

1 **Detection of Temporal Change in Near-Source Attenuation Affected by Fluid Migration in**
2 **the Source Region of Intense Earthquake Swarm in the Yamagata-Fukushima Border, NE**
3 **Japan**

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7 **Abbreviated Title: Temporal change in near-source attenuation**

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1 **Summary**

2 The behaviour of fluids in the crust is key to understanding earthquake occurrence due to the
3 effect of fluid behaviour on fault strength. The attenuation of seismic waves may be locally high
4 in fault zones as fluids are intensely distributed in these zones. This study uses a novel, simple
5 approach to examine near-source attenuation in the focal region of intense swarm activity in the
6 Yamagata-Fukushima border region, Japan. Near-source attenuation was estimated by
7 determining the decay of amplitude ratios of nearby earthquake pairs with travel time differences
8 precisely quantified using a waveform correlation. In the initial ~50 d, Q^{-1} was high, then it
9 significantly decreased to become almost constant for the subsequent period. This pattern is
10 similar to those independently observed for background seismicity rate, b-value, stress drop, and
11 fault strength. These patterns can be attributed to the hypothesis that the swarm was triggered by
12 fluid movement following the 2011 Tohoku-Oki earthquake, and the source and seismicity
13 characteristics and the seismic attenuation were altogether affected by the temporal change in
14 pore pressure. The method demonstrated in this study may be a useful tool to detect high pore
15 pressure anomaly at depth and understand its relationship with earthquake occurrence.

16 **Keywords:** Seismic attenuation; Seismicity and tectonics; Earthquake source observations;
17 Rheology and friction of fault zones; Elasticity and anelasticity

18

19 **1 Introduction**

20 The occurrence of earthquakes may be heavily influenced by increases in pore pressure as
21 it decreases fault strength (Hasegawa et al., 2005; Hubbert & Rubey, 1959; Nur & Booker, 1972;
22 Sibson, 1992). It is possible that the seismogenic zone has a larger amount of fluids than the
23 surrounding crust (Mindaleva et al., 2020); as such, it is crucial to develop a means of
24 monitoring the behaviour of fluid at depth to understand the mechanisms influencing earthquake
25 occurrence.

26 The attenuation of seismic waves may be locally high in fault zones as fluids are intensely
27 distributed in these zones (Winkler & Nur, 1982). The spatiotemporal variation of the seismic
28 attenuation structure provides insight into the states of crust including the presence of fluids and
29 fault damage (Hauksson & Shearer, 2006; Matsumoto et al., 2009; Nakajima & Matsuzawa,
30 2017). Previous studies have investigated the attenuation structure at the regional scale in many
31 global locations, as summarised by Sato et al. (2012). However, few studies (Matsumoto et al.,
32 2009; Wcislo et al., 2018; Kriegerowski et al., 2019) have attempted to directly estimate the
33 attenuation structure near the earthquake source (hereafter referred as “near-source attenuation”).
34 Near-source attenuation provides important information on the role of fluid in earthquake
35 occurrence, and understanding near-source attenuation is also critical to accurately interpreting
36 the source, path, and site-effects of seismic waveform data.

37 Few studies have attempted to estimate near-source attenuation using seismic waveforms
38 of multiple, nearby earthquakes. Matsumoto et al. (2009) proposed a method to directly estimate
39 the attenuation structure in a seismically active region based on multiple spectral ratios of two
40 earthquakes. They used coda waves to remove the source-effects, computed spectral ratios at
41 many different stations, and estimated the spatial variation of attenuation structure in the

42 aftershock area of the 2005 M7.0 West Off Fukuoka Prefecture earthquake. They did not assume
43 a specific frequency dependence of seismic attenuation or apparent source spectra. Kriegerowski
44 et al. (2019) developed another method based on the spectral ratios of two earthquakes assuming
45 that the attenuation structure was constant over the analysed frequency range and the source
46 spectra completely followed the ω^2 -model (Aki, 1967) at each station. Similarly, Wcisło et al.
47 (2018) used differences in the peak frequency of event-pairs to estimate near-source attenuation
48 for swarm activity in West Bohemia, in the Czech Republic. They also assumed that the
49 attenuation factor was constant over frequency. Unlike Matsumoto et al. (2009), the methods
50 used in Kriegerowski et al. (2019) and Wcisło et al. (2018) may provide an estimate of the
51 attenuation structure, even from a single seismic station due to these additional assumptions.
52 However, many of the results from Kriegerowski et al. (2019) possess unphysical negative
53 values for the attenuation factor, which may be attributed to the errors of these assumptions.
54 Previous studies have shown that the attenuation factor decreases with frequency greater than ~ 1
55 Hz, as summarised by Sato et al. (2012). This study develops a simple method with fewer
56 assumptions than previous research, to estimate near-source attenuation.

57 This study adopted a straightforward means of directly estimating near-source attenuation
58 by determining the decay of amplitude ratios for two nearby earthquakes with travel time
59 differences (Fig. 1). Typically, this analysis is not easy as it requires precise measurements of the
60 arrival time difference and amplitude ratio from various seismic stations. To address this issues,
61 this study uses the waveform correlation technique (Poupinet et al., 1984) to accurately quantify
62 the differential arrival time and amplitude ratio.

63

64 This method was applied to the intense swarm activity in the crust of the Yamagata-
65 Fukushima border region, Japan (Fig. 2a). Many earthquakes with similar focal mechanisms
66 occurred within a small area of this source region (Yoshida et al., 2016, 2019a and 2019b;
67 Yoshida & Hasegawa, 2018). They are characterised by WNW–ESE compressional reverse
68 faulting, typical in NE Japan, especially before the 2011 Tohoku-Oki earthquake (Yoshida et al.,
69 2012). Waveform similarities in the source region provides precise differential arrival time and
70 amplitude ratio data using waveform cross-correlation (Yoshida & Hasegawa, 2018). The focal
71 area is surrounded by the Japanese national dense seismic network, enabling the determination of
72 near-source attenuation in the region.

73 Previous studies have suggested that the Yamagata-Fukushima border swarm was
74 triggered by fluid movement, following the 2011 Tohoku-Oki earthquake (Terakawa et al., 2013;
75 Yoshida et al., 2016, 2019a). Following a six day delay, the swarm activity began despite a
76 reduction in shear stress after the 2011 Tohoku-Oki earthquake. Hypocentres illustrate distinct
77 migration behaviour, similar to fluid-injection-induced seismicity (Shapiro et al., 1997), from
78 deeper to shallow levels along several planar structures (Yoshida & Hasegawa, 2018). Previous
79 studies have reported on temporal variations in hypocentres (Okada et al., 2015; Yoshida &
80 Hasegawa, 2018), fault strength (Yoshida et al., 2016), stress drop (Yoshida et al., 2017, 2019b),
81 b-values (Yoshida et al., 2017), and background seismicity rate (Yoshida & Hasegawa, 2018) in
82 the source region of the swarm (Figs. 2b). These variations have been considered the outcomes
83 of temporal changes in pore pressure. As such, it is of great interest to compare temporal changes
84 in near-source attenuation with these source and seismicity parameters.

85

86 2 Theory, data, method and synthetic Test

87 2.1 Theory

88 The amplitude attenuation due to anelastic attenuation may be described by the seismic
89 quality factor, $Q = -\frac{2\pi E}{\Delta E}$, where E is the energy of a seismic wave and ΔE is the energy lost
90 during one cycle. In seismology, amplitude attenuation over elapsed time is related to Q^{-1} by
91 the following approximation ($Q \gg 1$):

$$92 \ln(r^\gamma A(f)) = -\pi f Q^{-1}(f)t + C(f) \quad (1)$$

93 where f is frequency; $A(f)$ is the spectral amplitude; r is the distance from the source; γ is the
94 exponent of the geometric spreading factor depending on the ray-path; t is the elapsed time; and
95 $C(f)$ includes the source and site-effects on amplitude. Here, Q^{-1} is the combination of
96 amplitude attenuations due to intrinsic absorption and scattering losses. In many regions of the
97 world, the Q^{-1} above ~ 1 Hz ranges from 10^{-4} to 10^{-1} , and decreases with frequency (Sato et al.,
98 2012).

99 This study uses the relationship between the amplitude ratios A_{1i}/A_{2i} and the relative
100 travel times, $\delta t_i = t_{1i} - t_{2i}$, from two nearby (~ 1 km) earthquakes to estimate near-source
101 attenuation (Fig. 1a). Here, A_{1i} and A_{2i} are the amplitudes, and t_{1i} and t_{2i} are the travel times for
102 the two events (event-1 and event-2, respectively) at the i^{th} station. Assuming the same site and
103 propagation effects along the shared pathway of the two nearby earthquakes:

$$104 \ln \frac{A_{1i}(f)}{A_{2i}(f)} = -\pi f Q^{-1}(f) \delta t_i + \delta C_i(f) \quad (2)$$

105 here, $\delta C_i(f) = C_1(f) - C_2(f)$, where $C_1(f)$ and $C_2(f)$ correspond to $C(f)$ in Eq. (1) for event-1
106 and event-2 at the i^{th} station, respectively; and $\delta C_i(f)$ is the amplitude difference of source-
107 effects of two earthquakes. The geometrical spreading effect was dismissed as the distance

108 between the two earthquakes was much smaller (~ 1 km) than the distance between the
109 earthquakes and the stations (>30 km).

110 To avoid the effects of the earthquake source process in Eq. (2), this study only uses data
111 that satisfies two conditions; (1) the analysed frequency range needed to be sufficiently lower
112 than the source corner frequencies, and (2) the focal mechanisms of the two earthquakes should
113 be similar. As such, $\delta C_i(f)$ in Eq. (2) may be assumed as constant among stations, and $Q^{-1}(f)$
114 near the source can be estimated by precisely measuring the amplitude ratios ($A_{1i}(f)/A_{2i}(f)$)
115 and the travel time differences (δt_i), at various stations. Note that even a frequency range higher
116 than the corner frequency may be available if spectral falloffs were the same between two events
117 (such as the ω -square model), and the corner frequencies were the same among different seismic
118 stations for the earthquake pair. As such an assumption does not hold even for a simple physical
119 source model (Kaneko & Shearer, 2014), this study only used a frequency range less than the
120 source corner frequency.

