



Near real-time magnitude determination for large crustal earthquakes

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Abstract

We introduce an empirical method of near real-time, near-field magnitude determination for large ($M > 6.5$) crustal earthquakes. Time integration over the strong shaking duration on the absolute values of the acceleration records is carried out for nearby stations surrounding many large earthquake sources in Taiwan. The integrated quantity, here denoted as total effective shaking, is used in a regression process to derive an empirical relationship for a quick M_w determination useful for a reliable real-time operation in earthquake rapid reporting and earthquake early warning systems (EWSs).

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1. Introduction

A large earthquake may be excited by a propagating rupture or by jumping dislocations, and may have a source dimension on the order of 100 km or more. The larger the earthquake is, the heavier the loss potential will be. From the standpoint of seismic hazards mitigation, it is imperative for a seismic network to determine as quickly as possible the location and magnitude (therefore the shaking inten-

sity) of a large earthquake in order to quickly assess the potential damage and to timely offset the shake-induced secondary hazards. For this purpose, the Central Weather Bureau Seismic Network (CWBSN) of Taiwan has instigated a Rapid Reporting System (RRS) (Teng et al., 1997; Wu et al., 1997, 2000), and an earthquake early warning system (EWS) has also been put into operation (Wu and Teng, 2002). These systems are quickly becoming one of the promising tools in earthquake loss mitigation. The RRS and EWS issue critical information (hypo-center, magnitude, and intensity) within about a minute or less after the event occurrence, and transmit the information to populated areas and other locations of sensitive facilities, particularly to the emergency response

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agencies. As the CWBSN systems transmit this critical information to emergency response agencies, these agencies can then take appropriate response actions (some of which are pre-programmed) immediately after an earthquake has struck. These response measures include the dispatch of rescue missions to areas of likely heavy damage.

The rapid earthquake location is now a simple and essentially solved problem. With modern computer and software, a network can produce reasonable earthquake location within a fraction of a second as soon as a few of the P (and/or S) arrivals are received. In the case of the CWBSN, a given event can be located in about 0.1 s (Wu, 1999; Wu and Teng, 2002)

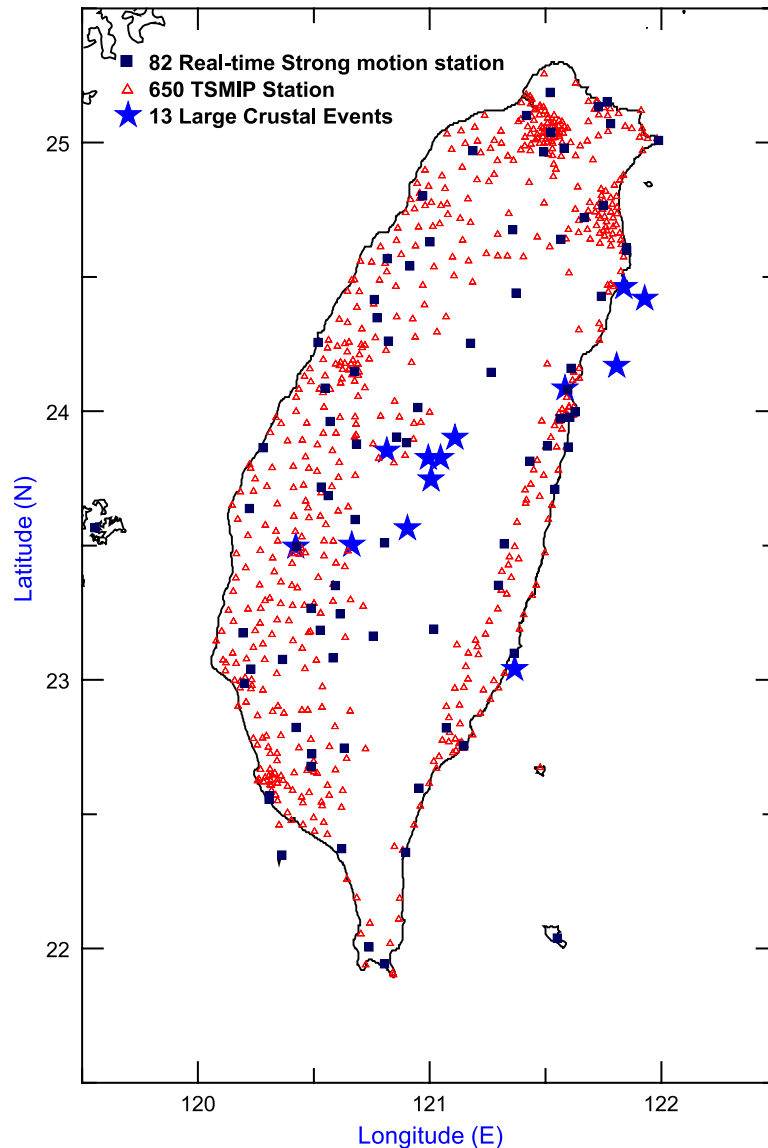


Fig. 1. Stations distribution of strong motion instruments in Taiwan. Stars show epicenters of the 13 large events used in this study. Solid square: 82 real-time telemetered strong-motion stations. Open triangle: 650 Taiwan free-field Strong-Motion Instrumentation Program (TSMIP) stations.

by a computer-configured virtual sub-network, which usually has a radius of about 50 km and for which the average P-wave travel-time is about 10 s or less. It is safe to say that for the CWBSN, the earthquake location computation is a 10-s problem and it is routinely accomplished (Wu et al., 1998, 1999).

