# Stress field estimation from S-wave anisotropy observed in multi-azimuth seismic survey with cabled seafloor seismometers above the Nankai Trough megathrust zone, Japan

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#### Abstract

The spatial variation of azimuthal S-wave phase velocity anisotropies caused by differential horizontal stress along the subducting plate at the Nankai Trough was analyzed to understand the stress state of the overhung block of the forearc region, off Kii Peninsula, Japan. We conducted controlled-source seismic surveys along the circumference of a 3 km diameter circle centered at each seismometer of a cabled earthquake observatory installed on the seafloor above the Kumano basin of the Nankai Trough subduction zone. We applied an anisotropy semblance method to estimate the orientation of fast and slow S-wave velocities of both shallow sediments and deep accretionary prism using the multi-azimuth seismic dataset acquired at each seismometer location. The estimated orientations of fast S-wave velocity are parallel to the convergent direction of the subducting place beneath the Kumano basin in the deeper accretionary prism while perpendicular to the convergent direction in the shallow sediments inside the Kumano basin. The orientations of these fast S-wave polarization show good agreement with those of horizontal maximum stress orientations estimated in situ borehole measurements in the observation area. Then differential horizontal stress field in the Nankai Trough region was estimated from obtained S-wave anisotropy using a simple crack model. The azimuths of fast S-wave polarization and the derived differential stresses could be explained well by the tectonics of the Nankai Trough subduction zone. These results strongly suggested that the S-wave azimuthal anisotropy measurements could be used to monitor the subsurface stress field as a function of time.

Stress field estimation from S-wave anisotropy observed in multi-azimuth seismic 1 survey with cabled seafloor seismometers above the Nankai Trough megathrust zone, 2 Japan 3 T. Kimura<sup>1\*</sup>, H. Mikada<sup>2</sup>, E. Araki<sup>1</sup>, S. Kodaira<sup>1</sup>, S. Miura<sup>1</sup> and N. Takahashi<sup>3,1</sup> 4 <sup>1</sup>Research Institute for Marine Geodynamics, Japan Agency for Marine-earth Science and 5 6 Technology, JPN 7 <sup>2</sup> Department of Civil and Earth Resources Engineering, Kyoto University, JPN <sup>3</sup> Network Center for Earthquake, Tsunami and Volcano, National Research Institute for Earth 8 Science and Disaster Resilience, JPN 9 10 Corresponding author: \*Toshinori Kimura (kimurat@jamstec.go.jp) 11 12 **Key Points:** 13 Multi-azimuth seismic surveys around cabled seafloor seismometers were performed 14 • above the Nankai Trough megathrust zone, Japan. 15

- Multi-component dataset and anisotropy semblance method were used to obtain S-wave
   anisotropy parameter below each seismometer.
- Differential horizontal stress field in the Nankai Trough region was estimated from obtained S-wave anisotropy using a simple crack model.

#### 21 Abstract

The spatial variation of azimuthal S-wave phase velocity anisotropies caused by differential 22 horizontal stress along the subducting plate at the Nankai Trough was analyzed to understand the 23 stress state of the overhung block of the forearc region, off Kii Peninsula, Japan. We conducted 24 controlled-source seismic surveys along the circumference of a 3 km diameter circle centered at 25 each seismometer of a cabled earthquake observatory installed on the seafloor above the 26 Kumano basin of the Nankai Trough subduction zone. We applied an anisotropy semblance 27 method to estimate the orientation of fast and slow S-wave velocities of both shallow sediments 28 and deep accretionary prism using the multi-azimuth seismic dataset acquired at each 29 seismometer location. The estimated orientations of fast S-wave velocity are parallel to the 30 convergent direction of the subducting place beneath the Kumano basin in the deeper 31 accretionary prism while perpendicular to the convergent direction in the shallow sediments 32 33 inside the Kumano basin. The orientations of these fast S-wave polarization show good agreement with those of horizontal maximum stress orientations estimated in situ borehole 34 measurements in the observation area Then differential horizontal stress field in the Nankai 35 Trough region was estimated from obtained S-wave anisotropy using a simple crack model. The 36 azimuths of fast S-wave polarization and the derived differential stresses could be explained well 37 by the tectonics of the Nankai Trough subduction zone. These results strongly suggested that the 38 39 S-wave azimuthal anisotropy measurements could be used to monitor the subsurface stress field as a function of time. 40

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#### 42 **1 Introduction**

43 The Nankai Trough, Japan, is a major subduction zone formed by the subducting Philippine-sea plate beneath the Eurasian plate with a rate of approximately 4-6.5 cm/year, and 44 over M 8.0 massive megathrust earthquake occurred along the plate interface repeatedly with 45 intervals of 100 to 150 years [Ando, 1975; Seno, 1993; Miyazaki and Heki, 2001; Kodaira et al., 46 2006]. These earthquakes generate strong ground motion and huge tsunamis, which cause severe 47 and widespread damage in the coastal urban area in the south-central part of Japan. The 1944 48 Tonankai earthquake and 1946 Nankai earthquake are the last megathrust earthquakes that 49 occurred along the Nankai Trough [e.g., Kanamori, 1972]. Consequently, more than 70 years 50 have passed since the last earthquakes, and the next earthquake is anticipated to take place in the 51 near future. Because of the hazardous nature of large-scale earthquakes in the Nankai Trough 52 subduction zone, it is essential to understand the processes that govern the distribution, the 53 mechanism, and the style of the slip motion along the plate boundary for earthquake and tsunami 54 hazard assessment. Recent studies have provided new insights into the interplate earthquakes in 55 56 the Nankai Trough. Wallace et al. [2016] analyzed an Mw 6.0 earthquake and associated aftershocks with respect to the geodetic deformation of the seafloor using both tidal pressure 57 gauges and borehole pore pressure sensors and found out the evidence for a few-days' long 58 59 afterslip soon after the mainshock. Araki et al. [2017] reported that slow slip events (SSEs) repeatedly occur every 8 to 15 months and that the SSEs play a vital role in releasing 60 accumulated strain along the seismogenic interplate region to accommodate 30 to 55 % of the 61 plate motion. Suzuki et al. [2016] suggested that SSE occurred in the shallow part of the 62 sedimentary wedge triggered in the regional stress accumulation and release processes along the 63 Nankai trough and concluded that the continuous and careful monitoring of crustal activities 64

