

Estimating seismic velocity variations in the Mississippi embayment from analysis of the ambient seismic field

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Abstract

We use cross-correlation of the ambient seismic field to estimate seasonal variations of seismic velocity in the Mississippi Embayment and to determine the underlying physical mechanisms. Our main observation is that the $[\Delta v]/v$ variations correlate primarily with the water table fluctuation, with the largest positive value from May to July and the largest negative value in September/October relative to the annual mean. The correlation coefficients between water table fluctuation and $[\Delta v]/v$ are independent of the interstation distance and frequency, but high coefficients are observed more often in the 0.3-1 Hz than 1-2 Hz because high-frequency coherent signals attenuate faster than low-frequency ones. The $[\Delta v]/v$ variations lag behind the water table fluctuation by about 20 days, which suggests the velocity changes can be attributed to the pore pressure diffusion effect. The maximum $[\Delta v]/v$ variations decrease with frequency from 0.03% at 0.3-1 Hz to 0.02% at 1-2 Hz, and the differences between them might be related to different local sources or incident angles. The seasonal variations of $[\Delta v]/v$ are azimuthally independent, and a large increase of noise amplitude only introduces a small increase to the $[\Delta v]/v$ variation. At close distances, the maximum $[\Delta v]/v$ holds a wide range of values, which is likely related to local structure. At larger distances, velocity variations sample a larger region so that it stabilizes to a more uniform value. We find that the observed changes in wave speed are in agreement with the prediction of a poroelastic model.

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Key Points:

- 4 • We observe the minimum wave speed from May to July due to the increased pore pressure
5 from the water table fluctuation and the maximum wave speed in September/October.
- 6 • The $\delta t/t$ correlates primarily with the water table fluctuation and does not show an obvious
7 relationship with the atmospheric pressure, temperature, precipitation, and wind speed.
- 8 • A poroelastic model can explain the velocity variations in the crust.

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Abstract.

We use cross-correlation of the ambient seismic field to estimate seasonal variations of seismic velocity in the Mississippi Embayment and to determine the underlying physical mechanisms. Our main observation is that the $\delta t/t$ variations correlate primarily with the water table fluctuation, with the largest positive value from May to July and the largest negative value in September/October relative to the annual mean. The correlation coefficients between water table fluctuation and $\delta t/t$ are independent of the interstation distance and frequency, but high coefficients are observed more often in the 0.3-1 Hz than 1-2 Hz because high-frequency coherent signals attenuate faster than low-frequency ones. The $\delta t/t$ variations lag behind the water table fluctuation by about 20 days, which suggests the velocity changes can be attributed to the pore pressure diffusion effect. The maximum $\delta t/t$ variations decrease with frequency from 0.03% at 0.3-1 Hz to 0.02% at 1-2 Hz, and the differences between them might be related to different local sources or incident angles. The seasonal variations of $\delta t/t$ are azimuthally independent, and a large increase of noise amplitude only introduces a small increase to the $\delta t/t$ variation. At close distances, the maximum $\delta t/t$ holds a wide range of values, which is likely related to local structure. At larger distances, velocity variations sample a larger region so that it stabilizes to a more uniform value. We find that the observed changes in wave speed are in agreement with the prediction of a poroelastic model.

1. Introduction

31 Extensive field and laboratory studies have been dedicated to understanding the crustal
32 responses including seismic velocity variations and subsurface strain changes due to the
33 internal tectonic and external climatological stress loadings [*Hadziioannou et al.*, 2009;
34 *Ben-Zion and Allam*, 2013; *Ben-Zion and Leary*, 1986; *Sens-Schönfelder and Larose*, 2008;
35 *Meier et al.*, 2010; *Hillers et al.*, 2015a; *Wu et al.*, 2016; *De Fazio et al.*, 1973]. Monitoring
36 the crustal response can not only track the evolving stress and constrain the effective
37 rheology with depth, but can also help to understand the crustal response to the internal
38 tectonic stress by removing the response to the climatological stress loadings [*Hillers*
39 *et al.*, 2015a; *Rivet et al.*, 2015; *Wang et al.*, 2017]. Because different rocks or structures
40 respond differently to the internal and external loadings, monitoring the crustal response
41 can also help to identify local structure anomalies and understand wave propagation and
42 attenuation [*Wang et al.*, 2017]. More specifically, measurements of the temporal changes
43 of seismic velocity can shed light on the fault zone coseismic damage and postseismic
44 healing [*Wu et al.*, 2016; *Liu et al.*, 2018b; *Brenquier et al.*, 2008a], volcanic eruption
45 early warning [*Duputel et al.*, 2009; *Brenquier et al.*, 2008b], groundwater levels [*Clements*
46 *and Denolle*, 2018], climatological parameters such as precipitation [*Sens-Schönfelder and*
47 *Wegler*, 2006], temperature [*Meier et al.*, 2010; *Sens-Schönfelder and Larose*, 2008], and
48 atmospheric pressure [*Niu et al.*, 2008; *Silver et al.*, 2007], solid earth tidal [*De Fazio*
49 *et al.*, 1973] and oceanic tidal deformation [*Hillers et al.*, 2015b; *Yamamura et al.*, 2003],
50 and instrumental errors [*Sens-Schönfelder*, 2008; *Stehly et al.*, 2007]. Taking advantage of
51 long-term dense seismic station deployments, a systematic investigation of seismic velocity

52 variation can improve our understanding of the crustal response to the climatological
53 loadings.

54 The Mississippi embayment (ME) (Fig. 1) is a SSW plunging trough filled with late
55 Cretaceous and Cenozoic sediments that can reach a thickness of approximately 1.5 km
56 [*Hildenbrand and Hendricks, 1995; Dart, 1992; Dart and Swolfs, 1998*]. The ME has
57 experienced long-term and complicated geological activities including uplift, rifting and
58 subsidence, and has hosted three $M_w > 7.0$ earthquakes (Fig. 1) that occurred in the
59 winter of 1811 - 1812 [*Johnston and Schweig, 1996*]. We target the ME for two reasons.
60 First, long-term continuous monitoring and dense broadband station distribution allow
61 us to conduct a thorough temporal velocity investigation which may provide insight into
62 how the climatological parameters influence the seismic velocity. Secondly, few studies
63 of this type have been done in intraplate fault zones, so such an investigation can help
64 us understand if there are significant differences between interplate and intraplate fault
65 zones and how they respond to external changes in forcing.

66 Estimating seismic velocity change has been done by measuring the travel time or phase
67 difference from active sources including explosions [*Li et al., 1998, 2003, 2006; Nishimura*
68 *et al., 2000*], airguns [*Wegler et al., 2006*] and repeating earthquakes [*Poupinet et al., 1984;*
69 *Peng and Ben-Zion, 2006; Rubinstein and Beroza, 2004a, b; Rubinstein et al., 2007; Schaff*
70 *and Beroza, 2004*], and by computing the dephasing of the ambient noise cross-correlations
71 (CCs) [*Sens-Schönfelder and Wegler, 2006; Brenguier et al., 2008a*] or auto-correlations
72 (ACs) [*Minato et al., 2012; Ohmi et al., 2008*]. We prefer ambient noise analysis because
73 it not only circumvents the uncertainty of repeating earthquakes and high expense of
74 the active sources but also allows for long-term velocity monitoring over time periods of

75 months to years. The CCs of the ambient noise can effectively retrieve empirical Green's
76 function between a pair of stations [*Shapiro and Campillo, 2004; Sabra et al., 2005; Weaver*
77 *and Lobkis, 2001; Derode et al., 2003*]. The dephasing of scattered waves in daily CCs
78 relative to those in a reference CC reflects the temporal change of the elastic behavior of
79 the crust.

80 We apply ambient noise CCs to all broadband seismic stations inside the ME over four
81 frequency ranges, and investigate temporal variations of seismic velocity and correlation
82 with the climatological parameters. We compare the calculated seismic velocity variation
83 of each station pair with the regional climatological parameters to investigate the possible
84 mechanisms for the velocity changes. We address the following questions: what are the
85 physical mechanisms behind the temporal velocity changes in the ME? Do the maximum
86 velocity variations depend on characteristics of the waves, such as the frequency, inter-
87 station distance and azimuth? What are the correlation coefficients of velocity changes
88 with the climatological parameter variations? The cross-correlation methods applied to
89 the data from the ME give us a unique view into the physical mechanisms behind changes
90 in seismic velocity over time and how the changes are related to the non-tectonic effects
91 that may complicate the analysis of more active tectonic regions.