However, a correct, quick measurement of the size (therefore the damage potential) of a large earthquake is a non-trivial problem. At teleseismic distance, a reasonably reliable moment magnitude M_w can be determined with global broadband recordings. Commonly, this M_w determination can only be done after waves have completed traversing the teleseismic wave paths, which can take tens of minutes—a length of time that is not acceptable to either RRS and EWS operations. At near-field distance, the wave travel-time is short. However, common high-gain broadband stations at this distance will severely saturate for large earthquakes and thus provide no means for M_w determination. Although Tsuboi et al. (1995, 1999) reported using broadband P waveforms to determine moment magnitude (M_{wp}) for the purpose of RRS. However, the reporting time still takes several minutes for moderate-sized earthquakes and a much longer time for big events. For extremely large earthquakes, at near-field distances, because of large source dimensions, S waves from the early part of the rupture may interfere or even arrive before the P waves. It causes further difficulty and uncertainty of M_{wp} determination for such big events that are the

main targets of RRS. The CWBSN has installed extensive telemetered strong-motion instruments using force-balanced sensors (FBAs), which basically have broadband response from DC to 50 Hz, 96 dB dynamic ranges and a 2-g saturation amplitude (Teng et al., 1997; Wu et al., 1997). Fig. 1 shows the current CWBSN 82 current real-time strong-motion stations (solid squares). Real-time on-scale recordings of waveforms of large events at near-field distances have become routinely available. However, the common M_w determination using near-field waveforms and a recursive moment tensor inversion routine still faces a difficulty which is largely due to the finiteness and complexity of a large propagating rupture. Thus, a thorough solution to the recursive moment tensor inversion problem will have to wait for the extension of the present theory to one for an extended finite complex rupture. In earlier papers (Wu et al., 2001; Wu and Teng, 2002), we have made attempts to look for an empirical relationship between M_L and M_w . While the CWBSN routinely determines M_L (Shin, 1993) using simulated Wood–Anderson seismograms (Kanamori et al., 1999) and a method developed by Richter (1935), we have found that for really large earthquakes ($M \geq 6.5$) the M_L scale saturate, and difficulties again arise preventing an adequate M_w determination. This paper introduces a practical empirical method that can quickly derive an equivalent M_w based on the real-time strong shaking waveforms.

Table 1
Parameters of 13 events used in this study

Origin time (UT)		Latitude (N)	Longitude (E)	Depth (km)	M_w (Harvard)	M_L	M_{ew}
1994/06/05	01:09:30.09	24.462	121.838	5.3	6.3	6.20	6.25±0.29
1995/02/23	05:19:02.78	24.169	121.807	22.0	6.2	6.27	5.95±0.29
1995/05/27	18:11:11.12	23.040	121.367	22.0	5.7	5.60	5.68±0.36
1998/07/17	04:51:14.96	23.503	120.664	5.7	5.7	5.90	5.61±0.30
1999/09/20	17:47:15.85	23.853	120.815	8.0	7.6	7.06	7.59±0.26
1999/09/20	21:46:36.86	23.564	120.904	4.4	6.4	6.22	6.19±0.31
1999/09/22	00:14:40.77	23.826	121.047	15.6	6.4	6.47	6.56±0.26
1999/09/22	00:49:43.45	23.746	121.006	6.0	5.8	5.97	5.76±0.26
1999/09/25	23:52:47.28	23.826	120.994	20.9	6.5	6.44	6.49±0.35
1999/10/22	02:18:56.55	23.496	120.422	23.1	5.8	6.07	5.89±0.27
2000/06/10	18:23:29.45	23.901	121.109	16.2	6.4	6.52	6.53±0.30
2000/09/10	08:54:46.53	24.085	121.584	17.7	5.8	5.98	5.83±0.27
2001/06/14	02:35:25.78	24.419	121.928	17.6	5.9	6.23	5.89±0.38

2. Method and data

In this study, we shall describe our recently developed method for an M_w magnitude determination of large crustal earthquakes for RRS. We consider the total energy output in terms of strong shaking excited by a finite source area of large dimension (~100 km), knowing that the total energy may be the sum of energies from a large number of smaller sources (ruptures or dislocations) that may have occurred over several tens of seconds as the rupture proceeds. The method involves a time integration of the absolute values of strong ground acceleration of the near-field records. The integrated total strong shaking is then used to seek, through a regression analysis, an empirical relationship by correlating with input known values of M_w . At the same time, the regression analysis will determine the distance attenuation functions and the individual site correction factors as a refinement in the real-time empirical M_w determination.

