

Barcelona, Spain  
October 18<sup>th</sup>, 2023

Dear Editor,

We would be very grateful if you could consider our manuscript "**Thermal structure of the southern Caribbean and NW South America: implications for seismogenesis**" for publication in Solid Earth, revised to tackle all the issues raised by the reviewers.

We sincerely appreciate the extra time allotted to us by the Editorial Board for this revision, as it allowed accommodating the work pace to the health issues related to the pregnancy of the first author.

Also, we are very thankful to Dr. Wimpenny and the anonymous Reviewer #2 for their feedback, which helped us to improve the manuscript.

The lithospheric-scale 3D thermal model initially presented remains unchanged in this new manuscript version. Nevertheless, we have better strengthened and explained the basis for its assumptions and improved and clarified its description. We have also better emphasized how it fits all available observations within their uncertainties.

In contrast, to tackle the suggestions raised by Dr. Wimpenny, we have re-compiled the earthquake catalogue, gathering, from a variety of published sources, earthquake locations more accurate than those previously used. This has implied remaking all the calculations, plots and maps dealing with earthquake information. The new results on this regards are similar to the earlier ones, but show clearer patterns, thanks to the enlargement of the earthquake database and its higher precision.

Also, after the precautions noted by Dr. Wimpenny regarding the interpretation of shallow seismicity, we have dismissed our initial calculation of the D10 percentile (a proxy to the upper, shallow, depth limit of seismogenesis). The title, abstract and main text have been modified to accommodate this and all the other comments made by the reviewers.

The manuscript, as before, is accompanied by supplementary electronic materials, updated with new figures. All original data and results have been published in an updated, separate public data repository available online, to enhance the reproducibility of the work. A point-by-point reply to the reviewers is also included.

We hope that you will find the submission in good order. Thank you very much for your consideration and best regards,

Ángela M. Gómez, also on behalf of the co-authors.

## Author's response to review by Dr. Sam Wimpenny

We sincerely thank Dr. Wimpenny for his prompt review and insightful comments. We found them very useful, as they have helped us to improve the manuscript, so his detailed feedback is appreciated.

Please find below a point-by-point reply to the issues raised by him, updated from our previous one, according to the changes made in the manuscript. We hope that this new manuscript version supports in more detail the analysis performed and better frames the contribution that the paper makes to the field.

References not already cited in the new manuscript are listed in a separate section at the end of this document.

### Manuscript overview

**Comment:** ..."The authors also find that there is a strong correlation between areas of elevated geothermal gradient and seismicity, but do not provide a physical interpretation for the correlation."

**Response:** Thank you for pointing this out. We added this physical interpretation in section 4.2, noting that seismicity is almost absent in cold lithospheric areas such as the Guyana craton and the Caribbean Large Igneous Plateau. Such a correlation evidences that, in these places, the crust and lithospheric mantle may be strongly coupled, implying that the differential stress in these regions might not be high enough to deform the crust in a brittle regime.

**Comment:** A criticism I have with this manuscript is that it has mostly overlooked the extensive literature on the relationship between earthquake depths, geology, and temperature within the continents that is directly relevant to the arguments they present [Jackson 2002; Jackson et al., 2004; McKenzie et al., 2005; Jackson et al., 2008; Sloan et al., 2011; Craig et al., 2012]. I recommend the authors more explicitly address how their conclusions advance on the findings made in the aforementioned papers, as this will help contextualise the contribution that this paper makes to the field.

### Response:

We have added an extended text about this issue in the introduction, explicitly citing a broader expanse of the literature, as suggested.

Our findings are not at odds with earlier ones, but are based on a much more detailed thermal modelling than typically achieved. For example, the references cited by the reviewer base their temperature estimates inside the Earth on 1-D or 2-D thermal models, using simplified lithospheric structures, instead of more realistic 3D models as implemented in our work. This is now mentioned in the main text.

Please see also our response to comment #5, as it is related to this issue, too.

### General comments

- 1. Inaccuracies in the ISC earthquake hypocentral depths limit the earthquake depth analyses presented:** The authors use the ISC catalogue's hypocentral depth estimates to map out the depth distribution of seismicity. The ISC locates earthquakes using the reported travel times of body waves, and for events less than ~40 km deep the ISC location procedure can be incorrect by tens of kilometers in depth. These errors are not necessarily reflected in the formal uncertainties in the catalogue, which is a well-known limitation associated with using the ISC earthquake catalogue to study shallow seismicity [Maggi et al., 2000; Chen et al., 2009; Weston et al., 2011] and is something the authors acknowledge. Most studies use waveform modelling of the earthquakes to accurately determine earthquake depths and thereby draw robust conclusions regarding the depth of seismicity in the continents [see examples for South America in: Suarez et al., 1983; Chinn and Isacks 1983; Devlin et al., 2012]. Without accurate earthquake depth estimates, it is unclear to me to what extent variability in the calculated seismogenic thickness, D10 or D90 represent errors in the earthquake depths in the ISC catalogue, or real spatial variability in the depth of earthquake generation. To address this comment, I would recommend that the authors re-analyse the depths of earthquakes in their study area using waveform modelling of teleseismic [e.g. Devlin et al., 2012; Wimpenny 2022] or regional [e.g. Alvarado et al., 2005] seismic data. Alternatively, if the author's believe that the depths of crustal earthquakes in the ISC catalogue are accurate enough for their purposes, then they need to demonstrate this by comparing the ISC event depths with an independent source of earthquake depths (e.g. from local seismic deployment), because in most other settings the ISC event depths are not accurate enough for these purposes.

### Response:

Trying to integrate the reviewer's suggestions as much as possible, for this new manuscript, we have improved the earthquake catalogue (compiling it from a variety of public data sources, trying to gather the best published location for each event). We also remade all the analyses, maps and figures which dealt with earthquake data.

We agree with the reviewer regarding that earthquake locations obtained with full-waveform modelling (or from dense, local, monitoring surveys) may be more reliable than those routinely published by ISC.

Moreover, the previous version of the manuscript used the prime events reported in the ISC Bulletin, which are not the ones with better depth determinations provided by the ISC-EHB dataset.

Mapping variations in D90 or other depth percentiles, or considering the whole depth distribution of regional seismicity, requires as many events as possible for statistical analysis. That is why we have to rely on a regional catalogue, using as many well-located earthquakes as possible above the magnitude of completeness (on the order of thousands).

As mentioned in our initial reply, full-waveform relocation of the whole dataset cannot be presently achieved, as it can be typically done only for a few, selected, recent events of moderate to large magnitude (usually  $M \geq 5$ ) for which public digital, teleseismic waveform data (e.g. from IRIS stations) are available. This is actually already illustrated by the catalogue of Whimpenny & Watson (2021, updated online), which contains just 12 earthquakes in our study area (with magnitudes  $\geq 5.1$ , occurred between 1979 and 2021, including those relocated by Whimpenny, (2022).

The overall patterns in the results with the newly improved catalogue (such as hypocentral temperatures or D90 mapping) are similar as the ones initially found, evidencing that they are robust. Our new results, however, are clearer and more detailed than before, thanks to the catalogue improvements (both in location precision and in the larger number of events included).

The **catalogue improvements** are as follows (further details are provided in section 3.2.1):

Extended period of analysis: The catalogue has been extended over a year; before it covered until March 2020, while now it covers until June 2021 (the last month revised in the ISC Bulletin at the time of writing).