121 The amplitude ratio of nearby earthquake pairs were used to remove the site response and
122 propagation effects outside the near-source region (Fig. 1a). This was undertaken using a method
123 similar to that of Lin & Shearer (2007), where near-source V_p/V_s was estimated using the ratios
124 of differential arrival times for P and S-waves. Although Lin & Shearer's (2007) method
125 assumes that the P and S-wave ray paths are the same, the method used to determine Q^{-1} in this
126 study does not need the utility of this assumption. The method demonstrated in this study is also
127 similar to that proposed by Matsumoto et al. (2009) to estimate Q^{-1} in the fault zone. A primary
128 difference between these methods is that Matsumoto et al. (2009) incorporated the coda
129 normalisation method (Aki, 1980) to eliminate source-effects in high frequency (>10 Hz). In
130 contrast, the method used in this study focuses on near-source attenuation by only using nearby

131 (~1 km) earthquakes and the lower frequency range as opposed to source corner frequency. As
132 such, the method does not need to model or cancel out source effects, making it much simpler
133 and robust for modelling errors. Moreover, the accuracy of differential arrival time and
134 amplitude ratio is substantially improved through the use of waveform cross-correlation.

135

136 **2.2 Data and method**

137 Seismic waveform data was used to estimate the attenuation structure near earthquake
138 sources. Fig. 2(a) presents the distribution of earthquake hypocentres and seismic stations. The
139 seismic network was comprised of seismic stations from Tohoku University, the Japan
140 Meteorological Agency (JMA), and the National Research Institute for Earth Science and
141 Disaster Resilience (NIED) Hi-net (NIED, 2019a) and V-net (NIED, 2019b). There were 2347
142 M2–3 earthquakes obtained from JMA’s unified catalogue
143 (https://www.data.jma.go.jp/svd/eqev/data/bulletin/hypo_e.html) between March 11, 2011 to
144 December 31, 2016.

145 Only earthquake pairs with cross-correlation coefficients >0.8 for both P and S-waves
146 were used from at least eight different stations for a frequency range from 2 to 5 Hz (49 852
147 pairs). The time-window length was set to 2.0 s; this is sufficiently shorter than the S-P time of
148 waveform data, with the time-window beginning 0.3 s before the arrival times. Arrival times
149 were either derived from the JMA unified catalogue or theoretically estimated based on the
150 origin time and the hypocentre listed in the catalogue using the one-dimensional (1D) velocity
151 structure model, JMA2001 (Ueno et al., 2002). A vertical component was used to estimate the
152 Q^{-1} of the P-wave, while the transverse and radial components were used to estimate the Q^{-1} of
153 the S-wave. The corner frequency of the P-wave may be presumed to be higher than that of the

154 S-wave (Hanks, 1981). Based on the fourth-order Butterworth filter, the frequency range was set
 155 to 2–4 Hz; sufficiently lower than source corner frequencies of the M2–3 earthquake S-waves
 156 (Yoshida et al., 2017), and thus P-waves. The central frequency (3 Hz) was used as f in Eq. (2),
 157 and the results from other frequency ranges were compared to the main result in Section 4.3.

158 To accurately quantify differential arrival times and accommodate for a narrow frequency
 159 range, amplitude ratios were measured in the time-domain using the principal component fit of
 160 aligned waveforms each time (Shelly et al., 2016), based on waveform cross-correlation. Data
 161 with low cross-correlation coefficients ($cc < 0.8$) were discarded. Fig. 1(b) shows an example of
 162 comparing amplitude ratios, $A_{1i}(f)/A_{2i}(f)$, with the travel time differences, δt_i , for an
 163 earthquake pair, and Fig. 3 presents the waveforms used to compute $A_{1i}(f)/A_{2i}(f)$ and δt_i in
 164 Fig. 1(b). The decreasing pattern in $A_{1i}(f)/A_{2i}(f)$ with δt_i is clearly visible in Fig. 1(b), and
 165 other examples are shown in Fig S1.

166 To determine Q^{-1} of each earthquake pair, the mean of $\ln \frac{A_{1i}}{A_{2i}}$ and δt_i were subtracted from
 167 individual values and the best value of slope a was identified by fitting the linear equation
 168 $\ln \frac{A_1}{A_2} = a\delta t$. Here, the intercept was assumed as zero because of the subtraction of the mean
 169 values. Although the least squares method is available for this fitting, minimising the L1 norm
 170 residuals is more robust to outliers than minimising L2 norm residuals. In this study, a grid-
 171 search was used to determine the optimum a by changing the slope 1° in all possible ranges
 172 through the minimisation of the sum of L1-norm residuals of $\ln \frac{A_1}{A_2}$. Then, Q^{-1} was determined as
 173 $-a/\pi f$. To quantify the estimation error, 1000 estimations were produced based on bootstrap re-
 174 sampling of data (combinations of $\ln \frac{A_{1i}}{A_{2i}}$ and δt_i) for each earthquake pair; this provided the
 175 95 % uncertainty range in the slope ($\Delta\theta$). The Q^{-1} was quantified for an earthquake pair only

176 when the used number of data was greater than eight for P-waves and 15 for S-waves. The mean
177 residual of $\ln \frac{A_{1i}}{A_{2i}}$ (Fig. S2) was found to correlate well with $\Delta\theta$. Finally, any results that satisfied
178 any two conditions were discarded; (1) $\Delta\theta$ was large ($> 30^\circ$ in the 95% confidence interval), or
179 (2) the difference between the maximum and minimum δt was less than 0.4 s. This produced
180 2253 of 9407 results for P-wave and 3583 of 13457 results for S-waves.

181 Fig. 4(a)–(d) illustrates the frequency distributions of distances and time intervals of
182 earthquake pairs with the near-source attenuation determined. The locations of hypocentres were
183 taken from Yoshida & Hasegawa (2018). The median distance is 1.1 km, and the distances of
184 most of earthquake pairs was closer than 2 km. The 95 % uncertainty range in the hypocentre
185 locations was evaluated by recalculating the hypocentres 1000 times using the bootstrap
186 resampling of differential arrival time data (Yoshida et al., 2020) and the same data and
187 procedure as Yoshida & Hasegawa (2018). The median of the 95% confidence limits of the
188 hypocentre locations was 0.018 and 0.027 km in the longitudinal and vertical directions,
189 respectively (Fig. S3); these are much smaller than the distances of the event-pairs. Note that the
190 method in this study does not use hypocentre information to estimate Q^{-1} itself, and as such, is
191 unaffected by errors in the hypocentre determination.

192 Analysed earthquake pairs need to have similar focal mechanisms. Figs. 3(e) and (f) show
193 the frequency distributions of the three-dimensional (3D) rotation angle of the focal mechanisms
194 (Kagan, 1991) of earthquake pairs. The focal mechanism data was from Yoshida et al. (2019b),
195 where estimation errors were $< 30^\circ$ in the 90 % confidence regions. The median of the 3D
196 rotations angles were 17.4° and 15.7° for the P and S-waves, respectively.

197

198 **2.3. Evaluation of unmodelled effects**

199 The method used in this study did not consider the effects of differences in geometrical
200 spreading and radiation pattern for earthquake pairs as these pairs are closely located and have
201 similar focal mechanisms. However, slight differences in the effects of geometrical spreading
202 and radiation pattern may impact upon the amplitude ratios and produce an apparent variation of
203 near-source attenuation. These two effects were evaluated using hypocentre location and focal
204 mechanism data from previous studies (Yoshida & Hasegawa, 2018; Yoshida et al., 2019b).

205 First, the synthetic amplitude ratio was computed from geometrical spreading and
206 radiation pattern differences at each station for each event-pair by assuming that near-source
207 attenuation was zero. Then, the same procedure described in Section 2.2 was applied to obtain
208 the apparent values of near-source attenuation. As the synthetic amplitude ratio data is free from
209 the effects of near-source attenuation, ideally the estimated Q^{-1} should be almost zero. However,
210 differences in the radiation pattern and the geometrical spreading may potentially affect the
211 apparent temporal variation. Yoshida et al. (2016) suggested that the focal mechanism diversity
212 changes with time during swarm activity. The results from the synthetic data was compared to
213 the results from real data in Section 3.

214 To estimate the effect of the geometrical spreading difference, Eq. (1) was used to produce
215 the synthetic amplitude ratio data. This data was computed as $\frac{A_{1i}}{A_{2i}} = \frac{r_{2i}^\gamma}{r_{1i}^\gamma}$ for the same station
216 combinations used to estimate near-source attenuation for each earthquake pair. Here, r_{1i} and r_{2i}
217 is the distance from source-1 and source-2 to station- i, respectively. The hypocentre locations
218 from Yoshida & Hasegawa (2018) were used, they relocated hypocentres precisely using the
219 waveform correlation and the 1D velocity structure by Hasegawa et al. (1978) to estimate r_{1i} and
220 r_{2i} . An assumption that $\gamma = 1$ was adopted as direct waves were used for the analysis. To
221 estimate the effect of the radiation pattern difference, moment tensors of earthquake pairs from

222 Yoshida et al. (2019b) were used with the equation from Dahm (1996) to compute amplitude
223 ratio at each station.

224

225 **3 Results**

226 Figs. 5(a) and (b) present the frequency distributions for the Q^{-1} -values obtained for P and
227 S-waves, respectively. At times, negative values were estimated when amplitude decay was
228 unclear, although in most cases the values are positive (positive for 1951 of 2253 results for P-
229 waves and 2259 of 3583 for S-waves). As the individual estimates are scattered, hereafter the
230 characteristics of Q^{-1} -values were only statistically examined without discarding the negative
231 values. Based on the 2000 bootstrap re-samplings of a simulated dataset of Q^{-1} values, the
232 median P-wave was 0.050 with a 95 % uncertainty range between 0.046–0.051, and the median
233 S-wave was 0.008 with a 95 % uncertainty range between 0.007–0.009.

