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Modelling of Block Structure Dynamics and Seismicity

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ABSTRACT

A model of block-and-fault system dynamics (or simpler "block model") considers a seismic region as a system of perfectly rigid blocks divided by infinitely thin plane faults. The blocks interact between themselves and with the underlying medium. The system of blocks moves as a consequence of prescribed motion of the boundary blocks and of the underlying medium. As the blocks are perfectly rigid, all deformation takes place in the fault zones and at the block base in contact with the underlying medium. Relative block displacements take place along the fault planes. This assumption is justified by the fact that for the lithosphere the effective elastic moduli of the fault zones are significantly smaller than those within the blocks. Block motion is defined so that the system is in a quasi-static equilibrium state. The interaction of blocks along the fault planes is viscous-elastic ("normal state") while the ratio of the stress to the pressure remains below a certain strength level. When the critical level is exceeded in some part of a fault plane, a stress-drop ("failure") occurs (in accordance with the dry friction model), possibly causing failure in other parts of the fault planes. These failures produce earthquakes. Immediately after the earthquake and for some time after, the affected parts of the fault planes are in a state of creep. This state differs from the normal state because of a faster growth of inelastic displacements, lasting until the stress falls below some other level. This modelling gives rise a synthetic earthquake catalogue.

1. Introduction

A model of block-and-fault system dynamics (or simpler “block model”) of the lithosphere was developed to analyse features of seismicity in a particular region. A structure, which consists of perfectly rigid blocks connected by thin viscous-elastic layers (“faults”), is considered in the model. The blocks interact between themselves and with the underlying medium. The system of blocks moves as a consequence of prescribed motion of the boundary blocks and of the underlying medium. The detailed description of the model is given below.

The model exploits the hierarchical block structure of the lithosphere proposed by *Alekseevskaya et al.* (1977). The basic principles of the model were developed by *Gabrielov et al.* (1986, 1990) on the basis of the proposition that blocks of the lithosphere are separated by comparatively thin, weak and less consolidated fault zones, such as lineaments and tectonic faults, and major deformation and most earthquakes occur in such fault zones. The model takes advantage of the simple fact that the integral rigidity of the fault zones is smaller than the blocks (at least in the time scale smaller than say 100 years or less). Accordingly, blocks are presumed absolutely rigid.

Later on the model was improved to create possibility of approximating in it a block structure of a real seismoactive region under consideration (*Soloviev 1995*), and now it is region-specific and allows to set up specific driving tectonic forces, the realistic geometry of blocks and fault network, and the rheology of fault zones. The model generates stick-slip movement of blocks, comprising seismicity and slow movements.

The model reproduces the whole ensemble: tectonic driving forces => geodetic movements => creep => earthquakes.

The block model as other numerical models of the processes generating seismicity (e.g., *Shaw et al. 1992*; *Gabrielov and Newman 1994*; *Allègre et al. 1995*; *Newman et al. 1995*; *Turcotte 1997*; *Narteau et al. 2000*) provides a straightforward tool for a broad range of problems: (i) connection of seismicity and geodynamics; (ii) dependence of seismicity on general properties of fault networks; that is, fragmentation of structure, rotation of blocks, direction of driving forces etc; (iii) study of the earthquake preparation process and earthquake prediction (e.g., *Gabrielov and Newman 1994*), moreover such models can be used to suggest new premonitory patterns that might exist in real catalogues (e.g., *Gabrielov et al. 2000*; *Shebalin et al. 2000*).

The block model reproduces some basic features of the observed seismicity: Gutenberg-Richter law, clustering of earthquakes, dependence of the occurrence of large earthquakes on fragmentation of the block structure and on rotation of blocks etc. It enables to study relations between geometry of faults, block movements and earthquake flow, and to reproduce regional features of seismicity. From simplest observation - territorial distribution of seismicity - the model enables to reconstruct tectonic driving forces (and to evaluate competing geodynamic hypotheses).

