1	Coseismic throw variation across along-strike bends on active normal faults:
2	implications for displacement versus length scaling of earthquake ruptures.
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17	Key Points:
18 19	• Surface ruptures of the 2016 Mw 6.0-6.5 Central Italy earthquakes and other large normal faulting earthquakes have throw maxima at bends.
20	• Conservation of strain along the fault strike can explain maxima in throw at fault bends.
21 22 23	• Bends can explain scatter in fault scaling relationships and bias estimation of magnitude, seismic moment and stress drop.

## 24 Abstract

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Fault bends, and associated changes in fault dip, play a key role in explaining the scatter in 26 maximum offset versus surface rupture length fault scaling relationships. Detailed field 27 measurements of the fault geometry and magnitude of slip in the 2016-2017 central Italy 28 29 earthquake sequence, alongside three examples from large historical normal-faulting earthquakes in different tectonic settings, provide multiple examples in which coseismic throw increases 30 across bends in fault strike where dip also increases beyond what is necessary to accommodate a 31 uniform slip vector. Coseismic surface ruptures produced by two mainshocks of the 2016-2017 32 central Italy earthquake sequence (24<sup>th</sup> August 2016 M<sub>w</sub> 6.0, 30<sup>th</sup> October 2016 M<sub>w</sub> 6.5) cross a 33  $\sim 0.83$  km amplitude along-strike bend, and the coseismic throws for both earthquakes increase 34 by a factor of 2-3 where the strike of the fault changes by  $\sim 30^{\circ}$  and the dip increases by 20-25°. 35 We present similar examples from historical normal faulting earthquakes (1887, Sonora 36 37 earthquake, M<sub>w</sub> 7.5; 1981, Corinth earthquakes, M<sub>w</sub> 6.7-6.4;1983, Borah Peak earthquake, M<sub>w</sub> 7.3). We demonstrate that it is possible to estimate the expected change in throw across a bend 38 by applying equations that relate strike, dip and slip vector to horizontal strain conservation 39 40 along a non-planar fault for a single earthquake rupture. The calculated slip enhancement in bends can explain the scatter in maximum displacement (Dmax) versus surface rupture length 41 42 scaling relationships. If fault bends are un-recognized, they can introduce variation in *Dmax* that 43 may lead to erroneous inferences of stress drop variability for earthquakes, and maximum 44 earthquake magnitudes derived from vertical offsets in paleoseismic datasets.

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# 47 **1. Introduction**

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49 Displacement versus length scaling relationships derived from earthquake ruptures are commonly used to infer magnitudes from paleoseismic data and measurements of active fault 50 length, and also to calculate stress drops during earthquakes (e.g. Pantosti et al. 1996; Dolan et 51 al., 1997; Galadini and Galli, 2000, 2003; Villamor and Berryman, 2001; Manighetti et al., 2007; 52 Cinti et al., 2011; Galli et al., 2014; Galli et al., 2017). These displacement versus length scaling 53 relationships (e.g. Wells and Coppersmith, 1994; Stirling et al., 2002; Manighetti et al., 2007; 54 Wesnousky, 2008; Leonard, 2010) are widely cited, yet they contain significant scatter in 55 coseismic maximum displacement (Dmax) for a given fault length (Figure 1). In this paper we 56 study this scatter, and point out that (1) normal faulting earthquake ruptures commonly occur on 57 faults with along-strike bends, (2) these bends appear to be characterized by relatively steep fault 58 dips, as suggested by the 5 large normal faulting earthquakes studied in this paper, and (3) dip 59 60 increases within the bends will necessitate an increase in the magnitude of the coseismic slipvector because the coseismic throw and displacement must increase if the coseismic strain is 61 maintained along strike. Our main conclusion is that the increase in the magnitude of the 62 63 coseismic slip-vector, if not recognized, can produce scatter in Dmax values for a given fault length and we discuss the implications of this finding. 64

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A key point we make is that bends in fault strike appear to be causal in controlling fault dip (see Figure 2), and the dip is then causal in controlling increases in throw and the magnitude of the slip vector in bends. Firstly, we explain our reasoning concerning how along-strike fault bends form and exert a control on fault dip (Figure 2). Secondly we explain how dip changes in along strike bends control the throw and hence magnitude of coseismic slip vectors (Figure 1c and d).

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Firstly, in terms of how along-strike fault bends form and exert a control on fault dip, we point 72 out that faults grow and link through time (e.g. Mansfield and Cartwright 2001; Figure 2). What 73 is clear from analogue models for the growth of normal faults (Mansfield and Cartwright 2001) 74 and fault growth histories in nature described by stratigraphic evolution underpinned by 3D 75 seismic reflection and age control from well data (e.g. McLeod et al. 2000), is that: (1) initially 76 separate faults grow by tip propagation, with en echelon map geometries common; (2) new faults 77 begin to grow in the relay zones between en echelon fault tips as incipient breach faults (see 78 McLeod et al. 2000 for real examples, their Figures 9 and 15, and Mansfield and Cartwright 79 2001 for examples in analogue experiments, their Figure 11); (3) the dips of the new breach 80 faults develop to accommodate the strain in the relay zone and the regional kinematics (Roberts 81 2007; we show below that all the examples presented in this paper have steeper fault dips in the 82 83 bend); (4) faults then link across the relay zones through tip propagation followed by coalescence and linkage of breach faults and the initial en echelon faults; (5) the newly-linked fault 84 propagates up and down dip to increase the fault surface area through progressive deformation. 85 86 The key point is that the dip value for the breach fault, that eventually becomes the fault bend, forms after the formation of the initial en echelon faults, and, in up-dip and down-dip locations, 87 88 after the formation of a through-going fault within a bend (see Time 6 in Figure 2). In other 89 words, the change in strike across the incipient bend sets up the situation that controls the dip of the eventual fault in the fault bend, and the 5 earthquakes described in this paper suggest that 90 91 relatively steep dips typify such locations (see below). The formation of a steeply dipping breach 92 fault necessitates an increase in throw across the bend if the strain is to be conserved along strike

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93 (Faure Walker et al. 2009). Thus, the overall point is that bends in fault strike appear to be causal 94 in controlling fault dip, and the dip is then causal in controlling local increases in throw and the 95 magnitude of the slip vector in along-strike fault bends. In summary, along-strike bends are 96 likely to be places where the dip varies and hence the throw varies.

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Secondly, Faure Walker et al. (2009, 2010) show that the vertical offset (throw) across a given 98 location on an active normal fault is controlled by the regional strain the fault must accommodate 99 and the local non-planar fault geometry. In response to the change in obliquity of the slip across 100 an along-strike fault bend, the throw-rate and fault dip must vary locally if the long-term 101 horizontal strain-rate across the fault is to be maintained (Faure Walker et al., 2009, 2010, 2015). 102 For an example normal fault from the central Apennines, Italy, local variation in fault strike 103 coincides with a local maximum in throw-rate, with preservation of the horizontal strain-rate, 104 which decreases linearly towards the fault tip (Figure 1d; Wilkinson et al., 2015). The 105 106 relationship is confirmed by natural examples of long-term throw-rates across faults (e.g. 15±3) ka) (Faure Walker et al., 2009; Wilkinson et al., 2015), and individual coseismic ruptures with 107 108 larger coseismic *Dmax* within fault bends (Mildon et al., 2016; Wilkinson et al., 2015). If *Dmax* 109 increases in along-strike fault bends, with steep fault dips, compared to straight faults, and this phenomenon is not recognized, we hypothesize that databases such as that in Wells and 110 111 Coppersmith (1994), and other scaling papers, may contain a mixture of ruptures across along-112 strike bends and those along straight faults, and this may cause scatter in *Dmax* for a given fault 113 length. This could lead to erroneous inferences about stress drop and maximum magnitude.

To improve our understanding of coseismic throw variations associated with along-strike fault 115 bends with steep fault dips, we present measurements and analysis of the surface ruptures to the 116 24<sup>th</sup> August 2016 M<sub>w</sub> 6.0 and the 30<sup>th</sup> October 2016 M<sub>w</sub> 6.5 earthquakes that both ruptured the 117 southern part of the Mt. Vettore active normal fault in the central Apennines, Italy. We show that 118 the Mt. Vettore fault exhibits a prominent bend in strike with an associated increase in local fault 119 120 dip, and a relatively high value of total finite throw and coseismic throw in this bend. We measured the coseismic throw, heave and displacement independently, with heave derived with 121 trigonometry when it was not possible to measure it directly, within the vertical plane containing 122 the slip vector. The orientation of the slip vector was recorded by mud smears on the fault planes 123 that were striated during coseismic slip, and piercing points in ruptured colluvial deposits. We 124 compare the along-strike profiles of coseismic throw for these two earthquakes with the 125 structural relief and the long-term throw profile of the fault, constructed through geological 126 cross-sections, to understand how throw in these earthquakes compares with the longer-term 127 128 throw of the Mt. Vettore fault. We adapt existing quantitative relationships for the conservation of the horizontal extensional strain-rate across fault bends (Faure Walker et al., 2009, 2015) so 129 that they are suitable for single ruptures, to explain the large coseismic throw within the along-130 131 strike bend on the Mt. Vettore fault and within along-strike bends for three other large magnitude normal faulting earthquakes. We use these observations to discuss the observed scatter in *Dmax* 132 133 in displacement versus length scaling data, and the implications of this for calculating stress-drop 134 variability and maximum estimated magnitudes for paleoearthquakes.

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136 2. Geologic background

The 2016-2017 Central Italy seismic sequence began on the  $24^{th}$  August 2016 with a  $M_w$  6.0 138 earthquake that killed 302 people (Figure 3). The earthquake ruptured both the north western part 139 of the Laga fault and the south eastern part of the Mt. Vettore fault with reports of surface 140 ruptures confined to the latter (Livio et al., 2016). On 26th October 2016, two earthquakes (Mw 141 5.4, 5.9) ruptured the northern part of the Mt. Vettore fault, but it is unclear if they produced 142 surface ruptures. It is unclear because on the 30<sup>th</sup> October 2016, before field surveys of the 26<sup>th</sup> 143 October earthquakes, a M<sub>w</sub> 6.5 earthquake ruptured the total length of the Mt. Vettore fault, re-144 rupturing locations that slipped in the 24<sup>th</sup> August 2016 earthquake and perhaps those on the 26<sup>th</sup> 145 October (see Figures, 2, 3 and 4) (Chiaraluce et al., 2017; Cheloni et al., 2017; Mildon et al., 146 2017; Civico et al., 2018; Falcucci et al., 2018; Ferrario and Livio, 2018; Scognamiglio et al., 147 2018; Villani et al., 2018; Walters et al., 2018). Meter-scale offset across surface ruptures was 148 measured with near-field 1hz Global Navigation Satellite System (GNSS) for the 30<sup>th</sup> October 149 ruptures, revealing that the ruptures formed within 2-4 seconds, and before peak ground 150 acceleration, supporting the primary tectonic origin of the ruptures (Wilkinson et al., 2017) 151 (Figure 3). 152

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These normal faulting earthquakes occurred within the Miocene Apennines fold-and-thrust belt, that in general thrusted Mesozoic and Cenozoic limestones onto Miocene flysch deposits, with NE-SW shortening (Anderson and Jackson, 1987; Doglioni, 1993). Since about 2-3 Ma, SW-NE directed extension started to overprint the thrust belt (Cavinato and De Celles 1999, Roberts et al. 2002, Mariucci and Montone, 2016), causing the growth of a normal fault system in this new stress field (Patacca et al., 1990; Pizzi and Scisciani 2000, Cavinato et al., 2002; Pizzi and Galadini, 2009). The normal faults strike ~NW-SE, with lengths of ~20-40 km and total throws

less than ~2 km (Pizzi and Scisciani 2000, Roberts and Michetti, 2004). They form an array of 161 dip-slip faults with the main fault surfaces not physically connected, showing both en-echelon 162 163 and end-on arrangements of faults along strike (Roberts and Michetti, 2004). This normal fault system has produced historical seismicity recorded since at least Roman times (Catalogo 164 Parametrico Terremoti Italiani 2015, Rovida et al., 2016) including moderate-to-large 165 earthquakes (up to M<sub>w</sub> 6.5-7.0). Fault-specific earthquake recurrence times for surface faulting 166 derived from paleoseismology are in the order of hundreds to thousands of years (Blumetti et al., 167 1993; Cello et al., 1997; Galadini & Galli, 2000; Boncio et al., 2004). 168

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The Mt. Vettore fault dissects the western slope of the Sibillini Mountain range (Figures 2, 3 and 170 4). The fault is about 30 km in length, and its  $10^6$ -year activity has produced an internally 171 draining intramontane basin and lake-bed, and a large footwall escarpment (up to 1000 m of 172 relief). Despite clear geomorphic evidence of Holocene active faulting, there is no record of prior 173 174 historical earthquakes on the Mt. Vettore fault (see Galadini & Galli, 2000). Paleoseismological analyses of the Mt. Vettore fault suggest a minimum throw rate of 0.11-0.36 mm/yr, a recurrence 175 interval that could span at least 4690 years and a minimum elapsed time of 1300-1500 years, but 176 177 possibly up to 4155 years since the last paleoearthquake (Galadini & Galli, 2003).

