



1 A Taylor's power law in the Wenchuan earthquake sequence with 2 fluctuation scaling

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13 **Abstract** Taylor's power law (TPL) describes the scaling relationship between the
 14 temporal or spatial variance and mean of population densities by a simple power law.
 15 TPL is widely testified across space and time in biomedical sciences, botany, ecology,
 16 economics, epidemiology, and other fields. In this paper, TPL is analytically
 17 reconfirmed by testifying the variance as a function of the mean of the released
 18 energy of earthquakes with different magnitudes on varying timescales during the
 19 Wenchuan earthquake sequence. Estimates of the exponent of TPL are approximately
 20 2, showing that there is mutual attraction among the events in the sequence. On the
 21 other hand, the spatial–temporal distribution of the Wenchuan aftershocks tends to be
 22 nonrandom but approximately definite and deterministic. Effect of different divisions
 23 on estimation of the intercept of TPL straight line has been checked while the
 24 exponent is kept to be 2. The result shows that the intercept acts as a logarithm
 25 function of the time division. It implies that the mean–variance relationship of the
 26 energy release from the earthquakes can be predicted although we cannot accurately
 27 predict the occurrence time and locations of imminent events.

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30 **0 Introduction**

31 The Wenchuan M_S 8.0 earthquake on May 12, 2008 was the result of the
32 intensively compressive movement between the Qinghai–Tibet Plateau and the
33 Sichuan basin. It ruptured the middle segment of the Longmenshan (LMS) thrust belt
34 (Burchfiel et al., 2008), with a total length of fault trace of approximately 400 km
35 along the edge of the Sichuan basin and the eastern margin of the Tibetan plateau, in
36 the middle of the north–south seismic belt of China. Millions of aftershocks have
37 occurred after the main event. Up to now, the focus zone tends to be quiet with only
38 small ones occurring occasionally. A complete Wenchuan earthquake sequence has
39 been attained.

40 Statistical seismology applies statistical methods to the investigation of seismic
41 activities, and stochastic point process theory promotes the development of statistical
42 seismology (Vere–Jones et al., 2005). After some improvement, most of the
43 point process theories and methods can be used to analyze spatio–temporal data of
44 earthquake occurrence and to describe active laws of aftershocks. The term
45 "aftershock" is widely used to refer to those earthquakes which follow the occurrence
46 of a large earthquake and aggregately take place in abundance within a limited
47 interval of space and time. This population of earthquakes is usually called an
48 earthquake sequence. In seismological investigations, one of the important subjects
49 has long been to the statistical properties of the aftershocks. Spatial and temporal
50 distribution of aftershocks after a destructive earthquake is usually performed in a
51 general survey (Utsu, 1969). In seismology, one of the most famous theories
52 describing the activities of aftershocks is the Gutenberg–Richter law (Gutenberg and



53 Richter, 1956), which expresses the relationship between the magnitude and the total
54 number of earthquakes with at least that magnitude in any given region and time
55 interval. Another one is the Omori's law, which was first depicted by Fusakichi Omori
56 in 1894 (Omori, 1894) and shows that the frequency of aftershocks decreases roughly
57 with the reciprocal of time after the main shock. Utsu et al. (1969, 2009) developed
58 this law and proposed the modified Omori formula afterwards. Since the 1980s, as the
59 development of nonlinear theory, an epidemic-type aftershock sequence (ETAS)
60 model has been proposed by Ogata (1988, 1989, 1999), which is based on the
61 empirical laws of aftershocks and quantifies the dynamic forecasting of the induced
62 effects. This model has been used broadly in earthquake sequence study (Kumazawa
63 and Ogata, 2013; Console, 2010).

64 An increasing number of investigations show that there is an interaction effect for
65 the occurrence of aftershocks in a given area. Stress triggering model is usually used
66 to depict interaction between larger earthquakes by the view of physics (Haris, 1998;
67 Stein, 1999). More and more results show that obvious enhancement in Coulomb
68 stress not only can promote the occurrence of upcoming mid or strong events of an
69 earthquake sequence but also affects their spatial distribution to some degree
70 (Robinson and Zhou, 2005).

