

Bayesian Approach for Identification of Multiple Events in an Early Warning System

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1 Abstract

2 The 2011 Tohoku earthquake (Mw9.0) was followed by a large number of aftershocks that
3 resulted in 70 early warning messages in the first month after the main shock. Of these
4 warnings, a non-negligible fraction (63%) were false warnings where the largest expected
5 seismic intensities were overestimated by at least two intensities or larger. These errors can
6 be largely attributed to multiple concurrent aftershocks from distant origins that occur within
7 a short period of time. Based on a Bayesian formulation that considers the possibility of
8 having more than one event present at any given time, we propose a novel likelihood function
9 suitable for classifying multiple concurrent earthquakes, which uses amplitude information.
10 We use a sequential Monte Carlo heuristic whose complexity grows linearly with the number
11 of events. We further provide a particle filter implementation and empirically verify its
12 performance in with the aftershock records after the Tohoku earthquake. The initial case

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¹³ studies suggest promising performance of this method in classifying multiple seismic events
¹⁴ that occur closely in time.

15 Introduction

16 During the highly seismically active period after a major earthquake, multiple earthquakes
17 can occur almost concurrently at different locations. In this case, the seismic waves measured
18 by the ground sensors contain mixed signals from more than one source. If the detection
19 algorithm assumes only one quake, the estimated quake parameters (e.g. location and mag-
20 nitude) will not be accurate. These inaccurate estimates can lead to false warnings that are
21 often observed after large earthquakes.

22 The 2011 off the Pacific Coast of Tohoku Earthquake (hereafter called Tohoku earth-
23 quake) caused significant damage over a large area of northeastern Honshu. An earthquake
24 early warning (EEW) was issued to the public in the Tohoku region about 8 s after the
25 first P-arrival, which is 31 s after the origin time ([Hoshiya et al., 2011](#); [Sagiya et al., 2011](#);
26 [Hoshiya and Iwakiri, 2011](#)). There was no blind zone, i.e., warnings were received at all
27 locations before the S-arrivals, since the earthquake was fairly far offshore.

28 The main earthquake was followed by a large number of aftershocks that resulted in 70
29 early warnings issued in the first month after the main shock ([JMA, 2011](#)). Among these,
30 63% of the warnings contained significant errors where the estimated seismic intensities were
31 at least two scales larger than the observed ones. As a comparison, only 29% of the warnings
32 contain such errors prior to the Tohoku earthquake. Post-event analysis revealed that 73% of

33 these errors could be attributed to failure to classify multiple concurrent quakes either from
34 the same hypocenter separated by a short amount of time or from spatially distant origins
35 (JMA, 2011). One of the main reasons of these false alarms is that the current approach
36 uses mainly P-wave arrival time to estimate the hypocenter.

37 In this paper, we propose a novel approach to detect and classify multiple concurrent
38 earthquakes in the current Japan Meteorological Agency (JMA) system framework. We
39 introduce an approximate Bayesian method that estimates the location, magnitude, and
40 origin time of multiple concurrent aftershocks. In contrast to the current JMA system,
41 this approach produces multiple sets of estimation for earthquakes that occur closely in
42 time. The experimental results from several case studies suggest that this approach can
43 successfully detect and estimate the parameters of multiple concurrent earthquakes.

44 **Data and Processing**

45 This paper includes strong motion data observed by the JMA seismic stations during and
46 after the Tohoku earthquake. We evaluate the new classification approach on three sections
47 of these records as summarized below. For each record, the values included in the JMA
48 EEW are compared to the values that appear in the JMA catalog in Table 1.

49 **Data set**

50 **Case 1: 15 March 2011, 1:36:00 - 1:38:00 (two small earthquakes).** Early warnings
51 were issued to the public based on an estimated JMA magnitude of 5.9 at 21 s after the first
52 P-wave detection (see Data and Resources). However, the largest observed seismic intensity
53 was only 2 in the JMA seismic intensity scale. As shown in Table 1, at least two events
54 about 200 km apart of magnitude 2.5 and 3.3 occurred within 15 s. Since the second event
55 started close in time to the wave arrivals of the first event, the EEW system treated these
56 separate events as one single earthquake and as a result, overestimated the magnitude.

57 **Case 2: 20 March 2011, 14:19:00 - 14:21:00 (two small earthquakes).** The JMA
58 EEW system estimated a magnitude of 7.6 at 6.6 s after the initial detection of P-wave and
59 issued a warning to the public (see Data and Resources). However, the largest observed
60 seismic intensity was only 3. Again, as shown in Table 1, the overestimation can possibly
61 be attributed to mistaking two smaller quakes about 150 km apart (M3.0 and M4.7) that
62 occurred within 5 s for one large quake, since the occurrence of the second event was close
63 in time to the wave arrival of the first event.

64 **Case 3: 11 March 2011, 14:46:00 - 14:49:00 (Tohoku earthquake).** To demonstrate
65 that the method can also handle the classification of a single event, we also include the

66 analysis of the Tohoku earthquake (Mw9.0). An early warning was issued to the public in
67 the Tohoku region about 8 s after the first P-arrival, which is 31 s after the origin time (see
68 Data and Resources).

69 **Processing**

70 This paper uses the three component acceleration data with a sampling rate of 100 Hz
71 from about 200 stations. The acceleration data was first converted to SAC format and
72 decimated by a factor of 100, reducing the sampling frequency to 1 Hz. The decimation was
73 not necessary but was used to reduce computation time. Each component of the decimated
74 acceleration $k(t)$ was then converted to displacement $A(t)$. The conversion was done by twice
75 integration of $k(t)$ using a recursive digital filter with the frequency response of a mechanical
76 seismometer (Katsumata, 2008).

$$A(t) = gn \times [k(t) + h_0 \cdot k(t - 1) + h_1 \cdot k(t - 2)] - h_2 \cdot A(t - 1) - h_3 \cdot A(t - 2), \quad (1)$$

77 where the function gain factor gn and filter constants h_0, h_1, h_2, h_3 depend on the sampling
78 frequency, damping constant, and natural period of the seismometer. For a JMA seismometer
79 with 100Hz sampling, 0.55 damping constant, and 6 s natural period, the values correspond
80 to:

$$gn = 0.0000248691025, h_0 = 1.0, h_1 = 1.0, h_2 = -1.9889474, h_3 = 0.9895828. \quad (2)$$

81 The following approach to classification uses both the vector sum of the three component
 82 displacement $A(t)$ as well as the vertical component of acceleration $k(t)$. The picking is
 83 done with STA/LTA of $k(t)$ with a short term window of 1 s and long term window of 10
 84 s. The method also computes expected P- and S-wave arrival times (t_p and t_s) to determine
 85 whether a station should have observed P-wave or S-wave or neither. These arrival times
 86 are computed with the JMA 1D layered velocity structure (Ueno et al., 2002).

