

1 2015). HF itself is also responsible for inducing seismicity, but the maximum observed magnitudes (M
2 4.6) are currently lower than that of WD-induced earthquakes (M 5.9) (e.g. Holland 2013; Friberg et
3 al. 2014; Skoumal et al. 2015c; Atkinson et al. 2016; Bao and Eaton 2016, Chen et al. 2017).

4 The most pronounced increase in the number of induced earthquakes in North America was
5 observed in central and southern USA – Oklahoma, southern Kansas and Texas, where Barnett and
6 Woodford shale plays have been the target of operation and where wastewater has been disposed
7 into the Arbuckle and Ellenburger formations overlaying crystalline basement (Frohlich et al. 2011;
8 Holland 2013; Keranen et al. 2013; Keranen et al. 2014; Walsh and Zoback 2015; Schoenball and
9 Ellsworth 2017). Other areas of recent seismicity induced by WD and HF include Colorado, Arkansas,
10 Ohio, Pennsylvania, West Virginia, New Mexico, Wyoming, Illinois in the USA as well as Alberta and
11 British Columbia in Canada (e.g. Schultz et al., 2018; Skoumal et al., 2018; Kozłowska et al. 2018; Lund
12 Snee & Zoback, 2018).

13 In this paper we review the recent induced seismicity in the Appalachian Basin, where both WD and
14 HF are being performed and have been shown to induce seismicity (Figure 1). The Appalachian Basin
15 extends from New York state in the north to Alabama in the south, along the inland side of the
16 Appalachian mountains. It is a foreland basin built of sedimentary Paleozoic rocks hosting coal, oil,
17 and natural gas deposits. Coal has been mined in Appalachian Basin already for three centuries,
18 whereas oil and gas have been discovered in 19th century and exploited since then. However, gas
19 production in Appalachian Basin radically changed beginning in 2005, when horizontal drilling and HF
20 was first performed in Pennsylvania targeting the unconventional Marcellus Shale. Targeting and
21 production from the Marcellus spread to comparable areas of West Virginia, but the Marcellus
22 shallows and thins considerably in eastern Ohio. With advances in technology, the deeper Utica-Point
23 Pleasant Shale became economically viable in eastern Ohio and operators began drilling and HF this
24 target in 2011.

25 Pennsylvania and West Virginia have been producing natural gas from Marcellus shale play using
26 classical vertical wells for years, however, since 2009 the number of horizontal wells stimulated has
27 rapidly increased creating the need to dispose of large volumes of wastewater (EIA 2018b). Due to
28 the limited disposal capabilities in Pennsylvania (9 disposal wells with low storage capacity), most of
29 the wastewater has been trucked to Ohio, where it was injected underground into Cambrian,
30 Ordovician and Silurian dolomites and sandstones (Kim 2013; Skoumal et al. 2014; 2015b; 2015c;
31 Holtkamp et al. 2015). At that time, the number of horizontal drilling permits in Ohio was low, but
32 ~2800 permits were issued for Utica-Point Pleasant shale plays drillings between 2011 and mid-2018
33 (ODNR 2018b). In the fourth quarter of 2017 alone, 1869 wells in Ohio produced over 14 billion m³ of
34 gas (ODNR 2018c) making Ohio the fifth largest gas producing state in the US in 2017 after being 19th
35 in 2012 (EIA 2018b). As a whole, the dramatic increase of production in the Appalachian Basin makes
36 it currently the largest natural gas producer in the USA (EIA 2018a).

37 Historically, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and West Virginia have had a low level of natural seismicity, with
38 approximately 3 cataloged (M_≥2) earthquakes per year from 1970 to 2009 during modern network
39 recording (Figure 2). Much of this weak activity has been concentrated near the shore of Lake Erie
40 and along the Rome Trough the follows the border between Ohio and West Virginia (Hansen and Ruff
41 2003) (Figure 1). However, this activity included a M 5.0 earthquake in 1986 near Perry, OH
42 (Nicholson et al. 1988), which marked the beginning of a two-decade-long increased seismicity rate
43 in Ohio (Figure 2) that will be discussed in section 2. Seismicity in Ohio then rises to even higher rates
44 from 2010 to the present, including a M 4.0 near the city of Youngstown. This event and the
45 accompanying seismicity rate increase were suspected to be associated with increase in WD and HF,
46 and the strategies and seismic stations used to discern between natural and induced seismicity are
47 reviewed in section 3 (. Although Pennsylvania and West Virginia have not seen similar large
48 increases in seismicity rates, there have been a few cases of induced seismicity in the past decade.
49 The specific cases across the Appalachian Basin that demonstrate the relationships between

1 seismicity and operational activities are described in detail in sections 4 and 5. We then provide some
2 geologic interpretations of induced seismicity in the Appalachian Basin in section 6.

3 2. Potentially Induced Seismicity in 1986-2006

4 Previous studies have identified 3 earthquake sequences in the Appalachian Basin prior to 2010 as
5 potentially induced: 1986 in Lake County, 1987 in Ashtabula County, and 2000-2003 again in
6 Ashtabula County, all in northeast Ohio (Figure 1) (Nicholson et al. 1988; Seeber and Armbruster
7 1993; Seeber et al. 2004; Gerrish and Nieto 2005). The potential relationship of these events to
8 injection activities have reached mixed conclusions, so we will reexamine the available evidence in
9 this section.

