

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21

Global variation of pulse-like ground motions characterized from 3D rotation seismic data

Quanbo Luo, Yi Liu, Feng Dai*

State Key Laboratory of Hydraulics and Mountain River Engineering, Sichuan
University, Chengdu, Sichuan 610065, China

*Corresponding author Email: fengdai@scu.edu.cn (F. Dai)

Key Points:

- Strong velocity time histories are captured from 3D rotating seismic data
- Long-period pulses are identified and extracted by Daubechies wavelet transform
- Spatial rotation pulse is stronger than the original pulse-like ground motion

22 **Abstract**

23 Strong pulse-like ground motions excited by a causative fault with a rupture
24 propagation close to the shear wave velocity can induce significant geological hazards.
25 Despite recent advances in the observation and analysis of velocity pulses, the current
26 understanding remains constrained by the small amount of pulse data, which to date
27 have been investigated primarily in the horizontal direction. To address these
28 challenges, we identify and extract large velocity pulses of continuous rotation
29 records from three-component seismic data of 46 globally distributed earthquakes
30 using a wavelet transform method. To better represent global seismic activities and
31 disasters, we quantify the spatial pulse and spectral parameters that characterize
32 pulse-like ground motion. The results indicate that the 3D rotation velocity pulse is
33 significantly stronger than the original 1D and 2D pulse-like ground motion. Our
34 study provides a quantitative framework to better assess and predict pulse-like ground
35 motion in seismogenic regions.

36 **Plain Language Summary**

37 The pulse-like seismic records reflect the dynamic process of fault rupture, the
38 path of seismic waves through the earth's crust, and the amplification effect of the
39 local site. Because the strong earthquake signals recorded by the seismic station are
40 different in spatial directions, it is necessary to identify the maximum velocity pulse
41 by rotation of the three-component data. Previous studies mainly concentrated on
42 horizontal pulse records, neglecting the effect of rotation pulse on the ground motion.
43 To accurately identify the maximum velocity pulse record, we used the continuous
44 wavelet transform method to extract the long-period velocity pulse signals of the
45 rotating seismic data. The extracted time history of the long-period velocity pulse is
46 well matched with the rotational seismic record. Then, the pulse intensity parameters
47 and spectrum characteristics are analyzed by using the rotating seismic signals. The
48 result greatly increases the pulse records and improves the related parameters, and
49 also creates conditions for the analysis of the spatiotemporal variation of the entire
50 pulse-like ground motion.

51 **1. Introduction**

52 Large pulses in the early stage of a velocity time history belong to a special type
53 of ground motion characterized by high amplitude, long period, and short duration
54 (e.g., Archuleta and Hartzell, 1981; Somerville, 2003; Yazdani et al., 2017). The rapid
55 development of strong seismic networks in recent years has improved the ability to
56 capture a large number of long-period velocity pulse records from near-source
57 earthquakes, such as the 1999 $M_W7.6$ Chi-Chi, 2010 $M_W7.6$ Darfield, and 2018 $M_W6.4$
58 Hualien earthquakes. Velocity pulse-like ground motion is usually caused by rupture
59 directivity and dislocation fling-step effects and may lead to considerable geological
60 disasters (e.g., Shin et al., 2001; Asano and Iwata, 2016; Burks and Baker, 2016),
61 which impose high demands for earthquake prevention and disaster reduction near
62 active faults. The proper parameterization and quantitative characterization of
63 pulse-like ground motion is an important part of seismic hazard analysis (Atik et al.,
64 2010). The appropriate treatment of velocity pulses for seismic loss analysis therefore
65 presents a substantial challenge in geophysics and seismic engineering.

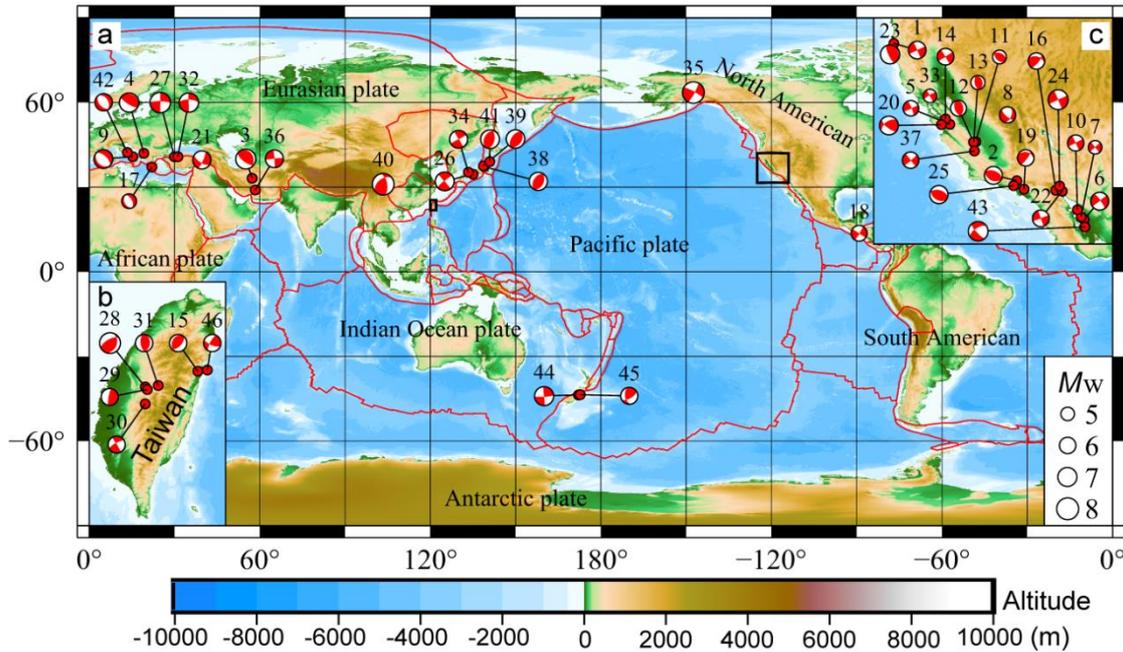
66 Previous studies have investigated the characteristics of large velocity pulses
67 from a variety of viewpoints (e.g., Somerville, 2003; Li et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2020).
68 A method is usually considered effective if it compensates for the missing pulse
69 records using traditional rectangular, triangular, and multiparameter attenuation
70 functions to establish equivalent pulse models (e.g., Hall et al., 1995; Bray and
71 Rodriguez-Marek, 2004; Dickinson and Gavin, 2011). The simulation results of these
72 models well match the observation records of real earthquakes and are used to analyse
73 the characteristics of single or several dominant pulses in a velocity time series. The
74 equivalent models above cannot accurately quantify a large number of pulse records,
75 but the subsequent wavelet transform method can make up for this deficiency.
76 Previous analysis of velocity pulses mainly focused on horizontal pulse recording
77 (Baker, 2007; Shahi and Baker, 2014), neglecting the influence of a vertical
78 component on strong pulse-like ground motion because the seismic hazard of