234 Figs. 5, S1 and S2 present the results of applying the same method to the synthetic data.
235 Figs. S4 and S5 are based on the synthetic data produced by separately considering the effects of
236 differences in geometrical spreading and radiation patterns, respectively. Fig. 6 is based on the
237 synthetic data considering both effects, and indicates that estimates of near-source attenuation
238 are slightly positively biased (~ 0.02 for P-wave and ~ 0.006 for S-wave) because of these two
239 effects. Ideally, the computed Q^{-1} from the synthetic data should be almost zero. Whilst the
240 effects of geometrical spreading differences were found to be small, it systematically increases
241 the estimate of Q^{-1} -values (Fig. S4). The effects of the radiation pattern appear more random;
242 however, they can have a more prominent impact on the estimates (Fig. S5). The median Q^{-1}
243 estimated from real data, was significantly higher than the estimates from the synthetic data. This

244 indicates that the method demonstrated in this study successfully retrieved information on actual
245 near-source attenuation.

246 The Q^{-1} values were significantly different between an initial and later period of swarm
247 activity for the P and S-waves. The median Q^{-1} for the P-wave in the initial ~50 days was 0.085
248 (with a 95 % confidence interval between 0.079–0.092), while the median in the later period
249 (>50 days) was 0.044 (95 % uncertainty between 0.043–0.048). The median Q^{-1} for the S-wave
250 was 0.025 (95 % uncertainty between 0.021–0.027) in the initial ~50 days, while the median was
251 0.005 (95 % uncertainty between 0.004–0.006) in the later period (>50 days). Thus, attenuation
252 tends to be high in the initial swarm period than the later period. This tendency was not observed
253 for the synthetic results (Figs. 6(a) and (b)), suggesting that this tendency was not produced by
254 differences in geometrical spreading or radiation pattern, rather a reflection of the actual
255 attenuation structure. The median Q^{-1} for the S-wave in the later period was almost the same as
256 those of synthetic results, free from near-source attenuation. This indicates that near-source
257 attenuation of the S-wave in the later period was too small to be detected by the method used in
258 this study, despite detection of the high Q^{-1} value in the initial period.

259 To visualise the temporal variation of Q^{-1} in further detail, the median Q^{-1} at even 5 day
260 intervals from the initiation of swarm activity was determined. It was assumed that the obtained
261 Q^{-1} value essentially represents an average between the occurrence timings of two earthquakes.
262 The Q^{-1} values were allocated to all temporal points between the timing of the two earthquakes.
263 The median was obtained at each point when the number of individual estimates was greater than
264 or equal to 10. The 95 % uncertainty range was computed using the 2000 bootstrap re-samplings
265 of a simulated dataset of Q^{-1} values at each temporal point. Figs. 5(c) and (d) show the temporal
266 variations of Q^{-1} for P and S-waves, respectively. Whilst individual values vary over a wide

267 range, their median values exhibit a characteristic temporal variation; they were high in the
268 initial period (<50 days) and decreased, becoming almost constant in the later period for both P
269 and S-waves.

270 Figs. 6(c) and (d) present the temporal variations of Q^{-1} for P and S-waves computed from
271 the synthetic data, respectively. The temporal variations of synthetic results were mainly a result
272 of the differences in the radiation pattern (Figs. S5(c) and (d)), rather than the geometrical
273 spreading (Figs. S4(c) and (d)). Although the median appears to have some temporal variations,
274 the amplitudes are smaller than those obtained for real data. The difference between the results
275 from the real and synthetic data indicates that the temporal variations of Q^{-1} for the former are a
276 result of an actual variation of Q^{-1} .

277 The temporal pattern of Q^{-1} appears to be correlated with those of source and seismicity
278 parameters, including fault strength, background seismicity rate, stress drop, and b-value (Figs.
279 2(b)–(e)), which were independently estimated. Fault strength (shear stress magnitude with the
280 occurrence of slip) and stress drop were low during the initial period (~50 days after the
281 earthquake), then increased to be almost constant in the later period (Figs. 2(b) and (d)).
282 Seismicity rate and b-value were high in the initial period, and then decreased to be almost
283 constant in the later period (Figs. 2(c) and (e)). Their values were abnormal during the initial
284 period (<50 days), and changed to almost constant, typical values; this tendency is similar to
285 temporal changes in Q^{-1} values from this study.

286 All of these parameters are related to the presence of fluids; fault strength is proportional
287 to effective normal stress and has an inverse relationship with pore pressure. The background
288 seismicity rate may be presumed to reflect external forces, which may include an increase in pore
289 pressure (Hainzl & Ogata, 2005; Roland & McGuire, 2009; Llenos et al., 2009; Llenos &

290 Michael, 2013). Stress drops and b-values have also been reported to have an inverse and a direct
291 relationship with pore pressure, respectively (Wyss, 1973; Bachmann et al., 2011, 2012;
292 Allmann and Shearer, 2007; Chen and Shearer, 2011; Goertz-Allmann et al., 2011). These
293 synchronised temporal variations suggest that pore pressure was high during the initial swarm
294 stage and decreased over time, with the temporal evolution affecting the source and seismicity
295 characteristics of the swarm. Moreover, Q^{-1} , in the intrinsic and the scattering attenuations, is
296 expected to increase with the presence of fluids (Winkler & Nur, 1982). By assuming that the
297 temporal variation in Q^{-1} reflects the change in intrinsic Q^{-1} , the observed temporal change may
298 also be attributed to the pore pressure change together with temporal changes in other source and
299 seismicity parameters.

300 It was estimated that the swarm activity was triggered by a pore pressure increase after the
301 2011 Tohoku-Oki earthquake (Terakawa et al., 2013; Yoshida et al., 2016). The E–W
302 extensional stress and the dynamic shaking caused from the Tohoku-Oki earthquake, facilitated
303 the ascent of fluids immediately below the source area of the swarm, generating considerable
304 pore pressure increase in the source area during the initial stage. The fluid diffusion indicated by
305 the hypocentre migration in swarm activity caused pore pressure to decrease over time. The
306 temporal pattern of Q^{-1} , together with the patterns in the fault strength, stress drop, background
307 seismicity rate, and b-value, are consistent with this hypothesis.

308 The Q^{-1} values of the P-wave tended to be higher than those of the S-waves; these results
309 are similar to those obtained for frequencies higher than 1 Hz in various regions of the world
310 (Sato et al., 2012). This relationship is contrary to what was expected, based on theoretical
311 considerations in a simple model of intrinsic absorption (Knopoff, 1971). This relationship may

312 be explained by including the contribution of crustal pore fluids to the attenuation of seismic
313 waves as suggested by Hauksson & Shearer (2006), or the effects of scattering attenuation.

314 The method used in this study successfully detected a high attenuation anomaly in the
315 initial period of the swarm, predicted by the fluid-diffusion model proposed in previous studies
316 (Yoshida et al., 2016, 2017, 2019b; Yoshida & Hasegawa, 2018). Monitoring Q^{-1} at
317 seismogenic depths would help in understanding the states of potential seismogenic zones and
318 the occurrence mechanism for earthquakes.

319

320 **4 Discussion**

321 **4.1 Spatial distribution of near-source attenuation**

322 This study obtained the temporal variation for Q^{-1} values in the source region of the
323 Yamagata-Fukushima border swarm. However, as the location of swarm activity change with
324 time (Okada et al., 2015; Yoshida & Hasegawa, 2018), it is possible that the temporal change
325 may be an artefact due to the spatial change in Q^{-1} .

326 To quantify the spatial variation of Q^{-1} , the mean of Q^{-1} at evenly spaced $200 \times 200 \times 200$
327 points were computed to divide the entire region in latitude ($37.63\text{--}37.85^\circ$), longitude
328 ($139.885\text{--}140.045^\circ$), and depth (4.0–14.0 km). The obtained Q^{-1} value was assumed to
329 essentially represent an average value within the sphere where the diameter is the distance of the
330 two earthquakes and the centre is the mean location (Fig. 1(a)). Relocated hypocentres by
331 Yoshida & Hasegawa (2018) were used for the locations of earthquake pairs, and Q^{-1} values
332 were allocated to all points within the sphere. The mean values were quantified at the point only

333 when the number of individual estimates was greater than or equal to 5; at this point, the spatial
334 variation of Q^{-1} for the P-wave was determined.

335 The quantified spatial variation of Q^{-1} for the P-wave is shown in Figs. 7(a)–(d) at depths
336 of 7.2, 7.8, 8.4 and 9.0 km in map views and Fig. 8 in cross-sectional views. They have a lateral
337 variation; Q^{-1} tends to be high in the central part of the focal region and lower in the
338 surrounding area. Hypocentre locations in the initial stage are highlighted in red in Figs. 7(e)–(f),
339 appearing to correspond to locations with a high Q^{-1} . Previous studies reported synchronised
340 temporal variations in fault strength (Yoshida et al., 2016), stress drops (Yoshida et al., 2017,
341 2019b), b-value (Yoshida et al., 2017), and background seismicity rates (Yoshida & Hasegawa,
342 2018) (Fig. 2(b)–(e)). These synchronised changes were estimated to reflect the diffusion of pore
343 pressure, in particular, high pore pressure during the initial stage and its temporal decrease
344 (Yoshida et al., 2017). These observations appear may be better explained by the potential that
345 the spatial variation of Q^{-1} actually reflects its temporal variation combined with the migration
346 behaviour of hypocentres from pore pressure diffusion.

347

348 **4.1. Potential for artificial variations in source-effect due to variation of near-source** 349 **attenuation**

350 Seismic waveform records from an earthquake contain information on the source and the
351 Earth's structure. The correct separation of source and propagation effects is vital to examine the
352 earthquake source and structure. One important factor to successfully separate the source effect
353 is the potential for strong near-source attenuation. Dismissal of this attenuation may lead to a
354 systematic source-effect estimation error (Abercrombie, 2015).

355 Two types of methods exist to extract information regarding earthquake source; (1)
356 empirical methods using waveforms of nearby earthquakes, such as Green's function (Empirical
357 Green's Function (EGF) method; Hartzell, 1978), and (2) theoretical methods using
358 simultaneously or independently estimated propagation and site-effects, based on physical
359 models (Andrew, 1986; Takahashi et al., 2005). Path and site-effects are likely to be most
360 effectively eliminated by EGF methods that use waveforms of a nearby earthquake as Green's
361 function (hereafter the nearby event is referred as the EGF event). However, even results of EGF
362 methods would be affected by ignoring near-source attenuation if the distance between the two
363 events becomes larger. Previous studies have shown that the source corner frequency determined
364 using EGF methods is affected by the distance between the two events (Kane et al., 2013;
365 Abercrombie, 2015). To avoid this, it is important to confirm that EGF events are sufficiently
366 close to the target earthquake and/or consider the effect of near-source attenuation.

