

Employing **nonlinear dynamic concepts for catchment classification using
runoff response of catchments**

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Abstract:

Classification has been considered as a fundamental step towards improved science and management data. Introducing methods which describe the underlying dynamics of runoff could be a promising way for catchment classification. In this respect chaos theory and correlation dimension was applied to test its ability to construct a concept to introduce a catchment classification framework in this study. The correlation dimension, as an indicator, was calculated for the daily river flow of sixty grouping stations in different catchments in Iran, ranging in size from 8 to 36500 (km²). The results confirmed that applying this indicator to catchments in varied ranges, from low to high complexity, can also be classified. The results showed that Iran's catchments can be classified into four groups based on the complexity degree of runoff time series. The group is as follows: low dimension ($D_2 \leq 4$) as group 1, medium dimension ($D_2 = 5$) as group 2, high dimension ($D_2 \geq 6$) as group 3 and unidentifiable as group 4. The spatial pattern classification of Iran's catchments indicates that catchments with different climate characteristics which are located at a far distance from each other might yield similar responses along with the same level of complexity.

Keywords: Catchment Classification, Chaos theory, Correlation dimension, System Complexity, Streamflow variability

1. Introduction

Integrated catchment management is of great importance to manage the resulted runoff of rainfalls. Several attempts have been made to develop new approaches for hydrologic planning and watershed management purposes. Moreover, the invention of powerful computers and measurement devices leads to a more rapid and significant growth of these approaches. Despite all these attempts, the hydrological modelling state has not changed significantly and seems to need more investigations. Although the model complexity presented is increasing, there are no significant changes in its efficiency and accuracy. As stated by McDonnell and Woods [1] there is no clear guidance to verify which model or model structure is suitable for each catchment type or management questions. In other sciences, this problem was solved by classification concepts such as Carolus Linnaeus' organism classification system in biology, the periodic table in chemistry, or dimensionless numbers in fluid dynamics. Gani et al. studied 45 methods for classifying "big data"[2]. Basically, the classification can provide valuable information and is one of the measures of the science maturity [3]. A

31 classification framework in which each catchment increases the understanding of the definition of
32 catchment functions is necessary [4]. Therefore, an appropriate classification framework would be
33 beneficial in catchment management to development and application of a suitable model in hydrology
34 science.

35 Two general approaches of catchment classification are categorized as deductive and inductive
36 [5]. The deductive approach is based on studying and analysing the effects of the environmental
37 influences (such as catchments' physical, hydrological, and climatic similarities) on discharge. In the
38 inductive approach, hydrologic time series are analysed directly to identify the "complexity" (see
39 Sivakumar and Singh [6] for further information) and dynamic pattern properties of discharge (see
40 Figure 1).

41 According to the complexity of the rainfall-runoff phenomenon, catchments show a varied
42 range of response behaviours, even if they are similar or situated near each other. The effects of all
43 factors in the catchment system are embedded in the discharge time series which reflects both climatic
44 and morphologic characteristics. Therefore, in cases with time series data available, the inductive
45 approach seems to be more suitable to find catchments similarities and classification.

46 There are two main procedures in the inductive approach. The first procedure is based on
47 statistical methods, which uses data properties such as size, frequency, duration of seasons and
48 variation of flow regime characteristics (i.e. seasonal pattern, frequency and duration of droughts,
49 floods, annual runoff variability and variation rate) [5,7-10].

50 The second procedure is based on the application of nonlinear dynamics and complexity
51 concepts to discharge time series. Zoppou et al. [11] applied wavelet spectral analysis to some
52 Australian runoff stations and classified the basins into twelve categories by using the spectral
53 properties of the outflow time series. Krasovskaia [12] classified the hydrologic time series in
54 Scandinavia by using the entropy concept. Sen [13] used Lempel-Ziv Complexity (LZC) measures to
55 analyse the complexity of monthly runoff data in England and proposed that the catchments can be
56 classified using this measure. Chou [14] applied sample entropy (SampEn) to rainfall and runoff time
57 series to study the evolution of complexity of different temporal scales.

