

1 **Identification of Repeating Earthquakes:**
2 **Misconception of Waveform Similarity and a Physics-based Solution**

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9
10 **Key Points:**

- 11 • There is no simple relationship between cross-correlation coefficient (CC) and inter-event
12 separation.
- 13 • CC is affected by many factors and thus lacks the resolution to determine two events as
14 true repeating or just neighboring earthquakes.
- 15 • To reliably identify repeating earthquakes, we should rely on the precise estimation of
16 both rupture radius and inter-event separation.
17

18 **Abstract**

19 Identification of repeating earthquakes (repeaters) usually depends on waveform similarity
20 expressed as the corresponding cross-correlation coefficient (CC) above a prescribed threshold,
21 typically ranging from 0.70 to 0.98. However, the robustness and effectiveness of such a strategy
22 have never been thoroughly examined. In this study, we examine whether CC is a valid proxy for
23 repeater identification through both synthetic and real earthquake experiments. We reveal that
24 CC is controlled by not only the inter-event distance but also many other factors, including
25 station azimuth, epicentral distance, velocity structure, etc. Consequently, CC lacks the
26 resolution in identifying true repeaters. We propose a physics-based approach that considers both
27 inter-event separation and rupture radius. For an event pair to be true repeaters, their inter-event
28 separation must be smaller than the rupture radius of the larger event. Our results imply that a
29 systematic recheck of previously identified repeaters and associated interpretations/hypotheses
30 may be important and necessary.

31

32 **Plain Language Summary**

33 Repeating earthquakes (repeaters) are events that occur repeatedly on the same fault patch with
34 nearly identical waveforms. They provide important insights into a variety of geophysical
35 subjects such as fault behavior, subsurface structure change, inner core rotation, and nucleation
36 process of earthquake and landslide. The identification of repeaters is usually solely based on
37 waveform similarity, but the criteria can vary significantly from one case to another. With both
38 synthetic and real data, we find that waveform similarity is controlled by many factors, in
39 addition to inter-event distance. Therefore, a higher degree of waveform similarity does not
40 necessarily imply a smaller hypocenter separation, and vice versa. Our results undoubtedly
41 suggest that waveform similarity alone is insufficient to reliably identify true repeaters. We
42 propose a physics-based approach that considers both inter-event separation and earthquake
43 source dimension. For an event pair to be true repeaters, their inter-event separation must be
44 smaller than the rupture radius of the larger event. Our results imply that previously identified
45 repeaters and associated interpretations/hypotheses may be unreliable and hence need a
46 systematic reexamination.

47

48 **1. Introduction**

49 Repeating earthquakes (repeaters) are events that recurrently rupture the same fault patch with
50 the same focal mechanisms, often characterized by nearly identical waveforms (Uchida and
51 Bürgmann, 2019). These events are of great importance in many aspects of geophysics, such as
52 monitoring subtle temporal changes of crustal properties (e.g., Poupinet et al., 1984; Schaff and
53 Beroza, 2004; Sawazaki et al., 2015; Pacheco et al., 2017) and oceanic temperature (Wu et al.,
54 2020), estimating fault creep (e.g., Nadeau and Johnson, 1998; Uchida et al., 2003, 2006;
55 Matsubara et al., 2005; Yu, 2013; Materna et al., 2018), investigating inner core rotation (e.g., Li
56 and Richards, 2003; Zhang et al., 2005, 2008; Tkalčić et al., 2013), evaluating the precision of
57 earthquake locations (e.g., Li and Richards, 2003; Meier et al., 2004; Schaff and Richards, 2011;
58 Jiang et al., 2014), and providing insights into the nucleation process of earthquakes (Kato et al.,
59 2012; Kato and Nakagawa, 2014; Meng et al., 2015; Huang and Meng, 2018) and landslides
60 (Yamada et al., 2016).

61 Over the past few decades, repeaters are reported world-wide, in both tectonic and
62 nontectonic settings (Uchida and Bürgmann, 2019). The most commonly used scheme for
63 identifying repeaters is to examine waveform similarity by setting a threshold in the value of
64 cross-correlation coefficient (CC) between a waveform pair. The employed CC threshold is
65 somewhat arbitrary depending on the available data, ranging in 0.70–0.90 for regions with sparse
66 network coverage (usually with one channel/station), and 0.90–0.98 for areas with denser
67 instrumentation (usually using a minimum of two channels/stations, Table S1). With the
68 increasing computing power, detecting repeaters through waveform similarity has become a
69 routine process in seismology (e.g., Hotovec-Ellis and Jeffries, 2016; Tepp, 2018; Chamberlain
70 et al., 2018). However, to our best knowledge, the robustness and effectiveness of this classical
71 strategy have never been thoroughly examined. In early times, the lack of examination was
72 largely due to limited data availability (especially near-field observations) and/or poor waveform
73 quality. As the number of seismograph stations increases rapidly in recent years, such data
74 constraints no longer exist. Yet, many recent studies simply follow the conventional approach
75 without questioning the original assumption (Table S1).