87 Bayesian Method

88 The problem of continuous parameter estimation for multiple events can be formulated as
 89 a Bayesian inference problem. Let θ be the vector of parameters that characterizes an
 90 event and Θ be a set of events that are parametrized by θ 's, $\Theta = \{\emptyset, \{\theta_1\}, \dots, \{\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots\}\}$.
 91 Suppose $\mathbf{z}_{1:t}$ is the complete history of observations from all the stations till the current time
 92 t , the posterior $P(\Theta_t | \mathbf{z}_{1:t})$ reveals the distribution of information of current ongoing events
 93 at time t given the evidence and prior information.

$$P(\Theta_t | \mathbf{z}_{1:t}) = \frac{P(\mathbf{z}_t | \Theta_t) P(\Theta_t | \mathbf{z}_{1:t-1})}{P(\mathbf{z}_t | \mathbf{z}_{1:t-1})}, \quad (3)$$

94 where $P(\mathbf{z}_t|\Theta_t)$ is the likelihood function and is typically denoted as L , $L(\mathbf{z}_t|\Theta_t) = P(\mathbf{z}_t|\Theta_t)$.

95 $P(\Theta_t|\mathbf{z}_{1:t-1})$ is the updated prior at time t ,

$$P(\Theta_t|\mathbf{z}_{1:t-1}) = \int P(\Theta_t|\Theta_{t-1})P(\Theta_{t-1}|\mathbf{z}_{1:t-1}) d\Theta_{t-1}, \quad (4)$$

96 and $P(\Theta_0|\mathbf{z}_0) \equiv P(\Theta_0)$ is the prior distribution of Θ .

97 Particle Filter

98 In general, Equation (3) does not have a closed-form solution, and there exists several sub-
 99 optimal solutions to approximate the posterior distribution ([Arulampalam et al., 2002](#)), one
 100 of which is grid search. Grid search, though simple to implement, suffers a few problems.
 101 First of all, when the parameters are continuous and not sufficiently restricted, the method
 102 cannot cover the complete parameter space since there can only be a finite number of grids.
 103 Secondly, the grid size is predefined, and as a result, it requires a large number of grids to
 104 achieve good coverage at a desired resolution.

105 Another solution is the Particle Filter (PF), which is a sequential Monte Carlo method
 106 that approximates the posterior distribution with a set of weighted particles ([Doucet et al.,](#)
 107 [2001](#)). As the number of particles goes to infinity, the solution from PF approaches the
 108 optimal solution. There is a rich literature on PF and its variation ([Doucet et al., 2001;](#)
 109 [Arulampalam et al., 2002; Liu and Chen, 1998](#)). The basic procedure is summarized below

110 for reference.

111 **Sampling.** At the beginning of each iteration, the value of each particle is drawn from an
 112 *important density* function $q(\Theta_t^i|\Theta_{t-1}^i, \mathbf{z}_t)$. For $i = 1, \dots, N$

$$\Theta_t^i \sim q(\Theta_t^i|\Theta_{t-1}^i, \mathbf{z}_t). \quad (5)$$

113 where \sim denotes that the sample Θ_t^i is drawn according to the distribution $q(\cdot)$.

114 **Weight update.** PF approximates the posterior with a collection of weighted particles.

$$P(\Theta_t|\mathbf{z}_{1:t}) \approx \sum_{i=1}^N w_t^i \cdot \delta(\Theta_t - \Theta_t^i), \quad (6)$$

115 where w_t^i is the weight for particle i at time t . The sum of total weights are normalized to 1.

$$\sum_{i=1}^N w_t^i = 1. \quad (7)$$

116 The weights for all particles are updated as new evidence \mathbf{z}_t comes in and renormalized
 117 at the end of each update.

$$w_t^i \propto w_{t-1}^i \frac{L(\mathbf{z}_t|\Theta_t^i)P(\Theta_t^i|\Theta_{t-1}^i)}{q(\Theta_t^i|\Theta_{t-1}^i, \mathbf{z}_t)}, \quad (8)$$

118 where $q(\cdot)$ is the same important density that appears in the sampling step. To simplify the

119 calculation, $q(\cdot)$ is often chosen to be the transition prior $P(\Theta_t^i|\Theta_{t-1}^i)$. Since the terms cancel
 120 out in the right hand side, the new weight is directly proportional to the likelihood $L(\mathbf{z}_t|\Theta_t^i)$.

121 **Resampling.** Because the posterior is approximated with discrete particles, the system
 122 suffers *sample degeneracy* after a few update iterations when the weight is concentrated on
 123 a very small number of particles. The decrease in weight variance determines the degree of
 124 degeneracy that can be approximated with \widehat{N}_{eff} (Arulampalam et al., 2002),

$$\widehat{N}_{eff} = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^N (w_t^i)^2}. \quad (9)$$

125 Small \widehat{N}_{eff} indicates severe degeneracy in which case resampling is required. Resampling
 126 essentially eliminates particles with negligible weight by generating a new set of N equally
 127 weighted particles according to current distribution $P(\Theta_t|\mathbf{z}_{1:t})$. There exists many methods
 128 for sampling from a discrete distribution, which we will not discuss here.

129 Each iteration typically involves one *sampling* and one *weight update*. *Resampling* only
 130 happens when \widehat{N}_{eff} drops below a certain threshold.

131 Model

132 In the rest of the section, we discuss the practical implementation details of a PF-based real-
 133 time parameter estimation system for multiple earthquakes. The parameters we would like
 134 to estimate are $\theta = [x, y, D, M, t_0]$, where x = longitude (deg), y = latitude (deg), D = depth

135 (km), M = JMA magnitude, and t_0 = origin time. Complete pseudo code (Algorithm 1) is
136 included in the end of this section.

137 **Prior distribution.** The prior $P(\theta)$ determines how the particles are initialized. A
138 good prior encodes geographical information such as the location of nearby fault lines to the
139 station that first triggered, and the most common magnitudes generated at the fault lines.
140 This information can be compiled from historical earthquake catalog for each station and
141 used in real time when initializing the PF. If prior information is absent, then a flat prior
142 can be used instead. The choice of prior distribution affect the quality of the estimates and
143 the convergence rate. Prior distribution of large coverage may cause the initial estimates to
144 be unstable because little evidence is present. Priors of small coverage may result in slow
145 convergence or false convergence (converging at the wrong values). These tradeoffs can be
146 evaluated empirically. In this paper, we use a uniform flat prior of ± 100 km for location,
147 ± 10 km for depth, ± 1 magnitude for event magnitude, and ± 10 s for event origin time.

148 **Likelihood function.** The performance of the particle filter for parameter estimation
149 depends largely upon the design of the likelihood function. In addition to the arrival time
150 and measured amplitude from the *triggered* stations that current JMA approach uses, our
151 likelihood function also utilize the same information from *non-triggered* stations as well
152 because they also convey important information about the event.

153 In this paper, we use the attenuation relationship developed by JMA for magnitude
 154 estimation. The relationship is stated as follows (Hoshiya and Ozaki, 2013). Let A_{max} be
 155 the maximum displacement measured by a seismometer after the onset of an event. The
 156 earthquake P-wave and S-wave magnitude M_p and M_s can be expressed as a function of the
 157 linear distance from the station to the hypocenter (R), the depth of the hypocenter (D), and
 158 the maximum displacement for P-wave (A_{max}^p) or the maximum displacement of the entire
 159 duration (A_{max}^{p+s}).

$$0.72M_p = \log A_{max}^p + 1.2 \log R + 5 \times 10^{-4}R - 5.0 \times 10^{-3}D + 0.46, \quad (10)$$

$$0.87M_s = \log A_{max}^{p+s} + \log R + 1.9 \times 10^{-3}R - 5.0 \times 10^{-3}D + 0.98. \quad (11)$$

160 The relationship between the parameters is illustrated in Figure 1. These formulae are
 161 specifically tailored for the geological compositions in Japan (see Data and Resources). The
 162 P-wave and S-wave magnitudes are expressed in terms of the maximum displacement A_{max}
 163 rather than the maximum acceleration or velocity because the scatter of displacement is
 164 smaller.

