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Journal

Geophysical Journal International, 224(2)

ISSN

0956-540X

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Publication Date

2020-11-27

DOI

10.1093/gji/ggaa482

Peer reviewed



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Journal:	<i>Geophysical Journal International</i>
Manuscript ID	GJI-S-20-0385.R1
Manuscript Type:	Research Paper
Date Submitted by the Author:	n/a
Complete List of Authors:	Qin, Lei; University of Southern California, Department of Earth Sciences Share, Pieter-Ewald; University of California San Diego Scripps Institution of Oceanography, IGPP Qiu, Hongrui; Rice University, Department of Earth, Environmental and Planetary Sciences Allam, Amir A.; The University of Utah, Department of Geology and Geophysics Vernon, Frank; University of California San Diego Scripps Institution of Oceanography, IGPP Ben-Zion, Yehuda; University of Southern California, Department of Earth Sciences
Keywords:	Crustal imaging < SEISMOLOGY, Interface waves < SEISMOLOGY, Guided waves < SEISMOLOGY, Body waves < SEISMOLOGY, Seismic attenuation < SEISMOLOGY, Earthquake dynamics < SEISMOLOGY

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3 **1 Internal structure of the San Jacinto fault zone at the Ramona Reservation, north of Anza,**
4 **California, from dense array seismic data**

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Geophysics Journal International

In review, 2020

Short title: Internal structure of the SJFZ

31 **Summary**

32 We image the internal structure of the San Jacinto fault zone (SJFZ) near Anza, California,
33 with seismic data recorded by two dense arrays (RA and RR) from ~42,000 local and ~180
34 teleseismic events occurring between 2012-2017. The RA linear array has short aperture (~470
35 m long with 12 strong motion sensors) and recorded for the entire analyzed time window,
36 whereas the RR is a large three-component nodal array (97 geophones across a ~2.4 km x 1.4 km
37 area) that operated for about a month in September-October 2016. The SJFZ at the site contains
38 three near-parallel surface traces F1, F2, and F3 from SW to NE that have accommodated several
39 $M_w > 6$ earthquakes in the past 15,000 years. Waveform changes in the fault normal direction
40 indicate structural discontinuities that are consistent with the three fault surface traces. Relative
41 slowness from local events and delay time analysis of teleseismic arrivals in the fault normal
42 direction suggest a slower SW side than the NE with a core damage zone between F1 and F2.
43 This core damage zone causes ~0.05 second delay at stations RR26-31 in the teleseismic P
44 arrivals compared with the SW-most station, and generates both P- and S- type fault zone
45 trapped waves. Inversion of S trapped waves indicates the core damaged structure is ~100 m
46 wide, ~4 km deep with a Q value of ~20 and 40% S-wave velocity reduction compared with
47 bounding rocks. Fault zone head waves observed at stations SW of F3 indicate a local bimaterial
48 interface that separates the locally faster NE block from the broad damage zone in the SW at
49 shallow depth and merges with a deep interface that separates the regionally faster NE block
50 from rocks to the SW with slower velocities at greater depth. The multi-scale structural
51 components observed at the site are related to the geological and earthquake rupture history at
52 the site, and provide important information on the preferred NW propagation of earthquake
53 ruptures on the San Jacinto fault.

54

55 **Keywords:** Crustal Imaging, Interface waves, Guided waves, Body waves, Seismic Attenuation,
56 Earthquake dynamics

57

58 **1 Introduction**

59 Large fault zones often have large-scale bimaterial interfaces that separate two crustal blocks
60 with different seismic velocities and hierarchical damage zones having reduction of elastic
61 properties with respect to the bounding rocks (Ben-Zion & Sammis 2003, and references therein).

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3 62 A large-scale bimaterial fault interface may induce preferential rupture propagation direction
4
5 63 related to the velocity contrast and sense of loading (e.g., Weertman 1980, Andrews & Ben-Zion
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7 64 1997, Ben-Zion 2001, Shlomaï & Fineberg 2016). Numerous such ruptures on a given fault
8
9 65 section are expected to generate asymmetric rock damage with the regionally faster block
10
11 66 sustaining most of the damage (Ben-Zion & Shi 2005, Xu *et al.* 2012). The asymmetric fault
12
13 67 damage zone may include pulverized rocks that provide important information on the generating
14
15 68 dynamic strain field (Dor *et al.* 2006, Mitchell *et al.* 2011, Xu & Ben-Zion 2017) and is typically
16
17 69 concentrated in the top few kilometers of the crust (e.g. Peng *et al.* 2003, Lewis *et al.* 2005).
18
19 70 Information on bimaterial fault interfaces, damage zones and other fault properties can be
20
21 71 obtained through high-density deployments of seismic instruments within and around the fault
22
23 72 zone (Harjes & Henger 1973, Rost & Thomas 2002, Ben-Zion *et al.* 2015).

24
25 73 Located in the highly populated Southern California area, the San Jacinto fault zone (SJFZ)
26
27 74 is one of the most seismically active fault zones along the boundary between the American and
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29 75 Pacific plates in the region (e.g. Hauksson *et al.* 2012, Ross *et al.* 2017) and accommodates a
30
31 76 comparable portion of the plate motion to that of the southern San Andreas fault (e.g., Becker *et*
32
33 77 *al.* 2005, Fay & Humphreys 2005, Lindsey & Fialko 2013). Historical records indicate that the
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35 78 SJFZ hosted numerous $M_w > 7$ earthquakes (Petersen & Wesnousky 1994, Rockwell *et al.* 2015),
36
37 79 some rupturing most of the length of the SJFZ in a single event (Salisbury *et al.* 2012,
38
39 80 Onderdonk *et al.* 2013), thus posing significant seismic hazard to the area. Tomography imaging
40
41 81 results of the SJFZ (Allam & Ben-Zion 2012, Allam *et al.* 2014a, Share *et al.* 2019a) with
42
43 82 nominal resolution of 1-2 km indicate complex structures with broad damage zones and various
44
45 83 large-scale velocity contrasts across the fault.

46
47 84 To obtain high-resolution information on internal fault structures, five linear dense arrays
48
49 85 with 10-30 m station spacing were deployed across main traces of the SJFZ in the Blackburn
50
51 86 Saddle (BB), Ramona Reservation (RA), Sage Brush Flat (SGB), Dry Wash (DW) and Jackass
52
53 87 Flat (JF) sites (white and red triangles from NW to SE in Fig. 1a). Analyses of direct arrivals,
54
55 88 fault zone head waves that propagate along bimaterial interfaces, and fault zone trapped waves
56
57 89 generated by interference of internal reflections within core fault damage zones reveal high-
58
59 90 resolution local velocity variations, extent and velocity contrasts of bimaterial interfaces, and
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61 91 seismic and geometrical properties of damage zones at these sites (Qiu *et al.* 2017, Share *et al.*
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63 92 2017, Qin *et al.* 2018, Share *et al.* 2019b). In addition, Zigone *et al.* (2019) used 2-35 Hz high-

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3 93 frequency noise data from these linear dense arrays to obtain shear wave velocities (0.3-0.9 km/s)
4 94 in the top ~100 m.

5
6 95 To complement these studies, we image in the present study the internal fault zone structures
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8 96 at the Ramona Reservation using local and tele seismic data (Fig. 1) from the two dense arrays
9
10 97 RA and RR (Fig. 2). The main aim of this work is to resolve bimaterial interfaces, velocity
11
12 98 variations within the fault zone, and properties of the fault damage structures in the study area.
13
14 99 The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In the next section we describe the data used for the
15
16 100 imaging analyses. The employed techniques and derived results are presented in section 3 and
17
18 101 discussed in section 4.
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103 **2 Data and preprocessing**

104 Regional tomography results (Allam & Ben-Zion 2012, Allam *et al.* 2014a, Share *et al.*
105 2019a) suggest the main strand of the SJFZ in the Ramona Reservation, the Clark fault, separates
106 overall faster velocity rocks to the NE from the SW at depth. At this site, two dense arrays (RA
107 and RR in Fig. 2) were installed across three fault surface traces (F1, F2, F3 in Fig. 2) associated
108 with $M_w > 6$ earthquakes in the past 15,000 years (Rockwell *et al.* 2015). The short linear RA
109 array (red balloons in Fig. 2) has 12 three-component strong motion sensors (01 to 12 from SW
110 to NE) over an aperture of ~470 m crossing F2, and started recording in 2012 at 200 samples per
111 second (sps). The RR array contains 65 stations installed along a line with an aperture of ~2.4
112 km in the fault normal direction (01 to 65 from SW to NE in Fig. 2) and 32 stations distributed
113 around the SW-NE line (Fig. 2) expanding for ~1.4 km in the along fault direction. The RR array
114 has three-component geophones sampling at 500 sps and recorded from Sep 1st to Oct 2nd in
115 2016. RR stations 28-41 cover a similar area as the RA array. The fault surface traces, F1, F2 and
116 F3, are located between stations RR20-21, RR31-32/RA04-05 and RR42-43, respectively.

117 We investigate data from 2012-2017 associated with ~180 $M > 5$ teleseismic events (Fig. 1b)
118 with clear P arrivals, and ~42,000 local events within an area (blue box in Fig. 1a) of 200 km in
119 the fault-parallel and 60 km in the fault-normal directions centered on the study site. Of these,
120 ~1700 local and ~11 teleseismic events occurred during the deployment of the RR array. Local P
121 and S wave arrivals are automatically detected (Ross & Ben-Zion 2014, Ross *et al.* 2016), and
122 teleseismic P wave arrivals are estimated using the TauP toolkit (Crotwell *et al.* 1999) and
123 IASP91 velocity model. Seismic recordings are discarded if the signal-to-noise ratio is smaller

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3 124 than 3, defined as the ratio of root-mean-square values between the signal window (e.g. P/S
4 125 arrivals) and the preceding noise window of the same length.

6 126 We first analyze spatial changes of waveforms in the fault normal direction (section 3.1) to
8 127 identify structural discontinuities. Next, P-wave delay time from teleseismic events, and P-wave
9 128 relative slowness from local earthquakes within a 60 km \times 20 km box centered on the site (red
11 129 box in Fig. 1a), are analyzed to investigate local velocity variations (section 3.2). Using the RR
13 130 array, fault zone head waves (FZHW, section 3.3) from events located <10 km normal to the
15 131 fault (cyan box in Fig. 1a) are analyzed to constrain bimaterial interface properties (location and
17 132 velocity contrast). Fault zone trapped waves (FZTW, section 3.4) are investigated to constrain
19 133 parameters of the core damage zone.

20 134

22 135 **3 Analyses**

24 136 **3.1 Waveform changes**

26 137 Theoretical results (e.g. Ben-Zion & Aki 1990, Igel *et al.* 1997, Ben-Zion 1998, Jahnke *et al.*
27 138 2002) and in-situ observations (e.g. Cormier & Spudich 1984, Rovelli *et al.* 2002, Korneev *et al.*
29 139 2003, Catchings *et al.* 2016, Qin *et al.* 2018) show that lateral variations in fault zone structures
31 140 can affect waveform characteristics, e.g., amplitude, travel time, particle motion and spectral
32 141 content. We investigate changes in these properties across the RR array using cross-correlation
34 142 analysis and visual inspection applied to tele and local seismic data. In general, while waveforms
36 143 change to some extent because of factors such as focal mechanism and event location, there are
38 144 persistent transitions of waveform characteristics across the three fault surface traces at the study
40 145 site.

41 146 Fig. 3(a) presents 1 Hz lowpass filtered P waves from a teleseismic event (Tele1, labeled in
43 147 Fig. 1b). We calculate the matrix of cross-correlation coefficients (CC) of the array data in a 2.5
44 148 second time window (blue lines in Fig. 3a) starting 0.5 second before the P arrival. The short
46 149 time window is chosen to suppress the influence of later arrivals. The median CC from all events
48 150 at RR and RA arrays are presented in Figs. 3(b)&(c). Waveforms at RR stations NE of F3 are
50 151 highly correlated with each other with CC values close to 1, and less correlated with those from
52 152 stations to the SW (CC= <0.8). The same pattern emerges for stations between F1 and F3, where
54 153 the waveforms show high correlation with each other but not with stations outside. There is,
56 154 however, only a slight decrease in CC values for stations between F2 to F3 compared to those

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3 155 between F1 to F2 (Fig. 3b). This is more clearly seen in the CC results of the short RA array
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5 156 based on more events (Fig. 3c). Fig. 4 displays 1-20 Hz bandpass filtered waveforms of four
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7 157 local events (labeled in Fig. 1a) from four quadrants separated by the local fault-parallel and
8
9 158 fault-normal directions. Despite differences in focal mechanisms and locations, we consistently
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11 159 observe changes in phase, amplitude and frequency across stations near the surface traces F1, F2
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13 160 and F3 (blue, green and red dashed lines in Fig.4). Events with similar waveform change patterns
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15 161 are shown in Fig. 1(a) with yellow stars. The CC patterns and local waveform changes across the
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17 162 arrays imply structural blocks separated by the three fault traces with different material
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19 163 properties that may be related to the fault zone evolution and previous rupture activities.
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20 165 **3.2 Delay time analysis**

22 166 Following previous studies (e.g. Qiu *et al.* 2017, Share *et al.* 2017), we analyze the arrival
23
24 167 time patterns of tele and local seismic P waves to obtain the velocity variations inside the fault
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26 168 zone. Teleseismic waves are lowpass filtered at 1 Hz, and then the delay time for each station
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28 169 relative to the reference station (the SW-most station) in each array is calculated via cross
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30 170 correlation in a 2.5 second time window starting 0.5 second before the P arrival (same time
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32 171 window as in section 3.1). Since the delay times in the two arrays are calculated with respect to
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34 172 different reference stations (RR01 for RR array and RA01 for RA array), only delay time trends
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36 173 in the two arrays are comparable, not the absolute values. Fig. 5(a) presents the delay time from a
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38 174 teleseismic event (location labeled in Fig. 1b, waveforms and time windows shown in Fig. 3a)
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40 175 and the median delay time from all events at RR array. The results indicate a faster NE block
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42 176 relative to the SW, with a broad damage zone that includes areas near the three fault traces. The
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44 177 RA delay time (green dashed line in Fig. 5a) shows consistent results with RR stations over the
45
46 178 similar area.