10 To provide some context for interpreting the presence of previous seismic activity, northeastern Ohio
11 had a history of ~30 earthquakes prior to the 1986 sequence dating back to the 1800s, which
12 suggests this area is prone to natural seismicity (Nicholson et al. 1988). The seismicity correlates with
13 the prominent Akron magnetic lineament, likely reflecting different lithologies in the Precambrian
14 basement, and a first-order structural boundary interpreted from reflection data (Seeber and
15 Armbruster, 1993). Of these 30 prior events, 3 occurred close to the 1986 Lake County sequence: a
16 body wave magnitude (mb) 4.5-4.7 earthquake in 1943 13 km west of the 1986 event, and two small
17 events (mbLg 2.7 and 2.5) on 22 January and 19 November 1983, less than 5 km from one of the
18 injection wells. The events in 1983 occurred about 30 km from the 1987 and 2000-2003 Ashtabula
19 County sequences, but there are no other known earthquakes within 30 km prior to 1987. Seismicity
20 has continued in Lake and Ashtabula Counties since 2010 (Figure 1), but detailed analysis of recent
21 earthquakes found the seismicity did not occur as long swarms and epicenters were greater than 10
22 km from active wastewater disposal wells and the older wells suspected to have induced seismicity in
23 the 1980s (Skoumal et al. 2015c). These findings were interpreted as evidence the Akron lineament
24 represents a deep fault zone that has continued to host recent small earthquakes of the same natural
25 origin as those prior to 1986.

26 On 31 January 1986, a mb 5.0 earthquake occurred near the southern border of Lake County
27 followed by 13 aftershocks of duration magnitude (Md) 0.5-2.5 on 1 February - 24 March 1986
28 (Nicholson et al. 1988), with an additional mb 2.8 aftershock on 28 December 1988. Two basement-
29 penetrating Class I nonhazardous waste disposal wells ~12 km from the sequence began full-scale
30 injection in 1975 and 1981 into the basal Mt. Simon (1836 m) and Conasauga (1720 m) formations
31 (Nicholson et al. 1988). Injection up ~636 m³/day and ~11 MPa at these wells was suggested to have
32 induced the events 5-11 years later when the effects of injection reached the fault (Nicholson et al.
33 1988). Nicholson et al. (1988) estimated the critical stresses needed to induce fault slip and
34 concluded that without fluid injection the conditions were near, but did not exceed, the necessary
35 stresses to produce failure. However, the modeled pressure increase at the hypocenter was likely
36 less than 0.34 MPa. Injection continued until the wells were plugged in 2004, but the seismicity was
37 quiescent in this area after the initial sequence with only a mb 2.0 earthquake in 2003 ~5 km to the
38 east, and a mb 2.3 earthquake in 2006 ~8 km to the northwest. Fischer (1990) noted that this pattern
39 of seismic activity is atypical of other sequences of allegedly induced earthquakes. While this event is
40 now generally considered to be natural, the influence of the injection wells cannot be ruled out.

41 In July 1987, a separate sequence of 36 earthquakes, mbLg -1.1-3.8, occurred in Ashtabula County,
42 ~45 km northeast of the 1986 sequence (Figure 1). These events outlined a 1.5 km fault less than 1
43 km from an injection well drilled into the basal Mt. Simon (1792 m) and Conasauga (1667 m)
44 formations that began operation approximately a year earlier (Seeber and Armbruster 1993). The
45 waste disposal well was plugged in 1994, and there was an average of one felt earthquake per year
46 between 1987-2003 (Seeber et al. 2004). Intriguingly, earthquake sequences occurred again in 2000-
47 2001 and 2003 about 5 km from the well and included a mb 4.3 event. The initial 1987 earthquake
48 sequence was labeled as induced given the close proximity in space and time to the injection well
49 operations (Seeber and Armbruster 1993), and a later study attributed the 2000-2003 seismicity to

1 the migration of high pore-fluid pressures from the WD well (Seeber et al., 2004). However, pore-
2 pressure modeling for the full Ashtabula seismic sequence by Gerrish and Nieto (2005) found no
3 correlation between injection rates or pressures and the timing of the earthquakes. Instead, the
4 seismicity follows a traditional mainshock-aftershock pattern common to natural earthquakes with
5 the largest magnitude occurring first and the seismicity rate decreasing with time after the initial
6 event. This lacks the swarm-like patterns common to induced sequences such as those at Rocky
7 Mountain Arsenal (Healy et al. 1968), where there are typically a few events near the largest
8 magnitude later in the sequence and the seismicity rate is stable or even increasing with time.
9 Gerrish and Nieto (2005) argued that while Coulomb failure theory cannot rule out triggering of the
10 initial mainshock by the injection operations, the probabilities of shear failure due to effective
11 stresses at the hypocenter are low. Moreover, the same authors noted that there is even less
12 evidence for injection to be inducing new earthquake sequences several kilometers away over 5
13 years later. Instead, they pointed to the historical seismicity along the southern coast of Lake Erie
14 and that the focal mechanism was consistent with tensile failure of basement lithologies along
15 vertical fractures oriented parallel to the major principal regional stress field.

16

17 3. Seismic monitoring and detection of induced earthquakes in the Appalachian Basin

18 Due to the low level of natural seismicity, Ohio did not have a state-sponsored continuous
19 seismic monitoring network. In 1999, the Ohio Seismic Network (OhioSeis) was established and
20 consisted initially of 15, and later even 29 vertical-component midperiod seismometers located
21 primarily at colleges and universities across the State which expressed their willingness in hosting the
22 station as part of their geology outreach (Hansen and Ruff 2003). As a result, the distribution of
23 stations was not uniform. Today the OhioSeis is operated by ODNR and includes 11 permanent
24 broadband stations. Four stations were originally deployed as part of USArray in 2012 and 2013
25 under the EarthScope Project. They were adopted by ODNR and are now used to monitor seismicity
26 in eastern Ohio. Another 10 former USArray stations are still operating in Ohio as a part of Central
27 and Eastern U.S. Network (CEUSN). West Virginia does not operate a state-wide seismic network, but
28 has also benefited from 7 former USArray stations operating as part of the CEUSN.

