

TSUNAMIS: CAUSES, CONSEQUENCES, PREDICTION AND RESPONSE

Boris W. Levin

Shirshov Institute of Oceanology, RAS, Moscow, Russia

Keywords: Tsunami, seaquake, oceanic earthquake, generation, oscillating structures.

Contents

1. Introduction.
2. Causes of tsunamis.
3. Consequences of tsunamis and kindred phenomena.
4. Tsunami prediction and tsunami warning systems around the world.
5. Tsunami mitigation and steps to reduce potential losses.

Glossary

Bibliography

Biographical Sketch

Summary

Tsunami waves rank the fifth among the world's natural hazards in terms of the number of casualties. This article presents the essentials of a tsunami event which may be induced by a bottom earthquake, a submarine landslide, underwater volcano eruption, atmospheric disturbance, cosmic body fall or the decomposition of a gas hydrate at the shelf. These gravity waves at the water surface occur in the sea as the result of a large-scale fast-acting disturbance on the water basin. The typical length of a tsunami wave is from 1 to 1000 km, the event's duration may run between 5 and 100 minutes, the propagation velocity is from 1 to 200 m s⁻¹, and the wave height may reach up to 10 - 30 m above the coastline. The peculiarities of tsunamis, seaquakes and unusual seism-generated kindred phenomena in the open ocean are presented in this article. What one should know about tsunami prediction and means of warning and salvaging are described in the article. Recent development of tsunami warning systems in the USA, Japan, Russia, France, and other countries are also discussed.

1. Introduction

If you are planning to visit a country of volcanoes and earthquakes - Japan, the Kuril Islands or Kamchatka - you will be surely ready for a surprise at any time. And when you have set up a camp at the coast of the bluest warm sea for fine days of relaxation with your friend (or for an expedition survey) you hardly expect an invasion of water in the form of a deadly tsunami wave. The ocean is the forefather of humankind, and continues to be its strict teacher.

Often a tsunami wave warns of its arrival with roaring and rumbling from the ocean, but sometimes a rising wall of water approaches silently and imperceptibly. A flowering and crowded sea-coast may be transformed into devastated ruins in a matter of minutes (Paramushir, USSR, 1952; Okushiri, Japan, 1993; Papua New Guinea, 1998; Izmit,

Turkey, 1999). The consequences of the giant earthquake and tsunami in Lisbon in 1755 are imaged in the ancient etching (Figure 1).

