

Largest aftershock nucleation driven by afterslip during the 2014 Iquique sequence

Yuji Itoh^{1*}, Anne Socquet¹ and Mathilde Radiguet¹

¹Univ. Grenoble Alpes, Univ. Savoie Mont Blanc, CNRS, IRD, Univ. Gustave Eiffel, ISTerre, 38000 Grenoble, France

*Corresponding author: Yuji Itoh (yuji.itoh@univ-grenoble-alpes.fr)

Abstract

Various earthquake source models predict that aseismic slip modulates the seismic rupture process. However, observations of aseismic slip associated with earthquakes are scarce, which has left the earthquake source model controversial. Here, we characterise seismic and aseismic processes for 3 days during the 2014 Iquique earthquake sequence in northern Chile by analysing seismicity and crustal deformation time series measured by high-rate Global Positioning System (GPS). We demonstrate that the early afterslip started immediately after the M 8.1 mainshock and led to the largest M 7.6 aftershock 27 hours later, located ~120 km to the south. At the mainshock latitude, the interevent early afterslip is located downdip of the mainshock rupture, and is associated with aftershocks. These afterslip and aftershocks exhibit a rapid temporal decay. In contrast, south of the mainshock slip patch, a peak of afterslip separates the mainshock rupture from the largest aftershock, suggesting that this area acted as a barrier to the southward propagation of the mainshock rupture. Seismicity count and moment accelerate in this southern area during the interevent stage. We conclude that the largest aftershock nucleation was driven by the interevent afterslip. The mechanical connection between sequential great earthquakes can therefore be mediated by aseismic slip.

Main text

Subduction zone megathrust faults host diverse slip behaviours. Seismic (fast with large shaking) and aseismic (slow with little or no shaking) slip are two complementary classes¹ that interact with each other. Mechanical models of the earthquake source process have been developed by laboratory experiments and analytical or numerical simulations²⁻⁶. These models show that seismic-aseismic interaction is commonly involved in nucleation, propagation and termination of seismic ruptures, as well as during the post-seismic phase which involves both afterslip and aftershocks. Observational evidence of nucleation is, however, limited to a small number of well-monitored large earthquakes due to their subtle signals and/or short duration⁷⁻²⁰. Although seismic processes are resolved at time scales down to seconds, subdaily dynamics of aseismic processes are poorly documented, because GPS coordinates used for its investigation are usually limited to a daily sampling interval. Observation of aseismic processes with higher temporal resolution is required to unravel the dynamics of seismic-aseismic interaction, notably during nucleation. Large earthquakes are followed by aftershocks²¹ that relax stress change induced by the mainshock. The largest aftershock follows the mainshock with a spatial offset and time delay that can vary greatly from one case to the other^{16,22-27}. However, the mechanism for this delay is not well understood. The propagation of seismic ruptures are often arrested at adjacent patches, prone to slow

45 slip²⁸⁻³⁰. Spatiotemporal aftershock evolution is often modulated by background aseismic slip³¹.
46 Therefore, seismic-aseismic interaction could provide a causal link in the delayed occurrence of the
47 largest aftershock. Nevertheless, direct observational evidence of the interaction processes is lacking.
48 The 2014 M 8.1 Iquique earthquake in northern Chile along the Nazca megathrust is known as one of
49 the events preceded by vigorous precursory seismic and aseismic activities¹⁶⁻²⁰. Its largest aftershock
50 (M 7.6, Fig. 1a)^{17,22-25} occurred only ~120 km south of, and ~27 hours following the mainshock.
51 Interevent processes between the two events have so far remained elusive, because the very short
52 duration is challenging with the daily GPS data. This study investigates source processes during the
53 2014 Iquique sequence and their implications for earthquake mechanics by unveiling the interevent
54 aseismic processes using high-rate GPS and comparing them with seismicity.

55

56 **Discovery of aseismic deformation and slip during the 2014 Iquique sequence**

57 We identified transient crustal deformation during the 27 hour period between the 2014 Iquique
58 mainshock and the largest aftershock by analysing high-rate GPS coordinates at an interval of 5
59 minutes (Figs. 1c-e). After removing spatiotemporally correlated noise (Extended Data Fig. 1; See
60 Methods), a slow transient motion between the mainshock and its largest aftershock is clearly visible
61 (Figs. 1c-e and Extended Data Figs. 2a-c). Following the largest aftershock, a similar transient
62 motion emerged again, but a larger amplitude is observed near the aftershock's epicentre (Figs. 1c-
63 e). We fitted a trajectory model consisting of step and logarithmic functions to the cleaned time
64 series and obtained displacements during four stages, namely, the interevent, the post-largest-
65 aftershock, and the two coseismic stages, from the model prediction (See Methods). This approach
66 allowed us to robustly extract cumulative displacements (Fig. 1b and Extended Data Figs. 2d and 3a-
67 f). Interevent displacements point towards the source area at most GPS sites (Fig. 1b), indicating a
68 trenchward postseismic deformation pattern typical for offshore megathrust events³²⁻³³. These
69 surface observations are compatible with the occurrence of afterslip. Two-day postseismic
70 displacements following the largest aftershock similarly indicate trenchward motion but with a
71 different spatial pattern; the largest displacement is observed near the epicentre of the largest
72 aftershock, indicating that it additionally excited afterslip (Extended Data Fig. 3c). We imaged the
73 slip distribution along the megathrust by inverting the extracted surface displacements associated
74 with the aseismic slip and both earthquakes (See Methods, Fig. 2 and Extended Data Figs. 2e and 3g-
75 h). This allows us to depict the interplay of seismic and aseismic slip in a methodologically
76 consistent manner, although many other models were already published^{17,20,22-25}.

77

78 **Interplay of seismic and aseismic slip and implications for megathrust** 79 **segmentation**

80 The imaged interevent cumulative afterslip has two peaks (blue contours in Fig. 2a and Extended
81 Data Fig. 2e). The largest afterslip peak is located down-dip of the mainshock slip (Fig. 2a), a typical
82 afterslip feature due to the depth-dependent change in megathrust rheology¹. Moderate seismicity
83 (aftershocks) down-dip of the mainshock slip³⁴ is located next to this afterslip peak. Moderate
84 seismicity up-dip of the mainshock slip may contain repeating earthquakes²⁴, implying another peak
85 of afterslip, which is, however, not resolvable with land GPS observations alone. The other resolved
86 afterslip peak is located south of the mainshock slip peak, at a seismogenic depth with moderate
87 seismicity. This peak of slip is not an artefact of the inversion, but is supported by the displacements
88 recorded at coastal sites at ~20.2°S (Extended Data Fig. 4). The two-day afterslip following the
89 largest aftershock is also located close to these two peaks with different amplitudes; the slip is larger

90 in the southern region close to the largest aftershock (green contours in Fig. 2 and Extended Data
91 Fig. 3i). The afterslip distribution over a longer 9-month period³³ contains these two afterslip areas,
92 indicating that they represent an aseismic megathrust.

93 The inferred interevent afterslip located between the two epicentres explains the spatial separation of
94 the mainshock and its largest aftershock (Fig. 2). Fault zones prone to hosting aseismic creep are
95 usually not involved in the dynamic seismic rupture²⁸⁻³⁰. Hence, this interevent afterslip area likely
96 acted as an aseismic barrier to the southward propagation of the mainshock rupture²²⁻²⁵ (Fig. 3b), and
97 delayed the rupture of the seismic asperity associated with the largest aftershock, despite a positive
98 mainshock Coulomb Stress Change (CSC)²¹ at the largest aftershock epicentre (Extended Data Fig.
99 5a). This aseismic barrier was proposed by a previous study of afterslip for 9 months following the
100 largest aftershock³³. The occurrence of interevent afterslip in this same area unambiguously confirms
101 the barrier behaviour. We speculate that such aseismic barrier behaviour at seismogenic depths is
102 hosted by irregular megathrust geometry³⁵ inferred offshore of Iquique from gravity anomaly data³⁶⁻
103 ³⁷, subparallel faults along the megathrust³⁸ and seamounts at depth³⁹ (Fig. 1a and Extended Data
104 Fig. 6).

105 The megathrust offshore of Iquique has shown creeping behaviour at different stages of the seismic
106 cycle (Fig. 3a). Different long-term interseismic locking models tend to show lower degrees of
107 locking to the south and north of the mainshock section (Fig. 3b)⁴⁰⁻⁴². The pre-mainshock aseismic
108 transient over 8 months (black contours in Figs. 3a-b)¹⁸ overlaps with these aseismic slip regions.
109 Therefore, one possible interpretation is that these regions represent persistent aseismic barriers to
110 adjacent megathrust ruptures²⁸⁻³⁰ (Fig. 3b) as a zone of velocity-strengthening friction⁶. However, in
111 the southern offshore Iquique area at $\sim 20.5^{\circ}\text{S}$, the along-strike location of the inferred aseismic
112 barrier does not coincide with the segmentation boundary of the 1868 M_w 8.8 South Peru and the
113 1877 M_w 8.5 Northern Chile earthquakes, although it is in the 1877 rupture area (Figs. 1a and 4b and
114 Extended Data Fig. 6)⁴³⁻⁴⁴. As it was partly involved with the largest aftershock rupture (Fig. 2), it is
115 not a permanent barrier, and can therefore be broken during larger earthquakes⁵. In contrast, we
116 speculate that the northern area is a persistent aseismic barrier because it coincides with the possible
117 end of the 1877 rupture (Fig. 1a), as well as excess fluid pressure along the megathrust⁴⁵. There is
118 another afterslip peak overlapping with the 8-month pre-mainshock slip peak at greater depth (Fig.
119 3a), which implies the persistent aseismic behaviour controlled by a ductile fault rheology¹.

120

121 **Afterslip drove the largest aftershock nucleation**

122 The temporal evolution of the interevent seismicity, deformation and slip can provide further details
123 on the interplay between seismic and aseismic slip that led to the largest aftershock. We investigate
124 the interevent site motion by calculating the moving median of the cleaned GPS time series (window
125 length = 0.5 days) (Fig. 4b; See Methods). This approach keeps more information from the original
126 observations than the trajectory model fits for which time constants are poorly constrained (Extended
127 Data Fig. 7). Motograms of the smoothed time series display coherent trenchward motion in front of
128 the interevent afterslip area, concordant at the first order with the trajectory model fit (Figs. 1b and
129 4a). Coastal sites near Iquique, in front of the southern interevent afterslip area, show a southward
130 deflection of the motion during the late interevent stage, starting ~ 15 hours after the mainshock (Fig.
131 4a). This temporal change in displacement pattern is more clearly illustrated by a separate analysis of
132 the first and second halves of the interevent stage. The motion of sites near the mainshock decay
133 more rapidly than sites at the largest aftershock latitude (Figs. 4e-f), which can be interpreted as
134 reflecting a temporal change in the slip pattern.

135 We inverted the GPS displacements during these two time windows to image the temporal evolution
136 of the interevent slip, which should be mostly aseismic with some seismic contribution from
137 moderate seismicity, including the M 6.1 event which occurs ~45 minutes before the largest
138 aftershock⁴⁶ (Figs. 4e-f; See Methods). We spatially divided the studied area north and south of
139 20.2°S to highlight the first-order contrast in the temporal processes in the mainshock and the largest
140 aftershock areas. We calculated the geodetic moment of the two stages in each area and normalised
141 them by the cumulative value to better illustrate the difference in the temporal process (Fig. 4d).
142 For seismicity, we employed a machine-learning-based catalogue which lists many moderate
143 aftershocks³⁴ (Figs. 2a and 4e-g) among available catalogues^{34,46-47}. We calculated the cumulative
144 seismicity count and moment in the two areas and normalised them, as was done for the geodetic
145 moment (Figs. 4c-d; See Methods).
146 In the northern area, where the afterslip is located in the down-dip extension of the mainshock, the
147 interevent slip and its geodetic moment decay quickly (Figs. 4e-f); the moment release ratio between
148 the second and the first stages (hereafter, RM) is only 24%. The moment evolution inferred from
149 seismicity also shows a similar tendency (RM = 9%, see Fig. 4d), despite the gentler decay of
150 seismicity counts during the second stage than the geodetic moment (Fig. 4c), because most of the
151 larger events occurred during the first stage (Fig. 4g). The locations of the peak slip and of the
152 seismicity do not coincide, but the moderate aftershocks and afterslip probably coevolve here.
153 In contrast, in the southern area, the geodetic slip and the seismicity exhibit quite different temporal
154 evolution histories (Figs. 4c-d). The geodetic slip decays over time with a slower moment decay than
155 in the northern area (Figs. 4d-f; RM = 38%) while the seismicity rate increases with time, together
156 with a great increase of intermittent moment release, dominated by the M 6.1 event that occurs at the
157 extreme end of the interevent stage. (Figs. 4c-g; RM >= 500%). These seismicity events do not
158 exhibit clear southward migration, although aftershock migration is typically found following great
159 earthquakes and is possibly driven by afterslip^{26,31}. The M 6.1 event occurred close to the largest
160 aftershock epicentre (~32 km), which might be an indication of a cascade-up process during the
161 largest aftershock nucleation phase driven only by stress change of each event in the pre-event
162 sequence⁴⁸. However, the evidence of continuous geodetic slip does not favour this interpretation.
163 The nucleation process of the Iquique largest aftershock seems rather to be a mixture of seismic and
164 aseismic processes. This scenario favours the rate-dependent cascade-up model which proposes that
165 either concurrent precursor aseismic slip and associated seismicity can ignite the mainshock dynamic
166 rupture². Rough fault geometry can be responsible for such seismic-aseismic mixture during the
167 nucleation process³⁻⁴, consistent with the irregular megathrust structure offshore of Iquique³⁶⁻³⁹ (Fig.
168 1a and Extended Data Fig. 6). We interpret the negative CSC, due to the interevent slip in the largest
169 aftershock epicentral area, as a cumulative stress drop of the aseismic driver (Extended Data Fig. 5b).
170 However, the cascading seismicity, especially the M 6.1 event, probably loaded the largest
171 aftershock epicentre instantaneously during the interevent stage.

