



Directionality of Ambient Noise in the Mississippi Embayment

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Directionality of Ambient Noise in the Mississippi Embayment

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Summary

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9 52 Cross-correlations of ambient seismic noise from 277 broadband stations within the
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11 53 Mississippi embayment (ME) with at least 1-month of recording time between 1990 and
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13 54 2018 are used to estimate source locations of primary and secondary microseisms. We
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15 55 investigate source locations by analyzing the azimuthal distribution of the signal-to-
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17 56 noise ratio (SNR) and positive/negative amplitude differences. We use 84 stations with
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19 57 continuous 1-year recordings to explore seasonal variations of SNRs and amplitude
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21 58 differences. We also investigate the seasonal ambient noise ground motions using 2D
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23 59 frequency-wavenumber analysis of a 50-station array composed of the Northern
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25 60 Embayment Lithosphere Experiment. We observe that (1) two major azimuths can be
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27 61 identified in the azimuthal distribution of SNRs and amplitude difference. We also
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29 62 observe two minor azimuths in the seasonal variation of SNRs, amplitude difference,
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31 63 and 2D FK power spectra. Monthly 2D FK power spectra reveal that two energy sources
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33 64 are active in northern hemisphere winter and two relatively weak sources are active in
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35 65 summer. (2) Back-projection suggests that primary microseisms originate along the
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37 66 coasts of Australia or New Zealand, Canada and Alaska, Newfoundland or Greenland,
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39 67 and South America. (3) Secondary microseisms are generated in the deep water of the
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41 68 northern and southern Pacific Ocean, along the coasts of Canada and Alaska associated
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43 69 with near-shore reflections, and in the deep water of south of Greenland. (4) The
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45 70 azimuthal distribution of amplitude difference of sedimentary Love waves in the period
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47 71 band of 1-5s indicates a local source related to the basin-edge of the ME.

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56 72 Key words: Ambient noise; Directionality; 2D FK beamforming.

1 Introduction

Ambient seismic noise in the short period band (1-20 s) is termed “microseisms”. Seismic noise with periods less than 5 s may be associated with anthropogenic activities (Lin et al. 2013; Nakata et al. 2015) or induced by basin-edges (Rovelli et al. 2001; Joyner 2000). Noise with periods between 5s and 20s is generated by different natural mechanisms (Wiechert 1904; Hasselmann 1963; Longuet-Higgins 1950). Primary (10-20s) and secondary (5-10s) microseisms are the two dominant types of noise in this band (Kibblewhite & Ewans 1985; Kedar et al. 2008). Primary microseisms are related to direct interaction of ocean swells with the ocean floor near coasts (Hasselmann 1963) with the secondary microseisms being associated with the interaction between two primary ocean waves with the same frequency ranges but different propagation directions (Longuet-Higgins 1950). Numerical modeling of the generation of secondary microseisms suggests that the interaction can be in deep or shallow water (Ardhuin et al. 2011). In deep water, the interaction can be between wind-driven waves with a broad directional spectrum or two independent wave systems. In shallow water, the interaction can be between coastal reflections and the primary ocean wavefield (Ardhuin et al. 2011).

Under the assumption of uniformly distributed seismic noise sources, cross-correlation (CC) of continuous ambient noise recorded at two stations can effectively retrieve a Green's function between them (Weaver & Lobkis 2001; Snieder 2004; Wapenaar 2004; Derode et al. 2003). In the past decade, tomography using ambient noise CCs has been applied globally (Ritzwoller et al. 2002; Nishida et al. 2009), regionally (Lin et al. 2008; Liang & Langston 2008; Liang & Langston 2009; Lin et al. 2007; Fu & Li 2015; Yao et al. 2006), and locally (Lin et al. 2013). Ambient noise tomography provides additional constraints on velocity structure for regions of active seismicity and sheds light on possible anomalous velocity structure for regions without local seismic sources.

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3 96 Ambient noise CCs can also be applied to monitor time-varying processes. Long-term monitoring
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5 97 of phase or arrival time differences of scattered waves in ambient noise CCs provides an
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7 98 opportunity to estimate possible seismic velocity changes in the crust. Estimating crustal velocity
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9 99 changes further advance our understanding of volcanic eruptions (Brennguier et al. 2008b; Duputel
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11 100 et al. 2009), fault zone coseismic damage and postseismic healing (Brennguier et al. 2008a; Wu et
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13 101 al. 2016; Liu et al. 2018b), crustal response to external loads such as precipitation (Sens-
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15 102 Schönfelder & Wegler 2006), temperature (Meier et al. 2010; Hillers et al. 2015) and atmospheric
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17 103 pressure (Niu et al. 2008; Silver et al. 2007).
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22 104 Although ambient noise tomography provides an additional pathway for understanding
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24 105 Earth structure, it suffers from accuracy problems because noise sources are usually
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26 106 heterogeneously distributed across the globe (Yang & Ritzwoller 2008; Stehly et al. 2006; Behr et
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28 107 al. 2013; Tian & Ritzwoller 2015). In the northern hemisphere, sources are distributed in the
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30 108 northern Pacific and Atlantic, and the energy of sources varies seasonally from high energy in the
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32 109 winter to low in the summer (Young 1999). In the southern hemisphere, swells from storms
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34 110 penetrate throughout the Indian, Pacific, and Atlantic Oceans; the energy of sources is high in
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36 111 northern hemisphere summer and low in winter. The reason why ambient noise CCs can retrieve
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38 112 the Green's function is still unclear. Recent studies have revealed that uneven noise source
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40 113 distributions can influence the accuracy of velocity and azimuthal anisotropy tomographies (Tsai
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42 114 2009; Weaver et al. 2009; Yao & Van Der Hilst 2009; Harmon et al. 2010). Thus, better knowledge
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44 115 of noise source distributions can help to assess the uncertainty of velocity tomography as well as
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46 116 understanding the mechanisms for noise generation.
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52 117 As seen from North America, microseisms can originate from different locations and be
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54 118 related to different generation mechanisms. Source locations are rather complicated for the western
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3 119 United States. For the secondary microseisms, seasonal variability of noise is weak and strong
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5 120 noise arrives from southwest quadrant, from the California coasts or from the deep Pacific Ocean
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8 121 (Tian & Ritzwoller 2015; Yang & Ritzwoller 2008). Strong seasonal variability can be observed
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10 122 for primary microseisms. In northern hemisphere winter, the strongest signals arrive from
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12 123 northwest and northeast quadrants, probably from the northern Pacific and Atlantic coasts of North
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14 124 America (Gerstoft et al. 2008; Landès et al. 2010; Kedar et al. 2008; Retailleau et al. 2017; Stehly
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17 125 et al. 2006) or near the southern tip of Greenland (Kedar et al. 2008). In northern summer, strong
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19 126 signals arrive from the south and southwest quadrants, from the California coasts (Tian &
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21 127 Ritzwoller 2015; Yang & Ritzwoller 2008). Source locations for primary and secondary
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23 128 microseisms in eastern United States have been seen to have no significant differences. For
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26 129 primary and secondary microseisms, strong noise arrives from the northeast and west, from the
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28 130 coast of Newfoundland (Cessaro 1994; Langston et al. 2009) or Pacific coast of North America
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31 131 (Yang & Ritzwoller 2008). Microseisms can also be related to localized sources including rivers
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33 132 (Burtin et al. 2008), and lakes (Gu & Shen 2012).

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36 133 A variety of methods have been used to infer source locations of the ambient noise. Shapiro
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38 134 et al. (2006) located sources for 26s microseisms off the west African coast in the Gulf of Guinea
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40 135 by minimizing the travel time misfit using a grid search method. Grid searching over the maximum
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42 136 stacked energy (Gu et al. 2007; Zeng & Ni 2010) has also been applied to locate sources. Tian &
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44 137 Ritzwoller (2015) and Yang & Ritzwoller (2008) identified different source locations for primary
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47 138 and secondary microseisms by a statistical analysis of the azimuthal distribution of the signal-to-
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49 139 noise ratio (SNR). Behr et al. (2013) used three-component plane wave beamforming to infer
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52 140 source locations for primary and secondary microseisms in New Zealand and suggested different
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3 141 back-azimuths for primary Rayleigh and Love waves but similar ones for secondary Rayleigh and
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5 142 Love waves.
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8 143 Studies of ambient noise source locations in the Mississippi embayment (ME) are quite
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10 144 limited (Yang & Ritzwoller 2008; Langston et al. 2009) but important for the following reasons.
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12 145 Firstly, the ME is a SSW plunging trough filled with up to 1.5 km of unconsolidated sediments
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14 146 (Fig. 1) (Hildenbrand & Hendricks 1995), and hosts one of the most active seismic zones in the
15
16 147 North America, the New Madrid seismic zone (NMSZ). Better knowledge of the noise source
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18 148 locations can help to assess the accuracy of previous tomography studies (Liang & Langston 2008,
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20 149 2009; Chen et al. 2016; Liu et al. 2018a), which can improve confidence on determining
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22 150 earthquake parameters within the NMSZ. Secondly, recent broadband deployments of the
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24 151 EarthScope Transportable Array (TA) and Northern Embayment Lithosphere Experiment (NELE)
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26 152 within the ME provide an opportunity to apply location methods for an array with an excellent
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28 153 azimuthal distribution of stations. Lastly, the ME sediment variation can also be a potential source
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30 154 for generating sedimentary surface waves (Langston et al. 2005, 2009; Liu et al. 2018a).
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32 155 Observations of source locations of sedimentary surface waves can help the understanding of the
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34 156 generation mechanisms and how the sediments influence wave propagation.
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41 157 In this study, we investigate the azimuthal distribution of sources for primary and
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43 158 secondary microseisms, explore the seasonal variation of ambient noise sources by monitoring the
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45 159 changes of the SNRs, amplitude differences, and 2D FK power spectra, and search for local sources
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47 160 in the embayment using low-period ambient noise ($T < 5s$).
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163 2 Data and methods

164 We use data from 277 broadband stations (Fig. 1) installed between 1990 and 2018 to compute
165 vertical-vertical (ZZ) and horizontal-horizontal (TT) component CCs. The interstation distances
166 are chosen to be larger than three times the microseism wavelength and data must be time-
167 contiguous for at least 30 days. These data have been used to image lithospheric shear wave
168 velocity structure by Liu et al. (2018a). We use the MSNoise python package (Lecocq et al. 2014)
169 to compute the CCs. The preprocessing procedures can be summarized as follow: 1) broadband
170 miniseed data are requested from IRIS through the FDSN service, 2) removing the instrument
171 response, 3) bandpassing from 0.05 to 1 Hz, 3) removing transients and earthquake signals using
172 temporal normalization as described by Bensen et al. (2007), and 4) partially eliminating the effect
173 of heterogeneous distributed noise sources on the CCs by spectral whitening.

174 We apply statistical analyses of SNRs and positive/negative amplitude differences as well as
175 2D frequency-wavenumber (FK) analysis of the instrument-corrected data to constrain the back-
176 azimuths of strong noise sources. The processing procedures in each method are described in the following
177 sections.