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## 179 **3. Methods**

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181 3.1 Measurements

We conducted field mapping of the surface ruptures immediately after the 24<sup>th</sup> August and 30<sup>th</sup> 183 October 2016 earthquakes (Figures 4 and 5). The full extent of the 24<sup>th</sup> August 2016 surface 184 rupture was mapped within a few weeks after the earthquake, and before the occurrence of the 185 30<sup>th</sup> October 2016 earthquake (Livio et al., 2016). For the 30<sup>th</sup> October earthquake, we focused 186 our work on constraining the large coseismic throws around a prominent bend near the southern 187 end of the Mt. Vettore fault (bend A-B, Figure 5), which also ruptured in the earlier 24<sup>th</sup> August 188 earthquake. We conducted most of the mapping for the 30<sup>th</sup> October 2016 earthquake from the 189 2<sup>nd</sup>-6<sup>th</sup> November 2016, but completed a section of the mapping across the A-B bend in June 190 2017, due to bad weather after the 6<sup>th</sup> November 2016; the absence of measured postseismic slip 191 larger than ~5 cm, constrained by re-measuring the offset at given sites, allowed us to combine 192 the November and June datasets. The fault trace shows a second prominent along-strike fault 193 bend along its northern half (C-D, Figure 5), which also ruptured during the 30<sup>th</sup> October M<sub>w</sub> 6.5 194 earthquake (Civico et al., 2018; Villani et al., 2018). We were unable to map ruptures across this 195 fault bend with the detail required for this paper in the time available, but those ruptures are 196 described by Civico et al. (2018) and Villani et al. (2018). 197

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We measured the strike, dip, slip vector azimuth, plunge of the slip vector, slip vector magnitude, throw, heave, and displacement associated with the ruptures, using steel rulers, compassclinometers and hand-held GPS (Figures 3a, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8 and Supplement S2). Measurements were made every 2-10 meters along strike, and every 10-50 meters along strike, following the 24<sup>th</sup> August 2016 earthquake and the 30<sup>th</sup> October 2016 earthquake, respectively. We plotted these measurements as a function of distance along a line oriented parallel to the regional strike (163°) of the Mt. Vettore fault (Figure 6 and Supplement S2 and S3). 206

Where the ruptures occurred directly on the bedrock fault plane they revealed a freshly-exposed light-colored stripe in the limestone bedrock (Figure 4). In these locations we measured throw and displacement in the vertical plane containing the slip vector, defined by striations on mud smears (Figure 4c and 5), and used trigonometry to derive the heave. The longer-term slip vector orientation was confirmed by kinematic indicators on the fault plane, such as tool marks and frictional wear striae cut into the limestone fault gouge, and measurements of the strike and dip of fault planes.

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In places, the ruptures also stepped a few decimeters to meters into the hangingwall of the main 215 bedrock scarp to offset colluvial deposits. To obtain accurate measurements, and avoid the 216 effects of disaggregation on colluvial scarps, we used two methods: (1) we measured the slip 217 vector azimuth and the displacement along preserved continuous striae on fault planes cutting 218 219 through the fine matrix of coarse-grained mixed scree, debris flow and colluvial deposits, and also the magnitude of the slip vector where possible; (2) where striae were not preserved, we 220 measured the slip vector by matching piercing points on the footwall and hangingwall cut-offs 221 222 defined by clasts and holes left by clasts in the colluvium (see Figure 3b.ii and 3c.ii).

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To understand how the offsets produced by these earthquakes compare to offsets that have developed over the long-term history of the Mt. Vettore fault, we compared the along-strike profiles of coseismic throw for the two earthquakes with the long-term throw profile of the fault, constructed from ten serial geological cross-sections across pre-rift strata, based on the geological map published in Pierantoni et al. (2013) and our own field observations (Figure 8;

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229	see Supplement Information S1; Mildon et al., 2017). We also compared these along-strike
230	profiles with (1) the large-scale relief associated with the footwall escarpment on the Mt. Vettore
231	Fault obtained using topographic profiles derived from a 10 m resolution DEM (Tarquini et al.,
232	2012), and (2) the location of Middle Pleistocene-Holocene lake deposits in the hangingwall
233	(from Pierantoni et al., 2013), to ascertain the position and dimensions of areas of maximum
234	subsidence (Figure 8). We have also compared the long-term deformation with the locations of
235	maximum coseismic subsidence determined from preliminary InSAR results (Figure 8).
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237	3.2 The relationship between strain, fault geometry and coseismic throw
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239	We calculated predicted throws across fault bends by adapting the methodology published in
240	Faure Walker et al. (2009) so that it can be used with individual ruptures, using field
241	measurements as input (Figures 8 and 9). We define an "along-strike bend" as a portion of the
242	fault where the strike is not perpendicular to the regional extension direction. We define outer
243	faults as portions of the fault either side of the bend with strikes that are perpendicular to the
244	regional extension direction. The methodology of Faure Walker et al. (2009), when applied to
245	natural examples, shows that the horizontal strain-rate is maintained along strike, even within

2016 Italian earthquakes and three other large magnitude normal faulting earthquakes that 250 produced surface ruptures reported in the literature. We calculate the horizontal strain for fault 251

along-strike fault bends where the dip increases beyond what is necessary to accommodate a

uniform slip vector, because variation in fault strike and dip are accompanied by changes in

throw and plunge of the slip vector (Faure Walker et al., 2009, 2010, 2015; Wilkinson et al.,

2015; see Figure 1c and 1d). We attempt to verify this for individual coseismic ruptures using the

locations outside the bend (we refer to these locations as the "outer fault segments"; see Figures 6-7 in Faure Walker et al., 2009 and Figures 5 and 8 herein). Equation 1, adapted from equations 13-17 from Faure Walker et al. (2010), shows how strain-rate along a specified direction,  $\varphi$ , is calculated using field measurement of strike, dip, slip vector azimuth and coseismic throw.

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$$\dot{\varepsilon}_{\varphi} = \left(\frac{1}{2at}\right) \sum_{k=1}^{K} L^{k} T^{k} cot p^{k} [\sin(\phi^{k} - \Phi^{k}) - \sin(\phi^{k} + \Phi^{k} - 2\varphi)]$$
(1)

258  $\dot{\varepsilon}$  = strain-rate (/yr), a=area of grid square (km<sup>2</sup>), t=time (yr), L=fault length (km), T=throw (m), 259 p=plunge (degrees),  $\phi$ =slip vector azimuth (degrees),  $\Phi$ =fault strike (degrees), dip=fault dip 260 angle (degrees).

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To calculate the expected coseismic throw across the bend, we rearrange Equation 1 to express throw as a function of strain and field measurements of strike, dip and slip vector azimuth across the bend (Equation 2). In our calculations of throw across the bend, the inferred strain magnitude across the fault bend is assumed to be the mean of the strain calculated on the outer faults either side of the bend.

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$$T = \frac{\text{mean strain across outer faults per given length}}{(\frac{1}{2a})\text{cotp}^B\{\sin(\phi^B - \Phi^B) - \sin(\phi^B + \Phi^B - 2\alpha)\}}$$
(2)

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with <sup>B</sup> representing the value within the bend,  $\alpha$ = principal angle of the outer fault segments measured clockwise from north (Fung, 1977; Faure Walker et al., 2010), and *p* (plunge) is defined as:

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$$p=acrtan(sin(\phi - \Phi) tan(dip))$$
 (3)

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Given the values of strain, strike and slip vector azimuth at the bend, we iterate the fault dip in order to obtain a coseismic throw consistent with the field measurements of throw across the bend. The consistency between the iterated dip necessary to obtain a modelled throw consistent with field measurements of throw and the field measurements of dip indicates that the anomalously large throw (and hence large magnitude of the slip vector) across the bend can be explained by the relationship between horizontal strain and fault geometry.

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To obtain strike values that represent the overall character of the fault bend and of the outer faults, for distances of hundreds of meters along the fault, strike lines (also known as structure contours) were constructed. Strike lines are horizontal lines joining points of equal elevation on a structure such as the hangingwall cut-off (Figure 5b; see details in S4). We used our field measurements to obtain the dip (Figure 6).

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We used published structural data to study coseismic throw across along-strike fault bends for other active normal faults (1887, Sonora earthquake, Mw 7.5 (Suter, 2008a; 2008b; 2015); 1981, Corinth earthquake, Mw 6.7-6.4 (Jackson et al., 1982; Morewood & Roberts, 2001); 1983, Borah Peak earthquake, Mw 7.3 (Crone et al., 1987) (Figure 10a), and supplemented data for the Corinth example with our own fieldwork results. The above data were used to predict the coseismic throw in along-strike fault bends for comparison with measurements of the same, as was done for the Mt. Vettore earthquake sequence studied herein.

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The reader should note that the above calculations apply only once a rupture is through going and has crossed a bend. We emphasize this because there are natural examples of normal faulting ruptures that terminated at along strike fault bends. Biasi and Wesnousky (2017) discuss the termination of some ruptures at fault bends, and it is beyond the scope of this paper to discuss this further, but we point out that all 5 of the earthquake ruptures we describe in this paper did cross fault bends.

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**4. Results** 

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305 4.1 Field observations

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For the 24<sup>th</sup> August 2016 earthquake, surface ruptures formed either on the bedrock fault scarp, 307 forming a freshly exposed stripe on the fault plane, or a few meters into the hangingwall, for a 308 length of about 5 km along strike, propagating across a prominent along-strike fault bend 309 (Figures 3, 4, 5 and S2). Surface ruptures were identified on the Mt. Vettore fault with a footwall 310 311 made of competent limestone, whereas there are few clear signs of surface ruptures on the Laga fault, which has a footwall made mainly by less competent flysch (Livio et al., 2016). On the Mt. 312 Vettore fault, the ruptures were continuous for about 2 km across the fault bend. The rupture was 313 314 less continuous towards the SE and NW terminations of the overall rupture. The surface ruptures were organized as sets of well-defined partially-overlapping traces, tens of meters in length, each 315 316 with a local *Dmax*. Rupture traces were arranged with both right and left-stepping *en echelon* 317 relay zones placing overlapping tip zones a few decimeters to meters apart across strike. Ruptures could be traced along strike from fault traces within colluvial deposits onto bedrock 318 fault planes and vice versa (Figure 4b). 319

The combined effect of the 26<sup>th</sup> October 2016 M<sub>w</sub> 5.4 and 5.9, and the 30<sup>th</sup> October 2016 M<sub>w</sub> 6.5 321 earthquakes appear to have ruptured the entire Mt. Vettore fault, reactivating the surface ruptures 322 produced by the  $24^{\text{th}}$  August M<sub>w</sub> 6.0 earthquake (Figure 5). Given the location of the mainshock. 323 the 26<sup>th</sup> October M<sub>w</sub> 5.9 earthquake appears to have ruptured only the northern part of the fault 324 (Figure 3). Due to the short temporal interval between the 26<sup>th</sup> October and 30<sup>th</sup> October events, 325 we were unable to determine whether the surface ruptures of the northern part of the fault were 326 in part caused by the 26<sup>th</sup> October Mw 5.4 and 5.9 earthquakes or if the measured surface rupture 327 was formed entirely by the larger 30<sup>th</sup> October M<sub>w</sub> 6.5 earthquake, so these northern parts of the 328 rupture were not included in this study. The surface ruptures in the central and southern parts of 329 the fault, on which we focused our field mapping, were all attributable to the 30<sup>th</sup> October M<sub>w</sub> 330 6.5 earthquake, based on the magnitude of slip and their timing of formation (Civico et al., 2018; 331 Villani et al., 2018). The 30<sup>th</sup> October surface ruptures were significantly longer and more 332 continuous, with more slip for each rupture trace, than ruptures associated with the 24<sup>th</sup> August 333 334 earthquake. The ruptures mainly occurred on bedrock fault planes, and as synthetic ruptures in colluvial deposits adjacent to the main Mt. Vettore fault escarpment. However, in places, 335 synthetic and antithetic ruptures occurred a few tens to a few thousand meters into the 336 337 hangingwall (Figure 5). Where it ruptured on bedrock, the coseismic slip produced a second freshly-exposed stripe on the fault plane (Figure 4c.i, 3c.iv, 3c.v and 3d). Presence of a mud 338 smear covering the fault plane (Figure 4c.iii) allowed us to define portions of the fault plane 339 exhumed by the 24th August (white stripe, no mud smear due to wind and rain since 24<sup>th</sup> 340 August) and the 30th October earthquakes (mud smear deformed by tool tracks and frictional 341 wear striae observed a few days after the event). By June 2017, mud smears on the fault planes 342

were no longer preserved, but it was still possible to recognize two generations of light-colored
stripe on the fault planes, belonging to the two different earthquakes (Figure 4c.i and 3d).

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All the parameters measured in the field show high variability along strike, even over a few tens of meters (Figure 6; see S2 for details of the 24<sup>th</sup> August ruptures). This is because individual rupture traces were as short as a few meters to tens of meters, and we were able to capture changes in parameters along each individual rupture trace due to our dense sampling. Despite the small-scale variability revealed by our measurements, we point out four overall features:

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1) The range of strike values for the surface ruptures is similar between the two different 352 earthquakes. Measurements of both the coseismic ruptures in colluvium and the strike of the 353 bedrock fault planes show a large variability of values: the strike ranges between N110° - N210° 354 for ruptures in colluvium (Figure 6a), and between N110° - N178° for bedrock fault planes 355 356 (Figure 6h). Such variation is common on bedrock fault scarps where multiple measurements are available to constrain variability (Roberts, 2007; S3). Fault plane orientations are organized so 357 that the fault can accommodate the slip-vector, so individual compass measurements of fault 358 359 plane strike are not a good indicator of the overall strike of the fault (see S3). Strike lines, which are a better way to gain the overall strike of the fault over along-strike distances of hundreds to 360 thousands of meters, show that the fault strike is ~N163° to the north-west and south-east of the 361 362 bend and N135° within it (Figure 5).

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2) The dip of the bedrock fault plane is steeper in the fault bend, where it ranges between  $70^{\circ}$  -

 $88^\circ$ , compared with ranges between  $50^\circ$  -  $70^\circ$  on the outer faults (Figure 6i).

