



1 **Global controls on aftershock productivity: roles of magnitude and tectonic setting**

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9 **Abstract**

10 Aftershock productivity varies substantially among large earthquakes, yet the relative roles of
11 magnitude, tectonic environment, and source properties remain incompletely resolved at the global
12 scale. Here we perform a comprehensive, data-driven analysis of aftershock productivity for all M_w
13 ≥ 7.0 mainshocks worldwide since 1976, using a homogeneous workflow based on USGS/NEIC
14 catalogs, PB2002 plate-boundary geometries, and uniformly defined aftershock windows ($r \leq 200$
15 km, $t \leq 30$ days, $M \geq 4.5$). Mainshock events are classified into three tectonic domains—subduction,
16 other plate boundaries, and intraplate/crustal—allowing systematic comparison of productivity
17 patterns across geodynamic settings. Across all tectonic classes, aftershock productivity scales
18 linearly with mainshock magnitude in log-space, with nearly identical slopes ($b \approx 0.76\text{--}0.81$),
19 indicating a universal magnitude-controlled triggering mechanism. In contrast, intercepts differ
20 significantly among tectonic environments: subduction earthquakes are systematically the most
21 productive, followed by other plate-boundary events and intraplate earthquakes. Depth and distance
22 to the nearest plate boundary exert weaker but physically interpretable secondary influences, with
23 productivity decreasing for deeper ruptures and for intraplate events located far from plate
24 boundaries. Residual analysis and multivariate correlations confirm that magnitude and tectonic
25 setting explain the dominant share of global variability, whereas depth and distance provide
26 secondary, context-dependent modulation. Together, these results establish the first unified,



27 physically interpretable global framework of aftershock productivity, quantifying both universal
28 magnitude-driven scaling and environment-specific productivity offsets. The findings provide
29 actionable constraints for global ETAS parameterization, operational aftershock forecasting, and
30 seismic-hazard models for future great earthquakes.

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33 **Keywords**

34 Aftershock productivity, Earthquake triggering, Tectonic setting, Global seismicity, Mainshock–
35 aftershock scaling, Seismic hazard forecasting.

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39 **Highlights**

40 We quantify how earthquake magnitude and tectonic setting jointly control global aftershock
41 productivity

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43 Aftershock productivity scales universally with magnitude but shows systematic offsets among
44 tectonic settings

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46 These results improve global aftershock forecasting and inform tectonic-dependent seismic hazard
47 models



48 **1. Introduction**

49 Aftershock sequences represent a fundamental component of the short-term temporal evolution of
50 seismicity following large earthquakes. Their spatiotemporal decay is commonly described by the
51 modified Omori–Utsu law (Omori, 1894; Utsu, 1961; Utsu et al., 1995), whereas the absolute number
52 of aftershocks, or aftershock productivity, is typically parameterized through empirical magnitude-
53 dependent scaling relations (Reasenberg and Jones, 1994; Helmstetter and Sornette, 2003;
54 Shcherbakov et al., 2004; van der Elst and Page, 2014). This scaling, in its simplest form, expresses
55 the number of aftershocks above a threshold magnitude as an exponential function of the mainshock
56 magnitude and controls key components of operational earthquake forecasting models, including
57 ETAS (Epidemic-Type Aftershock Sequence) formulations (Ogata, 1998; Zhuang et al., 2004;
58 Marzocchi and Lombardi, 2009; Omi et al., 2013; Hainzl, 2016).

59 Despite decades of regional and global studies, significant uncertainty remains regarding the physical
60 and tectonic controls on aftershock productivity. Most previous analyses have been conducted at
61 regional scales (e.g., California, Japan, New Zealand), where local rheology, faulting style, and
62 catalog completeness strongly influence observed productivity patterns (Felzer et al., 2002;
63 Helmstetter, 2003; Marsan and Lengliné, 2008; Nishimura et al., 2020). Global studies are
64 comparatively fewer and often rely on heterogeneous datasets, merging catalogs of variable
65 completeness and mixing different tectonic environments (Parsons, 2002; Page et al., 2016; van der
66 Elst, 2021). As a result, quantifying global rules that robustly describe how aftershock productivity
67 varies with earthquake magnitude and tectonic setting remains an open problem of high scientific and
68 practical relevance.

69 Tectonic environment is known to influence earthquake rupture characteristics, stress drop, and fault
70 zone rheology (Scholz, 2002; Kanamori and Brodsky, 2004; Lay and Kanamori, 2011). Subduction
71 megathrusts, for example, exhibit large rupture dimensions, high slip velocities, and high heat
72 production, potentially favoring more abundant aftershock sequences (Lay et al., 2005; Hayes et al.,
73 2018). Conversely, intraplate earthquakes often nucleate within colder, stronger lithosphere and may



74 exhibit lower background seismicity rates and different stress-transfer efficiency (Scholz, 2019; Craig
75 et al., 2017). However, a systematic, quantitative comparison of aftershock productivity across
76 tectonic environments at the global scale has been lacking, largely due to the absence of unified
77 classification frameworks and globally homogeneous aftershock datasets.

78 An additional source of uncertainty concerns the role of factors other than magnitude and tectonic
79 setting. Several studies have proposed possible dependencies of aftershock productivity on depth
80 (Parsons, 2002; Uchide et al., 2013), rupture complexity (Nishimura et al., 2020), mainshock stress
81 drop (Hainzl et al., 2016; van der Elst, 2021), or background seismicity rate (van der Elst and Page,
82 2014). Yet these effects are often difficult to isolate due to catalog incompleteness, regional
83 variability, and the strong primary control of magnitude itself. Clarifying the extent to which
84 secondary variables—such as mainshock depth or distance to plate boundary—affect aftershock
85 productivity is essential for improving physical models of earthquake triggering and for establishing
86 globally applicable scaling laws.

87 In this study, we address these open questions by constructing a unified global dataset of $M_w \geq 7$
88 mainshocks and their aftershocks ($M_w \geq 4.5$) from 1976 to 2024, using the USGS NEIC catalog,
89 ensuring consistent magnitude reporting and near-global completeness above $M_w 4.5$. Each
90 mainshock is assigned to a tectonic class (SUBDUCTION, OTHER PLATE-BOUNDARY,
91 INTRAPLATE/CRUSTAL) using distances to PB2002 plate boundaries (Bird, 2003), enabling a
92 systematic comparison of aftershock productivity across contrasting tectonic regimes. In this study,
93 aftershock productivity is defined in an operational and observation-based sense, rather than as the
94 total number of triggered events in a fully cascading epidemic-type aftershock sequence (ETAS)
95 framework. This operational definition is intentionally adopted to enable consistent, global-scale
96 comparisons across heterogeneous tectonic environments and catalog conditions. The fixed spatial (r
97 ≤ 200 km) and temporal ($t \leq 30$ days) windows are not intended to capture the full physical extent or
98 duration of individual aftershock sequences, which are known to scale with mainshock magnitude
99 and rupture dimensions. Rather, they provide a standardized observational metric that minimizes



100 subjective sequence delineation and ensures reproducibility at the global scale. While this approach
101 may truncate late or far-field aftershocks of the largest earthquakes and include limited background
102 activity for smaller mainshocks, these effects act systematically across the dataset and primarily affect
103 absolute counts rather than relative scaling. Consequently, the analysis focuses on comparative
104 productivity trends and regression-based offsets among tectonic settings, rather than on absolute
105 estimates of total aftershock numbers. Specifically, productivity is quantified as the number of
106 earthquakes with $M_w \geq 4.5$ occurring within a fixed spatiotemporal window following each
107 mainshock. This definition is designed to ensure global consistency, reproducibility, and robustness
108 across heterogeneous tectonic environments and catalog qualities. We quantify aftershock
109 productivity through both absolute aftershock counts and the logarithmic scaling $\log_{10}(N+1)$ as a
110 function of magnitude, depth, and tectonic setting.

111 Our goals are threefold:

- 112 • to quantify robust global scaling relations between aftershock productivity and mainshock
113 magnitude,
- 114 • to determine how aftershock productivity varies across the major tectonic regimes of the
115 planet, and
- 116 • to assess whether secondary variables (mainshock depth, proximity to plate boundaries)
117 significantly affect productivity once magnitude and tectonic class are accounted for.

118 By combining global-scale data, tectonic classification, regression analyses, and residual-based
119 diagnostics, this work offers a comprehensive assessment of the controls governing aftershock
120 productivity. The resulting framework highlights the dominant roles of magnitude and tectonic
121 setting, while constraining the comparatively weaker effects of depth and distance from plate
122 boundaries. These results have direct implications for global earthquake triggering models, seismic
123 hazard assessment, and the parameterization of operational forecasting systems at regional and global
124 scales.

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128 **2. Data and Methods**

129 We compiled a global catalog of large earthquakes from the USGS/NEIC ComCat database, selecting
130 all events of moment magnitude $M_w \geq 7.0$ that occurred between 1 January 1976 and 31 December
131 2024. This time period ensures compatibility with the modern global seismic network and provides
132 uniform moment-magnitude estimates worldwide. The adopted aftershock magnitude threshold (M_w
133 ≥ 4.5) lies safely above the global magnitude of completeness for teleseismically recorded
134 earthquakes throughout the study period. Previous assessments of global catalogs indicate that events
135 of this size are reliably detected worldwide since the mid-1970s, including oceanic and remote
136 regions. As a result, the completeness of the aftershock catalog is not expected to vary significantly
137 over time at the selected magnitude threshold. For each mainshock, we retained origin time, epicentral
138 coordinates, depth, and magnitude, along with relevant event metadata.

