

1 **Temporal variation and frequency dependence of ambient noise on**
2 **Mars from polarization analysis**

3
4 **Yudai Suemoto¹, Takeshi Tsuji^{1,2} *, Tatsunori Ikeda^{1,2}**

5
6 ¹ Department of Earth Resources Engineering, Kyushu University, 744 Motooka, Nishi-
7 ku, Fukuoka 819-0395, Japan

8 ² International Institute for Carbon-Neutral Energy Research (WPI-I2CNER), Kyushu
9 University, 744 Motooka, Nishi-ku, Fukuoka 819-0395, Japan

10
11 Corresponding author: Takeshi Tsuji (tsuji@mine.kyushu-u.ac.jp)

12
13 **Key points:**

- 14
15 • A polarization analysis of InSight seismic data enables estimates of temporal
16 variation and frequency dependence of ambient noise on Mars.
17 • Higher-frequency (4–8 Hz) P-waves and Rayleigh waves show diurnal variation of
18 back-azimuth that may be induced by wind and temperature.
19 • Changes in the trend of Rayleigh waves below 0.25 Hz may be related to a
20 lithological boundary as well as variations in ambient noise.
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24 **Abstract**

25 We applied a polarization analysis of InSight seismic data to estimate temporal variation
26 and frequency dependence of the Martian ambient noise field. An autocorrelation analysis
27 suggests that a lithological boundary beneath the seismometer influences ambient noise
28 characteristics. High-frequency (4–8 Hz) P-waves show a diurnal variation in the
29 dominant back-azimuth that appears to be related to wind and direction of sunlight in a
30 distant area. High-frequency Rayleigh waves (4–8 Hz) also show diurnal variation and a
31 dominant back-azimuth related to wind direction in a nearby area. Rayleigh waves of <2
32 Hz show diurnal variations. However, the dominant back-azimuths of P-waves of <4 Hz
33 and Rayleigh waves of 2–4 Hz are constant. Therefore, the higher frequency signal could
34 be derived mainly from wind. These results point to the presence of several ambient noise
35 sources as well as site amplification effects related to geologic structure at the InSight
36 landing site.

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38 **Plain Language Summary**

39 Ambient seismic noise (microtremors) is continuously generated not only on Earth but
40 also on Mars. We used data from the seismometer on the InSight lander to make estimates
41 of microtremor characteristics and identified possible underground structures that
42 influence the propagation of microtremors. High-frequency P-waves derived from
43 microtremors show daily variations that appear to be induced by wind and changes of
44 sunlight during the Martian day in distant areas, whereas high-frequency Rayleigh waves
45 show daily variations that may be generated by wind in nearby areas. Microtremors in
46 other frequency ranges have different characteristics. These results suggest that
47 depending on their frequency, microtremors can be induced by wind and other sources,
48 and may then be influenced by geological structures. Ambient noise data will be helpful
49 for imaging and monitoring Mars' interior structure and natural resources, such as ice
50 deposits, without the need for data from marsquakes and artificial seismic sources.

51

52 **Keywords:** InSight, ambient noise, polarization analysis, autocorrelation function, wind

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60 **1. Introduction**

61 When NASA's Interior Exploration using Seismic Investigations, Geodesy and
62 Heat Transport (InSight) lander touched down in Elysium Planitia on 26 November 2018,
63 it went on to deploy the first complete geophysical observatory on Mars. One of its
64 primary scientific investigations is the Seismic Experiment for Interior Structure (SEIS;
65 InSight Mars SEIS Data Service, 2019). The lander also includes a set of environmental
66 sensors, including temperature and wind sensors (Banfield et al., 2019; Spiga et al., 2018).
67 The InSight seismometer has detected several hundred marsquakes, most of them much
68 smaller than earthquakes typically felt on Earth, but some were nearly as large as
69 magnitude 4 (Witze, 2019). The instrument is especially sensitive to seismic events at
70 night, when the strong ambient noise generated during the day by wind is subdued (Witze,
71 2019).

