

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

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Key Points:

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

Abstract

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

Plain Language Summary

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

1. Introduction

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

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

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

2. Synthetic Experiments

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

2.1 Constraining Inter-event Separation Using Single-channel Data

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

2.3 Constraining Inter-event Separation Using Multi-station Data

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

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

3. Verification With Real Earthquake Examples

The High-Resolution Seismic Network (HRSN, Figure 3a) is a dense local array of borehole seismometers deployed in the Parkfield area, California, and operated by the Berkeley Seismological Laboratory. The HRSN waveform data generally have exceptionally high signal-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.

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.

230 **3.2 CC between True Repeaters**

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

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

4. A Physics-based Solution

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

5. Discussion

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

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

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

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

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

6. Conclusion

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

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

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event waveform data used in this study were downloaded from the Northern California Earthquake Data Center (NCEDC) (<http://ncedc.org/hrsn/>) and Incorporated Research Institutions for Seismology (IRIS) (<http://ds.iris.edu/ds/nodes/dmc/>), respectively. Seismic data are processed with Obspy (Beyreuther *et al.*, 2010; <https://github.com/obspy/obspy/>). Figures are made with Matplotlib (Hunter, 2007; <https://matplotlib.org>) and Inkscape (<https://inkscape.org>). This study is partially supported by a University of Victoria Fellowship (DG), the Induced Seismicity Research Project of NRCAN (HK), Geoscience BC (HK), and a NSERC Discovery Grant (HK). This paper is NRCAN contribution 2021xxxx.

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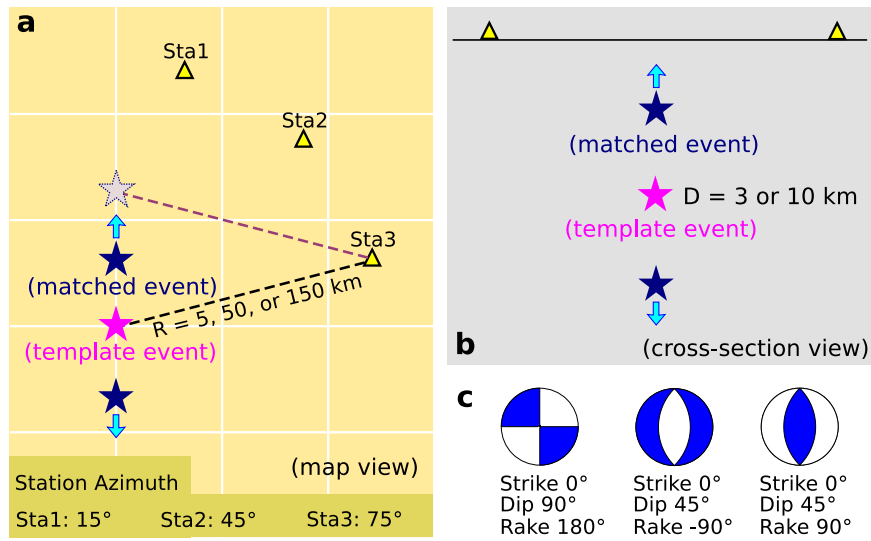
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Figure 1. Schematic diagram showing the setup of the synthetic experiments. (a) For horizontal inter-event separation, two sources are placed along a line trending N–S separated by a short distance. The template event (fuchsia star) is fixed in the 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 ($R=5, 50$, or 150 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 ($D=3$ or 10 km) with the matched event moving up or down. (c) Three different types of focal mechanisms are used in the calculation of synthetic seismograms.

