Local rift and intraplate seismicity reveal shallow crustal fluidrelated activity and sub-crustal faulting

Authors: J. B. Tary¹, R. W. Hobbs², C. Peirce², C. Lesmes Lesmes¹, M. J. Funnell²

¹ Departamento de Geociencias, Universidad de los Andes, Bogotá, Colombia.

² Department of Earth Sciences, Durham University, Lower Mountjoy, South Road, Durham, DH13LE, UK.

Corresponding author:	Jean Baptiste Tary (jb.tary@uniandes.edu.co)					
	Departamento de Geociencias					
	Universidad de los Andes					
	Cra 1 #18A-12, Bloque M1					
	Bogotá					
	Colombia					

Highlights

- Seismicity is observed along the Costa Rica Rift in spatial and temporal clusters
- Normal and reverse faulting events are associated with an axial magma lens
- Event clusters associated with fluid-related response of the hydrothermal system
- Intraplate microseismicity is observed around ODP Hole 504B
- Deep events are located at the depth of the brittle-to-plastic transition

1 Abstract

Seismicity delineating the mid-ocean ridge system in the Panama Basin is mostly concentrated 2 3 along transform offsets. Most intraplate areas show little-to-no seismic activity. Here we analyze 4 passive recordings from a short-term deployment of 75 ocean-bottom seismographs (OBS) at the 5 Costa Rica Rift (CRR) and across its southern flank along a flowline to Ocean Drilling Program 6 (ODP) Hole 504B. The OBS array recorded 1061 events along the CRR and the Ecuador Fracture 7 Zone, and 127 intraplate events around ODP Hole 504B. The seismic activity along the CRR 8 occurred in clusters, with some events associated with an axial magma lens (AML) located at 3-9 3.5 km depth below seafloor (bsf), and four events exhibiting normal and reverse faulting focal mechanisms. These deep events are followed by the largest event cluster whose epicenters connect 10 11 the AML to the seafloor, at a location where a hydrothermal plume was previously reported. 12 During the same period, another event cluster occurs close to the seabed. This spatio-temporal 13 pattern suggests that deeper events close to the AML, which might be related to thermal stresses or stress perturbations due to a volume change in the AML, trigger fluid-related seismicity within 14 the shallower hydrothermal system. The easternmost extent of the seismicity along the CRR 15 corresponds to an overlapping spreading center (OSC). At depth, the seismicity around the OSC 16 is focused beneath one limb, but is spread over a larger area closer to the surface. The focal 17 18 mechanisms calculated for OSC events show both normal and reverse motions, and might reflect 19 complex stress or fault orientations. Intraplate seismicity around ODP Hole 504B shows both 20 isolated and clustered events from the seafloor to \sim 15-25 km bsf. Some of this seismicity is likely 21 associated with the reactivation of east-west trending normal faults under high pore pressure and 22 thermoelastic stresses conditions. Deep seismicity (i.e. between 15 and 20 km bsf) occurs in small, 23 well-defined clusters close to ODP Hole 504B, at the theoretical depth of the brittle-to-plastic 24 transition for a ~6.9 Ma oceanic lithosphere. Our results show the importance of short-term OBS deployments for improving our understanding of mid-ocean ridge seismicity and hydrothermal
processes, as well as intraplate seismicity and deformation mechanisms.

27

Keywords: Mid-ocean ridge seismicity, Hydrothermal processes, Axial magma lens, Intraplate
seismicity, Costa Rica Rift, Panama Basin

- 30
- 31

32 1 Introduction

33 The Panama Basin is located in the eastern part of the Pacific ocean. It is delimited by Central and South America to the north and east, and by the Cocos and Carnegie Ridges to the west and south, 34 respectively (Figure 1). The basin was formed when the Farallon plate separated into the Cocos 35 36 and Nazca plates during the early Miocene, potentially facilitated by the presence of the Galapagos hotspot (Lonsdale, 2005). The current mid-ocean ridge (MOR) system running through the center 37 of the basin comprises three main ridge segments, namely the Galapagos Spreading Center (GSC), 38 Ecuador Ridge (ER), and Costa Rica Rift (CRR), and three main transform offsets, namely the 39 Inca Transform (IT), Ecuador Fracture Zone (EFZ), and Panama Fracture Zone (PFZ). 40

41

42 MORs are complex tectono-magmatic systems generally involving intense hydrothermal 43 circulation and high seismic activity (Bohnenstiehl and Dziak, 2009). The characteristics of this 44 seismicity depend on various factors such as the ridge spreading rate and distance off-axis along 45 flowline. Other aspects include: i) the maximum event depth, controlled by the brittle-to-plastic 46 transition which is deeper at ridges with lower spreading rates due to their lower heat budget; ii) 47 the size of the seismogenic zone which, following the 750-800°C isotherm (Searle and Escartín, 48 2004), increases with lithospheric age (Wiens and Stein, 1984; Engeln et al., 1986); and iii) the

- 49 stress regime which changes with distance from the rift neovolcanic zone, being extensional close
- 50 to the rift zone to become compressional further away from it (Bergman and Solomon, 1984).
- 51

52 This study focuses on one MOR segment within the Panama Basin, the CRR, and its southern 53 flank along a flowline to the site of the Ocean Drilling Program (ODP) Hole 504B (Becker et al., 54 1989), located in ~6.9 Ma lithosphere at a distance of ~240 km from the CRR (Figure 1). The 55 CRR, located between the EFZ and the PFZ, is characterized by current asymmetric and 56 intermediate half-spreading rates of ~21-24 mm/yr and 39-41 mm/yr on its north and south sides, 57 respectively (Wilson et al., 2019). During its 11 Myr history, the CRR has oscillated between magmatic and magma-dominated crustal formation regimes corresponding to changes in full 58 spreading rate of between 50 and 72 mm/yr (Wilson et al., 2019). The amount of tectonic stretching 59 60 and magma supply, therefore, vary not only over time but also spatially along the CRR (Wilson et 61 al., 2019; Robinson et al., 2020). An axial magma lens (AML) exists in the central part of the CRR at the depth of ~3.0-3.5 km bsf (Buck et al., 1997; Lowell et al., 2020). The AML is a ~6-km long, 62 localized feature which appears to be associated with hydrothermal circulation and seismicity 63 (Lowell et al., 2020). Approximately 5-10 km along the CRR to the east of the AML, a small 64 overlapping spreading center (OSC) is also present. This OSC appears to mark the boundary 65 66 between two currently magmatically-distinct parts of the CRR; the western spreading limb having 67 a higher magmatic supply relative to the eastern (Robinson et al., 2020). Most of the seismicity 68 inventoried by the USGS in the Panama Basin is concentrated along transform ridge offsets with relatively few intraplate events (Figure S1). Spreading segments in the basin, including the CRR, 69 70 appear to be mostly aseismic in global earthquake catalog terms.