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3) The slip vector azimuths are very similar for both earthquakes: they range between  $N210^{\circ}$  -367 N270°, which is consistent across the mapped fault strands (Figure 6b), and consistent with the 368 regional stress field and 2016 focal mechanisms (Mariucci and Montone, 2016). We derived the 369 overall azimuth of the slip vector across the fault bend and the outer faults by combining 370 measurements of the coseismic slip vector azimuth with calculations of the best fit to poles of 371 fault planes (see Roberts, 2007, and supplement S3 for explanation of the latter method). This 372 shows that the slip vector azimuth is relatively constant along the fault trace (Figure 6b, 7 and 373 S3). The overall coseismic slip vector azimuth is thought to be best-represented by 374 measurements close to the center of mapped ruptures (Roberts, 2007), and our measurements 375 suggest a value of ~253° (see Supplement S3), perpendicular to the overall fault strike, and 376 oblique to the bend A-B again consistent with the regional NE-SW orientated extensional stress 377 field and 2016 focal mechanisms (Mariucci and Montone, 2016). The plunge of the slip vector is 378 379 also similar between the two earthquakes, with values increasing within the fault bend, where it ranges between 60° - 80°, compared to values along the outer faults, where it ranges between 40° 380 - 70° (Figure 6c). The change in the plunge of the slip vector within the fault bend suggests that 381 382 the Mt. Vettore fault is not a perfectly corrugated fault surface, in fact exhibiting a noncylindrical geometry (see Roberts, 2007, for explanation). 383

384

4) Values recording the magnitude of slip appear to increase across the bend for both surfacerupturing earthquakes (Figure 6d, e, f and S2). The throw for the 24<sup>th</sup> August earthquake is less than 12 cm along the southern outer fault, and increases to a maximum of 29 cm within the bend (Figure 6f and Supplement S2). For the 30<sup>th</sup> October earthquake, throw is less than 90 cm along

the southern outer fault, increases within the fault bend to a maximum of 234 cm, and decreases 389 across the northern outer fault to less than 150 cm (Figure 6f). Similar patterns are evident for 390 field measurements of displacement (Figure 6d and S2). Evidence for along-strike variability for 391 heave is less clear, suggesting that the magnitude of horizontal extension was, in general, 392 conserved across the bend, away from the tips of the overall ruptures (Figure 6e and S2). Also, 393 394 values for offset do not appear to be affected by propagating through different materials (e.g. colluvial deposits and carbonate bedrock) with similar values where ruptures propagated from 395 one material to the other (Figure 4b.i). 396

397

To assess whether the observed scarps could be related to shallow gravitational motions (e.g. 398 Huang et al., 2017, for the 24<sup>th</sup> August 2016 earthquake) instead of coseismic slip, we compared 399 the azimuth of slip vectors measured across the ruptures with slope dip directions, derived from a 400 10m resolution DEM (Tarquini et al., 2012, Figure 7). The slip vector azimuths associated with 401 402 the two earthquakes appear to be independent of the slope dip direction. In particular, the coseismic slip vector azimuth points across the slope or upslope in some locations, especially 403 near the southern end of the rupture trace. Our interpretation is that the overall uphill-facing 404 405 scarp geometry near its southern termination, and the lack of correlation between slip vector azimuths on the faults and the dip direction of the local slope indicates a primary tectonic origin 406 407 of the surface ruptures. We suggest that coseismic slip from depth propagated upwards to offset the ground surface, consistent with very rapid formation of the ruptures (2-4 seconds) measured 408 with GNSS results (Wilkinson et al., 2017). 409

Overall, the key observation is that the fault bend A-B was the site of anomalously large throw and displacement in both the  $24^{th}$  August and  $30^{th}$  October earthquakes; this is where the fault strike changes by about  $25^{\circ}$  and the dip steepens by about  $20^{\circ}$ .

414

415 4.2 Comparison between long-term and coseismic activity of Mt. Vettore fault

416

The long-term fault offset varies along the strike of the Mt. Vettore fault, with local maxima 417 evident within the along-strike fault bends (Figure 8). The maximum total throw for the Mt. 418 Vettore fault is ~1400 m since the initiation of faulting at 2-3 Ma (Roberts et al. 2002; Roberts 419 and Michetti 2004) and it is located within the fault bend A-B (Figure 8a). A second local 420 maximum abuts the fault bend C-D (Figure 8a). The fault-controlled relief, which developed at 421 least partially since 2-3 Ma, reaches a maximum value of ~1000 m within the fault bend A-B, 422 again with a second maximum close to the bend C-D (Figure 8b). Where the hangingwall profile 423 424 is higher than the footwall profile, this indicates uphill facing scarps (south-eastern termination, see Figure 7 inset) or erosion of the footwall by fluvial drainage. The maximum fault-related 425 subsidence since the Middle Pleistocene is centered opposite fault bend A-B indicated by the 426 427 local presence of fluvio-lacustrine sediments in the hangingwall (Figure 8e); this is consistent with the notion that rates of vertical motion are relatively high within the fault bend since the 428 middle Pleistocene, including the incremental offset of post-LGM (last glacial maximum) units 429 within the valley (Villani and Sapia, 2017). Moreover, the maximum coseismic subsidence 430 indicated by preliminary InSAR results for both earthquakes show maxima located near the lake 431 bed (Figure 8e). Overall, Figure 8 suggest that the along-strike fault bend A-B, and perhaps also 432 C-D, have been persistent features which have influenced the development of vertical motions 433

434 across the Mt. Vettore fault for a time period encompassing hundreds to thousands of 435 earthquakes.

436

437 4.3 Modelling the expected throw within fault bends

438

439 4.3.1 Earthquakes on the Mt. Vettore fault

440

We apply Equations 1 and 2 using field measurements of the Mt. Vettore earthquakes. The fault 441 strike values derived from strike lines for the Mt. Vettore fault are N163° for the outer fault 442 segments and N135° for the bend (Figure 5b). We use a dip of 60° for the outer fault segments, 443 which is the arithmetic mean of the measured dips. We set the slip vector azimuth to N253° on 444 the entire fault, consistent with our field measurements (Figure 6, S3). We set values for 445 coseismic throws for the outer fault segments using the arithmetic means of our field 446 447 measurements for each earthquake, including all the measurements obtained on the outer faults. We have used those parameters to constrain the outer faults, in order to calculate the modelled 448 throw and dip within the bend. 449

450

For the 24<sup>th</sup> August earthquake, we used a value of 9 cm for the throw on the southern outer fault, and 14 cm for the northern outer fault. We found that a fault dip in the bend of 77° produces a modelled throw of 29 cm. The iterated dip across the bend, which is necessary to model a throw value consistent with field measurements (maximum measured throw 29 ±5 cm), is consistent with field measurements of dip across the bend (mean of measured dip 75° ± 6°  $(\pm 1\sigma)$ ). 457

For the 30<sup>th</sup> October earthquake, we used throws across the outer faults of 39 cm and 46 cm. We found that a fault dip in the bend of 84° produces a modelled throw of 233 cm, which is consistent with the maximum measured throw of 234 ±6 cm. The 84° dip is a value consistent with our measurements of dip at locations of maximum throw, with arithmetical mean of 86°± 3° (±1  $\sigma$ ).

463

Overall, for the Mt. Vettore earthquakes our model iterations suggest throw values consistent 464 with field measurements of throw across the bend, and field measurements of fault dips within 465 the bend. This suggests that the conservation of the strain within an along-strike fault bend 466 influences the coseismic throw values (Figure 9). This suggests that the 29 cm and 234 cm 467 coseismic throws across the fault bend for the two earthquakes are required to preserve the 468 extensional strain along the strike of the studied portion of the Mt. Vettore ruptures. This also 469 470 further supports the interpretation that the observed offsets are due to primary tectonic faulting which propagated to the surface from seismogenic depths, rather than resulting from shallow 471 gravitational processes (c.f. Huang et al. 2017 for the 24<sup>th</sup> August 2016 earthquake). 472

473

474 4.3.2 Coseismic offsets for other large normal faulting earthquakes

475

To evaluate whether bends influence offsets elsewhere, we examined displacement data from surface ruptures for the 1887  $M_w$  7.5 Sonora earthquake (Suter, 2008a, 2008b, 2015); 1981 Corinth  $M_w$  6.7-6.4 earthquake (Jackson et al., 1982; Roberts 1996; Morewood & Roberts, 2001) and the 1983  $M_w$  7.3 Borah Peak earthquake (Crone et al., 1987) (Figure 10a). In addition, we

carried out new fieldwork on the 1981 Corinth ruptures in 2017 to update values from Roberts 480 (1996). Fault traces for these earthquakes show prominent along-strike fault bends, 2-10 km 481 482 long, whose presence are confirmed by the construction of strike lines (Figure 10a, panels iii, vi, ix; see also S4). Other smaller bends may exist, but we were unable to verify these because of the 483 resolution of the field measurements of throw (average spacing of measurements for the Sonora 484 earthquake is 528 m, for the Corinth earthquake is 1070 m, for the Borah Peak earthquake is 426 485 m). We can only resolve variation in throw across bends with along-strike length longer than the 486 average spacing of the field measurements of throw, so we concentrated on the prominent along-487 strike fault bends, which are also identifiable with strike lines (Figure 10a, panels iii, vi, ix). 488 These bends exhibit localized maxima in coseismic throw for the surface ruptures (Figure 10a, 489 panels i, iv, vii) and increases of fault dip, as confirmed by published data for the Sonora 490 earthquake (Suter, 2008a, 2008b, 2015) and from our own fieldwork for the Corinth earthquake 491 (see S5b). We have not identified detailed fault dip data for the Borah Peak earthquake, although 492 493 published photos suggest that dip may be steeper within the fault bend (e.g. Figure 6 of Crone et al., 1987). 494

495

We have applied the methodology explained in Section 3.2 to investigate whether the fault bends explain coseismic throw maxima. As for the Mt. Vettore earthquakes, for each earthquake we derived fault strike values from strike lines, and fault dips and throws for the outer faults as the arithmetical means of field measurements reported along the entire fault traces outside the bends, and the slip vector azimuth from field measurements. We then iterated the fault dip angles within the bends, in order to derive modelled throws across the fault bends to check for consistency with field measurements (see Figure 10a and S6 for details about input values used for each earthquake).

504

For the Sonora earthquake, where ruptures outside the bend show a *Dmax* of about 400 cm, the iterated fault dip value of 79° produces a modelled throw across the bend of 498 cm; these values are consistent with field measurements (arithmetic mean of dip 79°, maximum measured throw 495 cm, from Suter et al., 2008a; 2008b; 2015; see S5a and S6 for details).

509

For the Corinth earthquake, where ruptures outside the bend show a *Dmax* of about 100 cm, the iterated dip value of 76° produces a modelled throw across the bend of 148 cm, consistent with field measurements (maximum measured dip across the bend of 77°, from our field measurements; maximum measured throw at bend 150 cm, by Jackson et al., 1982; see S5b).

514

For the Borah Peak earthquake, where ruptures outside the bend show a *Dmax* of about 200 cm, the iterated dip value of 79° produces a modelled throw across the bend of 270 cm, consistent with the maximum field measurements of 270 cm by Crone et al., (1987). The 79° dip is similar to that shown by a field photo within the bend (see Figure 6 of Crone et al., 1987), and agrees with measurements of fault dips between 60° and 90° mentioned in Crone et al. (1987).

520

Thus, for the 1981 Corinth  $M_w$  6.7-6.4 and for the 1887 Sonora  $M_w$  7.5 earthquakes, we suggest that the required fault dip angles across the bends are consistent with field measurements. The required fault dip across the bend for the 1983 Borah Peak  $M_w$  7.3 earthquake is a plausible value for normal faults that represent testable hypotheses given further fieldwork, but similar to

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that shown in field photos. Hence, it appears that along-strike fault bends may be a key control on coseismic offset. This has implications for how *Dmax* relates to rupture length and magnitude if coseismic throws from bends are converted to displacement and/or reported as *Dmax* and included in calculations to gain *Daverage*.

529

A note on the modelling is that the results for modelled throw replicate the measured values very 530 well ( $R^2 = 0.999$ ), but the results are highly sensitive to the iterated dip, and less sensitive to the 531 input strike (See S7). This highlights the importance of dip measurements; future rupture-532 mapping and paleoseismic studies should report the dip of the fault as fully as possible if the 533 approach advocated here is to be used. Also, it is important to note that we have applied our 534 modeling for bends with changes in strike angle of less than 28° (compare with Biasi and 535 Wesnousky 2017). We have been unable to test our model for bends with greater angles up to a 536 case-limit of a transform fault connecting two normal faults because we are unaware of natural 537 538 examples of this structural geometry.

539

4.4 Comparison between field measurements and predictions of *Dmax* from existing scalingrelationships

542

To investigate whether existing, empirically-derived scaling relationships (e.g. Wells and Coppersmith 1994) adequately predict measured displacement values for faults with along-strike bends we compare the *Dmax* and  $M_w$  for the two Mt. Vettore earthquakes, and the Sonora, Borah Peak and Corinth earthquakes with the same values implied by existing scaling relationships of *Dmax* versus surface rupture length (Log*Dmax*=-1.38+1.02xlog(L)) and  $M_w$  versus *Dmax* 

(M=6.61+0.71xlog(Dmax)), published in Wells and Coppersmith (1994) (Figure 10b; see also 548 Supplement S9). We have used both the "all kinematics" and "normal" scaling relationships 549 550 expressed in Wells and Coppersmith (1994). We have used the "all kinematics" Dmax versus fault length scaling relationship because it covers the full range of fault lengths of our examples, 551 including those from the literature (the range of surface rupture length in our examples is 5-100 552 km, the "normal kinematic" scaling relationship from Wells and Coppersmith, 1994, is valid for 553 cases within a range of 3.8-75 km). We have used the normal kinematics M<sub>w</sub> versus Dmax 554 scaling relationship in agreement with the kinematics of the earthquakes on the Mt. Vettore fault 555 and of the historical earthquakes. For the two Mt. Vettore earthquakes we have used the Dmax 556 derived from our own field measurements; for the other historical earthquakes studied we have 557 calculated the *Dmax* from measured throws at bends, on a fault plane with value of dip given by 558 the iterated dip at bends obtained from our modelling. 559

560

561 The measured *Dmax* values shown in Figure 10b.i for the five studied earthquakes with fault bends are consistently higher than the Dmax predicted from their lengths using the Wells and 562 Coppersmith (1994) Dmax versus surface rupture length scaling relationship. The M<sub>w</sub> predicted 563 564 from the observed Dmax for the five studied earthquakes are perhaps larger than the M<sub>w</sub> predicted based on the *Dmax* predicted from the surface rupture length, although error bars 565 overlap for some examples (Figure 10b.ii). Although we are aware that slip for the earthquakes 566 in the Wells and Coppersmith (1994) database may well be influenced by a variety of parameters 567 (e.g. depth of moment centroid, fault strength, seismogenic thickness etc.), our interpretation is 568 that fault bends may form an important part of the explanation for the ~1 order of magnitude 569 570 scatter in *Dmax* for a given fault length (Figure 1; Wells and Coppersmith, 1994).

