

Probabilistic Seismic Hazard Analysis of Sitamarhi near Bihar-Nepal Region

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Research Article

Keywords: Seismic hazard analysis, Spectral acceleration, Peak ground acceleration, Uniform hazard spectrum, Gutenberg-Richter recurrence law

Posted Date: May 18th, 2021

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-475275/v1>

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1 **Probabilistic Seismic Hazard Analysis of Sitamarhi near Bihar-Nepal Region**

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28 **Abstract:**

29 This article presents the results of a probabilistic seismic hazard analysis (PSHA) for Sitamarhi, Bihar
30 considering the region-specific maximum magnitude and ground motion prediction equation (GMPEs). North
31 Bihar region is one of the seismically unstable areas in India facing several destructive earthquakes for the
32 Himalayan Mountains that was created by the collision of Indian and Eurasian plate. The Gutenberg-Richter (G-
33 R) seismic hazard parameter 'a' and 'b' have been evaluated by considering the available local earthquake data.
34 Earthquake data were collected from the United States geological survey (USGS), Indian Meteorological
35 Department (IMD), New Delhi, Seismotectonic Atlas of India (GIS 2000) within 500 km radius of the study
36 area, and 62 seismotectonic sources were identified and considered in this study. Seismic source zones for the
37 region have been defined based on large-scale geological features, which are used for assigning the maximum
38 possible earthquake potential. Estimated PGA values are 0.89 g and 0.61 g for the 2% and 10% probabilities of
39 exceedance in 50 years. The results showed that West Patna fault and Sitamarhi Fault are the two main faults,
40 which contribute maximum in the peak ground acceleration (PGA) values for Sitamarhi region.

41 **Keyword:** Seismic hazard analysis, Spectral acceleration, Peak ground acceleration, Uniform hazard spectrum,
42 Gutenberg-Richter recurrence law

43 **List of abbreviations:**

44	a, b	Seismic hazard parameter
45	$a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_m, a_7$	Regression coefficients
46	DSHA	Deterministic seismic hazard analysis
47	F_E, F_p, F_S	Period-dependent function for sources
48	b_1, b_2, b_3, b_4	Coefficient to be determined from regression
49	$f_n(m)$	Probability density function for the minimum magnitude
50	$f_n(r m)$	Conditional probability density function
51	GMPE	Ground motion prediction equation
52	IMD	Indian meteorological department
53	L	Rapture length
54	M, mech, R_{JB}	Predictor variables
55	M_b	Body wave magnitude
56	M_{max}	Maximum earthquake magnitude
57	M_0	Minimum magnitude

58	M_S	Surface wave magnitude
59	M_W	Seismic moment magnitude
60	$M_{W \max}$	Maximum seismic moment magnitude
61	N	Cumulative no of earthquakes per year with equal or larger magnitude
62	$N_n(m_o)$	Earthquake frequency of seismic source
63	NF	Normal fault
64	NGA	Next generation attenuation
65	PDF	Probability density function
66	PGA	Peak ground acceleration
67	PSHA	Probabilistic seismic hazard analysis
68	R	Epicentral distance
69	RF	Reverse fault
70	SA	Spectral acceleration
71	SF	Slip fault
72	SMA	Strong motion accelerograph
73	SSA	Seismic study area
74	SSR	Structural response recorder
75	T	Time period
76	UHS	Uniform hazard spectra
77	USGS	United States geological survey
78	V_{S30}	Average seismic shear-wave velocity from the surface to a depth of 30 meters
79	$v(z)$	Average frequency
80	Y	Peak ground acceleration
81	λ_m	Mean annual rate of exceedance of magnitude m
82	σ	Standard deviation
83	ϵ_n	Fractional number of the standard deviations of a single predicted value of $\ln Y$ away
84		from the mean

85 **1. Introduction**

86 India faces several threats from various natural hazards such as flood, drought, landslide, cyclone, earthquake,
87 tsunami etc. Earthquake is one of the most serious devastating natural hazards which occur beneath the ground

88 surface and release a huge amount of energy. It causes extensive damage like the collapse of the structure,
89 massive loss of life, triggering a fire, landslides or tsunamis. High seismic activity in India (Fig. 1) is clearly
90 evident from the recent major earthquakes, i.e., Nepal earthquake in 2015, ($M_w=7.5$); Sikkim earthquake in 2011
91 ($M_w=6.7$); Kashmir Earthquake in 2005 ($M_w=7.6$); Bhuj earthquake in 2001 ($M_w=7.7$); Latur earthquake in 1993
92 ($M_w=6.2$). The presence of high seismic strain gap in the Himalayan region has been documented by Kumar et
93 al. (2013a), which may cause more devastating earthquakes in the near future. The Himalayan subduction zone
94 is the second most seismically active zone after the San Andreas Fault in the world where the earthquakes are
95 caused due to the thrust faulting, and the earthquake focal depths vary from shallow to about 200 km. Due to the
96 ever-increasing demand for structural growth fuelled by increasing population near Himalayan belt and Indo-
97 Gangetic Basin, the need for seismic hazard analysis; estimation of the peak ground acceleration and the site-
98 specific response spectra have gained importance for designing buildings, infrastructure projects as well as
99 disaster planning and management.

100 Seismic hazard analysis is very important for the safe construction of seismic resistance structure.
101 Based on regional seismological and geological evidence, the seismic hazard analysis can be evaluated using
102 two methods: Deterministic seismic hazard analysis (DSHA) and Probabilistic seismic hazard analysis (PSHA).
103 Burnwal et al. (2017) documented deterministic seismic hazard analysis (DSHA) and presented the peak ground
104 acceleration (PGA) values for the Sitamarhi area near the Bihar-Nepal region. The DSHA considers just one
105 maximum magnitude and distance scenario (Bommer and Abrahamson 2006), but the seismic hazard at a site is
106 influenced by all the seismic sources with different magnitudes and distances. The widely used approach to
107 estimate seismic-design loads for engineering projects is probabilistic seismic-hazard analysis (PSHA). The
108 PSHA consists of four steps (Reiter 1990): i) identification and characterization of earthquake sources
109 contributing to the seismic hazard of a study area, ii) seismicity or temporal distribution of earthquake
110 recurrence must be characterized using suitable recurrence relationship, iii) use of suitable attenuation
111 relationships to predict the distribution of ground motion intensities, and iv) the uncertainty in earthquake
112 location, earthquake size and ground motion parameter prediction are combined to obtain the probability that
113 the ground motion parameter (e.g., PGA) will be exceeded during a particular time period. The primary output
114 from PSHA is the hazard curve showing the variation of selected ground-motion parameters, such as peak
115 ground acceleration (PGA) or spectral acceleration (SA), against the annual frequency of exceedance (or its
116 reciprocal, return period). The design value is the ground-motion level that corresponds to a pre-selected design
117 return period (Bommer and Abrahamson 2006). PSHA can reflect the actual hazard level due to bigger

118 earthquakes along with smaller events, which are also crucial in the hazard estimation, due to their higher
119 occurrence rates (Das et al. 2006). PSHA is able to correctly reflect the actual knowledge of seismicity (Orozova
120 and Suhadolc 1999) and calculates the rate at which different levels of ground motion are exceeded at the site by
121 considering the effects of all possible combinations of magnitude-distance scenarios. In the probabilistic
122 approach, effects of all the earthquakes expected to occur at various locations during a specified life period are
123 considered along with associated uncertainties and randomness of earthquake occurrences and attenuation of
124 seismic waves with distance. Also, PSHA produces uniform hazard spectrum (UHS), which is a convenient tool
125 to compare the hazard representations of different sites (Trifunac 1990; Todorovska et al. 1995; Peruzza et al.
126 2000; and Du and Pan 2020).

127 Joshi and Mohan (2011) developed the seismic hazard maps for the north-east Himalaya using the
128 methodology suggested by Joshi and Patel (1997). Anbazhagan et al. (2015) estimated seismic hazard of Patna
129 in Bihar considering the region-specific seismotectonic parameters, maximum moment magnitude and ground
130 motion prediction equation. Kumar et al. (2013a, b) documented seismic hazard studies in terms of peak ground
131 acceleration for the Dehradun and Lucknow cities which are situated in the Himalayan foothills. National
132 Disaster Management Authority (NDMA 2010) developed the probabilistic seismic hazard map for various parts
133 of India. Most of the earlier published seismic hazard maps were developed for PGA values based on old
134 attenuation relationships. No such studies are currently available for the Sitamarhi region. In this paper, seismic
135 hazard analysis of Sitamarhi region has been attempted by PSHA using three different attenuations
136 relationships, i.e., Jain et al. (2000), Boore et al. (2014) and Bajaj and Anbazhagan (2019). The Gutenberg-
137 Richter recurrence law (Gutenberg and Richter 1956) parameters 'a' and 'b' have been estimated using the
138 seismic data recorded within 500Km radius of Sitamarhi. The major aim of this paper is to document a
139 comprehensive PSHA for the Sitamarhi region. This PSHA study incorporates not only PGA but also 5%-
140 damped spectral accelerations (SA) at six periods (0.2, 0.5, 1, 2, 3, and 5s), so that the uniform hazard spectrum
141 for Sitamarhi can be generated. Based on the PSHA, the bedrock PGA values at Sitamarhi with 2% and 10%
142 exceedance probability in 50 years are 0.89 g and 0.61 g, respectively.