29 The Pennsylvania State Seismic Network began in 2006 through a partnership between
30 Pennsylvania State University and the Pennsylvania Department of Conservation and Natural
31 Resources (DCNR). Between 2006 and 2013, the network grew to a total of 10 seismic stations spread
32 across the state providing near real time, open access data (Homman, 2015). Prior to the arrival of
33 the USArray Transportable Array in 2012, Pennsylvania pre-adopted several stations that were
34 critical for monitoring several early cases of induced seismicity (Skoumal et al. 2014, 2015c). Between
35 2015 and 2016, an expansion of the network to 30 seismic stations began with funding from the
36 DCNR and the Pennsylvania Department of Environmental Protection.

37 The initial detection and location of induced seismicity in Ohio has typically been
38 accomplished by ODNR using the existing stations at the time. However, the lack of short-period local
39 stations limited the detection and location of weaker events during early sequences. For example,
40 after detecting a few earthquakes in Youngstown close to a disposal well, ODNR and Lamont-Doherty
41 Earth Observatory deployed a local network in late 2011 to monitor the seismicity in the area (Kim,
42 2013, Section 4.1). Similarly, local short period stations were deployed temporarily by ODNR around
43 WD and HF wells of interest (Sections 4.2 and 5.1). Miami University contributed to observations of
44 induced seismicity in the area by deploying additional broadband stations in Harrison, Guernsey,
45 Belmont, Noble, and Monroe Counties, starting in October 2014. A few WD and HF operators have
46 installed their own dedicated seismic networks in the area of operations but those data are usually
47 not available to the public (Section 4.3 vs. 5.3 and 5.4).

1 ODNR currently utilizes the existing stations to perform earthquake detection and location
 2 via an Earthworm system to generate its catalog. To perform more in-depth analyses of recent
 3 seismicity, the detection process has been enhanced via template matching and Repeating Signal
 4 Detector (RSD) (Kim 2013; Friberg et al. 2014; Skoumal et al. 2014; 2016). Both tools are based on
 5 seismic signal similarities expressed in the form of correlation coefficients (CC). In the template
 6 matching procedure, one or a few relatively strong and well recorded events are chosen as templates
 7 and used to scan through continuous waveforms from the same stations, searching for signals that
 8 produce high CC. RSD creates templates by using a clustering algorithm to identify groups of similar
 9 events based on comparisons in the time and frequency domains. Template matching and RSD have
 10 been effective in lowering the detection level 2 to 3 orders of magnitude compared to the ODNR
 11 based catalog with simultaneous low numbers of false detections (Skoumal et al. 2014; 2016). Both
 12 procedures determine the local magnitudes of detected events using a Richter scale approach.

13 The Gutenberg-Richter frequency magnitude distributions (Gutenberg and Richter 1944) were
 14 typically calculated following the maximum-likelihood estimation or the least-squares linear
 15 approach. To help compare the nature of the frequency magnitude distributions for the various cases
 16 discussed in this study, we have applied a uniform maximum-likelihood estimation of the b-value to
 17 all cases using the catalogs from previous studies (Bender, 1983) (Figure 3). In some cases, we found
 18 that a truncated Gutenberg-Richter estimation using the equation of Caputo (1976) provided a better
 19 fit to the observed distribution. In all cases, we determined the M_c using the maximum curvature
 20 algorithm (Wiemer and Wyss, 2000).

21 Most of the induced sequences discussed in sections 4 and 5 were relocated using the
 22 *hypodd* double-difference algorithm (Skoumal et al. 2014; 2015a; 2015b; 2018; Kozłowska et al.
 23 2018). These studies have each used a 1D velocity model originally derived for eastern Ohio and
 24 adjusted to local conditions. The location uncertainties were typically determined using
 25 bootstrapping, and they depended on the number of stations available and their epicentral distance.
 26 In the case of Harrison Co and Trumbull Co where local stations were available, the absolute and
 27 relative location uncertainties were of the order of 100-150 m for both horizontal and vertical
 28 directions. In cases without a local network, the absolute location uncertainties were of the order of
 29 1 km in the horizontal direction and potentially larger for the vertical direction.

30 Determination of whether seismicity was induced or natural followed the strategy of
 31 Skoumal et al. (2015c). The general approach to classifying induced seismicity has been to identify (1)
 32 an appropriate anthropogenic source that is potentially influencing the effective stress on a fault, (2)
 33 a correlation in timing of the human activity with the seismicity, and (3) a correlation in location
 34 between the potential source and the earthquake hypocenters (e.g., Davis and Frohlich, 1993). The
 35 Skoumal et al., (2015c) study demonstrated that these criteria can be complemented by evidence for
 36 swarminess, where there are many events relative to the maximum magnitude observed, the largest
 37 magnitude event is not first, and there is a lack of aftershock decay pattern. Determining the
 38 presence or absence of swarm-like behavior can be aided by template matching. Figure 1 shows the
 39 results of classifying all cataloged events in the Appalachian Basin with this strategy.

40
 41 **Table 1. Overview of injection-induced seismicity in the 3 primary States of the Appalachian Basin**
 42 **operational activity.**
 43

Region	Wells with Earthquakes	Wells with Earthquakes	Total Wells	Maximum Magnitude
<i>Wastewater Disposal Wells</i>				

Ohio (All)	1.5%	3	201	4.0
West Virginia (All)	0.8%	1	127	3.4
Pennsylvania (All)	0%	0	9	-
<i>Hydraulic Fracturing Wells</i>				
Ohio (All)	2.7%	48	1751	3.7
West Virginia (All)	0.3%	6	2148	2.7
Pennsylvania (All)	0.05%	4	8706	1.9
Monroe Co.	33%	8	25	3.0
Harrison Co.	21%	21	99	2.8
Mahoning/Lawrence Co.	17%	9	54	3.0
Noble/Guernsey/Belmont Co.	10%	14	140	3.7

1

2 4. Documented episodes of seismicity induced by WD

3

4 Only three seismic sequences in Ohio have been associated with WD (Figure 1, Table 1) (Kim 2013;
5 Skoumal et al. 2014; Skoumal et al. 2015b; 2015c), which means that 1.5% of the total number of
6 active class II wells in Ohio (217 - as of April 3rd 2018, Ohio Department of Natural Resources - ODNR
7 2018a), have induced seismicity that can be detected with current seismic monitoring technologies.
8 For comparison, West Virginia has only had 1 WD well that induced seismicity (Skoumal et al., 2018),
9 leading to a smaller percentage of WD wells associated with induced seismicity (0.8%, Table 1).
10 Pennsylvania has had no cases of WD induced seismicity although this state has many fewer WD
11 wells. While no state-wide traffic-light protocol is in place for WD, injection has been halted in
12 Youngstown and Trumbull County, Ohio and Braxton County, West Virginia (Sections 4.1, 4.3, and
13 4.4).

