

1 **Near-fault Strong-motion of the 2023 Mw7.8**
2 **Kahramanmaraş Earthquake: Insights into**
3 **High-frequency Radiation Mechanisms**

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12 **Key Points:**

- 13 • We observe a loss of polarity and reduced coherence above ~ 0.4 Hz in near-fault
14 records of 2023 Mw 7.8 Kahramanmaraş earthquake.
15 • The ~ 0.4 Hz transition frequency is lower than the commonly accepted rule-of-
16 thumb value of 1 Hz.
17 • Our results highlight the need for improved earthquake source parameterization
18 to assess high-frequency ground motion hazards.

Abstract

While classic double-couple earthquake models explain seismic wavefields accurately at low frequencies, at higher frequencies, seismic radiation exhibits significantly more complex and stochastic characteristics. Various on-fault and off-fault mechanisms have been proposed to explain high-frequency radiation, yet their relative contributions and trade-offs remain debated. In this study, we analyze near-fault high-frequency characteristics of the 2023 Mw 7.8 Kahramanmaraş earthquake with 19 strong-motion stations within 10 km of its southern rupture. Above ~ 0.4 Hz, we observe a loss of horizontal polarity and reduced coherence between the two horizontal components, which cannot be explained by heterogeneous rupture on a planar fault. Additionally, the ~ 0.4 Hz transition frequency is lower than the commonly accepted rule-of-thumb value of 1 Hz. The near-fault high-frequency energy arrives concurrently with low-frequency signals, suggesting that high-frequency radiation originates near the fault rather than from medium scattering. Comparison with regional stations and back-projection analysis suggests that high-frequency signatures from the source persist even at greater distances. These findings indicate that the small-scale radiation processes near the rupture front are more complex than those described in conventional earthquake source representations. Our results highlight the need for improved earthquake source parameterization to assess high-frequency ground motion hazards and may provide valuable constraints for theoretical studies on high-frequency radiation mechanisms.

Plain Language Summary

Classic earthquake models can accurately explain the seismic wavefield below an earthquake’s corner frequency. However, at higher frequencies, seismic radiation exhibits significantly more complex and stochastic characteristics. While various types of on-fault and off-fault complexity have been proposed to generate high-frequency radiation, their respective contributions and trade-offs remain the subject of ongoing debate. The 2023 magnitude 7.8 Kahramanmaraş earthquake was well recorded by the regional strong-motion network operated by the Turkey Disaster and Emergency Management Authority (AFAD). About 20 three-component accelerometers are located within 10 km of the EAF surface rupture south of the Narlı-EAF junction. These stations span rather evenly along the fault strike, recording seismic radiation from the rupture front as it propagated southward. This dataset provides an excellent opportunity to investigate how high-frequency radiation is generated at earthquake sources. We observe a loss of horizontal polarity and reduced coherence above approximately 0.4 Hz in these records, which we argue cannot be fully explained by traditional models of heterogeneous rupture parameters on a planar fault. Our findings demonstrate the need for improved earthquake source parameterization to assess high-frequency ground motion hazards and may provide valuable insights for theoretical studies on high-frequency radiation mechanisms.

1 Introduction

Understanding earthquake high-frequency radiation is crucial for characterizing its earthquake processes and its hazards (Aki, 2003). Classic earthquake models with simplified rupture processes can adequately explain the seismic wavefield below the earthquake corner frequency (e.g., Haskell, 1964; Aki, 1967; Brune, 1970; Madariaga, 1976). However, at higher frequencies, seismic radiation becomes markedly more complex and stochastic (e.g., Housner, 1947; Hanks & McGuire, 1981). While classical models may predict the amplitude of high-frequency spectra, they often fail to account for other features, such as waveform coherence (e.g., Hanks, 1979; Hanks & McGuire, 1981; Boore, 1983) and ground motion polarity (e.g., Somerville et al., 1997; Graves & Pitarka, 2016; Ben-Zion et al., 2024). Accurately modeling these high-frequency radiation features is

68 desirable, as they could be crucial for specific structural designs aimed at mitigating earth-
69 quake ground motion hazards.

70 It is generally agreed that high-frequency radiation reflects spatial complexities in
71 the source or path that are smaller than the source dimension (e.g., Lay et al., 2012).
72 However, many types of complexity could contribute to high-frequency radiation, includ-
73 ing heterogeneous rupture on a planar fault (e.g., Madariaga, 1977; Spudich & Frazer,
74 1984; Zeng et al., 1994), complex fault geometry (e.g., Adda-Bedia & Madariaga, 2008;
75 Shi & Day, 2013), small off-fault structures or damage (e.g., Ben-Zion & Ampuero, 2009),
76 low velocity fault damage zone (e.g., Graves & Pitarka, 2016), scattering bodies around
77 fault (e.g., Imperatori & Mai, 2012), and complex fault gouge structures (e.g., Tsai &
78 Hirth, 2020). Their actual contributions remain poorly understood due to limited ob-
79 servational constraints near the fault.

80 The 2023 Mw 7.8 Kahramanmaraş earthquake caused tens of thousands of casu-
81 alties and widespread devastation (e.g., Erdik et al., 2023). It also provides a unique op-
82 portunity to study high-frequency radiation mechanisms. It was the first event of a dou-
83 ble that ruptured the East Anatolian Fault (EAF) system on February 6, 2023 (UTC).
84 Thanks to the high-quality data from near-fault, regional, and global observatories, the
85 Mw 7.8 earthquake has been extensively characterized in numerous studies (e.g., Bar-
86 bot et al., 2023; Melgar et al., 2023; Reitman, Briggs, Barnhart, Hatem, et al., 2023; Y. Zhang
87 et al., 2023; Mai et al., 2023; Jia et al., 2023; Güvercin, 2024; Akinci et al., 2025). In par-
88 ticular, around 20 three-component strong motion accelerometers were located within
89 10 km of the approximately 100 km-long southern EAF rupture (e.g., Palo & Zollo, 2024;
90 Ren et al., 2024; S. Yao & Yang, 2025). Due to the proximity of these stations, the recorded
91 seismic radiation is minimally influenced by crustal scattering, making it an ideal dataset
92 to study high-frequency radiation mechanisms at the source.

93 In this study, we address high-frequency radiation mechanisms with these near-fault
94 acceleration records. We first examined how the ratio of fault-normal (FN) to fault-parallel
95 (FP) components changes with frequency. Most FN/FP ratios are greater than unity be-
96 low ~ 0.4 Hz, consistent with the expected behavior for an overall sub-shear rupture
97 (e.g., Dunham & Archuleta, 2005; Mello et al., 2016; Abdelmeguid et al., 2023). How-
98 ever, FN/FP ratios approach unity above ~ 0.4 Hz, suggesting a loss of horizontal po-
99 larity. We also analyzed how signal coherence changes with frequency. We observed that
100 the correlation coefficient between two horizontal components decreases from near unity
101 to zero as frequency increases, also at a transition frequency of ~ 0.4 Hz.

102 Spectrograms of these records indicate that most high-frequency energy coincides
103 with the arrival of low-frequency signals, suggesting that near-fault complexities are the
104 primary source of high-frequency radiation, rather than medium scattering away from
105 the fault. Our result, showing a ~ 0.4 Hz transition frequency, suggests that source com-
106 plexities may persist in wavelengths up to a few kilometers. We discuss the possible mech-
107 anisms underlying the high-frequency radiation observations. We suggest that these source
108 complexities are likely related to the heterogeneous 3D structure near the fault, and that
109 the observed high-frequency radiation cannot be fully modeled by simply parameteriz-
110 ing inhomogeneous friction or stress on a planar fault.

111 2 Simultaneous Arrivals of High- and Low-Frequency Radiation

112 The rupture process of the Mw 7.8 earthquake has been well characterized by mul-
113 tiple datasets (e.g., Melgar et al., 2023; Mai et al., 2023; Reitman, Briggs, Barnhart, Hatem,
114 et al., 2023; Jia et al., 2023; Y. Zhang et al., 2023; C. Liu et al., 2023; Ren et al., 2024).
115 The rupture initiated on the Narlı fault, a secondary strand of the EAF system, and reached
116 the Narlı-EAF junction in about 10 seconds (Figure 1a). The rupture then continued
117 propagating bilaterally from the junction. The south-propagating rupture beyond the

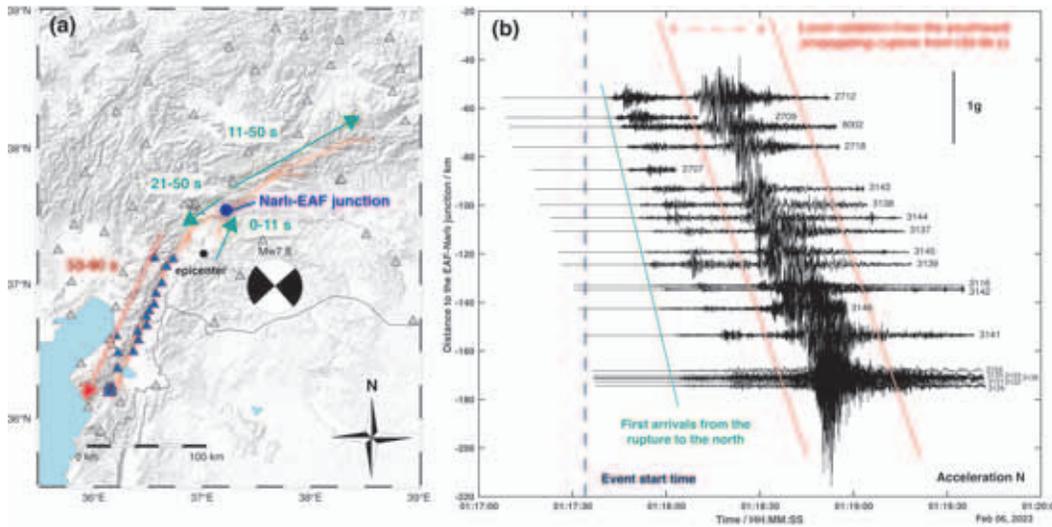


Figure 1. (a) Map showing regional strong-motion stations close to the Mw 7.8 earthquake surface ruptures (red lines). The surface rupture data were obtained from the `simple_fault` files within the fault rupture mapping dataset provided by [Reitman, Briggs, Barnhart, Thompson Jobe, et al. \(2023\)](#). Blue triangles represent the 22 stations within 10 km of the southern surface rupture. Grey triangles represent other regional strong-motion stations. Arrows show the coseismic rupture process inferred by [Jia et al. \(2023\)](#), with corresponding rupture times labeled. The red arrow denotes the south-propagating rupture that this study focuses on. (b) North-south component unfiltered accelerograms of the 22 strong-motion stations (blue triangles in (a)) within 10 km of the southern surface rupture ordered by the distance from the station to the Narli-EAF junction, taking north as the positive direction.

