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Seasonal variation of earthquake source characteristics of the long-duration Palghar swarm, western India

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1 Seasonal variation of earthquake source characteristics of the long-duration 2 Palghar swarm, western India

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7 Highlights

- 8 • Moment tensor inversion, stress inversion and source parameters of the largest earthquake in
9 the Palghar swarm are estimated
- 10 • Overall, the prevalence of normal faulting along N-S-oriented, steeply-dipping planes are
11 observed
- 12 • Low static stress drops of ~ 2 MPa and high non-DC components ($\sim 42\%$) are observed
- 13 • A subtle but consistent seasonal variation in the source characteristics is observed
- 14 • Pure normal faulting observed during the post-monsoon is influenced by the regional
15 convergent stress regime during summer

16 Abstract

17 A swarm sequence initiated in November 2018 in the Palghar region near the western coast
18 of India, and continued with high intensity for two years. About 8300 earthquakes were found with
19 horizontal and depth uncertainties of ≤ 1.5 km after relocation. The earthquakes were distributed
20 along two narrow N-S oriented clusters, separated by ~ 5 km. We performed time-domain regional
21 waveform full moment tensor inversion to compute focal mechanisms of the 33 $M_L \geq 3.5$
22 earthquakes, followed by stress inversion. Source parameters for 28 of these events were estimated
23 from frequency spectra analysis. The focal mechanisms indicate dominant normal faulting along
24 steeply dipping, N-S-oriented nodal planes, with high non-DC components ($\sim 42\%$). Stress inversion
25 also reveals a normal-faulting regime, in contrast to the regional India-Eurasia compressive stress

regime. The Palghar swarm has been previously linked to rainfall, and our results also show contrasting earthquake source properties during the post-monsoon period, when cumulative rainfall is highest, compared to summer. During the post-monsoon period, the strikes are strictly N-S, slips are $\sim 100^\circ$, and a pure normal-faulting regime is observed, accompanied by increased non-DC components and reduced static stress drops. In contrast, during the summer season, oblique-normal faulting occurs along NNE-SSW-oriented planes, with slip angles reduced to about -65° . We infer that pure normal faulting induced by vertical rainwater load during the post-monsoon transitions to a combination of regional convergent stress regime and vertical loading due to remnant water during summer, resulting in oblique normal faulting. This interplay possibly sustains the rain-induced swarm.

Keywords

Rainfall-induced seismicity, Post-monsoonal loading, Focal mechanism, Normal faults, Source parameters, Stress Inversion.

1 Introduction

On the west coast of India, about 100 km north of the city of Mumbai, a swarm sequence initiated in November 2018 in the Palghar region and continued until the end of 2020 with high intensity (Fig. 1), after which the intensity decreased significantly. Palghar is located within the Deccan Volcanic Province (DVP), an upper Cretaceous flood basalt covering a large part of western India. Prior to the earthquake swarm, no seismicity was reported in the Palghar region. Generally, earthquake swarms denote a large number of small to moderate magnitude earthquakes with no identifiable main shock within a relatively small volume [Mogi, 1963]. The swarm sequences are, in general, observed in areas of volcanic and geothermal activity [Hill, 1977; Shelly et al., 2013], where the crustal part is highly fractured, and the stress fields are exceptionally heterogeneous. In such an environment, very minimal shear stress is needed to produce seismogenic dislocations, resulting in a large number of small events with few or no larger ones [Mogi, 1963]. In addition to

51 volcanic and hydrothermal processes, swarms can also occur through fluid diffusion [Shapiro et al.,
52 1997] and aseismic creep [Lohman and McGuire, 2007]. In a few cases, it is seen that the fluid
53 content generates tensile or hybrid shear-tensile fractures, which are reflected by non-double-couple
54 focal mechanisms [Dreger et al., 2000], whereas in others, fluids trigger shear failure [Sibson,
55 2003].

56 Despite absence of active volcanism or hydrothermal sources, the Indian Shield region has
57 witnessed several earthquake swarms (Fig. 1 inset), including the Khandwa/Bamhori (Madhya
58 Pradesh) swarm in 1993-1994, 1998-1999 and 2000 [Srivastava and Dube, 1996], Jawhar
59 (Maharashtra) swarm during 1994, 2012 and 2018; Valsad/Navasari (southern Gujarat) swarms in
60 1986-1987 and 2016-2017 [Rao et al., 1991; Sateesh et al., 2019], and Talala (Saurashtra, Gujarat)
61 swarm in 2001, 2004, 2007 and 2011 [Hainzl et al., 2014]. Most of these swarm sequences are
62 located within the vicinity of major reservoirs/dams. Among these, a clear connection between
63 rainfall and reservoir has been observed for the swarms in Talala [Hainzl et al., 2014; Singh and
64 Mishra, 2015] and Navsari/Valsad regions [Sateesh et al., 2019]. In addition, short-duration (1-3
65 months) earthquake sequences occurring coincidentally with monsoonal rain, in the absence of a
66 nearby reservoir or dam, have also been reported from some parts of India [Raju et al., 2000;
67 Chopra et al., 2008; Wadhawan et al., 2021]. There is no volcanic/thermal source or major reservoir
68 near the Palghar swarm. In contrast, the role of rainfall in causing seismicity in Palghar is clearly
69 demonstrated from recent studies [Sharma et al., 2020; 2023; Paul et al., 2024; Paul and Shekar,
70 2026]. However, earthquake sequences induced solely by rainfall are short-lived, as seen both in
71 India [Raju et al., 2000; Wadhawan et al., 2021] and globally [Hainzl et al., 2006; Husen et al.,
72 2007]. The long-duration Palghar swarm induced by rainfall is enigmatic and requires thorough
73 investigation. Studying this swarm is also important from a hazard perspective, as even a moderate-
74 magnitude earthquake in a stable continental region (SCR) can cause extensive damage due to the
75 generally minimal attenuation of seismic energy with distance in plate interiors [Johnston, 1996;
76 Calais et al., 2016].

Source characteristics and the prevailing stress field play a key role in elucidating the crustal deformation geometry and seismogenesis of a region. The India-Eurasia convergence acts as the dominant stress driver for seismogenesis across much of the Indian subcontinent. In the case of Palghar, where rainfall appears to have triggered a long-duration swarm, it becomes particularly important to examine whether the source processes deviate from the existing stress regime. In this study, we analyse the largest earthquakes ($M_L \geq 3.5$) within the swarm sequence, estimate their focal mechanisms, and determine the prevailing stress field. Source parameters of these earthquakes are calculated to constrain fault dimensions and stress drops, thereby offering a window into the mechanics of swarm generation. We then observe the temporal variation of source characteristics, especially during the summer and post-monsoon seasons. Together, these observations may provide a better understanding of the seismogenic behaviour of the Palghar intraplate swarm and, more broadly, the processes governing earthquake swarms in stable continental regions.

