Conditions for large versus small earthquakes

• Segmented (discontinuous) faults - rupture must jump from segment to segment, which takes energy **OR** long continuous fault

• Heterogeneous fault frictional strength and shear stress (so whole fault is NOT close to Coulomb failure threshold) **OR** whole fault close to Coulomb failure.

• Small stress drop and small "kick" to adjacent parts of the fault **OR** large stress drop and "kick" to adjacent parts of the fault.

Importance of the normal stress (1) Coulomb failure criterion



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What happened when you extended the spring and then removed the brick?



Importance of the normal stress (2): drop in frictional resistance during sliding (velocity weakening friction) is $(a - b)\sigma_n$



Variations in frictional strength $\mu\sigma_n$ and in velocity weakening (a-b) σ_n may be due to variations in σ_n caused by pore fluid pressure.

Consider the effect of water on the fault.

Consider liquefaction of saturated sand

Grains are not touching. This is a fluid with grains floating in it.





Image from Stanford University Rock Physics Lab

Grains are touching and are supporting the load (stressed parts of grains are red).

2010 Christchurch earthquake





1964 Niigata earthquake



http://www.ce.washington.edu/~liquefaction/html/quakes/niigata/niigata.html

Groundwater is present throughout the upper



water level in porous, permeable rock = water level in well
water pressure at depth is same as for a column of water
 ("unconfined" shallow aquifer)



In some aquifers, and deeper in the crust, water in pores and cracks may become trapped.

Fluid cannot flow out faster than compaction is occurring, so water pressure goes up.

"pore fluid pressure" can approach the lithostatic pressure!

from Plummer et al., Physical Geology (text for EOSC 110)

Water can become <u>trapped</u> inside low-permeability fault gouge, which may compact slightly over time







Coulomb failure criterion: The fault can slip if: $|\tau| = \mu |\sigma_n|$

To take into account pore fluid pressure:

$$|\tau| = \mu |\sigma_e|$$

where

$$|\sigma_e| = |\sigma_n| - P_p$$

Coulomb criterion for fault slip $|\tau|=\mu|\sigma_e|$

Now suppose the stresses change. An earthquake is more likely if shear stress acting in the correct sense increases, and effective normal stress decreases.

"Coulomb stress change" (also known as "Coulomb Failure Function") is

$$\Delta CFF = \Delta \tau + \mu \ \Delta \sigma_e$$

 ΔCFF correlates with triggered earthquakes (and aftershocks)

Rocky Mt. Arsenal (US Army base) near Denver Colorado, early 1960's: 3670 m deep well was drilled and used for disposal of wastewater...





Still happens, recently in Arkansas and Switzerland. $\Delta CFF = \Delta \tau + \mu \Delta \sigma_e$

An example of seismicity changes due to changes in pore fluid pressure and/or surface loading by a reservoir in central India



Hydrofracking actually depends on this



Lawrence Berkeley Lab



Seismicity increase after the construction of the world's tallest building: An active blind fault beneath the Taipei 101

Cheng-Horng Lin Institute of Earth Sciences, Academia Sinica, Taipei, Taiwan

mass = 705,000 metric tons = $7.05 \times 10^8 \text{ kg}$

Force acting on ground = mass x gravitational acceleration = Q = $7.05 \times 10^9 \text{ kg m/s}^2$

sfc area is 15000 sq m so stress at base is about 0.47 MPa (used by C. Lin...)

but triggered (??) quake was 3.8 km deep...



Coulomb stress changes from large earthquakes can be sufficient to trigger other earthquakes

This is the main reason for aftershocks

(Wednesday)