

# 1 Highlights

## 2 **SpecFWAT: Specfem3D-based Full-waveform Adjoint Tomography Package for High-resolution** 3 **Lithospheric Imaging**

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- 5 • SpecFWAT is an open-source, high-performance package for lithospheric-scale full-waveform adjoint tomogra-  
6 phy using multiple datasets.
- 7 • GPU-accelerated solvers for PDE-based smoothing and iterative deconvolution achieve significant speedups.
- 8 • Implementation of the cross-convolution misfit function significantly mitigates source-time function uncertain-  
9 ties in teleseismic imaging.
- 10 • Receiver function adjoint tomography accurately recovers sharp crustal velocity gradients and complex interface  
11 geometries.
- 12 • A weighted non-dimensionalized summation strategy effectively balances diverse observables in joint full-waveform  
13 adjoint tomography.

# SpecFWAT: Specfem3D-based Full-waveform Adjoint Tomography Package for High-resolution Lithospheric Imaging

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## ABSTRACT

We present SpecFWAT, a high-performance, open-source software package designed for full-waveform adjoint tomography at the lithospheric scale using multiple data types. Building upon the spectral-element forward solver SPECFEM3D, SpecFWAT introduces a modernized inversion framework featuring an object-oriented Fortran design and a CMake-based build environment. To enhance usability and computational efficiency, the package also integrates a Python-based graphical user interface for interactive data quality control, provides a library of diverse built-in misfit functions, and implements GPU-accelerated utilities for deconvolution and kernel smoothing. Supported by these features, the software facilitates the choice of different individual inversion schemes, including ambient noise, teleseismic waveform inversion, and receiver-function-based teleseismic adjoint tomography. Notably, it incorporates a cross-convolution misfit to mitigate source-time function uncertainties in teleseismic imaging, as well as a receiver-function-based misfit to improve crustal resolution. To further resolve multi-scale lithospheric structures, SpecFWAT offers a flexible joint inversion framework based on a weighted non-dimensionalized gradient summation strategy. A real-world application to the Hangay Dome in Central Mongolia demonstrates the software's efficacy in resolving complex magmatic systems by combining the vertical resolution of teleseismic waveforms with the lateral resolution of ambient noise data. As a scalable and extensible platform, SpecFWAT provides a unified solution for advancing high-resolution lithospheric imaging in diverse tectonic regimes.

## CRedit authorship contribution statement

**Mijian Xu:** Software, Methodology, Formal analysis, Investigation, Writing - Original Draft . **Kai Wang:** Software, Methodology, Writing - Review & Editing. **Nanqiao Du:** Methodology, Software. **Tianshi Liu:** Methodology, Software. **Bin He:** Formal analysis, Writing - Review & Editing. **Ting Lei:** Formal analysis, Writing - Review & Editing. **Jing He:** Writing - Review & Editing. **Ping Tong:** Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Writing - Review & Editing. **Qinya Liu:** Conceptualization, Supervision, Funding acquisition, Writing - Review & Editing.

## 1. Introduction

In the past two decades, the development of full-waveform inversion (FWI, also referred to as full-waveform adjoint tomography or FWAT) has significantly advanced quantitative imaging of the Earth's interior (Tromp, 2019; Fichtner

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et al., 2024). By iteratively minimizing the misfit between observed and synthetic waveforms, FWI enables the recovery of detailed seismic velocity structures at multiple spatial scales (e.g., Lei et al., 2020; Tape et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2016; Zhu et al., 2015). With the increase of computational resources and improvements of dense instrumentation, FWI has become a feasible approach for lithospheric-scale imaging. However, conventional FWI applications have primarily relied on regional earthquake data, where limited ray coverage, source uncertainties and uneven source–receiver geometry often restrict spatial resolution, especially in regions with sparse seismicity and complex tectonic settings.

Recent developments have extended the FWI framework to incorporate multiple seismic observations, which provide complementary sensitivity to structures at different depths and scales. Surface waves reconstructed from ambient seismic noise offer complementary path coverage to local earthquakes, improving lateral resolution in the lithosphere (Chen et al., 2014; Sager et al., 2018, 2020; Wang et al., 2018, 2025), although how well the empirical Greens function (EGF) matches with the true Greens function is still being debated (Tromp et al., 2010; Fichtner, 2015). In contrast, teleseismic P-coda waves and scattered phases are more sensitive to velocity gradients and fine-scale heterogeneities, providing stronger vertical resolution (Monteiller et al., 2015; Beller et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2016, 2021a). receiver function (RF), derived from teleseismic waveforms through deconvolution, emphasize converted phases at higher frequencies and thus improve the vertical resolution of lithospheric imaging (Xu et al., 2023, 2025). The joint utilization of these datasets within a consistent adjoint tomography framework exploits their complementary sensitivities, leading to improved model accuracy and stability of the recovered lithospheric models (He et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2021b; Xu et al., 2025). Nevertheless, practical implementation of such combined inversions remains challenging because it requires efficient numerical solvers, flexible parallelization strategies, and automated workflows that can manage diverse data types and computational demands.

To address the need for high-fidelity numerical wavefield simulation, the spectral-element method (SEM) has become a leading approach. By combining the geometric flexibility of finite-element methods with the rapid convergence of spectral methods, SEM can naturally and accurately accommodate complex surface topographies, solid-fluid interfaces, and strong 3D structural heterogeneities (Komatitsch and Vilotte, 1998; Komatitsch and Tromp, 1999). Powered by open-source packages, such as SPECFEM3D and Salvus (Komatitsch and Vilotte, 1998; Afanasiev et al., 2019), SEM has been incorporated in existing earthquake FWI frameworks such as SeisFlows and LASIF (Modrak et al., 2018; Krischer et al., 2015). These tools have been successfully applied to seismic imaging across scales, ranging from global and continental models to regional and local studies (e.g., Gao et al., 2021; Lei et al., 2020; Chow et al., 2022; Rodgers et al., 2022; Van Herwaarden et al., 2023). However, they primarily rely on complex Python scripting to orchestrate the workflow. In high-performance computing (HPC) environments, managing and debugging these multi-layered scripts, alongside handling the I/O overhead between separated solvers and post-processing tools, is often cumbersome. Furthermore, lacking support for teleseismic-based and joint full-waveform inversion, these tools

offer limited resolution in the lithospheric scale.

To bridge this gap, we present SpecFWAT, a high-performance, open-source software package (released under the GPLv3 license) explicitly designed for FWI at the lithospheric scale using multiple data types, including local earthquakes, ambient noise, teleseismic body waves, and receiver functions. SpecFWAT builds directly upon the open-source solver SPECFEM3D (Komatitsch and Vilotte, 1998), inheriting its numerical accuracy and scalability for forward simulation and kernel computation, while introducing a modernized, tightly integrated framework for the inversion process. The software automates the iterative minimization of the misfit between observed and synthetic waveforms: in each iteration, a forward simulation generates synthetic data to compute residuals, which are then back-propagated in an adjoint simulation to construct the raw sensitivity kernel (Tromp et al., 2005; Fichtner et al., 2006). This kernel is subsequently regularized (e.g., Gaussian smoothed) to obtain the gradient (Tape et al., 2010), guiding a line search optimization algorithm to determine the optimal step length for model updates (Zhu et al., 2015). By integrating these procedures, SpecFWAT aims to build a unified and extensible framework for FWI, enabling researchers to efficiently explore the multi-scale structures of the lithosphere in diverse tectonic regimes, including continental rifts, volcanic regions, subduction zones, and orogenic belts.

## 2. Code Features

### 2.1. Overview

SpecFWAT is written in modern Fortran, using an object-oriented programming design with a CMake-based build environment, which improves modularity, maintainability, and extensibility. All model and gradient vectors are stored in the HDF5 format, while user configurations are defined through human-readable YAML files for clarity. It supports both Graphics Processing Units (GPU) and CPU parallelization in wavefield simulations, measurements of adjoint source, and regularization of misfit kernel, which allow efficient deployment from local workstations to high-performance computing clusters. In addition, SpecFWAT is complemented by an optional Python module, PyFWAT, which provides tools for data preprocessing, event selection, and quality control through a graphical user interface (GUI), as well as utilities for model visualization and analysis. Comprehensive online documentation for SpecFWAT is provided to support installation, configuration, and demonstrate workflows.

