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THE RELATIONSHIP OF SOURCE PARAMETERS OF
OCEANIC TRANSFORM EARTHQUAKES
TO PLATE VELOCITY AND TRANSFORM LENGTH

by

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ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP OF SOURCE PARAMETERS OF
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The source parameters of large earthquakes on oceanic transform faults are closely related to the thermal and mechanical properties of oceanic lithosphere. Several characteristics of these earthquakes (including magnitude, moment, apparent stress $\eta\bar{\sigma}$, and stress drop $\Delta\sigma$) are synthesized according to local plate velocity V , ridge-ridge offset L and average fault width W estimated by Brune's method. Several relationships result: (1) the maximum moment M_0 decreases with V ; (2) M_0 increases with L for $L < 400$ km and may decrease for greater offsets; (3) $\eta\bar{\sigma}$ does not clearly depend on either V or L ; (4) the maximum estimated $W(V)$ decreases with V ; (5) the minimum estimated $W(L)$ increases with L ; and (6) the largest earthquakes on long transforms occur near the transform center. Most of these relationships can be explained by thermal models for spreading centers if seismic failure occurs only at temperatures below a fixed value.

The inversion of slip rate and magnitude data by transform confirms this explanation and gives an estimate for the temperature of the boundary separating stick-slip and stable sliding. The actual thermal structure around oceanic transforms is not known but the idealized models used in the inversion give a temperature range, for the brittle to ductile boundary, of 75° to 125°C. Accounting for the possible uncertainties in the thermal structure, a temperature range of 50° to 300°C is proposed. This temperature range is consistent with laboratory investigations of slip in rocks of compositions that are representative candidates for the material being faulted in oceanic transforms.

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 Associate Professor of Geophysics

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INTRODUCTION

Due to the spherical nature of the earth, the movement of one lithospheric plate with respect to another can be described as a rotation about an instantaneous pole of rotation. When this motion results in the two plates moving apart, a ridge and transform system will tend to form nearly along great circles, or lines of longitude, through the instantaneous pole and transforms tend to form along lines of latitude. Motion on these transforms is almost pure strike-slip on very high angle faults. This thesis is concerned with how transform length and slip rate affect the earthquakes produced on oceanic transforms and to what depth brittle failure occurs.

There are several terms which will be referred to frequently and these warrant some discussion. By transform, we mean that region between ridge crests which is undergoing active slip. Each transform is characterized by a length L , the distance between ridge crest segments, and a width W , the depth above which brittle failure occurs. This width may not be the same at all points along the transform but represents rather the average depth. As more detailed mapping is being done on the midoceanic ridge system, it is observed that transforms may range in length from 1000 km to less than 10 km. In this thesis only those transforms having earthquakes of

magnitude 6.0 or above are studied. This eliminates most short transforms (under 80 km length).

The term fault will refer to the area of a single earthquake. It has a length ℓ , which is not usually the transform length except in the case of very short transforms or very large earthquakes. The fault width w may correspond to the transform width.

The magnitude of an earthquake refers to the standard 20 second surface wave magnitude of Gutenberg and Richter (1942) or its equivalent. A more meaningful parameter than magnitude is the seismic moment of an earthquake (Aki, 1966), which can be related to fault area ℓw and the average displacement \bar{d} by

$$M_0 = \mu \ell w \bar{d} \quad (1)$$

where μ is the shear modulus.

Another useful term is moment sum ΣM_0 , which is the sum of the moments for all earthquakes on a given transform within a specified time period. The moment sum can be related to the transform area A by

$$\Sigma M_0 = \mu AVT \quad (2)$$

(Brune, 1968), where V is the slip rate or full spreading velocity at the ridge, T is the time period over which the summation is taken, and $A = LW$. This equation assumes

that all of the slip on the transform depth W is accomplished by brittle failure and that the sample time is long enough to get a representative quantity of earthquakes.

In the following sections these parameters will be compiled and related to each other and to thermal structure toward the end of better understanding the nature of seismic slip along oceanic transforms.

DATA

Two largely geometrical properties of ridge-ridge transforms are length and slip rate. These two properties combined with the seismic source parameters of earthquakes occurring on each transform make up the data set used in this thesis.

Sixty oceanic transforms have been surveyed and documented in the literature well enough so that their location and length can be determined. The sources of these determinations are: Anderson et al. (1972); Bonatti and Honnorez (1976); Collette et al. (1974); Fisher et al. (1971); Forsyth (1975); Fox et al. (1976); Herron (1972); Klitgord et al. (1973); Mammerickx et al. (1975); Molnar et al. (1975); Norton (1976); Olivet et al. (1974); Sclater et al. (1976); Sykes (1967); Thompson and Melson (1972); van Andel et al. (1973); Vogt and Johnson (1975); and Weissel and Hazes (1972). This list accounts for most of the large midoceanic transforms except for two notable exceptions: the Africa-Antarctic plate boundary and the complicated zones on the East Pacific Rise near 20° south and 34° south. Inadequate mapping in these areas is the cause of their exclusion from this study. The error in measurement of the transform length is variable but is generally less than 15%. The spreading rate for each transform is calculated using the poles and angular velocities of Minster et al. (1974).

The most commonly used earthquake source parameter is magnitude. All of the reported earthquakes on each transform since the early 1900's with magnitude 6.0 or greater are compiled in Appendix 1 (and in condensed form in Table I) by fracture zones. Events with magnitudes less than 6.0 are usually not reliably reported, or located, especially in the early 1900's. The earthquake catalog and magnitude scale used for earthquakes between 1920 and 1952 are from Gutenberg and Richter (1954); for the years 1953 to 1965, Rothe (1969) is used; and for the events from 1966 to 1975, the 20 second surface wave magnitudes from the C.G.S./N.O.A.A./U.S.G.S. are taken (except for those events noted in Table II). Geller and Kanamori (1977) have shown that the calculation used in present day determinations of the 20 second surface wave magnitude is close to that used by Gutenberg and Richter. The assumption is made that the magnitudes from Rothe (1969) are also on an equivalent scale.

Only for the recent earthquakes (1963 and later) have other seismic source parameters been measured by spectral analysis. These parameters are seismic moment M_0 , apparent stress $\eta\bar{\sigma}$, and stress drop $\Delta\sigma$. The apparent stress is the product of the average shear stress $\bar{\sigma}$ on the fault before and after faulting and an unknown efficiency factor η . Stress drop is the difference between the initial and final shear stress on the fault. Several researchers have looked at earthquakes occurring on transforms and

analyzed the amplitude spectra of the surface waves produced. The results of these studies are compiled in Table II.

Apparent stress has been calculated for each event using the equation:

$$\eta\bar{\sigma} = \mu E/M_0 \quad (\text{Aki, 1966}) \quad (3)$$

where μ is the shear modulus (3.3×10^{11}) and E is the seismic energy:

$$E = 5.8 + 2.4 m_b \quad (4)$$

and

$$E = 11.8 + 1.5 M_s. \quad (5)$$

M_s and m_b are the surface and body wave magnitudes, respectively. Note that the energy equation using M_s is valid only for surface wave magnitudes 6.5 and greater. Apparent stress has been compiled for m_b (ISC) and M_s in Table II.

Stress drops have been reported in the literature for several transform events. Stress drops for two earthquakes on the Gibbs fracture zone analyzed by Kana-mori and Stewart (1976) can be calculated using

$$\Delta\sigma = \frac{2M_0}{\pi l w^2} \quad (\text{Knopoff, 1958}) \quad (6)$$

Kanamori and Stewart (1976) calculated a length from waveform analysis of body waves. Using a fault width of 5 to 10 kilometers, the possible range of stress drops for both earthquakes is between 30 and 140 bars.

Udias (1971) calculated $\Delta\sigma$ using the directivity function for surface waves; he found stress drops in the 10 to 20 bar range for 2 earthquakes. An attempt was made to determine fault lengths for the rest of the published moments, using relocated aftershock data, but only the 1974 event already studied by Kanamori and Stewart (1976) had more than two aftershocks.

The seismic moments for six additional transform earthquakes have been calculated for this study (Table II). The method used, described in Richardson and Solomon (1977), consists of computing the amplitude spectra of horizontally polarized shear waves and then correcting for the effects of instrument and travel path, thus obtaining the source spectrum. The moment is computed from the long period spectral amplitude level (Ω_0) by:

$$M_0 = \frac{4\pi\rho\beta^3}{RG} \Omega_0 \quad (\text{Keilis-Borok, 1960}) \quad (7)$$

where ρ and β are density and shear wave velocity, respectively, at the source, R is a correction for radiation pattern, and G is a correction for geometrical spreading,

attenuation, and the free surface. Fault plane solutions for the South Pacific events come from Molnar et al. (1975) and those for the southwest Indian ridge events are from Norton (1976). Four to seven stations, away from SH modal planes, were selected for each event and the moment calculated. The mean value for each event is reported in Table II and the value for each station is displayed in Table III. The geometric mean of the amplitude spectra for each event, corrected as in equation (7), is displayed in Appendix 2.

A method for estimating fault length without using aftershocks is achieved by finding the corner frequency (f_0) of the amplitude spectrum:

$$l = .20\beta/f_0 \quad (\text{Madariaga, 1977}) \quad (8)$$

where β is the shear wave velocity (3.9 km/sec). The corner frequency is a difficult parameter to read and on the spectra studied only a range of possible values can be determined. This range is between .02 and .05 Hz and seems to be comparable for all six events. The corresponding fault lengths are 15 to 40 km thus giving stress drops between 1 and 60 bars. It is not obvious, but stress drop may increase with moment.

Norton (1976) noted a gap in seismicity for the period 1900 to present near $49^\circ\text{S}, 32^\circ\text{E}$ on the southwest Indian ridge. This gap corresponds to the location of a

magnitude 7.9 event (Gutenberg and Richter, 1954) on 10 November 1942, for which Brune and King (1967) have calculated a moment. Norton suggested that this also marks the approximate location of a fracture zone that may be 400 km long. This event and its transform have been included in both Tables I and II. Another event of magnitude 7.7 occurred nine years later on the same ridge, 3000 km away at 34°S, 57°E. The moment for this event has not been calculated and the geometry of its associated transform is not defined, so it has not been included.

RELATIONS CONCERNING SOURCE PARAMETERS, TRANSFORM LENGTH,
AND SLIP RATE

It has already been shown that the seismic moment is directly related to the product of fault area and displacement, and that the summation of moments is related to the product of transform length, width, slip rate, and sample time. To gain insight into the vertical structure of transforms using these relations, one can use the earthquakes for which a moment can be measured directly. But this only accounts for the last few years, since it has only been recently that good seismograms have been readily available. Thus it would be informative if seismic moments could be obtained from the magnitudes which have been compiled in Appendix 1, thereby quadrupling the sample time. To do this we will look at the graph of moment vs. magnitude which displays those events for which a moment has been calculated directly from a seismogram.

Figure 1 shows the earthquakes with a measured moment and a surface wave magnitude reported by the U.S.G.S, the two events with M_0 and M_S measured by Udias (1971) and the magnitude 7.9 event. The M_0 vs. M_S curve from the ω^2 and ω^3 models of Aki (1967), as plotted by Brune and King (1967), are shown with dotted lines. The symbols represent the plate boundary where the earthquake is located (Table IV). It should be noted that the M_S 6.5

event with a large moment has been documented by Kanamori and Stewart (1976) as being an unusual event. This event seems to have a hole in the spectrum at 20 seconds (Solomon, personal communication) so M_s may underestimate the surface wave excitation.

Figure 2 is the M_0 vs. M_s curve utilizing the data in Figure 1 plus the magnitudes calculated by Rothe (1969). Considerable scatter results, but in a least-squares sense the data still fit the previous figure quite well. For the rest of this thesis the data of Figure 1 will be used as a basis for comparison with other moment magnitude curves to be calculated.

There is some debate at present whether the ω^2 source model is correct (Geller, 1976) but for lack of a better choice, and since it seems to fit the data fairly well, the ω^2 curve will be used to translate M_s (or M) into M_0 for future plots.

The graph of M_0 vs. spreading velocity (V) is shown in Figures 3 and 4 where M_0 is either measured or estimated from the magnitude, respectively. Figure 5 is the moment sum vs. slip rate. All three graphs show an upper bound, or maximum, moment which decreases as spreading rate increases.

The next three figures (6,7,8) show the relation of M_0 and ΣM_0 vs. transform length. The most obvious observation on all three graphs is that the upper bound on M_0 and ΣM_0 increases as the transform length increases for

for lengths less than 400 km. Above 400 km length there is an apparent decrease of maximum moment with increasing length. Since the magnitude 7.9 event may represent the moment needed to break the entire transform it may be mechanically unrealistic to break a substantially longer fracture zone (e.g., Romanche, 950 km long) so the bound on moment may actually decrease after 400 km length. In Figure 6 there are two events with large moments on 130 km transforms. Their moments (from Wyss, 1970) may be overestimated or they, too, may represent breakage of the entire transform. This is especially true of the 7.0 event on the Tjorn fracture zone. Notice, as with Figures 3-5, that the magnitude 7.9 event contributes to and accentuates the trend but does not of itself produce it.

Another trend apparent on the M_0 vs. L plot is for the minimum ΣM_0 to increase as transform length increases. This trend and the above two trends indicate that both slip rate and length are affecting faulting on these oceanic transforms. To put these two effects together one can solve for average width in Brune's (1968) formula:

$$W = \Sigma M_0 / \mu LVT \quad (9)$$

Finding a value for T (sample time) is complicated because transforms may be inactive for substantial periods of time and because some earthquakes above magnitude 6.0 have not been reported. The value of fifty years seems to allow

for both problems on most transforms but there may be an error as large as ± 15 years for some. μ is taken to be 3.3×10^{11} dynes. An average width has been calculated for each transform by this method and compiled in Table I. The two major assumptions to keep in mind for the above formula are that (1) all movement on the fault is brittle failure, and (2) due to the logarithmic nature of the M_0 vs. M_s curve, earthquakes smaller than $M_s = 6.0$ will not have a substantial effect on the moment sum. Taking these errors into consideration W is probably good to a factor of 1.5 or, at worst, a factor of 3.

Figure 9 shows a plot of W vs. transform length. The dotted lines approximate the trend of transforms having approximately the same slip rate. There is a trend for width to increase as transform length increases for transforms of similar velocity.

To explain this observation it is necessary to look at what is occurring along the transform. At the ridge crest hot material is added to one side of the transform, and as this material moves away from the ridge crest it cools and contracts. Rocks at high temperature will tend to flow and not fracture so one would expect that right near the ridge crest, where the crust is very hot, brittle failure may only occur very near the surface. As the crust cools and moves away from the ridge, brittle failure will occur deeper in the crust.

Consider the fact that along faster transforms the isotherms in the crust are closer to the surface than along slower ones, also notice in Figure 9 that the slower transforms get wider more quickly as length increases. From these two observations, one can postulate that the area of brittle failure is controlled by the depth to a certain isotherm. It is this idea that will be further explored in the next section.

The next graph (Figure 10) shows a large decrease in computed width as spreading rate increases. For clarity, the graph only shows widths less than 8 km. There are some larger widths corresponding to velocities less than 3.0 cm/year. This graph can be partially explained by the above discussion of width vs. length but another factor causing this relation is shown in Figure 11.

Figure 11 is a plot of transform length vs. spreading rate and it shows the maximum lengths decreasing as spreading rate increases. The cause of Figure 11 could involve many diverse factors. First of all, the pattern may be merely a coincidence that will change with time. Such a 'coincidence' as this must have held, however, for the last 100 m.y. because the 950 km-long Romanche fracture zone has been in existence that long and the Mid-Atlantic ridge has had about the same spreading rate relative to other ridges as it does now. In fact, most of the major transforms can be traced back to continental margin offsets via fracture zones. Thus it is the original

pattern by which continents break apart that determines where many of the large transforms will occur.

Note that the East Pacific rise has mainly small fracture zones. This could be due to the fact that this ridge has not represented the junction between two continents for the last few hundred million years, if ever.

One thing that would tend to break up a transform is a change in the location of its pole of rotation. This would put the transform under either compression or extension. Extension would form a spreading center within the transform and compression would shorten or deform the transform and might lead to ridge jumps or asymmetric spreading. In the right circumstances asymmetric spreading, or a ridge jump, could also lengthen a transform. All of the above effects would be felt most heavily on a transform with a fast slip rate due to its hotter, weaker crust. It is possible that the least energy configuration of a ridge would be many small transforms as opposed to a few large ones, but that point is debatable. Perhaps long fracture zones inhibit changes in spreading poles by their inability to change shape and restrict spreading rate by frictional resistance.

Apparent stress was plotted against all the other parameters but no one clear relation could be discerned. Thus, from the available data, it does not appear that spreading rate or transform length have a noticeable effect on the stress field around oceanic transforms.

Figures 12 and 13 are graphs of m_b (U.S.C.G.S.) and m_b (I.S.C.) vs. M_s , respectively. This ratio of m_b to M_s is quite unique for oceanic transforms, that is, M_s is almost always higher, sometimes by as much as 1.2 units. Dip slip earthquakes and continental strike-slip earthquakes yield a higher m_b to M_s ratio. In fact, Shakal (1975) reports that it is possible to discriminate between dip slip and strike-slip earthquakes along the Mid-Atlantic ridge with fairly reasonable accuracy using this method. There are basically two reasons for this difference. First, strike-slip mechanisms are more efficient at generating surface waves than dip slip events and second, for events near oceanic ridges, the body waves are attenuated relative to surface waves. This type of attenuation does not affect continental strike-slip events. Oceanic earthquakes may also generate larger 20 sec surface waves than continental events of comparable m_b because of generally shallower focal depth (Tsai, 1969; Tsai and Aki, 1970).

THE INVERSE PROBLEM

In the previous section a moment-magnitude relation was used to assign moments to earthquakes so that information about the fault width could be ascertained. If this is considered the forward problem, then the inverse problem would be to assume something about the width and then invert the earthquake data to get a moment-magnitude curve. The depth to a certain isotherm within a transform, as suggested in the last section, is assumed to be the parameter that will properly relate length and slip rate.

Ideally what we need is the thermal structure of each oceanic transform. To our knowledge, this has never been modeled and, until the geology and the factors controlling the topographic features within the slip zone are known, it will be difficult to determine. The thermal structure of normal oceanic crust, however, is reasonably well understood (e.g., Sleep, 1975). It will be assumed that such structure holds for each side of a transform as well. According to such spreading plate thermal models, a given isotherm is closer to the surface on the side of the fault closest to the spreading center. It is only in the center where a given isotherm is at the same depth on both sides of the fault. If a single isotherm limits brittle behavior, then there are two possible bounds on the shape of the faulting area, as shown in Figure 14. The first area represents the shallowest depth of a given isotherm and

the second represents the greatest depth to a given isotherm.

To pose the inverse problem we first write the equation for the predicted moment sum D_i for the i^{th} transform from the fault-slip theory of Brune (1968):

$$D_i = \mu S_i V_i T_i \quad (10)$$

where $D, V,$ and T are the transform area, slip rate, and sample time, respectively. Using the areas from the discussion (Figure 14a or b) D can be calculated once an isotherm is specified. Utilizing the earthquakes on the i^{th} transform, the moment sum M_o from seismic observations is

$$\Sigma M_o = \sum_{j=1}^{13} A_{ij} C_j \quad (11)$$

where A_{ij} is the number of earthquakes of the j^{th} magnitude on the i^{th} transform, and C_j is the moment corresponding to the j^{th} magnitude, according to the moment-magnitude relation to be determined. Note that in this study only the thirteen discrete magnitudes 6.0, 6.1, 6.2, ..., 7.2 are used. The three transforms with events larger than 7.2 are not included because too few events of such magnitude have occurred to perform meaningful inversion. The A matrix is compiled in Table I.

