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2	The Assumption of Poisson Seismic-Rate Variability in
3	CSEP/RELM Experiments
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24 Abstract

25 Evaluating the performances of earthquake forecasting/prediction models is the main rationale behind some recent international efforts like the Regional Earthquake Likelihood Model (RELM) 26 27 and the Collaboratory for the Study of Earthquake Predictability (CSEP). Basically, the evaluation 28 process consists of two steps: 1) to run simultaneously all codes to forecast future seismicity in 29 well-defined testing regions; 2) to compare the forecasts through a suite of statistical tests. The tests 30 are based on the likelihood score and they check both the time and space performances. All these 31 tests rely on some basic assumptions that have never been deeply discussed and analyzed. In 32 particular, models are required to specify a rate in space-time-magnitude bins, and it is assumed that 33 these rates are independent and characterized by Poisson uncertainty. In this work we have explored 34 in detail these assumptions and their impact on CSEP testing procedures when applied to a widely 35 used class of models, i.e., the Epidemic-Type Aftershock Sequence (ETAS) models. Our results 36 show that, if an ETAS model is an accurate representation of seismicity, the same "right" model is 37 rejected by the current CSEP testing procedures a number of times significantly higher than 38 expected. We show that this deficiency is due to the fact that the ETAS models produce forecasts 39 with a variability significantly higher than that of a Poisson process, invalidating one of the main 40 assumption that stands behind the CSEP/RELM evaluation process. Certainly, this shortcoming 41 does not negate the paramount importance of the CSEP experiments as a whole, but it does call for 42 a specific revision of the testing procedures to allow a better understanding of the results of such 43 experiments.

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46 **1.** Introduction

The success of operational forecast indispensably depends on the use of reliable and skillful models (ICEF, 2009). In a nutshell, a model has to produce forecasts/predictions compatible with the future seismicity, and the forecasts/predictions have to be precise enough to be usable for practical 50 purposes (i.e., they need a good skill). Moreover, if a set of reliable models is available, it is 51 important to know what is the "best" one(s), i.e., the one(s) with the highest skill.

52 The evaluation of these pivotal features characterizing each forecasting/prediction model is the 53 primary goal of the Collaboratory for the Study of Earthquake Predictability (CSEP hereinafter; 54 Jordan 2006; http://www.cseptesting.org).

55 CSEP provides a rigorous framework for an empirical evaluation of any forecasting and prediction model. CSEP can be considered the successor of the Regional Earthquake Likelihood Model 56 57 (RELM) experiment (Schorlemmer and Gerstenberger, 2007). While RELM was focusing on 58 California, CSEP extends this focus to many other regions (New Zealand, Italy, Japan, North- and 59 South-Western Pacific, and the whole World) as well as global testing centers (New Zealand, 60 Europe, Japan). The coordinated international experiment has two main advantages: the evaluation 61 process is supervised by an international scientific committee, not only by the modelers themselves, 62 and the cross-evaluation of a model performances in different regions of the world can facilitate its 63 evaluation in a much shorter period of time (see also Zechar et al., 2009).

64 All CSEP experiments performed in each testing region are truly prospective tests. In other words, 65 each experiment compares forecasts produced by several models under testing with real data 66 observed in the corresponding testing region after the forecasts have been produced. The forecasts 67 are generated in the testing center independent of the modelers. The testing procedure adopted can 68 be summarized in two subsequent steps: 1) to measure the *reliability* of each model; 2) to quantify 69 the relative *skill* among the set of reliable models. In the first step, the forecasts/predictions made by 70 each model are compared to the real seismicity through one or more goodness-of-fit tests. If the 71 seismicity observed is compatible with the output of the model and the model-based variability, 72 then the performance of the models can be contrasted with other models in the second step of the 73 analysis. Specifically, the second step of the analysis compares quantitatively the 74 forecasting/prediction capabilities of the models in order to establish a hierarchy of best performing 75 models.