SpecFWAT streamlines the iterative process of FWI into four distinct computational stages (Figure 1). Each stage is managed by a dedicated high-performance executable, allowing the entire inversion loop to be controlled by a concise shell script. A representative workflow for  $n$  iterations is illustrated in Algorithm (1).

The workflow begins with `xfwat_mesh_databases`, which projects velocity and density models from input regular grids onto the Gauss-Lobatto-Legendre (GLL) points of hexahedral elements in the mesh required by the SEM. The core computational workload is handled by `xfwat_fwd_measure_adj`, which provides flexible execution strategies

**Algorithm 1** Workflow of SpecFWAT

---

```

for iteration = 0 ... n do
  1. Assigning model parameters to spectral-element mesh (xfwat_mesh_databases);
  2. Forward and adjoint simulations (xfwat_fwd_measure_adj);
  3. Sum, pre-conditioning, and smoothing of misfit kernel (xfwat_post_proc);
  4. Line search and optimization (xfwat_optimize);
end for

```

---

120 tailored for HPC environments. In its serial mode, the executable employs an internal Fortran-based loop to sequen-  
 121 tially conduct forward simulation, adjoint source construction, and kernel simulation for multiple events. Incorporating  
 122 these coupled tasks into a single executable avoids the instability of complex external scripting and offers excellent  
 123 fault tolerance, enabling users to seamlessly restart from the point of failure if a cluster job times out. Alternatively, for  
 124 large-scale inversions, SpecFWAT retains the flexibility of existing tools like Seisflows and LASIF by fully support-  
 125 ing array jobs. This allows users to distribute individual earthquake events across multiple compute nodes, achieving  
 126 massive task-level parallelism.

127 Following the kernel calculation, `xfwat_post_proc` performs kernel summation, preconditioning, and smoothing  
 128 to preparing the gradients for model updating. Finally, `xfwat_optimize` updates model parameters using standard  
 129 optimization algorithms (e.g., steepest descent (SD), nonlinear conjugate gradient (NLCG), and limited-memory Broy-  
 130 den–Fletcher–Goldfarb–Shanno (L-BFGS)) combined with a line search based on the Armijo condition (Nocedal and  
 131 Wright, 2006). Additionally, each executable produces standardized outputs and time-stamped log files. This design  
 132 ensures complete traceability of the computational process, allowing users to focus on model configuration rather than  
 133 script maintenance. Ultimately, by automating and streamlining iterative workflow, the SpecFWAT enables users to  
 134 focus on constructing the initial model, ensuring data quality, and fine-tuning inversion configurations.

## 135 2.2. Data Preparation

136 SpecFWAT establishes an integrated inversion framework compatible with the use of local earthquake waveforms,  
 137 ambient noise EGFs, and teleseismic waveforms. To initialize the solver, users are required to provide specific source  
 138 parameter files corresponding to the data type: moment-tensor solutions for local earthquakes, point-force solutions  
 139 for ambient noise virtual sources, and plane wave parameters (defined by back-azimuth and incidence angles) for  
 140 teleseismic events. For waveform preparation, both local earthquake and teleseismic data must be pre-processed to  
 141 remove linear trends, mean values, and instrument responses, whereas ambient noise data are processed following  
 142 standard practices in ambient noise tomography (Bensen et al., 2007).

143 To streamline quality control across these diverse datasets, a utility module, PyFWAT, offers an interactive GUI  
 144 built upon PyQt and Matplotlib (Figure 2). For teleseismic data specifically, this interface facilitates waveform vi-  
 145 sualization and alignment using either P-wave arrival times predicted by the TauP toolkit (Crotwell et al., 1999) or

146 multi-channel cross-correlation (MCCC) (VanDecar and Crosson, 1990). The aligned P-wave arrival time will be used  
147 to associate with predicted teleseismic FK traveltimes for adjoint source measurements (Wang et al., 2021a). Across all  
148 data types, the GUI facilitates visual inspection and efficient rejection of low-quality traces via simple mouse clicks,  
149 ensuring that only reliable data are utilized in the subsequent inversion.

### 150 2.3. Window Selection

151 Following data preparation and quality control, a flexible scheme for time windowing of waveforms is critical  
152 for extracting seismic phases for kernel computation. To accommodate diverse imaging targets, SpecFWAT imple-  
153 ments four distinct window selection strategies. For local earthquake tomography, the package integrates two estab-  
154 lished automated algorithms: the windowing method employed in the LASIF package (Krischer et al., 2015) and a  
155 re-implementation of the Flexwin package (Maggi et al., 2009). Alternatively, for scenarios targeting specific local  
156 or teleseismic body-wave phases (Beller et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2023), windows can be explicitly defined by a fixed  
157 time interval centered around reference arrival times. Furthermore, to extract multi-period dispersive surface waves  
158 in both ambient noise EGFs and local earthquake waveforms, the software implements a dynamic windowing strategy  
159 based on reference group velocities in which time windows are adaptively defined by the travel times corresponding  
160 to specific group velocity ranges for different period bands (Wang et al., 2018).

### 161 2.4. Adjoint Sources

162 In the adjoint tomography framework, sensitivity kernels are computed by interaction between forward and ad-  
163 joint wavefield. The adjoint wavefield is generated by placing time-reversed adjoint sources at the receiver locations.  
164 The adjoint source corresponds to the derivative of the objective function with respect to the synthetic displacement  
165 (Tromp et al., 2005; Fichtner et al., 2006). In SpecFWAT, the implementation of adjoint source construction follows  
166 the `measure_adj` module in SPEC-FEM3D, but is fully restructured in modern Fortran with an object-oriented and  
167 modular design. In addition to the objective functions inherited from `measure_adj`, SpecFWAT introduces new ob-  
168 jective functions proposed by recent studies to enhance flexibility and robustness (Gao et al., 2023). These built-in  
169 objective functions include multitaper-based cross-correlation traveltimes and amplitude measurements (Tape et al.,  
170 2010), waveform  $L_2$  norm misfit, exponentiated phase misfit (Yuan et al., 2020), cross-correlation coefficient (Tao  
171 et al., 2018), receiver function based misfit (Xu et al., 2023), and cross-convolution misfit of teleseismic waveforms  
172 (Xu et al., 2024). The modular code structure further allows additional misfit functions to be easily incorporated.

173 Moreover, calculation of both teleseismic and receiver function adjoint source involving time-domain iterative de-  
174 convolution (Ligorría and Ammon, 1999) are implemented with GPU parallel support. The deconvolution module is  
175 implemented using custom CUDA kernels, featuring memory-optimized element-wise operations and asynchronous  
176 CPU-GPU execution to reduce communication overhead during iterative updates. This design follows a hybrid work-

177 flow in which highly parallelizable vector operations are offloaded to the GPU, while convergence control remains on  
 178 the CPU. For a receiver function calculation with 13,000 samples, the GPU implementation requires only 0.66 s for  
 179 400 iterations on NVIDIA H100 GPU, achieving a 10.5× speedup compared with the CPU version (Figure 3). These  
 180 CUDA-based optimizations enable efficient deconvolution performance for the source time function (STF), receiver  
 181 function and related adjoint source calculation.

