1 # Extraction of mantle discontinuities from teleseismic ambient noise

2 **S. Kato[1], K. Nishida[1]**

3 [1] Earthquake Research Institute, the University of Tokyo

4 Corresponding author: Shota Kato (skato@eri.u-tokyo.ac.jp)

5 **Key Points:**

6 - The P-S waves at mantle discontinuities were extracted from the ambient noise excited
7   by the ocean swells.

8 - We developed the source deconvolution method to generalize a receiver function method
9   to P-wave microseisms.

10 - The migration result of P-S waves was consistent with previous studies, showing the
11   potential of P-wave microseisms to seismic structures.

12 Orcid id Shota Kato: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4270-8261

13 Orcid id Kiwamu Nishida: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6778-8080

14

15

16 **Abstract**

17 Ocean swell activities excite body-wave microseisms that contain information on the Earth's

18 internal structure. Although seismic interferometry is feasible for exploring structures, it faces

19 the problem of spurious phases stemming from an inhomogeneous source distribution. This

20 paper proposes a new method for inferring seismic discontinuity structures beneath receivers

21 using body-wave microseisms. This method considers the excitation sources of body-wave

22 microseisms to be spatially localized and persistent over time. To detect the P-s conversion

23 beneath the receivers, we generalize the receiver function analysis for earthquakes to body-wave

24 microseisms. The resultant receiver functions migrate to the depth section. The detected 410- and

25 660-km mantle discontinuities are consistent with the results obtained using earthquakes, thereby

26 demonstrating the feasibility of our method for exploring deep-earth interiors. This study is the

27 first step toward body-wave exploration while considering the sources of P-wave microseisms to

28 be isolated events.

29 **Plain Language Summary**

30 The ocean waves excite persistent and random ground motions called microseisms. Since this

31 excitation is independent of seismic activities, this wavefield has information about seismic

32 structures that earthquakes never have. For the deep structure, such as the mantle and core, body-

33 wave microseisms are more suitable than surface-wave microseisms because body-wave

34 microseisms have better sensitivity. Previous studies using body-wave microseisms mainly

35 adopted the cross-correlation analysis known as seismic interferometry. This method assumes

36 that the microseisms are excited everywhere. However, the inhomogeneous source distribution

37 of body-wave microseisms causes artifacts for exploration by seismic interferometry. We

38 developed a new method which circumvents this problem. Assuming that the body-wave

39 microseisms are spatially isolated, this method extracted the P-s converted waves beneath

40 receivers from body-wave microseisms. The 3-Dimensional imaging result of extracted P-s

41 converted waves shows both 410- and 660-km mantle discontinuities, consistent with results

42 using earthquakes. This study shows the potential of body-wave microseisms for exploring the

43 deep earth structure.

44 **1 Introduction**

45   Microseisms are random seismic wavefields with a frequency range of 0.05–0.50 Hz

46   excited by ocean swell activities (e.g., Nishida, 2017) and can be categorized into primary

47   microseisms (PMs; <0.1 Hz) and secondary microseisms (SMs; >0.1 Hz). PMs are excited by

48   topographic coupling between surface ocean gravity waves and seismic waves (Hasselmann,

49   1963), whereas SMs are excited by the nonlinear effects of surface ocean gravity waves

50   (Longuet-Higgins, 1950). Although Rayleigh and Love waves dominate the SMs, teleseismic P-

51   waves have also been observed (e.g., Gerstoft *et al*., 2008). It has long been understood that these

52   random wavefields represent noise in earthquake seismology.

53   In the late 2000s, seismic interferometry (SI) turned the noise into a signal elucidating the

54   Earth's internal structures (e.g., Snieder & Larose, 2013). SI is a technique for extracting Green's

55   functions between seismic stations by calculating the cross-correlation of random seismic

56   wavefields of station pairs. SI assumes a homogeneous distribution of noise sources. Because the

57   wavefield is random, only noise sources within the stationary phase regions contribute

58   constructively to the cross-correlation function. Cross-correlation functions converge into

59   Green's functions, representing the wave propagation between station pairs. Because this

60   assumption is more valid for surface waves, surface-wave exploration became widely used in the

61   late 2000s (e.g., Shapiro & Campillo, 2004).

62   Body-wave exploration using SI has only recently been developed because body-wave

63   extraction is in practice more difficult than surface-wave extraction. One of the reasons for this is

64   the dominance of Rayleigh waves in SMs, owing to excitation at the surface (e.g., Forghani &

65   Snieder, 2010). Moreover, the source localization of P-wave microseisms violates the

66   assumption of a homogeneous source distribution. Source localization causes the emergence of

67   spurious waves in cross-correlation functions, thereby prohibiting the accurate reconstruction of

68   Green's functions (e.g., Pedersen & Colombi, 2018; Li *et al*., 2020). Such studies showed that

69   for estimating seismic structures using P-wave microseisms, considering their source locations is

70   important. Back projection before cross-correlation is one of the possible solutions for improved

71   extraction (e.g., Liu & Shearer, 2022).