79 horizontal vibration is typically greater than that of vertical vibration. However, in a
80 real earthquake, the vertical amplitude of ground motion may be significantly stronger
81 than the horizontal amplitude, especially in shallow sediment and gravel areas near
82 the causative fault (Aoi et al., 2008). The vertical to horizontal response spectrum
83 ratios reported in the literature highlight the importance of vertical ground motion in
84 seismic hazard estimation (Zare and Sinaiean, 2014; Bozorgnia and Campbell, 2016).
85 The dynamic response to ground motion may be underestimated if only horizontal or
86 vertical pulses are considered. Thus, the use of the wavelet analysis method to identify
87 and extract the pulse records in three-dimensional space is of great significance for
88 evaluating strong pulse-like ground motion.

89 The spatial and temporal inhomogeneity of earthquakes with velocity pulses may
90 be closely related to plate boundary slip activity. Earthquakes with a velocity pulse are
91 recorded far less frequently than earthquakes without a pulse and are more likely to
92 occur in earthquakes with a magnitude larger than 5.5 (Somerville, 2003; Shahi and
93 Baker, 2011). Furthermore, the distribution of earthquakes in the earth's crust is
94 extremely uneven, mainly in the circum-Pacific and Eurasian seismic belts (Figure 1).
95 Intense tectonic movement occurs along plate boundaries and seismic activity is
96 particularly frequent near collision and subduction zones (e.g., Kanamori and Kikuchi,
97 1993; Ji et al., 2001; Arai et al., 2016; Calvert et al., 2020). Taiwan lies at the
98 intersection between the Eurasian and Philippine plates and California is located in
99 the subduction zone of the Pacific plate to the North American plate (Figure 1b, c).
100 Dense earthquakes triggered in these regions with strong tectonic movement are
101 helpful to study the distribution characteristics of global pulse-like ground motion.

102 In this paper, we identify and extract pulses from spatial rotation records of
103 three-component velocity time histories using an improved wavelet analysis method
104 based on 247 sets of seismic data of global pulse-like ground motion. This method
105 improves the identification accuracy of large velocity pulses and moderately increases
106 the extracted pulse intensity. The variation tendency of global pulse-like ground

107 motion is investigated in detail from different aspects using seismic records, source
 108 information, and source-site geometry. Disaster prevention and seismic design
 109 concerns are discussed using the key parameters of the pulse and spectrum
 110 characteristics. A comprehensive study of pulse-like ground motion improves the
 111 understanding of their generation mechanism and spatial distribution, which can help
 112 disaster mitigation from near-field earthquakes.



113
 114 **Figure 1.** Locations of 46 global earthquakes with velocity pulse records. The focal
 115 mechanism symbols indicate seismic characteristics. Each symbol size is proportional
 116 to the earthquake magnitude. Red lines indicate plate boundaries and the colour scale
 117 indicates the topography fluctuation. Black boxes represent earthquake concentration
 118 areas. Illustrations **b** and **c** correspond to Taiwan and California, respectively.

119
 120 **2. Data processing methods**

121 Most of the ground motion data in this paper were from the NGA-West2
 122 database of the Pacific Earthquake Engineering Research (PEER) Center. The 2008
 123 *Mw*7.9 Wenchuan earthquake data were from the China Earthquake Networks Center
 124 (CENC) and the Hualien earthquake data were provided by the Central Weather
 125 Bureau (CWB) of Taiwan. Because seismic records have non-stationary signals, it is
 126 difficult to obtain accurate velocity pulse signals using time domain analysis alone
 127 (Zhang and He, 2019). A wavelet is a basic function that meets certain mathematical

128 and physical requirements. The continuous wavelet transform can better represent
 129 seismic signals in the time and frequency domains and is commonly used to
 130 decompose a ground motion record (Mallat, 2008; Seydoux et al., 2020). The basic
 131 function of the mother wavelet at time t is defined as

$$132 \quad \psi_{s,l}(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{s}} \phi\left(\frac{t-l}{s}\right) \quad (1)$$

