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Two *b*'s or not two *b*'s

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22

23 **Abstract**

24 The b -value, a crucial parameter in the Gutenberg-Richter magnitude distribution,
25 plays a pivotal role in understanding seismic activity. Its significance stems primarily from
26 its inverse correlation with stress levels in the Earth's crust, offering valuable insights into
27 the underlying forces that drive earthquake occurrences. The case when a data sample
28 contains events from two different populations having different b -values is considered, and
29 how the G-R histogram will feature a change in slope that tends asymptotically to the
30 smallest of the b -values is demonstrated. It is shown how, given enough data, the
31 parameters of the two populations can be approximately recovered, and provide both
32 numerical examples and applications to real data.

33 **Key words:** Gutenberg-Richter b -value; Composite statistical populations; Recovering
34 different b -values; Statistical seismology

35

36 **1 Introduction**

37 A most important statistical tool widely used in seismological studies is the
38 Gutenberg-Richter magnitude distribution ([Ishimoto and Ida, 1939](#); [Gutenberg and](#)
39 [Richter, 1944](#); [Richter, 1958](#))

$$40 \qquad \log_{10} N(M) = a - b (M - M_c); \quad M \geq M_c \qquad (1)$$

41 where $N(M)$ is the number of magnitudes $\geq M$, $a = \log_{10} N(M_c)$ is the total number of
42 sample data, b describes the proportion of large magnitudes to small ones ([Richter, 1958](#)),
43 and M_c is the completeness magnitude below which $\log_{10} N(M)$ ceases to behave linearly
44 due to insufficient seismographic coverage (e.g., [Wiemer and Wyss, 2002](#)).

45 The b parameter is quite important for several reasons; not only does it help to
46 estimate occurrence rates for different magnitudes (within limits that will be mentioned
47 below), but it gives information about physical characteristics of the seismicity. Since the
48 G-R distribution implies a power-law relationship for the seismic moment, b gives
49 information about the scaling of the seismic sources (e.g., [Rundle, 1989](#); [Okal and Kirby,](#)

50 1995; Main et al, 2000; Fujii and Matsumura, 2001; Rundle et al., 2003; Madariaga, 2010;
51 Amitrano, 2012). Further information about the spatial distribution of sources is the
52 proposed relationship between b and fractal dimension (e.g., Aki, 1981; Hirata, 1989;
53 Oncel et al., 2001; Wyss et al., 2004; Singh et al. 2009), and b and magnitude entropy
54 (Mansinha and Shen, 1987; Main and Al-Kindy, 2002; Nava, 2024).

55 Probably, the most important feature of b is its inverse relationship with the stress
56 level (Wyss, 1973; Frohlich and Davis, 1993; Enescu and Ito, 2001; Utsu, 2002; Wyss et
57 al., 2004; Nuannin et al., 2005; Schorlemmer et al, 2005; Nanjo et al., 2012; El-Isa and
58 Eaton, 2014; Scholtz, 2015; Wang, 2016; DeSalvio and Rudolph, 2021; Li and Chen, 2021;
59 Godano et al., 2024; Hu et al, 2024; and many others), which gives b a most important role
60 in earthquake hazard estimation and forecasting.

61 The G-R distribution does not contemplate an upper limit for M , but there are
62 physical limits to how large a magnitude can be (e.g., Olsson, 1999; Kijko, 2004), and it
63 has been proposed that the G-R distribution should be truncated or otherwise modified for
64 extremely large magnitudes (e.g., Sornette et al., 1996; Sornette and Sornette, 1999;
65 Burroughs and Tebbens, 2002). Below the megaquake level, discontinuities in the slope of
66 the G-R distribution have been observed, and the changes to higher values of b occurring
67 for $M \sim 7.5$ have been explained in terms of changes in source scaling due to characteristic
68 sizes of the seismogenic regions (Scholz, 1982; Singh et al., 1983; Pacheco et al, 1992;
69 Romanowicz and Rundle, 1993; Scholz, 1997; Main et al., 1999; Amitrano, 2003;
70 Pisarenko and Sornette, 2004).

71 Sometimes G-R histograms feature another change in slope for magnitudes smaller
72 than the above mentioned ones; some examples are: Singh et al. (1983), Okal and Kirby
73 (1995), Triep and Sykes (1997), Wiemer and McNutt (1997), Wyss et al. (1997), Wiemer
74 and Wyss (2002), Amorese (2007), Zhan (2017). A sharp change in slope occurring always
75 at the same magnitude can be explained by different magnitude scales being used for two
76 different magnitude ranges (e.g., Ávila-Barrientos and Nava, 2020), while gradual
77 increases in slope can be caused by insufficient sampling.

78 In the present work, the possibility that a sample be taken from two different
79 populations with different b -values will be considered, to see what changes such a mixture
80 can cause in the G-R histogram, and a method to recover these values approximately will

81 be proposed. At first, the theoretical case is presented, then the results are justified through
82 numerical simulation, which shows which ranges of b -values are identifiable under which
83 sample sizes. Finally, two examples of application to real data from different tectonic
84 regimes are presented.

85

86 **2 b -value estimation**

87 For the distribution (1) b -values can be estimated directly from the slope of the
88 linear range on the G-R histogram (e.g. [Guttorp, 1987](#)), but frequently b -values are
89 estimated from the mean magnitude ([Aki, 1965](#); [Utsu, 1965](#); [Tinti and Mulargia, 1987](#);
90 [Marzocchi and Sandri, 2003](#)), using the Aki-Utsu maximum likelihood estimate

91

$$92 \quad b = \frac{\log_{10}(e)}{\bar{M} - m_c}, \quad (2)$$

93 where \bar{M} is the observed mean of the data and $m_c = M_c - \Delta M/2$, ΔM is the rounding
94 interval, and M_c is the rounded magnitude of completeness. ([Aki, 1965](#); [Utsu, 1965](#)).