76 The focus of this study, therefore, is to investigate whether waveform similarity is a valid
77 proxy for repeater identification. We first examine how the CC varies with inter-event separation
78 and uncover the overlooked factors through a large number of synthetic experiments. We then
79 illustrate that waveform similarity indeed lacks the resolution to determine whether two events
80 are true repeaters or not using a dense local borehole array data in Parkfield, California. To more
81 reliably identify repeating earthquakes, we propose a physics-based approach that considers both
82 inter-event separation and the rupture areas. We validate our approach using events occurred in
83 the Fox Creek area, Alberta, Canada, where earthquake source parameters are well constrained
84 by local stations.

85

86 **2. Synthetic Experiments**

87 Figure 1a illustrates the configuration of our synthetic experiments. We place one event (the
88 template event) at the centre of an array. Then we incrementally shift the other event (the
89 matched event) with the same focal mechanism in either north-south (Figure 1a) or vertical
90 direction (Figure 1b). The technical details of our experiment setup and CC calculation are
91 presented in the Supporting Information (Texts S1 and S2).

92

93 **2.1 Constraining Inter-event Separation Using Single-channel Data**

94 Single-channel CC has been used in numerous previous studies to infer the existence of
95 repeaters (Table S1), thus we first examine how the CC varies with source separation using
96 single-channel (i.e., E, N, or Z) data. In Figure 2a and 2b, we present the results of a
97 representative case, namely, a strike-slip earthquake (template event) at the depth of 3 km with a
98 station 5 km away from the epicenter.

99 For horizontal inter-event separation, our results indicate that single-channel waveforms can
100 have very different sensitivities (Figure 2a). In general, the CC value decreases with increasing
101 hypocentral separation. It quickly drops from 1 when the two sources are perfectly co-located to
102 <0.5 when the pair is ~ 1 km apart. Beyond that, the CC curves appear to fluctuate between 0.2
103 and 0.4 without a clear monotonic trend. This implies that using the CC value to constrain the

104 difference between two nearby hypocenters may not be ideal once the separation is on the order
105 of kilometers.

106 Another important point in Figure 2a is that the CC value may be strongly affected by the
107 combined effect of focal mechanism and relative position between the source and station. This
108 effect is best illustrated by Station 3 as the inter-event distance increases. For all 3 channels, the
109 CC value decreases when the matched event shifts northward from 0 to -1.3 km. Once passing
110 the -1.3 km mark, the CC value has a sudden drop on both E and Z channels but continues to
111 increase on the N channel. This unexpected result happens when Station 3 is located very close
112 to one of the assumed nodal planes (Figure 1a). As the matched event shifts northward, Station
113 3's position moves across the nodal plane and therefore causes polarity reversal on the Z and E
114 channels. When the inter-event separation reaches -2.6 km, Station 3 is nearly of equal distance
115 to both the template and matched events (Figure 1a), leading to identical waveforms on the N
116 channel but reversed shapes on the other two channels (Figure S1). Consequently, the final
117 (maximum) CC values would be 1 for the N channel (taken when the two P phases coincide) and
118 ~ 0.5 – 0.6 for the Z and E channels (taken when the two P phases are offset by half a cycle), even
119 though the two events are 2.6 km apart. We have tested other types of focal mechanisms (pure
120 normal or thrust-faulting) and the profound effect remains (Figure S2).

121 Unlike the cases of horizontal separation, the CC curves obtained with different channels and
122 stations overall show similar trends when the two sources are vertically apart (Figure 2b), hinting
123 that using the CC value to constrain the vertical inter-event separation is probably independent of
124 data channel and station azimuth. Especially for the vertical channel, stations with different
125 azimuths can have identical sensitivities to the inter-event separation when the focal mechanism
126 is pure strike-slip (Figure 2b, right panel). Notice that the CC curves derived from the E and N
127 channels of Station 1 are identical to those from the N and E channels of Station 3, respectively
128 (Figure 2b), due to the symmetrical station location on the focal sphere (Figure 1a). Results of
129 these tests once again suggest that a larger CC does not necessarily represent a larger separation
130 once the vertical separation exceeds a certain threshold (~ 0.5 km). We also find that results from
131 different focal mechanisms are comparable (Figure S2). Last but not the least, the CC value
132 generally drops much faster with increasing vertical source separation (Figure 2a vs. 2b) as a
133 result of more minor discrepancies between waveforms. In other words, the CC seems to be
134 much more sensitive to capture the vertical source shift than the horizontal.

135 The simple tests above demonstrate that, in addition to inter-event distance, CC can be
136 severely affected by the specific channel used, combined effect of focal mechanism and relative
137 position between the source and station, and source separation direction (horizontal vs. vertical).

138

139 **2.2 Constraining Inter-event Separation Using Single-station (3-channel) Data**

140 If data from all three channels are included, we find that the CC sensitivity to source
141 separation increases dramatically for the cases of horizontal separation (e.g., Figures 2a vs. S3a)
142 but insignificantly for those of vertical separation (e.g., Figures 2b vs. S4a). For a given
143 horizontal separation, Stations 1 and 3 tend to have the lowest and highest CC values,
144 respectively (Figures 2c and S3), strongly suggesting that station azimuth is an important factor
145 that cannot be overlooked. In contrast, the influences of focal depth, epicentral distance, and
146 source focal mechanisms seem to be limited (Figure S3). Our results indicate that a station

147 approximately in line with the template and matched events can be more effective in delineating
148 the inter-event separation (e.g., Station 1 in our case, Figure 1a).