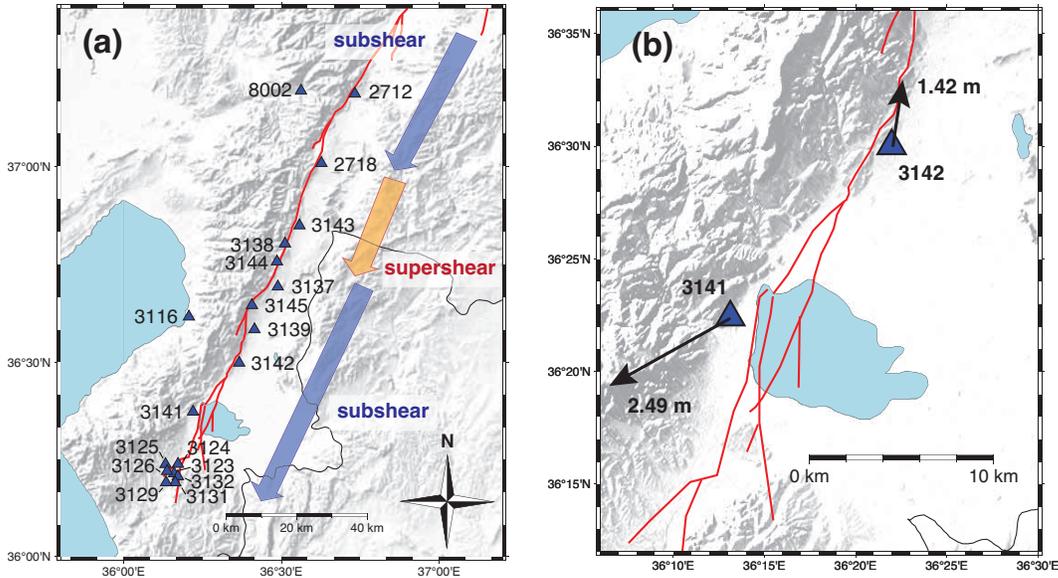


Figure 2. (a) Map showing the 19 regional strong-motion stations (blue triangles) near the Mw 7.8 earthquake surface ruptures (red lines), which recorded the complete rupture front radiation as it propagated southward. Arrows highlight the approximate portions of subshear (blue) and supershear (yellow) rupture, as reported by [S. Yao and Yang \(2025\)](#). (b) Map showing the locations of Stations 3141 and 3142 (blue triangles) relative to the surface rupture (red lines). Black arrows and corresponding labels indicate the final horizontal displacements, obtained by double-integrating the acceleration records. The surface rupture data were obtained from the `simple_fault` files within the fault rupture mapping dataset provided by [Reitman, Briggs, Barnhart, Thompson Jobe, et al. \(2023\)](#).

118 fault bend was delayed and reactivated around 50 seconds after the initial rupture. The
 119 rupture delay is probably due to this earthquake’s specific fault geometry and pre-stress
 120 level ([Gabriel et al., 2023](#); [Ding et al., 2023](#)).

121 The Mw 7.8 earthquake was well recorded by the regional three-component strong-
 122 motion stations, with 22 stations within 10 km of the southern rupture ([Figure 1a](#)). These
 123 stations are relatively evenly spaced along the fault trace. [Figure 1b](#) shows the north-
 124 south component acceleration recorded by these 22 stations.

125 The first arrival in these records is radiation from the initial rupture to the north.
 126 In general, the amplitude of these waves decreases with the distance to the Narlı-EAF
 127 junction. Following the initial motion is a stronger pulse with a duration of about 30 sec-
 128 onds, which is radiation from the marching rupture front (e.g., [Čejka et al., 2023](#); [Naga-
 129 saka & Nozu, 2024](#); [Ren et al., 2024](#); [Palo & Zollo, 2024](#); [S. Yao & Yang, 2025](#); [Yen
 130 et al., 2025](#)), and the pulse amplitude does not decrease with the distance to the Narlı-
 131 EAF junction. The local radiation is separated from the initial arrivals by about 40 sec-
 132 ond due to the delayed triggering of the southern rupture. Out of the 22 southern stations,
 133 19 recorded the complete rupture front radiation as it propagates southward ([Fig-
 134 ure 2a](#)). Due to the proximity of these stations to the fault, the strong pulse comprises
 135 P, S, and surface waves, as the travel time differences between these phases are compa-
 136 rable to the source process duration. These 19 near-fault records offer a valuable oppor-
 137 tunity to investigate the high-frequency radiation mechanisms of the Mw 7.8 earthquake.

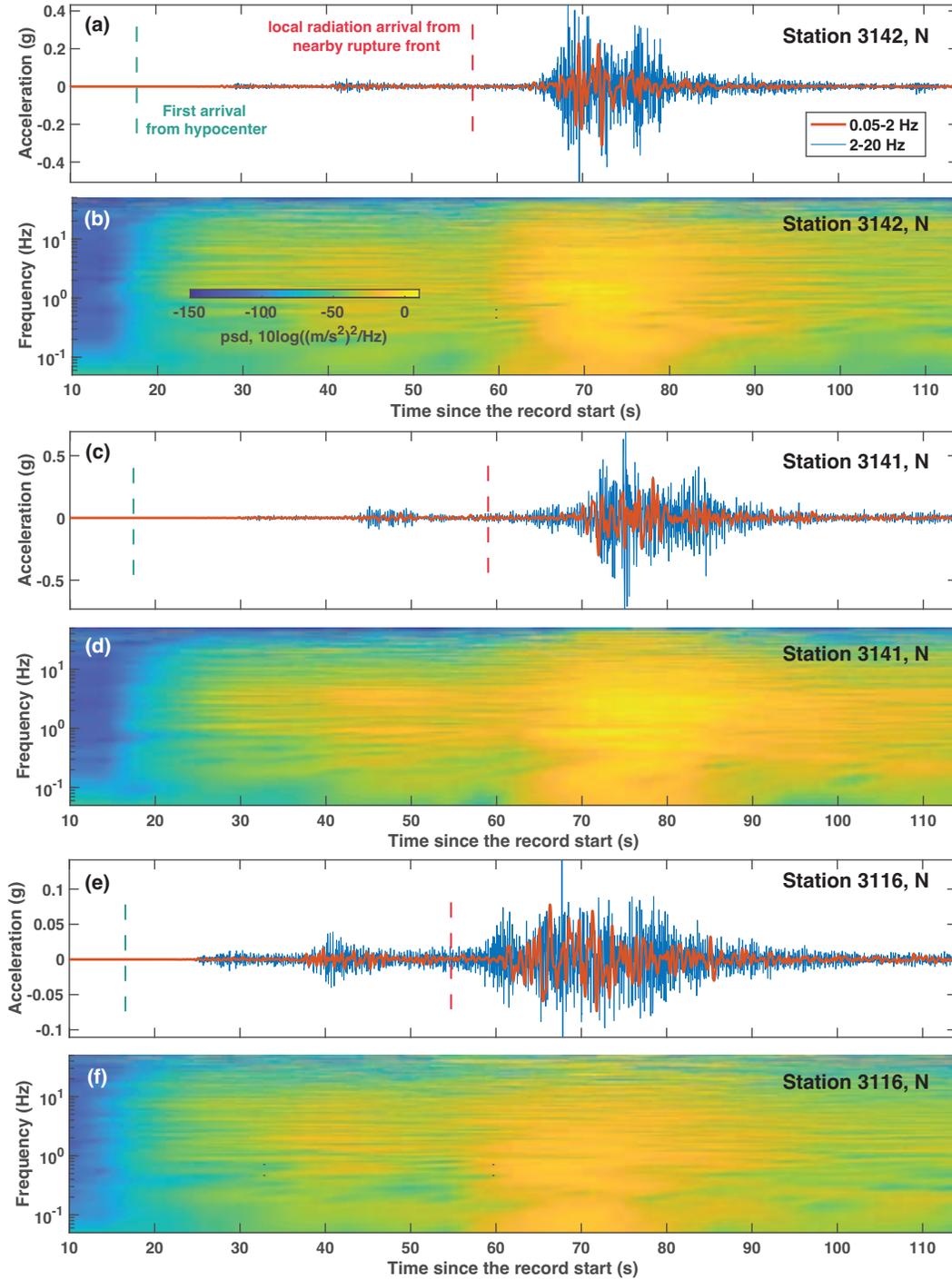


Figure 3. (a), (c), (e) North-south component accelerograms of Station 3142, 3141, and 3116, filtered in 0.05-2 Hz (red) and 2-20 Hz (blue). The green vertical line denotes the arrival of radiation from the rupture front near the station, as suggested by the spectrogram. (b), (d), (f) North-south component acceleration spectrogram of Station 3142, 3141, and 3116.

