

Guy Ouillon



Nice, France

Didier Sornette

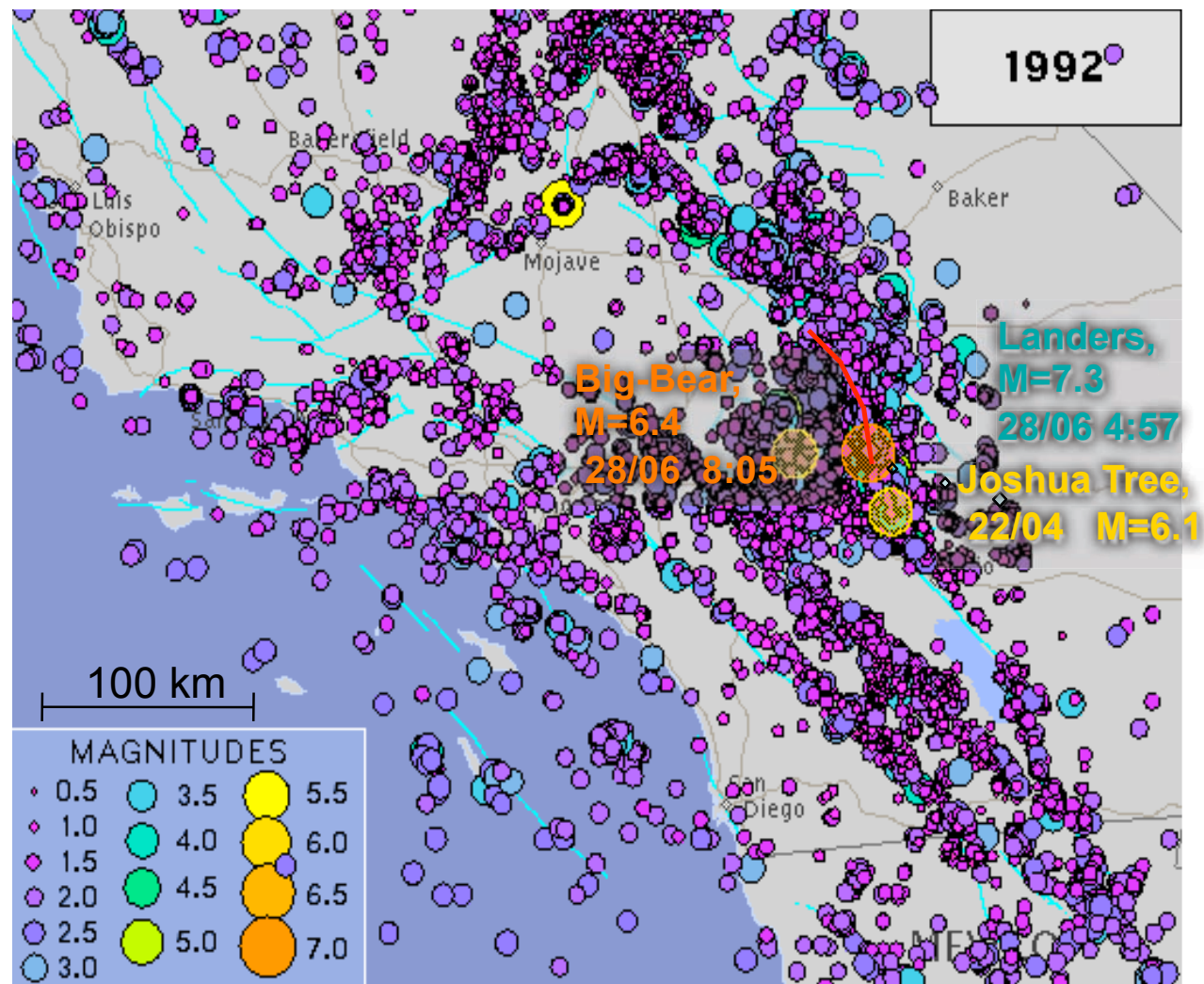


Zürich, Switzerland

Multifractal Omori-Utsu Law for Earthquake Triggering

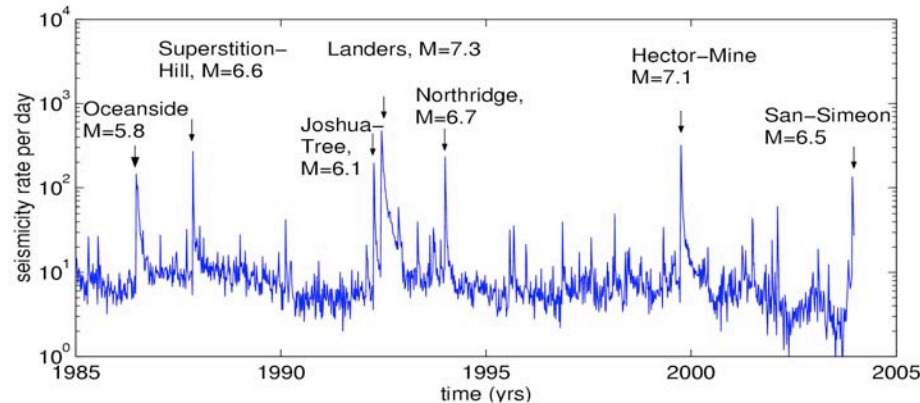
Theory and empirical tests

Spatial and temporal organization of seismicity in California



Landers
28 June 1992
M=7.3

Aftershocks Time Series



The time decay of triggered seismicity rate is measurable after large events, as their number of aftershocks is large enough.

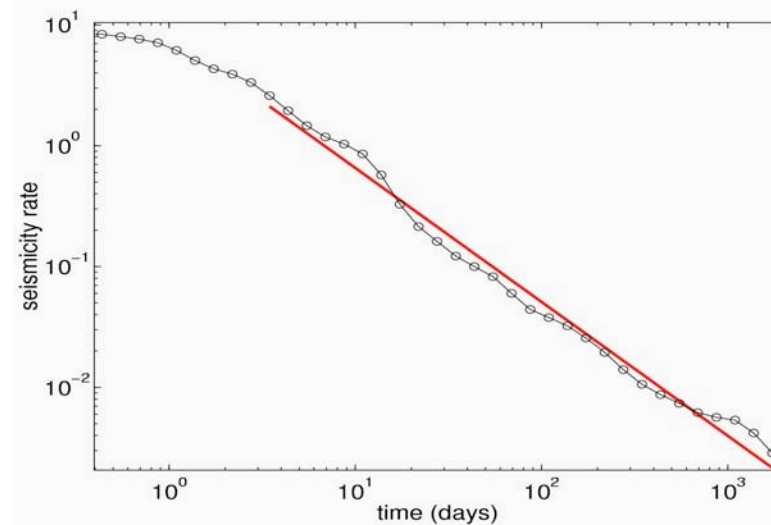
This time decay is known as the Omori-Utsu law (1894):

$$N(t) dt \sim t^{-p} dt$$

The exponent p is close to 1 for most sequences. Each event thus defines a **mathematical singularity**.

Earthquake catalogs appear as a succession of bursts of activity – each event, whatever its magnitude, is followed by a decay of activity.

Events occurring during this relaxation phase are usually referred to as aftershocks or triggered seismicity.



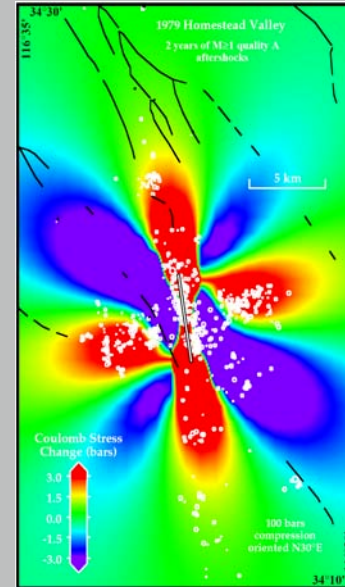
Single body approach

1

Single body approach

1

Stein et al., 1994

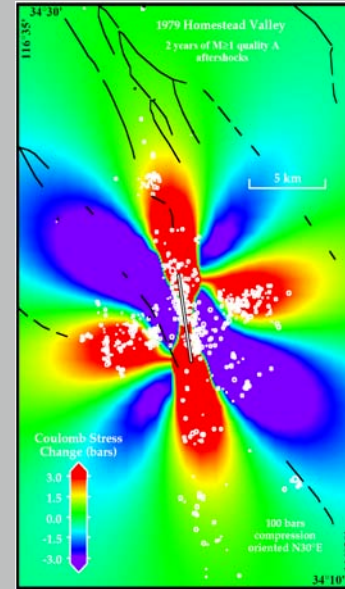


Spatial correlations between Coulomb stress and aftershocks but no account of the stress fluctuations due to aftershocks.

Single body approach

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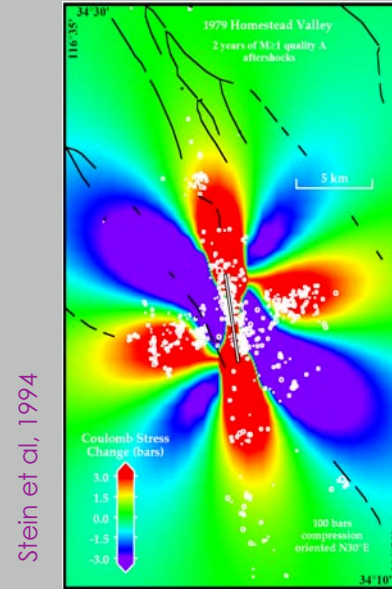


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Earthquake nucleation
activated by static stress

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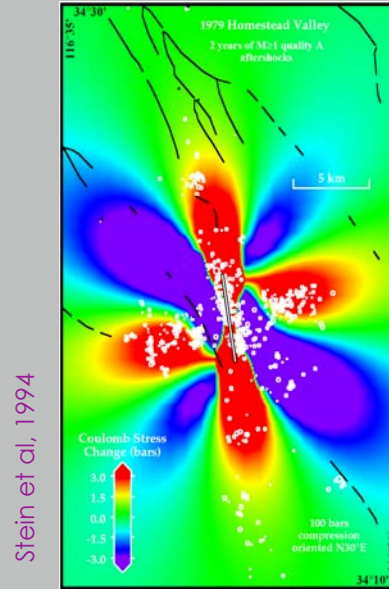
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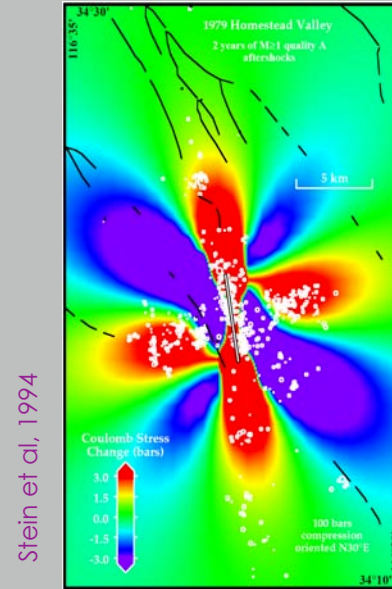
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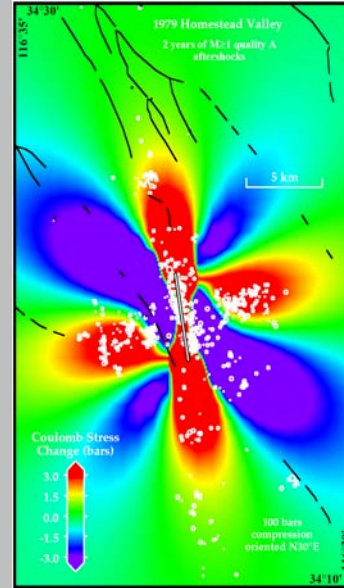
Time dependence

State and rate friction
Dieterich (1994)

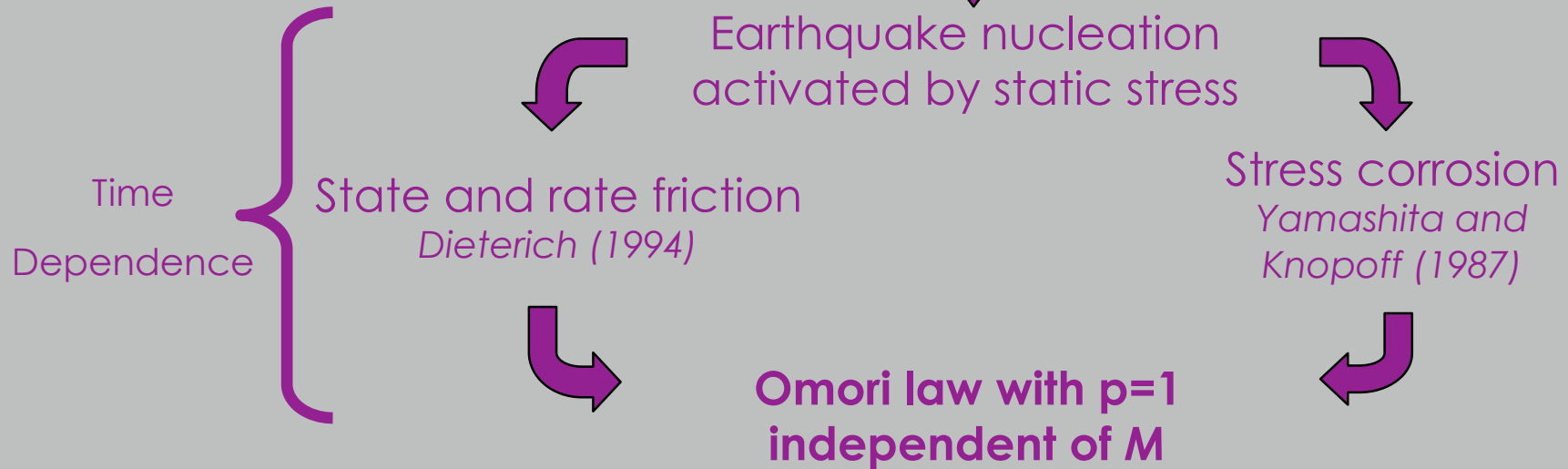
Stress corrosion
Yamashita and Knopoff (1987)