149 The computed CC overall is very sensitive to vertical inter-event separation with the only
150 exception when the source is deep and the station is close (e.g., $D=10$ km and $R=5$ km, Figures
151 2d and S4). For a close station ($R=5$ km) and a shallow source ($D=3$ km), even a very small (0.2
152 km) vertical separation can lead to a dramatic drop of CC to <0.8 (Figure S4a and S4c), but the
153 sensitivity gets worse when the source is deeper (Figure S4b and S4d). This is mainly a velocity
154 structure effect caused by smaller seismic velocity variation at deep depths. In other words, the
155 CC sensitivity would become higher when the corresponding velocity structure (and therefore
156 the observed waveforms) are more complicated. An important observation to point out is that the
157 CC is very sensitive to vertical inter-event separations when the epicentral distance is large (e.g.,
158 $R = 50$ or 150 km), regardless of the focal depth (Figure S4e-l). This is opposite to what is
159 expected for earthquake depth determination as seismic phase arrival times at distant stations
160 usually have less depth constraint. It turns out that waveforms at distant stations can have better
161 developed depth phases (i.e., seismic phases reflected from either the free surface or Moho).
162 Consequently, a subtle change of source depth may lead to a significant waveform difference and
163 therefore an apparent CC drop.

164 Therefore, our experiments in this section further demonstrate that CC can be affected by the
165 number of channels used, station azimuth, velocity structure, and epicentral distance.

166

167 **2.3 Constraining Inter-event Separation Using Multi-station Data**

168 For areas with excellent network coverage, it is common to use a minimum of two stations
169 (usually only the vertical channel) for identifying repeaters (Table S1). The majority of prior
170 work (Table S1) calculate CC separately for each station. This approach essentially uses more
171 stations with different azimuths and/or epicentral distances but may not necessarily improve the
172 sensitivity if all available stations happen to be the ones with lower sensitivities (Figure 2c and
173 2d). An alternative way is to calculate the CC simultaneously across the network (e.g., Yao et al.,
174 2017) which includes the constraint of traveltime moveout. In such a case, the computed CC can
175 be extremely sensitive to hypocentre difference (Gao and Kao, 2020). We refrain from
176 investigating the multi-station scenario as the CC sensitivity is known to be strongly affected by
177 network geometry (Chamberlain and Townend, 2018; Gao and Kao, 2020), and thus no
178 general/common rules can be inferred objectively.

179 In summary, our synthetic experiments reveal that CC is a very complex function of many
180 aforementioned factors. A higher CC value does not necessarily represent a smaller inter-event
181 separation, and vice versa. Therefore, in contrast to the conventional wisdom, our synthetic
182 results indicate that CC is not a robust indicator of two events being true repeaters or not.

183

184 **3. Verification With Real Earthquake Examples**

185 The High-Resolution Seismic Network (HRSN, Figure 3a) is a dense local array of borehole
186 seismometers deployed in the Parkfield area, California, and operated by the Berkeley
187 Seismological Laboratory. The HRSN waveform data generally have exceptionally high signal-
188 to-noise ratio (SRN) and hence are ideal for the purpose of this study to verify whether

189 waveform similarity is a good proxy of repeater identification. Here we take three events (No. 1-
190 3, Figure 3a) from two well studied repeating earthquake clusters in Parkfield (Abercrombie,
191 2014). Among them, events No. 1 and 3 belong to the same cluster with similar source areas
192 while event No. 2 occurred on a different fault patch.

193

194 **3.1 CC between Non-repeaters**

195 We first calculate the CC between non-repeaters, i.e., No. 1 and 2. We only use data from
196 stations nearly free from noise contamination, as hinted by the flat waveforms before the P wave
197 arrival (one example is shown in Figure 3b). The most striking result of our analysis is that the
198 CC derived from unfiltered 3-channel waveforms indeed differ significantly among different
199 stations, ranging from 0.76 to just above 0.95 (Figure 3c). Such a wide CC range is consistent
200 with the inference from our synthetic tests that the CC can be severely affected by station
201 azimuth and/or source-receiver position/path even under the noise-free circumstances.
202 Additionally, the CC may be further affected by local structures of velocity discontinuities as this
203 region is featured by complex fault zones (Figure 3a). Our study reveals that the waveforms of
204 non-repeaters can show apparent difference (top panel in Figure 3b), slight difference (middle
205 panel in Figure 3b) or little difference (bottom panel in Figure 3b) at different stations. For any
206 given station, the CC values of different channels can be either similar or different (Figure S5).
207 Together, waveform similarity indeed lacks the resolution to decide the two events to be
208 repeaters or not.