143 **2. Geology and Seismotectonics of the Study Area**

144 Bihar is one of the seismically active regions in India due to the proximity of the region with seismically active
145 Himalayan region. India has been divided into four seismic zones (i.e., Zones II, III, IV and V) and these zones
146 face higher risk of seismic activities with increasing zone numbers (IS 1893-2016). As per IS 1893-2016, part 1,
147 15.2% area of Bihar state is in zone V, 63.7% area is in zone IV, and 21.1% area is in zone III (Fig. 1b),

148 respectively. The area considered in this study has a 500 km radius with the centre at Sitamarhi (latitudes
149 26.6°N longitudes 85.48°E). As per geographical perspective, Eurasian and Indian tectonic plates colliding in
150 the north side of the Sitamarhi which create high seismic activity in the region. This collision formed the
151 Tibetan plateau and the Himalayan mountain range. As the India plate is drifting towards north-east at 5 cm/year
152 (2 inches/year) and the Eurasian plate moves to the northward direction at a rate of 2 cm/year (0.8 inches/year),
153 Therefore, India is considered as the one of the fastest drifting continents in the world (Kolathayar et al. 2012).
154 This causes deformation in both plates and Indian plate undergoing compression at a rate of 4 cm/year (1.6
155 inches/year). To perform the seismic hazard analysis, seismic features like faults, shear zones and lineaments
156 along with earthquakes ($M_w > 4.0$) are the most important parameters. North Bihar region lies near the
157 seismically active Himalayan belt and on the deep deposits of the Indo-Gangetic basin. It is also surrounded by
158 various active faults (Dasgupta et al. 1987) like Main frontal thrust (MFT), East Patna fault (EPF), West Patna
159 fault (WPF), Sitamarhi fault (SIF), Munger Saharsa Ridge fault (MSRF) etc. as shown in Fig. 2 and Table 1.
160 The East Patna fault (EPF) is most active among all these faults (Anbazghan et al. 2015). The interaction
161 between East Patna Fault (EPF) and Himalayan Frontal Thrust (HFT) has led to a number of earthquakes in the
162 past (Bhangar 1991).

163 The Sitamarhi has suffered numerous natural disasters including earthquakes. The frequency of seismic
164 events related to the above-mentioned faults is considerably high. Historic earthquakes such as Bihar-Nepal
165 earthquakes in 1934 and 1988; Nepal earthquake in 2015 and also many other earthquakes have caused
166 significant economic losses as well as the loss of lives in the Sitamarhi region. In Bihar-Nepal earthquake of
167 1934 and 1988, large fissures were formed, with many places suffered tilting and sinking of building
168 foundations. The region was destroyed by the 1934 Bihar-Nepal earthquake due to extensive liquefaction. The
169 whole of Sitamarhi district was nearly destroyed; not a single building was left unscathed. Large fissure of 73.2
170 m long, 7.5 m wide and 1m deep filled with sand had formed at Sitamarhi (Richter 1957). The most of the part
171 of Sitamarhi district lies in seismic zone 5 with a zone factor of 0.36 (IS 1893:2016). The sites have soft
172 sediment and high groundwater level, which creates an increased risk of liquefaction. Therefore, the ground
173 motion parameters need to be estimated considering local geology, lithological and hydrological consideration
174 (Verma et al. 2014).

175 **3. Earthquake Catalogue and Processing of Earthquake Data**

176 Previous earthquakes may provide some important information about the seismicity of the study area. For
177 collecting the earthquake source data, Sitamarhi (26.59° N, 85.50° E) has been considered as the center of the

178 study area with a radius of 500 km. A total of 62 linear seismotectonic sources and source to site distances (as
 179 shown in Table 2) have been identified from the Seismotectonic Atlas of India (GIS 2000). The closest distance
 180 (r_{\min}) and longest distance (r_{\max}) of different seismotectonic faults have been measure using ArcGIS (ArcMap)
 181 software (Burnwal et al. 2017; Burman et al. 2020). Several earthquake records are compiled from various
 182 literatures and websites such as the United States geological survey (USGS), National center of seismology,
 183 Strong motion virtual data center, Indian Meteorological Department (IMD) and Geological Survey of India.
 184 The seismic events used in this study occurred between 1900 and November 2020 with a moment magnitude
 185 (M_w) varying between 4 and 8.3. A total of 1098 main shock events have been collected, which consists of the
 186 date, time, latitude and longitude of the epicentre, focal depth and magnitude of earthquakes. These collected
 187 data were reported in different earthquake magnitude scale (i.e., moment magnitude (M_w), surface-wave
 188 magnitude (M_s), and body wave magnitude (M_b)). In order to maintain consistency, it is essential to convert all
 189 the different magnitudes to a single magnitude (e.g., moment magnitude (M_w)). The numerous researchers
 190 developed different empirical relationship for the conversion of magnitudes (Stromeyer et al. 2004; Castellaro et
 191 al. 2006; Bormann et al. 2007; Thingbaijam et al. 2008; Scordilis 2006; Storchak et al. 2013). Storchak et al.
 192 (2013) proposed magnitude conversion relationships has been used to convert M_s and M_b to M_w as mentioned
 193 below:

$$194 \quad M_w = \begin{cases} 0.67M_s + 2.13 & M_s \leq 6.47 \\ 1.10M_s - 0.67 & M_s > 6.74 \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

$$195 \quad M_w = 1.38M_b - 1.79 \quad (2)$$

196 After converting all earthquake records in M_w , earthquake catalogue has been rearranged based on the moment
 197 magnitude as shown in Table 3.

198 **4. Seismic Hazard Analysis**

199 Probabilistic seismic hazard analysis (PSHA) is the most commonly used approach to evaluate the seismic
 200 hazard parameters for any engineering project. PSHA is not only calculating for the worst-case ground motion
 201 intensity; it also considers all possible earthquake events and resulting ground motions. Cornell (1968) proposed
 202 the probabilistic seismic hazard method to account for various uncertainties. Algermissen et al. (1982) modified
 203 PSHA method to consider the probability of occurrence of a particular magnitude, and probability of
 204 hypocentral distance and ground motion exceeding a specific value. The major outcome from the PSHA is the
 205 hazard curve which shows ground motion parameters such as PGA or spectral acceleration (SA) as a function of
 206 the mean annual rate of exceedance. Hazard curves for all sources are obtained by considering various

207 combinations of magnitudes, hypocentral distances and the level of ground shaking. The overall hazard curve
 208 has been obtained after combining all individual hazard curves. PSHA offers a framework for identifying,
 209 quantifying and rationally combining these uncertainties to provide a more comprehensive picture of the seismic
 210 hazard. The procedures followed in this present study are briefly described in the following sub-sections:

211 **4.1 Identification and Characterization of All Earthquake Sources**

212 The first steps of this study involve the identification and characterization of all earthquake sources (fault,
 213 rupture, lineaments etc.) available in the study area. A total of 62 seismic sources have been identified within the
 214 500 km radial distance of Sitamarhi. All considered sources have experienced an earthquake magnitude of 4 or
 215 greater than 4 in the past. After identification, all sources have been characterized for the distribution of
 216 earthquake magnitudes. All sources have a maximum potential magnitude (M_{max}) of the earthquake that cannot
 217 be exceeded. One third of the overall length of fault is generally taken as surface rupture length (L) of the fault
 218 which producing the maximum earthquake (Mark 1977). The M_{max} has been determined (as tabulated in Table
 219 2) for each earthquake sources using the following relationships between M_{max} and L (Wells and Coppersmith
 220 1994):

$$221 \quad M_{w_{max}} = 5.16 + 1.62 \log_{10} L \quad \text{for strike slip fault} \quad (3)$$

$$222 \quad M_{w_{max}} = 5.00 + 1.22 \log_{10} L \quad \text{for reverse fault} \quad (4)$$

$$223 \quad M_{w_{max}} = 4.86 + 1.32 \log_{10} L \quad \text{for normal fault} \quad (5)$$

$$224 \quad M_{w_{max}} = 5.08 + 1.16 \log_{10} L \quad \text{for all types of fault} \quad (6)$$

225 **4.2 Seismicity Parameter ‘a’ and ‘b’**

226 A recurrence relationship describes the average rate at which an earthquake of certain magnitude will be
 227 exceeded. A simple and most widely used relation for determining the seismicity of a source zone is Gutenberg-
 228 Richter recurrence law. It is assumed as exponential distribution of magnitude and is generally expressed as:

$$229 \quad \log N(M) = a - bM \quad (7)$$

230 Here, $N(M)$ is the number of earthquakes greater than or equal to M , the parameter ‘a’ describes the
 231 seismic activity, and ‘b’ describes a relative abundance of large to smaller shock whose value is close to 1
 232 (Anbazhagan et al. 2009). A lower value of ‘b’ denoted the occurrence of larger percentage of higher magnitude
 233 earthquakes, and higher ‘b’ value means larger percentage of lower magnitude earthquake occurrence out of the
 234 total number of earthquakes. Another seismic parameter ‘a’ value represented general earthquake activity in the
 235 study area during the study period. The value of ‘a’ describes the no of earthquakes per year. These seismicity

