



## 1           **Wide sensitive area of small foreshocks**

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31

## 32 **Abstract**

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

53

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

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56

## 57 **1. Introduction**

58 Numerous studies (Reasenberg, 1999; Scholz, 2002; Vidale et al., 2001; Ellsworth



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

68 It is a big challenge to monitor stress changes in a wide area beneath the ground.  
69 A simple way to imagine this is if we place a stick on a table then hold and try to break  
70 the stick. The stress we making on the stick can apply to either a limited local region  
71 or to both ends of it. Migrations and propagations of loading force can be detected  
72 according to the changes of strain and the occurrence of microcracks. This common  
73 sense suggests that the spatiotemporal evolution of earthquake-related stress appearing  
74 a couple of days before mainshocks can be recognized if we can trace the occurrence  
75 of relatively-small quakes in a wide area (Kawamura et al., 2014; Wen and Chen, 2017).  
76 Here we take advantage of earthquake catalogs obtained by dense seismic arrays in  
77 Taiwan and Japan to expose foreshocks distributing over a wide area instead of a local  
78 region.

79

## 80 **2. Methodology**

81 The ability to detect relatively-small quakes depends on the spatial density and  
82 capability of seismometers. Taiwan and Japan are both the most famous high-  
83 seismicity areas in the world. Dense seismometers evenly distributed throughout the  
84 whole area are beneficial for monitoring the occurrence of earthquakes both near to and  
85 far away from fault zones (Chen, 2014). Earthquake catalogs retrieved of Taiwan and  
86 Japan were obtained from the Central Weather Bureau, and the Japan Meteorological  
87 Agency (JMA), respectively. The ZMAP software package for MATLAB (Weimer,



88 2001) was utilized to remove and/or omit influence from duplicate events, such as  
89 aftershocks. We classify clusters by using the standard input parameters (proposed in  
90 Reasenber, 1985 and Uhrhammer, 1986) for declustering algorithm. The minimum  
91 and maximum values of the look-ahead time for building clusters are 1 and 10,  
92 respectively. The probability of detecting the next clustered event used to compute  
93 the look-ahead time is 0.95. The effective minimum magnitude cut-off for catalog is  
94 given by 1.5 and the  $x_k$  factor for the increase of the minimum cut-off magnitude during  
95 clusters is given by 0.5. The 10 of crack radii surrounding each earthquake within  
96 new events considered to be part of the cluster (Stiphout, 2012). Earthquakes with  
97 depth  $> 30$  km were eliminated from the declustered catalogs for understanding changes  
98 of seismicity before mainshocks mainly in the crust.

99 Based on the occurrence of the cracks that can be the clues of force loading on a  
100 material before its break, all the earthquakes with magnitude  $\geq 2$ , which are retrieved  
101 from the declustered earthquake catalogs, are considered to be the crack events  
102 dominated by the force loading on the crust. Note that the minimum magnitudes of  
103 completeness  $M_c$  is 2.0 and 0.0 in Taiwan and Japan, respectively (also see Figs. S1–  
104 S4). This represents the ability of its seismic monitoring network to detect crack  
105 events. We construct a spatiotemporal distribution of the crack events for each break  
106 quake. The spatiotemporal distribution from 0 km to 400 km away from the epicenter  
107 of the break quake during a period of 60 days before and after the break occurrence is  
108 constructed to illustrate the relationship between the crack events and the break quake  
109 in the spatial and temporal domain. Note that the spatial and temporal resolutions of  
110 the grids of the spatiotemporal distribution are 10 km and 1 day, respectively. We  
111 count the crack events in each spatiotemporal grid according to distance away from the  
112 epicenter and the differences in time before and after the occurrence of the break quake.