172

173 **Discussion and Conclusions**

174 By analysing the 5-min GPS coordinates, we discovered that the aseismic portion of the megathrust
175 separated, both in space and time, the 2014 Iquique mainshock from its largest aftershock. Similarly,
176 other megathrust earthquakes in Japan and Chile are known to have involved spatiotemporally close
177 large earthquake sequences and interevent afterslip²⁶⁻²⁷. These examples, coupled with our findings,
178 indicate that the local mosaic of seismic and aseismic slip patches must play an important role in
179 controlling the sequential activity of large megathrust earthquakes.

180 Furthermore, we found, by investigating the temporal history of interevent seismic and aseismic
181 processes, that the largest aftershock nucleation was driven by the mainshock-induced afterslip. The
182 interplay of precursory seismic and aseismic processes has been reported for some events including
183 the 2011 M_w 9.0 Tohoku-oki earthquake and the Iquique mainshock⁷⁻²⁰. Some of these aseismic
184 precursors represent spontaneous slow slip with^{8,10-12,15,19} or without¹³⁻¹⁴ acceleration, while some
185 represent decaying afterslip of the main foreshock⁷ (including our result). Hence, the large
186 earthquake nucleation phase does not necessarily involve accelerating aseismic slip^{3,14}; aseismic slip
187 in any mode can introduce fault instability toward the subsequent event occurrence.
188 Careful re-examination of GPS data utilising high-rate processing would probably yield additional
189 examples of large earthquake nucleation processes triggered by aseismic slip at the hourly scale, and
190 would contribute significantly to our improved understanding of fault slip dynamics.

191

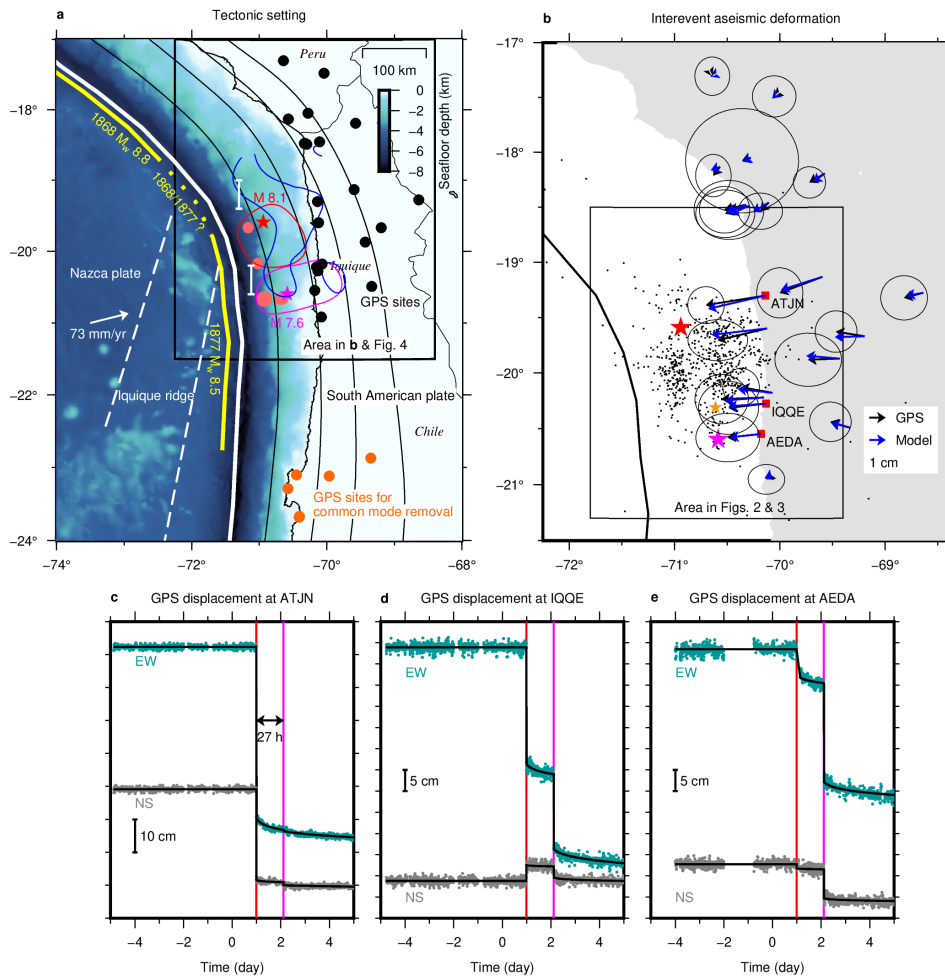
192 References

- 193 1. Scholz, C. Earthquakes and friction laws. *Nature* **391**, 37–42 (1998).
- 194 2. McLaskey, G. C. Earthquake Initiation From Laboratory Observations and Implications for
195 Foreshocks. *J. Geophys. Res.* **124**, 12882–12904 (2019).
- 196 3. Cattania, C. & Segall, P. Precursory slow slip and foreshocks on rough faults. *J. Geophys. Res.*
197 **126**, e2020JB020430 (2021).
- 198 4. Romanet, P., Bhat, H. S., Jolivet, R. et al. Fast and slow slip events emerge due to fault
199 geometrical complexity. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* **45**, 4809–4819 (2018).
- 200 5. Kaneko, Y., Avouac, J. P. & Lapusta, N. Towards inferring earthquake patterns from geodetic
201 observations of interseismic coupling. *Nat. Geosci.* **3**, 363–369 (2010).
- 202 6. Perfettini, H. & Avouac, J.-P. Postseismic relaxation driven by brittle creep: A possible
203 mechanism to reconcile geodetic measurements and the decay rate of aftershocks, application to
204 the Chi-Chi earthquake, Taiwan, *J. Geophys. Res.* **109**, B02304 (2004).
- 205 7. Ohta, Y., Hino, R., Inazu, D. et al. Geodetic constraints on afterslip characteristics following the
206 March 9, 2011, Sanriku-oki earthquake, Japan. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* **39**, L16304 (2012).
- 207 8. Caballero, E., Chounet, A., Duputel, Z et al. Seismic and aseismic fault slip during the initiation
208 phase of the 2017 $M_w = 6.9$ Valparaíso earthquake. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, **48**, e2020GL091916
209 (2021).
- 210 9. Ito, Y., Hino, R., Kido, M. et al. Episodic slow slip events in the Japan subduction zone before
211 the 2011 Tohoku-Oki earthquake. *Tectonophysics*. **600**, 14-26 (2013).
- 212 10. Kato, A., Obara K., Igarashi T. et al. Propagation of Slow Slip Leading Up to the 2011 M_w 9.0
213 Tohoku-Oki Earthquake. *Science* **335**, 705-708 (2012).
- 214 11. Marill, L., Marsan, D., Socquet, A. et al. Fourteen-year acceleration along the Japan Trench. *J.*
215 *Geophys. Res.* **126**, e2020JB021226. (2021).
- 216 12. Mavrommatis, A. P., Segall, P., & Johnson, K. M. A decadal-scale deformation transient prior to
217 the 2011 M_w 9.0 Tohoku-oki earthquake, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, **41**, 4486–4494 (2014).
- 218 13. Radiguet, M., Perfettini, H., Cotte, N. et al. Triggering of the 2014 M_w 7.3 Papanoa earthquake by
219 a slow slip event in Guerrero, Mexico. *Nature Geosci.* **9**, 829–833 (2016).
- 220 14. Voss N., Dixon T. H., Liu Z. et al. Do slow slip events trigger large and great megathrust
221 earthquakes? *Sci Adv* **4**, eaat8472 (2018).
- 222 15. Kato, A., Fukuda, J., Kumazawa, T. et al. Accelerated nucleation of the 2014 Iquique, Chile M_w
223 8.2 Earthquake. *Sci Rep* **6**, 24792 (2016).
- 224 16. Schurr, B., Asch, G., Hainzl, S. et al. Gradual unlocking of plate boundary controlled initiation of
225 the 2014 Iquique earthquake. *Nature* **512**, 299–302 (2014).
- 226 17. Ruiz, S., Metois, M., Fuenzalida, A. et al. Intense foreshocks and a slow slip event preceded the
227 2014 Iquique M_w 8.1 earthquake. *Science* **345**, 1165-1169 (2014)
- 228 18. Socquet, A., Valdes, J. P., Jara, J. et al. An 8 month slow slip event triggers progressive
229 nucleation of the 2014 Chile megathrust, *Geophys. Res. Lett.* **44**, 4046–4053 (2017).
- 230 19. Twardzik, C., Duputel, Z., Jolivet, R. et al. Bayesian inference on the initiation phase of the 2014
231 Iquique, Chile, earthquake. *Earth Planet. Sci. Lett.* **600**, 117835 (2022).
- 232 20. Boudin F., Bernard, P., Meneses, G. et al. Slow slip events precursory to the 2014 Iquique
233 Earthquake, revisited with long-base tilt and GPS records, *Geophys. J. Int.* **228**, 2092–2121
234 (2022).
- 235 21. King, G. C. P., Stein, S. S. & Lin, J. Static stress changes and the triggering of earthquakes.
236 *Bullet. Seismol. Soc. Am.* **84**, 935–953 (1994).
- 237 22. Duputel, Z., Jiang, J., Jolivet, R. et al. The Iquique earthquake sequence of April 2014: Bayesian
238 modelling accounting for prediction uncertainty, *Geophys. Res. Lett.* **42**, 7949–7957 (2015).
- 239 23. Jara, J., Sánchez-Reyes, H., Socquet, A. et al. Kinematic study of Iquique 2014 M_w 8.1
240 earthquake: Understanding the segmentation of the seismogenic zone. *Earth Planet. Sci. Lett.*
241 **503**, 131-143 (2018).

