Active tectonics, Quaternary stress regime evolution and seismotectonic faults in
 southern central Hispaniola: implications for the quantitative seismic hazard
 assessment

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15 Key Points:

• Active faults in central southern Hispaniola are controlled by NE-directed shortening

Quaternary stress regime evolution includes a compressional D1 followed by a strike-slip D2,
 locally coeval with an extensional D3.

• Modeling establishes a very high seismic hazard zone centered in the Ocoa Bay

20 Abstract

Present-day convergence between Caribbean and North American plates is accommodated by subduction zones, major active thrust and strike-slip faults, which are probably the source of the historical large earthquakes on Hispaniola. However, little is known of their geometric and kinematic characteristics, slip rates and seismic activity over time. This information is important to understand the active tectonics in Hispaniola, but it is also crucial to estimate the seismic hazard in the region.

Here we show that a relatively constant NE-directed shortening controlled the geometry and kinematics of main active faults in central southern Hispaniola, as well as the evolution of the Quaternary stress regime. This evolution included a pre-Early Pleistocene D1 event of NE-trending compression, which gave rise to the large-scale fold and thrust structure in the Cordillera Central, Peralta Belt, Sierra Martín García and San Juan-Azua basin. This was followed by a near pure strike31 slip D2 stress regime, partitioned into the N-S to NE-SW transverse Ocoa-Bonao-La Guácara and 32 Beata Ridge fault zones, as well as subordinate structures in related sub-parallel deformation corridors. Shift to D2 strike-slip deformation was related to indentation of the Beata Ridge in 33 southern Hispaniola from the Early to Middle Pleistocene and continues today. D2 was locally 34 coeval by a more heterogeneous and geographically localized D3 extensional deformation. Defined 35 seismotectonic fault zones divide the region into a set of simplified seismogenic zones as starting 36 37 point for a seismic hazard modeling. Highest peak ground acceleration values computed in the Ocoa Bay establish a very high seismic hazard. 38

39 1. Introduction

The present-day convergence between the Caribbean and North American plates is partially 40 accommodated within Hispaniola Island (Dominican Republic and Haiti). As consequence, this 41 42 region contains a number of major active faults with lengths of up to several hundred kilometres that 43 stand out as geomorphological and tectonic features (Mann et al., 1991a, 2002; Hernaiz Huerta & 44 Pérez-Estaún, 2002; Calais et al., 2016) and have been the source of some of the larges earthquakes documented in the past 250 years (Calais et al., 2010; Prentice et al., 2010; Bakun et al., 2012; 45 Mercier de Lépinay, 2011). For example, the strike-slip system of the Enriquillo-Plantain Garden 46 47 Fault Zone (EPGFZ) produced the Mw 7.0 Leogâne 12/01/2010 and Mw 7.2 Nippes 14/08/2021 48 earthquakes, as well as probably other historical earthquakes such as 03/06/1770 (estimated Mw 7.5; SISFRANCE Antilles, 2009) and 08/04/1860 (estimated Mw 6.3; Bakun et al. 2012). 49

The current tectonics in this densely populated and rapidly developing region are broadly understood (e.g., Mann et al., 1995, 2002; Hernaiz Huerta & Pérez-Estaún, 2002; Pérez-Estaún et al., 2007; Granja Bruña et al., 2014; Calais et al., 2016; Courbeau et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2018; Saint Fleur et al., 2019; Escuder-Viruete & Pérez, 2020), with underthrusting/subduction zones, major active thrust and oblique strike-slip faults identified in several clearly defined zones. However, little is known of detailed geometric and kinematic characteristics, Quaternary offsets and slip rates on these active fault systems, and its seismic activity over time is poorly constrained by geochronological data. This information is essential for understanding the present-day tectonics of Hispaniola, but it is also crucial to establish an inventory of potential seismogenic sources, a seismotectonic zonation model, and an estimate of the seismic hazard in the region.

The focus of this study is threefold: (1) to characterize the active deformation pattern and the main seismotectonic faults in southern central Hispaniola, based on tectonic and geomorphologic field observations, complemented with regional gravimetric and magnetic data analysis; (2) to determine the Quaternary to present-day stress regime evolution by inversion of geologically determined slip vectors on minor and major faults throughout the zone; and (3) to divide the region into a set of simplified seismogenic zones as a starting point for a subsequent quantitative seismic hazard modeling in terms of the peak ground acceleration (PGA).

67 **2. Geological setting**

68 2.1. From intra-oceanic subduction to arc-continent collision and subduction polarity reversal in the
69 northern Caribbean plate

Located on the northern edge of the Caribbean plate, the Hispaniola Island is a tectonic collage produced by the SW-dipping Cretaceous subduction to Eocene oblique collision of the Caribbean intra-oceanic arc with the southern continental margin of North America (Mann et al., 1991a; Draper et al., 1994; Pérez-Estaún et al., 2007; Escuder-Viruete et al., 2011a, 2011b, 2013, 2016b). The main consequence of the arc-continent collision were the blocking of the suture zone, the transfer of deformation to the back-arc region in southern Hispaniola and subduction polarity reversal, with renewed subduction beginning along a new NE-dipping subduction zone (e.g., Kroehler et al., 2011).

The geodynamic modeling software *GPlates* V2.3 (Müller et al., 2018; <u>www.gplates.org</u>) and observations presented in this paper allows the reconstruction of this relative movement between the

Caribbean and North American plates, distinguishing three main stages of evolution from the lower 79 Campanian to the present-day. In the lower Campanian (80 Ma), the Lower Cretaceous Caribbean 80 island-arc is moving to the northeast at a rate of about 4-5 cm/yr (Fig. 1a). By this time, the 81 82 Caribbean arc had overridden the Galapagos hotspot, giving rise to a period of vigorous submarine oceanic plateau volcanism that began as early as 139 Ma and was widespread by 88 Ma, building the 83 Caribbean Large Igneous Province (CLIP). In a SW-dipping subduction zone, the intra-oceanic arc 84 85 consumed through subduction the large area occupied by the proto-Caribbean oceanic crust in the current central part of the Caribbean, and obliquely collided with the Maya block of the southeastern 86 margin of the North American plate (Mann et al., 2007). 87

By the middle Eocene (40 Ma) the collision and suturing of the Caribbean island-arc against North 88 89 America had finished the forward motion of the oceanic arc (Fig. 1b). Arc-continent collision caused 90 the extinction of the volcanism, the emplacement of supra-subduction zone ophiolites and developed 91 a zone of NE-directed foreland thrusting on the lower plate (Mann et al., 1991a; Pindell & Kennan, 92 2009; Pérez-Estaún et al., 2007; Escuder-Viruete et al., 2013, 2016b). Because the arc can no longer 93 subduct the more continental crust of North America, convergence was accommodated by backthrusting and the initiation of a new, NE-dipping subduction zone (Kroehler et al., 2011). In southern 94 Hispaniola, the arc-continent collision in the middle to upper Eocene resulted in a reversal of 95 96 subduction polarity in the back-arc region, as well as deformation by back-thrusting at the resulting 97 Peralta-Muertos accretionary prism (Witschard & Dolan, 1990; Mann et al., 1991b; Dolan et al., 1991; Hernáiz-Huerta & Pérez-Estaún, 2002). The new subduction zone separated the Venezuela 98 basin from the upper island-arc crust of central Hispaniola. 99

Since the lower Miocene, the ENE movement of the Caribbean plate gave rise to the oblique collision/accretion of the northern sector of the Caribbean oceanic plateau of transitional crust with the Peralta accretionary prism, resulting in the formation of the SW-directed Haitian-Neiba fold-andthrust belt and the San Juan-Azua basins in the foreland (Fig. 1c; Mercier de Lépinay, 1987;

Witschard & Dolan, 1990; Dolan et al., 1991; Heubeck & Mann, 1991; Pubellier et al., 2000; 104 Hernáiz-Huerta & Pérez-Estaún, 2002: Granja Bruña et al., 2014: Escuder-Viruete et al., in press). 105 During the Pliocene and until the present-day, convergence gave rise to the accretion of the central 106 sector of the Caribbean oceanic plateau of thickened crust, causing in southern Hispaniola the uplift 107 108 and folding of the Massif de la Serre-Sierra Bahoruco and the tectonic individualization of the Enriquillo-Cul de Sac basin. The blue star and line in the Fig. 1c represents the reconstructed 109 110 location and path of a point of the Sierra Bahoruco as it travels with the Caribbean plate. GPlates reconstruction shows that the point started traveling to the NE at a rapid rate of 3-5 cm/yr and 111 changed to a ENE direction in middle Eocene times (45 Ma) with a slow rate of 0.7-2.1 cm/yr. This 112 change coincides with the arc-continent collision in northern Hispaniola and the start of subduction 113 by back-thrusting in the Peralta-Muertos belts of southern Hispaniola. 114

115 *2.2. Present-day geodynamic configuration of southern Hispaniola*

Oblique collision has also led to the fragmentation of the northern Caribbean plate into several microplates, which are Septentrional (or North Hispaniola), Hispaniola-Puerto Rico and Gônave (Fig. 2; Mann et al., 1995; Calais et al., 2016; Rodríguez-Zurrunero et al., 2019). Microplates are limited by large-scale fault zones that, as reflected by the associated seismicity and modeled displacement rates, accommodate part of the relative movement between them (Mann et al., 2002; Manaker et al., 2008; Benford et al., 2012; Symithe et al., 2015; Calais et al., 2016; Corbeau et al., 2019).

In northern Hispaniola, the Septentrional microplate is a wedge-shaped tectonic forearc sliver, limited offshore to the north by the Northern Hispaniola Fault Zone (NHFZ, or western extension of the Puerto Rico Trench) and onshore to the south by the Septentrional Fault Zone (SFZ; Dolan et al., 1988; Mann et al., 2002; Escuder-Viruete and Pérez, 2020; Escuder-Viruete et al., 2020).

127 The Hispaniola-Puerto Rico microplate is an arc-crust block, limited to the north by the SFZ and to the south by the Muertos Trough (MT). To the west, the boundary between the Hispaniola block and 128 Gonâve microplate is generally placed in the San Juan-Los Pozos fault zone (SJPFZ; e.g., Mann et 129 al., 1991). From N to S (Fig. 2), the Hispaniola microplate includes the Cordillera Central domain 130 131 and the Peralta-Muertos deformed belts. The Cordillera Central in the Dominican Republic and its prolongation in the Massif du Nord in Haiti is an Upper Jurassic-Upper Cretaceous basement 132 133 composed mainly of Pacific-derived oceanic units, structurally limited to the northeast by the Hispaniola fault zone (HFZ) and to the southwest by the SJPFZ (Mann et al., 1991). It comprises 134 fragments of oceanic lithosphere, plutono-volcanic complexes related to subduction, and basaltic 135 units related to a mantle-plume magmatism (Escuder-Viruete et al., 2008). It also comprises the 136 Quaternary intramountain basins of Cibao, Jarabacoa, Bonao, Constanza, Rancho Arriba and San 137 138 José de Ocoa (Fig. 3).

139 The Peralta Belt (PB) is a NW-trending and SW-verging fold-and-thrust belt, structurally sandwiched between the San José-Restauración (SJRFZ) and the San Juan-Pozos fault zones (Mann 140 141 et al., 1991b). The belt evolved from a back-arc basin for the Caribbean island-arc, with deposition 142 of Campanian to Eocene turbidites (Trois Rivières and Las Palmas Formations), through a transpressive fold-and-thrust belt in the middle Eocene to early Miocene (Mercier de Lépinay, 1987; 143 144 Witschard & Dolan, 1990; Dolan et al., 1991; Hernáiz-Huerta et al., 2007b). In the SE sector, the 145 lithostratigraphic units of the Peralta Belt have been grouped into three thick sedimentary sequences, 146 separated from each other by major unconformities: the Paleocene-Eocene Peralta Group; the middle Eocene-early Miocene Río Ocoa Group; and the middle Miocene-Pleistocene Ingenio Caei Group 147 (Heubeck et al., 1991; Dolan et al., 1991; Díaz de Neira & Solé Pont, 2002; Hernaiz Huerta & Pérez-148 Estaún, 2002; Hernáiz-Huerta et al., 2007a; Pérez-Valera, 2010). 149

150 The Muertos Trough (MT) marks the boundary between the subducting/underthrusting floor of the

Caribbean plate and the overlying deformed belt south of eastern Hispaniola and Puerto Rico (Fig.

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152 2). The thrust focal mechanism of the 24/06/1984 earthquake (Mw 6.7) indicates subduction along the MT (Byrne et al., 1985). Seismic reflection profiles across the MT image an N-dipping low-angle 153 thrust structure, with folded and faulted sedimentary rocks on top forming an accretionary prism 154 (Driscoll & Diebold, 1998; Dolan et al., 1998; Mauffret & Leroy, 1999; Granja Bruña et al., 2009, 155 156 2014). Convergence across the Muertos Trough probably begins with the end of the arc-continent collision and the onset of back-thrusting. GPlates reconstruction shows that the amount of oblique 157 158 subduction of the Caribbean plate beneath southern Hispaniola at the westernmost Muertos Trench has been about 100 km (Fig. 1). 159

160 The Gonâve microplate is limited to the north by the Oriente Fault Zone and to the south by the Enriquillo-Plantain Garden fault zone (EPGFZ). The nature of the crust of the Gonâve microplate is 161 162 not well established, having been proposed as a Cretaceous-Eocene remnant arc (Heubeck et al., 163 1991), back-arc (Mann et al., 1991a) or the rifted crust of the eastern Cayman continental passive 164 margin (Corbeau et al., 2017, 2019). From the lower Miocene onwards, the oblique collision/accretion processes have formed the Haitian-Neiba deformed belt in the microplate. It 165 consists of a NW-trending and SW-verging fold-and-thrust belt, bounded to the north by the NE-166 dipping SJPFZ (Mann et al., 1995; Pubellier et al., 2000; Hernáiz Huerta et al., 2007a). The thrust 167 bounding the NE Montagnes Noires-Sierra de Neiba thrust sheet was activated during the lower-168 middle Miocene and the thrust bounding the SW Chaîne des Matheux-southern Sierra de Neiba 169 170 thrust sheet was developed from the middle-upper Miocene (Pubellier et al., 2000). Tilting and 171 faulting of Quaternary age deposits in the northern margin of the Enriquillo basin indicate that the thrust belt is still active (Hernáiz Huerta et al. 2007), which is consistent with the seismic activity 172 recorded by Corbeau et al. (2019). 173

The Beata Ridge is a prominent NE-trending bathymetric high of about 450 km long built on the Caribbean plate (Mauffret and Leroy, 1999; Mauffret et al., 2001; Granja Bruña et al., 2014). It separates the Haiti basin to the west, from the Venezuelan basin to the east (Fig. 2). The width of this structure in the zone of interaction with the Hispaniola-Puerto Rico microplate is about 120 km. The
ridge comprises an unusually thick oceanic crust, essentially made up of mafic igneous rocks
(gabbros, dolerites and basalts) of the Cretaceous CLIP (Sinton et al., 1998; Révillon et al., 2000;
Dürkefälden et al., 2019). The Cretaceous basement of the Sierra Bahoruco and Hotte-Selle Massifs
is made up of submarine volcanic rocks with similar petrological and geochemical characteristics,
indicating that the Southern Peninsula of Hispaniola is an emerged fragment of the CLIP (EscuderViruete et al., 2016a).