In this paper, we explore the performances of the CSEP/RELM testing procedure for two classes of forecasting models, Poisson and ETAS, that are largely represented in CSEP/RELM experiments (for the reliability of the prediction models see, e.g., Marzocchi et al., 2003; Zechar & Jordan, 2008, and references therein).

- 80
- 81 2. The CSEP/RELM suite of tests

The CSEP/RELM suite of tests is originally composed of three different tests (Schorlemmer et al., 2007; see also Kagan and Jackson 1994; 1995). The *L*-test (*Data-consistency test*) and *N*-test (*Number of events test*) are intended to check the goodness-of-fit of the model, while the *R*-test (*Hypotheses comparison*) compares the forecasting performances of different models.

The *L*-test and *R*-test are based on the well-known concept of conditional likelihood that is one of most used statistical tools to check and compare the performance of one or more models on data.

88 The formulation of these tests requires the definition of bins that are specified intervals in space,

89 magnitude and time. Using the same symbols of *Schorlemmer et al.* (2007), we define:

ω_i	number of earthquakes occurred in the <i>i</i> -th bin
λ_i^j	rate of earthquake occurrence for the <i>i</i> -th bin and <i>j</i> -th model.
$L_i^j = L(\omega_i \mid \lambda_i^j)$	log-likelihood calculated for the <i>i</i> -th bin and <i>j</i> -th model

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91 The joint log-likelihood for the *j*-th model is calculated as

$$L^{j} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} L(\omega_{i} \mid \lambda_{i}^{j})$$
⁽¹⁾

93 where *n* is the number of bins.

In order to get numbers from equation (1) $L(\omega_i / \lambda_i^j)$ must be defined. The basic assumption that stands behind the CSEP/RELM testing procedure is that earthquakes are assumed to occur in each bin according to a Poisson process with the rate specified by the model (Schorlemmer et al., 2007). 97 Note that this assumption is associated with the CSEP/RELM testing procedure not with the
98 loglikelihood tests that can manage any kind of arbitrary distributions. Therefore, equation (1)
99 becomes

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$$L^{j} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} L(\omega_{i} \mid \lambda_{i}^{j}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(-\lambda_{i}^{j} + \omega_{i} \ln \lambda_{i}^{j} - \ln \omega_{i}! \right)$$
(2)

101 This assumption is crucial and a careful evaluation of its validity is mandatory to fully understand 102 the CSEP/RELM tests. This assumption means that the bins are spatially and temporally 103 independent, and the number of earthquakes in time has a variance equal to the average. Although 104 some authors have already categorized such assumptions as "unlikely" and foresee possible 105 inconsistencies of the tests (e.g., Werner and Sornette, 2008), the consequences have never been 106 explored in detail. Moreover, we argue that the current use of this testing procedure in CSEP 107 experiments may lead to think that the departures from this hypothesis could be considered as 108 negligible.

109 The log-likelihood obtained by equation (2) is used to get the significance level of the tests through 110 simulations. The L-test compares the observed log-likelihood value (see equation (2)) with a 111 prefixed number of synthetic values obtained under the Poisson assumption for each bin, i.e., 112 simulating records where each bin has a number of earthquakes generated according to a Poisson process with the rate given by the model. The quantile score γ^{j} for the *j*-th model is the fraction of 113 114 simulated likelihood values that are less or equal to the observed L. This quantile score can be 115 considered the p-value of the test. Note that, compared to the analyses performed by Schorlemmer et al. (2007) and Werner and Sornette (2008), here we do not consider the inclusion of 116 117 uncertainties, because we aim to explore the tests in an optimal situation, i.e., with negligible 118 uncertainty in the observations.