58 To introduce the concepts of chaos theory, as well as the reconstruction of the phase-space in
59 hydrology, together with the similarities between the hypothesis and hydrologic phenomena such as
60 rainfall-runoff, a number of researchers proposed the use of this theory for classification. Sivakumar
61 [15] proposed the use of nonlinear concepts to identify the number of dominant processes in
62 hydrologic systems. Sivakumar et al. [16] showed the efficiency of phase-space reconstruction in
63 identifying deterministic and random time series with two artificial time series, and proposed the use
64 of this approach for catchment classification. They also analysed and tested this idea for daily and
65 monthly streamflow time series under varying conditions. Sivakumar and Singh [6] classified a
66 number of catchments in the western United States by reconstructing the phase-space and employing
67 the correlation dimension (D_2) of monthly discharge time series. They classified the discharge of the
68 catchments into four categories based on the following correlation dimension values: low dimension
69 ($D_2 < 3$), medium dimension ($3 < D_2 \leq 6$), high dimension ($D_2 > 6$) and unidentifiable (D_2 not
70 identifiable). They recommended testing this approach in other parts of the world with different time
71 scales for future researches. Sivakumar et al. [17] classified a number of monthly rainfall time series
72 in Western Australia into five groups based on correlation dimension values. Vingnesh et al. [18]
73 employed false nearest neighbours to study spatial variability of streamflow over across the United
74 States.

75 During recent years, there has been an increasing interest on developing a framework for
76 catchment classification and thus a number of attempts have been made to reach a more efficient
77 modelling [see 4, 6, 18-20]. Our investigation of the literature indicates that there are only a few
78 studies investigating the spatial variation of discharges data at different locations with spatial
79 climatic variability, through employing the concept of chaos theory (see [6] and [21] as
80 examples). To the best of authors' knowledge, there is only one study in which Vingnesh et al [18]
81 used the chaos method to classify the United States catchments over the whole area of the USA.
82 Therefore, we believe that the present study is suitable because of the number and distribution of
83 data tested. In addition, since Iran is a developing country where there are obviously problems
84 with recorded data, this study can appropriately identify this classification pattern.

85 The results of this research can be used to convert large volumes of information into smaller
86 and homogeneous volumes for easy modelling, complete missing and incomplete data and expanding
87 point information to regional information for ungauged sites, using raw data instead of calculating
88 index or other criteria, grading basins using the basins functions instead of flow regimes, easily
89 determining the complexity of stream flows using the nonlinear dynamic method in order to classify
90 the basins and suggest appropriate models, and determining suitable basins for the models and
91 appropriate models for homogeneous basins.

92 This approach is used to classify the catchments in the whole area of Iran with different
93 climates across the entire country. The mentioned method is applied to daily discharges of sixty
94 stations which are spatially distributed all over the country. As Iran is subject to a wide range of
95 climatic variety, the country's catchments have been chosen to examine the ability of the chaos
96 concept for different climatic catchment classifications.

97 This study aims to present a classification pattern based on chaos theory and dynamic
98 phase-space reconstruction. For this purpose, the following are addressed: a) employ the phase-
99 space reconstruction concept and calculate the correlation dimension (D_2), b) evaluate D_2 as a
100 criterion for measuring the complexity and classification, c) present a pattern for the classification
101 (identify the limit of group) .

102 In the next sections of the paper, the methodology including dynamic phase space, average
103 mutual information and correlation dimension are described. Subsequent sections present the study
104 area and data. The results obtained via the proposed modelling framework are then presented and
105 discussed, followed by the conclusion.

106 2. Reconstruction of Dynamic Phase Space

107 The concept of phase space is a useful tool for conducting research into the dynamic systems
108 and several researchers have used this concept to study various hydrological phenomena in the past
109 two decades [22]. According to this concept, a dynamic system can be represented by a set of
110 effective variables influencing the system's behaviour, and is modelled by a phase space diagram, in
111 which each point represents the system behaviour at a specific time. The common method was

112 proposed by Takens [23]. According to this method, given one single-variable time series present in a
 113 system, namely X_t , the state vector can be reconstructed as:

$$114 \quad Y_t = (X_t, X_{t-\tau}, X_{t-2\tau}, \dots, X_{t-(m-1)\tau}) \quad (1)$$

115 where m is the dimension of vector Y_t , called embedding dimension; τ is referred to as the
 116 delay time and is usually used as an appropriate multiple of the sampling interval for discrete time
 117 series. The dimension m can be considered as the minimum number of variables required to represent
 118 the system.

119 The Grassberger-Procaccia method [24], which is one of the common methods for embedding
 120 dimension estimation and chaos identification, is used in this study. Average Mutual Information
 121 (AMI) and Auto Correlation Function (ACF) methods are two typical methods which are used to
 122 estimate the delay time. Since the runoff generation of a catchment is a complex and non-linear
 123 process, it is better to use a non-linear method to estimate the delay time. Therefore, the AMI method
 124 which has a non-linear structure was used to calculate the delay time in this study. A brief description
 125 of the AMI and correlation dimension methods is presented below.