47 179 Considering the significant topographic change at the study site (Fig. 2b), we correct the
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49 180 influence of station-event geometry and local topography following Qin *et al.* (2018). The time
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51 181 difference caused by station-event geometry is approximated by the travel time difference
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53 182 predicted from the TauP toolkit (Crotwell *et al.* 1999) and the IASP91 velocity model. Local
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55 183 topography induced delay time is calculated via $dt = (d_i - d_{ref})/v_{ref}$ where d_i and d_{ref} are the
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57 184 elevations of station i and the reference station, and v_{ref} is the reference velocity of the surface
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59 185 layer. We use a reference P-wave velocity here of 4 km/s for the elevation correction. Since
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3 186 station elevation increases from SW to NE, the choice of reference velocity will not affect the
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5 187 general trend that the NE is faster than the SW side; any reasonable velocity used during
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7 188 topography correction will only further decrease the delay on the NE side (Fig. 5) and will not
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9 189 change the major trend of the delay time (see Fig. S1 for results using different reference
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11 190 velocities).

12 191 The corrected delay times are shown in Fig. 5(a) as blue (RR array) and red (RA array) dots
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14 192 with error bars representing one standard error. Stations to the NE of F3 are located on a
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16 193 generally faster block compared to the SW side, consistent with the large-scale velocity structure.
17
18 194 Stations between RR01 and RR47 have positive relative delay times, indicating an underlying
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20 195 broad damage zone. The maximum delay time is ~ 0.05 seconds and occurs at stations RR26-31
21
22 196 between F1 and F2, indicating the core of the fault damage zone, which is further elaborated by
23
24 197 FZTW analysis in section 3.4. A bimaterial interface with the most significant velocity contrast
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26 198 at the site marks the transition between the broad damage zone and the regionally faster NE
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28 199 block. This interface is imaged in section 3.3 using local FZHW.

29 200 For local P wave analysis, we use events that are close to the site (red box in Fig. 1a), and
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31 201 exclude P picks that are more than 1 second away from predicted values using 1D velocity model
32
33 202 averaged from the 3D tomographic results of Allam & Ben-Zion (2012). Then we calculate the
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35 203 along-path average slowness using the P-wave travel time divided by the along-path distance,
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37 204 and reject slowness values that are larger than 0.25 s/km or smaller than 0.125 s/km. The relative
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39 205 slowness is obtained as slowness values normalized by the array median value. This procedure
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41 206 was applied at other sites along the SJFZ (Qiu *et al.* 2017, Share *et al.* 2017, Qin *et al.* 2018,
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43 207 Share *et al.* 2019b) and produced stable and reliable relative slowness values within the fault
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45 208 zones irrespective of regional 3D velocity variations. Figs. 5(b)-(d) show relative slowness inside
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47 209 the two arrays and relative slowness histograms from two stations RA01 and RR15. The well-
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49 210 defined median and standard deviation values at each station support the reliability of the
50
51 211 obtained relative slowness. The RR results show similar patterns as the teleseismic analysis with
52
53 212 the NE side faster than the SW, while the short aperture RA stations show a slightly uniform
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55 213 relative slowness. The RR results exhibit larger variations than those from the RA array because
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57 214 of the limited data available for the RR array. The broad damage zone is less pronounced in Fig.
58
59 215 5(b) as the higher frequency local P arrivals have higher resolution and highlight shallower
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216 small-scale variations within the broader damage zone, including very low velocity structures

217 around F2 and stations RR23-27. Ambient noise tomography shows similar variation in shallow
 218 S-wave velocity structures contained within a broader low velocity damage zone (Wang *et al.*
 219 2019). More details about the fault damage zone are presented in section 3.4.

220

221 3.3 Fault zone head waves

222 Fault zone head waves (FZHW) are emergent phases that propagate most of their path along
 223 a bimaterial interface with the velocity of the faster block and radiate from the interface to the
 224 slower side (e.g. Ben-Zion 1990). Synthetic and observed seismograms show that the emergent
 225 FZHW have significantly different amplitudes and frequency contents than the impulsive direct
 226 P waves (Ben-Zion & Malin 1991; McGuire & Ben-Zion, 2005). FZHW can be used to analyze
 227 properties of bimaterial interfaces such as continuity and degree of velocity contrast. The
 228 emergent FZHW arrive before the direct impulsive P waves at stations on the slower side closer
 229 to the fault than a critical distance x_c defined as $x_c = r \cdot (v_2^2/v_1^2 - 1)^{\frac{1}{2}}$, where r , v_2 , v_1 are the
 230 propagation distance along bimaterial interface, P-wave velocity on the fast and slow sides,
 231 respectively. The separation time (Δt) between the FZHW and P-wave arrivals decreases when
 232 the propagation distance (r) of FZHW along bimaterial interface decreases or the fault normal
 233 distance of the station and/or event increases (Share & Ben-Zion 2018), and can be estimated
 234 with $\Delta t = r \cdot \Delta v/v^2$ with Δv and v representing, respectively, the differential and average P-
 235 wave velocities of the bimaterial interface.

236 A small critical distance, or fast decay of P-wave and FZHW differential arrival time in the
 237 fault normal direction, imply a small velocity contrast or/and short propagation distance of
 238 FZHW along bimaterial interface. Different waveform characteristics like motion polarity (e.g.
 239 Ben-Zion & Malin 1991, Bulut *et al.* 2012), frequency content (e.g. Share *et al.* 2019b), and
 240 arrival time moveout patterns related to the different azimuths of the direct P and FZHW
 241 wavefronts are critical to identifying FZHW. Inside the RR array, we observe two types of
 242 FZHW: (1) local FZHW (red squares in Fig. 6) related to a local interface between the broad
 243 low-velocity damage zone and regionally faster rocks to the NE; (2) regional FZHW (purple
 244 squares in Fig. 6) propagating along a deep large scale interface that is connected to the local
 245 bimaterial interface.

246 Fig. 7 presents waveforms from a candidate event (red star in Fig. 6) that generate local
 247 FZHW and a reference event nearby (red dot in Fig. 6) that does not. The reference event is

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3 248 likely located too far NE (regional faster side of the SJFZ) at depth to produce critically refracted
4 249 local FZHW. For stations RR47-26, the first arrivals from the candidate event are emergent with
5 250 smaller amplitudes compared with those at other stations. From stations RR47 to RR26, the
6 251 separation time between the first arrivals (i.e. FZHW, green line in Fig. 7a) and direct P waves
7 252 (red dashed line in Fig. 7a) decreases dramatically from ~ 0.1 to 0 second. In contrast, the
8 253 reference event generates impulsive P waves as first arrivals at all stations. In Fig. 7a, the lack of
9 254 observed FZHW at stations SW of RR26 implies a short propagation distance of FZHW along a
10 255 bimaterial interface. To confirm this, we present in Fig. 8 the waveforms from all candidate
11 256 events (red squares in Fig. 6) at stations RR47 with and RR50 without FZHW. Waveforms in Fig.
12 257 8 are aligned with the first impulsive P wave arrivals, and plotted with respect to the along-fault-
13 258 distances of events to the Ramona site. Although the two stations are only ~ 120 m apart, they are
14 259 located on different sides of a bimaterial interface, resulting in significantly different first arrivals
15 260 (i.e. emergent FZHW vs. impulsive P waves). The separation time of FZHW and P waves is 0.1
16 261 seconds, and does not change with event distance along the fault, indicating that all these FZHW
17 262 propagate the same distance along a similar bimaterial patch. Therefore, this type of FZHW is
18 263 related to a relatively shallow and local bimaterial interface, with structure on the SW of station
19 264 RR47 being slower than to the NE of that station. Combined with the analysis in sections 3.1-3.2,
20 265 this local bimaterial interface corresponds to the interface between the broad damage zone and
21 266 regionally faster block to the NE. A near surface S-wave velocity contrast in a similar location
22 267 and with the same velocity contrast polarity is observed using ambient noise tomography (Wang
23 268 *et al.* 2019).

24 269 There is also evidence for a deep bimaterial interface that continuously extends from the edge
25 270 of the broad damage zone down to seismogenic depths. Fig. 9 shows waveforms from a
26 271 candidate event (purple star in Fig. 6) with FZHW propagating along a deep interface and a
27 272 reference event nearby (purple dot in Fig. 6). Despite locating also on the regionally slow side of
28 273 the SJFZ at depth (Allam & Ben-Zion 2012, Share *et al.* 2019a), the reference event is likely too
29 274 far SW of the deep bimaterial interface and too close to the Ramona site to generate first arriving
30 275 FZHW (Share & Ben-Zion 2018). The first arrivals from the candidate event at stations RR47-1
31 276 are emergent FZHW (green line in Fig. 9a), while the first arrivals from the reference event are
32 277 impulsive direct P waves. Fig. 10 shows waveforms from all candidate events (purple squares in
33 278 Fig. 6 in the trifurcation area) at stations RR47 with and RR50 without FZHW. The P waves are

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3 279 delayed by ~ 0.25 seconds with respect to the FZHW arrivals. This delay is approximately equal
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5 280 for these events given their similar hypocenters. Compared with Figs 7-8, the differential arrival
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7 281 times between P waves and FZHW in Figs 9-10 are generally larger and all stations SW of RR47
8
9 282 record first arriving FZHW (increased critical distance, e.g., Share & Ben-Zion 2018). Especially
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11 283 on the SW of station RR26 where there is no FZHW in Figs 7-8, the P-wave and FZHW
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13 284 differential travel time decreases with a significantly small rate. These observations imply a
14
15 285 longer propagation distance of FZHW in Figs 9-10 along a deep bimaterial interface, which
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17 286 connects to the local interface between damage zone and faster NE fault block at the study site.
18
19 287 Unfortunately, no other clear FZHW generating events with significantly different hypocentral
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21 288 distances occurred during the month-long RR array deployment. Thus, we are unable to
22
23 289 accurately constrain the extent of and velocity contrast across this deep interface. Nevertheless, a
24
25 290 deep bimaterial fault that extends continuously from the Clark fault surface trace to seismogenic
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27 291 depth in the trifurcation area is consistent with analysis of FZHW recorded at the Blackburn
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29 292 Saddle site (Fig. 1a, Share *et al.* 2017, Share *et al.* 2019b) and regional scale seismic tomography
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31 293 showing generally faster velocities on the NE side of the Clark fault (Allam *et al.* 2014a).

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33 294 Despite the poor constraints on P velocity properties of the regional bimaterial interface at
34
35 295 depth, we are able to use the azimuthal and frequency differences between the FZHW and direct
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37 296 P waves to constrain the properties of the bimaterial interface near the surface. This is done using
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39 297 beamforming (e.g. Rost & Thomas 2002) over azimuth, horizontal slowness and frequency space
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41 298 to separate coherent FZHW (lower frequency) from coherent direct P waves (higher frequency).
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43 299 For beamforming, we only use stations SW of the bimaterial interface (SW of RR47), inside the
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45 300 broader damage zone defined in Fig. 5(a) and only a selection of stations along the main across-
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47 301 fault profile. Stations for beamforming analysis are plotted with green balloons in Fig. 2(a). This
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49 302 allows the best beamforming results using stations that (1) all record FZHW, (2) all locate within
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51 303 similar velocity structure (even though the velocity is lowest), (3) are more homogeneously
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53 304 spaced and (4) have comparable elevations relative to the array aperture (all selected stations are
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55 305 within 40 m elevation of the central station – RR34).

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57 306 We systematically search slowness space from 0.03 to 0.43 s/km in increments of 0.01 s/km,
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59 307 azimuth space from 0 to 360 in 1 degree increments and frequency space from 2 to 19 Hz in
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308 steps of 1 Hz with a bandwidth of ± 1 Hz at each step. For each combination of slowness,
309 azimuth and frequency, beamforming is done on 2 seconds P waveforms (starting 0.5 s before

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3 310 first arrival) using a 4-th root slant stack (Rost & Thomas 2002) to capture as best as possible the
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5 311 weak FZHW signals. The beamforming results applied to the candidate event in Fig. 9(a) are
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7 312 shown in Fig. 11. Similar results are obtained for the other candidate events in Fig. 8(a) (not
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9 313 shown). The centers of the two most pronounced beams, and therefore coherent plane wavefronts,
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11 314 are associated with parameters $s=0.14$ km/s, azimuth=100 degrees and central frequency=5 Hz
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13 315 (Fig. 11a), and $s=0.17$ km/s, azimuth=152 degrees and central frequency=13 Hz (Fig. 11b).
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15 316 These represent respectively the FZHW wavefront propagating from the fault (lower dominant
16
17 317 frequency) and the direct P wavefront originating from the event epicenter (higher dominant
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19 318 frequency). Due to the irregular geometry of the array stations employed in beamforming, some
20
21 319 quantification of uncertainty in these estimates is required. Array transfer function for the 4-6 Hz
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23 320 and 12-14 Hz frequency ranges (Fig. S2a & b) show faint artefacts are present in the across-fault
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25 321 (azimuth=40°) and along-fault (azimuth=130°) directions, because of the two main array profile
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27 322 azimuths. The average radii of the central beams in these plots are 0.1 s/km (4-6 Hz) and 0.04
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29 323 s/km (12-14 Hz) (Fig. S2). However, neither the obtained FZHW nor direct P beams are close to
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31 324 the 40°, 130° azimuths so we consider them well constrained to within a slowness error of 0.04-
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33 325 0.1 s/km.

