

Estimation of the Seismic Moment Rate from an Incomplete Seismicity Catalog, in the Context of the InSight Mission to Mars

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Estimation of the seismic moment rate from an incomplete seismicity catalog, in the context of the InSight mission to Mars

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26 Abstract

We evaluate methods to estimate the global seismic moment rate of a planet from the $k \ge 1$ largest 27 events observed during a limited and possibly short time span, as can be expected e.g. for lander mis-28 sions to Mars. The feasibility of the approach is demonstrated with a temporary broadband seismometer 29 30 that was recording in the Mojave Desert, California, for 86 days in 2014, and by application to the Global 31 Centroid Moment Tensor catalog, subsets thereof, and a catalog of stable continental regions seismicity. 32 From the largest event observed at Goldstone alone ($M_W \approx 7.9$) we estimate the Earth's global moment rate to be 1.03×10^{22} Nm/yr, while an estimation based on the 10 strongest events yields a rate of 33 5.79×10^{21} Nm/yr. Summation of 42 years of GCMT solutions result in an average of 7.61×10^{21} Nm/yr. 34 10^{21} Nm/vr. In general, a two years interval of GCMT solutions is sufficient to estimate the Earth's 35 36 annual moment rate to within a factor 5 or better. A series of numerical experiments with more than 560 37 million synthetic catalogs based on the Tapered Gutenberg-Richter distribution shows that the estima-38 tion is rather insensitive against an unknown slope of the distribution, and that bias and variance of the 39 estimator depend on the ratio between moment rate and corner moment of the size frequency distribu-40 tion. Moment rates of published Mars models differ by a factor 1000 or more. Tests with simulated cata-41 logs show that it will be possible to reject some of these models with data returned by NASA's InSight 42 mission after two years of nominal mission life time.

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Introduction

The InSight mission (Banerdt et al., 2013) to Mars was launched on May 5, 2018 from Vandenberg Air Force Base, California, and touched down softly in the targeted landing ellipse on Elysium Planitia, Mars, on November 26, 2018. A combined very broad band and short period seismometer was deployed on the surface on 19th of December 2018 and is intended to operate until the end of 2020 (Lognonné & Pike, 2015, Lognonné et al., submitted).

51 Models for the seismicity of planet Mars usually estimate the long-term average annual seismic mo-52 ment rate (Table 1), and also the average annual event rate. This holds for estimations based on geologi-53 cal evidence (Golombek et al., 1992, Golombek, 2002, Taylor et al., 2013) as well as for models based on 54 thermal evolution and cooling of the Martian lithosphere (Phillips, 1991, Knapmeyer et al., 2006, Plesa et 55 al., 2018). All studies are compatible with the conclusion drawn from the non-observation of any unam-56 biguous seismic event by the Viking missions (Anderson et al., 1977, Goins & Lazarewicz, 1979), i.e. that 57 Martian seismicity ranges somewhere between that of the Moon and that of Earth. However the range 58 of predicted moment rates is wide and observational constraints of moment rate are therefore desirable 59 to reject models and further our understanding of planetary heat engines. Here we investigate to what 60 extent the InSight mission can be expected to contribute to the rejection of seismicity models. The main 61 obstacles are that the detection threshold of a single station will be relatively high compared to a global 62 network, while the expected life time is relatively short compared to the instrumental record available 63 for Earth. Our approach basically relies on most of the seismic moment being released in a few, large 64 events, and employs Monte Carlo methods to assess how likely any given seismicity model results in the 65 moment rate estimation obtained from the recorded marsquakes.

66 Statistical seismology on celestial bodies other than Earth generally suffers from limitations in the life 67 time and station spacing of seismic networks: On the Moon, the first long period seismometer was de-

ployed in 1969, later augmented by four more stations to form a triangle (Apollo 12 and 14 were rela-68 69 tively close together, compared with Apollo 15 and 16). The network was shut down in late 1977 (Vos-70 treys, 1980). One seismometer (Viking 2) was in operation on Mars from September 1976 to April 1978, 71 i.e. for about 20 months (Toksöz, 1979). The Venera 13 and 14 missions each landed one seismometer on Venus on the 1st of March 1982 (Venera 13) and 3rd of March 1982 (Venera 14), respectively, and with 72 lander life times of 127 and 57 minutes (Siddiqi, 2002). During these times, about 1.5 minutes of seismic 73 waveforms and, additionally, statistical waveform parameters derived on board, were downlinked to 74 75 Earth (Ksanfomaliti et al., 1982). The Huygens probe contained a suite of accelerometers to monitor its 76 path through the atmosphere of Titan and to record the touchdown shock. Although not intended to 77 conduct a surface seismic experiment, the HASI accelerometer onboard the Huygens probe continued to 78 record data for approximately 30 min after touchdown (Hathi et al., 2009). A network of three triaxial 79 accelerometers was deployed on comet 67P/Churuyomov-Gerasimenko within the landing gear of Ro-80 setta's lander Philae, resulting in a network aperture of about 2.5 m (Knapmeyer et al., 2016). From this 81 experiment, about 70 s of high-frequency data (sampling rates up to 16 kHz) were returned. With a de-82 sign life time of two terrestrial years, InSight will significantly surpass these recent experiments.

An instructive comparison to the much better coverage of the Earth arises from the Global Centroid Moment Tensor project (GCMT, Dziewonski et al., 1981, Ekström et al., 2012). At the same time the first seismometers were launched to Mars, the GCMT started producing its catalog of Earthquake source mechanisms, complete to magnitudes of about five and currently based on data from nearly 200 seismic observatories distributed worldwide. The GCMT continuously contributed to the picture of Earth's moment-frequency distribution for the whole 42 years during which there was not even a single seismometer on Mars.

90 Besides the relatively short period of time covered by extraterrestrial seismicity catalogs so far, spa-91 tial coverage and completeness thresholds result in additional obstacles for the estimation of distribu-

92 tion parameters. Even within the Apollo network on the Moon, the most extensive network outside 93 Earth so far, distance between stations was around 30°, i.e. the network triangle covered only a small 94 fraction of the lunar surface. Limited spatial coverage results in a distance dependent detection thresh-95 old: small events will be detected only in the vicinity of the network or station, if there is but one. In 96 turn, large, globally detectable events will be overrepresented in the catalog such that the moment-97 frequency distribution appears to be less steep than it actually is. Also, the estimation of event rates 98 must rely on assumptions about source distribution in distant areas in order to extrapolate the detected 99 local or regional seismicity to the entire planet.

The seismic moment of Earthquakes is predominantly released by the few largest events. This suggests that it is possible to obtain a reasonable estimate of the seismic moment rate from evaluating only a small number of large events, or even from the single largest event ever observed. Central questions are how such an estimate can be obtained and how accurate it will be, and also what accuracy is necessary to make a rate estimation a useful constraint to improve our understanding of Mars.

To answer the latter, we consider the moment rate estimates summarized in Table 1. Moment rates given there for Earth and Moon differ by almost exactly ten orders of magnitude, or 4.7 moment magnitude units. The individual estimations for Mars cover a range of 2.1 moment magnitude units, or a factor of approximately 1150 in the seismic moment. It is thus desirable to estimate the moment rate with accuracy better than this in order to reject some or several of the published seismicity models.

110 In the following, we will first describe our proposed approaches for moment rate estimation, and how 111 we generate synthetic seismicity catalogs for numerical testing (section "Methods"). The available cata-112 logs are described in section "Data". Since no event catalog is currently available for Mars, we briefly 113 summarize the seismotectonic background information available for Mars. To test if reasonable results 114 can be obtained, we evaluate several seismicity catalogs for the Earth, discuss the applicability to the 115 Moon, and evaluate synthetic catalogs in a generic parameter study and for Mars-specific models (section "Results"). Section "Single Station Completeness Threshold" specifically demonstrates that a single

117 broadband station is sufficient to obtain a meaningful moment rate estimate for an entire planet within

118 a relatively short time.

119

Methods

As Kagan & Schoenberg (2001) point out, a statistical consideration of magnitudes rather than moments is advantageous by transforming multiplicative uncertainties into additive ones. Besides, taking the logarithm of the moment transforms the numerical values in to a more convenient range.

123 Throughout this work, we will frequently convert seismic moments *M* into equivalent moment magni-124 tudes *m* via

125
$$m = \frac{2}{3} (log_{10}M - 9.1)$$
(1)

(after Bormann et al., 2002). Using this formula, we also express moment rates as if the entire moment was released in a single event. All magnitudes used throughout this paper are moment magnitudes following from the above equation, unless indicated otherwise. The coefficient 2/3 implies that a factor of 1000 in the moment *M* corresponds to a difference of exactly 2 moment magnitude units. We denote seismic moments by uppercase letters and magnitudes by lowercase letters to avoid the excessive indexing that would result from the conventional lettering, and two indexed quantities M_x and m_x refer to moments and magnitudes connected by the above equation.

The coefficients of eq. 1 originate in a calibration of the seismic moment scale to other magnitude scales and thus carry a certain heritage of Earth's seismological properties, e.g. via the decay of surface waves over distances not available e.g. on Mars. It must be kept in mind that relations to seismogram

amplitudes and, moreover, intensities will differ between Earth, Mars, and other bodies. Appropriate
magnitude scales for Mars have been developed by Böse et al. (2018).

138 Seismic Moment Rate Estimation

Following the seminal works by Gutenberg & Richter (1941, 1944), the size-frequency distribution of 139 140 earthquakes is often described by what we now call a power law, although Gutenberg & Richter were 141 aware that the frequency of very large events cannot follow the same law as the frequencies of small 142 and medium ones for physical reasons. Assuming a fault plane as large as the Earth's surface, and with a 143 slip proportional to the square root of the fault area as in the relations given in Knapmeyer et al. (2006), we find a resulting seismic moment of $7 \times 10^{28} Nm$ (corresponding to m = 13.2) being a hard upper 144 145 limit for quake size on Earth, as any geologically plausible fault would have a smaller rupture area. The 146 extrapolation of the linear part of the size-frequency distribution of the GCMT predicts that events of this size occur every 10000 to 100000 years: The classical Gutenberg-Richter law, when interpreted na-147 148 ively, predicts that ridiculously large events recur on time scales that are short compared to e.g. the Wil-149 son cycle. Given that there are no traces at all of such events, we take it as an observational fact that this 150 prediction is not true and the size-frequency distribution must bend down significantly somewhere between $5.3 \times 10^{22} Nm$ (the Tohoku event of March 2011) and $10^{29} Nm$. 151

We assume that the moment frequency distribution follows a tapered Pareto distribution (a.k.a. tapered Gutenberg-Richter distribution), which basically is a Gutenberg-Richter law tapered with an exponential function for the largest events (Figure 1).