367 For the Yamagata-Fukushima border swarm, the average stress drop of small earthquakes
368 change with time almost synchronously with near-source attenuation (Figs. 2(d) and 5).
369 Although temporal variation can be explained by assuming that both parameters were affected by
370 the temporal change in pore pressure, another possibility is that the temporal change in the
371 source parameter may be an artefact of dismissing changes in near-source attenuation or vice
372 versa. As this study has verified that the obtained temporal pattern of near-source attenuation
373 was not controlled by source-effects (differences in rupture process, frequency content, and focal
374 mechanism), I here consider the latter possibility that the temporal change in stress drop is an
375 artefact of the ignorance of changes in near-source attenuation

376 Yoshida et al. (2017, 2019b) estimated stress drops for small earthquakes in this swarm
377 using different three methods and obtained consistent results. Yoshida et al. (2017) first

378 estimated frequency dependent Q^{-1} values and site-effects based on the coda normalisation
379 method (Aki, 1980; Philipps & Aki, 1986), using the results to retrieve the source effects. As
380 they assumed that Q^{-1} was homogeneous in space and time, the estimated source-effects in this
381 approach may have been affected by the change in near-source attenuation. However, Yoshida et
382 al. (2017) obtained a similar temporal variation of stress drop based on the EGF method using S-
383 coda waves, effectively excluding the effects of near-source attenuation (Mayeda et al, 2007).
384 Moreover, Yoshida et al. (2019b) obtained a similar temporal variation also based on the EGF
385 method using direct S-waves from very close earthquakes (<0.5 km) as Green's functions; this is
386 also not as susceptible to the effects of near-source attenuation. As all three results show similar
387 temporal patterns of stress drops, it is reasonable to consider that changes in stress drop are not
388 an artefact. Whilst it is difficult to completely deny the potential that the results are to some
389 extent, affected by changes in near-source attenuation over time, it is reasonable to consider that
390 stress drops of small earthquakes in the source region of this swarm actually changed with time
391 following the 2011 Tohoku-Oki earthquakes.

392

393 **4.2. Frequency-dependence of near-source attenuation**

394 Insights into the frequency dependence of Q^{-1} are required to evaluate the effects of near-
395 source attenuation on source-effect estimation. The near-source Q^{-1} values were estimated for
396 frequency ranges between 1–2 and 4–8 Hz, in the same way as the results for 2–4 Hz. The
397 frequency distribution of Q^{-1} values are shown in Figs. 9(a)–(d). The median and the 95 %
398 confidence intervals for Q^{-1} are summarised in Table 1. There were 1823 and 2067 results for
399 the frequency ranges of 1–2 and 4–8 Hz for the P-wave, respectively. There were 1308 and 2876
400 results for the frequency ranges of 1–2 and 4–8 Hz for the S-wave, respectively.

401 The median Q^{-1} for the P-wave was 0.102 (with a 95 % confidence interval of 0.099–0.106) and
402 0.032 (with a 95 % confidence interval of 0.029–0.03) for the frequency ranges of 1–2 and 4–8
403 Hz, respectively. The median Q^{-1} for the S-wave was 0.035 (with a 95 % confidence interval of
404 0.030–0.036) and 0.004 (95 % confidence interval of 0.003–0.005) for the frequency ranges of
405 1–2 and 4–8 Hz, respectively. The Q^{-1} values obtained tend to decrease with frequency as a
406 whole; 0.102, 0.050 and 0.032 in the frequency ranges of 1–2, 2–4, and 4–8 Hz for the P-wave,
407 respectively, and 0.035, 0.008, and 0.004 in the frequency range of 1–2, 2–4, 4–8 Hz for the S-
408 wave, respectively. This decreasing tendency with frequency holds both in the initial and the
409 later periods and is similar to results of previous studies for frequencies above 1 Hz (Sato et al.,
410 2012). However, the decay rate of Q^{-1} for the S-wave is somewhat complex; it abruptly
411 decreases from 1–2 to 2–4 Hz, and then only slightly decreases from 2–4 to 4–8 Hz.

412 The temporal changes of the median values are shown in Figs. 9(e)–(h), in which the
413 values were computed for each time bin. With the exception of the results for the 1–2 Hz
414 frequency range of the S-wave, the Q^{-1} values change with time similar to those of 2–4 Hz. The
415 values were high in the initial period (<50 days), then decreased to be constant in the later
416 period. The temporal patterns are consistent with the hypothesis that temporal change in pore
417 pressure affects the anelastic and scattering property in the source region of the present swarm.
418 The temporal pattern of Q^{-1} in the 1–2 Hz range of the S-wave was more complex and differs
419 from others. It is difficult to know exactly the cause of this different temporal pattern and the
420 complex frequency dependence of Q^{-1} . The Q^{-1} values obtained were affected by intrinsic
421 absorption and scattering losses. The frequency dependence of intrinsic attenuation and
422 scattering attenuation is different (Sato et al., 2012), and the combination of the two effects may
423 account for the complicated frequency dependence. It is likely that fluid flow within the fracture

424 network affects high-frequency waveforms (Guo et al., 2018). The complicated frequency
425 dependence may include information such as the spatial extent and the shape of pores and cracks
426 filled by fluid.

427

428 **4.3 Estimation of near-source attenuation through consideration of the effects of** 429 **geometrical spreading and radiation pattern**

430 Differences in the geometrical spreading and radiation pattern of earthquake pairs affect
431 the estimation of near-source Q^{-1} . Although this effect is minor in this study (Fig. 6), the effect
432 makes it difficult to interpret their absolute values. The method used in this study is able to avoid
433 the effects of differences in geometrical spreading and radiation pattern if precise hypocentre
434 location data and focal mechanisms data are available. In this case, near-source attenuation was
435 estimated by incorporating the effects of differences in geometrical spreading and radiation
436 pattern. Note that this estimation was somehow affected by estimation errors of relative
437 hypocentre locations and focal mechanisms.

438 The theoretical amplitude ratios originating from the differences in the geometrical
439 spreading and radiation pattern quantified in Section 2.3 were utilised. First, the observed
440 amplitude ratios were multiplied by the inverse of corresponding theoretical amplitude ratios to
441 remove the effects of geometrical spreading and radiation pattern. Then, the same method to
442 compute near-source Q^{-1} for each earthquake pair in the main result was applied. Fig. 10 shows
443 the resulting estimated near-source attenuation. The Q^{-1} values were 0.013 (with 95 %
444 confidence interval of 0.012–0.015) for the P-wave and 0.008 (95 % confidence interval of
445 0.007–0.009) for the S-wave; these are lower than those in Section 3. This may largely be
446 attributed to ignoring the effects of geometrical spreading and radiation pattern which

447 systematically increased the estimates of Q^{-1} (Fig. 6). The median Q^{-1} -values were significantly
448 positive even if the effects of differences in geometrical spreading and radiation pattern were
449 removed. The temporal pattern of Q^{-1} was still similar to those in the previous section (Section
450 3) (Fig. 5) and the temporal patterns of fault frictional strength, background seismicity rate,
451 stress drop, and b-value (Figs. 2(b)–(e)).

452 Yoshida et al. (2017) used the coda normalisation method to estimate Q^{-1} for the S-wave
453 in the surrounding crust of the Yamagata-Fukushima swarm region, obtaining ~ 0.005 – ~ 0.01 in
454 the 2–4 Hz frequency range; their estimates are comparable to those obtained in this study.
455 According to the temporal variation in Fig. 10(d), the Q^{-1} value in some time bins during the
456 initial period (<50 days) was significantly higher than this range, suggesting that pore pressure is
457 higher near earthquake sources than in the surrounding crust during this period.

458

459 **5. Conclusions**

460 This study examined near-source attenuation in the focal region of intense swarm activity
461 in the Yamagata-Fukushima border region of Japan. This was considered to have been triggered
462 by fluid movement following the 2011 Tohoku-Oki earthquake (Terakawa et al., 2013; Yoshida
463 et al., 2016). Near-source attenuation was estimated using a new technique that precisely
464 determines the decay of the amplitude ratios for two nearby earthquakes with travel time
465 differences using similar waveforms. Whilst the obtained Q^{-1} values vary over a wide range,
466 their median values exhibit characteristic temporal variation; Q^{-1} was large for the initial ~ 50
467 days, and significantly decreased, becoming almost constant after 50 days. These temporal
468 patterns are similar to those independently obtained for background seismicity rates, b-values,
469 stress drops, and fault strength. The synchronous change suggests that swarm was triggered by

470 fluid movement following the 2011 Tohoku-Oki earthquake, and source and seismicity
471 characteristics and seismic attenuation were affected by pore pressure.

472 This results from this study suggest that seismic attenuation intensity is higher near the
473 earthquake source than in the surrounding crust in some situations. Localised higher attenuation
474 near the source produces a systematic estimation error of earthquake source effects; the
475 attenuation is erroneously estimated as a part of the earthquake source signal. It is therefore
476 important to examine the intensity and the frequency dependence of near-source attenuation to
477 accurately estimate earthquake source properties.

478 The method used in this study cannot handle frequency ranges higher than the source
479 corner frequency. It is necessary to understand attenuation behaviour at frequencies > 8 Hz, as it
480 is closely related to estimating source parameters for small earthquakes. The estimation of near-
481 source attenuation at higher frequency ranges would be possible in future research by analysing
482 waveform data from smaller earthquakes ($M < 2$) using dense temporary seismic network data.