Selection of best-located events from published sources: For each event, the location, with the most reliable depth was selected among a variety of data sources (instead of relying only on the ISC Bulletin). The following order of preference was used (as described in the new manuscript):

1) The gWFM database (Wimpenny and Watson, 2020), based on synthetic body-waveform modeling, and updated to version 1.2, which includes earthquake locations calculated in the region by Wimpenny (2022) and Wimpenny et al. (2018);

2) Locations calculated by full-waveform modelling (with the ISOLA code; Sokos and Zahradnik, 2008) using records obtained at regional or local distances) by the Colombian Geological Survey (Dionicio et al., 2023; Servicio Geológico Colombiano, 2023) and by Quintero et al. (2023);

3) A high-precision hypocentral relocation for the 2008 Quetame mainshock by Dicelis et al. (2016);

4) Locations with free (not fixed) hypocentral depth from the ISC-EHB dataset (Engdahl et al., 2020; Weston et al., 2018), which is compiled and curated by the International Seismological Centre (2023a); and,

5) The prime locations reported in the reviewed ISC Bulletin (International Seismological Centre, 2023b).

Note that the ISC Bulletin (Storchak et al., 2020) and ISC-EHB datasets (Engdahl et al., 2020; Weston et al., 2018) have been recently rebuilt, in order to alleviate the earlier location issues mentioned in the literature cited by the reviewer.

We also explored other data sources, which eventually could not be taken into account. For example, the work by Alvarado *et al.* (2005), suggested in the reviewer's comments, does not cover our study area. Also, we contacted the authors of publications dealing with several relocated earthquake series, but they declined to provide the requested data.

Magnitude selection – An improved scheme for choosing the preferred magnitude for each event was applied, to account for published, improved moment magnitude estimates.

Stricter criteria for discarding poorly located earthquakes – We have chosen to calculate hypocentral temperatures only for earthquakes with reported, formal, hypocentral depth errors  $\leq 15$  km, instead of  $\leq 30$  km as before.

Enlarged dataset: Despite the stricter choice just mentioned, thanks to the catalogue improvements, there are now more selected crustal earthquakes (almost 2000) than before ( $\sim 1400$ ) above the magnitude of completeness.

**2. The method used to compute the seismogenic thickness does not necessarily account for the real depth-distribution of events in each grid area:** The authors say that the D10/D90 statistics are calculated on a 0.1x0.1 degree grid by considering the nearest 20 events to each grid centre as the sample from which D10/D90 are computed. This method appears biased to me. Consider a case where there are 100 events within any particular 0.1x0.1 degree grid area, and the nearest 20 events to the grid centre are all  $<10$  km depth but the remaining 80 are all at 50 km depth. The current method for estimating the D90 would yield a value  $<10$  km for the whole grid area, despite the fact that earthquakes are occurring down to 50 km. Therefore, I suspect the method used to compute the seismogenic thickness could yield misleading results. This might not be an issue if the typical earthquake spacing in lat/lon is larger than  $\sim 0.1 \times 0.1$  degree, but the authors should add new results demonstrating that their interpretations are independent of the gridding scale and sample size used in calculating the D10/D90/seismogenic thickness.

## Response:

As mentioned in our initial reply, the grid cell (pixel) size of 0.1 X 0.1 degrees in the sampling grid used was indeed chosen to avoid the sampling problem mentioned by the reviewer.

Now that the new catalogue contains more earthquakes, there are exactly only two pixels in the D90 map (of a total of ~7500) where that problem arose (the pixels contained more than 20 earthquakes each). D10 is no longer computed (see reply to next comment).

We have slightly modified the spatial sampling of earthquakes in order to avoid this issue. Namely, the resolution radius (distance to the furthest earthquake considered in each sample) was set to a minimum of 5 km (in order to cover at least one grid cell of the model). If there are  $\geq 20$  earthquakes within this distance, all of them are taken into account in the sample for that grid node.

As discussed in our initial reply, using a different sample size is indeed not justified. For sample sizes  $< 20$ , the uncertainty of the 90th percentile (D90) increases significantly. And, given that the results are already stable for 20 events in each sample (as determined by bootstrap, now combined with Monte Carlo as explained below), a sample size  $> 20$  would be arbitrary, and would need to be subjectively chosen by checking the appearance of the resulting maps. This kind of subjective choice has been faced elsewhere when sampling earthquakes spatially at different resolutions (e.g. see Schorlemmer *et al.*, 2004). The procedure used here (using the minimum sample required for the particular statistical analysis, for each grid node, e.g., in González, 2017) avoids such a subjective choice.

- 3. D10 and D90 may not be the relevant metrics for understanding the absolute depth range of earthquake nucleation:** The D10 and D90 parameters have been developed to study temporal variations in the depth of seismicity in regions with dense earthquake catalogues (e.g. California, Japan; see Rolandone *et al.*, [2004]). These metrics do not seem suitable when studying the depth-extent of seismicity in the ISC catalogue. Firstly, the ISC catalogue is relatively sparse, and so choosing D10/D90 may not be robust as it might vary with longer observation intervals. Secondly, the 10% and 90% cut-off are arbitrary values – the more common and logical definition is that the seismogenic thickness is the depth of the deepest observed earthquake in an area [like used in Maggi *et al.*, 2000; Jackson *et al.*, 2004]. Could the authors add some explanation as to why they use D10 and D90 and why it is a relevant metric?

I will also suggest that D10 is unlikely to be a robust metric when calculated from the ISC catalogue, because hypocentral locations derived using travel time data have particularly poor depth resolution within the top 10 km of the crust. Weston *et al.*, [2011] and Wimpenny and Watson, [2021] have demonstrated the poor resolution of

ISC-EHB event depths in the upper crust by comparing ISC hypocentral depth estimates with both finite-fault slip solutions derived from modelling InSAR data and more accurate earthquake centroid depths from waveform modelling. Both studies found that there can be differences on the order of 5-10 km, and that the ISC systematically overestimates the depth-range of slip in shallow earthquakes.

## **Response:**

### Non-reliable values of D10

After the reviewer's comments, as proposed in our initial reply, we have disregarded the calculation of D10. We indeed agree that the depth uncertainties (at least the formal ones, which can be systematically quantified) are larger for shallower earthquakes than for deeper ones, as shown in the new supplementary Figure S5.

### Justification of the use of D90 instead of other percentiles

Following our initial reply, we have added to the text a discussion on the statistical basis of focusing on D90 instead of using higher percentiles (which may be less statistically robust, and less stable eventually, as new earthquakes keep being recorded). Particularly, using the deepest observed earthquake, D100 (especially with a small sample), would be unstable, because, eventually, even deeper earthquakes could be recorded.

As initially mentioned in our previous reply, D90 was initially devised for characterizing spatial, rather than temporal, changes in the hypocentral depth distribution (Sibson, 1982, Marone & Scholz, 1988). It is a robust metric, because it can be calculated even with small samples, and it is the most commonly used proxy to map spatial variations of crustal seismogenic depths and to compare with thermal parameters (e.g. Tanaka, 2004; Omuralieva et al., 2012).

Moreover, in Probabilistic Seismic Hazard Analysis (PSHA), the use of D90 is extended as a reasonable measure of the depth of seismicity, or the maximum depth of seismic sources (e.g. U.S. Nuclear Regulatory Commission, 2012, their chapter 5; Bommer *et al.*, 2023).

### Addition of D95 as supplementary information

Apart from D90, we have now calculated D95, as mentioned in the main text and shown in the supplementary material. Both D90 and D95 are also provided in the public dataset published separately (Gómez-García et al., 2023).

The overall spatial trends of D90 are very similar to those of D95. Albeit, by definition, D95 is deeper than D90, the difference between both is only typically between 1.0 to 1.5 standard deviations to each other (considering their respective uncertainties).

Despite D90 and D95 have similar formal uncertainties (Fig. S9), D90 is preferred in our case because it would be temporally more stable than D95. Future earthquakes will have some chance of being deeper than those already recorded. Given the sample size used, this would affect D95 to a much larger extent than D90, as explained in the main text (section 3.2.2).

#### Mapping D90 with a sparse catalogue

As noted in our initial reply, when mapping the D90 (or D95) values, we have explicitly represented the mapping resolution (Figs. 8 and S8, respectively), and considered it in the interpretation, so that we do not over-interpret the results.

