

1 **Coherent Spatial Variations in the Productivity of Earthquake**
2 **Sequences in California and Nevada**

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13 The authors have no known conflicts of interest related to this work.

14 **Abstract**

15 Earthquakes are clustered in space and time, with individual sequences comprised of events
16 linked by stress transfer and triggering mechanisms. At a global scale, variations in the
17 productivity of earthquake sequences – a normalized measure of the number of triggered events
18 – have been observed and associated with regional variations in tectonic setting. Here we focus
19 on resolving systematic variations in the productivity of crustal earthquake sequences in
20 California and Nevada, the two most seismically active states in the western US. We apply a
21 well-tested nearest-neighbor algorithm to automatically extract earthquake sequence statistics
22 from a unified 40-year compilation of regional earthquake catalogs that is complete to ~M2.5.
23 We then compare earthquake sequence productivity to geophysical parameters that may
24 influence earthquake processes, including heat flow, temperature at seismogenic depth,
25 complexity of quaternary faulting, geodetic strain rates, depth to crystalline basement, and
26 faulting style. We observe coherent spatial variations in sequence productivity, with higher
27 values in the Walker Lane of eastern California and Nevada than along the San Andreas Fault
28 system in western California. The results illuminate significant correlations between productivity
29 and heat flow, temperature, and faulting that contribute to the understanding and ability to
30 forecast crustal earthquake sequences in the area.

31 **Introduction**

32 One of the most universal observations of earthquakes is their statistical tendency to cluster in
33 space and time, organizing into sequences of events connected via stress transfer mechanisms
34 (e.g., Ben-Zion, 2008). Earthquake sequences occur in many styles, from classical mainshock-
35 aftershock sequences where a prominent large earthquake triggers a burst of seismic activity that
36 decays in space and time (e.g., Omori, 1894), to swarm-like sequences with extended duration
37 and no dominant mainshock (e.g., Hill, 1977). This intrinsic variability in earthquake clustering
38 reflects the heterogeneous environments where earthquakes occur combined with the inherently
39 complex nature of earthquake sequence dynamics, and it has important implications for hazard.

40 What causes some earthquake sequences to be highly productive including thousands of
41 triggered events, while other sequences to have low event rates and rapid cessations of

42 seismicity? This question has been long studied using a variety of techniques and datasets, but
43 few definitive answers have been formalized. Singh and Suárez (1988) identified substantial
44 variations in aftershock activity between circum-Pacific subduction zones, while Davis and
45 Frohlich (1991) noted the relative paucity of aftershocks in oceanic ridge-transform systems.
46 Zaliapin *et al.* (2008) developed a nearest-neighbor algorithm to automatically extract earthquake
47 sequences from catalog data, a method that has since been applied to study clustering statistics in
48 southern California (Zaliapin and Ben-Zion, 2013a, 2013b), in areas of induced seismicity
49 (Goebel *et al.*, 2019), and globally (Zaliapin and Ben-Zion, 2016).

50 Dascher-Cousineau *et al.* (2020) systematically analyzed aftershock event counts derived from a
51 global dataset of large earthquakes. Examining correlations of the results with source- and
52 location-specific parameters, they developed a conceptual model in which aftershock
53 productivity is driven primarily by the availability of nearby faults to activate within the brittle
54 crust, rather than due to source or rupture characteristics, or properties such as temperature and
55 fluid content of the deforming medium. Similarly, Hardebeck (2022) demonstrated that the
56 spatial patterns of aftershocks from select large earthquakes in southern California varies
57 systematically with features derived from stress-change tensors, faulting, and crustal geophysical
58 parameters.

59 The purpose of this article is to develop improved quantification and understanding of crustal
60 earthquake sequences across California and Nevada, where large variations in productivity are
61 widely appreciated (e.g., Hardebeck *et al.*, 2018), yet both states fall within a single tectonic
62 region for global-scale aftershock forecasting models (Page *et al.*, 2016). This work extends
63 earlier studies centered primarily in southern California by including also northern California and
64 Nevada and by explicit consideration of faulting and crustal property metrics for comparison
65 with sequence productivity. We adopt a more inclusive definition of earthquake sequence
66 productivity (described in detail below) that encompasses all events within a sequence, instead of
67 just direct aftershocks of a prominent mainshock. This allows us to assess earthquake swarms,
68 which are common in California and Nevada, alongside the traditional mainshock-aftershock

69 sequences. The results provide new insights into the characteristics of crustal earthquake
70 sequences in the western US.

71 **Data and Methods**

72 We analyze seismicity catalogs compiled by regional seismic networks in California and
73 Nevada, where there are three authoritative monitoring regions: Southern California, Northern
74 California, and Nevada. We combine earthquake catalogs available from each regional data
75 center (see Data and Resources), removing duplicate events in overlapping regions by
76 prioritizing the origin information of the authoritative agency for the region in which each
77 earthquake occurs. The resulting catalog spans more than 40 years (January 1980 through
78 September 2023) and is complete to $\sim \mathbf{M}2.5$ over its duration (Figure S1), with improvements to
79 completeness in more recent years. For this reason, we focus our analysis primarily on $\mathbf{M} \geq 2.5$
80 earthquakes recorded during this time period. It is important to recognize that the magnitude
81 scales adopted by each regional network are different, which may cause some inconsistencies for
82 smaller earthquakes. We therefore also repeat and confirm the general findings of the analysis
83 described below with only subset of earthquakes with $\mathbf{M} \geq 3$, where network magnitude
84 estimates are broadly consistent with each other and with available moment magnitude estimates
85 (Figure S2).

86 We isolate earthquake sequences from the unified California-Nevada catalog using the nearest
87 neighbor algorithm defined by Zaliapin et al. (2008) and developed further in subsequent studies
88 (Zaliapin and Ben-Zion, 2013a, 2013b, 2016). In this method, each earthquake j is initially
89 associated with a parent earthquake I that is its nearest neighbor in space and time, with a
90 distance metric of the form:

$$91 \quad \eta_{ij} = 10^{-bM_i} T_{ij} R_{ij}^d, \quad (1)$$

92 where M_i is the magnitude of the parent event, and T_{ij} and R_{ij} are the temporal offset and
93 epicentral distances between parent and daughter events. We set the b -value to 1.0 and fractal
94 dimension d to 1.6, which are representative values for seismicity in this region (Zaliapin and
95 Ben-Zion, 2013b, see also Figure S2). Linked events are partitioned into clusters by imposing a
96 threshold distance η_0 beyond which neighboring events are separated as in a random process and

97 are referred to as background earthquakes. The choice of this threshold is somewhat subjective;
98 we use a catalog shuffling approach that preserves the magnitude distribution of the input catalog
99 to determine an appropriate value (Goebel *et al.*, 2019, Figure S3). While the precise value of
100 η_0 may influence the classification of individual events, the relative variations in sequence
101 summary statistics are insensitive to η_0 (Zaliapin and Ben-Zion, 2013a). We focus on a subset of
102 341 crustal earthquake sequences that have mainshock (i.e., largest event) with $M \geq 4.5$ (Figure
103 1a), which ensures a bandwidth of at least 2 magnitude units between the largest event and the
104 completeness magnitude of 2.5. These sequences only include mainshocks occurring at least six
105 months before the end of our catalog, to prevent artificial truncation of sequences in progress.
106 The separation of the analyzed events into background and clustered earthquakes is shown in
107 Figure 1b.