155 In this distribution, the cumulative relative number of events with a seismic moment larger than *M* is 156 given by (Kagan, 2002a, b, and references therein)

157
$$\Phi(M) = \left(\frac{M_t}{M}\right)^{\beta} exp\left(\frac{M_t - M}{M_c}\right) \text{ for } M_t \le M < \infty$$
 (2)

page 8 of 76, 16352 words

Here M_c is the "corner moment" where the exponential taper gains dominance over the classical Gutenberg-Richter power law relation, M_t is the threshold moment above which the catalog is complete (not to be confused with the detection threshold M_d , i.e. the smallest moment for which the catalog contains some, but not all, events), and β is a slope parameter. The part of the graph of Figure 1 for $M_d \le M \le M_t$, i.e. the incomplete detection of events between detection threshold M_d and completeness threshold M_t , is not described by eq. 2 as it is at least partially controlled by effects and properties not related to the quake production, like background noise, anelasticity, and instrument sensitivity.

165 To obtain absolute numbers, $\Phi(M)$ has to be multiplied with a calibration factor following Kagan 166 (2002b)

167
$$\alpha_0 = \frac{\dot{M}_S M_c^\beta (1-\beta)}{M_t^\beta M_c \Gamma(2-\beta) exp(M_t/M_c)}$$
(3)

where \dot{M}_S is the moment release rate per unit time of events exceeding M_t , and $\Gamma(x)$ is the Gamma function with $\sqrt{\pi/4} \le \Gamma(2-\beta) \le 1$ for $0.5 \le \beta \le 1$ (e.g. Weisstein, undated). The absolute rate $\dot{N}(M)$ of events with a seismic moment larger than M is thus obtained from combining eqs. 2 and 3

171
$$\dot{N}(M) = \alpha_0 \Phi(M)$$
 (4)

172 In addition to the rate \dot{M}_S we introduce the cumulative moment M_S such that one event of size M_S 173 per unit time would account for the entire moment rate.

174 If the completeness threshold can be made small enough, $M_t \ll M_c$, the exponential term approach-175 es one and $\dot{N}(M) \propto \dot{M}_S M_c^{\beta-1}$, which plots as a straight line in log-log coordinates, such that the ob-176 served event rate allows inferences on $\dot{M}_S M_c^{\beta-1}$.

page 9 of 76, 16352 words

For any catalog of observed events, one can estimate $\dot{N}(M)$ via the number N of events listed in the catalog (not taking into account those below M_t), and the time span covered by it. The moment rate can be estimated by summing up all events and dividing by the number of unit time intervals covered by the catalog, as was done with the GCMT in Table 1.

181 The total moment released can be computed by integration over the distribution, but since the mo-182 ment rate is a factor in $\dot{N}(M)$ we can save the integration and solve $\dot{N}(M)$ for \dot{M}_S

183
$$\dot{M}_{S} = \dot{N}(M) \frac{\Gamma(2-\beta)}{1-\beta} \frac{M^{\beta}}{M_{c}^{\beta-1}} exp\left(\frac{M}{M_{c}}\right)$$
(5)

Although M_t cancelled out, \dot{M}_s is still only the moment rate resulting from events exceeding M_t by implication via \dot{N} . If $M_t \ll M_c$ and $\beta < 1$, the difference to the moment rate resulting from all events is however neglible.

Now we consider only the largest event that ever occurred. By definition, the largest event ever (or LVR, for short, from Largest eVent eveR) is contained in the catalog only once. Thus, if the catalog covers a time interval of n unit intervals, we identify $M = M_{LVR}$ and obtain $\dot{N}(M_{LVR}) = 1/n$, and eq. 5 allows estimating the global moment rate from a single event, provided the corner moment M_c of the distribution and its slope parameter, or reasonable estimates, are given.

Using eq. 2 we find the relative frequencies of events exceeding M_c by a factor x is

193
$$\frac{\Phi(xM_c)}{\Phi(M_c)} = \left(\frac{1}{x}\right)^{\beta} exp(1-x)$$
(6)

194 With a convenient (and not entirely unrealistic) value of $\beta = 2/3$, this results in a drop of frequency 195 by a factor 5×10^{-15} for events one magnitude unit larger than m_c , while the frequency of events two 196 magnitude units larger is reduced by 10^{436} with respect to the corner moment. Thus the former are 197 extremely rare, while the latter do practically not occur. This holds for slightly different choices of β as 198 well.

The largest event ever hence poses a (statistical) lower limit $M_{LVR} \le M_c$ simply by its existence. Moreover, it will approach the corner moment with time, such that $M_{LVR} \approx M_c$ becomes a reasonable guess. Inserting this into eq. 5 yields

202
$$M_S \approx \frac{1}{n} \frac{\Gamma(2-\beta)}{1-\beta} M_{LVR}$$
(7)

and we call this the normalized largest event ever, NLVR for short, estimation of the moment rate.

The middle term approaches infinity for $\beta \to 1$, but in reality $1/2 \le \beta \le 2/3$ appears to hold, from which $\sqrt{\pi} \le \Gamma(2-\beta)/(1-\beta) \le 2.68$ follows.

We define *n* based on the duration of the observation: if the unit time interval has a duration ΔT , seismicity is recorded between t_{start} and t_{end} (where t_{start} is not necessarily the time of the first event, and t_{end} is continuously growing in an ongoing experiment), then the normalization factor for the largest event ever which occurred at a time t_{LVR} between start and end is $n = (t_{end} - t_{start} + 1)/\Delta T$, and also continuously grows in an ongoing experiment.

211 With this definition, 1/n and thus the estimated value of \dot{M}_S , will approach zero for $t_{end} \rightarrow \infty$. Math-212 ematically, this appears to be a flaw, but in the long run the observer can take the onset of a continuous 213 decay as indication that the largest event ever has exceeded the corner moment of the distribution.

A more sophisticated estimation of M_c is given by Kagan & Schoenberg (2001). As they found that a maximum likelihood estimation of M_c is severely biased for small catalogs, they derive an alternate estimator based on expressions for the first and second statistical moment of the tapered Gutenberg-Richter distribution. With the seismic moment of the *i*-th event in the catalog termed M_i , a total of kcataloged events, the standard deviation σ of the M_i , and the mean moment

219
$$\overline{M} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} M_i \tag{8}$$

220 they obtain the estimator

221
$$\widetilde{M}_c = \frac{\sum (M_i^2/k) - M_t^2}{2[M_t^2\beta + (1-\beta)\overline{M}]}$$
(9)

222 from which a bias correction

223
$$\widetilde{M}_{bias} = \frac{(\beta - 1) \left[2M_t^3 + 3M_t^2 \widetilde{M}_c \beta + (\sigma^2 + \overline{M}^2) (6\widetilde{M}_c - 3\widetilde{M}_c \beta - 2\overline{M}) \right]}{4k [M_t \beta + (1 - \beta) \overline{M}]^2}$$
(10)

has to be subtracted. The difference $\tilde{M}_c - \tilde{M}_{bias}$ is then substituted for M_c in eq. 5.

The estimator $\tilde{M}_c - \tilde{M}_{bias}$ holds for i.i.d. events, i.e. the parameters of the earthquake-generating distribution must be constant in time, and the quakes must not trigger each other. Therefore the catalog has to be declustered before estimating the corner moment. We call the combination of equations 5, 9, and 10 the k-events Kagan-Schoenberg, or KS_k for short, estimator of the moment rate.

The KS_k estimator requires a catalog containing at least k events and a reasonable estimate about the completeness threshold M_t of that catalog to be computable and useful. If only a single event is available, one can either equate M_t with the size of that event, resulting in $\tilde{M}_c = 0$, or assume that M_t is smaller than the event, resulting in \tilde{M}_c being dependent only on that assumption but not on the observed event. Moreover, σ and hence \tilde{M}_{bias} are undefined for a single event. Therefore the KS_k estimator cannot be used with a single event.

The event magnitudes or seismic moments in a real marsquake catalog will carry an uncertainty as discussed by Böse et al. (2018). This uncertainty for individual events is propagated into the uncertainty of NLVR and KS_k estimations in a Monte Carlo fashion by evaluating a number of modified catalogs, where each event's seismic moment is perturbed according to a normal distribution with the standard

deviation cataloged for this individual event, and taking care for error propagation through conversion
between different types of magnitudes or magnitudes and seismic moments.

241 Emission Probabilities

Due to the stochastic nature of the tectonic process generating the real quakes, as well as of any catalog simulation process, simulated catalogs will never match observed quake sequences on an event-byevent basis even if the model underlying the simulation matches the real process perfectly, and all parameters are known exactly.

246 Due to the limitations of the data set we expect to obtain for Mars, we do not consider a maximum-

247 likelihood fit of an assumed type of distribution in order to estimate its parameters feasible.

The moment rate estimation described above is intended to be a direct estimation of one of the parameters of the size-frequency distribution, but is likely to be biased and carry some variance, not the least due to the uncertainty of the seismic moments of observed events. Bias and variance will depend on several factors, such as the parameters of the Tapered Gutenberg-Richter distribution themselves, and the period of time covered by the simulated catalog.

We borrow (without intending to over-stress the analogy) from the field of hidden layer Markov chains the term "emission probability" for the probability that a stochastic process produces a statistical diagnostic with the same value as obtained from another, inaccessible process: In our case, a quake catalog is a realization of a stochastic process which is transformed into a single-valued diagnostic using one of our estimators. This transformation is a secondary stochastic process of which the resulting diagnostic is a single realization. We aim to estimate the probability that a numerical simulation of seismicity catalogs results in the same moment rate estimations as the observed catalog.

The catalog simulation we describe in the next section is a random number generator with three parameters: moment rate, corner moment, and distribution slope. These parameters form a state space,

which we scan on a search grid with a regular node spacing when moment rate and corner moment are expressed as magnitudes following equation 1. For each node, we produce a large number of synthetic catalogs and evaluate the NLVR and KS_k estimators for all these catalogs, resulting in a distribution of estimations. Comparing these distributions with the respective estimations of the real catalog, we can determine the probability that a certain combination of state parameters makes the catalog simulation emit a moment rate estimation within the uncertainty limits of the moment rate estimation derived from the real catalog.

