

Continuous isolated noise sources induce repeating waves in the coda of ambient noise correlations

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Abstract Continuous excitation of isolated noise sources leads to repeating wave arrivals in cross correlations of ambient seismic noise, including throughout their coda. These waves propagate from the isolated sources. We observe this effect on correlation wavefields computed from two years of field data recorded at the Gräfenberg array in Germany and two master stations in Europe. Beamforming the correlation functions in the secondary microseism frequency band reveals repeating waves incoming from distinct directions to the West, which correspond to well-known dominant microseism source locations in the Northeastern Atlantic Ocean. These emerge in addition to the expected acausal and causal correlation wavefield contributions by boundary sources, which are converging onto and diverging from the master station, respectively. Numerical simulations reproduce this observation. We first model a source repeatedly exciting a wavelet, which helps illustrate the fundamental mechanism behind repeated wave generation. Second, we model continuously acting secondary microseism sources and find good agreement with our observations. Our observations and modelling have potentially significant implications for the understanding of correlation wavefields and monitoring of relative velocity changes in particular. Velocity monitoring commonly assumes that only multiply scattered waves, originating from the master station, are present in the coda of the correlation wavefield. We show that repeating waves propagating from isolated noise sources may dominate instead, including the very late coda. Our results imply that in the presence of continuously acting noise sources, which we show is the case for ordinary recordings of ocean microseisms, velocity monitoring assuming scattered waves may be adversely affected with regard to measurement technique, spatial resolution, as well as temporal resolution. We further demonstrate that the very late coda of correlation functions contains useful signal, contrary to the common sentiment that it is dominated by instrument noise.

Non-technical summary Seismic waves are generated by all kinds of sources, including earthquakes, ocean waves, and machinery. Some sources produce a consistently present background level of seismic energy, so-called ambient seismic noise. It is well-established that, under

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34 the condition of evenly distributed noise sources, cross-correlation of ambient seismic noise, which
35 was recorded on two separate seismic stations, yields a new wavefield that propagates directly
36 from one station to the other. We call this new wavefield the correlation wavefield. Here, we show
37 that in the presence of an additional isolated noise source that excites seismic waves continuously,
38 for example ocean waves induced by storm systems over the Northeastern Atlantic, a new contri-
39 bution to the correlation wavefield emerges: repeating waves propagating from the isolated noise
40 source. These repeating waves can be more coherent across several stations than the expected
41 correlation wavefield contribution, which propagates from one station to the other. We observe
42 such repeating waves propagating from isolated noise sources on correlation wavefields computed
43 from two years of seismic recordings of the Gräfenberg seismic array in Germany and two master
44 stations in Europe. We reproduce our observations with numerical simulations of the sources and
45 resulting correlation wavefields. Our findings have potentially significant implications for seismic
46 monitoring based on relative velocity changes, which is used to monitor geological faults, volca-
47 noes, groundwater, and other processes in the Earth. Velocity monitoring commonly relies on the
48 assumption that the correlation wavefield contains only the contribution that propagates from one
49 station to the other, which we show is not necessarily correct. This can lead to misinterpretation of
50 measured velocity variations.

51 **1 Introduction**

52 Seismic interferometry of the ambient seismic field gives rise to new correlation wavefields that relate to the Green's
53 function under the condition of uniformly distributed noise sources (Wapenaar et al., 2005; Gouédard et al., 2008).
54 These correlation wavefields are now routinely used for imaging (e.g., Schippkus et al., 2018; Lu et al., 2018) and mon-
55 itoring (e.g., Wegler and Sens-Schönfelder, 2007; Hadziioannou et al., 2009; Sheng et al., 2023) of Earth's structure. In
56 the presence of an isolated noise source, a second contribution to this wavefield is introduced, sometimes referred
57 to as spurious arrival (Snieder et al., 2006; Zeng and Ni, 2010; Retailleau et al., 2017; Schippkus et al., 2022). This cor-
58 relation wavefield contribution can lead to biased measurements of seismic wave speed due to interference of direct
59 waves from the master station and the isolated noise source (Schippkus et al., 2022).

60 Monitoring applications, on the other hand, rely on estimating relative velocity changes by repeatedly computing
61 correlation wavefields throughout time and measuring changes in the arrival time of their coda (Wegler and Sens-
62 Schönfelder, 2007; Sens-Schönfelder and Larose, 2010). Current strategies often rely on the assumption that the
63 coda of a given correlation wavefield is comprised of multiply scattered waves, originating from the master station,
64 which also dictates its spatial sensitivity (Planès et al., 2014; Margerin et al., 2016; van Dinter et al., 2021). If the
65 spatial sensitivity of the coda is known, seismic velocity changes can be located (Obermann et al., 2014; Mao et al.,
66 2022). Some progress has been made in accounting for the impact of changes in sources on the correlation wavefield,
67 particularly in the context of monitoring at frequencies above 1 Hz, e.g., by carefully selecting time windows in which
68 the same sources are active and produce similar correlation wavefields (Yates et al., 2022; Sheng et al., 2023).

69 In this study we demonstrate that isolated noise sources may impact correlation wavefields to a degree previously
 70 not considered. Continuously acting isolated noise sources, such as ocean microseisms, produce repeating waves
 71 throughout the entire correlation function that propagate from the isolated source location. These waves coincide
 72 with and are more coherent than multiply scattered waves originating from the master station. This may have sig-
 73 nificant impact on the understanding of measured velocity changes. In the following, we show observations of these
 74 repeating waves on field data correlation functions in the ocean microseism frequency band using stations through-
 75 out Europe, illustrate the mechanism behind repeated direct-wave generation in correlation functions, and finally
 76 reproduce our field data observations by modelling continuously acting isolated noise sources, i.e., secondary ocean
 77 microseisms.

78 2 Beamforming the correlation wavefield

79 We compute correlation wavefields from two years of continuous vertical component seismograms, recorded in 2019
 80 and 2020 at the Gräfenberg array in Germany and two master stations, IV.BRMO in Italy (Fig. 1a) and PL.OJC in Poland
 81 (Fig. 2a). IV.BRMO was chosen randomly and PL.OJC was chosen to showcase a different backazimuth and slightly
 82 larger distance to the Gräfenberg array. We apply a standard processing workflow: remove instrument response, cut
 83 two years of data into two-hour long segments overlapping by 50%, apply spectral whitening (Bensen et al., 2007),
 84 cross-correlate each segment, and stack all segments linearly. No further processing, e.g., earthquake removal or
 85 other segment selection, has been applied, because whitening in each segment already normalises the energy po-
 86 tentially introduced by earthquakes and we find no evidence for earthquakes-related bias in the resulting correlation
 87 wavefields.

