Natural Hazards and Disaster

Class 4: Geohazards; Earthquakes Types of Geohazards • Plate Tectonics Other Causes of Geohazards Earthquakes







Types of Geohazards

Geohazard denotes geological hazard.



Relevant sciences:

- processes by which it evolves.
- Geophysics: Applies physics to studying the planet originally included meteorology, physical \bullet oceanography
- Geochemistry: studies the chemistry of the planet

• Geology is the science comprising the study of solid Earth, the rocks of which it is composed, and the





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Geohazards include:

- earthquakes,
- volcanic activity,
- landslides, \bullet
- ground motion, \bullet
- tsunamis,
- floods, droughts,
- meteorite impacts and
- health hazards of geologic materials.

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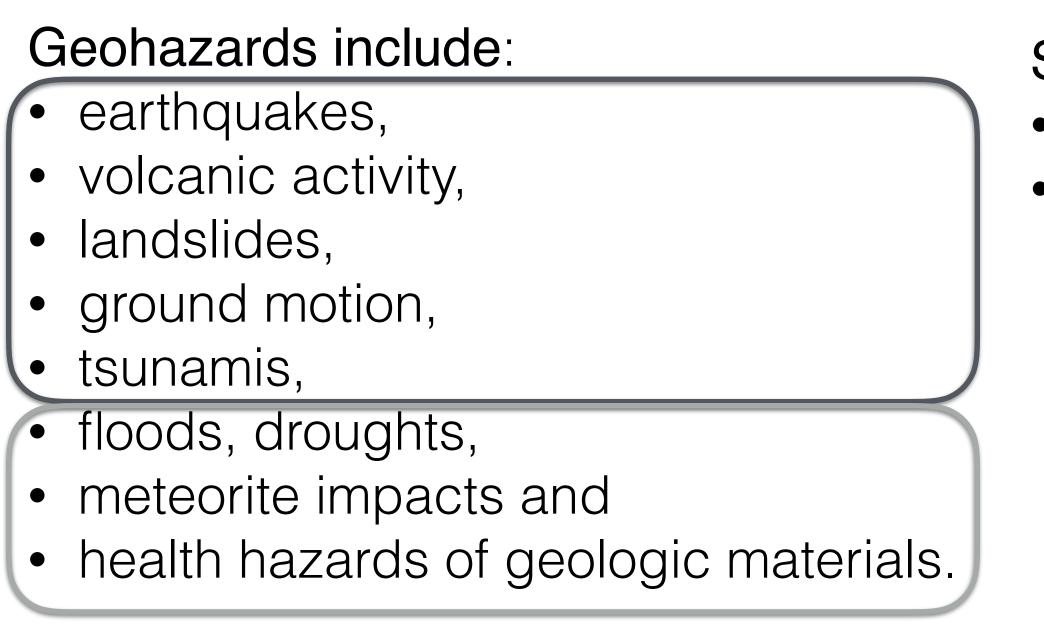
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Spatial scales can range from:

local events such as a rock slide or coastal erosion events that threaten humankind such as a supervolcano or meteorite impact.

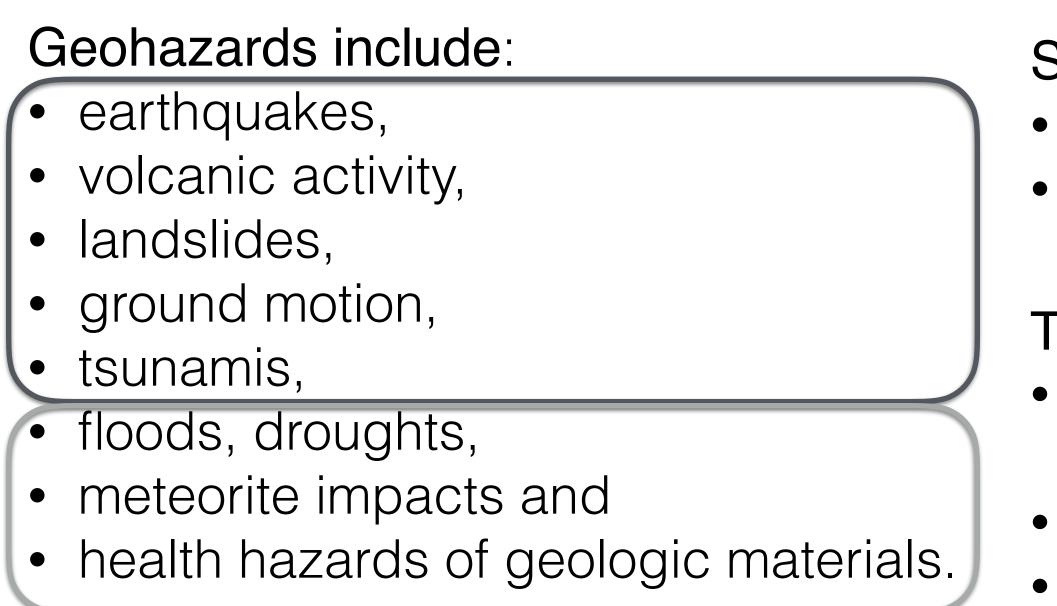






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Temporal scales:

rapid rock falls and short earthquakes: seconds to a few

prolonged volcanic eruptions: days to years;

slow slope motion and subsidence: years and more.



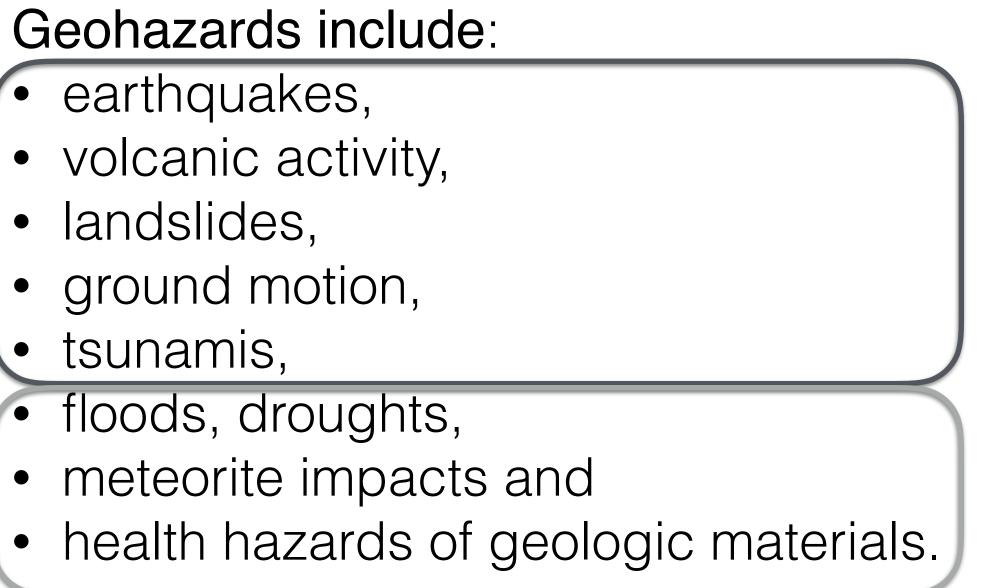






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Many, but by far not all, of the geohazards are related to plate tectonics. Increasingly, geohazards are also caused be humans.

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Types of Geohazards

Tectonics:	Oth
 Stress and strain (tectonic movements) 	Oth
 Earthquakes 	
 Tsunamis 	-
 Volcanic activity 	- 8
Salt Tectonics	- (
Ground instabilities and movements:	_ \
 Landslide 	_ (
Soil Creep	• f
 Ground Dissolution 	
 Collapsible Ground 	• S
 Running Sand/ Liquefaction 	• m
 Shrink-swell clays 	
 Compressible Ground 	
Anthropogenic ground instabilities:	
 Induced seismicity (reservoirs) 	
 Ground water management 	
 Oil and gas extraction 	
 Mining 	
 Underground construction 	
 Engineered ground 	
 Fracking 	

ner geohazards:

- nealth hazards of geologic materials:
- radioactivity (non-human and human caused)
- atmospheric aerosols
- chemical elements (e.g. mercury, heavy metals) water quality
- anthropogenic pollution
- oods, droughts
- ediments
- neteorite impacts



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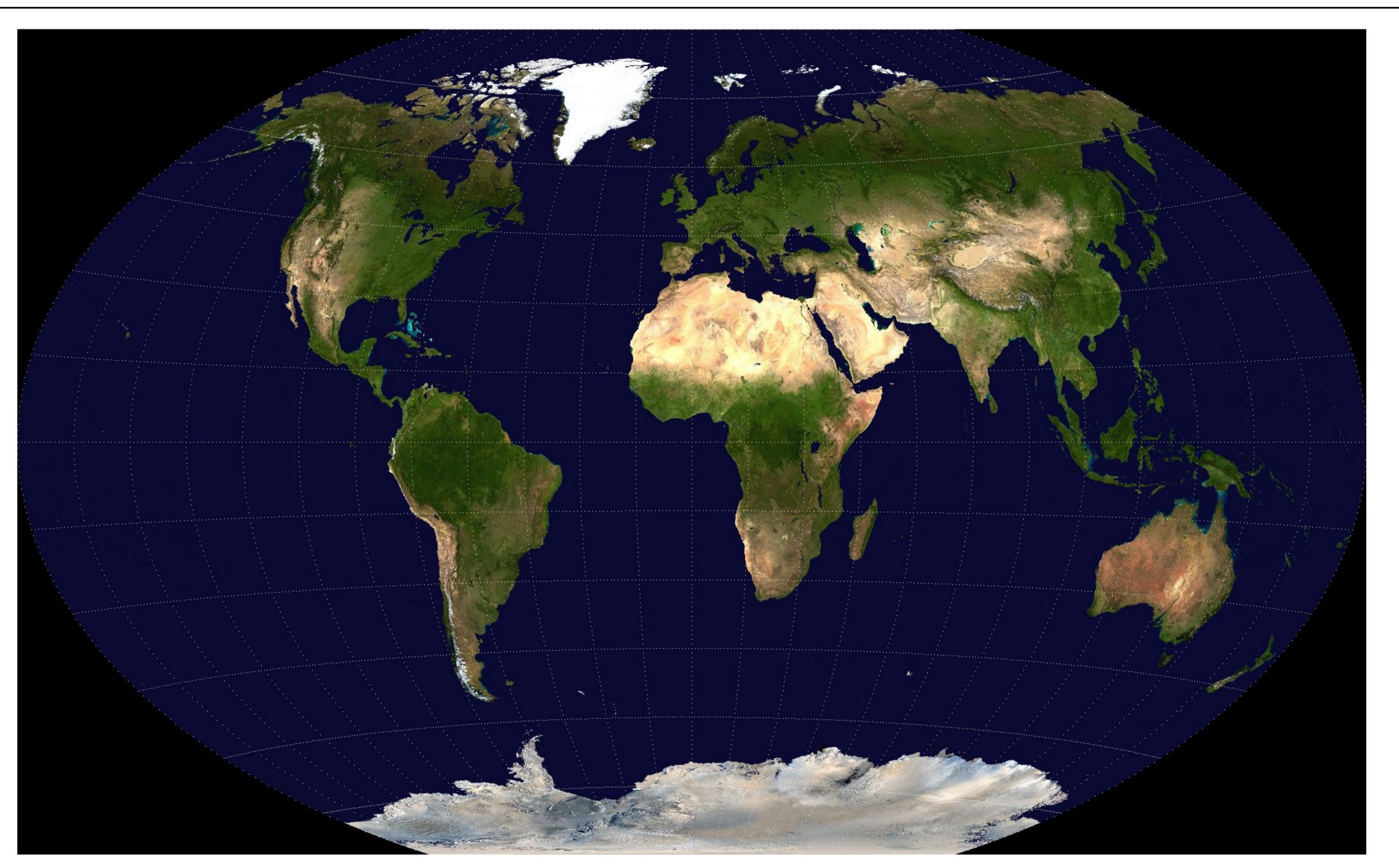




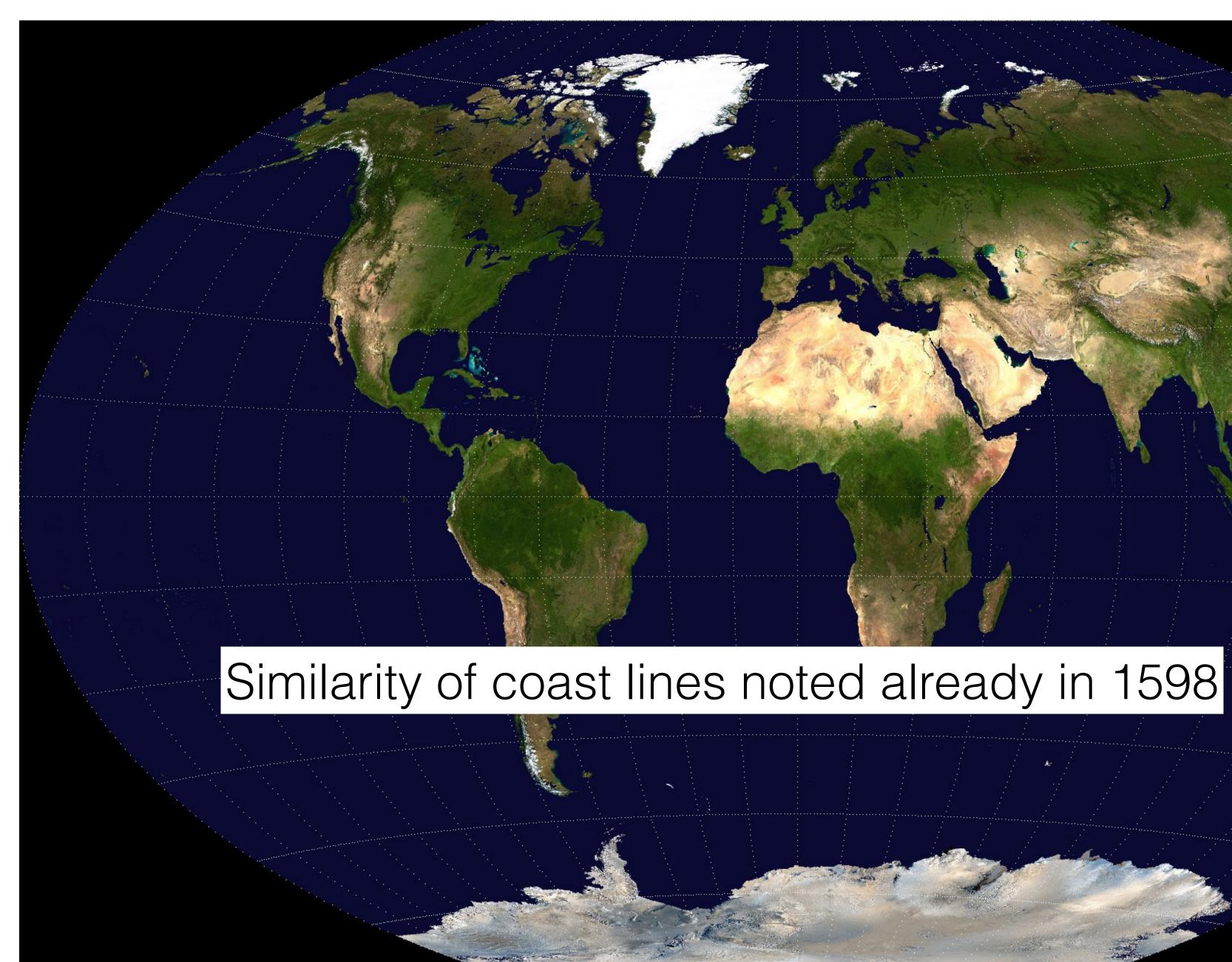




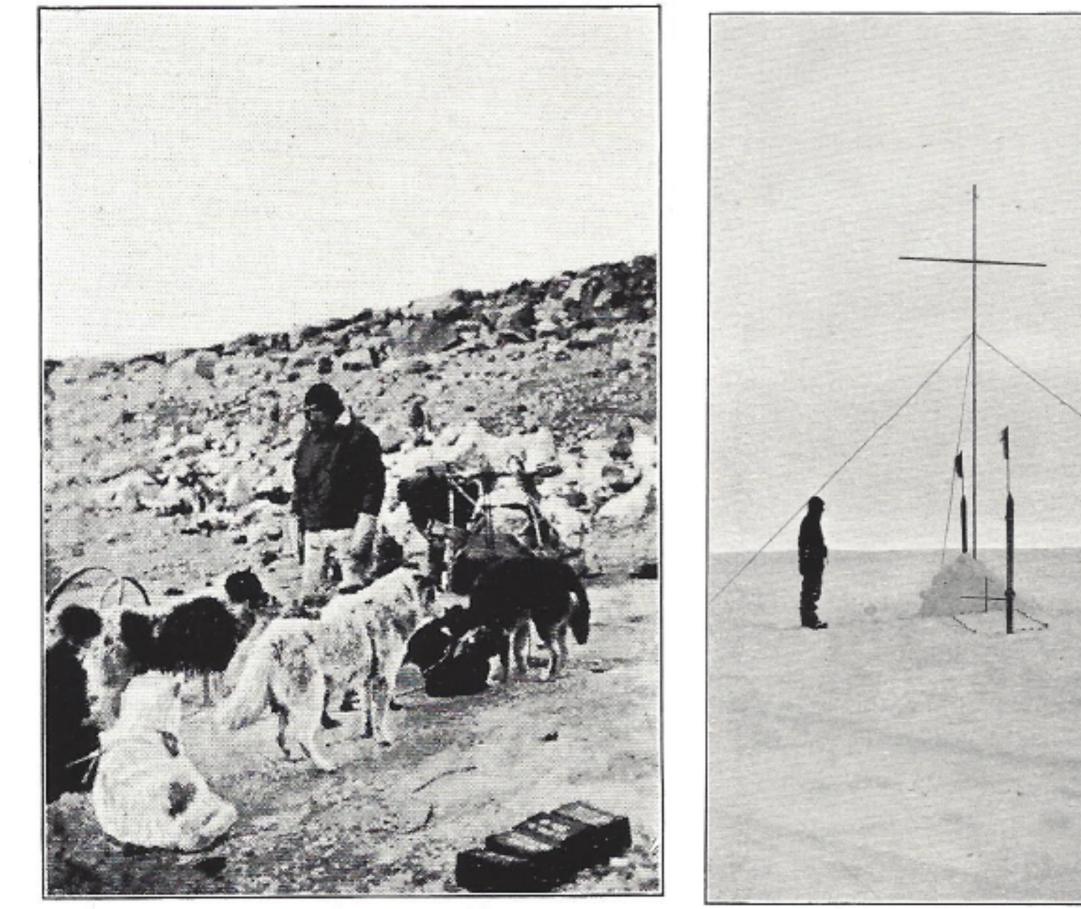












Aufnahme Holzapfel Wegener mit seinen Hunden vor der Abfahrt nach "Eismitte". Seite 103.

Ulfred Wegeners Grab. Seite 215.



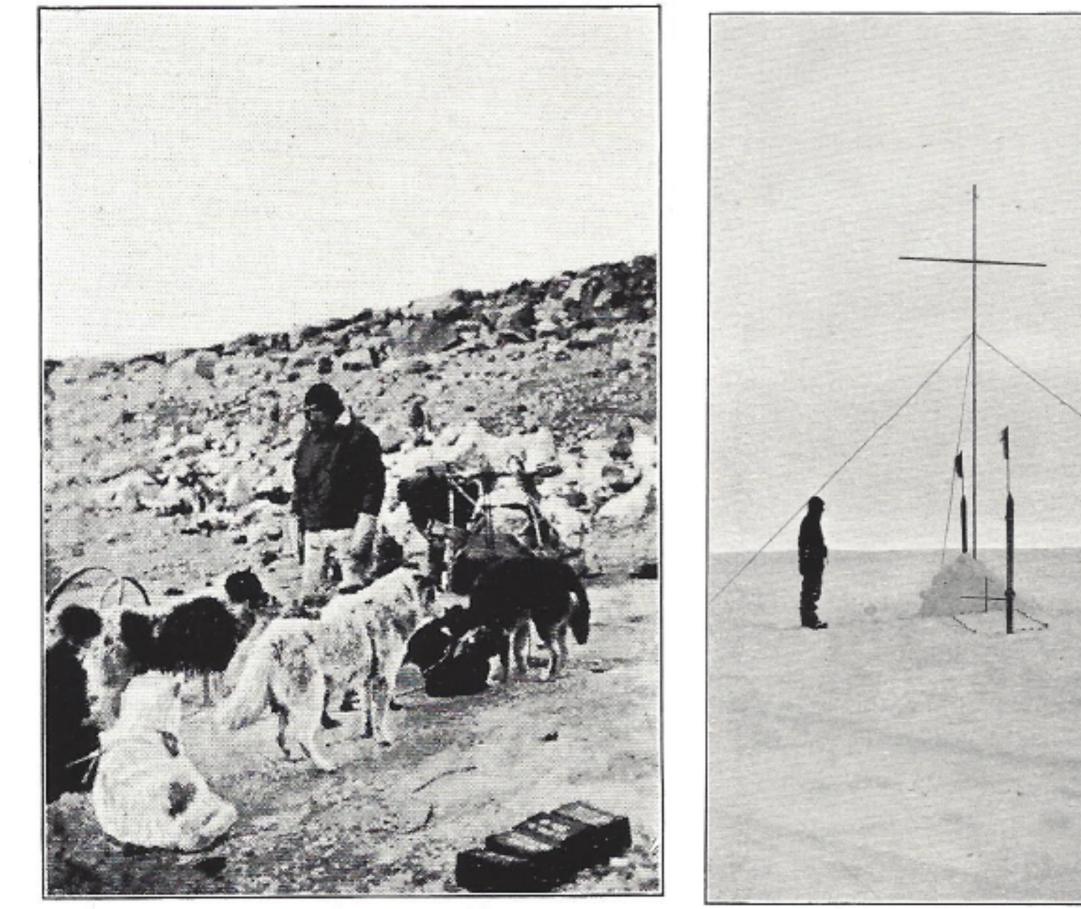
Alfred Wegener, 1 Nov. 1880 - Nov. 1930

Published the idea of "continental drift" in 1912

Supportive evidence:

- Similarity of coast lines;
- Similarity of rocks on both sides of Atlantic





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aufnahme@chi

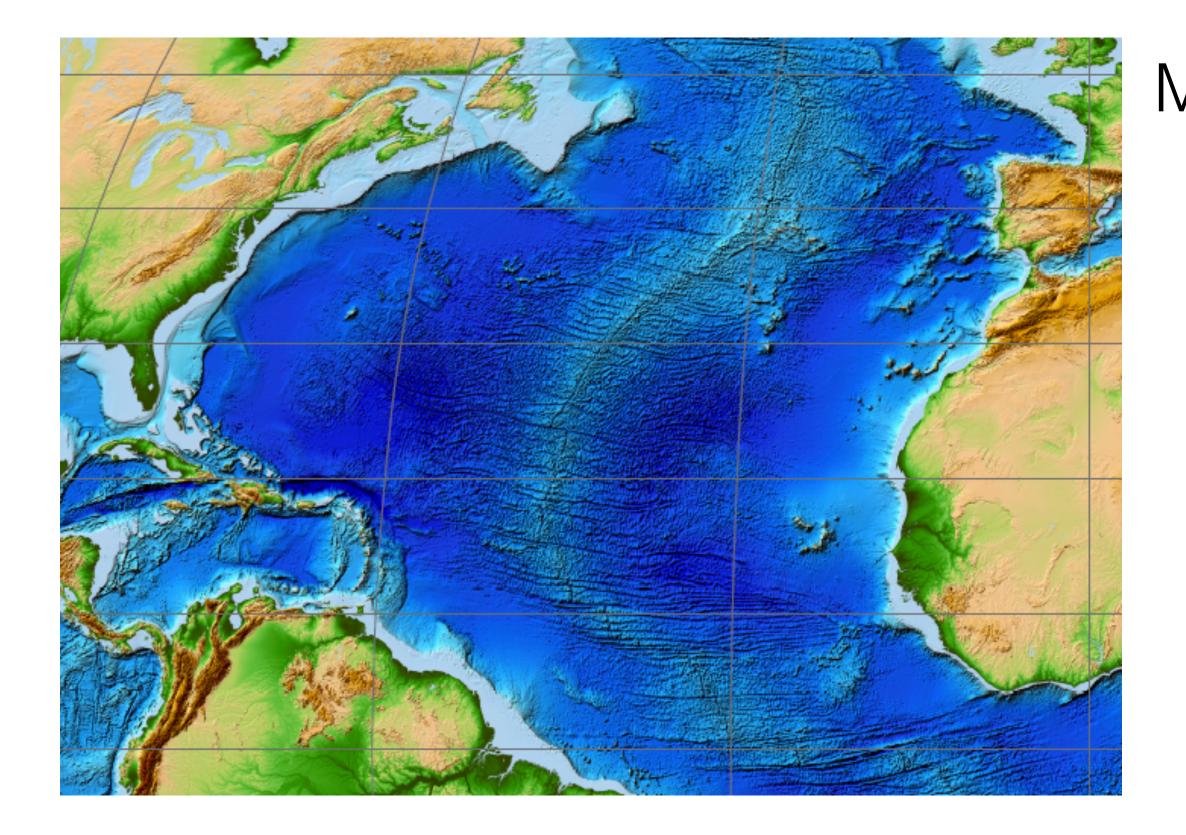
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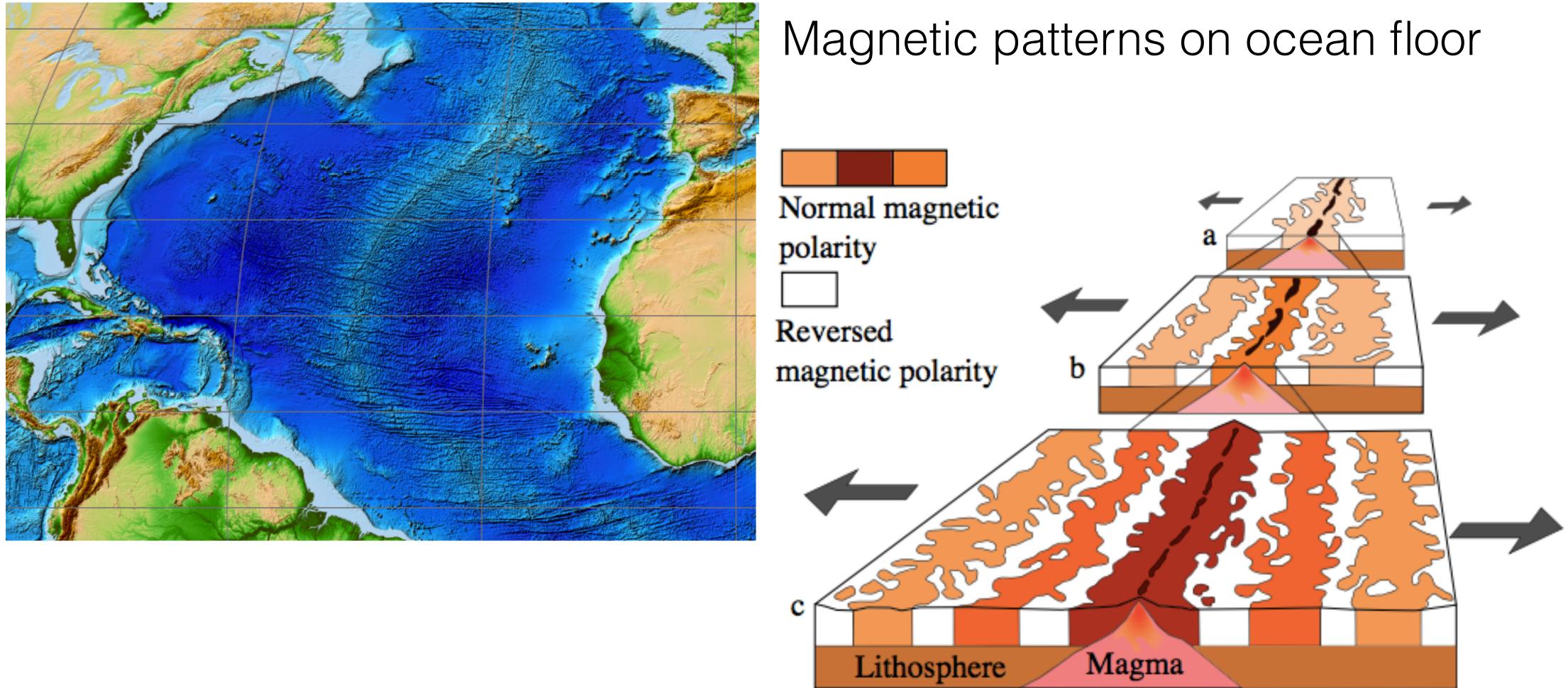
Theory not accepted because no explanation of the forcing processes



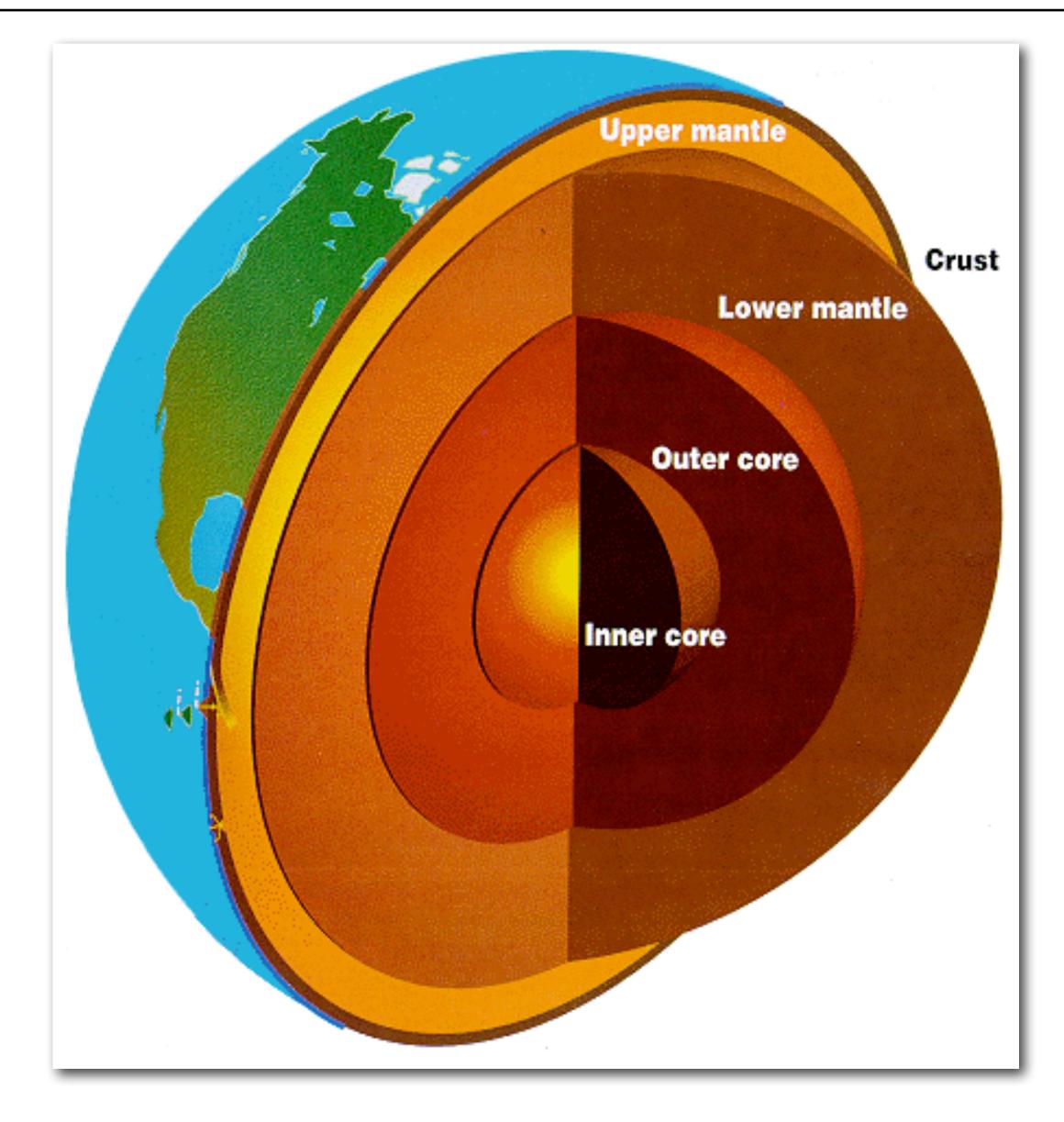


Magnetic patterns on ocean floor

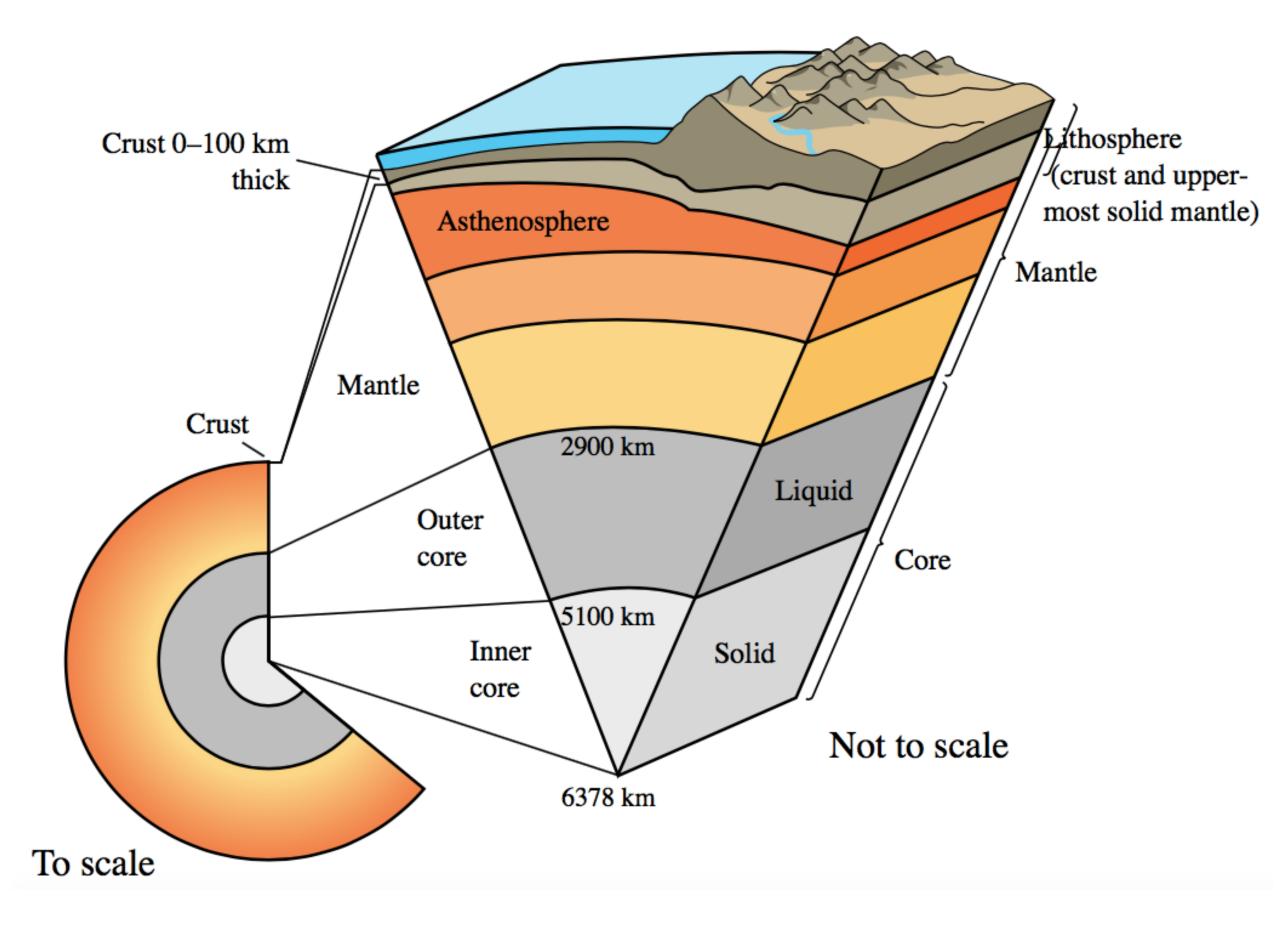








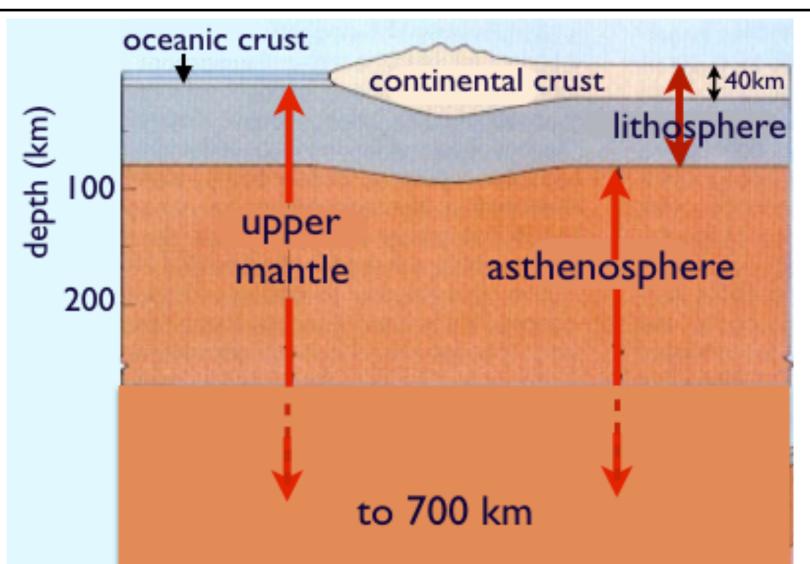
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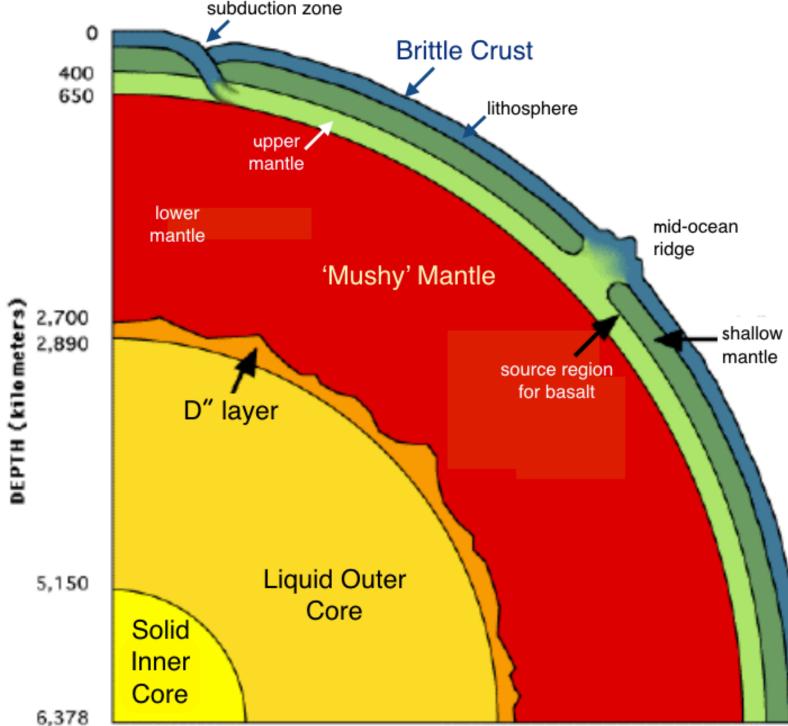


Earth's Internal Structure

- Earth's Crust: continental and ocean crusts are the thinnest, outermost layers of the planet.
- Lithosphere: is chemically and mineralogically part of the upper mantle.
- Tectonic Plates: The continental and oceanic crustal rocks and their underlying lithosphere, which together comprise the tectonic plates, are on average 100 km thick and for the most part they are rigid and brittle.
- Asthenosphere: beneath the lithosphere is the asthenosphere, which although solid, is capable of flowing slowly due to its high temperature (1300°C).
- Mantle: Layer between the asthenosphere and the outer core, which makes up about 84% of Earth's volume. It is a viscous solid.
- D": Transition zone between base of lower mantle and liquid outer core.
- Outer core: Liquid layer below the D' zone most likely composed of iron mixed with nickel and trace amounts of lighter elements.
- Inner Core: Solid core most likely composed of an iron-nickel alloy and some other elements.

