Accepted Manuscript

A New On-Land Seismogenic Structure Source Database by the Taiwan Earthquake Model (TEM) Project for Seismic Hazard Analysis of Taiwan

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Received 10 August 2015, revised 6 November 2015, accepted 27 November 2015

DOI: 10.3319/TAO.2015.11.27.02(TEM)

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ABSTRACT

Taiwan is located at an active plate boundary and is prone to earthquake hazards. To evaluate the seismic risk of the island, the Taiwan Earthquake Model (TEM) project, supported by the Ministry of Sciences and Technology, aims for obtaining earthquake hazard, risk, and related social and economic impact models of Taiwan through multidisciplinary collaborations. One of the major tasks of TEM is to construct a complete and updated seismogenic structure database for Taiwan to assess future seismic hazards. Toward this end, we have combined information from pre-existing databases and data obtained from new analyses to build an updated and digitized three-dimensional seismogenic structure map for Taiwan. 38 on-land active seismogenic structures are identified. Furthermore, for detailed information of individual structures such as their long-term slip rates and potential recurrence intervals, we have collected the data from existing publications, as well as calculated from results of our own field surveys and investigations. We hope this updated database would become a significant constraint for the calculations of seismic hazard assessments in Taiwan, and would provide important information for engineers and hazard mitigation agencies.

Keywords: Taiwan Earthquake Model (TEM), seismic hazard analysis, seismogenic structure, database, slip rates, recurrence intervals.

1. INTRODUCTION

The island of Taiwan is the result of the ongoing collision between the Eurasian and Philippine Sea plates (Fig. 1). Rapid rates of both horizontal and vertical deformation and an abundance of seismic activity amply demonstrate the current vigor of the orogeny. The 1999 Chi-Chi earthquake, with its unanticipated disastrous effects on population and infrastructure, focused much scientific and public attention on Taiwan and demonstrated the urgent need for a better understanding of the island's numerous other seismogenic structures and future earthquake hazards (e.g., Cheng et al., 2007, 2010). In order to obtain more information toward fulfilling this need, the integrated project of Taiwan Earthquake Model (TEM) has been carried out with a goal to put together information for seismic hazard assessment and risk management for the island. One of the most fundamental tasks of TEM is to construct an up-to-date database of seismogenic structures of Taiwan.

There have been several previous efforts to construct the active structure database of Taiwan (e.g., Shyu et al., 2005; Central Geological Survey, 2010). However, some of these databases include only active faults that produce observable offset at the surface, without structures that only produced tectonic geomorphic features but not yet ruptured the surface. Moreover, a seismogenic structure database for seismic hazard calculation needs many structural parameters. These parameters include physical characteristics of the structures such as their types and geometries, those obtained by geological investigations such as their slip rates, as well as calculated parameters related with the earthquakes they may produce, such as the earthquake magnitudes and average recurrence intervals. Since some of these parameters are difficult to obtain, a dataset with all parameters of the structures is still lacking.

Toward this end, we have reviewed pre-existing active structure databases and related reports in order to construct a more complete seismogenic structure database for Taiwan. For example, the Central Geological Survey (CGS) of Taiwan has investigated many active faults in Taiwan by a wide variety of methods, including outcrop mapping, trenches, seismic investigations, and the integration of historical documents. They have assembled these data to publish several versions of active fault maps of Taiwan (e.g., Chang et al., 1998; Lin et al., 2000; Central Geological Survey, 2010). These maps focus especially on faults that crop out at the surface, such as the Chelungpu fault that ruptured in 1999 and produced the Chi-Chi earthquake. The 1999 rupture, in fact, followed a pre-existing topographic scarp that can be identified even before the earthquake (e.g., Chen et al., 2002; Chang and Yang, 2004). Such phenomenon inspired Shyu et al. (2005) to review all geomorphic features in detail, and to produce a neotectonic map of Taiwan with the additional aid from geodetic and seismologic data. This dataset not only includes faults that crop out at the surface, but also considers structures that are blind but expressed geomorphically.

Several structural parameters are also reported in Shyu et al. (2005). For example, geometries of the structures are constrained either by seismic data or by the depth of an assumed brittle-ductile transition. These parameters can be further used to estimate the possible magnitude of earthquakes produced by these structures using empirical equations (e.g., Wells and Coppersmith, 1994). However, in order to calculate seismic hazard for TEM, more information is needed. The average recurrence interval of earthquake produced by the structure, for instance, is a key parameter for calculating seismic hazards. Such information may be obtained by paleoseismological investigations (e.g., Chen et al., 2007), but not all structures in Taiwan have been trenched. Alternatively, for structures with constrained long-term slip rates, the recurrence interval can be calculated from the slip rates and the average slip amount, which can be estimated from the earthquake magnitude or from empirical equations (e.g., Wells and Coppersmith, 1994).

Therefore, in this study, we have constructed a new seismogenic structure database by integrating and re-interpreting previous databases, and by combining previously published information for the structural parameters. For those without previous information, we provide our new estimations. Since the long-term slip rates for most of the structures are not well constrained previously, we have especially focused on the estimation of slip rates of structures from geomorphic and field investigations in this study. It is noteworthy that this result represents only an updated version of such dataset based on the most current knowledge. As pointed out by Shyu et al. (2005) in one of the earlier versions of such database, we by no means suggest that all seismogenic structures or related information are constrained and described in this dataset. Decades of additional work and regular updates would be necessary to accomplish such goals as new information becomes available. With these caveats in mind, we present in this study a first version of such database, and hope our results not only can provide important constraints for the seismic hazard calculations of TEM, but can also assist in future land-use and other planning programs in Taiwan.

2. FIELD INVESTIGATIONS

As long-term slip rates of many structures were not constrained previously, we have conducted intensive field investigations to obtain the structures' long-term slip rates. Such information can be applied further to calculate potential recurrence interval of earthquakes produced by each seismogenic structure. In fact, more than half of the structures included in this new database do not have any published slip rate or recurrence interval information. As a result, we utilize the topographic features of these structures to estimate reasonable long-term slip rates for them.

Many of the structures included in the database have produced distinctive deformation of young geomorphic surfaces, such as fluvial or marine terraces. Indeed, scarps that cut across widespread fluvial terraces are one of the fundamental features for the identification of active structures in Taiwan (e.g., Shih et al., 1984, 1986; Yang, 1986; Shyu et al., 2005). Such structural scarps can be distinguished from erosional terrace risers since the latter would generally follow the flow direction of the rivers, whereas scarps produced by active deformation can trend at an angle with the rivers and are generally parallel to the mountain front (Fig. 2). Once we obtain the amount of total deformation and the age of the deformed surface, we will be able to calculate a long-term deformation rate of the structure.