Equating the right-hand sides of (10) and (11) and solving for the C's will give a moment-magnitude relation

that can be compared, for each adopted isotherm, to the data shown in Figure 1. If the trends are the same it will confirm the hypothesis that the depth to a certain isotherm is the parameter that appropriately combines slip rate and transform length to control fault area. The position of the resultant curve will be determined by the limiting temperature picked to calculate the fault areas. Thus matching the position of the curve to the data in Figure 1 will give some idea as to what temperature is controlling the depth of brittle failure.

The combination of the two equations above result in the matrix equation:

$$D = AC \quad (12)$$

which is an overdetermined set of linear equations. Pre-multiplying equation (12) by A^T (the transpose of A) results in a system of linear equations,

$$A^T D = A^T AC \quad (13)$$

where $A^T A$ is a square, nonsingular, symmetric matrix. The solution vector C can be found using standard routines for solving a system of linear equations.

Since the relation log moment vs. magnitude can be approximated by a straight line, at least for magnitudes less than about 7.0, it is convenient to do a linear least squares fit of the log of the vector C as a function of

the respective magnitudes. This gives a slope and a position to a line which is easily compared to other log moment-magnitude relations. The discrete solution (C) is important, in some respects, because it indicates how well the moment for each magnitude is determined. However, in other respects, the discrete solution is not as important as the least-squares solution because the earlier magnitudes (Gutenberg and Richter, 1954) are typically given only to the nearest quarter, rather than tenth, of a magnitude unit.

Figure 15 shows the results of the inversion of 57 transforms using four different temperatures to determine the fault area (Figure 14a). The three transforms in Table I with earthquakes of magnitude greater than 7.2 have not been used (Vema, transforms at 7°N, 36°W and 49°S, 32°E). When the least-square lines are compared with the data from Figure 1, it is evident that the isotherm that will best match the moment-magnitude data is about 150°C.

The discrete solution (Figure 16) for the above 57 transforms shows that each moment is not very well defined and that they have only a trend of getting larger. Looking at the data there are several transforms which seem to have either an abnormally large or small number of earthquakes for their length and velocity. This is reflected in the width calculation in the previous section by inconsistent widths. These transforms are (from Table I):

1-2; 2-1; 3-1; 3-2; 7-1; 10-6; 12-1; and 14-3 where the first number represents the plate boundary (Table IV) and the second indicates the particular transform on that plate boundary.

The discrete solution for the remaining 49 transforms (Figure 17) has a much more consistent determination of moment and in the least-squares sense (Figure 18) the slopes remain the same as the previous solution (Figure 15), but the position of each line is moved up slightly. Using the 100°C isotherm, which is the best fit for this case, an average width has been computed by dividing the area above the isotherm for each transform by the transform length. These widths have been compiled in Table I. The eleven anomalous transforms may have a nonrepresentative sample of earthquakes or may be affected by some other phenomenon more severely than for the others.

The slope of the lines in Figures 15 and 18 are very close to the ω^3 plot. This could indicate that the model is correctly giving the moment-magnitude relation. However, the data from this study and the one by Brune and King indicate that the moment-magnitude relation is best described by a curve intermediate between the ω^2 and ω^3 models. This discrepancy could be due to the least-squares solution smoothing out any trend for a slope increase at higher magnitudes, but one would still expect a slope slightly larger than that of the ω^3 curve. The

discrepancy could also be caused by the fault width of higher magnitude earthquakes being determined by a higher temperature than lower magnitude events. This would partially explain some of the anomalous widths obtained for the Vema, Tjorn, and other transforms with large magnitude events for their offset lengths.

One model for the loading and rupture of a transform fault (Thatcher, 1975) is based on the hypothesis that loading occurs along the base of the fault by aseismic creep of the underlying material. This model would suggest that the fault depth is limited by the ability of material to creep far enough to precipitate the seismic slip. It is possible that for larger magnitude events a large amount of creep is needed, and that only that material at a higher temperature can creep the required distance. This may be in contrast to lower magnitude events, which require only a small amount of creep that can be accomplished by shallower, lower temperature material.

There are several other factors which could affect the positioning of the predicted curves in Figures 15-18. The first is the addition of earthquakes less than magnitude 6.0. This will produce a downward shift, so that a higher temperature will produce the best fit. The fact that moment-magnitude relations are logarithmic indicates this effect is small; that is, the moments for smaller magnitudes do not make a substantial contribution to the moment sum. Another uncertainty is the earthquake sample

time for each transform. The sample time for Figures 15 to 19 has been taken to be fifty years. When other reasonable sample times are taken, both constant and variable, the lines shift slightly. Taking these uncertainties into account, the isotherm that fits can be specified only to lie between 100°C and 175°C.

The actual method of slip on a transform may introduce two additional uncertainties. The time period over which earthquakes have been catalogued may not be long enough to get a good representation of activity. Further, if shear stresses are relieved by aseismic slip, such as along the central San Andreas (Savage and Burford, 1971), then determining the slip by any seismic method will underestimate the actual movement. There is no data on how much this latter possibility will affect the results.

The largest change in position of the lines is produced when a larger area, such as that in Figure 14b, is used. Contrary to the previous variations, use of this definition of area results in moving all curves upward, thus decreasing the temperature of the isotherm that best fits the data (Figure 19).

This raises again the problem of what the thermal structure of a transform zone actually looks like. It is likely that Figures 14a and 14b based on the least or greatest temperature on one side of an idealized insulating fault, represent bounds on the true isotherm configuration. To determine the actual shape one must consider several

factors: conduction of heat across the fault will tend to average the temperature on either side; at the ridge crests there is probably enough heat flow from the intrusion of magma to keep the faulting very shallow; and at any distance from the ridge, the heat sink on the cold side of the fault will increase the depth of faulting rapidly. It is observed that most transforms are marked by a linear trough, from several hundred meters to several kilometers below the normal ocean crust, striking parallel to the transform axis. This topography will complicate the thermal structure; in particular, the values of the isotherms in the models (Figures 14a and b) may be too low for the shallow portions of the transform. Thus any estimate of the temperature controlling the transform width, using these models, would also be low. Three other factors affecting isotherm depth are the production of heat when brittle failure occurs, hydrothermal circulation in the highly sheared fault zone, and a composition difference between the transform zone and normal ocean crust necessitating a change in the conduction constant used in the thermal model calculation.

The inversion of the magnitude data does not resolve the actual shape of the isotherm, but only the specific isotherm that best fits the data given a general shape. That is, a 75°C isotherm and the area in Figure 14b fit the data just as well (Figure 19) as a 150°C isotherm and the area of Figure 14a (Figure 15).

One observation that resolves part of this problem of shape concerns the location on the transforms where large earthquakes occur. The locations of the earthquakes are not always precise enough to determine exactly where, in relation to the ridge crests, they occur, but in general larger earthquakes are located towards the centers of the transforms. A good illustration of this observation is the map in Figure 20 of the Romanche fracture zone. No earthquakes of magnitude 6.2 or greater occur closer than 60 km from the ridge crest, yet as noted earlier, earthquakes in the magnitude range 6.5 to 6.9 have typical fault lengths of 15 to 80 km. Thus the major reason for the central location of large magnitude events is the increase in fault width away from the ridge crests which allows larger magnitude events to occur. It is not due to large events rupturing a distance all the way to the ridge crest except in rare instances of very large events.

Trying to average over all transforms may not be ideal because of the different geometries controlling the interaction of the plates on either side of the transform. Some transforms may be under compression or extension if the poles of rotation for the individual plates are changing, or have changed. Another possibility, if the pole has remained fixed for a long period of time, is that the transform may be under slight extension from the cooling of the lithosphere on either side. If extension is the case, there may be some intrusion of mantle magma

into the fracture zone thus raising the isotherm. Extension may be occurring in the North Atlantic (Collette et al., 1974) but the fault widths seem to increase in these areas, rather than decrease, so the intrusion may have another effect. Transforms under compression and those changing shape to accommodate pole changes may be more susceptible to a stick-slip mechanism.

So far in this study we have shown that the inversion of slip-rate and magnitude data gives a consistent moment-magnitude relation, that is, if an isotherm limits the deepest extent of seismic failure. We have also seen that there are many uncertainties involved in the determination of the detailed thermal structure. Given all the uncertainties a conservative estimate for the temperature below which brittle failure occurs in oceanic transforms is in the range of 50° to 300°C.

The next question to be considered is: are these temperatures reasonable? Several investigators (Brace and Byerlee, 1970; Stesky, 1975) have looked at the boundary between stick-slip and stable sliding in natural rock samples. They have concluded that this boundary is dependent on temperature, pressure, and composition of the faulting material. At 4 kilobars pressure Stesky (1975) found that San Marcos gabbro and Twin Sisters dunite started stable sliding between 150°C and 200°C and that Mt. Albert peridotite started stable sliding well below 100°C. Thus the temperatures from the inversion correspond to those

obtained in laboratory investigations on rocks which are representative candidates for the material being faulted in the transform.

CONCLUSIONS

In this study of earthquakes occurring on oceanic transforms we have noted the following relationships. (1) Maximum moment, average fault width, and maximum moment sum all decrease with increased slip rate. (2) Maximum moment and maximum moment sum increase with transform length up to 400 km length and may either decrease or continue to increase with length for longer transforms. (3) Minimum moment sum and average width also increase with transform length. (4) Larger earthquakes generally occur towards the center of a transform. From these observations it was hypothesized that an isotherm in the transform zone controls the lower limit of the area over which brittle failure occurs. The inversion of magnitude data shows this statement is reasonable and gives a range of isotherms that could be controlling faulting of between 75°C and 175°C. Uncertainties in the shape and depth of the isotherms within the transform widen this range to between 50°C and 300°C. This range is consistent with laboratory studies on the temperature of the transition from strike-slip to stable sliding for rocks of similar composition to those thought to be in the transform zone.

Further study is needed to constrain the thermal structure of the transform so that a more accurate determination of temperature controlling the fault width can

be defined. The moment magnitude curve needs more data for higher magnitudes so that a discrimination can be made between ω^2 and ω^3 models. From this it may be possible to determine whether or not higher temperatures are controlling the fault width for earthquakes having a large moment.

The analysis of more source spectra could lead to a determination of relations between stress drop, apparent stress, slip rate, and transform length which have so far been undefined.

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TABLE CAPTIONS

- Table I) All of the transform data used in this study are listed by pole (see Table IV) and transform number. Velocity is in cm/yr, lengths and widths are in kilometers. For calculation of widths see text.
- Table II) Data for all oceanic transforms which have had their source spectrum analyzed.
- Table III) Detailed observations of moment and corner frequency for the six events studied in this thesis.
- Table IV) List of plate boundaries listed by their associated pole numbers and letters used in Tables I and II, also Figures 1 through 13.

TABLE I.

Pole	#	Lat.	Long.	L	V	6.0	6.2	6.4	6.6	6.8	7.0	7.2	7.4	7.5	7.9	W ¹	W ²	Name
1	1	52N	33W	287	2,48	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	4,5	1,5	GIBBS
1	2	46N	49W	137	1,09	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	13,7	1,0	TJORN
2	1	24N	45W	137	3,17	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	15,2	0,9	KANE
2	2	32N	42W	72	2,95	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,4	0,6	ATLANTIS
2	3	39N	36W	143	2,74	3	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2,0	1,0	OCEANOGRAPHER
3	3	44N	102W	357	5,50	3	1	2	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	1,7	1,1	BLANCO
4	1	49N	129W	167	4,28	3	1	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3,7	2,8	SOVANCO
4	2	3S	105W	83	14,37	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,3	2,3	
4	3	4S	103W	60	14,17	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,6	2,3	
4	4	5S	104W	45	14,32	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,4	2,4	
4	5	9S	109W	127	14,96	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,4	2,3	
4	6	13S	92W	67	17,17	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,2	2,2	
4	7	28S	113W	207	18,22	2	0	3	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0,3	2,4	
4	8	36S	117W	167	18,24	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,2	2,4	
5	1	2N	41W	207	5,93	2	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	0,9	0,8	W ¹ -width Bruno's method
5	2	1N	65W	153	4,50	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,4	0,6	
6	1	7S	69E	187	3,73	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,4	1,0	W ² -mean depth of 100°C isotherm
6	2	9S	63E	307	3,36	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,4	1,3	
6	3	14S	69E	137	4,18	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,4	2,8	
6	4	17S	66E	247	4,33	3	0	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,1	1,1	
6	5	19S	66E	117	4,50	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,4	2,7	
7	1	37S	79E	307	4,82	3	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,6	2,9	
7	2	41S	69E	247	7,31	3	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,3	2,8	
7	3	45S	67E	217	7,23	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,8	2,7	
7	4	48S	99E	247	7,46	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2,5	2,8	
7	5	51S	147E	297	7,76	2	2	3	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1,1	2,9	
7	6	52S	141E	207	7,33	4	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,5	2,7	
7	7	56S	144E	467	4,93	5	1	6	3	3	1	0	0	0	0	1,5	1,1	
7	8	60S	149E	267	4,96	2	0	3	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	1,4	2,8	
7	9	62S	154E	367	4,42	1	1	1	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	2,7	1,0	
9	1	8N	109W	177	12,40	2	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,5	2,5	
9	2	12N	104W	167	11,58	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,3	2,5	
9	3	15N	105W	137	9,92	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,2	2,5	
10	1	52S	115W	257	2,76	2	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,4	2,7	MENARD
10	2	56S	123W	427	2,95	1	0	2	0	1	2	1	0	0	0	1,5	2,9	HEELEN
10	3	55S	143W	537	9,84	5	2	2	2	3	4	0	1	0	0	1,2	1,1	ELTANIN
10	4	57S	141W	377	2,87	1	0	2	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0,4	2,9	UDINTSEV
10	5	59S	169W	327	7,28	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3,2	2,9	
10	6	53S	164W	267	6,56	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,2	2,9	
11	1	54S	3W	157	3,69	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,6	2,9	
11	2	47S	15W	297	3,91	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4,4	1,3	
11	3	37S	17W	187	4,34	1	1	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1,2	1,0	
11	4	36S	15W	147	4,35	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1,2	2,9	
11	5	12S	13W	137	1,34	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,3	2,8	
11	6	5S	12W	227	3,76	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,4	1,1	
11	7	13S	15W	347	3,56	2	0	0	1	0	4	0	0	0	0	7,9	1,5	CHAIN
11	8	8N	27W	957	3,48	3	2	6	1	2	2	1	1	0	1	4,1	2,5	ROMANCHE
11	9	1N	28W	617	3,39	4	0	3	3	1	4	0	0	0	1	2,8	2,0	ST. PAULS
11	10	7N	34W	517	1,39	5	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	1	16,8	1,9	
11	11	8N	39W	147	3,35	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	9,5	1,3	
11	12	11N	44W	337	2,92	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	41,3	1,6	VEMA
11	13	13N	44W	67	2,56	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,3	2,7	
11	14	15N	46W	167	2,73	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1,9	1,2	
12	1	56S	2W	227	2,37	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	14,1	1,3	CONRAD
12	2	59S	12W	457	2,36	1	0	1	0	3	2	0	0	0	0	3,6	2,4	
12	3	41S	28W	87	2,29	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,6	2,8	
13	1	49S	32E	487	1,55	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	219,3	2,0	
14	1	36S	98W	277	7,18	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,7	2,8	
14	2	36S	97W	167	7,19	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,5	2,6	
14	3	41S	69W	287	7,32	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,1	2,9	

TABLE II.

DA	MO	YR	LAT	LONG	POLE	#	M_s^1	USCGS	ISC	MOMENT ²	REF ³	no - M ⁴	no - ISC ⁴	KEY
16	10	74	52.60N	32.10W	1	1	6.9&	0.0	5.7	45.00	1	10.36	0.02	
13	2	67	52.70N	34.10W	1	1	6.5&	5.6	5.6	34.00	1	3.44	0.02	
23	3	63	66.20N	19.78W	1	2	7.0*	0.0	0.0	27.60	5	23.86	0.0	1) Reference for Magnitudes
19	5	63	23.80N	45.06W	2	1	6.4*	0.0	0.0	24.96	5	0.0	0.0	
17	5	64	35.30N	36.07W	2	3	5.8*	5.6	5.6	1.94	6	0.0	0.30	* Rothe (1969)
22	8	63	42.80N	126.18W	3	1	5.7*	0.0	0.0	0.81	5	0.0	0.0	& U.S.C.G.S.
20	6	65	42.93N	126.29W	3	1	5.7*	5.6	5.5	0.19	3	0.0	1.74	
7	7	64	43.35N	127.20W	3	1	0.0	5.7	5.1	0.04	3	0.0	0.00	\$ Udias(1971)
14	6	65	44.50N	129.50W	3	1	0.0	5.4	5.0	0.16	3	0.0	0.13	
1	10	64	43.40N	126.60W	3	1	0.0	0.0	5.1	0.16	3	0.0	0.23	% Gutenberg & Richter (1954)
22	5	66	21.26N	108.70W	3	0	0.0	5.3	5.2	0.20	3	0.0	0.31	
23	5	66	21.36N	108.60W	3	0	0.0	5.4	5.2	0.31	3	0.0	0.20	
9	9	69	4.43S	105.90W	4	3	5.3&	5.2	4.9	0.48	2	0.0	0.02	2) 10 ²⁵ dyne/cm
13	11	70	23.72S	112.72W	4	6	5.8&	5.6	5.4	1.37	2	0.0	0.14	
12	10	64	31.40S	110.80W	4	7	6.2*	5.9	0.0	2.40	2	0.0	0.0	
7	3	63	26.87S	113.60W	4	0	6.5*	0.0	0.0	7.64	2	15.33	0.0	3) References for Moment
3	11	65	22.74S	114.00W	4	0	6.0*	5.8	5.8	1.94	2	0.0	0.89	
6	11	65	22.13S	113.80W	4	0	6.2*	6.2	5.7	0.96	2	0.0	1.04	1 - Kanamori and Stewart (1976)
26	6	69	2.01N	90.48W	5	1	5.3&	5.0	5.0	0.60	2	0.0	0.03	
6	4	66	45.80S	96.10E	7	4	0.0	5.7	5.7	3.80	3	0.0	0.26	2 - Forsyth (1973)
17	2	66	32.20S	78.80E	7	0	0.0	6.4	6.0	9.40	3	0.0	0.56	
19	12	65	32.20S	78.80E	7	0	5.9*	5.7	5.5	1.40	3	0.0	0.24	3 - Tsai (1969)
6	12	65	18.87N	107.20W	9	0	6.7*	5.9	5.7	13.72	3	17.03	0.07	4 - Udias (1971)
21	1	67	49.70S	114.90W	10	1	0.0	5.4	5.4	3.96	2	0.0	0.05	
4	4	71	56.60S	122.50W	10	2	6.6&	6.2	5.7	8.00	7	20.67	0.12	5 - Wyss (1970)
13	8	69	56.00S	123.40W	10	2	6.4&	5.1	5.3	1.70	7	0.0	0.06	
3	4	63	54.40S	128.20W	10	2	6.5*	0.0	0.0	1.33	3	88.03	0.0	6 - Weidner and Aki (1973)
9	9	67	54.80S	136.00W	10	3	6.1&	5.4	5.1	3.40	7	0.0	0.01	
24	8	70	56.60S	142.50W	10	4	6.4&	5.9	5.8	4.40	7	0.0	0.39	7 - this study
14	12	64	54.30S	2.40W	11	1	6.2*	0.0	5.7	7.99	3	0.0	0.12	
16	8	65	0.50S	20.00W	11	8	6.4*	6.2	6.0	2.76	3	0.0	1.89	8 - Brune and King (1967)
15	11	65	0.20S	18.70W	11	8	6.4*	5.8	5.7	2.03	3	0.0	0.49	
3	8	63	7.70N	35.80W	11	10	6.8\$	6.1	0.0	12.20	4	27.05	0.0	
17	11	63	7.80N	37.40W	11	10	6.5\$	0.0	0.0	3.83	4	30.57	0.0	4) Apparent stress in bars
19	6	70	15.40N	45.90W	11	14	5.8&	5.5	5.5	1.03	6	0.0	0.32	
10	11	42	49.50S	32.00E	13	1	7.9&	0.0	0.0	2800.00	8	5.26	0.0	
8	6	68	48.70S	31.50E	13	0	6.0&	5.6	5.6	2.50	7	0.0	0.23	
8	1	74	38.90S	46.20E	13	0	6.1&	6.0	5.9	1.80	7	0.0	1.67	
19	4	64	41.70S	84.06W	14	3	0.0	5.5	5.4	0.94	2	0.0	0.20	
6	10	64	36.20S	100.00W	14	1	0.0	5.5	5.2	2.93	2	0.0	0.02	

TABLE III.

