

1 Transient aseismic vertical deformation across the Pisia-Skinos normal fault (Gulf of Corinth,
2 Greece)

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33 Key points

- 34 • Spatial variations in vertical ground motion (uplift/subsidence) correlate with the
35 mapped trace of the Pisias-Skinos fault in Greece.
- 36 • The ground deformation is non-uniform over the 6 years studied, and shows an up to
37 7x increase in rate, lasting at least 3 years.
- 38 • This transient interseismic deformation is hypothesised to be caused by shallow
39 aseismic centimeter-scale slip on the Pisias-Skinos fault.

40

41

42 Abstract

43 Geodetically-derived deformation rates are sometimes used to infer seismic hazard,
44 implicitly assuming that short-term (annual-decadal) deformation is representative of
45 longer-term deformation. This is despite geological observations indicating that
46 deformation/slip rates are variable over a range of timescales. Using geodetic data from
47 2016-2021, we observe an up to 7-fold increase in vertical deformation rate in mid-2019
48 across the Pisias-Skinos normal fault in Greece. We hypothesise that this deformation is
49 aseismic as there is no temporally correlated increase in the earthquake activity ($M > 1$). We
50 explore four possible physical mechanisms, and our preferred hypothesis is that the
51 transient deformation is caused by centimetre-scale slip in the upper 5km of the Pisias fault
52 zone. Our results suggest that continental normal faults can exhibit variable deformation
53 over shorter timescales than previously observed, and thus care should be taken when
54 utilising geodetic rates to quantify seismic hazard.

55

56 Plain Language Summary

57 Slip rates of active faults are used in seismic hazard assessment to infer the frequency of
58 damaging earthquakes. However slip rates are known to be variable when measured using
59 different methodologies (e.g. geodesy, geomorphology) and timescales (years to millennia)
60 for many types of faults in a range of tectonic settings. Hence we need to observe slip rates
61 for different time scales and try to understand the mechanism(s) that cause slip rates to
62 vary. In this paper, we present observations of vertical deformation around an active normal
63 fault in the Gulf of Corinth, Greece. We see that the deformation is non-uniform during
64 2016-2021 (the time period of data availability), and we analyse the data to find that the

65 deformation rate increased in mid-2019. To try and understand the physical mechanism
66 that may have caused this increase in deformation rate, we use simple modelling to test
67 four different hypotheses. We find that the best fit to the observations is for centimetres of
68 slip occurring on shallowest few kilometres of the fault. Our results highlight the importance
69 of understanding short-term (annual-decadal) processes happening on active faults, and the
70 potential pitfalls of using slip rates measured over short-timescales to infer seismic hazard.

71

72 Key Words

73 Tectonic deformation, normal faults, geodesy, seismic hazard, Greece

74

75 1. Introduction

76 Faults have been observed to have variable deformation and slip rates when measured over
77 a wide range of timescales. Variations over timescales of thousands to millions of years are
78 routinely studied using a variety of geological techniques, e.g. geological cross-sections
79 (Ford et al., 2017) (Figure 1a), seismic reflection datasets (Lathrop et al., 2021; Meyer et al.,
80 2002; Nixon et al., 2016), uplifted marine terraces (Roberts et al., 2009) (Figure 1b), ³⁶Cl
81 cosmogenic dating of fault scarps (Benedetti et al., 2002; Cowie et al., 2017; Iezzi et al.,
82 2021; Mechernich et al., 2018; Schlagenhauf et al., 2011) (Figure 1c). However, shorter term
83 variations on the order of annual-decadal timescales are more challenging to study in the
84 geological record due to their short-timescale and low preservation potential (Friedrich et
85 al., 2003), instead geodesy can be used to study variable deformation on these timescales.