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15 *4.1. Youngstown, Ohio*

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The largest magnitude sequence of induced seismicity in the Appalachian Basin in the past decade was identified when ODNR reported 10 earthquakes of M~2 close to Youngstown, starting from March 2011. Following a local deployment, the proximity of located earthquakes to an active class II well indicated the sequence was likely induced (Kim 2013). As a result, the injection was ceased on 30 December 2011, however, just a day later the strongest M4.0 event occurred less than 1 km from the well. Template matching revealed 566 similar, co-located seismic events, with the first event occurring 13 days after the injection began in December 2010 (Skoumal et al. 2014). The double-difference relocation of earthquakes showed the elongated cluster of seismicity trending ENE-WSW,

1 starting 100 m SW from the well (Figure 4a). Earthquakes occurred at the depth between 3.5 and 4
2 km, in Precambrian crystalline basement. Their spatiotemporal distribution showed that they
3 migrated away from the well with time. The focal mechanism of the strongest event was consistent
4 with the linear trend of the cluster indicating that the whole sequence occurred along near vertical,
5 left-lateral basement fault.

6 Our estimation of the b-value for the whole sequence (1.56, Figure 3a) is higher than that from a
7 linear least-squares fit (0.82), but Skoumal et al. (2015b) interpreted this is likely due to the sequence
8 not following a log–log power law distribution. This could be due to FMD being quite different in
9 earlier phases than later phases (Skoumal et al., 2014). The construction of a basement fault
10 structure model and the estimation and simulation of pre- and post-injection stress state performed
11 by Morris et al. (2017) contributed to understanding the inducing process of the Youngstown
12 sequence. Their comparison of reported injection pressures and simulated pore pressure pore
13 pressures enough to induce fault reactivation. In particular, the combination of low permeability
14 basement host rock and high permeability fault zone amplified the pore fluid pressure perturbation
15 and increased the likelihood of fault reactivation given the fault zone was appropriately oriented. The
16 effective permeability of the injection interval increased in the downward direction as injection
17 progressed leading to a larger, connected fault area, culminating in the large slip of M4.0 event.

18 *4.2. Washington County, Ohio*

19 The first recorded seismic event in Washington County occurred in October 2010 and had a
20 magnitude of 2.8 (Skoumal et al. 2015c). Just two weeks after the event, the EarthScope TA stations
21 were deployed in western Pennsylvania and they were used for template matching on subsequent
22 events. The procedure revealed a pattern of ongoing seismicity with over 100 events detected
23 between 2011 and 2013. The strongest event in the sequence occurred in August 2011 and was of
24 magnitude 3.1. The location of 5 template events showed that they were all located close to each
25 other, less than 2 km from WD well which started injection in September 2008. The frequency
26 magnitude distribution of this sequences has a relatively low b-value (0.86, Figure 3b), but there are
27 indications of a divergence from the expected log–log power law distribution as seen in the
28 Youngstown case.

29 In 2013 ODNr deployed a local network of five stations in the area of observed seismicity. Currie et
30 al. (2018) analyzed their data between May 2013 and July 2015 and performed multi-station
31 template matching identifying over 300 events down to magnitude -0.7. The double difference
32 relocation of these events with the local network (Figure 4b) showed they were close to the earlier
33 events analyzed in the previous study but closer to the injection well. The relocated hypocentral
34 depths correspond to lower Cambrian and upper Precambrian strata, reported by Baranoski (2013).
35 The epicenters formed elongated cluster with NE-SW trend that Currie et al. (2018) also found
36 parallels the trend of small-amplitude folds in Upper Paleozoic rocks and is optimally oriented within
37 the regional stress field. Hypocentral patterns and similar structures imaged in nearby seismic
38 reflection lines indicate the seismicity occurred on a positive flower structure initiating in the
39 basement and separating into braided segments in the sedimentary layers. These basement-involved
40 fault systems cut the injection interval targeted by the WD well, providing permeability pathways for
41 fluid pressure increases that would promote seismic slip. Well completion records indicate the
42 nearby WD well was injecting fluids close to or above the fracture pressure of the targeted Silurian
43 interval. As expected, seismicity rates followed the monthly injection rates during the studied time
44 frame. Taken together, Currie et al. (2018) concluded the seismicity was the result of pore pressure
45 change caused by WD, similar to the Youngstown sequence.

46 *4.3. Trumbull County, Ohio*

47 The first earthquake in Trumbull County was reported by ODNr and U.S. Geological Survey in August
48 2014. The ML 2.1 event was located within 1 km of two class II wells, the shallower one injecting
49 water into Silurian strata and the deeper one into sediments ~15 m above the Precambrian

1 basement (Skoumal et al. 2015b). Following the event, ODNR ordered the suspension of operations
2 at both wells, but two weeks later the operation was resumed at the shallower well after the
3 investigation stated that it did not influence the occurrence of the ML 2.1 earthquake. Template
4 matching was performed for both regional and local data – the operator deployed a temporal
5 network of 4 short-period stations within 4 km from the wells. The procedure identified over 100
6 events in the 3 months leading up to the shutdown. Double difference relocated earthquakes formed
7 two clusters (Figure 4c), one adjacent to the deeper well and the second ~400 m southwest and few
8 hundred meters below the bottom of the well, in the Precambrian basement. The clusters differed
9 also in their spatial distribution– the proximal one had a ENE-WSW trend similar to the Youngstown
10 sequence, whereas the distal one that formed later followed a NNE-SSW trend (Skoumal et al.
11 2015b). The distal cluster also included the ML 2.1 event, for which a fault-plane solution revealed a
12 strike-slip mechanism with the north-south fault plane aligning with the trend of hypocenters.
13 Despite the different azimuths, both observed trends of seismicity in Trumbull County are optimally
14 oriented relatively to the NE-SW orientation of the maximum horizontal stress SHmax (Hurd and
15 Zoback 2012). The rate of seismicity in the area dramatically decreased after the injection was halted
16 at both wells and it has not yet returned after the shallow well was resumed, indicating a correlation
17 to the deep well injection.