2. Data and analysis procedure

92 The installation of Northern Embayment Lithosphere Experiment (NELE) with large
93 aperture and continuous recording in 2014 enables us to investigate the temporal variations
94 of seismic velocity. We use 53 broadband stations (Fig. 1) to compute the CCs. All
95 broadband stations are inside the ME as can be seen by comparing station locations to
96 the sediment thickness contours. Because sediment-influenced waves may better reflect

97 the sediment elastic behavior than the direct crustal surface wave arrivals, we limit the
98 interstation distance to be 100 km where *Langston et al.* [2005] and *Liu et al.* [2019]
99 observed direct sedimentary surface wave arrivals in the passband of 0.2-1.5 Hz. In order
100 to investigate the annual temporal variations, we only use stations which have a continuous
101 full-year recording in 2014. Finally, we compute 373 velocity variations for all station pairs
102 in 2014 to investigate how they behave seasonally.

103 We follow the analysis procedure of *Brenquier et al.* [2008a] and *Lecocq et al.* [2014]
104 in this study. We download continuous daily vertical component miniseed data from
105 IRIS (www.iris.edu) by the FDSN web service, and use the MSNoise Python package
106 [*Lecocq et al.*, 2014] to compute the CCs. The data processing details are available in
107 *Lecocq et al.* [2014], and are described briefly here. For each station pair, we first scan
108 yearly data into MSNoise, down-sample to 5 Hz, and remove instrument response. We
109 also remove earthquakes by the root-mean-square (RMS) temporal normalization, and
110 reduce the effect of non-uniform source distributions by spectral whitening. *Langston*
111 *et al.* [2009] and *Liu et al.* [2018a] observed the major oceanic-generated ambient noise in
112 the frequency range of 0.02 - 0.33 Hz in the ME, and sedimentary surface waves emerge
113 in the passband of 0.2 - 1.5 Hz [*Langston et al.*, 2005; *Liu et al.*, 2019]. Considering
114 the dominant frequency range of waves scattered by sediments is higher than that of the
115 oceanic ambient noise [*Liu et al.*, 2019], we define 4 frequency ranges: 0.3 - 1 Hz, 0.5
116 - 1.2 Hz, 0.7 - 1.5 Hz, and 1 - 2 Hz. Because Rayleigh waves have peak sensitivity to
117 the shear wave velocity changes at the depth of 1/3 of a wavelength, scattered waves
118 with a period of 3 s and phase velocity of 1.7 km/s [*Dorman and Smalley*, 1994] can be
119 sensitive to velocity changes at depths up to 1.7 km. We stack -15 and +15 days for

120 a monthly CC on the selected date, and average all daily CCs to obtain the reference
121 CC. We use a moving-window cross-spectral (MWCS) method [*Poupinet et al.*, 1984;
122 *Clarke et al.*, 2011] to measure the relative dephasing between monthly moving stack
123 CCs and yearly reference CC, as *Zhan et al.* [2013] suggested that the stretching method
124 [*Wegler and Sens-Schönfelder*, 2007] can cause apparent velocity changes due to changes
125 in the amplitude and phase spectrum. The MWCS measures the arrival time difference
126 between two windowed waveforms by computing cross-coherency between energy densities
127 in the frequency domain. Linear regression of time differences over moving coda windows
128 constrains the fractional change in travel time $\delta t/t$. The errors of $\delta t/t$ are estimated using
129 the cross-coherency and the squared misfit to the linear regression slope [*Clarke et al.*,
130 2011]. The velocity change ($\delta v/v$) is deduced by the relationship $\delta v/v = -\delta t/t$, which
131 assumes that the $\delta v/v$ is spatially homogeneous. A coda window defined for the MWCS
132 is shown in Fig. 2. We define the coda window based on the timing of large amplitude
133 scattered wave arrivals (group velocity < 1.0 km/s) in the monthly moving stack CCs
134 (Fig. 2).

135 The velocity variations are known to be associated with climatological parameters such
136 as water table, precipitation, temperature, atmospheric pressure, and wind speed [*Hillers*
137 *et al.*, 2015a; *Meier et al.*, 2010; *Sens-Schönfelder and Wegler*, 2006; *Sens-Schönfelder*
138 *and Larose*, 2008]. We obtain daily water table data of 11 stations from the USGS water
139 information system and precipitation, temperature, atmospheric pressure, and wind speed
140 from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA). We calculate the
141 water table fluctuation by subtracting the daily water table from the maximum water
142 table over one year. Because the velocity variations have a different dependence on the

143 changes of the climatological parameters, we remove the mean and normalize the maxi-
144 mum of the absolute value of the velocity variations, water table fluctuation, precipitation,
145 temperature, atmospheric pressure and wind speed to unity for comparison.

3. Analysis of seismic velocity variations

146 We measure yearly $\delta t/t$ variations for all 373 station pairs over 4 predefined frequency
147 ranges in 2014. The CCs for all station pairs are computed in the passband of 0.3 - 2
148 Hz, and the MWCS and $\delta t/t$ variations are determined in predefined frequency ranges.
149 The $\delta t/t$ increases to its maximum in May and June and decreases to its minimum in
150 September and October relative to the average (Fig. 3). The $\delta t/t$ variations correlate
151 primarily with the normalized water table fluctuation in the four predefined frequency
152 ranges. We select 205, 198, 158, and 96 $\delta t/t$ variations in the passbands of 0.3-1 Hz, 0.5-
153 1.2 Hz, 0.7-1.5 Hz, and 1-2 Hz based on two criteria: 1) the correlation coefficient with the
154 normalized water table fluctuation is higher than 0.3, and 2) they show seasonal variation.
155 That is, the wave speed is slower than average in late spring to summer and is faster in
156 late fall to early winter. If we cannot observe a seasonal variation of $\delta t/t$, estimation
157 of maximum $\delta t/t$ cannot be correctly determined. We determine the maximum $\delta t/t$ for
158 each station pair by smoothing the $\delta t/t$ over entire year with a 10-day moving average
159 window and compute the maximum of the smoothed variations, which removes spurious
160 velocity variations with large errors. In the following sections, we evaluate how the $\delta t/t$
161 and correlation coefficients vary in different frequency ranges, how the maximum $\delta t/t$ and
162 correlation coefficients depend on the characteristics of the waves, such as interstation
163 distance and azimuth.

3.1. Correlation with the climatological parameters

164 Climatological loadings can induce various crustal responses including stress/strain
165 changes [*Ben-Zion and Allam, 2013*], earthquake triggering [*Liu et al., 2009; Husen et al.,*
166 2007], and seismic velocity variations [*Hillers et al., 2015b; Meier et al., 2010*]. The pre-
167 cipitation/water table fluctuation, atmospheric pressure, wind speed influence the elastic
168 stress by changing the pore pressure or water saturation, air pressure redistribution, and
169 wind on contact shearing, respectively. The temperature has an impact on regional ther-
170 moelastic stress because of thermal expansion or contraction due to ambient temperature
171 changes. The elastic and thermoelastic stress changes directly affect the strain field, which
172 can be used to model the seismic velocity variations [*Tsai, 2011; Wang et al., 2017*].

173 The magnitude of the velocity variations and their dependence on the climatological
174 parameters vary throughout the world. *Sens-Schönfelder and Wegler [2006]* observed
175 that the $\delta v/v$ varies seasonally with an amplitude of 0.02% in the frequency band > 0.5
176 Hz at Merapi volcano, Indonesia, and suggested that the variation is due to changes of the
177 water table. *Wang et al. [2017]* observed up to a 0.02% velocity variation in the passband
178 of 0.15-0.9 Hz using data from 2011 to 2012 throughout Japan, and proposed that the
179 velocity variations could be due to different effects including pore pressure, snow depth,
180 and sea level changes for different regions. *Ben-Zion and Leary [1986]* suggested the
181 temperature could cause an effect 10 times larger than water table fluctuations around
182 15 m. *Meier et al. [2010]* observed a maximum 0.1% velocity change in the 0.1-2 Hz
183 passband using data from 2001 to 2004 in the Los Angeles basin, and suggested that
184 it was associated with the thermoelastic strain variation. These studies indicate that
185 the velocity variations could be associated with different climatological parameters and

186 maximum velocity variations induced by temperature could be higher than that caused
187 by water table fluctuations.