The amount of deformation is generally determined by the height of the structural scarp. This is based on the hypothesis that the two surfaces on both sides of the scarp have the same age. Therefore, we need to pay additional attention to exclude the possibility of later erosion of the upthrown side or deposition on the downthrown side. In cases such possibility cannot be excluded, the amount of deformation determined will be just the minimum. For the height of the scarps, we measured them both in the field by a laser range finder and from the Digital Elevation Model (DEM) with 5-m resolution. Both results are compared with each other, and we found that generally the measurements from DEM are higher than those obtained in the field. This is likely due to the fact that our measured length in the field was not long enough to cover the entire deformation zone. As a result, we used the data from DEM measurements for most of the structures, in order to obtain a more complete deformation amount of the structures.

The ages of the deformed surfaces are, however, much more difficult to determine.

Ideally, one would like to date all of those deformed terrace sediments to obtain their ages. However, in reality datable materials are difficult to come across in the field. More importantly, many of the older terraces in Taiwan are older than the upper limit of radiocarbon dating method (e.g., Chen, 1988; Lee et al., 1999; Ota et al., 2002; Shyu et al., 2006a), which is the most reliable and well-developed dating method.

It has been reported that in Taiwan, terraces with initial development of reddish, or lateritic, soil at their surface generally have ages about 30-40 ka, near the upper limit of radiocarbon dating method (e.g., Chen, 1988; Ota et al., 2002). The degree of lateritic development will increase as the terraces become older due to a longer period of weathering (e.g., Tsai et al., 2007). On the other hand, the best developed lateritic soil in Taiwan is present at the top surface of the Linkou Tableland (e.g., Lee et al., 1999; Fig. 1). This tableland is preserved on the upthrown side of a normal fault, and the oldest sediment on the downthrown side has been determined to be at least 400 kyr old (Wei et al., 1998). Based on the information above, we decided to categorize all fluvial terrace surfaces in Taiwan in order to provide a reasonable estimation of their ages. For lateritic terraces there are two categories. Those with less developed lateritic soil are assigned an age of 30-150 ka, and those with well-developed lateritic soil are assigned an age of 100-500 ka. For non-lateritic terraces there are also two categories. For those very young terraces without any soil development, an age of 1-5 ka is assigned. If there is some soil development at the surface but the color of the soil has not yet turned red, we assign an age of 5-25 ka for such terraces (Fig. 3). We have intentionally set a large error bar for these estimations, at 5 times of the youngest ages. This is a conservative approach based on current understandings, and will of course be improved as more information becomes available. Moreover, this would be the first systematic estimation for all terrace ages in Taiwan. Without such estimation, it would be impossible to reasonably calculate the seismic hazards of Taiwan, since sometimes unrealistic extreme values were also considered in some previous models.

3. SEISMOGENIC STRUCTURES OF TAIWAN AND THEIR PARAMETERS

After determining the slip rates of all structures, we are able to construct a new on-land seismogenic structure database for Taiwan, with all important structural parameters (Fig. 4 and Table 1). A more detailed structural parameter table and the ArcGIS shapefiles of all the structures are included in the supplementary files of this paper.

For the geometries of the structures, one of the fundamental parameters is the down-dip limit of each structure. In this study, we started by following the approach of Shyu et al. (2005) to estimate the depth of the brittle-ductile transition. As pointed out by Shyu et al. (2005), most of the rocks in the upper crust of Taiwan are quartz- and feldspar-rich sedimentary rocks. Since the brittle-plastic transition of quartz occurs at approximately 300°C (e.g., Kerrich et al., 1977; Tullis and Yund, 1977), and that of feldspar occurs at approximately 500°C (e.g., White, 1975; Tullis and Yund, 1977), Shyu et al. (2005) used a conservative depth of 15 km (~450°C) for the down-dip limit of most structures in Taiwan.

Some of the seismogenic structures in western Taiwan, however, do not seem to cut the crust to the depth of the brittle-ductile transition. Instead, many of them appear to stop at, or merge with a shallow detachment (e.g., Suppe, 1976, 1987; Carena et al., 2002). Therefore, for those structures that their seismogenic depths have been well illuminated either by published seismic investigation data or distribution patterns of seismicity, we used such better constrained information.

For other structures that may indeed extend to the brittle-ductile transition, we followed the temperature proposed by Shyu et al. (2005), but used new geothermal gradient data of Taiwan to calculate the actual depth of such temperature. Several new geothermal gradient datasets of Taiwan have become available in recent years, including one using the Curie point depth from magnetic data in Taiwan (Hsieh et al., 2014) and one using silica heat flow geothermometry from hot springs (Liu et al., 2015). The geothermal gradients proposed by Hsieh et al. (2014) appear to be higher, especially for the south and southeastern part of Taiwan. As a result, the depths of the brittle-ductile transition calculated using this dataset are shallower than 10 km for almost all structures in Taiwan. This appears to be inconsistent with the observation of numerous seismicity in Taiwan below the depths of 10 km (e.g., Wu et al., 1997; Rau and Wu, 1998). Therefore, we decided to calculate the depths of the brittle-ductile transition in Taiwan using the dataset proposed by Liu et al. (2015), which yielded results generally between 10 and 15 km (see the detailed structural parameter table in the supplementary files). Since the contours of geothermal gradient shown in Liu et al. (2015) have an interval of 3.75°C and most of the structures are located in areas with geothermal gradient between 30 and 45 °C/km, the seismogenic depth calculated in this study would have error bars in the range of ~1 to 1.5 km.

After we obtained the seismogenic depth of each structure, we then construct the general geometries of the structures. These geometries were further checked for any possible conflicts using our 3-dimentional structural model described below.

The moment magnitudes (M_W) of earthquakes likely produced by these structures were calculated using published regression results from Wells and Coppersmith (1994), and we can further use this information to obtain the average slip per earthquake event through the calculation of the seismic moment. Finally, the average recurrence intervals of such earthquakes were calculated from the average slip per event and the slip rates of the structures.

