

Forces Inside Earth

as you read

What You'll Learn

- **Explain** how earthquakes result from the buildup of energy in rocks.
- **Describe** how compression, tension, and shear forces make rocks move along faults.
- **Distinguish** among normal, reverse, and strike-slip faults.

Why It's Important

Earthquakes cause billions of dollars in property damage and kill an average of 10,000 people every year.

Review Vocabulary

plate: a large section of Earth's crust and rigid upper mantle that moves around on the asthenosphere

New Vocabulary

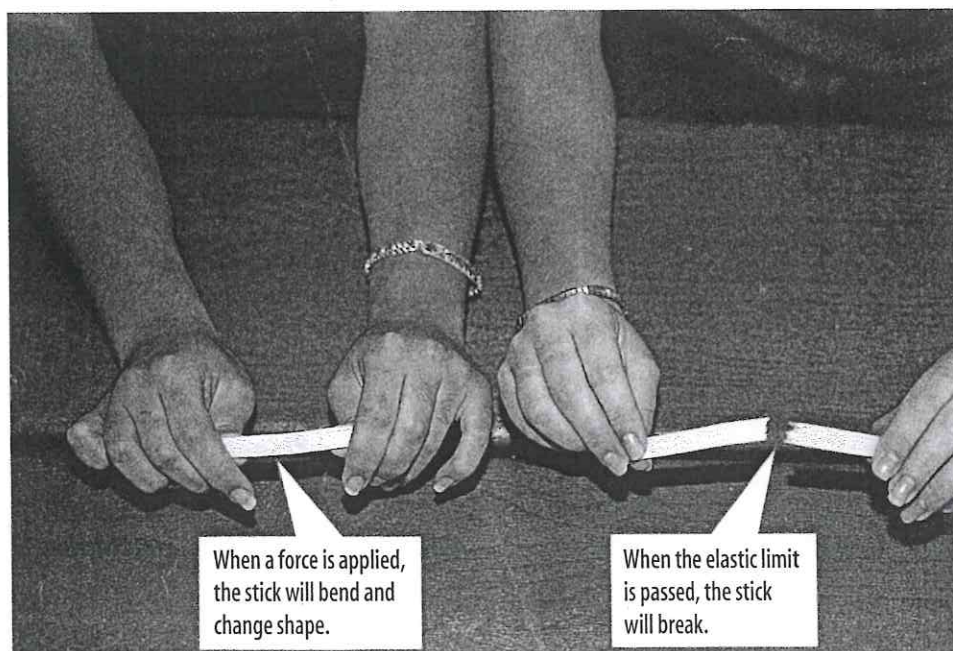
- fault
- reverse fault
- earthquake
- strike-slip fault
- normal fault