108 For each earthquake sequence, we track the faulting style based on the normalized rake angle of
109 the sequence mainshock (Figure 1a). The physical environment in which earthquakes occur is
110 known to influence seismicity and aftershock triggering (e.g., Hauksson, 2011; Hardebeck,
111 2022). With this in mind, we also compile several geophysical datasets that can be represented as
112 spatial fields that cover our study region (Figure 2). These datasets include: (i) a smoothed
113 representation of surface heat flow in the western US (Mordensky and DeAngelo, 2023), (ii)
114 estimates of subsurface temperature at the median hypocentral depth of each sequence, derived
115 following the method of Shinevar *et al.* (2018), (iii) the second invariant of the strain rate tensor
116 inverted from GNSS data (Kreemer *et al.*, 2014), (iv) depth-to-basement maps, which provide
117 estimates of sedimentary basement thickness (Shah and Boyd, 2018), and (v) the US Geological
118 Survey Quaternary Fault database (see Data and Resources), from which we calculate two
119 surface trace fault complexity metrics (Chu *et al.*, 2021): fault misalignment, a normalized
120 measure of the variability of fault orientations within a geographic region, and fault density, a
121 normalized measure of spatial density of mapped faults within a geographic region. Most of
122 these datasets are motivated primarily by earlier studies of aftershock productivity in southern
123 California (e.g., Yang and Ben-Zion, 2009; Hardebeck, 2022). The fault complexity metrics are
124 new in this context and motivated by the fact that the background stress field and stress changes
125 produced by earthquakes, affecting triggering potential, may depend on both the density and

126 variability in orientation of nearby faults. Recent laboratory experiments, for example, have
127 demonstrated that fault roughness promotes aftershock productivity (Goebel *et al.*, 2023).

128 **Results**

129 To characterize variations in earthquake sequence productivity across California and Nevada, we
130 first count the total number of events in each sequence above the completeness magnitude of 2.5.
131 We then correct for the fact that the total count increases with magnitude $\sim 10^M$ (Figure 3a), and
132 define the “sequence productivity factor”. This measures, on a log scale, how productive an
133 earthquake sequence is compared to a typical sequence with the same mainshock magnitude.
134 Sequence productivity factors of ~ 0 indicate typical productivity, while factors of ± 1 indicate
135 10 times more or fewer events produced than expected for a given mainshock magnitude. This is
136 similar to the productivity measure of Dascher-Cousineau *et al.* (2020), except that it
137 encompasses all events in the sequence rather than just the early aftershocks, to be inclusive of
138 earthquake swarm activity without dominant mainshocks. To improve the robustness and
139 generality of our results, we also consider two alternative productivity metrics: the rate of
140 aftershocks in the first 10 days following the sequence mainshock, and estimates of Omori
141 productivity parameter obtained using the technique of Yang and Ben-Zion (2009). These
142 alternative metrics more directly measure the seismicity rates in the early part of aftershock
143 sequence and productivity of classical aftershock sequences, which have been the focus of
144 previous studies. Since all three metrics are well-correlated (Figure S4), we focus here primarily
145 on the sequence productivity factor.

146 We observe systematic spatial variations in sequence productivity across California and Nevada
147 (Figure 3b; see Figure S5 for comparable results using the $M \geq 3$ event subset). As noted by
148 Hardebeck *et al.* (2018), offshore earthquakes near the Mendocino Triple Junction exhibit
149 unusually low productivity, while events in areas of hydrothermal activity like Coso and the
150 Salton trough exhibit unusually high productivity. Our analysis, which includes several recent
151 prominent earthquake sequences in eastern California and Nevada (e.g., 2019 Ridgecrest, 2020
152 Monte Cristo, 2021 Antelope Valley), newly highlights the enhanced earthquake productivity of
153 the Walker Lane, the tectonic province that strikes along the California-Nevada border (e.g.,
154 Wesnousky, 2005). Previous studies noted the discrepancy between aftershock productivity of

155 northern and southern California (e.g., Reasenber and Jones, 1989). Including Nevada within a
156 unified analysis framework underscores the difference between the comparatively unproductive
157 sequences along the plate boundary faults in western California and the incipient structures of
158 eastern California and western Nevada. The most productive sequence in our dataset is the 2014-
159 2018 Sheldon earthquake sequence in northwest Nevada (Trugman *et al.*, 2023), which was
160 approximately 100x more productive than a typical sequence with mainshock magnitude 4.8
161 (Figure 3a).

162 The spatial pattern of sequence productivity bears some visual relations with the compiled
163 geophysical parameters, particularly heat flow and the two fault complexity metrics:
164 misalignment and density. We can quantify this more formally by computing the statistical
165 correlations between sequence productivity factor and our set of geophysical parameters,
166 spatially interpolated at the sequence locations. For this, we use the Spearman rank correlation
167 coefficient to measure the strength of the relation without assuming a linear correspondence.
168 This analysis (Figure 4) supports the qualitative comparisons in map view: heat flow, fault
169 misalignment, and fault density are all positively correlated with sequence productivity.
170 Temperature and mechanism type show weak negative correlations with productivity, while the
171 correlation of productivity with strain rate and depth-to-basement are negligible.

172 An important question for hazard assessment is whether there is a relation between sequence
173 productivity and the background rate of earthquake activity. We address this question with our
174 dataset by estimating the background seismicity rate on a spatial grid using the mainshock events
175 identified by the nearest-neighbor method. We find a weak positive correlation between
176 background rate and sequence productivity (Figure S6), but this relation can only account for a
177 small fraction of the observed variance in productivity. Indeed, some locations with the highest
178 rates of background seismicity, like Mendocino and near Los Angeles, have anomalously low
179 productivity.

180 **Discussion**

181 Our analysis newly reveals spatially coherent variations in earthquake sequence productivity
182 across California and Nevada that are correlated with several geophysical parameters, notably
183 surface heat flow, temperature at seismogenic depth, and fault complexity. It is important to

184 recognize that these correlations do not necessarily imply causation; it is possible that there are
185 other factors not considered in this study that control productivity, some of which may correlate
186 with the more readily measurable parameters we examine. Mechanical models can be used to
187 suggest causal relations between properties of the crust and seismicity (e.g., Ben-Zion and
188 Lyakhovsky, 2006), but a definitive demonstration of causality is in general a difficult task.

189 Nevertheless, we can gain additional insight by developing a statistical model in which different
190 geophysical parameters of interest are used in combination as feature variables to predict
191 sequence productivity as a target variable. Because we do not anticipate these relations to be
192 linear, we use the explicit machine learning algorithm XGBoost (Chen and Guestrin, 2016),
193 which is adept at capturing nonlinear relations but uses a simple enough, tree-based
194 computational framework that permits full model interpretability and is insensitive to the
195 normalization of the input features. To prevent overfitting, we tune model hyperparameters using
196 a Bayesian optimization approach applied to a cross-validation score (Rouet-Leduc *et al.*, 2019).
197 In this approach, the dataset is repeatedly divided into training and testing folds, and the mean-
198 squared error is assessed on data from the testing folds, which the trained model has not seen.
199 The final XGBoost model used in our analysis is trained with the hyperparameters identified
200 from the top-performing models in the cross-validation step.

201 The performance of the XGBoost model (Figure 5a) is significantly better than is possible
202 through multivariate linear regression applied to the same (normalized) feature variables (Figure
203 S7), with the XGBoost model achieving an R^2 value (i.e., the fraction of data variance explained)
204 of 0.70 compared to 0.29 for multivariate regression. While the XGBoost model predictions are
205 not perfect and tend to be slightly conservative – e.g., underpredicting the productivity of
206 extreme sequences like Sheldon – the model appears to capture sufficiently the statistical
207 relations that we can confidently assess feature importance: i.e., input variables most useful in
208 predicting sequence productivity.

209 We use for this purpose the SHAP technique (Lundberg and Lee, 2017), which applies a game-
210 theoretical framework to attribute importance scores to the input features of explicit machine
211 learning models like XGBoost. The advantage of SHAP over analogous techniques is its capacity
212 to consistently disentangle effects of multiple input variables that may be mutually correlated.

213 The attribution scores provided by SHAP are additive, meaning that the sum of the SHAP values
214 for any set of inputs is equal to the target prediction. Averaged across the dataset, larger SHAP
215 values indicate variables that are more important to the model's prediction. For our target
216 variable of sequence productivity that is centered at zero, positive or negative SHAP values
217 imply that the feature value is associated with higher or lower than average productivity,
218 respectively.