provides an effective way to detect preseismic signals of large earthquakes. *Lin et al.* [2015] investigated the stress states of both the Japan Trench and the Nankai Trough subduction zones. They hypothesized that the Nankai Trough is still in an early stage of the stress accumulation towards the next great earthquake if the stress state changes from the compression to the extension after a megathrust earthquake, as observed before and after the 2011 earthquake off the Pacific coast of Tōhoku. These studies indicate that the stress state at the subduction zones would be the key to understand the occurrences of the megathrust earthquakes. The stress state as a function of time towards the next megathrust earthquake in the Nankai Trough subduction zone would be indispensable to understand the preparation and the generation cycle of subduction

74 earthquakes.

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Some conventional techniques observe in situ stress in subduction zones, including 75 borehole strainmeter, borehole breakout analysis, and anelastic strain recovery (ASR) 76 77 measurements using core sample [e.g., *Lin et al.*, 2015]. These techniques can provide in situ stress properties, especially for horizontal stress, around the boreholes. As Wallace et al. [2016] 78 and Araki et al. [2017] have reported, borehole interstitial fluid pressure sensors could be used to 79 constrain the stress state in the sediments above subduction zones. Seafloor pressure gauges 80 could be exploited to estimate stress accumulation at the plate interface [Suzuki et al., 2016]. 81 Borehole strainmeters or interstitial fluid pressure sensors providing exciting data need to be 82 83 installed in drilled boreholes. ASR measurement is a method for effectively estimating threedimensional in situ stresses of core samples extracted from drilled holes. Seafloor pressure 84 gauges are installed to detect tidal changes and tsunamis as part of earthquake monitoring 85 systems in which the number of sensors is in general limited. Therefore, it is worth looking to 86 use seismic sensors to monitor stress state in subduction zones. We would like to propose a 87 method to utilize seismic sensors to complement more number of time-variant quantitative data 88 to understand the developing stress state of the Nankai Trough subduction zone. The method we 89 propose uses S-wave anisotropy as a proxy of the stress field to estimate the wide-area 90 distribution of the horizontal stress field in the subduction zone. S-wave anisotropy is mainly 91 affected by cracks induced by the differential horizontal stress in the rock [e.g., *Crampin*, 1981; 92 Gao and Crampin, 2004], and therefore, stress field estimation along the subduction zone 93 becomes possible by S-wave anisotropy analysis using multi-component seismic data. Several 94 results were obtained from S-wave anisotropy analysis for seismic survey data in the Nankai 95 Trough subduction zone. Tsuji et al. [2011a] showed S-wave anisotropy's spatial distribution 96 97 using P-S converted waves generated by an airgun array source acquired with a tri-component ocean bottom seismometers (OBS'es) arranged along a two-dimensional survey line in the 98 Kumano basin. Tsuji et al. [2011b] also observed S-wave anisotropy in a VSP (Vertical Seismic 99 Profile) survey conducted in a borehole and estimated the orientations of principal horizontal 100 101 stress for a depth zone of 150 m thickness, including gas-rich layers below the basin. These results revealed a complex distribution of horizontal maximum stress orientation, but no depth 102 variation has been investigated. As Haacke et al. [2009] introduced, a layer-stripping method 103 estimates depth-dependent S-wave anisotropy in marine OBS survey with multi-azimuth 104 105 shooting, depth-dependent S-wave anisotropy, i.e., the orientation of horizontal maximum stress could be driven. There are only a few examples of depth-dependent S-wave anisotropy analysis 106 below the seafloor. Moreover, as introduced by Okamoto et al. [2013], a method stress analysis 107 108 could be introduced to provide the quantitative horizontal differential stresses as well as the orientation of horizontal maximum stress. 109

In this study, we acquired seismic data by the seismometers, most of which were 110 deployed in a cabled observatory named DONET (Dense Oceanfloor Network System for 111 Earthquake and Tsunamis) [Kawaguchi et al., 2015] and the others in the IODP borehole 112 observatories [Kopf et al., 2010; Kimura et al., 2013] in and around the Kumano basin. DONET 113 seismometers are deployed on the seafloor, while the borehole observatories both on the seafloor 114 and in the boreholes. We conducted circular airgun shootings around each seismometer location 115 with a ca. 3 kilometers diameter to estimate azimuthal differences in the S-wave propagation 116 caused by the anisotropic phase velocities and their spatial distribution. In analyzing azimuthal 117 S-wave anisotropy, we proposed a new scheme to use an anisotropic semblance method to 118 estimate both the fast S-wave's azimuth polarization and the quantitative difference between the 119 120 fast and slow S-wave phase velocities. A layer stripping algorithm is then applied to obtain depth-dependent S-wave anisotropy in the deep accretionary prism zone. Both shallow and deep 121 S-wave anisotropies are used as a proxy of the stress field below every seismometer. We 122 introduced a wing crack model to estimate differential horizontal stress quantitatively for 123 obtained S-wave anisotropy. Comparing our results with the estimated differential stresses 124 showed good agreement with those by the other methods such as an anelastic strain recovery 125 (ASR) method or borehole breakout analyses. Our results imply that the seismic anisotropy 126 analysis could be used as a tool to estimate stress orientation and the quantitative value of 127 horizontal differential stress as a function of depth below each seismometer location. We think 128 129 that circular airgun shooting surveys in a time-lapse manner could be used to monitor the stress accumulation process of overhung to discuss the wide-area distribution of differential horizontal 130

131 stress in the Nankai Trough subduction zone.