## 182 2.5. Post-processing of Misfit Kernel

183 During each iteration in the adjoint tomography, the sensitivity kernels from individual events are summarized for  
 184 a subsequent regularization with a Gaussian smoothing. To improve the efficiency of the smoothing, we employ the  
 185 PDE smoothing technique used in image processing (Weickert, 1998) and recently in full-waveform inversions (Liu,  
 186 2024). The Gaussian smoothing is considered equivalent to solving the following anisotropic diffusion equation

$$\frac{\partial u(\mathbf{x}, t)}{\partial t} = \nabla \cdot (\mathbf{D} \cdot \nabla u(\mathbf{x}, t)), \quad (1)$$

187 where  $u(\mathbf{x}, t)$  represents the kernel field at pseudo-time  $t$ , with the initial condition  $u(\mathbf{x}, 0) = K(\mathbf{x})$  being the raw  
 188 sensitivity kernel computed from adjoint simulations. The  $D$  is the diffusion tensor, which allows for anisotropic  
 189 smoothing lengths. The smoothing operation is controlled by the Gaussian width  $\sigma_h$  in the horizontal direction and  $\sigma_v$   
 190 in the vertical direction. The total integration time  $T$  relates to the Gaussian width via  $\max(\sigma_h, \sigma_v) = \sqrt{2DT}$ .

191 We numerically solve Eq. (1) in the spectral element domain to ensure that the mesh discretization of smoothed  
 192 kernels remains consistent with that used in the forward and adjoint simulations. We derive the weak formulation by  
 193 multiplying Eq. (1) with a test function  $w(\mathbf{x})$  and integrating over the model domain  $\Omega$ . By applying Green's first  
 194 identity and assuming homogeneous Neumann boundary conditions ( $\nabla u \cdot \mathbf{n} = 0$  on  $\partial\Omega$ , which implies no energy flow  
 195 across boundaries), the variational form can be expressed as:

$$\int_{\Omega} w \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} d\mathbf{x} = - \int_{\Omega} \nabla w \cdot (\mathbf{D} \cdot \nabla u) d\mathbf{x}. \quad (2)$$

196 We then discretize the continuous field  $u(\mathbf{x}, t)$  using a linear combination of Lagrange basis functions  $\psi_j(\mathbf{x})$  defined at  
 197 all the GLL points of the domain:

$$u(\mathbf{x}, t) \approx \sum_{j=1}^N U_j(t) \psi_j(\mathbf{x}), \quad (3)$$

198 where  $N$  is the total number of grid points and  $U_j(t)$  represents the discrete nodal values of the kernel field. Following  
 199 the standard Galerkin approach, we choose the test functions to be the same as the basis functions (i.e.,  $w = \psi_i$  for

200  $i = 1, \dots, N$ ). Substituting Eq. (3) into Eq. (2) yields a system of linear equations:

$$\sum_{j=1}^N \left( \int_{\Omega} \psi_i \psi_j d\mathbf{x} \right) \frac{dU_j}{dt} = - \sum_{j=1}^N \left( \int_{\Omega} \nabla \psi_i \cdot (\mathbf{D} \cdot \nabla \psi_j) d\mathbf{x} \right) U_j. \quad (4)$$

201 This system can be written in compact matrix notation as:

$$\mathbf{M} \frac{d\mathbf{U}}{dt} = -\mathbf{K}\mathbf{U}, \quad (5)$$

202 where  $\mathbf{U}$  is the vector of nodal values  $[U_1, \dots, U_N]^T$ . The elements of the mass matrix  $\mathbf{M}$  and the stiffness matrix  $\mathbf{K}$   
 203 are explicitly defined as  $M_{ij} = \int_{\Omega} \psi_i \psi_j d\mathbf{x}$  and  $K_{ij} = \int_{\Omega} \nabla \psi_i \cdot (\mathbf{D} \cdot \nabla \psi_j) d\mathbf{x}$ , respectively. By utilizing GLL quadrature  
 204 for numerical integration, the mass matrix  $\mathbf{M}$  becomes diagonal (lumped mass matrix). This allows for an efficient  
 205 explicit time integration scheme:

$$\mathbf{U}^{n+1} = \mathbf{U}^n - \Delta t \mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{K} \mathbf{U}^n. \quad (6)$$

206 where  $\Delta t$  is the pseudo-time step. The time integration continues until the total simulation time reaches  $T$ , at which  
 207 point the field  $\mathbf{U}$  represents the smoothed sensitivity kernel with the target Gaussian widths.

208 To computationally expedite the iterative smoothing process, we develop a GPU-accelerated solver that leverages  
 209 the massive parallelism of GPU architectures by mapping each spectral element directly to a GPU thread block. The  
 210 implementation utilizes on-chip shared memory to cache nodal values and differentiation matrices, thereby minimizing  
 211 global memory transactions. Furthermore, on multi-GPU clusters, the code employs an efficient parallel strategy  
 212 that performs data exchange between boundaries simultaneously with internal calculations, effectively eliminating  
 213 communication bottlenecks and maximizing overall efficiency. To quantify the performance gains, we benchmarked  
 214 the solver using the mesh of the size of  $136 \times 46 \times 35$  elements. As illustrated in Figure 3, the elapsed time for the  
 215 PDE smoothing on 4 AMD EPYC 9654 CPU cores is 62.16 s. In contrast, the optimized solver on 4 NVIDIA H100  
 216 GPUs completes the same task in merely 0.37 s. This corresponds to a dramatic speedup of 168.8 $\times$ , confirming that  
 217 the GPU implementation effectively resolves the computational bottleneck associated with model regularization.

## 218 3. Synthetic Examples

### 219 3.1. Ambient Noise Adjoint Tomography

220 The ambient noise adjoint tomography module in SpecFWAT follows the implementation of Wang et al. (2018),  
 221 which optimizes the S-wave velocity structure beneath a seismic array by matching the empirical and synthetic Green's  
 222 functions. Because ambient noise interferometry retrieve surface-wave EGFs between station pairs, the resulting ray

223 paths densely sample the region beneath the array. This configuration provides improved lateral resolution and robust  
 224 sensitivity to shallow crustal structure. In SpecFWAT, surface-wave windows of ambient noise cross-correlations are  
 225 automatically selected for different periods based on the approximated group velocity (He et al., 2024; Wang et al.,  
 226 2018). The default misfit function is the frequency-dependent travel-time misfit derived using the multitaper method  
 227 (Zhou et al., 2004; Tape et al., 2010). Several alternative and well-established objective functions are also available  
 228 (see Section 2.4).

229 To demonstrate the workflow, we conduct a synthetic test using a dense array of 49 stations, 24 of which are selected  
 230 as virtual sources evenly distributed along the array edges (Figure 4a). The model domain covers an area of  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$   
 231 with a depth of 32 km. The target model consists of a  $2 \times 2 \times 2$  checkerboard pattern superimposed on a linearly  
 232 increasing background velocity model (Figure 4b – 4d). The inversion successfully recovers the main features of all  
 233 eight checkers (Figure 4e – 4g), though minor artifacts appear due to the limited data coverage. The entire synthetic  
 234 test is performed on a laptop equipped with an AMD 7950HX CPU and an NVIDIA 4060 GPU, requiring 14 iterations  
 235 and a total runtime of approximately 1 hour 1 minute.

### 236 3.2. Teleseismic Full-waveform Adjoint Tomography

237 Teleseismic full-waveform adjoint tomography (Tele-FWAT) utilizes scattered and converted phases in teleseismic  
 238 P coda waves to provide enhanced vertical resolution for crustal and upper-mantle structures compared to ambient  
 239 noise and local earthquake adjoint tomography. Such approach has been widely applied to subduction zones and  
 240 intracontinental orogenic regions (Wang et al., 2016, 2021b; Kan et al., 2023).

241 In SpecFWAT, teleseismic wavefields are simulated using a spectral-element and frequency-wavenumber (SEM–FK)  
 242 hybrid method (Tong et al., 2014a,b; Monteiller et al., 2020), which efficiently solves the wave equation for a plane-  
 243 wave injection into a local 3-D model with a global 1D background model. The misfit function is defined as

$$\chi_{Tele} = \frac{1}{2} \|s_i(t) * W(t) - d_i(t)\|^2 dt, \quad (7)$$

244 where  $s_i(t)$  is the synthetic teleseismic waveform in the  $i$ -th component.  $d_i(t)$  is the observed teleseismic waveform of  
 245 the corresponding component.  $W(t)$  denotes the estimated average source wavelet (i.e., source time function, STF). We  
 246 calculate individual STF at each receiver via time-domain iterative deconvolution of the observed waveforms with the  
 247 synthetics (Ligorria and Ammon, 1999). The final STF is then extracted by applying Principal Component Analysis  
 248 (PCA) to this set of STFs (Wang et al., 2021b).

