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Antarctic Geothermal Heat Flow, Crustal Conductivity and Heat Production Inferred From Seismological Data

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1 Key Points:

- 2 Demonstration of new methodology for inferring geothermal heat flow from seismological data.
- 3 • S- and P-wave velocity used together to infer and fit geotherms.
- 4 • Incorporation of laterally varying crustal conductivity and heat production.
- 5

6 Abstract

7 Geothermal heat flow is a key parameter in governing ice dynamics, via its influence
8 on basal melt and sliding, englacial rheology, and erosion. It is expected to exhibit
9 significant lateral variability across Antarctica. Despite this, surface heat flow derived
10 from Earth's interior remains one of the most poorly constrained parameters controlling
11 ice-sheet evolution. To obtain a continent-wide map of Antarctic heat supply at regional-
12 scale resolution, we estimate upper mantle thermomechanical structure directly from V_S .
13 Until now, direct inferences of Antarctic heat supply have assumed constant crustal com-
14 position. Here, we explore a range of crustal conductivity and radiogenic heat produc-
15 tion values by fitting thermodynamically self-consistent geotherms to their seismically
16 inferred counterparts. Independent estimates of crustal conductivity derived from V_P are
17 integrated to break an observed trade-off between crustal parameters, allowing us to in-
18 fer Antarctic geothermal heat flow and its associated uncertainty.

19 Plain Language Summary

20 The future evolution of the Antarctic Ice Sheet depends on its stability, which de-
21 scribes how sensitive it is to environmental change. A key factor influencing ice sheet sta-
22 bility is how much thermal energy is transferred into its base from Earth's interior: a
23 parameter called geothermal heat flow. If the level of heat supply is high, melting at the
24 base of the ice sheet is encouraged, resulting in enhanced sliding towards outlet glaciers
25 at the continental perimeter. Consequently, ice loss is accelerated, and the likelihood of
26 glacial collapse is increased. Therefore, an accurate map of Antarctic geothermal heat
27 flow, including how this parameter varies from region to region, is needed to produce high
28 quality projections of Antarctic ice mass loss and therefore global sea level change. In
29 this study, we use models of how seismic wave speed varies within Earth to estimate its
30 three-dimensional temperature structure, as well as its thermal conductivity. These data
31 are used to infer a collection of best-fitting models of Earth's thermal state, and hence
32 estimate Antarctic geothermal heat flow.

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33 1 Introduction

34 Heat derived from Earth's interior, and supplied to its surface, is a crucial component
 35 of ice sheet basal conditions. The supply of thermal energy to the ice sheet-solid
 36 Earth interface can influence basal melt and sliding, englacial rheology, and erosion, and
 37 is therefore a key factor in governing ice dynamics (Larour et al., 2012; Burton-Johnson
 38 et al., 2020). Not only are ice dynamics highly sensitive to the supply of geothermal heat,
 39 the latter is expected to vary significantly across Antarctica (e.g., Shen et al., 2020). The
 40 result is that a good understanding of the pattern and amplitude of heat supply into the
 41 base of the Antarctic Ice Sheet is a requirement for accurately modelling its evolution.

42 To quantify heat supply we refer to geothermal heat flow (GHF), q_s , pertaining to
 43 the amount of thermal energy supplied across Earth's surface, per unit area and time
 44 (units mW m^{-2}). Since thermal conduction is the dominant mechanism of heat trans-
 45 fer in Earth's crust, Fourier's law of conduction is used to relate q_s to Earth's temper-
 46 ature structure,

$$47 \vec{\mathbf{q}}_s = -k(z = z_0) \frac{\partial T}{\partial z} \Big|_{z=z_0} \hat{\mathbf{z}}, \quad (1)$$

$$48 q_s = |\vec{\mathbf{q}}_s|. \quad (2)$$

50 Here, k is thermal conductivity, T is temperature, z is a locally vertical depth co-ordinate,
 51 and z_0 is located at the surface. Theoretically, then, Equation 1 gives us a pathway to
 52 estimating q_s , via measurements of laterally varying thermomechanical structure. Indeed,
 53 local estimates of Antarctic GHF have been made using observations of temperature and
 54 depth from boreholes into unconsolidated sediment, ice, or bedrock. However, such mea-
 55 surements can only be used to infer point estimates of GHF.

56 To obtain continental scale maps of GHF in Antarctica suitable for ice sheet mod-
 57 elling, geophysical methods are an extremely valuable tool. A number of methods based
 58 on magnetic, gravity or seismic data have been employed in the past (e.g., An et al., 2015;
 59 Martos et al., 2017; Haeger et al., 2022). Whilst useful, such methods have suffered from
 60 a range of data- and modelling-derived issues. For example, sparsity of data and a lack
 61 of sensitivity to short-wavelength structure has led to poor spatial resolution of inferred
 62 GHF models. Poor constraint on crustal parameters such as thermal conductivity and
 63 heat production has led to lateral variations being ignored, despite their potential to vary
 64 significantly, and the consequent impact of such variations on GHF. Difficulties in con-
 65 verting field observations into estimates of Earth's thermal structure, and the inference
 66 of only a single isotherm, has led to large uncertainty in GHF predictions.

67 A number of recent advances allow for the establishment of a novel approach to in-
 68 fer GHF from seismological data sets. Firstly, the development of ANT-20, a wave-equation
 69 travelttime adjoint tomographic model, lays the groundwork for imaging Antarctic ther-
 70 momechanical structure and henceforth GHF at regional-scale resolution (~ 100 km)
 71 (Lloyd et al., 2020; Hazzard et al., 2023). Secondly, new geochemical analyses have im-
 72 proved our understanding of the likely range of key crustal parameters governing heat
 73 supply, their relationship with composition, and to what extent they can be inferred from
 74 geophysical data (Sammon et al., 2022; Jennings et al., 2019). Thirdly, the emergence
 75 of physics-based parameterisations of mantle rock properties, constrained via laboratory
 76 experiments, has opened the door to converting seismic velocities directly into temper-
 77 ature (Faul & Jackson, 2005; Yamauchi & Takei, 2016; Yabe & Hiraga, 2020). In addi-
 78 tion, methods to calibrate these parameterisations based on a range of geophysical data
 79 constraints have allowed us to reduce uncertainty in such conversions (Richards et al.,
 80 2020; Hazzard et al., 2023).

