

1 **Title:**

2 The Coupling Cloud: A community database of megathrust kinematic coupling models

3 **Authors:**

4 Bar Oryan¹, Alice-Agnes Gabriel¹⁺², Roland Bürgmann³, Eric Calais⁴, Guo Cheng⁵, Mohamed
5 Chlieh⁶, Beatriz Cosenza-Murallas⁷, Víctor M. Cruz-Atienza⁸, Luca Dal Zilio⁹⁺¹⁰, Charles DeMets¹¹,
6 Andria Ellis¹², Lujia Feng⁹⁺¹⁰, Jeffrey T. Freymueller¹³, Endra Gunawan¹⁴, Nuraini R. Hanifa¹⁵,
7 George E. Hilley¹⁶, Ya-Ju Hsu¹⁷, Takeshi Iinuma¹⁸, Yuji Itoh¹⁹, Jorge Jara²⁰, Kaj M. Johnson²¹, Romain
8 Jolivet⁴⁺²², Masayuki Kano²³, Emilie Klein⁴, Shanshan Li²⁴, Shaoyang Li²⁵, Eric O. Lindsey²⁶, Zhen
9 Liu²⁷, John P. Loveless²⁸, Bertrand Lóvery⁶, Louise Maubant¹⁹, Sylvain Michel²⁹⁺³⁰, Cyril Muller³¹,
10 Marianne Métois³², Takuya Nishimura²³, Akemi Noda³³, Dibyashakti Panda³⁴, Mason Perry⁹,
11 Raymundo Plata-Martinez⁸, Mathilde Radiguet⁶, Baptiste Rousset³⁵, Elizabeth M. Sherrill³⁶, Anne
12 Socquet⁶, Juan Carlos Villegas-Lanza³⁷, Laura M. Wallace³⁶⁺³⁸, Lian Xue³⁹, Yusuke Yokota⁴⁰,
13 Shoichi Yoshioka⁴¹⁺⁴² and Shui-Beih Yu¹⁷

14

15 **Affiliations**

16

17 (1) Scripps Institution of Oceanography, University of California at San Diego, La Jolla, CA 92093,
18 USA

19 (2) Department of Earth and Environmental Sciences, Ludwig-Maximilians-University, 80333
20 Munich, Germany

21 (3) Department of Earth and Planetary Science, UC Berkeley

22 (4) Laboratoire de Géologie, Ecole normale supérieure - PSL, CNRS UMR 8538, Paris France

23 (5) Nevada Bureau of Mines and Geology, University of Nevada, Reno, NV, USA

24 (6) Univ. Grenoble Alpes, Univ. Savoie Mont Blanc, CNRS, IRD, Univ. Gustave Eiffel, STerre, 38000
25 Grenoble, France

26 (7) Instituto de Investigación en Ciencias Físicas y Matemáticas (IFIM), Escuela de Ciencias Físicas
27 y Matemáticas, Universidad de San Carlos de Guatemala

28 (8) Instituto de Geofísica, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México

29 (9) Earth Observatory of Singapore, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore, Singapore

30 (10) Asian School of the Environment, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore, Singapore

31 (11) Department of Geoscience, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison WI 53706 USA

32 (12) Department of Earth and Environmental Sciences, Michigan State University, East Lansing,
33 MI, USA

34 (13) USGS Hawaiian Volcano Observatory

35 (14) Institut Teknologi Bandung, Indonesia

36 (15) Research Center for Geological Disaster, National Research and Innovation Agency, Bandung,
37 Indonesia
38 (16) Stanford University, Stanford, CA, USA
39 (17) Institute of Earth Sciences, Academia Sinica
40 (18) Japan Agency for Marine-Earth Science and Technology, Yokohama, Japan
41 (19) Earthquake Research Institute, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan
42 (20) GFZ Helmholtz Centre for Geosciences, Potsdam, Germany
43 (21) Department of Earth and Atmospheric Sciences, Indiana University, Bloomington, IN, USA
44 (22) Institut Universitaire de France, 1 rue Descartes, 75006 Paris, France
45 (23) Disaster Prevention Research Institute, Kyoto University, Japan
46 (24) School of Computing at University of Wyoming
47 (25) State Key Laboratory of Lithospheric and Environmental Coevolution, Institute of Geology
48 and Geophysics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, China
49 (26) Department of Earth & Planetary Sciences, University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, NM,
50 USA
51 (27) Jet Propulsion Laboratory, California Institute of Technology
52 (28) Department of Geosciences, Smith College, Northampton, MA, USA
53 (29) Université Côte d'Azur, IRD, CNRS, Observatoire de la Côte d'Azur, Valbonne, France
54 (30) Sorbonne Université, CNRS-INSU, Institut des Sciences de la Terre Paris, ISTeP UMR 7193,
55 Paris, France
56 (31) Observatorio Vulcanológico y Sismológico de Costa Rica, Universidad Nacional de Costa Rica
57 Heredia, Costa Rica
58 (32) Université Claude Bernard Lyon 1, ENS de Lyon, Université Jean Monnet, CNRS, LGL-TPE,
59 UMR5276
60 (33) National Institute of Advanced Industrial Science and Technology, Tsukuba, Japan.
61 (34) Department of Geology, School of Earth Sciences, Central University of Tamil Nadu,
62 Thiruvavur, India, 610005
63 (35) Institut Terre et Environnement de Strasbourg UMR7063, Université de
64 Strasbourg/CNRS/ENGESS, 5 Rue René Descartes, Strasbourg, 67000, France
65 (36) GEOMAR Helmholtz Centre for Ocean Research Kiel, Germany
66 (37) Instituto Geofísico del Perú (IGP), Lima, Peru
67 (38) Institute for Geophysics, University of Texas, Austin, TX, USA
68 (39) School of Earth and Space Science, Peking University, Beijing, China
69 (40) Institute of Industrial Science, University of Tokyo, Japan
70 (41) Research Center for Urban Safety and Security, Kobe University, Rokkodai-cho 1-1, Nada
71 ward, Kobe 657-8501, Japan
72 (42) Department of Planetology, Graduate School of Science, Kobe University, Rokkodai-cho 1-1,
73 Nada ward, Kobe 657-8501, Japan

74 Author ORCIDs

- 75 Bar Oryan:0000-0001-5000-5668
- 76 Alice-Agnes Gabriel:0000-0003-0112-8412
- 77 Roland Bürgmann:0000-0002-3560-044X
- 78 Eric Calais:0000-0002-5935-8117
- 79 Guo Cheng:0000-0002-4144-8448
- 80 Mohamed Chlieh:0000-0003-2252-2187
- 81 Beatriz Cosenza-Murales:0000-0002-4626-2757
- 82 Víctor M. Cruz-Atienza:0000-0001-7067-2636
- 83 Luca Dal Zilio:0000-0002-5642-0894
- 84 Charles DeMets:0000-0001-7460-1165
- 85 Andria Ellis:0000-0003-2543-0640
- 86 Lujia Feng:0000-0002-3736-5025
- 87 Jeffrey T. Freymueller:0000-0003-0614-0306
- 88 Endra Gunawan:0000-0002-7187-1466
- 89 Nuraini R. Hanifa:0000-0002-8012-5385
- 90 George E. Hilley:0000-0002-1761-7547
- 91 Ya-Ju Hsu:0000-0003-1389-9994
- 92 Takeshi Inuma:0000-0003-0386-2055
- 93 Yuji Itoh:0000-0002-7848-1399
- 94 Jorge Jara:0000-0003-3176-0689
- 95 Kaj M. Johnson:0000-0003-1511-5241
- 96 Romain Jolivet:0000-0002-9896-3651
- 97 Masayuki Kano:0000-0002-7288-4760
- 98 Emilie Klein:0000-0003-3239-5118
- 99 Shanshan Li:0000-0002-8986-431X
- 100 Shaoyang Li:0000-0001-9832-4561
- 101 Eric O. Lindsey:0000-0003-2274-8215
- 102 Zhen Liu:0000-0002-6313-823X
- 103 John P. Loveless:0000-0003-0416-8727
- 104 Bertrand Lavery:0000-0002-3671-0608
- 105 Louise Maubant:0000-0003-2077-169X
- 106 Sylvain Michel:0000-0001-7878-6603
- 107 Cyril Muller:0000-0003-3744-5700
- 108 Marianne Métois:0000-0002-1489-0513
- 109 Takuya Nishimura:0000-0002-2469-8146
- 110 Akemi Noda:0000-0002-9825-568X

111 Dibyashakti Panda:0000-0002-3190-9693
112 Mason Perry:0000-0003-1719-9004
113 Raymundo Plata-Martinez:0000-0001-9272-0926
114 Mathilde Radiguet:0000-0002-3877-9393
115 Baptiste Rousset:0000-0001-9304-0498
116 Elizabeth M. Sherrill:0000-0002-5439-6464
117 Anne Socquet:0000-0002-9208-7136
118 Juan Carlos Villegas-Lanza:0000-0002-2772-1508
119 Laura M. Wallace:0000-0003-2070-0891
120 Lian Xue:0000-0002-0739-7616
121 Yusuke Yokota:0000-0003-2969-9110
122 Shoichi Yoshioka:0000-0002-0238-1033
123 Shui-Beih Yu:0000-0002-1754-6208

