



1 **Infrasound and seismoacoustic signatures of the September 28th 2018 Sulawesi super shear**
2 **earthquake**

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13

14 **Abstract**

15 A magnitude 7.5 earthquake occurred on September 28th 2018 at 10:02:43 UTC near the city of Palu
16 on the Indonesian island of Sulawesi. It was a shallow, strike-slip earthquake with fractures up to the
17 surface and a rupture length of about 150 km. Moreover, this earthquake was identified as one of very
18 few events having a super shear rupture speed.

19 Clear and long-lasting infrasound signatures related to this event were observed by four infrasound
20 arrays of the International Monitoring System of the Comprehensive Nuclear-Test-Ban Treaty
21 Organization as well as one national infrasound station in Singapore. Although these infrasound
22 stations SING (Singapore), I39PW (Palau), I07AU (Australia), I40PG (Papua New Guinea) and I30JP
23 (Japan) are located in large distances between 1800 km and 4500 km from the earthquake’s epicentral
24 region, the observed infrasound signals associated to this event were intense, including both seismic
25 and acoustic arrivals. The seismic-to-acoustic coupling at nearby terrain features is supposed to
26 generate distinct infrasonic signatures clearly recordable at remote infrasound arrays.

27 A detailed study of the event-related observations and the potential infrasound generation
28 mechanisms is presented covering range- and time-dependent infrasound attenuation and
29 propagation modeling, characterization of the atmospheric background conditions as well as
30 identification of the regions of seismoacoustic activity by applying a backtracking method from the
31 infrasound receivers to potential source regions. The back-projection of infrasonic arrivals allows to
32 estimate that the main infrasound source region for the Sulawesi earthquake is related to the extended
33 rupture zone and the nearby topography. This estimation and the comparison to other super shear as
34 well as large regional earthquakes identifies no clear connection between the earthquake’s super
35 shear nature and the strong infrasound emission.

36

37 **Keywords**

38 Infrasound; seismoacoustics; attenuation; propagation modeling; Sulawesi; super shear; earthquake

39



40 1. Introduction

41 Indonesia is located in a region with a very high natural seismicity above a complex setting of plate
42 tectonics. Subduction zones of convergent plate boundaries in this region define the largest faults of
43 the Earth's crust, and the region of highest and most intense earthquake activity. In fact, some of the
44 strongest and most destructive earthquakes recorded during the last decades have occurred in
45 Indonesia, like the 2004 moment magnitude (M_w) 9.3 Sumatra-Andaman earthquake and various
46 other events with M_w larger than 8 (Pailoplee, 2017). These strong offshore events can often generate
47 large and devastating tsunamis. Additional crustal scale faults are also located on the Indonesian island
48 of Sulawesi, including the Palu-Koro fault transecting the Northern part of the island (Katili, 1978).
49 Frequent seismic activity is associated to this fault, resulting in at least 60 earthquakes larger than
50 magnitude 5 within the last 20 years and four events larger magnitude 6 previous to the event
51 discussed in this study.

52 The September 28th 2018 Sulawesi earthquake occurred at 10:02:43 UTC near the Indonesian city of
53 Palu on the island of Sulawesi. It was estimated by the United States Geological Survey (USGS) as a M_w
54 7.5 strike slip earthquake along the Palu-Koro fault with a hypocenter location of 0.256°S and
55 119.846°E and a depth of about 20 km. Modeling indicates that the majority of the slip occurred
56 shallow on the fault (above 10 km) with an offset of up to 7 m horizontal slip and a dip slip of up to
57 only 2 m (Socquet et al., 2019). The rupture zone of the event extended north-to-south over roughly
58 150 km, along the fault and through the city of Palu, with a high rupture velocity of 4.1 km/s in average,
59 thus indicating it to be a so called super shear event having rupture velocities higher than the
60 corresponding shear velocities (see Bao et al., 2019; Socquet et al., 2019). The earthquake resulted not
61 only in intense ground shaking up to "considerable damages" of Modified Mercalli Intensity IX, but also
62 in liquefaction, landslides, and local tsunamis within Palu bay (see Heidarzadeh et al., 2019; Omira et
63 al., 2019). A large number of precursory earthquakes as well as aftershocks happened in the course of
64 this event.

65 The intense ground shaking of either the epicentral region or the nearby topography from the Sulawesi
66 earthquake resulted in strong and clearly observed infrasound signatures, which are the focus of this
67 study. Infrasound, which is the sub-audible part of acoustic waves below 20 Hz, is generated by a large
68 number of natural and anthropogenic sources (e.g. see Le Pichon et al., 2010, 2019) and can propagate
69 over distances of thousands of kilometers with little attenuation to highly sensitive infrasound arrays.
70 Many sources of either explosive or eruptive characteristic, or those coming along with large mass
71 movements can generate infrasound (e.g. Gibbons et al., 2015a; Pilger et al., 2018), including
72 earthquakes.

73 Reports on infrasound from earthquakes in the USA (Mutschlecner and Whitaker, 2005) as well as in
74 Peru, China and Chile (Le Pichon et al., 2002, 2003, 2006) indicate that the epicentral ground
75 movement generates infrasonic pressure waves. Further studies on the M_w 9.3 Sumatra-Andaman
76 earthquake (Le Pichon et al., 2005) and on Italian earthquakes (Marchetti et al., 2016; Shani-Kadmiel
77 et al., 2017; Hernandez et al., 2018) also highlight infrasound generated from secondary phenomena
78 like remote ground motion of mountain chains or extended basin areas, and from tsunami waves
79 hitting the coastline. This secondary infrasound is often called seismoacoustic waves, since the seismic
80 waves (longitudinal, shear or surface) generated by an earthquake propagate to distant terrain
81 features where the wave energy is partly converted to atmospheric acoustic waves in the infrasound
82 frequency range (e.g., see Arrowsmith et al., 2010; Hedlin et al., 2012).

83 Although there is quite a large number of studies about infrasound generated by earthquakes, only a
84 small number of earthquakes with a super shear rupture speed have been identified within the last 20
85 years (e.g. Izmit/Turkey in 1999, see Bouchon et al., 2000; Kunlunshan/Tibet in 2001, see Bouchon and



86 *Vallee, 2003*; Denali/Alaska in 2002, see *Dunham and Archuleta, 2004*; Quinghai/China in 2010, see
87 *Wang and Mori, 2012*; Craig/Alaska in 2013, see *Yue et al., 2013*), and only one publication known to
88 the authors identifies and investigates infrasound observations of a super shear earthquake, namely
89 the Denali 2002 earthquake (*Olson et al., 2003*). Therefore, one of the main tasks of this paper is to
90 investigate the potential of a connection between super shear earthquakes and infrasound recordings
91 of large amplitude.