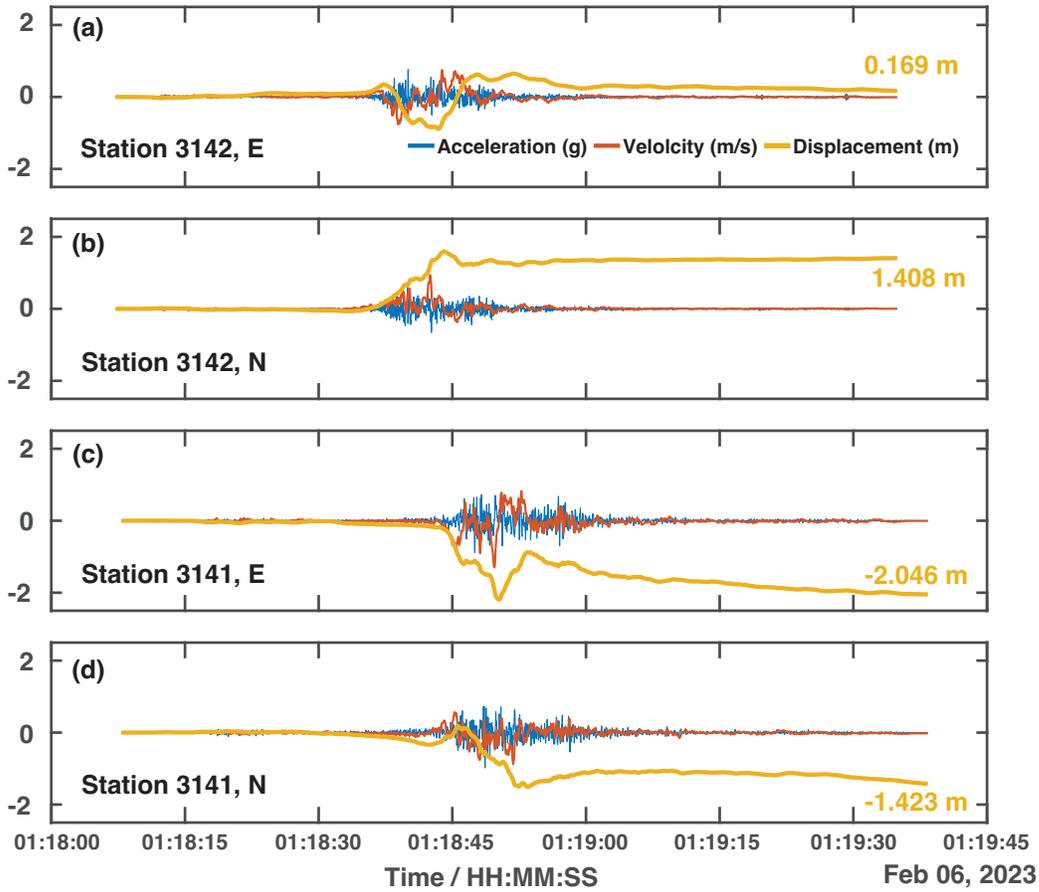


Figure 4. (a)-(d) Unfiltered seismograms after the local radiation from the nearby rupture arrives for Station 3142 east-west component, Station 3142 north-south component, Station 3141 east-west component, and Station 3141 north-south component, respectively. Blue lines are acceleration seismograms in units of earth gravity (9.8 m/s^2). Red lines are velocity seismograms in units of m/s. Yellow lines are displacement seismograms in units of meters. Yellow numbers indicate displacement values at the end of the records.

138 The local radiation from the nearby rupture, recorded by the 19 stations, contains
 139 energy across a wide range of frequencies. **Figure 3** shows the acceleration records and
 140 spectrograms from the north-south component of three stations as examples: 3142, 3141,
 141 and 3116. High- and low-frequency radiation from the nearby rupture arrived simulta-
 142 neously at these stations. The local radiation consists of a pulse with a finite duration
 143 of about 30 seconds, and the durations of the high- and low-frequency components are
 144 comparable. We inspected the other 16 stations and found the same characteristics. These
 145 results suggest that the high-frequency radiation likely originated from the rupture front,
 146 rather than from scattering sources away from the fault or significantly behind the rup-
 147 ture front. Similar observations have also been made in *S. Yao and Yang (2025)*.

148 Due to their proximity to the fault, near-field stations experience static displacements
 149 by the end of the earthquake (e.g., *Housner & Trifunac, 1967; Madariaga et al.,*
 150 *2019; J. Liu et al., 2024*). We obtained the horizontal displacement time series of Stations
 151 3141 and 3142 by double integrating the acceleration records **Figure 4a-4d**. Their
 152 final displacements are consistent with the left-lateral strike-slip mechanism of the earth-
 153 quake (**Figure 2b**), suggesting the displacement time series can be treated as proxies for
 154 slip history. Notably, most high-amplitude acceleration and velocity motions occur dur-
 155 ing the slip-rise time. This again suggests the recorded high-frequency radiation is gen-
 156 erated simultaneously as slip accelerates at the rupture front.

157 **3 Loss of Horizontal Polarity at High-frequencies**

158 Horizontal polarities of near-field ground motion provide valuable insights into rup-
 159 ture dynamics. It has been suggested that on a strike-slip fault, the FN ground veloc-
 160 ity can be either greater or smaller than the FP ground velocity, depending on whether
 161 the rupture speed is sub-shear or super-shear. This phenomenon has been supported by
 162 observational studies (e.g., *Somerville et al., 1997; Dunham & Archuleta, 2004; Graves*
 163 *& Pitarka, 2016; Abdelmeguid et al., 2023; Ben-Zion et al., 2024*), theoretical studies (e.g.,
 164 *Dunham & Archuleta, 2005; Mello et al., 2016; Hu et al., 2019; Ben-Zion et al., 2024*),
 165 and laboratory experiments (e.g., *Mello et al., 2016; Rubino et al., 2020*). Such horizon-
 166 tal polarity is attributed to both double-couple radiation patterns and rupture directiv-
 167 ity.

168 We rotated the horizontal records of the 19 stations into FN and FP components,
 169 assuming an overall fault azimuth of 23° to the north based on surface rupture obser-
 170 vations (*Reitman, Briggs, Barnhart, Hatem, et al., 2023*). We then windowed the local
 171 rupture radiation and calculated velocity spectrum ratios between the FN and FP com-
 172 ponents. We inspected the FN to FP ratio for all 19 stations (**Figure 5a-5c, Figure S1-**
 173 **S7**). At low frequencies, 16 of the 19 stations show a FN component greater than the
 174 FP component (**Figure 5a**). This is consistent with the overall sub-shear rupture, as con-
 175 strained by the timing of rupture front arrivals (*Abdelmeguid et al., 2023; Ren et al.,*
 176 *2024; Palo & Zollo, 2024; S. Yao & Yang, 2025*) (**Figure 2a**). Three of the 19 stations
 177 show a FN component smaller than the FP component at low frequencies (**Figure 5b**),
 178 likely due to a small portion of supershear rupture (*Abdelmeguid et al., 2023*) or the fault
 179 bend near these stations (*S. Yao & Yang, 2025*). At the lowest frequency, the polarity
 180 often reverses, likely due to differences in polarity between static displacement and S-
 181 wave radiation.

182 Above a transition frequency, we observed a loss of horizontal polarity among these
 183 19 very close stations (**Figure 5c**). The loss of horizontal polarity can be observed in both
 184 the 16 stations where FN is greater than the FP component (**Figure 5a**), as well as in
 185 the 3 stations where FN is smaller than the FP component (**Figure 5b**). We averaged
 186 the logarithm (base 10) of the individual spectra. The average ratio of all 19 stations shows
 187 a transition frequency between 0.3-0.4 Hz (**Figure 5c**). This value is lower than the com-
 188 monly accepted rule-of-thumb value of 1 Hz that separates low- and high-frequency ra-

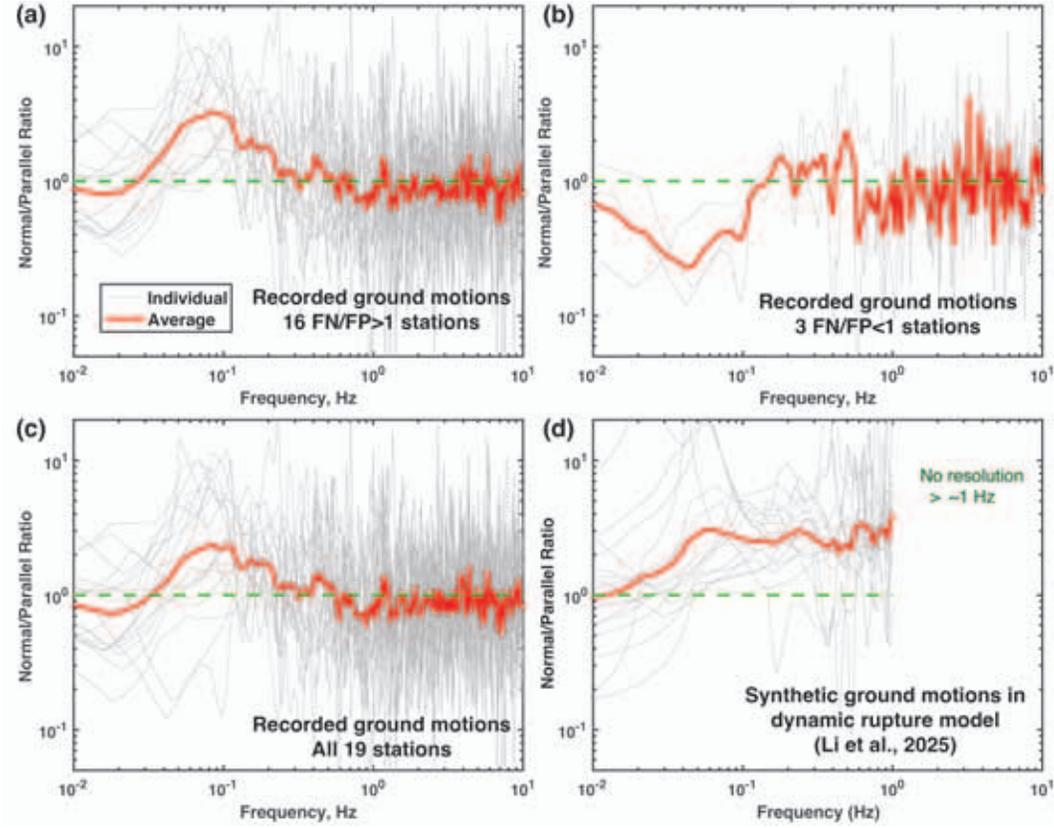


Figure 5. (a) The spectrum ratio between the FP and FN velocity seismograms is shown for the 16 southern stations that recorded the complete rupture front radiation and with FN greater than FP component at low frequencies: 2712, 8002, 2718, 3143, 3137, 3145, 3139, 3142, 3141, 3124, 3125, 3123, 3132, 3126, 3131, 3129. Gray lines are the spectrum ratio for each of the individual stations, while the red line represents the average spectrum ratio, obtained by averaging the logarithm (base 10) of the individual spectra. (b) Same as (a), but for the 3 of 19 stations with FN smaller than FP component at low frequencies: 3138, 3144, 3116. (c) Same as (a), all the 19 stations that recorded the complete rupture front radiation. (d) Same as (a), except that ground motions are synthetic data from the dynamic rupture model in [B. Li et al. \(2025\)](#). We included 16 out of 22 station locations that are within 10 km of the surface rupture: 2712, 2709, 8002, 2718, 2707, 3143, 3138, 3144, 3145, 3139, 3116, 3142, 3146, 3124, 3123, 3132. Other stations were not included because there are no collocated nodes in the numerical mesh. Results above ~ 1 Hz are not plotted because the numerical simulation has no resolution above ~ 1 Hz.