71

MORs are generally characterized by low magnitude seismicity (M<4) which requires the
deployment of local temporary ocean-bottom seismograph (OBS) networks for accurate seismic

monitoring (e.g., Grevemeyer et al., 2019). In this study, we use a deployment of 75 OBSs with a 74 short inter-instrument spacing (5-9 km in two grids and along one profile) during the RRS James 75 76 Cook cruise JC114 (Hobbs & Peirce, 2015) (Figure 1), as well as the availability of local 3D velocity models (Robinson et al., 2020; Gregory, 2018), to obtain high precision seismicity 77 78 location and focal mechanisms. The diversity of structures observed at the CRR (e.g., the AML 79 and OSC), and the quality of the information collected over the years in this area by successive 80 cruises to both the CRR and ODP Hole 504B, allow us to investigate the microseismicity's spatio-81 temporal distribution, including the seismic activity of the CRR itself and its relationship with 82 hydrothermal circulation and the presence of the AML, the seismo-tectonic expression of the OSC, and the intraplate seismic activity in relatively young oceanic crust (~6.9 Ma) close to ODP Hole 83 504B. 84

- 85
- 86

87 2 Data and network

The at-sea part of the OSCAR (*O*ceanographic and *S*eismic *C*haracterization of heat dissipation and alteration by hydrothermal fluids at an *A*xial *R*idge) research project took place in January and February, 2015, with data acquisition taking place from both the RRS James Cook (JC112, JC113 and JC114) and the FS Sonne (SO238). Two of the main objectives of these cruises were to study the structure of the oceanic crust, including the ridge axis and its flank (i.e., from an age of 0 Ma to ~6.9 Ma), and to investigate the relationship between tectonic features, fluid fluxes and heat transfer between the oceanic crust and the ocean. To address these objectives:

- 95 i) a comprehensive physical oceanography survey of the whole basin was undertaken during
 96 JC112 (Banyte et al., 2018a; Banyte et al., 2018b);
- 97 ii) heat flow measurements were acquired during JC113 (Kolandaivelu et al., 2020; Lowell et
 98 al., 2020); and

99 iii) multichannel seismic (MCS) reflection profiles, wide-angle (WA) seismic profiles, subbottom profiler (SBP) profiles, swath bathymetry, and potential field data were acquired
101 during JC114 (Hobbs & Peirce, 2015; Wilson et al., 2019; Gregory, 2018; Robinson et al.,
102 2020; Haughton et al., 2020).

Even though the OBSs were originally deployed for active-source WA seismic acquisition, they
 recorded continuously throughout deployment, including during gaps between active-source
 profiling. In this study we focus on the analysis of the OBS passive seismic recordings.

106

107 The OBSs were deployed in two grid-form arrays and along one 2D transect (Figure 1). From 108 north to south, a grid of 25 OBSs were deployed at the CRR (hereafter called "North Grid" or NG), 109 25 OBSs were deployed following a flowline from the NG to ODP Hole 504B (hereafter called 110 SAP as in synthetic aperture profile), and 25 OBSs were deployed around ODP Hole 504B 111 (hereafter called "South Grid" or SG). The OBSs in the different arrays also have different 112 recording durations between January 25, 2015, to February 28, 2015 (see Hobbs & Peirce (2015) for details). All OBSs had a three-component, short-period (4.5 Hz) geophone pack and a 113 114 hydrophone, with data sampled at 500 Hz. The clock drift of each OBS was linearly corrected 115 using GPS synchronization at deployment and recovery.

116

117

118 **3** Methods

119

3.1. Microseismicity location

Using the continuous time series (band-pass filtered between 5 and 120 Hz), we first detected potential events using the STA/LTA technique (short-term average/long-term average). Events were then automatically extracted that exceeded a minimum STA/LTA threshold of 2 within a window of 10 s and if they were recorded by a minimum of three stations. The automatically124 generated detections were then manually reviewed to retain only earthquakes (micro or otherwise). For the events selected, we then picked P- and S-waves, and attributed picking uncertainties 125 126 automatically based on the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR). Absolute event locations were obtained 127 with NonLinLoc using a non-linear, grid-search method (Lomax et al., 2009). Only events with at 128 least six picks were included in the location determination (see Table S1 for the main input 129 parameters). Any additional processing for the event locations and velocity model selection are 130 described separately for the North and South Grids in the sections below. After locating the events, 131 moment magnitudes were estimated automatically using the Brune fit on S-wave spectra after 132 instrumental response removal (Eaton et al., 2014).

- 133
- 134

3.2. North Grid

Most seismicity recorded by the NG instruments is located within ~100 km of the grid. A detailed 3D P-wave velocity model obtained using seismic tomography analysis of the WA seismic data is available for the grid area centered on the CRR (Robinson et al., 2020). We therefore used Robinson et al.'s (2020) 3D velocity model in NonLinLoc for all events falling within the OBS grid footprint to a depth below sea surface <12 km. Care was given to the depth of the OBSs within this 3D velocity model (given the node spacing) so that they lay on the seafloor and not in the water column.

142

For all other events recorded by the NG OBSs that lie outside the grid footprint, we used a 1D velocity model derived from the 3D P-wave velocity model, corresponding to the near-axis structure of the CRR (Figure 8 of Robinson et al., 2020). Individual travel-time tables were calculated for each OBS to account for their respective depths. We employ a V_p/V_s ratio of 1.8 to calculate S-wave travel-time tables. This estimate comes from the work of Gregory (2018) at the SG and other studies from other ridges (e.g., Collier and Singh, 1998 – Poisson's ratio of between 0.27 and 0.31) which together provide a generalistic estimate of ~0.28 (hence Vp/Vs ratio of 1.8).
A negligible amount of sediment is present close to the CRR and so no sediment layer is present
in either velocity model used for the NG event analysis.

- 152
- **3.3. South Grid**

154 The NG procedure was adopted, with most seismicity recorded within $\sim 100-200$ km from the SG. 155 An equivalent 3D P-wave velocity model is also available for the SG which is centered on ODP 156 Hole 504B (Gregory, 2018). However, in the SG case most events were either too deep or located 157 outside the area of the 3D velocity model. We therefore used an average 1D version of the 3D 158 velocity model to locate all events which, at a crustal scale, does not significantly misrepresent the modelled velocities. To calculate S-wave travel-times we use a V_p/V_s ratio of 1.76 as defined by 159 160 Gregory (2018). Although ODP Hole 504B logs (Cann et al., 1983) record a sediment thickness of ~275 m, the 1D model includes this layer as a 300 m-thick low-velocity layer ($V_p \approx 1.68$ km/s) 161 162 to be consistent with the node spacing of the Gregory (2018) 3D model.