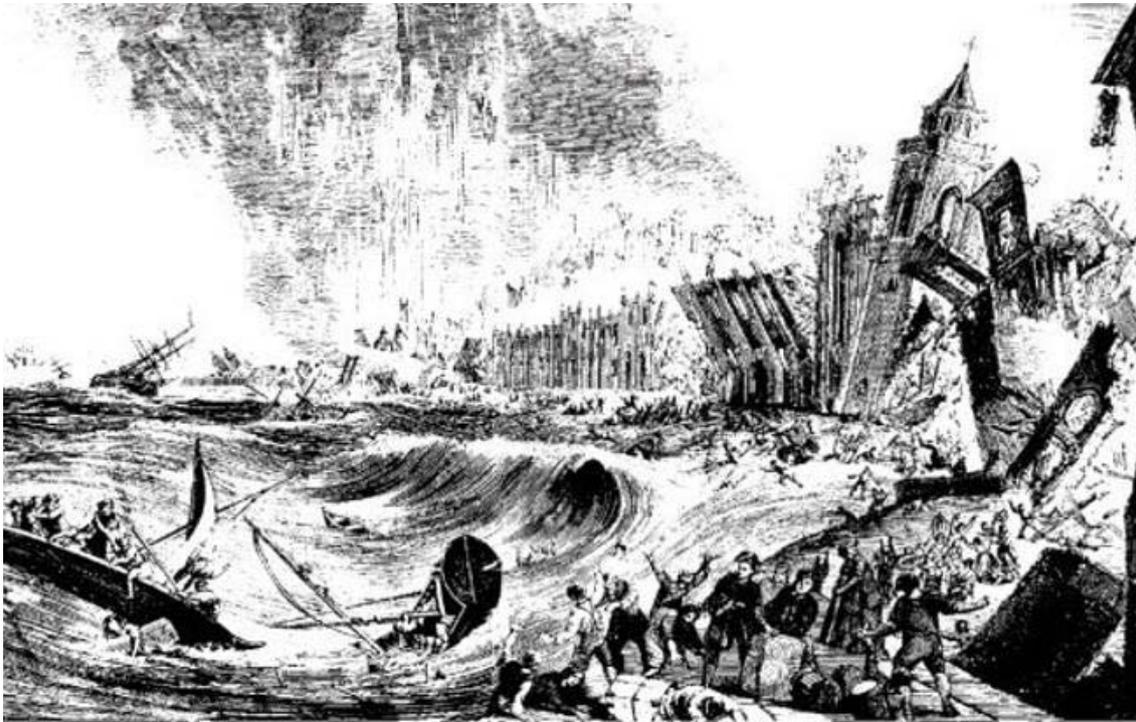


Figure 1. Computer copy of etching “Earthquake at Lisbon in 1755,” Mary Evans Picture Library, London, England.

Tsunami (translated from Japanese for “a big wave in a harbor”) is a sequence of long gravity water waves, propagating with high velocity from a tsunami source in the ocean (a large-scale zone of short-lived disturbances on the water surface) to the coastline. Local rising or sinking of the water-level in the ocean may be rather small, about 10 meters. At the same time, the large horizontal size of the geophysical disturbance, which is in the order of 100 km above the bottom earthquake, may give rise to a gravity wave about 100 km in length. The wave propagates from the source with a velocity of long gravity water waves in accordance with the equation

$$C_G = (g H)^{1/2}, \quad (1)$$

where g is the acceleration due to gravity, and H is the depth of the basin. Because the average depth of the world ocean is 4 km, the typical velocity of tsunami in the ocean is 200 m s^{-1} or 720 km h^{-1} .

Such a wave, propagating with the velocity of an airplane, may traverse the Pacific ocean in 10-12 hours and bring down a wall of water 10 m high with a velocity of more than 70 km h^{-1} upon a calm ocean beach. The wave velocity is decreased near the coastline because of shallower water and the slowing of the wave by the roughness of the bottom. The steepness of the wave is increasing because the crest of the wave moves faster than the trough of the wave, whose motion is delayed by the bottom impact.

2. Causes of tsunamis

2.1. Generation of a tsunami by earthquake

Many large underwater earthquakes, whose epicenters are dislocated at the bottom of ocean or sea, are able to generate tsunami waves. These events, so-called tsunamigenic earthquakes (i.e. tsunami-making), are characterized by high energy, and the magnitude on the Richter scale are $M > 7.0$. The horizontal size of the zone of the strongest bottom oscillations for such an event may be as great as 100 km or more.

The oscillating motions of the bottom during the tsunamigenic event are noted for the following parameters: vertical oscillation amplitude $\sim 1 - 100$ cm, particular velocity $\sim 10 - 100$ cm s^{-1} , acceleration due to gravity is around 0.5 g. Such a velocity on the bottom of $U = 1$ m s^{-1} leads to the occurrence of an acoustic wave with a pressure amplitude equal to $P = 15$ atmospheres ($P = \rho c U = 10^3$ kg $m^{-3} \times 1,5 \cdot 10^3$ m $s^{-1} \times 1$ m $s^{-1} = 1,5 \cdot 10^6$ Pa = 15 atmosphere; here ρ is the density of water, c - sound velocity).