#### 132 2 Method and synthetic test

In a medium under horizontal stresses of orientation dependency, S-wave velocities 133 become a function of azimuth. The stiffness matrix in the theory of elasticity to describe such 134 medium has 5 independent elements in the first-order approximation, and the medium is called a 135 transverse isotropic medium with a horizontal axis of symmetry (HTI). S-waves traveling 136 vertically through a horizontally stratified HTI medium would be split into fast and slow S-137 138 waves [Crampin, 1981]. Because of changes to the fluid-saturated stress-aligned grain-boundary cracks and pore throats pervading almost all in situ rocks in the crust down to the upper mantle, 139 the polarizations of the faster split S-waves have been observed approximately parallel to the 140 orientation of maximum horizontal stress [Crampin and Chastin, 2003]. S-waves propagating 141 from artificial sources at multi-azimuth locations to a sensor could be exploited to estimate the 142 orientation and the magnitude of differential stress from acquired seismic data. Although 143 explosive source generates only P-waves in water, P-S converted up-going waves generated at 144 boundaries of elastic properties in the formations below the seafloor would be recorded in radial 145 and transverse components at every seismometer. Therefore, multi azimuth shootings with a 146 constant offset from every shot location to the seismometer could provide azimuthal coverage for 147 acquiring azimuthal anisotropy of S-wave velocities. S-wave splitting in HTI media results from 148 propagation through stress-aligned fluid-saturated grain-boundary cracks and pore throats 149 [Crampin and Chastin, 2003], and, therefore, S-wave splitting analysis would allow us to 150 estimate stress field including orientation and amplitude if the cracks are stress-aligned ones. 151 Figure 1 depicts a top view of the survey image, describing the relationship between horizontal 152 stress and aligned cracks. We use "anisotropy semblance" to obtain depth-dependent S-wave 153 anisotropy parameters, including the azimuths of the fast S-wave polarization and the time delay 154

- between fast (S1) and slow (S2) S-wave, below seismic observatory from multi azimuth
- 156 controlled-source survey data [*Kimura et al.*, 2016]. Multi azimuth radial and transverse
- 157 components in the anisotropic medium can be written as equations (1)-(4) [Bale et al., 2013].



159 **Figure 1.** Schematic drawing of the multi-azimuth survey in a stress-induced anisotropic

- 160 medium. The azimuth of the fast S-wave polarization is generally coincident with the orientation
- 161 of principal horizontal stress.

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$$R(t,\theta) = \overline{A}(t) + \Delta A(t) \cos[2(\theta - \phi)], \quad (1)$$
  

$$T(t,\theta) = \Delta A(t) \sin[2(\theta - \phi)], \quad (2)$$
  

$$\overline{A}(t) = \frac{1}{2} [A(t) + A(t - \tau)], \quad (3)$$
  
and  

$$\Delta A(t) = \frac{1}{2} [A(t) - A(t - \tau)], \quad (4)$$

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where  $\phi$  represents the azimuth of fast S-wave polarization and  $\theta$  represents that of the shot from the receiver. A(t) represents the shot response obtained by the convolution between source function and reflection coefficients.  $\tau$  is the time delay between S1 and S2. In this study, we obtain  $\phi$  and  $\tau$ by using anisotropy semblance. The anisotropy semblance is defined by equations (5)-(6),

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$$S(\tau,\phi) = \max(\sum_{\theta=0}^{2\pi} R(t+\tau'(\theta),\theta)),$$
 (5)

172  
$$\tau'(\theta) = \begin{cases} 0 & (\phi - \Psi < \theta < \phi + \psi) \\ \tau & (\phi + \pi / 2 - \Psi < \theta < \phi + \pi / 2 + \psi) \\ 0 & (\phi + \pi - \Psi < \theta < \phi + \pi + \psi) \\ \tau & (\phi + 3 / 2\pi - \Psi < \theta < \phi + 3 / 2\pi + \psi) \\ 0 & (Otherwise) \end{cases}$$

where  $S(\tau, \phi)$  represents the anisotropy semblance as a function of  $\tau$  and  $\phi$ .  $\psi$  represents the 174 width of the rectangular function defined by equation (6). We built a 1-D layered model to see 175 how the time delay influences the arrival time variation in the circular shooting using Equation 176 (1). The 1-D model has 2000 m thickness with 2000 m/s and 1000 m/s for P- and S-wave 177 velocities, respectively. We fixed the azimuth of the fast S-wave polarization ( $\phi = 30$  degrees in 178 Figure 1) and changed  $\tau$  from 20–160 ms corresponding to 1.0–7.5 % of the difference in the 179 slow S-wave velocity from the given S-wave velocity in the first layer of the 1-D model. Figure 180 2 shows the variation of the arrival times of the wave's radial component against the azimuth of 181 the shot location ( $\theta$  in Figure 1). When time delay  $\tau$  is smaller than or equal to 40 ms, the 182 apparent arrival time of the radial component of a wave varies as a sinusoidal curve of the 183 amplitude  $\tau$  in the time axis against the azimuth angle. As  $\tau$  increases, the sinusoidal curve for 184 small  $\tau$ , however, asymptotically approaches to a rectangular function with the amplitude of  $\tau$ 185 against the azimuth of the shot location. For dealing with both the sinusoidal and rectangular 186 shapes in the arrival times to calculate the semblance  $S(\tau, \phi)$  no matter what the value of  $\tau$  would 187 be, Equation (6) needs to be applied to both small and large  $\tau$  with appropriate values of  $\psi$ . We 188 finally found that the value  $S(\tau, \phi)$  is to be optimized at the maximum value for  $\psi = 30$  degrees. 189





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192 Figure 2. Variations of the peak amplitude of radial synthetic records calculated from simple 1-

D layered models. In a strong anisotropy model, the peak amplitude takes a rectangle shape from an apparent sinusoidal shape calculated from weak anisotropy models.