Big and shallow earthquakes often cause serious damage in heavily populated areas. They are the most destructive events that a RRS is targeted at. Thus, we have assembled a large database of digital strong-motion records for 13 recent large crustal events in Taiwan for this study (Fig. 1 and Table 1). The selection criteria are $M_w \geq 5.7$ and focal depth < 35 km, with the largest event being the 1999 M_w 7.6 Chi-Chi earthquake. All events were well recorded by stations of the Taiwan Strong Motion Instrumentation Program (TSMIP) network (triangles in Fig. 1). These large events used here occurred during 1994–2001 and were widely felt in Taiwan. A total of 2506 TSMIP records are used in this study. A typical data trace is shown in part A of Fig. 2. It is the east–west component record of the Chi-Chi earthquake mainshock taken at the station TCU078 at an epicentral distance of 5.5 km. The peak amplitude of 440 gal is seen. The total strong-shaking duration of this M_w 7.6 event is about 30 s. Of particular interest are two features of the waveform that may illustrate the nature of strong shaking of large earthquakes:

- (1) The first few seconds of the waveform represents the P (and perhaps also S) energy burst from a small nucleation event. From the

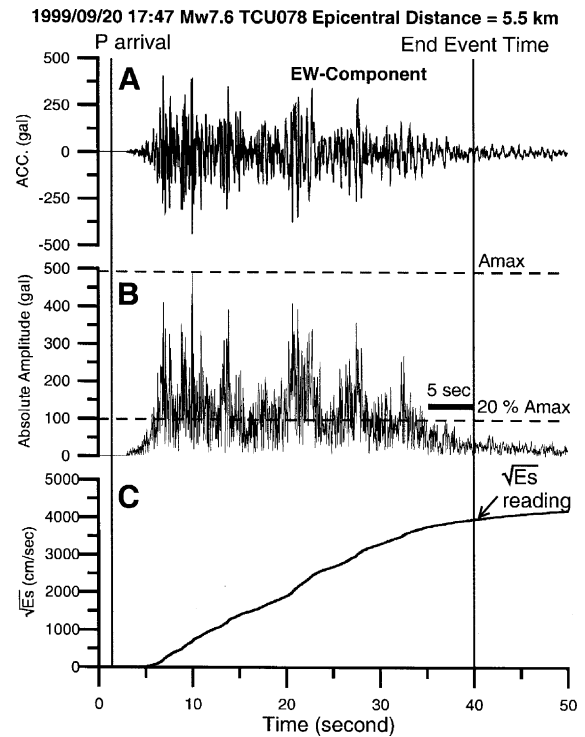


Fig. 2. A sample strong-motion records using in our analysis: (A) The EW component strong motion signal from the TSMIP station TCU078 for the 1999/09/20 17:47 M_w 7.6 Chi-Chi, Taiwan earthquake, recorded at 5.5 km from nearest point on the rupture. (B) The absolute amplitude computed from the three-component data. (C) The integrated E_s values determined in this study. Also shown are in (B) the maximum amplitude (A_{max}) and the definition of end-of-event time (the vertical line at about 40 s mark). See text for details.

waveform of these first few seconds, there is absolutely no information to indicate that this small nucleation event will or will not escalate into a large earthquake. It is therefore apparent that, regardless of what we do on the waveforms of these first few seconds (e.g., by examining the P-wave period and spectrum, etc.), we are not likely to get reliable magnitude information of the subsequent large event, which may or may not follow the initial nucleation rupture.

- (2) The entire 30-s waveform here consists of a number of large energy bursts, indicating a number of major dislocations or ruptures of strong asperities over the entire rupture surface. Clearly, a really large event, like Chi-Chi, may

neither be produced by a single simultaneous rupture of large dimensions, nor by a smoothly propagating finite rupture. For a large earthquake source with large dimensions, the occurrence of large energy bursts can normally be irregular both in space and time.

Therefore, to extract useful magnitude information from these near-field seismograms surrounding the source, one will have to deal with the total effective shaking embodied in the wave trains. This total effective shaking is proportional to the energy input into the medium from the source. From the

hazard mitigation perspective in a RRS operation, we consider this total effective shaking to be a practical measure for the earthquake magnitude. We shall use this large data set to derive a reliable empirical method for M_w determination, specifically aiming at large events in a real-time monitoring operation.

