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## 1 Abstract

3	We investigate a duration-amplitude relation of non-volcanic deep
4	low-frequency (DLF) tremors in the Tokai region, southwest Japan, to constrain the
5	source process of the tremors. We apply two models to the distribution, one is an
6	exponential model as a scale bound distribution and the other a power law model as a
7	scale invariant distribution. The exponential model shows a better fit to the
8	duration-amplitude distribution of the tremors than a power law model, implying that
9	the DLF tremors are caused by a scale-bound source process. The source process of the
10	DLF tremors, therefore, differs from those for earthquakes. We suggest that the
11	non-volcanic DLF tremor is possibly caused by a fixed source dimension with variable
12	excess pressure of fluid or variable stress drop.

### 14 Introduction

15

16	Continuous movement of tectonic plates causes great earthquakes repeating
17	on plate interfaces. Not only coseismic and postseismic phenomena but also
18	interseismic ones are important keys to understand and to construct a physical model
19	of the whole earthquake process.
20	Recent seismological and geodetic observations from dense networks have
21	revealed characteristic phenomena in the interseismic period in subduction zones,
22	non-volcanic DLF tremors (Obara, 2002; Katsumata and Kamaya, 2003; Rogers and
23	Dragert, 2003), very low-frequency earthquakes (Obara and Ito, 2005; Ito and Obara,
24	2006) and slow slip events (SSE) (Hirose et al., 1999; Dragert et al., 2001; Ozawa et
25	al., 2002; Obara et al., 2004).
26	Sources of the tremors, first noted by Obara (2002), show a beltlike
27	distribution of about 30-40 km in depth, parallel to the strike of a subduction zone
28	where the transition from unstable to stable slip may occur at the plate interface. One

29 of the interesting features of the tremors is a spatial and temporal correlation with SSE

30	found in Cascadia (Rogers and Dragert, 2003; Kao et al., 2006) and in the southwest
31	Japan (Obara et al., 2004; Hirose and Obara, 2005, 2006; Obara and Hirose, 2006).
32	This coincidence proves the importance of the tremor as a real-time indicator of the
33	occurrence of slip on the plate interface because a slip event could trigger a large
34	subduction thrust earthquake (Rogers and Dragert, 2003).
35	DLF events in volcanic areas are considered to occur mainly due to the
36	migration of magmatic fluid (Chouet, 1996). The cause of non-volcanic DLF tremors is
37	suggested to be associated with fluid (Obara, 2002), hydroseismogenic processes (Kao
38	et al., 2006), or shearing at the interface (Rogers and Dragert, 2003; Shelly et al., 2006)
39	or in a deformation zone across the interface (Kao et al., 2006). Their source process
40	has, however, remained unknown.
41	The scaling or frequency of occurrence versus size distribution usually
42	reflects a physical process of phenomena in nature. For example, the frequency-size
43	distribution of earthquakes is well described by a power law (e.g. Ishimoto and Iida,
44	1939; Gutenberg and Richter, 1954). On the other hand, the amplitude scaling of
45	volcanic tremor is described by an exponential law rather than a power law (Aki and

46	Koyanagi, 1981; Benoit et al., 2003), indicating that a unique length scale is involved		
47	in the source process of volcanic tremors.		
48	In this paper, we examine the duration-amplitude distribution of		
49	non-volcanic DLF tremors in the Tokai region, in order to provide an important		
50	physical constraint on the source process of the tremors.		
51			
52	Data		
53			
54	We use continuous waveform data recorded by a nationwide high-sensitivity		
55	seismograph network (Hi-net) (Obara et al., 2005) with an average station interval of		
56	20km across Japanese Islands operated by National Research Institute for Earthquake		
57	Science and Disaster Prevention (NIED). We select 40 non-volcanic DLF tremors with		
58	large amplitudes and durations larger than one minute that have occurred in the Tokai		
59	region from January 2002 to June 2006 (Figure 1). The hypocenters of these events are		
60	reported by the Japan Meteorological Agency (JMA) and their magnitudes ( $M_{JMA}$ ) are		
61	greater than 0.7. Most of tremors we analyzed here include several JMA events whose		