184 Onshore/offshore seismic refraction and wide-angle reflection studies indicate a crustal thickness of 26 to 32 km in the Sierra Bahoruco, 20 to 22 km at the Beata Ridge, 10 to 15 km in the Venezuelan 185 basin and only 5 to 10 km in the Haitian basin (Nuñez et al., 2016, 2019; Kumar et al., 2020). The 186 187 crustal thickness of the Beata Ridge is controlled mainly by NNE to NE-striking faults, such as the 188 Beata Ridge fault zone (BRFZ) that follows its axial trend (Mauffret et al., 2001). According to 189 Granja Bruña et al. (2014), this fault acted in pre-Neogene times as a normal fault. The BRFZ 190 continues to the NE, abruptly limiting the Sierra Bahoruco and Sierra Martín García to the southeast, until it intersects the SJPFZ in the western Ocoa Bay. 191

The NE-directed collision and impingement of the thickened crust of the Beata Ridge with the 192 193 Hispaniola microplate in the Neogene gave rise to a recess of the Muertos accretionary prism and the clockwise rotation of fold and thrust structures of the Peralta Belt east of the Ocoa Bay (Mercier de 194 Lépinay et al. 1988; Mann et al., 1991b; Hernaiz Huerta and Pérez-Estaún, 2002; Granja Bruña et al., 195 2014). Part of the present-day stress-field induced by the Beata Ridge collision is accommodated by 196 the Ocoa-Bonao-La Guacara Fault Zone (OBFZ) within the Hispaniola microplate (Escuder-Viruete 197 et al., in press). This fault zone is an active, NNE to NE-striking large-scale fault system that crosses 198 199 the southern central sector of Hispaniola along more than 250 km (Pérez-Estaún et al., 2007). In the 200 eastern Ocoa Bay, the OBFZ bends the fold and thrust structures of the Peralta Belt, the SJPFZ and 201 the lower Miocene to Early Pleistocene sedimentary fill of the Azua basin (Fig. 2). This fault zone

has recently been proposed as the onland transition between oceanic subduction and arc-oceanic
plateau collision (Escuder-Viruete et al., in press).

204 **3. Methodology**

205 *3.1. Bathymetric, gravimetric and magnetic data sets*

Maps shown in this study were created using several topographic and bathymetric data sets: (1) digital elevation models (DEMs) from the Shuttle Radar Topography Mission-30 Plus (https://www2.jpl.nasa.gov/srtm/) with a resolution of 30 m (Tozel et al., 2019); (2) DEMs obtained from ALOS Global Digital Surface Model with a resolution of 25 m (Takaku et al., 2020); (3) satellite images from *Google Earth Pro*® (http://earth.google.com) with a resolution from 1 km to 10 m; and (4) topographic and bathymetric profiles obtained from the GMRT data-set (available with *GeoMapApp*; www.geomapapp.org; Ryan et al., 2009).

The gravity data are from the compilation by the National Geospatial-Intelligence Agency (https://www.nga.mil). This compilation includes data from various campaigns conducted onland between 1939 and 1991 by IFREMER, Royal Astronomical Society, Cambridge University, Lamont-Doherty Geological Observatory and Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution. This compilation contains 3012 stations with a resolution of ± 2 mGal and a density reduction of 2.67 g/cm³.

The magnetic data come from the magnetic and radiometric flight carried out between 1995 and 1997 by the Compagnie Générale de Géophysique (CGG) in the onland territory of the Dominican Republic, with 500 m of separation of lines and a nominal height of 120 m, in the context of the SYSMIN Program of the EU of *Cartografía geotemática de la República Dominicana* (García Lobón & Rey Moral, 2004). Data were gridded at 250 m and several procedures were followed to ensure data quality, such as micro-levelling and filtering of frequencies greater than Nyquist.

224 3.2. Regional analysis of potential field data

In this work, lithological, structural, gravimetric and magnetic data were analyzed together to constrain the crustal structure underlying southern central Hispaniola, to establish the distribution of different crustal blocks with specific geophysical properties at the surface and to identify their tectonic boundaries (even when they are hidden by a recent sedimentary cover). The analysis of the potential field data was carried out with the *Geosoft Oasis Montaj*® software. Gravity data has been gridded using a minimum curvature algorithm, resulting a grid cell size of 250 x 250 m.

231 Magnetic grids were calculated from raw data provided by CGG. Qualitative interpretation of the magnetic data has been made using a reduction technique to the pole of the total magnetic field. This 232 reduction to the pole was calculated assuming a local inclination of 48° N and declination of 10° W. 233 234 This process removes the inclination effect of the total magnetic field by transforming the anomaly 235 into the vertical component of the field produced as if the source were at the North magnetic pole -90° inclination. The inclination and declination used in the reduction to the pole were calculated 236 237 from the International Geomagnetic Reference Field subroutine in Oasis Montaj® based on the 238 latitude and longitude. Gravimetric and magnetic grids were interpreted on variations in amplitude, wavelength character, lineament distribution, texture, and structural discontinuities. More details of 239 240 the methodology of acquisition and analysis of the potential field data are included in García-Lobón 241 & Rey-Moral (2004), García-Lobón & Ayala (2007) and Ayala et al., (2017).

242 *3.3. Seismicity*

Compilation of an earthquake catalog allowed us to determine the spatial and temporal distribution of earthquakes, their relationships with the main active fault zones, and the characterization of the seismotectonic structures in terms of their seismic parameters. For southern central Hispaniola, the catalog was compiled by collecting and analyzing historical data (SISFRANCE-Antilles 2009; Bertil et al., 2010; Flores et al. 2011; McCann et al. 2011; ten Brink et al. 2011; Bakun et al., 2012; and references herein) and instrumental/experimental data (Russo & Villaseñor 1995; Alvarez et al.

1999; Tanner & Shepherd 1997; Terrier-Sedan & Bertil, 2021; ISC 2014; RSPR-Puerto Rico 249 catalogue, and USGC-NEIC catalogue). Access the local network, constituted by the Instituto 250 Sismológico de la Universidad Autónoma de Santo Domingo (ISU; uasd.edu.do), the Observatorio 251 Sismológico Politécnico Lovola (OSPL; ospl.ipl.edu.do) and the Projet Ayiti-Seismes performed by 252 Laboratoire Mixte International CARIBACT (aviti.unice.fr/aviti-seismes; BME, UEH/FDS/URGéo, 253 ENS and Géoazur partnership), enabled information on earthquakes in ghost areas of the global 254 255 seismic network to be obtained. Following Bertil et al. (2010, 2015), the catalogue was revised for data quality, duplication, and foreshocks or aftershocks, and then homogenized the magnitudes using 256 the moment magnitude scale (Mw). The most contemporary sources describing the historical 257 258 earthquakes were investigated to establish the focal characteristics of each seismic event.

259 Due to the high uncertainty related to the magnitude and location of historical earthquakes, the 260 earthquakes in the catalogue were classified into three groups following Terrier-Sedan and Bertil 261 (2021): historical data before 1750 of unreliable magnitude and location; historical data between 1750 and 1960 of intermediate quality; and instrumental data after 1960 generally of high quality. 262 263 More than 12 epicentres of earthquakes of magnitude at least Mw 6.0 are located in the study area, or 264 the immediate surroundings, including the earthquakes of 1562 (destroyed La Vega and Santiago de los Caballeros), 1615 (destroyed Santo Domingo), 1684 (affected Azua and Santo Domingo), 1691 265 (destroyed Azua, affected Santo Domingo), 1751 (destroyed Azua) and 1911 (affected San Juan). 266

267 *3.4. U-Th geochronology*

Fossil coral reefs provide a snapshot of the ocean environment and sea level during their growth. As uranium is incorporated into the coral calcium carbonate skeleton during its growth, the U-Th geochronology method is appropriate for dating geological and oceanographic events in the Quaternary (e.g., Hibbert et al., 2016). To limit the effects of element mobility during diagenesis and/or any chemical alteration, coral samples were collected in apparently unaltered sectors on top of

fossil wave-cut platforms and paleo-cliffs of the topographically lower terraces, as well as on the 273 sides of small narrow gorges cut through the higher terraces. Fragments of corals that preserve the 274 pristine growth structure were selected in the field. Subsequently, thin sections of these fragments 275 were examined under the petrographic microscope to characterize the crystalline habit, the 276 mineralogy as indicated by staining for carbonate minerals, and the degree of neomorphism. Coral 277 fragments with an excellent preservation of the original skeleton and primary pore spaces void of 278 279 cement and sediment were selected. Fragments were ground and the resulting powder analyzed by X-ray diffraction analysis at the IGME Laboratories in Madrid. Samples selected for U-Th dating 280 yielded more than 95% aragonite during diffraction analysis. This test eliminated most samples of 281 282 the topographically higher coral reef terraces.

283 U-series measurements were carried out using a high-resolution multi-collector inductively coupled 284 plasma mass-spectrometer (ThermoFisher Neptune® multi-collector equipped with an Aridus® 285 desolvation nebuliser) at the National Centre for Isotope Geochemistry, University College Dublin. Samples were spiked with a mixed ²²⁹Th-²³³U-²³⁶U spike and were slowly dissolved in 7M HNO₃. 286 Following overnight sample-spike equilibration, U and Th fractions were separated using anion ion-287 exchange columns using standard methods (Fankhauser et al., 2016). ²³⁸U/²³⁶U and ²³³U/²³⁶U isotope 288 ratios were measured simultaneously using Faraday collectors, and the lower intensity of the ²³⁴U ion 289 beam was measured using a Faraday collector equipped with a low-noise 10^{13} Ohm resistor. A 290 mass-fractionation correction was applied to the measured uranium and thorium isotope ratios based 291 on the certified near-unity ²³³U/²³⁶U ratio of the mixed spike (sufficient uranium carry over into the 292 thorium fraction permitted this for all thorium analyses). For thorium, ²³⁰Th/²³²Th and ²³⁰Th/²²³Th 293 ratios were measured separately from the uranium runs, using the 10^{13} Ohm equipped Faraday 294 collector in the axial position for ²²³Th. A detrital (inherited initial non-radiogenic ²³⁰Th) correction 295 was applied to all U-Th analyses, assuming that the inherited component had a $(^{230}\text{Th}/^{232}\text{Th})$ ratio of 296 0.8 ± 0.4 (parentheses denote activity ratios). Whilst the choice of $(^{230}\text{Th}/^{232}\text{Th})$ for the detrital 297

component is somewhat arbitrary, the calculated ages for all are quite insensitive to this correction (Supporting Information S1). All ages were calculated using the following decay constants ($\lambda^{234}U =$ 2.826E-6, λ^{230} Th = 9.1577E-6, $\lambda^{238}U =$ 1.551E-10 and λ^{232} Th = 4.9475-11; Jaffey et al., 1971; Cheng et al., 2000). Laboratory blanks for ²³⁸U and ²³²Th were typically in the 1 to 10 pg range, and no blank corrections were applied.

303 *3.5. Fault-slip data analysis*

304 Stress or strain can be evaluated using brittle fault-slip data inversion methods (Angelier, 1994). It involves collecting faults data such as plane orientations, fault striae directions and sense of slip from 305 306 kinematic indicators at the outcrop scale. The methodology of fault-slip data inversion to determine stress fields and to demonstrate temporal and spatial changes in the late Cenozoic stress states has 307 308 been used in many active tectonic areas around the world over the past three decades (Angelier, 309 1994; Twiss & Unruh, 1998; Célérier et al., 2012; and references therein). It consists of obtaining 310 from a population of fault-slip data the principal stress axes that best fit the reduced stress tensor at a given measurement site. Inversion results include the orientation (azimuth and plunge) of the 311 principal stress axes ($\sigma_1 > \sigma_2 > \sigma_3$) of a reduced stress tensor as well as the stress ratio R = (σ_2 - σ_3/σ_1 -312 σ_3), a parameter describing relative stress magnitudes. The stress tensor provides information on the 313 stress regime, i.e., compressional (with σ_3 vertical), strike-slip (with σ_2 vertical), transpressional (σ_2 314 or σ_3 vertical and σ_2 close to σ_3 in magnitude), or extensional (with σ_1 vertical). 315

Several inversion methods have been proposed in the literature (see reviews by Célérier et al., 2012). Using multiple methods, hence different algorithms, increases the accuracy of the results by reducing the effect of systematic errors. In this study, the fault-slip data analysis and principal stress axes calculation were first performed with the kinematic right-dihedra method (RDM; Angelier, 1994), which shows the distribution of the percentage of compression or extension dihedra in stereographic projection. Next, fault-slip data were inverted with two independent methods: direct inversion (DIM) and numeric dynamic analysis (NDA). All inversion methods were performed with *TectonicsFP*v1.7.9 software of Reiter & Acs (2000) and Ortnet et al. (2002). Statistically stable stress tensors
were obtained from 10 to 30 fault-slip data measured in each structural site. A further explanation of
the fault-slip data acquisition and analysis is included in the Supporting Information S2.

The main goal of the fault-slip data analysis was to characterize the Quaternary to present-day stress regime evolution in southern central Hispaniola. Unfortunately, it is generally challenging to date the striations more precisely than by simply recording that they are younger than the rocks deformed by the faults. In this study, we included results from fault-slip data measured in igneous and sedimentary rocks of upper Cretaceous to Early Pleistocene age, as well as in dated Middle to Late Pleistocene coral reef terraces and alluvial fan deposits.

332 On occasions, more than one set of striae are present on a fault plane at the same measurement site, 333 which were formed by different stress tensors. For example, reverse dip-slip and oblique reverse 334 striations caused by an NE-trending compression are crosscut by low-pitch angle striations resulting 335 from a NE-trending σ_1 strike-slip stress regime. The discrimination of strike belonging to each fault 336 set was conducted by numerical checking of compatibility with an inversion method and geological 337 arguments. Fault crosscutting relationships, the overprinting of several striations in the same fault 338 plane and the absolute age of the faulted rocks have also been used as geological criteria to date 339 faults and thus discriminate paleostress tensors and tectonic events.

340 4. Neotectonics of southern central Hispaniola

341 *4.1. Large-scale structures*

The geology of southern central Hispaniola consists of five main elements: (1) an Upper Jurassic to Upper Cretaceous igneous and metamorphic basement of the Cordillera Central domain; (2) a group of latest Cretaceous-lower Eocene sedimentary rocks of the Peralta fold-and-thrust belt, that locally unconformable overlie the basement; (3) an unconformable cover of folded and faulted middle Eocene to lower Miocene sedimentary rocks of the Rio Ocoa Group; (4) a sequence of slightly faulted and tilted Neogene sediments of the San Juan-Azua and Enriquillo basins; and (5) an unconformable cover of Quaternary alluvial, fluvial and shallow marine deposits. The spatial distribution of these elements is included in the geological map and cross-sections of Fig. 2.

The neotectonic structures of southern central Hispaniola are compiled in the map of the Fig. 3, which results from integrating of new field data with the geologic map obtained by the SYSMIN Project in the Dominican Republic (e.g., Pérez-Estaún et al., 2007). This map covers the eastern half of the Cordillera Central, the Sierra Martín García, the southeastern part of the San Juan basin and the whole Azua basin including the Baní pediment. This fieldwork area was selected because contains the main active structures of the arc-plateau collision in the southern Dominican Republic.

