

Low significance of foreshock activity in Southern California

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Key Points:

- We reevaluate previous reports of significantly elevated seismic activity prior to large earthquakes in southern California
- Accounting for temporal clustering of earthquakes, we find that less than 10% mainshocks are preceded by anomalous foreshock sequences.
- The other sequences are explained by background seismicity, cascades of foreshocks or by recurrent fluctuations in seismicity rate.

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Abstract

24 Earthquakes preceding large events are commonly referred as foreshocks. They are
25 often considered as precursory signals reflecting the nucleation process of the main
26 rupture. Such foreshock sequences may also be explained by cascades of triggered
27 events. Recent advances in earthquake detection is a motivation to reevaluate seismic-
28 ity variations prior to mainshocks. Based on a highly complete earthquake catalog,
29 Trugman and Ross (2019) and van den Ende and Ampuero (2020) suggested that
30 mainshocks in southern California are often preceded by anomalously elevated seis-
31 mic activity. These studies assume a time-independent seismicity and thus neglect
32 earthquake interactions. In this study, we test the same catalog against the Epidemic
33 Type Aftershock Sequence model that accounts for earthquake clustering. We find
34 that less than 5 out of 53 selected mainshocks (10%) are preceded by significantly
35 elevated seismicity rates. This suggest that foreshock observations can generally be
36 explained by background seismicity and by cascades of earthquakes even in highly
37 complete earthquakes catalogs.
38

Plain Language Summary

39
40 Recent observations in southern California have suggested that the majority of
41 large earthquakes are preceded by an elevated seismic activity. The anomalous char-
42 acter of those foreshock sequences is debated since elevated seismic activities are often
43 not followed by a mainshock. Here we compare these observations to a seismicity model
44 that accounts for the natural clustering of seismicity due to earthquake interactions.
45 Even using a highly complete earthquake catalog, we find that the large majority of
46 mainshocks are not preceded by an anomalous foreshock activity.

1 Introduction

Large earthquakes are often preceded by accelerating seismic activity (Jones & Molnar, 1976; Bouchon et al., 2013; Marsan et al., 2014). Although these foreshock sequences are often referred to as precursors, a somewhat ironical problem is the inherent difficulty to identify earthquakes as foreshocks before the mainshock occurs. In addition, we still do not fully understand the physical mechanisms that generate foreshocks and the reason why they occur. Two competing conceptual models have been proposed (Mignan, 2014). In the first model, foreshock stress changes contribute to a slow cascade of random failures (possibly mediated by aseismic afterslip) ultimately leading to the mainshock (Helmstetter & Sornette, 2003; Marzocchi & Zhuang, 2011; Ellsworth & Bulut, 2018). The second model proposes that foreshocks are tracers of an evolving nucleation process preceding the mainshock rupture (Dodge et al., 1996; Bouchon et al., 2011; Kato et al., 2016). The aseismic vs seismic contributions to the overall moment release during the precursory phase is ultimately what distinguishes these two models. Unfortunately, the aseismic part is generally difficult or merely impossible to estimate from the available observations, and one therefore needs to resort to indirect arguments, often pertaining to the spatial and temporal distribution of the foreshocks. Although recent observations of slow deformation lasting days to months before the mainshock favor the triggering of foreshocks by aseismic preslip (Socquet et al., 2017; Mavrommatis et al., 2014; Ito et al., 2013), the aseismic character of such precursory motion is vigorously debated (Ruiz et al., 2014; Bedford et al., 2015). In addition, foreshock sequences are not observed systematically before large earthquakes. However, this lack of systematic precursory observations might partly be due to the incompleteness of current seismicity catalogs (Mignan, 2014; Ross et al., 2019)

The southern California catalog was recently enhanced thanks to the template matching analysis conducted by Ross et al. (2019). The resulting QTM (Quake Template Matching) catalog includes more than 850,000 earthquakes (for the higher choice of threshold, see Section 2.1) in a 10 year-long period from 2008 to 2017 and can be complete for magnitudes near or below zero for the best resolved regions. Such a high degree of completeness of the QTM catalog motivates the evaluation of the statistical significance of seismic activity preceding large earthquakes in southern California. By comparing seismic activity before $M \geq 4$ earthquakes to a constant background rate, Trugman and Ross (2019, T&R from here on) estimated that 72% of mainshocks in the QTM catalog are preceded by an anomalously high seismic activity. The reported results suggest that detailed foreshock detection could bear important information about an impending earthquake. This interpretation was later questioned by van den Ende and Ampuero (2020, V&A from here on) which pointed out that T&R did not evaluate the significance of elevated foreshock activity compared to natural fluctuations in the seismicity rate. To assess the statistical significance of foreshock sequences, V&A compared foreshock activity with a model where earthquake inter-event times (IETs) are sampled independently from a gamma distribution. This approach is motivated by the fact that IETs in seismic catalog tends to follow a gamma, rather than an exponential distribution as assumed by T&R. Based on this analysis, V&A estimated that only 30% of mainshocks are preceded by anomalous foreshock activity, coming down to 18% when accounting for temporal fluctuations in background seismicity.