Schorlemmer et al. (2007) discussed the case in which a model can pass the *L*-test even if it is wrong. For this reason, the authors proposed a second test, the *N*-test, that checks if the total number of forecasted events is compatible with the observed number. In this case the quantile score, 122 δ^{j} , is the probability to have no more than the observed number of events by a Poisson process 123 with a rate given by the model. In this case the test is two-sided, checking both possible over-124 prediction and under-prediction. To summarize, a model is "good" (*reliable*) if it is not rejected by 125 both L and N tests. Only if the model passes these tests, then it is considered in the R-test, where it 126 is compared to other reliable models. In the next section, we explore the performances of the L- and 127 N-tests applied to synthetic catalogs. The goal is to check, in a controlled experiment, if the 128 proportion of rejections of the "right" model is comparable to the significance level of the test. We 129 anticipate that possible departures may point to inconsistencies of the Poisson variability for each 130 bin assumed in the CSEP/RELM testing procedure.

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132 **3.** Application of the CSEP/RELM testing procedure to synthetic catalogs.

In order to evaluate quantitatively the performances of CSEP/RELM testing procedure, we use
these tests in a controlled experiment where we know exactly the model that generates earthquakes.
The experiment can be described in three steps:

We generate 100 synthetic catalogues that we call "pseudo-real catalogs". Specifically we
 simulate two sets of 100 pseudo-real catalogs: one is consistent with a stationary non-homogeneous
 Poisson process, and another that is consistent with the well-known Epidemic-Type Aftershocks
 Sequence (ETAS; e.g., Ogata 1998) model. The generation of the ETAS pseudo-real catalogs is
 described in Appendix A and mimics the 1992 Landers sequence.

141 2. We generate one-day forecasts for a period of 10 days after the mainshock using exactly the same 142 models and relative parameters that generate the pseudo-real catalogs. After each one-day forecast, 143 the history is updated to take into account all events that occurred before the starting time of the 144 next forecast. The forecasts are computed and evaluated in terms of expected number of events with 145 magnitude above M_1 3.0 in each cell C_i of a grid, with a spacing of 0.1°x0.1° and covering the target region [-117.5°W/33.25°N – -115.5°W/35.5°N]. Specifically for each cell C_i and for each time window T_i we compute the relative forecast rate λ_i^j by the formula

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$$\lambda_i^j = \int_{T_j} \iint_{C_i} \int_{M_c}^{M_{max}} \lambda(t, x, y, m/H_i) dt dx dy dm$$
(3)

149 where $\lambda(t,x,y|\mathcal{H})$ is the space-time conditional intensity defined by Poisson and ETAS models (see Appendix A), M_c and M_{max} are the minimum and maximum magnitude considered. The seismic 150 151 history H_t , i.e. the information coming from the events that occurred before the time t, is crucial for 152 time-dependent models, such as the ETAS model. On the other hand, the Poisson rate is independent of H_t and the time t. For the ETAS model we include in seismic history H_t the 153 154 parameters of earthquakes that occurred before the time window T_i . To take into account the 155 expected triggering effect of events that occurred during T_j , we simulate 1000 different stochastic 156 realizations of the model inside the time window T_i and then we calculate for each bin the mean and the variance of predictions λ_i^j coming from each of these synthetic realizations. 157

3. We compare each one-day forecast with each pseudo-real catalog for both classes of models (Poisson and ETAS). For each of 100 pseudo-real catalogs we apply the *N* and *L* tests in order to verify the agreement between observations and forecasts. In this case, the model is certainly right; therefore we expect to see a number of rejections by both tests comparable to the significance level used.

163 In Figure 1 we show the fraction of rejections of both L (one tail test) and N-tests (two tails test) on 100 ETAS pseudo-real catalogs at significance level 0.05, for daily and cumulative tests, and for 164 each time window T_{j} . The plots show that the proportions of rejections of N-test are above 30% (see 165 166 Figure 1a), much larger than the theoretical fraction (i.e., 5%). Similar results are found for the L-167 test (see Figure 1b), computed on whole region, for which the fraction of rejections is above 20%. 168 In order to verify the spatial distribution of *L*-test failures we show in Figure 2 the maps of quantile scores γ_{j}^{i} for each time window. The figure shows that the failures are mainly near Landers and Big 169 Bear locations, where the number of events is larger and the spatial clustering is more evident. 170

171 The same analyses on Poissonian catalogues show that the fractions of rejections for both tests are 172 in perfect agreement with the significance level (0.05) adopted (see Figure 3).

