

Likely PKS-PKP from Array Processing of Noise Records

Tianze Liu^{1,1,1} and Peter M. Shearer^{2,2,2}

¹University of California, San Diego

²U.C. San Diego

November 30, 2022

Abstract

Seismic noise has been widely used to image Earth's structure in the past decades as a powerful supplement to earthquake signals. Although the seismic noise field contains both surface-wave and body-wave components, most previous studies have focused on surface waves due to their large amplitudes. Here, we use array analyses to identify body-wave noise traveling as PKP waves. We find that by cross-correlating the array-stacked horizontal- and vertical-component data in the time windows containing the PKP noise signals, we extract a phase likely representing PKS-PKP, the differential phase between PKS and PKP. This phase can potentially be used for shear-wave-splitting analysis. Our results also suggest that the sources of body-wave noise are extremely heterogeneous in both space and time, which should be accounted for in future studies

Abstract

Seismic noise has been widely used to image Earth's structure in the past decades as a powerful supplement to earthquake signals. Although the seismic noise field contains both surface-wave and body-wave components, most previous studies have focused on surface waves due to their large amplitudes. Here, we use array analyses to identify body-wave noise traveling as *PKP* waves. We find that by cross-correlating the array-stacked horizontal- and vertical-component data in the time windows containing the *PKP* noise signals, we extract a phase likely representing *PKS-PKP*. This phase can potentially be used for shear-wave splitting analysis and studying core-mantle boundary structure. Our results also suggest that the sources of body-wave noise are extremely heterogeneous in both space and time, which should be accounted for in future studies using body-wave noise to image Earth structure.

Plain Language Summary

Seismic noise is the vibration of Earth generated by activities other than earthquakes, such as wind and ocean waves. Signals extracted from seismic noise can be used to study Earth's interior structure in ways similar to how earthquake records have been analyzed. Most previous studies using seismic noise to study Earth structure used its surface-wave component, i.e., the waves propagating at Earth's surface, whereas the body-wave component, i.e., the waves traveling through Earth's interior, is less used because body-wave noise is usually much weaker than surface-wave noise. Here, we use data collected by a dense seismic array to identify body-wave noise propagating as *PKP* waves, P waves that travel through Earth's core. We also find that a seismic phase, likely *PKS-PKP*, the P-to-S converted waves at the core-mantle boundary, can be extracted from the records of time windows containing strong *PKP* energy. This phase can potentially be used to study the anisotropic properties of Earth's crust and mantle and the structure of the core-mantle boundary.

1 Introduction

Recent decades saw a rapid expansion of studies using seismic noise to image Earth structure (e.g. Shapiro et al. (2005), Bensen et al. (2007), Brenguier et al. (2008), Lin et al. (2009), Poli et al. (2012), Nakata et al. (2015)). Most of these studies focused on extracting surface-wave signals from the noise field because surface waves usually dom-

41 inate the signals retrieved by noise cross-correlation. This observation is commonly at-
42 tributed to the prominence of surface waves in Earth’s noise field as a result of noise sources,
43 such as wind and ocean waves, occurring mostly at the surface. Despite their lower am-
44 plitudes, body-wave signals have occasionally been retrieved from noise cross-correlations
45 and used to image Earth structure (e.g. Poli et al. (2012), Nakata et al. (2015), Feng et
46 al. (2021)). A major advantage of body waves over surface waves in studying Earth struc-
47 ture is that body-wave reflected and converted phases are sensitive to material discon-
48 tinuities in Earth’s interior (e.g., the Moho and the core-mantle boundary (CMB)), which
49 cannot be resolved with surface-wave data alone. However, body-wave reflection and con-
50 version signals are weaker than direct phases and thus more difficult to observe in the
51 cross-correlation functions, which are typically noisier than earthquake recordings. There-
52 fore, techniques capable of enhancing body-wave reflection and conversion signals are needed
53 to better image Earth’s discontinuities with noise records.

54 In addition to imaging using seismic noise, in recent years major advances have been
55 made in understanding the sources of Earth’s noise field (e.g., Gualtieri et al. (2014), Nishida
56 and Takagi (2016), Liu et al. (2020), Retailleau and Gualtieri (2021)). Many contribu-
57 tions were made by studying body-wave noise signals with array techniques (e.g., beam-
58 forming and back-projection), which suggests that weak body-wave noise signals can be
59 enhanced with array processing to better image Earth structure. These studies also showed
60 that body-wave noise sources, which are usually associated with storms in the oceans,
61 are likely spatially and temporally heterogeneous, which implies that body-wave signals
62 could be better retrieved through seismic interferometry if the variations of the body-
63 wave noise sources are properly accounted for.

64 Here, we present observations of body-wave noise propagating as *PKP* using data
65 collected by a dense broadband seismic array in the central US. We further show that
66 a phase likely representing *PKS-PKP* can be extracted by cross-correlating the array-
67 stacked horizontal- and vertical-component noise records in the time windows contain-
68 ing the *PKP* noise signals. We then discuss the potential applications of this seismic phase
69 and the implications of our findings for seismic interferometry.

2 Data and preprocessing

We mainly use the continuous data collected by the Ozark Illinois Indiana Kentucky (OIINK) Flexible Array Experiment (network code: XO), a dense 2D broadband seismic array with a station spacing of ~ 25 km located in the central US (Fig. 1). To make the resolution of our results more isotropic, we select the OIINK stations located in a 100-km radius circle and also include the Transportable-Array stations in this range (Fig. 1b). Although the two arrays together span 2011–2015, to ensure a reasonable resolution we focused on time windows with more than 20 active stations, which limits our analysis to a roughly one-year period between June 2012 and August 2013. We downloaded the continuous data from the IRIS Data Management Center in one-hour time windows, removed the instrument response, and band-pass filtered the data to 2–10 seconds, which contains the secondary microseism energy (Retailleau & Gualtieri, 2021). To avoid the effects of earthquakes and instrument malfunctions, we removed the 1-hour time windows containing the first arrivals of global earthquakes with magnitude > 5 and those containing amplitudes $> 1 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m s}^{-1}$.

3 *PKP* signals from beamforming analysis

We performed conventional linear beamforming with all three components (vertical, east, and north) of our array data to characterize the directional properties of the noise field. To save computational cost, we first performed a reconnaissance analysis over the slowness range $\pm 0.2 \text{ s km}^{-1}$ at a grid spacing of 0.013 s km^{-1} in the W-E and S-N directions. The resulting vertical-component slowness images clearly show beams with slowness $< 0.04 \text{ s km}^{-1}$, which likely represent *PKP* signals (Fig. 2a). The horizontal-component slowness images also show local maxima corresponding to the *PKP* beams on the vertical component, though the background noise is significantly higher on the horizontal-component images (Fig. 2a), which could be due to the near-vertical particle motion of *PKP* or a more homogeneous distribution of horizontal-component noise sources. The slowness images of some time windows also show multiple peaks (e.g., 2013-07-06-00-00; Fig. 2a).

For seismic imaging, we prefer to use time windows dominated by *PKP* energy from a single direction because this resembles that of earthquake sources, which may make techniques in earthquake imaging readily applicable. To identify these time windows, we

101 find the maximum in the *PKP* range (slowness $< 0.04 \text{ s km}^{-1}$) of each vertical-component
 102 slowness image and the corresponding slowness vector, which we refer to as the *PKP* slow-
 103 ness. We then define the vertical-component normalized *PKP*-beam amplitude as the
 104 ratio between the maximum amplitude in the *PKP* range and the average amplitude of
 105 the whole slowness image, which measures the power of the strongest *PKP* beam rel-
 106 ative to the background noise. We further define the corresponding normalized *PKP*-
 107 beam amplitudes for the horizontal components as the ratios between the amplitudes
 108 at the *PKP* slowness and the average amplitudes of the whole slowness images. We fi-
 109 nally define the three-component normalized *PKP*-beam amplitude (hereafter “*PKP*-
 110 beam amplitude”) as the product of the normalized *PKP*-beam amplitudes for the three
 111 components. We regard the time windows with *PKP*-beam amplitude > 2 , which ac-
 112 count for about 10% of all the time windows, as windows dominated by *PKP* energy from
 113 a single direction and make a histogram of the *PKP* slowness of these time windows, which
 114 shows that the vast majority of these time windows have slownesses close to the b and
 115 c caustics of *PKP* (Fig. 2b). This phenomenon is probably due to the amplification of
 116 *PKP* near the caustics.

117 To identify the source locations of these *PKP* beams, we performed beamforming
 118 for the vertical-component records of the previously identified time windows with *PKP*
 119 amplitude > 2 in the range $\pm 0.05 \text{ s km}^{-1}$, using a finer slowness grid spacing of 0.0032 s km^{-1} .
 120 We then convert these high-resolution *PKP* slowness vectors to source locations using
 121 the *PKP* slowness-distance relation computed with the IASP91 earth model (Fig. 3a,
 122 b; Kennett et al. (1995)). When different time windows have the same *PKP* slowness
 123 vector, we regard them as having the same source locations and record their cumulative
 124 duration (number of hours; Fig. 3a, b), which is sufficient for a preliminary character-
 125 ization of these sources. We note that these estimated source locations are only approx-
 126 imate, as the slowness peaks are relatively broad in our images, 3D heterogeneity likely
 127 introduces deviations between observed slownesses and those predicted by 1D models,
 128 and the ocean-wave sources themselves are spatially defused rather than concentrated
 129 like earthquakes. A more detailed study of the spatial extent and temporal evolution of
 130 these sources will require back-projection imaging using data collected by arrays with
 131 a larger aperture than used here, which is beyond the scope of this study.

132 Our *PKP* sources are predominantly located in the Southern Ocean, where the ocean
 133 waves are the highest among all water bodies in the *PKP* range of our array (Fig. 3a).

134 We also observe far more *PKP* sources in the southern winter (Jul 2012–Sep 2012 and
 135 Apr 2013–Sep 2013) than the southern summer (Oct 2012–Mar 2013) of our observation
 136 period (Fig. 3a), which is likely due to the greater wave height in the Southern Ocean
 137 in winter. In addition to wave height, a proxy for wave energy, P-wave radiation of ocean-
 138 solid-earth interactions is also controlled by wave period and ocean depth, which can be
 139 characterized using the ocean site effect (Gualtieri et al., 2014). Our *PKP* sources ap-
 140 pear to be mostly located in areas with high P-wave ocean site-effect at 4 and 5 s from
 141 Gualtieri et al. (2014) (Fig. 3b). The correlations between the spatial distribution of our
 142 *PKP* sources and the wave height and the ocean-site effect indicate that our *PKP* waves
 143 likely result from the nonlinear interaction of ocean gravity waves generated by storms
 144 (Gualtieri et al., 2014), consistent with the conclusions from previous studies that iden-
 145 tified *PKP* energy in Earth’s noise field (e.g. Koper and de Foy (2008), Gerstoft et al.
 146 (2008)).

147 We also compare the temporal variation of our *PKP* signals with global earthquake
 148 activity. Fig. 3c illustrates the variation of our *PKP*-beam amplitude over the time pe-
 149 riod of about a year, with significantly stronger *PKP* beams in southern winter than in
 150 southern summer. In addition to the broad peaks likely due to ocean activity, the *PKP*-
 151 beam amplitude shows many narrow spikes, which appear to be correlated with global
 152 seismic activity (Fig. 3c). Since the time windows containing the direct arrivals of global
 153 $M > 5$ events were removed from our analysis, these spikes must be due to the coda
 154 waves of the events, which can persist for hours after the first arrivals (Tkalčić et al., 2020).
 155 Interestingly, many of these spikes correlate with events not in the *PKP* range (gray lines
 156 in Fig. 3c), suggesting that the coda waves of global earthquakes contain waves travel-
 157 ing with smaller slownesses and thus steeper incident angles than the direct phases. This
 158 observation agrees with recent studies using these steeply incident coda waves to explain
 159 the phases in Earth’s correlation wave field (e.g. Tkalčić et al. (2020)).

160 **4 *PKS-PKP* from Cross-component Cross-correlation**

161 Wave fields dominated by a single *PKP* noise source are analogous to those gen-
 162 erated by earthquakes because the wave fields in both cases are close to unidirectional.
 163 Therefore, imaging techniques designed for earthquake data, e.g., receiver function tech-
 164 niques, may also be applicable to noise data dominated by a single *PKP* noise source.
 165 Here, we use cross-correlation between the horizontal- and vertical-component noise records

166 as an approximation of the deconvolution procedure in receiver-function analysis (Ammon,
 167 1991). To enhance the near-vertically traveling *PKP* waves while reducing surface-wave
 168 energy, which typically dominates Earth’s noise field, we stack the vertical- and horizontal-
 169 component records of all the active stations in the array before performing cross-correlation
 170 on the stacked records (hereafter “array stacking”). The resulting E-Z and N-Z cross-
 171 correlation functions show a clear arrival at ~ 215 s, whose amplitude appears to tem-
 172 porally correlate with the *PKP*-beam amplitude (Fig. 4a, b). This correlation is more
 173 clearly shown when we compare the temporal variation of the relative amplitude of the
 174 215-second phase, defined as the ratio between the average absolute amplitude in a 30-
 175 second window around 215 s and that in a 90-second window around 215 s, on daily stacked
 176 cross-correlation functions (red in Fig. 4b) with the temporal variation of the *PKP*-beam
 177 amplitude (black in Fig. 4b). This correlation suggests an association of this phase with
 178 the interaction between P waves and Earth’s core. Following previous noise-imaging stud-
 179 ies, we stacked the cross-correlation functions of many time windows to enhance the signal-
 180 noise-ratio of this phase (hereafter “215-second phase”). The results show that stack-
 181 ing using only the time windows with a strong *PKP* beam produces a stronger 215-second
 182 phase than stacking using both the time windows with and without strong *PKP* beams
 183 (Fig. 4c–d), which is expected because the time windows without strong *PKP* beams
 184 generally do not show a clear 215-second phase (Fig. 4a, b). Hereafter, we will focus on the
 185 time windows with *PKP*-beam amplitude > 2 , which likely contain the highest-quality
 186 215-second phases (Fig. 4).