178 Energy flux directions of microseisms can be identified from the azimuthal distribution of
179 SNRs (Tian & Ritzwoller 2015; Yang & Ritzwoller 2008). The SNR is defined to be the ratio
180 between the maximum absolute amplitude of crustal surface wave arrivals (~ 3 km/s) and the root-
181 mean-squared (RMS) amplitude of noise in the coda window. In the primary (10-20s) or secondary
182 (5-10s) microseisms passband, we define the coda window as the last 200s of CCs where no direct
183 surface wave arrivals are observed (Fig. 2). Yang & Ritzwoller (2008) suggested that the RMS
184 amplitude of noise after the major crustal surface wave arrival is similar for the CCs within the
185 same seismic array. Fig. 3(A) shows CCs between the virtual source at HENM station and all

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186 surrounding stations. The positive lag portion of the CCs is the outgoing wave from the virtual
 187 source. For a CC between the virtual source A and station B, the outgoing wave from the station
 188 A is the incoming wave for the station B. Thus, we only use positive lags of CCs to compute the
 189 SNR. We then correct SNR measurements for geometric spreading through: $SNR_{corrected} = SNR * \sqrt{D/300}$,
 190 in which D is the interstation distance in km. Because SNR increases as the square root
 191 of number of days to be stacked (Tian & Ritzwoller 2015), we only use stacks with 30 days of
 192 data. All corrected SNR measurements for all CCs related to the virtual source A, with different
 193 azimuths, are used to construct a rose diagram (Fig. 3(B)). The azimuths (Fig. 3(C)) here are from
 194 the virtual source A to surrounding stations. The bars point to the wave propagation direction for
 195 sources of microseisms (away-from-the-source). If noise sources are distributed homogeneously
 196 in azimuth, then each SNR value should have the same length. If there is a dominant source
 197 direction, then bars will get relatively longer in the direction away from the source.

198 We also use the amplitude difference of crustal surface waves seen at positive and negative
 199 lags of the CCs to estimate the strength of noise. The amplitude difference is defined as: Amp_{diff}
 200 $= (Amp_{pos} - Amp_{neg}) * 10000$, in which Amp_{pos} and Amp_{neg} are the maximum amplitude of
 201 crustal surface waves on positive and negative lags of the CCs, respectively. The amplitude
 202 difference is exaggerated 10000 times for better comparison with the SNR measurements. The
 203 amplitude difference is also corrected for the geometric spreading. If the corrected amplitude
 204 difference is larger than 200, we set the value to be 200. For a CC between the virtual source A
 205 and the receiver B, if the amplitude of the crustal surface wave on the positive lag is larger than
 206 that on the negative lag, the back-azimuth from the receiver B (Fig. 3(C)) can indicate the direction
 207 of the source. Otherwise, we use azimuth. A collection of amplitude difference measurements for

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3 208 all CCs related to the virtual source A is used to construct a rose diagram in which large amplitude
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5 209 difference indicates the source direction (toward-the-source).
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8 210 We verify the source directions determined from the azimuthal distribution of SNRs and
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10 211 amplitude differences through 2D FK analysis of a subset of stations used as a phased array
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12 212 (Langston et al. 2009; Behr et al. 2013; Aki & Richards 1980; Capon et al. 1973). The reference
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14 213 station in the 2D FK analysis of primary microseisms is the center of an array composed of 50
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16 214 stations deployed in 2014 as part of the Northern Embayment Lithosphere Experiment (Fig. 4).
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18 215 The location of the center is defined by averaging latitude and longitude of array station locations.
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20 216 In addition to inferring wave direction and slowness, we also compute the monthly 2D FK power
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22 217 spectra to investigate seasonal variations in the noise. This is done by: cutting the time-series into
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24 218 24 hourly segments; computing 2D FK power spectra for each one-hour segment; and then
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26 219 stacking hourly 2D power spectra into monthly power spectra. To clearly estimate the wave
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28 220 directions, we compute the 2D FK power for different days. The power spectra are binned with
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30 221 slowness between 0.27 s/km to 0.35 s/km and a 2° azimuth interval. In each bin, we remove mean
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32 222 to better observe power difference in different azimuth for different days and use maximum value
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34 223 to represent the power.
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41 224 Investigating seasonal variations of SNRs and amplitude differences can also help reveal
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43 225 back-azimuths of noise sources. The hypothesis that microseisms originate from arrivals of strong
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45 226 storms has been confirmed by Stehly et al. (2006). Strong storms appear in the northern Pacific
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47 227 and Atlantic during northern hemisphere winter and the southern Indian and Pacific Oceans during
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49 228 northern hemisphere summer (Young 1999; Stehly et al. 2006). We use the vertical component of
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51 229 84 broadband stations (Fig. 1) with continuous recording to compute the CCs over the months of
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53 230 2014. For each month, SNRs and amplitude differences are computed from all CCs. Because the
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231 directional output from SNR and amplitude difference measurements are different, away-from-
 232 the-source in SNR and toward-the-source for amplitude difference measurements, we convert
 233 away-from-the-source to toward-the-source for better comparison. We then bin SNRs and
 234 amplitude difference measurements into 5° back azimuth intervals. The RMS of SNRs and
 235 amplitude differences are computed. Collections of azimuthal variations of SNRs or amplitude
 236 difference in different seasons can provide direct observations of major source back-azimuths.

237 A simple back-projection along the great circle from the network location can provide an
 238 idea of source locations. The back-projection needs two major parameters, the location of the array
 239 and the back-projection direction. We use the center of array (-90°, 35°) as our reference location
 240 and means \pm standard deviations as our back-projection directions. We use a nonlinear regression
 241 fitting function in Matlab, fitnlm (DuMouchel et al. 1989; Holland et al. 1977; Seber et al. 2003),
 242 to compute the means and standard deviations. The fitting function has the form of: $y = a + c1 * e^{-(x-c2)^2/c3} + d1 * e^{-(x-d2)^2/d3} + m1 * e^{-(x-m2)^2/m3} + n1 * e^{-(x-n2)^2/n3}$, in which a ,
 243 $c1, c2, c3, d1, d2, d3, m1, m2, m3, n1, n2, n3$ are unknown.

246 3 Results

247 3.1 Azimuthal distribution of SNRs and amplitude differences

248 In the following, "Rayleigh primary" and "Rayleigh secondary" correspond to the ZZ
 249 correlation Green's functions for primary and secondary microseisms, respectively. Likewise,
 250 "Love primary" and "Love secondary" correspond to the same microseisms for the TT correlation
 251 Green's functions. We compute 13,445 and 11,977 ZZ and TT component CCs, respectively. For
 252 each CC, we compute the SNRs and amplitude difference. To investigate the azimuthal bias of

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3 254 station pairs on the measurements of SNRs and amplitude difference, we compare the azimuthal
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5 255 distribution of station pairs with SNRs/amplitude difference measurements for four networks:
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8 256 Central and Eastern US network (N4), Cooperative New Madrid Seismic network (NM),
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10 257 USArray Transportable Array (TA), and Northern Embayment Lithospheric Experiment (ZL).
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12 258 Very good azimuthal coverage (Top left corner inserted map) for the four networks can be
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15 259 observed in Fig. 5 and Fig. 6. Two major away-from-the-source and toward-the-source directions
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17 260 can be identified in azimuthal distribution of SNRs (Fig. 5) and amplitude difference (Fig. 6),
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19 261 respectively. We observe no significant difference on two directions in the rose diagram of
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22 262 Rayleigh (or Love) primary and secondary microseisms.

23 263 3.2 2D Frequency-wavenumber analysis

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26 264 The slowness and back-azimuth are well resolved provided signals correlate across this large
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28 265 regional array (Fig. 4). In Fig. 7, we stack hourly 2D FK power spectra to construct monthly
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31 266 power spectra for Rayleigh primary microseisms. A homogenous source distribution can be
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33 267 observed as the circular feature in the spectral plots, but the magnitude of the energy flux has
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35 268 clear azimuthal maxima. Energy flux with back-azimuths of $\sim 40^\circ$ and $\sim 320^\circ$ emerge for the
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38 269 whole year but the energy is stronger in winter than summer. Energy flux with back-azimuths of
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40 270 $\sim 120^\circ$ and $\sim 260^\circ$ become visible from March to September. In Fig. 8, the noise sources are
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42 271 heterogeneously distributed. Major energy flux emerges in northeast and northwest quadrants.
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45 272 Weak energy flux can be observed in southwest and southeast quadrants in April/May and June,
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47 273 respectively. To estimate the exact azimuths of energy flux from 2D FK power spectra, we
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49 274 investigate seasonal variation of normalized power with the azimuths (Fig. 9). Four major back-
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51 275 azimuths can be identified. We observe a small difference, $\sim 255^\circ$ for Rayleigh primary and
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54 276 $\sim 270^\circ$ for Rayleigh secondary, on the back-azimuths of noise energy flux in the southwest
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3 277 quadrant.
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5 278 **3.3** Seasonal variability of SNRs and amplitude difference
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8 279 We also compute 1670 vertical component CCs to investigate seasonal variations of azimuthal
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10 280 distribution of SNRs and amplitude difference. In Fig. 10, different color lines represent average
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12 281 SNRs and amplitude differences for different months in 2014. Four major back-azimuths, $\sim 40^\circ$,
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14 282 $\sim 140^\circ$, $\sim 260^\circ$ and $\sim 320^\circ$, are identified in the azimuthal distribution of the SNR and amplitude
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16 283 difference. A small difference, $\sim 255^\circ$ for Rayleigh primary and $\sim 270^\circ$ for Rayleigh secondary,
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18 284 can also be observed. For noise with back-azimuths of $\sim 140^\circ$ and $\sim 260^\circ$, average SNRs and
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20 285 amplitude difference from July to September are higher than those from November to March. For
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22 286 noise with back-azimuths of $\sim 40^\circ$ and $\sim 320^\circ$, average SNRs and amplitude difference from
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24 287 November to March are higher than those from May to July.
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28 288 **3.4** Directionality of sediment surface wave
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31 289 We compute 1247 TT and 989 ZZ component CCs for station pairs with interstation distance
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33 290 less than 100 km in the passband of 1-5 s. We observe 390 and 86 CCs with low-velocity
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35 291 sedimentary Love waves (group velocity of ~ 450 m/s) and Rayleigh waves (group velocity of \sim
36
37 292 750 m/s), respectively (Fig. 11). We construct a rose diagram of amplitude difference for
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39 293 sedimentary Love waves and do not observe obvious maximums in the third quadrant (Fig.
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41 294 11(C)).
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47 296 **4** Discussion
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50 297 **4.1** Source locations for primary and secondary microseisms
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52 298 We fit four joint Gaussian functions to the azimuthal distribution of SNRs to estimate the
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54 299 means and standard deviations (Fig. 12). In Table 1, the back-projection direction measured from
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3 300 different methods are comparable to each other for primary and secondary microseisms. A simple
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5 301 back-projection (Fig. 13) using the Gaussian mean and standard deviation provides insight on the
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8 302 source locations.

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10 303 The noise with the back-azimuth of $\sim 45^\circ$ has the strongest energy. Back-projection from the
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12 304 center of the network shows that the source locations for primary and secondary microseisms are
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14 305 in the northern Atlantic Ocean or along North America coasts. The strongest energy source in
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16 306 the northern hemisphere during winter appears in the Atlantic Ocean (Stehly et al. 2006; Arduin
17
18 et al. 2011). Kedar et al. (2008) suggested that sources of secondary microseisms for this strong
19
20 307 energy are in the deep water of south of Greenland. Retailleau et al. (2017) proposed that sources
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22 308 for primary microseisms are along the coast of Greenland. Similar source locations for body
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24 309 waves at 0.1-0.3 Hz have also been observed through beamforming analysis by Landès et al.
25
26 310 (2010). Langston et al. (2009) suggested that source locations for microseisms in the 4-5 s period
27
28 311 passband can be along the coast of Newfoundland in northeastern North America through wave
29
30 312 gradiometry and frequency-wavenumber analysis. A wide-angle triangulation (Cessaro 1994)
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32 313 also suggested the sources for primary microseisms are along the coasts of Newfoundland. Since
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34 314 previous studies (Bromirski & Duennebier 2002; Cessaro 1994) infer shallow sources for primary
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36 315 microseisms, we suggest that sources for Rayleigh and Love primary microseisms are near the
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38 316 coasts of Newfoundland or Greenland. The source of secondary microseisms can be 1) off the
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40 317 coast of Newfoundland and be related to the interaction between ocean swell with coastal
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42 318 reflection, or 2) in the deep water of south of Greenland.