126 **2.1 Average Mutual Information**

127 This method measures the amount of information about the value of $X(t+\tau)$, if the value of
 128 $X(t)$ is known [25]. For a discrete time series, with $X(t)$ and $X(t+\tau)$, the average mutual information
 129 (AMI), $I(\tau)$, is defined as:

$$130 \quad I(\tau) = \sum_{X(t), X(t+\tau)} P(X(t), X(t+\tau)) \times \ln \left[\frac{P(X(t), X(t+\tau))}{P(X(t)) \times P(X(t+\tau))} \right]$$

131 (2)

132 In which $P(X(t))$ and $P(X(t+\tau))$ are individual probabilities of $X(t)$ and $X(t+\tau)$, respectively,
 133 and $P(X(t), X(t+\tau))$ is the joint probability density. In this method, the time of the first minimum in
 134 average mutual information function is defined as the optimum delay time.

135 2.2 Correlation Dimension

136 The correlation dimension method is also named as correlation integral analysis. The
137 correlation integral $C(r)$ is calculated using Grassberger-Procaccia approach [24] as the common
138 method. According to this method, for an m -dimensional phase space, the correlation integral $C(r)$ is
139 defined as:

$$140 \quad C(r) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{N(N-1)} \sum_{\substack{i,j \\ (1 \leq i < j \leq N)}} H(r - \|Y_i - Y_j\|) \quad (3)$$

141 where H is the Heaviside function, with $H(u)=1$ for $u>0$ and $H(u)=0$ for $u \leq 0$, where
142 $u=r-|Y_i - Y_j|$, r is the radius of the sphere centred on Y_i or Y_j and N is the number of points on the
143 reconstructed attractor. If the time series is described as an attractor, for positive values of r , the
144 correlation function $C(r)$ and r are related to each other as:

$$145 \quad C(r) = \alpha r^{D_2} \quad (4)$$

146 where α is a constant value and D_2 is a correlation exponent or the slope of $\ln C(r)$ versus $\ln r$
147 given by:

$$148 \quad D_2 = \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{\ln C(r)}{\ln r} \quad (5)$$

149 This gradient is generally calculated by fitting a line in the main range of r (i.e., scaling
150 range). The type of the system can be determined by studying the behaviour of D_2 versus dimension
151 m . If D_2 varies linearly with increasing m without achieving a saturation value, the system can be
152 considered as a stochastic system. In contrast, if D_2 is saturated at a definite value of m , the system is
153 considered as a deterministic system [25].

154 3. Data Sets

155 The study area is the whole area of Iran consisting of different climate catchments. Iran's
156 territory is divided into six main catchments called Sarakhs, Caspian Sea, Orumieh Lake, Persian
157 Gulf, Gulf of Oman, and Central Basin. The climate in each catchment is completely different from
158 the other. The average rainfall in these catchments varies from 337 mm/year in the Caspian Sea
159 catchment to 102 mm/year in the Oman Sea catchment. In this study the catchment areas vary from 8

160 km² (station 19-148 at Ardebil province) to 36500 km² (station 24-029 at Bushehr province). The
161 daily recorded runoffs data ranging from 18 to 60 years were recorded in sixty 60 **synoptic** stations
162 were used in this study (see **Figure 2**). As shown in Table 1, the properties of streamflow, such as
163 maximum and average, are of high variation values.

164 The spatial distribution of the selected stations and their climate properties are shown in
165 **Figure 2**. Table 1 shows the elevation, area and the outflow properties of each station. As can be seen
166 from **Figure 2** and Table 1 a wide range of topography, land use, geology, soil types, and climate data
167 are used in this study. The minimum and maximum elevations are -23 and 2068 meters, respectively.
168 The basins area ranges from 8 to 36500 km². The maximum flow rate is between 0.95 and 2866 m³/s
169 and the average flow rate is between 0.07 and 48.33 m³/s.

170 **4. Results and Discussion**

171 The correlation dimension of each time series in each station was calculated by using the
172 Grassberger-Procaccia method (Table 1). The comments of some researchers in the calculations of the
173 correlation dimensions have been considered in this study [26-29]. Three stations (21-163, 21-966 and
174 19-055) were selected as examples to illustrate the correlation dimension explanation.