81 Here, we harness the aforementioned advances to produce a new model of Antarc-
 82 tic GHF and its associated uncertainty, based on a new approach integrating both shear-
 83 (V_S) and compressional- (V_P) wave velocity data. In Section 2, the methodological de-
 84 tails underpinning this approach are described, including details of how the data are utilised

85 to co-constrain crustal conductivity, heat production, and surface GHF. In Section 3, we
 86 present our model of seismically inferred GHF, and interpret our results within the con-
 87 text of previous geophysical studies.

88 2 Methods

89 Our approach to inferring GHF across Antarctica is motivated by the desire to infer
 90 geothermal structure in as direct a fashion as possible, without relying on empirical
 91 comparisons to measured GHF in geologically distinct continental environments. Cen-
 92 tral to this approach is the idea of constraining the relationship between temperature
 93 and depth, $T(z)$, across a range of depth slices, rather than relying on a single isotherm.
 94 Therefore, we make use of V_S data, which is especially sensitive to geothermal structure
 95 throughout the shallow upper mantle. Since crustal composition also plays a key role in
 96 determining heat supply, via variations in thermal conductivity and heat production, we
 97 seek to constrain these parameters within our modelling framework. To do so, we bring
 98 in information from V_P data, which provides sensitivity to lateral variations in SiO₂%
 99 content and therefore crustal conductivity. By fitting steady-state geothermal profiles
 100 to V_S -derived counterparts, and looking at how the misfit between the two varies as a
 101 function of crustal heat production, we are able to co-constrain conductivity, heat pro-
 102 duction and geothermal heat flow in a thermodynamically self-consistent fashion. This
 103 framework serves as the basis for providing reasonable inferences of q_s .

104 2.1 Inferring Thermal Structure from Seismic Data

105 The sensitivity of V_S to temperature (T) derives from the effect that temperature
 106 has on the viscoelastic properties of mantle rock. To reliably parameterise the $V_S(T)$
 107 relationship, we adopt the approach of Hazzard et al. (2023), who calibrated the anelas-
 108 ticity parameterisation of Yamauchi & Takei (2016) against a suite of Antarctic geophys-
 109 ical data constraints (see Section S1 for details). Having established a method for relat-
 110 ing seismic velocity and temperature, we can select a geographic location $\{\theta, \phi\}$ (longi-
 111 tude, θ , latitude, ϕ) within the spatial footprint of the chosen tomographic model ANT-
 112 20, and convert the corresponding radial velocity structure $V_S(z)$ into an inferred geotherm
 113 $T(z)$ (Figure 1a, black cross-hairs).

114 2.2 Fitting Geothermal Profiles

115 Due to the likely presence of noise and artefacts in the underlying seismic data, as
 116 well as the potential for unmodelled compositional seismic velocity variation, we avoid
 117 estimating q_s directly from our seismically inferred geotherms. Instead, we fit steady-
 118 state, thermodynamically self-consistent geotherms to them. To prepare the V_S -derived
 119 geotherms for fitting, we clean and interpolate them on a 1 km interval (see Section S1
 120 for details, Figure 1a, red dashed line).

121 We fit the geotherms according to a modified version of the procedure laid out in
 122 McKenzie et al. (2005). This procedure involves iteratively updating the Moho GHF,
 123 and mechanical boundary layer thickness, until the misfit between modelled and V_S -derived
 124 geotherms is minimised. Once an optimal geotherm has been arrived at (Figure 1a, black
 125 solid line), q_s can be calculated according to the surface temperature gradient and as-
 126 sociated thermal conductivity.

127 2.3 Parameterising Mantle Structure

128 In addition to providing a seismically inferred geotherm to the fitting procedure,
 129 we must also provide a suitable parameterisation for thermal conductivity, k (W m⁻¹ K⁻¹),
 130 and heat production, h^* (μW m⁻³), in the mantle and crust.