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45 320 For noise with the back-azimuth of $\sim 125^\circ$ measured from the receivers, the noise energy
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47 321 flux is stronger in summer than winter, which suggests that sources can be in the southern
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49 322 hemisphere. Back-projections along great circles suggest noise sources for primary microseisms

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3 323 can be near the coasts of South America. Arduin et al. (2011) observed no significant seismic
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5 324 noise from reflection near the coasts of South America, so the source for secondary microseisms
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8 325 can be in the southern Atlantic Ocean.
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10 326 For noise with the back-azimuth of $\sim 260^\circ$ from the receivers, previous studies proposed that
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12 327 the sources might be in the southern Pacific Ocean and near the coastal region of Australia or New
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14 328 Zealand. Tian & Ritzwoller (2015) suggested that the sources for primary microseisms with the
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16 329 back-azimuth of $\sim 220^\circ$ can be in the Pacific Ocean of the southern hemisphere. Stehly et al.
17
18 330 (2006) also observed that sources for Rayleigh primary microseisms can be generated in the
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20 331 southern Pacific Ocean and near the southern and eastern coastal regions of Australia and New
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22 332 Zealand in southern Indian Ocean during the northern hemisphere summer. Gerstoft et al. (2008)
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24 333 and Landès et al. (2010) observed possible source locations for body waves at 0.1 - 0.3 Hz in the
25
26 334 southern Pacific. A slight difference on propagation directions ($\sim 255^\circ$ for Rayleigh primary and \sim
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28 335 270° for Rayleigh secondary in Fig. 9 and 10) may indicate that sources are in different regions.
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30 336 Primary microseisms ($\sim 255^\circ$) can be generated near southern coasts of Australia or northwest
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32 337 coasts of New Zealand (Reading et al. 2014; Stehly et al. 2006). Great circle back-projections
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34 338 indicate that secondary microseisms ($\sim 270^\circ$) can be in the deep Pacific Ocean of the southern
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36 339 hemisphere.
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44 340 For noise with the back-azimuth of $\sim 320^\circ$, many studies indicated sources can be near the
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46 341 coasts of Canada and Alaska or in the deep northern Pacific Ocean. Tian & Ritzwoller (2015)
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48 342 proposed that primary microseisms identified in the Juan de Fuca plate area are generated in the
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50 343 shallow water near the Graham island. Stehly et al. (2006) suggested primary microseisms might
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52 344 be generated from two low energy sources, one near the coast of Alaska and the other close to
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54 345 Japan. Gerstoft et al. (2008) and Landès et al. (2010) proposed sources for seismic body waves can
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3 346 be in the deep ocean of the Pacific. Arduin et al. (2011) revealed that coastal reflections can
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5 347 significantly increase the secondary microseisms along the western coast of Alaska and California.
6
7 348 The primary microseisms can be generated near the coastlines of Alaska and Canada. Secondary
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10 349 microseisms can be originated near coasts and be related reflections or in the deep Pacific Ocean.

12 350 4.2 Directionality of the Sedimentary Surface Wave

15 351 Sedimentary surface waves can be used to image the sediment velocity structure and
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17 352 understand wave propagation properties (Lin et al. 2013; Langston et al. 2009). A complex
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20 353 interaction between body waves, diffracted waves and basin-edges might induce surface waves,
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22 354 called basin-induced surface waves (Nayaran 2012; Field 1996; Hatayama et al. 1995; Furumura
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24 355 & Sasatani 1996; Kawase 1996). Comparing the azimuthal distribution of the amplitude difference
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27 356 for sedimentary Love waves and the geometry of the basin, we suggest that the generation of the
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29 357 sediment Love wave might be related to the basin edge.

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34 359 5 Conclusions

36 360 We investigate source locations of Rayleigh and Love primary/secondary microseisms through
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38 361 statistical analyses of SNRs and amplitude difference, and 2D frequency-wavenumber analysis.
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40 362 We use 277 broadband stations to construct 13,445 and 11,977 ZZ and TT component CCs. Two
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43 363 major directions can be identified in the azimuthal distribution of SNR and amplitude difference
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45 364 for primary and secondary microseisms. We also use 84 stations which continuously record in
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48 365 2014 to estimate seasonal variations of seismic noise. Seasonal variations of SNRs and amplitude
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50 366 difference locate another two weak noise sources in the southern hemisphere. Additionally, we use
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52 367 390 TT component CCs to investigate generation mechanisms of sedimentary surface waves.
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55 368 Comparing the azimuthal distribution of amplitude difference of sedimentary surface waves and

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3 369 the geometry of the edge of the ME, we propose the generation of sedimentary Love waves might
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5 370 be related to the basin-edge.
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8 371 In the primary microseisms band, four major back-azimuths, 45° , 125° , 255° and 320° ,
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10 372 are identified. For noise with the back-azimuth of 255° , noise energy flux is stronger in northern
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12 373 hemisphere summer than winter, which indicates that noise sources must be in the southern
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14 374 hemisphere. A simple back-projection reveals that noise sources can be along the coast of Australia
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16 375 or New Zealand. For noise with the back-azimuth of 320° , major noise sources could be along the
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18 376 coasts of Canada and Alaska, which are consistent with regions identified by Tian & Ritzwoller
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20 377 (2015) and Stehly et al. (2006). For noise with the back-azimuth of 45° , sources can be near the
21
22 378 coasts of Newfoundland or Greenland. For noise with the back-azimuth of 125° , strong energy
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24 379 flux in northern hemisphere summer suggests that noise sources are located in the southern
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26 380 hemisphere. A simple back-projection reveal that sources can be along southeast coasts of South
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28 381 America.
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35 382 In the secondary microseisms band, four major azimuths, 45° , 125° , 270° and 320° , are
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37 383 observed. Sources for noise with the back-azimuth of 270° can be in the Pacific Ocean of the
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39 384 southern hemisphere, where sources for body waves were suggested by Gerstoft et al. (2008) and
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41 385 Landès et al. (2010). Sources for noise with the back-azimuth 320° can be near the coasts of
42
43 386 Alaska and Canada or can be in the deep Pacific Ocean (Gerstoft et al. 2008; Landès et al. 2010).
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45 387 Due to low reflection energy near the coastlines of Newfoundland, sources for noise with the back-
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47 388 azimuth 40° can be in the deep ocean of south of Greenland.
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52 389 In the 1-5s period passband, low-velocity sedimentary Love waves are observed in 390 CCs.
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54 390 The azimuthal distribution of amplitude difference might indicate that the generation of
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3 391 sedimentary surface waves are related to the basin-edge. Comprehensive waveform modeling or
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5 392 ground motion simulation is needed to better understand the generation mechanisms of
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8 393 sedimentary surface waves.
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11 394 **Acknowledgements**

12
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14
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17 397 Management Center through FDSN service.
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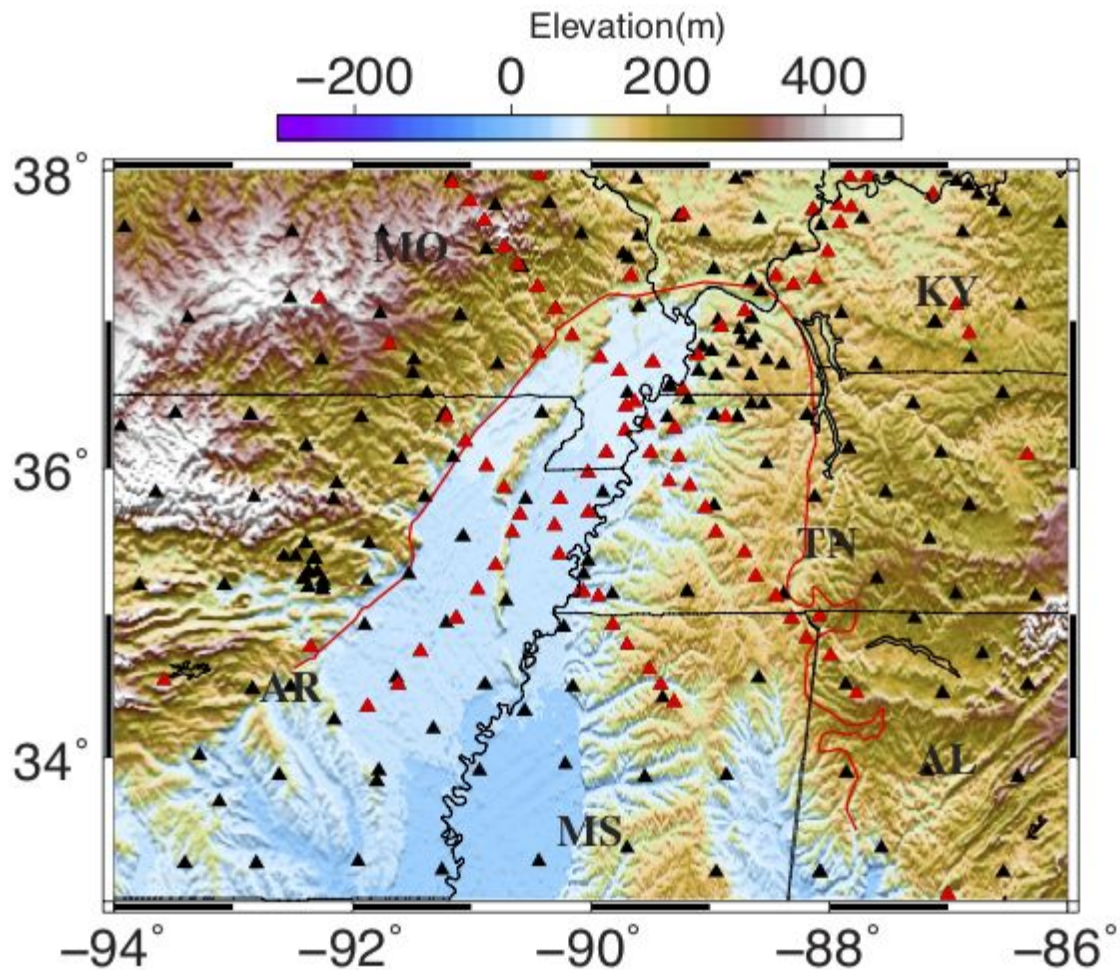
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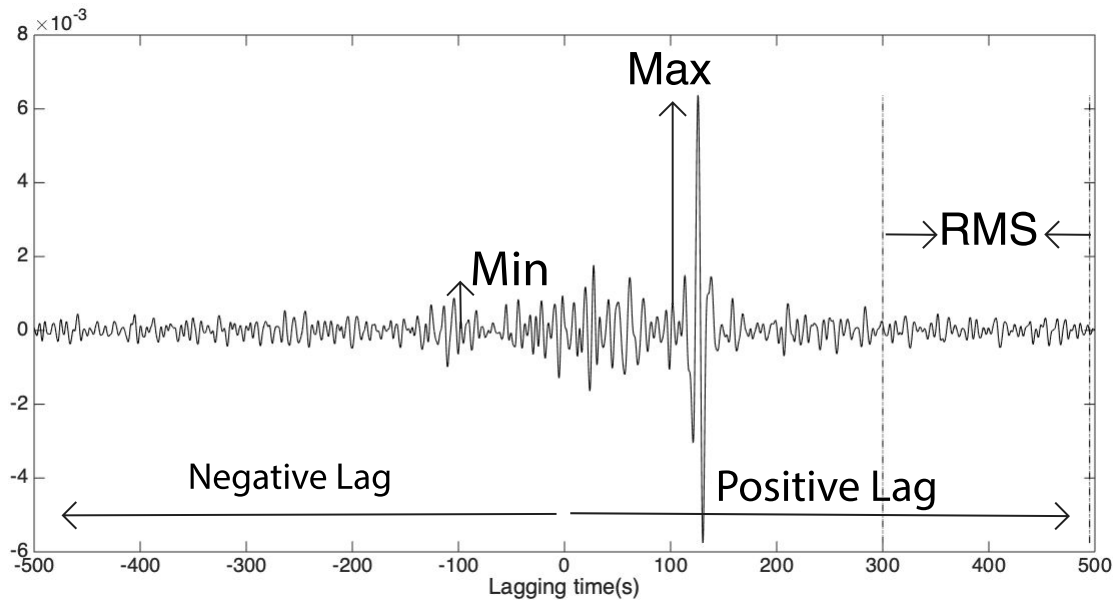
Directionality of ambient noise in the Mississippi embayment



