LETTERS TO NATURE

Seismic excitation by the space shuttle Columbia

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 & Thomas H. Heaton§

*Nosekawa Laboratory, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, California 91125, USA
 †United States Geological Survey, 325 South Wilson Avenue, Pasadena, California 91106, USA
 ‡Seismological Laboratory, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, California 91125, USA
 §United States Geological Survey, 325 South Wilson Avenue, Pasadena, California 91106, USA

Seismic stations in southern California recorded the atmospheric shock waves generated by the space shuttle Columbia on its entry to the Edwards Air Force base on 13 August 1989 (Fig. 1). In addition to the shock wave, the broad-band (BB) STEREO experiment at Pasadena recorded a distinct pulse with a period of ~2.5 seconds, which arrived 12.5 seconds before the shock wave (Fig. 2). This pulse was also recorded at the University of Southern California, near downtown Los Angeles, where it arrived 2 seconds after the shock wave. The origin of this pulse could not be readily identified. We show here that it was a seismic P wave emitted by the motion of high-rise buildings in downtown Los Angeles, which were hit by the shock wave. The proximity of the arrival period of the high-rise buildings to that of the Los Angeles basin enabled efficient energy transfer from shock waves to seismic waves.

The shock wave arrival times can be explained with Mach cones (the conical shock wave fronts produced by the passage of supersonic aircraft) propagating N45E across the Los Angeles (LA) basin. The velocity varies from 3,500 m s⁻¹ (Mach 4.4) on the coast to 700 m s⁻¹ in the Mojave desert. The shock wave emitted by a supersonic aircraft is called an N wave because of its distinctive N-shaped pulse (Fig. 3). Cook and Goforth¹ describe two kinds of seismic effects of sonic booms: a moving strain in the immediate vicinity of the surface loads, caused by

the N wave overpressure, and coupled seismic waves, which follow the passage of the N wave. The N wave shows in Fig. 3 an N of the first kind. The positive pressure causes downward ground motion near the micrograph site, which is consistent with the observed polarity. We estimated the pressure from these records by approximating the shock front with a plate wave incident on a half-space. Following equation (5.107) of ref. 2, we calculated the response of the half-space to an N wave, compared it with the instrument response, compared it with the observed seismogram, and then estimated the pressure change to be from 0.7 to 2.2 bar, which are similar to those reported directly by pressure gauges for the earlier space shuttle³.

The most unusual observation was the very distinct long period (about 2 to 3 s) pulse with an amplitude of about 1 g observed at Pasadena (PAS) 12.5 s before the arrival of the shock wave. The initial horizontal particle motion in the northern direction, and in a phase with the vertical motion, indicating that this pulse is a seismic P wave arriving at the station from the southwest. The time difference of 12.5 s between the shock wave and the P pulse suggests that the origin of the P pulse is located near downtown Los Angeles, 14.5 km south-west of Pasadena (see Fig. 1 inset). A broadband moment station SCS (at the University of Southern California) also recorded this pulse as well as the shock wave (Fig. 2). Unlike the Pasadena record, this record shows a P pulse arriving about 1 s after the shock wave. The amplitude is 1/10th, not times larger than that at Pasadena. These observations support the interpretation that the P pulse originated from downtown Los Angeles.

To excite the P wave in this area, the shock wave energy must have been transferred to the ground through some coupling mechanism. The most promising feature in downtown Los Angeles is a group of high-rise buildings with a natural period of 1-4 s. This led us to believe that the P pulse was excited by the high-rise buildings which were simultaneously hit by the

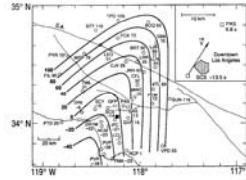


Fig. 1 Arrival times of the shock waves excited by the space shuttle Columbia recorded by seismic stations of the Southern California Seismic Network and the University of Southern California Los Angeles Basin Seismic Network. The numbers below the station codes are the arrival times in seconds from an arbitrary reference time, respectively. At 20 s intervals are listed on the horizontal axis. The inset shows the stations PAS and SCS at the University of Southern California with respect to downtown Los Angeles. The vector \vec{v} indicates the shuttle path. The arrival time difference between PAS and SCS is 20.5 s.

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LETTERS TO NATURE

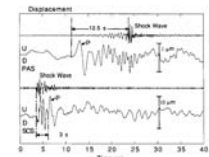


Fig. 2 Comparison of the displacement records at PAS and SCS for station locations, see Fig. 1, displaced on a common time scale. A high-pass filtered record is shown above the displacement record for each station to indicate the arrival time of the shock wave. Note that at PAS the long period P pulse arrives 12.5 s before the shock wave, whereas at SCS it is 3 s after the shock wave.

shock waves. According to the Los Angeles City Fire Department (E. Richter, personal communication), there are about 100 buildings taller than 20 stories in downtown Los Angeles and the Wilshire district.

Because of the weak damping of the building, the oscillation of the individual building for a shock wave lasts for a long time. The resulting ground motion will be a long, damped oscillation instead of an impulse. If, however, many buildings with different periods are excited simultaneously, the first cycle will contribute constructively to excitation of ground motion, but the later cycles will interfere destructively with no significant net contribution; the resulting ground motion will be impulsive,

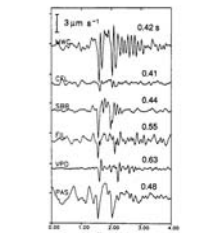


Fig. 3 Examples of N waves. The records represent ground motion velocity at a frequency range of 1-20 Hz. The numbers to the right are the separations in s between the two pulses of an N wave.

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as observed. This situation may be viewed as an inverse Fourier transform of a delta function.

The excitation of seismic waves by shaking of a building has been demonstrated by Jennings⁴. Shaking of the Millikan Library building (interior) on Caltech Campus excited seismic waves which were observed with a seismograph at Mount Wilson, 11 km away. The observed acceleration on the roof of the Millikan Library was 0.02 g, and the observed amplitude at Mount Wilson was 0.02 μm.

The efficient excitation of the seismic pulse with a period of 2.5 s by the buildings suggests, by reciprocity, that seismic-wave energy coming into the Los Angeles basin will be transferred efficiently to the buildings with this range of natural period. This points to the importance of investigating the long-period site response of the Los Angeles basin⁵. The importance of site effects has been demonstrated repeatedly for recent major earthquakes, such as the 1985 Mexico earthquake and the 1999 Loma Prieta earthquake.

As many recent studies have suggested, large earthquakes with a long fault length, such as those expected on the San Andreas fault, excite a highly significant amount of energy at periods longer than 1 s. In view of the high probability of large ($M > 7.5$) earthquakes on the San Andreas fault in the next 30 years⁶, and possible large earthquakes on the blind faults beneath the Los Angeles basin⁷, it is important to assess the long-period response of the Los Angeles basin quantitatively so that more comprehensive hazard mitigation measures can be taken.

- *Received 22 October 1991; accepted 6 January 1993.
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 ††Present address: Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences, Harvard University, Cambridge, MA 02138, USA.
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 §§Present address: Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences, Harvard University, Cambridge, MA 02138, USA.

Gene flow between African- and European-derived honey bee populations in Argentina

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 ‡Centro de Estudios Científicos y Agrícolas, Universidad de Buenos Aires, 1417 Buenos Aires, Argentina
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In the Neotropics, introduced European honey bees (*Apis mellifera* L.)^{1,2} have been largely supplanted by bees descended from an African race, *A. m. mellifera* (Lepelletier), which were introduced into Brazil in the 1950s. Recent microsatellite DNA analysis indicates that mitochondrial DNA in some neotropical populations is almost entirely of African origin³, and these data have been cited as evidence for asymmetrical gene flow between African- and European-derived populations⁴. Evaluation of the nature of hybridization in the Neotropics is, however, confounded by

Earthquake Mechanism

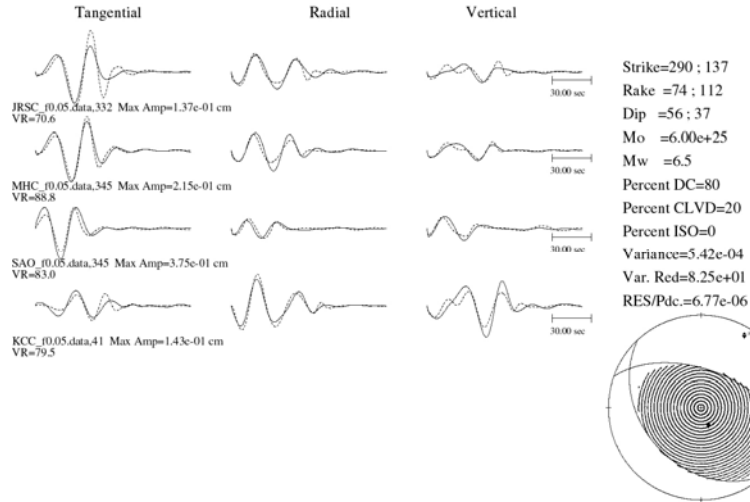
○ DOWN FIRST-MOTION (DILATATION)
 + UP FIRST-MOTION (COMPRESSION)