188 Determining the magnitude of velocity variation and its most strongly correlated pa-
189 rameter can help us understand the dominant mechanisms driving the velocity changes
190 for the ME. In Fig. 3, we show the correlations between the normalized average $\delta t/t$ for
191 all station pairs and the normalized precipitation, water table fluctuation, temperature,
192 atmospheric pressure and wind speed in four predefined frequency ranges. The $\delta t/t$ corre-
193 lates most strongly with the normalized water table fluctuation. We use a physical model
194 (Fig. 4) to explain the observed velocity variations in the following section. Atmospheric
195 pressure, precipitation and wind speed do not show any clear correlation with the $\delta t/t$
196 observations. In Fig. 5, average maximum velocity variations for all station pairs range
197 from 0.02% to 0.05% in different frequency bands, and are similar in magnitude to the
198 changes for Japan and for Merapi volcano.

199 The strong correlation between $\delta t/t$ and the water table fluctuation could be due to
200 two possible effects. The water table fluctuation can affect the direct hydrological and
201 poroelastic strain, which are related to the direct water loading and water diffusion effect,
202 respectively. The maximum velocity variations due to the direct hydrological elastic or
203 poroelastic strain changes are around 0.04% for the Los Angeles basin [Tsai, 2011]. With
204 similar sedimentary rock types and a few meters fluctuation in the water table, we might
205 expect a similar magnitude of velocity variation for the ME. Direct water loading can
206 affect hydrological strain instantaneously, but water diffusion usually take some time to
207 influence poroelastic strain. Direct water loading increases $\delta v/v$ through an increase
208 of water saturation at shallow depth while water diffusion increases pore pressure and

209 decreases the area of grain contact, which decreases the $\delta v/v$ at deeper levels. The $\delta t/t$
 210 changes show a delay of 20 days relative to the normalized water table fluctuation based
 211 on when the maximum and minimum values occur (Fig. 3). Our observations suggest
 212 that the water diffusion effect is the dominant mechanism for the velocity changes.

213 As *Tsai* [2011] and *Ben-Zion and Leary* [1986] modeled, the temperature is positively
 214 correlated with the $\delta v/v$. *Hillers et al.* [2015a] also observed that the $\delta v/v$ from 0.1 to 8 Hz
 215 increased to its maximum in July for the San Jacinto fault area, and the $\delta v/v$ variations
 216 lag behind the temperature by about one month. In the ME, the $\delta v/v$ variations are
 217 negatively correlated with temperature changes (Fig. 3), which is opposite to what would
 218 be expected based on previous results. Based on this, we suggest that the temperature
 219 changes might not have an effect on velocity variations in the ME. Strong wind energy is
 220 usually in a higher frequency range than the predefined passbands in this study [*Withers*
 221 *et al.*, 1996; *Hillers et al.*, 2015a]. Because wind forces should affect the elastic stress
 222 instantaneously, the velocity variations are not likely to be related to the changes of
 223 the wind speed. How the climatological parameters interact with each other and if that
 224 interaction could affect the velocity variation is not considered in this study.

3.2. A poroelastic physical model for seismic velocity changes

To facilitate our understanding of the dominant mechanism in the ME, we use a poroelastic physical model to estimate seasonal velocity variations from 2010 to 2018. An approximate time-dependent poroelastic solution from *Tsai* [2011] is:

$$A(t) = \frac{1 + \nu}{1 - \nu} \frac{\alpha p_0 (1 - 2\nu)}{E} \sqrt{\hat{k}_{hy}} \cos\left(\omega t - \frac{\cot^{-1} \hat{k}_{hy}}{2}\right), \quad (1)$$

225 in which $A(t)$ is time-dependent strain amplitude on the surface, ν is Poisson's ratio, p_0 is
 226 the amplitude of pore pressure variations, Biot-Willis coefficient α is defined as $\alpha = 1 -$
 227 C_s/C_d where C_s is unjacketed bulk compressibility and C_d is drained bulk compressibility
 228 [*Biot and Willis*, 1957], E is Young's modulus, ω is equal to $2\pi/T$ where T is the period of
 229 water table fluctuation, \hat{k}_{hy} is a normalized hydraulic diffusivity and is equal to $k_{hy}k^2/\omega$,
 230 k is equal to $2\pi/\lambda$ with λ to be related to the dominant wavelength of local topography,
 231 and k_{hy} is hydraulic diffusivity.

232 We estimate the normalized diffusivity \hat{k}_{hy} close to 1 from the relationship of delay
 233 time dt (22 days) and \hat{k}_{hy} , $dt = \cot^{-1}\hat{k}_{hy}/2\omega$ [*Tsai*, 2011]. *Catchings* [1999] suggested the
 234 Poisson ratio ν to be 0.3. We fit a simple sinusoidal function to estimate the amplitude
 235 ($h = 1.6$ m) of water table fluctuation (Fig. 4(A)), and compute a pore pressure variation
 236 p_0 as $\rho gh = 1.6 \times 10^4$ Pa. An approximate Young's modulus for sandstone [*Detournay*
 237 *and Cheng*, 1993] is 1.6×10^{10} Pa. An experimental study on C_s and C_d from *Hart* [2000]
 238 suggested that α ranges from 0.6 to 0.9 for sandstone. We use $\alpha = 0.7$ which is the same
 239 as the value used in *Tsai* [2011] for the following model.

240 Using the time-dependent water table fluctuation and Eq. (1), we can estimate the
 241 maximum strain amplitude to be of the order of 10^{-7} . Seasonal velocity variations can
 242 also be roughly estimated by $\delta v/v = m/\mu A(t)(1 - 2\nu)$, in which μ is the second Lamé
 243 constant and m is the Murnaghan constant [*Murnaghan*, 1951; *Hughes and Kelly*, 1953;
 244 *D'Angelo et al.*, 2008]. Lab experiments suggest that m/μ can range from -1000 to -200
 245 for sandstone [*D'Angelo et al.*, 2008]. We compute seasonal variations of velocity for 43
 246 pairs of stations from 2010 to 2018, and average over them to obtain an observed velocity
 247 change in the passband of 0.3 - 1 Hz (Fig. 4(B)). An approximate m/μ value required

248 to match the modeled $\delta v/v$ with the observed one is -2000. *Tsai* [2011] also found a
249 similar value to match velocity variations in the Los Angeles basin, and emphasized that
250 the Murnaghan constant should be better characterized for relevant materials to obtain
251 an accurate quantitative comparison.

3.3. $\delta t/t$ in different frequency ranges

252 Exploring velocity variations in different frequency bands can shed light on the depth
253 sensitivity of the velocity variations and its dependence on frequency. Regardless of the
254 velocity dependence on distance, we average all $\delta t/t$ variations in the 0.3-1 Hz, 0.5-1.2 Hz,
255 0.7-1.5 Hz, and 1-2 Hz frequency bands and observe that the velocity is lower than average
256 in May and June and higher in September and October (Fig. 5(A)). Average maximum
257 $\delta t/t$ decreases with frequency from 0.03% at 0.3-1 Hz to 0.02% at 1-2 Hz. *Meier et al.*
258 [2010] also observed the maximum $\delta t/t$ decreases from 0.5% at 0.1-0.2 Hz to 0.2% at
259 0.1-1 and 0.5-2 Hz in the Los Angeles basin. *Hillers et al.* [2015a] observed a peak-to-peak
260 velocity change from 0.4-0.8% at 0.1-0.4 Hz to 0.1% at 1-4 Hz in the San Jacinto fault
261 area. One possible explanation is that the scattered waves in different frequency ranges
262 are induced by the ME basin edges [*Kawase*, 1996; *Liu et al.*, 2018a; *Liu et al.*, 2019] and
263 could be associated with different local sources or different incidence angles [*Tanimoto*
264 *et al.*, 2006; *Froment et al.*, 2010; *Weaver et al.*, 2009]. The noise from different local
265 sources or with different incidence angles might induce different effects on the velocity.
266 To confirm that the averaged $\delta t/t$ variations in different frequency ranges are not biased
267 by the non-uniform interstation distance distribution, we separate station pairs into 0-30,
268 30-60, 60-100 km groups. Across these groups, we find that the maximum $\delta t/t$ decreases

269 with the increasing frequency and the peak/trough pattern does not change with distance
270 (Fig. 5).