92 This paper is structured as follows: Section 2 describes the data and methods applied within this study;
93 section 3 highlights the observations of infrasound and seismoacoustic signatures at remote
94 infrasound arrays; section 4 describes the modeling of infrasound attenuation and propagation and
95 compares it to the observations; section 5 provides a back-tracking approach to identify the acoustic
96 source regions of the observed signals and discusses the event in comparison with similar earthquakes.

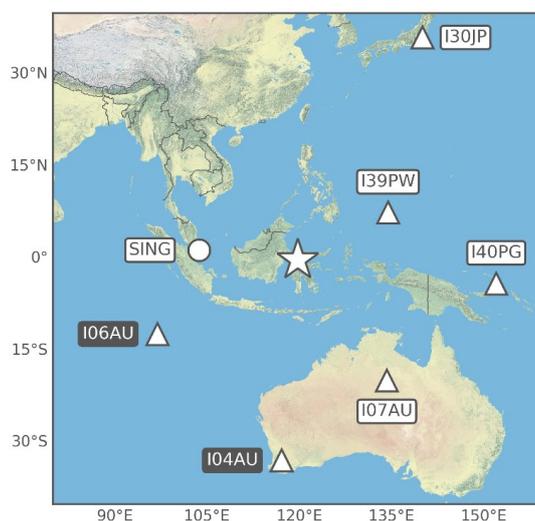
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98 2. Data and Methods

99 Data from various infrasound arrays of the International Monitoring System (IMS) established under
100 the Comprehensive Nuclear-Test-Ban Treaty (CTBT), are used within this study. Figure 1 shows the
101 earthquake epicenter as well as the nearest stations around the event.

102 The two IMS infrasound stations closest to the earthquake epicenter clearly registered the event
103 (I39PW in Palau and I07AU in Northern Australia). Two further IMS stations at larger distances found
104 clear indications of signals related to the earthquake (I40PG in Papua New Guinea and I30JP in Japan).
105 However, two other Australian stations (I04AU and I06AU) as well as all of the more distant IMS
106 infrasound arrays recorded no signals related to the earthquake source.

107 Additional data from a single infrasound sensor in Singapore (SING) was investigated and also showed
108 signatures related to the earthquake. However, due to a lack of array calculations and directional
109 information by only a single sensor, no further studies are applied for this data.



110

111 *Fig 1: Map of the Sulawesi earthquake epicenter (asterisk) and the locations of the nearest surrounding*
112 *infrasound stations (the circle corresponds to a single-sensor station, the triangles to multi-sensor IMS*
113 *arrays; white-labeled stations registered the event, black-labeled ones did not).*



114

115 The PMCC method (Progressive Multi-Channel Correlation, see *Cansi, 1995*; available from the DTK-
116 GPMCC application in the NDC-in-a-box package) is applied to the raw differential pressure recordings
117 at each of the IMS infrasound arrays' microbarometers to derive advanced data parameters like back-
118 azimuth, apparent velocity and frequency content of coherent signals thereby associated to different
119 events (see figure 2). Signals are identified as pixel information in distinct time steps and frequency
120 bands and are clustered to signal families related to the same event. 1/3 octave band configurations
121 with an inverse frequency distributed window length are implemented between 0.01 and 4.4 Hz
122 (*Garces, 2013*). Signals can be associated to a certain source by e.g. applying cross bearing techniques
123 on the back-azimuth directions of two or more arrays. The seismic or acoustic origin as well as the
124 propagation of signals can be identified by the apparent velocity and frequency content of the
125 recordings.

126 In order to further investigate and understand the infrasound detection pattern in the region following
127 the Sulawesi earthquake, various simulations were performed to compute acoustic attenuation and to
128 simulate infrasound propagation between the source and the stations. Infrasound attenuation (see
129 figure 3) was calculated using a frequency-dependent, semi-empirical modeling technique coupled
130 with realistic atmospheric specifications along the infrasound propagation path (*Le Pichon et al., 2012*;
131 *Tailpied et al., 2017*) in order to draw a range- and frequency-dependent attenuation map estimating
132 the acoustic pressure loss between source and receivers in decibel (dB). The attenuation of the signal
133 at each station is associated to a confidence index that integrates uncertainties from the propagation
134 modeling and the atmospheric specifications. Infrasound propagation (see figure 4) was modeled using
135 a two-dimensional Parabolic Equation method (NCPA PAPE, see *Waxler et al., 2017*) to quantify the
136 ducting and amplitude decrease between source and receivers.

137 In both attenuation and propagation modeling, data from the European Centre for Medium-range
138 Weather Forecast (ECMWF) meteorological model are used to derive the effective sound speed as the
139 most important background parameter for infrasound propagation. Indeed, this parameter, defined
140 as adiabatic sound speed modified by horizontal winds in the propagation direction of the modeled
141 sound, is used to provide the atmospheric background conditions along the propagation path between
142 the source and the stations (*Wilson, 2003*). Ducting along tropospheric, stratospheric or thermospheric
143 waveguides (*Drob et al., 2003*) can be estimated in the same manner as the total amplitude loss from
144 geometric spreading as well as atmospheric attenuation (*Sutherland and Bass, 2004*). ECMWF values
145 are used from 0 to 60 km altitude and merged with temperature and wind climatologies above
146 (MSISE00 and HWM07, see *Picone et al., 2002, Drob et al., 2008*) to provide seamless effective sound
147 speed profiles from 0 to 140 km altitude.

148 Backtracking of the coherent earthquake-related signals observed at infrasound arrays to their source
149 region is performed within this study using a seismoacoustic method similar to that of *Marchetti et al.*
150 (*2016*) or *Shani-Kadmiel et al. (2017)*, which is also part of the built-in capabilities of PMCC (see figure
151 5). Assumed is a conversion of the initial seismic wave with crustal propagation velocities of e.g. 4 km/s
152 to acoustic waves with average celerities of e.g. 0.3 km/s at certain terrain features, like steep or flat
153 topography as e.g. mountain chains, islands, cliffs or extended plains. This method identifies the
154 seismoacoustic conversion areas and thus infrasonic source regions for the signals observed, taking
155 into account for each PMCC pixel the arrival time and back-azimuth direction relative to a point source
156 in space and time, here the Mw 7.5 earthquake epicenter. The cumulative sum and frequency of
157 occurrence of the backtracked origin locations therefore allows to identify seismoacoustic source
158 regions, either of epicentral or secondary origin.

159



160 **3. Observations**

161 The September 28th 2018 Sulawesi earthquake was identified in the recordings of four IMS infrasound
 162 arrays: I39PW, I07AU, I40PG and I30JP. Four to six hours of differential pressure recordings from these
 163 stations following the earthquake origin time (10:02:43 UTC) are analyzed using the PMCC method
 164 described in section 2. Signal parameters related to the earthquake are extracted from the PMCC
 165 results in terms of arrival time and duration as well as direction of origin and apparent signal velocity.

