

# Using ambient seismic noise to monitor ocean bottom pressure

Bingxu Luo<sup>1</sup>, Shuo Zhang<sup>1</sup>, Nozomu Takeuchi<sup>2</sup>, David Lumley<sup>1,3</sup>, and Hejun Zhu<sup>1,3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Sustainable Earth System Sciences, The University of Texas at Dallas

<sup>2</sup>Earthquake Research Institute, The University of Tokyo

<sup>3</sup>Department of Physics, The University of Texas at Dallas

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## Abstract

Ambient seismic noise (ASN) recorded by ocean bottom seismometers allows us to perform coda wave interferometry without using active sources. We analyzed two-year ASN recordings from five ocean bottom stations in the northwestern Pacific Ocean basin (depth > 5,500 m), and measured the relative velocity variation ( $\delta v/v$ ) near the seafloor. The most important finding is an extremely low variation in  $\delta v/v$  (around -0.05%), which likely responds to a significant pressure drop at sea level and subsequently affects an anomaly at the ocean bottom (over -400 Pa) in December 2013. Furthermore, several major phases of the velocity change show delayed-correlation with the sea level pressure variations. A poroelastic simulation with adjusted ocean bottom variables supports the pressure factor mainly drives the variation in  $\delta v/v$ . Our study suggests the potential use of seismic signals to monitor oceanic and atmospheric processes by tracking variations in the oceanic pressure field.

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2 **pressure**

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4 **Zhu<sup>1,2,\*</sup>**

5 <sup>1</sup>Department of Sustainable Earth System Sciences, The University of Texas at Dallas

6 <sup>2</sup>Department of Physics, The University of Texas at Dallas

7 <sup>3</sup>Earthquake Research Institute, The University of Tokyo

8 **Key Points:**

- 9 • Our measured relative velocity variation ( $\delta v/v$ ) shows a significant decrease that  
10 correlates with the ocean bottom pressure.
- 11 • An adapted poroelastic model supports that the measured  $\delta v/v$  may be induced  
12 by the ocean bottom pressure field.
- 13 • This ambient seismic noise measurement reflects regional atmospheric activities.

**Abstract**

Ambient seismic noise (ASN) recorded by ocean bottom seismometers allows us to perform coda wave interferometry without using active sources. We analyzed two-year ASN recordings from five ocean bottom stations in the northwestern Pacific Ocean basin (depth  $>5,500$  m), and measured the relative velocity variation ( $\delta v/v$ ) near the seafloor. The most important finding is an extremely low variation in  $\delta v/v$  (around  $-0.05\%$ ), which likely responds to a significant pressure drop at sea level and subsequently affects an anomaly at the ocean bottom (over  $-400$  Pa) in December 2013. Furthermore, several major phases of the velocity change show delayed-correlation with the sea level pressure variations. A poroelastic simulation with adjusted ocean bottom variables supports the pressure factor mainly drives the variation in  $\delta v/v$ . Our study suggests the potential use of seismic signals to monitor oceanic and atmospheric processes by tracking variations in the oceanic pressure field.

**Plain Language Summary**

Passive seismic techniques are increasingly being used to monitor complex environmental changes due to their high sensitivity, continuous sampling and relatively low costs. In this study, we utilize ambient seismic noise recorded by ocean bottom seismometers to continuously monitor velocity changes near the seafloor. We observe a clear consistency between the measured seismic velocity changes and variations in ocean bottom pressure, which can be attributed to atmospheric changes. The most important contribution of our study is to suggest the potential of using seismic measurements to monitor physical processes occurring in the ocean bottom and atmosphere. Seismic remote sensing of variations in the oceanic pressure field can be further improved by utilizing higher quality datasets and may help bridge the spatiotemporal resolution gaps in current space-borne monitoring approaches.

## Introduction

Ambient seismic noise (ASN) includes microseisms generated by ground surface motions that are not caused by earthquakes or explosions (Gutenberg, 1958). High frequency noise ( $>1$  Hz) is mainly caused by human activities, such as industry and traffic (Campillo & Roux, 2015). On the other hand, low-frequency noise ( $<1$  Hz) is primarily due to natural sources, such as oceanic swells and their interaction with the solid Earth. These sources are commonly found in both coastal regions and deep oceans (Nishida et al., 2008; Campillo & Roux, 2015). By leveraging the global distribution of ASN sources, we can use interferometry between ASN recorded by two stations to approximate the impulsive response of the medium, known as the Green's function. This technique has been developed as an efficient passive method for seismic tomography (Shapiro et al., 2005; Sabra et al., 2005; Yao et al., 2006; Yang et al., 2007; Lin et al., 2007), which allows us to image the crust and uppermost mantle structure by measuring group and phase velocities of dispersive surface waves in tectonically inactive areas. Another recent application of ASN is to measure the relative velocity variation ( $\delta v/v$ ) in the near-surface. Unlike tomography, this technique directly measures the velocity change based on the traveltime shift between two Green's functions within the coda wave (scattered multiple times in the heterogeneous medium) windows for two different dates. The  $\delta v/v$  technique has been widely used to monitor environmental changes and tectonic activities, as it is based on the high pressure sensitivity of seismic wave speeds in an elastic medium (Dvorkin & Nur, 1996; Dvorkin et al., 1999; Saul et al., 2013). It can provide insights into temperature changes (Meier et al., 2010), ice sheets melting (Mordret et al., 2016; Toyokuni et al., 2018; Luo et al., 2023), terrestrial water storage (Lecocq et al., 2017; Mao et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2023), atmospheric pressure (Gradon et al., 2021), fault zone and volcanic activities (Sens-Schönfelder & Wegler, 2006a; Wegler & Sens-Schönfelder, 2007; Brenguier et al., 2008). This in-situ and high-sensitivity monitoring approach provides us with a novel way to investigate the complex processes of the near-surface at different temporal and spatial scales.