326 Using the obtained FZHW and direct P parameters, we slant stack the respective traces (4-th
327 root modulation not applied), cross correlate the resultant beam trace with each individual trace
328 allowing only a time shift equal to the dominant period for that phase ($1/5$ s = FZHW and $1/13$ s
329 = direct P), and then stack the highest correlating traces again. This allows the best quality
330 coherent beam trace in the presence of complex fault zone structures and an uneven surface. The
331 final stacked beam traces at the location of station RR34 shows the earlier arrival of the FZHW
332 wavefront (red) compared to the direct P wavefront (black) (Fig. 11c). The time difference
333 between FZHW and direct P waves is reduced compared to station RR47 (Fig. 8a) as RR34 is
334 farther from the bimaterial interface. The horizontal particle motions of the beam traces (Fig. 11d)
335 highlight again the FZHW radiating from the fault (red particles) and direct P waves pointing to
336 the event epicenter (black particles). The deviation in azimuth obtained from beamforming and
337 horizontal particle motions for the high frequency direct P waves (Fig. 11d) probably relates to
338 the interactions of the respective wavefronts with the free surface, and may also indicate
339 anisotropic velocity structure within the broad damage zone (Bear *et al.* 1999, Li *et al.* 2015).
340 Using the more robust estimate of FZHW azimuth from beamforming (Fig. 11a), we estimate an

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3 341 apparent velocity contrast across the interface around RR47. Given the surface fault strike of 130
4 342 degrees (FZHW propagate along fault surface on fast side) and a FZHW azimuth of 100 degrees
5 343 in the SW, using Snell's Law the apparent velocity contrast relative to the NE block is 13.4%.
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7 344 This is an apparent estimate because it doesn't consider potential dipping fault geometry and the
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9 345 incident angles of the respective P phases.
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13 347 **3.4 Fault zone trapped waves**

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15 348 Fault zone trapped waves (FZTW) are critically reflected phases that constructively interfere
16 349 inside a low-velocity zone such as fault related core damage zone (e.g. Ben-Zion & Aki 1990,
17 350 Ben-Zion 1998). The most common type of FZTW, Love-type SH signals following the direct S
18 351 arrival, have been observed in many places (e.g., Li *et al.* 1990, 1994, 1997, Ben-Zion *et al.* 2003,
19 352 Haberland *et al.* 2003, Mamada *et al.* 2004, Mizuno & Nishigami 2006, Cochran *et al.* 2009,
20 353 Lewis & Ben-Zion 2010). A less common type of trapped waves involving leaky modes between
21 354 the P and S body waves is also generated in some cases (Malin *et al.* 2006, Gulley *et al.* 2017).
22 355 Both types of FZTW have been observed in previous studies along the SJFZ (e.g. Qiu *et al.* 2017,
23 356 Qin *et al.* 2018). Events that generate FZTW inside the RR array are shown as green squares in
24 357 Fig. 1(a). These events are selected using the automatic picking algorithm (Ross & Ben-Zion
25 358 2015) and confirmed based on visual inspection. Fig. 12 presents the vertical and fault parallel
26 359 waveforms from a candidate event (TW1, labeled in Fig. 1a) containing large amplitude wave
27 360 packages related to P- and S- type FZTW (red dashed boxes in Fig. 12). The locations of stations
28 361 recording FZTW (RR26-31) are consistent with the lowest velocity zone (maximum delay)
29 362 obtained from delay time analysis (section 3.2, Fig. 5).
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41 363 We next model the observed Love-type FZTW using the 2D analytic solution of Ben-Zion &
42 364 Aki (1990), and invert for properties of the core damage zone with a genetic inversion algorithm
43 365 (e.g. Ben-Zion *et al.* 2003, Qiu *et al.* 2017, Share *et al.* 2017). We use a three-layer fault zone
44 366 model with a low velocity zone sandwiched between two half spaces, and describe the model
45 367 with six parameters: shear wave velocities of the half space and damage zone, and, Q value,
46 368 width, depth, and location of the SW edge of the damage zone. Though the study site has quite
47 369 complex structures based on the analyses in sections 3.1-3.3, adding more parameters will
48 370 greatly increase the null space of the inversion and the possibility of ending up with local minima.
49 371 Therefore, this simplified three-layer six parameter model provides a useful approach because it
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3 372 encompasses the key average properties affecting FZTW in the core damage zone, while
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5 373 accounting analytically for the significant trade-offs between model parameters (Ben-Zion 1998).

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7 374 Fig. 13 shows the fitness values (green dots in Fig. 13a) for the six model parameters and
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9 375 waveform fit for the candidate event in Fig. 12. The black curves in Fig. 13(a) represent the
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11 376 probability density functions obtained by summing the fitness values for the final 2000 models
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13 377 during inversion. The black dots in Fig. 13(a) shows the best-fitting model that generates the
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15 378 synthetic waveforms in Fig. 13(b), which are close to the probability density distribution peaks,
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17 379 i.e. the most likely model. Both the phase and amplitude of FZTW from the best fitting model
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19 380 are similar to the observed FZTW (Fig. 13b). The large fitness values (>0.7) and narrow peaks of
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21 381 the probability density functions, and, the good fit between the best-fitting and most likely
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23 382 models imply robust inversion results. Combined with the modeling results from another event
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25 383 (Fig. S3, Supporting Information), the obtained core damage zone is ~ 100 m wide and ~ 4 km
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27 384 deep, with Q value of ~ 20 and 40% S-wave velocity reduction compared with the host rock with
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29 385 S-wave velocity of ~ 3.2 km/s, consistent with the analyses in sections 3.1-3.3. The FZTW results
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31 386 pinpoint the location, depth extent and other parameters of a core damage zone that lies within
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33 387 the flower-shaped broader damage zone at the site (Wang *et al.* 2019).

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388 389 **4 Discussion and Conclusions**

390 This study uses various fault zone phases and analysis techniques to provide collectively
391 high-resolution images for the SJFZ at the Ramona Reservation, north of Anza, California. Fig.
392 14 presents a schematic local velocity model based on the study. Delay times (section 3.2) from
393 tele and local seismic data indicate a faster NE side than the SW, with the major velocity contrast
394 close to station RR47 separating the regionally NE faster block from a broad low velocity
395 damage zone. This velocity contrast is also the interface from which local and regional FZHW
396 (section 3.3) refract before being recorded at SW stations, and, is consistent with the waveform
397 changes (section 3.1) across the local fault surface trace F3. The core damage zone beneath
398 stations RR26-31 (i.e. between the local fault surface traces F1 and F2 related to the observed
399 waveform changes in section 3.1) causes the most significant P-wave delays (0.05 second; Fig.
400 5a) inside the array and generates P- and S- type FZTW (section 3.4). Modeling of S-type FZTW
401 indicates that the core damage zone is ~ 100 m wide ~ 4 km deep and has Q value of 20 and 40%
402 S-wave velocity reduction compared with the host rock with S-wave velocity of 3.2 km/s.

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3 403 Assuming that the local bimaterial interface around RR47 also extends to ~4 km depth and the
4 404 local FZHW propagate near-vertically along most of that length, the ~0.1 second differential
5 405 time between FZHW and direct P waves observed at RR47 (Fig. 8a) corresponds to a velocity
6 406 contrast of ~12% for a NE-side P-wave velocity of 5.6 km/s (1.75x3.2 km/s). This is consistent
7 407 with the apparent contrast of 13.4% in section 3.3 and lie within the 11-23% P velocity contrast
8 408 range for the deep bimaterial SJFZ ~10 km to the NW (Share *et al.* 2019b).

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13 409 The analyses of different data sets (e.g. teleseismic and local seismic data, travel time and
14 410 azimuth) also resolve structures at different scales. The teleseismic waves have almost identical
15 411 paths before arriving at the stations, thus the delay time patterns are indicative of the shallow
16 412 structure beneath the array with NE side faster than the SW and a core damage zone beneath
17 413 stations RR26-31. The observed fault damage zone is compatible with waveform modeling
18 414 results based on FZTW. Relative slowness analysis of local seismic data uses along-path average
19 415 slowness and can be affected by both regional (e.g. bimaterial interface) and local (e.g. local
20 416 damage zones) structures. Previous large-scale imaging results suggest that the velocity contrast
21 417 at the Ramona Reservation is as large as 20% and very well confined (Allam & Ben-Zion 2012),
22 418 therefore the large-scale velocity structure plays a major role in affecting the along-path average
23 419 slowness. The relative slowness study shows a velocity contrast with NE of station RR47 faster
24 420 than the SW, consistent with the bimaterial interface properties from FZHW analyses. However,
25 421 it does not resolve the local fault damage zone, because the core damage zone is highly confined
26 422 (~100 m wide in section 3.4) and the broad damage zone concentrates in the shallow structure.
27 423 All the obtained results consistently imply faster velocity on the NE side with a core damage
28 424 structure between F1 and F2 embedded within a broader flower-shape damage zone at the study
29 425 site. Accounting for the imaged bimaterial interfaces and local damage zones can improve the
30 426 accuracy of earthquake locations with respect to the fault, focal mechanisms, receiver function
31 427 results and local body wave tomography models (e.g., McNally & McEvelly 1977, Ben-Zion &
32 428 Malin 1991, Schulte-Pelkum & Ben-Zion 2012, Bennington *et al.* 2013).

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38 429 Large-scale imaging of the region around the central SJFZ (e.g., Allam & Ben-Zion 2012,
39 430 Zigone *et al.* 2015) show that the NE block in the study area is faster than the SW. Detailed
40 431 linear array studies along the SJFZ (Qiu *et al.* 2017, Share *et al.* 2017, Qin *et al.* 2018, Share *et*
41 432 *al.* 2019b) consistently indicate such a regional bimaterial interface polarity (Fig. S4). For right-
42 433 lateral loading, this velocity contrast can produce a statistically preferred rupture propagation
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3 434 direction to the NW (Andrews & Ben-Zion 1997, Shi & Ben-Zion 2006, Brietzke *et al.* 2009).
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5 435 This theoretical expectation is supported by observational studies of directivity of small
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7 436 earthquakes in the region (Kurzon *et al.* 2014, Ross & Ben-Zion 2016, Meng *et al.* 2020).
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9 437 Repeated rupture with preferred propagation direction will generate damaged material on the
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11 438 faster side of the fault (Ben-Zion & Shi 2005, Xu *et al.* 2012). Such damage zones are observed
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13 439 at various sites (BB, SGB, JF) on the NE side of the SJFZ based on analysis of FZTW. Modeling
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15 440 of FZTW at BB, SGB and JF sites along the SJFZ suggests narrow (~70-200 m wide) core
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17 441 damage zones with significant 30-60 % S-wave velocity reductions and Q values of 20-60 in the
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19 442 top 2-5 km. Severely damaged structures at the SGB site cause local reversals of the large-scale
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21 443 velocity contrast, complicating the internal fault structures. Local FZHW further validate the
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23 444 existence of bimaterial interfaces and damage zones, observed at the JF and BB sites on the SW
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25 445 of the interface between local damage zones and the faster NE fault block (Fig. S4).

26 446 Similar bimaterial interfaces and damage structures illuminated by various fault zone phases
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28 447 were observed at other large fault systems. FZHW were used to image deep velocity contrasts
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30 448 along the Hayward fault (Allam *et al.* 2014b), the North Anatolian fault (Bulut *et al.* 2012) and
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32 449 various sections of the San Andreas fault (McGuire & Ben-Zion 2005, Lewis *et al.* 2007, Zhao *et al.*
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34 450 *al.* 2010). FZTW were observed along the North Anatolian fault (Ben-Zion *et al.* 2003), the San
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36 451 Andreas fault (e.g. Li *et al.* 1990, Lewis & Ben-Zion 2010), Japan (e.g. Mamada *et al.* 2004,
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38 452 Mizuno & Nishigami 2006), Italy (e.g. Rovelli *et al.* 2002), Israel (Haberland *et al.* 2003) and
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40 453 other locations. The observed core damage structures are usually 100-200 m wide and
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42 454 concentrate in the top 2-4 km with 20-40 % S-wave velocity reductions. The resulting high-
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44 455 resolution images of the internal fault zone features provide important information for
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46 456 understanding persistent properties of local earthquake ruptures, and improve the accuracy of
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48 457 derived earthquake locations, focal mechanisms and more.

49 458 The Ramona Reservation site is characterized by three fault surface traces separating
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51 459 different materials with a core damage zone surrounded by a broad shallow damage structure.
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53 460 Multiple historic ruptures of moderate and large earthquakes in the Ramona Reservation area
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55 461 altered the local velocity structure and produced rock damage asymmetry with more damage on
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57 462 the faster side of the main fault (Dor *et al.* 2006). The most recent rupture in 1918 at this site was
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59 463 located on a fault trace SW of F1 (Rockwell *et al.* 2015), and probably has contributed to the
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61 464 observed damage zone in this study on the NE side of the ruptured trace. Studies at other sites

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3 465 along the SJFZ (Qiu *et al.* 2017, Share *et al.* 2017, Qin *et al.* 2018, Share *et al.* 2019b)
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5 466 consistently resolve bimaterial interfaces separating faster blocks to the NE and asymmetric
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7 467 damage zones in corroboration with the preferred propagation direction of large earthquakes in
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9 468 the central section of the SJFZ to the NW. This increases the seismic shaking hazard in the large
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11 469 communities to the NW of Anza, CA.