72   This study employs a strategy that is different from SI. Instead of assuming a

73   homogeneous source distribution, P-wave microseisms are assumed to be spatially isolated

74   events (within several hundred kilometers) with persistent excitation (~6 h). We developed a new

75   method for estimating seismic structures using P waves from the centroid locations of P-wave

76   microseisms, focusing on the P-s conversion beneath the receivers. To detect this conversion, we

77   generalized a receiver function method for earthquake data (e.g., Langston, 1979) to P-wave

78   microseisms. Receiver function analysis using earthquakes sometimes involves narrow azimuthal

79   coverage from inhomogeneous hypocenters. Utilizing P-wave microseisms in the generalized

80   receiver function (gRF) analysis can improve the azimuthal coverage and broaden the

81   illuminated area.

2 Method and analysis

2.1 Data

84   We used seismograms from 690 seismic stations (Figure 1b) of the high-sensitivity

85   seismograph network (Hi-net: https://doi.org/10.17598/NIED.0003; Okada *et al*., 2014) deployed

86   by the National Research Institute for Earth Science and Disaster Resilience (NIED). The

87   vertical and horizontal components of the velocity meters with a natural frequency of 1 Hz were

88   deployed at the bottom of the boreholes of the stations. We analyzed the data after eliminating

89   the coherent periodic noise originating from the logger (Takagi *et al*., 2015) and correcting for

90   the instrumental response in the time domain (Maeda *et al*., 2011).

91   To detect the P-s conversion, we analyzed teleseismic P-wave microseisms from 0.10 to

92   0.25 Hz. Assuming that the excitation sources were persistent in time but localized in space, they

93   were approximated using a persistent vertical single force at the centroid location. Nishida &

94   Takagi (2022) constructed a centroid single-force catalog of P-wave microseisms from 2004 to

95   2020 using Hi-net data. To construct the catalog, they developed an autofocusing method that

96   utilizes information on both the slowness and wavefront curvature. Although the catalog also

97   includes PP and PKIKP events, the number of events with high signal-to-noise ratios is smaller

98   than that of P events. Accordingly, we mainly focused on P events. Each event in the catalog

99   includes the event date, centroid location, centroid single force, P-wave beam power, and median

100   absolute deviation of the beamforming result. We chose 5,780 P events with high signal-to-noise

101   ratios. The signal-to-noise ratio was defined as the ratio of the P-wave beam power to the median

102   absolute deviation of the beamforming result. The centroid locations of the P-wave microseisms

103   were classified as the Northern Atlantic Ocean, Northern Pacific Ocean, and Southern Pacific

104   Ocean (Figure. 1). The histogram of epicentral distances revealed peaks at 30–40° and 90–100°
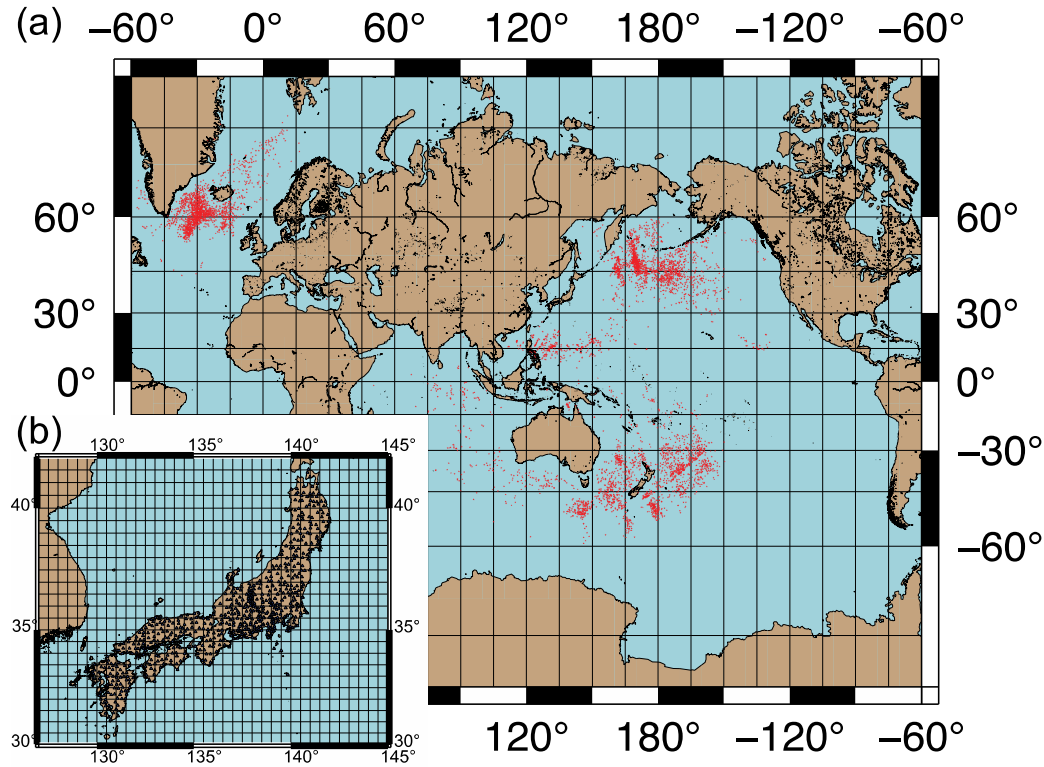
105   (Figure. S1a).