- 163
- 164

3.4. Focal mechanism calculation

165 As the origin of the many analyzed events, especially close to the CRR, could involve the presence and migration of hydrothermal fluids or magma, we assume that they correspond mainly to fault 166 167 rupture and can be represented by double-couple sources, with small non-double components due to these fluids (e.g., Wilcock et al., 2009; Waldhauser & Tolstoy, 2011). For focal mechanism 168 calculations we select only events with at least 16 phase picks. Following this criteria, 63 events 169 170 were analyzed for the NG, and 13 events for the SG. Time series were generally band-pass filtered between 5 and 50 Hz prior to polarity picking. The orientation of the OBS vertical component was 171 172 first checked using the active-source seismic shots. Only clear P-wave polarities picked on the

vertical component were included. The same 1D velocity models and V_p/V_s ratios as described 173 174 above were used for focal mechanism calculations. We also fixed the NonLinLoc event locations in these calculations. Finally, we used FOCMEC (e.g., Snoke, 2003), part of the SEISAN 175 distribution (Havskov & Ottemöller, 1999), to calculate the focal mechanisms. All solutions were 176 177 obtained using a 0 to 2 polarity error (Table S2). To verify the robustness of the solutions obtained, we also calculated the solutions with FPFIT (Reasenberg and Oppenheimer, 1985) to check their 178 consistency, and progressively removed different polarities from the calculation to quality control 179 the results. FPFIT also provides uncertainties on the nodal planes (Table S2). In the following 180 181 section we present focal mechanism solutions that are consistent and well-constrained by their set 182 of polarities. 183 184 185 4 **Results** 186 4.1. North Grid 187 After microearthquake selection, 1061 events were detected for the short recording period of the 188 NG (from January 25 to February 17, 2015). In total this represents 3409 P-wave picks and 3433 S-wave picks. Of these 1061 events, 459 events were located using the 3D velocity model, 218 189 events were located with the 1D velocity model, and 384 events had less than six phases and were 190 191 not located (Figures 2 and S2). Locations in 1D and 3D have average root-mean square residuals 192 in travel-time of 0.19 and 0.07 s, respectively. For location using the 3D velocity model, horizontal 193 uncertainties range mainly between 0.5 and 10.0 km (with a distribution up to ~30 km representing \sim 15% of the events), and vertical uncertainties between 2.2 and 6.0 km. These locations, close to 194 the NG instruments, are well-constrained (Figure 2). For location using the 1D velocity model, 195 196 horizontal uncertainties range mainly between 5.0 and 26.5 km with a relatively even distribution,

197 and vertical uncertainties range between 7.5 and 30.0 km. These locations have higher

uncertainties for two main reasons: i) a smaller number of phase picks for some events located close to the NG array; and ii) their larger distance from the NG array (Figure 2). Estimated event moment magnitudes range mainly between 0.1 and 3.1, with events from the CRR having small magnitudes mainly between 0.1 and 1.7, and the events from the EFZ having higher magnitudes mainly between 2.1 and 3.1. The highest magnitude event (M_w 4.3) located is from the EFZ.

203

204 Most events are clustered in specific areas centered on the main tectono-magmatic features of the 205 area. Some events are associated with a recent splay of the EFZ that might represent an eastward 206 jump in its location. The smaller number of events for this structure is likely related to its larger 207 distance from the NG, such that only higher magnitude events exceed the detection threshold. 208 Closer to the NG, events are aligned along the CRR with all seismicity apparently located west of 209 the non-transform discontinuity. We do not believe that this is an artifact of the OBS array location 210 as events have been recorded originating as far as the PFZ, but it could be a function of the short 211 recording window which may have just captured a period of active seismicity along the western 212 CRR. Most individual clusters are contained within areas a few kilometers in width and elongated 213 in depth, with positions ranging from the seafloor to \sim 7 km, the base of the oceanic crust (Figure 3). These clusters are defined based on their spatial proximity, although some clusters also have 214 events with high waveform similarity, especially Cluster 6 (Figure 4). For the NG events, the well-215 216 constrained focal mechanisms are shown in Figure 3. Events with focal mechanisms located 217 outside the NG are less well constrained than those inside the network due to the small aperture of 218 the polarities on the focal sphere. We present the best constrained focal mechanism for which a 219 relatively small number of polarities seem to control the orientation and position of nodal planes 220 (Figure 2). It shows a predominantly normal fault mechanism but with a strike-slip component. 221 However, the focal mechanisms of all events within the NG show both normal and reverse focal

- 222 mechanisms. In general, the main mode (i.e., normal or reverse) is well constrained by the
- polarities even if the plane orientations vary (Table S2 and Figures S3 and S4).

224

225 On February 10, 2015, approximately 140 events were detected mainly in two clusters located 226 along the CRR (indicated by numbers 1 and 6 on Figures 3, 4 and 5). Cluster 1 extends from the 227 seafloor to a depth of ~3 km bsf, while Cluster 6 is concentrated close to the seafloor (i.e., from 228 the seafloor to a depth of 0.5-1.0 km). For Clusters 1 and 6 no well-constrained focal mechanisms 229 could be determined. The event clusters located to the side of and slightly deeper than Cluster 1 230 have both normal and reverse focal mechanisms (Clusters 2 and 3 on Figure 3). Focal mechanisms 231 of Cluster 2 show both normal and reverse solutions with varying plane orientations. For Cluster 232 3, the only well-constrained event (depth \sim 2.4 km bsf) has a reverse focal mechanism with a small 233 strike-slip component. Two events located close to the OSC (Cluster 4) show normal and reverse 234 focal mechanisms. Finally, one event belonging to a deeper cluster below, at approximately 5.4 235 km bsf, has a normal focal mechanism with a small strike-slip component.

- 236
- **4.2.** South Grid

For the SG recording period (from February 3 to February 28, 2015), 127 seismic events were 238 detected corresponding to 606 and 652 P- and S-wave picks, respectively (e.g., Figure 6). Of these 239 240 127 events, 98 have at least six phase picks and were located (Figures 7 and S2). These locations 241 have an average root-mean square residual in travel-time of 0.12 s. Horizontal uncertainties range 242 mainly from 2.0 to 30.0 km and vertical from 2.5 to 20.0 km with a higher proportion of events 243 with uncertainties between 17.0 and 20.0 km. The larger uncertainties obtained for the SG, when 244 compared with the NG, are due to the larger distances between array and location in general for 245 the SG. In fact, most events are located outside the SG array, and are much deeper. Similar to the NG, event magnitudes range mainly from 0.8 to 2.9, with higher magnitude events generallycorresponding to events further away from the network.