165 Given Equation (10) and Equation (11) and that the displacement is log-normally dis-
 166 tributed $A \sim \ln \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$, we propose the following likelihood function for a single station,

$$L(z|x, y, D, M, t_0) = \frac{\exp \frac{-(\log A_{max} - \log A_{exp})^2}{2\sigma^2}}{A_{max} \cdot \sigma \sqrt{2\pi}}. \quad (12)$$

167 Here A_{exp} is the expected A_{max} and σ is the standard deviation of displacement measurement.
 168 Depending on whether the station has observed P-wave, S-wave, or neither, the expected
 169 maximum displacement and its standard deviation are different. For convenience, by rear-
 170 ranging Equation (10) and Equation (11), we can compute A_{exp} and σ for the following three
 171 cases.

172 Note that Equation (12) is based on amplitude which departs from standard arrival-time
 173 based methods. The main reason for adopting this approach is the observation that the
 174 information of no shaking is critical in separating and classifying multiple earthquakes that
 175 occur close in space and time. This will be further discussed in Discussion.

- Has not observed any seismic wave:

$$\log A_{exp} = \log A_{noise}, \quad \sigma = \sigma_{noise}. \quad (13)$$

- Has observed P-wave:

$$\log A_{exp} = 0.72M_p - 1.2 \log R - 5 \times 10^{-4}R + 5.0 \times 10^{-3}D - 0.46, \quad \sigma = \sigma_p. \quad (14)$$

- Has observed S-wave:

$$\log A_{exp} = 0.87M_s - \log R - 1.9 \times 10^{-3}R + 5.0 \times 10^{-3}D - 0.98, \quad \sigma = \sigma_s. \quad (15)$$

176 A_{noise} and σ_{noise} are the noise in displacement measurement due to recent environmental
 177 noise and can be computed independently for each station by keeping a running window. σ_p
 178 and σ_s can be precomputed from historical earthquake data.

179 The decision of which A_{exp} to compute for a station depends on whether P-wave, S-wave,
 180 or neither has arrived at the station. The expected travel time of P-wave and S-wave (t_p and
 181 t_s) can be computed with ray theory, given the relative location of the station to a hypocenter
 182 (x, y, D) . Comparison between t_p , t_s , the absolute current time t , and the absolute event
 183 start time t_0 gives direct estimation of which A_{exp} to compute for a station. Figure 2 provides
 184 a illustrative summary of these design ideas.

This design of the likelihood function is based on the maximum displacement A_{max} that
 a seismometer observes during the shaking of P- or S-wave. However, a seismometer may
 not observe the maximum displacement immediately after the wave arrival. In this case,
 the initial estimates can be highly incorrect using this likelihood function. A simple delay
 function $g(\cdot)$ can be included to approximate the instantaneous displacement before the
 maximum is observed,

$$A_{exp} = g(t - t_0 - t_p)A_{max}, \quad 0 \leq g(\cdot) \leq 1. \quad (16)$$

185 where t and t_0 are the absolute current time and the absolute event origin time. t_p is the
 186 expected P-wave travel time. An example of $g(t)$ is a left shifted sigmoid function.

187 The likelihood $L(\cdot|\cdot)$ is applied in each time step to update the weight of each particle.
 188 Assuming that each station makes independent observation and the collection of observations
 189 from all stations is \mathbf{z} , the complete likelihood function becomes

$$L(\mathbf{z}|x, y, D, M, t_0) = \prod_{i=1}^n L(z_i|x, y, D, M, t_0), \quad (17)$$

190 where n is the number of stations. Note that the independence assumption is a minor
 191 simplification since nearby stations may have correlated observations.

192 **Generalized Particle Filter**

193 Particles are initialized according to a prior distribution on the parameters. Since we are
 194 approximating an unbounded and continuous 5-dimensional space with a bounded and dis-
 195 crete one, care must be taken to ensure that the particles have sufficient coverage and the
 196 number of required particles stays bounded. This is especially important for the seismic
 197 application since both the number of parameters and the range of values they can take are
 198 large. One way to ensure particle diversity with a limited number of particles is to adopt
 199 the *Regularized Particle Filter (RPF)* approach ([Arulampalam et al., 2002](#)).

200 RPF differs from common particle filter only in the resampling stage. Rather than
 201 sampling from a discrete approximation of the posterior density $P(\cdot|\mathbf{z})$ as in Equation (6),
 202 RPF samples from a *continuous* approximation ([Musso et al., 2001](#)). More specifically, RPF

203 draws samples from the approximation,

$$P(\theta|\mathbf{z}) \approx \sum_{i=1}^N w_i \cdot K_h(\theta - \theta_i), \quad (18)$$

204 where $K_h(\theta) = \frac{1}{h}K(\theta/h)$, $h > 0$ is the rescaled kernel density of $K(\cdot)$. h is the bandwidth,
 205 and w_i is the normalized weight for particle i . As a comparison, $K_h(\theta)$ is the Dirac delta
 206 function $\delta(\theta)$ in the regular particle filter. Special care is given to the design of kernels to
 207 minimize the error between approximated and actual distribution. Under the assumption
 208 that all particles are equally-weighted and the density is Gaussian, the optimal kernel is the
 209 Epanechnikov kernel (Musso et al., 2001).

$$K_{opt}(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{n_x+2}{2C_{n_x}}(1 - \|x\|) & \|x\| < 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}, \quad (19)$$

210 where n_x is the dimension of the parameter space, C_{n_x} is the volume of the unit hypersphere
 211 in \mathbb{R}^{n_x} . Figure 3 lists a few popular kernels in the literature.

212 The bandwidth vector h can be chosen proportionally to the variance in the particle
 213 population by computing the Cholesky decomposition of the empirical covariance matrix
 214 (Bickel and Levina, 2008).

215 **Approximate Method for Multiple Concurrent Quakes**

216 PF allows for solving the Bayesian inference problem when exact inference is intractable;
217 however, for the estimates to approach the optimal solution, the number of required particles
218 must grow exponentially with the number of events.

219 Fortunately, as shown in historical records, the probability of having n concurrent earth-
220 quakes within a time window of 60 seconds is exponentially small for large n ($n > 3$).
221 Incorporating this information into the prior distribution can significantly reduce the size of
222 the state space. But the state space may still be too large for efficient real-time computation
223 even with this information. For example, suppose that the quake can be parameterized by
224 a 5-parameter vector θ , $\theta = [x \ y \ D \ M \ t_0]^T$ where $[x \ y \ D]^T$ is the [longitude, latitude, depth]
225 coordinate, M is the event magnitude, and t_0 is the event starting time. In the presence of
226 $n = 3$ quakes, the states to be searched reside in a $5 \times 3 = 15$ -dimensional space.

227 This amount of computation may be executable in reasonable time on a supercomputer
228 or a networked system of computers with parallel implementation of particle filter ([Durham](#)
229 [and Geweke, 2013](#); [Miao et al., 2010](#)). In this paper, however, we propose a simple heuristics
230 to keep track of multiple quakes. The heuristics has the desired property such that the
231 complexity grows linearly with the number of the events.