124 Author contributions

125 Conceptualization: B. Oryan, A. Gabriel

126

127 Data Curation: B. Oryan, A. Gabriel, R. Bürgmann, E. Calais, G. Cheng, M. Chlieh, B. Cosenza-
128 Muralles, V. Cruz-Atienza, L. Dal Zilio, C. DeMets, A. Ellis, L. Feng, J. Freymueller, E. Gunawan, N.
129 Hanifa, G. Hilley, Y. Hsu, T. Iinuma, Y. Itoh, J. Jara, K. Johnson, R. Jolivet, M. Kano, E. Klein, S. Li, S.
130 Li, E. Lindsey, Z. Liu, J. Loveless, B. Loverly, L. Maubant, S. Michel, C. Muller, M. Métois, T.
131 Nishimura, A. Noda, D. Panda, M. Perry, R. Plata-Martinez, M. Radiguet, B. Rousset, E. Sherrill, A.
132 Socquet, J. Villegas-Lanza, L. Wallace, L. Xue, Y. Yokota, S. Yoshioka, S. Yu

133

134 Validation: B. Oryan, A. Gabriel, R. Bürgmann, E. Calais, G. Cheng, M. Chlieh, B. Cosenza-Muralles,
135 V. Cruz-Atienza, L. Dal Zilio, C. DeMets, A. Ellis, L. Feng, J. Freymueller, E. Gunawan, N. Hanifa, G.
136 Hilley, Y. Hsu, T. Iinuma, Y. Itoh, J. Jara, K. Johnson, R. Jolivet, M. Kano, E. Klein, S. Li, S. Li, E.
137 Lindsey, Z. Liu, J. Loveless, B. Loverly, L. Maubant, S. Michel, C. Muller, M. Métois, T. Nishimura,
138 A. Noda, D. Panda, M. Perry, R. Plata-Martinez, M. Radiguet, B. Rousset, E. Sherrill, A. Socquet, J.
139 Villegas-Lanza, L. Wallace, L. Xue, Y. Yokota, S. Yoshioka, S. Yu

140

141 Funding Acquisition: B. Oryan, A. Gabriel

142

143 Methodology: B. Oryan, A. Gabriel

144

145 Project Administration: B. Oryan, A. Gabriel

146

147 Software: B. Oryan

148

149 Supervision: A. Gabriel

150
151 Visualization: B. Oryan
152
153 Writing – original draft: B. Oryan, A. Gabriel
154
155 Writing – review & editing: B. Loverly, Cyril Muller, Roland Bürgmann, Eric Calais, Jeffrey T.
156 Freymueller, Marianne Métois, Víctor M. Cruz-Atienza, Takuya Nishimura, Emilie Klein, Charles
157 DeMets, Dibyashakti Panda, Louise Maubant, Shoichi Yoshioka, Jorge Jara, Mathilde Radiguet,
158 Sylvain Michel, Ya-Ju Hsu, Yuji Itoh, Lujia Feng, Shaoyang Li, Romain Jolivet, Jack Loveless, J.
159 Villegas-Lanza, Yusuke Yokota, Mason Perry, Baptiste Rousset, Zhen Liu, Beatriz Cosenza-
160 Muralles, Raymundo Plata-Martinez, N.R. Hanifa, Eric O. Lindsey, Elizabeth M. Sherrill

161
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163 Rob Govers, Mai, Paul Martin

164
165 **Abstract** (words 197/200)

166 Kinematic coupling models inverted from geodetic data are widely used to evaluate how slip
167 deficit is distributed along subduction megathrusts during the interseismic period, and are
168 central to earthquake and tsunami hazard assessment. Yet, existing coupling models differ widely
169 in methodology and inputs, lack common community standards, and are scattered across
170 publications and repositories. Here, we introduce the “Coupling Cloud”
171 (<https://couplingcloud.ucsd.edu>), an open, extensible, community-driven platform that curates,
172 standardizes, documents, and disseminates more than 96 kinematic coupling models from 55
173 publications across 21 subduction margins. The platform provides interactive 2D and 3D plate-
174 interface viewers to inspect coupling models together with associated information such as slab
175 geometry, uncertainty estimates and metadata. All datasets can be downloaded directly in
176 standardized formats: surface-projected coupling values as NetCDF, plate-interface dislocation
177 geometries as VTU, and model metadata as YAML files. We demonstrate the advantages of
178 centralized and standardized coupling data through a Cascadia subduction zone example, where
179 synthesizing eight full-margin models reveals along-strike patterns that are not apparent when
180 models are examined individually. Consolidating coupling models within a coherent, version-
181 controlled framework enables systematic cross-margin comparison and FAIR-compliant data
182 sharing, opening the door to more comprehensive assessment of megathrust mechanics.

183 Introduction

184 Community databases can accelerate Earth science research by standardizing how data products
185 are archived and shared, enabling synthesis across models and systematic evaluation of

186 methodological choices. Several initiatives illustrate the scientific value of open, standardized
187 data infrastructures. For example, SubMachine compiles global seismic tomography models
188 (Hosseini et al., 2018), the SubMap initiative assembles long-term subduction zone observations
189 (<https://submap.gm.umontpellier.fr/>), and the Nevada Geodetic Laboratory provides processed
190 GNSS time series and velocity fields (Blewitt et al., 2018). Similarly, the SRCMOD database unified
191 finite-fault source inversion formats and metadata to aggregate hundreds of finite slip models
192 (Mai & Thingbaijam, 2014), directly motivating community benchmarks such as the Source
193 Inversion Validation exercises (SIV, Mai et al., 2016). The USGS finite-fault model archive provides
194 another example of how openly accessible, consistently formatted datasets accelerate scientific
195 discovery (Goldberg et al., 2022; Hayes, 2017; <https://earthquake.usgs.gov/data/finitefault/>). In
196 contrast, despite the central role of coupling models in subduction zone science and hazard
197 assessment, the geodetic megathrust coupling community has lacked a centralized, standardized
198 infrastructure for archiving, comparing, and reusing published models in consistent,
199 interoperable data formats.

200 Kinematic coupling models identify regions along subduction interfaces that accommodate little
201 interseismic slip, commonly inferred as frictionally locked, amid regions that creep steadily or slip
202 transiently during the interseismic period. These models are constructed from inversions of
203 interseismic or inter-slow slip events (inter-SSE) surface displacements most commonly derived
204 from GNSS (Dixon, 1991; Feigl et al., 1993) and InSAR (Bürgmann et al., 2000), but also
205 incorporating leveling (Burgette et al., 2009; Jackson & Bilham, 1994), coral-based
206 reconstructions (Chlieh et al., 2008; Tsang et al., 2015) and offshore geodetic measurements such
207 as GNSS-Acoustic techniques (DeSanto et al., 2025; Gagnon et al., 2005; Yokota et al., 2016). Such
208 inversions commonly use Green's functions from forward models based on elastic dislocation
209 theory in a half-space (Meade, 2007; Okada, 1985, 1992), or viscoelastic earthquake-cycle
210 formulations (Itoh et al., 2021; Li et al., 2015, 2018; Pollitz, 1997) and the backslip formulation to
211 infer slip deficit (Savage, 1983). The inverse problem is then solved with linear schemes
212 (Tarantola, 2005; Tarantola & Valette, 1982) or Bayesian approaches that integrate priors with
213 data to quantify posterior uncertainty (e.g., Fukuda & Johnson, 2008; Minson et al., 2013; Tomita
214 et al., 2021; Yabuki & Matsu'ura, 1992). Expressing the inferred slip deficit rate relative to the
215 long-term plate convergence rate yields a kinematic coupling model (Wang & Dixon, 2004) that
216 describes a continuous spectrum of fault behavior, ranging from areas creeping at the long-term
217 slip rate (coupling ≈ 0) to effectively fixed regions with no creep (coupling ≈ 1).

218 Because kinematic coupling models delineate regions where elastic strain accumulates and may
219 be released in future megathrust earthquakes, they are an important tool for assessing seismic
220 and tsunami hazard in subduction zones (e.g., Giardini et al., 1999; Glehman et al., 2025; Ramos
221 et al., 2021; Small & Melgar, 2021; Wang et al., 2015; Wang, 2011; Widiyantoro et al., 2020).

222 However, despite their scientific value, these models face methodological challenges. Differences
223 in assumed slab geometry and viscoelastic earth structure (Laske et al., 2013; Lovey et al., 2025;
224 Luo et al., 2025; Wang et al., 2021), the period studied, density and quality of geodetic
225 observations, velocity plate model, and the imposed regularization applied during coupling
226 inversion affect the resulting coupling distributions (Fukuda & Johnson, 2008; Ide, 2007; Minson
227 et al., 2013). Moreover, kinematic coupling models have traditionally lacked a unified, FAIR-
228 compliant (Findable, Accessible, Interoperable, Reusable; Wilkinson et al., 2016) data format and
229 are often scattered across publications in forms that are difficult to extract, evaluate, or
230 systematically compare, limiting reproducibility and efforts to assess how modeling assumptions
231 affect coupling estimates.

232 Here, we present the Coupling Cloud (<https://couplingcloud.ucsd.edu>, hereafter abbreviated to
233 CC), an open online platform that aggregates a growing collection of published kinematic
234 coupling models from subduction zones worldwide. The CC provides an intuitive interface to
235 explore, visualize, and download these version controlled models, featuring a 2D map viewer for
236 surface-projected coupling values and a 3D viewer that displays coupling on the underlying slab
237 geometry. By centralizing and unifying these datasets and providing both 2D and 3D visualization
238 tools within a single platform, the CC facilitates comparative analysis, strengthens reproducibility,
239 and broadens community access to essential megathrust earthquake science resources. We
240 demonstrate the value of this unified framework with a Cascadia case study, where along-strike
241 patterns emerging from averaged models are not apparent when models are examined
242 individually.