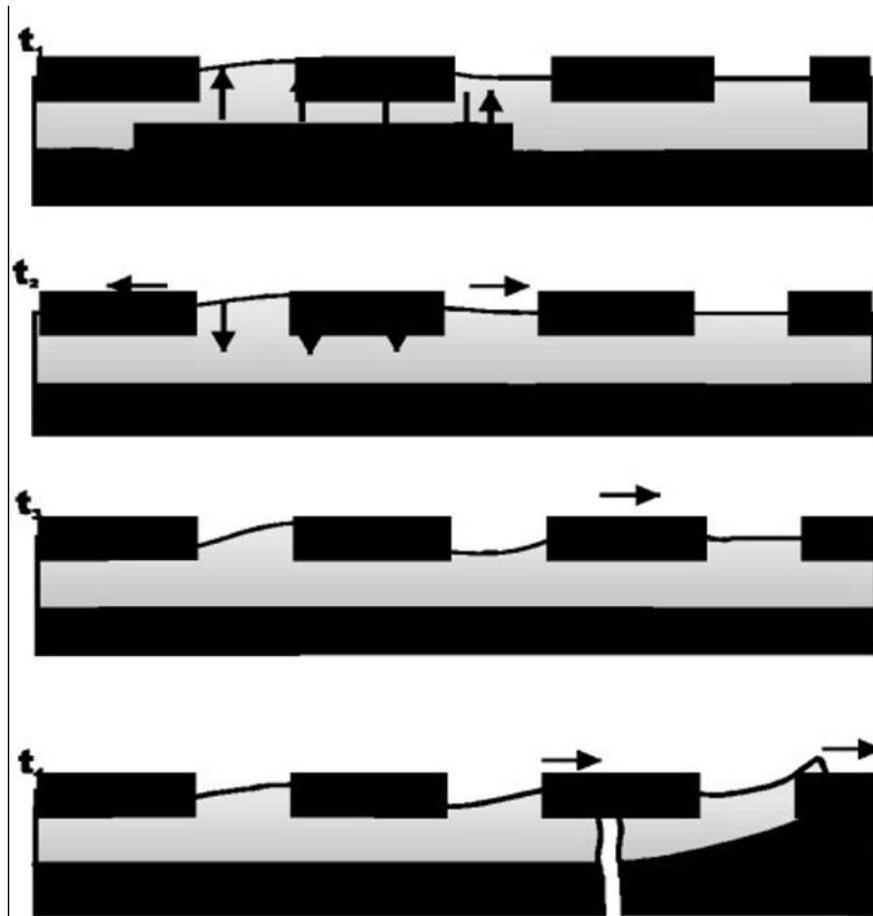


Figure 2. Schematic drawing of the tsunami generation by the bottom oscillating motion

In some instances, the earthquake may initiate faults and fractures in bottom rock. The blocks of crust are displaced up/down relative to each other and along the direction of the fault plane horizontal. The dimension of vertical displacement may reach 5 meters,

and horizontal displacement may reach 20 meters or more. Finite displacement of the crust blocks, combined with bottom oscillating motion, often leads to generation of submarine landslides, revival of active faults, intensive emission of fluids transporting matter out of the Earth's interior.

As the intensive oscillating motion of the bottom takes place in an area whose size is much greater than the thickness of the water layer, in certain situations, a rise or elevation is formed at the water surface (Figure 2).

The rise continues for the whole oscillation period, which is approximately 100 seconds for a large earthquake. When the bottom trembling stops, the sea surface elevation that was induced by seismic energy begins to spread over the surface with the release of gravity water waves from the source.

The directional diagram of generated waves depends on the form of the source and the relief of the bottom. The length of the wave comprises about 50-100 km in the open ocean, the period of wave is close to 10-20 minutes, and the maximum trough-to crest wave height is ~ 10 meters. Such a wave characterized by steepness of less than 1/1000 (ratio of amplitude to the length of the wave) will be practically unnoticed in the open ocean.

In the case of finite displacement of the ocean crust blocks due to earthquake, water elevation may occur over a large part of the ocean surface (at the overfault of bottom rocks) as well as the trough at the standard level of the ocean (after the strike-slip fault). After discontinuance of bottom motion, the generated disturbance of the water level (Figure 3) spreads over the surface in accordance with hydrodynamics laws radiating the gravity waves, much like the previous scheme (see Figure 2).

When a tsunami wave propagates in the ocean and arrives at the coastline, it is transformed due to non-linear and dispersion effects. Thus, the same wave may reach one section of the coast as a crest but reach another as a leading trough.