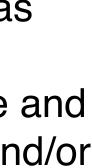


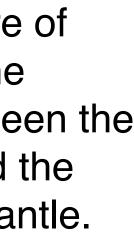
Earth's tectonic plates, sometimes referred to as lithospheric plates, are made of the lithosphere and the overlying oceanic and/or continental crust.



The internal structure of Earth. Layer D" is the transition zone between the liquid outer core and the base of the lower mantle.

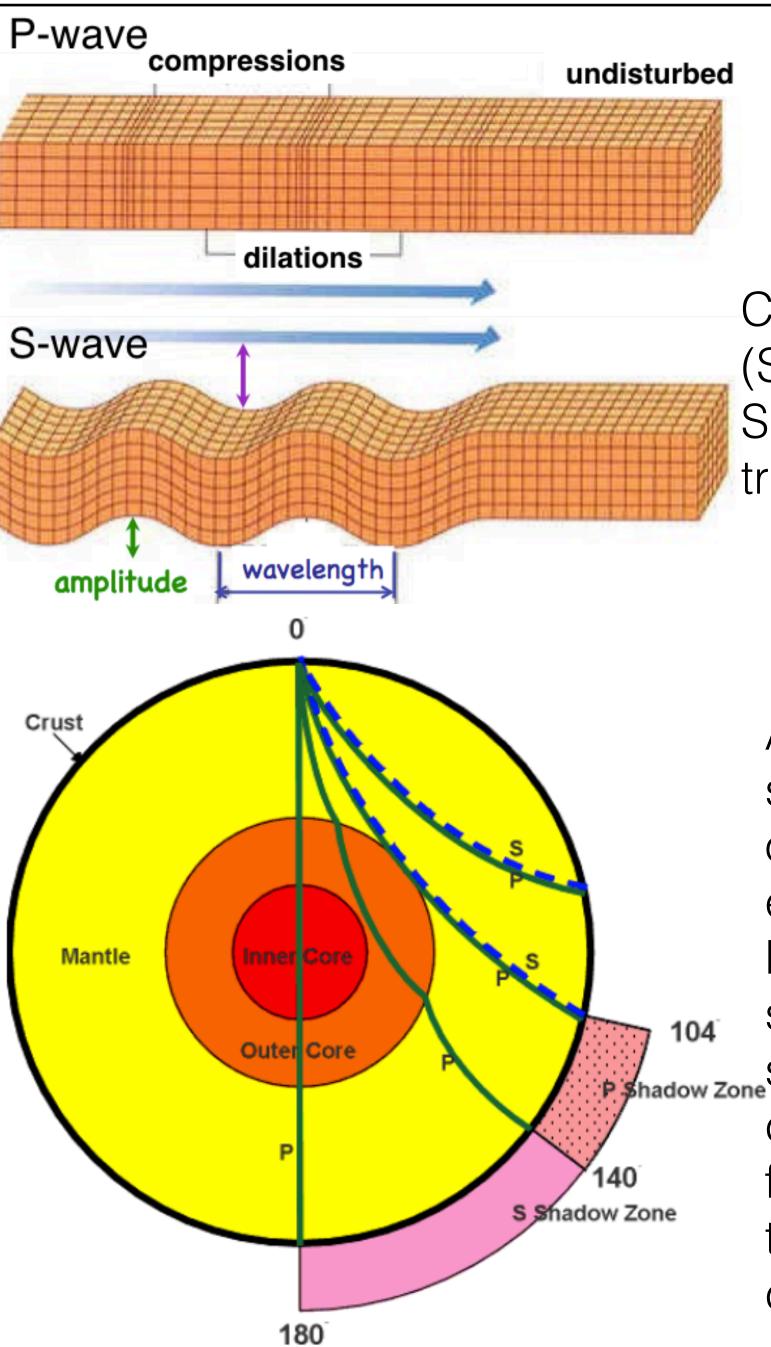






Using Earthquakes To Map Earth's Internal Structure

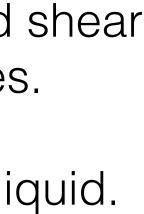
- Seismic waves generated by earthquakes are useful for mapping Earth's internal structure.
- Earthquakes and very large explosions release energy in the form of seismic waves that travel in all directions through the Earth.
- The different physical properties of compressional (P) and shear (S) seismic body waves are useful for mapping Earth's internal structure.
- Unlike P-waves, the S-waves cannot travel through fluids; there is always a 'shadow zone' without S-waves.
- The recognition of this shadow zone allowed scientists to infer the existence of Earth's fluid outer core.



Compressional (P) and shear (S) seismic body waves. S-waves cannot be transmitted through a liquid.

An S-wave 'shadow zone,' shown in pink, occurs on the opposite side of Earth to an earthquake at position '0'. No S-waves are received by seismograph stations in the P Shadow Zone; only P-waves can travel through Earth's fluid outer core, although they are refracted at the core-mantle boundary.

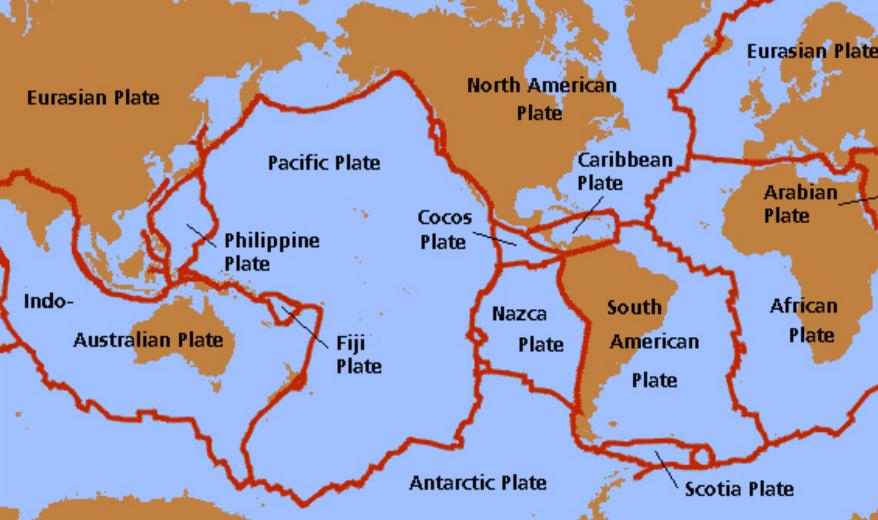




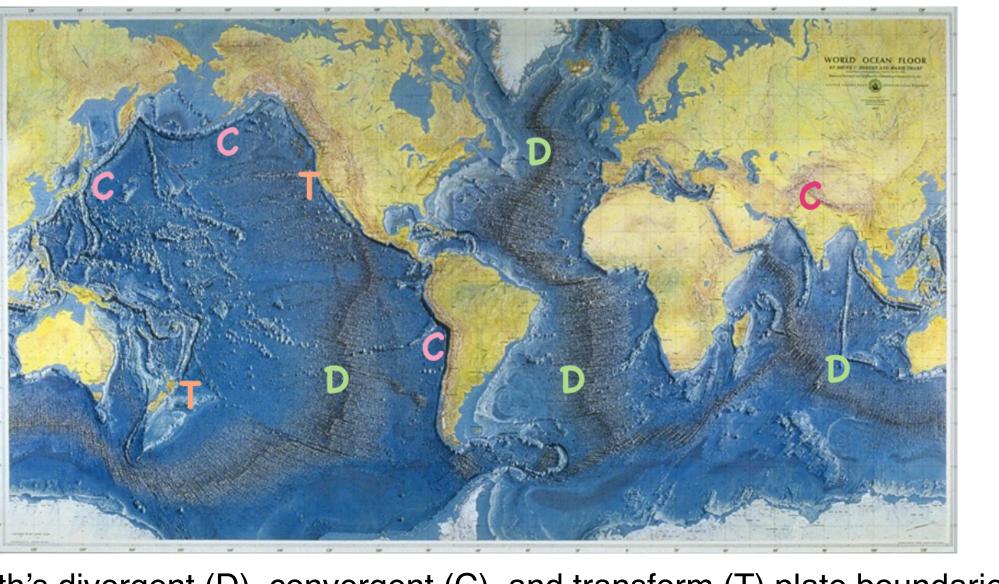


Tectonic Plates

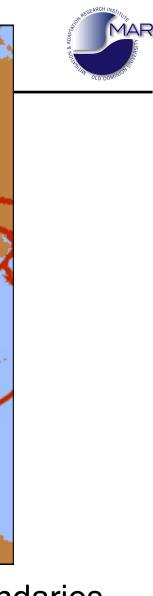
- The three main types of plate boundary are:
 - divergent, where plates move apart along mid-ocean spreading ridges;
 - 2. convergent, where one plate moves over the top of another;
 - 3. transform, where plates slide past one another.
- More complex boundaries combine different types.
- Relative to an Earth-fixed reference frame, they move with few exceptions with velocities of less than 10 cm/year.
- Relative velocities between neighboring plates can reach up to 25 cm/year.
- Over thousands to millions of years, the plates can accomplish a great deal of motion.
- The boundaries and relative movement vectors of the larger plates are well-defined.
- There are also dozens of micro-plates whose boundaries and relative motions are still the subject of research activity.
- Earthquakes and volcanic eruptions occur mainly because Earth's lithospheric plates are constantly in motion.



Earth's major tectonic plates and some of the smaller plates (boundaries outlined in red).



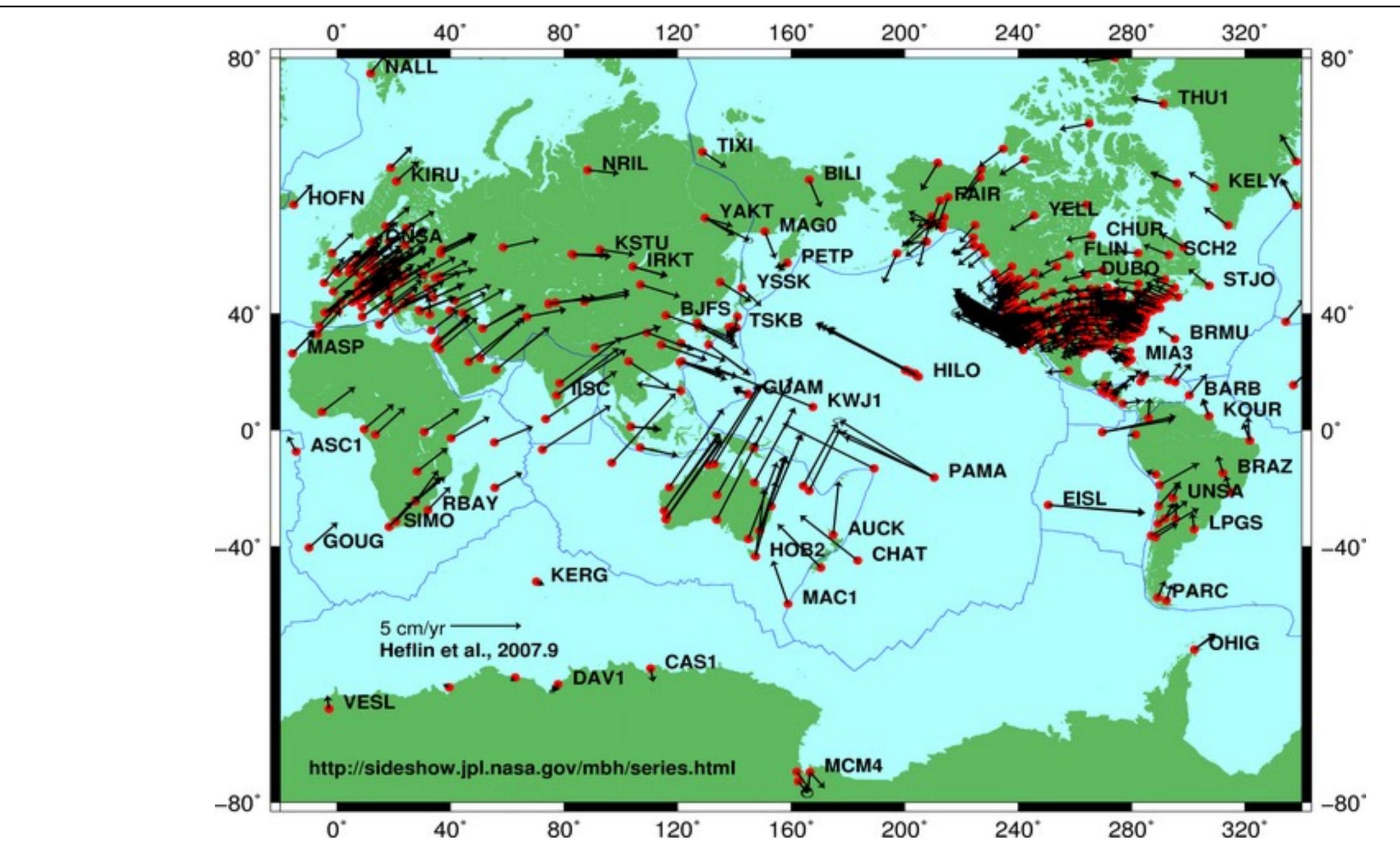
Earth's divergent (D), convergent (C), and transform (T) plate boundaries have a distinct appearance on an ocean floor elevation map. Not all plate boundaries are simple; a few have more complex D+T or C+T movement and some plate boundary regions, such as in the western Pacific, contain numerous micro-plates.







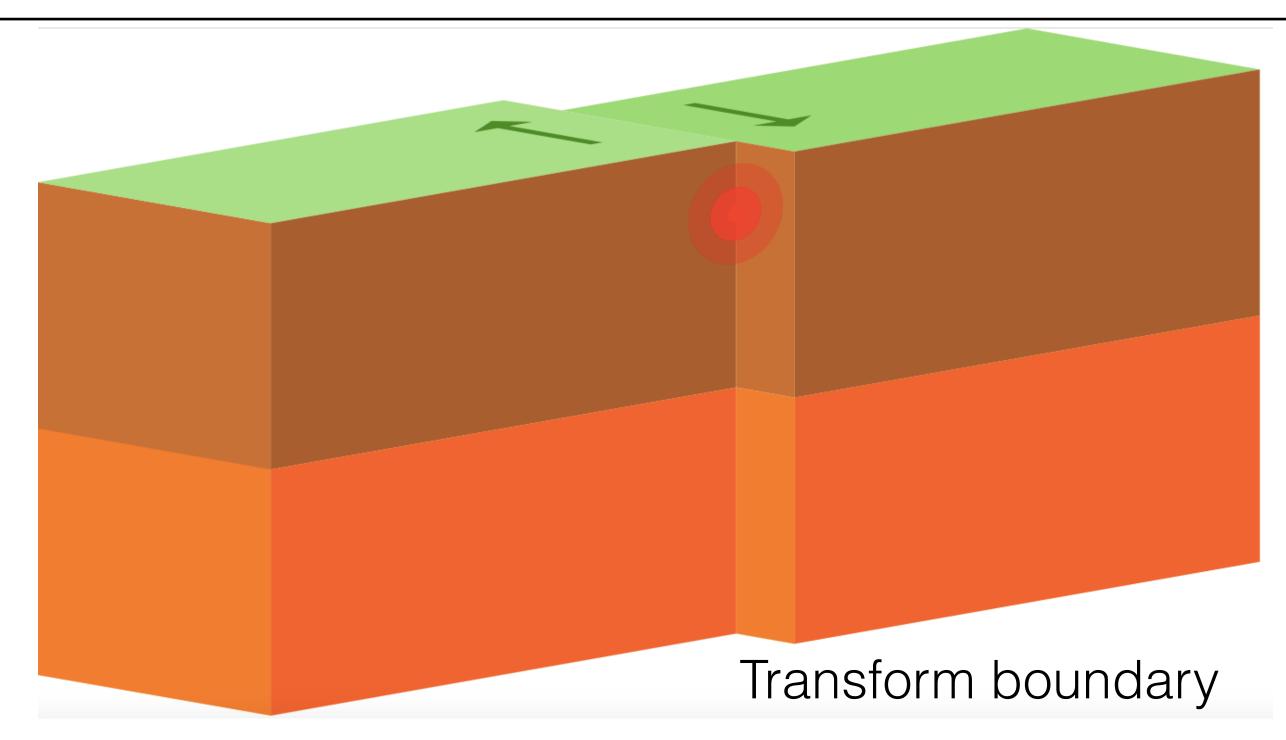






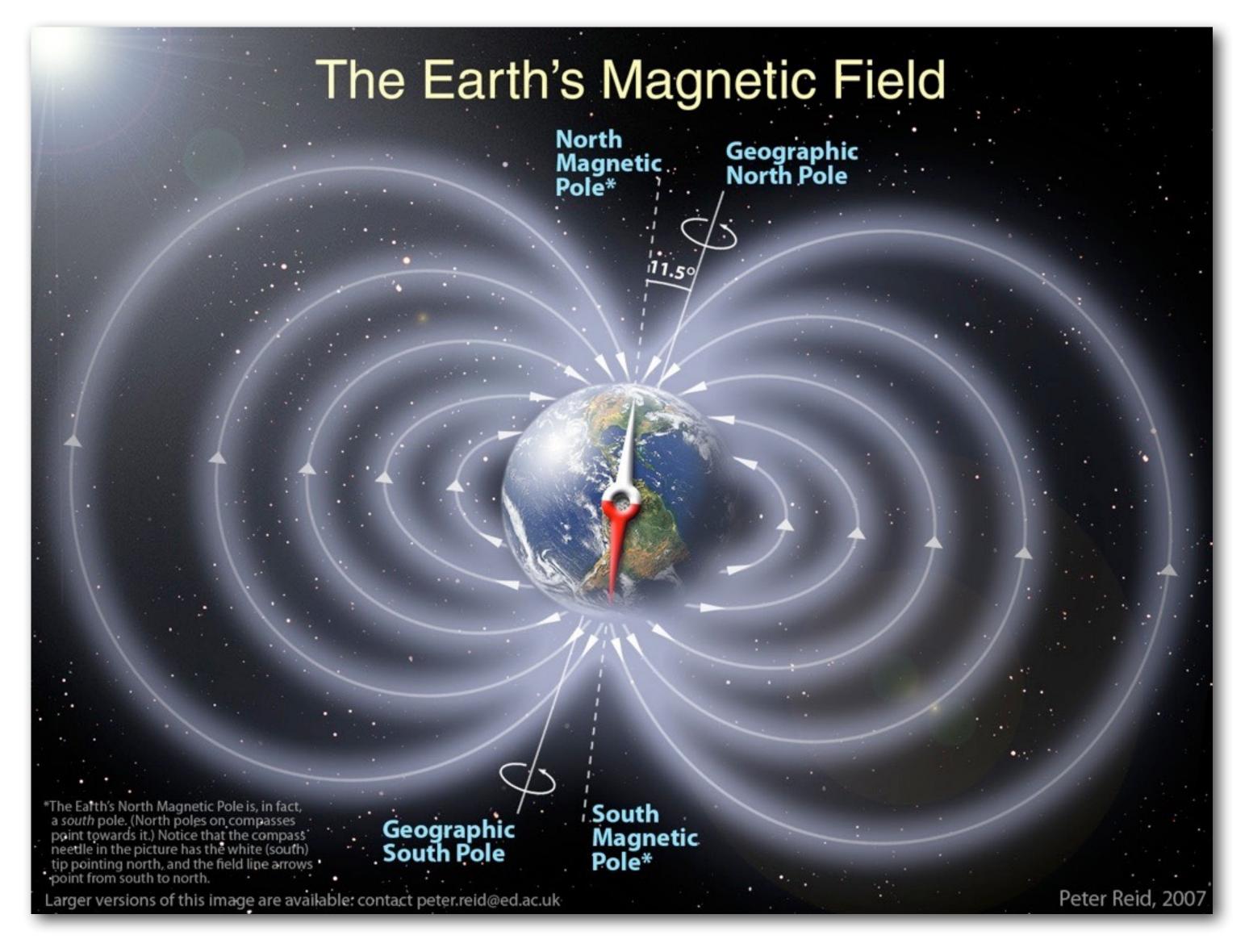
Divergent boundary

Convergent boundary

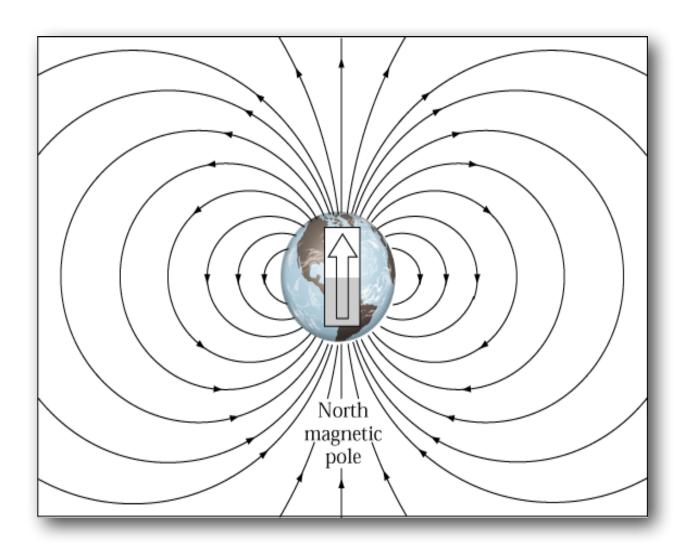


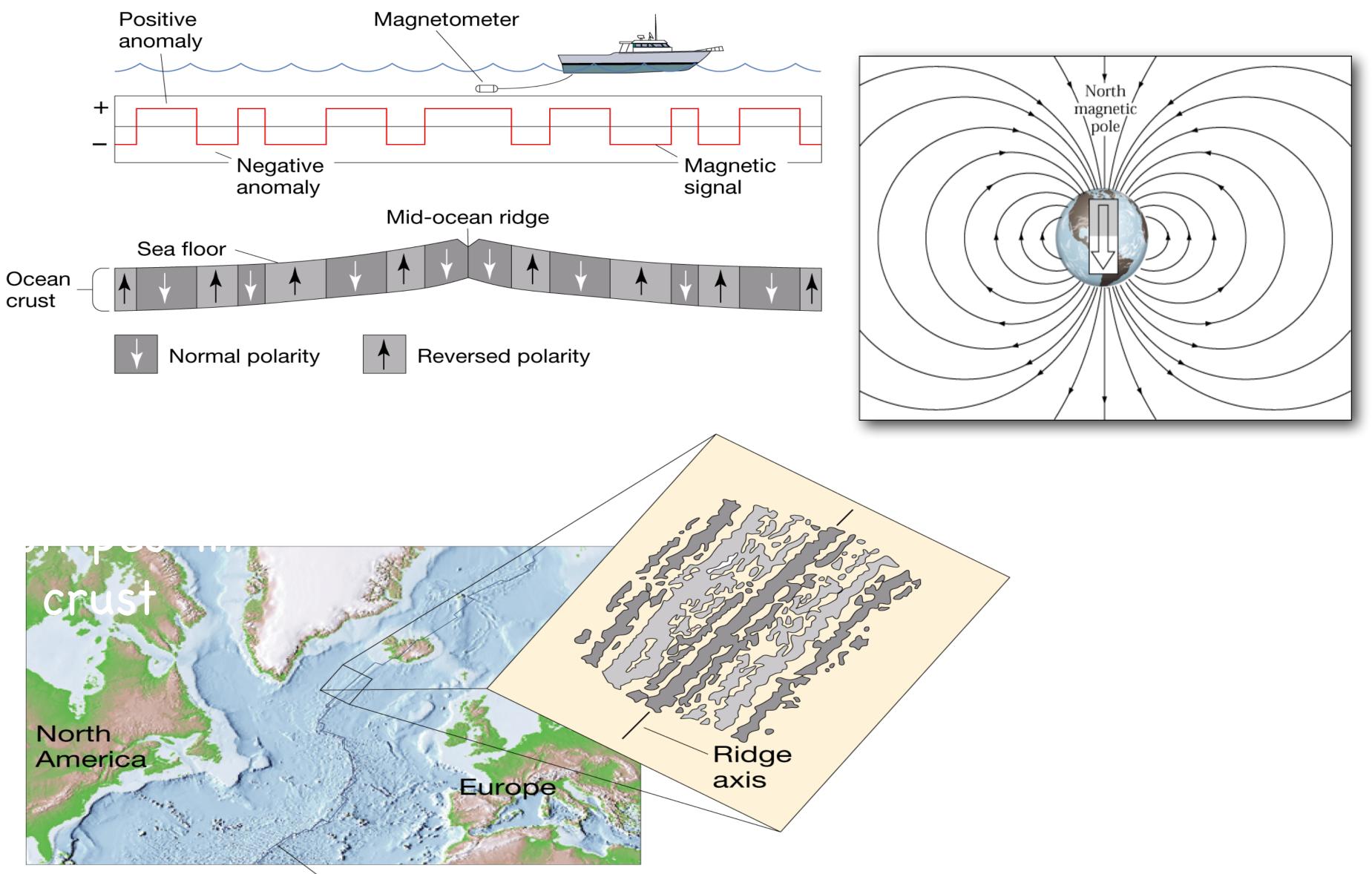


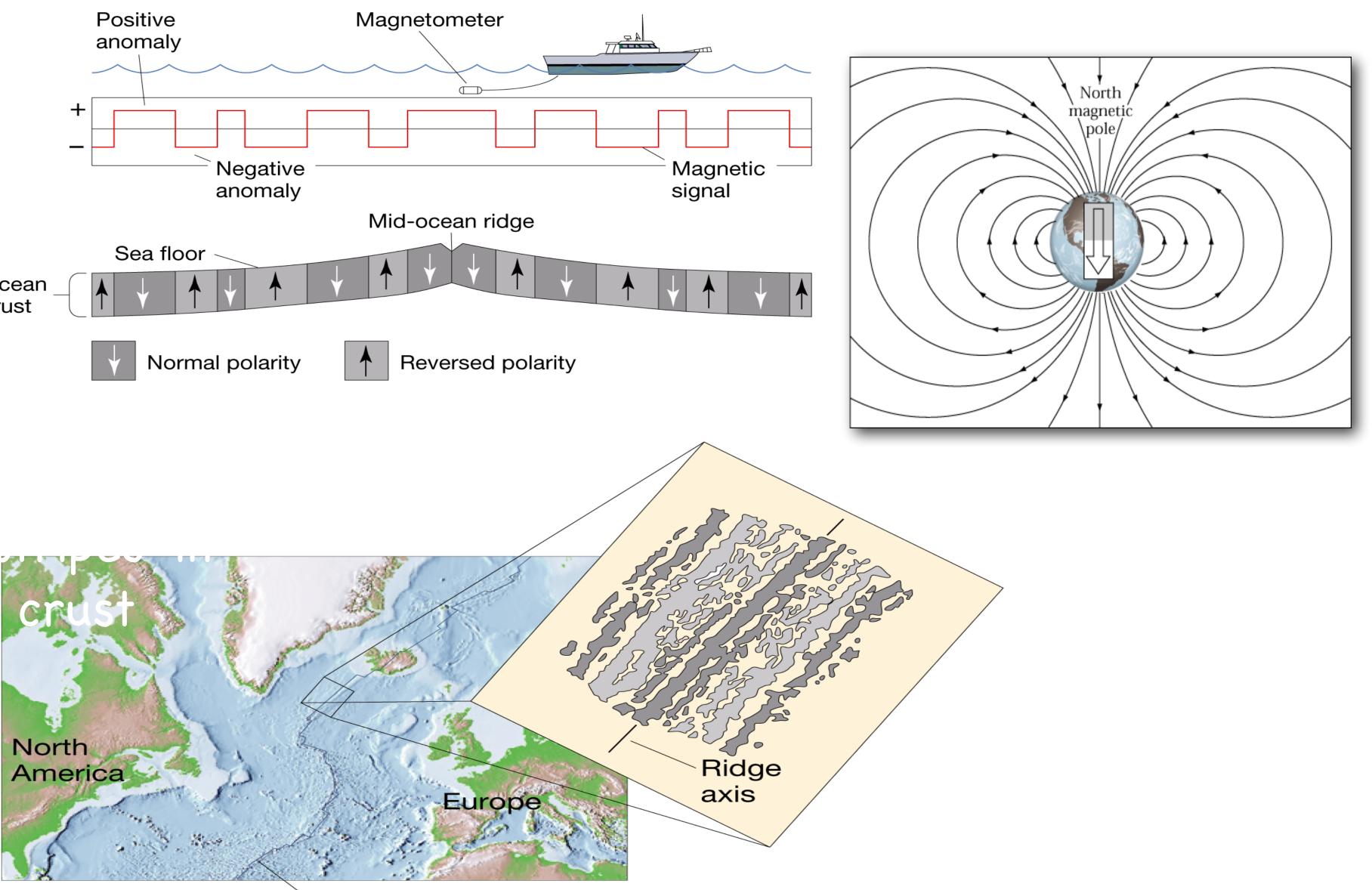
Note: rotation axis and magnetic field axis are not parallel









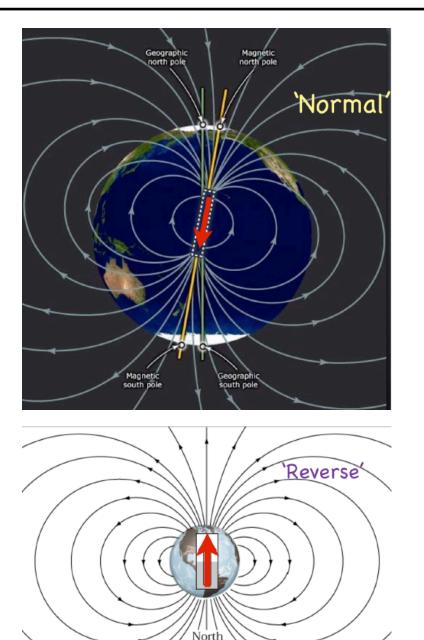


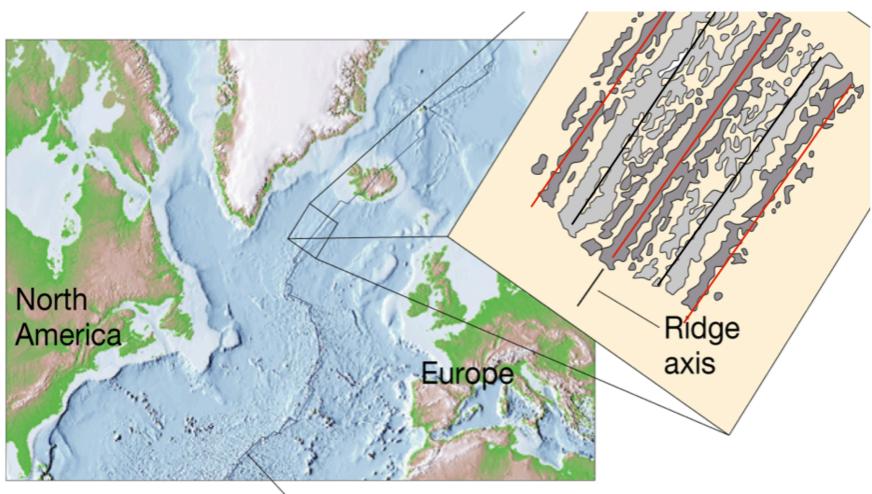
Mid Atlantic ridge



Divergent Plate Boundaries

- Divergent plate boundaries are where new lithosphere is created, along mid-ocean ridges. Hence the term 'sea floor spreading'.
- At mid-ocean ridges, hot, buoyant basaltic magma reaches the surface where it solidifies into basalt rock in undersea mountain ridges.
- As the magma cools, it reaches a temperature at which iron atoms in magnetic minerals such as magnetite lock their magnetic field into the same orientation as that of the Earth's magnetic field.
- Earth's magnetic field reverses direction about every 200,000 to 300,000 years.
- A ship-towed magnetometer that crosses a midocean ridge receives a signal of alternating normal and reverse polarity in the ocean floor rocks.
- These alternating patterns are consistent with a symmetrically increasing age of the rocks on either side of the mid-ocean ridges.