187 To test the effects of array stacking on the waveform quality, we computed the stacked
 188 cross-correlation functions for each station individually before stacking them. Note that
 189 the difference between this method without array stacking and the method with array
 190 stacking is whether stacking across different stations is performed after (without array
 191 stacking) or before (with array stacking) cross-correlations. The comparison between the
 192 results of these two methods clearly shows that the method with array stacking produces
 193 significantly stronger 215-second phases (Fig. 4c), which is likely because stacking the
 194 noise records across the array enhances the near-vertically traveling *PKP* noise and the
 195 associated phases, which are responsible for the 215-second phase. From now on, we will
 196 show only the results from the cross-correlation functions with array stacking.

197 To further characterize the 215-second phase, we binned the *PKP* slowness vec-
 198 tors into grids with 15° and 0.005 s km^{-1} spacing in azimuth and slowness and stacked

199 the cross-correlation functions of the time windows in each bin (hereafter “*PKP*-source
 200 bin”), which is analogous to receiver-function stacks for groups of nearby earthquakes.
 201 While processing the data for each *PKP*-source bin, we aligned the records of individ-
 202 ual stations using the back azimuth and slowness of the bin before performing array stack-
 203 ing, which further enhances the *PKP* signals. The stacked waveform shows that although
 204 the amplitude of the 215-second phase varies significantly across different source bins,
 205 its arrival time stays almost the same (Fig. 5). We also computed the best-fitting lin-
 206 ear polarization direction for the 215-second arrival of each *PKP* source by finding the
 207 direction that maximizes the maximum absolute amplitude of the 215-second arrival, which
 208 is taken in a 30 s time window around 215 s, on the signal projected to the direction. These
 209 polarization directions (red bars in Fig. 5) agree very well with those of the correspond-
 210 ing sources bins (black bars in Fig. 5), suggesting that the 215-second phase consists of
 211 mostly SV energy.

212 Based on the above observations about our 215-second phase, we interpret it as *PKS*-
 213 *PKP* (Fig. 1c). Because travel-time curves of the same branches of *PKP* and *PKS* are
 214 almost parallel (Fig. 1d), the differential travel time of the two phases stays at ~ 215 s
 215 across a broad range epicentral distance, which is consistent with the observation that
 216 our 215-second phase remains at approximately the same time for sources with differ-
 217 ent slownesses (Fig. 5). The radial polarization of our 215-second phase also agrees with
 218 that of *PKS*, which consists only of SV waves in an isotropic earth. Although different
 219 branches of *PKP* and *PKS* often arrive in the same distance range (Fig. 1c, d), the near-
 220 constant arrival time of our 215-second phase indicates that it most likely results from
 221 the cross-correlation of *PKP* and *PKS* phases from the same branch. One possible ex-
 222 planation for this observation is that the different ray paths of different *PKP* and *PKS*
 223 branches leave different structural imprints on their waveform, which causes them to decor-
 224 relate.

225 Among our *PKP* beams, many have slownesses >0.032 s km $^{-1}$, which suggests that
 226 they belong to the *PKPab* branch. However, *PKPab* does not coexist with *PKSab* at the
 227 same distance (Fig. 1d), which appears to suggest that their clear *PKS-PKP* signals (e.g.
 228 Fig. 5a) result from cross-correlation between *PKPab* and *PKS* of other branches. To
 229 investigate this issue, we performed beamforming using the same dataset for four earth-
 230 quakes from the USGS earthquake catalog (EQ1–4) that are close to one of our *PKP* sources
 231 with slowness >0.032 s km $^{-1}$ (2013-07-06-00-00-00; Fig. S1). Among them, EQ1 and EQ2

232 show good agreement between the observed and predicted slowness, whereas EQ3 and
 233 EQ4 show greater slownesses than the predictions (Fig. S1c), which are probably due
 234 to lateral heterogeneity along the ray paths. We thus infer that our *PKP* beams with
 235 $>0.032 \text{ s km}^{-1}$ may actually represent *PKPbc* waves whose slownesses are elevated due
 236 to similar 3D structural effects, which, unlike *PKPab*, coexist with *PKSbc* at the same
 237 distance. We note that the 3D structural effects likely also cause errors in our *PKP* source
 238 locations, which should only be regarded as preliminary estimates.

239 5 Discussion

240 To our knowledge, this is the first report of *PKS-PKP* retrieved from noise data.
 241 Although our *PKS-PKP* observation has the same arrival time ($\sim 215 \text{ s}$) as *cS-cP*, a phase
 242 in Earth's correlation wavefield, at zero station offset (Pham et al., 2018), the two phases
 243 are fundamentally different for two main reasons: First, our *PKS-PKP* has its counter-
 244 part in earthquake records *PKS*, whereas *cS-cP* is not observed in earthquake records.
 245 Second, our *PKS-PKP* is extracted via cross-correlation of different data components
 246 recorded at the same location, whereas *cS-cP* is retrieved through cross-correlation of
 247 vertical-component data recorded at different locations (Pham et al., 2018). Because *PKS*
 248 is routinely used for shear-wave-splitting analyses (e.g. Long and Silver (2009)), we also
 249 experimented with shear-wave splitting analysis (see Supplementary Text 1 for the method)
 250 using our *PKS-PKP* observations but obtained results very different from previous stud-
 251 ies. The two *PKP*-source bins with the clearest *PKS-PKP* waveforms, PKP01 and PKP05
 252 (Fig. 5), yielded fast directions of 121° and 127° , respectively (Figs. S2 and S3), signif-
 253 icantly different from $\sim 70^\circ$ given by shear-wave-splitting analyses of earthquake data (Yang
 254 et al., 2017). This discrepancy could be due to the low quality of our signals as the eigenvalue-
 255 ratio distributions indicate that neither of the two measurements is very conclusive (Figs.
 256 S2c and S3c). Since our data contain energy only in the narrow band between 2 and 10 s,
 257 whereas earthquake data typically contain more long-period energy, another possible ex-
 258 planation for this discrepancy is that our results are affected more by shallow structure
 259 than those from earthquake data. This hypothesis is supported by previous studies show-
 260 ing increased sensitivity of *SKS* splitting parameters to shallow structure at shorter pe-
 261 riods (e.g. Sieminski et al. (2008)). In addition, Wirth and Long (2014) gave a NW-SE
 262 fast direction in the upper lithosphere of our study area, which is more consistent with
 263 our results.

264 Although the arrival time of our *PKS-PKP* observations stay mostly the same for
 265 different *PKP* sources, its amplitude varies significantly (Fig. 5). This variation does not
 266 appear to be due to stacking fold because sources with lower stacking fold can have stronger
 267 *PKS-PKP* than those with higher stacking folder (e.g. PKP05 compared with PKP04).
 268 Therefore, the variation is likely due to differences in the sources or the structures that
 269 the waves travel through. The sources with stronger *PKS-PKP* may radiate stronger *PKP*
 270 waves. Alternatively, heterogeneity at the core-mantle boundary (CMB), e.g. the Ultra
 271 Low Velocity Zones (Garnero et al., 1998), may cause changes in *PKS* waveforms. One
 272 way to separate contributions from source and structure is to observe *PKS-PKP* across
 273 a broader range. The Transportable Array (TA) is suitable for this purpose, although
 274 its station density is significantly lower than that used here. Nonetheless, we may be able
 275 to achieve a similar signal quality with the TA data by stacking stations within a broader
 276 radius (the current limit is a 100 km-radius circle) because the increased range will still
 277 be much smaller than the depth to the CMB.

278 Our results show that *PKP* noise sources are extremely variable in both space and
 279 time, which likely also applies to other body-wave noise sources. We also find that body-
 280 wave scattering signals extracted from noise data can be significantly enhanced with sim-
 281 ple techniques, namely time-window selection and array stacking, that address the spa-
 282 tiatemporal variation of body-wave sources. In principle, time-window selection does not
 283 require dense-array data, although a synchronous array may be necessary to determine
 284 the time windows containing significant body-wave noise energy. Array stacking requires
 285 array data, which limits its application, although the required array density likely de-
 286 pends on the targeted seismic phase. So far, most of the seismic imaging studies using
 287 body-wave noise have not accounted for its spatiatemporal variation and have relied sim-
 288 ply on stacking large number of cross-correlation functions (e.g. Poli et al. (2012) and
 289 Feng et al. (2021)). Our results suggest that the primary contribution to their signals
 290 may have only come from a fraction of all the time windows, and that simply selecting
 291 those time windows might significantly improve the signal quality (Fig. 4). The signal
 292 quality may be further improved if array stacking can be performed before cross-correlation.

293 **6 Conclusions**

294 We extract a phase that likely represents *PKS-PKP* from cross-component cross-
 295 correlation of noise recordings. We show that the amplitude of *PKS-PKP* is significantly

296 enhanced when only time windows containing strong *PKP* signals are used. We also show
 297 that stacking array data before cross-correlation significantly enhances *PKS-PKP* am-
 298 plitudes. Future studies that retrieve body-wave scattered phases from noise data should
 299 account for the spatiotemporal variation of body-wave noise sources.

300 **Data Availability Statement**

301 The seismic and wave-height data used in this study are freely available through
 302 the Incorporated Research Institutions for Seismology Data Management Center (IRIS
 303 DMC) <https://ds.iris.edu/ds/nodes/dmc/> and the Environmental Modeling Cen-
 304 ter of NOAA <https://polar.ncep.noaa.gov/waves/wavewatch/>, respectively. The plots
 305 in this paper are created with the Generic Mapping Tools (Wessel et al., 2019).

306 **Acknowledgments**

307 This study is funded by NSF Grants EAR-1358510 and EAR-1829601. T.L. is supported
 308 by a Green Postdoctoral Scholarship. IRIS DMC is funded by the the NSF under Co-
 309 operative Support Agreement EAR-1851048. We thank Lucia Gualtieri for providing the
 310 ocean site-effect maps and Wenyuan Fan for stimulating discussion.

Figure 1. Station locations and *PKP* and *PKS* ray geometries and travel times. (a) Map of the contiguous US showing the closeup of panel (b) marked in red. (b) Map of all the OIINK stations (magenta) and nearby TA stations (cyan). The 100-km radius circle defines the region in which the stations are included in our analysis. (c) Ray paths of *PKPab*, *PKPdf* (blue), and *PKSdf* (cyan) at 160°. (d) Travel times as functions of epicentral distance for different branches of *PKP* (blue) and *PKS* (cyan)

Figure 2. *PKP* beams derived with array analyses. (a) Example three-component slowness images for two one-hour time windows 2013-07-06-00-00-00 (top) and 2012-07-16-11-00-00 (bottom) with clear *PKP* energy. Gray circle: slowness of 0.04 s km^{-1} . (b) Slowness-distance relation of *PKP* (blue curve) and the slowness histogram of the time windows with *PKP*-beam amplitude > 2 .

Figure 3. Spatial distribution and temporal variation of our PKP sources. (a) Spatial distributions of our *PKP* sources overlain on the ocean site-effect maps for period = 4 s (left) and 5 s (right) from Gualtieri et al. (2014). Sizes of the circles denote the cumulative duration of each source. (b) The same as (a), but for sources in the southern winter (left) and summer (right) of our observation period overlain on the average significant wave-height maps for the respective seasons from WAVEWATCH III (Tolman et al., 2009). (c) Three-component *PKP*-beam amplitude as a function of time. Red and gray lines mark the origin times of global $M > 6$ events in and out of the *PKP* epicentral distance range, respectively.

Figure 4. E-Z and N-Z cross-correlation functions of the array-stacked records. (a) E-Z (left) and N-Z (right) cross-correlation functions for all the active time windows in a three-month period from June to September 2012. (b) Temporal variation of *PKP*-beam amplitude (black) and the 215-second-phase amplitude (red) for the time range in (a). (c–d) Blue waveform: Stacked E-Z (left) and N-Z (right) cross-correlation functions for time windows with *PKP*-beam amplitude (c) > 2 , (d) > 1 , and (e) all the time windows. Gray waveform in (c): The same as the blue waveform, but computed with stacking E-Z and N-Z cross-correlation functions of individual stations.

Figure 5. Stacked cross-correlation functions for the five *PKP*-source bins with the most cumulative duration: (a) PKP01, (b) PKP02, (c) PKP03, (d) PKP04, and (e) PKP05. Left column: Stacked E-Z (blue) and N-Z (yellow) cross-correlation functions. Right column: *PKP* beam direction (black) and the best-fit linear polarization (red) for the signals in a 30-s time window around 215 s.