483

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493

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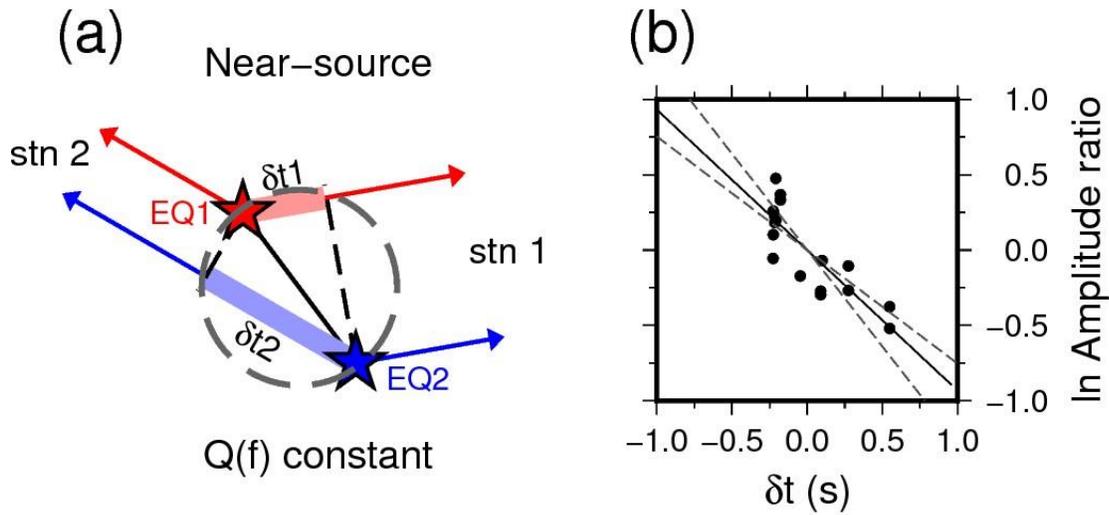
1 **Tables**

2 **Table 1. Median of Q^{-1} values and the 95 % confidence interval.**

Frequency	phase	Data	Q^{-1} -value			Figure	Notes
			entire period	initial period	later period		
1-2 Hz	P	real data	0.102 (0.099-0.106)	0.200 (0.184-0.228)	0.096 (0.091-0.099)	Fig. 9a	
2-4 Hz	P	real data	0.050 (0.046-0.051)	0.085 (0.079-0.092)	0.044 (0.043-0.046)	Fig. 6a	
4-8 Hz	P	real data	0.032 (0.029-0.033)	0.054 (0.052-0.060)	0.028 (0.026-0.029)	Fig. 9b	
2-4 Hz	P	real data	0.013 (0.012-0.015)	0.037 (0.029-0.043)	0.012 (0.011-0.013)	Fig. 10a	geometrical spreading and radiation pattern
2-4 Hz	P	synthetic	0.010 (0.010-0.010)	0.010 (0.009-0.010)	0.010 (0.010-0.010)	Fig. S4a	geometrical spreading
2-4 Hz	P	synthetic	0.016 (0.014-0.018)	0.007 (0.002-0.014)	0.017 (0.015-0.020)	Fig. S5a	radiation pattern
2-4 Hz	P	synthetic	0.025 (0.022-0.027)	0.016 (0.012-0.020)	0.026 (0.025-0.028)	Fig. 7a	geometrical spreading and radiation pattern
1-2 Hz	S	real data	0.035 (0.030-0.036)	0.028 (0.021-0.036)	0.035 (0.030-0.039)	Fig. 9c	
2-4 Hz	S	real data	0.008 (0.007-0.009)	0.025 (0.021-0.027)	0.006 (0.006-0.007)	Fig. 6b	
4-8 Hz	S	real data	0.004 (0.03-0.05)	0.021 (0.019-0.026)	0.003 (0.002-0.003)	Fig. 9d	
2-4 Hz	S	real data	0.008 (0.007-0.008)	0.011 (0.009-0.013)	0.007 (0.006-0.008)	Fig. 10b	geometrical spreading and radiation pattern
2-4 Hz	S	synthetic	0.006 (0.006-0.006)	0.006 (0.006-0.006)	0.006 (0.006-0.006)	Fig. S4b	geometrical spreading
2-4 Hz	S	synthetic	-0.003 (-0.004- -0.002)	0.000 (-0.002- 0.002)	-0.003 (-0.004- -0.002)	Fig. S5b	radiation pattern
2-4 Hz	S	synthetic	0.006 (0.005-0.006)	0.007 (0.006-0.009)	0.006 (0.005-0.006)	Fig. 7b	geometrical spreading and radiation pattern

3

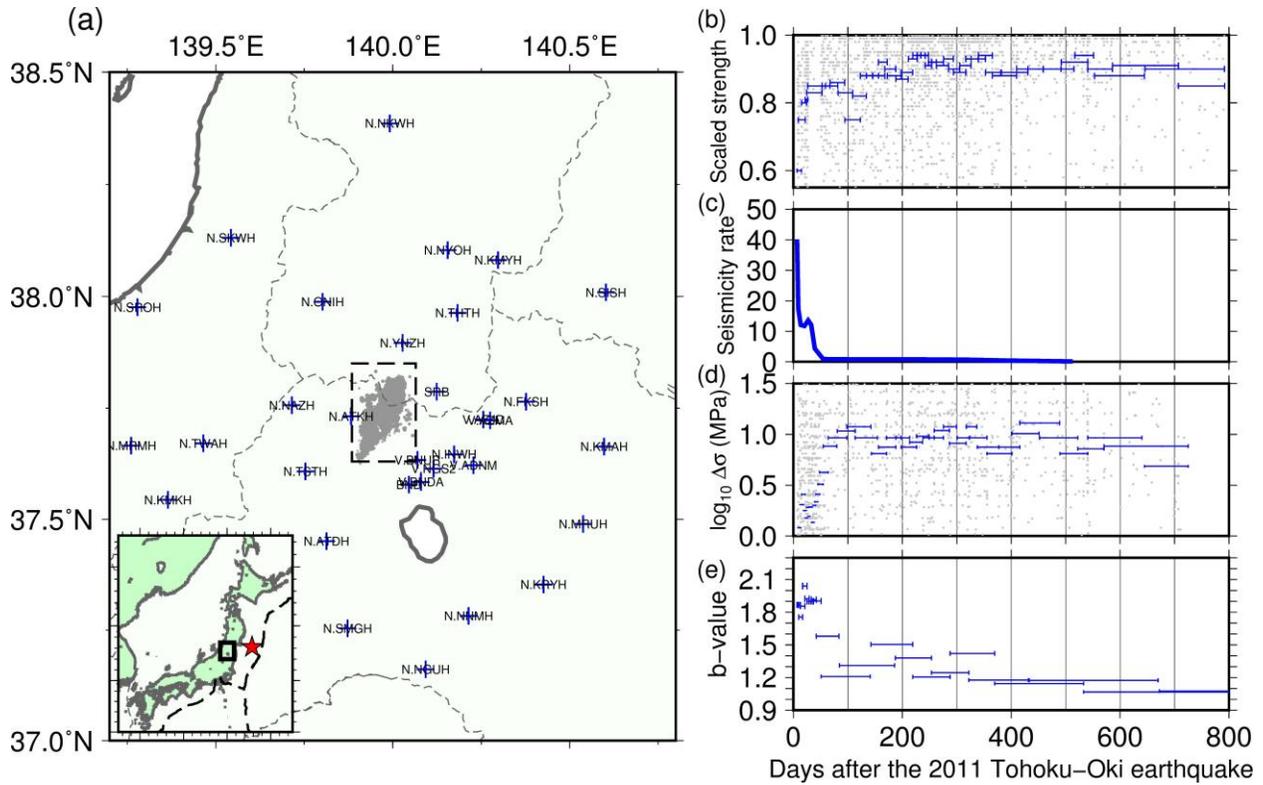
1 **Figures**



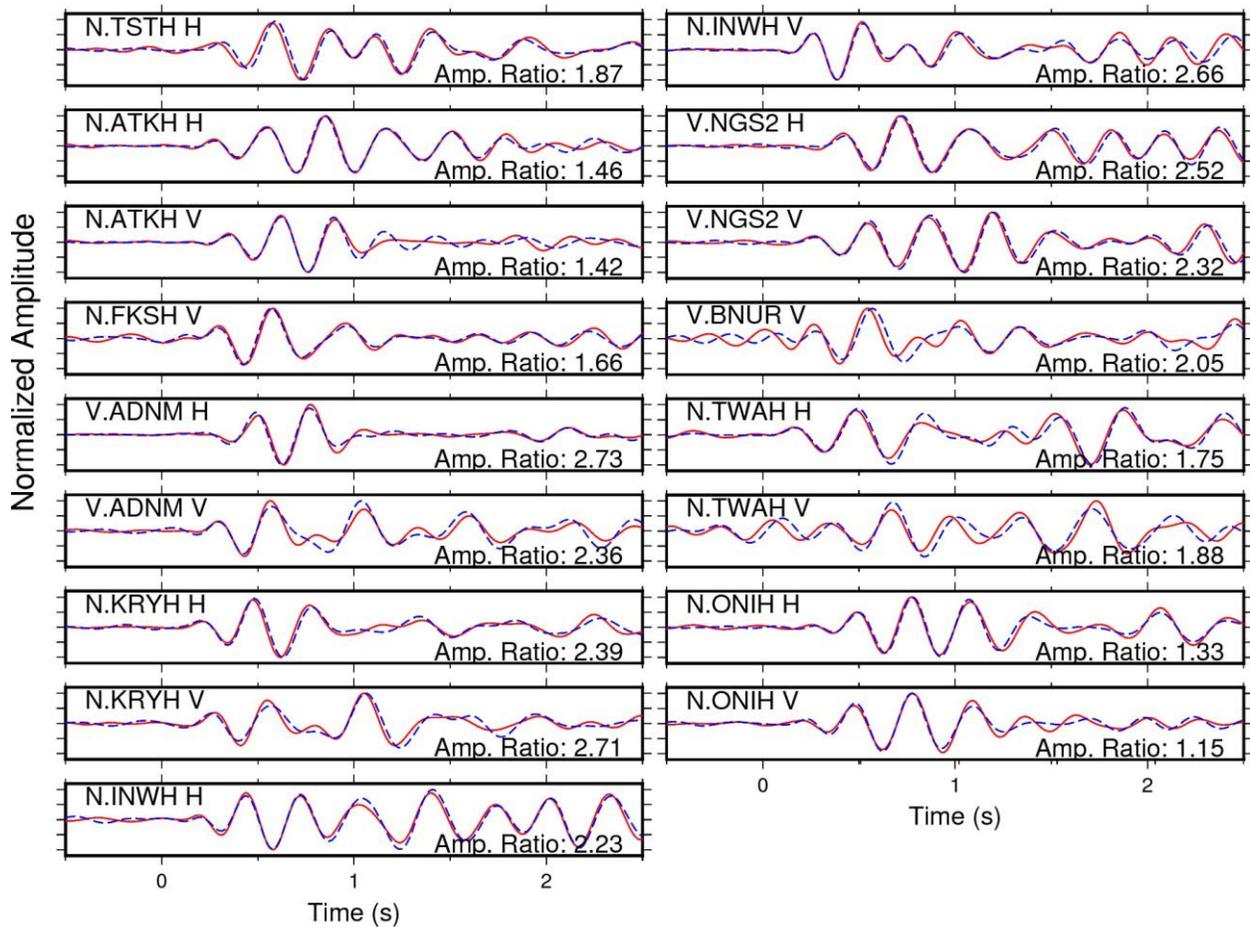
2 2011041708210161–2011041716275148, S, 2–4 Hz

3 **Figure 1.** (a) A schematic of the principle underpinning near-source attenuation estimation. Stars
4 and arrows show the locations of the earthquake pairs and the ray paths, respectively. Note that
5 the method does not assume plane wave approximation; (b) an example of the relationship
6 between amplitude ratios, $A_{1i}(f)/A_{2i}(f)$, and differential arrival times, δt_i , of an earthquake

7 pair. The solid line denotes the best-fit slope. The broken lines show the upper and lower slope
 8 estimates in the 95 % confidence region.