Single body approach

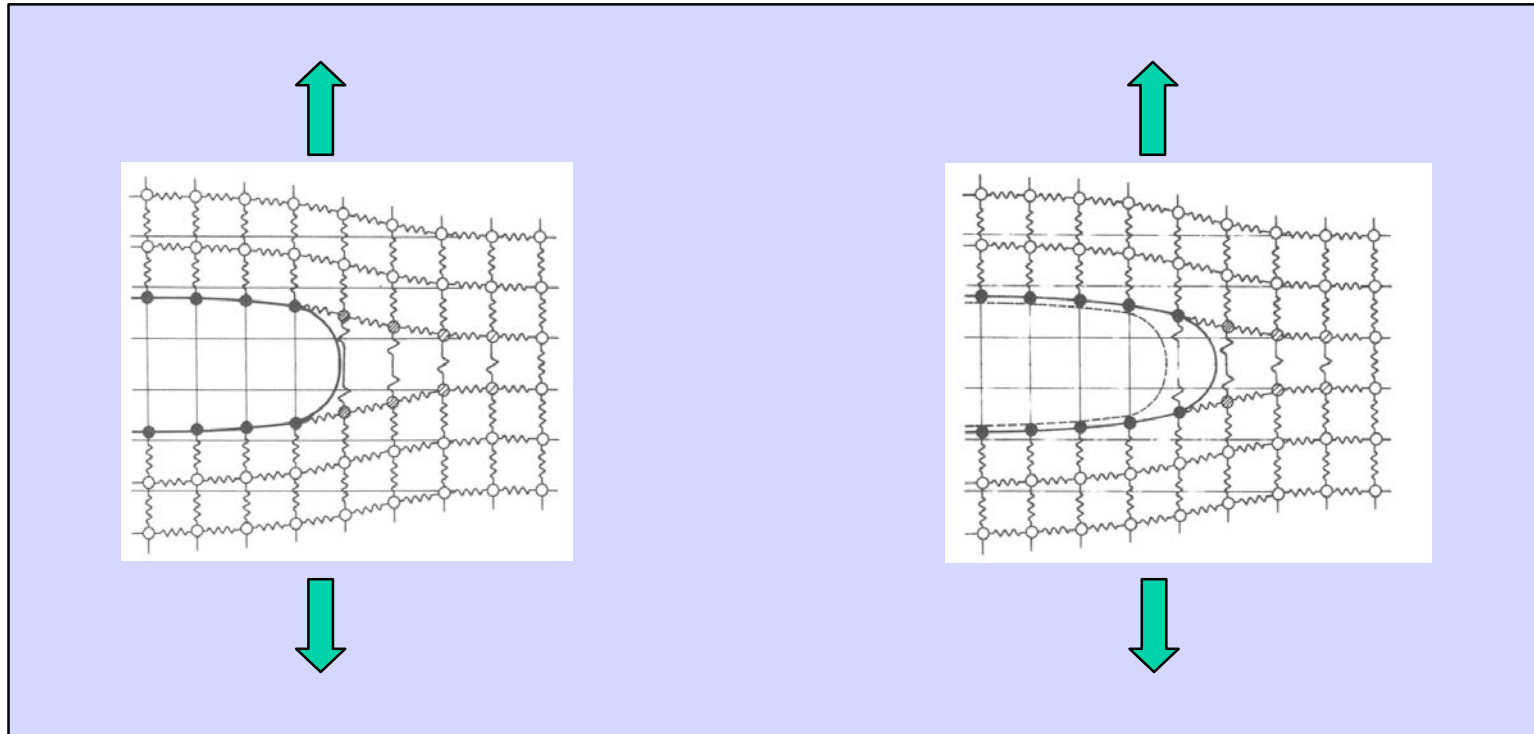
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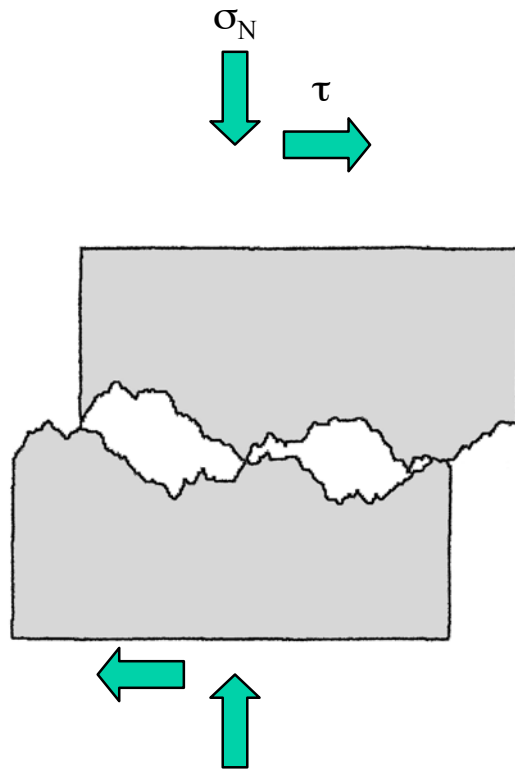
Slow crack growth due to stress corrosion



$$\frac{dL}{dt} \sim L^n \quad L < L_c$$
$$\frac{dL}{dt} = V_d \quad L \geq L_c$$

Thermally activated
process driven by stress

State and rate friction law



$$\tau = \mu \sigma_N$$

$$\mu = \mu_0 + A \ln \left(\frac{v}{v_0} \right)^{\frac{1}{j}} + B \ln \left(\frac{\theta}{\theta_0} \right)^{\frac{1}{j}}$$

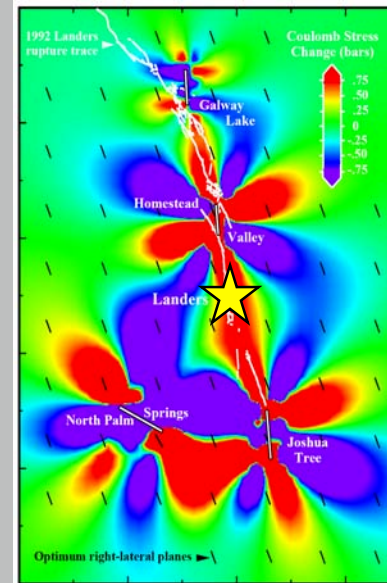
Thermally activated
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The need of a manybody approach

2

The need of a manybody approach

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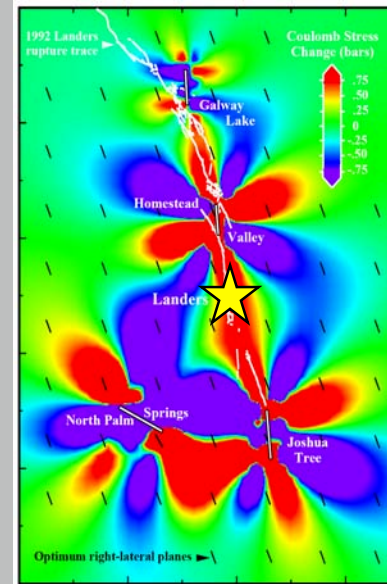


Complex previous history with known or unknown rupture parameters

Stein et al, 1994

The need of a manybody approach

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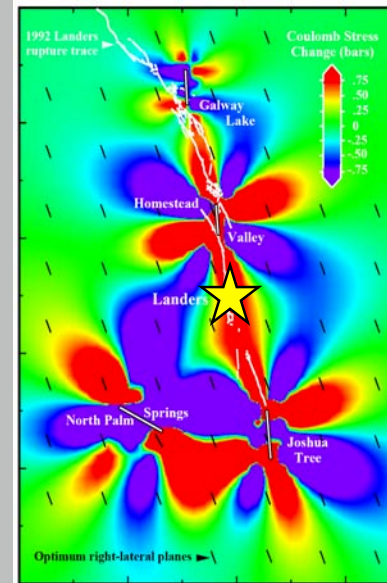
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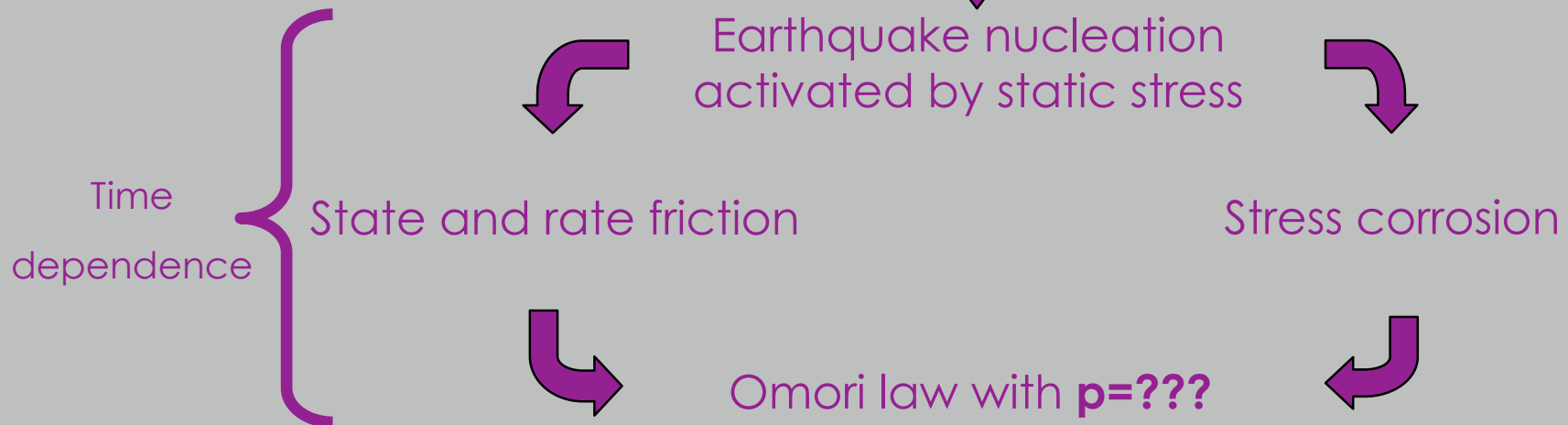
The need of a manybody approach

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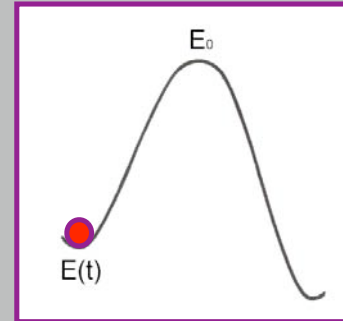
The physical
model : thermal
activation
driven by stress

3

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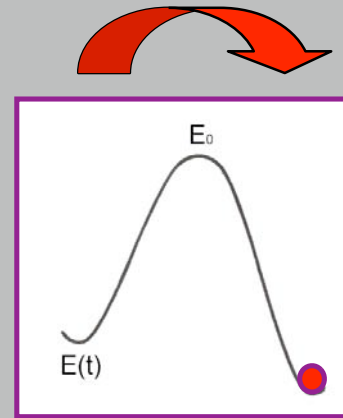
Before
the shock



The physical model : thermal activation driven by stress

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Before the shock



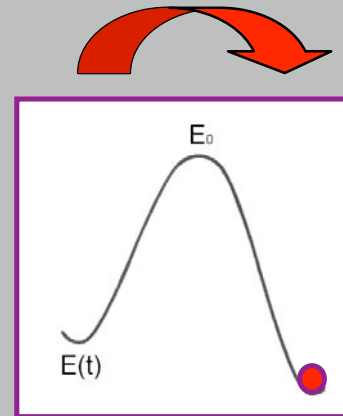
After the shock

$$\text{Energy barrier} = E_0 - E(t)$$

The physical model : thermal activation driven by stress

3

Before the shock



After the shock

Energy barrier = $E_0 - E(t)$

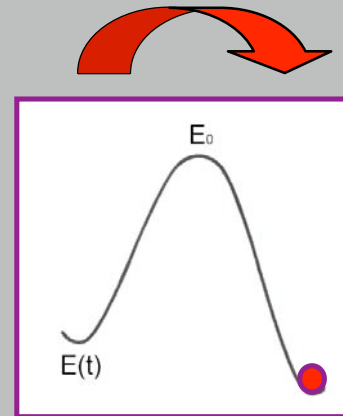
Arrhenius law for the activation rate:

$$\lambda(t) = \lambda_0 \exp\left(-\frac{E_0 - E(t)}{kT}\right)$$

The physical model : thermal activation driven by stress

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Before the shock



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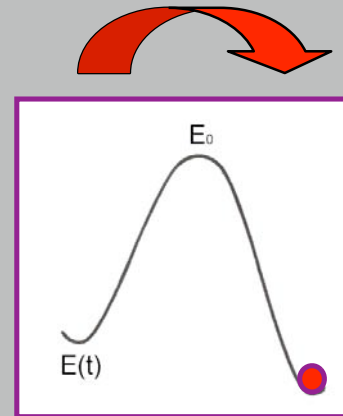
stress barrier = $\sigma_0 - \sigma(t)$

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The physical model : thermal activation driven by stress

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Before the shock



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$$\lambda(t) = \lambda_0 \exp\left(-\frac{\sigma_0 - \sigma(t)}{kT} V\right)$$

Compatible with state-and-rate friction, stress corrosion, ...

$\lambda(t)$: instantaneous rate

λ_0 ~ average nucleation rate

σ_0 : material strength

$\sigma(t)$: applied stress

V : activation volume

T : temperature

k : Boltzmann constant

Experiments by Zhurkov Int. J. Fract. Mech. 1, 311 (1965)

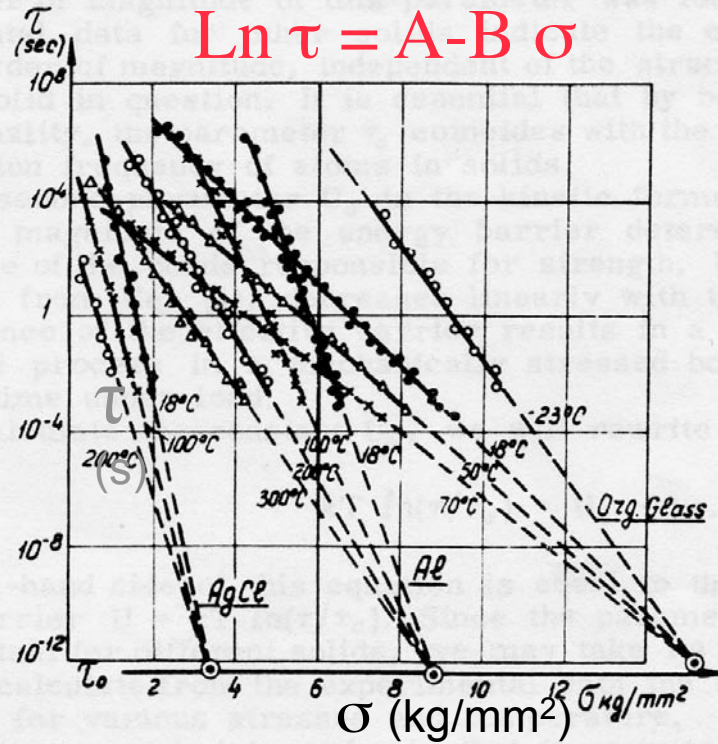


Fig. 5. Time and temperature dependence of the lifetime of solids on stress.
 1. Silver chloride (Reference 4)
 2. Aluminum (Reference 5)
 3. Plexiglas (Reference 6)

$$\tau = \tau_0 \exp\left(\frac{U}{k_B T}\right)$$

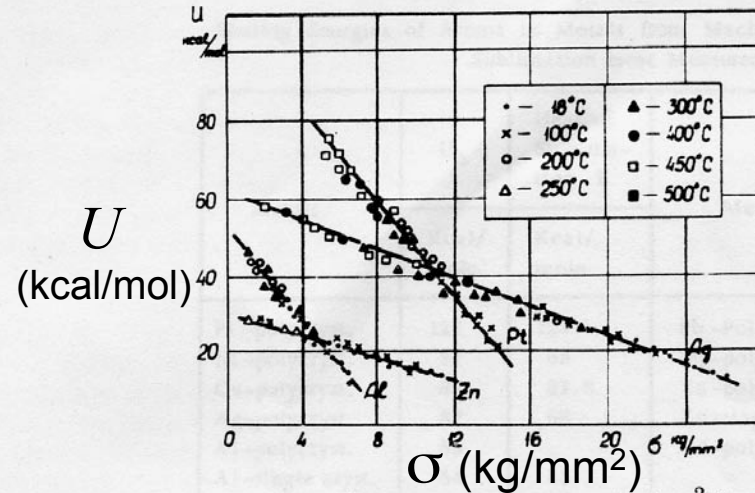


Fig. 6. Effective barrier U kcal/mol vs. tensile stress σ kg/mm² for polycrystall