356 The neotectonic structures of this area show three main trends: NW to WNW-striking folds and 357 thrusts; N to NE-striking right-lateral strike-slip faults; and ENE to E-striking left-lateral strike-slip 358 faults. Combined detailed structural analysis, fault-slip data inversion, and geochronology show that 359 these structures were generated during three main tectonic events (see below). The NW to WNWtrending D1 structures are parallel to the structural grain of the Cordillera Central, as the folds and 360 361 thrusts of the Peralta belt. Located in the southern and eastern parts of the study area, the N-S to NE-362 SW transverse D2 structures are the strike-slip fault segments of the Ocoa-Bonao-La Guácara and Beata Ridge fault zones, as well as second-order structural elements of the related sub-parallel 363 deformation corridors. The ENE to E-striking faults are also transverse D2 structures concentrated in 364 the northwestern sector of the studied area, which also deform the boundary with the Cibao basin. 365 The previous structures appear locally cut by two families of D3 extensional faults, which have a 366 different trend depending on their geographic location: WNW to W in the Ocoa Bay sector; and NE 367 in the Cordillera Central sector. 368

369 The Ocoa-Bonao-La Guácara fault zone represents the structural transition between the Muertos 370 oceanic accretionary prism and the Beata Ridge-Peralta Belt collision zone (Fig. 3; Escuder-Viruete et al., in press). This fault runs along a N to NNE-striking band, 2 to 12 km wide and 120 km long, 371 extending from the western termination of the Muertos Trough in the south to the Cibao basin in the 372 373 north. Northward, the fault zone connects to the Hispaniola fault zone and changes its trend, curving from N-S to W-E over a distance of \sim 30 km. Based on discontinuities in its trace (such as step-overs, 374 375 relays and bends), the fault zone comprises four major segments which are, from south to north (Fig. 3): Offshore (O-OBFZ), Southern (S-OBFZ), Central (C-OBFZ) and Western (W-OBFZ). These 376 active segments are variably oblique with respect to the regional convergence direction and, 377 378 therefore, they exhibit strike-slip, oblique reverse and thrust fault movements. Along the eastern 379 margin of Ocoa Bay, the O-OBFZ segment produces offshore a clockwise rotation of the folded 380 sediments of the Muertos accretionary prim, and bends and deforms onshore the fold and thrust 381 structures of the Peralta Belt, the SJPFZ, the sedimentary fill of the Azua basin and the Late Pleistocene to Holocene alluvial fans (Escuder-Viruete et al., in press). 382

The Beata Ridge fault zone (BRFZ) is part of the Beata Ridge. Mauffret and Leroy (1999) and 383 Mauffret et al. (2001) suggested that the Beata Ridge fault zone (BRFZ) is a recent major NE-384 striking right-lateral strike-slip fault that limits the Beata Ridge to the west and would continue to the 385 386 NE along the Beata Ridge summit and the eastern termination of the Sierra Bahoruco. On the basis 387 of swath bathymetry and offshore seismic reflection data (Granja Bruña et al., 2014), the northern part of the BRFZ can be divided in two fault segments which are, from south to north (Fig. 3): 388 Central (C-BRFZ) and Northern (N-BRFZ). The N-BRFZ segment shows a constant NE-SW trend 389 along 55 km, parallel to the east coast of the Sierra Bahoruco and Martín García and extends onland 390 through the Azua Basin. The linearity of the fault segment indicates that it is a nearly vertical 391 392 structure that accommodates a predominantly strike-slip displacement. Field data obtained in onland 393 sub-parallel faults (see below) indicate a left-lateral strike-slip displacement characterizes the N-

BRFZ. This fault segment cuts the post-middle Miocene macrostructure of NW-trending folds in the
Sierra Bahoruco and Martín García, as well as the post-Early Pleistocene folds and thrusts that
deform the Arroyo Seco Formation in the Azua Basin. This segment connects at its northern end
with the OBFZ.

398 *4.2. Regional gravimetric data*

399 The regional pattern of the Bouguer anomaly reflects the main lithological and structural 400 characteristics of southern central Hispaniola (Fig. 4), even though the distribution of the stations of gravity data is sparse and the used grid cell size is 250 x 250 m. Areas with positive anomalies 401 ranging from 40 to 134 mGal (yellow and orange tones) are present in the northern and eastern 402 sectors of the Cordillera Central, the northern sector of Sierra Bahoruco, Sierra Martín García and 403 the western Ocoa Bay, as well as the eastern Cordillera Septentrional. These anomalies have a 404 405 general NW-SE to WNW-ESE trend and are interpreted as areas of variably thickened island arc crust of mafic to intermediate composition, with average densities around 2.95 g/cm³ (Ayala et al., 406 407 2007). Varying textures of the gravity field within these areas include smooth parallel lineaments associated with bands of foliated amphibolites, elongated gabbro-dioritic batholiths and CLIP-related 408 409 basaltic units of the Upper Cretaceous basement. In contrast, long wavelength gravity anomalies 410 between -60 and 14 mGal (dark and light blue tones) characterize the Cibao basin, the southern sector of the Cordillera Central (Peralta belt) and the San Juan-Azua basin. These areas comprise 411 412 silicilastic and carbonate rocks of the late Cenozoic sedimentary cover, with average densities around 2.55 g/cm³ (Ayala et al., 2007). These negative anomalies present a smooth texture and are elongated 413 in the NW-SE to WNW-ESE direction, subparallel to the positive anomalies of the Cretaceous 414 basement. 415

Therefore, the regional gravity field defines an alternance of NW to WNW-striking long wavelength anomalies, reflecting the contrast between the high-density Cretaceous igneous and metamorphic basement of the northern Cordillera Central and the low-density Cenozoic sedimentary rocks of the southern Cordillera Central, Cibao and San Juan-Azua basins (Fig. 4). The positive gravity anomaly of the Cordillera Central is disturbed by intermediate anomalies between 20 and 50 mGal (light green tones), along the the arcuate trace of the Ocoa-Bonao-La Guacara fault zone. This pattern seems to reflect a NE-directed thick-skinned thrust structure in the basement, composed of tonalitic batholiths and intermediate volcanic rocks of the Tireo Group, over the Cibao and Bonao sedimentary basins.

The northern boundary of the Cibao Basin is linear and defined by a steep gradient in the gravity 425 field towards the positive anomaly of the eastern Cordillera Septentrional, coinciding with the 426 427 surface trace of the Septentrional fault zone. The southern limit of the Cibao basin with the 428 Cordillera Central is also marked by a strong gradient and coincide with the northern branch of the 429 Hispaniola fault zone. In turn, the southern boundary of the San Juan-Azua basin is marked by a 430 transition towards a NE-striking long wavelength positive gravity anomaly, which suggests the existence of high-density basaltic rocks of the CLIP forming the basement of the Sierra Bahoruco, 431 432 the Sierra Martín García and the Ocoa Bay.

433 *4.3. Regional magnetic data*

434 The large-scale structure of southern central Hispaniola can be deduced by the orientation of the 435 regional magnetic field in NW to WNW-trending subparallel bands, which are often characterized by 436 a distinctive textural pattern (Ayala et al., 2017). In the reduced to the pole grid (Fig. 4a), shortwavelength magnetic signatures generally correspond to areas where the magnetic sources in the 437 basement are located close to the surface. These areas are characterized by a pattern of NW to 438 439 WNW-trending sub-parallel anomalies, related to the late Cretaceous regional structure of amphibolites, gabbro-tonalitic batholiths and ridges of basalts in the Cordillera Central. The strong 440 441 ferromagnetic character of the gabbros produces positive anomalies between 100 and 250 nT, which

delineate the intrusive contact of the Arroyo Caña, Jumunuco and El Río batholiths. In the eastern 442 Cordillera Central, the Hispaniola fault zone defines a strong NW-trending positive magnetic 443 anomaly between 150 and 270 nT, separating the Loma Caribe Peridotite outcrops and the mafic 444 volcanic rocks of the Los Ranchos Formation. This strong anomaly is related to the titanomagnetite 445 446 growth during serpentinization by tectonic exhumation and surficial alteration of the peridotites in the late Cenozoic. A part of the southern Cordillera Central is characterized by scattered short-447 448 wavelengths anomalies, roughly elongated along a NE-SW trend and related to the extrusion of mafic to intermediate calc-alkaline to alkaline volcanic rocks during the Quaternary. 449

450 By contrast, long-wavelength magnetic signatures correspond to areas where the magnetic source is located farther from the surface, or where the magnetic rock intensity in the basement is weak. In the 451 452 reduced to the pole grid (Fig. 4b), the Cibao and San Juan-Azua sedimentary basins generally display 453 long-wavelength negative magnetic anomalies between -10 and -350 nT. These negative anomalies 454 are related to the 1 to 5 km-thick overburden of paramagnetic sediments that fill these basins and reduces the basement magnetic intensity. In turn, the pattern of NW-striking negative magnetic 455 456 anomalies that characterize the southern sector of the Cordillera Central is associated with the fold and thrust structure of the Peralta belt sedimentary rocks. Nevertheless, the sedimentary carbonate 457 massifs of the Sierra Bahoruco, Sierra Martín García and coastal sectors of the Ocoa Bay shows 458 459 long-wavelengths of relatively high magnetic intensity between 0 and 100 nT, suggesting a magnetic 460 source that is shallower than the surrounding areas. A possible explanation for this high magnetic intensity is that the basement in these areas comprises magnetite-rich basalts typical of the late 461 Cretaceous CLIP. 462

In general, the main magnetic discontinuities in the reduced to the pole magnetic grid correlate well
with the large-scale fault zones and the regional macrostructure of southern central Hispaniola (Fig.
4b). These discontinuities juxtapose areas of long and short-wavelength magnetic anomalies and
define tectonic blocks bounded by the segments of the Septentrional, Hispaniola, Ocoa-Bonao-La

Guácara and Beata Ridge fault zones (Fig. 4b). In detail, low magnetic values mark the surface trace of the main fault zones, suggesting that the deformed fault rocks are partially demagnetized. The reduced to the pole magnetic grid also shows the truncation and displacement of the NW to WNWstriking D1 structures in the Cordillera Central by the transverse D2 strike-slip fault system of the Ocoa-Bonao-La Guácara fault zone.

472 *4.4. Late Neogene and Quaternary lithostratigraphy*

473 In southern central Hispaniola, neotectonic activity is recorded by the sedimentary fill of the San Juan-Azua and Enriquillo basins, and by the growing of a system of coral reef terraces overlain by 474 alluvial fans. The San Juan-Azua and Enriquillo basins have been defined as syn-tectonic flexural 475 basins limited to the NE by SW-verging thrust systems, although the Enriquillo basin is also limited 476 by opposite-vergence thrusts directed to the NE (Mann et al., 1991b, 1995; Hernáiz Huerta & Pérez-477 478 Estaún, 2002; Díaz de Neira, 2004; Hernaiz Huerta et al., 2007b). These basins form the southeastern 479 extension of the Plateau Central and Cul-de-Sac basins in Haiti (Pubellier et al., 2000). The basins are filled by a ~4 km-thick upward shallowing and coarsening mega-sequence composed of Miocene 480 to Early Pleistocene marine sediments (McLaughlin et al., 1991; Díaz de Neira & Solé Pont, 2002; 481 482 Pérez-Valera, 2010).

The megasequence includes initial sedimentation on a regionally extensive open marine carbonate 483 platform in the lower to middle Miocene (Sombrerito Formation). The deposition of turbiditic-type 484 clastic sediments in a deep marine environment occurred in the middle to upper Miocene (Trinchera 485 Formation) and in a shallow-water platform in the lower Pliocene (Quita Coraza Formation). The 486 regressive character of sedimentation gave rise in the Pliocene to shallow-marine clastic and coral 487 488 reef deposits (Arroyo Blanco Formation) and, in the Enriquillo basin, the deposition of halite and gypsum evaporites (Angostura Formation), and fine-grained clastic sediments of a bay with excess 489 salinity (Las Salinas Formation). The change to continental deposition took place in the late 490

Pliocene-Early Pleistocene in the Azua basin, with the sedimentation of coarse-grained clastic
sediments (Arroyo Seco Formation), and in the Early-Middle Pleistocene in the Enriquillo basin,
with an upward change from reef limestones and supralittoral marks to alluvial-fan breccias and
conglomerates (Jimaní Formation).

495 From the uppermost Pliocene, tectonic indentation of the southern margin of Hispaniola by northeastward displacement of the Beata Ridge (Heubeck & Mann, 1991; Mann et al., 1991b; 496 497 Hernaiz Huerta & Pérez-Estaún, 2002), destroyed the foreland configuration developed in the southern margin, uplift and erosion of the Cordillera Central and emergence of the Azua and 498 Enriquillo basins. After a sedimentary hiatus, uplift is recorded by the formation and progressive 499 elevation of coral reef terraces in the southernmost coastal area during the Middle to Late 500 501 Pleistocene. These coral terraces were probably organized in a staircase marine terrace system, 502 which has only been partially preserved by later erosion and tectonics (see below).

503 Continued uplift and erosion were also accompanied by syn-tectonic sedimentation of coarse-grained 504 alluvial fan systems directed towards Ocoa Bay (Díaz de Neira, 2000; Pérez-Valera, 2010). Recently, three alluvial fans systems developed at different topographic levels have been distinguished on the 505 southern slope of the Cordillera Central during the Late Pleistocene to the Holocene (Fig. 3; Escuder-506 507 Viruete et al., in press). The upper alluvial fan system forms small relict plateaus inclined towards the S and SE, over the surface of the intermediate alluvial fan system. The intermediate alluvial fan 508 509 system forms a more extensive and better-preserved deposit, which connects the foot of the 510 Cordillera Central relief with the southern coast. The current lower alluvial fan system is spatially restricted to the Sabana Buey valley and small coastal plains of southwestern Baní (Fig. 3). Its 511 incision in the intermediate alluvial fans implies a change in the geometry of the drainage network, 512 513 which has been attributed to fluvial capture processes (Díaz de Neira, 2000; Pérez-Valera, 2010), 514 triggered by the activity of the OBFZ (Escuder-Viruete et al., in press).

515 5. Fault-slip data inversion and late Cenozoic stress regimes

This work calculated stress tensors from a population of 562 fault-slip data, measured in 32 sites covering an area of approximately $100 \times 50 \text{ km}^2$ in southern central Hispaniola. Geological characteristics of these sites are reported in the Supporting Information S3. Stress inversion of the fault-slip data yields 44 stress tensors and their respective plots are shown in the Figs. 5 to 14. The orientation of their maximum horizontal stress, stress regime, kinematic type of faults and the immersion method used in each site, which are generally consistent with each other, are included in the Supporting Information S4.