236 parameters of a and b values are region specific. The range of 'b' value is $0.6 < b < 1.5$ for various parts in India
 237 (NDMA 2010). The earthquakes of magnitude 4.0 or greater than 4.0 have been considered in the calculation of
 238 seismicity for the Sitamarhi region. The histogram in Fig. 3 shows the summary of earthquake events in the last
 239 twelve decades which has been used in the present study. From this data, seismicity parameter of a and b values
 240 are calculated from Magnitude vs. logarithmic function of a cumulative number of events per year (Fig. 4). A
 241 comparison of estimated a and b values of the present study with the nearby areas are shown in Table 4. The G-
 242 R relationship for the Sitamarhi region is expressed as:

$$243 \log N(M) = 4.36 - 0.85M \quad (8)$$

244 **4.3 Source-to-site distance and magnitude probability distribution**

245 The spatial uncertainty in source-to-site distance can be described by the probability density function (PDF).
 246 Source to site distance has been characterized by comparatively coarse histogram to restrict the number of
 247 computations engaged in the accessible instance. The difference between shortest and longest possible distance
 248 has been divided into ten divisions. The approximation to the source-to-site probability distribution for west
 249 Patna fault (WPF-SS-1) and Sitamarhi fault's (SIF) first segment are 0.3053 and 0.354, respectively. By
 250 dividing each source zone into a large (1000 in this study) number of segments of equal length, the distribution
 251 of source-to-site distance has been characterized. The normalized histogram of source-to-site distance for WPF-
 252 SS-1 and SIF are shown in Figs. 5a and b.

253 The bounded or doubly truncated Gutenberg-Richter recurrence law, between the magnitude M_0 and
 254 M_{\max} , is used to compute the probability density function (PDF) of M . The minimum magnitude M_0 is
 255 considered as 4 in this study and M_{\max} are different for different faults as mentioned above in sub-section 5.1.
 256 For each source zone, the bounded probability distribution of magnitude with a lower bound M_0 , and an upper
 257 bound M_{\max} can be expressed in terms of cumulative distribution function (CDF) as:

$$258 P[M < m | m_0 < m < m_{\max}] = \int_{M=m_0}^{M=m_{\max}} f_M(m) dm \approx f_M \left(\frac{m_0 + m_{\max}}{2} \right) (m_{\max} - m_0) \quad (9)$$

$$259 \text{ where the PDF, } f_M(m) = \frac{\beta \exp[-\beta(m - m_0)]}{1 - \exp[-\beta(m - m_0)]} \quad (10)$$

260 The normalized histogram of approximation to the magnitude probability distribution for the WPF-SS-1 and SIF
 261 in the study area are shown in Figs. 6a and b.

262 **4.4 Ground motion prediction equation (GMPE):**

263 Region-specific ground motion prediction equation (GMPE) played a crucial role in the macro-zonation and
 264 micro-zonation of any location. The GMPEs are usually obtained empirically by least square regression for a
 265 particular site using the site-specific strong motion data. However, some amount of randomness in the data is
 266 inevitable due to uncertainty in the mechanics of rupture, variability of sources, travel path and site conditions.
 267 However, very limited region-specific GMPEs are available for various parts of the India and the world for
 268 using it in seismic hazard assessment (NDMA 2010). At the same time, various researches working with Next
 269 Generation Attenuation (NGA) models for better prediction of ground shaking and designing the earthquake-
 270 resistant structure (Atkinson and Boore 2006; Campbell and Bozorgnia 2008; Wooddell and Abrahamson 2012;
 271 Boore et al. 2014). The proper selection of GMPE is one of the crucial steps in a seismic hazard analysis. For
 272 the present work, three GMPEs (Jain et al. 2000; Boore et al. 2014; Bajaj and Anbazhagan 2019) have been
 273 selected. Jain et al. (2000) proposed the attenuation relationship for the central Himalayan region based on
 274 strong motion accelerographs (SMA) and structural response recorder (SSR) to calculate PGA. The functional
 275 form of this GMPE is as follows:

$$276 \ln(PGA) = b_1 + b_2M + b_3R + b_4 \ln(R) \quad (11)$$

277 where, PGA is the peak ground acceleration in g, for central Himalayan earthquakes co-efficient $b_1 = -4.135$, $b_2 =$
 278 0.647 , $b_3 = -0.00142$, $b_4 = -0.753$ and standard deviation (σ) = 0.59. There are several GMPEs developed for
 279 similar tectonic conditions which can be also used for Himalayan region (Anbazhagan et al. 2015). One such
 280 GMPE is the one proposed by Boore et al. (2014). The functional form of the GMPE proposed by Boore et al.
 281 (2014) is as follows:

$$282 \ln Y = F_E(M, mech) + F_P(R_{JB}, M) + F_S(V_{S30}, R_{JB}, M) + \epsilon_n \sigma(M, R_{JB}, V_{S30}) \quad (12)$$

283 Here, $\ln Y$ is the natural logarithm of a vertical ground motion intensity measure (e.g., PGA, SA in g); F_E , F_P and
 284 F_S represent period-dependent functions for the source (E for event), path (P) and site (S) effects, respectively;
 285 ϵ_n is the fractional number of the standard deviations of a single predicted value of $\ln Y$ away from the mean;
 286 and σ is the total standard deviation of the model. The M , $mech$, R_{JB} and V_{S30} are the predictor variables. And
 287 the parameter $mech = 0, 1, 2$ and 3 for unspecified, SF, NF and RF, respectively. Bajaj and Anbazhagan (2018)
 288 reported the suitability of various functional forms for the distance and magnitude scaling using the mixed-effect
 289 regression of residual calculated from the functional form given by NGA-West 2 project. Based on that, Bajaj
 290 and Anbazhagan (2019) proposed the GMPE for the Himalayan region as:

$$291 \ln(Y) = a_1 + a_2(M - 6) + a_3(9 - M)^2 + a_4 \ln R + a_m \ln R(M - 6) + a_7 R + \sigma \quad (13)$$

292 where $\ln Y, M, R$ and σ are the logarithm of ground motion, magnitude, hypocentral distance and standard
 293 deviation; $a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_m, a_7$ are the corresponding regressions co-efficient. The coefficient a_m is equal to a_5
 294 when $M_w < 6.0$ and $R < 300$, else equal to a_6 . The comparison between the above three GMPEs has been shown
 295 for a moment magnitude of 6.5 in Fig.7. The PGA values according to Bajaj and Anbazhagan (2019) are the
 296 maximum compared to other two GMPEs. The PGA values calculated according to Boore et al. (2014) are in
 297 the middle of that calculated from Jain et al. (2000) and Bajaj and Anbazhagan (2019) GMPE.

298 4.5 Temporal uncertainty

299 Usually, the sources will produce earthquake of different sizes up to the maximum earthquake, with smaller
 300 earthquakes occurring more frequently than larger ones. The temporal uncertainty or the occurrence of
 301 earthquakes in a seismic source is described by the Poisson's model. The probability distribution is defined in
 302 terms of the annual rate of exceeding the ground motion level z at the site under consideration ($v(z)$), due to all
 303 possible pairs of the magnitude (M) and epicentral distance (R) of the earthquake event expected around the site,
 304 considering its random nature (Anbazhagan et al. 2009). The probability of ground motion parameter at a given
 305 site, Z , will exceed a specified level, z , during a specified time, T is expressed as follows:

$$306 \quad P(Z > z) = 1 - e^{-v(z)T} \leq v(z)T \quad (14)$$

307 where, $v(z)$ is (mean annual rate of exceedance) the average frequency during the time period T at which the
 308 level of ground motion parameters, Z , exceed level z at a given site. The function $v(z)$ incorporates the
 309 uncertainty in time, size and location of future earthquakes and uncertainty in the level of ground motion they
 310 produce at the site. The functional form of $v(z)$ is as follows:

$$311 \quad v(z) = \sum_{n=1}^N \left(N_n(m_o) \int_{m=m_o}^{m_u} f_n(m) \left[\int_{r=0}^{\infty} f_n(r|m) P(Z > z|m, r) dr \right] dm \right) \quad (15)$$

312 where, $N_n(m_o)$ is the earthquake frequency of seismic source n above a minimum magnitude m_o ; $f_n(m)$ is the
 313 probability density function for the minimum magnitude m_o and maximum magnitude m_u ; $f_n(r|m)$ is the
 314 conditional probability density function for the distance to earthquake rupture; and $P(Z > z|m, r)$ is the
 315 probability that given a magnitude 'm' earthquake at a distance 'r' from the site, the ground motion exceeds
 316 level z .