18 The b-value for Trumbull County seismicity is essentially 1 (1.00, this study; 0.91, Skoumal et al.
19 2015b), but the initial study noted that the FMD does not follow a power law due to a few much
20 larger events and suggested a different relationship is at work. This observation, along with lack of
21 aftershock productivity and narrow magnitude range, is predicted by numerical simulations of a
22 seismogenic zone governed by a viscoelastic damage rheology when the viscosity in the fault zone is
23 reduced (Ben-Zion and Lyakhovsky, 2006). Such a reduction in viscosity is expected if deep WD
24 increases fluid pressures in the fault zone to the point that the fault zone begins to dilate.

25 *4.4. Braxton County, West Virginia*

26 Seismicity in Braxton County began with a series of 8 earthquakes between April and July 2010 within
27 a few kilometers of an active wastewater injection well (Figure 4d), including a M 3.4 event. The
28 West Virginia Department of Environmental Protection (WVDEP) reduced the injection rate at this
29 well soon after these events began, and WVDEP further restricted both the volume and the rate after
30 an additional M 2.8 earthquake occurred in January 2012. The well was shut-in at the end of 2013
31 after another M 3.4 event occurred in March 2013. Template matching utilizing existing stations in
32 the region over this time frame grew the catalog of detected events to 54 (Skoumal et al., 2018),
33 revealing a distinct decrease in seismicity rate once the rate and volume reductions were enacted,
34 which was not visible with the NEIC catalog alone. Although double difference relocations have not
35 yet been performed on this sequence, the catalog locations appear to follow a northeast-southwest
36 trend that parallels a fault plane from the focal mechanism of the largest event (Figure 4d). The
37 Rome Trough Eastern Margin Fault appears to occur in the vicinity of the well and follow a similar
38 orientation, with structural evidence that the fault cuts the injection interval (MRCSP, 2009;
39 McDowell et al., 2014). The frequency magnitude distribution of this sequences is similar to that of
40 Washington Co., Ohio that occurs on the western margin of the Rome Trough (Figure 1). The b-value
41 is relatively low (0.69), but there are indications of a divergence from the expected log–log power
42 law distribution as seen in the other WD cases.

43 5. Documented episodes of seismicity induced by HF

44

45 In this section we show a review of cases of seismicity induced by HF in Ohio which are important for
46 understanding the relationship between seismicity and operational activities. Table 1 summarizes the
47 HF induced seismicity in the Appalachian Basin, with most cases occurring in Ohio and growing in
48 prevalence since 2012. Increases in oil and gas production and rising seismic hazard led to

1 introducing state regulations concerning seismic monitoring and traffic light system for HF wells
2 operations. HF operators are required to monitor potential seismicity if the permitted well is located
3 within 3 miles (~3.8 km) from known fault or previous seismicity (ODNR 2017). The ODNR regulations
4 require direct communication between the operator and Division of Oil and Gas Resources if a local
5 magnitude ML 1.5 or higher event occurs during operation, modification of operation if ML 2.0-2.4
6 event occurs, temporal halt of operation if ML 2.5 or higher event occurs and suspension of the
7 whole pad completion until an approved plan is submitted by operator if ML 3.0 or higher event
8 occurs. As far as we know, these regulations or earlier forms of them have been employed to halt
9 completion operations at wells in Poland Township and Noble County cases (Sections 5.2 and 5.3).

10 11 *5.1. Harrison County, Ohio*

12 The induced seismicity occurring in Harrison County has formed a series of seismic sequences from
13 2013 to 2017 (Friberg et al. 2014; Skoumal et al. 2015c; Kozłowska et al. 2018). Seismicity in Harrison
14 County was caused by HF performed on 9 well pads in the southern part of the county (Figure 5a).
15 The first earthquakes in the area were recorded in October 2013 by USArray stations operating in
16 eastern Ohio. By November 2013 ODNR deployed 4 portable short-period stations close to the
17 epicenters of recorded events. The initial sequence lasted until the end of 2013 (Figure 5b) and was
18 located directly below the Ryser wells (Friberg et al. 2014). In the following years, another 5 well
19 pads induced productive seismic sequences (>500 detected events) in an area of only ~5 km length
20 and ~2 km width. Utilizing recordings from an EarthScope station located only a few kilometers north
21 of the HF wells, a repeating seismicity detection procedure utilizing agglomerative clustering of
22 frequency and time domain signals was able to identify over 13,000 seismic events from the
23 beginning of 2013 until the end of 2015 (Skoumal et al. 2016). An additional sequence associated
24 with the Conotton well pad stimulated in November 2016 was also detected, but detailed analysis of
25 this sequence is currently in progress (Friberg et al., 2018). Despite all of this seismicity, the
26 magnitudes have not exceeded ML 2.8. Hence, HF operations have generally continued without
27 interruption, although activities on the Hamilton and Conotton pads were adjusted and/or
28 temporarily paused (ODNR, pers. comm.).

