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3

4 **Title: Co- and postseismic slip behaviors extracted from decadal seafloor geodesy**
5 **after the 2011 Tohoku-oki earthquake**

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18 **Abstract**

19 Investigations of the co- and postseismic processes of the 2011 Tohoku-oki earthquake
20 provide essential information on the seismic cycle in the Japan Trench. Although
21 various postseismic models have been proposed, no consensus has been reached,
22 especially on the along-strike extensions of the main rupture due to the lack of
23 conclusive evidence, even in the coseismic process. To decompose the postseismic
24 transient processes in and around the source region, i.e., viscoelastic relaxation and
25 afterslip, long-term postseismic geodetic observation on the seafloor plays an essential
26 role. Here, from decadal seafloor geodetic data, we provide empirical evidence for
27 offshore aseismic afterslip on the rupture edges that had almost decayed within 2–3
28 year. The afterslip regions are considered to have stopped the north-south rupture
29 propagation. In the southern source region ($\sim 37^\circ\text{N}$), despite not resolved by coseismic
30 geodetic data, shallow tsunamigenic slip near the trench is captured by postseismic
31 seafloor geodesy as a subsequent viscoelastic deformation causing persistent seafloor
32 subsidence at a geodetic site off-Fukushima. After a decade from the earthquake, the

33 long-term viscoelastic relaxation process is currently in progress and is still dominant in
34 the rupture area.

35

36 **Keywords**

37 2011 Tohoku-oki earthquake; GNSS-A; seafloor geodesy; Postseismic crustal
38 deformation; Shallow tsunamigenic slip; Afterslip; Viscoelastic relaxation

39

40 **Main Text**

41 **1 Introduction**

42 In general, a large fault rupture is followed by postseismic relaxation processes
43 such as viscoelastic relaxation in the asthenosphere and aseismic slip on the fault plane,
44 which lead to transient crustal deformation on the solid Earth's surface (e.g., Wang et
45 al., 2012). Postseismic geodetic data following a megathrust earthquake show the sum
46 of these relaxation processes and interplate backslip due to the secular plate subduction.
47 Along the Japan Trench, postseismic processes were triggered by the 2011 Tohoku-oki
48 earthquake (M_w 9.0) and continue in this decade. Clarifying the interplate slip behaviors

49 for the co- and postseismic phase will contribute to the understanding of the frictional
50 state of faults, slow earthquake activities, and seismic cycles in this region.

51 The Tohoku-oki earthquake caused trench-ward seafloor displacements of
52 several tens of meters (Sato et al., 2011; Kido et al., 2011), reaching about 50 m at the
53 trench (Fujiwara et al., 2011). Using seafloor geodetic data (Sato et al., 2011; Kido et
54 al., 2011), which provided definitive evidence for a coseismic slip, an extremely large
55 slip was estimated at the plate interface shallower than the hypocenter (Figure 1)
56 (Ozawa et al., 2012; Inuma et al., 2012; Sun et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2018). Except for
57 the north-south spread of shallow rupture, where the geodetic data at that time could not
58 resolve the slips, a consensus has been reached on the north-south rupture propagation
59 at depths near the hypocenter; almost all fault models produce similar results as
60 summarized by Sun et al. (2017) and Wang et al. (2018). This implies that the rupture in
61 2011 did not progress to the northern region ($> 39^\circ\text{N}$), even though M_w 8 earthquakes
62 have historically occurred in this region (Figure 1) (Nagai et al., 2001; Yamanaka and
63 Kikuchi, 2004). Investigations of the postseismic behaviors, including the occurrence of
64 afterslip, in the northern and southern regions outside the main rupture area provide

65 essential information on how rupture propagation was restrained in a compact region in
66 the depths near the hypocenter.

67 For the detection of transient postseismic crustal deformation to decompose the
68 elementary processes, sufficiently long-term, high-frequency, and well-distributed
69 geodetic data are required because these sources have different decay times and
70 deformation patterns (e.g., Wang et al., 2012). Although the terrestrial Global
71 Navigation Satellite System (GNSS) observation network has extremely high
72 spatiotemporal resolution, it cannot easily decompose the transient processes because
73 the two processes of interest cause similar trench-ward movements in the onshore
74 regions and thus cannot be distinguished from one another. In contrast, the viscoelastic
75 and afterslip effects cause displacements in opposite directions on the seafloor above
76 the main rupture, i.e., the landward and trench-ward directions, respectively. Therefore,
77 seafloor geodetic observations can be used to decompose transient deformation sources
78 despite their lower temporal resolution compared to that of terrestrial observations.

79 Actually, seafloor geodetic technique detected postseismic landward movements larger
80 than the subduction rate (~ 9 cm/year) (Argus et al., 2011) above the main rupture area,

81 whereas terrestrial geodetic sites showed trench-ward movements. This is a conclusive
82 evidence for the dominance of viscoelastic relaxation in the main rupture area
83 (Watanabe et al., 2014; Sun et al. 2014; Tomita et al., 2017; Honsho et al., 2019).

84 The seafloor observation results stimulated researchers to develop postseismic
85 deformation models incorporating the viscoelastic effects. Table 1 summarizes the
86 postseismic models with (1) referencing the seafloor geodetic data, (2) incorporating the
87 afterslip dislocation models, (3) modeling the subducting cold slab, and (4) calculating
88 the viscoelastic deformation in wider area than a latitude range of 37–39 °N. Every
89 model indicated that the deformation patterns in the main rupture area can be roughly
90 explained as the viscoelastic response, but that the observed deformation in the outside
91 of main rupture cannot be reproduced only by viscoelastic relaxation. Some models put
92 additional afterslip patches in the offshore region to reproduce the geodetic data (e.g.,
93 Sun and Wang., 2015; Freed et al., 2017), even though these were only the tentative
94 models because of the insufficient spatiotemporal resolution and observation period (at
95 most 5 years) of available seafloor data.

96 On the other hand, there remains an uncertainty in coseismic dislocation input
97 for the postseismic deformation modeling. Many researchers had adopted coseismic slip
98 distribution model inverted from seafloor and terrestrial geodetic data with roughness
99 dumping (e.g., Iinuma et al., 2012; Freed et al., 2017), though the geodetic network in
100 2011 did not cover the whole source region, for which there is thus no information
101 especially on coseismic rupture in the shallower portion. Tsunami data, which are
102 sensitive to topographical changes of the seafloor, indicate that the tsunamigenic area
103 was extended, especially in the northern ($> 39^\circ\text{N}$) and southern ($\sim 37^\circ\text{N}$) areas along
104 the trench (Figure 1) (Satake et al., 2013). This feature did not appear in the geodetic
105 inversion due to the absence of data. Nonetheless, the difference in coseismic input
106 would affect the postseismic relaxation processes. For instance, a viscoelastic model
107 proposed by Agata et al. (2019), where an output of seismic cycle simulation (Nakata et
108 al., 2016) that included an additional shallow slip near the trench eastern off-Fukushima
109 ($\sim 37^\circ\text{N}$) is applied to the coseismic input, suggested that viscoelastic relaxation can
110 cause significant seafloor deformation in the off-Fukushima region, whereas other
111 models based on the geodetic coseismic input could not induce enough stress to cause

112 significant viscoelastic deformation there (e.g., Sun et al., 2014; Freed et al., 2017). The
113 difference between models suggests that we will be able to estimate shallow coseismic
114 slip behavior and following postseismic models by decomposing and discussing the
115 postseismic deformation sources with longer-term seafloor geodetic data.

116 In this study, decadal seafloor geodetic data that contain the temporal evolutions
117 of surface velocity are used to decompose the deformation sources. Based on the results,
118 we clarify the co- and postseismic slip behaviors in the northern and southern parts of
119 the source region.

120 **2 Data and Methods**

121 To investigate the temporal evolution of seafloor crustal deformation, the Japan
122 Coast Guard (JCG) regularly performs seafloor geodetic observations using GNSS –
123 acoustic ranging combined seafloor positioning system (GNSS-A) (Additional file 1:
124 Figure S1), in the Japan Trench region (e.g., Watanabe et al., 2020). GNSS-A data were
125 obtained at six JCG sites (KAMN, KAMS, MYGI, MYGW, FUKU, and CHOS; Table
126 S1) from March 2011 to June 2020 using survey vessels, and were processed with
127 GARPOS v1.0.0 (Watanabe et al., 2021d). Note that the newer analysis method, which

128 incorporated the estimation process for spatially gradient sound speed structure, has
129 been applied to the previously published data (Watanabe et al., 2014). The JCG also
130 performed GNSS-A observations at five sites (G08, G10, G12, G14, and G17; Table
131 S1) installed by Tohoku University (TU) (Kido et al., 2015) since 2013, independently
132 of TU. We additionally reprocessed the GNSS-A data before the Tohoku-oki
133 earthquake at five JCG sites (Sato et al., 2013a) using the present analysis method to
134 determine the preseismic seafloor velocities.

135 All GNSS-A data used in this study are available at Zenodo (Watanabe et al.,
136 2021a;b). Note that the GNSS-A data before 2009 were obtained by drifting
137 observations (Additional file 1: Figure S1a), which are less precise than the recent
138 results obtained by sailing observations (Sato et al., 2013b; Ishikawa et al., 2020).

139 To extract the annual-scale velocity changes, we took the following steps: We
140 first subtract the effects of aftershocks that can cause coseismic displacement of more
141 than 1 cm at seafloor sites (sources are shown in Figure 1), applying the method of
142 Okada (1992). We used the Centroid Moment Tensor (CMT) solution catalogue
143 provided by the Japan Meteorological Agency, which are available online

144 (https://www.data.jma.go.jp/svd/eqev/data/bulletin/index_e.html). We then smoothen
145 the time series of postseismic displacements, $x(t)$, where t denotes the time after the
146 event, by fitting with a function which are modified from the fitting curve of Tobita et
147 al. (2017), i.e.,

$$148 \quad x(t) = x_0 + vt + \alpha_1 \log\left(1 + \frac{t}{\tau_1}\right) + \alpha_2 \log\left(1 + \frac{t}{\tau_2}\right),$$

149 where x_0 , v , α_1 and α_2 are estimation parameters. For the time constants τ_1 and
150 τ_2 , we applied the values of Fujiwara et al. (2021), i.e., $\tau_1 = 2.1176$ day and $\tau_2 =$
151 287.45 day, because the GNSS-A observation frequency is as low as several times per
152 year per site which is insufficient to determine these parameters. Additionally, we
153 approximated the exponential term in their formulation to a linear component, vt ,
154 because of extremely large time constant found by Fujiwara et al. (2021). It should also
155 be noted that we put $\alpha_1 = 0$ for the TU sites where the observation started in 2013.