107   **Figure 1.** Centroid distribution of the P-wave microseisms used in this study. (**a**) Red dots

108   denote 5,780 P wave source locations (Nishida & Takagi, 2022). (**b**) Blue triangles denote Hi-net

109   stations.

110   2.2 Calculation of gRFs of P-wave microseisms

111   The gRF analysis for an earthquake was generalized for persistent P-wave microseisms.

112   The source time function of P-wave microseisms is typically several hours to several days (e.g.,

113   Zhang *et al*., 2010), whereas those of most earthquakes are shorter than several minutes. This

114   section describes the procedure for generating gRFs using P-wave microseisms. The centroid

115   location of the P-wave microseisms was fixed at 6 h. Six-hour-long waveforms were split into

116   1,024-s time windows. We selected time windows with low mean squared amplitudes of 0.05–

117   0.10 Hz (i.e., less than 7.6×10^4 nm^2/s^2) and 0.10–0.20 Hz (i.e., less than 2.5×10^4 nm^2/s^2)

118   to avoid contamination from local earthquakes and suppress local Rayleigh waves. In this

119   frequency range, locally excited Rayleigh waves dominate the records in Japan because

120 teleseismic Rayleigh waves attenuate with propagation owing to scattering and intrinsic

121 attenuation. Indeed, the relative amplitude of P waves to Rayleigh waves is anti-correlated with

122 the mean squared amplitude in the 0.1–0.2 Hz range in Japan (Takagi *et al*., 2018). Although

123 data selection according to the H/V ratio at inland stations is feasible for enhancing teleseismic

124 P-wave microseisms (e.g., Pedersen *et al*., 2023), we chose data with a low mean squared

125 amplitude.

126   For each time step, the Fourier spectrum of the source time function of the incident P

127 wave $P(\omega)$ was estimated by stacking vertical components all over the stations, along with the

128 theoretical P wave travel time. Stacking the vertical components of all stations enhanced the

129 relative amplitude of body waves to Rayleigh waves. The theoretical P wave travel time T_{ip} was

130 calculated using the tauP toolkit (Crotwell *et al*., 1999) for the 1-D velocity model AK135

131 (Kennett *et al*., 1995), with correction for the 3-D velocity model (0–80 km depth) beneath Japan

132 (Nishida *et al*., 2008), assuming a near-vertical incident. The Fourier spectrum of the source time

133 function of the j-th time step is given by

$$P_j(\omega) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} Z_{ij}(\omega) e^{-i\omega T_{ip}},$$

134 where N is the number of seismic stations and Z_{ij} is the vertical component of the j-th time

135 window at the i-th station.

136   The gRF of P-wave microseisms RF_i is calculated by minimizing the squared difference

137 between the radial component of the i-th station and j-th time window R_{ij} and $RF_i \cdot P_j$. Thus, the

138 radial gRF of P-wave microseisms RF_i is calculated as

$$RF_i(\omega) = \frac{\langle R_{ij} P_j^* \rangle}{max(\langle P_j P_j^* \rangle, w \cdot max\langle P_j P_j^* \rangle)},$$

139 where w is the 5% water level to avoid instability, $max\langle P_j P_j^* \rangle$ is the peak value of the power

140 spectrum, and the angle brackets refer to the ensemble average of all the available time windows.

141 The numerator is the power spectrum of the incident P wave, whereas the dominator is the cross-

142 spectrum of the incident P wave P_j and the radial component R_{ij}. In the case of only a one-time

143   window, this equation is equivalent to the typical receiver function including the water level. The

144   vertical component of the gRF is calculated in the same manner.

145   All the radial gRFs for all events were linearly binned-stacked to enhance the signal-to-

146   noise ratio. The width of distance bin was 25 km. All radial gRFs RF_i were normalized by the

147   peak amplitude of the vertical gRFs ZF_i, and aligned at the peak time of ZF_i (e.g., Zhang *et al*.,

148   2010). Quality control of the gRFs was performed before stacking, rejecting those with large

149   amplitudes of 50–500 s before the P peak. The radial gRFs using PP events were calculated in

150   the same manner, while those using PKIKP events were calculated in a slightly different manner

151   (Supporting Information). Because the number of events was less than the number of P events,

152   results are shown in the Supporting Information (Figure S3–S6).