311 References

- 312 Ammon, C. J. (1991). The isolation of receiver effects from teleseismic p waveforms.
 313 *Bulletin-Seismological Society of America*, *81*(6), 2504–2510.
- 314 Bensen, G., Ritzwoller, M., Barmin, M., Levshin, A. L., Lin, F., Moschetti, M.,
 315 ... Yang, Y. (2007). Processing seismic ambient noise data to obtain reli-
 316 able broad-band surface wave dispersion measurements. *Geophysical Journal*
 317 *International*, *169*(3), 1239–1260.
- 318 Brenguier, F., Campillo, M., Hadziioannou, C., Shapiro, N. M., Nadeau, R. M.,
 319 & Larose, E. (2008). Postseismic relaxation along the san andreas fault at

- 320 parkfield from continuous seismological observations. *science*, 321(5895),
321 1478–1481.
- 322 Feng, J., Yao, H., Wang, Y., Poli, P., & Mao, Z. (2021). Segregated oceanic crust
323 trapped at the bottom mantle transition zone revealed from ambient noise
324 interferometry. *Nature communications*, 12(1), 1–8.
- 325 Garnero, E. J., Revenaugh, J., Williams, Q., Lay, T., & Kellogg, L. H. (1998). Ul-
326 tralow velocity zone at the core-mantle boundary. *The core-mantle boundary*
327 *region*, 28, 319–334.
- 328 Gerstoft, P., Shearer, P. M., Harmon, N., & Zhang, J. (2008). Global p, pp, and pkp
329 wave microseisms observed from distant storms. *Geophysical Research Letters*,
330 35(23).
- 331 Gualtieri, L., Stutzmann, É., Farra, V., Capdeville, Y., Schimmel, M., Ardhuin, F.,
332 & Morelli, A. (2014). Modelling the ocean site effect on seismic noise body
333 waves. *Geophysical Journal International*, 197(2), 1096–1106.
- 334 Kennett, B. L., Engdahl, E., & Buland, R. (1995). Constraints on seismic velocities
335 in the earth from traveltimes. *Geophysical Journal International*, 122(1), 108–
336 124.
- 337 Koper, K. D., & de Foy, B. (2008). Seasonal anisotropy in short-period seismic noise
338 recorded in south asia. *Bulletin of the Seismological Society of America*, 98(6),
339 3033–3045.
- 340 Lin, F.-C., Ritzwoller, M. H., & Snieder, R. (2009). Eikonal tomography: surface
341 wave tomography by phase front tracking across a regional broad-band seismic
342 array. *Geophysical Journal International*, 177(3), 1091–1110.
- 343 Liu, Q., Ni, S., Qiu, Y., Zeng, X., Zhang, B., Wang, F., ... Xu, Z. (2020). Obser-
344 vation of teleseismic s wave microseisms generated by typhoons in the western
345 pacific ocean. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 47(19), e2020GL089031.
- 346 Long, M. D., & Silver, P. G. (2009). Shear wave splitting and mantle anisotropy:
347 Measurements, interpretations, and new directions. *Surveys in Geophysics*,
348 30(4), 407–461.
- 349 Nakata, N., Chang, J. P., Lawrence, J. F., & Boué, P. (2015). Body wave extraction
350 and tomography at long beach, california, with ambient-noise interferometry.
351 *Journal of Geophysical Research: Solid Earth*, 120(2), 1159–1173.
- 352 Nishida, K., & Takagi, R. (2016). Teleseismic s wave microseisms. *Science*,

- 353 353(6302), 919–921.
- 354 Phạm, T.-S., Tkalčić, H., Sambridge, M., & Kennett, B. L. (2018). Earth’s cor-
355 relation wavefield: Late coda correlation. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 45(7),
356 3035–3042.
- 357 Poli, P., Campillo, M., Pedersen, H., Group, L. W., et al. (2012). Body-wave imag-
358 ing of earth’s mantle discontinuities from ambient seismic noise. *Science*,
359 338(6110), 1063–1065.
- 360 Retailleau, L., & Gualtieri, L. (2021). Multi-phase seismic source imprint of tropical
361 cyclones. *Nature communications*, 12(1), 1–8.
- 362 Shapiro, N. M., Campillo, M., Stehly, L., & Ritzwoller, M. H. (2005). High-
363 resolution surface-wave tomography from ambient seismic noise. *Science*,
364 307(5715), 1615–1618.
- 365 Sieminski, A., Paulssen, H., Trampert, J., & Tromp, J. (2008). Finite-frequency
366 sks splitting: measurement and sensitivity kernels. *Bulletin of the Seismological*
367 *Society of America*, 98(4), 1797–1810.
- 368 Tkalčić, H., Phạm, T.-S., & Wang, S. (2020). The earth’s coda correlation wave-
369 field: Rise of the new paradigm and recent advances. *Earth-Science Reviews*,
370 103285.
- 371 Tolman, H. L., et al. (2009). User manual and system documentation of wavewatch
372 iii tm version 3.14. *Technical note, MMAB Contribution*, 276, 220.
- 373 Wessel, P., Luis, J., Uieda, L., Scharroo, R., Wobbe, F., Smith, W., & Tian, D.
374 (2019). The generic mapping tools version 6. *Geochemistry, Geophysics,*
375 *Geosystems*, 20(11), 5556–5564.
- 376 Wirth, E. A., & Long, M. D. (2014). A contrast in anisotropy across mid-
377 lithospheric discontinuities beneath the central united states—a relic of craton
378 formation. *Geology*, 42(10), 851–854.
- 379 Yang, B. B., Liu, Y., Dahm, H., Liu, K. H., & Gao, S. S. (2017). Seismic azimuthal
380 anisotropy beneath the eastern united states and its geodynamic implications.
381 *Geophysical Research Letters*, 44(6), 2670–2678.



Geophysical Research Letters

Supporting Information for

**Likely P-to-S Conversion at the Core-mantle Boundary
Extracted from Array Processing of Noise Records**

Tianze Liu¹, Peter M. Shearer¹

¹Institute of Geophysics and Planetary Physics, Scripps Institution of Oceanography, UC San Diego

Contents of this file

- Supplementary Text 1–4
- Figures S1–4

Supplementary Text 1

Effects of 3D velocity structure on *PKP* slowness

We performed beamforming using the same dataset for four earthquakes from the USGS earthquake catalog (EQ1–4) close to one of our *PKP* sources with slowness $> 0.032 \text{ s km}^{-1}$ (2013-07-06-00-00-00; Fig. S1). Among them, EQ1 and EQ2 show good agreement between the observed slownesses and the one predicted using IASP91, whereas EQ3 and EQ4 show greater slownesses than the 1D predictions (Fig. S1c), which is probably due to lateral heterogeneity along the ray paths. We thus infer that our *PKP* beams with slowness $> 0.032 \text{ s km}^{-1}$ may actually represent *PKPbc* waves whose slownesses are elevated due to similar 3D structural effects. We note that 3D structural effects likely also cause errors in our *PKP* source locations, which should only be regarded as preliminary estimates.

Supplementary Text 2

Spatial distribution of our *PKP* sources

To derive the approximate source locations for the time windows that are dominated by *PKP* energy from a single direction and are less likely affected by earthquake late coda, we convert their high-resolution *PKP* slowness vectors to source locations using the *PKP* slowness-distance relation computed with the IASP91 earth model (Kennett et al., 1995). When different time windows have the same *PKP* slowness vector, we regard them as having the same source locations and record their cumulative duration (number of hours; Fig. S2), which is sufficient for a preliminary characterization of these sources. We note that these estimated source locations are only approximate, as the slowness peaks are relatively broad in our images, 3D heterogeneity likely introduces deviations between observed slownesses and those predicted by 1D models, and the ocean-wave sources themselves are spatially defused rather than concentrated like earthquakes. A more detailed study of the spatial extent and temporal evolution of these sources will require back-projection imaging using data collected by arrays with a larger aperture than used here, which is beyond the scope of this study.

Our *PKP* sources are predominantly located in the Southern Ocean, where the ocean waves are the highest among all water bodies in the *PKP* range of our array (Fig. S2a). We also observe far more *PKP* sources in the southern winter (Jul 2012–Sep 2012 and Apr 2013–Sep 2013) than in the southern summer (Oct 2012–Mar 2013) of our observation period (Fig. S2a), which is likely due to the greater wave height in the Southern Ocean in winter. In addition to wave height, a proxy for wave energy, P-wave radiation of ocean-solid-earth interactions is also controlled by wave period and ocean depth, which can be characterized using the ocean site effect (Gualtieri et al., 2014). Our *PKP* sources appear to be mostly located in areas with high ocean P-wave site effect at 4 and 5 s. The correlations between the spatial distribution of our *PKP* sources and the wave height and the ocean-site effect indicate that our *PKP* waves likely result from the nonlinear interaction of ocean gravity waves generated by storms (Gualtieri et al., 2014).

Supplementary Text 3

Difference between stacking before and after cross-correlation

We denote the frequency-domain vertical-component and one of the horizontal-component records of stations 1– N as $V_1, V_2 \dots V_N$ and $H_1, H_2 \dots H_N$, respectively. Therefore, the frequency-domain vertical-horizontal cross-correlation function computed by stacking the cross-correlation functions of individual stations is

$$X = \sum_{i=1}^N V_i H_i^*$$

In which $*$ denotes complex conjugation. In contrast, the frequency-domain vertical-horizontal cross-correlation function computed by stacking the records from individual stations (“array stacking”) before performing cross-correlation is

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{X} &= \left(\sum_{i=1}^N V_i \right) \left(\sum_{i=1}^N H_i^* \right) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^N V_i H_i^* + \sum_{i=1}^N \left(V_i \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^N H_j^* \right) \end{aligned}$$

Which clearly shows that the results with and without array stacking are different by the sum of the cross terms between different stations.

Supplementary Text 4

Estimating the splitting parameters from *PKS-PKP* waveforms

We used the covariance-matrix method (e.g., Shearer, 2019) to derive the fast direction and split time from our *PKS-PKP* observations. For each combination of fast direction and split time, we project the observed east- and north-component *PKS-PKP* records onto the fast and slow axes. We then correct for the split time by delaying the fast component by the split time. We finally compute the waveform covariance matrix with the corrected fast- and slow-component records and derive its two eigenvalues λ_1 and λ_2 , with $\lambda_1 > \lambda_2$. A greater ratio between λ_1 and λ_2 indicates a particle motion closer to linear. We thus compute the eigenvalue ratios for grid points with fast direction in 0–180° and split time in 0–3 s and find the combination that maximizes the ratio, which gives the optimum fast direction and split time (Figs. 5 and S4c).

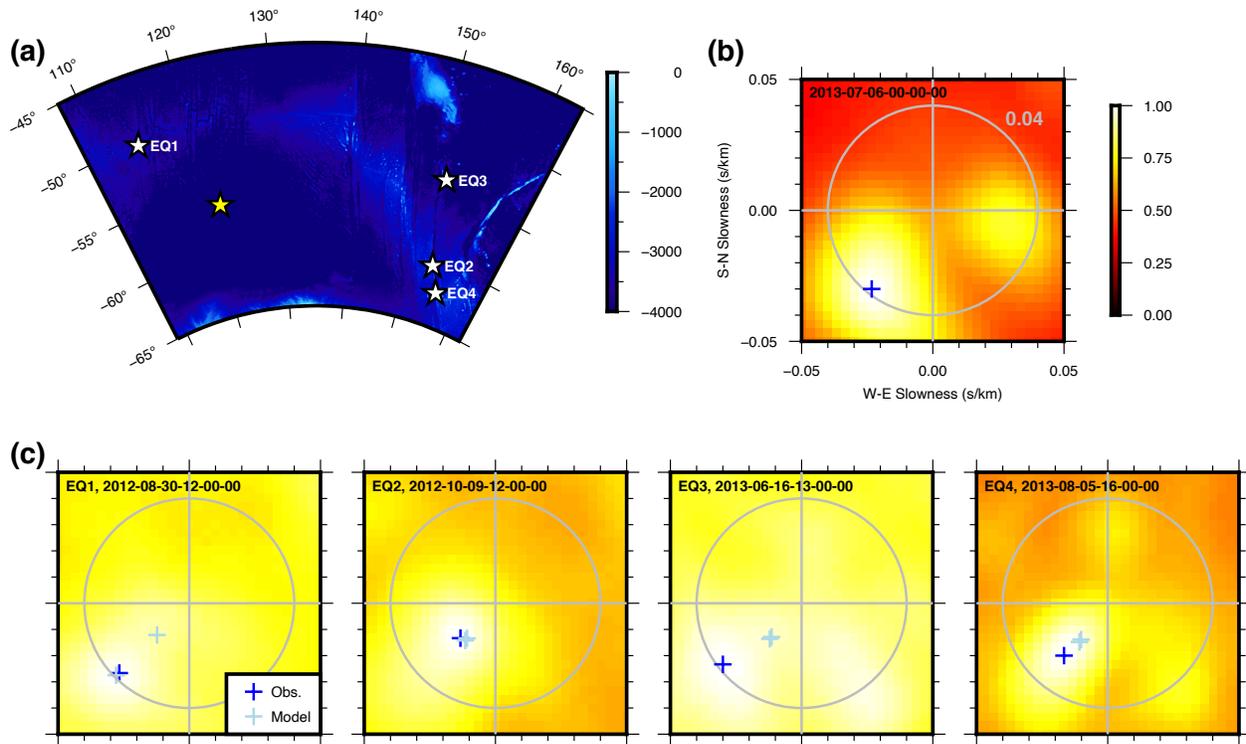


Figure S1. Using earthquakes with known locations to evaluate biases in our beamforming. (a) Locations of Earthquake (EQ) 1–4 used for calibration (white stars) and the derived PKP-source location of time window 2013-07-06-00-00-00 (yellow star). (b) Slowness image of the time window 2013-07-06-00-00-00 with the maximum marked with a dark blue cross. The gray circle denotes the slowness of 0.04 s km⁻¹. (c) Same as (b), but for EQ 1–4. The light blue crosses mark the slowness vectors predicted with IASP91 (multiple slownesses are due to different PKP branches).