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 412 Figure 1. Index map of the Mississippi embayment in the central United States showing 277
 413 broadband stations (triangles) installed in the period of 1990 to present, the sediment boundary
 414 (a red solid line) modified from Dart (1992) and Dart & Swolfs (1998), and bedrock topography
 415 (Amante & Eakins 2009). 84 Broadband stations marked with red triangles have continuous
 416 recording in 2014 and are used for the investigation of seasonal variations of SNR and amplitude
 417 difference. An additional 193 broadband stations marked with black triangles are used for
 418 construction of rose diagrams of SNR and amplitude difference.

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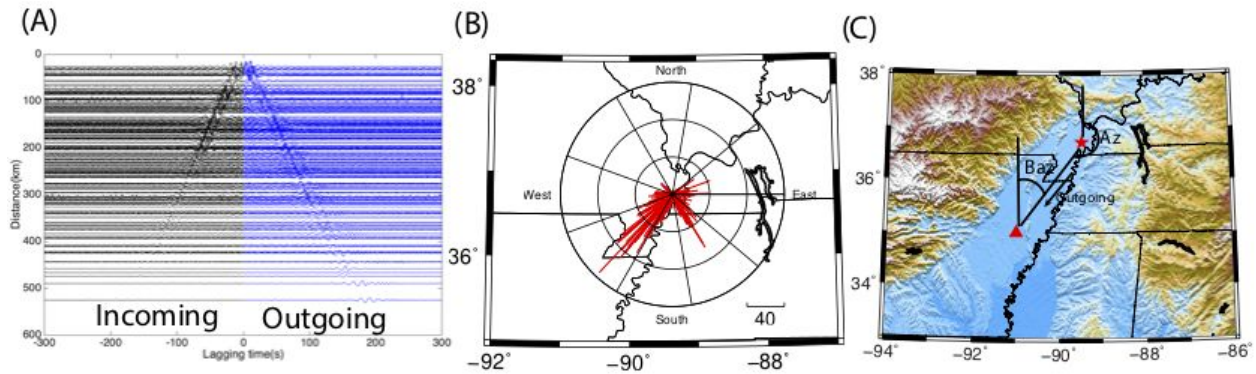
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421 Figure 2. Illustration of the measurements of Signal-to-Noise Ratio (SNR) and amplitude
 422 difference. The ZZ cross-correlation is between PENM of the New Madrid Cooperative Seismic
 423 Network and Z48A of EarthScope's Transportable array in the passband of 0.05-0.2 Hz. The peak
 424 amplitude is the maximum of the absolute velocity for positive time lags. The RMS is the root-
 425 mean-square value of the velocity marked between two dashed lines. Amplitude difference is the
 426 difference of maximum amplitude in positive and negative lags and is exaggerated 10000 times
 427 for comparison with SNR measurements.

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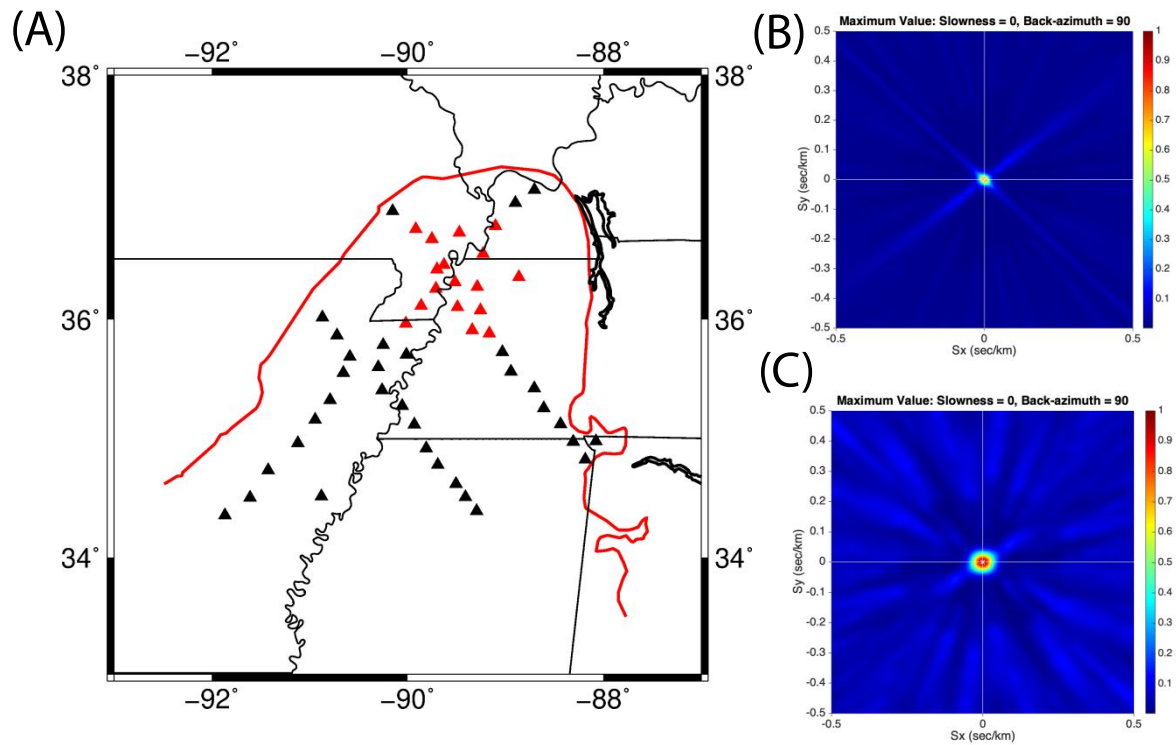
430

431 Figure 3. Construction of rose diagram of SNR. (A) CCs are between the virtual source HENM
 432 and all surrounding stations. Positive lags of CCs stand for outgoing wave propagation from the
 433 virtual source. (B) Each bar represents one SNR measurement on an outgoing wave between two
 434 stations. The length of the bar indicates the magnitude of the SNR measurements. Collection of
 435 SNR measurements, with different azimuths, constructs the rose diagram with a scale of 40 for
 436 each contour. (C) Azimuth and back-azimuth definition for rose diagrams.

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439
 440 Figure 4. Array geometry (A) and array response functions (BC) for an incident plane wave.

441 17 stations marked with red triangles are used for 2D FK analysis of secondary microseisms (C).

442 With additional 34 stations marked with black triangles, an array with 50 stations are used for 2D

443 FK analysis of primary microseisms (B). Note the streaky side lobes (B) due to the dominance of

444 the linear portions of the array composed of 50 stations.

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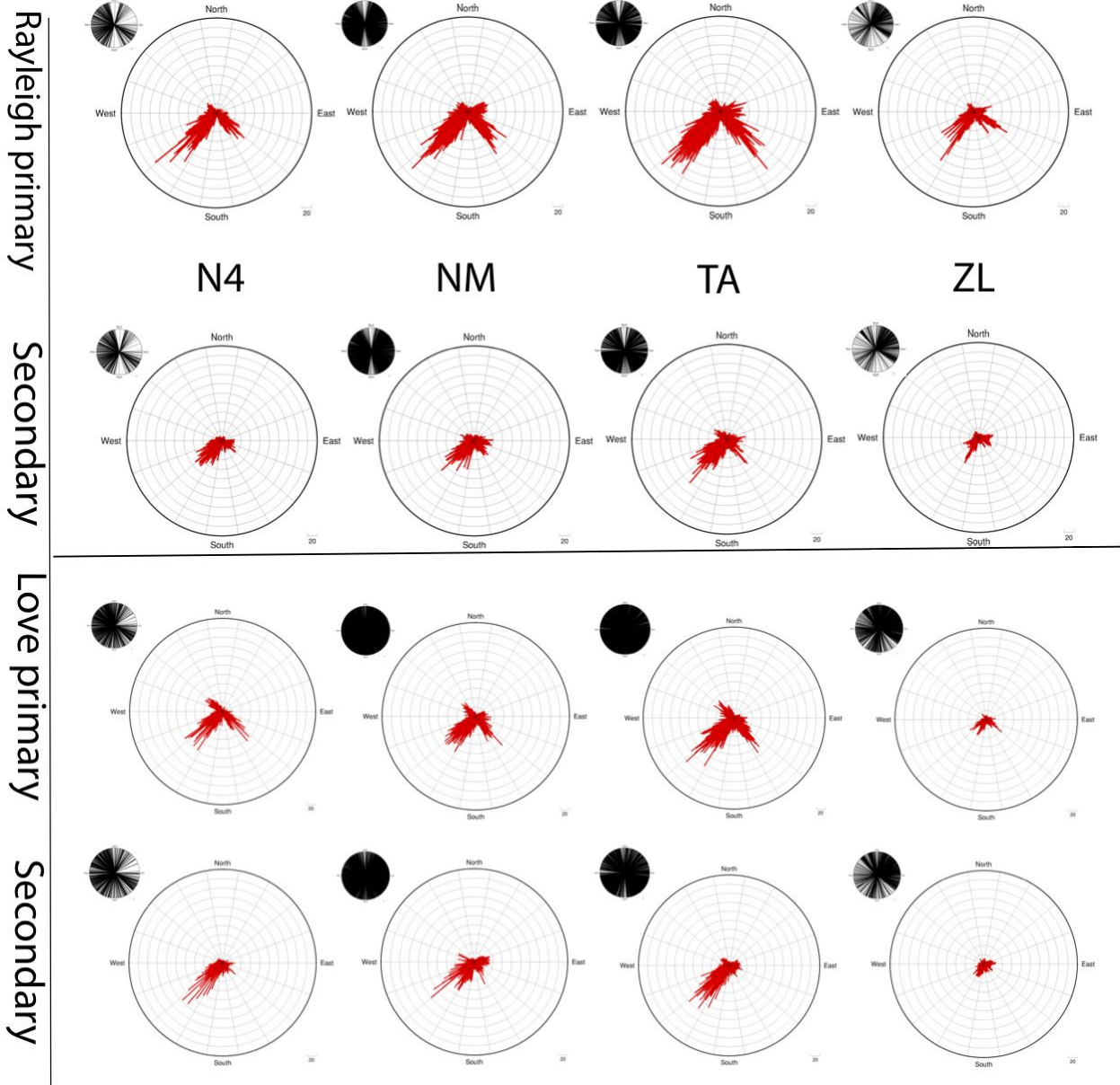


Figure 5. Rose diagrams of SNRs for four networks, N4, NM, TA and ZL. Inserted rose diagrams at the left corner show the azimuthal distribution of station pairs. Two major away-from-the-source directions can be identified in the southwest and southeast quadrants.