139 To quantify aftershock productivity, we used the same catalog to extract all earthquakes with $M_w \geq$
140 4.5 within a 200 km radius and 30-day time window after each mainshock. These thresholds reflect
141 a balance between catalog completeness, consistency with prior global analyses, and robust
142 detectability across decades of heterogeneous network coverage.

143 To assess catalog completeness and its temporal stability, we evaluated the magnitude of
144 completeness (M_c) of the global earthquake catalog over the study period. Previous global analyses
145 of the USGS/NEIC ComCat and ISC-GEM catalogs indicate that M_c for moment magnitude has been
146 consistently below $M_w 4.5$ since the mid-1970s, with progressive improvements in detection
147 capability over time primarily affecting smaller magnitudes. To further verify that temporal variations
148 in network coverage do not bias our results, we repeated key analyses by subdividing the catalog into
149 three partially overlapping time periods (1976–1990, 1991–2005, and 2006–2024).

150 Across all time windows, the M_w -aftershock productivity scaling and the relative offsets among
151 tectonic classes remain stable within statistical uncertainty. This confirms that the adopted $M_w \geq 4.5$



152 threshold lies safely above M_c throughout the study period and that the observed productivity patterns
153 are not artifacts of long-term improvements in global seismic monitoring.

154 We explicitly acknowledge that the use of a fixed spatial (200 km) and temporal (30 days) window
155 does not fully capture the magnitude-dependent extent and duration of aftershock sequences. Large
156 earthquakes ($M_w \geq 8$) commonly generate aftershocks over fault lengths exceeding several hundred
157 kilometers and over timescales of months to years, whereas smaller $M_w 7$ events typically exhibit
158 more compact and shorter-lived sequences. As a result, the adopted window may include background
159 seismicity for lower-magnitude mainshocks while partially truncating the aftershock sequences of the
160 largest events. However, because the same spatiotemporal criteria are applied uniformly to all events,
161 this approach provides a consistent, reproducible measure of *relative* aftershock productivity across
162 tectonic settings. The objective of this study is not to estimate the absolute number of triggered
163 earthquakes, but to quantify comparative productivity scaling and systematic offsets among tectonic
164 domains under a common observational framework. Because the analysis focuses on relative
165 productivity scaling and inter-class comparisons rather than absolute rates, potential long-term
166 improvements in network sensitivity primarily affect background detection levels and do not alter the
167 observed magnitude dependence or tectonic offsets. Any residual temporal variations are therefore
168 expected to contribute only second-order noise to the analysis. Accordingly, the productivity measure
169 adopted here should be interpreted as a standardized empirical proxy that captures relative triggering
170 efficiency across earthquakes and tectonic environments, rather than as a direct estimate of ETAS
171 branching ratios or background-independent triggering rates.

172 To evaluate the robustness of our results with respect to the adopted spatiotemporal window, we
173 performed a sensitivity analysis using alternative search radii and time windows. Specifically,
174 aftershock productivity was recomputed using combinations of spatial radii $r = 100$ km, 200 km, and
175 300 km, and temporal windows $t = 7$ days, 30 days, and 90 days. For each configuration, we repeated
176 the magnitude–productivity regressions and compared the resulting slopes and intercepts across
177 tectonic classes.



178 The sensitivity tests show that while absolute productivity values vary with r and t , the key results of
179 this study remain stable: (i) the M_w –productivity slope is nearly invariant across window choices,
180 and (ii) systematic intercept differences between subduction, other plate-boundary, and intraplate
181 earthquakes persist for all tested configurations. This confirms that the observed magnitude scaling
182 and tectonic offsets are not artifacts of a particular spatiotemporal window choice, but reflect robust,
183 first-order properties of global aftershock productivity.

184 Mainshocks occurring deeper than 100 km were retained but explicitly tracked for depth-dependent
185 analyses. Aftershocks were not declustered, as the objective of this study is to characterize the full
186 cascading productivity of each large earthquake. In this study, the term aftershock productivity is used
187 in an operational and observational sense, defined as the number of cataloged earthquakes exceeding
188 a fixed magnitude threshold within a prescribed space–time window following each mainshock. This
189 definition differs from the formal ETAS productivity parameter, which represents the expected
190 number of directly triggered offspring events in an idealized branching process and depends explicitly
191 on magnitude-dependent spatial and temporal kernels. However, because some $M_w \geq 7.0$ earthquakes
192 may themselves occur within the aftershock sequence of an earlier, larger event, treating all $M_w \geq$
193 7.0 earthquakes as independent mainshocks may introduce statistical dependence and double
194 counting of triggered events. To ensure statistical independence of the analyzed mainshocks, we
195 explicitly distinguish between descriptive and inferential uses of the $M_w \geq 7.0$ catalog. All $M_w \geq 7.0$
196 earthquakes are retained when illustrating spatial distributions and global seismotectonic patterns.
197 However, for all analyses that assume independent triggering—including magnitude–productivity
198 regressions, correlation analyses, and hypothesis testing—we restrict the dataset to a subset of
199 independent mainshocks. To explicitly address this issue, we identify and flag all $M_w \geq 7.0$ events
200 that occur within the spatiotemporal aftershock window ($r \leq 200$ km, $t \leq 30$ days) of a preceding
201 larger mainshock. These events are retained in the catalogue for descriptive analyses, but are excluded
202 from all regression, correlation, and hypothesis-testing procedures that assume statistical
203 independence of mainshocks. This filtering prevents double counting of triggered seismicity and



204 ensures that each aftershock sequence is uniquely associated with a single causative mainshock in all
205 statistical analyses. All statistical results reported in following Sections are therefore based
206 exclusively on a filtered set of independent mainshocks. This filtering step also reduces the artificial
207 inflation of productivity estimates that would otherwise arise from overlapping aftershock sequences
208 of temporally clustered large earthquakes.

209 For each mainshock, aftershock productivity N was defined as the total number of earthquakes
210 satisfying:

- 211 • $M_w\text{-after} \geq 4.5$
- 212 • $0 \leq \Delta t \leq 30$ days
- 213 • hypocentral distance ≤ 200 km

214 To regularize the distribution and avoid zero-count issues, we analyzed productivity in log-space
215 using:

216

$$217 \log_{10}(N + 1) \tag{1}$$

218

219 The use of the $\log_{10}(N+1)$ transformation follows common practice in aftershock and triggering
220 studies, where productivity distributions are strongly right-skewed and may include zero-count cases.

221 Excluding mainshocks with no detected aftershocks would introduce a systematic bias toward more
222 productive events and artificially inflate productivity estimates, particularly for intraplate
223 earthquakes. The $\log(N+1)$ formulation allows all mainshocks to be retained while preserving relative
224 scaling relationships. Because any truncation effects associated with the fixed window scale
225 monotonically with mainshock magnitude, they primarily affect the intercept of the productivity
226 relation rather than its slope, and therefore do not invalidate comparative analyses of scaling behavior
227 across tectonic classes.

228 This transformation preserves relative scaling while stabilizing variance and enabling the use of
229 standard linear regression and parametric statistical tests.



230 To classify each mainshock into tectonic domains, we used the PB2002 global plate-boundary model
231 (Bird, 2003), including subduction interfaces, transform boundaries, and divergent boundaries. The
232 PB2002 dataset was projected into a metric coordinate system (EPSG:3857) to compute distances in
233 meters along the Earth's surface.

234 For each event we calculated the minimum distance to the nearest plate boundary:

235

$$236 \quad d_{PB} = \min_i [\text{dist}(\text{mainshock}, PB_i)] \quad (2)$$

237

238 Tectonic classes were defined as:

- 239 • Subduction – events located ≤ 200 km from a PB2002 subduction interface,
- 240 • Other plate boundary – events located ≤ 200 km from any non-subduction plate boundary,
- 241 • Intraplate/Crustal – events located > 200 km from any PB2002 boundary.

242 This three-class scheme is consistent with global seismotectonic frameworks and allows tectonic
243 setting to be treated as a categorical variable in subsequent analyses.

244 To quantify the dependence of aftershock productivity on mainshock magnitude, we performed
245 ordinary least squares (OLS) regressions of the form

246

$$247 \quad \log_{10}(N + 1) = a + b M_w \quad (3)$$

248

249 computed independently for each tectonic class and for the full global sample. For each regression
250 we estimated:

- 251 • slope b ,
- 252 • intercept a ,
- 253 • standard errors and p-values,
- 254 • coefficient of determination R^2 .



255 These regressions provide both a global magnitude–productivity scaling and class-specific offsets. To
256 further verify temporal robustness, we repeated the magnitude–productivity analysis for different sub-
257 periods of the catalog and found consistent slopes and intercept ordering among tectonic classes. This
258 confirms that the observed relationships are stable through time and not driven by temporal changes
259 in catalog quality. In this sense, our results provide global empirical constraints on the magnitude
260 scaling and tectonic modulation of aftershock productivity that can inform, but do not replace, the
261 parameterization of physics-based or ETAS-type seismicity models. The regression residuals,

262

$$263 \quad \varepsilon = \log_{10}(N + 1) - (a + b Mw) \quad (4)$$

264

265 were then used to examine secondary controls from depth and distance to plate boundaries after
266 removing the primary M_w dependence.

267 To formally test whether aftershock productivity differs among tectonic domains, we applied both
268 parametric and non-parametric statistics:

- 269
- 270 1. One-way ANOVA on $\log_{10}(N + 1)$ across the three tectonic classes;
 - 271 2. Kruskal–Wallis tests as a distribution-free counterpart.

