

# 1 **Deep Learning Models Augment Analyst Decisions for Event Discrimination**

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## 7 **KEY POINTS:**

- 8 • Neural network models achieve above 99% classification accuracy between surface mining
- 9 and tectonic events in Utah
- 10 • Model predictions are sensitive to P, S and coda wave energy
- 11 • 3-component data is typically more accurate but not required for prediction

12

## 13 **ABSTRACT**

14 Long-term seismic monitoring networks are well positioned to leverage advances in machine  
15 learning because of the abundance of labeled training data that curated event catalogs provide.

16 We explore the use of Convolutional and Recurrent Neural Networks to accomplish

17 discrimination of explosive and tectonic sources for local distances. Using a 5-year event catalog

18 generated by the University of Utah Seismograph Stations we train models to produce automated

19 event labels using 90 s event spectrograms from 3-component and single-channel sensors. Both

20 network architectures are able to replicate analyst labels above 98%. Most commonly, model

21 error is the result of label error (70% of cases). Accounting for mislabeled events (~1% of the

22 catalog) model accuracy for both models increases to above 99%. Classification accuracy

23 remains above 98% for shallow tectonic events, indicating that spectral characteristics controlled

24 by event depth do not play a dominant role in event discrimination.

25

## 26 **PLAIN LANGUAGE SUMMARY**

27 Seismic events observed using sensor networks are typically reviewed manually by seismic  
28 analysts to determine which source generated each event. In Utah, two of the most common  
29 event types are tectonic, or naturally occurring earthquakes, and quarry blasts from surface  
30 quarry operations. Since analysts in Utah have been reviewing events in Utah for more than 50  
31 years, a large catalog of events labeled by source type exists. In this work we explore methods to  
32 leverage labeled event types from part of the catalog to automate event labelling for future  
33 events. Our approach includes two neural network variations (Recurrent and Convolutional) to  
34 identify events as either quarry blasts or earthquakes. Both methods achieve similar classification  
35 accuracies above 99%, which rivals the accuracy of human analysts on the same task.

36

## 37 INTRODUCTION

38 Discrimination between local tectonic events and mining or quarry blasts is a challenge  
39 common to seismic networks and researchers working to build seismicity catalogs in regions  
40 where both tectonic seismicity and anthropogenic sources exist (Astiz et al., 2014) because  
41 published seismic catalogs are typically intended to contain only events that pertain to the study  
42 of elastic strain partitioning and release in the crust. Within Utah, both earthquakes and quarry  
43 blasts occur in abundance, often in close spatial proximity, making event labelling a significant  
44 task for analysts.

45 Many of the strategies developed for automated or semi-automated approaches to source  
46 discrimination at local to regional scales exploit amplitude and spectral ratios of wave phases  
47 that are sensitive to source and/or path characteristics. For example, explosive sources  
48 preferentially excite P wave energy compared to S (Stump et al., 2002). At frequencies around 1-  
49 2 Hz, the amplitudes of P waves are typically much smaller than those of later arriving Lg phases

50 (further distances) or Rg phases (closer distances), and many strategies exploit these  
51 relationships (Lg: Dysart and Pulli, 1990; Baumgardt and Young, 1990; Mayeda, 1993; Rg:  
52 O'Rourke and Baker, 2016; Tibi et al., 2018). Although amplitude ratio methods perform well  
53 when tuned for specific datasets, their use can be limited when ratios rely on wave phases that  
54 are unavailable (at larger distances, for example), difficult to isolate (at very short distances), or  
55 occur in high-noise environments. Other recent approaches to event discrimination avoid issues  
56 related to phase isolation through the use of coda waves. For example, Koper et al. (2017) show  
57 that the duration of coda waves can help discriminate surface events from deeper tectonic  
58 earthquakes at local scales. However, methods that rely on waveform characteristics dominantly  
59 controlled by depth can have limited ability to resolve tectonic from anthropogenic sources in  
60 regions where tectonic events are shallow.

61 In this work we test two neural network (NN) architectures (Convolutional and  
62 Recurrent) on the task of binary event classification for tectonic earthquakes and quarry blasts at  
63 local scales. Both architectures achieve accuracies above 99% without waveform segmentation  
64 (by phase), feature engineering, or path corrections, avoiding manual feature selection and  
65 threshold tuning. The Utah models are also able to generalize over many source-path  
66 combinations (rather than a model per station approach) for many thousands of discrete sources  
67 and for distances between sub-km scale up to 400 km. Although deep neural networks are clearly  
68 competent at event discrimination using Utah data, they do so at the cost of transparency; the  
69 complex data routing through the non-linear modular hierarchy in model space obfuscates any  
70 direct or intuitive links to the underlying physics that lead to successful discrimination. In an  
71 effort to increase trust and transparency in trained models, we suggest a simple approach that  
72 leads to interpretable links between successful model predictions and underlying physics.