Empirical energy barrier

$$U = U_0 - \alpha \sigma$$

où U_0 : énergie de sublimation

A possible mechanism : thermal activated process

Taking account
of history and
boundary
conditions

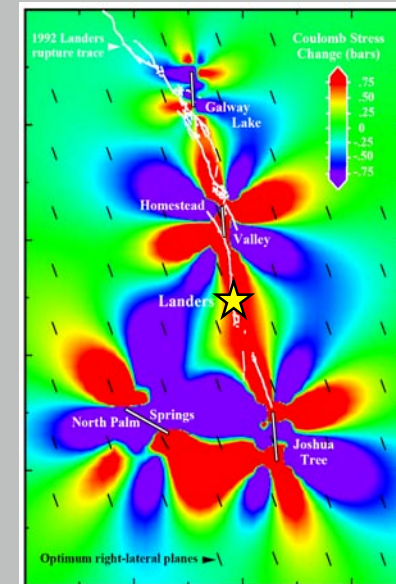
$$\lambda'_0 = \lambda_0 \exp\left(-\frac{\sigma_0 V}{kT}\right)$$

Taking account of history and boundary conditions

4

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$$\lambda(\vec{r}, t) = \lambda'_0 \exp\left(\frac{\sigma(\vec{r}, t) V}{kT}\right)$$



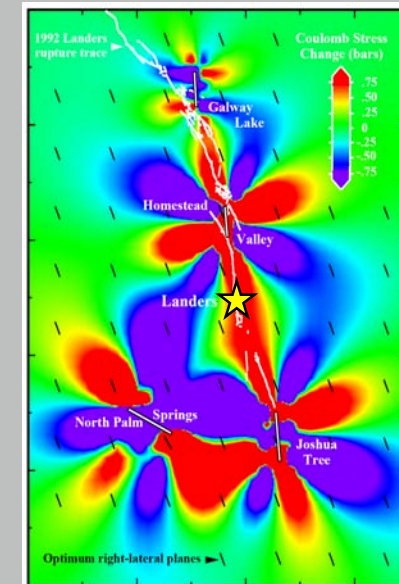
Stress is assumed to be a scalar for the sake of simplicity

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$$\sigma(\vec{r}, t) = \sigma(\vec{r})_{far\ field} + \int_{-\infty}^t \int_{space} dN [d\vec{\rho} \times d\tau] \Delta\sigma(\vec{\rho}, \tau) G(\vec{r} - \vec{\rho}, t - \tau)$$

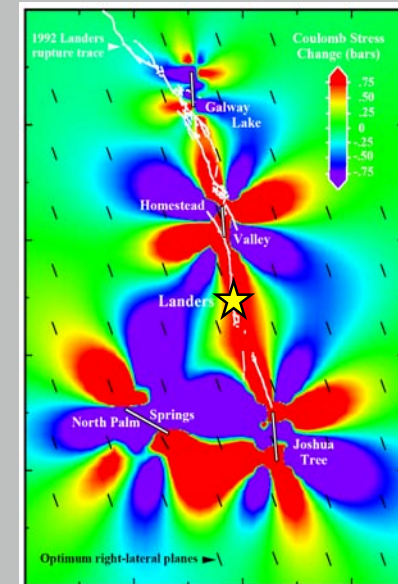
local stress

Taking account of history and boundary conditions

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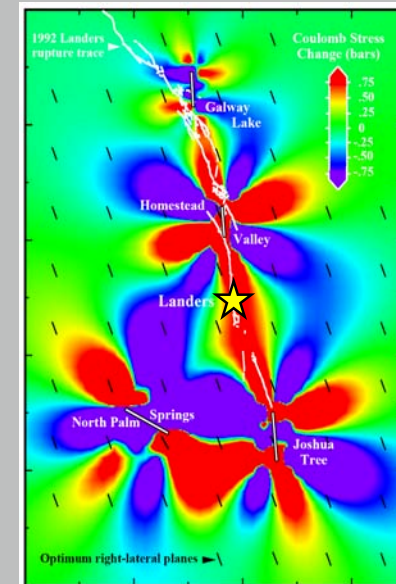
tectonic loading

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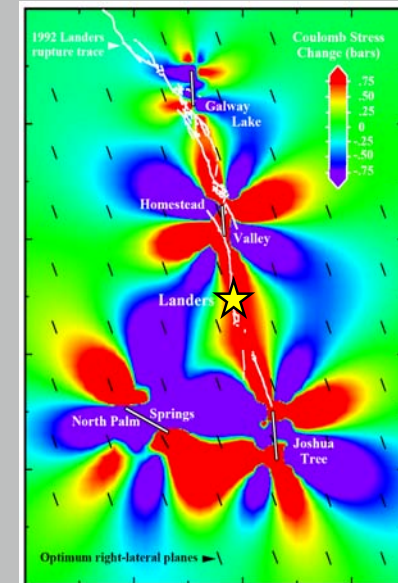
Stress fluctuations induced by all past events in the system

Taking account of history and boundary conditions

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local stress

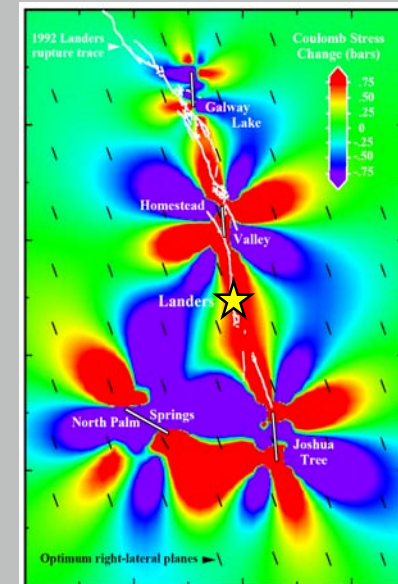
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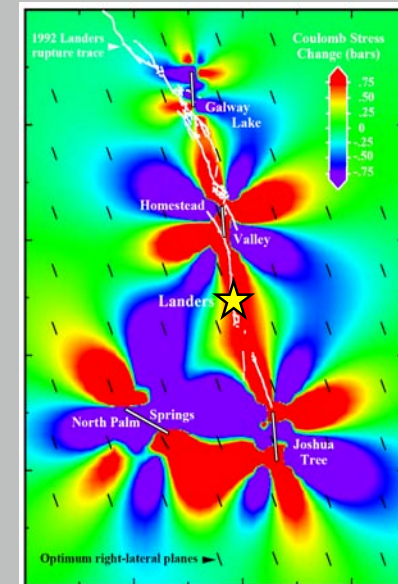
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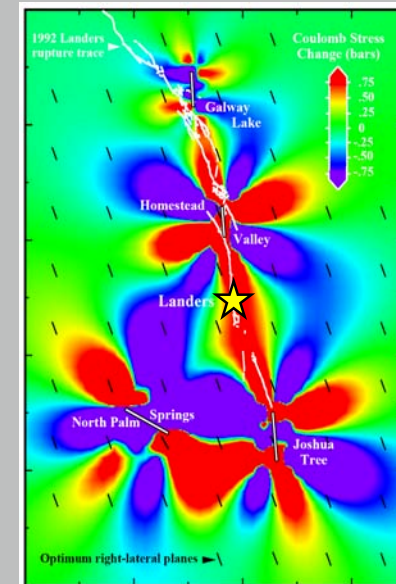
Time and space distribution of past sources

Taking account of history and boundary conditions

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Time and space distribution of past sources

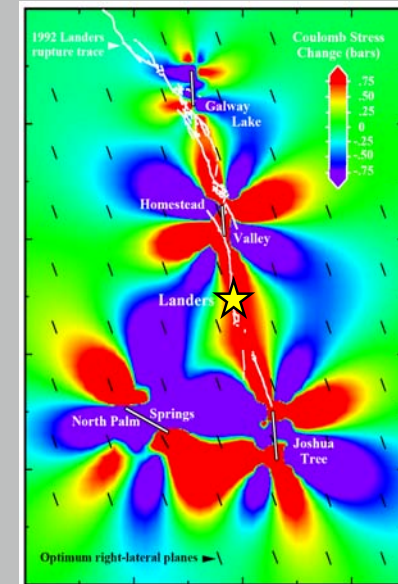
Stress fluctuations at sources

Taking account of history and boundary conditions

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local stress

tectonic loading

Time and space distribution of past shocks

Stress fluctuations at sources

Green function for stress transfer

A few working hypotheses

5

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Every shock is activated by stress and temperature according to Arrhenius law

A few working hypotheses

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Every shock is activated by stress and temperature according to Arrhenius law

Every shock of magnitude M triggers instantaneously 10^{qM} aftershocks (ETAS-like productivity law)

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Separation of variables : $G(\vec{r}, t) = f(\vec{r}) \times h(t)$


A few working hypotheses

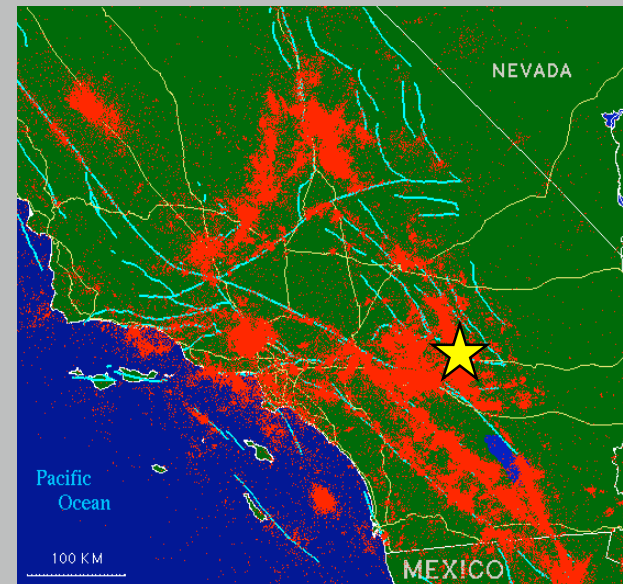
5

Every shock is activated by stress and temperature according to Arrhenius law

Every shock of magnitude M triggers instantaneously 10^{9M} other events

Separation of variables : $G(\vec{r}, t) = f(\vec{r}) \times h(t)$

Stress fluctuations at  depend on the location of events (red dots), their rupture geometry, and on the spatial decay of the Green function. Most of these parameters are unknown, and some events even not recorded at all. Those fluctuations are thus considered as realizations of a random variable.



A few working hypotheses

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Every shock is activated by stress and temperature according to Arrhenius law

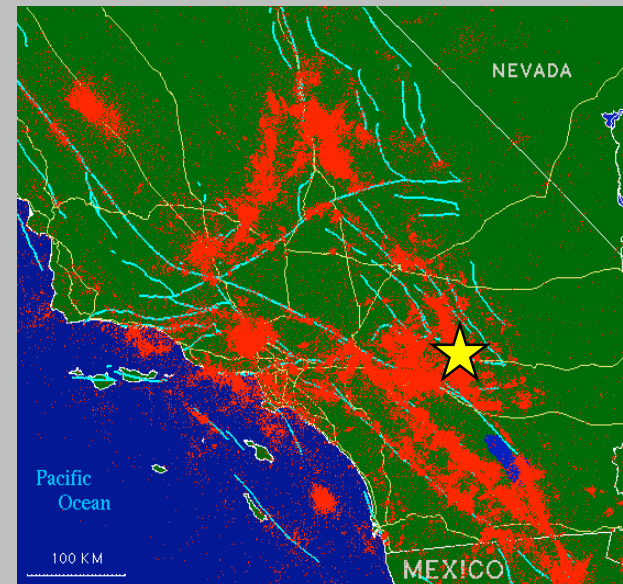
Every shock of magnitude M triggers instantaneously $10^{\alpha M}$ other events

Separation of variables : $G(\vec{r}, t) = f(\vec{r}) \times h(t)$

Stress fluctuations at location  due to previous events :

$$P(\sigma_{fluc}) d\sigma_{fluc} \approx \frac{C}{(\sigma_{fluc} + \sigma_{f1})^{+\mu}} d\sigma_{fluc}$$

Exponent μ depends on (and encapsulates) the spatial structure of the fault pattern, the GR law, as well as $f(r)$.



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Elastoviscoplastic rheology

$$h(t) = \frac{h_0}{(t + t_1)^{1+\theta}} \exp\left(-\frac{t}{\tau_M}\right)$$

Maxwell time

$\tau_M \gg$ time scale of observations

$h(t)$: dislocations motion and unresolved seismicity

Relaxation after a magnitude M event

6

Relaxation after a magnitude M event

6

We re-write in discrete form after
spatial averaging :

$$\lambda(t) = \lambda_{tec} \exp \left[\frac{V}{kT} \sum_{past} \sigma_{fluc}(t_i) h(t - t_i) \right]$$

cf Ouillon and Sornette, JGR, 2005

λ_{tec} is the average seismicity rate, modulated by a time-varying activation term. The formulation is thus non-linear.

Relaxation after a magnitude M event

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Relaxation after a magnitude M event

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λ_{tec} is the average seismicity rate, modulated by a time-varying activation term. The formulation is thus non-linear.

$$\text{if } \mu(1 + \theta) = 1$$

$$\lambda(t) \propto t^{-p(M)} \quad p(M) = aM + b$$

$$P(\sigma_{fluc}) d\sigma_{fluc} \approx \frac{C}{(\sigma_{fluc} + \sigma_{f1})^{1+\mu}} d\sigma_{fluc}$$

$$h(t) = \frac{h_0}{(t + t_1)^{1+\theta}} \exp\left(-\frac{t}{\tau_M}\right)$$

Power-law relaxation rate of aftershocks increases with the size of energy fluctuations => **multifractality**

Multifractal **S**tress **A**ctivation model

Theoretical predictions using tail covariance (Ide-Sornette, 2001)