571

To explore whether fault bends can produce the high values and scatter seen in *Dmax* versus 572 573 surface rupture length scaling, we used Equations 1 and 2 to calculate the expected throw across a bend for a variety of fault lengths and increasing fault dips within the bend, in agreement with 574 field observations of steeper fault dips at bends, as shown by our five examples from the two Mt. 575 Vettore earthquakes, and the Sonora, Corinth and Borah Peak earthquakes. We followed the 576 methodology outlined in Section 3.2. For each fault rupture length, we calculated the strain 577 across the outer faults with an assigned 40° fault dip (see Supplement S8), pure dip slip 578 kinematics and a value of coseismic throw calculated using the Dmax versus surface rupture 579 length scaling relationship Coppersmith in Wells and (1994)580 (LogDmax = -1.38 + 1.02Log(L)). Again, we have used the "all kinematics" scaling 581 relationship because it covers the total range of rupture length explored. Across the bend, we 582 maintain constant strain and slip vector azimuth, and calculate the predicted throw by varying the 583 584 fault dip in the bend in 5° increments from 40° - 85° (Figure 11a) (see Supplement S8). The range of dips explored (40° - 85°) represents the range of dips that have been documented in databases 585 586 containing many thousands of measurements from normal faults (e.g. Roberts 2007). From each of the modelled throws we have calculated the expected *Dmax* on a fault plane dipping with the 587 588 value used in the calculation, and we have compared those with the *Dmax* versus surface rupture length scaling relationship from Wells and Coppersmith (1994). We have also calculated the 589 above for the scaling relationship in Wesnousky (2008) (see Supplement S9). 590

592 The results show that changing the fault dip can produce dramatic variability in the coseismic 593 *Dmax* within the fault bend (Figure 11a; Supplement S9a). The value of *Dmax* can increase by

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 $\sim$ 1 order of magnitude for a fault bend with dip angle of 85° compared to one with a dip of 40°. A comparison between these results and measurements for normal faulting earthquakes in Wells and Coppersmith (1994) shows a similar range in *Dmax* for a given fault length ( $\sim$ 1 order of magnitude; Figure 11b). This suggests that the effect of fault bends is a likely contributor to the scatter in coseismic throw for a given fault length recorded in natural datasets.

599

# 600 5. Discussion

601

The along-strike throw profiles of five different coseismic surface ruptures associated with normal faulting earthquakes show that the coseismic throw, and therefore the coseismic *Dmax*, increases where ruptures propagate across along-strike fault bends characterized by steep fault dips. Quantitative relationships can explain these larger throws in terms of conservation of strain across the fault bend, where the fault dip becomes steeper.

607

Note that in our examples ruptures propagate across bends, and do not terminate at these 608 structural anomalies, as is the case for examples in the literature (e.g. Biasi and Wesnousky, 609 610 2017). Biasi and Wesnousky (2017) suggest that stiffening of mechanical resistance for dip slip ruptures occur for bends with change in strike angle of about 50°. We hypothesize that our model 611 612 is applicable for ruptures that do propagate across fault bends up to a change in strike of about 613 45°, corresponding to the limiting point at which the bend would be classified as a normal fault, 614 rather than an oblique-slip or strike-slip fault. However, we note we have only tested our model herein for examples where propagation of ruptures across fault bends occurs, and where the 615 change in strike angle is up to 28°. 616

617

In terms of the relevance of our results to databases that have compiled *Dmax* and rupture length 618 619 (e.g. Wells and Coppersmith, 1994; Manighetti et al., 2007, Wesnousky 2008, Leonard 2010), it is unfortunately uncommon for the data sources that support these compilations to report whether 620 data were collected from fault bends with strikes oblique to the extension direction or portions of 621 faults striking perpendicular to the extension direction, and, in general, they do not report the 622 geometry and kinematics of the faulting for each measurement. The observed scatter in *Dmax* for 623 a given fault length (Figure 1) has been interpreted as indicating significant scatter in implied 624 stress drop (Manighetti et al., 2007). Values of Dmax are also used in some examples to infer 625 paleoearthquake magnitudes from paleoseismic studies, (e.g. Pantosti et al., 1996; Dolan et al., 626 1997; Galadini and Galli, 2000; 2003; Villamor and Berryman, 2001; Cinti et al., 2011; Galli et 627 al., 2014; Galli et al., 2017). Although some paleoseismological studies have carefully 628 considered uncertainties (e.g. Working Group on Utah Earthquake Probabilities (WGUEP), 629 630 2016), it is not a ubiquitous practice to consider if measurements are impacted by the effect of along-strike fault bends. We have shown that local variations in fault geometry and kinematics 631 can produce variations in coseismic throw values, and therefore in the coseismic displacement 632 633 associated with the earthquake. This leads to uncertainty in paleoearthquake magnitudes and implied variations of stress drops for a given fault length if the effect of fault bends is not 634 recognized. 635

636

We concede that it might be possible that high slip patches occur at depth, possibly propagating to the surface without the influence of fault bends, although this is difficult to prove with direct measurements at depth. Our analysis of five surface-rupturing normal fault earthquakes shows

that fault bends are a plausible explanation for patches of high slip measured at the surface and 640 that the detailed characterization of fault bend geometry allows prediction of the magnitude of 641 642 the slip anomaly. Fault bends are also likely to exist at depth and these may even be responsible for suggested high slip-patches at depth. This suggests that: (1) non-planar fault geometry may 643 be an alternative explanation of high spatial variability within slip distributions for finite fault 644 inversions of major normal faulting earthquakes; (2) finite fault inversions should include 645 variable fault geometry at depth, to derive the best representation of the slip distribution along 646 the fault. 647

648

We also address how variable coseismic throws across fault bends impact calculations of M<sub>w</sub> 649 from Dmax. If the reported Dmax value comes from a fault bend with a high dip value, and this 650 is not recognized, by how much might the M<sub>w</sub> be overestimated compared to a straight fault? To 651 answer this question, for each fault length we have calculated the expected M<sub>w</sub> for all the 652 653 plausible Dmax for values within the fault bend (shown in Figure 11a), using the M<sub>w</sub> versus *Dmax* scaling relationship in Wells and Coppersmith (1994) (M = 6.61 + 0.71 log(Dmax))654 (Figure 11c). The graph shows that for a given fault length, the variability of *Dmax* across fault 655 bends leads to a large variability of M<sub>w</sub> estimates if M<sub>w</sub> is derived using the M<sub>w</sub> versus *Dmax* 656 657 scaling relationship in Wells and Coppersmith (1994). This is important because fault bends, and their associated fault dip angles, are not commonly considered when using displacements 658 measured in paleoseismic trenches to infer M<sub>w</sub> for paleoearthquakes. It appears that this can 659 introduce a large uncertainty of M<sub>w</sub> into paleoseismic estimates of past seismicity. 660

The effect of the variability of *Dmax* on the estimation of the M<sub>w</sub> also raises the question of how 662 the variability in *Dmax* due to fault bends affects calculations of seismic moment and stress drop 663 associated with normal faulting earthquakes. It is known that seismic moment and stress drop 664 should be calculated using the Daverage (Kanamori and Anderson, 1975; Scholz, 1992). We also 665 know that  $Dmax \sim 2^*Daverage$  for most large earthquakes (e.g. Manighetti et al., 2005), and the 666 presence of fault bends on normal faults contributes to Dmax being larger than Daverage. 667 Therefore, we suggest that the presence of fault bends may produce bias in calculation of 668 Daverage for two reasons. Firstly, given limitations in the field due to accessibility and quality 669 of exposure, it is possible that measurements may be focused in locations where the ruptures are 670 more impressive and have larger offsets, which may be located within fault bends. Thus, the 671 derived Daverage may contain sampling bias and overestimate the true Daverage if bends with 672 high dip angles are included, but not recognized. Secondly, as fault bends with high dip angles 673 produce higher values of throw, the calculated *Daverage* for a dataset where measurements have 674 675 been made at regularly-spaced intervals along strike will contain values influenced by the high dip angles in the fault bend. Therefore a fault with an along-strike bend with high dip angle, 676 sampled at regular distances along strike, would have higher Daverage compared to that for a 677 678 straight fault. Thus, claimed Daverage values could be biased and affect calculation of seismic moment and stress drop if the effect of bends and high dip angles are not recognized. To 679 investigate this, we examine the worst case where Daverage equals Dmax, a scenario that could 680 681 be approached if fault bends have not been considered at all, and a relatively large portion of the rupture occurs within a bend like the 24<sup>th</sup> August Mt. Vettore example. 682

To calculate the scalar seismic moment, we used the equation:  $M_0 = \mu AD$ , where  $\mu$  is the shear 684 modulus (considered herein as  $3 \times 10^{10}$  Pa), A is the seismogenic area and D is the *Dmax* across 685 fault bend, derived from values in Figure 11a (Figure 11d). We set the thickness of the 686 seismogenic layer to be 15 km. We assumed a circular fault when the fault length (L) is <15 km, 687 and rectangular faults with increasing aspect ratio for faults with L values progressively larger 688 than 15 km. The fault width (down-dip dimension in the plane of the fault) has been corrected for 689 different dip angles. For each fault length, the seismic moment is calculated for each 690 displacement associated with variable fault dip. Variable displacement across fault bends can 691 produce almost 1 order of magnitude of variability in the seismic moment estimations (Figure 692 11d; Supplement S9c). 693

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To calculate stress drops we used the equation:  $\Delta \sigma = c \frac{M_0}{a^{3/2}}$  (Kanamori & Anderson, 1975; 695 Scholz, 2002) (Figure 11e; Supplement S9), where C is a non-dimensional shape factor (≈1 from 696 Kanamori and Anderson, 1975). We used the M<sub>0</sub> values shown in Figure 11d and S9c to evaluate 697 the effect of variable *Dmax* across fault bends. The results show that the variable displacement 698 699 across a fault bend can produce  $\sim 1$  order of magnitude of variability in stress drop values for each fault length (Figure 11e and S9d). Although this effect may be overestimated, because we 700 are considering the worst case where *Dmax* equals *Daverage*, this result is important because 701 information on the geometry and kinematics of faulting are not commonly considered when 702 using D values to calculate stress drop. 703

704

Overall, we suggest that along-strike fault bends, where the fault strike becomes oblique to the slip vector azimuth and the fault dip steepens beyond what is required to maintain the slip vector, strongly influence values of coseismic throw and displacement within the bend, and thus *Dmax*. This influences the estimation of  $M_w$  from paleoseismic studies and stress drop from field data on surface ruptures. Furthermore, our findings suggest that *Dmax* to length scaling datasets are even more valuable than previously envisaged because it appears that the scatter of *Dmax* for a given length provides information about how earthquake strain and moment release are partitioned along the strike of non-planar faults.

713

## 714 6. Conclusions

715

The 24<sup>th</sup> August 2016 M<sub>w</sub> 6.0 and 30<sup>th</sup> October 2016 M<sub>w</sub> 6.5 earthquakes ruptured the Laga and 716 Mt. Vettore faults, in the central Apennines, Italy, producing anomalously large coseismic 717 surface ruptures within an along-strike fault bend with steep fault dips on the Mt. Vettore fault. 718 The bend has an amplitude of 0.83 km, which changes the fault strike and dip by  $\sim 25^{\circ}$ . We 719 720 characterize the surface ruptures across the bend through detailed field mapping. The fault bend and its steep dip appear to have produced (1) a local maximum in total finite slip across the fault 721 from offset of pre-rift strata, (2) a local maximum in fault-related relief, and (3) internal drainage 722 723 on the hangingwall, all three of which developed over several million years, testifying to the long-term influence of the fault bend on the coseismic throw during earthquakes. 724

725

The application of the quantitative relationships (Faure Walker et al., 2009; 2010, 2015) on field data related to these two earthquakes, shows that the relatively large coseismic throw observed across the bend (29 cm and 234 cm for the  $24^{th}$  August M<sub>w</sub> 6.0 and  $30^{th}$  October M<sub>w</sub> 6.5 earthquakes, respectively) are required by the geometry and kinematics of the faulting to maintain the horizontal extensional strain along strike and across the fault bend with its highfault dip (Figure 9).