153   **3 Results and Discussion**

154   3.1 Binned stack of gRFs

155   The binned stack of radial gRFs shows the P-s converted waves at the mantle

156   discontinuities with an epicentral distance of 3,000–11,000 km (Figure 2). The relative arrival

157   times of these waves were consistent with the theoretical travel times of AK135.

158   The sidelobe of P waves varies with the epicentral distance because the peak frequency of

159   SMs is affected by the ocean depth in the source area because of the resonance of the water layer

160   (e.g., Gualtieri *et al*., 2014). The amplitude variation of vertical gRFs before the P peaks depends

161   on the stacking number (Figure S2). The binned stack of the vertical gRFs shows no clear PP-

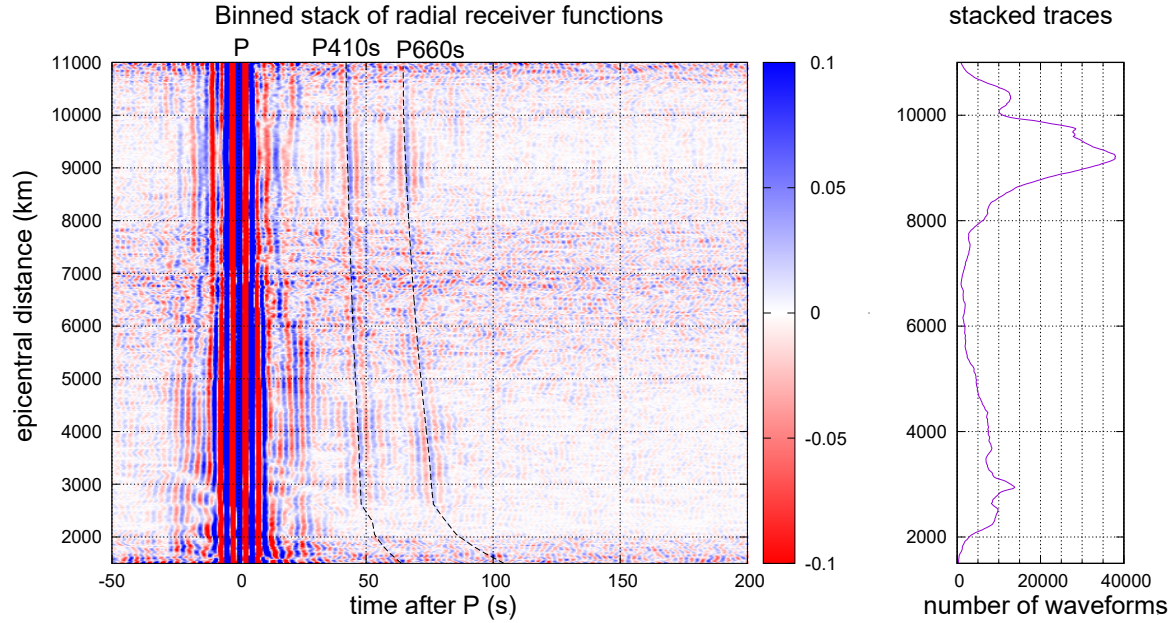162   and P-reflected waves at the mantle discontinuities (PP410P/PP660P).

Figure 2. Binned stack of all the radial gRFs of all seismic stations. Each stacked trace is normalized by the maximum value. The peak at the 0 s is the P wave. Two dashed lines show the theoretical travel times of P410s and P660s from AK135. The figure shows these phases along each line. The right panel shows the number of radial gRFs used in the binned stack.

Possible reasons for the emergence of P-s converted phases in the radial components and the lack of these reflection phases in the vertical components are as follows: First, the reflection phases being included in the source time function because of a small difference between the PP410P and PP660P slowness and that of P (~0.0005 s/km with an epicentral distance of 80°); and second, the reverberation at the bounce point causing destructive interference for the reflected phases. However, the P-s converted phases were free of these reasons.

3.2 1-D depth migration

All the radial gRFs were depth-migrated with the 1-D structure of AK135. Assuming that the radial gRFs consist of P-s converted waves, all gRFs with epicentral distances greater than 30° were stacked along the theoretical travel time of the P-s converted waves at depths of 200–1000 km. Travel time was calculated using the tauP toolkit (Crotwell *et al.*, 1999). Four groups (all events, Northern Atlantic events, Northern Pacific events, and Southern Pacific events) of gRFs were depth-migrated (Figure 3). At a shallow depth (200 km), results were characterized

181 by large amplitudes, which can be explained by contamination by the sidelobe of the direct P. All

182 results showed common positive peaks around the depths of 410 and 660 km. The peak depth