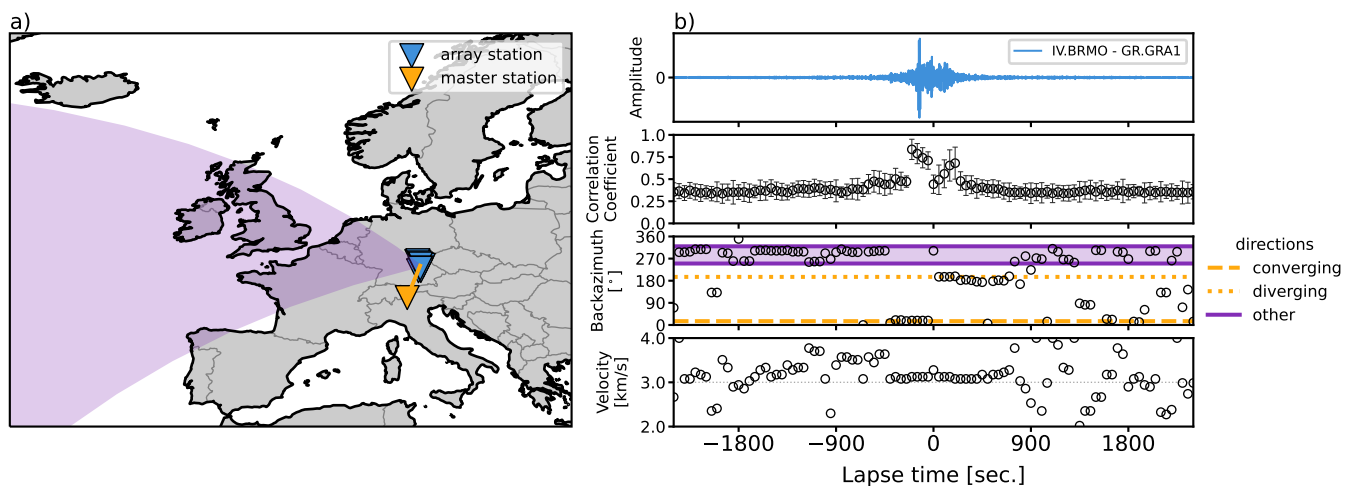


Figure 1 Beamforming the correlation wavefield between the Gräfenberg array in Germany (blue triangle) and master station IV.BRMO, Italy (yellow triangle), in the secondary microseism frequency band (0.1 to 0.3 Hz). a) Overview map with master station and array stations. The orange line and purple area correspond to the dominant directions detected by beamforming. b) Beamforming results: sample cross-correlation between the master station and one array station (top), mean Pearson correlation-coefficient of correlation functions with best-fitting beams in each window (second panel), detected direction of arrival (third panel), and estimated phase velocity (bottom). Detected directions correspond to the correlation wavefield converging onto and diverging from the master station (orange lines), and a range of directions pointing towards the Atlantic Ocean (purple area).

88 To estimate from which directions the correlation wavefield arrives at the Gräfenberg array, we beamform the
 89 correlation functions (Fig. 1). We beamform in 200 sec. windows, overlapping by 75%, in the secondary micro-

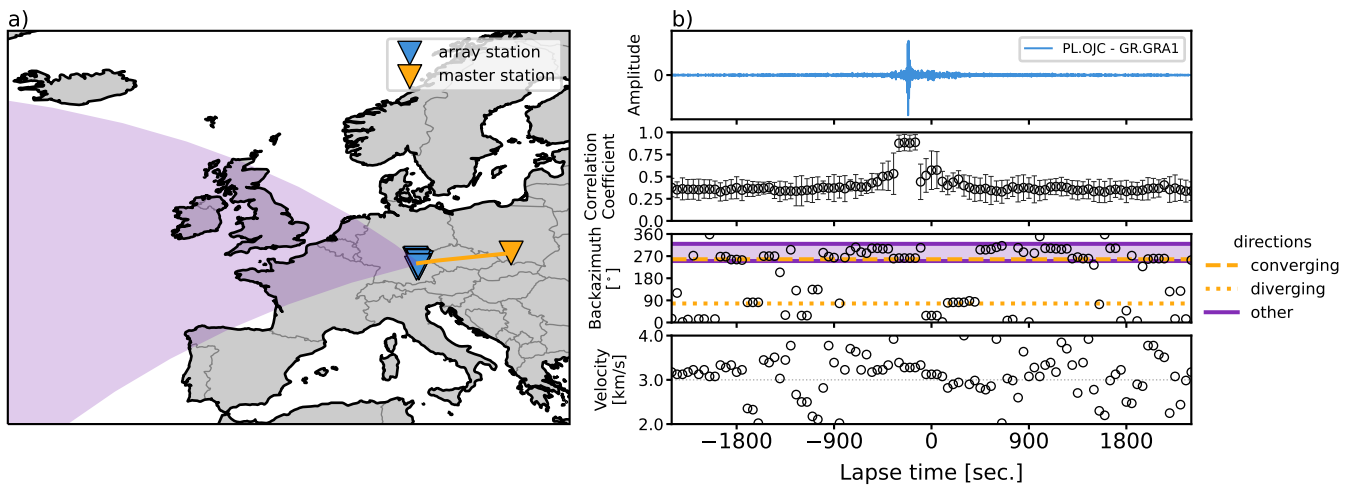


Figure 2 Same as Figure 1, but for master station PL.OJC, Poland. The directions detected by beamforming corresponding to the diverging and converging part of the correlation wavefield change with master station as expected (orange lines), whereas the range of directions towards the Northern Atlantic remains constant (purple area). Note that the converging part of the correlation wavefield points towards West, similar to one of the dominant directions detected pointing towards the Atlantic Ocean for master station IV.BRMO (Fig. 1).

seism frequency band (0.1 to 0.3 Hz), and assuming plane-wave propagation (Rost and Thomas, 2002). We present a sample correlation function to give orientation in lapse time (Fig. 1b, top panel), and compute Pearson correlation coefficients of all correlation functions with the best-fitting beam for each window to estimate how well the beam explains the data within a window (Fig. 1b, second panel). Similarity is highest for the expected acausal arrival, which also emerges more clearly in the correlation function than the causal arrival, due to the commonly observed strong noise sources in the Northeastern Atlantic (e.g., Friedrich et al., 1998; Chevrot et al., 2007; Juretzek and Hadziioannou, 2016). Throughout the coda, similarity remains nearly constant with a correlation coefficient ~ 0.4 . We detect several dominant directions of arrival (Fig. 1b, third panel). First, the acausal arrival of the correlation wavefield converging onto the master station at negative lapse time (dashed orange line) and the causal arrival diverging from the master station at positive lapse time (dotted orange line), i.e., the correlation wavefield contribution that usually arises in seismic interferometry (Wapenaar et al., 2005). Second, distinct directions throughout the correlation functions pointing towards West (Fig. 1b, third panel), which we project onto the map view (Fig. 1a).

A second master station in Poland (PL.OJC) illustrates how the converging (acausal) and diverging (causal) parts of the correlation wavefield depend on the geometry of array stations to master station and point roughly towards the great-circle between the two (Soergel et al., 2022), whereas the dominant directions towards West appear to be independent of the master station (Fig. 2). A North-Northeast direction, however, still emerges in the beamforming results as most coherent, which coincides approximately with the great circle direction for the converging part of the correlation wavefield for master station IV.BRMO (Fig. 1). Similarly, the converging direction for master station PL.OJC coincides with the dominant directions towards West (Fig. 2). This hints at the impact the geometry of master station and array stations has on the detection and identification potential of these other directions. We propose the dominant directions detected by beamforming and pointing towards West represent repeating direct waves emerging at isolated noise source locations in the Northeastern Atlantic Ocean. The North-Northeasterly direction observed in the coda in both examples similarly represents waves arriving from isolated source locations off the coast of Norway, which were previously observed as dominant on continuous seismograms (e.g., Juretzek and Hadziioannou, 2016).

114 We call these direct waves, because they propagate directly from the isolated source to the seismic stations. These
 115 are not to be confused with the direct waves propagating between the stations, i.e., the expected acausal and causal
 116 arrivals.