73

74 DATA

75         This study uses event solutions (phase arrival times, earthquake locations and  
76 magnitudes, etc.) from the University of Utah Seismograph Stations (UUSS) between October  
77 2012 and July 2017 for events labeled as local earthquakes or quarry blasts by UUSS analysts  
78 (13,313 events; 103,944 phases). We use phase pick qualities of 1 or higher (expected pick errors  
79 small than  $\pm 0.06$  sec) for local earthquakes, and 2 or higher ( $\pm 0.15$  sec) for quarry blasts. The  
80 number of examples from each class are balanced within 8% (46% quarry blasts, 54% local  
81 earthquakes), with more quarry blasts at intermediate distances and local earthquakes at near-  
82 source distances (Figure 1).

83         Waveforms are downloaded for each event from the Incorporated Research Institutions  
84 for Seismology (IRIS) using web-services for 10 s of data prior to the first P arrival and 2 min  
85 following the first arrival. For all examples (an event recorded on a single station with 1-3  
86 channels), we resample the data to a uniform sample rate of 100 Hz. We then detrend, taper  
87 (Hann window, 1%), correct for instrument sensitivity, and apply a high-pass filter at 1Hz  
88 (Butterworth, 4-corner). For 3-component data, we rotate the recorded north-south and east-west  
89 horizontal channels to the radial (R) and tangential (T) orientations, respectively, using the  
90 azimuth from the receiver to the source. We then calculate a spectrogram using 2.56 s windows  
91 (256 samples, 12% overlap), keeping only frequencies between 1 and 20 Hz and times up to 90 s  
92 for all available channels.

93         UUSS maintains a variety of sensor types, some of which are not triaxial. 3-component  
94 data constitutes 50% of all examples. For single-channel (vertical) stations we fill the empty

95 horizontal channel spectrograms with zeros. Valid data channel spectrograms are log-scaled and  
96 normalized by the max spectral value.

97  
98 METHOD

99         Neural networks are a well-established technique in seismic event processing, and some  
100 early implementations exhibit success on tasks that require minimal generalization despite  
101 predating some of the optimization and training strategies that make NN variations as successful  
102 as they are today (Del Pezzo et al., 2003; Dowla et al., 1990; Dysert and Pulli, 1990). We use  
103 two specific architectural adaptations to basic neural networks in the work presented here (Figure  
104 2). Our first architecture is a recurrent neural network (RNN) variation called Long-Short-Term-  
105 Memory (LSTM; Hochrieter and Schmithuber, 1997). This adaptation of the RNN architecture  
106 solves issues introduced by back-propagating gradients used to train the network over many  
107 time-steps (Bengio, et al. 1994). We also use bidirectional layers to give both past and future  
108 context to current examples (Graves et al., 2005; Graves et al., 2013). The LSTM model routes  
109 input spectrograms (40\*48 time-frequency indexed amplitude values) to output classes (local  
110 earthquake or quarry blasts encoded as 0 and 1, respectively) through 4 layers (node counts: 40,  
111 40, 80, 80) in a many-to-one learning scenario (we take input from many time-steps to make one  
112 binary classification). Each LSTM node maintains a hidden state that is determined using  
113 weighted input and (typically) sigmoid activated gates with learned parameters that control  
114 information flow and output predictions (see Method Details the supplementary section of this  
115 document for additional details).

116         The second model architecture we test is a Convolutional Neural Network (CNN)  
117 (LeCun, et al. 1998). CNN methods have been widely adopted for seismic signal processing in  
118 recent years (Krizhevsky et al., 2012; Perol et al., 2017; Ross et al., 2018) and rely on the

119 assumption that characteristic features useful for classification over the entire dataset (in our  
120 case, pixel amplitude patterns from small image sections) can be learned and represented in  
121 hierarchical filters of finite size. Although previous work demonstrates that CNN's can utilize  
122 raw waveform data, for our data raw input CNN models underperformed compared to models  
123 that used spectrograms as input. Our final CNN models used 4 convolutional layers (filter count:  
124 18, 36, 54, 54), one fully connected layer, Rectified Linear Units (ReLU;  $f(x) = \max(0, x)$ ) and  
125 (2x2) max-pooling between each layer.

126 For the final layer in both architectures, we interpret output activations as a probability  
127 over all possible outputs using the softmax function (i.e. the probability of each class is  
128 computed by forcing the values of the output layer in the network to sum to 1 and be between 0  
129 and 1). The final model performance is reported as the median of model accuracy and the  
130 standard deviation between all models using 10-fold cross-validation (80% training, 10%  
131 validation, 10% test).

132 Each event is associated with examples from as few as 1 station and up to 48 stations. In  
133 order to avoid class dominance over each training iteration, we randomize at the sample level  
134 using a batch size of 16, after partitioning at the event level. We cease training when accuracy on  
135 the validation set failed to increase over 8 iterations (epochs) through the training data and  
136 choose as a final model the earliest epoch with the highest validation accuracy.

