

1 **A comprehensive moment magnitude catalog for the Northeastern Italy region**

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

18

19 **Abstract**

20 We present a comprehensive catalog of independent moment magnitude (M_w) estimates for

21 northeastern Italy and its neighboring regions using data from the OGS (OX) network. The catalog,

22 spanning from 2016 to 2023, covers the geographical area between 10.0° – 14.5° north latitude and

23 44.5° – 47.0° east longitude. In this region, we identified 11,685 low-to-moderate magnitude

24 earthquakes ($-0.70 \leq M_L \leq 4.35$) suitable for independent M_w computation. To enhance accuracy, we

25 incorporated new homogeneous estimates of local magnitude (M_L). A newly developed routine

26 enables rapid near real-time M_w estimation and permits regular, rolling seismic catalog updates. We

27 also established an empirical relationship between M_w and M_L specific to our study region.

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28 Our study provides a detailed and accurate M_w catalog of independent estimates that significantly
29 improves critical applications such as seismic hazard assessment, and risk mitigation in this
30 seismically active region. Regular updates will be made as new data becomes available, ensuring
31 ongoing accuracy and relevance. The catalog is accessible online to the scientific community,
32 fostering collaboration and further research, thereby enhancing our understanding of the geodynamics
33 and seismic hazards in northeastern Italy and its surrounding areas.

34

35 **Keywords:** Moment magnitude (M_w); Local magnitude (M_L); Earthquake catalog; Northeastern Italy
36 seismicity; Empirical M_w - M_L relationship; Seismic data analysis.

37

38 1. Introduction

39 Accurately estimating the energy released during seismic events is crucial for understanding the
40 processes that generate both small and large earthquakes. The moment magnitude (M_w), derived from
41 the seismic moment (M_0), serves as a key measure for quantifying this energy. It is considered the
42 most reliable magnitude scale because it does not saturate at large magnitudes (Hanks and Kanamori,
43 1979) and can be directly related to the properties of the earthquake fault (e.g., Aki, 1967). Estimation
44 of M_w by moment tensor solutions is based on strong ground motions and is effective above a certain
45 magnitude threshold (~ 3.5 – 4.0). However, reliably estimating M_w for small seismic events can be
46 challenging, especially for local networks, due to various factors such as signal noise, limited data
47 availability, and poor knowledge of the propagation medium properties. Therefore, M_w estimates for
48 weak events often rely on spectral methods based on corrected source frequency-amplitude spectra
49 (e.g., Andrews, 1986) or response spectra (Atkinson et al., 2014).

50 Accurately computing M_w plays a significant role in seismic hazard studies by identifying areas with
51 increased seismic activity, improving magnitude-recurrence relationships, refining ground motion
52 prediction equations, and supporting decision-making for subsurface activities that might induce
53 seismicity, such as oil exploration, gas storage, and geothermal resource exploitation. Consequently,
54 numerous researchers have created homogeneous M_w catalogs for various regions (e.g., Grünthal and

55 Wahlström, 2003; Braunmiller et al., 2005; Karimiparidari et al., 2013; Arabasz et al., 2016; Onur et
56 al., 2017; Das and Meneses, 2021; Peach et al., 2024). M_w is the preferred magnitude for the catalog
57 for two key reasons: (1) almost all contemporary ground-motion prediction equations are expressed in
58 terms of M_w , and (2) M_w provides a more accurate quantification of earthquake size, especially for
59 large earthquakes, where other magnitude scales often saturate. Therefore, it is crucial to include
60 direct M_w calculations whenever possible, rather than relying on conversions from other magnitude
61 scales, particularly for large earthquakes. The vast majority of these catalogs predominantly
62 harmonize M_w values derived from other magnitude scales or macroseismic parameters by using pre-
63 existing or specifically calibrated conversion relationships. Nevertheless, with rapid data transmission
64 to data centers and swift data analysis procedures, it is now possible to reliably and directly estimate
65 earthquake parameters such as M_0 and M_w , with results promptly published online (e.g., Spallarossa
66 et al., 2021; Costa et al., 2022).

67 In this study, we computed independent M_w for low-to-moderate magnitude earthquakes ($M_w \leq 4.0$) in
68 northeastern Italy and the surrounding areas (Fig. 1), a region that is particularly prone to seismic
69 activity due to its tectonic setting. The interaction between the Adriatic microplate and the Eurasian
70 plate in this area leads to frequent earthquakes, ranging from minor tremors to major seismic events
71 (e.g., Slejko et al., 1989; Sandron et al., 2023). The seismicity, primarily located in the upper crust, is
72 minor and directly related to deformation along the western margin of the Adriatic indentation (e.g.,
73 Cheloni et al., 2014; Bressan et al., 2016; Rebez et al., 2024). The strongest recorded earthquake in
74 this area was the May 6, 1976, Friuli earthquake, with a surface-wave magnitude (M_S) of 6.5 (Aoudia
75 et al., 2000). This event caused approximately 1000 deaths and widespread devastation in small
76 villages (Slejko, 2018). Instrumental seismological monitoring in this area began in the late 19th
77 century with the Trieste station, which initially became a reference station and later part of the World-
78 Wide Standardized Seismograph Network (Sandron et al., 2015). Since 1977, the Seismological
79 Research Center of the National Institute of Oceanography and Applied Geophysics (OGS) has been
80 monitoring this region, complementing the national seismic monitoring activities led by the Istituto
81 Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanologia – INGV (Bragato et al., 2011; Priolo et al., 2015; Bragato et

82 al., 2021). The OGS seismic network (international code OX) integrates real-time seismic data from
83 its own stations with those belonging to neighboring seismic networks (Fig. 1).
84 Since the establishment of the network in 1977, annual seismic bulletins have been consistently
85 published and are available online on the CRS website (Bulletin of the Seismometric Network of
86 North Eastern Italy, 2024). For each earthquake, the location and the duration magnitude (M_D) is
87 given in the bulletin, calculated according to the formulas of Rebez and Renner (1991). With the
88 advent of digital measuring devices, it has become possible to directly estimate the M_L , with precise
89 calibration for the study area (Bragato and Tento, 2005). Since 2009, the seismic moment tensor for
90 earthquakes with a magnitude of $M_L \geq 3.6$ has been calculated in near real-time (Saraò et al., 2021)
91 and the obtained M_w and fault plane solutions have been incorporated into the focal mechanism
92 catalog of the area (Saraò et al., 2021; Sugan et al., 2024).
93 In line with these advancements, we have recently calculated the M_w of selected seismic events
94 recorded in the study area from January 1, 2016, to December 31, 2023 using the stations of the OX
95 network and other surrounding networks and the method proposed by Atkinson et al. (2014). This
96 approach, which relies on the calculation of response spectra, has already been calibrated for
97 Northeastern Italy (Moratto et al., 2017) and applied in other seismic regions affected by underground
98 gas storage (Lanzoni et al., 2020) and volcanic activity (Saraò et al., 2023). Our new direct estimates
99 of M_w are documented in a freely accessible dataset provided with this article (Moratto et al., 2024),
100 which also includes new homogeneous estimates of M_L , utilizing the region-specific calibration by
101 Bragato and Tento (2005).
102 In the following sections, we describe the methodologies used to compute M_w and M_L , the data
103 utilized, and the results of the analysis of the selected seismic events included in the M_w dataset
104 (Moratto et al., 2024).