<u>Date</u>	<u>Station</u>	<u>M_o *</u>	<u>f_o Hz.</u>	
09-09-67	SBA	5.0	.032	
	WEL	2.9	.030	
	RAR	2.1	.040	
	AFI	3.4	.028	mean M _o = 3.0
	PEL	5.4	.040	mean f _o = .030
	HNR	3.0	.020	Δσ = 823/w ² bars
	MUN	2.9	.030	
	RAB	2.9	.022	
	PMG	3.5	.025	
24-08-70	RAR	3.6	.050	mean M _o = 4.4
	PEL	4.8	.025	mean f _o = .045
	PMG	5.0	.045	Δσ = 1616/w ² bars
	RAB	4.2	.050	
04-04-71	RAR	6.1	.040	
	LPA	9.8	.620	
	QUI	7.0	.040	mean M _o = 8.0
	BOG	9.1	.025	mean f _o = .031
	BHP	6.2	.020	Δσ = 2024/w ² bars
	LPS	7.1	.039	
	MUN	10.5	.040	
18-8-69	PEL	1.7	.040	mean M _o = 1.7
	LPA	2.4	.020	mean f _o = .037
	NNA	1.5	.060	Δσ = 513/w ² bars
	BHP	1.2	.030	
08-06-68	NAI	3.0	.025	mean M _o = 2.5
	AAE	2.8	.040	mean f _o = .029
	MUN	2.1	.030	Δσ = 591/w ² bars
	NAT	2.0	.020	
08-01-74	AAE	3.0	.050	mean M _o = 1.8
	SPA	1.5	.080	mean f _o = .032
	MUN	1.7	.025	Δσ = 470/w ² bars
	SHI	1.3	.080	
	ADE	1.5	.025	

* M_o (dyne cm) x 10²⁵

TABLE IV.

<u>Table I</u>	<u>Figures</u>	<u>Plate Boundary</u>
1	A	EUR/NAM
2	B	AFR/NAM
3	N	NAM/PAC
4	P	NAZ/PAC
5	K	NAZ/COC
6	E	IND/AFR
7	F	IND/ANT
9	T	COC/PAC
10	S	PAC/ANT
11	C	AFR/SAM
12	V	SAM/ANT
13	D	AFR/ANT
14	X	ANT/NAZ

FIGURE CAPTIONS

- Figure 1) Plot of M_0 vs. M_S using earthquakes in Table II with U.S.C.G.S. magnitudes, M_S by Udias (1975) and the magnitude 7.9 event on the Africa-Antarctic ridge. Dotted lines are ω^2 and ω^2 models of Aki (1967) as plotted by Brune and King (1967). Definition of letters are in Table IV.
- Figure 2) Plot of M_0 vs. M_S using all earthquakes in Table II with a moment derived from source spectra and a reported magnitude (symbols from Table IV). Dotted lines are ω^2 and ω^3 models of Aki (1967) as plotted by Brune and King (1967).
- Figure 3) Plot of M_0 vs. spreading rate using moments from Table I (symbols from Table IV).
- Figure 4) Plot of M_0 vs. spreading rate using magnitudes from Table I and the moment-magnitude relation given by the ω^2 model in Figure 1.
- Figure 5) Plot of moment sum vs. spreading rate using magnitudes from Table I and the moment-

magnitudes relation given by the ω^2 model in Figure 1.

- Figure 6) Plot of M_0 vs. transform length using the earthquakes in Table II.
- Figure 7) Plot of M_0 vs. transform length using magnitudes from Table I and converting to moments using the ω^2 model in Figure 1.
- Figure 8) Plot of moment vs. transform length using magnitudes from Table I and converting to moments using the ω^2 model in Figure 1.
- Figure 9) Plot of effective transform width vs. transform length. Dotted lines show trend of transforms with similar spreading rates.
- Figure 10) Plot of effective transform width vs. spreading rate.
- Figure 11) Plot of transform length vs. slip rate.
- Figure 12) Plot of m_b vs. M_s for transform earthquakes, where m_b is from U.S.C.G.S.

- Figure 13) Plot of m_b vs. M_s for transform earthquakes, where m_b is from I.S.C.
- Figure 14) Possible bounds of transform area undergoing brittle failure for a transform of length 300 km and a spreading rate of 10 cm/year.
- Figure 15) Predicted magnitude-moment relations based on least-squares representation of the results of inversion of slip rate and magnitude data from 57 transforms. Each line represents a different isotherm used to determine the fault area as in Figure 14a. Data are from Figure 1.
- Figure 16) Discrete solution for 57 transforms and four isotherms. The area as in Figure 14a is used.
- Figure 17) Discrete solution for 49 selected transforms (see text) and four isotherms.
- Figure 18) Least-squares solution for 49 transforms and four isotherms.
- Figure 19) Least-squares solution for 57 transforms using an area as in Figure 14b.

Figure 20) Earthquakes of magnitude 6.0 and greater occurring on the Romanche Transform.