156 **3 Results**

157 Time series of post- and preseismic seafloor displacements with respect to the
158 Okhotsk plate of NNR-MORVEL56 model (Argus et al., 2011) within a framework of
159 the International Terrestrial Reference Frame 2014 (Altamimi et al., 2016; 2017) are

160 shown in Figures 2 and S2 (Additional file 1), respectively. The values of the
161 displacement, without corrections for aftershocks, are available at Zenodo (Watanabe et
162 al., 2021c). To discuss the motion changes over several years, we extracted 3-year
163 cumulative movements from the fitted curves for the periods of Apr. 2011 – Apr. 2014,
164 Apr. 2014 – Apr. 2017, and Apr. 2017 – Apr. 2020 (Table 2, Figure 1). For the
165 preseismic period, we only consider the average velocity (Table 2, Figure 1a).

166 The GNSS-A results at the TU sites independently operated by the TU research
167 group (Kido et al., 2015; Honsho et al., 2019) are simultaneously plotted in Figures 2g–
168 2k for comparison. The offsets in the results between two observation systems, i.e., JCG
169 and TU, were estimated and corrected as follows: We first estimated the linear trend of
170 JCG’s results in the period of 2013–2017, and detrended both series. Offsets were
171 calculated from the average of differences in the detrended results for 2013–2017. Text
172 S1 (Additional file 1) describes the validations for data at G17, which has lower
173 positioning precision than the other sites.

174 **4 Discussions**

175 Based on the temporal changes of seafloor movement (Figure 1), we discuss the
176 expressions of viscoelastic relaxation and afterslip in the northern (off-Kamaishi),
177 central (off-Miyagi/main rupture), and southern (off-Fukushima and off-Choshi) parts
178 of the source region, which are conceptually illustrated in Figure 3.

179 In previous studies that analyzed the data until 2014 (Watanabe et al., 2014; Sun
180 et al. 2014), landward movements at rates larger than the Pacific plate subduction were
181 detected at the sites located above the main rupture, i.e., KAMS and MYGI (Figure 1b).
182 This was interpreted as the superposition of the effects of viscoelastic relaxation in the
183 asthenosphere beneath the Pacific plate, and the interplate backslip if the interplate
184 coupling was restored (Figure 3b). Crustal deformation in this area was consistent with
185 the quantitative models incorporating the viscoelastic response to the geodetically
186 constrained coseismic input (Sun et al. 2014; Sun and Wang, 2015; Freed et al., 2017;
187 Wang et al., 2018). The large landward movements at these sites continued with a slight
188 decay over the whole period, as well as at G08, G10, G12, and G14 (Figure 1c). The

189 decay of landward motion can be explained as the time-dependent viscoelastic
190 deformation (Figure 3b).

191 Little temporal change in the present decade was found in the horizontal
192 movement at MYGW on the downdip edge of the main rupture (Figures 1b–1d). If the
193 interplate coupling in the main rupture had been restored, its landward motion should be
194 canceled by a trench-ward motion driven by viscoelastic relaxation or afterslip to
195 maintain balance for almost 10 years. Although the landward motion cannot be clearly
196 detected, it seems to have been slightly restored after 2017. This might indicate a
197 decrease in the dominance of relaxation processes similar to those in the main rupture
198 area (Figure 3b).

199 At the northern edge of the main rupture, little horizontal displacement was
200 observed until 2014 at KAMN (Figure 1b). Because viscoelastic relaxation is mainly
201 driven by the stress induced in the low-viscosity layer beneath the lithosphere, it tends
202 to cause almost the same movements at KAMN and KAMS which are only 30 km apart.
203 To explain the velocity contrast at KAMN and KAMS, some postseismic models
204 require afterslip to reach the trench on the northern side of the main rupture to cause a

205 relative trench-ward motion at KAMN with respect to KAMS (Sun and Wang, 2015;
206 Freed et al., 2017).

207 After 2014, landward motion significantly accelerated at KAMN and had almost
208 the same velocity at KAMS and MYGI (Figure 1c). With the preseismic velocities
209 (Figure 1a) taken into account, the consistency in the movements at KAMN and KAMS
210 after 2014 indicates that the two sites have been similarly influenced by long-term
211 viscoelastic relaxation. Because the spatial pattern of the viscoelastic deformation has
212 not significantly changed in the present decade, the viscoelastic relaxation is expected to
213 have caused almost the same displacements at these sites before 2014. This supports
214 that the afterslip in the off-Kamaishi region actually caused the relative trench-ward
215 motion of 10 cm/year in three-year average at KAMN before 2014 to cancel the
216 landward motion driven by the viscoelastic relaxation and interseismic backslip (Figure
217 3b). Furthermore, the temporal evolution of KAMN's movement (Figure 2a) confirms
218 that the afterslip in that region had decayed sufficiently in 3 years. After the decay of
219 the afterslip, the viscoelastic response and interplate coupling became dominant for the

220 crustal deformation around KAMN, similar to the case at neighboring GNSS-A sites
221 (Figures 3b).

222 To reproduce the difference in average displacement rate of about 10 cm/year
223 between KAMN and KAMS before 2014, afterslip in the northern region outside the
224 coseismic rupture with an average displacement rate on the order of meters per year is
225 required (see Additional file 1: Text S2 for detail). However, the slip magnitude
226 depends on the afterslip distribution, which cannot be geodetically constrained. With the
227 tsunami-derived shallow slip in the off-Kamaishi area taken into account, the afterslip
228 would not have reached the trench at 39 °N (Figure 1b).

229 In contrast to the off-Miyagi region, rapid trench-ward movements were
230 observed at FUKU and CHOS in the southern region (< 37.5 °N) especially in the first
231 1–2 years after the Tohoku-oki earthquake (Figures 2e–2f). The trench-ward motion
232 became much smaller after 2013 (Figures 2e–2f). Almost no significant horizontal
233 movement was found at G17, located on the trench side of FUKU, despite the low
234 positioning accuracy due to instrumental malfunction (< 5–6 cm/year for three-year
235 average displacement rate; see Additional file 1: Text S1 for detail).

236 For the horizontal movement, it is reasonable to assume that the afterslip caused
237 the trench-ward motion with rapid decay of 1–2 years, as shown in the most postseismic
238 models (Sun and Wang, 2015; Iinuma et al., 2016; Freed et al., 2017; Agata et al.,
239 2019). Actually, it had been indicated that viscoelastic deformation cannot cause
240 significant motion at FUKU in some finite element models (Sun et al., 2014; Freed et
241 al., 2017), which used the coseismic input based on the geodetic inversion with a single
242 peak beneath FUKU, such as the model by Iinuma et al. (2012) (Figure 1b). Therefore,
243 such models require to reproduce both the horizontal and vertical motion by only the
244 afterslip. It led to the assumption of the strong afterslip in the shallow portion to explain
245 the rapid subsidence observed at FUKU.

246 However, subsidence at FUKU continued at almost a constant rate of about 4
247 cm/year, even after 2014 when the trench-ward movement had almost ceased. This
248 result is against the models which try to explain the most parts of both trench-ward
249 motion and subsidence with a shallow afterslip. A single afterslip cannot cause a
250 persistent subsidence without significant trench-ward movement at FUKU and G17,
251 because of the low dip angle of the plate boundary (see Additional file 1: Text S3 for

252 detail). Therefore, we should assume another input for the viscoelastic deformation
253 rather than the geodetic inversion model to reproduce the persistent subsidence at
254 FUKU.

255 Agata et al. (2019) used a coseismic input derived from an earthquake cycle
256 simulation (Nakata et al., 2016), which incorporates an additional peak of coseismic
257 rupture near the trench at 37 °N. Although the source has not reproduced the coseismic
258 seafloor uplift observed at FUKU (Sato et al., 2011), it can provide a practical exercise.
259 Their viscoelastic finite element model demonstrated sufficient subsidence at FUKU.
260 According to the comparisons of the numerical examples of viscoelastic deformation to
261 the coseismic slip distribution, as illustrated in Figure 6 of Sun and Wang (2015), the
262 hinge line of horizontal deformation and the peak of viscoelastic subsidence were
263 located above the downdip side of the major slip. For this reason, the coseismic slip
264 near the trench caused the subsidence at FUKU in the model of Agata et al. (2019). The
265 tsunami-derived coseismic slip distribution in the off-Fukushima region (Satake et al.,
266 2013) has two peaks in the along-dip direction (Figure 1b). Based on the postseismic

267 model of Agata et al. (2019), the viscoelastic relaxation driven by the shallower
268 coseismic slip can cause long-term subsidence at FUKU (red arrows in Figure 3b).

269 The discussion above suggests that the tsunami-derived shallow coseismic slip
270 should be adopted in the viscoelastic relaxation model to reasonably explain the
271 spatiotemporal variation of seafloor deformation. In this case, both the viscoelastic
272 relaxation and possible interseismic backslip are predicted to simultaneously cause
273 landward motion at G17 (red and yellow arrows in Figure 3b, respectively). However, it
274 cannot be well detected because of low accuracy at G17. The data is consistent for both
275 cases where G17 actually moves toward the land and where the landward motion is
276 canceled or weakened by remaining afterslip. Therefore, the data cannot constrain the
277 degrees of contribution of viscoelastic response or afterslip to slight trench-ward motion
278 at FUKU in 2014–2017.

279 In any cases, we can consider that the trench-ward movements at FUKU and
280 CHOS for the first 1–2 years were mainly caused by afterslip in the southern region
281 (purple arrows in Figure 3b). Although we cannot constrain and estimate the spread of
282 southern afterslip region because of low spatial density of geodetic observation site at

283 that time, annual-scale afterslip was a dominant deformation source in the southern
284 region except for the vertical component at FUKU. Recalling the tsunami-derived
285 rupture distribution at 37 °N, for reproducing the trench-ward motion at FUKU, it might
286 be reasonable to put the afterslip on the fault between the two peaks of the coseismic
287 slip (Figure 1b) rather than putting strong afterslip patches only in far south of FUKU
288 (< 37 °N) as the forward slip model shown by Agata et al. (2019).