29 Table 1 summarizes the prevalence of HF induced seismicity in the southwestern area of Harrison
30 County shown in Figure 5a by taking the number of HF wells that have induced magnitude > 1
31 seismicity (21) divided by the total number of HF wells in a 20 km wide box that encloses the area
32 where induced seismicity has occurred (99). The resulting percentage (21%) is an order of magnitude
33 higher than the percentage we obtain for the whole state of Ohio, indicating that certain areas of the
34 state have a higher likelihood of induced seismicity than others. This issue is discussed in detail in
35 section 6.

36 The double-difference relocation performed on the productive earthquake sequences between 2013
37 and 2015 showed that all induced events occurred at a small epicentral distance from the nearest
38 recently active HF stage – less than 1 km (Kozłowska et al., 2018). The time lag between hydraulic
39 stimulation and the seismic response was very short, approximately 120 min, clearly indicating the
40 inducing relationship. However, such a short response time compared with distance between HF and
41 first seismic event would translate into an abnormally high values of hydraulic diffusivities. In this
42 case, pore pressure diffusion is not likely the primary factor inducing seismicity and poroelastic stress
43 is a better candidate for the physical mechanism responsible for initiating the seismicity (Kozłowska
44 et al. 2018). The horizontal distribution of located events shows quasi-linear trends consistent with
45 east-west fault plane solutions that are optimally oriented 30° from SHmax (Kozłowska et al. 2018).
46 The depth distribution of events, however, shows that seismicity observed in Harrison County
47 occurred on two separated levels: 1) within Paleozoic sedimentary rocks about 400 m below the
48 target interval and 2) about 600 m deeper than the first level in the Precambrian basement.
49 Interestingly, sequences characterized by greater depth showed low b-value (< 1; Figure 3i-j),
50 whereas sequences located in Paleozoic strata showed b-values much higher (generally >1.5; Figure

1 3n-o). Interpreting these results in the context of recent laboratory work and the knowledge of local
2 geology, Kozłowska et al. (2018) proposed the two observed types of seismicity represent the
3 activation of a fault system originating in the Precambrian basement and continuing into Paleozoic
4 strata. Due to the age and inferred difference in slip history, activated faults would differ in surface
5 maturity leading to different FMD patterns: old, mature Precambrian faults have a smoother surface
6 which would promote larger slip, and hence, larger magnitude seismic events than younger, less
7 mature and thus more rough Paleozoic faults. An investigation of the water and gas production data
8 also revealed that wells inducing deeper seismicity produced more water than wells with shallow
9 seismicity, indicating more extensive hydrologic connections outside the target formation.

10 *5.2. Poland Township, Ohio and North Beaver Township, Pennsylvania*

11 A new sequence of seismicity reaching ML 3.0 appeared in Mahoning County in March 2014, but this
12 time the seismicity was focused in Poland Township, 18 km southeast of the Youngstown sequence
13 (Skoumal et al. 2015a). Although there were no local stations during this sequence, it was located
14 within 1 km of an active HF well (Figure 5c), and completion was suspended after the ML 3.0 event.
15 Template matching was performed using regional data revealing 60 seismic events primarily
16 occurring during 6 stages on 2 well laterals that were closest to the hypocentral locations, although a
17 small amount of seismicity persisted for a few days after these stages. The location of the strongest
18 of detected events showed that they formed an east-west band parallel to Youngstown seismicity
19 and consistent with a fault plane solution for the largest event (Figure 5c). The sequence occurred
20 500 m below the target Utica-Point Pleasant formation at the top of the crystalline basement. We
21 calculated a relatively low b-value of 0.91 (Figure 3f), similar to the 0.89 estimated by Skoumal et al.
22 (2015a) and consistent with the deeper cases of basement seismicity from Harrison County (Figure
23 3i-j). The Poland Township FMD is also linear, but it does not appear to be truncated like some cases
24 of Harrison County although those cases lasted significantly longer (several weeks to months).

25 Approximately 2 years later, seismicity began again in North Beaver Township, Pennsylvania ~6 km
26 east from the Poland Township sequence (Figure 5c-d). Template matching was performed using a
27 template event reported by USGS and two regional TA stations (Skoumal et al., 2018). It revealed a
28 seismic swarm with two main clusters temporally and spatially correlated with individual stages of HF
29 performed at two well laterals being “zipper” stimulated (alternating stages between wells).
30 Following the strongest ML 1.9 event, the operator voluntarily halted operations at the well and
31 seismicity soon stopped. Relocation of the observed swarm showed that it formed an east-west
32 trend, similar to the Poland Township cluster. Although the absolute depth of this sequence is poorly
33 determined, the FMD is most similar to that of the deeper Harrison County wells (Figure 3m). The
34 wells in North Beaver Township targeted the Utica and Point Pleasant formations, which is rare in
35 Pennsylvania, as nearly all other wells target the shallower Marcellus Shale. None of the wells
36 targeting the Marcellus in Pennsylvania currently have documented induced seismicity (Skoumal et
37 al., 2018). Table 1 summarizes the prevalence of induced seismicity associated with wells operated in
38 the combined area of Mahoning and Lawrence Counties near the Ohio-Pennsylvania border. There
39 are 45 well laterals without seismicity in this 20 km wide box, indicating 17% of wells have induced
40 seismicity, similar to what we calculated for southwest Harrison County.

41 *5.3. Belmont/Guernsey/Noble Counties, Ohio*

42 About 15 km south of the Harrison County seismicity, a sequence of five ML ~2 earthquakes near the
43 border of Belmont and Guernsey Counties was reported in May 2014 in EarthScope catalog (Skoumal
44 et al. 2015c), with the strongest event reaching ML 2.6 (Figure 5e-f). Due to poor station coverage,
45 only the four largest events were located with large uncertainties (~1.5 km), however, the location
46 was near the active Kirkwood well pad targeting the Utica-Point Pleasant formation. The temporal
47 analysis of events showed that they occurred during HF operations on two laterals being zipper
48 stimulated, with the main cluster occurring during stimulation of 8 consecutive stages with a trail of
49 seismicity lasting for ~3 days after a pause in the operations. The b-value and FMD pattern was not

1 reported by Skoumal et al. (2015c), so we have calculated this is Figure 3k. The b-value (0.79) and
2 truncated shape of the FMD are quite similar to the deeper Harrison County sequences.