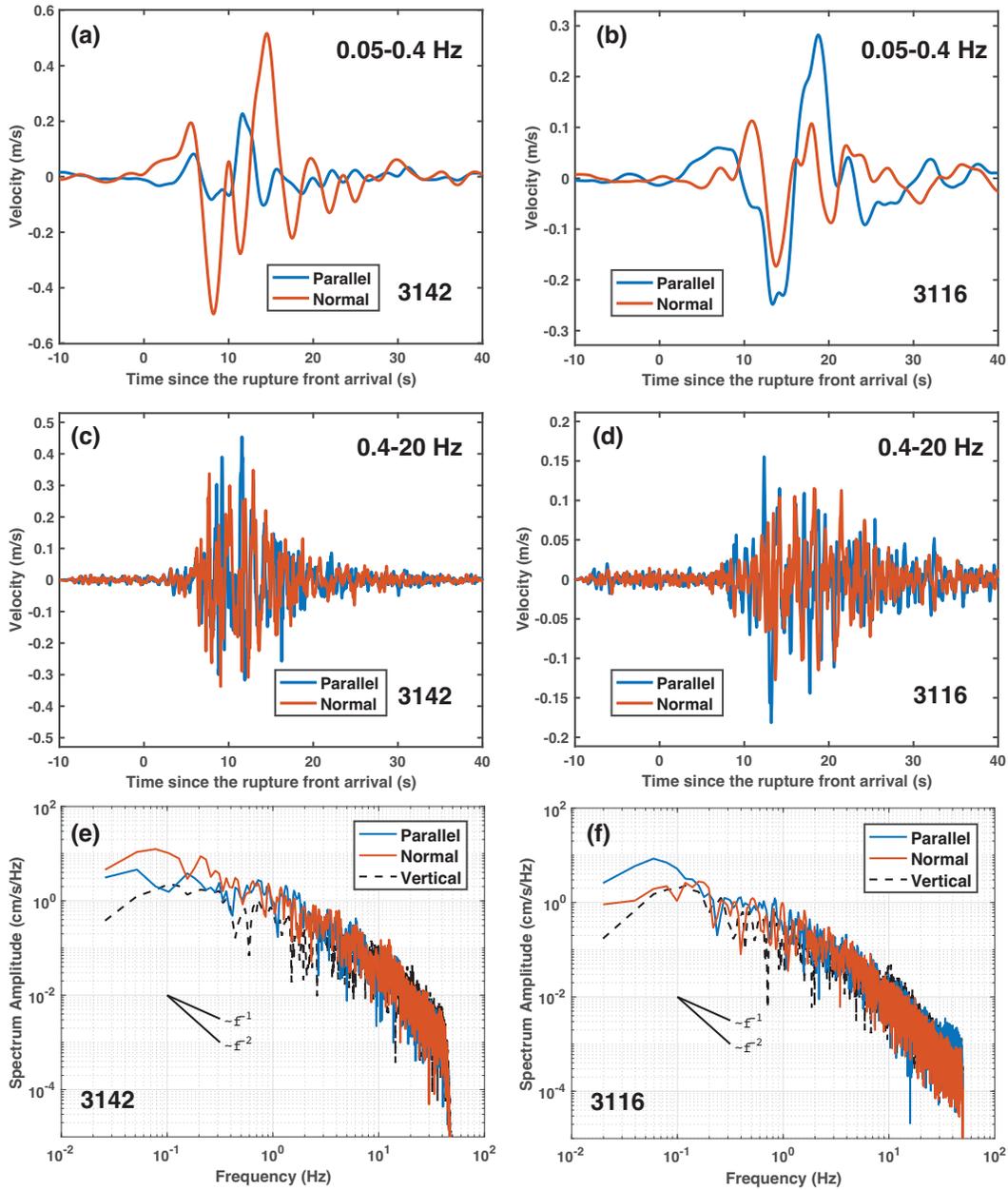


Figure 6. (a), (b) Comparison of the FP and FN velocity seismograms for Station 3142 and 3116, assuming a fault azimuth of 23° based on the overall trend of the surface rupture. Only the strong pulse after the rupture front arrival was analyzed. Windows are manually picked. The seismograms were filtered in the 0.05-0.4 Hz band. Station 3142 shows a FN component greater than the FP component, while Station 3116 shows a FN component smaller than the FP component. (c), (d) Same as (a) and (b), except that the seismograms are filtered in the 0.4-20 Hz band. For both stations, FN and FP components have comparable amplitude. (e), (f) Spectra of FP (blue solid line), FN (red solid line), and vertical (black dashed line) components for Station 3142 and 3116. Horizontal polarities are lost at high frequencies.

189 diation. A lower-than-expected transition frequency has also been reported for other earth-
190 quakes (Frankel, 2009; Graves & Pitarka, 2016; Ben-Zion et al., 2024).

191 As examples for the two station categories that exhibit different low-frequency polar-
192 ity, we show the velocity seismograms and spectra of stations 3142 and 3116, respec-
193 tively (Figure 6). When filtered in the 0.05-0.4 Hz band, one of the components has greater
194 amplitude than the other (Figure 6a, 6b); however, FN and FP velocity amplitudes are
195 about the same when filtered in the 0.4-20 Hz band (Figure 6c, 6d). A clear difference
196 in spectrum level between the horizontal components can be seen below the transition
197 frequency, while above that frequency, the two horizontal components have comparable
198 spectrum levels (Figure 6e, 6f). Apparently, the high-frequency radiation from the rup-
199 ture front does not retain the double-radiation pattern like its low-frequency counter-
200 part.

201 4 Loss of Between-Horizontal-Component Correlations at High-frequencies

202 Theoretically, the amplitudes of the two components from a single seismic phase
203 differ only by a fixed ratio, depending on the radiation pattern. In this case, no matter
204 how complex the source time function is, the correlation coefficient between the time se-
205 ries of the two components would remain high. For the near-field records of the Mw 7.8
206 strike-slip rupture, we may assume that the two horizontal components of the rupture
207 front radiation are dominated by S waves. If the source mechanism is coherent within
208 the rupture front, the correlation coefficient between the two horizontal components should
209 be high.

210 We calculated the correlation coefficients between the north-south and east-west
211 component acceleration seismograms for the 19 near-fault stations that recorded the com-
212 plete rupture front radiation. The correlation coefficient (CC) is calculated as the ratio
213 between the covariance of the two time series and the product of their standard de-
214 viations,

$$215 \text{CC} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (a_i^{\text{NS}} - \overline{a^{\text{NS}}})(a_i^{\text{EW}} - \overline{a^{\text{EW}}})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (a_i^{\text{NS}} - \overline{a^{\text{NS}}})^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (a_i^{\text{EW}} - \overline{a^{\text{EW}}})^2}}, \quad (1)$$

216 where a^{NS} and a^{EW} are discrete acceleration records of the north-south and east-west
217 component; $\overline{a^{\text{NS}}}$ and $\overline{a^{\text{EW}}}$ are the corresponding sample mean. n is the sampling num-
ber of the time series.

218 We slice the time series to analyze only the rupture front radiation. We apply dif-
219 ferent bandpass filters to the records, with the frequency band progressing from low to
220 high. The frequency band center interval and bandwidth are 0.2 and 1, respectively, in
221 logarithmic (base 10) space. CC is calculated for each moving filter. If the CC at the
222 lowest frequency band is negative, we multiply all the CC values for that station by -1 .

223 The CC between the two horizontal components is high at low frequencies, as shown
224 in the examples of Station 3142 and 3116 (Figure 7a, 7b). We investigated all 19 sta-
225 tions and found the same characteristics (Figure 7c, Figure S8-S11). Low-frequency ra-
226 diation reflects source properties averaged over long wavelengths. Therefore, a high CC
227 value at low frequencies indicates that the source mechanism, averaged over a long dis-
228 tance, is coherent, which, as expected, corresponds to the sudden slip acceleration and
229 deceleration of the rupture front. This result suggests that the assumption of a single
230 dominant seismic phase is reasonable for low-frequency radiation.

231 As frequency increases, the CC drops significantly to near zero (Figure 7a-7c, S8-
232 S11). This suggests that the source mechanism is no longer coherent when averaged over
233 a short distance. Multiple seismic phases radiated from different rupture locations ar-
234 rive at the station at the same time, and they may have drastically different amplitudes

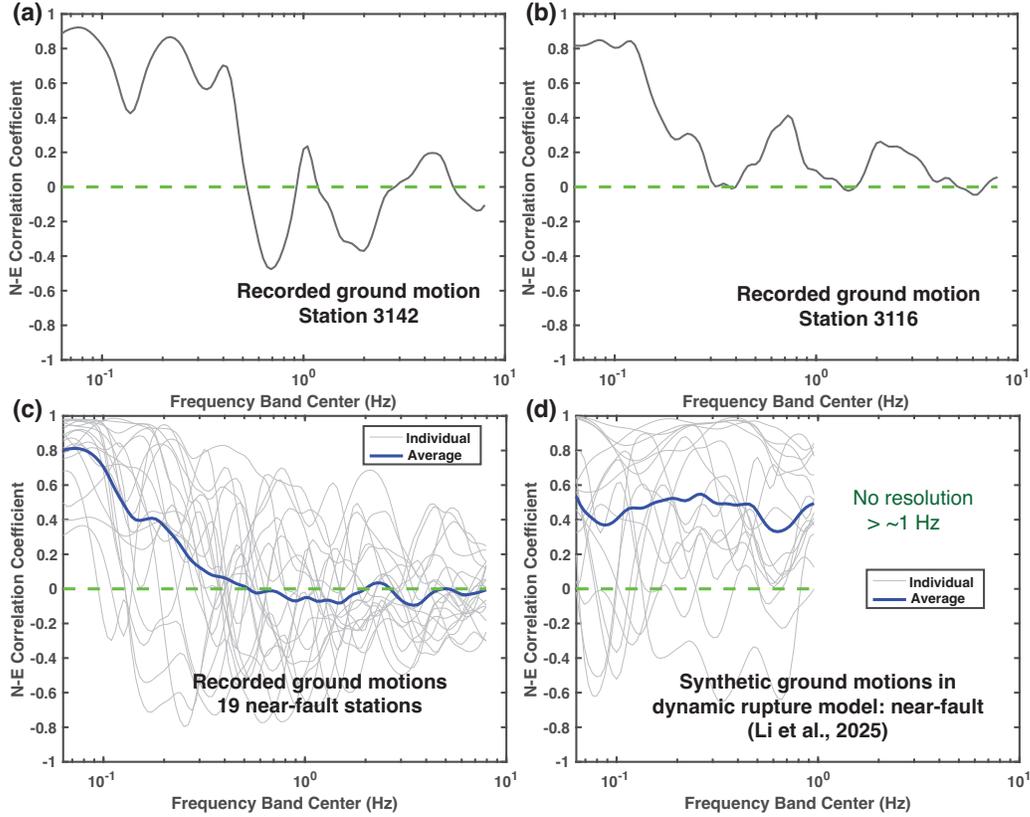


Figure 7. (a), (b) Correlation coefficient (CC) between north- and east-component acceleration filtered in a moving frequency band for Station 3142 and 3116. Only the strong pulse after the rupture front arrival was analyzed. The frequency band center interval and bandwidth are 0.2 and 1, respectively, in logarithmic (base 10) space. Green dashed lines denote the zero CC level. (c) The same as (a) and (b) but plot the individual CC for the 19 near-fault stations (gray lines) and the average CC (blue line). (d) Similar to (c), except the data are synthetic ground motions within 10 km of the fault from the dynamic rupture model in B. Li et al. (2025). We included 16 out of 22 station locations that are within 10 km of the surface rupture: 2712, 2709, 8002, 2718, 2707, 3143, 3138, 3144, 3145, 3139, 3116, 3142, 3146, 3124, 3123, 3132. Other stations were not included because there are no collocated nodes in the numerical mesh. Results above ~ 1 Hz are not plotted because the numerical simulation has no resolution above ~ 1 Hz.