248

Seismicity around the SG is not as clustered as it is for the NG even though the events often occur in small groups of ~2-3 events spaced closely in time. In this area both shallow and deep seismicity is present including many events associated with horizontal and vertical uncertainties of less than ± 5 km. Shallow seismicity (i.e., between 0 and 5 km bsf) is distributed throughout most of the SG, sometimes in small clusters. Deep seismicity is mainly situated below the SG and to the southeast. In the southeast, the events seem related to the presence of a north-south fracture zone that intersects with the Carnegie Ridge.

256

257 Overall, in the SG region the deep seismicity shows both individual events and small clusters. Deep events in the range 20-30 km bsf is anomalous for ~6.9 Ma oceanic crust (Searle and Escartín, 258 259 2004). However, these events are within the OBS network and many have a large number of P-260 and S-wave picks (>15 picks, up to 37 picks) and, hence, small uncertainties (e.g., Figure 7). The 261 main factor influencing the depth of these events is the velocity model. In this area close to ODP Hole 504B, the crustal velocity structure is laterally homogeneous (Gregory, 2018) so velocity 262 263 heterogeneities within the crust cannot explain the anomalous depth of these events. The deeper velocity structure is less well constrained than in the shallower crust, so there is a trade-off between 264 265 the estimated velocity and event depth, where decreasing the velocity would result in shallower 266 events. Assuming that the first OBS to record the event presented in Figure 6 is located almost 267 vertically above the hypocenter, travel-time differences in a one-layer over a half-space model can 268 be used to investigate crustal and event depths following

269
$$T_w - T_p = \left[\left(\frac{h_1}{V_{w1}} + \frac{h_2}{V_{w2}} \right) - \left(\frac{h_1}{V_{p1}} + \frac{h_2}{V_{p2}} \right) \right]$$

where T_w and T_p are travel-times of a specific wavetrain and the primary P-wave, respectively, h_1 270 and h_2 correspond to the first layer thickness (i.e., the oceanic crust) and the depth of the event 271 below h_1 (i.e., in the upper mantle), and V_w and V_p are average seismic velocities of the specific 272 wavetrain and P-waves. Using time series from OBS 17, we observe three main wavetrains, the P-273 wave, followed by a high-amplitude wavetrain, and the S-wave. The travel-time difference 274 between the high-amplitude wavetrain and the P-wave is ~ 0.7 s which, using average seismic 275 276 velocities from the 1D velocity model and assuming this high-amplitude wavetrain is a P-to-S conversion at the base of the oceanic crust, gives an oceanic crust thickness h_1 of ~6 km. This is 277 278 consistent with the 3D velocity model of Gregory (2018).

279

280 The travel-time difference between P- and S-waves for OBS 17 (see Figure 1 for location) is ~1.8 281 s. This travel-time difference corresponds to an event depth of ~17.5 km bsf, slightly shallower 282 than the depth of 20.9 km obtained by the 1D event location. This difference is likely related to unmapped velocity model variations below the oceanic crust, such as a lower seismic wave 283 velocity in the upper mantle than that assumed (V_{p2} of 8 km/s) (Figure S5). Two events which 284 occurred within a 10 min time interval show similar strike-slip focal mechanisms. Another event 285 located spatially close-by exhibits an oblique normal fault mechanism with a significant strike-slip 286 287 component.

288

289

290 5 Discussion

291

5.1. Seismic activity along the CRR and EFZ

An intense period of seismic activity is observed along the CRR during a temporary local OBS
deployment. This seismicity is dominated by small events with magnitudes below ~2. This

294 provides a very different view of the CRR compared to that offered by the seismicity recorded by seismological networks onshore. East of the OBS deployment, no detectable microearthquakes 295 296 were located which implies that no event of magnitude >2 occurred during the recording period. 297 Hence, we conclude that over the short-term there is a strong difference in seismic activity between 298 the western and eastern parts of the CRR, although this might not be representative of the medium-299 to long-term activity of the CRR. We hypothesize that the higher seismic activity in the western 300 part might reflect the focus of current magmatic activity along the CRR (Vargas et al., 2018; 301 Robinson et al., 2020; Lowell et al. 2020). The well-located microseismicity is mostly limited to 302 the first 7 km bsf corresponding to the brittle part of the oceanic crust (Searle and Escartín, 2004). 303

Within the OBS network, the microseismicity is focused in specific clusters along the CRR 304 305 (Figures 2 and 3). The most significant seismic activity is observed above and around the AML. 306 Cluster 1 is located above the western end of the AML with depths ranging from the AML itself 307 to the seafloor. The position of this cluster is close to the position of a large hydrothermal plume detected in the water column (Lowell et al., 2020). The spatio-temporal pattern of this cluster 308 309 suggests that deeper events close to the AML, which might be related to thermal stresses or stress perturbations due to a volume change in the AML, trigger fluid-related seismicity within the 310 311 shallower parts of the hydrothermal system (e.g., Sohn et al., 1999; Wilcock et al. 2009). Similarly, 312 Cluster 6 is located on the CRR between the seafloor and a depth of ~ 0.5 -1.0 km. Even though no 313 bathymetric feature was observed close to this cluster, it might be associated with hydrothermal 314 circulation closer to the surface through a process of thermal cracking for example (Tolstov et al., 315 2008). Cluster 2, situated at the same depth level as the AML, exhibits a lower event density and 316 both normal and reverse focal mechanisms. The number of focal mechanisms is limited but they 317 do not show plane orientations consistent with MOR-perpendicular extension only. Other factors such as thermal stresses due to hydrothermal circulation, and stress perturbations due to the 318

319 presence of the AML (i.e., inflation and diking events), must play a role in the generation of these 320 events (Wilcock et al., 2009; Waldhauser and Tolstoy, 2011). The lower event density could, in 321 turn, be related to higher temperatures closer to the AML, locally weakening the crust and 322 promoting aseismic deformation.

323

324 Events from Cluster 2 occur mostly during the first week of the recording period, while events 325 from Clusters 1 and 6 occur mostly during the last two weeks (Figure 5). The timing between 326 Cluster 2 and Clusters 1 and 6, as well as the crisis-like character of Clusters 1 and 6 (i.e., ~140 327 events in one day), suggest that a deep magmatic event led to fluid-triggered seismicity from AML 328 depth to the surface. The approximate time lag and distance between the clusters at depth close to 329 the AML and cluster 1, are 3 days and 3.5 km, respectively. Considering a possible pore pressure 330 diffusion between these clusters, the diffusion timescale in an isotropic poroelastic medium is given by $\tau = L^2/D$ (L the characteristic diffusion distance and D the hydraulic diffusivity) (Manga 331 and Wang, 2007) which corresponds to a hydraulic diffusivity of $\sim 50 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ in our case. The 332 formation permeability k can be obtained from $k = \mu \xi D$, with μ the dynamic viscosity and ξ the 333 334 storage compressibility (e.g., Davis et al., 2004). Assuming similar parameter values as Davis et al. (2004), for the hydrothermal system of the Juan de Fuca ridge ($\mu = 10^{-4}$ Pa.s and $\xi =$ 335 2.27×10^{-10} Pa⁻¹), a hydraulic diffusivity of 50 m²/s corresponds to a permeability of ~10⁻¹² m². 336 These values are within the range of possible values for young oceanic crust close to the ridge axis 337 338 (e.g., Davis et al., 2004; Barreyre et al., 2018; Crone et al., 2011).