219 The results of this analysis are presented graphically in Figure 5b, where input features are
220 ranked by importance, with the distribution of SHAP values displayed as color-coded points that
221 denote the corresponding feature value. Heat flow is the most important predictive variable, with
222 the clear gradient from blue to red indicating a consistent positive relation with productivity.
223 Temperature, closely followed by fault misalignment and fault density, are ranked next in
224 importance. Temperature has a negative correlation with productivity (colder sequences are more
225 productive), while fault misalignment and fault density have a positive correlation with
226 productivity. The relations between productivity and strain rate, mechanism type, and depth to
227 basement are comparatively weak. The distributions of SHAP values for each feature variable
228 are displayed in Figure 5c, where the nonlinearity of these relationships becomes apparent. For
229 example, the values of highest misalignment are most clearly associated with increased
230 productivity. Likewise, while productivity appears to increase monotonically with heat flow, the
231 extreme values on both the low and high exhibit the strongest relations.

232 Previous studies in California considered the relation between aftershock statistics and surface
233 heat flow, with somewhat conflicting results. Enescu *et al.* (2009) and Yang and Ben-Zion
234 (2009) present evidence that more productive earthquake sequences occur in regions with lower
235 surface heat flow, while Nandan *et al.* (2017) observe a positive correlation between productivity
236 and heat flow. This discrepancy may arise in part due to data availability – the dataset of Nandan
237 *et al.* (2017) is both more recent and more spatially extensive than those considered by Enescu *et al.*
238 *et al.* (2009) and Yang and Ben-Zion (2009) – but also may be influenced by modeling
239 assumptions. In particular, Yang and Ben-Zion (2009) measure productivity by estimating Omori
240 parameters from stacked aftershock sequences, Enescu *et al.* (2009) estimated the magnitude-
241 dependent productivity parameter derived from Epidemic Type Aftershock Sequence (ETAS)
242 models, and Nandan *et al.* (2017) solve for spatially-varying ETAS coefficients for their entire

243 study region. The swarm-type sequences may be at the core of the problem, since the Omori
244 parameters are not well-defined for swarms and the ETAS model is also not well-suited to model
245 swarms (Zaliapin and Ben-Zion, 2013b).

246 Our study uses a productivity metric that avoids the need to assume a particular triggering model
247 like Omori or ETAS, and includes several other geophysical parameters of potential interest. We
248 find a positive correlation between productivity and heat flow, in agreement with Nandan et al.
249 (2017), but also demonstrate that the temperature condition in the seismogenic zone, which
250 depends both on the surface heat flow and the depth of the triggered events, is negatively
251 correlated with productivity. This observation is compatible with the damage rheology model of
252 Ben-Zion and Lyakhovsky (2006) and the results of Yang and Ben-Zion (2009) in which the
253 effective viscosity of the crust controls aftershock statistics. Moreover, we newly identify the
254 importance of faulting complexity with productivity, with more productive earthquake sequences
255 tending to occur in areas with complex and dense networks of mapped Quaternary faults.

256 It is important to recognize that all the geophysical datasets we consider have spatial limitations,
257 areas of incompleteness, and various forms of uncertainty. For example, heat flow maps are
258 spatially smoothed and may not precisely represent the heat flow observed at any geographic
259 point, while the faulting and strain measurements are derived (primarily) from onshore
260 observations with finite spatial resolution and variable completeness. The Quaternary fault
261 database, while exceptionally detailed in California and Nevada, tracks only surficial features
262 and not the geometry at hypocentral depth. The true strength of the statistical connections
263 between these parameters and productivity are likely to be muted by these limitations, and other
264 parameters not considered in this work, like fluids and local geology, may provide additional
265 insight and could be studied in detail in future work.

266 We demonstrate that earthquake sequences in the Walker Lane, an incipient zone of deformation
267 along the California-Nevada, are significantly more productive compared to their counterparts
268 along the San Andreas fault system that comprises the present Pacific-North American plate
269 boundary. Across the Walker Lane, earthquake swarms with high seismicity rates are particularly
270 common, where productivity is perhaps further enhanced by the presence of structurally complex
271 and dense networks of active faults. In addition to the geophysical parameters considered in our

272 analysis, this difference may also reflect the anomalously low resolved shear stress on faults of
273 the San Andreas system implied by the lack of observable frictional heat and other evidence
274 summarized by Ben-Zion (2001). Whether or not the obtained relations on earthquake sequence
275 productivity generalize beyond California and Nevada to other crustal faults will need to be
276 assessed in future work. But even within the context of the western United States, the results
277 have important implications for our physical understanding of earthquake triggering and seismic
278 hazard. Developing improved physical or statistical models that accurately capture such
279 systematic regional variations in productivity is an important frontier in earthquake dynamics.

280 **Data and Resources**

281 Earthquake catalog data for this study were obtained from the Southern California Earthquake
282 Data Center (https://service.scedc.caltech.edu/eq-catalogs/date_mag_loc.php), Northern
283 California Earthquake Data Center (<https://www.ncedc.org/ncedc/catalog-search.html>), and the
284 Nevada Seismological Laboratory (<http://www.seismo.unr.edu/Earthquake>). The compiled
285 earthquake catalog spanning these monitoring jurisdictions is available on Zenodo
286 (<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.8411208>). Data processing was performed in Python and Julia,
287 with geographic figures produced using PyGMT (<https://www.pygmt.org/dev/overview.html>).
288 Quaternary faults and fold data were obtained from the USGS database
289 (<https://www.sciencebase.gov/catalog/item/589097b1e4b072a7ac0cae23>).