243 Data selection

244 As of January 12, 2026 the CC database comprises 96 kinematic coupling datasets compiled from
245 55 publications covering 21 subduction zones worldwide, for a total of 219 spatial data products.
246 These represent all published coupling models for which datasets were available and that use
247 geodetic observations to infer the spatial distribution of coupling along subduction megathrusts.
248 The database currently includes (in alphabetical order) two models in Alaska and the Aleutians
249 (Drooff & Freymueller, 2021; Shanshan Li & Freymueller, 2018), two in the Caribbean (van
250 Rijnsingen et al., 2021), eleven in Cascadia (Li et al., 2018; Lindsey et al., 2021; Materna et al., 2023;
251 Michel et al., 2019; Pollitz & Evans, 2017; Pollitz, 2025; Schmalzle et al., 2014; Sherrill et al., 2024),
252 eight in Chile (Jara et al., 2024; Jolivet et al., 2020; Klein et al., 2018; Li et al., 2015; Métois et al.,
253 2012, 2013, 2016), four in Costa Rica (Feng et al., 2012; Perry et al., 2025; Xue et al., 2015), two
254 in Ecuador-Colombia (Chlieh et al., 2021; Gombert et al., 2018), one in Guatemala (Ellis et al.,
255 2019), six in Hikurangi (Maubant et al., 2023; Michel et al., 2025; Wallace et al., 2012, three in
256 Himalayas (Dal Zilio et al., 2020; Panda & Lindsey, 2024; Stevens & Avouac, 2015), one in Indo-

257 Burma (Lindsey et al., 2023), nineteen in the Japan Trench (Abe & Yoshioka, 2022; Itoh et al.,
258 2021; Lindsey et al., 2021; Loveless & Meade, 2016), two in Java (Hanifa et al., 2014; Widiyantoro
259 et al., 2020), four in Kamchatka (Bürgmann et al., 2005), two in Manila (Hsu et al., 2016), two in
260 Makran (Cheng et al., 2024), six in Mexico (Cosenza-Muralles et al., 2022; Cruz-Atienza et al.,
261 2025; Louise Maubant et al., 2022; Radiguet et al., 2016; Rousset et al., 2016), nine in Nankai (Liu
262 et al., 2010; Loveless & Meade, 2016; Nishimura et al., 2018; Noda et al., 2018; Plata-Martinez et
263 al., 2024; Sherrill et al., 2024; Yokota et al., 2016), ten in Peru (Jara et al., 2024; Lovery et al.,
264 2024; Villegas-Lanza et al., 2016), one in Ryukyu (Kano et al., 2021), three in the Sagami trough
265 (Loveless & Meade, 2016; Nishimura et al., 2018), and one in Sumatra (Chlieh et al., 2008). While
266 the Coupling Cloud provides standardized access to these datasets, users are expected to cite the
267 original publications associated with each model when using the data.

268 Data standardization and unified representation

269 Published coupling models vary widely in format and metadata, reflecting the diversity of data
270 coverage, methods, and conventions used across studies and time. To standardize access and
271 promote FAIR use (Wilkinson et al., 2016), we map each model onto a uniform latitude–longitude
272 grid and store it as a NetCDF file (Rew & Davis, 1990). When gridded outputs are not provided,
273 coupling fields are interpolated onto a regular grid with adaptively refined resolution using linear
274 or triangular interpolation (Text S1, Fig. S1). Every file contains latitude, longitude, the coupling
275 values, and additional optional parameters, such as standard deviation, interface depth, and slip
276 deficit. The NetCDF format is machine-readable and supports direct analyses and visualization
277 using open-source packages such as Matplotlib (Hunter, 2007), GMT (Wessel et al., 2019), and
278 Xarray (Hoyer & Hamman, 2017). Because NetCDF files do not inherently preserve the original
279 fault-dislocation geometry used to invert the geodetic observations, we reformat all available
280 model dislocation geometries as VTU PolyData files (Schroeder et al., 1998). VTU is a widely
281 adopted, self-describing format for unstructured meshes that natively supports complex 3D slab
282 geometries and mixed element types, making it well suited for downstream use in numerical
283 modeling workflows. This standardized format allows for direct visualization and processing using
284 open-source tools such as ParaView (Ahrens et al., 2005), PyVista (Sullivan & Kaszynski, 2019),
285 and Meshio (Schlömer, 2022) and preserves node coordinates, mesh connectivity, and associated
286 attributes such as coupling values on both node and element levels. Together, these machine-
287 readable formats remove the need to parse ASCII text files and allow users to work directly with
288 the models using the tools listed above. They allow for quantitative operations, e.g., clipping by
289 depth, computing isosurfaces, resampling to regular grids, decimation, and provide efficient
290 binary input/output (I/O) with compression for large models. Both the regular-grid NetCDF
291 products and the unstructured VTU meshes integrate with standard parallel analysis and

292 visualization tools used in high-performance computing (HPC) workflows, enabling future
293 scalable processing of large coupling model ensembles.

294 Beyond the spatial formats, we collect metadata on each study's modeling choices and
295 assumptions to provide context for every hosted coupling model. Each dataset includes metadata
296 detailing the source publication DOI, allowing users to readily identify and cite the original
297 studies, as well as a short description, region, and model type. The latter distinguishes between
298 interseismic coupling models that represent time-averaged strain accumulation between
299 earthquakes, inter-SSE models estimated during periods between slow-slip events, and kinematic
300 block-model formulations that infer coupling from relative motions between tectonic blocks.
301 Additional optional metadata includes the quantity and type of geodetic observations, the
302 forward model formulation, and the inversion framework, including parameters such as the
303 regularization type and associated weights (see Table 1 for a list of recommended metadata).
304 These metadata are stored both within the NetCDF file and in an accompanying YAML file (Ben-
305 Kiki et al., 2009), whose hierarchical structure separates observational, forward-model, and
306 inversion information into human- and machine-readable records of model parameters. Lastly,
307 when available, we include the original observed geodetic fields and associated uncertainties in
308 ASCII format as part of the model dataset. All CC data products, including NetCDF coupling values,
309 VTU geometries, YAML metadata, and geodetic observations are freely accessible through the
310 CC interface as well as an example Jupyter notebook that demonstrates data access, metadata
311 parsing, and visualization.

312 Platform architecture

313 The CC platform operates on a virtual machine within an eight-node Proxmox virtualization
314 cluster hosted at the Scripps Institution of Oceanography, University of California San Diego. The
315 system is configured with two virtual CPUs and 8 GB of RAM, running AlmaLinux 9.6, with Apache
316 serving the web application and a FastAPI backend that handles all dynamic data requests (Fig.
317 1). The CC features two viewers: a 2D map viewer and a 3D geometry viewer. The 2D viewer
318 displays surface-projected coupling values in a map interface and uses real-time server-side tiling
319 via TiTiler, which converts NetCDF datasets into "tiles", small image segments, at multiple zoom
320 levels that form the full map. These tiles are added as data layers in Leaflet, an open-source
321 JavaScript library that renders the interactive basemap and enables users to explore and compare
322 coupling fields in geographic context.

323 The 3D viewer provides an interactive environment for exploring coupling fields on the original
324 plate-interface geometry. For models where the slab depth is available, we construct 3D
325 representations of the interface by converting geographic coordinates (latitude, longitude, and

326 depth) to Earth-Centered Earth-Fixed coordinates and exporting the resulting surfaces as VTK
327 PolyData (.vtp) files (Schroeder et al., 1998). The Coupling Cloud 3D viewer loads these files
328 directly in a browser using [vtk.js](#) (Fig. 1), an open-source JavaScript library for scientific
329 visualization. For each subduction zone, the 3D viewer includes an Earth surface layer derived
330 from GEBCO (Becker et al., 2009), providing geographic context as users rotate, zoom, and
331 explore coupling models, the megathrust interface and the overlying topography.

332 The Coupling Cloud platform

333 The CC is a browser-based workspace for finding, visualizing in 2D and 3D, comparing, and
334 downloading published kinematic coupling models across subduction zones. Using the 2D viewer,
335 users can select a margin from the dataset panel, display one or several models for that region,
336 and compare their spatial distributions by toggling through layers, and adjusting the colorbar,
337 allowing for examination of differences in the extent of coupling (Fig. 2A). In addition to the
338 coupling fields, the CC documents supplementary fields such as uncertainty, which can become
339 substantial where geodetic constraints are sparse, particularly in offshore regions (e.g., DeSanto
340 et al., 2025; Lindsey et al., 2021; Nishimura et al., 2018). If provided, users can visualize these
341 uncertainty data sets alongside the coupling maps (Fig. 2B) or download them, allowing
342 assessment of the reliability of specific features and propagation of uncertainty into their own
343 analyses.

344 Kinematic coupling models assume plate-interface geometries that range from planar surfaces
345 to detailed 3D geometries, often based on the Slab2 model (Hayes et al., 2018), which may lead
346 to variations in the inferred slip deficit distributions (Baba et al., 2002; Elston et al., 2025; Moreno
347 et al., 2009). Within the CC 2D viewer, users can visualize and compare these geometric choices
348 (Fig. 3C). In addition to the 2D viewer, the CC includes a 3D viewer for visualizing coupling on the
349 3D plate-interface geometry. Users can activate the 3D viewer by selecting a subduction zone
350 and entering its 3D view, where all models with available geometry can be explored (Fig. 3). This
351 tool provides an intuitive way to examine how geometric assumptions influence inferred
352 coupling, complementing the 2D surface view and enhancing comparison across models that use
353 different representations of the plate interface. Users can download dislocation geometries as
354 VTU files for offline visualization and analyses.