117 **3 A repeating impulsive isolated noise source**

118 To substantiate our hypothesis and explain the observations above, we start from the concept of an isolated noise
 119 source (Schippkus et al., 2022). Consider a wavefield that is excited by sources on a boundary S and an isolated noise
 120 source at \mathbf{r}_N , recorded on a station at location \mathbf{r}

$$u(\mathbf{r}) = \oint_S N_B(\mathbf{r}')G(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}')d\mathbf{r}' + N_I G(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}_N), \quad (1)$$

121 with G the Green's function and N_B and N_I the source spectra of boundary sources and the isolated source, respec-
 122 tively. This section is formulated in the frequency domain. The cross-correlation of this wavefield at location \mathbf{r} with
 123 the wavefield recorded on a master station at \mathbf{r}_M is given by (eq. 6 of Schippkus et al., 2022)

$$\langle u(\mathbf{r})u^*(\mathbf{r}_M) \rangle = \frac{\rho c |N_B|^2}{2} (G(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}_M) + G^*(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}_M)) + |N_I|^2 G(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}_N)G^*(\mathbf{r}_M, \mathbf{r}_N), \quad (2)$$

124 with ρ the mass density of the medium and c the propagation velocity. The first term describes the contribution of
 125 uncorrelated sources on the boundary S surrounding the stations, which usually arises in seismic interferometry (as
 126 in Wapenaar et al., 2005), and the second term describes the contribution of the isolated noise source. The relation
 127 of these terms has been investigated by Schippkus et al. (2022), who demonstrate how the direct arrivals of these two
 128 wavefield contributions interfere for certain station geometries, leading to biased surface wave dispersion measure-
 129 ments. In their modelling, the authors assumed the source term of the isolated source N_I to be a wavelet, excited
 130 once.

131 Here, we expand upon this idea by considering the isolated noise source to be excited multiple times in a corre-
 132 lated manner. For illustration purposes, we express its source term as $N_I = W_I E_I$, with a wavelet W_I and excitation
 133 pattern E_I . The contribution of the isolated noise source to the correlation wavefield is hence

$$|W_I|^2 |E_I|^2 G(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}_N)G^*(\mathbf{r}_M, \mathbf{r}_N). \quad (3)$$

134 A simple example of an isolated noise source exciting a Ricker wavelet, repeating 5 times with a 20 sec. interval,
 135 illustrates how such a source manifests in correlation functions (Fig. 3). For such a source, the excitation pattern is
 136 a time series with 1 at every interval of 20 sec. (5 times), and 0 elsewhere. The auto-correlation of the wavelet $|W_I|^2$
 137 (Fig. 3a), auto-correlation of the excitation pattern $|E_I|^2$ (Fig. 3b), and cross-correlation of the Green's functions
 138 $G(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}_N)G^*(\mathbf{r}_M, \mathbf{r}_N)$ for surface waves in a homogeneous, isotropic, acoustic medium and an arbitrary geometry
 139 (Fig. 3c) are convolved to result in a repeating wavelet with the same 20 sec. interval, present in the correlation
 140 wavefield (Fig. 3d). These repeating wavelets represent direct waves emitted from the isolated source location.

141 A sketch of the correlation wavefield in the presence of a repeating impulsive isolated noise source helps illustrate

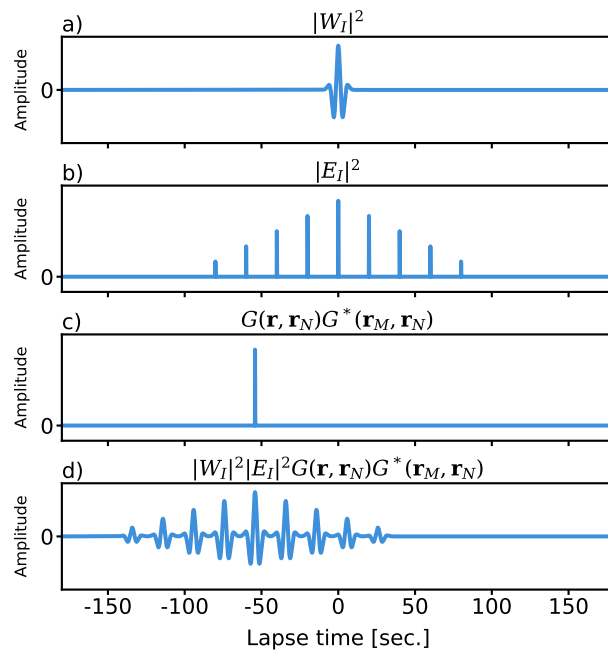


Figure 3 A repeating isolated noise source produces repeating direct waves in correlation functions, depicted in time domain. a) Auto-correlation of the wavelet $|W_I|^2$. b) Auto-correlation of the excitation pattern $|E_I|^2$ with a regular 20 sec. interval, excited 5 times. Note that amplitudes decay by $1/5$ every interval away from 0 sec. lapse time. c) Cross-correlation of the Green's functions between the isolated noise source and both station locations for an arbitrary geometry. d) Second term of the correlation wavefield (eq. 3, the convolution of a-c), where each arriving wavelet represents a direct wave emitted from the isolated noise source at \mathbf{r}_N .

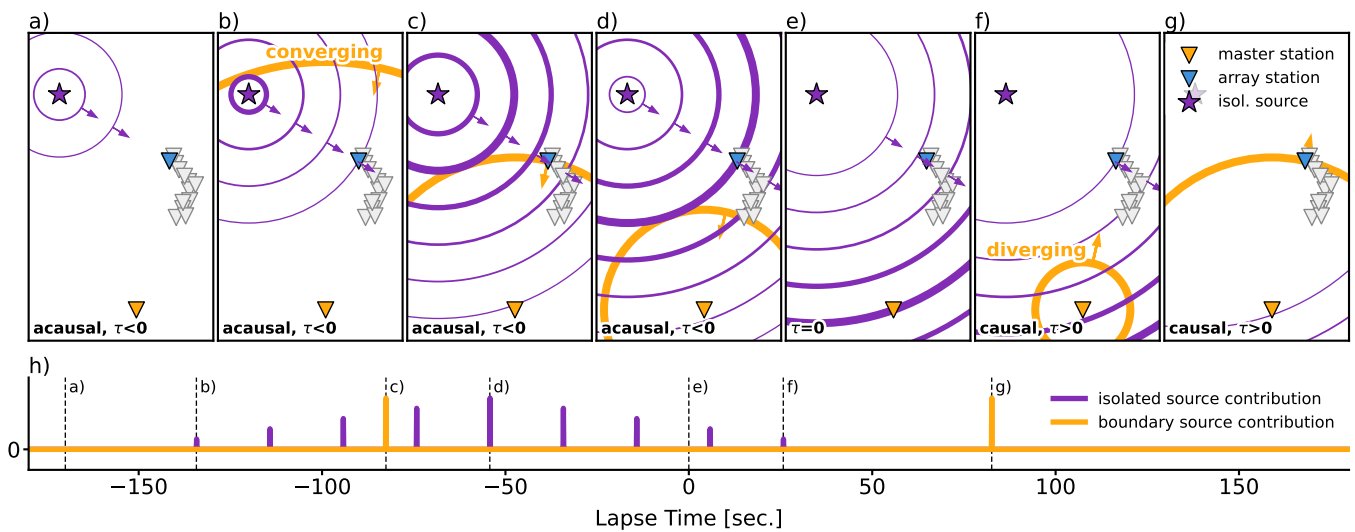


Figure 4 Schematic illustration of the correlation wavefield in the presence of a repeating impulsive source (5 excitations, 20 sec. interval, same as in Figure 3). We remove the wavelet for improved clarity. a-g) Snapshots of the correlation wavefield at different lapse times, indicated by dashed lines in h). The contributions of the isolated source (purple lines) and boundary sources surrounding the master and array stations (yellow line) propagate through the medium. Line thickness indicates amplitude. h) Correlation function between the array station and the master station, color-coded by isolated source and boundary source contribution (purple and yellow, respectively). Dashed vertical lines mark the lapse time snapshots displayed in a-g). The acausal part of the correlation function contains repeating waves propagating from the isolated source and the boundary source contribution converging onto the master station (a-d). At lapse time $\tau = 0$, both the main arrival of the isolated source contribution and the boundary source contribution reach the master station (e). At causal lapse time, the last arrivals of the isolated source reach the array station (f) and finally the diverging contribution of the boundary sources (g).