72 Analysis of ambient seismic noise is a technique widely used on Earth to image
73 and monitor the subsurface (e.g., Nimiya et al., 2017; Nishida et al., 2008), and several
74 studies have made similar use of ambient noise on the Moon (e.g., Larose et al., 2005;
75 Tanimoto et al., 2008). If ambient noise can be used to image and monitor the interior
76 structures of Mars, this technique will be a powerful tool because it does not require any
77 natural marsquakes or artificial seismic sources.

78 In this paper, we characterize the ambient noise on Mars relying mainly on data
79 from the InSight seismometer. We applied a polarization analysis to the InSight seismic
80 records (InSight Mars SEIS Data Service, 2019) to extract the dominant back-azimuth
81 and directional intensity of ambient noise. Furthermore, by comparing the characteristics
82 of Rayleigh waves with autocorrelation functions (i.e., reflectivity), we achieved some
83 insight into the relationship between lithology and ambient noise characteristics. By
84 demonstrating the feasibility of ambient noise methods on Mars, this study shows that
85 future seismic network projects on Mars will contribute to not only modeling and
86 monitoring of Mars' interior structure, but also exploration for Martian resources,
87 especially ice deposits.

88

89 **2. Data and Method**

90 **2.1. Data Preparation**

91 The SEIS instrument includes a long-period, very broad band seismometer
92 (SEIS-VBB) with a sampling rate of 20 Hz (Lognonné et al., 2019; InSight Mars SEIS
93 Data Service, 2019). This seismometer was placed in Elysium Planitia in particular to
94 satisfy the constraints on landing safety and the instrument deployment requirements
95 (Golombek et al., 2017). In this study, we used continuous seismic records from SEIS-

96 VBB between February and June 2019. The SEIS-VBB is a triaxial seismometer in which
 97 the three mutually perpendicular pendulums are mounted obliquely. Therefore our first
 98 step was to numerically rotate the axes of the seismometer and construct seismic records
 99 with vertical and horizontal components (see supplementary information).

100 We then converted the seismic data from Earth time (UTC; Coordinated
 101 Universal Time) to the Mars time domain (LMST: Local Mean Solar Time) by using the
 102 procedures of Allison (1997) and Allison and McEwen (2000). The power spectra of the
 103 horizontal and vertical components from Sols 194 to 197 (**Fig. 1**) are an example of the
 104 typical daily cycle, in which signal amplitudes are greater during the day than during the
 105 night. These results demonstrate that the amplitude of ambient noise is strongly correlated
 106 with the wind strength.

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108 **2.2. Polarization Analysis**

109 In this analysis, we divided continuous seismic data into 1-min segments. We
 110 excluded time segments whose root-mean-squared (RMS) amplitudes exceeded 10 times
 111 the median RMS amplitude, treating daytime hours (from 6:00 to 18:00 LMST) and
 112 nighttime hours (from 18:00 to 6:00 LMST) separately because the surface wind velocity
 113 was anticipated to be very high (15–20 m/s) during the daytime at the InSight landing site
 114 (Spiga et al., 2018). We conducted a polarization analysis of the ambient noise seismic
 115 field recorded by the InSight station using the method developed by Takagi et al. (2018).
 116 This analysis uses a simple relationship between the vertical-horizontal cross spectra and
 117 the azimuthal energy distributions of incident waves in ambient noise. The real part of the
 118 cross spectra is related to P-waves and the imaginary part is related to Rayleigh waves.
 119 We computed vertical-horizontal cross spectra using the equations

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$$\Phi_{ZN} = \frac{u_Z^* u_N}{u_Z^* u_Z}, \quad (1)$$

$$\Phi_{ZE} = \frac{u_Z^* u_E}{u_Z^* u_Z}, \quad (2)$$

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122 where Φ is the vertical-horizontal cross spectrum, u is the seismic record in the
 123 frequency domain of each component, and the asterisk indicates the conjugate. The cross
 124 spectra are normalized by the power spectra of the vertical component so as to equally
 125 weight each data segment. In this study, the cross spectra were calculated at each
 126 frequency and the results were averaged within each of six single-octave frequency bands:
 127 0.125–0.25, 0.25–0.5, 0.5–1, 1–2, 2–4 and 4–8 Hz.