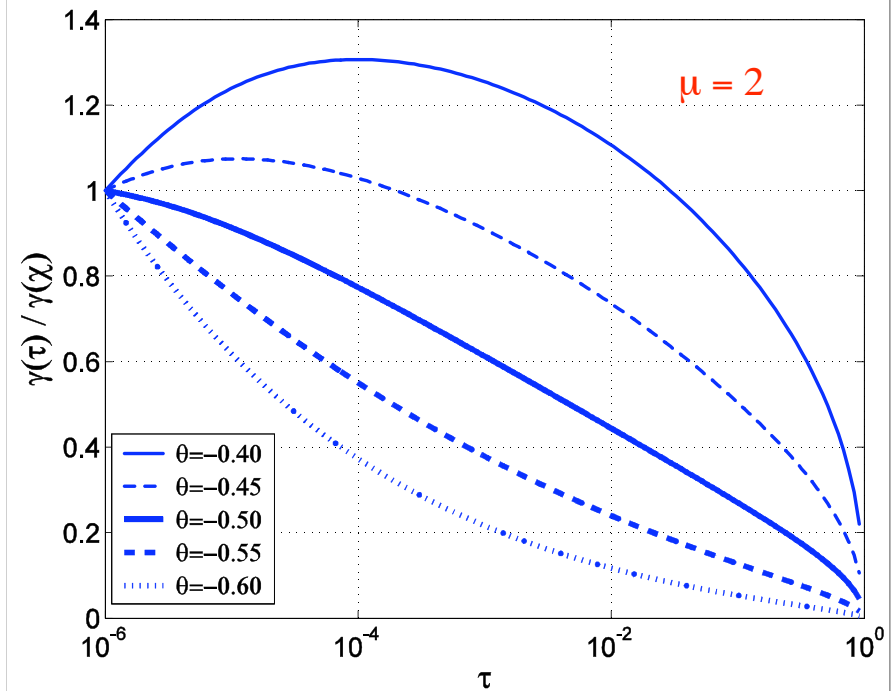
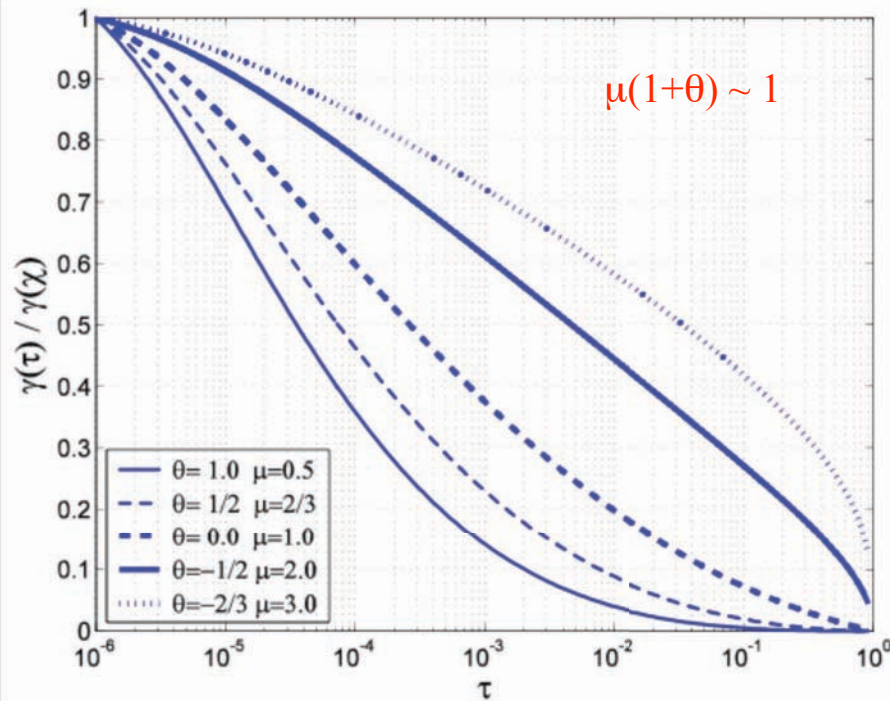
$$\Pr[\lambda(t) > \lambda_q | \lambda_M] = \Pr[e^{\beta\omega(t)} > \frac{\lambda_q}{\lambda_{\text{tec}}} | \omega_M] = \Pr[\omega(t) > (1/\beta) \ln \left(\frac{\lambda_q}{\lambda_{\text{tec}}} \right) | \omega_M]$$

$$\lambda_q(t) = A_q \lambda_{\text{tec}} e^{\beta\gamma(t)\omega_M}$$

$$\gamma(t) = \frac{h_0^2}{\Delta t^{2/\mu}} \left(\frac{1}{t^{2m-1}} \int_{c/t}^{T+c} dy \frac{1}{(y+1)^m} \frac{1}{y^m} \right)^{\frac{2}{\mu}}$$

$m = (1 + \theta)\mu/2.$

Since $\gamma(t) \sim \ln(t)$ and $\omega_m \sim M$, we obtain $p(M) = a M + b$



We obtain an exact multifractality if $\mu(1+\theta) \sim 1$

Building aftershocks time series

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Select all events within a given
magnitude range $[M_1; M_2]$.

Building aftershocks time series

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Define a spatial window ($R=2L$)

Building aftershocks time series

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Define a time window ($T=1$ year)

Building aftershocks time series

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Select all events within a given magnitude range $[M_1; M_2]$.

Define a spatial window ($R=2L$)

Define a time window ($T=1$ year)

Consider all events within $[0, R] \times [0, T]$ as aftershocks

Building aftershocks time series

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Select all events within a given magnitude range $[M_1; M_2]$.

Define a spatial window ($R=2L$)

Define a time window ($T=1$ year)

Consider all events within $[0, R] \times [0, T]$ as aftershocks

If the starting event is the aftershock of a larger event, remove it and its aftershocks

Building aftershocks time series

8

Select all events within a given magnitude range $[M_1; M_2]$.

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Time
distribution of
aftershocks

$$N(t) = A t^{-p} + B(t)$$

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Time
distribution of
aftershocks

background

$$N(t) = A t^{-p} + B(t)$$

Omori
law

The Scaling Function Analysis (SFA)

9

The Scaling Function Analysis (SFA)

9

The background term is regular

$$B(t) = b_0 + b_1 t + b_2 t^2 + \dots + b_n t^n$$

The Scaling Function Analysis (SFA)

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The background term is regular

$$B(t) = b_0 + b_1 t + b_2 t^2 + \dots + b_n t^n$$

Scaling Function

$$\Psi\left(\frac{t}{s}\right) = \left(a_0 + a_1 \times \left(\frac{t}{s}\right) + a_2 \times \left(\frac{t}{s}\right)^2 + \dots + a_m \times \left(\frac{t}{s}\right)^m \right) \times \exp\left(-5 \left(\frac{t}{s}\right)^2\right)$$

Time scale s is chosen by the user

The Scaling Function Analysis (SFA)

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Time scale s is chosen by the user

All a_i 's and m are chosen such that

$$\int_0^{\infty} \Psi\left(\frac{t}{s}\right) B(t) dt = 0$$

(depending only on n)

The Scaling Function Analysis (SFA)

9

The background term is regular

$$B(t) = b_0 + b_1 t + b_2 t^2 + \dots + b_n t^n$$

Scaling Function

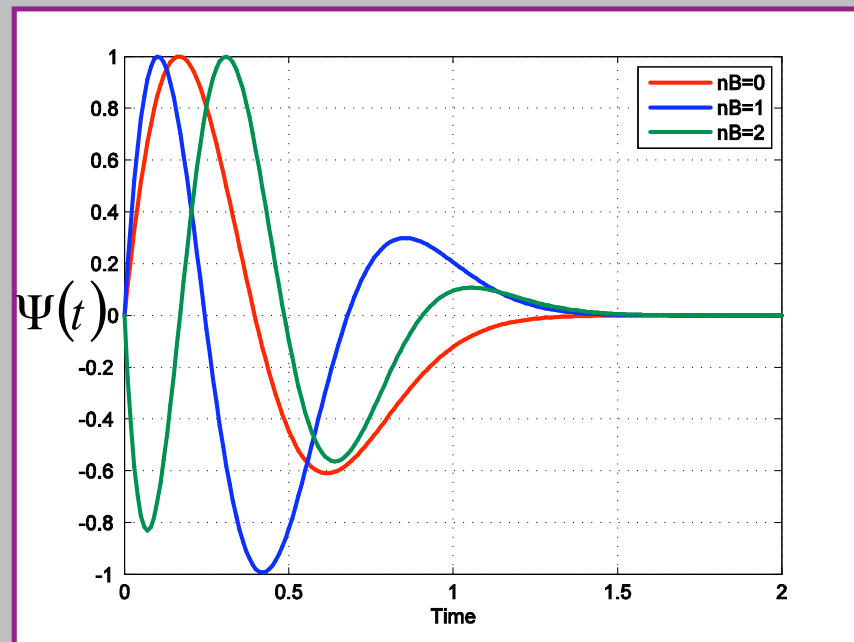
$$\Psi\left(\frac{t}{s}\right) = \left(a_0 + a_1 \times \left(\frac{t}{s}\right) + a_2 \times \left(\frac{t}{s}\right)^2 + \dots + a_m \times \left(\frac{t}{s}\right)^m \right) \exp\left(-5 \left(\frac{t}{s}\right)^2\right)$$

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The Scaling Function Analysis (SFA)

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The Scaling Function Analysis (SFA)

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Scaling Function Analysis Coefficient

$$C(s) = \int_0^{\infty} \Psi\left(\frac{t}{s}\right) N(t) dt = s^{1-p} A \int_0^{\infty} \Psi(t) t^{-p} dt + \int_0^{\infty} \Psi\left(\frac{t}{s}\right) B(t) dt$$

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$$C(s) \propto s^{1-p}$$

An example on a real catalog

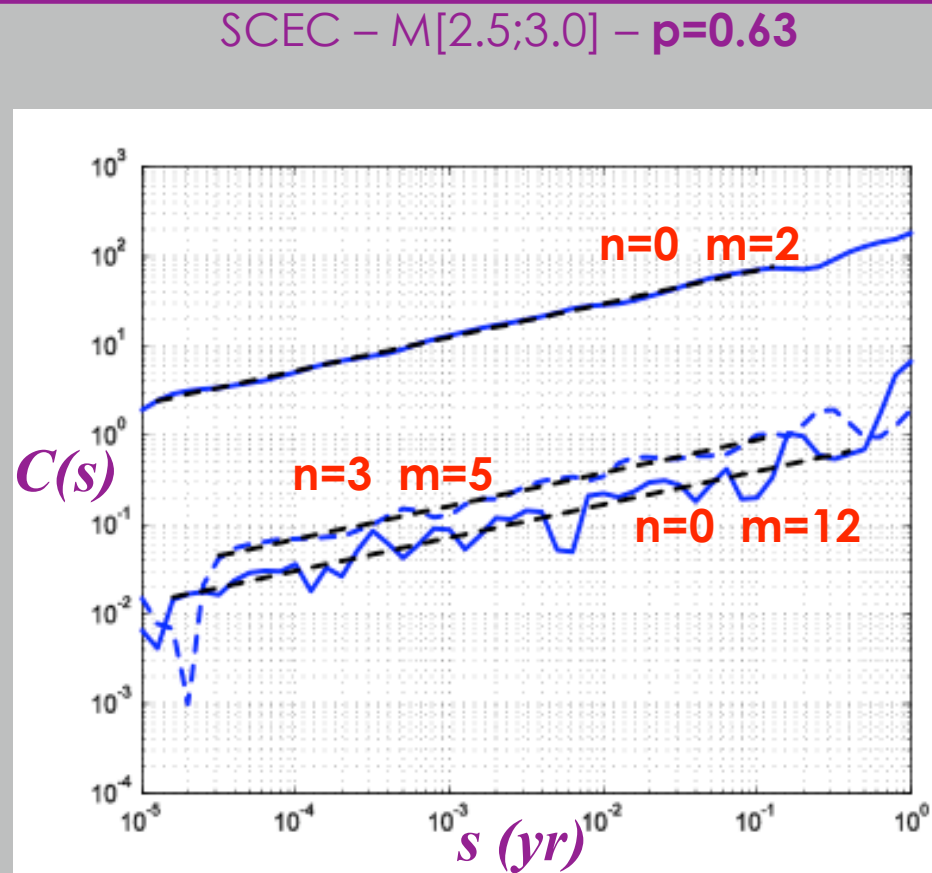
11

An example on a real catalog

11

Ouillon et al, 2007
submitted to GJI

3 different scaling
functions yield
power law scaling
with the same
value of p .

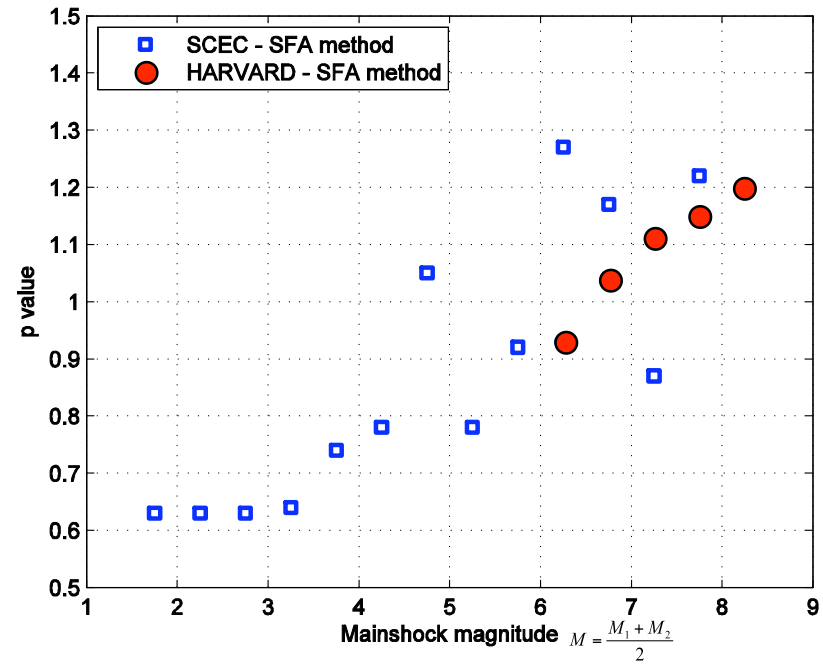


Results on real catalogs

12

Results on real catalogs

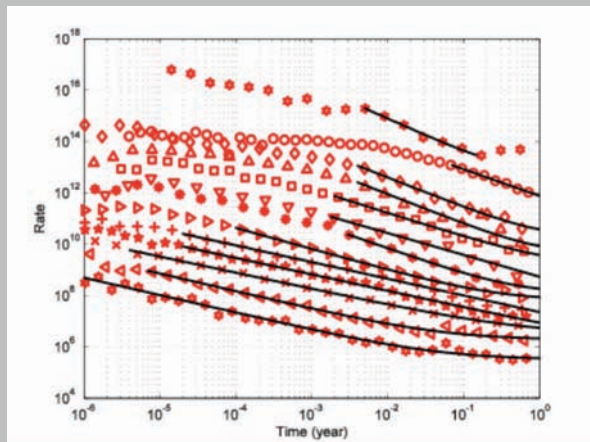
12



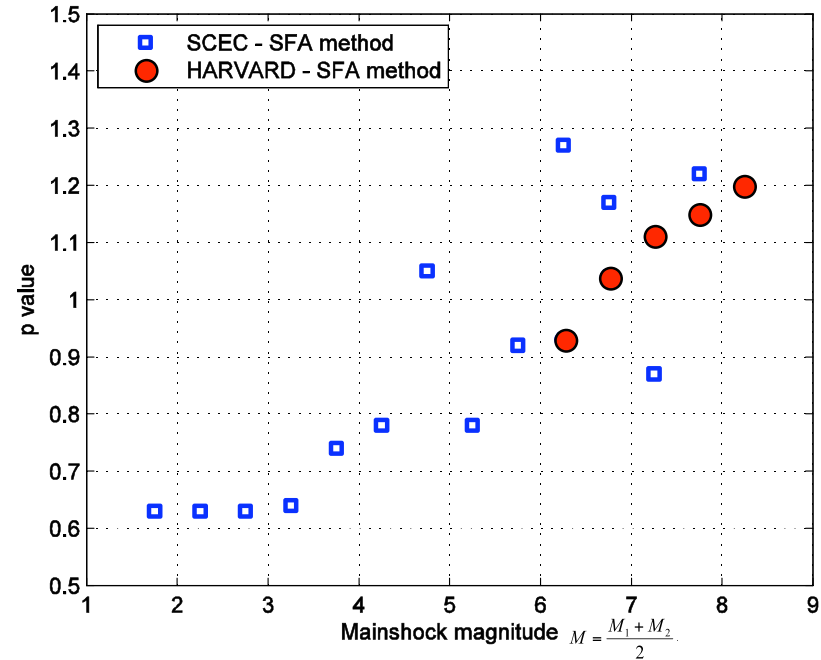
Results on real catalogs

12

Construction of standard binned time series and least squares fits.