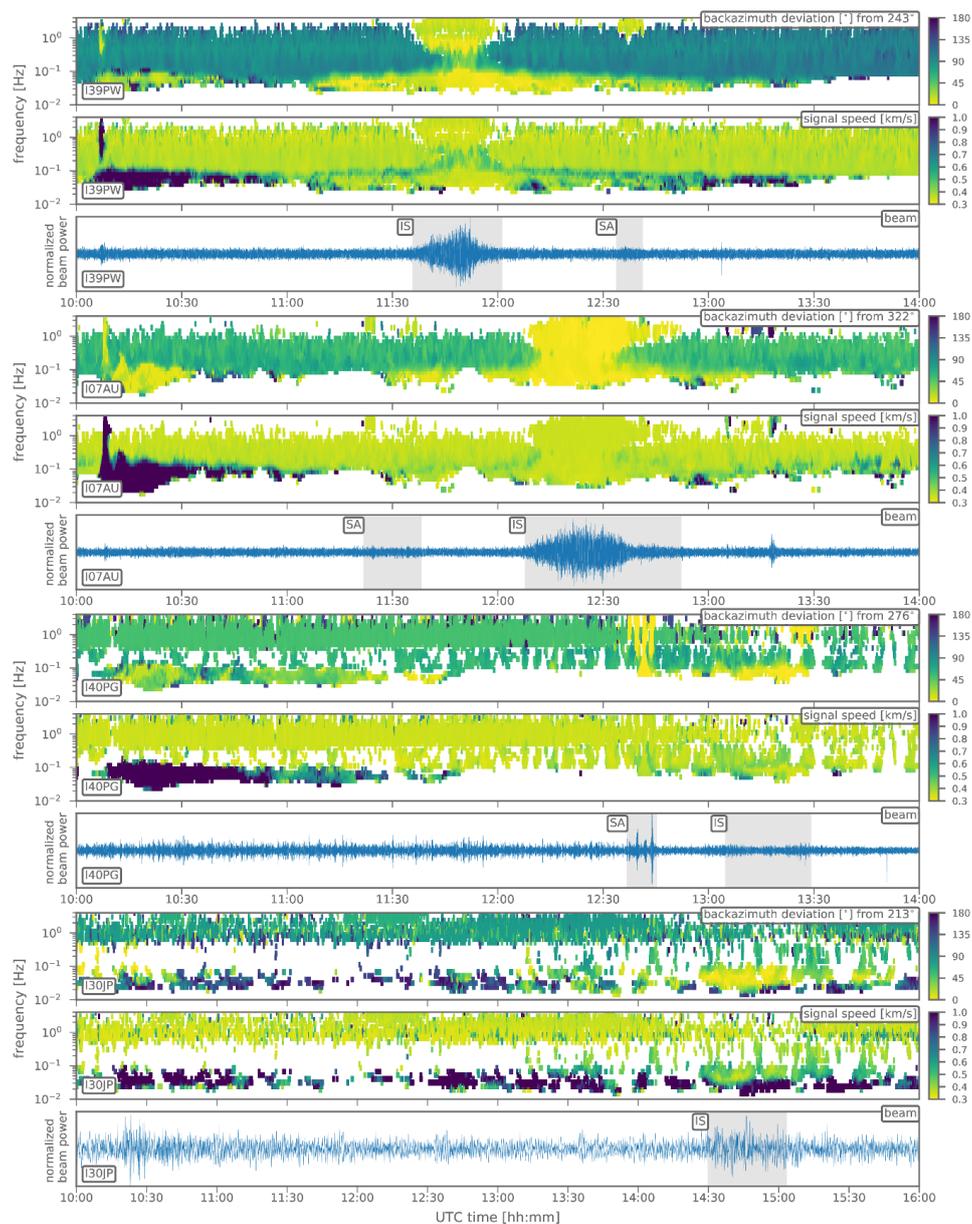
166 Table 1 summarizes these observed parameters for the four IMS arrays and for the earthquake-related
 167 signal also identified in SING station data. Furthermore, source-to-station distances as well as expected
 168 back-azimuth directions and arrival times using a celerity (speed over ground) of 300 m/s are presented
 169 for comparison. Figure 2 provides a graphical representation of the main findings for the four IMS
 170 stations, highlighting epicentral infrasound arrivals and their acoustic characteristics in the
 171 observations but also seismoacoustic and seismic signatures related to the event.

172

173 *Table 1: Findings from the observations of five infrasound stations and from theoretical distance-*
 174 *azimuth calculations to the Sulawesi epicenter. Main signals are labeled with "IS" (infrasound),*
 175 *secondary signals are labeled "SA" (seismoacoustic).*

Station	SING	I39PW	I07AU	I40PG	I30JP
Distance to epicenter (km)	1788	1845	2689	3604	4474
Expected back-azimuth (°)	94	243	322	276	213
Expected 300 m/s arrival time (UTC)	11:42	11:45	12:32	13:23	14:11
Observed arrival time (UTC)	IS) 11:50	IS) 11:36 SA) 12:34	IS) 12:08 SA) 11:22	IS) 13:05 SA) 12:37	IS) 14:30
Observed signal duration (min)	IS) 10	IS) 25 SA) 7	IS) 44 SA) 16	IS) 24 SA) 8	IS) 33
Observed mean celerity (m/s)	IS) 267	IS) 290 SA) 200	IS) 304 SA) 514	IS) 309 SA) 380	IS) 263
Observed mean back-azimuth (°)	- (no array)	IS) 251 SA) 257	IS) 319 SA) 321	IS) 275 SA) 276	IS) 209
Observed mean apparent velocity (m/s)	- (no array)	IS) 383 SA) 359	IS) 356 SA) 371	IS) 351 SA) 360	IS) 436

176



177

178 Fig 2: Waveform beams and PMCC-derived results for the four infrasound arrays I39PW, I07AU, I40PG
179 and I30JP (stations are sorted by distance from above, three frames per station, station labels in the
180 lower left corners). Shown in the corresponding stations' top frames are the observed back-azimuth
181 deviations from the direction to the earthquake epicenter (see labels in the upper right corners), in the
182 middle frame the observed apparent velocities, and in the bottom frame the waveform beams. The
183 whole 360° back-azimuth observations are converted to the given deviation plotting of $\pm 180^\circ$.
184 Apparent velocities are saturated above 1 km/s. Beams are bandpass-filtered between 0.6 - 4 Hz and
185 four hours of data are shown with the exception of I30JP where the beam is bandpass filtered between
186 0.02 - 0.1 Hz and six hours of data are shown.