3 Seismic activity occurred again in August 2016 about 3 km southwest of the first sequence when a
4 M2.3 event was reported by ODNR (Figure 5e-f). Although this sequence has not been studied in
5 detail, we performed template matching with station O53A and found 61 events over a month
6 duration. This sequence coincides in space and time with activity at the Wheeler well pad targeting
7 the Utica-Point Pleasant. Seismicity primarily occurred during zipper stimulation of the last ~12
8 stages of 2 laterals (7H and 9H) that were closest to where the May 2014 seismicity occurred.
9 Seismicity continued at a slower rate for over 3 weeks after the stimulation ended. The b-value (0.74)
10 and truncated shape of the FMD are similar to the May 2014 sequence (Figure 3l).

11
12 Less than a year later in April 2017, seismicity occurred ~15 km south of the Belmont/Guernsey
13 sequences in neighboring northeastern Noble County (Figure 5e-f). Two events with ML 1.6 and 2.4
14 reported by ODNR and located directly below an active Wehr 2H horizontal well. Following those
15 events the completion of the well was suspended and no further seismicity was recorded during
16 completion of nearby Slash wells until six weeks later, when ML 3.7 event occurred during the
17 stimulation of the Wolf 2H well. This event is thus far the strongest HF-induced event in Ohio and
18 was widely felt in the rural epicentral area - over 100 felt reports were submitted to USGS.
19 Intriguingly, only 18 events were detected with template matching and repeating signal detection.
20 Double difference relocation has not been attempted on this sequence, but a focal mechanism shows
21 an east-west fault plane similar to events in Harrison County (Figure 5e). Given the small number of
22 events detected in this sequence, it is difficult to calculate a b-value that is meaningful, but the FMD
23 clearly shows a non-power law distribution (Figure 3p) similar to the shallower Harrison County
24 cases.

25 26 *5.4. Monroe County, Ohio*

27 Seismicity in southwestern Monroe County was first observed in December 2016 when three events
28 with magnitudes 2.0-2.3 were reported by ODNR. These events correlated in space and time with HF
29 activity on the Donato well pad (Figure 5g-h), although the highest seismicity rate occurred
30 immediately after a lateral finished. Two more magnitude 2.4 earthquakes were detected on March
31 30, 2017, followed by a magnitude 3.0 earthquake on April 2. These events occurred in a similar
32 location to those in 2016, although the HF wells operating at the time (Gary Green and Jacobs well
33 pads) were a few kilometers further north (Figure 5g). The strongest (3.0) event occurred right after
34 flowback on the Donato well pad commenced (ODNR, pers. comm.), suggesting this process played a
35 role. The b-value and linear FMD (Figure 3g) resemble that of the post-HF seismicity associated with
36 the deeper Harrison County well pads. At the time of this study, only a handful of well pads have
37 been operated in southwestern Monroe County. Hence, the percentage of HF wells inducing
38 seismicity (33%) appears to be highest in this region (Table 1).

39 *5.5. Gilmer County, West Virginia*

40 A short sequence of seismicity occurred in Gilmer Co. between July and August 2013. Using 5
41 cataloged earthquakes that reached a magnitude of 2.7, template matching was able to reveal 161
42 unique events (Skoumal et al., 2018). Seismicity began soon after HF started and ending soon after
43 the last completion, with 5 laterals completed on this well pad that was ~3 km from the cataloged
44 epicenters. No other horizontal wells have been hydraulic fractured in this county of West Virginia,
45 but the WD-induced seismicity in West Virginia occurred ~20 km south in the neighboring Braxton
46 Co. The b-value and FMD pattern was not reported by Skoumal et al. (2018), so we have calculated
47 this is Figure 3h. The b-value (0.63) and linear shape of the FMD resemble that of Monroe Co and the
48 post-HF seismicity associated with the deeper Harrison County well pads.

49

6. Interpretation

Our review of induced seismicity in Ohio and surrounding regions highlights that the prevalence varies a lot spatially, and in some localities the prevalence is significantly higher than previously thought. At the state scale, we find that the prevalence in Ohio is higher than West Virginia for both WD and HF, which in turn is higher than Pennsylvania for both. The explanation for this proposed by Skoumal et al. (2018) is that the distance between operations and the Precambrian basement where faults are expected to be more mature is quite a bit larger in Pennsylvania and West Virginia than Ohio. The area of West Virginia where induced seismicity is occurring is thought to be the southern edge of the Rome Trough and may represent an area where faulting is more pronounced and extends further up into the Paleozoic sedimentary rocks (Skoumal et al., 2018). An intriguing difference from previous studies is that Ohio now has a higher per-well prevalence for induced seismicity from HF than from WD. This is counter to the interpretation that WD has a higher likelihood of producing seismicity than HF due to longer duration injection and hence larger total volumes (e.g., Rubinstein and Mahani, 2015). The best interpretation may be similar to that of Skoumal et al. (2018) in that most HF wells are injecting closer to basement than most WD wells. When we examine the regions of induced seismicity in further detail, we find that the prevalence of HF induced seismicity over a 20x20 km wide region can be even higher, with numbers ranging from 10-33%. This suggests that local variability is important and still plays a big role in determining the risk of induced seismicity.