2 Data

Council of Scientific and Industrial Research – National Geophysical Research Institute (CSIR-NGRI) started deploying broadband seismic stations around the source region immediately after the initiation of earthquake activities in November 2018 (Fig. 1). The complete network of six broadband stations became operational from January 2019. Each of the seismic stations is equipped with either Gralp CMG-3C or Reftek-151 sensors along with a 24-bit Reftek-130 data recorder. Data are recorded at 100 samples per second in continuous mode and are transmitted to the CSIR-NGRI seismological observatory at Hyderabad in near real-time. Accurate time-tagging of the order of microseconds is obtained through GPS synchronisation. The stations adequately cover the source region azimuthally, and their distance from the source region is optimal [Srinagesh et al., 2020]. For this study, the earthquakes recorded in the Palghar network between February 2019 and November 2020 are utilised.

101 **3 Methods**

102 **3.1 Computing Earthquake Locations**

103 In general, earthquake location error mostly arises due to the failure in picking arrival-time
104 phases accurately or due to an inconsistent velocity model. We have used the 1D velocity model of
105 Paul et al. [2024], who have performed several synthetic tests to demonstrate that their velocity
106 model is adequate for the region. To account for the inaccuracy in phase picking, we have employed
107 the nonlinear probabilistic location program NonLinLoc [Lomax et al., 2000]. NonLinLoc
108 associates a Gaussian error with phase-picking inaccuracy and travel-time errors due to minute
109 velocity variations and converts them into location errors. By discarding earthquakes with large
110 location errors, a set of well-located earthquakes with consistent input parameters is obtained. This
111 methodology has been proven to be effective in obtaining reliable sets of earthquakes with precise
112 locations in a variety of intraplate seismic zones across India [Gahalaut et al., 2023; Paul et al.,
113 2021; 2025]. Hence, we used NonLinLoc and the velocity model of Paul et al. [2024] to relocate all
114 earthquakes recorded in the CSIR-NGRI network from February 2019 to November 2020. For
115 NonLinLoc, the 1D velocity model is expanded into a 3D grid – 80 kms in the north-south and east-
116 west directions and 40 km in the downward vertical direction, with the centre of the grid at 20.10°N
117 and 72.90°E. The grid node separation is 100 m in all directions. The grid node with the highest
118 probability is considered the best location of an event. The grid is efficiently searched by the Oct-
119 tree Importance sampling algorithm. The local magnitude (M_L) is calculated using the relation of
120 Hutton and Boore [1987], with amplitudes scaled to account for the attenuation characteristics of
121 Palghar [Subhadra and Shekar, 2024].

122 **3.2 Moment Tensor and Stress Inversions**

123 Focal mechanisms provide crucial insights into earthquake processes and seismotectonics. In
124 this study, we estimated focal mechanisms for 33 earthquakes with $M_L \geq 3.5$ that occurred between
125 February 2019 and November 2020. We employed the time-domain regional waveform full moment

126 tensor inversion technique of Herrmann [2013] for this analysis. For preprocessing, vertical, radial,
127 and transverse component ground displacement were truncated to 10 seconds before and 180
128 seconds after the P wave arrival. Then these seismograms were filtered using a Butterworth band-
129 pass filter in the frequency range 0.03-0.3 Hz, which was tuned differently for individual events.
130 The Green functions were computed using the 1-D crustal velocity model of Paul et al. [2024] for
131 each source-receiver distance. The grid search for strike, dip, and rake was performed over the
132 entire range and source depth, from 0 to 30 km, in steps of 1 km. The fitting between observed and
133 synthetic waveforms was minimized in the least-squares sense. In general, the best fitting waveform
134 was determined by the lowest weighted variance reduction, with each trace weighted as a function
135 of epicentral distance [Herrmann, 2013]. The resulting full moment tensor solutions were
136 decomposed into the isotropic (ISO) and deviatoric components following Vavryčuk [2015]. The
137 deviatoric component is further composed of the compensated linear vector dipole (CLVD) and
138 double-couple (DC) parts. The inversion scheme for a few earthquakes is shown in Fig. S1
139 (Supplementary Material).

140 Focal mechanism solutions were inverted to reconstruct the local stress field within the
141 study area. The analysis was carried out using a modified implementation of the STRESSINVERSE
142 software package (Vavryčuk, 2014). This tool employs an iterative joint inversion technique based
143 on Michael's linear method [Michael, 1984], which simultaneously estimates the stress tensor and
144 identifies the most compatible fault orientations based on the Mohr-Coulomb criterion [Vavryčuk,
145 2011; Vavryčuk, 2014]. This is especially valuable when focal mechanisms involve uncertainties in
146 strike, dip, or rake angles. The inversion provides the principal stress (σ_1 , σ_2 , and σ_3) directions,
147 shape ratio ($R = \frac{\sigma_1 - \sigma_2}{\sigma_1 - \sigma_3}$) and stress ratio ($\varphi = 1 - R$). To test the stability of the results and to quantify
148 their uncertainty, 1000 bootstrap realizations were incorporated in the inversion, each generated by
149 adding random perturbations to the input focal mechanisms and also varying the co-efficient of
150 friction between 0.4 and 1. R and φ vary between 0 and 1. Anderson's faulting parameter, $A_\varphi = (n +$
151 $0.5) + (-1)^n(\varphi - 0.5)$ [Simpson 1997], gives the prevailing faulting regime. Here, n indicates how

152 many principal stresses exceed the vertical stress. The parameter A_ϕ ranges from 0 to 1 for normal
153 faulting, 1 to 2 for strike-slip faulting, and 2 to 3 for reverse (thrust) faulting [Hardebeck and
154 Hauksson, 2001]. All the 33 estimated focal mechanism solutions were utilized for stress inversion.

