Co-location of the downdip end of seismic locking and the continental shelf break

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Key Points:

- Shelf breaks at subduction margins lie above the seismic locking depth.
- Spatial patterns of interseismic deformation are reflected in long-term subduction margin uplift.
- The morphology of a subduction margin integrates deformation from hundreds of seismic cycles.

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Abstract

Along subduction margins, the morphology of the near shore domain records the combined action of erosion from ocean waves and permanent tectonic deformation from the convergence of plates. We observe that at subduction margins around the globe, the edge of continental shelves tends to be located above the downdip end of seismic coupling on the megathrust (locking depth). Coastlines lie farther landward at variable distances. This observation stems from a compilation of well-resolved coseismic and interseismic coupling datasets. The permanent interseismic uplift component of the total tectonic deformation can explain the localization of the shelf break. It contributes a short wavelength gradient in vertical deformation on top of the structural and isostatic deformation of the margin. This places a hinge line between seaward subsidence and landward uplift above the locking depth. Landward of the hinge line, rocks are uplifted in the domain of wave-base erosion and a shelf is maintained by the competition of rock uplift and wave erosion. Wave erosion then sets the coastline back from the tectonically meaningful shelf break. We combine a wave erosion model with an elastic deformation model to show how the locking depth pins the location of the shelf break. In areas where the shelf is wide, onshore geodetic constraints on seismic coupling is limited and could be advantageously complemented by considering the location of the shelf break. Subduction margin morphology integrates hundreds of seismic cycles and could inform seismic coupling stability through time.

1 Introduction

The area of a subduction interface that is frictionally locked between earthquakes controls the size of megathrust ruptures (Aki, 1967; Mai & Beroza, 2000). Strain accumulation from partial locking of the plate interface produces interseismic deformation at the surface, which can be inverted to determine the extent of the locked region on the fault, following the widely used back slip model (Savage, 1983). This procedure has been used for decades to produce maps of locking, also referred to as coupling, over subduction zones (e.g. Yoshioka et al., 1993; Sagiya, 1999; Mazzotti et al., 2000; Nishimura et al., 2004; Simoes et al., 2004; Chlieh et al., 2008; Metois et al., 2012). However, due to the short duration of geodetic measurements, these inversions typically reflect a fraction of the earthquake cycle, which could be contaminated by transient slip events (Dragert et al., 2001; Obara, 2002), postseismic deformation from previous large earthquakes (e.g.

Trubienko et al., 2013; Sun et al., 2018), or deformation unrelated to the megathrust (like postglacial rebound, James et al., 2009). Because the locked region is typically offshore, it may also be poorly constrained simply due to the concentration of geodetic measurements on land. This problem is compounded by wide continental shelves (Wang & Tréhu, 2016). Seafloor geodesy can overcome some of these problems, but remains uncommon (Bürgmann & Chadwell, 2014). Any progress toward better constraining the size of locked patches is an important goal for the seismotectonic community.

On land, tectonic geomorphology complements short duration geodetic and seismic records and provides a meaningful tectonic record that is often missing offshore (e.g. Valensise & Ward, 1991; Lavé & Avouac, 2001; Brooks et al., 2011). During the seismic cycle, crustal deformation is considered as almost entirely elastic and balanced by coseimic deformation. But over geological time scales, herein *long-term* ($> 10^5$ yrs), the small fraction of deformation that is anelastic and permanent would accumulate and contribute to mountain building (Avouac, 2003).

Among the little work that has linked submarine geomorphology and subduction zone deformation, Ruff and Tichelaar (1996) identified a correlation between the downdip end of subduction zone rupture and the position of the coastline. This correlation fits the Andean subduction particularly well, and Saillard et al. (2017) suggested that the distribution of anelastic interseismic deformation could explain it. However, the position of the coastline at active margins depends on several processes that are not tectonic in nature, the most important of which is the ever-varying sea level. The current location of the coastline is specific to a high-stand situation; at the last glacial maximum, $\sim$20 ka, global sea level was at a low-stand that was on average $\sim$125 m lower than present level (Spratt & Lisiecki, 2016). The world's coastlines were then all shifted seaward, e.g. $\sim$3–25 km along the Andes, $\sim$5–45 km along North Honshu, or $\sim$15–45 km along Cascadia, depending on the slope of the shelf (Ryan et al., 2009). Secondly, the coastline of an uplifting active margin is erosive in essence: its location depends on the competition between wave erosion and uplift (Bradley & Griggs, 1976; Anderson et al., 1999). In short, coastlines are weak candidates to inform about tectonic processes as their locations vary frequently due to non-tectonic factors. As a matter of fact, McNeill et al. (2000) and Booth-Rea et al. (2008) noted that, in Cascadia, the outer-arc high structure marking the edge of the continental shelf lies approximately above the downdip end of locking. The tectonic significance of active margin shelves thus merits to be investigated.

There is no unambiguous definition for *shelf* across geosciences communities. Here, we understand shelf in a geomorphological context, i.e., the submarine domain affected by wave-base erosion over cycles of low to high-stand, resulting in a more or less gentle platform no deeper than 200 m below modern sea level (Bouma et al., 1982). Contrary to passive margins where the shelf break is a stratigraphic edifice whose location reflects the volume of sediment shed from continents (Bouma et al., 1982), the shelf break of a subduction forearc is often pinned by tectonic deformation (Seely & Dickinson, 1977; McNeill et al., 2000; Booth-Rea et al., 2008). Compressional and extensional strain caused by partial locking between the overriding and downgoing plates are its primary drivers (Fuller et al., 2006; Wang & Hu, 2006; Cubas et al., 2013; Noda, 2016). In fact, the shelf break has been referred to as *outer arc high*, *structural high*, or *outer high* (Seely & Dickinson, 1977). The outer arc high is often set by a thrust (blind or not) and marks the upper limit of the continental slope, where rocks begin to experience wave base erosion (Seely & Dickinson, 1977; Anderson et al., 1999). Depending on its relative uplift rate, the outer-arc high is either the edge of an erosional platform or the seaward sill (sometimes buried) of a forearc basin (Noda, 2016). Whether in a narrow erosive zone (e.g. the Andean subduction zone), or a complex domain with multiple deforming basins trapped behind the outer-arc (e.g. Cascadia), the shelf break is a clear topographic feature that is easily identifiable at almost all active margins regardless of their structure (Seely & Dickinson, 1977; Noda, 2016). That said, we acknowledge exceptions such as in the Alaska and the Colombia-Ecuador subduction zones where the foresets of a depositional system mark the edge of the shelf (Bouma et al., 1982).

Since the compilation by Ruff and Tichelaar (1996), advances in geodetic inversions for interseismic coupling and coseismic ruptures have allowed renewed scrutiny of potential relationships between subduction zone locking and coastal morphology. In this article, we repeat the work of Ruff and Tichelaar (1996) with additional data; first with well-resolved coseismic ruptures and second with solutions for both interseismic coupling and the extent of large coseismic ruptures. We observe that the edge of the continental shelf is a better first-order predictor of the locking depth than the originally proposed coastline. To explore and illustrate the submarine geomorphic expression of the location of the locking depth, we then develop a model of wave erosion across a subduction margin where long-term vertical deformation is partly driven by the anelastic fraction of the interseismic deformation. We show that the location of the shelf break can constrain the extent of the locked region integrated over many earthquake cycles in subduction zones.

2 Apparent co-location of shelf break with the downdip end of seismic locking

2.1 Position of coseismic ruptures

The amount of data constraining the downdip end of seismic ruptures and interseismic coupling has increased in the two decades that followed the work of Ruff and Tichelaar (1996), and warrants a new look at potential relations between landscape and seismogenic patterns. Figure 1 shows the outline of solutions for the downdip end of interseismic coupling in Cascadia, and the downdip end of coseismic ruptures in Japan and Central America. At the three locations, the locking depth is broadly located below the shelf break. These sites have shelves of width varying from about 25 to 75 km (highlighted by the 200 m depth contour line).