BOLDFACE INDICATES TAKE-OFF ANGLE > 90 DEGREES (D=DOWN)

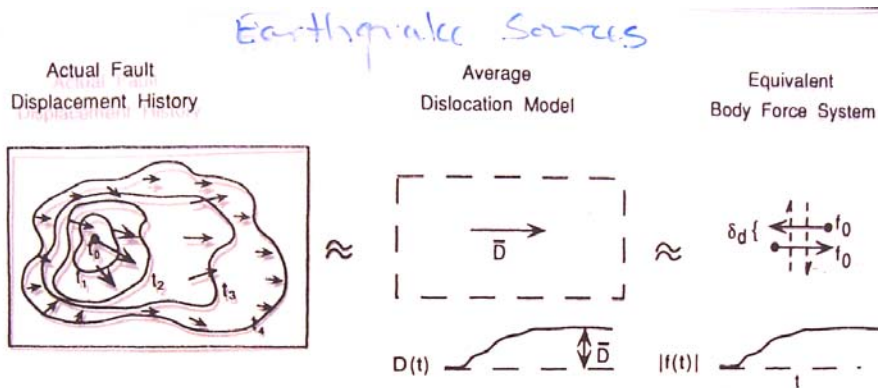
3 NUMBERS NEXT TO FAULT PLANE INDICATE STRIKE, DIP, AND RAKE

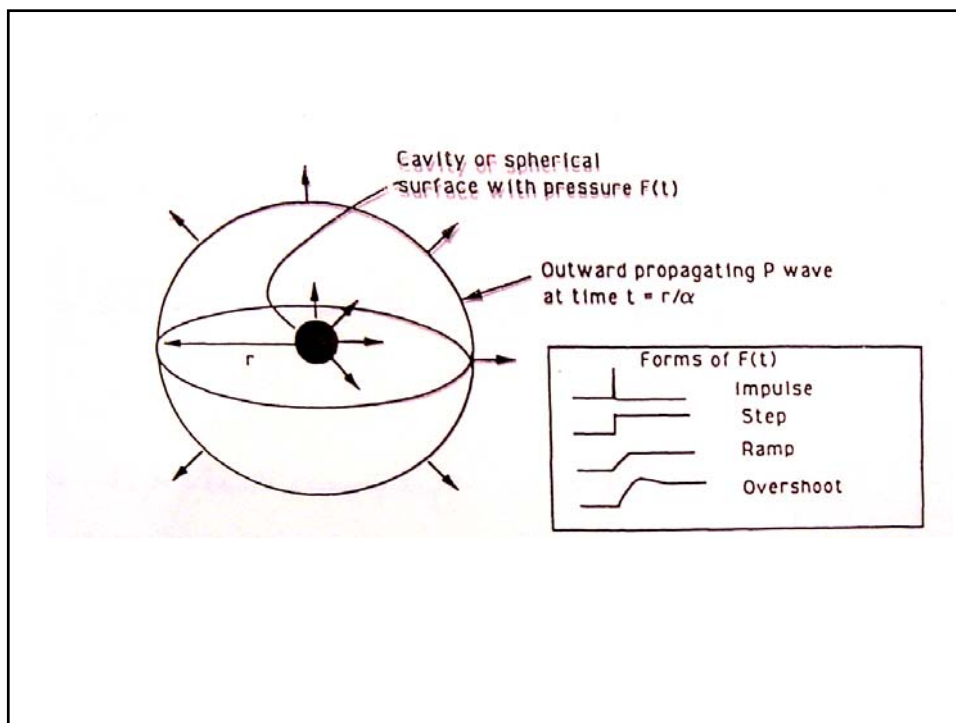
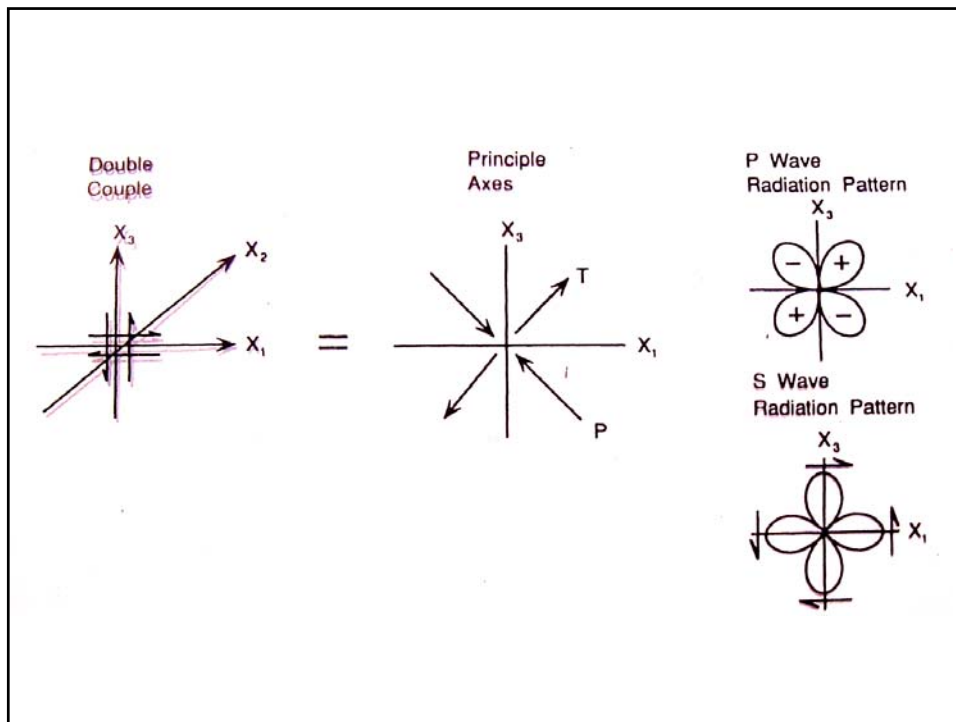
P & T 60% CONFIDENCE RANGE

Earthquake Mechanism



Earthquake Mechanism





given $\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial r^2} - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial t^2} = -4\pi F(t) \delta(r)$

Solutions $\psi(r,t) = \frac{-F(t-r/c)}{r}$ are found
 $\hat{\phi}(r,s) = -F(s) \frac{e^{-rs/c}}{r}$

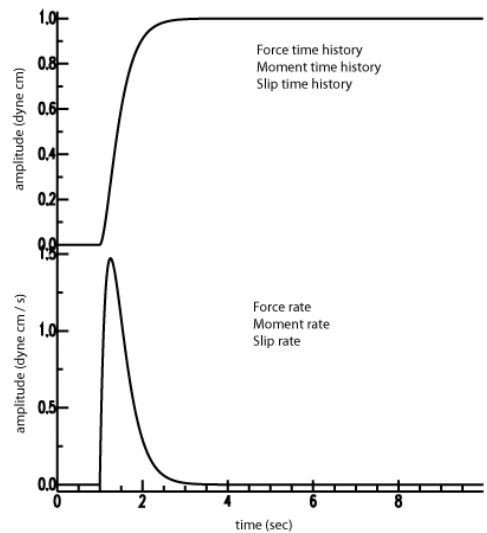
The displacement field is then

$$u = \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial r} = F(s) \frac{e^{-rs/c}}{r^2} + (sF(s)) \frac{e^{-rs/c}}{rc}$$

$$u(r,t) = \frac{F(t-r/c)}{r^2} + \frac{\dot{F}(t-r/c)}{cr}$$

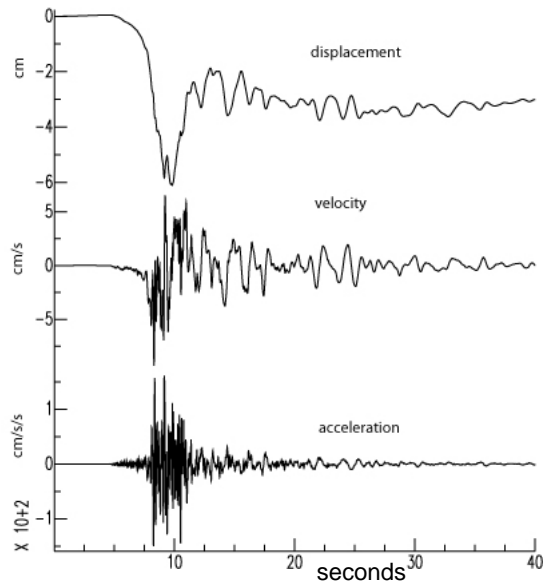
↑ Near-field term ↑ Far-field term

Near- & Far-field time histories



2004 Parkfield at PKD

East-West Records at PKD



Elastodynamics

$$(1) \quad \rho \ddot{\mathbf{u}} = \rho \vec{\mathbf{f}} + (\lambda + 2\mu) \nabla(\nabla \cdot \vec{\mathbf{u}}) - \mu \nabla \times \nabla \times \vec{\mathbf{u}}$$