In the absence of seismicity the block model enables to study dependence between motions of boundary blocks specified at lateral boundaries of the structure, motions of the underlying medium specified at the block bottoms and motions of the blocks constituting the structure. One may consider the direct problem: to determine motions of the blocks constituting the structure (and their relative motions along the faults) when motions of the underlying medium and the boundaries are specified. The inverse problem may be considered as well: to determine motions of the underlying medium and the boundaries, which supply the best approximation of the specified motions of the blocks of the structure or their relative motions along the faults.

The detailed description of the block model and examples of its application are given by *Soloviev and Ismail-Zadeh (2003)*. The model was used to analyze clustering of

earthquakes (*Maksimov and Soloviev, 1999*), the dependence of the occurrence of large earthquakes on structure fragmentation and on rotation of blocks (*Keilis-Borok et al., 1997*), long-range interaction between synthetic earthquakes (*Vorobieva and Soloviev, 2005*), transformation of frequency-magnitude relation prior to large earthquakes (*Soloviev, 2008*), seismicity of an arc subduction zone (*Rundquist and Soloviev, 1999*), the lithospheric motion and seismic flow in the Vrancea earthquake-prone region of the south-eastern Carpathians (*Panza et al., 1997; Soloviev et al., 1999; Ismail-Zadeh et al., 1999*), in the Western Alps (*Soloviev and Ismail-Zadeh, 2003*), in the Sunda Arc (*Soloviev and Ismail-Zadeh, 2003*), in the Tibet-Himalayan region (*Ismail-Zadeh et al., 2007*), and in Italy and its surroundings (*Peresan et al., 2007*).

2. Block Structure Geometry

A layer with thickness H limited by two horizontal planes is considered (Fig. 1), and a block structure is defined as a limited and simply connected part of this layer. Each lateral boundary of the block structure is defined by portions of the parts of planes intersecting the layer. The subdivision of the structure into blocks is performed by planes intersecting the layer. The parts of these planes, which are inside the block structure and its lateral faces, are called "fault planes".

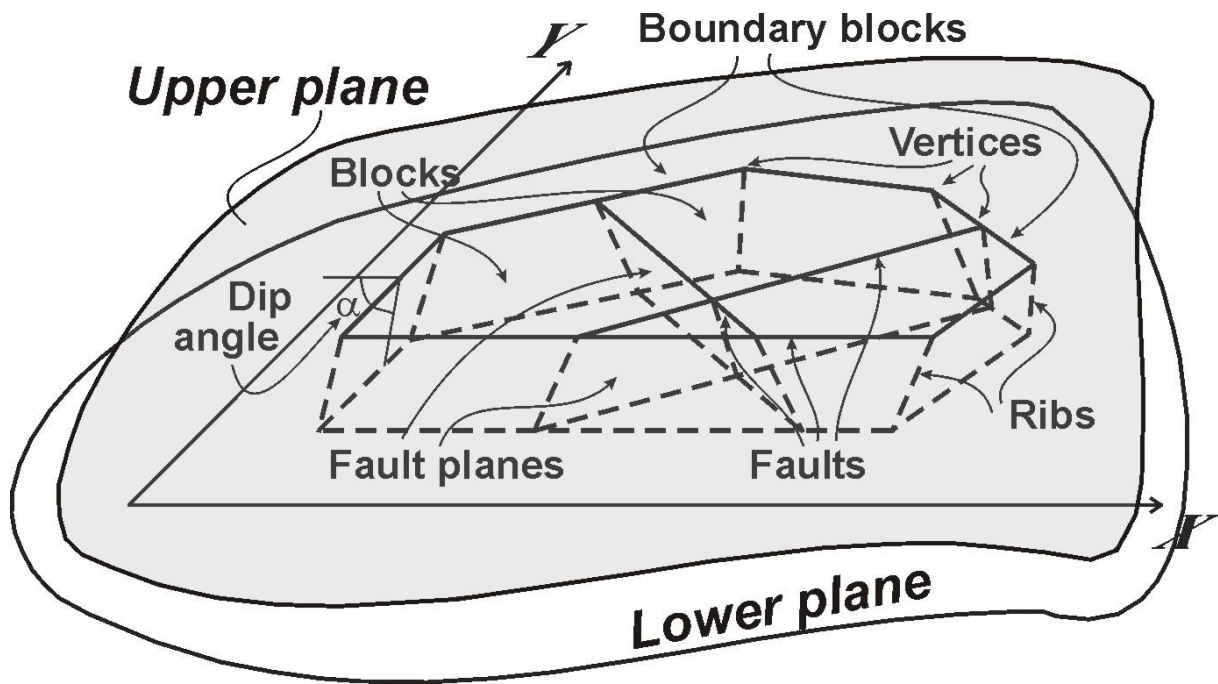


FIGURE 1 A sketch of the block-and-fault dynamics model.