62	magnitudes are smaller than 0.6. In this case we use the hypocenter location of the
63	largest event. We select five Hi-net stations in the Tokai region, Asahi (ASHH), Asuke
64	(ASUH), Horai (HOUH), Shidara (STRH), Tukude (TDEH) (Figure 1), that provide
65	high S/N waveform data of the tremors.
66	
67	Estimation of the amplitude-duration distribution
68	
69	In order to examine the amplitude-duration distribution, we convert the
70	observed tremor amplitudes to reduced displacements. We apply the band-pass filter of
71	2-10Hz and the moving average with the time window of 6s for root-mean-squared
72	(RMS) ground displacement. The reduced displacement is RMS ground displacement
73	corrected for the geometrical spreading and those units are distance $\times$ amplitude (m <sup>2</sup> )
74	(Aki and Koyanagi, 1981). Because a non-volcanic DLF tremor is mainly composed of
75	S waves (Obara, 2002; Rogers and Dragert, 2003), we calculate the reduced
76	displacement using the following formula for body waves (Aki and Koyanagi, 1981),
<b>--</b>	$A \cdot r$ (1)

$$D_R = \frac{A \cdot r}{2\sqrt{2}}, \quad (1)$$

78 where *A* is the RMS ground displacement and *r* the distance between a source and 79 a receiver.

To determine the frequency-size distribution of discrete events such as earthquakes, we usually count events of a particular size and plot their numbers versus their size. Non-volcanic DLF tremor is, however, a continuous signal, so that we use tremor durations to determine the frequency of occurrence for the tremors. The tremor duration at a particular amplitude or greater is measured using the procedure of *Benoit et al.* (2003) (Figure 2). We count the duration of amplitudes that are greater than  $0.2 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2$  in this study.

We fit both the exponential model and the power law model to the duration-amplitude distribution of the tremors. The exponential model is expressed as

89 
$$d(D_R) = d_t e^{-\lambda D_R}, \quad (2)$$

90 where  $D_R$  is the amplitude, d is the total duration of tremor with amplitudes greater 91 than or equal to  $D_R$ ,  $\lambda$  is the slope of the line or scaling parameter, and  $d_t$  is the 92 prefactor. The power law model is expressed as

93 
$$d(D_R) = d_t (D_R)^{-\gamma}, (3)$$

94 where  $\gamma$  is a modulus and represents the slope of the line, similar to the *b*-value for 95 earthquakes.

96

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98 tremors

99

100 For the duration-amplitude distribution of non-volcanic DLF tremors, 101 the exponential model seems to be a better fit than the power law model (Figure 2). We 102 compare the correlation coefficients for both models to quantitatively estimate the 103 goodness of fit. For most events, the exponential model shows larger correlation 104 coefficients (Figure 3). This result is independent of whether a tremor corresponds to a 105single JMA event or multiple JMA events. The average of correlation coefficients  $(R^2)$ is 0.953 for the exponential model and 0.851 for the power law model. We calculate 106 107 *p*-value of *t*-test to examine a significance of the difference between two mean values statistically. The *p*-value of *t*-test is  $6.945 \times 10^{-10}$ , indicating that the difference in 108 correlation coefficients between the exponential model and the power law model is 109

110	statistically significant. We, therefore, consider that the exponential model is better
111	than the power law model to describe the duration-amplitude of the tremors. The
112	average value of $\lambda$ , the slope of the line for the exponential model, is $5.7\pm3.1\times10^4$
113	$m^{-2}$ . This value is larger than that of volcanic tremors reported by <i>Benoit et al.</i> (2003).
114	The duration-amplitude distribution may be, however, affected by the
115	length of the time window of the moving average. We apply other two time windows,
116	3s and 12s, for RMS of the reduced amplitude to check the effect of the length of the
117	time window (Figure 4). For the both cases, we confirm that the exponential model is
118	better than the power law model to describe the distribution. We also confirm that the
119	band width has no effect on the result.
120	
121	Implication of source process of non-volcanic DLF tremors and Conclusions
122	
123	The duration-amplitude distribution of non-volcanic DLF tremors in the
124	Tokai region is well described by the exponential model, not the power law model as in
125	earthquakes. The exponential model requires the source process to be scale bound