137

## 138 RESULTS

139 Figure 3 presents cross-validation results for each model (LSTM, CNN), with accuracy  
140 reported at both the station-level and network-levels for data within the UUSS authoritative  
141 review boundary (Lat: 37° to 42° N, Lon: 114° to 109° W). Station-level accuracy is derived

142 using all examples, regardless of which event they associate to. Network-level accuracy  
143 combines all station-level examples from a single event, using the maximum of the summed  
144 class probabilities (explosion or earthquake) to determine one classification per event.

145 Trained models demonstrate notable similarities, all achieving ~96% on station-level  
146 classification, ~98% using more than 1 station, and additional gains on the order of fractions of a  
147 percent from additional stations. Restricting test data to events within Utah increases station-  
148 level accuracies by 0.8% and 0.9% for LSTM and CNN models, respectively. Differences  
149 between event level accuracy for earthquakes and quarry blasts when using equally weighted  
150 predictions for each station (instead of allowing highly confident examples to dominate  
151 predictions; see supplementary section S1 for a more detailed explanation) suggests that trained  
152 models are more adept at generalizing earthquake sources than quarry blasts in Utah.

153 We manually evaluated misclassified events from each model for data within Utah. Out  
154 of 167 misclassified events, 120 were misclassified by both CNN and LSTM models. Of the 120  
155 misclassified events, 70% were mislabeled by analysts (based on manual review using  
156 waveforms, locations, multiple analysts and long-term catalog data for context). For the  
157 remaining 47 events misclassified by either CNN or LSTM, 9% (4/47) of the CNN  
158 misclassifications were label error and 19% (9/47) of the LSTM misclassifications were from  
159 label error. Removing mislabeled events or correcting event labels results in event-level  
160 classification accuracies of 99.1%.

161 There are 103,944 examples available for model training and testing in the Utah. 50,581  
162 examples (49%) are from single component (vertical) stations, with null horizontal channels  
163 values. For our data, models trained on individual channels give nearly the same reported  
164 accuracies (vertical=93.8%, radial= 93.9%, transverse=93.3% accuracy), but when used together

165 accuracy increases by  $\sim 1.5\%$  (on single-fold trials). While null channels do not appear to be a  
166 significant impediment to accurate predictions, vertical-only cases are disproportionately  
167 represented in misclassified examples (62% from single-channel vs 38% from triaxial sensors).

168 We validate our event duration selection (90 s) using test data that includes a 5-minute  
169 window following the event onset. Models trained on 5-minute duration and a 90 s duration yield  
170 equivalent accuracy. Investigating how short a window could be used, we found that using just  
171 the first 4 spectral windows following event onset ( $\sim 9$  s), a trained CNN (2-4 layers)  
172 accomplished station level accuracy of  $84.7 \pm 0.7\%$  and event level accuracy of  $94.4 \pm 0.9\%$   
173 using 10-fold cross-validation.

174 We evaluate event distributions for misclassified events to identify deviations between  
175 correctly and incorrectly identified examples (Figure 3; bottom). Overall differences between  
176 correct and incorrect distributions are minor, and individually neither magnitude, depth or  
177 distance account for a majority of example misclassifications. To further validate model  
178 insensitivity to event depth, we test model performance on local earthquakes with epicentral  
179 depths of 2 km or less and find that model accuracy remains above 98% for shallow tectonic  
180 earthquakes.

181 Many modern deep NNs are known to be poorly calibrated (Guo et al., 2017) and can  
182 offer untrustworthy assessments of prediction certainty especially for out-of-distribution samples  
183 (Lee et al., 2018). Most (92%) station-level predictions from Utah models are made with 90%  
184 certainty (softmax probability) or greater. Network-level predictions for events that agree and  
185 events that disagree with analyst labels report high levels of certainty (96% are above a median  
186 class difference of .8, where 1 is completely sure and at 0.5 the prediction is equally split  
187 between classes) indicating that thresholds on certainty estimates are not likely to be a viable

188 way to limit events that require manual review following model classification. Despite high  
189 certainties for misclassifications, which in many cases is due to event mislabeling, uncertain  
190 event locations generally follow the locations of incorrectly classified events when label error is  
191 accounted for. Utah models are more likely to be uncertain about local earthquakes (278/454  
192 unsure events are local earthquakes), and most of the unsure local earthquake events occur in  
193 mining areas where tectonic seismicity and mining induced seismicity occur together. The  
194 Bingham mine dominates spatial event densities where the model incorrectly classifies quarry  
195 blast examples at the station level (Figure S2 available in the electronic supplement to this  
196 article).