187

188 The main findings of the infrasound observations and PMCC analyses related to the earthquake are:

189 - Initial seismic waves with high-frequency components (0.3-3 Hz) are found in I39PW and I07AU data
190 arriving four to six minutes after the origin time, indicating apparent P-wave velocities of 4-10 km/s,
191 lasting about two minutes. These are followed by low-frequency (0.05-0.5 Hz), quasi-continuous
192 seismic waves observed in all four arrays, likely related to seismic shear and surface waves, having
193 velocities of 1-3 km/s. Aftershock activity as well as seismic signals from other regional earthquakes
194 are also present in figure 2 for the hours after the main earthquake; aftershocks include 12 events of
195 magnitude 5 or greater, and 40 events of magnitude 4 or greater within six hours following the event
196 (source: USGS). Values for the arrival of seismic waves are not integrated in table 1, since the local
197 infrasound observations generated from ground-shaking of the sensors are not the focus of this study.
198 Nevertheless, the infrasound sensors do work fairly well as seismic arrays here (e.g. see *Gibbons et al.*,
199 *2015b*) and the earthquake related seismic arrivals can clearly be identified in figure 2 having apparent
200 velocities exceeding 1 km/s (drawn with dark blue colors in the middle frame plot of each station
201 indicating seismic and not acoustic signal speeds).

202 - Epicentral infrasound is clearly observed and produces the main signal with the largest waveform
203 amplitudes in I39PW and I07AU (beams are plotted in figure 2 in the bottom frame plots of the
204 respective stations, signals are highlighted by grey rectangles and “IS” labels). The analysis shows a
205 broadband-frequency content (0.05 to 4.4 Hz) and long signal durations of 25 and 44 minutes. Figure
206 2 emphasizes these signals since the back-azimuth calculations as well as the beamforming are focused
207 on the respective theoretical back-azimuth for the epicenter calculated for each station (yellow colors
208 in the azimuth frame of each station indicating low to zero back-azimuth deviations from this value).
209 The low deviations from the theoretical back-azimuth directions (3° and 8°, see table 1 for the
210 corresponding values) confirm the signals to be associated to either the epicenter, the rupture process
211 at the surface or the ground shaking of topographic features on the island of Sulawesi. An azimuthal
212 sweep is observed in the I07AU data from south to north (directions of 316° to 323°), consistent with
213 the north-to-south rupture along 150 km. The other three stations only show weak or no such sweeps.

214 - For the more distant stations I40PG and I30JP, the epicentral infrasound is consistent with the
215 theoretical back-azimuths (1° and 4° deviation), but mostly allocated with frequencies below 0.1 Hz,
216 indicating larger absorption of the high-frequencies along the long-distance propagation (see section
217 4 for the corresponding propagation modeling). The high-frequency pulses in the I40PG recordings
218 around 12:40 UTC are associated to a secondary signal, which is discussed in the end of this section.

219 - In general, the observed back-azimuths fit very well to the theoretical ones calculated for the
220 epicenter for all four stations, allowing the application of a cumulative back-tracking method to locate
221 the source regions of the observed infrasonic signals in section 5. The epicentral signals’ mean
222 apparent velocities are all in the acoustic range valid for stratospheric propagation (350 to 380 m/s,
223 see table 1), with the exception of I30JP having higher mean apparent velocities of 436 m/s. This
224 together with low celerity values of 263 m/s and appearance of only low-frequency signals at this
225 station strongly indicates thermospheric propagation for I30JP instead of stratospheric. Thermospheric
226 arrivals are expected to also be present in the other stations’ observations apart from the dominant
227 stratospheric ones; their later arrival time and lack of high-frequency content correspond to the long-
228 lasting signal families following the main signal peak for many minutes in the low frequencies. These
229 signal families can be observed together with low-frequency seismic wave activity and low frequency
230 acoustic components from the stratospheric ducting, discernible only to a certain degree by the
231 apparent velocities and arrival times. The celerities observed at I39PW, I07AU and I40PG as well as the
232 observed arrival times and signal durations well correspond to the expected arrival times calculated



233 using a 300 m/s celerity of average stratospheric propagation, quite close to the actually observed
234 values at I39PW, I07AU and I40PG (see table 1). The expected arrival times for these stations are clearly
235 within the main signals' observed time window and are only 2 to 6 minutes shifted from the respective
236 mid-point of the observed arrivals' time window (arrival time plus half of the signal duration).

237 - Microbaroms are also present in the recordings of I39PW and I07AU around 0.2 Hz and dominant
238 before and after the earthquake signals, as well as surf or potentially anthropogenic noise in I40PG and
239 I30JP data around 1 Hz during the complete observation. These background (noise) signals can clearly
240 be separated, by back-azimuths (greenish colors in the top frame plots) from the epicentral signal.
241 Infrasound signals can generally be distinguished from the seismic arrivals by their signal speed.

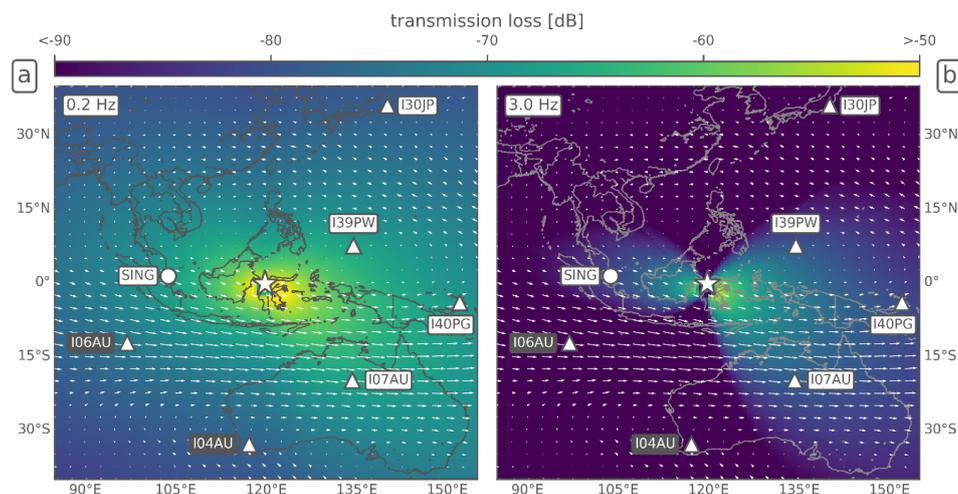
242 - Secondary signals are identified in I07AU, I39PW and I40PG data, coming from nearly epicentral
243 directions and having acoustic velocities. They have high frequency content (above 1 Hz) and celerities
244 below 200 or above 380 m/s, thus excluding purely acoustic waves e.g. traveling through
245 thermosphere or troposphere. These arrivals could be seismoacoustic precursors and successors
246 related to the earthquake (their signal parameters are provided in table 1 and highlighted in figure 2
247 with the label "SA"). A conversion of seismic to acoustic waves at certain, distinct terrain features might
248 be responsible for this kind of signals. Islands between Java and East Timor (south of Sulawesi) could
249 be the rough source region of the I07AU and I39PW signals, while islands of North Maluku (east of
250 Sulawesi) may be the source of the seismoacoustic signals in I40PG. Further details on back-tracking
251 and thus identifying acoustic source regions are provided in section 5. Nevertheless, from the given
252 observations it is not possible to certainly confirm these secondary signal locations as seismoacoustic
253 source regions. None of the secondary signatures are observed at more than one station and smaller
254 groups of signals come from all regions around Sulawesi, also including neighboring islands like Borneo.
255 These signals are not necessarily associated to the earthquake, and could be due to uncertainties in
256 the array processing or back-tracking methods, or they are associated to other local infrasound or
257 other noise sources and are just coincidental to the earthquake in direction and timing.