We performed a 3-D numerical simulation using the finite difference method for a medium causing S-wave splitting [Bansal and Sen, 2008] to justify the applicability of our new method. Figure 3 shows that our 3D simulation model consists of three layers, i.e., seawater, shallow sediment, and accretionary prism layers. A receiver is placed on the seafloor, and an impulsive compressional source signal was generated along a circle of a 3 km radius centered at the receiver location for every 10 degrees. We added the fluctuation to the circle radius, which follows the Gaussian distribution with the maximum value of  $\pm 30$  m error, which may routinely be observed in field surveys. 



Figure 3. A simple layered model used for the synthetic test. An isotropic medium is located at the shallow sediment layer, which has 3 % anisotropy with the azimuth of the fast S-wave polarization is north-south.







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b) Obtained anisotropy parameters calculated from the synthetic records.



Figure 4. a) Synthetic radial and transverse records computed from the 3-D velocity model shown in Figure 3. b) Obtained S-wave anisotropy parameters calculated from the synthetic records.

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We introduced the anisotropy semblance method to the simulated synthetic records. We first applied the technique to raw synthetic records for the model giving  $\tau$  and  $\phi$  43 ms and 0 degrees, respectively. Estimated  $\tau$  and  $\phi$  are 48 ms and 10 degrees, respectively, due to the fluctuation in the radius of the circle of source locations, which produces about 30 ms error in the travel time. We then applied a moving average method to acquired waveforms for every shot point along the circle for both radial and transverse for the range of 30 degrees. After applying the same anisotropy semblance method, we could obtain  $\tau$ =43ms and  $\phi$ =0, respectively, showing 3% of anisotropic S-wave phase velocity difference and 0 degrees in the azimuth of the fast Swave polarization in the shallow sediments (Figure 4). Obtained anisotropy parameters are

completely coincident with the values given to the synthetic model.

### 240 **3 Data acquisition**

We conducted a series of active seismic surveys, KR13-17, KR15-05, KR15-08, and 241 KR16-11 conducted by R/V Kairei, in the Nankai Trough area to estimate spatially varying S-242 243 wave anisotropy, which would reflect the difference in the stress state of subseafloor materials along the subduction zone since 2013 to 2016 [JAMSTEC, 2014; JAMSTEC, 2015a; JAMSTEC, 244 2015b, JAMSTEC, 2016]. A tuned airgun array system of 7800 cubic inches was deployed as a 245 seismic source that was fired along the circular lines, shown in Figure 5, each of which encloses 246 a seafloor seismometer of the DONET cabled observatory, a borehole seismometer installed 247 during the legs of the IODP (Integrated Ocean Drilling Program), or both (Table 1). The 248 249 seismometers of DONET are all telemetered in realtime for the observation of natural earthquake events such as regional microearthquakes, VLF (Very Low Frequency) events, and seismic 250 microtremors in and around the seismogenic zone [NIED, 2019]. The seismometers of the IODP 251 borehole observatory are also telemetered in realtime by using DONET cable [IMG 252 FEAT/JAMSTEC, 2016]. Therefore, it was possible to check the data quality in realtime when 253 acquiring seismic signals generated by the airgun system. Furthermore, the DONET 254 seismometers were buried in the seafloor with a depth of 1 m for improving the coupling of the 255 seismometers to subseafloor formation. The quality of horizontal components of acquired 256 257 waveforms becomes relatively higher than the acquired by conventional ocean bottom seismometer without burial. 258

For each circular shooting line in Figure 5, the first shot was fired at the location right 259 north to the center of the circle, i.e., every seismometer location, and the shots following the first 260 one were successively fired along the survey line of ca. 3km radius circle at every 2.0 degrees in 261 the azimuth. The seismometers of the DONET and borehole observatory acquire seismic data 262 with the sampling rates of 5 and 8 ms, respectively. We tried to hold the vessel's route to draw a 263 circle of 3 km radius centered at each of the seismometers and could keep the deviation from the 264 circle within  $\pm 30$  m for almost all the shooting lines. The same circle was traced to fire the 265 airgun system from time to time to confirm both the stability and the repeatability of the S-wave 266 anisotropy survey. After the data acquisition, we first extracted the shot records from the 267 continuous output from the seismometers to produce both the radial and the transverse 268 components to the shot location from the two horizontal components by using the orientation of 269 270 DONET seismometers given by Nakano and Tonegawa [2012]. Figure 6 shows an example of observed data of the KMB07-R3 survey line during the KR13-17 cruise. 271



**Figure 5**. Location map of seafloor and borehole observatories with airgun shooting lines.

Triangles show locations of observatories. Circles indicate airgun shooting lines around observatories with a 3 km radius.

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**Table 1**. List of circular shooting lines conducted during each cruise.

Line name	Offset (km)	KR13-	KR15-	KR15-	KR16-	Total	
		17	05	08	11		
KMA01-R3	3				1	1	
KMA02-R3	3			1		1	
KMA03-R3	3			1		1	
KMA04-R3	3	1	1		3	5	
KMB07-R3	3	1	1			2	
KMC09-R3	3	2	1		1	4	
KMC11-R3	3			1		1	
KMC12-R3	3	2	1		1	4	
KMD13-R3	3	2	1		1	4	
KMD15-R3	3	1	1		1	3	
KME17-R3	3	1	1	12		14	
KME19-R3	3			1		1	
KME20-R3	3			1		1	
C0002G-R3	3	2	4	3	2	11	



Figure 6. Example of shooting points and observed horizontal records of KR13-17 cruise. (a)
 KMB07-R3 circle shooting line. The shooting radius from the observatory was kept within ±30

m from the target radius (3km). (b) Observed data, radial, and transverse records of the KMB07R3 line with binning in range of 30 degrees.

