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1 Interseismic coupling, megathrust earthquakes and
2 seismic swarms along the Chilean subduction zone

3 (38°-18°S)

4 M. Métois*, C. Vigny†, A. Socquet‡

5 March 16, 2016

6 **Abstract**

7 The recent expansion of dense GPS networks over plate boundaries allows for remark-
8 ably precise mapping of interseismic coupling along active faults. The interseismic coupling
9 coefficient is related to the ratio between slipping velocity on the fault during the interseis-
10 mic period and the long-term plates velocity, but the interpretation of coupling in terms of
11 mechanical behaviour of the fault is still unclear. Here, we investigate the link between cou-
12 pling and seismicity over the Chilean subduction zone that ruptured three times in the last 5
13 years with major earthquakes (Maule Mw 8.8 in 2010, Iquique Mw 8.1 in 2014 and Illapel

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14 Mw 8.4 in 2015). We combine recent GPS data acquired over the margin (38°-18°S) with
15 older data to get the first nearly continuous picture of the interseismic coupling variations on
16 the subduction interface. Here, we show that at least six low coupling zones (LCZ), areas
17 where coupling is low relatively to the neighboring highly coupled segments can be identi-
18 fied. We also find that for the 3 most recent $M_w > 8$ events, co-seismic asperities correlate
19 well with highly coupled segments, while LCZ behaved as barriers and stopped the rup-
20 tures. The relation between coupling and background seismicity in the interseismic period
21 before the events is less clear. However, we note that swarm sequences are prone to occur
22 in intermediate coupling areas at the transition between LCZ and neighboring segments, and
23 that the background seismicity tends to concentrate on the downdip part of the seismogenic
24 locked zone. Thus, highly coupled segments usually exhibit low background seismicity. In
25 this overall context, the Metropolitan segment that partly ruptured during the 2015 Illapel
26 earthquake appears as an outlier since both coupling and background seismicity were high
27 before the rupture, raising the issue of the remaining seismic hazard in this very densely
28 populated area.

29 **1 Introduction**

30 GPS instrumentation along active plate boundaries has contributed significantly to better con-
31 strain the characteristics and mechanics of large destructive megathrust earthquakes. For in-
32 stance, the coseismic slip of the M_w 8.8 2010 Maule earthquake that ruptured the South-Central
33 part of the Chilean subduction zone has been precisely imaged using GPS data from local cam-
34 paign networks installed since the early 90's in the epicentral region (e.g RUEGG et al., 2009;

35 MORENO et al., 2010; MÉTOIS et al., 2012). The deformation of the sea floor off the Sendai
36 coast measured by offshore geodesy brought unique insights on the shallow slip during the To-
37 hoku Mw 9 2011 earthquake (e.g SIMONS et al., 2011; SATO et al., 2011). Moreover, analysis
38 of the seismicity or cGPS time-series before the 2011 Tohoku and the 2014 Mw 8.2 Iquique
39 earthquakes show that anomalous activity was going on in the vicinity of these megathrust
40 earthquakes, days or weeks before the rupture itself (e.g. KATO et al., 2012; RUIZ et al., 2014;
41 SCHURR et al., 2014). Seismic and tsunami records have shown that the 2015 Mw 8.4 Illapel
42 earthquake ruptured a shallow portion of the subduction zone (YE et al., 2015; ÁRANGUIZ et al.,
43 2016; CALISTO et al., 2016), while GPS measurements conducted after the 2010 Maule earth-
44 quake show that the 2015 rupture area was affected by eastward postseismic motion, suggesting
45 an indirect triggering between the Maule and Illapel earthquakes (RUIZ et al., 2016; KLEIN et al.,
46 2016). Overall, the present day challenge for the scientific community remains in the deep un-
47 derstanding of the mechanical behavior of the fault interface, that should help identify zones
48 of high seismic hazard between highly coupled segments with low background seismicity, and
49 more complex zones where precursory activity could develop before the occurrence of the next
50 megathrust earthquake.

51 Over the last decades, geodetic measurements conducted during the interseismic phase along
52 several subduction zones have provided maps of the upper-plate deformation that reflect the
53 degree of locking between plates on the interface (e.g CHLIEH et al., 2008; WALLACE et al.,
54 2004; LOVELESS and MEADE, 2011; MCCAFFREY, 2002; YOSHIOKA et al., 2005; MORENO
55 et al., 2008; MCCAFFREY, 2014). However, these works often suffer from heterogeneous or
56 sparse measurements and from the large distance between the coast and the trench (more than 200

57 km in Japan or Sumatra) that impede detailed mapping of the along-strike or along-dip variations
58 of the coupling coefficient. Furthermore, although there seems to be a good correlation between
59 interseismic coupling and seismic rupture in general (e.g. CHLIEH et al., 2008; KONCA et al.,
60 2008; MORENO et al., 2010; MÉTOIS et al., 2012; LOVELESS and MEADE, 2011; RUIZ et al.,
61 2016), how kinematic coupling relates with the mechanical properties of the interface and to the
62 shape and magnitude of the coming earthquakes are open questions that are still being actively
63 discussed (e.g MORENO et al., 2010; KANEKO et al., 2010; HETLAND and SIMONS, 2010).

64 The fast Nazca-South America convergence zone (~ 68 mm/yr (e.g. VIGNY et al., 2009; AR-
65 GUS et al., 2011)), where little partitioning occurs but that is seismically very active (one $M_w > 8$
66 every ten years in average, but already three since 2010) is a suitable place to determine inter-
67 seismic coupling and to investigate its relation with mechanical properties of the interface and
68 characteristics of the upper and downgoing plates. In particular, because the distance between
69 the coast and the trench is smaller than elsewhere (around 100 km and up to 70 km locally), the
70 Chilean subduction zone is a good candidate for such study, because it allows a good resolution
71 almost up to the trench. Hence, we build for the first time a nearly continuous map of interseis-
72 mic coupling along this subduction zone (38° - 18° S) that we compare with the slip distributions
73 of the 2010 (Maule), 2014 (Iquique) and 2015 (Illapel) $M_w > 8$ megathrust earthquakes and with
74 the “background” seismicity, i.e. the moderate-magnitude earthquakes that occurred on the plate
75 interface before the main shocks.

2 Tectonic context

In the following, we consider the Chilean margin deformation at a very large scale, along a ~ 3000 km long portion of the subduction between the Nazca and South American plates, from 38° to 18° S. Therefore, the margin's distinctive features (e.g. slab geometry, trench sedimentation style, nature and structure of the upper and downgoing plates, volcanic activity) significantly vary from South to North in our study area (see (HOFFMANN-ROTHER et al., 2006) for a review). In particular, the Andean mountain belt resulting from the long-term deformation of South America is more than 450 km wide from 18° S to 26° S where it is characterized by the ~ 3500 m high Altiplano-Puna plateau to the North and the Subandean active fold-and-thrust belt on its eastern front (Fig.1, (ARMIJO et al., 2010)). The main belt is less complex and is only 150 km wide south of 33° S, with no clear eastern front and no uplifted plateau. From 26° to 33° S in Central Chile, the principal cordillera is relatively sharp while the wide Sierras Pampeanas diffuse deformation area develops to the East with several active thrust fronts (e.g. REILINGER and KADINSKY-CADE, 1985; BROOKS et al., 2003).

The coastal cordillera is separated from the principal cordillera by the central valley in the North (18° - 24° S) and South-Central Chile (32° - 38° S). In South-Central Chile, the western front of the Andes has been described as an active crustal thrust (ARMIJO et al., 2010; VARGAS et al., 2014). Central Chile (24° - 32° S) appears again as an outlier in this overall pattern since the transition from the coastal to principal cordillera is smooth, i.e. the central valley vanishes. This peculiar region overlays the deep Pampean flat-slab area where the Nazca plate flattens at ~ 100 km depth and where no subduction-associated volcanism is observed (see Fig.1, TASSARA

97 et al., 2006; MAROT et al., 2014). Closer to the trench, we observe smaller scale (several tens
98 of kilometers) variations of the Chilean coast morphology like large bays (e.g. La Serena or
99 Baranquilla bays) and peninsulas (e.g. Arauco or Mejillones peninsula), the latter being often
100 associated to complex crustal fault networks (e.g. MELNICK and BOOKHAGEN, 2009; ARMIJO
101 and THIELE, 1990).