Despite the local variability in the prevalence of induced seismicity, there is remarkable coherence in the orientation of faults that have induced seismicity. Many of these sequences have created extensive sequences of similar events with nearby recordings to allow for double difference relocations that reveal linear fault segments (Friberg et al. 2013; Skoumal et al. 2014; 2015a; 2015b; 2018; Kozłowska et al. 2018; Currie et al. 2018). In addition, many of these sequences have produced a large enough event to determine focal mechanism (Kim, 2013; Friberg et al. 2013; Skoumal et al. 2015a; 2015b; 2018; Kozłowska et al., 2018). Remarkably, all of these fault orientations are ~30 degrees from the expected direction of SHmax (Hurd and Zoback 2012). None of induced sequences occurred on a known, mapped fault, but the consistency suggests these were pre-existing, optimally-oriented, critically-stressed faults. This is supported by the geomechanical modeling of the stress evolution in the Youngstown case that showed a pre-existing fault needed to be in a critical stress state before the onset of seismicity in order for the modest increases in pore pressure associated with WD to cause seismic slip (Morris et al. 2017). Figure 5 shows the orientations of SHmax estimated by assuming a 30 degree offset from the fault orientations from recent HF and WD induced seismicity, as well as the two older possible cases of injection induced seismicity. This analysis reveals a consistent regional stress field that only varies over a narrow azimuthal range from ~50°-74° (Figure 5). This trend is consistent across a nearly 400 km long north-south extent.

Finally, we turn our attention to the fact that induced seismicity has been essentially restricted to relatively narrow north-south corridor along eastern Ohio and into central West Virginia. One possibility is that this corridor represents a zone of more intense faulting during previous orogenies, but the lack of any prior natural seismicity in eastern Ohio (Skoumal et al. 2015c) argues against this idea. Another possibility is that it is simply due to the geography of operational activities, but there are just as many HF wells east and west of the seismicity corridor and just as many WD wells to the west (Figure 1). However, the HF wells to the east of this corridor are generally targeting the Marcellus formation, which is significantly further from the basement rocks where the majority of the seismicity is occurring and appears to lower the prevalence of induced seismicity (Skoumal et al. 2018). Likewise, many of the WD wells to the west of the seismicity corridor target shallower formations that would lower the likelihood. So we believe the leading hypothesis for the north-south corridor of seismicity is that the target depth of HF and WD operations in this corridor is closer to basement and leads to higher risk of induced seismicity in this zone.

1
2 Finally, we note that most of the sequences with good depth resolution have occurred in
3 Precambrian basement, where preexisting faults are thought to be mature enough to produce $M > 2$
4 earthquakes. While there is geologic evidence that these faults would be mature based on the ages
5 of these rocks and tectonic history of eastern North America, the low b -values of these deeper
6 sequences correspond to those observed in lab measurements of mature fault surfaces (Goebel et
7 al., 2017; Kozłowska et al. 2018). Recent induced earthquakes in the Appalachian Basin have reached
8 a magnitude of 4.0 and 3.7 for WD and HF, respectively. We anticipate that operational activities
9 could produce larger magnitude earthquakes considering that the magnitude 5.0 earthquake near
10 Perry, OH in 1986 is suspected of being induced by fluid injection and that other earthquakes in
11 North America induced by WD and HF have reached magnitudes of 5.9 and 4.5, respectively.

12
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19

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- 12
- 13

1 Fig. 1. Map showing the location sequences of cataloged ($M > 2$) seismicity in Ohio and neighboring States
2 from 2010-2017. Blue triangles show sequences induced by WD, red squares – HF, pink squares and cyan
3 triangles show all horizontal and WD wells in the area (Ohio Department of Natural Resources - ODNR
4 2018c). Circles are earthquakes of probably natural origin. Stars mark earthquakes that may have been
5 induced in the 1980s. Labels are A: Ashtabula, B: Braxton, B-G: Belmont-Guernsey, G: Gilmer, H: Harrison, L:
6 Lake, M: Monroe, N: Noble, N.B: North Beaver, P: Poland, T: Trumbull, W: Washington, Y: Youngstown.

7 Fig. 2. Number of all cataloged ($M > 2$) earthquakes per year in Ohio, Pennsylvania, and West Virginia ,
8 averaged over the 10 prior years. This includes both natural and induced seismicity.

9
10 Fig. 3. Frequency-magnitude distributions of the various seismic sequences induced by WD and HF in the
11 Appalachian Basin. N/N_{tot} is the number of events at or above a given magnitude divided by the total
12 number of events. The black circles are below the estimated M_c and b-values were calculated using
13 maximum-likelihood estimate. The black line represents maximum-likelihood Gutenberg-Richter fit. Note
14 that several cases (a, c, n, o, p) do not appear to obey log-log power law distribution and several other cases
15 (i-m) are better fit by a truncated Gutenberg-Richter fit (red).

16 Fig. 4. Examples of clusters of WD induced seismicity. Maps show the location of injection wells (cross) and
17 earthquake locations (circles) for the (a) Youngstown, Ohio, (b) Trumbull Co., Ohio, (c) Washington Co., Ohio,
18 and (d) Braxton Co., West Virginia. In (a-c), the refined double-difference relocations are shown, while in (d)
19 only the catalog locations are available. In (a-b), the circles are scaled according to magnitude. Focal
20 mechanisms are shown when available. The arrows show orientation of maximum horizontal stress, and the
21 gray lines are the fault orientation suggested by focal mechanism and trend of hypocenters.

22 Fig. 5. Examples of clusters of HF induced seismicity. (a) Map of the Harrison County region showing HF well
23 pads (circles), earthquakes (crosses), and county lines (lines). HF wells and earthquakes are colored if they
24 were associated. Focal mechanisms are shown when available. (b) Enhanced seismicity catalog for the
25 Harrison Co. region. Colors mark cases where earthquakes correlate in space and time with HF wells.
26 Reported/estimated HF times are shown as thin bars across the top. Other maps and timelines are for the
27 (c,d) Poland Twp., OH and Lawrence Co., PA, (e,f) Noble/Belmont/Guernsey Co., and (g,h) Monroe Co.
28 regions.

29
30 Fig. 6. Map of Eastern Ohio showing the apparent SH_{max} direction (arrows) determined using the focal
31 mechanisms and relocated hypocenters from induced seismicity (both recent and the potentially induced
32 older events): red=HF, blue=WD, black=old. Symbols are centered on the epicenter of the largest earthquake
33 in the sequence.

34
35











