# Temporal variation and frequency dependence of ambient noise on Mars from polarization analysis

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#### Abstract

We applied a polarization analysis of InSight seismic data to estimate the temporal variation and frequency dependence of the Martian ambient noise field. Low-frequency (<1 Hz) P-waves show a diurnal variation in their dominant back-azimuths that are apparently related to wind and the direction of sunlight in a distant area. Low-frequency Rayleigh waves (0.25–1 Hz) show diurnal variations and a dominant back-azimuth related to the wind direction in a nearby area. Low-frequency signals that are derived mainly from wind may be sensitive to subsurface structure deeper than the lithological boundary derived from an autocorrelation analysis. On the other hand, dominant back-azimuths of high-frequency (>1 Hz) waves point toward the InSight lander, especially in daytime, indicating that wind-induced lander noise is dominant at high frequencies. These results point to the presence of several ambient noise sources as well as geologic structure at the landing site.

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19	Key points:		
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21	• A polarization analysis of InSight seismic data enables estimates of temporal		
22	variation and frequency dependence of ambient noise on Mars.		
23	• Back-azimuths of low-frequency (<1 Hz) P-waves and Rayleigh waves show diurnal		
24	variations due to distant and nearby winds, respectively.		
25	• The back-azimuth at high frequency points in the direction of the lander, indicating		
26	that wind-induced lander noise is dominant.		
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### 29 Abstract

30 We applied a polarization analysis of InSight seismic data to estimate the temporal 31 variation and frequency dependence of the Martian ambient noise field. Low-frequency 32 (<1 Hz) P-waves show a diurnal variation in their dominant back-azimuths that are 33 apparently related to wind and the direction of sunlight in a distant area. Low-frequency 34 Rayleigh waves (0.25–1 Hz) show diurnal variations and a dominant back-azimuth 35 related to the wind direction in a nearby area. Low-frequency signals that are derived 36 mainly from wind may be sensitive to subsurface structure deeper than the lithological 37 boundary derived from an autocorrelation analysis. On the other hand, dominant back-38 azimuths of high-frequency (>1 Hz) waves point toward the InSight lander, especially in 39 daytime, indicating that wind-induced lander noise is dominant at high frequencies. These 40 results point to the presence of several ambient noise sources as well as geologic structure 41 at the landing site.

42

## 43 Plain Language Summary

44 Seismic ambient noise (microtremors) is continuously generated not only on Earth but 45 also on Mars. We used data from the seismometer on the InSight lander to make estimates 46 of microtremor characteristics and identified possible underground structures that influence the propagation of microtremors. Low-frequency P-waves derived from 47 48 microtremors show daily variations that appear to be induced by wind and changes of 49 sunlight during the Martian day in distant areas, whereas low-frequency Rayleigh waves 50 show daily variations that may be generated by wind in nearby areas. High-frequency 51 signals appear to originate from vibrations of the lander associated with wind. 52 Microtremors in other frequency ranges have different characteristics. These results 53 suggest that depending on their frequency, microtremors can be induced by wind and 54 other sources, and may then be influenced by geological structures. This study 55 demonstrates that ambient noise data will be helpful for imaging and monitoring Mars' 56 interior structure and natural resources, such as ice deposits, without the need for data 57 from marsquakes and artificial seismic sources.

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59 Keywords: InSight, ambient noise, polarization analysis, autocorrelation function, wind

## 61 **1. Introduction**

62 When NASA's Interior Exploration using Seismic Investigations, Geodesy and Heat Transport (InSight) lander touched down in Elysium Planitia on 26 November 2018, 63 64 it went on to deploy a geophysical observatory on Mars. One of its primary scientific 65 investigations is the Seismic Experiment for Interior Structure (SEIS; InSight Mars SEIS 66 Data Service, 2019; Lognonné et al., 2019). The lander also includes a set of 67 environmental sensors, including temperature and wind sensors (Banfield et al., 2019; 68 Spiga et al., 2018). The InSight seismometer has detected several hundred marsquakes, 69 most of them much smaller than earthquakes typically felt on Earth, but some were nearly 70 as large as magnitude 4 (Witze, 2019). The instrument is especially useful to identify 71 small earthquakes at night, when the strong ambient noise generated during the day by 72 wind is subdued (Witze, 2019). Martian ambient noise detected by the seismometer on 73 the Viking 2 lander has been correlated with wind speed (Anderson et al. 1977; Nakamura 74 and Anderson, 1979). However, that seismometer did not obtain seismic signals directly 75 because it was deployed on the lander and not on the surface (Knapmeyer-Endrun et al., 76 2017).