The same co-location pattern can be observed in a global compilation of the regionally largest coseismic ruptures (Figure 2). This representation compares the respective distances between locking depth, shelf break, and coastline following and expanding on the earlier work of Ruff and Tichelaar (1996). To recover the position of the downdip end of coupling, we collected maps of large coseismic ruptures and interseismic coupling for the major subduction systems. The downdip end of the coupled (using $\sim$80% coupling as a threshold) and of the rupture patches were exported to Google Earth (*kml* file available in the supplementary material). In each subduction system, relative positions of the trench, the locking depth, the shelf break, and the coastline were measured along three to six profiles normal to the margin. Survey profiles were positioned to capture variability in relative positions of the locking and morphological markers. The shelf break is identified as the transition from the continental platform to the continental slope or, in the absence of clear features, pinned at $\sim$ 200 m depth. For the sites where the shelf break is set by a structural feature and not by stratigraphic foresets, we observe (Figure 2 inset) that the mean position of the shelf breaks lie 1.13 km seaward of the downdip ends of rupture ($10^{\text{th}}/90^{\text{th}}$ percentiles at -25.5/16 km), while the coastlines lie landward at an average distance of 29.2 km ($10^{\text{th}}/90^{\text{th}}$ percentiles at 1/54 km).

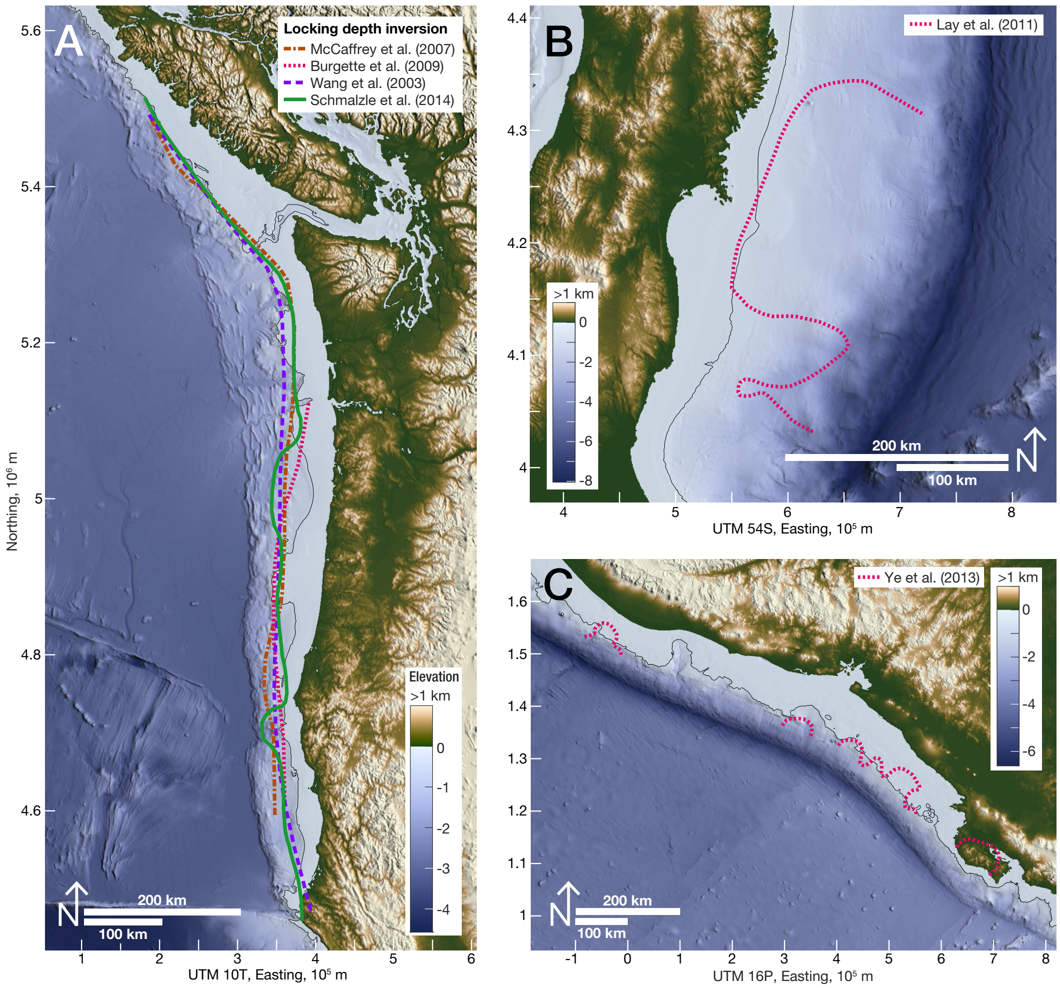

Figure 1. A: Solutions for the downdip end of interseismic coupling in Cascadia, derived from GPS (Wang et al., 2003; McCaffrey et al., 2007; Schmalzle et al., 2014) and road leveling and tide gauges measurements (Burgette et al., 2009). The locking depth is outlined for a value of ~80% locking. B: Rupture extent of the M_w9.1 Tōhoku-Oki earthquake (Lay et al., 2011). C: Rupture extent (at $\sim$ 0.5 m displacement) of four Central American $M_w > 7$ megathrust earthquakes (Ye et al., 2013). The downdip ends of coupling and ruptures follow the edge of the continental shelf and are removed from the coastline. The black contour indicates 200 m depth, a common approximation for the geomorphic shelf edge. Topographic data from Ryan et al. (2009); color map from Crameri (2018).

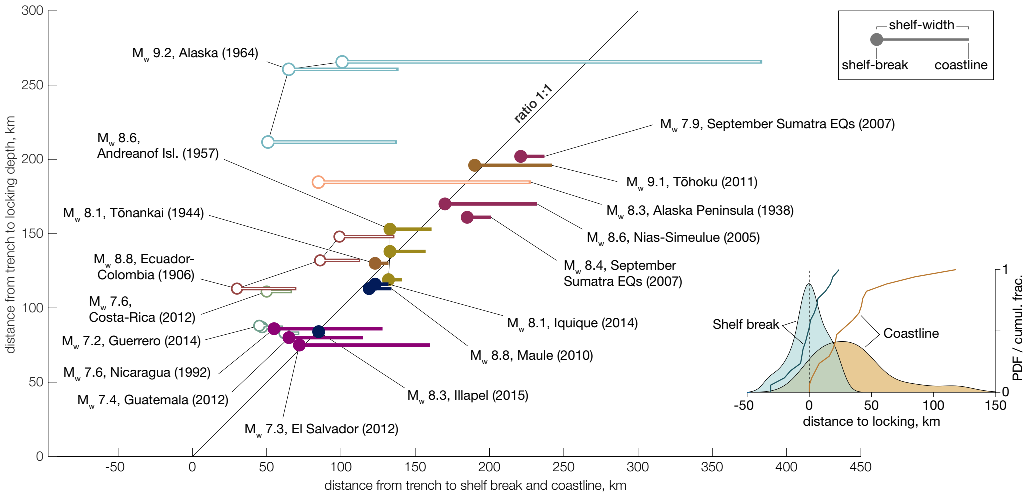

Figure 2. Position of the downdip edge of large megathrust earthquakes with respect to the local shelf break and coastline using the trench as origin (plot inspired by Ruff and Tichelaar (1996)). The inset kernel distribution shows the distance of shelf-edges and coastlines to the downdip edge of ruptures at sites marked with filled circles in the main plot (see text for rationale). Shelf breaks are tightly distributed around the locking depth at a mean distance of -1.13 km ($10^{\text{th}}/90^{\text{th}}$ percentiles at -25.5/16 km) while coastlines are removed and spread landward from it at a mean distance of 29.2 km ($10^{\text{th}}/90^{\text{th}}$ percentiles at 1/54 km). Sources are Sykes et al. (1981); Johnson (1998); Park et al. (2002); Cross and Freymueller (2007); Konca et al. (2008); Lay et al. (2011); Ye et al. (2013); Yue et al. (2014); Lay et al. (2014); Nocquet et al. (2014); Li et al. (2016).

2.2 Shelf break and locking depth from co- and interseismic surveys.

The compilation can be further expanded with the inclusion of solutions for interseismic locking that were developed with the advent of GPS monitoring (Larsen & Reilinger, 1992; Savage & Thatcher, 1992). A pattern similar to the co-location of shelf break and downdip end of rupture, albeit noisier, can be observed when interseismic locking is included (Figure 3). The resulting 48 data points are shown in Figure 3 A. This dataset includes all types of active margins, erosive shelf breaks but also depositional ones (sedimentary or volcanic, like Alaska or Kamchatka respectively); as well as different solutions for interseismic coupling at locations where it has been particularly difficult to constrain (Chilean Andes, Nankai, and North Honshu). In order to compare similar settings and locking patterns of high confidence, we further reduce the dataset to 21 sites by ignoring: interseismic constraints where good coseismic data is available (e.g. North Honshu); contradictory solutions for interseismic coupling (e.g. Chile); constructional shelf breaks set by the top of sedimentary foresets (Alaska, Ecuador-Colombia); or alternative solutions in sites where authors find equivalent patterns (Figure 3 B, details of the selection are in text S1 and Table S1 of the supplementary information). We also remove the Costa Rica subduction because of punctuated subduction erosion events that lead to transient changes in the accretionary prism geometry (Vannucchi et al., 2016). Finally, the Gorda subduction was also removed despite general overlap with Cascadia sites because of the amount of deformation accommodated by the very young oceanic crust itself as it subducts next to the Mendocino Triple Junction (Miller et al., 2001). The shelf breaks of the reduced set cluster around the locking depth with a mean distance of 4.7 km landward and 10^{th} and 90^{th} percentiles at -18 and 22 km. Coastlines, in contrast, are shifted landward with a mean distance of 43.1 km from the locking depth and 10^{th} and 90^{th} percentiles at 3.2 and 76.6 km (Figure 3 B, inset). A similar but less tight distribution is observed in the complete dataset (Figure 3 A, inset).