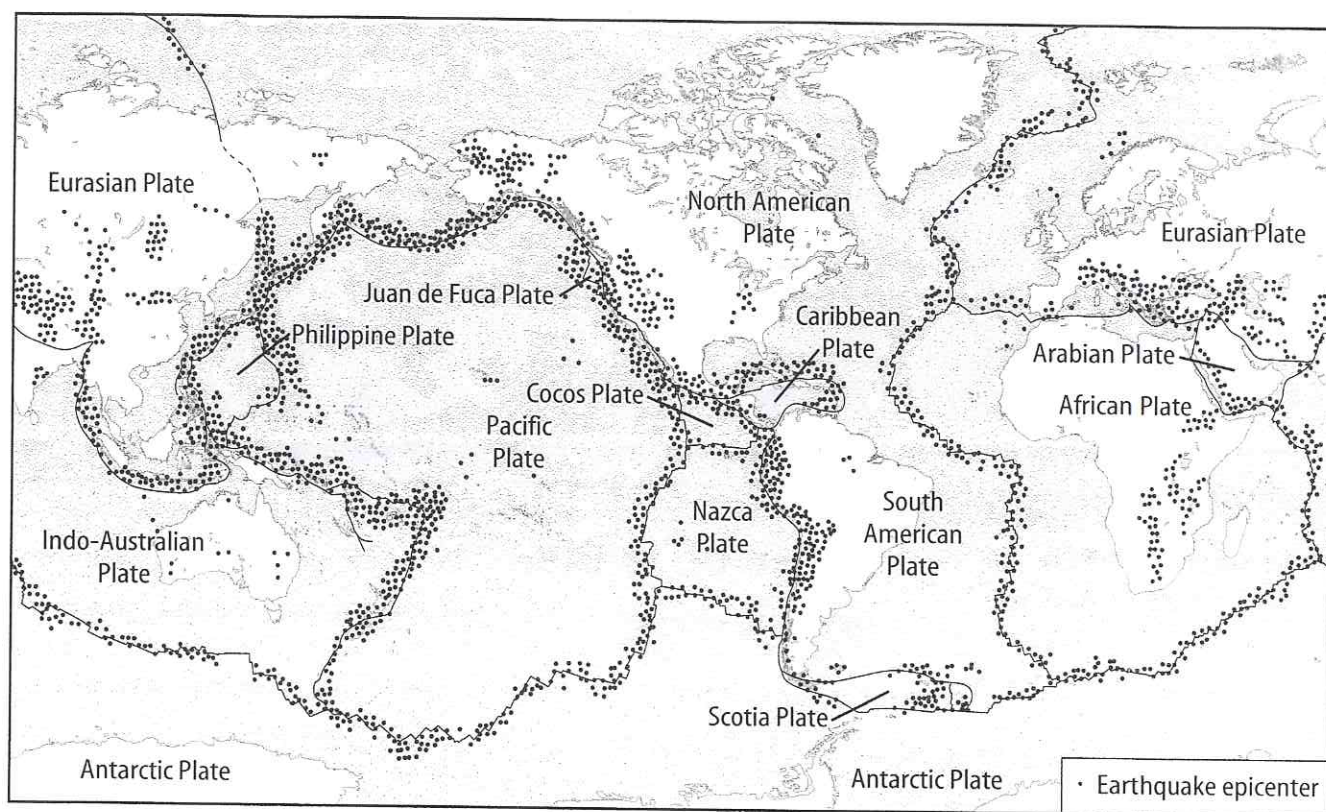
Earthquake Causes

Recall the last time you used a rubber band. Rubber bands stretch when you pull them. Because they are elastic, they return to their original shape once the force is released. However, if you stretch a rubber band too far, it will break. A wooden craft stick behaves in a similar way. When a force is first applied to the stick, it will bend and change shape. The energy needed to bend the stick is stored inside the stick as potential energy. If the force keeping the stick bent is removed, the stick will return to its original shape, and the stored energy will be released as energy of motion.

Fault Formation There is a limit to how far a wooden craft stick can bend. This is called its elastic limit. Once its elastic limit is passed, the stick remains bent or breaks, as shown in **Figure 1**. Rocks behave in a similar way. Up to a point, applied forces cause rocks to bend and stretch, undergoing what is called elastic deformation. Once the elastic limit is passed, the rocks may break. When rocks break, they move along surfaces called **faults**. A tremendous amount of force is required to overcome the strength of rocks and to cause movement along a fault. Rock along one side of a fault can move up, down, or sideways in relation to rock along the other side of the fault.

Figure 1 The bending and breaking of wooden craft sticks are similar to how rocks bend and break.





What causes faults? What produces the forces that cause rocks to break and faults to form? The surface of Earth is in constant motion because of forces inside the planet. These forces cause sections of Earth's surface, called plates, to move. This movement puts stress on the rocks near the plate edges. To relieve this stress, the rocks tend to bend, compress, or stretch. If the force is great enough, the rocks will break. An **earthquake** is the vibrations produced by the breaking of rock. **Figure 2** shows how the locations of earthquakes outline the plates that make up Earth's surface.

✓ Reading Check

Why do most earthquakes occur near plate boundaries?

How Earthquakes Occur As rocks move past each other along a fault, their rough surfaces catch, temporarily halting movement along the fault. However, forces keep driving the rocks to move. This action builds up stress at the points where the rocks are stuck. The stress causes the rocks to bend and change shape. When the rocks are stressed beyond their elastic limit, they can break, move along the fault, and return to their original shapes. An earthquake results. Earthquakes range from unnoticeable vibrations to devastating waves of energy. Regardless of their intensity, most earthquakes result from rocks moving over, under, or past each other along fault surfaces.

Figure 2 The dots represent the epicenters of major earthquakes over a ten-year period. Note that most earthquakes occur near plate boundaries.

Form a hypothesis to explain why earthquakes rarely occur in the middle of a plate.

Tension forces pull rocks apart.