317 5. Result and discussion

318 The hazard curve expresses the frequency of exceedance of various levels of ground motions as a function of
 319 ground motion parameter. The calculation of all the probabilities in terms of hazard curve defines the annual
 320 rate of exceedance versus corresponding ground motion. Hazard curves has been plotted for all the sources and

321 also the total hazard curve has been calculated based on all three GMPEs. The hazard curves plotted using the
322 GMPE suggested by Boore et al. (2014) for all sources are shown in Fig. 8. It has been seen from the Fig. 8 that
323 WPF-SS-1 is the most hazardous fault located at a hypocentral distance of 21.11 km, with a fault length of 63.04
324 km, and a maximum magnitude ($M_{W \max}$) of 6.6. Similarly, SIF and WPF-SS-2 are also significantly hazardous
325 faults for the Sitamarhi region. The total hazard curve for the study area has been generated by the summation of
326 all the hazard curves obtained from all the sources. The three total hazard curves plotted using three different
327 GMPEs are shown in Fig. 9. At PGA value 0.1 g the mean annual rate of exceedance is obtained as 0.34 using
328 Jain et al. (2000), 0.95 using Boore et al. (2014), and 0.92 using Bajaj and Anbazhagan (2019) GMPEs,
329 respectively. Corresponding return periods (reciprocal of the mean annual rate of exceedance) are 2.94 years,
330 1.05 years and 1.09 years accordingly. In Fig. 9, the value obtained using Boore et al. (2014) suggested GMPE
331 are in between the values obtained using other two GMPEs. Therefore, total hazard curves at different periods
332 for spectral acceleration (S_a) values have been calculated using Boore et al. (2014) GMPE. It can be inferred
333 from the Fig. 9 using Boore et al. (2014) GMPE that, the mean annual rate of exceedance for 0.36 g at zero
334 second period (PGA) is 0.029, which will give the return period 34.48 years. This indicates that PGA of 0.61 g
335 has a 10 % probability of exceedance in 50 years at the Sitamarhi region. The cumulative hazard curves
336 obtained for the Sitamarhi region for 5 % damped peak spectral acceleration at 0.2 s, 0.5 s, 1 s, 2 s, 3 s and 5 s
337 period are shown in Fig. 10. Similar comparison as mentioned above indicates that the 5 % damped spectral
338 acceleration of 0.36 g has a mean annual rate of exceedance of 0.259 for 0.2 s period, 0.033 for 0.5 s, 0.003 for 1
339 s, 0.00004 for 2 s periods, respectively. From these results it can be inferred that as the period of interest
340 changes, the corresponding return period also has been changed drastically. Initially, the return period decreases
341 from 1 year (for PGA) to 4 years for 0.2 s and again increase to 30.3 years for 0.5 s, 294.11 years for 1 s and
342 25839.79 years for 2 s, respectively.

343 Another major end-product of a PSHA is the uniform hazard spectra (UHS). The UHS are a spectral curve
344 which shows the variation of spectral acceleration (SA) at different period for a same probability of exceedance.
345 In the present study, UHS for Sitamarhi for 2 % and 10 % probabilities of exceedance in the 50 years have been
346 shown in Fig. 11. The spectral acceleration at zero second period is called zero spectral acceleration (SA) or
347 PGA for Sitamarhi. The PGA values of Sitamarhi region considering 2 % and 10 % probabilities of exceedance
348 in the 50 years are 0.89 g and 0.61 g. Previously, Burnwal et al. (2016) documented the maximum PGA value
349 for Sitamarhi region in their DSHA research as 0.262 g. A total of 62 faults has been identified and
350 characterized in the region and their cumulative effects have been considered in this study. Two new GMPEs

351 applicable for Himalayan region have also been used in this study. The calculated PGA value from the present
352 study is comparable and slightly higher than other published values, which may be attributed due to the
353 consideration of updated seismicity and GMPEs in this study.

354 **6. Conclusion**

355 The article presents a seismic hazard analysis and site-specific design spectrum development for the Sitamarhi
356 region, considering probabilistic approaches along with region-specific data. Based on the study, the following
357 observation have been drawn from this study:

- 358 ➤ The seismic parameter has been evaluated using the seismic data collected over a radius of 500 km, and
359 62 seismotectonic linear sources have been identified and characterised. The maximum earthquake
360 magnitude was estimated by Wells and Coppersmith (1994) equation for all faults and the overall
361 maximum magnitude has been found as 8 for MCT.
- 362 ➤ The seismicity parameter of a and b were estimated from the Gutenberg-Richter (G-R) relationship
363 considering historic moment magnitude data as 4.36 and 0.85, respectively. These values are in
364 agreement with the earlier reported results from the nearby regions.
- 365 ➤ Hazard curves are generated using three regions specific GMPEs (Boore et al. 2014; Jain et al. 2000;
366 and Bajaj and Anbazhagan 2019). A mean total hazard curve (black curve with star marker in Fig. 9)
367 has been presented considering equal weightage assigned to all three GMPEs used in the study.
368 Different period hazard curves (Fig. 10) also developed for the period of 0.2 s, 0.5 s, 1 s, 2 s, 3 s and 5 s
369 using the GMPE proposed by Boore et al. (2014).
- 370 ➤ Uniform hazard spectrum (Fig. 11) for the 2 % and 10 % probability of exceedance in 50 years has
371 been presented for the region which is situated at zone V as per the Indian seismic zonation map.
- 372 ➤ The present result is more region-specific and advanced than the previous studies and can be used
373 further for microzonation work of Sitamarhi district. The seismic hazard values given in this paper are
374 based on a V_{s30} value of 1500 m/s. These presented curves in this study may alter when site-specific
375 soil properties will be considered.

376

377 **Declaration**

378 **Acknowledgements**

379 The author(s) would like to greatly acknowledge to IIT Patna and Department of Higher Education (Govt. of
380 India) for providing the funding for present work to carry out the doctoral research of first author for which no
381 specific grant number has been allotted.

382 **Conflict of interest**

383 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that can
384 have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

385

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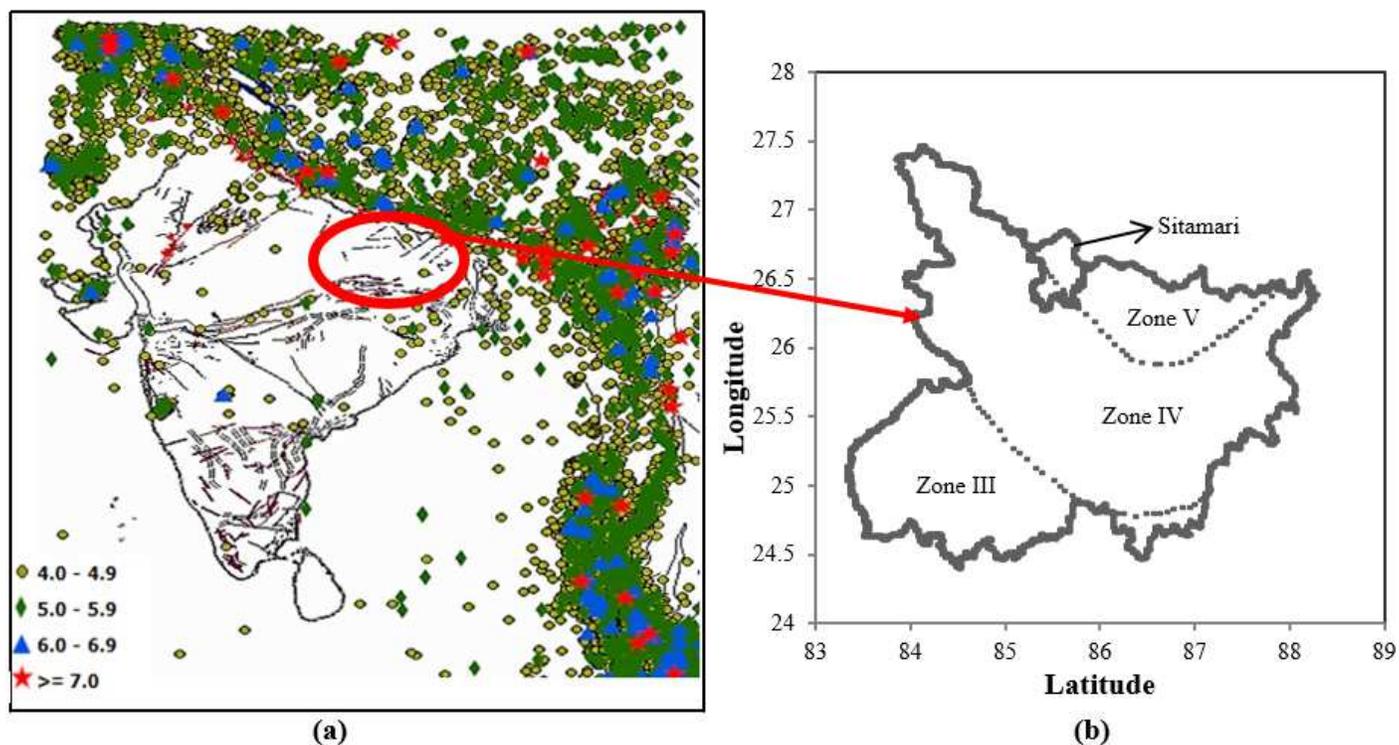


Figure 1

Earthquake event distribution map with study area (a) Plot of Earthquakes distribution ($M \geq 4.0$) from IMD catalogue from 1800 to 2015 (GSI). (b) Seismic zonation map of Bihar Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.