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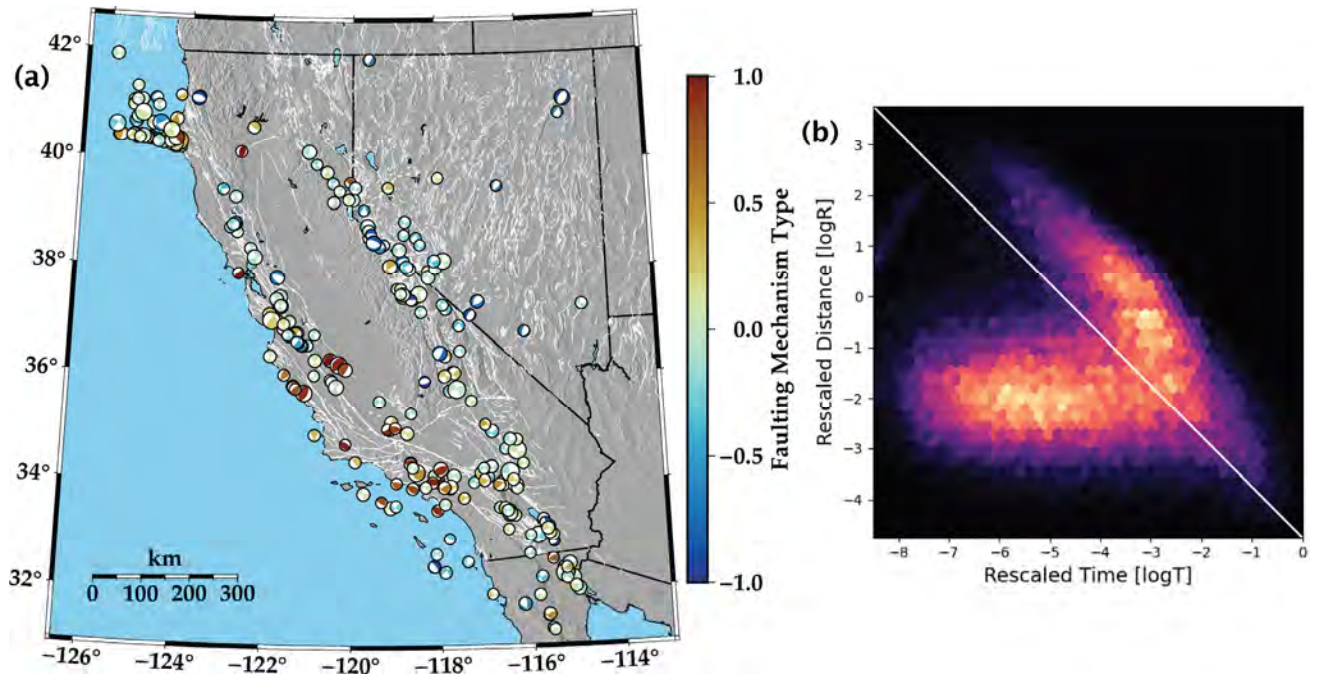
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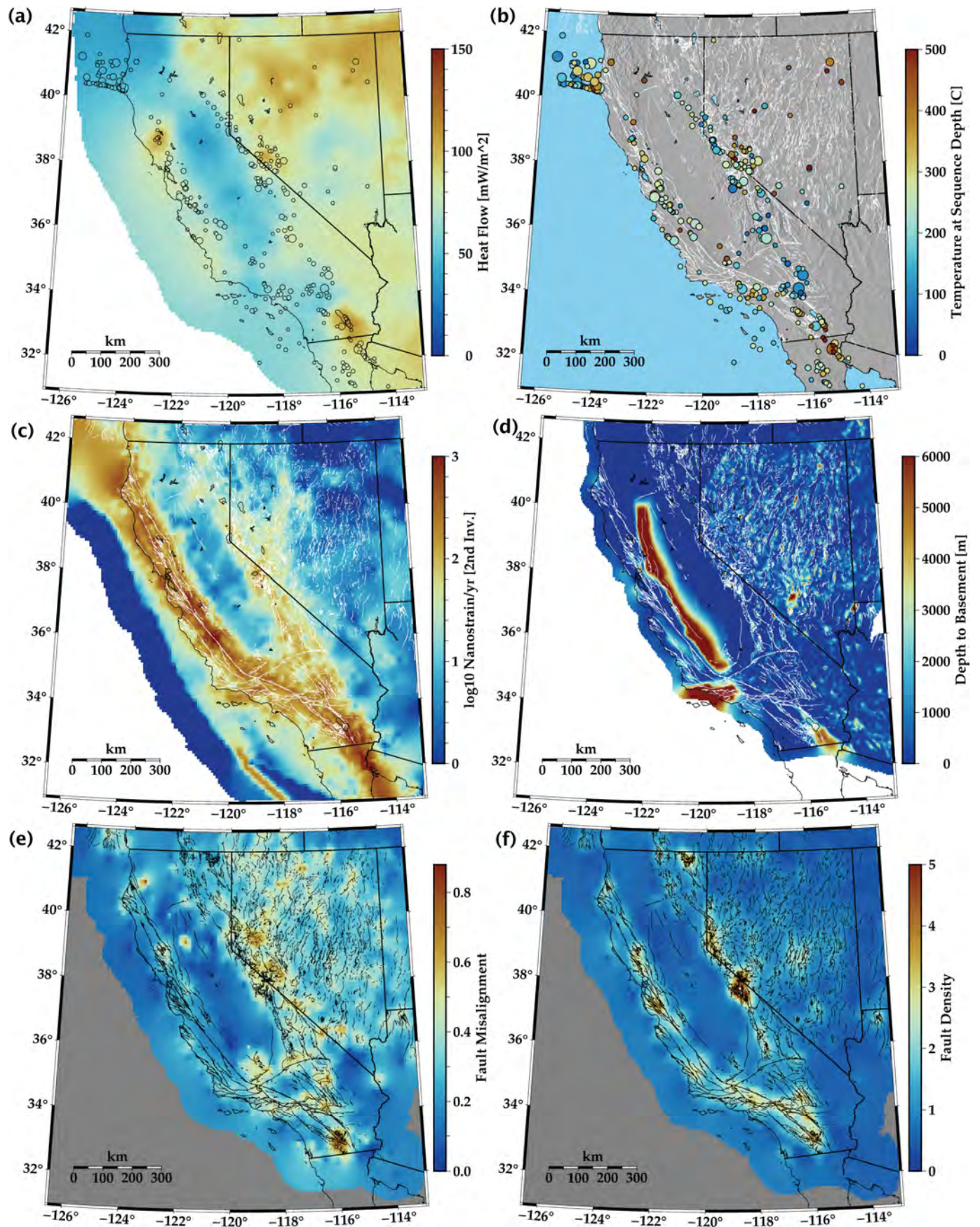
403 **Figures**



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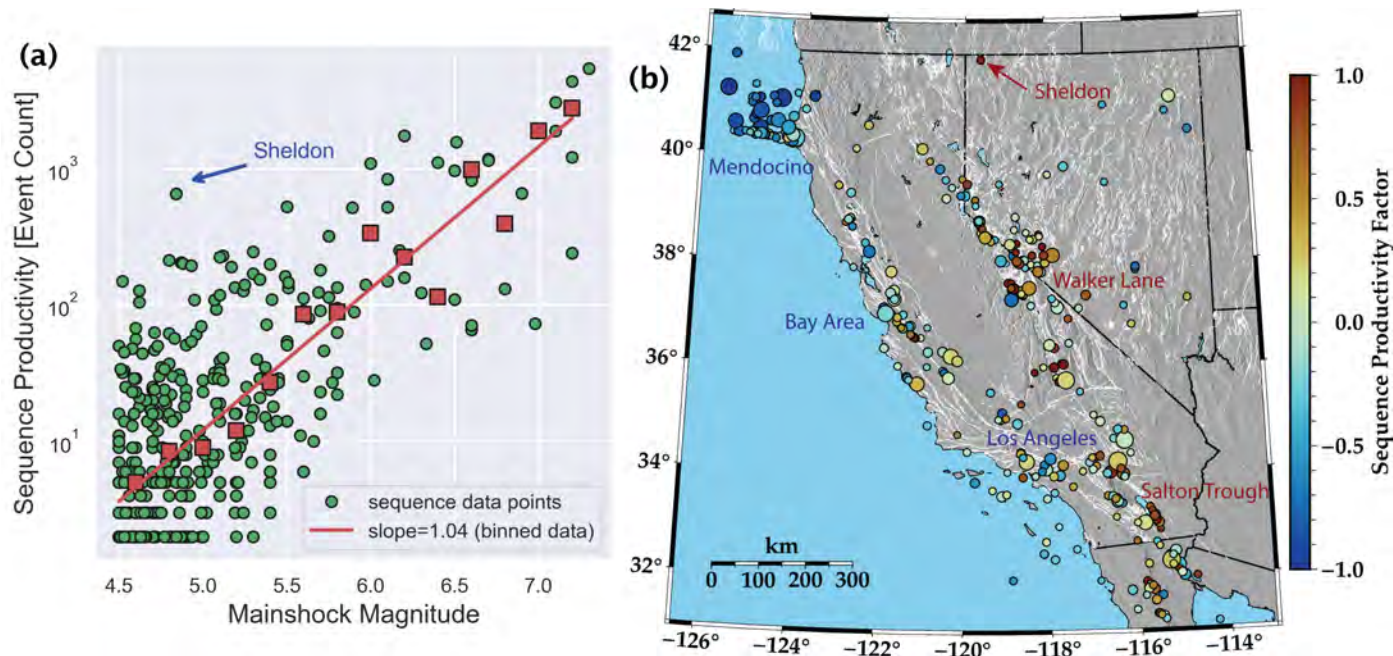
405 **Figure 1.** (a) Overview map of the study region with $M \geq 4.5$ sequences analyzed in this study
406 denoted by their mainshock mechanism and color-coded by mechanism type, where values of -1,
407 0 and 1 correspond to normal, strike-slip, and reverse faulting, respectively. (b) Graphical
408 representation of the distribution of nearest-neighbor rescaled distance $10^{-0.5bM_i} R_{ij}$ versus
409 rescaled time $10^{-0.5bM_i} T_{ij}$, plotted on a log-log with the cutoff threshold used in this study
410 marked as a solid line.

411



413 **Figure 2.** Map view representations of geophysical parameters in the western US: (a) surface
 414 heat flow, (b) temperature at the seismogenic depth of each sequence, (c) second invariant of the
 415 strain rate tensor, (d) depth to crystalline basement, (e) fault misalignment, (f) fault density.