175 **Figure 3 shows how the scalar time series is reconstructed in a higher dimensional phase-**
176 **space, according to Eq. (1), to represent the underlying dynamics. In fact, Figure 3 represents the**
177 **phase-space diagram in two dimensions ($m=2$) with a delay time of $\tau=1$, i.e., the projection attractor**
178 **on the plane (X_i, X_{i+1}). As can be seen in Figure 3, while the projection produces a well-defined**
179 **structure attractor in station 19-055 (Figure 3-c), the structures of the station 21-163 are scattered in**
180 **the phase space (Figure 3-a). The state of station 21-966 is approximately between the other two**
181 **stations (Figure 3-b). It should be noted that according to the presented projections in Figure 3, the**
182 **complexity of the system in station 19-055 is less than that of station 21-163. Therefore, the station**
183 **19-055 would be an approximate deterministic system while the station 21-163 is a stochastic one.**
184 This result was verified by using the correlation dimension results which are discussed in the
185 following step.

186 The delay time was estimated using the AMI method. Then the correlation function for each
187 time series was calculated using the embedding dimensions (m) values from 1-40 and the calculated

188 delay time. Figure 4 shows the relationship between the correlation function $C(r)$ and the radius r for
189 the increasing values of m ($\log C(r)$ versus $\log r$). In Figure 4, there is a middle region where
190 correlation function $C(r)$ starts to stray from linearity. The correlation function from these regions is
191 calculated by least square error method as shown in Figure 5. Moreover, the relationship between the
192 correlation exponent and the embedding dimension values is shown in Figure 5.

193 As can be seen in Figure 5 while the correlation exponent values increase with embedding
194 dimension values without any bound in station 21-163, the correlation exponent is saturated in a finite
195 value in station 19-055. The infinite increase of the correlation exponent in station 21-163 is an
196 indicator of stochastic behaviour in the streamflow time series. In contrast, the correlation dimension
197 in station 19-055 is saturated at $D_2 = 3$, suggesting the possible presence of the chaotic behaviour in
198 the streamflow time series. In the station 21-966 the correlation dimension is equal to 5 and as can be
199 observed in Figure 3 the behaviour of this station is somehow between the other two stations. The
200 results of the other investigated stations are presented in Table 1. The sign " ∞ " in the Table shows the
201 indefinability of the correlation dimension parameter.

202 According to Table 1, the correlation dimension values have a wide range of variation
203 between 3 (very small) and ∞ . Considering the stations 29-011 and 12-033 with undefined values of
204 D_2 , it can be seen that these stations are located far from each other and also in two different climates
205 (dry and wet regions, respectively) in Iran (see Figure 2). This condition occurs with a number of
206 other couples of stations, such as 47-023 and 24-021. In contrast, two other stations (i.e. 18-091 and
207 18-093) which are located near each other and have similar climates, elevations and areas have
208 different correlation dimension values. Some important points can be concluded from these results.
209 Firstly, the parameter D_2 can be used to identify inherent characteristics of the time series that are
210 different due to the prevailing conditions in every catchment and can be used to determine the
211 similarity or dissimilarity of the two considered stations. Secondly, the similarity in the location or
212 climate of the stations does not result in similarities in their systems' behaviours.

213 As already mentioned, the correlation dimension values contain important information about
214 the behaviours of the fundamental system dynamics that could be distinguished between catchment
215 hydrological behaviours. Therefore, the correlation dimension values can be used as base criteria for

216 the foundation of a catchment classification pattern. In this manner, catchments would be categorized
217 into groups and subgroups using their similar hydrologic behaviours which in turn are specified by
218 correlation dimensions calculated for monthly outflow data.

219 With regards to dimensionality of the studied stations in Table 1, it can be seen that the
220 catchments in the study area range widely from stochastic (undefined) to deterministic (low
221 dimensions). Stations in the study area can be divided into four groups based on the correlation
222 dimensions: low dimension ($D_2 \leq 4$) as group 1, medium dimension ($D_2 = 5$) as group 2, high
223 dimension ($D_2 \geq 6$) as group 3 and unidentifiable as group 4. The selection of the group's number
224 and the dimension value ranges are nearly arbitrary. However, the limit of the dimension values for
225 each group is reasonable, because too many groups with very small differences or only two groups
226 presenting just high and low dimension values are not efficient for the purpose of classification.

227 **Figure 2** presents the classification of stations in the study area into four mentioned groups
228 which indicates the variability and patterns across the study area. The number of stations is not large
229 enough and more data are needed to analyse the regional results more confidently, but the stations are
230 scattered all over the country and homogeneity can be seen among them.

231 Having considered **Figure 2**, a clear relationship between the correlation dimension and the
232 spatial pattern could not be established, but a general view of the spatial pattern of groups and
233 similarities is detectable. In southeast Iran, the stations are classified as group 4. The stations located
234 in the south part with a semi-dry climate belonging to group 4 decrease in group number (**degree of**
235 **complexity**) as you move closer to the sea and dry climates. Moreover, none of the stations in the
236 south part of Iran belong to group 1. Overall, the stations located in the west part of Iran mostly
237 belong to groups 1 and 2. Although all of the groups are observed in the northwest, most stations with
238 wet or very wet climates in this region belong to group 1. Most stations with wet (very wet, wet, and
239 semi-wet) climates that are located in the north part of Iran are classified as group 1.