Time dependent (varying) point force

$$\rho \vec{\mathbf{f}} = F(t) \delta(\mathbf{r}) \hat{\mathbf{a}} = -F(t) \nabla^2 \left(\frac{\hat{\mathbf{a}}}{4\pi r} \right)$$

$$(2) \quad = -F(t) \left\{ \nabla \left(\nabla \cdot \left(\frac{\hat{\mathbf{a}}}{4\pi r} \right) \right) - \nabla \times \nabla \times \left(\frac{\hat{\mathbf{a}}}{4\pi r} \right) \right\}$$

seek solutions of the form

$$(3) \quad \mathbf{u}(t) = \nabla(\nabla \cdot \vec{\mathbf{A}}_p) - \nabla \times \nabla \times \vec{\mathbf{A}}_s$$

$\vec{\mathbf{A}}_p$ & $\vec{\mathbf{A}}_s$ are vector potential fields
where $\nabla \times \vec{\mathbf{A}}_p = 0$ & $\nabla \cdot \vec{\mathbf{A}}_s = 0$

seek solutions of the form

$$(3) \quad u(t) = \nabla(\nabla \cdot \vec{A}_p) - \nabla \times \nabla \times \vec{A}_s$$

\vec{A}_p & \vec{A}_s are vector potential fields
where $\nabla \times \vec{A}_p = 0$ & $\nabla \cdot \vec{A}_s = 0$

substituting (2) & (3) into (1) yields

$$\begin{aligned} \rho \nabla(\nabla \cdot \ddot{\vec{A}}_p) - \rho \nabla \times \nabla \times \ddot{\vec{A}}_s &= -F(t) \nabla(\nabla \cdot (\frac{\hat{a}}{4\pi r})) + F(t) \nabla \times \nabla \times (\frac{\hat{a}}{4\pi r}) \\ &+ (\lambda + 2\mu)(\nabla(\nabla \cdot \nabla(\nabla \cdot \vec{A}_p)) - \nabla(\nabla \cdot \nabla \times \nabla \times \vec{A}_s)) \\ &- \mu \nabla \times \nabla \times (\nabla(\nabla \cdot \vec{A}_p)) + \mu \nabla \times \nabla \times \nabla \times \nabla \times \vec{A}_s \end{aligned}$$

vector identities

$$\nabla \cdot (\nabla \times \vec{V}) \equiv 0$$

$$\nabla \times (\nabla \phi) = 0$$

grouping terms results in two separable 2nd order wave equations

$$\begin{aligned} &\left\{ \rho \nabla(\nabla \cdot \ddot{\vec{A}}_p) + F(t) \nabla(\nabla \cdot (\frac{\hat{a}}{4\pi r})) - (\lambda + 2\mu) \nabla(\nabla \cdot \nabla(\nabla \cdot \vec{A}_p)) \right\} \\ &+ \\ &\left\{ -\rho \nabla \times \nabla \times \ddot{\vec{A}}_s - F(t) \nabla \times \nabla \times (\frac{\hat{a}}{4\pi r}) - \mu \nabla \times \nabla \times \nabla \times \nabla \times \vec{A}_s \right\} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\vec{A}_p = A_p \hat{a} \quad \vec{A}_s = A_s \hat{a} \quad \text{reducing to}$$

scalar wave equations

$$\nabla^2 A_p - \frac{1}{\alpha^2} \ddot{A}_p = \frac{F(t)}{4\pi r^2}$$

$$\nabla^2 A_s - \frac{1}{\beta^2} \ddot{A}_s = \frac{F(t)}{4\pi r^2}$$

$$\nabla^2 \vec{A}_S - \frac{1}{\beta^2} \ddot{\vec{A}}_S = \frac{\vec{F}(t)}{4\pi\beta^2 r}$$

solutions are found by integrating general solutions over volume

$$A_p = \frac{1}{4\pi\beta^2 r} \iiint_V \frac{-F(\xi, t - \frac{|\vec{x}-\xi|}{\beta})}{|\vec{x}-\xi|} dV$$

and applying $\vec{u} = \nabla(\nabla \cdot \vec{A}_p) - \nabla \times \nabla \times \vec{A}_p$

yielding

$$u_n(x, t) = \frac{1}{4\pi\beta} (3x_n x_p - \delta_{np}) \frac{1}{r^3} \int_0^{r/\beta} \gamma F(t-\gamma) d\gamma$$

Stokes solution

$$+ \frac{1}{4\pi\beta^2} \frac{1}{r} x_n x_p F(t-r/\beta) - \frac{1}{4\pi\beta^2} \frac{1}{r} (x_n x_p - \delta_{np}) F(t-r/\beta)$$

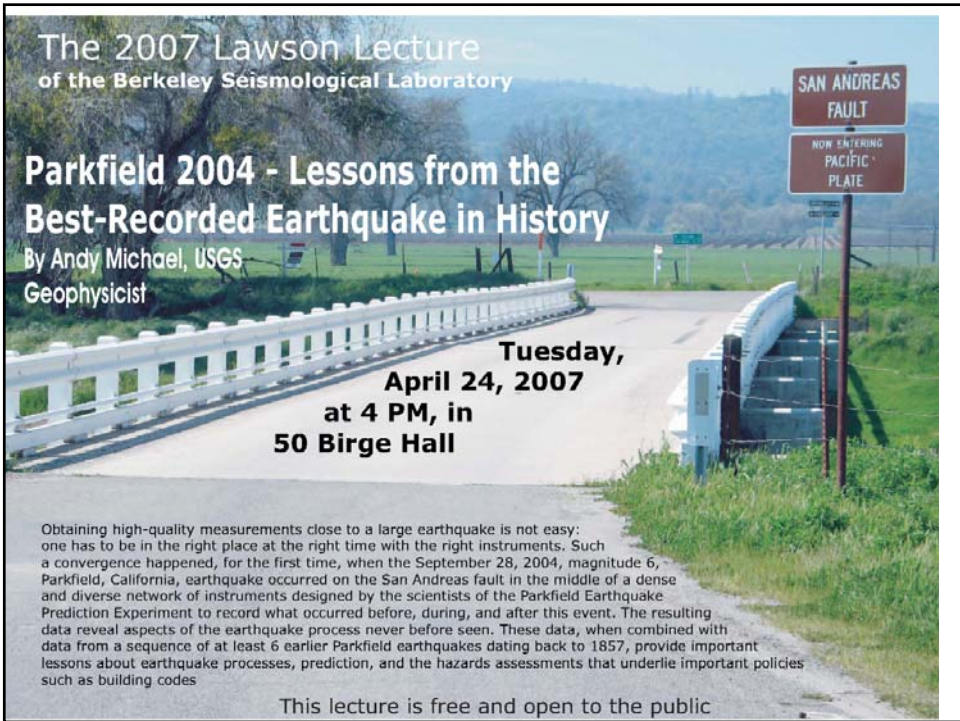
$$x_n = \frac{x_n}{r} = \frac{x}{r}$$

The 2007 Lawson Lecture
of the Berkeley Seismological Laboratory

Parkfield 2004 - Lessons from the Best-Recorded Earthquake in History

By Andy Michael, USGS Geophysicist

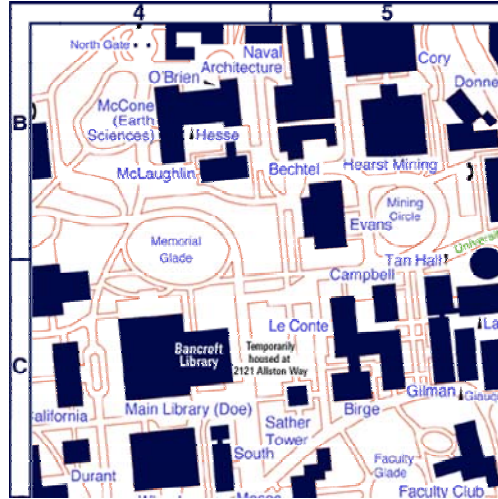
Tuesday, April 24, 2007 at 4 PM, in 50 Birge Hall