Despite the diversity in the structure and morphology of active margins (as documented in Noda, 2016), the edge of an erosive shelf is a markedly better predictor of the downdip end of locking than the coastline. Indeed, already recognizing that the coastline might not be a marker as reliable as they proposed, Ruff and Tichelaar (1996) noted that “continental shelf breaks [...] may have deeper physical significance [than the coastline]”. Additionally, in Cascadia, McNeill et al. (2000) identified that the outer arc high is co-located with the position of the locking depth on the megathrust and Booth-Rea et al. (2008) noted that the seaward edge of the seismogenic transition lines up with the shelf break. In the next section, we discuss which processes control the landscape of active margins and underlie the observed co-location of downdip end of locking and shelf break (Figure 2 and 3).

3 A model for active margin shelves

The edge of active margin shelves appears to be a reliable guide for the position of the downdip end of locking on a megathrust (Figure 2 and 3). If information about the coupling pattern of the megathrust is encoded in forearc morphology, it is crucial to A) identify all first-order drivers of long-term deformation in order to isolate the signal that is solely related to the subduction zone seismic cycle and B) understand how this tectonic signal is encoded in the landscape morphology by erosive surface processes. The surface elevation of the lithosphere z evolves as a function of the total rock uplift U_{total} and the surface erosion E:

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial t} = U_{\mathrm{total}} - E. \tag{1}$$

To explore the morphological evolution of an active margin following Eq. 1, we turn to a simplified numerical model. We illustrate how coastlines get disconnected from tectonic structures and evaluate how much of the long-term uplift signal is expressed in forearc bathymetry when subjected to surface and seafloor shaping processes.

3.1 Sources of active deformation in an active forearc

We summarize tectonic deformation at subduction margins as the sum of three main components: 1) structural deformation from the growth of the forearc, 2) isostatic response to denudation and sedimentation, and 3) long-term deformation driven by the earthquake cycle (Figure 4). Together, they set the total rock uplift:

$$U_{\mathrm{total}} = U_{\mathrm{struct}} + U_{\mathrm{iso}} + U_{\mathrm{seismo}}. \tag{2}$$

Numerical models of coastal landscape evolution commonly use spatially uniform uplift (Anderson et al., 1999; Snyder et al., 2002; Melnick, 2016), but here the non-uniform field of uplift is key to understanding the reaction of the landscape and the stabilization of the coastal domain. The relative magnitude of the three uplift components influences the co-location of the locking depth and shelf break. In the absence of a mechanical model,

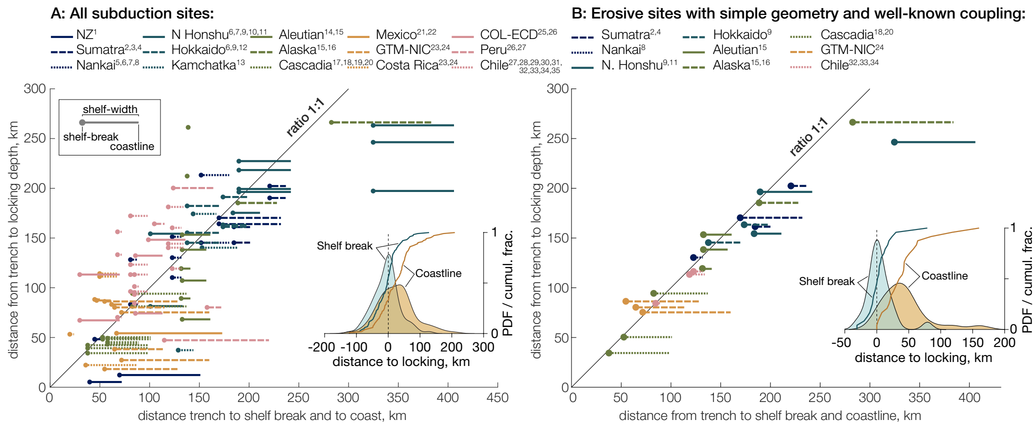

Figure 3. Position of the locking depth with respect to the shelf break and the coastline relative to the trench (inspired by Ruff and Tichelaar (1996)). Left: compilation of all surveyed sites (locations with multiple locking depth solutions are aligned vertically); right: compilation of sites with high confidence in locking depth position and erosive shelf breaks. The inset distributions show that shelf breaks are clustered around the locking depth while coastlines are shifted landward. For the indiscriminate compilation (left), the mean distance between shelf break and locking depth is -6.18 km ($10^{th}/90^{th}$ percentiles at -61.5/40 km), and 25.17 km between coastline and locking depth ($10^{th}/90^{th}$ percentiles of -43/93 km). For the high-confidence sites (right), the shelf breaks are tightly distributed at a mean distance of 4.7 km from the locking depth ($10^{th}/90^{th}$ percentiles at -18/22 km) while coastlines are shifted and spread landward from it at a mean distance of 43.1 km ($10^{th}/90^{th}$ percentiles at 3.2/76.6 km). Sources are 1: Wallace (2004), 2: Natawidjaja et al. (2007), 3: Chlieh et al. (2008), 4: Briggs et al. (2006), 5: Hyndman et al. (1995), 6: Mazzotti et al. (2000), 7: Loveless and Meade (2010), 8: Park et al. (2002), 9: Hashimoto et al. (2009), 10: Simons et al. (2011), 11: Lay et al. (2011), 12: Sawai et al. (2004), 13: Bürgmann (2005), 14: Cross and Freymueller (2007), 15: Johnson (1998), 16: Sykes et al. (1981), 17: Wang et al. (2003), 18: Burgette et al. (2009), 19: McCaffrey et al. (2007), 20: Schmalzle et al. (2014), 21: Radiguet et al. (2012), 22: Franco et al. (2012), 23: LaFemina et al. (2009), 24: Ye et al. (2013), 25: Kanamori and McNally (1982), 26: Nocquet et al. (2014), 27: Chlieh et al. (2011), 28: Metois et al. (2012), 29: Metois et al. (2013), 30: Metois et al. (2016), 31: Béjar-Pizarro et al. (2013), 32: Lay et al. (2014), 33: Yue et al. (2014), 34: (Li et al., 2016), 35: (Saillard et al., 2017).

we use arbitrary uplift profiles for structural and isostatic deformation, while the long-term seismic deformation is obtained from a back slip model.

3.1.1 Structural deformation from the growth of the forearc.

Noda (2016) proposed a classification of forearcs that is particularly relevant for patterns of surface uplift or subsidence, U_{struct}, in the context of this study. Their structures can be organized along two axes: from extensional to compressional and from erosional to accretionary (with respect to mass fluxes across the subduction channel, not surface processes, Clift & Vannucchi, 2004). Most forearc systems are either extensional and erosional *or* compressional and accretionary (Noda, 2016). The former are thinning and subsiding and tend to develop deep forearc basins whereas the latter are thickening and uplifting and have smaller basins or widespread surface erosion (Noda, 2016).

The structural uplift field that represents deformation of the forearc under extension or compression is drawn arbitrarily to represent the two end-member configurations under shortening (Figure 4 A) or extension (Figure 4 B). The structural deformation also serves to stabilize the continental slope, representing thrusting in the accretionary wedge.

3.1.2 Isostatic response to denudation and sedimentation.

Another important component of rock uplift is the isostatic response U_{iso} to surface loading or unloading (e.g. Braun et al., 2014). Coastal ranges are eroding and rock uplift should dominate landward while the offshore domain can be either erosive or aggradational depending on the forearc type, which leads to either uplift or subsidence.

The isostatic response to denudation and sedimentation is modeled as an arbitrary exponentially decaying uplift rate reaching zero at the trench in the case of solely positive rock uplift driven by denudation (Figure 4 A); to which a locus of subsidence centred around the forearc basin is added in the extensional case (Figure 4 B).