This finally yields a map of emission probabilities for the scanned part of the state space, which can then be compared with predicted parameters e.g. from Knapmeyer et al. (2006), or with values for Earth and Moon.

272 Examples will be shown below in sections dealing with seismicity catalogs for Earth and Moon, and 273 synthetic catalogs for Mars. These are computed on a search grid with node spacing of 0.1 moment 274 magnitudes in both moment rate and corner moment dimensions. For each grid node, we evaluate 1000 275 catalogs, resulting in 3.1 million catalogs for the depicted grids. We evaluate for each node the probabil-276 ity that a given state emits a value within 0.2 magnitude units (corresponding to a factor 2 in seismic 277 moment) from the respective target values as given in figure titles (the GCMT comes without uncertainty 278 ranges for the scalar moment, therefore we use a fixed interval width here). Computation time on a 279 desktop computer fits into a lunch break and thus leaves room for refining the search grid or evaluating 280 more catalogs per grid node.

281 Simulation of Seismicity Catalogs

Equation 2 only predicts the relative frequencies of events. In order to reproduce the seismicity observed during a time interval of duration Δt , it needs to be normalized in such a way that also the absolute number of events N(M) and the observed cumulative moment $M_{cum} = \dot{M}\Delta t$ released by all events in the catalog are reproduced. Following Kagan (2002b), the long term average α_0 is computed by evaluating eq. 3.

287 We adjust the – in our context entirely fictitious – completeness threshold M_t such that we obtain 288 catalogs of approximately 10000 events.

The number $N_{\Delta t}$ of events in an actual time interval, e.g. a given calendar year, follows a Poisson distribution describing the probability that the value of $N_{\Delta t}$ is *n* (e.g. Zhuang et al., 2012)

291
$$P\{N_{\Delta t} = n\} = \frac{\lambda}{n!} e^{-\lambda} (11)$$

292 where λ is the rate parameter of the distribution.

For a rate parameter exceeding about 10, the Poisson distribution can be approximated by a normal distribution with mean $\bar{x} = \lambda$ and standard deviation $\sigma = \sqrt{\lambda}$. For time intervals of the order of years and a sufficiently low detection threshold, one can expect hundreds or thousands of quakes, such that this condition is met. We thus draw the number of events per time interval from a normal distribution with $\lambda = \alpha_0$.

The distribution of earthquakes in time (when disregarding aftershocks) also follows a Poisson distribution, as was first shown for California by Gardner & Knopoff (1974). With the number n of events occurring during interval ΔT already being given by eqs. 3 and 11, is it thus sufficient to distribute the source times uniformly over the time interval (see Zhuang & Touati, 2015, algorithm 10).

Finally, for each source time generated thus, a seismic moment is drawn from the tapered Pareto distribution, following the method described by Vere-Jones et al. (2001), which we reproduce here for selfcontainedness. We first generate a first set U_1 of n uniformly distributed random numbers from the interval]0,1[. From these we compute

page 15 of 76, 16352 words

306
$$y = U_1^{-1/\beta}$$
 (12)

In addition, we employ the inverse method to produce n exponentially distributed random numbers from a second set U_2 of n uniformly distributed random numbers which are then filtered through the inverse of the exponential distribution

310
$$X = -\frac{1}{\lambda} log(1 - U_2)$$
 (13)

311 to obtain a set *X* of exponentially distributed random numbers, where

312
$$\lambda = \frac{M+M_t}{M_c}$$
 (14)

313 is the rate parameter of the exponential distribution $f(\tau) = \lambda exp(-\lambda \tau)$. Finally,

314
$$K = (M + M_t) * \min(y, 1 + X) - M_t \quad (15)$$

is a tapered Pareto distributed seismic moment value following the distribution given in eq. 2.

It should be noted that assuming a Poisson process is equivalent to the assumption that the individual events are entirely independent of each other, i.e. the process has no memory of the past. This assumption does not apply to foreshock/aftershock sequences, therefore a comparison of real catalogs with synthetic ones generated with the above procedure requires the declustering of the real catalog. Moreover, this kind of catalog simulation might be unsuitable for sources with a periodic driving force, such as deep moonguakes (DMQ).

It has been argued that the slope parameter β is actually not a free parameter but a universal constant with a value $\beta = 1/2$ (initially apparently by Vere-Jones, 1976, recently e.g. by Kagan, 2014). Analyses of different tectonic settings (Kagan, 1997), Flinn-Engdahl regions (Kagan, 1999) and rectangular regions defined by parallels and meridians (Godano & Pingue, 2000) support that β is a global constant

for quakes on Earth (except mid-oceanic ridges), however with a value $0.6 \le \beta \le 2/3$. Kagan (2014)

327 argues that the deviation from the prediction is a combination of several observational biases.

Thermal moonquakes appear to follow a distribution where most of the moment is released by the small events (implying $\beta > 1$, Cooper & Kovach, 1975), and it is questionable that deep moonquakes, with a stress source that reverts direction on a monthly scale, fall under the same universal relation as subduction zone events resulting from a uniformly progressing slab. So although we follow Knapmeyer et al. (2006) that $\beta = 0.625$ is a good initial choice for Mars, lacking a better one for now, we are aware that this needs to be established experimentally, and it must not be taken for granted.

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Data

The following subsections describe three seismicity catalogs for the Earth and one catalog for the Moon that were used as test cases for moment rate estimation. In the absence of a Mars seismicity catalog we give a brief summary of Martian seismotectonic properties that make us conclude that earthquake statistics methods based on terrestrial circumstances are applicable to Mars as well.

341 GCMT catalog

We downloaded the complete catalog of the Global Centroid Moment Tensor project (GCMT, Dziewonski et al., 1981, Ekström et al., 2012) from IRIS (see "Data and Resources"). This catalog covers the 15456 days from 05. January 1976 (date of the first event in the GCMT) to 17. May 2018, or 42.32 years of 365.25 days, and contains 49178 events with seismic moments between 3.49×10^{15} Nm and 5.32×10^{22} Nm. The completeness threshold for the catalog as a whole is $M_t \approx 2 \times 10^{17}$ Nm, but de347 creases with time; especially the year 1976 is significantly less complete, while M_t is lower for the more 348 recent years.

The cataloged events released a cumulative seismic moment of $\sum M_0 = 3.23 \times 10^{23} Nm$. The ten largest events in this catalog released 47.5 % of $\sum M_0$, and the 615 largest events (i.e. 1.25 % of all events) released 90 % of $\sum M_0$.

352 Stable Continental Regions catalog

353 The Stable Continental Regions catalog of Schulte and Mooney (2005, see also "Data and Resources" represents a compilation for several sources of historically witnessed events and of events for which 354 355 instrumental recordings exist, and covers the entire Earth for the time from 495 AD to 2003. Schulte and 356 Mooney have estimated seismic moments for most of the 1373 events in the catalog. Cataloged moments range from 5.3×10^{15} Nm to 7.5×10^{23} Nm, the latter however is assigned to a reservoir-357 358 associated event in India in September 2000 and is most likely erroneous. We exclude this and another reservoir-associated event for which a moment of $> 10^{23} Nm$ is given from our analysis, leaving as the 359 360 largest listed event an earthquake that occurred in July 1819, also in India, with a seismic moment of $6.6 \times 10^{20} Nm (M_w = 7.8).$ 361

362 For each event, the catalog indicates if instrumental records, historical desriptions, or both are avail-363 able. For events after 1976, the catalog is informed by the GCMT.

364 Temporary Installation at Goldstone, CA

A single Nanometrics Trillium Compact seismometer (120 *s* eigenperiod) was installed temporarily during summer 2014, in a dry lake bed in the Mojave desert, approximately 60 *km* NNE of Barstow, California, and approximately 1 *km* southwest of the 70 *m* "Mars" antenna dish of NASA's Deep Space Network (Lorenz et al., 2015). The purpose of this experiment was to gather seismic and microbarometric

recordings of dust devils, to support the interpretation of dust devil recordings expected from Mars. The
experiment was not intended to record earthquakes, but these are of course hard to avoid.

371 The surface of the lake bed is composed of fine mud that grades into denser sediment overlying a rock with increasing seismic velocities with depth, which is likely analogous to the InSight landing site 372 373 (see Lorenz et al., 2015, Golombek et al., 2017, and Knapmeyer-Endrun et al., 2017). The seismometer 374 was shallowly buried and accompanied by a microbarometer and an anemometer on the surface. The 375 seismic sampling frequency was 100 Hz, but we resampled to 2 Hz to simulate the continuous data 376 stream that will be available from InSight (Lognonné et al., submitted). The seismometer operated from 377 05. June 2014 to 29. Aug. 2014. Several downtime periods add up to 18 days (24h periods, not to be con-378 fused with the 24.6h of the martian rotation period) of lost data, such that a total of 68 days of seismic 379 recordings remains.

380 During this experiment, the USGS National Earthquake Information Center (NEIC) catalog lists 304 381 global events with magnitudes of 5 and larger.

We convert the 7 different types of magnitudes found in the NEIC catalog (M_s , m_b , M_L , and several versions of M_w) into seismic moments to quantify source strength , using relations from Wason et al. (2012) , and from Bormann et al. (2002).

By visual inspection, we categorize all events according to their signal quality with categories given in Table 2. We expect that magnitudes or seismic moments could be determined from InSight data for events comparable to categories A through E, and sufficiently precise locations to reduce the distance effect in magnitude uncertainty to below 0.3 magnitude units for categories A, B, and E (Böse et al., 2018).

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391 Moonquakes, deep and shallow

392 Seismic observation of Apollo has detected more than 13000 seismic events (Nakamura, 2003; see 393 "Data and Resources"), encompassing endogenous moonquakes, meteorite impacts, and artificial 394 sources.

395 The most frequent type of events is the deep moonquakes (DMQ) at depths between 700 km and 396 1100 km (Nakamura, 2005). They occur in clusters which are activated and deactivated in cycles corre-397 sponding to the orbital periods of the Moon-Earth-Sun system. Time lags between individual events of 398 individual clusters are also not random (Bulow et al., 2007, Weber et al., 2010, and references therein). 399 Kawamura et al. (2017) show that stress drops associated with DMQ are of the order of magnitude of the 400 tidal stresses in their source regions. The DMQ are thus not only triggered but also caused by tidal 401 stresses, i.e. the orbital motions in the Moon-Earth-Sun system can be considered as a part of the DMQ 402 source mechanism. Since orbital motion is described by differential equations that allow evaluation for-403 ward and backward in time, the DMQ mechanism has a memory of the past and therefore cannot be 404 i.i.d. Poissonian. The situation appears to be different for the (poorly understood) shallow moonquakes, which we discuss in section "Moon: High Frequency Teleseisms". 405

Therefore, we focus on shallow moonquakes in the following. The source mechanism of shallow moonquakes is not yet clear but they are likely to be caused by thermal contraction of the Moon (e.g. Binder & Lange, 1980), i.e. the same mechanism expected for marsquakes (Phillips, 1991, Knapmeyer et al., 2006, Plesa et al., 2018). If this is correct, shallow moonquakes can be regarded as lunar analogs of marsquakes.