71 The aim of this paper is to introduce a different statistical method called Taylor's
72 power law (see section 2) into the statistical seismology field by analyzing the
73 Wenchuan earthquake sequence from the point of view of energy distribution or
74 energy release. The point is whether or not the energy distribution or energy release of



the Wenchuan earthquake sequence complies with a specific power-law function of TPL for different scaled samples and what the spatial and temporal properties are.

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1 Wenchuan earthquake sequence

A large earthquake of magnitude M_s 8.0 hit Wenchuan, Sichuan province of China at 14:28:01 CST (China Standard Time) on May 12, 2008 with an epicenter located at 103.4°N and 31.0°E and a depth of 19 km.

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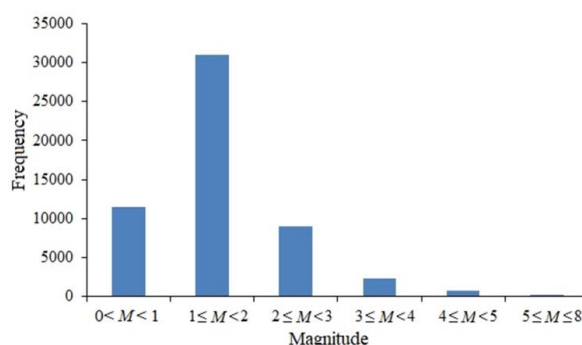


Figure 1 Histogram of earthquakes with different magnitudes of the Wenchuan sequence.

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According to the earthquake catalogue of the China Earthquake Networks Center (CENC) (<http://www.csi.ac.cn/>), there have been 54,554 earthquakes of magnitudes $M > 0$ recorded for the Wenchuan sequence by December 31, 2016. Figure 1 shows the frequency of aftershocks with different magnitudes. Here, aftershocks with $M < 2.0$ account for 77.9% of the total sequence due to the fact that only weak ones occur after a long period of time after the main shock. In addition, except for the main shock, the number of aftershocks is 733 for magnitudes $4.0 \leq M < 5.0$, and 86 for $5.0 \leq M < 8.0$, respectively. They account for a very small percentage of the total.



Figure 2 displays the fluctuation variability of the Wenchuan earthquake sequence with $M \geq 3.0$ from May 12, 2008 to December 31, 2016. The temporal distribution of the magnitudes of aftershocks attenuates quickly after the main shock. The three larger aftershocks all occurred in 2008 with M 6.4 on May 25, M 6.1 on August 1, and M 6.1 on August 5, respectively. Eighty-five percent of aftershocks with $M \geq 3.0$ occurred by the end of 2011, about 2.5 years after the main shock.

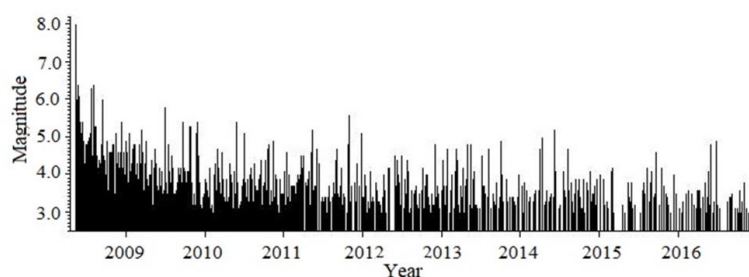


Figure 2 Series plot of the Wenchuan earthquake sequence with $M \geq 3.0$ from May 12, 2008 to December 31, 2016.

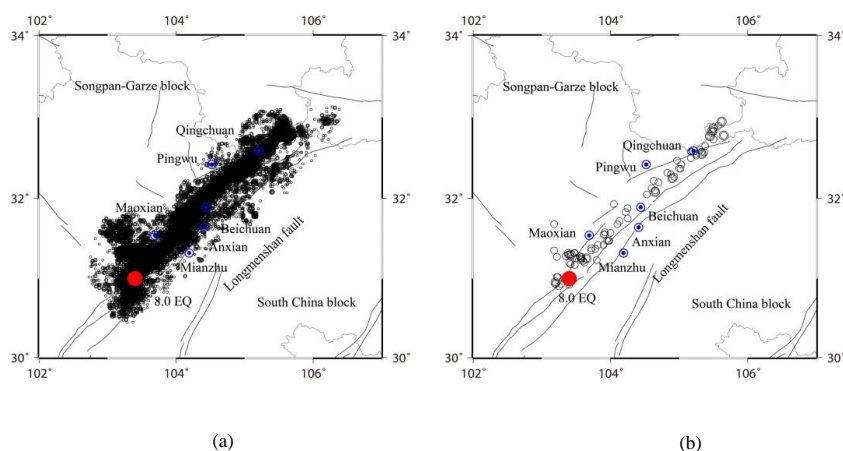


Figure 3 Spatial distribution of epicenters of the Wenchuan earthquake sequences with (a) $M > 0$ and (b) $M \geq 5.0$ from May 12, 2008 to December 31, 2016. The main shock on May 12, 2008 is labeled by a red solid circle.