The geometry of the block structure is defined by the lines of intersection between the fault planes and the upper plane limiting the layer (these lines are called "faults"), and by the angles of dip of each fault plane. Three or more faults cannot have a common point on the upper plane, and a common point of two faults is called "vertex". The direction is specified for each fault and the angle of dip of the fault plane is measured on the left of the fault. The positions of a vertex on the upper and the lower plane, limiting the layer, are connected by a segment ("rib") of the line of intersection of the corresponding fault planes. The part of a fault plane between two ribs corresponding to successive vertices on the fault is called "segment".

The shape of the segment is a trapezium. The common parts of the block with the upper and lower planes are polygons, and the common part of the block with the lower plane is called "bottom".

It is assumed that the block structure is bordered by a confining medium, whose motion is prescribed on its continuous parts comprised between two ribs of the block structure boundary. These parts of the confining medium are called "boundary blocks".

3. Block Movement

The blocks are assumed to be rigid and all their relative displacements take place along the bounding fault planes. The interaction of the blocks with the underlying medium takes place along the lower plane, any kind of slip being possible.

The movements of the boundaries of the block structure (the boundary blocks) and the medium underlying the blocks are assumed to be an external force on the structure. The rates of these movements are considered to be horizontal and known.

Dimensionless time is used in the model; therefore, all quantities that contain time in their dimensions are measured per unit of dimensionless time, so that time does not enter their dimensions. For example, in the model, velocities are measured in units of length and a velocity of 5 cm means 5 cm for one unit of dimensionless time. When necessary, one assigns a realistic value to one unit of dimensionless time. For example, if one unit of dimensionless time is one year, then the velocity of 5 cm, specified for the model, means 5 cm/year.

At each time the displacements of the blocks are defined so that the structure is in a quasi-static equilibrium, and all displacements are supposed to be infinitely small, compared with the block size. Therefore the geometry of the block structure does not change during the simulation and the structure does not move as a whole.

4. Interaction between Blocks and the Underlying Medium

The elastic force, which is due to the relative displacement of the block and the underlying medium, at some point of the block bottom, is assumed to be proportional to the difference between the total relative displacement vector and the vector of slippage (inelastic displacement) at the point.

The elastic force per unit area $\mathbf{f}^u = (f_x^u, f_y^u)$ applied to the point with co-ordinates (X, Y) , at some time t , is defined by

$$f_x^u = K_u(x - x_u - (Y - Y_c)(\varphi - \varphi_u) - x_a), \quad (1)$$

$$f_y^u = K_u(y - y_u + (X - X_c)(\varphi - \varphi_u) - y_a)$$

where X_c and Y_c are the co-ordinates of the geometrical centre of the block bottom; (x_u, y_u) and φ_u are the translation vector and the angle of rotation (following the general convention, the positive direction of rotation is anticlockwise), around the geometrical centre of the block bottom, for the underlying medium at time t ; (x, y) and φ are the translation vector of the block and the angle of its rotation around the geometrical centre of its bottom at time t ; (x_a, y_a) is the inelastic displacement vector at the point (X, Y) at time t .

The evolution of the inelastic displacement at the point (X, Y) is described by the equations

$$\frac{dx_a}{dt} = W_u f_x^u, \quad \frac{dy_a}{dt} = W_u f_y^u. \quad (2)$$

The coefficients K_u and W_u in (1) and (2) may be different for different blocks.