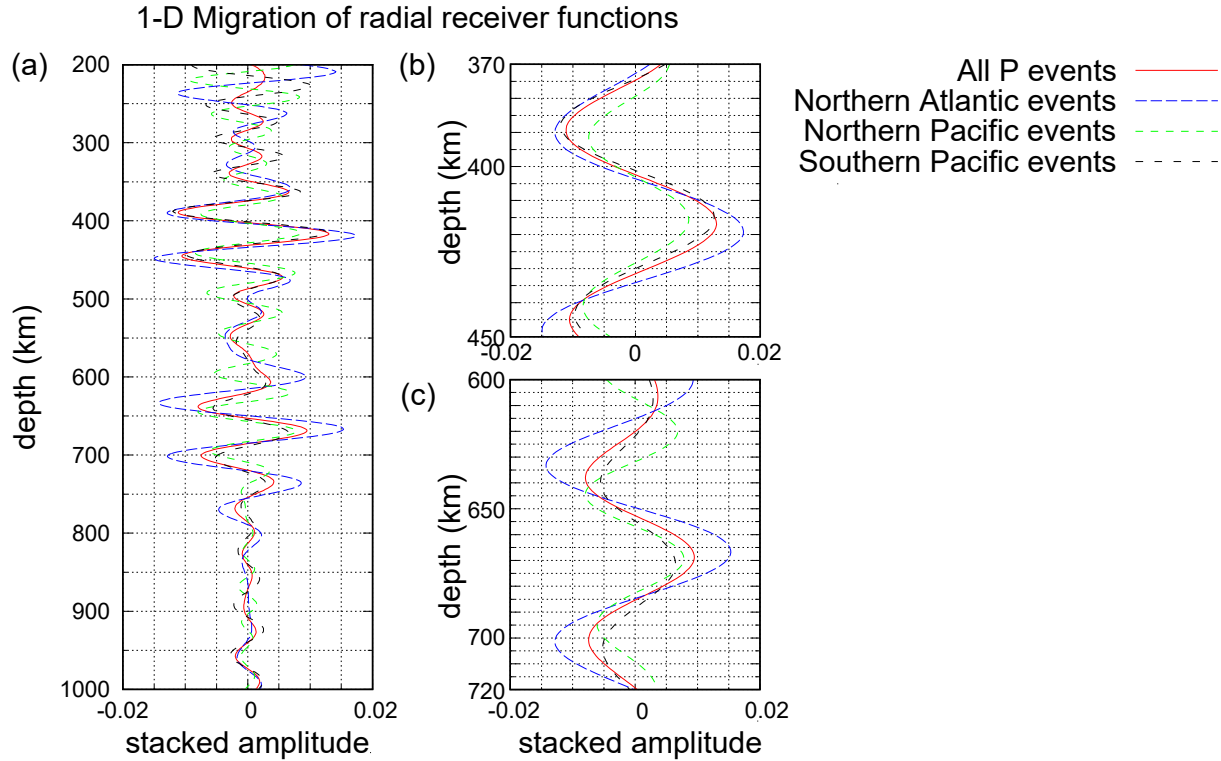183 was somewhat shallow because of the difference in the crustal structure between Japan and

184 AK135.

1-D Migration of radial receiver functions

185

186 **Figure 3.** (**a**) Depth migration result of the radial gRFs converted from 200 to 1,000 km depth.

187 Red, blue, green, and black lines indicate the results using all the events, events in the Northern

188 Atlantic, events in the Northern Pacific, and events in the Southern Pacific, respectively. Peaks

189 exist around the depths of 410 and 660 km. (**b**) Enlarged view in the 370–450 km depth range in

190 panel a. (**c**) Enlarged view in the 600–720 km depth range in panel a.

191   The amplitudes of the P-s waves were compared to previous seismic observations. The P-

192 s transmission coefficients estimated using Japanese broadband stations are $2.7 \pm 0.8\%$ and 6.0

193 $\pm 0.7\%$ (Kato & Kawakatsu, 2001), while using the PREM parameters (Dziewonski & Anderson,

194 1981), they are 1.5% and 4.6% (slowness is 0.06 s/km). In this study, we obtained the P-s

195 transmission coefficients of the 410- and 660-km discontinuities as 0.8–1.8% and 0.7–1.5%,

196 respectively. These values are smaller than those reported in previous studies, with the P-s

197   transmission coefficient at 660 km depth being smaller than that at 410 km depth. Waveform

198   distortion due to the high water level during deconvolution may decrease the amplitude of P-s

199   converted waves. However, waveform distortion alone cannot explain the smaller amplitude of

200   P660s compared with that of P410s. A plausible reason is the sharpness of the 410- and 660-km

201   discontinuities, i.e., the frequency dependence of the P-s transmission coefficients because this

202   study used a relatively higher frequency band (0.10–0.25 Hz) than those in previous studies

203   (0.005–0.200 Hz). The widths of the mantle discontinuities may be related to the water content

204   of the transition zone (e.g., Helffrich & Wood, 1996). Our results are consistent with the

205   observed frequency dependence of the P-s conversion at the 660 km discontinuity reported

206   previously (Tonegawa *et al*., 2005). Another possible reason is that the depression of the 660-km

207   discontinuity (a ~40 km depression in southwest Japan; Tono *et al*., 2005; Tonegawa *et al*.,

208   2006) may make P660s incoherent for stacking.