Although V&A improves previous estimates by T&R, their reanalysis still ignores the temporal clustering of seismicity. The random sampling approach of V&A assumes independent IETs, which is an over-simplification. Indeed, this approach is unable to explain local aftershock sequences prior to the mainshock, in which IETs are correlated rather than independent. In "normal" earthquake sequences, the triggering of aftershocks leads to clusters of events during which the likelihood of triggering a mainshock is higher than at quiet times. Neglecting the temporal clustering of earth-

99 quakes is therefore a strong hypothesis that inherently recuses cascades of triggered
100 seismicity as a possible explanation of foreshock sequences.

101 Going forward, we here assess more robustly what is the statistical significance
102 of foreshock sequences accounting for the temporal clustering of earthquakes. In this
103 work, we use the temporal Epidemic Type Aftershock Sequences (ETAS) model, in
104 which the seismicity rate at each time is represented by the superposition of a back-
105 ground rate and a rate linked to the triggering from past events (Ogata, 1988). This
106 model is the simplest that can reproduce both the gamma distribution of IETs (Saichev
107 & Sornette, 2007) and the correlation of successive IETs. After selecting mainshocks
108 using criteria similar to T&R and V&A, we extract ETAS parameters from the QTM
109 catalog in the vicinity of each mainshock. We then compare the foreshock activity
110 with ETAS predictions accounting for past seismicity. We find that the number of
111 anomalous foreshock sequences is significantly reduced when accounting for temporal
112 clustering (about 18% compared to 33% and 72% respectively in V&A and T&R). Fo-
113 cusing only on seismicity time-series that are best constrained, we estimate that less
114 than 10% of mainshocks are preceded by significantly anomalous foreshock activity.

115 2 Data and methods

116 2.1 Mainshock selection

117 We noticed that the full QTM catalog used by T&R and V&A suffers from
118 episodic bursts of false detections, that occur due to a too low detection threshold
119 (threshold fixed at 9.5 times the median absolute deviation (MAD) of the stacked cor-
120 relation function). These bursts are easy to identify as they start or end at midnight,
121 which is due to the MAD computation performed over 24 hour long period starting at
122 00h00 UTC. To avoid any contamination of our analysis by such artifacts, we instead
123 use the higher quality QTM catalog with a detection threshold at 12 times the MAD,
124 for which these transients vanish or are strongly attenuated. In order to provide a fair
125 comparison with previous results, we also present our analysis performed on the full
126 catalog in the supporting information (Text S3 and Figure S4 and S5).

127 Using the higher quality QTM catalog, we then select 53 mainshocks with criteria
128 resembling those of T&R. A mainshock must have magnitude $M \geq 4$, and must occur
129 from 2009/01/01 to 2016/12/31 within the geographic coordinates ranges $[32.68^\circ\text{N},$
130 $36.2^\circ\text{N}]$ and $[118.80^\circ\text{W}, 115.4^\circ\text{W}]$. To be selected, a mainshock must be preceded by
131 at least 10 earthquakes with no larger magnitude event in the year before and within
132 a 20×20 km horizontal box around its epicenter. For each selected mainshock, we
133 extract a 10-year long local catalog that includes all the seismicity observed within the
134 20×20 km box with no depth cutoff.

135 For each local catalog, we evaluate the local magnitude of completeness M_c and
136 remove all events with a magnitude $M < M_c$. The local M_c is estimated manually as
137 the maximum of the local Gutenberg-Richter frequency-magnitude distribution. Fig-
138 ure S1 of the supporting information shows the 53 local Gutenberg-Richter frequency-
139 magnitude distributions and the corresponding estimated M_c .

140 2.2 V&A approach with synthetic ETAS catalogs

141 In this section, we illustrate the limitations of V&A approach by applying it to
142 synthetic realizations of a temporal ETAS seismicity model (cf., Figure 1). The ETAS
143 model has two main ingredients: first, a background term which is time-independent
144 and follows a Poisson process; second, a triggered term which depends on the past
145 earthquake activity. The conditional intensity of the ETAS model (Ogata, 1988;

146 Zhuang et al., 2012) is :

$$147 \quad \lambda(t) = \mu + \sum_{i|t_i < t} A e^{\alpha(M_i - M_c)} (t - t_i + c)^{-p} \quad (1)$$

148 where μ is the time-independent background seismicity rate. The sum in the right hand
 149 side of equation (1) describes the expected aftershock seismicity rate at time t triggered
 150 by all previous events. A and α are constant parameters describing respectively the
 151 global aftershock productivity of the region and the magnitude dependence in the
 152 number of triggered events. M_c is the magnitude of completeness whereas c and p
 153 are the parameters of the Omori-Utsu law describing the time-decay in the aftershock
 154 seismicity rate.