12 470

13 471 **5 Acknowledgements**

15 472 The paper benefitted from useful comments by Christian Haberland, an anonymous referee
16
17 473 and Editor Ana Ferreira. The study was supported by the U.S. Department of Energy (awards
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19 474 DE-SC0016520 and DE-SC0016527).

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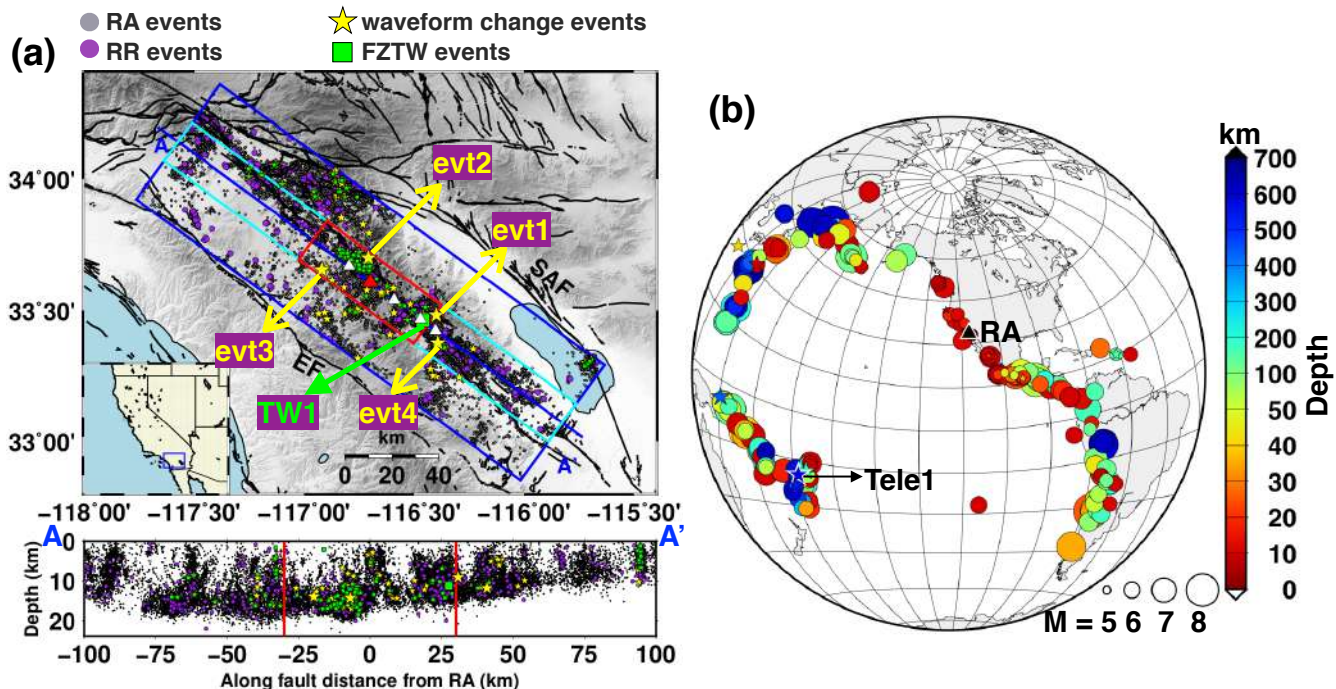


Figure 1. (a). All local events recorded by the short RA and long RR arrays. Lower panel shows the depth profile projected to AA'. The Ramona site is shown as a red triangle, and other four linear arrays along the SJFZ (BB, SGB, DW, JF from NW to SE) are plotted with white triangles. The blue, cyan, and red boxes define the areas where we search for FZTW and waveform changes, FZHW, and perform delay time analysis of local earthquakes, respectively. The four labeled events (evt 1-4; big yellow stars) are examples for waveform change study (Fig. 4), and TW1 (big green square) is the FZTW candidate event (Figs 12-13). (b). All teleseismic events in 2012-2017 that are used in the short RA (circles) and long RR (stars) array studies. Color represents event depth and circle size indicates event magnitude. The RA site (black triangle) and example event Tele1 (Fig. 3) are outlined in white.

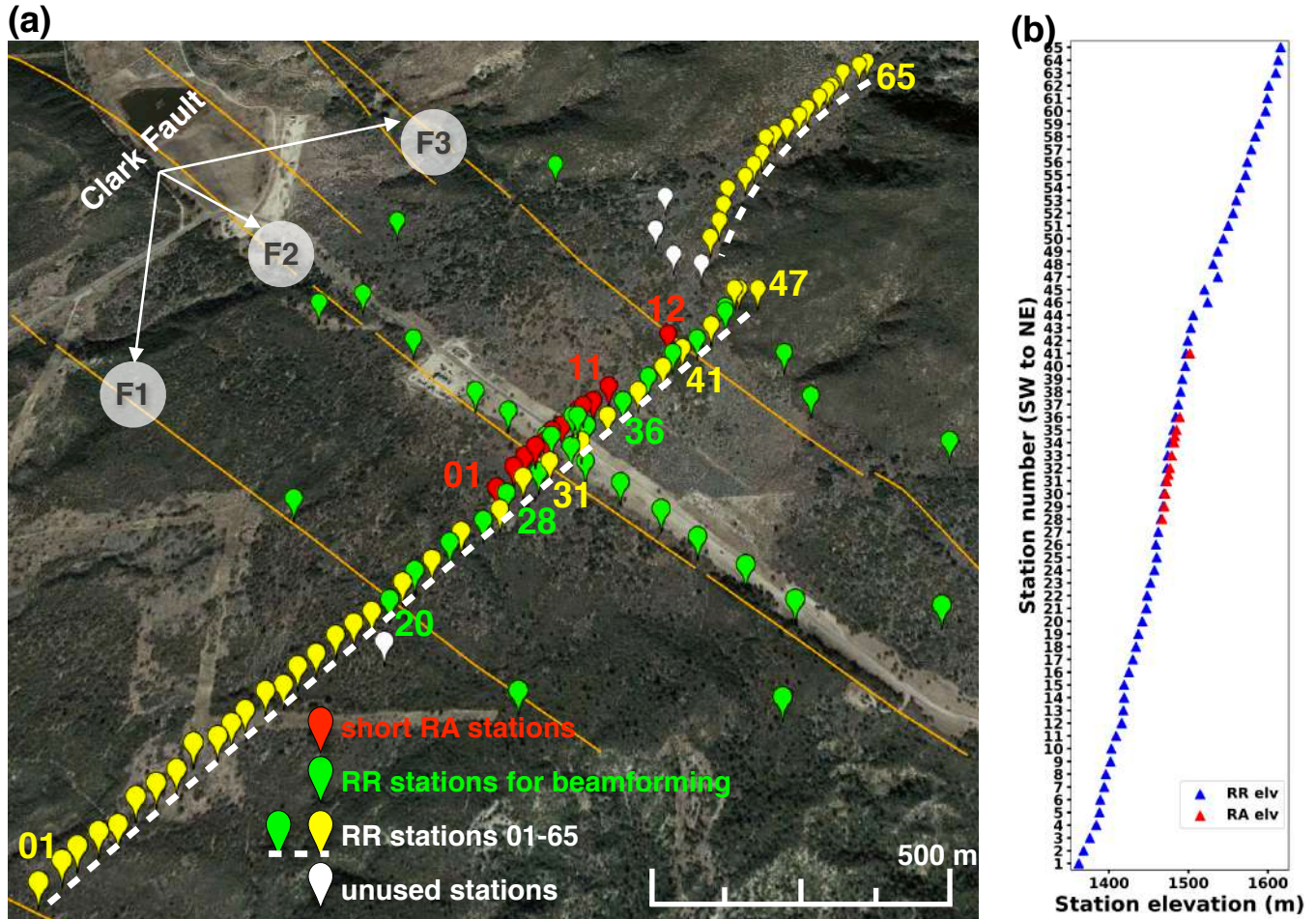


Figure 2. (a). Layout of the short RA (red balloons) and long RR (non-red balloons) arrays. Several station numbers are labeled with the same color of the station symbol. The station numbers increase from SW to NE, 01-12 for the RA and 01-65 (following the white dashed lines) for the RR arrays. Green balloons are RR stations used for beamforming. The orange lines represent the three fault surface traces of the Clark Fault that are related to previous $M > 6$ earthquakes, labeled as F1, F2, and F3. (b). Station elevation profiles for the RR (blue triangles) and RA (red triangles) arrays.

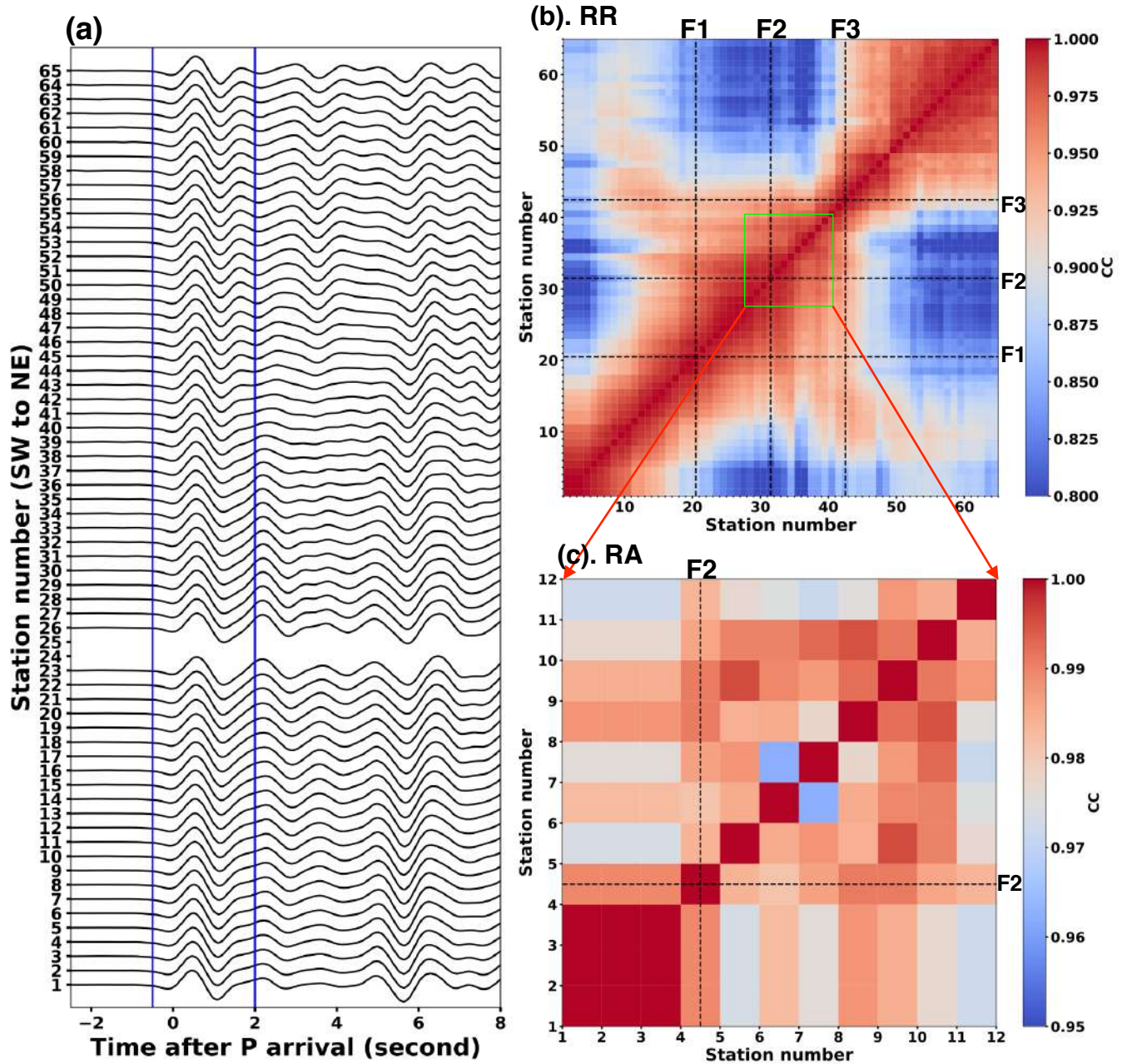


Figure 3. (a). 1 Hz lowpass filtered waveforms from event Tele1 (labeled in Fig. 1b). Zero time indicates P arrival, and blue lines represent the 2.5 second time window for cross correlation. Low SNR traces are removed. (b) and (c) are the median cross correlation coefficients of the RR (b) and RA (c) arrays from all the teleseismic events. The locations of three fault surface traces (F1, F2, F3) are plotted with black dashed lines.