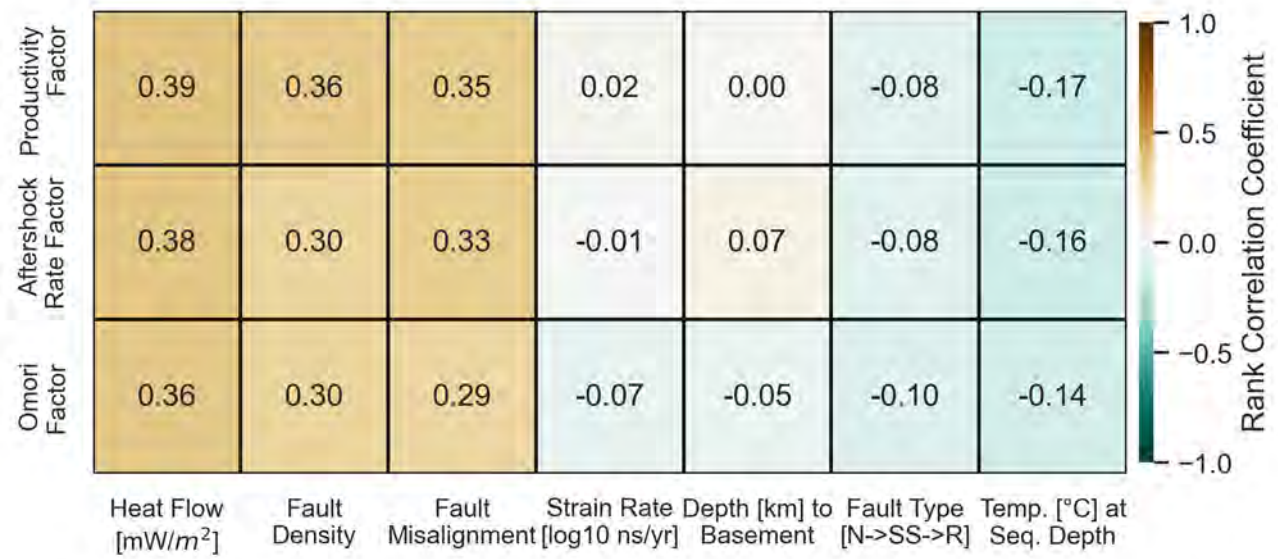
416



417 **Figure 3.** (a) Scaling of total sequence productivity with magnitude, with individual sequences
 418 marked in green and binned data marked in red. The sequence productivity factor metric used in
 419 this study corrects for this trend and measures the deviation from expected productivity at a
 420 given mainshock magnitude (red line), on a logarithmic scale. (b) Map view representations of
 421 sequence productivity factors. Productivity is higher in eastern California and the Walker Lane
 422 than in western California and offshore Mendocino.

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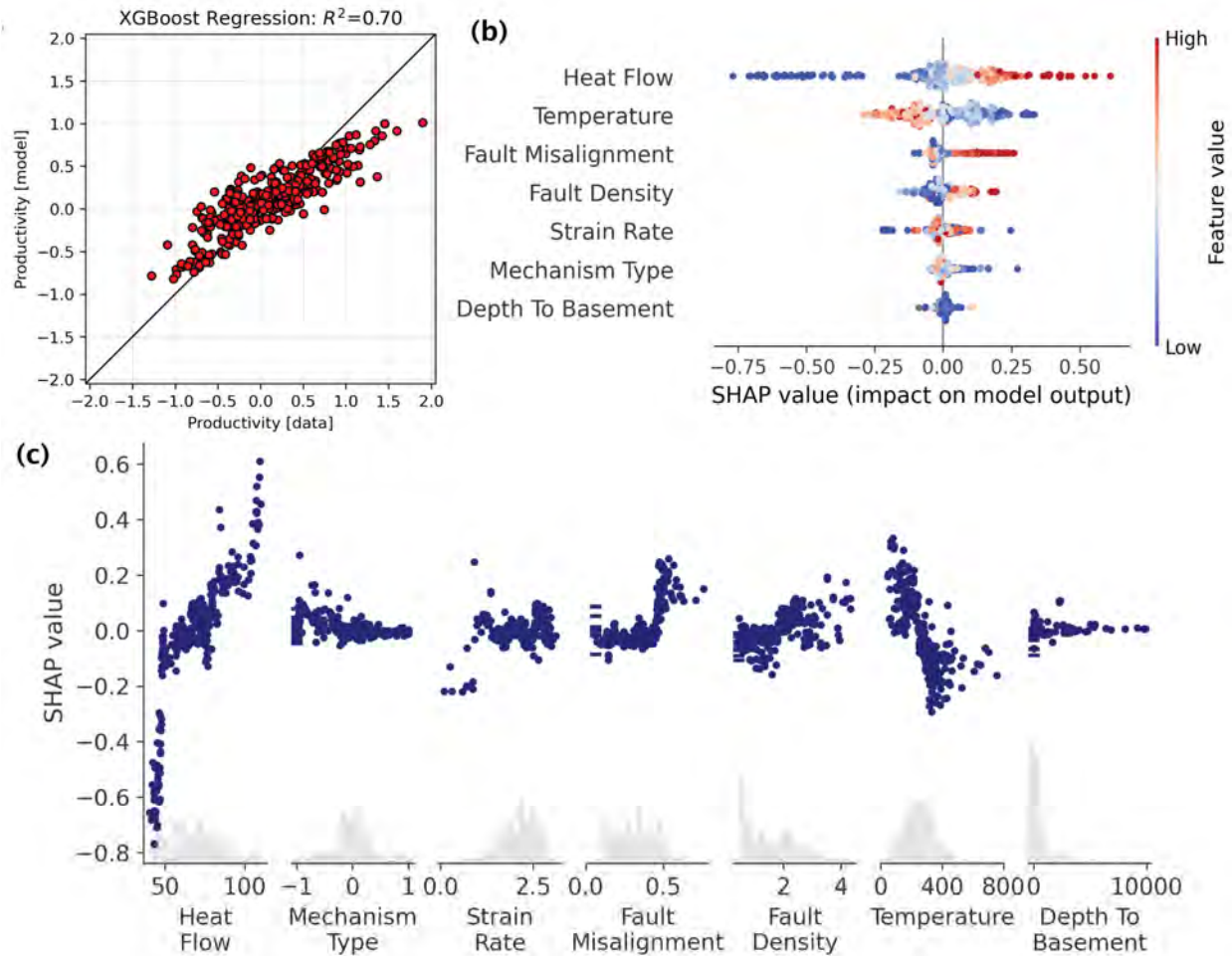
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427 **Figure 4.** Correlation matrix between geophysical parameters (columns) and sequence
428 productivity factor (top row) as well as alternative productivity metrics: aftershock rate and
429 Omori parameter (middle and bottom rows). Warm and cool colors indicate positive and
430 negative rank correlations, respectively.

431



432
 433 **Figure 5.** Machine learning analysis of earthquake sequence productivity. (a) Performance of the
 434 XGBoost model for predicting sequence productivity, plotting measured productivity factors on
 435 the x-axis versus model predictions on the y-axis. (b) SHAP value distributions (x-axis) for each
 436 input feature, ranked by importance and with individual observations color-coded by relative
 437 feature values (low to high). The spread of the SHAP value distribution along the x-axis
 438 indicates the magnitude of the feature importance, while the colorscale can be used to identify
 439 the sign of the relation between feature value and SHAP value. (c) SHAP values plotted as a
 440 function of each geophysical input feature, highlighting nonlinear relations discernable in (b).
 441 Feature values associated with negative and positive SHAP values are associated with lower or
 442 higher predicted values of sequence productivity, respectively.

Electronic Supplement to:

Coherent Spatial Variations in the Productivity of Earthquake Sequences in California and Nevada

By Daniel T. Trugman and Yehuda Ben-Zion

Overview

This document contains supplementary figures that support the results presented in the main text.

Figure S1 shows the data used to infer magnitude of completeness for the combined catalogs. Figure S2 displays other catalog statistics, including moment/network magnitude relations, estimates of b -value and fractal dimension to support the parameters used in this study. Figure S3 shows the nearest-neighbor distance distribution used to determine an appropriate threshold to separate clustered from background seismicity. Figure S4 compares different measures of productivity. Figure S5 presents results for an $M3+$ event subset of the $M2.5+$ dataset focused on in the main text. Figure S6 displays the relation between background rate and sequence productivity. Figure S7 compares multivariate linear regression and XGBoost models to predict sequence productivity.