67 Recently, Wu et al. (2020) used traveltimes differences of tertiary arrivals (after P  
68 and S waves) generated by repeating earthquakes (doublets) to monitor basin-scale ocean  
69 temperature variations. This study suggests that seismic velocity changes are sensitive  
70 enough to monitor temperature changes within deep oceans ( $>2,000$  m). In our study,  
71 we aim to explore the bottom of ocean basins, an area that has not been well investi-  
72 gated and involves complicated water-seafloor interaction. Thanks to the Normal Ocean  
73 Mantle (NOMan) Project, operated by the Earthquake Research Institute at The Uni-  
74 versity of Tokyo, we have the opportunity to utilize continuous ocean bottom seismic (OBS)  
75 recordings to monitor the deep seafloor. We collect two-year ASN recordings from five  
76 OBSs within the northwestern Pacific Ocean basin ( $>5,500$  m depth). We apply the pas-  
77 sive  $\delta v/v$  technique to the coda wave windows of the measured cross-correlation func-  
78 tion between each station pair. We attempt to interpret the measured  $\delta v/v$  time series  
79 with various deep ocean physical variables, such as temperature, salinity and pressure.  
80 We propose that the low  $\delta v/v$  variation may be due to a low ocean bottom pressure anomaly  
81 observed in December, 2013. Moreover, several consistent phases between sea level pres-  
82 sure and  $\delta v/v$  variations suggest that the atmospheric pressure field likely dominates the  
83 ocean bottom pressure variations, which directly controls the near-seafloor  $\delta v/v$  changes.  
84 We then use a poroelastic mechanism to explain the  $\delta v/v$  variations. The consistent mag-  
85 nitudes and phases between our measurements and the end-member model further sup-  
86 port our interpretation. Our study demonstrates that the  $\delta v/v$  technique can be used  
87 to monitor deep ocean pressure changes, which are not easily observed by using conven-  
88 tional in-situ or remote sensing approaches.

## 89 **Data and methods**

### 90 **Ocean bottom seismographic recordings**

91 We obtain continuous ocean bottom seismic recordings from the NOMan Project  
92 (Matsuno et al., 2017). This array consists of eighteen ocean bottom seismometers (OBS).

93 We select five of them (NM01 to NM05) with over two-year continuous records, they are  
 94 deployed at depths exceeding 5,500 m below the sea surface, in the northwestern Pacific  
 95 Ocean (Figure 1A). These five stations are spaced apart at distance ranging from 109  
 96 to 249 km. Throughout the study period, three of these five stations were shifted dur-  
 97 ing the system replacement due to the battery lifetime. These relocations are not con-  
 98 sidered here due to their relatively small shifts of 1.51, 0.17 and 0.06 km. We collect con-  
 99 tinuous recordings from all five stations for a period of two years, from August 2012 to  
 100 August 2014. All stations are equipped with broadband instruments and have a sam-  
 101 pling rate of 100 Hz.

### 102 **Near-seafloor $\delta v/v$ measurements**

103 We use the MSNoise package (Lecocq et al., 2014) to achieve ASN interferometry  
 104 and  $\delta v/v$  measurements. First, we apply the preprocesses of demeaning, detrending, and  
 105 a bandpass filter of 0.05 to 2 Hz to all seismograms. Only the vertical components of five  
 106 stations are used for cross-correlate with each other. We set the analysis duration as 86,400  
 107 s (one day) and cut each seismogram into 1,800 s (30-minute) slices (with a 50 % over-  
 108 lap). We use three times of the root mean square (RMS) amplitude of the slice as ex-  
 109 treme limits to suppress outliers (e.g., earthquake arrivals), and spectral whitening is ap-  
 110 plied to each correlation slice. Then, we retrieve all daily noise correlation functions (NCFs),  
 111 and stack them together to obtain the reference signal. Next, we use a moving-window  
 112 cross-spectrum (MWCS) technique (Ratdomopurbo & Poupinet, 1995; Clarke et al., 2011)  
 113 to measure the temporal evolution of  $\delta v/v$ . This MWCS technique takes advantage of  
 114 the similarity of Fourier phase spectra between the daily and referenced NCFs, and mea-  
 115 sures time shifts in unwrapped phases by solving a linear regression problem. Figure 2  
 116 shows an example of the measured time shifts ( $\delta t$ ) between the daily and reference NCFs  
 117 for the station pair NM01-NM03. In each daily measurement, the fitted slope, using se-  
 118 lected  $\delta t$ , is considered as the daily time shift ( $\delta t/t$ ) (Figure S1d). If we assume the ve-  
 119 locity perturbation is homogeneous between the two stations, we have the following re-

120 lation:

$$\delta v/v = -\delta t/t \quad . \quad (1)$$

121 This MWCS technique has been proven to perform better than time-domain techniques,  
 122 such as waveform stretching or dynamic warping (Sens-Schönfelder & Wegler, 2006b; Meier  
 123 et al., 2010), since it mitigates possible biases due to amplitude spectra changes from noise  
 124 sources (Clarke et al., 2011; Zhan et al., 2013). More details about the MWCS technique  
 125 and the parameters we use can be found in supplementary Text S1 and Table S1, and  
 126 Figure S1 shows an example of the MWCS workflow.

### 127 **Robustness of the $\delta v/v$ measurements**

128 First, we would like to evaluate the effects of various technical factors during data  
 129 processing and  $\delta v/v$  measurements. We begin by testing different frequency ranges used  
 130 in  $\delta v/v$  measurements (Figure S2). From low to high frequency ranges (0.1-0.5, 0.1-0.8,  
 131 0.3-1 and 0.5-1.2 Hz), the long-term trends of the measured  $\delta v/v$  are generally consis-  
 132 tent with each other. However, the measurements from the higher and lower frequency  
 133 bands include more high frequency noise or have lower sensitivity, which can potentially  
 134 obscure the measured  $\delta v/v$ . Next, we estimate the depth sensitivity kernels to better con-  
 135 strain our tests. Here, we assume that the measured  $\delta v/v$  are primarily scattered (early  
 136 coda arrivals) from the Scholte waves, which are reconstructed as the coherent energy  
 137 in the NCFs (Figures S1a and b). The Scholte waves are typical surface waves that prop-  
 138 agate at the interface between a liquid and an elastic solid medium (Scholte, 1947). The  
 139 sensitivity kernels demonstrate that 0.8 Hz can provide sufficiently high sensitivity to  
 140 the near-seafloor (Figure S3). Therefore, we choose the measurement from the 0.1-0.8  
 141 Hz passband as a balanced compromise between measurement sensitivity and quality.