235 or radiation patterns. As a result, high-frequency radiation becomes incoherent, even for
 236 the two horizontal components at the same station.

237 The transition frequency between high and low CC values varies among stations;
 238 sometimes, it is even hard to define (Figure 7a, 7b, S8-S11). However, the average frequency-
 239 dependent CC of all 19 stations shows a well-defined transition: CC is as high as 0.8 at
 240 the lowest frequency, drops to zero at ~ 0.4 Hz, and remains zero for higher frequen-
 241 cies (Figure 7c). Notably, this transition frequency of ~ 0.4 Hz is almost the same as
 242 the frequency at which the horizontal polarity is lost for these 19 stations. This suggests
 243 that an incoherent source mechanism within the rupture front is likely also responsible
 244 for causing the loss of horizontal polarity at high frequencies, in addition to causing the
 245 low CC value. The 0.4 Hz transition frequency is lower than the commonly accepted rule-
 246 of-thumb value of 1 Hz that separates low- and high-frequency radiation. Assuming a
 247 characteristic wave speed of 2-4 km/s, the observed 0.4 Hz transition frequency corre-
 248 sponds to a transition complexity wavelength of 5-10 km.

249 5 Discussion

250 5.1 High-frequency Radiation Mechanisms

251 The difficulty in modeling higher-frequency ground motion reflects our limited knowl-
 252 edge of the small-scale complexities in the source process and along the wave propaga-
 253 tion path (Aki, 2003). The issue likely concerns not only how to better invert param-
 254 eters for a specific model that describes small-scale complexities but also which model
 255 is more appropriate for capturing these complexities. Our observation of the loss of po-
 256 larity and coherence at ~ 0.4 Hz, along with other observational studies of the 2023 Mw
 257 7.8 Kahramanmaraş earthquake, may provide constraints that help distinguish high-frequency
 258 radiation mechanisms. Here, we summarize six types of high-frequency radiation mech-
 259 anisms proposed within the scientific community and discuss their applicability in ex-
 260 plaining the observed high-frequency characteristics of the Mw 7.8 earthquake.

261 5.1.1 Heterogeneous parameters on a planar fault

262 The arguably most common parameterization is incorporating heterogeneous rup-
 263 ture kinematics on a planar fault, such as slip amplitude and rupture timing, which may
 264 arise from inhomogeneous mechanical properties, such as stress fields, rock types, and
 265 friction (Figure 8a) (e.g., Madariaga, 1977; Achenbach & Harris, 1978; Andrews, 1981;
 266 Papageorgiou & Aki, 1983a, 1983b; Spudich & Frazer, 1984; Bernard & Madariaga, 1984;
 267 Graves & Pitarka, 2010; Baumann & Dalguer, 2014; Andrews & Ma, 2016). An equiv-
 268 alent parameterization is to populate many subevents on a planar fault, which have sim-
 269 ilar focal mechanisms as the main fault. The subevents rupture at different times and
 270 have various sizes, following certain magnitude-frequency distributions (e.g., Gutenberg-
 271 Richter Law) (e.g., Hanks, 1979; Boatwright, 1982, 1988; Frankel, 1991, 1995; Zeng et al.,
 272 1994, 1995; Zeng & Anderson, 1996). Such planar-heterogeneity parameterization can
 273 successfully reproduce the stochastic characteristics of high-frequency radiation, and it
 274 is arguably a primary conceptualization in discussing fault complexity (e.g., Lay et al.,
 275 2012).

276 However, the planar-heterogeneity parameterization might not explain the observed
 277 loss of horizontal polarity at high frequencies (Figure 5a, 5c). Graves and Pitarka (2016)
 278 investigated the near-fault records of the 1979 Mw 6.5 Imperial Valley earthquake. They
 279 found that kinematic models with heterogeneous slip, rupture speed, and rise time may
 280 slightly lower the FN/FP ratio compared to homogeneous models, due to reduced sig-
 281 nal coherence. However, the planar-heterogeneity models cannot reproduce the FN/FP
 282 ratio approaching unity at high frequencies. This is because the fault is planar, and the
 283 FN motion still has more potential to constructively interfere than the FP motion. Sim-

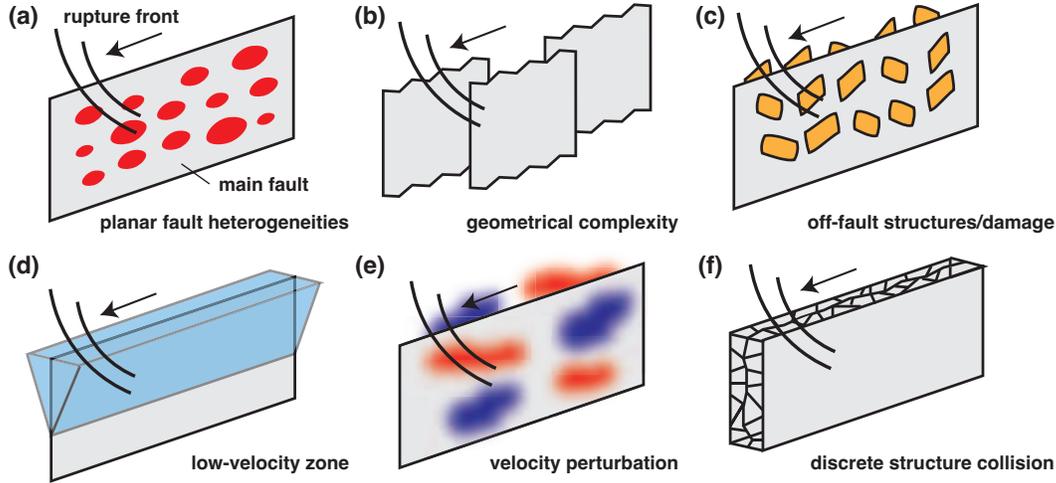


Figure 8. Schematics of different proposed mechanisms for high-frequency generation: (a) Heterogeneous stress and slip on a planar fault. (b) Complexities in fault geometry, including smaller-scale roughness and larger-scale fault bend and stepovers. (c) Off-fault structures created or triggered to slip during dynamic ruptures. (d) Trapped waves in the low-velocity fault damage zone disturb the radiation. (e) Patchy anomalies in the near-fault velocity structure scatter the wavefield. (f) Elastic impact and collision of discrete structures in the fault zone. References for these proposed mechanisms are provided in [Section 5.1](#)

284 ilar to the 1979 Mw 6.5 Imperial Valley earthquake, the near-fault stations of the 2023
 285 Mw 7.8 Kahramanmaraş earthquake also show no horizontal polarity at high frequen-
 286 cies ([Figure 5c](#)). Therefore, we suspect that the planar-heterogeneity mechanism might
 287 not be sufficient to model the observed loss of radiation polarity at high frequencies in
 288 the 2023 Mw 7.8 Kahramanmaraş earthquake.

289 **5.1.2 Complex fault geometry**

290 Complex fault geometry can perturbate the rupture process and generate high-frequency
 291 radiation ([Figure 8b](#)), such as small-scale roughness (e.g., [Dunham et al., 2011](#); [Shi &](#)
 292 [Day, 2013](#); [Mai et al., 2018](#); [Withers, Olsen, Day, & Shi, 2018](#); [Withers, Olsen, Shi, &](#)
 293 [Day, 2018](#); [Taufiqurrahman et al., 2022](#); [Vyas et al., 2023](#)) and large-scale fault bend and
 294 stepovers (e.g., [Adda-Bedia & Madariaga, 2008](#); [Hu et al., 2018](#); [Lozos et al., 2025](#)). Vari-
 295 ation in fault geometry can cause heterogeneous radiation patterns, leading to a lower
 296 FN/FP ratio compared to a planar fault model.

297 Assuming a characteristic wave speed of 2-4 km/s, the observed ~ 0.4 Hz transi-
 298 tion frequency corresponds to a transition complexity wavelength of 5-10 km. Substan-
 299 tial variation in the main fault surface rupture at such a long wavelength has not been
 300 observed ([Reitman, Briggs, Barnhart, Hatem, et al., 2023](#); [J. Meng et al., 2024](#); [Provost](#)
 301 [et al., 2024](#)). Notably, [Graves and Pitarka \(2016\)](#) showed that the FN/FP ratio at high
 302 frequencies cannot be reduced to around unity with a reasonable roughness configura-
 303 tion for the 1979 Mw 6.5 Imperial Valley earthquake. These results lead us to suspect
 304 that geometrical complexity may not be the key factor in causing the ~ 0.4 Hz transi-
 305 tion frequency observed in the 2023 Mw 7.8 Kahramanmaraş earthquake, although more
 306 quantitative models are needed to test this hypothesis.

307 **5.1.3 Dynamic triggering of off-fault structures**

308 Another popular hypothesis for high-frequency radiation is considering off-fault struc-
 309 tures triggered by the main rupture (Figure 8c). A conceptual model of this category
 310 is existing smaller faults dynamically triggered by the main rupture front. This idea can
 311 be extended from the subevent hypothesis of high-frequency radiation (e.g., Hanks, 1979;
 312 Boatwright, 1982, 1988; Frankel, 1991, 1995; Zeng et al., 1994, 1995; Zeng & Anderson,
 313 1996), except that the subevents do not need to have the same focal mechanisms as the
 314 main rupture (Zeng et al., 1995), and that each subevent's slip does not need to equal
 315 the main fault's slip at the corresponding location (Frankel, 1995).

316 The seismicity around the EAF contains many normal faulting events, as suggested
 317 by both background seismicity (Güvercin et al., 2022) and the aftershocks of the Mw 7.8
 318 Kahramanmaraş earthquake (Petersen et al., 2023; Güvercin, 2024; Wan et al., 2024; Ma
 319 et al., 2024; O. Tan, 2025). If many normal faults were dynamically triggered during the
 320 Mw 7.8 main rupture, the resulting ground motions would be the combination of main-
 321 fault strike-slip radiation and the sub-fault normal-slip radiation; in that case, a loss of
 322 polarity and coherence of the ground motions at high frequencies is expected. Consid-
 323 ering a characteristic transition complexity wavelength of 5-10 km, the largest dynam-
 324 ically triggered events would have a magnitude of 5 to 6 (Wells & Coppersmith, 1994),
 325 consistent with the large normal faulting event magnitudes observed in the seismotec-
 326 tonic studies of EAF (Güvercin et al., 2022).