3.4. $\delta t/t$ dependence on the interstation azimuth and noise amplitude

271 Seasonal variation of seismic velocity can reflect changes in material properties or be
272 induced by seasonal changes of noise amplitude [Hillers *et al.*, 2015a]. Heterogeneous
273 distributions of the noise source can bias the estimation of arrival time [Weaver *et al.*,
274 2009; Froment *et al.*, 2010]. Thus, a long-term change in the noise source distribution
275 over several months also be the cause of spurious seismic velocity changes.

276 Sources of microseisms usually distribute non-uniformly in different seasons [Young,
277 1999; Tian and Ritzwoller, 2015; Langston *et al.*, 2009; Liu *et al.*, 2019]. However, scat-
278 tering by local structures can randomize propagation directions and increase isotropy. In
279 the ME, Liu *et al.* [2019] suggested that the generation of sedimentary surface waves in
280 the passband of 0.2-1 Hz might be related to the basin edges. In the coda window, scat-
281 tered waves (group velocity < 1 km/s) can be composed of sedimentary surface waves
282 (group velocity 0.7 m/s). In order to investigate if the velocity variations are azimuthally
283 dependent, we compare the average velocity variations using station pairs with different
284 azimuths. We initially do not differentiate the positive and negative lags of the CCs
285 while calculating the $\delta t/t$ variations, so the propagation direction of scattered waves cor-
286 responding to the $\delta t/t$ estimation is uncertain. Because the edge of the ME surrounds the
287 stations on the northwest and northeast (Fig. 1) and the edge of the embayment might be
288 related to the generation of scattered waves, we use $0^\circ - 90^\circ$ and $270^\circ - 360^\circ$ as azimuths
289 of possible noise sources. We compute the average $\delta t/t$ variations from all station pairs
290 with the azimuth in these ranges. In Fig. 6, the average $\delta t/t$ variations are similar to each

291 other, and the difference between them are very small compared to the maximum seasonal
292 variations of the average $\delta t/t$. *Hadziioannou et al.* [2011] also observed that changes in
293 noise directions do not influence the $\delta t/t$ measurements significantly. We conclude that
294 the non-uniform distribution of noise sources has a small effect on the $\delta t/t$ variations.

295 The amplitude of the ambient noise usually shows seasonal variations [*Stehly et al.*, 2006;
296 *Yang et al.*, 2007; *Young*, 1999]. To investigate the velocity variation dependence on the
297 seasonal changes of the amplitude of noise sources, we compare the $\delta t/t$ variations with the
298 seasonal variations of the daily noise amplitude. We estimate hourly noise amplitude by
299 averaging the absolute value of original data in the passband of 0.3-2 Hz, and determine the
300 daily noise amplitude by averaging over 24 hours. In Fig. 7, we observe high amplitude
301 from November to May and low amplitude from June to October, which is consistent
302 with the generally observed high noise energy during winter in the northern hemisphere
303 [*Hillers et al.*, 2015a; *Young*, 1999; *Liu et al.*, 2019]. We also observe high similarity
304 between seasonal variation of the wind speed and average noise amplitude. *Hillers et al.*
305 [2015a] suggested the low-frequency (0.1-2 Hz) noise in the San Jacinto fault area can be
306 excited by the atmosphere-ocean-lithosphere interactions. Thus, ambient noise from 0.3 to
307 2 Hz in the ME can be composed of oceanic microseisms [*Langston et al.*, 2005, 2009; *Liu*
308 *et al.*, 2018a], induced surface waves at the basin-edges [*Kawase*, 1996; *Liu et al.*, 2018a;
309 *Liu et al.*, 2019], and wind. In Fig. 7, we compare the variations of noise amplitude and
310 $\delta t/t$ measurements from January to April and October to December, and observe high
311 similarity between them. We also observe a small increase of $\delta t/t$ measurements with a
312 large increase of noise amplitude in November (Fig. 7). *Hillers et al.* [2015a] also proposed
313 that changes in noise amplitude do not affect the velocity directly but can introduce a

314 bias, a small increase or decrease, in the $\delta t/t$ measurements. Even if a decrease of noise
315 amplitude from April to September can induce a small decrease of the $\delta t/t$ measurement,
316 the decrease is relatively small compared to the $\delta t/t$ changes induced from the water
317 table fluctuations. We conclude that the velocity variations are most likely related to the
318 pore pressure changes in the crust or sediments, rather than changes due to the seasonal
319 variations of the ambient noise amplitude.

3.5. Maximum $\delta t/t$ and correlation coefficient as a function of interstation distance

320 In order to investigate propagation properties of noise in the sediments, we explore the
321 relationship between $\delta t/t$ and interstation distance. The maximum $\delta t/t$ decreases non-
322 linearly with the increasing interstation distance as shown in Fig. 8(A). Because there
323 are not enough station pairs with the interstation distance from 0 to 15 km, our analysis
324 of the relationship between the $\delta t/t$ and distance is limited to 15-100 km. *Meier et al.*
325 [2010] also observed that seasonal variations of $\delta t/t$ became weaker and finally disappeared
326 when the interstation distance is greater than 60 km. They suggested that the vanishing
327 of seasonal variation of $\delta t/t$ is due to absence of coherent noise in the coda window. At
328 close distances, the $\delta t/t$ holds a wide range of values, which could be associated with
329 greater localized variations in $\delta t/t$ in the local sediment structure. At larger distances,
330 $\delta t/t$ variations tend to stabilize to a narrow range.

331 We compute correlation coefficients between normalized $\delta t/t$ variations and the normal-
332 ized water table fluctuation over different distances, and investigate how the correlation
333 coefficients depend on the interstation distance and frequency (Fig. 8(B)). The correlation
334 coefficients are independent of the interstation distance or frequency, but high coefficients

335 (> 0.6) are observed more often in the 0.3-1 Hz than 1-2 Hz passband because high-
336 frequency coherent signals attenuate faster than low-frequency ones (Fig. 8(B)).

4. Conclusions

337 We apply ambient noise correlation to 53 broadband stations which have continuous
338 recordings in 2014, and analyze the seasonal variations of seismic velocity and determine
339 how they correlate with the climatological parameters. We observe maximum $\delta t/t$ in
340 May and June and minimum $\delta t/t$ in September and October relative to the average.
341 The maximum $\delta t/t$ decreases with the frequency from 0.03% in the passband of 0.3-1
342 Hz to 0.02% in the 1-2 Hz. Scattered waves from different local sources or with different
343 incident angles might induce different seismic velocity changes in the predefined frequency
344 ranges. At close distances, the maximum $\delta t/t$ holds a wide range of values, which could
345 be associated with the local sediment structure. At larger distances, velocity variations
346 tend to stabilize to an average value. The average $\delta t/t$ variations for station pairs with
347 different azimuths are similar to each other, which suggests that the velocity variations
348 do not depend on the azimuthal distribution of noise sources. Seasonal variations of noise
349 amplitude might introduce a bias into the $\delta t/t$ estimation but the bias is small compared
350 to the large velocity variations induced by the water table fluctuation.

351 The $\delta t/t$ correlates primarily with the normalized water table fluctuation and does not
352 show an obvious relationship with the atmospheric pressure, temperature, precipitation
353 or wind speed. The $\delta t/t$ variation lags behind the water table fluctuation about 20 days,
354 which suggests the water diffusion effect is the dominant mechanism for the velocity
355 change. We use a poroelastic model to estimate seasonal variations of $\delta v/v$ from 2010 to
356 2018. That is, elastic wave speeds can be estimated from strain amplitude in the strain

357 energy function [Murnaghan, 1951]. The observed value of $\delta v/v$ require m/μ with value
358 around -2000, which is close to values from lab experiments, from -200 to -1000 [D'Angelo
359 *et al.*, 2008]. The correlation coefficients between the water table fluctuation and $\delta t/t$ are
360 independent of the interstation distance and frequency, but more high coefficients (>0.6)
361 are observed in the passband of 0.3-1 Hz than 1-2 Hz. One possible explanation could be
362 that high-frequency coherent signals attenuate faster than low-frequency ones.