105

106 2. Methodology

107 2.1 M_w computation

108 To compute M_w , we applied the approach based on response spectra put forward by Atkinson et al.
109 (2014) and calibrated for our study region by Moratto et al. (2017). We calculated the M_w using
110 response spectra computed from vertical waveforms recorded within an epicentral distance of 80 km;
111 since this approach adopts the point-source model (Atkinson et al., 2014), we limit our analysis to
112 earthquakes with $M_w \leq 4.0$. Bora et al. (2016) found that the scaling of response spectra and Fourier
113 Amplitude spectra (FAS) are equivalent at frequencies below the peak of the response spectra. While
114 FAS offers clear advantages, particularly its ability to directly represent waveforms across the entire
115 frequency range without being affected by 1D oscillator filtering, spectral acceleration (SA) remains
116 highly valuable due to its strong correlation with structural response, its widespread use in seismic
117 hazard assessments, and its availability in real-time applications such as ShakeMap parameters.
118 Additionally, response spectra inherently smooth out irregularities in the frequency domain because
119 fluctuations are constrained by the 5% damping applied in their calculation (Atkinson et al., 2014;
120 Moratto et al., 2017). Atkinson et al. (2014) have shown that the pseudo-acceleration amplitude (PSA)
121 calculated at 1.0 s and 0.3 s provides stable representations of the low-frequency motion that correlate
122 well with the seismic moment. For events with $M_w < 4$, frequencies around 1.0 s (1.0 Hz) lie within
123 the low-frequency plateau of a standard Brune (1970) point-source displacement spectrum, where the
124 amplitude is directly proportional to the seismic moment. The Brune model is commonly applied to
125 small-magnitude earthquakes, though its validity largely depends on the quality of the recorded data.
126 For very small events, high-frequency signals can be obscured by noise, making it challenging to
127 reliably estimate source parameters such as corner frequency and seismic moment. Additionally,
128 deviations from self-similarity may arise due to factors such as heterogeneous stress drops, rupture
129 nucleation effects, or local site-specific conditions. Despite these limitations, several studies
130 demonstrated that the Brune model can be effectively applied to magnitudes as low as $M_w \sim 0$,
131 provided that the data quality is sufficiently high (e.g., Abercrombie, 1995). For smaller events ($M_w <$
132 3), however, the noise becomes significant and can lead to an overestimation of the magnitude. In

133 such cases, it is recommended to replace the response spectra calculated at 1.0 s with those calculated
134 at 0.3 s to limit the noise influence on the M_w estimations; in this case, indeed, response spectra
135 computed at 0.3 s perform better, as they are less sensitive to noise.

136 In this study, we followed the approach developed by Moratto et al. (2017), who used response
137 spectra in the form of absolute spectral acceleration (SA). In general, the SA is approximately equal to
138 the PSA and is considered almost identical for most engineering applications with five percent
139 damping (Mohraz and Sadek, 2001). The attenuation function relating the M_w values to the SA is
140 therefore expressed as follows:

$$141 \quad \log(\text{SA})_T = a \times M_w - g(R) - b_T \times R + c_T, \quad (1)$$

142 in which T is the period (0.3, 1.0 s), a is the scaling magnitude parameter, $g(R)$ is the geometrical
143 spreading, b_T refers to the anelastic attenuation, c_T is a constant defined separately for response spectra
144 at 0.3 and 1.0 s (SA03 and SA10, respectively), and R is the hypocentral distance.

145 Ideally these parameters would be estimated directly from the data. However, due to the lack of
146 reliable M_w estimates for weak events, Atkinson et al. (2014), and Moratto et al. (2017) adopted a two
147 steps procedure. (1) The value of a is determined by computing synthetic seismograms assuming a
148 Brune point source model using a stochastic approach (Boore, 1983, 2003); and (2) the values of b_T
149 and c_T are estimated performing an empirical calibration using a dataset of independent estimates of
150 M_w associated with SA03 and SA10 obtained from the recorded data. Moratto et al. (2017) calculated
151 the synthetic seismograms for wide ranges of magnitude (from 0 to 4, with a step size of 0.2) and
152 hypocentral distance (from one to two hundred kilometers with a step size of 0.1 in the base-10
153 logarithmic scale) using the Stochastic-Method SIMulation code (Boore, 2003). They employed a
154 ground-motion model specifically designed for northeastern Italy, incorporating regional attenuation
155 and amplification effects. The input parameters for the stochastic simulations were derived from the
156 work of Malagnini et al. (2002), who modeled the spectral propagation of seismic waveforms in the
157 study region. They also used a density of 2.8 g/cm³, a shear-wave velocity of 3.5 km/s and a high-
158 frequency attenuation parameter (κ) of 0.045 s. Additional parameters relevant to the simulations are
159 detailed in Moratto et al. (2017). The resulting spectral accelerations at 1 Hz (SA10) and 3.3 Hz

160 (SA03) showed similar trends with distance, therefore based on the simulation results, they averaged
 161 the scaling values of a across all magnitudes and distances, yielding a fixed value of 1.49 for Equation
 162 (1). This approach provides a robust representation that reflects the overall scaling behavior across the
 163 full magnitude range, while acknowledging potential variability in a for specific magnitude ranges.
 164 In calculating the M_w we adopted a cutoff distance of 80 km as recommended by Moratto et al.
 165 (2017), to minimize potential regional effects and complexities associated with path propagation (e.g.,
 166 the Moho reflections observed by Bragato et al., 2011).