232 As a first approximation, the heuristics initializes separate particle filters $pf_1(\theta_1), pf_2(\theta_2), \dots$

233 for all possible quakes rather than keeping track of all events within one particle filter
 234 $pf(\Theta = \{\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots\})$. Each particle filter communicates its current estimate $\hat{\theta}$ at the end of
 235 each update step to all other particle filters. Specifically, each particle filter pf_i computes
 236 the following posterior at time t ,

$$P(\theta_i^t | \mathbf{z}, \{\theta_j^{\hat{t}-1}, j \neq i\}). \quad (20)$$

237 This approximation breaks down the $5n$ state space where n is the number of concurrent
 238 quakes, and dramatically reduces the required computations to keep all events estimation
 239 up to date. It is suboptimal, however, since all the particles from pf_1, pf_2, \dots combined only
 240 cover a small fraction of the complete parameter space.

241 The heuristic initializes a new particle filter with each single station P-wave pick, using a
 242 high enough threshold such that noisy detections are filtered out. Since local detection can be
 243 due to an existing event that is being tracked by another particle filter, it is necessary to con-
 244 dition new initialization on a separate metric. A natural choice of metric is $\mathbb{P} \left[z | \hat{\theta}_1, \hat{\theta}_2, \dots \right]$,
 245 i.e., the probability that the triggered measurement can be explained by existing events.
 246 Computation of this metric can follow directly from the single station likelihood calculation
 247 as in Equation (12); however, determining A_{exp} is nontrivial in this case since it involves
 248 computing the additive effect of the interference of multiple wavefronts. We propose an al-

249 ternative metric which allows for rapid computation; the metric is the probability of shaking
 250 due to *any* of the existing events and threshold on the highest probability:

$$\max_i \mathbb{P} [z|\hat{\theta}_i] = \max_i L(z|\hat{\theta}_i) \begin{cases} < \tau, & \text{initialize new pf} \\ \geq \tau, & \text{do nothing} \end{cases}. \quad (21)$$

251 By tuning the threshold τ , we adjust how conservative the system is in declaring new
 252 events. The complete algorithm is outlined in Algorithm 1 in the appendix for reference.

253 Results

254 We carried out the particle filter parameter estimation approach on the data described in
 255 Data and Processing, using a flat prior around the first triggered station and 1,000 particles
 256 for each particle filter. The algorithm updates at a one-second interval and all experiments
 257 were run in simulated real-time.

258 **Case 1: 15 March 2011, 1:36:00 - 1:38:00 (two small earthquakes).** 20 trials
 259 were performed during this period of time. Snapshots of the particle distribution for one of
 260 the runs are shown in Figure 4. The averaged time histories of the estimated parameters
 261 across all 20 runs were compared against the JMA unified catalog (marked as dotted lines)
 262 in Figure 5. The standard deviations across all runs are included as the error bars. The
 263 labeled x-axis corresponds to seconds since the first detection of the first event. As the

264 results demonstrate, the first particle filter was initiated at the first P-wave arrivals, and
265 15 s later, another particle filter was created. This approach successfully identified the two
266 separate events. In addition, all estimates converge within 10 s after the initializations. On
267 average, the method is able to localize the epicenters to within 20 km and produce magnitude
268 estimates with an error of ± 1 , relative to the JMA unified hypocenter catalog (Table 1).

269 **Case 2: 20 March 2011, 14:19:00 - 14:21:00 (two small earthquakes).** We repeated
270 the analyses for the dataset of Case 2, where two small earthquakes occurred 5 s apart. The
271 snapshots of particle distributions and time series of estimated parameters are included in
272 Figure 6 and Figure 7. Note that in this example, because the first event occurred offshore
273 and there were fewer near-source recordings, localization and estimation of other parameters
274 are more challenging than for Case 1. Indeed, the results showed that the estimates converge
275 slower (about 30 s for event A), and the averaged localization error was relatively large (about
276 80 km for event A, relative to the JMA unified hypocenter catalog (Table 1). However, the
277 algorithm was still able to identify and separate the two events and provide accurate estimates
278 of their magnitudes to within ± 0.5 .

279 **Case 3: 11 March 2011, 14:46:00 - 14:49:00 (Tohoku earthquake).** We used the
280 dataset of the Tohoku earthquake to show that the approach also works for a single event.
281 The snapshots of particle distributions and time series of estimated parameters are included

282 in Figure 8 and Figure 9. Since the event was originated offshore, there was substantial
283 localization error in the initial estimates. However, the averaged error decreased with time
284 and converged at less than 40 km at 40 s after the initial P-wave arrival. The magnitude
285 estimate grew from 6.0 to 8.4 as the earthquake rupture propagated, which is consistent with
286 the earthquake rupture physics. At convergence, all five estimated parameters were close to
287 the values in the JMA catalog.

288 Discussion

289 Current JMA methods to detecting and associating multiple quakes perform well when the
290 events are far apart in space or time. However, they have been shown to generate many false
291 alarms when events are close in space or time (Sagiya et al., 2011). The empirical studies
292 suggest that the particle based heuristic can successfully separate multiple concurrent seismic
293 events and provide reasonable estimates of their parameters. And the speed of convergence
294 may be improved by incorporating P-wave arrival time in the likelihood, i.e., the residual
295 between observed and predicted P-wave arrival times. The results show that estimated
296 parameters converge in less than 10 s for inland earthquakes. For offshore earthquakes, the
297 estimates converge in 20-30 s. In terms of localization error, we observed less than 20 km
298 for inland earthquakes, and 20-80 km for offshore events.

299 In order to classify multiple concurrent earthquakes, the use of non-triggered stations is

300 important. The current JMA EEW system uses arrival times of waves at only the triggered
301 stations in the hypocenter calculation. As a result, when multiple earthquakes occur around
302 the same time and the later event occurs close to the wave arrival times of the earlier
303 event, the EEW system treats these events as one single earthquake. If this is the case
304 and the stations around the later event observes non-negligible shakings, the current system
305 may overestimate the magnitude because these stations are far away from the estimated
306 hypocenter (i.e., the location of the earlier event). In our approach, the likelihood function
307 uses information from not only the triggered stations but also the non-triggered ones. This
308 design together with the adaptive measure of A_{noise} allow the algorithm to identify unaffected
309 regions between events and is therefore crucial in separating multiple concurrent earthquakes.

310 Another advantage of our approach is the use of regularized particle filter to circumvent
311 the need for intensive computation that traditional grid search requires. Although a prior
312 distribution is still required as mentioned in Model, such a distribution can be compiled from
313 historical records. Alternatively, initial measurements can be used to “select” the appropriate
314 priors to achieve better performance (Liu et al., 2011).

315 This approach is also subject to several weaknesses. For example, the algorithm is sen-
316 sitive to the choice of prior distribution, the number of particles, the values of A_{noise} , σ_{noise} ,
317 σ_p and σ_s . While these values can be adjusted and adapted in real time, it requires extensive
318 empirical studies and analyses of historical records for the algorithm to be robust. Some of

319 the slow convergence and high variance results in Results may be attributed to suboptimal
320 choices in these parameters.

321 In this paper we use only three cases to test the proposed method, so we are currently
322 carrying out more extensive evaluations of our method using the many examples of multiple
323 earthquake sequences that have occurred over the last several years.

324 As a side note, the performance of parameter estimation for multiple seismic events is
325 limited by how well one can model the ground motion when multiple wavefronts overlap. In
326 the algorithm proposed in Model, this model is not considered. While the omission makes
327 little difference in the case studies where the events are spatially far apart (greater than 100
328 km), if we want to apply the same technique to separate aftershocks from mainshock that
329 occur close in time, then such model should be considered.