133 where ψ is the scaled and translated wavelet, ϕ is the mother wavelet function, and s
 134 and l are the scale parameter varying in the frequency domain and location parameter
 135 varying in the time domain, respectively. The velocity pulse recognition method based
 136 on the continuous wavelet transform can extract the wavelet coefficients of each
 137 ground motion component (Baker, 2007; Shahi and Baker, 2014). In the process of
 138 wavelet transform, we define that the maximum wave coefficient direction
 139 corresponds to the strongest pulse direction in 3D space. The velocity time history in
 140 an arbitrary direction is obtained by rotating the three orthogonal seismic recording
 141 components. The maximum wave coefficient C_{\max} of the rotating component at a
 142 given location and scale is then determined by

$$143 \quad C_{\max} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{s}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [f_1(t) \cos \alpha \sin \beta + f_2(t) \sin \alpha \sin \beta + f_3(t) \cos \beta] \phi\left(\frac{t-l}{s}\right) dt \quad (2)$$

144 where $f_1(t)$ and $f_2(t)$ are the original seismic records that are perpendicular to each
 145 other on the horizontal plane, $f_3(t)$ is the original seismic record in the vertical
 146 direction, and α and β represent the horizontal and vertical rotation angles relative to
 147 the maximum component, respectively.

148 The continuous wavelet transform can decompose the seismic signal into some
 149 small shapes in the time and frequency regions. We use the highly stable fourth-order
 150 Daubechies wavelet as the mother wave function to extract the long-period velocity
 151 signal of the rotational ground motion. The large velocity pulses are identified and the
 152 relative intensity parameters are calculated for the spatial rotating seismic records
 153 using the pulse indicator PI in Ref. (Shahi and Baker, 2014). The early arrival feature

154 of the velocity pulse is assessed according to the ratio of extracted energy to original
 155 energy. The pulse energy ratio at time t is defined as

$$156 \quad \text{CSV}(t) = \frac{\int_0^t v^2(u) du}{\int_0^\infty v^2(u) du} \times 100\% \quad (3)$$

157 where $v(u)$ denotes the amplitude of the velocity series at time u .

158 Based on the identified large velocity pulses, we can calculate the corresponding
 159 spectral characteristics. The earthquake response spectrum is the maximum response
 160 curve for a series of particles with different natural periods under a given ground
 161 motion, which can reflect the vibration energy and structural deformation generated
 162 by the seismic dynamics (Mavroeidis et al., 2004). Response spectra are widely used
 163 in the design and evaluation of structures subjected to strong ground motion and have
 164 become a standard tool to analyse the structural damage caused by earthquakes and
 165 characterize important seismogram features (Ambraseys, 1977; Rupakhety et al.,
 166 2011). The dynamic equation of a single-degree-of-freedom (SDOF) structure system
 167 under seismic excitation is expressed as

$$168 \quad \ddot{u}(t) + 2\zeta\omega\dot{u}(t) + \omega^2u(t) = -a(t) \quad (4)$$

169 where $u(t)$, $\dot{u}(t)$, and $\ddot{u}(t)$ represent the seismic displacement, velocity, and
 170 acceleration responses, respectively, ζ represents the damping ratio and its value is 5%,
 171 ω indicates the natural frequency of the SDOF system, and $a(t)$ is the ground
 172 acceleration record. By integrating and transforming Eq. (4), the pseudo-spectral
 173 velocity PSV of different natural vibration periods is obtained.

$$174 \quad \text{PSV}(T, \zeta) = \left| \int_0^t a(\tau) e^{-\zeta\omega(t-\tau)} \sin[\omega(t-\tau)] d\tau \right|_{\max} \quad (5)$$

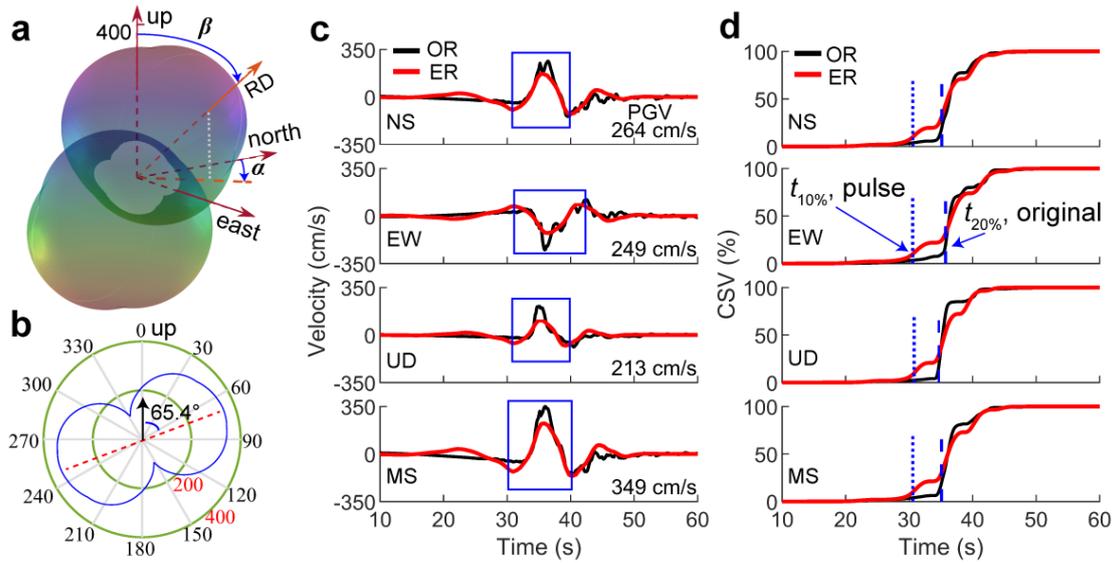
175 There is a relationship between the velocity response spectrum and acceleration
 176 response spectrum: $\text{PSA} = \omega\text{PSV}$. The dynamic size of the structure during ground
 177 motion is determined by the amplification factor. The maximum PSV value is divided
 178 by the peak ground velocity to obtain the velocity amplification factor. Similarly, the
 179 maximum PSA value is divided by the peak ground acceleration to obtain the

180 acceleration amplification factor.