- 4. The temperature field within the mountains is most likely not in steady state:** The authors have assumed that the temperature field throughout NW South America can be modelled as being in steady-state. The time taken for a system to approach thermal steady state is given by the thermal time-constant  $\tau = l^2/\pi^2\kappa$  where  $l$  is the thickness of the lithosphere and  $\kappa$  is the thermal diffusivity of the lithosphere (~10–100 Ma for normal lithosphere). Given that mountain building will advect heat and move the lithosphere out of thermal steady-state [England and Thompson, 1984], and that mountain building in the NW Andes has taken place more recently than 10-100 Ma, then I would assume that the temperature field within the NW Andes cannot be modelled as being in thermal steady state. I agree that the steady-state assumption is more reasonable within the forelands.

The heat flow and downhole temperature data the author's use to validate the models come from the top 4 km of the crust, and are mostly located offshore and not within the continental lithosphere, therefore are not a good test of whether the model is representative of the temperature field at depth in Region 1, 2 or 3. To address this comment, the authors need to justify why they think the steady-state assumption is valid for the mid/lower crust.

#### **Response:**

##### Steady-state assumption:

Sensitivity studies (Meeßen, 2019) have shown that the transient effects causing the temperature changes in the upper 50 km of a subducting system are not far from equilibrium. Likewise, Rodriguez Piceda et al. (2022) have explored the effects of the non-steady state and came to the same conclusion.

Although it is true that mountain building processes imply that the system might not be fully in equilibrium, it is generally accepted that the first-order thermal field within the lithosphere is driven by conduction (e.g.: Liu et al., 2021). See response to comment Line 77 for more details.



We have improved the introduction with details about why we consider the steady-state assumption valid for our application in the study area.

#### Observational constraints:

We already acknowledged in the manuscript that there are limited heat flow and temperature measurements in the study area. Precisely for this reason, we made the effort to provide the best thermal model considering a fully 3D thermal approach, by integrating all the available data.

Indeed, the sensitivity test we performed with 25 different models (see Text S2 in the supplements) shows that the fit to the few temperature measurements available is already highly sensitive to the thermal parameters we explored. Figure S1 depicts the residual temperature for the different models we tested. The residuals of the first 19 models are particularly large, which implies that there is a limited range of the parameter values which can properly fit the observations.

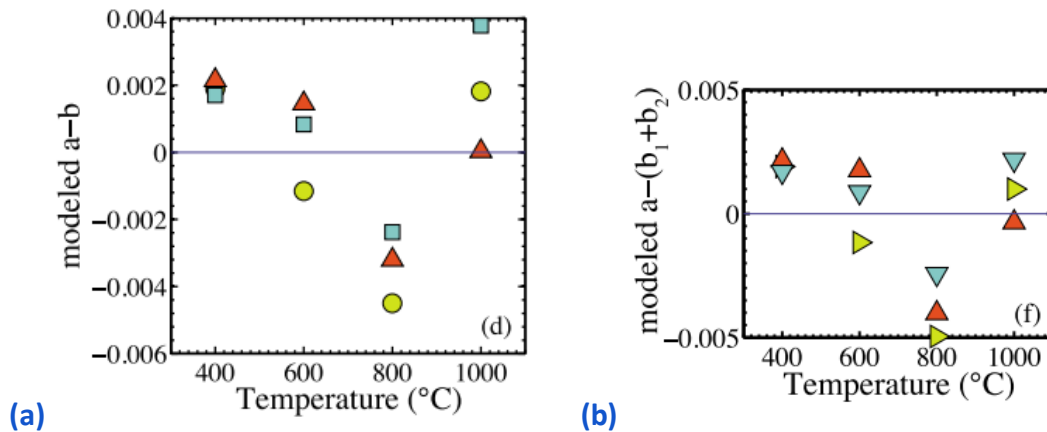
In any case, even in an area with abundant high-quality temperature and heat flow observations (e.g. Southern California), those will be always restricted to the uppermost kilometers of the crust. See response to comment Section 4.1 for more details.

- 5. Lab and nature suggest olivine remains seismogenic up to ~600 degrees – not 600-1000 degrees:** There are two strong lines of evidence that suggest olivine-rich rocks can only remain able to nucleate earthquakes up to temperatures of ~600 degrees Celsius. The first comes from the depths of well-constrained earthquakes within the oceanic lithosphere, where the temperature structure is well known. Here the maximum centroid depths of large earthquakes can be seen to deepen with the age of the lithosphere and remain consistently shallower than the 600 degree isotherm [McKenzie et al., 2005; Craig et al., 2014]. Secondly, laboratory experiments show that olivine aggregates switch from deforming through stick-slip, to deforming through stable creep, at temperatures equivalent to ~600 degrees at the strain rates expected within the oceanic lithosphere [Boettcher et al., 2007]. The authors cite Scholz [2019] (a textbook) regarding the seismogenic range of temperatures for olivine being 600-1000 degrees, but do not describe the evidence for this. I would suggest that the author's cite the original papers that came to this conclusion, as I have not been able to check where their logic has come from.

#### **Response:**

The limiting temperature for seismogenesis in mantle forming materials has been a matter of debate. Some authors define a rather strict limit at 600°C (e.g.: McKenzie et al., 2005; Craig et al., 2014), but new evidence suggests that this limit might occur at higher temperatures. For example King and Marone (2012) explored the deformation of olivine fault gouges in the temperature range of 400–1000°C. Their results suggest

that the velocity weakening (negative  $a-b$ ) occurs at temperatures between 600 and 1000°C, depending on the strain rates applied to the sample (Figure 1).



**Figure 1.** Stability parameter,  $a - b$ , for different velocity steps: green 1-10 $\mu\text{m/s}$ , orange 10-50 $\mu\text{m/s}$  and blue 50-1 $\mu\text{m/s}$ . (a) Rate-state model. (b) Two state variable approach. Figures taken from Figures 6 and 8 in King and Marone (2012).

Similarly, Ueda et al., (2020) studied the brittle-ductile transition in peridotites based on a fault system developed in the Balmuccia peridotite body. Their results indicate that the ductile-to-brittle transition in the peridotite occurs at  $\sim 720$  °C. Lastly, Grose and Afonso (2013) studied the evolution of the oceanic lithospheric using more realistic thermal models than McKenzie et al. (2005), yielding a brittle-ductile transition closer to the 700-800°C isotherms depending on the mantle potential temperature (see Figure 10 in Grose and Afonso, 2013). This implies a higher temperature than a purely thermal, simplified approach, as their workflow considers not only hydrothermal circulation, but also P-T-dependent thermal properties.

We have integrated these new references to complement the framework of our analysis, both in the introduction and in the discussion of the results.

Regarding the citation of Scholz (2019), we modified the text adding the original references compiled by the textbook, and adding some additional works pointing to a higher temperature for seismogenesis of mantle forming materials, as described above.

The original references cited by Scholz (2019) are:

Blanpied, M. L., Lockner, D. A., and Byerlee, J. D. 1992. An earthquake mechanism based on rapid sealing of faults. *Nature* 358: 574–6.

Boettcher, M. S., Hirth, G., & Evans, B. 2007. Olivine friction at the base of oceanic seismogenic zones. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Solid Earth*, 112(1), 1–13. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2006JB004301>

He, C. R., Wang, Z. L., and Yao, W. M. 2007. Frictional sliding of gabbro gouge under hydrothermal conditions. *Tectonophysics* 445(3–4): 353–362, doi: 10.1016/j.tecto.2007.09.008

King, D. S. H., & Marone, C. 2012. Frictional properties of olivine at high temperature with applications to the strength and dynamics of the oceanic lithosphere. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Solid Earth*, 117(12), 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2012JB009511>

Mitchell, E. K., Fialko, Y., and Brown, K. M. 2015. Frictional properties of gabbro at conditions corresponding to slow slip events in subduction zones. *Geochem. Geophys. Geosystems* 16 (11): 4006–4020, doi: 10.1002/2015gc006093.