113 The superimposition process, a statistical tool utilized in data analysis, is capable  
114 of either detecting periodicities within a time sequence or revealing a correlation  
115 between more than two data sequences (Chen, 2014), which is known as the superposed  
116 epoch analysis (Adams et al., 2003; Hocke, 2008). The spatiotemporal distributions



117 of all the break quakes are superimposed as a total one based on the occurrence time of  
118 the break quakes and the distance away from the epicenter of the break quakes. The  
119 superimposition is utilized to migrate rare characteristics result from particular break  
120 quakes and to enhance the common behaviors of the crack events in the spatiotemporal  
121 domain. The total count of the superimposed distribution in each spatiotemporal grid  
122 is normalized to seismic density (count/km<sup>2</sup>) for comparing to the total number of the  
123 break quakes and the related spatial area. Moreover, we compute the average values  
124 every distance grid using the seismic densities 60 days before and after the quake. The  
125 average values are subtracted from the seismic densities and the obtained differences  
126 are divided by the average values in each distance grid to obtain the normalized  
127 variation clarifying changes of the seismic density in the spatiotemporal domain.

128

### 129 **3. Analytical results**

130 The earthquakes with  $M \geq 2$  listed in the declustered catalogs of Taiwan from  
131 January 1991 to June 2017 are utilized to construct a spatiotemporal distribution of  
132 foreshocks and aftershocks corresponding to the quakes with magnitude  $\geq 3$ . We  
133 superimposed all the  $M \geq 2$  events corresponding to the 17993 quakes ( $M \geq 3$ ), which  
134 increases the signal-to-noise ratios more than 135 times. The seismic density is more  
135 than 1000 times greater in a hot region at a distance of 10 km away from an epicenter  
136 (which is generally considered to be the gestation area of foreshocks) than it is in areas  
137 located  $> 200$  km from the epicenter (Fig. 1a). Note that the events mainly occur 0–1  
138 day after the quakes that is irrelevant to the smaller distribution 0–1 day before the  
139 quakes (also see Figs. 1 and 2). On the other hand, the seismic density with epicentral  
140 distance smaller than 50 km (Fig. 1a) suddenly increases before and gradually decreases  
141 after the quakes. The irrelevance and the differences of changes rates with epicentral  
142 distance smaller than 50 km before and after the quakes clarify that the increase of  
143 seismicity before the quakes is not contributed by the seismicity after due to the  
144 analytical processes in this study.

145 The increase of the seismic density within the hot region can be traced for more



146 than 50 days before the quakes (Fig. 1a). The increase is stable but become sharp a  
147 few days before the quakes. On the other hand, the increase of seismic density is not  
148 only always limited within the hot region with time but also extends outward to a  
149 distance of over 50 km away from the epicenters about 0–40 days leading up to the  
150 occurrence of the quakes (also see Fig. 2a). Note that the expansion of the increase of  
151 seismic density becomes mitigation and may no longer be impact a place at distances >  
152 200 km away from the epicenters. The increase of seismicity density before the  
153 quakes suggests that the accumulation of the earthquake-related stress in the crust  
154 originates from the hot region, and gradually extends to an external place before  
155 earthquakes occur. The area of this external place is several times that of a fault  
156 rupture zone that is concluded based on the sparse seismic arrays of the past. The  
157 seismic density sharply increases a few days before the quakes. The sudden increase  
158 suggests that earthquake-related stress accumulates mainly around the hot region,  
159 triggering many foreshocks a few days before the  $M \geq 3$  earthquakes. Numerous  
160 recent studies reported that the seismicity migrates toward the fault rupture zone within  
161 tens of kilometers from epicenters a couple of days before earthquakes (Kato et al.,  
162 2012, Kato and Obara, 2014; Liu et al., 2019). The superimposition results partially  
163 support that the idea of the process of stress migration toward the hot regions of  
164 hypocenters a few days before earthquakes.