In reality, the tsunami usually arrives at the coastline as a wave train whose parameters depend on many factors. Sometimes the reflux appears as the first event before a tsunami wave, and the ocean bottom is uncovered far from the coastline (up to 1 km!). After some time, the reflux is converted into a distant wave that occupies the whole horizon and moves to the coast with a deafening roar. When the first wave of a tsunami passes into shallow water, the wave front becomes very steep (nearly vertical) due to slowing of the bottom water layer. The velocity of the tsunami run-up becomes close to 70 km h^{-1} , and its height may reach more than 10-15 meters. After the first wave, a second wave and following waves may come to the coastline. The period between arrivals of following waves may be of the order of 20 minutes.

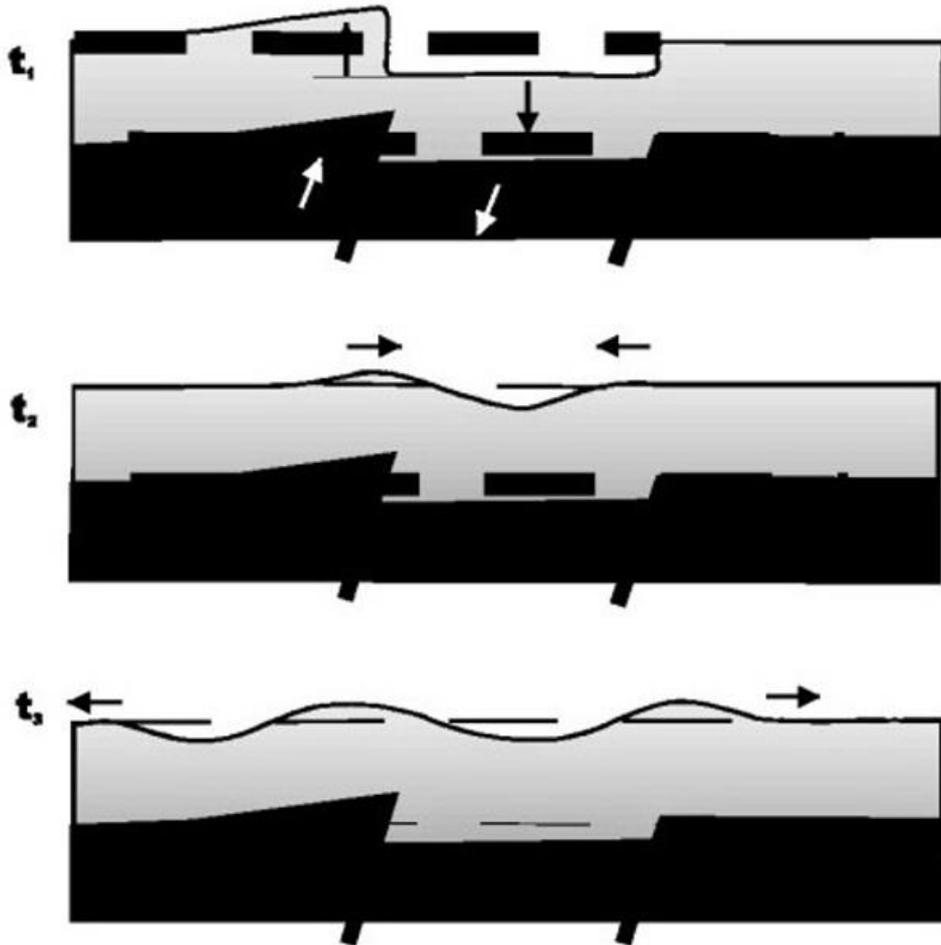


Figure 3. Schematic drawing of the tsunami generation by the bottom block displacement.