Figures

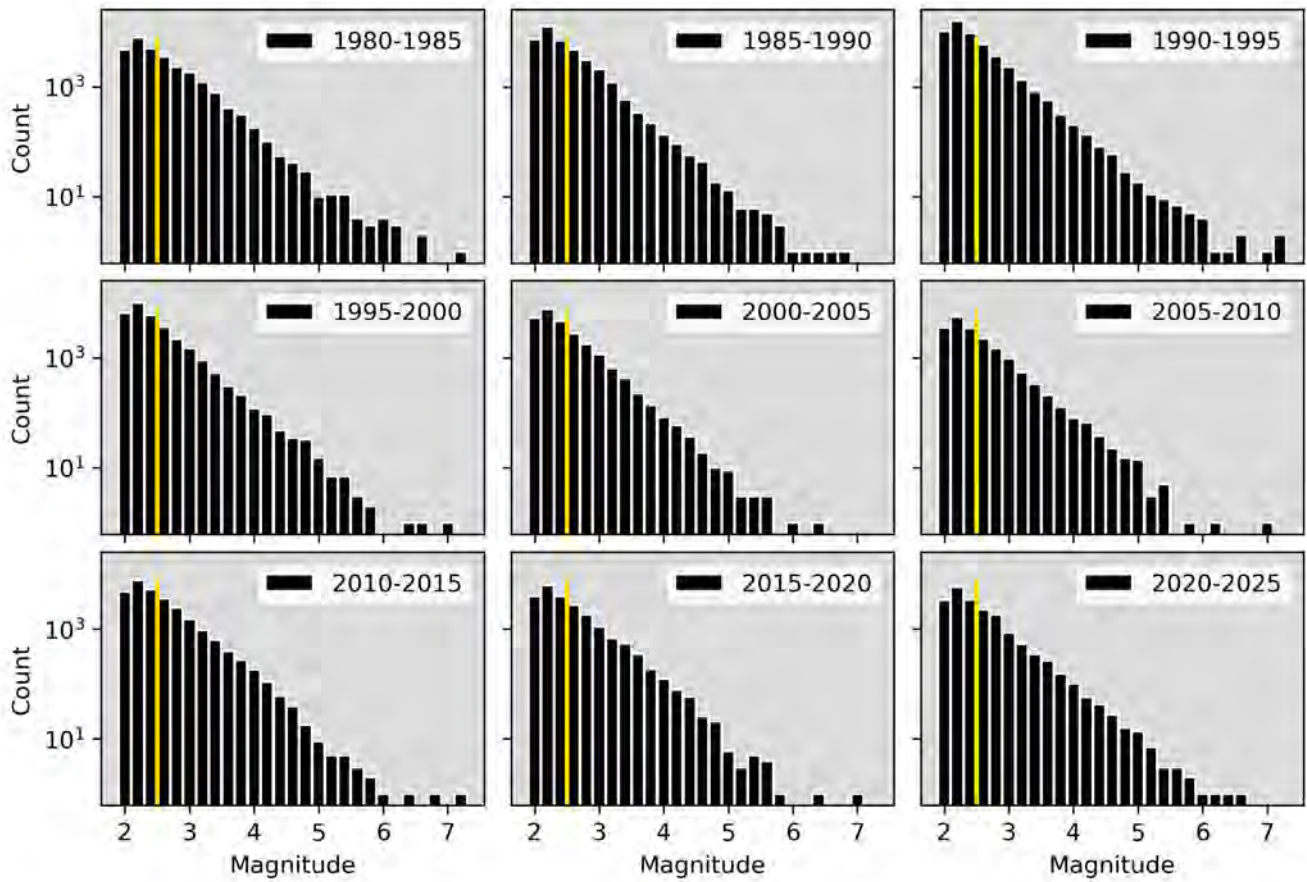


Figure S1. Magnitude distributions of the combined California-Nevada earthquake catalog within different time periods. Estimates for the magnitude of completeness of each time period, obtained from the maximum curvature approach with a shift of 0.3 units, are marked in gold and is $M_{2.5}$ or less for all time periods.

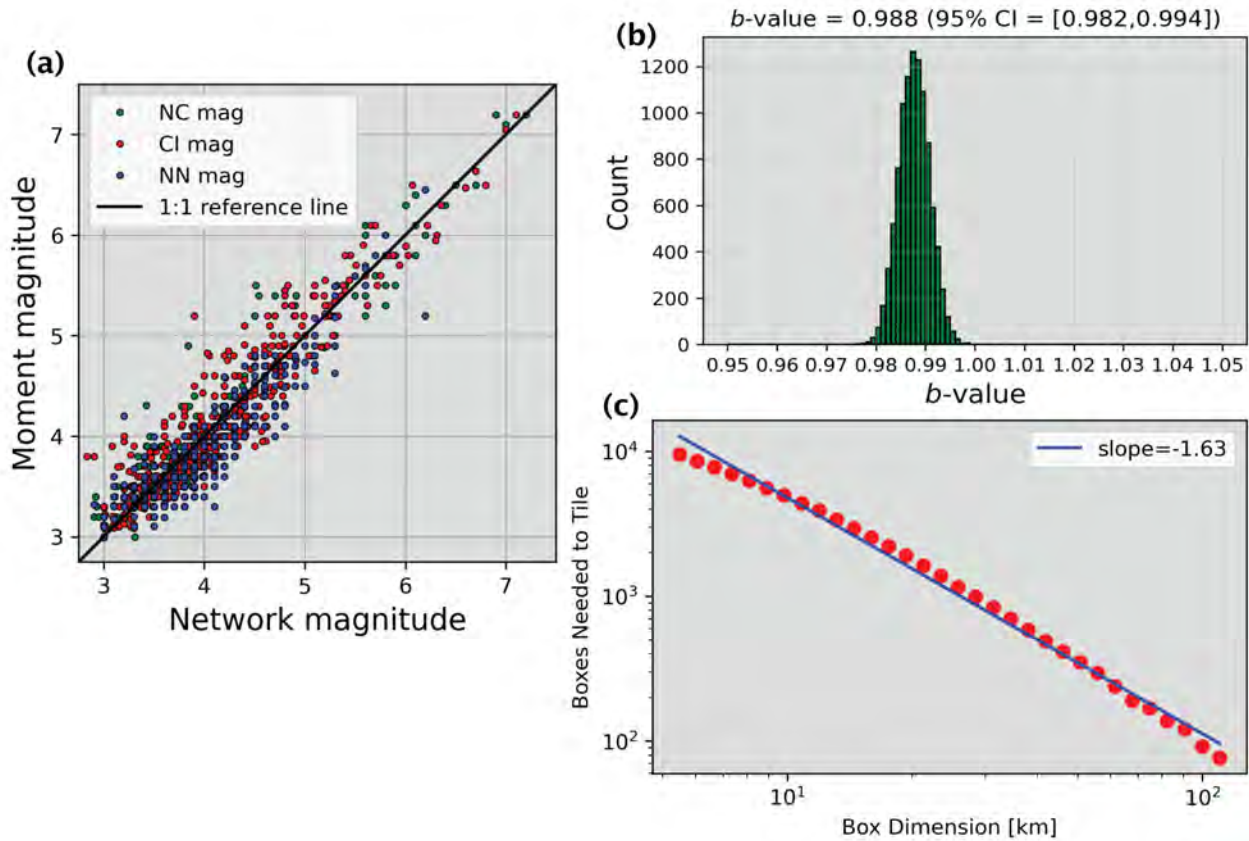


Figure S2. (a) Relation between magnitude estimate by individual seismic networks (NC=Northern California, CI=Southern California, NN=Nevada) and moment magnitude. For $M3$ and greater, the network magnitudes are consistent with M_w and fall along the 1:1 line. (b) Estimation of (b) b-value using the maximum-likelihood method and bootstrap resampling to obtain uncertainties, and (c) fractal dimension estimation using a standard box-counting approach. These results support the parameter values used in the nearest neighbor analysis in this study.