3.1.3 Long-term deformation driven by the earthquake cycle.

Although standard models of subduction seismic cycles assume elastic interseismic and coseismic deformation that perfectly balance each other (Savage, 1983), it is highly plausible that repeated cycles of deformation lead to some fraction of non-recoverable strain (e.g. King et al., 1988; Simpson, 2015). Permanent deformation can occur whenever stresses reach the plastic envelope of the upper plate forearc. This can occur dynamically at shallow depth during large seismic ruptures (e.g. Ma, 2012), or quasi-statically near the base of the locked zone during interseismic loading (e.g. Vergne et al., 2001). The associated anelastic deformation mechanisms could include various processes of brittle rock fatigue, pressure-solution creep, or slip on pre-existing faults (Ashby & Sammis, 1990; Niemeijer & Spiers, 2002; Paterson & Wong, 2005; Brantut et al., 2013). In this framework, the net sum of each coseismic and interseismic deformation represents an increment of permanent deformation, which, integrated over many cycles, shapes a specific pattern of long-term uplift and subsidence U_{seismo} of the forearc.

Lacking detailed observational or physical constraints on the exact shape of permanent uplift and its relation to interseismic deformation, we postulate that the non-recoverable uplift that builds up over many seismic cycles represents a fraction of the vertical elastic displacement associated with the interseismic phase. This simplifying assumption allows us to model the shape of permanent uplift with the standard back slip approach (Savage, 1983; Kanda & Simons, 2010). Long-term interseismic rock uplift rates is computed with a back slip model (Savage, 1983) using half-space elastic Green's functions (Okada, 1992) and assuming a fully locked region updip of the locking depth and a transition zone downdip of it (see Bruhat & Segall, 2016, for details). The back slip model assumes that surface deformation is due to elastic strain accumulation on and around the plate interface and that it is equivalent to normal slip in the locked region. We compute the distribution of interseismic surface uplift rates at an elevation of 0 m. Following estimates by Le Pichon et al. (1998) and van Dinther et al. (2013), we use a fraction (5%) of that deformation profile as a long-term field of uplift (Figure 5 A). It should be noted that without quantitative constraints on erosional efficiency, the absolute value of the uplift matters little while its spatial pattern is essential. The uplift hinge line predicted by the back slip model is generally located within 5 km of the locking depth but can be displaced seaward with a gently dipping ($< 10°$) slab and in the absence of a transitional zone of partial locking (supplementary Figure S1).

3.2 Sources of erosion

The morphology of active margins is primarily controlled by the competition between 1) uplift, 2) erosion, and 3) sediment aggradation and transport (Bradley & Griggs,

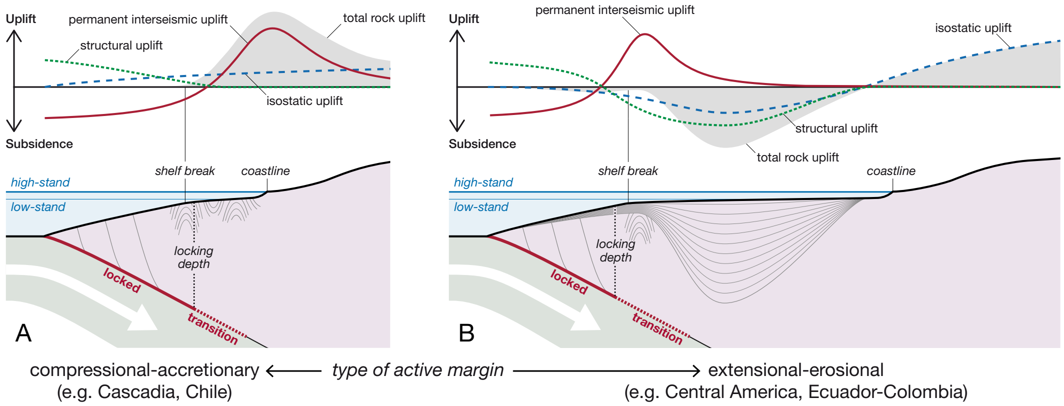

Figure 4. Conceptual model linking the morphology of active margins with the pattern of seismic locking on the megathrust. A: compressional-accretionary forearc end-member (sensu Noda, 2016) . The combined patterns of permanent interseismic, isostatic, and structural uplift set the edge of the erosive shelf, landward of which rock uplift exposes bedrock to wave-base erosion (top). The shelf break lies close to the location of the downdip edge of locking, pinned by the locally strong gradient in interseismic uplift. The shelf grows landward from the edge by coastal retreat (bottom). B: Extensional-erosional end-member (erosion refers to subduction erosion here). Here, subsidence of the wedge overcomes permanent interseismic uplift (top) and the outer arc high acts as a sill for the forearc basin (bottom).

1976; Bouma et al., 1982; Anderson et al., 1999). We ignore subaerial erosion and sedimentation processes to focus on wave-base erosion. We adopt the phenomenological model of Anderson et al. (1999), which expends ocean wave energy on the shallow seafloor for wave-base erosion, leaving the remainder (if any) for sea-cliff erosion. First, offshore wave energy P_0 is expended and transformed into vertical erosion ($\partial z/\partial t$) depending on water depth h as the waves move closer to the shore:

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial t} = \beta_z \, P_0 \exp\left(-\frac{4h}{h_{wb}}\right), \tag{3}$$

where β_z is an incision coefficient and h_{wb} is the depth of wave base. The remainder of the offshore energy is then transformed into a rate of cliff retreat $\partial x/\partial t$:

$$\frac{\partial x}{\partial t} = \beta_x \left[P_0 - \int_{shelf} P_0 \exp\left(-\frac{4h}{h_{wb}}\right) dx\right]. \tag{4}$$

The erosion component is driven by the sea level curve of Spratt and Lisiecki (2016) looped over 2 Myr for a naturally noisy eustatic signal. Wave energy is assumed constant through time. This is the best available code to investigate the first-order morphodynamics controlling eroding margins and it produces realistic looking topography. However, it can not be used to quantitatively invert a topographic profile and reconstruct either a history of uplift or sea-level as the two key coefficients β_x and β_z cannot be calibrated with more precision than a visual fit with non-unique parametrization allows.

3.3 Results

The transition from subsidence (seaward) to uplift (landward), hereafter referred to as hinge line, acts as an anchor point for seafloor topography, which constantly evolves in response to wave base erosion. As illustrated below, the localization of this hinge-line above or near the locking depth would result from the permanent, interseismic-like component of total rock uplift (Figure 5).

The effect of a localized peak of uplift driven by interseismic deformation is critical in all types of forearc geometries (see Noda, 2016). For the compressional-accretionary end-member (Figure 4 A) the associated uplift peak marks the beginning of the domain where rocks are advected into the zone of wave-base erosion (and subaerial erosion landward of the coast). For the extensional-erosional end-member, the interseismic uplift peak may not overcome structural and isostatic subsidence driven by extension and sedimentation but the peak can create a sill for the forearc basin by reducing subsidence locally

(Figure 4 B). In both cases, the resulting structure would be compatible with the outer arc-high (Seely & Dickinson, 1977; McNeill et al., 2000; Booth-Rea et al., 2008) and it would anchor a continental shelf that can grow landward by coastal erosion. The Matlab source code of the model is available in the supplementary material with a list of parameters to reproduce the simulations presented here along with three videos of the runs shown in Figure 5.

Wide erosive shelves

The morphology of wide, largely erosive, shelves of the Cascadia margin type (Figure 1) is characterized by a shelf break (outer arc high) above the locking depth and a wide platform beveled by wave base erosion that displaced the coast landward (Figure 5 A). When wave energy is strong enough, and/or rock strength or uplift rate weak enough, the shelf can extend well beyond the peak of interseismic uplift. In this situation, the interseismic deformation signal recorded by onshore geodetic stations or surveys would reflect increasing interseismic uplift rates shoreward, as is the case in Cascadia (Burgette et al., 2009). Notably, landward of the uplift maximum, the erosion potential of wave energy enables an increasingly larger footprint as waves face slower uplift rates.

Wide subsiding shelves

In extensional-erosional active margins (subduction erosion) of the type found in Central America (Figure 1, Noda, 2016), the coastline is further removed from the shelf break by a subsiding basin. The model run of Figure 5 B illustrates this situation. For the incoming high-stand waves, the subsiding domain would have a relatively small energy cost limited to the transport of sediment on the shelf and wave-energy can be conserved over a large distance to erode the coast farther. The magnitude of interseismic deformation signals that could be picked up by onshore geodetic monuments is accordingly severely reduced. Note that we are not modeling sedimentary dynamics here and that there is no energy expenditure at all over the subsiding basin.