155 3.3 Estimation of Source Parameters

156 Earthquake source parameters such as seismic moment, stress drop, and fault radius may
157 provide additional insights into the Palghar seismogenesis processes. Spectral analysis using the
158 Python-based SourceSpec package [Satriano, 2023] was employed for estimating basic source
159 parameters, following the approach depicted in Paul et al. [2025]. At first, frequency spectra were
160 computed from 5-second S-wave displacement windows obtained from horizontal (N and E)
161 components, and a root mean square (rms) spectrum was calculated from them (Fig. S2). Noise
162 spectra from equi-length pre-signal windows from each component, as well as an rms noise
163 spectrum, were computed for comparison. The theoretical spectrum, computed by SourceSpec using
164 a simple rupture model [Brune, 1970], is fitted with the observed rms spectrum to invert for the
165 corner frequency (f_c) and spectral flat level (Ω_0). However, the ground motion at a given distance is
166 always a combined effect of the source, wave propagation, and site contributions. The average
167 difference between theoretical spectra and observed spectra across several events for a particular
168 station was taken as the site response, which was then removed from the observed spectra. To
169 account for path effects, the observed spectra were corrected for travel-time-dependent attenuation
170 using the attenuation relation for Palghar [Subhadra and Shekar, 2024]. Since the Palghar
171 earthquakes are confined within a narrow depth range (0-10 km), depth-dependent attenuation is not
172 likely to play a significant role. The theoretical frequency (f) spectrum corrected for attenuation and
173 site effects is given by

$$174 \quad \Omega_0(f) = \frac{F_S R_\theta}{4\pi\rho R\beta^3} \cdot \frac{M_0}{1 + \left(\frac{f}{f_c}\right)^2} \dots\dots (1)$$

175 where M_0 is seismic moment, f_c is corner frequency, R_θ is the radiation pattern effect,
176 generally taken to be 0.6, F_s accounts for the free-surface effect, taken to be 2, ρ is density, β is
177 shear wave velocity at the source region, and R is epicentral distance and accounts for the
178 geometrical spreading effect.

179 Following Eshelby [1957], the source radius r and uniform stress drop ($\Delta\sigma$) can be
180 calculated from M_0 (equivalent to Ω_0) and f_c as:

$$181 \quad r = \frac{2.34\beta}{2\pi f_c} \dots\dots (2)$$

$$182 \quad \Delta\sigma = \frac{7}{16} \frac{M_0}{r^3} \dots\dots (3)$$

183 We determined the source parameters of 27 (out of 33) earthquakes with $M_L \geq 3$. The f_c
184 could not be constrained within satisfactory level of uncertainty for the rest of the events (6). The
185 scheme for inverting the corner frequency and spectral flat level by fitting the source spectra is
186 shown for selected events in Fig. S2.

187 **4 Results**

188 More than 10000 earthquakes were recorded in the CSIR-NGRI network between January
189 2019 and November 2020, with M_L varying from -0.1 to 4.6. However, the number of earthquakes
190 with horizontal (Δx) and depth uncertainty (Δz) ≤ 1.5 km was 8377. The 1.5 km bounds were found
191 to be optimal for earthquakes in the Indian intraplate regions [Paul et al., 2021; Gahalaut et al.,
192 2023]. We performed all analyses with the well-located events only. The earthquakes are seen to be
193 tightly distributed in two N-S-oriented clusters, with more than 98% of the earthquakes confined
194 within the first 10 km of the crust (Fig. 1). We designate them as east and west clusters, which are
195 separated by ~ 5 km. The earthquakes in Palghar (west cluster) were reported to start in November
196 2018 [Sharma et al., 2020], while the east cluster initiated around November 2019. The temporal
197 variation of seismicity indicates its non-stationary nature, with along-strike migration between the

198 two clusters at different times, particularly during the initiation of the east cluster (November 2019)
199 and during October-November 2020 (Fig. 1a). The east and west clusters individually span about 18
200 and 22 km in the N-S direction, respectively, with a combined extent of ~30 km (Fig. 1b). In a
201 cross-section along the E-W direction, the seismicity is strictly constrained to two near-vertical
202 planes, each ~2 km thick (Fig. 1c). There is no depth migration with time, as the seismicity depth
203 (~12 km) attained in the first few months (by May 2019) is not exceeded thereafter (Fig. 1b).

204 Focal mechanism solutions of the 33 well-recorded events ($M_L \geq 3.5$) by MT inversions are
205 presented in Fig. 2 and Table S1 (Supplementary Material). The majority of the earthquakes show
206 pure normal faulting mechanisms, along with a few earthquakes that show normal mechanisms with
207 a minor strike-slip component (Fig. 2a). The orientations of the nodal planes are primarily along
208 ~N-S (between NNW-SSE and NNE-SSW), and they are dipping steeply (55° - 75°) (Fig. 2b). The
209 rake shows a bimodal distribution with peaks at -65° (oblique-normal) and -100° (normal). The
210 decomposed isotropic (ISO), compensated linear vector dipole (CLVD), and double couple (DC)
211 components reveal significant non-DC (ISO + CLVD) contributions (Table S1). On average, the DC
212 component accounts for about 58% of the MT, while CLVD and ISO contribute ~24% and ~18%,
213 respectively. The stress inversion results obtained from 33 focal mechanisms are shown in Fig. 3a-c
214 and Table S2. The P-axis (pressure axis) for most events is plunging steeply (average 65°), while
215 the T-axis (tension axis) is oriented E-W with a gentle plunge ($\sim 22^\circ$) (Fig. 3a). Overall, the trend
216 and plunge of the principal stresses (with 95% confidence level) show that σ_1 plunges near-
217 vertically (79°), while σ_2 and σ_3 are near-horizontal (plunge 10° and 6°) oriented N-S and E-W,
218 respectively (Fig. 3a,c). The resultant R value of 0.60 and the 3D Mohr circle representation (Fig.
219 3b) indicate a tri-axial stress field. In the Mohr circle representation, the majority of the nodal
220 planes lie close to the $\sigma_1 - \sigma_3$ circle, indicating that slip occurs on planes controlled mainly by σ_1 and
221 σ_3 . The estimated A_ϕ of 0.40 (Table S2) implies a dominant normal stress regime [Simpson, 1997].