209 Because nearly all prior works practically identify repeaters through filtered waveforms for
210 the purpose of mitigating the noise impact, we then examine the effects of commonly used band-
211 pass filters (Table S2). Our results indicate that the CC obtained from different stations all show
212 a clear increasing trend when the passband becomes narrower (Figures 3c and S5). Especially for
213 the very narrow but very popular 1-4 Hz band-pass filter used by many previous studies (Table
214 S2), 9 out of 10 stations have $CC > 0.98$ (Figure 3c), which is the highest CC threshold used in
215 the literature in selecting repeaters (Table S1). This simple experiment highlights the overlooked
216 fact that filtering could remove the important frequency content in the signal that distinguishes
217 the physical separation of the two events, in addition to reducing the unwanted noise. For
218 example, even a very wide band-pass filter (1-20 Hz) would remove the very high frequency
219 signal with poor similarity and thus lead to very similar waveforms as shown in Figure 3d. What
220 makes it worse is that filtering would change both the shape and width of the P wave and
221 therefore make the subtle difference in the S-P differential traveltime (0.012s in Figure 3d)
222 unresolvable, effectively throwing away the most critical information on the relative distance
223 between the two sources. The results here strongly imply that filtering would lead to
224 misidentification of repeaters if the selection criterion is solely based on waveform similarity.
225 We also tested the effect of template window length (T_{win}) associated with different filters
226 (Table S2) in calculating CC (Text S2) and the results are comparable (Figure S6). Two
227 examples of how filtering increases the waveform similarity at close and distant stations,
228 respectively, are presented in Figures S7 and S8 for reference.

229

230 **3.2 CC between True Repeaters**

231 Interestingly, we also find that, for true repeaters like events No. 1 and 3, the CC value
 232 obtained from different stations still differ significantly from each other (Figure S9). The
 233 unfiltered waveforms can be nearly identical at one station (Figure S10a) but also can be of
 234 minor difference at another station even with nearly no noise (zoom-in box in Figure S10b).
 235 Without noise contamination, the waveform difference between true repeaters may arise from the
 236 variability of the rupture process (such as the slight difference in earthquake initiation point)
 237 (Uchida, 2019) and/or seismic velocity change (e.g., Poupinet et al., 1984; Sawazaki et al., 2015;
 238 Pacheco et al., 2017). With the band-pass filters applied, the waveform discrepancy overall
 239 becomes much smaller as indicated by the increasing CC values (Figure S9). This is similar to,
 240 but less dramatic as, the case of non-repeaters.

241 Taken together, non-repeaters indeed can have very similar waveforms (bottom panel in
 242 Figure 3b) while the waveforms of true repeaters may display minor difference (Figure S10b). In
 243 contrast to the traditional view, our observations undoubtedly suggest that waveform similarity is
 244 not a good proxy for repeater identification, especially with band-pass filters applied.

245

246 4. A Physics-based Solution

247 Although waveform similarity can be useful in recognizing potential repeaters (e.g., Sáez et
 248 al., 2019), the most fundamental concern of two events being repeaters or not is whether their
 249 ruptures significantly overlap with each other. In case of two events rupturing the same fault
 250 patch but from different nucleation points, they should be deemed repeaters even though the
 251 corresponding waveform similarity may not be perfect (Uchida, 2019). Therefore, a physics-
 252 based approach considering both inter-event separation and the source rupture areas should be
 253 the most reasonable solution. Specifically, we define two events to be repeaters if their inter-
 254 event distance is no larger than the source dimension of the bigger event. In other words, the
 255 hypocenter of the smaller event must fall within the rupture area of the bigger event.

256 There are different ways in seismology to characterize the rupture area of an earthquake
 257 source (Stein and Wysession, 2009). One of the most common, and perhaps the easiest, method
 258 is to estimate the equivalent rupture radius (ERR), which is defined as the radius of a circle
 259 whose area is the same as the source rupture area. The ERR can be estimated from the event's
 260 stress drop ($\Delta\sigma$) via the well-established circular dislocation model (Brune, 1970):

$$261 \quad ERR = \sqrt[3]{\frac{7M_o}{16 \Delta\sigma}} \quad (1)$$

262 where M_o is the event's scalar seismic moment. The $\Delta\sigma$ value can either be reasonably assumed
 263 (Table S3) or directly derived (e.g., Abercrombie, 2014; Ellsworth and Bulut, 2018).

264 For the distance of inter-event separation, however, it is always a challenge to get a precise
 265 measurement unless a very dense local array is available (Cheng et al., 2007). In case of limited
 266 data, we propose a variant of the double difference method (HypoDD; Waldhauser and
 267 Ellsworth, 2000) that minimizes the residual between observed and predicted relative S-P
 268 differential traveltimes through three-dimensional (3D) grid search to precisely estimate the inter-
 269 event distance. We explain the detail of our method, named the differential traveltimes double-
 270 difference (DTDD) method, in the Supporting Information (Text S3).

271 Figure 4 presents an example of using the DTDD method to determine the precise relative
 272 position of three events with similar waveforms recorded at 4 nearby stations in Fox Creek,
 273 Alberta, Canada. Among them, events No. 4 and 6 are found to be ~ 200 m apart, consistent with
 274 the subtle difference in S-P time (left yellow zoom-in window in Figure 4b). In comparison,
 275 events No. 5 and 6 are effectively co-located (Figures 4c and S11) as indicated by the identical
 276 S-P time at all four stations (right yellow zoom-in window in Figure 4b). The corresponding
 277 ERRs of these three events are 60 (No. 4), 31 (No. 5), and 70 (No. 6) m, respectively. Therefore,
 278 we conclude that events No. 5 and No. 6 are true repeating events (i.e., $\text{ERR} > \text{inter-event}$
 279 distance), whereas events No. 4 and No. 6 are at most neighboring events ($\text{ERR} < \text{inter-event}$
 280 distance).