363 The results of the poroelastic model suggest that ambient noise cross-correlations can
364 be used to estimate the hydrological properties of sediments in other regions based on the
365 observed delay between the water table fluctuations and seismic velocity changes. This
366 can provide an independent estimate of soil properties that are used in groundwater flow
367 models. Additionally, our results confirm that the first order correction to the elastic
368 properties of soils in the ME are consistent with other laboratory and seismic studies and
369 could be related to the strain induced by the poroelastic diffusion.

370 Our results confirm that climatological variations play a role in determining the elastic
371 properties of sediments in the Central and Eastern United States. Future studies should be
372 completed in other intraplate regions to examine if similar behavior is found, which would
373 provide additional ways to understand the physical mechanisms behind wave propagation
374 and the temporal response of the crust to external forcing. In this manner, we can better
375 determine if temporal velocity changes can be related to stress accumulation on faults
376 due to tectonic loading and improve our ability to determine earthquake risk in intraplate
377 fault regions.

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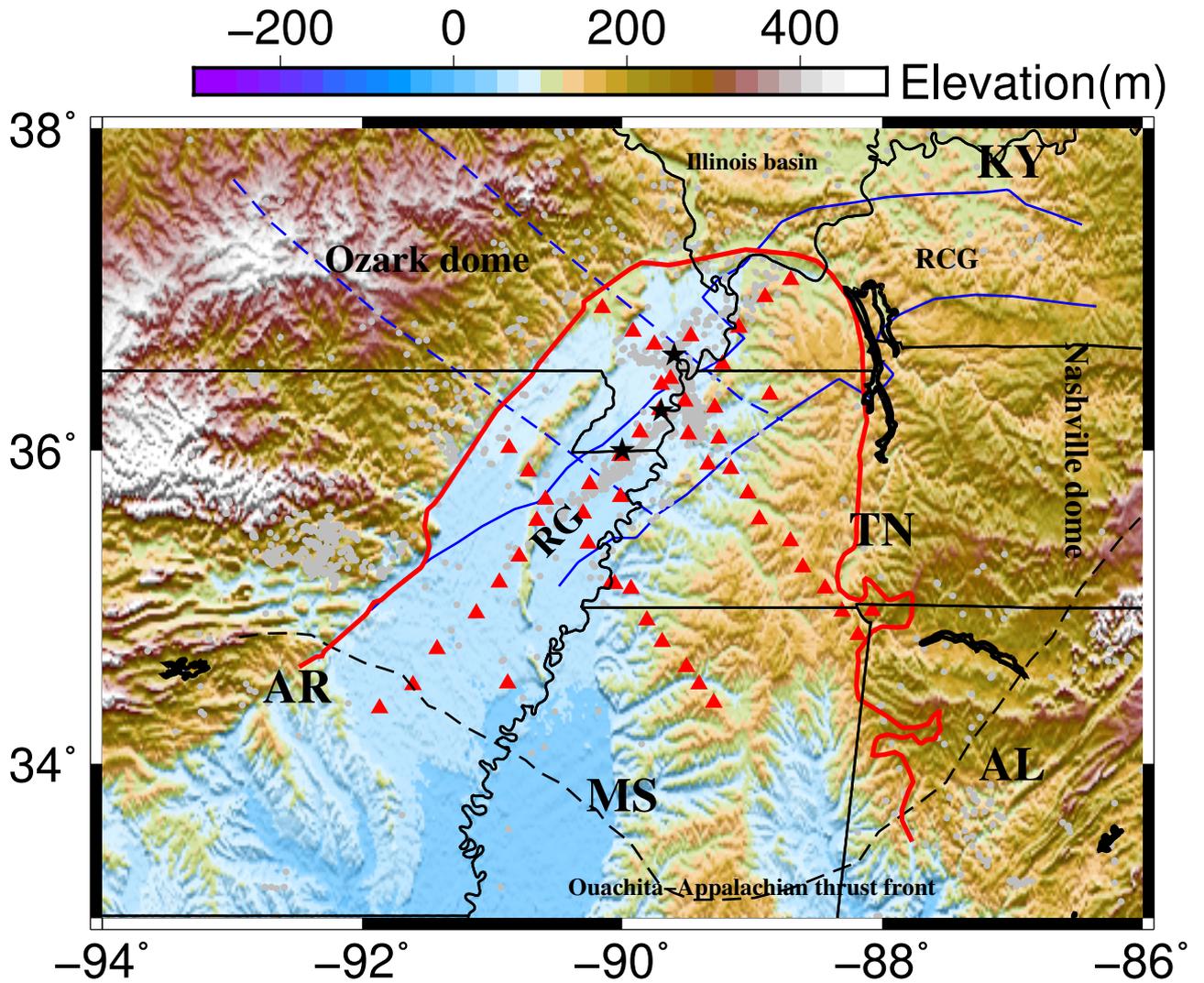


Figure 1. Index map of the Mississippi embayment in the central United States showing $M_w > 2.0$ earthquake catalog from 1990 to present (small gray dots), three $M_w > 7.0$ earthquakes (black stars), broadband stations (red triangles) used for CCs, Reelfoot-Rough Creek graben (RG-RCG, blue solid lines) and Missouri Batholith (blue dashed lines) modified from *Hildenbrand and Hendricks* [1995], sediment boundaries of Mississippi embayment (red solid lines) modified from *Dart* [1992] and *Dart and Swolfs* [1998], Ouachita-Appalachian thrust front (black dashed lines), Nashville dome and Ozark dome. From southwest to northeast, three major earthquakes occurred on Dec.16, 1811 with $M_w = 7.7$, Jan. 23, 1812 with $M_w = 7.5$, and Feb. 7, 1812 with $M_w = 7.7$.