258

259 4. Modeling Results

260 Attenuation and propagation modeling are performed in this section to confirm and interpret the
261 observed epicentral infrasound signatures as described above. Attenuation modeling is used to
262 estimate the frequency-dependent transmission loss of a signal reaching the different infrasound
263 stations, thereby characterizing its detectability. Propagation modeling is necessary to identify
264 observed and expected signal arrivals and associate them to the prevailing atmospheric conditions
265 between source and receivers and the corresponding ducting behavior.

266 Figure 3 shows the quantification of infrasonic transmission loss from atmospheric attenuation
267 calculations (see *Tailpied et al., 2017*) as well as a representation of the stratospheric wind field in
268 terms of intensity and directionality. Simulations are performed within an $80^\circ \times 80^\circ$ area around the
269 earthquake epicenter for source frequencies of 0.2 Hz and 3 Hz. At the low frequency of 0.2 Hz (figure
270 3a), where most of the acoustic energy is concentrated following calculations with the INFERNO
271 software (see *Garces, 2013*), the attenuation at all nearby infrasound stations is quite similar: values
272 in the map and their uncertainties are 66.8 ± 4.4 dB for I07AU, 67.3 ± 4.4 dB for I39PW, 69.0 ± 4.3 dB
273 for I40PG and 69.3 ± 4.3 dB for SING. While values at these four stations indicate a northwest-to-
274 southeast corridor of signal amplitudes in the same order of magnitude, the other stations in
275 northeastern and southwestern directions have slightly higher attenuation values of 73.7 ± 4.2 dB for
276 I06AU, 77.3 ± 3.8 for I04AU and 78.2 ± 4.0 for I30JP, indicating less favorable ducting conditions and
277 detection probabilities at these stations.



278

279 *Fig 3: Attenuation map quantifying the acoustic pressure loss in dB (color-coded), calculated for (a) 0.2*
280 *Hz and (b) 3 Hz source frequencies on a 0.5° x 0.5° grid. Arrows show direction and intensity of the*
281 *stratospheric wind field averaged between 30 and 60 km for the 28th of September 2018. The largest*
282 *arrows represent a value of 25 m/s. For figure symbols and station labels see figure 1.*

283

284 The similarity of the attenuation values is consistent with the fact that low frequency signals are less
285 affected by propagation effects along the path. Drawing the same picture with a source frequency of
286 3 Hz (figure 3b) indicates a different situation: station values now are 78.3 ± 17.9 dB for I07AU, $79.7 \pm$
287 21.4 dB for I39PW, 81.0 ± 13.7 dB for I40PG and 84.1 ± 24.2 dB for SING. Those values are still quite
288 similar along the abovementioned corridor, although the uncertainties for the calculation are
289 increased. The attenuation calculated from the epicentral source into all directions to a stronger
290 degree visualizes for the high frequencies a focal effect in eastern and western directions with better
291 observation conditions, while having increased attenuation regions and thus more unfavorable
292 detection conditions in northern and southern directions. The other stations' values in these directions
293 are 101.4 ± 26.6 dB for I06AU, 118.7 ± 34.9 for I04AU and 107.0 ± 32.1 for I30JP, indicating remarkably
294 higher attenuation for these three stations due to propagation effects and atmospheric conditions and
295 explaining, why no high-frequency signals (or signals at all) are observed at the respective stations.

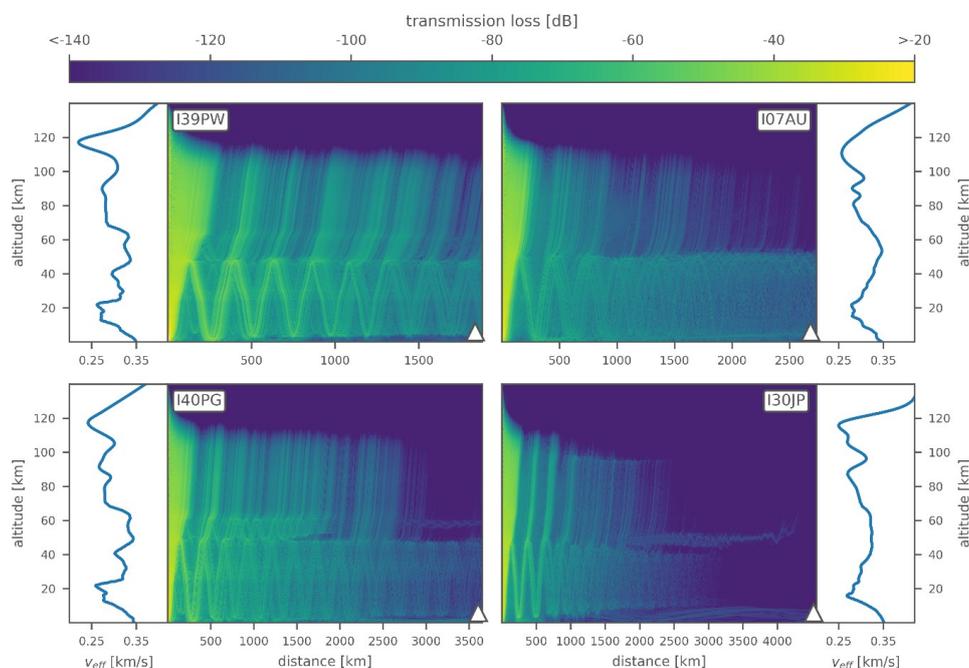
296 Stratospheric wind conditions affect the propagation especially for the higher frequencies and point
297 out the general possibility and effectiveness of a stratospheric duct. This is consistent with the fact that
298 high frequency signals are more sensitive to the atmospheric conditions along the propagation path,
299 also explaining the higher uncertainties in the calculation of these values. The stratospheric wind fields
300 shown in figure 3 support this sensitivity by estimating the direction of the dominant stratospheric
301 wind regime, which is eastward on the southern hemisphere's low latitudes, and the intensity of this
302 30 to 60 km average, which is up to values of 25 m/s. Strong tailwinds thus support the stratospheric
303 propagation to I07AU, while strong head- and crosswinds hamper it towards I04AU and I06AU. Winds
304 are weaker from the source towards the other stations, mostly due to the equatorial wind situation of
305 zonal stratospheric winds changing their direction here, rendering possible the simultaneous
306 propagation in western (SING), eastern (I39PW and I40PG) and to a certain degree probably even
307 northeastern directions (I30JP).