355 Variability among kinematic coupling models arises from differences in inversion setup and
356 observational constraints (Avouac, 2015; Kaneko et al., 2010). These differences include the
357 geodetic measurement tools used, ranging from GNSS to InSAR, leveling, paleogeodetic, and
358 offshore measurements, as well as the time periods over which interseismic velocities are
359 estimated and how aseismic processes such as postseismic deformation and interseismic

360 transients are treated (Bürgmann et al., 2000; Chlieh et al., 2008; Dixon, 1991; Gagnon et al.,
361 2005; Jackson & Bilham, 1994). The inversion strategies themselves span regularized least-
362 squares formulations to fully Bayesian frameworks that explicitly probe the posterior
363 distribution. Differences in regularization schemes and associated weights, fault
364 parameterization, a priori constraints (e.g., imposed creep at depth or fixed rake), the adopted
365 kinematic block models and plate reference frame further influence the inferred coupling
366 distribution (Loverly et al., 2024; Métois et al., 2016; Villegas-Lanza et al., 2016).

367 These methodological differences also reflect that the quantity referred to as “kinematic
368 coupling” is not defined identically across all studies. For example, in regions experiencing slow-
369 slip events, some studies estimate long-term interseismic coupling, whereas others estimate
370 coupling only during intervals between slow-slip episodes (e.g. Maubant et al., 2023; Michel et
371 al., 2025; Radiguet et al., 2016). In classical backslip formulations (Savage, 1983), coupling is
372 inferred by relating surface deformation to slip deficit through elastic half-space dislocation
373 models. In contrast, viscoelastic earthquake-cycle models infer coupling using forward models
374 that account for time-dependent viscous deformation, which can yield different coupling
375 distributions even for the same geodetic observations. Block-model approaches derive coupling
376 by simultaneously estimating relative block motions and slip deficit on the megathrust interface.
377 To document such differences, we compiled metadata for each model that can be viewed directly
378 on the platform (Fig. 4) or downloaded as YAML files. Users should consult these metadata,
379 particularly the model type, forward-model formulation, inversion framework and other
380 metadata (Table 1), as well as the original publications, before interpreting or comparing models.

381 Performance

382 We evaluate the responsiveness and scalability of the Coupling Cloud platform during interactive
383 use, where the computational demand is highest. Initial page loads are fast, on the order of ~1
384 second for up to about ten simultaneous users, because only a small amount of data is
385 transferred during the initial page load. The primary computational load arises from 2D tile
386 requests during user interaction, so we benchmark the number of concurrent requests the
387 backend can sustain. We issue 3,000 requests for the same tile at progressively increasing
388 concurrency levels and measure the time required for TiTiler to serve all requests. Under our
389 current configuration, which includes two virtual CPUs and 8 GB of RAM, the total processing
390 time decreases with increasing concurrency as CPU resources are utilized more fully, until it
391 reaches a plateau where the server is operating at maximum capacity with sustaining a
392 throughput of approximately 45 tile requests per second (Fig. 5). A typical 2D map viewer user
393 interaction such as panning or zooming triggers approximately 15 new tile requests. In practice,
394 tile caching means that retrieved tiles are stored locally in the user’s browser. Thus, interactions

395 within already viewed areas impose no additional load on the backend, and the CC 2D viewer can
396 support many more users than implied by the baseline throughput for uncached tiles.

397 Even in cases where the dynamic server becomes slow to respond due to high user load, our
398 benchmark demonstrates that the architecture is scalable at least for small numbers of CPUs. A
399 single-CPU configuration delivers roughly half the throughput of the two-CPU setup (Fig. 5),
400 indicating near-linear performance scaling in this test. This suggests that adding additional CPU
401 resources can increase system capacity, with the caveat that allocating more virtual CPUs incur
402 higher purchasing and maintenance costs. We highlight that the 3D viewer requires no backend
403 computation, as all visualization is handled directly in the user's browser. The only server-side
404 operation is transferring the VTK PolyData geometry files to the client, which are typically a few
405 megabytes in size and load within seconds, depending on the user's internet connection.

406 A simple demonstration: along-strike segmentation of the Cascadia 407 megathrust in kinematic coupling models

408 To illustrate the advantages of assembling many published coupling models within a single
409 standardized framework, we present a case study for the Cascadia subduction zone. The CC
410 currently aggregates eight full-margin Cascadia interseismic coupling models that include plate-
411 interface depth information (Fig. 6A). These models span more than a decade of geodetic
412 inversion studies and employ a range of elastic, viscoelastic, and boundary-based forward and
413 inverse modeling approaches, including regularized, parameterized slip-rate deficit inversions
414 (Schmalzle et al., 2014), regularized linear inversions (Michel et al., 2019), regularized inversions
415 with physical constraints (Lindsey et al., 2021), Bayesian boundary inversions (Sherrill et al.,
416 2024), and viscoelastic earthquake-cycle modeling (Pollitz & Evans, 2017; Pollitz, 2025). As a brief
417 example of the utility of the CC platform, we view these models together (Fig. 6A1-8) to assess
418 how their inferred coupling distributions relate to proposed along-strike segmentation of the
419 Cascadia margin.

420 Whether a megathrust is segmented along strike controls rupture behavior and whether slip
421 deficit is released in single margin-wide earthquakes or in a sequence of smaller events (e.g.,
422 Arnulf et al., 2022; Bassett et al., 2025; Melnick et al., 2009; Philiposian & Meltzner, 2020).
423 Cascadia is a classic example where this question remains central (e.g., Melgar, 2021). Slow-slip
424 and tremor catalogs reveal along-strike sections whose recurrence patterns and spatial
425 distributions change abruptly along strike, implying structural or frictional contrasts (Bartlow,
426 2020; Brudzinski & Allen, 2007). High-resolution seismic imaging reveals sharp changes in
427 megathrust morphology that align with these inferred segment boundaries (Carbotte et al.,
428 2024). Together with along-strike patterns in turbidite records, these observations have been

429 interpreted as evidence for Cascadia’s along-strike segmentation, a pattern also suggested by
430 early geodetic coupling estimates, with higher coupling in the northern and southern segments
431 and lower coupling in the central portion (Goldfinger et al., 2012; Schmalzle et al., 2014).

432 We define three commonly used along-strike subsections of the Cascadia margin (e.g., Ramos et
433 al., 2021): a northern segment (Vancouver Island to $\sim 46^\circ\text{N}$), a central segment ($\sim 46\text{--}43.5^\circ\text{N}$), and
434 a southern segment ($\sim 43.5^\circ\text{N}$ to Mendocino Triple Junction). For each model, we extract Coupling
435 Cloud–stored gridded coupling values shallower than 20 km, where along-strike variations in
436 coupling are most commonly inferred (Fig. 6A1–2). These values correspond to spatially distinct
437 fault patches within each along-strike segment. We describe how coupling values are distributed
438 across these spatial units by computing a probability density function (PDF) for each model and
439 segment (e.g., Oryan & Gabriel, 2025) using a Gaussian kernel density estimator with bandwidth
440 selected according to Scott’s rule (Scott, 2015). We note that the PDF is used as a normalized
441 representation of the density and relative weighting of coupling values across the coupling
442 spectrum and not as a result of repeated measurements of a stochastic process). Finally, we
443 express each segment’s PDF as a deviation from the margin-wide PDF for the same model, so
444 that positive deviations highlight coupling values that are overrepresented within a given
445 segment relative to the margin as a whole.

446 Our analysis shows little sensitivity to kernel bandwidth and grid resolution, and reveals that the
447 northern-segment PDF curve rises by up to ~ 1 in probability density above the margin-wide PDF
448 at coupling values larger than 0.7. This indicates that high-coupling values are more concentrated
449 in the northern segment than across the Cascadia subduction zone as a whole. Similarly, the
450 central segment PDF remains below the margin-wide PDF for coupling values larger than ~ 0.8 ,
451 indicating a lower density of high-coupling values relative to the margin-wide distribution (Fig.
452 6B2). In contrast, the southern segment does not show a higher concentration of high coupling
453 values, and its PDF remains below the margin-wide distribution, reaching negative deviations of
454 up to ~ 1 in probability density, similar in magnitude to the positive deviations observed in the
455 northern segment (Fig. 6B3).

456 This example averages distributions across multiple coupling models spanning a range of
457 inversion strategies and forward-modeling approaches. These models are not strictly
458 independent, however, as they share geodetic datasets and related regularization strategies, and
459 the ensemble spread should not be interpreted as a quantitative measure of uncertainty. Rather,
460 the ensemble is intended to illustrate first-order behavior rather than provide a formal statistical
461 treatment of inter-model variability and uncertainty. Even so, it shows that the concentration of
462 coupling values in the northern and central segments aligns with previous interpretations of
463 Cascadia’s along-strike segmentation (Brudzinski & Allen, 2007; Carbotte et al., 2024; Goldfinger

464 et al., 2012), whereas the southern segment does not exhibit a similarly coherent high-coupling
465 pattern. This example also demonstrates how synthesizing ensemble models within the Coupling
466 Cloud framework could help distinguish features that persist across modeling approaches from
467 those that may depend on individual methodological choices. We therefore urge users to use the
468 associated metadata and uncertainty information when comparing models and, most
469 importantly, to consult the original publications describing each model, where the underlying
470 assumptions and methodological choices are fully documented.