142 It has been widely recognized that window selection is quite important when we  
 143 measure traveltime differences using MWCS analysis (Zhan et al., 2013; Lecocq et al.,  
 144 2014). Here, we select 80 s windows on both sides of the NCFs by considering different

145 phase velocities (0.8, 1.0, 1.2, 1.5 km/s), which include signals from direct to coda ar-  
 146 rivals within the NCFs. In Figure S4, we observe the high similarity of measured  $\delta v/v$   
 147 by using two early coda wave windows (1.0 and 1.2 km/s). In contrast, the measured  
 148  $\delta v/v$  from direct and later coda wave windows (1.5 and 0.8 km/s) show strange veloc-  
 149 ity changes compared to the former. The window selection directly determines data with  
 150 smaller misfits are used for  $\delta t/t$  fitting, and do not bias the regression further (Figure  
 151 S1d). Therefore, we selected the window using a velocity of 1.0 km/s and a length of 80  
 152 s to achieve reliable  $\delta v/v$  measurements.

153 Here, we further test the spatial distribution of noise source energy by using a Matched  
 154 Field Processing (MFP) algorithm (Bucker, 1976; Igel et al., 2023). We selected a typ-  
 155 ical velocity of 1.4 km/s, which represents the coherent energy arrivals in our observa-  
 156 tions (Figure S4a). We used this velocity to calculate the traveltime differences between  
 157 station pairs and a potential source grid. Next, we back-projected the stacked enveloped  
 158 energy from NCFs into all grids of the source space. We separately calculated the MFP  
 159 power maps for four different days of different seasons (Figure S5). These four represen-  
 160 tative stacked MFP power maps suggest that the dominant localized source energy comes  
 161 from the northwest directions, despite some imaging artifacts due to the limited num-  
 162 ber of stations (Figure S5b). The observed uneven noise source distribution can explain  
 163 the asymmetric causal and acausal NCFs for most station pairs (Figures S4a and S5a).  
 164 The MFP test suggests that the localization of noise source energy is stable, which has  
 165 been proven to satisfy robust  $\delta v/v$  monitoring (Hadziioannou et al., 2009). Thus, we con-  
 166 clude that the measured  $\delta v/v$  is unlikely to be biased by instability in the noise source  
 167 distribution.

## 168 Results

169 The most important feature of the measured  $\delta v/v$  is an anomalous low variation  
 170 (-0.05 %) in February 2014 (Figure 1B), which represents the regional-median value across

171 all station pairs. We also note that the  $\delta v/v$  anomaly varies for different station pairs  
172 (Figure 1A). For instance, the station pair NM01-NM03 has the largest  $\delta v/v$  anomaly  
173 with a value of -0.10 %, which covers a sub-area towards the southeast. Previous stud-  
174 ies have shown that one important factor that drives variations in near-surface velocity  
175 is the change of surface stress/strain fields. Therefore, we collect the regional ocean bot-  
176 tom pressure (OBP) variation from Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment (GRACE)  
177 satellites monitoring (NASA/JPL, 2021). This data measures changes in Earth’s grav-  
178 ity field over space and time. The OBP recordings represent the integrated effect of mean  
179 oceanic and atmospheric mass (NASA/JPL, 2021), and can be used to track variations  
180 in total loading above the seafloor. When comparing the anomalous low  $\delta v/v$  variation,  
181 we observe a similar low OBP anomaly in December, 2013, which occurred 53 days be-  
182 fore the  $\delta v/v$  peak (Figure 1B). Furthermore, we investigate the spatial distribution of  
183 the OBP anomaly on December 16, 2013, which suggests that the anomaly becomes stronger  
184 from the northwest to the southeast direction, perpendicular to the contour lines (Fig-  
185 ure 1A). This distribution of the OBP anomaly generally correlates with the localiza-  
186 tion of  $\delta v/v$  anomalies from different station pairs (Figure 1A). For instance, the south-  
187 eastern station pairs (e.g., NM01-NM03) have larger  $\delta v/v$  anomalies compared to the  
188 northwestern ones (e.g., NM02-NM05, NM02-NM04). We also observe that two station  
189 pairs (NM02-NM01 and NM04-NM01) do not exhibit consistent low  $\delta v/v$  anomalies (Fig-  
190 ure 1A). These outliers may be due to different seismic sensitivities resulting from lo-  
191 cal topography, and they do not have a significant effect on the entire area. A possible  
192 formation of the regional OBP anomaly center is discussed further in the “Discussion”  
193 section. Based on the spatiotemporal correlation between these two independent record-  
194 ings, we suggest that the anomalous  $\delta v/v$  variation is likely a response to the low OBP  
195 anomaly.

196 We further analyze the variation in OBP and investigate the original force caus-  
197 ing the anomalous  $\delta v/v$ . The variation in thermohaline (temperature and salinity) plays  
198 a significant role in integrating changes in seawater density, which primarily contribute

199 to the variation in OBP in the oceanic section (Vallis, 2017). To begin, we gather the  
200 vertical distribution of seawater temperature and salinity from the Estimating the Cir-  
201 culation and Climate of the Ocean (ECCO) reanalysis (Fenty & Wang, 2020b), observ-  
202 ing that regional averaged thermohaline changes vary across the sea surface and into the  
203 depths (Figure S6). At the low OBP anomaly, we observe a slight drop in temperature  
204 and an increase in salinity, particularly from hundreds of meters to the ocean bottom  
205 depths. Based on the contours of seawater density as a function of temperature and salin-  
206 ity (LeBlond, 1976), reducing temperature or increasing salinity can increase seawater  
207 density at a given applied pressure. Applying this relationship to our thermohaline ob-  
208 servation, the increasing salinity and decreasing temperature would increase seawater  
209 density, leading to a high integrated pressure anomaly at the ocean bottom. However,  
210 the thermohaline variation contradicts our observation in December 2013. Therefore we  
211 exclude thermohaline variation in the above seawater as the main force inducing this low  
212 near-seafloor  $\delta v/v$  variation.