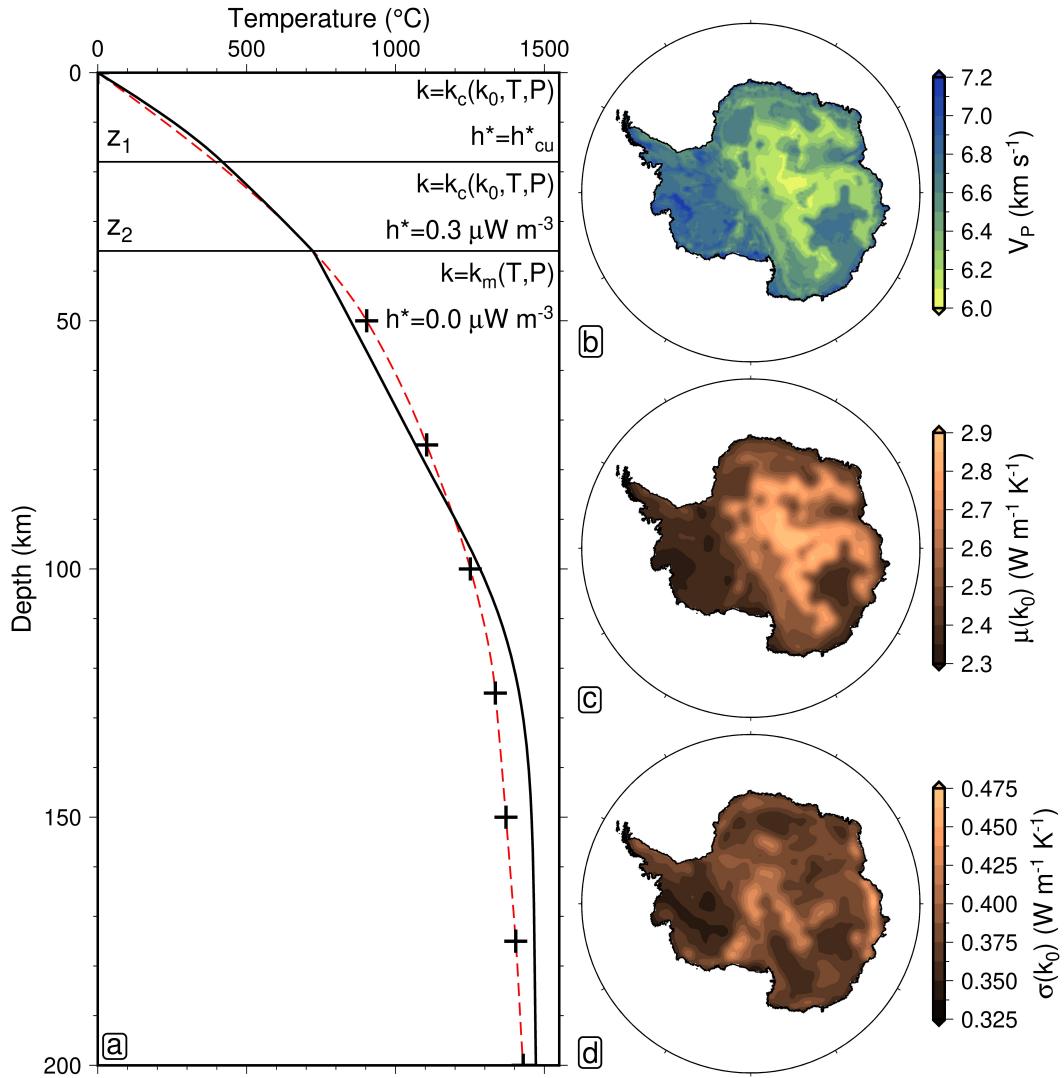


Figure 1. Parameterising Earth structure. (a) Temperature-depth data points inferred from V_S (black cross-hairs) interpolated prior to fitting (red dashed line). Steady-state geotherm fitted to seismic data (black line), subject to depth-dependent thermodynamic constraints within the upper crust ($0 \leq z \leq z_1$), lower crust ($z_1 < z \leq z_2$), and mantle ($z_2 < z$). All depths referenced with respect to the crystalline basement. (b) Average crustal V_P across Antarctica. (c) Crustal conductivity (k_0) estimated from V_P (Equation 4). (d) Uncertainty in k_0 based on spread in crustal V_P and $k_0(V_P)$ residual (Section 2.5).

In the mantle, we calculate conductivity according to the temperature- and pressure-dependent parameterisation of Korenaga & Korenaga (2016). We have adapted this parameterisation to assume a grain size of 0.1 cm, relevant to the calculation of radiative thermal conductivity. We refer to this parameterisation as $k = k_m(T, P)$. In accordance with the relatively low-abundance of heat-producing elements in the upper mantle, we assume a mantle heat production $h^* = 0.0 \mu\text{W m}^{-3}$. We set constant-pressure heat capacity to $C_P = 1187 \text{ J kg}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$, and thermal expansivity to $\alpha = 3 \times 10^{-5} \text{ K}^{-1}$, in our assumptions of adiabatic mantle properties. We assume a mantle kinematic viscosity of $\nu = 9 \times 10^{16} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$.

2.4 Parameterising Crustal Structure

To parameterise thermal conductivity in the crust, we make use of the following parameterisation (Goes et al., 2020), which we refer to as $k = k_c(k_0, T, P)$,

$$k_c(k_0, T, P) = \frac{k_0}{n} (1 + \beta P) \left(n - 1 + \exp \left[\frac{-(T - 25)}{300} \right] \right). \quad (3)$$

In this equation, the factors $\beta = 0.1$, and $n = 6.4 - 2.3 \ln(k_0)$, and k_0 is the reference crustal conductivity at atmospheric conditions ($P = 0 \text{ GPa}$, $T = 25^\circ\text{C}$). Note that this parameterisation was misprinted in the original text of Goes et al. (2020); we have clarified with the authors that the expression above is the correct version.

To parameterise heat production, we divide the crust into two layers of equal depth. We assume a uniformly distributed heat production throughout each layer, set to $h^* = h_{\text{cu}}^*$ in the upper crust, and $h^* = 0.3 \mu\text{W m}^{-3}$ in the lower crust. We have adopted this simple parameterisation to avoid imposing precise details of the depth-dependence of h^* *a priori*, which are not known. When the upper crustal heat production is set to $h_{\text{cu}}^* = 1.0 \mu\text{W m}^{-3}$, our parameterisation is consistent with globally averaged heat production values obtained from a comprehensive analysis of crustal geochemistry and seismic velocity (Sammon et al., 2022).