95 The G-R distribution (1) is a reverse cumulative histogram corresponding to an
96 exponential magnitude probability density function,

$$97 \quad p(m) = \beta e^{-\beta(m-m_c)}; \quad m \geq m_c \quad (3)$$

98 where

$$99 \quad \beta = b \ln(10) = 1/(\mu - m_c), \quad (4)$$

100 and μ is the mean of the exponential distribution.

101 **3 Two b s**

102 Suppose there is a region of interest where seismicity corresponds to two different
103 populations with different b -values. This could be the case, for instance, when a largish
104 earthquake has occurred within the region, but it was not large enough to liberate all
105 stresses in the region, and it is not practical to try to discriminate between areas having

106 different stresses. Another instance would be when volcanic or geothermal activity
 107 associated with high b -values is present within a seismogenic region.

108 In such a region the population is a composite of two GR-distributed populations,
 109 one consisting of N_1 elements distributed exponentially with parameter β_1 , and another
 110 with N_2 elements and parameter β_2 . The total number of observed events, $N_T = N_1 + N_2$,
 111 will be distributed as

$$112 \quad n(M) = N_1 \beta_1 e^{-\beta_1(M-M_c)} + N_2 \beta_2 e^{-\beta_2(M-M_c)}, \quad (5)$$

114
 115 and the corresponding pdf is

$$116 \quad f(M) = \frac{N_1}{N_T} \beta_1 e^{-\beta_1(M-M_c)} + \frac{N_2}{N_T} \beta_2 e^{-\beta_2(M-M_c)}, \quad (6)$$

118 with mean

$$119 \quad \text{From} \quad \int x e^{cx} dx = e^{cx} \left(\frac{cx-1}{c^2} \right)$$

$$120 \quad \int_{M_c}^{\infty} M \beta_1 e^{-\beta_1(M-M_c)} dM = \beta_1 e^{\beta_1 M_c} \int_{M_c}^{\infty} M e^{-\beta_1 M} dM = \frac{1}{\beta_1} + M_c$$

$$121 \quad \bar{M} = E[f(M)] = \frac{N_1}{N_T} \left(\frac{1}{\beta_1} + M_c \right) + \frac{N_2}{N_T} \left(\frac{1}{\beta_2} + M_c \right), \quad (7)$$

122
 123
 124 From (4) and (7),

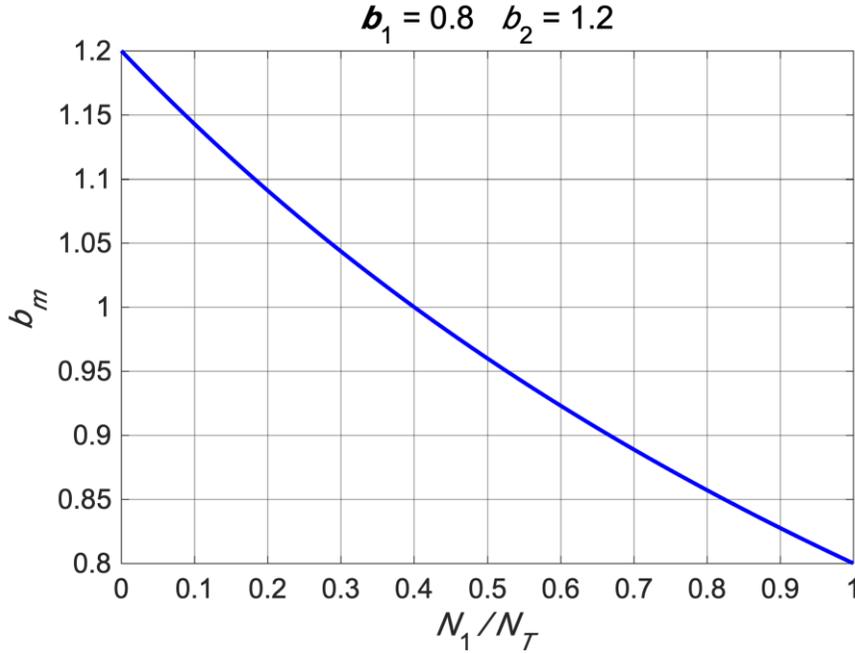
$$125 \quad \bar{M} = \frac{N_1}{N_T} \bar{M}_1 + \frac{N_2}{N_T} \bar{M}_2, \quad (8)$$

126
 127 so the observed \bar{M} will have a value intermediate between \bar{M}_1 and \bar{M}_2 . Hence, the b -value
 128 estimated from the Aki-Utsu relation (2), b_m , will have a value intermediate between b_1
 129 and b_2 ,

$$130 \quad \frac{1}{b_m} = \frac{N_1}{N_T} \frac{1}{b_1} + \frac{N_2}{N_T} \frac{1}{b_2} \quad (9)$$

132

133 Figure 1 shows an example of how b_m varies with the fraction $\frac{N_1}{N_T}$ for given $b_1 = 0.8$ and
 134 $b_2 = 1.2$; note that for $N_1 = N_2$ the observed $b_m = 0.960 \neq (b_1 + b_2)/2$.
 135



136
 137 **Fig. 1** Measured b_m value for $b_1 = 0.8$ and $b_2 = 1.2$ for different relative values of
 138 N_1/N_T .