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

83 In this paper, we characterize the ambient noise on Mars relying on the recent 84 data from the InSight seismometer. We applied a polarization analysis to the InSight 85 seismic records (InSight Mars SEIS Data Service, 2019) to extract the dominant back-86 azimuth and directional intensity of ambient noise (Takagi et al., 2018). Furthermore, by 87 comparing the characteristics of Rayleigh waves with autocorrelation functions (i.e., 88 reflectivity), we achieved insight into the relationship between lithology and the sensitive 89 frequency of Rayleigh waves included in ambient noise. By demonstrating the feasibility 90 of ambient noise methods on Mars, this study shows that future seismic network projects

91 on Mars will contribute to not only modeling and monitoring of Mars' interior structure,

92 but also exploration for Martian resources (e.g., ice deposits).

93

# 94 **2. Data and Method**

# 95 2.1. Data Preparation

96 The SEIS instrument includes a long-period, very broad band seismometer 97 (SEIS-VBB) with a sampling rate of 20 Hz and a natural frequency of 0.5 Hz (Lognonné 98 et al., 2019; InSight Mars SEIS Data Service, 2019). This seismometer was placed in 99 Elysium Planitia in particular to satisfy the constraints on landing safety and the 100 instrument deployment requirements (Golombek et al., 2017). In this study, we used 101 continuous seismic records from SEIS-VBB between February and June 2019. We 102 corrected the data for the instrumental response using ObsPy (Beyreuther et al., 2010). 103 The SEIS-VBB is a triaxial seismometer in which the three mutually perpendicular 104 pendulums are mounted obliquely. Therefore, our first step was to numerically rotate the 105 axes of the seismometer and construct seismic records with vertical and horizontal 106 components (see Text S1 in the supporting information).

107 We then converted the seismic data from Earth time (UTC; Coordinated 108 Universal Time) to the Mars time domain (LMST: Local Mean Solar Time) by using the 109 procedures of Allison (1997) and Allison and McEwen (2000). The power spectral density 110 on Mars calculated from ambient noise shows that the noise on Mars is lower at most 111 frequencies than that of the Earth noise model (see Fig. S1 in the supporting information). 112 The power spectral densities of the horizontal and vertical components from Sols 194 to 113 197 (Fig. 1) are an example of the typical daily cycle, in which signal amplitudes are 114 greater during the day than during the night. On Mars, high variability of wind in daytime 115 is caused by convective mixing in the planetary boundary layer that results from near-116 surface gradients of atmospheric temperature (e.g., Smith et al., 2006; Spiga et al., 2018). 117 At frequencies higher than ~1 Hz, we observed large noise amplitudes in narrow 118 frequency ranges. These local noise peaks correspond to the elastic resonances of the 119 lander excited by the wind (Murdoch et al., 2017; Lognonné et al., 2020). These results 120 demonstrate that the amplitude of ambient noise is strongly associated with the wind 121 strength.

122

We divided continuous seismic data into 1-min segments because short time

windows are suitable to remove glitches and other high-amplitude signals (Takagi et al., 2018). We excluded time segments whose root-mean-squared (RMS) amplitudes exceeded 10 times the median RMS amplitude, treating daytime hours (from 6:00 to 18:00 LMST) and nighttime hours (from 18:00 to 6:00 LMST) separately because the surface wind velocity was high during the daytime at the InSight landing site (Fig. 1) as anticipated by Spiga et al. (2018).