167 The relationships calibrated by Moratto et al. (2017) for northeastern Italy are:

$$168 \quad M_w(\text{SA10}) = (\log(\text{SA10}) - D(r, 40, 1.0) + 6.63) / 1.49 \quad \text{for } 2.6 \leq M_w \leq 4.0, \quad (2)$$

$$169 \quad M_w(\text{SA03}) = (\log(\text{SA03}) - D(r, 40, 3.3) + 5.38) / 1.49 \quad \text{for } M_w < 2.6, \quad (3)$$

170 in which $D(r, 40, f)$ is the propagation term at the reference distance $r_{\text{ref}} = 40$ km for the periods of
 171 interest, defined according to Malagnini et al. (2002) as:

$$172 \quad D(r, r_{\text{ref}}, f) = \log(g(r)) - \log(g(r_{\text{ref}})) - ((\pi f (r - r_{\text{ref}}) \log(e)) / (\beta Q(f))), \quad (4)$$

173 in which β is the shear-wave velocity and:

$$174 \quad Q(f) = 260 (f / 1.0)^{0.55} \quad (5)$$

175 is the frequency attenuation.

176 To calculate the response spectra, we used the Covariance Invariant Digital Filtering Technique
 177 (Ehrenberg and Hernandez, 1981). This method calculates the maximum absolute acceleration
 178 response given an input acceleration trace, the pulsation (the angular frequency ω corresponding to
 179 the natural vibration period considered) and the damping constant of the sensor. Since the lower limit
 180 of M_w is determined when the signal is overlaid by background noise, which leads to overestimations,
 181 only the recordings that exceed a predefined signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) threshold are used to estimate
 182 the M_w and the M_L values; the SNR threshold is fixed to 3, independently of the magnitude value. For
 183 the identification of the windows over which to calculate the SNR ratio, the revised P-wave arrival
 184 times retrieved from the CRS-OGS bulletins are used. In addition, prior to the M_w and M_L calculation,
 185 outliers are consistently identified and removed based on the median absolute deviation of the data.

186 For each event we compute $M_w(\text{SA10})$ and $M_w(\text{SA03})$ applying equations (2) and (3); the final M_w
187 value is $M_w(\text{SA10})$, but this reference magnitude switches to $M_w(\text{SA03})$ when $M_w(\text{SA10})$ is lower
188 than 2.6 (Moratto et al., 2017). For each event, we report the M_w value obtained as the arithmetic
189 average of individual station M_w values, along with the associated standard deviations. This approach
190 relies exclusively on vertical components, as vertical-component spectral acceleration is generally
191 comparable to unamplified horizontal-component spectral acceleration (Lermo and Chavez-Garcia,
192 1993; Siddiqi and Atkinson, 2002; Atkinson and Boore, 2006). Atkinson et al. (2014) recommended
193 the use of vertical components because they are less influenced by site response, making this method
194 particularly suitable for a wide range of sites, including those with unknown or poorly characterized
195 site conditions.

196

197 **2.2. M_L computation**

198 To enrich the catalog, we estimated the M_L values and their associated standard deviations using the
199 calibration relation by Bragato and Tiento (2005) for northeastern Italy. This relation is applicable for
200 hypocentral distances ranging from 10 to 250 kilometers and defines $M_L = 3$ as corresponding to a
201 peak amplitude of 10 millimeters on a Wood-Anderson instrument at a hypocentral distance of 17
202 kilometers. We synthesized equivalent Wood-Anderson seismograms for the north–south and east–
203 west traces, considering the geometric mean of the zero-to-peak values of the two horizontal
204 components. For each event, the M_L value was obtained as the mean value of the M_L values calculated
205 at each station.

206

207 **3. Data**

208 We processed 12,121 seismic events that occurred between January 1, 2016 and December 31, 2023
209 in northeastern Italy and neighboring regions. From this dataset, we selected only the earthquakes
210 located within the study area, delineated by the black rectangle in Fig. 1, which is routinely monitored
211 by the CRS-OGS. This selection criteria resulted in a final seismic catalog containing 11,805
212 earthquakes in the magnitude range of $-0.70 \leq M_L \leq 4.54$. The majority of events have magnitudes

213 between 0.0 and 2.0, with a peak frequency around 0.5 (Fig. 2). The count decreases significantly for
214 magnitudes above 2.0, indicating a lower occurrence of higher magnitude events.

215 The location parameters and the reference M_L values of these earthquakes—calculated according to
216 the scale calibrated by Hutton and Boore (1987)—were sourced from the CRS-OGS bulletins
217 (Snidarraig et al., 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019, 2020, 2021; Brondi et al., 2022
218 —<https://rts.crs.inogs.it/it/home.html>). The 1D layered velocity model used by the HYPO71 location
219 program (Lee and Lahr, 1975), routinely run for the CRS bulletin, is applied to all the events. This
220 model consists of three layers with P-wave velocities (V_p) of 5.85 km/s, 6.80 km/s, and 8 km/s, and
221 discontinuities at depths of 22 km and 39.5 km, with a V_p/V_s ratio of 1.78 (Riggio and Russi, 1984;
222 Bressan et al., 2003).

223 Velocimetric three-component waveforms (sampling rate 100 Hz) recorded from ninety-nine stations
224 of the OX network (Bragato et al., 2021) and other seismic networks (see Data and Resources for
225 details), forming the integrated seismometric network in north-eastern Italy, were used to calculate the
226 response spectra and the peaks extracted from the simulated Wood-Anderson seismograms.

227 Each velocity recording was band-pass filtered in the 0.02–44 Hz frequency range prior to instrument
228 response correction. A newly developed automatic Python procedure processed the waveforms,
229 generating instrument response corrected three-component waveforms tailored to the dataset. The first
230 derivative of the vertical component recordings was then calculated to obtain acceleration waveforms,
231 which were used to compute the response spectra. The corrected broadband waveforms were then
232 filtered to simulate Wood-Anderson seismograms using a static magnification of 2080 (Uhrhammer et
233 al., 1996; Bormann, 2002).

234

235 **4. Results**

236 After the data selection process on 12,121 seismic events described in the previous section, we
237 obtained M_w values for 11,685 earthquakes and M_L values for 11,564 events. Both estimates are
238 available for 11,444 low-to-moderate magnitude earthquakes ($M_w \leq 4.0$); we estimated no magnitude
239 values for 117 earthquakes due to high noise level or source–receiver distance larger than 80 km. Our
240 catalog for seismic events in northeastern Italy includes detailed information on the location of the

241 events, the M_D , M_L from bulletins, and the newly computed M_w (both $M_w(SA)$ and $M_w(TDMT)$) and
242 M_L (Moratto et al., 2024).