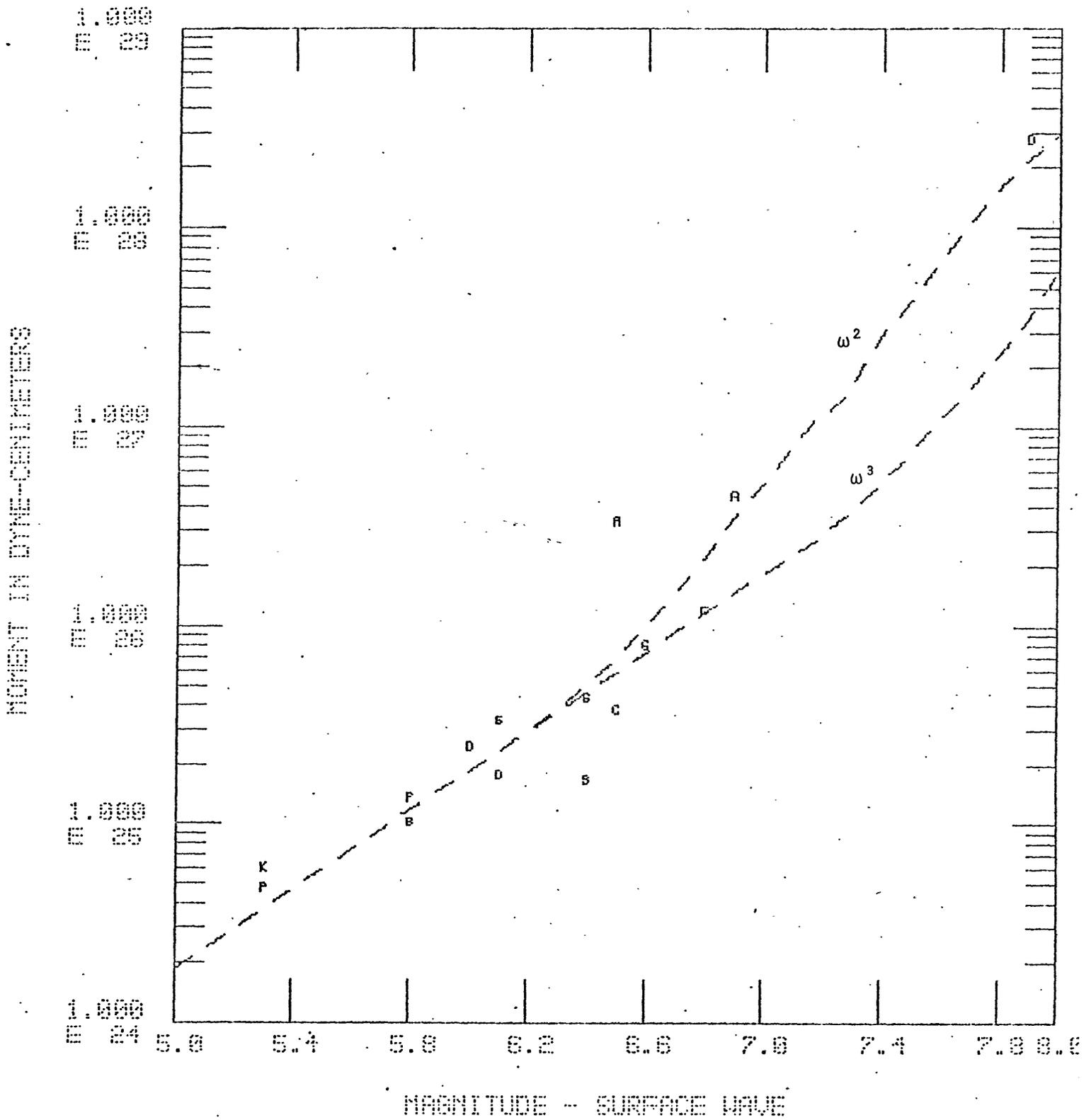


Figure 1

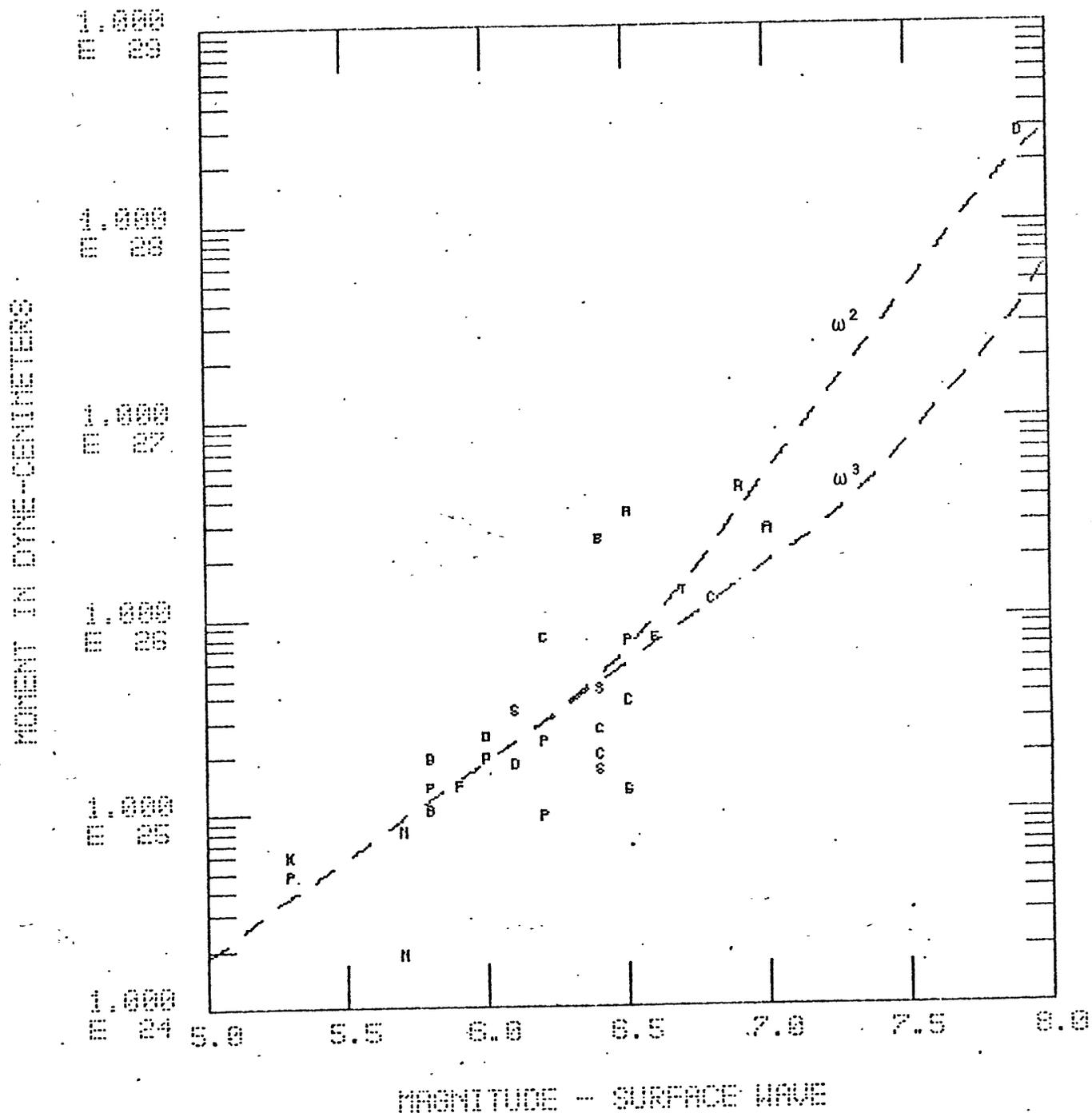


Figure 2

MOMENT IN DYNE-CENTIMETERS

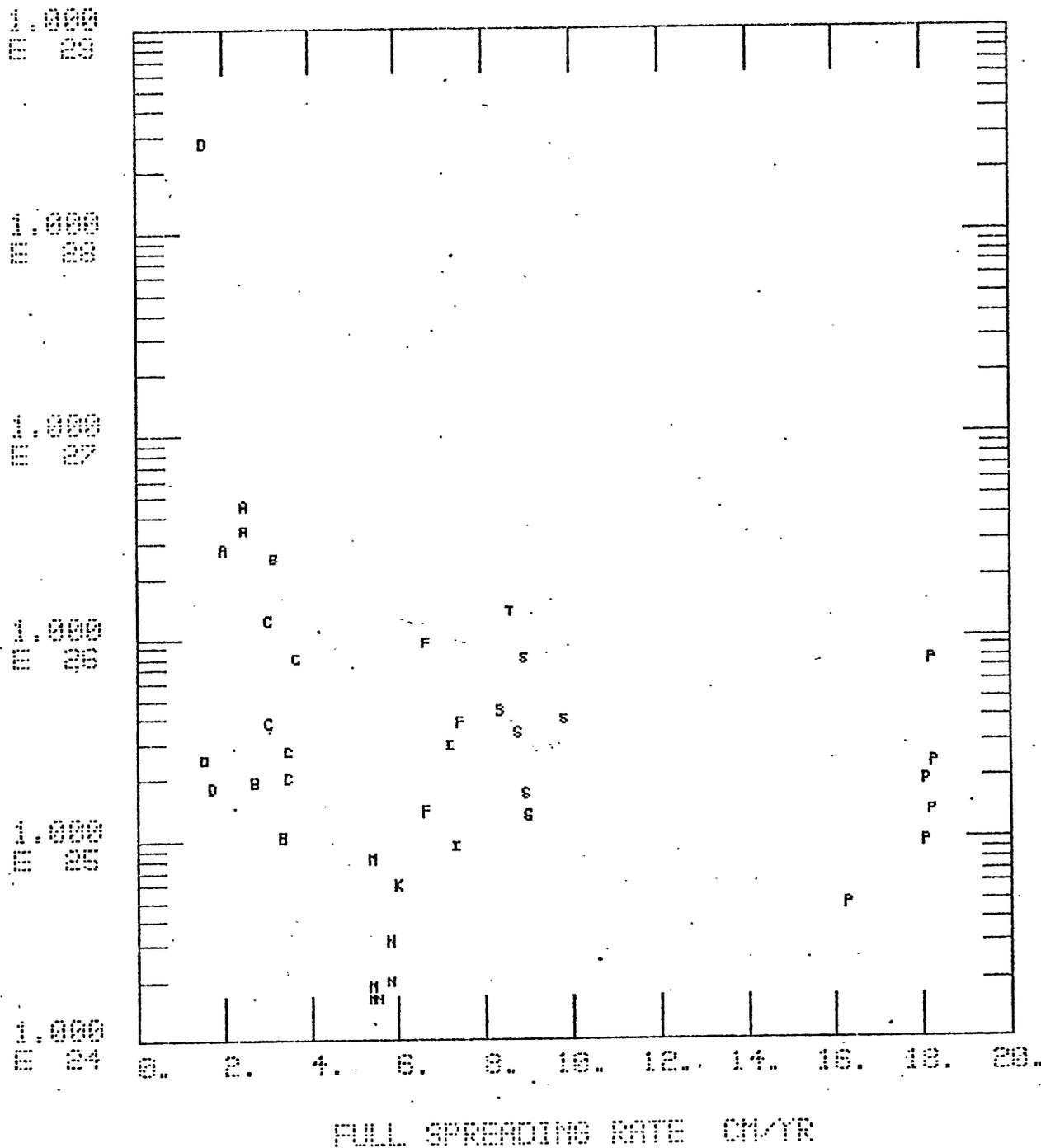


Figure 3

MAGNET DIRECTION

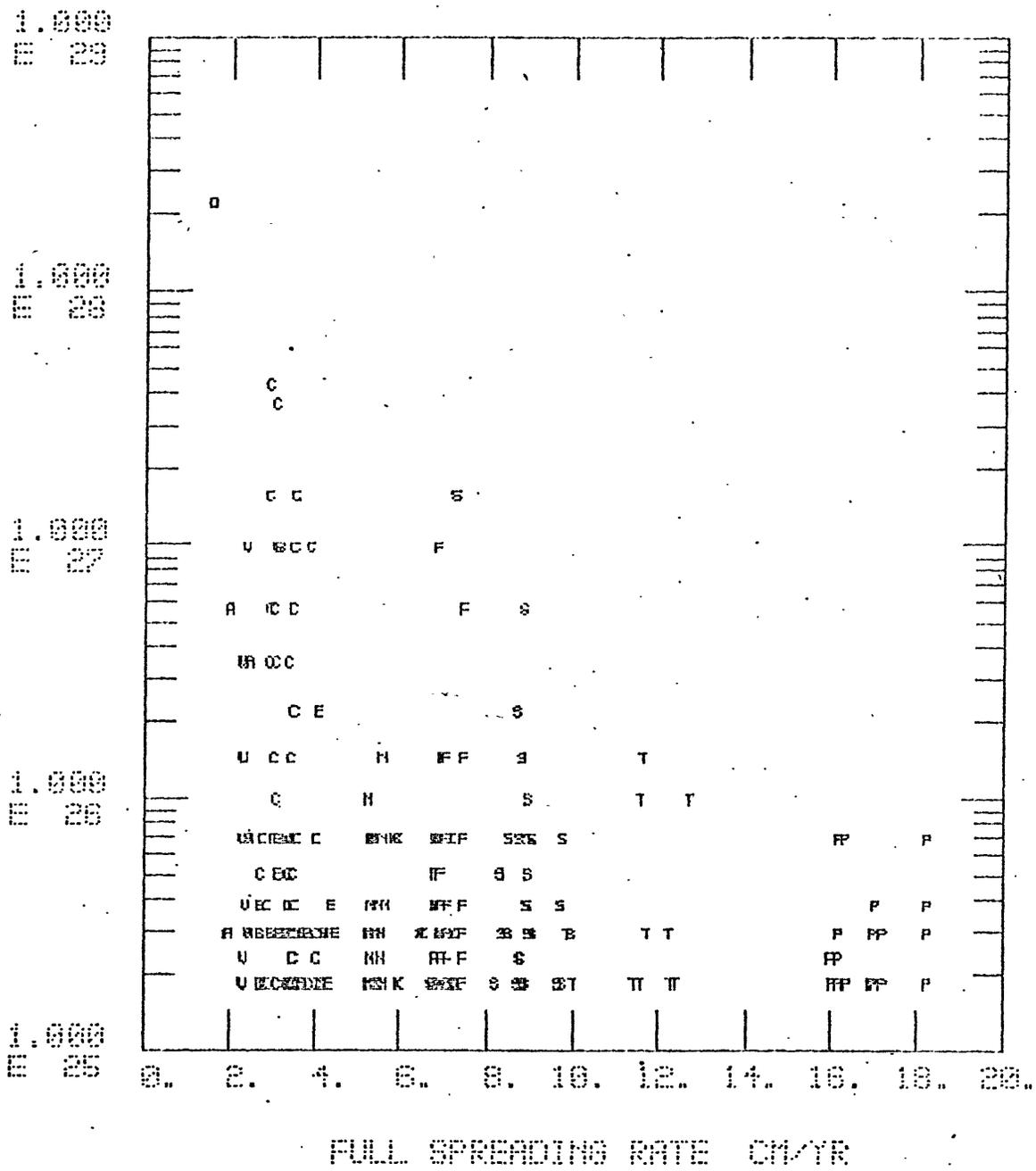


Figure 4

MOMENT IN DYNE-CENTIMETERS

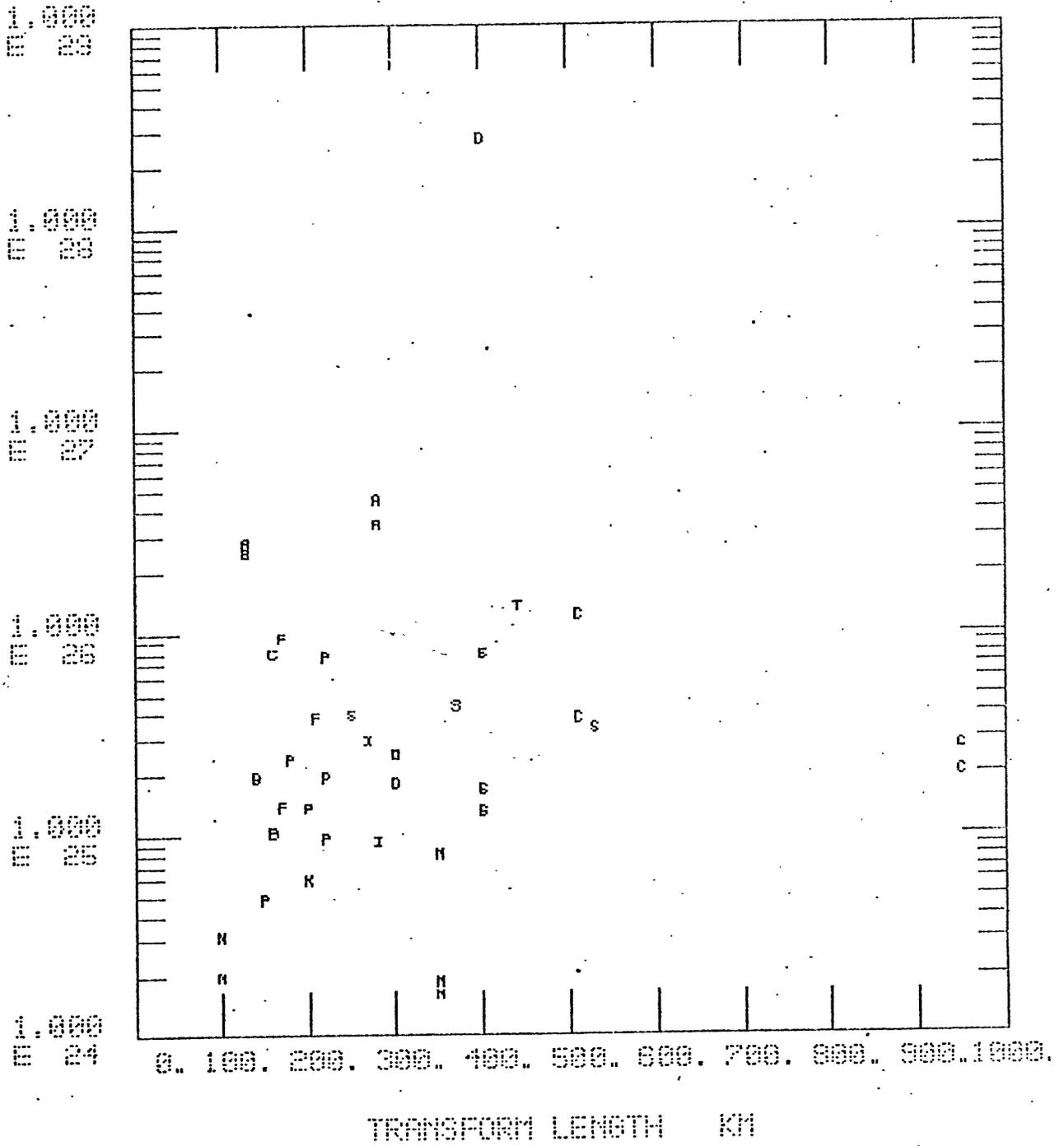


Figure 6

NOISEY SUN DIVE ON

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E 25

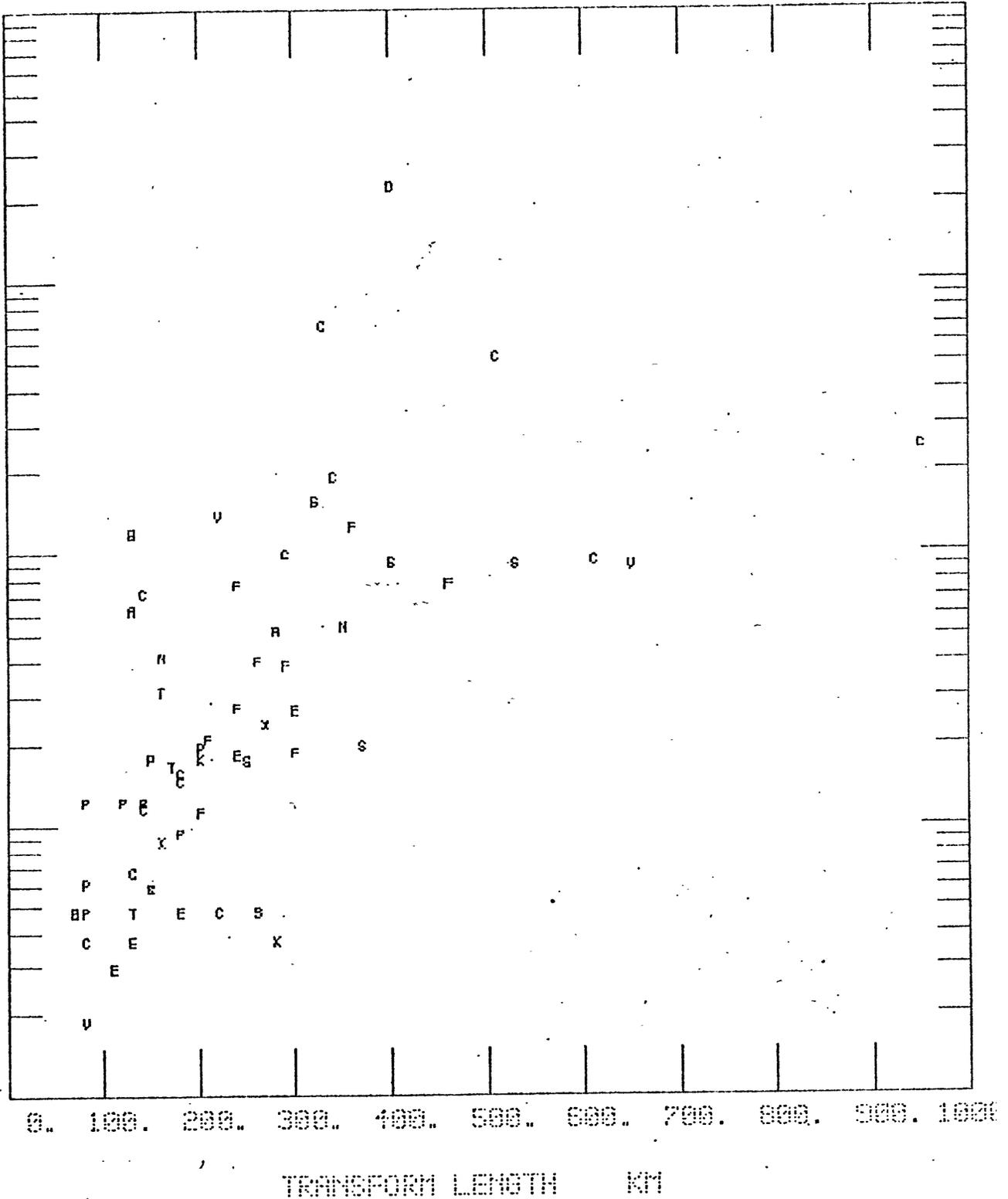


Figure 8

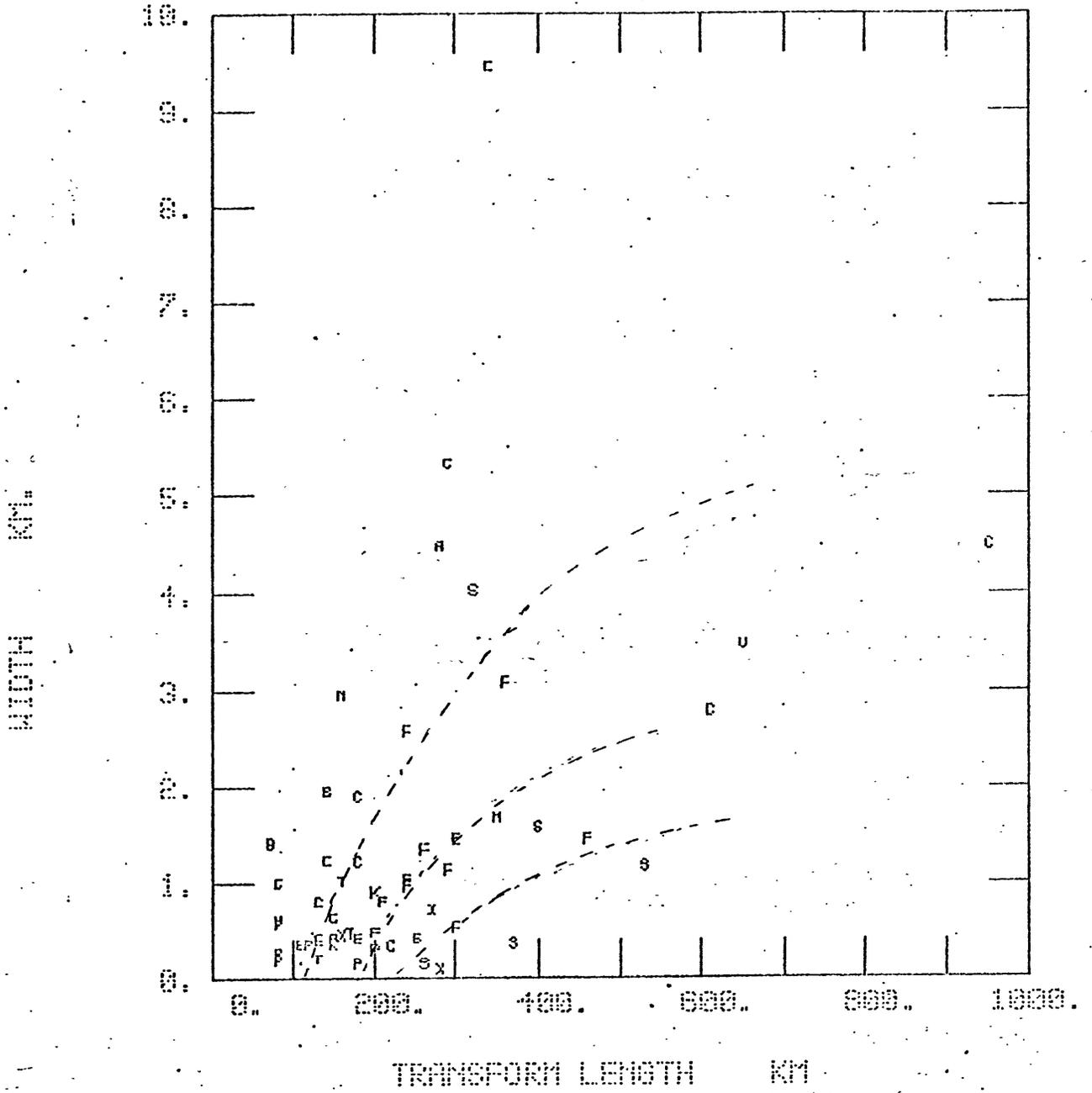


Figure 9