The OSC on the CRR is relatively small with an offset between limbs of ~ 1.5 km and an overlap of ~ 2.5 km. The overlap-to-offset ratio is ~ 1.6 :1 which is different from that of 3:1 observed at other ridges (e.g., MacDonald et al., 1987). This leads Robinson et al. (2020) to suggest that this

343 OSC might still be developing. If the magma supply to the western limb is larger than to the eastern, as the observed microseismicity and other observations seem to indicate (e.g. Robinson et 344 345 al., 2020), the western limb of the OSC might be undergoing a phase of expansion that will 346 eventually decapitate the eastern limb (MacDonald et al., 1987). Robinson et al. (2020) modelled 347 a low P-wave velocity associated with the OSC, which they interpret as being due to a porosity 348 increase caused by fracturing. Using gravity data modelling, they also suggest that a high-density 349 anomaly is present below the OSC which could be attributed to either a thinner or denser oceanic 350 crust. We observe some relatively sparse seismic activity with event depths from the surface to \sim 7 351 km bsf, approximately corresponding to the base of the oceanic crust (Figures 3 and S2). At depth, 352 between 5 km and 7 km bsf, the events are focused in the center of the OSC while, closer to the 353 surface, the events are spread over the center and both limbs. These observations suggest that the 354 deformation associated with this OSC extends throughout the entire oceanic crust, favoring the 355 scenario of a denser oceanic crust at depth as best explaining the observed gravity anomaly. 356 Deformation at depth below the OSC might then be localized along one main structure.

357

Outside the OBS network, further along the CRR, the located microseismicity is mostly clustered. This suggests, again, that this microseismicity is associated with hydrothermal circulation, either occurring throughout the entire oceanic crust for the cluster to the west of the OBS network, or focused near the surface for the small cluster closer to its intersection with the EFZ (Figures 2 and S2). Along the EFZ, most of the microseismicity recorded during this deployment is located along the eastern flank and shallower than 5 km-depth bsf and, although poorly constrained, focal mechanisms suggest right lateral strike-slip (Figures S2a, S3 and S4).

365

5.2. Intraplate seismicity close to ODP Hole 504B

Microseismicity around ODP Hole 504B occurs along a north-south trending fracture zone that runs parallel to the PFZ (Lonsdale, 2005), and spans a depth range from the seafloor to ~30 km bsf (Figure 7). There are a number of potential causes of the intraplate seismicity observed around the SG:

- seismic reflection profiles (Kent et al., 1996; Gregory, 2018; Wilson et al., 2019) and a
 seismic anisotropy study (Gregory, 2018) show that the crust to the south of the CRR is
 crossed by roughly east-west trending ridge-parallel normal faults. These studies also show
 that these faults are currently active and may serve as fluid pathways and, hence, could
 generate microseismicity. These faults continue for at least a few kilometers into the
 basement, but their actual true depth extent is unknown (Gregory, 2018);
- the cluster of deep microseismicity to the southeast of the grid is consistent with the microseismicity around ODP Hole 504B reported by Lonsdale (2005) that occurs along a north-south trending fracture zone that runs parallel to the PFZ and spans a depth range from the seafloor to ~30 km bsf;
- the sub-Moho events within the grid between depths of 10-25 km maybe the result of
 thermoelastic stresses due to lithospheric cooling causing the reactivation of faults. This
 would lead to an event concentration below the Moho (at ~5-6 km depth bsf, Gregory,
 2018) to the depth of the 750-800°C isotherm (Bergman & Solomon, 1984);
- the origin of a second, deep cluster within the grid at a depth of ~15-20 km bsf is more
 enigmatic. It appears to be located at the maximum depth of brittle-to-plastic transition
 based on predicted depth of 20±5 km for the 750-800°C isotherm for a 6.9 Ma oceanic
 plate (e.g., Parker & Oldenburg, 1973; Wiens & Stein, 1984; Searle and Escartín, 2004).
 These deep events, therefore, occur at the limit of oceanic intraplate seismicity (e.g., Wiens
 & Stein, 1983). This may imply that there has been a deepening of the mechanical behavior

391 transition, which could occur in response to enhanced cooling of the lithosphere by 392 hydrothermal circulation, higher pore pressures (though its cause would be difficult to 393 explain), or an elevated strain rate (Wiens & Stein, 1983; Wiens & Stein, 1984). If there 394 has been a deepening of the transition zone then the observation from seismic anisotropy 395 analysis suggests the presence of open fractures in the basement (Gregory, 2018), which 396 could facilitate enhanced hydrothermal circulation and cooling. It should be noted that the 397 fact that this seismicity appears as a localized cluster may be the result of the short period 398 of acquisition.

399

Two focal mechanisms were obtained for these deep events within the footprint of the SG network and show mainly strike-slip solutions. The nodal planes of these solutions agree with the southwest-northeast regional maximum horizontal principal stress orientation (Kent et al., 1996). The observed microseismicity shows no direct evidence of the influence of the nearby Nazca plate subduction below the South-American plate.

405

A key question is: does this seismicity represent the reactivation of pre-existing structures or are 406 407 some new ones forming at the brittle to ductile transition? Models of crustal formation at an 408 intermediate-rate spreading mid-ocean ridge involve the generation of crustal scale faults that penetrate to the brittle-ductile transition, bounding the neo-volcanic zone and accommodating the 409 410 subsidence of the ridge flanks due to cooling (Searle and Escartín, 2004). However, lithospheric 411 cooling implies a thickening of the brittle lithosphere lid with age (Wiens and Stein, 1984; Engeln 412 et al., 1986) and these original faults could grow downwards to keep pace with this thickening. 413 Some seismicity would be associated with these new fault extensions that link to the pre-existing 414 faults. An alternative would be that these are entirely new structures initiated, for example, by thermal state differences between younger and older portions of the lithosphere adjacent to each 415

other. On the flanks near to the ridge, normal faulting is the dominant mechanism while at more
distal locations the stress field will become dominated by the regional plate tectonic stresses, as
we have observed around the site of ODP 504B. Resolution of this issue requires a dedicated longterm deployment of OBSs over a ridge flank to monitor earthquake activity.

