1	Spatiotemporal changes of seismicity rate during
2	earthquakes
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#### 35 Abstract

Scientists demystify stress changes within tens of days before a mainshock and 36 37 often utilize its foreshocks as an indicator. Typically, foreshocks are detected near fault zones, which may be due to the distribution of seismometers. This study 38 investigates changes in seismicity far from mainshocks by examining tens of thousands 39 of  $M \ge 2$  quakes that were monitored by dense seismic arrays for more than 10 years in 40 Taiwan and Japan. The quakes occurred within epicentral distances ranging from 0 41 km to 400 km during a period of 60 days before and after the mainshocks that are 42 utilized to exhibit common behaviors of seismicity in the spatiotemporal domain. The 43 superimposition results show that wide areas exhibit increased seismicity associated 44 45 with mainshocks being more than several times to areas of the fault rupture. The seismicity increase initially concentrates in the fault zones, and gradually expands 46 outward to over 50 km away from the epicenters approximately 40 days before the 47 The seismicity increases more rapidly around the fault zones 48 mainshocks. approximately 20 days before the mainshocks. The stressed crust triggers ground 49 vibrations at frequencies varying from  $\sim 5 \times 10^{-4}$  Hz to  $\sim 10^{-3}$  Hz (i.e., variable frequency) 50 along with earthquake-related stress that migrates from exterior areas to approach the 51 fault zones. The variable frequency is determined by the observation of continuous 52 seismic waveforms through the superimposition processes and is further supported by 53 the resonant frequency model. These results suggest that the variable frequency of 54 ground vibrations is a function of areas with increased seismicity leading to earthquakes. 55

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57 Keywords: foreshocks; resonance frequency; earthquake-related stressed area

#### 59 **1. Introduction**

Numerous studies (Reasenberg, 1999; Scholz, 2002; Vidale et al., 2001; Ellsworth 60 61 and Beroza, 1995) reported that foreshocks occur near a fault zone and migrate toward the hypocenter of a mainshock before its occurrence. The spatiotemporal evolution 62 of foreshocks is generally considered to be an essential indicator that reveals variations 63 in earthquake-related stress a couple of days before mainshocks. After detecting these 64 variations, scientists installed multiple instruments along both sides of the fault over 65 short distances to monitor the activity of the fault. However, these instruments 66 typically detect small vibrations near the fault zone. Stress accumulates in a local 67 region near a hypocenter triggering earthquake occurrence that is concluded from the 68 sparse distribution of seismometers. 69

Bedford et al. (2020) analyzed the GNSS data and observed crustal deformation 70 in a thousand-kilometer-scale area before the great earthquakes in the subduction zones. 71 Chen et al. (2011, 2014, 2020a, 2020b) filtered the crustal displacements before 72 earthquakes using the GNSS data through the Hilbert-Huang transform. The filtered 73 74 crustal displacements in a hundred(thousand)-kilometer-scale area before the moderatelarge (M9 Tohoku-Oki) earthquakes exhibit paralleling azimuths that yield an 75 agreement with the most compressive axes of the forthcoming earthquakes (Chen et al., 76 2014). On the other hand, Dobrovolsky (1979) estimated the size of the earthquake 77 preparation zone using the numerical simulation method and found that the radius (R) 78 of the zone is proportional to earthquake magnitude (M). In addition, the relationship 79 can be written by using a formula of  $R=10^{0.43M}$ . These results suggest that a stressed 80 area before earthquakes is obviously larger than the rupture of fault zones. However, 81 82 it is a big challenge to monitor stress changes in a wide area beneath the ground. A simple way to imagine this is if we place a stick on a table, then hold and try to break 83 the stick. The stress we making on the stick can apply to either a limited local region 84 or to both ends of it. Migrations and propagations of the loading force can be detected 85 according to the changes of strain and the occurrence of microcracks. This common 86 sense suggests that the spatiotemporal evolution of earthquake-related stress appearing 87

a couple of days before mainshocks can be recognized if we can trace the occurrence
of relatively-small quakes in a wide area (Kawamura et al., 2014; Wen and Chen, 2017).
Here we take advantage of earthquake catalogs obtained by dense seismic arrays in
Taiwan and Japan to expose foreshocks distributing over a wide area instead of a local
region.