732

Increases of coseismic throws in fault bends are also investigated for some of the largest historic 733 normal faulting earthquakes (1887, Sonora earthquake, M<sub>w</sub> 7.5; 1981, Corinth earthquake, M<sub>w</sub> 734 6.7-6.4; 1983, Borah Peak earthquake, M<sub>w</sub> 7.3). The same equations can explain the 735 anomalously-large coseismic Dmax values in terms of conservation of the horizontal extensional 736 strain along-strike and across the fault bends with their high fault dips. Thus, this paper provides 737 for the first time multiple examples from different normal faulting regions showing that 738 coseismic throw depends on fault geometry. Furthermore, it is possible to quantify and explain 739 changes in observed coseismic throws across fault bends in addition to longer-term changes in 740 throw-rates across fault bends. 741

742

743 We suggest that along-strike fault bends are a plausible explanation of the scatter of *Dmax* values for normal faulting earthquakes in *Dmax* versus surface rupture length scaling relationships (e.g. 744 Wells and Coppersmith, 1994). Thus, if the role of bends and high dips in those bends are not 745 746 considered, this can produce misleading interpretations of (1) M<sub>w</sub> from Dmax values gathered during paleoseismological studies, (2) seismic moments and (3) stress drops influenced by 747 748 Dmax. This study should prompt further investigation into the role of fault bends and their dips 749 in influencing the magnitude of coseismic displacements associated with surface ruptures because it appears that the scatter of Dmax for a given length provides information about how 750 earthquake strain and moment release are partitioned along the strike of non-planar faults. 751

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#### 1000 Figure captions

Figure 1 – Summary of the background literature, a) Maximum displacement versus fault length 1001 1002 scaling relationship from Wells and Coppersmith (Figure 12a, 1994). b) Maximum displacement versus fault length scaling relationship from Manighetti et al. (Figure 3a, 2007). Red arrows 1003 show scatter of Dmax for 30 km fault length in both plots. c) Relationships between fault strike 1004 1005 and post  $15 \pm 3$  ka throw for the Campo Felice fault, central Apennines, Italy (from Wilkinson et al., 2015). The distance 0 km represents the center of the fault, with values increasing moving 1006 1007 towards the tip of the fault. Graphs show that, instead of having a regular decrease of throw moving towards the tip of the fault, the throw increases within an along-strike fault bend, which 1008 is located within 1500 m and 2500 m. This variation of throw across the fault bend is not 1009 accompanied by anomalies in the strain-rate distribution along the fault, which decreases 1010 regularly towards the tip. d) Graphs showing relationships between the throw-rate and fault strike 1011 and dip across a fault bend, with constant strain-rate (Adapted from Figure 7c and Figure 8c, 1012 1013 Faure Walker et al. (2009)). Green lines show the variability of the throw-rate of the fault caused by variation of the angle between the fault strike and the slip vector, and by the variation of the 1014 1015 fault dip within the fault bend. Black triangles are values obtained from Wilkinson et al., 2015, 1016 showed in c). d) explains the data in c).

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Figure 2 - Diagram showing the 3D evolution of an along-strike fault-bend through fault propagation, linkage and coalescence. The fault surface at Point Z forms after the bend forms at Point Y. The dip at point Z for the 5 earthquakes described in this paper is steeper than for the fault surfaces outside the bend, suggesting this may be typical for such locations. (a) 3D diagram of the eventual geometry of an along-strike fault bend that developed from two initial en echelon

normal faults at depth, that grew through along strike and up-dip propagation, eventually 1023 coalescing into one linked fault surface through time. (b) Time 1: the pink color indicates the 1024 1025 fault surface that has formed at this time, with the upper tip line indicated. The faults are still separate faults, A and B. The traces of the faults on the lower surface of the box are shown with a 1026 thick red line. (c) Time 2: the orange color indicates the fault surface has grown. The faults are 1027 1028 still separate faults. However, a new fault C begins to grow to take up the strain between the faults, working to link the two separate en echelon faults. Fault C is an example of a breach fault 1029 (e.g. Faure Walker et al. 2009). All natural examples of earthquake ruptures in this paper show 1030 steeper dips in this location compared to the initial en echelon outer faults, so steep dips may 1031 well typify such breach faults. We are unaware of examples with shallower dips. (d) Time 3: the 1032 vellow color indicates the fault surface has grown and now linked to form the fault surface at 1033 Point Y. An along-strike bend has formed at depth and is propagating up-dip. (e) Time 4: the 1034 green color indicates further growth and upward propagation. The newly-linked fault may also 1035 1036 propagate down-dip, but this is not shown in this diagram. (f) Time 5: the blue color indicates further growth. The fault begins to intersect the top surface of the box, indicated by thick red 1037 lines. Like the bottom surface at Time 1, the top surface at Time 5 is deformed by two en 1038 1039 echelon faults. (g) Time 6: the purple color indicates the final linked fault. The fault bend has fully propagated to the upper surface of the box. The fault surface at Point Z forms at Time 6. 1040 1041 The dip at point Z is steep where it links the two en echelon faults, consistent with observations 1042 of the 5 earthquakes described in this paper. The dip at point Z formed after the along-strike fault 1043 bend formed (Time 3), and in the 5 earthquake examples in this paper the dip at point Z is steeper than for the outer faults; this time sequence shows the developing along-strike fault bend 1044 1045 is causal in forming the steep dip at Y and Z.

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Figure 3 – Location map of the 2016 central Italy seismic sequence. Black lines are active faults, 1047 1048 with tick marks on hangingwall; thick black lines are Mt. Vettore and Laga faults, activated during the seismic sequence; the fault traces represent the location of the most prominent 1049 Holocene fault scarp. A-B and C-D are the locations of along strike fault bends of the Mt. 1050 1051 Vettore fault. Red stars are the epicentral locations of the mainshocks of the sequence, locations and M<sub>w</sub> from INGV (http://cnt.rm.ingv.it); focal mechanisms are from CMT catalogue 1052 (http://rcmt2.bo.ingv.it/Italydataset.html). Blue and red lines are the InSAR-derived area of 1053 deformation due to the 24<sup>th</sup> August Mw 6.0 and to 26<sup>th</sup> October Mw 5.9-30<sup>th</sup> October Mw 6.5 1054 earthquakes, respectively (COMET, 2016), with the approximate locations of maximum 1055 coseismic subsidence indicated. Blue dots are aftershocks with M>2 recorded between 24<sup>th</sup> 1056 August 2016 and 26<sup>th</sup> October 2016. Red dots are aftershocks with M>2 recorded between 26<sup>th</sup> 1057 October 2016 and 5<sup>th</sup> October 2017 (CMT catalogue). 1058

1059

Figure 4 – Field observations of the surface ruptures along the Mt. Vettore fault. a) Cartoons 1060 showing the measurements collected on surface ruptures observed in the field. On bedrock fault 1061 1062 planes, the slip vector has been measured along the fault plane, the heave was derived using trigonometry. In colluvium, the slip vector has been measured between piercing points on the 1063 hangingwall and footwall. b) Photos of the surface ruptures associated with the 24<sup>th</sup> August M<sub>w</sub> 1064 1065 6.0 earthquake: b.i) coseismic ruptures propagating from bedrock to colluvial deposits without significant variation in slip magnitude; red arrows mark the edge of the rupture on the footwall 1066 (notebook for scale, 20 cm tall); b.ii) map view of measurements of the slip vector azimuth from 1067 1068 reconstruction of the piercing points in colluvial deposits on ground cracks (compass base is

about 18 cm long). c) Photos of the surface ruptures associated with the 30<sup>th</sup> October M<sub>w</sub> 6.5 1069 earthquake: c.i) bedrock fault plane, showing the 24<sup>th</sup> August rupture (blue line) and the 30<sup>th</sup> 1070 October rupture (red line); c.ii) coseismic surface rupture propagating through colluvium, with 1071 the formation of a vertical scarp and an opening at its base; in this cases, the slip vector has been 1072 measured by matching piercing points on the hangingwall and footwall cut-offs, to obtain the 1073 1074 best representation of the slip vector on fault at depth, below the colluvial deposits; c.iii) striations into a mud smear on the fault plane (red arrows indicate the slip vector); c.iv) 1075 maximum offset observed, displacement 2.4 m measured along a single tool track on a mud 1076 smear; c.v) coseismic ruptures on an antithetic fault, with exhumation of the fault plane; red 1077 arrows indicate the slip vector azimuth, which is consistent between bedrock fault plane and 1078 colluvium (plastic bottle as scale, about 20 cm tall); c.vi) panoramic view of the surface ruptures 1079 on the Mt. Vettore fault; the ruptures were continuous along the main fault trace of the Mt. 1080 1081 Vettore fault, and hangingwall ruptures also formed. d) Ruptures in June 2017, after winter rain and snow cleaned the fault plane of mud; fresh stripes of fault plane following the 24<sup>th</sup> August 1082  $M_w$  6.0 and the 30<sup>th</sup> October  $M_w$  6.5 are shown, with pale blue arrows indicating the slip vector 1083 for the 30<sup>th</sup> October earthquake. 1084

1085

Figure 5 – Map of the Mt. Vettore fault. a) Summary map of the surface ruptures associated with the 2016 central Italy earthquakes, adapted from Civico et al. (2018) and our own mapping. Fault traces are from the geological map published in Pierantoni et al. (2013). Thick black lines mark the trace of the most prominent Holocene fault scarp of the Mt. Vettore fault. Thin black lines are minor faults of the Mt. Vettore fault system, dashed where not clearly evident at the surface. Pale blue traces are the total coverage of the surface ruptures that occurred after the 24<sup>th</sup> August

earthquake. Green traces are the distribution of the surface ruptures associated with the 30<sup>th</sup> 1092 October earthquake (adapted from Civico et al., 2018). Pale blue and red arrows mark the traces 1093 of the surface ruptures following the 30<sup>th</sup> October earthquake that were mapped and described in 1094 detail in this paper. b) Characterization of the fault bend marked as A-B. Red line is the main 1095 fault trace of the Mt. Vettore fault. Black lines are strike lines, which are straight lines joining 1096 1097 points at equal elevation on the hanging wall cut-off, providing the best representation of the fault strike for distances which encompass local field measurements (hundreds to thousands meters). 1098 The figure shows that within the fault bend the strike changes by about 28°, producing an 1099 amplitude of the bend of about 0.83 km. This figure also shows that both earthquakes ruptured 1100 across the along-strike fault bend. 1101

1102

Figure 6 – Field data following the 24<sup>th</sup> August and 30<sup>th</sup> October earthquakes. Panels a-f are 1103 1104 measurements of the coseismic surface ruptures: in blue are measurements of the coseismic ruptures following the 24<sup>th</sup> August M<sub>w</sub> 6.0 earthquake, in green are measurements of the 1105 coseismic ruptures following the 30<sup>th</sup> October M<sub>w</sub> 6.5 earthquake. Panels h-j are measurements 1106 1107 of the bedrock fault plane. Horizontal black bar in (a) highlights the part of the ruptures following the 30<sup>th</sup> October event mapped in June 2017. Error bars of  $\pm 5^{\circ}$  for strike, slip vector 1108 1109 azimuth and plunge of slip vector and of  $\pm 5$  cm for displacement, heave and throw are reported 1110 as grey lines for field measurements, although errors as large as  $\pm 6$  cm are plausible for throw for 1111 some of the largest values. a) Measurements of the strike of coseismic ruptures within colluvium. 1112 The plot shows that field measurements following the two earthquakes are consistent, and both present a large local variability of strike measurements. b) Measurements of the slip vector 1113 1114 azimuth from both bedrock fault planes and colluvium (see details on slip vector azimuth

determination in the field in the text). Measurements on the antithetic fault have been modified 1115 by  $+180^{\circ}$  to make them comparable with the rest of the fault. The plot shows that the azimuth of 1116 1117 the slip vector is consistent between the two events. c) Measurements of the plunge of the slip vector; the plot shows that the plunge increases within the fault bend for both earthquakes. Note 1118 that where it was not possible to measure it in the field, the plunge has been derived with 1119 1120 trigonometry. d) Measurements of the displacement across the coseismic ruptures. The displacement has been measured in the vertical plane containing the slip vector azimuth; the plot 1121 shows that displacement values increase within the fault bend. e) Measurements of the heave of 1122 the coseismic ruptures. The plot shows that the heave is relatively consistent along the fault, and 1123 does not show a clear relationship with the fault bend. Note that where it was not possible to 1124 measure heave in the field, the value was derived with trigonometry. f) Measurements of the 1125 throw for the coseismic ruptures. The plot shows that throw values increase within the fault 1126 bend. g) Fault map of the sector of the Mt. Vettore fault mapped in detail; in blue are the surface 1127 ruptures mapped following the 24<sup>th</sup> August M<sub>w</sub> 6.0 earthquake; in green surface ruptures mapped 1128 following the 30<sup>th</sup> October M<sub>w</sub> 6.5 earthquake. The bend A-B is located in Figure 5, as are the 1129 1130 locations of the northern outer fault and southern outer fault. h) Measurements of the strike of 1131 bedrock fault planes. These field measurements of strike show a large variability of values (see Supplement S3), so red lines show strikes derived from strike-lines (see Figure 5b). i) 1132 1133 Measurements of the dip of the bedrock fault planes. The plot shows that the dip increases within 1134 the fault bend. j) Stereonets of different sectors of the fault (numbers coded as in g)), showing the long-term slip vectors derived from calculation of the best fit of poles to measured bedrock 1135 fault planes. 1136

Figure 7 – Comparison between the measured slip vector azimuths from both earthquakes (red lines) and the slope dip directions (green arrows). The slope dip directions are derived from a 10 m resolution DEM (Tarquini et al., 2012). Slip vector azimuths are also shown in Figure 6b. The photo in the inset shows an uphill-facing rupture with slip vectors across and/or almost opposite to the slope dip direction (two people provide scale). Our interpretation is that the direction of the measured slip vectors does not correlate with the slope dip directions, hence this does not support the hypothesis that gravitational processes generate the surface ruptures.