523 5.1. Fault-slip data inversion in the Peralta Belt

524 Sites 21JE94, 21JE95 and 21JE96 are located along the highway between San José de Ocoa and 525 Nizao, within the Peralta Belt (Fig. 5). Both the mudstone-rich siliciclastic rocks of the lower Eocene 526 Peralta Group and the turbiditic sediments and conglomerates of the late Eocene Ocoa Group exhibit 527 1 to 100 m-thick zones of intense stratal disruption, which were interpreted by Witschard & Dolan (1990) as thrust surfaces formed during the late Eocene in the Peralta accretionary prism. Disrupted 528 zones are mesoscopically characterized by boudinaged sandstone beds and pich-and-swell structures 529 530 defining lozenged blocks. Mudstone interbeds and argillaceous cataclastic bands have a WNW to NW-striking pervasive scaly clay fabric (Sp) and occasionally contain tight to isoclinal folds with 531 532 rootless limbs (Fig. 5). The planar fabric (Sp) often contains a N to NE-trending calcite stretching 533 lineation (Lp) subparallel to the fold axes. In this Sp-Lp fabric, kinematic indicators such as the asymmetry of the boudins or the S-C structures establish a general top-to-the W and SW shear sense. 534 All these structures are typical of a block-in-matrix fabric of a mélange, essentially produced by syn-535 536 sedimentary deformation during the Late Eocene (see below). Stratally disrupted zones in the Ocoa Group rocks are cut by WNW-striking D1 thrust surfaces that typically dip 5° to 30° more deeply 537 than the Sp fabric, when they are restored to the original horizontal position. Both the block-in-538

matrix fabric and the thrusts are cut by NNW to NE-striking strike-slip faults D2 and by high-dipangle normal faults D3 (Fig. 6).

The inversion of fault-slip data collected in several localidades throughout the Peralta Belt enables 541 542 the separation of populations related to three distinct stress regimes (Fig. 6). The first population is represented by variably oblique reverse slip vectors in NW-striking and NE-dipping faults (sites 543 20JE09, 21JE94, 22JE12 in Yayas de Viajama, and 22JE13 in Tabera Arriba). It corresponds to a 544 545 compressional stress regime D1 characterized by a NE-SW to ENE-WSW trending σ_1 . The second 546 population contains strike-slip to oblique reverse left-lateral slip vectors in NE-striking subvertical faults (sites 22JE13 and 21JE93). It is related to a near pure strike-slip stress regime D2 547 548 characterized by a NNE to NE-trending σ_1 . The third population includes normal vectors along dip-549 slip and oblique normal striae in NE-striking high-angle faults (site 21JE96), and corresponds to an extensional stress regime D3 with a N136°E trending σ_3 (Fig. 13). 550

551 Sites 21JE123 and 21JE125 are located in the southernmost outcrops of the Peralta Belt, on the road Azua-Baní in the northern sector of the Ocoa Bay (Fig. 7). In this sector, the macrostructure in the 552 553 Peralta Belt consists of a fold system of the lower to middle Eocene limestones of the Peralta Group 554 and the upper Eocene turbidites with olistoliths of the Ocoa Group, related to a D1 deformation in a 555 fold-and-thrust belt of NW-SE trend and SW-directed vergence. Towards the SE, the NW-trending D1 folds and thrusts of the Peralta Belt turn progressively towards a N-S trend and are cut and 556 557 displaced by the O-OBFZ right-lateral D2 strike-slip fault. In the geological cross-section of Fig. 7, 558 the Eocene rocks of the Peralta Belt overthrust through the SJPFZ the lower to middle Miocene limestones of the Sobrerito Formation, and the assemblage overthrust in turn the conglomerates of 559 the upper Pliocene to Early Pleistocene Arroyo Seco Formation. Therefore, D1 thrusting continued 560 in this sector until the Early Pleistocene times. 561

562 Site 21JE123 is located along the Loma Vieja frontal thrust, which corresponds to the thrust ramp associated with the NNW to NW-trending D1 Loma Vieja anticline (Fig. 7). The related D1 563 structures in the limestones of the Sobrerito Formation consist of SW-verging asymmetric folds, 564 associated with mid-dip angle faults inclined to the NE and SW, subparallel to the Loma Vieja thrust. 565 The mesoscopic S-C structures and other kinematic indicators imprinted on the fault planes establish 566 a top-to-the-SW reverse movement. Predominant dip-slip striae in reverse fault planes define a 567 population compatible with a thrust faulting stress regime and a N204°E trending compressional axis 568 (Fig. 7). On the other hand, the orientation of calcite veins and T-planes in clasts of the 569 conglomerates of the Arroyo Seco Fm establish a consistent NNE trend of D3 subhorizontal 570 extension. 571

572 Site 21JE125 is located at the northwest end of the Ocoa Bay, 3.5 km southeast of the town of Azua, 573 on the southern flank of a W-trending D1 anticline build-up in the limestones of the Sombrerito 574 Formation (Fig. 7). The anticline is affected by a system of high-dip angle (> 60°) strike-slip faults D2 composed by NE-striking left-lateral strike-slip faults and antithetic N-striking right-lateral 575 strike-slip faults. The assemblage is truncated by E to WNW-trending D3 normal faults, exhibiting a 576 high-dip angle towards the N and S. Fault-slip measurements define two contrasting subsets (Fig. 7). 577 578 The first subset includes striations with a low-pitch angle in NE-striking strike-slip faults. Normal 579 and oblique normal dip-slip vectors in WNW-striking and NE and SW-dipping conjugate faults 580 represent the second subset. The first population corresponds to a purely strike-slip stress regime D2 with a N200°E trending σ_1 and the second population to an extensional stress regime D3 581 582 characterized by a N020°E trending σ_3 .

583 5.2. Fault-slip data inversion in the Ocoa Bay

The limestone outcrops of the Sombrerito Fm located on the eastern coast of Loma Vigía, about 6 km southeast of Azua (Fig. 7) exhibit folds, reverse faults and thrusts related to D1 deformation. In

the 21JE112 site, these D1 structures consist of NW to WNW-trending and SW-verging asymmetric 586 folds, associated with low to mid-dip angle reverse faults inclined to the NE, subparallel to the 587 SJPFZ. The mesoscopic S-C structures and other kinematic indicators imprinted on these fault planes 588 establish a top-to-the-SW reverse movement. Striae on the fault planes define a reverse slip 589 590 consistent with a thrust faulting stress regime and a N222°E trending compressional axis (Fig. 8). In the 21JE120 site, several WNW-striking and NE-verging asymmetric anticlines correspond to the 591 592 folds associated with a D1 back-thrust (Fig. 8). Slip measurements on the limbs of a decameter-scale anticline define a population of WNW-striking and SW-dipping reverse faults. This population 593 corresponds to a purely compressional stress regime with a N026°E trending σ_1 . 594

Throughout the Loma Vigia sector, D1 structures appear truncated by NW to W-trending D3 normal faults, which exhibit mid to high-dip angles towards the NE and SW (Fig. 8). For instance, the SW limb of a D1 anticline is cut by a D3 normal fault, causing the dragging of the limestone layers in the hanging-wall block (site 21JE120), or the stratification appears displaced by a system of ENE to Estriking normal faults with associated intrusion of mafic magmas (site 21JE113). In general, dip-slip striae in these fault planes define normal faults populations compatible with extensional stress regimes D3, characterized by a SSW to SW trending σ_3 (Fig. 8).

602 5.3. Fault-slip data inversion in the eastern Sierra Martín García

In the limestone outcrops of the Sombrerito Formation located on the southeast coast of the Sierra Martín García, the D1 structures are strongly obliterated by the D2 deformation. This deformation has given rise to fault zones with a general NE-SW direction and several kilometres in length, parallel to the trace of the Beata Ridge fault zone, which runs offshore about 1.5 km to the SE. Fault zones are marked by the development of bands of fault-gouge and fine crush breccia several tens of meters thick (Fig. 9). Individual fault planes are very steep (dip > 70°) and have low-pitch angle (< 20°) striations that indicate a dominant strike-slip displacement.

At the Playa Caobita (site 21JE126), the Miocene limestones appear to be unconformably overlain 610 by a \sim 50 m-thick Outernary sequence composed from bottom to top of (Fig. 9): reef limestones of a 611 basal fossil coral terrace; poorly consolidated conglomerates of an intermediate alluvial fan, that 612 613 includes reworked corals and cobbles at the base; and gravels and sands rich in limestone cobbles of 614 a younger alluvial fan. A gastropod Strombus sp. collected at the highest stratigraphic levels of the coral terrace has provided a U-Th age of 118.47 ± 0.52 ka (21JE126C), so its growth took place in 615 616 the interglacial marine oxygen isotope stage (MIS) 5e, in the Middle to Late Pleistocene boundary. Two specimens of coral Diploria sp. collected towards the basal and intermediate levels of the 617 terrace have provided U-Th ages of 476.99 ± 23.6 ka (21JE126B) and 331.92 ± 4.51 ka (21JE126A), 618 619 respectively. These ages indicate growth of the coral terrace during MIS 9c and 11 stages in the 620 Middle Pleistocene, although a reworking of the corals is not ruled out because the terrace 621 intercalates clastic levels.

622 Observations made in outcrops along the coast indicate that D2 strike-slip faults cut both reef terrace 623 limestones and intermediate alluvial fan conglomerates. These relationships establish a Late 624 Pleistocene age at least for the D2 deformation. On the other hand, the whole sequence of the coral terrace and the overlying alluvial fans is tilted 10-18° towards the SE and appear deformed by a 625 system of E to ENE-striking D3 normal faults, which exhibits a high-dip angle (> 60°) towards the N 626 627 and S (Fig. 9). Therefore, the D3 deformation has taken place in the Late Pleistocene to Holocene. 628 Fault-slip data measurements allow discrimination of a first population characterized by striations 629 with a low-pitch angle in subvertical fault planes and a second population of normal dip-slip vectors in high-dipping faults. These populations represent two successive stress regimes: the first 630 corresponds to a near strike-slip stress regime D2 with a N020°E trending σ_1 (21JE127); and the 631 second matches with a near purely extensional regime D3 with a N008°E trending σ_3 (22JE15; Fig. 632 9). 633

634 *5.4. Fault-slip data inversion in the northeast Sierra Bahoruco*

The northwestern end of the Sierra Bahoruco shows a very sharp NE-SW trending coastline, subparallel to the trace of the central segment of the Beata Ridge fault zone, which runs offshore about 2.5 km to the SE (Fig. 3). Swath bathymetry and seismic reflection data suggest that fault segment constitutes the active boundary between the 1500 m elevated mountains of the Sierra Bahoruco to the NW and the -2500 m submerged slope of the Dominican sub-basin to the SE (Mauffret and Leroy, 1999; Granje Bruña et al., 2014).

Sites 21JE137 and 22JE26 are located in Playa Azul, about 6 km southeast of Barahona (Fig. 10). 641 Along the coast, the limestone outcrops of the Sombrerito Formation define the northern limb of a 642 643 D1 thrusting anticline of WNW trend and kilometric scale, which constitutes the internal structure of the Sierra Bahoruco in this sector. Limestones are strongly karstified and are unconformably overlain 644 645 by a fossil coral reef 6 to 10 m-thick that defines a discontinuous morphological terrace along the 646 coast. A *Diploria* sp. collected in the stratigraphically highest levels of the coral terrace has provided 647 a U-Th age of 123.23 ± 0.70 ka (22JE26B), so its growth took place in the MIS 5e. The assemblage 648 is also unconformably overlain by the poorly consolidated conglomerates and red clays of a >20 mthick alluvial fan (Fig. 10). 649

Both the karstified limestones and the overlying coral terrace and clastic deposits are faulted and 650 651 tilted by a system of N to NE-striking D2 strike-slip faults, subparallel to the trace of the Beata Ridge fault zone (see cross section in Fig. 10). Fault planes are generally very steep (dip $> 65^{\circ}$) and the 652 striae show left- and right-lateral conjugate motion with a low reverse component (pitch $< 25^{\circ}$). 653 Fault-slip data inversion reveals a strike-slip D2 stress-field with a N046°E trending σ_1 stress axis 654 (Fig. 10). Therefore, the central Beata Ridge fault segment has been active for at least the Late 655 Pleistocene. In turn, the internal structure in the alluvial fan deposit defines a system of open 656 anticlines and synclines of WNW-ESE trend and decametric to hectometric wavelength, which 657 appears faulted on the flanks by WNW to W-trending D3 normal faults. These folds are interpreted 658 as roll-over structures related to the D3 extensional faulting. Striations measured in decametric-scale 659

fault planes and T-planes open in clasts are compatible with an extensional D3 regime, characterized by a N010°E trending σ_3 (Fig. 10).

662 5.5. Fault-slip data inversion in the southwestern Sierra Martín García

In the southwestern sector of the Sierra Martín García, the limestones of the Miocene Sombrerito Formation overthrust the sandstones, marls and gypsum of the upper Pliocene La Salina Formation, and the ensemble regionally overthrusts the continental conglomerates and mundstones of the upper Pliocene to Early Pleistocene Arroyo Seco Formation. These WNW-trending structures constitute the SW-directed D1 frontal thrust, which juxtaposes the anticline macrostructure of the Sierra Martín García to the poorly consolidated alluvial, floodplain and deltaic Quaternary deposits of the Enriquillo basin (Fig. 3).

670 Site 21JE130 is located in the hanging-wall block, about 300 m northward of the frontal thrust, where the gypsum and marl beds of the La Salina Formation exhibit structures related to D1 671 deformation (Fig. 11). These structures consist of WNW-trending and SW-verging asymmetric folds, 672 673 associated with mid-dip angle reverse faults inclined to the NE, subparallel to the basal thrust. The asymmetry of D1 folds and mesoscopic S-C structures establish a top-to-the-SW reverse movement. 674 675 Oblique reverse striae measured in the reverse fault planes define a fault population compatible with 676 a D1 thrust faulting stress regime and a N047°E trending compressional axis (Fig. 11). In the site 677 21JE129, the D1 frontal thrust is locally fossilized by a coral reef terrace, where a *Strombus* sp. 678 collected near its stratigraphic base has provided a U-Th age of 124.65 ± 0.85 ka. A *Diploria* sp also 679 collected in the same basal levels has given a similar U-Th age of 128.89 ka (Fig. 11), thus the coral terrace grew in the MIS 5e stage. 680

Both the D1 thrust-related folds and the coral terrace are affected by a system of high-dip (> 60°)
strike-slip faults D2. This fault system comprises NE to ENE-striking left-lateral strike-slip faults
filled by subvertical calcite veins and antithetical N to NNE-striking right-lateral strike-slip faults,

establishing a strike-slip stress D2 regime characterized by a NE-trending σ_1 axis (Fig. 11). Therefore, the thrust-related D1 deformation reaches the Middle Pleistocene and the strike-sliprelated D2 deformation continues after the Middle to Late Pleistocene boundary. Finally, a set of E to ENE-trending and high-dip angle D3 normal faults locally truncate the assemblage. Normal dip-slip striae measured in these fault planes cutting the gypsum beds are compatible to an extensional regime with a N355°E trending σ_3 axis (Fig. 11).

690 5.6. Fault-slip data inversion in the San José de Ocoa basin

The southern segment of the Ocoa-Bonao-La Guácara fault zone is a roughly 50 km-long, N-striking right-lateral strike-slip fault system, that cuts at a high-angle and clockwise rotate the NW-SE trending folds and thrusts of the Peralta Belt and the structure of the late Cretaceous basement of the Cordillera Central (Figs. 3, 5). The segment is geometrically characterized by separating the fault trace into two branches south of San José de Ocoa town, giving rise to a right-hand releasing-bend and the San José de Ocoa pull-apart sedimentary basin (Escuder-Viruete et al., in press). Both branches rejoin about 35 km northward into the C-OBFZ segment in the Bonao basin.