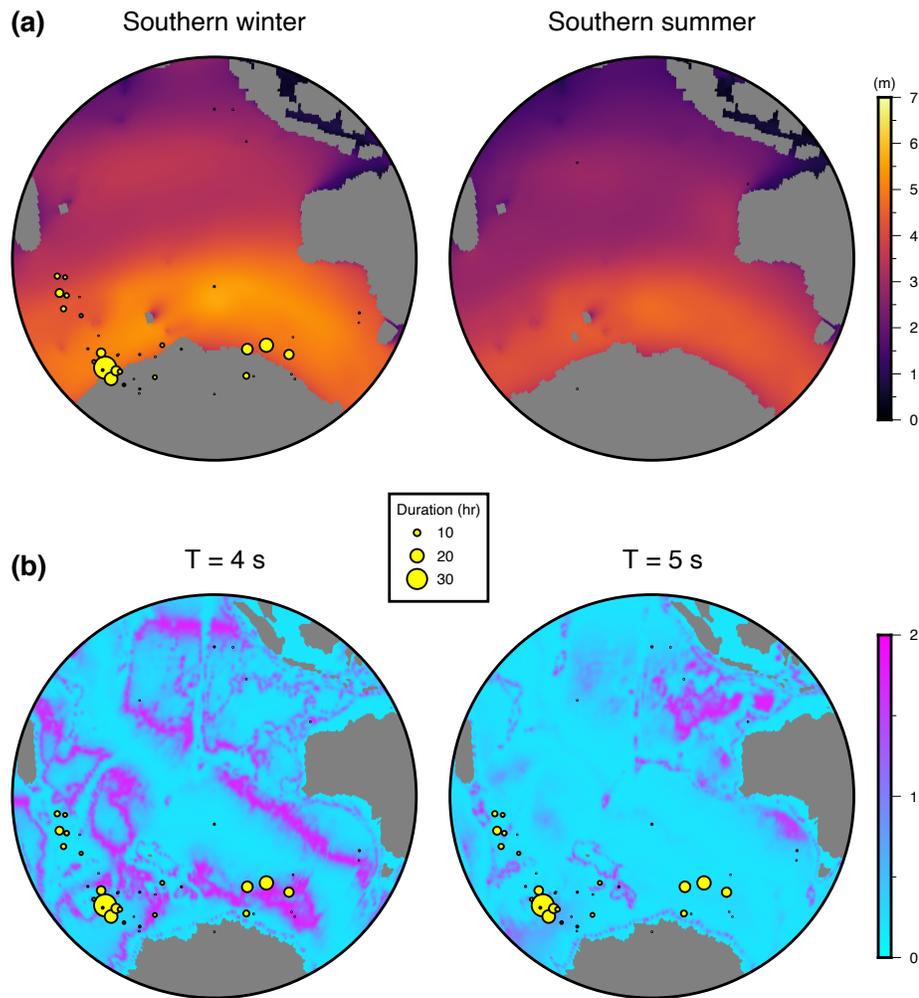


Figure S2. *PKP* source locations of our *PKP* windows that are less likely affected by earthquake late coda. Circle size denotes the cumulative duration of a certain location. (a) Sources in southern winter (left) and southern summer (right) plotted on the average significant wave-height maps of the corresponding seasons from WAVEWATCH III. (b) Sources plotted on the ocean P-wave site-effect maps at 4-s and 5-s periods from Gualtieri, et al., 2014.

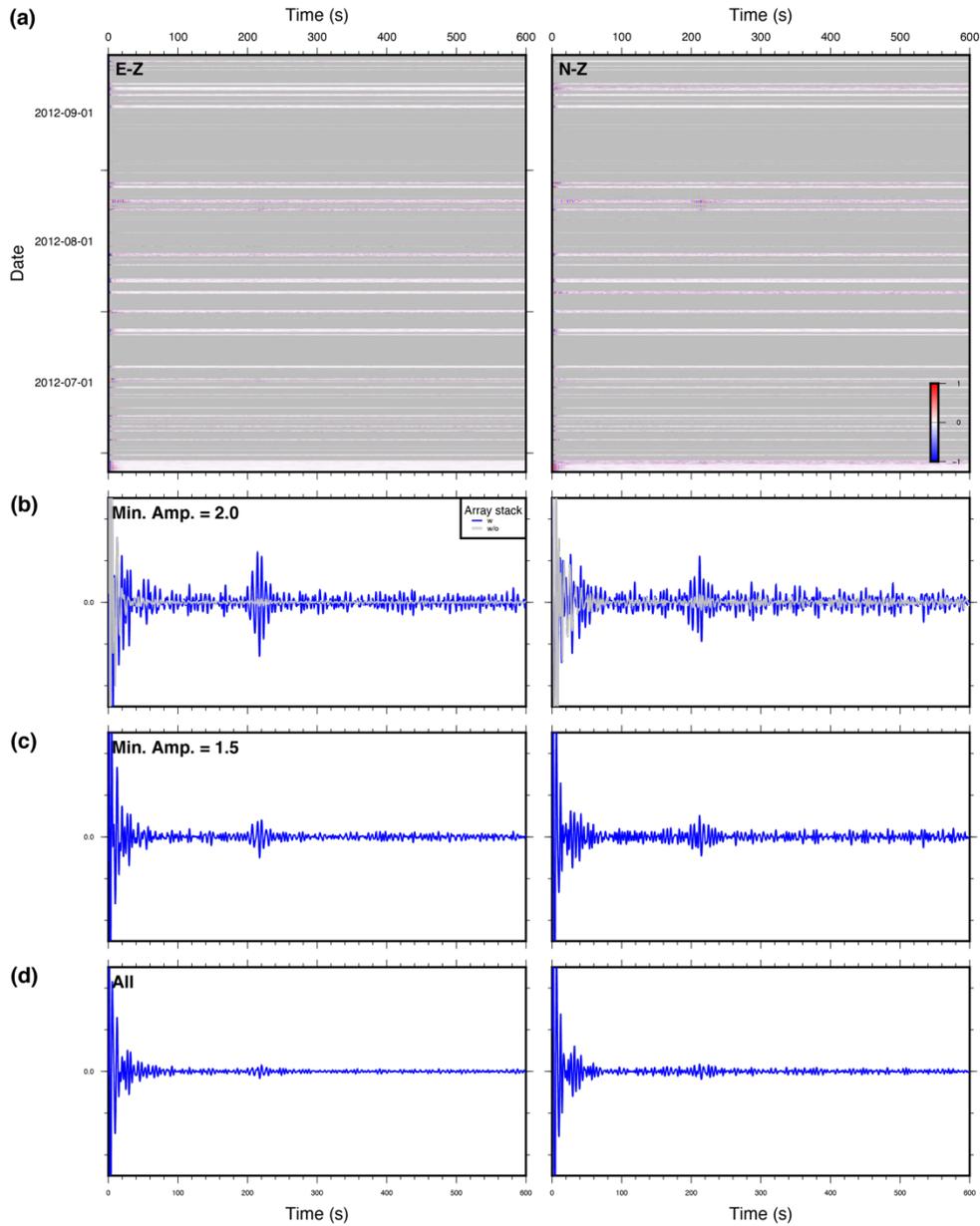


Figure S3. The same as Fig. 3 but computed using only the time windows less affected by global-earthquake late coda. The temporal variations of *PKP*-beam and 215-second-phase amplitude are not plotted because the curves are extremely fragmented due to the removal of most of the time windows.

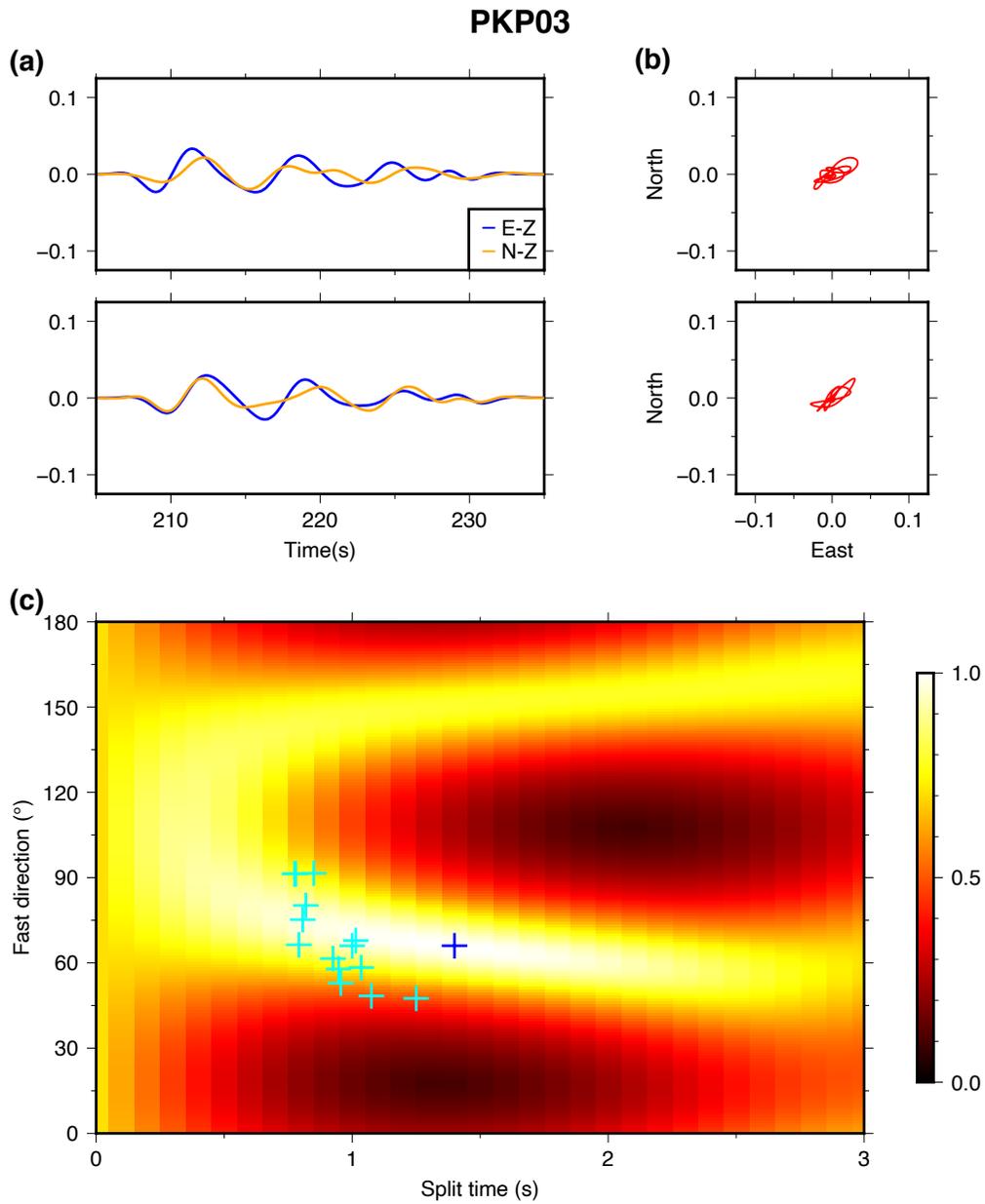


Figure S4. Same as Fig. 5, but for the source bin PKP03.

Reference:

- Gualtieri, L., Stutzmann, E., Farra, V., Capdeville, Y., Schimmel, M., Arduin, F., & Morelli, A. (2014). Modelling the ocean site effect on seismic noise body waves. *Geophysical Journal International*, 197(2), 1096–1106. <https://doi.org/10.1093/gji/ggu042>
- Kennett, B. L. N., Engdahl, E. R., & Buland, R. (1995). Constraints on seismic velocities in the Earth from traveltimes. *Geophysical Journal International*, 122(1), 108–124. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-246X.1995.tb03540.x>
- Shearer, P. M. (2019). Introduction to Seismology (3rd ed., pp. 339–343 for shear-wave splitting section). Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/9781316877111>

Geophysical Research Letters[®]

RESEARCH LETTER

10.1029/2021GL097034

Key Points:

- *PKS-PKP* is retrieved from cross-component cross-correlation of seismic noise
- *PKS-PKP* is enhanced by array stacking before cross-correlation and using only the time windows with strong *PKP* energy
- *PKS-PKP* may be useful for shear-wave splitting studies of crust and mantle anisotropy

Supporting Information:

Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article.