102 The Nazca plate characteristics also vary from North to South Chile : first, the subducted
103 oceanic crust is younger in the South than in the North (45 Ma at 18°S and 28 Ma at 38°S
104 (MULLER et al., 1997)) implying large differences in the thermal state of the lithosphere; second,
105 the plate is deformed by volcanic ridges and fractures (high oceanic features or HOFs) with
106 different orientations and wave lengths (Fig.1).

107 Besides all these lateral variations, the deformation of the entire region is dominated by the
108 seismic cycle on the subduction interface that accommodates one of the highest convergent rates
109 on Earth (68 mm/yr). As can be seen in Fig.2 where the moderate-size seismicity registered
110 by the CSN (Centro Sismologico Nacional, <http://www.sismologia.cl/>) during the interseismic
111 phase is plotted, the seismic activity illuminates the subduction interface down to 600 km depth,
112 while only few earthquakes are recorded on shallow crustal structures. The exact amount of
113 the Nazca-South America convergence that could be taken by these secondary active faults is
114 still an open question, but it seems reasonable to assume that an overall 80 to 90% of the Chilean
115 margin deformation is associated to the subduction fault from 38°S to 18°S. The 1 cm/yr velocity
116 gradient observed across the subandean fold-and-thrust belt and its seismic activity led several
117 authors to propose an Andean sliver independent from the South American craton that would
118 absorb the remaining 10 to 20% relative motion (see Fig.1, KENDRICK et al., 2001; BROOKS

119 et al., 2003, 2011; CHLIEH et al., 2011; MÉTOIS et al., 2013, 2014; NOCQUET et al., 2014).

120 **3 Interseismic velocity field**

121 GPS measurements have been conducted by international teams in Chile since the early 90's both
122 on survey and permanent networks (s- and c-GPS respectively), providing us with interseismic
123 velocities measured over 20 years in some places (BEVIS et al., 2001; BROOKS et al., 2003,
124 2011; KHAZARADZE and KLOTZ, 2003; KLOTZ et al., 2001; RUEGG et al., 2009; VIGNY et al.,
125 2009; BÉJAR-PIZARRO et al., 2009; CHLIEH et al., 2011). After the destructive 2010 Maule
126 earthquake, a large instrumentation effort has been conducted over North and Central Chile (18-
127 35°S) that provides us with unusually dense present-day measurements of interseismic loading
128 on the interface over a 3 to 5-year time-span. Now, because of the 2 additional mega-thrust
129 earthquakes of 2014 (Mw 8.1, Iquique) and 2015 (Mw 8.4, Illapel), that produced large co-
130 seismic displacements and ongoing post-seismic deformation, it will not be possible to further
131 refine the inter-seismic coupling in these areas. Therefore, the data collected before these large
132 earthquakes are the only way to understand the pre-existing strain and stress state of the Chilean
133 interface to date.

134 We combine the data published by (RUEGG et al., 2009; MÉTOIS et al., 2013, 2014) to
135 produce a consistent velocity field that homogeneously covers the 3000 km long portion of the
136 plate boundary (18°-38°S), with the exception of a small gap in the Atacama desert area that still
137 lacks measurements (24.3°-25.5°S). The resulting data set is formed of 248 recent horizontal
138 GPS velocities that we combined together with most of the previously published data sets in

139 South-Central Chile (see MÉTOIS et al., 2012, for further details). We thus gather 396 horizontal
140 velocities into a single data set (Fig.1) that we complete with 70 reliable vertical velocities (see
141 supplementary figure 1).

142 This velocity field is heterogeneous since each data-set has been calculated on a different
143 time-span : for instance, the interseismic velocities published by RUEGG et al. (2009) in the
144 Maule area results from the 1996-2002 period, while the velocities published by MÉTOIS et al.
145 (2013) in North Chile are derived from measurements made from 2008 to 2013. In order to
146 remove from our data set velocities potentially affected by the 1960 earthquake postseismic mo-
147 tion still presently ongoing, we chose to exclude the velocities published by KLOTZ et al. (2001)
148 south of 34°S and the velocities published by MORENO et al. (2008) south of 38°S in the 1960
149 epicentral area. Therefore, despite the fact that they are determined over different time windows,
150 we are confident that all velocities presented in Fig.1 are “interseismic”, i.e. are representative
151 of the average deformation over several years before the occurrence of large ruptures on the
152 megathrust interface.

153 The overall deformation pattern shown on Figure 1 relative to the stable South America as
154 defined by NNR-Nuvel1A (DEMETS et al., 1994) is typical of the deformation expected from
155 interseismic loading on a buried dislocation, at least at the first order (OKADA, 1985). Indeed,
156 velocities are roughly parallel to the plate convergence in the near field, while they decrease and
157 rotate towards a more trench perpendicular direction going inland and reach a null velocity in
158 the South-American craton. Additional non-negligible north-eastward deformation (~ 1 cm/yr)
159 is observed in the backarc, in particular in the Sierras Pampeanas and in the Altiplano Andes
160 where only few mm per year should be observed in a purely elastic frame.

161 **4 Modelling of GPS data**

162 We use the Tdefnode code developed by MCCAFFREY (2009) based on backslip assumption
163 and Okada's equations (OKADA, 1985; SAVAGE, 1983) to invert for the coupling distribution
164 that best reproduces these data. We choose to simultaneously invert for the rigid rotation of
165 an Andean sliver that would afford for part of the backarc deformation since it decreases sig-
166 nificantly the normalized root mean square (nRMS) of the inversion and has been proposed by
167 several previous works (BROOKS et al., 2003; MÉTOIS et al., 2013; NOCQUET et al., 2014). We
168 present simpler 2-plate models for comparison in supplementary figures 5 and 7. Therefore, we
169 assume that nearly all the observed deformation is elastic and due to the seismic cycle on the
170 subduction interface, neglecting the small-scale deformation that could be produced by loading
171 on second-order crustal faults (see section 2) but that is not detected by our regional campaign
172 networks. For instance, the San Ramon active fault located at the edge of the Santiago basin is
173 supposed to be loaded at 0.4 mm/yr (ARMIJO et al., 2010), a rate that is well beyond the s-GPS
174 resolution. Similarly, the available data spanning the Sierras Pampeanas are too sparse to enable
175 the detection of accumulation of elastic deformation on individual thrust faults. Therefore, we
176 include this complex area in the South-American plate and consider the westernmost thrust front
177 as the eastern boundary of the Andean sliver (Fig.1).

178 We divided the slab interface into a grid of 93 along-strike nodes (every 0.25°) and 11 along-
179 dip nodes (every 7.5 km depth) based on the realistic Slab 1.0 geometry (HAYES et al., 2012).
180 We use 862 independent observations to invert simultaneously for coupling on each nodes and
181 the three parameters of the sliver Euler pole. To avoid numerical instabilities, we impose a 2D

182 (both along strike and dip) smoothing regularization that allows for the best compromise between
183 small-scale coupling variations and fit to the data (*spread smoothing* technique proposed by
184 MCCAFFREY, 2009). To limit the number of free parameters, we force the rake of the backslip
185 component to be parallel to the plate convergence velocity.

186 We estimate the sensitivity of our data set to unit displacements on each node of the grid by
187 summing the horizontal deformation on the whole network following LOVELESS and MEADE
188 (2011) (see supplementary figure 2 and checkerboard tests in supplementary figure 3). The
189 “power” of our horizontal data to constrain the coupling on the interface is high from 15 km
190 depth to more than 70 km depth in general. In areas where the measurements are very dense,
191 i.e. from 33°S to 26°S, resolution is good nearly up to the trench. We lack resolution mainly
192 on the edges of our model (in the Arica bend, and south of Arauco peninsula) and in the very
193 shallow part of the subduction interface. Lack of measurements in the Taltal area (from 25°S to
194 26°S) makes the coupling unresolved in this region (see Fig.3-C). Recent instrumentation efforts
195 should bring soon new clues about interseismic loading there. Based on this sensitivity test, it is
196 important to note that coupling models are not -or barely- resolved in the first tens of kilometers
197 of the slab. In other words, constraining the coupling value on these shallow nodes to either
198 0% or 100% does not impact the nRMS of the inversion. Therefore, using coupling models
199 for generating tsunami scenarios that are mainly influenced by the shallow slip distribution is
200 still challenging, even if promising results have been found for the Illapel earthquake where the
201 coupling resolution is high even in the shallowest part of the slab (e.g. CALISTO et al., 2016).