330 **Conclusion**

331 In the seismically active period, multiple earthquakes of similar or distant origins can take
332 place at almost the same time. Failure to identify them as separate events leads to poor
333 estimates of their parameters. The error in estimates can in turn cause false warnings. In
334 this paper, we study the problem of detecting and classifying multiple earthquakes that
335 occur close in time. Based on a Bayesian formulation that considers the possibility of having
336 more than one event present at any given time, we propose a novel likelihood function

337 suitable for classifying multiple concurrent earthquakes and present a sequential Monte Carlo
338 heuristic whose complexity grows linearly with the number of events. The performance
339 of the heuristic is empirically validated with three sets of JMA seismic records after the
340 2011 Tohoku earthquake. The initial studies show that the approach is able to successfully
341 separate multiple events that occur close in space and time and estimate their parameters
342 in realtime to a reasonable degree of precision in comparison to official values determined
343 by JMA in the post event analyses. Although complete validation and characterization are
344 required before this method applied in realtime detection, the initial results show that our
345 approach can reduce the chance of overestimation of earthquake magnitude and, as a result,
346 contribute to the design of a better EEW system.

347 **Data and Resources**

348 Waveform data used in the present study were extracted from continuous recordings of
349 the stations within the JMA strong motion network. The JMA EEW performance of
350 three cases is available at; [http://www.seisvol.kishou.go.jp/eq/EEW/kaisetsu/joho/
351 20110315013605/content/contentout.html](http://www.seisvol.kishou.go.jp/eq/EEW/kaisetsu/joho/20110315013605/content/contentout.html), [http://www.seisvol.
352 kishou.go.jp/eq/EEW/kaisetsu/joho/20110320141959/content/contentout.html](http://www.seisvol.kishou.go.jp/eq/EEW/kaisetsu/joho/20110320141959/content/contentout.html), and [http://www.seisvol.
353 kishou.go.jp/eq/EEW/kaisetsu/joho/20110311144640/content/contentout.html](http://www.seisvol.kishou.go.jp/eq/EEW/kaisetsu/joho/20110311144640/content/contentout.html) (last
354 accessed July 2013). We use Seismic Analysis Code (<http://www.iris.washington.edu/>

355 `software/sac/manual/fileformat.html`, last accessed July 2013) for the data processing.
356 The JMA attenuation relationship are available in the report of the second JMA EEW
357 evaluation committee ([http://www.seisvol.kishou.go.jp/eq/EEW/MeetingHYOUKA/t02/
358 shiryou.pdf](http://www.seisvol.kishou.go.jp/eq/EEW/MeetingHYOUKA/t02/shiryou.pdf), last accessed July 2013).

359 Acknowledgements

360 The first author would like to thank professor Jim Mori at the Kyoto University for the
361 generous hosting and the warm welcome she received from all the group members. The
362 authors would also like to thank JMA for providing the strong motion seismic data. This
363 work was generously funded by the 2011 National Science Foundation (NSF) East Asian and
364 Pacific Summer Institute (EAPSI) Fellowship and the Funding Program for Next Generation
365 World-Leading Researchers (NEXT Program).

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Table 1: Summary of the earthquake information studied in this paper.

	M_{est}	Lon	Lat	Dep	Date	Time	M	Lon	Lat	Dep
Case 1	5.9	138.6	36.9	10	03-15	01:35:57.35	2.5	138.610	36.938	3.4
					03-15	01:36:12.72	3.3	139.879	35.526	20.5
Case 2	7.6	142.1	38.2	30	03-20	14:19:38.27	3.0	141.935	38.286	42.3
					03-20	14:19:58.06	4.7	140.794	37.082	7.2
Case 3	8.6	142.7	38.2	10	03-11	14:46:48.08	9.0	142.861	38.103	23.7

The first four columns correspond to the real-time JMA EEW records. The last six columns are the values documented in the JMA unified hypocenter catalog. Both Case 1 and 2 contain two events.

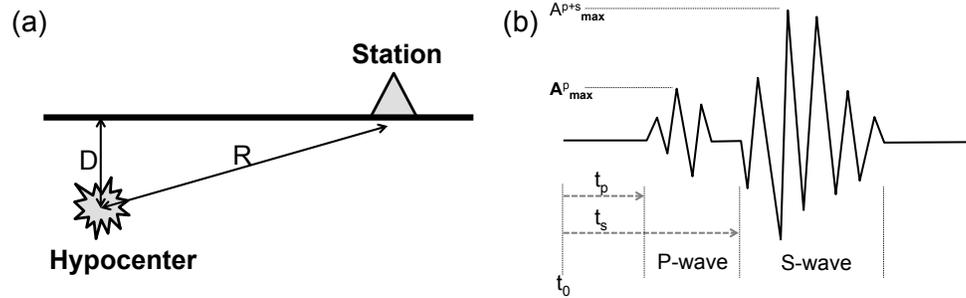


Figure 1: Illustrations of the parameters used in Model. (a) Hypocenter and seismic station and (b) amplitude and arrival times. t_p and t_s mark the arrival time of the P-wave and S-wave since the start of the earthquake at t_0 , $t_p \leq t_s$.

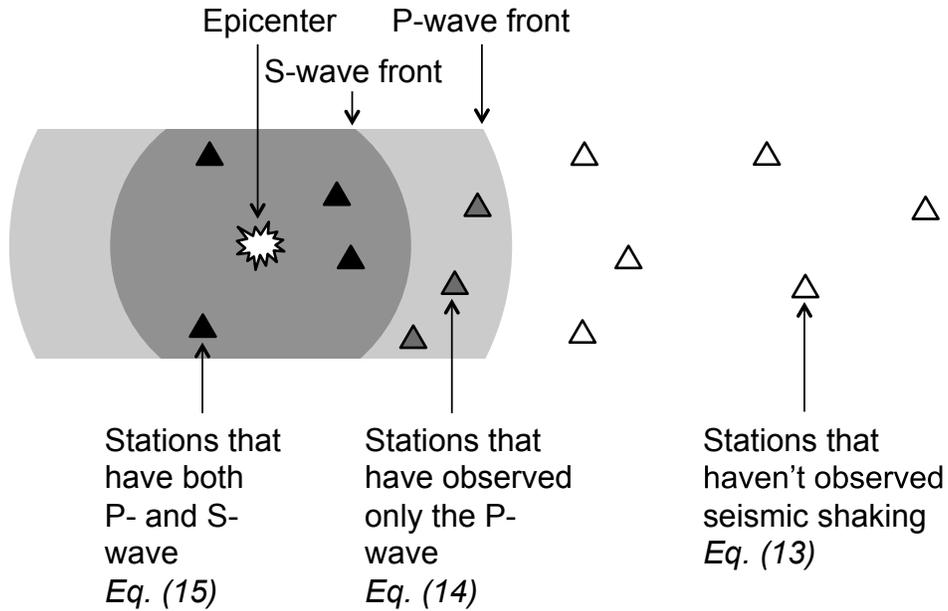


Figure 2: Illustrative summary of the design of a single station likelihood function. The expected observation made by a station depends on whether it should have observed P-wave, S-wave, or neither, given an hypocenter estimate.