Figure 3a shows the spatial distribution of epicenters of the Wenchuan earthquake sequence with $M > 0$ from May 12, 2008 to December 31, 2016. The aftershocks are distributed in the region with latitude 102°E – 107°E and longitude 30°N – 34°N , mainly along the Longmenshan thrust fault, which is a junction region of Songpan–Garze block and South China block and extends along north–east–east (NEE) direction for more than 400 km. The size of the aftershocks on different scales is characterized by a population density of the events distributed in space and time after the Wenchuan $M_S 8.0$ earthquake but we neglect the variations of the aftershock area in the next step. The distribution of strong aftershocks is of different segment characteristics. Earthquakes with magnitude $M \geq 5.0$ mainly spread in south Miaoxian and Mianzhu area and north Pingwu area. There are no strong aftershocks occurring in the middle areas such as Beichuan and Anxian (see Figure 3b). According to the primary investigation results of the Wenchuan rupture process conducted by Chen et al. (2008), the rupture of the Wenchuan 8.0 earthquake originated from Wenchuan thrust fault with a little right lateral slip component and extended mainly in north–east (NE) orientation. The whole process formed two areas with larger dislocations. One is the south area of Miaoxian located in the bottom section in Figure 3b. The other one lies near Beichuan area (the middle segment in Figure 3b) but no strong shocks happened there.

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142 2 Taylor's power law

143 In statistics, there are two important moments in a distribution, the mean (μ) and



144 the variance (V). It is common to describe the types of the distributions using the
 145 relationship between these two parameters. For instance, we have $V = \mu$ for a Poisson
 146 distribution.

147 In Nature, however, the variance is not always equal to or proportional to the
 148 mean. Mutual attraction or mutual repulsion for individuals in natural populations,
 149 e.g., the intra-specific completion of plants, makes variance different from the mean.
 150 After examining many sets of samples of animal and plant population densities in
 151 space, Taylor (1961) found that the variance appears to be related to the mean by a
 152 power-law function: the variance is proportional to the mean raised to a certain power

$$153 \quad V = a\mu^b \quad (1)$$

154 or equivalently as a linear function when the mean and variance are both
 155 logarithmically transformed

$$156 \quad \lg(V) = \lg(a) + b \times \lg(\mu) = c + b \times \lg(\mu) \quad (2)$$

157 where a and b are constants and $c = \lg(a)$. Eqs. 1 or 2 is called Taylor's law
 158 (henceforth TPL) or Taylor's power law of fluctuation scaling (Eisler et al., 2008).

159 Eqs. 1 and 2 may be exact if the mean and variance are population moments
 160 calculated from certain parametric families of skewed probability distributions
 161 (Cohen and Xu, 2015). TPL describes the species-specific relationship between the
 162 spatial or temporal variance of populations and their mean abundances (Kilpatrick and
 163 Ives, 2003). It has been verified for hundreds of biological species and nonbiological
 164 quantities in biomedical sciences, botany, ecology, epidemiology, biomedical sciences,
 165 botany, and other fields (Taylor, 1961, 1984; Kendal, 2002; Eisler et al., 2008; Cohen



166 and Xu, 2015; Shi et al., 2016, 2017; Lin et al., 2018). Most of the scientific
 167 investigations of TPL mainly focus on the power-law exponent b (or slope b in the
 168 linear form), which has been believed to contain information on aggregation in space
 169 or time of populations for a certain species (Horne and Schneider, 1995).

170 In this study, we also concentrate on the parameter b of TPL. We expect that b is
 171 independent of the temporal block size A which is used to divide the Wenchuan
 172 sequence into different temporal blocks because the aftershock area is invariable
 173 during this period.