411 Martian Seismotectonics

The seismic data available from Mars so far (up to late November 2018) contains only one candidate marsquake, which was recorded by the Viking 2 seismometer (Anderson et al., 1977), but could not iden-

414 tified as such unambiguously. At the time of writing, we are thus not in the possession of a seismic data 415 set that allows for statistical evaluation. In this section we describe in more detail what is known about 416 the seismotectonics of Mars, in order to support that out statistical approach is meaningful for Mars as 417 well as for Earth.

418 After the successfuldeployment on December 19, 2018, broad band and short period seismic data 419 from the InSight lander is expected to be received from January 2019 onwards. Routine evaluation of 420 events, encompassing the identification of seismic phases, epicenter location based on multi-orbit sur-421 face waves and polarization analysis (Böse et al., 2017, Panning et al., 2015), will be conducted by a team 422 at the Swiss Seismological Service located at ETH Zürich (Clinton et al., 2018), the Marsquake Service 423 (MQS). Mars-specific magnitude scales were developed (Böse et al., 2018) and will be used by the MQS 424 to quantify source strength on Mars. The event catalog produced by the MQS will also discriminate be-425 tween different source types (tectonic, impacts, landslides, and atmospheric effects) based on the expe-426 rience with Apollo data and physical differences in the source mechanism (see Daubar et al., 2018, con-427 cerning impacts, and Clinton et al., 2018, concerning the MQS).

Mars is a one-plate planet which shows no unambiguous indications of subduction zones or mid-428 429 ocean ridges, neither in topography nor in free air gravity anomalies or lithospheric magnetic field (e.g. 430 Zuber et al., 2000, Hirt et al., 2012, Morschhauser et al., 2014). Nevertheless, it must have witnessed 431 much seismic activity in the past, as its surface is crisscrossed with complex patterns of normal and 432 thrust faulting. Knapmeyer et al. (2006) mapped more than 8500 normal and thrust faults with a cumula-433 tive length of about 680000 km, updated later on to approx. 14800 faults with a cumulative length of 434 940000 km (Knapmeyer et al., 2008). The shortest of these has a length of approx. 600 meters, while the longest graben that dissects the Tharsis bulge is almost 1450 km long. The Knapmeyer et al. (2006) fault 435 436 catalog appears to be complete for faults longer than 80 km. The overall size-frequency distribution of 437 Martian faults can be described by a power law with exponent well in the range found for fault popula-

tions on Earth (see Knapmeyer et al., 2006, and references therein). If one assumes that all fault segments are equally likely to break, and that large marsquakes require long breaking segments, then the
length-frequency distribution of Martian faults is in favor for a power-law-like distribution of Marsquake
sizes.

Taking the age of the youngest surface crossed by a fault as indicator of its age, no age preference for shorter or longer faults is found, i.e. the size frequency distribution appears to be independent of time. It must be noted, however, that 75 % or more of the total fault length was produced more than 3.5 Ga ago. The youngest faults are estimated to have an age of approx. 300 Ma.

Fault populations on Mars show features like fault linkage or relay ramps well known from Earth (see Schulz et al., 2010, and references therein, for a general treatment). The mechanisms of fault growth are considered to be the same on Earth and Mars (see Wyrick et al., 2018, for a recent analog study), although faults on Mars accumulate less displacement per length than faults on Earth. This can however be attributed to properties that all scale with gravity (Schulz et al., 2006).

451 Stresses resulting from differential cooling of the planetary interior are widely accepted as the main 452 source of Martian seismicity (Phillips, 1991, Knapmeyer et al., 2006). Plesa et al. (2018) also investigated 453 stresses resulting from mantle drag due to convection and found that these might under certain circum-454 stances contribute significantly to the moment rate, and especially modify the regional distribution of effective stresses. Knapmeyer et al. (2006) defined end-member and "typical" models with "strong", 455 "weak" and "medium" moment rates of $4.78 \times 10^{18} Nm/yr$, $3.42 \times 10^{16} Nm/yr$, and $5.99 \times 10^{16} Nm/yr$ 456 10^{16} Nm/yr, respectively. Due to different corner moments, their models StronaFew, StrongMany, 457 458 WeakFew, WeakMany, and Medium produce m = 4 events with recurrence rates between 13 hours and 459 6.7 years. Based on these and other estimations of martian seismcity, Panning et al. (2017) expect about 460 100 events per year that are detectable at distances beyond 60°.

page 22 of 76, 16352 words

While the Moon's seismic event rate is dominated by the deep moonquakes that are tied to Earth tides, Phillips (1991) found that although tidal loading by the sun produces high strain rates, the associated strains are small, and concluded that tidal loading of Mars is unimportant from the seismicity point of view. We expect that Mars, unlike the Moon, has no significant periodic seismicity.

Mars is well known for its giant volcanos. These have been active through much of the Martian history. Although some of the youngest volcanic surfaces might be only a few million years old(Neukum et al., 2004), no actual volcanic activity has ever been reported. The wristwatch pattern of faults around the Alba Patera volcano actually shows that its magma chamber retreated (Cailleau et al., 2003). Volcanic contributions to seismic activity are thus considered unlikely.

Fresh impacts have been found on Mars in images taken repeatedly from the same area (Malin et al., 2006), and might provide semi-controlled seismic sources when the location of an impact detected by a seismometer can be identified in imagery. Quantitative analysis shows that the recurrence intervals of globally detectable impacts is between one year and 10 years (Teanby & Wookey, 2011), where the longer intervals are expected to be more likely due to expected noise conditions. Contrary to an intuition one might have based on the cratered surface of especially the southern hemisphere of Mars, impacts are also not expected to dominate the seismic record.

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Results

To assess the reliability of moment rate estimations we conduct numerical tests where we compare estimated rates with the GCMT catalog of earthquakes from the time interval 1976 to 2018 (section "Earth"), and also with the known true values of synthetic catalogs (section "Generic Synthetic Cata-

- 483 logs"). Finally, we generate synthetic catalogs for several models of Martian seismicity and investigate if
- 484 and how we can distinguish between them (section "Mars-specific synthetic catalogs").
- 485 **Earth**
- 486

Since the GCMT, as the most comprehensive and homogenous long-term catalog of moment tensor solutions, relies on a global network of about 200 stations, we first need to establish that a single station can provide data representative for Earth's global moment rate. The question here is what the global completeness threshold for a single (broadband) seismometer is, and how long it takes until the largest recorded event is above this completeness threshold.

We then compare how the output of different estimators evolves in time, i.e. re-evaluate all estimators for each new event in the catalog throughout the time covered. Finally, we compare estimations for different tectonic settings (subduction zones, mid-ocean ridges, and stable continental regions) by subdividing the GCMT catalog according to Flinn-Engdahl-Zones and by evaluation of an additional catalog dedicated to stable continental regions (as an analog for the single plate regime on Mars) which also contains events predating the instrumental recording of earthquakes.

498 Since we will likely not be able to determine reliably the slope parameter of the martian seismicity 499 distribution, we use a fixed value of $\beta = 2/3$ throughout all these tests.

500 Single Station Completeness Threshold

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502 We use as single station the temporary installation at Goldstone described in section "Temporary In-503 stallation at Goldstone, CA". To find its completeness threshold, we compare the size-frequency (survi-504 vor) distribution of events detected at Goldstone with the size-frequency distribution of the GCMT

505 (Figure 2). Distributions from short recordings are less smooth than that of the whole GCMT data base, 506 and also differ between independent time windows of the same duration. In addition, the magnitude-to-507 moment conversion is based on empirical relations between uncertain quantities and may thus provide 508 an uncertain moment value only, thus adding to the roughness of the curve. We therefore do not at-509 tempt to pin down the completeness threshold very precisely, but only estimate that it is somewhere between 10^{18} Nm and 10^{19} Nm for events of grade A alone, and possibly lower when taking A and B, or 510 A, B, and E together. The GCMT lists 1273 events exceeding $10^{19} Nm$, and 5891 events exceeding 511 10^{18} Nm, resulting in recurrence times of 12.2 and 2.7 days, respectively. 512

The strongest events in the grade A, $A \cup B$, and $A \cup B \cup E$ subsets are the same, so it is sufficient to use one of them fora moment rate estimation that relies on the strongest events. From the grade A events alone, we obtain a NLVR moment rate estimate of $1.03 \times 10^{22} Nm/yr$ ($m_s = 8.6$), while the KS₁₀ estimator returns $5.79 \times 10^{21} Nm/yr$ ($m_s = 8.4$).

For comparison, we subdivide the GCMT catalog into 180 non-overlapping time windows, each of which has the same 86 days duration as the Goldstone experiment. Using the NLVR estimator we obtain a moment rate equivalent to magnitude 8.28 ± 0.42 from these time windows, while the KS₁₀ estimator results in an equivalent magnitude of 8.25 ± 0.24 .

521 Compared with the $7.61 \times 10^{21} Nm/yr$ ($m_s = 8.52$) obtained from the complete GCMT catalog, 522 and comparing with Figure 3 and the KS₁₀ emission probabilities in Figure 4, we conclude that the Gold-523 stone experiment suffices to estimate the Earth's global seismic moment rate with acceptable accuracy.

524 One can thus expect that a seismometer installation comparable to the one at Goldstone produces a 525 globally representative "largest event ever" time series three months or less after deployment, meaning 526 that all comparable installations worldwide would produce the same such time series. For any longer 527 recording time it is thus justified to evaluate the GCMT catalog instead of a single station catalog.

528 Moment Rate Estimations: Entire Earth

We compare the evolution in time of several different moment rate estimators. For this exercise we use only events from 1977 onwards since the GCMT completeness threshold for 1976 is significantly higher than for later years. We expect that the *NLVR* and especially the KS_k estimators have a certain burn-in time: one cannot evaluate KS_k before having cataloged k events. Moreover, if the catalog contains events below the threshold for global detectability, the first listed events will not be representative for the global moment rate. By excluding 1976 from consideration we avoid mixing the burn-in time of the GCMT project with that of the rate estimation.