In this new seismogenic structure database, 38 structures were identified. The following is the general information of each structure:

1. The Shanchiao fault is located near the Taipei City with a length of 53.4 km. It is a listric fault, with a dip of 60° between 0-7 km deep and 45° from 7 to 10 km deep. Then it dips at 30° to a depth of 13.8 km. The vertical deformation rate is 2.25 mm/yr from Huang et al. (2007), and we calculated a slip rate of 1.85 ± 0.76 mm/yr in this study based on the estimation of the age of the Linkou Tableland on its upthrown side.
2. The Shuanglienpo structure is near Taoyuan with a length of 9.0 km. Its dip is 45° until 3 km deep then becomes 15° to a depth of 5 km. Its slip rate is estimated at 0.25 ± 0.17 mm/yr in this study.
3. The Yangmei structure is southeast of the Shuanlienpo structure, and its length is 21.7 km. It dips 60° and extends to a depth of 3 km. We estimated its slip rate at 0.38 ± 0.26 mm/yr.
4. The Hukou fault is parallel to the Yangmei structure. This fault is 25.8 km in length, dips at 30°, and extends to 10 km deep. In previous studies, the slip rate was estimated at 1.65 ± 0.15 mm/yr based on a 50 m scarp height and an age of 60.9 ± 5.5 ka of the deformed terrace (Shen et al., 2005; Chen et al., 2006). We estimated a slip rate of 1.16 ± 0.84 mm/yr in this study.
5. The Fengshan river strike-slip structure is a structure that appears to cut the Hukou fault. The length of this structure is 30.4 km, and we propose a dip of 80° for the structure, with a depth of 13.9 km. We estimated its slip rate at 3.61 ± 2.41 mm/yr.
6. The Hsinchu fault is located near the downtown of Hsinchu. The depth of the

fault is 10 km with a 45° dip, and its length is 12.6 km. A slip rate of 0.45 mm/yr is reported previously (Chen et al., 2004), and we estimated at 0.70 ± 0.46 mm/yr in this study.

7. The Hsincheng fault is another important structure in the Hsinchu area. It is 13.0 km in length, dips at 30°, and extends to 12.9 km. Previous reported slip rates of the fault include 0.7-1.6 mm/yr (Shih et al., 2003) or 1.075 ± 0.025 mm/yr based on optically stimulated luminescence (OSL) ages of deformed terraces (W.-S. Chen et al., 2003). We estimated a slip rate of 1.08 ± 0.72 mm/yr for the fault.
8. The Hsinchu frontal structure is near the coastline of the Hsinchu area. Its length is 10.4 km, dip is 30°, and it extends to 10.0 km deep. In this study, we obtained a slip rate of 2.80 ± 1.86 mm/yr.
9. The Touhuanping structure is in the Miaoli area, and its length is 24.8 km. It dips at 85° and extends to a depth of 12.0 km. We calculated a slip rate of 0.13 mm/yr based on a published age constraint of the deformed terraces (Ota et al., 2009).
10. The Miaoli frontal structure is near the coastline of the Miaoli area. Its length is 20.8 km, dip is 30°, and it extends to a depth of 10.0 km. In this study, we obtained a slip rate of 3.60 ± 2.40 mm/yr.
11. The Tunglo structure is a north-south striking structure in the Miaoli area. The depth of the down-dip limit of this structure is 3.5 km, with the dip of the structure at 30° and the length at 11.1 km. The slip rate is estimated at 1.08 ± 0.72 mm/yr in this study.
12. The East Miaoli structure is another north-south striking structure in the Miaoli area. It dips at 30° with a length of 14.1 km. We calculated a slip rate of 1.60 ± 1.06 mm/yr for this structure.
13. The Shihtan fault is the seismogenic fault of the M7.1 Hsinchu-Taichung

earthquake in 1935 (Hayasaka, 1935; Otuka, 1936). The length of the fault is 28.6 km. The fault dips at 75° to a depth of 10.8 km. According to our estimation, the slip rate of the fault is 1.86 ± 1.24 mm/yr.

14. The Sanyi fault is also in the Miaoli area. The geometry of this fault include a length of 27.2 km, a dip of 15°, and a down-dip limit at 9.0 km deep. In this study, the slip rate is estimated at 1.86 ± 1.23 mm/yr.
15. The Tuntzuchiao fault is also related with the Hsinchu-Taichung earthquake in 1935 (Otuka, 1936). It has a length of 25.1 km. We speculated an 85° dipping of the fault that extend to a depth of 14.8 km. From these data, we estimated its slip rate at 1.00 ± 0.68 mm/yr.
16. The Changhua fault is located along the front of a series of tablelands in central Taiwan. It is also a listric fault, with a dip of 45° from 0 to 3 km deep, 30° from 3 to 5 km deep, and finally 10° from 5 to 12.00 km deep. Previous estimated slip rates of this fault include 6.18 ± 0.10 mm/yr constrained by uplifted terraces (Ota et al., 2002) and 1.7-10.3 mm/yr from borehole data (Chen et al., 2008a). In this study, its slip rate is estimated at 3.40 ± 2.26 mm/yr.
17. The Chelungpu fault is one of the best known faults in Taiwan, since it is the seismogenic fault of the 1999 Chi-Chi earthquake. We have used information obtained from many previous studies of the fault in this database.
18. The Tamaopu-Shuangtung fault is sub-parallel to the Chelungpu fault and to its east. The length of the fault is 68.7 km. It dips at 30° and extends to a depth of 6.0 km. We estimated its slip rate at 2.00 ± 1.34 mm/yr.
19. The Chiuchiungkeng fault is at the boundary between the hills and the coastal plain in the Chiayi area. The slip rates were reported between 0.28 and 13.7 mm/yr in previous studies (Chen et al., 2006; Lin et al., 2007). Its length is 32.9 km and it dips at 30° to a depth of 12.0 km. The slip rate is estimated at 7.20 ±

4.80 mm/yr in this study.

20. The length of the Meishan fault is 24.0 km. Rupture of this fault produced a M7.1 earthquake in 1906 (Omori, 1907). Its dip is 85° to a depth of 14.7 km. We estimated a slip rate of 2.51 mm/yr in this study.
21. The Chiayi frontal structure is a blind fault beneath the coastal plain of the Chiayi and Tainan areas. The length of this structure is 44.3 km, with a dipping angle of 15° to a depth of 12.0 km. The slip rate of this structure is estimated at 6.49 ± 4.33 mm/yr.
22. The Muchiliao-Liuchia fault is also at the front of the hills in the Chiayi and Tainan areas. The length of the fault is 24.9 km, and the dip is 30°. Previous reported slip rate of the fault is between 4.7 and 12.78 mm/yr (Yang et al., 2005; Chen, 2006; Du, 2013). We calculated its slip rate at 5.75 ± 1.35 mm/yr.
23. The Chungchou structure is east of the Tainan City. Its length is 29.7 km, its dip is 30°, and the structure extends to a depth of 12.0 km. Chen and Liu (2000) and Chen (2010) used borehole data to calculate the uplift rate of the upthrown side of this structure, and their results are between 5 and 8 mm/yr. In this study, we have thus calculated its slip rate at 12.20 ± 0.60 mm/yr.
24. The Hsinhua fault is near the Chungchou structure, and rupture of this fault produced the M6.3 earthquake in 1946 (Chang et al., 1947; Bonilla, 1977). Its length is 14.1 km, and it dips at 85° to a depth of 15 km. The uplift rate of the upthrown side has been reported at 0.8-4.5 mm/yr (Chen et al., 2011), and we estimated a slip rate of 2.65 ± 1.85 mm/yr for this fault in this study.
25. The Houchiali fault is in the Tainan City proper with a length of 11.5 km. It dips at 45° and extends to 5.0 km deep. Based on borehole data, Chen and Liu (2000) obtained an uplift rate of its upthrown side at 6 mm/yr. Thus we estimated a slip rate of 8.49 mm/yr for this fault in this study.