3. Data analysis and results

To compute the total effective shaking embodied in the waveforms of the near-field acceleration

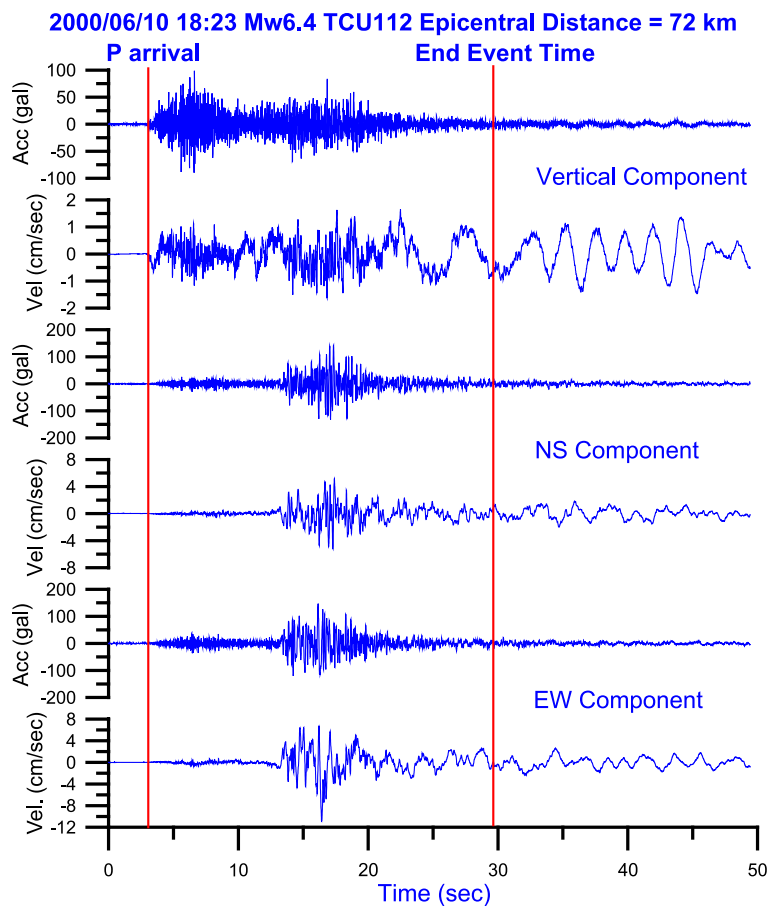
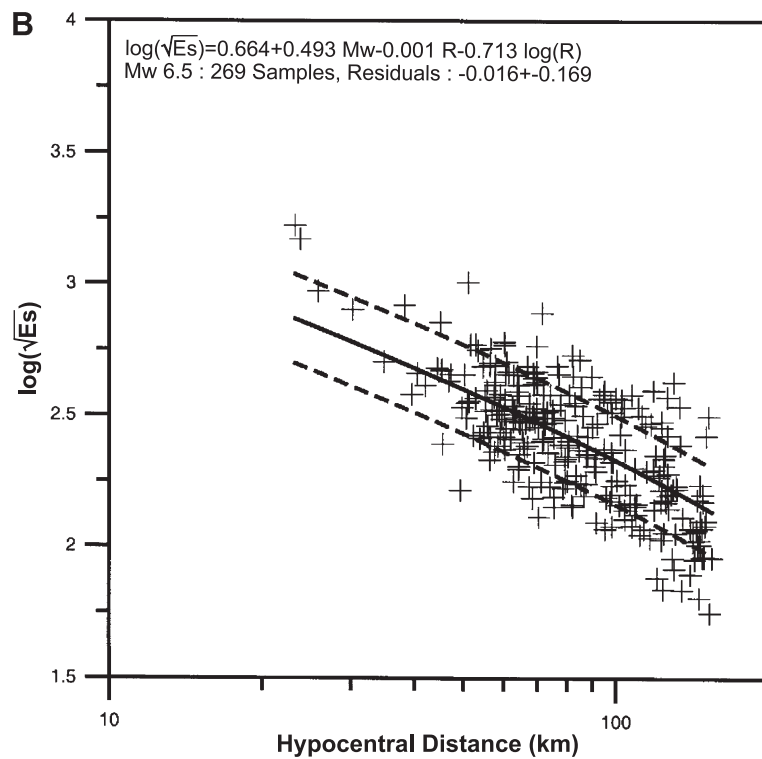
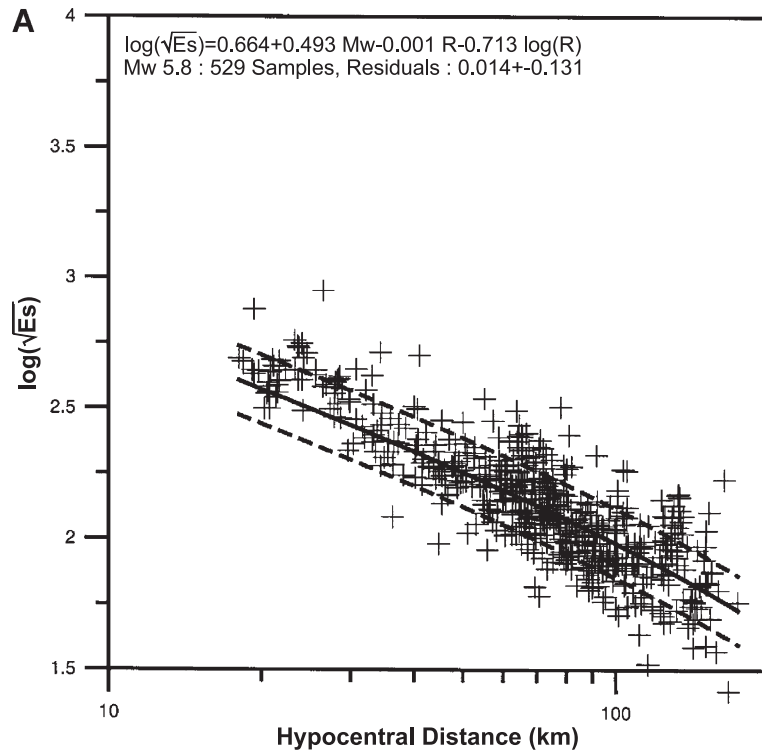


