



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

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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 infrasonid signatures related to this event were observed by four infrasonid
20 arrays of the International Monitoring System of the Comprehensive Nuclear-Test-Ban Treaty
21 Organization as well as one national infrasonid station in Singapore. Although these infrasonid
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 infrasonid 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 infrasonid arrays.

27 A detailed study of the event-related observations and the potential infrasonid generation
28 mechanisms is presented covering range- and time-dependent infrasonid 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 infrasonid receivers to potential source regions. The back-projection of infrasonic arrivals allows to
32 estimate that the main infrasonid 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 infrasonid emission.

36

37 Keywords

38 Infrasonid; 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 (Mw) 9.3 Sumatra-Andaman earthquake and various
 46 other events with Mw 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 Mw
 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 Mw 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.

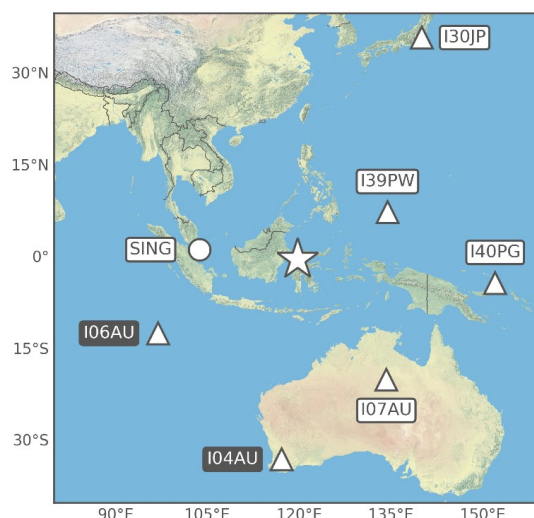
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98 2. Data and Methods

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.

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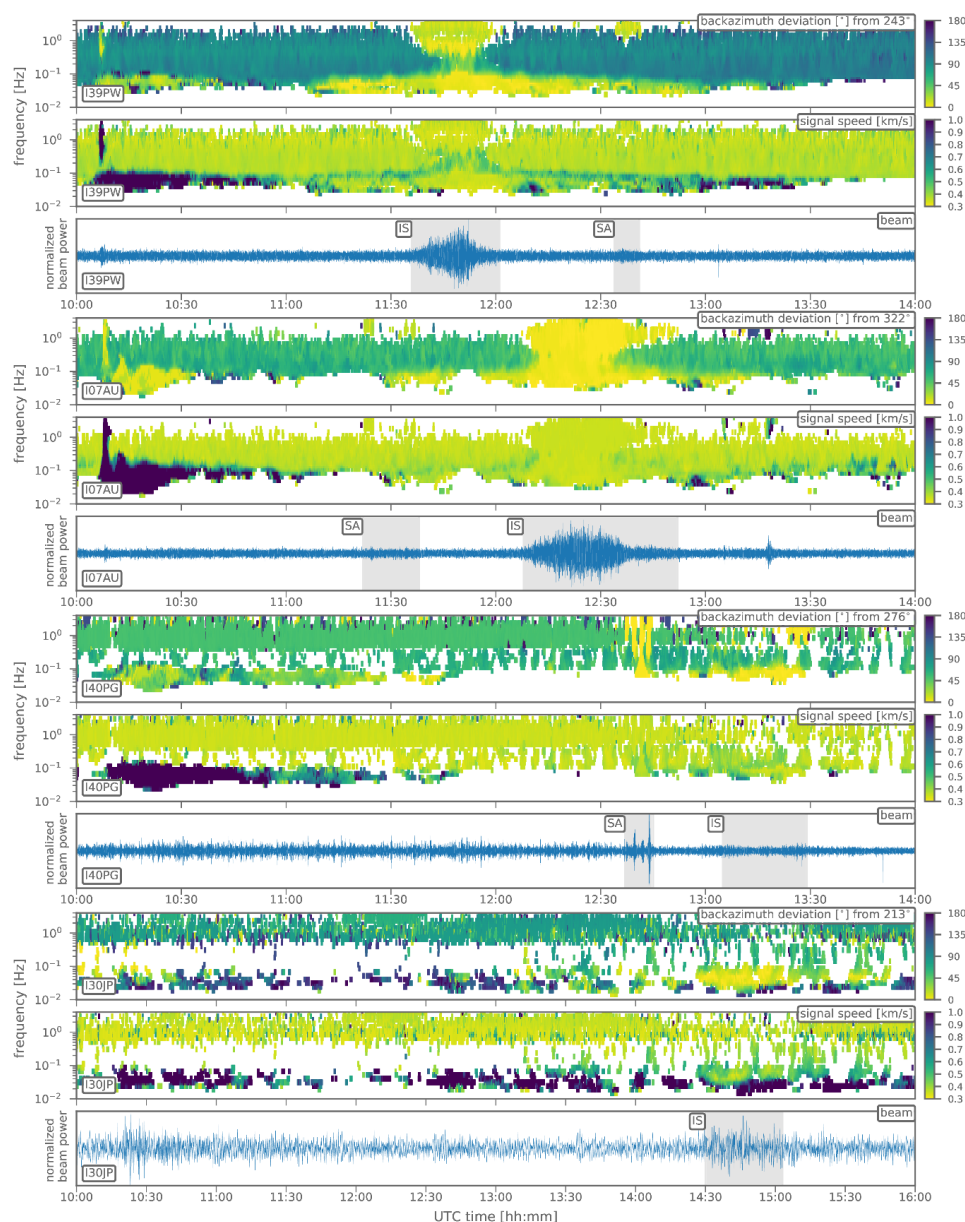
3. Observations