471 Current and future roles of the Coupling Cloud platform

472 The CC is designed with long-term sustainability in mind, hosted at Scripps / UC San Diego's
473 institutional infrastructure with redundant backups and grounded in stable, widely supported
474 data formats and libraries, ensuring continued accessibility and minimal maintenance. Our goal
475 is for the CC to serve as a long-term community-driven global repository for kinematic coupling
476 models, an up-to-date archive that the community can rely on for synthesis, comparison, and
477 reproducibility. We also envision the CC to form a valuable teaching resource, offering
478 standardized datasets for training the next generation of geodesists and subduction zone
479 scientists, as well as providing an easy entry point for researchers new to the field. In addition,
480 the platform is extensible and supports user-driven uploads, allowing researchers to easily
481 contribute new coupling models, metadata, and geometries directly. We invite all authors
482 preparing new or forthcoming coupling models to upload their datasets to the CC so that the
483 community can benefit from timely, open, and standardized access to the latest coupling models.

484 In addition, we hope that the unified file formats adopted here, NetCDF for surface-projected
485 coupling fields, VTU (VTK PolyData) for plate-interface dislocation geometries, and YAML for
486 FAIR-compliant metadata, will help providing a working standard for the community. By
487 encouraging authors to express new coupling models directly in these formats, we aim to
488 streamline data exchange and improve reproducibility across tools and research groups. At the
489 same time, if the community converges on alternative standards, the CC framework can readily
490 adopt them through simple import workflows, ensuring continued support for whichever formats
491 best serve the megathrust research community.

492 Looking ahead, we see the Coupling Cloud not only as a repository of coupling models but as an
493 evolving platform designed to reduce methodological variability and to bridge our understanding
494 of how slip is accumulated and released in subduction zones (e.g., Wang et al., 2012). One
495 promising direction is to host community validated Green's functions for subduction margins
496 (e.g., Hori et al., 2021), providing a consistent set of forward-modeling kernels that removes a
497 major source of variability among existing coupling models (Li et al., 2015; Loversy et al., 2025;

498 Wang et al., 2021). A near-term direction for future developments is to link coupling models more
499 directly to the geodetic observations used in the underlying inversions. Although users can
500 already download the coupling-model associated observational datasets, if available, future
501 versions of the CC may place greater emphasis on graphical representation, e.g., allowing GNSS
502 velocities and time series, InSAR displacement fields, and offshore GNSS-Acoustic measurements
503 to be viewed alongside coupling fields.

504 Finally, seamless integration of the CC interseismic coupling archive with the SRCMOD coseismic
505 slip repository (Mai & Thingbaijam, 2014) and the Slow Earthquake Database (Kano et al., 2018)
506 would unify complementary perspectives on megathrust behavior. Realizing this vision would
507 require transforming the text-based FSP (Mai, Shearer, et al., 2016) and CSV formats used by
508 SRCMOD and Slow Earthquake Databases into the VTU and NetCDF formats adopted by the
509 Coupling Cloud, harmonizing metadata structures across both archives, and establishing an
510 interface that links ruptures and slow slip events to corresponding interseismic coupling models.
511 With such integration, users could examine coseismic and slow earthquake slip distributions
512 alongside interseismic coupling fields, offering a unified perspective on strain accumulation and
513 release across the earthquake cycle.

514 Conclusions

515 We have developed the Coupling Cloud, a unified and FAIR-compliant platform for standardizing,
516 distributing, visualizing, and comparing kinematic geodetic coupling models across global
517 subduction zones. The CC currently hosts 96 coupling models from 55 publications covering 21
518 subduction margins, each standardized into common file formats with preserved plate-interface
519 geometries and complete metadata. By providing interactive 2D and 3D visualization tools and
520 unified formats, the platform aims to remove long-standing barriers to reproducibility and to
521 enable more transparent comparison among models constructed with differing data sets and
522 methodologies, while associated metadata enables users to consult the original publications for
523 methodological details. As the Coupling Cloud grows through community contributions and
524 future integration of observational datasets and models, it is well positioned to serve as a long-
525 lived resource for advancing understanding of megathrust deformation and seismic hazard.

526

Parameter	Description
Model type	Interseismic/Inter-SSE/Block model or a combination of these.

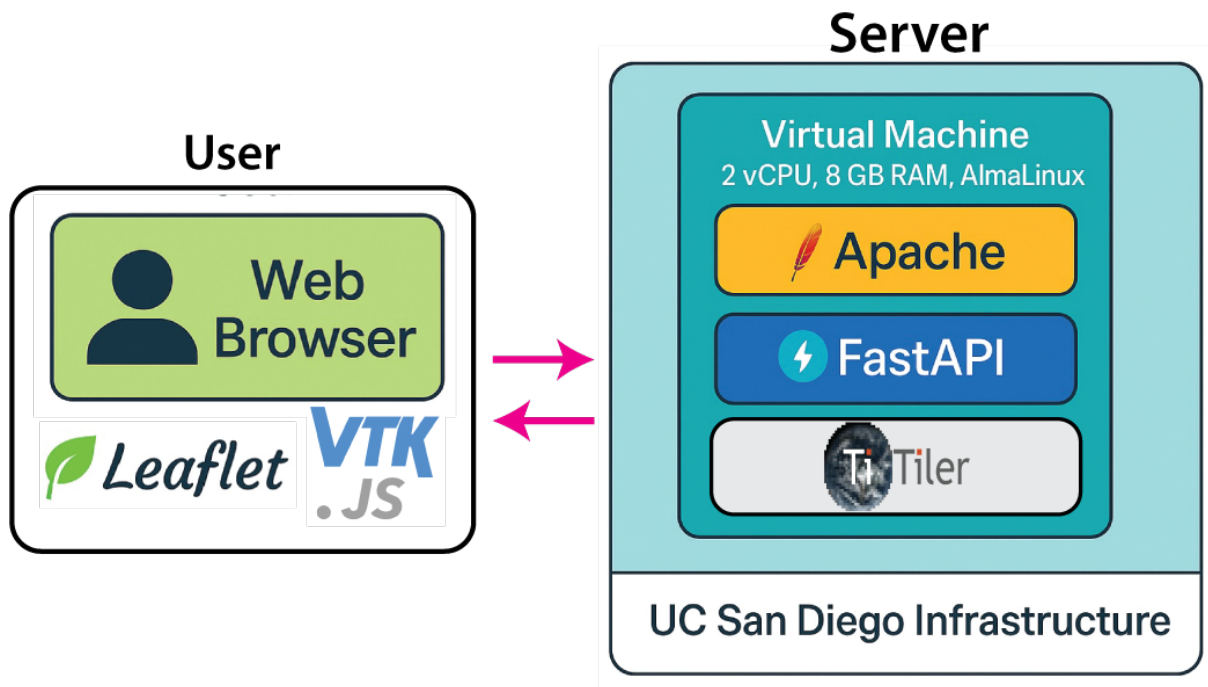
Inversion type	Method of inversion used (e.g. Tikhonov regularization, Bayesian, stochastic Bayesian, least-squares).
Forward model formulation	Earth model used to compute surface displacement, such as a uniform elastic half-space, layered elastic structure, or a viscoelastic rheology.
Type of dislocation	Geometry of the dislocation elements (triangular, rectangular, or piecewise-linear triangular).
Number of dislocations	Total number of dislocation elements used in the forward model.
Degrees of freedom	Total number of parameters solved for in the inversion.
Type of Observations	Type(s) of geodetic observations used (e.g., Campaign GNSS, permanent GNSS, InSAR, leveling, coral etc.).
Observation Components	East/North/Up (or E/N/U)
Number of sites	Number of sites (or pixels in case of InSAR) used in the inversion.
Number of observations	Total number of individual observation components (e.g., if one site uses North/East components and another uses Up/Down, the total is 3).
Reference frame	Global geodetic reference frame (e.g., ITRF2014, ITRF2008).
Plate-fixed frame	Tectonic or plate-relative reference frame used to interpret interseismic deformation (e.g., Australian plate) including when possible.
Earliest data used	Start date of the geodetic observations incorporated in the inversion (format: YYYY or YYYY-MM or YYYY-MM-DD).
Latest data used	End date of the geodetic observations incorporated in the inversion (format: YYYY or YYYY-MM or YYYY-MM-DD).
Regularization type	Form of regularization applied during the inversion (e.g., Laplacian smoothing, Tikhonov regularization. etc.).
Smoothing weight	Value of the regularization weights used in the inversion.
Smoothing length scales	Value of length scale used in the regularization.
Couple values computed	Indicates whether coupling was computed at dislocation nodes or over full dislocation patches.
Poisson ratio	Value of the Poisson's ratio assumed if a single layer model is used.
Number of layers	Number of layers used in the model, if applicable.

Convergence model	Relative plate velocity model (required for normalization of slip deficit to obtain coupling)
Kinematic constraints	A priori assumptions about slip deficit rate (e.g., rake direction).

