This document will contain summary of selected papers I read.

[*Yokota et al.*, 2016] reported the seafloor geodetic observation network data and an offshore interpolate slip-deficit rates (SDRs) distribution model. They use the seafloor geodetic data to invert the SDRs in Japan, and get a model that is robustly similar to that obtained in the past studies using only the onshore data. A couple of interesting things:

* Subducting ridge not only activates shallow VLFEs, but also forms the low-SDR region (low-coupling condition)
* These low-SDR region usually is the boundary of the rupture, if the earthquake rupture stops at these boundaries, it maybe a small earthquake, but if it ruptures through, it maybe a large earthquake.

[*Hardebeck and Shelly*, 2016] using templates matching and double-difference to identify and locate the aftershocks for the 2014 Napa Earthquake. They find many aftershocks occur in a complex zone of secondary faulting. They also generate the focal mechanism and most of them show strike-slip and oblique-reverse faulting on secondary dipping faults in the main aftershock zone. These secondary faults were brought closer to failure by Coulomb stress changes from the main-shock. One conclusion is: the lack of stick-slip patches in the southern rupture zone may contribute to the low productivity of the South Napa aftershock sequence.

A new paper in Science in the week of Jun 6th 2016 [*Jiang and Lapusta*, 2016] reports the evidence to answer the question why many major strike-slip fauts known to have had large earthquakes are silent in the interseismic period. They suggest the absence of the microseismcity at the bottom of the seismogenic zone indicates deep rupture past the seismogenic zone in previous large earthquakes. They supporting their hypothesis using observation and numerical simulations. The observations are from 3 earthquakes, the Parkfield M6.0 and the Loma Prieta M6.9, and the M7.5 Denali earthquakes. But I think the observations are not supporting quite well, you do see for Loma Prieta M6.9 seismicity move deeper after the earthquake, for Denali earthquake, they argue there was a large earthquake penetrated deeper before the Denali earthquake, that’s why you don’t see the seismicity before or after the earthquake. I don’t buy it. The conclusions come from numerical simulations of fault behavior looks fine, they compared two models M1 and M2, which M1 only rupture in the seismogenic zone, but M2 rupture into the deeper creeping section. You do see the microseismicity stop after the rupture in M2, which support their hypothesis.

[*Zaliapin and Ben-zion*, 2015] try to classify the induced seismicity and natural seismicity using statistical features of different clusters. They use a metrics that defined the distance between any of the two earthquakes from [*Baiesi and Paczuski*, 2004] to study the difference. The metrics is interesting and can be used as the weight of the nodes in network theory. But this paper is a not easy reading due to the poor writing, a lot of the things are not explained clearly!

[*Hsu et al.*, 2016] started to build a classification algorithm to distinguish false triggers and true triggers using machine learning algorithms that I long thought to do. See their feature list. But I think their method have some problems that will not working so well in real time.

[*An and Meng*, 2016] try to use array backprojection to do tsunami early warning. What they are doing is to use current EEW system to find the location of the earthquake, and then estimate the rupture area using an ellipse/polygon encloses seismic radiators. The magnitude can be estimated based on the scaling law. Based on the M = uAD, they can then estimate the average slip which is used to feed into the model to simulate the tsunami waves. This is different from Diego’s method [*Melgar et al.*, 2016a] which is estimating the rupture dimension based on the scaling law from the past earthquakes. Then he estimate the average slip based on M = uAD. So they use scaling law to estimate different quantity in the M = uAD equation.

[*Agurto-Detzel et al.*, 2016] reported the spatiotemporal association of the small-magnitude seismic sequence with the collapse of a mine tailings dam in Brazil 2015, mainly from observational from the timing and location of the event. They gave three possible scenarios, 1) The dam collapse was triggered by the ground shaking of the earthquakes, 2) the earthquakes triggered soil liquefaction which in turn caused the dam failure, 3) static liquefaction for which no seismic triggering is needed. They don’t have a final conclusion which caused the failure, but the small earthquakes for sure have a contribution to the failure.

[*Mallard et al.*, 2016] reports on Nature to try to answer the question how the surface of Earth is split into an organized jigsaw of seven large plates of similar sizes and a population of smaller plates whose areas follow a fractal distribution. They did 3-D spherical geo-dynamic modeling and demonstrate that the plate layout of Earth is produced by a dynamic feedback between mantle convection and the strength of the lithosphere. They produce model that consistent with the plate size-frequency distribution observed on Earth, and showed that the subduction geometry drives the tectonic fragmentation that generated plates. The more curvature the trench is, the more triple junction they will have. They also showed the larger plates are an expression of the dominating convection wavelength (longer wavelength generate larger plates), and their fragmentation into smaller plates is driven by subduction geometry.



This is a very nice figure in [*Wu et al.*, 2016].

[*Lee et al.*, 2016] report the two stage rupture of the 2015 M8.4 Illapel Chile earthquake. They use spectral-element method to invert the teleseismic and regional waveforms including P waves, S waves, reflections, and surface waves. They found evidences that there were 3 large asperities, and two distinct rupture processes from the source time function. To support this, they also using empirical green’s function method to get the relative source time function for all azimuths. They provide several hypothesis for the two-stage rupture process. (1) The stress state immediately changed after the first rupture stage, (2) the slip might rebound from the free surface of the fault, (3) the second stage rupture can be considered as a rapid postseismic slip.

[*Melgar et al.*, 2016b] using finite fault modeling and teleseismic backprojection to study the 2015 M8.3 Illapel Chile earthquake. The finite fault model shows two asperity of rupture, a deeper one and a shallow one. The backprojection results show the deeper rupture radiate more high frequency energy, and the shallow asperity radiate more low frequency energy. This paper argues that the high frequency radiated from the deeper part contributes the strong motion, and the low frequency radiated from the shallower part is the main reason to generate tsunami.

[*Porritt and Yoshioka*, 2016] study the 2015 Chichi-jima M8 earthquake using receiver functions. They observe multiple conversions within and below the transition zone, which they associate with seismic waves passing into and out of segments of the subducting Pacific plate. Then they infer slab material is piling up at the base of the transition zone and segments are penetrating into the lower mantle.

[*Yoon et al.*, 2015] develops a new method to detect earthquakes based on the similarity. In this paper, they have a nice comparison of different detection algorithms (good/bad). The biggest advantage of this FAST (Fingerprint And Similarity Thresholding) is the speed, while the disadvantage is the memory usage. So it trades off higher memory requirements in exchange for faster runtime and reduced algorithmic complexity. The algorithm has two components, (1) feature extraction, and (2) similarity search. For the feature extraction, it first calculates the spectrogram, and then using a sliding window to get the spectral image. The next step is to get the top k coefficient from the Haar wavelet transform (only keep the sign), and then encode it to binary fingerprint. After the feature extraction step, it inserts the fingerprint to the hash database, and do similarity search later.

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