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175 **3 Data processing method and results**

176 For the complete Wenchuan earthquake sequence, we denote the number of all
 177 earthquakes by N , i.e., $N = 54,554$, and use $q = 1, \dots, N$ to index each earthquake. For
 178 each earthquake with magnitude M_q , its corresponding energy release is labeled by E_q
 179 and it can be attained in the light of the following relationship (Xu and Zhou, 1982)

$$180 \quad \lg(E_q) = 11.8 + 1.5M_q \quad (3)$$

181 where E_q represents the energy in Joule, and M_q is the magnitude of an earthquake.

182 Now, the earthquake sequence can be transformed into an energy sequence of E_q .

183 We use t_q to index the time lag of the q -th aftershock from the main shock (in
 184 days), i.e., $t_1 = 0$ for the main event. The last aftershock occurred at 18:05:57 CST
 185 (China Standard Time) on December 31, 2016, and its t_q value is 3155.

186 In order to study the relationship between the variance and mean of the energy
 187 sequence E_q , we first divide it into equally-spaced short temporal blocks with size A



(in days). For example, if $A = 10$, then the number of blocks is $N/A = 3155/10 = 315.5$ which is rounded to the nearest integer. Now the complete energy sequence E_q is partitioned into $n = 316$ blocks of short energy subsequences. We use i to index each block, i.e., $i = 1, \dots, n$ and h_i to denote the number of data points in each block which is variable because earthquakes occurred stochastically in the sequence. Now we can calculate the mean (μ) and variance (V) for each block using

$$\mu_i = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{h_i} E_{i,j}}{h_i} \quad (4)$$

$$V_i = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{h_i} (E_{i,j} - \mu_i)^2}{h_i - 1} \quad (5)$$

where $E_{i,j}$ denotes the energy of the j -th earthquake in the i -th block. The data processing procedure has been performed with different block size $A = 4, 5, 6, \dots, 100$. The number of sample points in each block decreases as the block size increases. The relationships between the mean and variance of the released energies from earthquakes in 6 representative temporal blocks are shown in Figure 4 on a lg–lg scale. The red line stands for the fitted linear function of TPL’s power law $\lg(V_i) = c + b \times \lg(\mu_i)$ using least squares. The 95% confidence intervals (CI) of the slope and the coefficients of determination R^2 are shown in Table S1. For instance, Figure 4a shows the variance as a function of the mean for 316 time intervals when $A = 10$. The estimated intercept is 0.702 and the estimated slope is 2.060 with a 95% CI of (1.989, 2.076) and $R^2 = 0.963$. The root-mean-square error (RMSE) was also calculated to exhibit the feasibility of using a TPL with the exponent 2 to approximate that with the exponent to be estimated (unknown).