9
 10 **Figure 2.** (a) Distribution of hypocentres (grey circles) and seismic stations (blue crosses) in the
 11 study area. In the inset, the range of the hypocentre is the bold rectangle, the red star indicates
 12 the hypocentre of the 2011 M9 Tohoku-Oki earthquake, and the broken curve shows the trench;
 13 (b), (c), (d) and (e) temporal variations in fault frictional strength scaled by the maximum shear
 14 stress (Yoshida et al., 2016), background seismicity rate (Yoshida & Hasegawa, 2018), stress
 15 drop (Yoshida et al., 2019b), and b-value (Yoshida et al., 2017), respectively. In (b) and (d),
 16 individual results and geometric means are shown by grey circles and blue lines, respectively.



17

18 **Figure 3.** Waveforms of the event-pair in Fig. 1 (b) used to estimate near-source attenuation.

19 Red solid and blue broken traces show the waveforms of event-1 and event-2, respectively. The

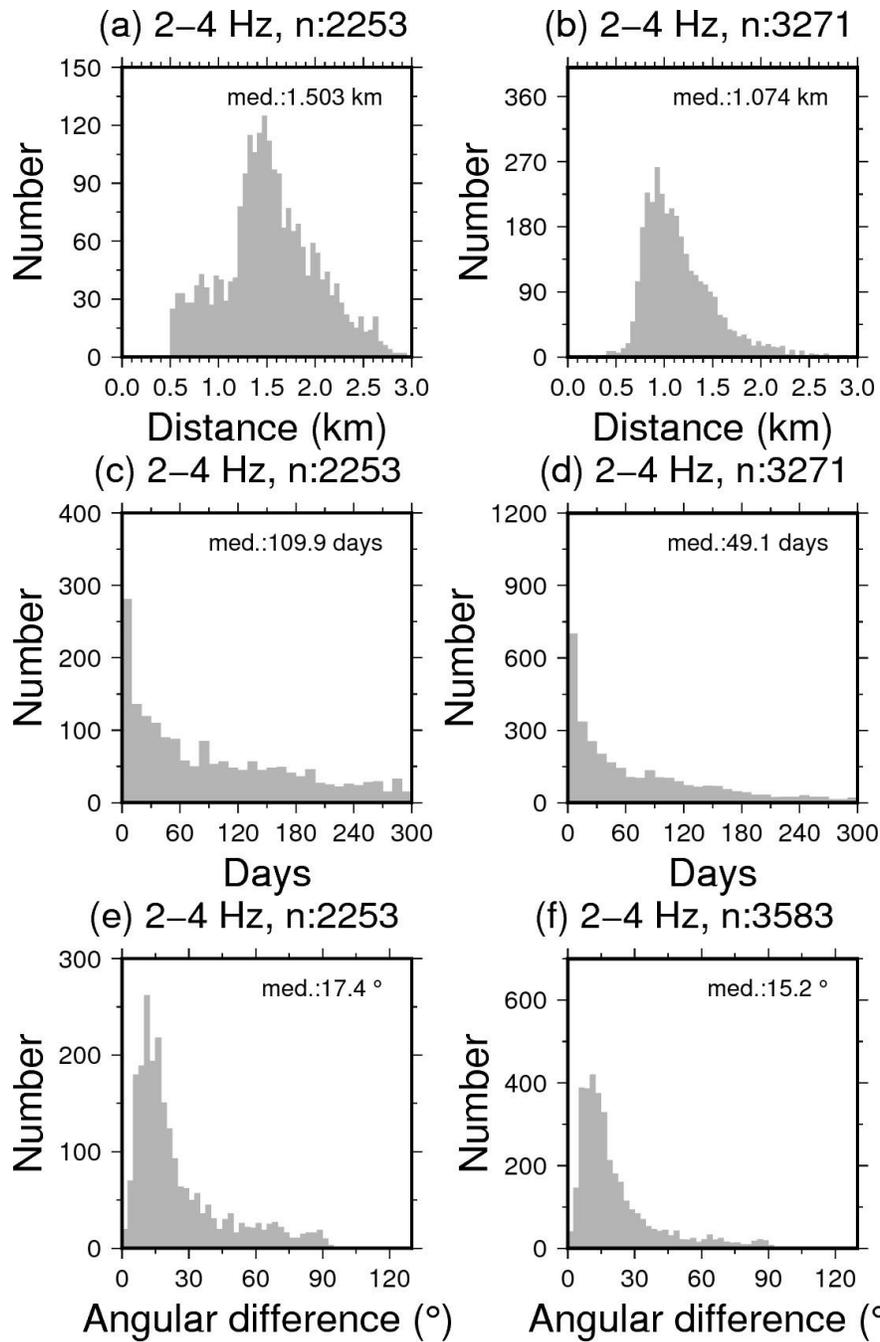
20 timing was adjusted by waveform correlation. The maximum amplitude of the waveforms were

21 normalised. Numbers on the lower right denote the amplitude ratios, and letters on the upper left

22 denote the station names and components.

23

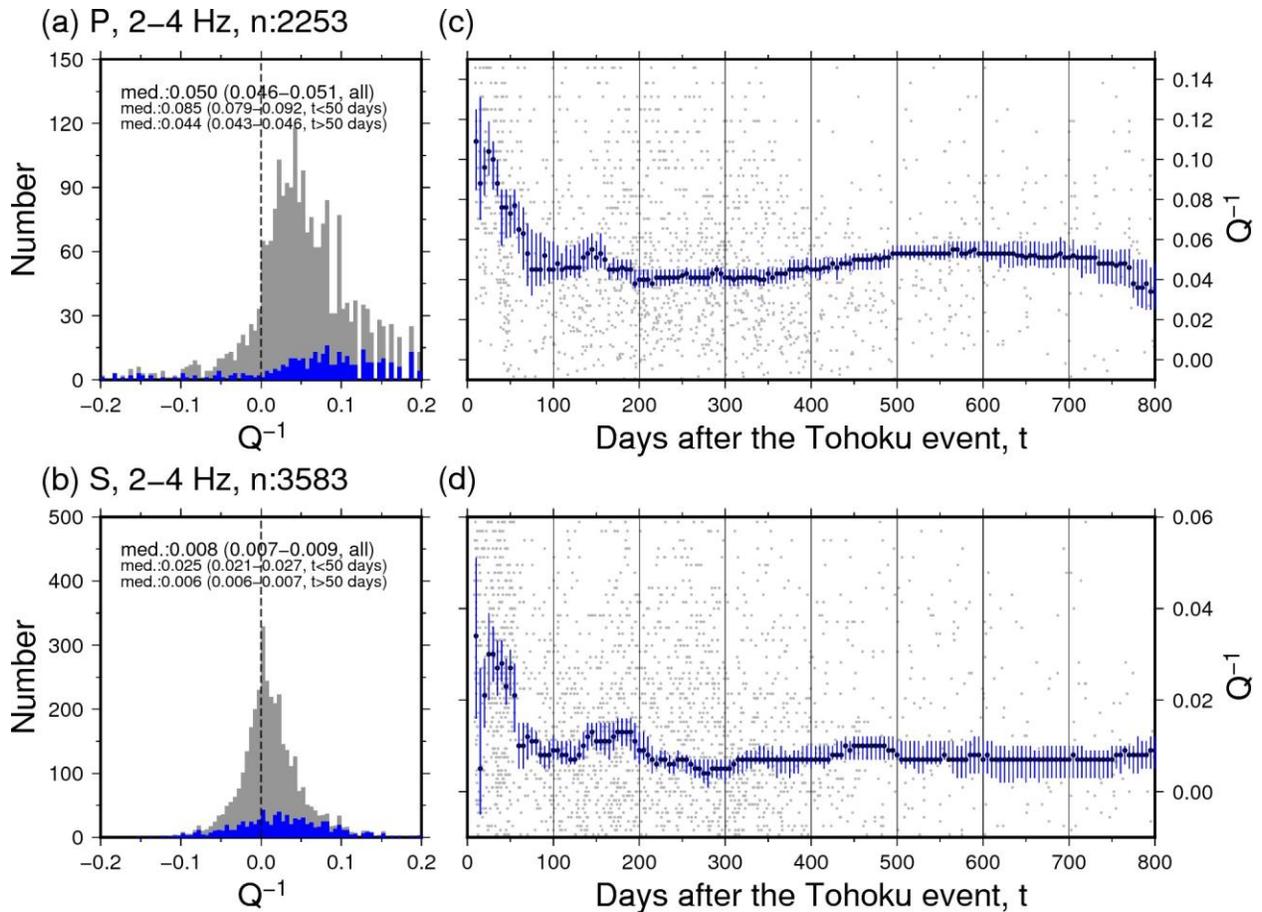
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25

26 **Figure 4.** Frequency distributions of (a)–(b) distances, (c)–(d) time intervals, and (e)–(g) 3D
 27 angular differences of focal mechanisms for earthquake pairs used to determine Q^{-1} . (a), (c), (e)
 28 P-wave; and (b), (d), (f) S-wave.