1145

Figure 8 – Comparison between (a) the geological throw profile of the Mt. Vettore fault, 1146 obtained from geological cross-sections, (b) the fault-related relief of the Monti Sibillini range 1147 (footwall of the Mt. Vettore fault), (c) the coseismic throw profile for  $24^{th}$  August  $M_w$  6.0 1148 earthquake, (d) the coseismic throw profile for the  $30^{th}$  October M<sub>w</sub> 6.5 earthquake, and (e) the 1149 along strike extent of the ruptures, the lake bed location and preliminary InSAR measurements of 1150 maximum subsidence. All the measurements are projected across strike onto a line with N163° 1151 strike, parallel to the overall strike of the Mt. Vettore fault. Error bars of  $\pm 5$  cm for coseismic 1152 throw,  $\pm 250$  m for geological throw are reported in grey. Two along-strike fault bends, marked 1153 1154 as A-B and C-D are shown in (e). The figure shows that the maxima in coseismic throws for the two earthquakes, the maximum in geological throw and the largest topographic relief are located 1155 1156 adjacent to the along-strike fault bend A-B. Moreover, the lake-bed and the maximum of 1157 subsidence in preliminary InSAR are located adjacent the bend A-B. Another maximum in the 1158 geological throw and in the topographic relief are also located within the along-strike fault bend C-D. Overall, the figure shows that the along strike bends have influenced both long-term and 1159 1160 coseismic throw along the Mt. Vettore fault.

1161

Figure 9 - Modelling the  $24^{th}$  August M<sub>w</sub> 6.0 (a) and 30th October M<sub>w</sub> 6.5 earthquakes (b). For 1162 each of the earthquakes, we report field measurements of coseismic throw (panels a.i and b.i), 1163 measurements of the strike of the bedrock fault plane (panels a.ii and b.ii), measurements of the 1164 dip of bedrock fault plane (panels a.iii and b.iii), measurements of the plunge of the slip vector 1165 1166 (panels a.iv and b.iv), and the relative fault traces (panels a.v and b.v). We have used these field measurements to model the throw and dip values across the fault bend, given the conservation of 1167 the strain and constant slip vector azimuth along the fault. In each panel colored lines represent 1168 the values that have been used in the calculation. Across the outer faults, we used the arithmetic 1169 mean of the field measurement for throw, dip and plunge of the slip vector to calculate the strain. 1170 For strike measurements (panels a.ii and b.ii), we have used the values of strike derived from 1171 strike lines. Across the bend, iterated fault dips (reported as green lines in panels a.iii and b.iii) 1172 are needed to obtain a coseismic throw consistent with field measurements, constant slip vector 1173 1174 azimuth and with constant strain (green lines in panels a.i and b.i). In fault trace panels (a.v and b.v), we report the subdivision of the fault in outer faults and fault bend, and the overall slip 1175 vector azimuth that we have used in the calculations (see text for details of how the slip vector 1176 1177 azimuth is defined from field measurements). This shows that the elevated coseismic throw values can be explained by the presence of the bend and its associated steep fault dip. 1178

1179

Figure 10 - (a) Modelling of historical earthquakes that ruptured across along-strike fault bends. Datasets for the coseismic slip and fault trace are from Suter (2008a, 2008b, 2015), for the 1887, Sonora earthquake, M<sub>w</sub> 7.5; Jackson et al. (1982) and Morewood & Roberts (2001), and fieldwork (see S5) for the 1981, Corinth earthquake, M<sub>w</sub> 6.7-6.4; Crone et al. (1987), for the

1983, Borah Peak earthquake, M<sub>w</sub> 7.3. We used the same approach shown in Figure 9. In 1184 coseismic throw panels (i, iv, vii, x) we report along-strike throw profiles for each earthquake. 1185 1186 For each of the panel, the average spacing of measurements reported is the average distance between the field measurements of throw for each earthquake, which represents the lower limit 1187 of spatial resolution for the identification of fault bends. In fault model panels (ii, v, viii, xi), the 1188 1189 input parameters of strike, dip and plunge of the slip vector used to model the throw across the bends are indicated, as well as the slip vector azimuth used for the earthquakes. Colors are coded 1190 1191 to input values of throws in the panels above. In fault trace panels (iii, vi, ix, xii) we show simplified fault traces of the earthquakes, on which are reported strike lines used to define the 1192 along-strike fault bends. (b) Comparison between Dmax (i) and the expected M<sub>w</sub> for Dmax (ii) 1193 for given fault lengths from field data obtained from the scaling relationships in Wells and 1194 Coppersmith (1994). We used our field measurements of Dmax for the Mt. Vettore; for the 1195 1196 historical earthquakes, we calculate *Dmax* from maximum throws, using the value of iterated fault dip. V1=  $M_w 6.024^{th}$  August 2016 Mt. Vettore earthquakes; V2=  $M_w 6.530^{th}$  October 2016 1197 Mt. Vettore earthquake;  $C = M_w 6.4-6.7$  Corinth earthquake;  $B = M_w 7.3$  Borah Peak earthquake; 1198  $S = M_w$  7.5 Sonora earthquake. For values derived from the Wells and Coppersmith (1994) 1199 1200 scaling relationships, error bars, derived from standard errors reported in their Tables 2b and 2c, are reported. When the error bar is not visible, it is smaller than the symbol. In b.i, the dashed 1201 1202 line is the upper 95% confidence interval of the *Dmax* versus fault length scaling relationship 1203 (Wells and Coppersmith, 1994) Overall, (b) shows a preponderance of higher values for the observed Dmax versus fault length relationship compared to those predicted from Wells and 1204 Coppersmith (1994). 1205

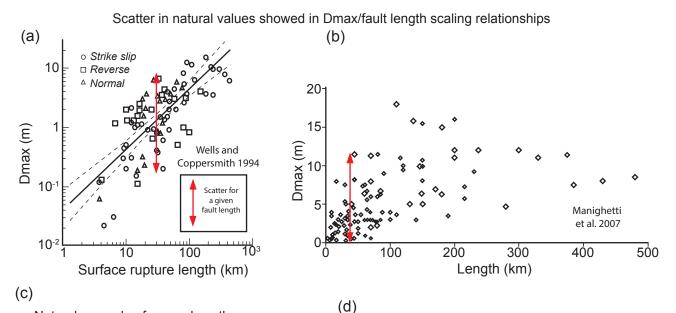
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Figure 11 - (a) Dmax versus surface rupture length scaling relationships obtained by varying the 1207 fault dip angle from 40° to 85° across an along-strike fault bend. Each Dmax value has been 1208 1209 calculated from modeled throws across an along-strike fault bend, derived using Equation 2. To model throws across bends, we set values for throw on the outer faults as the Dmax value 1210 calculated with the Wells and Coppersmith (1994) Dmax versus surface rupture length scaling 1211 1212 relationship for each fault length, and a fault dip of 40°. We calculated the throw at the bend by varying values of fault dip every 5° between 40° and 85° (see Supplement S8 for details). The 1213 1214 continuous orange line represents the Wells and Coppersmith (1994), relationship. Dashed orange line is the upper 95% confidence interval of the Wells and Coppersmith (1994) 1215 relationship. Dashed black line represent values of throw for a bend with 85° fault dip angle. See 1216 Supplement S9 for a similar figure for scaling relationships in Wesnousky (2008). (b) 1217 Superposition of the normal faulting earthquakes reported in Wells and Coppersmith (1994), 1218 Dmax versus surface rupture length graph, and related scaling relationship (continuous orange 1219 1220 line) and 95% confidence interval (dashed orange lines), with plots of expected Dmax with variable dip angle across along-strike fault bend at 85°. (c) M<sub>w</sub> derived from each Dmax 1221 calculated in Figure 11a. For each fault length, we have calculated the expected M<sub>w</sub> from the 1222 1223 modelled values of *Dmax* showed in Figure 11a using the M<sub>w</sub> versus *Dmax* scaling relationship from Wells and Coppersmith (1994). Results are plotted with fault length on the x-axis to show 1224 1225 that, for each fault length, the variability of *Dmax* given by the fault bend causes a large 1226 variability in the expected M<sub>w</sub>, when it is derived with Wells and Coppersmith (1994) M<sub>w</sub> versus Dmax scaling relationship. The orange line is the regression for Mw calculated from Dmax 1227 obtained with the Wells and Coppersmith (1994) Dmax versus surface rupture length regression. 1228 1229 (d) Seismic moment expected for each *Dmax* calculated in Figure 11a. For each fault length, we

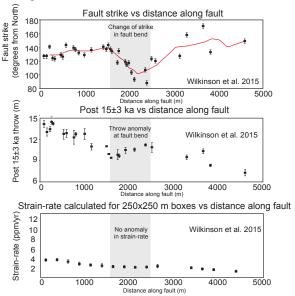
have calculated the seismic moment using the values of *Dmax* across a fault bend calculated in 1230 Figure 11a. We set the thickness of the seismogenic layer at 15 km; for fault length <15 km we 1231 assumed a circular fault geometry. It is shown that for given fault lengths, variable displacement 1232 across fault bends can produce ~1 order of magnitude of variability in seismic moment 1233 estimations. The orange line shows the regression of seismic moment values calculated from 1234 1235 Dmax obtained with Wells and Coppersmith (1994) Dmax versus surface rupture length scaling relationship. (e) Stress drop expected for each Dmax calculated in Figure 11a. The stress drops 1236 are obtained using the M<sub>0</sub> calculated in Figure 11d. The graph shows that variable displacement 1237 across a fault bend can induce a variability of  $\sim 1$  order of magnitude for the stress drop value, 1238 for given fault lengths. The orange line is the regression of stress drop calculated from Dmax 1239 obtained with Wells and Coppersmith (1994) Dmax versus surface rupture length scaling 1240 relationship. 1241

1242

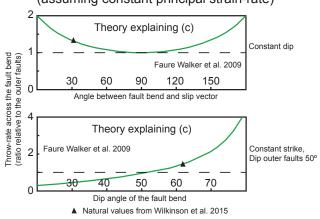
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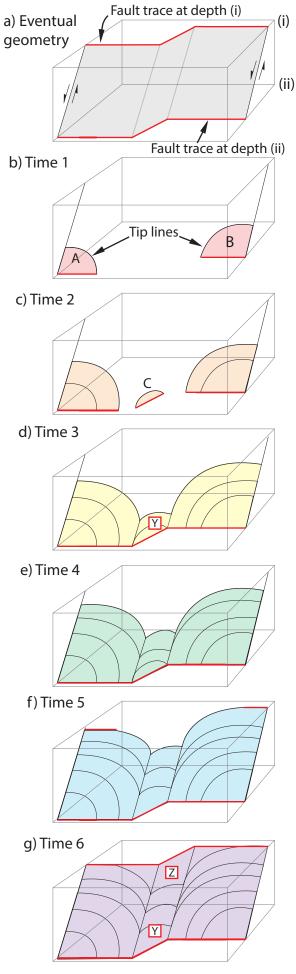


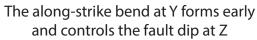
Natural example of anomalous throw across along-strike fault bends, with constant strain-rate



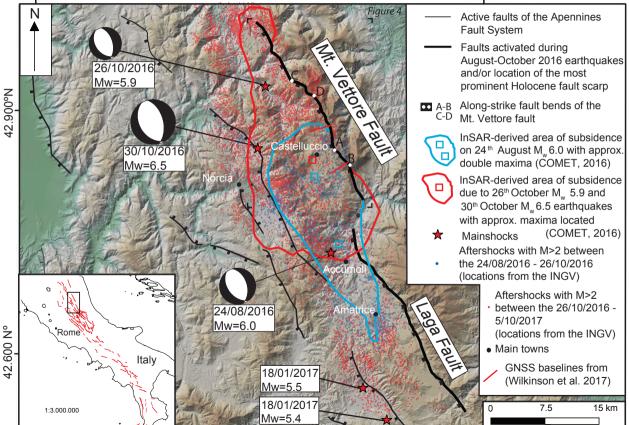
Effect of variation of fault strike and dip across the fault bend on throw-rate (assuming constant principal strain-rate)