272 These statistical tests are used here as complementary diagnostics to support patterns already evident
273 in the regression analyses and distributional comparisons. Given the limited sample size and the
274 intrinsic variability of aftershock sequences, p-values are interpreted cautiously and in conjunction
275 with effect sizes, confidence intervals, and physical consistency across multiple independent
276 analyses. Where global tests indicated significant differences, we performed post-hoc pairwise
277 comparisons:

- 278 • Tukey’s honestly significant difference (HSD) test following ANOVA,
- Dunn’s test with Holm correction following Kruskal–Wallis.



279 We applied the same framework both to $\log_{10}(N + 1)$ and to regression residuals, to distinguish
280 between differences driven directly by magnitude scaling and those related to additional source- or
281 environment-dependent effects.

282 To assess how depth and plate-boundary proximity modulate aftershock productivity beyond
283 magnitude and tectonic class, we examined relationships between productivity (and residuals) and:

- 284 • mainshock depth,
- 285 • distance to the nearest plate boundary d_{PB} .

286 We computed:

- 287 • scatter plots of $\log_{10}(N + 1)$ and residuals versus depth and d_{PB} ,
- 288 • locally weighted regression (LOWESS) curves to highlight non-linear trends,
- 289 • binned statistics in distance classes (e.g., 0–50 km, 50–150 km, >150 km),
- 290 • distributional summaries (violin, box, and swarm plots) of d_{PB} , N , $\log_{10}(N + 1)$, e residuals
291 for each tectonic class.

292 These analyses allow us to quantify whether depth and plate-boundary distance introduce systematic,
293 magnitude-normalized trends in aftershock productivity.

294 To explore how magnitude, depth, plate-boundary distance, productivity, and residuals co-vary in a
295 multivariate sense, we computed:

- 296 • Pearson correlation matrices among all key variables,
- 297 • pairwise joint distributions (pairplots) with kernel density estimates,
- 298 • two-dimensional Mw–depth productivity maps, where median $\log_{10}(N + 1)$ was evaluated
299 in Mw–depth bins.

300 These multivariate diagnostics complement the regression-based analysis and help identify whether
301 any additional structure remains unexplained by magnitude and tectonic setting alone.

302

303



304 **3. Results**

305 The global catalogue of 561 $M_w \geq 7$ earthquakes displays a clear spatial clustering along major plate
306 boundaries, with subduction megathrusts dominating the western Pacific, South America, and
307 Indonesia, while intraplate and crustal events are comparatively sparse and regionally localized
308 (Figure 1). The three tectonic classes—subduction, other plate-boundary, and intraplate/crustal—
309 show distinct geographical patterns consistent with global plate kinematics (Bird, 2003; Kagan &
310 Jackson, 2014).

311 Across all tectonic settings, aftershock productivity increases systematically with mainshock
312 magnitude. Scatterplots with OLS regressions (Figure 2) show robust positive slopes in each tectonic
313 class, with limited scatter at the highest magnitudes ($M_w \geq 8.5$). A direct comparison of the three
314 regression lines (Figure 3) demonstrates broadly similar slopes ($b \approx 0.76\text{--}0.81$), while intercepts
315 differ, indicating higher aftershock productivity in subduction zones for a given M_w . Table 1 reports
316 regression coefficients and R^2 values.

317 These results confirm a universal magnitude scaling, consistent with prior global studies (Utsu, 1970;
318 Helmstetter, 2003; Shearer, 2012; van der Elst & Shaw, 2015), but highlight systematic offsets
319 controlled by tectonic setting.

320 Figure 4 shows aftershock productivity as a function of mainshock depth. Subduction and boundary
321 events exhibit mild decreases at depths $>50\text{--}60$ km, while intraplate events display more gradual,
322 heterogeneous trends. Depth explains only modest variance in productivity relative to magnitude.

323 Figure 5 examines the distance to the nearest PB2002 plate boundary. Subduction and other boundary
324 events cluster tightly within <150 km of a plate boundary, reflecting their tectonic context, while
325 intraplate events span distances $>1,000$ km. Only the intraplate class shows a weak but systematic
326 decrease in productivity at intermediate distances (200–1,200 km), though scatter remains high. This
327 suggests that continental intraplate stress regimes may influence rupture fragmentation and secondary
328 triggering (Scholz, 2019; Craig et al., 2016).



329 To isolate the effects of depth and tectonic setting from the dominant M_w scaling, we analyze
330 residuals from class-specific regressions (Table 1). Residuals vs depth (Figure 6) show small, non-
331 monotonic trends with amplitudes <0.2 log units, indicating only weak depth dependence after
332 magnitude normalization.

333 Residuals vs distance to plate boundaries (Figure 7) again show negligible systematic variations for
334 subduction and other boundary events, whereas intraplate events exhibit a shallow minimum at ~ 200 –
335 300 km. Overall, residual amplitudes remain within ± 0.5 log units, confirming that M_w and tectonic
336 setting dominate productivity patterns.

337 Statistical tests provide independent confirmation of patterns identified through regression and
338 distributional analyses, rather than serving as the primary basis for interpretation. ANOVA and
339 Kruskal–Wallis tests (Table 2) indicate significant differences among classes for $\log_{10}(N+1)$ but not
340 for residuals. Tukey and Dunn post-hoc tests (Table 3) show that subduction differs significantly from
341 both other classes, while boundary vs intraplate differences are not significant—again consistent with
342 Figure 3.

343 Violin plots of distance to PB2002 boundaries (Figure 8) illustrate the expected separation among
344 tectonic classes: subduction events occur closest to boundaries, boundary-other events at intermediate
345 distances, and intraplate events farthest away (often $>1,000$ km).

346 Raw aftershock counts (Figure 9) differ substantially across classes, with subduction zones hosting
347 the highest absolute numbers and intraplate earthquakes showing both lower medians and greater
348 variability. However, when transformed to $\log_{10}(N+1)$ (Figure 10), the distributions become more
349 comparable, emphasizing the multiplicative nature of aftershock productivity and its dependence on
350 M_w .

351 Residual distributions (Figure 11) demonstrate that, once normalized for M_w , differences among
352 tectonic classes are strongly reduced, consistent with statistical tests (Tables 2–3).

353 The Pearson correlation matrix (Figure 12) shows that M_w is the dominant predictor of aftershock
354 productivity ($r \approx 0.48$ with $\log_{10}(N+1)$); depth and distance to boundaries display weak correlations



355 ($|r| < 0.13$). Residuals remain strongly correlated with $\log_{10}(N+1)$ due to shared variance from Mw-
356 regression uncertainty.

357 The multidimensional pairplot (Figure 13) highlights the strong clustering by tectonic class and
358 confirms that depth and distance partly separate the three groups. Nonetheless, their impact on
359 aftershock productivity is secondary to magnitude and tectonic class.

360 The Mw–depth heatmap (Figure 14) synthesizes the two-dimensional structure of aftershock
361 productivity. Median $\log_{10}(N+1)$ increases sharply with magnitude across all depths. Depth variations
362 appear only at second order: shallow events (0–40 km) are slightly more productive, whereas deep
363 events (>60 km) produce fewer aftershocks for the same Mw. These patterns reinforce the conclusion
364 that Mw and tectonic setting are the primary first-order controls on global aftershock productivity.
365 Accordingly, the robustness of the results is established through the convergence of multiple lines of
366 evidence—regression scaling, residual behavior, distributional consistency, and multivariate
367 structure—rather than reliance on any single statistical test.

368 Across all analyses, three robust conclusions emerge:

- 369 1. Magnitude is the dominant global control, governing the first-order scaling of aftershock
370 productivity and explaining most of the variance in $\log_{10}(N+1)$. The near-linear Mw–
371 productivity relationship (Figures 2–3; Table 1) is globally consistent across tectonic
372 environments.
- 373 2. Tectonic setting exerts a strong secondary influence, primarily manifested as systematic
374 differences in intercept (baseline productivity). At the same magnitude, subduction
375 megathrust earthquakes produce substantially more aftershocks than other plate-boundary
376 events, which in turn exceed intraplate/crustal earthquakes (Figures 2–4; Table 2).
- 377 3. Depth and distance exert weaker, context-dependent influences, becoming significant mainly
378 for deeper (≥ 40 –60 km) or intraplate events. Productivity and regression residuals decrease
379 systematically with depth (Figures 4 & 6), while distance to the nearest plate boundary
380 modulates scatter primarily for intraplate earthquakes (Figures 5 & 7). Correlation matrices



381 and multivariate distributions (Figures 12–13) confirm that these parameters contribute only
382 modestly to global variance relative to M_w and tectonic setting.

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384

385 **4. Discussion**

386 Our global analysis reveals a remarkably consistent scaling of aftershock productivity with
387 mainshock magnitude, alongside systematic differences associated with tectonic environment.

388 Together, these findings clarify long-standing ambiguities in the interpretation of global aftershock
389 statistics and provide a unified physical framework for understanding why earthquakes of similar
390 magnitude may produce vastly different aftershock sequences.

391 The near-linear M_w –productivity scaling identified in Figures 2–3 confirms that magnitude is the
392 dominant global predictor of aftershock productivity. The slope values ($b \approx 0.76$ – 0.81) fall within the
393 range predicted by rate-and-state models and observed in regional studies (e.g., Helmstetter 2003;
394 Nandan et al., 2017; Page et al., 2016), supporting the interpretation that the number of triggered
395 events is fundamentally governed by the size of the stress perturbation and the effective size of the
396 failure zone.