139
 140

141 Knowing only N_T and b_m , can the parameters of the original populations be
 142 recovered? In principle, yes, if recourse to the G-R histogram of the observed data is taken;
 143 as explained below.

144

145 The measured G-R distribution is the logarithm of the reverse cumulative of the pdf,
 146 thus from (6)

147
$$F(M) = \int_{M_c}^M f(m) dm = \frac{N_1}{N_T} (1 - e^{-\beta_1(M-M_c)}) + \frac{N_2}{N_T} (1 - e^{-\beta_2(M-M_c)}) \quad (10)$$

148

149 and

150
$$F_{GR}(M) = 1 - F(M) = 1 - \frac{N_1}{N_T} - \frac{N_2}{N_T} + \frac{N_1}{N_T} e^{-\beta_1(M-M_c)} + \frac{N_2}{N_T} e^{-\beta_2(M-M_c)}$$

151

152

$$F_{GR}(M) = \frac{N_1}{N_T} e^{-\beta_1(M-M_c)} + \frac{N_2}{N_T} e^{-\beta_2(M-M_c)}$$

153 so that

154

$$N(M) = N_T F_{GR}(M) = N_1 e^{-\beta_1(M-M_c)} + N_2 e^{-\beta_2(M-M_c)}. \quad (11)$$

155 which is the G-R distribution resulting from the mixing of two samples from different
156 populations.

157

Choosing $\beta_1 < \beta_2$, let (11) be written as

158

$$N(M) = N_1 e^{-\beta_1(M-M_c)} \left[1 + \frac{N_2}{N_1} e^{-(\beta_2-\beta_1)(M-M_c)} \right],$$

159

160 and taking logarithms

161

$$\log_{10} N(M) = a_1 - b_1(M - M_c) + \log_{10} \left[1 + \frac{N_2}{N_1} e^{-(\beta_2-\beta_1)(M-M_c)} \right],$$

162

163 where $a_1 = \log_{10} N_1$, and may be written as

164

$$\log_{10} N(M) = a_1 - b_1(M - M_c) + \Gamma, \quad (12)$$

165

166 where

167

$$\Gamma \equiv \log_{10} \left[1 + \frac{N_2}{N_1} e^{-(\beta_2-\beta_1)(M-M_c)} \right]. \quad (13)$$

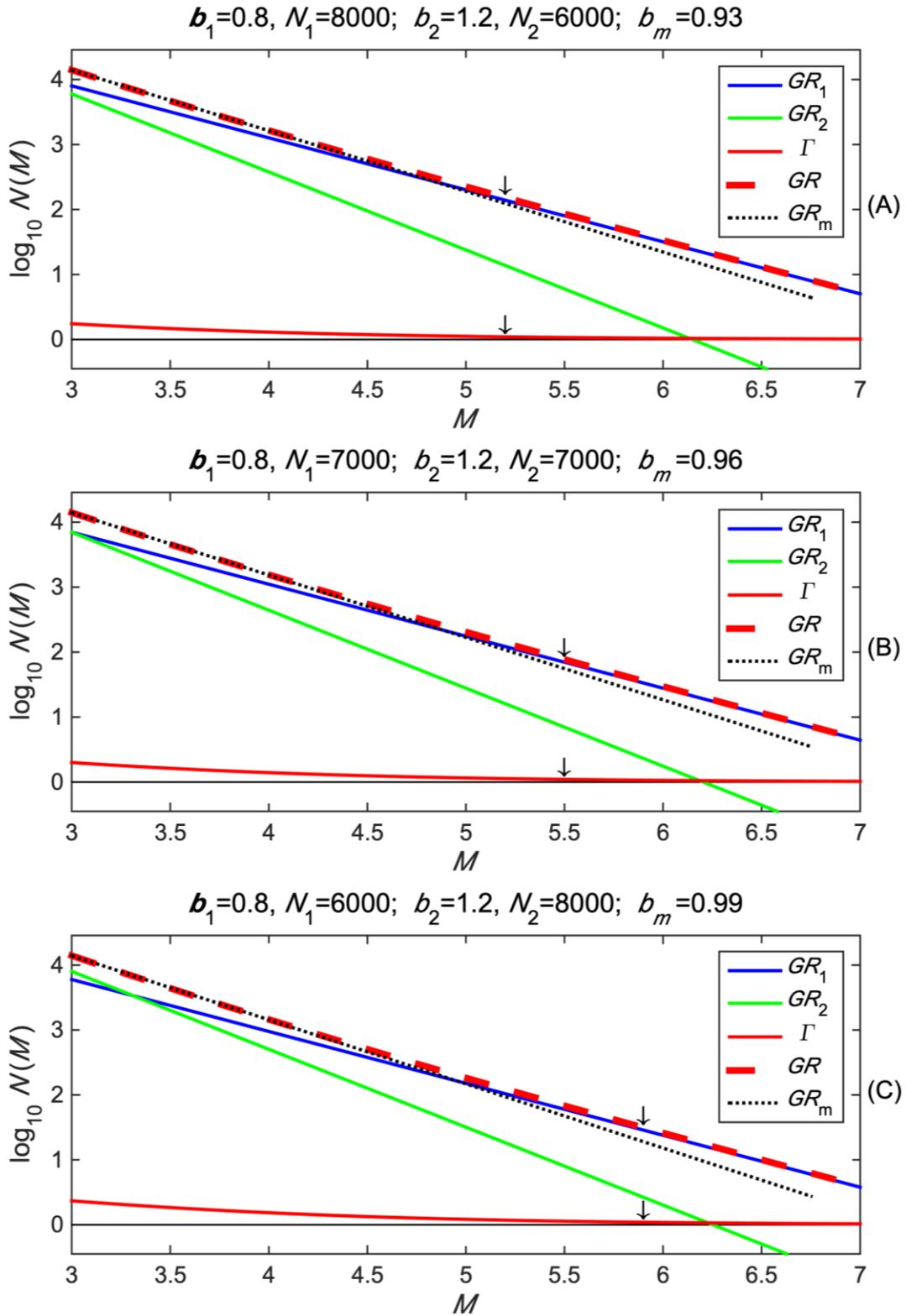
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169 Equation (12) tells that the observed G-R histogram for the combined populations,
170 called henceforward GR, can be seen as the G-R histogram of the b_1 population, $a_1 -$
171 $b_1(M - M_c)$, which will be called GR₁, plus the Γ term.