289 Considering that the afterslip occurs on the fault with aseismic frictional
290 property, the assumed afterslip regions on the northern and southern sides of the main
291 rupture are considered to have behaved as barriers to rupture propagation. It is plausible
292 that the shallow tsunamigenic slip in the off-Kamaishi and off-Fukushima areas (Satake
293 et al., 2013) additionally loaded stress on the downdip side and triggered afterslip. The
294 northern afterslip occurred between major earthquakes, i.e., the 1968 Tokachi-oki
295 earthquake (M_w 8.3), the 1994 offshore Sanriku earthquake (M_w 7.7) (Nagai et al.,
296 2001), the 1896 Meiji Sanriku tsunami earthquake (M_w 8.1) (Satake et al., 2017), and
297 the 2011 Tohoku-oki earthquake. The gap between major earthquakes is characterized
298 by relatively low seismicity (Mochizuki et al., 2005), including repeating earthquakes

299 (Uchida and Matsuzawa, 2013; Igarashi, 2020). Slow earthquake activity has been
300 reported in this area (Nishikawa et al., 2019) as well. Although the northern and along-
301 dip extensions cannot be resolved due to the absence of geodetic instruments, these
302 features are consistent with the aseismic frictional property. In the off-Fukushima
303 region, postseismic movements larger than the main slip were observed for the 2008
304 and 2010 Fukushima-ken-oki earthquakes (M_j 6.9 and M_j 6.7, respectively) (Suito et al.,
305 2011). It is possible that the proposed afterslip in the off-Fukushima region following
306 the Tohoku-oki earthquake occurred in a region near the former afterslip.

307 **5 Conclusions**

308 Based on the GNSS-A observations and the above interpretations, the slip
309 behaviors in the northern and southern areas can be summarized as follows. (1)
310 Afterslip occurred in the northern and southern regions outside the main rupture at
311 depths near the hypocenter, which is consistent with the shallower tsunamigenic slip
312 inducing stress on the downdip aseismic faults. It is plausible that these aseismic
313 afterslip regions stopped the north-south rupture propagation. (2) By at least 2014, the
314 afterslip in the off-Kamaishi, off-Fukushima, and off-Choshi regions had almost

315 decayed, though there is less evidence for off-Fukushima region because of less
316 information for determining the viscoelastic deformation patterns. (3) Shallow
317 tsunamigenic slip in the south was captured by postseismic seafloor geodesy as a
318 subsequent viscoelastic deformation that caused persistent seafloor subsidence.
319 Additionally, the GNSS-A results indicate that the long-term viscoelastic relaxation
320 process is currently in progress and is dominant in the off-Miyagi and off-Kamaishi
321 regions. It also plays an important role in the off-Fukushima region, although its
322 contribution cannot be well resolved. These long-term behaviors should be investigated
323 by continuing and expanding seafloor geodetic observations.

324 **Declarations**

325 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

326 Not applicable

327 **Consent for publication**

328 Not applicable

329 **List of abbreviations**

330 CMT: Centroid Moment Tensor, GNSS: Global Navigation Satellite

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331 System, GNSS-A: GNSS – acoustic ranging combined seafloor
332 positioning system, JCG: Japan Coast Guard, TU: Tohoku University

333 **Availability of data and materials**

334 The dataset generated during this study are available at Zenodo
335 (Watanabe et al., 2021c). The GNSS-A analysis software “GARPOS
336 v1.0.0” is available at Zenodo (Watanabe et al., 2021d). The GNSS-A
337 data is available at Zenodo (Watanabe et al., 2021a; b). The daily
338 coordinates of terrestrial GNSS sites were provided by the Geospatial
339 Information Authority of Japan (<http://terras.gsi.go.jp>) (Nakagawa et al.,
340 2019). The contours for some earthquakes were obtained from the
341 website created by N. Uchida
342 (https://www.aob.gp.tohoku.ac.jp/~uchida/page_3_asp-e.html). The
343 depths of the upper interface of the subducting Pacific plate were
344 obtained from the website created by F. Hirose ([https://www.mri-
345 jma.go.jp/Dep/sei/fhirose/plate/en.PlateData.html](https://www.mri-jma.go.jp/Dep/sei/fhirose/plate/en.PlateData.html)). The CMT solutions
346 provided by the Japan Meteorological Agency are available at

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347 https://www.data.jma.go.jp/svd/eqev/data/bulletin/index_e.html. Some
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350 **Competing interests**

351 Authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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355 **Authors' contributions**

356 Conceptualization: SW, TI, YY

357 Methodology: SW, TI, YN, YY

358 Software: SW

359 Formal analysis: SW, YN

360 Data curation: SW, YN

361 Investigation: SW, TI, YN, YY

362 Validation: SW

363 Visualization: SW

364 Writing – original draft: SW

365 Writing – review & editing: SW, TI, YN, YY

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510

511 **Figure legends**

512 **Figure 1. Seafloor motion derived from GNSS-A observations.** Average horizontal
513 and vertical velocities for (a) pre-seismic period, and three-year cumulative
514 displacements for (b) 2011–2014, (c) 2014–2017, and (d) 2017–2020 are indicated as
515 black arrows and open rectangles, respectively. Terrestrial GNSS velocities or
516 cumulative displacements were extracted from the F3 solution of the GEONET sites
517 (Nakagawa et al., 2009). Onshore velocities during 2007–2011 are shown in (a). Purple
518 patches indicate possible afterslip regions, but there is little or no resolution for the
519 spread. Brown contours and colored tiles indicate geodetically derived (Iinuma et al.,
520 2012) and tsunami-derived (Satake et al., 2013) coseismic slip distributions of the 2011
521 Tohoku-oki earthquake, respectively. Green circles denote repeating earthquakes that
522 occurred in each period (Igarashi, 2020). CMT solutions for the use of displacement
523 correction are shown in each panel. Navy and blue lines indicate 2-m and 4-m slip
524 contours of historical earthquakes in the northern area (Nagai et al., 2001). Green

525 rectangles indicate patches with a slip of 20 m for the 1896 tsunami earthquake (Satake
526 et al., 2017).

527 **Figure 2. Time series of postseismic seafloor displacement.** Displacements with
528 respect to the Okhotsk plate of NNR-MORVEL56 model (Argus et al., 2011) are shown
529 (black circles). Fitted logarithmic curves are shown as the solid lines. The 95 %
530 confidence intervals for curve fittings are shown as shaded areas. Results provided by
531 Honsho et al. (2019) for (g)–(k) are indicated as brown squares.

532 **Figure 3. Schematic diagram of deformation sources beneath the seafloor. (a)** Slips
533 on the plate interface. Purple, red, and orange regions indicate possible afterslip region
534 and geodetically derived (Iinuma et al., 2012) and tsunami-derived (Satake et al., 2013)
535 coseismic slip areas of the 2011 Tohoku-oki earthquake, respectively. Blue circles and
536 bars indicate the locations of GNSS-A sites and their projections to the plate interface,
537 respectively. Black rectangles show the locations for cross sections illustrated in
538 subsequent panels. Note that there is little or no information for the spread of afterslip
539 regions. **(b)** Cross sections for each region with one of possible qualitative explanations
540 for the contributions of each deformation source to the motion at GNSS-A sites. Black,

541 red, purple, and yellow arrows indicate the observed motion and components due to
542 viscoelastic relaxation, afterslip, and interplate coupling, respectively.

543 **Table legends**

544 **Table 1. Summary of previously proposed postseismic deformation models.** Models

545 with (1) referencing the seafloor geodetic data, (2) incorporating the afterslip

546 dislocation models, (3) modeling the subducting cold slab, and (4) calculating the

547 viscoelastic deformation in wider area than a latitude range of 37–39 °N, are shown.

548 **Table 2. Displacements with respect to the Okhotsk plate from the fitted curves**

549 **with 95% confidence intervals.**

550 (a) Average velocity before 2011

551 (b) Three-year cumulative displacement from Apr. 2011 to Apr. 2014.

552 (c) Three-year cumulative displacement from Apr. 2014 to Apr. 2017.

553 (d) Three-year cumulative displacement from Apr. 2017 to Apr. 2020.z

554 **Supplementary Information**

555 **Additional file 1**

556 Figure S1 shows schematic diagrams of the GNSS-A observation operated by the Japan

557 Coast Guard. Figures S2 shows the time series of preseismic seafloor displacements with
558 respect to the Okhotsk plate. Text S1 describes the validations for the GNSS-A results
559 obtained at G17, which has lower precision than the other sites. Figure S3 shows the
560 actual track lines during the GNSS-A campaign observations at G17, which is referenced
561 in Text S1. Texts S2 and S3 discuss the validity or invalidity of afterslip contributions to
562 the GNSS-A data in the northern and southern regions, respectively. Figures S4 and S5
563 show the contributions of interplate dislocations to the GNSS-A sites in the northern and
564 southern regions, respectively. Table S1 shows the reference locations of the GNSS-A
565 sites.
566

Table 1. Summary of previously proposed postseismic deformation models. Models with (1) referencing the seafloor geodetic data, (2) incorporating the afterslip dislocation models, (3) modeling the subducting cold slab, and (4) calculating the viscoelastic deformation in wider area than a latitude range of 37–39 °N, are shown.

Reference	Rheology model	Coseismic input (source)	Afterslip model	Approx. period
Sun et al. (2014)	Burgers model	Geodetic inversion (Inuma et al. 2012)	Modified from Ozawa et al. (2012) with trial-and-error	3 year
Sun & Wang (2015)	Same model as Sun et al. (2014)		Ad hoc shallow patches added to Sun et al. (2014)	3 year
Wang et al. (2018)	Same model as Sun et al. (2014)		Ad hoc afterslip patches added to Sun & Wang (2015)	5 years
Inuma et al. (2016)	Same model as Sun et al. (2014)		Geodetic inversion after removing viscoelastic effect	0.7 year
Freed et al. (2017)	Maxwell model / depth-dependent	Geodetic inversion (self-derived)	Geodetic inversion after removing viscoelastic effect	3 year
Agata et al. (2019)	Power-law / thermally activated	Earthquake simulation (Nakata et al., 2016)	Forward calculation based on rate- & state-dependent friction	2.8 year

Table 2. Displacements with respect to the Okhotsk plate from the fitted curves with 95% confidence intervals.