- 420
- 421

422 6 Conclusion

423 Using a short-term local deployment of 75 OBSs in the Panama Basin, we present an analysis of 424 the microseismic activity along the CRR and around ODP Hole 504B. The high seismic activity 425 along the CRR occurs episodically in clusters and is limited to its western and central parts. This 426 clustering might be related to the increased magmatic activity in these areas. In the central part of 427 the CRR, the primary clusters seem closely related with the presence of the AML. Many events 428 are located between the surface and AML depth where a hydrothermal plume has been detected. 429 Events located at AML depth (~3.0-4.0 km bsf), with normal and reverse fault focal mechanisms, are most likely related to stress perturbations due to hydrothermal fluids or AML volumetric 430 431 change. This is consistent with a scenario of a deep magmatic event triggering fluid-related 432 responses in the shallower hydrothermal system, as has been observed on the Juan de Fuca ridge 433 (Wilcock et al., 2009) and the East Pacific Rise (Waldhauser and Tolstoy, 2011).

434

Lower seismic activity is observed around the OSC. This third-order discontinuity is the boundary between the western and eastern segments of the CRR, and corresponds to the eastern limit of the microseismicity along the CRR. Some microseismicity is present throughout the entire oceanic crust below the OSC, with deeper events focused at its center and shallower events spread along the OSC. We interpret this observation as relating to one principal structure located deep below the OSC which dissipates into multiple structures in the shallower part. No clear pattern in focal

441 mechanism is observed suggesting that this zone has complex stress or fault geometries.

442

443 Around ODP Hole 504B, microseismicity is observed but with a much lower incidence when 444 compared to the western part of the CRR. The depths of this microseismicity range from the 445 seafloor to ~20 km bsf. Here, the microseismicity within the brittle part of the oceanic lithosphere 446 might be associated with active east-west trending normal faults. High pore pressures as well as 447 thermoelastic stresses might lead to the reactivation of these faults. Deeper seismicity between ~15 448 and 20 km bsf below the SG could be located at the brittle-to-plastic transition (i.e. the 750-800°C 449 isotherm). Higher pore pressures, cooling through hydrothermal circulation, and strain rates in this 450 area could, however, deepen the brittle-to-plastic transition, together with the crust here being 451 generated during a period of magmatic accretion rather than magma-dominated tectonic extension. 452 Whether these events occurred on pre-existing structures or due to another cause remains an open 453 question.

454

This study shows the importance of local OBS deployments as short-term surveys to monitor the seismic activity of offshore structures which exhibit microseismicity of low magnitude (<4). It also shows how they can be used to improve our understanding of tectonic and hydrothermal processes occurring at MORs, and that intra-plate deformation does occur in regions previously thought to be tectonically quiescent.

460

461

462 Acknowledgments

463 This research was funded by the Natural Environmental Research Council (NERC) grant 464 NE/I027010/1 and J. B. T. acknowledges support from the FAPA project (PR.3.2016.3047; Universidad de los Andes). We thank all those involved in JC112, 113, 114 and SO238 including the vessels' officers, engineers and crew, the science party, and equipment technicians. NERC's Ocean-Bottom Instrumentation Facility (Minshull et al., 2005) provided the OBSs and their technical support at sea. We thank two anonymous reviewers for their valuable comments. Data are archived at the NERC's British Oceanographic Data Centre. The accepted version of this manuscript is available at Durham Research Online (dro.dur.ac.uk).

References

Banyte, D., Morales Maqueda, M. A., Smeed, D. A., Hobbs, R., Megann, A., & Recalde, S. (2018a). Geothermal Heating in the Panama Basin: 1. Hydrography of the Basin. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, *123*(10), 7382-7392.

Banyte, D., Morales Maqueda, M. A., Smeed, D. A., Megann, A., Hobbs, R., & Recalde, S. (2018b). Geothermal Heating in the Panama Basin. Part II: Abyssal Water Mass Transformation. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, *123*(10), 7393-7406.

Barreyre, T., Olive, J.-A., Crone, T. J., & Sohn, R. A. (2018). Depth-dependent permeability and heat output at basalt-hosted hydrothermal systems across mid-ocean ridge spreading rates. *Geochemistry, Geophysics, Geosystems*, 19.

Becker, K., Sakai, H., Adamson, A. C., Alexandrovitch, A., Alt, J. C., et al. (1989). Drilling deep into young oceanic crust, Hole 504B, Costa Rica Rift. *Rev. of Geophysics*, *27*, 79-102.

Bergman, E. A., & Solomon, S. C. (1984). Source Mechanisms of Earthquakes Near Mid-Ocean Ridges. In: Body Waveform Inversion: Implications for the Early Evolution of Oceanic Lithosphere. *Journal of Geophysical Research*, *89*(B13), 11415-11441.

Bohnenstiehl, D. R., & Dziak, R. P. (2009). Mid-ocean ridge seismicity. In Cochran, J. K., Bokuniewicz, H. J., & Yager, P. L. (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of Ocean Sciences* (3rd Edition), Academic Press, Oxford.

Buck, W. R., Carbotte, S. M., & Mutter, C. (1997). Controls on extrusion at mid-ocean ridges. *Geology*, 25, 935-938.

Cann, J.R., Langseth, M.G., Honnorez, J., Von Herzen, R.P., White, S.M., et al. (1983). Initial Reports of the Deep Sea Drilling Project, 69, Initial Reports of the Deep Sea Drilling Project. *U.S. Government Printing Office*. <u>https://doi.org/10.2973/dsdp.proc.69.1983</u>.

Collier, J. S., & Singh, S. C. (1998), Poisson's ratio structure of young oceanic crust, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 103(B9), 20981–20996, doi:10.1029/98JB01980.

Crone, T. J., M. Tolstoy, & Stroup, D. F. (2011), Permeability structure of young ocean crust from poroelastically triggered earthquakes. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 38, L05305.

Davis, E., Becker, K., Dziak, R., Cassidy, J., Wang, K., & Lilley, M. (2004). Hydrological response to a seafloor spreading episode on the Juan de Fuca ridge. *Nature*, 430(6997), 335-338.

Eaton, D. W., van der Baan, M., Birkelo, B., & Tary, J. B. (2014). Scaling relations and spectral characteristics of tensile microseisms: evidence for opening/closing cracks during hydraulic fracturing. *Geoph. J. Int.*, *196*, 1844-1857.

Engeln, J. F., Wiens, D. A., & Stein, S. (1986). Mechanisms and Depths of Atlantic Transform Earthquakes. *Journal of Geophysical Research*, *91*(B1), 548-577.