26. The Chishan fault is southeast of Tainan. This fault is 34.8 km in length, dips at 75°, and extends to a depth of 10.8 km. Whereas Chen et al. (2012) estimated a slip rate of 0.75 ± 0.25 mm/yr for this fault, in this study we calculated its slip rate at 1.10 ± 0.36 mm/yr.
27. The Hisaokangshan fault is west of the Chishan fault. It is likely dipping at 30° to a depth of 7.0 km. Chen et al. (2008b) reported that the fault has a slip rate of 6.2 ± 0.8 mm/yr. In this study, its slip rate is estimated at 3.30 ± 2.20 mm/yr.
28. The Kaoping River structure is identified by a linear scarp at the western side of the Kaoping River. Its length is 29.2 km, and it dips at 75° to a depth of 12.3 km. The slip rate that we calculated is 0.61 ± 0.41 mm/yr.
29. The Chaochou fault at the eastern side of the Pingtung Plain forms the boundary between the southern Central Range and the plain. The length of this fault is 79.6 km. It dips at 75° and extends to a depth of 11.1 km. The slip rate of the fault is estimated at 1.76 ± 1.17 in this study.
30. The Hengchun fault is one of the southernmost structures in Taiwan. The length of this fault is 37.2 km, and the fault dips at 75° and extends to a depth of 15.0 km. Based on the dating result of marine terraces, Chen et al. (2010) calculated an uplift rate of 4.2 ± 0.2 mm/yr for the upthrown side of the fault. Thus we estimated its slip rate at 6.15 ± 0.29 mm/yr.
31. The Hengchun offshore structure is to the west of the Hengchun fault. It dips at 30° and extends to a depth of 4.0 km. The length of this structure is 14.5 km, and the slip rate is estimated at 3.65 ± 1.11 mm/yr in this study.
32. The Milun fault in eastern Taiwan is near the Hualien City. Rupture of this fault produced the M7.3 earthquake in October 1951 (Yang, 1953; Hsu, 1962). This fault has a length of 21.3 km, and it dips at 75° to 10.0 km deep. Chen (2013) calculated an uplift rate of 6.93 ± 0.03 mm/yr of its upthrown side based

on U-Th dating results of corals found in uplifted marine terraces. Thus we estimated a slip rate of 10.15 ± 0.04 mm/yr for the fault in this study.

33. The Longitudinal Valley fault is an important structure in eastern Taiwan, and forms the eastern boundary of the Longitudinal Valley. This fault is related with several historical earthquakes in eastern Taiwan, including the M7.0 earthquake series in November 1951 (Hsu, 1962; Cheng et al., 1996; Shyu et al., 2007). Seismicity of this fault also illuminated that it has a listric shape, dipping at 75° to a depth of 5.0 km, 60° between 5.0 and 15.0 km deep, and finally 45° to a depth of 20.0 km. Several previous studies reported that the slip rate of the fault is between 20.5 and 32 mm/yr (Shyu et al., 2006b, 2008; Chen, 2006, 2010). However, this fault is also known for its aseismic creeping (e.g., Angelier et al., 1997; Lee et al., 2001). After considering its creeping rate, we estimated a slip rate of 11.35 ± 5.75 mm/yr for the fault in this study.
34. The Central Range structure is located at the western edge of the Longitudinal Valley. It is 85.5 km long, dips at 45° to a depth of 20 km. We estimated a slip rate of 7.28 ± 1.77 mm/yr in this study, based on published uplift rate estimations of its upthrown side (Shyu et al., 2006a).
35. The Luyeh Fault is located near the southern end of the Longitudinal Valley. With a length of 17.5 km, the fault dips at 45° to a depth of 2.0 km, then dips at 30° to a depth of 4.0 km. Based on the ages of deformed terraces, it has been reported that the upthrown side of the fault has an uplift rate of 4.5 mm/yr (Shyu et al., 2008), and the fault has a slip rate of 5.4 mm/yr (Chen, 2010). We estimated a slip rate of 6.34 ± 0.17 mm/yr for the fault in this study.
36. The Taimali coastline structure is along the coastline in southeastern Taiwan. Its length is 42.6 km, and the structure dips at 75° to a depth of 10.6 km. The slip rate of this structure is estimated at 7.32 ± 1.46 mm/yr in this study.

37. We propose two structures bounding both side of the Ilan Plain in northeastern Taiwan. The one in the north is the Northern Ilan structure, with a length of 60.5 km. It dips at 60° to a depth of 9.4 km. Based on borehole data, Su (2011) reported the vertical separation rate of this structure is 0.90-4.80 mm/yr. We used this information to obtain a slip rate of 3.29 ± 2.25 mm/yr for this structure in this study.
38. South of the Ilan Plain is the Southern Ilan structure, with a length of 20.6 km. It dips at 60° to a depth of 11.3 km. We estimated its slip rate at 5.48 ± 0.64 mm/yr based on the borehole data reported in Su (2011).

4. 3-DIMENSIONAL SUBSURFACE MODEL OF THE STRUCTURES

In order to check for geometrical conflicts and to visualize the subsurface geometry of the seismogenic structures, we also constructed a three-dimensional subsurface model for these structures (Fig. 5). Furthermore, for structures that lack good depth constraints, the 3-D model also enabled us to estimate their proper down-dip limit. For example, some structures are proposed to originate from a single décollement, either as branches or as a thrust-backthrust system. The 3-D model would help us verify if such systems indeed merge at depth. For structures that are listric and have dipping angles changing at depth, the 3-D model is also helpful for visualizing such changes, as shown by the Changhua fault in Fig. 6. Similar characteristic is also found in the Shanchiao fault and the Longitudinal Valley fault.

This 3-D structural model is useful for the calculation of seismic hazards, since the distance-to-fault-plane data would be better constrained using such a model. The detailed datasets of this 3-D seismogenic structural model of Taiwan is included as a supplementary file of this paper.