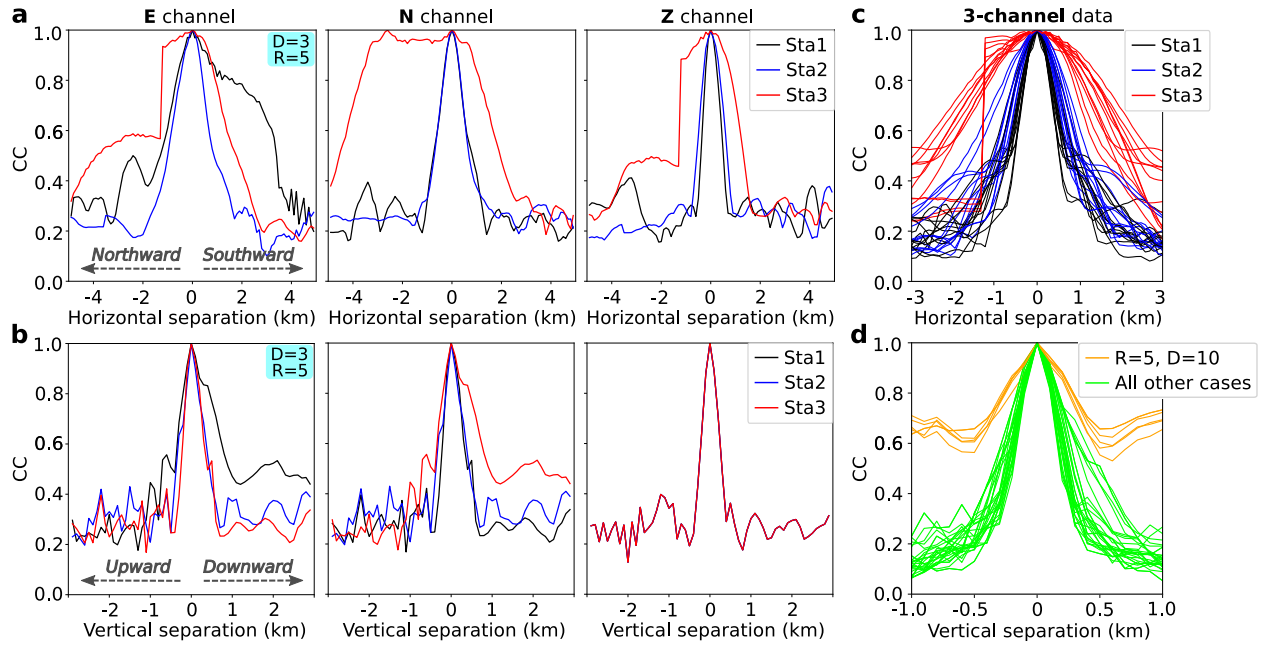


Figure 2. Results of our synthetic experiment showing CC variation as a function of horizontal (a and c) and vertical (b and d) inter-event separation. The setup of sources and receivers is depicted in Figure 1. (a) and (b) correspond to a representative case with single-channel data, whereas (c) and (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.