397 The fact that the slope is essentially invariant across tectonic settings reinforces the idea that the
398 magnitude scaling reflects a universal triggering mechanism, likely controlled by rupture geometry,
399 stress drop, and fault-zone rheology (Kanamori & Anderson, 1975; Scholz, 2019). This invariance
400 also explains why ETAS productivity parameters tend to cluster globally, despite strong regional
401 differences in background seismicity and faulting style.

402 Although magnitude determines the first-order scaling, Figures 2–4 and Tables 1–2 show that tectonic
403 setting produces clear, reproducible offsets in baseline productivity. For a given M_w :

- 404 • Subduction earthquakes are the most productive;
- 405 • Other plate-boundary earthquakes show intermediate productivity;
- 406 • Intraplate/crustal earthquakes systematically produce fewer aftershocks.



407 These distinctions likely arise from persistent physical differences among tectonic domains.
408 Subduction megathrusts are characterized by high degrees of structural heterogeneity, large fault-
409 zone widths, elevated pore-fluid pressures, and high thermal gradients—conditions favorable to
410 sustained triggering and efficient stress transfer (Lay & Kanamori, 1981; Hayes et al., 2012). In
411 contrast, intraplate faults tend to be more isolated, colder, and less fractured, reducing the density of
412 failure-ready asperities.

413 The fact that tectonic setting expresses itself primarily through intercept shifts rather than slope
414 changes suggests that the physical mechanisms controlling the absolute number of aftershocks differ
415 among tectonic domains, but the magnitude dependence remains universal. This reconciles
416 contrasting findings in earlier studies, which variously emphasized tectonic differences (e.g., Das &
417 Henry 2003; Scholz 2019) or magnitude-controlled universality (e.g., Felzer et al., 2004).

418 Figures 4–5 show that depth and distance to the nearest plate boundary have much weaker effects,
419 but they are not negligible. Depth-dependent productivity decay—most evident below 40–60 km—
420 corroborates earlier findings linking aftershock rates to lithospheric temperature, confining pressure,
421 and frictional stability (Sibson, 1982; Houston, 2015). The systematic decay of residuals with depth
422 (Figure 6) indicates that deeper ruptures increasingly occur in conditions that inhibit secondary
423 failure, such as higher normal stresses and more ductile rheology.

424 Distance to plate boundaries primarily affects intraplate events (Figures 7–8), likely reflecting the
425 decreasing availability of optimally oriented faults and the relative mechanical isolation of continental
426 interiors. Yet correlations remain weak (Figure 12), confirming that distance-based effects are
427 secondary compared to consistently strong controls from M_w and tectonic setting.

428 These results have direct implications for global hazard modeling, operational aftershock forecasting,
429 and ETAS parameterization.

430 1. Magnitude-dependent triggering can be modeled globally with a single slope, reducing
431 epistemic uncertainty and simplifying global forecasting frameworks.



432 2. Tectonic-class-specific intercepts provide a natural way to introduce physically grounded
433 regionalization without overfitting.

434 3. Depth-dependent corrections may be necessary for intermediate- and deep-focus earthquakes,
435 which are systematically underproductive relative to crustal ruptures.

436 4. The weak influence of distance to plate boundaries confirms that intraplate sequence
437 productivity is inherently low, not simply the result of catalog bias.

438 Overall, our results bridge the gap between global-scale empirical patterns and the physical processes
439 that govern earthquake triggering across tectonic environments.

440

441

442 5. Conclusions

443 This study presents a global-scale, data-driven quantification of aftershock productivity that jointly
444 evaluates the roles of magnitude, tectonic setting, depth, and distance to plate boundaries using a
445 uniformly processed catalog of $M_w \geq 7$ earthquakes (1976–2024). Several robust conclusions
446 emerge:

447 1. Magnitude is the primary global control on aftershock productivity. The $M_w - \log_{10}(N+1)$
448 relation exhibits a consistent slope across tectonic settings, demonstrating universal scaling.

449 2. Tectonic setting exerts a strong secondary influence, expressed as systematic offsets among
450 subduction, other plate-boundary, and intraplate events. These offsets reflect persistent
451 physical differences in fault-zone properties and seismogenic conditions.

452 3. Depth and distance provide weaker, context-dependent modulation, with productivity
453 decreasing at depths >40 – 60 km and for intraplate events far from plate boundaries.

454 4. Residual analysis and multivariate correlations confirm that M_w and tectonic domain explain
455 the vast majority of global variance, whereas depth and distance contribute only modestly.

456 5. These findings establish a coherent, physically interpretable global framework for aftershock
457 productivity. They also provide practical guidance for improving global ETAS



458 parameterization, seismic hazard assessments, and rapid aftershock forecasts in future large
459 earthquakes.

460 The global separation of magnitude-driven scaling and tectonic-domain intercepts offers a promising
461 path toward hybrid physical–statistical models capable of capturing both universal and environment-
462 specific aspects of earthquake triggering.

463

464

465 **Data statement**

466 Earthquake origin times, locations, depths, and magnitudes were obtained from the U.S. Geological
467 Survey (USGS) ComCat earthquake catalog, accessed via the ComCat API
468 (<https://earthquake.usgs.gov/fdsnws/event/1/>; last accessed in 2025). The catalog was queried for
469 global earthquakes with $M_w \geq 7.0$ occurring between 1976 and 2024.

470 Plate boundary geometries used to classify earthquakes into tectonic settings were taken from the
471 PB2002 global plate boundary model (Bird, 2003), available at
472 <https://peterbird.name/oldFTP/PB2002/> (last accessed in 2025).

473 All data processing, statistical analyses, and figure generation were performed using custom Python
474 scripts developed by the authors. Calculations relied on open-source Python libraries including
475 NumPy, Pandas, SciPy, Statsmodels, GeoPandas, Matplotlib, and Seaborn. No proprietary software
476 or restricted-access datasets were used in this study.

477

478 **Declaration of Competing Interests**

479 The authors declare no competing interests.

480

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483 boundary datasets used in this study, whose sustained efforts make large-scale, reproducible



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485 software used for data processing, analysis, and visualization. This research received no specific grant
486 from any funding agency in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

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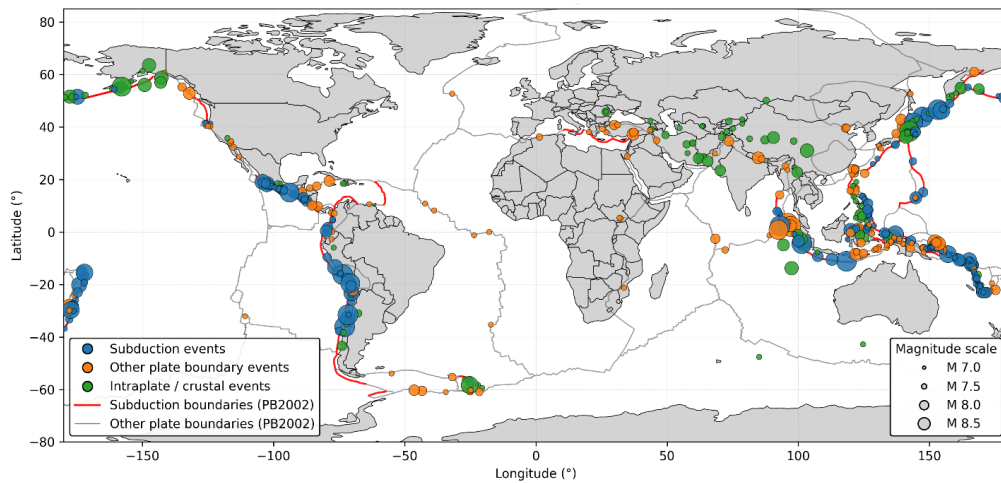
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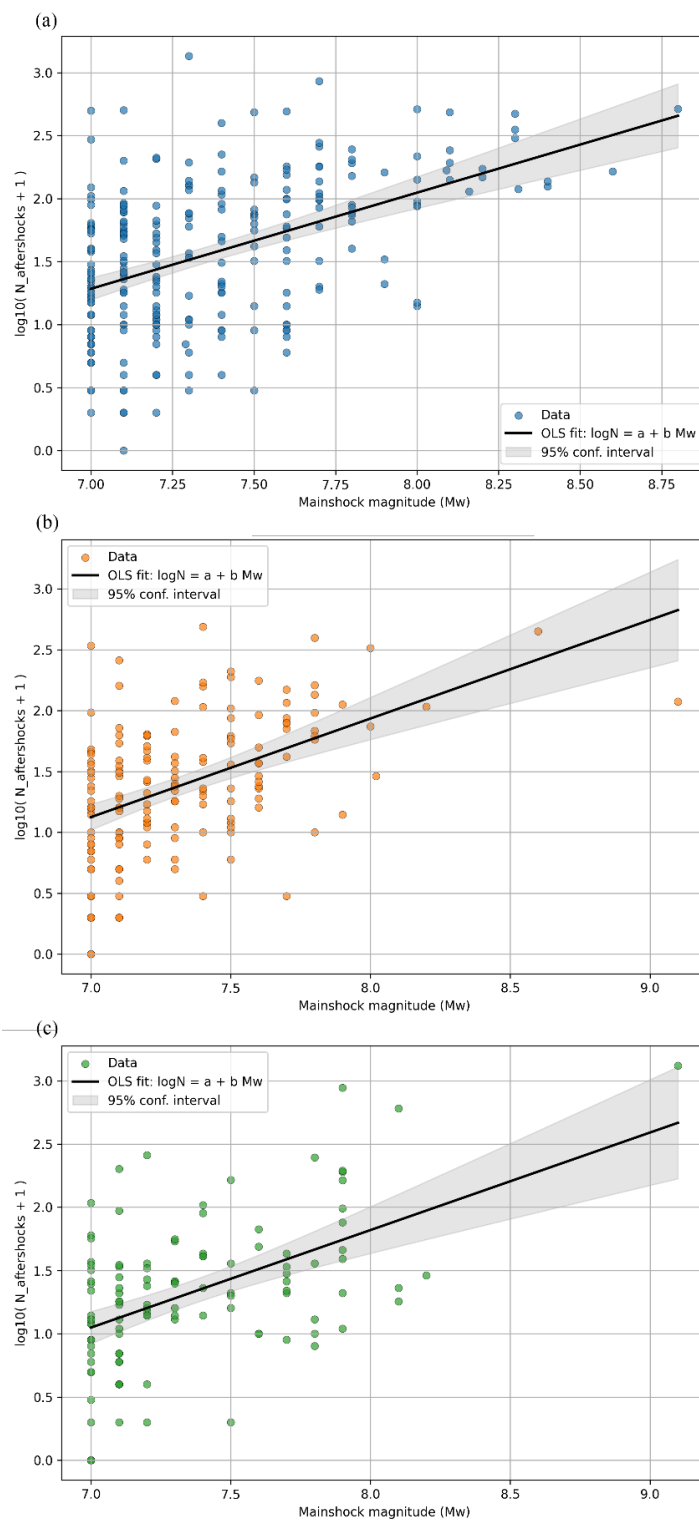