142 its evolution with lapse time (Fig. 4). The wavefield is comprised of the two contributions by boundary sources (first
 143 term of eq. 2, yellow in Fig. 4) and the isolated noise source (eq. 3, purple in Fig. 4). The boundary source contribution
 144 converges onto the master station at negative lapse times (the acausal part), and diverges from the station at positive
 145 lapse times (the causal part, Fig. 4a-g). This is the expected contribution that usually arises in seismic interferometry.
 146 The repeating isolated noise source induces waves that emerge earlier and with lower amplitude than the main arrival
 147 (Fig. 4a) and eventually reach the array station (4b). The main arrival (highest amplitude, indicated by line thickness)
 148 of the isolated noise source emerges at $\tau = -|r_M - r_N|/c$ and touches the boundary source contribution along the
 149 line connecting the isolated source and master station (c-f, as in Schippkus et al., 2022). At lapse time $\tau = 0$, both
 150 the wavefield contribution by boundary sources and the main arrival of the isolated noise source reach the master
 151 station (Fig. 4e). At causal lapse times, the last repeating waves from the isolated noise source reach the array station
 152 (Fig. 4f) before the boundary source contribution diverging from the master station arrives at the at array station
 153 (Fig. 4g). The exact timing of each arrival depends on the geometry of isolated source, master station, and array
 154 stations, as well as the excitation pattern.

155 Note that the repeating direct waves from the isolated noise source are asymmetrical in lapse time (Figs. 3, 4),
 156 because there is no part of the correlation wavefield converging onto the isolated noise source (Schippkus et al.,
 157 2022). How strongly these repeating direct waves manifest depends on how highly correlated the isolated source is
 158 with itself throughout time. The example presented here constitutes the most extreme case, i.e., identical wavelet and
 159 exactly regular excitation pattern. Even under these conditions, amplitudes decay linearly with time due to the finite
 160 length of the excitation pattern (Fig. 3b). In this example, the amplitude of the excitation pattern auto-correlation
 161 decreases by 1/5 of the maximum amplitude with each interval away from 0 sec., because the source is excited 5
 162 times. Slight variations in amplitude, shape of the wavelet, or excitation timing lead to reduced correlation, and thus
 163 repeating direct waves with reduced amplitude or different shape. If there was no correlation, the repeating waves
 164 would disappear. The main arrival would remain.

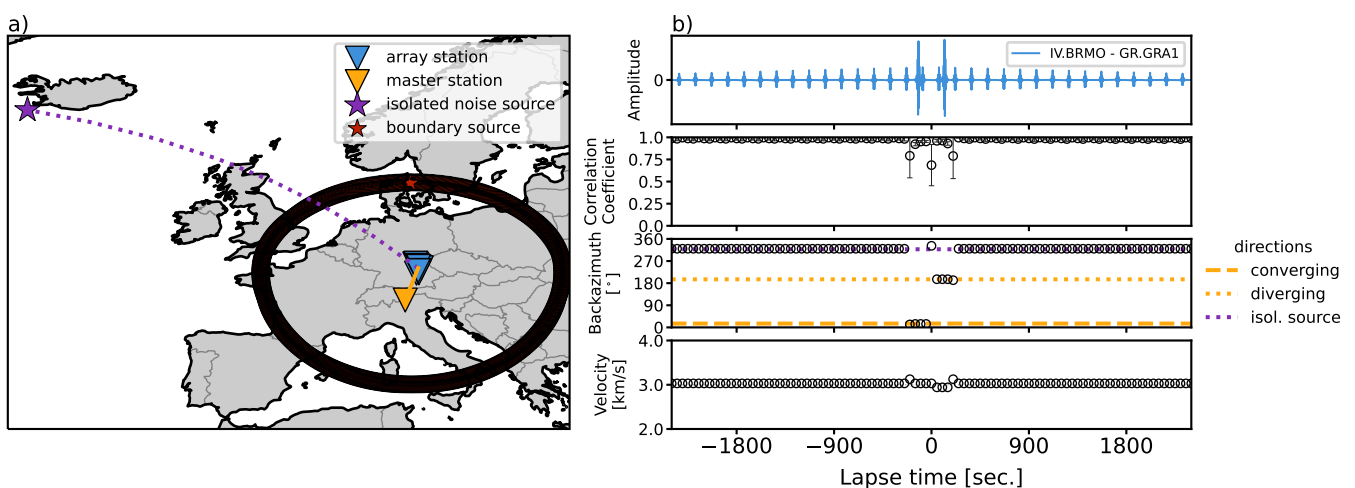


Figure 5 Beamforming synthetic cross-correlation functions detects repeating direct waves from the regularly repeating isolated noise source. a) Overview map: master station (orange triangle), array stations (blue triangle), boundary sources in a small circle surrounding the stations (red stars) and the isolated noise source Southwest of Iceland (purple star). b) Beamforming results: sample cross-correlation between master station and one array station, mean correlation-coefficients between windowed correlation functions and beams, detected direction of arrival, and estimated phase velocity. The boundary source contribution to the correlation wavefield converging onto and diverging from the master station (orange lines, first term in eq. 2) is detected as well as repeating direct waves from the isolated noise source (purple line, second term in eq. 2).

165 To confirm the repeating wavelets in the correlation functions indeed represent repeating direct waves emitted
 166 from the isolated noise source, we model a master station in Italy (same location as IV.BRMO), array stations in
 167 Southern Germany (same locations as the Gräfenberg array), 1000 boundary sources surrounding the stations in a
 168 small-circle with 1000 km distance to them, as well as a repeating isolated noise source Southwest of Iceland (Fig.
 169 5a). All sources excite Ricker wavelets, and only the isolated noise source repeats it 50 times with a 150 sec. inter-
 170 val (similar to Figs. 3, 4). We compute synthetic surface wave seismograms by assuming a homogeneous, isotropic,
 171 acoustic half-space with a medium velocity $v = 3$ km/s for simplicity (i.e., Green's functions are of the form $e^{-i\omega x/v}$),
 172 and compute cross correlations of those waveforms. During the calculations, we treat boundary sources and the iso-
 173 lated noise source separately in accordance with equation (2). The maximum amplitude of the isolated noise source
 174 contribution is scaled to 1/4 of the boundary source contribution to distinguish them easily (Fig. 5b, top panel). The
 175 correlation wavefield contains both wavefield contributions. Beamforming the cross-correlation functions between
 176 the master station and all array stations detects three directions of arrival (Fig. 5b, third panel): the first term of
 177 the correlation wavefield converging onto the master station at negative lapse time (dashed orange line) and diverg-
 178 ing from the master station at positive lapse time (dotted orange line), and repeating direct waves from the isolated
 179 source (purple dotted line) throughout the correlation function. The estimated phase velocity of ~ 3 km/s is the
 180 medium velocity (Fig. 5b, bottom panel). Note that the correlation functions match exactly with the beam (correla-
 181 tion coefficient of 1) only for time windows that do not contain both contributions simultaneously (Fig. 5b, second
 182 panel).

183 This example illustrates the principle behind repeating direct waves emerging in correlation functions. However,
 184 we observed this effect on field data of secondary ocean microseisms (Figs. 1, 2), which are better described as
 185 continuously acting sources, which we introduce in the following.