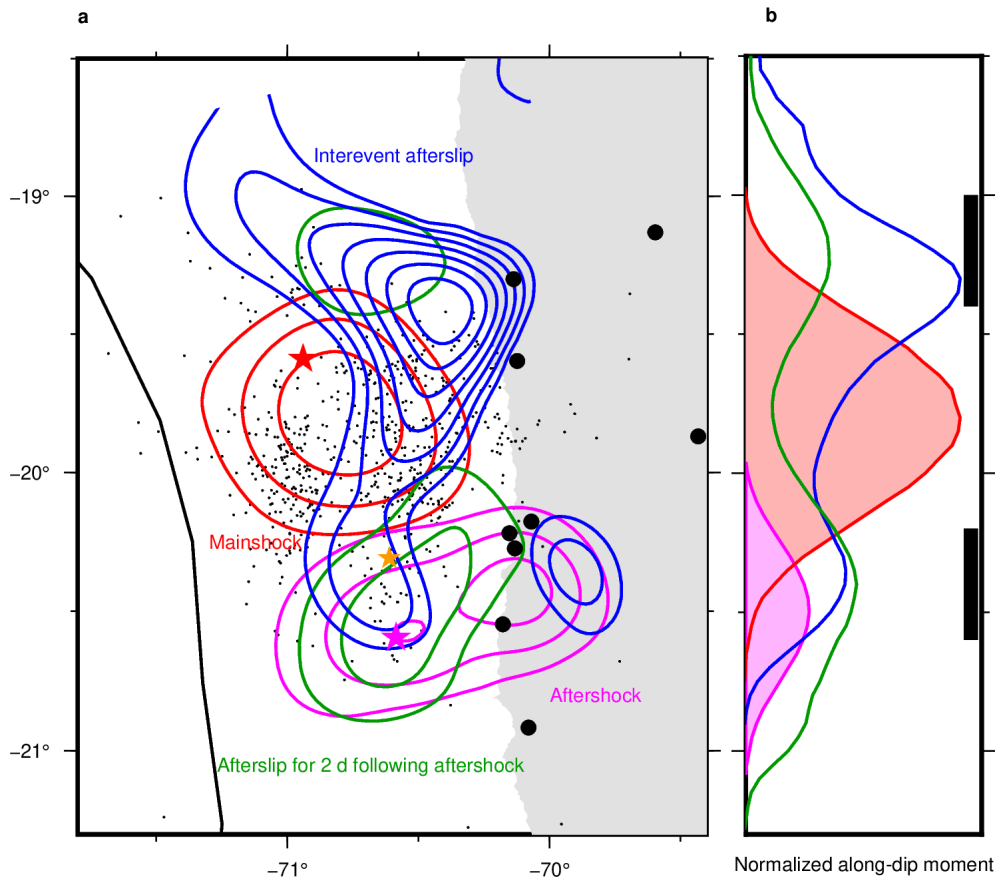
- 242 24. Meng, L., Huang, H., Bürgmann, R. et al. Dual megathrust slip behaviors of the 2014 Iquique
243 earthquake sequence. *Earth Planet. Sci. Lett.* **411**, 177-187. (2015).
- 244 25. Hayes, G., Herman, M., Barnhart, W. et al. Continuing megathrust earthquake potential in Chile
245 after the 2014 Iquique earthquake. *Nature* **512**, 295–298 (2014).
- 246 26. Klein, E., Potin, B., Pasten-Araya, F. et al. Interplay of seismic and a-seismic deformation during
247 the 2020 sequence of Atacama, Chile. *Earth Planet. Sci. Lett.* **570**, 117081 (2021).
- 248 27. Miyazaki, S., & Larson, K. M. Coseismic and early postseismic slip for the 2003 Tokachi-oki
249 earthquake sequence inferred from GPS data. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* **35**, L04302 (2008).
- 250 28. Perfettini, H., Avouac, JP., Tavera, H. et al. Seismic and aseismic slip on the Central Peru
251 megathrust. *Nature* **465**, 78–81 (2010).
- 252 29. Rolandone, F., Nocquet, J.-M., Mothes, P. A. et al. Areas prone to slow slip events impede
253 earthquake rupture propagation and promote afterslip. *Sci. Adv.* **4**, eaa06596 (2018).
- 254 30. Nishikawa, T., Matsuzawa, T., Ohta, K. et al. The slow earthquake spectrum in the Japan Trench
255 illuminated by the S-net seafloor observatories. *Science* **365**, 808-813 (2019).
- 256 31. Perfettini, H., Frank, W. B., Marsan, D. et al. A model of aftershock migration driven by
257 afterslip. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* **45**, 2283– 2293 (2018).
- 258 32. Hoffmann, F., Metzger, S., Moreno, M. et al. Characterizing afterslip and ground displacement
259 rate increase following the 2014 Iquique-Pisagua M_w 8.1 earthquake, Northern Chile. *J.*
260 *Geophys. Res.*, **123**, 4171–4192 (2018).
- 261 33. Shrivastava, M.N., González, G., Moreno, M. et al. Earthquake segmentation in northern Chile
262 correlates with curved plate geometry. *Sci. Rep.* **9**, 4403 (2019).
- 263 34. McBrearty, I. W., Gomberg, J., Delorey A. A. et al. Earthquake Arrival Association with
264 Backprojection and Graph Theory. *Bull. Seismol. Soc. Am.* **109**, 2510–2531 (2019).
- 265 35. Wang, K. & Bilek S. L. Do subducting seamounts generate or stop large earthquakes? *Geology*
266 **39**, 819–822 (2011).
- 267 36. Molina, D., Tassara, A., Abarca, R et al. Frictional segmentation of the Chilean megathrust from
268 a multivariate analysis of geophysical, geological, and geodetic data. *J. Geophys. Res.*, **126**,
269 e2020JB020647 (2021)
- 270 37. Maksymowicz, A., Ruiz, J., Vera Emilio., et al. Heterogeneous structure of the Northern Chile
271 marine forearc and its implications for megathrust earthquakes. *Geophys. J. Int.* **215**, 1080–1097
272 (2018).
- 273 38. Cubas, N., Agard, P. & Tissandier, R. Earthquake ruptures and topography of the Chilean margin
274 controlled by plate interface deformation. *Solid Earth* **13**, 779–792 (2022).
- 275 39. Geersen, J., Ranero, C., Barckhausen, U. et al. Subducting seamounts control interplate coupling
276 and seismic rupture in the 2014 Iquique earthquake area. *Nat. Commun.* **6**, 8267 (2015).
- 277 40. Métois, M., Vigny, C. & Socquet, A. Interseismic Coupling, Megathrust Earthquakes and
278 Seismic Swarms Along the Chilean Subduction Zone (38°–18°S). *Pure Appl. Geophys.* **173**,
279 1431–1449 (2016).
- 280 41. Jolivet, R., Simons, M., Duputel, Z. et al. Interseismic loading of subduction megathrust drives
281 long-term uplift in Northern Chile. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* **47**, e2019GL085377 (2020).
- 282 42. Li, S., Moreno, M., Bedford, J. et al. Revisiting viscoelastic effects on interseismic deformation
283 and locking degree: A case study of the Peru-North Chile subduction zone. *J. Geophys. Res.* **120**,
284 4522–4538 (2015).
- 285 43. Comte, D. & Pardo, M. Reappraisal of great historical earthquakes in the northern Chile and
286 southern Peru seismic gaps. *Nat. Hazards*, **4**, 23–44 (1991).
- 287 44. Kausel, E. Los terremotos de agosto de 1868 y mayo de 1877 que afectaron el sur del Perú y
288 norte de Chile. *Boletín de la Academia Chilena de Ciencias* **3**, 8–13 (1986).
- 289 45. Ma, B., Geersen, J., Lange, D. et al. Megathrust reflectivity reveals the updip limit of the 2014
290 Iquique earthquake rupture. *Nat. Commun.* **13**, 3969 (2022).

- 291 46. Soto, H., Sippl, C., Schurr, B. et al. Probing the northern Chile megathrust with seismicity: the
292 2014 M8.1 iquique earthquake sequence. *J. Geophys. Res.* **124**, 12935– 12954 (2019)
293 47. Sippl, C., Schurr, B., Asch, G. et al. Seismicity structure of the northern Chile forearc from
294 >100,000 double-difference relocated hypocenters. *J. Geophys. Res.*, **123**, 4063– 4087 (2018).
295 48. Ellsworth, W.L. & Bulut, F. Nucleation of the 1999 Izmit earthquake by a triggered cascade of
296 foreshocks. *Nature Geosci.* **11**, 531–535 (2018).
297 49. DeMets, C., Gordon, R. G. & Argus, D. F. Geologically current plate motions. *Geophys. J. Int.*
298 **181**, 1–80 (2010).
299 50. Hayes, G. Slab2 - A comprehensive subduction zone geometry model. *U.S. Geological Survey*
300 *data release* (2018).
301

302 **Figures**



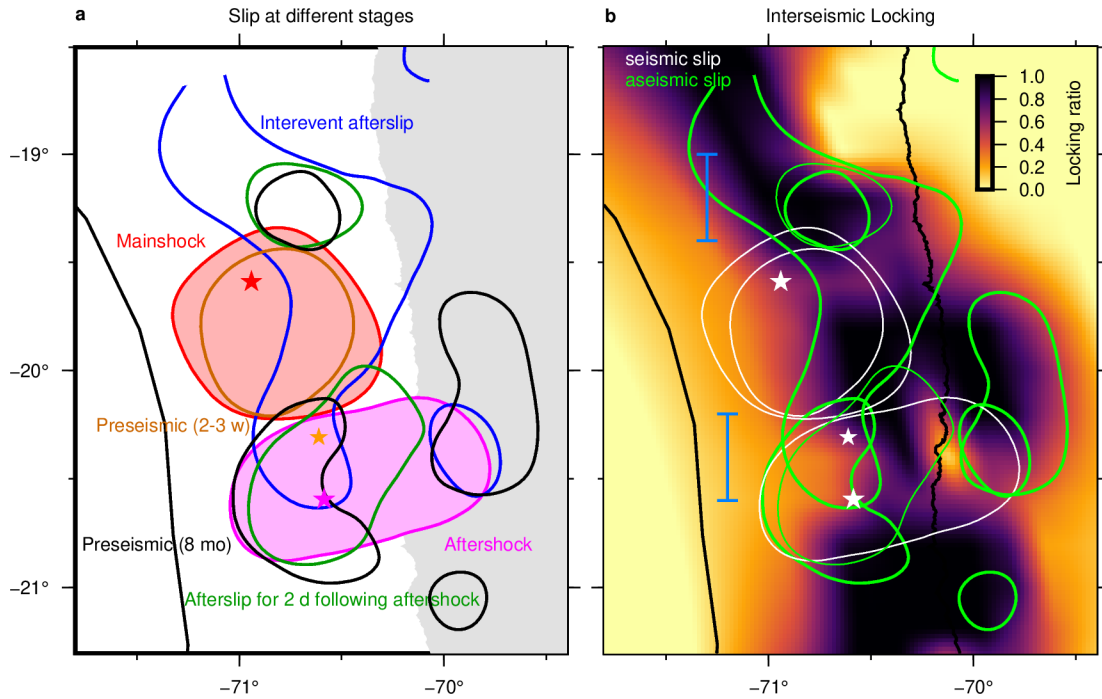
303
 304 **Figure 1.** Tectonic setting of Northern Chile and GPS deformation associated with the 2014 Iquique
 305 sequence. **a**, Black and orange dots indicate GPS sites for co- and post-seismic deformation analysis
 306 and common mode noise extraction, respectively (See Methods for details). Red and purple stars
 307 indicate the epicentres of the 2014 Iquique mainshock and the largest aftershock, respectively⁴⁶. Red,
 308 blue and purple curves outline slip areas of the mainshock, interevent afterslip and the largest
 309 aftershock derived in this study. A white vector offshore indicates Nazca plate motion with respect to
 310 the South American plate with its rate labelled⁴⁹. Black contours indicate slab interface depth (20 km
 311 interval starting from 20-km depth)⁵⁰. The plate boundary is outlined with a white solid curve.
 312 Yellow lines offshore indicate rupture extension of the 1868 and 1877 earthquakes with a
 313 controversial section shown as a dotted line⁴³⁻⁴⁴. Red ovals indicate seamounts at depth³⁹. Latitudinal
 314 range of inferred aseismic barriers is shown with two white bars offshore. **b**, Horizontal GPS
 315 displacements (black vectors) during 27 hours between the mainshock and the largest aftershock,
 316 together with the model prediction (blue vectors) from aseismic slip inversion shown in Fig. 2a and
 317 Extended Data Fig. 2e. Red squares indicate GPS site locations, time series of which are shown in c
 318 – e. Black dots indicate seismicity in the same time window³⁴. **c** – **e**, Cleaned 5-minute high-rate GPS
 319 horizontal coordinates at selected sites as labelled. Overlying black lines are trajectory model fits.
 320 Red and pink vertical lines indicate the timings of the mainshock and the largest aftershock,
 321 respectively⁴⁶, and a two-headed arrow indicates the interevent stage of our main interest. Site
 322 location is shown in **b** as red squares.



323
 324 **Figure 2. a**, Comparison of the mainshock coseismic slip (1 m interval starting from 2 m),
 325 cumulative interevent afterslip (4 cm interval starting from 8 cm), the largest aftershock coseismic
 326 slip (20 cm interval starting from 40 cm) and afterslip following the largest aftershock (4 cm interval
 327 starting from 8 cm) as labelled. All the slip models are derived from displacements obtained through
 328 the trajectory model fitting (Figs. 1c-e, Extended Data Fig. 2a-c; See Methods). Black dots indicate
 329 seismicity during the interevent stage³⁴. Black dots GPS indicate site location. **b**, Normalised along-
 330 dip moment with respect to latitude. Seismic (red and purple) and aseismic (blue and green)
 331 moments are separately normalised with respect to their maximum values. The aseismic-to-seismic
 332 ratio of the normalising factors is ~ 0.056 . Each colour corresponds to that used in **a**. Two black bars
 333 indicate the inferred aseismic barrier location.