327 An alternative model is off-fault damage dynamically created by the main rupture
 328 front (e.g., Ben-Zion & Ampuero, 2009; Castro & Ben-Zion, 2013; Okubo et al., 2019;
 329 Ben-Zion et al., 2024). The dynamic strain induced by the rupture front can be large
 330 enough to damage the nearby medium. The creation of damage simultaneously radiates
 331 seismic energy, adding to the original wave fields. The damage radiation could be dif-
 332 ferent from the main rupture radiation (e.g., Ben-Zion & Ampuero, 2009). As a result,
 333 the total radiation would lose polarity and coherence at higher frequencies when the ra-
 334 diation wavelength is comparable to or smaller than the damage size.

335 If the off-fault damage model were responsible for the Mw 7.8 Kahramanmaraş earth-
 336 quake, we might predict a 5-10 km coseismic damage based on the ~ 0.4 Hz transition
 337 frequency, which has not yet been reported by field observations, to the best of our knowl-
 338 edge. Nevertheless, even if large coseismic damage is not observed, we cannot rule out
 339 that this mechanism affects the radiation at frequencies higher than the 0.4 Hz transi-
 340 tion frequency. More modeling is needed to quantitatively test the off-fault damage mech-
 341 anism for the Mw 7.8 earthquake, such as whether it can reproduce both the low- and
 342 high-frequency spectra without producing too much high-frequency energy, which is a
 343 known issue for other subevent-type models of high-frequency radiation (Frankel, 1995).

344 **5.1.4 Low-velocity zone**

345 Seismic wave speed within a few kilometers of a strike-slip fault is commonly found
 346 to be abnormally lower than the surrounding medium, which is generally believed to be
 347 created by repeated ruptures (e.g., Y.-G. Li et al., 1990, 1994; Vidale & Li, 2003; Ben-
 348 Zion et al., 2003; Y.-G. Li et al., 2004; Cochran et al., 2009). This near-fault structure
 349 is often referred to as a low-velocity zone, or fault damage zone. During co-seismic rup-
 350 ture, the low-velocity zone may trap and scatter the seismic energy emitted by the main
 351 rupture by reflection and refractions (e.g., Y.-G. Li & Vidale, 1996; Ben-Zion, 1998). The
 352 complex wavefield could further alter the dynamic rupture process, causing more com-
 353 plex seismic radiation (e.g., Harris & Day, 1997; Huang et al., 2014).

354 The low-velocity zone has been proposed as a key mechanism for high-frequency
 355 radiation (e.g., Takenaka et al., 2003; Graves & Pitarka, 2016) (Figure 8d). Takenaka
 356 et al. (2003) investigated the S wave radiation pattern from the aftershocks of the 1997

357 Northwestern Kagoshima, Japan, earthquakes, with magnitude ranging from 2.1 to 5.2.
 358 They found that the S wave radiation pattern becomes stochastic above 3.5 Hz. In par-
 359 ticular, they found remarkable differences in radiation patterns above 3 Hz for 12 pairs
 360 of events that are very close to each other. Takenaka et al. (2003) hypothesized that the
 361 strong SH–SV mixing locally occurring around the sources, likely caused by the low-velocity
 362 zone, is responsible for stochastic radiation patterns at high-frequencies.

363 In addition, Graves and Pitarka (2016) found that incorporating a low-velocity zone
 364 has a strong impact on the near-fault FN/FP ratio at high frequencies. Their kinematic
 365 model with fault roughness and stochastic rupture parameters cannot reproduce the ob-
 366 served FN/FP ratio around unity in the 1979 Mw 6.5 Imperial earthquake. Adding a
 367 5 km deep low-velocity zone with stochastic perturbation of velocity can significantly re-
 368 duce the model’s FN/FP ratios at high frequencies by 30%, making them close to the
 369 observed level. Graves and Pitarka (2016) hypothesized that this is due to the multipathing
 370 and scattering of shorter wavelength energy within the low-velocity zone.

371 To the best of our knowledge, no direct evidence has been reported of a low-velocity
 372 zone around the 2023 Mw 7.8 Kahramanmaraş earthquake rupture. However, a low-velocity
 373 zone around the East Anatolian Fault likely exists, considering its common occurrence
 374 in strike-slip fault systems, including the nearby North Anatolian Fault (Ben-Zion et al.,
 375 2003). There is some indirect evidence for a low-velocity zone. One is the extensive off-
 376 fault damage around the Mw 7.8 earthquake surface ruptures (J. Liu et al., 2025). An-
 377 other piece of indirect evidence is the discrepancy between shallow slip and slip at in-
 378 termediate depths, commonly referred to as the shallow slip deficit. Studies have sug-
 379 gested a correlation between shallow slip deficit and the existence of low-velocity zones
 380 (e.g., Fialko et al., 2005; X. Xu et al., 2020; Antoine et al., 2024). Coseismic slip inver-
 381 sion of the Mw 7.8 earthquake indicates a shallow slip deficit (Barbot et al., 2023; Tong
 382 et al., 2023; Jia et al., 2023; L. Xu et al., 2023; W. Wang et al., 2023; Y. Zhang et al.,
 383 2023; J. Liu et al., 2024; T. Kobayashi et al., 2024; K. Wang et al., 2024), suggesting a
 384 possible low-velocity fault zone. Future rupture models of the 2023 Mw 7.8 Kahraman-
 385 maraş earthquake should incorporate a low-velocity zone and test whether the observed
 386 high-frequency radiation characteristics can be reproduced.

387 *5.1.5 Patchy anomalies in the near-fault velocity structure*

388 Seismic wave scattering by small-scale velocity anomalies has long been recognized
 389 as an important mechanism for high-frequency radiation (e.g., Sato et al., 2012; Shearer,
 390 2015). While wave scattering is typically categorized as a path effect, Imperatori and Mai
 391 (2012) showed through numerical models that patchy anomalies in the near-fault veloc-
 392 ity structure can generate stochastic high-frequency radiation, even at very close stations
 393 (Figure 8e). By modeling the high-frequency attenuation structure in Southern Califor-
 394 nia using scattering theory, Lin and Jordan (2023) suggested that crustal velocity het-
 395 erogeneities have a characteristic outer scale of 8 km. Interestingly, this scale aligns with
 396 the 5–10 km transition wavelength suggested by the 0.4 Hz transition frequency observed
 397 in the 2023 Mw 7.8 Kahramanmaraş earthquake. Future numerical simulations may offer
 398 a more quantitative test for this hypothesis.

399 *5.1.6 Elastic impact and collision of discrete structures in the fault zone*

400 Recently, a hypothesis has been proposed suggesting that elastic impacts among
 401 fault zone structures play a key role in generating high-frequency radiation (Tsai & Hirth,
 402 2020; Tsai et al., 2021). This idea is inspired by geological observations showing that fault
 403 zones often contain complex structures, such as granular fault gouges and interconnected
 404 fracture networks (e.g., Chester & Chester, 1998; Faulkner et al., 2003; Swanson, 2006).
 405 During coseismic rupture, these structures may lose frictional contact and impact each
 406 other, accommodating large-scale fault motion in the presence of small-scale geometric

407 incompatibilities (Figure 8f). The radiation produced by these elastic impacts is of higher
 408 frequency than that from large-scale slip motion, due to the short timescale of the im-
 409 pacts.

410 The elastic impact model may help explain the observed loss of radiation polar-
 411 ity and coherence at high frequencies, as indicated by first-order analysis with simpli-
 412 fied theoretical models (Tsai & Hirth, 2020; Tsai et al., 2021). However, it is not imme-
 413 diately obvious whether the elastic impact model can reproduce the transition frequency
 414 of 0.4 Hz in the 2023 Mw 7.8 Kahramanmaraş earthquake with reasonable parameters.
 415 Future research is needed to develop a parameterization scheme that simultaneously in-
 416 corporates elastic impacts and large-scale rupture dynamics within the same rupture model.
 417 This approach would allow for a quantitative test of whether the elastic impact mech-
 418 anism is consistent with multiple lines of evidence, such as mapped fault zone structures,
 419 the transition frequency between low- and high-frequency radiation, and the scaling be-
 420 tween low- and high-frequency spectra.

421 5.2 Source Contribution to High-frequency Radiation in Relation to Path 422 Scattering

423 Scattering from complex structures along the wave path, such as heterogeneous ve-
 424 locity structures and irregular ground topography, has long been recognized as a primary
 425 mechanism determining the stochastic high-frequency radiation characteristics away from
 426 the source (e.g., Takemura et al., 2009; Sato et al., 2012; Takemura et al., 2015; Shearer,
 427 2015). In the following section, we discuss the source contribution to high-frequency ra-
 428 diation in relation to the scattering effects at various distances for the 2023 Mw 7.8 Kahra-
 429 manmaraş earthquake.

430 5.2.1 Near fault (< 10 km)

431 Our analysis shows that the stochastic characteristics exist above 0.4 Hz for the
 432 stations within 10 km of the Mw 7.8 rupture (Figure 3c, 4a). At these stations, high-
 433 frequency waves from near-fault might have only traveled a few wavelengths, and they
 434 arrive simultaneously with the polarized low-frequency radiation (rather than being coda).
 435 It suggests that the dominant mechanisms for the stochastic high-frequency character-
 436 istics are likely to occur on or near the fault. It is still possible that near-fault scatter-
 437 ing structures, such as patchy seismic velocity perturbation, cause the observed stochas-
 438 tic characteristics (Imperatoro & Mai, 2012), but the cause is unlikely the seismic veloc-
 439 ity perturbation away from the fault.

440 5.2.2 Regional distance (10-190 km)

441 At a regional distance, the scattering effect becomes significant for high-frequency
 442 radiation. However, there might still be imprints of the source in the high-frequency char-
 443 acteristics. We test this hypothesis by investigating 60 stations that are beyond 10 km
 444 of the Mw 7.8 rupture and recorded the Mw 7.8 radiation with a signal-to-noise ratio
 445 greater than 10 (Table S1). The most distant selected station is 190 km away from the
 446 fault. It is challenging to perform frequency-dependent polarity analysis as in Section
 447 3 because the theoretical polarity at low frequency is strongly affected by the finite fault
 448 effect. Nevertheless, we can still perform the frequency-dependent coherence analysis as
 449 in Section 4, since we do not need to assume a polarity direction to calculate correlation
 450 coefficients.