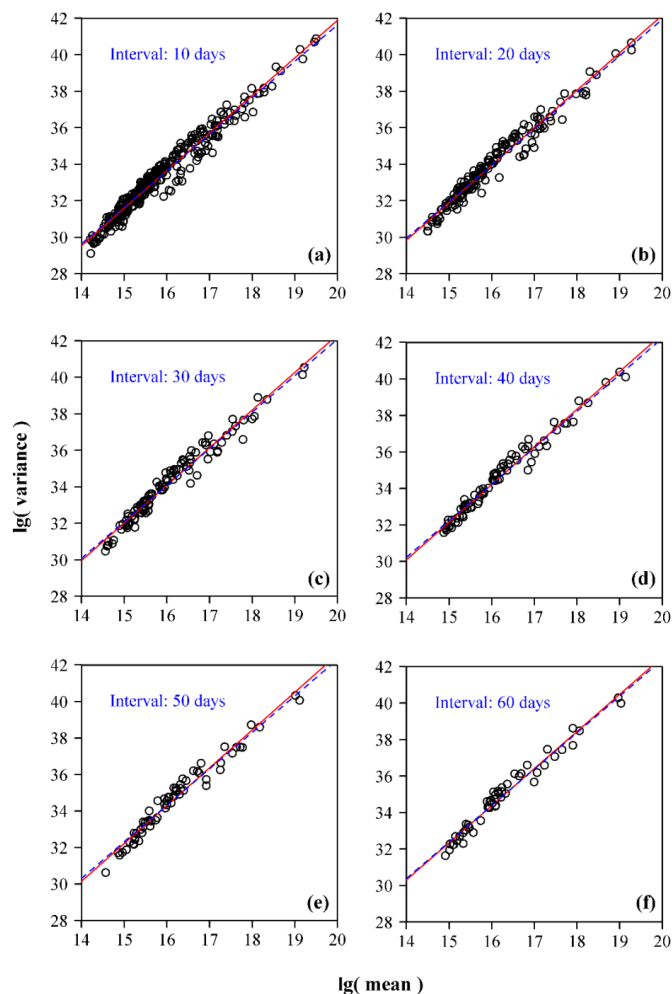


Figure 4 The calculated variance as a function of the observed mean of the energies from earthquakes in each time interval on lg–lg coordinates (open circles), for different values of A . The red straight line corresponds to the fitted Taylor's power law with an unknown exponent, i.e. $\lg(V) = c + d \lg(\mu)$, using least squares. The blue dashed line corresponds to the fitted Taylor's power law with the exponent 2, i.e. $\lg(V) = d + 2 \lg(\mu)$. There are 14 different values of A in total, and only 6 are shown here. (a) $A = 10$; (b) $A = 20$; (c) $A = 30$; (d) $A = 40$; (e) $A = 50$; (f) $A = 60$.

Figure 4 and Table S1 show that there is an apparent linear relationship between the common logarithm of the variance and the common logarithm of the mean for all

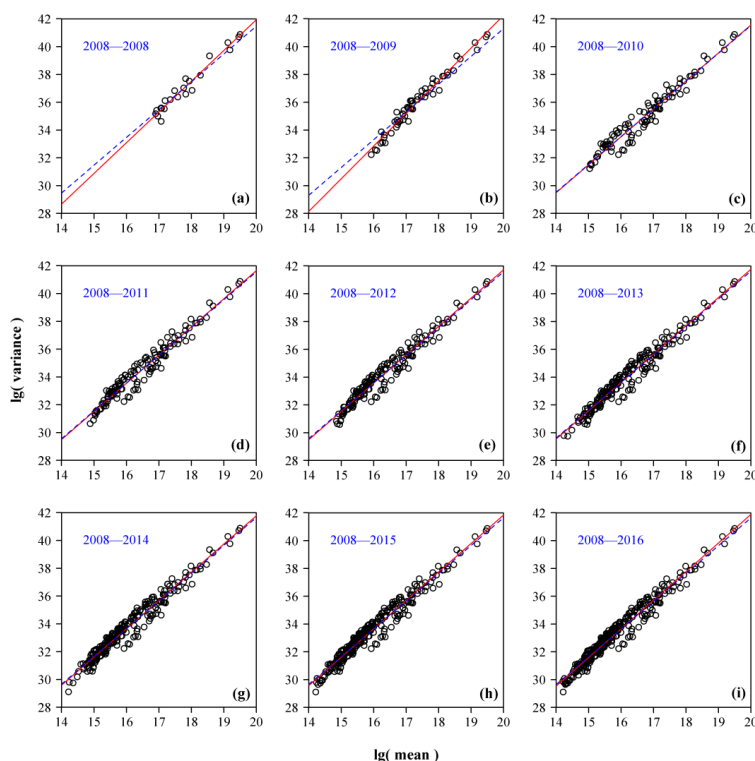


220 earthquakes occurring within different temporal blocks, characterized by a property of
221 aggregation at different timescales. The estimated value of the intercept, c (or $\lg(a)$),
222 which is mainly influenced by the number of samples, overall increases with A from
223 0.016 to 3.249 (Table S1). The estimates of slope b , on the other hand, are roughly 2
224 for all block sizes used in the study. All R^2 values are greater than 0.96, showing a
225 very strong linear relationship. These results indicate that the energy release of
226 aftershocks of the Wenchuan sequence complies well with a temporal TPL.

227

228 **4 Discussion and conclusions**

229 The evolutionary process of a large earthquake is characterized by some complex
230 features from stochastic to chaotic or pseudo-periodic dynamics (McCaffrey, 2011).
231 On the one hand, there is a long-term slow strain of accumulation and culminating of
232 rocks in the rigid lithosphere prior to the event with a sudden rupture and
233 displacement of blocks. On the other hand, there is another long-term slow strain of
234 redistribution and energy release with a large number of aftershock occurrences in an
235 extensive area, which generally lasts for several months, sometimes even years, after
236 the main shock.