334
 335
 336

337



338

339

340

341

342

343

344

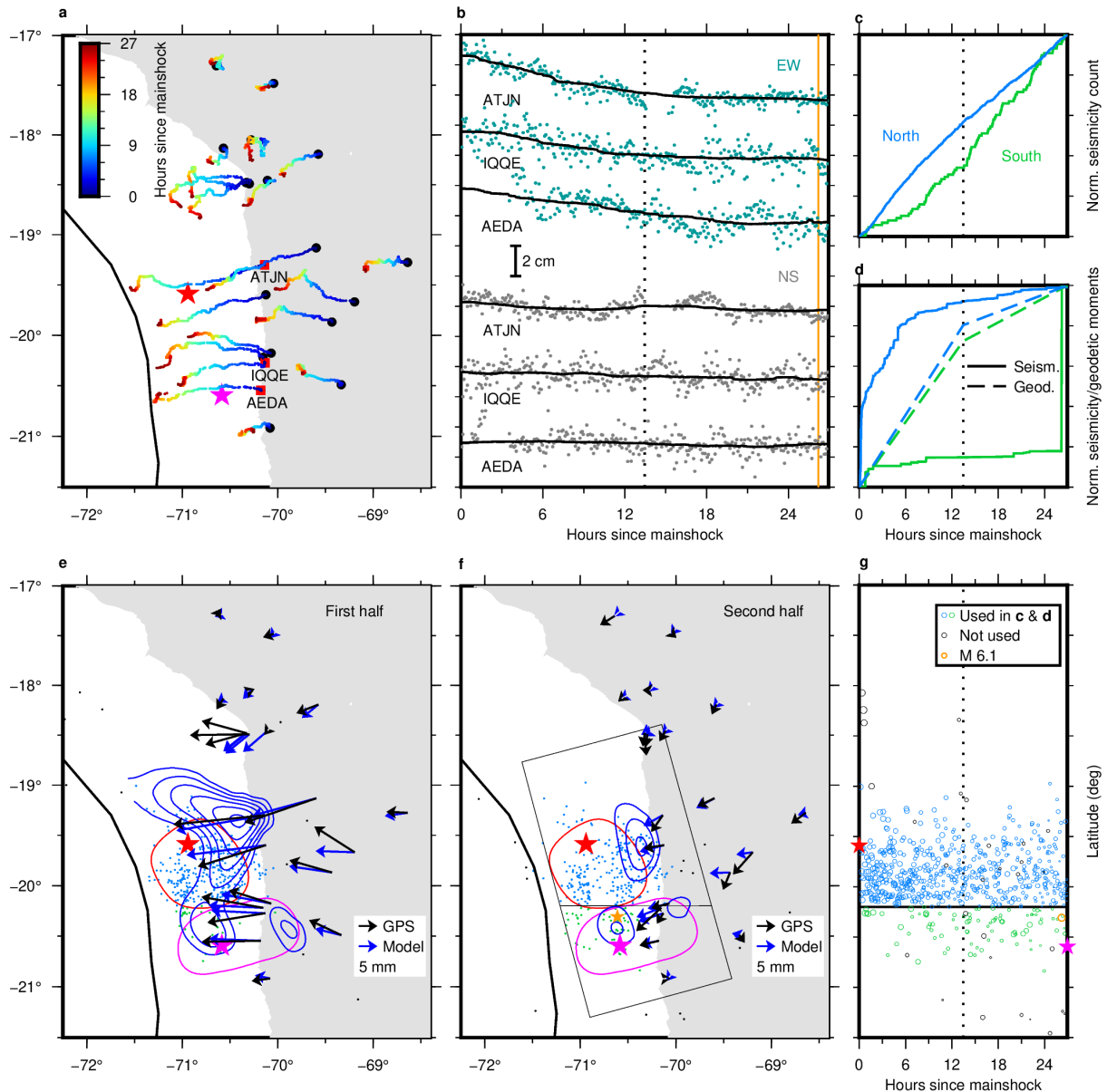
345

346

347

348

Figure 3. **a**, Compilation of seismic and aseismic slip events in the region at different stages as labelled. These contours outline areas which experienced slip of more than 2 m (mainshock; red), 8 cm (interevent afterslip; blue), 40 cm (largest aftershock; purple), 8 cm (afterslip for 2 days following largest aftershock; green), 5 mm (pre-mainshock for 8 months; black)¹⁸ and 5 cm (pre-mainshock for 2-3 weeks; brown)¹⁸. **b**, Slip events at different stages (event information shown in **a**) with interseismic locking (background colour)⁴⁰. Seismic and aseismic slip events are drawn with white and green contours, respectively, for clarity. We regard the preseismic (2 – 3 weeks) slip as seismic slip because ~65% of moment release was released seismically¹⁸. Latitudinal range of inferred aseismic barriers is shown with two light blue bars offshore.



349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

363

364

Figure 4. **a**, Trajectory of three GPS sites during 27 hours between the mainshock and the largest aftershock colour-coded with time. **b**, Interevent GPS coordinates (dots) and their moving median (0.5-day window; solid lines). Site and components are labelled. The location of these sites is shown in **a**. A dotted vertical line shows a middle point of the interevent stage. **c**, Normalised seismicity count in the two regions divided at 20.2°S as labelled. Events accounted for in the calculation³⁴ are shown in **e** – **f** with corresponding colours. **d**, Same as **c** but with normalised seismicity moment (solid lines). The broken lines indicate the evolution of geodetic moment by assuming a linear evolution during the two stages. **e** – **f**, Interevent afterslip snapshots (contours; 4 cm interval starting from 4 cm) inferred by inverting displacements during the first (**e**) and the second (**f**) halves of the interevent stage which are derived from the moving median analysis (black vectors; **b**). Error ellipses of GPS are not shown for clarity. GPS displacements at sites north of 19°S are not inverted. Slip areas of the mainshock and the largest aftershock are outlined with red and purple curves with their epicentres⁴⁶ using the same colours. The orange star indicates the M 6.1 earthquake ~45 minutes before the largest aftershock⁴⁶. **g**, Seismicity between the mainshock and the largest aftershock (open circles scaled with magnitude)³⁴.

365 **Methods**

366 **GPS data cleaning**

367 We removed spatiotemporally correlated fluctuations in 5-minute high-rate GPS coordinates
 368 processed by Nevada Geodetic Laboratory⁵¹ through the following procedure. First, we fixed the
 369 GPS coordinates into the South American plate using a plate motion model with respect to
 370 ITRF2014⁵² (black in Extended Data Fig. 1). Then, we removed coordinate fluctuations due to
 371 multipath⁵³⁻⁵⁴. Multipath signals are known to appear periodically, so we estimated them using
 372 STL⁵⁵⁻⁵⁶ which decomposes time series into trend, seasonal (i.e., periodic) and residual terms. Here,
 373 we chose 86100 seconds for the period because it is the integer multiple of the sampling interval
 374 closest to the typical multipath period (86154 seconds⁵⁴). We removed the estimated seasonal
 375 component and kept the other two terms for the subsequent analysis (red in Extended Data Fig. 1).
 376 Next, we removed diurnal variation in the data, using the same approach for the multipath removal
 377 but with a period of 86400 seconds⁵⁷ (pink in Extended Data Fig. 1). Next, we removed common
 378 mode error which originates from the fluctuation of the reference frame and satellite orbit errors⁵⁸.
 379 We extracted common mode error by stacking time series at 6 sites in the nodal direction of the
 380 mainshock and aftershock, where little coseismic deformation is expected (Fig. 1 and orange in
 381 Extended Data Fig. 1). Before stacking them, we removed outliers and a linear trend of time series at
 382 each site. The outliers are defined as epochs satisfying the following criterion (Equation (1))⁵⁷;

$$383 \quad \left| u_i - \frac{q_1 + q_3}{2} \right| > n * \frac{q_3 - q_1}{2} \quad (1)$$

384 where, u_i is the displacement at the i -th epoch, q_1 and q_3 are the 25 and 75 percentile values of the
 385 position time series, respectively, derived from data between 60 days before and 30 days after the
 386 day of mainshock. The term n is a threshold controlling how strict or loose we impose the outlier
 387 criterion and we adopted $n = 8$ in this study based on trial-and-error approaches. We estimated and
 388 removed the linear trend from the data after this outlier removal step.

389

390 **Trajectory function fitting to cleaned high-rate GPS coordinates**

391 To extract crustal deformation of the mainshock, the interevent stage, the largest aftershock and the
 392 subsequent postseismic stage (2 days), we carry out a trajectory model fit to the cleaned GPS data
 393 (blue in Extended Data Fig. 1) between 5 days before and 30 days after the day of mainshock. Our
 394 trajectory model $x(t)$ is defined as follows;

$$395 \quad x(t) = a + \left\{ b + c \log \left(1 + \frac{t-t_0}{a} \right) \right\} H(t - t_0) + \left\{ e + f \log \left(1 + \frac{t-t_1}{g} \right) \right\} H(t - t_1) \quad (2)$$

396 where a is the initial position of the time series in the time window, b and e are coseismic offsets of
 397 the mainshock (at time $t = t_0$) and the largest aftershock (at $t = t_1$), respectively, c

398 $\log \left(1 + \frac{t-t_0}{a} \right)$ and $f \log \left(1 + \frac{t-t_1}{g} \right)$ represent postseismic responses induced by the mainshock and

399 the largest aftershock, respectively and the term $H(t)$ is the Heaviside's step function. We used a
 400 logarithmic function for modelling the postseismic deformation, which is considered to represent
 401 velocity-strengthening afterslip^{6,31,59}. At the earlier stage of this study, we attempted to fit different
 402 functions^{11,60}, but fluctuations left in the data did not allow us to significantly distinguish them. We
 403 determined the time constant(s) of the logarithmic term(s) and the other parameters by grid search
 404 and the least square regression, respectively. The search range for d and g is 0.1 – 3 days and 0.1 –
 405 10 days, respectively. For sites around the Peru and Chile border (i.e., those north of 19°S), we
 406 excluded the term relating to the largest aftershock (i.e., the third term of Equation (2)) and set the

407 search range for d as 0.1 – 10 days by considering the largest aftershock size and the great
 408 hypocentre distance.

409 Coordinates at some sites contain enigmatic outliers. Hence, we applied this fitting process twice.
 410 We used Equation (2) in both steps, but, after the first fit, we removed epochs, which deviate from
 411 the model prediction by 3 times post-fit RMS, as outliers. RMS is here defined as

$$412 \quad RMS = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{o(t_i) - x(t_i)}{w(t_i)} \right)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{w(t_i)^2}}} \quad (3)$$

413 where, $o(t_i)$ and $w(t_i)$ are a coordinate and its error at $t = t_i$, respectively and n is the number of
 414 available epochs. Then, we again fit the same function to the data without the outliers.

415 We retrieved surface deformation at the four stages from the trajectory model fit result (Figs. 1c-e
 416 and Extended Data Figs. 2a-c and 3a-f), which would be subsequently inverted for the interface slip
 417 (See next section). Amplitudes of the two step terms (i.e., b and e) are taken as coseismic
 418 displacements of the two quakes at each site (Extended Data Figs. 3a-b and 3d-e). For simplicity, the
 419 formal displacement errors are obtained by the linear least-square transformation of the GPS position
 420 observation errors. Displacements associated with the interevent afterslip and afterslip following the
 421 largest aftershock are retrieved as increments of the model prediction for each stage (Fig. 1b and
 422 Extended Data Figs. 2d, 3c and 3f). Here, we rely only on the cumulative displacement during 27
 423 hours between the two quakes predicted from the second fit of Equation (2). We do not discuss the
 424 temporal evolution process with this trajectory model fit result because the noise left in the data and
 425 the short data duration for the interevent stage did not allow us to determine these values
 426 meaningfully (Extended Data Fig. 7), even though the input GPS coordinates for these fitting
 427 operations went through the cleaning process. For simplicity, formal errors for the displacements at
 428 these two aseismic stages were defined as Equation (3) except for the data length; we computed
 429 RMS with the data and the model prediction during each time window.

430 **Motogram and incremental interevent displacements**

431 As stated above, the function fit has the meaningful role only to extract cumulative displacements
 432 during the interevent stage. Yet, to take a closer look into interim details of interevent processes, we
 433 computed the moving median of the cleaned GPS coordinates with a window length of 0.5 days (Fig.
 434 4b) after removing the estimated coseismic steps associated with the mainshock and the largest
 435 aftershock. We did not exclude the pre-mainshock or post-largest-aftershock coordinates when
 436 deriving the moving median for the first or last 0.25 days because, given the definition of median,
 437 distortion of the obtained moving median should be limited. Using the shorter window length by
 438 excluding these pre-mainshock or post-largest-aftershock coordinates from the calculation would
 439 have larger impacts.

440 We employed the obtained interevent moving median curve to derive the other dataset of interevent
 441 displacement field (Extended Data Figs. 8a-b) as well as their incremental displacements during the
 442 first and the last halves of the interevent window (Figs. 4e-f and Extended Data Figs. 8c-d). We took
 443 the difference of two positions among the first, the middle and the last epochs of the moving median
 444 to derive these displacements at the three windows. For simplicity, formal errors of the
 445 displacements are taken from the trajectory analysis result.