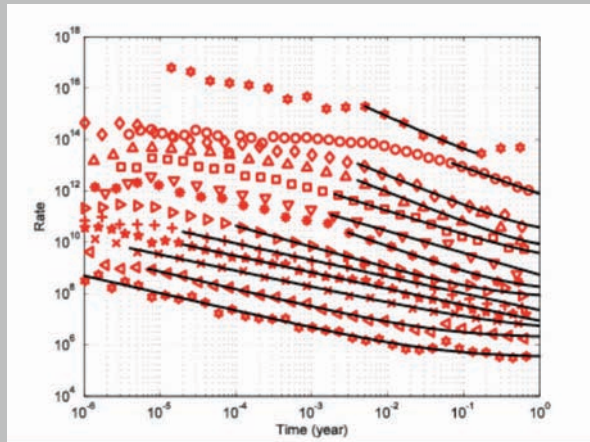
$$N(t) = A t^{-p} + b_0$$



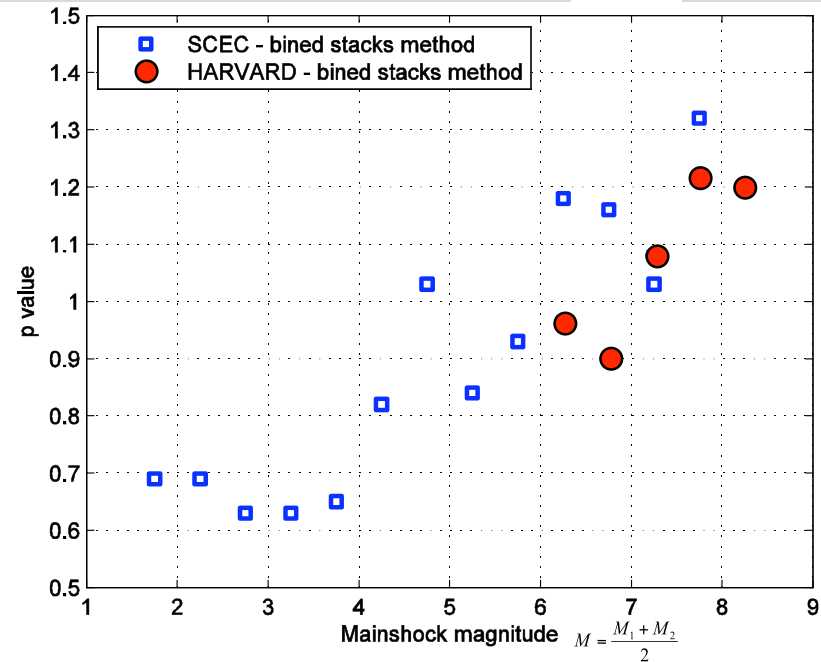
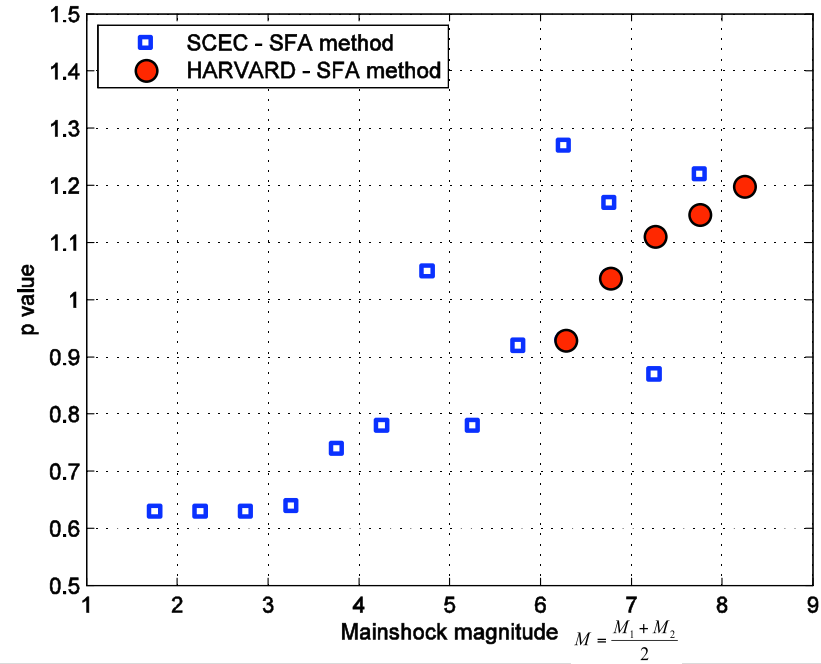
Results on real catalogs

12

Construction of standard binned time series and least squares fits.

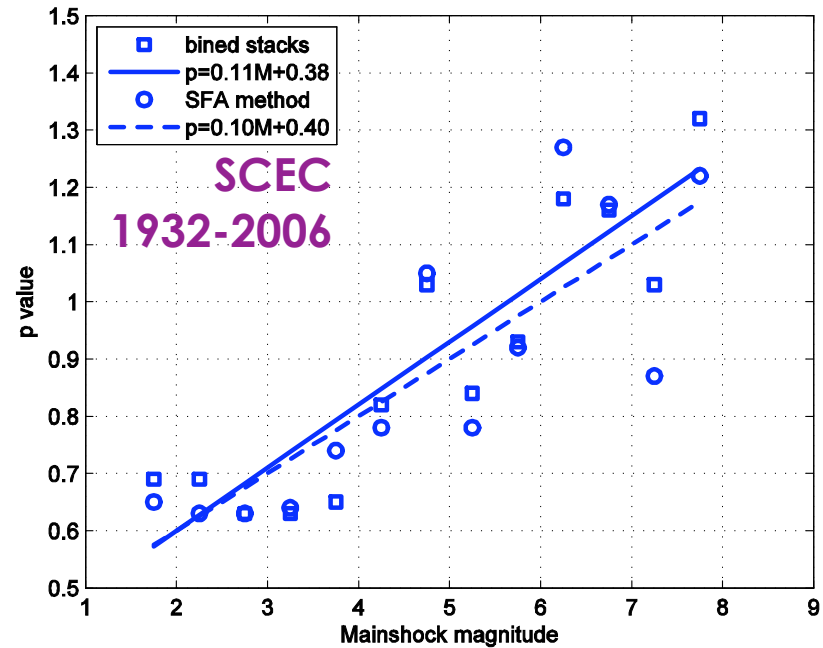


$$N(t) = A t^{-p} + b_0$$



Results on real catalogs

13

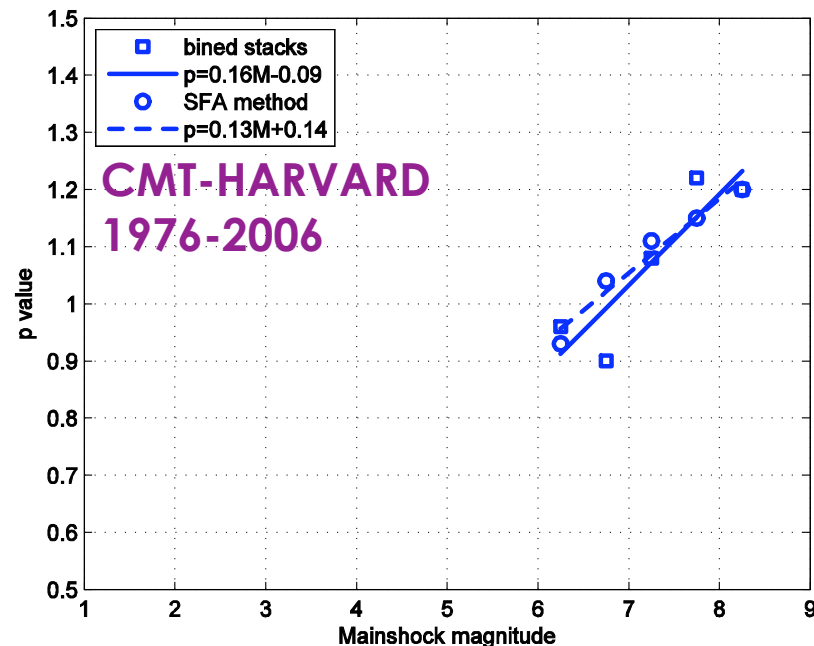
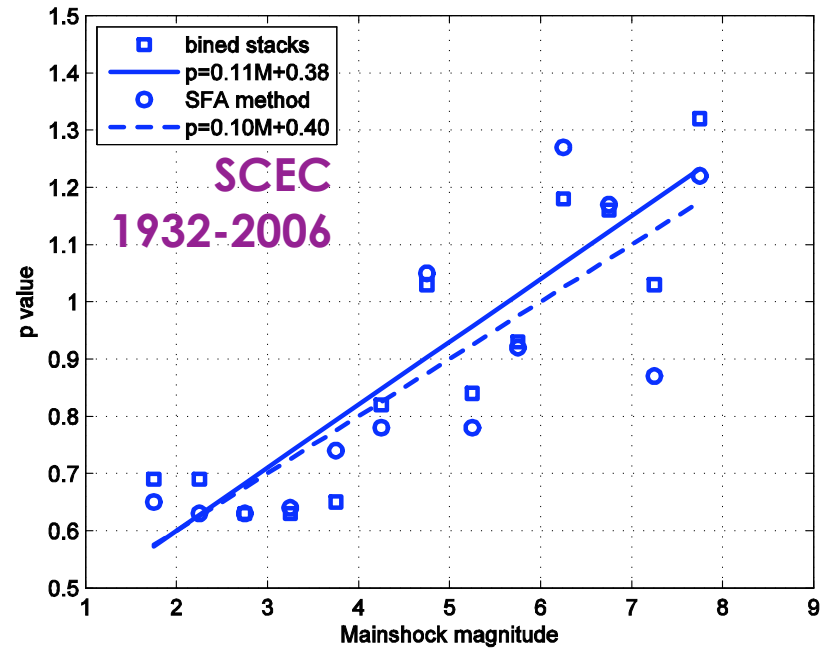