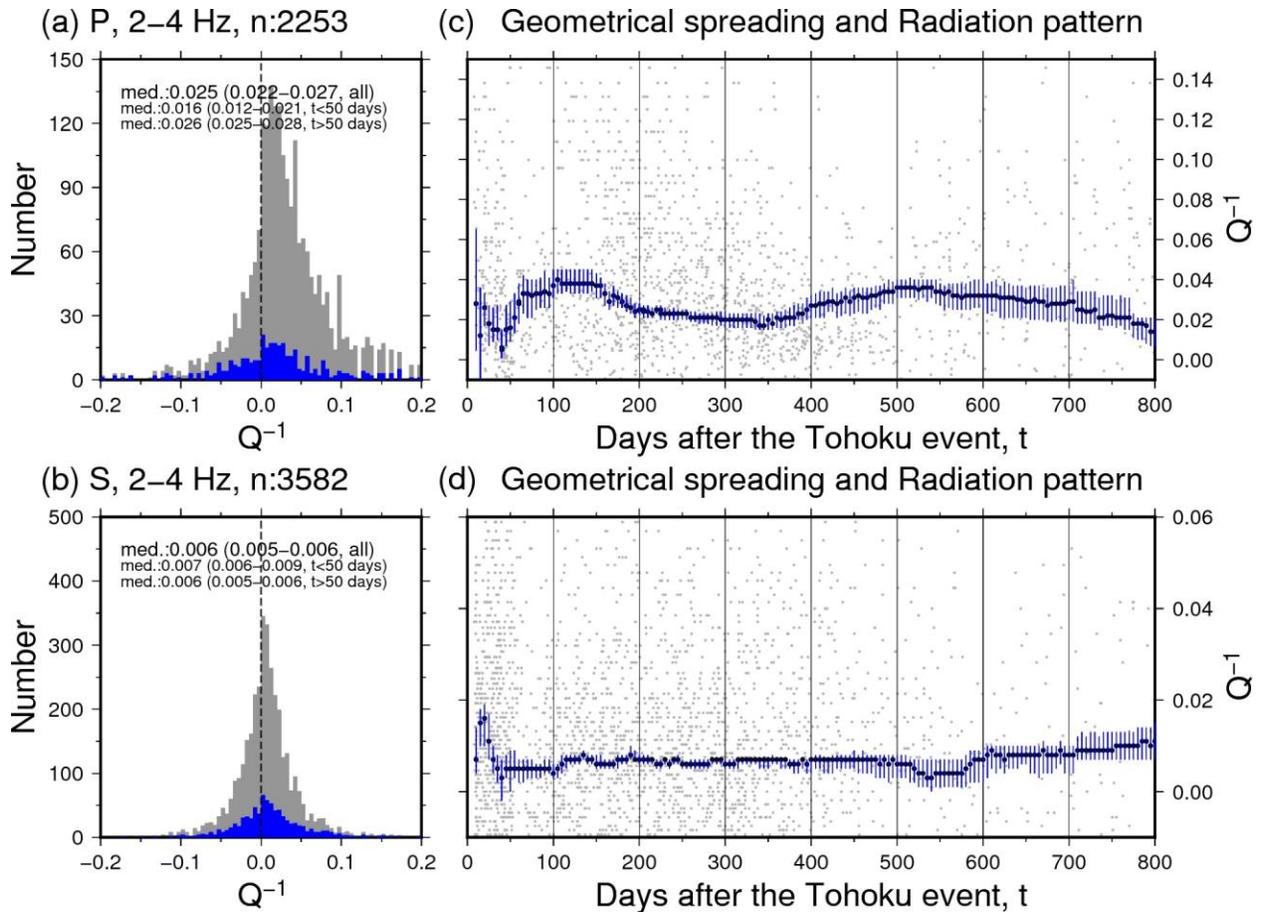
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30

31 **Figure 5.** Results of near-source attenuation analyses. (a) Frequency distribution of near-source
 32 Q^{-1} values. The grey colour depicts the results for the entire analysed period. The blue colour
 33 depicts the results for up to 50 days following the 2011 Tohoku-Oki earthquake; (b) temporal
 34 changes in near-source Q^{-1} values. The grey circles show the individual results and the blue
 35 circles show the median of each bin. The timing of individual results was set to the mean of the
 36 occurrence timing of earthquake pairs. The vertical line indicates the 95 % confidential interval
 37 for the median based on 2000 bootstrap re-samplings.

38

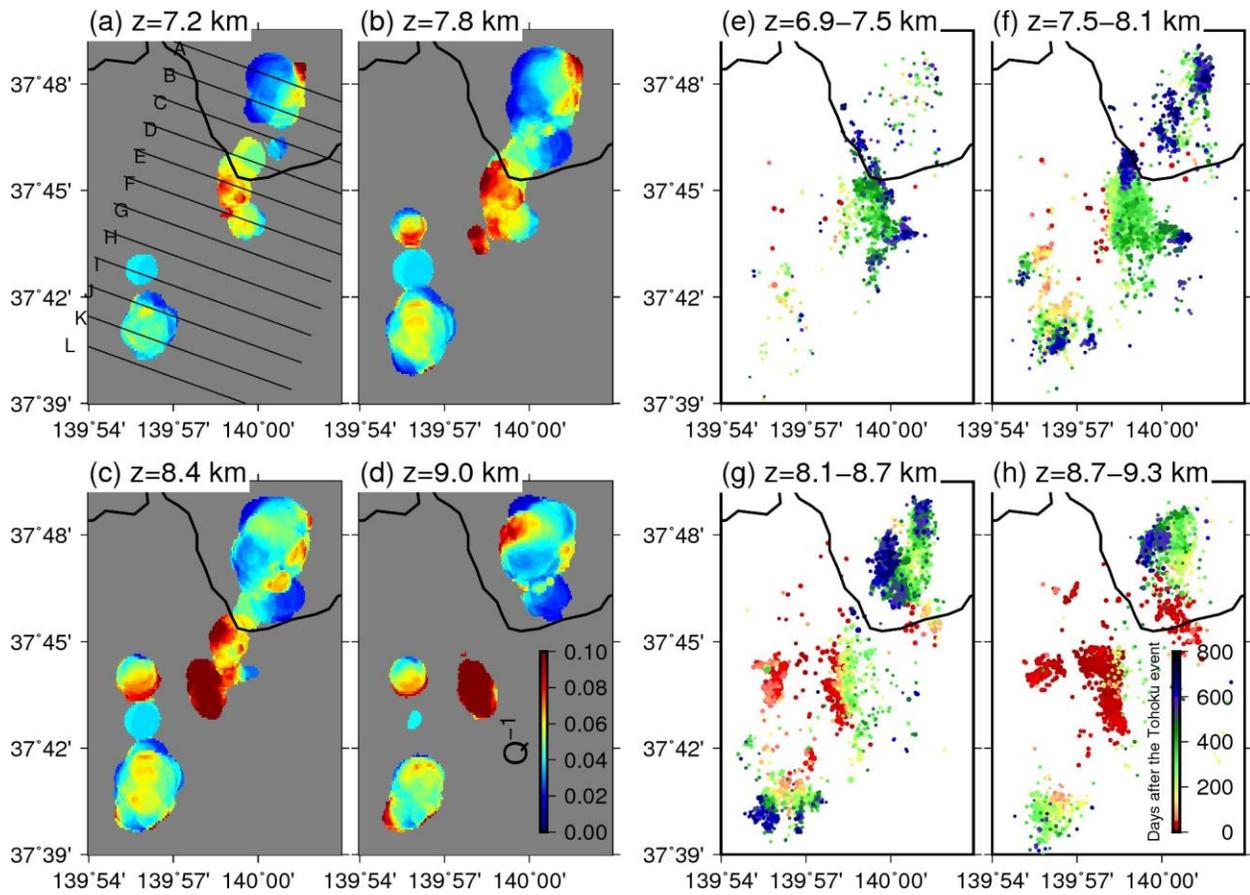


39

40 **Figure 6.** Results of near-source attenuation analyses using synthetic data. Synthetic data was
 41 produced by considering the effects of geometrical spreading and radiation pattern. (a)
 42 Frequency distribution of near-source Q^{-1} values. The grey colour depicts the results for all
 43 analysed periods. The blue colour depicts the results for up to 50 days after the 2011 Tohoku-Oki
 44 earthquake; (b) temporal changes in near-source Q^{-1} . The grey circles show individual results
 45 and red circles show median values of each time bin. Vertical line indicate the 95 % confidential
 46 interval based on 2000 bootstrap re-samplings of individual Q^{-1} values. The other details are the
 47 same as per Fig. 4.