To explain one of the possible reasons for this discrepancy, we report in Figure 4, the ratio between 173 174 mean and variance of the number of events recorded into 1000 synthetic ETAS catalogues, 175 simulated following the same rules used for the 100 pseudo-real catalogs (see Appendix A). This 176 ratio is much smaller than the unity, the value that characterizes the Poisson distribution (see Figure 4). This proves that the variability of the number of events is much larger than that expected in the 177 178 case of a Poisson process. By performing a Chi-squared test, the Poisson distribution is rejected for 179 all time-windows at a significance level of 0.01, and this independent of how the data are regrouped 180 to compare expected and observed distributions.

181 To quantify the differences between the variability of the seismic rate due to Poisson and ETAS 182 distributions, we plot in Figure 5 the differences of their 95% confidence bounds. Specifically, for 183 each pseudo-real ETAS catalog and for each day, we compute the variability of the seismic rate $\Delta \alpha_{95\%}^{POISSON}$ expected by the Poisson distribution and assumed by CSEP tests; this value is compared 184 with the empirical variability $\Delta \alpha_{95\%}^{ETAS}$ of the ETAS distribution that has been calculated numerically 185 186 by the 1000 synthetic rates used for producing forecasts. Figure 5 shows the average of the differences $\Delta \alpha_{95\%}^{ETAS} - \Delta \alpha_{95\%}^{POISSON}$ calculated for 100 pseudo-real catalogs. The positive differences 187 188 mean that the variability for the ETAS model is much larger than the variability of the Poisson 189 distribution. Interestingly, this difference decreases with time, implying that this difference becomes 190 less serious when the seismic rate tends to decrease.

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192 **3. Discussion and conclusions.**

In this paper we show that part of the CSEP/RELM testing procedure does not perform correctly for a widely used class of models, i.e., the ETAS models. Specifically, by reproducing the CSEP experiment on "pseudo-real" ETAS catalogs – for which we know the right model – we find that

196 the rejections are much more than expected. We identify one main reason for this deficiency: the 197 assumption that the number of earthquakes per bin has a Poisson distribution does not hold for 198 ETAS models. The latter have a variability of occurrences much larger than what predicted by a 199 Poisson distribution. The underestimation of the variability made under the Poisson hypothesis 200 unavoidably leads to a high rejection frequency during the CSEP experiments, at least for the ETAS 201 class of models. It is worth noting that a higher variability compared to what assumed by the 202 Poisson hypothesis is also observed on real catalogs (e.g., Saichev and Sornette, 2007; Kagan, 2009 203 and references therein) possibly (but not necessarily) leading to a wide generalization of the 204 conclusions reported in this paper (see also Schorlemmer et al., 2010). These results may be 205 generalized in this way: forecasting models that produce a higher variability of the seismic rates 206 compared to the Poisson process may be rejected too often also when they represent an accurate 207 representation of the observed spatio-temporal evolution of the seismicity. On the other hand, we 208 also foresee that forecasting models producing a variability of the seismic rates smaller than that 209 expected in the case of a Poisson process may be not rejected often enough even in case they do not 210 represent an accurate representation of the seismicity. Figure 2 shows also another interesting 211 departure from the Poisson distribution. Rejected bins appear clustered in space. The Poisson 212 distribution assumes that the seismic variability per bin is conditioned only by the seismic rate of 213 the model. Actually, the observed rate in a bin is also conditioned by the seismicity occurred in the 214 adjacent bins during the forecasting time window; this component is neglected in the testing phase 215 and it may play an important role on the results of the L-test.