281 We finally note that both event pairs have high CC values (0.83 between events No. 4 and 6,
 282 0.88 between events No. 5 and 6; Figure 4b). Consequently, the determination of these event
 283 pairs being true repeaters or not can be arbitrary depending on the choice of the CC threshold
 284 (e.g., the choice of 0.80, 0.85, or 0.90 will lead to completely different outcomes). Our results
 285 clearly indicate that the CC can drop below 0.9 even for true repeating events when the
 286 waveforms of the smaller event are contaminated with noise (event No. 5; Figure 4b). It further
 287 underscores the challenge in identifying repeaters based solely on waveform similarity with the
 288 presence of noise.

289

290 5. Discussion

291 There are two key parameters, i.e., ERR and inter-event distance, in our proposed framework
 292 of identifying repeaters. To uniquely estimate the ERR of a small event, it is necessary to specify
 293 the value of $\Delta\sigma$ in the popular Brune model (Equation 1). While most previous studies consider
 294 $\Delta\sigma$ to be no more than 10 MPa (Table S3), detailed analysis of dense local borehole array data in
 295 the Parkfield area suggests that $\Delta\sigma$ of small ($M_L \sim 2$) events can be as high as tens of MPa
 296 (Abercrombie, 2014). Since a smaller $\Delta\sigma$ value will yield a larger ERR, underestimation of $\Delta\sigma$ is
 297 likely to misclassify neighboring events as repeaters, and vice versa. Therefore, the uncertainty
 298 due to a poorly constrained (or wrongly assumed) $\Delta\sigma$ value should be treated with caution.

299 The DTDD method that we develop to estimate the inter-event distance with limited
 300 waveform data relies on precise measurement of the S-P differential traveltime (Text S3). For a
 301 typical crustal model (i.e., $V_p = 6.5$ km/s and $V_p/V_s = 1.73$), a 0.01s difference in the S-P time
 302 corresponds to a hypocentral difference of ~ 90 m (Hayward and Bostock, 2017). Consequently
 303 we need to pay attention to two potential issues. First, the application of digital filtering, such as
 304 the band-pass filters used in previous studies, may change the width of P wave, leading to a
 305 slight shift between the P and S phases (one example is shown in Figure 3d). The small bias
 306 (0.012 s in the case shown in Figure 3d) is equivalent to a mislocation of ~ 100 m that is
 307 sufficient to cause misinterpretation for events with small source dimension. Therefore, we
 308 prefer to use unfiltered broadband waveforms in the measurement of S-P differential traveltime
 309 to avoid any possible bias from waveform filtering.

310 The second issue is the resolution limit defined by the sampling rate of waveform data. It can
 311 be particularly problematic if the original sampling rate is less than 100 Hz (i.e., ≥ 0.01 s between
 312 samples) so the hypocentral uncertainty becomes comparable to the source dimension of small
 313 events. A straightforward solution is to pre-process waveforms with interpolation to increase its

314 apparent sampling rate before measuring the S-P times (Li et al., 2007, 2011). Similarly, the grid
315 size used in the DTDD source-searching process should be much smaller than the source
316 dimension of the targeted events to achieve optimal spatial resolution.

317 We note that, in the extreme case of limited data from only one or two stations, the DTDD
318 solution can be highly non-unique. Consequently, a priori constraints must be introduced to
319 quantitatively estimate the inter-event distance. One commonly adopted remedy is to require the
320 two events to occur on a given fault plane (e.g., Li et al., 2007). Another commonly adopted
321 constraint comes from the ambient tectonic loading rate, i.e., the recurrence interval between two
322 repeaters should be proportional to the size of the second event (e.g., Li et al., 2007, 2011;
323 Bohnhoff et al., 2017). If the two events occur very closely to each other in time, they are more
324 likely to be neighboring events because the fault patch ruptured during the first event has not
325 healed yet.

326

327 **6. Conclusion**

328 In this study we reveal that CC can be severely affected by many factors, including the choice
329 of one specific channel or all three channels, combined effect of focal mechanism and relative
330 position between the source and station, station azimuth, epicentral distance, velocity structure,
331 orientation of the source separation (horizontal vs. vertical), network geometry, and the filter's
332 frequency bandwidth. In reality, noise, heterogeneity in the crust, and variation in the Moho
333 depth may further contribute to the complication of CC sensitivity. Therefore it is almost
334 impossible to reliably identify repeaters solely based on a given CC value, implying that a
335 systematic recheck of previously identified repeaters and associated interpretations/hypotheses
336 may be important and necessary.

337 To more reliably identify true repeaters, we propose a physics-based approach that considers
338 both ERR and inter-event separation. For an event pair to be true repeaters, their inter-event
339 separation must be no larger than the ERR of the larger event. For the precise estimation of inter-
340 event distance in case of limited data, we develop the DTDD method which relies on the relative
341 S-P differential traveltime. Finally we illustrate the effectiveness of the DTDD method and
342 validate the physics-based approach in selecting repeaters using earthquakes occurred in the Fox
343 Creek area, Alberta, Canada. The findings of this work has far-reaching impact on not only
344 repeating earthquake research but also other waveform-similarity-based studies.