5. DISCUSSION

As the first attempt to construct a complete seismogenic structure database by the TEM project, we have combined most of previously published structural parameters in the database. However, many of the parameters, especially the slip rates of the structures, have not yet been well constrained. As a result, we have also estimated the slip rates of structures based on our field investigations. Since many of the ages of deformed surfaces are unknown, we used a conservative approach to estimate those ages. This can be improved significantly as new information becomes available. For example, other dating methods such as OSL and cosmogenic nuclides (e.g., Y.-G. Chen et al., 2003; Siame et al., 2012) can be applied to determine the ages of older terraces. Such new data will lower the error bar of the age estimates, and will improve the precision of structural slip rates and average earthquake recurrence intervals.

Another issue of the structural slip rates is related to strike-slip structures. Most of the long-term slip rates were determined by vertical offset observed either in borehole data (e.g., Chen et al., 2008a) or by the deformation of surfaces (e.g., Shyu et al., 2008). However, the horizontal offsets by strike-slip structures are difficult to observe. A strike-slip offset of terrace risers helped us constrain the long-term slip rate of the Touhuanping structure (Ota et al., 2009), but many other pure strike-slip structures, such as the Meishan fault and the Hsinhua fault (Chen et al., 2011, 2013), lack such piercing points. More detailed investigations are needed to solve this issue in the future.

This seismogenic structure database is constructed on the basis of the structures' geomorphic manifestations. Therefore, for structures that do not have any topographic features, we were unable to identify and include them in this database. During the past several years, however, several moderate earthquakes occurred on previously unidentified blind faults. A well-known example is the Mw 6.3 Jiasian earthquake that occurred on 4 March 2010, whose seismogenic structure appears to extend below 10 km deep and does not extend to the surface (Huang et al., 2011). A challenge for future versions of seismogenic structure databases would be how to identify and consider such blind structures.

In this study, we have mostly followed the results of Shyu et al. (2005) in the identification of active seismogenic structures. Although several other studies have proposed a few additional structures as active seismogenic structures, most of these structures do not show obvious geomorphic features. However, this may also indicate that these structures are slipping at lower rates than the rates of erosion or sedimentation, thus the deformation features have been obliterated or covered. Any ongoing or future efforts to update the seismogenic structure databases would need to focus on such structures, in order to further understand their current activities.

With all these caveats in mind, we have constructed the first version of a complete seismogenic structure database for Taiwan, with all structural parameters. This information has already been utilized as the seismogenic source model to calculate a first version of probabilistic seismic hazard analysis of Taiwan (Wang et al., submitted to this issue). As more data become available either through the ongoing TEM and other scientific research projects or as regular updating efforts by the government agencies, we hope the database will continue to improve, and provide better constraints for future seismic hazard assessments for Taiwan.

6. CONCLUSIONS

As part of the team effort of the Taiwan Earthquake Model project, we have combined previously published information and our field investigation results to construct a first complete on-land seismogenic structure database of Taiwan, with all structural parameters. 38 structures were identified in this study. We have also constructed a 3-D subsurface structural model for the visualization of these structures. Such information will be useful for the calculation of seismic hazards of Taiwan. As more data become available, we hope the database will continue to improve and provide better constraints for future seismic hazard assessments for Taiwan.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We are grateful for the valuable comments from and discussion with C.-H. Chan, S.-N. Cheng, K.-E. Ching, Y.-T. Lee, K.-F. Ma, R.-J. Rau, Y.-R. Wang and K.-L. Wen. Numerous previous efforts organized and supported by the Central Geological Survey (CGS) of Taiwan have provided valuable input datasets for this research. The comments and suggestions from three anonymous reviewers greatly helped us improve this manuscript. This research is supported by the Ministry of Science and Technology (MOST) of Taiwan (Project 101-2119-M-008-023, 102-2119-M-006-010, and 104-2119-M-006-007 as the TEM project, and 102-2628-M-002-007-MY3 to J.B.H.S.).

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FIGURE CAPTIONS

Figure 1. Major tectonic elements of the island of Taiwan. A, Western Foothills; B, Hsueshan Range; C, Central Range and Hengchun Peninsula; D, Longitudinal Valley; E, Coastal Range; F, western Taiwan coastal plains; G, Pingtung Plain; H, Ilan Plain; LkT, Linkou Tableland; KpR, Kaoping River.

Figure 2. The formation of a fault scarp. (a) If a fault has not moved for an extended period of time, erosional and sedimentary processes may have eliminate all previous topographic features of the fault. (b) However, if a fault moved recently, a fault scarp will be present next to the uplifted flood plain.

Figure 3. Our classification of soils on the terraces. (a) The degree of lateritic development will increase as the terraces become older due to a longer period of weathering. (b) An outcrop of a typical 1-5 kyr old terrace. (c) An outcrop of a typical 5-25 kyr old terrace. (d) An outcrop of a typical 30-150 kyr old terrace. (e) An outcrop of a typical 100-500 kyr old terrace. See text for more discussion.