181 **3. Results**

182 When a fault rupture propagates toward a site at a velocity close to the shear
183 wave, the seismic Doppler effect results in the accumulation of energy released during
184 fault rupture (Benioff, 1955; Hayden et al., 2014). A large velocity pulse is usually
185 recorded owing to the superposition of the subsource energy in the front site of the
186 rupture direction, whereas the seismic record in the back area may be more prone to
187 low amplitudes and long durations owing to the delayed energy arrival time (Figure
188 S1). Asperities represent complex fault plane slip features and different asperities
189 cause the non-uniform ground motion distribution (Zhang et al. 2012; Li et al., 2017).
190 When the causative fault ruptures during an earthquake, the rupture velocity and slip
191 duration within the rupture area vary in space, thus there are significant differences in
192 the fling-step pulses recorded by the near-field seismographs.

193 Seismic uncertainty and station placement density affect the number of velocity
194 pulses and pulse signal strength. Global seismic events with velocity pulses are listed
195 in Table S1. There is a direct relationship between the different signals recorded in
196 arbitrary directions and the spatiotemporal variation of the large velocity pulses. This
197 difference depends considerably on the fault rupture and source-site geometry
198 (Somerville et al., 1997; Yazdani et al., 2017). To illustrate the temporal and spatial
199 variation characteristics of seismic signals, we rotate the three-component seismic
200 data recorded by the near-field station TCU068 at the maximum slip of the Chi-Chi
201 earthquake to obtain the strongest pulse time history on the 3D rotating surface. The
202 peak ground velocities differ at the arbitrary rotation angles, with the maximum
203 velocities occurring at the intersection of north 324.2° and vertical 65.4° , as well as its
204 spatial symmetry direction (Figure 2a, b). Although the source radiation pattern
205 indicates that the strongest ground motion produced by an earthquake most likely
206 occurs in the direction perpendicular to the fault plane (Poiata et al., 2017), many
207 earthquakes have ruptured with irregular geometries that make it difficult to determine
208 the fault-normal direction.



209

210 **Figure 2.** Comparison of spatial differences for large velocity pulses. **a** Peak ground
 211 velocities of station TCU068 at different rotation directions (RD) in the 1999 Chi-Chi
 212 earthquake, where the maximum velocity profile is depicted in **b** and the rotation
 213 angles α and β correspond to the north and vertical directions, respectively. **c** Velocity
 214 waveform comparison of station TCU068 in the horizontal (NS and EW), vertical
 215 (UD), and maximum spatial (MS) pulse directions. The velocity pulse waveform is
 216 surrounded by a blue rectangle and the black and red lines indicate the original and
 217 extracted signals, respectively. **d** Cumulative energy of the velocity time histories,
 218 where the blue vertical dashed line represents the time corresponding to a given
 219 energy ratio.

220

221 Given the variable attitude and dynamic rupture process of an underground fault
 222 in a real earthquake, seismic station records are mostly affected by the energy released
 223 in the adjacent area (e.g., Ma et al., 2000; Pei et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2020). The
 224 spatial direction of the maximum pulse therefore strongly differs for each seismic
 225 station. To compare the signal differences of the velocity pulses, we use the
 226 continuous wavelet transform to extract the long-period pulses of station TCU068 in
 227 the three-component and maximum motion directions. The extracted pulse matches
 228 well with the original long-period record and peak ground velocity (PGV) obtained by
 229 rotation is as high as 349 cm/s, which is significantly greater than those of the
 230 three-component data (Figure 2c). The seismic waveform recorded by seismographs
 231 during an earthquake reflects the energy variation from the rupture source to the
 232 receiving site, and the energy history is represented by the cumulative square velocity

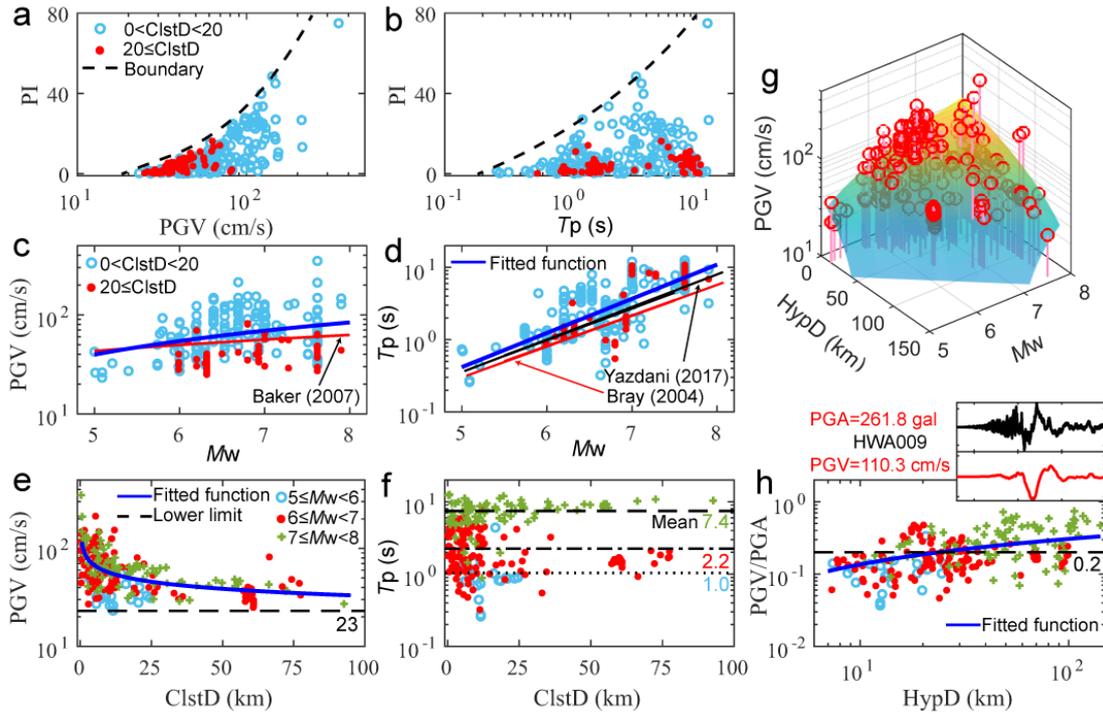
233 corresponding to the earthquake ground motion (Figure 2d). The energy percentage of
234 the extracted pulse reaches 10% before the original record reaches 20%, which
235 reflects the early-arriving pulse signal feature of pulse-like ground motion. Earlier
236 pulse signals and longer energy time intervals are associated with more notable pulse
237 phenomena in the velocity time history.