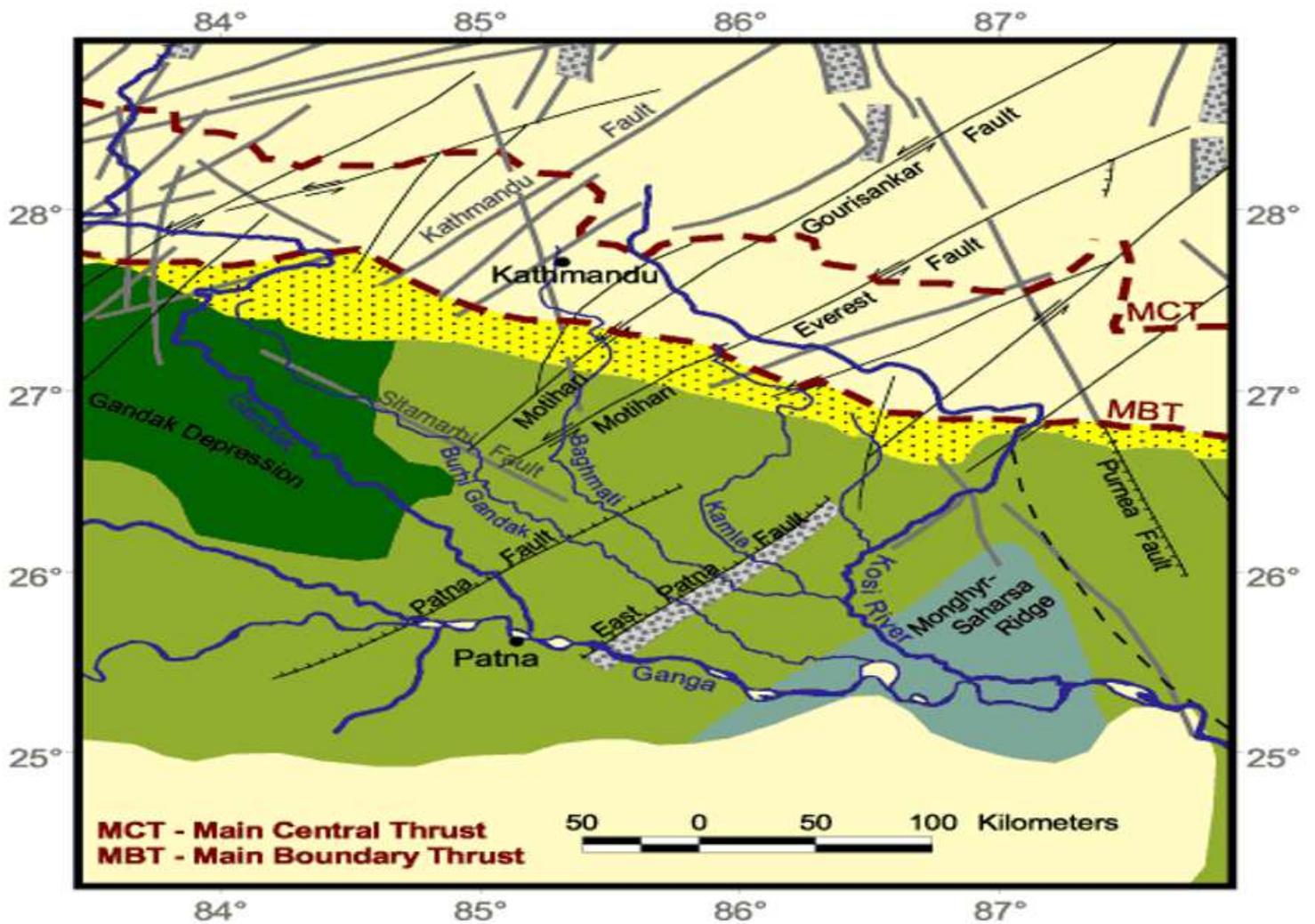


Figure 2

Seismic source map of the study area Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.

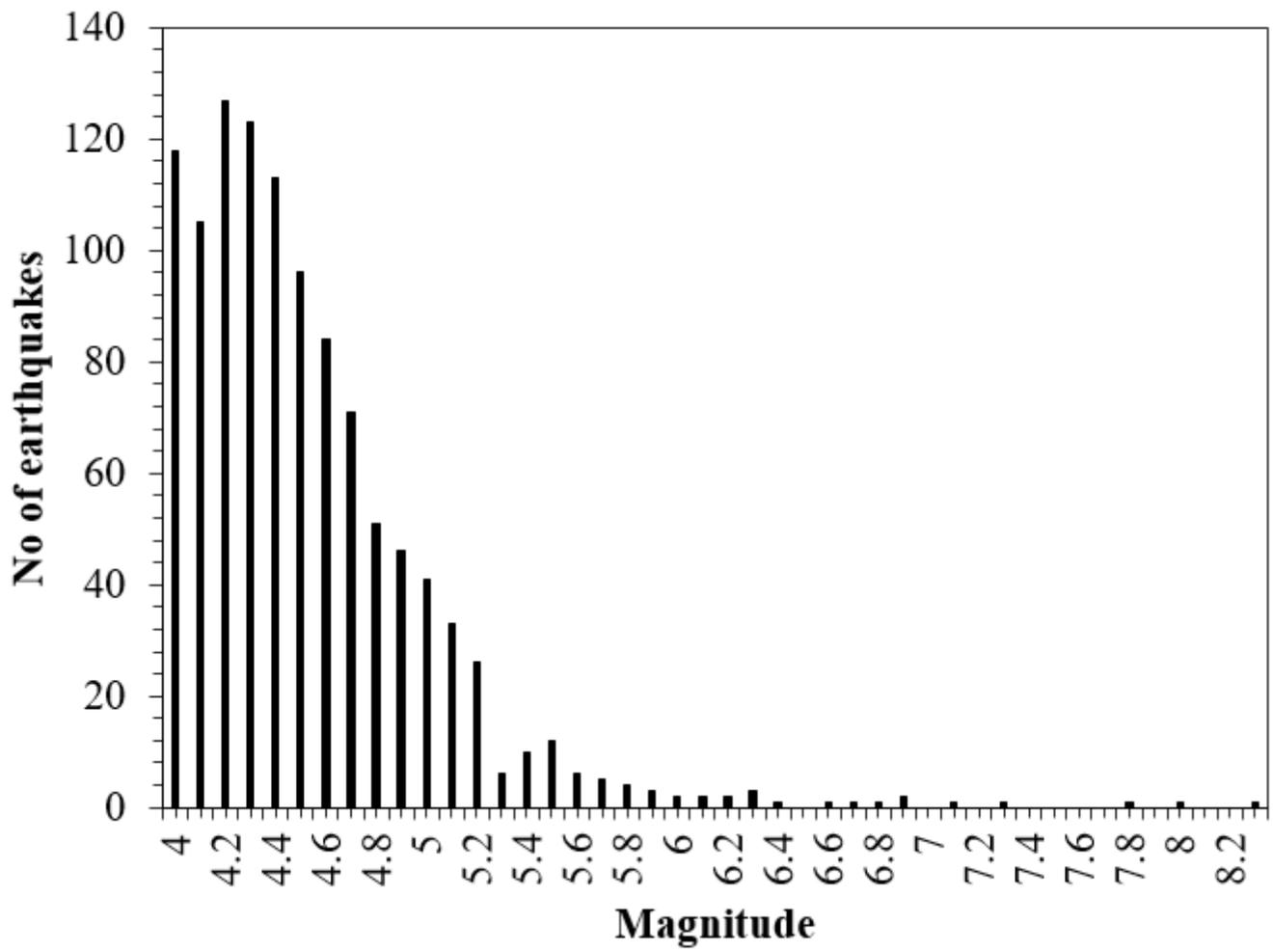


Figure 3

Chart showing the no. of earthquakes vs magnitude (4.0 and above) of earthquakes, from 1900 to 2020.