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#### 94 **2. Methodology**

95 The ability to detect relatively-small quakes depends on the spatial density and Taiwan and Japan are both the most famous highcapability of seismometers. 96 seismicity areas in the world. Dense seismometers evenly distributed throughout the 97 whole area are beneficial for monitoring the earthquake occurrences near to and far 98 99 away from fault zones (Chang, 2014). Earthquake catalogs retrieved from Taiwan and Japan were obtained from the Central Weather Bureau (CWB), Taiwan and the Japan 100 Meteorological Agency (JMA), respectively. To distinguish dependencies from 101 independent seismicity, the earthquake catalogs are declustered. Therefore, the 102 103 ZMAP software package for MATLAB (Weimer, 2001) was utilized to remove and/or omit influence from duplicate events, such as aftershocks. The declustering algorithm 104 used in ZMAP is based on the algorithm developed by Reasenberg (Reasenberg, 1985). 105 We classify clusters by using the standard input parameters (proposed in Reasenberg, 106 1985 and Uhrhammer, 1986) for the declustering algorithm. Because the aftershock 107 clusters in a small area and in a short period of time do not conform to the Poisson 108 distribution, which requires removing the aftershocks from the earthquake sequence. 109 Therefore, some parameters can be set as follow: The look-ahead time for un-clustered 110 111 events is in one day, and the maximum look-ahead time for clustered events is in 10 112 days. The measure of probability to detect the next event in the earthquake sequence The effective minimum magnitude cut-off for the catalog is given by 1.5, and is 0.95. 113 the interaction radius of dependent events is given by 10 km (van Stiphout et al., 2012). 114 Earthquakes with depth > 30 km were eliminated from the declustered catalogs to 115 understand seismicity changes before mainshocks mainly in the crust. 116

Before the analytical processes in this study, we assumed that earthquakes with 117 relatively-small magnitude can be the cracks and potentially related to the far 118 119 mainshocks based on the large seismogenic areas (Bedford et al., 2020). The minimum magnitudes of completeness Mc are 2.0 and 0.0 that can be determined by 120 the declustered earthquake catalogs in Taiwan and Japan, respectively (also see Figs. 121 S1–S4). The earthquakes with  $M \ge 2$  are selected and utilized in this study for fair 122 comparison of the seismicity changes during earthquakes in Taiwan and Japan. We 123 124 4,  $4 \le M < 5$  and  $5 \le M < 6$ ). Note that the classified earthquakes in each group are 125 determined as the break events (i.e., the mainshocks). In contrast, the other selected 126 earthquakes with magnitudes smaller than the minima of the classified magnitude are 127 determined as the crack events. 128

We construct a spatiotemporal distribution of the crack events for each break quake. 129 The spatiotemporal distribution from 0 km to 400 km away from the epicenter of the 130 break quake during a period of 60 days before and after the break occurrence is 131 132 constructed to illustrate the relationship between the crack events and the break quake in the spatial and temporal domain. Note that the spatial and temporal resolutions of 133 the grids of the spatiotemporal distribution are 10 km and 1 day, respectively, based on 134 the declustering parameters in the ZMAP software (Weimer, 2001). We count the 135 crack events in each spatiotemporal grid according to distance away from the epicenter 136 and the differences in time before and after the occurrence of the break quake. 137

The superimposition process, a statistical tool utilized in data analysis, is capable 138 of either detecting periodicities within a time sequence or revealing a correlation 139 between more than two data sequences (Chree, 1913). The process is known as the 140 superposed epoch analysis (Adams et al., 2003; Hocke, 2008). 141 In practice, the superimposition is a process to stack numerous datasets that can migrate unique features 142 for a few datasets and enhance common characteristics for the most datasets. The 143 count in each grid of the spatiotemporal distributions for all the break quakes are 144 superimposed as a total one based on the occurrence time and epicentral distance of the 145

break guakes. The total count of the superimposed distribution in each spatiotemporal 146 grid is normalized to seismic density (count/km<sup>2</sup>) for comparing to the total number of 147 the break quakes and the related spatial area. Moreover, we compute the average 148 values every distance grid using the seismic densities 60 days before and after the quake. 149 The average values are subtracted from the seismic densities and the obtained 150 differences are divided by the average values in each distance grid to obtain the 151 normalized variation clarifying changes of the seismic density in the spatiotemporal 152 153 domain.