446 **Slip inversion**

449 We inferred slip distribution for the mainshock (Extended Data Fig. 3g), the largest aftershock
450 (Extended Data Fig. 3h) and the interevent and post-largest-aftershock (Extended Data Fig. 3i)
451 afterslip by performing slip inversion. For the interevent afterslip, we used four different data sets,
452 namely, (i) the cumulative interevent displacements derived from the trajectory model fit (i.e.,
453 Equation (2); Figs. 1b and 2a and Extended Data Figs. 2d-e), (ii) same as (i) but displacements
454 derived from the moving median (Extended Data Figs. 8a-b), (iii) displacements during the first half
455 of the interevent window, derived from the moving median (Fig. 4e and Extended Data Fig. 8c) and
456 (iv) same as (iii) but during the second half (Fig. 4f and Extended Data Fig. 8d).

457 We employ a slip inversion code SDM⁶¹. Surface displacement due to slip on embedded faults in the
458 homogeneous isotropic elastic half-space is used for green's function⁶². We tessellated megathrust
459 fault surface (Slab 2)⁵⁰ with rectangle subfaults. We constrain the rake range to be inferred between
460 45 and 135 degrees. Slip roughness constraint is also imposed to regularise the inversion problem
461 and we determine its strength based on a trade-off curve of data misfit versus slip roughness
462 (Extended Data Figs. 9-10). We checked slip models with different roughness to grasp their robust
463 features instead of resolution tests. For the cumulative interevent afterslip, taking a smoother solution
464 makes the afterslip peak between the mainshock and the largest aftershock epicentres less notable,
465 but residuals at the nearest coastal sites become larger (Extended Data Figs. 9c-d). Therefore, this
466 also highlights the necessity of the south slip peak together with the forward modelling test
467 (Extended Data Fig 4). For all the stages, we inverted the three components of GPS displacements
468 and they are weighted according to the formal error obtained through the trajectory model fit. We
469 used 30 GPa for rigidity to compute seismic moment (and hence moment magnitude) and coulomb
470 stress change.

471 For inversions of the interevent afterslip with the datasets derived from the moving median analysis
472 (i.e., datasets (ii), (iii) and (iv); Figs 4e-f and Extended Data Fig. 8), we excluded GPS sites located
473 north of 19°S, namely those near the border of Chile and Peru, because including them highly
474 destabilised the slip inversion. They are far from the area of interest for the detailed temporal
475 analysis and therefore less or not sensitive anyway. Furthermore, to obtain the consistent slip pattern
476 in all the interevent slip models, we added a constraint to the upper bound of the slip amplitude. For
477 the cumulative slip inversion with dataset (ii), the upper bound is set to those obtained by the
478 inversion of displacements obtained by the trajectory model fit (i.e., dataset (i)). The obtained slip
479 amplitude was subsequently used as the upper bound of slip amplitude during the first and second
480 halves of the interevent window with the datasets (iii) and (iv).

481

482 **Coulomb stress change calculation**

483 We computed coulomb stress change (CSC)²¹ associated with the mainshock and the interevent
484 aftershock (Extended Data Fig. 5). CSC is defined as follows.

$$485 \quad CSC = \Delta\tau + \mu\Delta\sigma \quad (4)$$

486 where, $\Delta\tau$ and $\Delta\sigma$ indicate elastic shear and normal stress change induced by slip, respectively.
487 Positive $\Delta\tau$ is taken in a hypothetical slip direction of receiver fault defined as the convergence
488 direction of Nazca and South American plates. Positive $\Delta\sigma$ is taken in an unclamping direction. The
489 term μ is a static effective frictional coefficient which was set to 0.4.

490

491 **Seismicity analysis**

492 We carried out analyses of seismicity count (Fig. 4c) and moment (Fig. 4d) for two regions which
493 are divided at 20.2°S within a range from 71.5°W to 70.0°W. We calculated the number of events

494 within a window of 0.002 days and integrated them to get the cumulative event count over time,
495 which were normalised by the final value before the largest aftershock. We calculated the moment of
496 seismicity with the same window size. Here, we defined moment of seismicity for each event as
497 $10^{1.5M_L}$ where M_L is local magnitude provided by the seismicity catalogue³⁴. If local magnitude
498 linearly scales with moment magnitude with a proportion coefficient of 1 (i.e., $M_L = M_w +$
499 $const.$)⁶³, the time evolution of cumulative seismicity moment derived in this study exactly
500 represents the seismic moment evolution after the normalisation. Hence, we interpret only the time
501 evolution of the normalised seismicity count and moment.

502

503 **References**

504 51. Blewitt, G., Hammond, W. C. & Kreemer, C. Harnessing the GPS data explosion for
505 interdisciplinary science. *Eos*, **99** (2018).

506 52. Altamimi, Z., Métivier, L., Rebischung, P. et al. ITRF2014 plate motion model. *Geophys. J. Int.*
507 **209**, 1906–1912 (2017).

508 53. Bock, Y., Nikolaidis, R. M., de Jonge, P. J. et al. Instantaneous geodetic positioning at medium
509 distances with the Global Positioning System. *J. Geophys. Res.* **105**, 28223–28253 (2000).

510 54. Ragheb, A. E., Clarke, P. J. & Edwards, S. J. GPS sidereal filtering: Coordinate- and carrier-
511 phase-level strategies. *J. Geod.* **81**, 325–335 (2007).

512 55. Cleveland, R. B., Cleveland, W. S., McRae, J. E. et al. STL: A seasonal-trend decomposition
513 procedure based on loess. *J. Off. Stat.* **6**, 3–73 (1990).

514 56. Pedregosa, F., Varoquaux, G., Gramfort, A. et al. Scikit-learn: Machine learning in Python.
515 *JMLR* **12**, 2825–2830 (2011).

516 57. Itoh, Y., Aoki, Y. & Fukuda, J. Imaging evolution of Cascadia slow-slip event using high-rate
517 GPS. *Sci Rep* **12**, 7179 (2022).

518 58. Wdowinski, S., Bock, Y., Zhang, J. et al. Southern California permanent GPS geodetic array:
519 Spatial filtering of daily positions for estimating coseismic and postseismic displacements
520 induced by the 1992 Landers earthquake. *J. Geophys. Res.* **102**, 18057–18070 (1997).

521 59. Marone, C. J., Scholtz, C. H., & Bilham, R. On the mechanics of earthquake afterslip, *J.*
522 *Geophys. Res.* **96**, 8441–8452 (1991).

523 60. Periollat, A., Radiguet, M., Weiss, J. et al. Transient brittle creep mechanism explains early
524 postseismic phase of the 2011 Tohoku-Oki megathrust earthquake: Observations by high-rate
525 GPS solutions. *J. Geophys. Res.* **127**, e2022JB024005 (2022).

526 61. Wang, L., Wang, R., Roth, F. et al. Afterslip and viscoelastic relaxation following the 1999 M
527 7.4 Izmit earthquake from GPS measurements, *Geophys. J. Int.*, **178**, 1220–1237 (2009).

528 62. Okada, Y. Internal deformation due to shear and tensile faults in a half-space. *Bull. Seism. Soc.*
529 *Am.* **82**, 1018–1040 (1992).

530 63. Hanks, T. C., & Kanamori, H. A moment magnitude scale, *J. Geophys. Res.* **84**, 2348–2350
531 (1979).

532 64. Sandwell, D. T., Müller, R. D., Smith, W. H. F. et al. New global marine gravity model from
533 CryoSat-2 and Jason-1 reveals buried tectonic structure. *Science*, **346**, 65–67 (2014).

534 65. Smith, W. H. F. & Sandwell, D. T. Global seafloor topography from satellite altimetry and ship
535 depth soundings. *Science* **277**, 1957–1962 (1997).

536

537 **Data availability**

538 We processed publicly available data and no new data was acquired for this work. The 5-minute GPS
539 coordinates⁵¹ are available at <http://geodesy.unr.edu/>. The seismicity catalogue of Soto et al.⁴⁶ is
540 available at <https://datapub.gfz->

541 [potsdam.de/download/10.5880.GFZ.4.1.2019.009/Iquique_earthquake_seismicity_catalogue_2014.tx](https://datapub.gfz-potsdam.de/download/10.5880.GFZ.4.1.2019.009/Iquique_earthquake_seismicity_catalogue_2014.tx)

542 t. The gravity anomaly⁶⁴ and topography⁶⁵ data are available at [https://topex.ucsd.edu/cgi-](https://topex.ucsd.edu/cgi-bin/get_data.cgi)
543 [bin/get_data.cgi](https://topex.ucsd.edu/cgi-bin/get_data.cgi). Other previously published materials are available upon request to their authors or
544 supplemented to their publications. We made our slip distribution of the interevent afterslip available
545 in xxx (ready at publication).

546

547 **Code availability**

548 The inversion code SDM⁶¹ is available at [https://gfzpublic.gfz-](https://gfzpublic.gfz-potsdam.de/pubman/item/item_1975902)
549 [potsdam.de/pubman/item/item_1975902](https://gfzpublic.gfz-potsdam.de/pubman/item/item_1975902).

550

551 **Acknowledgements**

552 Discussion with Jorge Jara, Zaccaria El Yousfi, Michel Bouchon, Satoshi Ide, Jean-Philippe Avouac,
553 and Sylvain Barbot was fruitful. Nadaya Cubas provided us with her research product of Cubas et
554 al.³⁸ English check by James Hollingsworth was helpful in improving the manuscript. Y.I. is a Japan
555 Society for the Promotion of Science (JSPS) Overseas Research Fellow. This work has been
556 supported by ERC CoG 865963 DEEP-trigger (A.S.).

557

558 **Author contributions**

559 All the authors designed the study, interpreted and discussed the results and reviewed and edited the
560 manuscript. Y.I. carried out all the analyses, made the figures and wrote the original manuscript. Y.I.
561 and A.S. acquired the grants.

562

563

564 **Competing interests**

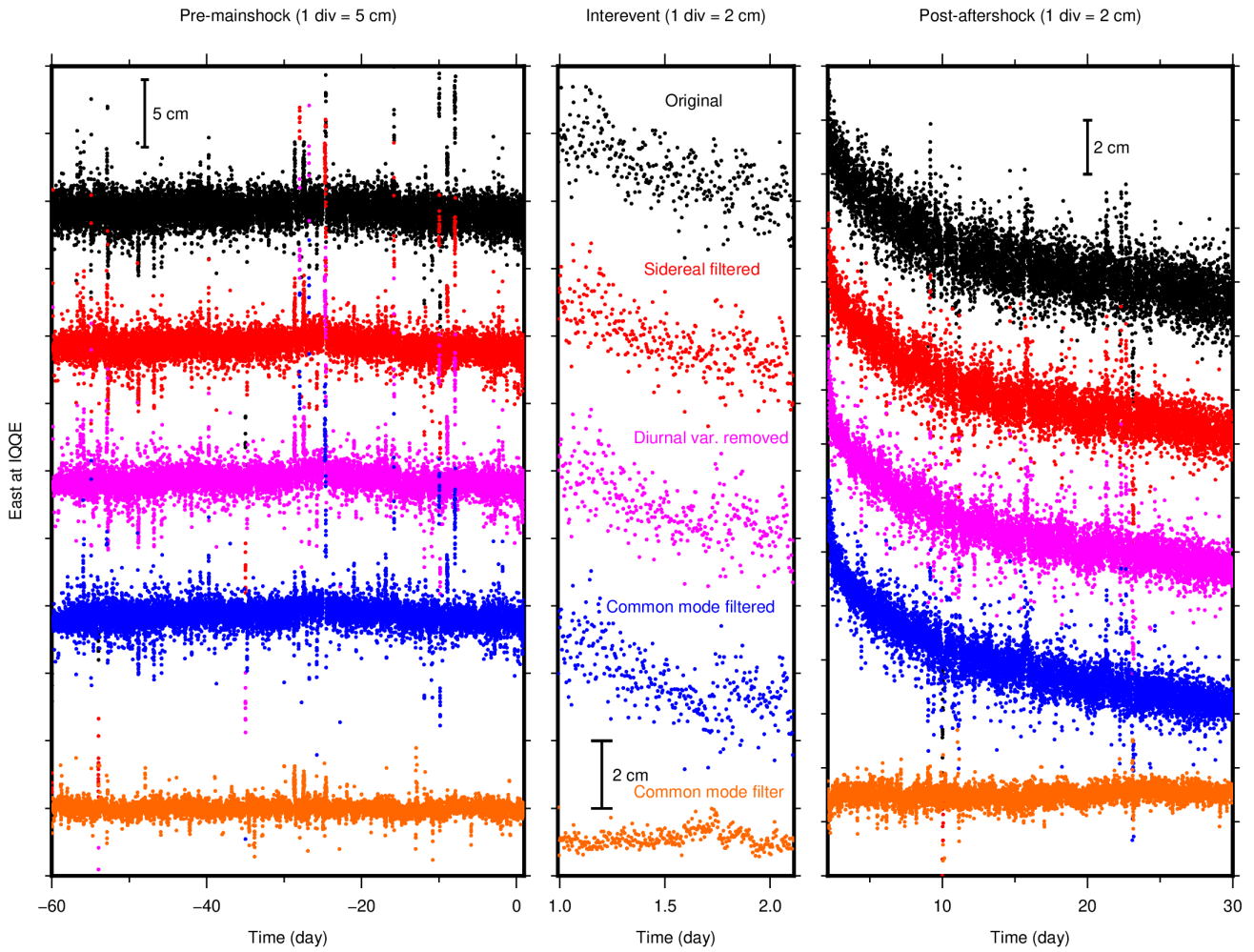
565 The authors declare no competing interests.

