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Preprint

26 **Title:** Regional Source-type Discrimination Using Nonlinear Alignment Algorithms

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35 **Abstract**

36 The discrimination problem in seismology aims to accurately classify different underground
37 source types based on local, regional or teleseismic observations of ground motion. Typical
38 discriminant approaches are rooted in fundamental, physics-based differences in radiation
39 pattern or wave excitation, which can be frequency dependent and may not make use of the full
40 waveform. In this paper, we explore a new method for event discrimination using phase and
41 amplitude distances derived from dynamic time warping (DTW) and elastic shape analysis (ESA).
42 We demonstrate the ability to distinguish underground point-sources using synthetic waveforms
43 calculated for a 1-D Earth model and various source mechanisms. We then apply the method to
44 recorded data from events in the Korean Peninsula, which includes declared nuclear explosions,
45 a collapse event, and naturally occurring earthquakes. Phase and amplitude distances derived
46 from DTW and ESA are then used to classify the event types via dendrogram and k-nearest
47 neighbor clustering analyses. Using information from the full waveform, we show how different
48 underground sources can be distinguished at regional distances. We highlight the potential of
49 these nonlinear alignment algorithms for discrimination and comment on ways we can extend
50 the framework presented here.

51

52 Introduction

53 Source type discrimination is needed to classify events and develop accurate seismic
54 catalogs. Traditional discriminants exploit physics-based intuition that the radiation pattern of
55 double-couple sources (e.g., earthquakes) should be fundamentally different from explosion-like
56 sources (e.g., chemical/nuclear tests, mining blasts and collapses). This is due to the difference
57 in energy release that exists between shear slip and a pressure pulse acting on the rock (Ben-
58 Menahem and Singh, 1981). Approaches to discrimination between seismic events include
59 moment tensor inversion (Alvizuri and Tape, 2018; Pasyanos and Chiang, 2022), body to surface-
60 wave magnitude ratios ($M_s:m_b$, Stevens and Day, 1985), spectral amplitude ratios (e.g., Tibi,
61 2021) and recently, machine learning methods (e.g., Maguire et al., 2024). However, challenges
62 to these methods include isolating source from path and site effects on the waveform, and in
63 the case of machine learning, analysts may not have enough large, labeled datasets to draw
64 from for a given region of interest.

65 Nonlinear dynamic programming techniques, broadly referred to as dynamic time
66 warping (DTW), have been used to determine what temporal shifts are necessary to optimally
67 align time series (Anderson and Gaby, 1983; Kumar et al., 2022; Müller, 2021). DTW has been
68 applied to seismic exploration (Hale, 2013), ambient-noise interferometry (Mikesell et al., 2015;
69 Yuan et al., 2021) and linear seismic inversion problems (Tan and Langston, 2022). DTW
70 algorithms capture phase variability quite well but may not be as robust to amplitude variability
71 (Müller et al., 2021). This is a concern for seismic event monitoring and especially in the context
72 of signal window selection, which can contain both body and surface waves with markedly
73 different amplitudes. A novel representation of functional data that addresses both phase and

74 amplitude variability within a time series is elastic shape analysis of curves (ESA; Tucker et al.,
75 2013). The ESA method aligns signals to one another after applying a square root slope function
76 (SRSF; Joshi et al., 2007; Srivastava et al., 2011). The SRSF is a distance-preserving
77 transformation between metric spaces (isometry) and yields a proper distance in either phase
78 or amplitude space. Our hypothesis is that two signals sharing the same source mechanism (or,
79 alternatively, the same Green's function) will have a lower phase or amplitude distance whereas
80 signals that do not will have correspondingly higher distances. Moreover, nonlinear alignment
81 methods are data type agnostic and may be applied across monitoring distances or recorded
82 frequencies.

83 This manuscript explores how nonlinear time series alignment algorithms can assist
84 event type discrimination. First, we set up a synthetic test relevant to regional distance
85 monitoring and demonstrate how DTW and ESA can distinguish double couple from non-double
86 couple (e.g., explosive) signals. We then analyze a seismic dataset of earthquake, explosion, and
87 collapse events in the Democratic People's Republic of Korea (DPRK) and apply hierarchical
88 clustering and k-nearest neighbor (knn) analysis to the DTW and ESA distances. We compare the
89 DTW and ESA methods and discuss recommendations to extend this preliminary analysis.