213 Next, our focus shifts to the changes in mass above sea level. We obtain the daily-  
214 averaged sea level pressure (SLP) variation, which reflects the atmospheric pressure ad-  
215 justed for sea level, from the ECCO reanalysis (Fenty & Wang, 2020a). In Figure 3A,  
216 we can observe a consistently low SLP anomaly in December 2013, along with a corre-  
217 sponding long-term trend in the GRACE-based OBP variation over the two-year period.  
218 In addition, we notice that the SLP variation is approximately three times larger than  
219 the  $\Delta\text{OBP}$ , indicating that the SLP variation is likely strong enough to dominate the  
220 changes in the pressure field through a downward superposition, thus controlling the  $\delta v/v$   
221 variation near the seafloor. Once we identify SLP as a potential driving force, we directly  
222 examine the correlation between SLP and  $\delta v/v$  variations. Figure 3B displays these two  
223 independent time series over the two-year period. To eliminate minor perturbations and  
224 long-term trends and clarify the main phases, we apply a filter in 5 to 15-month range.  
225 In addition to the anomalous low SLP peak in December 2013, there are two additional  
226 low anomalies in January 2012 and July 2013 (blue bars in Figure 3B). Similar to Fig-

227 ure 1B, we observe two more consistent low  $\delta v/v$  anomalies (red bars in Figure 3B), which  
 228 occur with similar time lags (63 and 34 days) after the previous two SLP anomalies. Here,  
 229 we use a cross-wavelet transform to analyze the time-frequency characteristics and the  
 230 correlation between SLP and  $\delta v/v$  variations. This transformation utilizes a wavelet func-  
 231 tion as a bandpass filter to analyze the two target datasets in the wavelet domain (Torrence  
 232 & Compo, 1998). In the cross-wavelet spectrum (Figure 3C), we observe different phase  
 233 lags across the timeline and frequency band, which have been converted into a yearly pe-  
 234 riod. We calculate the average time lag between these two records as 45 ( $\pm 10$ ) days. If  
 235 we shift the  $\delta v/v$  variation by the calculated time lag and compare it with the SLP vari-  
 236 ation (Figure 3B), the consistency between these two records becomes more evident, par-  
 237 ticularly during the two overlapping phases in July and December 2013.

## 238 Discussion

239 We know that the speed of seismic wave in an elastic medium depends on its bulk  
 240 and shear modulus, which can be influenced by the variations in effective pressure (Dvorkin  
 241 et al., 1999). If the medium has high porosity, the effective pressure is equal to the dif-  
 242 ference between pore pressure (water-saturated) and applied confining pressure (Dvorkin  
 243 & Nur, 1996; Saul et al., 2013). This poroelastic mechanism is used to explain changes  
 244 of  $\delta v/v$  in various realistic scenarios, such as hydrologic, glaciostatic, snowstatic and baro-  
 245 metric pressure fields (Lecocq et al., 2017; Mordret et al., 2016; Toyokuni et al., 2018;  
 246 Gradon et al., 2021). Therefore, in our study of the ocean bottom, we propose that the  
 247 anomalous low  $\delta v/v$  variation near the seafloor is likely induced by a low sea level pres-  
 248 sure anomaly in December 2013, which reduces the ocean bottom pressure field through-  
 249 out the seawater column. Here, we attempt to simulate the  $\delta v/v$  variations by invoking  
 250 an analytic solution for pressure-induced displacements and seismic wave speeds (Tsai,  
 251 2011). We follow the basic relation:

$$\delta v/v(t) \propto A(t) \propto \Delta P(t) \approx \Delta OBP(t - \Delta t) \quad , \quad (2)$$

252 where  $A(t)$  represents the amplitude changes of pressure-induced displacements. Here,  
253 we assume that the pore pressure is constant near the seafloor and use the variations in  
254 applied ocean bottom pressure,  $\Delta OBP(t)$ , to approximate the effective pressure,  $\Delta P(t)$ ,  
255 on the seismic field.  $\Delta t$  represents the time lag of  $\delta v/v(t)$  with respect to the applied  
256 pressure, as observed in Figures 1B and 3. We use the peak-to-peak  $\Delta OBP$  value dur-  
257 ing the anomalous period (December 2013) as the maximum effect to approximate the  
258 major phase of the  $\delta v/v$  variation, as observed and measured in Figure 3C. More details  
259 about the poroelastic  $\delta v/v$  simulation can be found in Text S2. All parameters used for  
260 the simulation are either from references or our investigation, and can be found in Ta-  
261 ble S2.

262 The simulated  $\delta v/v$  from the best-fitted poroelastic model is presented in Figure  
263 4. We observe consistent amplitudes and phases with respect to the measured  $\delta v/v$ . In  
264 addition to poroelasticity, previous studies consider temperature as another major fac-  
265 tor that induces  $\delta v/v$  changes through a thermoelastic mechanism (Meier et al., 2010;  
266 Tsai, 2011; Lecocq et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2023). Therefore, we also simulate the ther-  
267 moelastic  $\delta v/v$  variations based on a similar mathematical framework with a substitu-  
268 tion of temperature driving (Text S2). Comparatively, the magnitude of the thermoe-  
269 lastic  $\delta v/v$  is much lower than that from the poroelastic simulation. This weak temperature-  
270 induced velocity change is likely due to the tiny temperature variation observed in deep  
271 seawater (Figure S6). We acknowledge that some parameter selections may involve large  
272 uncertainties, such as searching for the Murnaghan constant and diffusivity of ocean sed-  
273 iments (Figure S7). However, poroelasticity still provides a mathematical framework that  
274 allows us to quantify the correlation between seismic velocity and pressure variation by  
275 using all parameters within reasonable ranges. Therefore, the simulation of  $\delta v/v$  further  
276 supports that the variation in  $\Delta OBP$  is the dominant force inducing the observed  $\delta v/v$   
277 variation near the seafloor.

278 Different from the direct correlation between seismic velocities and barometric pres-  
 279 sures in a desert environment (Gradon et al., 2021), we observed a time lag ( $\Delta t$ ) of  $\delta v/v$   
 280 with respect to the pressure field variations (Figures 1B and 3). This time lag,  $\Delta t$ , can  
 281 be attributed to a top layer of incompetent material, which behaves in a ductile man-  
 282 ner under stress and tends to delay the strain response to the surface field (Ben-Zion &  
 283 Leary, 1986). In the ocean bottom, wind and water transport eroded grids and deposit  
 284 it as sedimentary layers. This layer of ocean sediment is globally distributed and can be  
 285 deformed tectonically, re-deposited or subducted (Straume et al., 2019). Therefore, this  
 286 layer of ocean sediment on top of the seafloor, which has an average thickness of 288 m  
 287 in the study area (Figure S8), likely plays a key role in the lag of  $\delta v/v$  variations. The  
 288 time lag,  $\Delta t$ , in poroelasticity can be quantified as (Tsai, 2011):

$$\Delta t = \frac{z_s}{\sqrt{2\omega\kappa_s}} + \frac{\cot^{-1}\left(\frac{\kappa_{hy}k^2}{\omega}\right)}{2\omega}, \quad (3)$$