202 Our best coupling distribution (see Fig.3-C) reproduces well the data set with a nRMS around
203 1.6 for the horizontal velocities, and 2 for the vertical velocities. We find that the data require

204 a rotation motion of the Andean sliver around an Eulerian pole given by (56.37°S, 41.27°W,
205 -0.12°/Myr) relative to stable South America (as defined by NNR-Nuvel1A (DEMETS et al.,
206 1994)) in close agreement with the pole determined in more local studies (MÉTOIS et al., 2013,
207 2014). This results in a ~ 8 mm/yr translation-like motion of the Altiplano towards the North
208 East in Northern Chile that decreases to less than 5 mm/yr in the backarc area of the Maule
209 region where the subandean active front is no longer visible. If the Andean range is a rigid
210 microplate, this would imply that a significant part of the Nazca-South America convergence
211 is taken on the active subandean fold-and-thrust belt, reducing the total amount of potentially
212 accumulated displacement on the subduction interface (NORABUENA et al., 1998; CHLIEH et al.,
213 2011; BROOKS et al., 2011).

214 **5 Discussion**

215 **5.1 Kinematics of the Nazca-South America convergence**

216 We model the surface deformation as a combination of elastic deformation coming from loading
217 on the subduction interface and the rigid rotation of the so-called "Andean sliver" block. This
218 modeling trick retrieves well the velocities observed in the Bolivian subandean fold and thrust
219 belt (BROOKS et al., 2011) and produces more realistic coupling distribution than a simpler 2-
220 plate model since then no or little coupling is needed deeper than 60 km depth to retrieve the
221 velocities observed (see supplementary figures 5 and 7).

222 However, such a rigid block model and elastic approach has some limitations. First, the east-

223 ern boundary of the Andean sliver is not well defined south of 26°S since no clear dominant
224 active front has been detected in the Sierras Pampeanas and South of them. The deformation in
225 the Sierras Pampeanas is diffuse and taken by several active structures and therefore can not be
226 retrieved using an elastic block model approach. As a result, our best-model fails to retrieve the
227 details of the deformation in this region. Second, it is well known now that a large part of the
228 interseismic deformation observed in the middle to far field of rapid subduction zones can be ex-
229 plained by visco-elastic loading models as it has been proposed for North Chile (LI et al., 2015),
230 Sumatra and Japan (TRUBIENKO et al., 2013). However, it is to note that the deformations pre-
231 dicted in the near field by both elastic and visco-elastic approach are similar (TRUBIENKO et al.,
232 2013). Therefore, we are confident that our simple elastic model retrieves well the first order
233 pattern of deformation in the near field of the subduction fault and in particular the small-scale
234 along-strike variations of the coupling coefficient, but the sliver motion, the residual velocities
235 observed in mid and far field (see supplementary figure 4), and the coupling distribution with
236 depth have to be interpreted with extreme caution.

237 Despite these limitations and keeping them in mind, it is interesting to note that the Euler
238 pole found for the Andean Sliver implies a decreasing backarc shortening rate from North to
239 South Chile and an overall clockwise rotation of the entire sliver. These broad characteristics of
240 the deformation are in agreement with several paleomagnetic studies that have been conducted
241 in the last decades (e.g ARRIAGADA et al., 2008), and suggest that the deformation averaged
242 in the region since Paleogene may still be going on today. An other argument in favor of a
243 persistent motion of the Andean block on long time-scale is the fact that residuals pointing North
244 are observed in the mid-field in Central Chile (supplementary figure 4) suggesting that the North-

245 Eastward block motion imposed by our inversion does not account for part of the deformation
246 in the North-South direction in this region. This northward motion in the Central Chile principal
247 cordillera has been also described in the cumulated deformation pattern observed over several
248 million years ARRIAGADA et al. (2008).

249 **5.2 The Chilean margin is segmented**

250 The small-scale along-strike variations of the amount of coupling are preserved whatever the
251 smoothing coefficient and shortening amount taken by the sliver motion, and therefore con-
252 sidered robust (Fig.3-B and supplementary figure 5). The along-dip variations of the coupling
253 coefficient are less well constrained since they mainly impact the vertical deformation pattern
254 that is poorly known compared to the horizontal deformation (see supplementary figure 1). In sar
255 images offering dense measurements of the upper plate deformation dominated by the vertical
256 signal, together with continuous GPS data could help constraining better the downdip extent of
257 the highly coupled zone (e.g BÉJAR-PIZARRO et al., 2009; DUCRET et al., 2012). Overall, the
258 highly coupled zones ($\Phi > 80\%$) do not extend below 60 km depth. Whether these nearly
259 locked patches spread up to the trench is beyond the resolution of our model (see section 4).

260 We define the average coupling at a given position along the trench as the integration of the
261 coupling coefficient over depth, from surface to 60 km depth, i.e.the supposed downdip limit of
262 the seismogenic zone. The profile of the average coupling versus latitude shown in Figure 3B
263 images a succession of 7 large highly coupled segments bounded by 6 narrow low coupled zones
264 (LCZ). We define these LCZs as areas of abrupt decrease in the average coupling surrounded

265 by zones where coupling is higher and relatively stable. Since a single threshold value valid
266 for the entire trench could not be identified, the definition of a LCZ is local. Some LCZs are
267 associated with a clear interruption of the highly locked zone in map view (Baranquilla, Iquique,
268 see Fig.3C) while the locked zone only narrows in others (La Serena, San Antonio, Mejillones).
269 In addition to the six clearest LCZs, three other areas exhibit a slight decrease in average coupling
270 : in front of Constitución ($\sim 35^\circ\text{S}$, already identified by MORENO et al. (2010)), another in front
271 of Los Vilos ($\sim 32^\circ\text{S}$), and finally offshore Arica ($\sim 18^\circ\text{S}$). These features have not been always
272 detected in previous works and appear more model-dependent than the others (in particular, they
273 are barely visible in the 2-plate models, see supplementary figure 7). This is probably due to
274 the fact that they are characterized by a decrease in the coupling on the 30 to 60 km depth part
275 of the interface, i.e. they are associated with a sharpening of the transition zone from the deep
276 creeping portion to the shallow zone that remains highly coupled. Opposite, in most of the other
277 LCZs, coupling decreases even in the shallowest part of the fault. The Los Vilos LCZs ($\sim 32^\circ\text{S}$)
278 also correlates with an abrupt change in the slab geometry that flattens at 100 km depth and an
279 important increase in the background seismicity rate (Fig.2).

280 The comparison between the average coupling calculated for 2-plate and 3-plate models (sup-
281 plementary figure 5) shows that the segmentation of the margin (small-scale along-strike varia-
282 tions) is preserved while the average coupling tends to decrease significantly North of 24°S in the
283 3-plate models. This may be due to the fact that the Andean block motion in this area decreases
284 the effective convergence rate on the subduction interface by 1 cm/yr, or to the fact that the cou-
285 pling values are lower in the shallowest unresolved part of the interface in the 3-plate models
286 than in the 2-plate models. Thus, we interpret this large-scale decrease of the average coupling

287 as an artifact coming from our modeling strategy rather than a true feature that would correlate
288 with changes in the subduction style for instance.