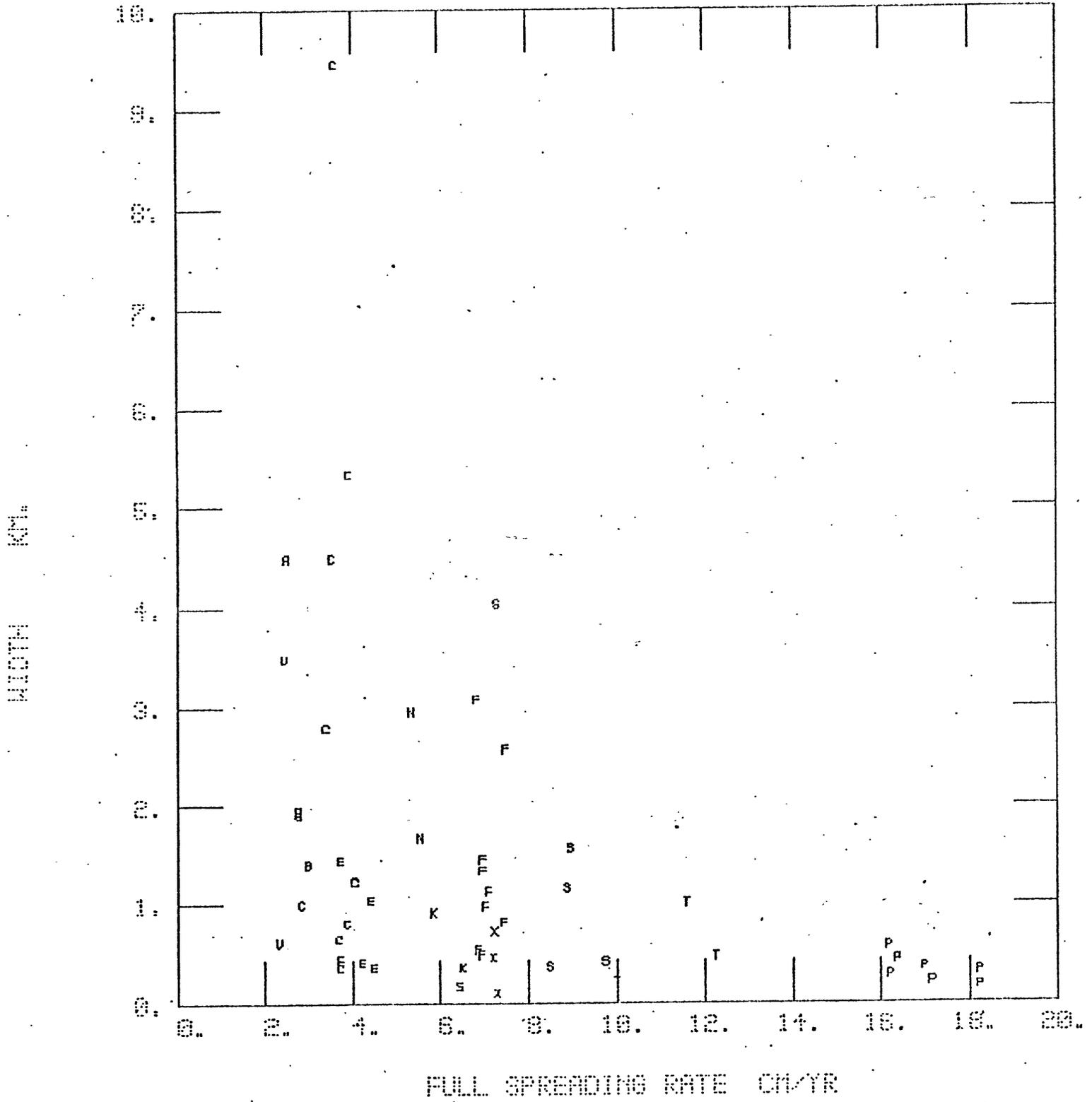


Figure 10

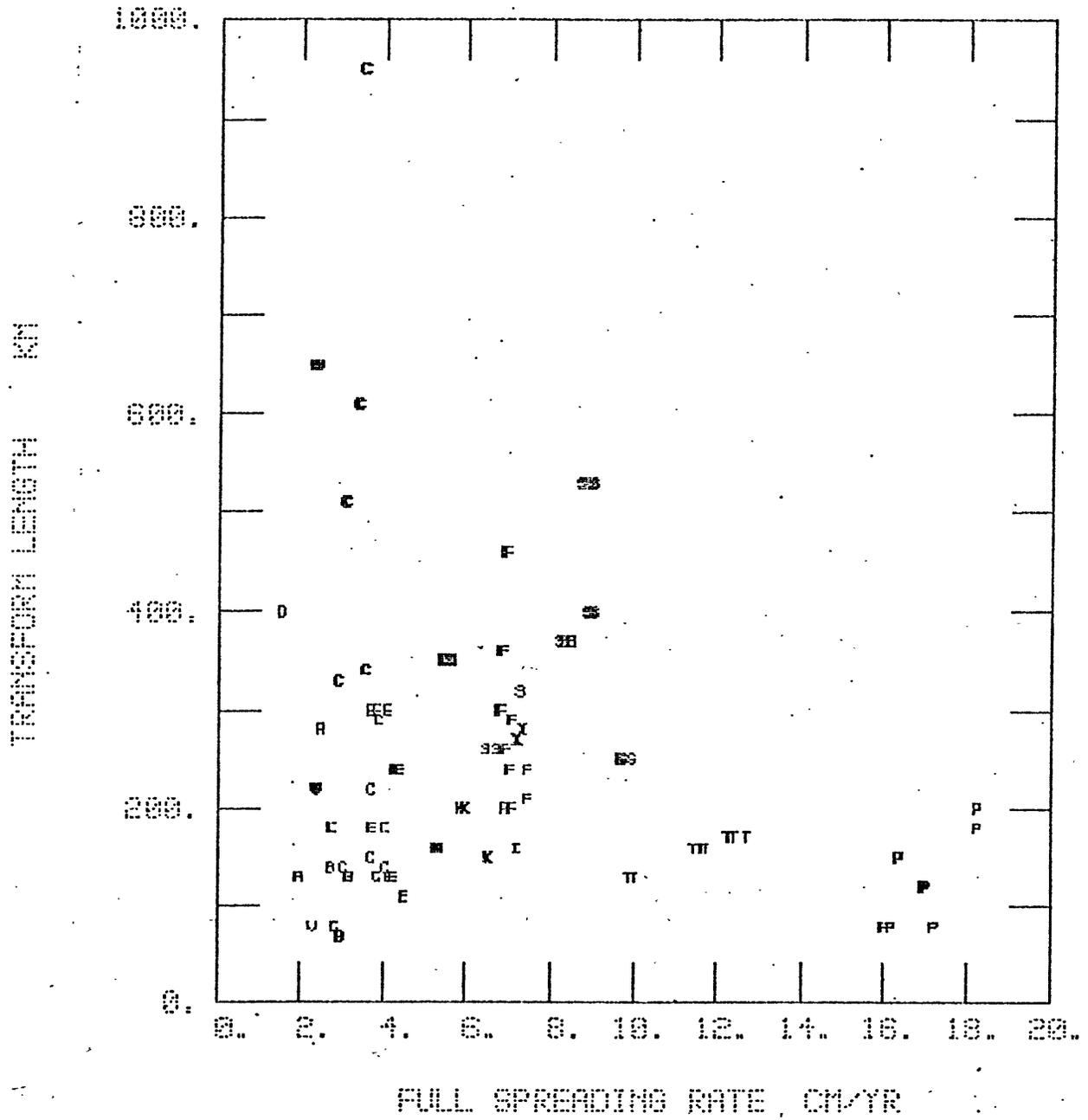


Figure 11

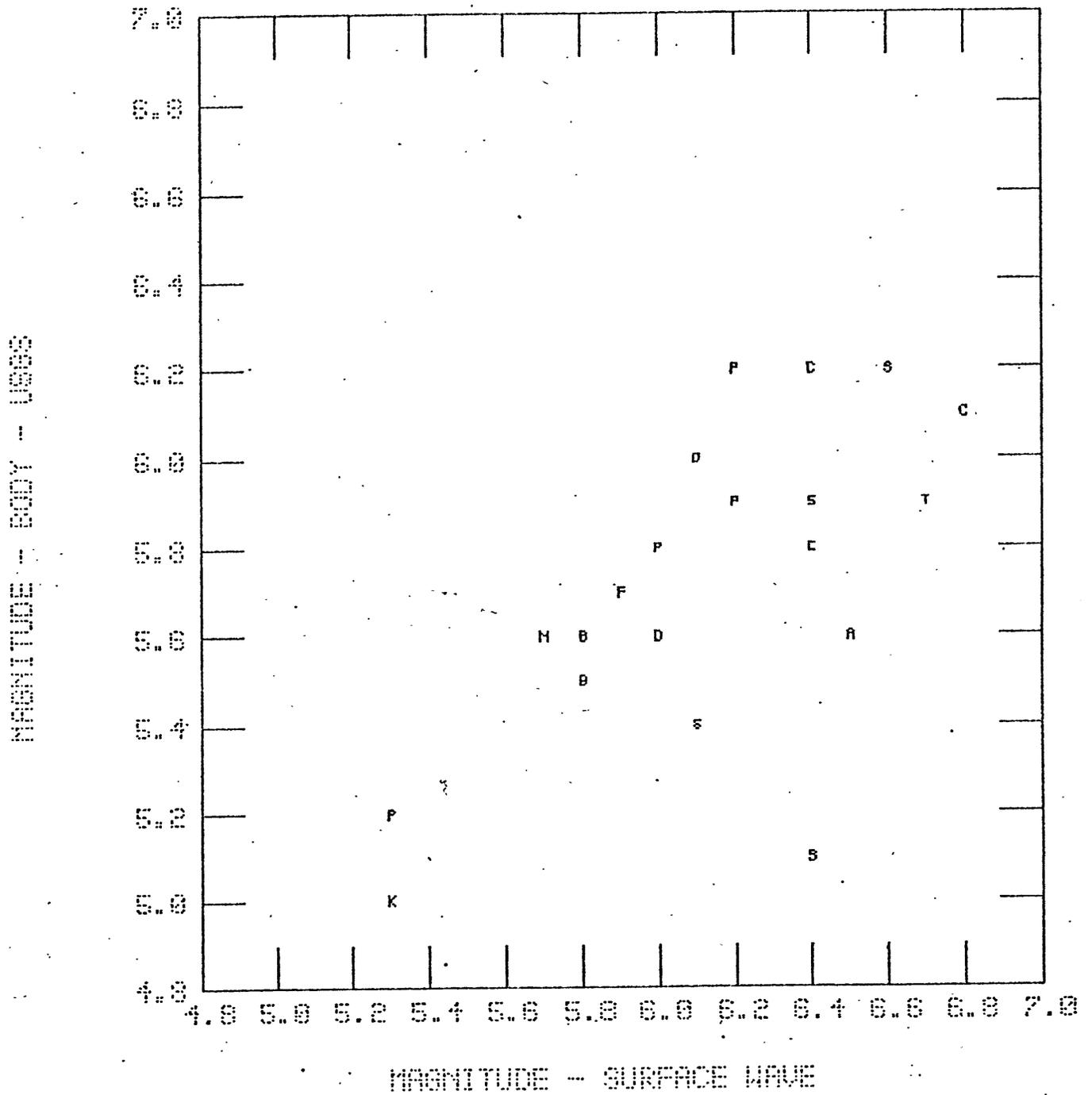


Figure 12

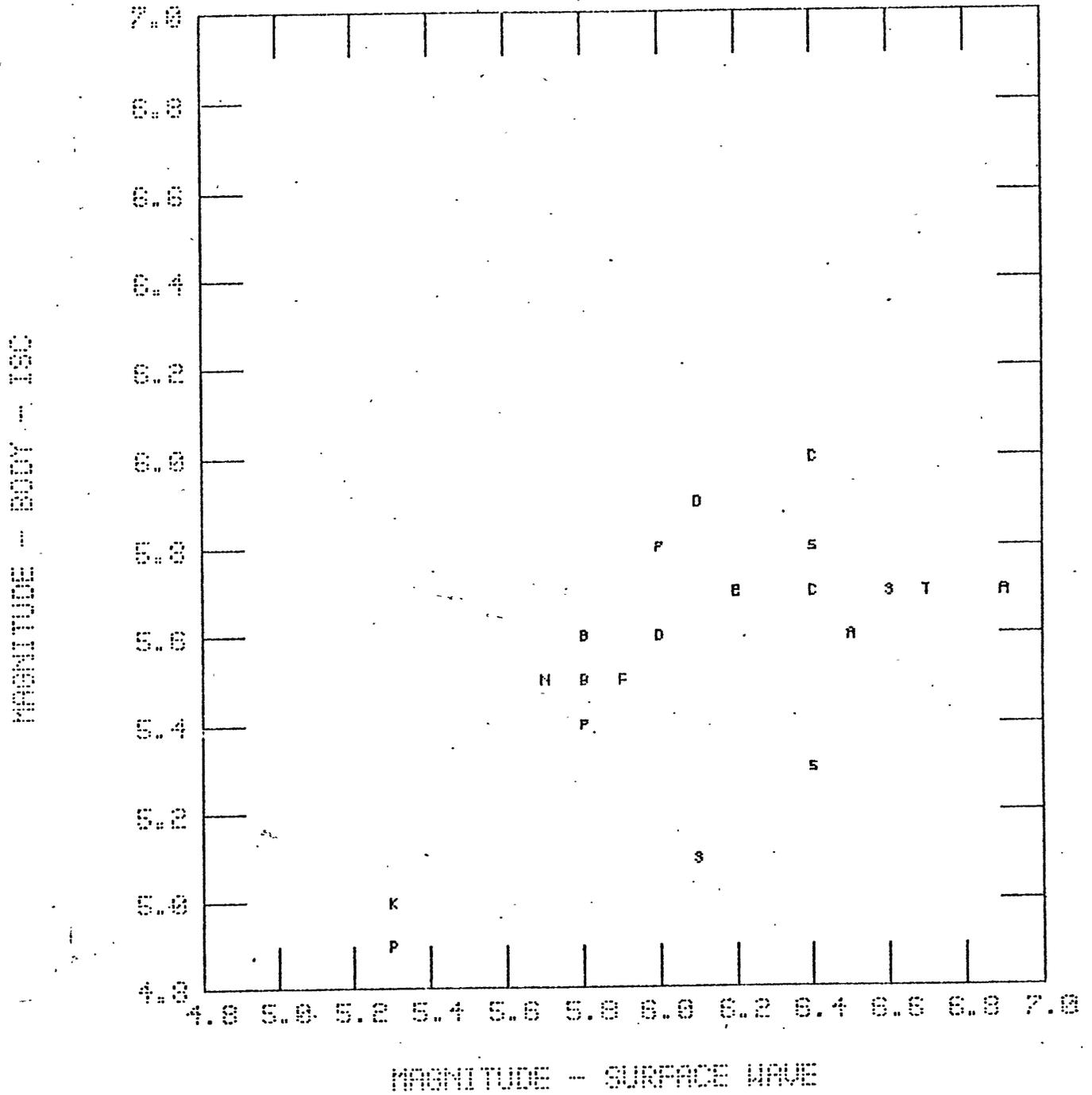


Figure 13

BOUNDS ON FAULT AREA

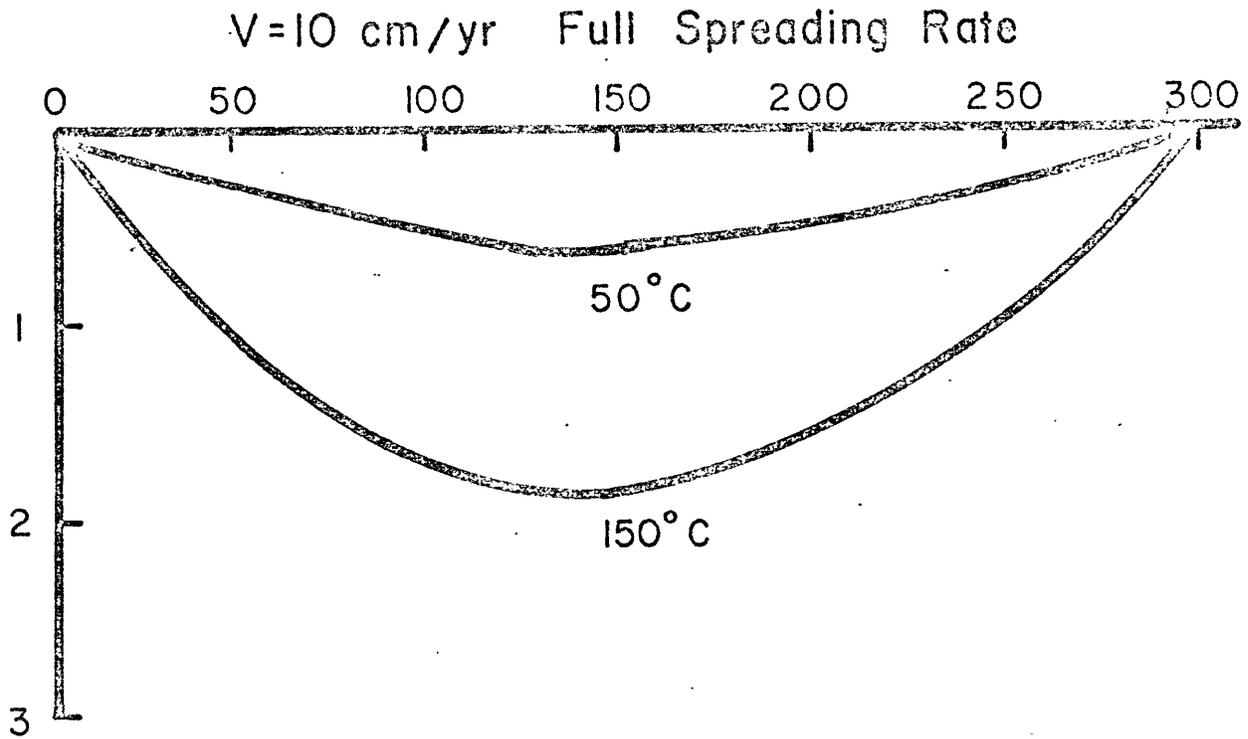


Figure 14a

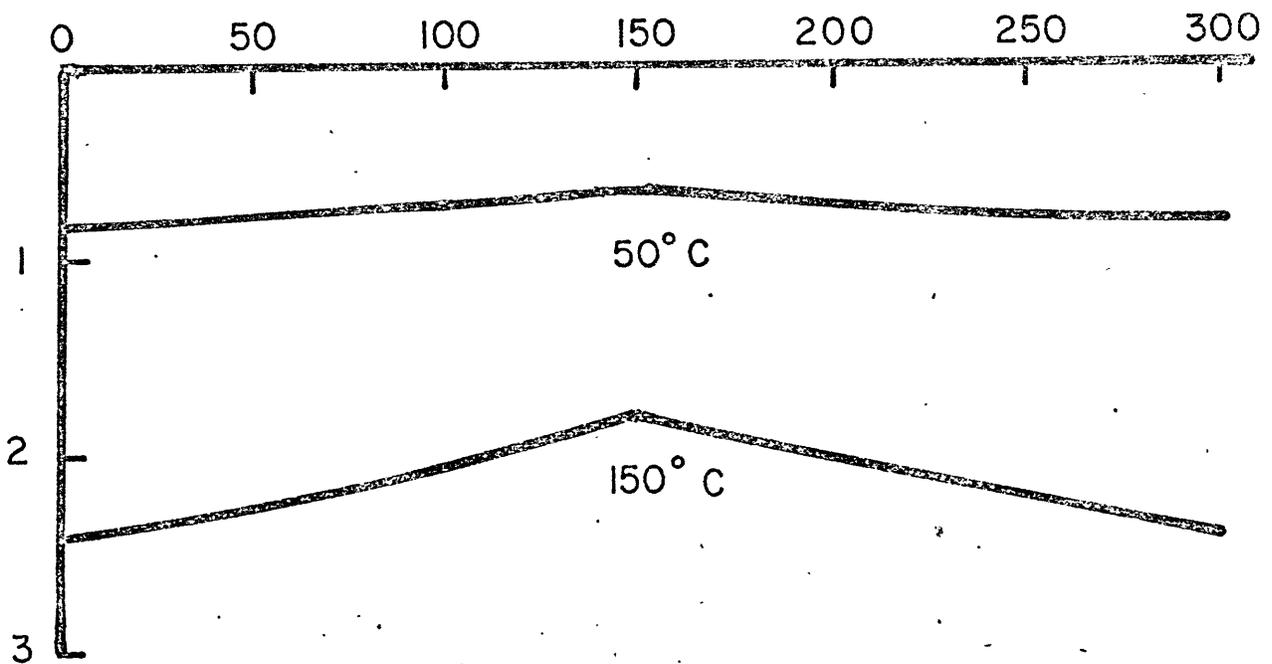


Figure 14b

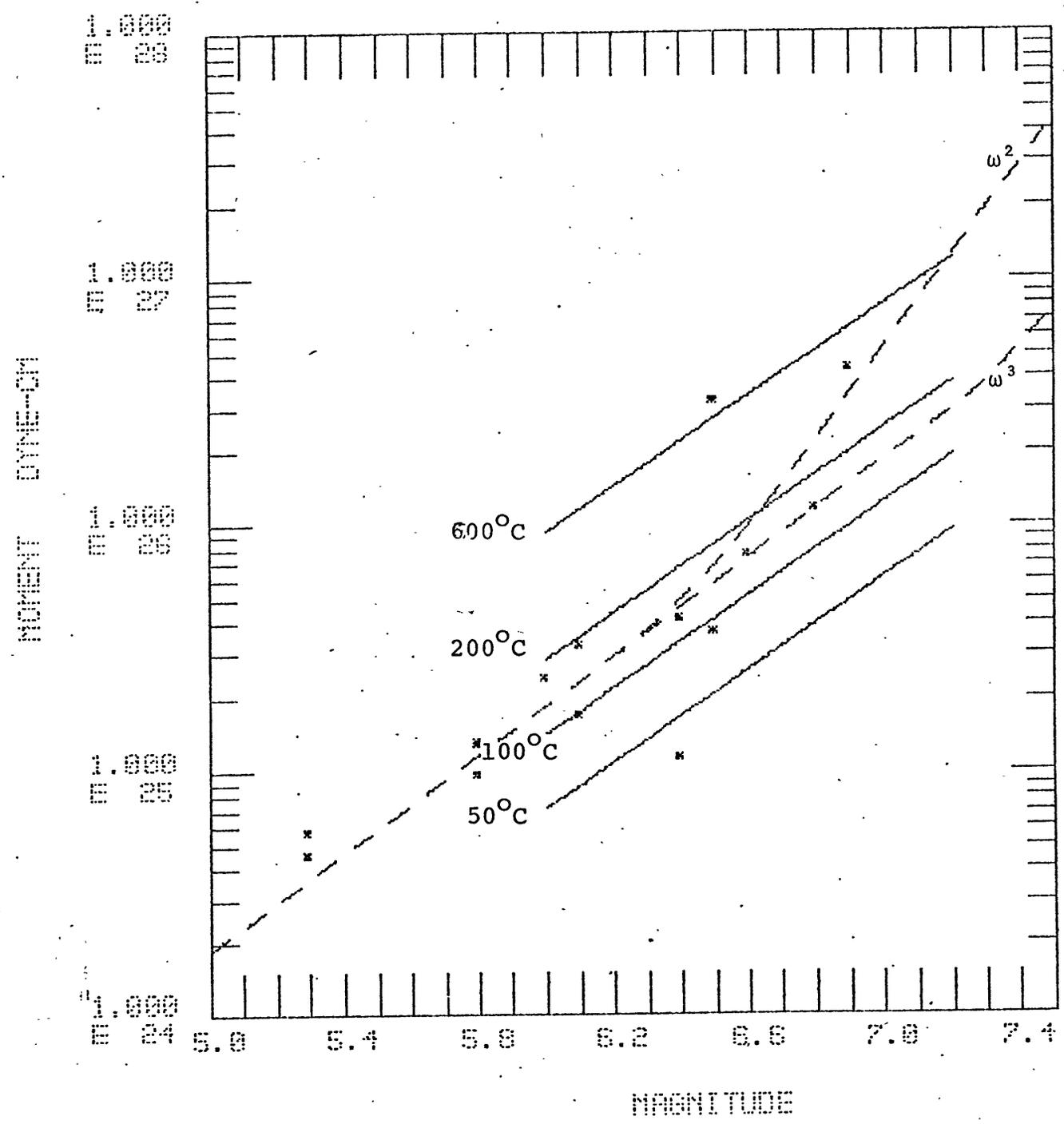


Figure 15

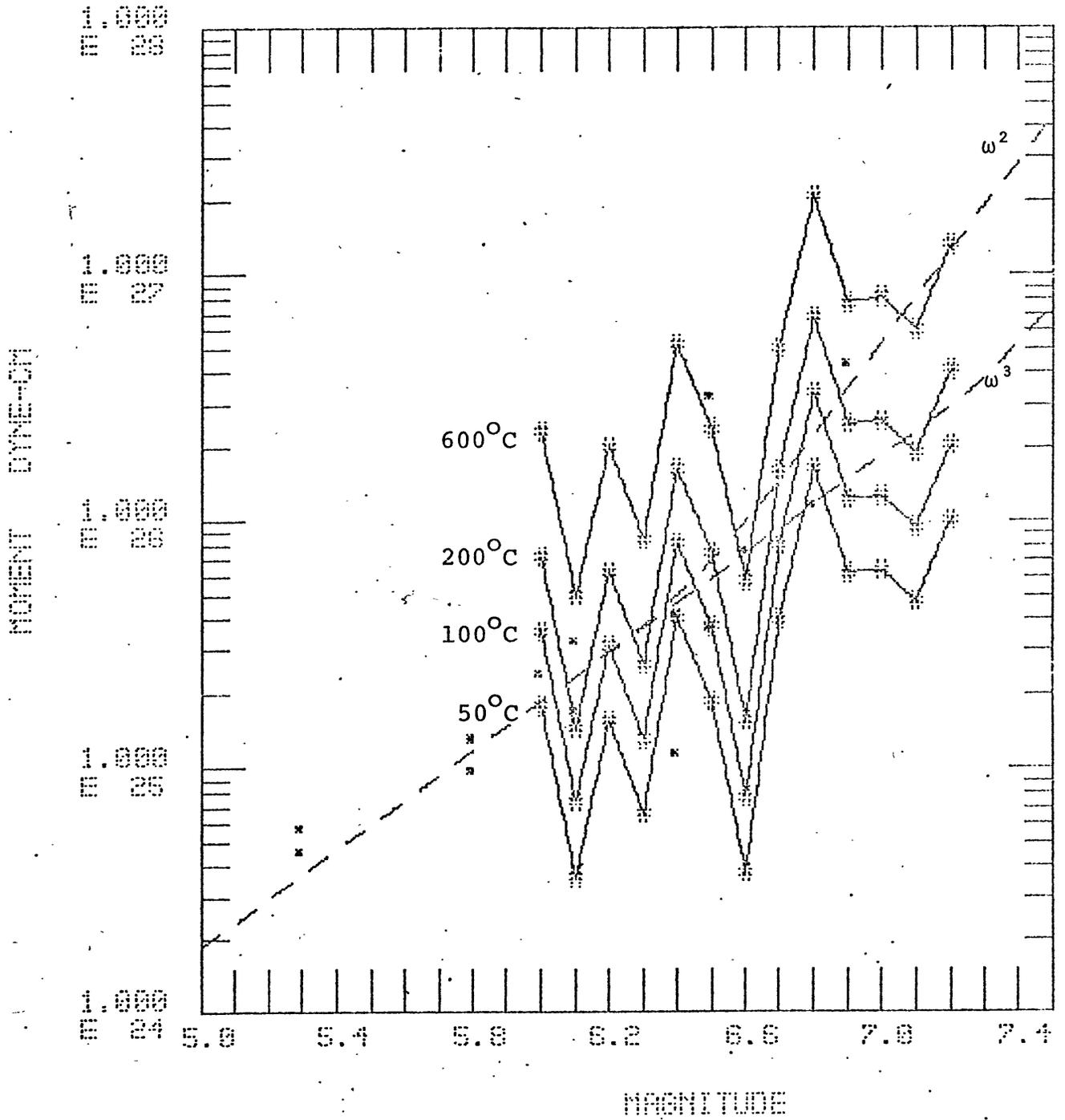


Figure 16

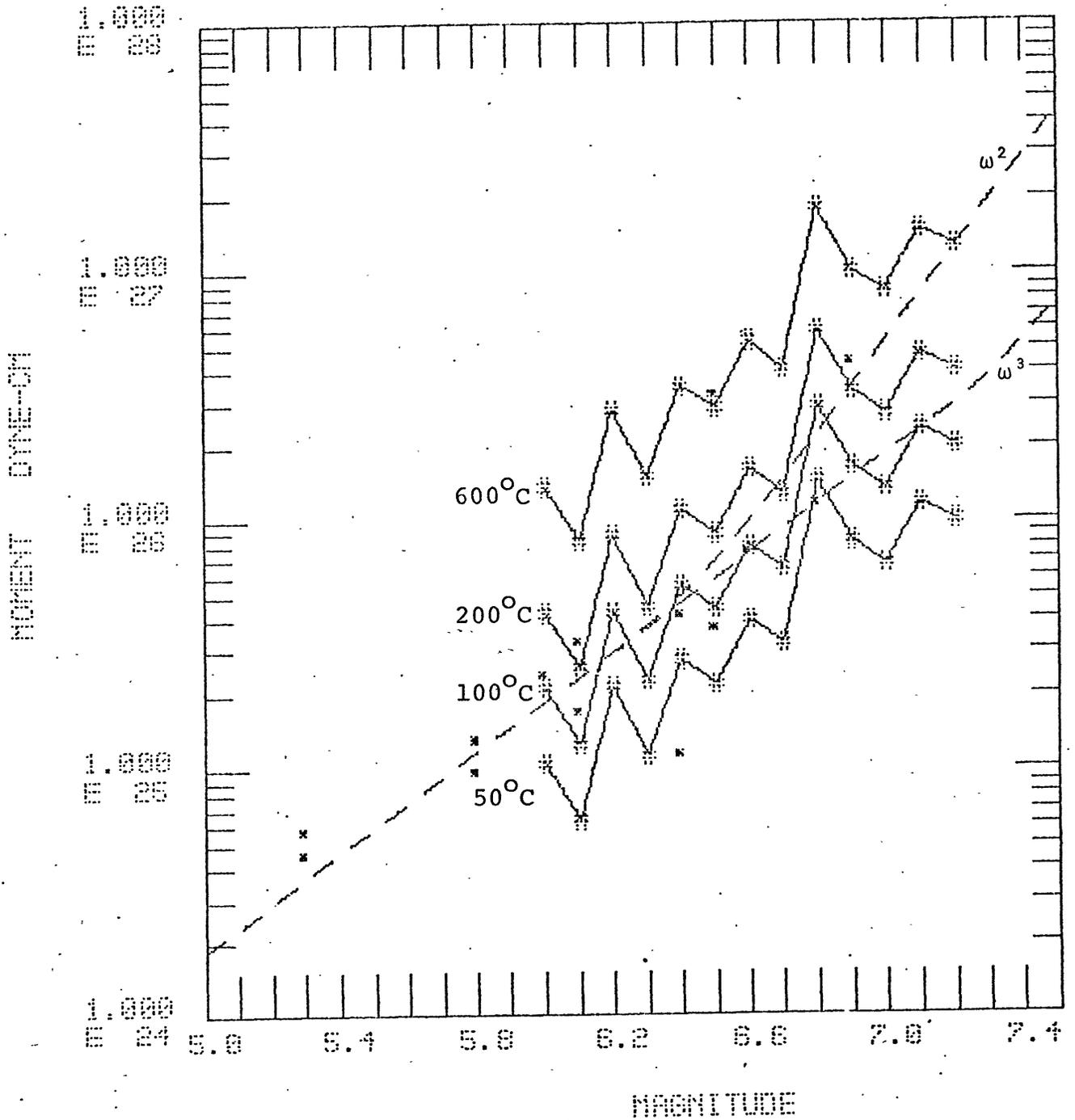


Figure 17