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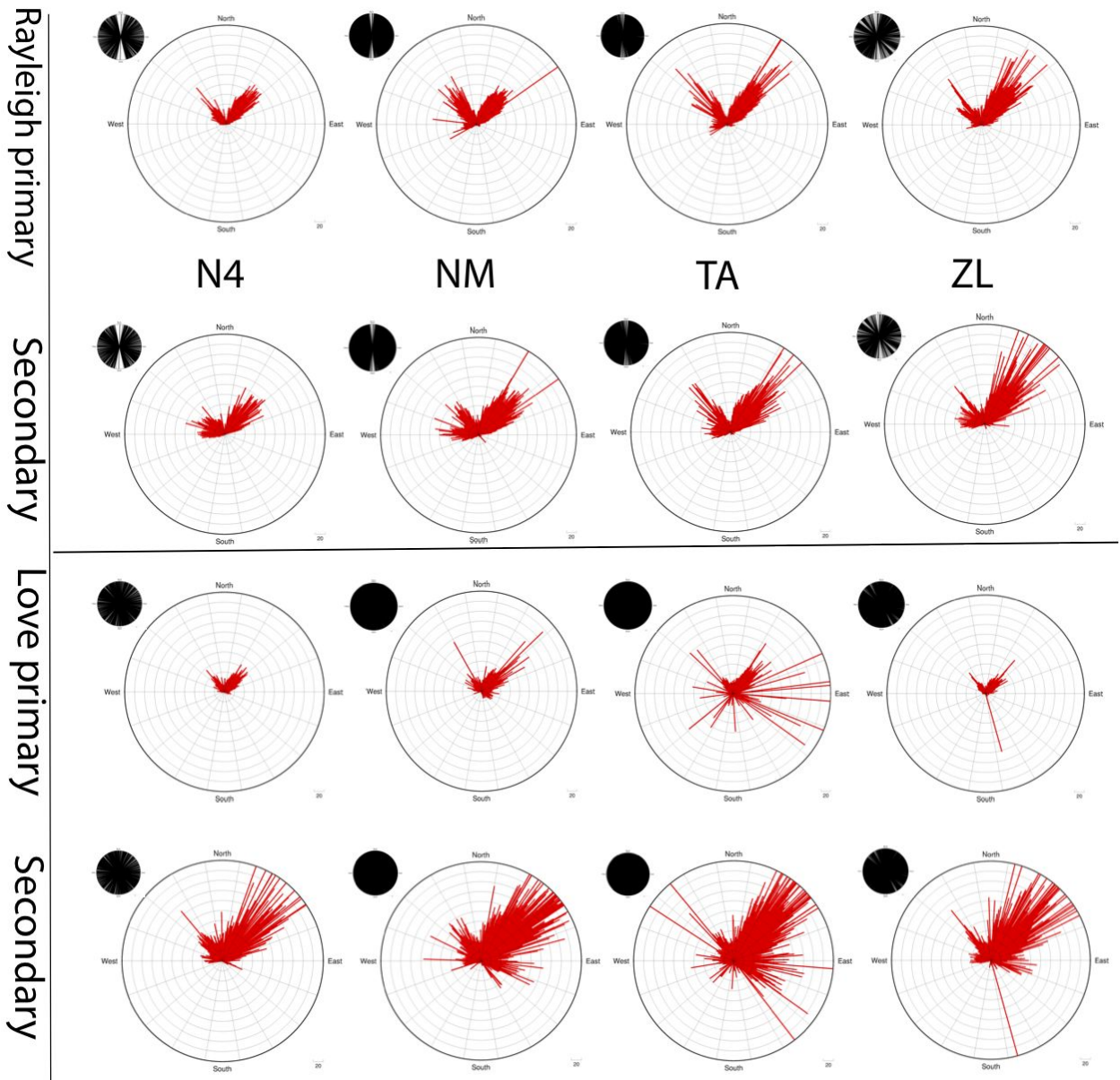
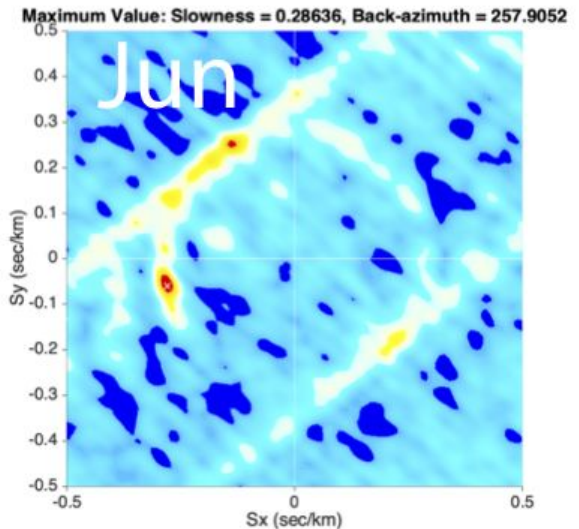
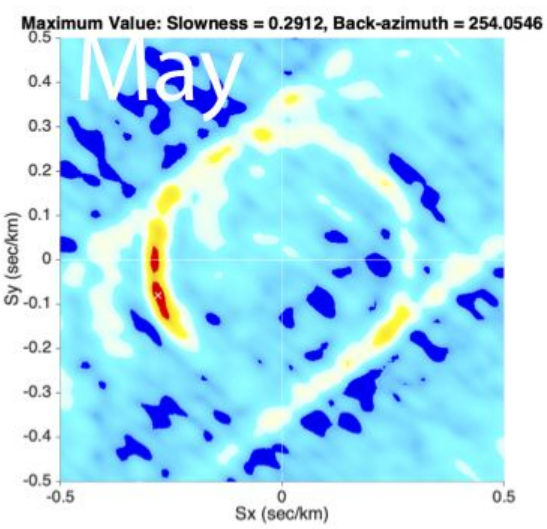
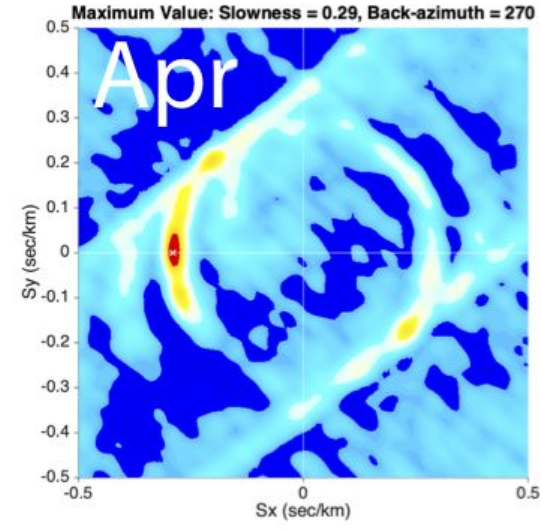
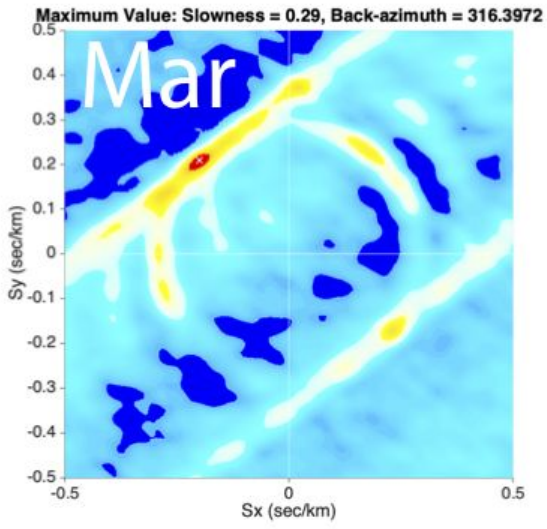
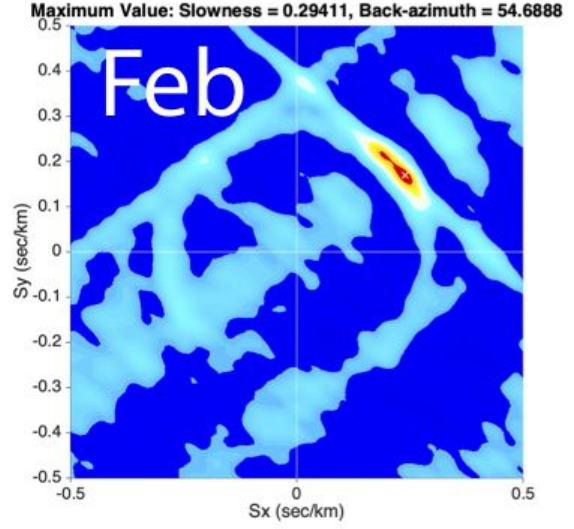
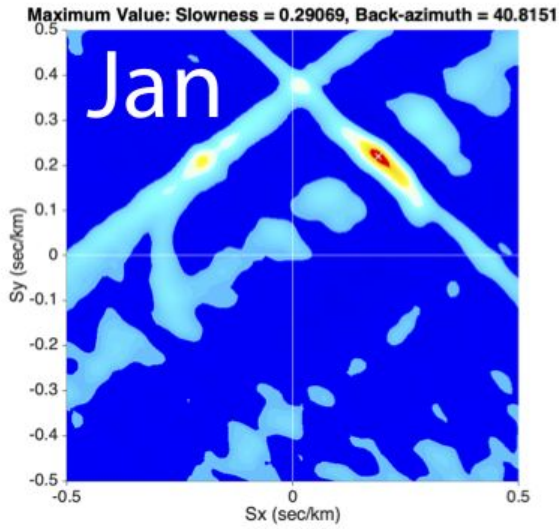