289 The recent establishment of interseismic coupling maps along several subduction zones has
290 enlightened that along-strike and along-dip variations of the coupling coefficient are common
291 features that may come from general characteristics of these plate boundaries. For instance,
292 WANG and BILEK (2014) claim that LCZs correlate with the subduction of major bathymetric
293 features of the subducted plate, while BÉJAR-PIZARRO et al. (2013) relate coupling coefficient
294 to geological and tectonic complexities of the upper plate. In Chile, 5 of the 6 well-identified
295 LCZs correlate with the subduction of ridges or fracture zones of the Nazca plate (high oceanic
296 features, or HOFs) that enters into subduction (Iquique, Baranquilla, La Serena, San Antonio
297 and Arauco LCZs), and all of them are associated to singularities in the coast-line morphology
298 (peninsulas, bays) often related to crustal fault networks. Whatever the hypothesis considered,
299 the correlation between coupling calculated from interseismic velocities acquired on few years of
300 measurement and long-term geological and morphological features is a strong argument in favor
301 of a relative stability in time and space of the interseismic coupling segmentation. Mechanical
302 models considering the interaction between both plates during several seismic cycles should
303 help in the future to tackle this issue. In any case, in Chile, most of the HOFs that are thought
304 to control the coupling coefficient are oblique relative to the convergence velocity between both
305 plates and should therefore be migrating significantly along the trench even at the time scale of
306 several seismic cycles, challenging the hypothesis of a long-term structural control of coupling
307 by HOFs.

308 In the following we do not concentrate on the factors controlling the variations of the coupling

309 coefficient but rather focus on the interpretation of the coupling maps in terms of mechanical
310 behaviour of the interface.

311 **5.3 Segmentation and megathrusts**

312 Rupture zones of historical megathrust earthquakes documented in Chile since the 18th century
313 (e.g LOMNITZ, 1970; COMTE and PARDO, 1991) often correlate with highly coupled segments,
314 suggesting that the zones where apparent interseismic coupling is high are regions of velocity-
315 weakening behaviour (Fig.2). On the other hand, LCZs are seldom crossed by megathrust rup-
316 tures and often behave as barriers to their propagation (KANEKO et al., 2010) : more than 60%
317 of the historical major ruptures in Chile are stopped or initiated near LCZs while no more than
318 15% propagated through them.

319 Only giant earthquakes seem to make their way through some very low-coupling regions like
320 the 1730 or 1922 Mw~9 events. These zones where the average coupling can reach values as low
321 as 40% could therefore be associated with areas of velocity-strengthening behaviour, i.e. able
322 to slow down or stop rupture propagation. This correlation between coupling and mechanical
323 behaviour should be carefully considered because of the stress-shadow effect produced by locked
324 velocity-weakening areas in their vicinity that may lead to apparent high coupling in velocity-
325 strengthening zones (e.g BÜRGMANN et al., 2005; HETLAND and SIMONS, 2010; MÉTOIS et al.,
326 2012). In other words : a small LCZ may be invisible in the upper plate deformation pattern, if
327 bounded by sufficiently large locked asperities.

328 The recent Maule (2010, Mw 8.8), Iquique (2014, Mw 8.1) and Illapel (2015, Mw 8.4) events

329 allow for a detailed comparison of interseismic coupling with coseismic slip distributions. We
 330 plot in Fig.3B both the average coupling and the average coseismic slip for each of these events,
 331 and in Fig.4 their associated coseismic distribution by (VIGNY et al., 2011; LAY et al., 2014;
 332 RUIZ et al., 2016). As already shown by several authors for the Maule and Iquique earthquakes
 333 (MORENO et al., 2010; MÉTOIS et al., 2012; RUIZ et al., 2014; SCHURR et al., 2014), the first-
 334 order correlation between highly coupled segment and megathrust rupture is confirmed. In par-
 335 ticular, all of these mega-earthquakes ruptures stopped when entering into a LCZ. In Figure 5, we
 336 plot the coseismic slip versus the prevailing interseismic coupling Φ for each subfaults located
 337 in the megathrust ruptures zones and we calculate the conditional probability $P_{>1.5m/\Phi}$ of expe-
 338 riencing more than 1.5 meter of coseismic slip depending on the value of prevailing interseismic
 339 coupling Φ defined as :

$$P_{>1.5m/\Phi} = \frac{N_{subfaults_{>1.5m/\Phi}}}{N_{subfaults_{\Phi}}}$$

340 These plots show that for all of three earthquakes, high coseismic slip is only observed in
 341 highly coupled subfaults, and that the correlation between the probability of experiencing more
 342 than 1.5 meter of coseismic slip and the coupling Φ is $\sim 90\%$ for the Maule and Illapel earth-
 343 quakes. The Iquique case appears more complex since the coefficient of correlation is only 56%.
 344 We interpret this lower correlation between prevailing interseismic coupling and the coseismic
 345 slip distribution for the Iquique earthquake as the result of the combined lack of resolution in the
 346 offshore part of the subduction interface for both coseismic and interseismic coupling models
 347 due to the large distance between the coast and the trench (~ 150 km). One other possible cause

348 for the absence of striking correlation in the Iquique case is the fact that this event is relatively
349 small compared to the Illapel and Maule events (Mw 8.1), and occurred in a swarm and slow slip
350 context (e.g. RUIZ et al., 2014; SCHURR et al., 2014). It could be that the prevailing slow-slip
351 event has released part of the slip that should have been released coseismically in a more standard
352 megathrust rupture scenario, therefore biasing the correlation between interseismic coupling and
353 coseismic slip.

354 Overall, in the case of the 2014 Iquique event, the earthquake ruptured the “Camarones”
355 highly-coupled segment (in a region where the model resolution is lowest than elsewhere) and
356 has been stopped southward by the Iquique LCZ (RUIZ et al., 2014; SCHURR et al., 2014). The
357 recent Illapel earthquake nucleated near a small LCZ at 32°S, ruptured the highly coupled patch
358 forming the northern part of the Metropolitan segment in between the subduction points of the
359 Challenger fracture zone and of the Juan Fernandez ridge, and stopped northward at 30°S in the
360 large La Serena LCZ (YE et al., 2015; RUIZ et al., 2016).

361 The Mw 8.8 Maule earthquake has a complex bi-lateral propagation that may reflect het-
362 erogeneities in the pre-existing coupling or in the interface properties (MORENO et al., 2010;
363 MÉTOIS et al., 2012) but also stopped at two LCZs : San Antonio in the North and Arauco in
364 the South. An interesting feature of this earthquake is the very large coseismic slip observed in
365 front of Constitución (35.2°S) where the average coupling calculated on the first 60 km depth
366 is relatively low. This apparent contradiction has been interpreted by several authors as an ev-
367 idence for dynamic propagation of the rupture through a previously creeping zone (MORENO
368 et al., 2010), while other interseismic models were evidencing only a small decrease in the cou-
369 pling coefficient at this latitude (MÉTOIS et al., 2012). However, as explained in section 5.2, the

370 highly coupled zone does not interrupt in the Constitución LCZ but is rather associated with a
371 very sharp transition zone. To our opinion, this sharpening of the transition zone is consistent
372 with an increase in coseismic slip in the upper portion of the interface. A possible scenario could
373 be that the rupture coming from the South would have been unable to propagate in the 30 to
374 60 km deep portion of the interface since the transition zone was too sharp, thus increasing the
375 stress on the highly coupled upper part of the fault, leading to a higher shallow coseismic slip.

376 Last but not least, the remaining unbroken portion of the Metropolitan segment is highly
377 coupled (in fact was highly coupled before the Maule rupture) and should be considered with
378 extreme caution : indeed there, stress has been increased by the neighbouring ruptures but is
379 simultaneously slowly released by viscous relaxation (KLEIN et al., 2016). However, this release
380 rate is small compared to the long-term accumulation and the remaining high coupling zone
381 could probably still rupture with a $M_w > 8$ event. Further detailed slip-budgets are difficult to
382 conduct on the Chilean subduction zone because (i) the spatial resolution of all coseismic slip
383 and interseismic slip models is limited, in particular in the shallowest part of the interface; (ii) we
384 lack insights on the slip distribution of the historical coseismic ruptures (namely the 1835, 1877
385 and 1922 earthquakes preceding the Maule, Iquique and Illapel earthquakes, respectively); and
386 (iii) we do not know today the portion of the plate convergence that could be accommodated by
387 slow-slip events on the subduction interface. In any case, based on the Chilean example, knowing
388 the interseismic coupling allows for a rather good estimate of the size and shape of the coming
389 ruptures, while the timing of such ruptures remains poorly understood.