128 Following Takagi et al. (2018), the dominant direction and directional intensity
 129 of a Rayleigh wave are given by

130

$$\varphi_{R1} = \arctan\left(\frac{\text{Im}\langle\Phi_{ZN}\rangle}{\text{Im}\langle\Phi_{ZE}\rangle}\right) + \pi, \quad (3)$$

$$A_{R1} = \sqrt{(\text{Im}\langle\Phi_{ZN}\rangle)^2 + (\text{Im}\langle\Phi_{ZE}\rangle)^2}, \quad (4)$$

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132 and for a P-wave by

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$$\varphi_{P1} = \arctan\left(\frac{\text{Re}\langle\Phi_{ZN}\rangle}{\text{Re}\langle\Phi_{ZE}\rangle}\right) + \pi, \quad (5)$$

$$A_{P1} = \sqrt{(\text{Re}\langle\Phi_{ZN}\rangle)^2 + (\text{Re}\langle\Phi_{ZE}\rangle)^2}, \quad (6)$$

134

135 where $\langle \rangle$ denotes the ensemble average, φ_{R1} and φ_{P1} represent the phase angles of
 136 first-order terms of the azimuth spectra added to π , which provide the dominant back-
 137 azimuths of Rayleigh waves and P-waves, respectively. A_{R1} and A_{P1} indicate the
 138 amplitudes of the first-order terms representing the intensity of the directionality of the
 139 Rayleigh wave and P-wave, respectively.

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141 **2.3. Autocorrelation Analysis**

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155 **3. Results**

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Fig. 2a and **2b** show the temporal variations of dominant back-azimuths and
 directional intensity of P-waves and Rayleigh waves from Sols 75 to 210 in the six

158 frequency bands. The cross spectra are averaged for each LMST hour. The dominant
159 back-azimuths were different for each frequency band. The directional intensity of
160 Rayleigh waves was less than that of P-waves in all frequency bands.

161 To illustrate the daily temporal variation, we present results from Sols 194 to 197
162 (**Fig. 3a and 3b**). In most frequency ranges, the dominant back-azimuths and directional
163 intensity of P-waves (**Fig. 3a**) did not vary much. The dominant back-azimuths of 0.125–
164 1 Hz P-waves were to the west; however, at 4–8 Hz, the back-azimuths shifted from east
165 to west during the course of the day, roughly consistent with the wind direction. At night,
166 the back-azimuth of P-waves was unstable as wind strengths were weak. More precisely,
167 the back-azimuth of high-frequency P-waves differed slightly from the wind direction at
168 night, pointing east several hours before sunrise and pointing west after sunset.

169 For Rayleigh waves, the back-azimuths and directional intensity both varied over
170 the course of the day, but the variation differed for the different frequency bands (**Fig.**
171 **3b**). For waves lower than 2 Hz, the back-azimuths were dominantly northeast or east at
172 night and northwest or west during the day. At 0.125–0.25 Hz, the back-azimuths and
173 directional intensity of Rayleigh waves did not show a clear diurnal pattern. At 2–4 Hz,
174 the dominant back-azimuth was almost constant, pointing between south and west. At 4–
175 8 Hz, the back-azimuth pointed south during the day and west at night, similar to the wind
176 direction. In addition to intensity of Rayleigh waves included in ambient noise, a layered
177 medium beneath the seismometer is also responsible for the frequency dependence of the
178 estimated intensity of Rayleigh waves (**Fig. 3b**), as we discuss in the following section.

179 **Fig. 4** shows the temporal variation of the autocorrelation function during the
180 observation period. The autocorrelation function of the vertical component (**Fig. 4a**)
181 indicates the presence of reflectors at 0.6 s and 1.1 s. Because the reflectors at 0.6 and 1.1
182 s persisted throughout the observation period, they appear to be reliable and may represent
183 a lithological boundary that imposes a contrast in acoustic impedance. The
184 autocorrelation functions of the two horizontal components (**Fig. 4b and 4c**) display
185 multiple reflectors from 0.5 to 2.4 s. They show evidence of anisotropy, in that the
186 reflector at ~1.1 s is more prominent in the EW component (**Fig. 4c**) than in the NS
187 component (**Fig. 4b**).