249 To evaluate the influence of the STF on inversion performance, we design a comparative synthetic test. The model  
 250 domain spans  $1.8^\circ \times 1.0^\circ$  laterally and extends to a depth of 80 km, containing 33 receivers distributed at the surface  
 251 (Figure 5a). 8 teleseismic events are simulated, each with a ray-parameter of 0.06 s/km and azimuths uniformly dis-

252 tributed from  $0^\circ$  to  $360^\circ$  at  $45^\circ$  intervals. Each event is assigned a distinct STF (Figure 5b) to prepare for subsequent  
 253 tests. The target model consists of alternating  $5 \times 3 \times 4$  checkerboard patterns ( $\sim 20$  km for each checker) with 12%  
 254 velocity perturbations, while the initial model includes two homogeneous layers (Figure 5a).

255 In the first test, synthetic data are generated with convolution by a Gaussian impulsive source. The inversion suc-  
 256 cessfully recovered the checkerboard pattern and the magnitude of perturbations across all depths (Figure 6a – 6c).  
 257 In the second test, synthetic data are convolved with STFs before inversion. While the shallow anomalies are well-  
 258 recovered, the deeper features suffered significant distortion in both amplitude and pattern (Figure 6d – 6f). Estimating  
 259 complex STFs is prone to errors because the deconvolution relies on imperfect synthetic Green’s functions derived  
 260 from the reference model. Furthermore, complex STFs inherently act as a low-pass filter that degrades effective res-  
 261 olution. These tests suggest strict selection criteria to retain only events with short half-durations and Gaussian-like  
 262 STF. However, the application of such strict selection criteria may substantially reduce the number of usable events,  
 263 which remains a practical challenge for teleseismic adjoint tomography (Wang et al., 2021b).

### 264 3.3. Teleseismic Cross-convolution Full-waveform Adjoint Tomography

265 The cross-convolution misfit function has been used in seismology to minimize the effect of STF uncertainties. It  
 266 has been successfully applied in estimating shear-wave splitting parameters (Menke and Levin, 2003; Menke, 2017)  
 267 and in 1-D inversion for crustal and uppermost mantle velocity model (Bodin et al., 2013; Li et al., 2019). Motivated  
 268 by these applications and a recent application in the Southern Alaska (Xu et al., 2024), SpecFWAT implements a cross-  
 269 convolution-based objective function for teleseismic waveform inversion to improve its robustness against STF-related  
 270 uncertainties. The misfit function is defined as

$$\chi_{TeleCC} = \frac{1}{2} \|s_R(t) * d_Z(t) - s_Z(t) * d_R(t)\|^2 dt, \quad (8)$$

271 where  $s_R$  and  $s_Z$  denote the synthetic radial and vertical components at each iteration, and  $d_R$  and  $d_Z$  represent  
 272 the corresponding observed teleseismic waveforms. Unlike conventional Tele-FWAT, the cross-convolution approach  
 273 (TeleCC-FWAT) does not require explicit deconvolution to estimate the STF, thereby avoiding the uncertainties asso-  
 274 ciated with that process. To assess the influence of the STF and to compare the cross-convolution approach with the  
 275 conventional Tele-FWAT, we conduct the same checkerboard tests as in the Section 3.2. Figures 7(a) – 7(c) show the  
 276 inversion results for data generated with Gaussian sources. All checkers are successfully recovered, although some  
 277 smearing artifacts appear in the third (40 - 60 km) and fourth layers (60 - 80 km). When the synthetic data are gener-  
 278 ated by convolution with complex STFs, the recovered model shows only minor differences from the impulsive-sources  
 279 case, indicating that the cross-convolution objective function is insensitive to STF complexity.

280 A further comparison shows that for data generated by convolving with complex STFs (Figures 7d – 7f), TeleCC-

281 FWAT yields overall better results than Tele-FWAT (Figure 7d – 7f), particularly at depths of 40–80 km. These results  
282 demonstrate that the cross-convolution formulation provides a stable and reliable alternative when teleseismic sources  
283 have complex or poorly constrained STFs. By contrast, when the STF is simple and nearly Gaussian function, the  
284 conventional Tele-FWAT achieves higher resolution (Figure 6a – 6c). Both objective functions are implemented in  
285 SpecFWAT, allowing users to select the appropriate approach based on source complexity and data quality.

### 286 **3.4. Receiver Function Adjoint Tomography**

287 While the theoretical resolution of FWAT is dictated by the half-wavelength limit, in practice, adjoint tomography  
288 based on teleseismic waveforms (Tele-FWAT or TeleCC-FWAT) often faces challenges in resolving fine-scale crustal  
289 structures. This limitation arises primarily from the spectral complexity of teleseismic STFs, which typically exhibit  
290 cutoff periods greater than 5s (Beller et al., 2018). Consequently, even with dense seismic arrays, the obtainable reso-  
291 lution within the crust remains constrained. To address this issue, receiver functions can be utilized by deconvolving  
292 the vertical component from the radial component of teleseismic records. This process effectively eliminates source  
293 signatures and near-source structural responses, thereby significantly enhancing the dominant frequency of the signal  
294 (e.g., a Gaussian width factor of 1.0 in deconvolution corresponds to a dominant frequency of approximately 0.58 Hz).  
295 Thus, the waveform difference of receiver functions has been adopted as the objective function which was developed  
296 into the receiver function adjoint tomography (RFAT) approach (Xu et al., 2023). This approach is particularly ad-  
297 vantageous for imaging regions characterized by strong lateral heterogeneities in crust and uppermost mantle, such as  
298 continental orogenic belts (Xu et al., 2023) and intraplate volcanic systems (Xu et al., 2025).

299 To demonstrate the capability of RFAT in resolving strong lateral heterogeneity by using the SpecFWAT package  
300 , we conduct a synthetic test with a target model (Figure 8a) constructed based on prior receiver function images of  
301 dense short-period nodal array (Wu et al., 2024), representing the structural deformation features of the Altyn-Tagh  
302 thrust zone. The model exhibits strong lateral heterogeneity in both S-wave velocity (Figure 8c) and its gradient (Figure  
303 8d). Key structural features include thrust of crustal layers between 150 – 300km, as well as significant undulation  
304 and offsets along the Conrad and Moho discontinuities. Additionally, an underthrusting wedge is incorporated near  
305 the Moho offset to simulate the partial eclogitization (Wu et al., 2024).

306 For the RFAT setup, the initial model is generated by smoothing the 1D average of the target velocity model  
307 (Figure 8e). The computational domain is discretized into a mesh of  $136 \times 46 \times 35$  spectral elements to ensure accurate  
308 wavefield simulations with maximum frequency of 1.5 Hz. We utilize synthetic data from a total of 24 teleseismic  
309 events (Figure 8b) to ensure sufficient illumination. The source geometry consists of 8 back-azimuthal directions ( $0^\circ$   
310 to  $360^\circ$  with  $45^\circ$  intervals) combined with 3 distinct ray parameters (0.044, 0.060, and 0.076 s/km). The synthetic  
311 receiver functions are computed with Gaussian factors of 1.0 and 1.5. This event count is comparable to the number

312 of high-quality teleseismic records typically available in practical applications. The data are recorded by a linear array  
313 with a station spacing of 2 km. We performed 11 iterations until the misfit reduction became stable, resulting in the  
314 final model M10 (Figure 8e).