390 **5.4 Interseismic coupling and background seismicity**

391 All three $M_w > 8$ megathrust earthquakes that stroke Chile in the last years were preceded by
392 large intraplate events rupturing the oceanic slab between 60 and 120 km depth several years of
393 decades before (Fig.4). The Tarapacá M_w 7.8 earthquake ruptured in 2005 onshore of Iquique,
394 the Chillán M_w 8.3 event devastated the Maule region in 1939 and the Punitaqui M_w 7.1 event
395 was strongly felt in the Illapel area in 1997. The only other significant intraslab earthquake
396 that has been reported over the margin is the deep 1950 Calama event that was followed by the
397 shallower Antofagasta M_w 8 megathrust earthquake in 1995 (Fig.2). This succession of large
398 intraplate and large megathrust earthquakes raises the issue of a possible indirect triggering of
399 megathrust ruptures (over tens of years) by changes in stress on the deep part of the subduction
400 interface as suggested by KAUSEL and CAMPOS (1992) and BIE and RYDER (2015), or by a
401 more complex triggering mechanism through a slow spread of deformation as observed in Greece
402 (DURAND et al., 2014). More generally, it raises the question of the link between intraslab
403 earthquakes, the background seismicity, the coupling and the megathrust rupture.

404 The first-order mechanical interpretation of interseismic coupling in the rate-and-state for-
405 malism implies that during interseismic loading, the LCZs should creep while the coupled seg-
406 ments should remain stuck. Therefore, aseismic transients should be registered near the LCZ.
407 However, opposite to most of the world's subduction zones, no slow-slip event (SSE) has been
408 observed along the Chilean subduction zone before the potential SSE that preceded the 2014
409 M_w 8.2 Iquique earthquake (RUIZ et al., 2014; SCHURR et al., 2014; LAY et al., 2014; KATO
410 and NAKAGAWA, 2014).

411 In order to better understand the mechanical behaviour of the LCZs and segments, we an-
412 alyzed the background seismic activity ($3 < M_w < 7$ earthquakes) during the interseismic phase
413 between two megathrust earthquakes based on the CSN catalogue (<http://www.sismologia.cl/>,
414 complete for $M_w > 3$ since 2000). We consider different periods representative of the interseis-
415 mic background seismicity along the margin : from 2000 to 2010 for South-Central Chile (be-
416 fore the Maule event), from 2008 to 2014 for North Chile (between the Tarapaca and Iquique
417 events), and from 2000 to 2014 for Central Chile (see Fig.2). On Figure 3-A, where we plot the
418 along-strike evolution of the seismicity rate together with the swarms that have been detected
419 in Chile (HOLTKAMP et al., 2011; RUIZ et al., 2014), three seismic gaps, i.e. zones that expe-
420 rience very few moderate magnitude earthquakes, are clearly identified : the Maule, Loa and
421 Paranal-Chanaral area that also correspond to highly coupled segments. There, no or few earth-
422 quakes occur where coupling is higher than 80% (Fig.4). In contrast, the Camarones segment
423 was relatively active during the interseismic period even in the 80% coupled zones, but seismic-
424 ity and swarms (among which the preseismic sequence before the Iquique main shock see Fig.4)
425 mainly concentrate on the edges of the high coupling zone, near the Iquique LCZ. Finally, the
426 Metropolitan segment is the most active portion of the Chilean subduction zone during the inter-
427 seismic phase (Figs.2 and 4) with more than 50 $M_w > 3$ events per year on its edges, and at least
428 20 events per year in the highly coupled portion of the segment. The strong increase in seismicity
429 rate between the Maule and Metropolitan segments appears correlated with the flattening of the
430 deep portion of the slab.

431 Overall, it seems that higher seismicity rates are observed in or near the LCZs, while seg-
432 ments tend to be more silent during interseismic phase. However, the Metropolitan region be-

433 has completely differently of this simple scheme since both seismicity and coupling are high.
434 This first order analysis conducted with the CSN catalog suffers obviously from the heterogene-
435 ity in the epicenters location accuracy, and from the completeness threshold of the catalog. More
436 detailed and regional analysis are required to really conclude on the spatial relationship between
437 moderate magnitude earthquakes and coupling.

438 However, interestingly, several swarm-like sequences occurring along the Chilean subduc-
439 tion zone have been recently pointed out by declustering methods applied to the CSN catalog
440 (HOLTKAMP et al., 2011; RUIZ et al., 2014). 8 of these 10 non-volcanic swarm sequences hap-
441 pen to be located at the transition zone between segments and LCZ (Figs.2A and 4), in agreement
442 with recent observations along other subduction zones (HOLTKAMP and BRUDZINSKI, 2014).
443 Little is known today about the kinematics and dynamics of these clusters that would require
444 systematic relocation and analysis, but they emphasize a specific mechanical behaviour of the
445 subduction interface between segments and LCZs. It is to note that several of the shallowest
446 swarms have been attributed to HOFs located in the shallow portion of the fault (e.g. COMTE
447 et al., 2002; THIERER et al., 2005; CONTRERAS-REYES and CARRIZO, 2011). For instance,
448 the shallow seismic sequences located offshore San Antonio and Valparaiso are thought to be
449 associated with deformation of the fore-arc enhanced by the subduction of fractured seamounts
450 forming the Juan Fernandez ridge complex (THIERER et al., 2005). This is in agreement with
451 the good correlation observed between the LCZs and the inception of HOFs (see section 5.2) and
452 suggests a link between the subducting plate structure, the mechanical behaviour of the interface
453 and the geodetic coupling coefficient. However, how HOFs may influence the mechanical be-
454 haviour of the subduction fault remains unclear : the fracturation of the downgoing plate may

455 directly favor fluid migration and modify the fluid pressure on the interface, but HOFs could also
456 behave as barriers to sediment filling of the trench and modify the structure of the sedimentary
457 prism directly involved in the faulting processes. In Chile, the latter effect is confirmed by the
458 correlation observed between HOFs and positive gravity anomalies (e.g. SONG and SIMONS,
459 2003; SOBIESIAK et al., 2007; ÁLVAREZ et al., 2014; MAKSYMOWICZ, 2015). A relationship
460 may exist between the interseismic coupling coefficient, the friction coefficient on the fault and
461 the structure of the sedimentary prism as proposed for the Guerrero subduction zone by ROUS-
462 SET et al. (2015) or in the Maule area (CUBAS et al., 2013), but remains to be tested.

463 **5.5 Creeping low-coupled zones ?**

464 Since these swarms generally occur at the edges of LCZs, they could be an indirect sign that
465 slow slip events (SSE) occur in the center of the LCZ and would reveal the existence of small-
466 scale velocity-weakening patches located preferentially at the transition zone toward velocity-
467 weakening dominant segments. This interpretation is consistent with observations made on sev-
468 eral subduction zones where SSEs have been observed together with swarm seismicity (e.g.
469 ROGERS and DRAGERT, 2003; VALLEE et al., 2013); and with recent numerical models (e.g.
470 HETLAND and SIMONS, 2010; KANEKO et al., 2010).

471 However, no short-term SSE had been registered in these swarm-prone areas or elsewhere in
472 Chile before the recent 2014 Iquique precursory sequence (RUIZ et al., 2014). This could be due
473 to an observation bias since continuous GPS stations are operating in Chile only since 1995 for
474 the oldest, and since 2004 for most of them, and that they are not homogeneously distributed over

475 the Chilean coast. Indeed, most of the swarm sequences reported by HOLTKAMP et al. (2011)
476 occurred before 1990, and only one cGPS station located far from the trench was operative during
477 the 2006 Baranquilla swarm (Copiapó station, 27°S) showing no clear evidence for transient
478 motion (COMTE et al., 2002; HOLTKAMP et al., 2011). The swarms that occurred since 2008
479 offshore Iquique (Fig.4) were located in the less resolved part of the subduction zone, i.e. where
480 the distance between the coast, the cGPS stations and the trench is the highest, preventing for
481 clear detection of associated SSE.