5. Interaction between Blocks along Fault Planes

At the time t , in some point (X, Y) of the fault plane separating the blocks numbered i and j (the block numbered i is on the left and that numbered j is on the right of the fault) the components Δx , Δy of the relative displacement of the blocks are defined by

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta x &= x_i - x_j - (Y - Y_c^i)\varphi_i + (Y - Y_c^j)\varphi_j, \\ \Delta y &= y_i - y_j + (X - X_c^i)\varphi_i - (X - X_c^j)\varphi_j\end{aligned}\tag{3}$$

where X_c^i , Y_c^i , X_c^j , Y_c^j are the co-ordinates of the geometrical centres of the block bottoms, (x_i, y_i) , and (x_j, y_j) are the translation vectors of the blocks, and φ_i , φ_j are the angles of rotation of the blocks around the geometrical centres of their bottoms, at time t .

Relative block displacements, it was assumed, take place only along fault planes; therefore, the displacements along the fault and horizontal planes are related by

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta_t &= e_x \Delta x + e_y \Delta y, \\ \Delta_l &= \Delta_n / \cos \alpha, \text{ where } \Delta_n = e_x \Delta y - e_y \Delta x.\end{aligned}\tag{4}$$

Here Δ_t and Δ_l are the displacements along the fault plane parallel (Δ_t) and normal (Δ_l) to the fault line on the upper plane; (e_x, e_y) is the unit vector along the fault line on the upper plane (Fig. 2); α is the dip angle of the fault plane; and Δ_n is the horizontal displacement, normal to the fault line on the upper plane. It follows from (4) that Δ_n is the projection of Δ_l on the horizontal plane (Fig. 3a).