90 Methodology

91 *Dynamic Time Warping*

92 DTW estimates time shifts between signals to estimate geophysical parameters and can
93 overcome strong cycle-skipping even in the presence of low signal to noise-ratio (SNR), which is
94 an advantage over windowed cross-correlation and linear trace stretching methods that may

95 estimate incorrect lag times (Mikesell et al., 2015). However, to optimally align signals,
 96 unrealistically large dilation of the original time series can occur and strategies to constrain the
 97 dynamic programming algorithm (i.e., global or local constraints on the permissible warping
 98 function) to reasonable dilation values are not always easy to set a-priori. Despite these choices,
 99 DTW allows one to calculate a non-Euclidian distance metric that gives a measure of how much
 100 warping was needed for optimal alignment, the DTW distance (DTW_{dist}), defined below as,

$$101 \quad DTW_{dist}(f_1, f_2) = \min\{w_p(f_1, f_2)\} \quad (1)$$

102 where w_p is the warping path that aligns $f_1(t)$ and $f_2(t)$ after an accumulated distance matrix is
 103 computed (Müller, 2021).

104 *Elastic Shape Analysis*

105 An extension and improvement of DTW, ESA separates amplitude and phase information
 106 uniquely by first computing the SRSF, $q(t)$,

$$107 \quad q(t) = \text{sign}(\dot{f}(t))\sqrt{|\dot{f}(t)|} \quad (2)$$

108 where $q(t)$ is the transformed signal and $\dot{f}(t)$ is the first derivative of the original signal with
 109 respect to time (Srivistava et al., 2011). The amplitude distance (D_y) between two functions $f_1(t)$
 110 and $f_2(t)$ is defined as,

$$111 \quad D_y(f_1, f_2) = \inf_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \| q_1 - (q_2 \circ \gamma)\sqrt{\dot{\gamma}} \| \quad (3)$$

112
 113 where q_1 and q_2 are the SRSF of $f_1(t)$ and $f_2(t)$, respectively, and γ is the warping function that
 114 best aligns them. The double-bars “ $\| \cdot \|$ ” denote the L2-norm and Γ represents the complete
 115 set of invertible functions that map a smooth surface to each another such that both the

116 function and its inverse are well defined over [0,1]. The phase distance (D_x) is then defined as
117 the distance between warping functions according to,

118

$$119 \quad D_x(\gamma_1, \gamma_2) = d_\psi(\psi_1, \psi_2) \equiv \cos^{-1}\left(\int_0^1 \psi_1(t)\psi_2(t) dt\right) \quad (4)$$

120

121 where $\psi(t)$ represents a mapping of the warping function to Hilbert space (\mathcal{H}) and D_x is thus the
122 arc-length between the corresponding SRSF on a \mathcal{H} unit sphere. The theory behind elastic
123 distances is rich, and we refer the interested reader to Wu and Srivastava (2011), Srivastava et
124 al., (2011) or Tucker et al., (2013) for the in-depth, mathematical underpinnings of D_x and D_y .
125 The important properties of ESA are: 1) D_y and D_x are independent of one another, 2) the SRSF
126 transformation guarantees a mathematically proper distance, and 3) the distances are invariant
127 to warping order.

128 We conceptually show how DTW and ESA align two seismic waveforms in Figure 1. We
129 select data from a single station (DBN08, vertical component) in the Dongbei seismic network
130 (Chun and Richards, 2004). DBN08 recorded both the 2006 and 2009 declared nuclear tests by
131 the DPRK and the P_n and P_g phases are readily identifiable. Because the explosions have
132 different yields and are not exactly co-located (Myers et al., 2018), nonlinear warping must
133 address differences from both the source mechanism and Green's functions. ESA calculates both
134 D_x and D_y (Figure 1B) and DTW yields the DTW_{dist} (Figure 1C). We note that while both
135 techniques result in a better alignment between recorded explosion waveforms (i.e., a higher
136 cross-correlation coefficient), ESA alignment yields a lower cross-correlation coefficient

137 compared to alignment using DTW. However, ESA preserves the original signal length and arrival
138 time difference between P_n and P_g (Figure 1A).

139 *Synthetic and Observed Seismograms*

140 We generate near-regional synthetic seismic waveforms using a 1-D velocity model
141 developed for the DPRK (Ford et al., 2009; Figure 2). We use a wave-number integration
142 algorithm (Herrmann, 2013) to calculate synthetics for double-couple, compensated linear
143 vector dipole (CLVD), explosion, and implosion point-sources recorded at 100 km distance
144 (Figure 2A). We calculate only the down-going Green's function components to suppress strong
145 free-surface effects on the waveform. This lets us simplify and focus our analysis on waveform
146 differences due to source mechanism alone. We filter the 40-samples-per-second synthetic
147 waveforms between 0.5 to 5 Hz (Tibi, 2021) and normalize each trace by its respective
148 maximum amplitude prior to alignment. We also concatenate the vertical (Z) and radial (R)
149 components into a composite time series before warping and alignment to mimic practice in
150 signal detection. Note that for a pure isotropic explosion source, there is no tangential (T)
151 motion generated and thus that component is not considered in the synthetic analysis because
152 discrimination would be trivial.