566

567

568 **Extended Data**

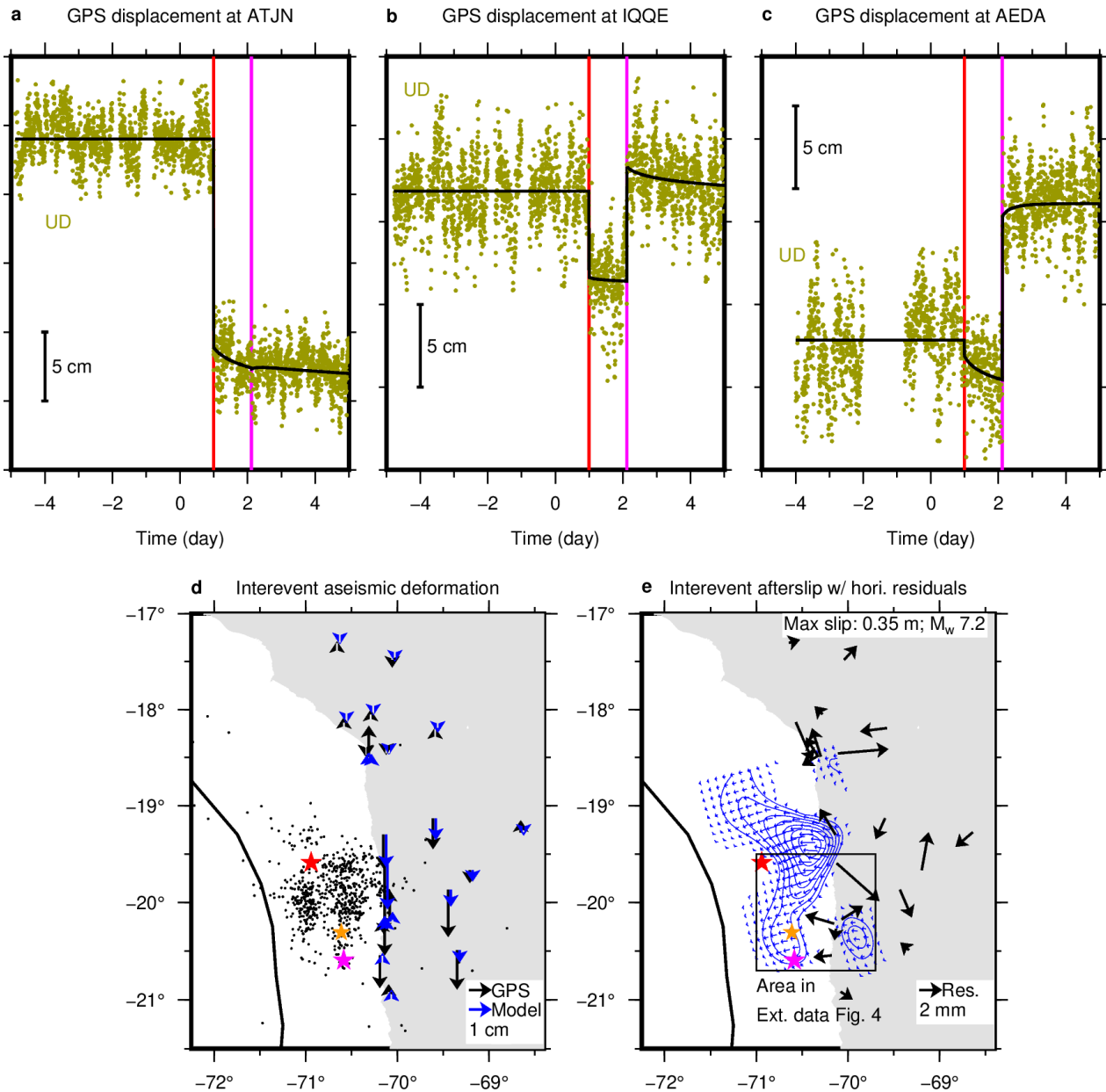
569



570

571 **Extended Data Figure 1.** High-rate 5-min GPS data cleaning procedure (East component at IQQE
572 as an example; Fig 1b). Time series with each colour indicate results of cleaning procedure at each
573 step as labelled (See Methods). Coseismic steps of the mainshock and the largest aftershock are
574 removed by breaking panels.

575



576

577

578

579

580

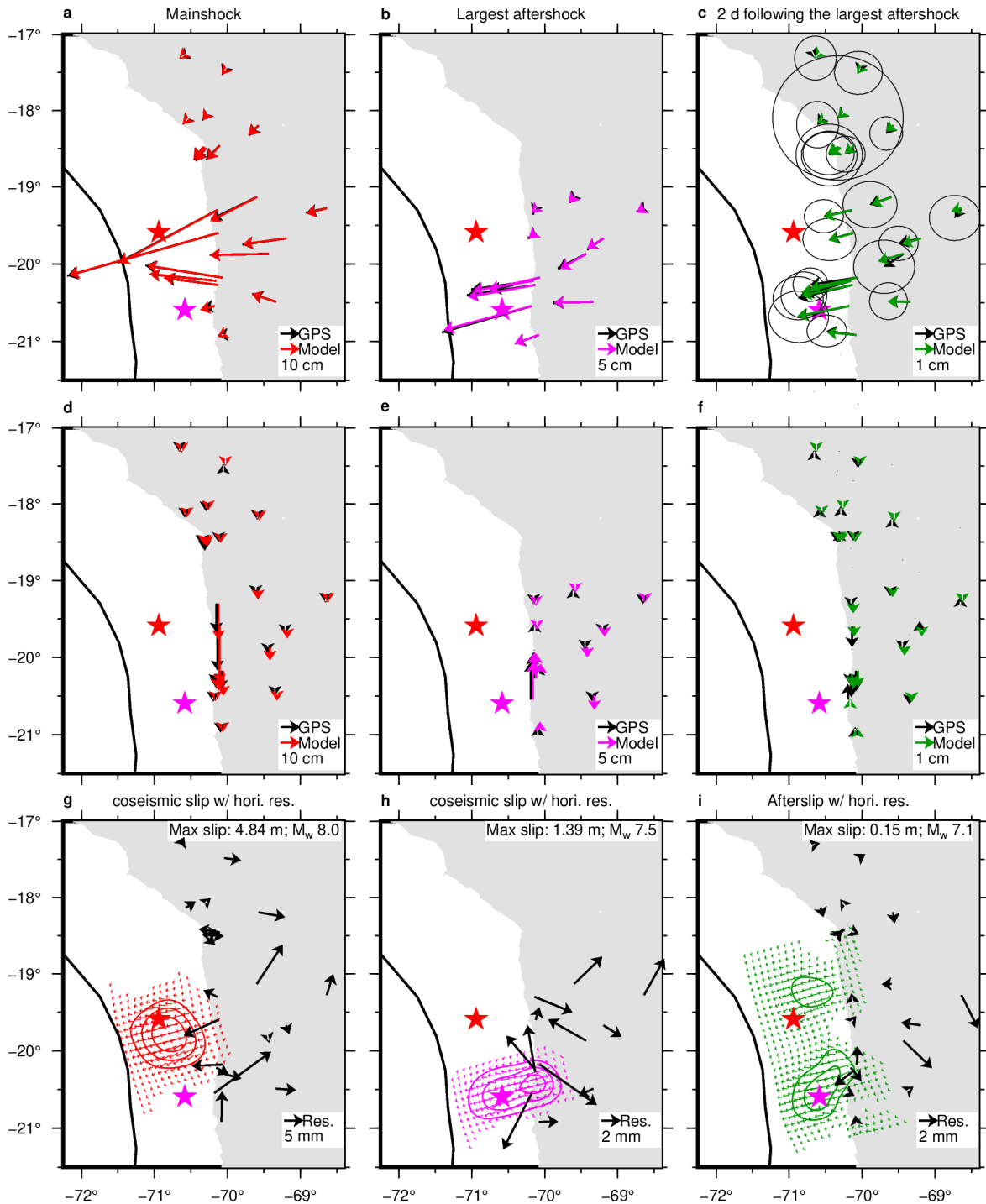
581

582

583

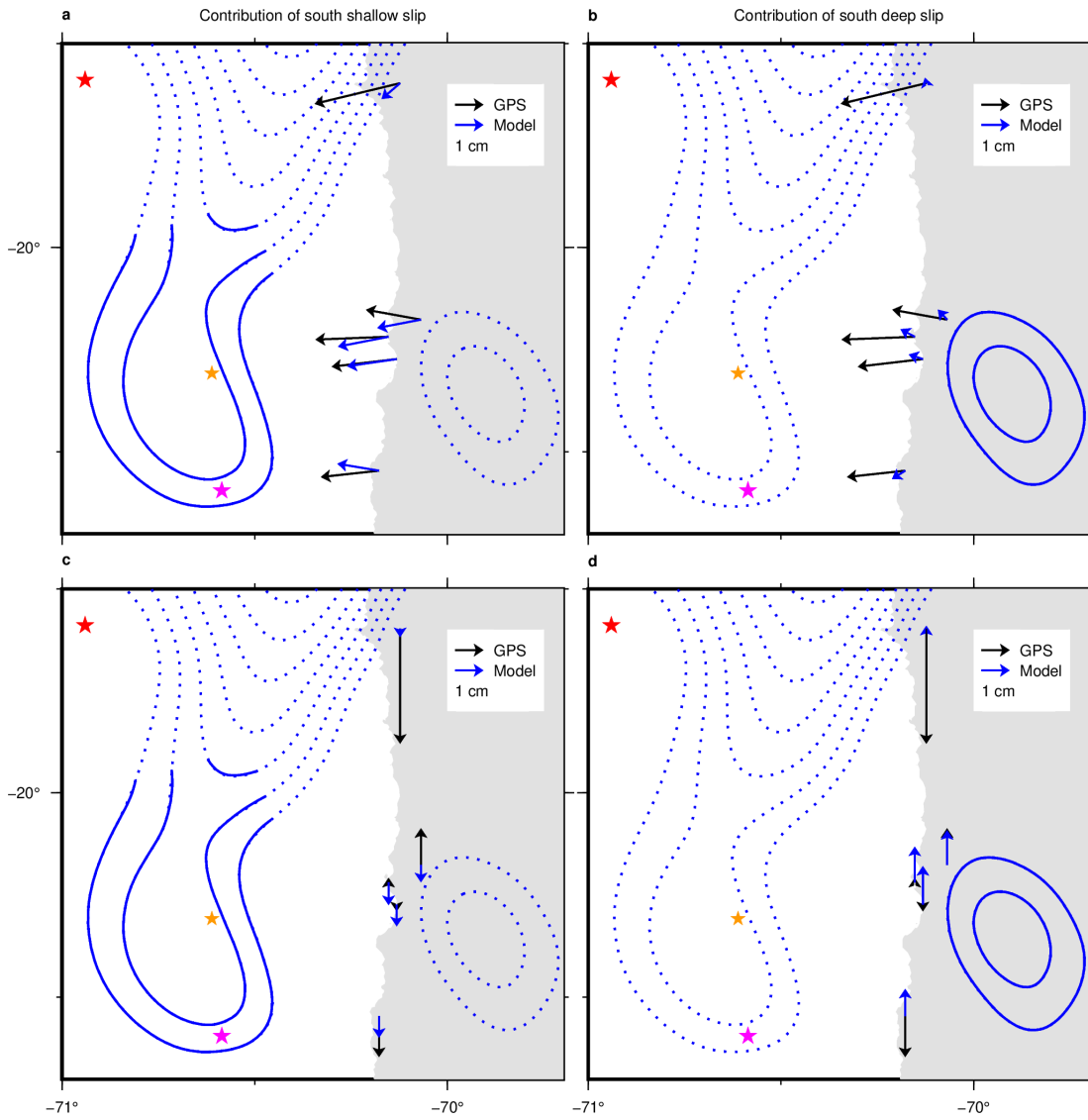
584

Extended Data Figure 2. Data analysis and slip inversion result using the trajectory function fit approach. **a-c**, Trajectory model fit results for vertical components at three sites as labelled. Location of these sites is shown in Fig. 1b. **d**, Vertical GPS displacements (black vectors) during 27 hours between the mainshock and the largest aftershock, together with model prediction (blue vectors) from aseismic slip inversion shown in **e** and Fig. 2a. Refer to Fig. 2 for other elements. **e**, The inferred interevent afterslip (blue contours) with normalised slip vectors. Black vectors indicate horizontal residuals of the inversion (GPS – Model in Fig. 1b).