Narrow erosive shelves

Narrow shelves, like those found in Northern Chile, can principally result from two characteristics: a strong lithology preventing the erosion of a wide platform, or fast uplift rates feeding a large volume of rock in the wave-base erosion domain. As long as long-term interseismic deformation dominates the uplift pattern, the co-location of shelf break and locking depth should be preserved and the coastline would be closely aligned. In contrast, if the uplift pattern is dominated by non-interseismic factors, the co-location is lost. As illustrated in Figure 5 C, if a strong isostatic uplift rate dominates, the shelf break is shifted seaward significantly.

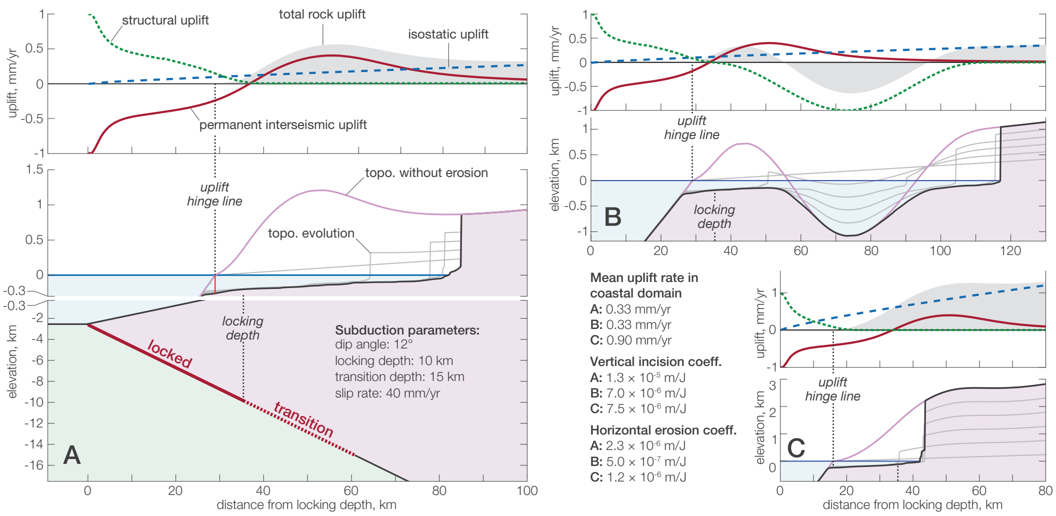

Figure 5. Numerical model illustrating the relationship between coastal morphology and subduction locking patters. Wave-base and cliff erosion following Anderson et al. (1999) are the only surface processes (no sedimentation, no subaerial erosion). Interseismic deformation is derived from the back slip model (adapted from Savage, 1983; Okada, 1992) of a locked fault. A: reference case with a wide shelf reflecting local uplift rates dominated by interseismic signature and relatively high rock erodibility. The vertical scale is exaggerated from -300 to 1000 m. B: subsidence of a forearc basin further separates outer arc high and coast. C: uplift rate is dominated by continental isostatic uplift and relatively low rock erodibility. In this case, the uplift hinge-line is significantly offset from the position of the locking depth by the fast continental uplift. All models are run with the same subduction parameters and offshore wave energy. Videos for each of these runs are available in the supplementary material.

4 Perspectives and conclusion

4.1 Source of variability and commonalities in the compilation

Unlike the structural and isostatic components of uplift, the permanent seismic cycle component varies at short wavelength and is similar across subduction zones. It provides a straightforward connection between seismic cycle deformation and the morphology of the coastal domain. It is therefore a plausible candidate to explain the co-location of the locking depth and the shelf break. Further investigating this idea will first require a mechanistic model for the spatial pattern of long-term permanent uplift. Interestingly, a growing body of observations suggests that it should resemble elastic deformation associated with the interseismic phase of the seismic cycle. For example, Allmendinger et al. (2009) noted that "at a regional scale within continents, interseismic deformation is mostly nearly similar to regional late Cenozoic tectonic deformation". Work from Loveless and Allmendiger (2005) showed that the extensional strain field predicted by elastic interseismic deformation co-locates with regions of normal faulting in the Coastal Cordillera of Chile. Stevens and Avouac (2015) noted that the uplift pattern predicted by coupling on the Main Himalayan Thrust mimics the topography of the mountain range. Coastal uplift above subduction zones has also been partly attributed to interseismic deformation based on the pattern of deformed terraces in Cascadia (Kelsey & Bockheim, 1994; Personius, 1995), on the co-location of peninsulas and shallow locking depth in the Andes (Saillard et al., 2017), and on the growth of the Japanese coastal mountains (Yoshikawa, 1968; Yoshikawa et al., 1981; Le Pichon et al., 1998).

The deformation derived from permanent interseismic deformation can be reasonably expected to be largely similar from one locked megathrust to another, as subduction earthquake cycles share many similarities. By contrast, the pattern of isostatic uplift or subsidence is expected to vary according to the regimes of denudation and deposition but to retain an overall similarity with more uplift landward and less (or more negative) uplift seaward. In this framework, the large structural and morphological diversity of forearc basins mainly stems from the forearc deformation set by its mass balance (erosional vs. accretionary, Noda, 2016).

The scatter around the position of the locking depth in Figure 2 and 3 may result from a combination of factors, chiefly among them uncertainties in the inversion of interseismic coupling and coseismic ruptures, and differences between the pattern of anelastic versus elastic interseismic deformation. The relative magnitudes of the three uplift components can alter the relationship between locking depth and shelf break. This is illustrated by the model run of Figure 5 C where isostatic deformation dominates the total uplift.

4.2 Critical taper and other modes of deformation

Critical taper theory (Dahlen, 1984) is essential to explain the full deformation pattern of active margins (here named *structural uplift*). It could also provide an alternative explanation for the pattern of deformation that we ascribe to permanent interseismic deformation. The deformation pattern of a critical wedge changes in response to variations in basal friction such that a vertical shear zone marking the onset of landward uplift could localize above the locking depth (Fuller et al., 2006; Cubas et al., 2013). However, for this hinge line to develop, the wedge has to be critical, which is a condition only met in parts of a few subduction zones (Cubas et al., 2013; Rousset et al., 2016; Koulali et al., 2018). Given the limited occurrence of critically tapered subduction zones globally, we find that anelastic interseismic deformation provides a more plausible explanation for the global signal of locking depths revealed by coastal geomorphology (Figure 3). Nevertheless, if the outer-arc high uplift is not caused by permanent interseismic deformation as we argue here, it is likely that its connection to the regime of coupling on the megathrust could be elucidated by looking at patterns of internal deformation of critical wedges.

Rare deep earthquakes in the partially locked zone C *sensu* Lay et al. (2012), i.e. deeper than the locking depth, have been proposed to drive coastal uplift in the Central Andes by Melnick (2016). In this hypothesis, the coseismic uplift of earthquakes in the shallower locked zones A and B would be compensated by subsidence during the post- and interseismic periods, unlike their rarer and deeper zone C counterparts. It is unclear why this deep coseismic component alone is not compensated and why it would be the driver of permanent seismogenic deformation at subduction margins while much greater seismogenic slip occurs on fully locked zones A and B (Lay et al., 2012).

Our modeling focuses on the interaction between uplift and wave-base erosion that shapes the continental shelf. We do not address the subsiding parts of the margin. However, observations of deformation and sedimentation in zones of interseismic subsidence support our assumption and complements our work on the erosive part of the system. The locked domain of megathrusts has been observed to be often overlain by large forearc basins on deep sea terraces seaward of the shelf (Sugiyama, 1994; Song & Simons, 2003; Wells et al., 2003). These deep subsiding forearc basins have been attributed to subduction erosion (Wells et al., 2003), and to critical taper deformation of the inner wedge (Fuller et al., 2006; Wang & Hu, 2006; Cubas et al., 2013). If these forearc basins are indeed the depositional counterparts of erosive shelves and are driven by long-term interseismic deformation, then their stratigraphy could inform the temporal stability of the locking pattern in a manner that erosion on the shelf cannot.