238 The seismic spectrum analysis method is presently one of the most accurate
239 methods in structural seismic analysis and can be used to evaluate the spectral
240 characteristics of pulse-like ground motion and provide suggestions for geological
241 hazard analysis and engineering construction. A comparison of the average
242 pseudo-spectral velocity (PSV) and pseudo-spectral acceleration (PSA) of different
243 magnitudes in the near- and far-fields shows that the former is more affected by
244 moment magnitude and fault distance (Figure S2). The response spectra with a natural
245 period less than 1 s almost overlap, and the differences are particularly apparent when
246 the period is greater than 1 s. The characteristic periods corresponding to the peak
247 values of the response spectra differ substantially. For an earthquake magnitude of 7
248 to 8, the characteristic PSV period is considerably larger than that of the PSA and the
249 former corresponds to the second turning points (A and B) in the descending section
250 of the acceleration spectrum. Once the characteristic period is close to the
251 fundamental period of a geological body and large structure, it may cause a
252 destructive resonance disaster. The maximum spectrum value in the near-field is
253 generally greater than that in the far-field for each magnitude interval, and the peak
254 area (sensitive area) of the PSV is wider than that of the PSA. The response spectra
255 shift to longer natural periods with increasing magnitude, especially the PSV
256 waveform, which drifts more appreciably.

257 **4. Discussions**

258 We have improved a strategy for detecting and extracting the maximum velocity
259 pulses from 3D rotation seismic data using the continuous wavelet transform. Wavelet
260 processing of the combined horizontal and vertical seismic records can identify the

261 maximum velocity pulses that are typically ignored. Using this approach, the strongest
 262 direction and related parameters of a large velocity pulse can be determined by
 263 rotating the three-component motion data during an earthquake. The intensity of
 264 pulse-like ground motion can thus be further discussed using the pulse parameters and
 265 corresponding spectral characteristics of the velocity time history.



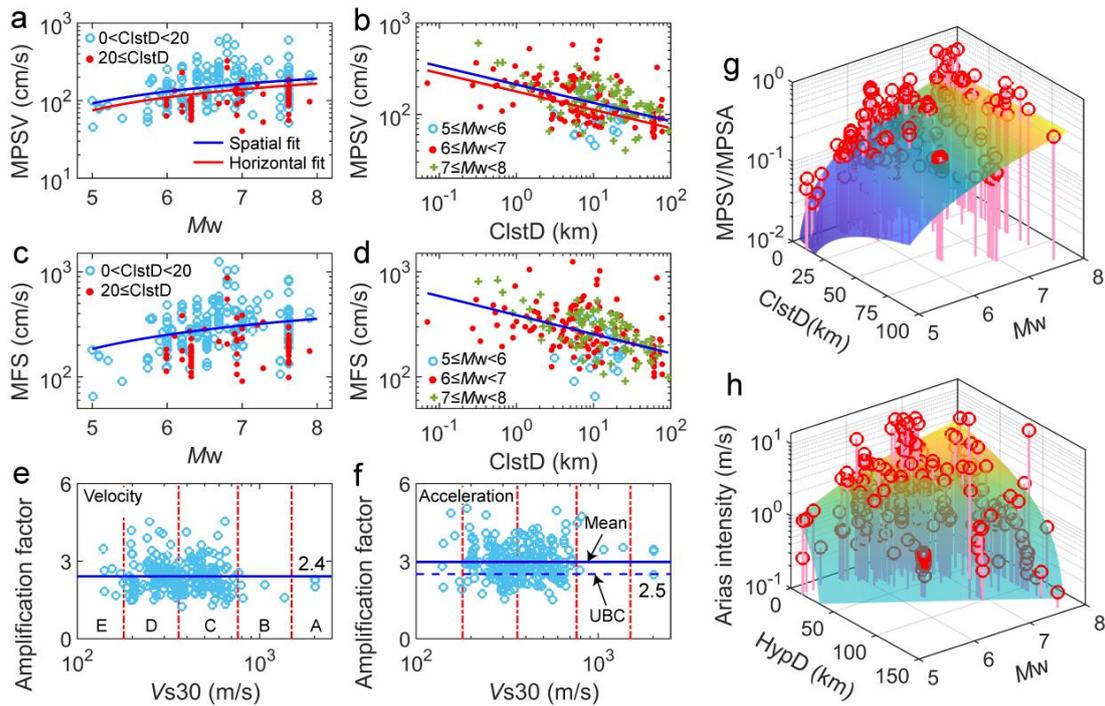
266
 267 **Figure 3.** Variation of parameters related to velocity pulses. **a** and **b** Distribution area
 268 of the pulse indicator (PI). The black dashed line indicates the pulse area boundary.
 269 Unfilled blue and solid red circles respectively represent the pulse records of the inner
 270 and outer regions bounded by a closest distance of 20 km. **c–f** Distribution of peak
 271 ground velocity (PGV) and pulse period (T_p) with moment magnitude (M_w) and
 272 closest distance (ClstD). **g** Variation of PGV with M_w and hypocentre distance
 273 (HypD). The discrete records are fitted as a curved surface. **h** Variation of PGV/PGA
 274 ratio with HypD. The inset map in the upper right exhibits the acceleration and
 275 velocity waveforms recorded by HWA009 in the Hualien earthquake.