### Line-by-Line Comments

**Line 11:** “Crustal seismogenic thickness” is a misleading term in my view, because the seismogenic layer can include parts of the crust and upper mantle. I would suggest that just the depth extent of earthquakes in the lithosphere is the more logical description of the seismogenic thickness, and the depth most likely to correlate with a “stability transition” from seismogenic to aseismic deformation processes.

#### Response:

In the new manuscript, following the reviewer’s comments, we have dismissed the D10 calculations, and so the seismogenic thickness (difference D90-D10) is no longer discussed.

Throughout the manuscript we now refer to the “crustal seismogenic depths” to refer to the depths up to which most crustal earthquakes occur. Since we are focused on the depth distribution of crustal seismicity, this implies disregarding sub-crustal seismicity in the statistical analysis (as done by others before, e.g.: Wu *et al.*, 2017 in Taiwan, or Tsuda *et al.* 2019 in Japan).

**Line 18:** “Potential temperature” means specifically the temperature at which a rock would be if moved from a particular depth along an adiabat, which I think is different from what the authors mean here. I think they mean just the possible absolute temperature, and would recommend removing the word “potential”.

**Response:** Thanks for pointing this out. We modified the text accordingly.

**Line 32:** Why is the crustal seismogenic thickness not just the layer where all earthquakes occur? I’m not sure why it would be defined as where ‘most’, but not all, earthquakes occur.

**Response:** Please see response to comment regarding Line 11.

**Line 39:** Is 90% of events based on a measure of statistical significance, or is it just defined as an arbitrary value?

**Response:** Please see response to comment #3.

**Line 46-48:** I would argue that it is generally accepted that earthquakes mostly nucleate within the crust at temperature <350 degrees Celsius, but can nucleate in lower crustal rocks at temperatures up to 600 degrees Celsius within certain areas where the lower crust might be dry [see Jackson et al., 2008; Craig et al., 2011; Sloan et al., 2011; Craig et al., 2012]. Examples of lower-crustal seismicity are now extensive, and there are plenty within South America [Assumpcao et al., 1992; Devlin et al., 2012; Wimpenny 2022].

**Response:** Please see response to comment #5.

**Line 73:** Typo “as the extent of the CST” not “extend”.

**Response:** Fixed, thanks.

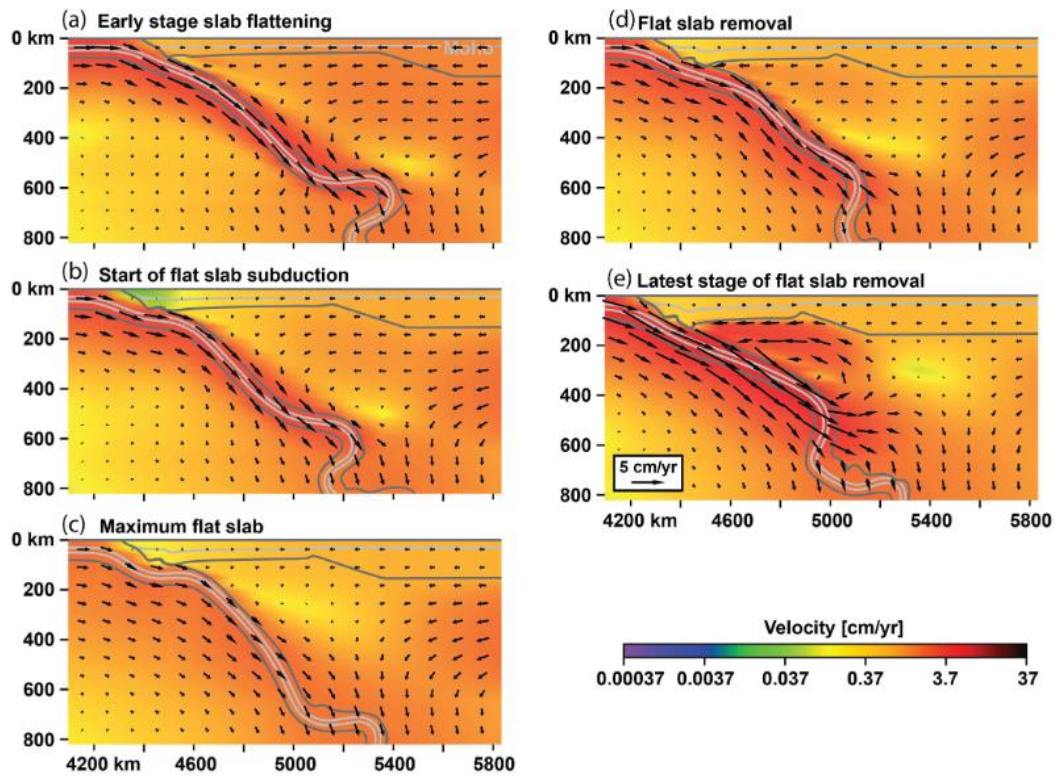
**Line 77:** It is not clear to me why flat slab subduction means that you can assume thermal steady state. If anything, I would assume that flat slab subduction would suggest that you need to account for the heat advection in the modelling of the temperature field, because the slab has not always been flat and therefore the temperature boundary condition on the base of the lithosphere has changed through time. Please could the authors elaborate on why a flat slab configuration allows them to make an assumption of thermal steady state?

**Response:**

The present-day flat slab geometry has been established since about 6 Ma, when the Nazca tear developed separating the north (flat) and south (step) segments (Wagner et al., 2017). As a result, the volcanic activity has ceased in the continental crust of the overriding plate of the north segment, which spatially corresponds to our study area. This allows us to consider that the propagation of heat within the crust is mainly driven by conduction (e.g.: Liu et al., 2021).

Geodynamic models (e.g.: Schellart and Strak, 2021; Currie and Copeland, 2022) suggest that the subducting velocities are potentially reduced during the evolution from step to flat slab (see Fig 16 in Schellart and Strak, 2021 as an example -Figure 3 below). Considering that we are targeting the thermal field of the uppermost 75 km of the lithosphere, and that our applications are limited to crustal realms, we believe that a steady-state assumption can be applied in the study area to have a first-order estimate on the 3D feedback of the system heterogeneities and their imprint in the resulting thermal field. Moreover, given that the timeframe of the earthquakes we are studying is instantaneous in the geological timescales, our goal is to take a “snapshot”

of the present-day thermal configuration considering the 3D system heterogeneities at crustal scales.



**Figure 3.** Resulting velocity field during the evolution of slab flattening (Schellart and Strak, 2021).

We summarized these arguments in the introduction of the new version of the manuscript.

**Line 92:** What is meant by “large uncertainties” in the Moho? Could the authors give quantitative estimates of the typical Moho uncertainty?

**Response:**

The Moho uncertainty map is provided in the supplementary Figure S4, as computed by the authors of the GEMMA model (Reguzzoni & Sampietro, 2015) used in this research.

**Figure 1:** There are a number of references to different geographic places (e.g. Panama-Chaco Block) in the text that are not defined on Figure 1. Please could the authors add these place names to the figure to help the reader.

**Response:** Thank you. We have carefully checked this issue and improved the figures accordingly.

**Line 242-245:** The authors “disregard earthquakes below the Moho...”, and use only events above the Moho to compute “... the upper and lower stability transitions”. By ignoring earthquakes below the Moho, then the maximum depth of earthquakes the authors calculate is limited by the crustal thickness, and doesn’t necessarily correspond to any “stability transition” or mechanical condition in the lithosphere. I would recommend changing the phrasing the authors are using to describe what they are actually measuring, which is more like the fraction of the crust that is seismogenic.