172

173 **Figure 2** shows GR, GR₁, and the G-R histogram of the b_2 population, $a_2 -$
174 $b_2(M - M_c)$, where $a_2 = \log_{10} N_2$, which will be called GR₂. It also shows the Γ term and
175 the straight line $a_m - b_m(M - M_c)$, which will be referred to as GR_m, where
176 $a_m = \log_{10} N_T$ and b_m is the slope estimated from the mean magnitude (8).

177



178

179 **Fig. 2** Magnitude G-R distributions for data from two populations with $b_1 = 0.8$ and $b_2 =$

180 1.2 for different number of events corresponding to each population. The blue and green
 181 lines indicate the distributions for b_1 and b_2 , respectively; the thick red line is the G-R
 182 distribution for the combined data, and the dotted black line shows the distribution inferred
 183 from the measured b_m ; the black line shows the Γ function (13). Panels (A), (B), and (C)
 184 show results for $N_1 > N_2$, $N_1 = N_2$, and $N_1 < N_2$, respectively. Arrows above the Γ and
 185 GR histograms indicate the magnitudes for which Γ , is smaller than $\log_{10} N_T$ by a factor
 186 of 0.01.

187

188 **4 Recovery of the individual distributions**

189 The observed GR graph is not a straight line; for small magnitudes it is well fitted
 190 by GR_m , but differs from it as its slope diminishes for higher magnitudes, as will be
 191 discussed below. Here is a caveat for b estimations based on small samples that do not
 192 show clearly the change in slope, which is not seen or is attributed to a random superavit
 193 of large magnitudes.

194 As shown in [Figure 2](#), the Γ term is maximum for $M = M_c$, where its value depends
 195 on the ratio N_2/N_1 . Now, if $N_1 \sim N_2$ is assumed, because if one of the populations is much
 196 smaller than the other then its contribution to (5) will not be significant and can be ignored,
 197 then the ratio will be in the ~ 0.5 to ~ 2.0 range, and a Γ maximum in the ~ 0.176 to ~ 0.477
 198 range can be expected. The Γ term diminishes as magnitudes increase at a ratio that
 199 depends on $\Delta\beta = \beta_2 - \beta_1$. Thus, the GR histogram tends asymptotically to GR_1 for large
 200 magnitudes, and although Γ will not be strictly zero within the practical magnitude range,
 201 it can attain values much smaller than $\log_{10} N_T$. Arrows above the Γ and GR histograms
 202 indicate the magnitude for which $\Gamma \leq \gamma \log_{10} N_T = \log_{10} N_T^\gamma$, for a factor $\gamma = 0.01$, and it
 203 can be seen that, from that magnitude on, Γ decreases quite slowly and becomes
 204 approximately parallel to GR_1 , so that a fit of a straight line to the tail of the distribution
 205 can estimate both b_1 and, approximately, N_1 .

206 [Figure 3](#) shows how M_γ , the magnitude at which $\Gamma = \gamma \log_{10} N_T$, varies for
 207 different values of N_2/N_1 and $b_2 - b_1$ for $\gamma = 0.01$ and $N_T = 14,000$.

208

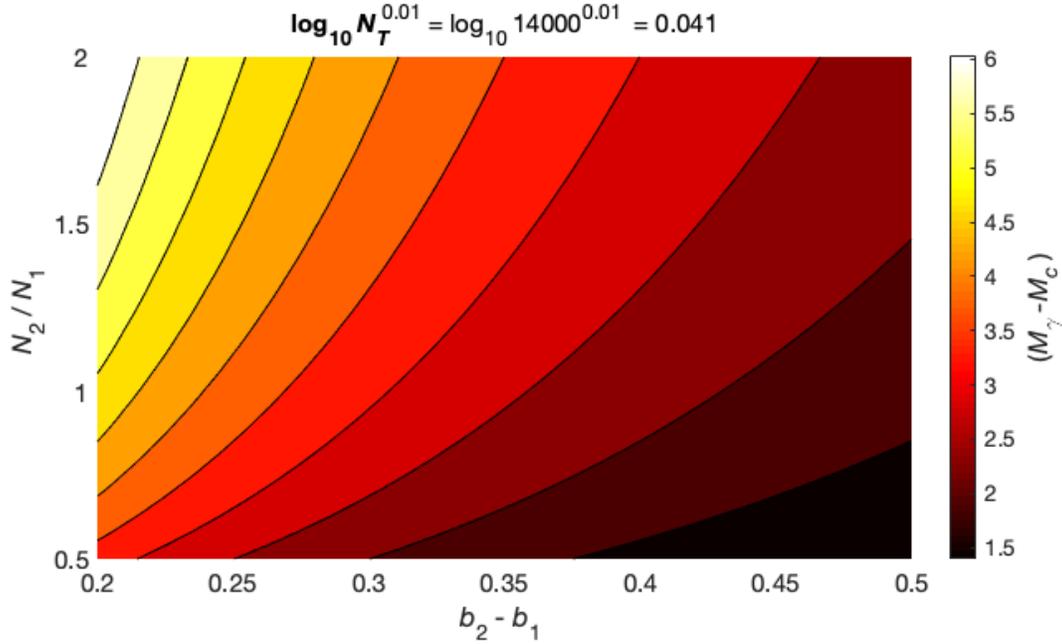
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$$\Gamma \equiv \log_{10} \left[1 + \frac{N_2}{N_1} e^{-(\beta_2 - \beta_1)(M - M_c)} \right] = \gamma \log_{10} N_T$$