243 The histogram in Fig. 3 illustrates the frequency and distribution of seismic events based on M_w
244 computed in the studied region. The distribution is right-skewed, peaking between magnitudes 1.2 and
245 1.5, with a significant drop in events for magnitudes greater than 2.0 and few events exceeding 3.0.

246 The comparison between the two sets of M_L values shows a consistent relationship between $M_L(B\&T)$
247 (Bragato and Tento, 2005) and $M_L(H\&B)$ (Hutton and Boore, 1987), with most data points clustering
248 around the 1:1 correlation line (Fig. 4). However, semiparametric spline fit shows deviations,
249 especially at magnitudes lower than 1.0 and for events with $M_L > 3.5$, suggesting slight discrepancies
250 between the two estimation methods. These discrepancies may stem from the calibration of the M_L
251 relationship by Bragato and Tento (2005), which is primarily based on earthquakes with $M_L < 3.0$.
252 Moreover, it is worth mentioning that the Hutton and Boore relationship was defined according to
253 attenuation in Southern California.

254

255 **4.1 Calibrating M_w – M_L**

256 The comparison of the calculated $M_w(SA)$ with the set of M_L values from different relationships (Figs
257 5a and 5b) illustrates a strong correlation between $M_w(SA)$ and M_L . However, the deviations from the
258 regression line are less pronounced for the M_L values estimated using the Bragato and Tento (2005)
259 relationship, especially for smaller earthquakes (Fig. 5a). This suggests a more consistent relationship
260 between $M_w(SA)$ and $M_L(B\&T)$ values. To a certain extent, this behavior is relatively unsurprising,
261 considering that the relationship of Bragato and Tento was calibrated specifically for the study area,
262 unlike the Hutton and Boore's scale.

263 The relationship between $M_w(SA)$ and $M_L(B\&T)$, computed using orthogonal regression on the 11,444
264 events with $M_w \leq 4.0$ for which both magnitude estimates are available, is as follows:

$$265 \quad M_w(SA) = 0.7028 (\pm 0.0018) \times M_L + 0.6814 (\pm 0.0022), \quad (6)$$

266 while the analogous relationship between $M_w(SA)$ and $M_L(H\&B)$, calculated in this case for 11,137
267 events, is:

$$268 \quad M_w(SA) = 0.6496 (\pm 0.0024) \times M_L + 0.8240 (\pm 0.0027). \quad (7)$$

269 The coefficients in equation (6) closely resemble those reported by Moratto et al. (2017). The slope of
270 the relationship ($0.70 \approx 2/3$) matches the scaling parameter proposed by Hanks and Kanamori (1979)
271 and Hanks and Boore (1984). For values in the range $2.0 < M_L < 3.0$, M_L and M_w exhibit closer
272 agreement, with a consistent 1:1 magnitude scaling (Fig. 5a). Below 2.0, the scaling shifts to 2:3,
273 likely due to anelastic attenuation affecting signal propagation paths (Deichmann, 2006, 2017;
274 Bethmann et al., 2011; Moratto et al., 2017). Similar tendencies can be observed for the relationship
275 between $M_w(\text{SA})$ and $M_L(\text{H\&B})$ (Fig. 5b), although the deviations from the regression line are more
276 pronounced. Although M_L and M_w scales should reflect the same earthquake properties, deviations
277 between M_L and M_w are common, especially for smaller earthquakes. These deviations can result from
278 various factors, including source and rupture characteristics (e.g., radiation patterns, rupture
279 velocities, rupture directivity, stress drop) as well as instrument or path effects (Deichmann, 2006;
280 Deichmann, 2017; Moratto et al., 2019; Saraò et al., 2023).

281 To validate our findings, we compared moment tensor solutions for nineteen events that occurred
282 between 2016 and 2023 with the M_w values from our study (Fig. 6a). The mean absolute difference
283 between our M_w values and those computed by Saraò et al. (2021) using time-domain moment tensor
284 (TDMT; Dreger, 2003) analysis is 0.066, with a standard deviation of 0.157. Residuals are nearly
285 symmetrical around a mean of -0.041 , with a standard deviation of 0.071 (Fig. 6b), indicating that the
286 differences fall within the empirical uncertainty associated with moment tensor calculations. The
287 largest discrepancy (0.18) was observed for a June 4, 2017 event near Verona (45.6510°N –
288 10.6932°E). The close agreement between our M_w estimates and those independently obtained
289 through TDMT suggests the reliability of our approach in computing M_w .

290

291 **5. Summary**

292 We provide a comprehensive M_w catalog for seismic events in northeastern Italy, covering a temporal
293 range between 2016 and 2023 in the range $0.50 \leq M_w \leq 3.95$.

294 Along with the corrected seismic time series, we produced a parametric catalog of the seismic events
295 analyzed (Moratto et al., 2024). For each event, the catalog includes:

- 296 • a unique identification code retrieved from the corresponding CRS-OGS bulletin (see Data
297 and Resources), along with the location parameters (latitude, longitude and depth) and the M_D
298 and M_L values taken from the bulletins;
- 299 • the mean value, with the corresponding standard deviation, and the median of the M_L values
300 calculated using the scale of Bragato and Tento (2005);
- 301 • mean M_w values estimated from response spectra, with the associated standard deviations,
302 calculated using the relations proposed by Moratto et al. (2017); and
- 303 • the available M_w (TDMT) values from Sugan et al. (2024).

304 Using this catalog, we calculated the empirical M_w – M_L relationship for the study area. Our results
305 improve several important applications, including seismic hazard assessment, structural vulnerability
306 evaluation, and disaster mitigation strategies, all of which are essential for risk reduction in this
307 seismically active region. The catalog will be updated regularly as new data becomes available to
308 ensure its accuracy and relevance. The catalog is accessible online to the scientific community to
309 encourage collaboration and further research.

310

311 **6. Data and Resources**

312 The waveforms utilized in this study are recorded by the following seismic networks: IV
313 (doi:10.13127/sd/x0fxnh7qfy), MN (doi:10.13127/sd/fbbbttd6q), NI (doi:10.7914/SN/NI), OE
314 (doi:10.7914/SN/OE), OX (doi:10.7914/SN/OX), RF (doi:10.7914/SN/RF), SI
315 (<https://www.fdsn.org/networks/detail/SI>), SL (doi:10.7914/SN/SL) and ST (doi:10.7914/SN/ST).