276
 277 Modern ground motion prediction typically uses ground motion parameters
 278 recorded by multiple stations from various earthquakes to determine the intensity of
 279 ground motion at a specific location (Atik et al., 2010). The large pulse in a velocity
 280 series is an important component of the pulse-like ground motion and its pulse
 281 parameters are mainly characterized by the PGV and T_p . The variation of parameters

282 related to 247 spatial rotation velocity pulses is shown in Figure 3. The pulse indicator
283 (PI) is an important parameter that reflects the velocity pulse intensity and the
284 distribution boundary of the pulse records can be delineated through its relationship
285 with PGV and T_p (Figure 3a, b). Compared with the far-field records with a fault
286 distance greater than 20 km, the PI in the near-field is notably wider and larger; the PI
287 at station TCU068 is as high as 75, whereas the far-field records are distributed in the
288 local low-value region. The corresponding relationships used to analyse the effect of
289 earthquake magnitude and fault distance on the pulse parameters are shown in Figure
290 3c-f. The fitting regressions of the seismic records show that PGV and T_p increase
291 with magnitude, which indicates that the high-amplitude and long-period pulse
292 components of large earthquakes are more abundant. The ground motion amplitude in
293 the near-field also attenuates faster than that in the far-field and the pulse period of
294 each moment magnitude segment is nearly unaffected by fault distance. Similarly, the
295 PGV distribution can also be significantly modulated by the hypocenter distance and
296 earthquake size from the 3D fitting surface (Figure 3g).

297 Compared with the previous equivalent pulses, the rotated pulses are more in line
298 with the comprehensive results of multiple geological factors and can thus reflect the
299 omnidirectional ground motion differences. The predicted values of spatial pulse
300 parameters by the rotation method are higher than previous estimates, especially for
301 near-field pulse-like ground motion under large earthquakes. Previous studies of
302 horizontal ground motion reported that the lower limit magnitude of the velocity pulse
303 is 5.5 and the pulse amplitude mainly occurs at 30–100 cm/s (Somerville, 2003; Baker,
304 2007). However, the identification results from the 3D rotating pulse-like ground
305 motion show that approximately 22% of the records remain outside of the threshold
306 area. The lower and upper limits for some records are even close to 23 and 350 cm/s,
307 respectively, and the lower magnitude can be extended to 5. This substantially
308 increases the large velocity pulse data and complements the shortage of pulse
309 recording to some extent. For ground motion with a velocity pulse, when $PGV/PGA >$

310 0.2, the significant near-field seismic effect on engineering structures is excited by
 311 this pulse-like wave (Loh et al., 2002). The peak ratio decreases with increasing fault
 312 distance and increases with increasing hypocenter distance, and pulse records greater
 313 than 0.2 are still observed in the far-field region (Figure 3h). PGV and PGA basically
 314 appear at the same time in the seismic records, the peak ratio variation reflects that
 315 velocity attenuation is slower than acceleration, and there are stronger seismic and
 316 directivity effects in areas far from the source.



317
 318 **Figure 4.** Comparison of spectrum characteristics and other measures of pulse-like
 319 ground motion. **a–d** Variation of maximum pseudo-spectral velocity (MPSV) and
 320 Fourier spectrum (MFS) with M_w and $ClstD$. Solid blue and red lines indicate the
 321 fitted functions of the spatial and horizontal discrete data, respectively. **e** and **f**
 322 Velocity amplification factor (MPSV/PGV) and acceleration amplification factor
 323 (MPASA/PGA) vary with the different sites. Solid and dashed blue lines show the
 324 average value and the Uniform Building Code (UBC), respectively. **g** The ratio of
 325 MPSV to MPASA varies with M_w and $ClstD$ and the discrete data are fitted as a surface.
 326 **h** Arias intensity varies with M_w and $HypD$.

327
 328 Earthquake ground motion is a complex stochastic process owing to the
 329 interaction of the source mechanism, propagation path, and site conditions, which is
 330 reflected in the nonstationarity of the amplitude and period in seismic records. The

331 Fourier transform can decompose aperiodic complex ground motion into a
332 combination of several simple periodic functions, and the obtained Fourier spectrum
333 can reflect the distribution of ground motion energy in each periodic domain. The
334 maximum values of the velocity response spectra and Fourier spectra for the fitting
335 comparison exhibit similar distribution characteristics (Figure 4a-d). The spectral
336 peaks increase with earthquake magnitude and decrease with fault distance, and the
337 fitted prediction of the spatial pulses is greater than that of the horizontal pulses.