Correspondence to:

T. Liu,
tianzeliu@ucsd.edu

Citation:

Liu, T., & Shearer, P. M. (2022). Likely P-to-S conversion at the core-mantle boundary extracted from array processing of noise records. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 49, e2021GL097034. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2021GL097034>

Received 16 NOV 2021

Accepted 17 MAR 2022

Author Contributions:

Conceptualization: Peter M. Shearer
Formal analysis: Tianze Liu
Funding acquisition: Peter M. Shearer
Methodology: Tianze Liu
Project Administration: Peter M. Shearer
Supervision: Peter M. Shearer
Writing – original draft: Tianze Liu
Writing – review & editing: Peter M. Shearer

Likely P-to-S Conversion at the Core-Mantle Boundary Extracted From Array Processing of Noise Records

Tianze Liu¹  and Peter M. Shearer¹ 

¹Institute of Geophysics and Planetary Physics, Scripps Institution of Oceanography, UC San Diego, La Jolla, CA, USA

Abstract Seismic noise has been widely used to image Earth's structure in the past decades as a powerful supplement to earthquake signals. Although the seismic noise field contains both surface-wave and body-wave components, most previous studies have focused on surface waves due to their large amplitudes. Here, we use array analyses to identify body-wave noise traveling as *PKP* waves. We find that by cross-correlating the array-stacked horizontal- and vertical-component data in the time windows containing the *PKP* noise signals, we extract a phase likely representing *PKS-PKP*, the differential phase between *PKS* and *PKP*. This phase can potentially be used for shear-wave-splitting analysis. Our results also suggest that the sources of body-wave noise are extremely heterogeneous in both space and time, which should be accounted for in future studies using body-wave noise to image Earth structure.

Plain Language Summary Seismic noise is the vibration of Earth generated by activities other than earthquakes, such as wind and ocean waves. Signals extracted from seismic noise can be used to study Earth's interior structure in ways similar to how earthquake records have been analyzed. Most previous studies using seismic noise to study Earth structure used its surface-wave component, that is, the waves propagating at Earth's surface, whereas the body-wave component, that is, the waves traveling through Earth's interior, is less used because body-wave noise is usually much weaker than surface-wave noise. Here, we use data collected by a dense seismic array to identify body-wave noise propagating as *PKP* waves, P waves that travel through Earth's core. We also find that *PKS-PKP*, the differential phase between *PKS* and *PKP*, can be extracted from the records of time windows containing strong *PKP* energy. This phase can potentially be used to study the anisotropic properties of Earth's crust and mantle.

1. Introduction

Recent decades saw a rapid expansion of studies using seismic noise to image Earth structure (e.g., Bensen et al., 2007; Brenguier et al., 2008; Lin et al., 2009; Nakata et al., 2015; Poli et al., 2012; Shapiro et al., 2005). Most of these studies focused on extracting surface-wave signals from the noise field because surface waves usually dominate the signals retrieved by noise cross-correlation. This observation is commonly attributed to the prominence of surface waves in Earth's noise field as a result of noise sources, such as wind and ocean waves, occurring mostly at the surface. Despite their lower amplitudes, body-wave signals have occasionally been retrieved from noise cross-correlations and used to image Earth structure (e.g., Feng et al., 2021; Nakata et al., 2015; Pedersen and Colombi, 2018; Poli et al., 2012). A major advantage of body waves over surface waves in studying Earth structure is that body-wave reflected and converted phases are sensitive to material discontinuities in Earth's interior (e.g., the Moho and the core-mantle boundary [CMB]), which cannot be resolved with surface-wave data alone. However, body-wave reflection and conversion signals are weaker than direct phases and thus more difficult to observe in the cross-correlation functions, which are typically noisier than earthquake records. Therefore, techniques capable of enhancing body-wave reflection and conversion signals are needed to better image Earth's discontinuities with noise records.

In addition to imaging using seismic noise, in recent years, major advances have been made in understanding the sources of Earth's noise field (e.g., Gualtieri et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2020; Nishida and Takagi, 2016; Retailleau and Gualtieri, 2021). Many contributions were made by studying body-wave noise signals with array techniques (e.g., beamforming and back-projection), which suggests that weak body-wave noise signals can be enhanced with array processing to better image Earth structure. These studies also showed that body-wave noise sources, which are usually associated with storms in the oceans, are likely spatially and temporally heterogeneous, which

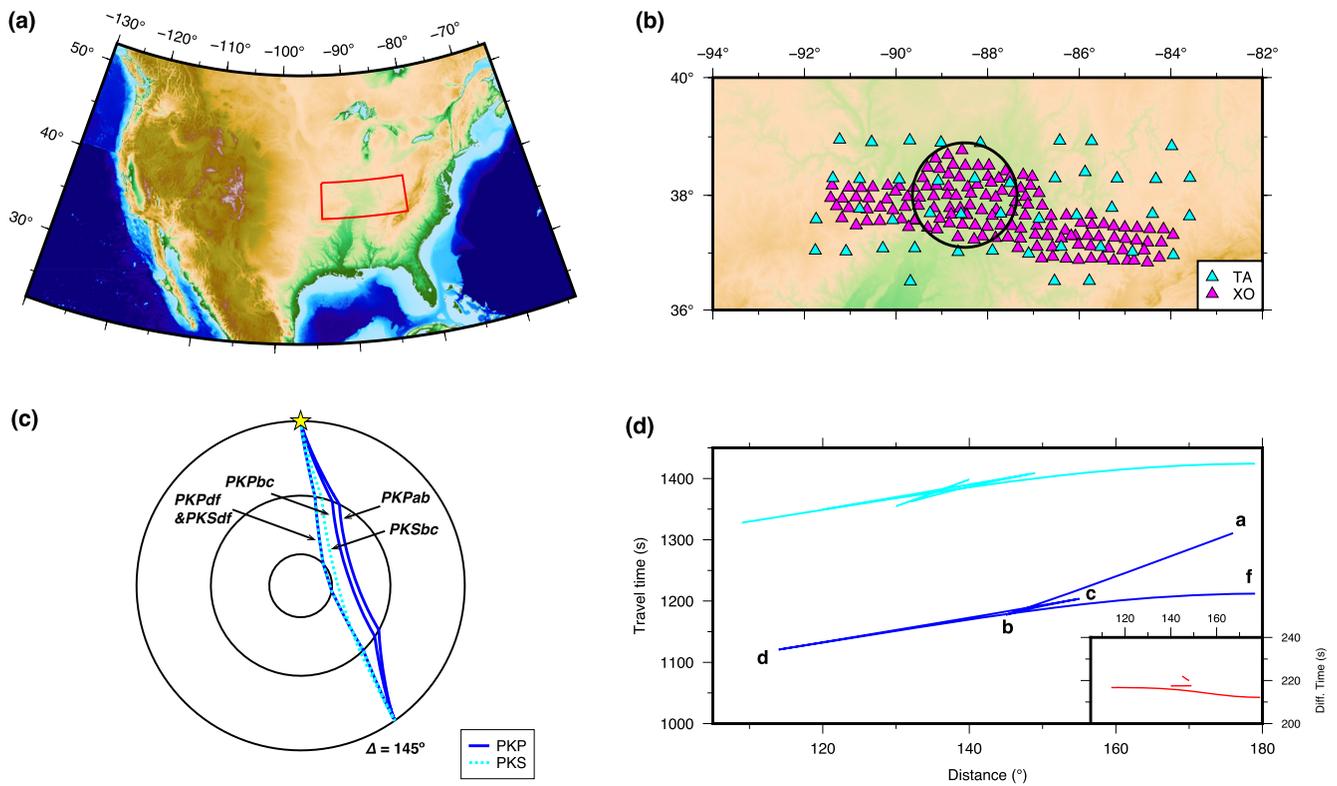


Figure 1. Station locations and *PKP* and *PKS* ray geometries and travel times. (a) Map of the contiguous US showing the closeup of panel (b) marked in red. (b) Map of all the Ozark Illinois Indiana Kentucky stations (magenta) and nearby TA stations (cyan). The 100-km radius circle defines the region in which the stations are included in our analysis. (c) Ray paths of different travel-time branches of *PKP* (blue) and *PKS* (cyan) at 145° . (d) Travel times as functions of epicentral distance for different branches of *PKP* (blue) and *PKS* (cyan) computed using IASP91 (Kennett et al., 1995). Inset shows the differential travel times between *PKS* and *PKP* of the same branches.

implies that body-wave signals could be better retrieved through seismic interferometry if the variations of the body-wave noise sources are properly accounted for.

Here, we present observations of body-wave noise propagating as *PKP* using data collected by a dense broadband seismic array in the central US. We further show that a phase likely representing *PKS-PKP* can be extracted by cross-correlating the array-stacked horizontal- and vertical-component noise records in the time windows containing the *PKP* noise signals. We then discuss the potential applications of this phase and the implications of our findings for seismic interferometry.

2. Data and Preprocessing

We mainly use the continuous data collected by the Ozark Illinois Indiana Kentucky (OIINK) Flexible Array Experiment (network code: XO), a dense 2D broadband seismic array with a station spacing of ~ 25 km located in the central US (Figures 1a and 1b). To make the resolution of our results more isotropic, we select the OIINK stations located in a 100-km radius circle and also include the Transportable-Array stations in this range (Figure 1b). Although the two arrays together span 2011–2015, to ensure a reasonable resolution, we focus on time windows with more than 20 active stations, which limits our analysis to a roughly 1-year period between June 2012 and August 2013. We downloaded the continuous data from the IRIS Data Management Center in 1-hr time windows, removed the instrument response, and band-pass filtered the data to 2–10 s, which contains the secondary microseism energy. To avoid the effects of earthquakes and instrument malfunctions, we removed the 1-hr time windows containing the first arrivals of global earthquakes with magnitude > 5 and those containing amplitudes $> 1 \times 10^{-15} \text{ ms}^{-1}$.

3. PKP Signals From Beamforming Analysis

We performed conventional linear beamforming with all three components (vertical, east, and north) of our array data to characterize the directional properties of the noise field. To save computational cost, we first performed a reconnaissance analysis over the slowness range of $\pm 0.2 \text{ s km}^{-1}$ at a grid spacing of 0.013 s km^{-1} in the W-E and S-N directions. The resulting vertical-component slowness images clearly show beams with slowness $< 0.04 \text{ s km}^{-1}$ (Figure 2a), which likely represent PKP signals as suggested by previous studies (Koper & de Foy, 2008; Landès et al., 2010). The horizontal-component slowness images also show local maxima corresponding to the PKP beams on the vertical component, though the background noise is significantly higher on the horizontal-component images (Figure 2a), which could be due to the near-vertical particle motion of PKP or a more homogeneous distribution of horizontal-component noise sources. The slowness images of some time windows also show multiple peaks (e.g., 2013-07-06-00-00-00; Figure 2a).

For seismic imaging, we prefer to use time windows dominated by PKP energy from a single direction because this source distribution resembles that of earthquake sources, which may make techniques in earthquake imaging readily applicable. To identify these time windows, we find the maximum in the PKP range (slowness $< 0.04 \text{ s km}^{-1}$) of each vertical-component slowness image and the corresponding slowness vector, which we refer to as the PKP slowness. We then define the vertical-component normalized PKP-beam amplitude as the ratio between the maximum amplitude in the PKP range and the average amplitude of the whole slowness image, which measures the power of the strongest PKP beam relative to the background noise. We further define the corresponding normalized PKP-beam amplitudes for the horizontal components as the ratios between the amplitudes at the PKP slowness measured previously from the vertical-component slowness image and the average amplitudes of the whole slowness images. We finally define the three-component normalized PKP-beam amplitude (hereafter “PKP-beam amplitude”) as the product of the normalized PKP-beam amplitudes of the three components. We regard the time windows with PKP-beam amplitude > 2 , which account for about 10% of all the time windows, as windows dominated by PKP energy from a single direction (hereafter “PKP windows”). To enhance the slowness and back-azimuth resolution for the PKP beams, we further performed beamforming for the vertical-component records of the PKP windows in the range $\pm 0.05 \text{ s km}^{-1}$, using a finer grid spacing of 0.0032 s km^{-1} . A histogram of the resulting slownesses shows that the vast majority of these time windows are dominated by PKPbc beams close to the *b* caustic (Figure 2b), which is likely due to the amplification of PKP near its caustics. A significant number of windows show slownesses $> 0.032 \text{ s km}^{-1}$, which suggests that they are dominated by PKPab beams. However, beamforming results of earthquakes with known locations near these sources indicate that these apparent PKPab beams are probably PKPbc beams with elevated slownesses due to the effects of 3D velocity structure (Supplementary Text 1 and Figure S1 in Supporting Information S1).

Our PKP-beam amplitude shows a clear seasonal variation, with high amplitude in southern winter (April-October) and low amplitude in southern summer (November-March; Figure 2c). This seasonality is likely due to higher waves in the Southern Ocean in southern winter, where most of the PKP energy is generated through ocean-solid-earth interaction (Supplementary Text 2 and Figure S2 in Supporting Information S1). Interestingly, our PKP-beam amplitude also shows some narrow spikes that correlate with global earthquake activities (Figure 2c). Since the time windows containing the direct arrivals of global $M > 5$ events were removed from our analysis, these spikes must be due to the late coda waves of these events, which can persist for hours after the first arrivals (Tkalčić et al., 2020). Many of these spikes correlate with events not in the PKP range (gray lines in Figure 2c), suggesting that the coda waves of global earthquakes contain waves traveling with smaller slownesses and thus steeper incident angles than the direct phases. This observation agrees with recent studies using these steeply incident coda waves to explain the phases in Earth's correlation wavefield (e.g., Tkalčić et al., 2020). We also find the source locations for PKP beams outside the late-coda windows (Supplementary Text 2 in Supporting Information S1), which agree well with the significant wave-height data from WAVEWATCH III (Tolman, 2009) (Figure S2a in Supporting Information S1) and the ocean site effect map from Gualtieri et al. (2014) (Figure S2b in Supporting Information S1).