237

238 Figure 5 The calculated variance as a function of the observed mean of the energies from earthquakes
 239 in each block on a lg–lg scale (open circles) when A is fixed to be 10. The red straight line corresponds
 240 to the fitted Taylor's power law with an unknown exponent, i.e. $\lg(V) = c + d \lg(\mu)$, using least squares.
 241 The blue dashed line corresponds to the fitted Taylor's power law with the exponent 2, i.e. $\lg(V) = d +$
 242 $2 \lg(\mu)$. (a) 2008–2008; (b) 2008–2009; (c) 2008–2010; (d) 2008–2011; (e) 2008–2012; (f) 2008–2013;
 243 (g) 2008–2014; (h) 2008–2015; (i) 2008–2016.

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245 It has been statistically established that in populations, if individuals distribute
 246 randomly and are independent of each other, then the variance is equal to the mean,
 247 i.e., $V = \mu$; individuals show mutual attraction if the variance is proportional to the
 248 mean to a power > 1 ; individuals mutually repel each other if the variance is
 249 proportional to the mean to a power < 1 (Taylor, 1961; Horne and Schneider, 1995).



250 The results attained here show that the exponent of the TPL is around 2. This means
 251 earthquakes in the Wenchuan sequence are not distributed at random but with a
 252 mutual attraction. It also indicates that there are possible interactions among different
 253 magnitudes in the earthquake sequence. However, these interactions possibly depend
 254 on the stress condition and geological tectonic environment where earthquakes
 255 occurred. The occurrence of the main shock released a huge amount of energy, as well
 256 as stress redistribution and accumulating in other areas. A quick adjustment and
 257 accumulation of stress subsequently resulted in more events in the aftershock area.
 258 These processes lead to a specific distribution of aftershocks in space and time.

259 Cohen and Xu (2015) proposed analytically that observations randomly
 260 sampled in blocks from any skewed frequency distribution with four finite moments
 261 give rise to TPL because the variation in the sample mean and sample variance
 262 between blocks are theoretically small if every block is randomly sampled from the
 263 same distribution.

264 We divide the Wenchuan earthquake sequence into 9 time stages in years:
 265 2008–2008, 2008–2009, 2008–2010, 2008–2011, 2008–2012, 2008–2013, 2008–2014,
 266 2008–2015, and 2008–2016. For each stage, we follow a similar procedure leading to
 267 Figure 4. That is, we first transform all earthquakes into their energy forms using the
 268 relationship between earthquake magnitude M and energy E . Then the energy
 269 sequence are partitioned into temporal blocks with a fixed block size $A = 10$ days. The
 270 calculated variances and means are plotted on a lg-lg scale as shown in Figure 5.
 271 Again, TPL comes into play for all time stages. Table S2 gives the detailed numerical



estimates of the parameters of the linear form in Eq. (2).

Figure 5 shows that there is a strong linear relationship between the variance and mean of the earthquake energy populations on a lg-lg scale, especially for those large samples. The estimates summarized in Table S2 (red fitted lines in Figure 5) show similar results as in Table S1. The intercept gradually increases as the total number of samples increases but with a little more fluctuation. Meanwhile, the estimate of slope b is still roughly a constant around 2.

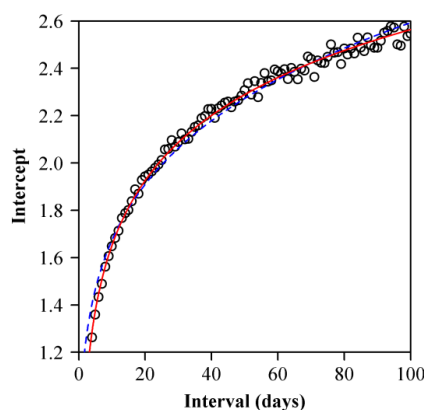


Figure 6 The effect of time division (time span) on the estimate of the intercept in the TPL with a fixed exponent of 2, i.e. $\lg(V) = d + 2 \lg(\mu)$, where d denotes the intercept. Two equations were used to fit the data ($d = \alpha + \beta \times \lg(A)$ and $d = m \times A^n$, where α , β , m and n are constants). The residual sum of squares (= 0.0535) using the logarithm function (represented by the red curve) is lower than that (= 0.1460) using the exponential function (represented by the blue curve).