(a) Average velocity before 2011

Site	Displacement (cm/year)			Variance-covariance ((cm/year) ²)			
	E-ward	N-ward	U-ward	V(E,E)	V(E,N)	V(N,N)	V(U,U)
KAMN	-3.5	0.4	0.1	0.40	0.12	0.67	2.61
KAMS	-2.4	-1.8	0.7	2.29	-1.01	1.71	2.10
MYGI	-4.1	2.4	-2.0	0.24	-0.03	0.50	0.93
MYGW	-4.5	1.2	-0.2	0.22	-0.19	0.23	2.06
FUKU	-1.8	-1.3	-2.0	0.30	0.17	1.15	3.15

(b) Three-year cumulative displacement from Apr. 2011 to Apr. 2014.

Site	Displacement (cm)			Variance-covariance (cm ²)			
	E-ward	N-ward	U-ward	V(E,E)	V(E,N)	V(N,N)	V(U,U)
KAMN	-4.0	3.6	-21.5	4.76	3.98	-1.45	11.24
KAMS	-32.6	14.9	-16.1	18.22	12.28	-6.08	16.05
MYGI	-28.2	8.4	-21.4	5.35	4.99	0.46	7.34
MYGW	7.8	-14.8	-32.5	2.73	3.11	0.57	7.29
FUKU	60.4	-41.9	-42.1	3.56	5.00	-1.59	8.34
CHOS	59.8	-26.1	5.3	7.60	24.06	3.73	27.44

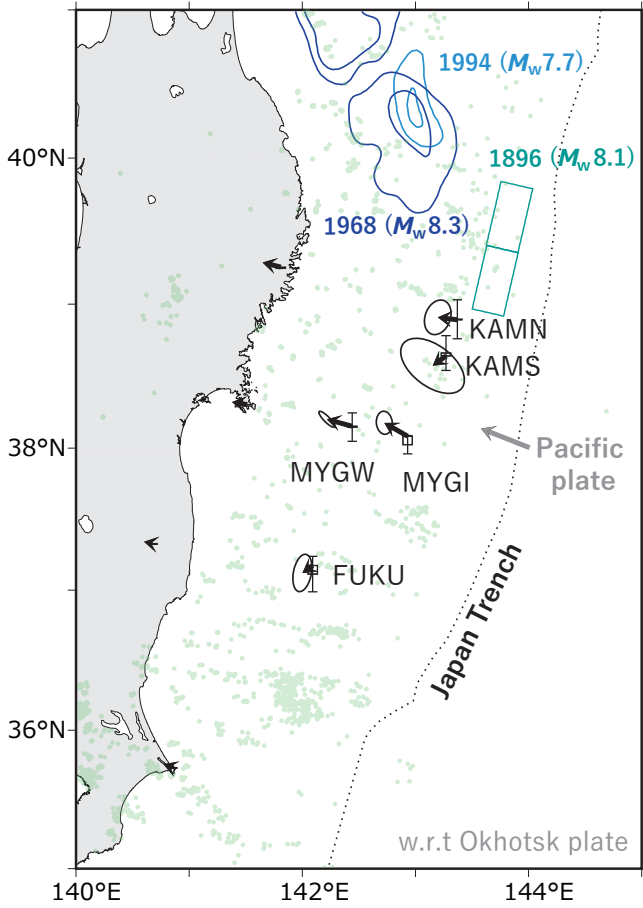
(c) Three-year cumulative displacement from Apr. 2014 to Apr. 2017.

Site	Displacement (cm)			Variance-covariance (cm ²)			
	E-ward	N-ward	U-ward	V(E,E)	V(E,N)	V(N,N)	V(U,U)
KAMN	-17.0	4.4	-5.6	0.78	0.65	-0.24	1.84
KAMS	-22.0	6.8	-7.0	2.56	1.73	-0.86	2.26
MYGI	-20.1	7.6	-10.6	1.22	1.14	0.11	1.68
MYGW	-3.3	-2.2	-8.6	0.61	0.70	0.13	1.63
FUKU	5.7	-6.8	-15.5	0.61	0.86	-0.27	1.44
CHOS	1.5	-1.0	0.3	0.61	1.92	0.30	2.19
TU08	-25.5	10.5	-3.7	10.39	6.56	-5.44	15.66
TU10	-28.0	13.2	-4.9	6.41	19.65	-1.75	17.88
TU12	-38.7	17.1	-7.0	10.36	14.54	-2.31	14.64
TU14	-21.2	7.4	-12.2	1.58	1.96	-0.94	3.55
TU17	6.7	-10.4	-0.5	23.65	9.54	2.44	57.68

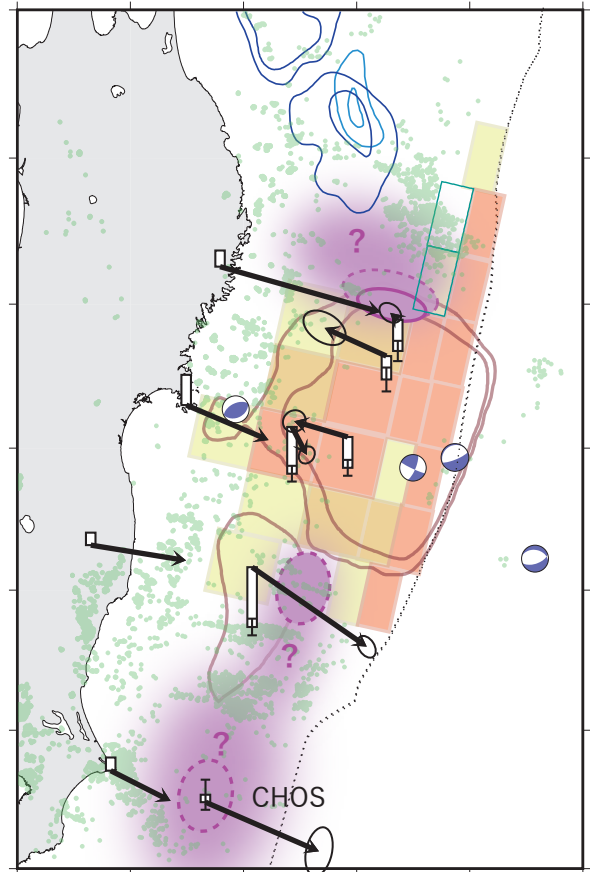
(d) Three-year cumulative displacement from Apr. 2017 to Apr. 2020.

Site	Displacement (cm)			Variance-covariance (cm ²)			
	E-ward	N-ward	U-ward	V(E,E)	V(E,N)	V(N,N)	V(U,U)
KAMN	-20.5	5.3	-3.7	1.61	1.35	-0.49	3.80
KAMS	-22.3	8.1	-6.5	4.78	3.22	-1.59	4.21
MYGI	-20.7	7.4	-8.8	2.49	2.32	0.21	3.42
MYGW	-7.2	-0.4	-6.1	1.24	1.42	0.26	3.32
FUKU	-0.1	-1.1	-12.4	1.20	1.70	-0.54	2.82
CHOS	-2.2	2.0	-2.0	1.00	3.15	0.49	3.60
TU08	-18.5	10.8	4.0	15.90	10.03	-8.33	23.96
TU10	-26.0	17.5	0.5	13.18	40.40	-3.59	36.77
TU12	-28.4	19.3	6.2	19.49	27.35	-4.34	27.54
TU14	-18.2	7.7	-6.1	2.45	3.02	-1.46	5.49
TU17	-3.6	-4.2	15.4	46.94	18.92	4.84	114.47

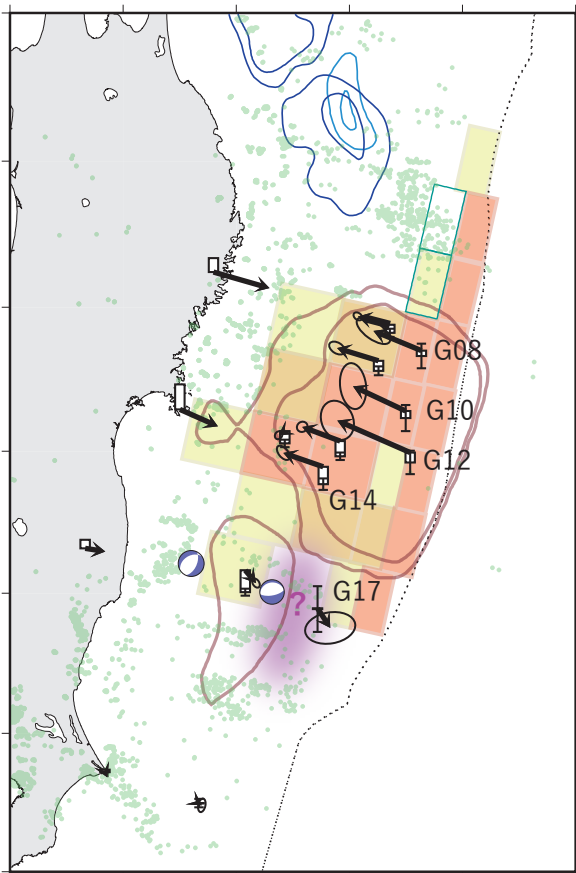
a. Before 2011



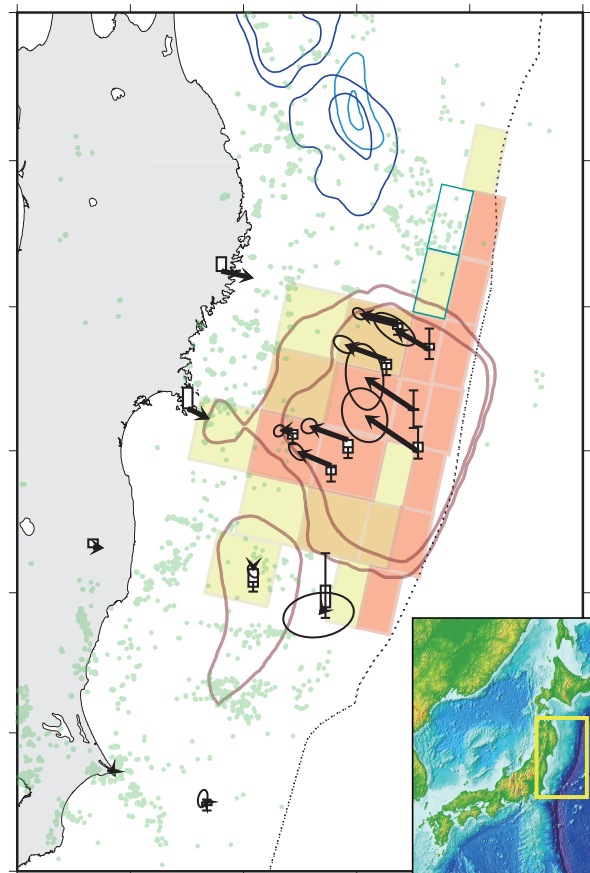
b. Apr. 2011 - Apr. 2014



c. Apr. 2014 - Apr. 2017



d. Apr. 2017 - Apr. 2020



Displacement (obs.)