Fig. 3. Examples showing the differences in waveforms between the acceleration and velocity record for the TSMIP station TCU112 for event at 2000/06/10 18:23 M_w 6.4 recorded at 72 km away. Three sets of traces are shown for the vertical, NS, and EW components: with upper trace being acceleration, and lower trace being velocity. The vertical end-of-time line is at about 30 s. It demonstrates that for stations away from the source and located in basin geology, the excited long-period surface waves will make the search of end-of-event time difficult in an automated network monitoring operation.



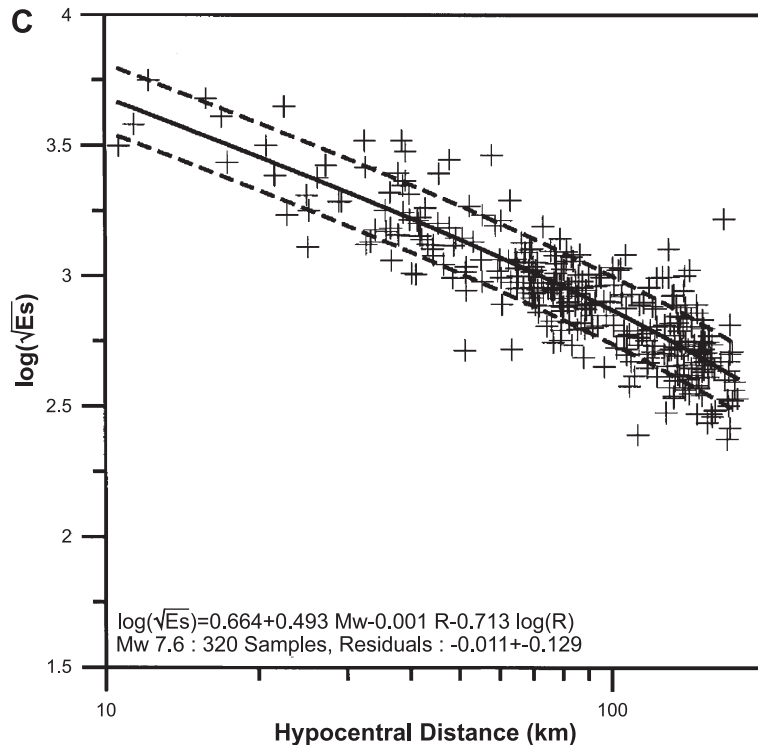


Fig. 4. (A) The regression solid curve, with one standard deviation dashed curves, is plotted against the integrated values of \sqrt{Es} for an Mw 5.8 event. (B) The regression solid curve and one standard deviation dashed curve are plotted against the integrated values of \sqrt{Es} for an Mw 6.5 event. (C) The regression solid curve and one standard deviation dashed curves are plotted against the integrated values of \sqrt{Es} for an Mw 7.6 event.

recordings, we define an absolute-value acceleration integral \sqrt{Es} such that:

$$\sqrt{Es} = \int_{T_p}^{T_e} \sqrt{V^2 + N^2 + E^2} dt \quad (1)$$

Here V , N , and E are vertical, north–south, and east–west components acceleration signals (in gal). The integrand gives the absolute amplitude A of the vector sum of the three-component accelerations. Upon integration, \sqrt{Es} will have the unit of velocity, thus, Es is proportional to wave energy. T_p is the P-wave arrival time. T_e is the end-of-event time of the strong-shaking duration, which is defined as the point of time when the acceleration amplitude A drops below 20% of the maximum amplitude (A_{\max}) and remains there for 5 s. The unit of T_p and T_e are in seconds. In part B of Fig. 2, A_{\max} is shown to be close to 500 gal. The end-of-event

time T_e occurs at about 40 s after the first P arrival, which is defined to be the time when A has become 20% of A_{\max} for more than 5 s. Part C of Fig. 2 shows \sqrt{Es} , the total effective shaking, that builds up as the strong-shaking continues. The integration is cut off at 40 s for this case. The early cutoff is mainly for the interest of quickly completing the total effective shaking calculation so that the system can get on with the magnitude determination for the purpose of RRS. Indeed, after 40 s for this example, the additional increment of wave energy is small and can be neglected for the present purpose of Mw determination.