153
154 For the observational dataset, we use waveforms analyzed in Tibi (2021). This dataset
155 contains six declared explosions, fifteen nearby naturally occurring earthquakes and one
156 collapse event following the 2017 declared North Korean nuclear test. Four regional broadband
157 stations are selected from the IC, IU and KS seismic networks. We download waveforms up to 15
158 minutes after the respective origin time of the events from the Incorporated Research

159 Institutions for Seismology (IRIS) database to ensure P_n , P_g , and L_g phases are captured, and we
160 filter signals below 10 Hz. Due to different station start and end times, not all events are
161 recorded; also, stations with non-emergent phases are excluded from analysis.

162 Results

163 *Synthetic Waveform Alignment*

164 We select a double-couple earthquake waveform as the master signal to align to (EQ1,
165 Figure 2A). Each waveform has a P-wave arrival near 15 seconds after the respective event
166 origin time, but to highlight phase arrivals of interest, we cut the waveforms from 15 to 40
167 seconds for both R and Z components. We calculate DTW_{dist} , D_x and D_y between every signal and
168 EQ1 (Figure 2B, C). We observe that for both DTW and ESA, the distance between EQ1 and itself
169 is zero (expected) and the explosion and implosion events have greater phase and amplitude
170 distances than alignment to the earthquake or CLVD events. This synthetic experiment
171 conceptually demonstrates that if the Green's function is the same, differences due to source
172 mechanism can be inferred via phase or amplitude distance information from DTW and ESA
173 between the full waveforms.

174 *Korean Peninsula Data Analysis*

175 Regional seismic stations recorded the declared 2006 (NK1), 2009 (NK2), 2013 (NK3),
176 2016 (NK4, NK5) and 2017 (NK6) DPRK nuclear tests, one collapse event following NK6, and
177 explosion-induced aftershocks or isolated, natural seismicity. Tibi (2021) compiled a database of
178 these twenty events and applied a bivariate discriminant function to successfully classify
179 explosion from collapse and earthquake event types. We use a subset of the stations used in

180 Tibi (2021) to assess DTW and ESA performance on regional distance waveforms (Figure 3A). For
181 any station, the signal time window spans five seconds before theoretically expected P_n and ~ 40
182 seconds after the L_g arrival (Figure 3B).

183 We apply hierarchical clustering analysis to DTW and ESA distances obtained using
184 signals recorded at MDJ in Figure 4. We compute the phase, amplitude and DTW distances
185 between each bandpass filtered (0.5 – 5 Hz) signal pair (Figure 4A, B, C). We also report the
186 cross-correlation between each pair to see where a particular distance metric may align with
187 empirical signal similarity (Figure 4D). We calculate condensed matrix representations of D_x , D_y ,
188 and DTW_{dist} and show the results graphically using a dendrogram (Figure 4E, F). We observe that
189 there appears to be more structure in the D_y and DTW_{dist} matrices, based off a qualitative
190 comparison to the cross-correlation matrix.

191 To assess whether we can achieve better classification between earthquake, explosion
192 and collapse events using both phase and amplitude information, we form a simple linear
193 combination of D_x and D_y following Tucker et al., (2012), using a weighting coefficient, τ . Since D_y
194 appears to have more structure than D_x , we weight D_y more in the below formulation,

$$D_\tau = \tau D_y + (1 - \tau) D_x \quad (5)$$

195
196
197
198 To optimize the weighting coefficient τ , we randomly set aside 50% of the signals as
199 training data (Tucker et al., 2012) and employ a Leave-One-Out (LOO) cross-validated knn
200 classifier for varying τ levels ($0 \leq \tau \leq 1$ in an increment of 0.1) in expression (5). We set the
201 value of knn to three because we have exactly three signal types to cluster. Our metric for

202 classification accuracy is the percentage of true predictions returned by knn, based off the signal
203 type labels we assign. We found that τ values between 0.1 – 0.9 classify signal types to the
204 ~70% accuracy level, and we do not observe appreciable changes between τ values to the
205 hundredths decimal point. We only have twenty labeled signals to work with at MDJ, so using a
206 larger signal database (for a given station) could give us more robust statistics. Using either
207 nonlinear alignment methods suggests that the explosion waveforms are separated from
208 earthquake waveforms, but the collapse event may group with either the earthquake (DTW) or
209 explosion (ESA) population. The results shown for MDJ do not dramatically change if the signal
210 envelope is used, or if the R and T component waveforms are concatenated to Z.