**Response:** Please see response to comment regarding Line 11.

**Line 263:** Why is removing events that are below the magnitude of completeness ( $M_c$ ) relevant for this analysis, because the authors are not necessarily studying earthquake frequency or moment release through time? Small events below  $M_c$  could still be useful in defining the depth distribution of seismicity.

**Response:**

Small events below  $M_c$  are not useful for defining the depth distribution of seismicity, because their depths are biased. The deeper an earthquake is, the less likely it is to detect, that is,  $M_c$  increases with depth (e.g. Fig. 5 of Schorlemmer *et al.*, 2010). If we used an incomplete sample, considering earthquakes below  $M_c$ , small deep earthquakes would be preferentially missing and the overall apparent depth distribution would be biased towards shallower values. We have now mentioned these issues explicitly in section 3.2.1.

**Line 274-276:** The bootstrapping method of estimating the uncertainties in D10/D90 yield what I would consider unrealistically small values of  $<1$  km. This is presumably because the ‘formal’ uncertainties in earthquake depths included in the ISC catalogue that are propagated through the bootstrapping are not realistic representations of the true depth errors. For example, comparing earthquake hypocentral depths in the ISC-EHB catalogue with more accurate centroid depths calculated from body-waveform modelling yields a mean difference on the order of  $\sim 5 \pm 10$  km with errors of up to 50 km [Wimpenny and Watson, 2021]. Therefore, I expect a more realistic uncertainty is at least 5-10 km.

In addition, the inference that “low uncertainties [estimating from bootstrapping] indicate that using 20 earthquakes for each node is [sic] already reliable...” is not necessarily true in my view. If you used a sample size of 1 earthquake, then you would get low uncertainties, but the uncertainty estimate is not necessarily robust in that changing the sample used would give a different answer.

The way to check whether 20 events is a reasonable sample size for giving robust results would be to make sure that increasing the sample size does not alter the



conclusions (even if the spatial resolution has to decrease as a product of the greater sample size).

**Response:**

We have further extended the uncertainty analysis to better take these issues into account, and checked the robustness of the results. We had to focus on formal depth errors, because non-formal ones (such as systematic errors due to the velocity model used in the location), cannot be directly quantified unless the entire catalogue were relocated.

Improvement of the propagation of errors in the analysis

The former bootstrap method for estimating the D90 uncertainties considered only the effect of the limited sample of earthquakes used. It seems that the reviewer assumed that the hypocentral depth errors were also considered, but they were not.

As now described in Section 3.2.2, we have extended the method into a more computationally intensive one. It combines bootstrapping (to consider the effects of the finite earthquake sample, as before) and a Monte Carlo approach (randomizing each earthquake depth according to its reported uncertainty, in order to propagate this error into the final result).

Resulting uncertainties

The resulting uncertainties of D90 and D95 (Figure S9) are larger than before (typically between 1-2 km, instead of <1 km), but still rather small, on the same order (or even smaller) than the uncertainties of the Moho depth in the region (Figure S4).

This implies that the results on D90 are indeed robust. Using a larger sample size is not justified, and it would require smoothing out spatial variations (since earthquakes farther from each grid node would have to be considered in the corresponding sample). Using a too small sample size (<10 events) is not meaningful for calculating a 90% percentile. In general, using too small sample sizes would be penalized by bootstrap (yielding high uncertainties of D90), since it is sensitive to the robustness (or lack thereof) of the results due to the finite sample size.

Note that, since a sample of at least 20 earthquakes is used for calculating each statistic (D90 or D95), the resulting uncertainty tends to be smaller than the hypocentral depth error of a single earthquake. This is similar to the classical statistical observation that the mean of a sample of measurements tends to have an error smaller than that of each measurement alone.

**Line 292:** I recommend quoting the misfit as 5 degrees, not 4.99 degrees, as the latter makes it sound like the model and data have precision to two decimal places, which is unlikely.

**Response:** We agree, thanks. We have modified both the text and the figure accordingly.

**Section 4.1:** A more general comment is that the thermal model validation relies on comparing measurements of the temperature in the very shallowest part of the crust in areas that are mostly offshore and do not overlap with Regions 1, 2, or 3. Could the authors add some text explaining why they think that validating the model using measurements from outside of the region of interest means that it will be valid in the regions of interest, which may itself have a different geological history and therefore different temperature structure (e.g. the effects of mountain building on the geotherms).

**Response:**

See response to comment #4. The sensitivity test (Text S2 and Fig. S1) shows that, even if the temperature observations are not homogeneously distributed across the region, they are able to constrain the thermal model parameters (because choosing other values for the thermal parameters results in a worse fit).

Thinking about the study area as a 3D fully coupled system, we believe that being able to reproduce the observations is a good sign of the model's first-order robustness for the applications we currently consider in our manuscript. A main reason for our chain of arguments is that, we not only model temperatures, but consider the structural complexity and the heterogeneous distribution of thermal properties, together with the physics of conductive heat transport to predict the 3D thermal field. This field is, in turn, consistent with the few observed temperatures. The 3D heterogeneity in physical properties is constrained by other methods, such as seismic data or 3D gravity modelling, as certain seismic velocity- density pairs can be interpreted as lithologies, from where we can conclude on the lithology-dependent thermal properties. In fact, as expected, we do get different temperature structures all over the study area, as the model integrates the complexity of the region.

We should note that the procedure followed, of building a 3D model integrating all available information, is a major improvement with respect to earlier approaches. Moreover, if eventually more data of heat flow or thermal measurements become available, they could be integrated in future models following this philosophy.

**Line 317:** Why is the "regional seismogenic zone" defined as 20 km? This seems arbitrary to me, and different from the seismogenic thickness quoted elsewhere.



**Response:**

The histogram of the hypocentral depths of the selected earthquake catalogue (Figure 7 c) shows that the majority of crustal earthquakes in the study area nucleate at less than 20 km depth (the computed D90 of all crustal earthquakes is 20.5 km). Therefore, we selected the temperature difference between the surface and 20 km as a proxy for estimating the geothermal gradient in the seismogenic zone at regional scale.

**Line 326-329:** I would recommend re-wording this sentence, as on first reading I thought the authors were suggesting that areas with high geothermal gradients were areas with a strongly coupled crust and lithospheric mantle, though they actually mean it is the other way around. Maybe just split it up into a few shorter sentences for clarity.

**Response:** Thank you, we have now improved this paragraph according to the suggestion. It reads:

“Moreover, the geothermal gradients can also be used as an indirect indicator of crustal rheology. In Fig. 5a, it is possible to observe the correlation between the spatial distribution of seismicity and the geothermal gradients in this region. The crustal earthquakes occur at locations with a mean geothermal gradient of  $19.4 \pm 1.23$  °C/km<sup>-1</sup>, preferentially clustering in specific zones, e.g. in the North Andes block and the Panama microplate. Seismicity is almost absent in cold lithospheric areas such as the Guyana craton and the Caribbean Large Igneous Plateau. Such correlation indirectly suggests that in these places, the crust and lithospheric mantle may be strongly coupled, and therefore, the differential stress is not high enough to deform the crust in a brittle regime. This again, is an indication that a 1D geotherm approximation will not be robust enough to model the thermal configuration of the heterogeneous study area.”

**Line 348-354:** This is an interesting test, and it is physically intuitive that areas of higher geothermal gradient will have more seismicity because the lithosphere is hotter, therefore weaker and deforms more rapidly in those areas. However, I would be interested to know whether the thermal modelling adds any more useful information on where earthquakes are expected to occur relative to direct surface observables such as topography or fault traces.

**Response:**

We did not explore the skillfulness of other geodynamic variables in our study area because testing this systematically would require a whole new paper (as done, e.g. by Becker et al., 2015). It would require dedicated modelling efforts, to check if, for example, strain rates and rates of topography change are skillful geodynamic variables at forecasting the spatial distribution of seismicity, as in the region analyzed by Becker

et al. (2015). It is important to note that it is not only the thermal gradient per se, but the contrast between domains of differing gradients that matters. We have now commented these issues in section 4.2.