165 We then examine the spatiotemporal changes in the seismic density up to the  $M \geq$   
166 4 quakes utilizing the same superimposition process (Figs. 1b–c). The expansion of  
167 the increase seismic density about 0–40 days leading up to the occurrence of the quakes  
168 and the sharply increases of seismic density a few days before the quakes that can be  
169 consistently observed using the  $M \geq 4$  quakes in Figs. 1b–c. Moreover, we retrieved  
170 the Japan’s earthquake catalogs between 2001 and 2010 from the Japan Meteorological  
171 Agency (JMA) and construct the seismic density distribution using the same analysis  
172 process (Figs. 1d–f). Similar results (i.e., the sharply increases of seismic density a  
173 few days before the quakes and areas where the increase of the seismicity density is  
174 much larger than that of the hot region) can be obtained from the earthquake catalogs

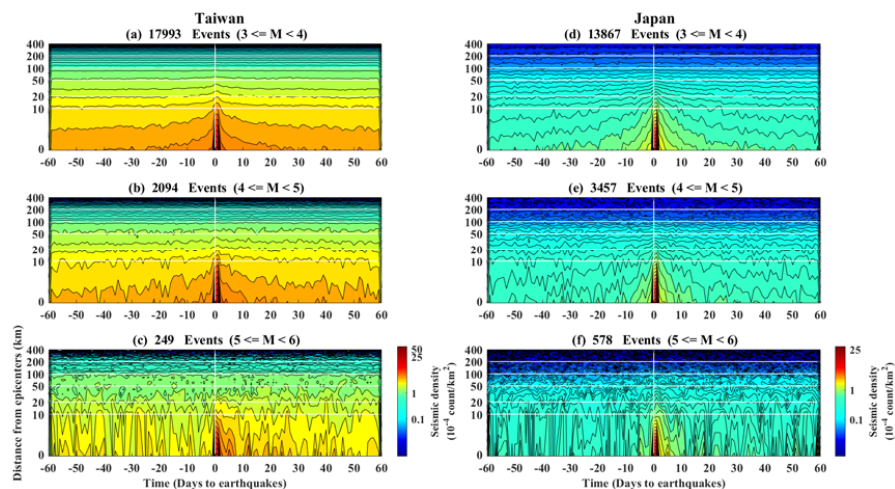


175 of Taiwan and Japan.

176 The normalized variations correspond to seismic density in Fig. 1 are shown in  
177 Fig. 2. The radii of the positive normalized variations are approximately 50 km while  
178 earthquake magnitude increases from 3 to 6 in Taiwan (Figs. 2a–c). The land area of  
179 Taiwan is approximately 250 km by 400 km, which causes underestimation of the  
180 seismic density in the spatial domain. In contrast, the positive normalized variations  
181 roughly expand along the radii ranging from 50 km to 100 km, while earthquake  
182 magnitude increases from 3 to 6 in Japan (Figs. 2d–f). However, variations in the lead  
183 time mostly range from 40 days to 20 days, and relationships between the positive  
184 normalized variations and the earthquake magnitude can be found neither in Taiwan  
185 nor Japan (Fig. 2). If the expansion and the existence of the lead time are true, the  
186 next step is to determine the potential mechanism hidden behind this nature.

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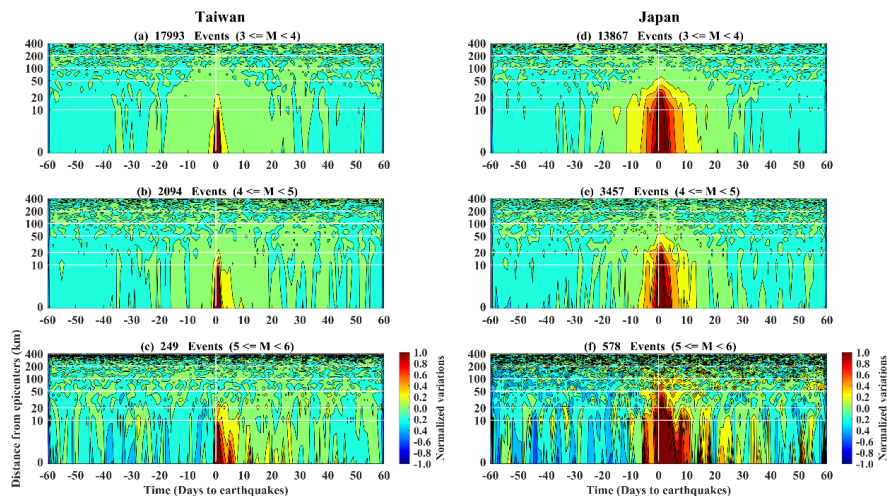
190