155 Synthetic ETAS catalogs are able to reproduce temporally clustered seismicity.
 156 In such model, clustering activity emerges spontaneously from random cascades of
 157 aftershocks. This is illustrated in Figure 1a with observable aftershock sequences initially
 158 triggered by several $M \sim 3$ events and a $M = 4$ earthquake. By construction,
 159 such a synthetic catalog does not contain any foreshock activity other than that due to
 160 earthquake interactions. As for natural seismicity, the distribution of inter-event times
 161 (IETs) of an ETAS catalog tends to a gamma distribution (cf., Figure 1b). Following
 162 V&A, if we independently resample the IETs of Figure 1b, we obtain for instance the
 163 catalog shown in Figure 1c in which the temporal clustering disappeared (even if IETs
 164 have the same distribution by construction). In particular, there is no visible after-
 165 shock sequences following $M \sim 3$ events contrary to catalog observations. To further
 166 quantify the limitations of such a random sampling approach, we generate 1000 real-
 167 izations of 5-years duration synthetic ETAS catalogs and extract $M \geq 4$ mainshocks
 168 as in section 2.1. Following V&A, we then sample a Probability Mass Function (PMF)
 169 of the expected number of event in 20 day windows assuming independent gamma re-
 170 alization of IETs (Figure 1d). We extract the probability p that independent IETs
 171 can explain foreshock activity by confronting this PMF with the "observed" number
 172 of events in the 20 days prior synthetic mainshocks (Figure 1e). Assuming the same
 173 significance threshold of $p < 0.01$ as in T&R and V&A, Figure 1e shows that more
 174 than 10% of mainshocks are preceded by an anomalous seismic activity even though
 175 they are actually explained by cascades of aftershocks. The 1000 synthetic ETAS
 176 catalogs are also tested against the second approach of V&A. In this approach, the
 177 PMF is sampled empirically by counting the number of events in 20-days windows ran-
 178 domly distributed over the $[-380, -20]$ period with respect to the mainshock origin
 179 time (Figure 1d). As for independent IETs sampled from a gamma distribution, the
 180 empirical approach of V&A shows that more than 10% of mainshocks are preceded by
 181 an anomalous earthquake activity (Figure 1f). Therefore, the two approaches of V&A
 182 struggle to properly consider causal earthquakes interactions and their corresponding
 183 seismicity rate increases.

184 2.3 Inversion of ETAS parameters

185 In this study, we test, as a null-hypothesis, that seismicity rates observed prior to
 186 each mainshock behave according to an ETAS model. Anomalous precursory seismicity
 187 is then defined as a time period immediately prior to the mainshock with a significantly
 188 higher earthquake rate compared to the expected rate predicted by the ETAS model.

189 For local catalogs associated with each mainshock, we fit the temporal ETAS
 190 model by maximizing a likelihood function with an Expectation - Maximization (EM)
 191 algorithm (Veen & Schoenberg, 2008). We estimate parameters A , c , p , α and μ in
 192 equation (1) (all parameter values can be found in the supporting information). We run
 193 a first inversion where the ETAS parameters are constrained to be positive. We note
 194 that most α values are close to one. Larger α values are actually expected according to
 195 window-based methods (Helmstetter, 2005; Felzer et al., 2004), as well as following the