As a baseline we consider the summation of all events contained in the catalog between a time T_{start} and up to a time t, and divide by the number of years (assuming 365.25 days per year) elapsed between T_{start} and t to obtain an annual rate. The resulting time series $\dot{M}_{s,base}(t)$ is thus based on all data available at time t.

540 We compare this baseline with estimations based on the single strongest event $(\dot{M}_{s,NLVR}(t))$, based on 541 the *NLVR* estimator) and on the 2, 5, 10, and 50 strongest events $(\dot{M}_{s,KSk}(t))$, based on the *KS*_k estima-542 tor). The latter are computed only after a sufficient number of events is available, thus the respective 543 time series start somewhat later than $\dot{M}_{s,base}(t)$ and $\dot{M}_{s,NLVR}(t)$. All time series are compiled in Figure 3.

A common feature of all time series is that they decay like 1/t or shallower as long as no large new contribution to the moment release occurs. This is of course most pronounced in $\dot{M}_{s,NLVR}(t)$, which can have a new peak only if an event occurs that is larger than any event before. But the effect is also clear in the $\dot{M}_{s,KSk}(t)$ time series, where smaller peaks indicate that new events entered the top-k list. Since new events can enter this list at any position, the value of the KS_k estimator will change more often with increasing k, hence the time resolution of $\dot{M}_{s,KSk}(t)$ increases with k.

550 In analogy to taking the absolute value of the difference between two values we compute

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$$exp\left(\left|\log\left(\dot{M}_{s,est}(t)\right) - \log\left(\dot{M}_{s,base}(t)\right)\right|\right)$$
(16)

to evaluate the deviation between an estimator and the baseline value, as it is sufficient to know that one of the two values has to multiplied by some factor to obtain the other one.

All estimators except KS_2 , which sometimes overestimates by three orders of magnitude, follow the full-catalog baseline closely. Even the single-event *NLVR* estimation never deviates by more than a factor of nine, as does KS_5 . Both KS_{10} and KS_{50} are always within a factor 2.5 or less from the baseline, most of the time the factor is smaller than 2. When subdividing the GCMT into 21 consecutive, nonoverlapping intervals of 2 years, the KS10 value is always within a factor 5 of the 42-years average, and within a factor 2 in half of all cases. All estimators tend to underestimate. We however do not think that the evaluation of a single catalog is sufficient to declare this a rule.

561 Moment Rate Estimations: Specific Tectonic Settings

Earth's seismicity is mainly due to plate tectonics, and by far most of its seismicity (approximately 75 % of all events) occurs at active plate boundaries. Subduction zones alone account for approximately 60 % of all earthquakes. Mars, on the other hand, is a one-plate planet. It is thus desirable to investigate if reasonable moment rate estimations can be made for selected, either Earth specific or Mars specific tectonic settings rather than for the entire Earth.

567 Based on the Flinn-Engdahl regionalization scheme of seismic regions (Young et al., 1995), we extract 568 events belonging to mid-ocean ridges and subduction zones from the GCMT according to the region IDs 569 listed in the appendix 0. Since the F-E-Regions define regions on the Earth's surface but not in its interior, 570 we further subdivide the events classified as "subduction zone" into two depth layers, above and below 571 100 km, in order to clearly separate subducting slabs from crustal events. The number of events sorted 572 into each of the four resulting groups of events is given in Table 3.

page 27 of 76, 16352 words

As reported earlier (e.g. Bird & Kagan, 2004), the distribution for mid-ocean ridge events appears to be significantly steeper than for the other groups (Figure 5**Fehler! Verweisquelle konnte nicht gefunden werden.**), the slopes of which appear to be essentially identical with that obtained for the complete catalog. Especially a test using mid-ocean ridge events is thus a scenario different from the other groups, or the GCMT taken as a whole. For each group we evaluate (a) the sum of all events divided by the number of years covered by the catalog (42.3 years), (b) the *NLVR* estimator, and (c) the *KS*₁₀ estimator, thus obtaining three values for

each group. The resulting moment rates, expressed both in Nm/yr and as moment magnitude of a sin-

581 gle event releasing the same amount of seismic moment, are also summarized in Table 3.

In most cases, both the *NLVR* and the KS_{10} estimator underestimate the value obtained by summing up all events of a subset. The ratios between these estimators and the complete summation are well in the range found for the entire Earth. This holds for all four subsets.

585 Thus the results obtained for the GCMT are encouraging, but we note that an evaluation of a station 586 installed e.g. in early 2004 would look different, since its event catalog would report two very strong 587 events (Banda Aceh and Tohoku) within only 6 years.

588 Neither subduction zones nor mid ocean ridges exist on Mars. We thus use the Earthquake Catalog 589 for Stable Continental Regions of Schulte & Mooney (2005, see also "Data and Resources") as a better 590 analog of martian seismicity.

We subdivide the catalog into two groups: the first contains events for which no instrumental record is available, while the second contains events that were interpreted solely based on instrumental records (a third group of events, where historical information and instrumental data is interpreted together, was excluded from our analysis). The goal is to compare moment rate estimations resulting from the historical events with independent estimations for the instrumental epoch.

596 We do not consider the 21 events listed for the time between 495 AD and 1500 AD (only three of 597 which occurred before 1000 AD). This may look like a somewhat arbitrary modification of the catalog, 598 but we think it is justified since an extension of the covered period by 1000 years biases the duration of 599 observation in a more severe way than the omission of 21 events with moment magnitudes below 6.1 600 biases the released seismic moment. We also delete two reservoir-associated events that occurred in India in 2000, since the catalog assigns unlikely seismic moments beyond $10^{23} Nm$ (corresponding to 601 $M_W > 9$) to both of them, which are also in clear contradiction with the listed magnitude values (around 602 603 5). We thus obtain 226 events from 1500 AD to 1949 and 879 events from 1950 to 2003. Their sizefrequency distributions are shown in Figure 5. Here the group of historical events shows a much lower 604 605 slope than all other distributions shown. This is a property expected for incomplete catalogs, as this his-606 torical events list certainly is. The slope of the distribution of the instrumentally evaluated events is very 607 similar to that of the GCMT, but this is not surprising since many of the corresponding catalog entries are based on the GCMT. 608

The resulting moment rate estimates are consistent within each of the two groups (see Table 3), but 609 610 the values obtained for the events from the instrumental epoch are also consistently higher than those 611 for the historical events, by factors between 1.7 and 4.1, with the NLVR estimator producing the largest 612 deviation. Although these deviations are still in the range of variability seen for the different estimators 613 in Figure 3, they exhibit a certain trend. If expressed as magnitudes, we find that the differences be-614 tween the individual estimates is no larger than the uncertainty attributed to the individual magnitude 615 estimations as listed in the catalog, which is typically 1 magnitude unit, and never below 0.4 magnitude 616 units.

617 In summary we find that the evaluation of the GCMT is encouraging, although it was purely accidental 618 that its largest events occurred late. The deviations obtained with the Stable Continental Regions catalog 619 might be attributed to the very circumstantial nature and general uncertainty of historic observations,

- 620 but might also point to a systematic shortcoming of our approach. To further investigate bias and vari-
- 621 ance of our estimators, we conduct an extensive series of tests with synthetic catalogs.

622 Moon: High Frequency Teleseisms

623 For the shallow moonquakes, we use here the seismic moments estimated by Oberst (1987). In total, 624 28 shallow moonquakes were detected by the Apollo network. We evaluated the annual seismic mo-625 ment release of the following subsets: 1) All shallow moonquake events; 2) Events during 1972-1973; 3) 626 Events during 1974-1975; 4) Events during 1976-1977; 5) Events during 1973-1974; 6) Events during 627 1975-1976. We tested if the seismic moment release evaluated from two-years subsets differ or agrees 628 with that obtained from the complete observation period. We also tested how fast the obtained seismic 629 moment converges to the reference value obtained with the full dataset. We reevaluate the seismic 630 moment release every time a new shallow moonquake is detected and studied the evolution of obtained seismic moment rates like with the GCMT. The results are summarized in Figure 6. KS₁₀ Emission proba-631 632 bilities for the moment rate resulting from all shallow moonquakes together are shown in Figure 7. The 633 maximum emission probability coincides with the rate obtained from all events. In the case of the Moon, 634 the scattering of obtained seismic moment rate is rather small and the difference is about 50% in maximum. The small deviation is likely to be due to the smaller range of magnitude (from 4.7×10^{12} Nm to 635 1.6×10^{15} Nm) and the small number of events for shallow moonquakes. Likewise, the seismic moment 636 rate converged relatively quickly after 4-5 events. Unlike on the Earth, the possible source of excitation is 637 638 limited and result in smaller variety of events. This may be the case on Mars as well, allowing to obtain a 639 representative seismic moment rate rapidly.

640 Generic Synthetic Catalogs

641 We set up a logarithmically equidistant grid of M_S and M_c values via an equidistant grid of equivalent 642 magnitudes. We vary m_S from 3 to 10 in steps of 0.1 magnitude units. The equivalent magnitude of the 643 corner moment is varied relative to m_s from $m_s - 4$ to $m_s + 4$, also in steps of 0.1 magnitude units. This 644 results in a $81 \times 71 = 5751$ elements matrix of combinations of moment rates and corner moments.

645 The resulting event rates, computed for an assumed completeness threshold magnitude $m_t = 2$ range from 10^{-216} to 10^9 events per year (some parameter combinations result in even smaller rates 646 647 that were not numerically resolvable, these cases were excluded from the simulation process). Neither of these extremal values is suitable to produce meaningful catalogs. We therefore adjust the complete-648 649 ness threshold individually for each combination of moment rate and corner moment in order to obtain 650 catalogs of uniform sizes for all cases. A simple iterative search scheme is used to solve eq. 3 for M_t nu-651 merically for this purpose. In analogy to the planned life time of the InSight mission, we generate cata-652 logs covering 2 terrestrial years (or 730 terrestrial days), each containing approximately 10000 events (in a few cases, where this requires $m_t > m_c$, we force $m_t < m_c$ and obtain catalogs with about 10⁵ 653 654 events).

The result of any moment rate estimation will depend on the individual realization of the catalog generator, depending on what the largest cataloged event actually is. To analyze the resulting variability of the estimated moment rate, we thus generate a total of 1410 catalogs (a number chosen with respect to the overall computation time) for each of the 5751 parameter combinations, resulting in approximately eight million usable catalogs. The complete simulation can be run overnight on a desktop PC.