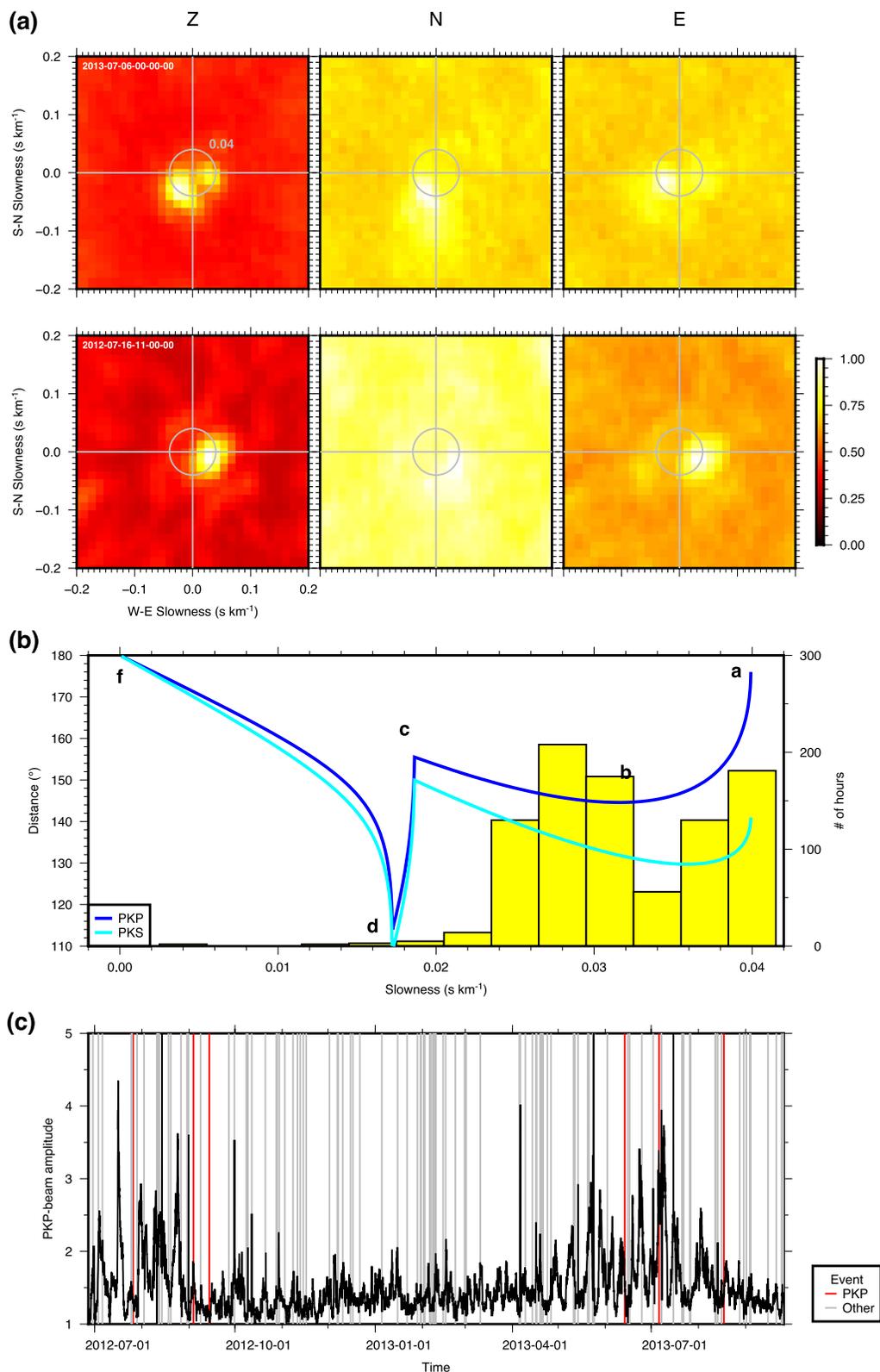


Figure 2. *PKP* beams characterized with array analyses. (a) Example three-component slowness images for two one-hour time windows 2013-07-06-00-00-00 (top) and 2012-07-16-11-00-00-00 (bottom) with clear *PKP* energy. Gray circle: slowness of 0.04 $s\ km^{-1}$. (b) Slowness-distance relation of *PKP* (blue curve) and *PKS* (cyan curve), and the slowness histogram of the *PKP* windows. (c) Three-component *PKP*-beam amplitude as a function of time. Red and gray lines mark the origin times of global $M > 6$ events in and out of the *PKP* epicentral-distance range, respectively.

4. *PKS-PKP* From Cross-Component Cross-Correlation

Wave fields dominated by a single *PKP* noise source are analogous to those generated by earthquakes because the wave fields in both cases are close to unidirectional. Therefore, imaging techniques designed for earthquake data, for example, receiver-function techniques, may also be applicable to records in our *PKP* windows. Here, we use cross-correlation between the vertical- and horizontal-component noise records as an approximation of the deconvolution procedure in receiver-function analysis (Ammon, 1991). To enhance the near-vertically traveling *PKP* waves while reducing surface-wave energy, which typically dominates Earth's noise field, we stack the vertical- and horizontal-component records of all the active stations in the array before performing cross-correlation on the stacked records (hereafter “array stacking”). Our initial stacking of the entire data set assumes zero slowness (i.e., vertical wave propagation); later we will refine our stacks to sum more accurately the energy seen arriving at particular back azimuths and slownesses during specific time intervals. Note that stacking before and after performing cross-correlation are different because the former also includes the cross terms between different stations (Supplementary Text 3 in Supporting Information S1).

Our E-Z and N-Z cross-correlation functions show a clear arrival at ~ 215 s, whose amplitude appears to temporally correlate with the *PKP*-beam amplitude (Figures 3a and 3b). This correlation is more clearly shown when we compare the temporal variation of the relative amplitude of the 215-s phase, defined as the ratio between the average absolute amplitude in a 30-s window around 215 s and that in a 90-s window around 215 s, on daily stacked cross-correlation functions (red in Figure 3b) with the temporal variation of our *PKP*-beam amplitude (black in Figure 3b). This correlation suggests an association of this phase with the interaction between P waves and Earth's core. Following previous noise-imaging studies, we stacked the cross-correlation functions of many time windows to enhance the signal-noise ratio of this phase (hereafter “215-s phase”). The results show that stacking using only the time windows with a strong *PKP* beam produces a stronger 215-s phase than stacking using both the time windows with and without strong *PKP* beams (Figures 3c–3e), which is expected because the time windows without strong *PKP* beams generally do not show a clear 215-s phase (Figures 3a and 3b). Hereafter, we will focus on our *PKP* windows (time windows with *PKP*-beam amplitude > 2), which likely contain the highest-quality 215-s phases (Figure 3c).

To test the effects of array stacking on the waveform quality, we also compared the results with and without array stacking, which clearly shows that the method with array stacking produces significantly stronger 215-s phases (Figure 3c). This is likely because stacking the noise records across the array enhances the near-vertically traveling *PKP* noise and its associated phases, which are responsible for the 215-s phase. From now on, we will show only the results with array stacking.

Since the time windows that we used to extract the 215-s phase also include windows containing global-earthquake late coda (< 10 hr after the events; Figure 2c), an important question is whether the main contribution of our 215-s phase comes from earthquake coda energy. To investigate this possibility, we excluded the time windows < 10 hr after global $M > 5$ events and performed the same analysis. The results show that despite the removal of nearly 3/4 of the original time windows, the 215-s phase remains clear on the stacked cross-correlation function, though with slightly lower signal-noise ratio due to the lower stacking fold (Figure S3 in Supporting Information S1). Moreover, the stack including only the time windows with strong *PKP* beams still shows a stronger 215-s phase than the one including all time windows (Figures S3b–S3d in Supporting Information S1). These results clearly demonstrate that global-earthquake late coda is not the only cause of our 215-s phase, with ocean-solid-earth interaction likely also contributing significantly as evidenced by the clear seasonality of our *PKP*-beam amplitude (Figure 2c). We note that our data have a period band (2–10 s) much shorter than data typically used for earthquake-late-coda analyses (> 15 s; e.g., Wang and Tkalčić, 2020). Boué et al. (2014) demonstrated that in our short-period band, noise cross-correlations are largely unaffected by earthquake late coda, probably because the coda waves generally lack short-period components due to the high cumulative attenuation along their long paths, although some events may be more efficient in generating short-period signals, which cause the *PKP*-energy bursts that correlate with global seismic activities (Figure 2c). We thus conclude that global earthquake coda does not contribute significantly to our 215-s phase.

To further characterize our 215-s phase, we binned the slowness vectors of our *PKP* windows into grids with 15° and 0.005 s km $^{-1}$ spacing in azimuth and slowness, respectively (hereafter “*PKP*-source bin”; Figure 4). Since the *PKP* waves of these source bins have small yet nonzero slownesses (first column of Figure 4), stacking the

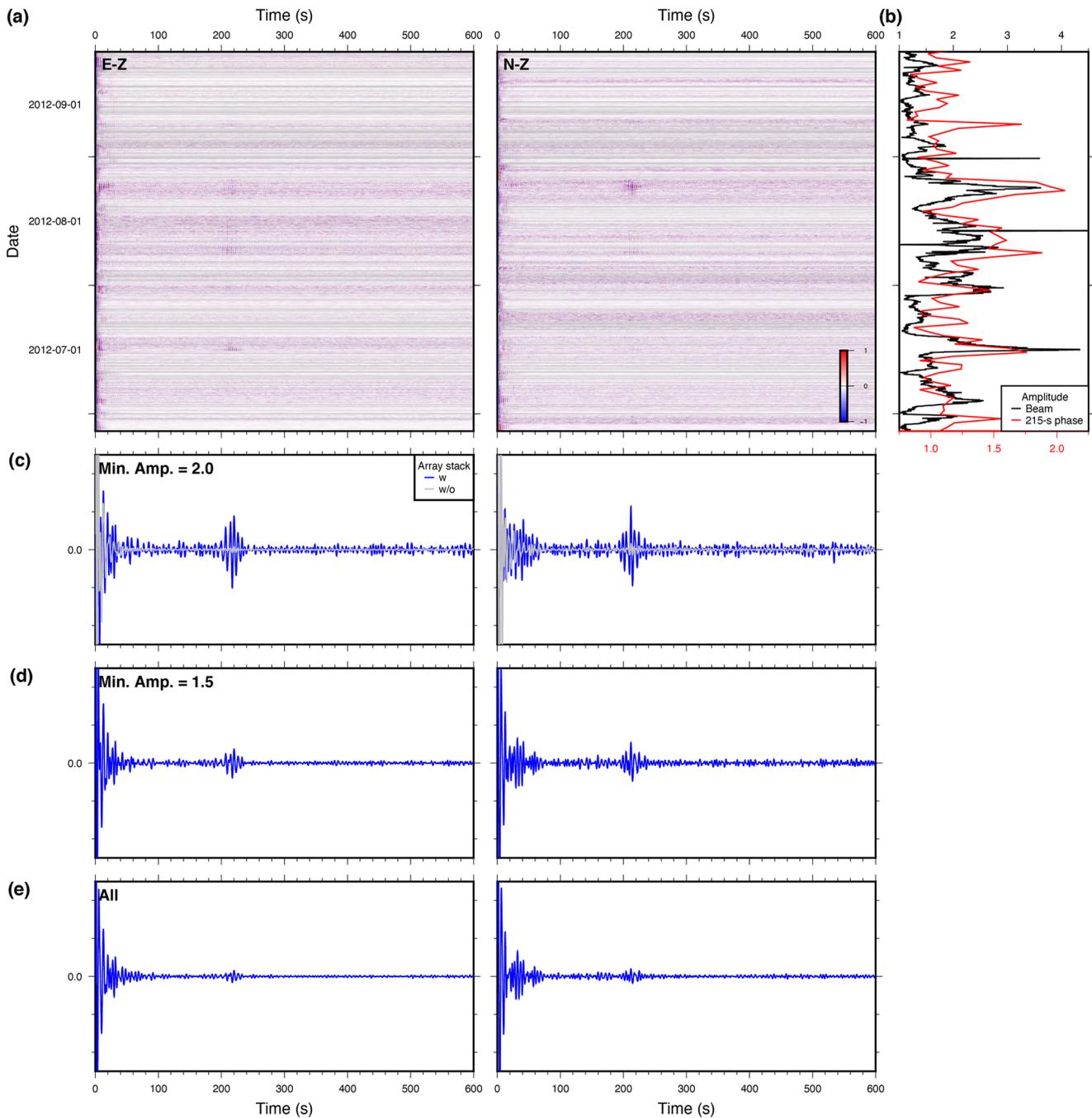


Figure 3. E-Z and N-Z cross-correlation functions. (a) E-Z (left) and N-Z (right) cross-correlation functions computed with array stacking (no time shifts applied to individual traces) for all the active time windows in a 3-month period from June to September 2012. (b) Temporal variation of *PKP*-beam amplitude (black) and the 215-s-phase amplitude (red) for the time range in (a). (c–d) Blue waveform: Stacked E-Z (left) and N-Z (right) cross-correlation functions computed with array stacking for time windows with *PKP*-beam amplitude (c) >2 , (d) >1.5 , and (e) all time windows. Gray waveform in (c): The same as the blue waveform, but computed without array stacking.

noise records without applying time shifts, which is equivalent to assuming zero slowness, will not maximize the energy of *PKP* and its secondary phases, which appear correlated with our 215-s phase (Figure 3b). To find the slowness vectors that maximize the amplitude of our 215-s phase, we performed array stacking assuming a range of slowness vectors for each source bin and found the 215-s-phase amplitude on the stacked cross-correlation functions for each slowness vector, which is defined as the maximum amplitude in the time window 200–240 s.