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595

596 **Figure 1.** Global distribution of $M_w \geq 7$ mainshocks considered in this study (1976–2024). Colors
597 indicate tectonic setting—subduction megathrusts (blue), other plate-boundary events (orange), and
598 intraplate/crustal earthquakes (green)—with symbol size proportional to mainshock magnitude. Plate
599 boundaries from PB2002 (red = subduction, grey = other boundary types) are shown for reference.

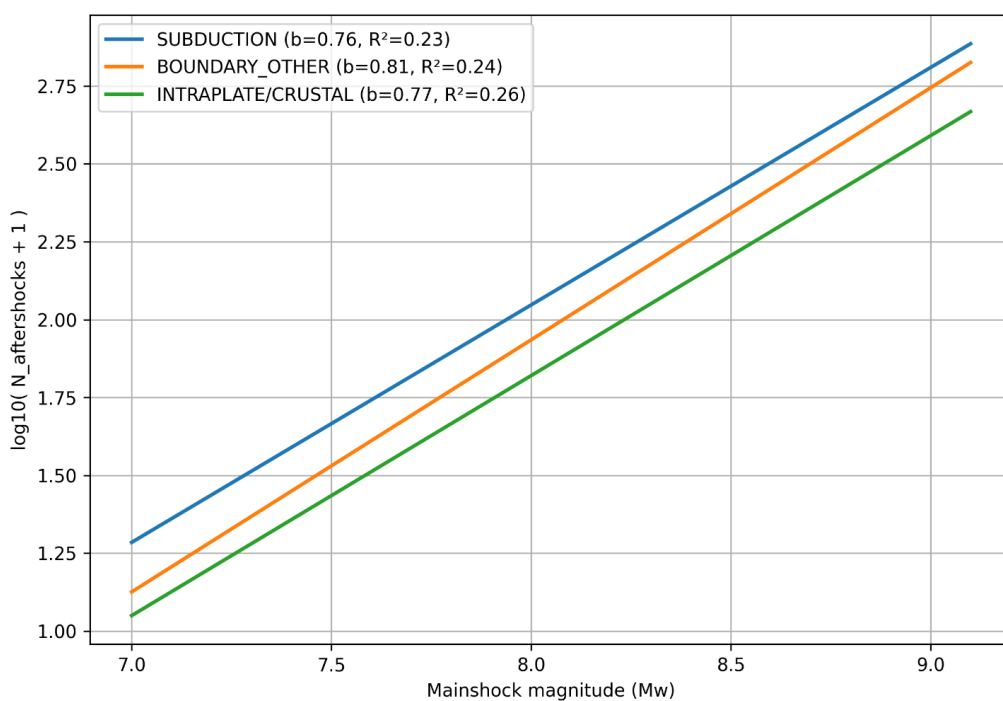




601 **Figure 2.** *Aftershock productivity as a function of mainshock moment magnitude for the three tectonic*
602 *settings. Panels show $\log_{10}(N \text{ aftershocks} + 1)$ versus M_w for: (a) subduction, (b) other plate-*
603 *boundary, and (c) intraplate/crustal earthquakes. Each panel includes an ordinary-least-squares*
604 *(OLS) regression $\log_{10}(N + 1) = a + bM_w$ (black line) with 95% confidence interval (grey shading).*
605 *Systematic differences in intercept and slope highlight distinct productivity behaviors across tectonic*
606 *environments.*

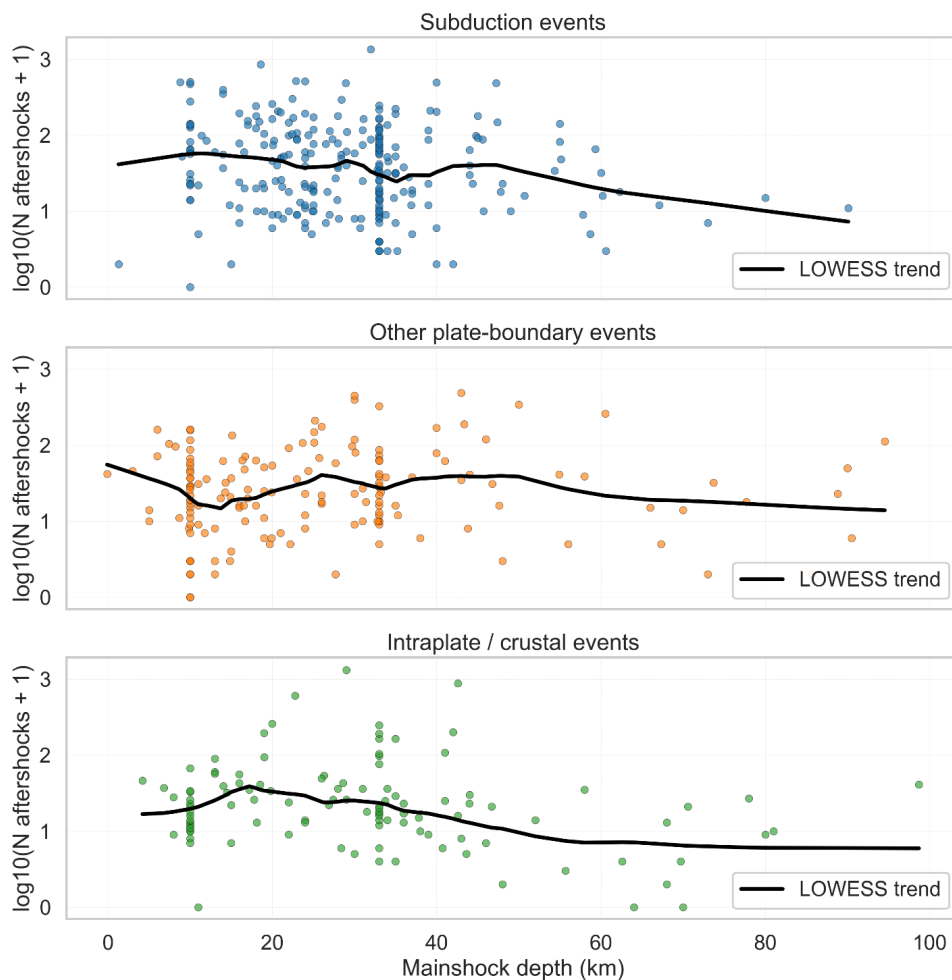


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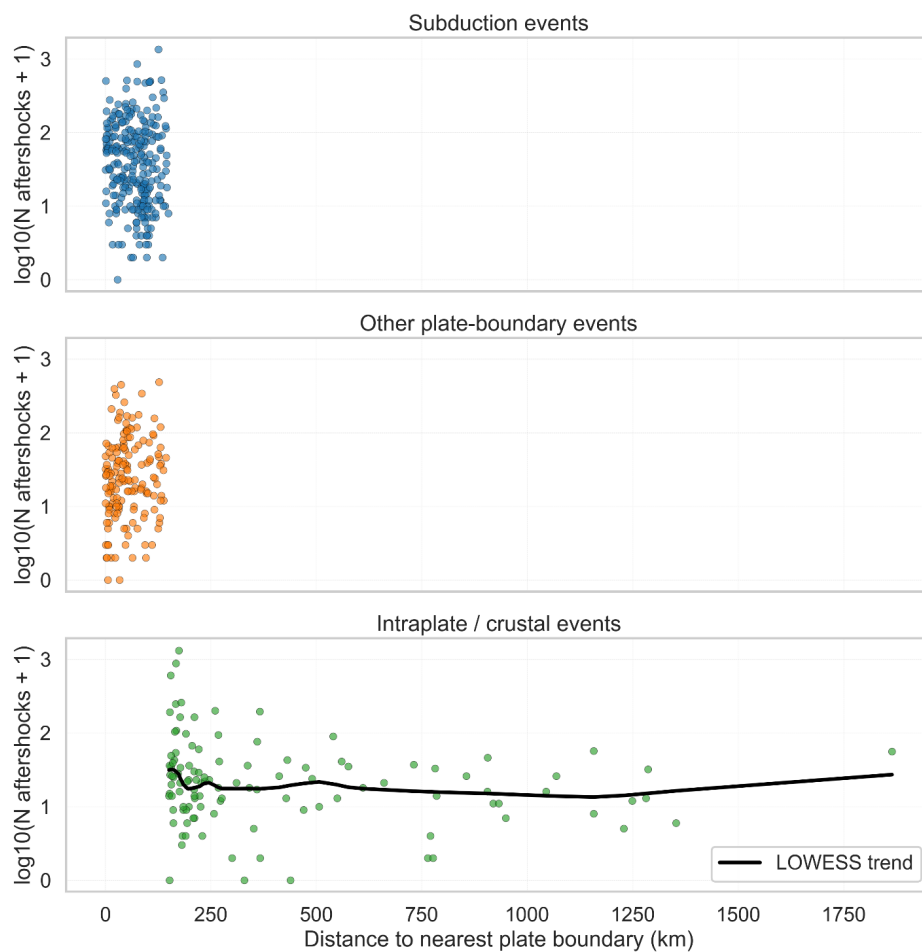
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609 **Figure 3.** Comparison of OLS regression lines for aftershock productivity across the three tectonic
610 settings. Regression curves (with slope b and R^2 reported in the legend) summarize the scaling $\log_{10}(N$
611 $+ 1) = a + bMw$ for subduction, other plate-boundary, and intraplate/crustal earthquakes.
612 Subduction events exhibit the highest baseline productivity (largest intercept), whereas intraplate
613 events show the lowest.