240 **Evident from an analysis in this study is while the runoff dynamic of the south eastern**
241 **stations exhibit very high complexity, more stations located in very wet climates (especially in the**
242 **north part of Iran) are less complex than the other stations. The tributaries of the south eastern rivers,**
243 **unlike the north western rivers, are mostly seasonal. Thus, changes in discharges of the south eastern**

244 rivers are very considerable which lead to increase their system's complexity. Furthermore, the
245 climate changes resulting from the Oman sea currents affect the rivers flow significantly. In general, a
246 decrease in rainfall (drought increasing) leads to an increase in the complexity value.

247 As mentioned, one of the advantages of this classification pattern is selecting the appropriate
248 model before starting the modelling operation. In other words, by determine the classification group
249 the user can predict the appropriate model such as stochastic, neural network, etc. At this stage, it is
250 required that the behaviours of different time series be compared with other groups while considering
251 the model, and researchers, in addition to presenting the accuracy criteria, should mention the
252 classification criteria so that other researchers can specify which model is appropriate for which
253 complexity level (or classification group). As an example, Tongal and Berndstoon [30] studied the
254 impact of streamflow complexity on the forecasting result of three type models (chaos, stochastic and
255 black-box). They showed that determining the degree of complexity can help with the pre-
256 determination of model to be applied. Therefore, the proposed classification framework can be a
257 proper candidate for selecting the type and quantity of the model. While more than six effective
258 variables ($D_2 \geq 6$) would result in a high complexity requiring the use of more complex models, four or
259 fewer variables ($D_2 \leq 4$) would lead to a lower complexity which can be analysed by simpler models.
260 As an example, the obtained results in this research suggest that the stochastic models could be a first-
261 order selection to model the south-eastern stations in Iran.

262 Figure 6 shows how to use the classification pattern. Accordingly, after calculating the delay
263 time, D_2 is calculated and based on its value the time series in classification is specified. Having the
264 times series specified, this classification can be used in cases such as selecting the appropriate model
265 for the time series modelling (and other classification benefits).

266 5. Conclusion

267 An important hydrological challenge is to establish a catchment classification framework
268 which serves as a basis for many purposes in hydrology (e.g., for generalization and developing
269 models). In this regard, finding a sensitive and interpretable criterion that could be used for properly
270 distinguishing various catchments is required. In this study, the capability of the chaos theory using
271 the correlation dimension value (D_2) was tested for this purpose.

272 The results of this study showed that the application of the correlation dimension is suitable
273 for assessing the differences in catchment behaviours (runoffs) resulting from various climatic and
274 hydrological conditions. Based on the discussed results, this criterion can be used as an index or a
275 measure to obtain a catchment classification framework. In the present study, the result of the
276 dimensional analysis was used to categorize Iran's catchments into four groups based on the degree of
277 time series complexity: low dimensional (low complexity), medium dimensional (medium
278 complexity), high dimensional (high complexity) and unidentifiable (very high complexity or
279 stochastic).

280 The spatial pattern classification of Iran's catchments indicates that the catchments with
281 different climate characteristics which are located at a far distance from each other might yield similar
282 responses along with the same degree of complexity. Furthermore, spatial plot results showed some
283 degree of homogeneity and connectivity between catchments.

284 The presented classification method in this study can be used by engineers and researchers to
285 study hydrological modelling methods more effectively through matching the degree of complexity
286 between models and catchment responses (streamflow time series).

287 In future studies, finding a new approach that could suggest definitive guidelines in
288 specifying the boundaries of groups and sub-groups in a classification framework is necessary. In
289 addition, the efficiency of classification in an existing model could be studied. The time scale plays
290 one of the most important roles in dimensionality. Thus, every time scale could be studied to identify
291 the group and sub-group boundaries. The ability of these criteria must be tested with different climatic
292 and catchment properties in other countries. For future study, it is suggested that the results of this
293 study with the results of another classification method be compared and validated. Applying the
294 method under climate change conditions and multivariate chaotic method in order to optimize the
295 results obtained by using data of precipitation, runoff, sediment and etc. can be another issue. We
296 emphasize that the finding of "similarity measures" or an agreed-upon "classification framework"
297 should come first and be developed more.