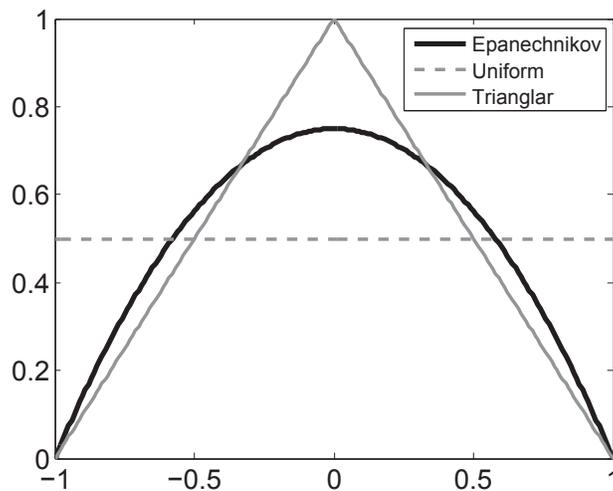


Figure 3: Some popular smoothing kernels used in regularized particle filter. Each kernel integrates to 1 to ensure that the resulting density is still a probability density function.

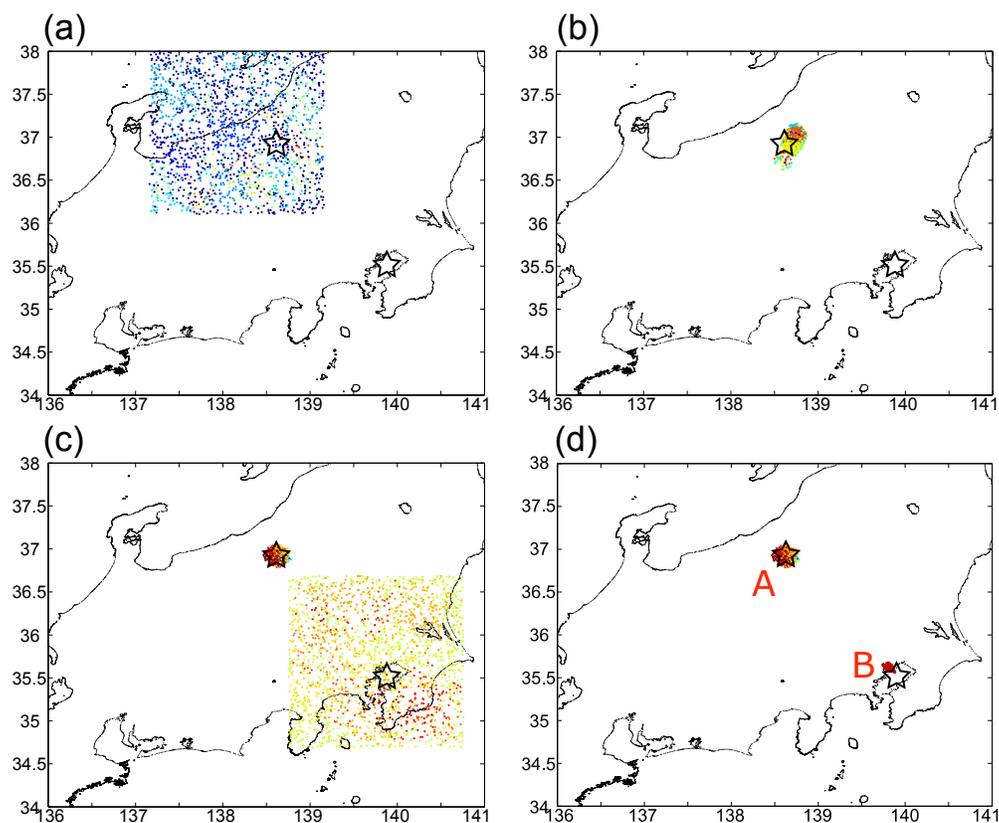


Figure 4: Distributions of 2,000 Particles visualized on the map at (a)1 s, (b)2 s, (c)14 s, and (d)17 s after 1:36:07 on 15 March, 2011. The time correspond to seconds elapsed since the first P-wave detection. The official epicenters for the two events as appeared in the JMA catalog are marked as stars and labeled in (d) for reference.

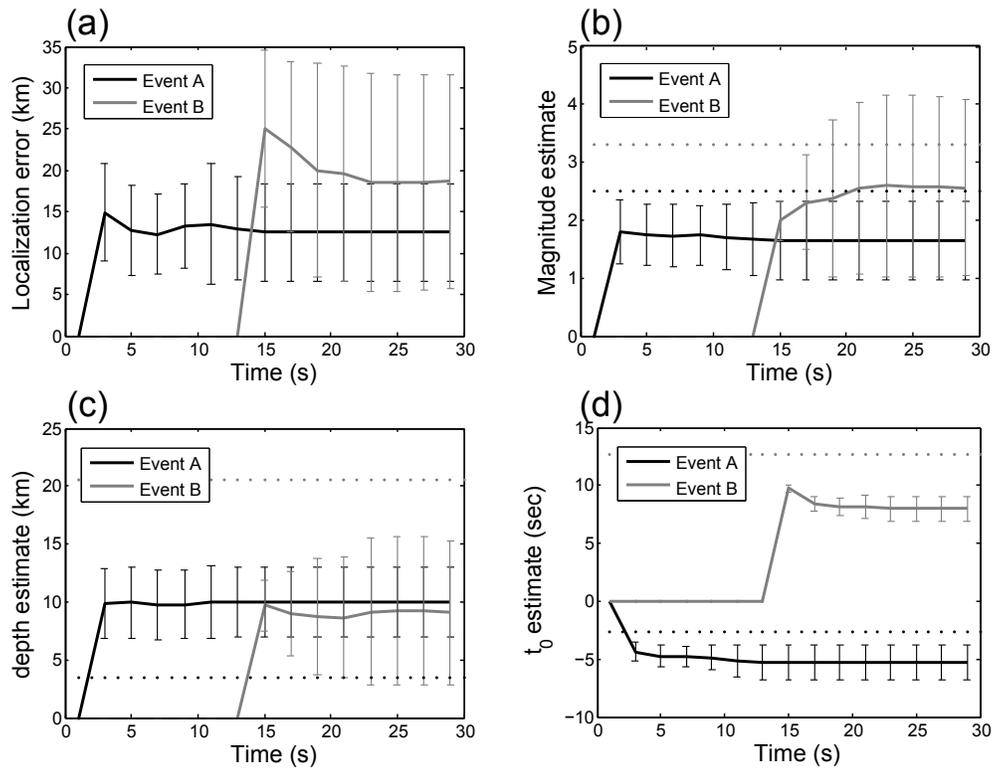


Figure 5: Results compiled from 20 independent runs for the period between 1:36:07 and 1:36:37 on 15 March, 2011. Time histories of the (a) localization error, (b) magnitude, (c) depth of the hypocenter and (d) origin time of the event. The two events are labeled according to Figure 4(d). Averaged time histories across all 20 runs are marked as solid lines, and the official values that appear in the JMA catalog are marked as dashed lines. The standard deviations across all runs are shown as error bars. The time displayed on the x-axis is relative to the first pick from the earliest event.