129

# 130 2.2. Polarization Analysis

We conducted a polarization analysis of the ambient seismic wave field recorded by the InSight station using the method developed by Takagi et al. (2018). This analysis uses a simple relationship between the vertical-horizontal cross spectra and the azimuthal energy distributions of incident waves in ambient noise. The real part of the cross spectra is related to linearly polarized waves and the imaginary part is related to elliptically polarized waves. We computed vertical-horizontal cross spectra from 1-min segments data using the equations

138

$$\Phi_{ZN} = \frac{u_Z^* u_N}{u_Z^* u_Z},\tag{1}$$

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

139

140 where  $\Phi$  is the vertical-horizontal cross spectrum, u is the seismic record in the 141 frequency domain of each component, and the subscripts Z, N and E indicate vertical, 142 north-south and east-west component, respectively. The asterisk indicates the complex 143 conjugate. The cross spectra are normalized by the power spectra of the vertical 144 component so as to equally weight each data segment. In this study, the cross spectra were 145 calculated at each frequency and the results were averaged within each of six single-146 octave frequency bands: 0.125–0.25, 0.25–0.5, 0.5–1, 1–2, 2–4 and 4–8 Hz.

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

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

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

### 151 and for a P-wave (linearly polarized wave) by

152

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

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

153

where  $\langle \rangle$  denotes the ensemble average and  $\varphi_{R1}$  and  $\varphi_{P1}$  represent the phase angles of first-order terms of the azimuthal power spectra added to  $\pi$ , which provide the dominant back-azimuths of Rayleigh waves and P-waves, respectively.  $A_{R1}$  and  $A_{P1}$  indicate the amplitudes of the first-order terms representing the intensity of the directionality of the Rayleigh wave and P-wave, respectively.

159 In the determination of Rayleigh wave azimuth, there is a 180-degree ambiguity 160 depending on the direction of motions (prograde or retrograde). To evaluate the motion 161 of Rayleigh waves on Mars, we computed analytical solutions of Rayleigh waves for the 162 layered model of Knapmeyer-Endrun et al. (2017) of the InSight landing site (see Text S2 163 and Fig. S2 in the supporting information). The results indicate that the fundamental mode 164 of Rayleigh waves with retrograde motions is mostly dominant in our analyzed frequency 165 range, whereas the first higher mode with prograde motions is dominant at some 166 frequencies higher than 4 Hz. We therefore defined the azimuth of Rayleigh waves 167 assuming retrograde motions, although the first higher mode with prograde motions might 168 influence our results at frequencies higher than 4 Hz. Note that the azimuth of prograde 169 or retrograde Rayleigh waves depends on the sign of the exponent in the Fourier transform. 170 We used equation (3) to estimate the back-azimuth of retrograde Rayleigh waves because 171 our analysis used the Fourier transform with a negative exponent. Shear waves with 172 displacement in the vertical-horizontal plane (SV-waves) also contribute to vertical-173 horizontal cross-spectra (Takagi et al., 2018). Vertically incident SV-waves contribute to 174 the real part of the vertical-horizontal cross spectra, whereas horizontally incident SV-175 waves with post-critical incident angles contribute to the imaginary part. For simplicity,

176 we assumed that the contribution of P-waves is dominant in the real part of the cross 177 spectra and the contribution of Rayleigh waves is dominant in the imaginary part. Under 178 the assumption that Rayleigh and Love waves are random uncorrelated waves, Love 179 waves make no contribution to vertical and horizontal cross spectra (Takagi et al., 2018).

180

# 181 2.3. Autocorrelation Analysis

182 To estimate the geological structure beneath the InSight landing site, we applied 183 autocorrelation analysis to the vertical and horizontal motions of the seismometer record. 184 Autocorrelation of ambient noise records yields the zero-offset shot gather (e.g., Minato 185 et al., 2012; Wapenaar & Fokkema, 2006). The method assumes that the noise source is 186 randomly distributed and mutually uncorrelated for different source positions (e.g., Roux 187 et al., 2005; Wapenaar and Fokkema, 2006; Weaver & Lobkis, 2004). In this analysis, we 188 applied a bandpass filter of 5-7 Hz to each component record of 1-min segments, because 189 we found clear reflectors of autocorrelation function in that frequency band. Furthermore, 190 we sought to find and integrate information independent of the polarization analysis for 191 the investigation of the lander site. We applied one-bit normalization (e.g., Bensen et al., 192 2007) to ensure the exclusion of energetic signals. We calculated autocorrelation 193 functions of the vertical component and the horizontal components in each sol to extract 194 P- and S-wave reflections, respectively. Even if the lander near the seismometer generates 195 vibration and becomes a noise source, the autocorrelation analysis with one-bit 196 normalization reduces the influence of the source but enhances the contribution of 197 reflected waves from the source. Thus, we expect that autocorrelation analysis is suitable 198 for subsurface imaging.