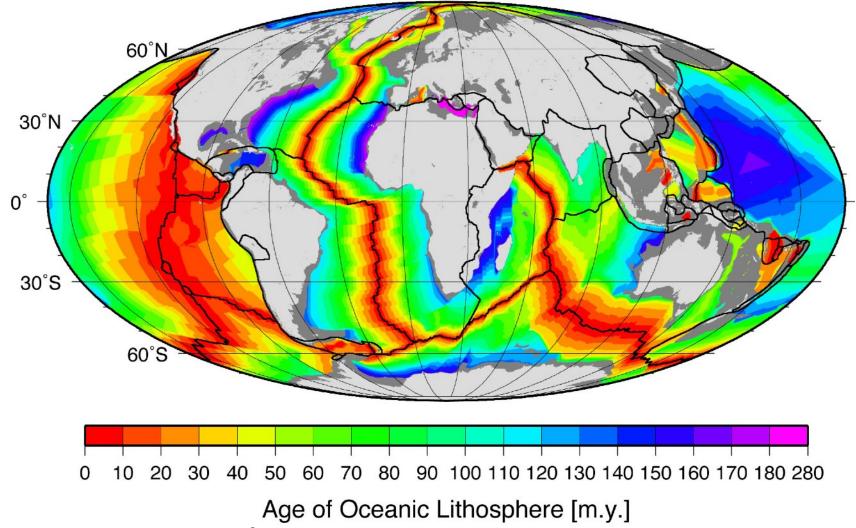




Mid Atlantic ridge

Magnetic 'stripes' of normal (red) and reversed (black) polarity in ocean floor basalts have a symmetrical pattern consistent with the rock ages on either side of the Mid Atlantic Ridge. Similar patterns are seen across most mid ocean ridges.

Earth's magnetic field polarity in normal (left) and reverse (right) orientation. Earth's field is more complex than is illustrated and has reversed polarity without any observable illeffects in the fossil record.



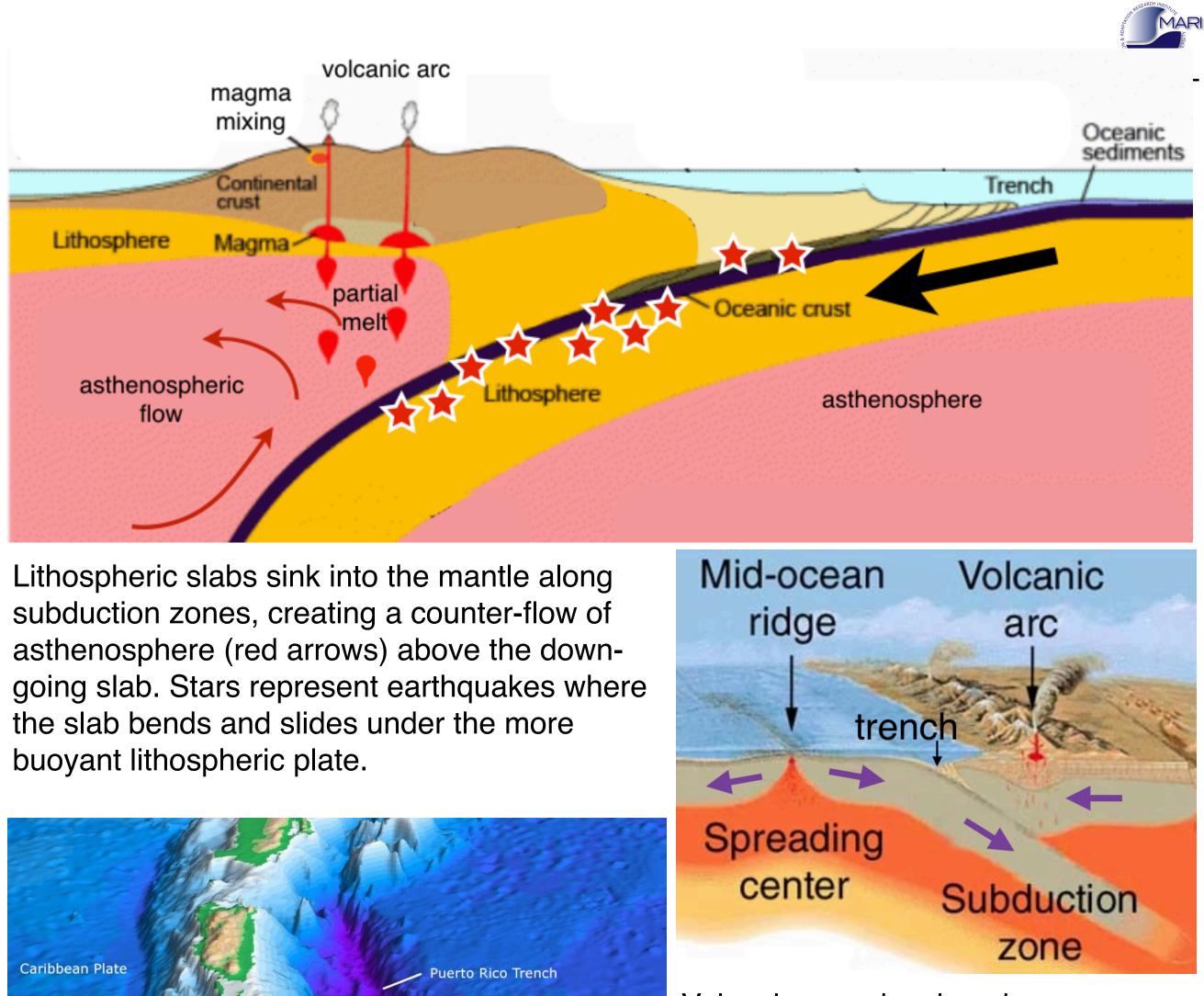
Age distribution of Earth's oceanic lithosphere, created at divergent plate boundaries.

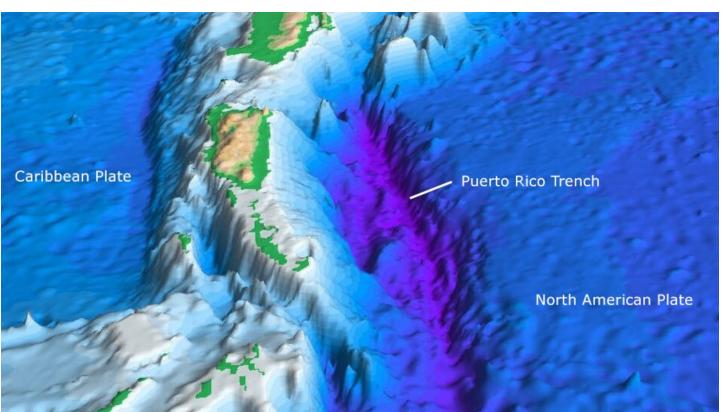


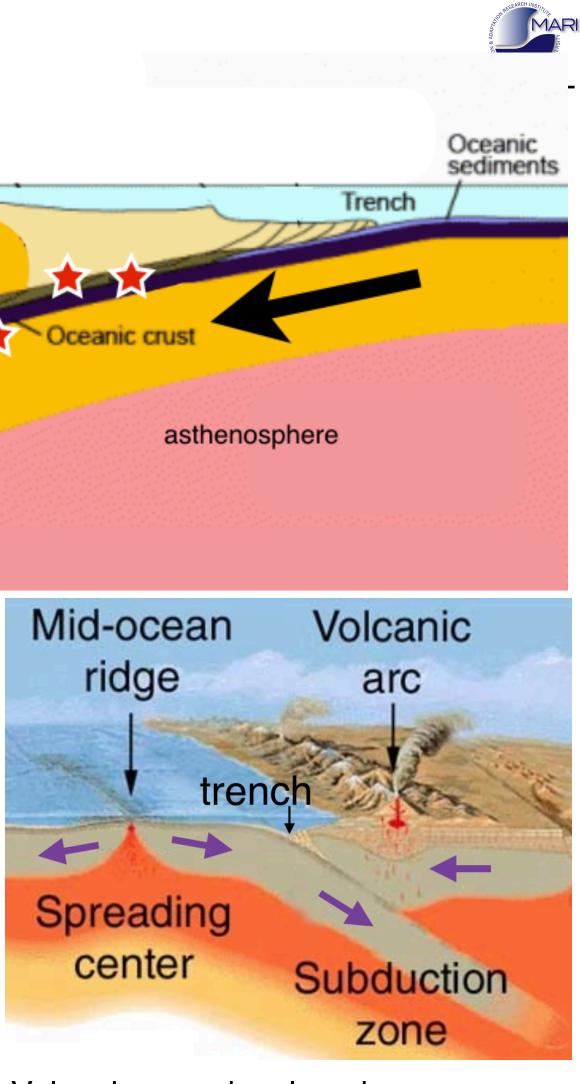


Convergent Plate Boundaries

- Cold, dense lithosphere is subducted into the mantle at convergent plate boundaries, while the mantle above partially melts to form volcanic arcs.
- As the cold lithosphere thickens with distance from the spreading ridge, gravitational forces eventually cause it to sink back into the mantle along subduction zones.
- Flexure of the sinking slab creates deep ocean trenches at surface, but neither the bending nor the descent of lithosphere into the mantle is smooth.
- Some of the deepest and largest earthquakes occur in, and just above, the down-going slab.
- Above the sinking slab, the lithosphere and asthenosphere are heated and partially melted by an upward counter-flow of mantle.
- The resulting magma rises and incorporates more crustal rock as they ascend, and the resulting silica-enriched magma erupts in volcanoes to form a volcanic arc.

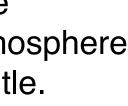




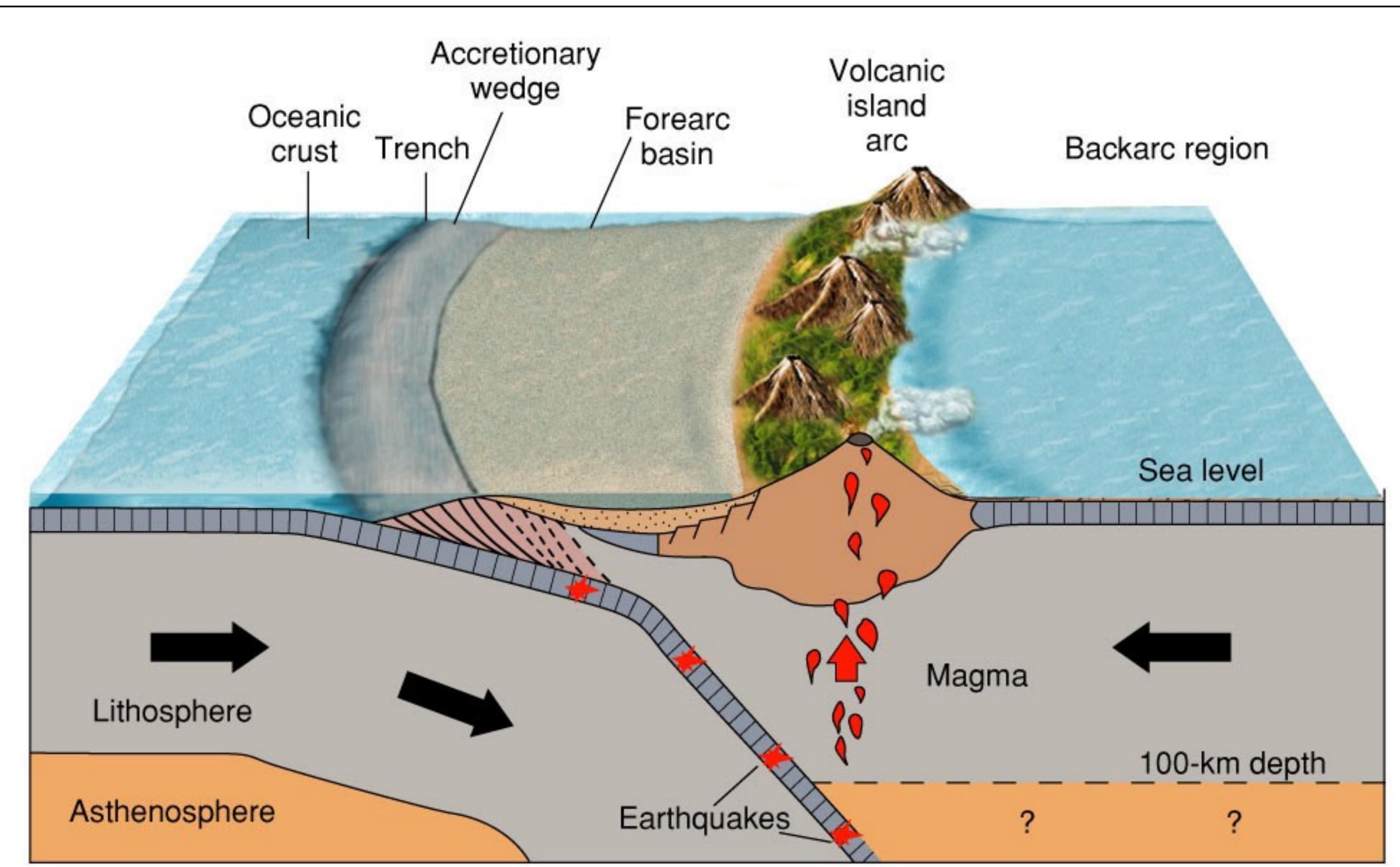


Volcanic arcs develop above subduction zones, where lithosphere descends back into the mantle. Graphic not to scale.

Topography of the Puerto Rico Trench (purple) and volcanic arc (brown) above the subduction zone where cold lithosphere of the North American Plate sinks beneath the Caribbean Plate. Ocean trenches often exceed depths of 6,000 m.



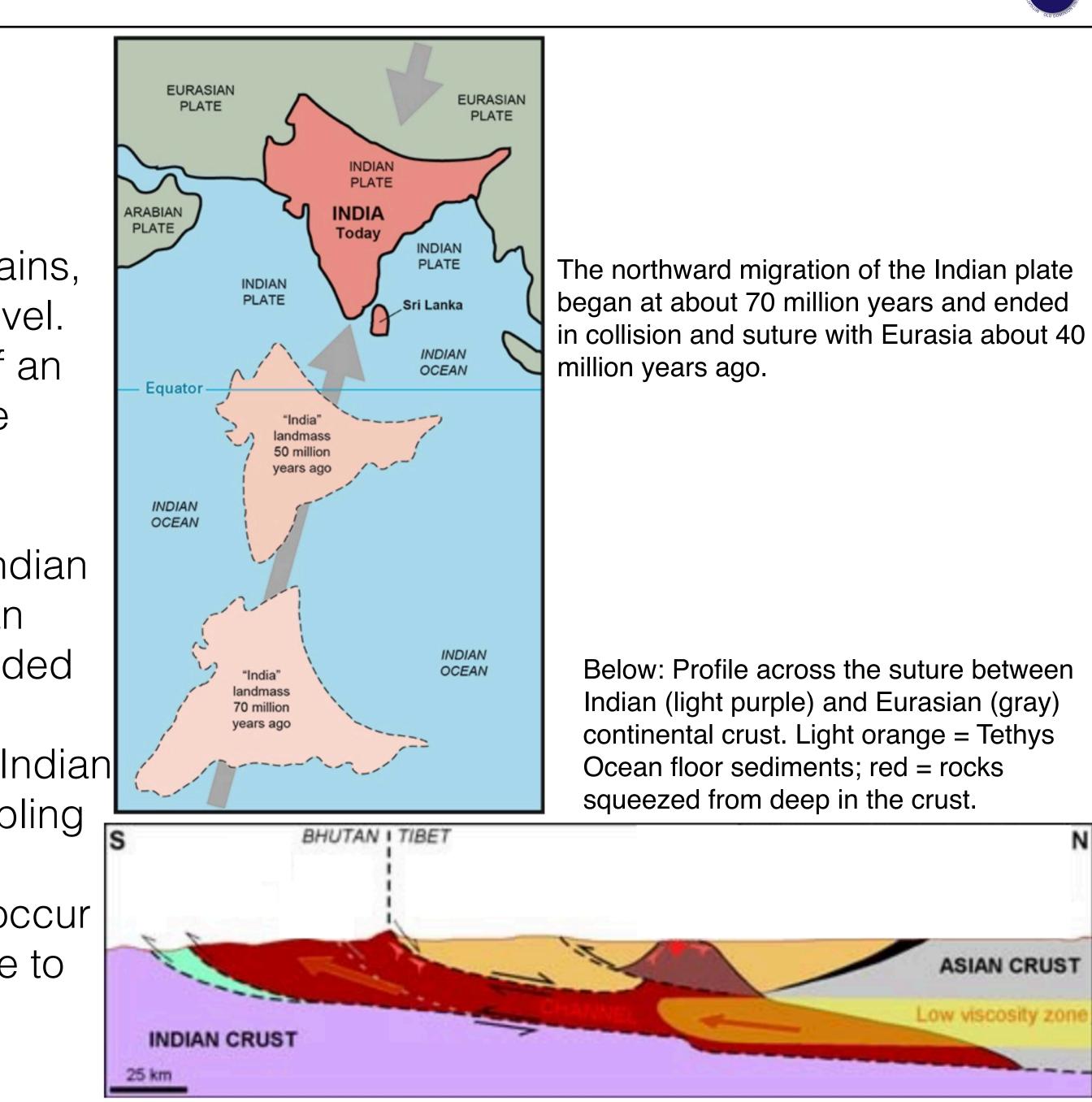






Continent-Continent Convergence

- When all of the oceanic lithosphere has been consumed in a subduction zone, the result is a convergence of continental lithosphere.
- The region of Tibet, north of the Himalayan Mountains, has an average elevation of 4,500 m above sea level.
- About 70 million years ago, oceanic lithosphere of an ocean called Tethys, on the northern margin of the Indian Plate, began to be subducted beneath the Eurasian Plate.
- By 40 million years ago, the convergence of the Indian and Eurasian plates had consumed all the Tethyian lithosphere, and the continental crust of India collided with that of Eurasia.
- The descending lithosphere continued to pull the Indian plate northward, under Eurasia, resulting in a doubling of the crust beneath Tibet.
- The many large earthquakes and landslides that occur in the Himalayas, Tibet, and far into China, are due to the continuing convergence along this continentcontinent plate boundary.

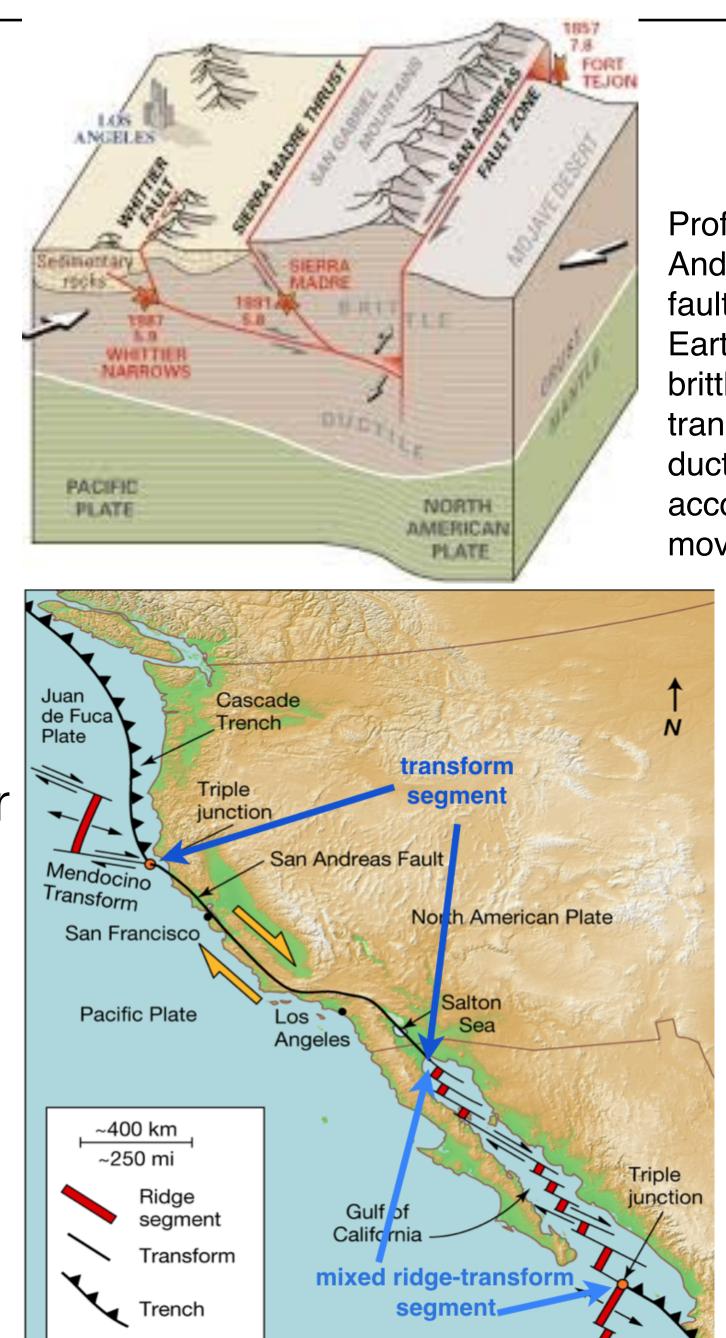






Transform Plate Boundaries

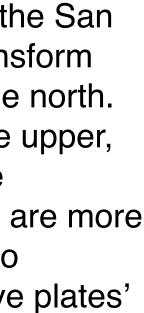
- At transform boundaries, the lithospheric plates slide jarringly past one another.
- Earth is spheroidal and therefore as its tectonic plates spread apart in some places and converge in others, some segments of their boundaries must slide past one another.
- This slip occurs on transform fault zones, such as along the San Andreas Fault zone in coastal California.
- Transform fault zones have a very steep to vertical orientation.
- The majority of large earthquakes on these faults occur in the most brittle, upper section of crust, at depths of 3 to 4 km.
- The many faults that comprise a transform fault zone are not perfectly planar and any one of them can get 'stuck' and be unable to slide – until stresses build to the point that the rocks rupture.
- When the fault finally slips, it releases its potential energy as an earthquake.



Profile and map view of the San Andreas and related transform faults system. View to the north. Earthquakes occur in the upper, brittle crust. Beneath the transform fault the rocks are more ductile and able to flow to accommodate the relative plates' movement.

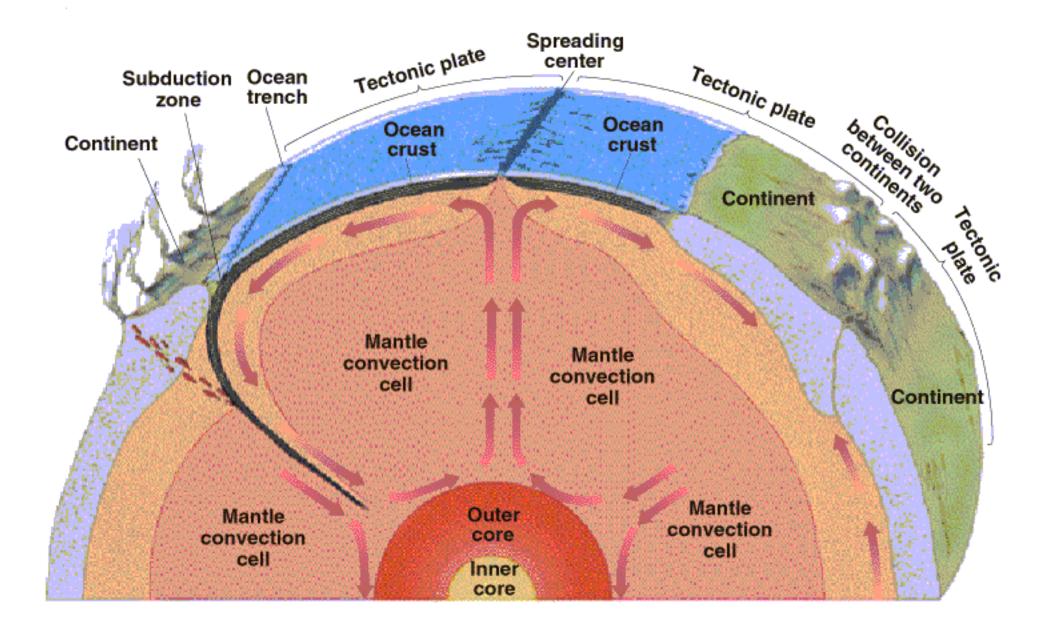
> Transform fault zone between the North American and Pacific tectonic plates.

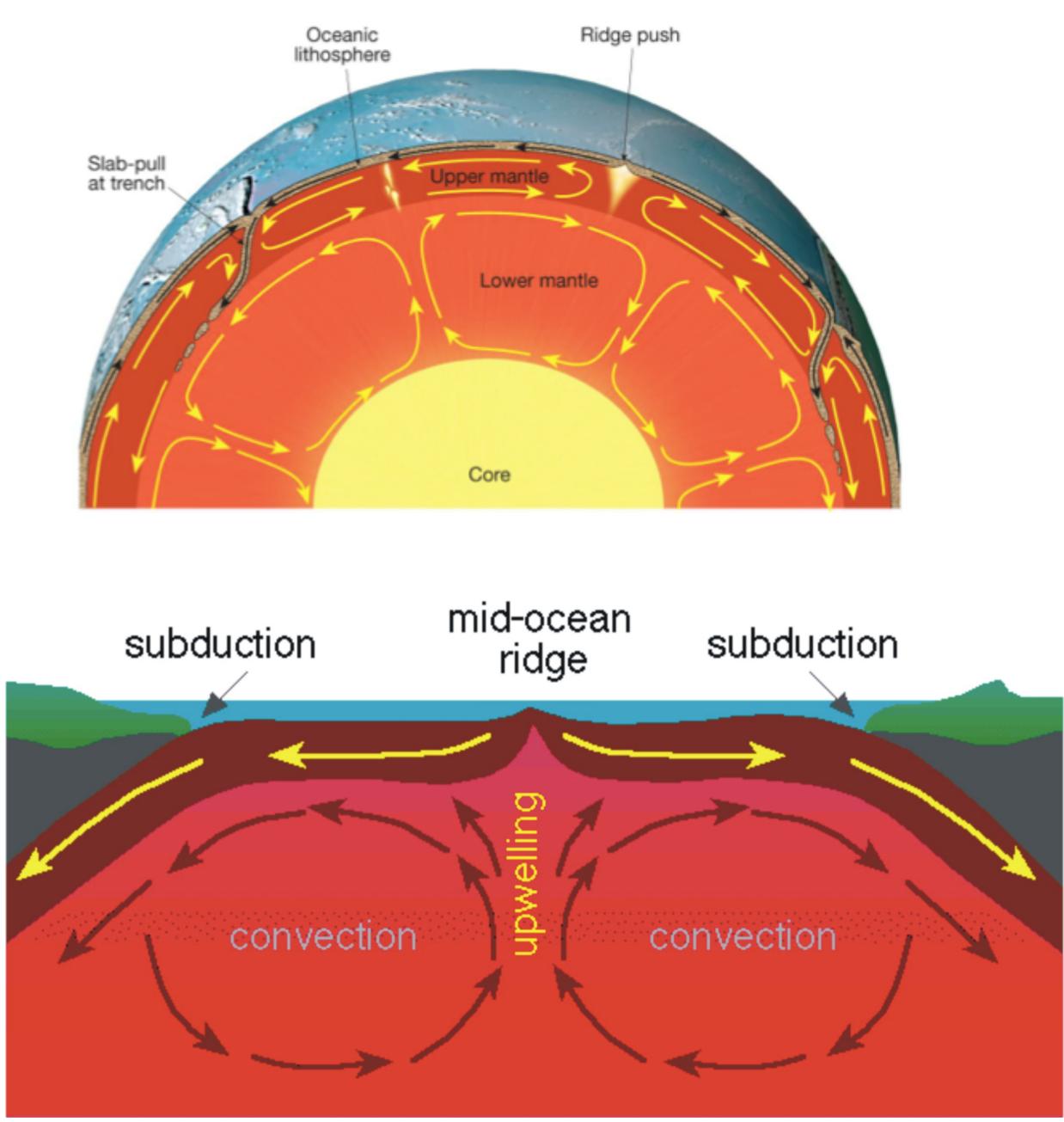






Mantle convection

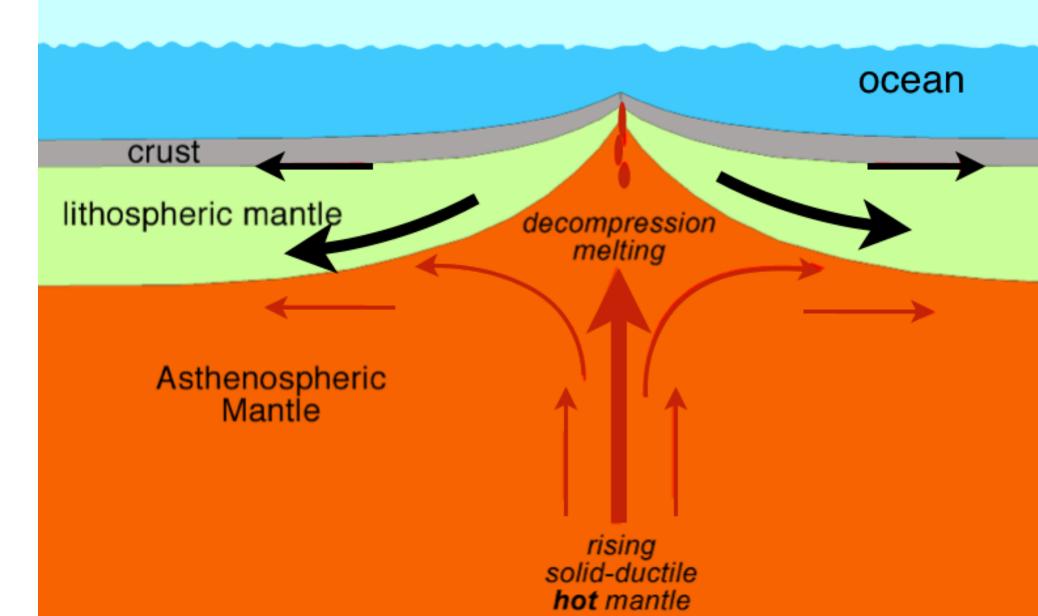


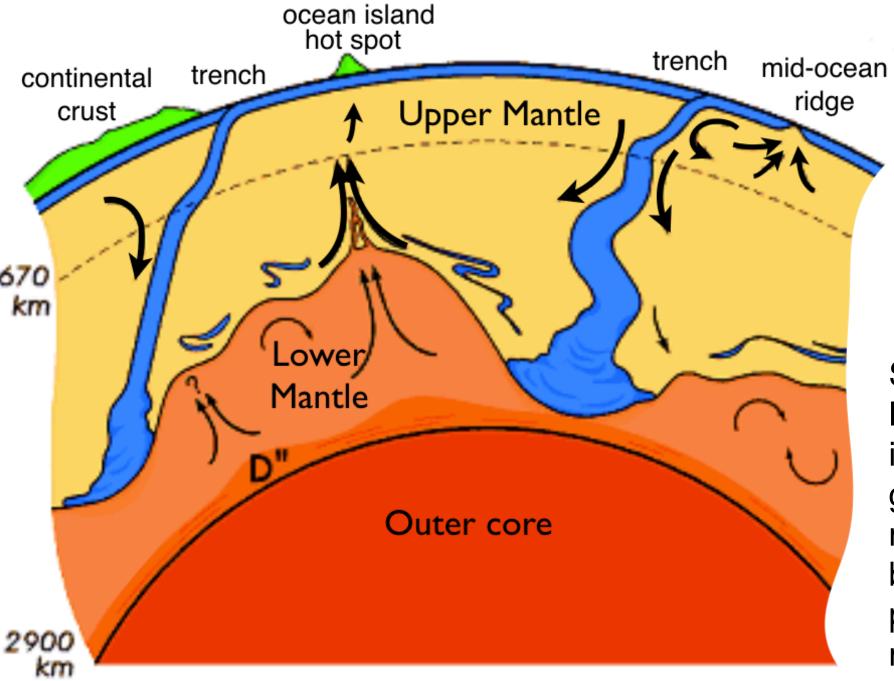




Tectonic Plate Motion

- Ridge push and slab pull are the two main driving forces for plate tectonics.
- The dense oceanic lithosphere sags slightly into the underlying asthenosphere under the influence of gravity. This down-and-outward motion of the lithosphere, called 'ridge push,' is a major driving mechanism for plate motion.
- An even more important mechanism for plate motion than ridge push is 'slab pull,' which is where cold, dense slabs of old oceanic lithosphere sink back into the mantle down subduction zones, again under the influence of gravity.
- The combination of ridge push and slab pull, together with other, lesser driving forces, creates a circulating flow of material within the mantle that carries the overlying lithospheric plates along.





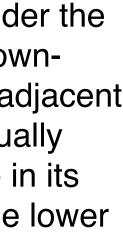
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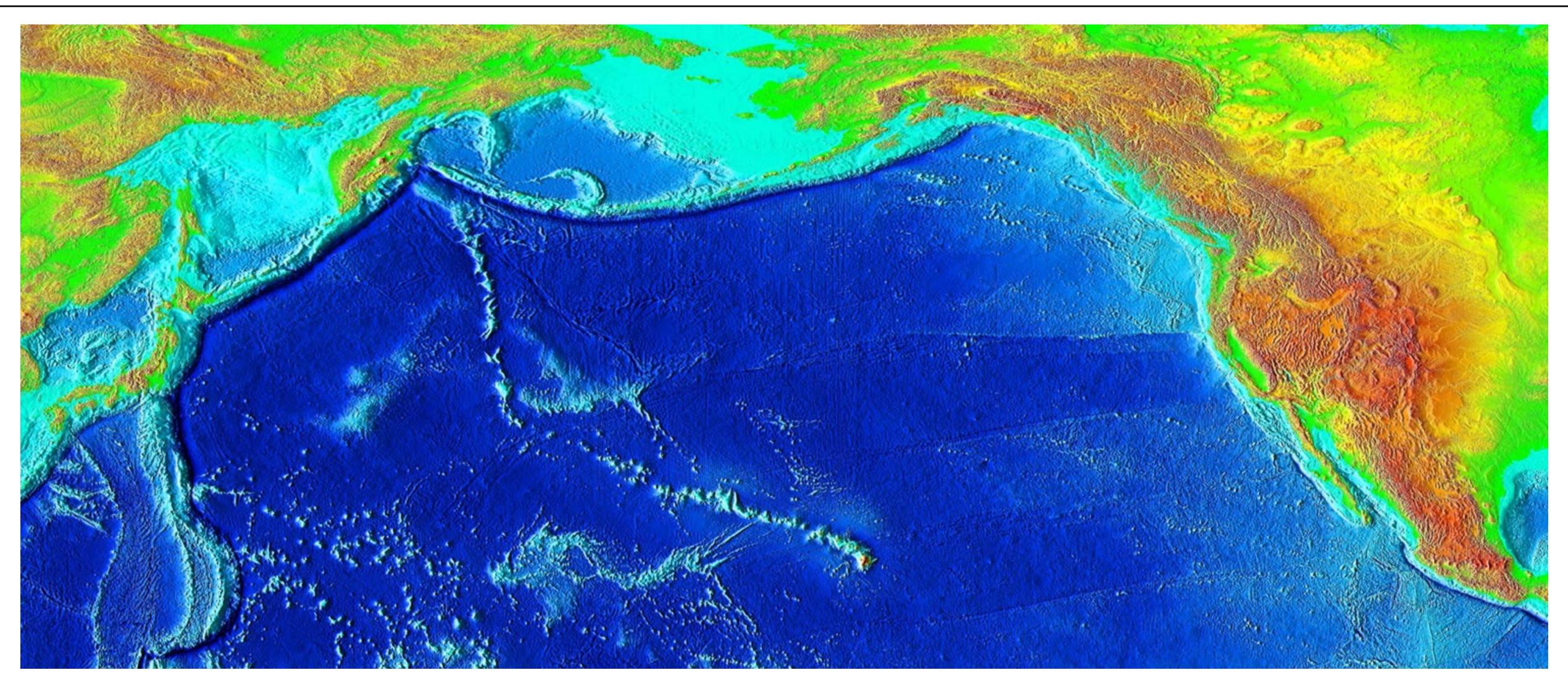
km

km

Formation of oceanic crust and lithosphere at a mid-ocean ridge. Heavy black arrows indicate the ridge-push effect that gravity imposes as the lithosphere cools, becomes more dense, and thickens.