345

346

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 358 Institutions for Seismology (IRIS) (<http://ds.iris.edu/ds/nodes/dmc/>), respectively. Seismic data
 359 are processed with Obspy (*Beyreuther et al.*, 2010; <https://github.com/obspy/obspy/>). Figures are
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366 **References**

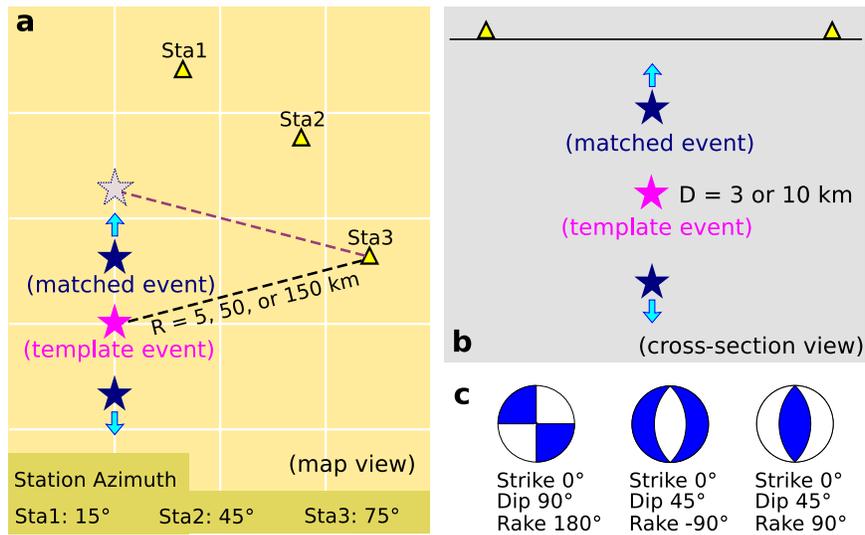
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Figure 1. Schematic diagram showing the setup of the synthetic experiments. (a) For horizontal

inter-event separation, two sources are placed along a line trending N–S separated by a short

distance. The template event (fuchsia star) is fixed in the middle while the matched event (navy

blue star) moves away from the template event in both directions. Stations (triangles) are placed

at three different epicentral distances ($R=5, 50, \text{ or } 150 \text{ km}$). The gray star marks the location of

the matched event such that one of the stations (Sta3 in this case) is of equal distance to both the

template and matched events. (b) For vertical inter-event separation, the template event is placed

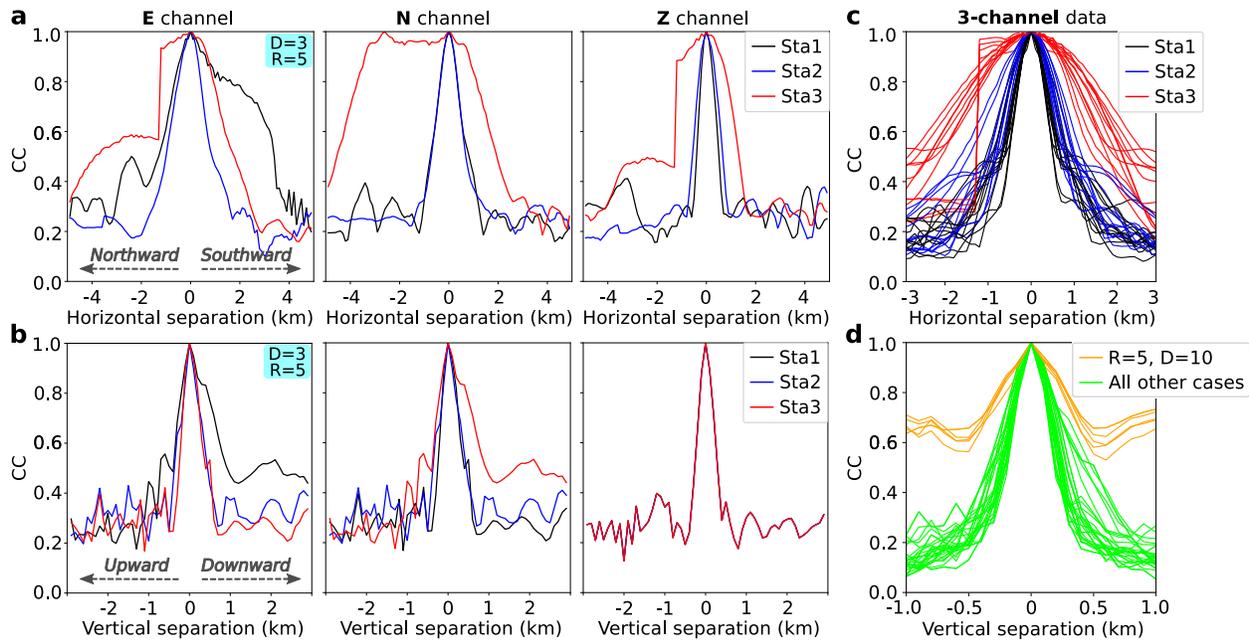
at two different depths ($D=3 \text{ or } 10 \text{ km}$) with the matched event moving up or down. (c) Three

different types of focal mechanisms are used in the calculation of synthetic seismograms.