Here, we explain our choice of using acceleration records instead of velocity records for getting \sqrt{Es} . In Fig. 3, acceleration records (Station TCU112) for an Mw 6.4 event are shown for all three components. The corresponding integrated velocity record is shown below each acceleration record. We see that as the rupture process is coming to an end at about 20 s after

the P arrival, the acceleration amplitudes substantially die off, yet, the velocity records sometimes show large-amplitude, low-frequency waves. These low-frequency waves can come from two sources: one being the excitation of surface waves in a sedimentary basin due to multiple reflections, the second being the accumulated integration errors due largely to the long-period noise. In either case, these low-frequency waves should not be included in the effective total shaking calculation. Furthermore, in real-time network data processing, it is easier to define the end-of-event time for acceleration records but not so for velocity records. Therefore, we choose to use acceleration records for our purpose.

The decrease in the amplitude of seismic waves with distance from the hypocenter can be represented by $Amp \sim e^{-\gamma R} / R^n$, where R is the hypocentral distance, n is geometrical spreading coefficient, and γ can be related to the anelastic attenuation coefficient Q . The magnitude is proportional to $\log(Amp)$; and $\log(Amp)$ can be expressed by $n \log(R) - (\gamma / \ln 10) R + C_s$; here, C_s is constant. In this

study, \sqrt{Es} is used as the acceleration amplitude integral. Thus, we consider the linear regression model as follows:

$$\log(\sqrt{Es}) = A + B \cdot Mw + C \cdot R + D \cdot \log(R) + S_i \quad (2)$$

Here, S_i is the i th site correction factor. The TSMIP station site amplification factors of peak ground acceleration (PGA) were determined in a previous study (Wu et al., 2001). Thus, here, S_i can be determined for each known site as the amplification factor. The coefficients A , B , C , and D are to be determined by least-squares regression. With a total of 2506 TSMIP records as the input, the resulting attenuation relationship for \sqrt{Es} is given by

$$\log(\sqrt{Es}) = 0.664 + 0.493 \cdot Mw - 0.001 R - 0.713 \cdot \log(R) + S_i \quad (3)$$

where $\log(\sqrt{Es})$ has approximately a normal distribution about the mean, and the standard deviation is

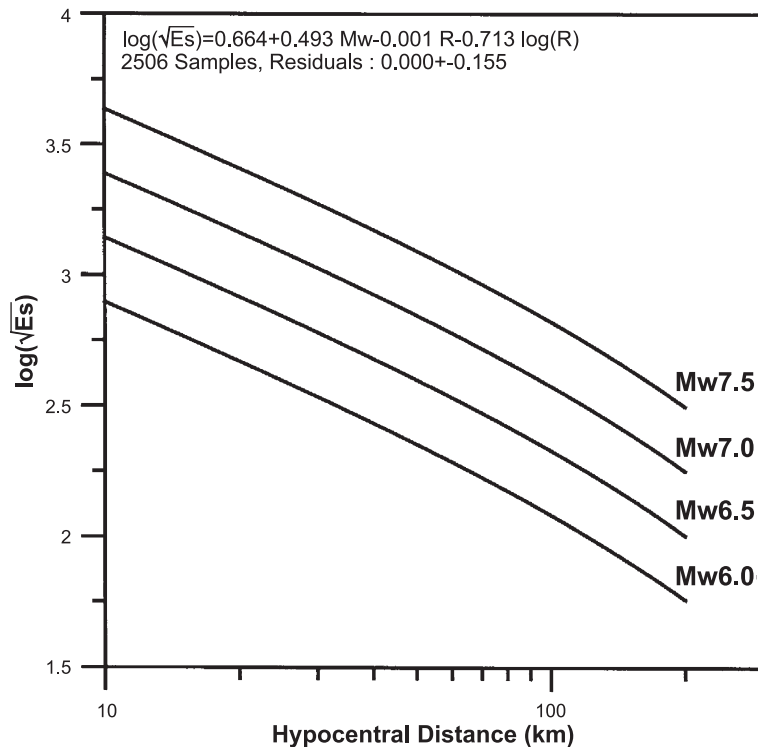


Fig. 5. Regression curves of \sqrt{Es} for $Mw=6.0, 6.5, 7.0,$ and 7.5 .