308 The given attenuation modeling provides a map-based estimation where stratospheric conditions are
309 favorable or unfavorable for infrasound ducting. Complementary to this, range-dependent
310 propagation modeling is conducted between the epicenter and the four signal-detecting IMS arrays to
311 estimate the loss of signal amplitude due to atmospheric attenuation as well as geometric spreading
312 over the considerably large propagation distances of 1800 to 4500 km. This is performed to estimate
313 if stratospheric propagation is possible, even under weak ducting conditions or conditions changing
314 with distance.

315 Figure 4 shows the atmospheric ducting conditions and corresponding infrasound propagation for the
316 four stations. For I39PW, I07AU and I40PG, stratospheric ducting is modeled in good agreement with
317 the observed mean celerities of 290, 304 and 309 m/s (see table 1). Following *Negraru et al. (2010)*,
318 celerities for stratospheric ducting are expected to be in the order of 280 m/s to 320 m/s.
319 Corresponding ray-tracing calculations (not shown here) estimate the celerities of those stratospheric
320 ducts to be in the order of 290 m/s.

321 For I30JP, stratospheric ducting ceases along the 4500 km propagation path due to more unstable
322 ducting conditions and higher transmission loss (about 150 dB). This is also in good agreement with
323 the observations, since only a low-frequency signal is recorded at I30JP with a low celerity value of 263
324 m/s (ray-tracing suggesting 244 m/s), indicative not of a stratospheric but of a thermospheric arrival.



325

326 *Fig 4: Propagation modeling between the Sulawesi earthquake epicenter (plot origins at 0 km distance)*
327 *and the infrasound arrays I39PW, I07AU, I40PG and I30JP (respective triangles) using a range-*
328 *dependent parabolic equation method, quantifying the transmission loss by atmospheric attenuation*
329 *in dB relative to 1 km for a frequency of 1 Hz. Corresponding effective sound speed profiles (v_{eff}) are*
330 *averaged over the complete propagation path.*

331



332 Thermospheric ducts do not show up in figure 4, since this figure represents a 1 Hz modeling case
333 highlighting the medium and high frequency stratospheric ducting and resulting in stronger absorption
334 of thermospheric effects. For lower frequencies in the order of 0.01 Hz to 0.1 Hz, thermospheric
335 attenuation is considerably small (*Sutherland and Bass, 2004*) and acoustic signal energy can propagate
336 in the thermospheric duct over large distances with limited transmission loss.

337 The stability of the ducting conditions are best expressed by quantifying the effective sound speed (v_{eff})
338 ratio between the stratospheric maximum (at 40–60 km) and the ground along the propagation path.
339 This parameter indicates favorable ducting conditions, when being equal or larger than 1 and
340 unfavorable conditions otherwise. Nevertheless, *Le Pichon et al., 2012* and *Landès et al., 2014* point
341 out that also v_{eff} ratios above 0.9 along the complete propagation path may lead to at least partially
342 refracted energy in the stratosphere; whereas this ducting becomes highly likely for values above 0.95.
343 While classical ray-trace modeling makes a strict separation between ratios larger or smaller than 1
344 (leading to existing or non-existing stratospheric ducts), the parabolic equation modeling used here
345 also takes into account partial refractions of acoustic energy at effective sound speed ratios near but
346 below 1. This is also a good representation of small-scale structures like atmospheric gravity waves
347 varying atmospheric temperature and winds and thus also influencing the infrasound propagation
348 (*Kulichkov et al., 2010; Green et al., 2011*).

349 The v_{eff} ratios of the average profiles depicted in figure 4 are 0.96 (I39PW), 1.00 (I07AU), 0.99 (I40PG)
350 and 0.93 (I30JP), fully supporting the reasoning above. Not shown in figure 4 are the propagation cases
351 to I06AU and I04AU, having no observations of the event and accordingly low v_{eff} ratios of 0.92 and
352 0.93, while the propagation to the single element station SING is indicative of stratospheric ducting
353 with a higher v_{eff} ratio of 0.98.

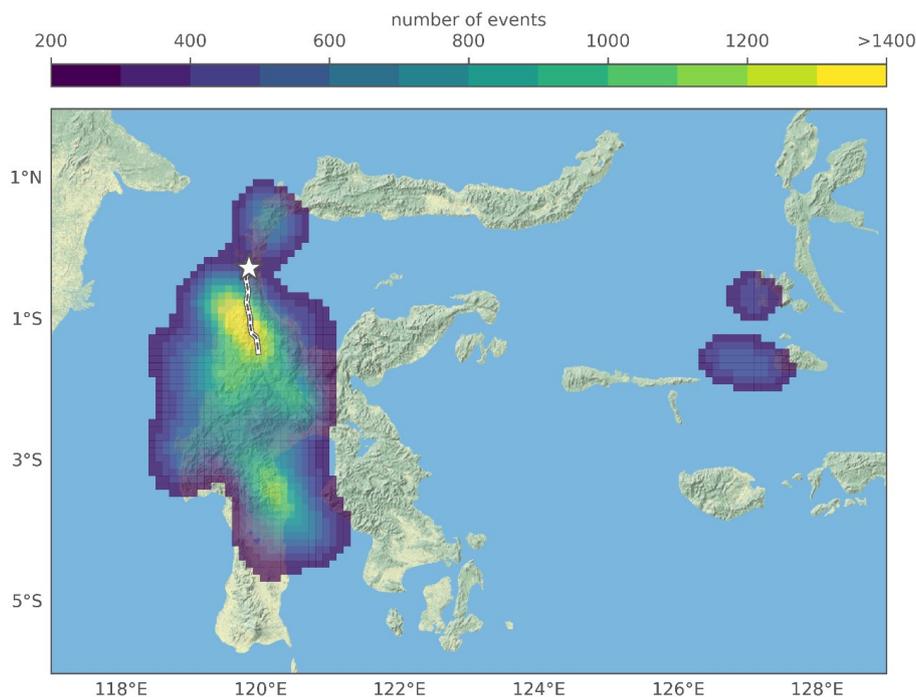
354

355 5. Discussion and Conclusions

356 The main focus of the discussion of observed and modeled signals from the 28th September 2018
357 Sulawesi earthquake is on the source region and source mechanisms responsible for it. To support this
358 discussion, a back-tracking procedure (comparable to the one applied in *Shani-Kadmiel et al., 2017* and
359 in the supplement to *Gaebler et al., 2019*) is applied using the observed PMCC pixels and backtracking
360 them using their temporal and directional information.