For each catalog, we evaluate the NLVR and KS_{10} estimators and record the resulting bias between the moment rate's equivalent magnitude m_s used during catalog generation and the estimated value's equivalent magnitude m_{est} , defined as

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 $m_{bias} = m_S - m_{est} \qquad (17)$

i.e. the bias is positive for underestimation. From the biases obtained for catalogs resulting from the same value of the ratio M_S/M_c (or from the same difference $m_S - m_c$) we construct distribution densities, median values and the boundaries of 95% quantiles centered around the median, i.e. intervals which contain 95% of all bias values.

668 *Estimation with correct slope*

In a first test, we use the same slope $\beta \in \{0.4, 0.5, 0.6, 0.625, 2/3\}$ during catalog generation as well as during the evaluation. We generate independent sets of approximately 8 million catalogs for the evaluation using either the NVLR estimator or the KS_{10} estimator. Since we already established that the KS_k estimator gets better with increasing k, we now use a fixed value of k = 10 which is realistic for Mars and expected to perform well in the light of the evaluation of the GCMT.

674 If the corner moment is known (which can be expected only in synthetic cases) a two-dimensional histogram relating the bias between true and estimated moment rate to the difference m_S-m_C can be 675 676 constructed (left panels in Figure 8 (NLVR) and Figure 9 (KS_{10})). Individual moment rate estimates may 677 vary strongly between individual catalogs, by as much as three or more units of equivalent magnitude. 678 The ratio M_S/M_c controls systematic variations of distribution median and width, and NLVR and KS_{10} 679 show different behavior: While the NLVR estimator shows the greater variance for $m_S - m_C < 0$, the 680 variance of the KS_{10} estimator is larger for $m_S - m_C > 0$. Both estimators are near unbiased if 681 $m_S = m_C$.

If the correct value of $m_s - m_c$ is unknown, the 2D distribution densities depicted in the left panels of Figure 8 and Figure 9 reduces to the marginal densities depicted in the right panels. These show that, for $\beta = 2/3$, the probability of overestimating the moment rate is approximately 10% for the NLVR estimator, and 41% for the KS_{10} estimator. The probability that the estimated value is within ± 1 magnitude units of the true value is 49 % for the NLVR estimator, and 72% for the KS_{10} estimator for the given range of possible $m_S - m_c$ differences.

These percentages depend on the value of the slope parameter β and increase as β increases. As Figure 10 (NLVR) and Figure 11 (KS_{10}) show, the distribution densities get narrower and more symmetric with increasing β : The probability that the estimated moment rate is within ± 1 magnitude units from the true value increases as the distribution narrows, and the probability of an overestimation increases as the distribution become more symmetric about the zero bias.

693 Estimation with incorrect slope

As mentioned in the introduction, estimating the slope parameter from a single station catalog is likely biased towards small slopes, since only a fraction of the smaller events will be observed. Since both of our moment rate estimators make use of the slope, we must ask how sensitive the outcome is to an incorrectly guessed slope.

We again generate catalogs with a true slope of $\beta \in \{0.4, 0.5, 0.6, 0.625, 2/3\}$, but use the same set of values used for the estimation from our synthetic catalogs. We thus obtain a matrix of true and assumed slopes and evaluate the fraction of moment rate estimates that falls within ± 1 or ± 2 magnitudes from the true value, and also how likely we overestimate the actual moment rate. As before, we evaluate approximately 8 million catalogs for each combination of true and assumed slope parameter.

In Figure 12 we show the resulting percentages, i.e. the width of distribution densities as shown in Figure 10 and Figure 11, for both the NLVR (top) and KS_{10} (bottom) estimator. Although the width parameters depend on both the true slope and the slope assumed by the estimator, the influence of the latter on the number of cases where the estimated moment rate is within ± 1 or ± 2 magnitudes from the true value is much smaller than that of the true slope. It is thus sufficient if the assumed slope is approximately correct within a relatively wide range. This holds for both estimators.

page 33 of 76, 16352 words

A notable difference is the fraction of cases where the actual moment rate is overestimated: For the NLV estimator, this fraction depends mainly on the assumed slope and not as much on the true slope, whereas it is about equally sensitive on both values for the KS_{10} estimator.

712 Mars-specific synthetic catalogs

The tests described so far indicate that variance and bias of both the NLVR and the KS_k estimator are such that we cannot expect to solve the question of the Martian moment rate unambiguously, by inverting some estimated value into a best fitting rate. The emission probability approach using a search grid of moment rates and corner moments is more promising.Here we investigate in how far it is possible to distinguish hypothetical states by these emitted rate estimates, and in how far longer experiment life times support this distinction.

We consider the five end-member seismicity models of Knapmeyer et al., (2006), which mark some extreme corners of their parameter space. These models were named *WeakFew, WeakMany, Medium*, *StrongFew*, and *StrongMany* according to their relative moment rates (weak, medium or strong) and event rates (few, medium, or many). Since Knapmeyer et al. (2006) use the truncated rather than the tapered Gutenberg-Richter distribution, we have to convert their maximum seismic moment M_{Max} into corner moments M_c in order to keep the moment rate unchanged when switching to the tapered distribution, using

726
$$M_C = M_{Max} \left[\frac{\beta}{\Gamma(2-\beta)}\right]^{1/(1-\beta)}$$
(18)

after Kagan (2002b). The conversion factor amounts to approximately 0.416 for $\beta = 2/3$, or 0.391 for $\beta = 0.625$ as used in the five models. Moment rates and corner moments of the models are summarized in Table 4. It is worth noting that $m_S - m_C$, which proved crucial for variance and bias of the estimators
in the previous tests, is negative for the *StrongFew*, *Medium*, and *WeakFew* models (but close to zero for
Medium), but positive for the *StrongMany* and *WeakMany* models (rightmost column of Table 4).

To assess the effect of experiment life time, we consider catalogs covering 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, and 32 (earth) years. The exponential increase of durations was chosen in order to compensate for the power law decay of event probabilities with magnitude. Considering even longer times appears to be unnecessary, since no lander with such a life time is known, and since we hope that improved follow-up experiments will make the entire discussion obsolete at some time.

We generate 10^6 catalogs, with approximately 10000 events per catalog, for each duration, and thus obtain six different probability density functions for estimated moment rates for each of the five models. We repeat this for both the NLVR and the KS₁₀ estimator and compare the resulting probabilities graphically (Figure 13 and Figure 14). Independent realizations are used for the two estimators, but given the smooth PDFs that we obtain, we are convinced that this does not affect our results.

For both estimators, doubling the experiment life time moves the maximum of the histograms (i.e. the mode) in Figure 13 and Figure 14 by a constant amount towards larger values (meaning a multiplication by a constant factor on the seismic moment scale). This shows that the choice of an exponential series of life times was appropriate to investigate the long term behavior.

The NLVR and KS₁₀ estimators however show a significant difference concerning the width (i.e. standard deviation) of the distributions: While the NLVR distributions become narrower in most cases (not very much in the case of the *WeakFew* model, left hand side of Figure 15), the KS₁₀ standard deviation decreases not as much, or even grows (in the case of the *WeakMany* and *StrongMany* models, right hand side of Figure 15).

The changes in mode and standard deviation of NLVR work together in such a way that probabilities
left of the maximum decrease quickly with time, while probabilities right of the maximum increase only

page 35 of 76, 16352 words

slowly with time. This makes the evolution of the curves look like a caterpillar pulling its rear end to-wards the head before moving its head forward.

The KS₁₀ estimator behaves differently: here the whole curve moves towards the right essentially unchanged like the shell on the back of a crawling snail, with the notable exception of the *StrongMany* model which behaves like a caterpillar pushing its head forward towards the right with its tail fixed (Figure 14).

759 The two estimators also behave differently when it comes to the rejection of models.

After two years of registration, NLVR moment rate estimates between 2×10^{16} Nm and 1.3×10^{18} Nm (equivalent magnitudes m_S between 4.8 and 6) would be rather inconclusive, since all five models have significant probabilities to produce estimates in this range. An estimated rate of less than 3.9×10^{16} Nm ($m_S = 5$) would exclude the *StrongMany* model. A NLVR estimation below 1×10^{16} Nm ($m_S = 4.6$) would additionally exclude the *Medium* and *StrongFew* models. A NLVR result larger than 1.6×10^{17} Nm ($m_S = 5.4$) obtained after two years, on the other hand, would exclude the *WeakFew*, *WeakMany* and *StrongMany* models.

With the KS₁₀ estimator, the *StrongMany* model could be excluded if the rate estimate is below 8.9 × 10¹⁷ Nm ($m_s = 5.9$). KS₁₀ estimates below 5.6 × 10¹⁶ Nm or above 1.6 × 10¹⁷ Nm (m_s between 5.1 and 5.4) are crucial to distinguish between the *WeakMany*, *Medium*, and *StrongFew* models. More such thresholds could be identified.

As a sketch for the application to InSight data, we simulate a single two years catalog for the Knapmeyer et al. (2006) *Medium* scenario with parameters as given in Table 4, and evaluate the KS₁₀ estimator. This results in an estimated moment rate of $2.72 \times 10^{17} Nm/yr$. The emission probability map favors moment rates close to the one used for catalog generation, and clearly allows the rejection of a moment rate as low as the Moon's (Figure 16). Based on the simulated catalog, a moment rate as high as the Earth's could only be accepted when assuming that marsquakes larger than the largest known earth-quakes are possible.

778 The following observations are crucial here: Firstly, in principle, it is possible to reject at least some of 779 the Knapmeyer et al. (2006) models using the NLVR estimator alone. Second, the moment rate thresh-780 olds to exclude models evolve with time, i.e. with the time span covered by the catalog. And third, 781 thresholds excluding individual models differ between the NLVR and KS₁₀ estimators. Also, the use of the 782 KS_{10} estimator was a decision made here to keep the amount of tests to run in a reasonable range. If 783 more events become available, there is however no reason not to use them for a $KS_{k>10}$ estimation. It is 784 thus meaningful to use different estimators in parallel, and to also track the evolution of the estimators 785 with time.