338 The response spectrum of each seismic record varies in different sites and the
339 amplification factor of the standard response spectrum is often used in structural
340 seismic design, thus more attention should be paid to the amplification effect of
341 pulse-like ground motion at different sites. Sites A–E were classified using
342 time-averaged shear wave velocities from the surface to 30 m depth according to the
343 site classification method of the United States Geological Survey (Table S2). The
344 amplification factors and average values for velocity and acceleration of pulse-like
345 ground motion at different site conditions are shown in Figure 4e, f. The amplification
346 factor differs substantially at different sites and the number of pulse records is higher
347 in the soil site than in the rock site. The average velocity and acceleration
348 amplification factors are 2.4 and 3.0, respectively, which especially reflect the
349 acceleration amplification factor beyond the maximum value (2.5) provided by the
350 Uniform Building Code. The maximum velocity and acceleration amplification
351 factors are as high as 4.5 and 5.0, respectively, which indicates that the design code
352 for pulse-like ground motion must be further improved. Similar to the pulse intensity
353 on the structure reflected by the peak ratio of the motion time history, the maximum
354 spectral ratio is influenced by both fault distance and earthquake magnitude and may
355 exceed 0.2 in the near- and far-fields with moment magnitudes greater than 6 (Figure
356 4g). The Arias intensity is an important parameter to characterize ground motion
357 energy, contains key information about ground motion amplitude and duration, and is
358 mainly used to evaluate sand liquefaction and structural deformation caused by

359 earthquakes (Arias, 1970). It is worth noting that the Arias intensity of pulse-like
360 ground motion is significantly affected by the hypocenter distance, even up to 10 m/s
361 at local stations (Figure 4h). This also reflects that serious geological disasters may be
362 caused by pulse-like ground motion; thus, further investigation is urgently required.

363 **5. Conclusions**

364 We analysed the pulse-like ground motion from 247 sets of three-component
365 pulse data for 46 shallow crustal earthquakes with magnitudes greater than 5. By
366 combining the moment magnitude, source-site geometry, and site conditions, the
367 results indicate that the 3D rotation pulse is obviously larger than the original record
368 and its spatial orientation is strongly influenced by geological factors. The rotation
369 pulse approach adopted in this paper increases the pulse peak threshold range, reduces
370 the lower earthquake magnitude limit to 5.0, and increases the seismic code value by
371 20%. This work shows that the accurate identification and extraction of pulse-like
372 ground motion from plenty of seismic events is a challenging task that can be
373 achieved using the 3D rotation method. The discovery of new pulse signals in seismic
374 data can therefore be better addressed using this strategy, which can improve the
375 prediction and analysis of geological hazards caused by pulse-like ground motion in
376 seismogenic areas.

377 **Acknowledgments**

378 This work was funded by the State Key Program of the National Natural Science
379 Foundation of China (Grant No. 52039007). The earthquake ground motion database
380 of the Pacific Earthquake Engineering Research Center is publicly available at
381 <https://ngawest2.berkeley.edu/>. The seismic data of the Hualien earthquake is
382 downloaded from <https://www.cwb.gov.tw/eng/>.

383 **References**

- 384 Ambraseys, N. N. (1977). Long-period effects in the Romanian earthquake of March
385 1977. *Nature*, 268(5618), 324–325.
- 386 Aoi, S., Kunugi, T. & Fujiwara, H. (2008). Trampoline effect in extreme ground

387 motion. *Science*, 322(5902), 727–730.

388 Arai, R. et al. (2016). Structure of the tsunamigenic plate boundary and low-frequency
389 earthquakes in the southern Ryukyu Trench. *Nat. Commun.*, 7, 12255.

390 Archuleta, R. J. & Hartzell, S. H. (1981). Effects of fault finiteness on near-source
391 ground motion. *Bull. Seismol. Soc. Am.*, 71(4), 939–957.

392 Arias, A. (1970). A measure of earthquake intensity. Massachusetts Institute of
393 Technology Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

394 Asano, K. & Iwata T. (2016). Source rupture processes of the foreshock and
395 mainshock in the 2016 Kumamoto earthquake sequence estimated from the
396 kinematic waveform inversion of strong motion data. *Earth Planets Space*, 68(1),
397 147.

398 Atik, L. A., Abrahamson, N., Bommer, J. J., Scherbaum, F., Cotton, F. & Kuehn, N.
399 (2010). The variability of ground-motion prediction models and its components.
400 *Seismol. Res. Lett.*, 81(5), 47–56.

401 Baker, J. W. (2007). Quantitative classification of near-fault ground motions using
402 wavelet analysis. *Bull. Seismol. Soc. Am.*, 97(5), 1486–1501.

403 Benioff, H. (1955). Mechanism and strain characteristics of the White Wolf fault as
404 indicated by the aftershock sequence. *California Div. Mines Bull.*, 171, 199–202.

405 Bozorgnia, Y. & Campbell, K. W. (2016). Ground motion model for the
406 vertical-to-horizontal (V/H) ratios of PGA, PGV, and response spectra. *Earthq.*
407 *Spectra*, 32(2), 951–978.

408 Bray, J. D. & Rodriguez-Marek, A. (2004). Characterization of forward directivity
409 ground motions in the near-fault region. *Soil Dynam. Earthq. Eng.*, 24(11), 815–
410 828.

411 Burks, L. S. & Baker, J. W. (2016). A predictive model for fling-step in near-fault
412 ground motions based on recordings and simulations. *Soil Dynam. Earthq. Eng.*, 80,
413 119–126.

414 Calvert, A. J., Bostock, M. G., Savard, G. & Unsworth, M. J. (2020). Cascadia low

415 frequency earthquakes at the base of an overpressured subduction shear zone. *Nat.*
416 *Commun.*, 11, 3874.

417 Chen, K., Avouac, J. P., Aati, S., Milliner, C., Zheng, F. & Shi, C. (2020). Cascading
418 and pulse-like ruptures during the 2019 Ridgecrest earthquakes in the Eastern
419 California Shear Zone. *Nat. Commun.*, 11, 22.

420 Dickinson, B. W. & Gavin, H. P. (2011). Parametric statistical generalization of
421 uniform-hazard earthquake ground motions. *J. Struct. Eng.*, 137(3), 410–422.