316 The earthquake locations for the northeastern Italy area are available at
317 <https://rts.crs.inogs.it/it/home.html>. The continuous waveforms recorded from the OX network are
318 available at <http://oasis.crs.ogs.it> (Priolo et al., 2015). The processed waveforms and the final M_w
319 catalog can be found at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.12794786> (Moratto et al., 2024). All these
320 websites were last accessed in December 2024.

321 The map in Fig. 1 has been generated with the Generic Mapping Tools software package (GMT;
322 Wessel et al., 2019); R (R Core Team, 2018) was used to create all other figures.

323

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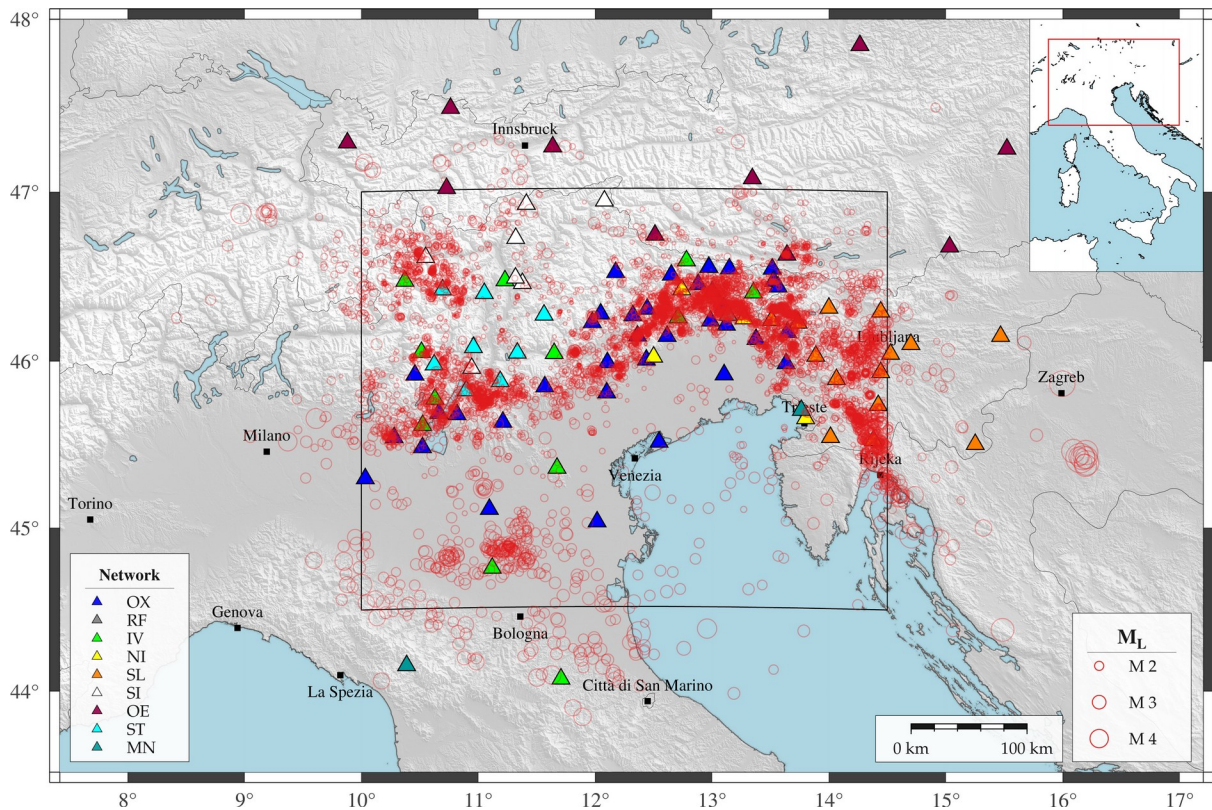
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626 **Figure 1.** Map of the seismicity analyzed in this study, represented by circles, with dimensions
 627 proportional to the local magnitude values taken from the Centro di Ricerche Sismologiche-Istituto
 628 Nazionale di Oceanografia e di Geofisica Sperimentale (CRS-OGS) bulletins. The stations used are
 629 from the OX network and other surrounding networks (color-coded according to the legend). The
 630 black rectangle marks the study area monitored by the OGS. The inset map shows the location of the
 631 study area in Italy, with the red rectangle corresponding to the same geographical extent as the main
 632 figure.

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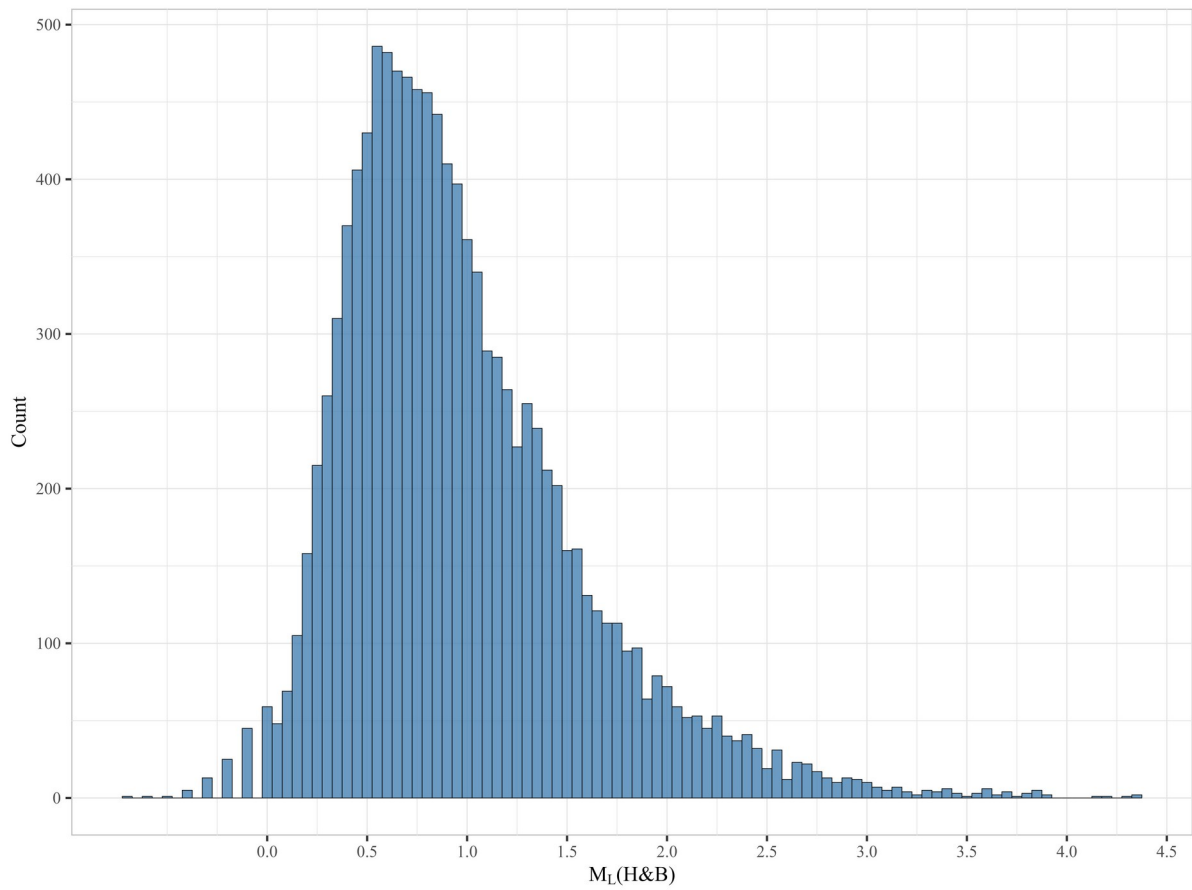
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640 **Figure 2.** Frequency and distribution of seismic events analyzed in this study based on M_L reported in
641 the CRS-OGS bulletins.