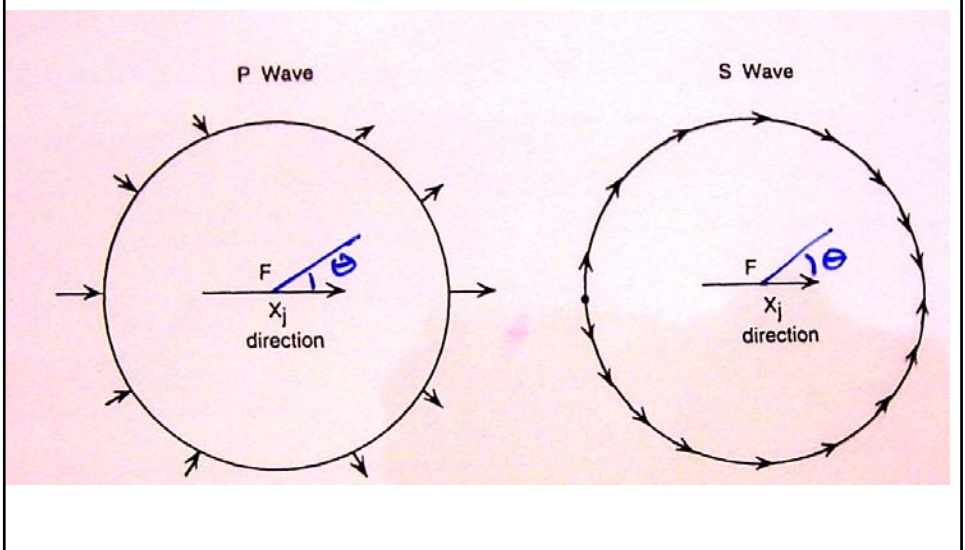
Obtaining high-quality measurements close to a large earthquake is not easy: one has to be in the right place at the right time with the right instruments. Such a convergence happened, for the first time, when the September 28, 2004, magnitude 6, Parkfield, California, earthquake occurred on the San Andreas fault in the middle of a dense and diverse network of instruments designed by the scientists of the Parkfield Earthquake Prediction Experiment to record what occurred before, during, and after this event. The resulting data reveal aspects of the earthquake process never before seen. These data, when combined with data from a sequence of at least 6 earlier Parkfield earthquakes dating back to 1857, provide important lessons about earthquake processes, prediction, and the hazards assessments that underlie important policies such as building codes

This lecture is free and open to the public

Berkeley Seismological Laboratory – Lawson Lecture



Single Force Radiation



Far-field solutions for P-waves

$$u_n(x,t) = \frac{1}{4\pi\rho\alpha^2} \frac{1}{r} \underbrace{\gamma_n \gamma_p}_{\text{radiation pattern}} F(t-r/\alpha)$$

direction of propagation direction of \vec{F}

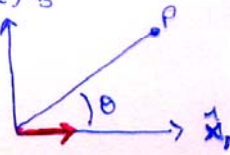
considering the \hat{x}_2 -plane

and \vec{F} in $p=1$ direction

$$\vec{u}_p(\hat{x},t) = \frac{1}{4\pi\rho\alpha^2} \frac{1}{r} \gamma_1 \gamma_3 F(t-r/\alpha) \hat{x}_3 + \frac{1}{4\pi\rho\alpha^2} \frac{1}{r} \gamma_1 \gamma_1 F(t-r/\alpha) \hat{x}_1$$

$$\gamma_1 = \cos\theta$$

$$\gamma_3 = \cos(90-\theta) = \sin\theta$$



$$\begin{aligned} \|\vec{u}_p(x,t)\| &= \frac{1}{4\pi\rho\alpha^2} \frac{1}{r} F(t-r/\alpha) [\cos^2\theta \sin^2\theta + \cos^4\theta]^{1/2} \\ &= \frac{1}{4\pi\rho\alpha^2} \frac{1}{r} F(t-r/\alpha) \underline{\underline{\cos\theta}} \end{aligned}$$

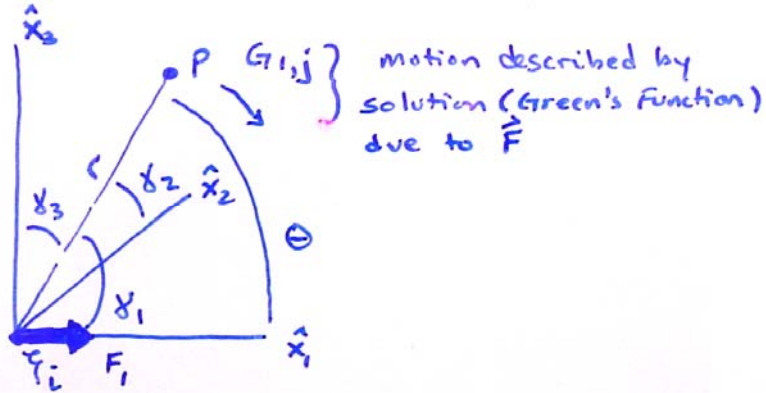
Far-field solution for S-waves considering \hat{x}_2 -plane

$$\vec{u}^s(x,t) = \left[\frac{1}{4\pi\rho\beta^2} \frac{1}{r} \right] \left((\gamma_1 \gamma_1 - 1) \hat{x}_1 + \gamma_1 \gamma_3 \hat{x}_3 \right)$$

$$\text{since } \gamma_1^2 + \gamma_3^2 = 1$$

$$\|\vec{u}^s\| \propto \left[\sin^4\theta + \cos^2\theta \sin^2\theta \right]^{1/2} = \underline{\underline{\sin\theta}}$$

Direction Cosine Derivation of Force-Couple
Radiation pattern



$$r = [(x_1 - \xi_1)^2 + (x_2 - \xi_2)^2 + (x_3 - \xi_3)^2]^{1/2}$$

$$r = [(x_1 - \xi_1)^2 + (x_2 - \xi_2)^2 + (x_3 - \xi_3)^2]^{1/2}$$

$$\frac{\partial r}{\partial x_1} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot 2(x_1 - \xi_1) = \frac{(x_1 - \xi_1)}{r} = \cos \theta = \gamma_1$$

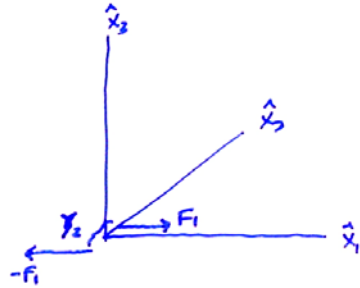
therefore $\frac{\partial r}{\partial x_i} = \gamma_i$ $\frac{\partial r}{\partial \xi_i} = -\gamma_i$

it can also be shown that

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \frac{1}{r} = \frac{-\gamma_i}{r^2}$$

$$\frac{\partial \gamma_i}{\partial x_j} = -\frac{1}{r} (\gamma_i \gamma_j - \delta_{ij})$$

These derivatives allow determination of the response from a force-couple



in the limit as $\varphi_2 \rightarrow 0$ this is a spatial derivative

$$\therefore F^{\text{couple}} = \frac{d}{d\varphi_i} F_j^{\text{SF}}$$

consider a far-field P-wave

$$u_i^{\text{SF}} = \frac{1}{4\pi\rho d^2} \delta_i \delta_j \frac{1}{r} F(t-r/d)$$

derivatives of $\delta_i, \delta_j \propto 1/r$ with respect to φ_2 result in higher order terms of $1/r$ (i.e. $1/r^2$)

eg

Ignoring these (the far-field approximation)

$$\text{gives } \frac{d}{d\varphi_2} u_i^{\text{SF}} \approx \frac{1}{4\pi\rho d^2} \delta_i \delta_j \frac{1}{r} \frac{d}{d\varphi_2} F(t-r/d)$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi\rho d^2 r} \delta_i \delta_j \left(F(t-r/d) \frac{dr}{d\varphi_2} \frac{1}{r} \right)$$

$$= \frac{\delta_i \delta_j \delta_2}{4\pi\rho d^3 r} \dot{F}(t-r/d)$$

For a force in the \hat{x}_1 direction

P-waves

$$U_i^c \approx \frac{1}{\alpha} \frac{SF}{4\pi\rho\alpha^3 r} = \frac{\gamma_i \gamma_1 \gamma_2}{4\pi\rho\alpha^3 r} \dot{F}(t-r/\alpha)$$

For S-waves

$$U_i^c = \frac{-(\gamma_1 \gamma_i - \delta_{ij}) \gamma_2}{4\pi\rho\beta^3 r} \dot{F}(t-r/\beta)$$