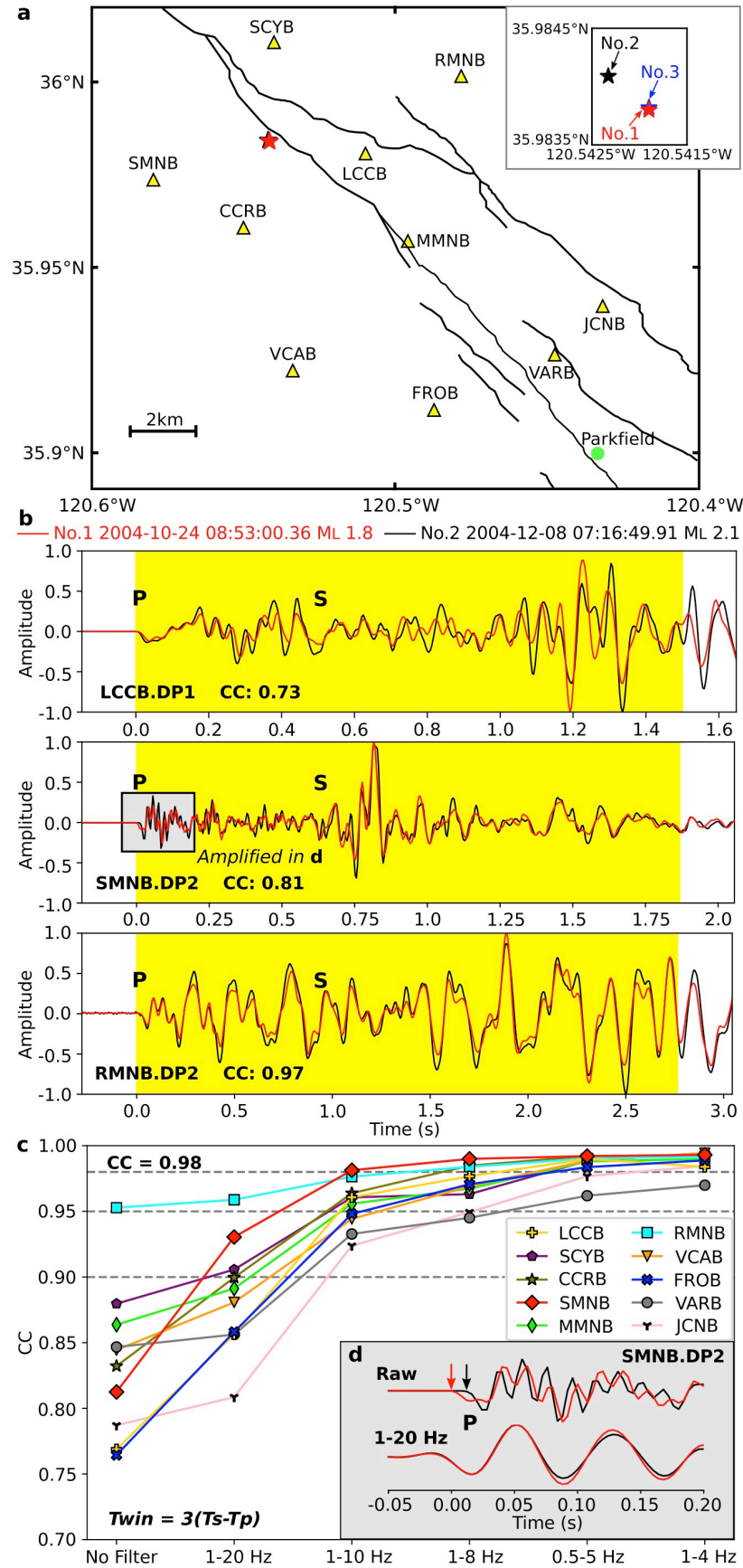


Figure 3. CC test results with real earthquake data. (a) Map showing the distribution of earthquake epicenters (colored stars) and HRSN seismograph stations (yellow triangles). Black lines denote the surface traces of the San Andreas Fault system. The town of Parkfield is shown as a green dot. Insert shows the zoom-in locations of events No. 1-3. (b) Examples of normalized unfiltered waveforms of two events that have been verified to be non-repeaters (No. 1 and No. 2), aligned at the S wave arrival. The highlighted segment indicates the window of dynamic length (see Text S2) used for CC calculation. The gray box in the middle panel outlines the waveform segment amplified in (d). (c) Effects of filtering on the CC values between events No. 1 and No. 2 determined with individual single-station (3-channel) data and dynamic window lengths. (d) An example of waveform change due to filtering. Red and black arrows mark the P wave onset of events No.1 and No.2, respectively. The slight time difference (0.012 s) between the two arrows is overlooked after band-pass filtering between 1 and 20 Hz.