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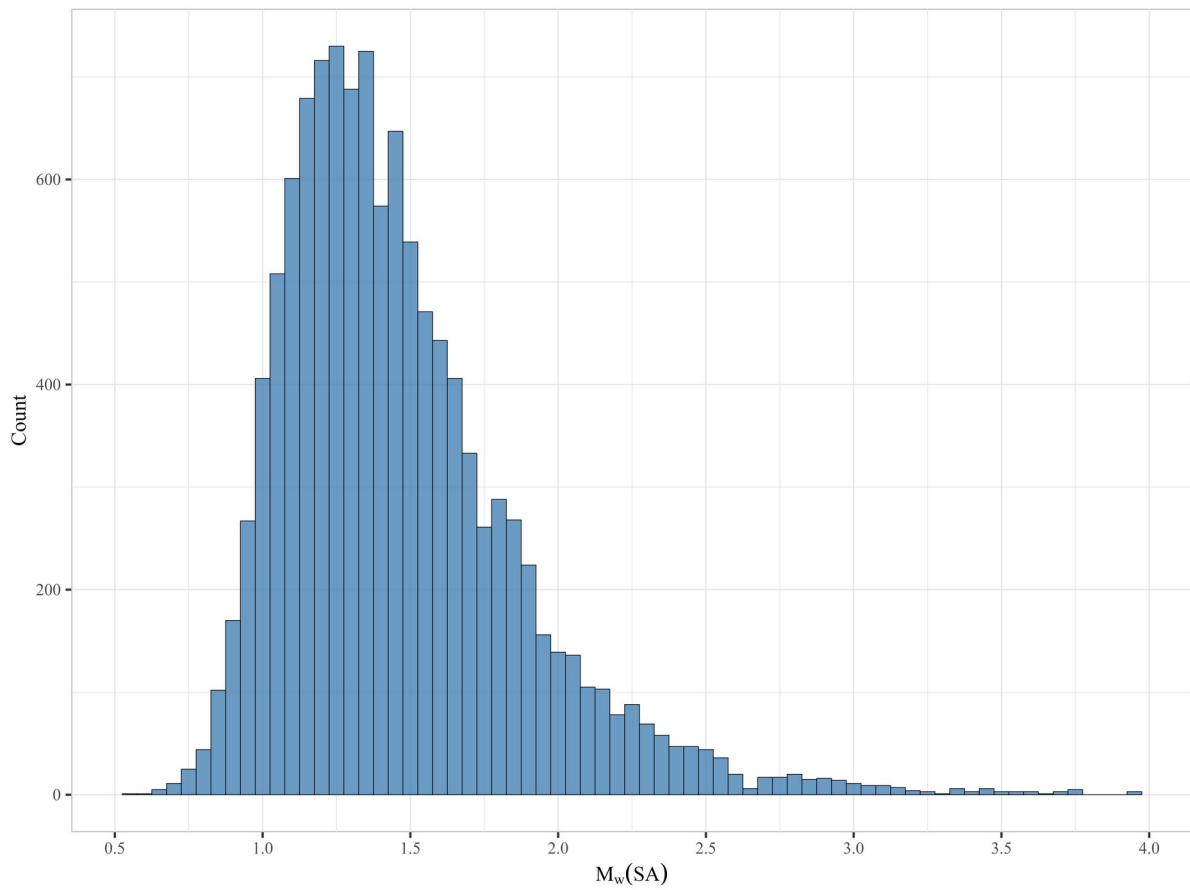
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650 **Figure 3.** Histogram illustrating the frequency and distribution of seismic events based on $M_w(SA)$ in
651 northeastern Italy.