199

## 200 **3. Results**

Figures 2a and 2b show the temporal variations of dominant back-azimuths and directional intensity of P-waves and Rayleigh waves from Sols 75 to 211 in the six frequency bands. The cross spectra are averaged for each hour in the Mars time domain (LMST). The dominant back-azimuths were different for each frequency band. The directional intensity of Rayleigh waves was less than that of P-waves in all frequency bands. 207 To illustrate the daily temporal variation, we present results from Sols 194 to 197 208 (Fig. 3). For low-frequency P-waves (<1 Hz), the back-azimuths shifted between east and 209 north during the course of the day (Fig. 3a). The back-azimuths at the lowest frequencies 210 pointed southeast in daytime, roughly consistent with the wind direction. At night, the 211 back-azimuths of 0.25–1 Hz P-waves usually pointed east, except just after sunset; more 212 precisely, they differed notably from the wind direction at night, pointing east several 213 hours before sunrise and pointing west to north after sunset. For 0.25-1 Hz Rayleigh 214 waves (Fig. 3b), the back-azimuth pointed southwest before sunrise, south or southeast 215 during the day, and southwest at night, similar to the wind direction.

At high frequencies (>1 Hz), the dominant back-azimuths of P-waves (**Fig. 3a**) pointed northeast in daytime, as did the back-azimuths of high frequency Rayleigh waves (>2 Hz). As we discuss later, the Insight lander is located northeast of the seismometer.

219 Figure 4 shows the temporal variation of the autocorrelation function during the 220 observation period. The autocorrelation function of the vertical component (Fig. 4a) 221 indicates the presence of reflectors at 0.6 s and 1.1 s. Because these reflectors persisted 222 throughout the observation period, they appear to be reliable and may represent a 223 lithological boundary that imposes a contrast in acoustic impedance. The autocorrelation 224 functions of the two horizontal components (Figs. 4b and 4c) display dominant reflectors 225 at 1.1 s. They show evidence of polarization anisotropy of S-waves, in that the reflector 226 at ~1.1 s is more prominent in the EW component (Fig. 4c) than in the NS component 227 (**Fig. 4b**).

228

## 229 **4. Discussion**

230 The temporal variation of the dominant back-azimuth of <1 Hz P-waves could 231 be related to the direction of sunlight (or related thermal effects) in addition to the wind 232 direction when noise derived from the lander is absent. During the several hours before 233 sunrise, the area east of the lander site is in daylight and the wind speed is high, thus the 234 dominant P-wave back-azimuth could point east before sunrise (Fig. 3a). This 235 interpretation would also explain the westward P-wave back-azimuth after sunset, 236 although the back-azimuths are scattered from west to north. These results demonstrate 237 that low-frequency P-waves observed at the InSight site may be derived from wind and

insolation effects (e.g., thermal cracking) in distant areas. Indeed, P-waves on Earth are
strongly influenced by distant events (Takagi et al., 2018). Seismic sources induced by
temperature variation are capable of generating low-frequency ambient noise.