482 Nevertheless, since the widest well resolved La Serena and Iquique LCZs are instrumented
483 by dense cGPS networks since ~2004, we infer that no small-duration transient slip comparable
484 to the Mexican or Cascadian SSEs that usually produce centimeters of displacements on c-GPS
485 time-series has occurred there since 10 years (e.g VERGNOLLE et al., 2010). If a Mw 6.5 SSE
486 would occur in the very shallow part of the slab in the best-resolved part of our model, i.e. in front
487 of the Tongoy Peninsula (30°S), it would produce a ~0.5 cm offset on the East component of
488 the closest continuous GPS station and less than a millimeter displacement on North and Vertical
489 components (see supplementary figure 9). If spread over several months, such an event would
490 probably remain hidden under the seasonal variations and remain undetected in the continuous
491 time-series. Therefore, if creeping occurred in the La Serena LCZ, it must have been either very
492 slow slip events (VSSE, RUIZ et al., 2014) occurring on tens of years, or short-term SSE that
493 would remain beyond the detectability threshold of our network, i.e. on the shallowest part of
494 the slab.

495 If all the swarm events detected in Chile by HOLTKAMP et al. (2011) are located at the
496 segment-LCZ transition zones, not all LCZs have experienced swarms (Mejillones, Constitu-

497 ción, see Fig.3). This lack of swarm activity during the interseismic period could be interpreted
498 as an evidence for a smooth fault interface that could be creeping silently (HOLTKAMP and
499 BRUDZINSKI, 2014), while the number and intensity of swarms in the other LCZs may reflect
500 the density of small-scale velocity-weakening asperities. It is also possible that in some cases,
501 the activity of LCZs is controlled by the roughness of the subducted oceanic plate while in oth-
502 ers, coupling is decreased by the connection between crustal fault networks and the subduction
503 interface and not by a change in interface roughness. This could be the case for the Mejillones
504 Peninsula LCZ where large crustal fault networks have been imaged and could reach the subduc-
505 tion interface inducing a lower coupling coefficient without swarm activity. However, we have
506 probably missed some swarm sequences in the CSN catalog or the catalog is too short to get a
507 representative swarm distribution, and therefore we can not rule out the fact that swarms will
508 occur in the vicinity of the Mejillones LCZ.

509 **6 Conclusions**

510 We derived an almost continuous distribution of interseismic coupling along the Chilean coast
511 (18-38°S) that reproduces reasonably well the GPS measurements conducted along the margin
512 since the early 90's. These data are overall consistent with highly variable coupling on the
513 subduction zone and a clockwise rotation motion of the Andean sliver that produces 1 cm/yr
514 eastward motion in the Bolivian Andes and few mm/yr at the Maule region latitudes ($\sim 38^\circ\text{S}$).

515 The comparison between the interseismic coupling and the three large megathrust ruptures
516 that stroke Chile in the last 5 years confirms a very good correlation between high coseismic slip

517 and high coupling, while ruptures stopped in LCZ. Therefore, coupling coefficient could be used
518 as a good proxy to assess the location and shape of future megathrust ruptures, even if we still
519 lack understanding on the timing of these ruptures and on their overall magnitude.

520 Detailed analysis of the background seismicity registered by the Chilean catalogue (CSN)
521 demonstrates that often, no simple relationship exists between the moderate seismicity and the
522 coupling coefficient. The three Chilean seismic gaps exhibit very low rates of background seis-
523 micity that concentrate in intermediate to low coupling areas suggesting that highly coupled
524 zones correspond to fully locked velocity-weakening asperities, but this relationship vanished in
525 the Metropolitan or the Camarones segments.

526 Seismic swarms occur in general at the transition between highly coupled segments and low-
527 coupled zones (LCZs), suggesting that LCZs behave as velocity-strengthening material sliding
528 aseismically and triggering swarms on their vicinity. Even if no short-term SSE have been de-
529 tected there in the last decade in Chile, LCZs and notably the La Serena area are probably ex-
530 perencing either shallow undetected SSE or very long-term SSE ranging on several decades.
531 Since most of these LCZs behaved as barriers to the propagation of past and recent megathrust
532 earthquakes and could be involved in their nucleation process as it has been the case for the 2014
533 Mw 8.2 Iquique earthquake, they should be the focus of special attention by the community in
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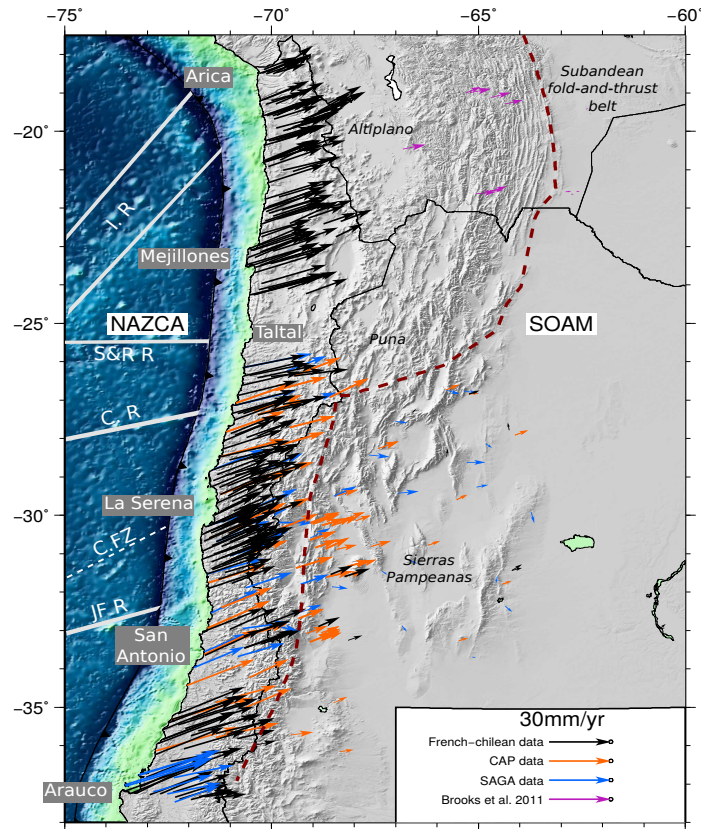


Figure 1: Combined horizontal velocity field from continuous and campaign GPS measurements plotted relative to stable South America (defined by NNR-Nuvel1A (DEMETS et al., 1994)). CAP is the name of the US experiment (BROOKS et al., 2003; BEVIS et al., 1999); SAGA is the GFZ experiment (KLOTZ et al., 2001; KHAZARADZE and KLOTZ, 2003). Dashed brown line : rough border of the eastern edge of the Andean sliver. White lines : major bathymetric features of the Nazca plate (HOFs). I.R Iquique Ridge; S&R R. Sala y Gomez Ridge (or Taltal ridge); C.R. Copiapo Ridge; C.F.Z Challenger Fracture Zone; J.F.R Juan Fernandez Ridge.