527

528 Table 1. Recommended metadata fields for coupling models.

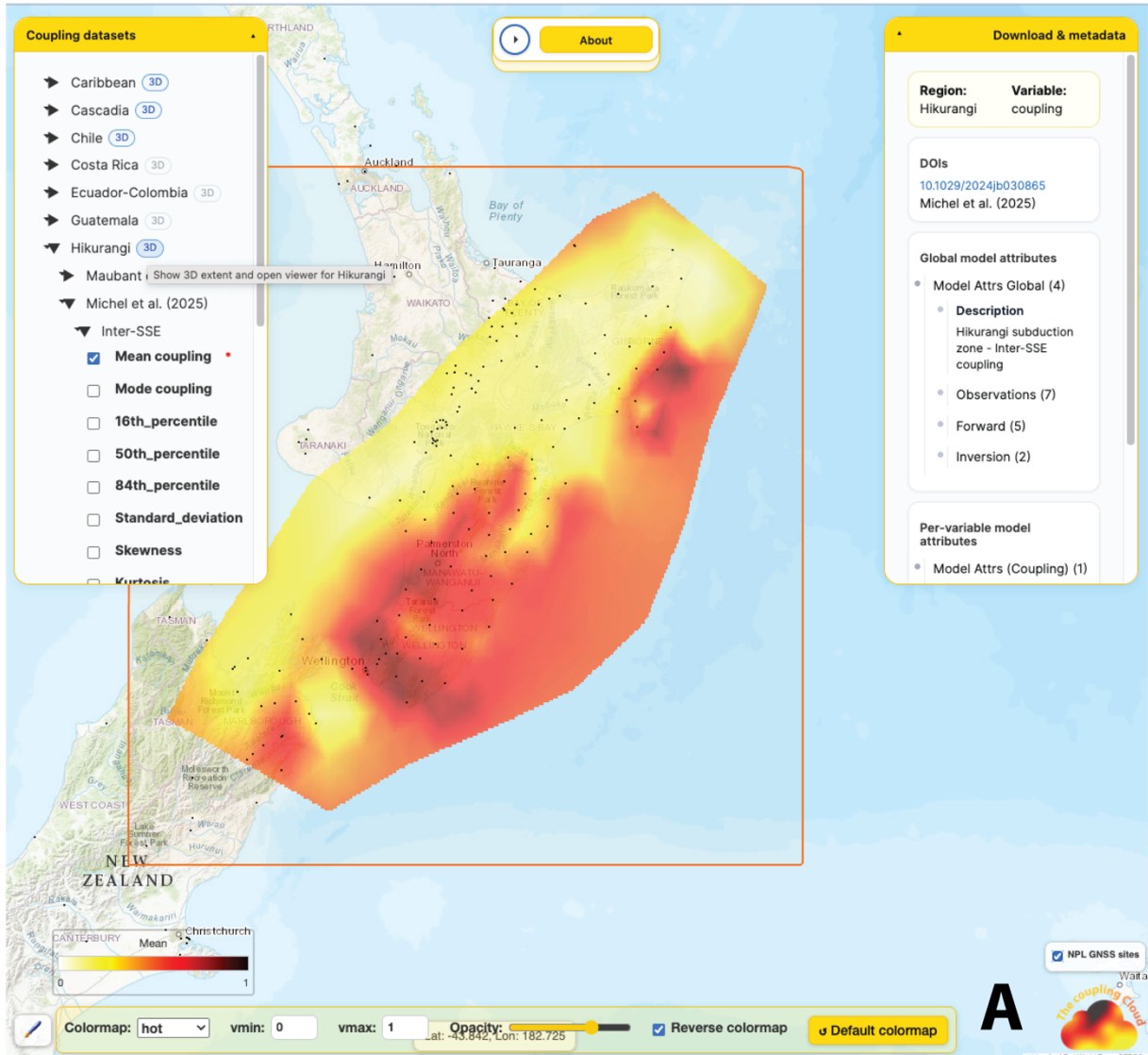
529 Figure captions



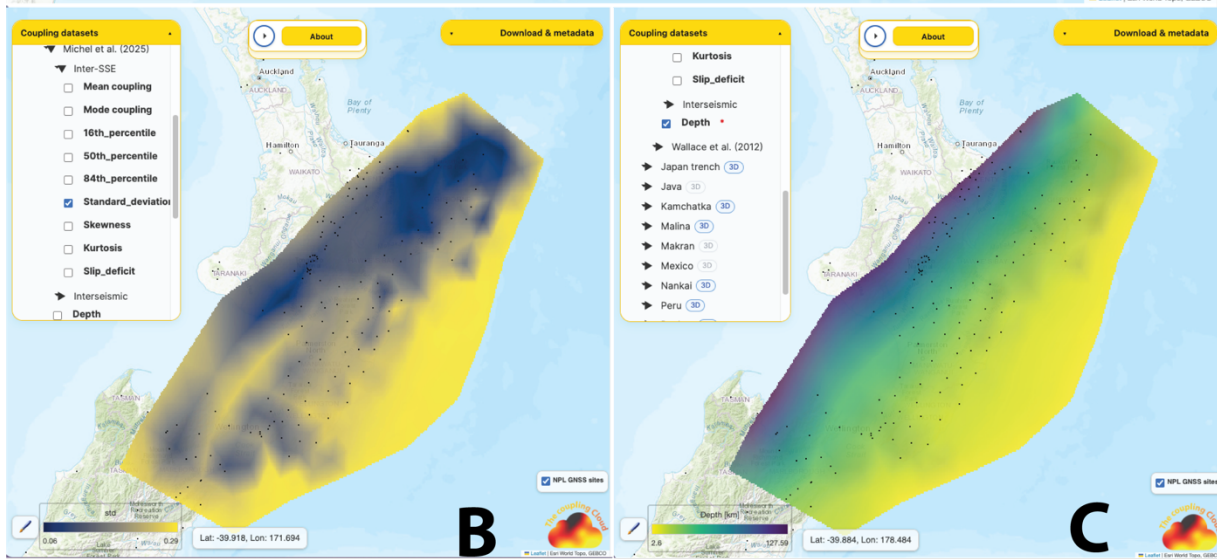
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531 Figure 1 - CC platform architecture describing the server and user sides.