210

$$M_\gamma - M_c = -\ln \left[\frac{N_1}{N_2} (N_T^\gamma - 1) \right] / [(b_2 - b_1) \ln 10]$$

211



212

Fig. 3 Variation of M_γ for different values of N_2/N_1 and $b_2 - b_1$.

213

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217

From N_1 and N_T ,

218

$$N_2 = N_T - N_1 \tag{14}$$

219

can be easily estimated, so it only remains to estimate b_2 .

220

From (4) and (8)

221

$$\left(\frac{\log_{10} e}{b_m} + M_c \right) = \frac{N_1}{N_T} \left(\frac{\log_{10} e}{b_1} + M_c \right) + \frac{N_2}{N_T} \left(\frac{\log_{10} e}{b_2} + M_c \right)$$

222

223

so that

224

$$b_2 = N_2 \left(\frac{N_T}{b_m} - \frac{N_1}{b_1} \right)^{-1}, \tag{15}$$

225

226

and all parameters have been approximately estimated.

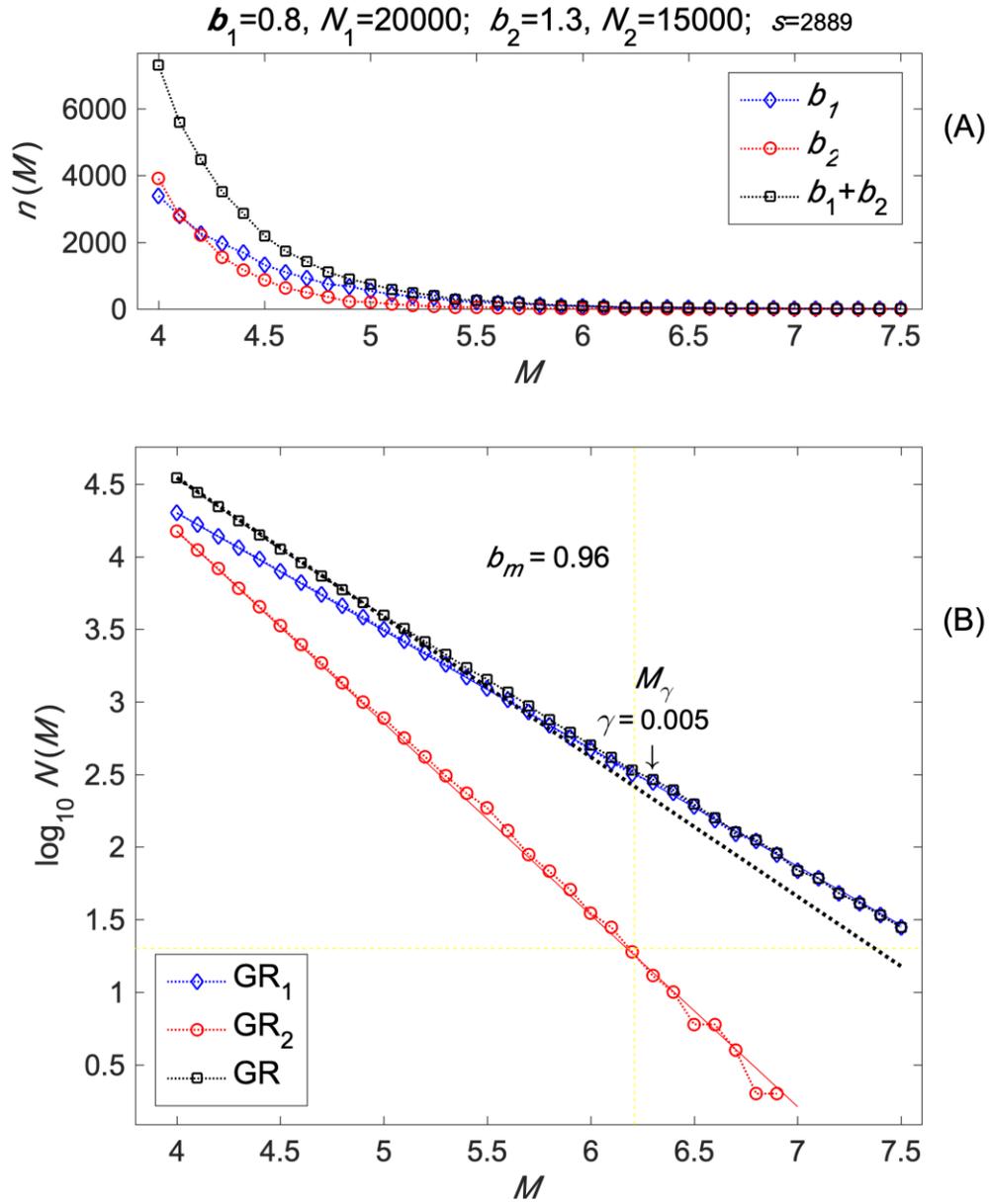
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228

229 **5 Numerical example**

230 Next, it will be shown whether synthetic sets consisting of exponentially distributed
231 magnitudes randomly generated for two exponential populations with different b -values
232 and different sizes do distribute according to (12) and exhibit the features seen in the
233 analytic treatment. Simulations are useful because they can help to identify possible
234 limitations and problems in treating with data, that do not appear for the analytic treatment.