0.155. It is interesting that M_w is given approximately by the value of $\log(E_s)$. The comparisons between the observed and predicted $\sqrt{E_s}$ values for M_w 5.8, 6.5, and 7.6 are shown in Fig. 4A, B, and C. From the entire data set, we can generate a set of regression curves, one useful set of curves for M_w 6.0, 6.5, 7.0, and 7.5 are given in Fig. 5. With the set of empirical curves derived, the CWBSN can practically determine near real time for any large Taiwan earthquake an equivalent M_w value as soon as a number of near-field waveforms are captured up to their end-of-event times for the strong shaking. This magnitude determination for large earthquakes will not have a saturation problem and can be carried out by the CWBSN in about 30 s to 1 min, which, although too slow for EWS, is quite adequate for the purpose of RRS.

4. Discussions

For real-time seismic monitoring, especially for RRS operation, near-field magnitude determination

for large earthquakes is an outstanding problem. Clearly, the M_w determined by teleseismic broadband recordings will not meet the RRS time requirement. Near-field high-gain seismographs will have severe amplitude-clipping problem from which no useful waveform can help the M_w determination. One compromise is the use of the low-gain, large dynamic broadband system. The strong-motion FBAs, such as those TSMIP telemetered instruments installed by the CWBSN, ideally fit the requirements. This installation gives rise to a quick advancement of the RRS operation as reported here. The set of curves presented in Fig. 5 cover all large earthquakes that can be expected in Taiwan. They are derived here based on a large data set consisting of 2506 strong-motion records from 13 largest Taiwan crustal events. The strong-motion site amplification and attenuation data derived from recent large earthquakes are also incorporated into the magnitude calculation. All these data are recorded by the 650-station TSMIP network (Fig. 1, open triangles).

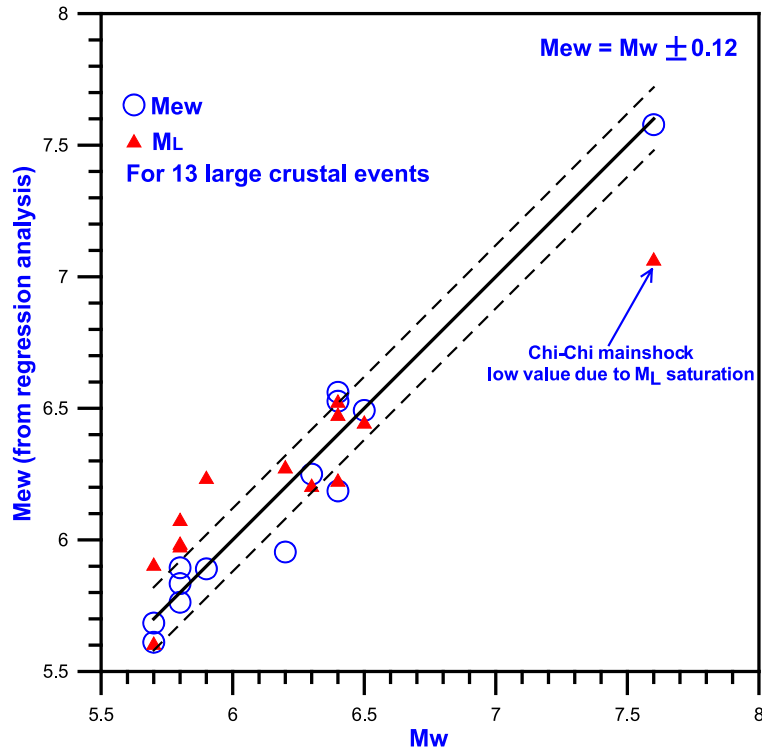


Fig. 6. The M_{ew} and M_L data as plotted against a 45° line of $M_{ew}=M_w$.

The set of empirical curves in Fig. 5 will allow a real-time equivalent M_w determination as soon as the waveform data for the strong shaking period is recorded. Since it only involves an integration of the absolute acceleration amplitude and an interpolation on the set of existing curves, the principal time needed is essentially the time to complete the recording of the strong shaking waveforms, i.e., about less than 1 min typically.

From this study, the $\log(E_s)$ is found to be proportional to M_w in a simple manner; we shall rewrite Eq. (3) replacing M_w by M_{ew} to reflect that a different process is used in moment magnitude derivation:

$$M_{ew} = -1.347 + 1.014 \cdot \log(E_s) + 0.002 \cdot R + 1.446 \cdot \log(R) - 2.0258 \cdot S_i \quad (4)$$

Here, M_{ew} is derived empirically through an integration process by summing up the earthquake

strong shaking absolute amplitude. The integrated quantity has a unit of velocity, which bears a simple relation to the total energy, in fact, $\log(E_s) \sim M_{ew}$.