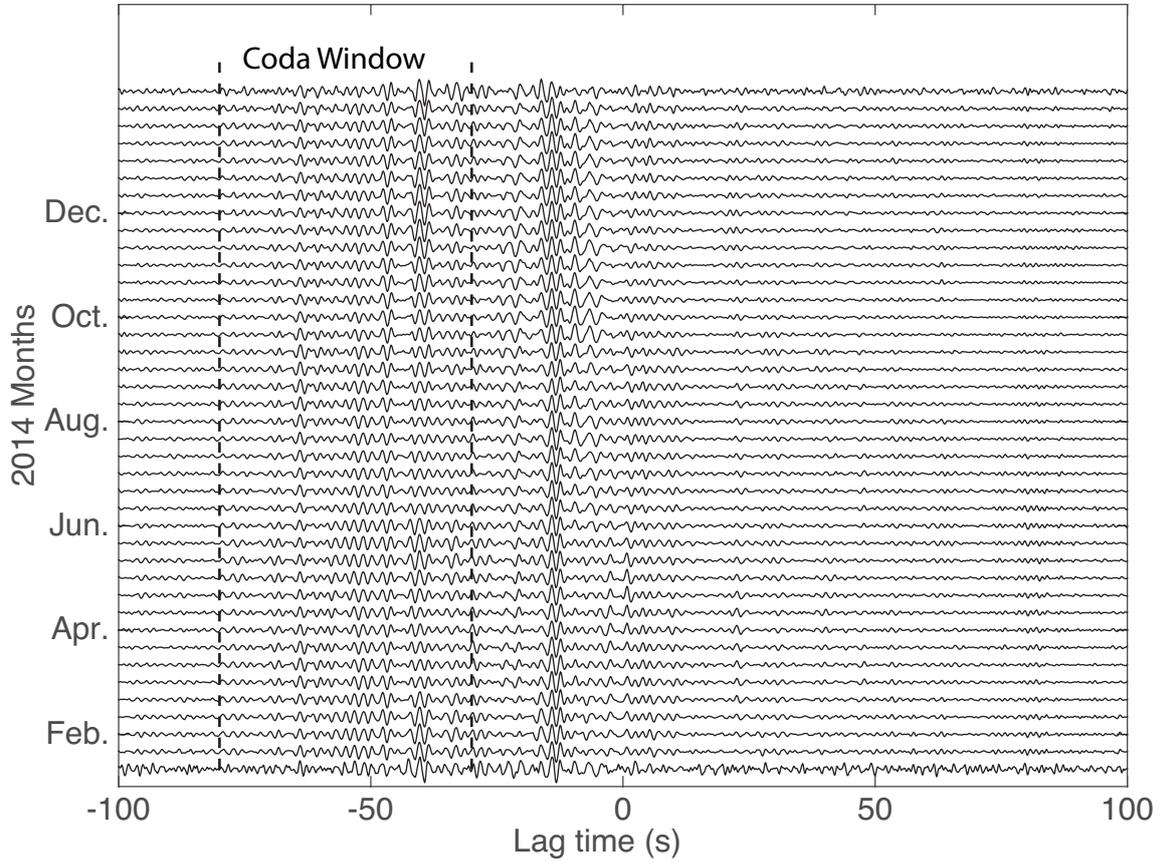


Figure 2. Example of 30 days moving stacked vertical component CCs for the station pair C07:C08 of the network NELE in 2014. The interstation distance is 30 km. The CCs are in the passband of 0.3-1 Hz. The dashed lines from -80 s to -30 s mark the coda window.

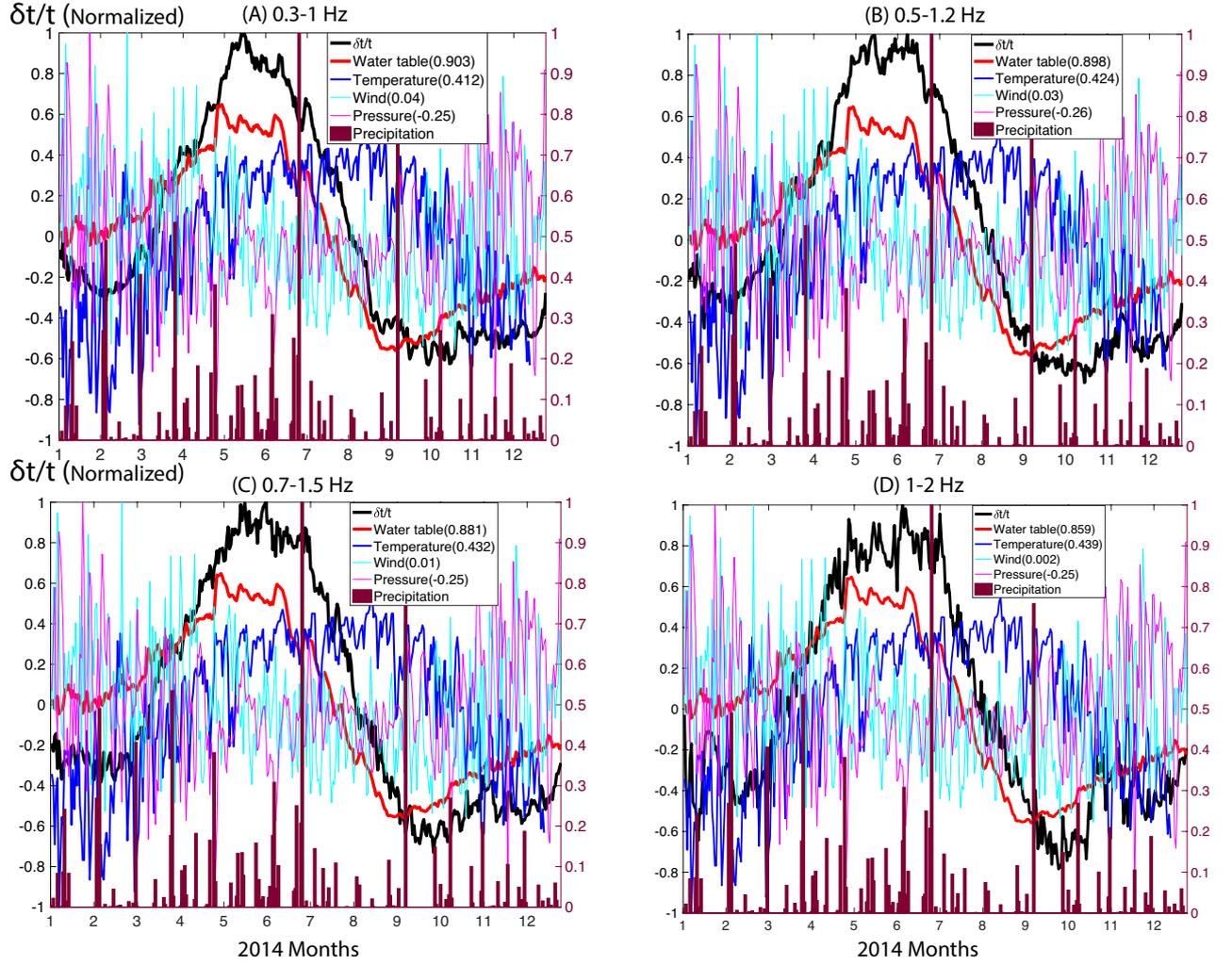


Figure 3. The correlation of averaged normalized $\delta t/t$ for all station pairs with normalized climatological parameters, water table fluctuation, precipitation, temperature, wind speed, and atmospheric pressure, in the passbands from 0.3-1, 0.5-1.2, 0.7-1.5, and 1-2 Hz. The right-side vertical scale is for the normalized precipitation. The values after the climatological parameters in the legend represent the correlation coefficients with the $\delta t/t$. The $\delta t/t$ correlates primarily with the normalized water table fluctuation in all predefined frequency ranges. No clear relationship could be observed between the normalized $\delta t/t$ and wind speed, precipitation and atmospheric pressure. As *Tsai* [2011] and *Hillers et al.* [2015a] suggested, temperature changes should be positively correlated with the $\delta v/v$ variations which is opposite to what we observe.

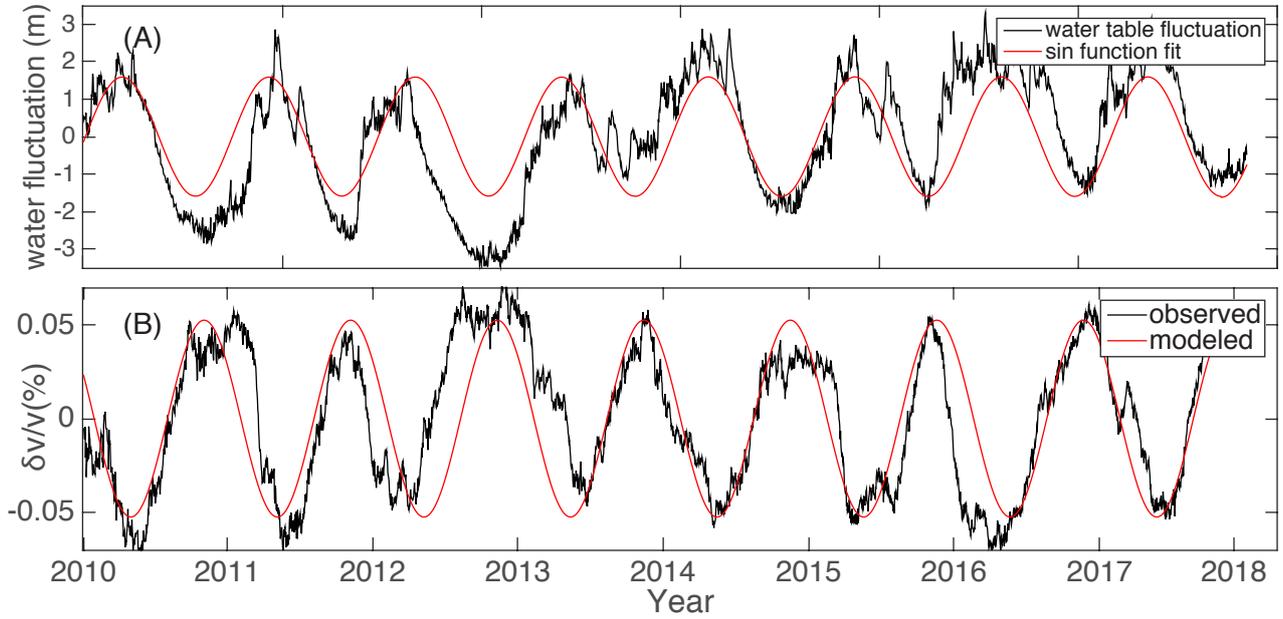


Figure 4. Comparison of modeled and observed $\delta v/v$ from the poroelastic solution. (A) We approximate the true water table fluctuation (black), which varies from year to year, with an averaged sinusoidal fit (red). This is necessary because the water fluctuation and $\delta v/v$ are slightly phase shifted due to the diffusion effect, thus we cannot use the true water table level directly in the model calculations. (B) Comparison between the observed $\delta v/v$ (black) and model predictions (red) assuming $m/\mu = -2000$. This value is within the range of values inferred from laboratory observations of the nonlinear elastic properties of rock.