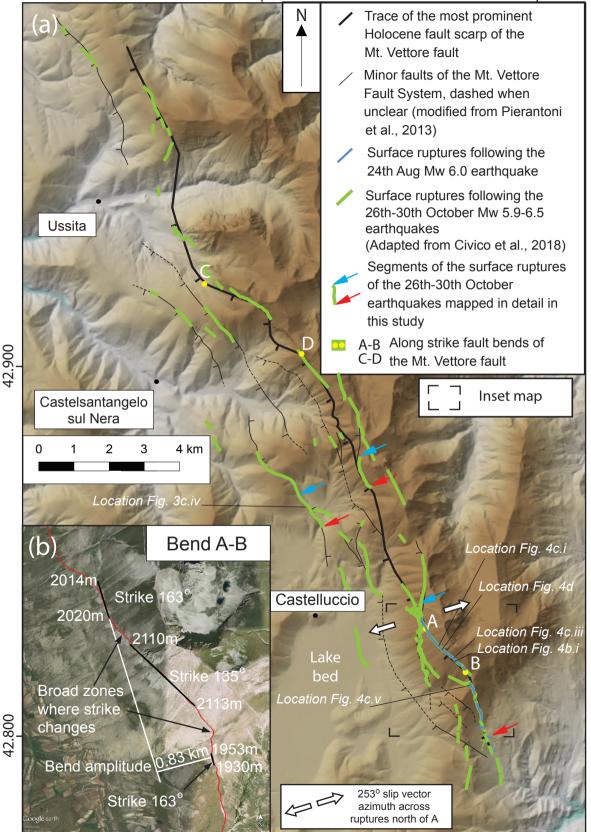


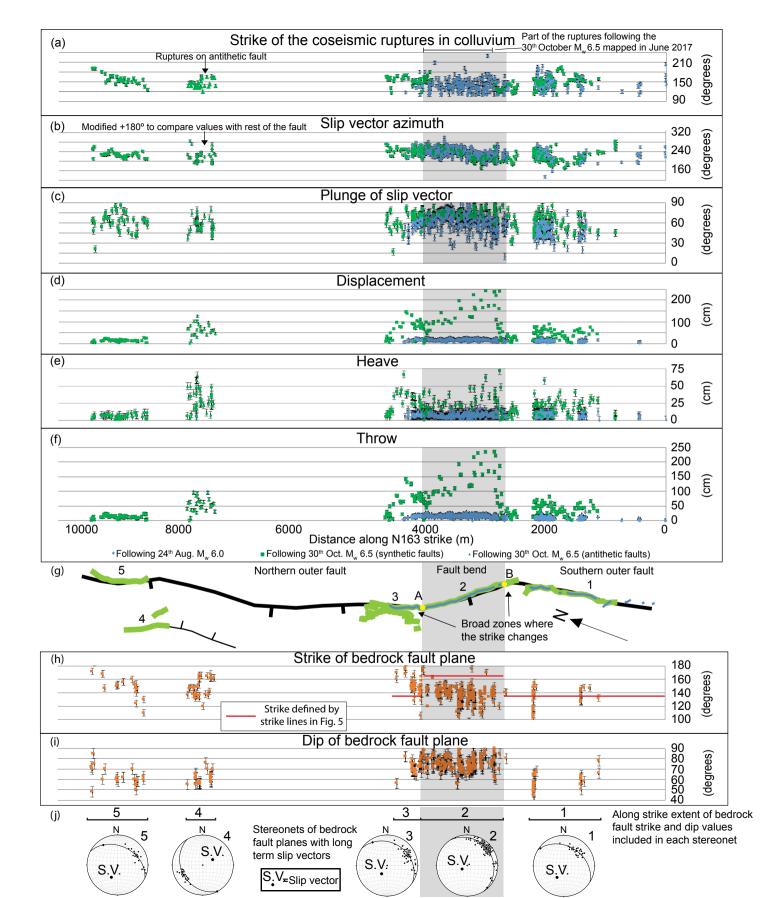
12.750°E

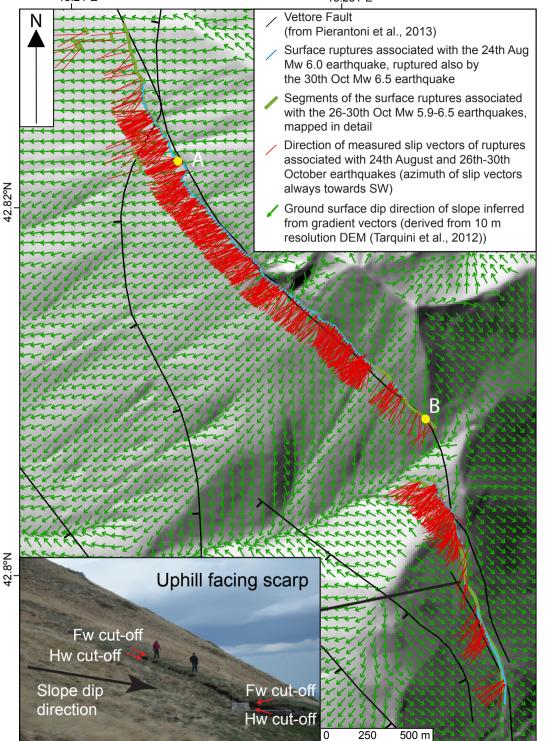


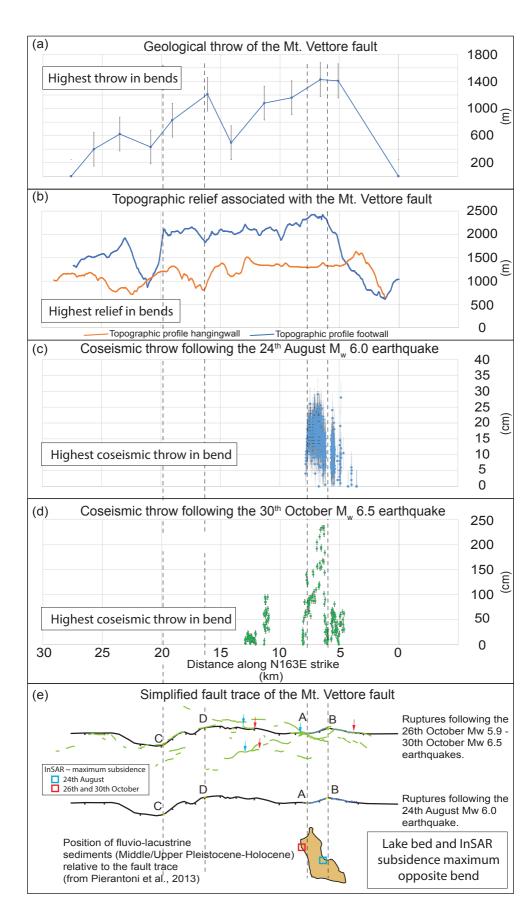




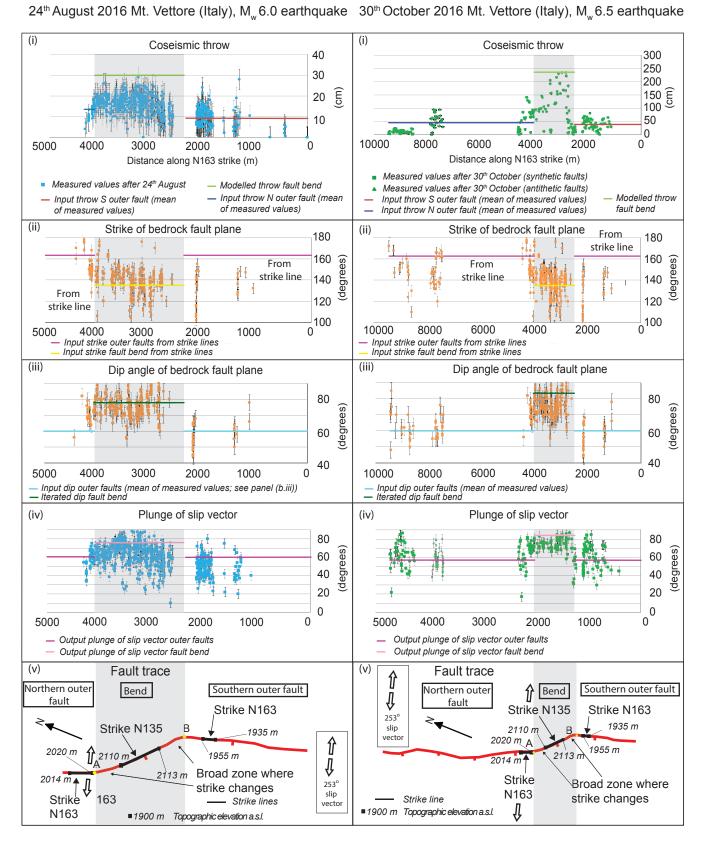


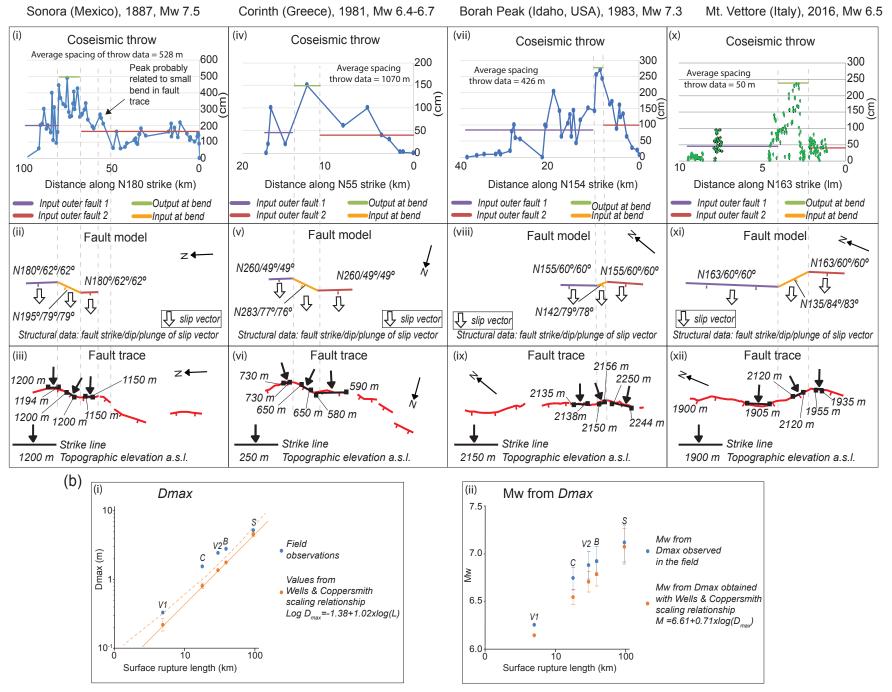




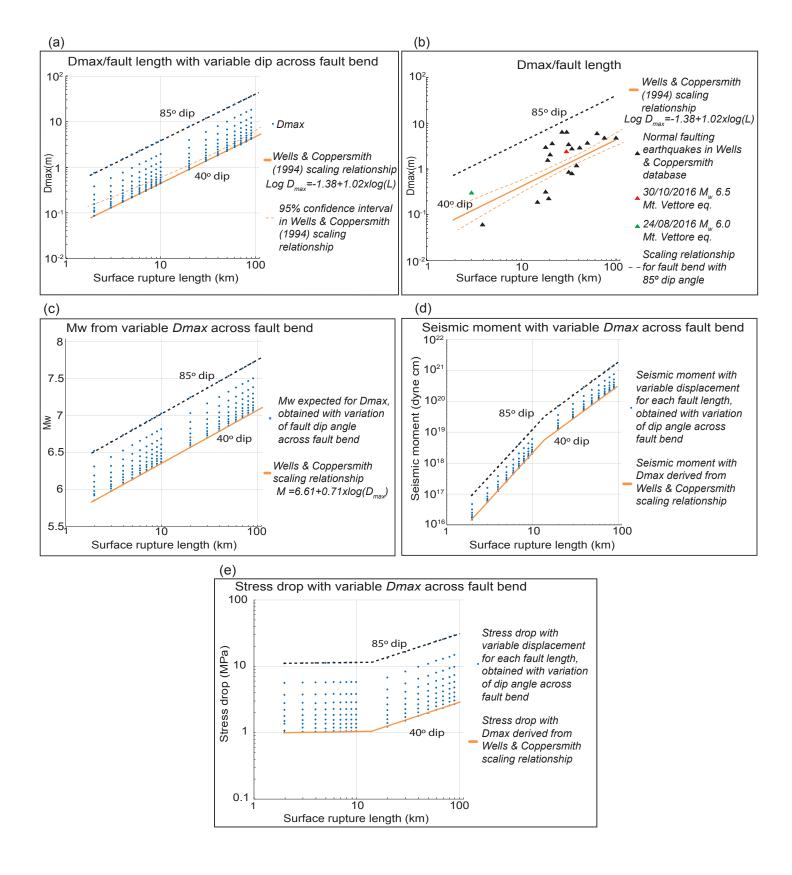


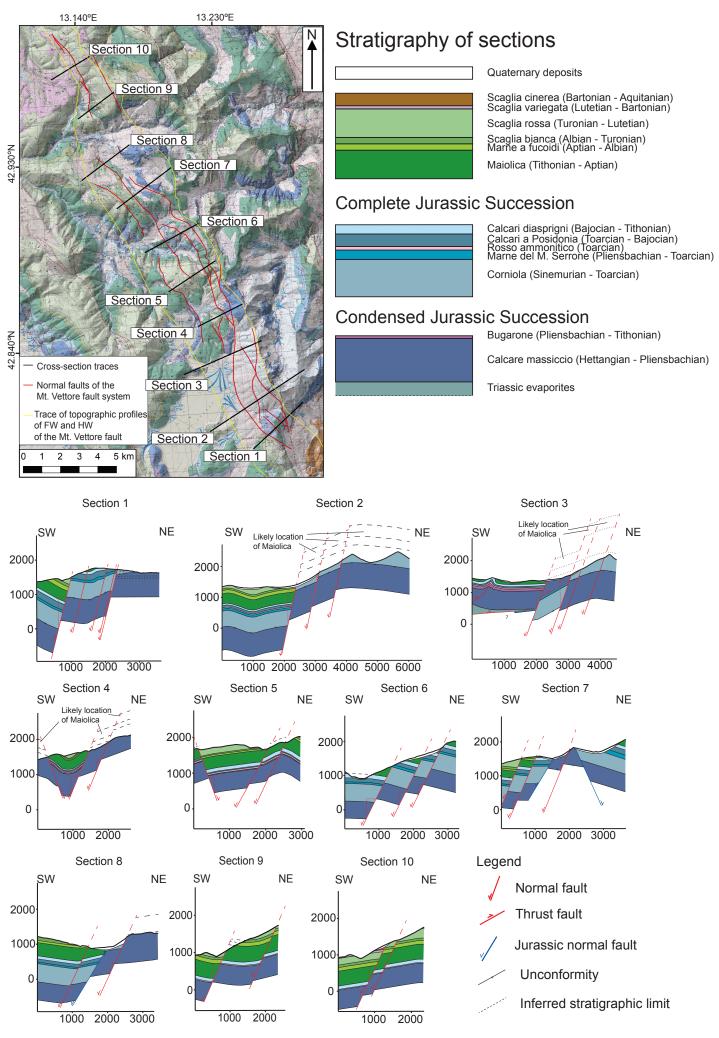
(a) (b)