2.2. Tsunamis induced by submarine landslide and landfall.

A landslide-created tsunami, as a rule, has a local character. However, in the case of an extensive landslide involving the bottom sediments of the continental shelf or at the fall of a marine glacier into sea, the tsunami source may reach a size of several kilometers. These tsunami waves have a huge height and present a real hazard to the coastal population. The large landslide containing a mixture of rock debris and ice blocks with a volume of $30 \times 10^6 \text{ m}^3$ that occurred in the Lituya Bay, Alaska because of the earthquake in Alaska on July 9, 1958 generated a tsunami wave with maximum trough-to-crest wave heights of ~ 60 meters. And believe it or not, an enormous run-up of the mega-tsunami washed out trees to a maximum altitude of 525 meters at the entrance of Gilbert Inlet! Much of the rest of the shoreline of the Lituya Bay was denuded by the tsunami from 30 to 200 meters altitude.

An landfall of caving coast, a break-away and the sliding of rock/ice blocks into the sea, occurrence of the bottom landslide and turbid flows, snow avalanches, or failure of harbor constructions may be responsible for tsunami generation. Quite a number of

tsunamis generated by landslides and/or landfalls have been observed on the shelf off the south-eastern Alaska coast, near the coast of Canada, as well as in Norway, France, Italy.

A landslide motion process is usually caused by long-term accumulation of sediments at some ocean bottom areas, submarine slopes of basins, into the river deltas. The accumulated sediments are subjected to streams, storms, wind waves, tides, hurricanes, tectonic processes, and after this the landslide body comes into non-equilibrium. In this case, any weak perturbation action (micro-earthquake, meteorological disturbance, tide, etc.) plays a leading role as a trigger mechanism for failure of the unstable slide body. It is known that long-term rain, snow fall, and river inundation may provoke a landslide motion. The displacement of the landslide downwards leads to the local rise of the sea level above the landslide (Figure 4).

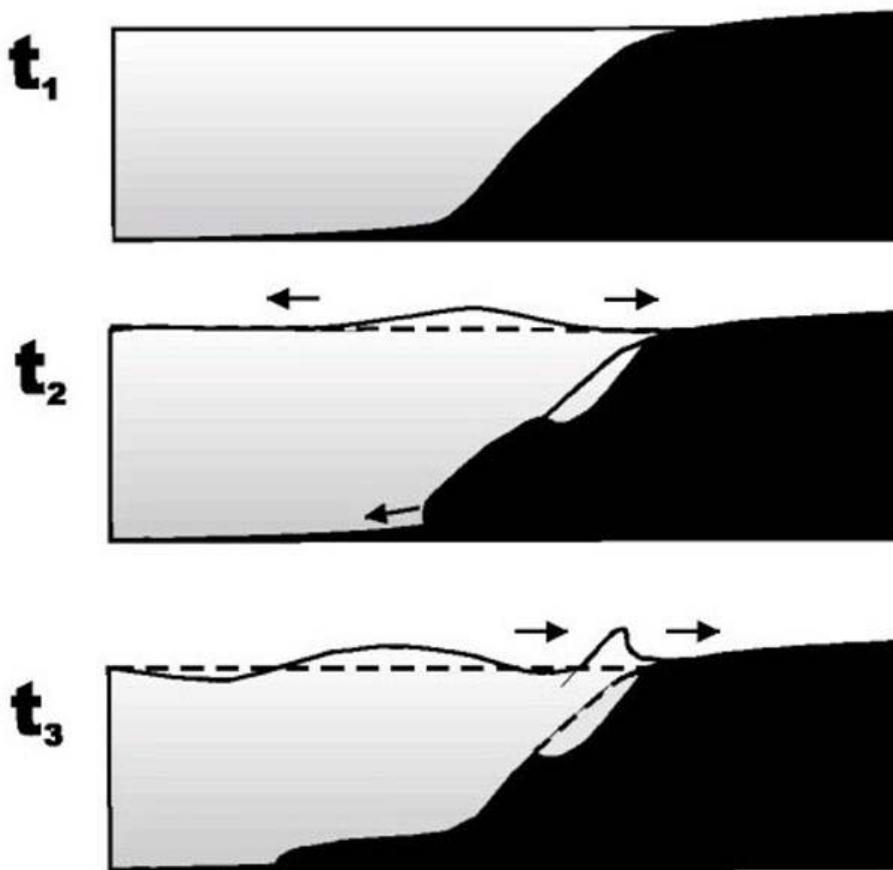


Figure 4. Schematic picture of the tsunami generation by the landslide motion.