SFA : $p(M)=0.11M+0.38$

Bins : $p(M)=0.10M+0.40$

Results on real catalogs

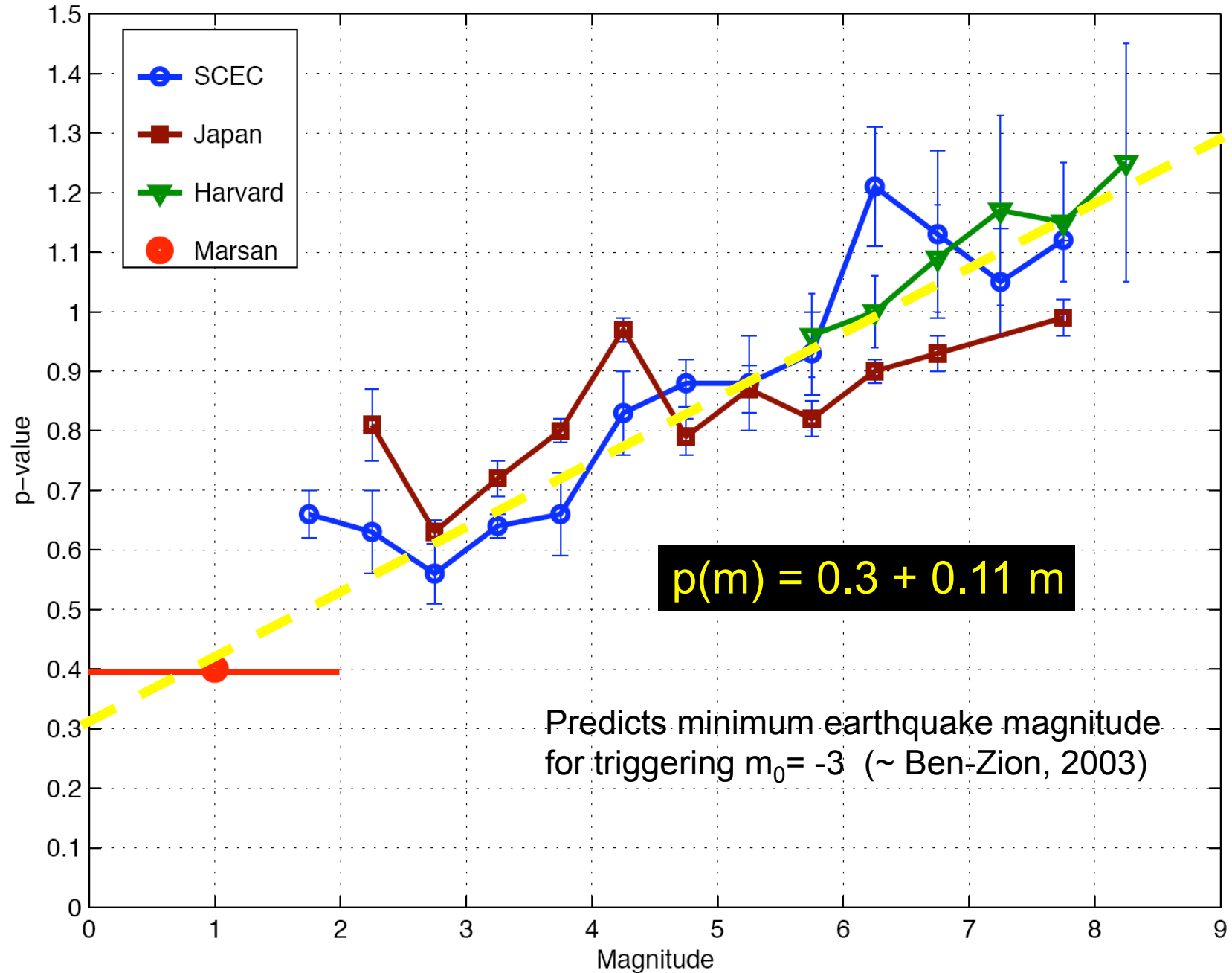
13



SFA : $p(M)=0.11M+0.38$
Bins : $p(M)=0.10M+0.40$

SFA : $p(M)=0.16M-0.09$
Bins : $p(M)=0.13M+0.14$

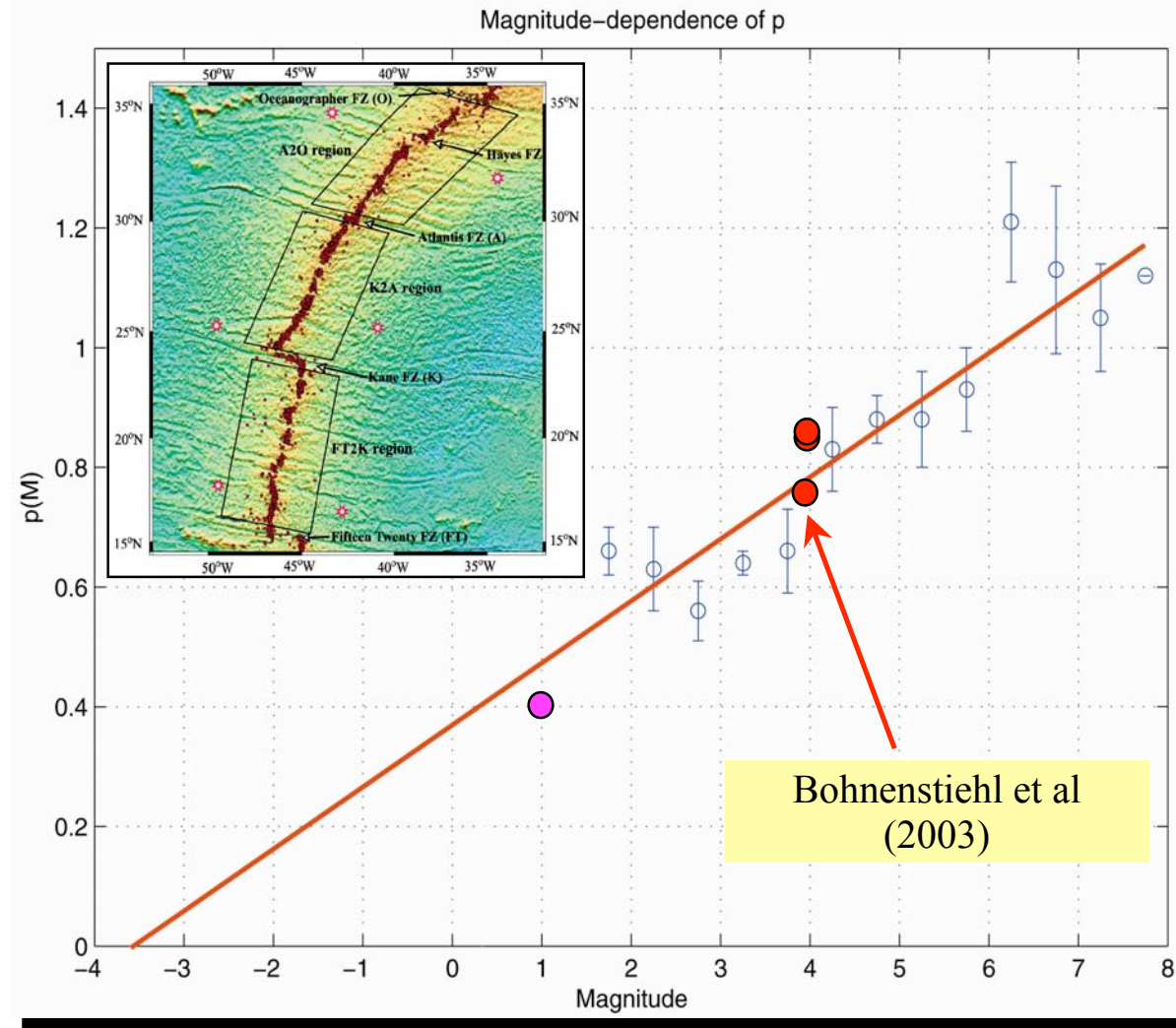
p(M) for various catalogs



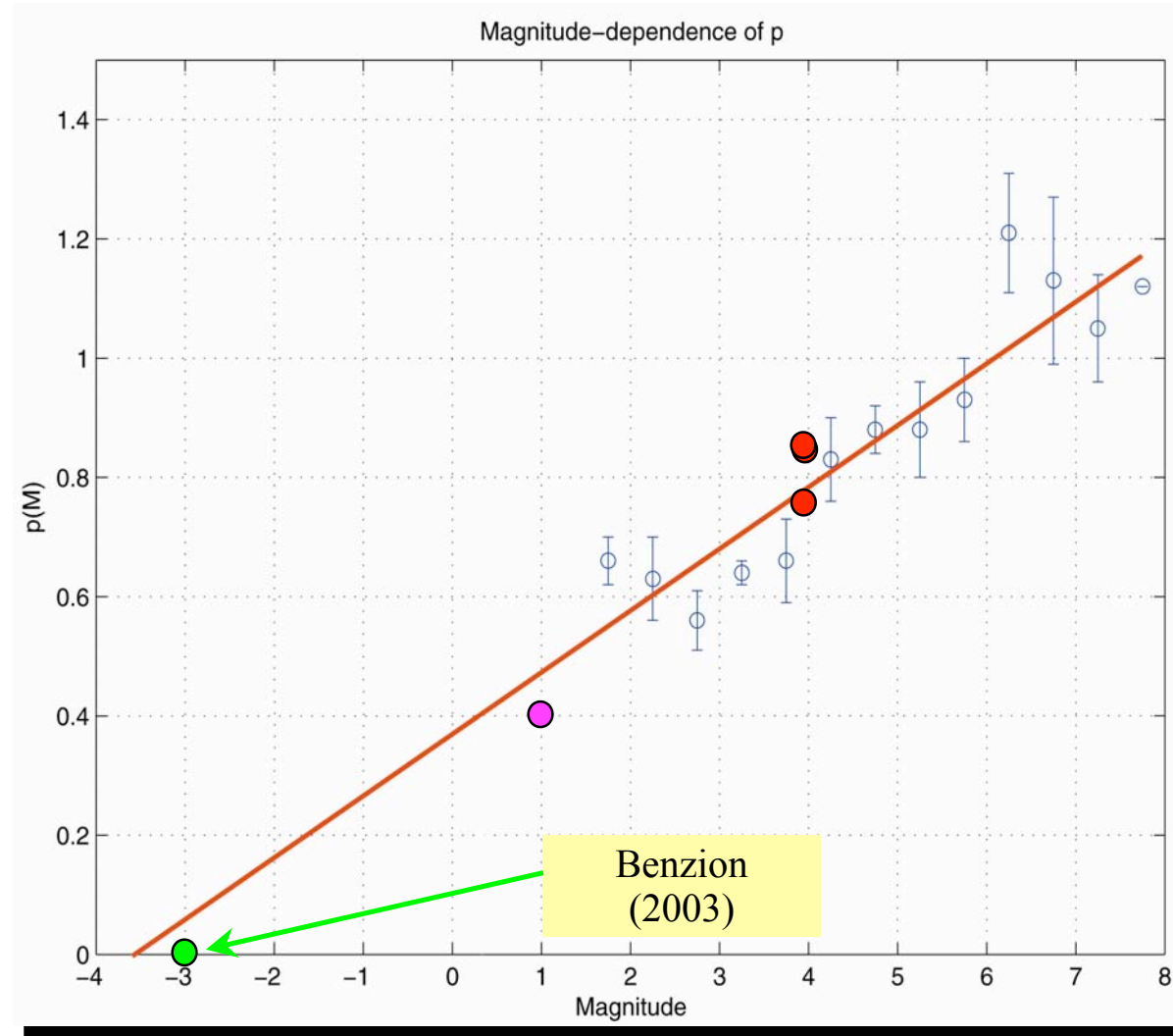
$p(m) = 0.3 + 0.11 m$

Predicts minimum earthquake magnitude for triggering $m_0 = -3$ (~ Ben-Zion, 2003)

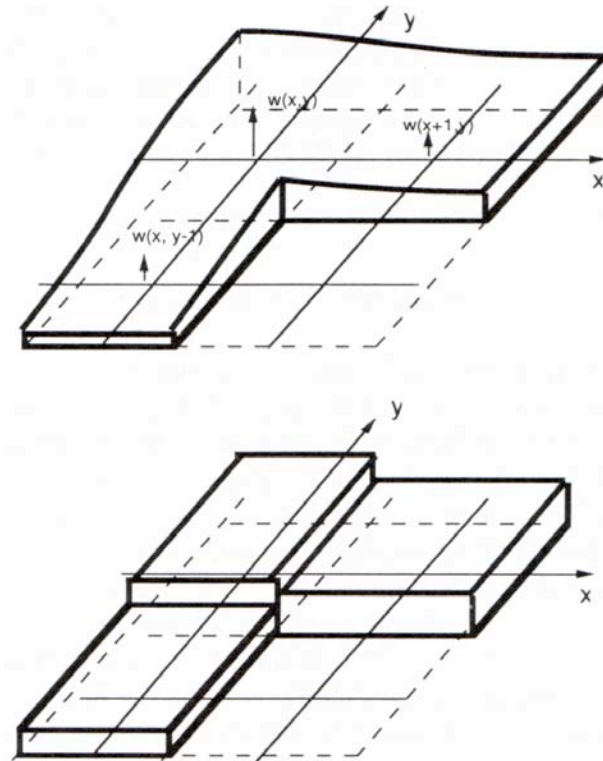
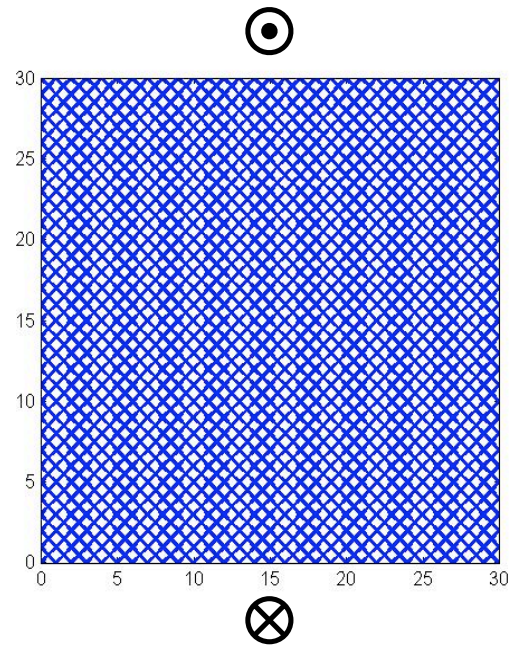
Seismicity on the medio-atlantic rift



A new universal law?



Numerical Simulations of thermally activated earthquake on a fault network



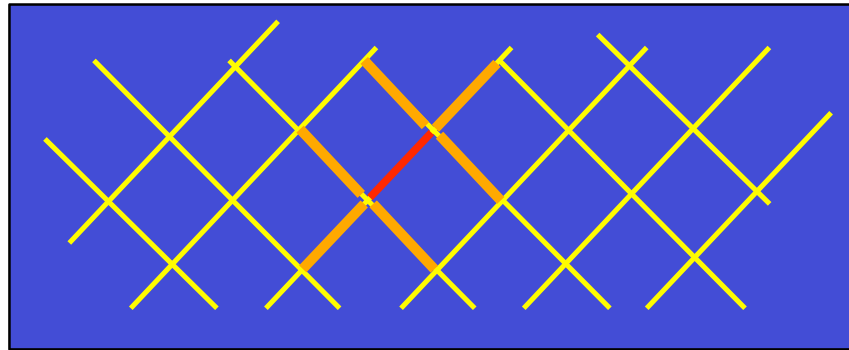
$$\lambda(t) = \lambda_0 \exp\left(-\frac{\sigma_0 - \sigma(t)}{kT} V\right)$$

Boundary conditions and rupture rules

The upper boundary moves at constant velocity => stress increases linearly with time within the plate.

Rupture is thermally activated on each fault segment => we predict the time and location of occurrence of the next earthquake using a thinning approach.

The ruptured element slips irreversibly and radiates a dynamic stress on its immediate neighbours.

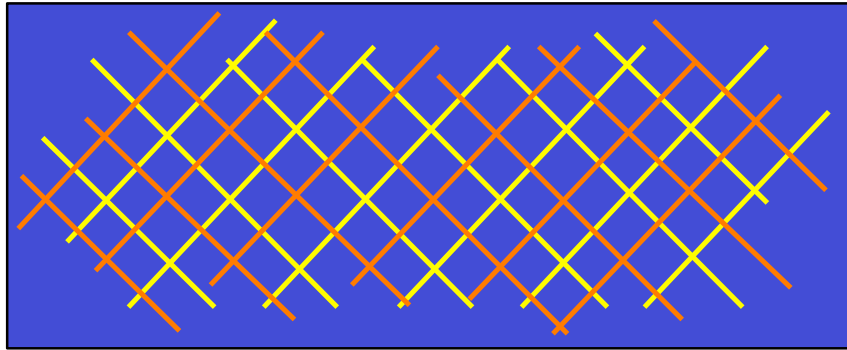


One of those neighbours may rupture due to this dynamic stress => rupture propagation

When the rupture stops, we compute the equilibrium static stress field. If a segment is subjected to a too high stress, it ruptures and may continue rupture propagation.

When a rupture definitely stops, we predict the time and location of the next rupture.

Computation of the static stress field using an electric analog



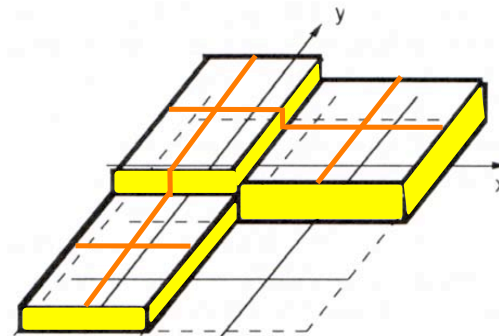
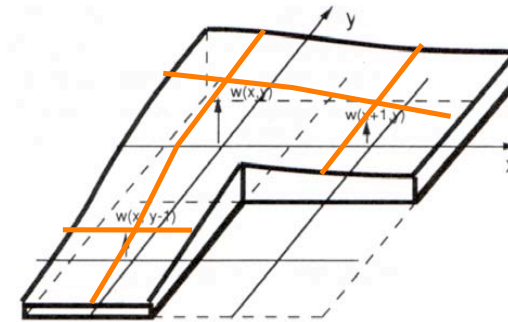
We define 2 networks:
- the fault network (yellow)
- an electric resistance dual network (orange)

Each node k has a potential V_k (\Leftrightarrow displacement)

Linearly increasing potential is maintained
at the top of the plate

Each link j has an electrical resistance R_j

Within each link, we have an intensity I_j (\Leftrightarrow stress)



Computation of the static stress field using an electric analog

To solve the problem we:

- Express voltages U_j on links as a function of end nodes potentials V_k

$$\vec{U} = M_{UV}\vec{V} + \vec{V}_0$$

The vector V_0 represents the loading conditions

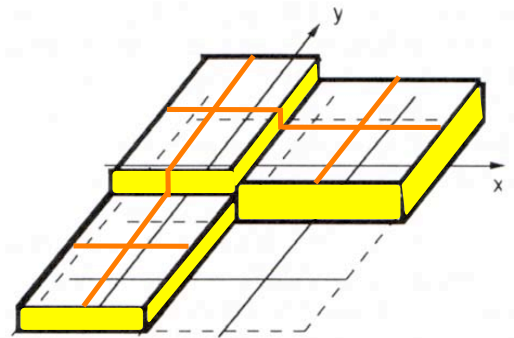
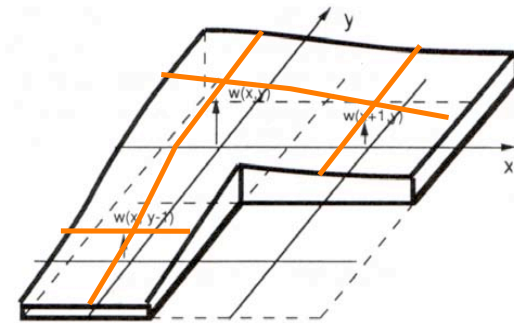
- Express relationships between I_i and U_i .

$$\vec{I} = M_{IU}\vec{U} - \vec{I}_c$$

The vector I_c represents sources equivalent to the cumulative plastic displacement on each fault.

- Use Kirchoff law at each node

$$\vec{O} = M_{OI}\vec{I} = M_{UV}^T I$$



Computation of the static stress field using an electric analog

$$(1) \quad \vec{U} = M_{UV}\vec{V} + \vec{V}_0$$

$$(2) \quad \vec{I} = M_{IU}\vec{U} - \vec{I}_c$$

$$(3) \quad \vec{O} = M_{OI}\vec{I} = M_{UV}^T\vec{I}$$

$$(2) \ \& \ (3) \quad M_{UV}^T M_{IU} \vec{U} = M_{UV}^T \vec{I}_c$$

$$\ \& \ (1) \quad M_{UV}^T M_{IU} M_{UV} \vec{V} = M_{UV}^T \vec{I}_c - M_{UV}^T M_{IU} \vec{V}_0$$

We solve for displacements V by a conjugate gradient approach.