222 The estimated source parameters, including source radius (r), seismic moment (M_0), moment
223 magnitude (M_W), and static stress drop ($\Delta\sigma$) for 27 earthquakes, are listed in Table S3. If the source

parameters of an earthquake depend on its size, this is termed source scaling. Previous studies have reported both source scaling [Trugman and Shearer, 2017] as well as scale invariance [Hardebeck and Aron, 2009]. The source parameters from the 27 earthquakes are plotted against one another (Fig. 3d-f) to examine their relationships. Under scale invariance, the relation $M_o \propto f_c^{-3}$ must be satisfied [Aki, 1967], whereas self-similarity scaling is not followed if $M_o \propto f_c^{-(3+\varepsilon)}$ [Kanamori and Rivera, 2004], where ε is a small positive number. For the Palghar sequence, M_o ranges from 3.36×10^{13} Nm to 1.37×10^{15} Nm, and $M_o \propto f_c^{-(3+0.6)}$ provides a better fit to the observed data than f_c^{-3} (Fig. 3d). Similarly, the source radii vary from 232 m to 508 m, and the relation $M_o \propto r^{3.48}$ yields a higher regression coefficient than $M_o \propto r^3$. The estimated stress drops range between 0.7 and 4.9 MPa, with a median of 1.85 MPa, and $M_o \propto \Delta\sigma^{1.48}$ provides a good fit to the data. These observations may indicate that self-similarity scaling is not followed in the case of Palghar earthquakes. A similar breakdown in self-similarity scaling has been reported for reservoir-induced seismicity in the Koyna region (~300 km south of Palghar) [Mahato, 2024]. However, the relatively small number of events in our study does not allow for a conclusive statement regarding source scaling in the Palghar region. Moreover, rupture complexity, repeated failure of the same fault segment, dynamic weakening, or processes involving fluids, pore pressure variation, and aseismic slip may contribute to such deviations [Brodsky and Kanamori, 2001; Fischer and Hainzl, 2017; Trugman and Shearer, 2017; Mahato, 2024].

5 Discussion

5.1 The role of rainfall in the seismogenesis of the Palghar swarm

Generally, the summer monsoon begins in June and lasts until September across most parts of India, during which about 80% of the annual rainfall occurs [Kulkarni, 2012]. The plot of seismicity with rainfall indicates that seismicity frequency increases toward the end of the monsoon season, around November, when cumulative rainfall is highest (Fig. S3). In this study, we refer to this period as the post-monsoon. The time delay between the rainfall peak and seismicity peak is

249 about 30-90 days, which is typical of fluid-induced seismicity [Talwani et al., 2007]. Over the
250 course of the Palghar swarm, distinct stages of swarm evolution have been observed in this post-
251 monsoon period – the swarm was reported to initiate during November 2018 [Sharma et al., 2020],
252 the east cluster of seismicity first appeared in November 2019, and in November 2020, seismicity
253 migrated extensively toward the northern and southern extremities of the clusters, effectively
254 extending the seismic zone (Fig. 1). The increased seismic moment during the post-monsoon period
255 [Sharma et al., 2020; Paul and Shekar, 2026], together with the occurrence of the largest earthquake
256 of the swarm in December 2019 (Table S3), confirms enhanced seismogenesis during this period.

257 Gahalaut et al. [2022] reported that pore pressure induced by time-varying rainfall extends
258 to depths of 6-8 km with sufficient magnitude to trigger earthquakes at those depths. The velocity
259 structures estimated by recent studies for the seismic zone [Paul et al., 2024; Kanaujia et al., 2025]
260 reveal a relatively low shear-wave velocity (V_S) and a high V_P/V_S ratio, along with high crack
261 density and saturation [Singh et al., 2026]. These seismic properties are generally associated with
262 the presence of fluids [Nur and Simmons, 1969; Popp and Kern, 1994]. Moreover, earthquake
263 location errors were seen to increase during post-monsoon seasons when a constant V_P/V_S ratio was
264 applied, and the ratio had to be increased to reduce these errors [Paul et al., 2024], clearly
265 establishing that high V_P/V_S is linked to rainfall. Seismicity tightly confined to steep planes (Fig.
266 1c) possibly reflects pre-existing faults or planes of weakness. Paul and Shekar [2026] observed
267 localised concentrations of earthquakes along these planes during the post-monsoon season. Sharma
268 et al. [2023] proposed that fluids percolated through multiple channels near the surface, forming a
269 network of cracks and fissures to the permeable (fault) zone. Pore pressure gradually increasing in
270 the fault zone ultimately resulted in seismicity. All of the above observations strongly support the
271 role of rainfall in Palghar seismogenesis.

272 **5.2 Seasonal modulation of source characteristics**

273 The dominant stress regime within India arises from the ongoing northeastward convergence
274 between the Indian and Eurasian plates. Regions governed by this stress regime typically exhibit
275 either thrust motion along $\sim$ E-W oriented faults [Rajendran et al., 2017] or strike-slip motion along
276 $\sim$ N-S oriented faults [Paul et al., 2015; Sunilkumar et al., 2019]. Normal-faulting earthquakes are
277 observed only when this convergent regime is locally modified by other stress influences, like in the
278 case of reservoir-triggered seismicity in the Koyna-Warna region [Gupta, 2002; Gahalaut and
279 Singh, 2004] or in certain segments of the Indo-Burma subduction zone [Earnest et al., 2021]. In the
280 case of Palghar, the majority of the nodal planes are oriented $\sim$ N-S, and the seismicity clusters also
281 align in the N-S direction (Fig. 2). Sharma et al. [2020] indicated the presence of various N-S
282 striking lineaments within the region of study, some of which might be linked to faults. This could
283 indicate that these earthquakes occurred on one or several $\sim$ N-S trending faults. Focal mechanism
284 solutions and stress inversion results consistently point to a dominant normal-faulting regime.
285 InSAR analysis during the initiation of the Palghar swarm (November 2018 to May 2019) also
286 showed a $\sim$ 3 cm subsidence of the source region [Sharma et al., 2020]. These observations indicate
287 a local modification of the India-Eurasia convergent stress regime to a normal-faulting regime in the
288 Palghar region.