- 241 Because the variation of the directionality of 0.25-1 Hz Rayleigh waves was 242 closely related to the wind direction (Fig. 3b), low-frequency Rayleigh waves were likely derived from winds relatively close to the seismometer. The back-azimuth of Rayleigh 243 244 waves could be influenced by the radiation pattern of Rayleigh waves. Assuming that 245 horizontal single forces exerted in the wind directions on rough surface topography 246 excited seismic waves including Rayleigh waves, a symmetric radiation pattern (i.e., with 247 180-degree ambiguity) could be expected in the back-azimuths (Fig. 3b). Although 248 stacking the cross spectra for each hour improves the stability of estimated dominant 249 back-azimuths (Fig. 3b), using shorter time windows could make it possible to extract 250 secondary dominant back azimuths. To investigate this possibility, we computed the back-251 azimuth from every 1-min segment (Fig. S3 in supporting information). The results of 252 this exercise show that directionalities of 0.125–1 Hz Rayleigh waves have two trends 253 180 degrees apart during certain periods; thus, the radiation pattern of Rayleigh waves 254 could influence the observed back-azimuth. Rayleigh waves in the 0.25-1 Hz range 255 would be sensitive to the depth range of 0.8-3.2 km, if we assume a Rayleigh wave velocity of 2400 m/s (Knapmeyer-Endrun et al., 2017). Therefore, the wind may be 256 257 responsible for 0.25-1 Hz Rayleigh waves that are sensitive to the crustal structure 258 beneath the shallow regolith layer.
- 259 At high frequencies, the back-azimuths of P-waves >1 Hz and Rayleigh waves 260 >2 Hz are northeast in daytime. The direction is consistent with the location of the InSight 261 lander (Fig. 3), which generates mechanical noise as wind acts on the lander (Murdoch et 262 al., 2017; Lognonné et al., 2020). If wind-induced lander noise is dominant at high 263 frequencies, it would be difficult to observe high-frequency Rayleigh waves with the 264 seismometer because the distance between the lander and the seismometer is too short 265 (several meters) for surface waves to emerge. Therefore, instead of referring to "P- and 266 Rayleigh waves" in high-frequency (>1 Hz) results, it is preferable to refer to "linearly 267 and elliptically polarized components of observed waves" as we have in Figs. 2 and 3.
- 268 These frequency-dependent variations of ambient noise characteristics could be

269 mainly related to ambient noise sources and lithology beneath the seismometer. Ambient 270 noise on Earth is caused by wind (Lepore et al., 2016) as well as ocean gravity waves, 271 volcanic activity, and anthropogenic sources (e.g., Longuet-Higgins, 1950; Takagi et al., 272 2018; Nimiya et al., 2017; Nakata et al., 2019). Before the InSight project, a main source 273 of ambient noise on Mars was expected to be the direct interaction between the atmosphere and the solid surface of the planet (Knapmeyer-Endrun et al., 2017). On the 274 275 Moon, high-frequency Rayleigh waves are induced by ambient noise resulting from 276 thermal events (Larose et al., 2005; Tanimoto et al., 2008). On Mars, there are numerous 277 small craters near the InSight landing site (Warner et al., 2016) that could be locations of 278 thermally triggered soil slumping (Knapmeyer-Endrun et al., 2017) that could generate 279 high-frequency surface waves. Thus wind-induced noises, thermal effects, surface 280 pressure, or other sources may induce the ambient noise around the InSight landing area.

281 To further consider the relationship between the frequency dependence of 282 Rayleigh waves (Fig. 3b) and the lithology of the site, we investigated the autocorrelation 283 results (Fig. 4), in which several reflectors beneath the InSight landing site are evident. 284 The P-wave reflectors at 0.6 and 1.1 s in the vertical component (Fig. 4a) are stable, 285 suggesting the existence of a significant lithological boundary. Furthermore, an S-wave 286 reflector appeared at 1.1 s in the horizontal component results (Fig. 4b and 4c). If the 1.1 287 s S-wave reflector is the same as the 0.6 s P-wave reflector, we can estimate the ratio of 288 ~1.83 between the P-wave and S-wave velocities. Because we cannot estimate the seismic 289 velocity of the subsurface formation, we cannot accurately estimate the depth of the 290 reflectors from the autocorrelation functions. However, we can estimate the frequency of 291 Rayleigh waves that are sensitive to the depth of a reflector from the autocorrelation 292 function. Under the assumption that the autocorrelation function of the horizontal 293 component represents S-wave reflectivity, the depth of a reflector at two-way travel time 294 t can be estimated as  $Z = t V_S/2$ , where  $V_S$  is S-wave velocity. The sensitive depth of 295 Rayleigh waves is  $Z = 1/3 \lambda$  (or  $Z = V_S/3f$ ) (e.g., Foti et al., 2014; Hayashi, 2008), where 296  $\lambda$  is wavelength and f is frequency. Therefore, the sensitive frequency of a Rayleigh 297 wave for a reflector at two-way travel time t can be estimated as f = 2/(3t). From this 298 relationship, the frequency of a Rayleigh wave that is sensitive to a 1.1 s reflector shown 299 in Figs. 4b and 4c can be estimated as ~0.6 Hz. Below 0.6 Hz, the azimuths of Rayleigh