289 where  $z_s$  and  $\kappa_s$  represent the thickness and hydraulic diffusivity of the incompetent layer,  
 290 which primarily determine the value of  $\Delta t$ .  $\omega$  and  $k$  are the angular frequency and hor-  
 291 izontal wavenumber, respectively, and  $\kappa_{hy}$  is the hydraulic diffusivity of the upper crust.  
 292 In our best-fitted poroelastic model, we calculated  $\Delta t = 10$  days, which is shorter than  
 293 the observed value of 53 days (Figure 1B). It should be noted that the observed  $\Delta t$  in  
 294 Figure 3C is compared to the sea level instead of the ocean bottom pressure variation,  
 295 and the sea level pressure variations may need time to diffuse through the seawater col-  
 296 umn and then affect the ocean bottom. One possible reason for the inconsistent  $\Delta t$  value  
 297 is the monthly sampling of the GRACE-based OBP datasets, which may miss some short-  
 298 term pressure records. This low sampling rate of the OBP datasets may also bias the  
 299 pressure anomaly that we used in the  $\delta v/v$  simulation. Another possible reason is that  
 300 we calculated  $\Delta t$  by searching for some parameters (Figure S7) with respect to the fil-  
 301 tered periodic  $\delta v/v$  variation (Figure 3B). However, the realistic cycle period is not clear

302 enough due to high-frequency variations and short data records. These discrepancies in  
303 the  $\delta v/v$  simulation may introduce additional uncertainties to the estimation of  $\Delta t$ .

304 Both our observations and physical simulations support the idea that the low anomaly  
305 in  $\delta v/v$  near the seafloor is likely a response to the low OBP anomaly in December 2013,  
306 which is caused by the drop in SLP in the atmosphere. The variations in the oceanic pres-  
307 sure field are widely associated with atmospheric activities (Gill & Niller, 1973; Wun-  
308 sch & Stammer, 1997). Slingo et al. (2014) have noted that during December and Jan-  
309 uary 2013/14, the Asian-Pacific jet stream, characterized by strong westerly winds, ex-  
310 tended into the northwestern Pacific and close to Japan. This jet stream tends to gen-  
311 erate cyclones (local/regional low-pressure centers) on its flank due to its symbiotic re-  
312 lationship with depressions (Slingo et al., 2014). Based on the global wind field map from  
313 the ECCO (Fenty & Wang, 2020a) on December 16, 2013, we can observe that our study  
314 area is located in the strong westerly wind belt in the northern hemisphere (Figure 5A).  
315 On a regional scale, the counterclockwise wind field likely generates a cyclone at the sea  
316 surface, with central weak winds and surrounding strong winds (Figure 5B). This low  
317 SLP anomaly could be further transported by the wind-driven friction forces (i.e., the  
318 Ekman transport) into the deep ocean bottom. A consistent regional OBP field supports  
319 this idea, showing that the pressure anomaly tends to be disaggregated and partially re-  
320 duced after being transported into over 5,500 m depths (Figure 5C). A general anti-correlation  
321 between the long-term trends of SLP and wind speed (Figure S9) suggests that these low  
322 OBP anomalies easily occur in winters when the westerly winds are strong. Therefore,  
323 our ASN measurements likely include more information that reflects atmospheric activ-  
324 ities. We acknowledge that our analysis is mainly based on off-shore ocean basins, while  
325 coastal regions may involve more complex processes that affect  $\delta v/v$  variations due to  
326 interactions between seawater and land. We also observe a notable absence of long-term  
327 deep ocean bottom seismic recordings, which may be attributed to difficulties in deploy-  
328 ing and maintaining stations. Currently, it is still challenging to attain continuous, long-  
329 term monitoring of  $\delta v/v$  for ocean basins. Moreover, it is necessary to confirm the time

330 delay in  $\delta v/v$  responses to pressure changes for certain time-sensitive monitoring. There-  
331 fore, we eagerly anticipate following improvements in this ocean seismic sensing.

## 332 **Conclusion**

333 We collect two-year recordings of ambient seismic noise from five ocean bottom seis-  
334 mometers in the northwestern Pacific Ocean basin. Coda wave interferometry is used  
335 to measure the variation in near-seafloor relative velocity ( $\delta v/v$ ). The time series of mea-  
336 sured  $\delta v/v$  includes a low-velocity variation, which likely corresponds to a low ocean bot-  
337 tom pressure anomaly in December 2013. We then successfully apply a poroelastic mech-  
338 anism to explain how the variations in the pressure field induce the observed  $\delta v/v$ . How-  
339 ever, we argue that the  $\delta v/v$  is not always primarily influenced by the pressure field, es-  
340 pecially in coastal or tectonically active ocean regions. Furthermore, we propose that the  
341 observed low-pressure variation may originate from the atmospheric wind field, estab-  
342 lishing a potential connection between seismic measurements and remote atmospheric  
343 activities. Our study offers a new perspective on utilizing seismic remote sensing to mon-  
344 itor changes in ocean bottom basins. In the future, we anticipate that the  $\delta v/v$  technique  
345 can serve as an effective tool for ocean monitoring through widespread station distribu-  
346 tion and long-term deployment.

## 347 **Data Availability Statement**

348 Continuous ocean bottom seismic recordings are collected from the NOMan Project,  
349 operated by The University of Tokyo (Matsuno et al., 2017), and can be downloaded from  
350 <http://ohpdmc.eri.u-tokyo.ac.jp/>. Seismic interferometry and  $\delta v/v$  measurements  
351 are performed using the MSNoise package (Lecocq et al., 2014). GRACE-based ocean  
352 bottom pressure and ECCO-based sea level pressure, sea surface wind speed, seawater  
353 temperature and salinity are released by the Physical Oceanography Distributed Active  
354 Archive Center (PODAAC) (NASA/JPL, 2021; Fenty & Wang, 2020a, 2020b), which can  
355 be downloaded from <https://podaac.jpl.nasa.gov/cloud-datasets>. All figures are

356 plotted using the Generic Mapping Tools (GMT) 6.2.0 and Matplotlib 3.3.0 (Wessel et  
357 al., 2019; Hunter, 2007).