In Table 1, we listed the values of M_w (from teleseismic data), M_L (from CWBSN), and M_{ew} with error bars (from this study). Fig. 6 gives a comparison of the three magnitude values by plotting the M_{ew} against a $45^\circ M_{ew} = M_w$ line, with the dashed lines giving one standard deviation values. The figure shows that M_L values (in solid triangles) are scattered about the $45^\circ M_{ew} = M_w$ line, and give a significantly lower value for the large Chi-Chi M_w 7.6 event due to M_L saturation. The M_{ew} values stay mostly well inside one standard deviation. The M_{ew} value for the large Chi-Chi M_w 7.6 event falls almost right on the mark with a standard deviation of 0.12. The differences between M_{ew} and M_w are distributed in a small range from -0.25 to 0.16 . This result shows the magnitude of large crustal earthquakes in Taiwan can be well determined from $\sqrt{E_s}$, or from an integration of absolute amplitude over the strong shaking period.

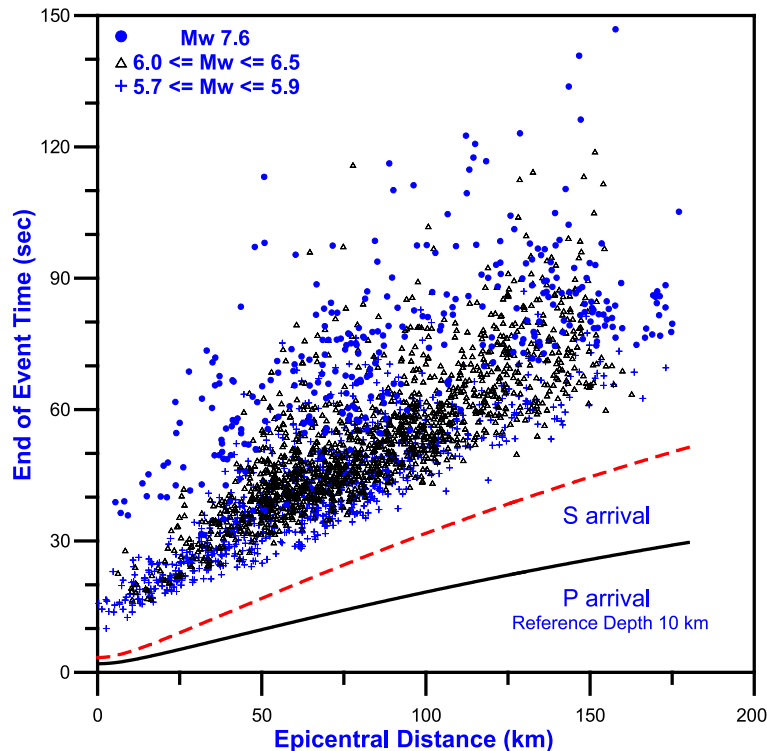


Fig. 7. Distribution of the end-of-event times for 2506 records used in this study.

This integration is fast and can be carried out in real time. Therefore, the M_{ew} determination is practical in the RRS operation.

Fig. 7 shows data of the end-of-event times of the 2506 records used in this study. Except for the Chi-Chi mainshock, most of the end-of-event times have values between 15 and 30 s after the S-wave arrival. The end-of-event times of the Chi-Chi mainshock lasted more than 30 s after the S-wave arrivals, especially at large distances. For large earthquakes like the Chi-Chi event, one should expect large ruptures (100×40 km) and long rupture times (~30 s). Even then, in a typical RSS operation, with a dense real-time strong-motion station network as shown in Fig. 1, only stations with epicentral distances less than 60 km are involved in the \sqrt{Es} calculation. The method presented here still can produce a reliable M_{ew} (therefore an equivalent M_w) within about 1 min.

5. Conclusions

In real-time seismic monitoring for an earthquake RSS, we have obtained a method that can deliver the value M_{ew} (therefore an equivalent value of M_w) mainly for large on-land earthquakes. Future data may justify an extension of this method to be applied to subduction earthquakes that occur offshore of east Taiwan. Due to the greater depth and larger distance, these subduction earthquakes are far less damaging to centers of population on Taiwan's west coast. This method avoids the magnitude saturation problem caused in the M_L determination for large events, and significantly speed up the delivery of an equivalent M_w values normally come from teleseismic broadband recordings. The teleseismic M_w determination, of course, is too late for the RRS. We have achieved this by an integration of the total ground shaking \sqrt{Es} and have derived an empirical relationship between M_w and M_{ew} , which bears a simple relationship with the easily computed $\log(\sqrt{Es})$, i.e., $\log(Es) \sim M_{ew} \sim M_w$. With this new method, M_w can be determined from M_{ew} with a small uncertainty of 0.12. We shall use M_{ew} , instead M_w , to identify this new magnitude that is determined from integrating the strong motion signals. It can be

obtained reliably in less than 1 min and should prove to be useful for earthquake rapid reporting in real-time earthquake monitoring. With near real-time data from the 82 telemetered strong-motion stations, any earthquake rapid reporting information package also includes the acceleration $A(t)$, velocity $V(t)$ as well as the intensity map.

Acknowledgments

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