**Line 407:** Please cite the original source for the constraint on the seismogenic temperatures for olivine gouge as 600-1000 degrees.

**Response:**

We have added all the original references regarding the cited seismogenic windows of different rocks and minerals.

**Line 415:** Why does shallow earthquake hypocentres mean faults are 'not well developed', and what is meant by 'not well developed'? Do you mean 'immature' in that they haven't accommodated a significant amount of relative motion? Is there any evidence from natural fault zones that the hypocentral distribution of earthquakes differs with the 'development' of the fault, or are these inferences based off of laboratory experiments?

**Response:**

As mentioned in the initial reply, considering the uncertainties discussed above for shallow hypocentres, we have removed this argument. This interpretation was explained by Scholz (2019, p. 149 and references therein), based on the seismogenic depths observed in different faults worldwide.

**Line 417-419:** This sentence captures much of my concern regarding the results of this study. The authors state: "However, despite relying only on the best located earthquakes (see Sect. 3.2.1), large errors in the hypocentral depths still remain (up to 30 km, see Fig. S5), and should be considered in the analysis of our results." I agree, but it's not clear to me how the authors have considered this in their own analysis of their results. In my view, the best way to mitigate this issue is to use more accurate methods for determining earthquake depths, which are more time consuming but will yield more robust results.

**Response:**

As noted above, a complete relocation of the catalogue is beyond reach, but, to deal with these issues, we have improved the earthquake catalogue, and performed a more exhaustive quantification of uncertainties of the D90 (and D95) percentiles.

We have also discussed in more detail (in sections 4.3 and 4.4) the limitations resulting from the uncertainties in focal depths or depth percentiles, being careful of not over-interpreting the results.

In any case, we would like to remark that the results agree well, e.g. with laboratory experiments of rock friction and with other recent publications, so we are not making “extraordinary” claims which would require additional robustness checks.

**Line 443:** What do the authors mean by “D90 depths of almost 35 km ... are in agreement with the crustal-scale structure that these systems likely represent”? Faults can be ‘crustal scale’ but be aseismic still presumably (e.g. segments of the San Andreas Fault).

**Response:**

D90 at the fault location is almost 35 km, so its seismicity is distributed along the crust down to such depths, and the fault seems to be a crustal-scale feature. If D90 were, instead, e.g. 5 km, we could not argue that the fault is of crustal scale, as it might be shallow only.

We find this remark important because there are no seismic profiles or detailed tomographic models which could provide alternative evidence of the fault extent at depth.

**Line 445:** “The D90 values ... are clearly bounded by major faults” – I find it hard to see these patterns reflected in Figure 8, mainly because there are a lot of faults that do not seem to bound changes in the colour patterns. Maybe highlight the specific faults thought to bound the changes in D90 in the Figure?

**Response:** We improved Figure 8, adding the general NW Andes terranes (blue polygons in Fig. 8b). We also include clearer statements on the faults that bound certain regions, and refer the readers to Figures 1 and 3, where the names of the main faults mentioned in the text are displayed.

**Line 560-565:** There are a few points where the authors mention the diverse geology of the northern Andes and how mafic/ultramafic terranes at depth might account for the deep seismicity. These arguments would benefit significantly from a simplified geological map of the study that highlights where these ultramafic/mafic terranes are based on surface outcrop and display these data relative to the seismicity and D90 maps.

**Response:**

Thank you. We have added a terrane map (Figure 1b) and referred to it throughout the text to support our arguments.

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## Author's response to Reviewer #2

We would like to thank reviewer #2 for his/her constructive comments and for appreciating our contribution.

We have tackled all the issues raised by its review, as described point by point below.

References not already cited in the manuscript are added at the end of this document.

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### Comment:

In this study the authors focus on the NW South America region to investigate the 3D distribution of the crustal seismogenic thickness as well as the temperature of occurrence of crustal earthquakes. They propose an integrated workflow that includes a lithological and a thermal model and incorporates observed seismicity. This approach is particularly suitable for this complex region, where different tectonic plates interact, there are several subduction zones, thick sedimentary basins and accreted terranes. An important contribution of this kind of study is that it improves the understanding of seismogenesis and has implication for future seismic hazard assessment. This is particularly relevant in the study region, which is seismically very active and has hosted devastating earthquakes.

The manuscript is well written and organized, but my main problem is that I found that many statements were poorly discussed or justified. Similarly, I often could not see in the quoted figures the statements made in the text. Some important conclusions were not sufficiently supported in the text. For example, the authors find that the hottest domains correspond to the deepest values of D90, without giving any physical explanation, and from this correlation they make the conclusion that 'The spatial variation in the geothermal gradient in the uppermost 20 km of the lithosphere has significant predictive power for forecasting the distribution of seismicity'. First, I find that this correlation between high geothermal gradient and deep crustal seismicity deserves further validation and discussion, since it is, at least, counterintuitive. A warmer crust should promote a ductile instead of a brittle (and then seismogenic) behaviour, for this reason the brittle-ductile transition should move to shallower depths and then the base of the seismogenic crustal layer should be shallower, what is the opposite to what obtained in the present study. I consider that this issue and other comments that I elaborate in the following notes can be addressed in a moderate revision.

### Response:

There are two main concerns raised in this comment:

1. ..." the authors find that the hottest domains correspond to the deepest values of D90, without giving any physical explanation, and from this correlation they

make the conclusion that ‘The spatial variation in the geothermal gradient in the uppermost 20 km of the lithosphere has significant predictive power for forecasting the distribution of seismicity’”.

We believe this paragraph may reflect a misunderstanding of the methods and interpretations. The analysis of the **geothermal gradient** (sections 3.1.4 and 4.2) is completely different to that of the **D90** (sections 3.2.2 and 4.4).

In the previous version of the manuscript (section 4.4, lines 457-478), we discussed the different possibilities that such high D90 temperatures might imply. Nevertheless, we have significantly improved the discussion and interpretation in the new version of the document, including more clear statements about these deep seismic events, for example:

“Regarding the occurrence of crustal earthquakes at temperatures higher than the seismogenic windows expected for typical crustal rocks, it can be remarked that: 1) The earthquake dataset includes aftershocks (as otherwise the number of events for analysis would be further reduced), which may nucleate at depths larger than the base of the background seismogenic zone (Zielke et al., 2020). Thus, the calculated D90 values may be affected by transient deepening of the seismogenic crust during aftershock sequences. These deeper values would yield a larger temperature for the CSD than the long-term one. 2) The diverse allochthonous terranes accreted to NW South America, and the variety of autochthonous crustal blocks, include (ultra)mafic, olivine-rich rocks, which could host seismicity at larger temperatures. 3) The lower crust under part of the Andes may be mafic, able to host earthquakes at the relatively high modelled temperatures, which are due to a hot upper mantle together with a thick upper crust (which generates additional heat due to the decay of radioactive elements, (Vilà et al., 2010).”

On the other hand, the geothermal gradient calculation uses the modelled temperature at the surface and at 20 km below it (see section 3.1.4), but not the D90 temperatures. Therefore, we are not using the D90 to conclude that ‘The spatial variation in the geothermal gradient in the uppermost 20 km of the lithosphere has significant predictive power for forecasting the distribution of seismicity’.

2. ...” I find that this correlation between high geothermal gradient and deep crustal seismicity deserves further validation and discussion, since it is, at least, counterintuitive. A warmer crust should promote a ductile instead of a brittle (and then seismogenic) behaviour, for this reason the brittle-ductile transition should move to shallower depths and then the base of the seismogenic crustal layer should be shallower, what is the opposite to what obtained in the present study.”