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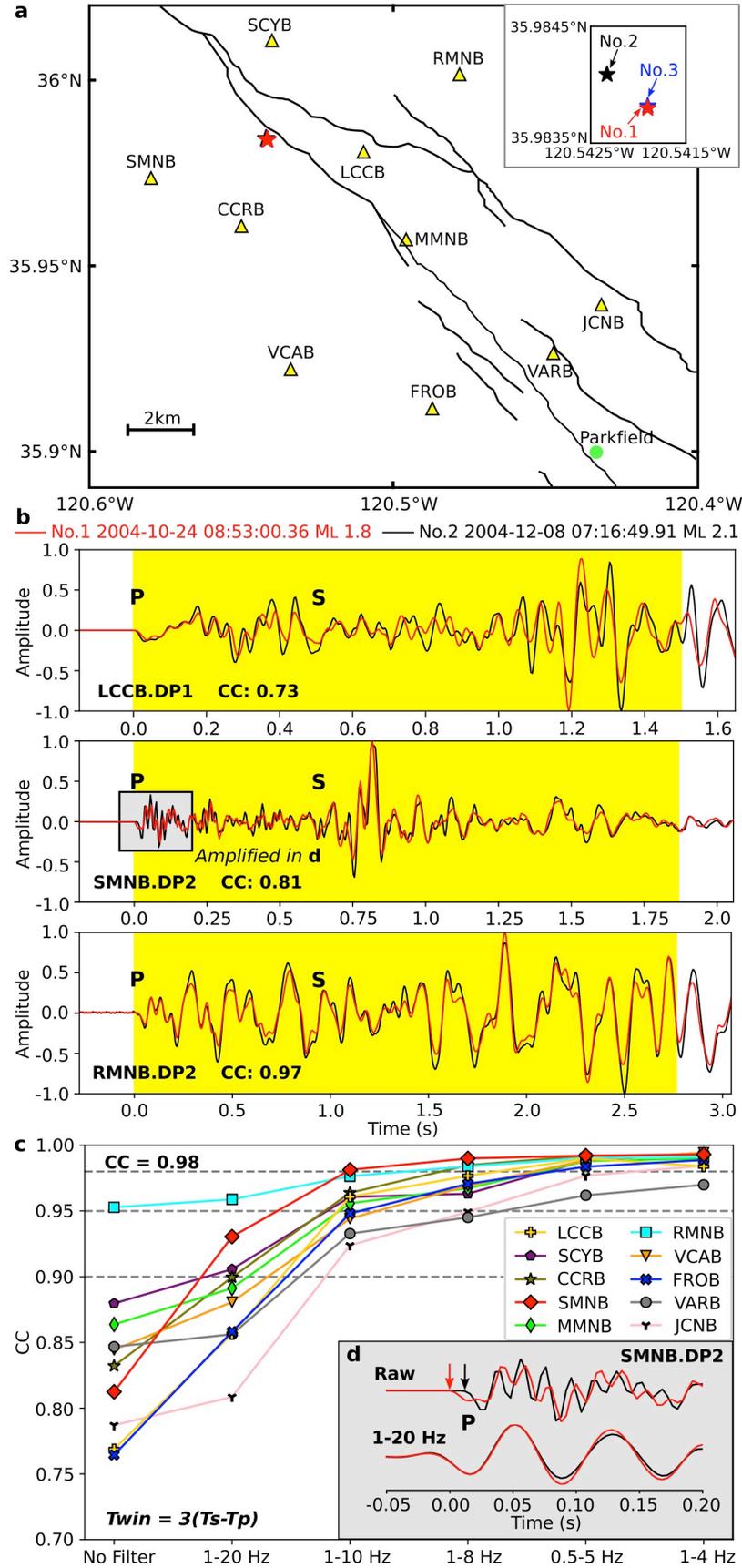
Figure 2. Results of our synthetic experiment showing CC variation as a function of horizontal (a and c) and vertical (b and d) inter-event separation. The setup of sources and receivers is depicted in Figure 1. (a) and (b) correspond to a representative case with single-channel data, whereas (c) and (d) compile all test results with single-station (3-channel) data. Individual test results are presented in Figures S3 and S4. For (a) and (c), positive and negative values along the X axis mean that the matched event is shifted to the south and north, respectively; for (b) and (d), positive and negative X axis mean that the matched event moves downward and upward, respectively.