315 To evaluate the computational efficiency, the inversion is conducted on a HPC system equipped with 4 NVIDIA  
316 H100 GPUs. The total elapsed time for the 11 iterations is approximately 6 hours and 8 minutes. Given the comparable  
317 number of sources and elements utilized in practical applications, this test suggests that SpecFWAT achieves excel-  
318 lent computational performance in real-data tomographic inversions. The capability to obtain high-resolution crustal  
319 imaging within a manageable time frame highlights the practical efficiency of the RFAT workflow.

320 The tomographic results demonstrate the superior capability of RFAT in recovering detailed crustal structures.  
321 As shown in the final model M10 (Figure 8f) and its corresponding gradient norm (Figure 8g), the geometry of the  
322 undulations and fault-induced offsets of the Conrad and Moho discontinuities are recovered with remarkable accuracy  
323 compared to the target model. Furthermore, the method successfully retrieves the sharp velocity gradients associated  
324 with the intracrustal thrust structures. The successful recovery of these detailed crustal features validates the efficacy  
325 of using high-frequency receiver function waveforms in adjoint tomography for crustal imaging. However, the strong  
326 velocity contrasts in the shallow crust, specifically the low velocities within sedimentary layers and the high velocities  
327 beneath the orogeny, are not fully recovered. We attribute this limitation to the complex behavior of crustal multiples  
328 (Xu et al., 2023), whose high sensitivity to S-wave velocity structure in the upper crust exacerbates the non-linearity  
329 of the optimization problem.

#### 330 **4. Joint Inversion over Multiple Datasets**

331 While teleseismic data provide excellent vertical resolution and are sensitive to velocity discontinuities down to 100  
332 km depth (Figure 8), their lateral resolution is often constrained by the density of the seismic array. Conversely, ambient  
333 noise surface waves excel at resolving lateral heterogeneities in the shallow crust but lose sensitivity at greater depths.  
334 To overcome the inherent resolution limitations of using a single dataset, Joint Full-waveform Adjoint Tomography  
335 (Joint-FWAT) that integrates teleseismic (e.g., teleseismic waveform or receiver functions) and ambient noise data are  
336 often performed (Wang et al., 2021b; He et al., 2024). This method leverages the complementary sensitivities of the  
337 two datasets and facilitates the construction of high-resolution 3-D velocity models of the lithosphere.

338 In the SpecFWAT, the Joint-FWAT framework is designed as a flexible platform capable of integrating diverse  
339 seismic datasets (e.g., local earthquake, teleseismic waveform, receiver function and ambient noise data) into a unified  
340 inversion scheme. Since different seismic observations utilize distinct misfit functions (e.g., waveform differences,  
341 cross-correlation phase shift, or exponentiated phase misfit), their respective sensitivity kernels possess different phys-  
342 ical units and orders of magnitude. To balance the contributions of different datasets on the gradient, we employ a

343 weighted non-dimensionalized summation strategy to compute the final model update direction (He et al., 2024; Xu  
344 et al., 2025).

345 Assuming the individual misfit gradients for two distinct datasets are computed as  $G_1(\mathbf{m}_n)$  and  $G_2(\mathbf{m}_n)$  at the  $n$ -  
346 th iteration (after necessary pre-conditioning and smoothing), the unified descent direction  $\mathbf{d}(\mathbf{m}_n)$  is constructed by  
347 normalizing each gradient by its respective norm before summation:

$$\mathbf{d}(\mathbf{m}_n) = w_1 \frac{G_1(\mathbf{m}_n)}{\|G_1(\mathbf{m}_0)\|} + w_2 \frac{G_2(\mathbf{m}_n)}{\|G_2(\mathbf{m}_0)\|}, \quad (9)$$

348 where  $\|G(\mathbf{m}_0)\|$  represents normalization factor of the gradient at the initial iteration. This factor can be defined as  
349 either the  $L_\infty$  norm or  $L_2$  norm of the gradient vector. The coefficients  $w_1$  and  $w_2$  represent the relative weights  
350 assigned to each dataset to balance their contributions. Although the amplitude of the gradients naturally diminishes  
351 as the data misfit decreases over iterations, this weighted non-dimensionalized approach is crucial for unbalanced the  
352 decay, thereby ensuring the balanced contribution of all datasets to the optimization direction.

353 To demonstrate the practical utility and robustness of the developed software in processing real-world observa-  
354 tional data, we select the application in Hangay Dome, Central Mongolia as a benchmark example (Figure 9a). In  
355 this experiment, we perform Joint-FWAT using teleseismic cross-convolution and ambient noise EGFs, which aim  
356 to investigate the complex intraplate volcanism in this region. The computational domain, spanning from 95.8°E to  
357 103.8°E and 44.8°N to 49.25°N, is discretized into a mesh of  $112 \times 96 \times 24$  spectral elements. The average element  
358 size of this high-resolution mesh is approximately 5 km, ensuring the accurate wavefield simulation with period up to  
359 2s required for joint inversion.

360 The inversion integrate two distinct datasets to constrain the velocity structure. We adopt the fully processed  
361 dataset of ambient noise (Xu et al., 2025) and newly selected dataset of teleseismic waveforms. The input comprises  
362 28 sources for TeleCC-FWAT and 65 virtual sources derived from ambient noise EGFs (Figure 9a). By employing  
363 the weighted non-dimensionalized summation strategy, the optimization process achieved stable convergence after 14  
364 iterations, with a total elapsed time of approximately 16 hours 14 minutes on 4 NVIDIA H100 GPUs. Specifically,  
365 the normalized data misfit for teleseismic cross-convolution is reduced to 64.5%, while the misfit for ambient noise  
366 data decrease to 32.2%. The result validates the efficacy of the joint inversion algorithm in balancing constraints from  
367 multiple datasets.

368 The resulting 3D S-wave velocity model demonstrates the software's capability to integrate Teleseismic cross-  
369 convolution and ambient noise EGFs to resolve complex heterogeneities. Overall, the velocity structure is highly  
370 consistent with the benchmark results from the receiver function and ambient noise joint inversion (Xu et al., 2025).  
371 The multi-level magmatic system remains clearly identifiable, revealing significant low-velocity zones in the mid-lower

372 crust (3.4–3.6 km/s) beneath the volcanoes (Figure 10a – 10c), interpreted as the crustal magma reservoir (Figure 10d),  
373 as well as distinct low-velocity anomalies in the uppermost mantle (70–100 km) indicating partial melting (Figure 10e  
374 and 10f). However, due to the lower frequency content inherent in the teleseismic waveforms, the effective resolution is  
375 slightly reduced, yielding a comparatively smoother velocity model. Furthermore, while Teleseismic cross-convolution  
376 provides weaker constraints on sharp subsurface interfaces, such as Moho and lithosphere-asthenosphere boundary  
377 (LAB), than receiver functions (Xu et al., 2025). Although the lateral variations of these boundaries appear less  
378 drastic than those constrained by receiver functions, the overarching structural features, such as the crustal thickening  
379 and Moho depression beneath the Orkhon volcano, are still robustly resolved (Figure 10e and 10f). These findings  
380 confirm that SpecFWAT can reliably handle diverse data combinations to recover consistent 3D geological structures.

## 381 **5. Conclusions and Future Works**

382 In this study, we introduce SpecFWAT, a modernized and high-performance open-source framework designed for  
383 full-waveform adjoint tomography at the lithospheric scale. Built upon the spectral-element method and the popu-  
384 lar SPECFEM3D solver, the software employs a modular object-oriented architecture and a streamlined workflow to  
385 enhance reproducibility and user accessibility. A distinguishing feature of SpecFWAT is its robust heterogeneous com-  
386 puting capability. By offloading computationally intensive tasks to GPU accelerators (e.g., forward and adjoint simula-  
387 tions, iterative time-domain deconvolution, and PDE-based model regularization), the software significantly mitigates  
388 the computational burden of high-frequency 3-D wavefield simulations, rendering lithospheric imaging computa-  
389 tionally tractable on moderate-scale hardware clusters.