5 cm/y 95%CL
* 15 cm for (b) - (d)

Possible afterslip
* no resolution for spread



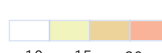
Coseismic slip distributions

Geodesy-derived



10 m & 20 m contours
linuma et al. (2012)

Tsunami-derived



10 m 15 m 20 m
Satake et al. (2013)

Historical earthquakes

(in northern area)

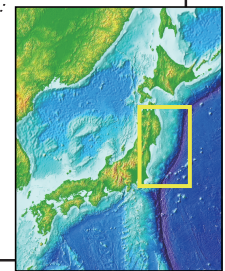
2 m and 4 m contours
Nagai et al. (2001)

Patches of 20 m
Satake et al. (2017)

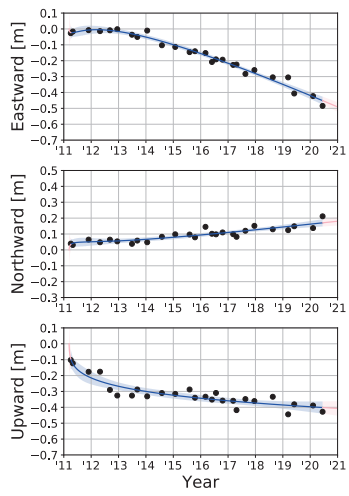
Earthquakes

Major aftershock
JMA catalogue

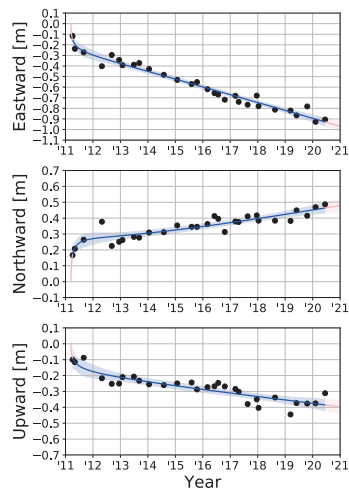
Repeater
Igarashi (2020)