In this paper we have investigated a strongly clustered sequence (pseudo real catalogs mimicking an aftershock sequence) that is characterized by bins with a large number of events. In other cases, such as the one-day forecasts during a quiet period or the forecast of large events (M \ge 5.0) in a 5year time period, the expected number of events is probably much smaller. In these cases, the bias may be less serious as showed by Figure 1 (cf. the rejection rates for M3+ and M4+ events) and Figure 5, and also as expected by the theory of hypothesis testing (basically, the fewer the data, the more difficult is to reject an hypothesis).

Although these results indicate a bias of the current testing procedures of the CSEP experiments, we stress that these experiment remain of paramount importance and they are unavoidable if we wish to maintain earthquake forecasting in a scientific domain that requires formulation of hypothesis and testing. The lesson to be learned is that some of the CSEP/RELM testing procedures should be improved and/or implemented. Specifically, in order to get reliable results, we argue that the CSEP/RELM suite of tests needs a significant revision. We identify three possible strategies that could be implemented for current and future experiments:

230 1. Each forecasting model has to provide the likelihood function. This allows the likelihood tests to 231 be applied correctly because the Poisson assumption of the seismic rate variability is no longer 232 necessary, and other goodness-of-fit tests and skill measures may be applied, like the residuals 233 analysis (Ogata 1998; Marzocchi and Lombardi, 2009) and the Information Gain (e.g., Daley and 234 Vere-Jones, 2003). Notably, this approach would also avoid potential biases in the testing phase due 235 to the spatial correlation of the rejected bins (see figure 2). This is maybe the optimal choice from a 236 statistical point of view, but it is not applicable to models that do not have a likelihood function, 237 such as many pattern recognition algorithms.

238 2. The forecasts have to be described by a distribution of the expected number of earthquakes (see 239 also Werner and Sornette 2008), not by a single value as now. For example, the forecasts may be 240 composed by 1000 expected number of events, from which a central value and the dispersion can be 241 easily retrieved (see Marzocchi and Lombardi, 2009). This strategy is in principle applicable to 242 every model, but it would require a change in the CSEP procedures. In our mind, this option is 243 probably the easiest to implement for future experiments, but it is inapplicable to the present 244 forecasts that are composed just by one single expected number of earthquakes. Moreover, being 245 still based on binning forecasts, we remark that this strategy would not avoid possible biases 246 induced by the spatial correlation of the bins; a careful analysis of such potential bias is required.

247 3. The model-based variability of the number of earthquakes in each bin may be set by some 248 empirical rules that take into account the higher variability that characterize many models. This is 249 widely applicable for all models and all experiments so far completed or running, but certainly it 250 raises important technical problems. The first one is the introduction of a key parameter (i.e. the 251 dispersion) after the forecasts have been made. This would corrupt the prospective philosophy of 252 the experiments. Second, the choice of the empirical adjustment rule becomes critical for the evaluation process. Unavoidably, this choice would raise a lot of debate about what is the best 253 254 adjustment rule, and if different rules should be applied to different models. In any case, it may be 255 difficult to establish these rules objectively and independently from the modelers.

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Data and Resources

The Landers earthquake data were obtained from Southern California Earthquake Data Center, website (http://data.scec.org/research/altcatalogs.html). The maps were made using the Generic Mapping Tools (<u>www.soest.hawaii.edu/gmt</u>). The MATLAB GNU codes used in the present work to run the N and L tests have been provided by the Southern California Earthquake Center CSEP software development team.

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323	Figure	Captions
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325	Figure 1: Fractions	of rejections	of the daily L and N-te	est on 100 pseudo-real E	TAS catalogs.
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- 326 Figure 2: Spatial distribution of fractions of rejections on 100 pseudo-real ETAS catalogs for *L*-test
- 327 conducted on 10 time windows.
- **Figure 3:** The same of Figure 1 but for pseudo-real Poisson catalogs.
- **Figure 4:** Ratio between mean and variance of events recorded in 1000 ETAS pseudo-real catalogs
- 330 for 10 time windows.
- **Figure 5:** Difference between the 95% confidence intervals of the ETAS and Poisson distributions
- as a function of the forecasting time window; each point represents the average of the differences
- 333 calculated for the 100 ETAS pseudo-real catalogs used for *L* and *N*-tests.