In our manuscript we are not claiming that there is a correlation between high geothermal gradient zones and seismicity. The previous version of the manuscript mentions (section 4.2):

“Moreover, the geothermal gradients can also be used as an indirect indicator of crustal rheology. In Fig. 5a, it is possible to observe the correlation between the spatial distribution of seismicity and the geothermal gradients in this region, as most of the seismicity preferentially clusters around zones with geothermal gradients > 19 °C/km-1: i.e.: the North Andes terranes and Panama microplate. Such correlation indirectly suggests that the later are places where the crust and lithospheric mantle are strongly coupled, and therefore, the differential stress is not high enough to deform the crust in a brittle regime.”

Considering that the mean geothermal gradient for continental crust is about 25°C/km-1 (Criss, 2020; DiPietro, 2013), our computed values of maximum 23°C/km-1 should not be treated as high in a general sense (see Figure 5), but we rather referred to local maxima values.

In the new version of the manuscript we have improved section 4.2, to make a clearer interpretation between geothermal gradient and seismicity. In particular, we note that “Seismicity is almost absent in cold lithospheric areas such as the Guyana craton and the Caribbean Large Igneous Plateau. Such correlation indirectly suggests that in these places, the crust and lithospheric mantle may be strongly coupled, and therefore, the differential stress is not high enough to deform the crust in a brittle regime.”

Main comments:

The last two paragraphs of the Introduction section have a level of detail about the adopted approach that the reader is not ready to follow at this point of reading (for example the validity of the steady-state assumption...) I suggest keeping this part more general and express the main purpose of this study. The style of the last statement ('the main advantage...') is more appropriate in this regard.

Lines 77-78. 'In order for this approach to be realistic, our thermal model considers only the uppermost 75 km of the lithosphere'. The authors should justify this choice and explain in what sense it is more realistic. The depth of 75 km is shallower than typical lithosphere-asthenosphere boundary (LAB) depths.

**Response:** Thank you. We have modified the introduction, trying to accommodate also the comments from Reviewer 1. We now provide, apart from details about the modelling approach, more background context to help the reader follow our assumptions.

There is not any discussion on the possible effects of the steady-state assumption. The authors argue (lines 75-77) that a steady-state approach is appropriate since they target crustal earthquakes. However, transient effects can also affect the shallower parts of the lithosphere. The authors also mention that the subducting segments of the Nazca and Caribbean slabs are flat in the study area. This is not a direct support for the steady-state assumption and in addition is contradictory with the steep Coiba slab plotted in Figure 10.

**Response:** We included now a short explanation about why we consider valid a steady-state assumption in this region. The new introduction mentions:

“A steady-state approach can be regarded as appropriate for this analysis since: 1) we preferentially target crustal earthquakes. 2) The subducting segments of the Nazca and Caribbean slabs in the study area are flat (Gómez-García et al., 2021; Kellogg et al., 2019); (Sun et al., 2022), implying that the subducting velocities might be lower than in steep slab segments (Currie and Copeland, 2022; Schellart and Strak, 2021). So, the transient effects of dynamic changes and mantle wedge cooling due to subduction occur in much longer temporal scales than those of the heat transport in the upper lithosphere and of the earthquake cycle. And 3) we are already considering the mantle imprint on the temperature field at 75 km depth as a lower boundary condition.”

Regarding Figure 10 (now Figure 9), please be aware that it is not to scale, as already described both in the figure and the caption of the previous version of the manuscript. Line 535: ... “Vertical scale exaggerated.”. We have included the proper value of the vertical exaggeration in the figure (V.E. 8.5X).

Line 175: ‘All lateral borders of the model are assumed to be closed’ I don’t understand this condition. Do the authors mean that the borders are insulating, with a zero horizontal heat flow?

**Response:** No. It means that we are not prescribing lateral boundary conditions. We assign thermal boundary conditions only at the top (Earth’s surface) and bottom (75 km depth) of the model.

Concerning the structure, section 3.1.3 ‘Validation of the modelled temperatures’ mentions the method used for this validation, but I do not see how this validation is actually performed. Related to this, I don’t see the purpose of section 3.1.4 Geothermal gradient. Can the authors briefly advance the purpose of this calculation?

**Response:** We have renamed sect 3.1.3, now it is called “Data available for validating the thermal model”. Moreover, we have updated the text giving more details about the model validation, for example:

“We validated the 3D thermal model (Sect. 4.1) by comparing available measurements of downhole temperatures (ANH, 2020) and surface heat flow (Lucazeau, 2019), not used as model inputs, against the corresponding modelled values. The locations of the control points are shown in Fig. 3. Our goal was to minimize the misfit between the observed and modelled values.” In the supplementary material (Text S2 and Fig. S1) it is shown how the chosen model has the parameter values that minimize the misfit of downhole temperatures.

Regarding section 3.1.4 “Geothermal gradient”, we are using the spatial variations of this quantity to support that a 3D modelling approach is necessary to describe realistically the complex thermal behavior of the system. Additionally, as discussed in section 4.2 “Geothermal gradient: 3D variations and correlation with seismicity”, we

also found correlations between the geothermal gradient and the spatial distribution of seismicity.

Lines 190-192: the statement: 'the geothermal gradient for the crustal seismogenic zone was computed as the temperature difference between the surface and 20 km depth' seems to me just contradictory with what said just few lines before about the geothermal gradient being computed every 3 km. It seems therefore quite inaccurate just using the temperatures at the surface and 20 km depth.

**Response:** As mentioned in section 3.1.4, the geothermal gradient is not constant with depth. For this reason, we computed it following two different approaches:

1. For depths ranging from the surface ( $z=0$ ) down to  $z=30$  km, with incremental steps of 3 km. These results are presented in the supplementary Figure S6 and briefly discussed in section 4.2.
2. The geothermal gradient for the average crustal seismogenic zone was computed as the temperature difference between the surface and 20 km below it, the latter being approximately the average crustal seismogenic depth at regional scale (see section 4.3 and Figure 7).

Line 194. The statement 'A similar approach was followed by Gholamrezaie et al. (2018)' seems rather ambiguous? Do the authors refer to the approach to compute the thermal gradient of the 3D thermal modelling? Please clarify.

**Response:** We reworded the sentence as follows: "A similar approach for calculating the geothermal gradient based on 3D thermal models was followed by Gholamrezaie et al., (2018), also using a 3D modelling scheme in which the geological heterogeneities of the system were included."

Line 285. The resulting D10 and D90 values, and their corresponding standard deviations are provided in the data repository (Gomez-Garcia et al., 2022). Why not shown here in a map?

**Response:** Following the reviewer #1 comments, we removed the analysis of the D10. And yes, we now include the uncertainty estimation for the D90 map (Figure 8) in the new version. Please notice that we are also computing D95, and discuss these results as supplementary information. The new text reads: "The resulting D90 (and D95) values and their corresponding standard deviations and resolution radii are provided in the data repository (Gomez-García et al., 2023) and discussed further in Sect. 4.4."