2.5 Sampling Crustal Parameters to Optimise GHF

Reference thermal conductivity, k_0 , and upper crustal heat production, h_{cu}^* , are treated as laterally variable parameters in our model, so as to account for the influence of crustal composition on geothermal structure. Both parameters could exhibit lateral variability within the approximate ranges $k_0 \sim 1.0$ to $4.0 \text{ W m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$ and $h_{\text{cu}}^* \sim 0.0$ to $6.0 \mu\text{W m}^{-3}$ (Hasterok & Chapman, 2011; Jennings et al., 2019; Lösing et al., 2020; Sammon et al., 2022). Such variations can have a significant impact on q_s . For example, we found that for a typical V_S -derived input geotherm, varying k_0 and h_{cu}^* within the aforementioned ranges results in surface GHF variations of $q_s \sim 20$ to 170 mW m^{-2} . The lowest (highest) inferred q_s occurs when both k_0 and h_{cu}^* are minimised (maximised). We can rationalise this observation by considering the dependence of q_s on each crustal parameter in turn (see Section S2 for details).

In order to optimise our predictions of GHF at each location, we co-vary k_0 and h_{cu}^* , and evaluate the least-squared misfit between V_S -inferred and fitted geotherms as a function of the two free parameters (Figure 2). If the misfit space at each location were to exhibit a global minimum, this would allow for simultaneous extraction of best-fitting k_0 , h_{cu}^* and q_s . However, we find that k_0 and h_{cu}^* trade off significantly with one another. This trade-off can be visualised by holding k_0 constant and varying h_{cu}^* , and vice versa, and observing the similarity in fitted geotherms (Figure 2, panels a-b). Of course, this similarity is also borne out in the misfit space, where we see valley-like minima (Figure 2c). Since q_s trades-off positively with both k_0 and h_{cu}^* , it is vital to be able to locate where in the valley of the misfit space the so-called true solution lies. To resolve this is-

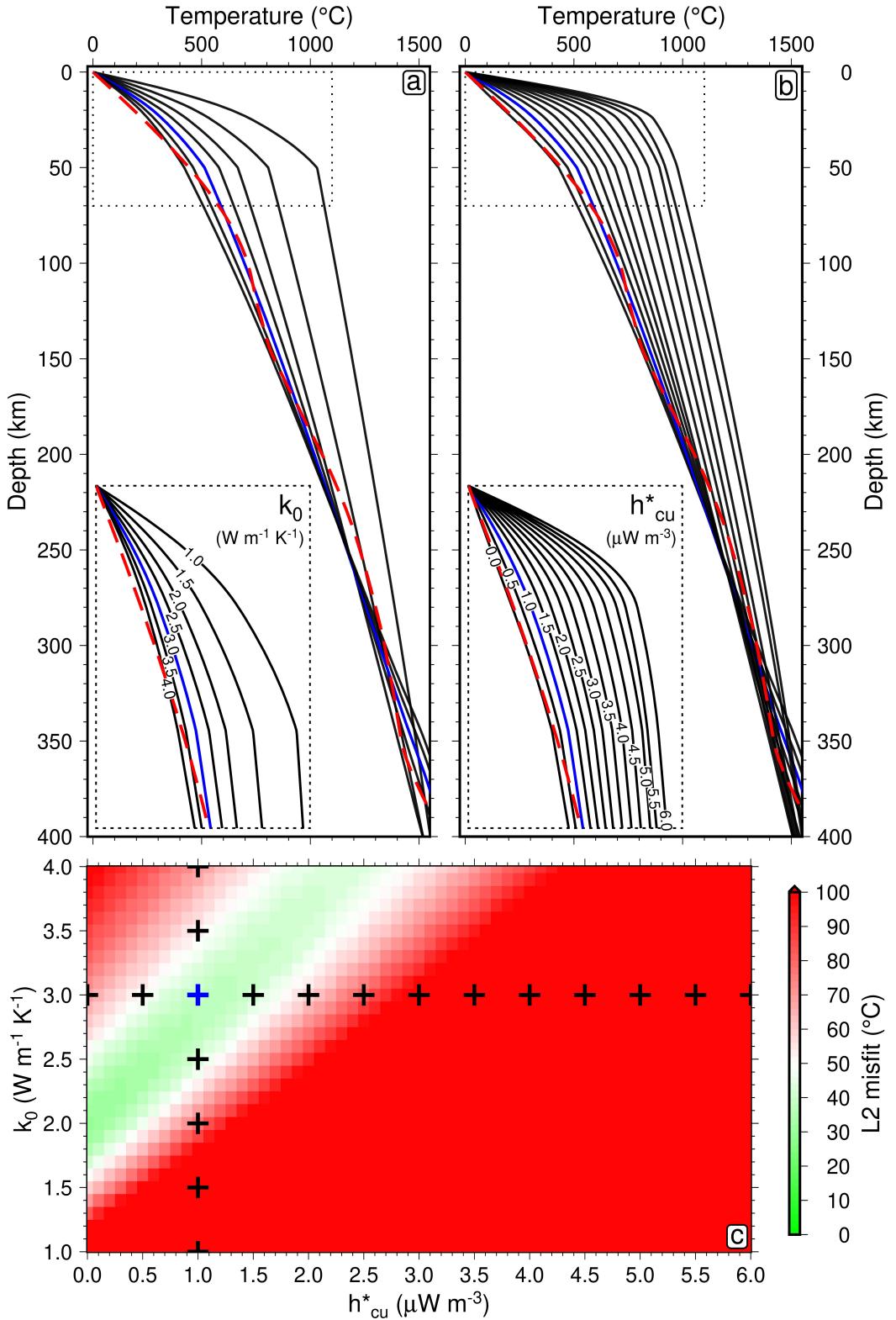


Figure 2. Fitting seismically inferred geotherms. (a) Constant reference conductivity, $k_0 = 2.5 \text{ W m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$, variable upper crustal heat production, h_{cu}^* in range 0.0 to $6.0 \mu\text{W m}^{-3}$. (b) Variable reference conductivity, k_0 in range 1.0 to 4.0 $\text{W m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$, constant upper crustal heat production, $h_{cu}^* = 0.5 \mu\text{W m}^{-3}$. (c) Trade-off between crustal conductivity and upper crustal heat production in misfit between seismically inferred and steady-state fitted geotherm (k_0 and h_{cu}^* combinations used in panels (a) and (b) marked by cross-hairs).