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349 APPENDIX A. Generating the pseudo-real synthetic catalogs

350 In this appendix, we report the strategy adopted to generate ETAS and Poissonian pseudo-real 351 catalogs.

The total space-time conditional intensity $\lambda(t,x,y/\mathcal{H}_t)$ of the ETAS model (i.e. the probability of an earthquake occurring in the infinitesimal space-time volume conditioned to all past history) is defined by equation:

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$$\lambda(t, x, y, m/\mathcal{H}_t) = \left[vu(x, y) + \sum_{t_i < t} \frac{K}{(t - t_i + c)^p} e^{\alpha(M_i - M_c)} \frac{c_{d, q, \gamma}^i}{\left[r_i^2 + \left(de^{\gamma(M_i - M_c)} \right)^2 \right]^q} \right] \beta e^{\beta(m - M_c)}$$
(A1)

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where $\mathcal{H}_{t} = \{(t_{b}x_{b}y_{b}M_{i}); t_{i} < t\}$ is the observation history up time *t*, M_{c} is the completeness magnitude of the catalog, u(x,y) is the spatial probability density function (PDF) of background events, $c_{d,q,\gamma}^{i} = \frac{q-1}{\pi} \left[(de^{\gamma(M_{i}-M_{c})})^{2} \right]^{q-1}$ is the normalization constant of the spatial PDF for triggered events, and r_{i} is the distance between location (x,y) and the epicenter of *i*-th event (x_{i},y_{i}) (Lombardi et al., 2009). Finally $\beta = b \cdot ln(10)$ is the parameter of the well-known Gutenberg-Richer Law (Gutenberg and Richter, 1954), assumed as distribution for magnitude of all events.

The set of parameters $\Theta = (v, K, c, p, \alpha, d, q, \gamma, \beta)$ of the model, for the events occurred within a time interval $[T_1, T_2]$ and a region *R*, can be estimated by maximizing the log-likelihood function (Daley and Vere-Jones, 2003), given by

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$$logL(\Theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} log \lambda(t_i, x_i, y_i, m_i / H_{t_i}) - \int_{T_1}^{T_2} \int_{R} \int_{M_c}^{M_{max}} \lambda(t, x, y, m / H_t) dt dx dy dm$$
(A2)

368 A careful method to obtain the best parameters of the model is the iteration algorithm developed by 369 Zhuang et al. (2002), providing also an estimation of the PDF u(x,y) for background events.

370 Our pseudo-real ETAS catalogs are simulated in agreement with the ETAS model estimated for the 371 region hit by the Landers earthquake. Specifically we use the relocated data set (Hauksson and 372 Shearer, 2005) recorded by the California Institute of Technology/U.S. Geological Survey (CIT / 373 USGS) Southern California Seismic Network and available at the SCEDC (Southern California 374 Earthquake Data Center) website (http://data.scec.org/research/altcatalogs.html). We consider 375 earthquakes with a depth less than 30 km and a magnitude above 3.0, occurred from Jan 1 1984 to Dec 31 2004 and located in the region [-119.0°W/32.5°N - -115.0°W/36.5°N] (5757 events). The 376 377 parameters estimated by using the procedure proposed by Zhuang et al. (2002) are listed in Table A1. We perform simulations by including in the past history the real observed seismicity above magnitude 3.0, occurred before July 1 1992, 3 days after the $M_L7.3$ Landers mainshock. In this way we take into account knowledge coming from the initial phase of the sequence, including also the $M_L6.4$ Big Bear aftershock.

We simulate the Poisson pseudo-real catalogs by imposing a rate of 60 day⁻¹ and adopting the PDF u(x,y), estimated for the ETAS model, for the spatial distribution of events. All pseudo-real catalogs recover a time period of 10 days. We remark that we intend to perform simulations by reproducing the type of forecasts usually tested in CSEP laboratories, no matter the specific region or time period we consider.