451 For simplicity, we do not window the records of these 60 stations, and the records
 452 contain the whole event radiation. The results are shown in Figure 9a. The individual
 453 frequency-dependent correlation coefficient curves for the 60 regional stations show no-
 454 table variation, likely due to specific crustal scattering along individual ray paths. How-

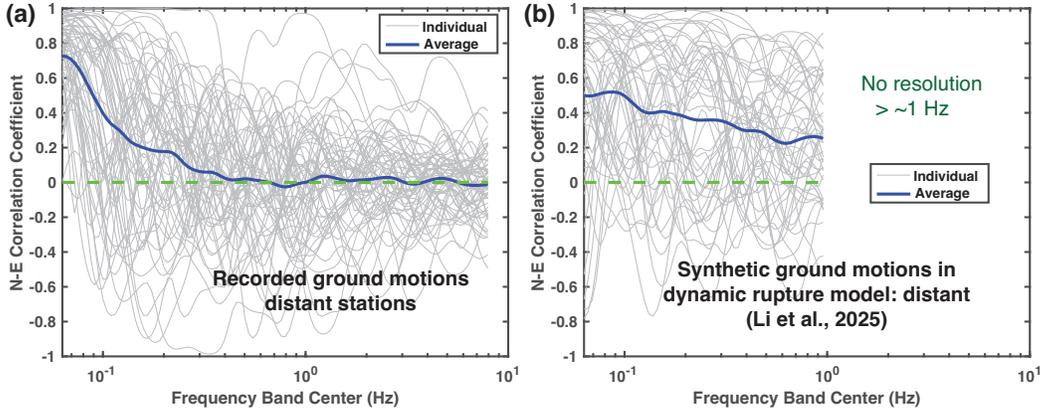


Figure 9. (a) Correlation coefficient between north- and east-component acceleration filtered in a moving frequency band for 60 regional stations more than 10 km away from the fault and with a signal-to-noise ratio greater than 10 (grey triangles in Figure 1a). The whole record is used for these 60 stations. The frequency band center interval and bandwidth are 0.2 and 1, respectively, in logarithmic (base 10) space. Gray lines represent the correlation coefficients of individual stations, and the blue line represents the average. (b) Similar to (a), except the data are synthetic ground motions more than 10 km away from the fault from the dynamic rupture model in B. Li et al. (2025). We included data from 48 out of the 60 station locations in (c); 12 stations were not included because there are no collocated nodes in the numerical mesh. The name and location of these regional stations can be found in Table S1.

455 ever, the stacked frequency-dependent correlation coefficient exhibits the same transi-
 456 tion behavior as the stacked correlation coefficient of the 19 stations within 10 km of the
 457 fault (Figure 7c), with the transition frequency also occurring at ~ 0.4 Hz. The stacked
 458 frequency-dependent correlation coefficient reflects a common factor across all the records,
 459 which is the source. This suggests that the high-frequency radiation characteristics near
 460 the rupture front are preserved as the waves propagate over regional distances.

461 Many studies have reported frequency-dependent radiation patterns for earthquakes
 462 with moderate magnitudes (M2-5) (e.g., Satoh, 2002; Takenaka et al., 2003; Castro et
 463 al., 2006; Takemura et al., 2009; M. Kobayashi et al., 2015; Kotha et al., 2019; Trugman
 464 et al., 2021). Among these, two studies have suggested that high-frequency radiation at
 465 distant stations retains near-fault characteristics. Takenaka et al. (2003) observed dis-
 466 tortion in the S-wave radiation pattern above 3.5 Hz at hypocentral distances of 12-20
 467 km for aftershocks of the 1997 Northwestern Kagoshima, Japan, earthquakes. Notably,
 468 12 pairs of events less than 500 meters apart exhibited significant differences in high-frequency
 469 radiation, suggesting a near-fault origin for these stochastic characteristics. Trugman et
 470 al. (2021) found that the P-wave radiation pattern becomes isotropic for small earthquakes
 471 in Oklahoma, United States. They observed no systematic trends in the residuals or wave-
 472 field fits as a function of hypocentral distance, from ~ 3 to 35 km, implying that high-
 473 frequency characteristics bear the imprint of the source. Future studies could investigate
 474 the high-frequency characteristics of small earthquakes near the East Anatolian Fault,
 475 though this lies beyond the scope of the current study.

476 5.2.3 Teleseismic distance

477 At teleseismic distances, recorded radiation originates from the downgoing waves
 478 generated by the source. These waves travel into the deep Earth and reach the stations

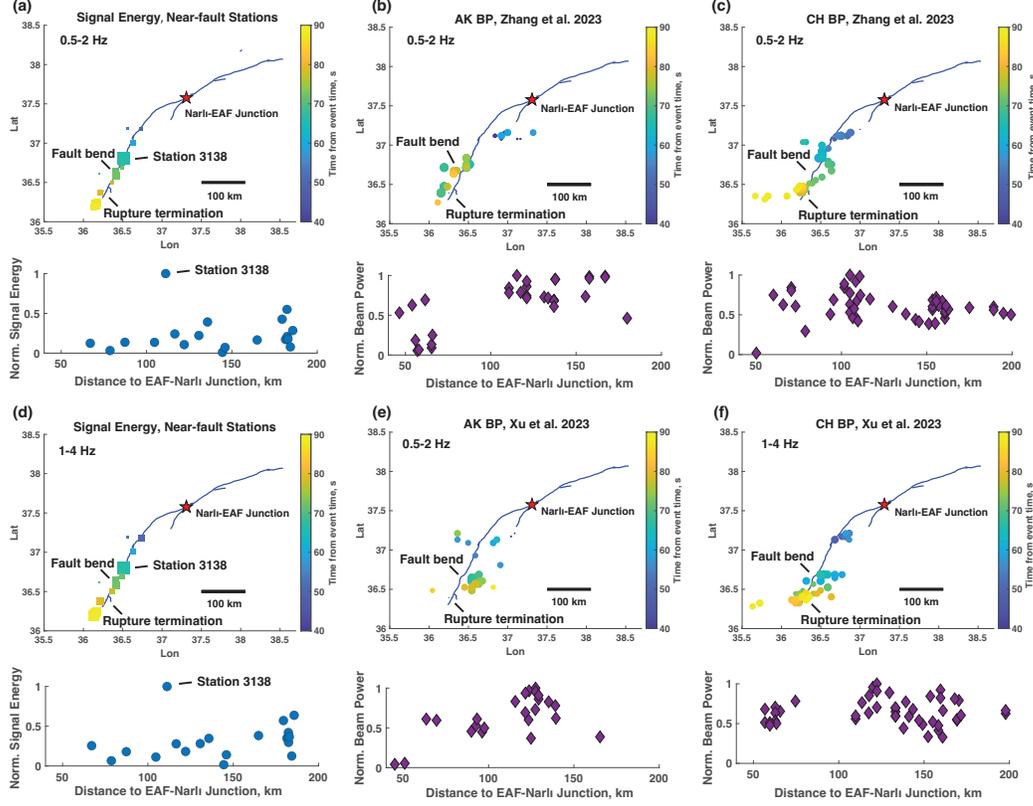


Figure 10. (a), (d) Total signal energy in (a) 0.5-2 Hz and (d) 1-4 Hz for the three-component velocity seismograms from near-fault stations (details in text). The top panels show the spatial distribution of the stations, where color indicates the arrival time of the radiation signal and size represents the normalized amplitude of the signal energy. The bottom panels display the total signal energy normalized by the maximum value as a function of the distance from the stations to the Narli-EAF junction (blue dots). (b), (c), (e), (f) Back-projection beam power reported by two studies using two regional arrays: (b) Y. Zhang et al. (2023), Alaska (AK) array, 0.5-2 Hz; (c) Y. Zhang et al. (2023), China (CH) array, 0.5-2 Hz; (e) L. Xu et al. (2023), Alaska (AK) array, 0.5-2 Hz; (f) L. Xu et al. (2023), China (CH) array, 1-4 Hz. The top panels show the spatial distribution of radiators identified by back-projection along the southern rupture, selected based on conditions of being south of the event hypocenter and occurring within 90 seconds of the event start time. The color represents the time of the radiators, and the size corresponds to the normalized amplitude of the beam power. The surface rupture (blue lines) were obtained from the `simple_fault` files within the fault rupture mapping dataset provided by Reitman, Briggs, Barnhart, Thompson Jobe, et al. (2023). The bottom panels show the beam power normalized by the maximum value as a function of distance from the radiators to the Narli-EAF junction (purple diamonds).

479 from below at a steep angle. Double-couple type source models, such as a finite-fault model
 480 and a multi-point source model, may explain the waveforms up to a particular frequency
 481 (e.g., Ye et al., 2016; Yue & Lay, 2020). However, at higher frequencies, teleseismic wave-
 482 forms become more complex and usually cannot be modeled deterministically. Because
 483 teleseismic radiation might be strongly altered by scattering and attenuation along the
 484 ray path, it is challenging to distinguish whether the high-frequency complexity origi-
 485 nates from the source or path.

486 Nevertheless, the high-frequency radiation sources at different times during a rup-
 487 ture can be located by utilizing arrival time move-outs at different teleseismic stations,
 488 using methods such as back-projection (e.g., Ishii et al., 2005; Krüger & Ohrnberger, 2005;
 489 Y. Xu et al., 2009; H. Zhang & Ge, 2010; Kiser & Ishii, 2011; Koper et al., 2011; H. Yao
 490 et al., 2011; L. Meng et al., 2012; Fan & Shearer, 2015; Yagi & Okuwaki, 2015; Yin et
 491 al., 2016; D. Wang et al., 2016; B. Li & Ghosh, 2017; Bao et al., 2019; F. Tan et al., 2019;
 492 Bao et al., 2022; Yue et al., 2022; Wei et al., 2022; Vera et al., 2024). It is commonly found
 493 that these high-frequency radiators are located near the fault identified by other datasets,
 494 and their trajectory seemingly tracks the rupture propagation process. Therefore, tele-
 495 seismic high-frequency waveforms are often considered to still contain meaningful infor-
 496 mation about the radiation source, even though the exact physical meaning is uncertain
 497 (B. Li et al., 2022).