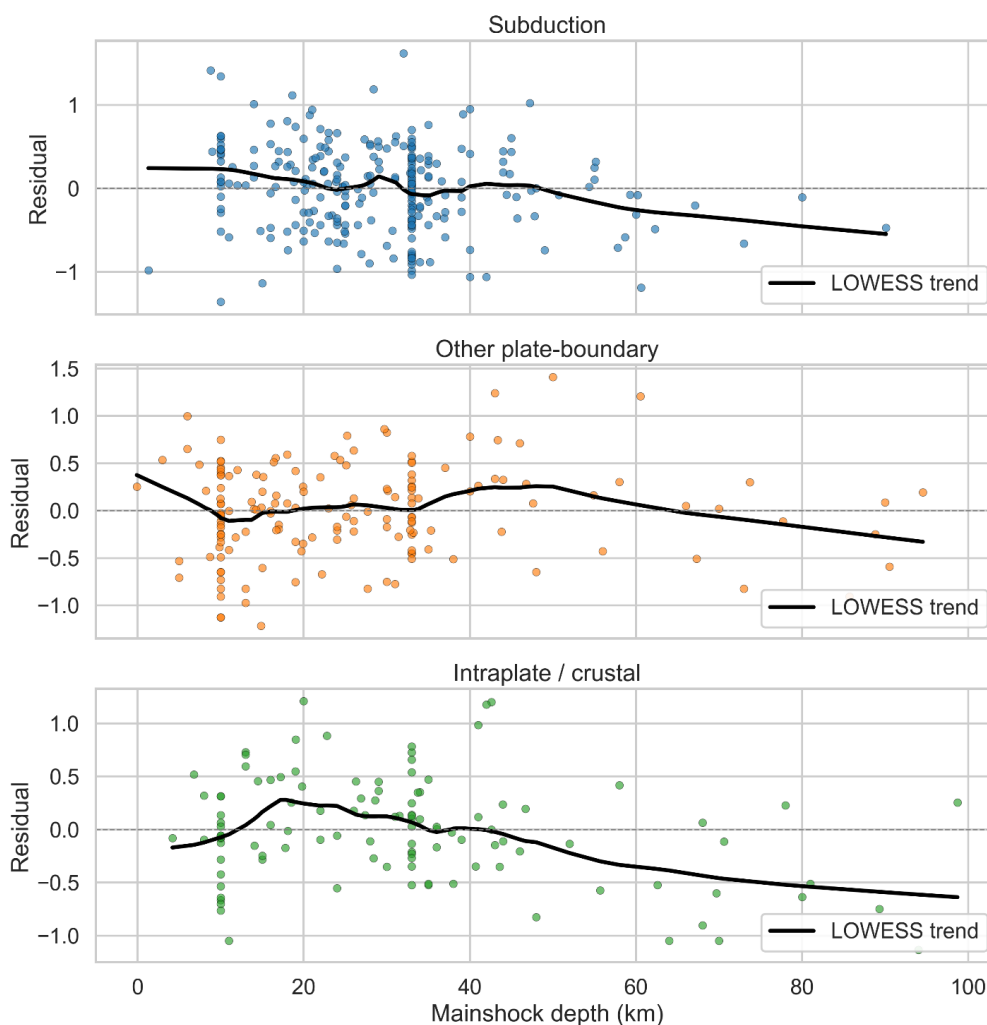
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615 **Figure 4.** *Aftershock productivity versus mainshock focal depth for the three tectonic settings. Scatter*
616 *points show $\log_{10}(N + 1)$ as a function of depth, with a LOWESS trend (black line) illustrating non-*
617 *parametric variations. All classes display weak depth dependence, with a slight decrease in*
618 *productivity for deeper events, especially >60 km.*



619

620 **Figure 5.** Aftershock productivity versus distance from the nearest PB2002 plate boundary. Panels
621 show $\log_{10}(N + 1)$ for the three tectonic environments. Subduction and other plate-boundary events
622 cluster within small distances (0–100 km), whereas intraplate events span >1500 km. A LOWESS
623 trend is shown only where data coverage permits (intraplate). Productivity decreases moderately with
624 increasing distance from plate boundaries for intraplate earthquakes.



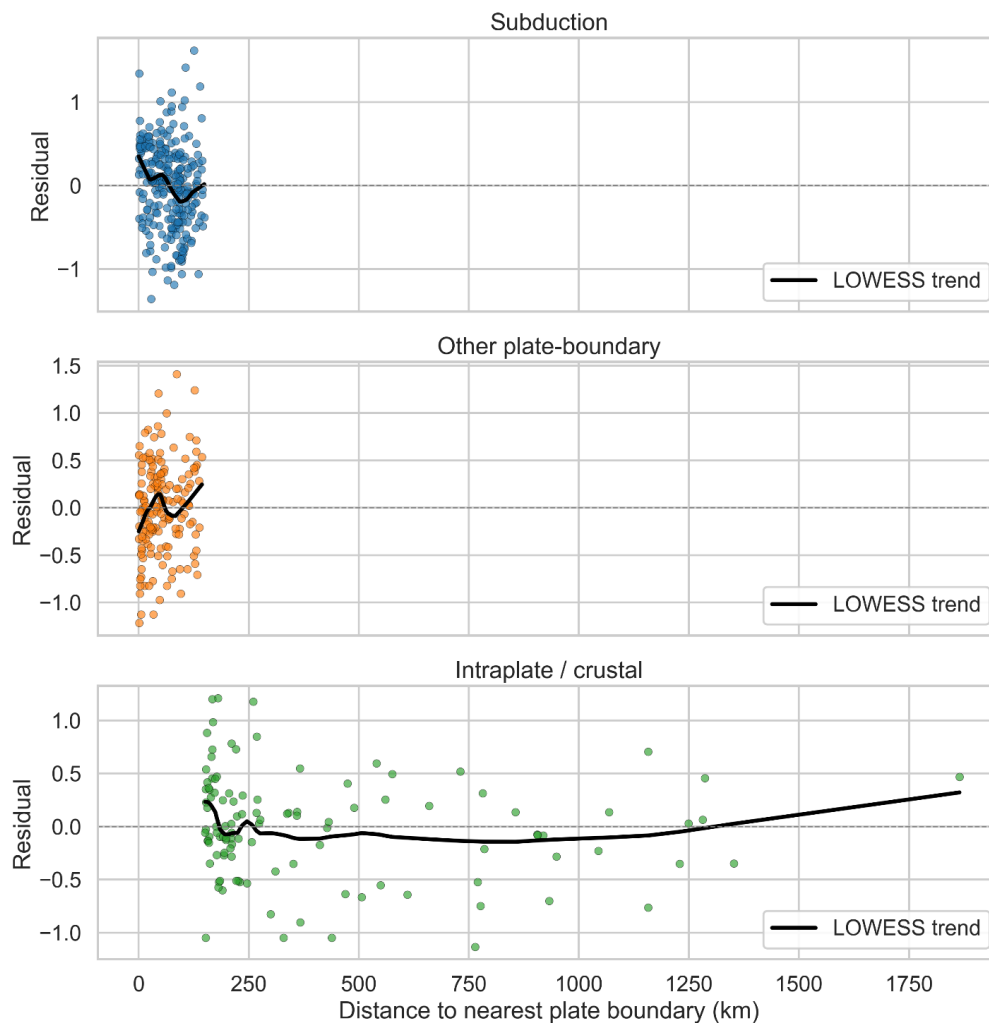
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626 **Figure 6.** Regression residuals (observed – predicted $\log_{10}(N + 1)$) versus mainshock focal depth.