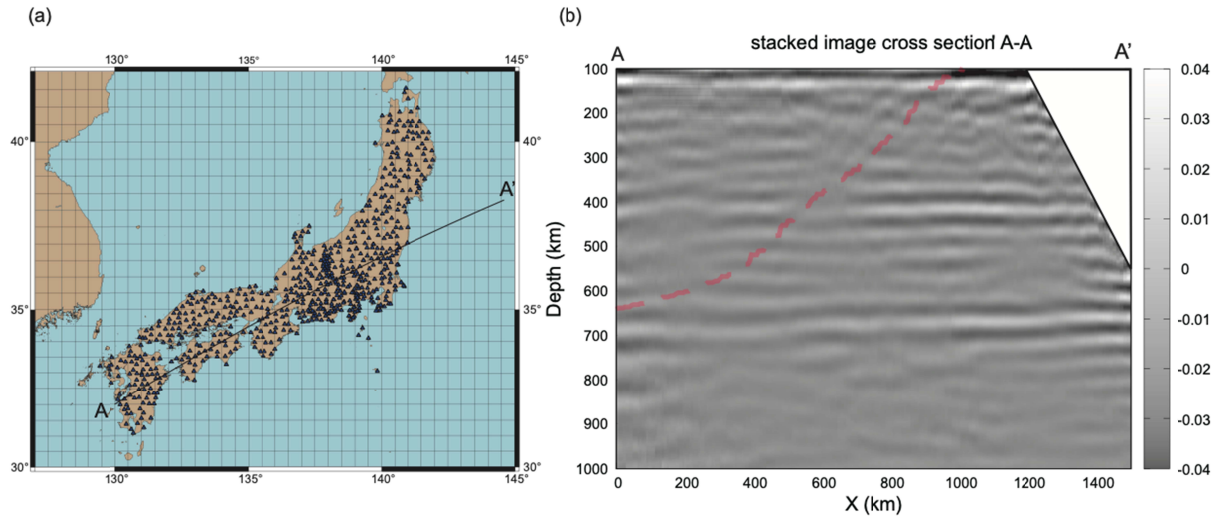209   3.3 3-D depth migration

210

211   **Figure 4.** Cross-section (A–A') of the depth-projected radial gRFs. **(a)** Locations of the cross-

212   section and stations (blue triangles) used in this study. **(b)** Stacked image of the A–A' cross-

213   section from 100 to 1,000 km depth. The red line denotes the depth of the top of Pacific slabs

214   (Nakajima & Hasegawa, 2006; Nakajima *et al*., 2009). The shallow part near A' is muted due to

215   the poor ray path coverage.

216   The migration of all the radial gRFs with the 3-D structure was calculated. Assuming that

217   the radial gRFs consisted of P-s converted waves, all the gRFs with epicentral distances greater

218   than 30° were projected to the 100–1,000 km depth domain. Figure 4 shows a cross-section using

219   these depth-projected gRFs. At each point on the cross-section, the gRFs were stacked with a

220   horizontal distance smaller than 1°. The image of the cross-section shows the horizontally

221   continuous 410- and 660-km discontinuities. The 410-km discontinuity has a gap where the

222   Pacific plate (red line in the figure) crosses the 410-km depth. The 660-km discontinuity is

223   depressed where the Pacific slab stagnates above the 660-km discontinuity. However, the Pacific

224   plate is not evident in the cross-section because the spatial stacking length is too large to image

225   the subducting plate surface (Kawakatsu & Yoshioka, 2011).

226   The cross-section from the resultant gRFs was compared with the stacked image from

227   conventional receiver functions using an earthquake (Tonegawa *et al*., 2006). Because the

228   locations of both the cross-section and frequency band are similar, the cross-section of Tonegawa

229   *et al.* (2006) is adequate for reference. The signatures of the mantle discontinuities were common

230   in both images, demonstrating the reliability of this method.

231   3.4 Applicability of this method to other seismic arrays

232   The relative amplitude of body waves to surface waves of microseisms is one of the

233   factors determining the signal-to-noise ratio in this method. The waveforms of the Hi-net stations

234   are dominated by surface waves excited by the sea around Japan, whereas those of stations in the

235   continental region are less dominated by surface waves owing to scattering decay (e.g., Vinnik,

236   1973). An inland array is preferable; however, our method still requires more than 500 stations to

237   accurately extract the incident P-wave microseism. It also requires long-term observations, with

238   time periods of over 10 years, and a sufficient number of events. Because dense observations

239   have become popular in the last decade, our method could be feasible for extracting P-s

240   converted waves using seismic networks on the continent.