When the landslide moves at a velocity equal to the velocity of a long gravity wave in this basin, then synchronism occurs. This specific situation creates a resonance condition for transmission of energy from the landslide to the surface water wave, and the height of the wave crest increases considerably.

In the last few years, landslide tsunamis induced by the failure of coastal constructions has assumed great importance. So, the tsunami in the harbor of Nice, France on October

16, 1979 generated by the sliding and failure of the sea-wall initiated waves several meters in height and caused fatalities. The submarine landslide associated with the dock failure in Skagway Harbor, Alaska on November 3, 1994 gave rise to a series of large-amplitude tsunami waves with maximum wave heights of 9-11 meters at the shoreline. The tsunami killed one person and destroyed many harbor structures.

As shown in the recent studies, the influence of landslides in some catastrophic tsunamis induced by earthquakes is much greater than was believed before. In specific cases, a landslide induced by an earthquake may amplify action of the tsunami wave. For this reason, the July 17, 1998 tsunami near Papua New Guinea (wave height: 10 meters, fatalities: 2182) proved to be more damaging than could be expected from an earthquake with a magnitude of $M = 7.1$. This paradox was explained by amplification of the tsunami due to a submarine landslide just after the earthquake.

A connection has recently been revealed between submarine landslides and the tide. The majority of landslide tsunamis occur at a time of extreme low tide.

2.3. Eruption of a submarine volcano as a cause of tsunamis

The explosions of volcanic islands and explosive eruptions of submarine volcanoes may give rise to great disturbances of the ocean's surface. The explosion of Krakatau in Indonesia on August 26, 1883 induced a tsunami wave that was estimated to be 30 meters high in the Zond strait and 0.5-1.0 meters at the South American shoreline (fatalities nearly reached 36 000). The explosion of Tire Island 36 centuries ago has been attributed to the rise of a destructive tsunami that ruined and killed the mythical Atlantis.

Of a list of 933 active burning volcanoes around the world, 195 are submarine volcanoes. During a submarine volcanic eruption, gaseous products form a gas bubble in the water. This bubble, containing high-temperature volcanic fumes and steam at high pressure, expands and rises to the water surface to cause local elevation of the sea level. This formation is similar to the dome or the plume of an underwater explosion. The energy accumulated in the gas bubble changes into kinetic energy of the water, and then it gives rise to the tsunami wave. The gas bubble may take the form of a sphere (central volcano eruption) or of a cylinder (fissure eruption). The estimations of some volcano eruption parameters (Miyodzin, Japan, 1952; Mt. St. Augustine Volcano, Alaska, 1883) and developed calculation techniques showed that intense eruption (with energy of the order of 10^{17} J) at a depth of 600 meters may create a dome with a diameter of 20 km. An elevation of such size is able to generate only a local tsunami, but the danger of volcano-created tsunamis for neighboring populated areas and for navigation should be taken into account.

2.4. Tsunamis created by atmospheric disturbances.

The intensive long-wave oscillations of the ocean level caused by meteorological perturbation are known as meteotsunami. The occurrence of such tsunamis is due to the propagation of great atmospheric waves, with the passing of a cold atmospheric front (squall) and also with a deep cyclone, typhoon, or a hurricane. The resonance conditions

of generation of the long waves or the coincidence of the atmospheric disturbance velocity with the velocity of the long gravity water wave (see equation (1)) are responsible to the formation of a meteotsunami. From observations it follows that propagation of abrupt change in atmospheric pressure with a velocity of 70-140 km h⁻¹ gave rise meteotsunamis with the wave height of more than 1 meter and a period of 30-60 minutes. In Nagasaki bay, the sudden oscillations of the water level with amplitude of 2 meters caused by oscillations in atmospheric pressure with a 35-minute period have the local name “abiki,” and are believed to be dangerous. The typical length of low-frequency acoustic waves in the atmosphere is several kilometers and may sometimes reach 1000 km (the Krakatau explosion or Tunguska meteorite fall). Similar waves are activated by resonance conditions of generation of long gravity water waves and may create a tsunami propagating to a long distance.