186 4 Continuously acting isolated noise sources

187 To describe the suspected isolated noise source (Figs. 1, 2) as a continuously acting microseism source, we rely on
 188 the parametrization employed by Gualtieri et al. (2020) (eq. 3 therein). The surface pressure P at colatitude θ and
 189 longitude ϕ excited by the secondary microseism mechanism is described as a superposition of many harmonics

$$P(t, \theta, \phi) = \sum_{i=1}^H A(f_i, \theta, \phi) \cos(2\pi f_i t + \Phi_i), \quad (4)$$

190 with H the number of harmonics, A the amplitude of the harmonic frequency f_i , and $\Phi_i \in [0, 2\pi)$ its phase, sampled
 191 uniformly random. The amplitude A relates to the power spectral density of ocean gravity waves and incorporates
 192 local site effects, and is described in more detail by Gualtieri et al. (2020). For our considerations, we neglect the
 193 amplitude term ($A = 1$), because we investigate a fairly narrow frequency band and the exact amplitude of each
 194 harmonic is irrelevant for explaining the effect observed in this study. In the following, we use $P(\theta, \phi)$ (the spectrum
 195 of $P(t, \theta, \phi)$) with harmonics from 0.1 to 0.3 Hz directly as the source term N_I (Fig. 6a). Its auto-correlation (Fig.
 196 6b), convolved with the same Green's function cross-correlation as above (Fig. 3c) contains one clear main arrival
 197 and weak, repeating direct waves (Fig. 6c). These repeating waves excited by a microseism source have much lower

198 amplitude and inconsistent shape compared to a repeating impulsive isolated noise source (Fig. 3) due to decreased
 199 correlation of the source term with itself throughout time.

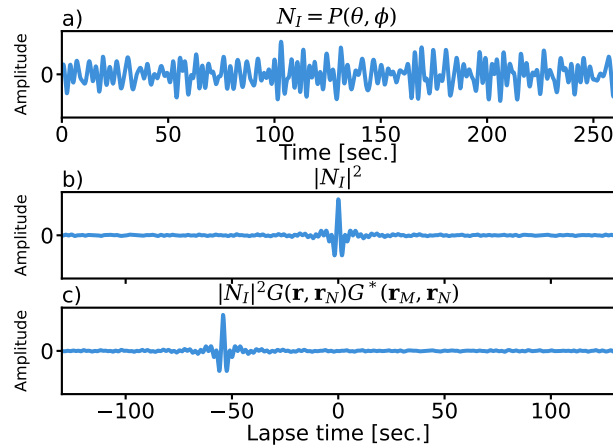


Figure 6 Contribution to the correlation wavefield by a continuously acting isolated noise source. a) Source term for a secondary microseism source, if all harmonics between 0.1 and 0.3 Hz are excited with a uniformly random phase $\Phi_i \in [0, 2\pi)$ and equal amplitude $A = 1$ (eq. 4). b) Auto-correlation of the source term $|N_I|^2$. c) Convolution of $|N_I|^2$ with the same Green's function cross-correlation as in Figure 3c, i.e., the second term of the correlation wavefield (eq. 2), with a main arrival and low-amplitude, repeating direct waves throughout the coda.

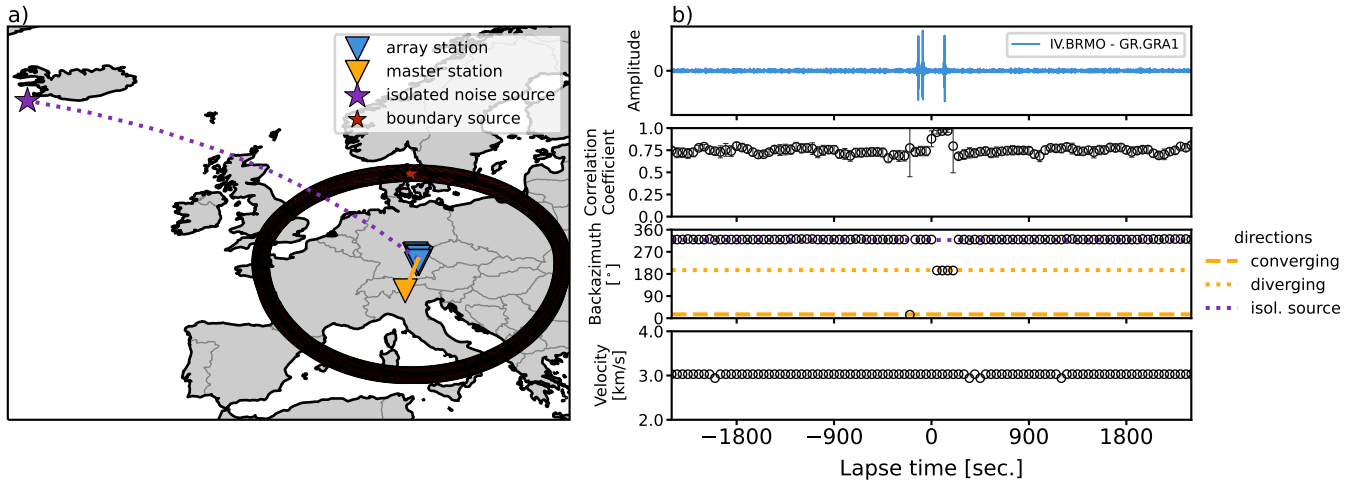


Figure 7 Same as Figure 5 but for secondary microseism source terms for both boundary and isolated sources. Both contributions to the correlation wavefield are scaled to have similar amplitudes. Distinct main arrival (the "spurious" arrival) of the isolated noise source at ~ -100 sec. lapse time. For this arrival and throughout the coda, direct waves from the isolated source are detected as most coherent.

200 We repeat the numerical simulation above (Fig. 5) with $P(\theta, \phi)$ as the source term for both boundary and iso-
 201 lated noise sources (Fig. 7). Both contributions to the correlation wavefield are scaled to have similar amplitudes.
 202 A secondary microseism source produces repeating direct waves in correlation wavefields (Fig. 7b), similar to the
 203 regularly repeating source (Fig. 5). Near the main arrival of the isolated source (at ~ -100 sec., after the acausal
 204 arrival due to boundary sources) and throughout the coda, repeating direct waves from the isolated noise source lo-
 205 cation are detected as most coherent. Distinct main arrivals (the "spurious" arrival) have been observed for localised
 206 microseism sources before (Zeng and Ni, 2010; Retailleau et al., 2017). These main arrivals must arrive in-between
 207 the acausal and causal arrivals of the boundary source contribution (Schippkus et al., 2022). In this study, we do
 208 not observe a particularly clear main arrival on field data (Figs. 1, 2). Still, the coda of the field data correlation

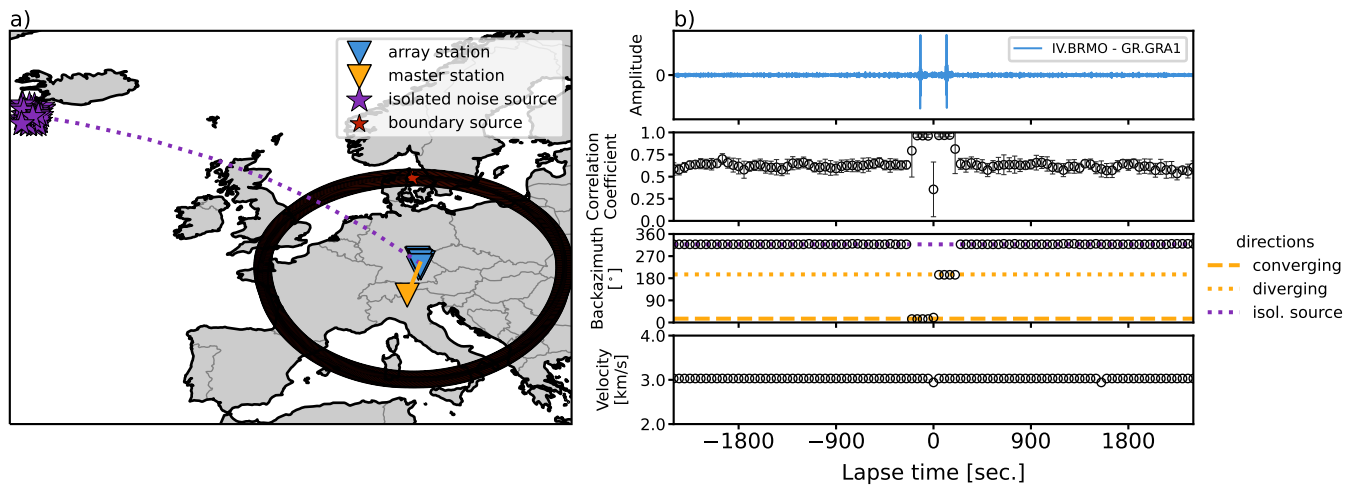


Figure 8 Same as Figure 7 but for a cluster of isolated sources. Amplitudes of the summed isolated noise source contribution is scaled to 1/10 of the boundary source contribution. No distinct spurious arrival but coda still dominated by repeating direct waves from the isolated noise source cluster.