390 The methodological versatility of SpecFWAT is illustrated by its ability to support various seismic observations and  
391 a robust joint inversion framework that employs weighted, non-dimensional gradient summation. Systematic validation  
392 via synthetic benchmarks and a practical application to the Hangay Dome in Central Mongolia confirm the software's  
393 efficacy in resolving multi-scale lithospheric heterogeneity. By synergizing the vertical constraints of receiver functions  
394 with the lateral sensitivity of ambient noise, the framework successfully reconstructs complex subsurface structures  
395 that remain ill-constrained by single-observable approaches.

396 Future advancements of the SpecFWAT ecosystem will prioritize the integration of anisotropic parameters, specif-  
397 ically incorporating Transverse Isotropy with a Vertical (VTI) and Horizontal (HTI) axis of symmetry, to facilitate  
398 more detailed characterizations of lithospheric deformation and dynamics (Wang et al., 2025). Additionally, recent  
399 studies have demonstrated that station-pair double-difference adjoint tomography can effectively mitigate the influence  
400 of source parameter uncertainties in regional earthquake imaging (Chen et al., 2023; Yuan et al., 2016). Building on  
401 these developments, we plan to incorporate the double-difference misfit function into SpecFWAT, utilizing station-pair  
402 formulations for both travel-time shifts and cross-convolution measurements. Furthermore, we intend to implement

403 full compatibility with the Cube2sph meshing package (Liu et al., 2024), enabling forward and adjoint simulations in  
404 spherical coordinates to support increasingly complex regional-scale models.

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412 community to develop and maintain the open-source Specfem3D\_Cartesian (Komatitsch and Vilotte, 1998; Komatitsch  
413 and Tromp, 1999) (<https://specfem.org>). We also acknowledge the developers of open-source packages yaml-cpp  
414 for sharing their codes.

**Code availability section**

Name of the code/library: SpecFWAT.

License: GNU General Public License v3.0.

Contact: gomijianxu@gmail.com, +1 437-340-6344.

Hardware requirements: PC or HPC

Program language: Fortran, C++, CUDA, Python

Software required: Fortran compiler, C++ compiler, CUDA, MPI compiler, CMake, yaml-cpp, HDF5

Program size: 19.8 MB

The source codes are available for downloading at the link: <https://specfwat.xumijian.me>

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# SpecFWAT

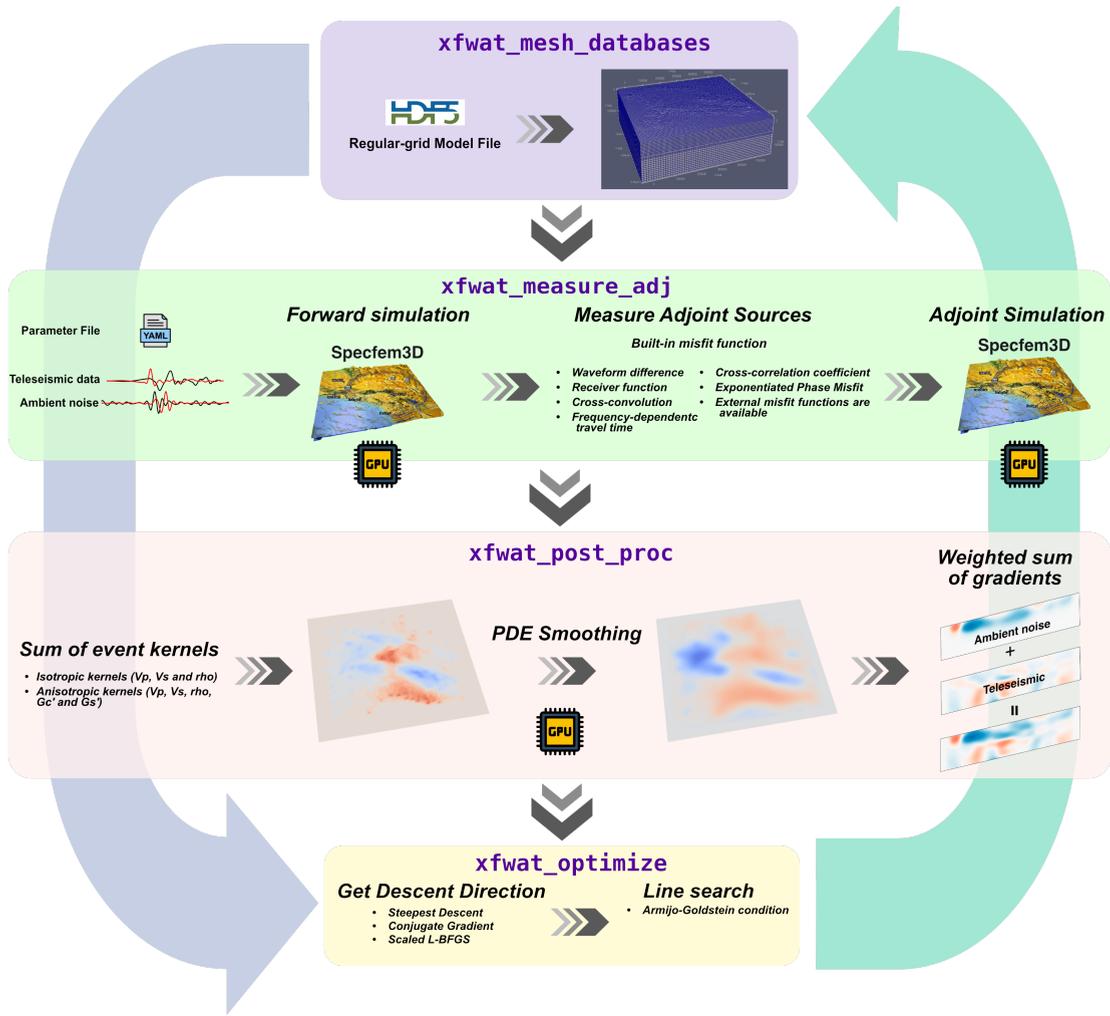
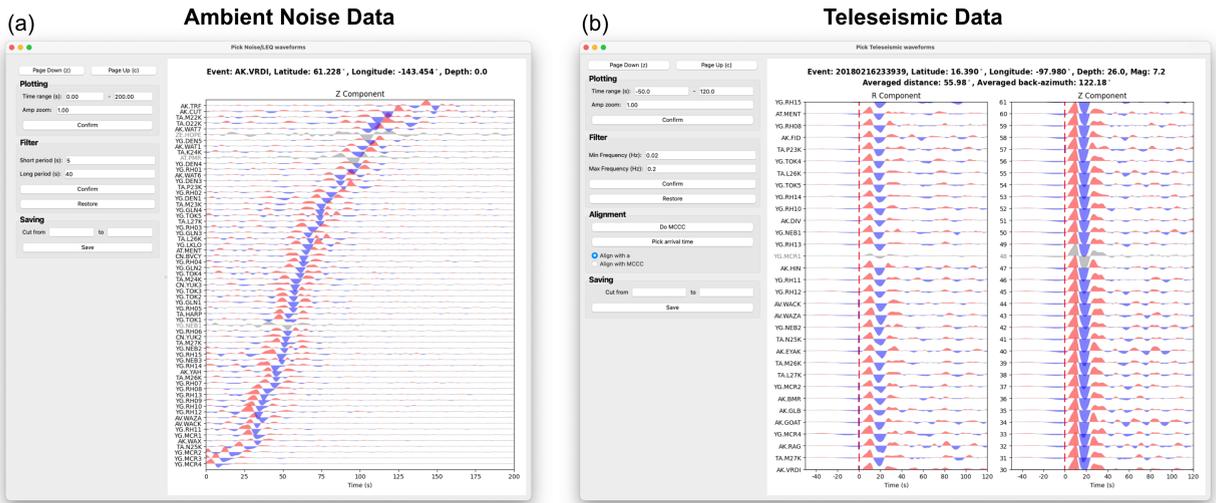
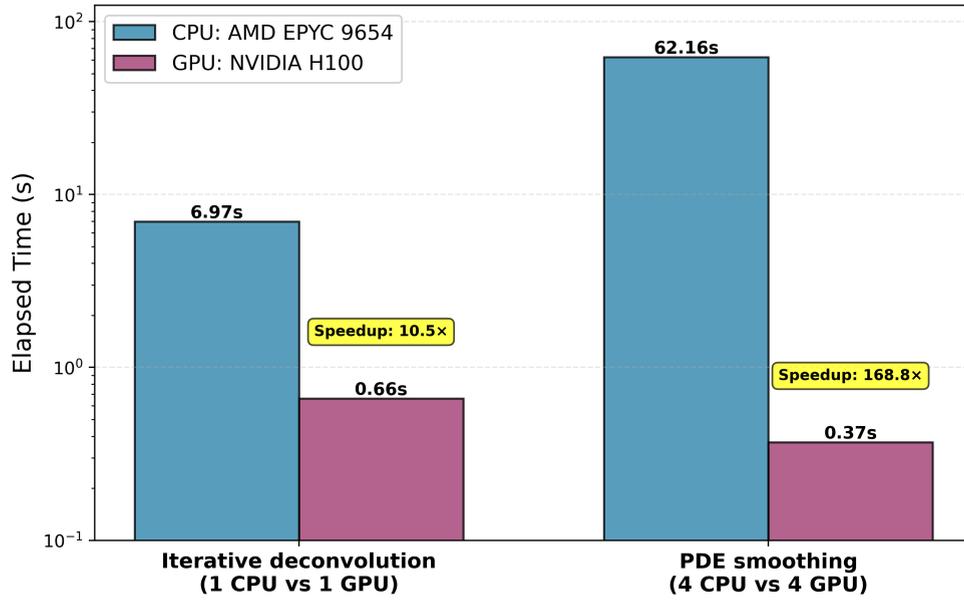