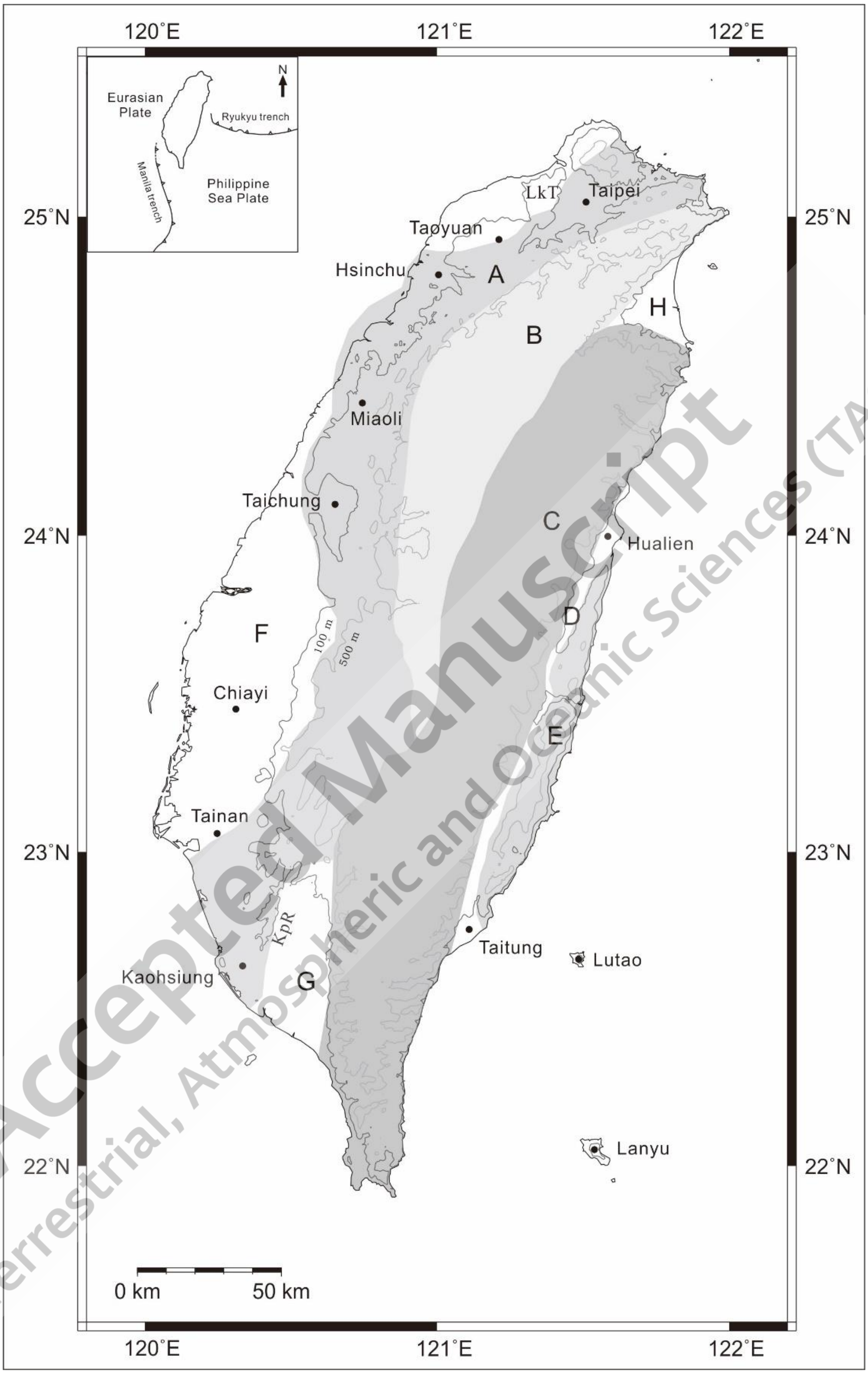
Figure 4. Map of major seismogenic structures of Taiwan. The blue lines show the 38 structures in Taiwan.

Figure 5. Figures showing three-dimensional structural geometries below the surface. The geometries of the 38 structures are shown as colored polygons in the 3-D model, and the background is the topography of Taiwan. The structural geometries are constrained mostly by seismic data from the Chinese Petroleum

Corporation (CPC), Taiwan, as well as the geothermal gradient data from Liu et al. (2015). Numbers correspond to the structure number in Fig. 4 and Table 1, and colors of the patches represent structures in different areas of Taiwan.

Figure 6. The geometry of the listric Changhua fault. The Changhua fault is listric based on previous studies, thus it is constructed using 3 segments of surfaces (between 0-3 km deep, 3-5 km deep, and 5-12 km deep) to show the varied dipping angle at different depths. Such approach is also applied to several other structures, such as the Shanchiao fault.

Table 1. The structural parameters of all seismogenic structures.



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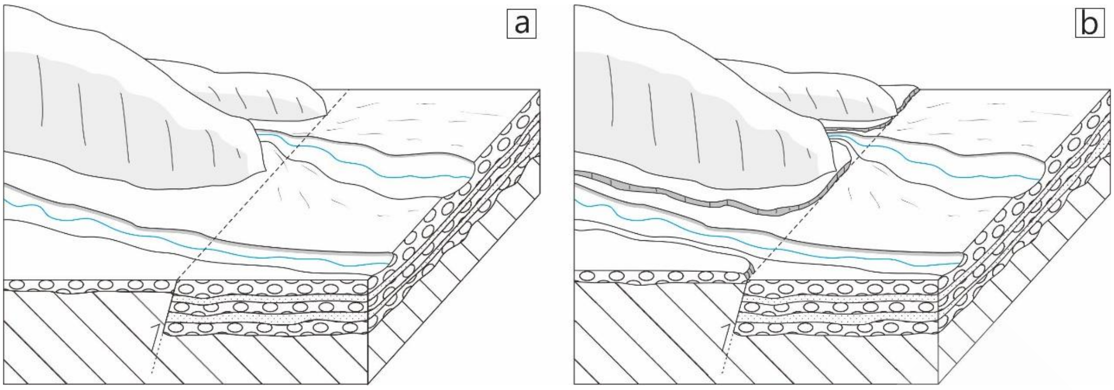

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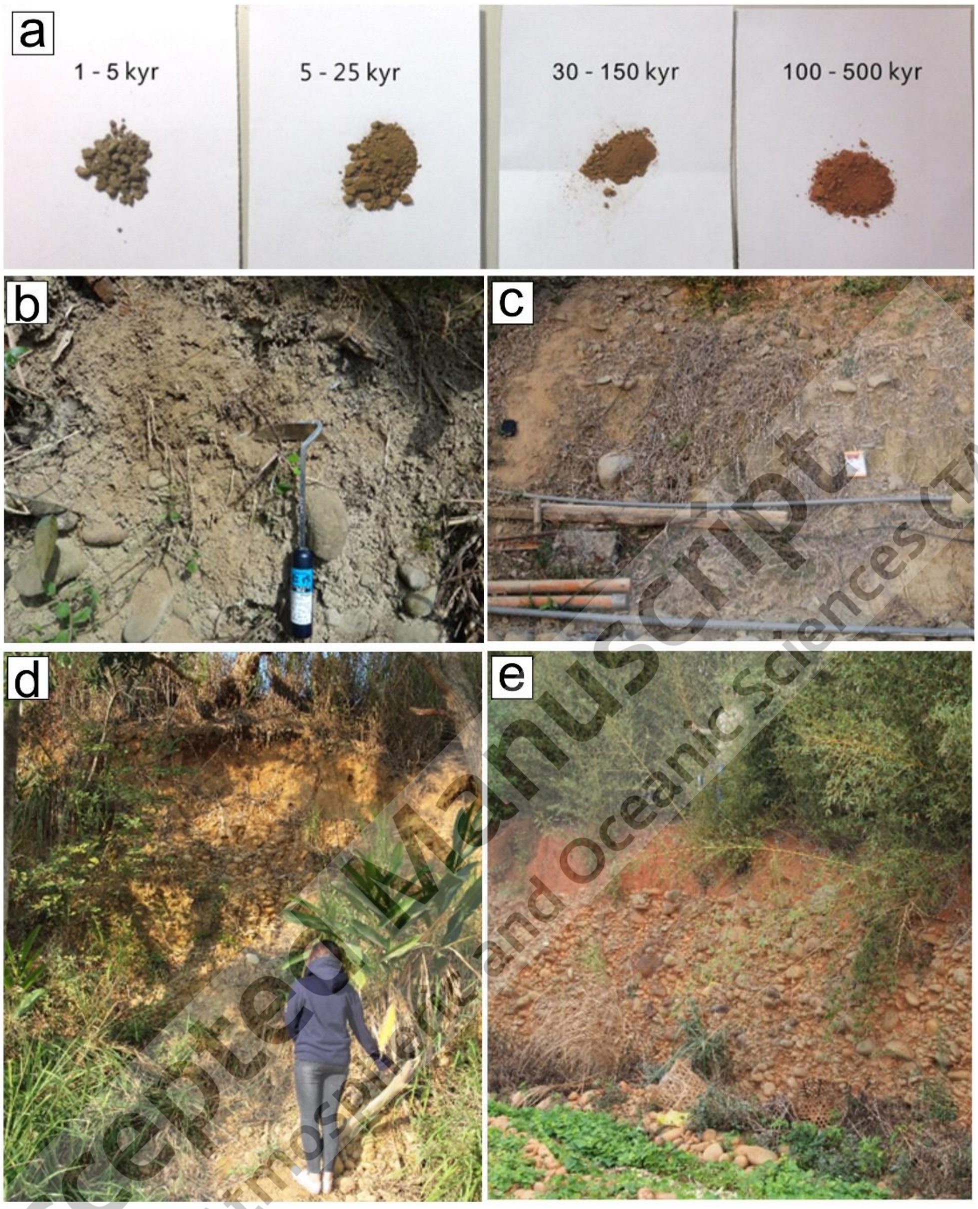