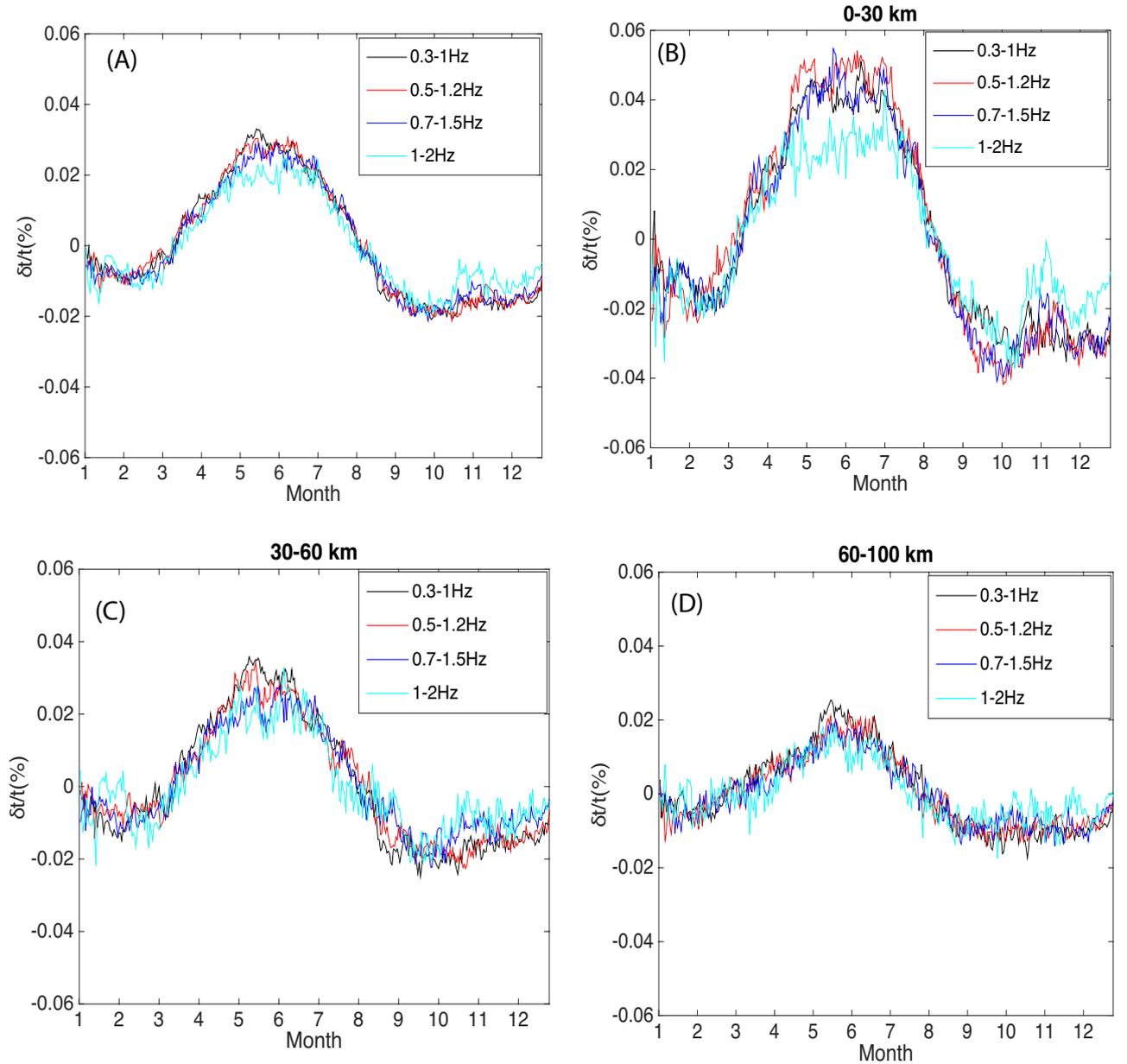


Figure 5. The average velocity change in different frequency bands for different interstation distances. (A) Average velocity change for all station pairs with interstation distance between 0 and 100 km in 4 predefined frequency ranges, 0.3-1, 0.5-1.2, 0.7-1.5, and 1-2 Hz. The maximum $\delta t/t$ decreases from 0.03% in the passband of 0.3-1 Hz to 0.02% in the 1-2 Hz. (B-D) $\delta t/t$ variations in different distance ranges. Maximum $\delta t/t$ variations decrease with increasing frequency and interstation distance.