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## 155 **3. Analytical results**

The earthquakes with magnitude  $\geq 2$  listed in the declustered catalogs of Taiwan 156 from January 1991 to June 2017 are utilized to construct a spatiotemporal distribution 157 of foreshocks and aftershocks corresponding to the quakes with  $3 \le M < 4$ . We 158 superimposed all the crack events corresponding to the 15625 quakes ( $3 \le M < 4$ ). 159 The seismic density is more than 1000 times greater in a hot region at a distance of 10 160 161 km away from an epicenter (which is generally considered to be the gestation area of foreshocks) than it is in areas located > 200 km from the epicenter (Fig. 1a). The 162 sudden increase of seismic density suggests that earthquake-related stress accumulates 163 mainly around the hot region, triggering many foreshocks a few days before the 164 earthquakes with  $3 \le M < 4$ . This partial agreement of the numerous recent studies 165 reported that the seismicity migrates toward the fault rupture zone within tens of 166 167 kilometers from epicenters a couple of days before earthquakes (Kato et al., 2012, Kato and Obara, 2014; Liu et al., 2019). Meanwhile, the events mainly occur 0–1 day after 168 the quakes that is irrelevant to the smaller distribution 0–1 day before the quakes (also 169 see Fig. 1). The seismic density close to epicenters (Fig. 1) suddenly increases before 170 and gradually decreases after the quakes. The irrelevance and the differences of 171 changes rates with epicentral distance smaller than 20 km before and after the quakes 172 reveal that the increase of seismicity before the quakes is not contributed by the 173 seismicity after due to the analytical processes in this study. In addition, these 174

analytical results of the seismic activity are also in agreement with the studies in
Lippiello et al. (2012, 2017, 2019) and de Arcangelis et al. (2016) regard for distinct
methods.

On the other hand, the increase of seismic density is not only always limited within 178 the hot region, but also extends outward to a distance of over 50 km away from the 179 epicenters about 0–40 days leading up to the occurrence of the quakes (Fig. 1a). We 180 further examine the spatiotemporal changes in the seismic density up to the  $M \ge 4$ 181 quakes utilizing the same superimposition process (Figs. 1b-c). The expansion of the 182 increased seismic density about 0-40 days leading up to the occurrence of the quakes 183 and the sharp increases of seismic density a few days before the quakes that can be 184 consistently observed using the  $M \ge 4$  quakes in Figs. 1b–c. Similar results (i.e., the 185 sharp increases of seismic density a few days before the quakes and areas where the 186 increase of the seismicity density is much larger than that of the hot region) can also be 187 obtained using the earthquake catalogs between 2001 and 2010 from the Japan 188 Meteorological Agency (JMA) in Japan (Figs. 1d–f). Note that the earthquakes that 189 190 occurred in the northern side of the latitude of 32°N were selected from the Japan catalogs. The selection is based on that the earthquakes occurred in the area monitored 191 by the dense seismometer network and to avoid the double count of events in the 192 Taiwan catalogs. The normalized variations correspond to seismic density in Fig. 1 193 are shown in Fig. 2. The radii of the positive normalized variations are approximately 194 50 km while earthquake magnitude increases from 3 to 6 in Taiwan (Figs. 2a–c). The 195 land area of Taiwan is approximately 250 km by 400 km, which causes underestimation 196 of the seismic density in the spatial domain. In contrast, the positive normalized 197 198 variations roughly expand along the radii ranging from 50 km to 150 km, while earthquake magnitude increases from 3 to 6 in Japan (Figs. 2d-f). 199 However, variations in the lead time mostly range from 40 days to 20 days, and relationships 200 between the positive normalized variations and the earthquake magnitude can be found 201 202 neither in Taiwan nor Japan (Fig. 2).

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In short, the expansion of the increase of seismic density becomes mitigation and

may no longer be impact a place at distances > 200 km away from the epicenters for 204 the earthquakes with magnitude < 6. The increase of seismicity density before the 205 quakes suggests that the accumulation of the earthquake-related stress in the crust 206 originates from the hot region, and gradually extends to an external place before 207 earthquakes occur. The area of this external place is several times that of a fault 208 rupture zone that is concluded based on the sparse seismic arrays of the past. If a 209 quake can excite seismicity changes over a wide area (i.e., over 50 km by 50 km), any 210 211 crustal vibration related to stress accumulation before earthquakes can be too small to be identified from continuous seismic waveforms at one station. In contrast, crustal 212 vibrations can be a common characteristic of continuous seismic waveforms at most 213 stations around fault zones due to that seismicity changes dominated by earthquake-214 215 related stress accumulation distributes in a wide area.