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A

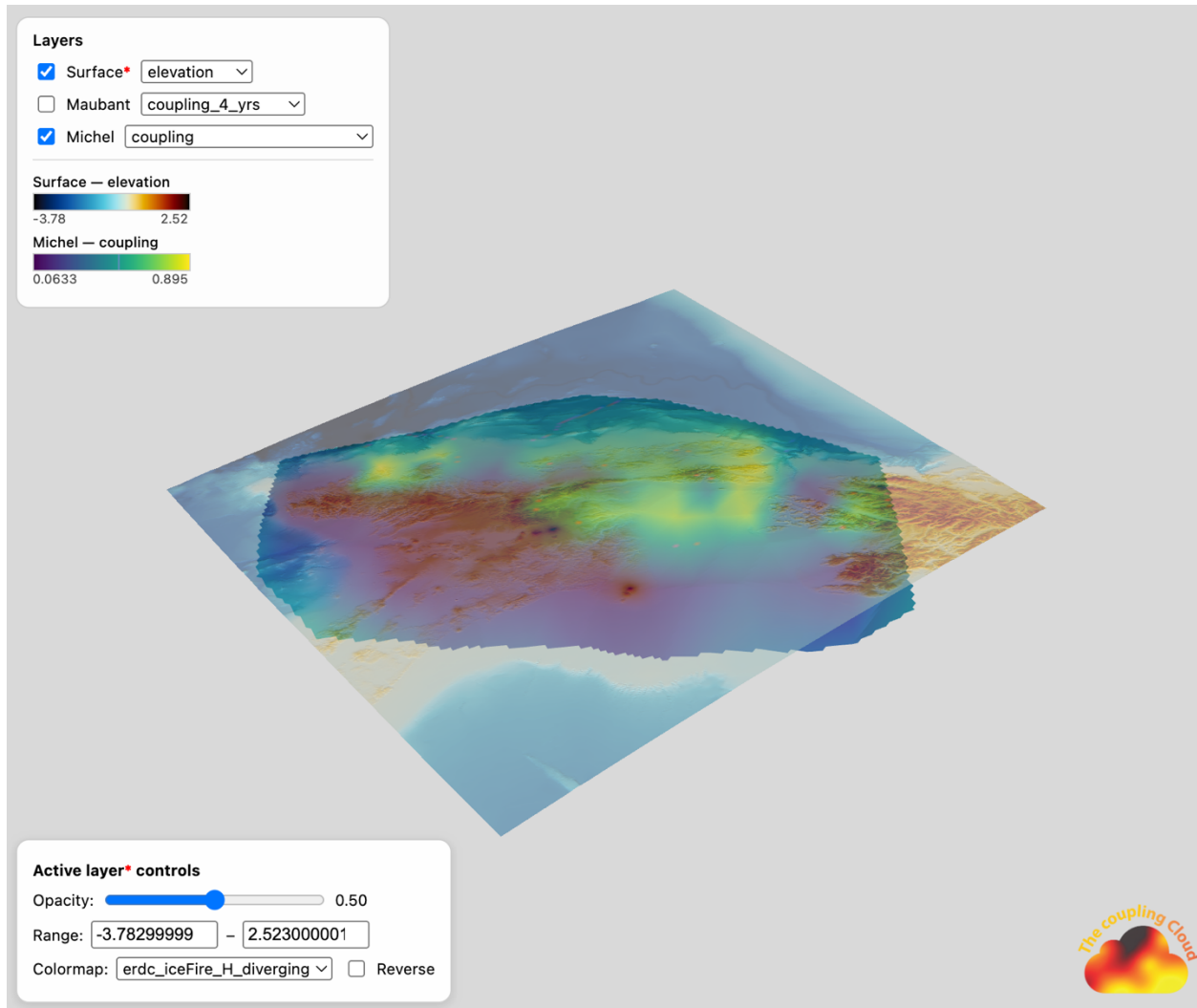


B

C

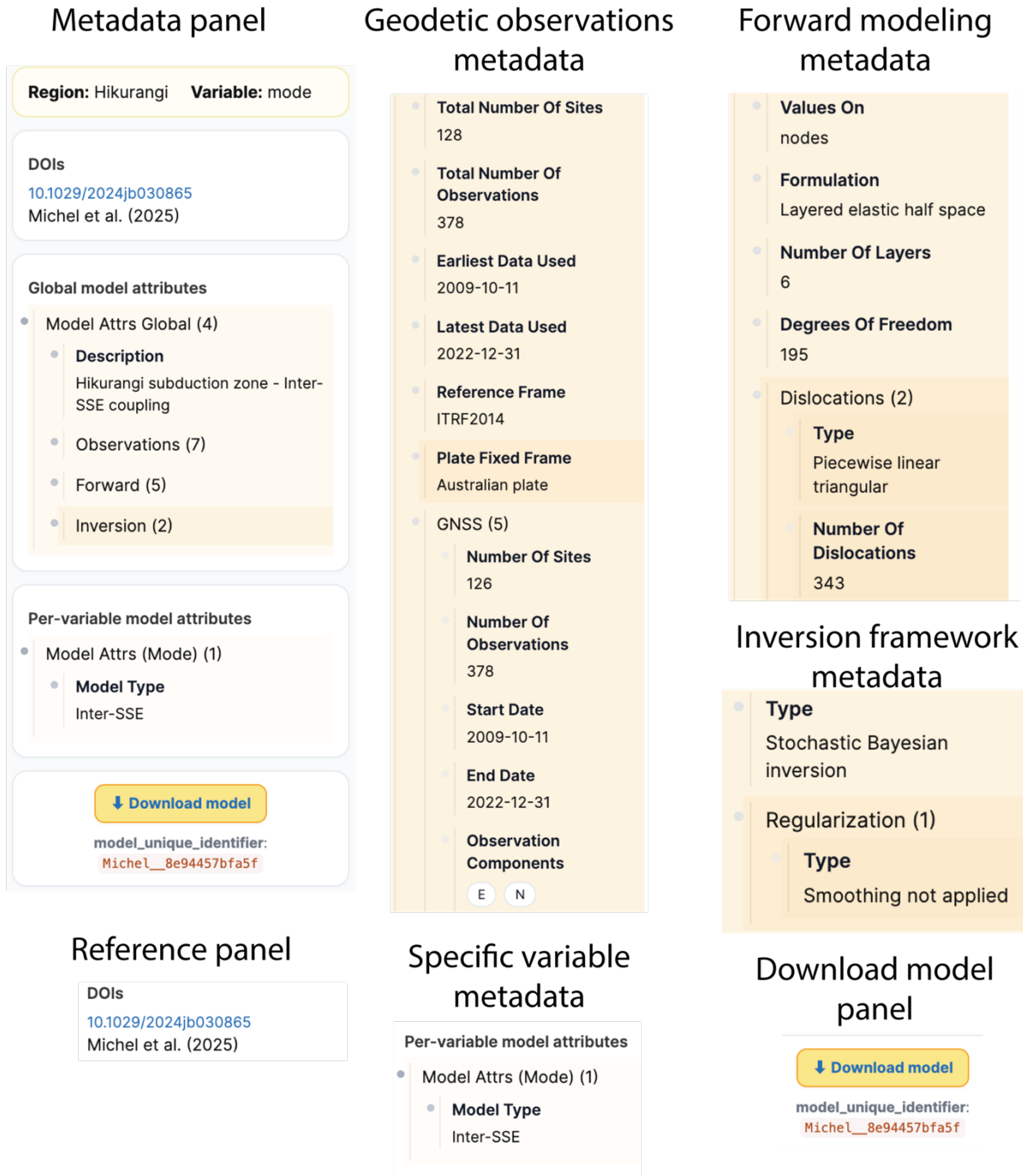
534 **Figure 2. Coupling Cloud 2D viewer overview.** The 2D viewer provides an interactive map-based
535 interface for exploring kinematic coupling models and their associated metadata. Users can
536 select models, adjust visualization settings, and switch seamlessly between the 2D and 3D
537 viewers. A. The upper-left panel shows the dataset selector, which allows users to choose
538 coupling models to display in the 2D map viewer. The 3D button switches to the 3D viewer, with
539 the red polygon indicating the region covered by the 3D viewer. The lower-left panel contains
540 the brush controls used to configure colormap settings. The upper-right panel displays the
541 metadata associated with the selected coupling model, and a link to download the dataset. The
542 “About” panel contains the full reference list and additional platform information. Black dots
543 indicate the position of GNSS stations associated with time series in the Nevada Geodetic
544 Laboratory (NGL). Examples showing the selection of supplementary fields, including standard
545 deviation and interface depth, for the same coupling model in Hikurangi (Michel et al., 2025).

546



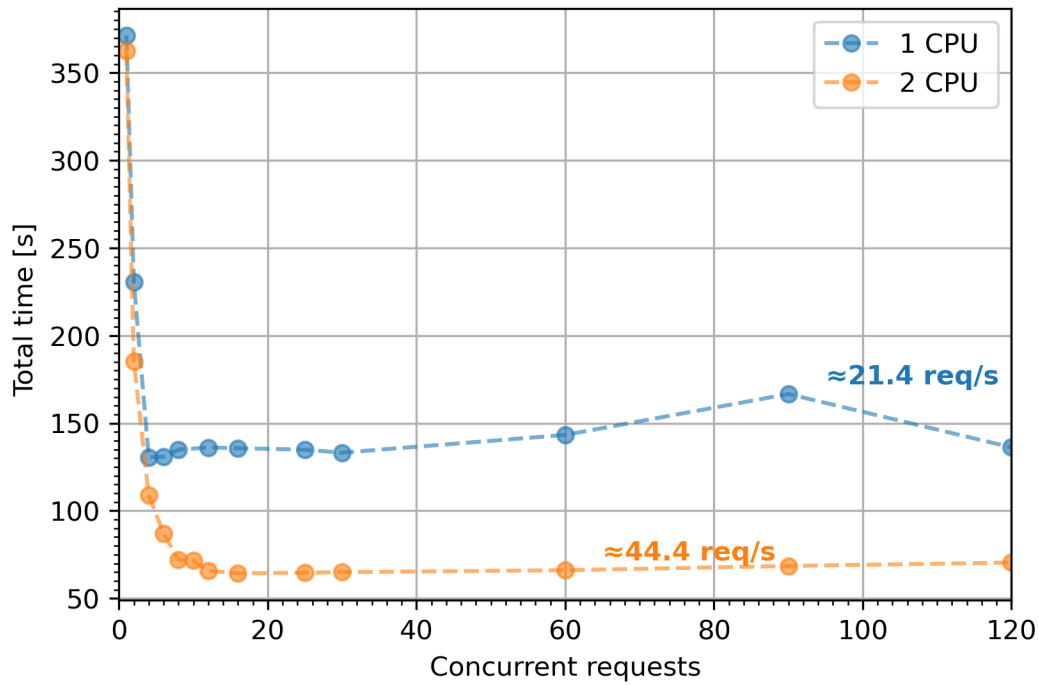
547
 548 **Figure 3 - Coupling Cloud 3D viewer overview.** The 3D viewer enables interactive exploration of
 549 coupling models on the actual plate-interface geometry used in each inversion. It displays the
 550 megathrust surface in Earth-centered coordinates and overlays Earth-surface layer that provides
 551 geographic context. Users can select which geometric or coupling layers to display and customize
 552 their colormaps and opacity settings through the *Layers* and *Active Layers* control panels. The
 553 example shown here is from the Hikurangi subduction zone, illustrating the coupling field for the
 554 same model displayed in Fig 2 with the horizontal extent of the surface layer matching the red
 555 polygon shown in Fig. 2A.