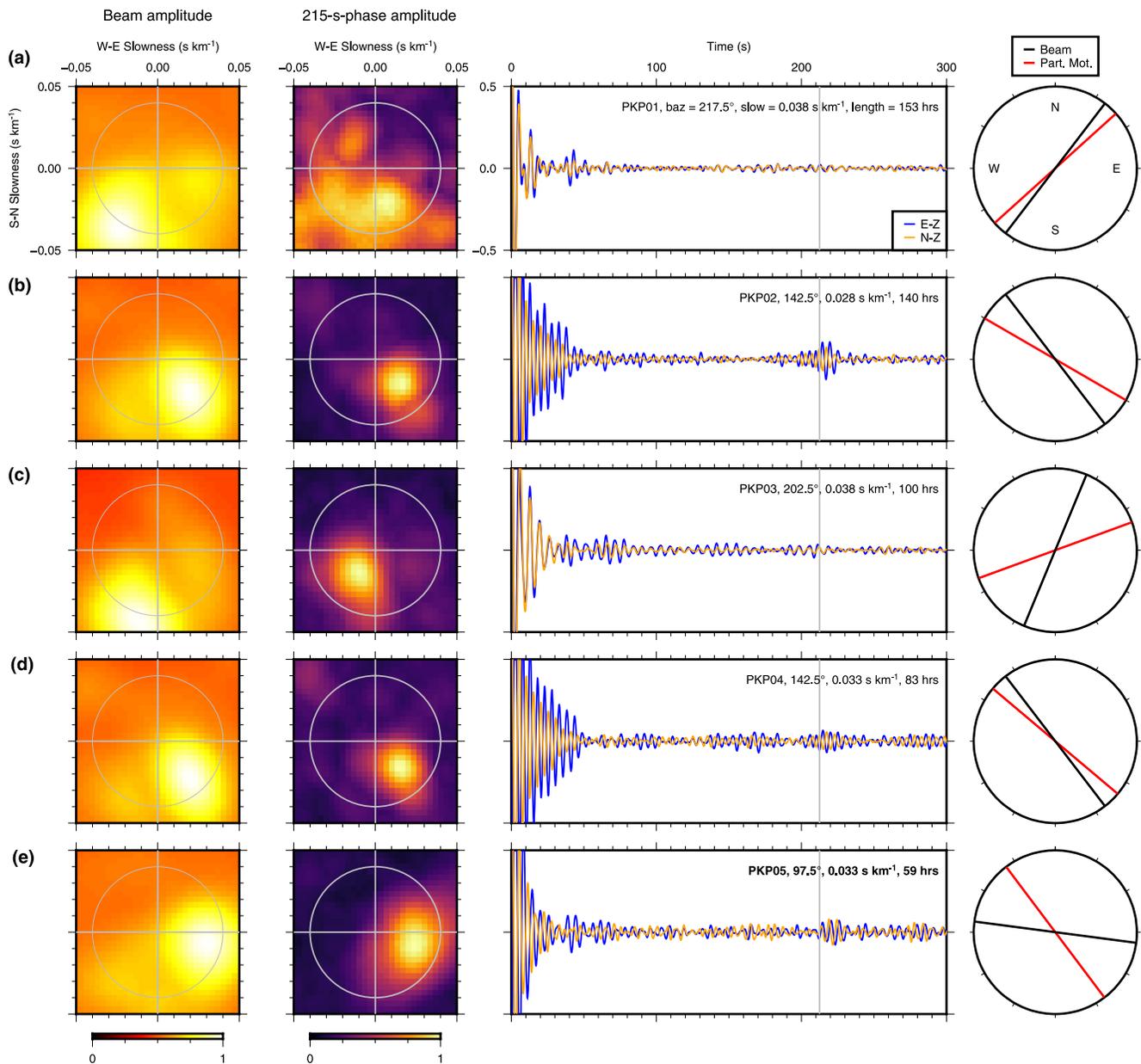


Figure 4. Characterization of the noise recordings and cross-correlation functions of the five *PKP*-source bins with the longest cumulative durations: (a) PKP01, (b) PKP02, (c) PKP03, (d) PKP04, and (e) PKP05 (highlighted due to its best shear-wave splitting results). First column: Stacked beam-amplitude slowness images. Gray circles: slowness of 0.04 s km^{-1} . Second column: Maximum amplitudes of the 215-s phase as functions of slowness vectors used for array stacking. Third column: Stacked E-Z (blue) and N-Z (yellow) cross-correlation functions computed with array stacking using the slowness vectors of the source bins. Gray vertical line marks the arrival time of *PKS-PKP* at $\sim 180^\circ$ (i.e., vertical incidence). Fourth column: Back azimuths of the source bins (black) and the best-fit linear particle-motion directions (red) of the 215-s phases.

This procedure gives a 215-s-phase-amplitude slowness image (hereafter “phase-amplitude image”) for each source bin (second column of Figure 4).

The phase-amplitude images of PKP02, 04, and 05 clearly show maxima at slowness vectors very similar to the corresponding beam-amplitude images (Figures 4b, 4d, and 4e), which indicates that performing array stacking after shifting the noise records by the *PKP* slowness enhances the 215-s phase more than stacking without time shifts. The phase-amplitude image of PKP01 shows a diffuse energy distribution, and the phase-amplitude image of PKP03 shows a maximum at a significantly smaller slowness than the beam-amplitude image (Figures 4a

and 4c). We will later show that these discrepancies are likely due to the unusually large slownesses of the two bins. To maximize the amplitude of our 215-s phase, we thus shifted the noise records of PKP01–05 using their *PKP* slownesses before array stacking and cross-correlation. The stacked cross-correlation functions of PKP02, 04, and 05 show clear 215-s phases, whereas the phase is less visible on PKP01 and 03 (third column of Figure 4). We also computed the best-fitting linear particle-motion direction for the 215-s phase of each *PKP*-source bin. For PKP01, 02, and 04, the linear particle-motion directions (red bars in the fourth column of Figure 4) agree well with the back azimuths of the corresponding source bins (black bars in the fourth column of Figure 4), suggesting that the 215-s phase consists of mostly SV energy. For PKP03 and 05, the linear particle-motion directions are significantly different from the source directions. We will later show that these differences are likely due to shear-wave splitting.

Based on the above observations of the 215-s phrase, we interpret it as *PKS-PKP*, the differential phase between *PKS*, the core phase with a P-to-S conversion at the receiver-side CMB, and *PKP* (Figure 1c). The IASP91-predicted differential travel time between *PKSdf* and *PKPdf* is 212 s at $\sim 180^\circ$ (i.e., vertical incidence), whereas the differential travel time between *PKSbc* and *PKPbc* is ~ 215 s in 140° – 150° (Figure 1d). The 215-s-phase arrival times of PKP02, 04, and 05, the three source bins with high 215-s-phase amplitude, are all slightly larger than 212 s (gray vertical lines in the third column of Figure 4), which suggests that the *PKP* and *PKS* rays likely belong to the bc branch and thus are obliquely incident, consistent with the beam-amplitude and phase-amplitude images (first and second columns of Figure 4). This interpretation is supported by the fact that P-to-S conversions are not predicted for vertically traveling P waves for 1D Earth models. Note that the near-radial polarization of the 215-s phase of PKP01, 02, and 04 also agrees with that of *PKS* (fourth column of Figure 4), which consists only of SV waves in an isotropic earth. Hereafter, we will use *PKP-PKS* to refer to our 215-s phase. PKP01 and 03 have slownesses greater than the *b* caustic of *PKP* given by IASP91 probably due to the effects of 3D Earth structure (Figures 2b, 4a and 4c). Because the slowness difference between *PKPbc* and *PKSbc* recorded at the same distance grows with increasing slowness (Figure 2b), the unusually large slownesses of PKP01 and 03 may cause their *PKP* and *PKS* to have sufficiently different slownesses that the two phases cannot be enhanced with array stacking using one single slowness vector, which could explain the low *PKS-PKP* amplitude and the discrepancy between the beam-amplitude and phase-amplitude images of PKP01 and 03 (Figures 4a and 4c). In theory, *SKP*, the core phase with S-to-P conversion at the source-side CMB, arrives at the same time as *PKS* and thus might cause interference, assuming S waves are generated at the source region. However, since *SKP* arrives as a P wave at the receiver, it likely has very low amplitude on the horizontal components due to its near-vertical rays, which should make it much weaker than *PKS* on our vertical-horizontal cross-correlation functions.

Because *PKS* is routinely used for shear-wave-splitting studies (e.g., Long and Silver, 2009), we also performed shear-wave-splitting analysis (see Supplementary Text 4 in Supporting Information S1 for the method) on our *PKS-PKP* observations. Among PKP01–05, PKP05 yields the best shear-wave-splitting results as evidenced by its diagnostic elliptical particle motion before time correction (Figure 5b) and well-focused maximum on the eigenvalue-ratio distribution (Figure 5c). The fast-direction (46°) and splitting time (1.4 s) are reasonably close to the results of Yang et al. (2017) derived from earthquake data recorded at stations located within our circular array window (Figure 5c). We also derive a similar set of splitting parameters (66° and 1.4 s) from PKP03 (Figure S4 in Supporting Information S1), a bin with a source direction nearly orthogonal to that of PKP05 (Figure 4c), though the splitting parameters are less well constrained likely due to the low amplitude of *PKS-PKP*. The other source bins produce only ambiguous results. Assuming a fast direction of $\sim 55^\circ$ in our study region, PKP01, 02, and 04 all have source directions close to either the fast or the slow directions, which likely causes them to show little shear-wave splitting and near-radial particle motions (Figures 4a, 4b, and 4d). In contrast, PKP03 and 05 have source directions significantly different from both the fast and slow directions, which causes them to show significant splitting and non-linear particle motions (Figures 4c and 4e). In summary, a fast direction of $\sim 55^\circ$ is consistent with our observations. Since our shear-wave splitting results can be regarded as derived from only two sources, whereas the ones from Yang et al. (2017) are the average results of many sources, the difference between the two might be due to lateral variation of anisotropy beneath the study region, which can cause differences between different ray paths. Another possibility is that our results are affected more by shallow structure than those from earthquake data because our data contain energy only in the short period band of 2–10 s, whereas earthquake data typically contain more long-period energy. This hypothesis is supported by previous studies showing increased sensitivity of *SKS* splitting parameters to shallow structure at shorter periods (e.g., Sieminski et al., 2008). These issues warrant further study, including detailed comparisons at individual stations between

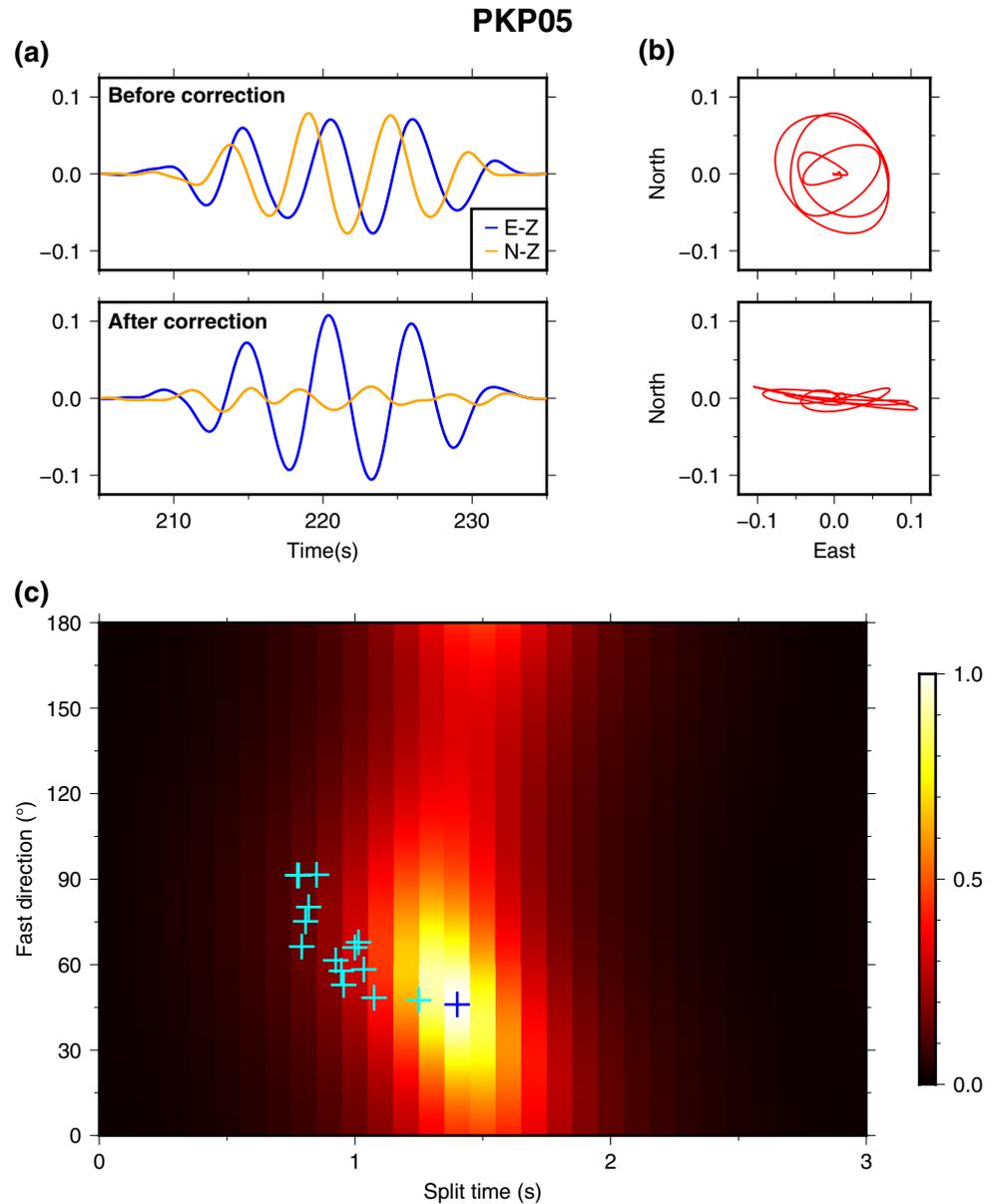


Figure 5. Shear-wave splitting results for the *PKP*-source bin PKP05. (a) E-Z and N-Z components of the *PKS-PKP* phase before (top) and after (bottom) the time correction. (b) Particle-motion diagrams of the *PKS-PKP* phase before (top) and after (bottom) the time correction. (c) Normalized eigenvalue-ratio of the particle motions after time correction computed using various fast directions and splitting times. Blue cross marks the maximum. Cyan crosses mark the splitting parameters of individual stations located in our circular array window from Yang et al. (2017).