(4.28) is quite straightforward to apply to (4.27), using the two rules

$$\frac{\partial r}{\partial \xi_q} = -\gamma_q \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial \gamma_j}{\partial \xi_q} = \frac{\gamma_j \gamma_q - \delta_{jq}}{r}$$

and the outcome is a displacement field (see (3.22)) having the n th component

$$\begin{aligned} M_{pq} * G_{np,q} = & \left(\frac{15\gamma_n \gamma_p \gamma_q - 3\gamma_n \delta_{pq} - 3\gamma_p \delta_{nq} - 3\gamma_q \delta_{np}}{4\pi\rho} \right) \frac{1}{r^4} \int_{r/\alpha}^{r/\beta} \tau M_{pq}(t-\tau) d\tau \\ & + \left(\frac{6\gamma_n \gamma_p \gamma_q - \gamma_n \delta_{pq} - \gamma_p \delta_{nq} - \gamma_q \delta_{np}}{4\pi\rho\alpha^2} \right) \frac{1}{r^2} M_{pq} \left(t - \frac{r}{\alpha} \right) \\ & - \left(\frac{6\gamma_n \gamma_p \gamma_q - \gamma_n \delta_{pq} - \gamma_p \delta_{nq} - 2\gamma_q \delta_{np}}{4\pi\rho\beta^2} \right) \frac{1}{r^2} M_{pq} \left(t - \frac{r}{\beta} \right) \\ & + \frac{\gamma_n \gamma_p \gamma_q}{4\pi\rho\alpha^3} \frac{1}{r} \dot{M}_{pq} \left(t - \frac{r}{\alpha} \right) \\ & - \left(\frac{\gamma_n \gamma_p - \delta_{np}}{4\pi\rho\beta^3} \right) \gamma_q \frac{1}{r} \dot{M}_{pq} \left(t - \frac{r}{\beta} \right). \end{aligned} \tag{4.29}$$

From Aki & Richards, 1981

Single Couple Radiation Pattern
 considering the \hat{x}_3 plane for P-waves

$$u^c = \frac{\dot{M}(t-r/c)}{4\pi\rho\alpha^3 r} [\delta_1^2 \delta_2 \hat{x}_1 + \delta_1 \delta_2^2 \hat{x}_2]$$

$$\delta_1 = \cos\theta \quad \delta_2 = \sin\theta$$

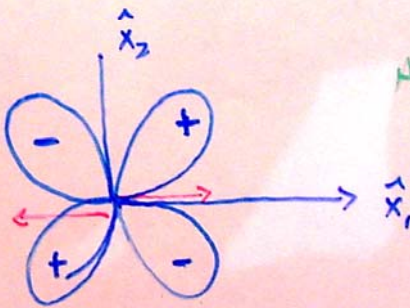
and

$$\|u_i^c\| = \frac{\dot{M}(t-r/c)}{4\pi\rho\alpha^3 r} [\cos^4\theta \sin^2\theta + \cos^2\theta \sin^4\theta]^{1/2}$$

$$\sin 2\theta = 2 \sin\theta \cos\theta$$

$$= \frac{\dot{M}(t-r/c)}{4\pi\rho\alpha^3 r} \left[\frac{1}{4} \sin^2 2\theta (\cos^2\theta + \sin^2\theta) \right]^{1/2}$$

$$= \frac{\dot{M}(t-r/c)}{4\pi\rho\alpha^3 r} \left[\frac{1}{2} \sin 2\theta \right]$$



A 4-quadrant pattern

Now for \hat{x}_3 plane S-wave radiation

$$u_i^c = \frac{\dot{M}(t-r/\beta)}{4\pi\rho\beta^3 r} [(1-\gamma_1^2)\gamma_2 \hat{x}_1 - \gamma_1 \gamma_2^2 \hat{x}_2]$$

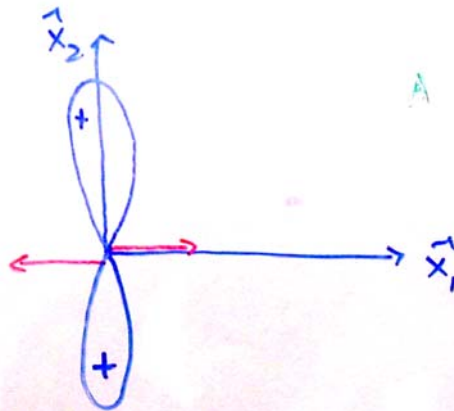
$$\text{since } \gamma_1^2 + \gamma_2^2 = 1$$

$$\gamma_2^2 = 1 - \gamma_1^2$$

∴

$$\|u_i^c\| = \frac{\dot{M}(t-r/\beta)}{4\pi\rho\beta^3 r} [\gamma_2^6 + \gamma_1^2 \gamma_2^4]^{1/2}$$

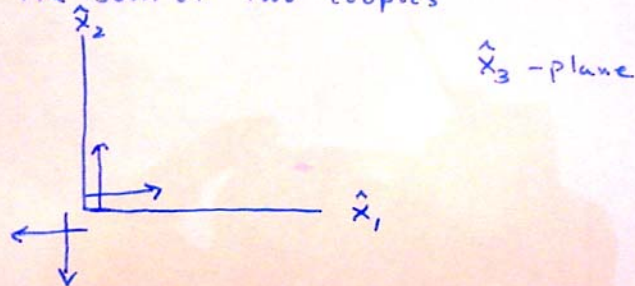
$$= \frac{\dot{M}(t-r/\beta)}{4\pi\rho\beta^3 r} [\sin^2 \theta]$$



A figure-eight radiation pattern

Double Couples

Simply the sum of two couples



P Waves

$$U_i^{PC} = \frac{2\gamma_1\gamma_2\gamma_n \dot{M}(t-r/d)}{4\pi\rho d^3 r} \hat{x}_i$$

Same 4-lobed pattern due to a single-couple

S waves

$$U_i^{PC} = \frac{(\delta_{1i} - \gamma_1\gamma_i)\gamma_2 \dot{M}(t-r/\rho)}{4\pi\rho\beta^3 r} \hat{x}_i + \frac{(\delta_{2i} - \gamma_2\gamma_i)\gamma_1 \dot{M}(t-r/\rho)}{4\pi\rho\beta^3 r} \hat{x}_i$$

$$= \left[\frac{\dot{M}(t-r/\rho)}{4\pi\rho\beta^3 r} \right] \left[((1-\gamma_1^2)\gamma_2 - \gamma_1^2\gamma_2) \hat{x}_1 + ((1-\gamma_2^2)\gamma_1 - \gamma_1\gamma_2^2) \hat{x}_2 \right]$$

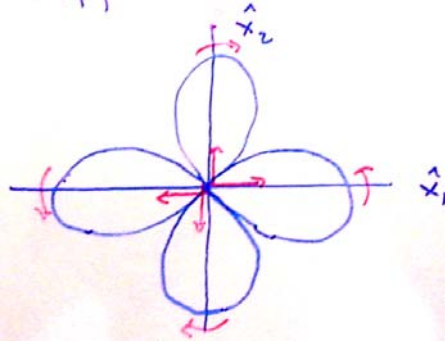
$$= \left[\frac{\dot{M}(t-r/\rho)}{4\pi\rho\beta^3 r} \right] \left[(\gamma_2^3 - \gamma_1^2\gamma_2) \hat{x}_1 + (\gamma_1^3 - \gamma_1\gamma_2^2) \hat{x}_2 \right]$$

$$= \left[\frac{\dot{M}(t-r/\rho)}{4\pi\rho\beta^3 r} \right] \left[\gamma_2(\gamma_2^2 - \gamma_1^2) \hat{x}_1 + \gamma_1(\gamma_1^2 - \gamma_2^2) \hat{x}_2 \right]$$

Since $\delta_1 = \cos\theta$ & $\delta_2 = \sin\theta$

$$\text{and } \delta_1^2 - \delta_2^2 = \cos^2\theta - \sin^2\theta = \cos 2\theta$$

$$\|u^{dc}\| = \frac{m(t-r/\beta)}{4\pi\rho\beta^3 r} \cos 2\theta$$



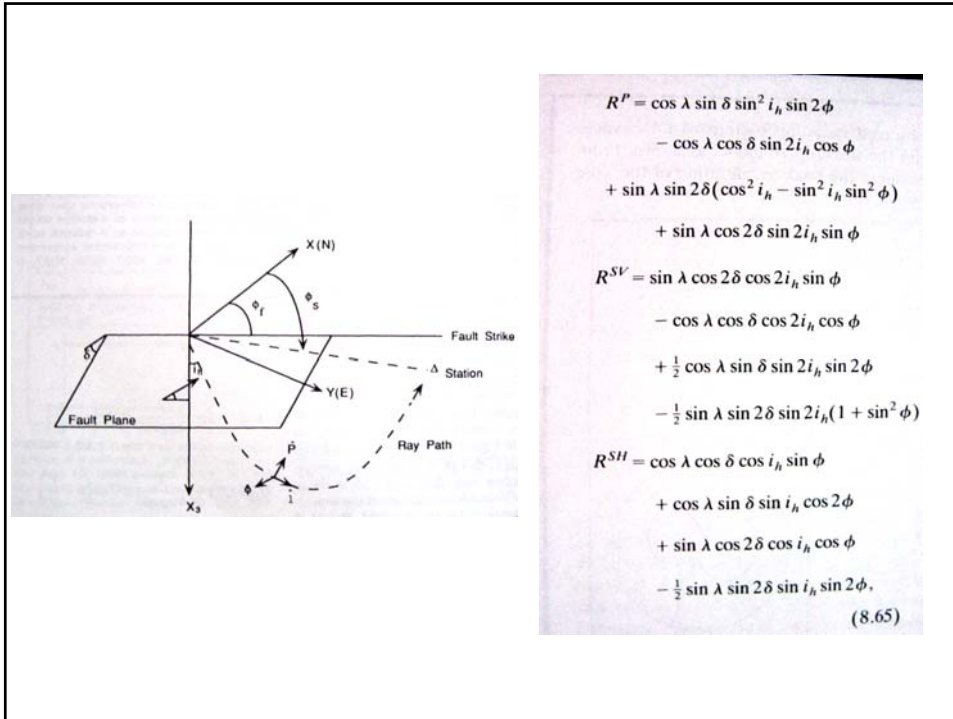
(4.28) is quite straightforward to apply to (4.27), using the two rules