289 If the source results are analysed by separating the data into two groups – one covering the
290 summer (including monsoon) season (May to October) and the other the post-monsoon period
291 (November to April) - a slight but consistent modification in the source characteristics is observed.
292 During the summer, the strikes of the nodal planes are mainly oriented in the NNE-SSW direction,
293 with slips showing oblique-normal motion (Fig. 4a). In contrast, during the post-monsoon, the
294 strikes shift to N-S to NNW-SSE orientations, and slips exhibit dominant pure normal motion (Fig.
295 4b). The dips of the nodal planes remain broadly consistent across seasons. The average double-
296 couple component decreases, while isotropic and CLVD components increase during the post-
297 monsoon compared to the summer (Fig. 4c). Similarly, pressure axes show a mixed distribution of

steep, intermediate and gentle plunges during May-October, whereas dominantly steep plunges are observed in the post-monsoon (Fig. 5a,d). The scattered nodal planes within the Mohr circle representation during May-October indicate that a few slips occur on planes controlled by σ_2 and σ_3 , in addition to those governed by σ_1 and σ_3 ; whereas in the post-monsoon, slip occurs on planes controlled by σ_1 and σ_3 only (Fig. 5b,e). The stress inversion results show that σ_1 plunges near-vertically (86°) during the post-monsoon compared to a moderate plunge (63°) in summer (Fig. 5c,f, Table S2). In contrast, the plunge of σ_2 increases (26°) during the summer compared to post-monsoon (4°), while the plunge of σ_3 remains similar across seasons. Although we expect a smooth transition of the source properties from the dry season to the post-monsoon season with the onset of monsoon, we do not observe it, possibly due to the smaller number of events or the inherent uncertainties in the estimation of source properties.

From the above results, it is clear that near-vertical σ_1 and horizontal, E-W-oriented σ_3 during the post-monsoon period promote faulting with strikes along the N-S direction and slip by pure normal motion (rake -90°). The cumulative rainfall reaches its peak at the end of the monsoon season (Fig. S3), which may be locally trapped or injected into permeable zones through a network of fissures [Sharma et al., 2023]. This accumulated rainwater likely acts as the vertical load, facilitating pure normal motion. In addition, fluid injection is often accompanied by aseismic deformation [De Barros et al., 2019]. The static stress drops for the entire duration of the Palghar swarm were found to be low (average 2.2 MPa) compared to other peninsular Indian earthquakes [Baumbach et al, 1994; Antolik and Dreger, 2003; Paul et al., 2025]. The temporal variation of Palghar source parameters indicates a further decrease in static stress drop, along with seismic moment, during the post-monsoon season, while the source radii are not significantly affected by seasons (Fig. 6). Therefore, the average static stress drop during post-monsoon can be considered equivalent to effective stress drop ($\Delta\sigma_c$). A low $\Delta\sigma_c$ can be an indication of aseismic deformation [Fischer and Hainzl, 2017; Danré et al., 2022]. Moreover, Paul and Shekar [2026] showed increased b-value and gradually-varying earthquake frequency associated with cataclastic (aseismic)

324 deformation during the post-monsoon. A mismatch between slip estimated from earthquake seismic
325 moment and InSAR deformation [Gahalaut et al., 2022], together with increased non-DC
326 components during post-monsoon (Fig. 4c, Table S1), also supports the existence of aseismic
327 deformation. Since both the west and east clusters were initiated during post-monsoon seasons of
328 different years, the collapse of substructures together with aseismic deformation under the
329 combined influence of accumulated rainwater load and gravity appears to explain the local
330 modification to a pure normal-faulting regime from a convergent stress regime.

331 Through the winter (dry season) and by the onset of summer, the accumulated water load is
332 expected to reduce. Consequently, the regional stress regime (India-Eurasia convergence) likely
333 begins to influence the fault system as strikes orient NNE-SSW, slips become oblique-normal, non-
334 DC components become relatively small (Fig. 4), and P-axes orientations are more widely
335 distributed (Fig. 5a). If a pure normal stress regime is influenced by the NE-SW-oriented
336 convergent stress regime, σ_1 may slightly tilt toward the SW from vertical as NE compression
337 increases, σ_2 steepens while σ_3 remains largely unchanged. This is precisely what the stress
338 inversion results indicate for earthquakes during May-October (Fig. 5c, Table S2). To further prove
339 this point, we combined focal mechanism solutions from the post-monsoon period (November-
340 April) with those from a region dominated by the India-Eurasia convergent stress regime and
341 performed stress inversion (following Section 3.2). The latter dataset was obtained from upper
342 crustal earthquakes in the Sikkim region [Sunilkumar et al., 2019], where the majority of the faults
343 are oriented ~N-S and motion is dominated by strike-slip mechanisms. Stress inversion results from
344 this combined dataset yield P-T-axis orientations, Mohr circle representations, and principal axis
345 trends and plunges that are almost identical to those obtained from May-October earthquakes (Fig.
346 5, Fig. S4, Table S2). This implies that in May-October, the earthquakes are controlled by the
347 combined influence of the regional convergent stress regime and the localised normal-faulting
348 regime. This combined influence likely sustains seismicity during the summer. During the post-
349 monsoon, the water load again leads to the dominating pure normal-faulting regime and pure

350 normal earthquakes. Such an interplay of mechanisms likely explains the longevity of the rainfall-
351 induced seismogenesis in Palghar.

352 **6 Conclusions**

353 More than 10000 earthquakes occurred in the Palghar swarm over a two-year period, of
354 which about 33 events had local magnitude $M_L \geq 3.5$. In this study, we conducted a holistic
355 investigation of the source characteristics, including hypocentre relocation, moment tensor
356 inversion, stress field inversion, and computation of source parameters. The seismicity is distributed
357 along two N-S-oriented, steeply dipping planes separated by ~ 5 km. Overall, we observe a
358 prevalence of normal-faulting earthquakes with $\sim$ N-S strikes and steep dips. About 42% non-DC
359 components are observed in the region. Stress inversion also indicates a pure normal-faulting
360 regime, with a near-vertical maximum principal axis σ_1 and near-horizontal σ_2 and σ_3 oriented north
361 and east, respectively. The corner frequency, static stress drop, and source radius appear to scale
362 with seismic moment. Low static stress drop values suggest the possible presence of aseismic
363 deformation.

364 This study, together with previous work, strongly confirms the role of rainfall in the
365 seismogenesis of the Palghar swarm. Seismicity frequency is seen to increase as the rainfall
366 intensity peaks, with a lag. Important stages of the swarm evolution, such as the initiation of the
367 swarm (west cluster), activation of the east cluster and seismicity migration in the N-S direction,
368 seem to be associated with the post-monsoon period, when cumulative rainfall is high. Analyses of
369 the source characteristics before and after the rain reveal key differences. During the post-monsoon
370 period, pure normal faulting along strictly N-S-oriented faults is observed, accompanied by higher
371 non-DC components. The P-axes and σ_1 are vertical during this period, while static stress drops and
372 seismic moments decrease significantly. In contrast, during the summer season, oblique normal
373 faulting occurs along NNE-SSW-oriented faults. The P-axes show a mixed distribution of steep,
374 intermediate and gentle plunges, whereas the plunge of σ_1 is reduced, and σ_2 steepens from

horizontal. The results imply that, during the post-monsoon, the accumulated water load leads to the collapse of substructures and possibly aseismic deformation, locally modifying the regional convergent stress regime into a pure normal-faulting regime. As the water load gradually dissipates, the regional stress regime reasserts dominance, shifting faulting style from pure-normal to oblique-normal. This interplay between rainfall-induced loading and the regional stress regime sustains seismicity and explains the long-duration nature of the Palghar swarm.