498 Several back-projection analyses have been published for the 2023 Mw 7.8 Kahra-
 499 manmaraş earthquake (Y. Zhang et al., 2023; L. Xu et al., 2023; Mai et al., 2023; Jia et
 500 al., 2023; Ding et al., 2023; Petersen et al., 2023; Wan et al., 2024). Here, we roughly es-
 501 timated high-frequency radiation energy from the near-fault records and compared it with
 502 the back-projection results in Y. Zhang et al. (2023) and L. Xu et al. (2023), both of which
 503 employ a slowness-enhanced back-projection method (L. Meng et al., 2016) (Figure 10).
 504 We assume that the radiation recorded at the near-fault stations (Figure 2a) is not sig-
 505 nificantly affected by attenuation, and that the radiation energy from the nearby rup-
 506 ture can be approximated by the kinetic energy from ground motions. The kinetic en-
 507 ergy is assumed to be proportional to the sum of the ground velocity squared at a sta-
 508 tion, which can be calculated as the sum of the signal power from the three-component
 509 velocity seismograms, windowed to include only rupture front radiation. Using Parse-
 510 val’s theorem, we can distribute the total signal energy across different frequencies and
 511 compare the signal energy in a specific frequency band with the back-projection beam
 512 power.

513 The radiation energy patterns estimated from near-fault records show similarities
 514 to the back-projection results. Station 3138 exhibits significant radiation energy, at least
 515 three times greater than any other station, in both the 0.5-2 Hz (Figure 10a) and 1-4 Hz
 516 (Figure 10d) bands. The above-average signal energy of Station 3138 is also reported by
 517 S. Yao and Yang (2025). The four back-projection analyses in Y. Zhang et al. (2023) and
 518 L. Xu et al. (2023) all identify high-frequency radiators with relatively larger beam power
 519 near Station 3138 (Figure 10b, 10c, 10e, 10f), located approximately 110 km from the
 520 Narh-EAF junction. We hypothesize that the increased high-frequency radiation is re-
 521 lated to the fault bend south of Station 3138, or to rupture speed variations between sub-
 522 shear and supershear rupture (Figure 2a). Additionally, stations south of the fault bend
 523 exhibit greater high-frequency radiation energy than those to the north, a pattern also
 524 observed in the back-projection results. This “south greater than north” trend contrasts
 525 with the coseismic static slip distribution, where the fault segment north of the bend ex-
 526periences greater slip than the southern segment (e.g., Ma et al., 2024; S. Yao & Yang,
 527 2025). The greater high-frequency radiation south of the fault bend might be associated
 528 with the complex fault structures near the rupture termination or the rupture directiv-
 529 ity effect.

530 We note that the comparison presented above relies on several assumptions, and
 531 there are clear differences between the teleseismic back-projection results and the radi-

532 ation energy estimated from the near-fault stations. The choice of processing procedures
 533 in specific back-projection methods may also play a role. We compared the radiation en-
 534 ergy patterns estimated from near-fault records with those from three other back-projection
 535 studies that provided radiation energy estimates (Mai et al., 2023; Petersen et al., 2023;
 536 Wan et al., 2024). The aforementioned characteristics are not as clear in these studies
 537 (Figure S12, S13, S14). A more detailed comparison between the back-projection results
 538 and near-fault strong-motion records would be valuable in future studies, but it is be-
 539 yond the scope of the present work.

540 In any case, the shared features observed between near-fault and teleseismic high-
 541 frequency radiation suggest that the high-frequency radiation source, regardless of its
 542 nature, may retain its characteristics at teleseismic distances, despite scattering and at-
 543 tenuation along the ray path. This result supports recent studies that propose using back-
 544 projection radiators to quickly assess near-fault seismic hazards after major earthquakes
 545 (e.g., Feng & Meng, 2018; Smith & Mooney, 2021; Chen et al., 2022, 2023).

546 5.3 Challenges in Modeling Realistic High-frequency Radiation

547 High-frequency ground motions of large earthquakes have been recognized as stochas-
 548 tic, of finite-duration, and band-limited (e.g., Housner, 1947; Hanks & McGuire, 1981).
 549 While the high-frequency spectrum amplitude may be predicted by classic models, the
 550 time series usually cannot be synthesized deterministically with a physical model (Hanks,
 551 1979; McGuire & Hanks, 1980). Instead, the high-frequency ground motions are usually
 552 modeled empirically with stochastic Green’s functions (e.g., Boore, 1983; Hartzell et al.,
 553 1999; Boore, 2003; Motazedian & Atkinson, 2005) or as a stochastic rupture process (e.g.,
 554 Zeng et al., 1994; P. Liu et al., 2006; Gallovič & Brokešová, 2007; Graves & Pitarka, 2010;
 555 Withers, Olsen, Day, & Shi, 2018; Taufiqurrahman et al., 2022). Many simulations of
 556 broadband ground motions utilize a hybrid scheme, where low- and high-frequency wave-
 557 forms are separately calculated by deterministic and stochastic models, respectively, and
 558 are combined together following specific rules (e.g., Kamae et al., 1998; P. Liu et al., 2006;
 559 Gallovič & Brokešová, 2007; Frankel, 2009; Pulido & Dalguer, 2009; Mai et al., 2010; Irikura
 560 & Miyake, 2011).

561 While current stochastic models have achieved significant success, they do not cap-
 562 ture all the characteristics of high-frequency radiation. The transition boundary between
 563 low- and high-frequency simulations is typically set empirically (e.g., Hartzell et al., 1999)
 564 and considered constant across different earthquakes, which may misrepresent reality (Frankel,
 565 2009; Ben-Zion et al., 2024). In fact, the observed transition boundary of ~ 0.4 Hz for
 566 the 2023 Mw 7.8 Kahramanmaraş earthquake is lower than the commonly accepted value
 567 of 1 Hz. A similar conclusion was reached by Čejka et al. (2023), who found that a tran-
 568 sition boundary around 0.4 Hz is necessary for their hybrid broadband simulations to
 569 accurately reproduce the observed ground motions. Additionally, stochastic models may
 570 fail to capture changes in frequency content over time (Frankel, 1995) and may under-
 571 estimate the degree of correlation between frequencies (e.g., Stafford, 2017; Bayless, 2018)
 572 and stations (e.g., Loth & Baker, 2013). Our results, along with other characterizations
 573 of the 2023 Kahramanmaraş earthquake’s strong ground motions, could serve as valu-
 574 able observational benchmarks for future studies aimed at improving the design of stochas-
 575 tic ground motion simulations.

576 Dynamic rupture models provide rupture scenarios and ground motions that phys-
 577 ically coordinate stress conditions, fault geometries, friction and deformation rheology
 578 on and off the fault, as well as the elastic and inelastic response of the medium (e.g., Har-
 579 ris et al., 2018). As such, they can be used to simulate both low- and high-frequency ra-
 580 diation in a self-consistent manner. Several studies have developed dynamic rupture mod-
 581 els for the 2023 Mw 7.8 Kahramanmaraş earthquake to explain the observed low-frequency
 582 ground motion characteristics (e.g., Z. Wang et al., 2023; Jia et al., 2023; Gabriel et al.,

2023; Ding et al., 2023; He et al., 2024; B. Li et al., 2025). However, these models may not fully account for the observed 0.4 Hz transition between low- and high-frequency radiation, even though some are constrained by multiple datasets, including surface rupture, aftershock locations, coseismic deformation, the regional stress field, and 3D velocity structure. To illustrate this point, we apply polarity and correlation analyses to the synthetic ground motions from the dynamic rupture model in B. Li et al. (2025), which can numerically resolve ground motion up to 1 Hz, using the same methods and station locations as in Section 3 and Section 4. We did not observe a behavioral transition at 0.4 Hz in either the horizontal polarity (Figure 5d) or signal coherence (Figure 7b, 9b).

To reproduce realistic high-frequency ground motions with dynamic rupture models, it is generally believed that some stochastic source representations or parameterizations are necessary. Significant progress has been made over the last two decades with advancements in computational capabilities, such as incorporating heterogeneous stress and friction conditions on a planar fault (e.g., Ripperger et al., 2007, 2008; Baumann & Dalguer, 2014; Andrews & Ma, 2016; Gallovič & Valentová, 2023) and fault roughness (e.g., Withers, Olsen, Day, & Shi, 2018; Withers, Olsen, Shi, & Day, 2018; Taufiqurrahman et al., 2022). However, we suspect that neither the planar-heterogeneity nor the fault roughness parameterizations are sufficient to explain the loss of radiation polarity at 0.4 Hz, as observed in the 2023 Mw 7.8 Kahramanmaraş earthquake (Section 5.1.1, Section 5.1.2). Additional mechanisms, such as dynamically-triggered off-fault structures (Section 5.1.3), low-velocity fault zone (Section 5.1.4), patchy anomalies in the near-fault velocity structure (Section 5.1.5), and elastic collision of discrete fault zone structures (Section 5.1.6), might help explain the observations.

6 Conclusion

In this study, we investigated the near-field strong-motion acceleration records of the 2023 Mw 7.8 Kahramanmaraş earthquake and explored its high-frequency radiation mechanisms. We observed a loss of horizontal polarity for radiation above ~ 0.4 Hz, suggesting that additional mechanisms near the fault, operating at smaller wavelengths, are needed to generate radiation in addition to the double-couple radiation produced by the main rupture front. At ~ 0.4 Hz, we also observed a loss of signal coherence between horizontal components, indicating that these small-scale mechanisms contribute to the transition from coherent low-frequency radiation to stochastic high-frequency radiation. The ~ 0.4 Hz transition boundary between low- and high-frequency radiation is lower than the commonly accepted rule-of-thumb value of 1 Hz.

Spectrograms from the near-fault stations show that high- and low-frequency radiation arrive simultaneously. Given their proximity to the fault, the recorded high-frequency radiation likely originated from the rupture front, rather than from scattering sources away from the fault or significantly behind the rupture front. At regional and teleseismic distances, scattering and attenuation may strongly alter high-frequency waveforms. Nevertheless, imprints of the source radiation may still be preserved, which could potentially be extracted using a specific method.

We summarize six types of high-frequency radiation mechanisms at or near the source and discuss their applicability in explaining the observed high-frequency characteristics of this earthquake. We suspect that the commonly used mechanism, which incorporates heterogeneous rupture parameters on a planar fault, may not be sufficient to explain the observed loss of horizontal polarity. Other mechanisms are conceptually possible; however, the quantitative tools needed to thoroughly test these potential mechanisms against observations are currently lacking. To first order, the ~ 0.4 Hz transition frequency corresponds to a complexity wavelength of 5-10 km, assuming a characteristic wave speed of 2-4 km/s. This suggests that the high-frequency radiation mechanism may extend up to a wavelength of 5-10 km. Our results highlight the need for improved earthquake source

634 parameterization to assess high-frequency ground motion hazards and may provide valu-
 635 able constraints for future theoretical studies on high-frequency radiation mechanisms.

636 Open Research Section

637 The strong motion data used in this research were obtained from the Disaster and
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 639 event-detail/17966](https://tadas.afad.gov.tr/event-detail/17966) (last accessed May 2024).

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