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Clear events of high amplitudes spanning the four-quadrant angles in the azimuth are 290 visible in both radial and transverse records between 2.0 to 4.0 s. Since simple 2-D numerical 291 simulation for the model shown in Figure 3 confirms that the events would be the P-S converted 292 waves reflected at the bottom of shallow sediment layers with a depth of 1 km as shown in 293 Figure 7, the events might be P-S converted waves propagating shallow sediment layers. The 294 other reflection event such as P-S converted waves reflected at the top of oceanic crust, i.e., the 295 plate boundary is also visible around 7.4 s for the offset of 3000 m as shown in the common 296 receiver gather in Figure 7 following the structure estimated by Kamei et al. [2012]. However, it 297 is difficult to identify the reflection events in the field data due to the weak amplitude and the 298 superposition of the other events, such as water reverberations and peg-legs generated by both 299 the seafloor and shallow sediment layer. Therefore, it is necessary to apply a data processing 300 technique to retrieve weak converted signals from the observed data to discuss S-wave 301

anisotropy in the deep.

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Figure 7. A velocity model used for 2-D seismic wave propagation simulation, a snapshot of the horizontal receiver, and a common receiver gather. P- and S-wave velocities in each layer are given with reference to *Kamei et al.* [2012] and estimated using Castagna's equation [*Castagna et al.*, 1985] the empirical relation between P- and S-wave velocities in wet sediments.

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## 310 4 Data processing and results

## 311 4.1 Anisotropy Estimation

We applied the method of anisotropy semblance to estimate the azimuth of the fast Swave polarization  $\phi$  and the time delay  $\tau$  that maximizes the value of S( $\tau$ ,  $\phi$ ) in Equation (5)

- using the multi-azimuth seismic data observed by DONET and borehole seismometers. In this 314 analysis, we assumed a horizontally stratified three-layer model, comprised of shallow sediment, 315 accretionary prism, and oceanic crust layers, for each seismometer as the sub-seafloor structure 316 with reference to a 2D velocity structure [Kamei et al., 2012], with which the structure matches 317 in the orthogonal projection. We applied the Alford rotation [Alford, 1986] and a layer stripping 318 algorithm [Thomsen et al., 1999] to the radial and transverse data to estimate depth-depended 319 azimuth of the fast S-wave orientation and the time difference between the fast and the slow S-320 wave arrivals from the observed horizontal components of seismic data. In the analysis, seismic 321 records showing clear P-S converted waves are used to avoid any influence of 3D subseafloor 322 topography. We used seismic events between 3.0 to 5.0 s as converted P-S wave from the bottom 323 324 of shallow sediment and 6.0 to 8.0 s as converted P-S wave from the top of the oceanic crust. Figure 8 depicts radial and transverse records observed by the KMD15 seismometer and 325 obtained anisotropy parameters by anisotropy semblance method. Solid lines indicate RMS 326
- amplitudes of the transverse component, and the azimuth of the fast S-wave polarization and the
- time delay between fast and slow S-wave are indicated as stars in Figure 8.
- 329



b) Anisotropy semblance calculated from the Radial and Transverse records



Figure 8. a) Radial and transverse components observed by KMD15 seismometer with multiazimuth airgun shootings. b) Results of anisotropy semblance methods of KMD15 seismometers in the 1<sup>st</sup> layer (left) and the 2<sup>nd</sup> layer (right). The vertical axis shows the time delay, and the horizontal azimuth indicates the azimuth of the fast S-wave polarization. Color contour shows the value of anisotropy semblance. Stars indicate the optimum values of the time delay and the azimuth of the fast S-wave polarization. Black dashed lines show the RMS amplitude of

- 337 transverse components.
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### 339 4.2 Differential Stress Estimation

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After estimating both the azimuth of the fast S-wave polarization and the time difference between the fast and slow S-wave arrivals, we simply treat them as the horizontal maximum stress orientation and the magnitude of horizontal differential stress, respectively. We consider a random crack model under azimuthally different stress loading for quantitative conversion from the time difference between the fast and the slow S-wave arrivals. Fig. 9 depicts three schematic images of the crack model with horizontal differential stress loading.

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**Figure 9.** Schematic images depicting the relationship between differential horizontal stress and cracks. a) Horizontal stresses are equivalent and much smaller than principal stress. b)  $\sigma_x$  and  $\sigma_y$ are minimum and maximum horizontal stresses, respectively. c) Horizontal stresses are equivalent and close to maximum principal stress.

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For further discussion, the following assumptions have been made: 1) both the shallow sediments and accretionary prism are of HTI (Transversally Isotropic with the Horizontal axis of symmetry) media, in which the orientation of microcracks are aligned to that of horizontal maximum stress, 2) microcracks in the media have a constant aspect ratio, and 3) all microcracks except cracks aligned with the orientation of horizontal maximum stress are closed due to a stress normal to the crack plane when the magnitude of the stress becomes greater than or equal to that of the horizontal minimum stress. We use the following equations given by *Nur* [1971] to discuss the relationship between the amplitude of S-wave anisotropy and differential horizontal
 stresses.