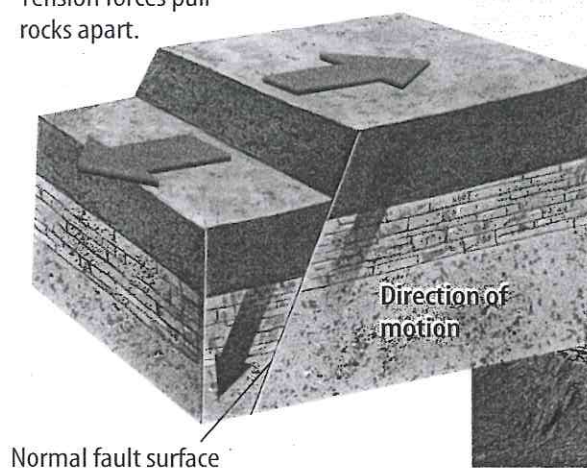


Figure 3 Rock above the normal fault surface moves downward in relation to rock below the fault surface. This normal fault formed near Kanab, Utah.

Types of Faults

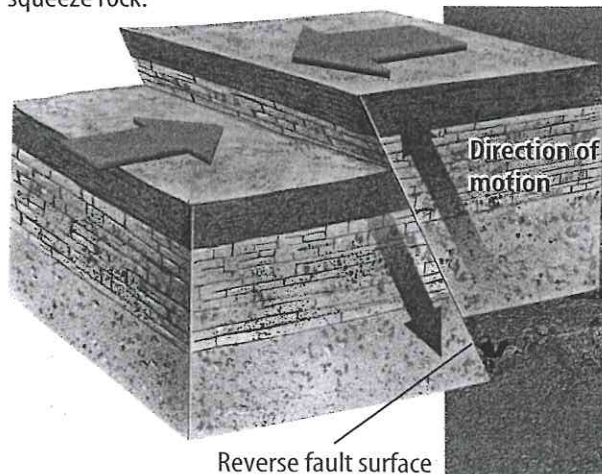


Three types of forces—tension, compression, and shear—act on rocks. Tension is the force that pulls rocks apart, and compression is the force that squeezes rocks together. Shear is the force that causes rocks on either side of a fault to slide past each other.

Normal Faults Tensional forces inside Earth cause rocks to be pulled apart. When rocks are stretched by these forces, a normal fault can form. Along a **normal fault**, rock above the fault surface moves downward in relation to rock below the fault surface. The motion along a normal fault is shown in **Figure 3**. Notice the normal fault shown in the photograph above.

Figure 4 The rock above the reverse fault surface moves upward in relation to the rock below the fault surface.

Compression forces squeeze rock.



Reverse Faults Reverse faults result from compression forces that squeeze rock. **Figure 4** shows the motion along a reverse fault. If rock breaks from forces pushing from opposite directions, rock above a **reverse fault** surface is forced up and over the rock below the fault surface. The photo below shows a large reverse fault in California.

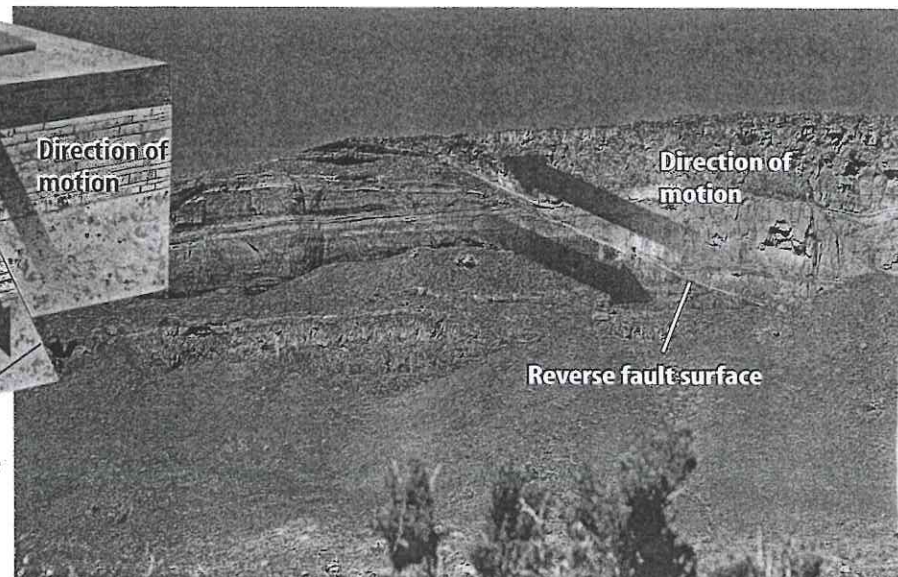
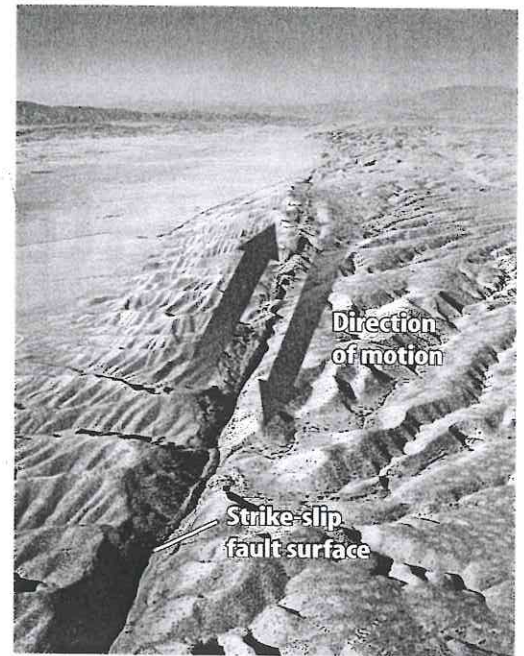
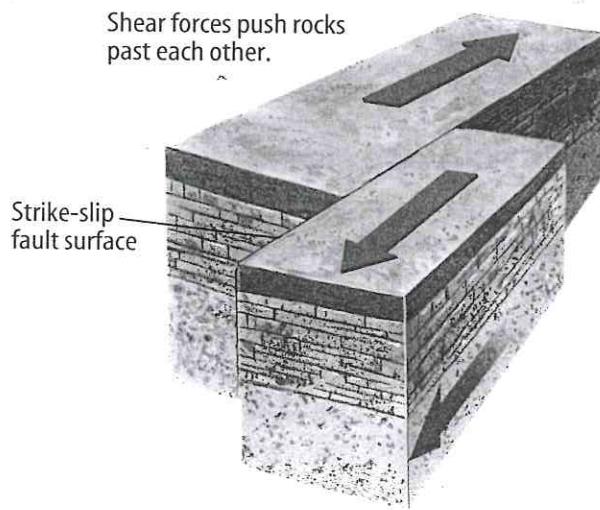