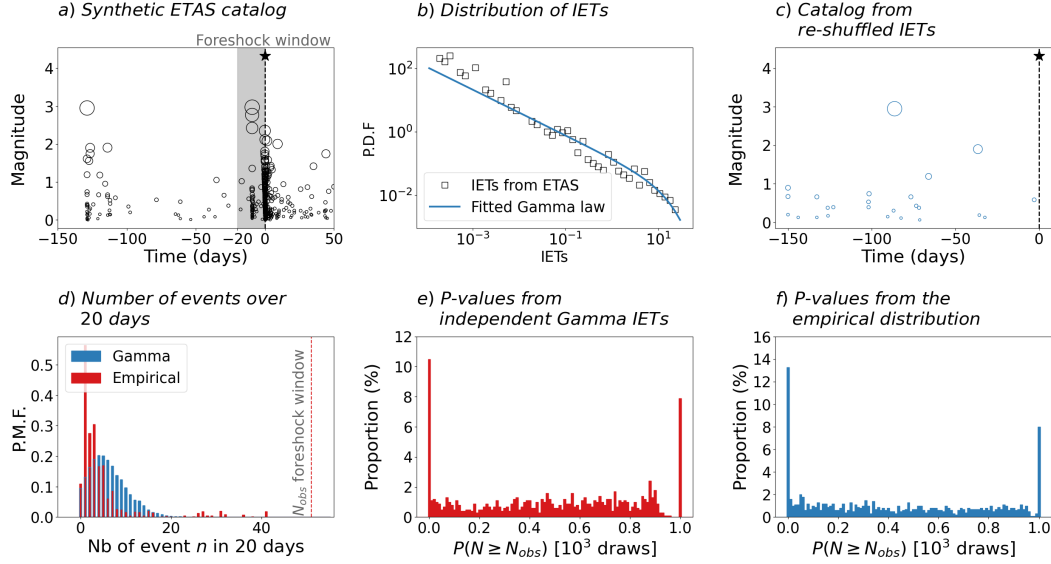


Figure 1. (a) A realisation of a synthetic ETAS catalogue ($\alpha=2$, $p=1.1$, $c=10^{-3}$, $\mu=0.1$, $\beta=2.23$ corresponding to a b -value of 1 for the Gutenberg-Richter law, $M_c=0$) and its 20-day foreshock window as defined by van den Ende and Ampuero (2020). The $M \geq 4$ is considered here as the mainshock. (b) IETs distribution of this ETAS catalogue observed in the $[-380, -20[$ window and its fitted gamma law. (c) IETs reshuffling of the $[-380, -20[$ days window. Note that clustered events are no longer related to the distribution of magnitude. (d) The sampled gamma/empirical probability mass functions (PMFs) of the number of events expected in the 20-day window according to the two approaches of V&A. The red vertical dashed line corresponds to the number of events N_{obs} actually observed in the ETAS 20-day foreshock window. (e) Distribution of the foreshock probability $p = P(N \geq N_{obs})$ using V&A first approach (drawing of independent, gamma-distributed IETs), for the 1000 synthetic ETAS catalogues. (f) Same as (e) but for the V&A second (empirical) approach (counting the number of earthquakes within random 20 day windows included in the $[-380, -20[$ period before the mainshock). More than 10% of the ETAS foreshock windows are detected with an anomalous seismicity ($p < 0.01$) although no anomaly is actually present. In (e) and (f), the p-value spike at 1 correspond to windows with $N_{obs} = 0$ or N_{obs} far from the minimum of the gamma/empirical PMF

196 argument that Bath’s law, i.e., the fact that the difference in magnitude between the
 197 mainshock and its largest aftershock is independent of the mainshock’s magnitude,
 198 requires that $\alpha = \beta = b \ln 10$ (Davidsen and Baiesi (2016) and references therein).
 199 Moreover, it has been shown that α estimates are particularly prone to model errors
 200 (e.g., Hainzl et al. (2008, 2013)) and censoring effects (Sornette and Werner (2005);
 201 Seif et al. (2017)). Nandan et al. (2017) found that the α value is expected to vary
 202 between 1.7 and 2.2 when considering a larger portion of California and a longer period
 203 than the QTM catalog. A α value close to 2 may thus represent a more realistic value
 204 of the aftershock productivity for Californian earthquakes. Therefore, we perform a
 205 second inversion where we impose that $\alpha = 2$. We thus obtain two sets of ETAS
 206 parameters (referred to as ” α free” and ” $\alpha = 2$ ” sets) to model the seismicity of local
 207 catalogs around each mainshocks.

208 **2.4 Detection of seismicity anomalies based on the ETAS model**

209 We test the hypothesis H_0 that the observed number of events in a time window
 210 T is smaller or equal than the number of events predicted by the ETAS model for both
 211 of the parameter estimates. If H_0 is rejected, an anomalous earthquake sequence is
 212 detected in T , suggesting that a mechanism other than simple cascading is required to
 213 explain such a high seismicity rate. The conditional intensity function in equation (1)
 214 allows to directly compute an expected seismicity rate at any time t from the set of
 215 ETAS parameters (A, c, p, α and μ) and the knowledge of past seismicity ($t_i < t, M_i$).
 216 By integrating this modelled seismicity rate, we can compute the expected number of
 217 earthquakes \bar{N} in a time interval T :