786

Discussion

787 Our tests with terrestrial data demonstrate that the Earth's moment rate can be estimated from a 788 single, short-lived broadband station, even if it is a temporary installation rather than being placed in a 789 state of the art observatory shelter (the Lorenz et al., (2015) installation at Goldstone serves as an exam-790 ple). The list of the largest k events becomes representative within a few weeks. This minimum time 791 frame of course depends on the actual moment and event rates and is likely longer on Mars. It will be a 792 crucial exercise to determine from the observations what the duration of this "burn in" time on Mars is. 793 Besides the usual methods to determine the completeness threshold of catalogs, a comparison of the 794 actual Mars catalog with modeled detection probabilities might be useful. For the Earth, the moment 795 rate can be estimated to within a factor 2.5 or better after a burn in of less than 2 weeks from the 10 796 largest events (Figure 3).

A subdivision of Earth's seismicity into specific tectonic settings (subduction zones, subducting slabs alone, mid-ocean ridges, stable continental regions) still allows estimating the moment rate of these regions within the uncertainty of the seismic moments of the individual events used. For the stable continental settings we however obtain larger deviations, indicating that either the approach is less reliable than the whole-GCMT results suggest, or that the estimators show a significant variance.

To assess more generic properties of our estimators, we conduct a series of Monte Carlo experiments, simulating seismicity catalogs for a variety of parameters, and compare the estimated moment rates with the known values used for the simulation.

805 The estimation of the uncertainty of the bias estimate critically depends on the assumed range of M_S/M_C , while knowledge of the slope β is of minor importance, thus allowing to use a generic value like 806 $\beta = 2/3$. To our best knowledge, there is no self-consistent limitation of M_S/M_C in the origins of the 807 tapered Gutenberg-Richter distribution. Maximum likelihood estimation of M_C often produces a lower 808 809 limit only (Bird & Kagan, 2004), and any estimator will suffer from the fact that the necessary large 810 events are also the most rare ones. Thus giving a range of M_S/M_C is hardly possible in advance and will 811 remain challenging in the course of the experiment, as far as the InSight mission to Mars is concerned. We limited the difference of equivalent magnitudes to $|m_S - m_C| < 4$, motivated by the range 812 $-2.4 < m_S - m_C < 1.7$ found with the end-member models of Knapmeyer et al. (2006), and adding 813 814 some margin.

A physical argument creating an upper limit for the corner moment arises from geological considerations on the largest possible event, as discussed in section "Seismic Moment Rate Estimation" for the Earth, assuming an event with a fault plane as large as the planet's surface.

The estimation for the seismic moment upper bound used there scales with R^3 , thus the corresponding estimation for Mars is about 15% of that obtained for Earth, or $10^{28}Nm$ (or $M_W = 12.6$). The crater-

820 ing record and derived surface ages for Mars show that no event involving the entire Martian surface 821 occurred during the recent 3.8 billion years or so (taking the systematic age difference between Hesperi-822 an northern lowlands and Noachian southern highlands as a reference for the creation of the dichotomy, 823 whatever caused it), the longest faults of Knapmeyer et al., (2006) actually suffice for $M_W \approx 9$ if the en-824 tire fault breaks in a single event. We thus predict that the corner moment of the Martian quake statistic 825 is such that events of $M_W = 12.6$ do practically not occur in the sense of the discussion in section "Seismic Moment Rate Estimation", i.e. that the corner moment is at least one magnitude below 826 $10^{28}Nm$ and does not exceed $10^{25}Nm$ (this is however a weak prediction given that the Knapmeyer et 827 al. (2006) models hardly exceed 10^{20} Nm for good reasons). 828

The InSight mission will have to deal with a physically reasonable subset of all possible parameters. Testable predictions that can be challenged individually by InSight data have been made in the literature, and a determination of the moment rate sufficiently accurate to reject some models would be a significant achievement.

833 Our simulations reveal that both the NLVR and KS_k estimations show considerable biases and vari-834 ances. Nevertheless the NLVR estimator, as the most simple one, will allow constraining the actual mo-835 ment rate of Mars when comparing its output with simulated distributions of given seismicity models. 836 Depending on experiment life time and the chosen estimators, threshold exists that clearly discriminate 837 between the Knapmeyer et al. (2006) models. The most promising approach for the interpretation of 838 moment rate estimates appears to be to scan the moment-rate-corner-moment state space like in Figure 839 4, Figure 7, and Figure 16, and determine the probability that a certain state emits the moment rate es-840 timated from observed events.

841 Our approach relies on several assumptions:

842

Marsquakes are i.i.d. events resulting from a Poisson process.

A reasonable guess for the slope is $\beta = 2/3$.

- Their size-frequency distribution can be described by the Tapered Gutenberg-Richter distribu tion.
- The slope of the distribution is such that the moment rate is governed by the strongest, rather than by the smallest, events i.e. $\beta < 1$.
- Martian moment rate and corner moment are sufficiently high to allow for the detection of at
 least a few globally representative events, or, in other words, InSight's detection threshold
 will be low enough that some threshold magnitude exists above which the Marsquake catalog
 will be complete.

It might not be possible to test all these assumptions with InSight data alone. Establishing the validity of the Tapered Gutenberg-Richter distribution, for example, will likely require much longer observation times and more than one station – even the decade-long catalogs available for Earth do not yet provide a clear picture of the distribution of the strongest earthquakes. All these assumptions, however, can be tested in principle. We intend to evaluate several additional diagnostics based on event location and distribution of events in time to assess the validity of our assumptions.

858

847

Conclusion

Statistics is best when it is based on a large data set. The boundary conditions of interplanetary missions however make it challenging to obtain quake catalogs comparable to the GCMT. We nevertheless have to make the most of whatever data we obtain.

862 With equations (2) and (3), the tapered Gutenberg-Richter distribution of quakes is described by 863 slope β , corner moment M_c , moment rate \dot{M}_s , and an observer-dependent completeness threshold 864 moment M_t . While we frequently find statements in the literature that thousands of quakes are neces-

sary to determine slope and corner moment reliably, we have discussed ways to estimate the momentrate based on sparse observations.

Two distinct approaches are proposed, the NLVR estimator which relies on the single largest event ever observed, and the KS_k estimator, which evaluates the k > 1 largest events.

We have evaluated the performance of both estimators numerically. First we apply them to the current GCMT catalog, covering the time from January 1976 to May 2018 and containing nearly 50000 earthquakes. Secondly, we use synthetic catalogs generated from the Tapered Gutenberg-Richter distribution and represented by a total of more than 560 million catalogs worth of almost 2.5 billion years of simulated seismicity.

We find that the proposed estimators will allow rejecting at least some of the published seismicity models by their predicted moment rates. The uncertainty of the estimates depends on \dot{M}_S/M_C , but is sufficiently small to discriminate several published seismicity models even after only two years mission life time on Mars.

878

Data and Resources

879 The Apollo seismic event catalog can be found at http://www-880 udc.ig.utexas.edu/external/yosio/PSE/catsrepts/

881 The Global Centroid Moment Tensor was retrieved from IRIS, 882 https://ds.iris.edu/ds/products/momenttensor/ on 17. May 2018.

883 Waveform data from the Goldstone experiment was obtained from Lorenz et al. (2015), we kindly re-884 fer to their Data and Resources section.

The Stable Continental Regions catalog of Schulte & Mooney (2005) was retrieved from the USGS at https://earthquake.usgs.gov/data/scr_catalog.php, last accessed 12. June 2018.

887 The coordinates of Flinn-Engdahl region boundaries was retrieved from USGS, at 888 ftp://hazards.cr.usgs.gov/web/hazdev-geoserve-ws/FE/, last accessed 15.05.2018

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Tables

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1130

1131 Table 1 Annual seismic moment rate of Earth, Moon, and Mars.

Planet	Reference	Method	Annual Rate	Annual Rate
			[Nm/yr]	[Equiv. Mag.
				per yr]
Earth	GCMT	observed quakes, 1976-	bserved quakes, 1976- 7.61×10^{21}	
		2018		
Moon	Oberst, 1987	observed HFT quakes $7.27 imes 10^{14}$		3.8
Mars	Anderson et al., 1977	Viking non-observation	$Moon \leq Mars$	
		of quakes	< Earth	
Goins & Lazarewicz,		Viking non-observaation	< Earth	
	1979	of quakes		
	Phillips, 1991	1D lithospheric cooling	4.8×10^{18}	6.4
		model		
	Golombek et al.,	Observed surface fault-	10 ¹⁸	5.9
	1992	ing		

Golombek, 2002	Observed surface fault-	10 ¹⁸ to 10 ¹⁹	5.9 to 6.6
	ing		
Knapmeyer et al.,	1D lithospheric cooling	3.42×10^{16}	4.96
2006	model, weak, medium,	5.99×10^{17}	5.8
	and strong scenario	4.78×10^{18}	6.4
Taylor et al., 2013	Observed surface fault-	$> 5.5 \times 10^{16}$	>5.09
	ing		
Plesa et al., 2018	3D whole-mantle ther-	5.7×10^{16} to	5.1 to 7
	mal evolution model	3.9×10^{19}	

1132 Equivalent magnitudes are moment magnitudes computed according to eq. 1 assuming that the en-

1133 tire moment release of one year is put into a single event.

1135 Table 2 Quality levels used to categorize Goldstone seismograms

Category	Definition	Event count
A	prominent arrivals of various body and surface wave phases	38
В	P arrival and Rayleigh waves clearly above noise level	19
С	P arrival and Rayleigh waves barely above noise level	13
D	Only body waves visible	4
E	Only surface waves visible	60
F	Invisible	170

1138 Table 3 Annual moment rate estimations for different settings on Earth

Subset (No. of events)	Σ	<i>KS</i> ₁₀	NLVR	Units
All events (49178)	76.1	54.9	33.6	10 ²⁰ Nm/yr
	8.52	8.43	8.28	Magnitude
Subduction Zones	66.9	54.9	33.6	10 ²⁰ Nm/yr
(32855)				
	8.48	8.43	8.28	Magnitude
	4.60			4.020
Mid-Ocean Ridges	1.63	1.11	1.07	10 ²⁰ Nm/yr
(7783)	7 41	7.2	7 20	Magnituda
	7.41	7.5	7.25	Magintude
Subduction Zones.	7.38	6.1	2.49	10 ²⁰ Nm/vr
		•••		
$z \ge 100 \ km \ (7297)$	7.85	7.79	7.53	Magnitude
Subduction Zones,	59.8	52.1	33.6	10 ²⁰ Nm/yr
$z < 100 \ km$ (26003)				
	8.45	8.41	8.28	Magnitude
Stable Continental Re-	0.0571	0.0405	0.0415	10 ²⁰ Nm/yr
gions, historic events				
(225)	6.44	6.34	6.35	Magnitude
(220)				
Stable Continental Re-	0.101	0.124	0.17	10 ²⁰ Nm/vr
				20 100/11
gions, instrumental	6.6	6.66	6.75	Magnitude

	events (879)					
1139	Annual moment rate estimations	s for several sub	osets of the G	GCMT catalog fro	m 1976 to 2018, fo	or histori-
1140	cally witnessed events in stable of	continental region	ons between	1500 and 1949,	and finally instrur	nentally
1141	recorded events in stable contin	ental regions, be	etween 1950) and 2003. The f	irst column is the	estimate
1142	resulting from summing up all ev	ents in the subs	set, the seco	nd is the KS for t	he 10 strongest ev	ents, and
1143	the third column is the NLVR est	mator resulting	; from the sir	ngle strongest ev	ent. Each estimate	e is given
1144	in Newton meters per year and a	is moment mag	nitude of a s	ingle event relea	ising the same amo	ount of
1145	Newton meters.					