235



236

237 **Fig. 4** Exponential distributions for two synthetic exponentially distributed populations

238 with $b_1 = 0.8$, $b_2 = 1.3$, respectively, and their sum for $M_c = 4.0$ (A). The corresponding

239 G-R distributions as identified in the legend and, in the same color, the straight lines for

240 each of the populations (B), showing the measured b_m and an arrow indicating the

241 magnitude corresponding to $\gamma = 0.005$.

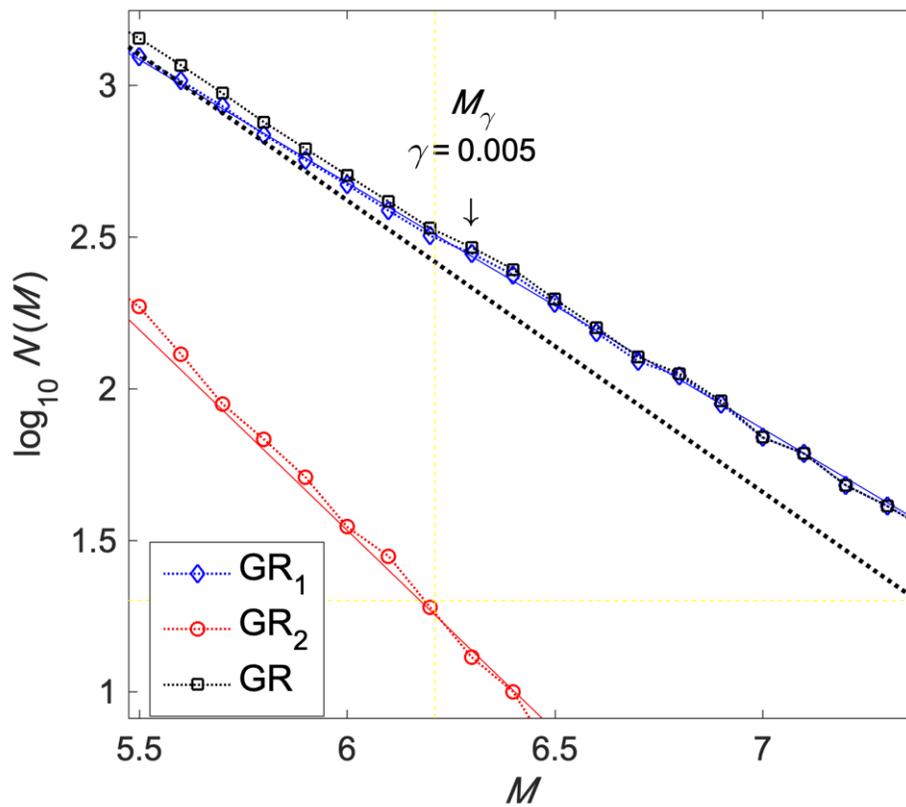
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244 **Figure 4** shows an example of a synthetic realization; on top (A) are shown the
 245 exponential distributions for the two populations with different b -values and the
 246 distribution resulting from considering the two populations as one, and below (B) are
 247 shown the G-R histograms for each of the populations, GR_1 and GR_2 , and for the combined
 248 population, GR , together with the straight lines for to the individual populations and for
 249 the Aki-Utsu analysis of the combined population.

250 The figure shows expected behavior and other plausible features. It also shows the
 251 effects of the main limitation of this and other statistical studies: i.e., scarcity of data for
 252 large magnitudes.

253



254

255 **Fig. 5** Close-up of **Figure 4**.

256

257

258 **Figure 5** again illustrates the major problem in recovering the distribution
 259 parameters: even though this example has an unrealistic large number of data, large

260 magnitudes are not numerous enough for the histogram to approach the b_1 slope, so this
261 parameter will be overestimated. The problem is, of course, worse for smaller samples.

262 The strategy to follow is to look for the magnitude range that, when fitted by least-
263 squares, results in the smallest b_1 value. Results are not bad: in this example, it is possible
264 to identify this parameter with an error of less than 6%.

265 This overestimate, however, also results in an overestimate of N_1 so that b_2 from
266 (15) is overestimated and N_2 from (16) is underestimated; however, the actual value of
267 these parameters is not very important, because for precursory purposes it is important to
268 detect the underlying low b values.