Figure Captions

Figure 1: Plot of the Palghar seismicity in (a) map view, (b) cross-section along the N-S profile Y-Y' and (c) cross-section along the E-W profile X-X'. The seismicity is colour-coded by time, with each colour representing approximately 4-months of activity. In (a), seismic stations are shown as green triangles. The inset map of India is displayed in the lower right. Locations of a few past swarms within India are shown as yellow ovals in the inset and labelled. N-Navsari, T-Talala, B-Bamhori, H-Hyderabad. The red square represents the study region.

Figure 2: (a) Double-couple focal mechanisms of the Palghar swarm, along with seismicity, are shown on the topography map. Both seismicity and focal mechanisms are colour-coded by depth. Serial numbers corresponding to the focal mechanism solutions in Table S1 (Supplementary) are labelled beside the beach-ball diagrams. (b) Rose-plot distributions of strike, dip and rake from the focal mechanism solutions are shown.

Figure 3: Stress inversion and source parameter results obtained from all $M_L \geq 3.5$ earthquakes of the Palghar swarm. (a) Azimuthal plot of Pressure- (red circles) and Tension-axes (blue + symbols) from focal mechanisms, shown along with the orientation of principal stresses, (b) 3D Mohr circle representation of the principal stresses, with normal stress increasing along the x-axis and shear stress increasing along the y-axis. The diameter of the large circle is $\sigma_1 - \sigma_3$, and the two inner circles meet at σ_2 , where σ_1 , σ_3 , and σ_2 are the maximum, minimum and intermediate principal stresses. The blue + symbols represent individual nodal planes. (c) Inverted principal stress axes

400 (with 95% confidence interval) shown in lower-hemisphere projection. Plots of (d) corner
401 frequency vs seismic moment, (e) source radius vs seismic moment, and (f) static stress drop vs
402 seismic moment are shown as red diamond symbols. Dashed black lines in (d), (e) and (f) represent
403 scale-invariance for fixed static stress drops, whereas dashed green lines represent scale-
404 dependence.

405 **Figure 4:** Rose-plot distributions of strike, dip and rake from focal mechanisms during (a) May to
406 October and (b) November to April. (c) Plot of the double-couple (DC, diamond symbol),
407 compensated linear vector dipole (CLVD, circle), and isotropic (ISO, square) components of the
408 focal mechanism solutions as a function of time (June to December 2019). Individual values are
409 shown as open symbols, while mean values (with standard deviation) are larger filled symbols.
410 Quantities during summer (including monsoon) are indicated in sky blue, whereas those during the
411 post-monsoon are in deep blue. The x-positions of the mean values are unrelated to time and are
412 plotted in this way for visual convenience. Daily rainfall (obtained from the NASA repository,
413 <https://giovanni.gsfc.nasa.gov/giovanni>) is plotted as pink histograms.

414 **Figure 5:** Stress inversion results separated for focal mechanisms during May to October and
415 November to April. (a), (d) Azimuthal plots of P- and T-axes, along with the orientation of principal
416 stresses. (b), (e) 3D Mohr circle representations of the principal stresses. (c), (f) Inverted principal
417 stress axes (with 95% confidence interval) shown in lower-hemisphere projection. For interpretation
418 of the various colours and symbols, refer to the captions of Fig. 3(a), 3(b) and 3(c), respectively.

419 **Figure 6:** Temporal variation of (a) seismic moment, (b) static stress drop, and (c) source radius.
420 Source parameters during the post-monsoon are shown as filled symbols. No $M_L \geq 3.5$ events
421 occurred in the post-monsoon of 2020.

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426 reference number for this manuscript is NGRI/Lib/2022/Pub-97.

427 **Author credit statement**

428 **HP:** Conceptualisation, formal analysis, methodology, software, validation, visualisation,
429 writing – original draft, writing- review and editing. **STC.:** Conceptualisation, data curation, formal
430 analysis, methodology, software, validation, visualisation, writing - original draft. **SM.:**
431 Investigation, data curation.

432 **Data statement**

433 All the waveform analyses were performed using the event waveform data, which are stored
434 in the CSIR-NGRI repository. The waveform data can be obtained by a request to the Director,
435 CSIR-NGRI. Daily rainfall data from the beginning of 2018 to the end of 2020, used in this study,
436 have been obtained from the NASA repository, <https://giovanni.gsfc.nasa.gov/giovanni>.
437 Supplementary Material includes Tables S1-S3 and Figures S1-S4, supporting our analysis and
438 inferences.