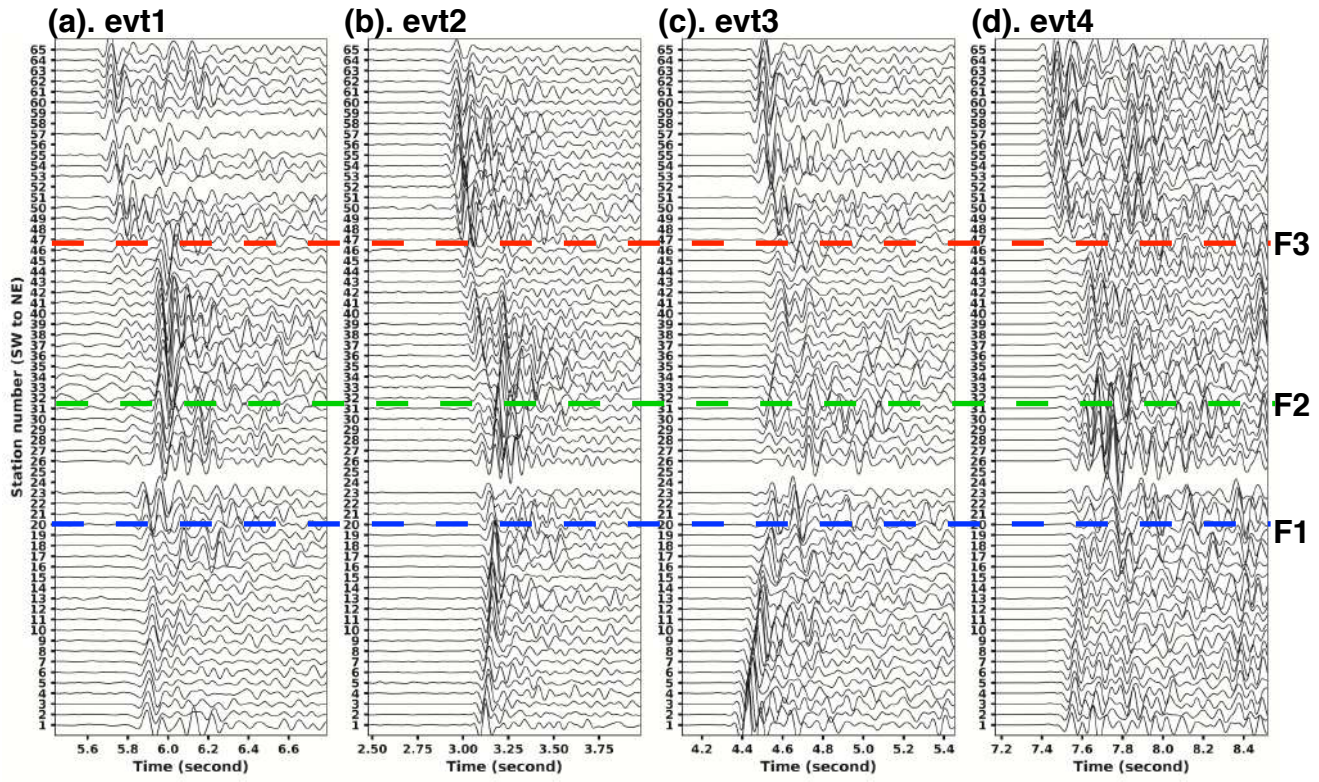


Figure 4. 1-20 Hz bandpass filtered waveforms from four local events (evt 1-4, labeled in Fig. 1a). Locations of the three fault surface traces (F1, F2, F3) are labeled.

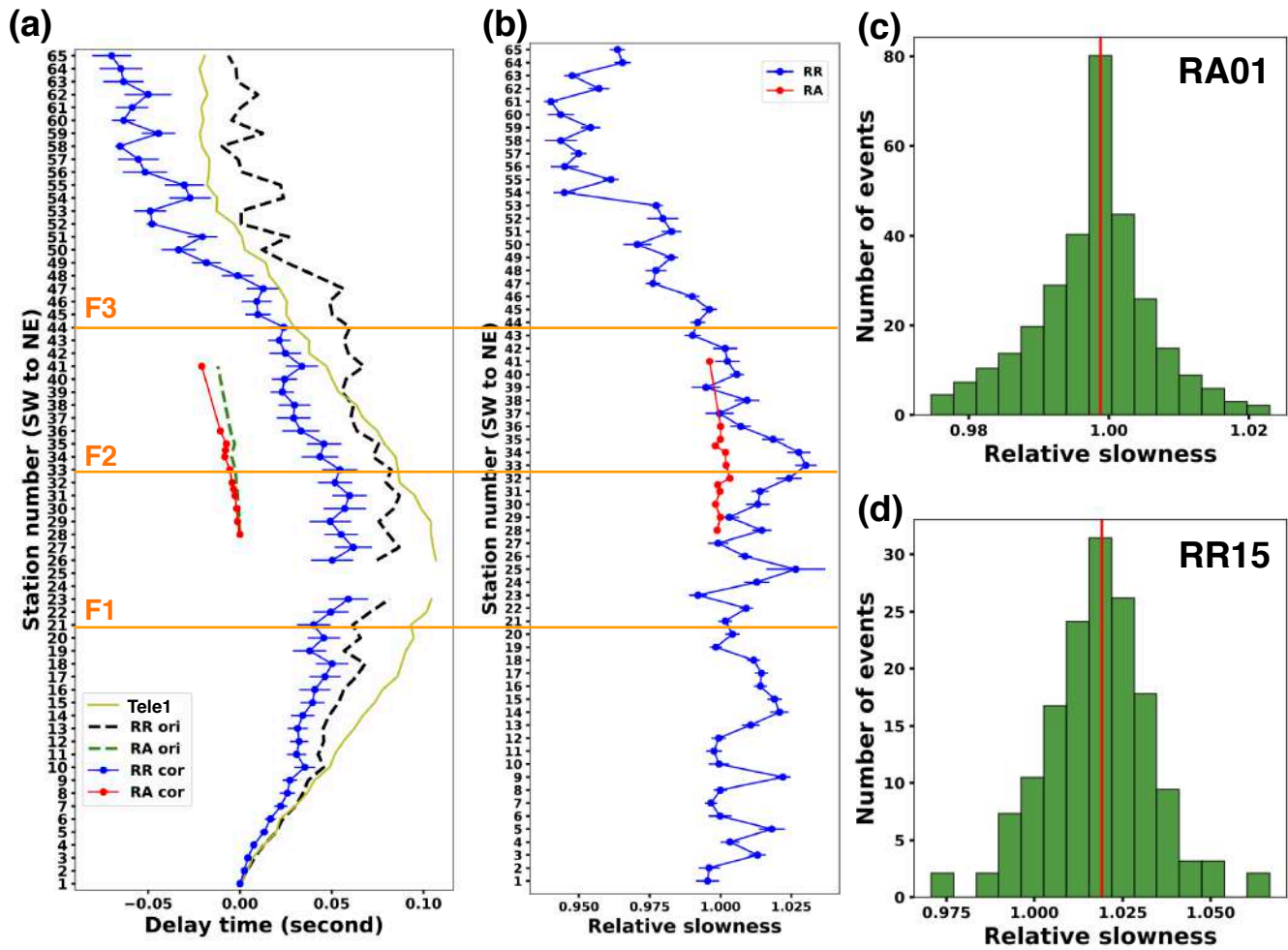


Figure 5. Delay time analysis results from teleseismic events (a) and relative slowness analysis from local events (b-d). (a). Teleseismic P wave delay time results from a single event Tele 1 (faded green line labeled as "Tele1"; event location is labeled in Fig. 1b and waveforms are shown in Fig. 3a), median delay time from all events at the RR (black dashed line) and RA (green dashed line) arrays, corrected median delay time using $v_{ref}=4$ km/s at the RR (blue dots) and RA (red dots) arrays with error bar being one standard error. (b). Relative slowness from local earthquakes at the RR (blue dots) and RA (red dots) arrays. Error bar is one standard error. (c) and (d) show histograms and median values (red lines) of relative slowness at stations RA01 and RR15, respectively.

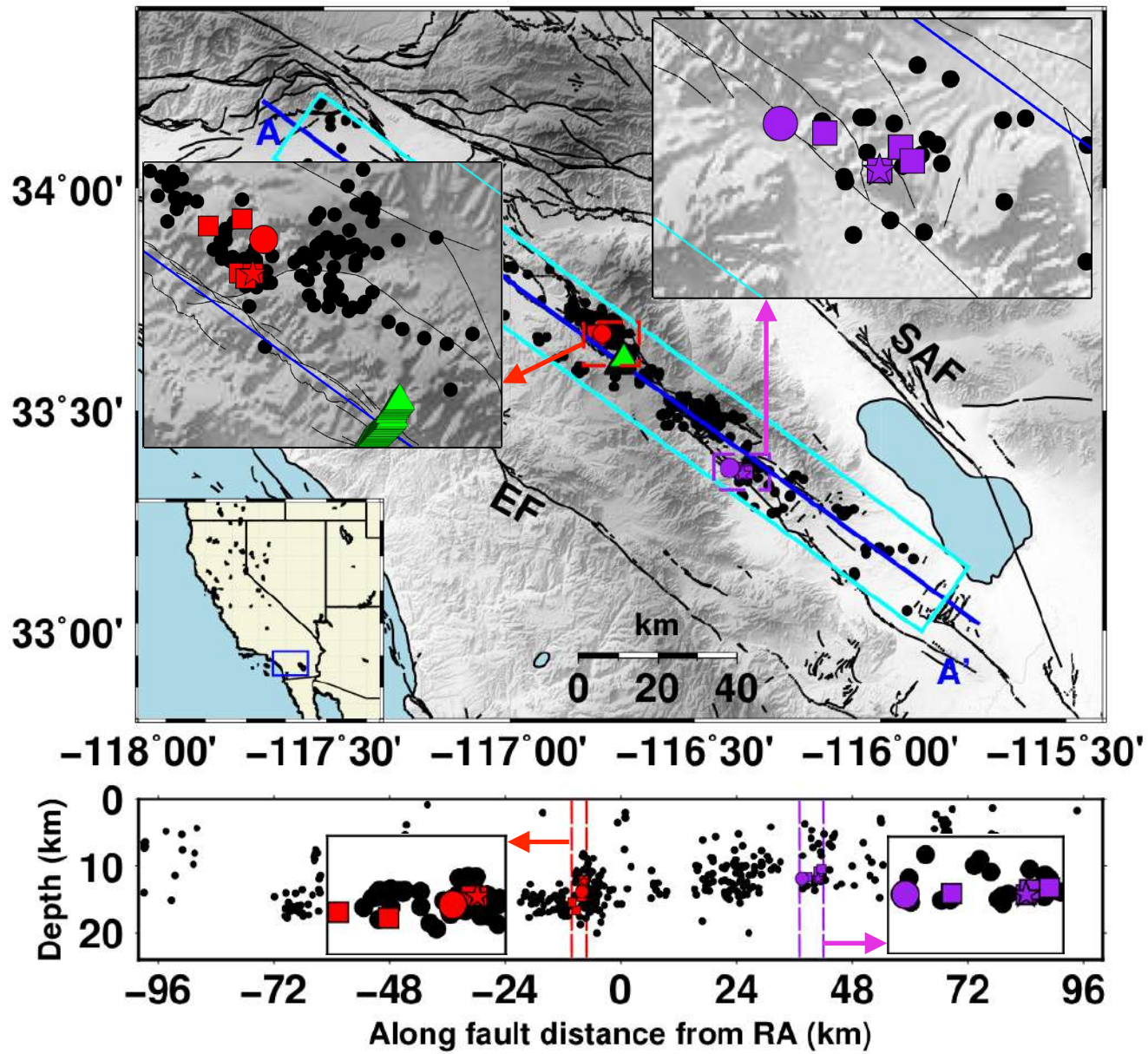


Figure 6: Events that generate local (red squares) and regional (purple squares) FZHW. The red star and circle represent the candidate and reference events for local FZHW (Fig. 7), and purple star and circle for regional FZHW (Fig. 9).

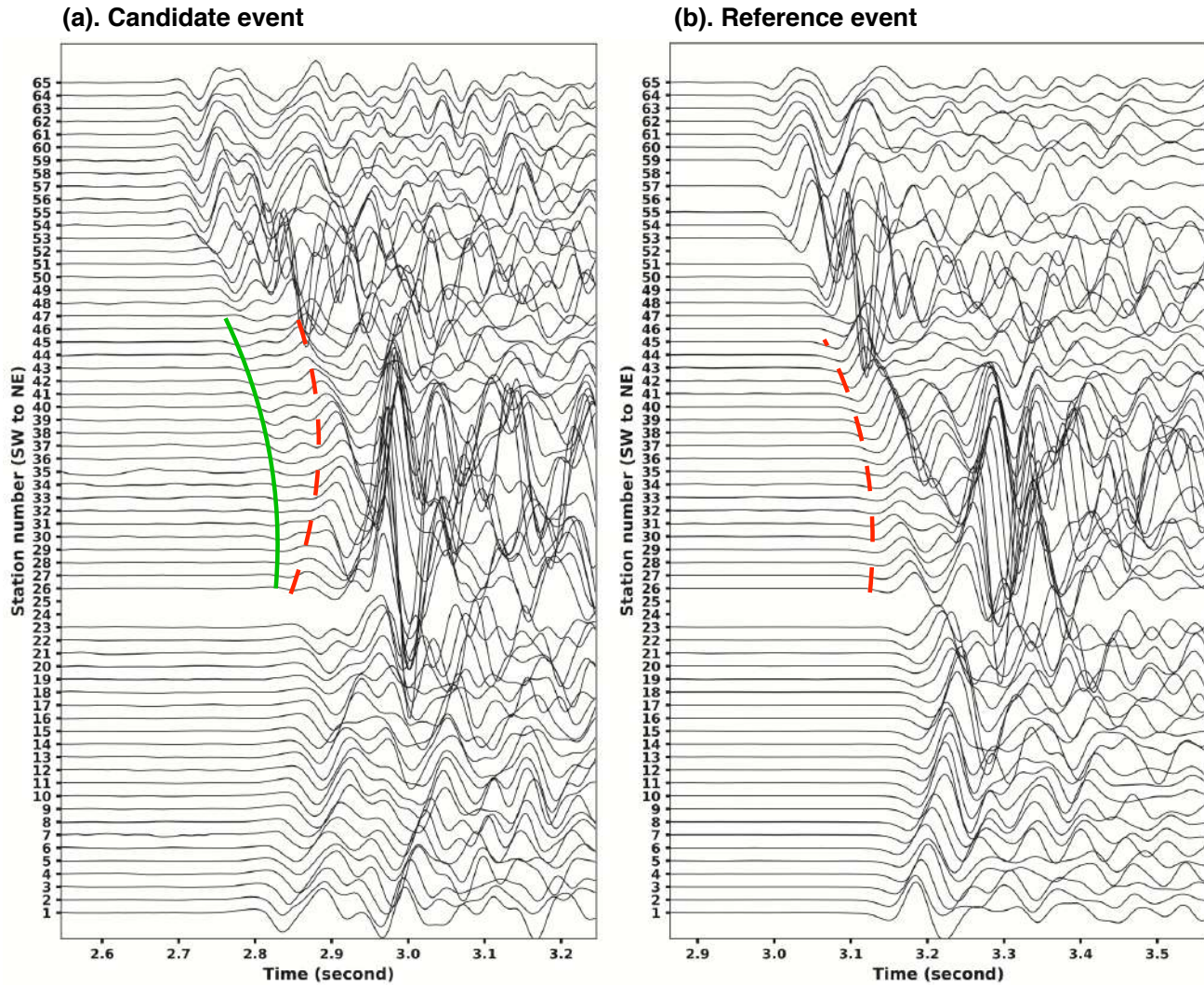


Figure 7: 1-20 Hz bandpass filtered waveforms from a candidate event (a; red star in Fig. 6) with and a reference event (b; red dot in Fig. 6) without local FZHW. Green and red dashed lines show the FZHW and impulsive P arrivals, respectively. Waveforms from each event are uniformly normalized by the array maximum, and zero time corresponds to event's origin time.