197         Although class activation mapping or saliency methods are a common approach to  
198 identifying aspects of the input that are influential for prediction (Adebayo et al., 2018;  
199 Shrikumar, et al., 2017; Simoyan et al., 2013), we use a simple occlusion method that generates  
200 spatial heatmaps of accuracy deflections and inflations after we iteratively mask sections of the  
201 input signal. We remove signal (zero fill) 2x5 non-overlapping pixel blocks from randomly  
202 selected input examples and stack the resulting accuracy over 1000 iterations for each class.  
203 Figure 4 outlines deflections in accuracy when the model is denied access to information from  
204 regions of the input over many examples from each class. It is apparent that removing non-event  
205 related signal tends to increase prediction certainty, verifying that features more important for  
206 prediction are not directly related to processing artifacts or ambient noise conditions. The  
207 absence of 5-10 Hz S-wave energy on the transverse component causes the largest decrease in  
208 prediction certainty for local earthquakes at the 50-75 km source-receiver distances, while for  
209 quarry blasts earlier arriving phases at lower frequencies on vertical channels are more  
210 important. Although Figure 4 uses low frequency-time resolution, pixel-scale resolution provides

211 a way to link fluctuations in model certainty to specific wave phases (Figure S3 available in the  
212 supplementary section of this article).

213

## 214 DISCUSSION

215 There is a clear temporal progression expressed in the records of seismic sources captured  
216 by distant receivers. This is the result of a complex source coupled with wave propagation  
217 through a complex earth medium. In our data, examples sample discrete portions of the crust  
218 over various distances with at least 4 distinct velocity profiles (Roller, 1965; Keller et al., 1975;  
219 Pechmann et al. 1984; Loeb, 1986). Previous work has navigated some of the complexity in  
220 waveforms through feature engineering, and data segmentation (e.g., using only information  
221 from specific wave phases that are pre-cut from the data). The diversity of training examples  
222 available in even modest duration catalogs appears to be sufficient to generalize well for  
223 earthquakes sources in Utah. Quarry blast event accuracy depends more highly on representative  
224 samples with higher classification certainty, indicating that model retraining may be required  
225 over time for new mine sites, mine products or extraction techniques.

226 Although LSTM models are a more intuitive choice for time-dependent signal modeling,  
227 CNN models appear to be equally as adept at modeling the variation within Utah data given the  
228 data representation. Our results suggest that LSTM models may have the capacity to model time  
229 dependence that far exceeds the capacity required to model the 40 time-steps of our input.  
230 Likewise, we achieve no additional gains in accuracy by increasing CNN model depth beyond 4  
231 layers (the 11-layer CNN model of Simoyan and Zisserman, 2014 for example gives equivalent  
232 accuracies). It is generally observed that feature complexity increases with CNN model depth  
233 (Figure S3 available in the supplementary section to this article). The ability to learn and

234 discriminate meaningful patterns at scales that exceed the fixed resolution of our event  
235 spectrograms seems neither possible, nor helpful.

236         When mislabeled events exist in the test data, even sparsely, they can obscure true  
237 estimates of model performance because each event has on average 8, and up to 48 associated  
238 examples, and because events remain associated within each data split. We conservatively  
239 estimate a ~1% label error rate (LER) for all data (based on the difference between accuracy for  
240 all data vs Utah-only data for models trained on all data). Quarterly reviews by UUSS analysts  
241 offer secondary quality checks on examples within the UUSS authoritative boundaries. This  
242 additional review may account for part of why events outside of Utah have a higher label error  
243 rate. Other viable reasons for decreased label accuracy outside Utah include lack of  
244 comprehensive mine databases and reduced communication with mine operators compared to  
245 sites within Utah.

246         There is remarkable consistency between station-level classifications for events even  
247 when the model disagrees with the analyst label. Inside Utah, station-level agreement that  
248 disagrees with network-level analyst labels often identifies events that were mislabeled by  
249 analysts. The ability to identify mislabeled events with reasonable accuracy (70% using  
250 ensemble predictions from both CNN and LSTM models) makes this method useful for the  
251 identification of analyst error going back (or with caution, forward in time) for cataloged events.

252         Identification and exclusion of mislabeled events precludes an examination of meaningful  
253 patterns in misclassified examples. Manual review of a subset of model misclassifications in  
254 Utah (where both CNN and LSTM models agreed) was possible because we use a modest sized  
255 training catalog (5 years, 13k events) and because trained models maintained low error rates. We  
256 mention this to highlight difficulties that arise in assessing model performance as it approaches

257 or exceeds human error rates and data size increases. In our data, excluding mislabeled events  
258 and evaluating misclassifications suggests that misclassifications are not easily explainable  
259 systematically, but require scrutiny at the individual example level.

260 The main objective of this work was to build a model capable of reproducing analyst  
261 classifications on new incoming data from the UUSS network in near real-time. We chose to  
262 partition training data randomly but acknowledge that future studies may benefit from a temporal  
263 partitioning that may more directly assess the performance of models under realistic monitoring  
264 conditions. With a classification latency of  $\sim 80$  seconds after the first arrival on a station we  
265 achieve network level accuracies above 99%. It is possible to reduce signal length to a few  
266 seconds following the first arrival, however lack of P and S energy for most samples reduces  
267 accuracy to 94.4% at the event level (CNN, using events with more than 2 associated station  
268 examples).