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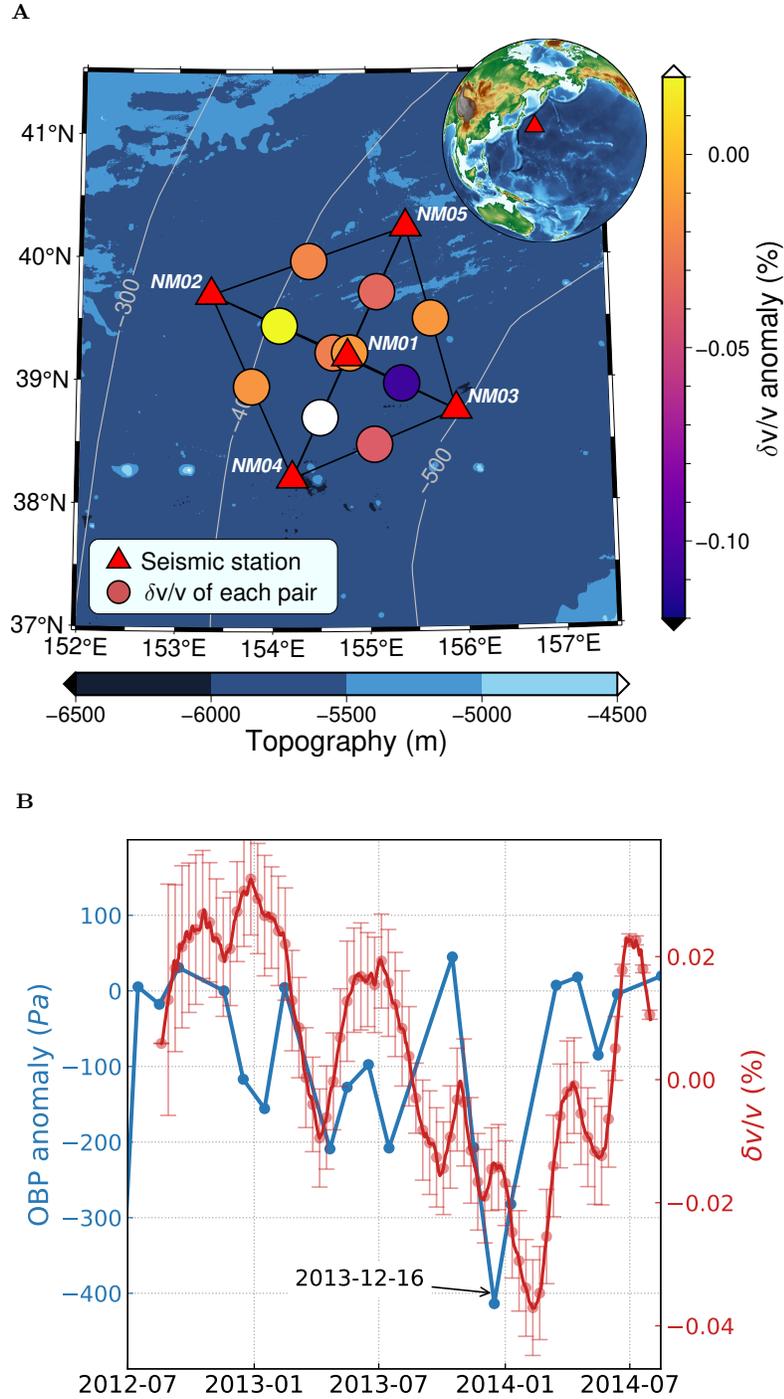


Figure 1: Spatiotemporal distribution of anomalous seismic velocity ( $\delta v/v$ ) and ocean bottom pressure (OBP). Panel (A) displays the measured  $\delta v/v$  anomaly for each station pair. The circle at the mid-point of each pair is color-coded based on the  $\delta v/v$  anomaly in February 2014. Gray contour lines represent the OBP anomalies (in Pascal) on December 16, 2013, with respect to November 2012. Panel (B) illustrates the temporal evolution of the variations in  $\delta v/v$  and the OBP anomaly within the study area. The OBP records are sampled on a monthly basis, and the  $\delta v/v$  time series is smoothed using a 30-day running mean.