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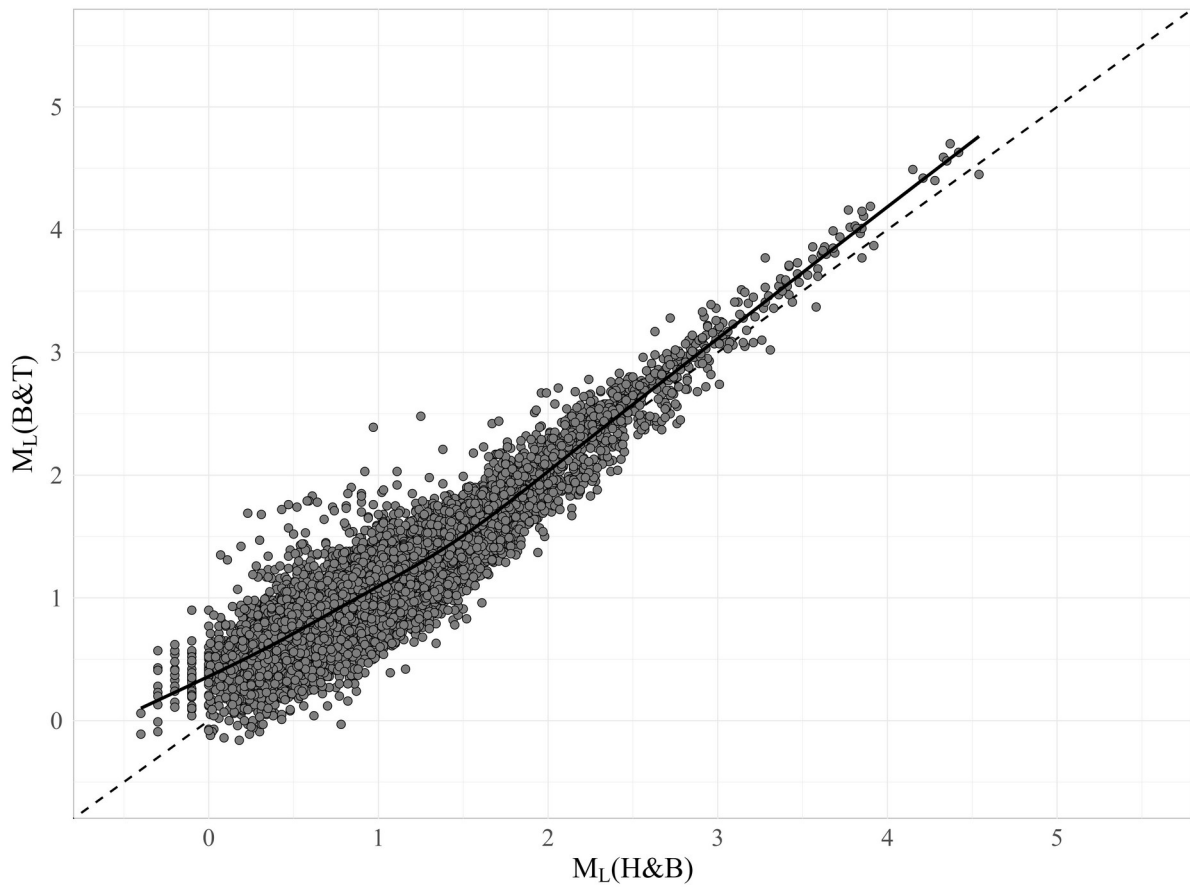
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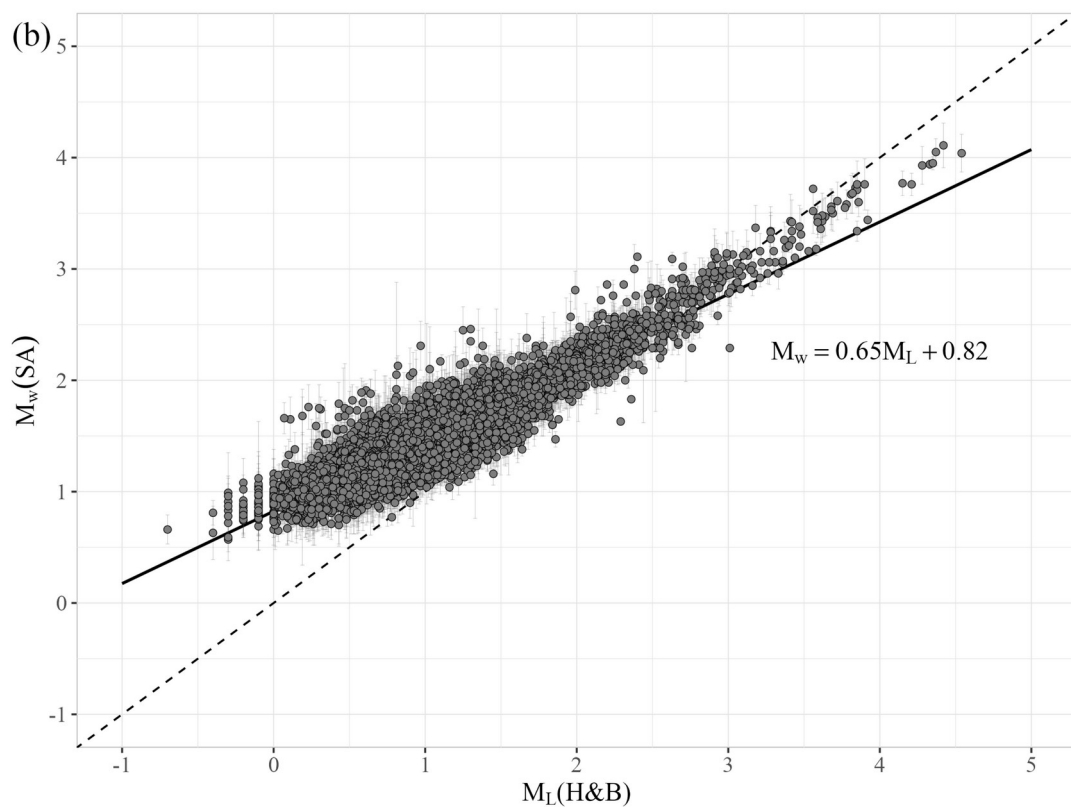
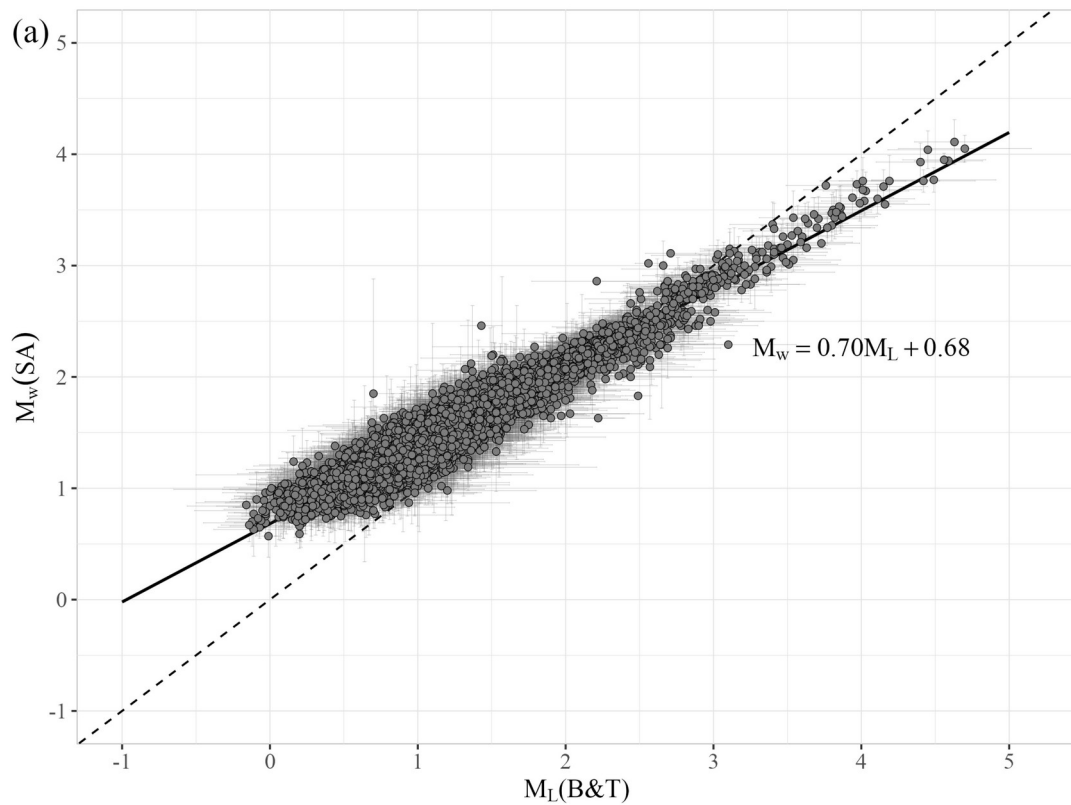
661 **Figure 4.** Scatter plot comparing M_L values extracted from the CRS-OGS bulletins ($M_L(H\&B)$) with
662 M_L values estimated using the Bragato and Tonto (2005) relationship ($M_L(B\&T)$). The dashed line
663 represents the 1:1 correlation, while the black solid line shows the semiparametric spline fit.