In order to verify the reliability of our pseudo-real catalogs, we analyze their residuals. The residual analysis is a common diagnostic technique for stochastic point processes based on transformation of the time axis *t* into a new scale τ by the increasing function

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$$\tau = \Lambda(t) = \int_{T_{start}}^{t} dt \int_{R} dx dy \int_{M_{c}}^{M_{max}} dm \,\lambda(t, x, y, m/\mathcal{H}_{t}) \tag{A3}$$

391 where T_{start} is the starting time of the observation history H_t (Ogata, 1998). The random variable τ represents the expected number of occurrences in time period $[T_{starb}, t]$. If a model with conditional 392 393 intensity $\lambda(t,x,y,m/\mathcal{H}_i)$ describes the temporal evolution of the process, the transformed data τ_i 394 $=\Lambda(t_i)$, known in statistical seismology with the name of *residuals*, are expected to behave like a stationary Poisson process with the unit rate (Ogata, 1998); i.e. the values $\Delta \tau_i = \tau_{i+1} - \tau_i$ are 395 396 independent and exponentially distributed (with mean equal to 1) random variables. We check this 397 hypothesis for residuals by means of two nonparametric tests: the Runs test, to verify the reliability 398 of the independence property, and the one-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS1) test, to check the 399 standard exponential distribution (Gibbons and Chakraborti, 2003; Lombardi and Marzocchi, 2007). 400 Specifically the Runs-test can be used to test if a process is not auto-correlated and consists in 401 testing the randomness of runs, i.e. of uninterrupted subsequences of values above or below the 402 mean (see Gibbons and Chakraborti, 2003; Lombardi and Marzocchi, 2007 for details). We use 403 both tests because all goodness-of-fit tests (as KS1) are ineffective to check the presence of a 404 memory in the time series. Hence, any discrepancy of residuals by Poisson hypothesis, identified by 405 just one or both tests, is a sign of inadequacy of ETAS model to explain all basic features of 406 analyzed seismicity. We stress that this check analysis is similar to the RELM/CSEP N-test. As the 407 *N*-test, it consists in a comparison between the observed and the expected total number of events 408 and it is directed to highlight under or over-prediction. On the other side the residual analysis does 409 not need the discretization of the temporal scale in time bins. As explained along the text, this is a 410 crucial point of RELM/CSEP tests. In Figure A1 we show the empirical cumulative function of p-

- 411 values of KS1 and Runs tests, for the 100 pseudo-real ETAS catalogs, together with the 99% 412 confidence bounds. The confidence level is calculated assuming that for each point of the curve the 413 expected fraction of rejection is given by the p-value reported on the x-axis, and the variability (1 414 sigma) is given by $\sqrt{p(1-p)/N}$. Note that, for both tests the cumulative distribution is inside the 415 99% confidence interval.
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438	Figure Captions
439	Figure A1: Cumulative function of the empirical p-values (solid black lines) for KS1 (panel a) and
440	RUNS (panel b) Test applied to Residuals of 100 simulated ETAS catalogues. Dashed gray lines
441	mark the 99% confidence bounds.
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value
$0.10 \pm 0.004 \; (day^{-1})$
$0.043 \pm 0.002 \; (day^{p-1})$
1.20 ± 0.01
0.030 ± 0.004 (day)
$1.20 \pm 0.03 \;(\text{mag}^{-1})$
0.30 ± 0.01 (km)
≡ 1.5
$0.60 \pm 0.03 \;(\text{mag}^{-1})$
-21277.5

- 473 TableA1: Maximum Likelihood parameters (with relative errors) and log-likelihood of ETAS
- 474 model for Landers region seismicity $[-119.0^{\circ} \text{ W}/32.5^{\circ} \text{ N} -115.0^{\circ} \text{ W}/36.5^{\circ} \text{ N}]$
- $475 \qquad (M_c = 3.0; \text{ Jan 1 1984} \text{Dec 31 2004}; 5757 \text{ events})$

- T/)



Figure 1



Figure 2



Figure 3









Figure A1