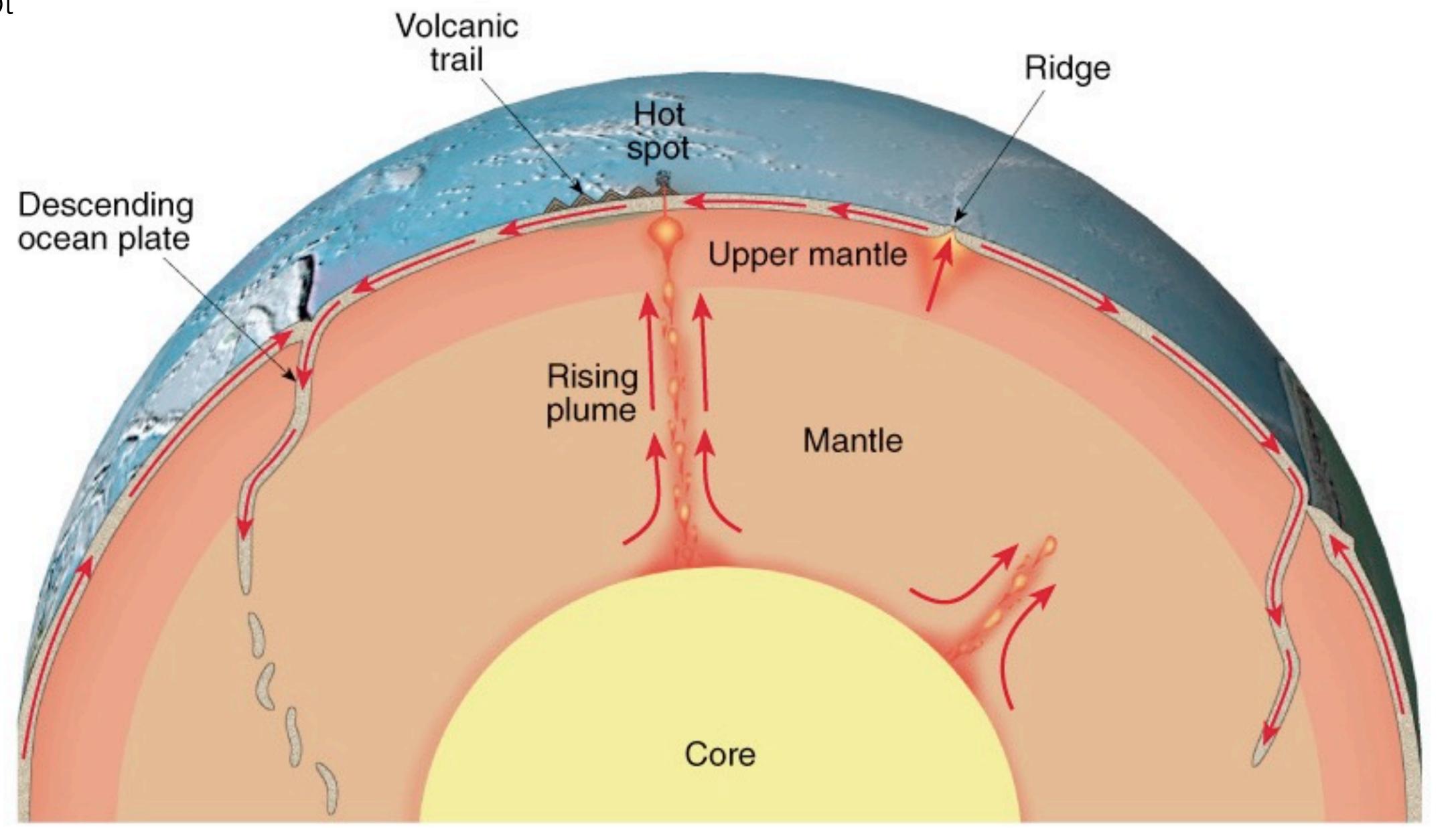
Subduction of cold, dense lithosphere slabs (blue) under the influence of gravity. The downgoing slab pulls along the adjacent mantle material and eventually becomes indistinguishable in its physical properties from the lower mantle.



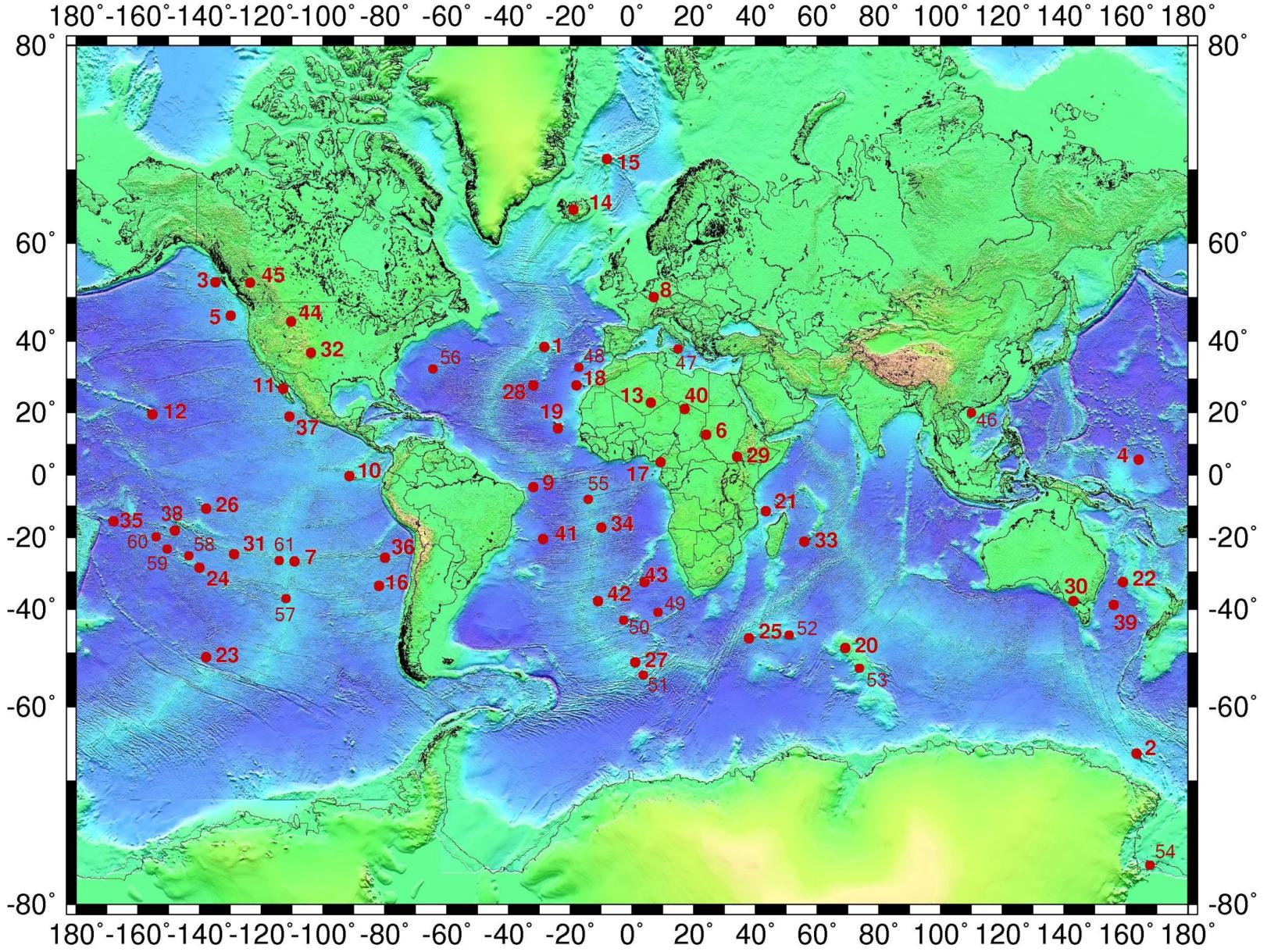




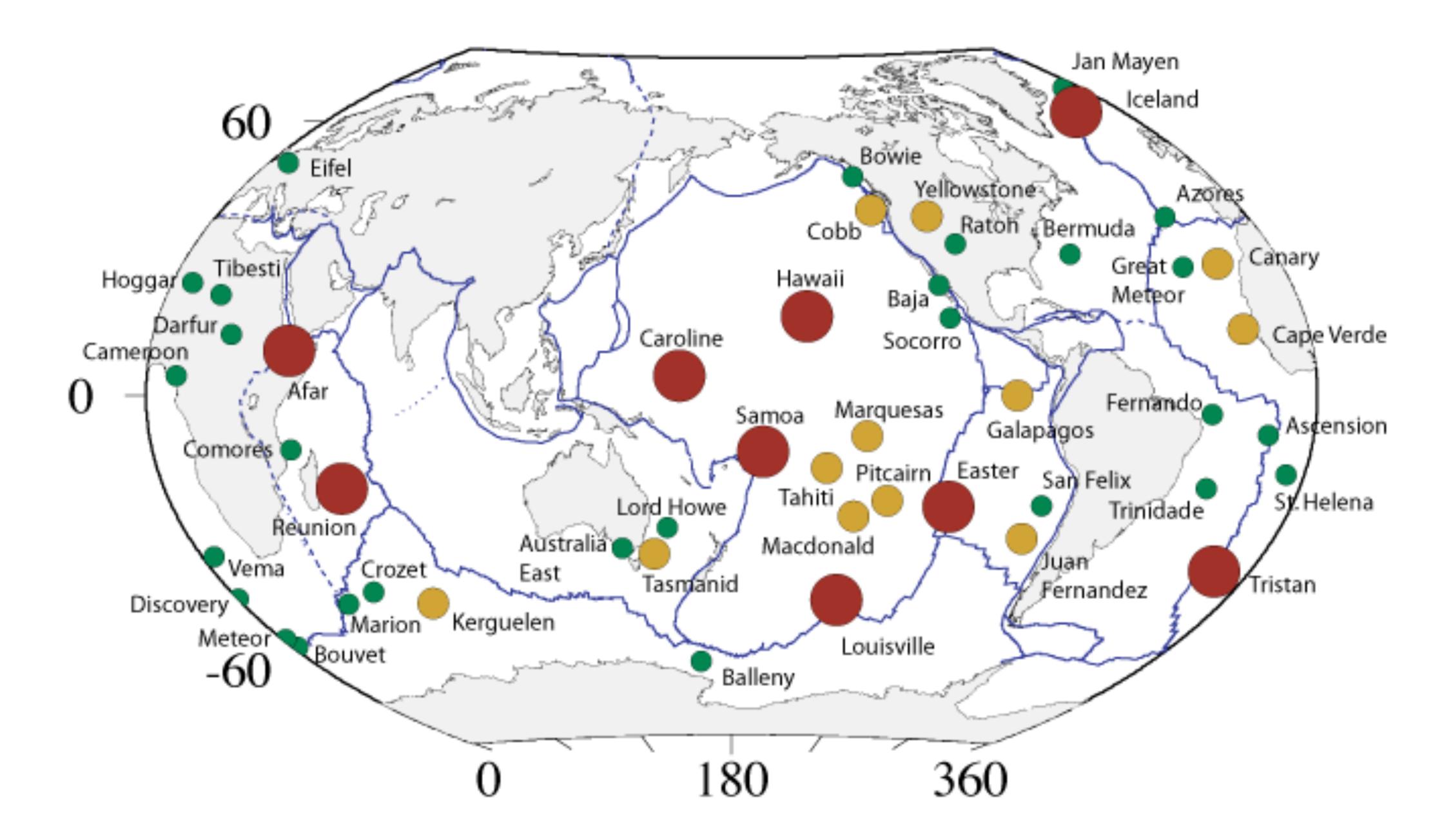
Hot spot



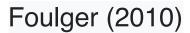




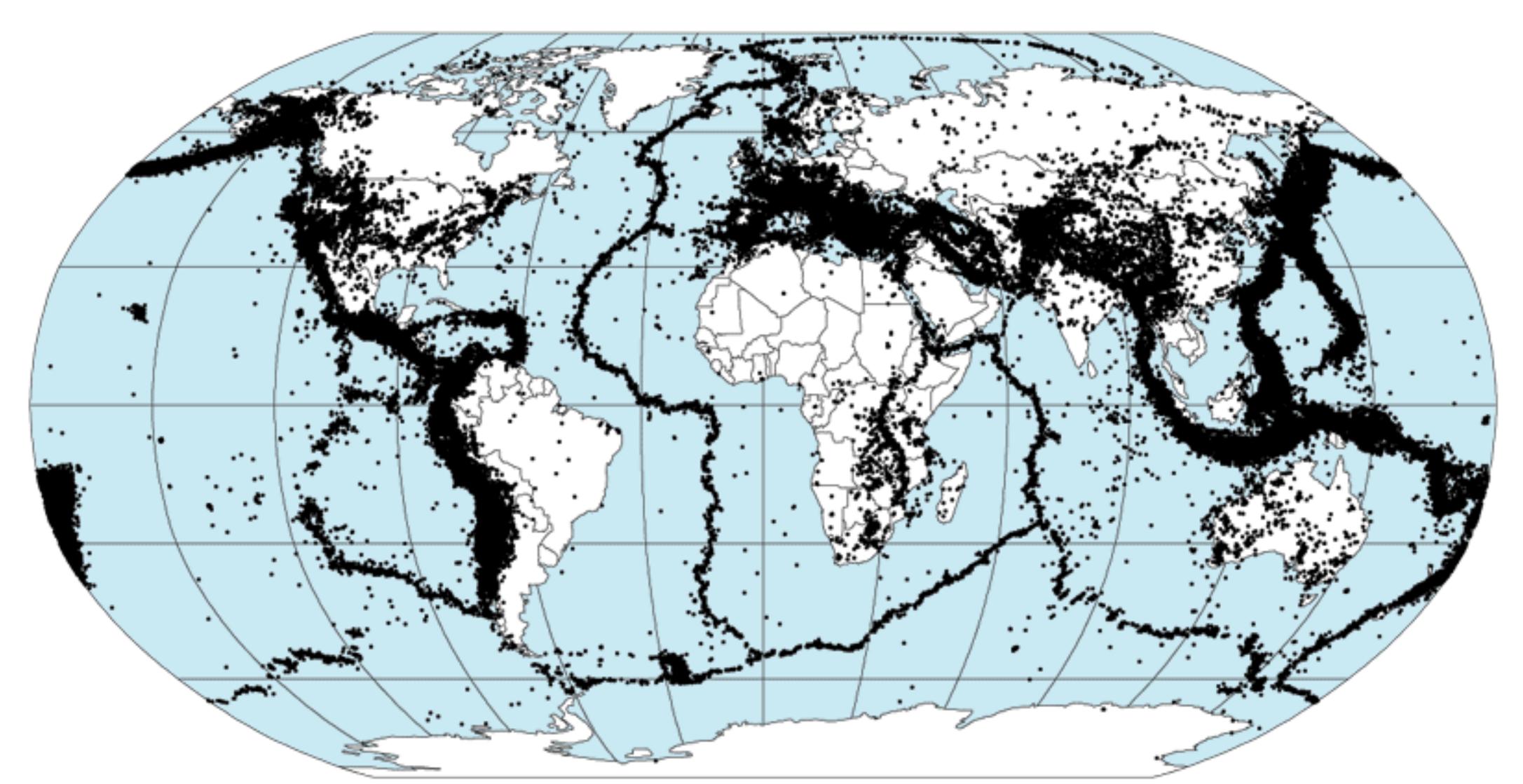




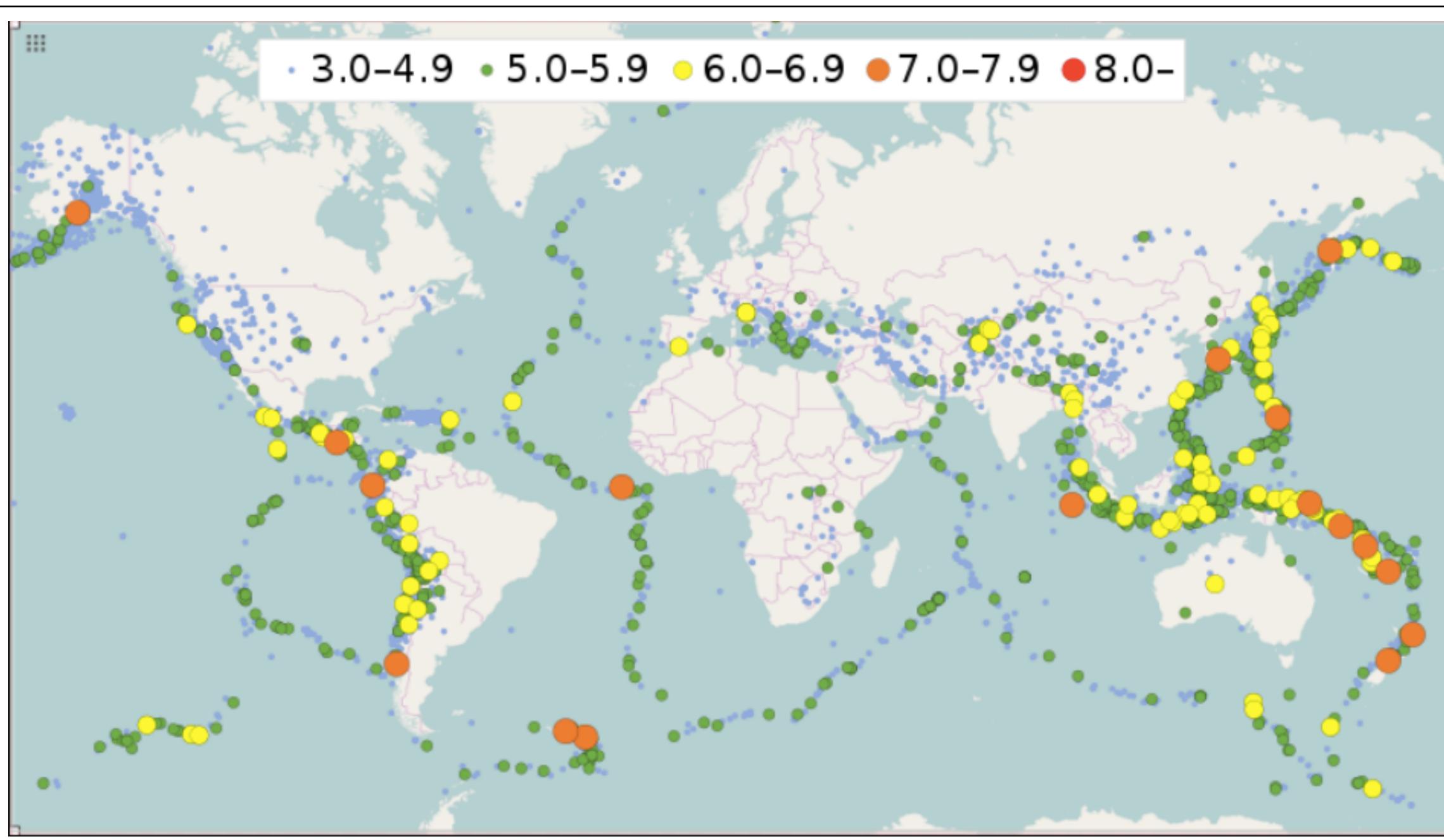




Preliminary Determination of Epicenters 358,214 Events, 1963 - 1998

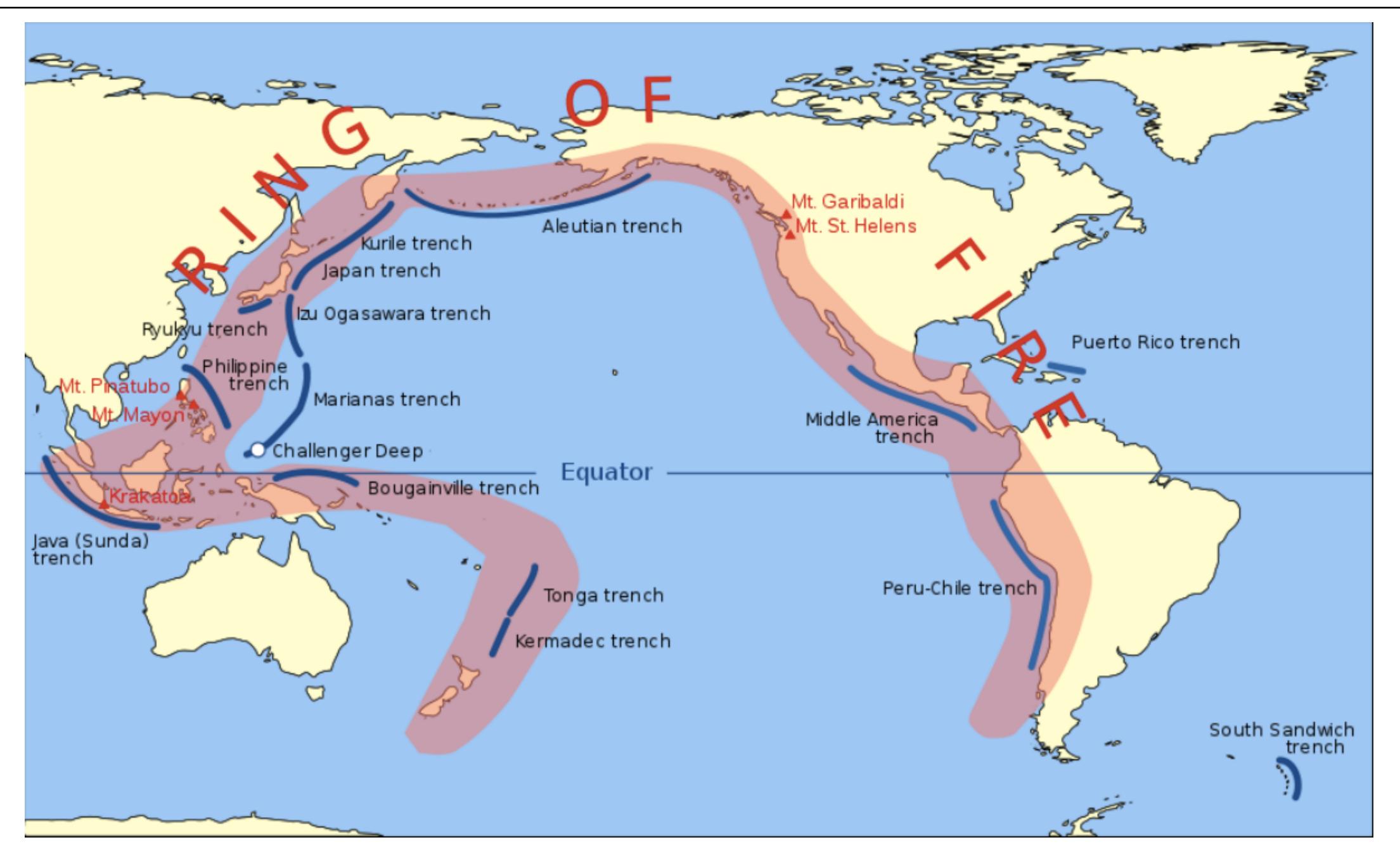




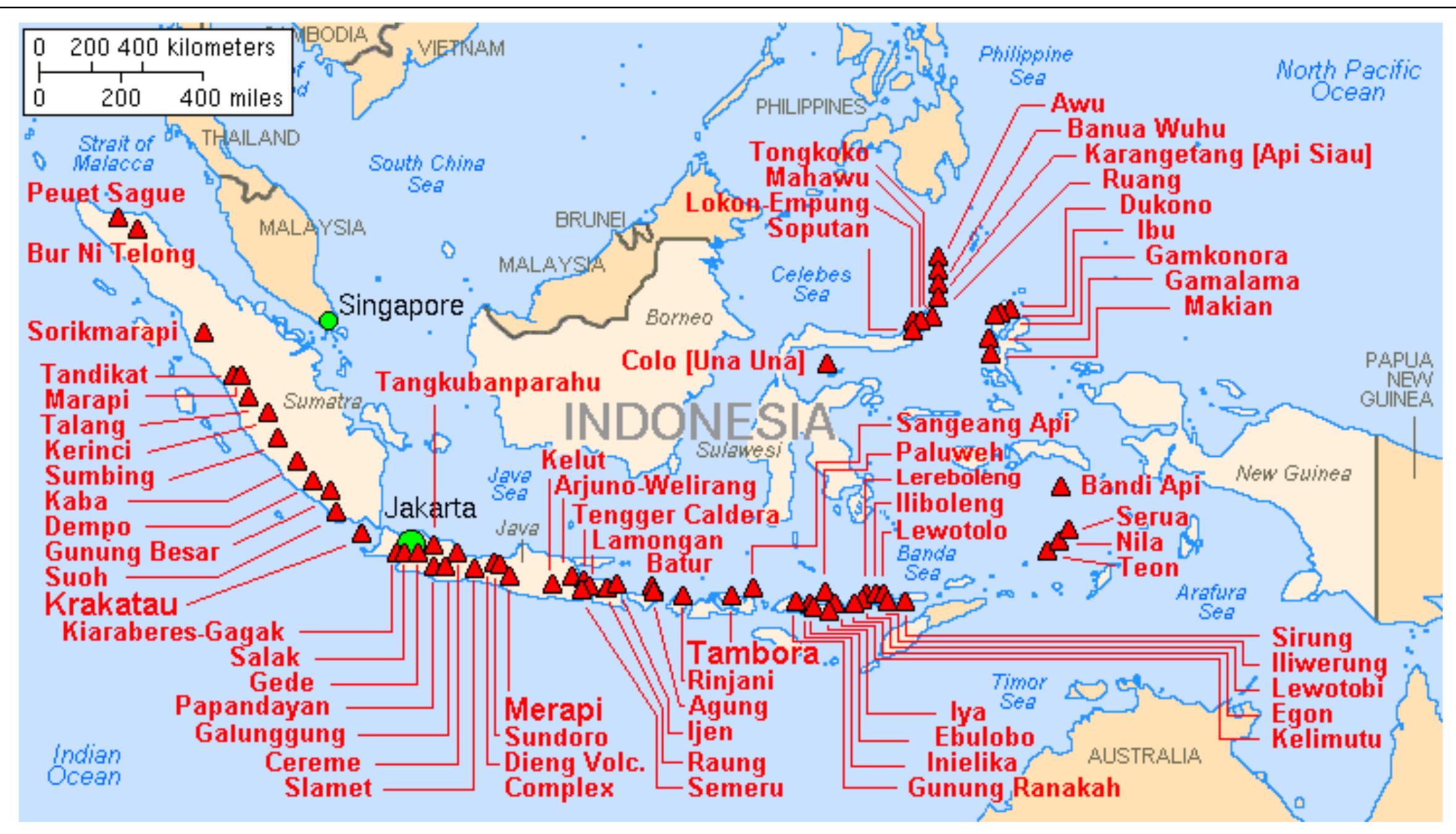














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Rockfall





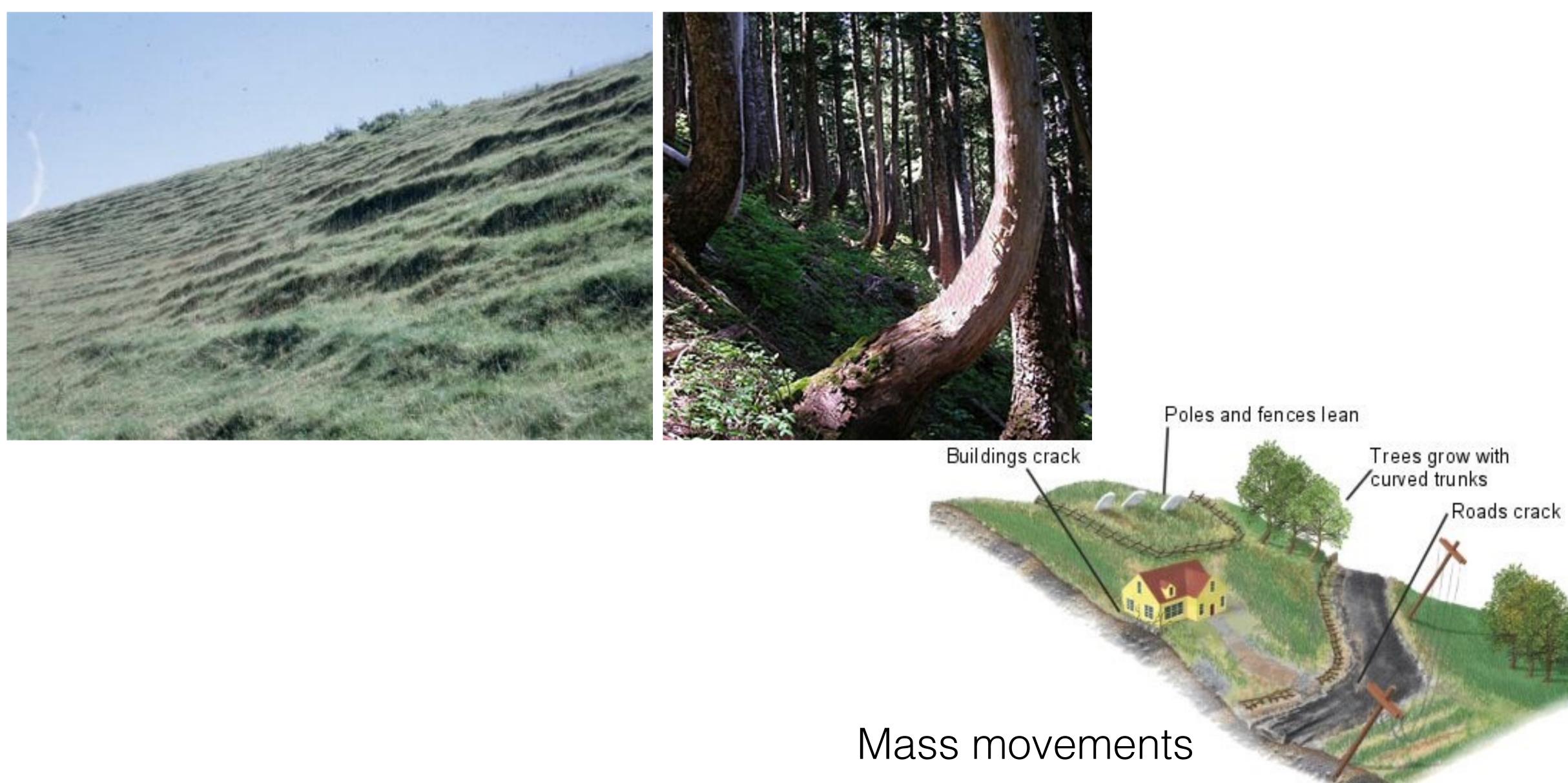
Landslide



Mudslide



soil creep









Sink holes



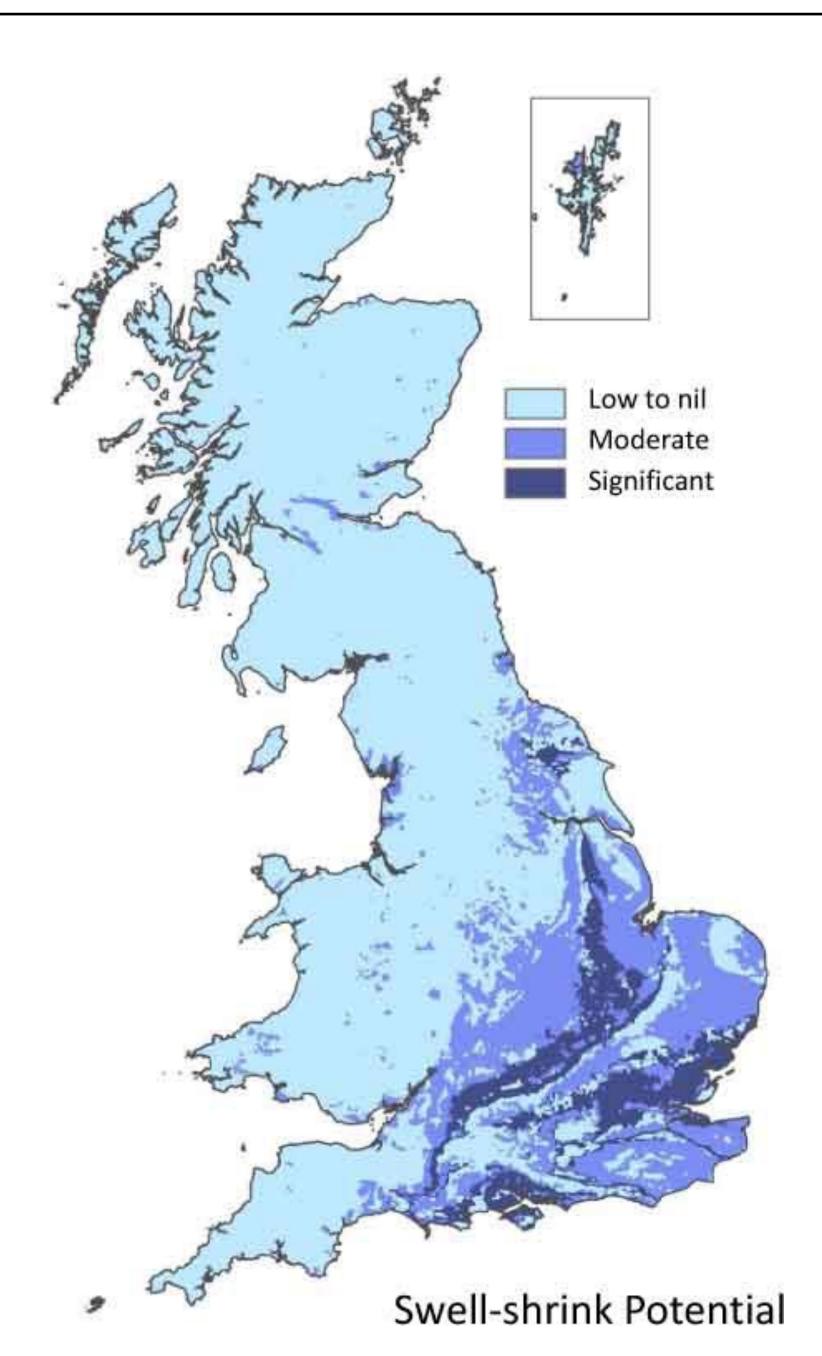




Shrink and swell clays

BGS GeoSure: shrink-swell

Shrinking and swelling of the ground (often reported as subsidence) is one of the most damaging geohazards in Britain today, costing the economy an estimated £3 billion over the past decade.





Ground liquefaction

- Soil liquefaction describes a phenomenon whereby a saturated or partially saturated soil substantially loses strength and stiffness.
- This takes place in response to an applied stress.
- Usually, the cause is earthquake shaking or other sudden change in stress condition, causing the soil to behave like a liquid.