211 We report which ground motion component, signal type, window length and frequency
212 passband that best distinguishes explosion from non-explosion signals for our full set of regional
213 stations in Table 1. The criterion for choosing a particular passband is an improvement in
214 classification accuracy. We list how the LOO cross validation with knn performed for D_x , D_y and
215 DTW_{dist} separately to see if any one distance is superior to another (Table 1). For stations less
216 than 300 km from the source, knn classification using D_y performs comparably to DTW_{dist} and
217 slightly better than D_x . Stations at greater distances (>300 km) from the source (e.g., YSS) do not
218 record waveforms with qualities that are sufficient for this type of analysis (i.e., SNR > 3). This
219 may impact classification accuracy as it is essentially the same between all distance metrics at
220 SEO2 (Table 1). Note also that the relative time window accordingly widens to accommodate
221 larger P to L_g separation time. For the τ analysis at station MDJ, we attempted to find the best
222 linear combination of D_x and D_y that improved classification accuracy, but ultimately found that
223 D_y by itself is superior, which may not be the case for every dataset. Moreover, there is no

224 reason to stick to a linear relationship between the phase and amplitude distance matrices and
225 this assumption may be relaxed in future work. For most of the signals analyzed here, there is
226 little improvement in accuracy between the signal waveforms compared to the envelope
227 functions (at least for the frequency bands considered here), but this deserves further
228 exploration.

229 Discussions and Conclusion

230 *Method Sensitivity*

231 We conceptually showed how nonlinear warping distances can distinguish dissimilar
232 signal types using synthetics, and when we applied advanced clustering on the actual data, we
233 saw that modest classification accuracies can be achieved. This result may stem from complex
234 wave propagation that is generally not captured when using a 1-D or laterally homogenous
235 earth model but is certainly present in the real Earth. Differences between source types can be
236 deduced from narrowband filters, as is commonly used in P_g/L_g ratio analyses (Pyle and Walter,
237 2021; Tibi et al., 2023). Similarly, the selection of an appropriate filtering passband, SNR, and
238 consequently, time window length was central to our analysis. For MDJ, we analyzed several
239 frequency passbands to capture lower-frequency L_g (< 1 Hz) or higher frequency P (> 2 Hz). All
240 signal types from this dataset were present at MDJ, and our clustering approach is most
241 accurate for this station. However, we acknowledge that this is a small, imbalanced dataset and
242 future work should target a labeled database of diverse source types with varying SNR so that
243 the DTW/ESA framework can be further assessed in comparison to neural network classifiers
244 (e.g., Eggertsson et al., 2024; Maguire et al., 2024) or other discrimination approaches.

245 Recently, focal depth discriminants have been developed at local-to-regional distances that use
246 differential magnitudes or spectral amplitude ratios (i.e., R_g/S_g , P_g/S_g) between mine blasts and
247 earthquakes (Koper et al., 2024). In this study, the depth was held constant in the synthetic
248 experiment (1 km) and was 5-km and shallower for the DPRK dataset. There is opportunity to
249 extend the nonlinear alignment framework for depth discrimination as well since focal depth
250 differences can influence body and surface wave excitation (Zhang et al., 2002).

251

252 DTW has been shown to align time series even if there is significant noise present (Mikesell
253 et al., 2015) but there is potential to mis-align desired signal to noise. Moreover, the ambient-
254 noise interferometry application of DTW is different than discrimination and data processing
255 choices may differ. Because ESA defines the signal shape space such that proper distance
256 metrics can be calculated, robust statistics can be applied to extract physically meaningful
257 clusters of data. Furthermore, the centrality of functions in D_x and D_y space can now be
258 measured using elastic depths, which have been shown to detect outliers in functional data
259 (Harris et al., 2020). This new technique can be applied to the discrimination problem at various
260 monitoring distances.

261 *Optimal Signal Separation and Monitoring Implications*

262 Previous studies have shown that for ESA, either amplitude or phase distance can perform
263 better for a particular signal classification application (Tucker et al., 2014) and linear
264 combinations of them can provide better results than using either one alone. Using MDJ as an
265 example, we saw that D_y by itself and the joint combination of D_y and D_x had a greater
266 classification accuracy than D_x (Table 1, Figure 4). Why might that be? It could be due to the

267 higher relative P_n and P_g amplitudes on the explosion waveforms, which are present across a
268 wide frequency band. Alternatively, it may be due the complexity of phase information between
269 these source types which suggests phase-based metrics alone may not offer a simple
270 interpretation. We are also interested is the relationship between cross-correlation coefficient
271 and phase or amplitude distance, as well. We showed that a given distance matrix has an
272 inverse relationship to the similarity matrix, consistent with our hypothesis that any two highly
273 similar signals will have a smaller distance between them in phase or amplitude spaces (Figures
274 2 and 4). ESA could be adapted to assist empirical cross-correlation signal detection by
275 extending the correlation range of templates to account for small differences in source
276 mechanism or Green's function. One of the biggest shortcomings of standard correlation
277 detectors is the curation of an optimal template library and appropriate detection statistic
278 (Gibbons, 2022). We believe automatic event screening could leverage one (or more) signal
279 distance spaces to address this issue.