300	waves are associated with wind direction. Therefore, Rayleigh waves that are sensitive to
301	depths beneath the lithological boundary identified by reflectivity could be extracted from
302	wind-induced ambient noise. However, it would be difficult to extract Rayleigh waves
303	propagating above the lithological boundary close to the landing site, because they are
304	contaminated by lander-induced noise.
305	
306	5. Conclusions
307	We have conducted a polarization analysis of InSight seismic data to estimate
308	temporal variations of the ambient noise field on Mars. Our findings are these:
309	
310	• Low-frequency (<1 Hz) P-waves show a diurnal variation, and the dominant back-
311	azimuth is related to the wind and the direction of sunlight in distant regions.
312	• Low-frequency (0.25-1 Hz) Rayleigh waves show a diurnal variation, and the
313	dominant back-azimuth points toward the wind direction in nearby regions.
314	• The dominant back-azimuth at high-frequency (>1 Hz for linearly polarized
315	components and >2 Hz for elliptically polarized components) points in the direction
316	of the lander, indicating that the wind-induced lander noise is dominant.
317	
318	These results suggest that the dominant sources of ambient noise on Mars differ
319	with frequency and wave type, and there may be several different ambient noise sources
320	despite the absence of oceans on Mars. The high repeatability of P-waves and Rayleigh
321	waves derived from ambient noise suggests the feasibility of utilizing ambient noise for
322	subsurface imaging and monitoring on Mars. Further studies are necessary to clarify the
323	contribution of SV-waves in ambient noise on Mars, which influences the results of our
324	polarization analysis.
225	

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331	from the following URL;		
332	https://atmos.nmsu.edu/data_and_services/atmospheres_data/INSIGHT/insight.html#Se		
333	lecting_Data.		
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452 Fig. 1. Temporal variation of power spectral density in the vertical and two horizontal

453 components from Sols 194 to 197. The bottom figure shows the temporal variation of 454 wind speed and air temperature.



Fig. 2. Temporal variation of dominant back-azimuths and directional intensity of (a) Pwaves (linearly polarized components) and (b) Rayleigh waves (elliptically polarized components) in six single-octave frequency bands between Sols 75 and 211. (c) The wind speed and direction during the same period. The gray bar at the top of each back-azimuth plot indicates the direction of the tether connection between the seismometer and the lander (i.e., lander direction; Lognonné et al., 2020).



Fig. 3. Temporal variations from Sols 194 to 197 in the dominant back-azimuths and directional intensity of (a) P-waves (linearly polarized components) and (b) Rayleigh waves (elliptically polarized components). (c) The wind speed and direction during the same period. Yellow shaded areas indicate daytime. The gray bar at the top of each backazimuth plot indicates the direction of the tether connection between the seismometer and the lander (i.e., lander direction; Lognonné et al., 2020).





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



### Geophysical Research Letters

### Supporting Information for

# Temporal variation and frequency dependence of seismic ambient noise on Mars from polarization analysis

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Text S1: Rotation of SEIS-VBB data to three orthogonal components