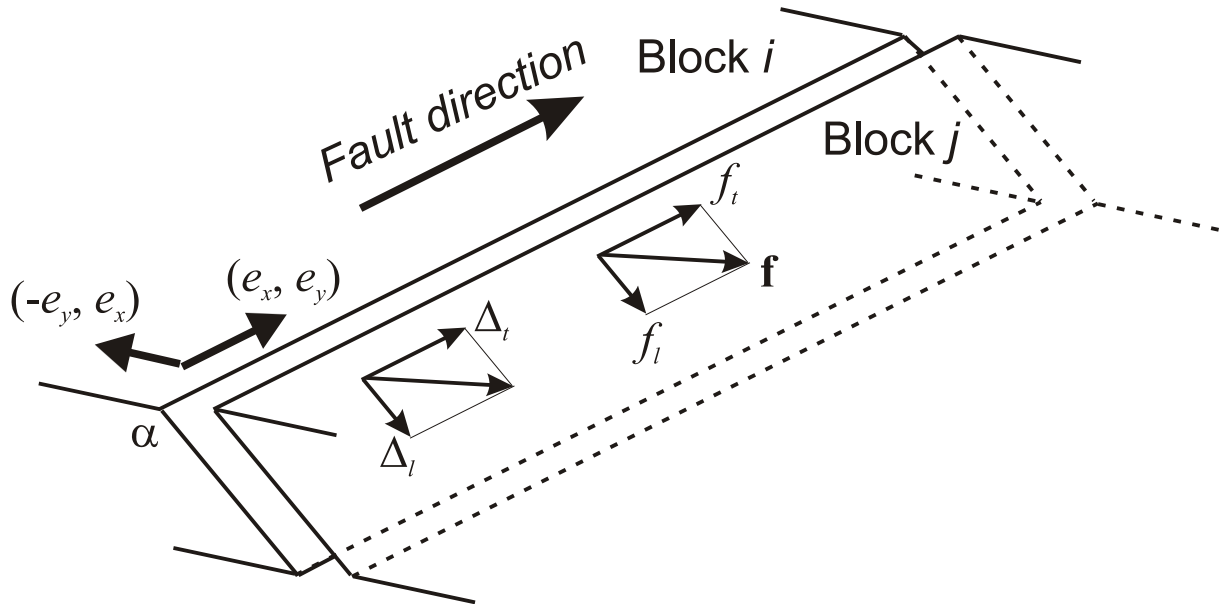


FIGURE 2 Displacements and forces along a fault plane

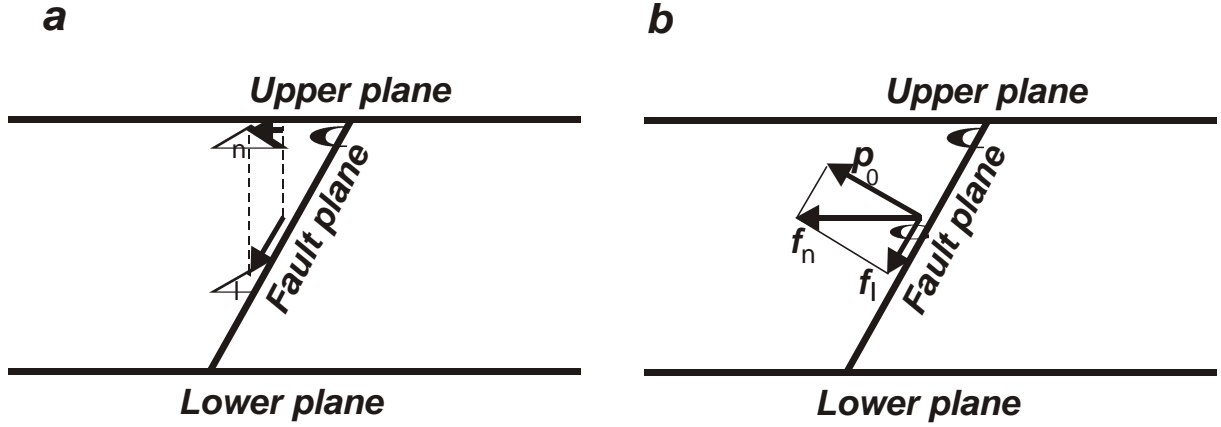


FIGURE 3 Vertical section of a block structure orthogonal to a fault. Relative displacements of blocks Δ_n and Δ_l (a) and forces p_0 , f_l , and f_n (b).

The elastic force per unit area $\mathbf{f} = (f_t, f_l)$ acting along the fault plane at the point (X, Y) is defined by

$$f_t = K(\Delta_t - \delta_t), \quad (5)$$

$$f_l = K(\Delta_l - \delta_l).$$

Here δ_t , δ_l are inelastic displacements along the fault plane at the point (X, Y) at time t , parallel (δ_t) and normal (δ_l) to the fault line on the upper plane.

The evolution of the inelastic displacement at the point (X, Y) is described by the equations

$$\frac{d\delta_t}{dt} = Wf_t, \quad \frac{d\delta_l}{dt} = Wf_l. \quad (6)$$

The coefficients K and W in (5) and (6) may be different for different faults. The coefficient K can be considered as the shear modulus of the fault plane.

Equations (5-6) correspond to visco-elastic (Maxwell) rheological law that describes the relation of \mathbf{f} to the strain ζ

$$\left(\frac{d}{dt} + \frac{1}{\tau} \right) \mathbf{f} = \mu \frac{d\zeta}{dt} \quad (7)$$

where τ is the relaxation time ($\tau = \eta / \mu$), μ is the shear modulus, and η is the viscosity. Coefficients in (5-7) are connected by formulas: $K = \mu/a$, $W = a/\eta$, a is the actual width of the fault zone; and $\tau = 1/(KW)$.

In addition to the elastic force, there is the reaction force which is normal to the fault plane; the work done by this force is zero, because all relative movements are tangent to the fault plane. The elastic energy per unit area at the point (X, Y) is equal to

$$e = (f_t(\Delta_t - \delta_t) + f_l(\Delta_l - \delta_l))/2. \quad (8)$$

From (4) and (8) the horizontal component of the elastic force per unit area, normal to the fault line on the upper plane, f_n can be written as:

$$f_n = \frac{\partial e}{\partial \Delta_n} = \frac{f_i}{\cos \alpha} . \quad (9)$$

It follows from (9) that the total force acting at the point of the fault plane is horizontal if there is a reaction force, which is normal to the fault plane (Fig. 3b). The reaction force per unit area is equal to

$$p_0 = f_i \tan \alpha. \quad (10)$$

The reaction force (10) is introduced and therefore there are not vertical components of forces acting on the blocks and there are not vertical displacements of blocks.