280

281 We have shown that nonlinear alignment techniques such as DTW or ESA can discriminate
282 signal types, with special consideration to frequency content, time-window, and component
283 analyzed. Low magnitude events may be difficult to classify due to their lower SNR when
284 regional distance stations are used. The potential advantage of the discriminant method we
285 presented here is that one can use the full waveform, increasing the available time bandwidth
286 product. Possible future directions include examining the transportability of this discriminant
287 method using a larger regional dataset, systematic evaluation of how monitoring distance and
288 frequency passband influence the results, and an exploration into how additional source

289 information can be inferred from phase or amplitude distance metrics (i.e., yield, hypocenter
290 depth/depth-of-burial).

291 Data and Resources

292 To replicate our workflow, the *Computer Programs in Seismology* (CPS) software must be
293 compiled (installation here: <https://www.eas.slu.edu/eqc/eqccps.html>). Earthquake, collapse,
294 and explosion waveforms are freely accessible through the IRIS data web-service (last accessed
295 on May 10, 2024). Maps are made using the PyGMT software (Uieda et al., 2023).

296 Declaration of Competing Interests

297 The authors acknowledge that there are no conflicts of interest recorded.

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403 Tables

404 **Table 1:** Hierarchical Clustering Results for Regional Seismic Stations. Note that due to data
 405 availability issues or low SNR, not all events are included at a particular station.

Station	Component(s)	Signal Type	Events Included	Source Receiver Distance (km)	Window Length (sec)	Filter band (Hz)	% Accuracy cy (Dx)	% Accuracy cy (Dy)	% Accuracy (DTWdist)
SEHB	BHN	Envelope	EQ1, EQ2, EQ7, NK5, NK6, CO	344.1	100	0.8 – 8.0	33	50	50
MDJ	BHZ	Waveform	EQ1, EQ2, EQ3, EQ4, EQ5, EQ6,	371.0	100	0.5 – 5.0	65	90	90
SEO2	BHN	Waveform	EQ1, EQ2, EQ3, EQ9, EQ10, EQ11	461.8	120	0.8 – 6.0	67	67	67
YSS	BHZ	Waveform	EQ2, NK4, NK4, NK5, NK6, CO	1256.6	440	0.5 – 6.0	N/A	N/A	N/A

Net work	KS	IC	KS	IC
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407 List of Figures Captions

408

409 *Figure 1. Illustrative example of nonlinear alignment algorithms applied to explosions (vertical component)*
410 *recorded at DBO8, a station belonging to the Dongbei Seismic Network. A) Normalized, filtered signals (3-pole,*
411 *zero-phase, 0.5 – 2 Hz Butterworth) from the NK1 and NK2 nuclear tests and aligned signals using ESA and*
412 *DTW are shown. A metric for similarity, the maximum cross-correlation coefficient (CC), is tabulated before*
413 *and after alignment. P_n and P_g seismic phase arrivals are labeled by the solid and dashed vertical lines,*
414 *respectively. B) The ESA warping function plotted through time between NK1 and NK2. The elastic phase (Dx)*
415 *and amplitude (Dy) distance are given in the upper lefthand corner. C) The warping path (W_p) between NK1*
416 *and NK2 using DTW without constraints. W_p is superposed over the base ten logarithm of the accumulated*
417 *distance matrix (D). The DTW distance (DTW_{dist}) is given in the upper righthand plot. NK1 and NK2 denote the*
418 *9 October 2006 01:35:28.00 and 25 May 2009 00:54:43.12 nuclear tests, respectively (Table 1 in Tibi, 2021).*

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420 *Figure 2. A) Concatenated vertical (Z) and radial (R) component synthetics calculated for the Ford et al. (2009) velocity*
421 *model recorded at a source-receiver distance of 100 km assuming an azimuth of 30 degrees and hypocenter depth of*
422 *1 km. Source mechanisms range from purely double-couple (bottom) to implosive (top) sources. The waveforms are*
423 *normalized to their respective maximum amplitude and distinct phase arrival times are denoted by thin gray lines on*
424 *Z components. Direct P and S are labeled. B) Dynamic time warping distance (DTW_{dist}) between each waveform pair*
425 *relative to EQ1, normalized by the largest DTW_{dist} . C) Elastic phase (Dx) and amplitude (Dy) distances for each warping*
426 *pair (unnormalized). Legend in C applies to subfigures B and C.*