178 sue and break the observed trade-off, we require additional information, which we obtain
179 by utilising an independent geophysical constraint on k_0 .

180 To gain insight into laterally varying crustal conductivity, we draw on a model of
181 crustal V_P (km s^{-1} , Figure 1b). We use the same V_P model as was assumed in ANT-20,
182 for consistency with our chosen crustal thickness model. Jennings et al. (2019) relate V_P
183 to k_0 via laboratory measurements on igneous rocks spanning a wide range of compo-
184 sitions. They found that SiO_2 is the dominant control on thermal conductivity. By mak-
185 ing use of the empirical relationship,

$$\begin{aligned} k_0(V_P) &= a_0 + a_1 V_P + a_2 V_P^2, \\ a_0 &= 3.162 \times 10^1 \text{ W m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}, \\ a_1 &= -8.263 \times 10^{-3} \text{ W m}^{-2} \text{ K}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}, \\ a_2 &= 5.822 \times 10^{-7} \text{ W m}^{-3} \text{ K}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-2}, \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

193 as provided by Jennings et al. (2019), we estimate Antarctic crustal conductivity by av-
194 eraging crustal V_P (in km s^{-1}) at each continental location, and converting it into k_0 (Figure
195 1c). In addition, we utilise the spread in V_P data within the crust at each location,
196 along with the $k_0(V_P)$ fitting residual of $0.31 \text{ W m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$, to estimate an uncertainty in
197 our predicted conductivity (Figure 1d).

198 Since we now have access to independent predictions of $k_0(\theta, \phi)$ derived from V_P
199 data, we can locate physically plausible regions of k_0 -space. We start by sampling a value
200 of k_0 from a Gaussian distribution at each location, according to

$$k_0 \sim \mathcal{N}[\mu(k_0), \sigma(k_0)], \quad (5)$$

202 where $\mu(k_0)$ is given by the empirical prediction of equation 9, and $\sigma(k_0)$ is given by the
203 uncertainty associated with this prediction (Figure 1). For each sampled value of k_0 , we
204 extract the corresponding best fitting value of h_{cu}^* , as well as the q_s associated with this
205 combination of crustal parameters. By repeating this sampling procedure, we build up
206 a distribution of k_0 , h_{cu}^* and q_s . We summarise these distributions at each location us-
207 ing a mean and standard deviation, providing us with Antarctic GHF predictions along
208 with an estimate of their uncertainty.

209 3 Results and Discussion

210 3.1 Antarctic GHF Estimates

211 Resulting estimates of Antarctic GHF are shown in Figure 3. To distinguish be-
212 tween West and East Antarctica, we utilise the satellite-mapped drainage network of Zwally
213 & Giovinetto (2011). Our results indicate high q_s in West Antarctica, where heat sup-
214 ply into the base of the Antarctic Ice Sheet is estimated to vary between 60 and 130 mW m^{-2} ,
215 and is on average $97 \pm 14 \text{ mW m}^{-2}$ (median, and median absolute deviation, respectively).
216 Such GHF values are significantly higher than the global continental average, $q_s = 67 \pm$
217 47 mW m^{-2} (as inferred from borehole temperature-depth data), and are in fact inter-
218 mediate between the former and the global average over continental rift zones, $q_s = 114 \pm$
219 94 mW m^{-2} (Lucaleau, 2019). This result is consistent with recent tectonic activity, ev-
220 idence for Cenozoic magmatism, and inferences of a thermal anomaly beneath West Antarc-
221 tica (Ball et al., 2021; Hazzard et al., 2023; Barletta et al., 2018). The distribution of
222 q_s values within the aforementioned range is relatively uniform, implying significant lat-
223 eral heterogeneity across West Antarctica. Maximum q_s is inferred at the continental
224 perimeter in the Amundsen Sea region, and in the northern Antarctic Peninsula.

225 In East Antarctica, our results indicate q_s in the range 20 to 120 mW m^{-2} . Note
226 that the presence of above-continental-average GHF values within this range is indica-
227 tive of the fact that not all of our defined East Antarctic region is underlain by cold, cra-
228 tonic material. However, the distribution of inferred GHF is heavily skewed towards lower