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364 
$$\alpha \leq \frac{\sigma_n}{E_0}$$
 (7)

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where  $\alpha$  represents an aspect ratio of a microcrack,  $\sigma_n$  and  $E_0$  a stress and the Young's modulus normal to the microcrack plane. If the condition in Equation (7) is satisfied, the microcrack is closed. We assume that  $\sigma_{Hmax}$  and  $\sigma_{hmin}$ , i.e., horizontal maximum and minimum stresses, respectively, are parallel to the azimuths of the fast and the slow S-wave polarizations. Therefore, the Young's moduli,  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  are chosen to the orientations of the fast and the slow Swave polarization, respectively. Two cracks with the same aspect ratio aligned in the azimuths orthogonal to each other would satisfy the following conditions [*Okamoto et al.*, 2013].

$$\alpha \leq \frac{\sigma_{Hmax}}{E_1} \tag{8}$$

$$\alpha > \frac{\sigma_{Amin}}{E_2} \tag{9}$$

Therefore, the minimum value for the horizontal maximum stress and the maximum value of the horizontal minimum stress could be expressed as follows.

378 
$$\min\left(\sigma_{Hmax}\right) = \alpha E_1 \tag{10}$$

379 max 
$$\sigma_{hmin} \ll \alpha E_2$$
 11

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The following equation gives the minimum differential value between the horizontal maximum stress and the horizontal minimum principal stress.

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$$min(\Delta \sigma_H) = min(\sigma_{Hmax} - \sigma_{hmin})$$
(12)

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Finally, the following equation would give a relationship between the minimum differential stress, aspect ratio of crack, and the Young's modulus.

$$min(\Delta \sigma_H) > \alpha \Delta E \qquad (13)$$

391  $\Delta E$  represents a differential value between the Young's modulus of E<sub>1</sub> and E<sub>2</sub>, which can be 392 calculated using the following equations.

- 393
- 394

$$E_{1} = \rho V_{s_{1}}^{2} \frac{3V_{p_{1}}^{2} - 4V_{s_{1}}^{2}}{V_{p_{1}}^{2} - V_{s_{1}}^{2}}$$
(14)

$$E_2 = \rho V_{s_2}^2 \frac{3V_{p_2}^2 - 4V_{s_2}^{-2}}{V_{p_2}^2 - V_{s_2}^{-2}}$$
(15)

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Where  $\rho$  represents the density,  $V_{p1}$ ,  $V_{p2}$  respectively represent the fast and slow P-wave velocities.  $V_{s1}$ ,  $V_{s2}$  respectively represent the fast and slow S-wave velocities. We will discuss the relationship between S-wave anisotropy parameters and differential horizontal stress using the equations (7)-(15). Although the influence of P-wave anisotropy is relatively small, we assume the same magnitude of anisotropy to be applied to both P- and S-waves in the following discussion.

It is known that the aspect ratio of crack can be changed by the effective confining pressure in the rock sample [*Schubnel et al.*, 2006]. Following the discussion of Schubnel et al. [2006], we assume the aspect ratios for the shallow sediments and the accretionary prism to be 0.005 and 0.003, respectively, to estimate the minimum horizontal differential stresses using the cross-plots shown in Figure 10.

The results of our analysis, i.e., the arrivals of the fast S-waves, the azimuths of the fast 408 S-wave polarization, the time delays of the slow S-wave arrival, and the estimated minimum 409 differential stresses, for each seismometer for both shallow sediments and deep accretionary 410 prism are summarized in Table 2 as well as the assumed S-wave velocity and the thickness of the 411 layer. Obtained results suggest that differential horizontal stress in the shallow sediments is 412 generally smaller than those in the accretionary prism. Figure 11 shows obtained the azimuth of 413 the fast S-wave polarization and amplitude of S-wave anisotropy. Results show variations 414 obtained from repeated shootings conducted in different yearly cruises and/or on the same 415 cruises. Figure 12 depicts the spatial distribution of horizontal differential stress in the shallow 416 sediment and the accretionary prism layers. Averaged values are used in the observatories, where 417 repeated surveys were conducted. 418





Figure 10. (Left) The relationship between the aspect ratio of crack and the minimum value of horizontal differential stress in the shallow sediment layer. (Right) The relationship between the aspect ratio of crack and the minimum value of horizontal differential stress in the accretionary prism layer. Both relationships are calculated by using equation (11), (12), and (13) with the velocity model.

Table 2. 1-D velocity models used for the anisotropy semblance method and obtained results,
 including azimuths of fast S-wave velocity and amplitude of anisotropy for each site and layer. a)
 model and results for shallow sediment layer. b) model and results for accretionary prism.

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Site ID	Event time (sec)	Azimuth (degree)	Time delay (msec)	S-wave velocity (m/s)	Thickness (m)	Anisotrop y (%)	Horizontal differential stress (Min. MPa)
KMA02	3.5	42	20	720	1200	1.2	0.3
KMA02	4.0	40	20	720	1200	1.2	0.3
KMA03	3.5	134	10	720	1200	0.6	0.2
KMA04	4.0	176 - 182	70	720	1200	4.0	1.1
KMB07	3.2	24 - 30	50 - 65	720	1000	3.5 - 4.5	0.9-1.2
KMC09	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
KMC12	3.9	122	60	720	1200	3.5	0.9
KMD13	4.0	144 - 148	60 - 65	720	1200	3.5 - 3.8	0.9-1.0
KMD15	4.0	90 - 94	85	720	1200	4.9	1.2
KME17	3.5	26 - 32	5 - 10	720	1000	0.4 - 0.7	0.1-0.2
KME19	3.5	36	45	720	1000	3.1	0.8
KME20	3.5	24	25	720	1000	1.8	0.5
C0002G	3.5	60	80	720	1000	5.4	1.5