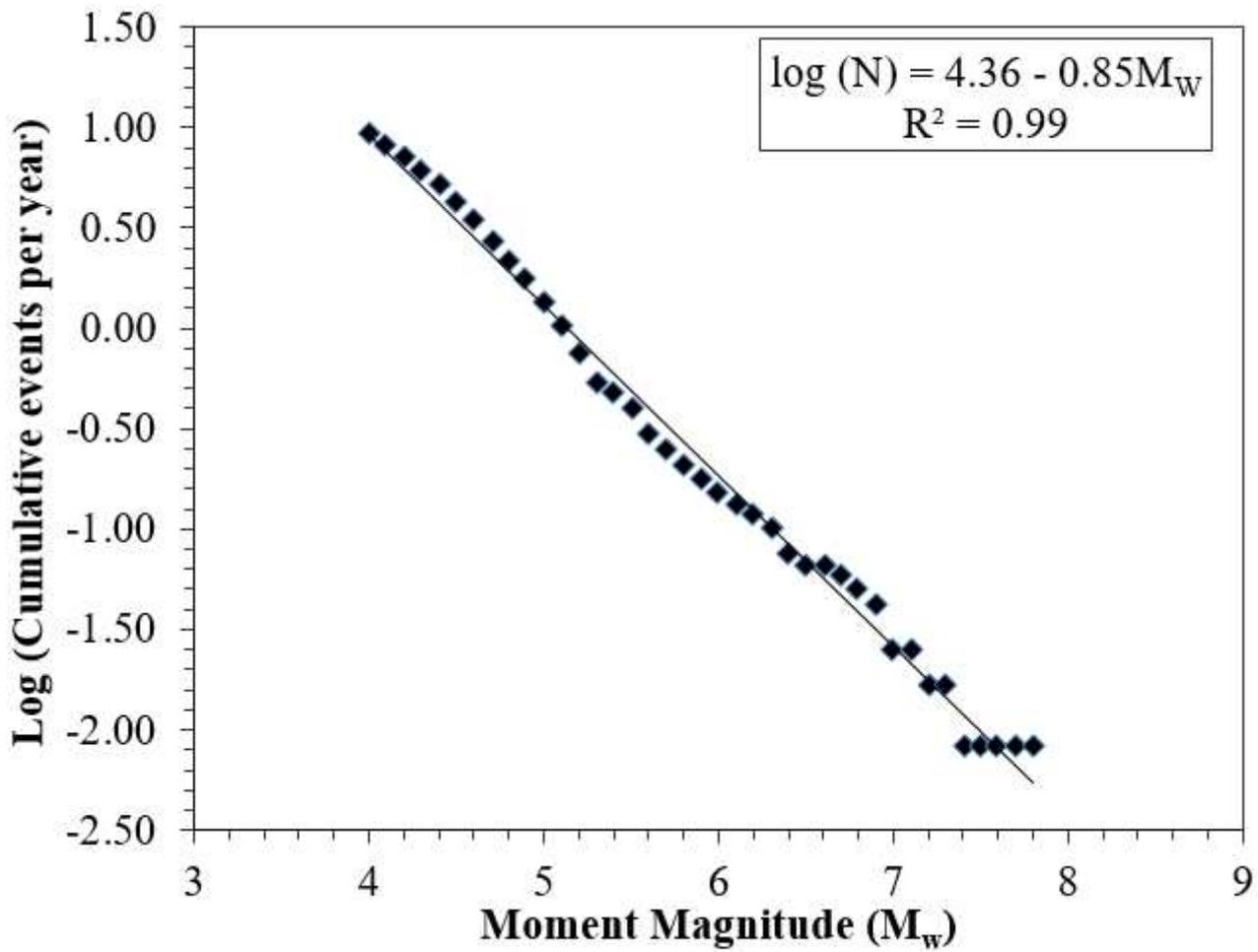


Figure 4

Gutenberg–Richter relation for the study region based on cumulative number of earthquakes per year

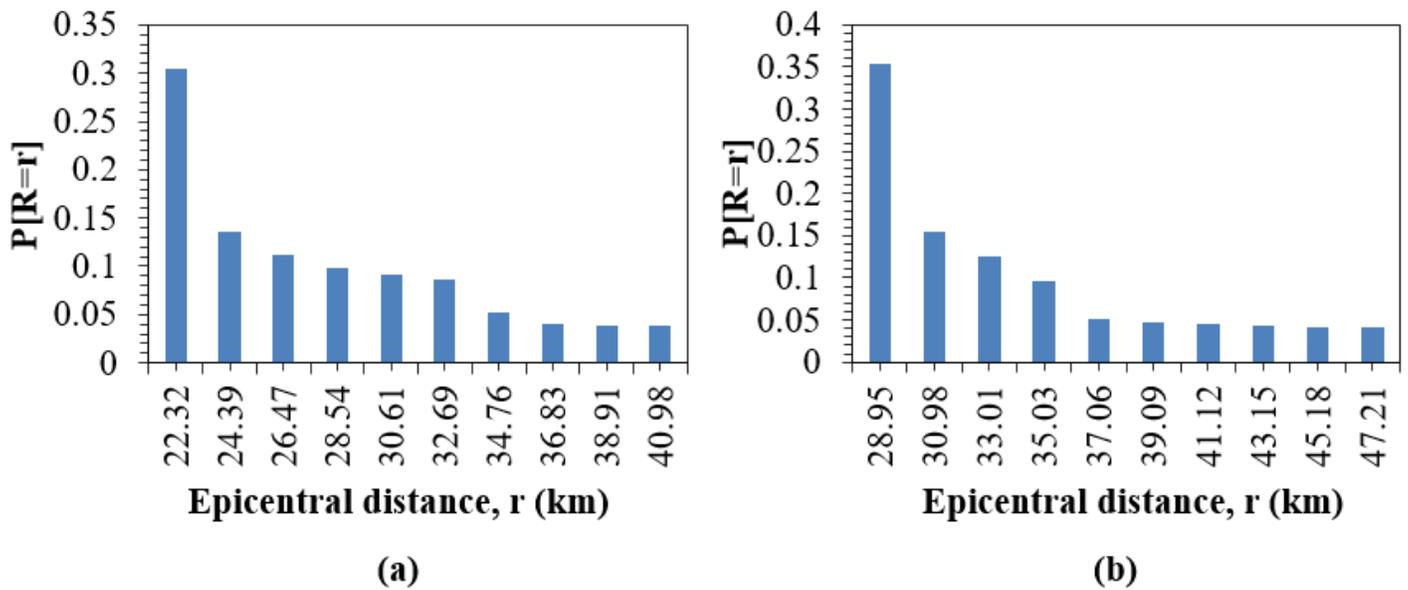


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Approximations of source-to-site distance for (a) West Patna Fault and (b) Sitamarhi Fault