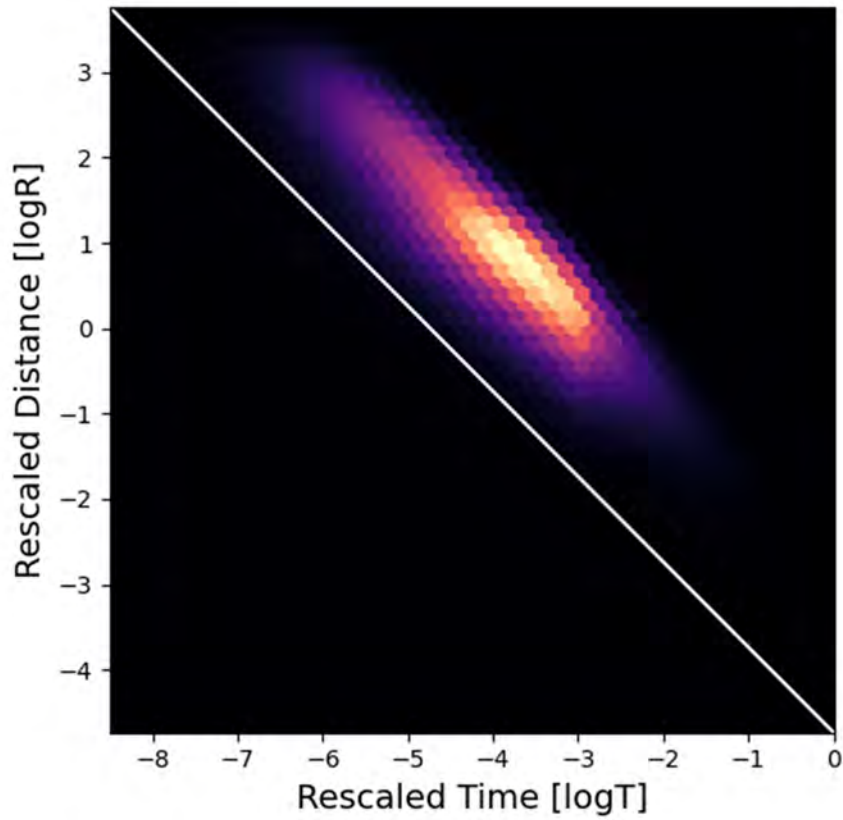


Figure S3. Distribution of rescaled nearest neighbor distances from 100 stacked space-time shuffled versions of the combined California-Nevada catalog analyzed in this study. In each shuffled dataset, magnitudes are preserved. The selected threshold distance of -4.75 (in log unit) comes from the 2nd percentile of the nearest-neighbor distribution of the stacked catalogs.

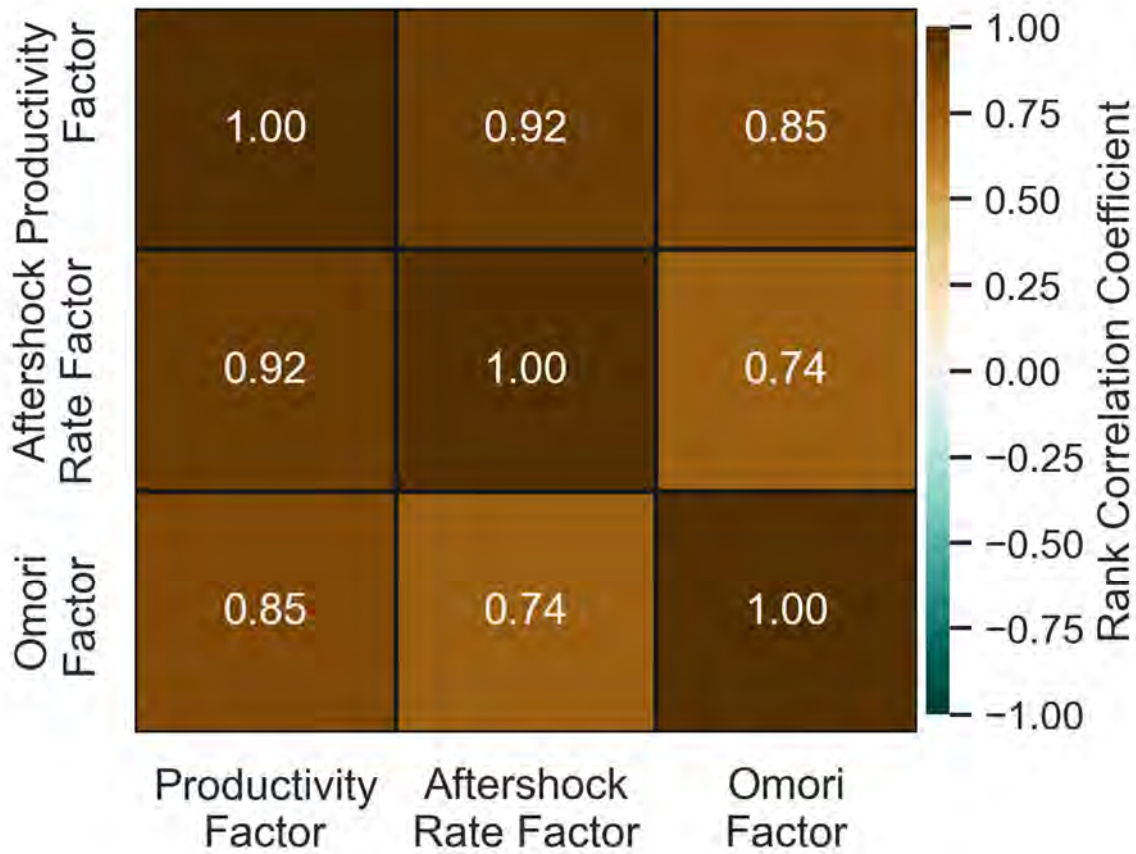


Figure S4. Correlation matrix between three different measures of productivity: sequence productivity factor, aftershock rate, and Omori parameter. The sequence productivity factor is the primary focus of this study and correlates with aftershock rate and Omori parameter at the 0.92 and 0.85 level.

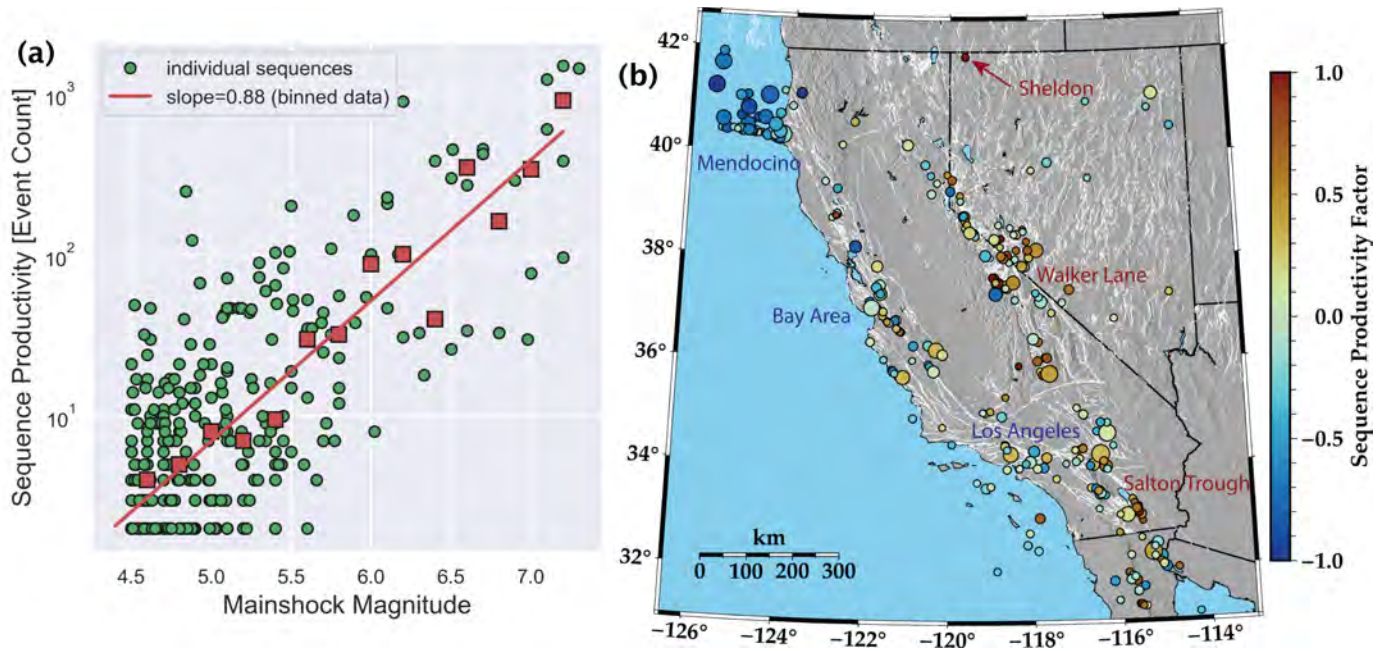


Figure S5. Sequence productivity measures for $M3+$ seismicity, analogous to Figure 3 in the main text which uses $M2.5+$ seismicity. The similarity of the spatial patterns implies that the overall findings are robust to the choice of minimum magnitude.