188

189 **4. Discussion**

190 The temporal variation of the dominant back-azimuth of 4–8 Hz P-waves could
191 be related to the direction of sunlight (or related thermal effects) in addition to the wind
192 direction. During the several hours before sunrise, the area east of the landsite is in
193 daylight and the wind speed is high, thus the dominant P-wave back-azimuth could point

194 east before sunrise (**Fig. 3a**). This interpretation would also explain the westward P-wave
195 back-azimuth after sunset. These results demonstrate that high-frequency P-waves
196 observed near the InSight site may be derived from wind and insolation effects in distant
197 areas. Indeed, P-waves on Earth are strongly influenced by distant events (Takagi et al.,
198 2018). Seismic sources induced by temperature variation are capable of generating high-
199 frequency ambient noise. In contrast, the dominant back-azimuths of P-waves at lower
200 frequencies (<4 Hz) were constant and pointed between south and west.

201 The variation of the directionality of 4–8 Hz Rayleigh waves was strongly related
202 to the wind direction, except during periods of weak wind (**Fig. 3b**). Therefore, high-
203 frequency Rayleigh waves may be derived from winds close to the seismometer. Rayleigh
204 waves of higher frequency (4–8 Hz) would be sensitive to the depth range of 6.25–12.5
205 m, if we assume a Rayleigh wave velocity of 150 m/s (Knapmeyer-Endrun et al., 2017).
206 Therefore, Rayleigh waves that are sensitive to subsurface formations shallower than
207 ~ 12.5 m should be much influenced by short-term variations of the wind. Although the
208 dominant back-azimuths of Rayleigh wave at 2–4 Hz ranged from south to west, diurnal
209 variations also appeared in Rayleigh waves <2 Hz, in which the back-azimuths pointed
210 northwest during the day and northeast at night.

211 These frequency-dependent variations of ambient noise characteristics could be
212 mainly related to ambient noise sources. Ambient noise on Earth is caused by wind
213 (Lepore et al., 2016) as well as ocean tides, volcanic activity, and anthropogenic sources
214 (e.g., Takagi et al., 2018; Nimiya et al., 2017). Before the InSight project, a main source
215 of ambient noise on Mars was expected to be the direct interaction between the
216 atmosphere and the solid surface of the planet (Knapmeyer-Endrun et al., 2017). On the
217 Moon, high-frequency Rayleigh waves are induced by ambient noise resulting from
218 thermal events (Larose et al., 2005; Tanimoto et al., 2008). On Mars, there are numerous
219 small craters near the InSight landing site (Warner et al., 2016) that could be locations of
220 thermally triggered soil slumping (Knapmeyer-Endrun et al., 2017) that could generate
221 high-frequency surface waves. Thus wind, thermal effects, surface pressure, or other
222 sources may induce the ambient noise around the InSight landing area.

223 The frequency dependence of the intensity of Rayleigh waves (**Fig. 3b**) may also
224 be related to the lithology of the site, because a layered medium acts as a frequency-
225 dependent filter (e.g., Scherbaum et al., 2003). Several reflectors beneath the InSight
226 landing site are evident from the autocorrelation results (**Fig. 4**). The P-wave reflectors at
227 0.6 and 1.1 s in the vertical component (**Fig. 4a**) are stable, suggesting the existence of a
228 significant lithological boundary. Furthermore, an S-wave reflector appeared at 1.1 s in
229 the horizontal component results (**Fig. 4b and 4c**). If the 1.1 s S-wave reflector is the

230 same as the 0.6 s P-wave reflector, we can estimate the ratio of ~ 1.83 between the P-wave
 231 and S-wave velocities. Because we cannot estimate the seismic velocity of the subsurface
 232 formation, we cannot accurately estimate the depth of the reflectors from the
 233 autocorrelation functions. However, we can estimate the frequency of Rayleigh waves
 234 that are sensitive to the depth of a reflector from the autocorrelation function. Under the
 235 assumption that the autocorrelation function of the horizontal component represents S-
 236 wave reflectivity, the depth of a reflector at two-way travel time t can be estimated as $Z =$
 237 $t V_s/2$, where V_s is S-wave velocity. The sensitive depth of Rayleigh waves is $Z = 1/3 \lambda$
 238 (or $Z = V_s/3f$) (e.g., Foti et al., 2014; Hayashi, 2008), where λ is wavelength and f is
 239 frequency. Therefore, the sensitive frequency of a Rayleigh wave for a reflector at two-
 240 way travel time t can be estimated as $f = 2/(3t)$. From this relationship, the frequency of a
 241 Rayleigh wave that is sensitive to a 1.1 s reflector shown in **Fig. 4b and 4c** can be
 242 estimated as ~ 0.3 Hz. Indeed, below 0.25 Hz, the azimuth and intensity of Rayleigh waves
 243 are scattered in comparison to those at higher frequencies (**Fig. 3b**). Therefore, it might
 244 be possible that the influence of a lithological boundary can be detected in the temporal
 245 variation (or stability) of the back-azimuth and intensity of Rayleigh waves.