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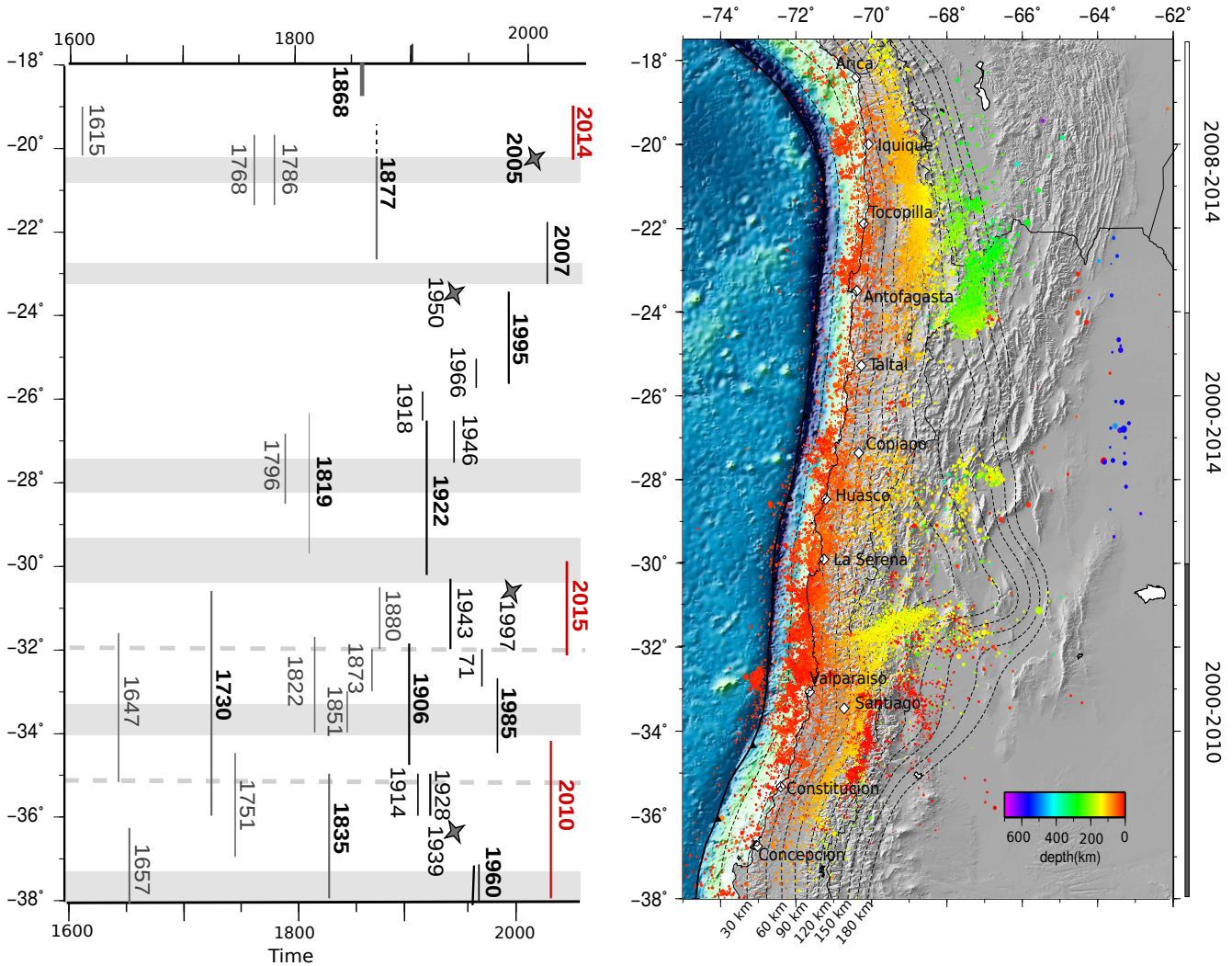


Figure 2: Left : estimated extend of large historical or instrumental ruptures along the Chilean margin adapted from MÉTOIS et al. (2012). Grey stars mark major intra-slab events. The recent $M_w > 8$ earthquakes are indicated in red. Gray shaded area corresponds to LCZ defined in Fig.3. Right : seismicity recorded by the Centro Sismologico Chileno (CSN) during interseismic period, color-coded depending on the event's depth. Three zones have been defined to avoid including aftershocks and preshocks associated to major events : (i) in North Chile, we plot the seismicity from 2008 to january 2014, i.e. between the Tocopilla and Iquique earthquakes; (ii) in Central Chile, we plot the seismicity on the entire 2000-2014 period; (iii) in South-Central Chile, we selected events that occurred between 2000 and 2010, i.e. before the Maule earthquake.

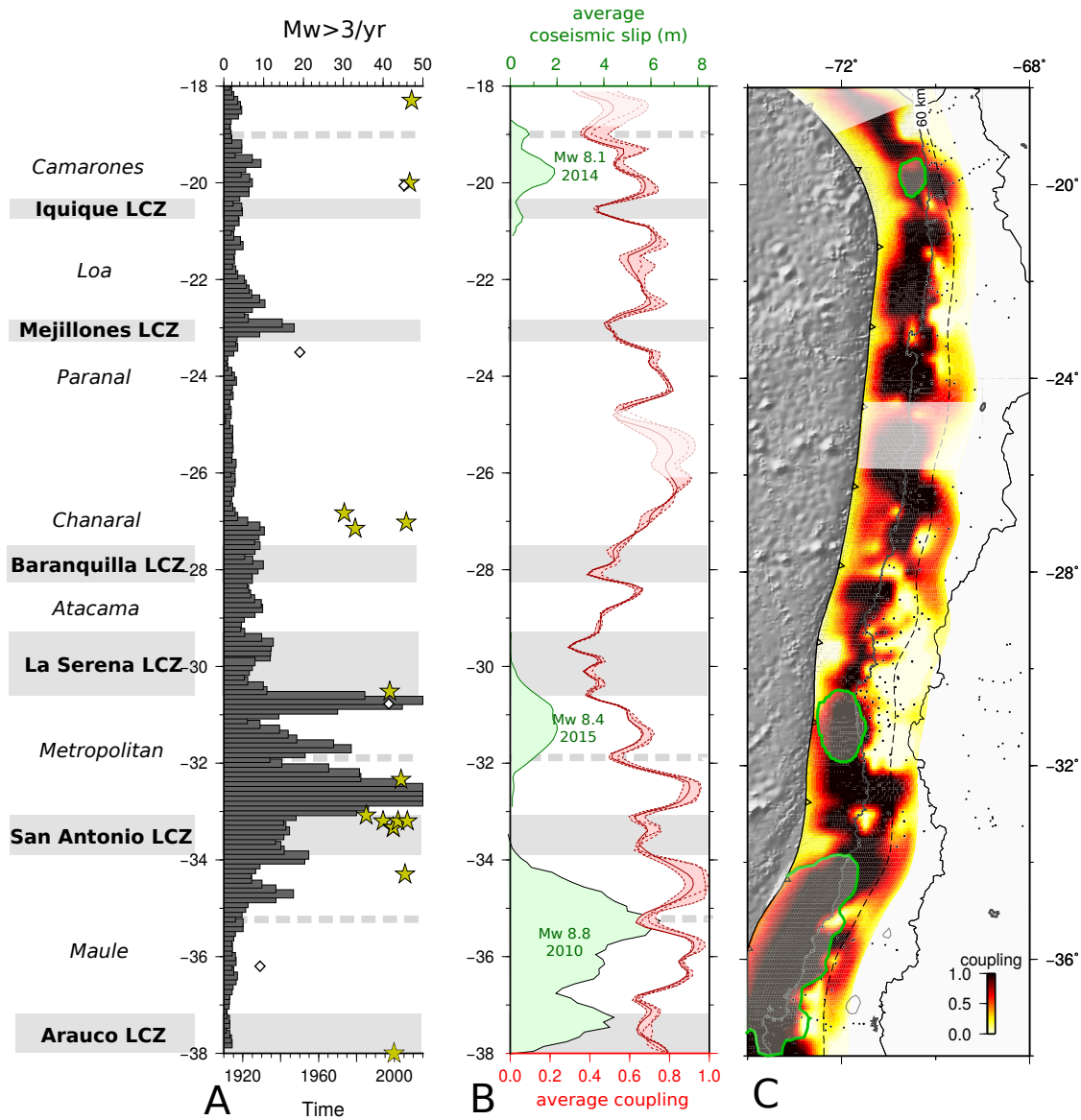


Figure 3: A- Histogram depicts the rate of $M_w > 3$ earthquakes registered by the CSN catalogue during the interseismic period defined for each zone (see Fig.2) on the subduction interface, on 0.2° of latitude sliding windows. Stars are swarm-like sequences detected by HOLTkamp et al. (2011) depending on their occurrence date. Swarms located in the Iquique LCZ and Camarones segment are from RUIZ et al. (2014). Empty squares are significant intraplate earthquakes. B- Red curve : variations of the average coupling coefficient on the first 60 km of depth calculated on 0.2° of latitude sliding windows for our best-models including an Andean sliver motion. Dashed pink curves are alternative models with different smoothing options that fit the data with nRMS better than 2 (see supplementary figure 6) : the pink shaded envelope around our best-model stands for the variability of the coupling along strike. Green curves : coseismic distribution for Maule (VIGNY et al., 2011), Iquique (LAY et al., 2014) and Illapel earthquakes (RUIZ et al., 2016). Gray shaded area stand for the identified Low Coupling Zones (LCZs) and associated high coupling segments that are named on the left. The apparent decrease in the average coupling North of 30° S is considered as an artifact of the Andean sliver motion (see section 5.2). C- Best coupling distribution obtained inverting for Andean sliver motion and coupling amount simultaneously. The rupture zones for the three major earthquakes are indicated as green ovals. White shaded areas are zones where we lack resolution.