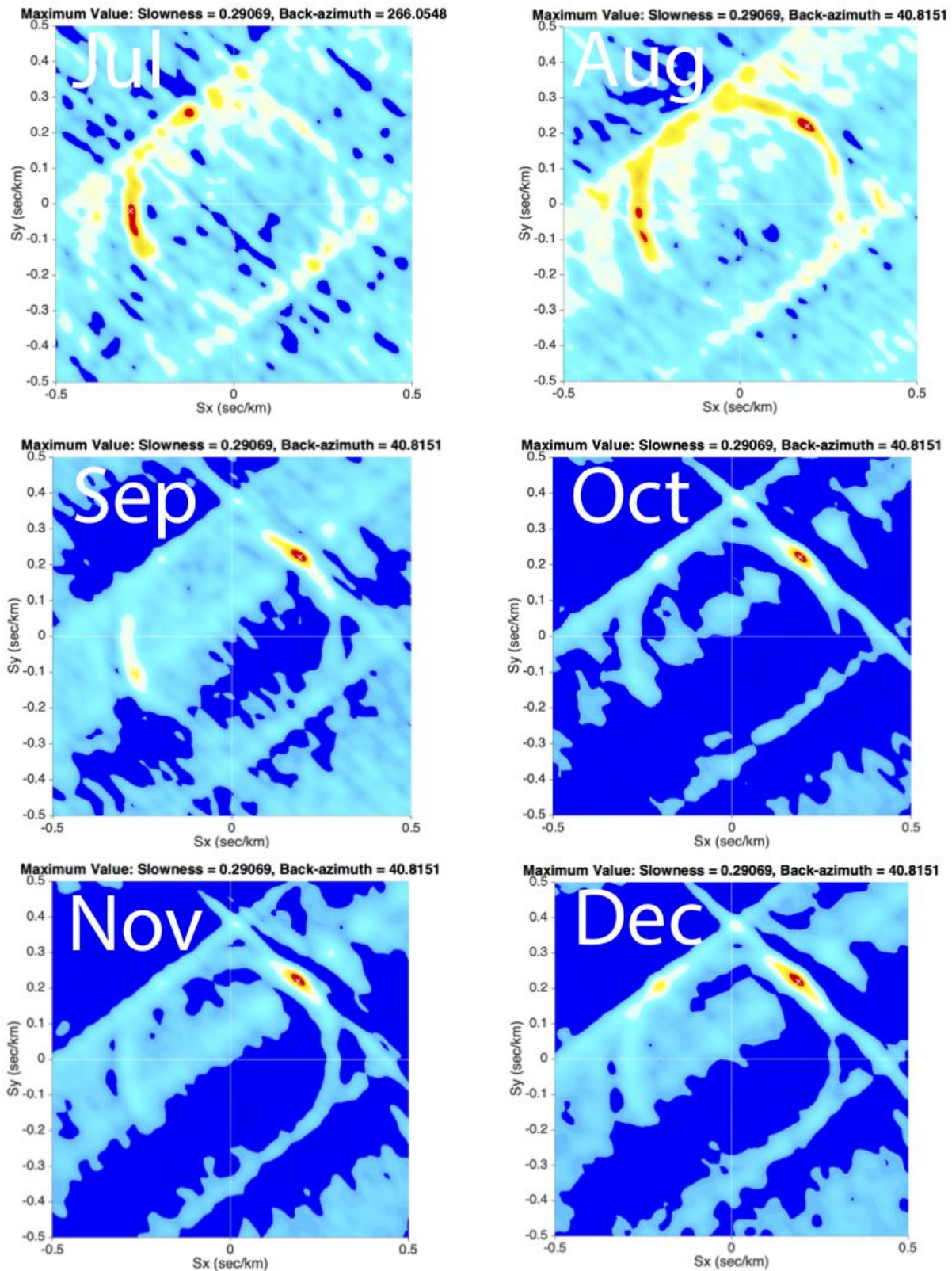
Figure 6. Rose diagrams of amplitude difference for four networks, N4, NM, TA, and ZL. Two major toward-the-source directions, in northeast and northwest quadrants, can be observed.

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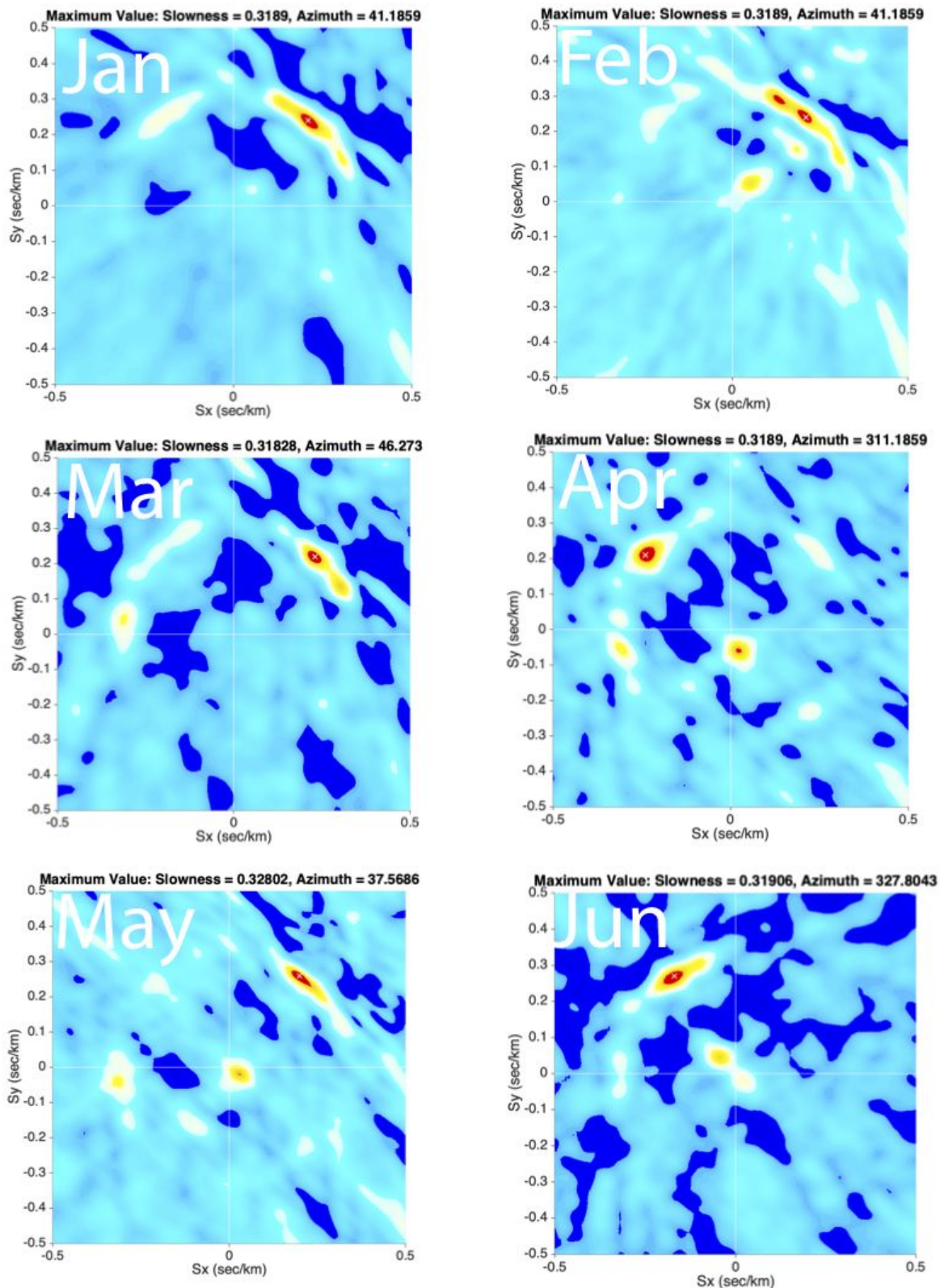


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460 Figure 7. Monthly power spectra for Rayleigh primary microseisms in 2014. Energy
 461 flux with back-azimuths of $\sim 40^\circ$ and $\sim 320^\circ$ emerge during the whole year but the

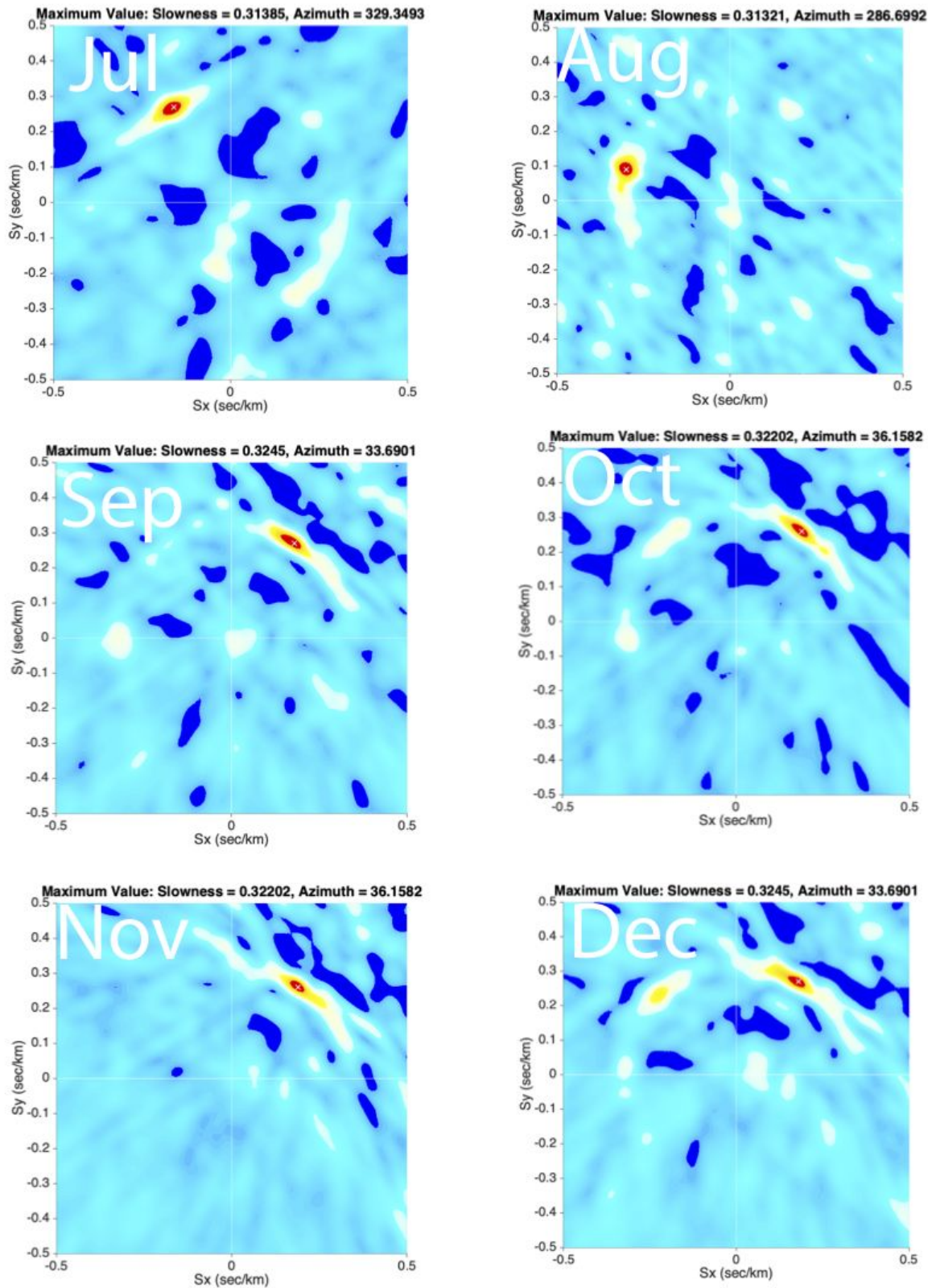
Directionality of ambient noise in the Mississippi embayment

462 energy is stronger in winter than summer. Energy flux with back-azimuths of $\sim 120^\circ$
 463 and $\sim 260^\circ$ become visible from March to September.