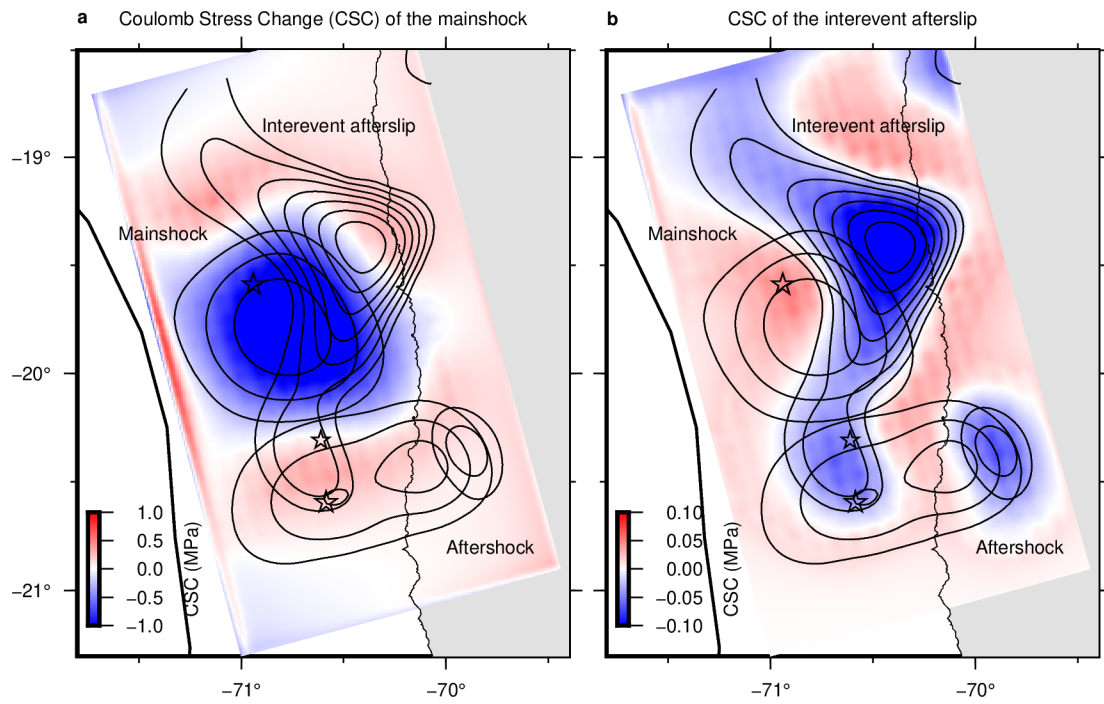
585
586
587
588
589
590
591

Extended Data Figure 3. Data analysis and inversion results for the mainshock (a, d and g), the largest aftershock (b, e and h) and the post-largest-aftershock stage (2 days; c, f and i). a-c, Horizontal GPS displacements at each stage derived from the trajectory model fit. d-f, Same as a-c but for vertical displacements. g-i, Slip inversion results (contours) at each stage with normalised slip vectors. Black vectors indicate horizontal residuals of the inversion (GPS – Model).



592
593
594
595
596
597
598

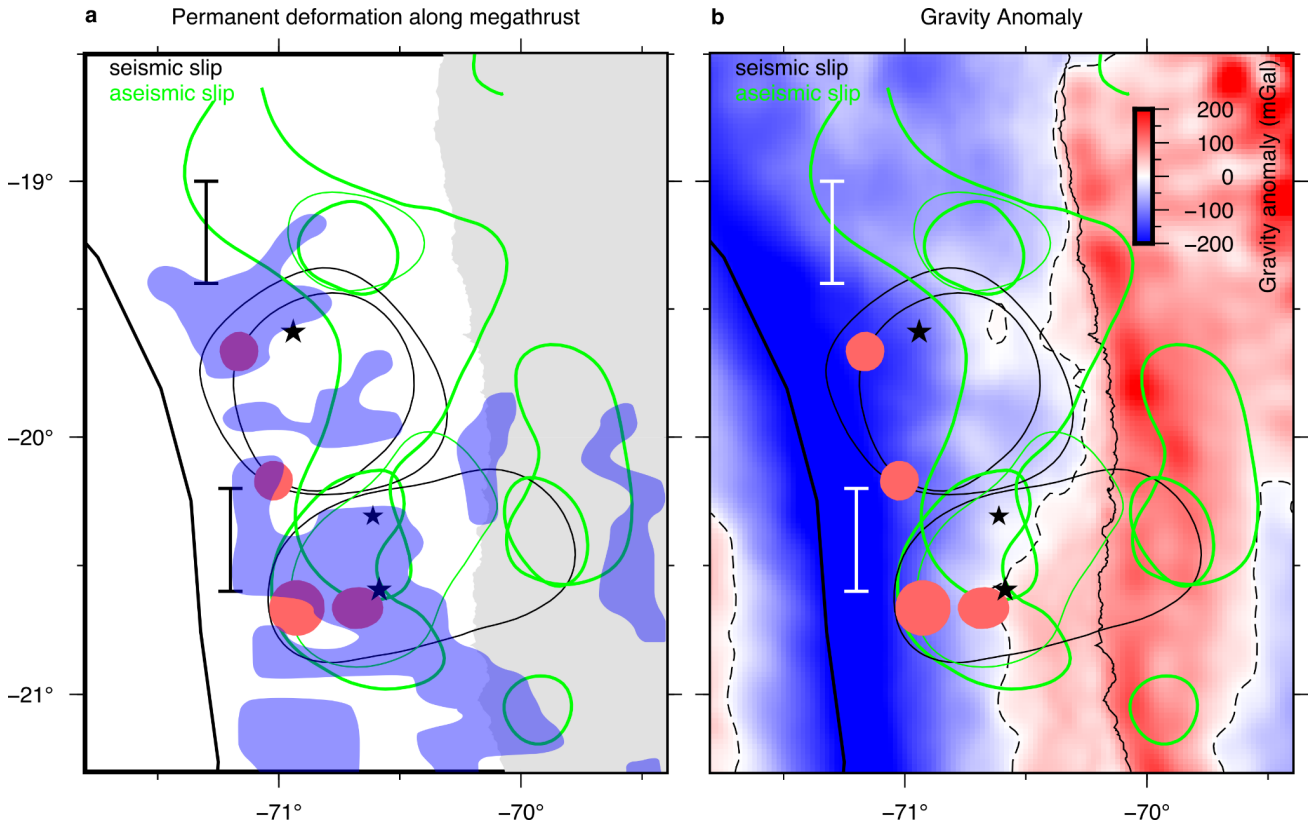
Extended Data Figure 4. Forward modelling test results for the interevent afterslip. Comparison of interevent GPS displacements derived from the trajectory model fit (black) and model prediction (blue) computed from subset (solid contours) of interevent afterslip inferred from the black vectors (solid + dot contours). **a-b**, Comparison of horizontal displacements. **c-d**, Same as **a-b** but for vertical displacements. Refer to Extended Data Fig. 2e to identify the plot area.



599
600
601
602
603

Extended Data Figure 5. Coulomb stress change (CSC) associated with the mainshock (a) and the interevent afterslip (b). Solid contours are slip distribution of the mainshock, the interevent afterslip and the largest aftershock, as labelled. Refer to Fig. 2 for contour interval and open stars.

604



605

606

607

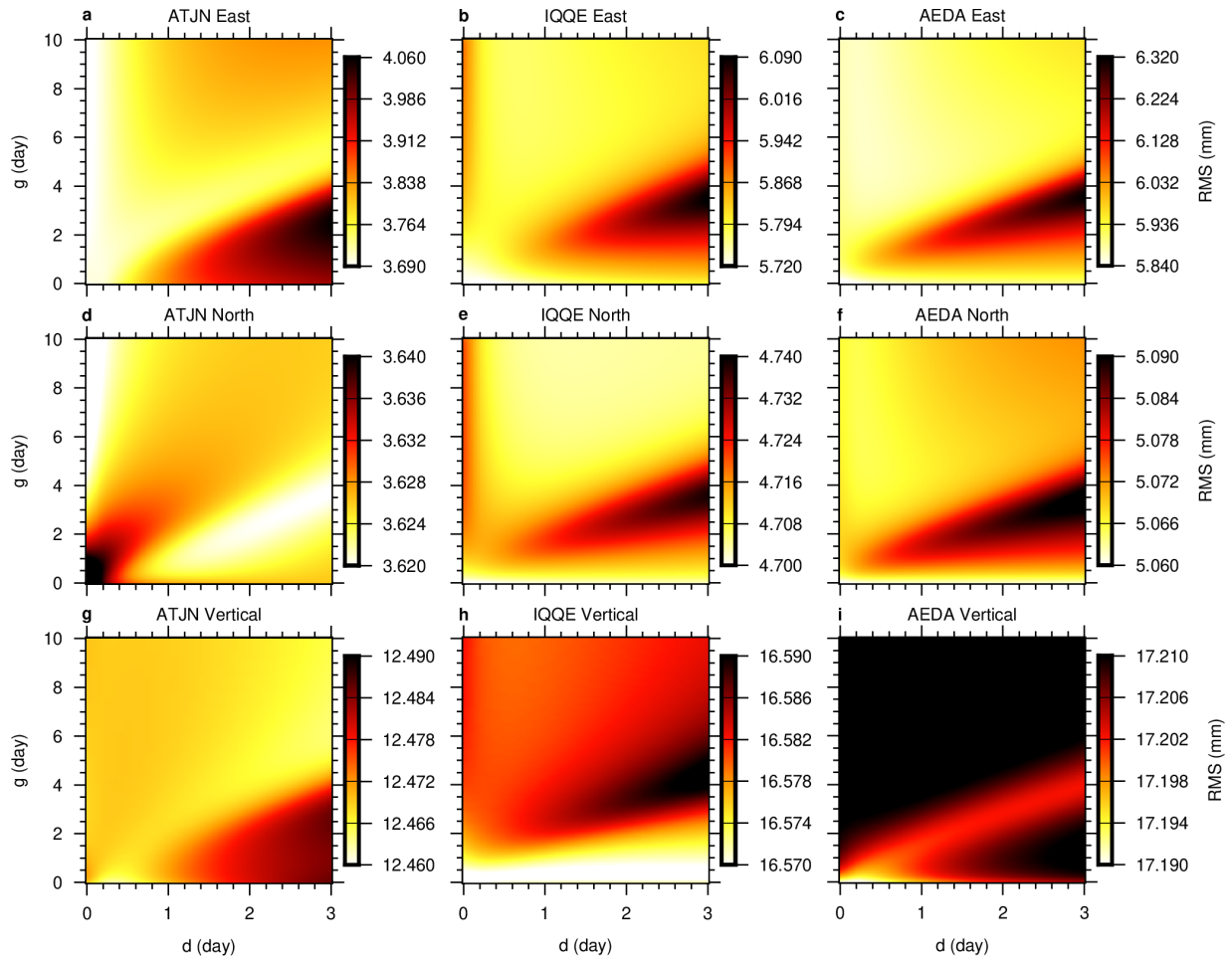
608

609

610

611

Extended Data Figure 6. a. Slip events at different stages with outline of areas possibly hosting multiple faults subparallel to the megathrust³⁸ (blue shapes). Seismic and aseismic slip events at different stages (Fig. 3a) are drawn with black and green contours, respectively, for clarity. **b.** Same as **a** but with gravity anomaly⁶⁴ (background colour) with zero value outlined with broken contours. Refer to Fig. 1a for other elements.