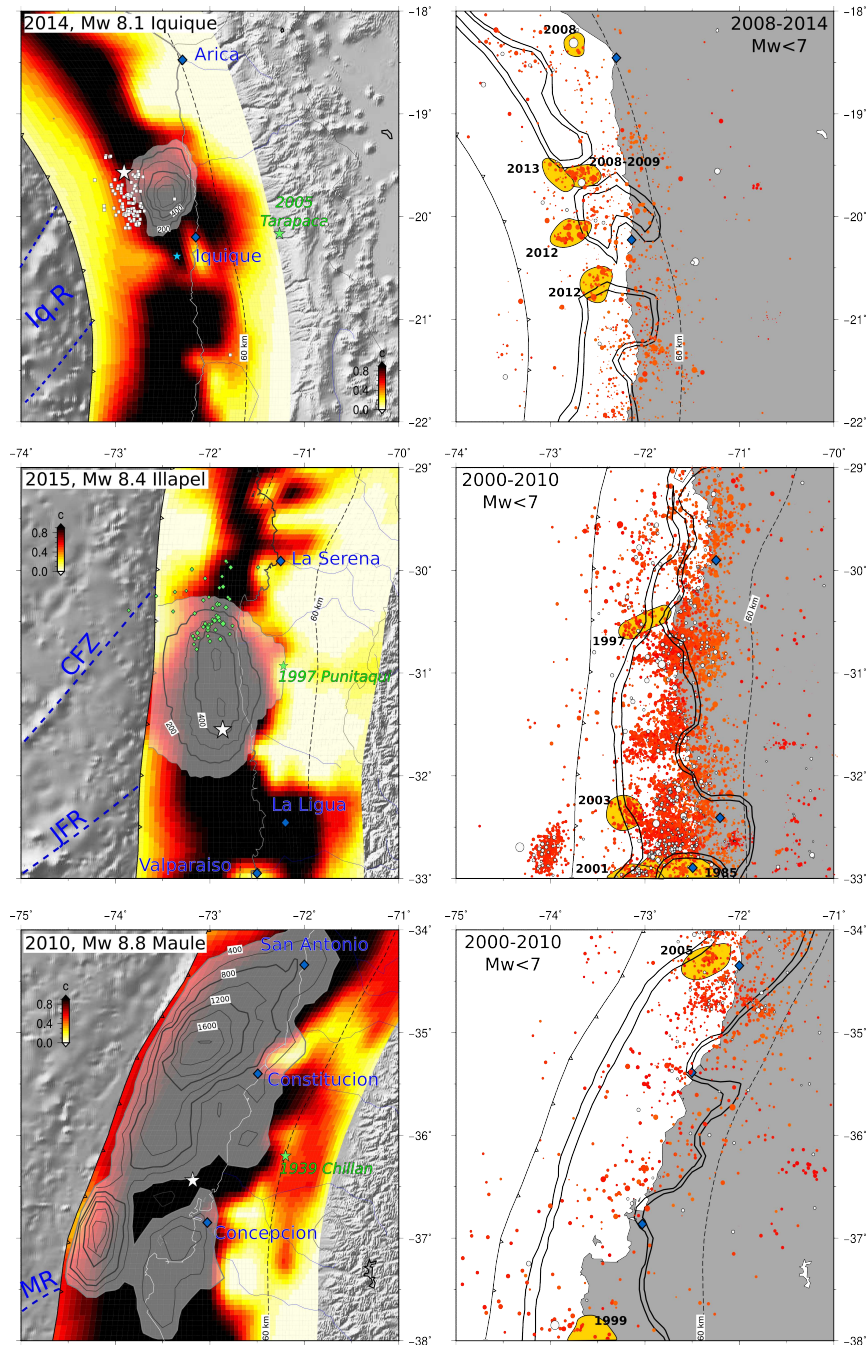


Figure 4: Left : Coupling maps (color coded) versus coseismic slip distributions (gray shaded contours in cm) for the last three major Chilean earthquakes (epicenters are marked by white stars). From top to bottom : Iquique area, white squares are pre-seismic swarm event in the month before the main shock, green star is the 2005, Tarapacá intraslab earthquake epicenter, blue star is the Mw 6.7 Iquique aftershock; Illapel area, green squares show the seismicity associated to the 1997 swarm following the Punitaqui intraslab earthquake (green star); Maule area, green star is the epicenter of the 1939 Chillan intraslab earthquake. Right : interseismic background seismicity in the shallow part of the subduction zone (shallower than 60 km depth) for each region (red dots) together with 80% and 90% coupling contours. White dots are events identified as mainshock after a declustering procedure following GARDNER and KNOPOFF (1974). Yellow areas : extend of swarm sequences identified by HOLTKAMP et al. (2011) South and Central Chile, and RUIZ et al. (2014) for North Chile.

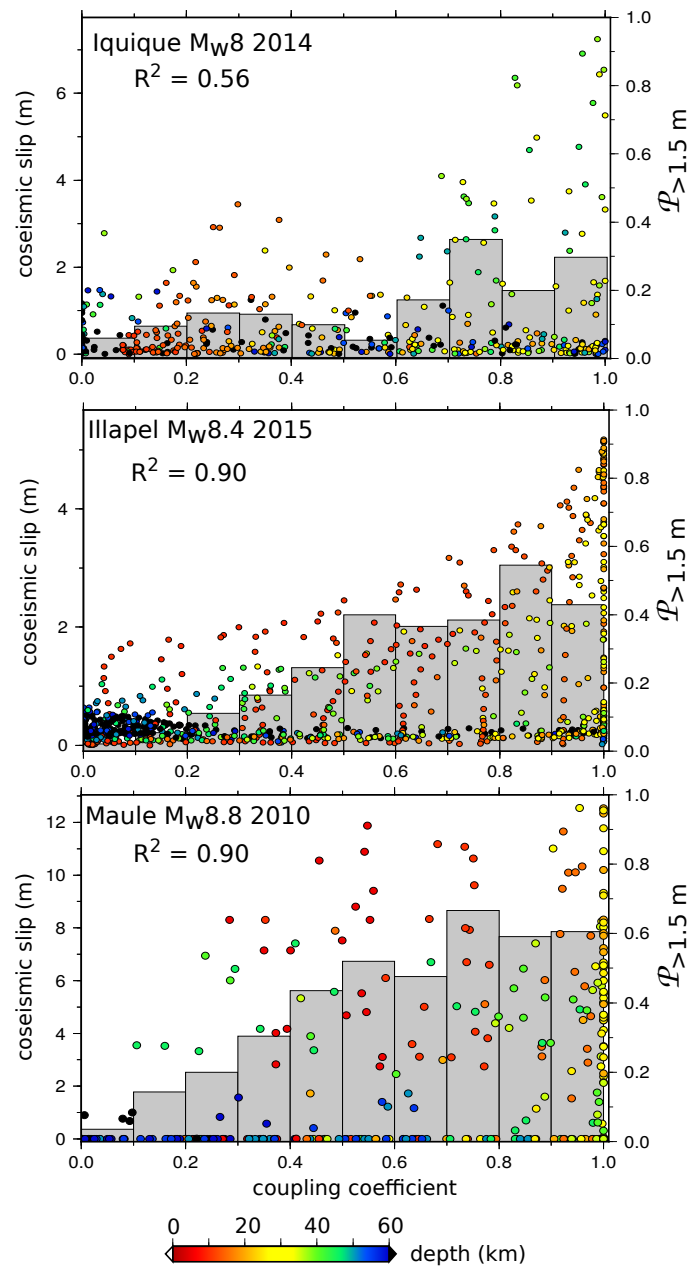


Figure 5: Correlation between coseismic slip amount and prevailing interseismic coupling for the three megathrust earthquakes that stroke Chile since 2010. From top to bottom, case of : the Iquique Mw 8 2014, the Illapel Mw 8.4 2015 and the Maule Mw 8.8 2010 earthquakes. Coseismic slip and interseismic coupling for each subfault is represented by dots, color-coded depending on the subfault depth. The conditionnal probability of experiencing more than 1.5 meter of coseismic slip depending on the prevailing coupling amount is represented by grey histograms. R^2 is the coefficient of correlation between $P_{(>1.5\text{m})/coupling}$ and the interseismic coupling calculated for each case.