Figure 5 Shear forces push on rock in opposite—but not directly opposite—horizontal directions. When they are strong enough, these forces split rock and create strike-slip faults.



Strike-Slip Faults At a **strike-slip fault**, shown in **Figure 5**, rocks on either side of the fault are moving past each other without much upward or downward movement. The photo above shows the largest fault in California—the San Andreas Fault—which stretches more than 1,100 km through the state. The San Andreas Fault is the boundary between two of Earth's plates that are moving sideways past each other.

Reading Check What is a strike-slip fault?

section 1 review

Summary

Earthquake Causes

- Faults form when stressed rocks break along surfaces.
- Stresses on rock are created by plate movements.
- When rocks break along a fault, vibrations are created. This is an earthquake.

Types of Faults

- Normal faults can form when rocks undergo tension.
- Compression forces produce reverse faults.
- Strike-slip faults result when rocks move past each other without much upward or downward movement.

Self Check

1. **Infer** The Himalaya in Tibet formed when two of Earth's plates collided. What types of faults would you expect to find in these mountains? Why?
2. **State** In what direction do rocks move above a normal fault surface? What force causes this?
3. **Describe** how compression forces make rocks move along a reverse fault.
4. **Think Critically** Why is it easier to predict where an earthquake will occur than it is to predict when it will occur?

Applying Skills

5. **Infer** Why do the chances of an earthquake increase rather than decrease as time passes since the last earthquake?

Features of Earthquakes

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What You'll Learn

- Explain how earthquake energy travels in seismic waves.
- Distinguish among primary, secondary, and surface waves.
- Describe the structure of Earth's interior.

Why It's Important

Seismic waves are responsible for most damage caused by earthquakes.

Review Vocabulary

wave: rhythmic movement that carries energy through matter and space

New Vocabulary

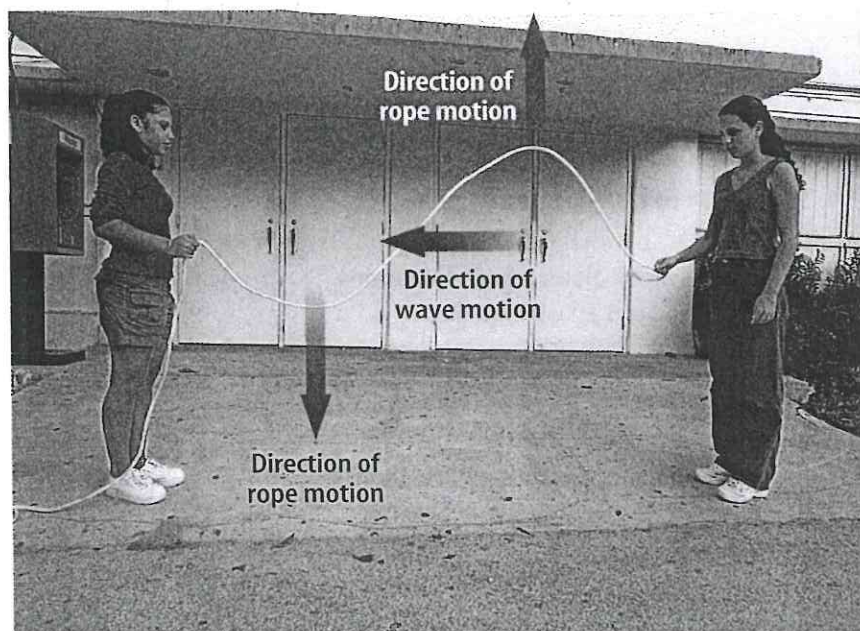
- seismic wave
- surface wave
- focus
- epicenter
- primary wave
- seismograph
- secondary wave