Formulas (3) are also valid for boundary faults. In this case one of blocks separated by the fault is a boundary block. The movement of blocks is prescribed by their translation and rotation around the origin of co-ordinates. Therefore the co-ordinates of the geometrical centre of the block bottom in (3) are set to zero for any boundary block. For example, if the block numbered j is a boundary block, then $X_c^j = Y_c^j = 0$ in (3).

6. Equations of Equilibrium

The components of the translation vectors of the blocks and the angles of their rotation around the geometrical centres of the bottoms are found from the condition that the total force and the total moment of forces acting on each block are equal to zero. This is the condition of quasi-static equilibrium of the system and the condition of minimum energy at the same time. The forces arising from the specified movements of the underlying medium and of the boundaries of the block structure are considered only in the equilibrium equations. In fact it is assumed that the action of all other forces (gravity, etc.) on the block structure is balanced and does not cause displacements of the blocks.

In accordance with formulas (1), (3-5), (9), and (10) the dependence of the forces, acting on the blocks, on the translation vectors of the blocks and the angles of their rotations is linear. Therefore the system of equations which describes the equilibrium is linear one and has the following form

$$A\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{b} \quad (11)$$

where the components of the unknown vector $\mathbf{z} = (z_1, z_2, \dots, z_{3n})$ are the components of the translation vectors of the blocks and the angles of their rotation around the geometrical centres of the bottoms (n is the number of blocks), i.e. $z_{3m-2} = x_m$, $z_{3m-1} = y_m$, $z_{3m} = \varphi_m$ (m is the number of the block, $m = 1, 2, \dots, n$).

The matrix A does not depend on time and its elements are defined from formulas (1), (3-5), (9), and (10). The moment of the forces acting on a block is calculated relative to the geometrical centre of its bottom. The expressions for the elements of the matrix A contain integrals over the surfaces of the fault segments and of the block bottoms. Each integral is replaced by a finite sum, in accordance with the space discretization described in Section 2.6.

The components of the vector \mathbf{b} are also defined from formulas (1), (3-5), (9), and (10) as well. They depend on time, explicitly, because of the movements of the underlying medium and of the block structure boundaries and, implicitly, because of the inelastic displacements.

7. Discretization

Time is discretized with a step Δt . The state of the block structure is considered at discrete values of time $t_i = t_0 + i\Delta t$ ($i = 1, 2, \dots$), where t_0 is the initial time. The transition from the state at t_i to the state at t_{i+1} is made as follows:

- (i) new values of the inelastic displacements $x_a, y_a, \delta_t, \delta_l$ are calculated from equations (2) and (6);
- (ii) translation vectors and rotation angles at t_{i+1} are obtained for boundary blocks and the underlying medium;
- (iii) the components of vector \mathbf{b} in equations (11) are calculated, and these equations are used to define the translation vectors and the angles of rotation for the blocks. Since the elements of \mathbf{A} in (11) are not functions of time, the matrix \mathbf{A} and the associated inverse matrix can be calculated only once, at the beginning of the calculation.

Formulas (1-6, 8-10) describe forces, relative displacements, and inelastic displacements at points of fault segments and of block bottoms. Therefore the discretization of these surfaces is required for the numerical simulation. The space discretization is defined by the parameter ε , and it is applied to the surfaces of the fault segments and to the block bottoms. The discretization of a fault segment is performed as follows. Each fault segment is a trapezium with bases a and b and height $h = H/\sin\alpha$, where H is the thickness of the layer, and α is the dip angle of the fault plane. The values

$$n_1 = \text{ENTIRE}(h/\varepsilon) + 1, \text{ and } n_2 = \text{ENTIRE}(\max(a,b)/\varepsilon) + 1,$$

are determined, and the trapezium is divided into $n_1 n_2$ small trapeziums by two groups of segments inside it: $n_1 - 1$ segments, parallel to the trapezium bases and spaced at intervals h/n_1 , and $n_2 - 1$ segments connecting the points spaced by intervals of a/n_2 and b/n_2 , respectively, on the two bases. The small trapeziums obtained in such a way are called "cells". The co-ordinates X, Y in (3) and the inelastic displacements δ_t, δ_l in (5) are supposed to be the same for all the points of a cell. These values of the co-ordinates and the inelastic displacements are considered as the average values over the cell. When introduced in formulas (3-5), (9), and (10) they yield the average over the cell of the elastic and reaction forces per unit area. The forces acting on the cell are obtained by multiplying the average forces per unit area by the area of the cell.