627 LOWESS curves highlight depth-dependent deviations from the magnitude–productivity scaling.

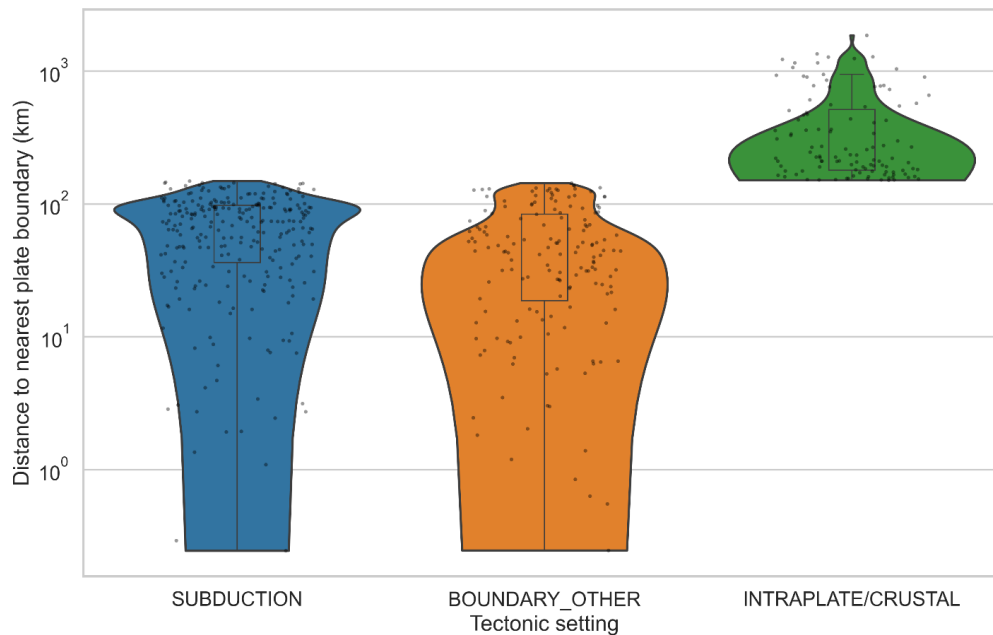
628 Residuals tend to be slightly positive at shallow depths in subduction and intraplate settings, and

629 decrease systematically at depths >60 km.



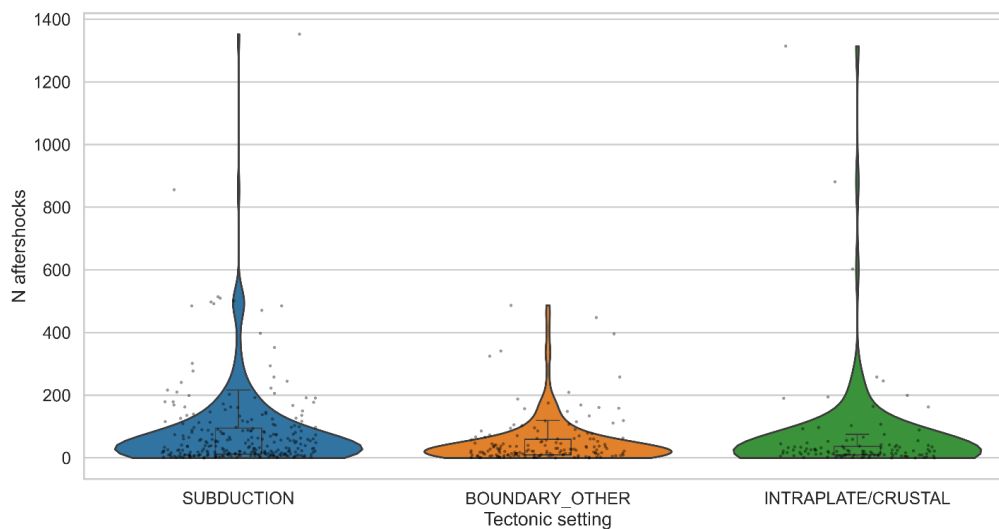
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631 **Figure 7.** Regression residuals versus distance to the nearest PB2002 plate boundary. Panels
632 illustrate deviations from the M_w -based scaling across tectonic settings. A mild decrease in residuals
633 with increasing distance is visible in the intraplate class, whereas boundary and subduction events
634 show limited variability because their distances cluster near zero.



635

636 **Figure 8.** *Distribution of mainshock distances to plate boundaries for the three tectonic classes. Violin*
637 *plots display the full distribution with embedded boxplots. Subduction and other boundary events*
638 *occur predominantly within 100 km of plate boundaries, whereas intraplate earthquakes show a*
639 *broad distribution extending beyond 1500 km.*



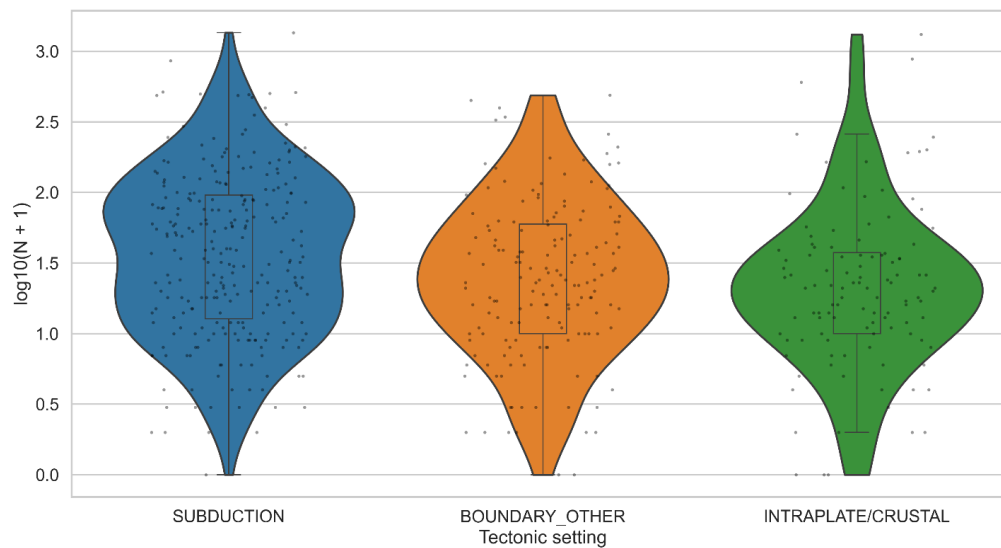
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641 **Figure 9.** *Distribution of raw aftershock counts N for the three tectonic settings. Violin plots show*
642 *that subduction earthquakes produce the largest number of aftershocks, followed by intraplate and*
643 *other plate-boundary events. Long-tailed distributions reflect occasional highly productive*
644 *sequences.*

645

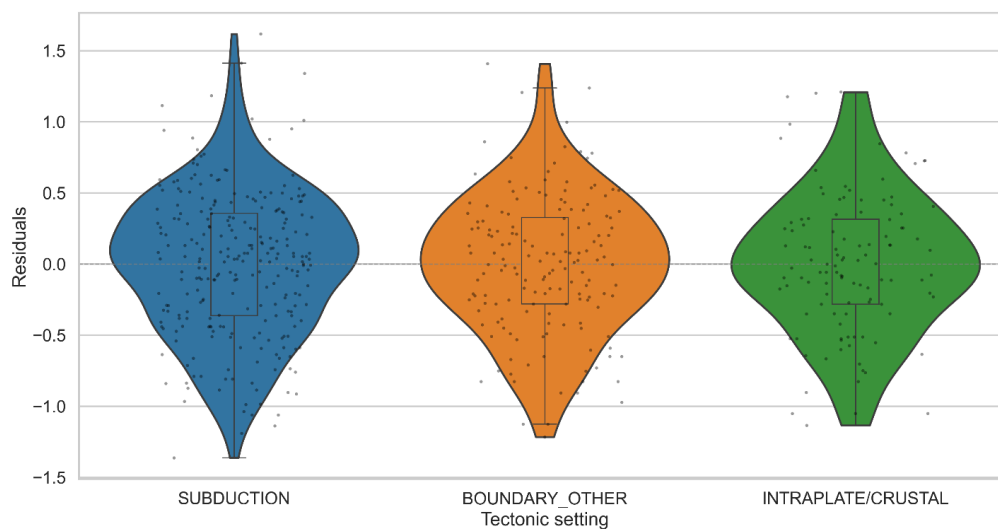


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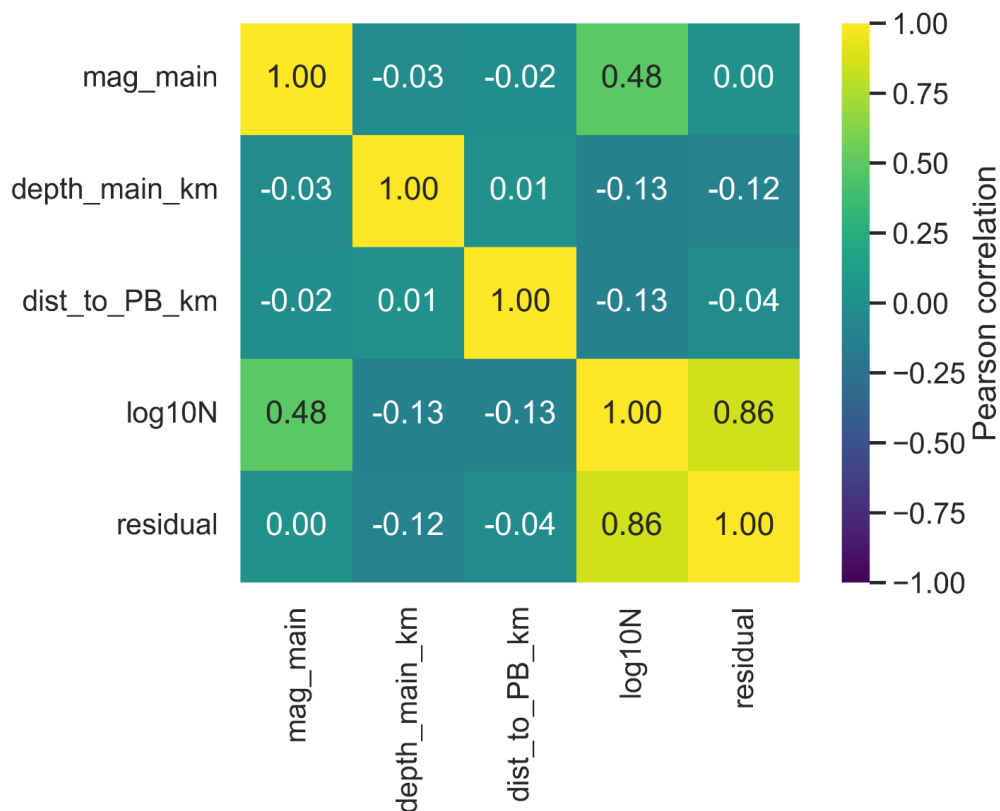
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648 **Figure 10.** *Distribution of $\log_{10}(N + 1)$ aftershock productivity across tectonic settings. Log-*
649 *transformed counts emphasize systematic differences in baseline productivity: subduction events*
650 *exhibit the highest median values, intraplate intermediate, and other plate-boundary the lowest.*