439 **Declaration of competing interests**

440 The authors declare no competing interests

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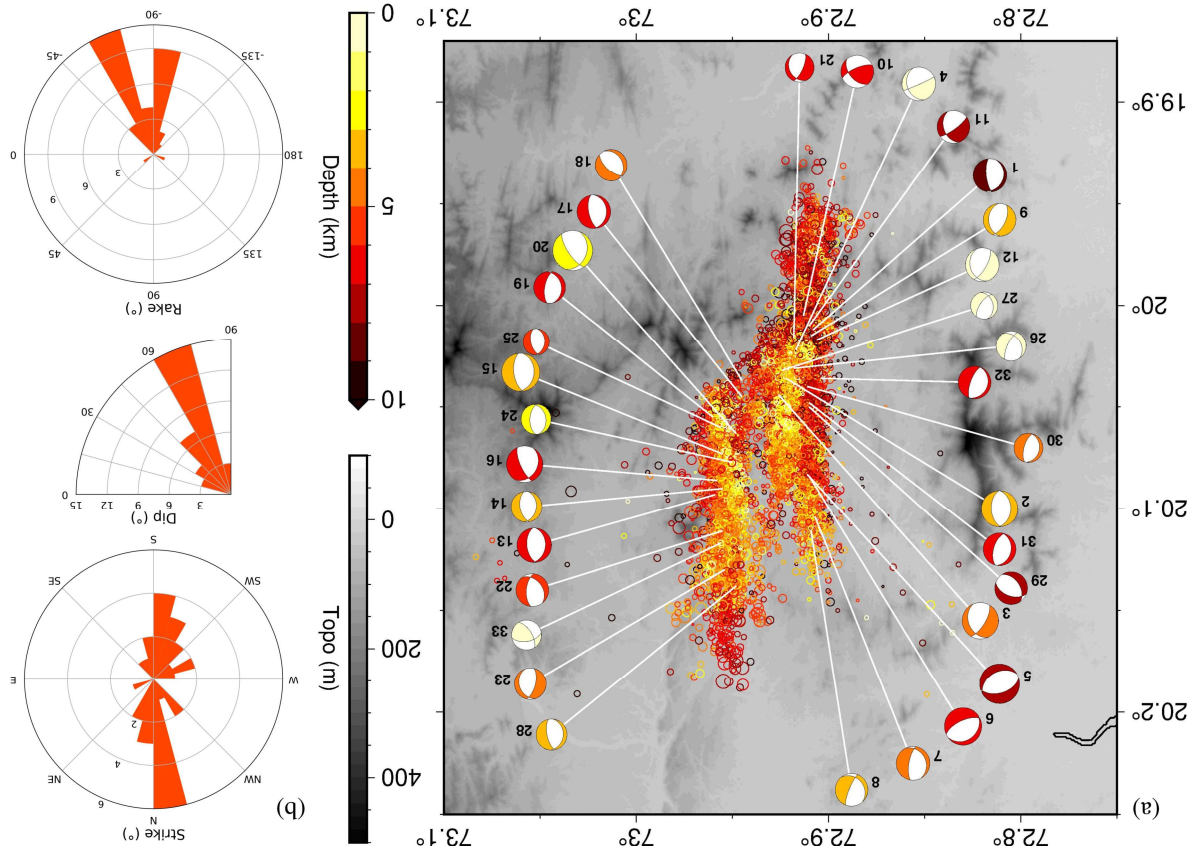


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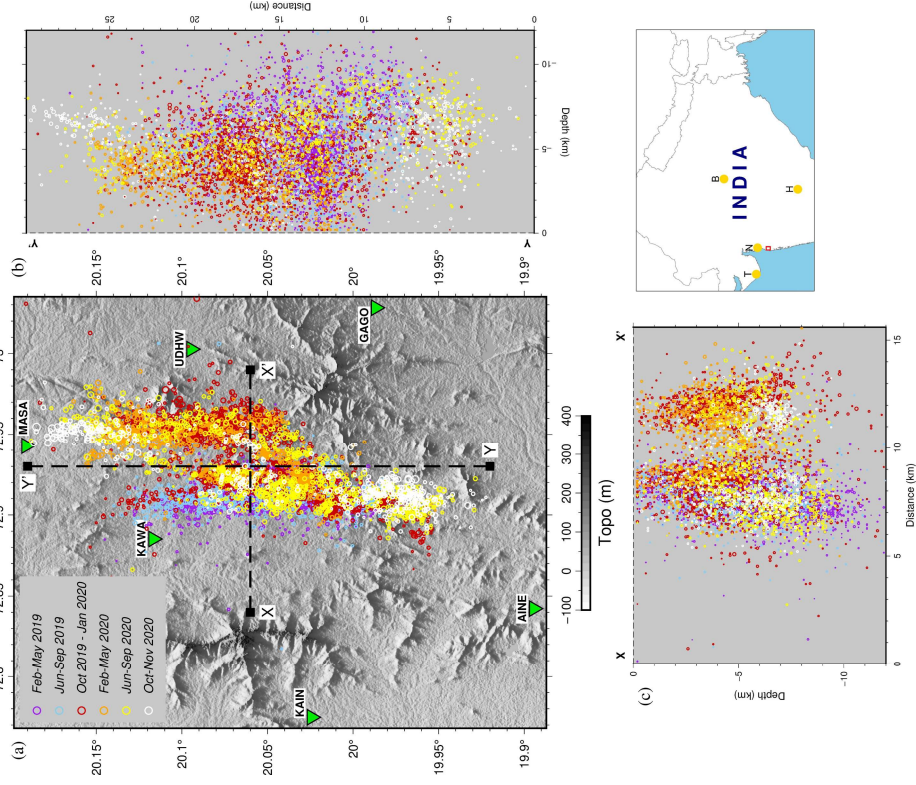


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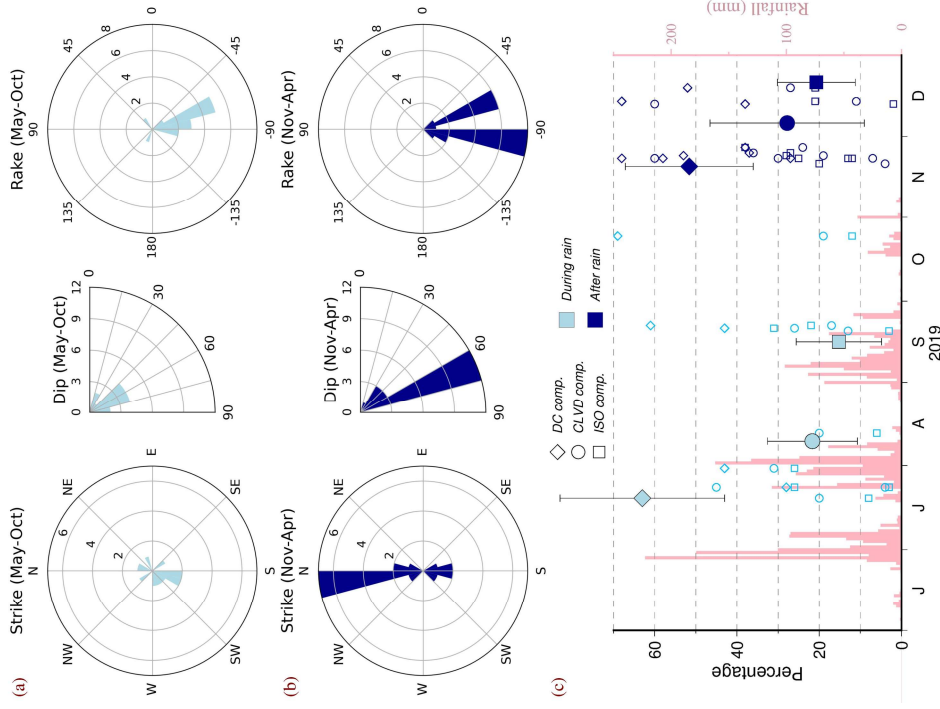