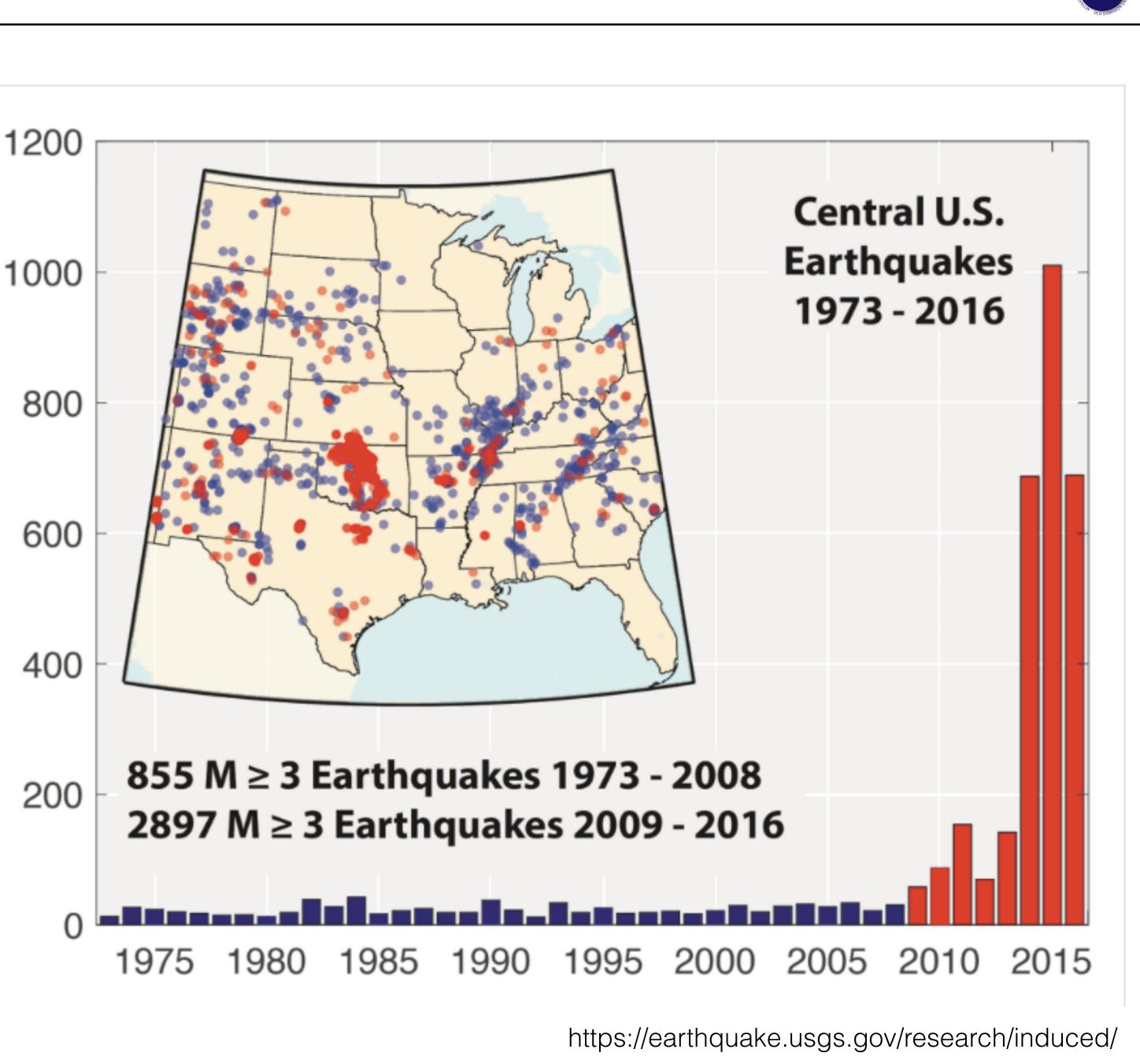
Induced Seismicity

Seismicity can be induced by:

- loading (reservoirs)
- deloading (groundwater)
- injection
- extraction
- hydraulic fracturing (fracking)
- Between the years 1973–2008, there was an average of 21 earthquakes of magnitude three and larger in the central and eastern United States.
- This rate has ballooned to over 600. M3+ earthquakes in 2014 and over 1000 in 2015.

See <u>https://earthquake.usgs.gov/</u> <u>research/induced/edge.php</u> for more detail on injection-induced seismicity

1000 Earthquakes 800 M3+ 600 of 400 Number 200



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Natural Hazards and Disaster

Class 4: Geohazards; Earthquakes Location Causes Magnitude Ground shaking **Recurrence** intervals Hazard maps





Earthquakes



Earthquake Hazards Program

≊USGS

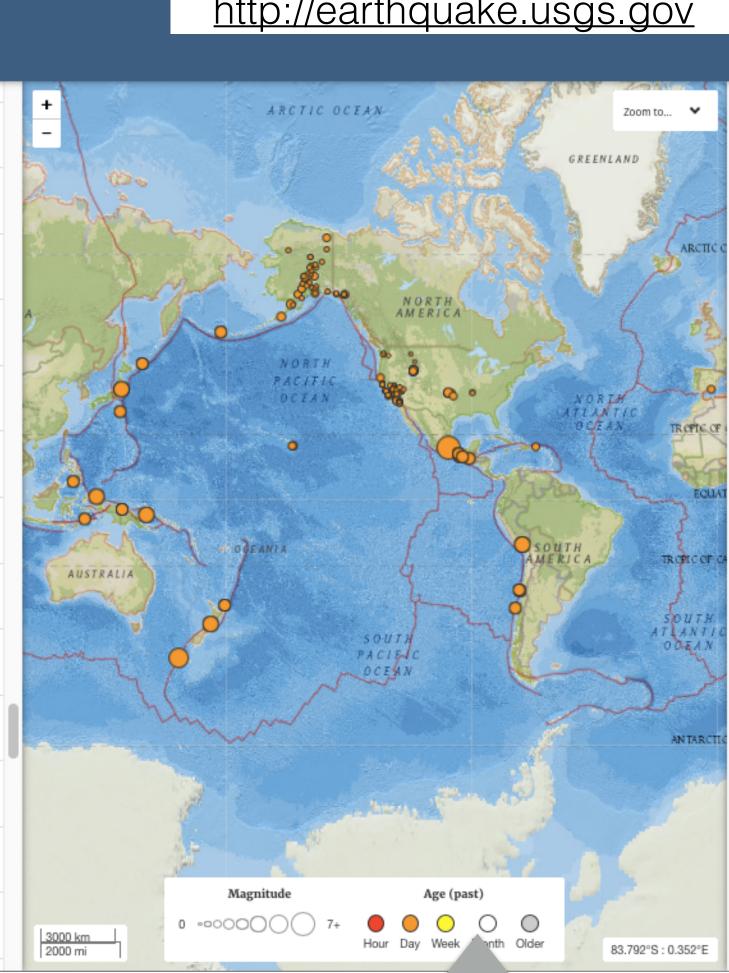


Mr. Antom Monana

≊USGS

2.8	21km SSW of Big Pine, Calife	
2.0	2017-09-19 18:34:32 (UTC)	8.6 km
3.2	16km NE of Little Lake, CA	
5.2	2017-09-19 18:34:13 (UTC)	1.6 km
1.4	5km NW of Santa Margarita,	
1.1	2017-09-19 18:14:44 (UTC)	3.5 km
4.6	64km NW of Lebu, Chile	
4.0	2017-09-19 18:14:41 (UTC)	8.7 km
7.1	5km ENE of Raboso, Mexic	
	2017-09-19 18:14:39 (UTC)	51.0 km
0.7	15km NE of Little Lake, CA	
0.1	2017-09-19 18:09:32 (UTC)	1.9 km
0.0	6km SSW of Mammoth Lake	
0.0	2017-09-19 18:05:29 (UTC)	1.7 km
1.7	23km NNW of Kobuk, Alaska	3
1.1	2017-09-19 18:02:13 (UTC)	3.2 km
0.9	16km NE of Little Lake, CA	
0.5	2017-09-19 18:01:36 (UTC)	1.7 km
1.5	18km NNE of Coso Junction	, CA
1.5	2017-09-19 18:00:53 (UTC)	2.2 km
1.4	16km NE of Little Lake, CA	
1.4	2017-09-19 17:58:52 (UTC)	1.6 km
1.7	5km SSW of Lilbourn, Misso	uri
1.7	2017-09-19 17:56:23 (UTC)	7.5 km
	138km W of Illapel, Chile	
4.5	2017-09-19 17:50:46 (UTC)	29.8 km

http://earthquake.usgs.gov



Last month

24 hours

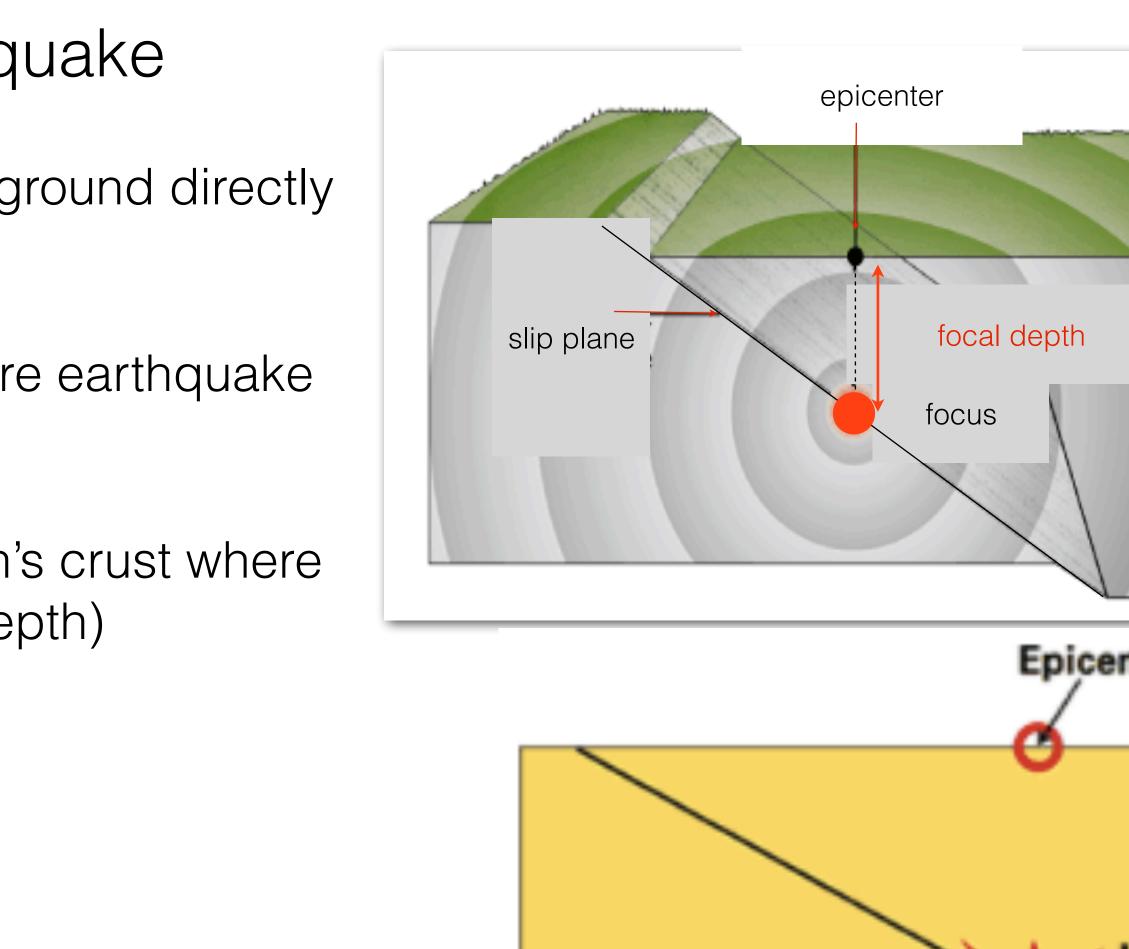


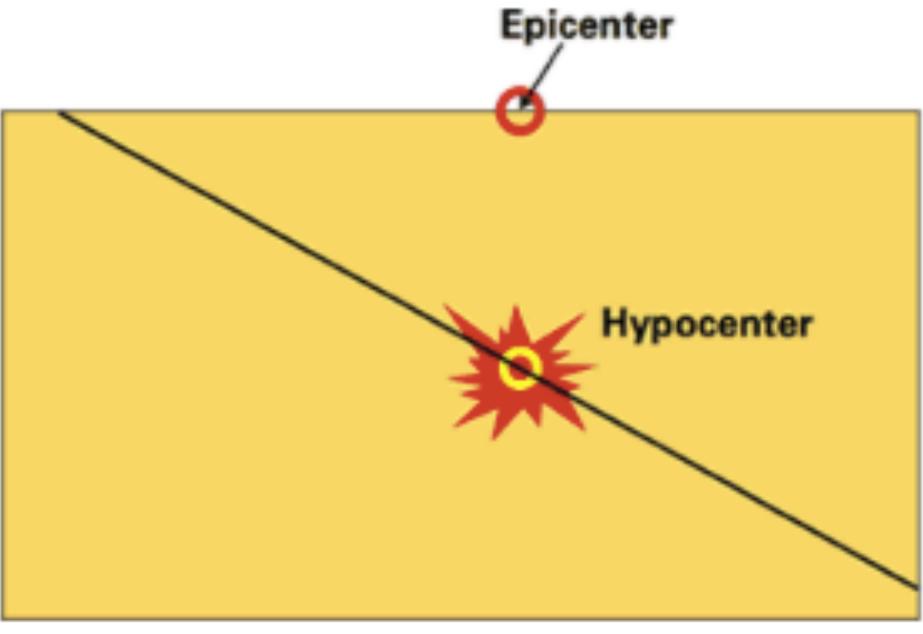
Specifying the location of the earthquake

Epicenter: Latitude, longitude; position on the ground directly above the earthquake

Focal Depth: depth below ground surface where earthquake rupture occurs

Hypocenter (focus): Actual location in the Earth's crust where the earthquake occurs (needs lat, long, and depth)









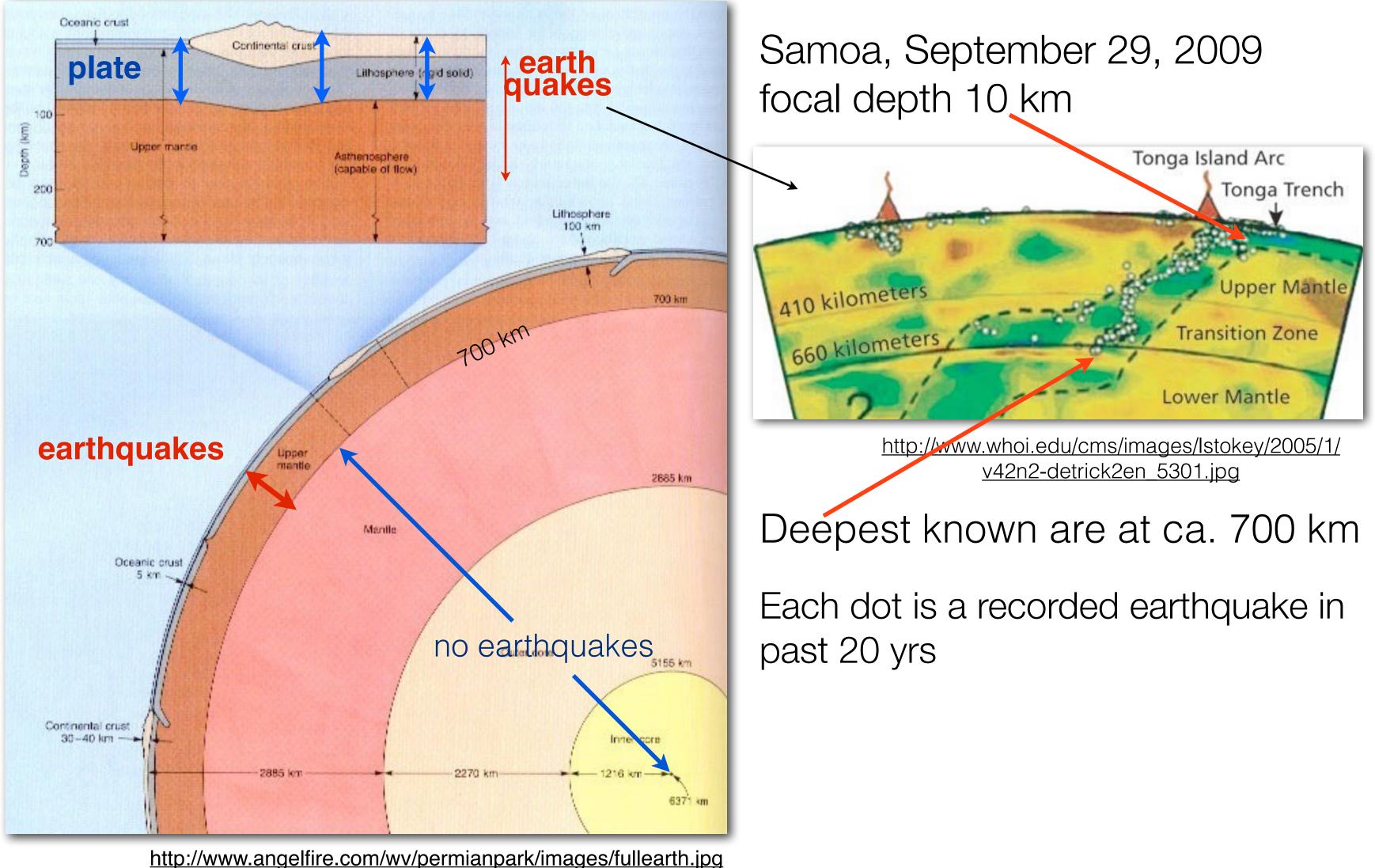
Earthquake Location

Tectonic Plates are cool, thin and 'rigid,' relative to the hot, ductile mantle beneath

plate = crust + lithosphere

Shallow earthquakes: <70 km Intermediate: >70 to 300 km Deep: >300 km

Earthquakes occur within or between tectonic plates and within the upper mantle





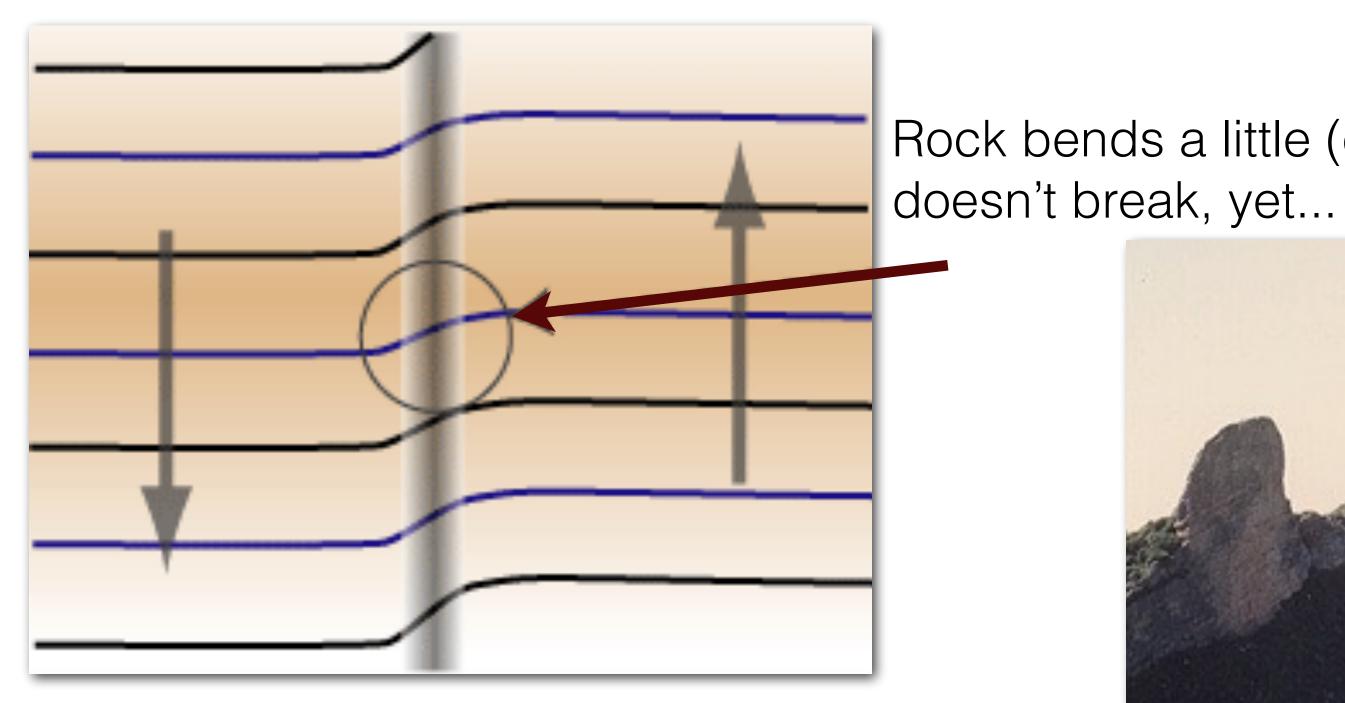
Natural Hazards and Disaster

Class 4: Geohazards; Earthquakes Location Causes Magnitude Ground shaking **Recurrence** intervals Hazard maps



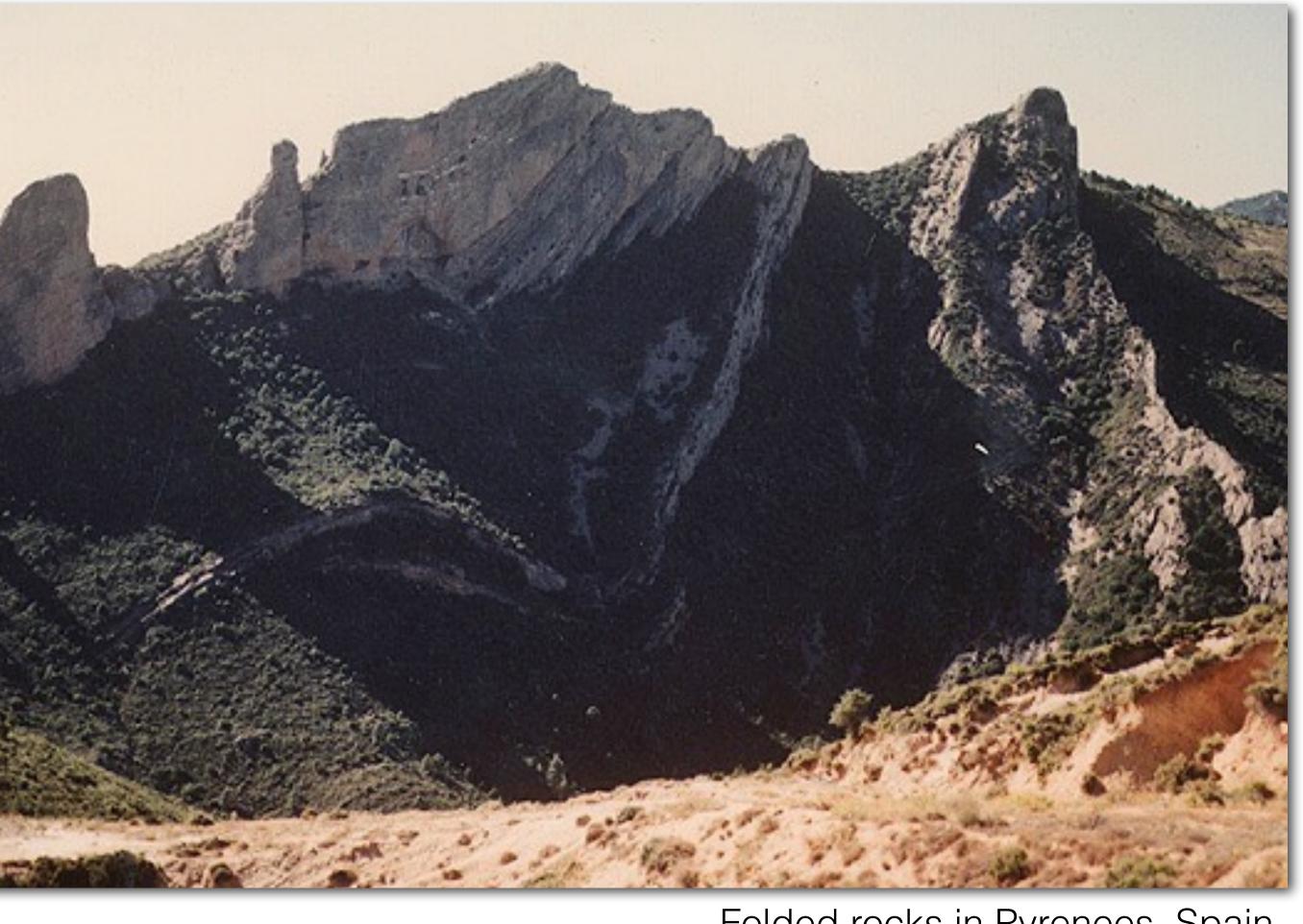


Stage 1



Most earthquakes occur on 'faults' or fracture zones in the Earth's crust when crustal rocks are stretched or slide past each other.

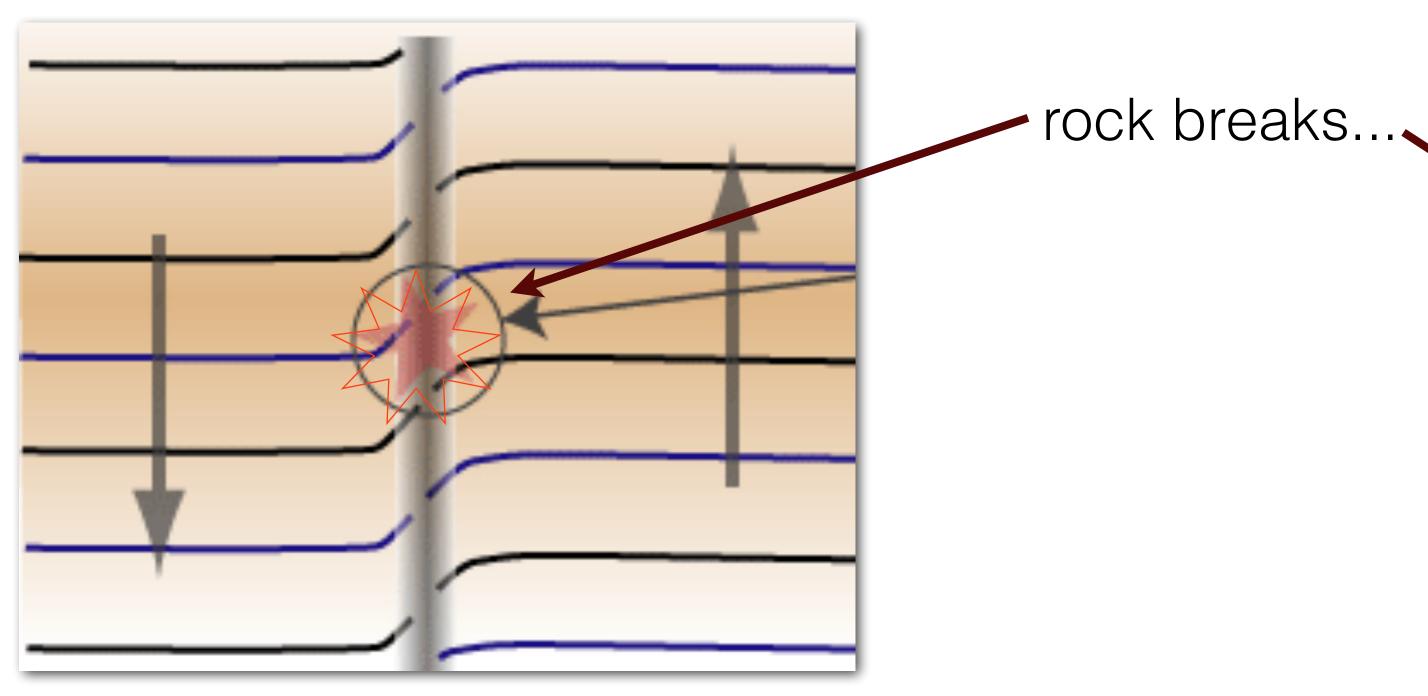
Rock bends a little (or a lot), but



Folded rocks in Pyrenees, Spain



Stage 2

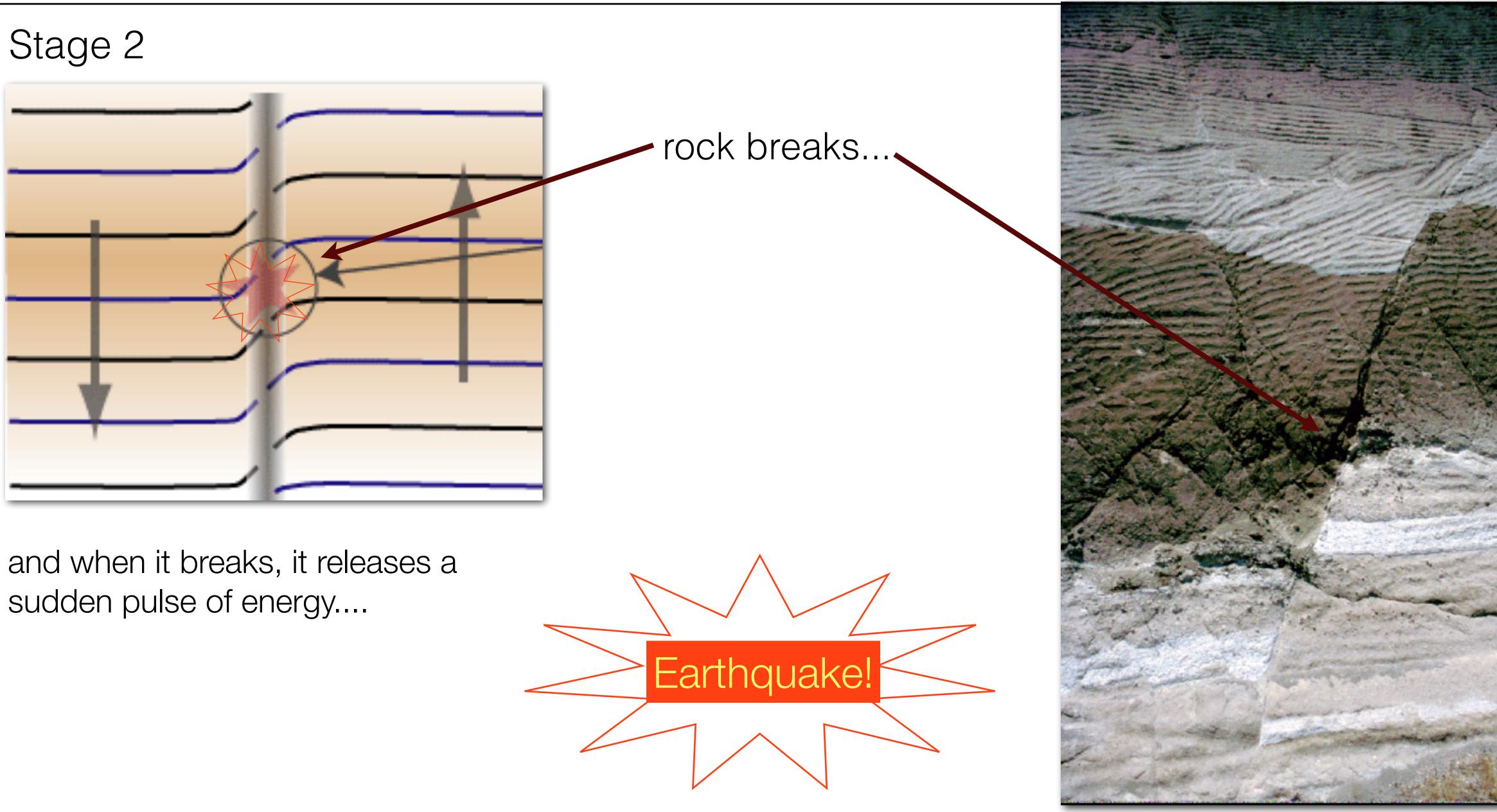


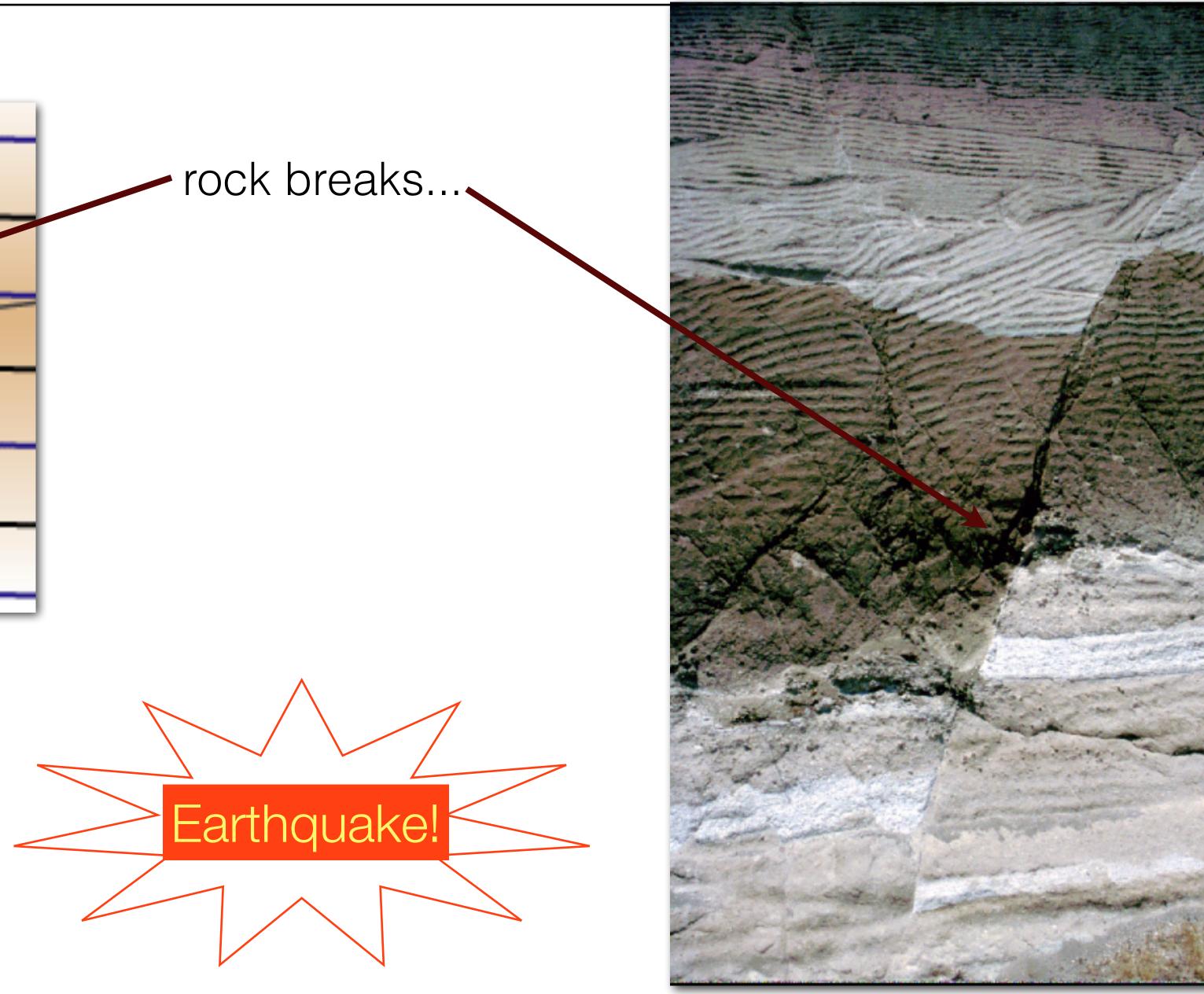
and when it breaks, it releases a sudden pulse of energy....

this can be a very small 'crack,' or...