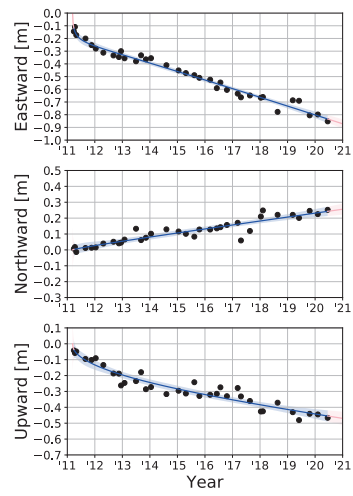
a. KAMN



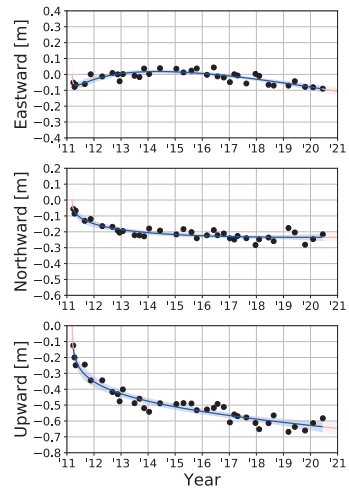
b. KAMS



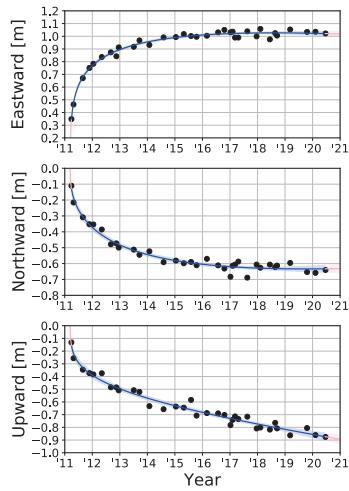
c. MYGI



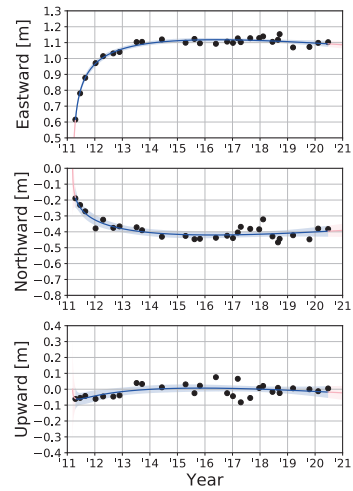
d. MYGW



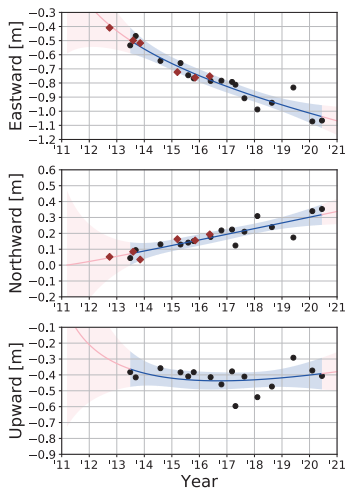
e. FUKU



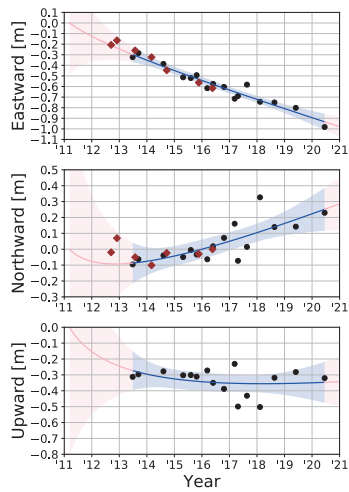
f. CHOS



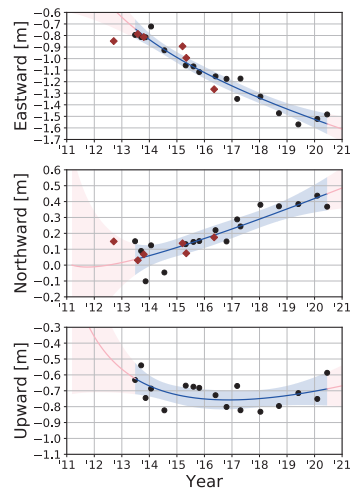
g. G08



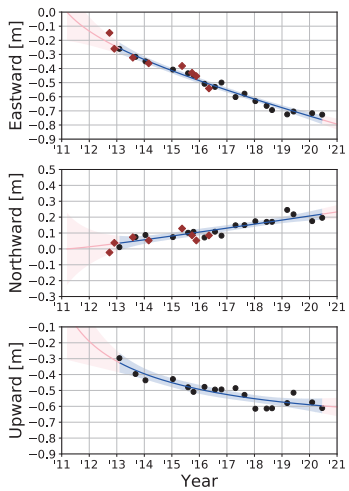
h. G10



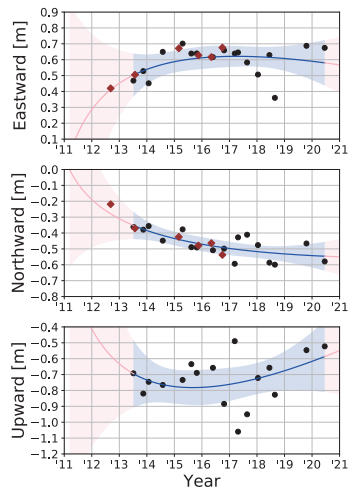
i. G12

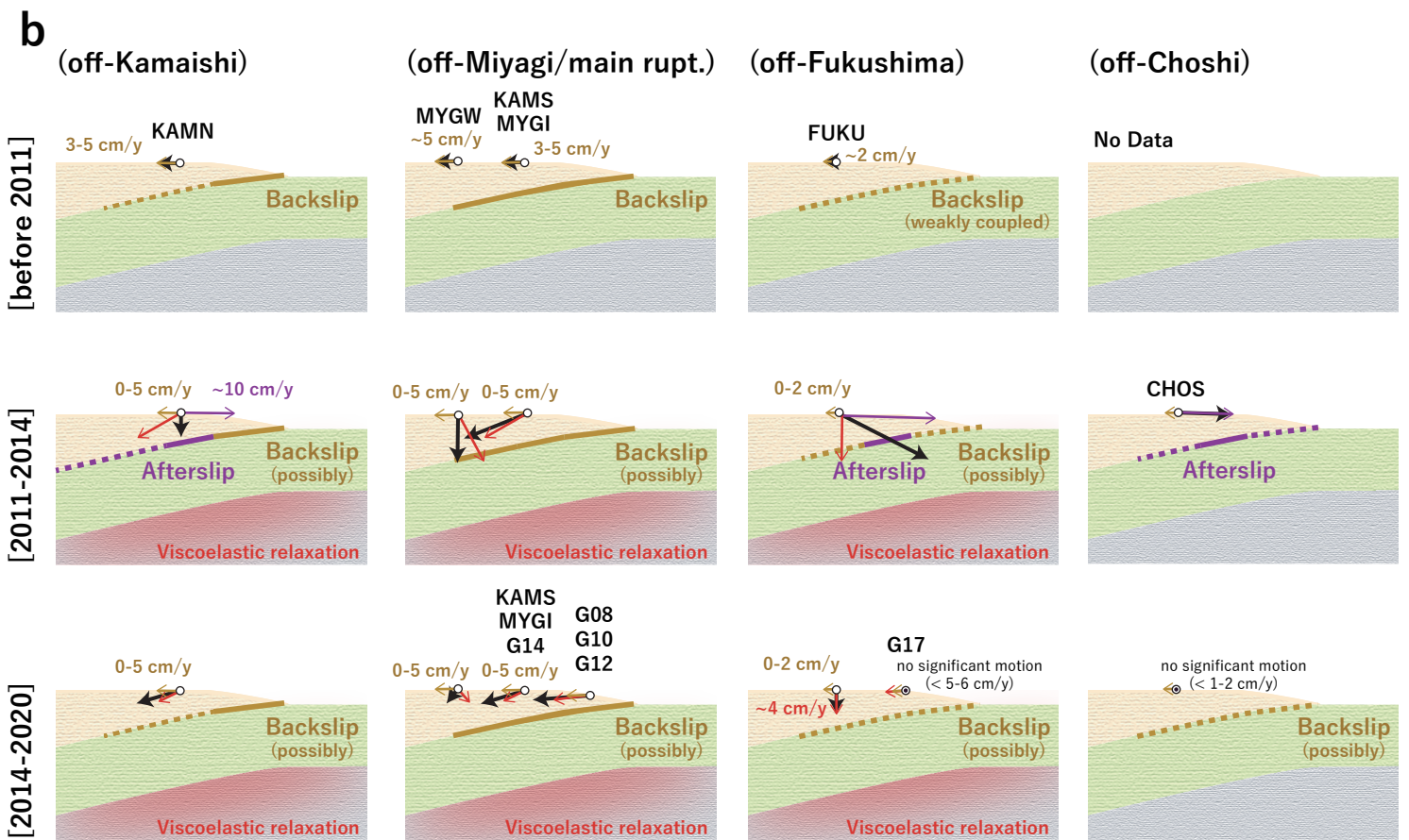
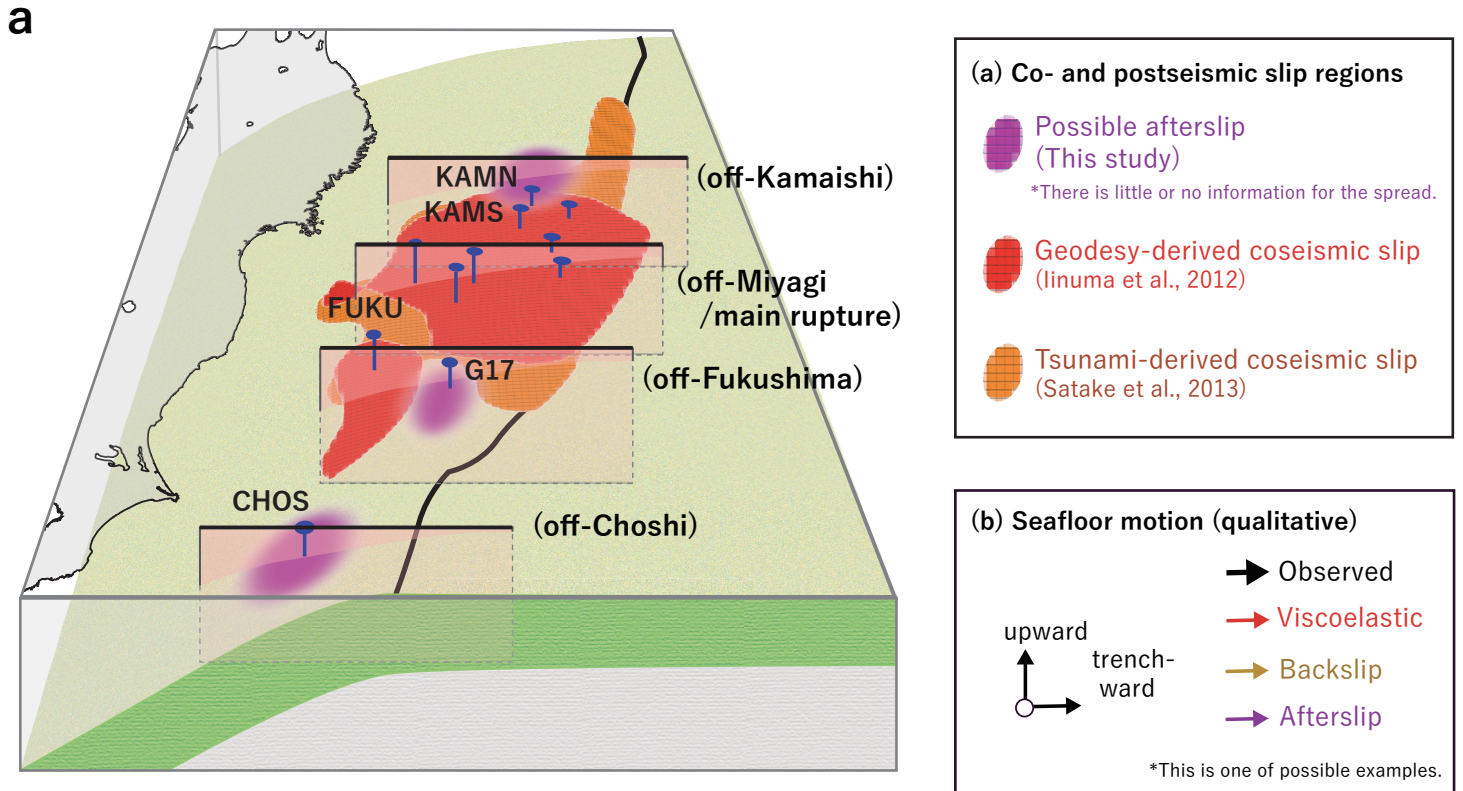


j. G14



k. G17





Co- and postseismic slip behaviors extracted from decadal seafloor geodesy after the 2011 Tohoku-oki earthquake

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References

Overview.

Figure S1 shows schematic diagrams of the GNSS-A observation operated by the Japan Coast Guard. Figures S2 shows the time series of preseismic seafloor displacements with respect to the Okhotsk plate. Text S1 describes the validations for the GNSS-A results obtained at G17, which has lower precision than the other sites. Figure S3 shows the actual track lines during the GNSS-A campaign observations at G17, which is referenced in Text S1. Texts S2 and S3 discuss the validity or invalidity of afterslip contributions to the GNSS-A data in the northern and southern regions, respectively. Figures S4 and S5 show the contributions of interplate dislocations to the GNSS-A sites in the northern and southern regions, respectively. Table S1 shows the reference locations of the GNSS-A sites.

Text S1.

The previous study performed by the TU research group (Honsho et al., 2019) showed an average velocity of approximately 10 cm/year toward the trench at G17 in a period between 2012 and 2016 and is consistent with our results of the period after 2014, which we are discussing in this study. However, the results at G17 indicated a lower positioning precision compared to the other sites. There should be several reasons as

follows: Firstly, mirror transponders installed at G17 frequently misrecognized their identification numbers for acoustic ranging, which are necessary to distinguish the transponder that responded to the acoustic signal. Secondly, the on-board systems on some vessels were unable to perform acoustic ranging longer than 10 seconds so that the track line had to be shrunken, until restoration in 2019 (Figure S3). In practice, lack of acoustic data from the outside of the transponder array significantly degrades the positioning accuracy (Nakamura et al., 2021). These errors have also occurred at G12, but G17 seemed to be affected more significantly. The difference between G12 and G17 might be caused by the transponder arrangement or the complexity in the seawater sound speed structure. Although we cannot quantify the positioning accuracy, the results from late 2016 to 2018 tend to contain larger uncertainty than in the other period with wider track line.

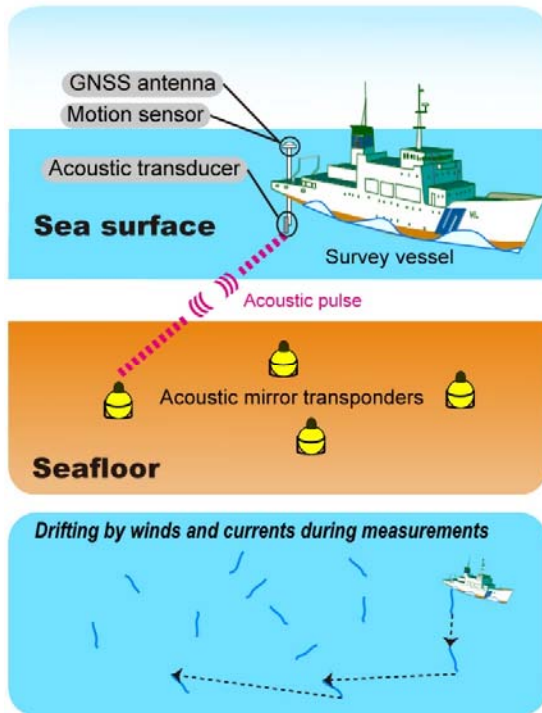
Text S2.

We examine how interplate afterslip can reproduce the relative trench-ward (ESE-ward) seafloor movements of 10 cm/year at KAMN with respect to KAMS. We calculated the displacements at KAMN and KAMS caused by a dislocation on each 5 km x 5 km subfault placed at intervals of 0.5° in latitude and longitude, in an elastic half-space medium (Okada, 1992). For simplification, strike, dip, and rake angles of the subfaults are fixed to 195°, 13°, and 90°, respectively. The depths of the subfaults are referenced to Nakajima and Hasegawa (2006). Figure S4 shows the subfaults' contributions to the seafloor movements at KAMN and KAMS. The subfaults located beneath and in the northern side of KAMN significantly contribute to the generation of a relative trench-ward motion at KAMN (green region in Figure S4a). Because the surface displacement from a unit slip on a subfault is $O(10^{-3})$, roughly 100 subfaults with a 1 m/year slip can reproduce the relative velocity of 0.1 m/year. This is equivalent to a 50 km x 50 km rectangular fault. There is no resolution for the slip in the white region in Figure S4a, which indicates that our data cannot resolve the afterslip in these regions.

Text S3.