209 wavefields appears to be dominated by repeating waves from isolated noise sources. Correlation coefficients of the
 210 synthetic correlation functions with the beams for each window reach ~ 1 for the main causal arrival, and ~ 0.75
 211 for the acausal arrival due to interference with the isolated source arrival (Fig. 7b). Throughout the coda, correlation
 212 coefficients do not exceed 0.75 significantly, because continuously acting boundary sources also induce a repeating
 213 contribution in the correlation wavefield. In other words, the best beam does not represent the correlation functions
 214 entirely, even under the ideal conditions considered here, i.e., no heterogeneous structure, no dispersion, and no
 215 scattering.

216 To account for the fact we do not observe a distinct main arrival due to an isolated noise source in our field data
 217 correlations and to approximate a more realistic scenario by considering an extended source region, we place a cluster
 218 of 50 isolated noise sources Southwest of Iceland, each with a random realisation of the source term $P(\theta, \phi)$ and
 219 repeat the computations (Fig. 8). The wavefield contributions of those isolated noise sources, where each isolated
 220 source produces an additional term in equation (2), interfere to mask the main arrival (Fig. 8b). The amplitudes of
 221 the summed isolated noise source cluster contribution is scaled to 1/10 of the boundary source contribution. Beam-
 222 forming correlation functions again detects the converging and diverging part of the boundary source contribution,
 223 as well as the isolated noise source cluster as dominant throughout the coda (Fig. 8b). Correlation coefficients with
 224 the beams stabilise at ~ 0.65 in the coda, and are lower than for the case of a single source (Fig. 7b).

225 Finally, we place a second cluster of 50 isolated noise sources Northwest of the Iberian Peninsula (Fig. 9a) to
 226 account for the observation that within the range of directions toward the Northern Atlantic, two distinct directions
 227 appear to dominate (Figs. 1, 2). Both clusters of isolated noise sources are treated separately and their combined
 228 amplitudes are again scaled to 1/10 of the boundary source contribution. Beamforming detects either one of the
 229 clusters as dominant, seemingly randomly throughout lapse time (Fig. 9b). Mean correlation coefficients with the
 230 beams are ~ 0.55 throughout the coda. This numerical simulation produces beamforming results closely resembling
 231 the measurements on field data correlation functions (Figs. 1, 2) and confirms that clusters of isolated noise sources
 232 produce repeating direct waves.

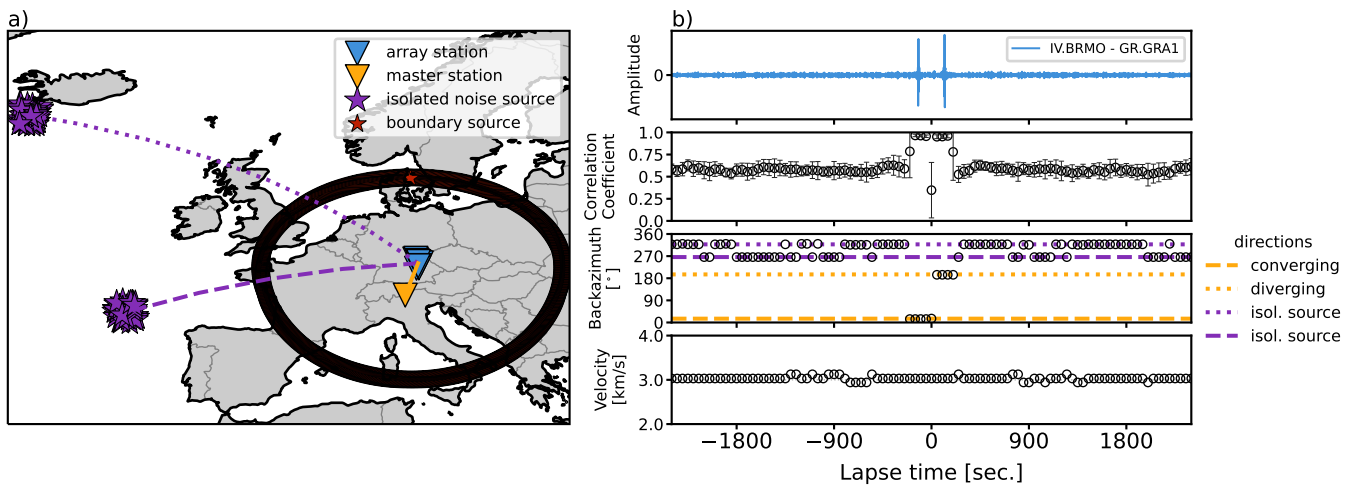


Figure 9 Same as Figure 8 but for two clusters of isolated noise sources. The additional cluster is placed Northwest of the Iberian Peninsula. The backazimuth to that cluster is indicated by a purple dashed line (a & b, third panel). Amplitudes of the isolated noise source contribution is scaled to 1/10 of the boundary source contribution. No distinct spurious arrival. Beamforming detects either of the two clusters at a given lapse time in the coda as dominant.

5 Discussion

In this study, we observe repeating direct waves propagating from isolated noise sources in the coda of correlation functions. We reproduce the observations by numerical modelling of continuously acting isolated sources.

The most significant question our analysis raises is: are repeating direct waves from isolated noise sources more dominant than multiply scattered waves, originating from the master station, also for individual correlation functions? If they were, our observations would have far-reaching implications. Beamforming, however, only shows that the contribution by isolated noise sources is more coherent across an array of stations (Figs. 1, 2). It is not surprising that multiply scattered waves can be incoherent across an array. To address this aspect, we compute correlation coefficients of all correlation functions with the beam in each beamforming window. These reach 0.75 to 0.9 (never 1) for the expected stronger, coherent acausal arrival on field data correlations (Figs. 1, 2), which indicates that not all factors are accounted for during beamforming, namely heterogeneous structure, scattering, elastic wave propagation, and additional isolated sources. Still, these correlation coefficients provide a benchmark of what can be expected for the most coherent part of the correlation wavefield. In our numerical simulations, correlation coefficients are ~ 1 for the main arrivals without the interference of distinct spurious arrivals (Figs. 5, 7, 8, 9). Throughout the coda, we observe that correlation coefficients remain nearly constant for both the field data examples (~ 0.4 , Figs. 1, 2) and the numerical simulations, decreasing with increasing complexity of the original wavefield from one isolated noise source (~ 0.75 , Fig. 7), to a cluster of sources (~ 0.65 , Fig. 8), to two clusters (~ 0.55 , Fig. 9). Without taking into account the additional factors mentioned above (scattering, heterogeneous structure, or elastic waves), we reproduce a match between the modelled correlation functions and beams, comparable to the field data results. It is therefore reasonable to assume that the coda is not dominated by scattered waves, at least for absolute lapse times larger than a few hundred seconds.