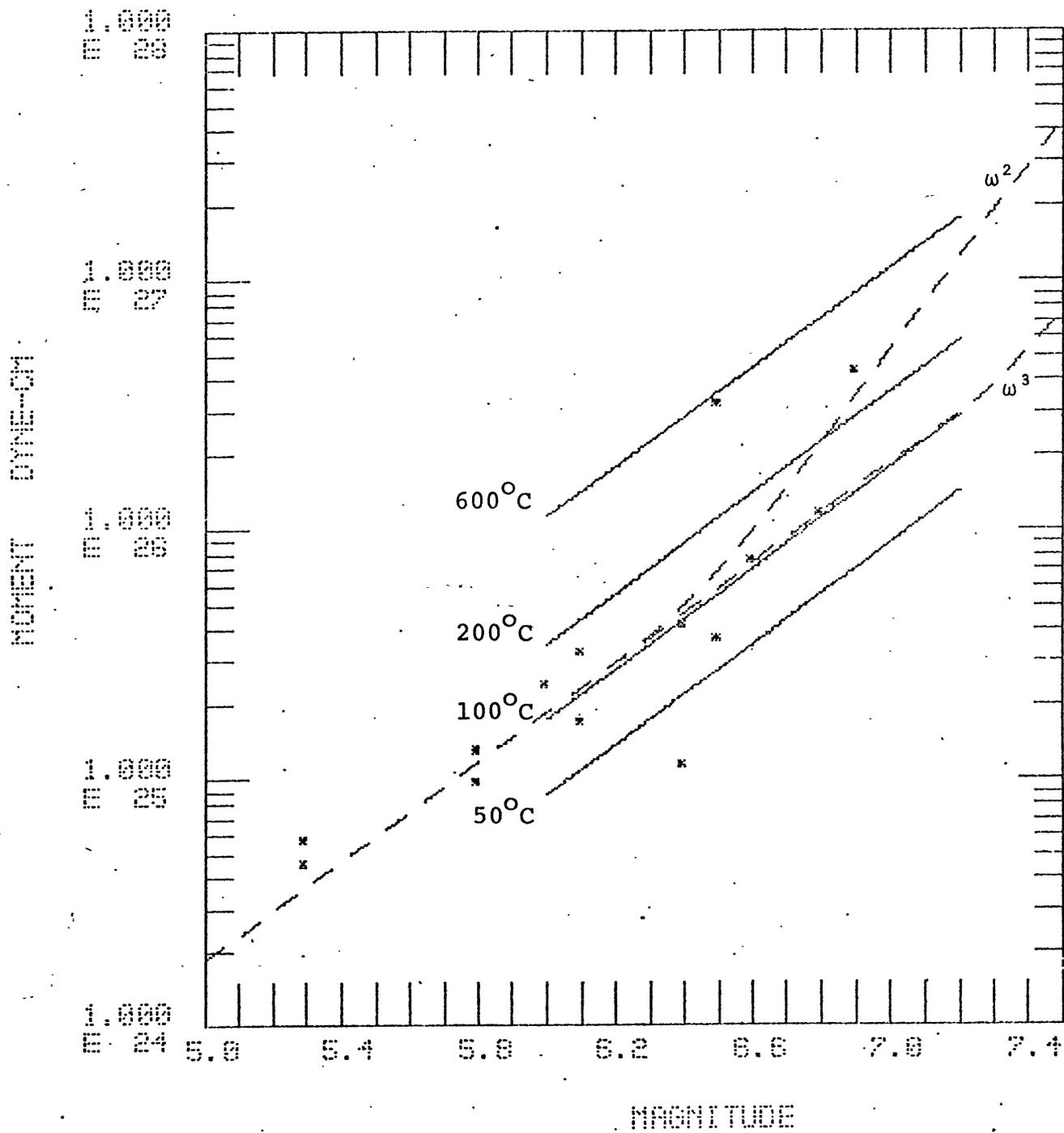


Figure 18

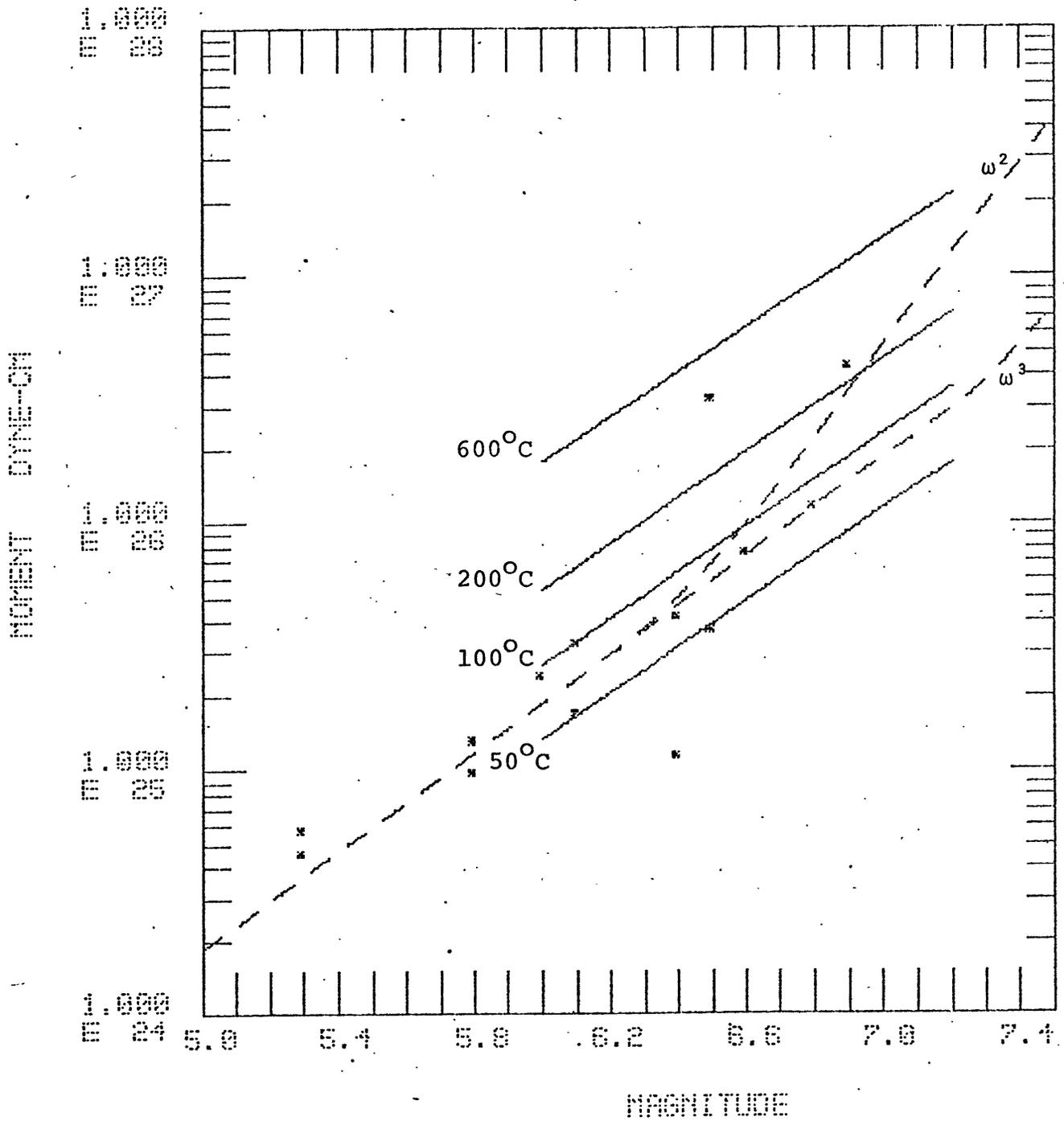


Figure 19

ROMANCHE TRANSFORM

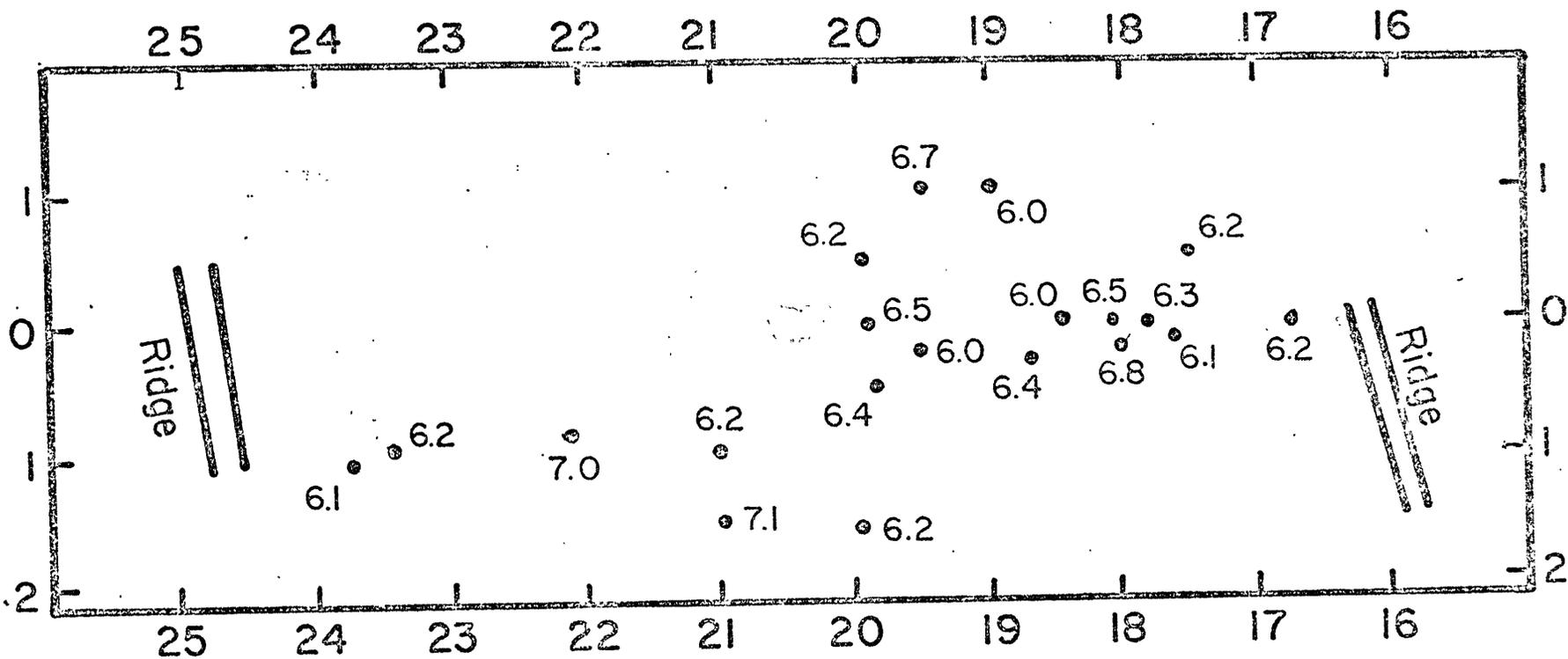


Figure 20

APPENDIX 1

On the following pages the dates, locations, and magnitudes of all the earthquakes used in this study have been compiled. The first number represents the plate boundary (Table IV) where the earthquake is located and the second number is the arbitrary number assigned to the transform (as in Table I) where the earthquake occurs.