shear-wave splitting results derived from earthquake records and those obtained from noise cross-correlation. However, in regions that *PKS-PKP* can be observed from noise, analysis of this phase should help contribute to upper-mantle anisotropy studies.

5. Discussion

To our knowledge, this is the first report of *PKS-PKP* retrieved from noise data. Our *PKS-PKP* observation can be regarded as belonging to the same broad category as the phases in the Earth's correlation wavefield (e.g., Pham et al., 2018; Tkalčić et al., 2020; Wang and Tkalčić, 2020), which are also produced through cross-correlation of records rich in steeply incident body-wave energy (global earthquake coda waves). Specifically, our *PKS-PKP*

has an arrival time close to $cS-cP$ at zero offset (e.g., Pham et al., 2018). Nonetheless, the generation mechanism of our $PKS-PKP$ observations is likely different from that of $cS-cP$, which causes the two phases to have different structural sensitivities. $cS-cP$ is thought to be formed via the interference between any earthquake-coda phase pairs with one P-S differential leg between the CMB and the surface (e.g., Figure 3b in Wang and Tkalčić (2020)). Because many different phase pairs satisfy this condition, and that the P-S differential leg can constitute any segment on the ray paths of the two interfering phases, the waveform of $cS-cP$ is likely sensitive to Earth structure in a very broad range (Wang & Tkalčić, 2020). In contrast, our $PKS-PKP$ arises mostly from PKP and PKS excited by ocean-solid-earth interactions, providing sensitivity mainly to the mantle structure beneath the station.

This interpretation is supported by four lines of evidence: First, the short period band that we focus on (2–10 s) is known to be largely free from the effects of earthquake late coda (Boué et al., 2014). Second, our $PKS-PKP$ likely represents incoming S waves at the receiver because it is extracted via vertical-horizontal cross-component cross-correlation. Therefore, the P-S differential leg of our $PKS-PKP$ must be the last leg on the ray paths of the two interfering phases. Third, our array stacking enhances incoming PKP and PKS waves with a specific slowness vector while suppressing contributions from phase pairs with different slowness vectors, for example, possible earthquake late coda with steeper incident angles (Figure 4). Finally, the clear shear-wave-splitting signal of $PKP05$, which agrees with previous results, indicates that our $PKS-PKP$ is indeed primarily sensitive to the structure immediately below the station. In summary, our $PKS-PKP$ is related to yet different from $cS-cP$ and other phases in Earth's correlation wavefield.

Our results show that PKP noise sources are extremely variable in both space and time, which likely also applies to other body-wave noise sources. We also find that body-wave scattering signals extracted from noise data can be significantly enhanced with simple techniques, namely time-window selection and array stacking, that address the spatiotemporal variation of body-wave sources. In principle, time-window selection does not require dense-array data, although a synchronous array may be necessary to determine the time windows containing significant body-wave noise energy. Array stacking requires array data, which limits its application, although the required array density likely depends on the targeted seismic phase. So far, most of the seismic imaging studies using body-wave noise have not accounted for its spatiotemporal variation and have relied simply on stacking large number of cross-correlation functions (e.g., Feng et al., 2021; Poli et al., 2012). Our results suggest that the primary contribution to their signals may have only come from a fraction of all the time windows, and that simply selecting those time windows might significantly improve the signal quality (Figure 3). The signal quality may be further improved if array stacking can be performed before cross-correlation.

6. Conclusions

We extract a phase that likely represents $PKS-PKP$ from cross-component cross-correlation of noise records. We show that the amplitude of $PKS-PKP$ is significantly enhanced when only time windows containing strong PKP signals are used. We also show that stacking array data before cross-correlation significantly enhances $PKS-PKP$ amplitudes. The shear-wave-splitting parameters estimated with our $PKS-PKP$ waveforms are similar to the ones from previous studies derived with earthquake data, suggesting that $PKS-PKP$ may be used for studying crust and mantle anisotropy in the future.

Data Availability Statement

The metadata of TA and XO can be accessed at <https://ds.iris.edu/mda/TA/> and <https://ds.iris.edu/mda/XO/?start-time=2011-01-01T00:00:00&endtime=2015-12-31T23:59:59>, respectively. The time-series data of the two arrays are freely available at the Incorporated Research Institutions for Seismology Data Management Center and were downloaded using ObsPy in this study (Krischer et al., 2015). The wave-height data of WAVEWATCH III are freely available at the Environmental Modeling Center of NOAA (<https://polar.ncep.noaa.gov/waves/wave-watch/>). The P-wave site-effect maps in this paper are provided by Lucia Gualtieri through personal communication and are available at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5904118>. The plots in this paper are created with the Generic Mapping Tools (Wessel et al., 2019).

Acknowledgments

This study is funded by NSF Grants EAR-1358510 and EAR-1829601. T. Liu is supported by a Green Postdoctoral Scholarship. IRIS DMC is funded by the NSF under Cooperative Support Agreement EAR-1851048. We thank Lucia Gualtieri for providing the ocean site-effect maps and Wenyuan Fan for stimulating discussion. We thank Pierre Boué and an anonymous reviewer for their critical comments, which greatly improved our manuscript.

References

- Ammon, C. J. (1991). The isolation of receiver effects from teleseismic P waveforms. *Bulletin of the Seismological Society of America*, 81(6), 2504–2510. <https://doi.org/10.1785/BSSA0810062504>
- Bensen, G., Ritzwoller, M., Barmin, M., Levshin, A. L., Lin, F., Moschetti, M., & Yang, Y. (2007). Processing seismic ambient noise data to obtain reliable broad-band surface wave dispersion measurements. *Geophysical Journal International*, 169(3), 1239–1260. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-246X.2007.03374.x>
- Boué, P., Poli, P., Campillo, M., & Roux, P. (2014). Reverberations, coda waves and ambient noise: Correlations at the global scale and retrieval of the deep phases. *Earth and Planetary Science Letters*, 391, 137–145. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.epsl.2014.01.047>
- Brenguier, F., Campillo, M., Hadziioannou, C., Shapiro, N. M., Nadeau, R. M., & Larose, E. (2008). Postseismic relaxation along the San Andreas Fault at Parkfield from continuous seismological observations. *Science*, 321(5895), 1478–1481. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1160943>
- Feng, J., Yao, H., Wang, Y., Poli, P., & Mao, Z. (2021). Segregated oceanic crust trapped at the bottom mantle transition zone revealed from ambient noise interferometry. *Nature Communications*, 12(1), 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-021-22853-2>
- Gualtieri, L., Stutzmann, É., Farra, V., Capdeville, Y., Schimmel, M., Arduhuin, F., & Morelli, A. (2014). Modelling the ocean site effect on seismic noise body waves. *Geophysical Journal International*, 197(2), 1096–1106. <https://doi.org/10.1093/gji/ggu042>
- Kennett, B. L., Engdahl, E., & Buland, R. (1995). Constraints on seismic velocities in the Earth from traveltimes. *Geophysical Journal International*, 122(1), 108–124. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-246X.1995.tb03540.x>
- Koper, K. D., & de Foy, B. (2008). Seasonal anisotropy in short-period seismic noise recorded in south Asia. *Bulletin of the Seismological Society of America*, 98(6), 3033–3045.
- Krischer, L., Megies, T., Barsch, R., Beyreuther, M., Lecocq, T., Caudron, C., & Wassermann, J. (2015). Obspy: A bridge for seismology into the scientific python ecosystem. *Computational Science & Discovery*, 8(1), 014003.
- Landès, M., Hubans, F., Shapiro, N. M., Paul, A., & Campillo, M. (2010). Origin of deep ocean microseisms by using teleseismic body waves. *Journal of Geophysical Research*, 115(B5). <https://doi.org/10.1029/2009JB006918>
- Lin, F.-C., Ritzwoller, M. H., & Snieder, R. (2009). Eikonal tomography: Surface wave tomography by phase front tracking across a regional broad-band seismic array. *Geophysical Journal International*, 177(3), 1091–1110. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-246X.2009.04105.x>
- Liu, Q., Ni, S., Qiu, Y., Zeng, X., Zhang, B., Wang, F., & Xu, Z. (2020). Observation of teleseismic S wave microseisms generated by typhoons in the Western Pacific ocean. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 47(19), e2020GL089031. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2020GL089031>
- Long, M. D., & Silver, P. G. (2009). Shear wave splitting and mantle anisotropy: Measurements, interpretations, and new directions. *Surveys in Geophysics*, 30(4), 407–461. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10712-009-9075-1>
- Nakata, N., Chang, J. P., Lawrence, J. F., & Boué, P. (2015). Body wave extraction and tomography at long beach, California, with ambient-noise interferometry. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Solid Earth*, 120(2), 1159–1173. <https://doi.org/10.1002/2015JB011870>
- Nishida, K., & Takagi, R. (2016). Teleseismic S wave microseisms. *Science*, 353(6302), 919–921. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aaf7573>
- Pedersen, H., & Colombi, A. (2018). Body waves from a single source area observed in noise correlations at arrival times of reflections from the 410 discontinuity. *Geophysical Journal International*, 214(2), 1125–1135. <https://doi.org/10.1093/gji/ggy191>
- Pham, T.-S., Tkalčić, H., Sambridge, M., & Kennett, B. L. (2018). Earth's correlation wavefield: Late coda correlation. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 45(7), 3035–3042. <https://doi.org/10.1002/2018GL077244>
- Poli, P., Campillo, M., Pedersen, H., & LAPNET Working Group (2012). Body-wave imaging of Earth's mantle discontinuities from ambient seismic noise. *Science*, 338(6110), 1063–1065. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1228194>
- Retailleau, L., & Gualtieri, L. (2021). Multi-phase seismic source imprint of tropical cyclones. *Nature Communications*, 12(1), 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-021-22231-y>
- Shapiro, N. M., Campillo, M., Stehly, L., & Ritzwoller, M. H. (2005). High-resolution surface-wave tomography from ambient seismic noise. *Science*, 307(5715), 1615–1618. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1108339>
- Sieminski, A., Paulssen, H., Trampert, J., & Tromp, J. (2008). Finite-frequency SKS splitting: Measurement and sensitivity kernels. *Bulletin of the Seismological Society of America*, 98(4), 1797–1810. <https://doi.org/10.1785/0120070297>
- Tkalčić, H., Pham, T.-S., & Wang, S. (2020). The Earth's coda correlation wavefield: Rise of the new paradigm and recent advances. *Earth-Science Reviews*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.earscirev.2020.103285>
- Tolman, H. L. (2009). User manual and system documentation of WAVEWATCH III TM version 3.14. Technical note. *MMAB Contribution*, 276, 220.
- Wang, S., & Tkalčić, H. (2020). Seismic event coda-correlation's formation: Implications for global seismology. *Geophysical Journal International*, 222(2), 1283–1294. <https://doi.org/10.1093/gji/ggaa259>
- Wessel, P., Luis, J., Uieda, L., Scharroo, R., Wobbe, F., Smith, W., & Tian, D. (2019). The generic mapping tools version 6. *Geochemistry, Geophysics, Geosystems*, 20(11), 5556–5564. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2019GC008515>
- Yang, B. B., Liu, Y., Dahm, H., Liu, K. H., & Gao, S. S. (2017). Seismic azimuthal anisotropy beneath the eastern United States and its geodynamic implications. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 44(6), 2670–2678. <https://doi.org/10.1002/2016GL071227>

Reference From the Supporting Information

Shearer, P. M. (2019). *Introduction to seismology* (3rd ed.). Cambridge University Press.