Figure 6 Some seismic waves are similar to the wave that is traveling through the rope. Note that the rope moves perpendicular to the wave direction.

Seismic Waves

When two people hold opposite ends of a rope and shake one end, as shown in **Figure 6**, they send energy through the rope in the form of waves. Like the waves that travel through the rope, **seismic** (SIZE mihk) **waves** generated by an earthquake travel through Earth. During a strong earthquake, the ground moves forward and backward, heaves up and down, and shifts from side to side. The surface of the ground can ripple like waves do in water. Imagine trying to stand on ground that had waves traveling through it. This is what you might experience during a strong earthquake.

Origin of Seismic Waves You learned earlier that rocks move past each other along faults, creating stress at points where the rocks' irregular surfaces catch each other. The stress continues to build up until the elastic limit is exceeded and energy is released in the form of seismic waves. The point where this energy release first occurs is the **focus** (plural, *foci*) of the earthquake. The foci of most earthquakes are within 65 km of Earth's surface. A few have been recorded as deep as 700 km. Seismic waves are produced and travel outward from the earthquake focus.



Primary Waves When earthquakes occur, three different types of seismic waves are produced. All of the waves are generated at the same time, but each behaves differently within Earth.

Primary waves (P-waves) cause particles in rocks to move back and forth in the same direction that the wave is traveling. If you squeeze one end of a coiled spring and then release it, you cause it to compress and then stretch as the wave travels through the spring, as shown in **Figure 7**. Particles in rocks also compress and then stretch apart, transmitting primary waves through the rock.

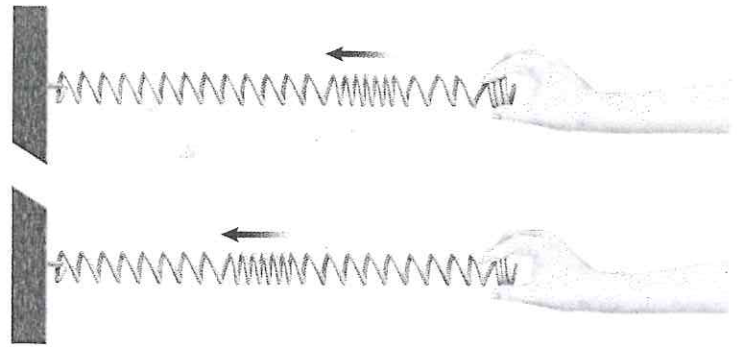


Figure 7 Primary waves move through Earth the same way that a wave travels through a coiled spring.

Secondary and Surface Waves Secondary waves (S-waves) move through Earth by causing particles in rocks to move at right angles to the direction of wave travel. The wave traveling through the rope shown in **Figure 6** is an example of a secondary wave.

Surface waves cause most of the destruction resulting from earthquakes. **Surface waves** move rock particles in a backward, rolling motion and a side-to-side, swaying motion, as shown in **Figure 8**. Many buildings are unable to withstand intense shaking because they are made with stiff materials. The buildings fall apart when surface waves cause different parts of the building to move in different directions.

✓ Reading Check *Why do surface waves damage buildings?*

Surface waves are produced when earthquake energy reaches the surface of Earth. Surface waves travel outward from the epicenter. The earthquake **epicenter** (EH pih sen tur) is the point on Earth's surface directly above the earthquake focus. Find the focus and epicenter in **Figure 9**.