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Directionality of ambient noise in the Mississippi embayment



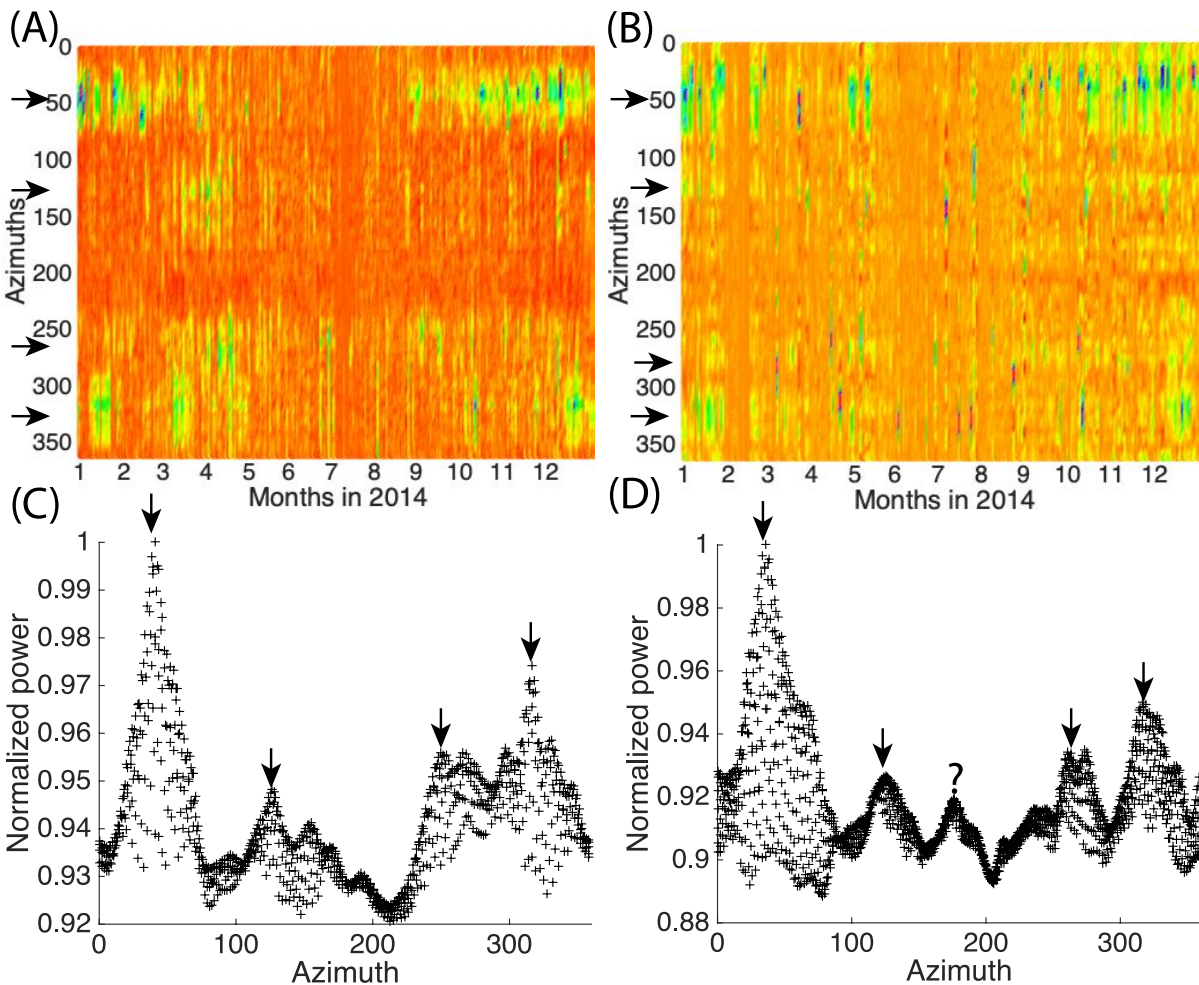
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466 Figure 8. Monthly power spectra for Rayleigh secondary in 2014. Two strong energy fluxes with
 467 the back-azimuths of $\sim 40^\circ$ and $\sim 320^\circ$ emerge in northeast and northwest quadrants for the whole

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468 year. Two additional energy fluxes emerge in the southeast and southwest quadrants from April to
 469 July.

470



471

472 Figure 9. Seasonal variations of power spectra for primary (AC) and secondary (BD) microseisms

473 with azimuth. Power spectra with the slowness between 0.27 and 0.35 s/km are binned based on

474 the azimuths, from 0° to 360° with 2° interval. In each bin, we remove mean and use maximum

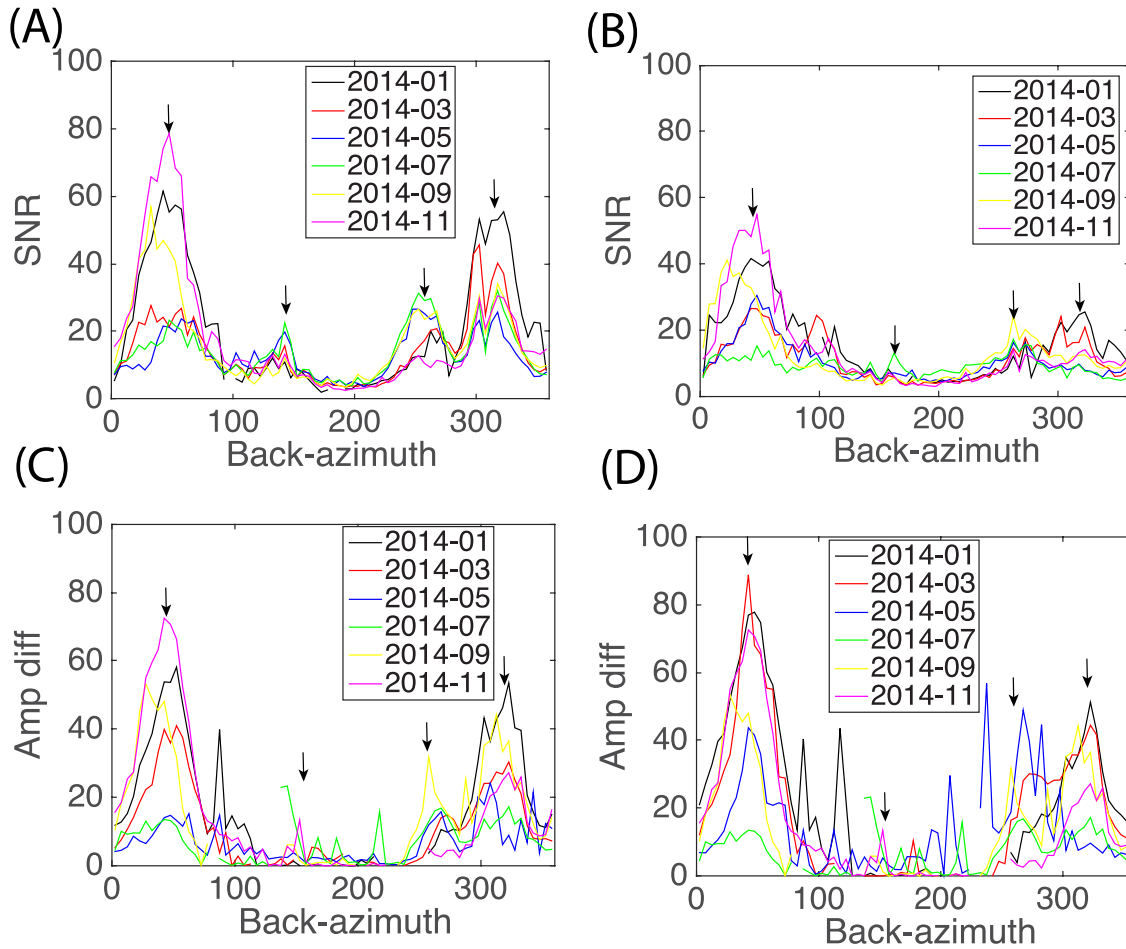
475 to represent the power. Four major azimuths, ~50°, ~125°, ~260°, and ~320°, can be identified.

476 A slight difference, ~255° for Rayleigh primary and ~270° for Rayleigh secondary, might

477 indicate different source locations.

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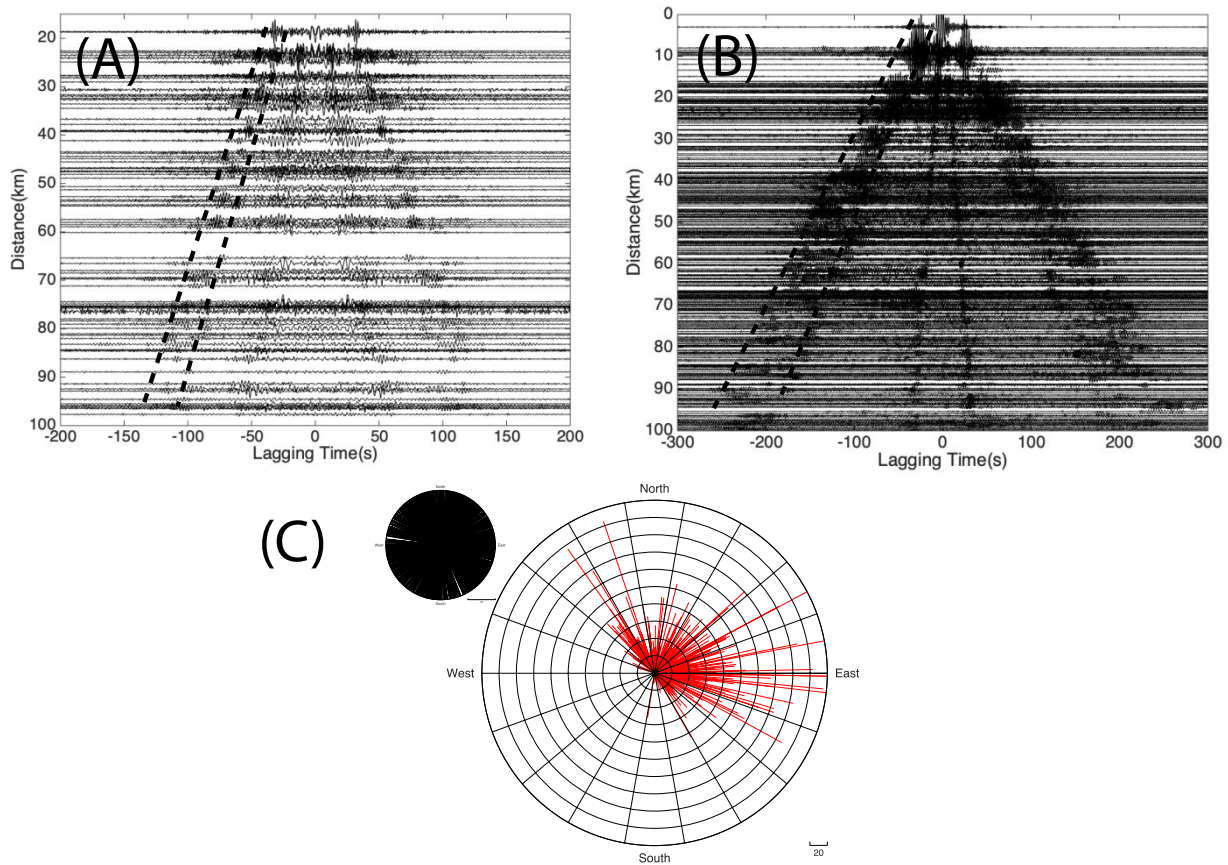


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480 Figure 10. Seasonal variations of monthly average SNRs and amplitude difference for Rayleigh
 481 primary (AC) and secondary (BD) microseisms. Four major azimuths, 40° , 140° , 260° and
 482 320° , are observed in the azimuthal distribution of primary and secondary microseisms. A small
 483 difference, $\sim 255^\circ$ for Rayleigh primary and $\sim 270^\circ$ for Rayleigh secondary, can also be observed.
 484 For noise with back-azimuths of $\sim 140^\circ$ and $\sim 260^\circ$, average SNRs and amplitude difference
 485 from May to September are higher than those from November to March. For noise with back-
 486 azimuths of $\sim 40^\circ$ and $\sim 320^\circ$, average SNRs and amplitude difference from September to March
 487 are higher than those from May to July.