#### a) 1st layer (shallow sediment)

Site ID	Event time (sec)	Azimuth (degree)	Time delay (msec)	S-wave velocity (m/s)	Thickness (m)	Anisotrop y (%)	Horizontal differential stress (Min. MPa)
KMA01	7.0	122	15	1850	4000	0.9	1.0
KMA02	5.5	98	15	1850	3000	0.9	1.0
KMA03	7.0	110	5	1850	4000	0.2	0.2
KMA04	6.5	108 - 112	50 - 65	1850	3500	2.6 - 3.3	2.7-3.5
KMB07	7.0	146 - 152	135 - 145	1850	4000	5.9 - 6.3	6.1-6.5
KMC09	5.5	116 - 126	115 - 120	1850	4000	5.1 - 5.3	5.3-5.5
KMC12	7.0	133	55	1850	3000	3.3	3.4
KMD13	6.0	142 - 144	80 - 85	1850	3000	4.7 - 5.0	4.9-5.2
KMD15	6.5	154 - 160	45 - 50	1850	3000	2.7 - 3.0	2.8-3.1
KME17	7.0	114 - 122	40 - 55	1850	5000	1.5 - 2.0	1.6-2.1
KME19	7.5	160	110	1850	5000	3.9	4.1
KME20	7.5	120	50	1850	5000	1.8	1.9
C0002G	7.5	144	40	1850	4000		1.9

### b) 2nd layer (accretionary prism)



Figure 11. Wide area distribution of the azimuth of the fast S-wave polarization obtained from the anisotropy semblance analysis. Magenta and yellow bars indicate the azimuth of the fast Swave polarization in shallow sediment and accretionary prism, respectively. The blue bar indicates the orientation of principal horizontal stress obtained by borehole breakout analysis  $(135^{\circ}\pm11^{\circ} \text{ at a depth of } 1300\text{-}1550\text{m below seafloor})$  in the IODP C0009 borehole [*Lin et al.*, 2010].

440



Figure 12. Spatial distribution of horizontal differential stress in the shallow sediment layer (left)
and accretionary prism layer (right). The magenta line indicates the trough axis. Triangles
indicate the location of each observatory. The spatial interpolation method in 10 km circles
around each observatory [*Smith and Wessel*, 1998] is used to obtain the spatial distribution of
horizontal differential stress.

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## 448 **5 Discussion**

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450 For discussing the validity of horizontal differential stress estimated by our method, we used the stress polygon [e. g. Chang et al., 2010] for both the shallow sediment layer and 451 accretionary prism using P-wave velocity and density. The estimated horizontal differential 452 stress in the shallow sediments and the accretionary prism beneath the C0002G observatory 453 calculated in our method are shown in Figure 13. The vertical stress  $\sigma$  v is given using the depth 454 integration of the product of gravitational acceleration and density profile, which is calculated 455 from P-wave velocity using Gardner's equation [Gardner et al., 1974]. Internal frictions for 456 calculating the stress polygon are 0.4 and 0.6 for shallow sediment layer and accretionary prism, 457

respectively, with reference to Huffman et al. [2016]. It is observed that the lines of the 458 differential horizontal stress estimated from the S-wave anisotropy in the C0002G observatory 459 reasonably pass inside the stress polygon calculated from the velocity model, although our 460 method provides only the minimum values of the horizontal differential stress. We compared our 461 results with existing results from borehole breakout analysis [Kinoshita et al., 2009; Chang et al., 462 2010; Lin et al. 2015; Huffman et al., 2016] in the C0002 site, which is the only one site having 463 resulted from plural methods. At this site, borehole breakout results indicated NE-SW 464 orientations  $(41 \pm 14^{\circ})$  for the azimuth of horizontal maximum stress, i.e., almost parallel to the 465 trench axis at a depth of 200 to 1400 mbsf. The azimuth of the fast S-wave polarization obtained 466 in the C0002 site respectively shows the azimuth of 60° in the shallow sediment layer and that of 467 144° in the accretionary prism layer. The results of S-wave anisotropy are consistent with the 468 orientations of horizontal maximum stress inferred from borehole breakout analysis. The 469 orientation of estimated horizontal maximum stress in the accretionary prism matches in the 470 C0002 hole with the plate convergence direction, while that in the shallow sediment layer with 471 the azimuth of the fast S-wave polarization estimated by multi-component data observed by OBS 472 #74 located in the vicinity of the C0002 site at a distance of less than 1 km [Tsuji et al., 2011a]. 473 Results from the KMB07 and KMD15 sites located along the seaward edge of the forearc basin 474 showed a similar trend as that from the C0002 site, for which the azimuths of the fast S-wave 475 polarization are ranging from 24 to 90° in the shallow sediment layer. These results are in good 476 477 agreement with normal fault distribution estimated from a 3D seismic reflection survey [Moore et al., 2013]. The agreement of results from the S-wave anisotropy with the others from the 478 borehole breakout analyses and the interpretation of the seismic reflection survey implies that 479 our approach could be used to estimate the azimuth of horizontal maximum stress and the 480 horizontal differential stress as a function of space. Results may be discussed in terms of stress 481 estimation around the Nankai seismogenic zone as follows: 482

483

-At landward observatories, KMA and KME obtained S-wave anisotropy, and estimated 484 differential horizontal stress are relatively smaller than those in the offshore region, although 485 there are some exceptions. The amplitudes of S-wave anisotropy are relatively weak, a maximum 486 4 %. The estimated differential horizontal stresses in the landward observatories are 0.2-1.1 487 MPa, and 1.6-4.1 MPa in the shallow sediment layer and accretionary prism, respectively. These 488 results are reasonable compared to the horizontal differential stress of 2.7-5.5 MPa, estimated 489 from P-wave anisotropy observed by the VSP survey conducted at the IODP C0009 borehole 490 [*Tsuji et al.*, 2011] near the KME17 observatory. In the shallow sediment layer, at almost all 491 observatories except KMA04, the orientations of the horizontal maximum stress are 492 approximately perpendicular to the subduction direction. In the accretionary prism, the 493 orientations of the horizontal maximum stress are almost parallel to the subduction direction. The 494 results may suggest a subduction-parallel extensional field in the shallow sediment layer beneath 495 the Kumano forearc basin, while a subduction-parallel compressional field in the accretionary 496 prism layer, respectively. At the KMA04 site, the azimuth of the fast S-wave polarization in the 497 shallow sediment layer appears parallel to the subduction direction, which is different from the 498 other sites. Also, the magnitude of S-wave anisotropy at the KMA04 site is about 4.0 % [Table 499 2], which is relatively larger than those at the other sites. The site is located at the most landward 500 side of the central part of the Kumano forearc basin, and the difference in the orientation and the 501 magnitude of the S-wave anisotropy may be caused by the local structural three-dimensionality 502 below the KMA04 site. Since the site is located close to the foot of the slope to the Kumano 503

basin, there may be a thin basin fill and shallow forearc substrata beneath the site. Since a few 3-D seismic images cover the area of the site [e.g., *Moore et al.*, 2013], future 3D seismic surveys

are awaited to discuss the anomalous S-wave anisotropy observed at this site.