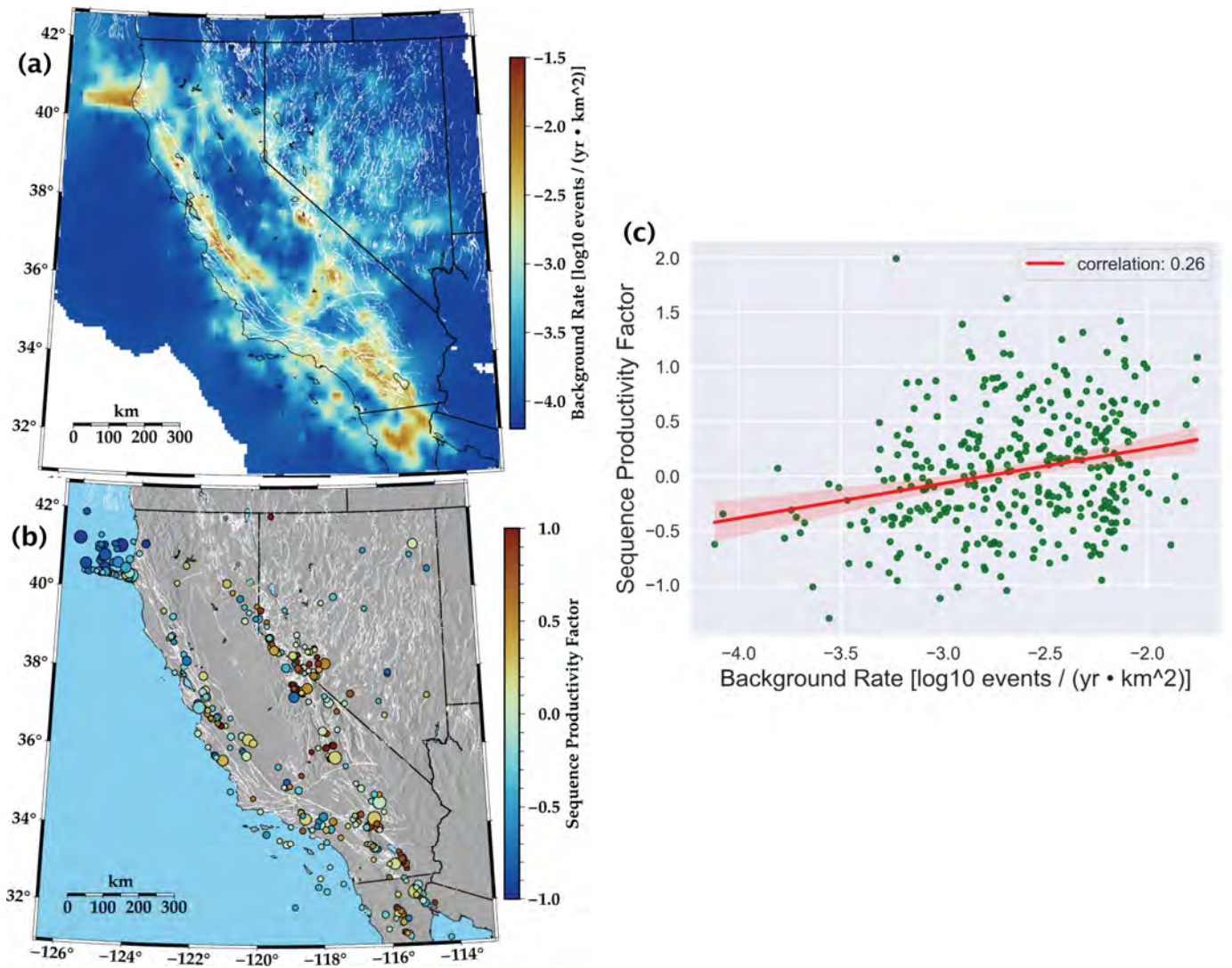


Figure S6. Comparison of (a) background seismicity rate, inferred from the spatial pattern of mainshocks identified by the nearest-neighbor analysis with (b) sequence productivity factors, as displayed in Figure 3 of the main text. There is a weak positive correlation (c), but much of the scatter in productivity is not explained by variations in background rate.

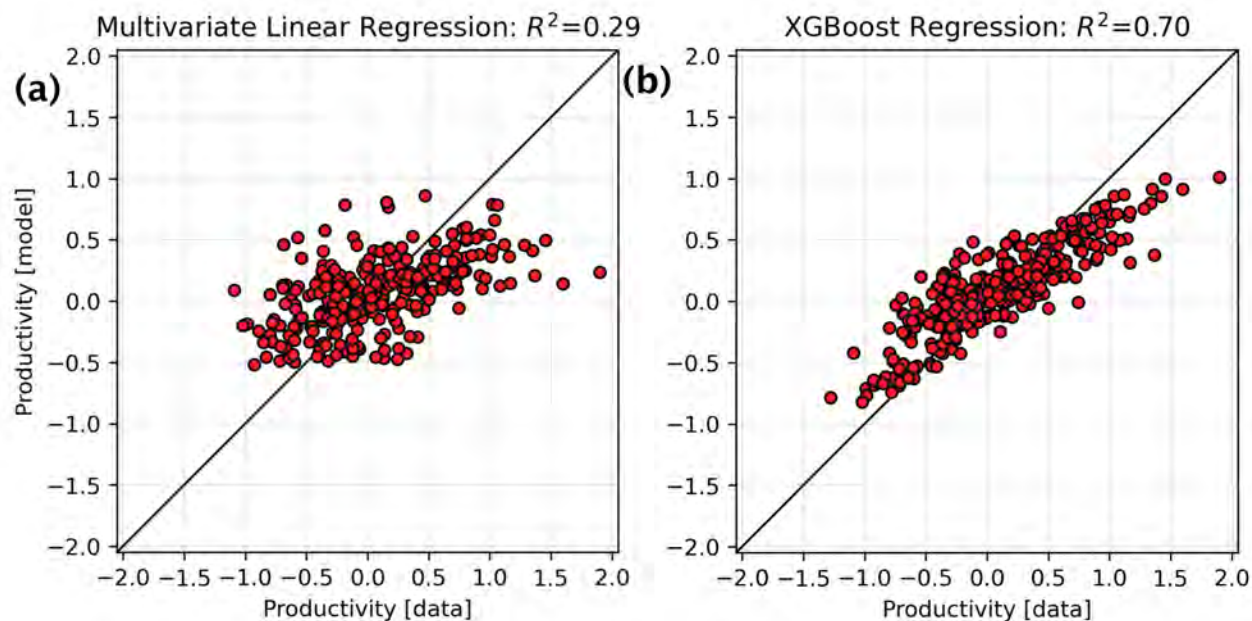


Figure S7. Comparison of model performance of (a) multivariate linear regression and (b) XGBoost regression, with hyperparameters optimized through a Bayesian cross-validation scheme. The XGBoost model vastly outperforms the multivariate linear model and does not require normalization of the input features. The R^2 statistic (related to the fraction of variance explained) is listed in each figure panel title: 0.29 for multivariate linear regression and 0.70 for XGBoost.