218
$$\bar{N}(t, T) = \int_{t-T}^t \lambda(u) du \tag{2}$$

219 Here we set $T = 20$ days similar to T&R, which choice was also adopted by V&A. We
 220 compute \bar{N} over 20-day sliding windows, with a 1 day shift between two consecutive
 221 windows, and covering the full time range of the QTM catalog (i.e., 10 years). For
 222 local catalogs around each mainshock, we then obtain two time-series of \bar{N} generated
 223 using the two sets of inverted ETAS parameters (α free and $\alpha = 2$). Knowing \bar{N} , the
 224 probability of actually observing N_{obs} earthquakes in a given 20-day time-interval is
 225 given by the Poisson distribution with mean \bar{N} :

226
$$P(N_{obs}) = \frac{\bar{N}^{N_{obs}} e^{-\bar{N}}}{N_{obs}!} \tag{3}$$

227 We then define the probability of observing at least N_{obs} events over 20 days for the
 228 null hypothesis as:

229
$$p = P(N \geq N_{obs}) = 1 - \sum_{n=0}^{N_{obs}-1} \frac{\bar{N}^n e^{-\bar{N}}}{n!} \tag{4}$$

230 Following T&R and V&A, we use the probability threshold $p < 0.01$ to reject the hypo-
 231 thesis H_0 that N_{obs} is in agreement with the expected number of events \bar{N} . A small
 232 p -value would therefore correspond to anomalously elevated seismicity rate compared
 233 with ETAS predictions.

234 **3 Results**

235 The detection of seismicity rate anomalies in a 20-days sliding window is illus-
 236 trated in Figure 2 for the seismicity located in the vicinity of 4 mainshocks. For each
 237 mainshock, the top subplot shows the time-evolution of p-values measured for the two
 238 set of ETAS parameters (α free and $\alpha = 2$) while the bottom subplot shows the ob-
 239 served seismicity (i.e., magnitude vs time). For the two examples on top (Mainshock
 240 IDs 10832573 and 37301704), we notice that the foreshock activity is consistent with
 241 ETAS predictions with a p-value above 0.01 in the 20-days window prior to the main-
 242 shock. In these cases, our null hypothesis H_0 is verified for both ETAS parameter
 243 estimates and there is no clear evidence of an elevated foreshock activity. The two
 244 examples on the bottom (Mainshock IDs 14898996 and 37299263) show p-values that
 245 are below 0.01 before the mainshock for both sets of ETAS parameters. In these cases,
 246 the observed foreshock seismicity is not consistent with a cascading hypothesis.

247 In total, we find that 10 out of 53 mainshocks are preceded by an anomalous
 248 foreshock activity with respect to ETAS predictions. However, this result must be
 249 taken in perspective with the overall ability of our ETAS models to explain fluctuations
 250 in seismicity rates over the entire catalog. As pointed out by V&A, the significance
 251 of an anomalous foreshock activity is reduced if seismicity anomalies are frequently

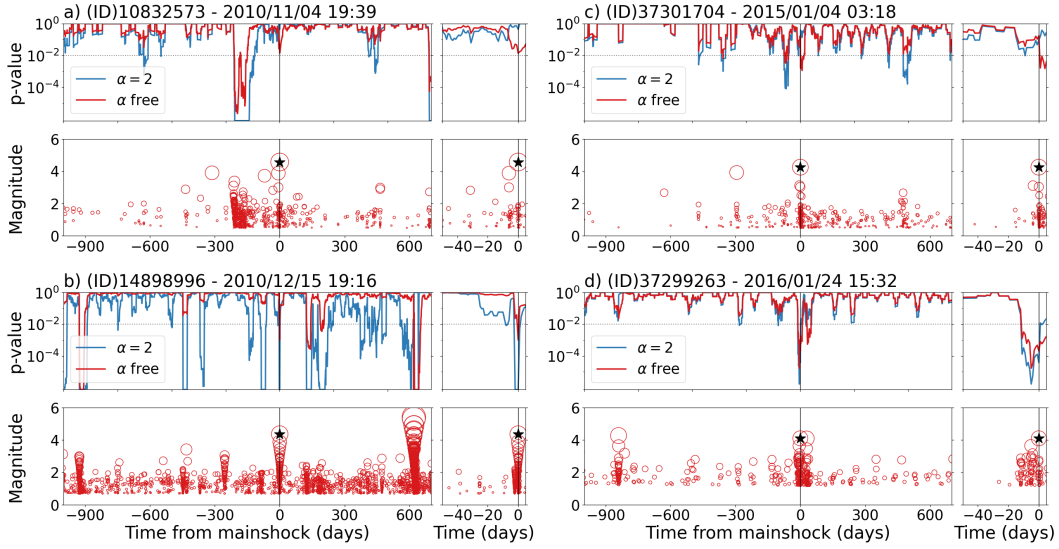


Figure 2. The 20-day sliding window analysis for 4 examples of mainshocks (black star at $t=0$) and their local catalog. Mainshocks QTM IDs are (a) 10832573, (b) 37301704, (c) 14898996 and (d) 37299263. (Top graphs) probability p that ETAS explain the observed seismicity, computed for the two set of ETAS parameters $\alpha=2$ and α free. The significance threshold of $p=0.01$ is shown with the horizontal dotted line. (Bottom graphs) magnitude vs time for the local catalogs in the 20×20 km box around each mainshock. The right inset is a zoom around the foreshock window.