269

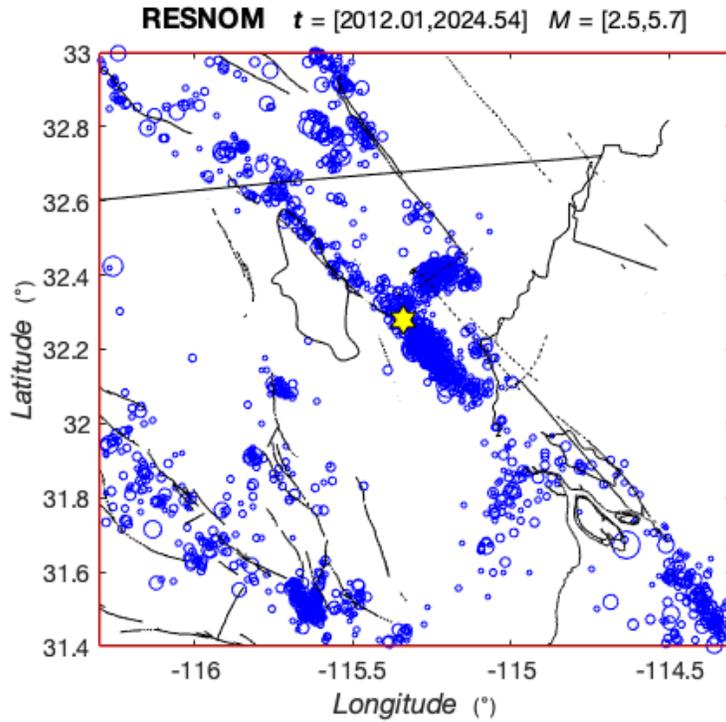
270 **6 Application**

271 As a first illustration of the application to real data, data from the RESNOM
272 network for northern Baja California will be used. [Figure 6](#) shows the study area, the
273 epicenters for events $M \geq 2.5$ for 2012 to mid 2024, the main faults, the international
274 Mexico/US border, and the location of the El Mayor-Cucapah (EMC) $M_W = 7.2$
275 earthquake of April 4, 2010.

276 Earthquakes occurring close to the rupture area of the EMC event can be expected
277 to have a high b -value corresponding to a stress-depleted volume, but it is very hard to
278 separate these earthquakes from the surrounding seismicity, hence the method presented
279 above will be applied to the whole seismicity.

280 The analysis is shown in [Figure 7](#), where the G-R line shows a discontinuity around
281 $M = 4.3$ to 4.4 and an apparent $b_m = 0.990$, the change in slope occurs around magnitude
282 4.2 , and the minimum slope, corresponding to $b_1 = 0.709$, is found for magnitudes
283 between 4.4 and 4.7 , and $b_2 = 1.207$ would correspond to the low-stress population.

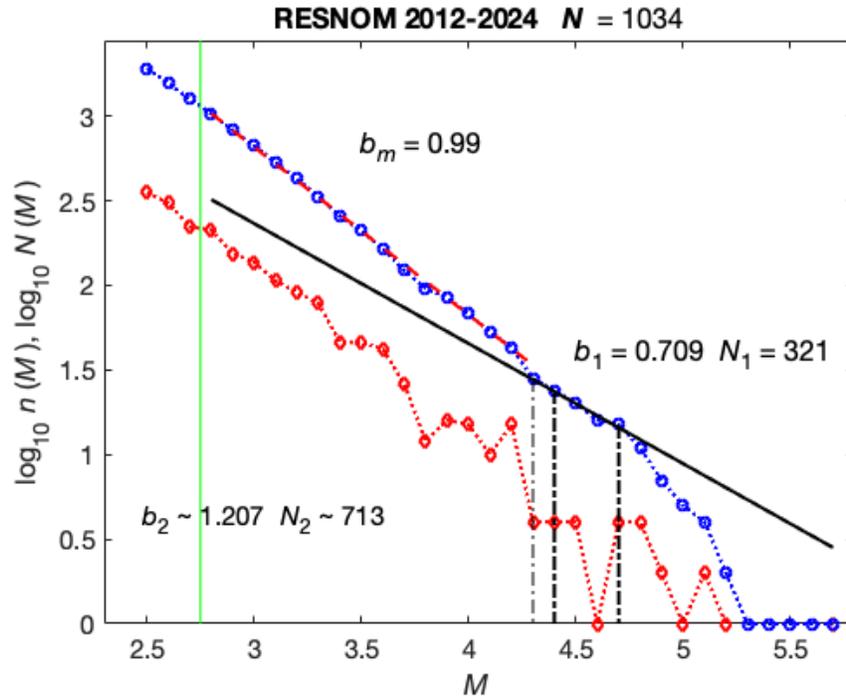
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285

286 **Fig. 6** Seismicity for the region around the EMC earthquake is indicated by the yellow
287 hexagon; blue circles are epicenters, and thin lines indicate the principal local faults and
288 the Gulf of California coastline. The thick, straight line is the international Mexico-USA
289 border.

290



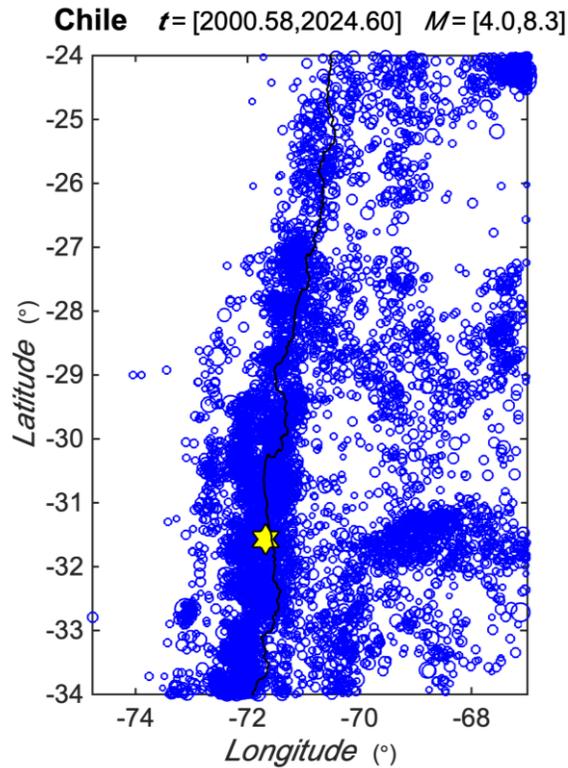
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292 **Fig. 7** G-R distribution corresponds to the seismicity of Fig. 6 (blue circles) and the non-
 293 cumulative distribution (red circles); the green line indicates M_c . The dashed line is the fit
 294 to the smaller magnitudes' distribution resulting in $b_m = 0.99$, and the thick black line is
 295 the fit to the b_1 slope.