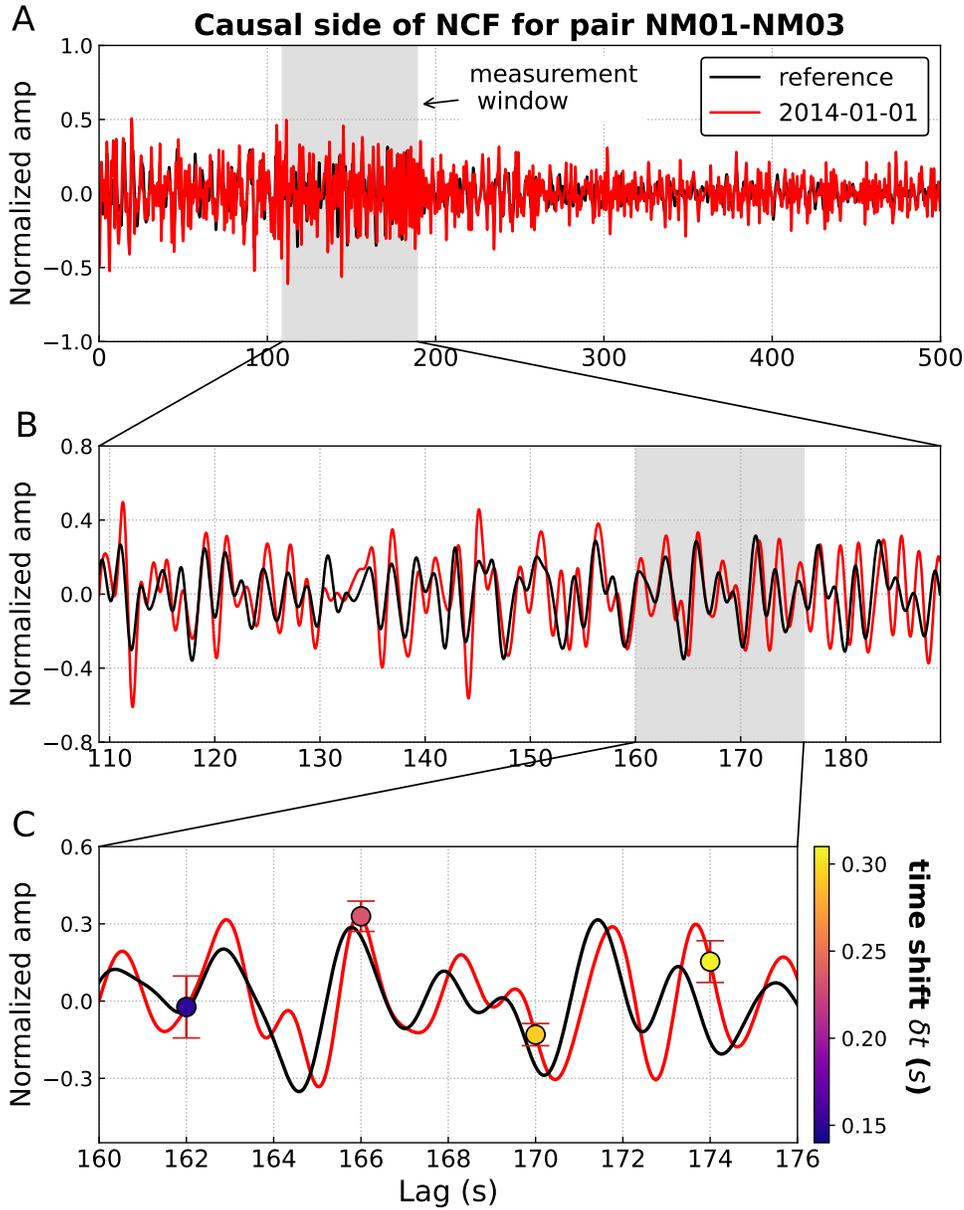


Figure 2: An example illustrating the shift in traveltime between a daily measurement taken on 2014-01-01 and the reference NCFs for the station pair NM01-NM03. Panel (A) displays the causal sides of these two NCFs. The gray shade represents the measurement window defined by a phase velocity of 1.0 km/s and a window length of 80 s. Panel (B) provides close-up views for the measurement window in (A). Panel (C) provides close-up views of a typical window in (B). Time shifts ( $\delta t$ ), represented by colored circles, are shown at four steps in the daily NCF. These  $\delta t$  values are measured in the Fourier domain by using MWCS analysis. The error bars indicate double measurement misfits.

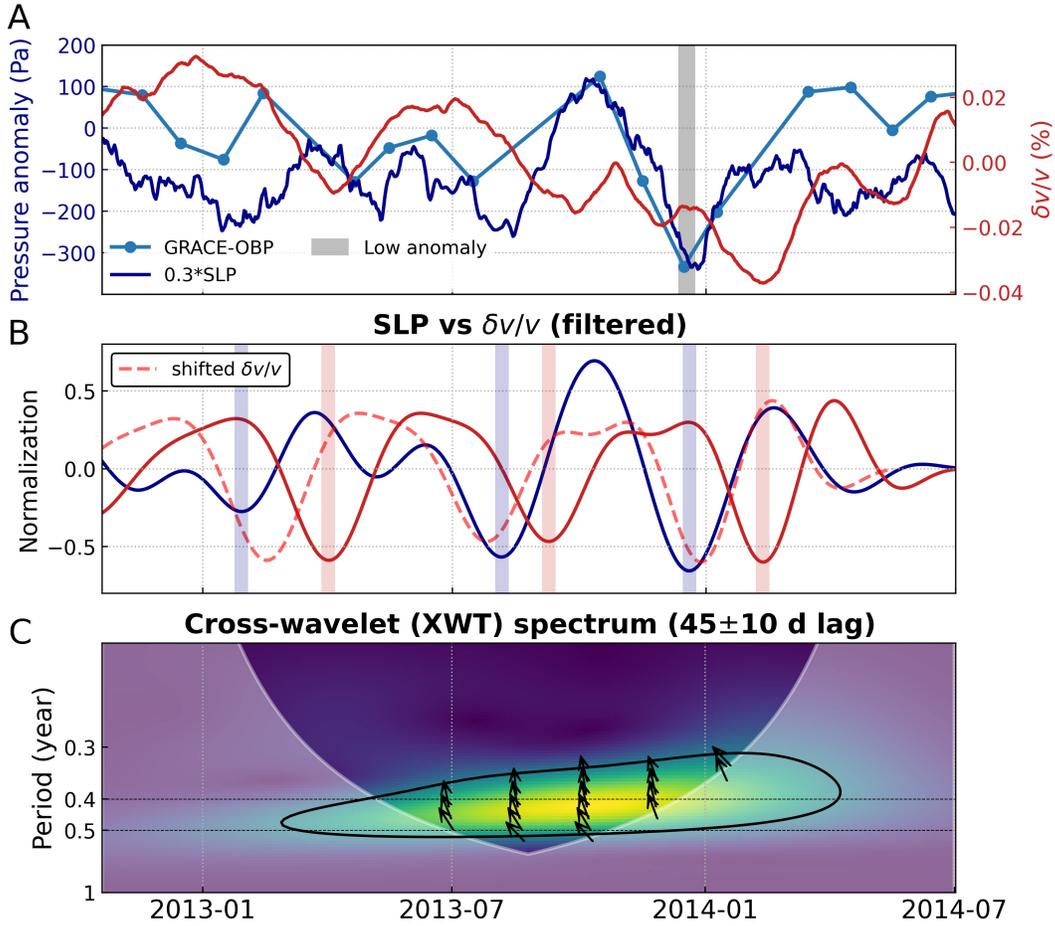


Figure 3: Correlation between the variations in relative seismic velocity and pressure field. Panel (A) compares the time series of ocean bottom pressure (OBP, in dotted cyan), sea level pressure (SLP, in dark blue) and  $\delta v/v$  (in red). The gray bar denotes the low-pressure anomaly in December 2013. Panel (B) compares the major phases of SLP (in dark blue) and  $\delta v/v$  (in red). Both datasets are normalized and filtered in 5 to 15 months. We use blue and red bars to denote their low anomalies. The dashed red curve is the shifted  $\delta v/v$  with the measured lag in Panel (C). Panel (C) presents the cross-wavelet spectrum between SLP and  $\delta v/v$ . The white shade represents the influential edge effects, and the black contour represents a 98% confidence level. Arrows denote local phase angles with periods in vertical axis. The measured  $\delta v/v$  time lag ( $45 \pm 10$  days) is averaged over selected phases in the spectrum.