246

247 **5. Conclusions**

248 We have conducted a polarization analysis of InSight seismic data to estimate
 249 temporal variations of the ambient noise field on Mars. Our findings are these:

250

- 251 • High-frequency (4–8 Hz) P-waves show a diurnal variation, and the dominant back-
 252 azimuth is related to the wind and the direction of sunlight in distant regions.
- 253 • High-frequency (4–8 Hz) Rayleigh waves show a diurnal variation, and the dominant
 254 back-azimuth points toward the wind direction in nearby regions.
- 255 • Rayleigh waves of frequencies lower than 2 Hz show periodic variations in back-
 256 azimuth and directional intensity, whereas P-waves of frequencies lower than 4 Hz
 257 have constant back-azimuths.

258

259 These results suggest that the dominant sources of ambient noise on Mars differ
 260 with frequency and wave type, and there may be several different ambient noise sources
 261 despite the absence of oceans on Mars. Furthermore, the lithological boundary identified
 262 from the autocorrelation analysis may impose a site effect upon the ambient noise
 263 characteristics. The high repeatability of P-waves and Rayleigh waves derived from
 264 ambient noise suggests the feasibility of utilizing ambient noise for subsurface imaging
 265 and monitoring on Mars.

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267

268 **Acknowledgement**

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270 DLR, JPL, IPGP-CNRS, ETHZ, IC, MPS-MPG) and the flight operations team at JPL,
271 SISMOC, MSDS, IRIS-DMC and PDS for providing SEED SEIS data. The
272 seismometer data was downloaded from the following URLs;

273 <http://service.iris.edu/fdsnws/dataselect/docs/1/builder/>, and [https://www.seis-
274 insight.eu/en/science/seis-data/seis-data-availability](https://www.seis-
274 insight.eu/en/science/seis-data/seis-data-availability). The wind and temperature data was
275 downloaded from the following URL;
276 [https://atmos.nmsu.edu/data_and_services/atmospheres_data/INSIGHT/insight.html#Se
277 lecting_Data](https://atmos.nmsu.edu/data_and_services/atmospheres_data/INSIGHT/insight.html#Se
277 lecting_Data).