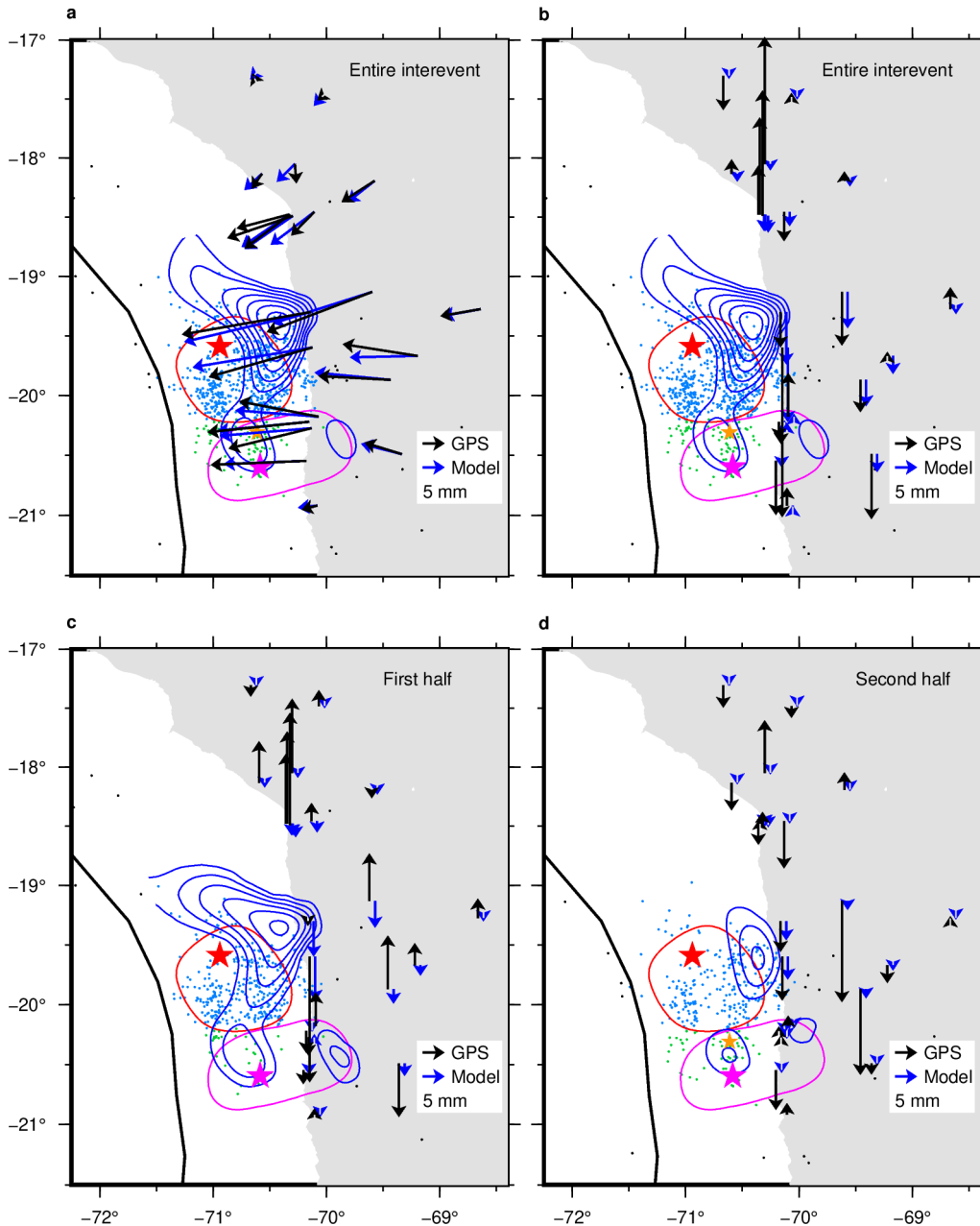
612

613

Extended Data Figure 7. Distribution of RMS of the trajectory model fit with respect to different d and g in Equation (2) (colour). **a-c**, Results for the east component at three sites as labelled. Site location is shown in Fig. 1b. **d-f** and **g-i**, Same as **a-c** but for the north and the vertical components, respectively.

616

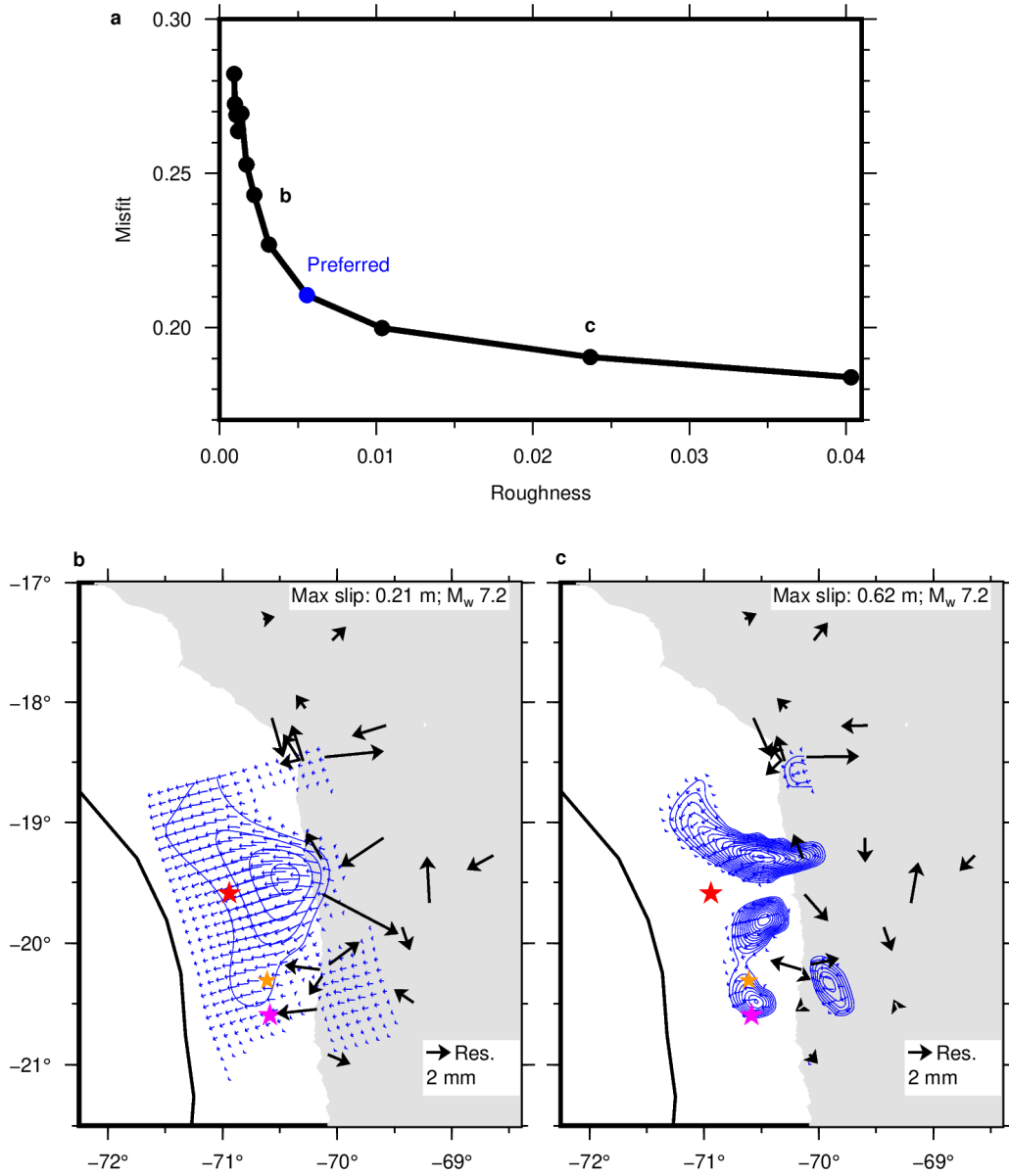
617



618
619
620
621
622
623
624
625
626

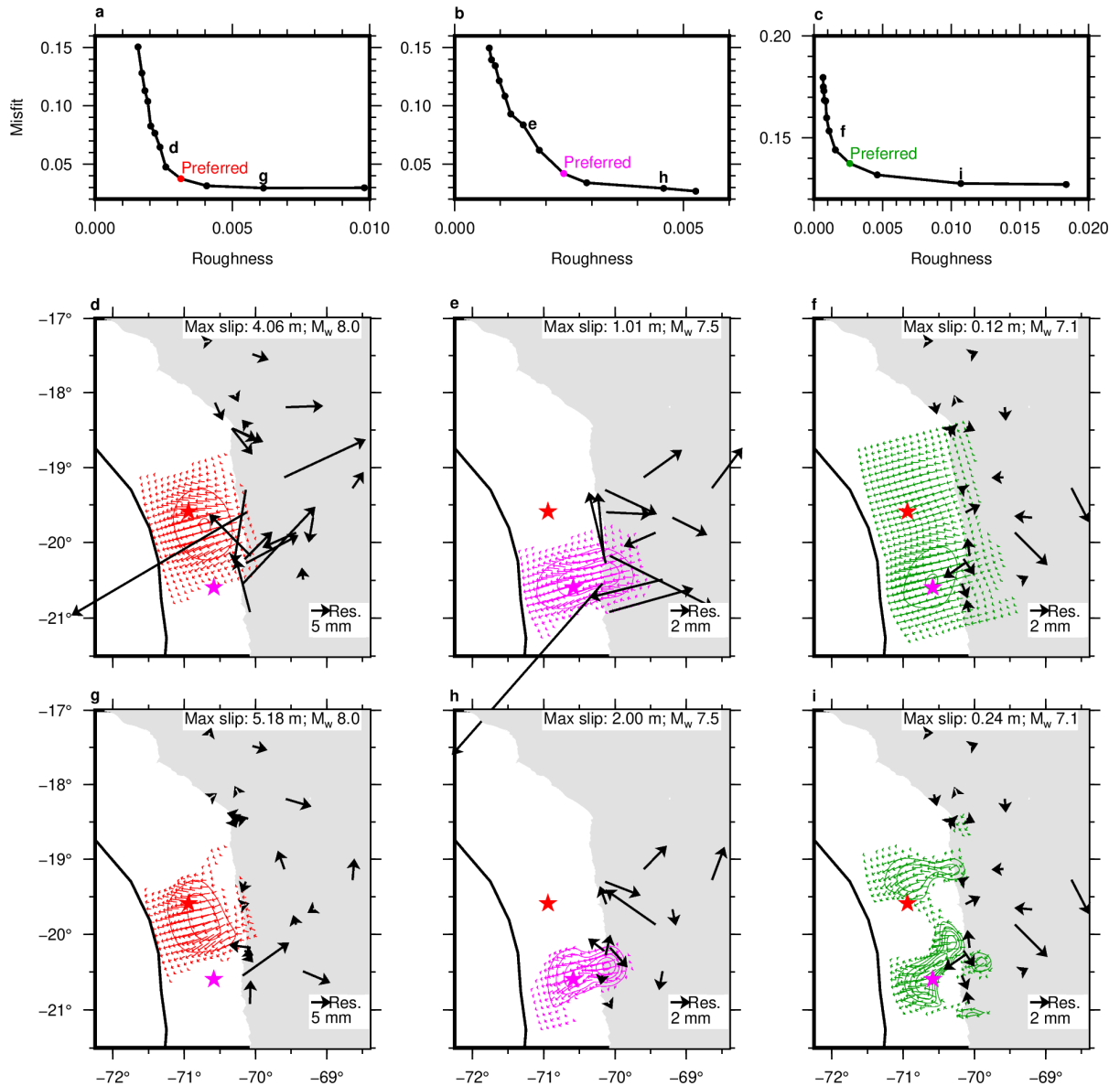
Extended Data Figure 8. Data analysis and slip inversion result using the moving average approach. **a-b**, Cumulative interevent horizontal (**a**) and vertical (**b**) displacements (black vectors) derived from the moving average analysis, together with the model prediction (blue vectors) from the inferred afterslip (blue contours). Refer to Fig. 4 for other elements. Note that GPS displacements at sites north of 19°S are not inverted. **c-d**, Same as Figs. 4e-f but with vertical GPS displacements derived from the moving average analysis (black vectors) and model predictions (blue vectors)

627
628
629



630
631
632
633
634
635

Extended Data Figure 9. Trade-off curve of the slip roughness and misfit and model variations for the interevent afterslip inversion using the displacements derived from the trajectory model fit. **a**, Trade-off curve. Dots indicate preferred (blue) and other tested models. **b-c**, model variation with different slip roughness as shown in **a**. Refer to Extended Data Fig. 2e for other elements.



636
637
638
639
640
641
642

Extended Data Figure 10. Trade-off curve of the slip roughness and misfit and model variations for the mainshock, the largest aftershock and subsequent 2-day afterslip. **a-c**, Trade-off curve for the mainshock (**a**), the largest aftershock (**b**) and subsequent 2-day afterslip (**c**). Dots indicate preferred (red, purple or green) and other tested models. **d-i**, model variation with different slip roughness as shown in **a-c**. Refer to Extended Data Figs. 3**g-i** for other elements.