$$\frac{\partial r}{\partial \xi_q} = -\gamma_q \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial \gamma_{ij}}{\partial \xi_q} = \frac{\gamma_{ij} \delta_{jq} - \delta_{iq}}{r}$$

and the outcome is a displacement field (see (3.22)) having the n th component

$$\begin{aligned} M_{pq} * G_{nr,q} = & \left(\frac{15\gamma_n \gamma_p \gamma_q - 3\gamma_n \delta_{pq} - 3\gamma_p \delta_{nq} - 3\gamma_q \delta_{np}}{4\pi\rho} \right) \frac{1}{r^4} \int_{r/\beta}^{r/\alpha} \tau M_{pq}(t-\tau) d\tau \\ & + \left(\frac{6\gamma_n \gamma_p \gamma_q - \gamma_n \delta_{pq} - \gamma_p \delta_{nq} - \gamma_q \delta_{np}}{4\pi\rho\alpha^2} \right) \frac{1}{r^2} M_{pq} \left(t - \frac{r}{\alpha} \right) \\ & - \left(\frac{6\gamma_n \gamma_p \gamma_q - \gamma_n \delta_{pq} - \gamma_p \delta_{nq} - 2\gamma_q \delta_{np}}{4\pi\rho\beta^2} \right) \frac{1}{r^2} M_{pq} \left(t - \frac{r}{\beta} \right) \\ & + \frac{\gamma_n \gamma_p \gamma_q}{4\pi\rho\alpha^3} \frac{1}{r} \dot{M}_{pq} \left(t - \frac{r}{\alpha} \right) \\ & - \left(\frac{\gamma_n \gamma_p - \delta_{np}}{4\pi\rho\beta^3} \right) \gamma_q \frac{1}{r} \dot{M}_{pq} \left(t - \frac{r}{\beta} \right). \end{aligned} \tag{4.29}$$

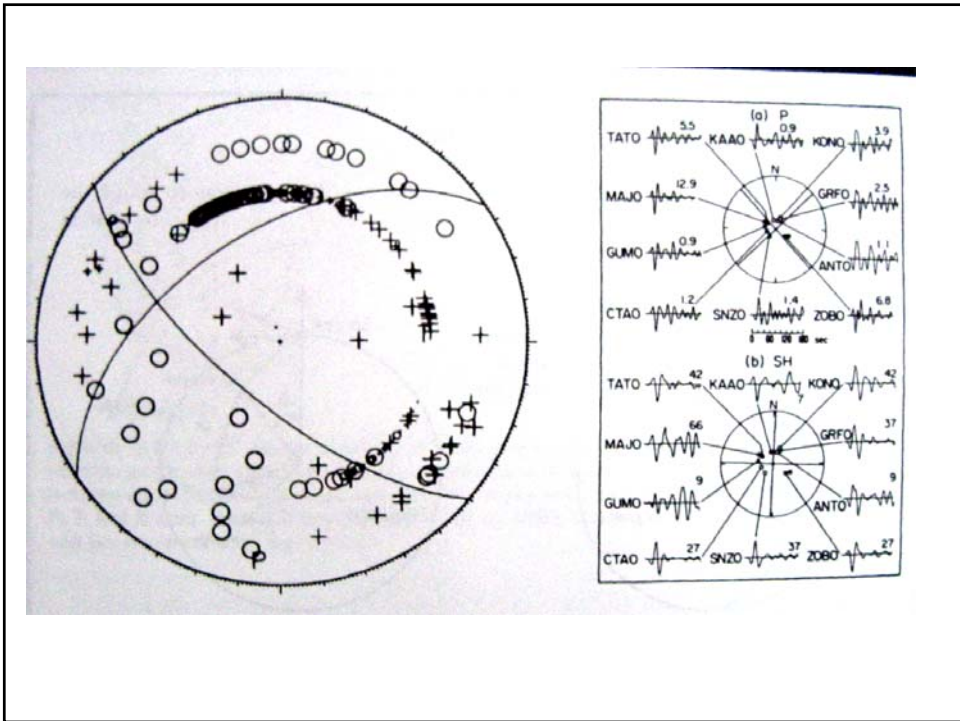
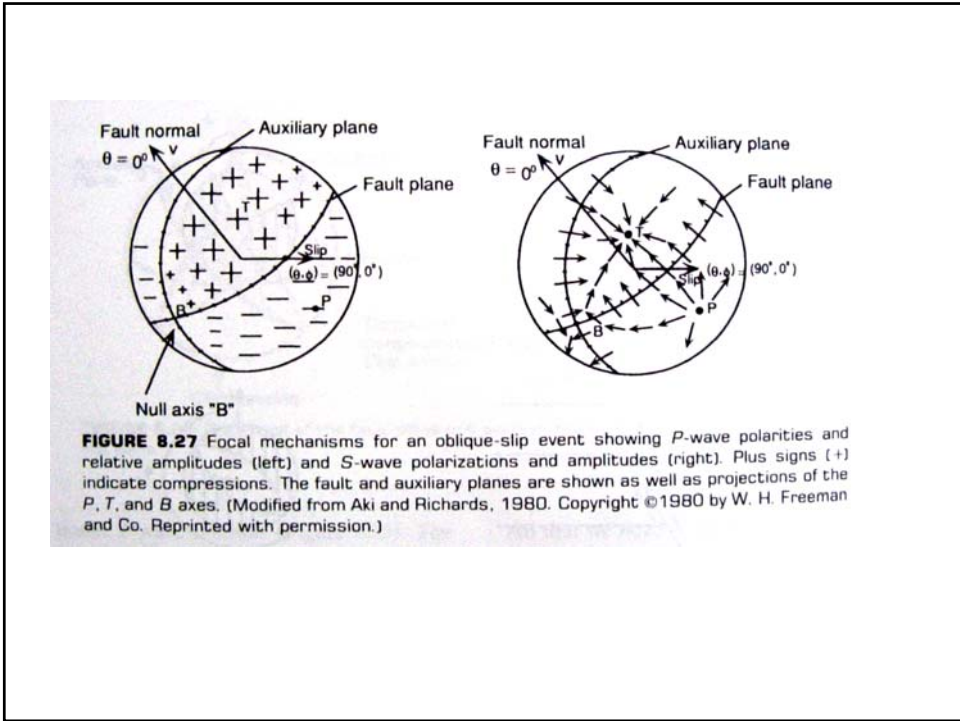
From Aki & Richards, 1981