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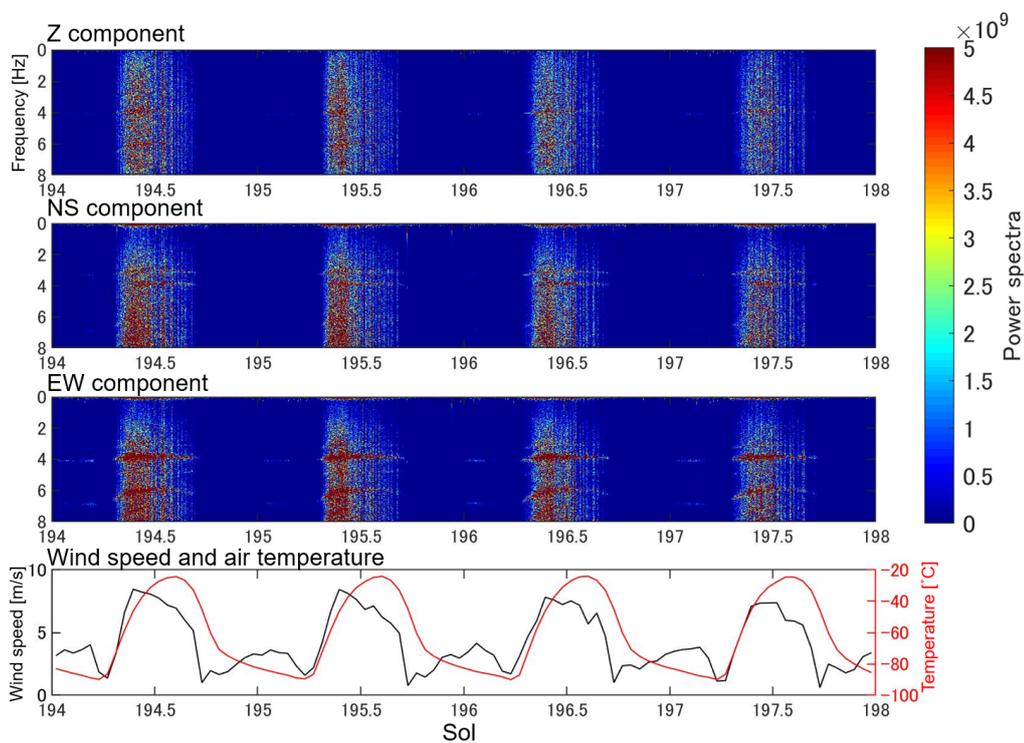
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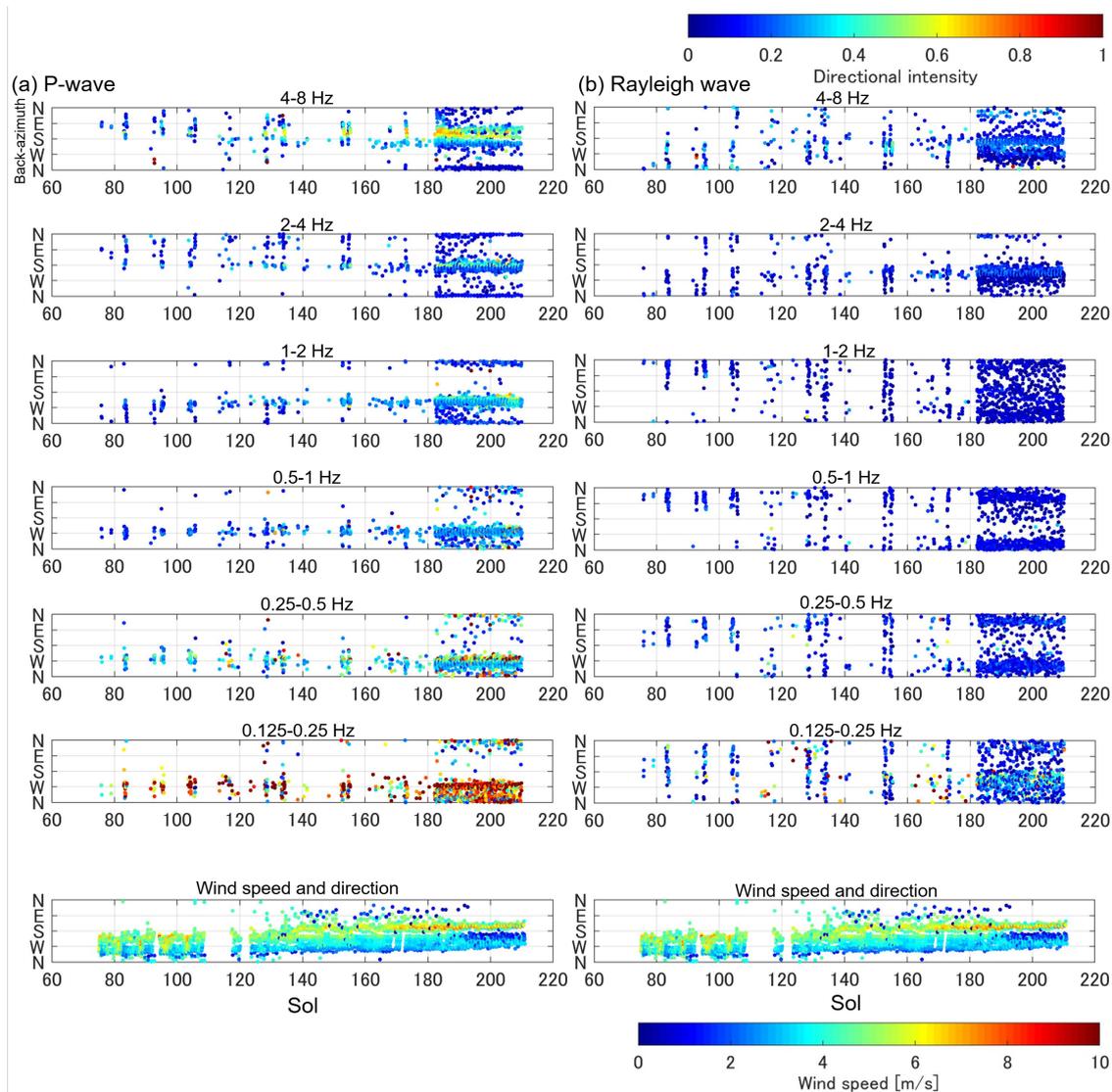