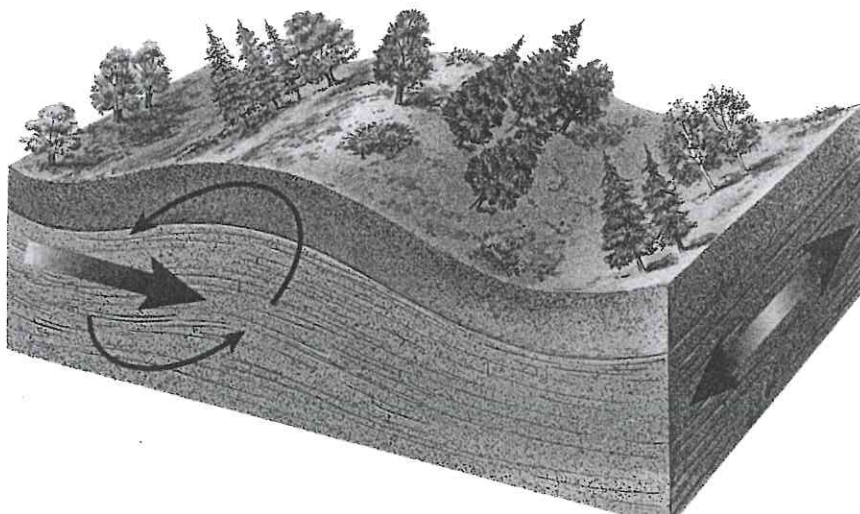


Figure 8 Surface waves move rock particles in a backward, rolling motion and a side-to-side, swaying motion.

Compare and contrast surface waves and secondary waves.



Sound Waves When sound is produced, waves move through air or some other material. Research sound waves to find out which type of seismic wave they are similar to.