126	rather than scale invariant. The same result was obtained for the duration-amplitude
127	distribution of volcanic tremors (Aki and Koyanagi, 1981; Benoit et al., 2003). They
128	interpreted that the source process of volcanic tremor involved a unique scale length
129	such as the average size of conduits or resonators.
130	The location of non-volcanic DLF tremors in the bottom of continental crust
131	near the inferred locations of slab dehydration suggests that tremor source mechanisms
132	may involve the movement of fluid in conduits or cracks. Furthermore, tremor sources
133	are clustered near regions of high $V_{\text{P}}\!/V_{\text{S}}$ ratios, thus strengthening the connection to
134	fluids (Kurashimo and Hirata, 2004; Matsubara et al., 2005; Shelly et al., 2006; Kao
135	et al., 2006). We, therefore, suggest that the exponential duration-amplitude
136	distribution of the tremors in the Tokai region indicates a characteristic scale in the
137	tremor source process, such as the length of a fluid-filled crack.
138	We compare amplitude spectrums of the tremors whose magnitudes reported
139	by JMA are from 0.3 to 1.0 to examine relations of the frequency and the event size.
140	We recognize that both the frequency content and the dominant frequency are almost
141	independent of the amplitude or the event size. This supports that the source of the

142 tremors involves a unique length scale.

143	Shelly et al. (2006) indicated that precise locations of low-frequency
144	earthquakes were on the plate interface by using a combination of waveform
145	cross-correlation and double-difference tomography. They proposed that
146	low-frequency earthquakes might be generated by local slip accelerations at geometric
147	or frictional heterogeneities that accompanied large slow slip events on the plate
148	interface. Rogers and Dragert (2003) also suggested that for tremors observed in
149	Cascadia a shearing source seemed most likely. Long-duration tremor may, therefore,
150	be a superposition of many concurrent low-frequency earthquakes or a combined
151	signal of shear slip and fluid flow (Shelly et al., 2006; Kao et al., 2006).
152	If a non-volcanic DLF tremor is the superposition of many low-frequency
153	earthquakes, an exponentially decaying waveform such as the coda of a low-frequency
154	earthquake may be a cause of the exponential scaling. Benoit et al. (2003) checked this
155	possibility by examining the duration-amplitude distribution using a series of synthetic
156	low-frequency earthquakes with a power law distribution. The duration-amplitude
157	distribution calculated for the synthetic tremor followed a power law scaling. This

158	result showed that an exponential duration-amplitude scaling was never reproduced
159	through the superposition of many low-frequency earthquakes closely spaced in time if
160	the size-distributions of the low-frequency earthquakes obey a power law. A power law
161	scaling of regular earthquakes is the consequence of the constant stress drop and the
162	power law distribution ( $L^3$ ) of the product of a fault area and a fault slip. A variation in
163	the stress drop with a fixed source dimension might generate the exponential
164	distribution if the continuous tremors are the result of the superposition frequently
165	excited intermittent.
166	The exponential scaling of non-volcanic DLF tremors concludes that the
167	source process of the tremors is different from that of regular earthquakes that obey the
168	power law distribution. We, therefore, suggest that the non-volcanic DLF tremor is
169	possibly caused by a fixed source dimension with variable excess pressures of fluid or
170	variable stress drops.
171	

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179	1998) was used to draw all figures.

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<u>4</u> 41	riguic	captions

242	Figure	1.
	<i>G</i> <sup></sup>	

- 243 The distribution of tremor epicenters (solid circles) and the Hi-net stations (solid
- squares). Open circles are tremors and dots are regular earthquakes shallower than
- 60km and M2.0 and greater during 2001-2005 reported by JMA.
- 246
- 247 Figure 2.

Measurements of the duration-amplitude distribution of non-volcanic DLF tremors using (a) the exponential model and (b) the power law model for each station. The duration at a particular amplitude or greater (open circles) measured in the window

- 251 between the dashed lines of (c). Gray lines show the best fits to the models.  $R^2$  shows
- 252 the correlation coefficient. (c) Envelope waveforms of the reduced displacement for
- 253 each station. The noise level is  $0.2 \times 10^{-4}$  m<sup>2</sup>.

#### 254

256 The distribution of correlation coefficient  $R^2$  for the exponential and power law

<sup>255</sup> Figure 3.

257models.

258

259Figure 4.

Envelope of waveforms and duration-amplitude distributions for non-volcanic DLF 260261tremors with the moving time window of 3s, 6s and 12s, respectively. The 262duration-amplitude distribution is not affected by the length of the time window of the

263moving average.



Figure 1



Figure 2



Figure 3



Figure 4