

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 (Phạm 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 (Phạm 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.