269 An additional expectation was that models handle data from both single-component and 3-  
270 channel stations. While sufficient information for classification exists in each channel individually (R, T,  
271 Z demonstrate nearly equal performance), together they perform better (by  $\sim 1.5\%$ ) and station level  
272 accuracy is 2% higher for triaxial examples (97% and 95%, for triaxial and vertical, respectively).  
273 Allowing models to learn from all three channels but still make predictions on examples where only  
274 vertical data are available extends the usage to events that occur outside of areas with broadband coverage  
275 (or fractionally about half of the network stations).

276 We expect significant variation at the source level within each class. The mining industry  
277 employs a variety of blasting methods (Langefors, 1978; Persson et al., 1994; Dowding, 1985).  
278 For local earthquakes, variation can come from fault and local stress conditions. We do not  
279 attempt to resolve dependence on these variations for any of the misclassified examples, but we  
280 note that model uncertainty for local earthquakes (less than 90% confident) is most highly

281 concentrated in areas where mining-induced seismicity and tectonic seismicity are both known to  
282 occur. For quarry blasts, the model uncertainty is concentrated around the Bingham copper mine.

283

## 284 CONCLUSIONS

285         The models presented here were developed to demonstrate that deep learning can be a  
286 highly accurate way to classify seismic events for monitoring networks with stable station  
287 characteristics, a diversity of tectonic event locations and static mine site locations. We show that  
288 several model architectures can successfully accomplish binary event classification at accuracies  
289 above 99%. We allow our models access to both source and path-controlled information, in  
290 addition to ambient background noise and null data (zero fill for vertical only stations), requiring  
291 each model to learn, through training, which aspects of the input domain are most important for  
292 prediction. We verify that learned features are directly related to event signal, and that while  
293 model predictions exploit multiple aspects of each signal including those related to source and  
294 path, the resulting models performs event discrimination that goes beyond event depth.

295         In addition, we demonstrate that events that may be ambiguous in the analyst domain, are often  
296 clear outliers within the NN model domain. Each model is able to identify human errors within the event  
297 catalog. We also highlight that events outside of Utah have a higher label error rate (~1%) than events  
298 within Utah. Our best model trained on Utah-only data performs above 99% for network-level  
299 classification and above 96% on station-level classification when mislabeled events are excluded. The  
300 identification of mislabeling as a significant source of model misclassification highlights ongoing  
301 difficulties researchers face in assessing model performance as it approaches or exceed human error rates.  
302 Although confidence assessments for individual examples should be interpreted with caution, locations  
303 within Utah that produce event predictions with the highest model confidence on average occur in regions  
304 where both mining induced seismicity and tectonic earthquakes or quarry blasts exist. Variation in

305 prediction confidence for specific source types or geographic areas illuminates a level of complexity in  
306 the target domain that is not represented in the binary event labelling schema.

307

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309 We rely on the Center for High Performance Computing at the University of Utah for  
310 computational resources. We use Tensorflow and Theano for early implementations and iterate  
311 model parameters using Keras. Training data and final models are available on git  
312 (<https://github.com/quapity/Utah>). Our figures were generated using Matplotlib, Basemap and  
313 Seaborn. UUSS data were accessed from IRIS using webservices and Obspy. Data processing  
314 relied on python libraries scipy and numpy. Sandia National Laboratories is a multi-mission  
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319 expressed in the paper do not necessarily represent the views of the U.S. Department of Energy  
320 or the United States Government.

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324 FIGURES AND TABLE CAPTIONS

325 **Figure 1.** Map of events (circles) and source-receiver paths (lines) from UUSS for quarry blasts  
326 (red) and local earthquakes (blue). Receivers (white circles) are labeled by station name. The  
327 UUSS catalog includes events outside of the authoritative catalog boundaries (Lat:  $37^\circ$  to  $42^\circ$  N,  
328 Lon:  $114^\circ$  to  $109^\circ$  W). The data used in this study includes events from outside the authoritative  
329 review boundary, but model accuracy is reported using data inside Utah only because of the  
330 difficulty in assessing true event labels for events outside the review boundary. See text for  
331 further discussion on event mislabeling.

332

333 **Figure 2.** Top: 3-channel 90 second event spectrogram model input. Bottom: Permutations  
334 of 3-channel spectrograms for model input. In the LSTM architecture the spectrogram enters  
335 the model as a  $40 \times 144$  matrix (time-step, frequency feature) where the 144 dimension is a  
336 3-channel frequency power spectral density vector for each time time-step. The CNN  
337 architecture takes example spectrograms as  $40 \times 48 \times 3$  volumes (time, frequency, channel). The  
338 red box indicates the starting computation using a  $2 \times 2$  pixel filter that shares weights along  
339 the depth axis of the volume.