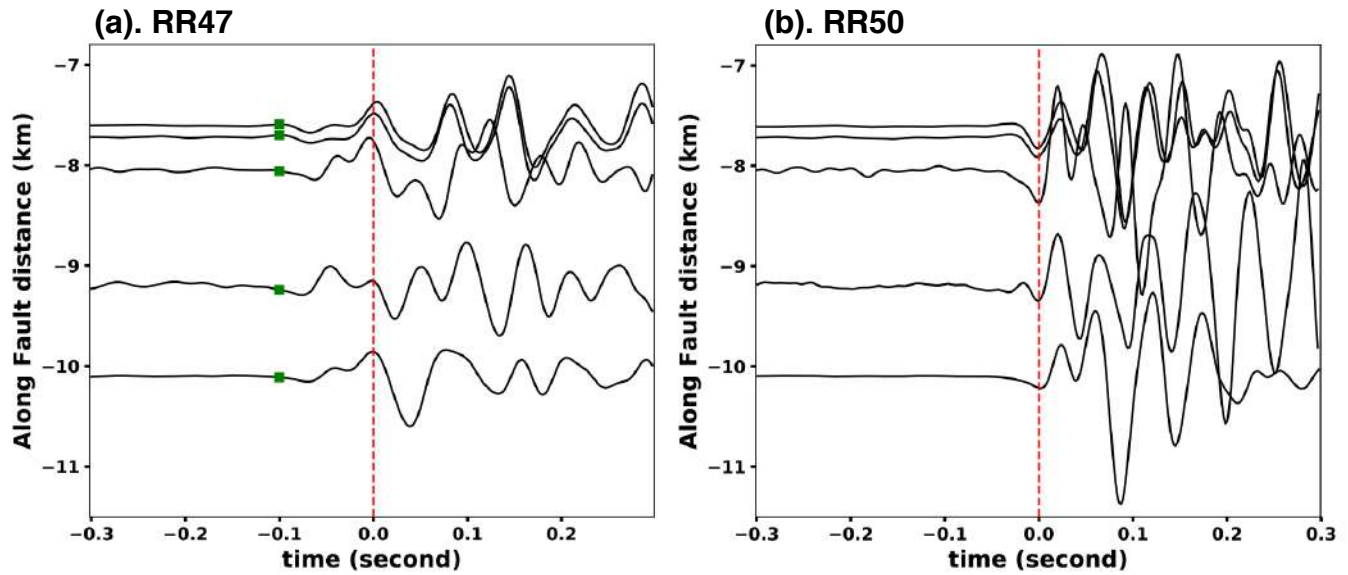


Figure 8: Waveforms at stations RR47 (a) and RR50 (b) from all events (red squares in Fig. 6) that generate local FZHW. FZHW arrivals are labeled with green squares. Waveforms are normalized by the array maximum for each event to preserve the amplitude information, and aligned according to the first impulsive waves, i.e. direct P arrivals (zero time, red dashed lines).

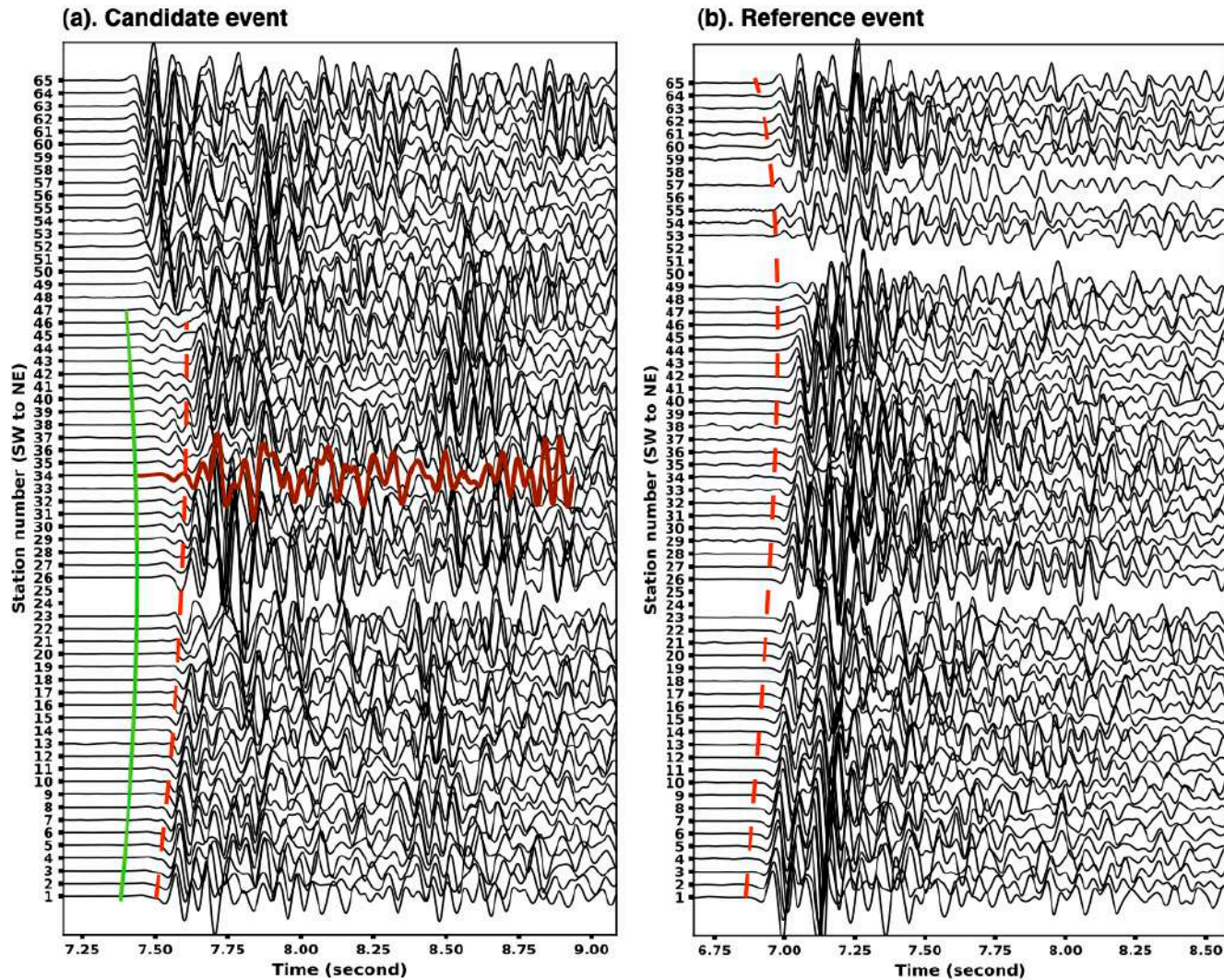


Figure 9. 1-20 Hz bandpass filtered waveforms from a candidate event (a; purple star in Fig. 6) with and a reference event (b; purple dot in Fig. 6) without regional FZHW. The layout is the same as in Fig. 7, but a longer time window is shown to highlight the original 1.5 s reference beam trace for the central station RR34 (dark red) associated with the frequency windowed beam stacks in Fig. 11(c).

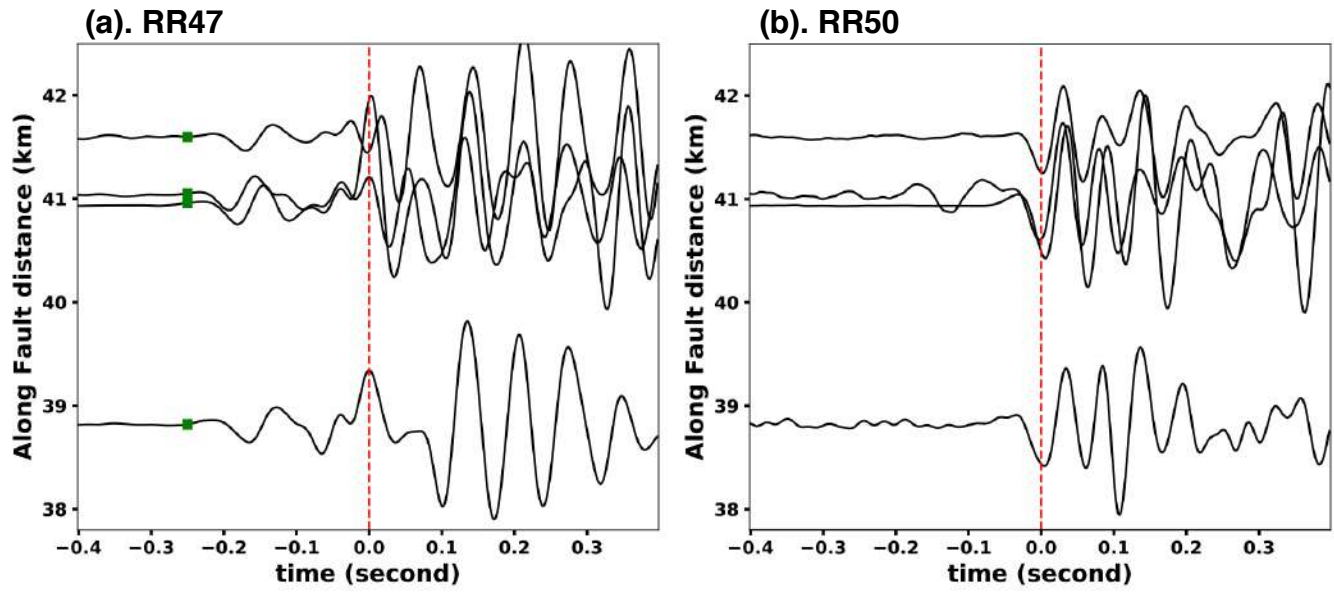


Figure 10. Waveforms at stations RR47 (a) and RR50 (b) from all events (purple squares in Fig. 6) that generate regional FZHW. The layout is the same as in Fig. 8.