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428 *Figure 3. A) Map of DPRK and surrounding region showing seismic stations used in the cluster analysis. Average*
429 *epicenter of the NK1 - NK6 tests, collapse event, and naturally occurring earthquakes is denoted by the red star. B)*
430 *Example vertical-component waveforms of an explosion, collapse and earthquake event recorded at station MDJ*
431 *(network IC). National Earthquake Information Center body-wave magnitudes (m_b) tabulated on the righthand side*

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433 whereas the PREM earth model is used to calculate P_n and P_g arrival times.

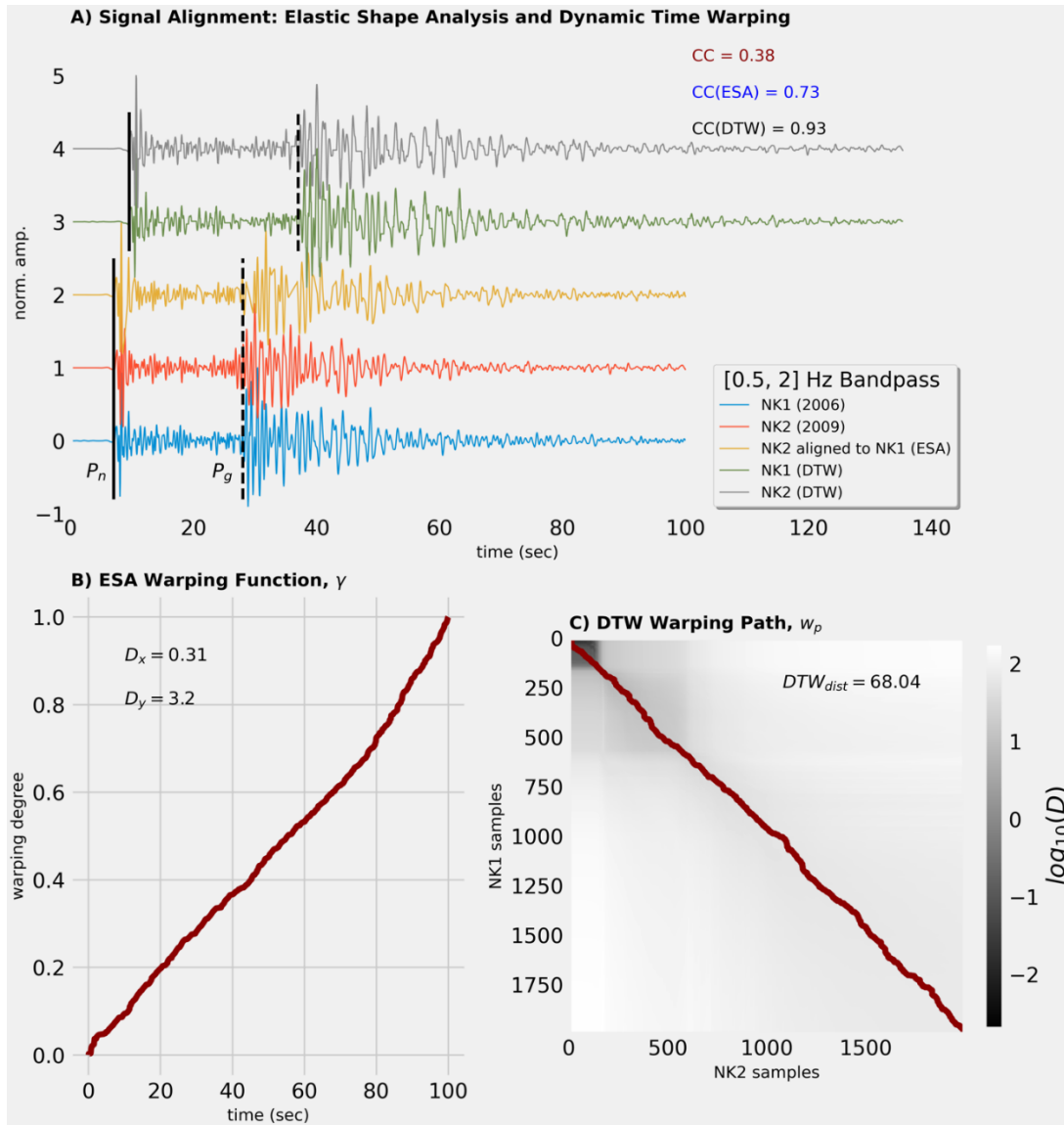