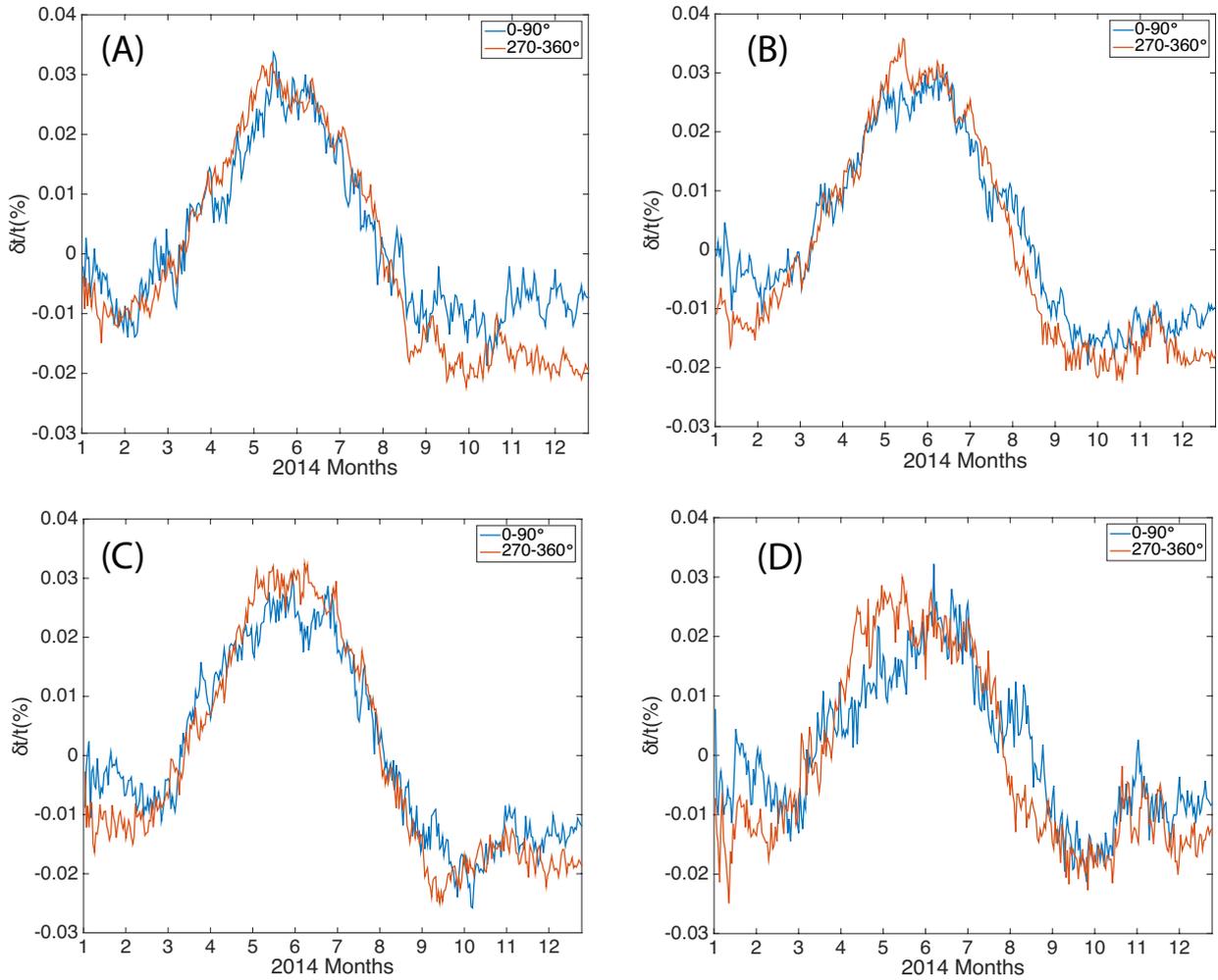


Figure 6. $\delta t/t$ dependence on the azimuth in the passband of 0.3-1 Hz, 0.5-1.2 Hz, 0.7-1.5 Hz, and 1-2 Hz. Average $\delta t/t$ variations in the azimuth of 0-90° and 270-360° are similar to each other, and the differences between them are small. The non-uniform distribution of noise sources has a small effect on the $\delta t/t$ variations.

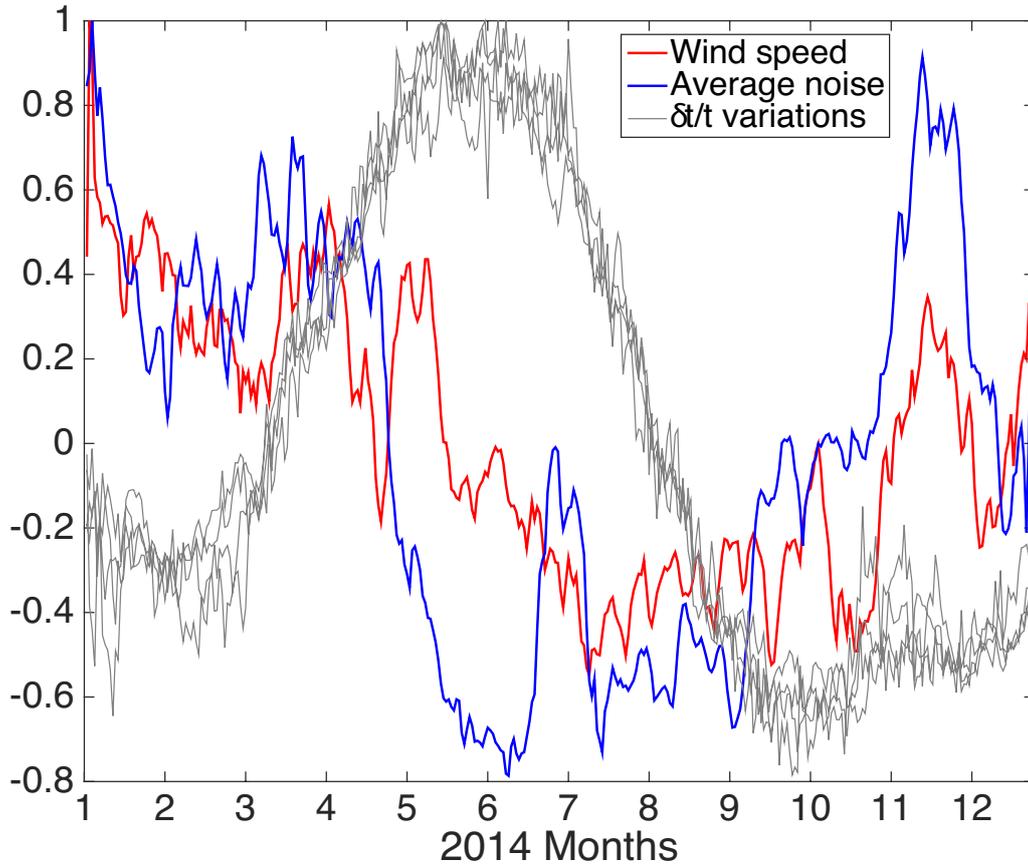


Figure 7. $\delta t/t$ dependence on the seasonal variation of noise amplitude. High similarity, though not an exact match, can be observed between seasonal variation of noise amplitude and wind speed, which suggests the noise in the passband of 0.3-2 Hz could be composed of oceanic microseisms, induced surface waves, and wind noise. High similarity can be observed between the variations of noise amplitude and $\delta t/t$ from January to April and October to December. A large increase of noise amplitude induces a small increase of $\delta t/t$ in November, which suggests that noise amplitude may introduce a small bias into the velocity measurements. The bias from noise amplitude variation is small compared to the maximum velocity change induced from the water table fluctuation from April to September. We suggest that the velocity variations are primarily related to the pore pressure changes in the crust or sediments, rather than the seasonal variations of the ambient noise amplitude.

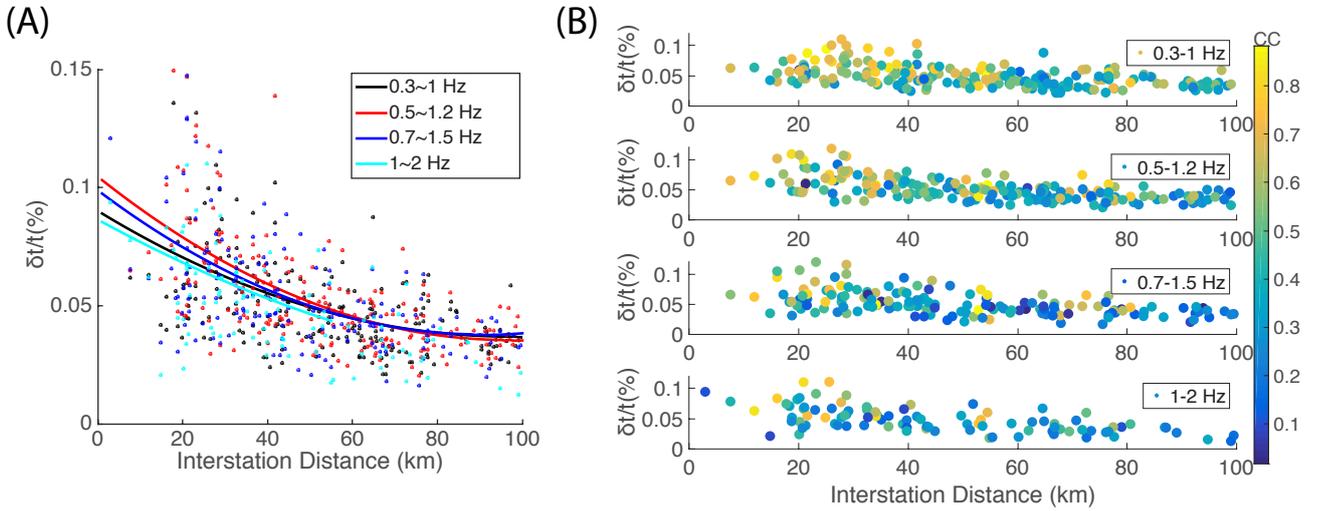


Figure 8. $\delta t/t$ and correlation coefficient dependence on the interstation distance. (A) The maximum $\delta t/t$ variations decrease non-linearly with the interstation distance. At close distance, $\delta t/t$ samples a small region and holds a wide range of values, which could be related to local sediment structure. At larger distances, $\delta t/t$ samples a large region so that it tends to stabilize to an average value. (B) Correlation coefficient dependence on the distance and frequency. The correlation coefficients are between water table fluctuation and $\delta t/t$ variations. High coefficients (> 0.6) may be observed more often in the passband of 0.3-1 Hz than 1-2 Hz because high-frequency coherent noise attenuates faster than low-frequency noise.