Site 21JE102 is located near the eastern branch of the S-OBFZ segment, in the town of Naranjal, 2.5 698 km east of San José de Ocoa (Fig. 5). At outcrop scale, N to NNE-striking right-lateral D2 strike-slip 699 faults cut D1 thrust surfaces inclined to the NE, defined by sheared bands of mudstones in the upper 700 701 Eocene Ocoa Formation, characterized by a SW-directed penetrative S-C fabric. Fault-slip measurements define two contrasting subsets (Fig. 12): the first subset is reverse to oblique reverse 702 703 and is associated to striations with a high-pitch angle in NW-striking fault planes; the second subset 704 has oblique reverse and strike-slip vectors in conjugate right- and left-lateral faults. The first 705 population corresponds to a compressional stress regime D1 with a N243°E trending σ_1 and the second population establishes a purely strike-slip stress regime D2 characterized by a N047°E 706 trending σ_1 . 707

708 Site 21JE100 is also located along the eastern strand of the S-OBFZ segment, 2 km north of San José de Ocoa, on the road to Constanza (Fig. 5). The fault segment tectonically juxtaposes the folded and 709 faulted volcanic rocks of the Tireo Group and the gravels and sands of the Quaternary fill of the San 710 José de Ocoa basin. Volcanic rocks have developed hectometer-scale subvertical fault planes sub-711 parallel to the S-OBFZ, characterized by a 5 m-wide brecciated damage zone and striations with a 712 low-pitch angle (Fig. 12). These striae define a vector population compatible with a D2 strike-slip 713 714 stress regime and a N226°E trending compressional axis. South of San José de Ocoa town, the eastern strand juxtaposes the folded and faulted mudstones of the Numero Fm and the gravels and 715 716 sands of the basin through a subvertical D2 fault system, that also tilts westward the Quaternary deposits. Striations measured in NNW-striking oblique reverse right-lateral faults of the 20JE15 site 717 718 are compatible with a D2 strike-slip regime and a N186°E σ_1 axis (Fig. 12)

The D2 strike-slip deformation is also very penetrative along the western branch of the S-OBFZ 719 720 segment, which is morphologically marked by an east facing 200 m-high scarp. This strand 721 juxtaposes the folded and faulted rocks of the Peralta Belt to the W with poorly consolidated gravels 722 and sands that fill the San José de Ocoa basin to the E (Fig. 5). In several sites (20JE14, 21JE97, 723 21JE98 and 21JE99), striations measured on metric to decametric-scale faults subparallel to the S-724 OBFZ segment define a population of pure strike-slip to oblique reverse slip vectors, compatible with a D2 strike-slip regime and a predominant NE trending σ_1 stress axis (Fig. 12). The subvertical 725 726 orientation of calcite veins and T-planes in clasts of the Quaternary conglomerates consistently establishes a WNW to NW trend of subhorizontal extension. 727

However, the effects of D3 extensional deformation are limited in this sector and geographically localized to the right-hand releasing-bend that forms the San José de Ocoa basin. Site 21JE99 is located between the two branches of the S-OBFZ segment, where the mafic to intermediate tuffs of the Tireo Group are in tectonic contact with the well-bedded limestones of Maastrichtian age. Slip measurements show two different populations: oblique reverse righ-lateral and dip-slip reverse vectors (Fig. 12); and oblique normal vectors (Fig. 13). The overlap relationships between striaes establish that these two populations represent two successive stress fields: the first corresponds to a transpressional D2 stress regime with a N270°E trending σ_1 ; and the second corresponds to a more purely extensional D3 regime characterized by a N121°E trending σ_3 . Also related to local D3 extensional tectonics, NW to N-striking normal faults have also been observed at sites 21JE103 and 21JE108 (Fig. 5). Dip-slip striations measured on these fault planes establish an extensional D3 regime characterized by a W-trending σ_3 (Fig. 13).

740 5.7. Fault-slip data inversion in the Cordillera Central

741 The Cordillera Central is characterized by the development of crustal shortening structures, topographic uplift and exposure of the late Cretaceous volcano-plutonic basement in the core of 742 743 large-scale WNW to NW-trending D1 anticlines (Fig. 3). In the Constanza-Sabana Quéliz area, the macrostructure consists of D1 folds and thrusts of WNW-ESE trend and usually SW-directed 744 745 vergence, built up in a sequence composed by Cenomanian limestones and siliceous-rich sediments, Turonian to early Campanian mafic tuffs of the Constanza Formation, late Campanian mudstones of 746 747 the El Convento Formation and Maastrichtian shallow-water platform limestones, as well as plutonic 748 rocks (Escuder-Viruete et al., 2008). This macrostructure is locally cut and displaced by a system of 749 high-dip angle strike-slip D2 faults, which includes NW to NNE-striking right-lateral strike-slip 750 faults and conjugate NE to ESE-striking left-lateral strike-slip faults. NE to E-trending D3 normal 751 faults locally truncated the assemblage exhibiting a high-dip angle towards the NW and SE.

This deformative sequence is well recorded at the 21JE80 site, located ~10 km east of the Constanza town in the Tireo river valley (Fig. 5). Fault-slip data measurements and cross-cutting relationships show three contrasting subpopulations (Fig. 14): reverse and oblique reverse left-lateral faults; subvertical faults with low-pitch angle striations; and normal and oblique normal right-lateral faults. These subsets represent three successive stress regimes: the first corresponds to a compressional stress regime D1 characterized by a N213°E trending σ_1 ; the second adjusts to a near strike-slip stress regime D2 with a N321°E trending σ_1 ; and the third matches with a purely extensional regime D3 with a N183°E trending σ_3 (Fig. 14).

760 Field observations at various points in the Cordillera Central show that D3 extensional faults overlap 761 D1 thrusts. For example, the various kinematic types of faults that deform green mafic tuffs at sites 762 21JE78 and 21JE79, where the fault-slip data inversion enables the separation of populations related 763 to two distinct stress regimes (Figs. 13, 14). The first population is represented by dip-slip to variably 764 oblique reverse slip vectors in low to mid-dip faults; the second population includes normal slip vectors along dip-slip striae in predominantly NNE to NE-striking high-dip faults. Both fault types 765 766 define a NE-SW to W-E compressional D1 regime and a NW-SE extensional D3 regime, respectively. 767

A similar deformative sequence is recognized in the southeastern Cordillera Central, located east of 768 769 the S-OBFZ segment (Fig. 3). In this sector, the S-OBFZ exhibits a fresh N-S scarp and represents the boundary between the >2000 m elevated mountains of the Cordillera Central to the W and the 770 771 650 m elevated Rancho Arriba valley to the E. Along this morphological step, the fault zone 772 produces triangular facets, perched valleys, and dextral offsets of streams that testify its recent 773 activity. Deformation related to this segment produced the local clockwise rotation of the D1 fold 774 and thrust structure and the formation of the Rancho Arriba intramountain basin, which is filled by 775 the Quaternary alluvial fans fed by the erosion of the surrounding relief.

Site 21JE70 is located at the Rancho Arriba basin southern bound. The basin exhibits an ENE-WSW elongated rectangular shape controlled by a southern active master fault (Fig. 5). Fault-slip measurements on hornblende-bearing tonalities of the Arroyo Caña batholith define two contrasting subsets (Figs. 13, 14): oblique reverse to strike-slip vectors in NE to ENE-striking faults; and oblique normal slip vectors in conjugate ENE and WSW-striking high-angle faults. The first set corresponds

to a strike-slip stress regime D2 with a N022°E trending σ_1 and the second set establishes a near pure extensional stress regime D3 characterized by a N023°E trending σ_3 , related to the formation of the basin. Observations carried out in the volcanic rocks of the Tireo Group at sites 21JE72 and 21JE73 allow us to establish similar temporal relationships: younger NE to E-striking D3 normal faults cut older D2 strike-slip and D1 reverse faults. Striations measured in decametric-scale fault planes subparallel to the NW to WNW-trending regional macrostructure in these sites are compatible with a compressional D1 regime, characterized by a general NNE to NE-trending σ_1 (Fig. 14).

788 The NW-SE to W-E directed D3 extensional tectonics has also been detected in other sites located close to the OBFZ. Site 21JE99 is located between the two branches of the S-OBFZ segment, north 789 790 of San José de Ocoa town (Fig. 5), where Maastrichtian limestones exhibit a penetrative brecciation associated with decametric-scale NE-striking fault surfaces, dipping a high-angle to the NW and SE. 791 792 Slip measurements establish an oblique normal left-lateral movement on these planes and their inversion establishes an extensional D3 regime characterized by a N121°E trending σ_3 (Fig. 13). Site 793 21JE103 is located ~1.5 km east of the S-OBFZ (Fig. 5), where decametric-scale fault planes 794 795 measured in basalts of the Tireo Group contain striations of an oblique normal kinematics in NW to 796 NE-trending and E-dipping faults. Inversion of these fault-slip data yields an extensional stress 797 regime characterized by a N256°E trending σ_3 (Fig. 13). Finally, slip measurements in N- to NNW-798 striking fault planes at site 21JE108 (Fig. 5) indicates a predominance of dip-slip normal vectors, 799 compatible with a purely extensional regime with a N069°E trending σ_3 (Fig. 13).

800 6. Discussion

801 6.1. Relations between neotectonics and Quaternary sedimentation in southern central Hispaniola

Several researchers have previously described the uplift, folding and thrusting of the Cordillera Central basement and the Peralta Belt during the lower Miocene to upper Pliocene time interval (Heubeck & Mann, 1991; Mann et al., 1991a, b; Pubelier et al., 2000). The style of this D1

deformation consisted of a SW-directed fold-and-thrust belt, which was developed above a basal 805 detachment horizon following a forward propagating sequence (Heubeck & Mann, 1991; Hernaiz 806 Huerta & Pérez-Estaún, 2002; this work). D1 is superimposed on a deformation produced during the 807 upper Eocene in the Peralta accretionary prism (Witschard and Dolan, 1990). Data obtained in this 808 809 study indicate that a large part of this deformation is syn-sedimentary and characterized by the formation of a block-in-matrix fabric typical of a heterogeneous mélange. Syn-sedimentary 810 deformation was very probably produced by submarine gravitational processes, triggered by 811 instability in the basin slope and/or tectonics (e.g., Alonso et al., 2014; Escuder-Viruete & 812 Baumgartner, 2014; Súarez Rodríguez et al., 2017). 813

In this tectonic context, the San Juan-Azua basin constitutes the foreland flexural basin developed in 814 815 front of the SW-directed Peralta fold-and-thrust belt, and bounded to the NE by SW-directed thrusts 816 (Hernaiz Huerta & Pérez-Estaún, 2002; Díaz de Neira, 2004; this work). These basins were filled by 817 shelf marine, turbiditic, and continental sediments giving rise to a 4-km thick, shallowing and coarsening upward regressive megasequence of lower Miocene to Lower Pleistocene age. D1 818 deformation propagated to the Azua basin sediments and continued until Early to Middle Pleistocene 819 820 times, which is the age of the Arroyo Seco Formation deformed in the footwall of the Peralta frontal thrust (Díaz de Neira & Solé Pont, 2002). As documented in the present work, these coarse-grained 821 822 continental deposits were folded and thrusted in the footwall of the San Juan-Pozos fault zone, 823 current frontal thrust of the Peralta Belt.

After a sedimentary hiatus, uplift and erosion of the resulting relief fed several staircase alluvial fan systems, developed at different topographic levels on the southern slopes of the Cordillera Central probably since the Early Pleistocene (Díaz de Neira, 2000; Pérez-Valera, 2010). The ages obtained by optically stimulated luminescence (OSL) geochronology between 43.8 ± 8.3 ka and 5.9 ± 0.6 ka for the intermediate and young alluvial fan systems indicate the uplift continued, at least, during the Late Pleistocene to the Holocene (Escuder-Viruete et al., in press). The older alluvial fan is not yet
been dated, but probably also records uplift and erosion during the Middle Pleistocene.

In both the eastern and western sectors of the Ocoa Bay, these alluvial fan systems unconformably overlie a fossil coral reef terrace developed during the MIS 5e (118-128 ka) and 5c (~105 ka) stages in the Last Interglacial. Therefore, the fluvial incision and the progradation/aggradation of the intermediate and young alluvial fans were also controlled by the global sea level fall and its variations during the Last Glacial. The coral terrace also includes reworked corals grown during MIS 7 and 9 stages. However, no remains have been found of coral terraces built during these stages in the Ocoa Bay, so erosion might eliminated them.

838 On the other hand, the Quaternary coral reef terrace and the alluvial fans unconformably overlie the D1 large-scale structure of NW-trending and SW-verging folds and thrusts that affect the NE margin 839 840 of the Azua basin. Therefore, the regional pervasive D1 deformation ends, at least in southern central 841 Hispaniola, during the Lower Pleistocene. Late Pleistocene to Holocene alluvial fan and pediment 842 deposits are all offset by strike-slip faults of the D2 event, implying that the more recent tectonic activity is mainly partitioned in the Ocoa-Bonao and Beata Ridge fault zones, as well as by faulting 843 in related structures. Finally, both the coral reef terraces of the MIS 5e and 5c stages and the 844 845 overlapping alluvial fan systems of Late Pleistocene to Holocene age appear deformed by the normal 846 faults of the D3 event in the Ocoa Bay sector.

847 6.2. Evolution of the Quaternary stress regime in southern central Hispaniola

The geometric characteristics of the faults at all scales, the striae sets in their planes, the compatible stress tensors and their chronological succession, constrained by offset relations with dated lithostratigraphic units, define three types of neotectonic fault kinematics in southern central Hispaniola. These types are: thrust and reverse faulting with horizontal σ_1 and σ_2 ; strike-slip faulting with horizontal σ_1 and σ_3 ; and extensional faulting with vertical σ_1 (Fig. 15; see also Supporting Information S5). Each type of fault kinematics is related to a different deformation event,
characterized by a specific state of stress, whose development changes geographically throughout
southern central Hispaniola (Fig. 16).

856 Throughout the Cordillera Central domain, Sierra Martín García and San Juan-Azua basin there is evidence of slip on thrust and reverse faults related to a NNE to NE-trending compressional D1 857 stress regime (Fig. 16). These NW-trending D1 structures deform the middle Eocene-lower Miocene 858 sedimentary rocks of the Río Ocoa Group, as well as its substrate of the Peralta Belt accretionary 859 860 prism, the early/middle Miocene to middle Pliocene marine turbiditic and platform sediments of the 861 San Juan-Azua foreland basin, and the upper Pliocene to Early Pleistocene clastic continental deposits of the Arroyo Seco Formation (Heubeck & Mann, 1991; Díaz de Neira & Solé Pont, 2002; 862 863 Hernáiz Huerta & Pérez-Estaún, 2002; among others). A similar structural relationship has been 864 described along the southern border of the Chaîne des Matheux in Haiti, where SW-directed thrusts 865 deform rocks of middle to upper Miocene age (Pubellier et al., 2000). Upper Miocene to lower 866 Pliocene onset of uplift in the Cordillera Central is simultaneous with uplift in the Sierra de Neiba, with both ranges providing the clastic sedimentary source for the eastern San Juan and Azua 867 (piggyback) basins. The pre-Early Pleistocene folding and thrusting D1 event has been related to the 868 869 collision between CLIP-related units of the Southern Hispaniola Peninsula and the island-arc crust of 870 the Cordillera Central (Heubeck & Mann, 1991; Mann et al., 1991b).