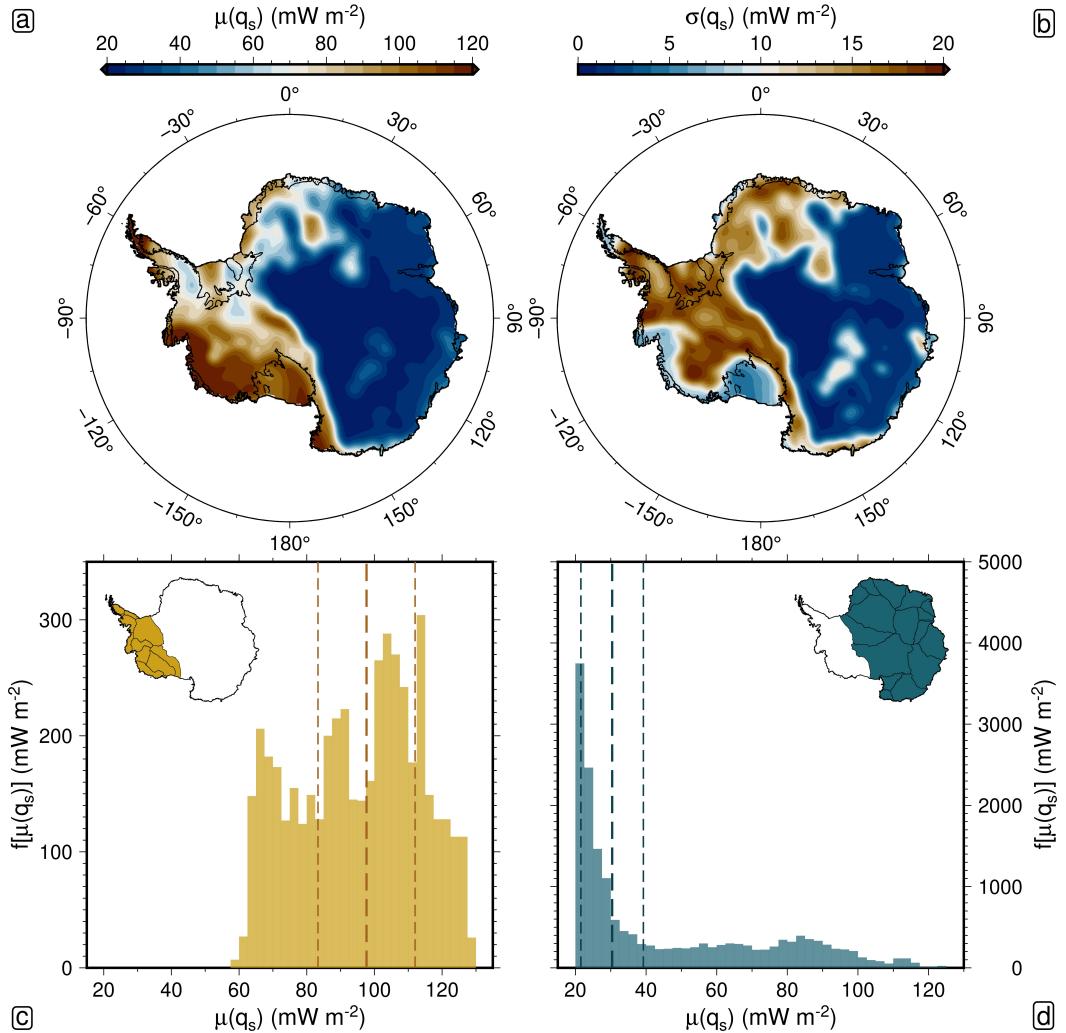


Figure 3. Seismically inferred GHF. (a) Mean. (b) Standard deviation. (c) Distribution over West Antarctica (region defined according to satellite-mapped drainage networks of Zwally & Giovinetto, 2011). (d) Same as (c), East Antarctica.

values, which is borne out in the spatial average $30 \pm 8 \text{ mW m}^{-2}$. Such low values are consistent with globally averaged GHF estimates in continental regions of Archean age, $q_s = 46 \pm 21 \text{ mW m}^{-2}$ (Lucazeau, 2019).

For the most part, the spatial pattern of GHF uncertainty, $\sigma(q_s)$, is similar to that of the GHF prediction itself, $\mu(q_s)$. The ratio of these two predictions, $\sigma(q_s)/\mu(q_s)$, is on average $16 \pm 10\%$ over the Antarctic continent. Elevated proportional uncertainty in GHF structure is estimated in Coats Land and Dronning Maud Land in East Antarctica, in parallel with anomalously high uncertainty in heat production. The least-squared misfit between inferred and modelled geotherm is relatively insensitive to the choice of heat production here, reducing our ability to constrain this parameter and hence q_s . Anomalously low q_s uncertainty ($\sigma(q_s) < 10 \text{ mW m}^{-2}$) is estimated at the Amundsen Sea Embayment and Ross Ice Shelf, as well as along the grounding line between these two regions. These areas are characterised by high inferred GHF in the region of 100 to 130 mW m^{-2} . The uncertainty here is artificially low owing to the inferred heat production lying at the top of the parameter sweep range, $h_{\text{cu}}^* = 6.0 \mu\text{W m}^{-3}$ (see Section S3 for maps of inferred h_{cu}^*). Since the seismically inferred geotherm here is systematically hotter than the modelled profile, the inferred value of h_{cu}^* is insensitive to variations in crustal thermal conductivity, and thus exhibits no variation. We refrain from increasing the upper limit of our parameter sweep in response to this issue, as this would not be an appropriate resolution, since h_{cu}^* values in excess of $6.0 \mu\text{W m}^{-3}$ are inconsistent with the range of physically plausible values based on continental geology (Artemieva et al., 2017; Sammon et al., 2022), and unreasonable increases in h_{cu}^* would be required to attempt to fit the inferred geotherm. Instead, we suggest that the reason for our findings is due to our assumption of a steady-state geotherm. While this assumption is a reasonable approximation across most of Antarctica, it may be less accurate in regions recently affected by intraplate basaltic magmatism and/or episodes of rifting (e.g., Alexander Island offshore Antarctic Peninsula, Marie Byrd Land and the Victoria Land Basin; LeMasurier, 2008; Sauli et al., 2021). Indeed, by locally modelling time-dependent thermal evolution following lithospheric thinning, we improve fit to V_S -derived temperature in these regions and find that optimal transient geotherms require less extreme h_{cu}^* values than steady-state equivalents (see Section S4 for transient geotherm modelling). Nevertheless, predicted q_s is near-identical for the these two different model assumptions, indicating that, while our steady-state-based prediction likely overestimates h_{cu}^* , our q_s estimates remain valid. Note, however, that uncertainty on q_s is likely higher than predicted in these locations, since the low uncertainty is likely an artefact of the $6.0 \mu\text{W m}^{-3}$ upper limit we impose on upper crustal heat production.