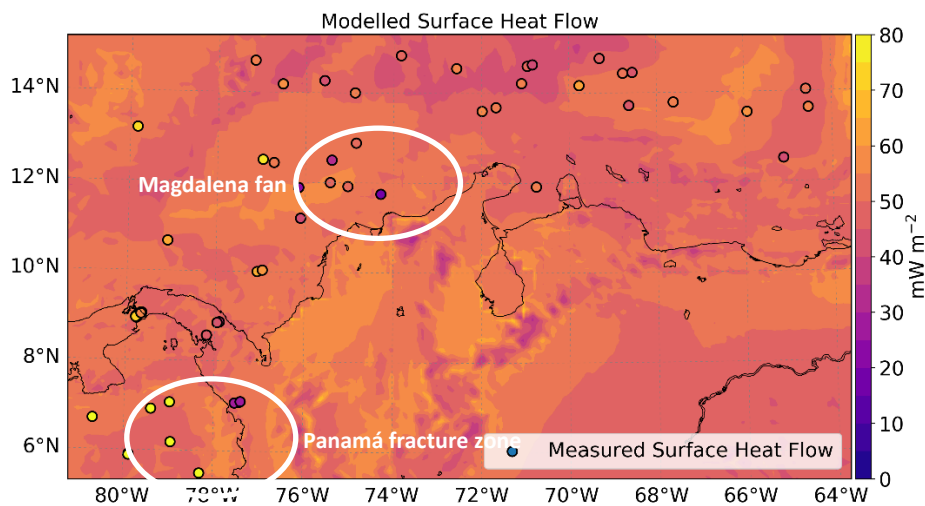
Line 299. The authors mention that 'it is possible to conclude that the model (heat flow) fits the regional trend', but honestly, I don't see this satisfactory fitting in figure 4b. Similarly, modelled temperatures shown in figure 4a seem to systematically underestimate observations at depths < 4 km. Can the authors hypothesize about this (small but systematic) misfit?

**Response:** Surface heat flow estimates are usually not only affected by advective processes (as already mentioned in the paper), but also have high uncertainties. On



the other hand, the typical error of borehole temperatures is around 5 degrees C, which is the average misfit we get for our modelled values (see Figure 4a). In Figure 4a, it is possible to appreciate that the largest misfits occur at depths shallower than 1 km. In general, the uppermost crustal region is prone to advective processes such as fluid circulation, that is out of the scope of this research, especially given the rather small spatial scales at which these processes occur, compared to our regional-scale model. We have modified the text in section 4.1 to clarify this point.

Despite we are using the best-quality heat flow measurements available they still have errors between 10% and 20%. This is the main reason why, as described in the paper, we are only looking at the regional trend of the regions outside known actively advective systems (marked by ovals in the figure below).



Lines 320-321. I don't follow the logic of the argument 'This again is an indication that a 1D approximation is not robust enough to model the thermal configuration of the study area' as the occurrence of earthquakes in regions with a diverse range of geothermal gradients would be also reproduced in 1D or 2D models, although these 1D or 2D approaches become less accurate in areas with large lateral thermal variations.

**Response:** Thank you. We meant a 1D geotherm approximation. We fixed it in the new version.

Lines 32-327. I don't see that in what sense the correlation between seismicity clusters and high geothermal gradient suggests that this geothermal gradient occurs in 'places where the crust and lithospheric mantle are strongly coupled'. Theoretically, a high temperature should lead to the shallowing of the brittle-ductile transition and therefore it should promote decoupling between the upper crust and the lithospheric mantle, with a ductile-aseismic lower crust in between. In summary, keeping the rheological stratification of the continental crust in mind, a strong coupling between the crust and the lithospheric mantle should correspond to a colder crust, and therefore a predominant brittle behaviour and absence of a ductile layer in the lower crust weak enough to mechanically decouple crust and lithospheric mantle.

**Response:** Thank you. We noticed this paragraph was confusing. We updated it as follows:

“Moreover, the geothermal gradients can also be used as an indirect indicator of crustal rheology. In Fig. 5a, it is possible to observe the correlation between the spatial distribution of seismicity and the geothermal gradients in this region. The crustal earthquakes occur at locations with a mean geothermal gradient of  $19.4 \pm 1.23$  °C/km<sup>-1</sup>, preferentially clustering in specific zones, e.g. in the North Andes block and the Panama microplate. Seismicity is almost absent in cold lithospheric areas such as the Guyana craton and the Caribbean Large Igneous Plateau. Such correlation indirectly suggests that in these places, the crust and lithospheric mantle may be strongly coupled, and therefore, the differential stress is not high enough to deform the crust in a brittle regime. This again, is an indication that a 1D geotherm approximation will not be robust enough to model the thermal configuration of the heterogeneous study area.”

Lines 458-459 ‘Instead, the hottest domains are associated to sedimentary basins (Fig. S3) and correspond to the deepest values of D90’. I think that a simple interpretation for this is that temperature increases with depth and therefore deepest values of D90 occur at higher temperatures. This seems in contradiction with what said in lines 510-513 ‘However, we observe a general trend between the lithospheric configuration and the seismicity distribution, that is the colder and therefore stronger the lithosphere, the deeper and higher in magnitudes the earthquakes (e.g.: Chen et al.,2013).’ Overall I do not understand why a cold lithosphere correlates with deep seismicity, while a high geothermal gradient correlates with deepest D90. I do not see a plausible explanation for this opposite effect of the thermal state in the crust and in the lithospheric mantle on seismicity distribution.

**Response:** Thank you. We clarified this text to avoid confusions. We also removed the phrase in lines 510-513. Please note that the section 4.5 (of the original manuscript) has now been partially merged with section 4.4 “Depths and temperatures at the base of the seismogenic crust (D90)”, as we are not discussing the crustal seismogenic thickness anymore. This is because D10 is no longer considered in our paper, as suggested by Reviewer 1.

Lines 475-476 ‘a thick lower crust together with a relatively hot upper mantle could contribute to large hypocentral temperatures (Sect. 4.5)’ I do not understand the relation between the lower crust thickness and the hypocentral temperature. As in my previous comments I suggest the authors to give an explanation for this kind of poorly explained inferences.

**Response:** We modified the text in section 4.4 and added this explanation. For example:

“Variations of the base of the seismogenic crust (magenta dotted line in Fig. 9) are not necessarily correlated with variations in Moho depths. Between  $\sim 74^\circ\text{W}$  and  $\sim 76^\circ\text{W}$  (approximately corresponding to region 2, Fig. 1a), there is an abrupt deepening of D90, which correlates with a thick lower crust and with the shallowing of the  $600^\circ\text{C}$

isotherm due to the thermal imprint of a hot upper mantle. This deepening of D90 causes its correspondingly high temperatures in region 2, as already discussed. Again, **to explain that crustal earthquakes occur down to deeper locations despite of the hot lower crust, it is necessary to hypothesize that the latter has a mafic composition, with a deeper brittle-ductile transition.**”

In the case of the sentence mentioned in your comment, we modified it as follows:

“The lower crust under part of the Andes may be mafic, able to host earthquakes at the relatively high modelled temperatures, which are due to a hot upper mantle together with a thick upper crust (which generates additional heat due to the decay of radioactive elements (Vilà et al., 2010)).”

lines 510-513 ‘However, we observe a general trend between the lithospheric configuration and the seismicity distribution, that is the colder and therefore stronger the lithosphere, the deeper and higher in magnitudes the earthquakes (e.g.: Chen et al.,2013).’ I don’t see this in Figure 10. Please, note that deep earthquakes beneath the Coiba slab correlate with a shallowing of the 600 °C isotherm.

**Response:** Thank you. We removed this sentence, as it was confusing.

Line 579 ‘the seismogenic crust is thicker and hotter below the thick Middle Magdalena basin’. I see in figure 10 that the seismogenic crust is thicker, but not hotter than beneath the surrounding Murindó and Guaicaramo/Yopal faults.

**Response:** The seismogenic crust is hotter underneath the Middle Magdalena basin as D90 reaches deeper depths compared to Murindó and Guaicaramo/Yopal faults. However, please notice that we removed the discussion of D10 following reviewer #1 suggestions, and also removed this sentence from the conclusions as it was not a strong argument to be included there.

Minor comments:

Line94: remove the typo Reguzzoni & Sampietro,ta 2015

In color code for figure 2a, better say ‘lithospheric mantle’ instead of ‘mantle’. Similarly, in the second line of the caption of Fig. 2, better say ‘lithospheric mantle’ instead of ‘upper mantle’

Line 392. The reference to Fig 2 is wrong.

Line 551 ‘for calculating of the thermal field’ remove ‘of’

**Response:** We have corrected them all, thank you.

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