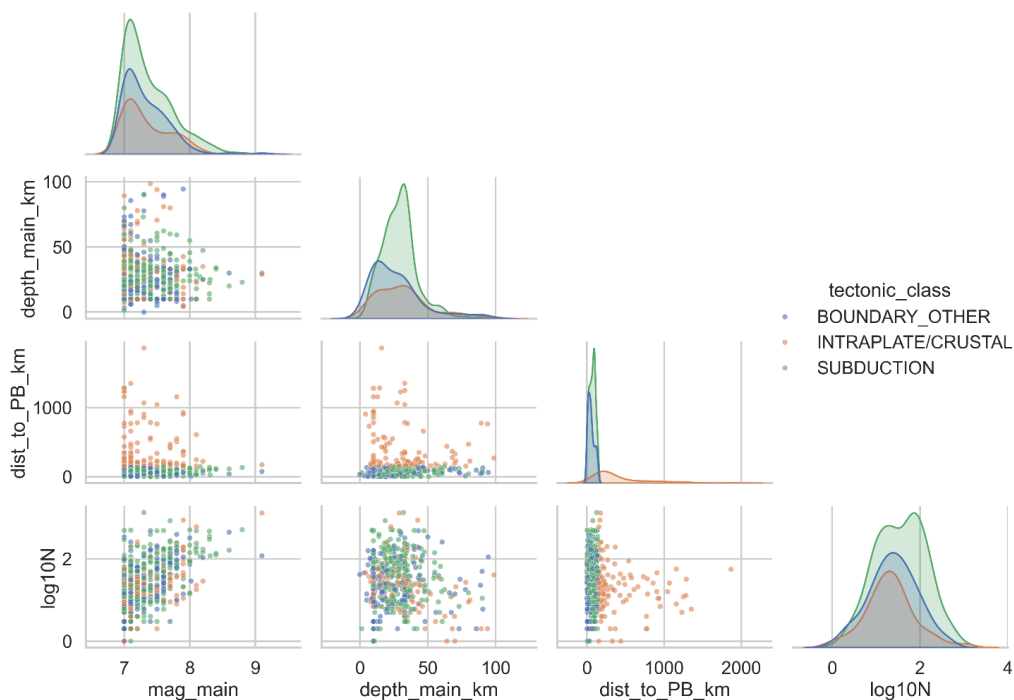
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652 **Figure 11.** *Distribution of regression residuals across the three tectonic settings. Violin plots show*
653 *that subduction earthquakes have slightly positive median residuals, consistent with higher-than-*
654 *predicted productivity. Boundary events cluster near zero, whereas intraplate events show a broader*
655 *spread with slightly negative tails.*



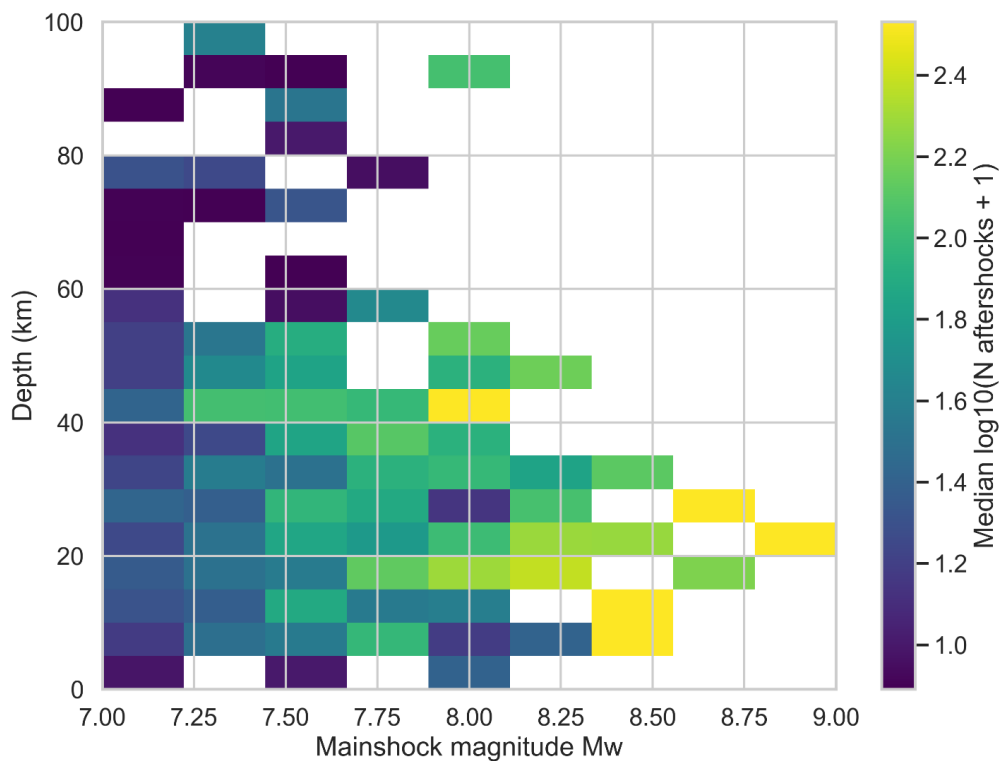
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657 **Figure 12.** *Pearson correlation matrix for key variables. Correlation coefficients among M_w , depth,*
 658 *distance to plate boundary, $\log_{10}(N + 1)$, and regression residuals reveal a strong M_w -productivity*
 659 *correlation and only weak associations with depth and distance, confirming magnitude as the*
 660 *dominant global control.*



661

662 **Figure 13.** Pairwise distribution of mainshock and aftershock sequence parameters. Joint and
663 marginal distributions of M_w , depth, distance, and $\log_{10}(N + 1)$, color-coded by tectonic setting. The
664 plots illustrate clustering of boundary events near plate interfaces, distinct depth ranges, and
665 consistent magnitude–productivity scaling across classes.



666

667 **Figure 14.** *M_w-depth heatmap of median aftershock productivity. Productivity ($\log_{10}(N + 1)$) is*
668 *averaged within bins of mainshock magnitude and focal depth. Higher productivity occurs for*
669 *shallow, large-magnitude earthquakes. White bins indicate sparse or absent data.*



670 **Table 1.** *OLS regression parameters for the magnitude–productivity scaling $\log_{10}(N + 1) = a +$*
671 *bMw. Reported values include intercept a, slope b, standard errors, confidence intervals, R², and*
672 *number of sequences in each tectonic class.*

Tectonic class	n	a (intercept)	SE(a)	b (slope)	SE(b)	R ²
SUBDUCTION	260	-4.0533	0.6388	0.7626	0.0867	0.2308
BOUNDARY_OTHER	160	-4.5423	0.8508	0.8097	0.1161	0.2354
INTRAPLATE/CRUSTAL	112	-4.3458	0.9196	0.7707	0.1249	0.2572

673



674 **Table 2.** *Statistical comparison of aftershock productivity across tectonic settings. Results include*
675 *one-way ANOVA on $\log_{10}(N + 1)$, Kruskal–Wallis test, and effect sizes, demonstrating significant*
676 *differences among the three classes.*

Test	Statistic	p-value	Significance	Notes
ANOVA ($\log_{10}(N+1)$)	F = 8.686	0.000194	Significant	Subduction differs
Kruskal–Wallis ($\log_{10}(N+1)$)	H = 16.866	0.000218	Significant	Consistent with ANOVA
ANOVA (residuals)	F = 0.000058	0.99994	Not significant	No residual differences
Kruskal–Wallis (residuals)	H = 0.046	0.9771	Not significant	Consistent with ANOVA

677



678 **Table 3.** *Post-hoc comparisons among tectonic settings. Tukey HSD (parametric) and Dunn's test*
 679 *with Holm correction (non-parametric) quantify pairwise differences in aftershock productivity*
 680 *between subduction, boundary, and intraplate earthquakes.*

Comparison	Method	p-value	Significance
SUBDUCTION vs BOUNDARY_OTHER	Tukey HSD	0.0066	Significant
SUBDUCTION vs INTRAPLATE/CRUSTAL	Tukey HSD	0.0007	Significant
BOUNDARY_OTHER vs INTRAPLATE/CRUSTAL	Tukey HSD	0.6418	Not significant
SUBDUCTION vs BOUNDARY_OTHER	Dunn Holm	0.0091	Significant
SUBDUCTION vs INTRAPLATE/CRUSTAL	Dunn Holm	0.00052	Significant
BOUNDARY_OTHER vs INTRAPLATE/CRUSTAL	Dunn Holm	0.25835	Not significant

681