4.3 A bridge between seismic and landscape timescales

Geodetic measurements of interseismic coupling or coseismic ruptures reflect at most a few centuries of geological history. Meanwhile, the landscape records the effect of tectonics and surface processes over hundreds to thousands of individual seismic cycles spanning 100's of kyrs (e.g. Valensise & Ward, 1991; Willett et al., 1993; Lavé & Avouac, 2001; Avouac, 2003). Hence, if the position of the locking depth is stable — as expected from a fault with a characteristic earthquake cycle, where the region locked during the interseismic period exactly delimits the extent of future earthquakes — the same domains are in net rock subsidence or rock uplift 100% of the time and the shelf break should be a sharp morphological marker (like in Cascadia potentially, Figure 6).

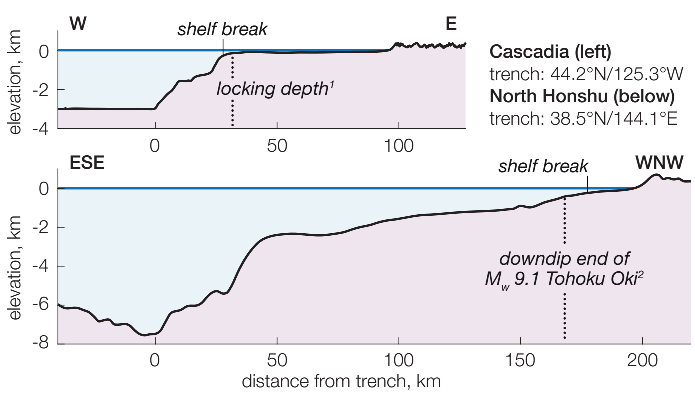

Figure 6. Profiles across the Cascadia and North Honshu margins. In Cascadia, the shelf break is a sharp and salient feature while in North Honshu the shelf break is lost in the upper continental slope. Both figures share the same scale. 1: Burgette et al. (2009); 2: Lay et al. (2011)

While the assumption of a characteristic earthquake cycle is common, interseismic coupling might also plausibly vary over several seismic cycles, leading to a more poorly defined shelf break (such as observed in Japan, Figure 6) because the transition from subsiding all of the time to uplifting all of the time would not be well defined spatially . Additionally, within the interseismic period itself, there is increasing evidence that coupling distribution could be time-dependent. The downdip end of coupling could migrate updip during the interseismic period, resulting in variable degrees of possible mismatch between coseismic reconstructions and current interseismic measurements (Thatcher, 1984; Schmalzle et al., 2014; Nishimura, 2014; Jiang & Lapusta, 2016; Wang & Tréhu, 2016; Bruhat & Segall, 2017).

Beyond temporal variations, the pattern of long-term uplift depends as much on the spatial distribution of interseismic deformation as on that of coseismic displacement. Coseismic deformation can also locally overcome interseismic deformation as in Sumatra (Sieh et al., 2008; Philibosian et al., 2014), or their respective spatial distributions could differ Penserini et al. (2017). The model proposed here opens the exploration of long-term stability or transience of interseismic locking patterns.

4.4 Conclusion

We observe that the edge of a subduction margin shelf is a markedly better indicator of the downdip end of locking on the megathrust than the coastline. We propose that this co-location directly results from the pattern of permanent interseismic deformation that drives a relative peak in uplift rate just landward of the downdip edge of locking. We show that a model combining permanent interseismic deformation with wave-base erosion reproduces the first order alignment of shelf breaks above the seismic locking depths of subduction megathrusts, as observed in a global survey. We present a first-order relationship between active margin morphology and seismogenic patterns at depth. This proposition calls for future validation in the form of mechanical modeling and field observations. The morphological expression of the seismogenic characteristics of a megathrust is particularly valuable where shelves are wide and onshore geodetic surveys accordingly limited. The submarine landscape of an active margin integrates repeated seismic cycles and bridges seismic timescales (100's of yrs) with those of landscape building (100's of kyrs). As a result, the stability or transience of seismic coupling would be recorded in the morphology of the shelf break itself.

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Supporting Information for "Co-location of the downdip end of seismic locking and the continental shelf break"

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Contents of this file

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1. Text S1

2. Text S2

3. Figures S1

4. Table S1

5. Table S2

Additional Supporting Information (Files uploaded separately)

1. Description of *kml* file

2. Description for the three videos

Text S1: Selection criteria for the compilation

We established selection criteria to use only the most reliable locking depth solutions in out global dataset. They are detailed below and supplementary Table S1 details which 21 inversions out of 48 total were selected.

Seismic ruptures need to be large enough to outline the downdip end of coupling ($\sim M_w$ larger than 7, Lay et al., 2012). We ignore large seismic ruptures from historical catalogues that are only vaguely outlined and instead rely on ruptures that were heavily instrumented (Yue et al., 2014).

At sites where no large earthquake was recorded, coupling is determined based on interseismic deformation recorded by GNSS stations (located almost entirely onshore). In cases of well resolved co- and interseismic solutions, inversions from coseismic ruptures were selected over interseismic inversions. We select interseismic locking depth solutions if models can demonstrably resolve coupling offshore and if an agreement exists between different studies. Spatial resolution is mostly determined by the density and spatial distribution of geodetic measurements, and their associated uncertainties (Wang & Tréhu, 2016). Uncertainties over the locking depth estimate increase for wider continental shelves due larger separation between onshore stations and the locked region (e.g. LaFemina et al., 2009; Franco et al., 2012, in Central America). For lack of a simple selection criterion, we ignore locations where locking depth solutions derived from similar datasets by different authors vary greatly.

Four subduction zones are excluded from the reduced compilation because their geometry or coastal processes do not follow our conceptual model. The northern Kuril subduction, under Kamtchatka, dips steeply, placing arc volcanism so close to the trench that the margin is aggradational as volcanoes encroach on the sea (Bürgmann, 2005). The Gorda micro-plate in the southern Cascadia subduction zone is a very young oceanic plate (∼3Ma, Stock & Lee, 2010) whose slab deforms heavily under the active margin and the long-term interseismic deformation is likely to vary on a much faster timescale than that of the establishment of the submarine landscape. At the junction between Central and South America, vertical motion above the Costa Rica subduction zone is controlled by episodic forcings that reflect the subduction of structural and geological complexities (Edwards et al., 2018). Finally, the Colombian coastline is aggradational, as it appears that the sediment flux reaching the coast suffices to overcome coastal erosion and build land.

Text S2: Numerical modelling The numerical model used to illustrate the colocation of shelf break and locking depth while the coastline migrates landward is based on the work by Savage (1983) and Okada (1992) as implemented by Bruhat and Segall (2016) for interseismic deformation. A version of the Matlab code used for this manuscript is available online as supplementary material. The parameters used to produce figures 5 A, B , and C are listed in Table S2. for coastal erosion and of

Data Set S1: Description of *kml* file

The *kml* file attached to this contribution contains the traces of all locking depths imported from the literature (see Table SS1) and shelf break outlines as well as the positions of the profiles used to build Figure 4 and Figure S??.

Data Set S2: Description of MATLAB file file

The MATLAB code attached to this contribution was used to produce the model runs of Figure 5 A, B, and C with the parameters listed in Table S2.

Movie S1:

The three videos attached to this contribution show the model runs of Figure 5 A and with parameters listed in Table S2. The exact same simulations can be obtained with the MATLAB code attached.

Movie S2:

The three videos attached to this contribution show the model runs of Figure 5 B and with parameters listed in Table S2. The exact same simulations can be obtained with the MATLAB code attached.

Movie S3:

The three videos attached to this contribution show the model runs of Figure 5 C and with parameters listed in Table S2. The exact same simulations can be obtained with the MATLAB code attached.