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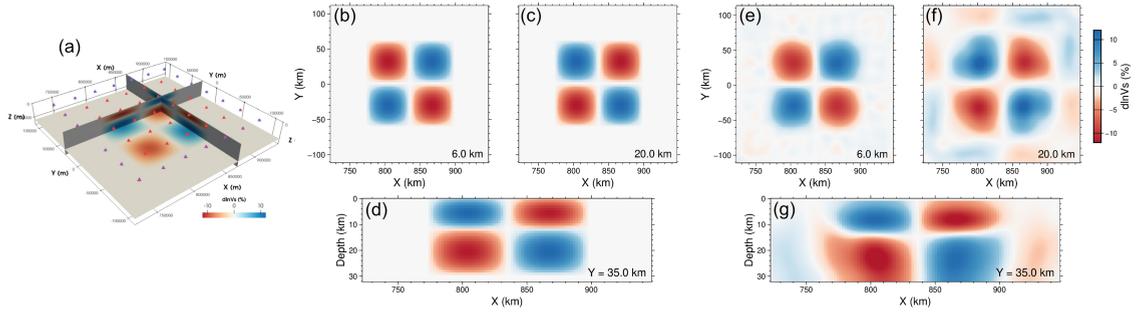


**Figure 2:** (a) The graphic user interface (GUI) designed for conducting quality control on ambient noise data. In the graphic window, the waveforms of each virtual source are displayed, with gray wiggles indicating data earmarked for rejection. The left panel provides control options, including figure adjustment, filtering, and saving functionalities. (b) The GUI for quality control on teleseismic data. Radial and vertical components are shown in the graphic window. Blue bars denote the P arrival times estimated using the Taup toolkit (Crotwell et al., 1999), while red bars represent the P arrival times corrected through the multi-channel cross-correlation method (VanDecar and Crosson, 1990). The "Alignment" group in the left panel provides options for waveform alignment.

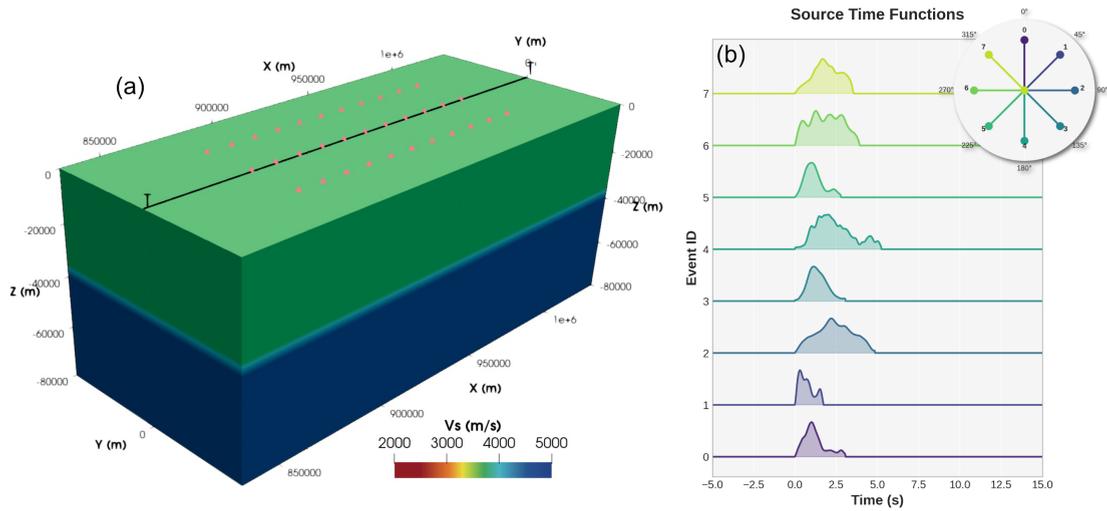


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## SpecFWAT

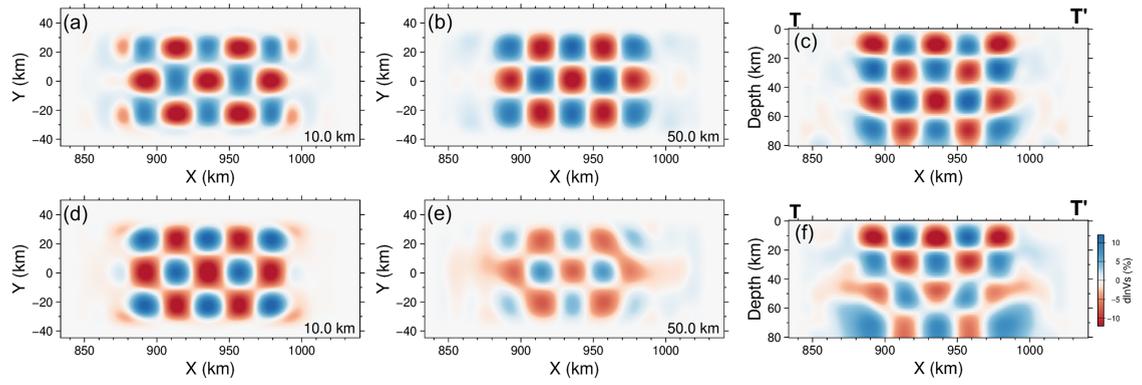


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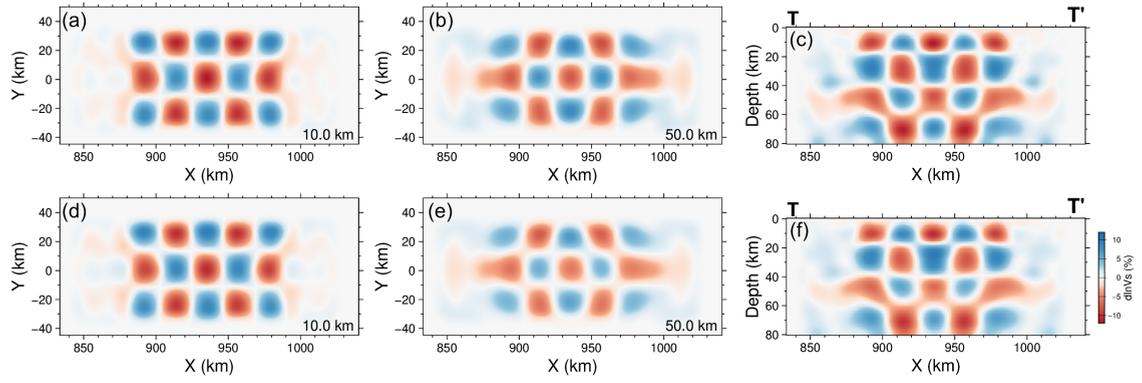
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## SpecFWAT