241

242   **4 Conclusions**

243   We performed a generalized receiver function analysis of P-wave microseisms. Contrary

244   to the SI assumption, this method assumes that the sources of body-wave microseisms are

245   persistent in time and spatially localized. This strategy constitutes a solution to the spurious

246   phase problem of body-wave extraction using SI. The resultant migration image showed the

247   extraction of the P410s/P660s from the radial gRFs. The stacked image from the extracted P-s

248   converted waves was consistent with the images from the conventional receiver function analysis

249   using earthquakes. The results demonstrate the feasibility of our method using body-wave

250   microseisms for exploring the Earth's deep interior, while this method can also be applied to

251   other modern arrays. This study is the first step toward seismic exploration while considering the

252   sources of P-wave microseisms to be isolated events; it has the potential to extract information

253   not only from the receiver side, but also along the path, including the source side.

254

260

261 **Open Research**

262 We used data from Hi-net (https://doi.org/10.17598/nied.0003) managed by the National Research Institute for

263 Earth Science and Disaster Prevention (NIED), Japan.

264 The CSF catalog in this study is available on the Zenodo web

265 page https://zenodo.org/record/6001637 (Nishida, 2022).

266

267 **Reference**

268 Crotwell, H. P., Owens, T. J., & Ritsema, J. (1999). The TauP Toolkit: Flexible Seismic Travel-time and Ray-path

269   Utilities. *Seismological Research Letters*, *70*(2), 154–160.

270 Dziewonski, A. M., & Anderson, D. L. (1981). Preliminary reference Earth model. *Physics of the Earth and*

271   *Planetary Interiors*, *25*(4), 297–356.

272 Forghani, F., & Snieder, R. (2010). Underestimation of body waves and feasibility of surface-wave reconstruction

273   by seismic interferometry. *Leading Edge*, *29*(7), 790–794.

274 Gerstoft, P., Shearer, P. M., Harmon, N., & Zhang, J. (2008). Global P, PP, and PKP wave microseisms observed

275   from distant storms. *Geophysical Research Letters*, *35*(23). https://doi.org/10.1029/2008gl036111

276 Gualtieri, L., Stutzmann, E., Farra, V., Capdeville, Y., Schimmel, M., Ardhuin, F., & Morelli, A. (2014). Modelling

277   the ocean site effect on seismic noise body waves. *Geophysical Journal International*, *197*(2), 1096–1106.

278 Hasselmann, K. (1963). A statistical analysis of the generation of microseisms. *Reviews of Geophysics (Washington,*

279   *D.C.: 1985)*, *1*(2), 177.

280 Helffrich, G. R., & Wood, B. J. (1996). 410 km discontinuity sharpness and the form of the olivine α-β phase

281   diagram: resolution of apparent seismic contradictions. *Geophysical Journal International*, *126*(2), F7–F12.

282 Kato, M., & Kawakatsu, H. (2001). Seismological in situ estimation of density jumps across the transition zone

283   discontinuities beneath Japan. *Geophysical Research Letters*, *28*(13), 2541–2544.

284 Kawakatsu, H., & Yoshioka, S. (2011). Metastable olivine wedge and deep dry cold slab beneath southwest Japan.

285   *Earth and Planetary Science Letters*, *303*(1–2), 1–10.

286 Kennett, B. L. N., Engdahl, E. R., & Buland, R. (1995). Constraints on seismic velocities in the Earth from

287   traveltimes. *Geophysical Journal International*, *122*(1), 108–124.

288   Krischer, L., Megies, T., Barsch, R., Beyreuther, M., Lecocq, T., Caudron, C., & Wassermann, J. (2015). ObsPy: a
289   bridge for seismology into the scientific Python ecosystem. *Computational Science & Discovery*, *8*(1),
290   014003.

291   Langston, C. A. (1979). Structure under Mount Rainier, Washington, inferred from teleseismic body waves. *Journal*
292   *of Geophysical Research, [Solid Earth]*, *84*(B9), 4749–4762.

293   Li, L., Boué, P., & Campillo, M. (2020). Observation and explanation of spurious seismic signals emerging in
294   teleseismic noise correlations. *Solid Earth*, *11*(1), 173–184.

295   Liu, T., & Shearer, P. M. (2022). Likely P‐to‐S conversion at the core‐mantle boundary extracted from array
296   processing of noise records. *Geophysical Research Letters*, *49*(7). https://doi.org/10.1029/2021gl097034

297   Longuet-Higgins, M. S. (1950). A theory of the origin of microseisms. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal*
298   *Society of London. Series A: Mathematical and Physical Sciences*, *243*(857), 1–35.