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Fig. 1. Spatiotemporal seismic density distributions in Taiwan and Japan. The seismic densities constructed by using the declustered earthquake catalogs of Taiwan and Japan are shown in the left and right panels, respectively. The seismic density reveals changes in seismicity at distances from the epicenters ranging from 0 km to 400 km at up to 60 days before and after quakes in a particular magnitude group. The superimposed number in each grid is further normalized for a fair comparison by using the total number of quakes and their areas. Notably, the total number of quakes is shown in the title of each diagram.

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Fig. 2. Changes of the normalized spatiotemporal variations in Taiwan and Japan. The normalized variations correspond to the seismic density in Taiwan and Japan (in Fig. 1) are shown in the left and right panels, respectively. The colors reveal changes of the normalized variations at distances from the epicenters ranging from 0 km to 400 km at up to 60 days before and after quakes in a particular magnitude group.

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### 236 4. The principal component analysis (PCA) on the continuous seismic waveforms

Seismic waveforms obtained from 33 broadband seismometers operated by 237 National Center for Research on Earthquake Engineering (NCREE) of Taiwan, within 238 a temporal span of approximately one year (from June 2015 to June 2016) are utilized 239 in this study. Note that two seismometers of them are eliminated from following the 240 analytical processes due to long data gaps. The principal component analysis (PCA) 241 method (Jolliffe, 2002) is utilized to retrieve the possible stress-related common signals 242 from continuous seismic waveforms on the vertical component at thirty-one seismic 243 stations over a wide area and to mitigate local noise simultaneously. Fig. 3a shows 244 that the energy and the cumulative energy of the principal components derived from the 245

continuous seismic waveforms at the 31 stations. The energy of the first principal component is about 12% that is more than 3 times to the following ones. Thus, we determined the first principal component to be the common signals of the ground vibrations before earthquakes. Fig. 3b reveals changes in the common signals during the study period along the time. However, no obvious changes can be observed in the temporal domain.





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Fig. 3. The energy and the first principal component derived from vertical seismic velocity data from the 31 stations. The energy and the cumulative energy of the principal components are shown in (a). Bars denote the energy of each principal component. The blue line shows the variation of the cumulative energy from distinct used principal components. The variations of the first principal component during the period (i.e., from June 2015 to June 2016) are revealed in (b). The red vertical line indicates the occurrence time of the M6.6 Meinong earthquake (on February 2, 2016).

Thus, we sliced the common signals into several time spans using a 5-day moving 262 window with one-day steps to show time-varying changes. The common signals in 263 each time span are transferred into the frequency domain using the Fourier transform 264 to investigate frequency characteristics of ground vibrations before earthquakes. The 265 amplitudes are normalized using the frequency-dependent average values computed 266 from the amplitude 30 days before and after earthquakes via the temporal division. 267 Here, we take the M6.6 Meinong earthquake (Wen and Chen, 2017, Chen et al., 2020c) 268 269 as an example to understand the changes of the amplitude of the common signals in the spatiotemporal domain (Fig. 4a). Distinct patterns in the amplitude-frequency 270 distributions can obviously be observed before and after the earthquake at frequency 271 higher than  $5 \times 10^{-4}$  Hz (also see Figs. 4e and 4f). The amplitude at the frequency close 272 to  $5 \times 10^{-4}$  Hz was obviously enhanced approximately 20–40 days before the earthquake. 273 Hereafter, the enhancements were significantly reduced and reached to a relatively-274 small value a few days after the earthquake. Meanwhile, the frequency is close to 275  $2 \times 10^{-4}$  Hz approximately 60 days before the earthquake and tends to be high near  $10^{-3}$ 276 277 Hz a few days before the event (also see Figs. 4e–4f). We next superimpose the amplitude based on the occurrence time of the 17 earthquakes with  $4 \le M < 5$  and the 278 109 earthquakes with  $3 \le M \le 4$  during the one-year temporal span shown in Figs. 4b 279 and 4c, respectively. The consistent variations (i.e., the frequency is close to  $2 \times 10^{-4}$ 280 Hz approximately some days before the quakes tending to be high near  $10^{-3}$  Hz a few 281 days before the quakes) that can be observed in Figs. 4b and 4c. 282