361 Figure 5 shows the back-projection results towards the island of Sulawesi in terms of an event density
362 map of the pixel-by-pixel information on their most likely origin locations. A total number of about
363 107,000 pixels is used to derive the picture. Seismic speeds of 4 km/s, resembling the primary
364 propagation of crustal seismic waves, are combined with 0.3 km/s acoustic celerities representing an
365 average value of the station observations. The uncertainties of the measurements as well as the choice
366 of a fixed seismic speed and acoustic celerity for all pixels instead of individual values is supposed to
367 introduce an uncertainty to the back-projected locations as seen by the extended contour regions in
368 figure 5. The velocity-averaged back-projection nevertheless sufficiently emphasizes the major source
369 regions and infrasound generation mechanisms.

370 A region to the south of the epicenter is highlighted (yellow colors representing the highest event
371 density), well corresponding with the earthquake rupture zone along the Palu-Koro fault line. Up to a
372 certain degree, this method also serves as a cross-bearing location procedure, although stations
373 contributing to it are not equally weighted but weighted by the number of pixels used from the
374 respective stations (in this picture, I07AU dominates the back-projection, since it has the longest and
375 largest record of the event); The location of the highest event density is at 119.6° E, 1.0° S,
376 approximately 80 km south of the epicenter and thus half-way along the rupture.



377

378 *Fig 5: Back projection of the combined PMCC detections from I39PW, I07AU, I40PG and I30JP.*
379 *Considered is each PMCC pixel's back-azimuth as well as a combination of 4 km/s seismic and 0.3 km/s*
380 *acoustic celerities, resulting in seismoacoustic conversion locations. Color-coded event density for these*
381 *locations is shown on a 0.1° x 0.1° grid, highlighting regions with more than 200 back-projected pixels*
382 *per grid node. The epicenter is marked by an asterisk, the rupture zone traced by a dashed line.*

383

384 The figure highlights that infrasound is radiated not only from a distinct, epicentral point source alone,
385 but from a region extended in north-south directions following the rupture (in fact the event density
386 values at the epicenter itself are lower than those in the surrounding regions). Secondary peaks apart
387 from the basin region around the rupture are identified north of the epicenter and in the southern part
388 of Sulawesi island. The pixels of this southern secondary color peak are mostly related to the early
389 parts of the main signal recorded at I07AU, while the central and northern color peaks in the figure are
390 related to signals arriving some minutes later. This corresponds to the 316° to 323° sweep in I07AU
391 data from south to north, as described in section 3. The two side-maxima separated from the main
392 signal's colored region are related to the secondary, seismoacoustic signatures described in section 3.
393 They are derived from a number of I40PG PMCC pixels and point to a region near the North Maluku
394 islands east of Sulawesi. Other secondary maxima as e.g. the ones between Java and east Timor, also
395 mentioned in section 3, are beyond the map borders and not shown here.

396 In general, the results observed and visualized by figure 5 point out that an enlarged region, closely
397 following the rupture and thus also the topography along the fault, generates the acoustic signals
398 recorded at the remote infrasound sensors. This includes the rupture region itself suffering most from
399 the earthquake-related ground movement (offsets of up to 7 m horizontal and 2 m dip slip) as well as
400 an extended basin area around the rupture, enclosed by mountain chains in mostly north-to-south
401 directions. Mountainous areas are a well-known source of secondary infrasound and seismoacoustic



402 signatures (e.g. *Arrowsmith et al., 2010*), and correspond to the event density maxima in figure 5: the
 403 mountain chains west and east of the Palu-Koro fault as well as the mountain area in the south of the
 404 island with the highest mountains of the Sulawesi island (Mt. Rantemario and Mt. Rantekombola, both
 405 about 3500 m elevation) generate large portions of the recorded signals. The less prominent but
 406 recognizable regions north of the epicenter (Mt. Fuyul Sojol, 3000 m elevation) and on the Maluku
 407 islands (e.g. Mt. Buku Sibela, 2000 m elevation) are also related to topographic peaks. The most likely
 408 source mechanism for the generation of large parts of the infrasonic and seismoacoustic signals is
 409 therefore estimated to be the shaking of elevated or exposed topography near the rupture zone,
 410 stimulated by crustal seismic or surface waves reaching these areas and turning them into motion.

411 To qualitatively assess if the super shear nature of the given earthquake or the regional prerequisites
 412 (or both) are responsible for the intense and long-lasting infrasound signals observed, the 28th
 413 September 2018 Sulawesi earthquake is compared to three other super shear earthquakes as well as
 414 three other normal shear earthquakes from the same region (Indonesia and Papua New Guinea).
 415 Shallow events between 5 - 30 km depth were chosen with comparably strong magnitudes of Mw >6.5
 416 so that infrasound generation and detection can be expected. Table 2 chronologically lists these six
 417 events and provides an estimation of the emitted and observed infrasound for all of them.

418

419 *Table 2: List of events similar to the 28th September 2018 Sulawesi earthquake, either in their super*
 420 *shear nature or in their regional origin. The “detecting IMS stations” (not necessary a complete list) as*
 421 *well the “source type / signal evaluation” are estimations following data analyses performed by authors*
 422 *of this study.*

Event	Detecting IMS stations	Source type / signal evaluation
Denali, Alaska/USA, 03.11.2002, Mw 7.9, depth 4.9 km	I53US, I10CA	Super shear earthquake, short duration (10 minutes), strong infrasound at I53US (nearby), weak infrasound at I10CA (remote) generated by topography, also seismic arrivals
Sumatra Andaman, Indonesia, 26.12.2004, Mw 9.3, depth 30 km	I52GB, (others)	Same region, normal shear earthquake, long duration (30 minutes), strong infrasound, also seismic arrivals and secondary sources related to tsunami and tsunami-shoreline interaction
Quinghai, China, 13.04.2010, Mw 6.9, depth 17 km	I34MN	Super shear earthquake, short duration (<10 minutes), weak infrasound, no signal at stations in Japan or Russia, no seismic arrivals
Craig, Alaska/USA, 05.01.2013, Mw 7.5, depth 10 km	I53US, (I56US)	Super shear earthquake, short duration (<10 minutes), weak infrasound, I56US signals probably from other source, also seismic arrivals
Porgera, Papua New Guinea, 25.02.2018, Mw 7.5, depth 25.2 km	I06AU, I07AU, I39PW, I40PG	Same region, normal shear earthquake, long duration (20-60 minutes), strong infrasound related to nearby topography, also seismic arrivals
Kokopo, Papua New Guinea, 14.05.2019, Mw 7.5, depth 10 km	I22FR, I39PW, I40PG	Same region, normal shear earthquake, long duration (10-60 minutes), strong infrasound related to nearby topography, also seismic arrivals