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362 Fig. 1. Temporal variation of power spectra in the vertical and two horizontal components
 363 from Sols 194 to 197. The bottom figure shows the temporal variation of wind speed and
 364 air temperature.

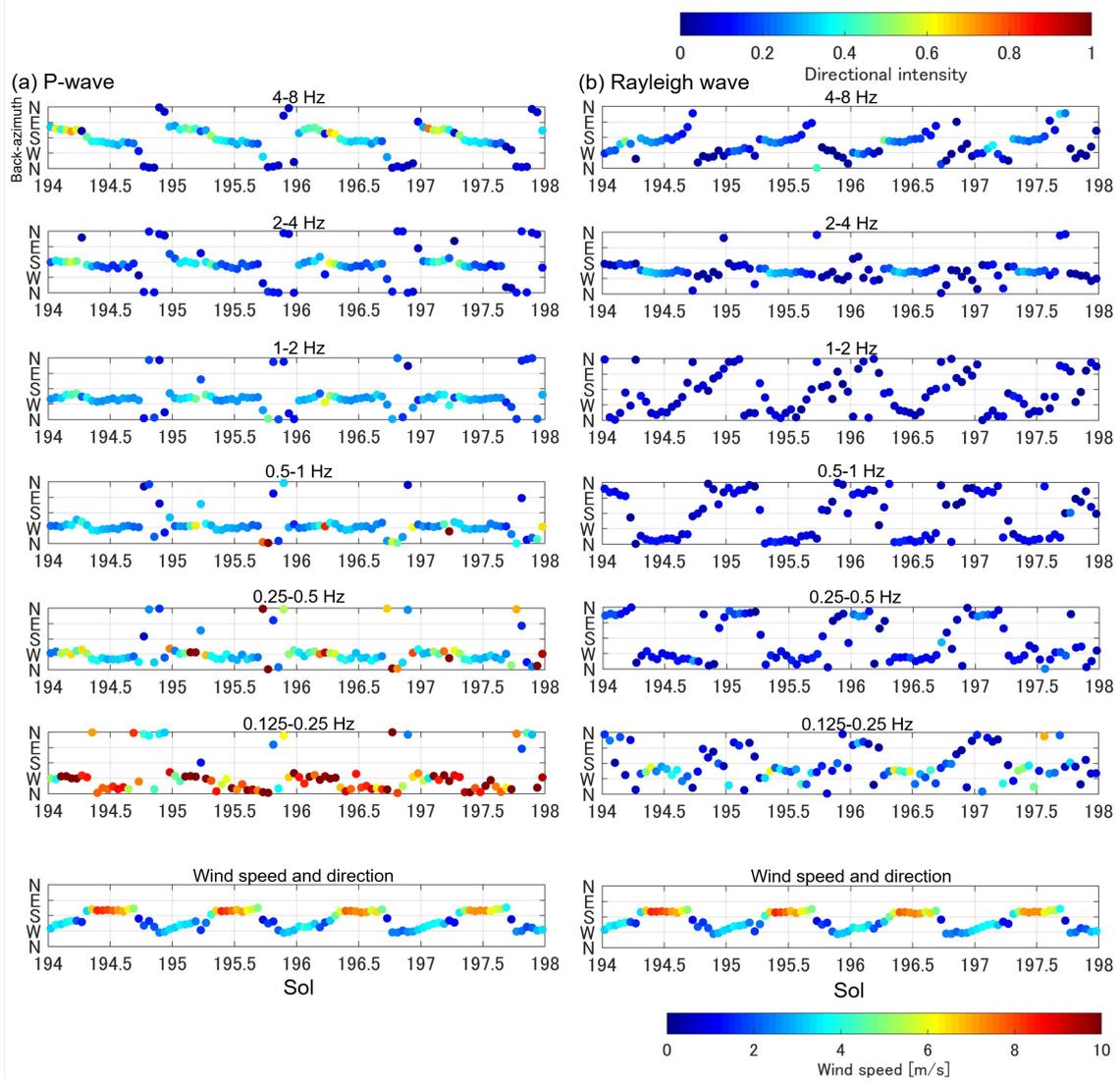
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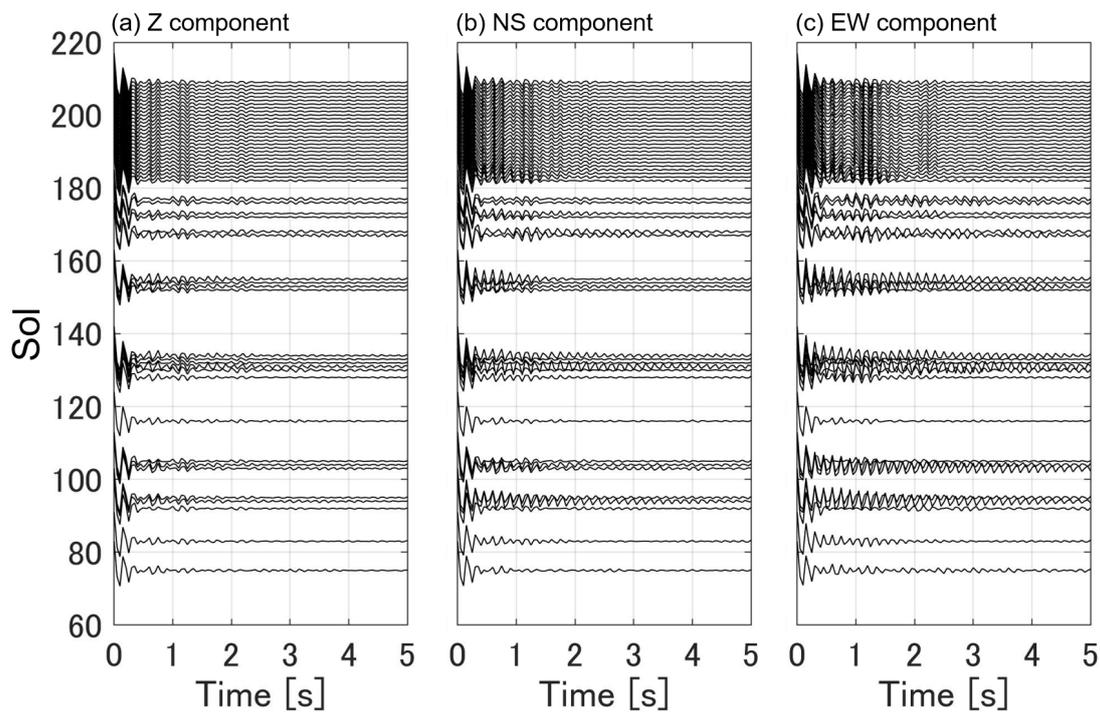
368 Fig. 2. Temporal variation of dominant back-azimuths and directional intensity of (a) P-
 369 waves and (b) Rayleigh waves in six single-octave frequency bands between Sols 75 and
 370 210. The bottom figure shows the wind speed and direction during the same period.



371

372 Fig. 3. Temporal variations from Sols 194 to 197 in the dominant back-azimuths and
 373 directional intensity of (a) P-wave and (b) Rayleigh wave. The bottom figure shows the
 374 wind speed and direction during the same period.

375



376

377 Fig. 4. Temporal variation of autocorrelation functions of components from Sols 75 to
 378 210: (a) Vertical component; (b) NS component; (c) EW component. The vertical
 379 component could be similar to P-wave reflectivity whereas the NS and EW components
 380 could be S-wave reflectivity.

381