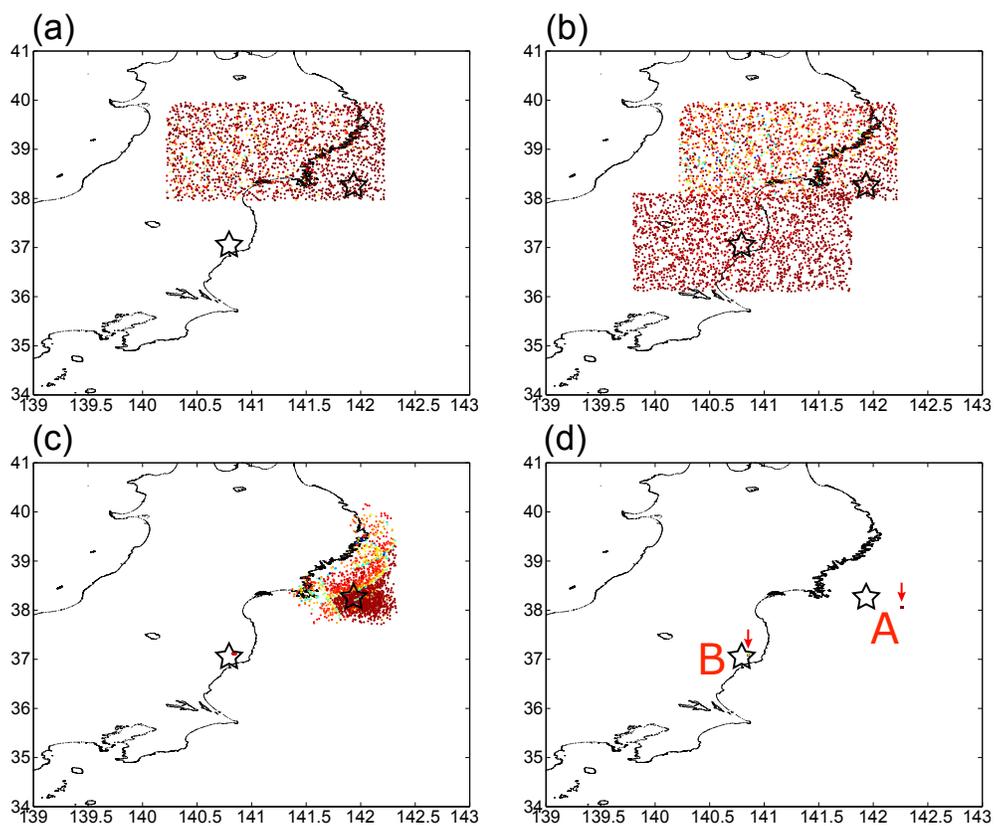


Figure 6: Distributions of 2,000 Particles visualized on the map at (a)2 s, (b)7 s, (c)17 s, and (d)37 s after 14:19:56 on 20 March, 2011. The symbols are defined the same way as in Figure 4.

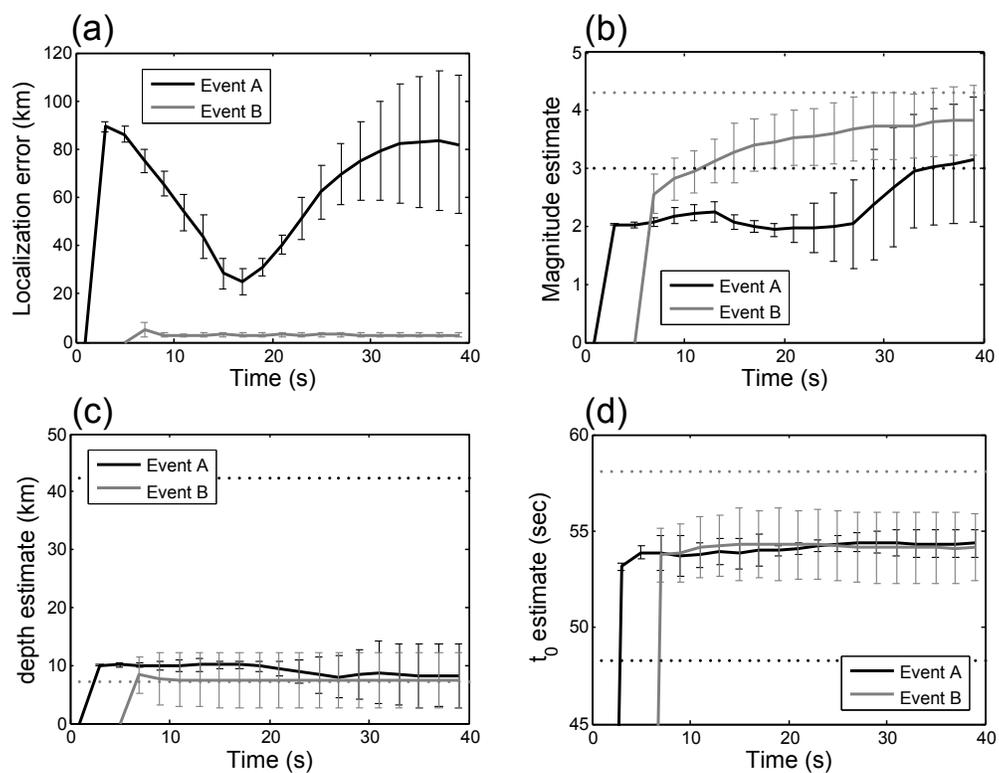


Figure 7: Results compiled from 20 independent runs in the period between 14:19:56 and 14:20:36 on 20 March, 2011. The subfigures and included symbols are defined the same way as in Figure 5.