Stress tensors obtained for D1 event indicate a general NE-trending σ_1 axis, ranging between N017°E and N070°E directions, with a relatively well-constrained maximum value in the countcontours stereoplot at N202°E, plunging 06° to the SW (Fig. 15). In the calculations, the orientation of σ_1 has been restored at sites in the eastern Ocoa Bay that have undergone a post-D1 clockwise rotation. The vertical arrangement of σ_3 axis in the computed stress tensors is consistent with deformation by thrusting. The R stress ratio has values of 0.50 ± 0.25, indicating stress tensors close to pure compression. Therefore, the regional D1 stress regime consisted of a NE-trending
878 subhorizontal compression. However, R ratio presents some values of 0.87 and 0.92 (21JE73 and 879 21JE79 sites), which means that the maximum and minimum $\sigma_{\rm H}$ axes are close in magnitude and higher that σ_V ($\sigma_1 \approx \sigma_2$). These R values suggest that a D1 deformation locally characterized by a 880 radial compression regime. On the other hand, the WSW-directed GPS motions measured in JUAN, 881 CONS and BARA stations, located away from important D2 structures, are suborthogonal to the 882 strike of the San Juan-Pozos and Barahona fault zones, as well as the thrust structures in the 883 Cordillera Central and Peralta Belt domains. Therefore, present-day reverse faulting dominates 884 active D1 structures (Fig. 16). This argument agrees with thrust kinematics and reverse stress regime 885 obtained for D1 from field permanent deformation. 886

The NNE to NE-trending strike-slip D2 stress regime has been deduced near the Ocoa-Bonao-La 887 888 Guácara fault zone, particularly in the eastern sector of the Ocoa Bay and in the margins of the San 889 José de Ocoa and Rancho Arriba intramountain basins (Fig. 16). This strike-slip deformation has also 890 been observed in the vicinity of the Beata Ridge fault zone, in the western sector of the Ocoa Bay, 891 and in relation to NE to ENE-striking left-hand strike-slip faults that cut and displace D1 thrusts in the Cordillera Central. Therefore, D2 strike-slip faults cut and displace the D1 fold-and-thrust 892 893 structures, as described in previous works (Hernáiz Huerta & Pérez-Estaún, 2002; Pérez-Valera, 2010). 894

895 D2 strike-slip faults deform the Quaternary deposits in several places, as the fossil coral reef terrace built during the MIS 5e and 5c stages in the SW and NE flanks of the Sierra Martín García and 896 Bahoruco. Recent field-data collected in the eastern sector of Ocoa Bay (Escuder-Viruete et al., in 897 press), indicate that D2 strike-slip faults subparallel to the O-OBFZ segment deform an alluvial fan 898 899 of latest Pleistocene age, but are locally fossilized by a younger alluvial fan of Holocene age. Nonetheless, the Ocoa-Bonao-La Guácara fault zone cuts geomorphic features along its path, such as 900 901 Late Pleistocene-Holocene alluvial fans, fluvial terraces and streams in the San José de Ocoa and 902 Rancho Arriba intramountain basins, which collectively evidence active D2 deformation. Therefore,

the D2 stress-field continues through the latest Pleistocene and most likely today. This interpretation
is consistent with the moment tensor solutions of strike-slip faulting calculated for the 1977 and 1988
earthquakes (CMT catalogue; Ekströn et al., 2012), whose epicenters are located very close to the
OBFZ trace.

The change from a D1 compressional to a D2 strike-slip stress regimes took place during the Early 907 and Middle Pleistocene (or sometime in the Early Pleistocene). This change could be related to the 908 909 indentation of the eastern sector of the Beata Ridge in southern Hispaniola, as part of the Caribbean 910 oceanic plateau collision in the back-arc region of the Hispaniola microplate. This processes could 911 produced the large-scale drag of the pre-existing D1 structures in the eastern Ocoa Bay and 912 generated large-scale conjugate D2 strike-slip faults on the margins of the aseismic ridge indenter. In 913 this sense, the geometric characteristics of the D2 deformation, such as landward deflection of the 914 Muertos trench axis and development of conjugate strike-slip faults and back-thrusts, are analogous 915 to those produced above a subducted conical seamount or submarine aseismic ridge (Ranero and von 916 Huene, 2000; Sak et al., 2009; Gardner et al., 2013), as it has been faithfully reproduced by sandbox analogue models of such convergent margins (Dominguez et al., 2000). 917

Stress tensors of D2 event indicate a general NE-trending σ_1 axis, comprised between N015°E and 918 919 N055°E directions, with a relatively well-constrained maximum value at N045°E, plunging 01° to 920 the NE (Fig. 15). The dispersion of σ_1 axes is due to fault-slip measures in sites located in the San 921 José de Ocoa Basin, where the S-OBFZ trends N-S, or probably due to the reorientation of the 922 regional stress field that occurs around this large-scale strike-slip fault. The subvertical arrangement of the σ_2 axes indicates that the D2 deformation took place in a strike-slip regime, characterized by a 923 924 NE-trending subhorizontal shortening for R-values ranging between 0.21 and 0.60, with prevalence of values close to 0.5. These R-values suggest a deformation mode close to pure strike-slip, 925 926 consistent with the low-pitch angle of the displacement vectors observed in D2 strike-slip faults and 927 some focal mechanism solutions. Note that the SW-directed GPS motion measured in the TORT station is parallel to the NE-SW strike of the nearby Beata Ridge fault segment, implying a presentday pure strike-slip faulting along this D2 structure (Fig. 16).

D3 faults can be grouped into two geometric families: D3a and D3b. The first family includes NE-930 931 SW to NNE-SSW trending normal and oblique normal D3a faults. Although the number of computed stress tensors is limited, inversion of fault-slip data establishes a general NW-SE trending 932 extensional stress regime D3a (Fig. 15). This extensional stress regime has only been detected in the 933 934 western Cordillera Central-Peralta Belt domains and in sectors close to the S-OBFZ segment, as the 935 San José de Ocoa and Rancho Arriba intramountain basins (Fig. 16). The orientation of σ_3 axes has a high dispersion, ranging between N103°E and N168°E, for values of the R ratio very close to 0.5, 936 establishing stress tensors of pure extension. The age of the D3a event could not be precisely 937 established. However, these normal faults affect the volcanic rocks of Pleistocene age of the Valle 938 Nuevo area whose K-Ar ages are 0.5 ± 0.3 and 0.3 ± 0.2 Ma (Vespucci, 1988; Kamenov et al., 2011; 939 940 and references herein) and, therefore, its age is at least post-Middle Pleistocene. The alignment of the emissive centers of the Quaternary calc-alkaline to mafic alkaline volcanism in the region follows a 941 942 NE-SW strike (Fig. 16), so the NW-directed extension during D3a could have favoured the opening 943 of NE-SW striking planes and the rise of magmas. Alternatively, the rise of magmas could have taken place in favour of releasing bends formed during D2 deformation. Hot springs and associated 944 945 travertine deposits in the volcanic region indicate that geothermal activity continues today.

The second family includes WNW to W-striking dip-slip normal faults that established an N to NNE-trending extensional D3b stress regime. Its development is geographically limited to the surroundings of Ocoa Bay (Fig. 16). D3b normal faults deform the coral reef terraces of the MIS 5e and 5c stages (22JE26, Playa Azul; 21JE126, Playa Las Caobitas; and 20JE04, Palmar de Ocoa sites) and the overlapping alluvial fan of Late Pleistocene to Holocene? age (21JE127 and 22JE15 sites). Inversion of 12 fault-slip data sets gives rise to NNE-trending σ_3 axes, comprised between N003°E and N023°E directions, with a relatively well-constrained maximum value at N022°E, plunging 6° to 953 the NE (Fig. 15). The subvertical arrangement of the σ_1 axes and the obtained R-values close to 0.5 954 indicate stress tensors close to pure extension.

In summary, a relatively constant NE-trending horizontal shortening, parallel to the current direction of plate convergence established by GPS measurements, controlled the evolution of the Quaternary stress tensor in southern central Hispaniola. This evolution included a D1 event of compression followed by a D2 near pure strike-slip event, which was locally coeval by a more heterogeneous and geographically localized D3 regime of pure extension. The successive changes in the stress regime were related to a permutation of σ_3 by σ_2 vertical stress between D1 and D2 events, and to a permutation of σ_2 by σ_1 vertical stress between D2 and D3 events (Fig. 15).

962 6.3. Origin of the extensional tectonics localized in the Ocoa Bay

Figure 13 shows the coast of southern central Hispaniola intermittently covered by the fossil coral 963 reef terrace that grew as a fringing reef during MIS 5e/5c stage and currently ranges in elevation 964 from 0 to 20 m above sea level. The MIS 5e stage corresponds to a relatively long period of high-sea 965 966 level that took place during the 118–128 ka interval in the Last Interglacial, when the sea level was between 2 and 6 m above the current level (e.g., Schellmann and Radtke, 2004). The existence of 967 968 coral reef terraces of the MIS 5e/5c stage at elevations between 1 and 25 m above the current sea level can be explained by active tectonics that has uplifted in variable amounts the southeastern 969 970 margin of Cordillera Central, the Sierra Martín García and the Sierra Bahoruco. Assuming a Diploria 971 sp. growth depth of ~ 2 m and an average sea level height during the MIS 5e of +2.0 m (see details in 972 Escuder-Viruete et al., 2020), the minimum uplift rates for the terrace range between 0.01 and 0.22 973 m/ka. The absence of the coral terrace, as well as of other coral terraces presumably built up during 974 older MIS stages, can be explained as due to erosion or to being located at elevations below present 975 sea level as a consequence of later subsidence. In our case, the absence of the coral terrace of the MIS 5c/5e stage coincides with the reentrant of the Ocoa Bay affected by D3b extensional tectonics. 976

Figure 13 also shows two outcrops of the modern fringing reef raised between 0.5 and 3 m above sea level, which are currently subjected to strong marine erosion. An specimen of coral *Diploria* sp. collected in the uppermost levels of the terrace at Playa Caracoles (21JE124 site) have provided an U-Th ages of 0.730 ± 0.01 ka. This age indicates growth of the coral terrace during MIS 1 stage in the Middle Holocene. The calculated minimum uplift rate for the terrace is 4.11 m/ka.

982 Thus, the spatial distribution of the topography in the Ocoa Bay, the D3b extensional deformation, outcrops of the coral reef terraces and uplift rates are, to the first order, controlled by the subducting 983 Beata Ridge of the Caribbean plate. This is because the Muertos accretionary prism that makes up 984 the margin wedge on the Ocoa Bay must deform around this indenting bathymetric feature. The 985 topographically low area of the Ocoa Bay lines up along the relative plate motion vector with the 986 987 Beata Ridge indenter. The highest uplift rates are recorded along the central northern coast of the 988 Ocoa Bay and decrease parallel to the trench and perpendicular to the Beata Ridge to the E 989 (southeast coast of the Cordillera Central) and the W (Sierra Martín García).

This pattern in the distribution of the D3b deformation and vertical motions can be interpreted as a wave of rapid uplift followed by subsidence that propagates parallel to the current plate motion vector in the Ocoa Bay, as a response to the subduction of bathymetric irregularities in the Beata Ridge. Following the deformation mechanism proposed for seamount subduction in the New Hebrides and Solomon Arcs (e.g., Taylor et al. 2005), the passage of a subducting bathymetric high produces a history of rapid uplift and subsequent collapse and subsidence in a block of similar dimensions of the upper plate.

997 Along the Ocoa Bay, where the Beata Ridge indenter currently entering the Muertos Trench, 998 macroscale WNW to W-striking dip-slip normal faults and mesoscale fault-slip data, are consistent 999 with SSW to S-directed extension perpendicular to the margin (Fig. 16). These steeply-dipping 1000 normal faults may be a consequence of the collapse of the margin, constituted by relatively soft

sedimentary rocks of the Muertos accretionary prism, in the wake of the stronger mafic igneous 1001 rocks of the subducting Beata Ridge that produce a basal erosion of the upper plate (Ramero & von 1002 Huene, 2000; Sak et al., 2009; Gardner et al., 2013; Vannucchi et al., 2013). The subvertical and NE-1003 striking faults formed during D2, such as the N-BRFZ and O-OBFZ segments, are arranged at high 1004 angles to the margin and may have accommodated differential displacements during D3, acting as 1005 transfer faults. Ocoa Bay would therefore be an embayment of ~ 20 km wide and ~ 25 km length, 1006 formed by the passage of a bathymetric high in the subducting Beata Ridge. A similar mechanism 1007 has been proposed along the northern Hispaniola-Puerto Rico margin, where subduction/collision of 1008 1009 bathymetric highs built on the Atlantic oceanic crust has resulted to basal erosion in the upper plate and forearc collapse (Grindlay et al., 2005; Escuder-Viruete and Pérez, 2020). 1010

This interpretation is favored by the absence of the coral terrace of the MIS 5e/5c inboard of the Beata indenter (Fig. 13), which must have been uplifted and eroded or sunk by D3b extensional tectonics. In turn, the gravimetric and magnetic anomaly produced by the CLIP magnetic basalts that characterizes the surroundings of Ocoa Bay (Fig. 4) suggests a thinning of the upper plate wedge in the submarine portion of the margin. In this tectonic context, the high uplift rates detected in the uplifted modern coral terrace indicate a new episode of rapid uplift and future subsidence of the margin during continued subduction of the Beata Ridge.

1018 Although the role of seamounts/aseismic ridge subduction in the plate-margin seismicity is disputed, e.g. enhancing seismic coupling (e.g., Bangs et al., 2015) versus decreasing the degree of coupling 1019 and limiting the lateral propagation of megathrust-earthquake rupture planes (e.g., Bonnet et al., 1020 2019), the 1751 earthquake occurred in the vicinity of the Ocoa Bay and destroyed the city of Azua. 1021 The presence of the subducting Beata Ridge in high-resolution bathymetric swath maps of the 1022 1023 Caribbean-Hispaniola plate boundary region and in seismic reflection profiles across the Muertos 1024 Trench (e.g., Granja Bruña et al., 2014), together with the proposed location of the Azua earthquake 1025 intensity center in the Ocoa Bay (Bakun et al., 2012), suggest that this Mw=7.5 event may have

resulted from the rupture of a ridge asperity in the subduction and can therefore be repeated in thefuture.

1028 *6.4. Definition of seismotectonic structures in southern central Hispaniola*

The characterization of seismotectonic structures has been previously carried out in some sectors of 1029 Hispaniola Island (Frankel et al., 2010; Bertil et al., 2015; Escuder-Viruete et al., 2020; Terrier-1030 1031 Sedan and Bertil, 2021). Used criteria in the definition were: geodynamic situation; geological, stratigraphic and/or tectonic evidence of recent activity; kinematic type of fault and rate of 1032 displacement; and associated historical and/or instrumental seismicity. The definition of these large-1033 scale active structures is critical since it allows for establishing seismotectonic zonation models of 1034 the area under consideration, which is fundamental for the quantitative seismic hazard assessment. 1035 However, this approach requires updating the inventory of active structures as tectonic and 1036 1037 seismological knowledge increases.