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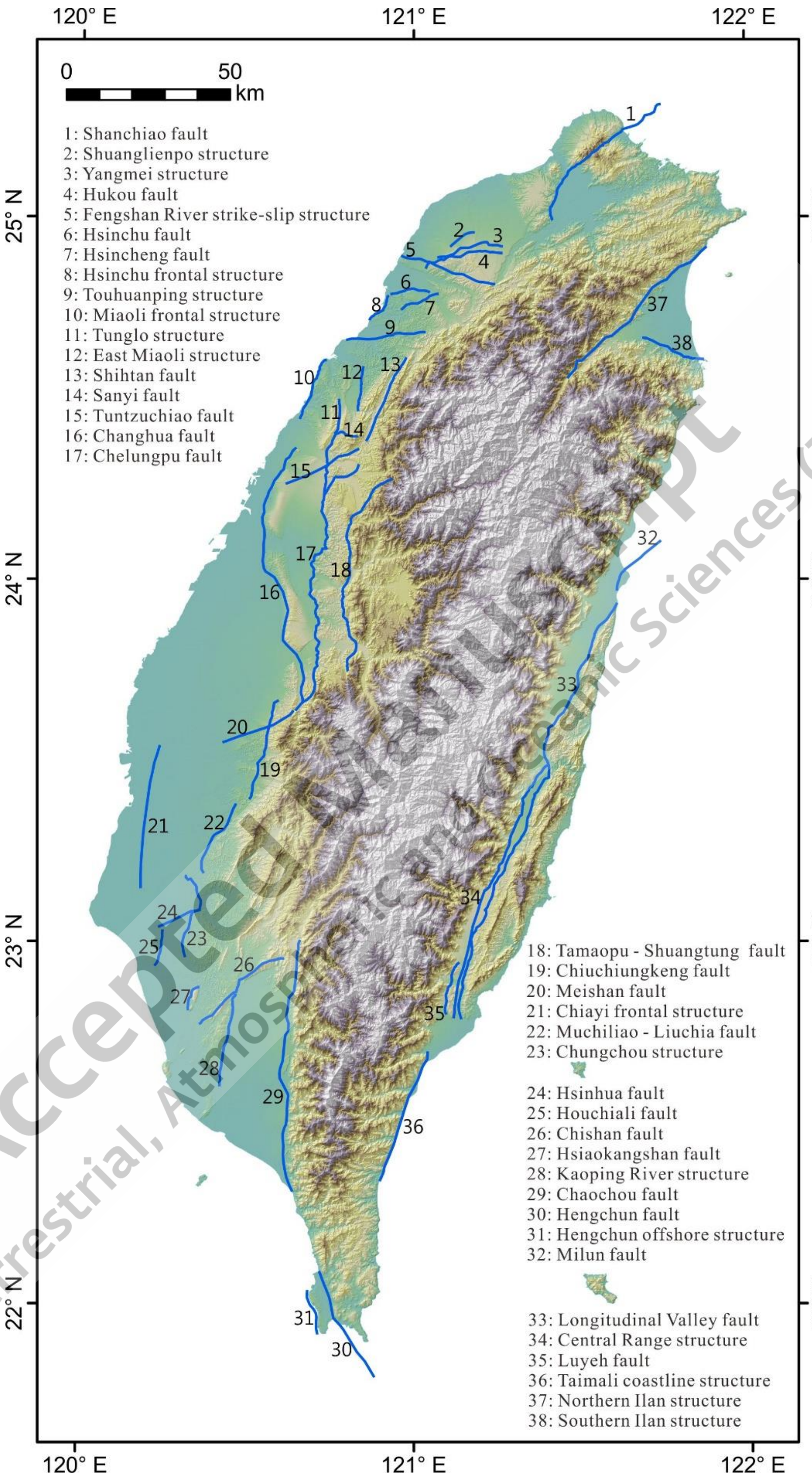

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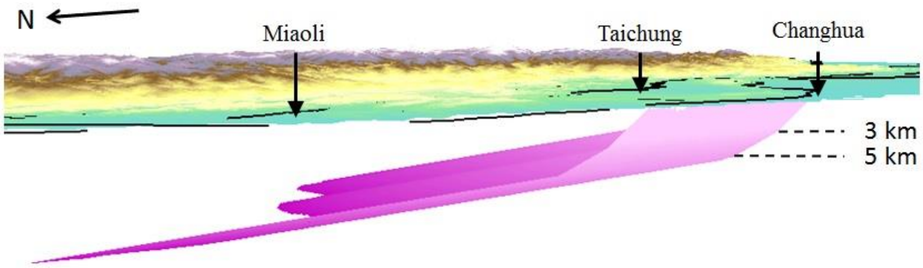

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Table 1. The structural parameters of all seismogenic structures.