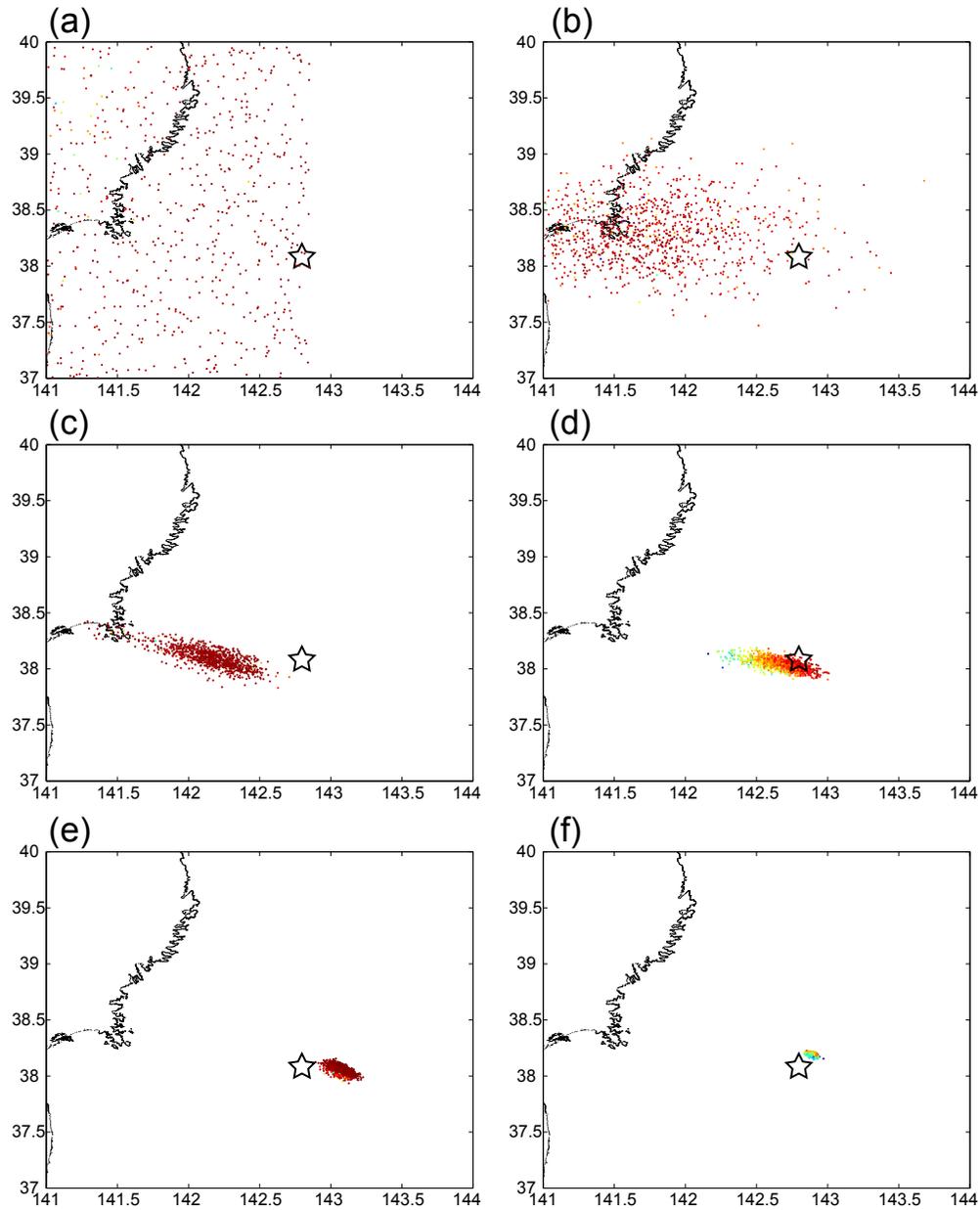


Figure 8: Distributions of 1,000 Particles visualized on the map at (a)2 s, (b)7 s, (c)13 s, (d)22 s, (e)32 s, and (f)62 s after 14:46:46 on 11 March, 2011. The symbols are defined the same way as in Figure 4.

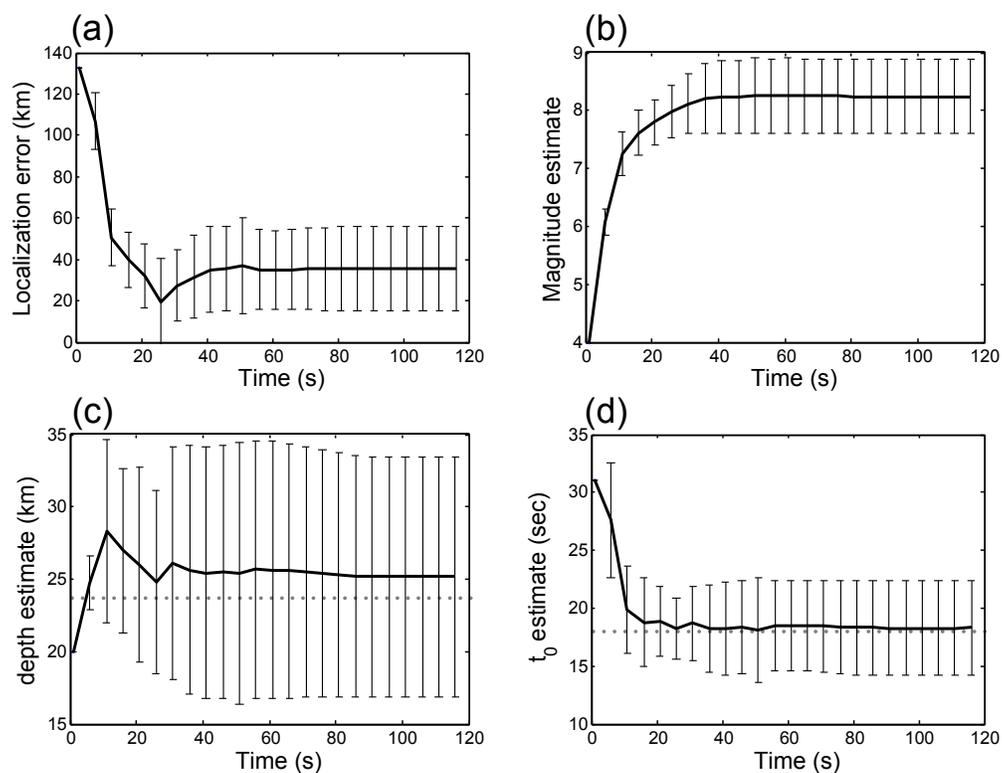


Figure 9: Results compiled from 15 independent runs for the period between 14:46:46 and 14:48:46 on 11 March, 2011. The subfigures and included symbols are defined the same way as in Figure 5.

408 **A** Appendix

Algorithm 1: Outline of regularized Particle Filter for multiple seismic event detection. The "CONVERGED" criteria can be substituted with desired conditions, e.g. change in estimates $\|\hat{\theta}_{t-10} - \hat{\theta}_{t-1}\| < \delta$.

```

PF ← {}
Initialize thresholds  $\tau, \alpha$ 
Initialize bandwidth vector  $h' \in \mathbb{R}^{n_x}$ 
while not end do
  * Check for new event
  Z ← list of station measurements that triggered
  for  $z \in Z$  do
     $pr \leftarrow \max_k L(z|\theta_k)$ 
    if  $pr < \tau$  then
       $[\{\theta_i, w_i\}_{i=1}^N] \leftarrow RPF [\{\theta_i, w_i\}_{i=1}^N, z]$ 
      for  $i = 1 \rightarrow N$  do
        Draw  $\theta_i \sim P(\theta, z)$ 
        Assign weights based on prior and  $z, w_i \sim P(\theta, z)$ 
       $pf \leftarrow [\{\theta_i, w_i\}_{i=1}^N, z]$ 
       $PF \leftarrow PF \cup pf$ 
  * Update weight, resample if needed
  for  $pf \in PF$  do
     $\{\theta_i, w_i\}_{i=1}^N \leftarrow pf$ 
    for  $i = 1 \rightarrow N$  do
       $w_i \leftarrow w_i L(\mathbf{z}|\theta_i)$ 
     $[\{\theta_i, w_i\}_{i=1}^N] \leftarrow NORMALIZE [\{\theta_i, w_i\}_{i=1}^N]$ 
    Compute  $\widehat{N}_{eff} \leftarrow \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^N w_i^2}$ 
    if  $\widehat{N}_{eff} < \alpha$  then
       $[\{\theta_i, w_i\}_{i=1}^N] \leftarrow RESAMPLE [\{\theta_i, w_i\}_{i=1}^N, z]$ 
      for  $i = 1 \rightarrow N$  do
        Draw  $\epsilon \sim K$  from the Epanechnikov Kernel
        Compute weighted empirical covariance matrix  $S_k$  of  $\{\theta_i, w_i\}_{i=1}^N$ 
        Compute lower triangle  $D_k = chol(S_k), D_k D_k^T = S_k$ 
         $\theta_i \leftarrow \theta_i + h' D_k \epsilon$ 
  * Check for termination
  for  $pf \in PF$  do
     $\{\theta_i, w_i\}_{i=1}^N \leftarrow pf$ 
    if CONVERGED  $[\{\theta_i, w_i\}_{i=1}^N]$  then
       $PF = PF - pf$ 

```