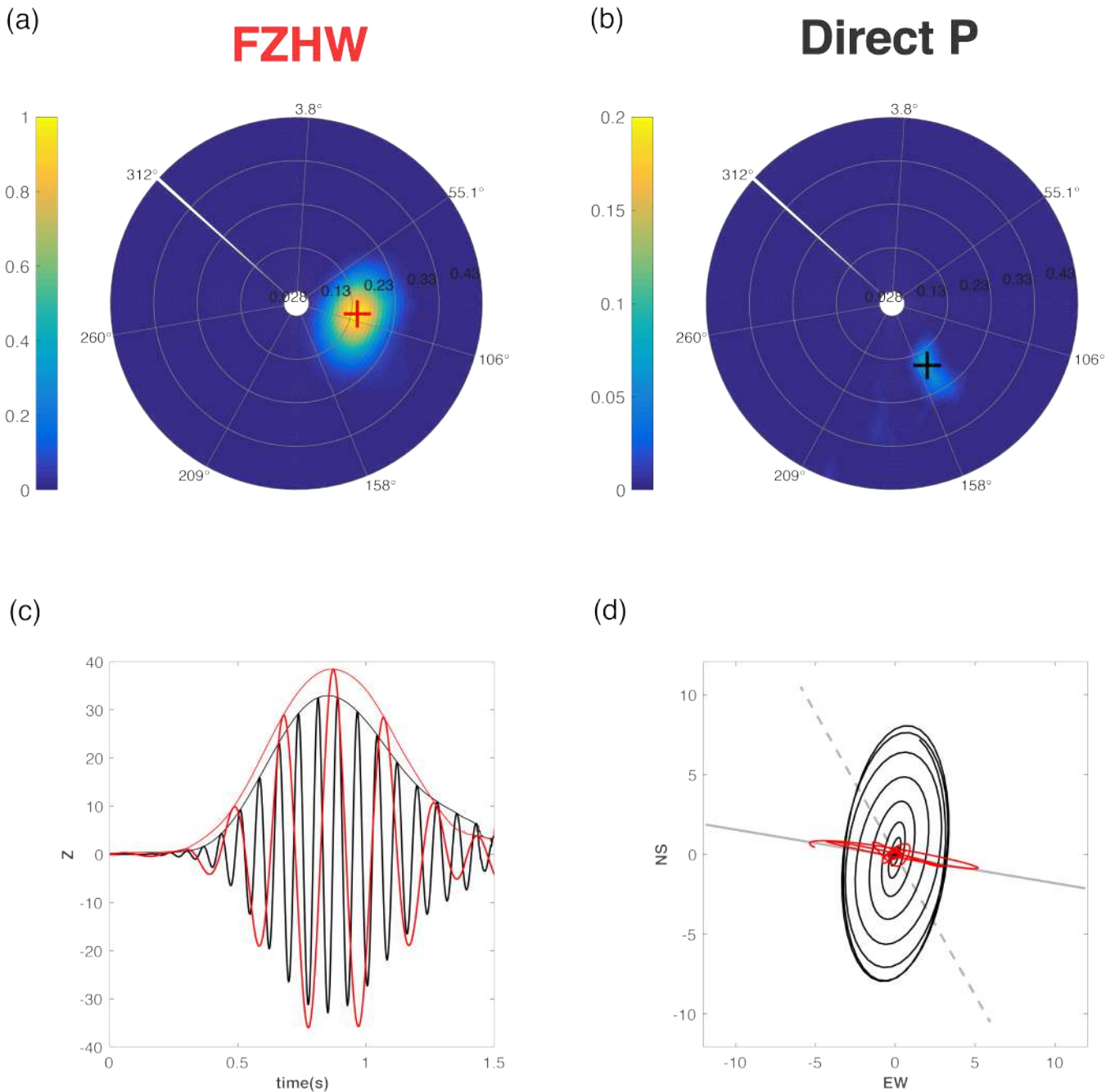


Figure 11. Separation of FZHW and direct P wavefronts using beamforming. (a). Beamforming results for the frequency band 4-6 Hz. The red cross represents a prominent coherent phase within the FZHW spectrum. Radius of this beam to 50% of peak amplitude corresponds to a slowness difference of ~ 0.05 s/km. (b). Beamforming results for the frequency band 12-14 Hz. The black cross represents a prominent coherent phase within the direct P wave spectrum. The beam radius here corresponds to a slowness difference of ~ 0.03 s/km. (c). Beam traces and energy envelopes for the beamforming results in (a) (red) and (b) (black). (d). Horizontal particle motions for the FZHW beam trace (red) and direct P beam trace (black) compared to their respective azimuths determined in (a) (gray solid line) and (b) (gray dashed line).

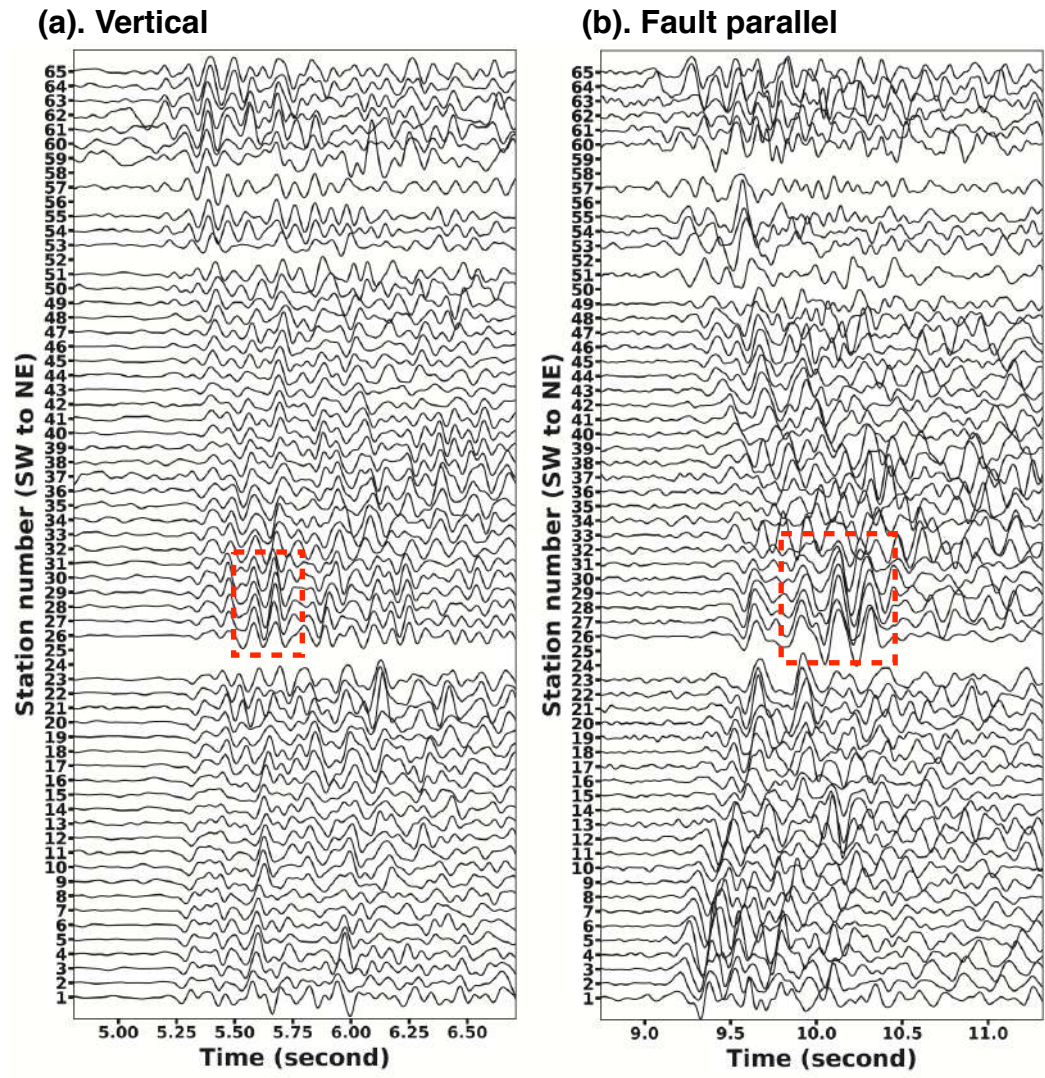


Figure 12. Vertical (a) and fault parallel (b) component waveforms from the FZTW candidate event TW1 (labeled in Fig. 1a). P- and S- type FZTW are labeled with red dashed boxes.

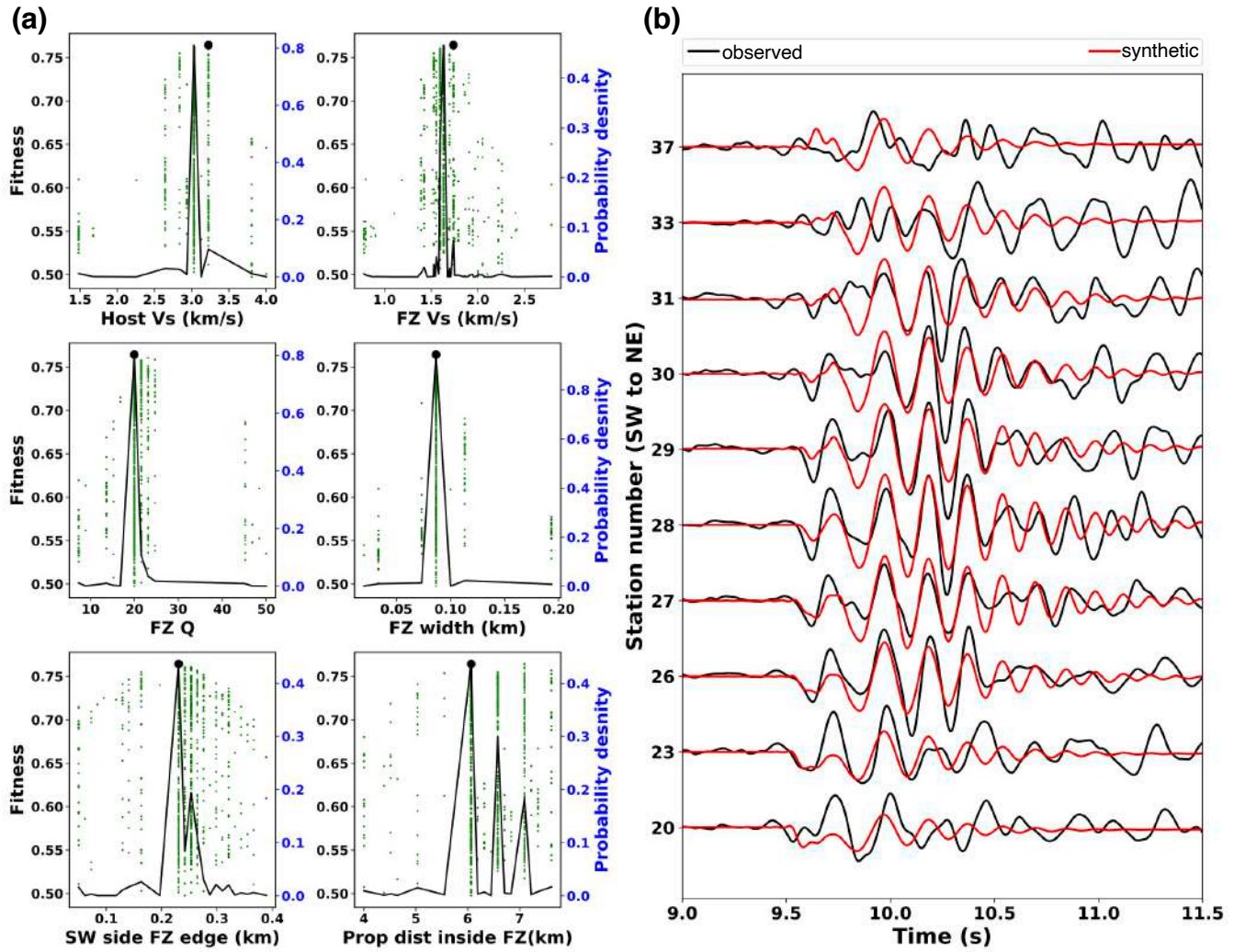


Figure 13. S-type FZTW inversion results from event TW1. (a). Parameter space plot from the last 2000 inversion models showing the fitness values (green dots), probability density functions (black curves), and best fitting model (black dots). From top to bottom (left to right) shows the shear wave velocity of host rocks, and shear wave velocity, Q value, width, SW edge and propagation distance of FZTW inside the damage zone. (b). Observed (black) and synthetic (red) waveforms from the best-fitting model (black dots in a).

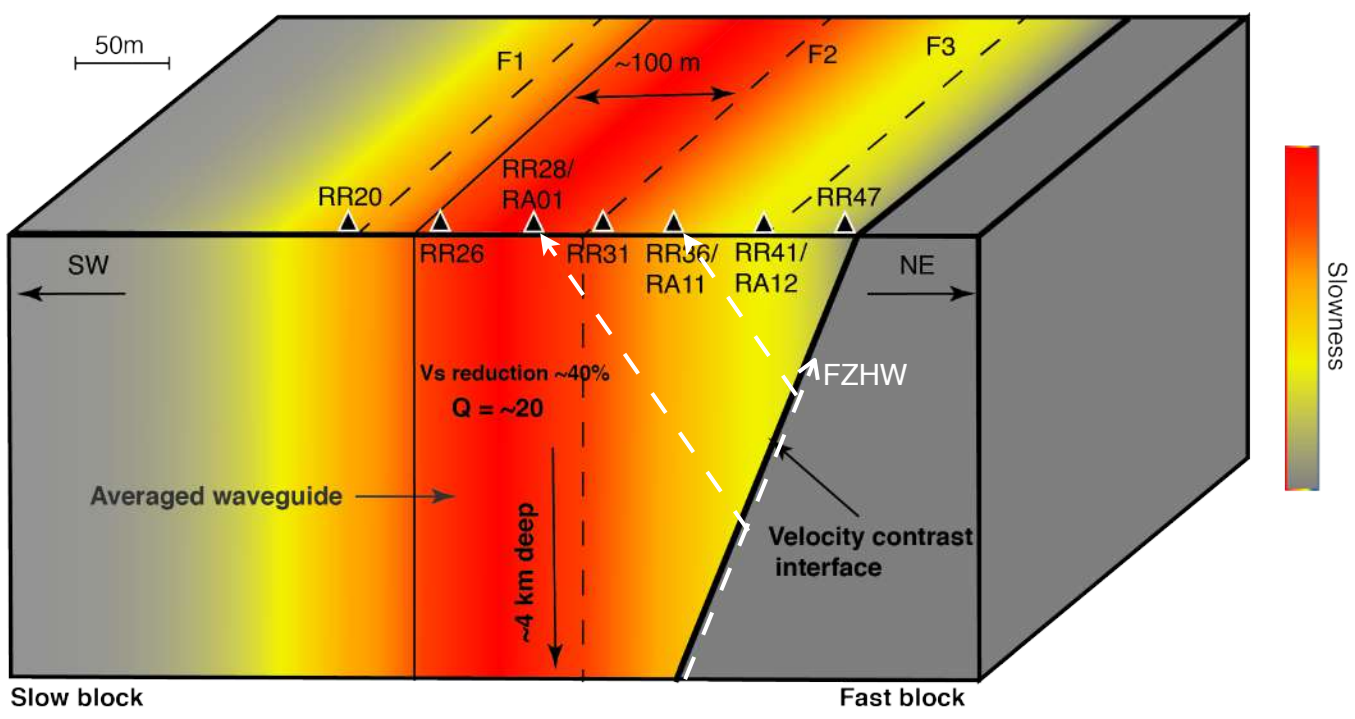


Figure 14. A schematic local velocity model at the study site.