191 Fig. 1. Spatiotemporal seismic density distributions in Taiwan and Japan. The  
192 seismic densities constructed by using the declustered earthquake catalogs of Taiwan  
193 and Japan are shown in the left and right panels, respectively. The seismic density  
194 reveals changes in seismicity at distances from the epicenters ranging from 0 km to 400



195 km at up to 60 days before and after quakes in a particular magnitude group. We  
196 superimposed earthquake numbers by using the differences in time and distance  
197 between all the  $M \geq 2$  events related to each quake in a particular magnitude group.  
198 The superimposed number in each grid is further normalized for a fair comparison by  
199 using the total number of quakes and their areas. Notably, the total number of quakes  
200 is shown in the title of each diagram.

201



202

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

208

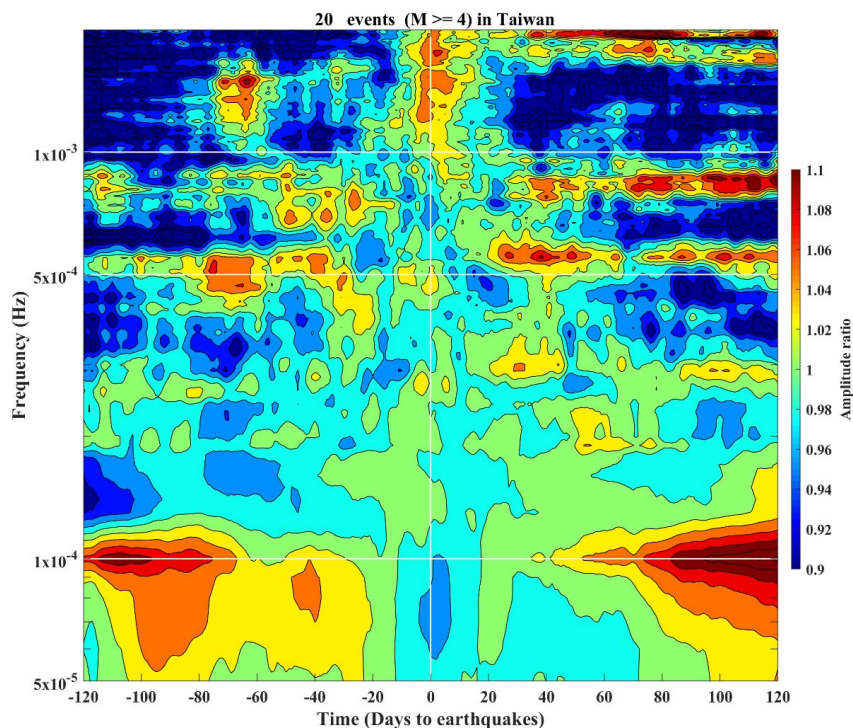
#### 209 4. Discussions

210 If an  $M \geq 3$  quake can excite seismicity changes over a wide area (i.e., over 50  
211 km by 50 km), any vibration related to stress accumulation before earthquakes can be  
212 too small to be identified from raw seismic waveforms. The principal component  
213 analysis (PCA) method (Jolliffe, 2002) is utilized to retrieve the possible stress-related  
214 vibrations from continuous seismic waveforms recorded at most seismic stations over