340

341 **Figure 3.** Top: model accuracy (by class) for station examples and network level predictions,  
342 where each station example associated with an event votes for a final event classification.  
343 Results are restricted to data within the authoritative review boundary for Utah. Bottom:

344 violin plots showing the distribution of misclassified events (colored by class label  
345 and normalized to equal area owing to the sparsity of misclassified examples) and  
346 the correctly classified events as a function of distance, depth, magnitude and time  
347 for all data. For the distance view (top left), earthquakes are slightly more likely to  
348 be misclassified if the receiver is further away from the source than the average for  
349 correctly predicted examples. For the depth view (top right), there is a clear skew  
350 toward shallow events for the earthquake class. These events predominantly occur  
351 outside of Utah and are misclassified by analysts based on time-of-day and location.  
352 Misclassified examples in Magnitude space (bottom left) more closely resemble the  
353 opposite class for both local earthquakes and quarry blasts. In time space (bottom  
354 right), month scale resolution indicates that there is no clear temporal bias to  
355 misclassified events, although for the earthquake class, misclassified events  
356 disproportionately occur slightly earlier in the event catalog. We find that misclassified  
357 local earthquakes on average have 18 km longer source-receiver distances, magnitudes that  
358 are 0.46 magnitude units larger, and occur at depths less than 2.5 km on average.

359 Misclassified quarry blasts have average distances that are 3.8 km greater, 0.2 magnitude  
360 units smaller, and are 1.22 km shallower.

361

362 **Figure 4.** Regions of the spectrogram most important for model predictions. To identify the  
363 regions of input spectrograms that have the largest influence on average prediction we generate  
364 heatmaps for specific source-receiver distances by removing signal from 2x5 patches and  
365 evaluating inflections in model accuracy over 1000 iterations.