86

87 Short-term variations in deformation, detected using geodesy, have been observed across a
88 range of tectonic settings, and we briefly summarise this herein. In convergent subduction
89 zones, slow slip events (SSEs) have been observed, typically lasting weeks to months with
90 slip rates from 0.001-1m/yr, with most occurring just downdip of the seismogenic zone
91 (Schwartz & Rokosky, 2007). On the North Anatolian strike-slip fault, Rousset et al. (2016)
92 identified a transient aseismic creep event, lasting one month, with slip of ~2cm occurring
93 between 1-4km depth. These authors did not identify any external physical mechanism for
94 this creep event, although they noted that there was no high rainfall anomaly, nor any
95 significant local or teleseismic earthquakes during this time period. In extensional settings,
96 transient deformation events lasting 2-4 years have been recognised in GPS data (Chamoli

97 et al., 2014). The physical mechanism of these events is debated but may be related to a low
98 angle normal fault or a megadetachment at mid to lower crustal depths of 15-30 km
99 (Chamoli et al., 2014; Wernicke et al., 2008). Another example of transient deformation has
100 been observed across a normal fault in the Delaware Basin, USA (Pepin et al., 2022), this
101 deformation is inferred to be shallow (<5km depth) and related to fluid injection.

102

103 Given the variety of settings and timescales over which variable deformation and/or slip
104 rate have been observed, an important question is how short-term (annual to decadal)
105 transient deformation fits within the longer-term deformation of an individual fault, and
106 therefore how the timescale of observation may affect our interpretation of the seismic
107 hazard posed by an individual fault.

108

109 1.1 Extension on the Perachora peninsula, Gulf of Corinth, Greece

110

111 Extension in the Gulf of Corinth is taken up on a series of roughly E-W orientated normal
112 faults (Figure 1d), the extension rate is 5.4-11mm/yr, constrained by GPS networks (Briole et
113 al., 2021; Chousianitis et al., 2015; Clarke et al., 1998). On the Perachora peninsula, the main
114 fault structures are the north-dipping Pisia and Skinos faults (Figure 1d). These faults form
115 an en-echelon relay structure, with a separation of ~2km, they are hypothesised to be
116 joined at depth due to their proximity and the pattern of converging slip vectors (Roberts,
117 1996).

118

119 In 1981 there was a sequence of three large earthquakes in the eastern Gulf of Corinth,
120 occurring over a couple of weeks on the 24th and 25th February, and 4th March with
121 magnitudes of M_w 6.7, 6.4 and 6.3 respectively (Figure 1a). The first two events occurred on
122 the Pisia-Skinos fault and surface ruptures were mapped (Jackson et al., 1982; Roberts,
123 1996).

124

125 The most recent seismic activity in the eastern Gulf of Corinth was the 2020-2021
126 earthquake swarm ($M < 4$) around the Perachora peninsula (Kapetanidis et al., 2023; Michas
127 et al., 2022). The seismicity initially began at ~5km depth, and over time it deepened and
128 propagated to the north-west/west, one hypothesis is that this sequence was triggered by

129 fluid pressure changes induced by higher than average rainfall in the preceeding months
130 (Michas et al., 2022).

131

132 Within the Gulf of Corinth, there are observations of variations in slip rates on the faults
133 from thousands to millions of years (Figure 1a-c). Using onshore and offshore stratigraphy, it
134 has been demonstrated that the Gulf of Corinth initiated at 5-4Ma and that the rate of
135 extension has increased over time as the rift localised (Ford et al., 2017). Marine
136 paleoshorelines in the footwall of the Pisias-Skinos fault have been uplifted over the last
137 300kys and show variable uplift rate over this time (Cooper et al., 2007; Roberts et al.,
138 2009) (Figure 1b). In-situ cosmogenic ^{36}Cl analyses have been conducted on the Pisias-Skinos
139 fault plane (Mechernich et al., 2018), and the resultant 30ka slip history shows variable slip
140 rates (Figure 1c).

141

142 In this study, we present observations of shorter timescale variations in deformation rate
143 across the Pisias-Skinos fault (Figure 2). Using InSAR measurements, we show that the rate of
144 footwall uplift and hangingwall subsidence is non-uniform between 2016-2021 (Figure 2c).
145 We test four different hypotheses for the causative mechanism, 1) shallow slip, 2) post-
146 seismic after-slip, 3) interseismic slip on deep shear zones and 4) post-seismic visco-elastic
147 rebound. We conclude that the most likely mechanism is shallow slip on the Pisias fault, and
148 we infer that this deformation is aseismic based on the lack of temporally correlated
149 earthquake activity. Our observation is the first example of short-term transient
150 deformation on a normal fault driven by a shallow tectonic (i.e. non-human influenced)
151 process. This has implications for understanding fault deformation and applications of
152 geodesy to quantify seismic hazard.