3.2 Comparison with previous studies

A comparison of our GHF model with those from previous studies utilising a range of approaches is presented in Figure 4. Consistent across all studies, we observe a long-wavelength pattern of elevated heat supply in West Antarctica, and more uniformly low heat supply in East Antarctica. However, short-wavelength ($\sim 1,000\text{--}10,000 \text{ km}$) structure differs significantly between models (both in terms of spatial pattern, and amplitude), reflecting the range of data sets and modelling assumptions used to construct them. In particular, our model (H23v2, Figure 4) spans a significantly greater range (110 mW m^{-2}) than any other, with the exception of Martos et al. (2017). The higher amplitude of GHF variations in this study as compared to other models can be explained by our incorporation of laterally heterogeneous crustal composition. In East Antarctica we infer below average crustal heat production, and in West Antarctica we see the opposite; the combined effect of which is to broaden the range of inferred q_s . As compared to a directly analogous model assuming constant $k_0 = 2.5 \text{ W m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$ and $h_{\text{cu}}^* = 1.0 \mu\text{W m}^{-3}$, we predict a 30% increase in maximum Antarctic q_s , and a 50% reduction in minimum Antarctic q_s (Hazzard et al., 2023).

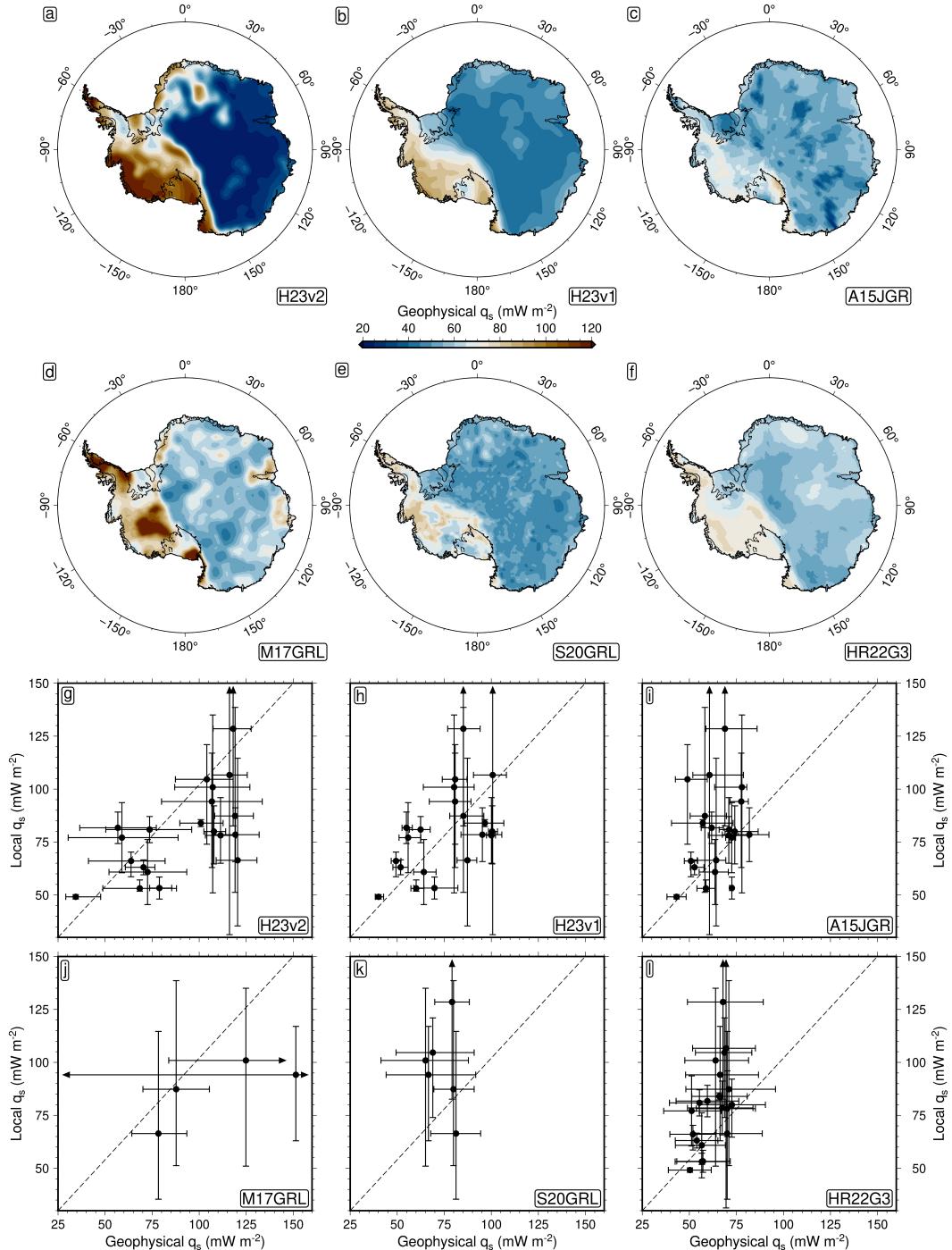


Figure 4. GHF Model Comparison. (a)–(f) Geophysical q_s inferences: H23v2 – inferred directly from V_S and V_P (this study); H23v1 – inferred directly from V_S (Hazzard et al., 2023); A15JGR – inferred directly from V_S (An et al., 2015); M17GRL – inferred from magnetic anomaly data (Martos et al., 2017); S20GRL – inferred empirically via V_S (Shen et al., 2020); HR22G3 – inferred via joint seismic and gravity inversion (Haeger et al., 2022). (g)–(l) Relationship between geophysically and locally inferred q_s (Section 3.3), same studies as (a)–(f).