General algorithm

- 1) Build the fault network and define boundary conditions (constant loading rate).
- 2) Define the strength of each fault segment with

$$P(s_{th}) = \frac{1}{s_{th} \sqrt{2\pi\Delta\sigma^2}} \exp\left[-\frac{(\ln s_{th})^2}{2\Delta\sigma^2}\right]$$

- 3) Compute the stress map and translate it into a nucleation rate map (exponential activation).
- 4) Use a thinning method to choose time and location of the next event.
- 5) Transfer dynamic stress to neighbors and test them for rupture – propagate rupture until the dynamic rupture criterion fails.
- 6) Impose a stress drop on each failed element and compute the new static stress map.
- 7) If stress on an element is larger than its s_{th} then continue rupture (and use again the dynamic rupture criterion).
- 8) When all segments are stable, start the loading again and go to step 3)

The thinning procedure

- 1) Last event occurred at t_i
- 2) At time t the nucleation rate on each segment is

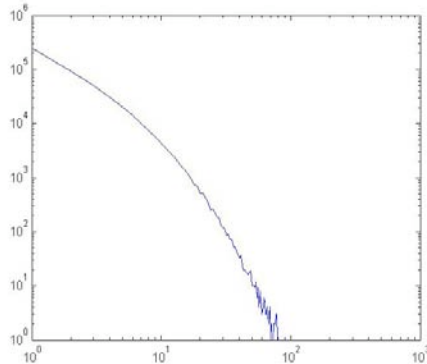
$$\lambda(x, t) = \lambda(x, t_i) \exp(\mu(t - t_i))$$

where μ is the loading rate.

- 3) We sum all rates over the plate to obtain the total nucleation rate at time t , $\lambda(t)$
- 4) Find a constant C such that $C > \lambda(t_{i+1})$; as t_{i+1} is unknown, we choose a large C
- 5) Starting from t_i we generate an event using a Poisson process with rate C . Its time of occurrence is t'
- 6) Generate a random variable U uniformly distributed in $[0,1]$
- 7) If $CU < \lambda(t')$ then $t_{i+1} = t'$, otherwise $t_i = t'$ and go to 5)
- 8) Generate the spatial location of the event
- 9) Start the rupture routine

Effect of disorder – no dynamic stress transfer

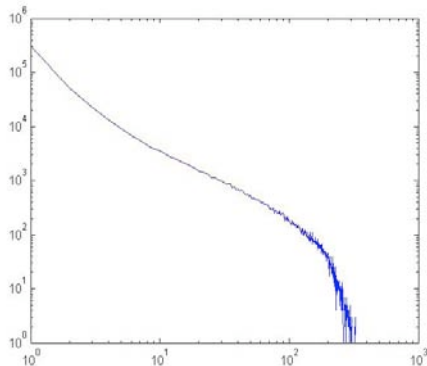
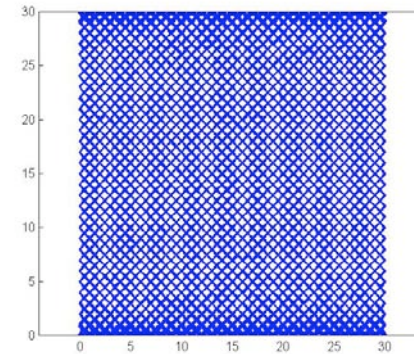
Size distribution of events



0

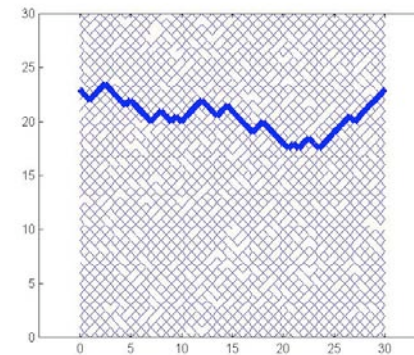
No disorder
No dynamic
stress

Final geometry of fault pattern

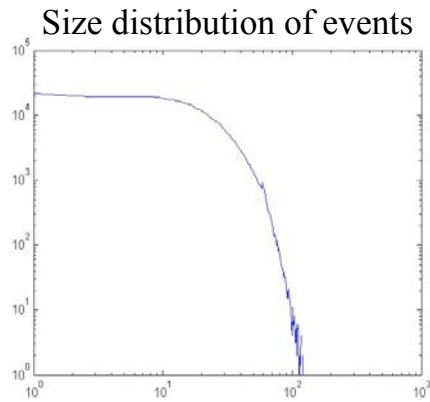


1

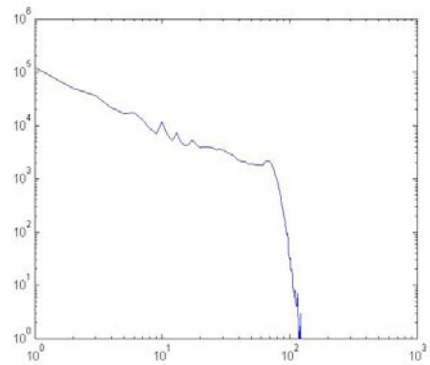
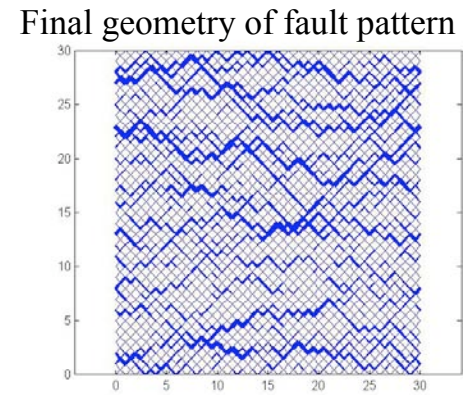
50% disorder
No dynamic
stress



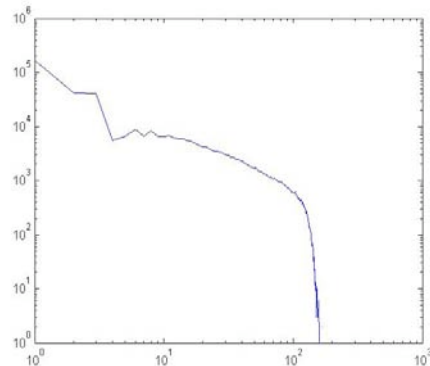
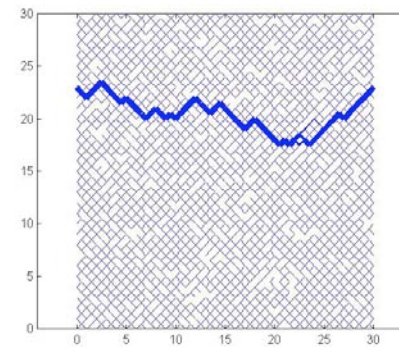
Effect of disorder – with dynamic stress transfer



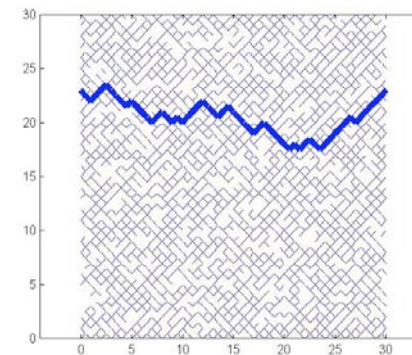
3
10% disorder
Dynamic stress



2
50% disorder
Dynamic stress

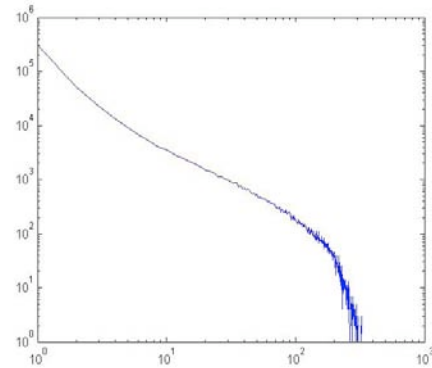


4
90% disorder
Dynamic stress



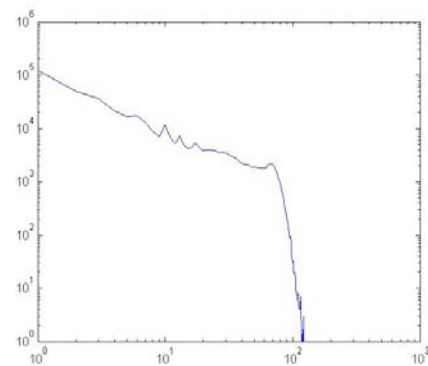
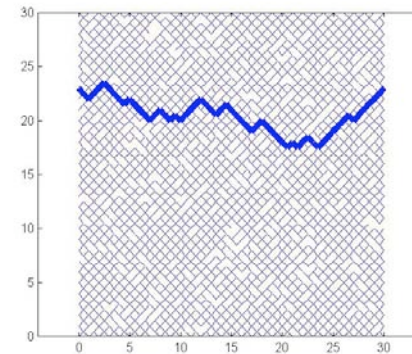
Effect of dynamic stress transfer

Size distribution of events

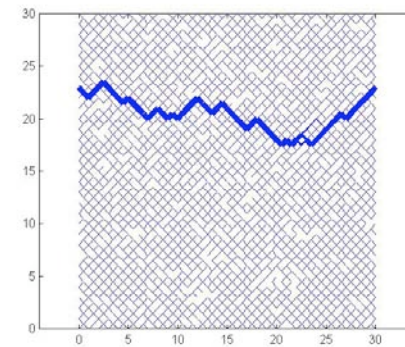


1
50% disorder
No dynamic
stress

Final geometry of fault pattern

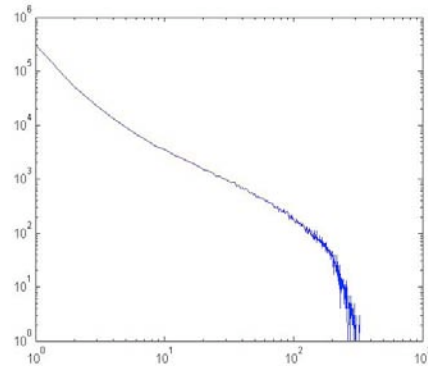


2
50% disorder
Dynamic
stress



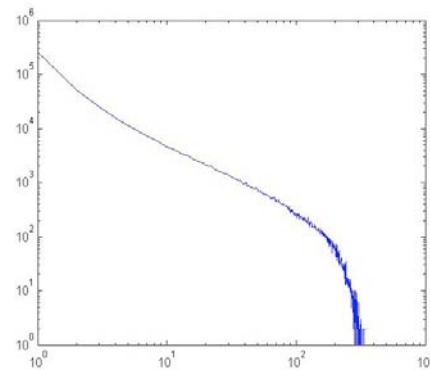
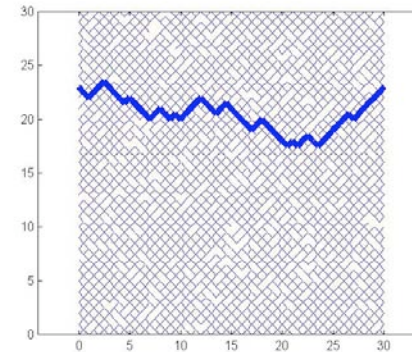
Effect of temperature – no dynamic stress transfer

Size distribution of events

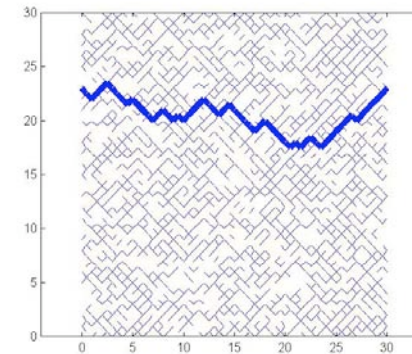


1
50% disorder
No dynamic
stress

Final geometry of fault pattern

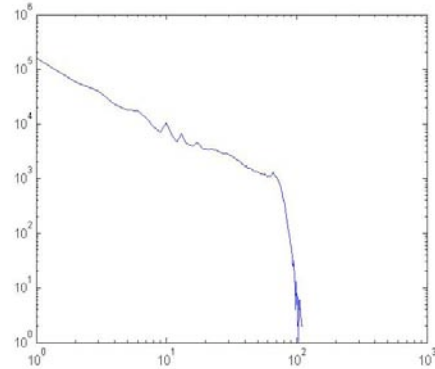


7
50% disorder
No dynamic
stress
Low
temperature



Effect of temperature – dynamic stress transfer

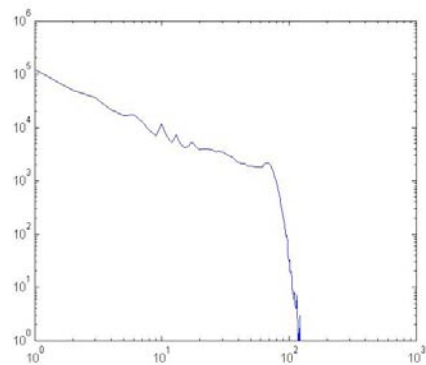
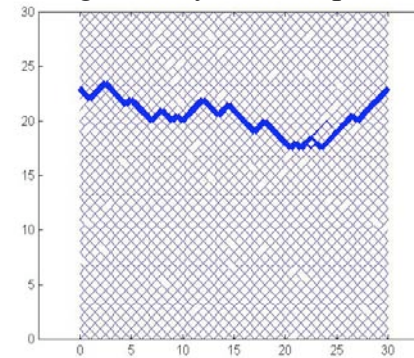
Size distribution of events



5

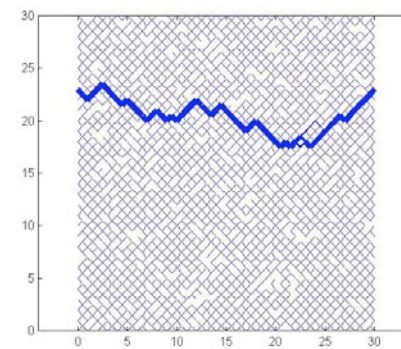
50% disorder
Dynamic stress
High
temperature

Final geometry of fault pattern

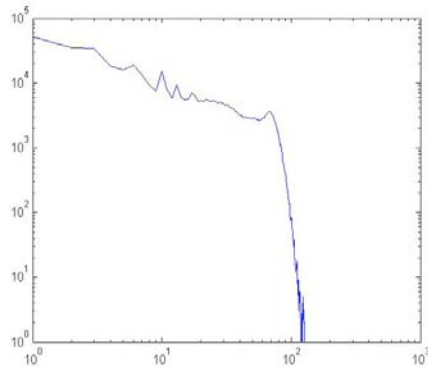


2

50% disorder
Dynamic
stress

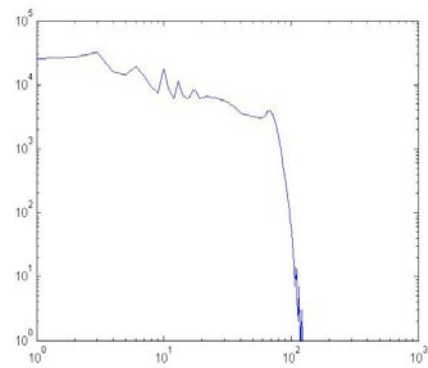
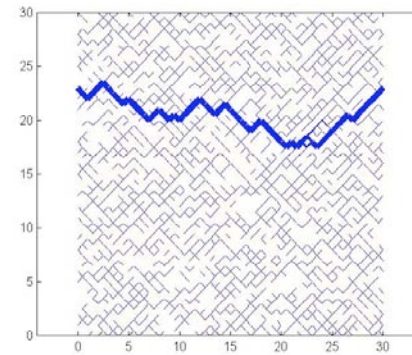