422 Hall, J. F., Heaton, T. H., Halling, M. W. & Wald, D. J. (1995). Near-source ground
423 motion and its effects on flexible buildings. *Earthq. Spectra*, 11(4), 569–605.

424 Hayden, C. P., Bray, J. D. & Abrahamson, N. A. (2014). Selection of near-fault pulse
425 motions. *J. Geotech. Geoenviron. Eng.*, 140(7), 04014030.

426 Ji, C., Helmberger, D. V., Song, T. R. A., Ma, K. F., & Wald, D. J. (2001). Slip
427 distribution and tectonic implication of the 1999 Chi-Chi, Taiwan, earthquake.
428 *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 28(23), 4379-4382.

429 Kanamori, H. & Kikuchi, M. (1993). The 1992 Nicaragua earthquake: a slow tsunami
430 earthquake associated with subducted sediments. *Nature*, 361(6414), 714–716.

431 Li, R. H., Li, H. N. & Li, C. (2018). Seismic performance assessment of RC frame
432 structures subjected to far-field and near-field ground motions considering strain
433 rate effect. *Int. J. Struct. Stab. Dynam.*, 18(10), 1850127.

434 Li, Z., Chen, X., Gao, M., Jiang, H., & Li, T. (2017). Simulating and analyzing
435 engineering parameters of Kyushu earthquake, Japan, 1997, by empirical Green
436 function method. *J. Seismol.*, 21(2), 367-384.

437 Liu, Z., Li, X. & Zhang, Z. (2020). Quantitative identification of near-fault ground
438 motions based on ensemble empirical mode decomposition. *KSCE J. Civ. Eng.*,
439 24(3), 922–930.

440 Loh, C., Wan, S. & Liao, W. (2002). Effects of hysteretic model on seismic demands:
441 consideration of near-fault ground motions. *Struct. Design Tall Spec. Build.*, 11(3),
442 155–169.

443 Ma, K. F., Song, T. R. A., Lee, S. J., & Wu, H. I. (2000). Spatial slip distribution of
444 the September 20, 1999, Chi-Chi, Taiwan, earthquake ($M_w7.6$)-Inverted from
445 teleseismic data. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 27(20), 3417-3420.

446 Mallat, S. (2008). *A Wavelet Tour of Signal Processing*. Academic Press, San Diego,
447 California.

448 Mavroeidis, G. P., Dong, G. & Papageorgiou, A. S. (2004). Near-fault ground motions,
449 and the response of elastic and inelastic single-degree-of-freedom (SDOF) systems.
450 *Earthq. Eng. Struct. Dynam.*, 33(9), 1023–1049.

451 Pei, S. et al. (2019). Seismic velocity reduction and accelerated recovery due to
452 earthquakes on the Longmenshan fault. *Nat. Geosci.*, 12(5), 387–392.

453 Poiata, N., Miyake, H. & Koketsu, K. (2017). Mechanisms for generation of
454 near-fault ground motion pulses for dip-slip faulting. *Pure Appl. Geophys.*, 174(9),
455 3521–3536.

456 Rupakhety, R., Sigurdsson, S. U., Papageorgiou, A. S. & Sigbjörnsson, R. (2011).
457 Quantification of ground-motion parameters and response spectra in the near-fault
458 region. *Bull. Earthq. Eng.*, 9(4), 893–930.

459 Seydoux, L., Balestrieri, R., Poli, P., De Hoop, M., Campillo, M. & Baraniuk, R.
460 (2020). Clustering earthquake signals and background noises in continuous seismic
461 data with unsupervised deep learning. *Nat. Commun.*, 11, 3972.

462 Shahi, S. K. & Baker, J. W. (2011). An empirically calibrated framework for including
463 the effects of near-fault directivity in probabilistic seismic hazard analysis. *Bull.*
464 *Seismol. Soc. Am.*, 101(2), 742–755.

465 Shahi, S. K. & Baker, J. W. (2014). An efficient algorithm to identify strong-velocity
466 pulses in multicomponent ground motions. *Bull. Seismol. Soc. Am.*, 104(5), 2456–
467 2466.

468 Shin, T. C. et al. (2001). Ground displacements around the fault of the September 20th,
469 1999, Chi-Chi Taiwan Earthquake. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 28(8), 1651-1654.

470 Somerville, P. G. (2003). Magnitude scaling of the near fault rupture directivity pulse.

471 Phys. Earth Planet. In., 137, 201–212.

472 Somerville, P. G., Smith, N. F., Graves, R. W. & Abrahamson, N. A. (1997).
473 Modification of empirical strong ground motion attenuation relations to include the
474 amplitude and duration effects of rupture directivity. *Seismol. Res. Lett.*, 68(1),
475 199–222.

476 Yazdani, A., Nicknam, A., Dadras, E. Y. & Eftekhari, S. N. (2017). Near-field
477 probabilistic seismic hazard analysis of metropolitan Tehran using region-specific
478 directivity models. *Pure Appl. Geophys.*, 174(1), 117–132.

479 Zare, M. & Sinaiean, F. (2014). Site effects and classification of Iran accelerographic
480 stations. *Geodyn. Res. Int. Bull.*, 1(2), 15–23.

481 Zhang, G., Vallée, M., Shan, X., & Delouis, B. (2012). Evidence of sudden rupture of
482 a large asperity during the 2008 *M*_w7.9 Wenchuan earthquake based on strong
483 motion analysis. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 39, L17303.

484 Zhang, Z., & He, S. (2019). Analysis of broadband seismic recordings of landslide
485 using empirical Green's function. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 46(9), 4628-4635.