296

297

298 As a second illustration, earthquakes in northern Chile (Fig.8) between August 1,
 299 2000 and August 8, 2024 in a region that comprises the site of the September 2015 M_w 8.3
 300 earthquake, and a region to the North where no large earthquakes have occurred recently
 301 will be considered. Data were downloaded from the USGS Search Earthquake Catalog
 302 <https://earthquake.usgs.gov/earthquakes/search/>



303

304 **Fig. 8** Seismicity for the region around the 2015 M_w 8.3 earthquake is indicated by the
 305 yellow hexagon; blue circles are epicenters, and the black line indicates the Pacific Ocean
 306 coastline.

307

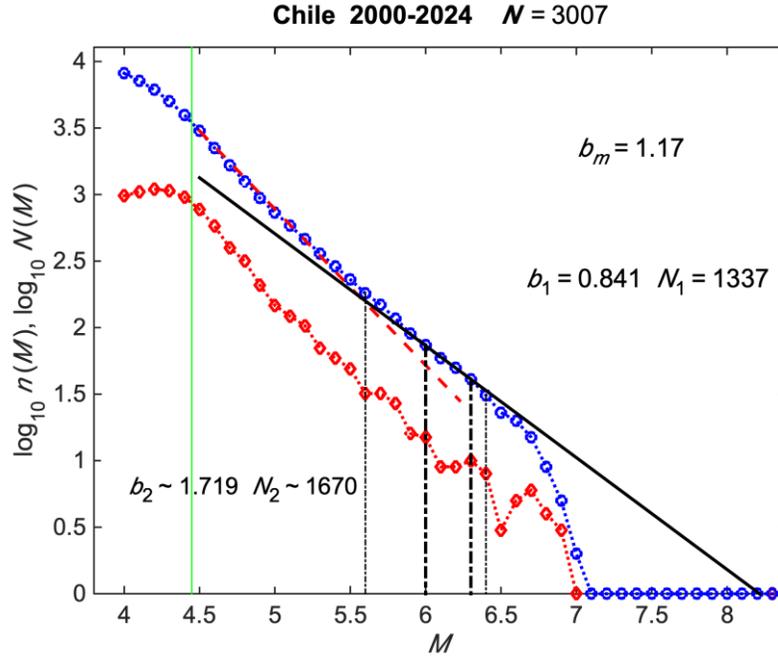
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309 The corresponding analysis is shown in [Figure 9](#), where the apparent $b_m = 1.17$,
 310 a change in slope can be seen around $M = 5.6$, which leads to $b_1 = 0.841$ and $b_2 = 1.719$.

311

312

313



314

315 **Fig. 9** G-R distribution corresponds to the seismicity of Fig. 8 (blue circles) and the non-
 316 cumulative distribution (red circles); the green line indicates M_c . The dashed line is the fit
 317 to the smaller magnitudes' distribution resulting in $b_m = 1.17$, and the thick black line is
 318 the fit to the b_1 slope.

319

320

321 Besides giving the important values of b_1 and b_2 , the estimated values of N_1 and
 322 N_2 are also important, because dividing them by the total observation time yields the
 323 activity rates of both processes, which can be used to obtain estimates of Poissonian
 324 occurrence probabilities for given time intervals. The relative sizes of N_1 and N_2 clearly
 325 show which process is more active; the results from Figure 7 indicate that for the data from
 326 Baja California the process corresponding to b_1 is only about half (0.45) as active as that
 327 corresponding to b_2 , while for Chile (Fig. 9) the ratio $N_1/N_2 = 0.80$ shows both processes
 328 to be approximately equally active.

329

330 7 Discussion and Conclusions

331 The case of catalog data being a mixture of two GR distributed populations with
 332 different b -values has been considered, and it has been shown that in some cases it may be

333 possible to identify approximately the b -values and number of events in each population.
334 This setup is not rare and may be due to aftershocks of large events being included in the
335 data or including data from volcanic or geothermal sources together with data from tectonic
336 earthquakes.

337 Whatever the b -values and the relative population sizes, as long as these are large
338 enough, the observed change in slope is always from larger to smaller as magnitudes
339 increase. Thus, changes in slope from smaller to larger must be due to some other
340 mechanism like the one mentioned above for magnitudes ~ 7.5 .

341 The main problem in the application is (as always for statistical studies) having
342 enough data, because if any or both of the populations do not have enough events above
343 the magnitude where b_1 could be identified, then the distribution will appear to be a
344 standard distribution with one slope b_m . If this is the case, extrapolation of rates for large
345 magnitudes will be underestimated (e. g., [Singh et al., 1983](#)).

346 If two slopes are identified, then there are two G-R distributions to base estimates
347 of future activity on, but since the one for b_1 corresponds to the largest regional stress, it
348 should be the one appropriate for the highest occurrence rate of large magnitudes, and
349 hence the one to be used for hazard studies.

350

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354

355 **Declarations**

356

357 **Competing Interests**

358 The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest or competing interests.

359

360 **Authorship contribution statement**

361 F.A.Nava: Conceptualization, programs, development, first draft. All authors:
362 discussion, development, drafts. All authors discussed and approved the final manuscript.

363

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