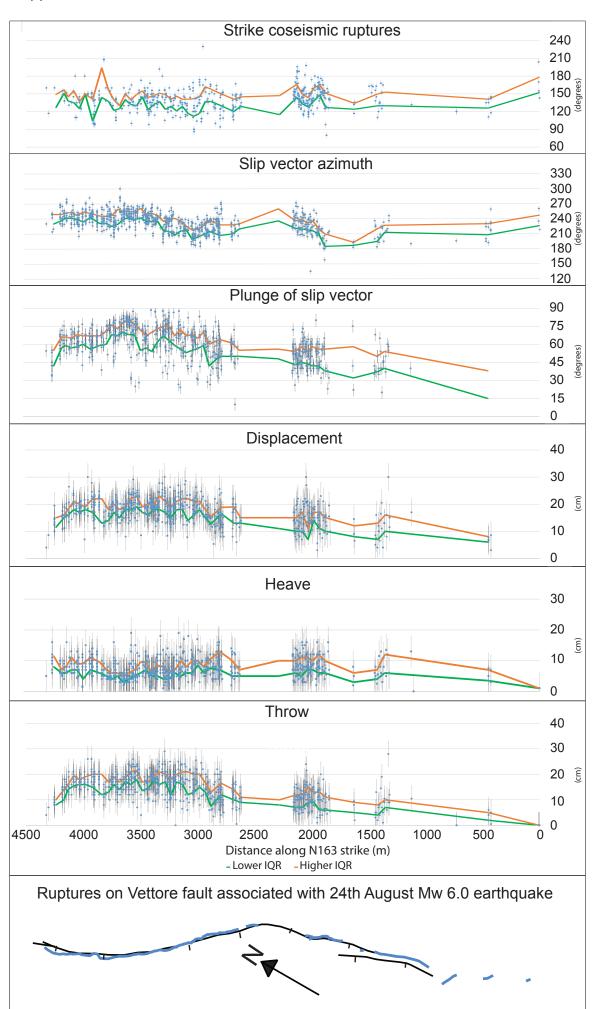


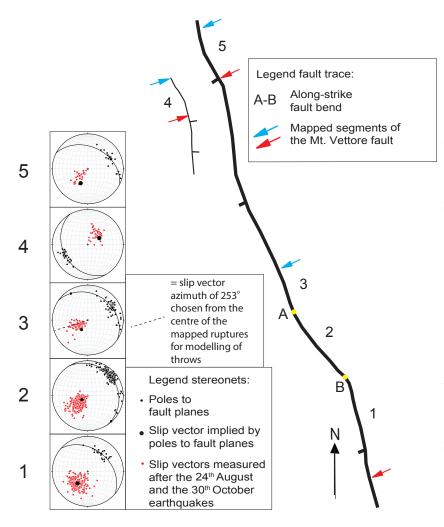


(a)



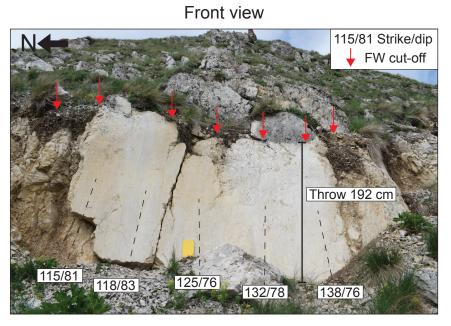






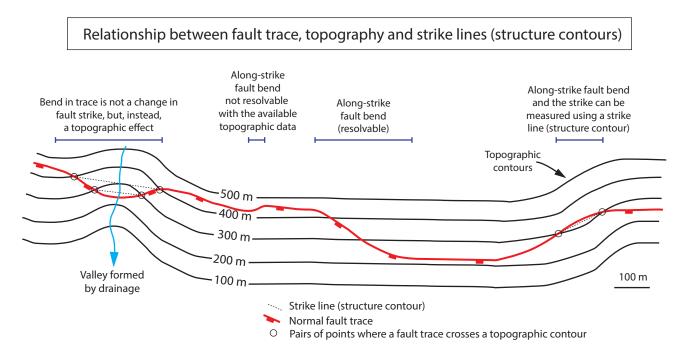
The stereographic projections in these figures use a method suggested by Roberts (2007). The hypothesis is that if a best-fit great circle is plotted through the poles to the fault planes, a pole to this best-fit great circle implies the slip vector azimuth. This is because the lines of intersection between individual fault surfaces must define corrugations whose axes parallel the slip vector. The data show that measured slip vectors correlate with the pole to the best-fit great circle through fault plane poles. Thus, the hypothesis is satisfied. The important point for this paper is that the orientations of individual fault surfaces measured with a compass do not record the overall strike of the fault plane, but rather components of the geometry of the slip-system needed to accommodate the slip vector. It is also implied that a complete sample of fault plane orientations has not been achieved because it is possible for poles to fault planes to occupy parts of the best-fit great circles where no measurements have been made. Thus, a mean value for measured strike would not provide a measure of the overall strike, but rather provide a mean that reflects the sub-sample of possible fault plane orientations that were exposed. This explains why we have used strike-lines to recover the overall strike (see Figure 5 and the main text), rather than mean values from compass measurements of fault planes strikes.

Example of corrugated bedrock fault plane, with high local variability of strike measurements Location: 357452 E 4741853 N



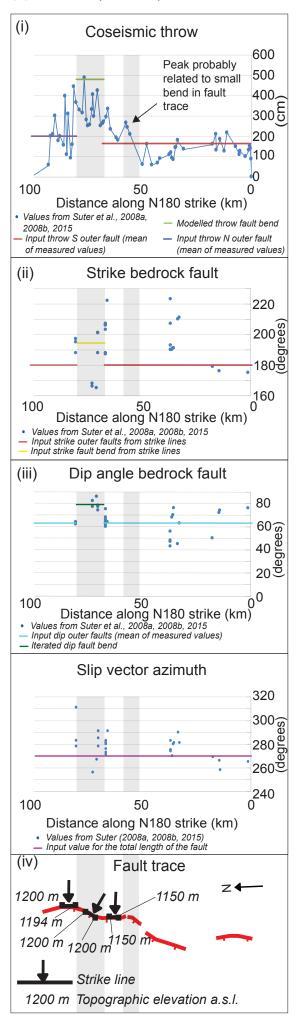
Measurements of strike and dip of the bedrock fault plane at this outcrop show that the strike varies by about 23 degrees along a fault plane 3.4 m long (fieldbook 20 cm tall). This shows again how compass measurements of strike do not record the overall strike of the fault, but rather are a local response to accomodate the slip vector. Side view



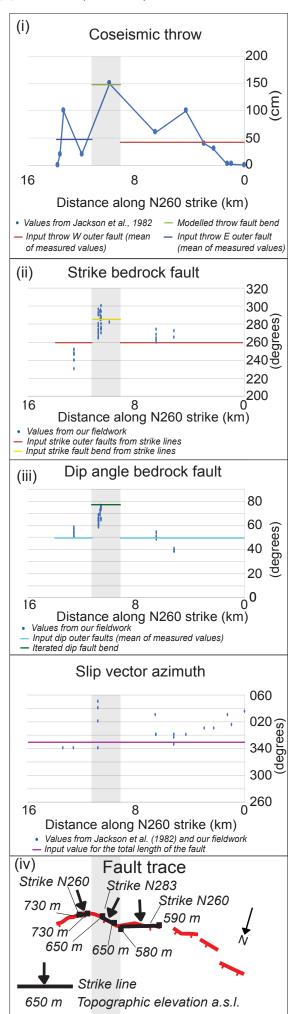


The overall strike of a dipping normal fault can be recovered using strike lines (structure contours) by defining pairs of points where the fault trace crosses the same topographic contour. The strike of the strike line defines the overall fault strike. Along strike fault bends that are small in lateral extent may not be resolved if the spacing of topographic contours is too sparse. The trace of the normal fault can deviate where it crosses a valley or spur; these are not necessarily the positions of actual changes in fault strike

### (a) Sonora (Mexico), 1887, Mw 7.5

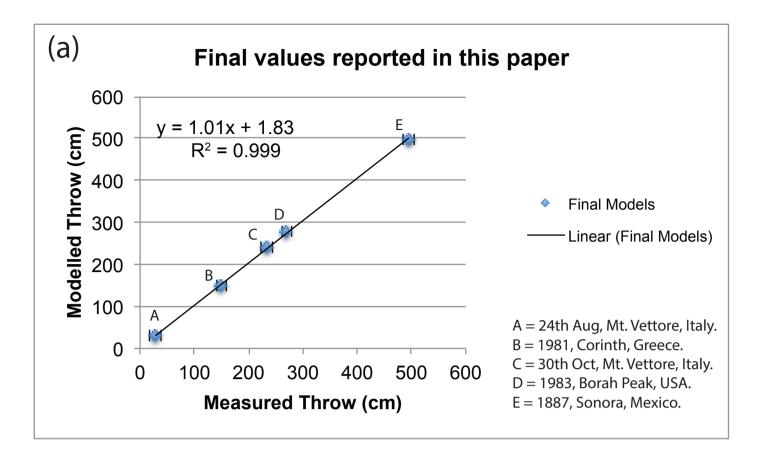


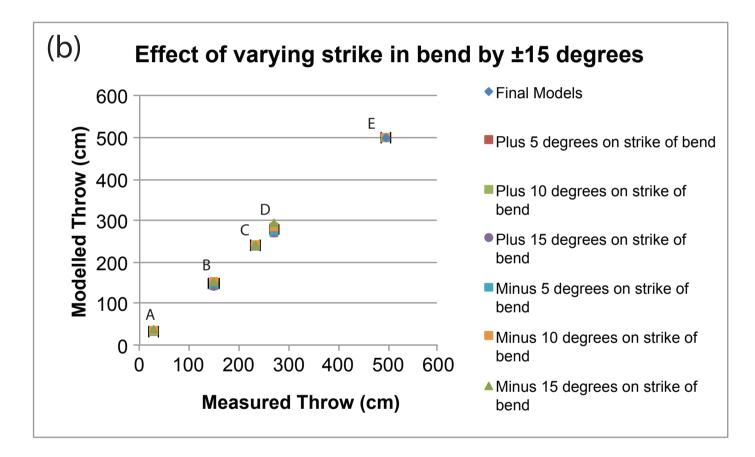
(b) Corinth (Greece), 1981, Mw 6.4-6.7

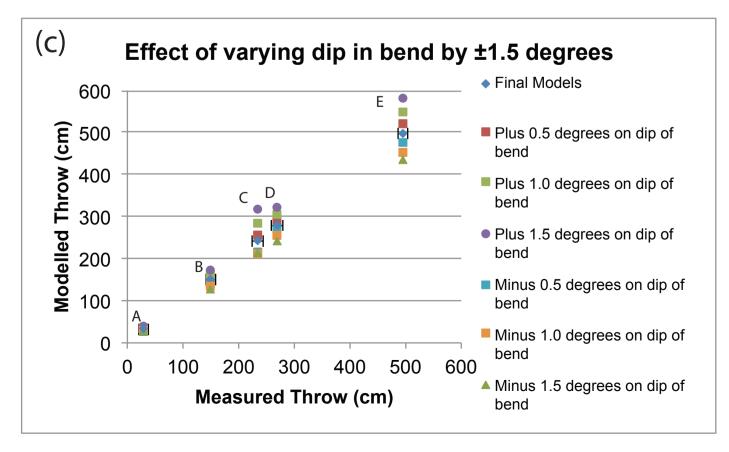


# Parameters used for the application of the modelling in Figure 9 on the studied earthquakes

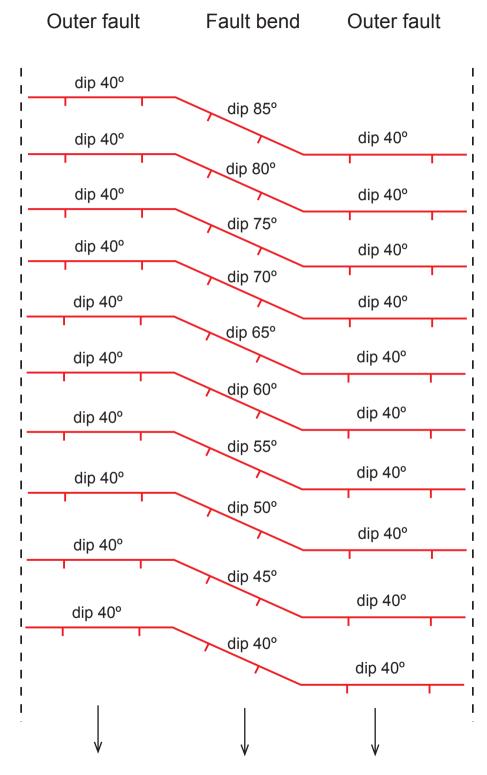
Earthquakes	Measured outer fault sections strike (from strike lines)	Measured fault bend sections strike (from strike lines)	Measured outer fault sections dip (arithmetical mean of measured values)	Measured outer faults throws (arithmetical mean of measured values) (cm)	Measured fault bend maximum throw (cm)	<i>Iterated fault bend dip</i>	Modelled fault bend throw (cm)	Slip vector azimuth along the length of the fault (consistent with field measurements)
24 <sup>th</sup> August M <sub>w</sub> 6.0, Mt. Vettore (central Italy)	N163°	N135°	60°	9-14	29	77°	30	N253°
30 <sup>th</sup> October M <sub>w</sub> 6.5, Mt. Vettore (central Italy)	N163°	N135°	60°	39-46	234	84°	240	N253°
1887, M <sub>w</sub> 7.5 Sonora (Mexico)	N180°	N195°	62°	163-201	495	79°	498	N270°
1981, M <sub>w</sub> 6.4-6.7 Corinth (Greece)	N260°	N283°	49°	39-46	150	76°	148	N350°
1983, M <sub>w</sub> 7.3 Borah Peak (Idaho, USA)	N155°	N142°	60°	99-83	270	79°	280	N245°







Fault model used for analysis of effect of fault bends on scaling relationships



Constant slip vector