Here, we retrieve the ratios at three frequencies of approximately  $1 \times 10^{-4}$  Hz,  $5 \times 10^{-5}$ 283 <sup>4</sup> Hz, and  $1 \times 10^{-3}$  Hz to reveal the relationship between the enhancements and 284 earthquake magnitudes (Figs. 4d–4f). For the Meinong earthquake, the enhancements 285 could be identified at the low frequency of approximately  $1 \times 10^{-4}$  Hz. The ratios 286 exhibit a relatively-large value of ~1.2 about 90 days earlier than the earthquake (Fig. 287 The ratios rapidly decrease to a relatively-small value of ~0.5 near 60 days before 288 4d). the earthquake. The enhancements with the maxima reach  $\sim 1.6$  appeared  $\sim 30$  days 289 before the earthquake. After the earthquake, the ratios fluctuate and recover as a 290

relatively-large value of  $\sim 1.2$  about 100 days later than the earthquake. Regarding 291 earthquakes with relatively-small magnitude, the enhancements at  $1 \times 10^{-4}$  Hz is ~1.2 for 292 the group of  $4 \le M \le 5$ , and  $\sim 1.1$  for the group of  $3 \le M \le 4$  between 30 days and 50 293 days before the earthquake occurrence (Fig. 4d). Similarly, the enhancements at  $5 \times 10^{-10}$ 294 <sup>4</sup> Hz is ~1.4 for the Meinong earthquake, ~1.15 for the group of  $4 \le M < 5$ , and ~1.05 295 for the group of  $3 \le M \le 4$  between 5 days and 30 days before the earthquake occurrence 296 (Figs. 4e). The enhancements at  $1 \times 10^{-3}$  Hz is ~1.15 for the Meinong earthquake, 297 ~1.15 for the group of  $4 \le M \le 5$ , and ~1.05 for the group of  $3 \le M \le 4$  between 2 days 298 and 30 days before the earthquake occurrence (Fig. 4f). The ratios at the three 299 frequencies in Figs. 4d–4f suggest that the amplitude ratios of the enhancements and 300 earthquake magnitudes generally show a proportional relationship. However, the 301 ratios at  $1 \times 10^{-3}$  Hz with a relatively-large value of ~1.6 can be observed during the 302 period of 60-45 days before the Meinong earthquake due to unknown disturbances (Fig. 303 4f). 304

The findings suggest that the common-mode ground vibrations exist in a wide area before earthquakes due to the signals being retrieved from the most stations distributing the whole Taiwan island through the PCA method. In short, the common-mode vibrations are very difficult to be identified from the time-series data but become significant in the frequency domain. If the expansion of the seismoeneric areas and the existence of the common-mode ground vibrations are true, the next step is to determine the potential mechanism hidden behind this nature.

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Fig. 4. The amplitude ratio of the superimposed time-frequency-amplitude distribution 314 associated with earthquakes with distinct magnitudes. The superimposed results 120 315 days before and after quakes with the M6.6 Meinong earthquake,  $4 \le M \le 5$  and  $3 \le M$ 316 < 4 are shown in (a), (b) and (c), respectively. The distribution is normalized for 317 comparison by using the average amplitude in each frequency band of 30 days before 318 319 and after the quakes. The total number of earthquakes in each magnitude group is shown in the title of each diagram. Variations of the amplitude ratios in (a)–(c) at 320 frequencies of about  $1 \times 10^{-4}$  Hz,  $5 \times 10^{-4}$  Hz, and  $1 \times 10^{-3}$  Hz during the same period are 321 shown in (d), (e) and (f), respectively. 322

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### 324 **5. Discussions**

Walczak et al. (2017) repeatedly observed stressed rocks exciting long-period 325 vibrations during rock mechanics experiments. Leissa (1969) reported that the 326 resonance frequency of an object is proportional to its Young's modulus and exhibits 327 an inverse relationship to its mass. Based on the crust, the outermost of the Earth, is 328 lamellar, we assume that the earthquake-related stress accumulates in the volume of a 329 square sheet with a width of 100 km, which is determined by using a distance of 50 km 330 away from an earthquake due to the significant increase of the seismic density (Figs. 1 331 and 2). The resonance frequency near  $3 \times 10^{-4}$  Hz (Fig. 4) can be derived from the 332

square sheet once the thickness of the volume is ranged between 500 meters and 1000 meters (Fig. S5). Although we do not fully understand the causal mechanism of the thickness, the agreement with the spatiotemporal domain of the relatively-small quakes from the earthquake catalogs, the superimposition results of continuous seismic waveforms and the resonance frequency models suggest that the phenomenon of variable frequency may exist tens of days before earthquake occurrence and can be retrieved by broadband seismometers.