At lapse times close to the direct arrivals from the master station (up to a few hundred seconds), correlation coefficients are higher than for the later coda and a transition to the stable regime observed in the later coda appears to manifest (Figs. 1, 2). In the early coda, scattered waves are likely dominant and thus also coherent in the correlation

257 wavefield, although question arise about the degree of scattering. However, first tests on whether scattered waves
258 are more coherent when the master station is much closer have shown no noticable difference in the beamforming
259 results. The distinction between early coda and late coda arises, because amplitudes of the two correlation wavefield
260 contributions decay for different reasons. Multiply scattered waves originating from the master station decay due to
261 attenuation during wave propagation, whereas repeating direct waves from isolated noise sources decay only due to
262 correlation of the source term with itself through time (Figs. 3,6). As demonstrated above, even under ideal circum-
263 stances, amplitudes of repeating direct waves in correlation functions decay due to the finite length of the source and
264 signal considered (Fig. 3).

265 In the later coda (absolute lapse times larger than a few hundred seconds), the commonly held assumption that
266 the coda of a correlation wavefield is comprised dominantly, or even exclusively, of multiply scattered waves appears
267 to be false. The beams pointing towards isolated noise sources represent a significant fraction of the correlation wave-
268 field coda (Figs. 1, 2). Instead of spatially sampling the medium in a statistical manner (Margerin et al., 2016), the late
269 coda, and thus measured velocity changes, may be dominantly sensitive to the path from the isolated noise source
270 to the array station. Here, it is important to be clear about the nature of the coda and measurement principle. In
271 the standard coda wave interferometry model, coda waves originate from the master station, are multiply scattered,
272 and eventually reach the other receiver. A measured velocity change is then sensitive to this entire path. Because
273 there is no clear way to know where exactly the wave has been and thus where the change has happened, recently
274 developed coda wave sensitivity kernels are statistical descriptions of where the wave might have been, depending
275 on the scattering properties of the medium (Margerin et al., 2016). However, if one would repeat the beamforming
276 measurement described above, e.g., daily, to estimate the velocity of seismic waves in the coda, a potential velocity
277 variation of those waves over time would have happened within the array, assuming constant sources. The standard
278 coda wave interferometry measurement, in contrast, is performed on single correlation functions. If the measure-
279 ment is performed in some part of the coda where repeating waves by isolated sources dominate, velocity variations
280 may then be sensitive to the entire propagation path from isolated source to receiver, similar to the case where the
281 coda is dominated by scattered waves and the sensitivity is along the path from master station to receiver. The differ-
282 ence here lies in the origin of the correlation wavefield contribution probed during the measurement and the ability
283 to constrain the velocity change spatially. The main hypothesis in this paper is that the repeating waves we observe
284 in beamforming originate from the isolated source, not the master station (Fig. 4).

285 A similar effect occurs in the presence of a strong nearby scatterer (van Dinther et al., 2021). As the multiply
286 scattered part of the correlation wavefield reaches the strong scatterer, spatial sensitivity focuses along the path be-
287 tween stations and scatterer. In other words, the scatterer "emits" a direct wave, induced by the master station, that is
288 recorded in the coda of the correlation function. This principle is similar to our considerations here, with the major
289 difference that, in the modelling of van Dinther et al. (2021), the direct wave propagating from the scatterer originates
290 from the master station. For isolated noise sources, direct waves originate from the source. The master station has
291 no impact on the isolated source contribution to the correlation wavefield, as long as it coherently records the same
292 isolated noise sources as the array stations, as the two field data examples suggest (Figs. 1, 2). We have no reason
293 to suspect a strong scatterer to the West of the Gräfenberg array that could explain our measurements. Instead, our

294 measurements are consistent with repeating direct waves from isolated noise sources, and reproduced by modelling
295 without considering any scatterers. This means that different station pairs do not lead to different spatial sensitiv-
296 ity when recording such repeating direct waves. In some contexts, this may be advantageous by allowing repeated
297 measurement of a repeating or continuous isolated source by considering multiple master stations. In the context
298 of seismic monitoring of relative velocity variations, the impact of such sources has to be carefully considered.

299 The presence of repeating direct waves in the very late coda (30 minutes and more) furthermore challenges the
300 common assumption that the very late coda of correlation wavefields is dominated by instrument noise and contains
301 no useful signal. The very late coda is commonly used as a noise window for the estimation of signal-to-noise ratios
302 of correlation functions, also for coda windows. We show that the very late coda does instead contain useful infor-
303 mation, because repeating direct waves from isolated noise sources are still detected by beamforming (Figs. 1, 2).
304 This also suggests amplitudes decay only slowly due to low correlation of the isolated source with itself over time
305 (compared to Fig. 3), at least for the correlation wavefields investigated here, which were stacked over two years.

306 The early coda of correlation wavefields likely contains a significant contribution of scattered waves, as well as
307 direct repeating waves from isolated noise sources. This suggests great care should be taken in measuring velocity
308 variations and attributing them spatially also for the early coda. Common strategies to measure velocity variations,
309 e.g., the stretching method (Lobkis and Weaver, 2003), assume that absolute timing delays increase with lapse time,
310 because the seismic waves spent more time in the changed medium. For the contribution by repeating direct waves,
311 stretching should not occur since absolute time delays are likely constant throughout the coda, as long as the isolated
312 source does not change. A strategy that involves estimating the degree of stretching throughout the coda may give
313 insight into the dominant regime (scattered waves vs. repeating waves) and whether the measurement approach is
314 applicable. A different strategy to discriminate the correlation wavefield contributions may be to include measure-
315 ments of wavefield gradients, which allow to separate the seismic wavefield using only single stations Sollberger et al.
316 (2023).

317 Further questions arise about the temporal sensitivity of measured velocity variations. When considering scat-
318 tered waves in the coda, velocity variation measurements are usually attributed to the entire time window used for
319 correlation, e.g. a single measurement that represents an entire day. Repeating direct waves from isolated noise
320 sources should in principle allow to improve temporal resolution, because arrivals at different lapse times likely
321 have different temporal sensitivity in raw signal time domain, i.e., at what points in time the raw signal was recorded.
322 However, it is not immediately obvious what time exactly a specific repeated arrival is sensitive to. This is a target for
323 future studies.

324 Pre-processing of seismic records before cross-correlation plays an important role when investigating cross corre-
325 lations of ambient seismic noise. We apply spectral whitening, a commonly adopted pre-processing strategy (Bensen
326 et al., 2007). Spectral whitening is the normalisation of the amplitude spectrum before cross-correlation, often with
327 a water level or smoothed spectrum to avoid introducing artefacts. Whitening is often successful in suppressing the
328 impact of near-monochromatic signals, e.g., in the context of the 26 sec. microseism in the Gulf of Guinea (Bensen
329 et al., 2007; Bruland and Hadziioannou, 2023) or wind turbine noise (Schippkus et al., 2022). On the other hand,
330 whitening will also emphasise signals with relatively low amplitude in the original data. To confirm that our inter-

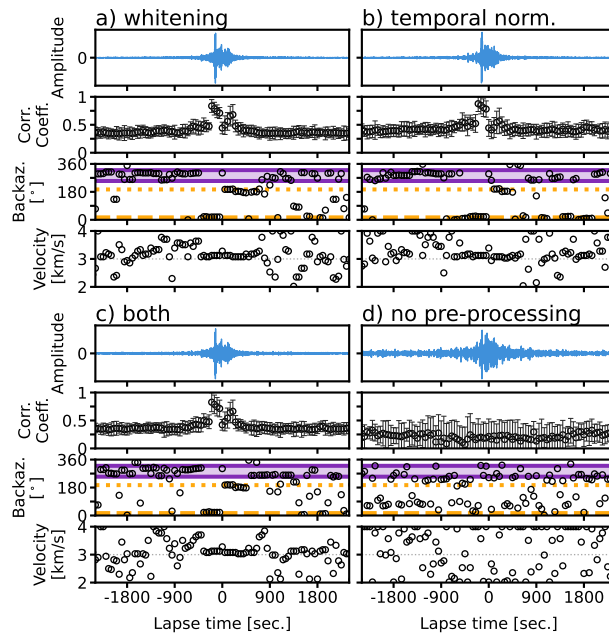


Figure 10 Impact of pre-processing scheme on the detection of repeating direct waves for master station IV.BRMO. a) Same as Figure 1b. b) Sample correlation function and beamforming result, if only temporal normalisation is applied. c) Results when both whitening and temporal normalisation are applied. d) Results when neither pre-processing is applied.