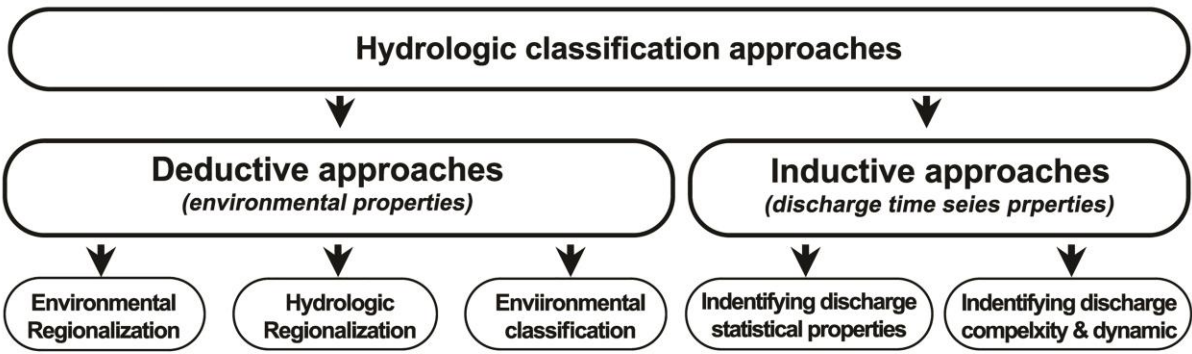
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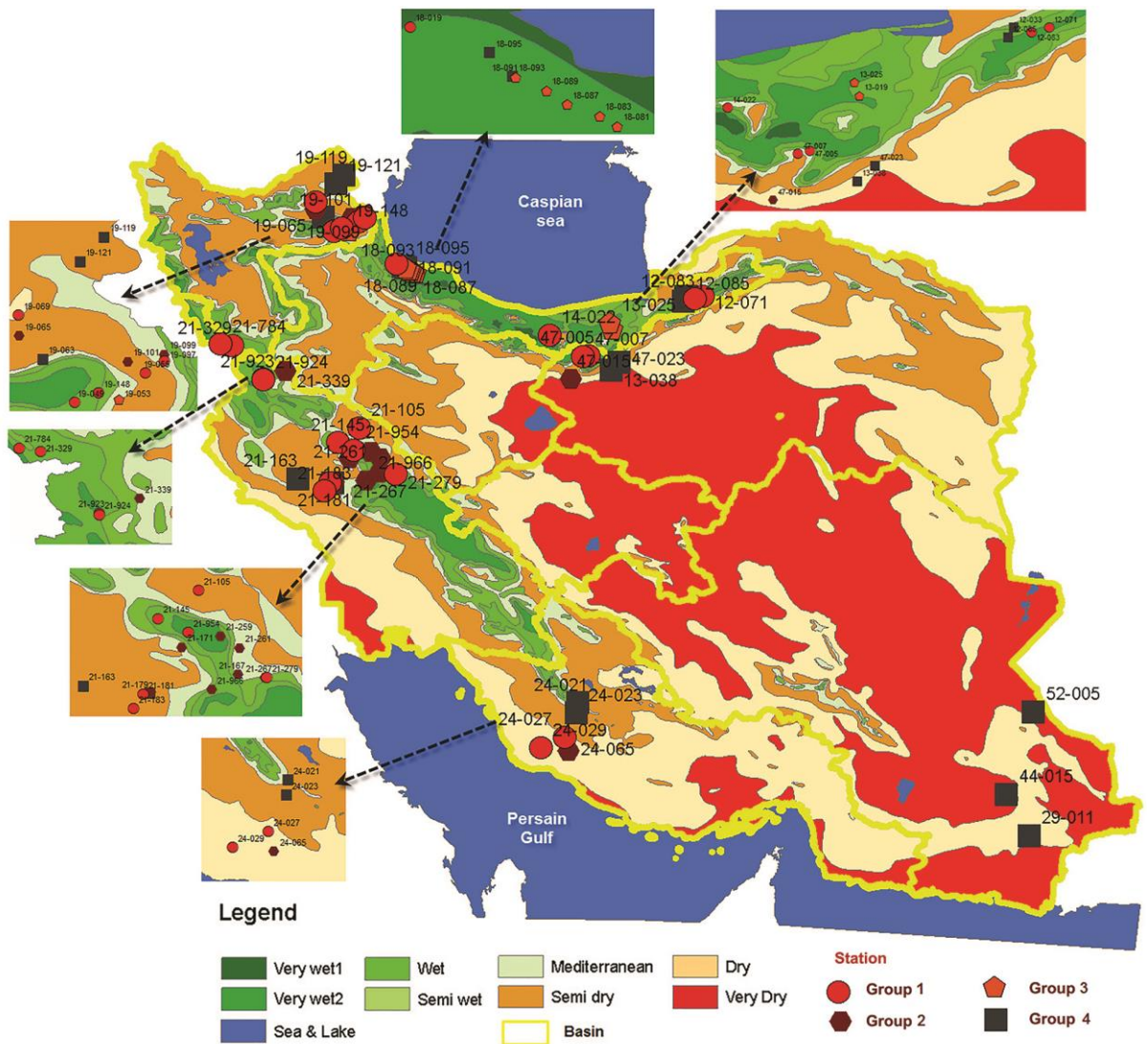
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- 370