We examine the coupling of subsidence and trench-ward (ESE-ward) motion at FUKU caused by interplate afterslip. We calculated the displacements at FUKU caused by a dislocation on each 5 km x 5 km subfault placed at intervals of 0.5° in latitude and longitude, in an elastic half-space medium (Okada, 1992). For simplification, strike, dip, and rake angles of subfault are fixed to 200°, 13°, and 90°, respectively. The depths of the subfaults are referenced to Nakajima and Hasegawa (2006). Figure S5 shows the subfaults' contributions to the seafloor movements at FUKU. Almost all of the subfaults causing subsidence at FUKU (blue region in Figure S5b) simultaneously cause significant trench-ward motion (green region in Figure S5a).

a. Drifting observation (until 2009)



b. Sailing observation (after 2009)

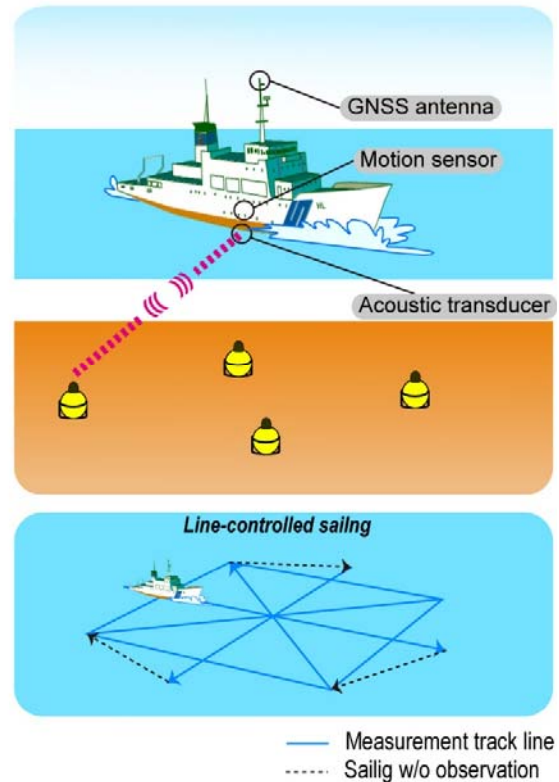


Figure S1. Schematic diagrams of the GNSS-A observation. Observation configurations for (a) drifting and (b) sailing systems are shown.

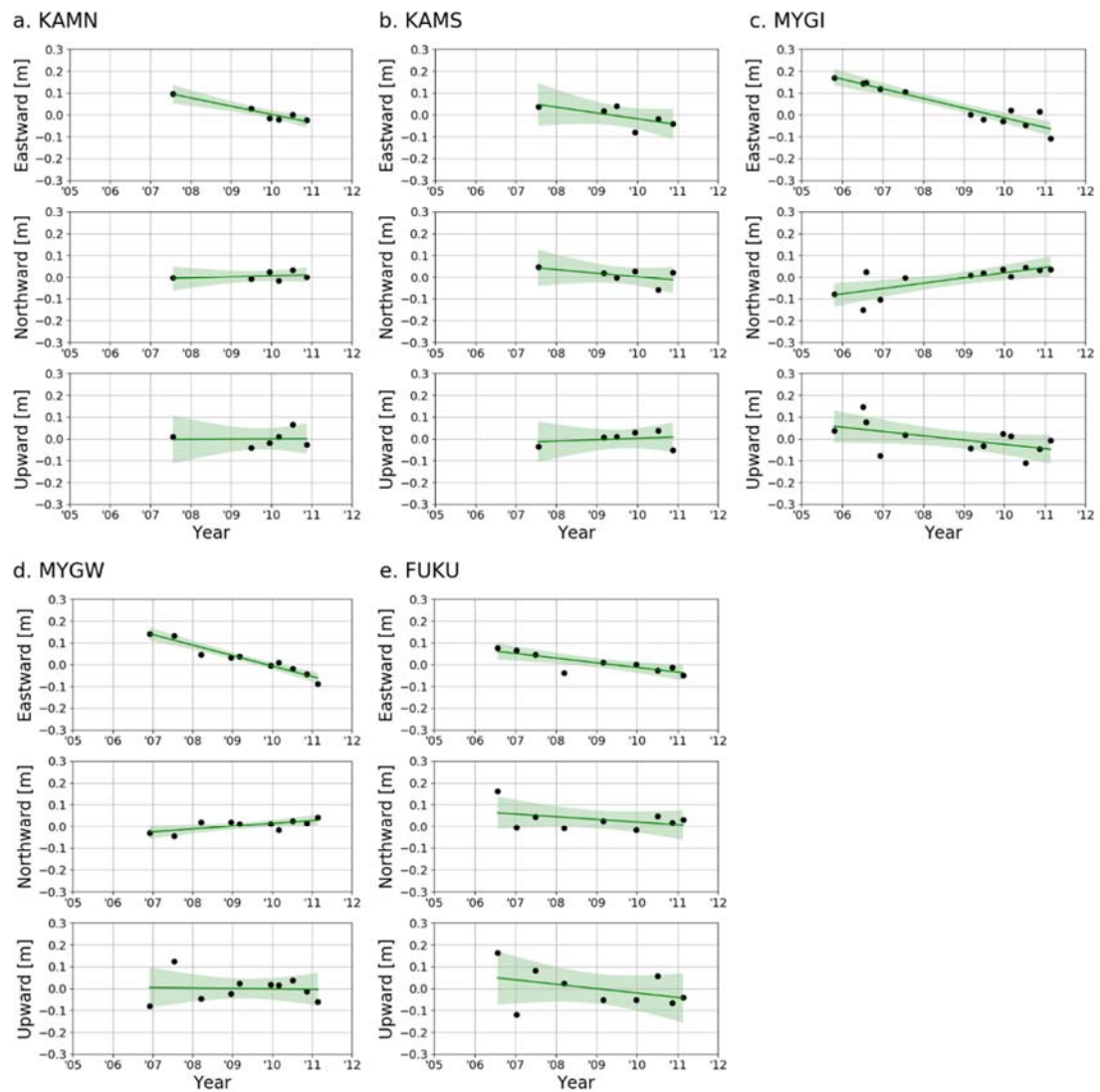


Figure S2. Time series of preseismic seafloor displacement. Displacements with respect to the Okhotsk plate of NNR-MORVEL56 model (Argus et al., 2011) are shown (black circles). Average velocities and their 95 % confidence intervals are shown as solid lines and shaded areas, respectively.

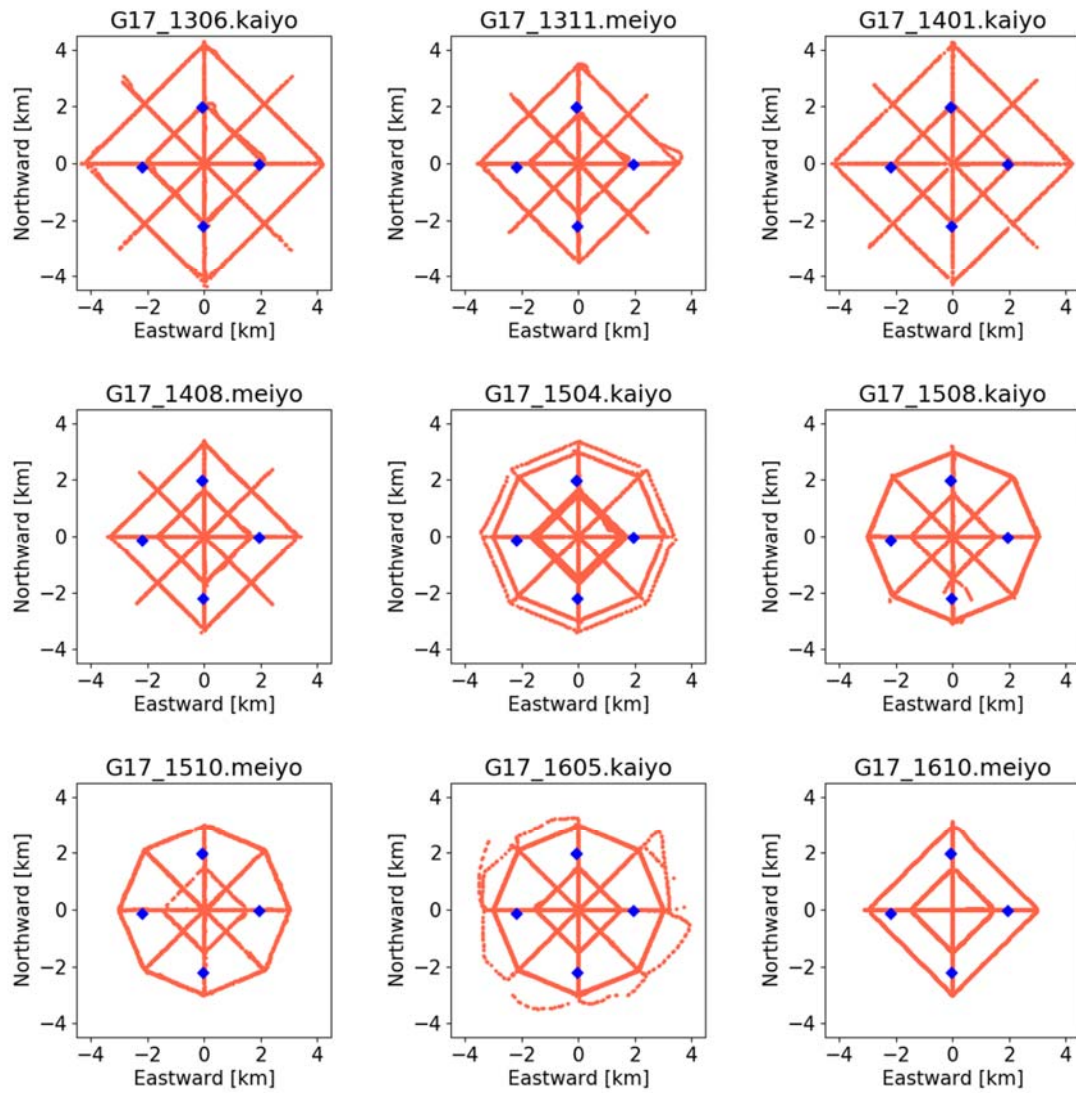


Figure S3. Track lines at G17. Orange dots and blue squares indicate the positions of the surface transducer for each acoustic data and the seafloor transponders, respectively. Titles on each panel shows the 4-digit year-month and the name of the used vessel.