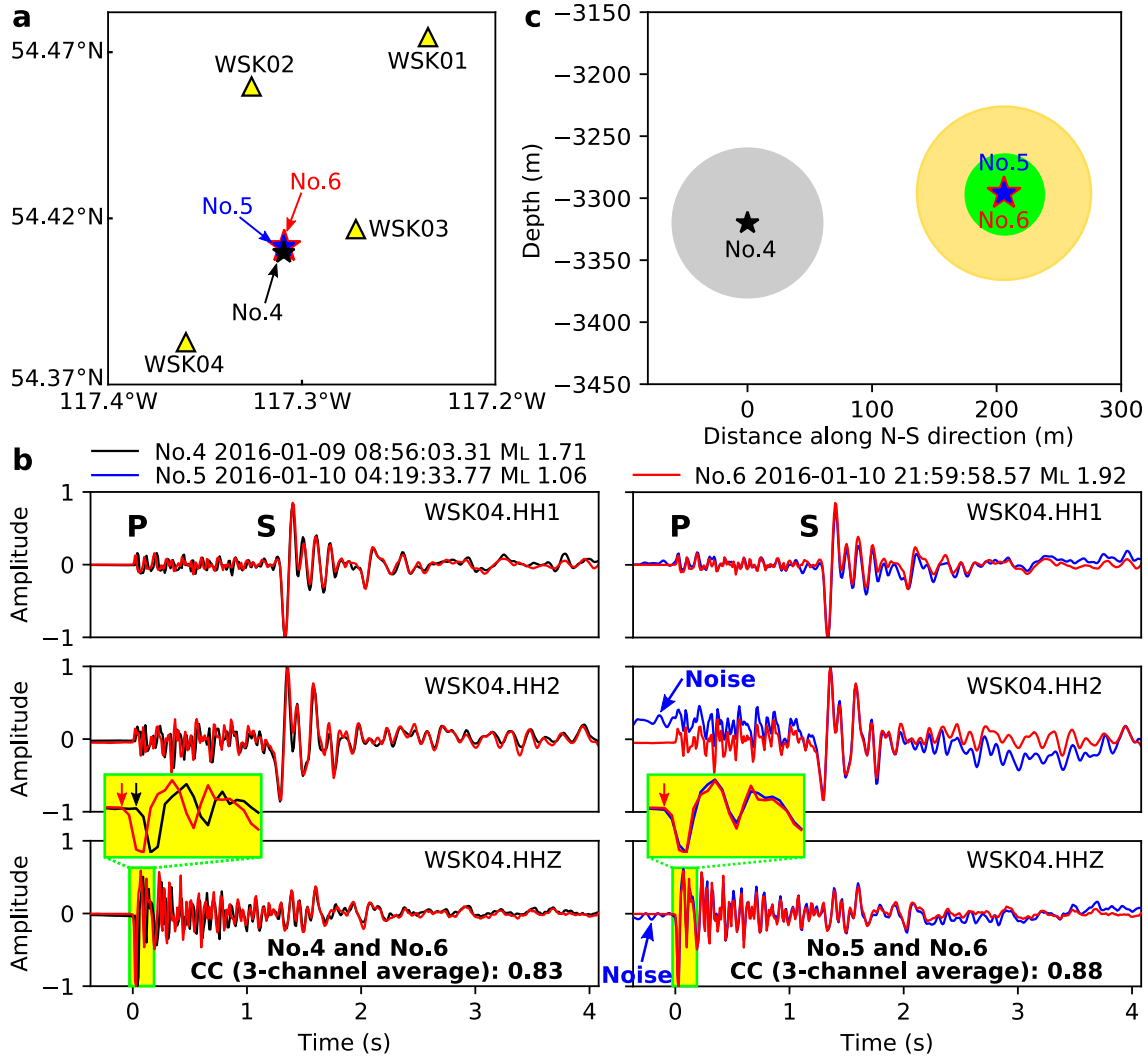


Figure 4. A physics-based approach to distinguish repeating and neighboring events. (a) Map showing the distribution of earthquake epicenters (colored stars) and seismograph stations (yellow triangles). A zoom-in map of the source area is presented in Figure S11. (b) Normalized unfiltered waveforms, aligned at the S wave arrival. Notice the apparent time difference in the S-P differential traveltimes between the two cases. (c) North-south cross section showing the relative event locations. Gray, lime, and gold circles are the ERRs of events No. 4, 5 and 6, respectively. The stress drops of events No. 4 and 6 are 35 and 30 MPa, respectively, based on the spectral ratio analysis of the broadband waveforms (*Wang et al., 2020*). Since the waveforms of event No. 5 is contaminated by a high level of noise, its stress drop is assumed to be the average of events No. 4 and 6 (i.e., 32.5 MPa).