299   Maeda, T., Obara, K., Furumura, T., & Saito, T. (2011). Interference of long-period seismic wavefield observed by
300   the dense Hi-net array in Japan. *Journal of Geophysical Research, [Solid Earth]*, *116*(B10).
301   https://doi.org/10.1029/2011JB008464

302   Nakajima, J., & Hasegawa, A. (2006). Anomalous low-velocity zone and linear alignment of seismicity along it in
303   the subducted Pacific slab beneath Kanto, Japan: Reactivation of subducted fracture zone? *Geophysical*
304   *Research Letters*, *33*(16). https://doi.org/10.1029/2006GL026773

305   Nakajima, J., Hirose, F., & Hasegawa, A. (2009). Seismotectonics beneath the Tokyo metropolitan area, Japan:
306   Effect of slab-slab contact and overlap on seismicity. *Journal of Geophysical Research, [Solid Earth]*,
307   *114*(B8). https://doi.org/10.1029/2008JB006101

308   Nishida, K., Kawakatsu, H., & Obara, K. (2008). Three-dimensional crustal S wave velocity structure in Japan using
309   microseismic data recorded by Hi-net tiltmeters. *Journal of Geophysical Research, [Solid Earth]*, *113*(B10).
310   https://doi.org/10.1029/2007JB005395

311   Nishida, K. (2017). Ambient seismic wave field. *Proceedings of the Japan Academy. Series B, Physical and*
312   *Biological Sciences*, *93*(7), 423–448.

313   Nishida, K, & Takagi, R. (2022). A Global Centroid Single Force Catalog of P-Wave Microseisms. *Journal of*
314   *Geophysical Research, [Solid Earth]*, *127*(4), e2021JB023484.

315   Okada, Y., Kasahara, K., Hori, S., Obara, K., Sekiguchi, S., Fujiwara, H., & Yamamoto, A. (2014). Recent progress

316   of seismic observation networks in Japan —Hi-net, F-net, K-NET and KiK-net—. *Earth, Planets and*

317   *Space*, *56*(8), xv–xxviii.

318   Pedersen, H. A., & Colombi, A. (2018). Body waves from a single source area observed in noise correlations at

319   arrival times of reflections from the 410 discontinuity. *Geophysical Journal International*, *214*(2), 1125–

320   1135.

321   Pedersen, H. A., Mattern, F., & Poli, P. (2023). Imaging with seismic noise: improving extraction of body wave

322   phases from the deep Earth through selective stacking based on H/V ratios. *Geophysical Journal*. Retrieved

323   from https://academic.oup.com/gji/article-abstract/232/2/1455/6750232

324   Shapiro, N. M., & Campillo, M. (2004). Emergence of broadband Rayleigh waves from correlations of the ambient

325   seismic noise. *Geophysical Research Letters*, *31*(7). https://doi.org/10.1029/2004GL019491

326   Snieder, R., & Larose, E. (2013). Extracting Earth's Elastic Wave Response from Noise Measurements. *Annual*

327   *Review of Earth and Planetary Sciences*, *41*(1), 183–206.

328   Takagi, R., Nishida, K., Aoki, Y., Maeda, T., Masuda, K., Takeo, M., et al. (2015). A Single Bit Matters: Coherent

329   Noise of Seismic Data Loggers. *Seismological Research Letters*, *86*(3), 901–907.

330   Takagi, R., Nishida, K., Maeda, T., & Obara, K. (2018). Ambient seismic noise wavefield in Japan characterized by

331   polarization analysis of Hi-net records. *Geophysical Journal International*, *215*(3), 1682–1699.

332   Tonegawa, T., Hirahara, K., & Shibutani, T. (2005). Detailed structure of the upper mantle discontinuities around

333   the Japan subduction zone imaged by receiver function analyses. *Earth, Planets, and Space: EPS*, *57*(1), 5–

334   14.

335   Tonegawa, T., Hirahara, K., Shibutani, T., & Shiomi, K. (2006). Upper mantle imaging beneath the Japan Islands by

336   Hi-net tiltmeter recordings. *Earth, Planets and Space*, *58*(8), 1007–1012.

337   Tono, Y., Kunugi, T., Fukao, Y., Tsuboi, S., Kanjo, K., & Kasahara, K. (2005). Mapping of the 410- and 660-km

338   discontinuities beneath the Japanese islands. *Journal of Geophysical Research, [Solid Earth]*, *110*(B3).

339   https://doi.org/10.1029/2004JB003266

340   Vinnik, L. P. (1973). Sources of microseismicP waves. *Pure and Applied Geophysics*, *103*(1), 282–289.

341   Wessel, P., Luis, J. F., Uieda, L., Scharroo, R., Wobbe, F., Smith, W. H. F., & Tian, D. (2019). The generic mapping

342   tools version 6. *Geochemistry, Geophysics, Geosystems*, *20*(11), 5556–5564.

343   Zhang, J., Gerstoft, P., & Shearer, P. M. (2010). Resolving P-wave travel-time anomalies using seismic array

344   observations of oceanic storms. *Earth and Planetary Science Letters*. Retrieved from

345   https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0012821X10001160

346

347 **Reference from the Supporting Information**

348   Takagi, R., Toyokuni, G., & Chikasada, N. (2020). Ambient noise correlation analysis of S-net records: extracting

349   surface wave signals below instrument noise levels. *Geophysical Journal International*, *224*(3), 1640–1657.

350