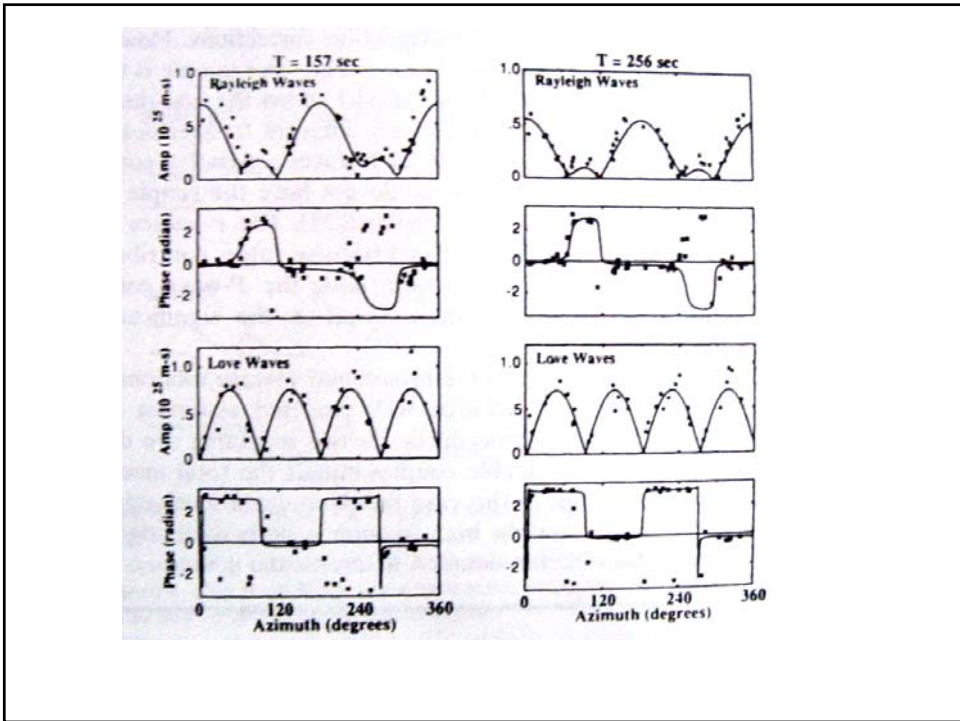
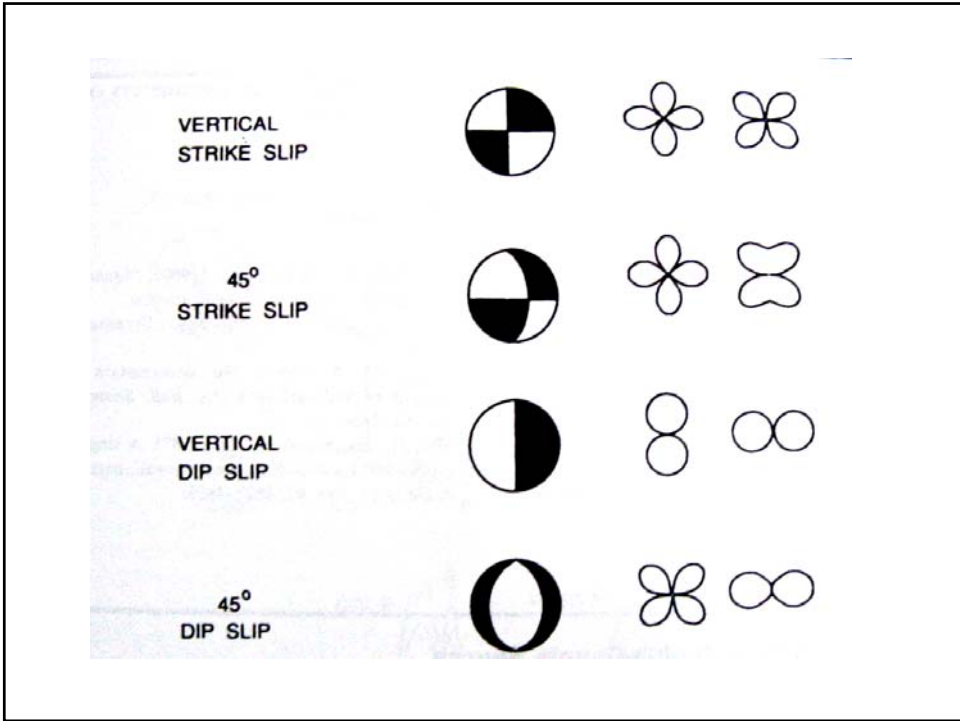


$$U_P(r, t) = \frac{1}{4\pi\rho r\alpha^3} R^P \dot{M} \left(t - \frac{r}{\alpha} \right)$$

$$U_{SV}(r, t) = \frac{1}{4\pi\rho r\beta^3} R^{SV} \dot{M} \left(t - \frac{r}{\beta} \right)$$

$$U_{SH}(r, t) = \frac{1}{4\pi\rho r\beta^3} R^{SH} \dot{M} \left(t - \frac{r}{\beta} \right)$$





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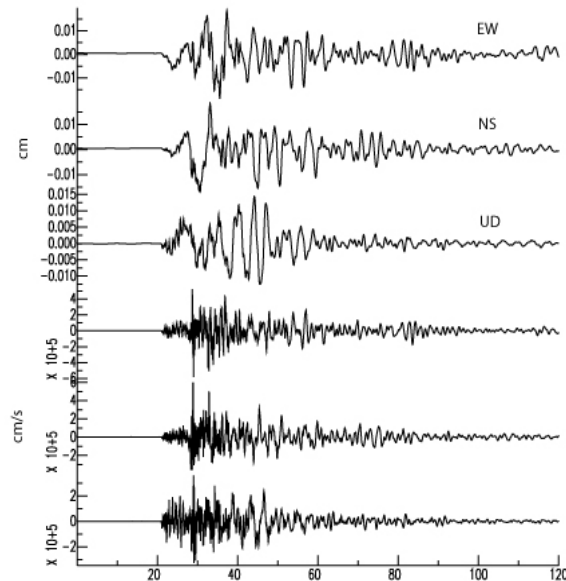
$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}, t) = & \frac{1}{4\pi\rho} \mathbf{A}^N \frac{1}{r^4} \int_{r/\alpha}^{r/\beta} \tau \dot{M}_0(t - \tau) d\tau \\
 & + \frac{1}{4\pi\rho\alpha^2} \mathbf{A}^{IP} \frac{1}{r^2} \dot{M}_0 \left(t - \frac{r}{\alpha} \right) + \frac{1}{4\pi\rho\beta^2} \mathbf{A}^{IS} \frac{1}{r^2} \dot{M}_0 \left(t - \frac{r}{\beta} \right) \\
 & + \frac{1}{4\pi\rho\alpha^3} \mathbf{A}^{FP} \frac{1}{r} \ddot{M}_0 \left(t - \frac{r}{\alpha} \right) + \frac{1}{4\pi\rho\beta^3} \mathbf{A}^{FS} \frac{1}{r} \ddot{M}_0 \left(t - \frac{r}{\beta} \right),
 \end{aligned} \quad (4.32)$$

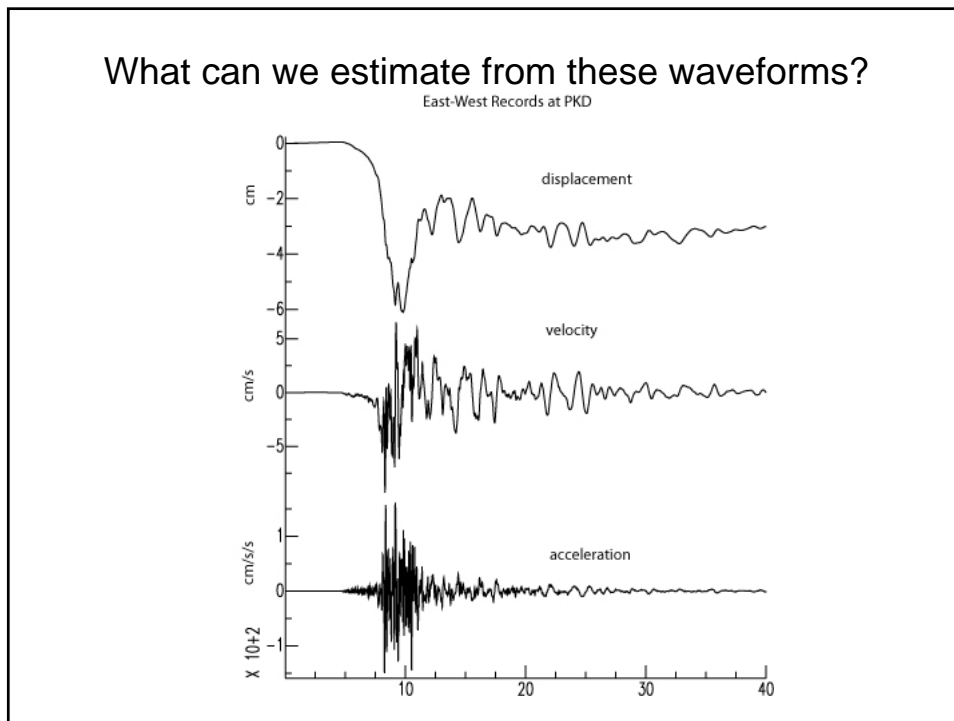
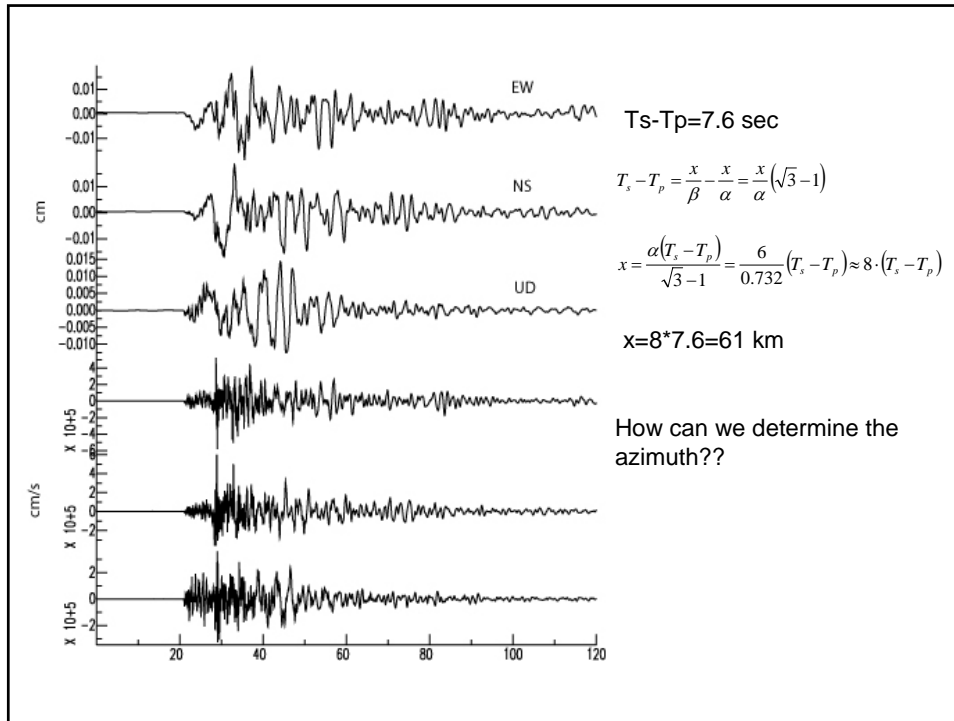
in which the near-field, the intermediate-field P and S , and the far-field P and S have radiation patterns given, respectively, by