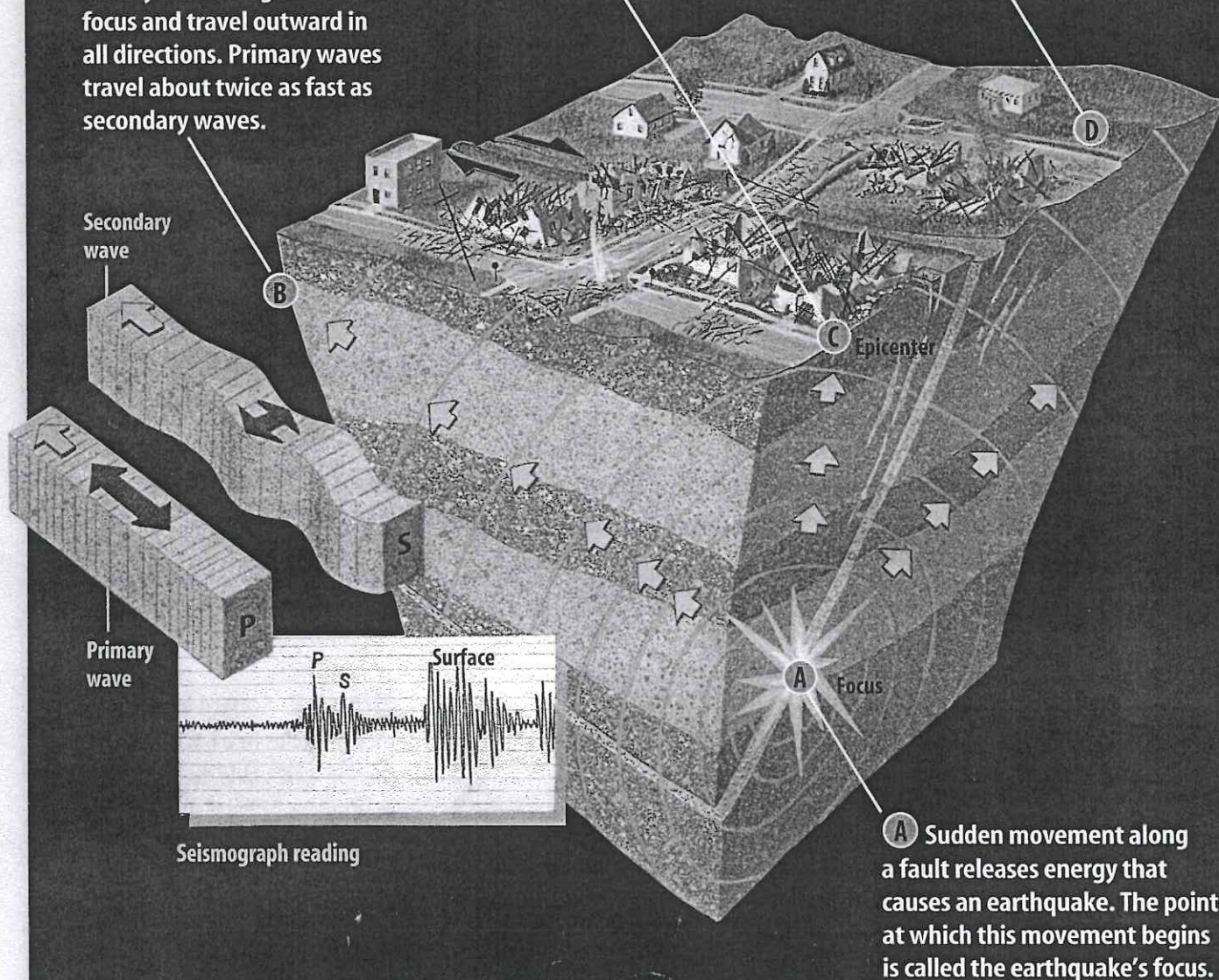
Figure 9

As the plates that form Earth's lithosphere move, great stress is placed on rocks. They bend, stretch, and compress. Occasionally, rocks break, producing earthquakes that generate seismic waves. As shown here, different kinds of seismic waves—each with distinctive characteristics—move outward from the focus of the earthquake.

B Primary waves and secondary waves originate at the focus and travel outward in all directions. Primary waves travel about twice as fast as secondary waves.

C The point on Earth's surface directly above an earthquake's focus is known as the epicenter. Surface waves spread out from the epicenter like ripples in a pond.

D The amplitudes, or heights, of surface waves are greater than those of primary and secondary waves. Surface waves cause the most damage during an earthquake.



Locating an Epicenter

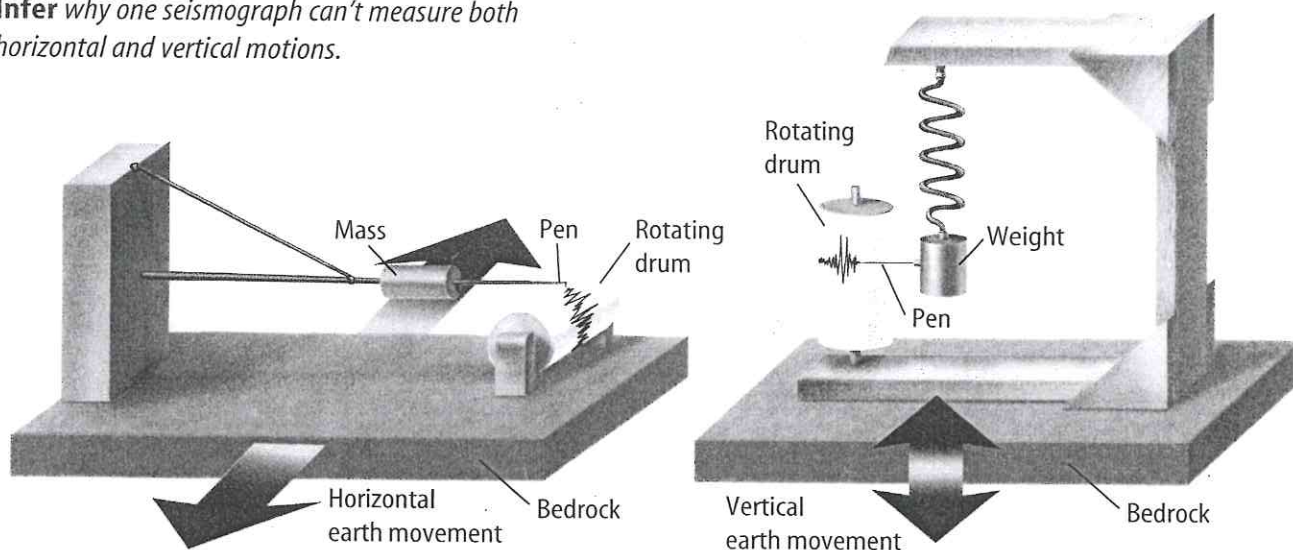
Different seismic waves travel through Earth at different speeds. Primary waves are the fastest, secondary waves are slower, and surface waves are the slowest. Can you think of a way this information could be used to determine how far away an earthquake epicenter is? Think of the last time you saw two people running in a race. You probably noticed that the faster person got further ahead as the race continued. Like runners in a race, seismic waves travel at different speeds.

Scientists have learned how to use the different speeds of seismic waves to determine the distance to an earthquake epicenter. When an epicenter is far from a location, the primary wave has more time to put distance between it and the secondary and surface waves, just like the fastest runner in a race.