252 detected without being followed by a large event. The significance of an anomalous
 253 foreshock sequence should thus be assessed given the overall ability of ETAS predictions
 254 to explain the seismicity in the vicinity of the mainshock. For example, in the case
 255 of mainshock ID 14898996 in Figure 2c, ETAS predictions are unable to explain the
 256 observed seismicity several times over the duration of the catalog. Our null hypothesis
 257 H_0 is thus rejected at numerous occasions with p-values smaller than the foreshock
 258 window before and after the mainshock origin time. This behaviour strongly affects
 259 the significance of the foreshock window result. On the other hand, Figure 2d shows
 260 that mainshock 37299263 presents an anomalous seismicity rate almost exclusively in
 261 the 20 days preceding the mainshock. Such an elevated seismicity rate is thus highly
 262 correlated with the mainshock occurrence.

263 Therefore, to quantify the statistical significance of detected foreshock anomalies,
 264 we compare p-values in the foreshock window with the distribution of p-values over
 265 the entire 10-year catalog. For each mainshock, an anomalous foreshock activity is
 266 considered significant if \hat{p} , the proportion of 10-year p-values lower or equal than the
 267 foreshock p-value, is less than 1%. This threshold of 1% allows to discriminate catalogs
 268 with frequent anomalous activities to focus on foreshock sequences that corresponds to
 269 the strongest anomalies of their region. This is summarized in Figure S3 and Text S1
 270 of the supporting information. Using such temporal significance criteria, we identify
 271 that 5 out of the 10 anomalous sequences already mentioned occur in regions with
 272 recurrent seismicity anomalies stronger than the foreshock one. Therefore, we argue
 273 that only 5 out of 53 mainshocks ($\sim 10\%$) are preceded by statistically significant
 274 elevated foreshock activity according to our null hypothesis.

275 We complement this analysis by declustering the local catalogs. The probability
 276 ω_i that earthquake i is a background earthquake is defined as $\omega_i = \frac{\mu}{\lambda(t_i)}$, and can

277 be calculated once the ETAS parameters are estimated. We then simply count the
 278 numbers of background earthquakes as the sums of ω_i in 20 day long windows. We
 279 denote N_0 this count for the last 20 days prior to the mainshock, and by N all the
 280 counts for all the time windows before the mainshock (not just the last one). Following
 281 the same rationale that stimulated our previous analysis, we first compare N_0 to the
 282 Poisson distribution with a mean \bar{N} equal to the mean of N , select the mainshocks
 283 for which $P(> N_0|\bar{N}) < 0.01$ for the two sets of ETAS parameters (1st test), and
 284 finally check whether these selected sequences display other anomalously strong bursts
 285 of background earthquakes by computing the probability that N can be greater than
 286 N_0 (2nd test). We finally select those short-listed mainshocks for which the latter
 287 probability is less than 0.01 (again, for the two sets of ETAS parameters). Figure
 288 3 shows the results of this declustering approach. Only mainshocks 14598228 and
 289 14600292 effectively pass the two tests, and are thus seen as preceded by anomalous
 290 foreshock sequences according to this declustering approach. These two anomalous
 291 sequences were also identified in our previous approach based on the predicted number
 292 of events according to the ETAS model.