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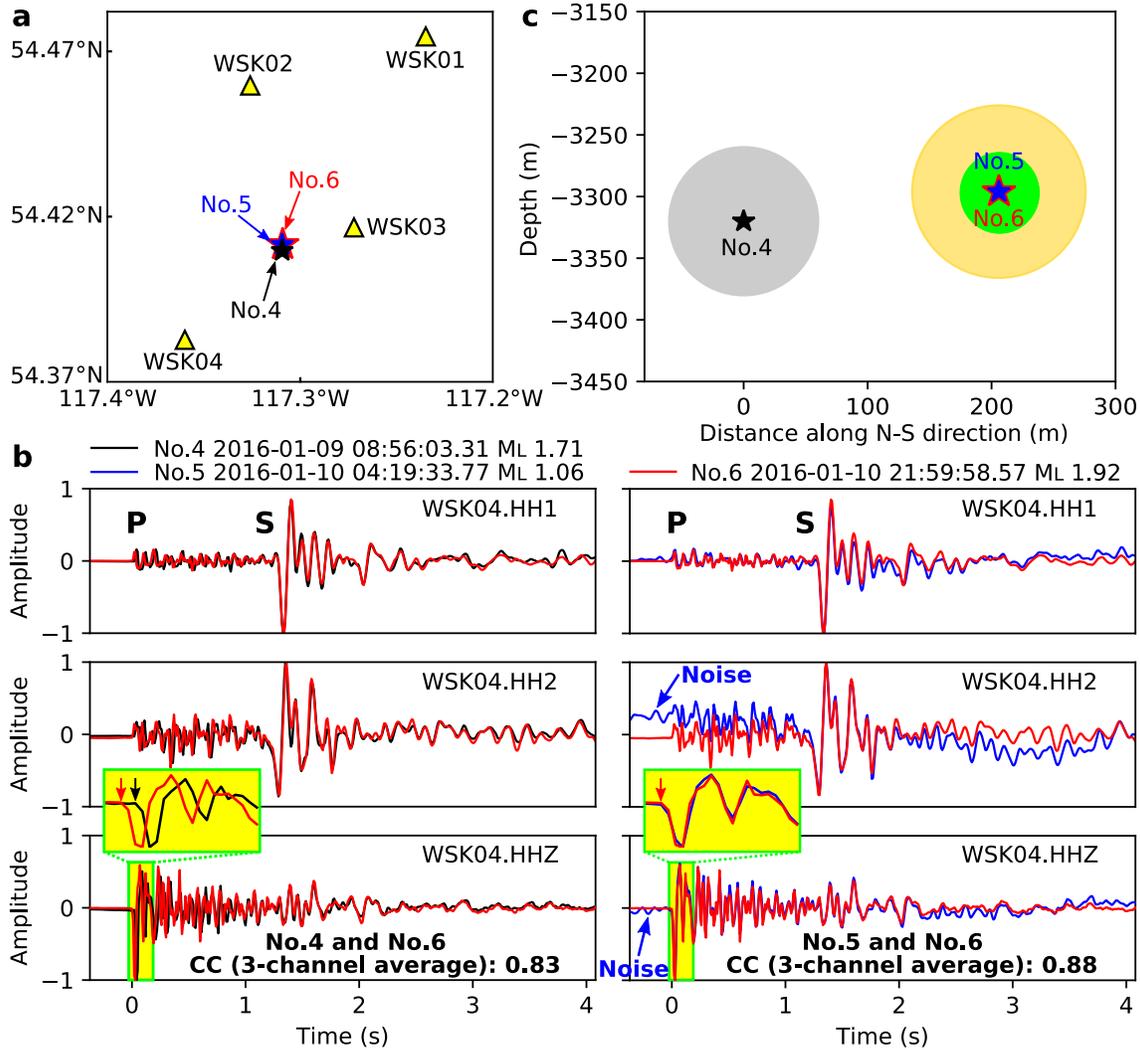
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518 **Figure 3.** CC test results with real earthquake data. (a) Map showing the distribution of
519 earthquake epicenters (colored stars) and HRSN seismograph stations (yellow triangles). Black
520 lines denote the surface traces of the San Andreas Fault system. The town of Parkfield is shown
521 as a green dot. Insert shows the zoom-in locations of events No. 1-3. (b) Examples of normalized
522 unfiltered waveforms of two events that have been verified to be non-repeaters (No. 1 and No.
523 2), aligned at the S wave arrival. The highlighted segment indicates the window of dynamic
524 length (see Text S2) used for CC calculation. The gray box in the middle panel outlines the
525 waveform segment amplified in (d). (c) Effects of filtering on the CC values between events No.
526 1 and No. 2 determined with individual single-station (3-channel) data and dynamic window
527 lengths. (d) An example of waveform change due to filtering. Red and black arrows mark the P
528 wave onset of events No.1 and No.2, respectively. The slight time difference (0.012 s) between
529 the two arrows is overlooked after band-pass filtering between 1 and 20 Hz.
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536 **Figure 4.** A physics-based approach to distinguish repeating and neighboring events. (a) Map
537 showing the distribution of earthquake epicenters (colored stars) and seismograph stations
538 (yellow triangles). A zoom-in map of the source area is presented in Figure S11. (b) Normalized
539 unfiltered waveforms, aligned at the S wave arrival. Notice the apparent time difference in the S-
540 P differential traveltime between the two cases. (c) North-south cross section showing the
541 relative event locations. Gray, lime, and gold circles are the ERRs of events No. 4, 5 and 6,
542 respectively. The stress drops of events No. 4 and 6 are 35 and 30 MPa, respectively, based on
543 the spectral ratio analysis of the broadband waveforms (*Wang et al., 2020*). Since the waveforms
544 of event No. 5 is contaminated by a high level of noise, its stress drop is assumed to be the
545 average of events No. 4 and 6 (i.e., 32.5 MPa).