Gregory, E. P. M. (2018). *The seismic characterisation of layer 2 in oceanic crust around ODP borehole 504B* (PhD thesis). University of Durham, UK.

Grevemeyer, I., Hayman, N. W., Lange, D., Peirce, C., Papenberg, C., Van Avendock, H. J.A., Schmid, F., Gómez de la Peña, L., & Dannowski, A. (2019). Constraining the maximum depth of brittle deformation at slow- and ultraslow-spreading ridges using microseismicity. *Geology*, *47*, 1069-1073.

Haughton, G., Murton, B. J., Hobbs, R., Wilson, D., & Zhang, L. (2020). Correlating seafloor tectonic and magmatic features at the Costa Rica and Ecuador spreading ridge segments. submitted.

Havskov, J., & Ottemöller, L. (1999). SEISAN earthquake analysis software. *Seismological Research Letters*, 70, 532–534.

Hobbs, R., & Peirce, C. (2015). RRS James Cook JC114 Cruise Report. Online Report. https://www.bodc.ac.uk/resources/inventories/cruise_inventory/reports/jc114.pdf

Kolandaivelu, K. P., Harris, R. N., Lowell, R. P., Robinson, A.H., Wilson. D. J., & Hobbs, R. W. (2020). Evolution of heat flow, hydrothermal circulation and permeability on the young southern flank of the Costa Rica Rift. *Geoph. J. Int.*, *220*, 278–295.

Lomax, A., Michelini, A., & Curtis, A. (2009). Earthquake location, direct, global-search methods. In Encyclopedia of complexity and system science, part 5 (p. 2449–2473). New York: Springer.

Lonsdale, P. (2005). Creation of the Cocos and Nazca plates by fission of the Farallon plate, *Tectonophysics*, 404, 237-264.

Lowell, R. P., Zhang, L., Maqueda, M. A. M., Banyte, D., Tong, V. C. H., et al. (2020). Magmahydrothermal interactions at the Costa Rica Rift from data collected in 1994 and 2015. *Earth and Planetary Science Letters*, *531*, 115991.

MacDonald, K. C., Sempere, J.-C., Fox, P. J., & Tyce, R. (1987). Tectonic evolution of ridge-axis discontinuities by the meeting, linking, or self-decapitation of neighboring ridge segments. *Geology*, *15*, 993-997.

Manga, M., & Wang, C.-Y. (2007). Earthquake hydrology. In: G. Schubert (ed.), Treatise on Geophysics, 4, Elsevier, Amsterdam, 293-320.

Minshull, T.A., Sinha, M. C., & Peirce, C. (2005). Multi-disciplinary, sub-seabed geophysical imaging. *Sea Technology*, 46, 27-31.

Parker, R. L., & Oldenburg, D. W. (1973). Thermal Model of Ocean Ridges. *Nature*, 242, 137-139.

Reasenberg, P., and D. Oppenheimer (1985). FPFIT, FPPLOT and FPPAGE: FORTRAN computer programs for calculating and displaying earthquake fault-plane solutions, *U.S. Geol. Surv. Open File Rept.*, 85-739.

Robinson, A. H., Zhang, L., Hobbs, R. W., Peirce, C., & Tong, V. C. H. (2020). Magmatic and tectonic segmentation of the intermediate-spreading Costa Rica Rift – a fine balance between magma supply rate, faulting, and hydrothermal circulation. *Geoph. J. Int.*, 222, 132–152.

Searle, R. C., & Escartín. J. (2004). The Rheology and Morphology of Oceanic Lithosphere and Mid-Ocean Ridges. In Mid-Ocean Ridges (Eds. C. German, J. Lin and L. Parson). doi:10.1029/148GM03.

Snoke, J. A. (2003). FOCMEC: FOcal MEChanism determinations. In International Handbook of Earthquake and Engineering Seismology (Eds. W. H. K. Lee, H. Kanamori, P. C. Jennings, and C. Kisslinger), Academic Press, San Diego.

Sohn, R. A., Hildebrand, J. A., & Webb, S. C. (1999). A microearthquake survey of the high-temperature vent fields on the volcanically active East Pacific Rise (9° 50'N). *Journal of Geophysical Research*, *104*(B11), 25367-25277.

Tolstoy, M., Waldhauser, F., Bohnenstiehl, D. R., Weekly, R. T., & Kim, W.-Y. (2008). Seismic identification of along-axis hydrothermal flow on the East Pacific Rise, *Nature*, *451*, 181-184.

Vargas, C. A., Pulido, J. E., & Hobbs, R. W. (2018). Thermal structure of the Panama Basin by analysis of seismic attenuation. *Tectonophysics*, 730, 81-99.

Waldhauser, F., & Tolstoy, M. (2011). Seismogenic structure and processes associated with magma inflation and hydrothermal circulation beneath the East Pacific Rise at 9°50'N. *Geochem. Geophys. Geosyst.*, *12*(9), Q08T10.

Wiens, D. A., & Stein, S. (1983). Age dependence of oceanic intraplate seismicity and implications for lithospheric evolution. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Solid Earth*, 88(B8), 6455-6468.

Wiens, D. A., & Stein, S. (1984). Intraplate seismicity and stresses in young oceanic lithosphere. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Solid Earth*, 89(B13), 11442-11464. Wilcock, W. S. D., Hooft, E. E. E., Toomey, D. R., McGill, P. R., Barclay, A. H., et al. (2009). The role of magma injection in localizing black-smoker activity. *Nature Geoscience*, *2*, 509-513.

Wilson, D. J., Robinson, A. H., Hobbs, R. W., Peirce, C., & Funnell, M. J. (2019). Does intermediate spreading-rate oceanic crust result from episodic transition between magmatic and magma-dominated, faulting-enhanced spreading?–The Costa Rica Rift example. *Geoph. J. Int.*, *218*, 1617–1641.

Figures



Figure 1. a) Bathymetric map of the Panama Basin delimited by the Cocos and Carnegie Ridges. Spreading centers (CRR - Costa Rica Rift, ER - Ecuador Ridge, GSC - Galapagos Spreading Center) and transform faults (PFZ - Panama Fracture Zone, EFZ - Ecuador Fracture Zone, IT – Inca Transform) are indicated. b) Map of the ocean-bottom seismographs deployed (black triangles) during JC114, corresponding to the dashed white rectangle in a). c) and d) Maps of the North (NG) and South (SG) Grids, respectively, corresponding to the black dashed rectangles in b). Dashed white rectangles indicate zones covered by 3D velocity models, and ODP Hole 504B is indicated by the red dot.