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

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

Table 1: Findings from the observations of five infrasound stations and from theoretical distance-azimuth calculations to the Sulawesi epicenter. Main signals are labeled with “IS” (infrasound), 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



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.

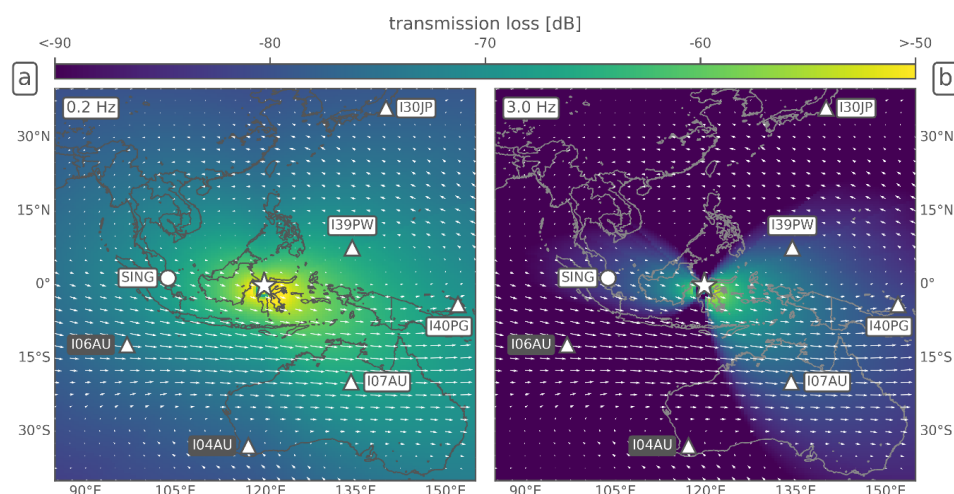


Fig 3: Attenuation map quantifying the acoustic pressure loss in dB (color-coded), calculated for (a) 0.2 Hz and (b) 3 Hz source frequencies on a 0.5° x 0.5° grid. Arrows show direction and intensity of the stratospheric wind field averaged between 30 and 60 km for the 28th of September 2018. The largest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