Measuring Seismic Waves Seismic waves from earthquakes are measured with an instrument known as a **seismograph**. Seismographs register the waves and record the time that each arrived. Seismographs consist of a rotating drum of paper and a pendulum with an attached pen. When seismic waves reach the seismograph, the drum vibrates but the pendulum remains at rest. The stationary pen traces a record of the vibrations on the moving drum of paper. The paper record of the seismic event is called a seismogram. **Figure 10** shows two types of seismographs that measure either vertical or horizontal ground movement, depending on the orientation of the drum.

Figure 10 Seismographs differ according to whether they are intended to measure horizontal or vertical seismic motions.

Infer why one seismograph can't measure both horizontal and vertical motions.



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Topic: Earthquake Data

Visit earth.mssscience.com for Web links to the National Earthquake Information Center and the World Data Center for Seismology.

Activity List the locations and distances of each reference that seismograph stations used to determine the epicenter of the most recent earthquake.

Seismograph Stations Each type of seismic wave reaches a seismograph station at a different time based on its speed. Primary waves arrive first at seismograph stations, and secondary waves, which travel slower, arrive second. Because surface waves travel slowest, they arrive at seismograph stations last. This difference in arrival times is used to calculate the distance from the seismograph station to the earthquake epicenter, as shown in **Figure 11**. If a seismograph station is located 4,000 km from an earthquake epicenter, primary waves will reach the station about 6 minutes before secondary waves.

If seismic waves reach three or more seismograph stations, the location of the epicenter can be determined. To locate an epicenter, scientists draw circles around each station on a map. The radius of each circle equals that station's distance from the earthquake epicenter. The point where all three circles intersect, shown in **Figure 12**, is the location of the earthquake epicenter.

Seismologists usually describe earthquakes based on their distances from the seismograph. Local events occur less than 100 km away. Regional events occur 100 km to 1,400 km away. Teleseismic events are those that occur at distances greater than 1,400 km.

Figure 11 Primary waves arrive at a seismograph station before secondary waves do.

Use Graphs If primary waves reach a seismograph station two minutes before secondary waves, how far is the station from the epicenter?

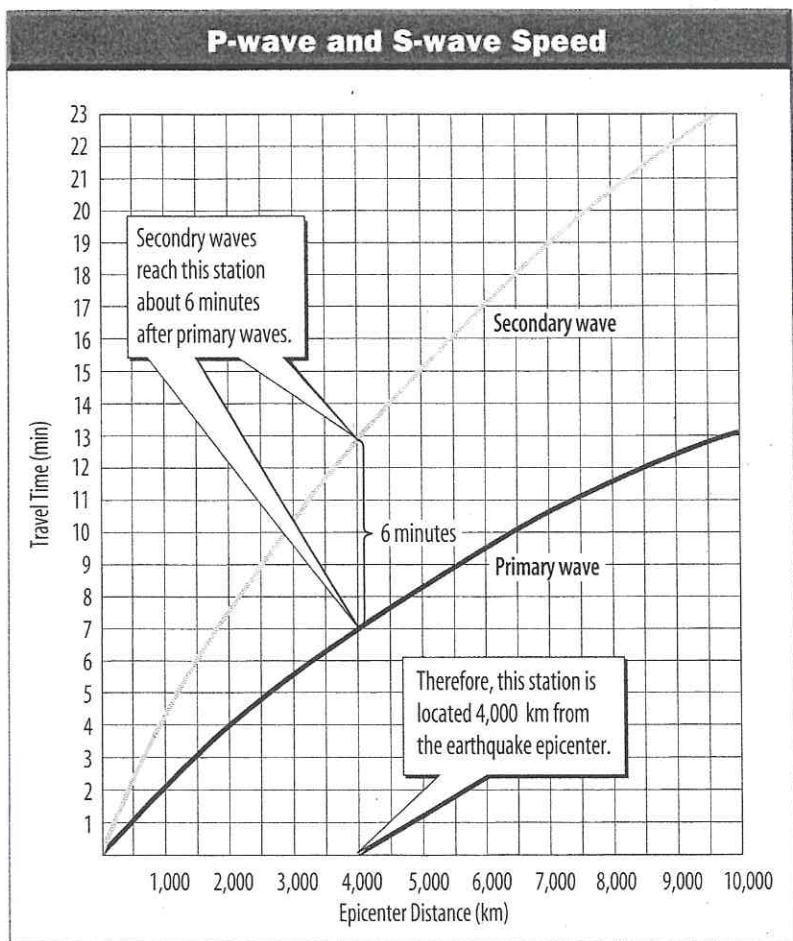


Figure 12 The radius of each circle is equal to the distance from the epicenter to each seismograph station. The intersection of the three circles is the location of the epicenter.