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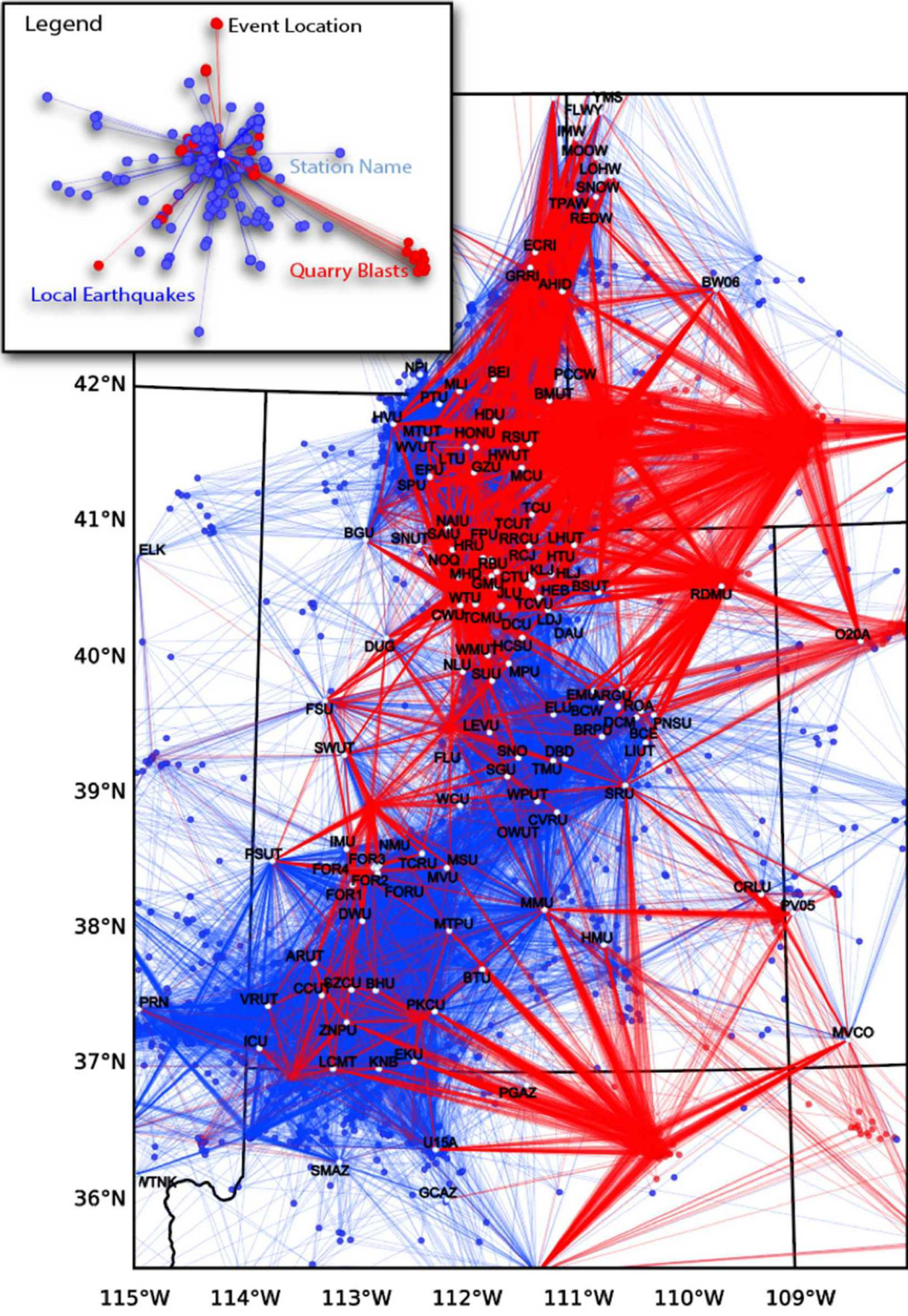
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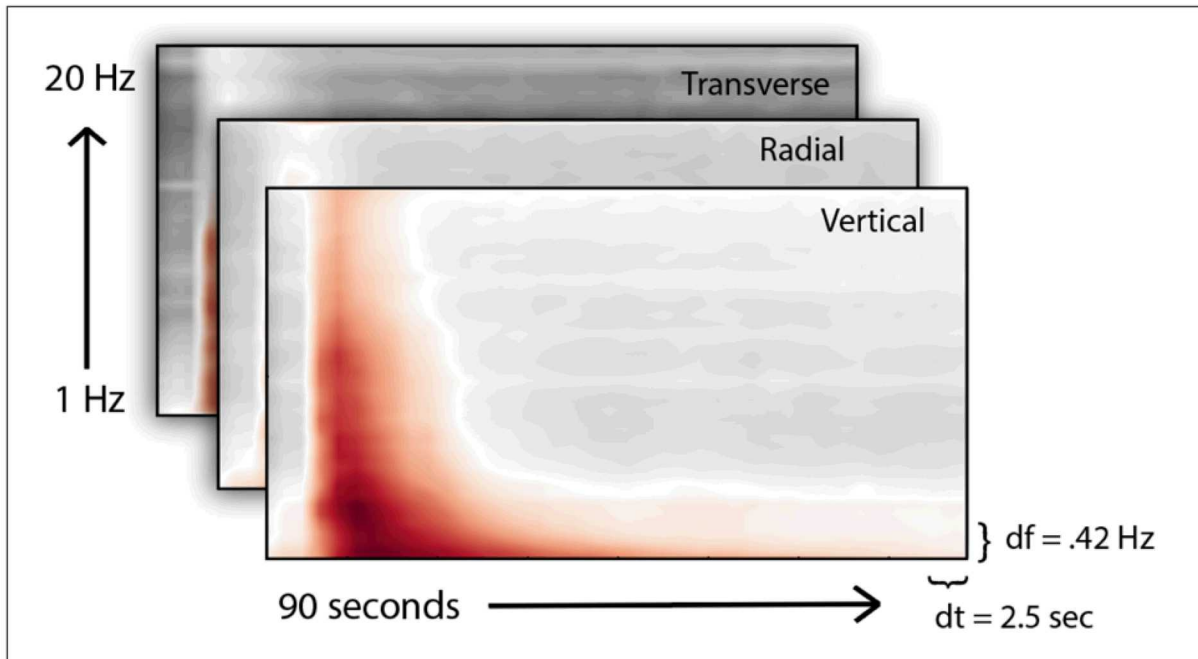
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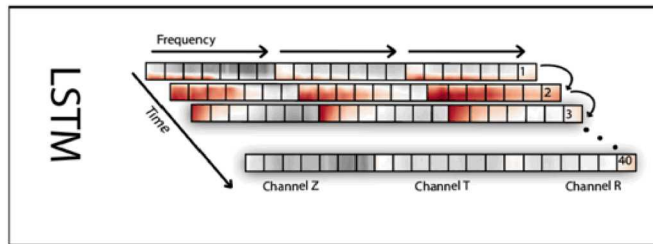
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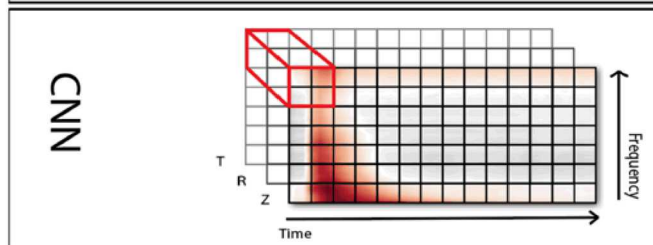