2.5. Tsunami generated by the impact of a cosmic body into the ocean.

The possibility of a destructive tsunami occurring due to the impact of a large meteorite, asteroids and bolides into the ocean has been discussed recently and is of special interest in society. Many geological structures in the shape of rings and circles discovered on all continents have been explained only in the last 30-40 years as traces of a crater from the impact of celestial body with the Earth. Such structures are called “**astroblema**” - the starry wound - and contain shock-metamorphosed rock (the traces of 1 million atmosphere of pressure!) and connected with diamond content deposits. Over 150 similar crater-like objects with a size from 1.2 km (Arizona crater, USA) to 100 km (Popiguy astroblema, East Siberia, Russia) have been found on the Earth. As around 70 percent of meteorites impact into ocean, the bottom of the world ocean apparently retains the traces of hundreds of shocks created by catastrophes of a planetary scale.

Specialists believe that a cosmic body between 50 - 100 meters (such as the Tunguska meteorite, 1908) fall to the Earth once every 50 - 100 years. Events like Revelstoke bolide (1965) with a diameter of 10-20 meters may occur annually. According to hydrodynamic evaluations, the fall of an asteroid with a diameter of 100 meters and a velocity of 20 km s⁻¹ into the ocean gives rise to tsunami waves over 8 meters high at 1000 km from the source.

The present-day concept of underwater explosion physics and the results of nuclear tests in the Pacific allow us to estimate the energy released due to fall of a meteorite (diameter 100 m, velocity 20 km s⁻¹) into the ocean. The energy of the impact is approximately equal to 10¹⁸ J, or one thousand megaton bombs. The gaseous products of the explosion (or high-temperature products of melting and evaporating of matter after the impact) may form a bubble in the water with a radius of around 3 km. Hence, it follows that because of the meteorite falling into a basin less than 3 km deep, a large volume of water is removed from the basin (by means of ejection and evaporation) that must lead to denudation of the bottom over an area of much larger than 1 km (Figure 5).

-
-
-

TO ACCESS ALL THE 23 PAGES OF THIS CHAPTER,
Visit: <http://www.eolss.net/Eolss-sampleAllChapter.aspx>

Bibliography

Basov B.I., Dorfman A.A., Levin B.W., and Kharlamov A.A. (1981). On disturbance of the ocean surface induced by eruption of the submarine volcano. *Vulcanologia i seismologia*, 1, 93-98, (In Russian). [An investigation of parameters of a local water elevation above an acting volcano based on the theory of underwater explosion and original experiments.]

Filonov A.E. (1997). Researchers study tsunami generated by Mexican Earthquake. *EOS*, 78, 3, 21-25. [This work demonstrates the materials of unique records made by offshore buoy gauges near the epicentre.]

Future of Gas Hydrate Research (1999). *EOS*, 80, 22, 245. [A review of gas hydrates in geophysical aspects.]

Kremlev A.N., Soloviev V.A., and Ginsburg G.D. (1997). Reflecting seismic horisont in the basement of the submarine stable zone of gas hydrates. *Geologia i Geofizika*, 38, 11, 1747-1759 (In Russian).[Presents

the results of observation and analysis of gas hydrate deposit characteristics and the description of the discovered zone of free gas under hydrate body boundary.]

Kulikov E.A., Rabinovich A.B., Thomson R.E., and Bornhold B. (1996). The landslide tsunami of November 3, 1994, Skagway Harbour, Alaska. *J. Geophys. Res.*, **101**, C3, 6609-6615. [This article gives a modern analysis of the landslide-created tsunami mechanism on the basis of accurate study of the real event.]

Levin B.W., Kaistrenko V.M., Kryshnij V.M., Kharlamov A.A., and Chepareva M.A. (1993). Physical processes in the ocean as indicators for direct tsunami registration from satellite. *Proc. of the IUGG/IOC Int. Tsunami Sympos.*, Wakayama, Japan, 309-319. [This represents the shock-wave physics approach to the study of seismic phenomena in the ocean.]