371	Figures caption
372	Figure 1. General Categorize of catchment classification study
373	Figure 2. Scattering Map of Study Stations and classification map
374	Figure 3. Phase space diagram for three selected stations
375	a) 21-163, b) 21-966, c) 19-055
376	Figure 4. $\log C(r)$ versus $\log(r)$ plots for daily river flow data for three selected stations
377	a) 21-163, b) 21-966, c) 19-055
378	Figure 5. Relation between correlation dimension and embedding dimension for three selected stations
379	a) 21-163, b) 21-966, c) 19-055
380	Figure 6. Schematic representation of proposed classification pattern
381	



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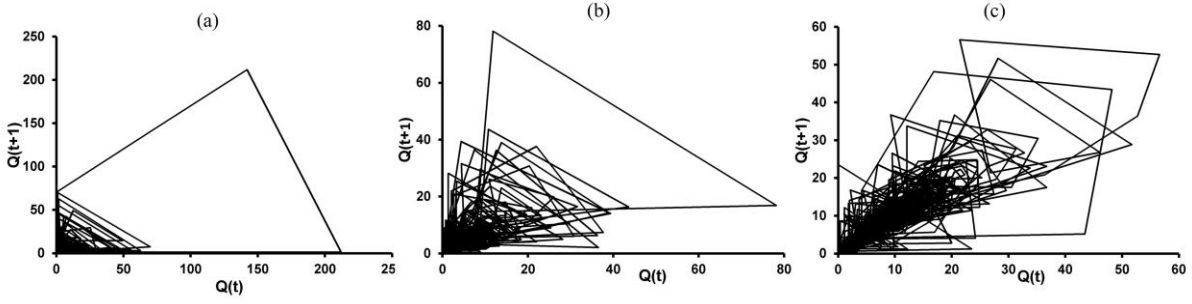
383 **Figure 1.**