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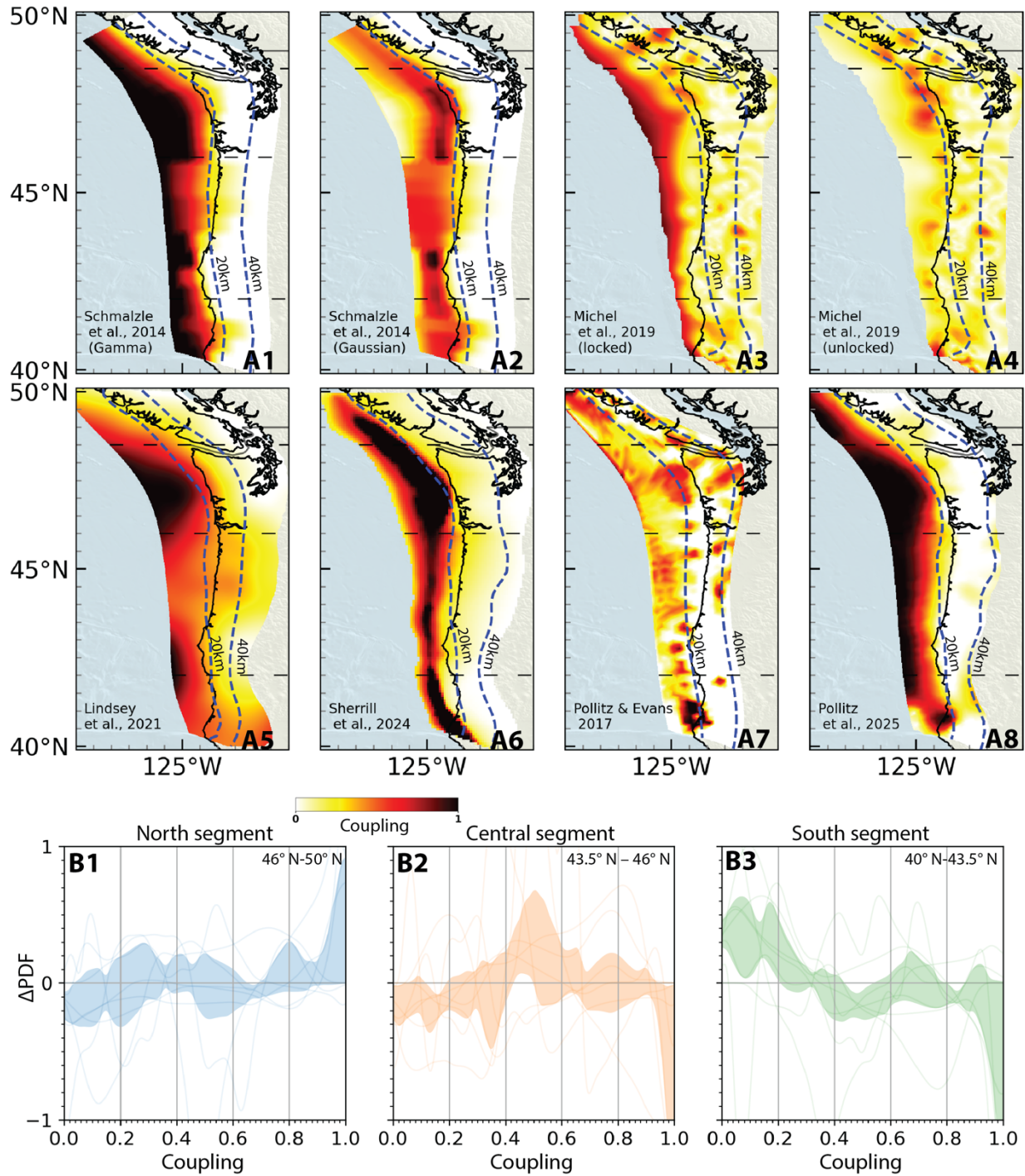
Figure 4. Example of the metadata interface in the Coupling Cloud platform. The metadata panel provides a detailed hierarchical summary of each coupling model, including DOIs, global attributes, per-variable attributes, observational constraints, forward-model settings, and inversion parameters. Shown here is the complete metadata for the Hikurangi coupling model of Michel et al. (2025), organized into its main components: the reference, observations, forward model, inversion, per-variable metadata, and download.



564

565 **Figure 5. Coupling Cloud backend performance benchmark showing response times for**
 566 **increasing levels of concurrent tile requests.** Points show the total time required to process
 567 3,000 HTTP tile requests under different CPU configurations and concurrency levels.

568



569
 570 **Figure 6. Cascadia case study.** A - Eight Cascadia wide interseismic coupling models with slab
 571 depth available on the CC platform (Lindsey et al., 2021; Michel et al., 2019; Pollitz & Evans, 2017;
 572 Pollitz, 2025; Schmalzle et al., 2014; Sherrill et al., 2024), shown for interface depths shallower
 573 than 60 km. Contours indicate the megathrust interface depth used in each model. Horizontal
 574 dashed lines mark segments. B - Thin curves show the deviation of each model's segment-specific

575 coupling probability density from that model's margin-wide probability density (Δ PDF). Positive
576 Δ PDF values indicate coupling values that are more frequent within a given segment than across
577 the margin. The shaded band denotes the 25th–75th percentile range of Δ PDF across the eight
578 models.

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645 Data and code availability

646 All coupling datasets are freely available to download from couplingcloud.ucsd.edu. The code to
647 run the coupling cloud can be found in Oryan, 2025 (<https://zenodo.org/records/17821569>).

648 Competing interests

649 All authors declare no competing interests.

650

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Supplementary Material for

The Coupling Cloud: A community database of megathrust kinematic coupling models

Text S1 - Interpolation to a uniform latitude-longitude grid

In cases where gridded outputs are not available in the original publication and only scattered data points defining coupling values are available, the coupling field is interpolated from these scattered geographic coordinates (latitude-longitude) onto a regular grid. The grid domain is defined by the minimum and maximum latitude and longitude coordinates of the available data points. To prevent extrapolation beyond the modeled region, interpolation is restricted to grid points located within an α -shape boundary (Edelsbrunner & Mücke, 1994) constructed from the original data points. The α parameter is chosen such that the boundary encloses all points while defining the smallest enclosing area (Fig. S1). Coupling values are then interpolated using linear interpolation, which was selected to minimize the introduction of artificial spatial structures that may arise from higher-order interpolation schemes.

The grid resolution is chosen to preserve the aspect ratio of the longitude-to-latitude extent of the data. The resolution is then determined adaptively by progressively refining the grid until the relative difference between two successive interpolated fields satisfies the following criterion:

$$\epsilon = \frac{\|C_{n+1} - C_n\|_2}{\|C_{n+1}\|_2} < 0.5\% \quad (1),$$

where C_n and C_{n+1} denote the interpolated coupling fields obtained at two successive grid resolutions, $\| \cdot \|_2$ denotes the L₂ norm over all grid points, and ϵ is set to $\epsilon = 0.5\%$. This ensures that the gridded representation has numerically converged while avoiding unnecessary oversampling (Fig. S1). In cases where coupling models are provided on triangular meshes, coupling values are instead interpolated onto grid points using triangular interpolation within the original mesh elements. In our tests, this procedure introduces differences of approximately ~1% in coupling (RMSE) between the gridded representation and the original mesh values.

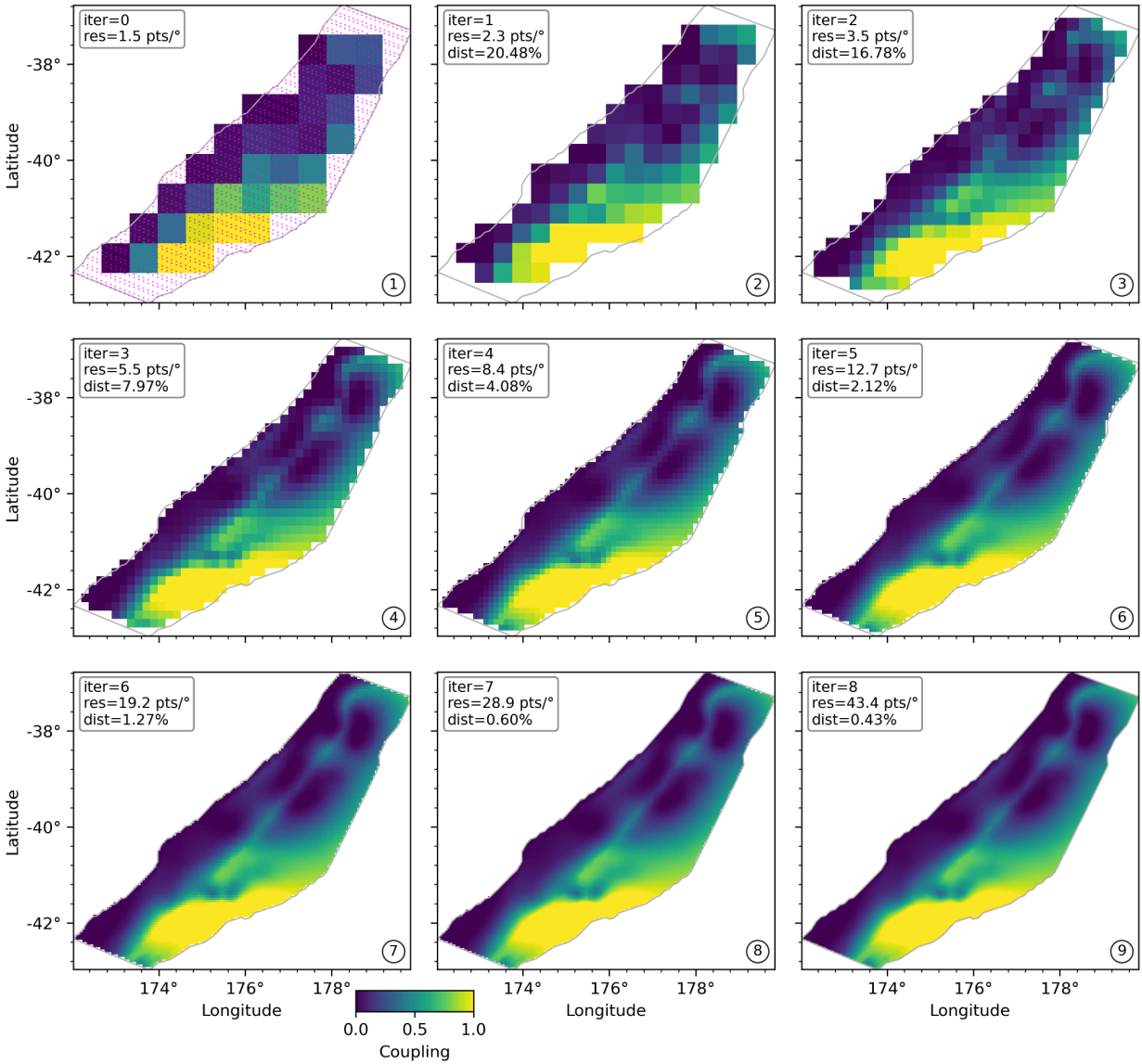


Figure S1 - Illustration of the adaptive grid-resolution procedure used to determine the spatial resolution of the interpolated coupling field in Hikurangi (Maubant et al., 2022). Each panel shows the interpolated coupling field for a given iteration together with the corresponding grid resolution (*grid_res*) and the relative difference between two successive interpolated fields (*dist*). The grey line surrounding the interpolated data points represents the α -shape boundary computed from the original data, which are shown as red points in panel 1.

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