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435 Figure 4. Cluster analysis at station MDJ. Indices along the axes in (A)-(D) are as follows: 0 – 12 (earthquake), 13 –
436 18 (explosion) and 19 (collapse. A) Phase distance, B) amplitude distance, C) DTW distance, and D) maximum cross-
437 correlation coefficient between every earthquake, explosion and collapse signal pair. The diagonal of each
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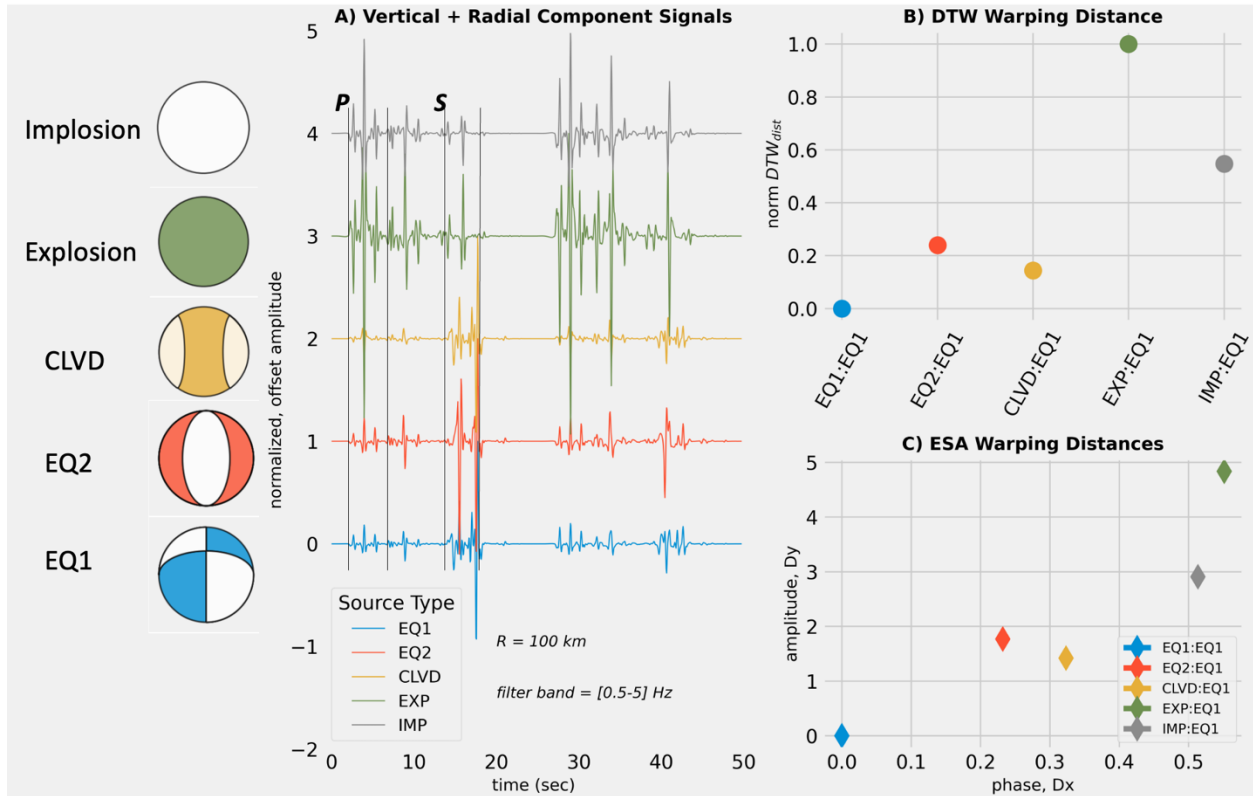
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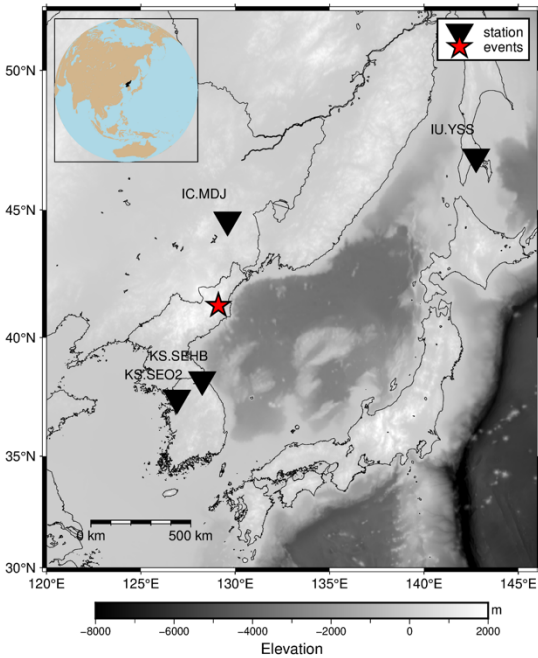
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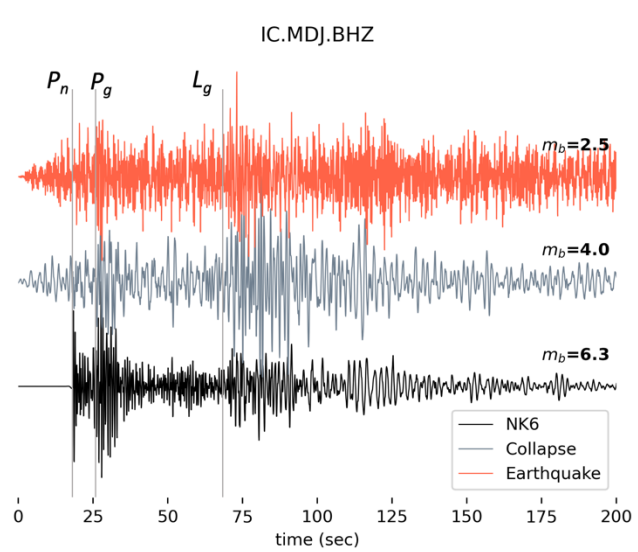
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A) Study Region and Stations Analyzed