Figure 2. NG microearthquake locations showing only events with horizontal uncertainties $<\pm 15$ km and vertical uncertainties $<\pm 7.5$ km for those located outside the network, and with horizontal uncertainties $<\pm 7.5$ km and vertical uncertainties $<\pm 2.5$ km for those located inside the network. Microearthquakes located with the 1D and 3D velocity models correspond to the orange and red dots, respectively. Black triangles indicate the OBS positions. Error bars correspond to event uncertainties calculated from the best-fit ellipsoid of the probability density function of each event.



Figure 3. (Top) Bathymetric map and microearthquake locations (in and outside the axial valley by red and black dots, respectively) of the NG at the CRR (ridge axis trend dashed black line). Black triangles correspond to OBS positions. (Bottom) East-west cross-section superimposed on the depth migrated MCS profile NG_Bb13 of Lowell et al. (2020). Numbers correspond to different clusters and example focal mechanisms are shown below.



Figure 4. a) Full waveform cross correlation coefficients between events on Figure 3 (OBS 7, vertical component, band-pass filtered between 5 and 20 Hz). b) and c) Time series examples of events belonging to Clusters 1 and 6 (see Figure 3), respectively. Data from the vertical component OBS 7 (see Figure 1 for location), band-pass filtered between 5 and 30 Hz.



Figure 5. Cross-sections of NG microearthquake locations around the CRR, color-coded depending on event date in 2015 from the beginning (top) to the end (bottom) of the deployment.



Figure 6. Time series of two microearthquakes recorded by the SG at a selection of 10 OBSs (vertical component, band-pass filtered between 5 and 50 Hz). See Figure 1 for OBS location.



Figure 7. SG microearthquake locations showing only events with horizontal and vertical uncertainties $<\pm 10$ km. Black triangles indicate the OBS positions. Error bars correspond to event uncertainties calculated from the best-fit ellipsoid of the probability density functions of each event. Focal mechanisms are shown for example deep events.

Supplementary information

For

Local rift and intraplate seismicity reveal shallow crustal fluid-related activity and sub-crustal faulting

By J. B. Tary, R. W. Hobbs, C. Peirce, C. Lesmes Lesmes, M. J. Funnell

Table S1. Main input parameters used for the three NonLinLoc microseismicity locations. NG = North Grid, SG = South Grid.

	NG - 3D velocity		SG - 1D velocity		
	model	NG - 1D velocity model	model		
Grid size (x, y, z)	60 x 60 x 12 km	1400 x 1400 x 60 km	580 x 580 x 38 km		
Grid node spacing (x, y, z)	0.1 x 0.1 x 0.1 km	0.2 x 0.2 x 0.2 km	0.2 x 0.2 x 0.2 km		
Grid-search algorithm	Oct-Tree	Oct-Tree	Oct-Tree		
Likelihood function	Equal differential-time	Equal differential-time	Equal differential-time		
Minimum phase number	6	6	6		

Table S2. Location and focal mechanism characteristics of events with well-resolved solutions. Mw: moment magnitude estimations. RMS: average root-mean-square misfits in travel time. Er. H: horizontal uncertainties. Er. Z: vertical uncertainties. # polarities: number of P-wave polarities used for focal mechanism calculation. Polar. Errors: number of polarity errors in focal mechanism calculation. Δ Strike, Δ Dip, Δ Rake: uncertainty estimates in strike, dip and rake calculated by FPFIT.

							NG								
Time	Longitude	Latitude	Depth	Mw	RMS	Er. H	Er. Z	Strike	Dip	Rake	# Polarities	Polar. Errors	∆ Strike	⊿ Dip	⊿ Rake
Jan 26, 2015 16:24:21	-83.837	3.327	2.4	1.2	0.13	0.5	1.4	199	52	69	17	2	5	5	2
Jan 29, 2015 11:08:39	-84.241	3.094	0.4	3.9	0.16	3.6	6.1	267	77	-40	6	0	4	4	10
Jan 30, 2015 07:51:07	-83.758	3.331	0.6	0.8	0.14	0.8	2.5	131	30	80	11	1	10	14	15
Jan 31, 2015 13:18:38	-83.838	3.329	3.2	0.8	0.11	0.7	1.6	68	55	-84	8	1	50	10	20
Jan 31, 2015 14:20:42	-83.758	3.330	0.8	0.8	0.11	0.5	1.6	89	54	-59	11	0	7	1	1
Feb 01, 2015 06:17:50	-83.842	3.328	3.5	1.0	0.11	0.6	1.1	325	67	-46	12	1	1	1	4
Feb 01, 2015 10:40:55	-83.741	3.326	5.4	0.7	0.08	0.5	1.4	76	41	-41	8	0	8	9	10
Feb 01, 2015 16:21:07	-83.847	3.327	4.2	1.1	0.11	1.5	2.8	101	76	69	13	2	5	4	15
Feb 01, 2015 20:57:54	-83.845	3.330	3.6	1.1	0.10	1.9	3.1	92	31	17	13	0	2	3	22
							SG								
Feb 24, 2015 07:48:22	-83.829	1.150	20.9	1.5	0.23	1.4	1.4	165	84	14	10	1	9	6	4
Feb 24, 2015 07:58:28	-83.835	1.150	21.6	1.4	0.24	1.4	1.5	169	80	12	11	1	5	3	56
Feb 24, 2015 15:10:18	-83.664	1.113	17.6	1.6	0.18	1.1	1.5	1	74	-20	11	1	5	5	2



Figure S1. Seismicity between 1927 and 2020 in the central part of the Panama Basin, as inventoried by the USGS. Events are color-coded depending on their depth and their symbol size indicates their magnitude. Black triangles show OBSs deployed during cruise JC114.



Figure S2. a) Microearthquake locations around the NG showing only events with horizontal uncertainties $<\pm 30$ km and vertical uncertainties $<\pm 15$ km for events located outside the network, and with horizontal uncertainties $<\pm 20$ km and vertical uncertainties $<\pm 10$ km for events located inside the network. Microearthquakes located with the 1D and 3D velocity models correspond to the orange and red dots, respectively. b) Microearthquake locations around the SG showing only events with horizontal and vertical uncertainties $<\pm 20$ km. Black triangles indicates the OBS positions. Error bars correspond to event uncertainties calculated from the best-fit ellipsoid of the probability density function of each event.



Figure S3. Well-resolved focal mechanism solutions with polarities (red: down, black: up). See Table S1 for the characteristics of each solution.



Figure S4. Well-resolved focal mechanism solutions with the final and trial FOCMEC solutions in red and blue, respectively. Polarities are indicated by plus (up) and open circle (down) symbols.



Figure S5. SG microearthquake locations showing only events with horizontal and vertical uncertainties $\leq \pm 10$ km with a faster ($\pm 10\%$ black dots in a) and slower ($\pm 10\%$ blue dots in b) 1D velocity models shown in c). Locations with the intermediate velocity model presented in Figure 5 correspond to the red dots.