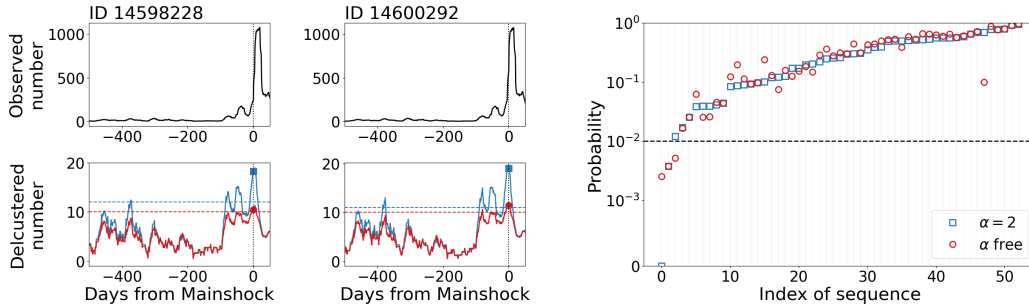


Figure 3. Number of earthquakes in 20 day long windows counting (top) all earthquakes and (bottom) background earthquakes only, for the two mainshocks that are identified as having an anomalous foreshock sequence according to the declustering analysis. The number for the last window prior to the mainshock is shown with a thick square. The dashed lines show, for the two sets of ETAS parameters (α free in red, $\alpha = 2$ in blue) the limit over which the Poisson probability becomes less than 0.01. Right: probability $P(N > N_0)$ that the last 20 days are anomalously active compared to the past, for the two sets of ETAS parameters; the sequence is selected as anomalous after declustering if this probability is less than 0.01 (2nd test) and if N_0 is above the dashed line (1st test). Mainshocks 14598228 and 14600292 correspond to indices 0 and 1 on this graph, and are the only mainshocks with both probabilities less than 0.01. All indices can be linked with their mainshock ID thanks to Table S2.

293 4 Discussion

294 We use the highly complete QTM catalog of Ross et al. (2019) to reassess the
 295 significance of anomalous foreshock activity previously reported in southern California
 296 by T&R and V&A. As mentioned before, those studies do not account for the temporal
 297 clustering of earthquakes, although this clustering is considered as one of the possible
 298 origin to accelerating seismic activity observed before large earthquakes. In practice,
 299 small $M < 4$ earthquakes trigger small aftershock sequences during which a larger $M >$
 300 4 event is more likely to occur than at more quiet times. Thus, high activity preceding a
 301 mainshock can naturally stem from earthquake clustering without necessarily requiring
 302 an external pre-slip phenomena.

303 We first assess the probability p that a given foreshock sequence can be explained
 304 by "normal" earthquake clustering. Using $p < 0.01$ as a threshold, our results indi-
 305 cate that $\sim 18\%$ (10 out of 53) of mainshocks are preceded by anomalous earthquake
 306 sequences (compared to 33% and 72% respectively in V&A and T&R). When account-
 307 ing for other increases in seismicity rates not related to a mainshock, only $\sim 10\%$
 308 of mainshocks (5 out of 53) are immediately preceded by a foreshock-specific anomalous
 309 seismicity rate that cannot be explained by background seismicity or cascades of fore-
 310 shocks. The complementary declustering approach further restricts the statistically
 311 significant foreshock activity to only two sequences. A possible over-estimation of the
 312 background rate can be a cause for this more conservative selection. Anomalous main-
 313 shock IDs detected in T&R, V&A and this study can be found in Table S1 of the
 314 supporting information. The Southern Californian location of these sequences are also
 315 compared in Figure S7. The 20-days evolution of the 5 anomalous foreshock sequences
 316 detected in the first approach of this study are presented in details in Text S2 and
 317 Figure S6.

318 We must emphasize that these results, along with those of T&R and V&A, likely
 319 depends on the initial choice of focusing on foreshocks in a 20 days period prior to
 320 each mainshock. Using a longer or shorter time-window may therefore provide different
 321 results. Moreover, the fixed 20×20 km horizontal spatial window used in this study
 322 implies that all events in this box are evaluated with the same weight. This can
 323 artificially enhance the triggering role of foreshocks that are relatively far from the
 324 mainshock. The ETAS model used here would need to be extended to a space-time
 325 model in order to exploit the distance between earthquakes and to help to discriminate
 326 such cases (Zhuang et al., 2011, for a review).

327 Furthermore, the exact number of detected foreshock anomalies obviously de-
 328 pends on the significance threshold that we have fixed to $p < 0.01$ following T&R and
 329 V&A. To assess the impact of this arbitrary choice, we evaluate how the proportion of
 330 detected anomalous foreshock sequences changes as a function of the p-value threshold
 331 p_{thresh} . This result is compared with the proportion of windows that have $p < p_{thresh}$
 332 without being followed by a mainshock (i.e., false positives). We thus compute the
 333 Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) curve as shown in Figure 4. If the occur-
 334 rence of anomalously elevated activity was not a sign of an incoming mainshock, then
 335 the ROC curve would follow a 1 to 1 straight line (hereafter referred to as the no-gain
 336 line). We find that there is positive correlation between preceding high activity and
 337 mainshock occurrence: the information gain is measured by the ratio of true positives
 338 over false positives, which is practically constant and close to 6 for $p_{thresh} \leq 0.05$. We
 339 however notice that significant departure from this no-gain line also exists in ETAS
 340 simulations computed with the same 53 sets of parameters as obtained for the local
 341 catalogs. Figure 4 shows that a large p_{thresh} (i.e., > 0.01) allows to detect anomalous
 342 foreshock activities (i.e., a positive gain) in ETAS simulations, even though there is
 343 by definition no pre-slip in this model. This is caused by the clustering properties of
 344 the model: in the rare occasions where the observed number of earthquakes N_{obs} in a
 345 window largely exceeds the expected number \bar{N} , then the occurrence of earthquakes
 346 immediately after this window is more likely, including the occurrence of a mainshock.
 347 As an effect, the ROC curve departs from the no-gain line. We however notice that
 348 there is no information gain on the magnitude of the forthcoming earthquakes, as ex-
 349 pected. We conclude that choosing a large value of p_{thresh} may lead to the detection of
 350 "foreshock cascades" prior to mainshocks, which are not related to aseismic processes
 351 (e.g., preslip). According to our simulations, $p_{thresh} = 0.01$ appears as an acceptable
 352 threshold to discriminate a cascading behaviour from other possible processes: the
 353 information gain for ETAS is about 2, compared to about 6 for the observed seismicity
 354 (cf., $p_{thresh} = 0.01$ in Figure 4). This additional gain is mostly controlled by the
 355 10 sequences we found to be anomalous: quite obviously, removing them from the
 356 calculations implies that the ROC curve is equal to zero at $p_{thresh} = 0.01$.