507

-The differential horizontal stresses are relatively strong, especially in the accretionary prism 508 layer at the sites KMB07, KMD13, and KMD15 around the outer arc high of the southeast end of 509 the Kumano forearc basin. The azimuths of the fast S-wave polarizations are parallel to the 510 subduction direction in the accretionary prism, while orthogonal in the sediment layer inside the 511 Kumano basin approximately orthogonal to the plate subducting direction. The minimum 512 horizontal differential stresses are a few to several MPa in the accretionary prism layer. The 513 azimuths of fast S-wave at the sites KMB07, KMD15, and C0002G inside the Kumano basin are 514 all orthogonal to the subduction direction, and the minimum horizontal differential stresses are 515 estimated about 0.9 - 1.5 MPa in the sediment layer, which might indicate that the uplifting of 516 the outer arc high takes place due to the subduction to create a local tensile stress field inside the 517 Kumano basin. In the C0002G borehole site, there is good agreement between the azimuth of the 518 fast S-wave polarization and the horizontal maximum stress orientation inferred from borehole 519 breakout analysis [Kinoshita et al., 2009, Chang et al., 2010, Lin et al., 2015], which shows 520

521 overall NE-SW directions  $(41 \pm 14^{\circ})$ .

522

-In the inner slope of the Nankai Trough, it is difficult to obtain stable results because of 523 spatially-frequent topographic changes in the outer accretionary complex. The signal-to-noise 524 ratio of the acquired seismic records was not high enough to identify reflected S-waves. Also, the 525 Kuroshio, i.e., the westward intensified warm current in the Pacific, disturbed the position of the 526 source vessel and caused hardship to adjust the vessel on the circle of the fixed radius of 3 km to 527 each seismometer. At the site KMC09, only the deep reflection in the accretionary prism could 528 be identified, while two reflection events from the shallow and from the deep could be estimated 529 at the site KMC12. Obtained results show that the azimuths of the fast S-wave polarizations are 530 531 approximately parallel to the subducting direction and are not changed with depth. The horizontal differential stresses are estimated to be 5.3-5.5 and 3.4 MPa at the sites KMC09 and 532 KMC12, respectively, in the accretionary prism. In the shallow sediment layer at the site 533 KMC12, the estimated horizontal differential stress was about 0.9 MPa, which may indicate the 534 compressional stress due to the subduction would be effective in the deep close to the plate 535 boundary while the relaxation of the stress takes place in the shallow inner slope due to the 536 537 uplifting of outer arc high.

538

-We have conducted the circle shootings plural times at the seismometer locations and confirmed 539 the repeatability of the survey to estimate the azimuth of the fast S-wave polarization and the 540 541 magnitude of S-wave anisotropy within the range of  $10^{\circ}$  and 1.0%, respectively. The most considerable fluctuations observed in the repeated surveys at the sites KMA04 and KME17 were 542 about 1.0%, which is about 0.8 MPa of the horizontal differential stress in the accretionary 543 prism. The other sites showed less than 0.4% fluctuations in the magnitude of the S-wave 544 anisotropy both in the shallow sediment layer and in the accretionary prism. The stress drop of 545 megathrust earthquakes along the plate subduction zone is estimated as several MPa [e. g. Seno 546 547 et al., 2014]. When the stress drop and the interval of megathrust earthquakes at a location are





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Figure 13. Comparison of calculated stress polygon and differential horizontal stress estimated
 from S-wave anisotropy (red dashed lines) in shallow sediment layer (a) and accretionary prism
 (b).

#### 564 6 Conclusions

We performed a series of controlled-source seismic surveys around permanent seismic 565 observatories to obtain S-wave anisotropy, the azimuth of the fast S-wave polarization, and the 566 time difference of the fast and the slow S-wave arrivals in the Nankai Trough subduction zone. 567 We applied a new technique called the "anisotropy semblance method" to obtain the depth-568 dependent S-wave anisotropy from the horizontal components of acquired seismic data for the 569 shots of airguns along a circle of 3 km radius to each seismometer. We introduced a simple 570 microcrack model to subseafloor materials to estimate the minimum values of differential 571 horizontal stress from the obtained S-wave anisotropy parameters. Finally, we estimated the 572 differential horizontal stress field around each observatory widely distributed in the Nankai 573 Trough subduction zone and found good agreement between S-wave anisotropy and the 574 horizontal differential stress obtained by the other methods. These results could be well 575

- explained by tectonics of the Nankai Trough subducting zone. These results strongly suggested
- that the S-wave anisotropy below the seafloor in the Nankai Trough could be explained by the
- horizontal stress caused by the subduction. We think that the monitoring of the stress filed is
- possible through the observation of S-wave anisotropy. However, it is suggested that the
- positioning of the seismic source has to be improved when active sources are used to precisely
- estimate the stress accumulating in a time-lapse way.

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- 592 https://doi.org/10.17596/0001224; KR16-11, https://doi.org/10.17596/0001246). The DONET
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