281 **3.3 Comparison with local data**

282 Despite the sparsity of Antarctic GHF estimates derived from borehole measure-
 283 ments of temperature and depth, these data can be utilised to independently assess geo-
 284 physically informed models of q_s . It is important to treat borehole inferences carefully,
 285 since they are representative of localised temperature structure, and are potentially sus-
 286 ceptible to contamination by thermal signals caused by frictional heating at the base of
 287 the ice sheet, and hydrological circulation (Shen et al., 2020). In addition, limited lat-
 288 eral resolution in our chosen V_S model will smooth out GHF variations on spatial scales
 289 smaller than ~ 100 km, diminishing our ability to accurately compare to local estimates.
 290 Therefore, we collect local estimates of q_s into regions of dimension 100 km, and com-
 291 pare the average locally and geophysically inferred GHF values in each region. Perform-
 292 ing such a comparison using each of the models shown in Figure 4, we find that the range
 293 of GHF values predicted by our model is in better agreement with the local data than
 294 those of any other study.

295 **3.4 Methodological Appraisal**

296 There are a few reasons why our modelling approach may allow us to arrive at es-
 297 timates of GHF more consistent with independent data than previous studies. Firstly,
 298 the use of a geophysically constrained parameterisation of mantle viscoelasticity enables
 299 us to map V_S structure directly into temperature over a range of upper mantle depth
 300 slices. This stands in contrast to other studies, such as those based on magnetic data,
 301 where only a single isotherm associated with the Curie depth is constrained (Martos et
 302 al., 2017). As a result, more reliable estimates of the geothermal gradient can be made.
 303 Secondly, the incorporation of crustal V_P information provides us with sensitivity to lat-
 304 eral variations in thermal conductivity, a parameter which affects q_s both directly via
 305 its presence in Equation 1, and to a lesser extent, indirectly via its effect on the geother-
 306 mal gradient. Thirdly, by combining insights drawn from V_S and V_P data together with
 307 thermodynamic models of geothermal structure, we are able to constrain variations in
 308 crustal heat production. This stands in contrast to previous studies making use of steady-
 309 state geotherm modelling, which have assumed constant composition (An et al., 2015;
 310 Haeger et al., 2022; Hazzard et al., 2023). In addition, methods based on empirical com-
 311 parison of seismic data between continents are unable to account for differences in crustal
 312 composition between target and comparison sites (Shen et al., 2020). Therefore, whilst
 313 their inferred q_s uncertainty may implicitly capture variations in heat supply associated
 314 with crustal composition, their estimates of q_s itself will be agnostic to such variations.

315 **3.5 Outstanding Challenges**

316 Although the GHF modelling framework presented herein provides a powerful method
 317 to infer GHF from seismological data, a number of outstanding challenges remain. Chief
 318 amongst them is our inability to reliably infer temperature structure from V_S at depths
 319 shallower than the Mohorovičić discontinuity. We have mitigated this issue in three ways:
 320 by assuming a temperature of 0 °C at the crystalline basement, excising anomalous seis-
 321 mic data associated with crustal bleeding, and fitting seismically inferred geotherms us-
 322 ing thermodynamically self-consistent models of shallow thermal structure. However, given
 323 improved constraints on crustal temperature structure (at vertical resolution of ~ 25 km
 324 or higher), it would be possible to generate more reliable predictions of surface geother-
 325 mal gradient. Such constraints may also help in resolving relative contributions to GHF
 326 derived from transient-state geotherms versus crustal heat production. Pn-waves are a
 327 type of compressional wave guided along the mantle lid, providing sensitivity to Moho
 328 temperature structure. Therefore, a high resolution, continental scale model of Antarc-
 329 tic Pn-velocity (V_{Pn}) would be extremely valuable. Fortunately, this may be on the hori-
 330 zon, with the recent development of a V_{Pn} model of central West Antarctica (Lucas et
 331 al., 2021).

332 Secondly, we rely on a parameterisation of geochemical data pertaining to the re-
 333 lationship between k_0 and V_P in order to estimate lateral variations in crustal thermal
 334 conductivity (Jennings et al., 2019). This parameterisation inherently assumes that con-
 335 ductivity is sensitive only to silicate content. Further, it assumes that synthetic V_P es-
 336 timates from thermodynamic calculations on a range of mineral assemblages are accu-
 337 rate, and match up to velocities predicted from real data (Behn & Kelemen, 2003). In
 338 reality, systematic errors in modelled V_P associated with the choice of regularisation or
 339 starting model will be propagated into systematic errors in predicted k_0 . In addition,
 340 artefacts in V_P structure caused by data sparsity and the ill-posed nature of the seismic
 341 inversion problem may cause us to improperly estimate k_0 at certain locations. There-
 342 fore, further validation of methods used to estimate $k_0(V_P)$ are needed.

343 Finally, the relative sparsity of borehole-derived inferences of Antarctic GHF presents
 344 a clear challenge in assessing the quality of geophysical predictions. A significant expan-
 345 sion of this data set is needed to address the question: what is the most reliable geophys-
 346 ical method for estimating continental GHF? In addition, multiple boreholes at each field
 347 sampling region are needed, in order to properly account for localised variations in GHF
 348 associated with geology, hydrothermal circulation, and topography (Burton-Johnson et
 349 al., 2020). Promisingly, the Rapid Access Ice Drill (RAID) project seeks to address the
 350 lack of local data by drilling down to the deepest portions of the Antarctic Ice Sheet (Goodge
 351 & Severinghaus, 2016).

352 4 Conclusions

353 We have presented a novel modelling framework for estimating GHF directly from
 354 seismological data, incorporating lateral variations in crustal composition. We find that
 355 our geophysical inferences of heat supply are in better agreement with borehole-derived
 356 estimates than previous studies, implying that crustal conductivity and heat production
 357 act as significant controls on Antarctic heat flow. Our models of Antarctic conductiv-
 358 ity, heat production, and GHF provide improved constraints on Antarctic sub-glacial ge-
 359 ology and thermal conditions, critical for use in ice-sheet modelling studies.

360 5 Open Research

361 Figures were prepared using Generic Mapping Tools software. Code and model out-
 362 puts are provided in an [OSF online repository](#).

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