There are various types of interpretations for the value of parameter b . Ford and Andrew (2007) suggested that individuals' reproductive correlation determines the size of b . While Kilpatrick and Ives (2003) proposed that interspecific competition could reduce the value of b . Above all, empirically, b usually lies between 1 and 2



290 (Maurer and Taper, 2002). However, it is expected that TPL holds with $b = 2$ exactly
 291 in a population with a constant coefficient of variation (CV) of population density.
 292 This expectation derives from the well-known relationship: SD (standard deviation)
 293 equals to square root of variance (V), i.e., $SD = \sqrt{V}$ and the coefficient of variation
 294 $CV = SD / \mu = k$, here k is a constant. Then we can obtain $V = (k\mu)^2$. The relationship
 295 between $\lg(V)$ and $\lg(k\mu)$ is a straight line with slope 2 on a \lg - \lg scale.

296 The variations of the estimated exponent b of the Wenchuan sequence as the
 297 timescale A increases from 4 days to 100 days with an increment of 1 day are shown
 298 in Figure 6. Up to now, we confirm that the mean-variance relationship of energy
 299 releases from an earthquake sequence can be predicted although the accurate
 300 prediction of the time and location of an imminent event is still not attainable.

301 It is well established that there is a specific property on the population either in
 302 space or in time when b equals 2. Ballantyne (2005) proposed that $b = 2$ is a
 303 consequence of deterministic population growth. While Cohen (2013) showed that $b =$
 304 2 arose from exponentially growing, noninteracting clones. Furthermore, using the
 305 Lewontin-Cohen (LC) model of stochastic population dynamics, Cohen et al. (2015)
 306 provided an explicit, exact interpretation of its parameters of TPL. They proposed that
 307 the exponent of TPL will be equal to 2 if and only if the LC model is deterministic; it
 308 will be greater than 2 if the model is supercritical (growing on average) and be less
 309 than 2 if the model is subcritical (declining on average). This property indicates that
 310 parameter $b = 2$ in our investigation on the Wenchuan earthquake sequence depends
 311 exactly on its specific distribution of aftershocks. In other words, the law of



312 occurrence of all events or energy release in space and time is deterministic following
 313 the main shock on May 12, 2008.

314 Although various empirical confirmations suggest that no specific biological,
 315 physical, technological, or behavioral mechanism explains all instances of TPL, in
 316 fact, it is possible that there are some interactions among earthquakes with different
 317 magnitudes in an earthquake sequence. This kind of interaction probably derives from
 318 medium stress state of the focus zone where earthquakes happen. The stress field in
 319 the aftershock area is in a rapidly adjusting state when a larger earthquake occurred. It
 320 is probable that a light stress adjustment caused by a small earthquake most likely
 321 induces an obvious event in its surroundings in the near future. This process can lead
 322 to aggregation of aftershocks in space and time in extensive areas, causing TPL to
 323 hold for the Wenchuan earthquake energy sequence. However, whether TPL accords
 324 with all earthquake sequences and complies with specific parameters, e.g., $b = 2$,
 325 needs further investigation.

326 In summary, we attempt to use a new way to investigate a spatio-temporal
 327 distribution property of aftershocks of the Wenchuan earthquake sequence during
 328 2008–2016. In terms of the energy release, the variance of samples in the earthquake
 329 population is shown to have a simple power law relationship as a function of the mean
 330 at different timescales, which gives rise to a TPL, i.e., $V = a\mu^b$, with $b = 2$. On the one
 331 hand, the results show that the intercept of the fitted line in linear form $\lg(V) = c + b \times$
 332 $\lg(\mu)$ on a log–log scale, increases as the number of samples and it is reconfirmed that
 333 parameter c (namely $\lg(a)$) predominantly depends upon the size of the sampling units



(Taylor, 1961). On the other hand, if TPL holds, the estimated values of parameters a and b support the conclusion that the Wenchuan aftershocks mutually trigger each other and distribute in space and time not randomly but determinantly and definitely. We fix the exponent of TPL to be 2, and check the effects of different time divisions on the estimate of the intercept. The result shows that the intercept acts as a logarithm function of the timescale. It implies that the mean–variance relationship of energy releases from the earthquakes can be predicted even though we cannot accurately predict the time and location of imminent events.

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