No.	Fault Name	Type[#a]	Length (km)	Width[#b] (km)	Area[#c] (km^2)	M_W[#d]	Displacement[#e] (m)	Slip rate[#f] (mm/yr)	Recurrence Interval[#g] (yr)
1	Shanchiao fault	N	53.40	19.84	1059.46	7.02	1.33	1.85 ± 0.76	510 – 1220
2	Shuanglienpo structure	R	9.00	11.97	107.73	6.16	0.67	0.25 ± 0.17	1600 – 8380
3	Yangmei structure	R	21.70	3.46	75.08	6.02	0.59	0.38 ± 0.26	920 – 4540
4	Hukou fault	R	25.80	20.00	516.00	6.77	1.15	1.16 ± 0.84	580 – 3600
5	Fengshan River strike-slip structure	SS	30.40	13.90	422.56	6.66	0.96	3.61 ± 2.41	160 – 800
6	Hsinchu fault	R	12.60	14.14	178.16	6.36	0.81	0.70 ± 0.46	690 – 3380
7	Hsincheng fault	R	13.00	25.71	334.23	6.60	0.99	1.80 ± 1.20	330 – 1650
8	Hsinchu frontal structure	R	10.40	20.00	208.00	6.42	0.85	2.80 ± 1.86	180 – 900
9	Touhuanping structure	SS	24.80	12.05	298.84	6.50	0.78	0.14	5570
10	Miaoli frontal structure	R	20.80	20.00	416.00	6.69	1.08	3.60 ± 2.40	180 – 900
11	Tunglo structure	R	11.10	7.00	77.70	6.03	0.59	1.08 ± 0.72	330 – 1640
12	East Miaoli structure	R	14.10	8.00	112.80	6.18	0.69	1.60 ± 1.06	260 – 1280
13	Shihtan fault	R	28.60	11.18	319.75	6.58	0.96	1.86 ± 1.24	310 – 1550
14	Sanyi fault	R	27.20	34.77	945.74	7.01	1.44	1.86 ± 1.23	470 – 2320
15	Tuntzuchiao fault	SS	25.10	14.85	372.74	6.60	0.88	1.00 ± 0.68	520 – 2670
16	Changhua fault	R	86.10	48.55	4180.15	7.59	2.41	3.40 ± 2.26	430 – 2130
17	Chelungpu fault	R	92.00	46.36	4265.12	7.60	2.44	6.94	350
18	Tamaopu - Shuangtung fault	R	68.70	12.00	824.40	6.95	1.34	2.00 ± 1.34	400 – 2030

19	Chiuchiungkeng fault	R	32.90	24.00	789.60	6.94	1.35	7.20 ± 4.80	110 – 560
20	Meishan fault	SS	24.00	14.75	354.00	6.58	0.87	2.51	350
21	Chiayi frontal structure	R	44.30	46.36	2053.75	7.31	1.86	6.49 ± 4.33	170 – 860
22	Muchiliao - Liuchia fault	R	24.90	24.00	597.60	6.83	1.22	5.75 ± 1.35	170 – 280
23	Chungchou structure	R	29.70	24.00	712.80	6.90	1.30	12.20 ± 0.60	100 – 110
24	Hsinhua fault	SS	14.10	15.06	212.35	6.35	0.65	2.65 ± 1.85	140 – 810
25	Houchiali fault	R	11.50	7.07	81.31	6.05	0.61	7.07	86
26	Chishan fault	SS/R	34.80	11.18	389.06	6.62	0.91	1.10 ± 0.36	620 – 1250
27	Hsiaokangshan fault	R	9.00	14.00	126.00	6.22	0.70	3.30 ± 2.20	130 – 640
28	Kaoping River structure	SS/R	29.20	12.71	371.13	6.60	0.89	0.61 ± 0.41	870 – 4450
29	Chaochou fault	SS/R	79.60	11.50	915.40	7.00	1.43	1.76 ± 1.17	490 – 2420
30	Hengchun fault	SS/R	37.20	15.53	577.72	6.80	1.14	6.15 ± 0.29	180 – 200
31	Hengchun offshore structure	R	14.50	8.00	116.00	6.19	0.69	3.65 ± 1.11	140 – 270
32	Milun fault	SS/R	21.30	10.35	220.46	6.37	0.68	10.15 ± 0.04	70
33	Longitudinal Valley fault	R/SS	143.10	23.79	3404.35	7.51	2.24	11.35 ± 5.75	130 – 400
34	Central Range structure	R	85.50	28.28	2417.94	7.38	2.02	7.28 ± 1.77	220 – 370
35	Luyeh fault	R	17.50	6.83	119.52	6.20	0.69	6.34 ± 0.17	110
36	Taimali coastline structure	R/SS	42.60	10.93	465.62	6.73	1.11	7.32 ± 1.46	130 – 190
37	Northern Ilan structure	N	60.50	10.87	657.64	6.80	1.00	3.29 ± 2.25	180 – 960
38	Southern Ilan structure	N	20.60	12.99	267.59	6.41	0.64	5.48 ± 0.64	100 – 130

#a: R: reverse fault; SS: strike-slip fault; N: normal fault; SS/R: strike-slip dominated fault with minor reverse motion; R/SS: reverse dominated fault with minor strike-slip motion.

#b: Width equals to down-dip limit divided by the sine value of fault dip.

#c: Area of fault rupture equals to the Length times the Width.

#d: The moment magnitudes were calculated using the following equations: for reverse faults and reverse dominated faults, $M_w = 4.33 + 0.90 * \log \text{Area}$; for strike-slip faults and strike-slip dominated fault, $M_w = 3.98 + 1.02 * \log A$; for normal faults, $M_w = 3.93 + 1.02 * \log A$ (Wells and Coppersmith, 1994).

#e: The average displacement (D) per event was calculated using the equation $M_o = \mu AD$, where μ equals $3*10^{11}$ dyne/cm^2, A is the rupture area in #c, M_o was calculated from M_w by equation: $M_w = 2/3 \text{ Log } M_o - 10.73$.

#f: Slip rate is obtained from field investigations or previous studies. We measured the age and the vertical deformation amount of terraces to calculate the vertical deformation rate, and then calculated the slip rate (along the dip direction) by dividing the vertical deformation rate by the sine value of fault dip. For structures with multiple dip angles such as Shanchiao, Shuanglienpo, Changhua, Longitudinal Valley and Luyeh, the slip rates were calculated using the dip angle closest to the surface. For SS/R and R/SS structures, we assumed a 45° rake, thus the net slip rate would be $\sqrt{2}$ times of the rate along the dip direction. For the Longitudinal Valley fault, we assume that the aseismic creeping rate is up to 3/4 of its total slip rate, thus we only used 1/4 - 3/4 of its total slip rate in the calculation.

#g: Recurrence interval equals Displacement divided by Slip rate.