215 a wide area and to simultaneously mitigate local noise. Seismic waveforms obtained  
216 from 33 broadband seismometers in Taiwan within a temporal span of approximately  
217 one year (from June 2015 to June 2016) are utilized in this study. The common-mode  
218 ground vibrations in most seismic stations are composed by cumulating the first twenty  
219 principal components. The common-mode ground vibrations are sliced into several  
220 time spans using a 5-day moving window with one-day steps to show time-varying  
221 changes. The common-mode data in each time span are transferred into the frequency  
222 domain using the Fourier transform. We next superimpose the amplitude based on the  
223 occurrence time of the 20  $M \geq 4$  earthquakes during the one-year temporal span. The  
224 superimposed amplitudes are normalized using the frequency-dependent average  
225 values computed from the superimposed amplitude 30 days before and after  
226 earthquakes via the temporal division. Fig. 3 shows the amplitude ratios associated  
227 with the  $M \geq 4$  earthquakes. Distinct patterns in the amplitude-frequency  
228 distributions can be observed before and after earthquakes. The frequency is close to  
229  $5 \times 10^{-4}$  Hz approximately 40 days before the quakes and tends to be high near  $10^{-3}$  Hz  
230 a few days before the quakes. The amplitudes of the variable frequency patterns are  
231 proportional to the earthquake magnitude (Fig. S5).  
232

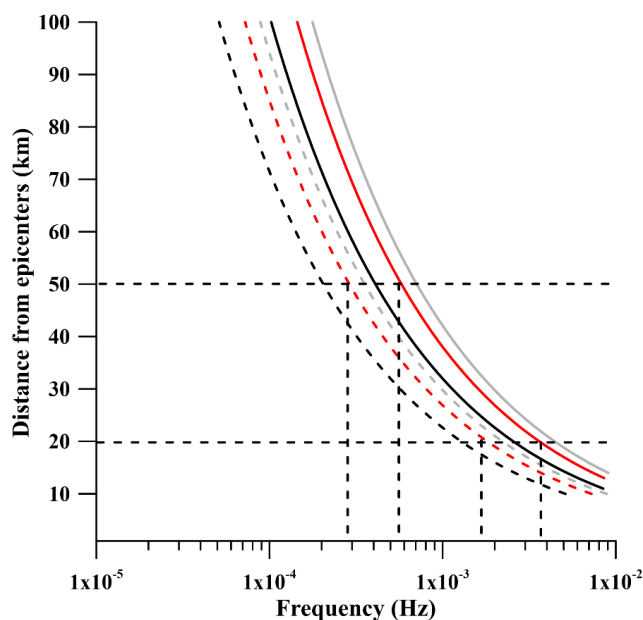


233  
234 Fig. 3. The amplitude ratios of the superimposed time-frequency-amplitude  
235 distribution associated with the 20  $M \geq 4$  earthquakes in Taiwan.

236  
237 Walczak et al. (2017) repeatedly observed stressed rocks exciting long-period  
238 vibrations during rock mechanics experiments. Leissa (1969) reported that the  
239 resonance frequency of an object is proportional to its Young's modulus and exhibits  
240 an inverse relationship to its mass. Accordingly, we assume that the earthquake-  
241 related stress accumulates in the volume of a square sheet with a width of 100 km based  
242 on a distance of 50 km away from a quake due to the significant increase in the seismic  
243 density (Figs. 1 and 2). The thickness of the volume is directly ranged between 500  
244 meters and 1000 meters. The stressed volume is placed horizontally at the depth of  
245 the hypocenter that excites vibrations at the resonance frequency before rupture. Note  
246 that we do not take the fault type and shape of the stressed object into consideration.