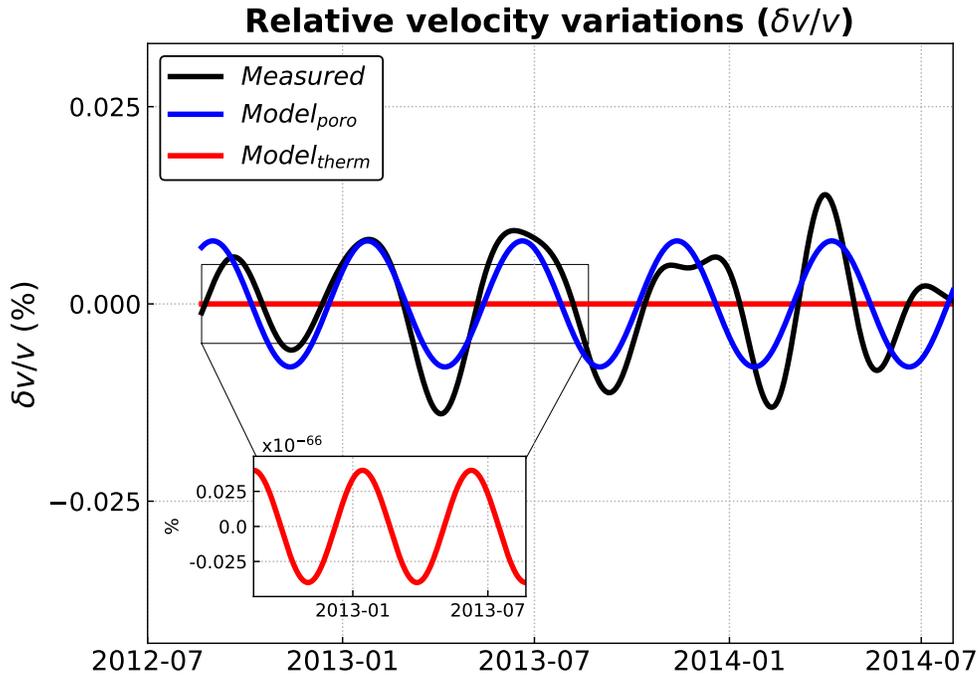


Figure 4: Simulations of the near-seafloor relative seismic velocity variation. The black curve represents the filtered measured  $\delta v/v$ , which is the same as the one shown in Figure 3B. We present the simulated  $\delta v/v$  from the best fit poroelastic (in blue) and thermoelastic (in red) models. The inset panel provides a close-up view of the simulated thermoelastic  $\delta v/v$  in the boxed segment. It is important to note the relatively small amplitudes in comparison to the other two from the poroelastic simulation and measurement.

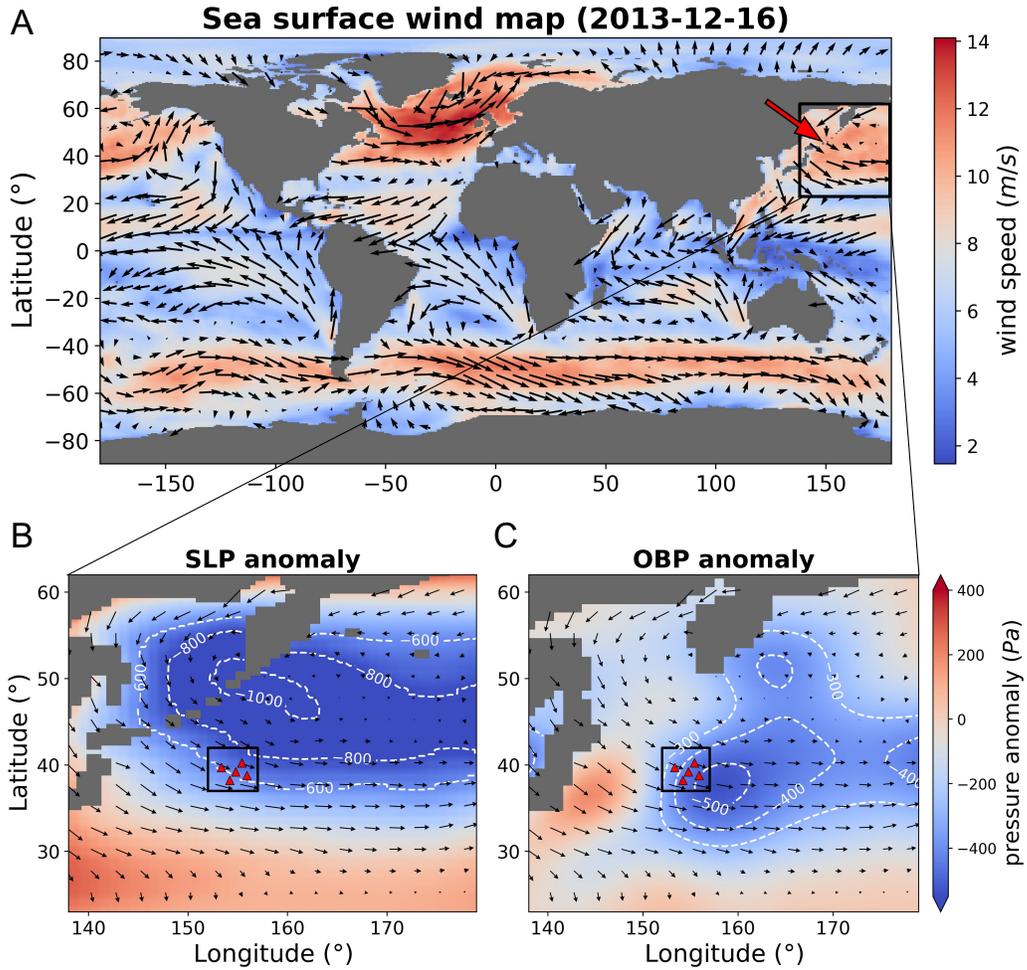


Figure 5: Correlation between the variations in the regional wind and pressure fields. Panel A displays the global distribution of the sea surface wind speed on December 16, 2013. The black arrows correspond to the wind vectors that are associated with the background colors. The bold red arrow and black box indicates our study area. The gray area represents land. Panels B and C illustrate the regional variations in sea level (SLP) and ocean bottom (OBP) fields, respectively, which are associated with the wind vectors shown in the black box in Panel A. Please note the symbiosis between low pressure centers and the likely cyclone.