340 In this study, we determined the seismogenic areas using the relatively-small earthquakes in the spatiotemporal distribution and found that the areas are significantly 341 larger than the fault rupture zone (Figs. 1 and 2). Meanwhile, the ground vibrations 342 can exhibit frequency-dependent characteristics at about 10<sup>-4</sup> Hz (Fig. 4) that could 343 relate to the large seismogenic areas due to the resonance model (Fig. S5). If these 344 are true, the seismo-TEC (total electron content) anomalies in the ionosphere, which is 345 generally observed in a large-scale area with more than ten thousand square kilometers 346 (Liu et al., 2009), are high potential to be driven by upward propagation of acoustic 347 348 waves before earthquakes (Molchanov et al., 1998, 2011; Korepanov et al., 2009; Hayakawa et al., 2010, 2011; Sun et al., 2011; Oyama et al., 2016). The existence of 349 the ground vibrations can generate the acoustic-gravity waves that have been reported 350 (Liu et al., 2016, 2017). However, the acoustic-gravity waves in a period of < 300351 seconds are difficult to propagate upward into the atmosphere and the ionosphere (Yeh 352 and Liu, 1974; Azeem et al., 2018). The wide seismogenic areas observed in this 353 study can contribute the larger-scale ground vibrations at approximately  $5 \times 10^{-4} - 10^{-3}$ 354 Hz that cover the frequency channel (< 1/300 Hz) for the acoustic-gravity waves 355 356 propagating into the atmosphere and changing the TEC in the ionosphere. Meanwhile, the seismo-atmospheric and the seismo-ionospheric anomalies in a large-scale area can 357 also be supported by the acoustic-gravity waves due to the wide seismogenic areas. 358 While partial aforementioned relationships cannot be quickly proven, the ground 359 vibrations at a low frequency (< 1/300 Hz) in a wide area assist our understanding of 360 the essence of the seismo-anomalies in the atmosphere and the ionosphere. 361

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#### 363 6. Conclusion

The process of stress migration in the spatiotemporal domain can be concluded 364 from tracing the increase of seismicity according to the 10-year earthquake catalogs 365 from dense seismic arrays in Taiwan and Japan. Areas with the increase of seismicity, 366 where stress accumulates in the crust triggering earthquakes are serious 367 underestimation using a sparse seismic array. Seismicity initially increases around 368 hypocenters, and this can be observed more than 50 days before quakes through 369 superimposing large numbers of earthquakes. The seismicity gradually increases 370 along with the expansion of areas from fault zones to an area widely covering an 371 epicentral distance close to 50 km approximately 20–40 days before earthquakes. The 372 crustal resonance exists at a frequency near  $5 \times 10^{-4}$  Hz when the expansion becomes 373 insignificant. Instead of the spatial expansion, the sharp increase of seismicity around 374 the hot regions suggests stress accumulation in fault zones generating crustal resonance 375 at a frequency of up to  $\sim 10^{-3}$  Hz in the few days before earthquakes. Most broadband 376 377 seismometers can observe the variable frequency of ground vibrations in Taiwan due to the comprehensive spatial coverage of resonant signals. The variable frequency 378 depends on various stress-dominant areas that can be supported by the potential crustal 379 resonance model. Seismic arrays comprise dense seismometers with a wide coverage 380 are beneficial for monitoring the comprehensive process of stress migration in the 381 spatiotemporal domain leading up to a faraway and forthcoming mainshock. 382

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#### 517 Data available

The earthquake catalogs of Taiwan and Japan were obtained from the Central Weather 518 Bureau (https://www.cwb.gov.tw/), and the Japan Meteorological Agency (JMA; 519 https://www.jma.go.jp/jma/indexe.html), respectively. Seismic waveform data in 520 521 Taiwan were provided by the Seismic Array of NCREE in Taiwan (SANTA; https://www.ncree.narl.org.tw/; please find the bottom for the English version in the top 522 right side). The downsampled seismic waveforms with the temporal interval of 10 523 seconds can be utilized to reproduce the analytical results in this study through the 524 MATLAB software that can be download 525 at https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.1jwstqjqq. 526

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#### 528 Author contribution

Y.Y.S. contributed discussion and revision; S.W. contributed discussion and revision;
P.H. contributed data collection; L.C.L. contributed discussion and revision; H.Z.Y.

- 531 contributed discussion; X.Z. contributed discussion; Y.G. contributed discussion; C.C.T.
- 532 contributed discussion and revision; C.H.L. contributed discussion and revision; J.Y.L.

533 contributed discussion and revision.

# 535 **Competing interests**

- 536 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
- relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.