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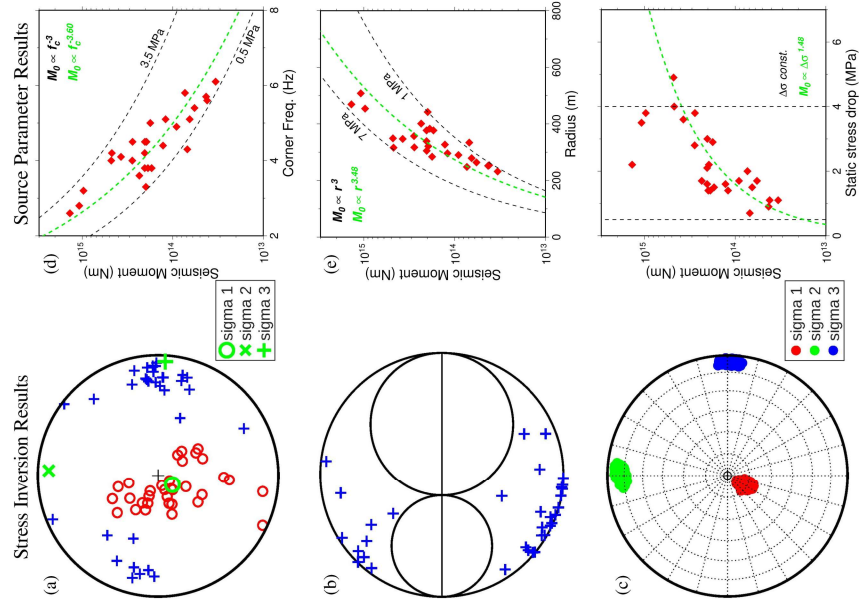


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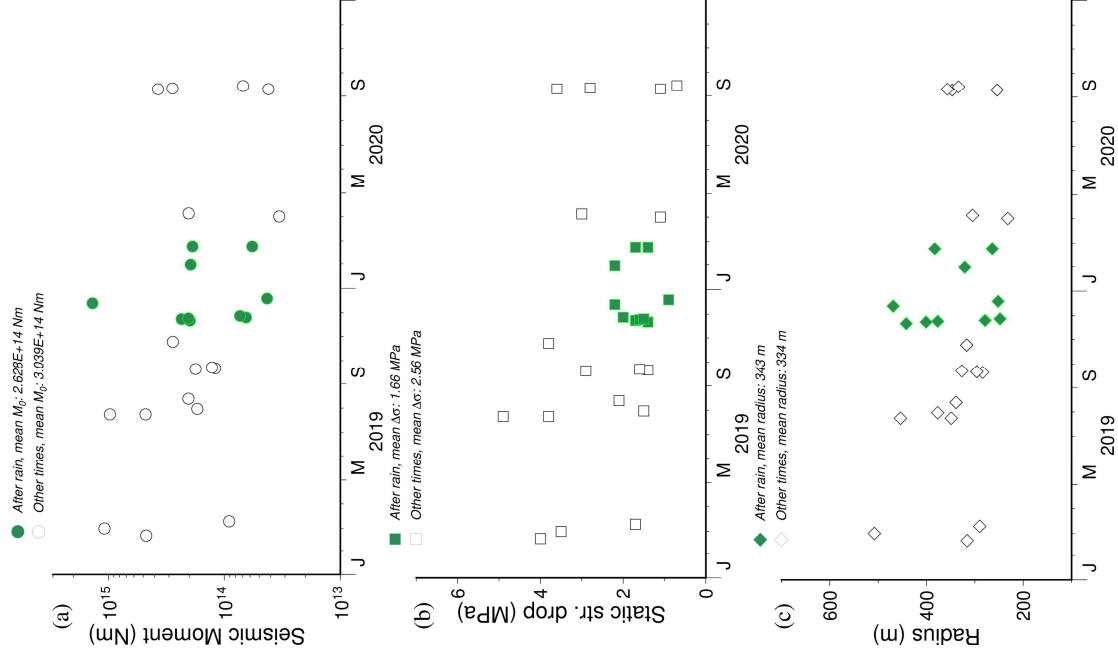


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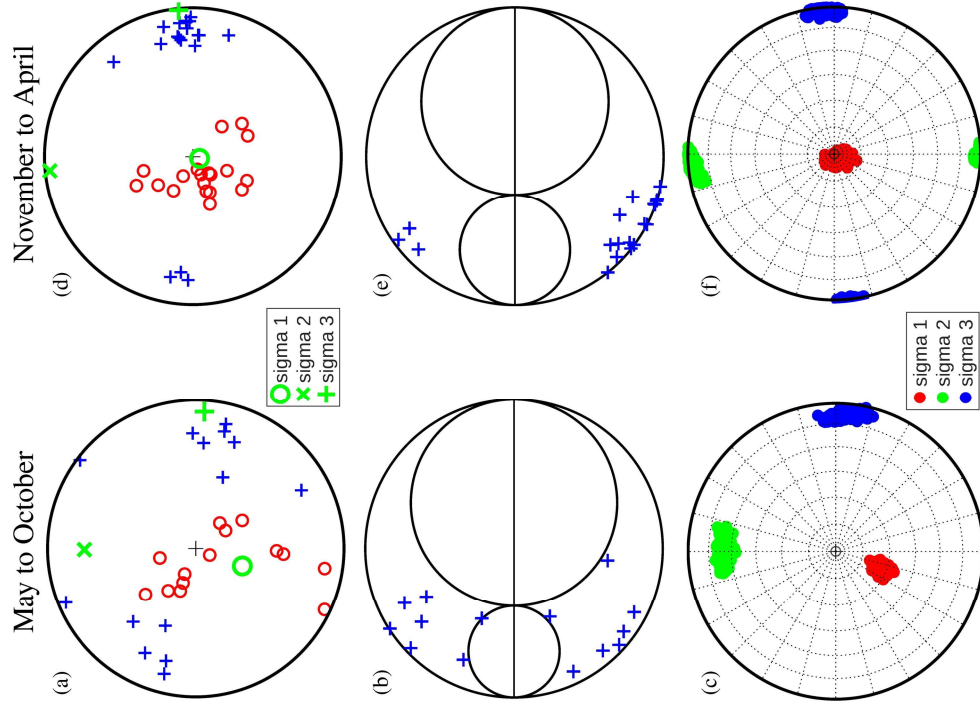


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