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489
 490 Figure 11. Directionality of sedimentary Love waves. (A) ZZ component cross-correlations
 491 showing arrivals of sedimentary Rayleigh waves (~ 0.75 km/s) within 100 km interstation distance.
 492 Sedimentary surface wave arrivals are marked between two dashed lines. (B) Arrivals of sedimentary
 493 Love waves (~ 0.45 km/s). (C) Azimuthal distribution of amplitude difference of sedimentary Love
 494 waves. No large magnitude SNRs can be observed in the third quadrant of the rose diagram.
 495 Comparing the geometry of edge of the ME and the azimuthal distribution of amplitude difference,
 496 we suggest that the generation of sedimentary Love waves is related to the basin-edge.

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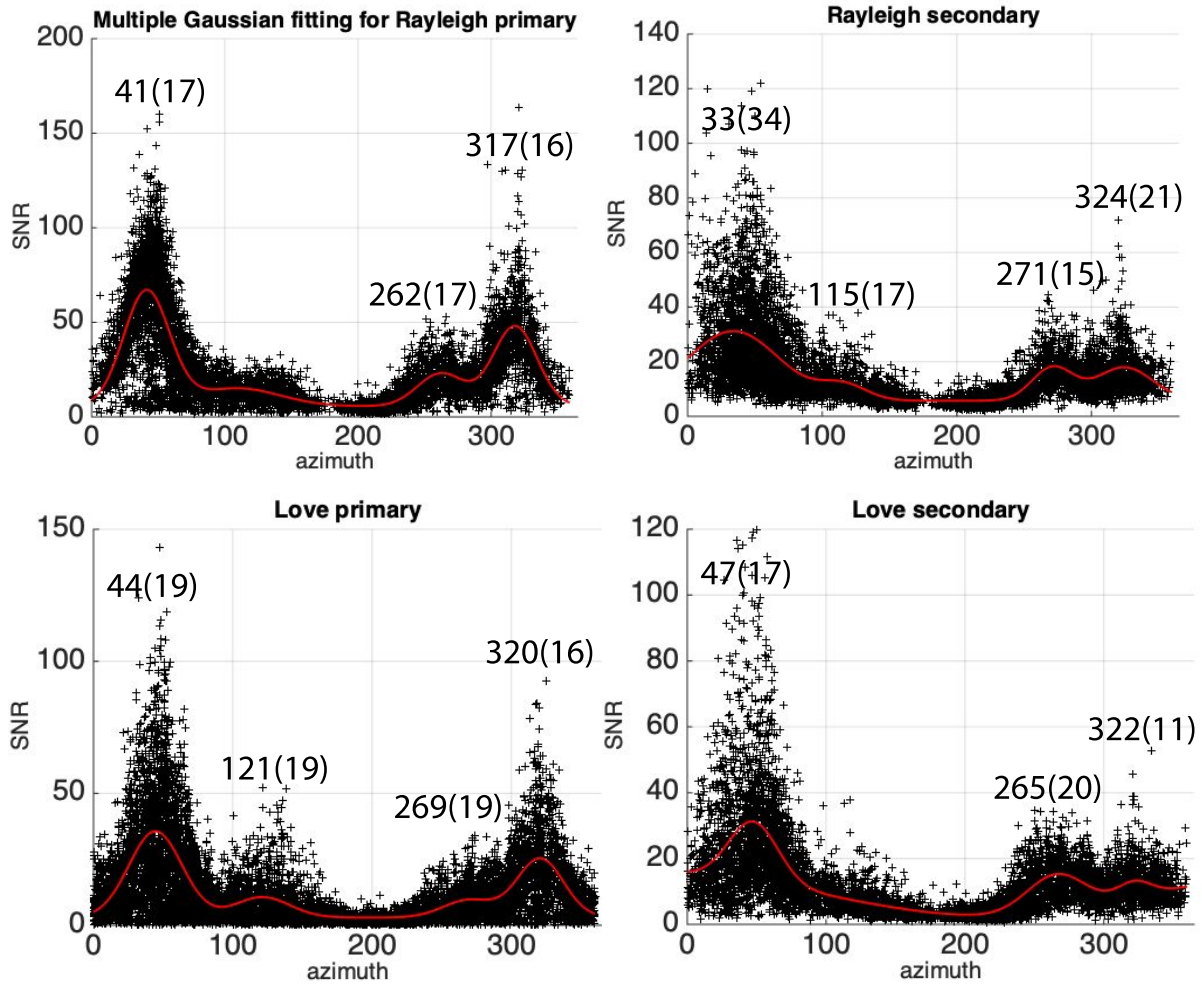
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Table 1: comparison of back-azimuths from different methods

Methods	Back-azimuth1	Back-azimuth2	Back-azimuth3	Back-azimuth4
Gaussian fitting of SNRs (Rayleigh primary)	$41^\circ \pm 17^\circ$	N/A	$262^\circ \pm 17^\circ$	$317^\circ \pm 16^\circ$
Gaussian fitting (Rayleigh secondary)	$33^\circ \pm 34^\circ$	$115^\circ \pm 17^\circ$	$271^\circ \pm 15^\circ$	$324^\circ \pm 21^\circ$
Gaussian fitting (Love primary)	$44^\circ \pm 19^\circ$	$121^\circ \pm 19^\circ$	$269^\circ \pm 19^\circ$	$320^\circ \pm 16^\circ$
Gaussian fitting (Love secondary)	$47^\circ \pm 17^\circ$	N/A	$265^\circ \pm 20^\circ$	$322^\circ \pm 11^\circ$
Seasonal variations (SNR and amplitude difference, Rayleigh primary)	$\sim 40^\circ$	$\sim 140^\circ$	$\sim 260^\circ$	$\sim 320^\circ$
Seasonal variations (Rayleigh secondary)	$\sim 40^\circ$	$\sim 150^\circ$	$\sim 270^\circ$	$\sim 320^\circ$
2D FK power spectra (Primary)	$\sim 45^\circ$	$\sim 125^\circ$	$\sim 255^\circ$	$\sim 320^\circ$
2D FK power spectra (secondary)	$\sim 45^\circ$	$\sim 125^\circ$	$\sim 270^\circ$	$\sim 320^\circ$

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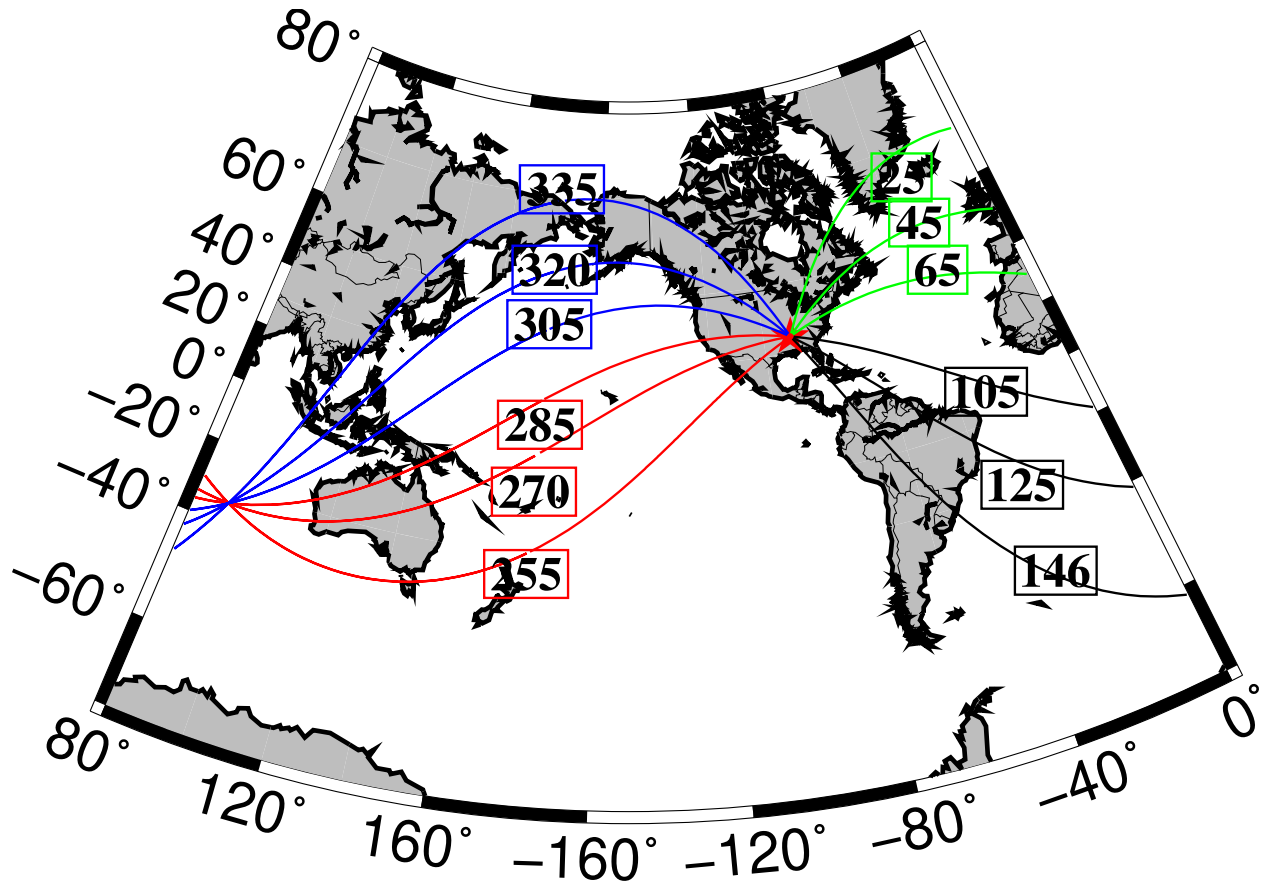


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505 Figure 12. Multiple Gaussian function fitting for azimuthal distribution of SNR measurements.
 506 Values over local peaks of fitting curves are Gaussian means and standard deviations.

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508

509 Figure 13. Source locations from back-projections with different back-azimuths. For energy flux

510 from the back-azimuth of 45° , noise sources can be along the coast of Newfoundland or Greenland

511 for primary microseisms and in the deep water of south of Greenland for secondary microseisms.

512 Noise sources are along the coasts of South America for primary microseisms with the back-

513 azimuth of 125° but in the southern Atlantic Ocean for secondary microseisms. For primary

514 microseisms with the back-azimuth of 255° , noise source can along the coasts of Australia or New

515 Zealand. For secondary microseisms with the back-azimuth of 270° , sources are in the southern

516 Pacific Ocean. Noise sources for primary microseisms with the back-azimuth of 320° can along

517 the coasts of Alaska and Canada. The secondary microseisms can originate along the coasts and

518 related to the coastal reflections or in the deep Pacific Ocean.

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