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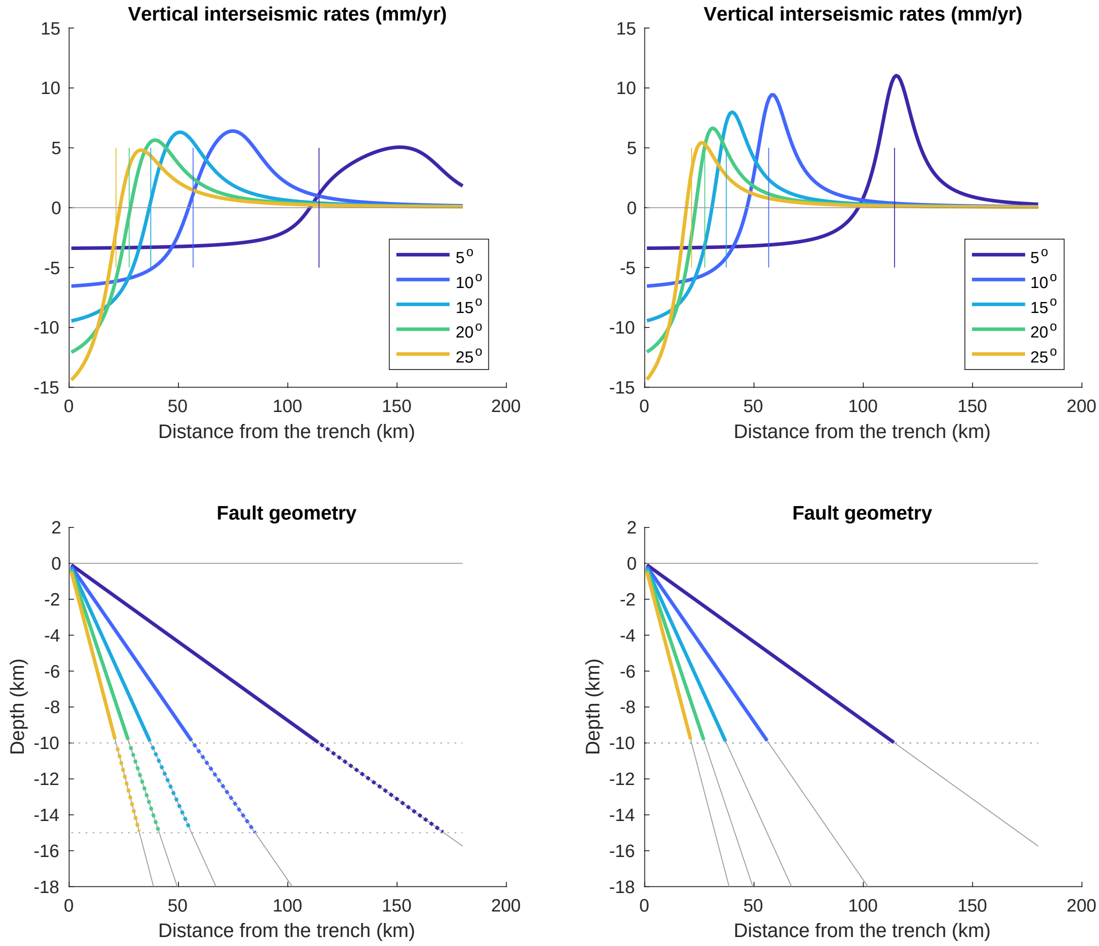

Figure S1. Left: relationship between the uplift hinge line and the locking depth for a fault with transitional locking (from 10 to 15 km) at varying dip angles. Right: same as left but without transitional locking. The uplift hinge line is most removed from the position of the locking depth for gently sloping faults without transitional locking. A zone of transitional locking is however expected in most if not all locations.

Table S1: continued from previous page.

Subduction		Dist. trench to... [km]					
transect	Lat./Lon.	shelf	coast	locking	Method	Reference	Selection

Table S1: List of measurements on profiles across subduction zones. The latitude/longitude coordinates indicate the intersection between profile and subduction trench (or deformation front). The Method column reflects if locking depth is identified from inversion of GPS or leveling (LVL) data, from slab isotherms (isoT), or from the inversion of coseismic ruptures (EQ). The selection columns reflects whether the solution was selected for Figure 4 of the main text along side a rationale for the choice: *creep*, the fault is creeping; *co>inter*: coseismic solutions are favored over interseismic ones (also used for all profiles of subductions where one resolved coseismic rupture contradicts an interseismic solution); *isoT*, solutions based on isotherm estimates are ignored; *default*, best solution and others are ignored; *volc. coast*, the coast is not erosional but built up by volcanoes; *island*, the coastline is offset from the continent by an island; *tecto.*, local tectonics deviate strongly from a standard subduction geometry (due to strike-slip components, slab age or dip angle); *equiv.*, one solution is picked among equivalent ones; *resolut.*, the resolution of the inversion is too low; *deposit.*, the coast is not erosional but built up by sediments; *contrad.*, different solutions contradict each other.

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Table S1: continued from previous page.

Subduction		**Dist. trench to... [km]**					
transect	**Lat./Lon.**	**shelf**	**coast**	**locking**	**Method**	**Reference**	**Selection**
Hikurangi 2	-39.80/178.63	70	151	12	GPS	Wallace (2004)	No (creep)
Hikurangi 3	-38.51/179.11	40	72	5	GPS	Wallace (2004)	No (creep)
Sumatra 1	-4.28/100.18	170	232	164	GPS	Chlieh, Avouac, Sieh, Natawidjaja, and Galetzka (2008)	No (co>inter)
”	”	”	”	170	EQ	Natawidjaja et al. (2007)	Yes (co>inter)
Sumatra 2	-2.42/98.65	221	237	190	GPS	Chlieh et al. (2008)	No (co>inter)
”	”	”	”	202	EQ	Natawidjaja et al. (2007)	Yes (co>inter)
Sumatra 3	0.76/96.81	185	201	145	GPS	Chlieh et al. (2008)	No (co>inter)
”	”	”	”	213	EQ	Briggs et al. (2006)	Yes (co>inter)
Nankai 1	32.03/134.37	152	180	145	isoT	Hyndman, Wang, and Yamano (1995)	No (isoT)
”	”	”	”	213	GPS	Loveless and Meade (2010)	No (co>inter)
Nankai 2	32.74/136.10	81	88	83	isoT	Hyndman et al. (1995)	No (isoT)
”	”	”	”	128	GPS	Loveless and Meade (2010)	No (co>inter)
Nankai 3	33.18/137.22	123	132	110	isoT	Hyndman et al. (1995)	No (isoT)
”	”	”	”	151	GPS	Loveless and Meade (2010)	No (co>inter)
”	”	”	”	130	EQ	Park, Tsuru, Kodaira, Cummins, and Kaneda (2002)	Yes (co>inter)

Table S1: continued from previous page.

Subduction transect	Lat./Lon.	Dist. trench to... [km] shelf	coast	locking	Method	Reference	Selection
N. Honshu 1	35.24/142.22	101	133	154	isoT	Hyndman et al. (1995)	No (isoT)
”	”	”	”	81	GPS	Loveless and Meade (2010)	No (co>inter)
N. Honshu 2	37.34/143.72	190	242	199	isoT	Hyndman et al. (1995)	No (co>inter)
”	”	”	”	218	GPS	Loveless and Meade (2010)	No (co>inter)
”	”	”	”	227	GPS	Hashimoto, Noda, Sagiya, and Matsu'ura (2009)	No (co>inter)
”	”	”	”	196	EQ	Lay, Ammon, Kanamori, Xue, and Kim (2011)	Yes (co>inter)
N. Honshu 3	39.96/144.33	184	211	175	isoT	Hyndman et al. (1995)	No (isoT)
”	”	”	”	154	GPS	Hashimoto et al. (2009)	Yes (default)
N. Honshu 4	40.61/144.53	325	406	197	isoT	Hyndman et al. (1995)	No (isoT)
”	”	”	”	263	GPS	Loveless and Meade (2010)	No (co>inter)
”	”	”	”	246	GPS	Hashimoto et al. (2009)	Yes (default)
Hokkaido 1	41.30/145.14	174	198	161	isoT	Hyndman et al. (1995)	No (isoT)
”	”	”	”	191	GPS	Loveless and Meade (2010)	No (co>inter)
”	”	”	”	186	GPS	Hashimoto et al. (2009)	Yes (default)
Hokkaido 2	41.88/146.43	138	171	155	isoT	Hyndman et al. (1995)	No (isoT)
”	”	”	”	182	GPS	Loveless and Meade (2010)	No (co>inter)

Table S1: continued from previous page.

Subduction		Dist. trench to... [km]					
transect	Lat./Lon.	shelf	coast	locking	Method	Reference	Selection
”	”	”	”	172	GPS	Hashimoto et al. (2009)	Yes (default)
Kamchatka 1	51.12/160.26	144	167	174	GPS	Bürgmann (2005)	No (volc. coast)
Kamchatka 2	53.36/162.62	153	188	140	GPS	Bürgmann (2005)	No (volc. coast)
Kamchatka 3	54.87/163.68	129	144	37	GPS	Bürgmann (2005)	No (volc. coast)
Aleutian 1	50.39/177.95	132	141	89	GPS	Cross and Freymueller (2007)	No (co>inter)
”	”	”	”	119	EQ	Johnson et al. (1994)	Yes (co>inter)
Aleutian 2	50.56/-175.43	133	157	107	GPS	Cross and Freymueller (2007)	No (co>inter)
”	”	”	”	138	EQ	Johnson et al. (1994)	Yes (co>inter)
Aleutian 3	50.72/-173.64	133	161	68	GPS	Cross and Freymueller (2007)	No (co>inter)
”	”	”	”	153	EQ	Johnson et al. (1994)	Yes (co>inter)
Alaska 1	54.28/-156.82	189	228	185	EQ	Johnson (1998)	Yes (default)
Alaska 2	56.18/-151.56	138	138	212	EQ	Sykes, Kisslinger, House, Davies, and Jacob (1981)	No (island)
Alaska 3	57.25/-148.56	283	384	266	EQ	Sykes et al. (1981)	Yes (default)
Alaska 4	58.83/-146.18	139	139	261	EQ	Sykes et al. (1981)	No (tecto.)