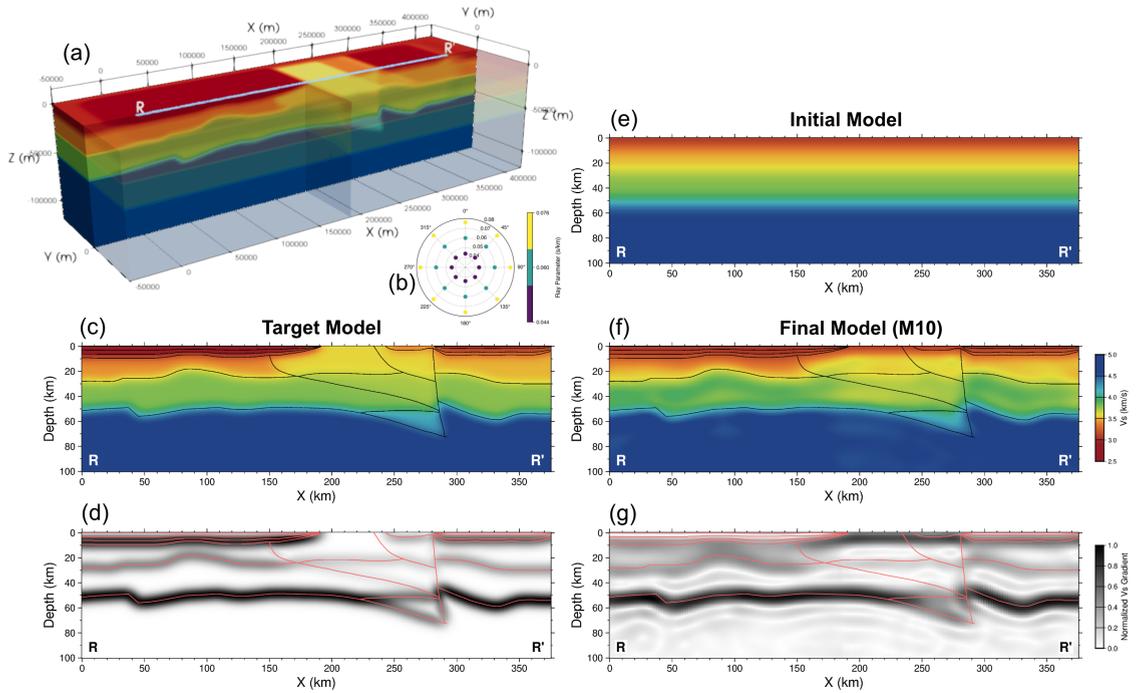


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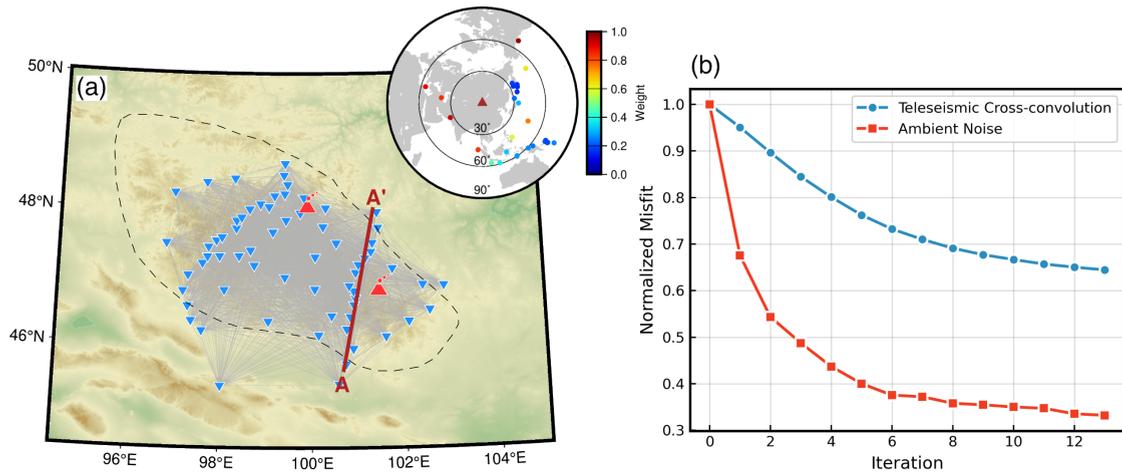
### SpecFWAT



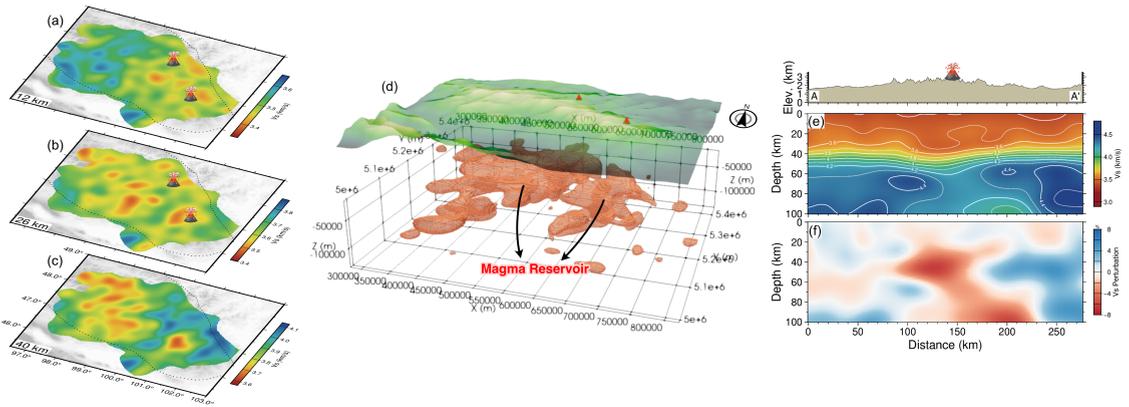
**Figure 7:** Synthetic example of TeleCC-FWAT with the same content as Figure 6.



**Figure 8:** Synthetic example of receiver function adjoint tomography (RFAT). (a) Computational domain with target S-wave velocity model. Blue dots represent receivers with 2 km spacing. (b) Teleseismic events for this test. Colored dots represent ray-parameter and back-azimuth. (c) and (d) S-wave velocity and its gradient in the target view along the cross-section RR' (shown in (a)). (e) S-wave velocity of initial model along the cross-section RR'. (f) and (g) Same content as (c) and (d), but the S-wave velocity derived by RFAT with 10 iterations.



**Figure 9:** (a) Stations (blue triangles) for the example of Joint-FWAT, Gray lines denote the ray path coverage of the ambient noise data. The red line denotes profile AA'. The gray dashed line denotes the trace of the Hangay dome. The teleseismic events for cross-convolution measurements with weights are shown in the top right insert. (b) Normalized misfit of receiver function (blue line) and ambient noise data (red line) over iterations.



**Figure 10:** (a – c) Map view of S-wave velocity at 12, 26, and 40 km depth beneath Hangay Dome. (d) Schematic view of S-wave velocity model. Red blocks represent low-velocity with perturbation less than -3%. Blue blocks represent high-velocity with perturbation greater than 3%. (e – f) Cross section of absolute S-wave velocity, S-wave velocity perturbations along the profile AA' (shown in Figure 9a).