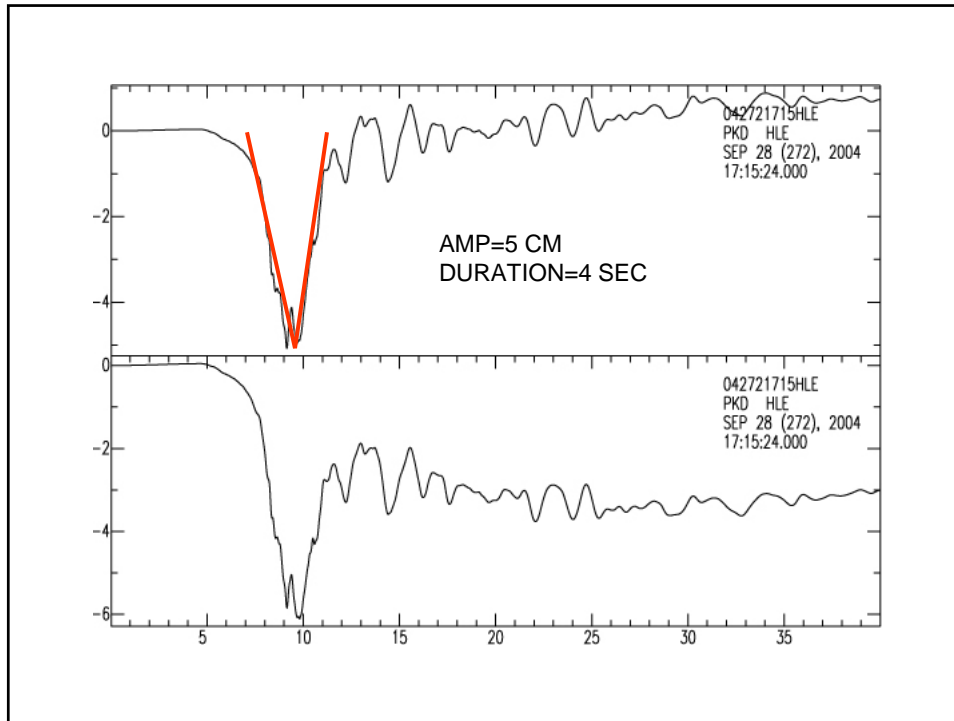
$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbf{A}^N &= 9 \sin 2\theta \cos \phi \hat{\mathbf{r}} - 6(\cos 2\theta \cos \phi \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} - \cos \theta \sin \phi \hat{\boldsymbol{\phi}}) \\
 \mathbf{A}^{IP} &= 4 \sin 2\theta \cos \phi \hat{\mathbf{r}} - 2(\cos 2\theta \cos \phi \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} - \cos \theta \sin \phi \hat{\boldsymbol{\phi}}) \\
 \mathbf{A}^{IS} &= -3 \sin 2\theta \cos \phi \hat{\mathbf{r}} + 3(\cos 2\theta \cos \phi \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} - \cos \theta \sin \phi \hat{\boldsymbol{\phi}}) \\
 \mathbf{A}^{FP} &= \sin 2\theta \cos \phi \hat{\mathbf{r}} \\
 \mathbf{A}^{FS} &= \cos 2\theta \cos \phi \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} - \cos \theta \sin \phi \hat{\boldsymbol{\phi}}.
 \end{aligned} \quad (4.33)$$

These radiation patterns explicitly display a radial component, proportional to $\sin 2\theta \cos \phi \hat{\mathbf{r}}$, and a transverse component, proportional to $(\cos 2\theta \cos \phi \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} - \cos \theta \sin \phi \hat{\boldsymbol{\phi}})$. The important property brought out by (4.33) is that these are the only two radiation patterns needed to obtain a complete picture of all the different terms in the displacement field radiated from a shear dislocation (double couple). Figure 4.5 shows the way in which

Some Examples: Event Location







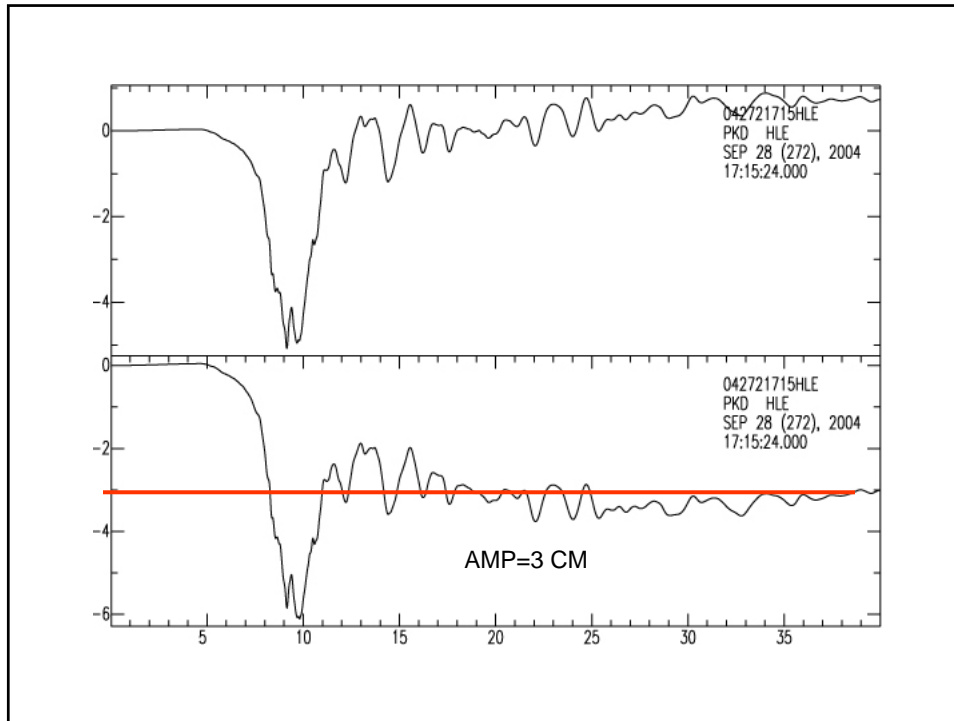
$$u = \frac{R \cdot \dot{M}}{4\pi\rho r\beta^3}$$

$$\int u dt = \frac{1}{2} A \tau = \frac{R \cdot M_0}{4\pi\rho r\beta^3}$$

$$M_0 = \frac{(2\pi\rho r\beta^3) A \tau}{R} = 2 * 3.14 * 2.67 * 8 \cdot 10^5 * (3.5 \cdot 10^5)^3 * 5 * 4$$

$$= 1.14 \cdot 10^{25} \text{ dyne cm}$$

$$M_w = 6.0$$



$$u_{static} = \frac{3 \cdot R \cdot M_0}{4\pi\rho r^2 \beta^2}$$

$$M_0 = \frac{(4\pi\rho r^2 \beta^2) u_{static}}{3R} = \frac{4}{3} * 3.14 * 2.67 * (8 \cdot 10^5)^2 * (3.5 \cdot 10^5)^2 * 3$$

$$= 2.63 \cdot 10^{24} \text{ dyne cm}$$

$$Mw = 5.6$$

Interpretation of FM Mechanisms