The previous works and the new data presented in this work allow updating the main seismotectonic fault zones structures in southern central Hispaniola, including its adjacent offshore sector. They are: San Juan-Pozos (Mann et al., 1991a); Matheux-Sierra de Neiba (MAFZ, Hernaiz Huerta et al., 2007); Bahoruco (BAFZ or Barahona Thrust; Rodríguez et al., 2018); Beata Ridge (Mauffret and Leroy, 1999); Muertos Trough (Granja Bruña et al., 2009; 2014); Ocoa-Bonao-La Guacara (Pérez-Estaún et al., 2007; Escuder-Viruete et al., in press); and probably the eastern end of the Enriquillo-Plantain Garden (EPGFZ; Mann et al., 1995).

The attribute compilation of these seismotectonic structures is outlined in Table 1, including the fault or segment name, deformation mechanism, estimated maximum magnitude (Mw), known biggest earthquake (magnitude in Mw), estimated displacement rate, length, strike and dip, and width of the fault zone. Following Bertil et al. (2015) and Terrier-Sedan and Bertil (2021), the maximum magnitude of rupture for each fault/segment was estimated using the major recorded historical earthquake, or its geometric parameters (e.g. Wells and Coppersmith, 1994), taking into account its
degree of uncertainty. Displacement rates for each seismogenic structure were derived from
geological mapping (SYSMIN Project, 2010; this work), geodetic GPS measurements (Calais et al.,
2002; Manaker et al., 2008), or calculated in the present study through empirical relationships (e.g.
Wells and Coppersmith, 1994).

From this information, a simplified seismotectonic model was built that considers two types of seismic sources: subduction and strike-slip fault zones in which the seismicity of greater magnitude is concentrated; and superficial/upper crustal areas located between them where the seismicity is of moderate to low magnitude and is more homogeneously distributed. This seismotectonic model is the starting point for the seismic hazard assessment in southern central Hispaniola presented below.

1060 6.5. Seismic hazard assessment in southern central Hispaniola

The seismic hazard assessment carried out in this work follows a probabilistic approach. Following the Cornell-McGuire methodology, the R-CRISIS calculation code (Ordaz et al., 2014) builds a probabilistic model that takes into account the spatial distribution of seismogenic sources, the occurrence and magnitude of earthquakes in time, and the attenuation characteristics of the strong motion in the ground. Thus, the R-CRISIS code computes the seismic hazard in terms of the probability of exceeding a peak ground acceleration (PGA) value for a specific site in a given period.

For the seismic hazard assessment in southern Central Hispaniola, the previously described seismotectonic zonation model composed of subduction zones, main strike-slip fault zones and diffuse seismogenic zones located between them, was geometrically built as simplified 3-D polygonal surfaces of specific wildth. In these seismic sources, earthquakes can occur at any point of the source with equal probability (Ordaz et al., 2014). Functions selected to describe the attenuation of the ground motion acceleration with distance from the source are the same as those used by Frankel et al. (2010) and Benito et al. (2012) to evaluate the seismic hazard in Haiti after the 1074 12/10/2010 earthquake. Parameters used to establish the seismic activity of each source and their 1075 uncertainties are included in Escuder-Viruete et al. (2020). The hazard analysis performed in this 1076 work did not take into account possible amplifications of the seismic parameters by site effects. 1077 Seismic hazard was computed in a rectangular point grid, framed by the coordinates: 17.960°N and 1078 18.835°N of latitude; -70.175°W and -71.250°W of longitude (WGS-84 projection system), with a 1079 point spacing of 0.025° in both directions. Results were converted in a continuous surface using an 1080 inverse distance squared weighted interpolation algorithm.

Figure 17 includes the results of the seismic hazard assessment in southern central Hispaniola, 1081 expressed as PGA intervals (values in cm/s²) and for a return period of 475 years (i.e., for a 1082 probability of exceedance of 10% in 50 years). Modeled minimum and maximum PGA values are 86 1083 cm/s^2 and 857 cm/s^2 , respectively, with a mean (and standard deviation) of 386.7 (148.0). Therefore, 1084 1085 the regional seismic hazard values range from low to very high. PGA zoning defines an elongated pattern sub-parallel to the main fault zones. Seismic hazard is higher in the Ocoa Bay, along the San 1086 1087 José de Ocoa valley in the southern Cordillera Central, and in the topographic transition between the northern Cordillera Central and the eastern Cibao Valley. It decreases towards the NW and SE 1088 regions. This seismic hazard zoning contrasts with the previously proposed by Frankel et al. (2010), 1089 1090 Benito et al. (2012) and Bertil et al. (2010, 2015), which did not take into account all the seismic sources included in the present work, particularly the Ocoa-Bonao-La Guácara fault zone. 1091

1092 With this seismotectonic model, the highest PGA values (> 600 cm/s^2) are associated with the N-1093 BRFZ, O-OBFZ and C-OBFZ segments. Branches of the S-OBFZ segment set intermediate to high 1094 values ($500-650 \text{ cm/s}^2$). The C-OBFZ segment also has associated high PGA values (> 650 cm/s^2), 1095 which decrease to intermediate and low values westward along the W-OBFZ segment (250-4501096 cm/s²). The superficial trace of the O-MT segment of the Muertos Trough also has associated high 1097 PGA values (600 cm/s^2), which extend into depth following the subduction interface. The BAFZ has 1098 associated intermediate PGA values in its connection to the BRFZ, which also decrease westward. The S-JPFZ presents high PGA values at its SE end (500-700 cm/s²), where it is displaced by the N-BRFZ, decreasing towards the NW. The Hispaniola fault zone has also been included in the modeling, giving rise to intermediate values of the PGA that become high in its central segment. The E-EPGFZ segment also has associated intermediate to low PGA values (400-500 cm/s²).

In summary, the highest PGA values in southern central Hispaniola are associated with N-BRFZ, O-1103 OBGFZ and A-MT segments, whose traces frame a triangular zone centered on Ocoa Bay where the 1104 seismic hazard is very high. As described, this sector includes the intensity center estimated for the 1105 1751 Azua earthquake (Mw 7.5), which according to some historical accounts gave rise to a tsunami 1106 in the bay. For Bakun et al., (2012), this event could be produced by the Enriquilo-Platain Garden 1107 fault zone or, as an alternative source, the Muertos deformation belt. The results of the PGA 1108 modeling rule out the EPGFZ as a source and indicate that the BRFZ, the O-MT and, less likely, the 1109 1110 O-OBFZ, could have generated this earthquake.

Historical records indicate that the greatest effects of the 1615, 1684, 1691 and 1911 earthquakes (Mw from 6.0 to 7.5) were in the southern sector of the Central Cordillera. However, the determination of its seismic source could not be confidently established with the available data, since these strong earthquakes did not produce known surface ruptures. Future neotectonic and paleoseismological studies, together with the seismic hazard modeling, may shed light on the active fault zones that generated large earthquakes in the region and therefore allow updating the spatial distribution of the seismic hazard.

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1125 Data Availability Statement

- 1126 The data for this paper are contained in the text, figures and supporting information and can also be
- 1127 found in the data repository DIGITAL.CSIC which is the institutional repository of the Spanish
- 1128 National Research Council (Escuder-Viruete et al., 2023).

1129 Electronic supporting informationin also in Data Repository

- 1130 Supporting Information S1. U-Th geochronological results of coral samples.
- 1131 Supporting Information S2. Methodology of dynamic fault-slip analysis.
- 1132 Supporting Information S3. Sites used to obtain stress tensors from the analysis of fault-slip data
- 1133 sets.
- 1134 Supporting Information S4. Stress tensors obtained by methods of inversion of fault-slip data.
- 1135 Supporting Information S5. Maximum horizontal stresses and tectonic regimes obtained by inversion
- 1136 methods.

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- 1455 **Figure Captions**

Fig. 1. Geodynamic reconstructions made with Gplates 2.3.0 software for arc-continent and arc-1456 oceanic plateau collisions in northern and southern Hispaniola, respectively. Different tectonic 1457 elements are color coded and described in the key. (a) Reconstruction at 80 Ma (lower Campanian): 1458 the large white area in the present-day location of the central Caribbean represents the proto-1459 Caribbean oceanic crust that will be subducted by the NE motion of the intra-oceanic Caribbean 1460 island-arc. Dark grey areas represent zones of thickened Caribbean oceanic plateau (CLIP). (b) 1461 Reconstruction at 40 Ma (middle Eocene): at this time the Caribbean island-arc collided with the 1462 southern North American continental margin and is moving eastward. The small white area adjacent 1463 to southern Hispaniola will start to subduct due to back-thrusting in the Peralta-Muertos accretionary 1464 prism. (c) Present-day: the ENE-directed convergence led to Caribbean plate subduction and Beata 1465 Ridge collision in southern central Hispaniola. The blue line represents the path of a point (blue star) 1466 1467 on the Sierra Bahoruco in the Caribbean plate since 80 Ma. GPlates reconstructions show that the 1468 direction of motion of the central Caribbean plate abruptly changes from northeastward to east-1469 northeastward in the middle Eocene. This means that the direction of subduction/collision is highly oblique along the E-W-striking Peralta-Muertos deformed belt in southern Hispaniola. AVR, Aves 1470 Ridge; BR, Barbados Prism; BE, Beata Escarpement; BOFZ, Boconó Fault Zone; BOFZ, Bowin 1471

1472 Fault Zone; BFZ, Bucaramanga fault zone; CAT, Cayman Trough; CHO, Chortis block; CGFZ, Cerro Golden Fault Zone; CR, Costa Rica; CU, Cuba; EPFZ, El Pilar Fault Zone; EPGFZ, 1473 Enriquillo-Platain Garden Fault Zone; GRB, Grenada basin; H; Hispaniola (Dominican Republic and 1474 Haiti); HP, Haiti Plateau; HE, Hess Escarpement; HB, Hispaniola Basin; LA, Lesser Antilles; MB, 1475 Maracaibo basin; MES, Mesquito terranes; MAT, Middle America Trench; MC, Mona Canyon; MP, 1476 Mona Passage; MDB, Muertos Deformed Belt; MT, Muertos Trough; MPFZ, Motaguá Polochic 1477 fault zone; NHDB, North Hispaniola Deformed Belt; NHFZ, North Hispaniola Fault Zone; NPFB, 1478 Nothern Panamá Fold Belt; OFZ, Oriente fault zone; P, Panamá; PB, Peralta Belt; PR, Puerto Rico; 1479 1480 PRT, Puerto Rico Trench; SFZ, Septentrional Fault Zone; SCDB, South Caribbean Deformed Belt; SFB, South Florida basin; TB, Tobago basin; VDB, Venezuela Deformed Belt; VI, Virgin Islands; 1481 YUC, Yucatán block. 1482

1483 Fig. 2. (a) Map of the northeastern margin of the Caribbean Plate showing the location of plate and microplate boundaries, as well as the main tectonic structures. The red arrow defines the movement 1484 1485 vector of 18-20 mm/a in the direction N070°E of the Caribbean Plate with respect to the North American Plate (mod. Mann et al., 2002). Relief in color scale has been made from the GMRT 1486 synthesis data set (Ryan et al., 2009) with GeoMapApp (www.geomapapp.org). The discontinuous 1487 red rectangle defines the situation of the study area in the Dominican Republic. (b) Schematic 1488 geologic map of southern Hispaniola (mod. from the SYSMIN Project; Pérez-Estaún et al., 2007). 1489 1490 The discontinuous red line marks location of Fig. 3. (c) Geological cross-section of the study area. The location is shown in (b). Abbreviations as in Fig. 1, in addition: CFZ, Camú fault zone; HDB; 1491 Haiti Deformed Belt; OBFZ, Ocoa-Bonao-La Guacara fault zone; SFZ, Septentrional fault zone; 1492 SJPFZ, San Juan-Los Pozos fault zone; TBFZ; Trois Baies fault zone. 1493

Fig. 3. Neotectonic map of southern central Hispaniola. Shaded relief in grayscale has been made from the GMRT synthesis data set (Ryan et al., 2009) with *GeoMapApp* (www.geomapapp.org). The

1496 neotectonic structures and late Neogene and Quaternary lithostratigraphic units compiled in the map

result from integrating new field data with the geologic map obtained by the SYSMIN Project in the 1497 Dominican Republic (Pérez-Estaún et al., 2007). The main neotectonic structures are: Offshore (O-1498 OBFZ) and Southern (S-OBFZ) segments of the Ocoa-Bonao-La Guacara fault zone; Central (C-1499 SFZ) segment of the Septentrional fault zone; Southern (S-HFZ), Central (C-HFZ) and Northern (N-1500 HFZ) segments of Hispaniola fault zone; Southern (S-JPFZ) and Central (C-JPFZ) segments of the 1501 San Juan-Los Pozos fault zone; and Northern (N-BRFZ) and Central (C-BRFZ) segments of the 1502 1503 Beata Ridge fault Zone. Other relevant structures are the Bahoruco fault zone (BAFZ) and the Ocoa segment of the Muertos Trust (O-MT). 1504

Fig. 4. (a) Bouguer gravity anomaly map of southern central Hispaniola showing major tectonic 1505 features delineated by sharp gravity gradients. Areas of exposed or shallow igneous and 1506 1507 metamorphic basement of Cretaceous age in the northern Cordillera Central and Sierra Bahoruco 1508 show higher anomalies (red to yellow tones), whereas areas with high sediment accumulation in the 1509 Cibao, San Juan and Azua basins are expressed by low anomalies (dark to light blue tones). (b) 1510 Reduced to the magnetic pole map showing major lithologic and tectonic features of southern central Hispaniola. The reduction to the pole of the whole magnetic field improves the spatial position of 1511 anomalies that help to define areas with long and short wavelengths, regional trends and tectonic 1512 boundaries between magnetic provinces. See explanation in the text. 1513

Fig. 5. Structural analysis of the Peralta Belt. (a) Structural map of the eastern Peralta Belt in 1514 southern central Hispaniola (see location in Fig. 3), showing the tectonic domains, main Quaternary 1515 lithostratigraphic units, neotectonic structures, and sites of fault-slip data measurements. OBFZ, 1516 Ocoa-Bonao-La Guacara fault zone; SJ, San José de Ocoa intramountain basin; RA, Rancho Arriba 1517 intramountain basin. (b) Stereoplots of the non-coaxial Sp-Lp fabric produced by syn-sedimentary 1518 deformation during the upper Eocene in the Peralta and Ocoa Groups. (c) Field aspect of the syn-1519 1520 sedimentary deformation developed heterogeneously in the turbidites of the Ocoa Group. (d) Zone of 1521 stratal disruption in the Ocoa Group, characterized by boudinage of sandstone beds, tight to isoclinal 1522 folds with rootless limbs, and a pervasive scary clay fabric (Sp) in mudstone interbeds. (e) Detail of1523 the boudinaged sandstone beds and the S-C structures in the mudstones.