331 pretation of the results above is not significantly biased by the processing strategy, we repeat the measurements for
 332 master station IV.BRMO (Fig. 1) with temporal normalisation, both whitening and temporal normalisation, and nei-
 333 ther pre-processing (Fig. 10). Temporal normalisation (running window average) is performed in a 5 sec. moving
 334 window. As long as any processing to stabilise the correlation functions is applied (Fig. 10a-c), the fundamental ob-
 335 servation of repeating direct waves remains. Slight differences emerge in the correlation functions themselves, and
 336 also which direction and velocity are detected at a given lapse time. Temporal normalisation is commonly applied
 337 in studies that measure relative velocity variations, often in its most extreme version one-bit normalisation. Here
 338 we demonstrate that common pre-processing schemes produce correlation functions with repeating direct waves.
 339 Without any processing, however, results become unstable and beamforming neither detects stable directions of
 340 arrival nor gives consistent phase velocity estimates (Fig. 10d). Correlation functions are more stable after such
 341 pre-processing, as is commonly observed, because these approaches (in addition to addressing some data glitches)
 342 reduce the impact of certain isolated noise sources on the recorded wavefield, in particular from transient high-
 343 amplitude sources (e.g., earthquakes) and continuous near-monochromatic sources (e.g., machinery). The sources
 344 that remain as dominant, after this pre-processing is applied, are continuously acting broadband sources (e.g., ocean
 345 microseisms) as is confirmed by beamforming (Figs. 1 & 2).

346 The temporal stability of ocean microseism sources that we impose in our modelling has been observed on field
 347 data correlations before. Zeng and Ni (2010) computed and stacked correlations over one year that show clear spu-
 348 rious energy due to a localized microseism source in Japan. Similarly, Retailleau et al. (2017) found localized micro-
 349 seism sources off the coasts of Iceland and Ireland, also in correlations stacked over one year. It may be unintuitive
 350 that ocean microseisms, often assumed to be a largely random process, would show any coherence at all. These
 351 previous and our results are clear indications that indeed the secondary microseism mechanism generates coherent
 352 sources that are somewhat stable over time. We are, however, not aware of a microseism source model that incor-

porates all these factors satisfactorily. Instead, we follow the current standard formulation, i.e., each frequency is excited with random but constant phase (Gualtieri et al., 2020). Investigations on how varying temporal source stability and stacking influence the beamforming detections or measured velocity changes will likely be part of future work.

It may also be surprising that the highly idealised Earth model employed in our simulations, i.e., Green's functions in an acoustic homogeneous half-space, is sufficient to reproduce our observations on field data to first order. We do not take any elastic wave propagation effects such as scattering into account. This suggests that these effects certainly present in real Earth structure and thus field data may play a less important role than often thought, at least for the specific case investigated here: the nature of the coda of ambient noise correlations.

Machinery- or traffic-based monitoring of velocity variations is likely similarly affected by the findings in this study. Rotating machinery, such as generators in wind turbines (Friedrich et al., 2018; Schippkus et al., 2020; Nagel et al., 2021), likely have source terms that are significantly correlated throughout time due to their mechanism, with higher correlation than ocean microseisms. These sources could produce repeating direct waves with high amplitude. Traffic, e.g., trains repeatedly passing the same spot, resembles repeatedly acting noise sources (as in Fig. 3), although with more complex wavelets and longer intervals. In case of traffic at a regular interval, e.g., trains on a schedule, the late coda of the correlation wavefield could allow to extract their signature reliably. Recently, approaches that identify and select appropriate time windows to use for cross-correlation and subsequent velocity monitoring have emerged (e.g., Yates et al., 2022; Sheng et al., 2023). These approaches are motivated by the realisation that correlation wavefields can be highly complex and depend significantly on the presence of isolated noise sources, similar to this study. Still, our findings also have impact on these strategies. In time windows where an isolated noise source is known to be particularly active, repeating direct waves may still emerge and coincide with the coda of that source, depending on the source signature and length of time window considered for cross-correlation. Further investigations on this aspect may help improve the accuracy of detected velocity changes in time and space.

6 Conclusion

Continuously acting isolated noise sources generate repeating direct waves that may dominate the coda of correlation wavefields, as observed on field data correlations (Figs. 1, 2) and reproduced by numerical simulations (Figs. 3-9). In the simulations, we start from the established concept of an isolated noise source (Schippkus et al., 2022) that repeatedly excites a wavelet to illustrate the fundamental principle of how repeated direct waves emerge in correlation functions (Figs. 3, 5). To better reproduce the measurements on field data correlations, we model an isolated secondary microseism source, starting with one source (Fig. 7), which shows a distinct main arrival of that source (the "spurious arrival") that is not always observed clearly on field data correlations. With a cluster of isolated noise sources, mimicking an extended source region, this main arrival disappears due to interference between the sources (Fig. 8). Finally, we model two clusters to show that either may be detected at a given lapse time (Fig. 9), reliably reproducing the observations on our field data correlation wavefields (Figs. 1, 2). Throughout our modelling, we keep the numerical setup as simple as possible to emphasise the impact of only the isolated noise sources, i.e., we exclude any influence due to heterogeneous Earth structure, any elastic wave propagation effects such as multiple

389 wave types or conversion between them, and importantly do not include any scattering.

390 Our results suggest that the coda of correlation wavefields should not be assumed to be mainly comprised of scat-
391 tered waves, which originated from the master station. Instead, repeating direct waves from isolated noise sources
392 may dominate. There is likely a transition in dominating regime from scattered waves (in the early coda) to repeating
393 direct waves (in the late coda). This occurs, because amplitudes of scattered waves decay due to attenuation, whereas
394 repeating direct waves decay slower only due to the auto-correlation of the source term throughout time. This has
395 implications for ambient noise correlation based monitoring applications, commonly assuming multiply scattered
396 waves, and raises questions about the validity of such measurements, in particular about the spatial sensitivity.

397 This study also opens up new opportunities for future research. In the presence of a continuously acting iso-
398 lated noise source, the very late coda of correlation wavefields retains the source signature and is not dominated
399 by instrument noise. This in principle allows to extract seismic waves repeatedly propagating along the same path,
400 undisturbed by other contributions, which may be an attractive target for monitoring applications. The spatial distri-
401 bution of isolated noise sources, however, severely limits the spatial sensitivity of the very late correlation wavefield
402 coda.

403 **Data Availability and Resources**

404 This manuscript is fully reproducible. All computed correlation functions and code necessary to produce all fig-
405 ures are hosted on Github and Zenodo ([Schippkus, 2023](#)). Seismograms used in this study to compute correlation
406 functions are provided by the network operators of the German Regional Seismic Network (GR, [Federal Institute for
407 Geosciences and Natural Resources, 1976](#)), Polish Seismological Network (PL, [Polish Academy of Sciences \(PAN\) Pol-
408 skiej Akademii Nauk, 1990](#)), and Italian National Seismic Network (IV, [Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanologia
409 \(INGV\), 2005](#)). We rely on open-source software for our computations and visualisations ([Hunter, 2007](#); [Met Office,
410 2010](#); [Krischer et al., 2015](#); [Harris et al., 2020](#); [Virtanen et al., 2020](#)). Color sequences are designed to be accessible
411 ([Petroff, 2021](#)).

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