Table S1: continued from previous page.

Subduction transect	**Lat./Lon.**	**Dist. trench to... [km] shelf**	**coast**	**locking**	**Method**	**Reference**	**Selection**
Cascadia 1	48.43/-126.85	53	101	48	GPS	Wang, Wells, Mazzotti, Hyndman, and Sagiya (2003)	No (equiv.)
”	”	”	”	50	GPS	McCaffrey et al. (2007)	No (equiv.)
”	”	”	”	50	GPS	Schmalzle, McCaffrey, and Creager (2014)	Yes (equiv.)
Cascadia 2	46.67/-125.89	83	137	81	GPS	Wang et al. (2003)	No (equiv.)
”	”	”	”	50	GPS	McCaffrey et al. (2007)	No (equiv.)
”	”	”	”	94	GPS	Schmalzle et al. (2014)	Yes (equiv.)
Cascadia 3	44.33/-125.33	38	98	39	GPS	Wang et al. (2003)	No (equiv.)
”	”	”	”	50	GPS	McCaffrey et al. (2007)	No (equiv.)
”	”	”	”	42	GPS	Schmalzle et al. (2014)	No (equiv.)
”	”	”	”	34	LVL	Burgette, Weldon II, and Schmidt (2009)	Yes (equiv.)
Cascadia 4	42.017/-125.27	58	89	43	GPS	Wang et al. (2003)	No (tecto.)
”	”	”	”	50	GPS	McCaffrey et al. (2007)	No (tecto.)
”	”	”	”	45	GPS	Schmalzle et al. (2014)	No (tecto.)
”	”	”	”	49	LVL	Burgette et al. (2009)	No (tecto.)
Mexico 1	17.54/-103.17	62	72	83	EQ	Radiguet et al. (2012)	No (tecto.)
Mexico 2	16.16/-99.69	47	61	87	EQ	Radiguet et al. (2012)	No (tecto.)

Table S1: continued from previous page.

Subduction transect	Lat./Lon.	Dist. trench to... [km] shelf	coast	locking	Method	Reference	Selection
Mexico 3	15.30/-96.95	45	50	88	EQ	Radiguet et al. (2012)	No (tecto.)
Mexico 4	14.43/-94.39	67	173	54	GPS	Franco et al. (2012)	No (resolut.)
GTM to NIC 1	13.31/-92.35	65	115	38	GPS	LaFemina et al. (2009)	No (resolut.)
”	”	”	”	80	EQ	Ye, Lay, and Kanamori (2013)	Yes (default)
GTM to NIC 2	11.84/-88.79	72	160	27	GPS	LaFemina et al. (2009)	No (resolut.)
”	”	”	”	75	EQ	Ye et al. (2013)	Yes (default)
GTM to NIC 3	10.95/-87.33	55	128	18	GPS	LaFemina et al. (2009)	No (resolut.)
”	”	”	”	86	EQ	Ye et al. (2013)	Yes (default)
Costa Rica 1	9.41/-85.92	50	67	114	GPS	LaFemina et al. (2009)	No (tecto.)
”	”	”	”	111	EQ	Ye et al. (2013)	No (tecto.)
Costa Rica 2	8.57/-84.27	36	87	22	GPS	LaFemina et al. (2009)	No (tecto.)
Costa Rica 3	8.23/-83.48	20	24	53	GPS	LaFemina et al. (2009)	No (tecto.)
COL - ECD 1	3.83/-78.58	99	136	148	EQ	Kanamori and McNally (1982)	No (deposit.)
COL - ECD 2	1.74/-79.95	86	113	132	EQ	Kanamori and McNally (1982)	No (deposit.)

Table S1: continued from previous page.

Subduction transect	Lat./Lon.	Dist. trench to... [km] shelf	coast	locking	Method	Reference	Selection
”	”	”	”	74	GPS	Nocquet et al. (2014)	No (deposit.)
COL - ECD 3	-0.03/-80.99	30	70	113	EQ	Kanamori and McNally (1982)	No (deposit.)
”	”	”	”	67	GPS	Nocquet et al. (2014)	No (deposit.)
Peru 1	-9.01/-80.81	115	220	47	GPS	Nocquet et al. (2014)	No (resolut.)
Peru 2	-12.92/-78.34	124	165	200	GPS	Nocquet et al. (2014)	No (resolut.)
Peru 3	-17.78/-73.78	105	115	164	GPS	Chlieh et al. (2011)	No (resolut.)
Peru 4	-19.15/-71.85	158	172	80	GPS	Chlieh et al. (2011)	No (resolut.)
Chile 1	-19.90/-71.39	123	132	119	GPS	Chlieh et al. (2011)	No (co>inter)
”	”	”	”	160	GPS	Metois, Vigny, and Socquet (2016)	No (co>inter)
”	”	”	”	116	EQ	Lay, Yue, Brodsky, and An (2014)	Yes (co>inter)
Chile 2	-23.12/-71.26	68	72	156	GPS	Chlieh et al. (2011)	No (contrad.)
”	”	”	”	133	GPS	Metois et al. (2016)	No (contrad.)
”	”	”	”	70	GPS	Saillard et al. (2017)	No (contrad.)
”	”	”	”	71	GPS	Béjar-Pizarro et al. (2013)	No (contrad.)
Chile 3	-26.34/-71.62	81	98	96	GPS	Metois et al. (2013)	No (contrad.)

Table S1: continued from previous page.

Subduction		**Dist. trench to... [km]**					
transect	**Lat./Lon.**	**shelf**	**coast**	**locking**	**Method**	**Reference**	**Selection**
”	”	”	”	172	GPS	Metois et al. (2016)	No (contrad.)
”	”	”	”	123	GPS	Saillard et al. (2017)	No (contrad.)
”	”	”	”	113	GPS	Metois, Socquet, and Vigny (2012)	No (contrad.)
Chile 4	-31.14/-72.59	85	89	93	GPS	Metois et al. (2013)	No (co>inter)
”	”	”	”	113	GPS	Metois et al. (2016)	No (co>inter)
”	”	”	”	101	GPS	Saillard et al. (2017)	No (co>inter)
”	”	”	”	95	GPS	Metois et al. (2012)	No (co>inter)
”	”	”	”	84	EQ	Yue et al. (2014)	Yes (co>inter)
Chile 5	-34.48/-73.50	119	134	140	GPS	Metois et al. (2012)	No (co>inter)
”	”	”	”	181	GPS	Saillard et al. (2017)	No (co>inter)
”	”	”	”	144	GPS	Metois et al. (2016)	No (co>inter)
”	”	”	”	113	EQ	Li, Lay, Cheung, and Ye (2016)	Yes (co>inter)

Table S2. Numerical model parameters for simulations shown in Figure 5 A, B,, and C.

Parameters:	**Values:**
depth of trench `ztrench`	2.5 [km]
plate rate `srate`	2 [mm/yr]
locking depth `zlock`	10 [km]
transition depth `ztrans`	15 [km]
non-recoverable interseismic deformation	5% of total
megathrust dip `dip`	12 [°]
offshore wave power `P_off`	5×10^{-2}
power expended in shallowest water `P_0`	5×10^{-5}
depth of wave base `dwb`	100 [m]
Reference case, 5A:	
incision coefficient `b_i`	1.3×10^{-5} [m/J]
cliff retreat coefficient `b_c`	2.3×10^{-6} [m/J]
max. isostatic uplift `u_isostatic`	0.4 [mm/yr]
Subsidence case, 5B:	
incision coefficient `b_i`	7×10^{-6} [m/J]
cliff retreat coefficient `b_c`	5×10^{-7} [m/J]
max. isostatic uplift `u_isostatic`	0.4 [mm/yr]
max. subsidence rate `u_subsid`	1 [mm/yr]
width of forearc basin `farc_width`	75 [km]
Narrow case, 5C:	
incision coefficient `b_i`	7.5×10^{-6} [m/J]
cliff retreat coefficient `b_c`	1.2×10^{-6} [m/J]
max. isostatic uplift `u_isostatic`	2 [mm/yr]