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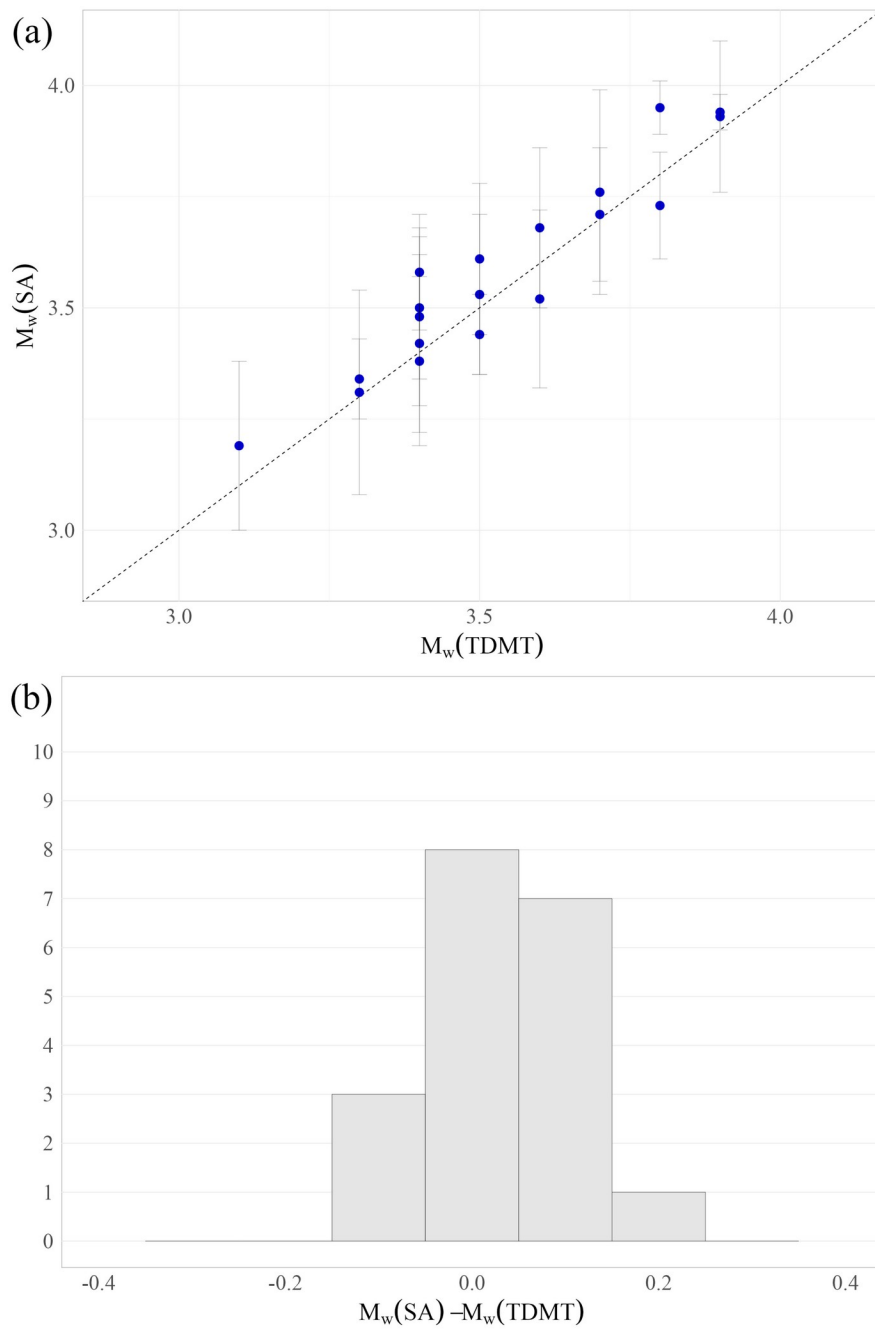
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668 **Figure 5. (a)** Scatter plot comparing $M_L(\text{B\&T})$ vs $M_w(\text{SA})$. The dashed line represents the 1:1
 669 correlation, while the gray solid line indicates the best-fit linear regression, highlighting the overall
 670 trend between the two measurements. Error bars for each data point illustrate the variability and
 671 uncertainty in the measurements. **(b)** Similar to **(a)**, but comparing $M_L(\text{H\&B})$ vs $M_w(\text{SA})$.



672 **Figure 6.** (a) Scatter plot comparing M_w values derived in this study with those computed by Saraò et
 673 al. (2021) using time-domain moment tensor (TDMT) analysis in the magnitude range $3.0 \leq M_w \leq$
 674 4.0. The dotted line represents the 1:1 correlation. (b) Histogram of residuals between our M_w values
 675 and those computed by Saraò et al. (2021). The residuals are nearly symmetrical around a mean of –
 676 0.041, with a standard deviation of 0.071.