fault in volcanic rocks Kingman, AZ

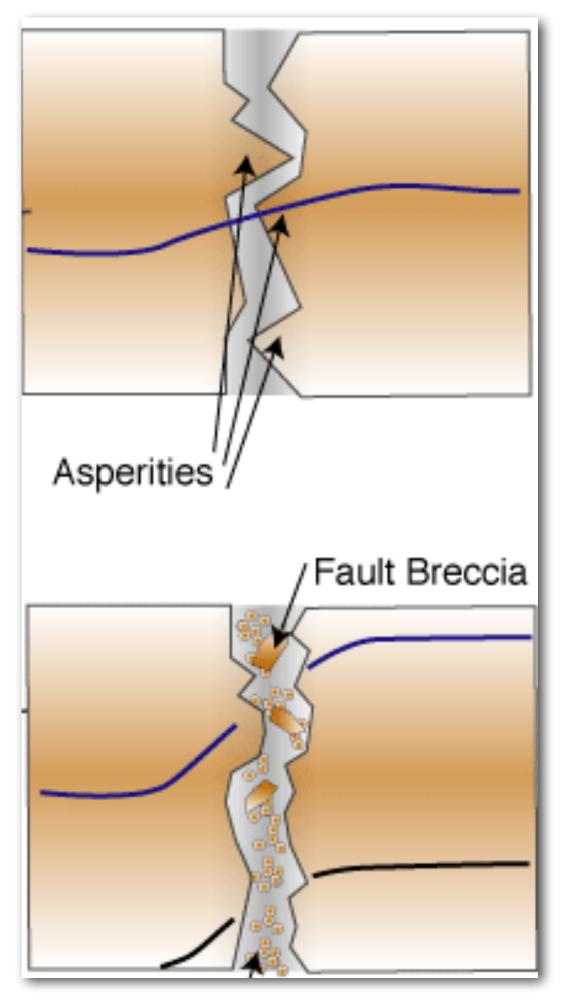




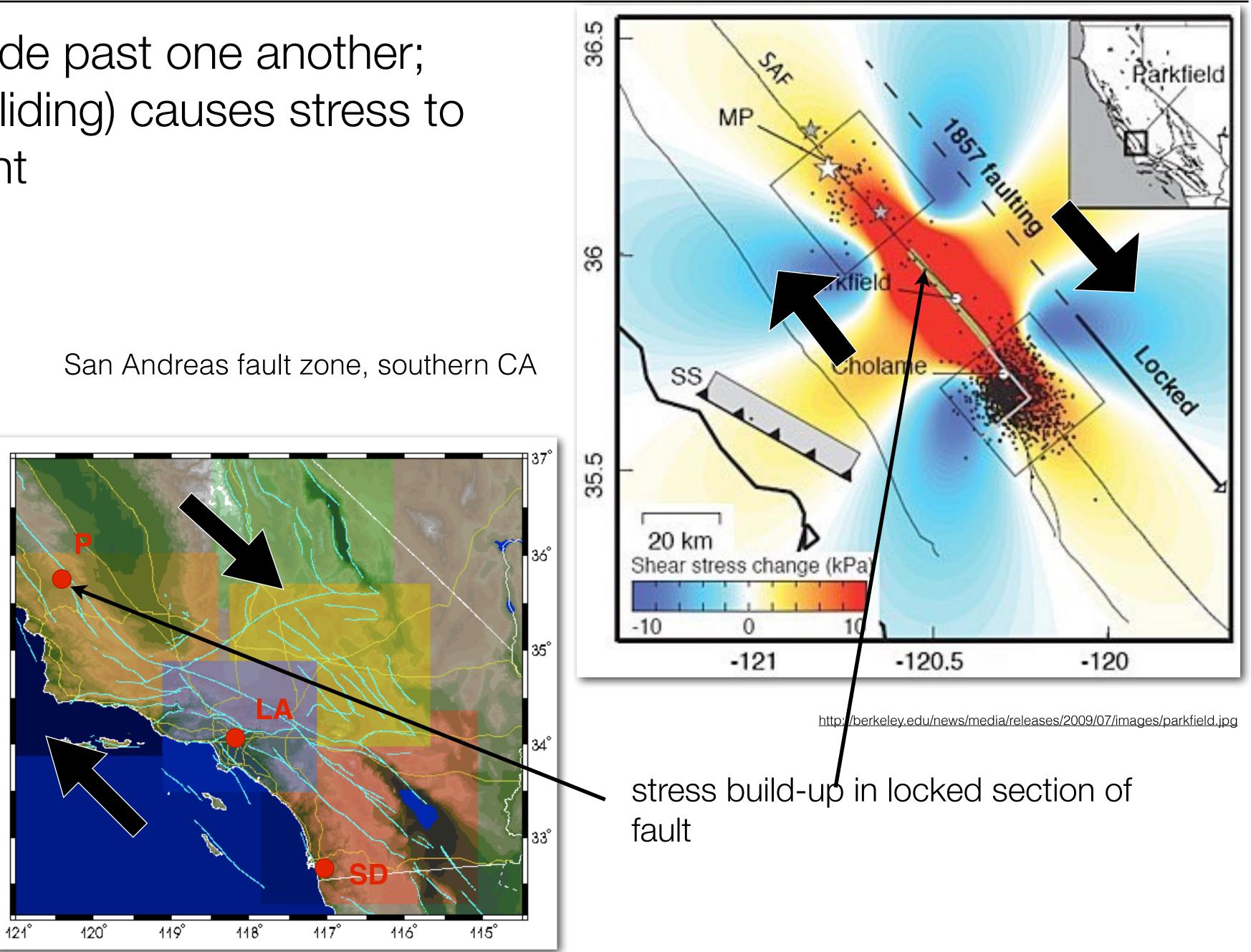
fault in volcanic rocks Kingman, AZ



- Faults 'stick' as they slide past one another;
- Friction (resistance to sliding) causes stress to build up at sticking point

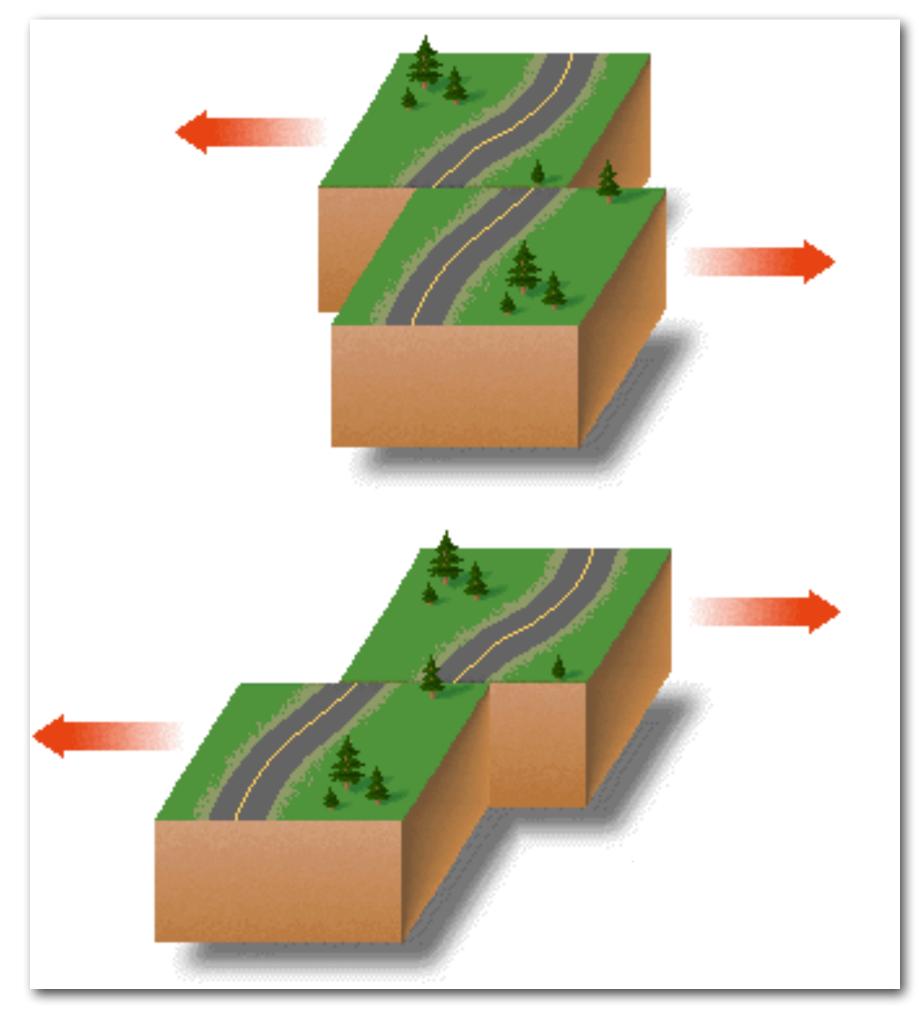


can be small scale or large scale

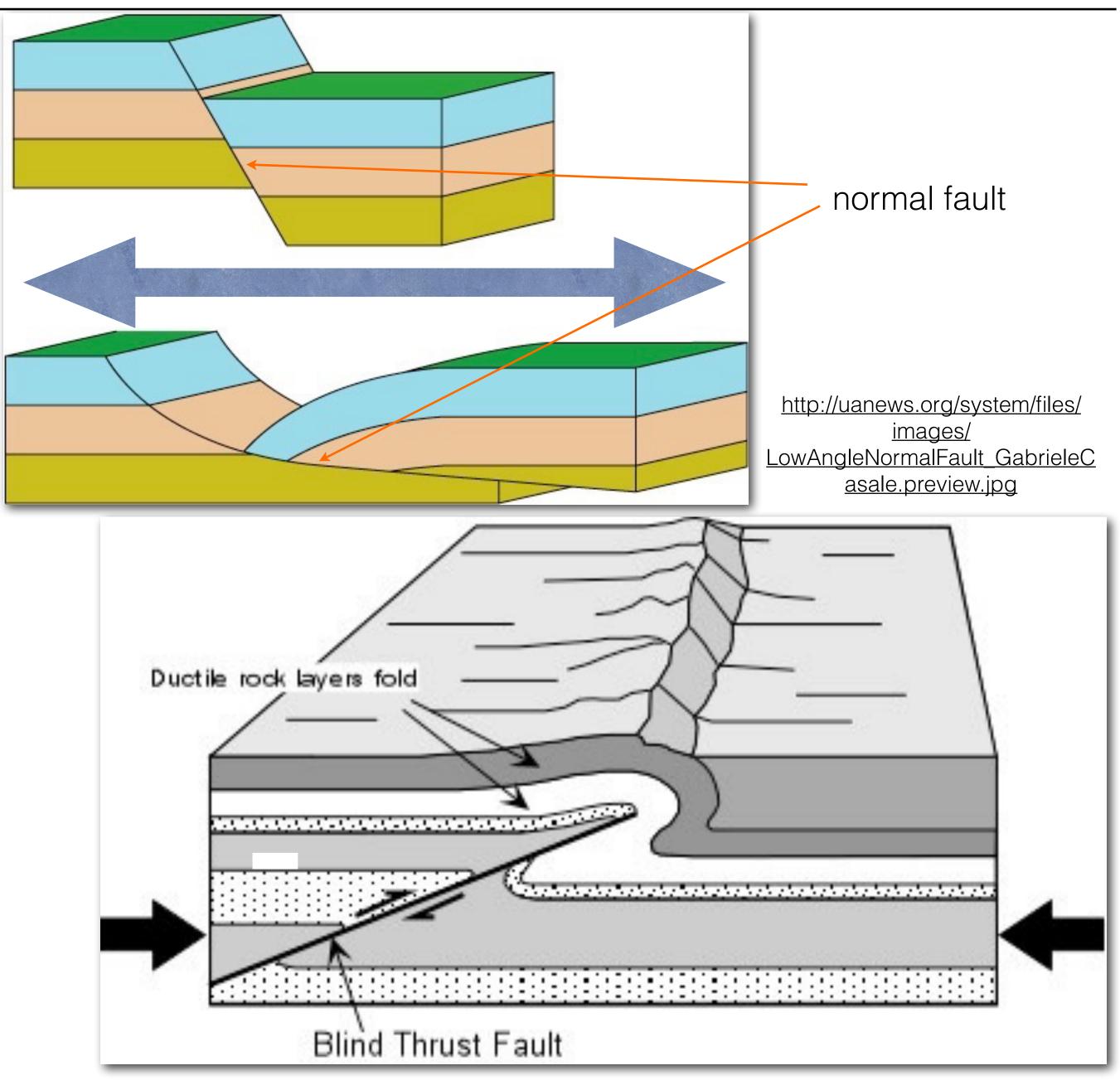




Most earthquakes occur on 'faults' or fracture zones in the Earth's crust when crustal rocks are stretched or slide past each other or over each other.



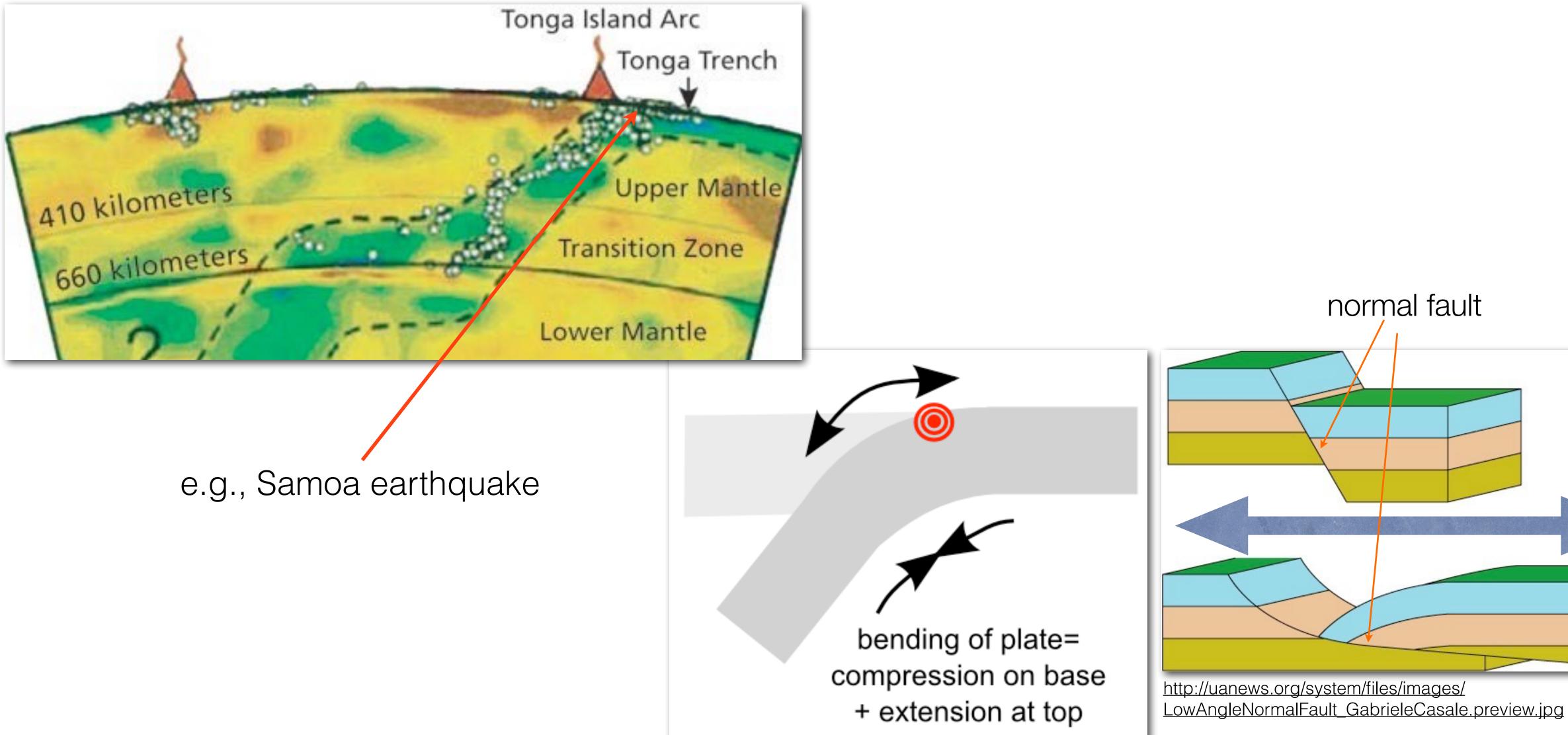
http://www.scec.org/education/public/roots/pictures/strslipv.gif



http://earthsci.org/processes/struct/equake1/blindyhrust.jpg



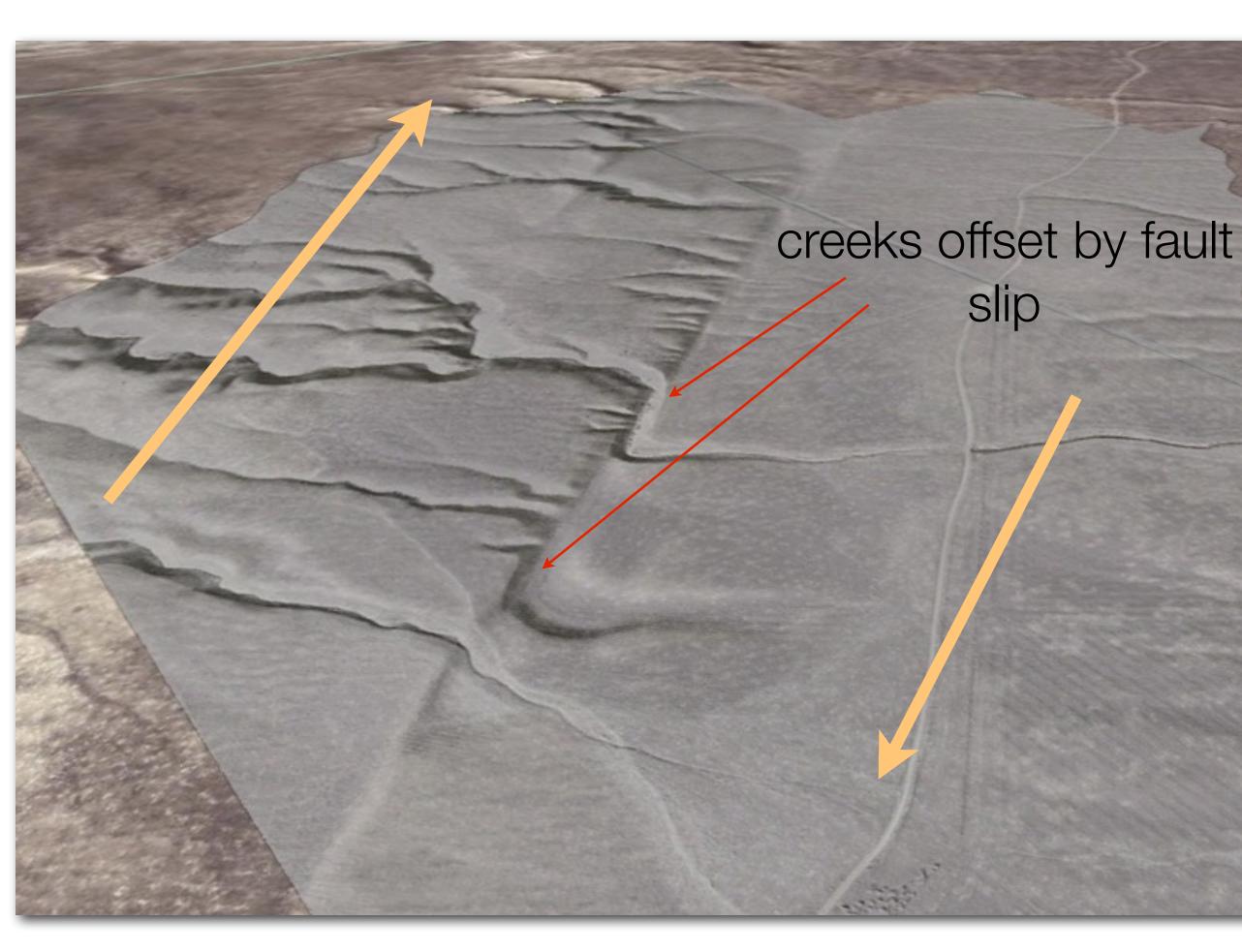
Three main types of 'faults' or fracture zones in the Earth's crust: (a) when crustal rocks are stretched

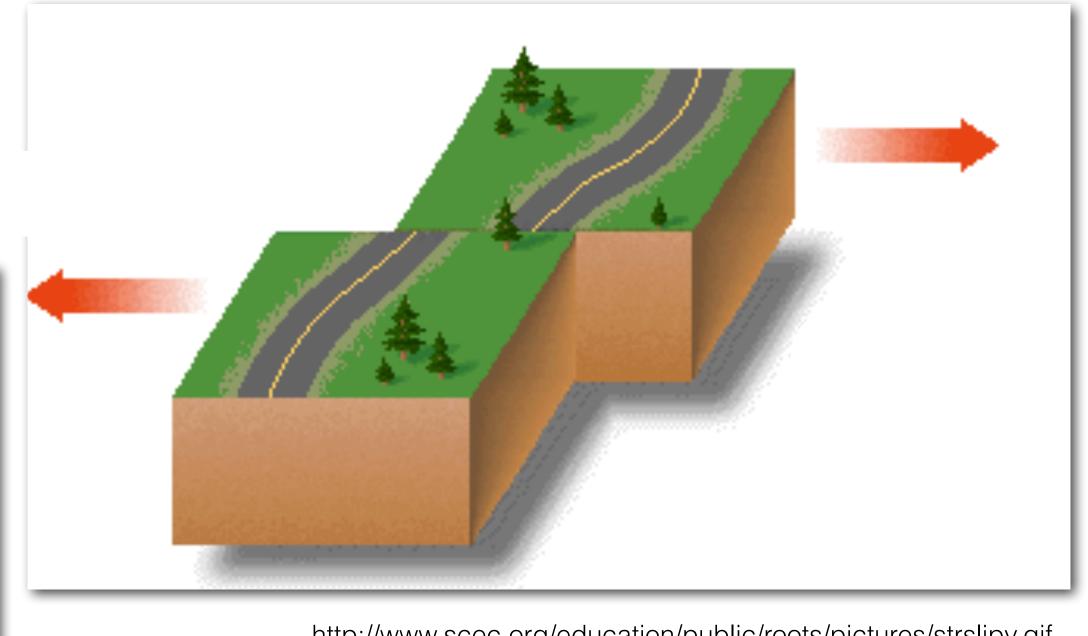






Three main types of 'faults' or fracture zones in the Earth's crust: (a) when crustal rocks are stretched (b) when they slide past each other



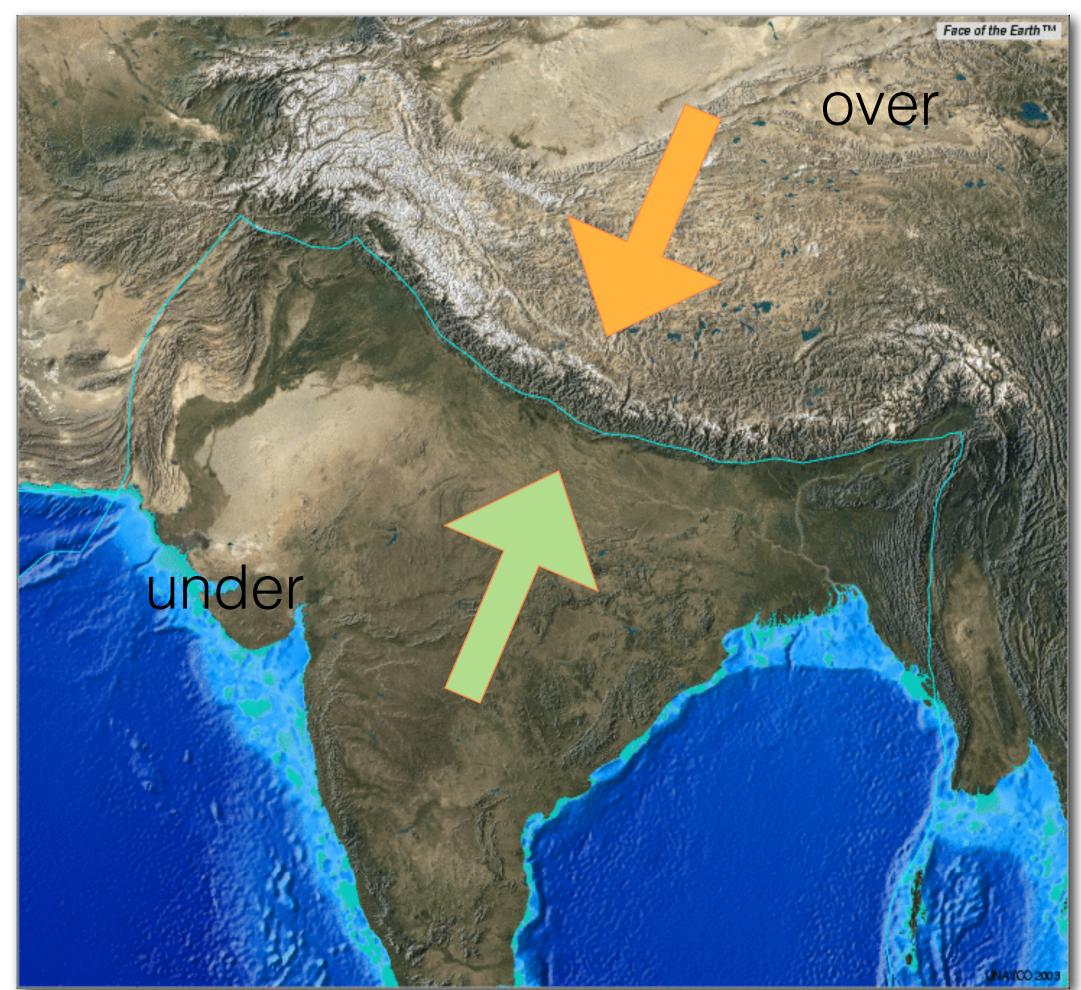


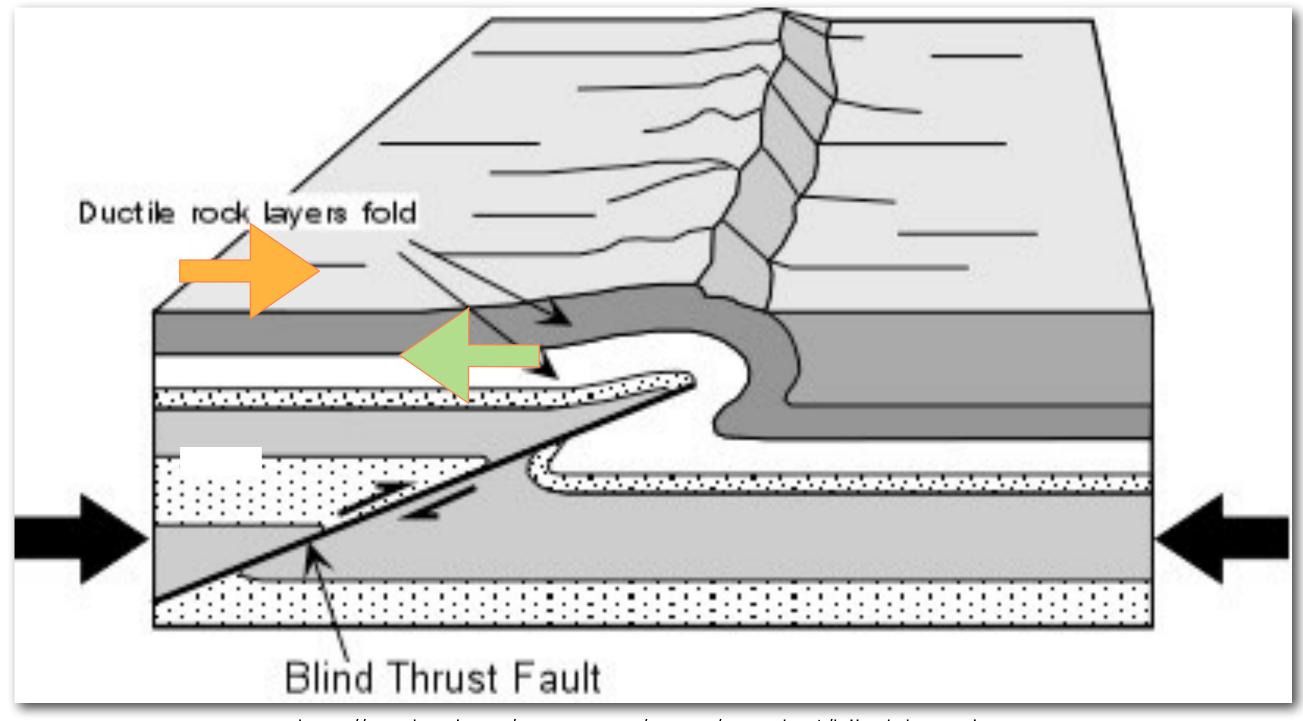
http://www.scec.org/education/public/roots/pictures/strslipv.gif

e.g., San Andreas fault zone (aerial view looking S along fault)



Three main types of 'faults' or fracture zones in the Earth's crust: (a) when crustal rocks are stretched (b) when they slide past each other (c) when they slide over each other





http://earthsci.org/processes/struct/equake1/blindyhrust.jpg

e.g., Alps-Zagros-Himalayan mountains



Natural Hazards and Disaster

Class 4: Geohazards; Earthquakes Location Causes Magnitude Ground shaking **Recurrence** intervals Hazard maps





Magnitude:

a number that characterizes the relative size of an earthquake. based on measurement of the maximum motion recorded by a seismograph.

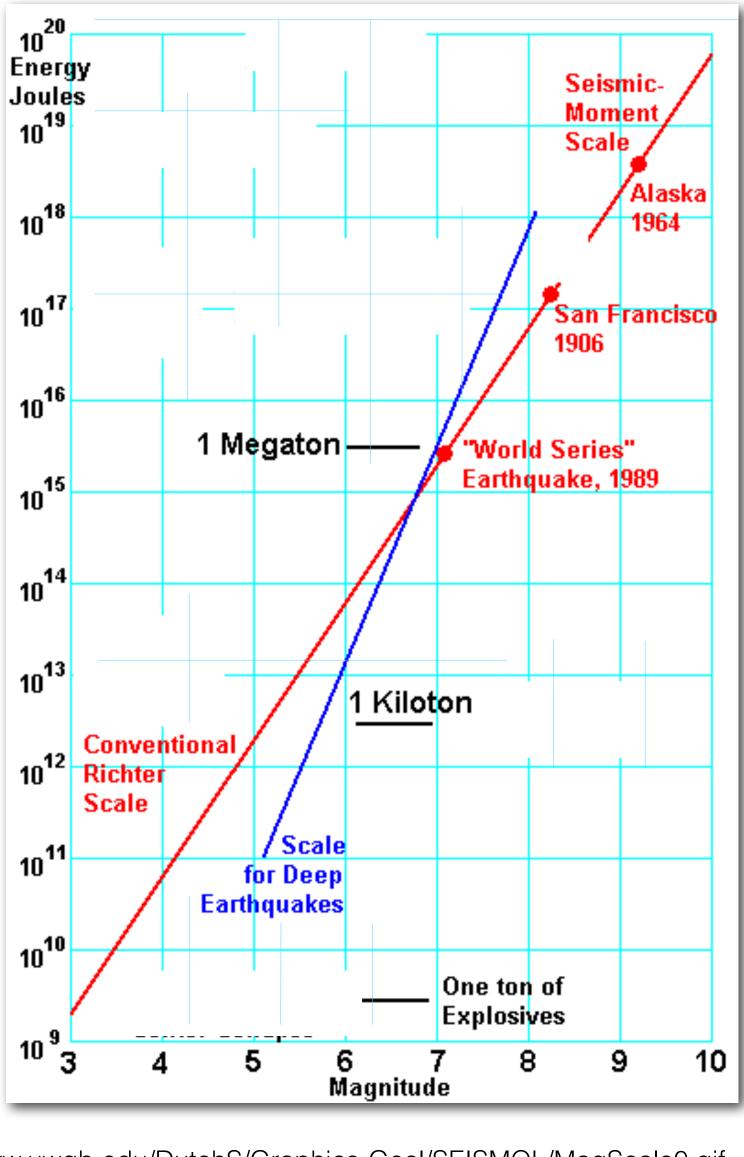
Several scales; most commonly used are:

- (1) local magnitude (M_L), commonly referred to as "Richter magnitude",
- (2) surface-wave magnitude (M_s),
- (3) body-wave magnitude (M_b), and
- (4) moment magnitude (M_w).

Scales 1-3 have limited range and applicability and do not satisfactorily measure the size of the largest earthquakes.

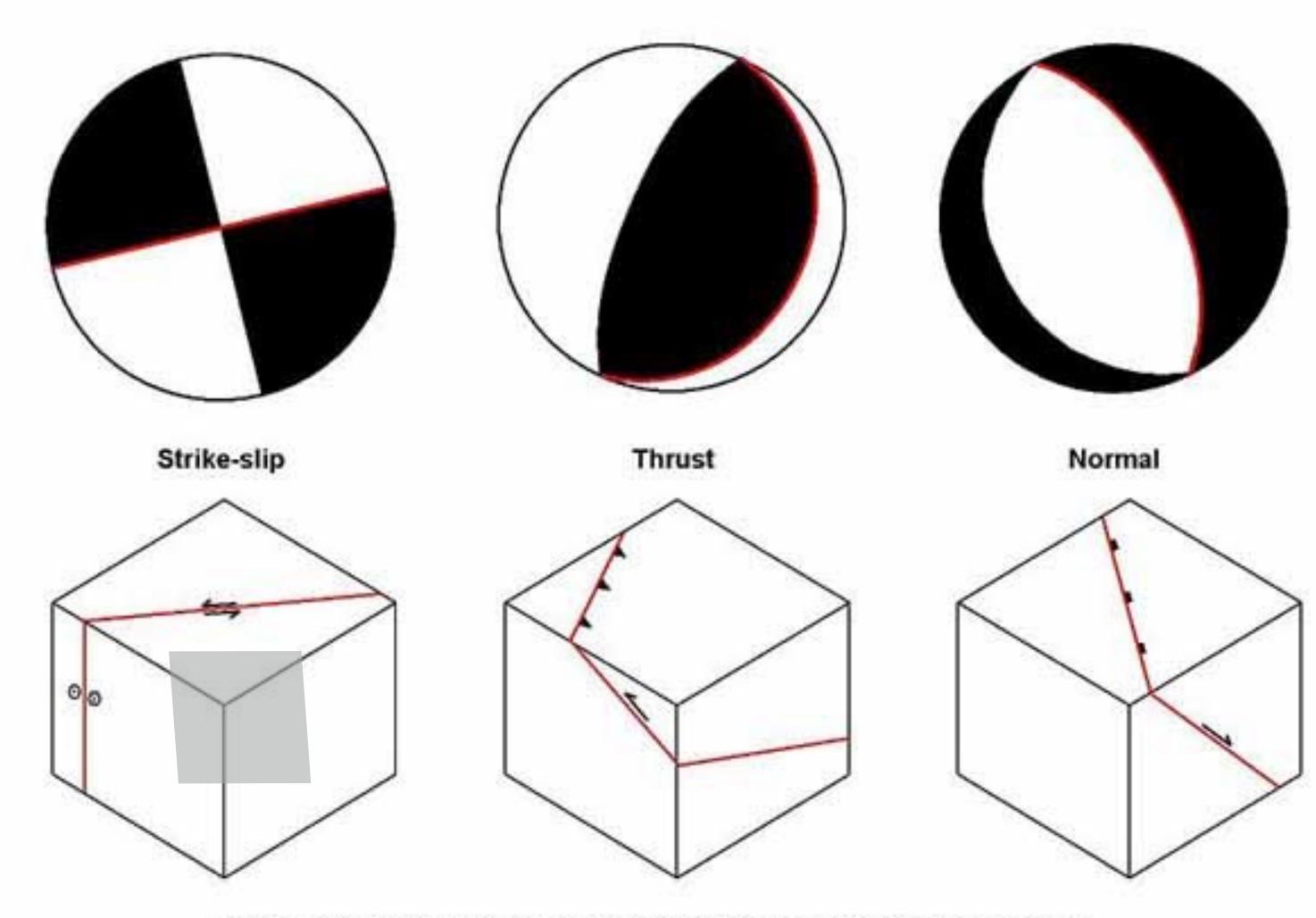
Earthquake Moment Magnitude, Mw

- is uniformly applicable to all sizes of earthquakes but is more difficult to compute than the other types
- based on the concept of seismic moment = area x displacement of fault rupture
- measured on a logarithmic scale
- measures total amount of energy released (w = 'work')



http://www.uwgb.edu/DutchS/Graphics-Geol/SEISMOL/MagScale0.gif





Types of 'beachball plot' associated with different fault end-members (nodal plane in red parallel to fault)



Magnitude:

a number that characterizes the relative size of an earthquake. based on measurement of the maximum motion recorded by a seismograph.