The bottom of a block is a polygon. Before discretization it is divided into trapeziums (triangles) by segments passing through its vertices and parallel to the Y axis. The discretization of these trapeziums (triangles) is performed in the same way as in the case of the fault segments. The small trapeziums (triangles) are also called "cells". For all the points of a cell the co-ordinates X, Y and the inelastic displacements x_a, y_a in (1) are assumed to be the same.

8. Earthquake and Creep

Let us introduce the quantity

$$\kappa = \frac{|\mathbf{f}|}{P - p_0} \quad (12)$$

where $\mathbf{f} = (f_t, f_l)$ is the vector of the elastic force per unit area given by (5), P is assumed equal for all the faults and can be interpreted as the difference between the lithostatic and the hydrostatic pressure, p_0 , given by (10), is the reaction force per unit area.

For each fault the following three values of κ are considered

$$B > H_f \geq H_s.$$

Let us assume that the initial conditions for the numerical simulation of block structure dynamics satisfy the inequality $\kappa < B$ for all the cells of the fault segments. If, at some time t_i , the value of κ in any cell of a fault segment reaches the level B , a failure ("earthquake") occurs. The failure is considered slippage during which the inelastic displacements δ_t, δ_l in this cell change abruptly to reduce the value of κ to the level H_f . Thus, the earthquakes occur in accordance with the dry friction model.

The new values of the inelastic displacements in the cell are calculated from

$$\delta_t^e = \delta_t + \gamma f_t, \quad \delta_l^e = \delta_l + \gamma f_l \quad (13)$$

where $\delta_t, \delta_l, f_t, f_l$ are the inelastic displacements and the components of the elastic force vector per unit area just before the failure. The coefficient γ is given by

$$\gamma = 1/K - PH_f/(K(|\mathbf{f}| + H_f \tan \alpha)). \quad (14)$$

It follows from (5), (10), and (12-14) that on obtaining the new values of the inelastic displacements the value of κ in the cell becomes equal to H_f .

After calculating the new values of the inelastic displacements for all the failed cells, the new components of the vector \mathbf{b} are calculated, and from the system of equations (11) the translation vectors and the angles of rotation for the blocks are found. If for some cell(s) of the fault segments $\kappa > B$, the procedure given above is repeated for this cell (or cells). Otherwise the state of the block structure at the time t_{i+1} is determined as follows: the translation vectors, the rotation angles (at t_{i+1}) for the boundary blocks and for the underlying medium, and the components of \mathbf{b} in equations (11) are calculated, and then equations (11) are solved.

The cells of the same fault plane where failure occurs at the same time form a single earthquake. The parameters of the earthquake are defined as follows:

- (i) the origin time is t_i ;
- (ii) the epicentral co-ordinates and the source depth are the weighted sums of the co-ordinates and depths of the cells included in the earthquake (the weight of each cell is given by its square divided by the sum of squares of all the cells included in the earthquake);
- (iii) the magnitude is calculated from
$$M = 0.98 \lg S + 3.93, \quad (15)$$
where S is the sum of the squares of the cells (in km^2) included in the earthquake and the values of coefficients are specified in accordance with *Utsu and Seki* (1954). *Wells and Coppersmith* (1994) updated the relationship between magnitude and rupture area and estimated the absolute term in (15) to be 4.07. Hence, if the updated relationship is employed in the model, earthquake magnitudes could be slightly higher.

It is assumed that the cells, in which a failure has occurred, are in the creep state immediately after the earthquake. It means that the parameter W_s ($W_s > W$) is used instead of W for these cells in (6) describing the evolution of inelastic displacements; W_s may be different for different fault planes. After each earthquake a cell is in the creep state as long as $\kappa > H_s$, whereas when $\kappa \leq H_s$, the cell returns to the normal state and henceforth the parameter W is used in (6) for this cell.

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