Table S1 shows the azimuth and dip angle of three components (U, V and W) of the triaxial seismometer of SEIS-VBB obtained from FDSN webservices of the Incorporated Research Institutions for Seismology (IRIS) (<u>http://ds.iris.edu/mda/XB/ELYSE/</u>). The original three components were rotated to construct seismic records with vertical and horizontal components. The relationship between original oblique components and vertical and horizontal components are given by;

$$\begin{pmatrix} D_{E} \\ D_{N} \\ D_{Z} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -\sin(-\varphi_{U})\cos(\theta_{U}) & \cos(-\varphi_{U})\cos(-\theta_{U}) & \sin(-\theta_{U}) \\ -\sin(-\varphi_{V})\cos(\theta_{V}) & \cos(-\varphi_{V})\cos(-\theta_{V}) & \sin(-\theta_{V}) \\ -\sin(-\varphi_{W})\cos(\theta_{W}) & \cos(-\varphi_{W})\cos(-\theta_{W}) & \sin(-\theta_{W}) \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} D_{U} \\ D_{V} \\ D_{W} \end{pmatrix},$$
(1)

where  $D_U$ ,  $D_V$  and  $D_W$  are original oblique components,  $\varphi$  and  $\theta$  are azimuth and dip angles of three axes of seismometer, respectively, and  $D_E$ ,  $D_N$  and  $D_Z$  are two horizontal (east-west and north-south) and one vertical components after rotation.

	Azimuth [°]	Dip [°]
U	135.1	-29.4
V	15	-29.2
W	255	-29.7

1

Table S1. Azimuth and dip angle of U, V, W component of seismometer

Text S2: Calculation of theoretical Rayleigh waves for a model of the InSight landing site

To evaluate if the motion of Rayleigh waves is prograde or retrograde at each frequency, we calculated analytical solutions of Rayleigh waves for a model of the InSight landing site. We used the baseline layered velocity model of Knapmever-Endrun et al. (2017), which includes an intermediate regolith thickness of 10 m. For the model, we computed analytical solutions of Rayleigh waves: phase velocity dispersion curve (Figure S2a), relative amplitude for vertical and horizontal components (Figures S2b and S2c), and ellipticity (Figure S2d) by DISPER80 (Saito 1988). The calculated ellipticities for each mode indicate that fundamental and 2nd higher modes of Rayleigh waves have retrograde motions (negative value of ellipticity), while 1st higher mode of Rayleigh waves has prograde motions (positive value of ellipticity) at most frequencies (Figure S2d). The relative amplitude of each mode for a vertical component, which can be calculated by the amplitude response  $(A_R)$  (Harkrider, 1970; Tokimatsu, 1997) divided by the square root of wavenumber (k), indicates fundamental mode of Rayleigh waves is mostly dominant in our analyzed frequency range. In the frequency ranges from 4.8 to 5.6 Hz and 7.4 to 8.0 Hz, 1st higher mode is dominant but 1st higher mode has retrograde motions in the frequency range from 7.4 to 7.9 Hz. On the other hand, relative amplitude of horizontal component indicates fundamental mode is dominant in horizontal component Rayleigh waves. These results suggest that Rayleigh waves would have mostly retrograde motions in the analyzed frequency range but in higher than 4 Hz, Rayleigh waves could have prograde motions as 1st higher mode is dominant in vertical component of Rayleigh waves.



**Figure S1.** Power spectral density of seismic noise on Mars and Earth. Color counter shows the probability density function of Martian vertical seismic noise by InSight. We computed power spectral densities from each 10-min segment between Sols 75 and 211. Red and white lines show the Earth high noise model and the low noise model, respectively (Peterson, 1993).



**Figure S2.** Comparison of Rayleigh waves for fundamental, 1st higher and 2nd higher modes for the baseline model of Knapmeyer-Endrun et al. (2017). (a) Phase velocity dispersion curve, (b) relative amplitude for vertical component, (c) relative amplitude for horizontal component calculated by multiplying absolute value of ellipticity (H/V) with the vertical response, and (d) ellipticity. Values in panels (b) and (c) are normalized by the maximum values. Negative values of ellipticity represent retrograde motions, while positive values indicate prograde motions.



**Figure S3.** Temporal variations in Sol 194 in the dominant back-azimuths and directional intensity of (a) P-waves (linearly polarized components) and (b) Rayleigh waves (elliptically polarized components) calculated from each 1-min segment. Red shaded areas in panel (b) indicate dominant back-azimuths of low-frequency Rayleigh wave showing 180 degree ambiguity. (c) The wind speed and direction during the same period.