384

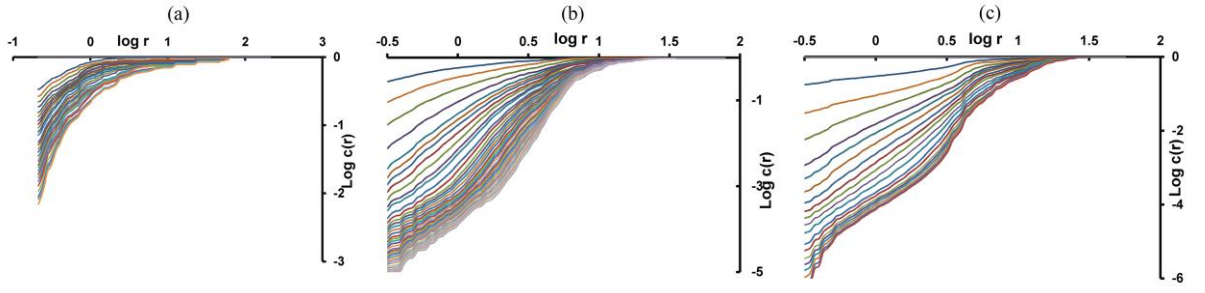
385 **Figure 2.**

386



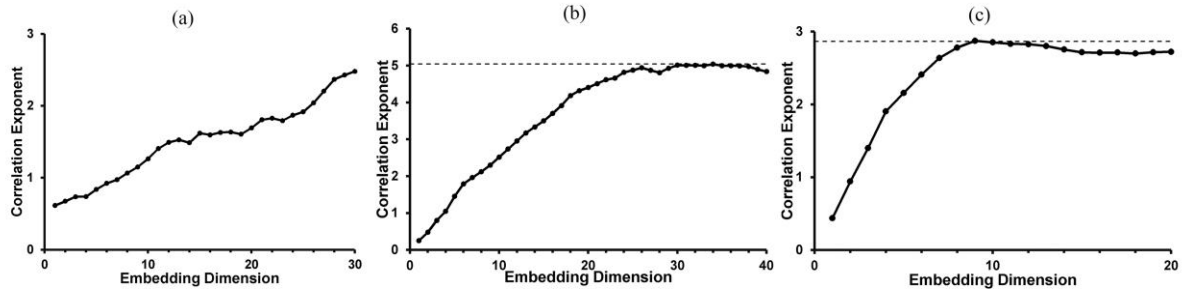
387

388 **Figure 3.**

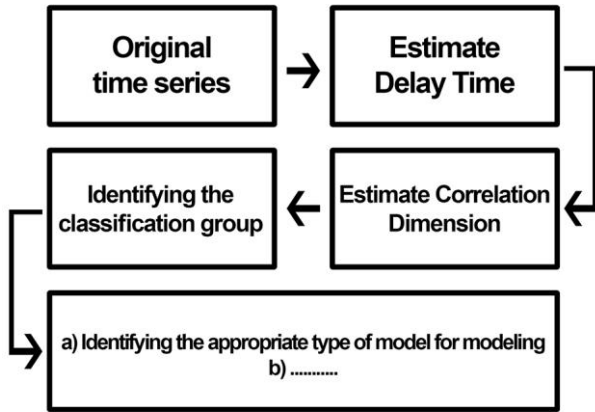


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390 **Figure 4.**



391
392 **Figure 5.**
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394

395 **Figure 6.**

396

397 **Table caption**
398 **Table 1. Details and results of stations analysis**
399

400 **Table 1.**

Station	Catchment Properties		Outflow Properties		D_2	Station	Catchment Properties		Outflow Properties		D_2
	Elevation (m)	Area (km ²)	Average (m ³ /s)	Max (m ³ /s)			Elevation (m)	Area (km ²)	Average (m ³ /s)	Max (m ³ /s)	
12-033	100	114.5	0.39	67	∞	21-339	1575	280	1.53	39	5
12-071	300	335	2.24	78.1	6	21-784	955	162	1.08	29.8	3
12-083	280	387.5	1.20	52	6	21-923	1310	996	9.66	438.82	4
12-085	465	195.4	0.54	51.05	∞	21-924	1311	379.5	1.90	69.6	4
13-038	1800	248	0.62	40	∞	21-105	1800	901	4.21	37.97	3
47-015	1040	3209	7.75	320	5	47-005	1924	1910	1.13	72	6
47-023	1280	360	0.22	22	∞	47-007	1814	587	4.36	34.2	4
19-049	2068	36	0.11	5.27	6	18-019	135	126	2.07	75	6
19-053	1440	1070.6	3.61	142.48	7	18-081	-20	780.5	21.33	415.1	11
19-055	1332	1638	2.60	56.6	3	18-083	-20	441.8	10.68	266	7
19-063	1420	98.1	0.78	116	∞	18-087	-22	355	5.57	125	7
19-065	780	7311	8.09	185.2	5	18-089	-23	206.2	6.89	167	8
19-069	705	11267	15.19	232	4	18-091	-19	341.1	4.55	66	8
19-097	1352	44	0.13	5.11	6	18-093	-19	318.3	3.59	360	∞
19-099	1459	40	0.08	2.11	5	18-095	-15	100.3	1.93	103	∞
19-101	1290	4003.7	6.28	351.4	5	21-145	1780	615	3.37	99.5	6
19-119	334	710	0.16	66.3	∞	21-163	880	568	1.45	212	∞
19-121	820	156	0.16	18.6	∞	21-167	1770	270	2.71	104.61	5
19-148	1800	8	0.07	0.949	4	21-171	1520	773	7.70	125.37	5
13-019	400	1256	6.26	108.91	8	21-177	820	6700	41.86	923	5
13-025	270	2715	10.12	321	8	21-179	800	800	3.50	472.25	∞
14-022	570	524	2.31	46.7	4	21-181	790	1108	1.44	142	6
24-021	1585	415	1.82	264	∞	21-183	650	9140	48.33	945	6
24-023	1376	1410	3.75	665	∞	21-259	2000	60.4	2.27	37.12	5
24-027	384	4300	10.13	671	6	21-261	1490	1000	5.72	119	5
24-065	222	18525	19.64	1825.27	5	21-267	1450	3400	15.85	445	5
29-011	778	2420	2.57	1922	∞	21-279	1450	2655	9.36	427.5	4
44-015	651	3670	2.39	1019	∞	21-954	1720	166	2.68	34.6	4
52-005	1158	1350	0.24	60	∞	21-966	1420	234	1.35	78.16	5
21-329	1493	111	1.58	38.83	3	24-029	70	36500	38.94	2866	6

∞ = unidentifiable

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403

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