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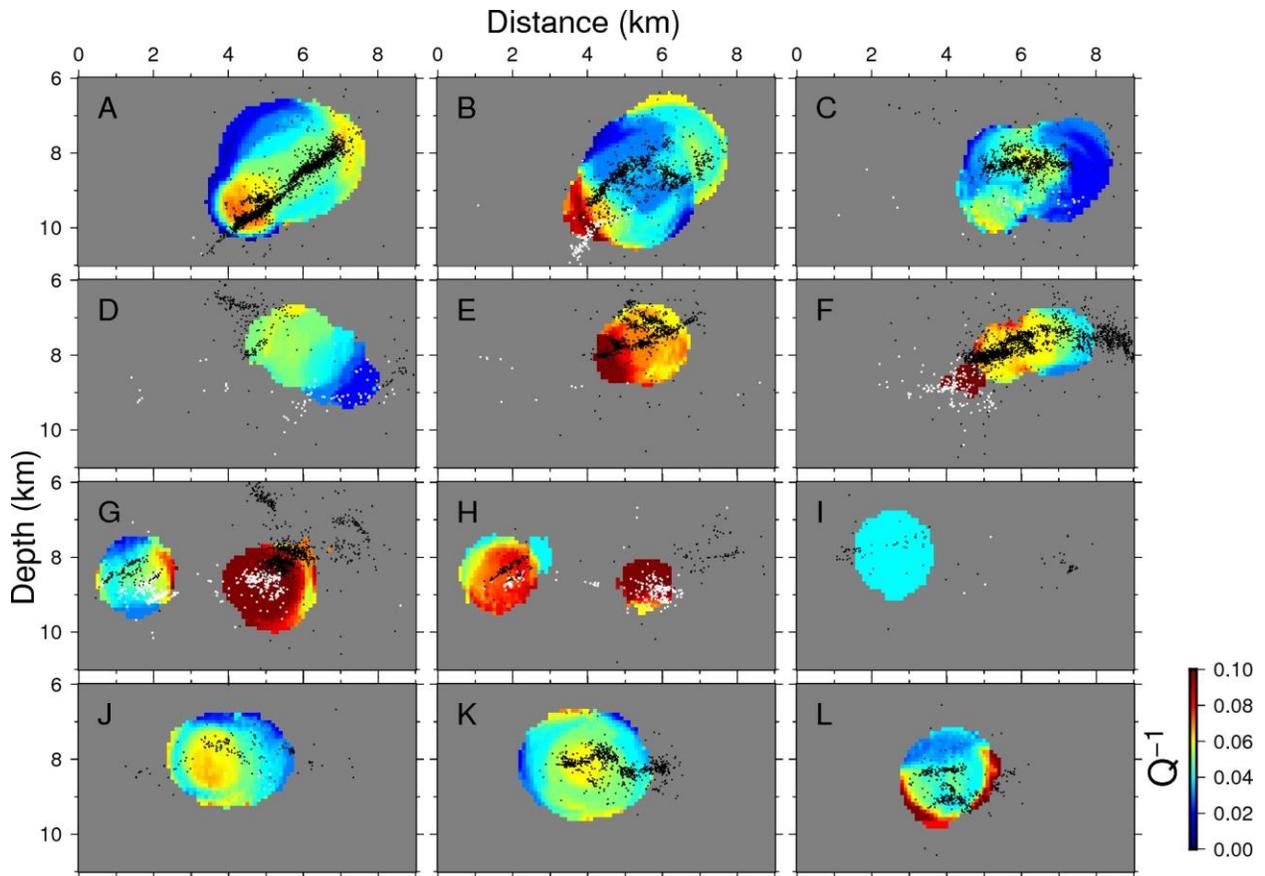
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50

51 **Figure 7.** (a)–(d) Spatial distribution of Q^{-1} for the 2–4 Hz frequency range at four different
 52 depths. Q^{-1} values are shown by the colour scale; (e)–(f) spatial distribution of hypocentres
 53 determined by Yoshida & Hasegawa (2018). Occurrence timings are shown by the colour scale.

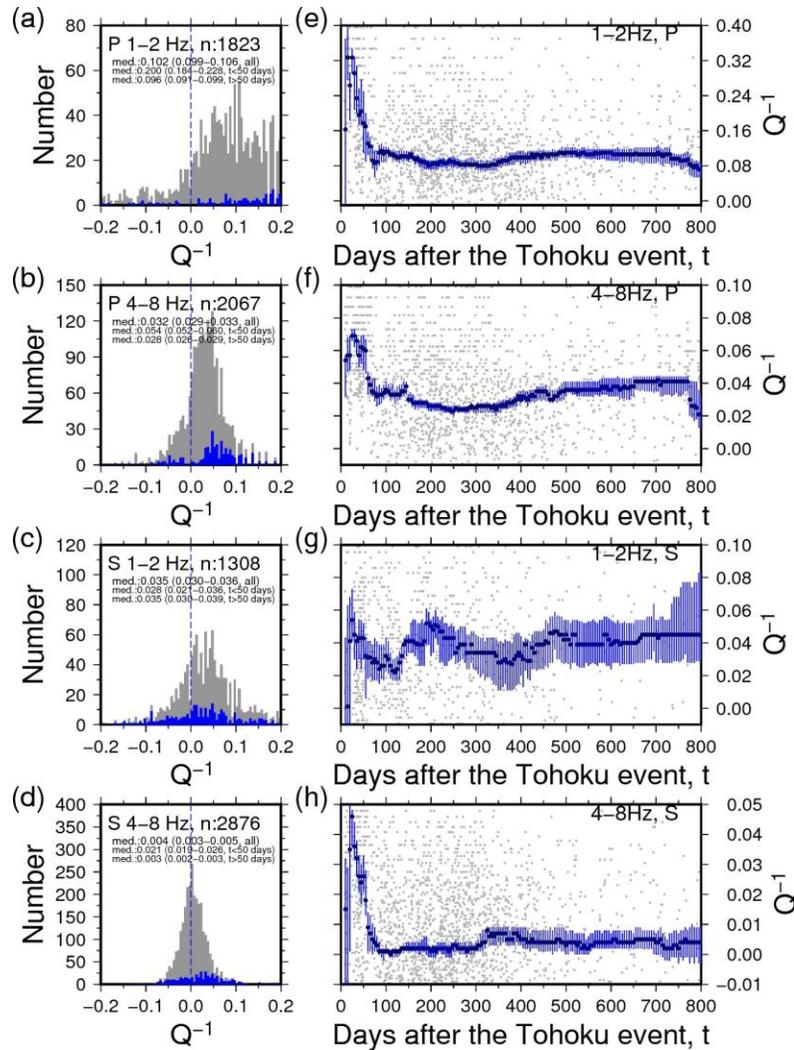
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55

56 **Figure 8.** Cross-sectional views of Q^{-1} for the 2–4 Hz frequency range along the lines shown in
 57 Fig. 6 (a). Q^{-1} values are shown by the colour scale. White and black circles depict the
 58 hypocentres in the initial 50 days and the later period, respectively.

59



60

61 **Figure 9.** Results of near-source attenuation. (a)–(d) Frequency distribution of near-source Q^{-1} -

62 values; (e)–(h) temporal change in near-source Q^{-1} -values; (a), (e): results for the frequency

63 ranges of 1–2 Hz from P-waves; (b), (f): results for the frequency ranges of 4–8 Hz from P-

64 waves; (c), (g): results for the frequency ranges of 1–2 Hz from P-waves; (d), (h): results for the

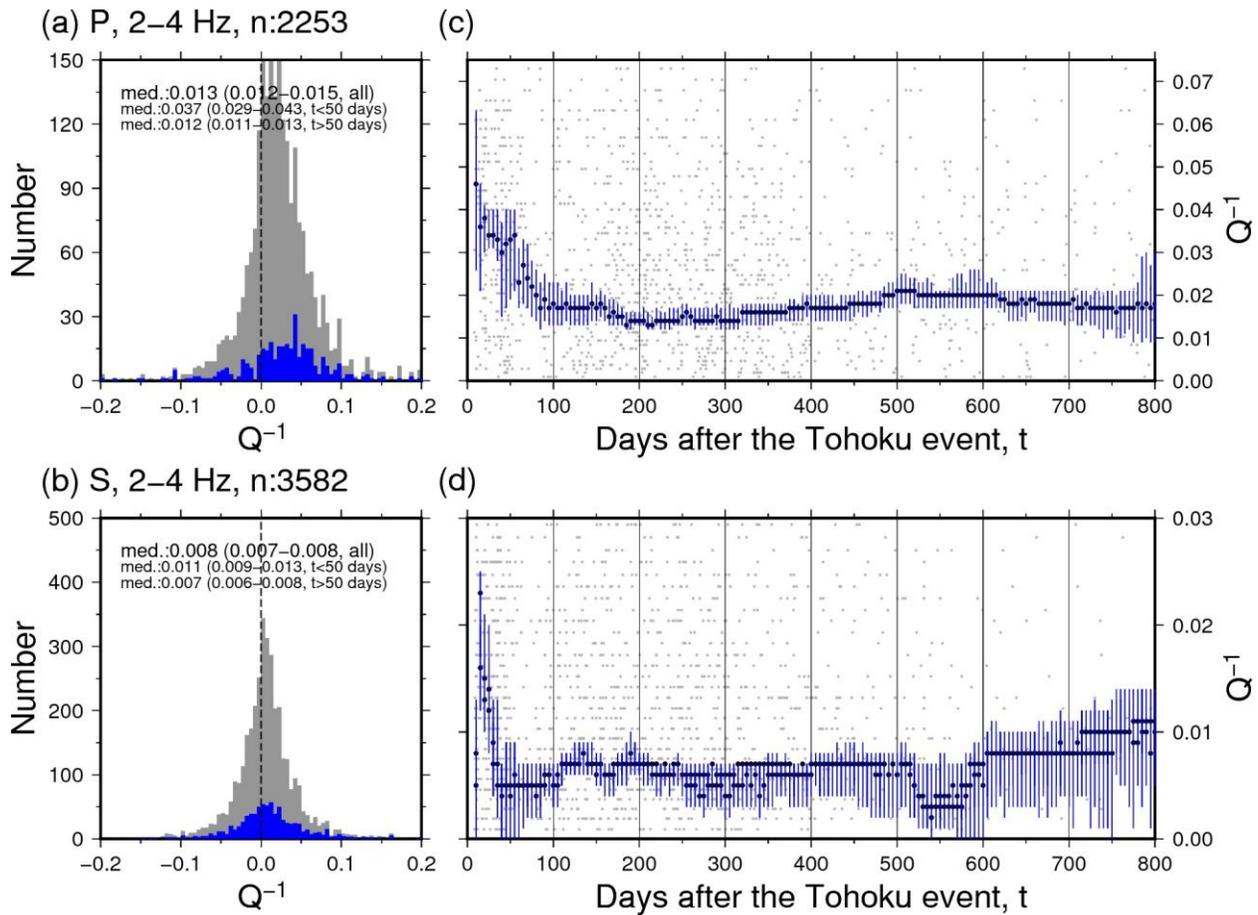
65 frequency ranges of 4–8 Hz from P-waves. The grey circles show individual results and red

66 circles show median values of each time bin. The vertical line indicates the 95 % confidence

67 interval based on 2000 bootstrap re-samplings of individual Q^{-1} -values. Other details are the

68 same as per Fig. 4.

69



71

72 **Figure 10.** Results of near-source attenuation analyses by accounting for the effects of73 geometrical spreading and radiation pattern. (a) Frequency distribution of near-source Q^{-1}

74 values. The grey colour depicts the results for all the analysed periods. The blue colour depicts

75 the results for up to 50 days after the 2011 Tohoku-Oki earthquake; (b) temporal changes in

76 near-source Q^{-1} values. The grey circles show individual results and blue circles show median

77 values of each bin. The vertical line indicates the 95 % confidence interval of the median value

78 based on 2000 bootstrap re-samplings. Other details are the same as per Fig. 4.

79