1	1	16 OCT 1974	52,636N	32,270W	6.9
1	1	13 FEB 1967	52,761N	34,098W	6.5
1	1	18 JUN 1941	52,000N	34,500W	6.2
1	1	11 DEC 1954	52,500N	32,000W	6.5
1	2	2 JUN 1934	66,200N	18,250W	6.2
1	2	23 AUG 1921	67,000N	18,000W	6.2
1	2	28 MAR 1963	66,300N	19,400W	7.0
2	1	19 MAY 1963	23,800N	46,000W	6.4
2	1	23 MAY 1935	23,000N	45,000W	6.2
2	1	12 AUG 1925	24,000N	46,000W	6.5
2	1	14 OCT 1924	24,000N	45,000W	6.5
2	1	9 JAN 1922	24,000N	46,000W	7.1
2	2	9 JUL 1953	30,200N	42,200W	6.2
2	2	6 FEB 1935	30,500N	42,000W	6.3
2	3	18 NOV 1970	35,147N	35,736W	6.7
2	3	19 MAR 1959	35,150N	36,120W	6.2
2	3	4 DEC 1932	35,500N	36,500W	6.7
2	3	23 DEC 1957	35,200N	35,800W	6.7
2	3	17 MAR 1964	35,200N	35,900W	6.3

3	1	26	NOV	1970	43,776N	127,449W	6,2
3	1	8	MAY	1968	43,567N	127,899W	6,3
3	1	24	SEP	1964	43,570N	127,500W	6,2
3	1	1	OCT	1964	43,570N	126,900W	6,2
3	1	26	SEP	1959	43,500N	128,500W	6,1
3	1	23	AUG	1955	43,500N	128,000W	6,2
3	1	20	AUG	1952	43,250N	126,500W	6,5
3	1	17	JUN	1951	44,500N	137,000W	6,3
3	1	28	MAY	1938	42,750N	126,000W	6,2
3	1	11	SEP	1928	43,500N	130,250W	6,3
3	1	5	JUN	1926	43,000N	127,500W	6,2
3	1	10	JUN	1917	44,000N	129,000W	6,5
3	1	22	AUG	1914	44,000N	129,000W	6,7
3	2	5	DEC	1971	49,625N	129,450W	6,7
3	2	1	DEC	1960	49,000N	129,300W	6,7
3	2	28	JUN	1956	48,750N	129,250W	6,3
3	2	4	DEC	1953	49,500N	129,000W	6,2
3	2	18	JUL	1939	49,000N	129,250W	6,5
3	2	24	SEP	1935	49,500N	130,000W	6,2
3	2	1	NOV	1926	48,750N	128,500W	6,6
3	2	30	OCT	1926	48,500N	129,000W	6,1
3	2	30	MAR	1924	50,000N	130,250W	6,2
3	2	21	JUL	1914	49,000N	130,000W	6,5

4	1	24 JUN 1934	2,500S	106,500W	6.0
4	1	14 OCT 1955	3,000S	103,500W	6.1
4	1	20 FEB 1934	4,000S	105,000W	6.0
4	2	21 SEP 1973	4,387S	102,003W	6.2
4	2	21 SEP 1973	4,364S	101,939W	6.1
4	2	10 MAY 1974	4,372S	102,109W	6.5
4	3	16 SEP 1950	4,600S	105,100W	6.5
4	3	18 APR 1950	4,500S	106,000W	6.5
4	3	10 APR 1958	4,500S	107,000W	6.2
4	3	12 JUL 1958	5,000S	106,500W	6.0
4	4	5 MAR 1936	9,500S	108,000W	6.0
4	4	23 JUL 1939	9,000S	109,000W	6.0
4	4	14 JAN 1948	9,000S	109,000W	6.2
4	4	28 APR 1955	9,000S	108,200W	6.0
4	4	12 JUN 1956	9,000S	110,000W	6.0
4	5	5 AUG 1944	13,500S	92,500W	6.0
4	5	5 AUG 1944	13,500S	92,500W	6.2
4	6	18 JUL 1912	28,000S	114,000W	6.5
4	6	25 JUN 1926	28,000S	115,000W	6.2
4	6	2 JAN 1940	28,500S	113,000W	6.2
4	6	19 SEP 1943	28,000S	113,000W	6.2
4	6	22 APR 1944	28,000S	113,500W	6.0
4	6	18 NOV 1944	28,000S	112,000W	6.0
4	7	21 AUG 1962	29,600S	111,900W	6.3
4	7	17 FEB 1960	30,000S	112,500W	6.3
4	7	16 JUL 1958	29,500S	113,000W	6.0

5	1	6 FEB 1957	1,810N	92,560W	6,0
5	1	5 MAY 1926	3,000N	91,000W	6,5
5	1	4 FEB 1938	3,000N	91,000W	6,0
5	1	4 JUN 1954	0,700S	91,700W	6,5
5	2	23 NOV 1935	0,500N	85,500W	6,2
5	2	5 APR 1969	1,271N	85,212W	6,2
6	1	8 APR 1964	6,800S	68,000E	6,2
6	1	16 JUL 1932	7,000S	68,000E	6,0
6	2	11 MAY 1912	9,000S	72,000E	6,8
6	2	10 MAY 1963	8,200S	68,100E	6,2
6	2	3 JUL 1922	8,500S	66,000E	6,0
6	3	14 FEB 1922	13,500S	67,000E	6,0
6	3	10 DEC 1944	14,000S	68,500E	6,0
6	4	19 MAY 1960	17,000S	66,000E	6,0
6	4	31 DEC 1931	17,000S	64,000E	6,2
6	4	18 MAR 1932	17,000S	65,500E	6,0
6	4	21 MAR 1936	17,000S	66,000E	6,2
6	4	30 JUN 1941	17,000S	65,000E	6,0
6	4	4 FEB 1955	17,200S	66,800E	6,3
6	4	3 JUL 1958	18,000S	66,000E	6,2
6	5	14 FEB 1932	19,000S	66,500E	6,2

7	1	9 APR 1959	36,300S	76,800E	6,0
7	1	10 JUL 1968	36,806S	78,542E	6,1
7	1	20 FEB 1940	37,500S	79,000E	6,5
7	1	11 JUL 1959	37,000S	79,000E	6,3
7	1	5 OCT 1929	37,000S	78,000E	6,0
7	1	7 MAR 1961	38,400S	78,100E	6,0
7	2	21 OCT 1954	41,000S	80,500E	6,7
7	2	31 MAY 1928	41,500S	80,000E	6,2
7	2	11 DEC 1924	41,000S	80,000E	6,2
7	2	18 APR 1945	42,000S	80,000E	6,5
7	3	22 OCT 1964	45,600S	96,100E	6,2
7	3	8 FEB 1973	45,475S	96,288E	6,1
7	3	6 APR 1966	45,800S	96,200E	6,2
7	3	7 MAY 1956	46,500S	96,000E	6,5
7	3	19 MAY 1956	41,600S	42,200E	0,0
7	3	1 MAR 1936	47,000S	96,000E	6,5
7	4	9 SEP 1957	48,000S	94,700E	6,0
7	4	1 JUN 1973	47,706S	90,661E	6,3
7	4	1 AUG 1942	48,000S	99,000E	7,0
7	4	8 MAY 1938	48,000S	99,000E	6,7
7	5	21 AUG 1959	50,500S	139,600E	6,1
7	5	5 DEC 1961	50,800S	139,700E	6,2
7	5	23 APR 1946	50,000S	140,000E	6,7
7	5	14 JUN 1927	50,000S	140,000E	6,5
7	5	24 AUG 1936	51,000S	140,000E	6,2
7	5	31 DEC 1927	51,000S	140,000E	6,2
7	5	7 JAN 1921	51,000S	140,000E	6,2
7	5	2 JUL 1970	51,035S	139,487E	6,1
7	5	31 DEC 1929	51,000S	138,000E	6,0
7	6	17 JAN 1958	51,600S	139,800E	6,0
7	6	4 FEB 1965	51,800S	139,700E	6,0
7	6	28 JUL 1964	51,200S	139,000E	6,0
7	6	25 DEC 1931	52,000S	141,000E	6,0
7	6	12 OCT 1937	53,000S	145,000E	6,0

7	7	20	JUL	1963	57,600S	148,500E	6.4
7	7	23	MAR	1955	56,200S	147,500E	6.0
7	7	27	APR	1954	56,100S	147,300E	6.0
7	7	10	JUN	1963	55,900S	146,200E	6.2
7	7	10	JUN	1963	55,200S	146,100E	6.4
7	7	17	DEC	1961	54,500S	143,900E	6.1
7	7	20	SEP	1952	54,900S	144,600E	6.3
7	7	25	SEP	1973	54,849S	145,849E	6.3
7	7	14	MAR	1940	56,000S	145,000E	6.7
7	7	26	APR	1925	56,000S	147,000E	6.2
7	7	7	SEP	1927	56,000S	148,000E	6.2
7	7	7	MAY	1950	56,900S	148,500E	6.4
7	7	17	DEC	1942	57,000S	146,000E	6.3
7	7	1	OCT	1958	57,000S	147,650E	6.2
7	7	8	AUG	1940	57,500S	147,000E	6.2
7	7	11	JUN	1950	57,500S	148,000E	6.3
7	7	29	MAR	1940	57,000S	144,000E	6.0
7	7	27	FEB	1933	57,500S	144,000E	6.0
7	7	1	DEC	1931	57,000S	144,000E	6.5
7	7	24	NOV	1934	57,000S	146,000E	6.2
7	8	27	APR	1944	60,100S	151,000E	6.2
7	8	13	OCT	1957	60,400S	150,900E	6.5
7	8	16	SEP	1952	59,250S	147,250E	6.0
7	8	29	FEB	1928	58,500S	148,000E	6.2
7	8	25	JUL	1952	59,300S	148,800E	6.5
7	8	14	AUG	1925	59,000S	151,000E	6.5
7	8	13	DEC	1930	60,000S	150,000E	6.7
7	8	14	SEP	1930	60,000S	149,000E	6.2
7	8	17	NOV	1940	61,000S	148,000E	6.5
7	9	1	DEC	1959	62,900S	155,700E	6.3
7	9	25	OCT	1962	61,400S	154,900E	6.7
7	9	22	MAR	1960	61,500S	154,000E	6.4
7	9	11	NOV	1955	60,600S	153,700E	6.1
7	9	31	MAY	1952	60,500S	153,200E	6.3
7	9	23	MAR	1945	62,000S	153,000E	7.1
7	9	1	DEC	1931	63,000S	153,000E	6.2
7	9	22	MAY	1929	62,000S	155,000E	6.5

9	1	29 DEC. 1944	8,000N	104,000W	6,7
9	1	29 DEC 1944	8,500N	104,000W	6,2
9	1	21 JAN 1970	7,017N	104,298W	6,6
9	1	20 JAN 1954	8,500N	103,500W	6,7
9	2	28 MAY 1936	10,500N	103,500W	6,7
9	2	1 OCT 1926	11,000N	104,000W	6,7
9	2	15 JUL 1948	10,500N	104,000W	6,7
9	2	10 JAN 1950	10,000N	104,000W	6,2
9	2	16 AUG 1957	10,500N	104,000W	6,6
9	3	20 JAN 1955	15,500N	104,400W	6,2
9	3	25 JAN 1931	15,000N	105,000W	6,0

10	1	19	APR	1933	51,000S	116,000W	6.7
10	1	27	OCT	1934	48,000S	116,000W	6.2
10	1	5	JUN	1956	51,000S	112,500W	6.3
10	1	4	NOV	1958	50,000S	115,000W	6.0
10	1	2	AUG	1951	50,000S	115,000W	6.5
10	2	2	MAY	1957	55,900S	123,500W	6.5
10	2	3	JUL	1958	56,000S	124,300W	6.0
10	2	3	SEP	1944	57,000S	122,000W	7.7
10	2	19	OCT	1956	55,800S	122,460W	6.5
10	2	16	MAY	1935	55,000S	123,000W	6.2
10	2	16	FEB	1929	56,000S	121,000W	6.2
10	2	18	AUG	1969	56,022S	123,367W	6.4
10	2	4	APR	1971	56,245S	122,459W	6.6
10	3	3	APR	1963	55,500S	128,100W	6.5
10	3	22	NOV	1959	54,600S	136,000W	6.0
10	3	23	JAN	1951	55,000S	136,500W	6.8
10	3	10	MAR	1932	55,300S	135,000W	6.5
10	3	14	FEB	1941	53,570S	131,000W	6.5
10	3	13	NOV	1943	55,000S	129,000W	6.5
10	3	6	JAN	1930	55,000S	131,000W	6.7
10	3	20	JAN	1940	55,000S	133,000W	6.7
10	3	13	AUG	1937	56,500S	130,000W	6.0
10	3	1	APR	1944	57,000S	128,000W	6.0
10	3	20	MAY	1953	53,200S	134,000W	6.2
10	3	13	MAR	1966	55,500S	126,500W	6.2
10	3	9	SEP	1967	54,800S	136,000W	6.1
10	3	26	MAR	1971	55,439S	129,100W	6.0
10	3	7	MAY	1972	53,713S	134,214W	6.3
10	3	7	AUG	1973	54,351S	136,550W	6.1
10	3	18	SEP	1973	54,518S	132,624W	6.3
10	4	3	JUL	1952	56,300S	142,500W	6.2
10	4	7	NOV	1957	57,572S	143,500W	6.0
10	4	24	AUG	1970	56,600S	142,500W	6.4
10	4	2	AUG	1930	57,000S	135,000W	6.5
10	4	6	JUN	1934	56,000S	140,000W	6.2
10	5	15	DEC	1947	59,500S	160,000W	7.2
10	6	1	JUL	1965	63,000S	163,600W	6.0
10	6	10	APR	1967	63,301S	167,467W	6.2

11	1	19 SEP 1949	54,000S	2,000W	6.2
11	1	2 JUN 1942	54,500S	4,000W	6.2
11	2	8 JUN 1950	47,000S	15,000W	7.1
11	2	8 AUG 1959	47,727S	15,782W	6.7
11	3	22 AUG 1949	36,000S	18,000W	6.7
11	3	30 SEP 1946	37,500S	17,000W	6.5
11	3	18 JAN 1933	37,000S	18,000W	6.2
11	3	29 NOV 1961	37,000S	18,600W	6.2
11	4	20 AUG 1950	35,700S	15,400W	6.1
11	4	2 AUG 1939	36,000S	16,000W	6.5
11	4	16 JUN 1958	36,175S	15,860W	6.1
11	5	3 APR 1928	11,500S	14,500W	6.2
11	5	20 JUN 1943	11,500S	14,000W	6.2
11	5	29 NOV 1970	11,691S	14,087W	6.7
11	6	7 JUN 1961	5,400S	11,600W	6.2
11	6	30 APR 1932	5,000S	11,500W	6.2
11	7	11 APR 1946	1,000S	14,500W	7.2
11	7	13 APR 1942	1,000S	16,000W	6.5
11	7	19 MAY 1933	1,500S	15,000W	6.5
11	7	19 OCT 1956	1,500S	15,400W	6.3
11	7	20 JUL 1932	1,500S	13,500W	6.5
11	7	6 JUN 1929	1,000S	14,500W	6.5
11	7	3 AUG 1928	2,000S	14,000W	6.2
11	7	4 JUL 1920	2,000S	14,000W	6.2
11	8	6 AUG 1954	1,000S	23,500W	6.2
11	8	7 JUN 1959	0,100S	17,600W	6.1
11	8	19 FEB 1953	0,000S	18,100W	6.5
11	8	16 AUG 1955	0,500S	19,900W	6.4
11	8	15 NOV 1955	0,300S	18,600W	6.4
11	8	4 SEP 1959	1,040S	23,850W	6.1
11	8	3 SEP 1958	0,000N	18,000W	6.3
11	8	30 APR 1954	0,000N	18,500W	6.2
11	8	4 OCT 1949	1,000S	21,000W	6.2
11	8	21 JUL 1941	0,250S	19,500W	6.2
11	8	28 AUG 1973	0,199S	18,027W	6.8
11	8	5 AUG 1971	0,853S	22,130W	7.2
11	8	24 JAN 1941	0,500N	20,000W	6.2
11	8	30 OCT 1940	1,500S	20,000W	6.2
11	8	27 APR 1940	1,000N	19,500W	6.7
11	8	23 APR 1939	0,500N	17,500W	6.2
11	8	2 FEB 1929	1,500S	21,000W	7.1
11	8	12 MAY 1928	1,000N	19,000W	6.2
11	8	18 SEP 1928	0,000N	20,000W	6.5
11	8	5 DEC 1920	0,000N	17,000W	6.2

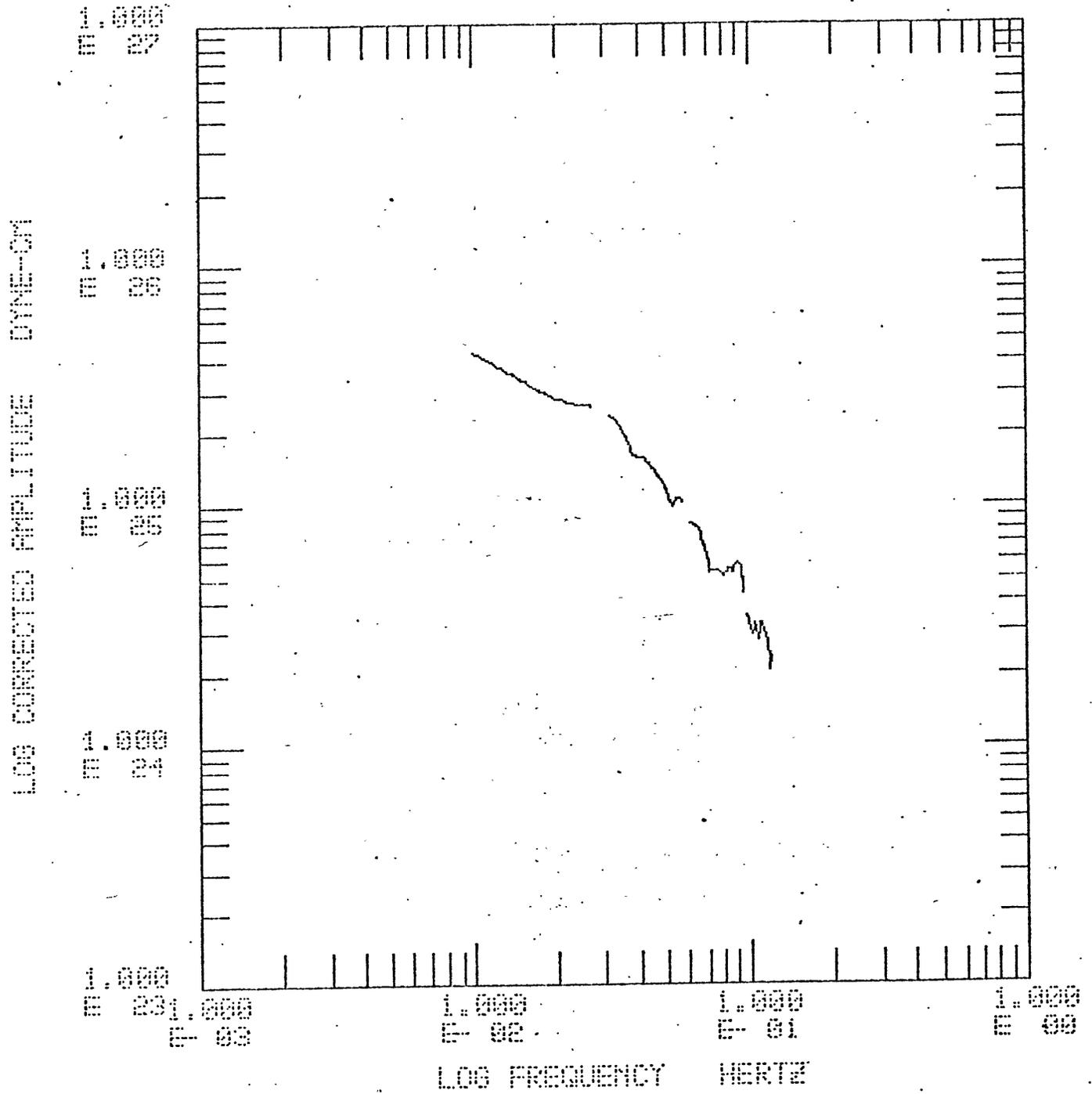
11	9	16	NOV	1959	0,890N	26,350W	6,3
11	9	9	MAR	1954	0,870N	29,900W	6,3
11	9	18	JUL	1951	1,070N	27,000W	6,9
11	9	2 nd	DEC	1937	1,070N	29,000W	6,5
11	9	11	OCT	1973	0,636N	29,514W	6,7
11	9	11	APR	1972	0,967N	28,286W	6,4
11	9	6	OCT	1937	1,570N	29,000W	6,2
11	9	19	JAN	1935	1,270N	28,000W	6,7
11	9	19	JAN	1935	1,070N	28,000W	6,2
11	9	6	OCT	1934	1,000N	27,000W	6,3
11	9	1	SEP	1934	0,500N	25,500W	6,7
11	9	22	MAY	1934	1,250N	30,250W	6,5
11	9	12	OCT	1924	0,500S	29,000W	6,5
11	9	26	SEP	1923	1,500N	29,500W	6,7
11	9	8	AUG	1923	0,570N	30,000W	6,2
11	9	12	NOV	1920	1,070N	28,000W	6,5
11	10	17	NOV	1963	7,670N	37,400W	6,6
11	10	3	AUG	1963	7,700N	35,800W	6,9
11	10	1	JUN	1945	7,570N	34,500W	6,9
11	10	28	NOV	1942	7,500N	36,000W	7,1
11	10	21	MAR	1941	7,070N	35,000W	6,5
11	10	5	NOV	1939	7,070N	34,000W	6,9
11	10	22	AUG	1937	7,070N	36,000W	6,9
11	10	23	JUL	1934	7,250N	34,500W	6,7
11	10	31	MAY	1932	7,000N	38,000W	6,9
11	10	27	JAN	1929	8,000N	37,000W	6,5
11	10	20	MAY	1918	7,500N	36,000W	7,4
11	11	25	SEP	1958	8,060N	39,290W	6,7
11	11	24	APR	1947	8,570N	39,000W	7,8
11	12	17	MAR	1962	10,970N	43,200W	7,7
11	12	26	JUL	1954	11,970N	43,800W	6,3
11	12	22	FEB	1929	11,070N	42,000W	7,2
11	12	3	SEP	1927	11,070N	44,000W	6,9
11	12	13	OCT	1925	11,070N	42,000W	7,5
11	13	22	JUN	1936	13,570N	45,000W	6,7
11	13	5	JUL	1925	13,570N	42,500W	6,7
11	14	4	MAR	1940	15,250N	45,000W	6,9
11	14	24	SEP	1969	15,237N	45,776W	6,4
11	14	28	FEB	1930	15,070N	46,000W	6,7
11	14	6	JUL	1929	14,570N	46,000W	6,5