Size distribution of events

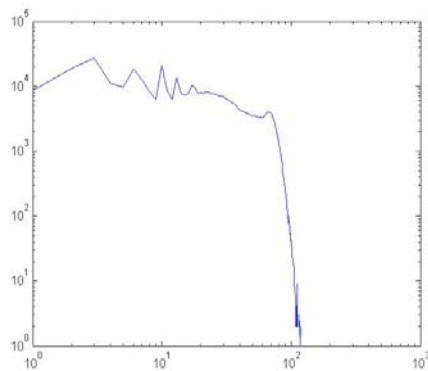
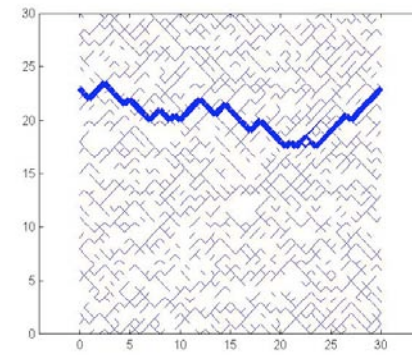


6
50% disorder
Dynamic stress
Low temperature

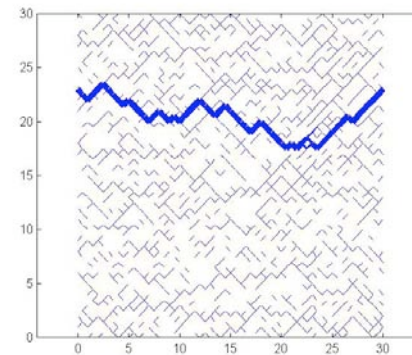
Final geometry of fault pattern



8
50% disorder
Dynamic stress
Very low temperature

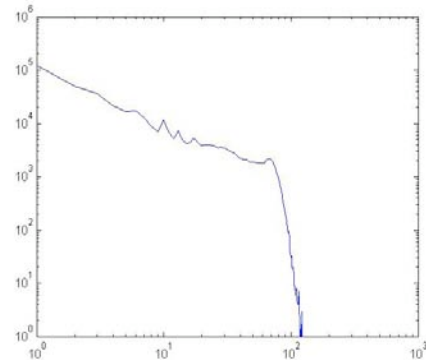


9
50% disorder
Dynamic stress
Ultra-low temperature



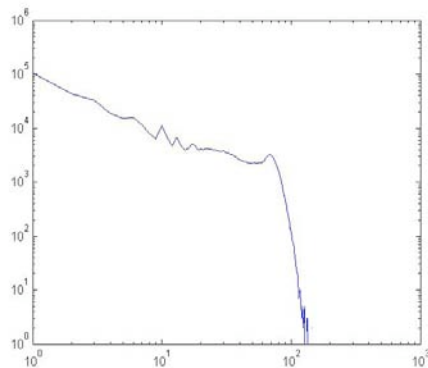
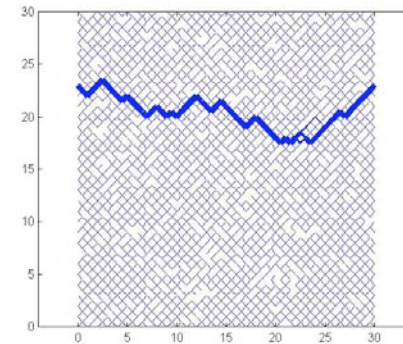
Effect of strain rate – dynamic stress transfer

Size distribution of events

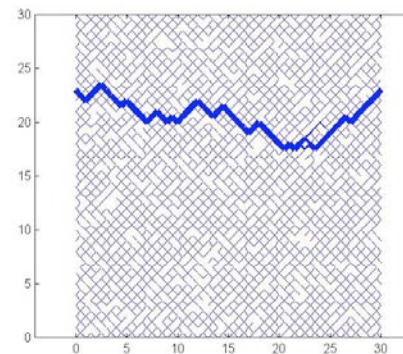


2
50% disorder
Dynamic
stress

Final geometry of fault pattern



10
50% disorder
Dynamic
stress
High strain
rate



Preliminary results

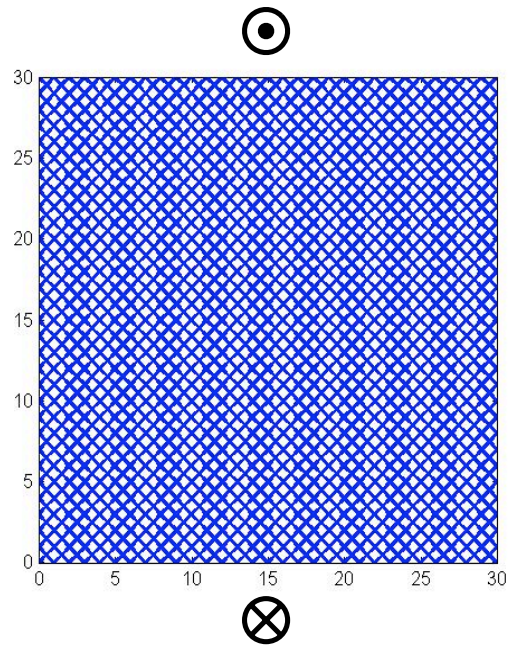
Strain localization is promoted by frozen disorder – little influence of temperature or dynamic stress loading.

Rupture length distribution: a Gutenberg-Richter law is promoted by :

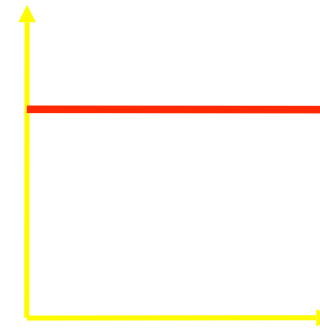
- disorder
- dynamic stress distribution

While temperature only weakly influences this distribution.

Relaxation of a stress step

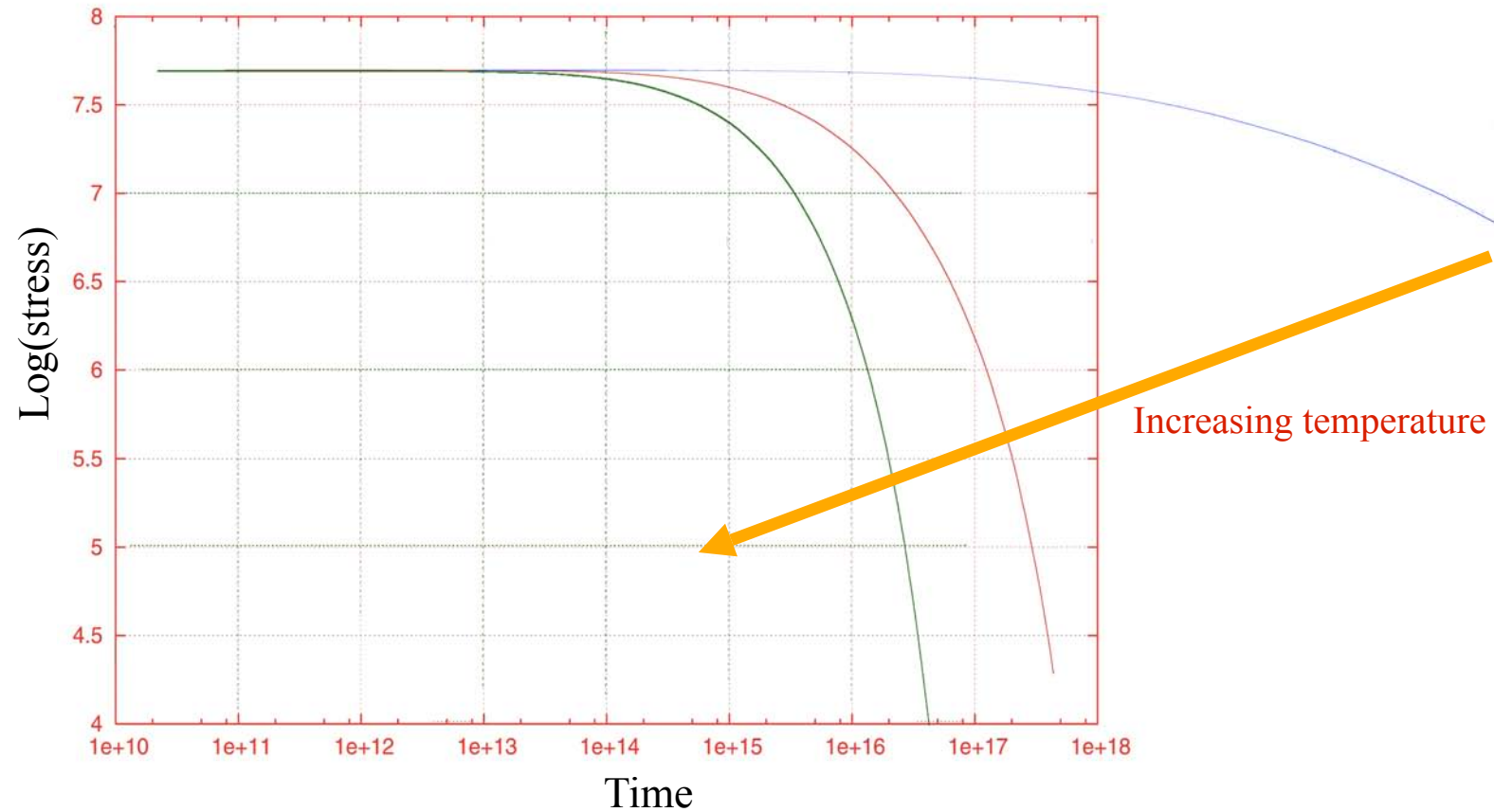


Boundary
displacement



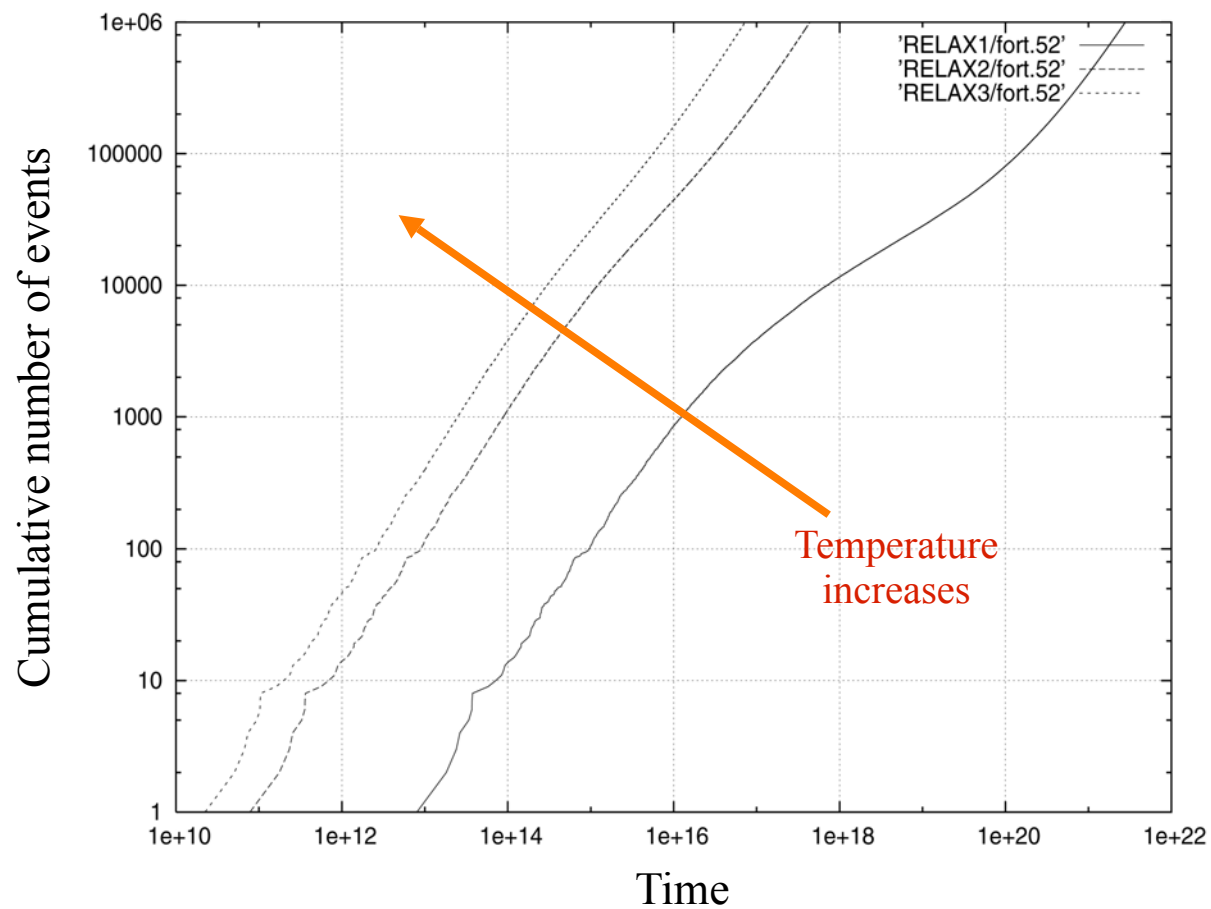
$$\lambda(t) = \lambda_0 \exp\left(-\frac{\sigma_0 - \sigma(t)}{kT} V\right)$$

Average stress relaxation function



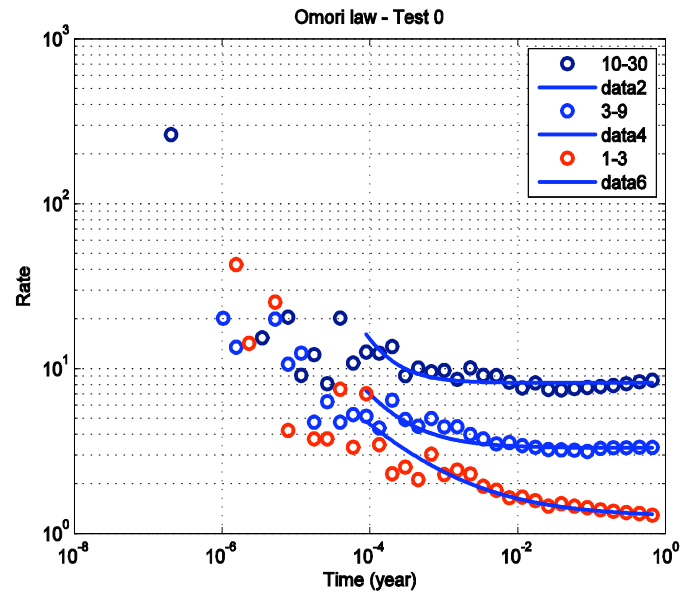
Stress Relaxation is nearly exponential but slower

Seismicity relaxation function



$$N(t)dt \sim t^p \quad p \sim 0.1$$

Aftershock sequences



Each dataset corresponds to a different rupture length of the mainshock

Aftershocks occur due to thermal activation

But a larger system is needed to provide series with more events

Summary

14

**Mechanical model taking
account of interactions between
all events**

Summary

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**Seismicity rate depends
exponentially on applied stress**

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**Stress fluctuations are distributed
as power laws (μ)**

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Stress fluctuations are distributed as power laws (μ)

Stress fluctuations decay with time as power laws (θ)

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Mechanical model taking account of interactions between all events

Seismicity rate depends exponentially on applied stress

Stress fluctuations are distributed as power laws (μ)

Stress fluctuations decay with time as power laws (θ)

$\mu(1+\theta)=1 \Rightarrow p(M)=aM+b$ in agreement with empirical observations

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Mechanical model taking account of interactions between all events

Seismicity rate depends exponentially on applied stress

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Stress fluctuations decay with time as power laws (θ)

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This model is the only one that is able to predict the multifractal nature of seismicity

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$\mu(1+\theta)=1 \Rightarrow p(M)=aM^{-b}$ in agreement with empirical observations

This model is the only one that is able to predict the multifractal nature of seismicity

Multifractality stems from the spatio-temporal self-organization of the fault pattern ($\mu(1+\theta)=1$)