Fig. 6. Structural analysis of the Peralta Belt. (a) Stereoplots of the principal stress axes obtained from inversion of fault-slip data. n, number of data. Inversion methods: PTM, P–T Method; RDM, Right Dihedra Method; DIM (Direct Inversion Method); and NDA, Numerical Dynamic Analysis Method. (b) Asymmetric D1 folds of SW vergence, associated with mid-dip angle reverse faults, developed in the limestones of the lower Miocene Sobrerito Formation. (c) D1 reverse faults cutting the block-in-matrix fabric (Sp) and calcite veins in the Peralta Group.

Fig. 7. Structural analysis of the Peralta Belt. (a) Stereoplots of the principal stress-axes obtained 1530 from inversion of fault-slip data. (b) Structural map of the northern Ocoa Bay in southern central 1531 Hispaniola (see location in Fig. 3), showing main lithostratigraphic units, neotectonic structures, and 1532 1533 sites of fault-slip data measurements. (c) Geological cross-section of the frontal part of the Peralta 1534 Belt. (d, e) Field aspect of the Loma Vieja frontal thrust (site 21JE123, see location in the cross-1535 section), where the lower to middle Miocene limestones of the Sobrerito Formation overthrust the conglomerates of the late Pliocene to lower Pleistocene Arroyo Seco Formation. Acronyms as in Fig. 1536 1537 3.

Fig. 8. Structural analysis in the Loma Vigia sector of the Ocoa Bay. (a) Stereoplots of the principal
stress axes obtained from inversion of fault-slip data. (b) D1 fold and reverse fault truncated by D3
normal faults, dragging the limestone layers in the hanging-wall block to the SW (site 21JE120). (c,
d) Limestone beds of the Sombrerito Formation displaced by a system of ENE to E-striking normal
faults along whose planes intrude locally mafic magmas (site 21JE113).

Fig. 9. Structural analysis in the Sierra Martín García. (a) Stereoplots of the principal stress axes obtained from inversion of fault-slip data. (b) Structural map of the eastern Sierra Martín García in southern central Hispaniola (see location in Fig. 3), showing main lithostratigraphic units, 1546 neotectonic structures, and sites of fault-slip data measurements. (c) Stratigraphic logs in Cañada Arenazo and Playa Caobita sites. (d) Aspect of the bands of fault-gouge and fine crush breccia 1547 several tens of meters thick associated with the strike-slip D2 deformation. View width is 40 m. (e) 1548 D3 normal faults deforming the alluvial fans deposits of Late Pleistocene to Holocene? age. View 1549 width is 18 m. (f) Coral-reef terrace of Late Pleistocene boundary age (MIS 5c) deformed by D3 1550 normal faults. (g) Field appearance of the calcite fill in the planes of the D3 extensional faults that 1551 1552 deform the coral terrace. Gm, matrix-supported, muddy-sandy conglomerate; Gp, clast-supported, conglomerate; Sc. medium-to-thick bedded coarse-grained 1553 sandy sandstone and microconglomerates; Sm, thin-bedded, medium-to-fine-grained sandstone; Sf, fine-grained 1554 sandstone, siltstone and laminated mudstone; Ms, massive variocolored mundstone; Ls, coral reef 1555 limestone. 1556

Fig. 10. Structural analysis in northeast Sierra Bahoruco. (a) Stereoplots of the principal stress axes obtained from inversion of fault-slip data. (b) Geological cross-section of the Playa Azul site (see location in Fig. 3). (c) Panoramic view of the geological cross-section outcrop. (d) Field relationships of the limestones of the Sombrerito Formation, coral-reef terrace of Middle to Late Pleistocene boundary age (MIS 5e stage) and gravels and red mudstones of the alluvial fan faulted by D2 strikeslip faults. (e) Field aspect of the gravels and red mudstones of the alluvial fan faulted by D3 extensional faults.

Fig. 11. Structural analysis in the Sierra Martín García. (a) Stereoplots of the principal stress axes obtained from inversion of fault-slip data. (b) Structural map of the southwestern Sierra Martín García (see location in Fig. 3), showing main lithostratigraphic units, neotectonic structures, and sites of fault-slip data measurements. (c) WNW-trending and SW-verging asymmetric D1 folds developed in the the marls and gypsum beds of the upper Pliocene La Salina Formation. (d) SW-verging asymmetric D1 folds associated with mid-dip angle reverse faults inclined to the NE developed in the gypsum deposits. The asymmetry of D1 folds and mesoscopic S-C structures establish a top-tothe-SW reverse movement. (e) Field relationships of superposition of D3 normal fault striations (e2)
over D2 strike-slip striations (e1) deforming stratified gypsum beds (S0). (f) Accumulation of *Diploria* sp. forming the reef-platform facies of a coral terrace grown during the MIS 5e stage that
fossilizes the D1 frontal thrust of the Sierra Martín García.

Fig. 12. Structural analysis in the San José de Ocoa basin. (a) Stereoplots of the principal stress axes 1575 obtained from inversion of fault-slip data. (b) Folded and faulted mudstones of the Numero 1576 Formation juxtaposed to tilted and faulted San José de Ocoa basin deposits through subvertical 1577 oblique reverse right-lateral D2 faults of the eastern branch of the S-OBFZ segment. (c) Low-pitch 1578 angle striations developed in subvertical fault planes subparallel to the S-OBFZ segment deforming 1579 the volcanic rocks of the Tireo Group. (d) Brecciated damage fault zone with low-pitch angle 1580 1581 striations developed in subvertical D2 fault planes sub-parallel to the S-OBFZ segment. (e) Field 1582 overlapping relationships between low-pitch angle strike-slip striaes deformed by dip-slip normal 1583 striaes in the same fault plane, establishing a temporal order between D2 and D3 deformations.

Fig. 13. Structural analysis of the extensional D3 deformation in the Cordillera Central. (a) Stereoplots of the principal stress-axes obtained from inversion of fault-slip data. (b) Map of distribution of fossil coral reef terraces of the MIS 5e/5c and 1 stages, as well as the area affected by the D3b extensional event. See explanation in text. Shaded relief as in Fig.3.

Fig. 14. Structural analysis in the Cordillera Central. (a) Stereoplots of the principal stress-axes obtained from inversion of fault-slip data. (b) Late Cretaceous green tuffs of the Tireo Group imbricated by WSW-directed D1 thrusts. (c) Detail of D3 extensional faults overlaping D1 thrusts in the green tuffs. (d) Panoramic view of Constanza mountainous area showing a D1 macrostructure of NW-striking thrusts built up on late Cretaceous volcano-plutonic rocks overthrusting the sedimentary fill of a Quaternary intramountaneous basin. Note the development of perched valleys and triangular 1594 facets in the hanging-wall block. (e) Detail of the striae associated to the development of a D2 left-1595 hand strike-slip fault in late Cretaceous tonalitic rocks.

Fig. 15. (a) Stereoplots of the principal stress-axes obtained from fault-slip data inversion grouped by deformation events and (b) their classification according to its kinematic regime (see Supporting Information S5). The orientation of σ_1 has been restored at sites that have undergone a post-D1 rotation. Contours in stereoplots at 1.0, 5.0, 10.0, 15.0, 20.0 and 25.0%. Computed mean stress axes for each deformation event are expressed in % and trend/plunge angles.

Fig. 16. Neotectonic diagrams showing the evolution of the Quaternary stress regime in southern 1601 central Hispaniola set up for (a) D1 reverse, (b) D2 strike-slip, and (c) D3 extensional events. 1602 Maximum horizontal stress axis trends were derived from fault-slip data inversion. Shaded relief in 1603 grayscale has been made as in Fig. 3, indicating the overlay colour different geological domains: 1604 green, the Cretaceous basement of the Cordillera Central; pink, the middle Eocene-lower Miocene 1605 Peralta fold-and-thrust belt and the overlying uplifted forearc basin; yellow, the Tertiary limestones 1606 of the Sierras de Neiba, Martín García y Bahoruco; and pale blue, the Neogene San Juan-Azua 1607 Basin. Vectors of GPS velocities relative to the Caribbean plate at stations located in the study area 1608 are from Symithe et al. (2015), Calais et al. (2016) and UNAVCO (https://coconet.unavco.org). 1609 Acronyms as in Fig. 3. See text for explanation. 1610

Fig. 17. Result of the probabilistic seismic hazard modeling in southern central Hispaniola, as well as adjacent offshore sectors of the Ocoa Bay, expressed as iso-PGA (Peak Ground Acceleration) zones (in cm/s²) for a return period of 475 years (i.e., an exceedance probability of 10% in 50 years). The modelled area is the same of Fig. 3 and framed by a discontinuous red box in Fig. 2. Figure also includes the trace of the main seismogenic structures described in Table 1. MDT. Shaded relief and acronyms as in Fig. 3. See text for explanation. Figure1.



Figure2.







Figure3.



Figure4a.



Figure4b.



Figure5.






Figure6.



Figure7.



Figure8.



Figure9.







Figure10.



Figure11.



Figure12.



Figure13.



Figure14.



Figure15.



Figure16.







LEGEND

Maximum horizontal stress axis ひ obtained from fault-slip data Id. obtained by Escuder-Viruete et al. (2023) $\Diamond \Diamond$ 5 mm/yr GPS velocity vector with respect to Caribbean plate (Calais et al., 2016) 0 NEOTECTONIC STRUCTURES Main fault zones Fault (unspecified) - • Deduced fault High-angle normal fault Strike-slip fault <u>_</u> Thrust or high-angle reverse fault -**≜**- Anticline GEOLOGICAL DOMAINS Gônave microplate

- Sierra de Naiba, Martín García and Bahoruco (Tertiary)
- Peralta Belt Peralta and Ocoa Groups (Paleogene)

Cordillera Central

Volcanic and plutonic rocks (Cretaceous)

NEOGENE STRATIGRAPHY

Fluvial floodplain (Holocene) Constanza, San José de Ocoa and Rancho Arriba intramontaneous Basins

Alluvial and lacustrine dep. (Holoc.) San Juan, Azua and Enriquillo Basins

Yaque Sur delta deposits (Holoc.) Intertidal plain deposits (Holocene) Lower fluvial terrace (Holocene) Intermediate fluvial terrace (Pleist.) Upper fluvial terrace (Pleistocene) Lower alluvial fans (Holocene) Intermediate alluvial fans (Pleist.) Upper alluvial fans (Pleistocene) Arroyo Seco Fm (L. Plioc.-L. Pleist.) Volcanic rocks (Quaternary)

Figure17.



Code	Fault/segment name	Deformation mechanism	Maximum estimated magnitude (M _w)	Major known earthquake and magnitude (M _w)	Estimated displacement rate	Lenght	Azimut and dip of fault zone
S-OBFZ	Southern Ocoa- Bonao-La Guacara Fault Zone	right-lateral strike-slip	M _{max} 6,5 (± 0,5)	unknown	0.4 (± 0.2) mm/yr	60 (± 10) km	N010°E to N030°E, subvertical dip
C-OBFZ	Central Ocoa- Bonao-La Guacara Fault Zone	oblique reverse	M _{max} 6,5 (± 0,5)	unknown	0.4 (± 0.2) mm/yr	50 (± 10) km	N160°E to N010°E, subvertical dip to 40° (±15) W
W-OBFZ	Western Ocoa- Bonao-La Guacara Fault Zone	left-lateral oblique reverse to strike-slip	M _{max} 6,0 (± 1,0)	1562 earthquake?	0.2 (± 0.1) mm/yr	90 to 120 km	N100°E to N150°E, 45° (±15) SW to subvertical dip
S-HFZ	Southern Hispaniola Fault Zone	righ-lateral strike-slip?	M _{max} 7.1 (± 0.3)	unknown	< 0.2 mm/yr	50 to 70 km	N140°E (±15), subvertical dip
E-MAFZ	Eastern Sierra de Neiba- Matheux thrust	left-lateral oblique reverse to thrust	M _{max} 5.8 (± 0.3)	1942 (Mw 5.8)	0.2 mm/yr	segments of 30 (± 5) km	N120°S (±15), 65° (±10) N
S-JPFZ	Southern San Juan - Pozos Fault Zone	left-lareal oblique revrese to thust	M _{max} 6.5 (± 0.5)	1911 (Mw 6.7)	1.5 (± 1.5) mm/yr	>250 km, including segments and imbrications	N130°E (±15), 45° (±15) NE
BAFZ	Bahoruco Fault Zone or Barahona Thrust	reverse	M _{max} 7.0 (± 0.6)	1963, Mw 5.7; FD 9 km	0.2 mm/yr	50 to 85 km, including segments and imbrications	N100°E (±15), 50° (±15) S
E-EPGFZ	Eastern Enriquillo- Plantain Garden Fault Zone	left-lateral strike-slip to oblique reverse	M _{max} 7.3 (± 0.3)	1751 (Mw 7.5)?, 2010 (Mw 7.0)	8.3 (± 2.0) mm/yr	80 (± 10) km	N080°E (±10), subvertical dip
N-BRFZ	Northern Beata Ridge Fault Zone	left-lateral strike-slip to reverse	$\begin{array}{c} M_{max} \ 6.5 \ (\pm \ 0.1), \\ recorded: \ 4.3 \\ (12/09/2005) \\ and \ 4.1 \\ (12/10/2013) \end{array}$	1751 (Mw 7.5- 8.0)?, 1691?	0.2 mm/yr, probably	60 (± 5) km	N040°E (±10), subvertical dip
C-BRFZ	Central Beata Ridge Fault Zone	left-lateral strike-slip to normal dip-slip	$\begin{array}{l} M_{max} \ 6.5 \ (\pm \\ 0.1), \\ recorded: \ 4.3 \\ (12/09/2005) \\ and \ 4.1 \\ (12/10/2013) \end{array}$	1751 (Mw 7.5- 8.0)?, 1691?	0.2 mm/yr, probably	100 (± 5) km	N030°E (±10), 70° (±15) E to subvertical dip
W-MT	Western Muertos Trough	reverse to oblique reverse	M _{max} 7.5 (± 0.5)	1673 (Mw 7.3)?; 1691 (Mw 7.7)?; 1751 (Mw 7.5- 8.0)?	6.2 (± 1.0) mm/yr	170 km	N100°E (±5), 12° (±5) northward dip
W-DEEP- MT	Western Muertos Trough, deep part	reverse to oblique reverse	M _{max} 7.5 (± 0.5)	1673 (Mw 7.3)?; 1691 (Mw 7.7)?; 1751 (Mw 7.5- 8.0)?	6.2 (± 1.0) mm/yr	170 km	N100°E (±5), 40° (±5) northward dip

Table 1.	Characteristics	of the mair	ı seismotectonic	structures in	southern	central His	paniola

	Muertos	reverse to	M 75(+	1751 (Mw 7.5	$6.2(\pm 1.0)$		N135°E (±5),
O-MT	Trough, Ocoa		M_{max} /.5 (\perp	1/31 (IVIW 7.3-	$0.2 (\pm 1.0)$	40 km	15° (±5)
	Bay part	oblique reverse	0.5)	8.0)?	mm/yr		northward dip

Width of fault zone
$10 \pm 5 \text{ km}$
$10 \pm 5 \text{ km}$
5 ± 2 km
$10 \pm 5 \text{ km}$
$15 \pm 5 \text{ km}$
$7 \pm 5 \text{ km}$
$7 \pm 5 \text{ km}$
$10\pm5\ km$
$10\pm5~km$
$10 \pm 5 \text{ km}$
$20 \pm 15 \text{ km}$
$20\pm15\ km$

 $20\pm15\;km$