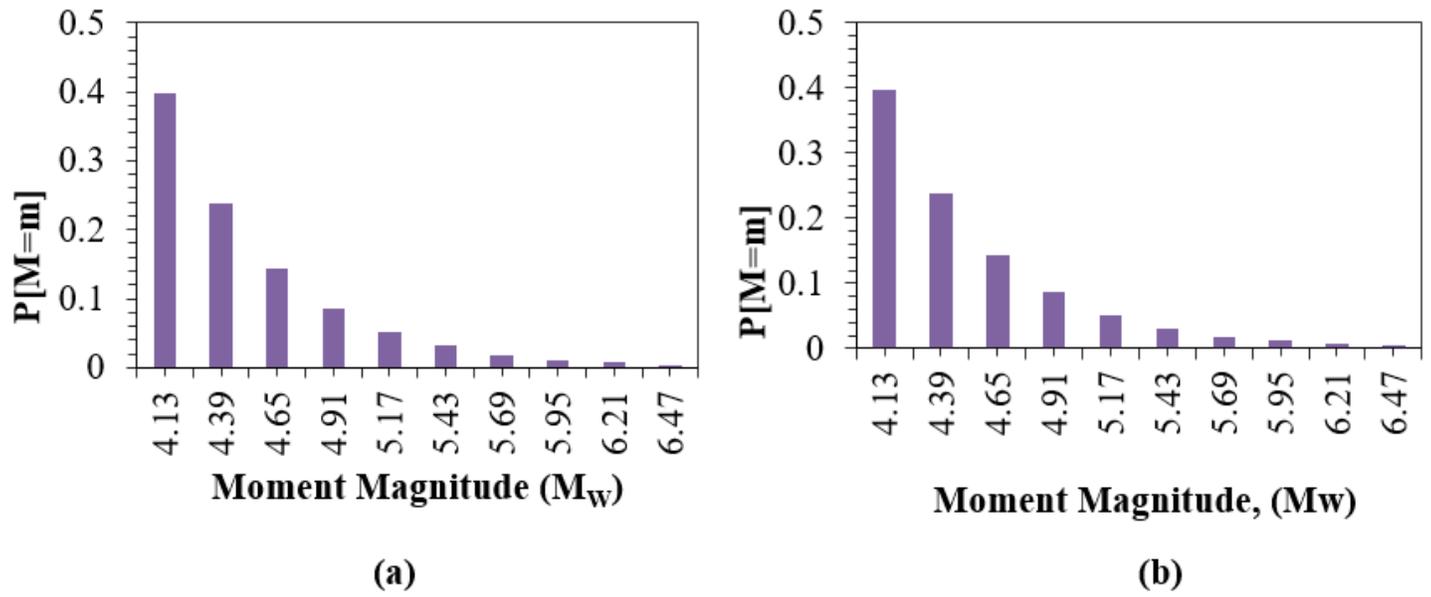


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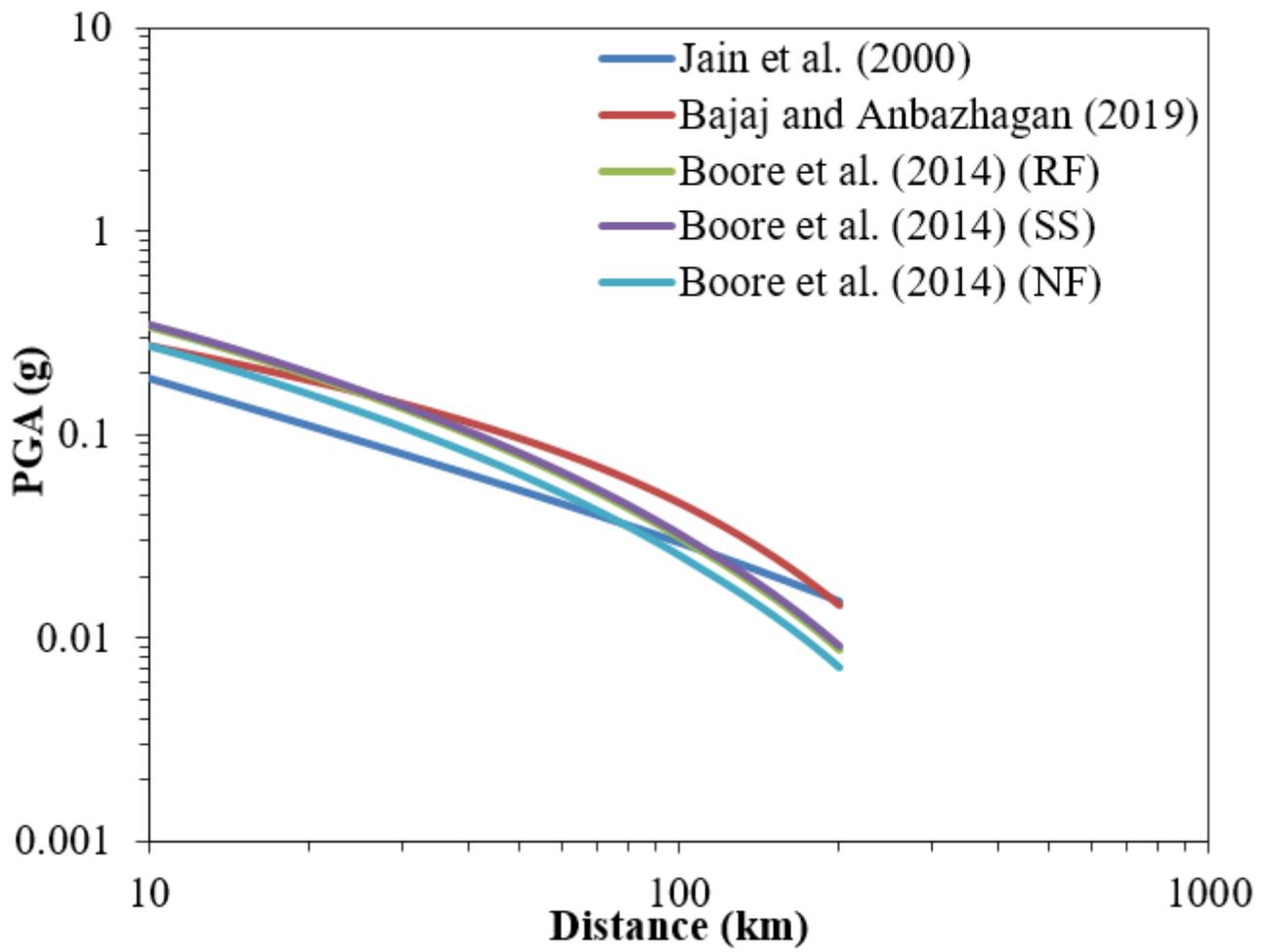


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Comparison of PGA (g) with distance (km) at moment magnitude (MW) of 6.5 and $V_{s30} = 1500\text{m/s}$ (wherever applicable)

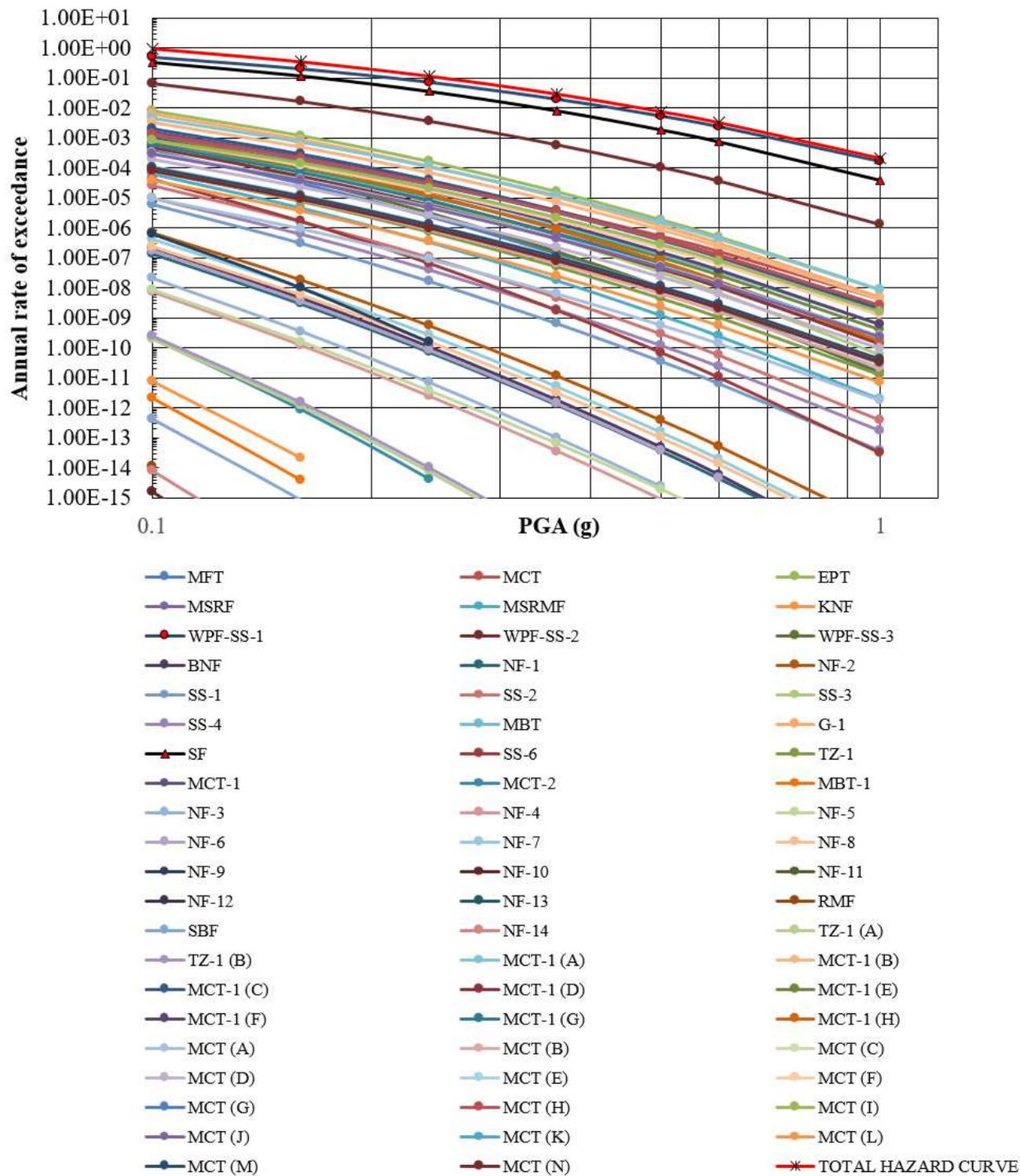


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Seismic hazard curves developed based on Boore et al. 2014 for different sources and total seismic hazard curve for all sources