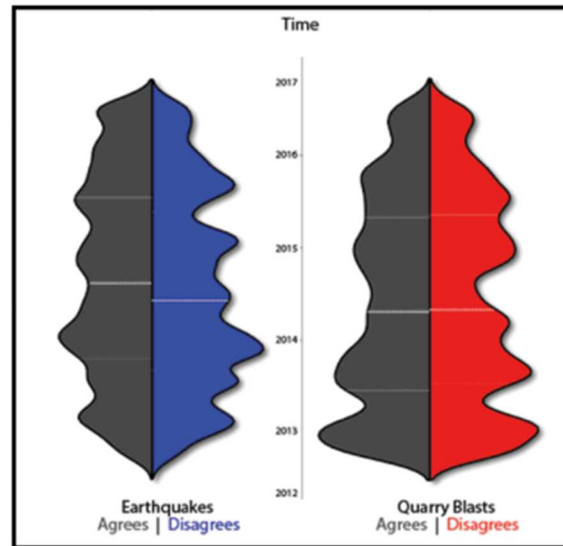
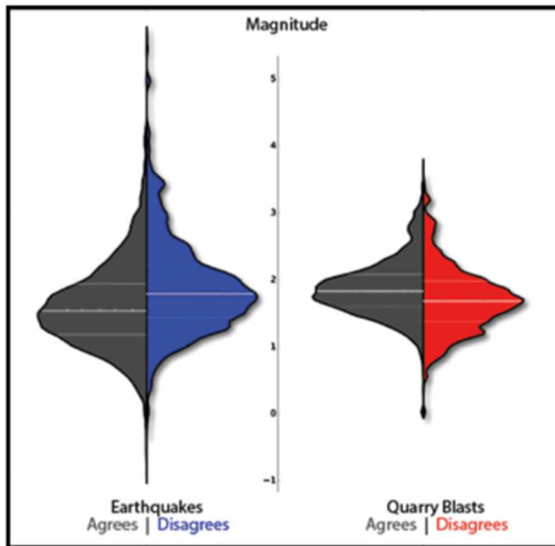
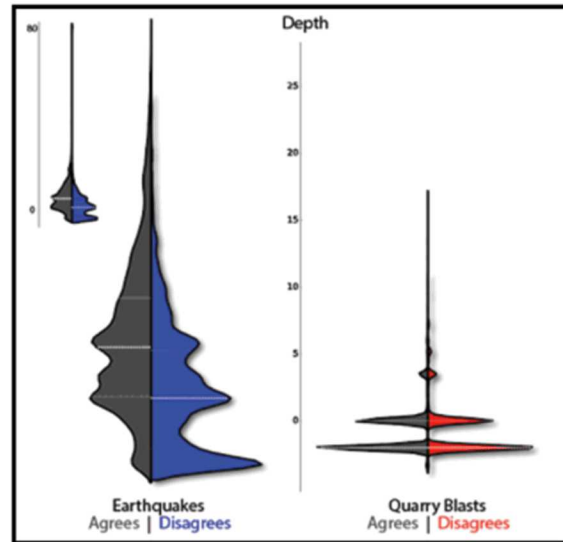
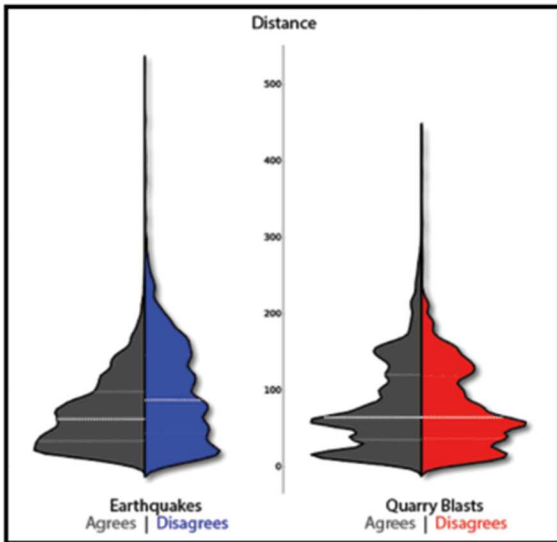
Long Short Term Memory  
 Hochreiter and Schmidhuber 1997  
 40x144 input  
 4 layers 40,40,80,80



Convolutional Neural Network  
 LeCun et al. 1998  
 3x40x48 input  
 4 layers  
 Filters -18,36,54,54  
 (max) Pooling - 2x2



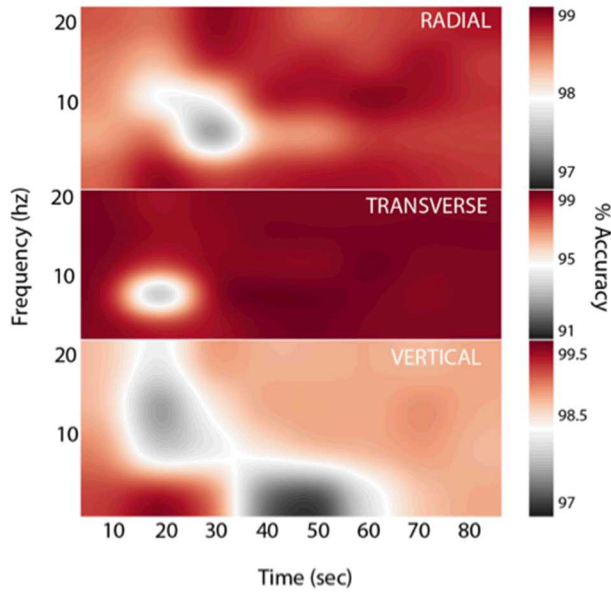
CNN ACCURACY		LSTM ACCURACY		
	Station	Network	Station	Network
LE	95.8 ± .9	99.1 ± .5	96.0 ± .9	99.0 ± .5
QB	95.8 ± .8	99.3 ± .3	95.9 ± .8	99.5 ± .4



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### Local Earthquakes (50-75 km)



### Quarry Blasts (50-75 km)