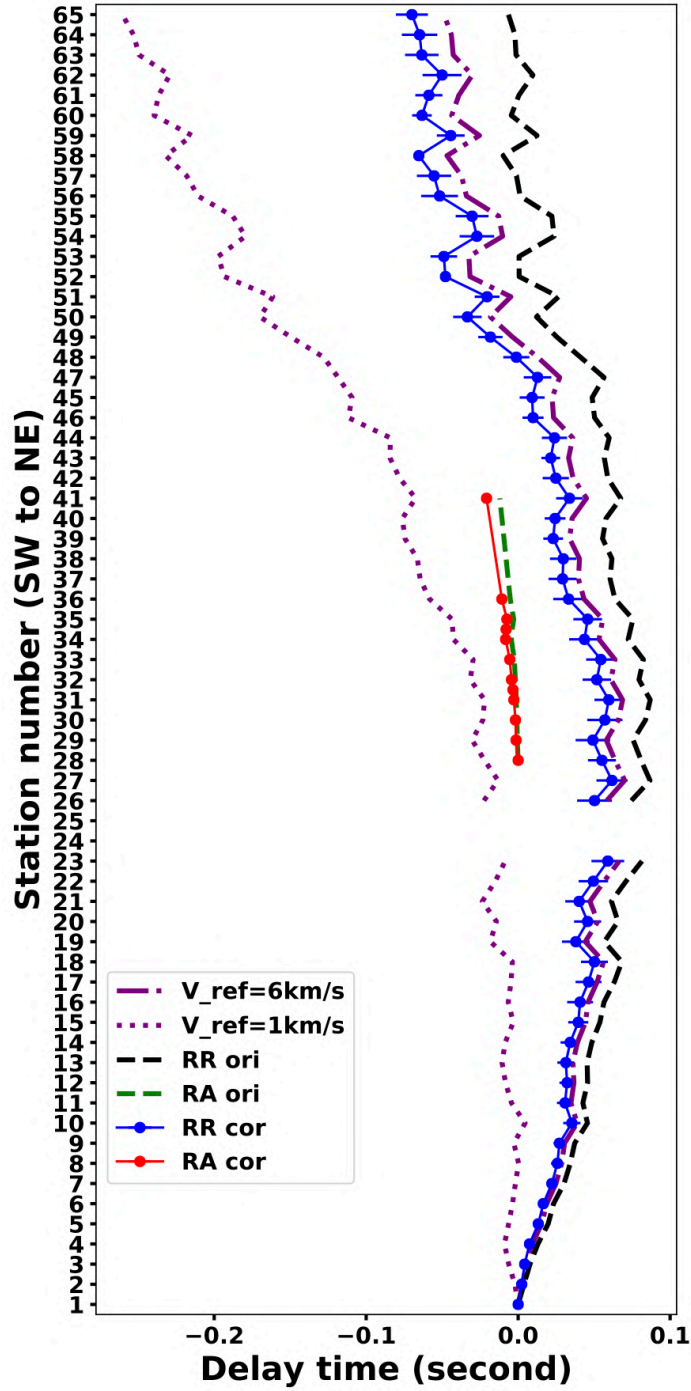


Figure S1. Teleseismic P wave delay times corrected with two extreme reference velocities: 1 km/s (purple dotted line) and 6 km/s (purple dash dotted line). Other symbols are the same as in Fig. 5(a).

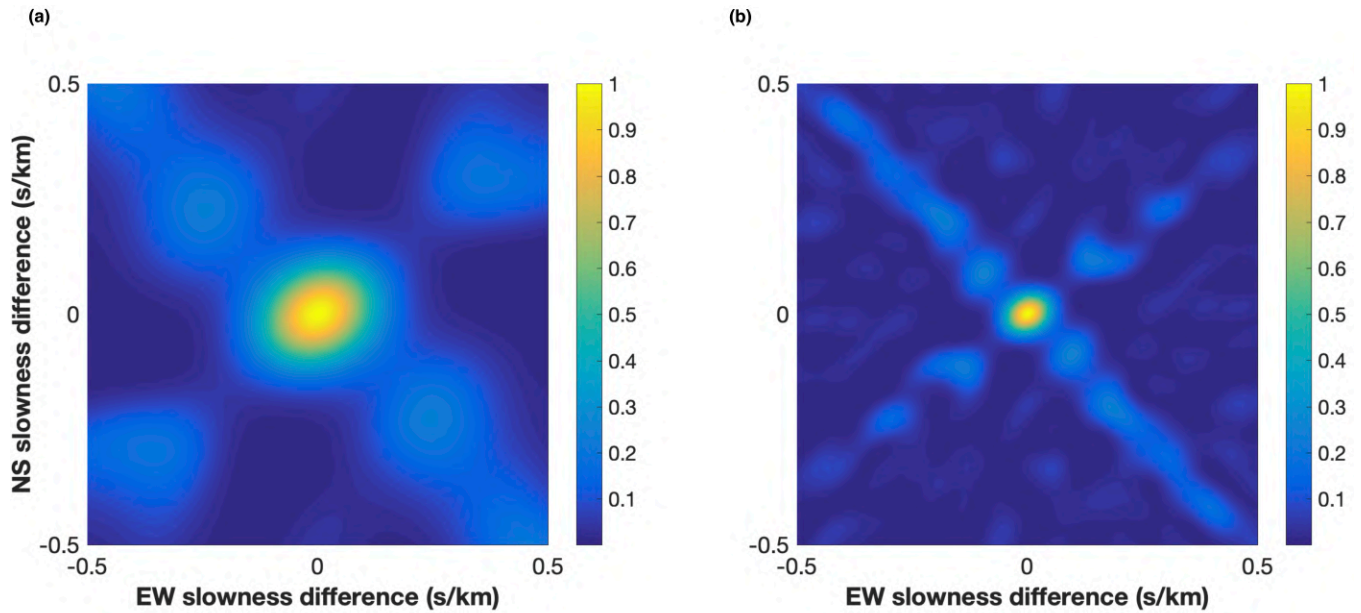


Figure S2. Array transfer functions for the array geometry employed in beamforming analysis (green balloons in Fig. 2) and frequency ranges 4-6 Hz (a) and 12-14 Hz (b). The average radii of the respective beams (measured out to 50% of the beam peak amplitude) are 0.1 s/km (a) and 0.04 s/km (b).

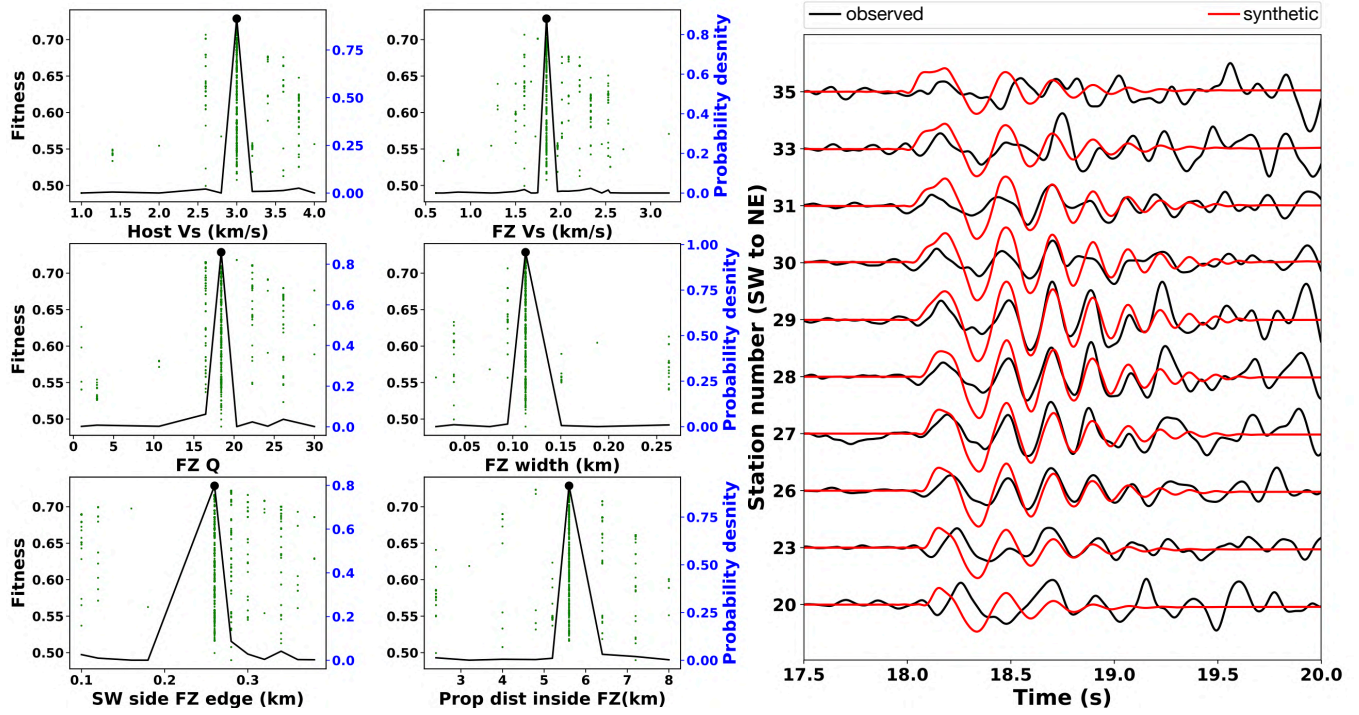
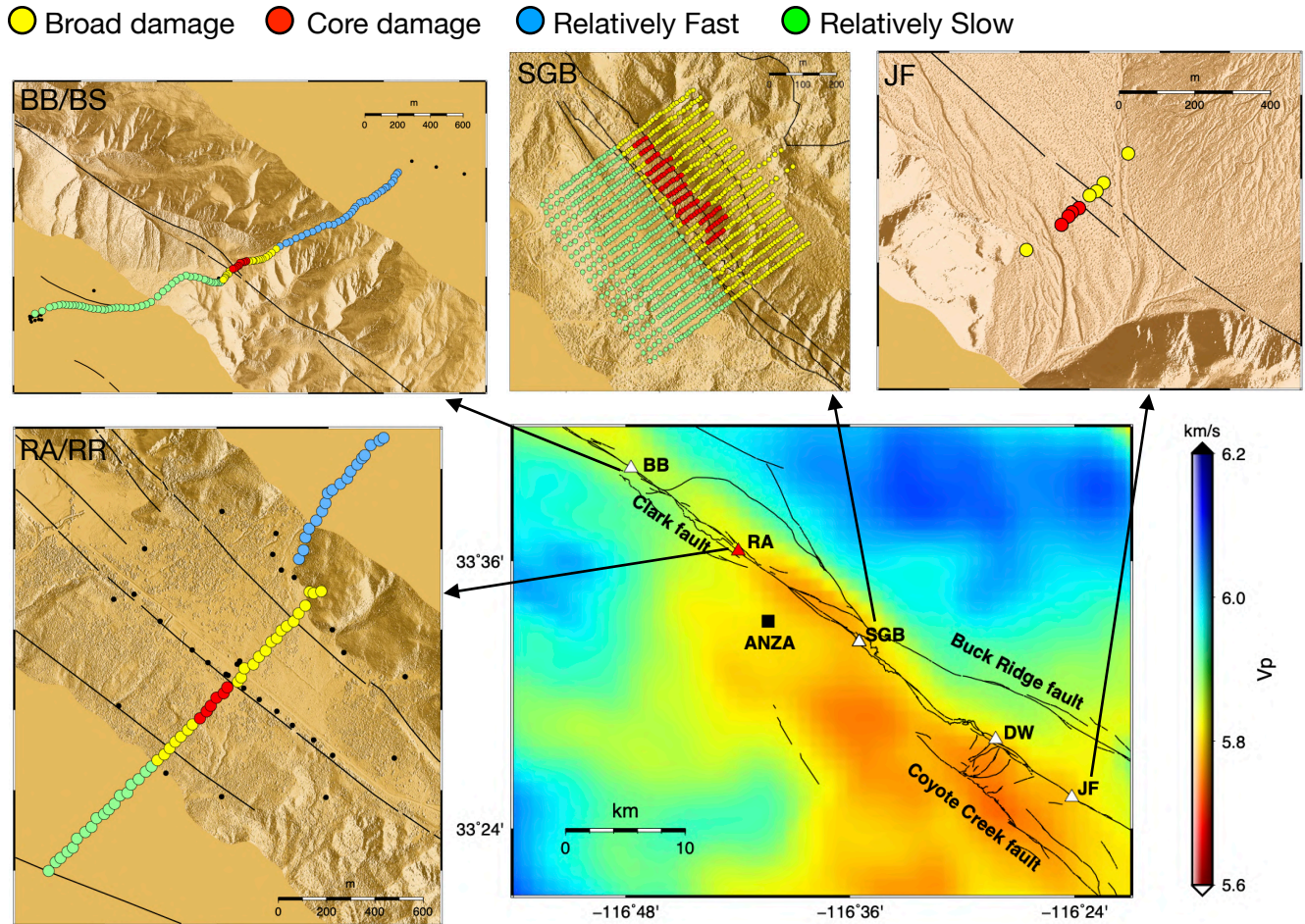


Figure S3. S-type FZTW inversion results from an example event. The layout is the same as in Fig. 13.



34 Figure S4. Regional P-wave velocity model (Allam & Ben-Zion 2012) averaged over the depth range
 35 1-10 km, surrounded by qualitative comparisons between the regions and dimensions of internal San
 36 Jacinto fault zone structures at the different BB/BS (Share *et al.* 2017; Share *et al.* 2019b), RA/RR (this
 37 study), SGB (Ben-Zion *et al.* 2015; Qin *et al.* 2018) and JF (Qiu *et al.* 2017) sites.
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