Levin B.W. (1996). Nonlinear oscillating structures in the earthquake and seaquake dynamics. *CHAOS*, **6/3**, 405-413. [Provides extensive data concerning conditions of the space-time structures occurrence and experimental study of Faraday ripple with big cells.]

Levin B.W., Nosov M.A., Pavlov V.P., and Rykunov L.N. (1998). Cooling of the Ocean Surface as a Result of Seaquakes. *Dokladi Earth Sciences*, **358**, 1, pp.132-135. [First description of revealed sea surface temperature anomalies above the bottom earthquake.]

Pelinovsky E.N. (1996). *Tsunami waves hydrodynamics*, 275 pp. Nizhny Novgorod, Russia (In Russian).[Dedicated to the theory of tsunami waves at all the stages from generation to waves climbing a beach.]

Petrenko V.E. and Marchuk An.G. (1996). Numerical modeling of cosmogenic tsunamis. *PACON96 Abstract*, Honolulu, Hawaii, USA, 77-88. [Presents the peculiarities of tsunami waves created by meteorite fall in the ocean.]

Rabinovich A.B., and Monserrat S. (1998). Generation of meteorological tsunami (large amplitude seiches) near the Balearic and Kuril Islands. *Natural Hazards*, **18**, 1, 27-55. [Presents the conditions of tsunami generation by atmospheric disturbances.]

Soloviev S.L., Go Ch.N., Kim H.S., Solovieva O.N., and Schetnikov N.A. (2000). *Tsunamis in the Mediterranean Sea. 2000 B.C. - 1991 A.D.* Edited by J.Bonnin, B.Levin, G. Popadopoulos, S.Tinti. Kluwer Acad. Press. (in press). [A catalog of tsunamis that have occurred in the Mediterranean sea region.]

Tinti S. (1993). *Tsunami in the world*. Kluwer Acad. Press. [A review of great tsunami events.]

Biographical Sketch

Levin Boris Wulfovich was born in Moscow, Russia in 1937. Diplomaed Mining Engineer, Moscow, 1959; PhD, Skochinsky Institute of Mining, 1970; Diplomaed Senior Researcher, Russian Academy of Science, Moscow, 1980; Doctor of Science in physics and mathematics, Institute of Geosystems, Moscow, 1990; Diplomaed Professor of physics, Russian Ministry of Education, 2000.

Head of seismology and tsunami station “Kurilsk” in Kurilsk, Kurile Isls., then head of laboratory, Sakhalin Institute of Far East Branch of Russian Academy of Sciences, in Yuzhno-Sakhalinsk, 1971-1980. Head of tsunami laboratory, Shirshov Institute of Oceanology Russian Academy of Sciences, Moscow, since 1998 to present. Director of Geosciences Department, Russian Foundation for Basic Research, Moscow, since 1993 to present. Professor in physics of Moscow State Mining University since 1994 to present. Chairman of Russian Tsunami Commission, member of American Geophysical Union, member of International Tsunami Commission, AGU; member of the Seismological Society of America; member of Scientific Council of Moscow State University and member of editorial council of Journal “Volcanology and Seismology”.

Main articles and edited book:

Levin B.W., Kaistrenko V.M., Kryshnij V.M., Kharlamov A.A., and Chepareva M.A. (1993). Physical processes in the ocean as indicators for direct tsunami registration from satellite. *Proc. of the IUGG/IOC Int. Tsunami Sympos.*, Wakayama, Japan, 309-319.

Levin B.W. (1996). Nonlinear oscillating structures in the earthquake and seaquake dynamics. *CHAOS*,

6/3, 405-413. (Publication of American Institute of Physics).

Levin B.W., Nosov M.A., Pavlov V.P., and Rykunov L.N. (1998). Cooling of the Ocean Surface as a Result of Seaquakes. *Dokladi Earth Sciences*, **358**, 1, pp.132-135.

Levin B.W., Nosov M.A., Rykunov L.N. (1997). Seismogenic ocean upwelling. AGU 1997 Fall Meeting, December 8-12, 1997, San Francisco, California (OS41C-16) Vol.78, N46, Nov 18, S375.