423



424

425 The three super shear earthquakes named after Mount Denali, the Quinghai province and the city of
426 Craig, occurring in 2002, 2010 and 2013, are the earthquakes most recent, most intense and most
427 similar in their super shear characteristics to the 28th September 2018 Sulawesi earthquake, also having
428 super shear rupture velocities of 4 to 6 km/s (see *Dunham and Archuleta, 2004; Wang and Mori, 2012;*
429 *Yue et al., 2013*). Although the IMS infrasound network is not fully established yet (to the time of the
430 Sulawesi earthquake, 80% of the stations were certified and operational, while it were only 8% to the
431 time of the Denali earthquake and about 70% during the time of the other two earthquakes), at least
432 one infrasound array was able to unambiguously detect and characterize each of the mentioned
433 earthquakes.

434 The infrasound signals for Denali earthquake indicate strong infrasound signals at the nearby I53US
435 station as well as much weaker signals at I10CA in a much larger distance. This event was a good
436 opportunity to track the infrasound back to its generation region in the Alaska Mountain Range along
437 the Denali fault where the rupture occurred (observed in I53US data, *Olsen et al., 2003*) and to the
438 Rocky Mountain Chain south-east of it (observed in I10CA data). The strong movement of local and
439 remote topography generated the infrasound in good agreement with the Sulawesi case. However, no
440 indication is given that the super shear characteristics of the Denali earthquake specially favors the
441 generation of infrasound. For the Quinghai and Craig earthquakes, also reported to be super shear,
442 much weaker and shorter duration infrasound is observed at stations in distances of 400 km (I53US to
443 Craig) to 1800 km (I34MN), compared to Sulawesi where stronger and much longer infrasound signals
444 were observed between 1800 km and 4500 km. Again, these do not indicate any connection between
445 those previous super shear earthquakes and extraordinary infrasound generation.

446 The Sulawesi earthquake is also compared to three strong earthquakes within the same region, most
447 prominently two nearby Papua New Guinea earthquakes (near the Porgera mine, 2018 and Kokopo
448 city, 2019) of the same magnitude occurring half a year before and after the Sulawesi one, showing
449 strong and clearly observed infrasound signals at multiple IMS stations as well. These infrasound
450 signals are observed up to similar distances as in the Sulawesi case and also provide long-duration,
451 strong amplitude wave energy associated to infrasonic and seismoacoustic arrivals coming from the
452 two earthquakes. Clear seismic signals are also present in the recordings (as in most cases described
453 before, apart from Quinghai) and an association to topographic features as infrasound source regions
454 is possible (the mountain chain in central Papua New Guinea for Porgera and the mountain areas in
455 New Britain and New Ireland for Kokopo). For the Sumatra Andaman earthquake of 2004, strong
456 infrasound with long signal durations was observed and could be back-tracked to topographic features
457 of islands and shorelines, especially where the follow-up tsunami reached the shoreline of the Bay of
458 Bengal (see *Le Pichon et al., 2005*). None of the presented earthquakes were super shear earthquakes,
459 but all of them, especially the two very similar Papua New Guinea earthquakes generated strong
460 infrasonic signals comparable to the signals of the Sulawesi event.

461 This leads to the conclusion that from comparison with other events, not the super shear nature of an
462 earthquake is the most prominent or even exclusive feature linked to strong infrasound generated by
463 an earthquake, but most likely the nearby existence of mountainous topography. This topography
464 serves as a large-area resonating membrane in terms of large masses brought into motion by a
465 triggering earthquake, which then produces large amounts of acoustic energy recorded at nearby or
466 remote infrasound stations.

467 Since the given super shear event resembles one of only few large magnitude, shallow earthquakes
468 generating pronounced infrasound, it provides a unique opportunity to study earthquake generated
469 infrasound in terms of the source mechanisms, signal characteristics, propagation conditions and



470 ducting behavior. It also supports the improved understanding of the process of stimulating infrasound
471 radiation by mountain shaking from large earthquakes and the conversion of seismic to acoustic
472 energy.

473 While this study provides the observation analyses and modeling results for the Sulawesi earthquake
474 and a qualitative comparison to other events, it cannot provide a comprehensive investigation taking
475 into account every detail to upmost precision. Measurement uncertainties are due to the
476 instrumentation and methods applied; modeling uncertainties are due to assumptions applied within
477 the models and due to multi-scale atmospheric variations between source and receivers leading to
478 uncertainties in the attenuation and propagation calculations. Taking into account these uncertainties
479 and improving the methods and models to cope with them in the future will help to gain novel and
480 enhanced insights about infrasound observations and modeling in general and earthquake generated
481 infrasound in particular. This will also help to optimize seismoacoustic observation networks in terms
482 of better understanding the instrumental needs and better evaluating the signatures observable by it.
483 It will finally support seismoacoustic studies of natural as well as anthropogenic infrasound sources in
484 the future and thereby support the infrasound monitoring for treaty verification purposes of the CTBT.

485

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488

489 **Data availability**

490 Information about earthquake magnitude, location and frequency of occurrence in the region of
491 interest is retrieved from the online-accessible archive of the USGS, see
492 <https://earthquake.usgs.gov/earthquakes/> (last accessed 23.05.2019).

493 Atmospheric wind and temperature profiles are derived from the ECMWF, available at
494 <https://www.ecmwf.int/> (last accessed 23.05.2019).

495 Waveform data for the infrasound arrays of the CTBTO IMS (<https://www.ctbto.org/>) used in this study
496 are available to the authors being members of National Data Centers for the CTBTO. Waveform data
497 for SING infrasound station are available to the authors being members of the Earth Observatory of
498 Singapore.

499

500 **Competing Interests**

501 none

502

503 **Author Contributions**

504 **CP** analyzed the waveform data, performed the propagation modeling, wrote the manuscript text and
505 coordinated the co-author contributions; **PG** compiled the data, generated the figures and helped with
506 finalizing the manuscript layout; **LC** provided first ideas and initiated the collaborative study; **ALP**
507 provided expertise in earthquake infrasound, comparison to other events and initiated the
508 collaborative study; **JV** analyzed the waveform data and performed propagation modeling; **AP**
509 analyzed the waveform data and provided manuscript text; **DT** performed the attenuation modeling



510 and provided manuscript text; **BT** provided first ideas and initiated the collaborative study; **all authors**
511 supported and improved the draft by proof-reading, commenting or correcting the manuscript.

512

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