247 The resonance frequency near  $3 \times 10^{-4}$  Hz can be derived from the square sheet (Fig. 4).  
248 Previous studies (Cappa, 2009; Bilham R. et al., 2017) reported that the Young's  
249 modulus is strengthen a few days before earthquakes. However, enhancement of the  
250 Young's modulus is not a major factor driving the high resonance frequency at  $10^{-3}$  Hz.  
251 When the width of the sheet is determined to be the hot fault region as 40 km with a  
252 significant increase of seismic density a few days before the quakes, a resonance  
253 frequency near  $10^{-3}$  Hz (Fig. 3) can be reproduced by the same model (Leissa, 1969).  
254 The results suggest that the resonance frequency is variable from  $\sim 3 \times 10^{-4}$  Hz to  $\sim 10^{-3}$   
255 Hz between 40 days and a few days along with the forthcoming earthquakes. In  
256 agreement with the spatiotemporal domain of the relatively-small quakes from the  
257 earthquake catalogs, the superimposition results of continuous seismic waveforms and  
258 the resonance frequency models suggest that the phenomenon of variable frequency  
259 may exist tens of days before earthquake occurrence and can be retrieved by broadband  
260 seismometers.  
261



262

263

264 Fig. 4. Relationships between the width and resonance frequency of a square sheet.



265 We assume that the resonant area is a square sheet with all sides simply supported.  
266 According to Leissa (1969), the resonance frequency of such a square sheet can be  
267 estimated using the formula  $f = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{Eh^2}{12(1-\nu^2)\rho} \left[ \left(\frac{m\pi}{a}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{n\pi}{b}\right)^2 \right]}$ , where  $E$  is  
268 Young's modulus;  $h$  is the thickness of the sheet;  $\rho$  is the mass density;  $\nu$  is the  
269 Poisson's ratio;  $a$  and  $b$  are the lengths of the plate; and  $m$  and  $n$  are integers. In  
270 this study,  $a$  equals  $b$  as the sheet is square and these values are assumed to be two times  
271 the distance from the epicenter. The solid and dashed curves indicate the relationships  
272 between the width and resonance frequencies, as computed at thicknesses of 1000 m  
273 and 500 m, respectively. The black, red and grey colors are computed by using the  
274 Young's modulus of 50 GPa, 100 GPa and 150 GPa respectively. Notably,  $m$  and  $n$   
275 are taken to be 1 to estimate the relationship based on a fundamental mode. Average  
276 density of the crust is 2700 kg/m<sup>3</sup> (Vilarrasa and Carrera, 2015). Poisson's ratio is 0.3.  
277

## 278 5. Conclusion

279 In short, the process of stress migration in the spatiotemporal domain can be  
280 concluded from tracing the increase of seismicity according to the 10-year earthquake  
281 catalogs from dense seismic arrays in Taiwan and Japan. Areas with the increase of  
282 seismicity where stress accumulates in the crust triggering earthquakes are serious  
283 underestimation using a sparse seismic array. Seismicity initially increases around  
284 hypocenters, and this can be observed more than 50 days before quakes through  
285 superimposing large numbers of earthquakes. The seismicity gradually increases  
286 along with the expansion of areas from fault zones to an area widely covering an  
287 epicentral distance close to 50 km approximately 20–40 days before earthquakes. The  
288 crustal resonance exists at a frequency near  $3 \times 10^{-4}$  Hz when the expansion becomes  
289 insignificant. Instead of the spatial expansion, the sharp increase of seismicity around  
290 the hot regions suggests stress accumulation in fault zones generating crustal resonance  
291 at a frequency of up to  $\sim 10^{-3}$  Hz in the few days before earthquakes. Most broadband  
292 seismometers can observe the variable frequency of ground vibrations in Taiwan due to



293 the comprehensive spatial coverage of resonant signals. The variable frequency  
294 depends on various stress-dominant areas that can be supported by the potential crustal  
295 resonance model. Seismic arrays comprise dense seismometers with a wide coverage  
296 are beneficial for monitoring the comprehensive process of stress migration in the  
297 spatiotemporal domain leading up to a faraway and forthcoming mainshock.

298

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308

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366  
367 **Data available**

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

377  
378



379 **Author contribution**

380 Y.Y.S. contributed discussion and revision; S.W. contributed discussion and revision;  
381 P.H. contributed data collection; L.C.L. contributed discussion and revision; H.Z.Y.  
382 contributed discussion; X.Z. contributed discussion; Y.G. contributed discussion; C.C.T.  
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386 **Competing interests**

387 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal  
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