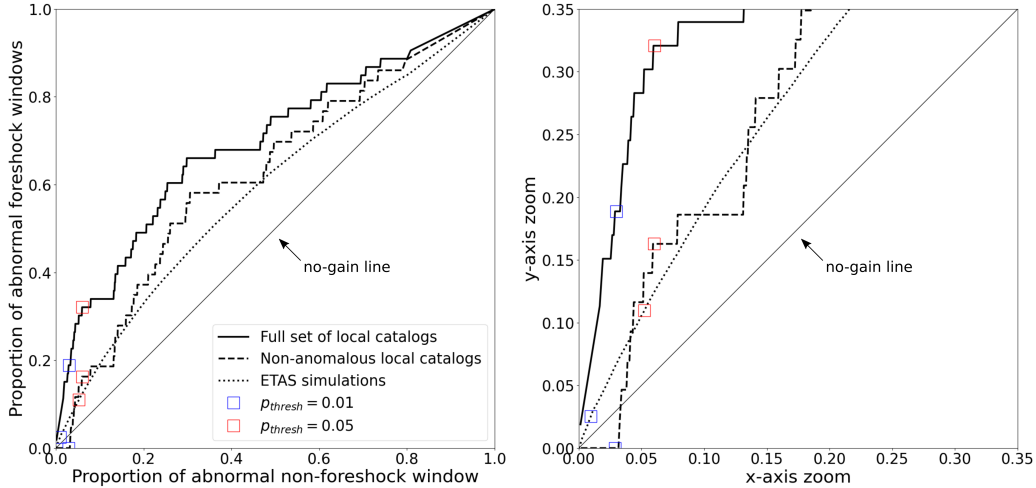


Figure 4. Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) curves for our detection of anomalous foreshock windows. For a varying threshold p-value p_{thresh} , curves show the proportion of foreshock windows below p_{thresh} against the proportion of non-foreshock windows below p_{thresh} . ROC curves are drawn for the full set of 53 local catalogs and after removing the 10 anomalous sequences of section 3 (with $p < 0.01$). We also include the ROC curve corresponding to the average of 53 sets of 1000 ETAS simulations computed using the α free ETAS parameters obtained in section 2.3. Note that ETAS simulations display a curved ROC, the departure from the "no-gain" line being particularly clear when considering large p_{thresh} values. This departure is weak for $p_{thresh} \leq 0.01$, with a gain of about 2 at maximum ($p_{thresh} = 0.01$).

357 5 Conclusions

358 According to our analyses, the low magnitude of completeness of the QTM cat-
 359 alog does not warrant the detection of aseismically-driven foreshock sequences in the
 360 20-days window preceding mainshock events. More than 90% of observed foreshock
 361 sequences are indeed well explained by a simple cascading model even when the mag-
 362 nitude of completeness is as low as $M_c = 0$.

363 High quality earthquake datasets complete to low magnitudes are in any case
 364 required to pursue and develop efforts for understanding when and where aseismic
 365 pre-slip can lead to a large shock. First, increasing the location accuracy and the
 366 number of small earthquakes substantially improves the statistical significance of any
 367 test conducted to assess the reality of pre-slip processes, when comparing to the cascade
 368 (null) hypothesis. Second, the availability of large datasets allows to increase the
 369 number of potential mainshocks to be analyzed, hence offering more robust conclusions.
 370 Finally, we suggest that pre-slip seismicity analysis should be evaluated along other
 371 near-fault observables (such as GPS or tiltmeter data) to independently assess any
 372 possible aseismic mechanisms at work during the preparation of large earthquakes.

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