12	1	14 DEC 1964	54,970S	2,400W	6.2
12	1	2 JAN 1960	56,000S	2,000W	6.1
12	1	3 JAN 1971	55,573S	2,578W	7.1
12	1	22 NOV 1928	56,500S	3,000W	6.9
12	2	2 OCT 1958	58,000S	9,500W	6.0
12	2	2 JUN 1963	58,300S	15,300W	6.3
12	2	7 MAR 1925	58,000S	7,000W	6.5
12	2	16 FEB 1925	58,000S	7,000W	6.7
12	2	23 FEB 1932	60,000S	12,500W	6.9
12	2	7 APR 1973	58,302S	13,394W	6.7
12	2	18 MAR 1933	59,000S	15,000W	6.5
12	2	8 SEP 1955	58,700S	19,600W	6.5
12	3	1 OCT 1969	60,846S	19,723W	6.0
13	1	10 NOV 1942	49,570S	32,000E	7.9
14	1	20 JUL 1942	35,000S	99,000W	6.7
14	1	9 APR 1934	35,000S	99,000W	6.5
14	1	12 JUN 1960	36,000S	98,000W	6.2
14	1	23 MAR 1937	36,570S	98,000W	6.5
14	1	22 SEP 1942	37,000S	98,000W	6.2
14	1	23 MAR 1932	37,000S	99,000W	6.0
14	2	9 NOV 1937	36,570S	97,000W	6.0
14	2	30 JUL 1954	36,500S	97,200W	6.5
14	3	11 OCT 1937	42,000S	91,000W	6.0
14	3	14 AUG 1926	40,000S	88,000W	6.7

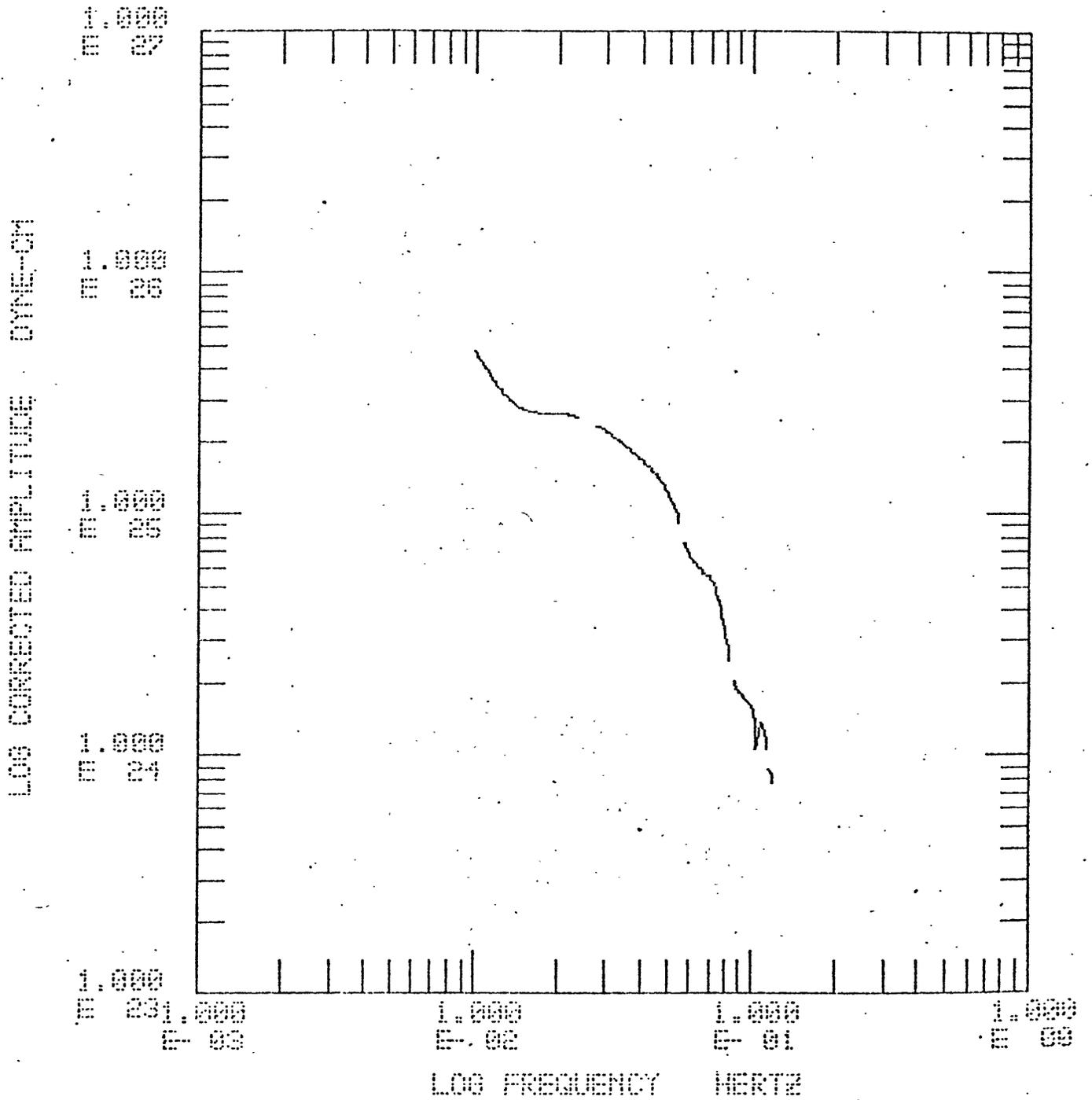
APPENDIX 2

The following six plots are the geometric mean of the amplitude spectra for each of the six events analyzed in this study. No correction for attenuation has been applied to the spectra.

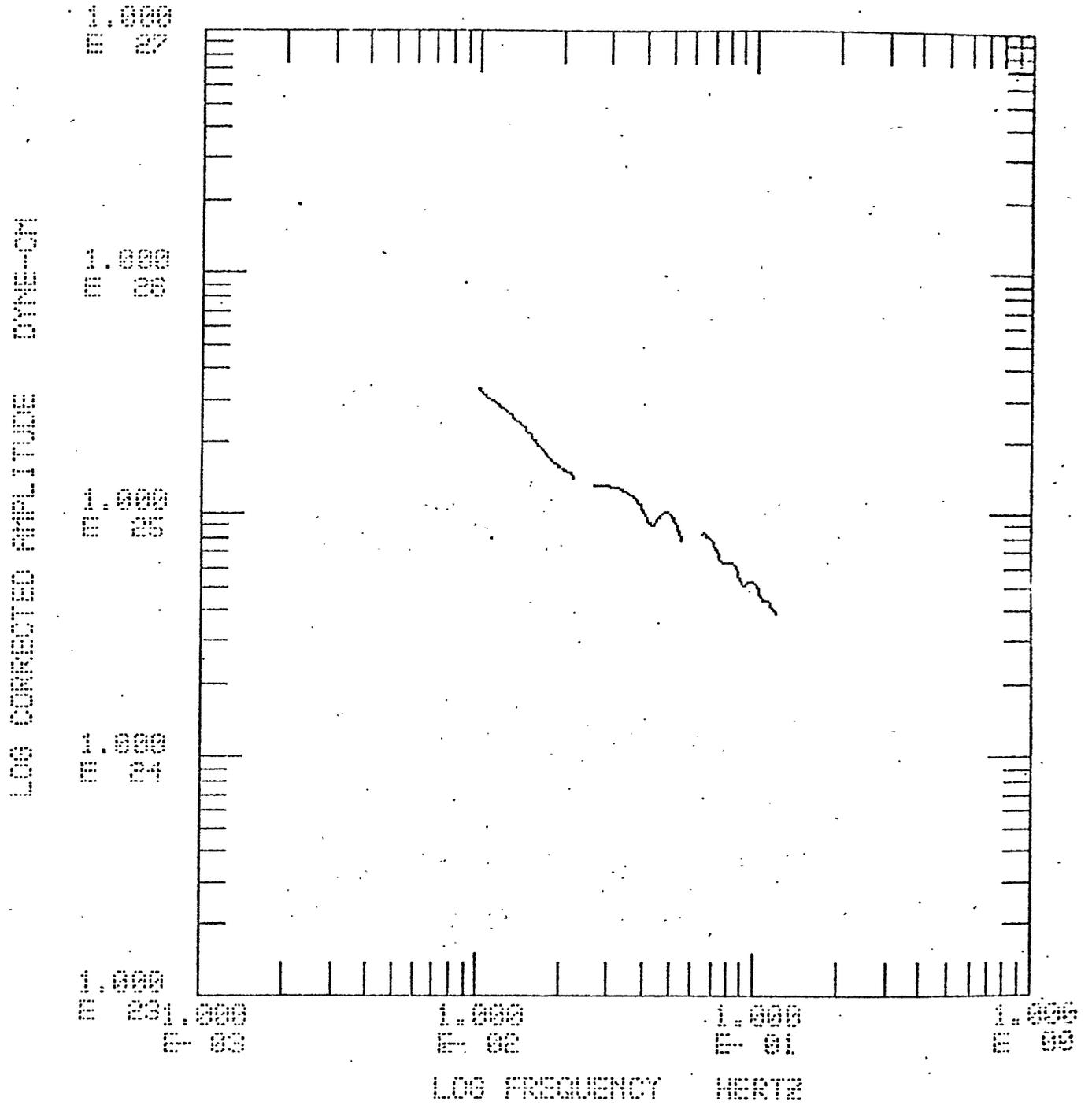
SPECTRA FOR SOUTH PACIFIC EQ. 89-88-87



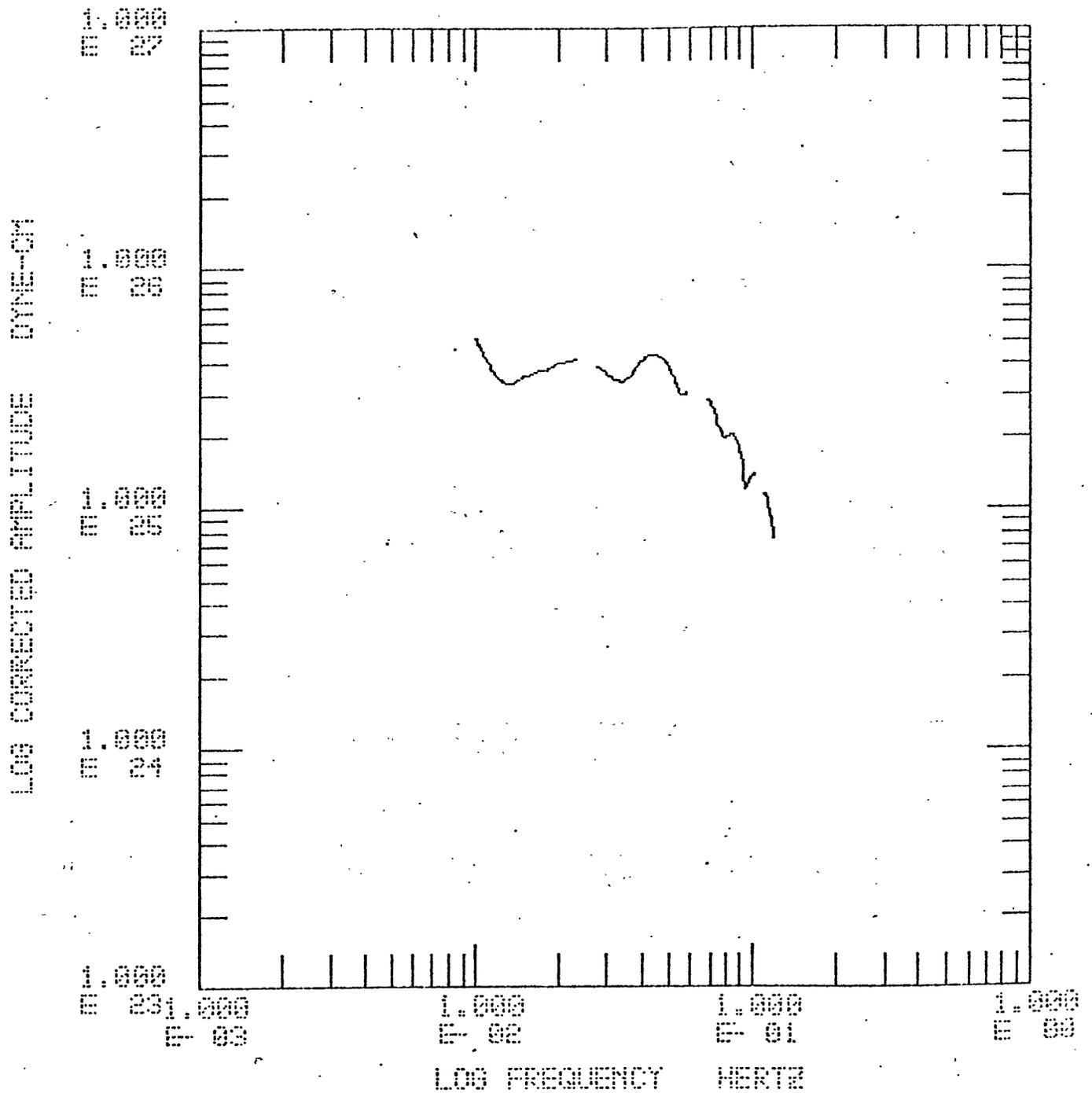
SPECTRA FOR RFI/ANT EQ. 8-6-68



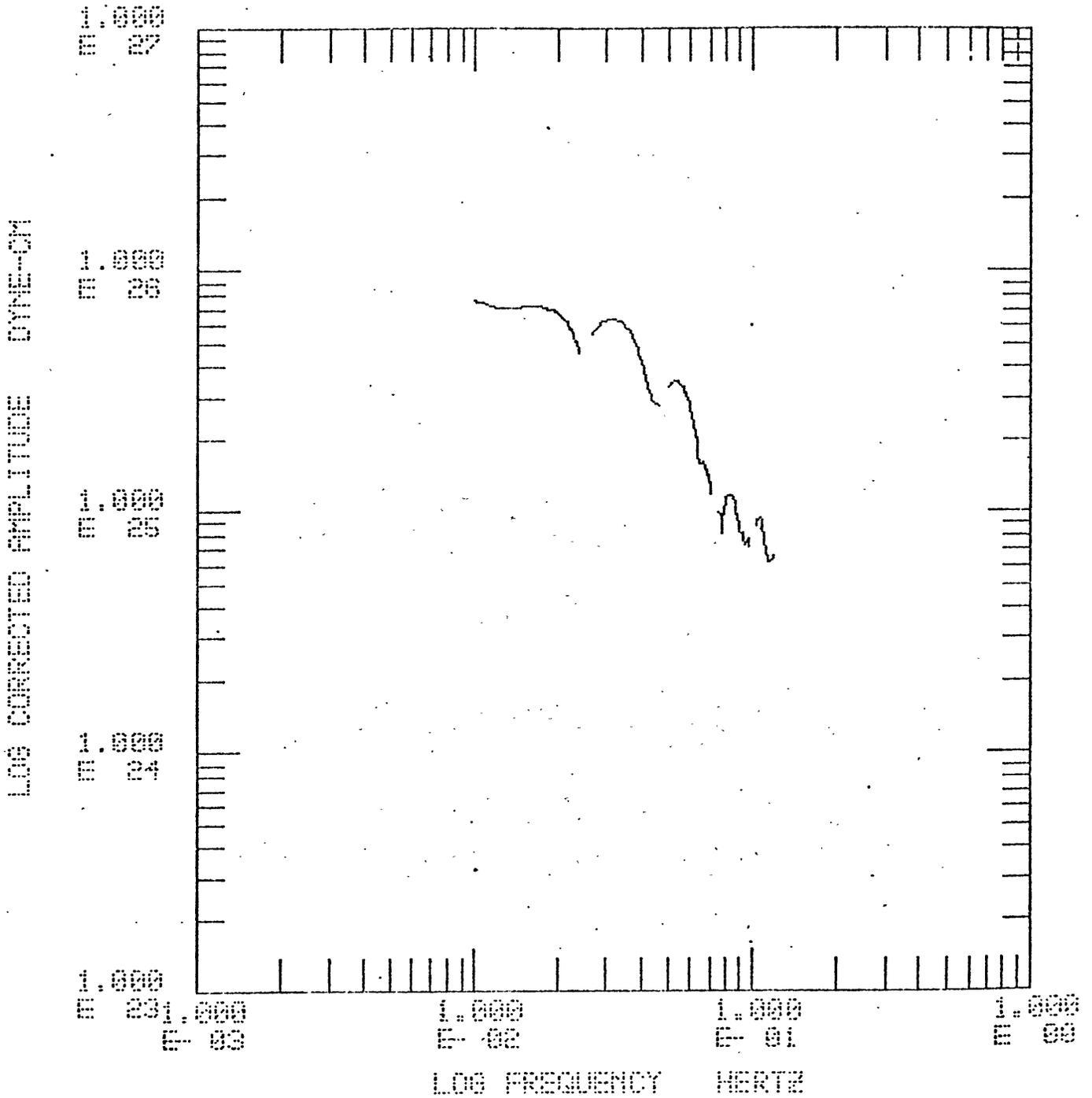
SPECTRA FOR EQ 18-2-68 IN SOUTH PACIFIC



SPECTRA FOR EQ. 24-09-70 SOUTH PACIFIC



SPECTRA FOR EQ 4-4-71 IN SOUTH PACIFIC



SPECTRA FOR AFI/ANT EG. 8-1-74