Several scales; most commonly used are:

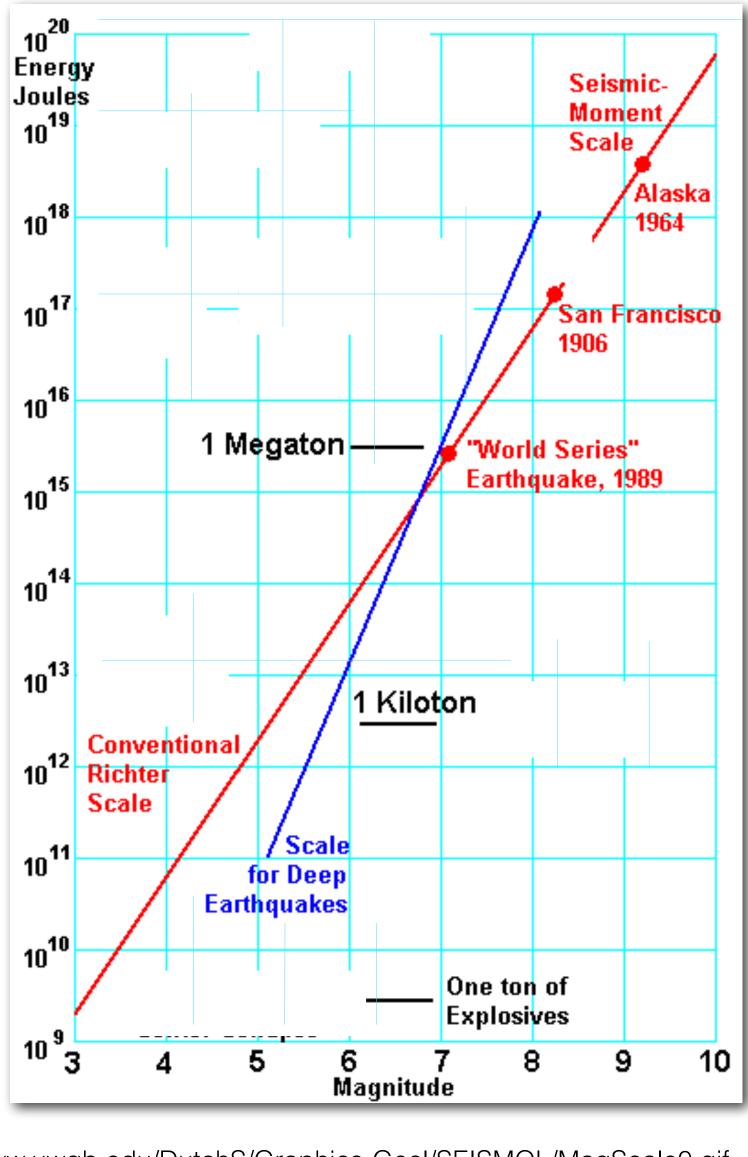
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- (2) surface-wave magnitude (M_s),
- (3) body-wave magnitude (M_b), and
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Scales 1-3 have limited range and applicability and do not satisfactorily measure the size of the largest earthquakes.

The moment magnitude M_w is a dimensionless value defined by Kanamori (1977) as

$$M_{
m w} = rac{2}{3} \log_{10}(M_0) - 10.7,$$

where M_0 is the seismic moment in dyne cm (10⁻⁷ N·m). The constant values in the equation are chosen to achieve consistency with the magnitude values produced by earlier scales.



http://www.uwgb.edu/DutchS/Graphics-Geol/SEISMOL/MagScale0.gif



Ν	MAGNITUDE MM	/ IMPACT
	2.5 or less	Usually not felt; recorded by seis
	2.5 to 5.4	Often felt; minor damag
	5.5 to 6.0	Slight structural damage
	6.1 to 6.9	Significant structural dama
	7.0 to 7.9	Major earthquake; serious da
	8.0 or greater	Great earthquake; extremely de

Note: Impact depends strongly on the depth of the earthquake, also the mechanism.

FREQUENCY

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estructive

900,000 per year

10,000 per year

500 per year

100 per year

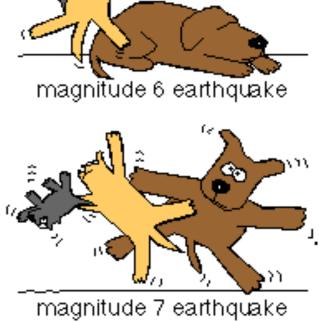
20 per year

0.2 per year









http://geoinfo.nmt.edu/ publications/periodicals/ litegeology/images/ dogquake_small.gif





20 largest earthquakes recorded

	Mag	Location
1.	9.5	ChileValdivia Earthquake
2.	9.2	Great Alaska Earthquake
3.	9.1	Sumatra-Andaman Islands Earthquake
4.	9.1	Tohoku Earthquake
5.	9.0	Kamchatka, Russia
6.	8.8	ChileMaule Earthquake
7.	8.8	1906 Ecuador—Colombia Earthquake
8.	8.7	Rat Islands Earthquake
9.	8.6	Assam, Tibet
10.	8.6	off West Coast of Northern Sumatra
11.	8.6	Indonesia Nias Earthquake
12.	8.6	Andreanof Islands, Alaska
13.	8.6	Unimak Island Earthquake, Alaska
14.	8.5	Banda Sea
15.	8.5	Atacama, Chile
16.	8.5	Kuril Islands
17.	8.4	Kamchatka, Russia
18.	8.4	Southern Sumatra, Indonesia
19.	8.4	Peru Earthquake
20.	8.4	JapanSanriku Japan

Date (UTC)	Time (UTC)	Latitude	Longitude
1960-05-22	19:11	38.14°S	73.41°W
1964-03-28	03:36	60.91°N	147.34°W
2004-12-26	00:58	3.30°N	95.98°E
2011-03-11	05:46	38.30°N	142.37°E
1952-11-04	16:58	52.62°N	159.78°E
2010-02-27	06:34	36.12°S	72.90°W
1906-01-31	15:36	0.96°N	79.37°W
1965-02-04	05:01	51.25°N	178.72°E
1950-08-15	14:09	28.36°N	96.45°E
2012-04-11	08:39	2.33°N	93.06°E
2005-03-28	16:10	2.09°N	97.11°E
1957-03-09	14:23	51.50°N	175.63°W
1946-04-01	12:29	53.49°N	162.83°W
1938-02-01	19:04	5.05°S	131.61°E
1922-11-11	04:33	28.29°S	69.85°W
1963-10-13	05:18	44.87°N	149.48°E
1923-02-03	16:02	54.49°N	160.47°E
2007-09-12	11:10	4.44°S	101.37°E
2001-06-23	20:33	16.27°S	73.64°W
1933-03-02	17:31	39.21°N	144.59°E

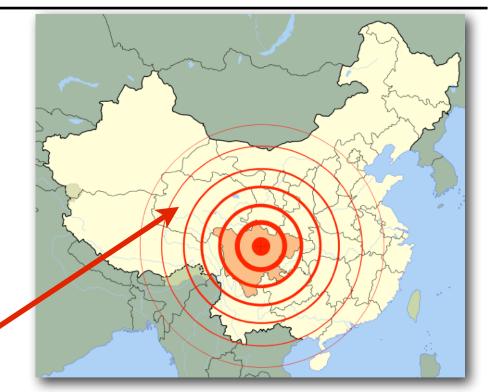


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Some important earthquakes in recent years

- 240,000 killed M_W 7.8 >250,000 killed * M_W 9.1 M_W 7.0 >80,000 killed >69,000 killed M_W 7.9 >40,000 killed M_W 7.7 >16,000 killed * M_W 9.0 >15,000 killed M_W 6.5 5,500 killed M_W 6.9 72 killed M_W 6.7

- Tangshan, China 1976 Sumatra, 2004 Haiti, 2010 Sichuan, China 2008 Manjil, Iran 1990 Japan, 2011 Bam, Iran 2003 Kobe, Japan 1995 Northridge, CA 1994





http://noeljenkins.files.wordpress.com/ 2007/01/bam_ir2726.JPG



http://www.iranmap.com/images/cities/bamafter.jpg



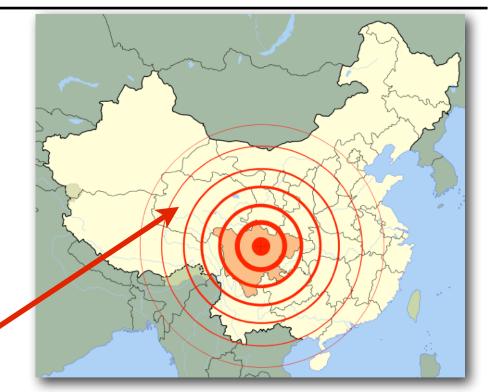


Some important earthquakes in recent years

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- Tangshan, China 1976 Sumatra, 2004 Haiti, 2010 Sichuan, China 2008 Manjil, Iran 1990 Japan, 2011 Bam, Iran 2003 Kobe, Japan 1995 Northridge, CA 1994

Why the big range in casualties?





http://noeljenkins.files.wordpress.com/ 2007/01/bam_ir2726.JPG



http://www.iranmap.com/images/cities/bamafter.jpg





Intensity:

- A number describing the severity of an earthquake in terms of its effects on the earth's surface and on humans and their structures.
- Several scales exist, but the ones most commonly used in the United States are

1. Modified Mercalli scale and the 2. Rossi-Forel scale.

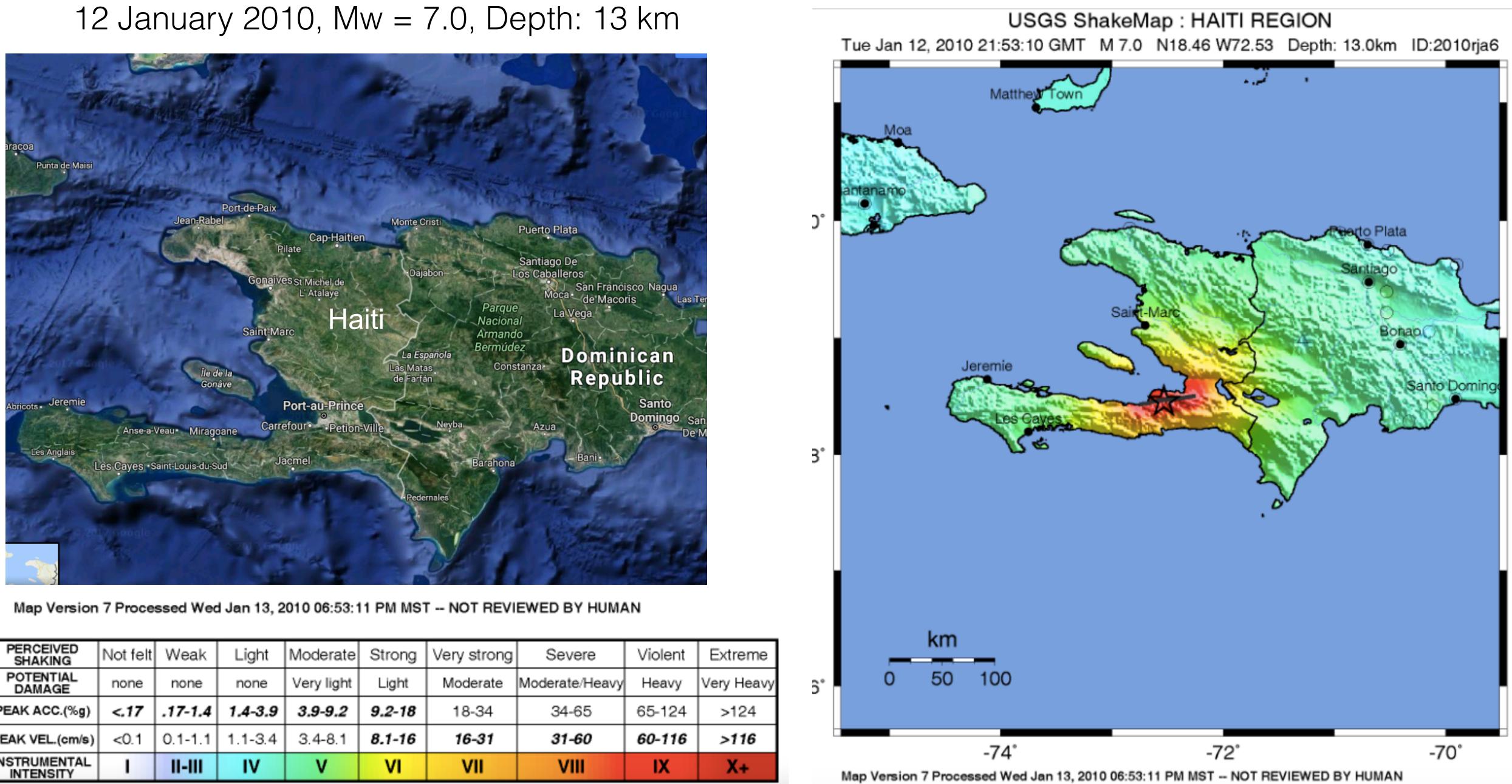
• Intensity for a specific earthquake depends on location, unlike the magnitude, which is one number for each earthquake.

The Mercalli **intensity** scale is a seismic scale used for measuring the intensity of an earthquake. It measures the effects of an earthquake.

I. Not felt	Not felt except by very few under especially favorable conditions.
II. Weak	Felt only by a few people at rest, especially on upper floors of buildings.
III. Weak	Felt quite noticeably by people indoors, especially on upper floors of buildings. Many people do not recognize earthquake. Standing motor cars may rock slightly. Vibrations similar to the passing of a truck. Duration estim
IV. Light	Felt indoors by many, outdoors by few during the day. At night, some awakened. Dishes, windows, doors dist make cracking sound. Sensation like heavy truck striking building. Standing motor cars rocked noticeably.
V. Moderate	Felt by nearly everyone; many awakened. Some dishes, windows broken. Unstable objects overturned. Pend may stop.
VI. Strong	Felt by all, many frightened. Some heavy furniture moved; a few instances of fallen plaster. Damage slight.
VII. Very strong	Damage negligible in buildings of good design and construction; slight to moderate in well-built ordinary struc considerable damage in poorly built or badly designed structures; some chimneys broken.
VIII. Severe	Damage slight in specially designed structures; considerable damage in ordinary substantial buildings with pa collapse. Damage great in poorly built structures. Fall of chimneys, factory stacks, columns, monuments, wal furniture overturned.
IX. Violent	Damage considerable in specially designed structures; well-designed frame structures thrown out of plumb. If great in substantial buildings, with partial collapse. Buildings shifted off foundations. Liquefaction.
X. Extreme	Some well-built wooden structures destroyed; most masonry and frame structures destroyed with foundations
XI. Extreme	Few, if any, (masonry) structures remain standing. Bridges destroyed. Broad fissures in ground. Underground completely out of service. Earth slumps and land slips in soft ground. Rails bent greatly.
XII. Extreme	Damage total. Waves seen on ground surfaces. Lines of sight and level distorted. Objects thrown upward into



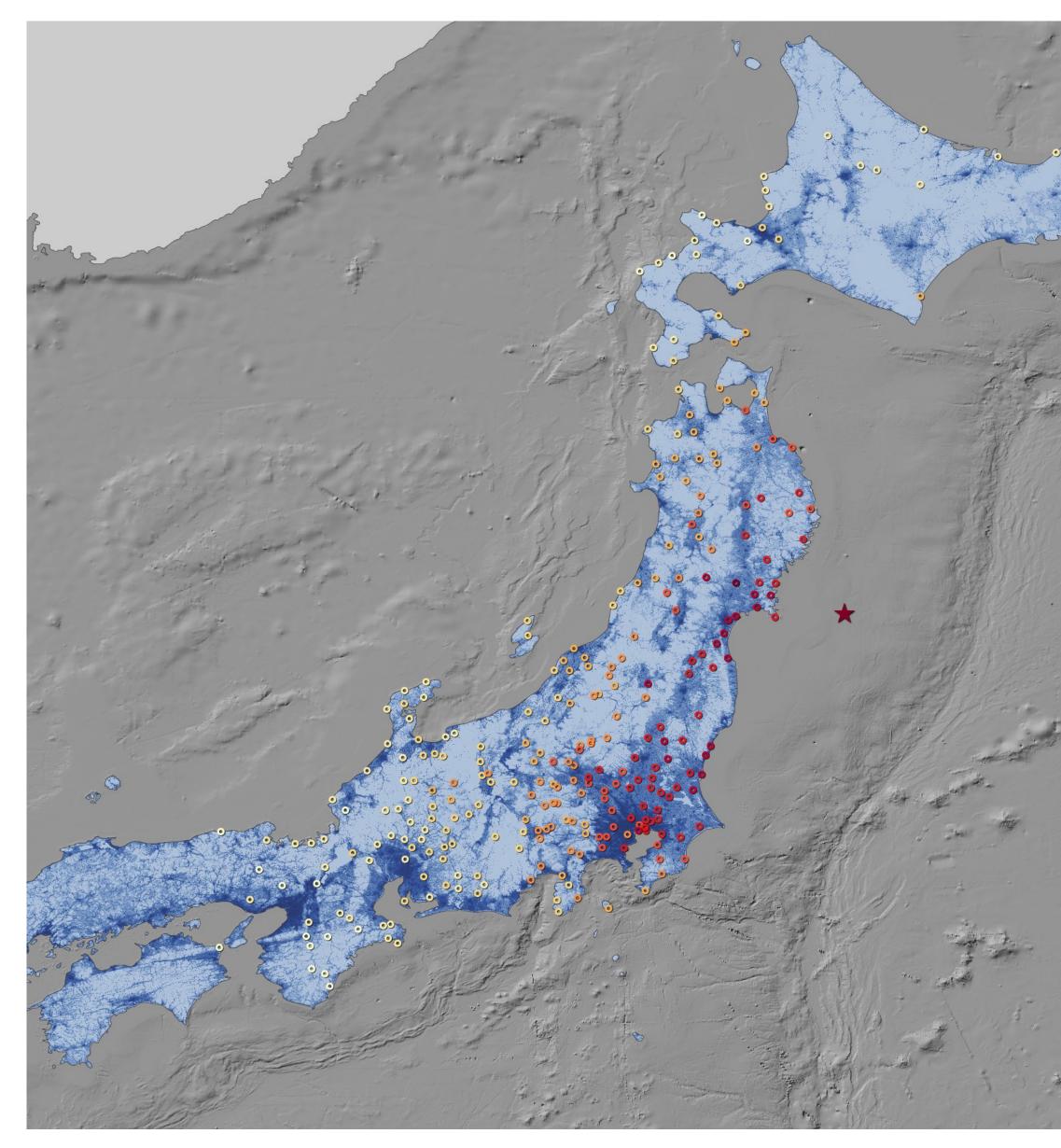


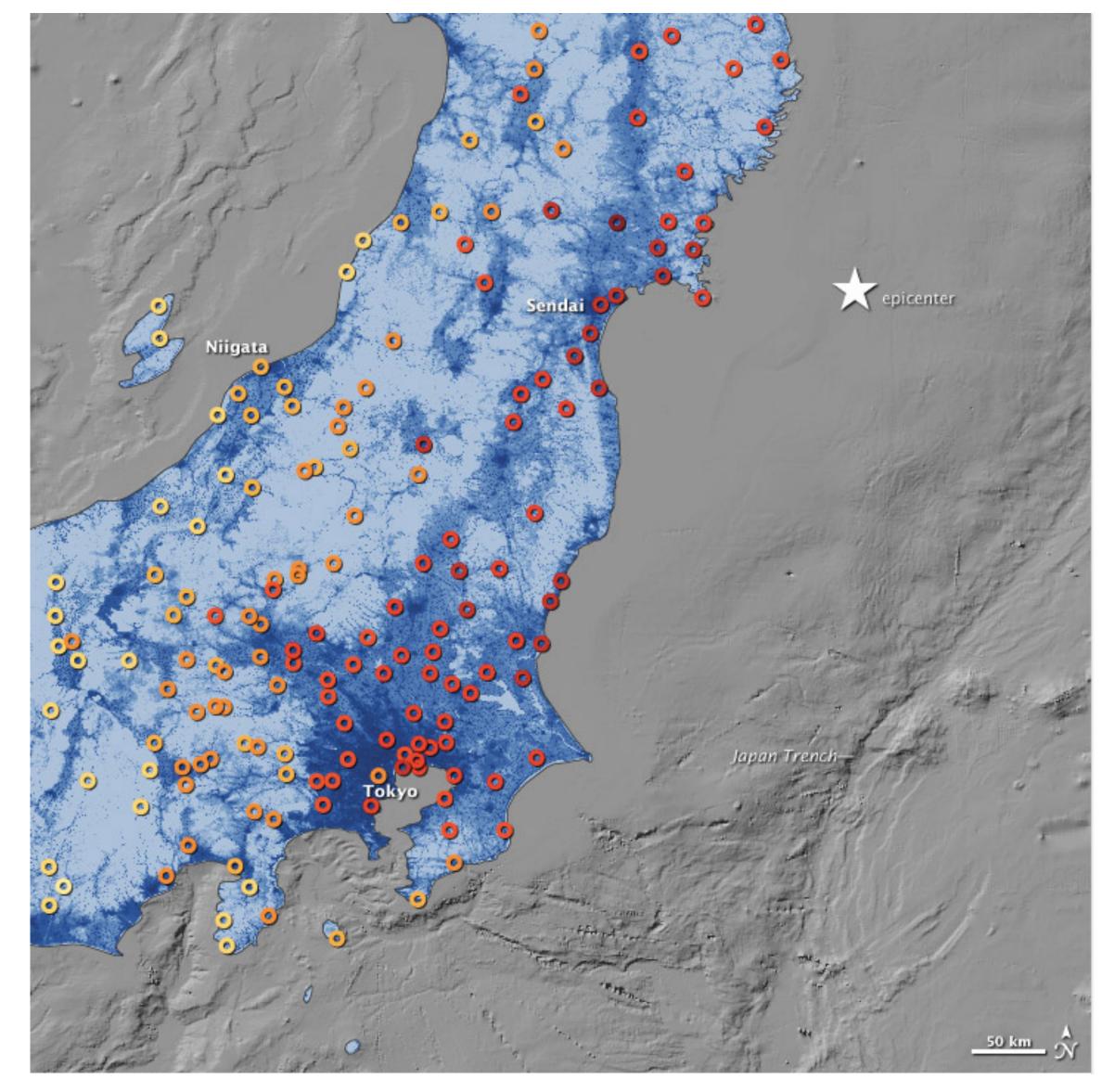


INSTRUMENTAL INTENSITY	- 1	-	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	
PEAK VEL.(cm/s)	<0.1	0.1-1.1	1.1-3.4	3.4-8.1	8.1-16	16-31	31-60	60-116	
PEAK ACC.(%g)	<.17	.17-1.4	1.4-3.9	3.9-9.2	9 <i>.2</i> -18	18-34	34-65	65-124	
POTENTIAL DAMAGE	none	none	none	Very light	Light	Moderate	Moderate/Heavy	Heavy	Ve
PERCEIVED SHAKING	Not felt	Weak	Light	Moderate	Strong	Very strong	Severe	Violent	E



11 March 2011, Mw = 9.0-9.1, Depth: 29 km







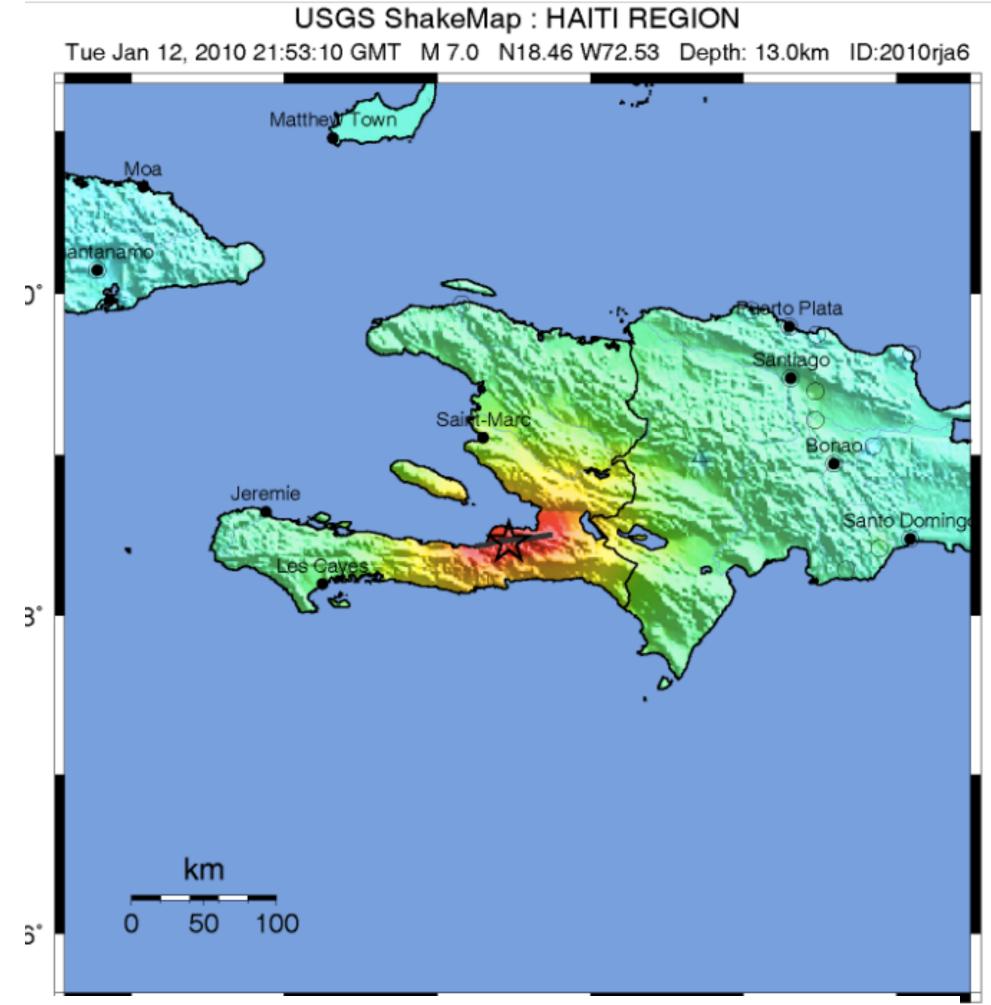
Population Density (persons/km2)

10	100	1,000





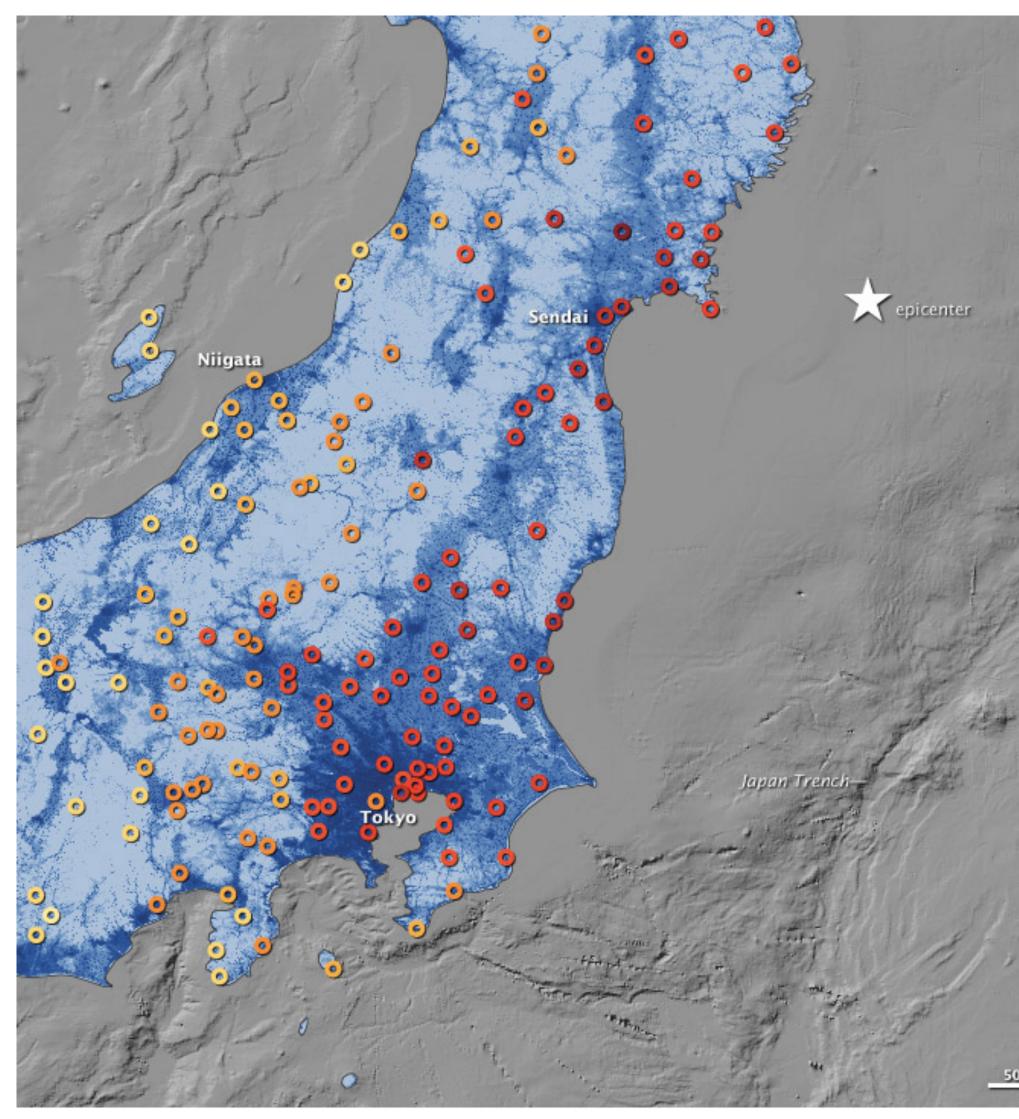
12 January 2010, Mw = 7.0, Depth: 13 km



Map Version 7 Processed Wed Jan 13, 2010 06:53:11 PM MST -- NOT REVIEWED BY HUMAN

PEAK VEL.(cm/s) INSTRUMENTAL INTENSITY	<0.1	0.1-1.1	1.1-3.4 IV	3.4-8.1 V	8.1-16 VI	16-31 VII	31-60 VIII	60-116 IX	>116 X+
	-0.1	0111	1124	2404	0 1 16	16.91	21.60	60 116	110
PEAK ACC.(%g)	<.17	.17-1.4	1.4-3.9	3.9-9.2	9 <i>.2</i> -18	18-34	34-65	65-124	>124
POTENTIAL DAMAGE	none	none	none	Very light	Light	Moderate	Moderate/Heavy	Heavy	Very Heavy
PERCEIVED SHAKING	Not felt	Weak	Light	Moderate	Strong	Very strong	Severe	Violent	Extreme

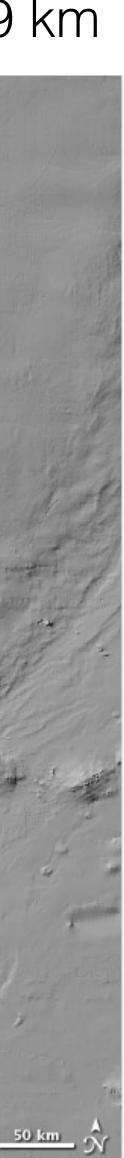
11 March 2011, Mw = 9.0-9.1, Depth: 29 km





Population Density (persons/km2)

10	100	1,000





Natural Hazards and Disaster

Class 4: Geohazards; Earthquakes Location Causes Magnitude Ground shaking **Recurrence** intervals Hazard maps





Ground Shaking

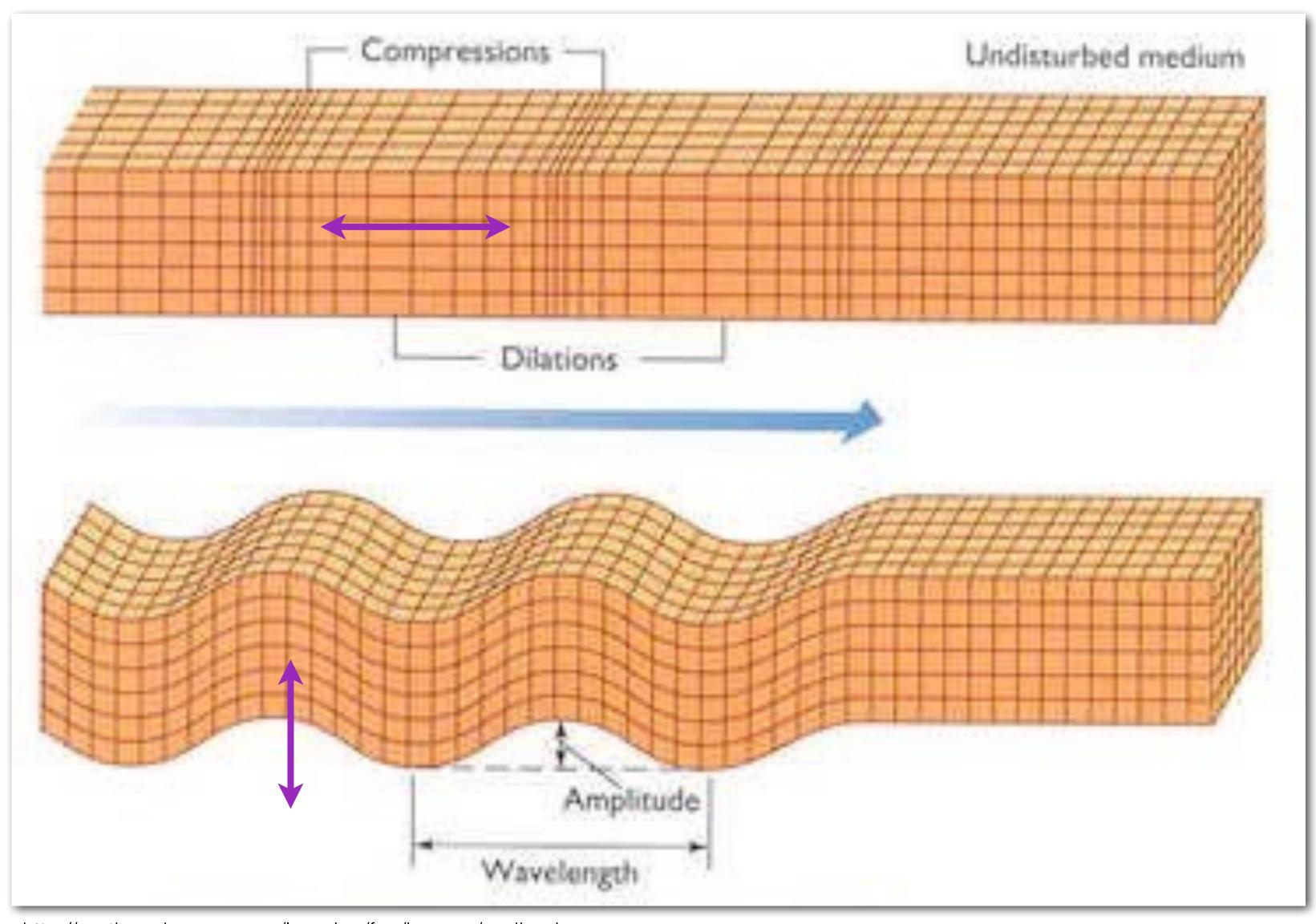
Earthquake energy (seismic energy) is released as a wave through the rock

Two components to the wave:

Compressional, P wave

Shear, S wave

P waves and S waves have different velocities

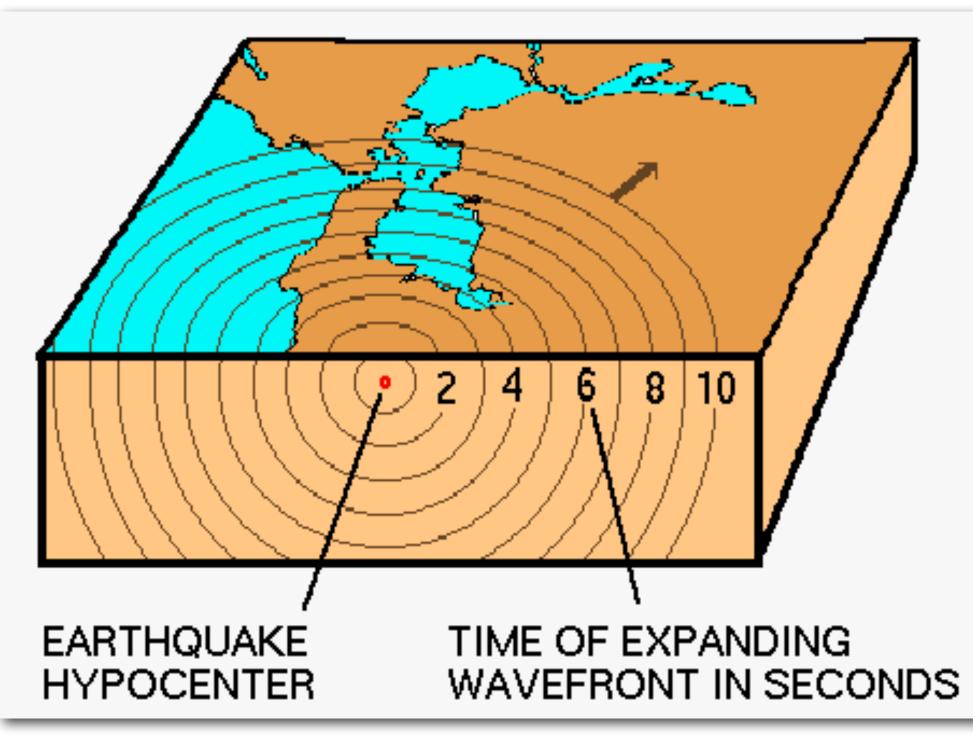


http://earthquake.usgs.gov/learning/faq/images/psdiag.jpg

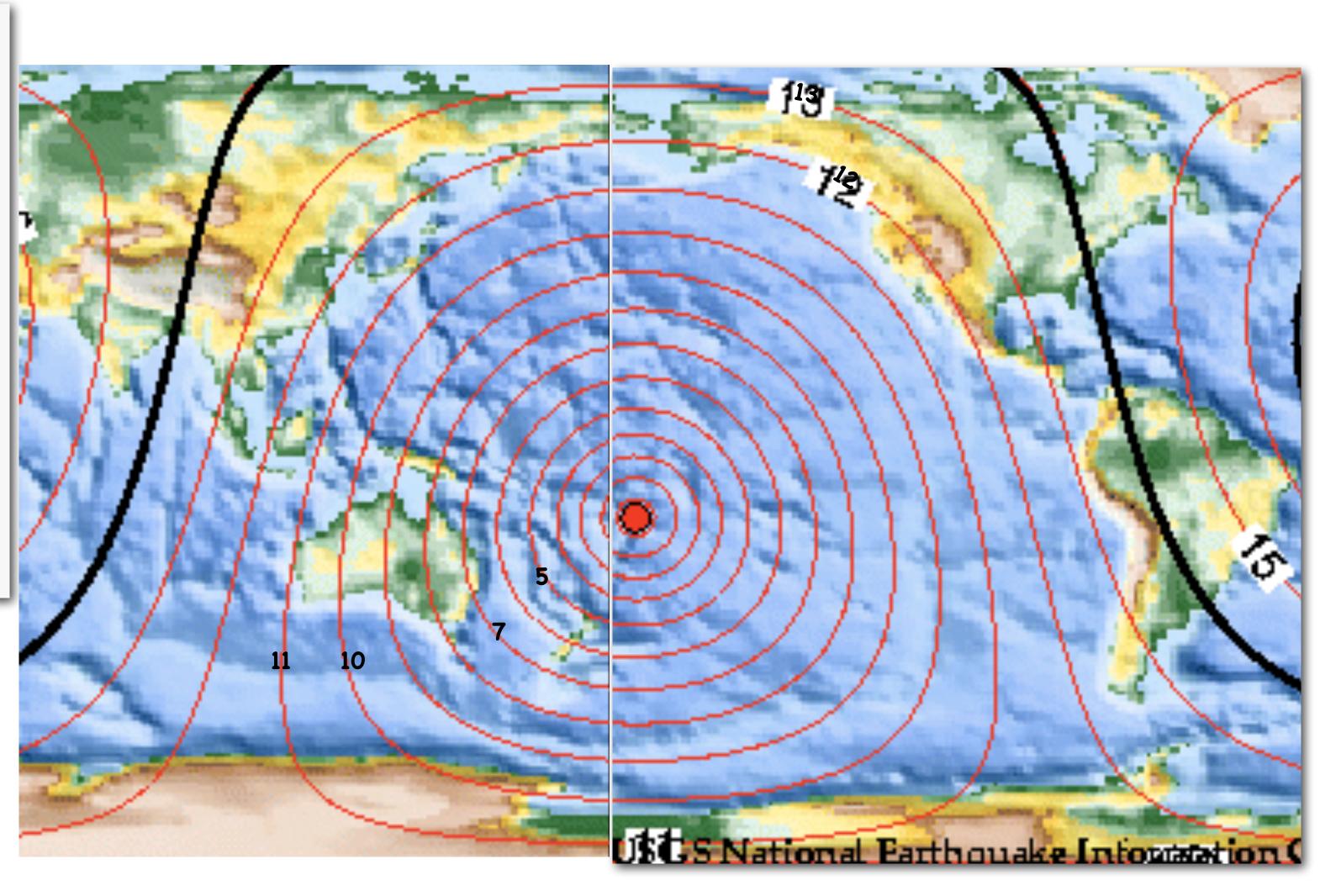


Ground Shaking

Seismic energy wavefront expands rapidly outward in all directions



http://earthquake.usgs.gov/learning/faq/images/blockwave.gif



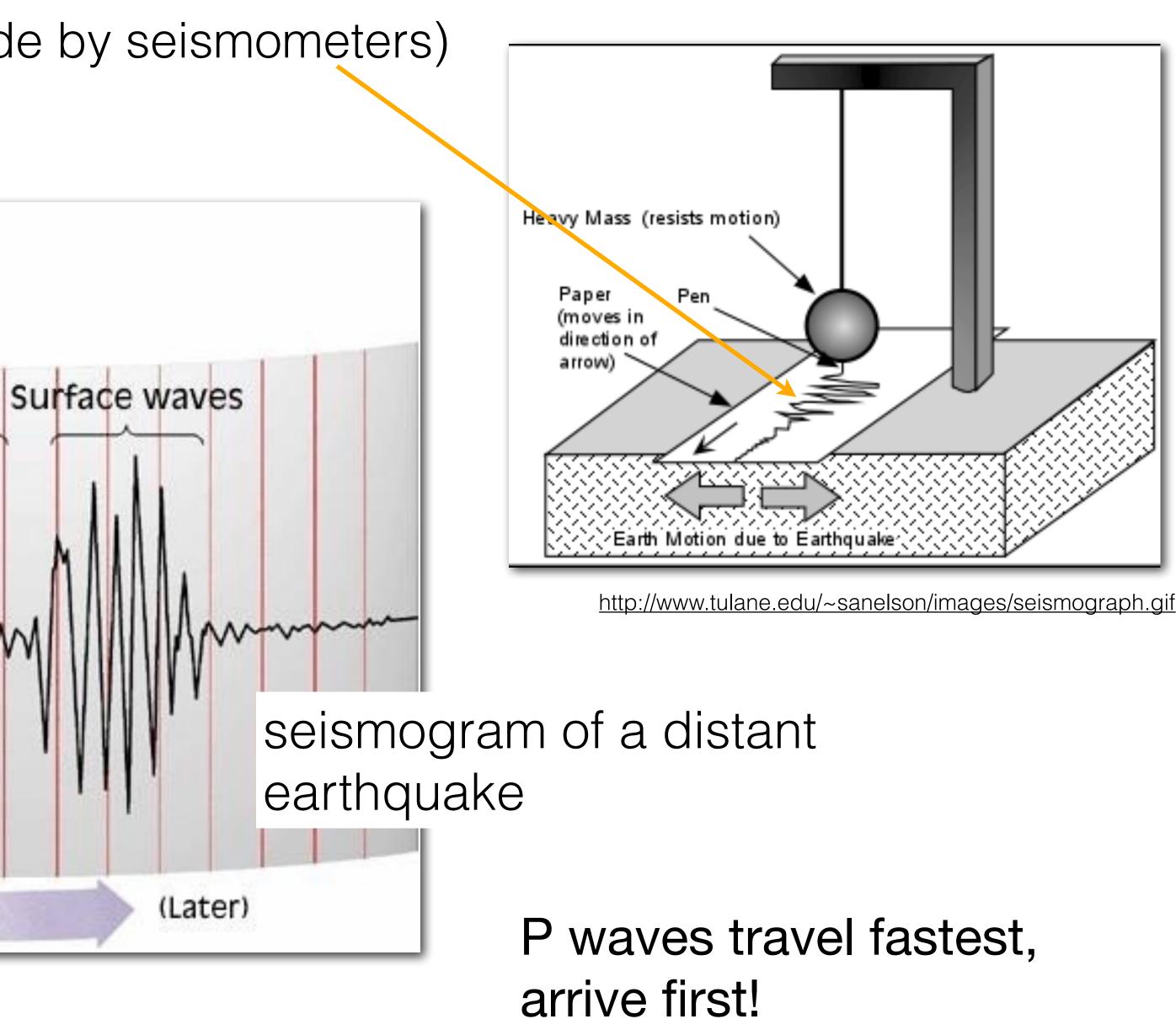


P wave travel times (in minutes) for Samoa earthquake of 09/29/09



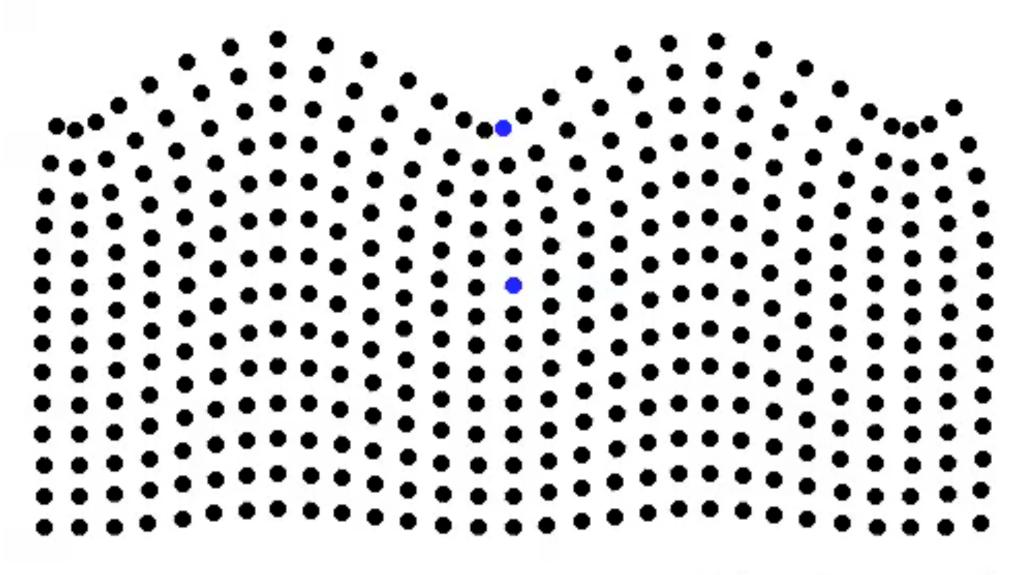


Seismograms (drawings made by seismometers) Record arrival of P and S waves **Body waves** First S wave First P wave mm One minute (Earlier) TIME



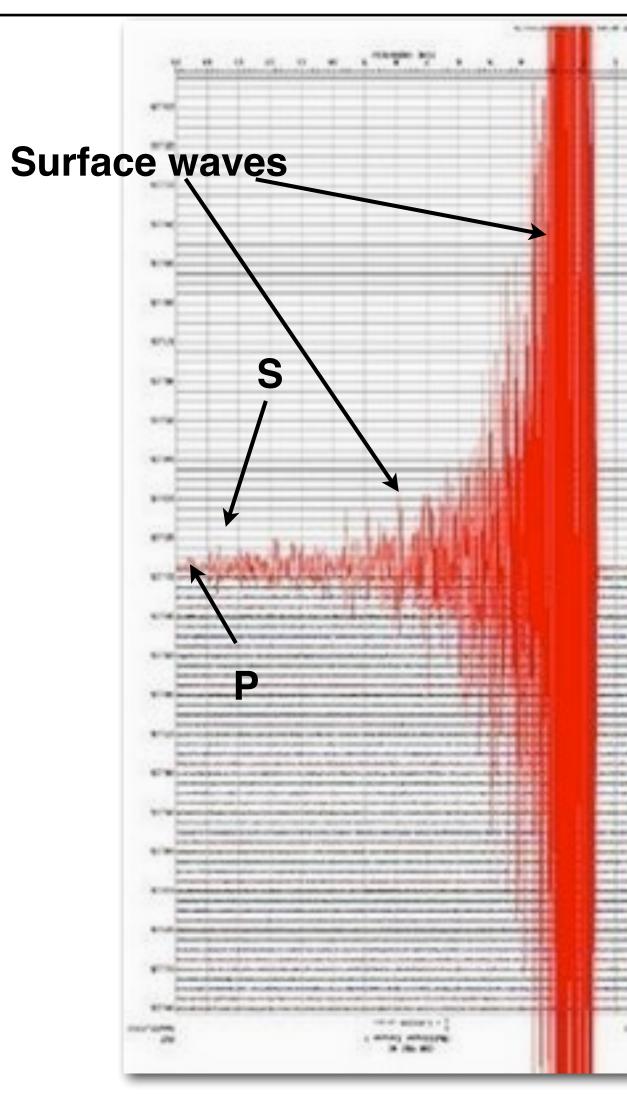


It's the Surface Waves that cause ground shaking and do the most damage!



@1999, Daniel A. Russell

seismograph for Samoa earthquake 09/29/09



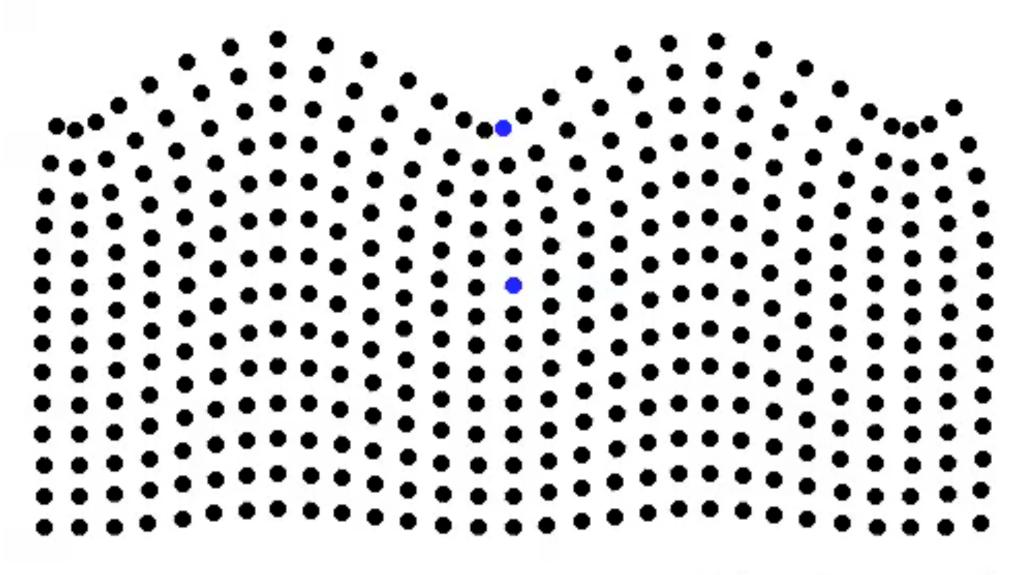
http://news.yahoo.com/nphotos/Samoa-seismograph/photo//090929/photos wl pc afp/ e4b3a34480d36b1fb185a36b299d6d13//s:/afp/20090929/wl asia afp/samoaquake



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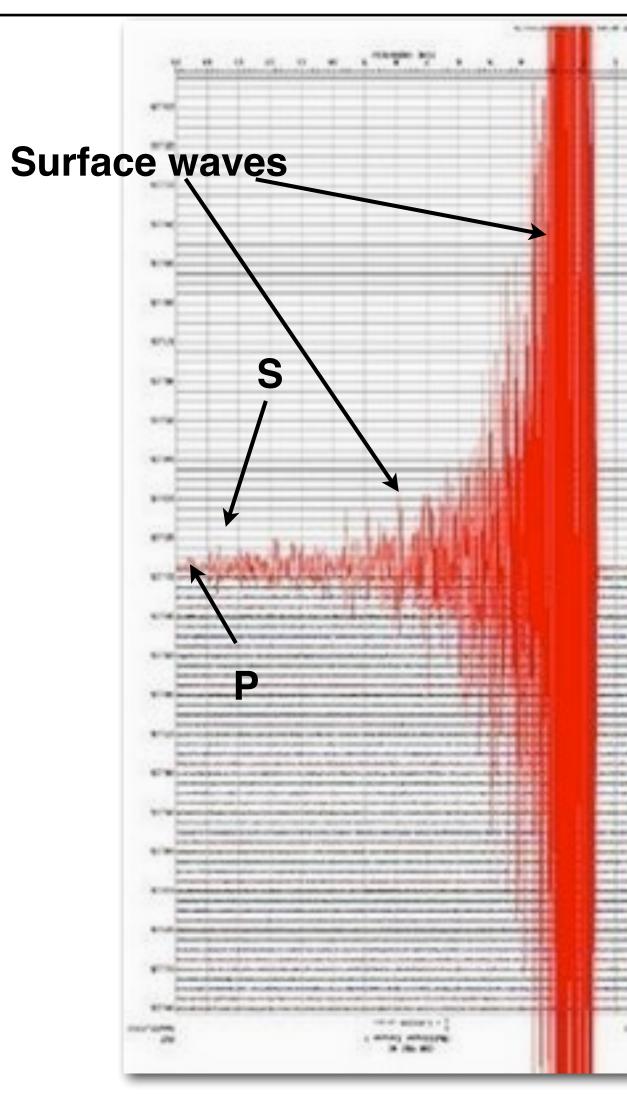


It's the Surface Waves that cause ground shaking and do the most damage!



@1999, Daniel A. Russell

seismograph for Samoa earthquake 09/29/09



http://news.yahoo.com/nphotos/Samoa-seismograph/photo//090929/photos wl pc afp/ e4b3a34480d36b1fb185a36b299d6d13//s:/afp/20090929/wl asia afp/samoaquake



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Natural Hazards and Disaster

Class 4: Geohazards; Earthquakes Location Causes Magnitude Ground shaking **Recurrence** intervals Hazard maps



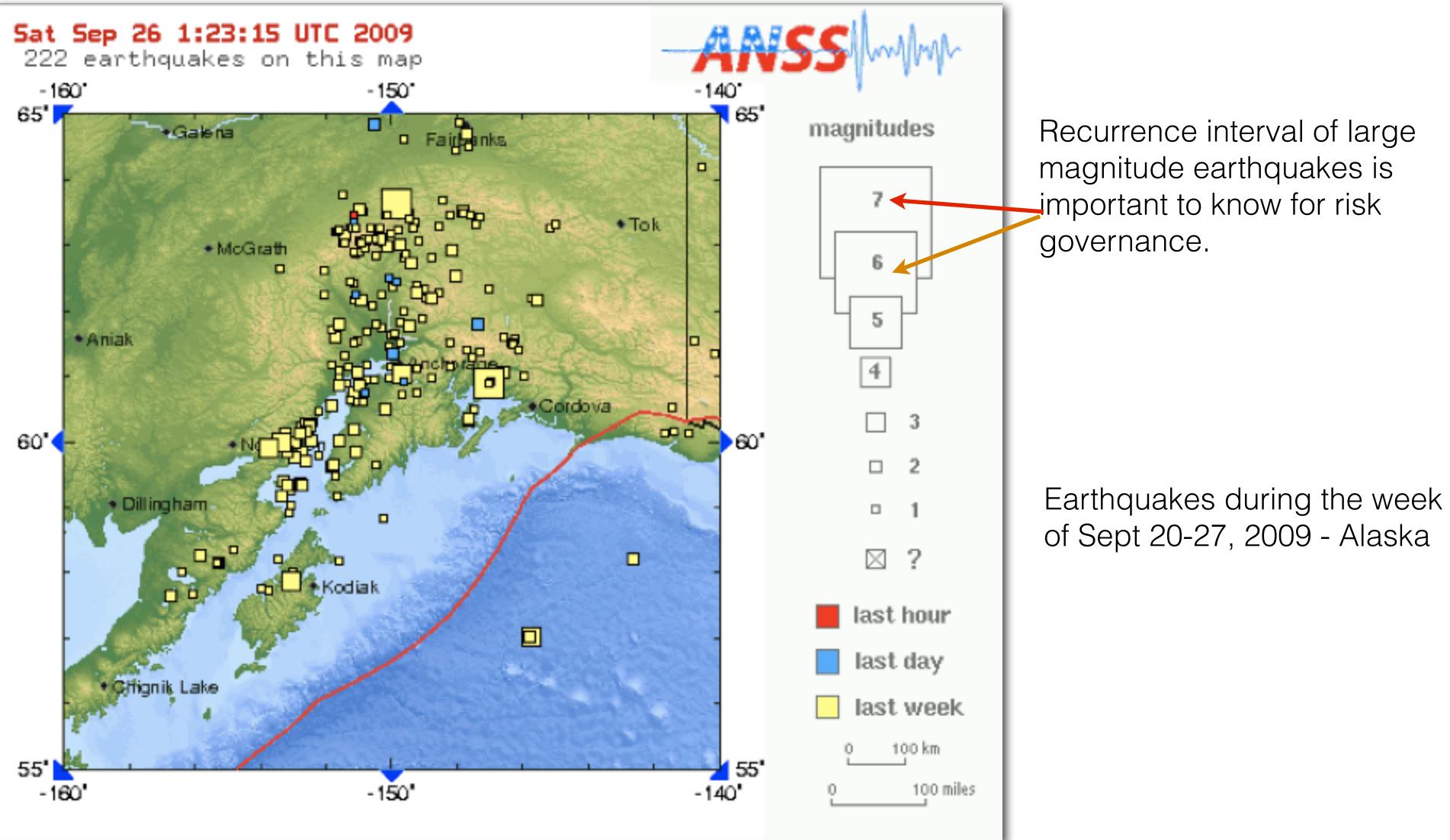


Recurrence Interval

 $T_{R:}$ average time between earthquakes of a particular size

$T_{R} = N/n$

- N is number of years
- in the record
- n is number of events



http://earthquake.usgs.gov/eqcenter/recenteqsus/Maps/AK10/55.65.-160.-140.php



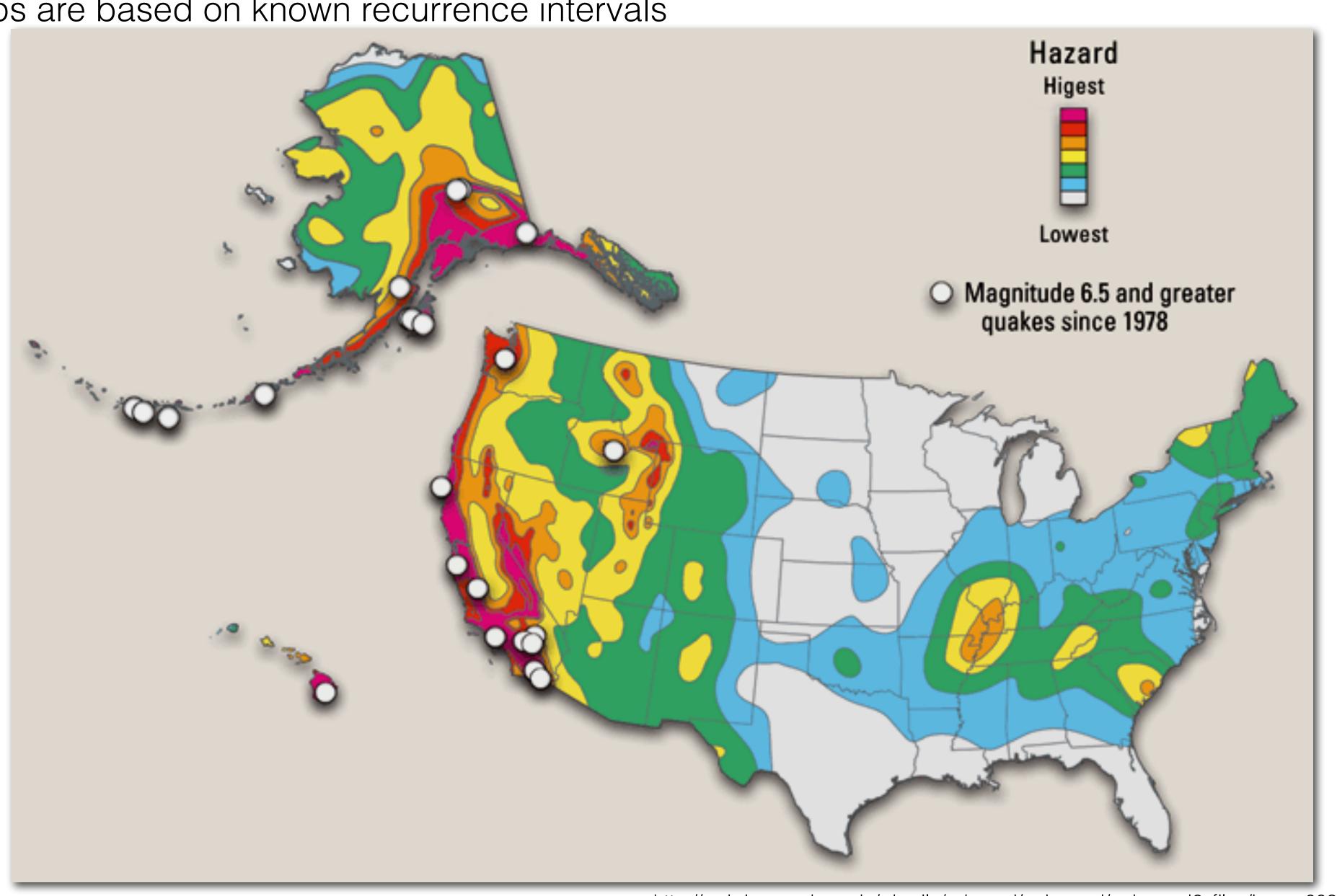
Natural Hazards and Disaster

Class 4: Geohazards; Earthquakes Location Causes Magnitude Ground shaking **Recurrence** intervals Hazard maps





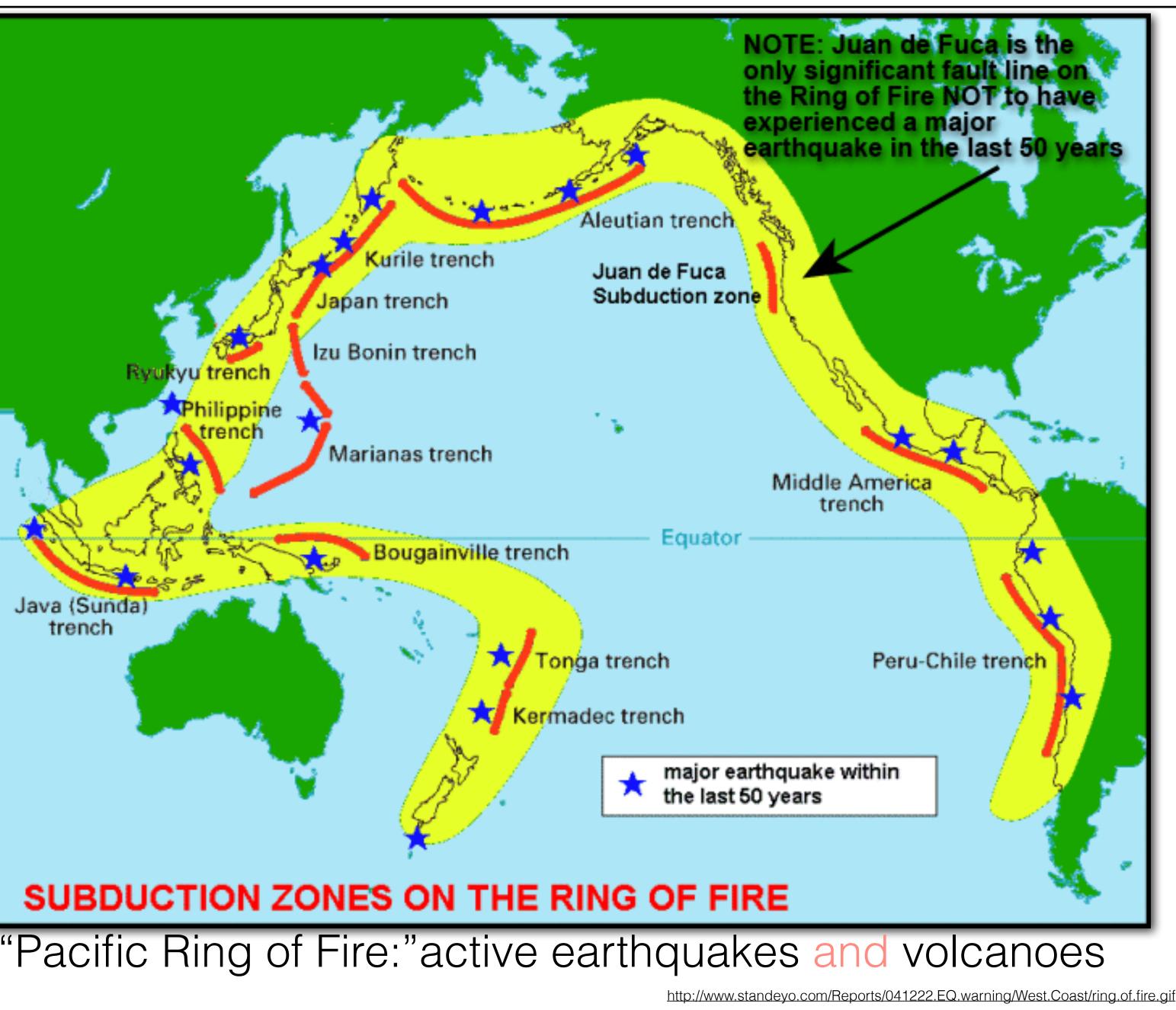
Hazard maps are based on known recurrence intervals



http://web.ics.purdue.edu/~braile/edumod/eqhazard/eqhazard2_files/image003.gif



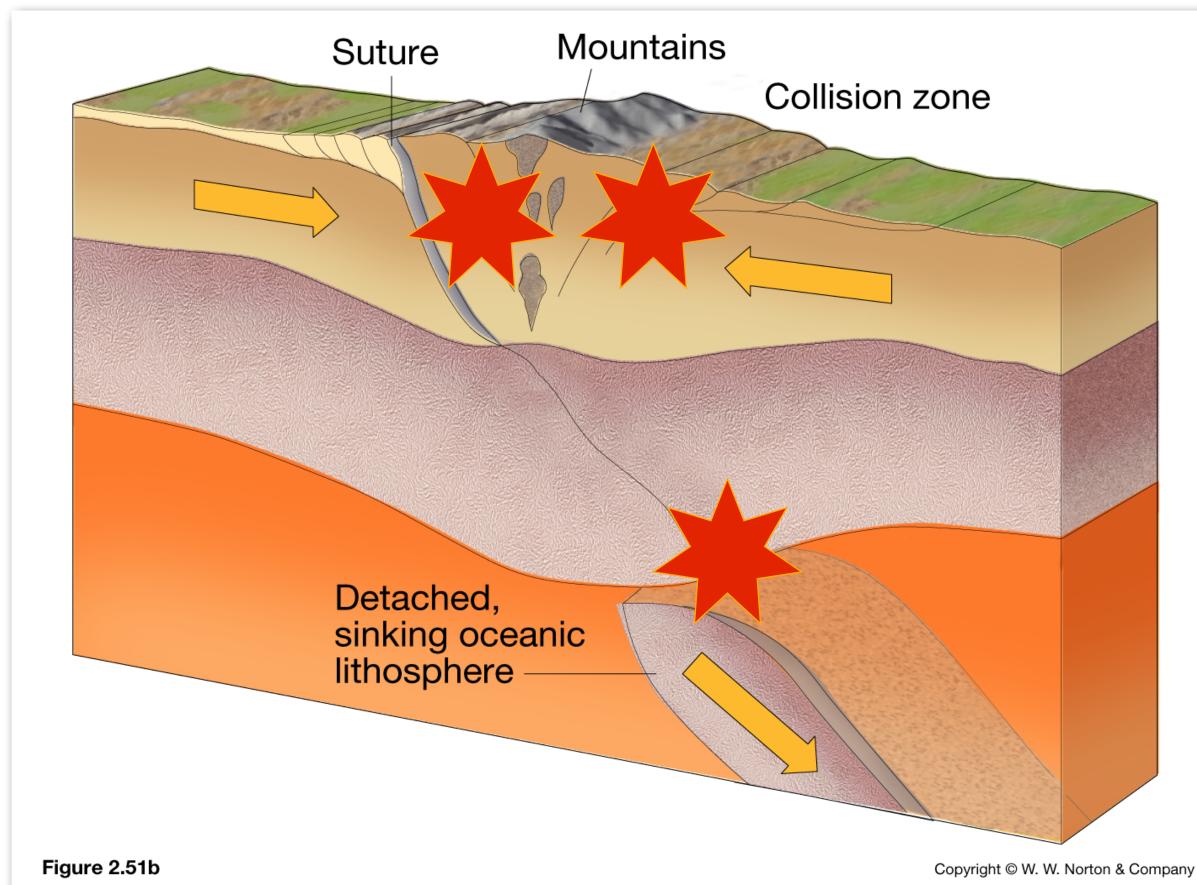
Convergent boundaries: (a) subduction zones





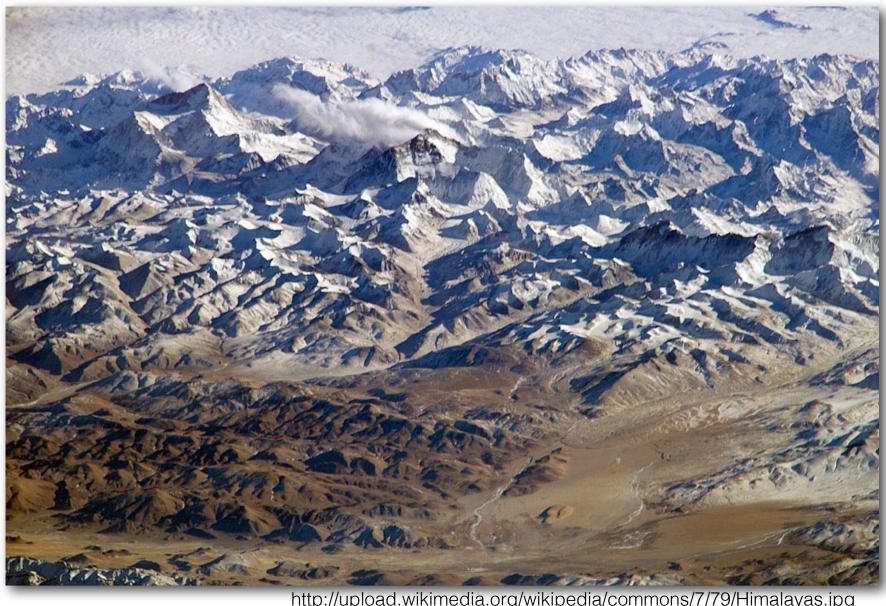
Convergent boundaries:

(b) collision zones e.g., Himalayas, Zagros Mts. (Iran), Alps, China



very large earthquakes - hardly any volcanoes







Sichuan province, China 2008

http://i.telegraph.co.uk/telegraph/multimedia/archive/01112/earthquake-damage-_1112578c.jpg



Transform boundaries: e.g., California, New Zealand

- Mostly shallow depth,
- Can be large magnitude and have destructive ground shaking



Very Sticky! Lots of Earthquakes.







http://www.shakeout.org