1148 Table 4 Annual moment rate models for Mars

Model	\dot{M}_S [Nm/yr]	M _{Max} [Nm]	<i>М_С</i> [Nm]	$m_S - m_C$
StrongFew	4.78×10^{18}	3.36×10^{20}	1.31×10^{20}	-0.96
StrongMany	4.78×10^{18}	3.42×10^{16}	1.33×10^{16}	+1.70
Medium	5.99×10^{17}	2.41×10^{18}	9.42×10^{17}	-0.13
WeakMany	3.42×10^{16}	3.42×10^{16}	1.33×10^{16}	+0.27
WeakFew	3.42×10^{16}	3.37×10^{20}	1.32×10^{20}	-2.39

1149 Moment rates, maximum moments, and corresponding corner moments of the end-member seismicity

1150 models of Knapmeyer et al., 2006. All models use a slope parameter of $\beta = 0.625$.

Figures





1156 Figure 1 Schematic depiction of the tapered Gutenberg-Richter distribution in survivor form, showing the number N of 1157 events exceeding moment M. Bullets mark characteristic moment values: M_d - detection threshold, no event smaller than 1158 this is contained in a catalog; M_t - completeness threshold, all events above this are cataloged; M_s - size of an event corre-1159 sponding to the average moment rate; M_C - corner moment. The corner moment may or may not be larger than M_S. slanted 1160 dashed line: prediction according to a Gutenberg-Richter law with the same slope. Horizontal dashed lines: (lower) number of 1161 events above completeness threshold M_t, to be used for event rate estimation; (upper) number of events in catalog. Gray: an 1162 arbitrary grid to indicate that the graph is drawn in log-log coordinates (at M_C, the tapered distribution is actually below the 1163 classical GR distribution by a factor *e*).



Figure 2 Size-frequency survivor distributions for events detected at Goldstone (in groups containing grade A only, or grades A and B, or grades A, B, and E, as indicated in legend. Note that the ABE line is partially covered by the AB line, which in turn gets covered by the A line), the subset of events listed in the GCMT for the uptime of the Goldstone experiment (labeled 5), the whole GCMT scaled down to a duration of 86 days (labeled 4). The gray curves in the background show distributions for consecutive 86-days time windows (i.e. days 1 to 86, 87 to 173, 174 to 260, ... etc.) throughout the entire GCMT catalog.





Figure 3 Evolution in time of moment rate estimations for Earth. The bold black curve is based on summation of all events in the GCMT catalog. The horizontal line marks its value at the end of the cataloged time (01.01.1977 to 18.05.2018). Other lines show time series for the *NLVR* and *KS*_k estimators according to the legend.



1179

Figure 4 KS₁₀ emission probability for the events detected at Goldstone (grade A events only). Dots mark the moment rates and corner moments of all five Mars seismicity scenarios of Knapmeyer et al. (2006), pixel color encodes the emission probability for matching the target rate within 0.2 magnitudes, as derived from 1000 simulated catalogs per pixel. Coordinate axes are labeled in terms of equivalent moment magnitudes. The vertical black line to the right gives the moment rates of the Earth, as listed in Table 1.



Figure 5 Size-Frequency distributions of several subsets of the GCMT catalog and of the Stable Continental Regions catalog. Subduction zones and mid-ocean ridges are identified by using the Flinn-Engdahl regionalization scheme, and subduction zone events are further subdivided into events occurring above and below 100 km depth. The complete GCMT catalog is shown for comparison. For the Stable Continental Regions catalog, the distributions of events from 1500 to 1949 and from 1950 to 2003 are shown separately.

1193





1196Figure 6 Evolution in time of moment rate estimations for shallow moonquakes. Lines denote estimator output as in Fig-1197ure 3, applied to the seismic moments of Oberst (1987). Squares denote the sum of two calendar years of registrations, plot-1198ted at the relative time of the first of January of the first year, intervals used are 1972-1973, 1974-1975, 1976-1977, 1973-11991974, and 1975-1976.



1201

Figure 7 KS₁₀ emission probability for shallow moonquakes. Dots mark the moment rates and corner moments of Mars seismicity scenarios of Knapmeyer et al. (2006) for comparison, pixel color encodes the emission probability for matching the target rate within 0.2 magnitudes, as derived from 1000 simulated catalogs per pixel. Coordinate axes are labeled in terms of equivalent moment magnitudes. The two vertical black lines give the moment rates of Moon and Earth, as listed in Table 1.

1208







Figure 8 NLVR Cumulative moment bias for synthetic catalogs, using $\beta = 2/3$ in both generation and interpretation of catalogs. Left: Histograms resulting from the 8108910 synthetic catalogs generated for the cumulative moment to corner moment ratio indicated on the x-axis, shading encodes the logarithm of the percentage of realizations in each moment rate bias bin of width 0.1. Positive values on the y-axis indicate underestimation. Solid line: median, dashed lines: upper and lower boundary of the 95%-quantile centered around the median. Right: marginal distribution density resulting from rowwise integration of the figure to the left. Thick line: all catalogs, other: relation between moment rate M_s and corner moment M_c as indicated in legend.





1221 Figure 9 KS₁₀ Cumulative moment bias for synthetic catalogs, using $\beta = 2/3$ in both generation and interpretation of cat-

¹²²² alogs. See Figure 8 for a description of graph elements.





Figure 10 NLVR estimator marginal distribution densities for different slope parameters. Left: the marginal distribution densities for all catalogs (corresponding to the grey curve in Figure 8). Each curve represents approx. 8 million evaluated catalogs. Right: percentage of estimations that are within ± 1 (blue) or ± 2 magnitudes (black) from the true moment rate, and the fraction of overestimated moment rates (red).





1233 Figure 11 KS₁₀ estimator marginal distribution densities for different slope parameters. See Figure 10 for a plot descrip-

1234 tion.



1236

Figure 12 Distribution width parameters for NLVR (top row) and KS_{10} (bottom row) estimators. Each uniformly colored patch indicates the width parameter of distribution densities as shown in Figure 10 and Figure 11. True slope and slope assumed during catalog evaluation were taken from {0.4, 0.5, 0.6, 0.625, 2/3} to form a square matrix of test cases. From left to right: percentage of cases with overestimated moment rate, percentage of moment rate estimations within ± 1 magnitude of true value, or within ± 2 magnitudes, respectively. Panels in the same subplot column share the same color range width, although the absolute values differ.


Figure 13 Distribution of NLVR estimators for Mars-specific seismicity models of Knapmeyer et al. (2006) and registration times of 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, and 32 years (envelopes of histograms with bin width 0.01 magnitudes, scaled to percents). Panels from top to bottom show the distributions for seismicity models as indicated in the panel. Note the different y axis ranges.. The seismic moment rate is given as the moment magnitude of a single event that releases the entire moment in one event (the axis range corresponds to $1.3 \times 10^{12} \dots 4 \times 10^{22} Nm$). Darker hues correspond to shorter registration times, the two-year case also uses a thicker line. Vertical lines from left to right denote moment rates (as equivalent magnitudes) for the Moon, both *Weak* scenarios, *Medium* scenario, both *Strong* scenarios, and Earth .





1253 Figure 14 As Figure 13, but for the KS₁₀ estimator.





1256Figure 15 Standard deviations and modes of the distribution densities shown in Figure 13 and Figure 14. Brighter shades1257indicate longer registration times, symbols encode the end member models of Knapmeyer et al. (2006). Diamonds: WeakFew,

1258 Upward triangles: WeakMany Downward triangles: Medium, Circles: StrongMany, Squares: StrongFew



Figure 16 KS₁₀ emission probability for a synthetic Mars *Medium* catalog. Dots mark the moment rates and corner moments of Mars seismicity scenarios of Knapmeyer et al. (2006) for comparison, pixel color encodes the emission probability for matching the target rate within 0.2 magnitudes, as derived from 1000 simulated catalogs per pixel. Coordinate axes are labeled in terms of equivalent moment magnitudes. The two vertical black lines give the moment rates of Moon and Earth, as listed in Table 1.

1269	Appendix
1270	Flinn-Engdahl zones
1271	In the analysis of the GCMT catalog, we used the Flinn-Engdahl zonation scheme, in the revision of
1272	Young et al. (1995), to classify events as belonging to either subduction zones or mid-ocean ridges.
1273	We consider as mid-ocean ridge events all events in zones
1274	143 149 150 401 401 402 403 404 405 406 408 409 410 411 413 419 424 425 426 427 428
1275	429 433 634 635 636 637 638 641 648 681 682 683 688 691 692 693 694 698 699 727 729 735
1276	737 738 739 753 754
1277	We consider as subduction zone event all events in zones
1278	1 2 4 5 6 7 9 10 12 13 14 57 58 59 60 61 66 68 69 70 71 73 74 76 77 78
1279	91 92 95 99 102 103 105 106 107 108 109 110 111 112 113 114 115 116 117 118 119 120
1280	121 122 123 124 125 127 127 128 129 130 131 132 134 135 136 136 137 138 139 141 144 145
1281	153 159 160 169 171 171 172 173 174 175 176 176 177 178 180 181 182 183 184 185 188 189
1282	191 192 193 199 200 201 202 206 209 210 211 212 214 215 216 217 218 219 220 221 223 226
1283	227 228 229 231 233 234 236 237 242 244 245 247 248 249 250 255 258 261 262 263 264 265
1284	266 268 269 271 272 273 274 275 276 277 278 279 281 282 283 284 285 286 290 366 367 368
1285	387 388 396 654 657 658 659 660 685 700 701 702 703
1286	We consider as subducting slabs all events in the subduction zones as listed above, and deeper than

1287 100 km.