B) Representative Waveforms



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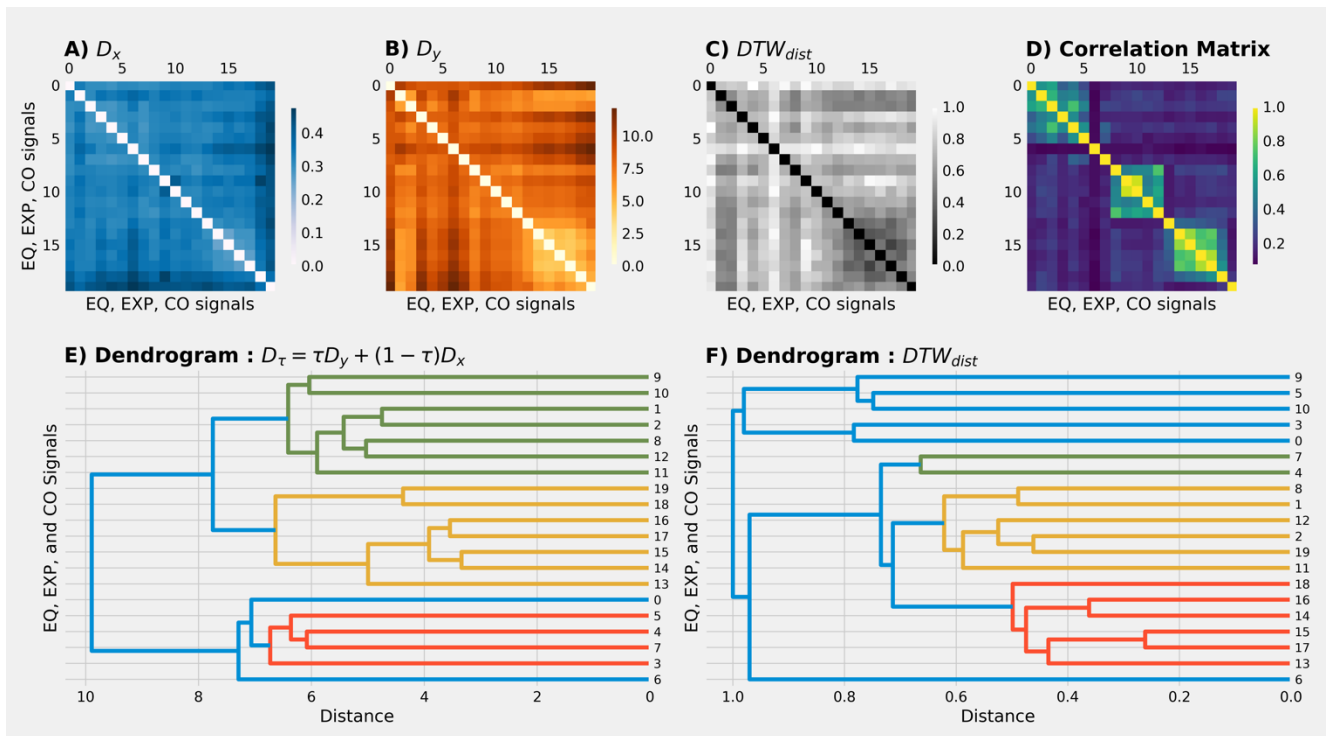
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