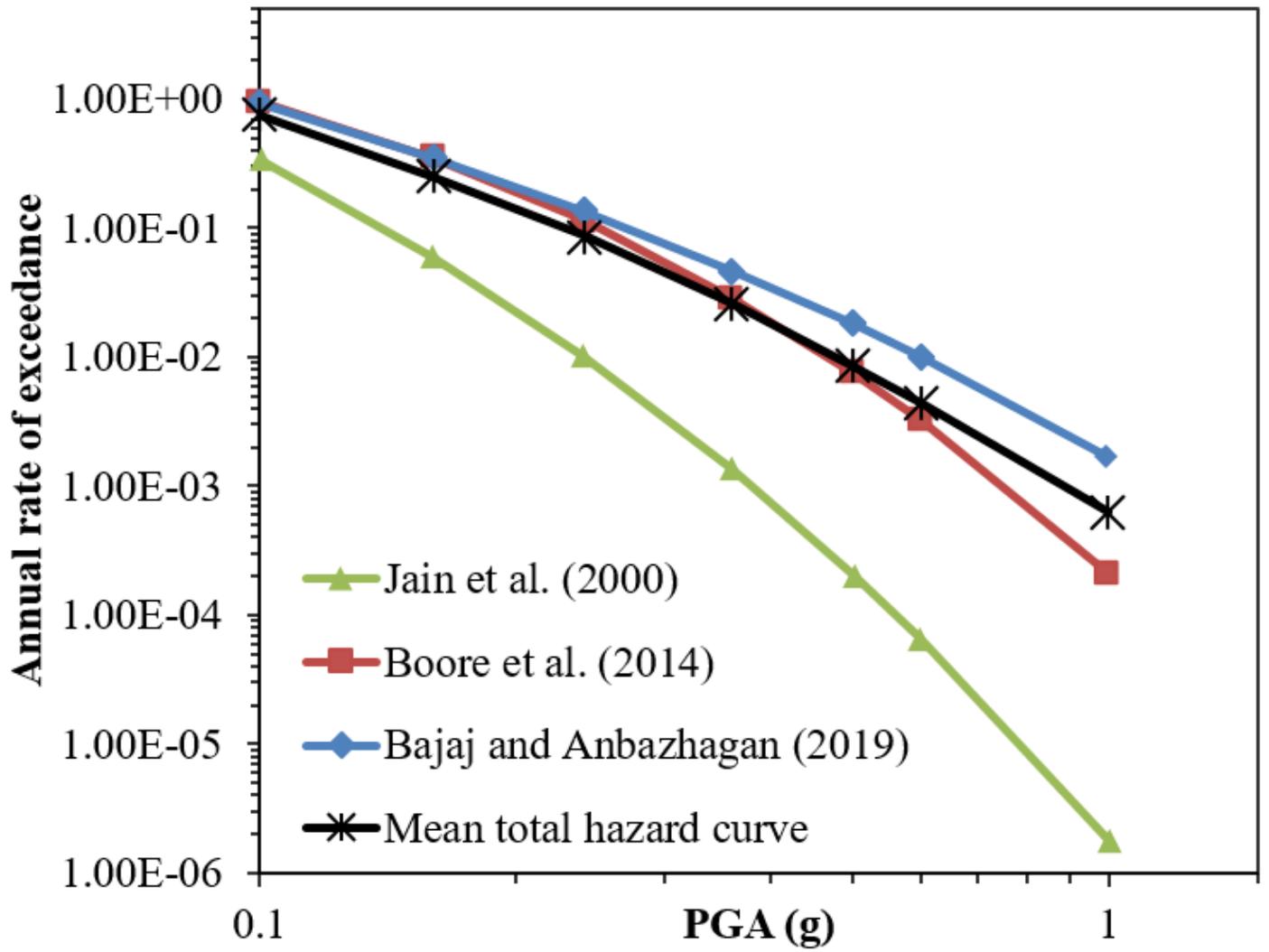


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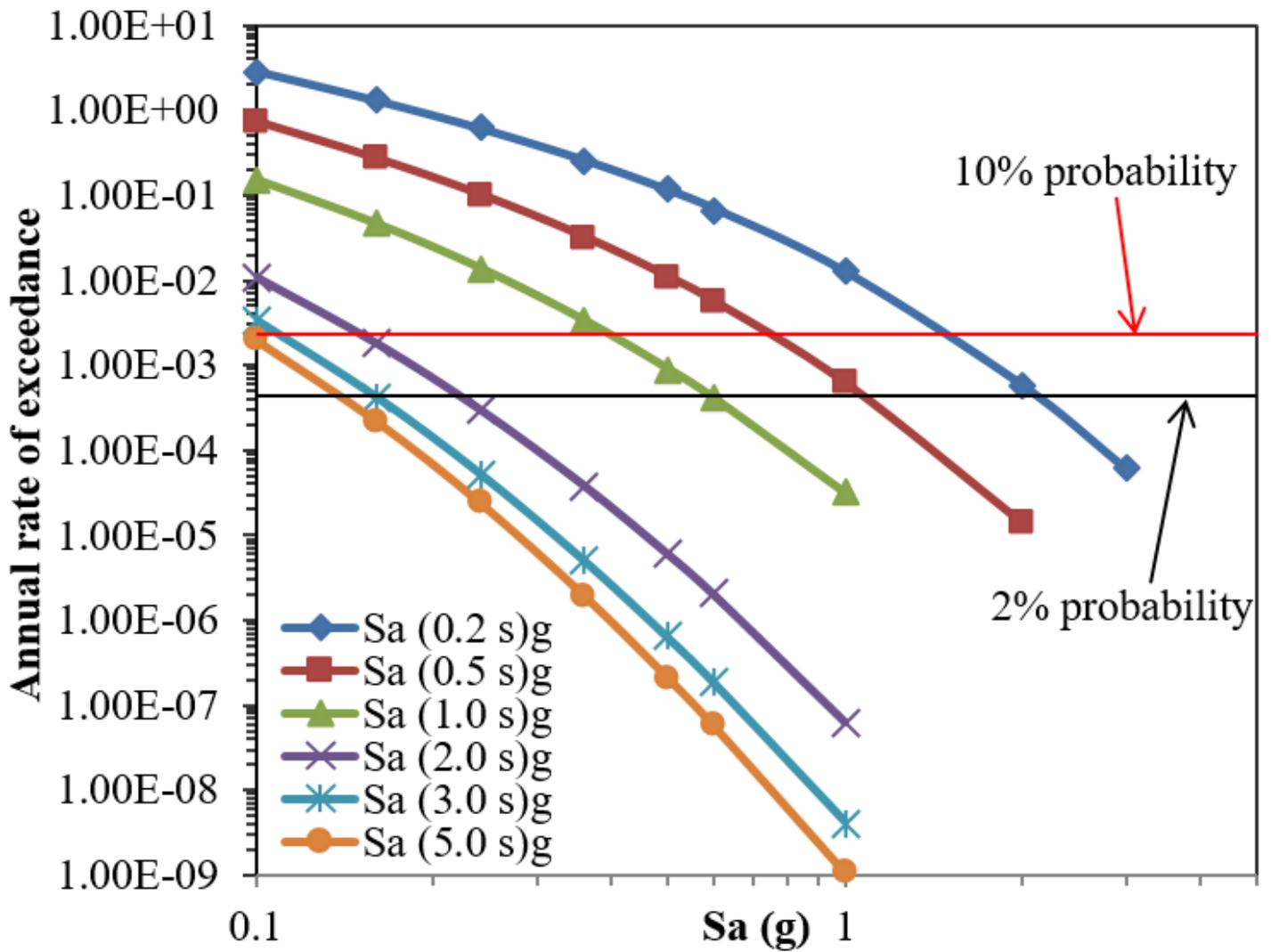


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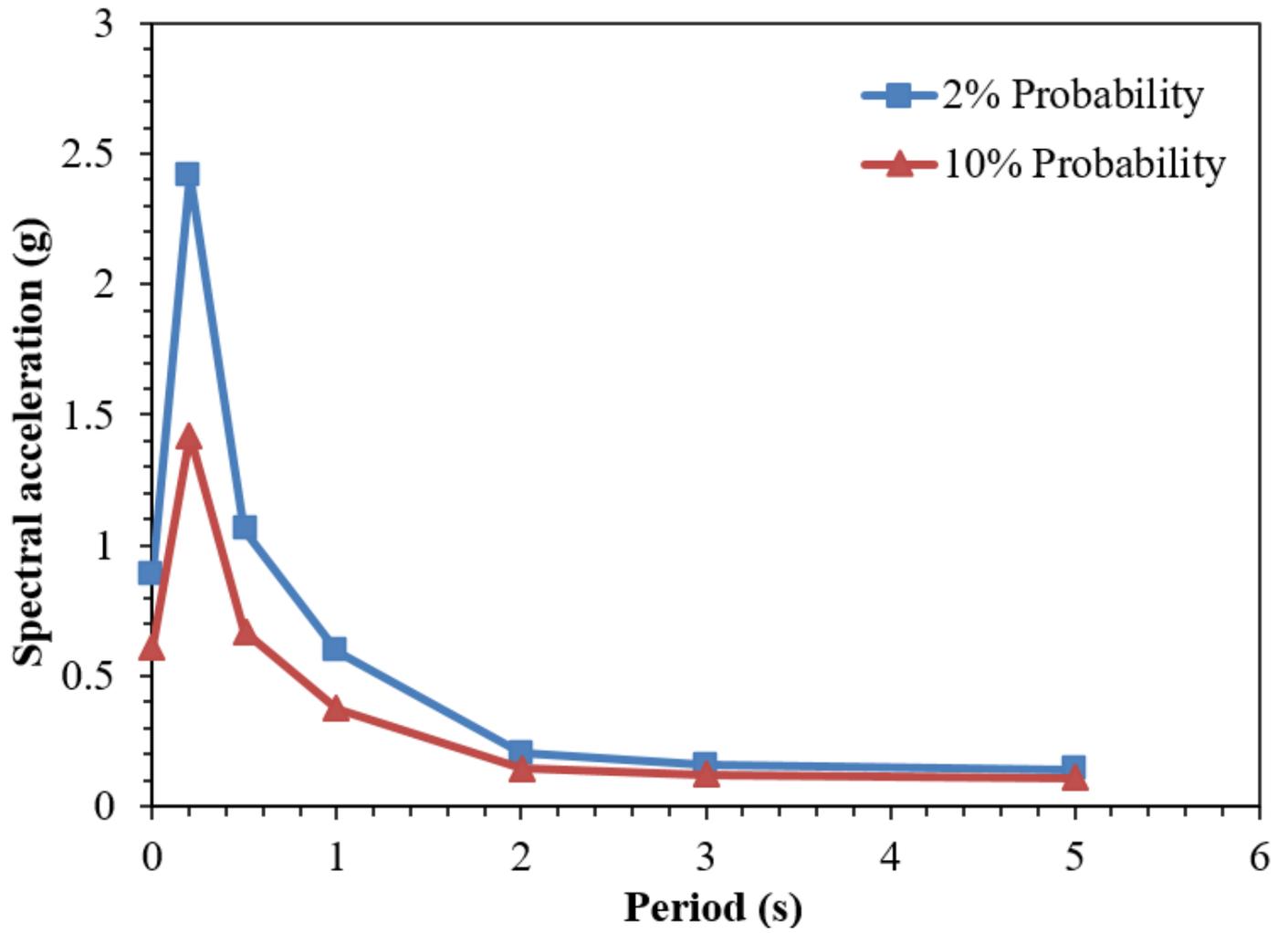


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Uniform Hazard Spectrum (UHS) with 2% and 10% probability of exceedance in 50 years