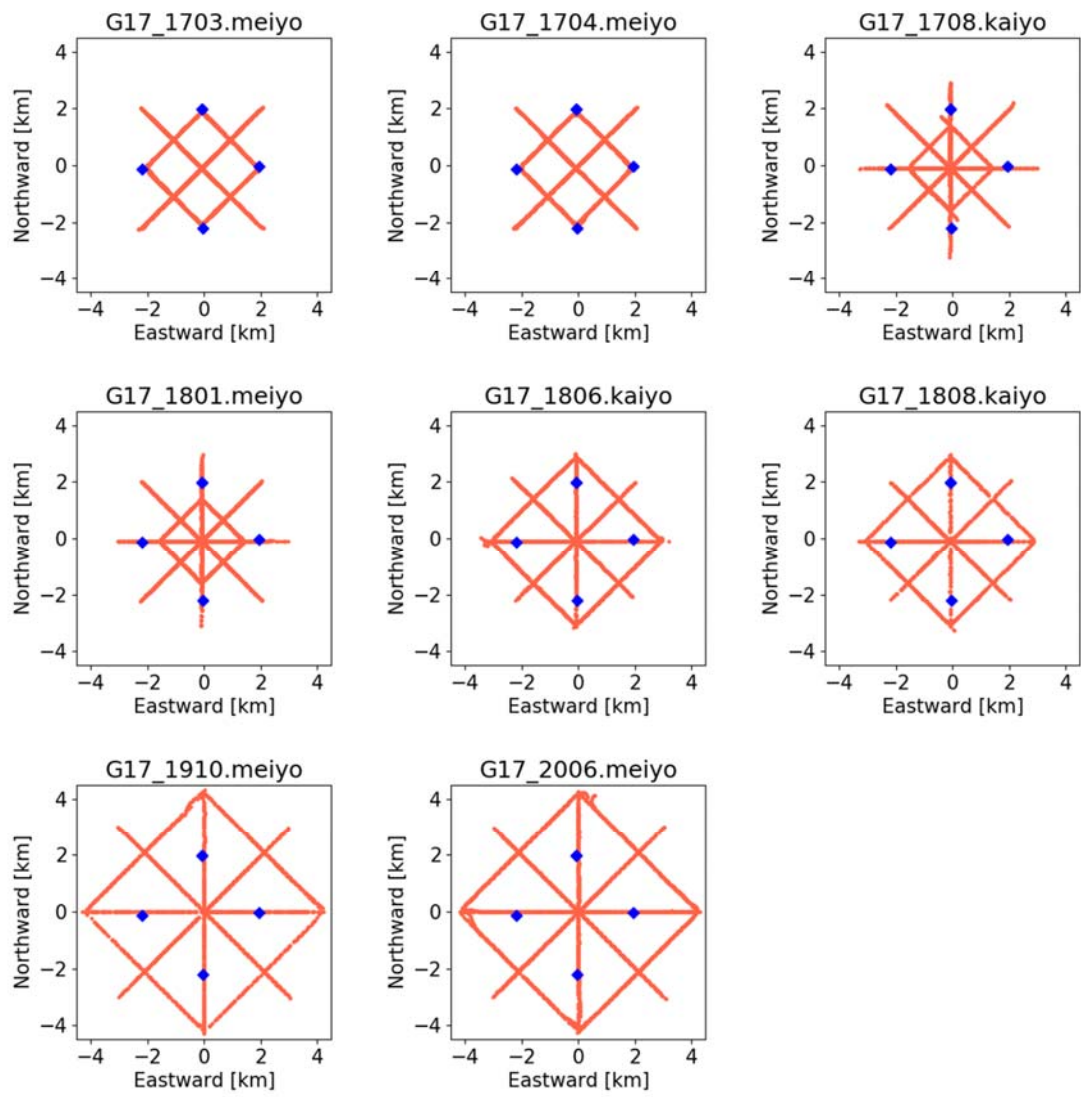


Figure S3. Track lines at G17 (continued).

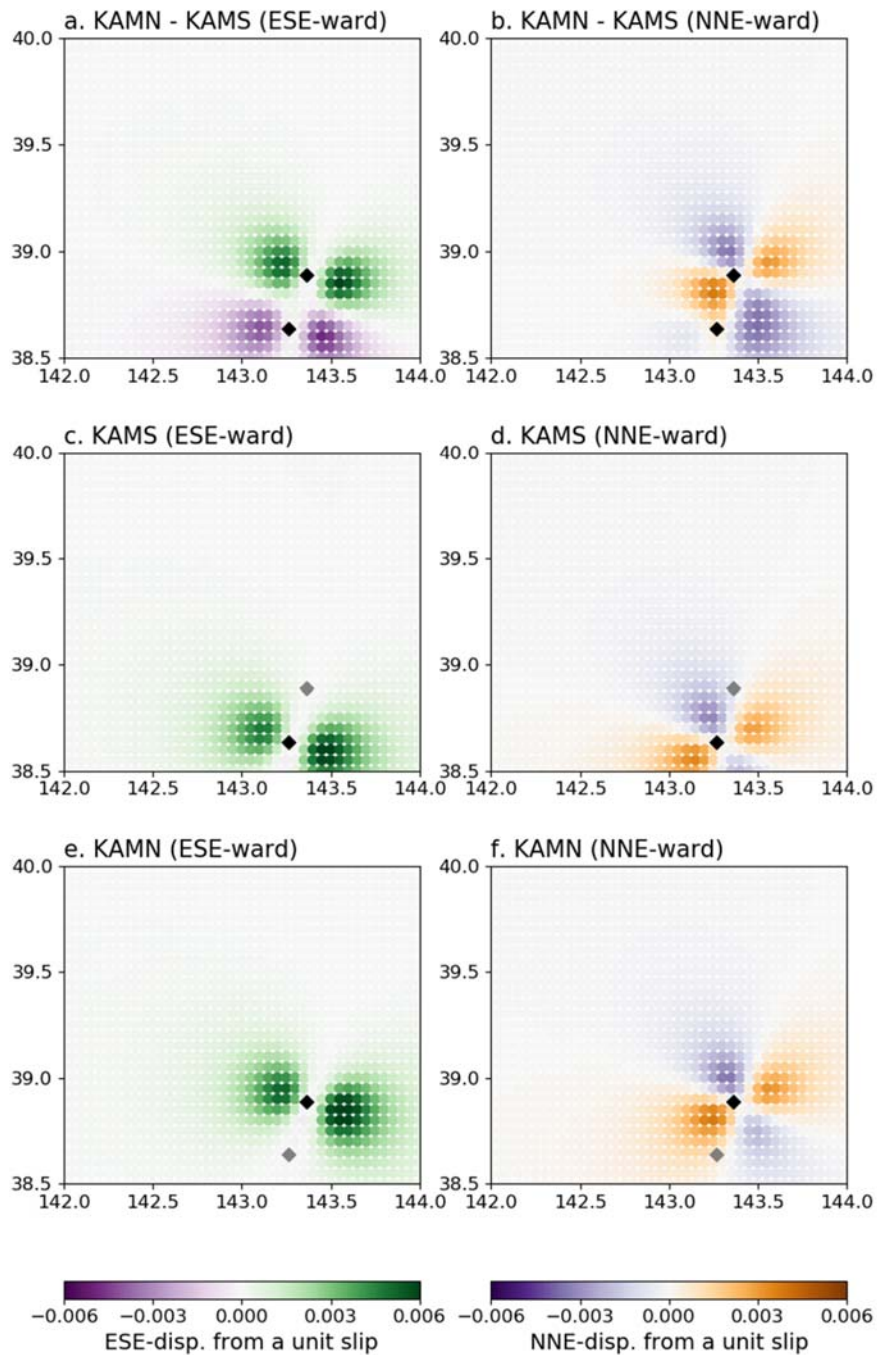


Figure S4. Contributions of the subfaults to (a)–(b) relative horizontal displacement at KAMN relative to KAMS, and (c)–(f) horizontal displacements at KAMN and KAMS. Strike, dip, and rake angles of the subfaults are fixed to 195°, 13°, and 90°, respectively. Black and gray squares indicate the locations of GNSS-A sites (KAMN and KAMS) in concern and not in concern in the panel, respectively.

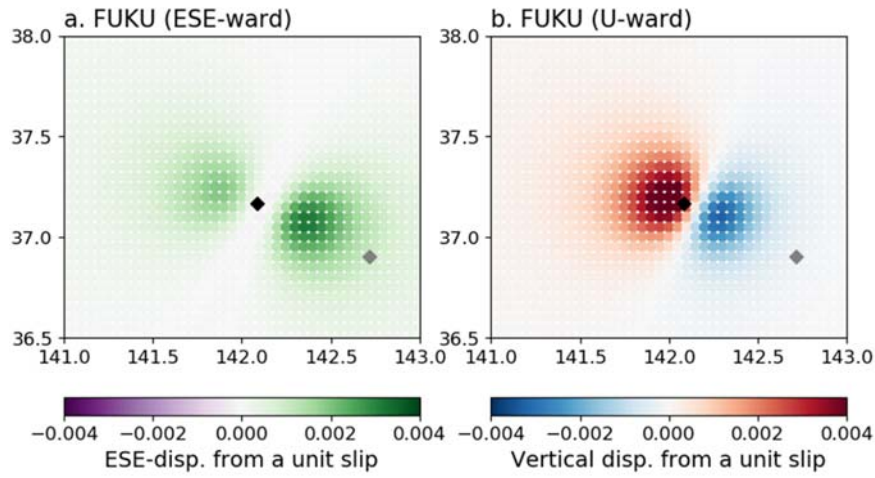


Figure S5. Contributions of the subfaults to (a) ESE-ward and (b) upward displacements at FUKU. Strike, dip, and rake angles of the subfaults are fixed to 200°, 13°, and 90°, respectively. Black and gray squares indicate the locations of FUKU and G17, respectively.

Table S1. Reference locations of GNSS-A sites.

Site	Longitude (°E)	Latitude (°N)
KAMN	143.363	38.886
KAMS	143.263	38.636
MYGI	142.917	38.083
MYGW	142.433	38.150
FUKU	142.083	37.167
CHOS	141.669	35.503
G08	143.643	38.720
G10	143.483	38.300
G12	143.533	38.020
G14	142.775	37.892
G17	142.717	36.900

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