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

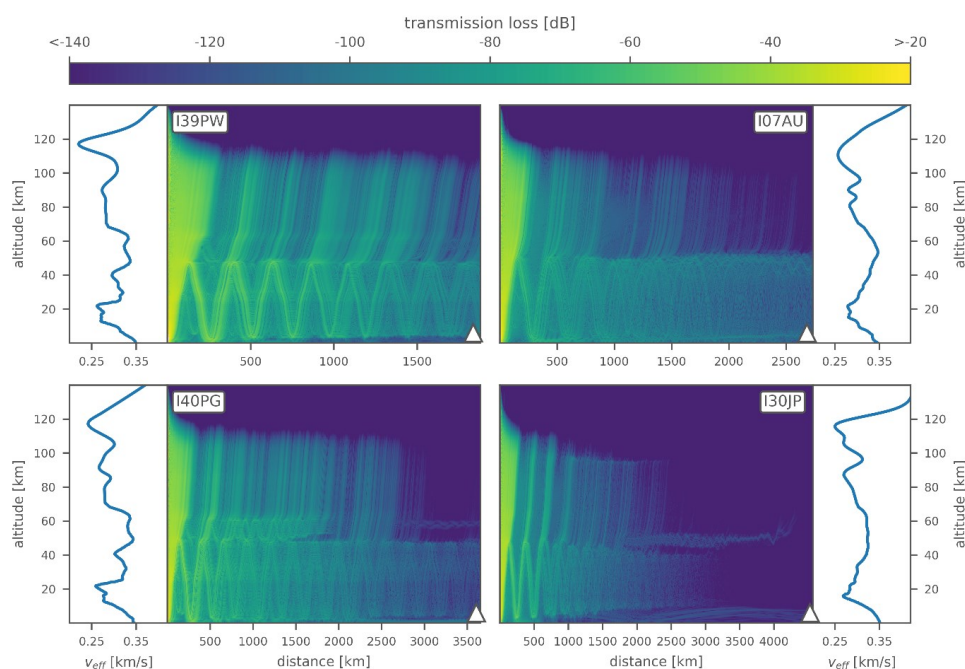
Stratospheric wind conditions affect the propagation especially for the higher frequencies and point out the general possibility and effectiveness of a stratospheric duct. This is consistent with the fact that high frequency signals are more sensitive to the atmospheric conditions along the propagation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



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

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

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

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355 5. Discussion and Conclusions

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

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

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

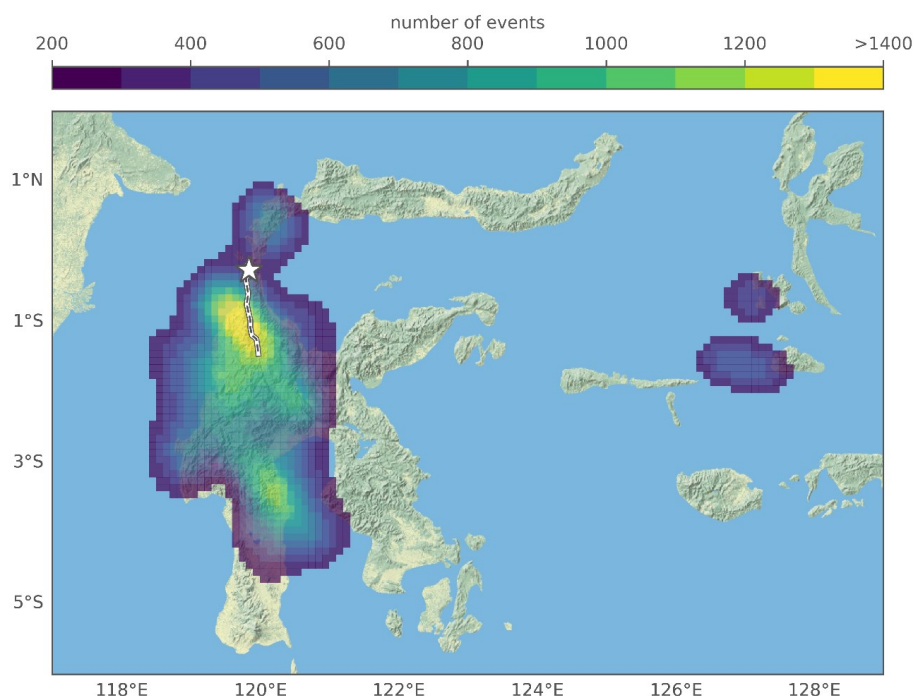


Fig 5: Back projection of the combined PMCC detections from I39PW, I07AU, I40PG and I30JP. Considered is each PMCC pixel's back-azimuth as well as a combination of 4 km/s seismic and 0.3 km/s acoustic celerities, resulting in seismoacoustic conversion locations. Color-coded event density for these locations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

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

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



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

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

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

Event	Detecting IMS stations	Source type / signal evaluation
Denali , Alaska/USA, 03.11.2002, M_w 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, M_w 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, M_w 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, M_w 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, M_w 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, M_w 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

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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



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

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

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This work comprises Earth Observatory of Singapore contribution no. XXX.

Data availability

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

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

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

Competing Interests

none

Author Contributions

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

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