153

154 2. Methods

155

156 2.1 Ground deformation data

157 The European Ground Motion Service (EGMS, <https://egms.land.copernicus.eu/>) is a ground
158 deformation database, derived from Sentinel-1 satellite data (InSAR). Ideally N-S ground
159 motions would be best to study the extension in the study area, however Sentinel-1 is
160 insensitive to motions in this orientation due to side-looking satellites orbiting in a polar (i.e.

161 north-south) direction (Wright et al., 2004). Therefore, we focus on the vertical deformation
162 across the active normal faults. On the Perachora peninsula, vertical deformation data is
163 available over a 6-year time period (2016-2021). The deformation data are not spatially
164 continuous as some data have been removed due to decorrelation effects. We avoid
165 analysing data from these areas, and we focus our data analysis on areas with continuous
166 data, as described below.

167

168 There is a clear discontinuity from uplift to subsidence, spatially correlated with the Pisia
169 fault (Figure 2a), we analyse the vertical deformation in this area in two ways. Firstly, we
170 construct a 9km north-south profile, approximately perpendicular to the fault trace, and
171 take a 2km wide swath profile to create a cross-section of the uplift and subsidence.
172 Secondly, we select two areas approximately 6x1.5km in the hangingwall and footwall of the
173 fault (Figure 2a, areas 1&2). The area in the footwall of the fault is limited by the coastline,
174 and therefore we selected a similar area on the hangingwall. We average the ground
175 motions in these regions to create a time-series analysis of the deformation. Around the
176 village of Kato Alepochori, there is an approximately 7x2km area of continuous uplift (Figure
177 2a, area 3). This region is in the footwall of the offshore section of the Skinos fault,
178 therefore no information is available about hangingwall subsidence and thus we only take
179 the average of the uplifting footwall ground motions.

180

181 The time-series datasets show non-uniform deformation rates (Figure 2c). Firstly we
182 calculate the differential vertical motion between the two areas around Perachora, and
183 then we apply a piecewise linear regression (Pilgrim, 2021) to constrain the date that the
184 deformation rate increases.

185

186 Finally, we compare the time-series datasets to earthquake activity, which is taken from the
187 NOA earthquake database ([https://www.gein.noa.gr/en/services-products/database-
188 search/](https://www.gein.noa.gr/en/services-products/database-search/), date accessed 01/06/2023, for 20km radius circular area around 38.035°N
189 22.925°E, close to Perachora), we calculate the cumulative number of earthquakes and
190 seismic moment released for earthquakes $M > 1$ from 2016-2021 and compare this to the
191 deformation time-series (Figure 2d).

192

193 2.2 Modelling of hypothesised tectonic processes

194 We test four hypotheses of the causative physical mechanism of the transient vertical
195 deformation signal observed in the EGMS data. For one hypothesis (shallow after-slip), we
196 use field observations. For three hypotheses (detailed below), we use simple modelling to
197 assess likely hypotheses, note that we do not seek to do a full inversion of the vertical
198 deformation data given the spatial discontinuity along the length of the Pisia-Skinos fault.

199

200 2.2.1 Shallow slip and interseismic (shear zone) slip

201 To model vertical deformation associated with shallow slip or interseismic slip on a deep
202 shear zone, we use an elastic half-space model in Coulomb 3.4 (Toda et al., 2005). We
203 model a simplified fault 10km long with strike/dip/rake of 270°/60°/-90°. For modelling
204 shallow slip, we test uniform slip over a range of different depths, down to a maximum of 5
205 km depth based on the onset of seismicity during the 2020-2021 earthquake sequence
206 (Michas et al., 2022). For modelling interseismic slip, we model the slipping area between
207 15-24km depth (following a similar approach from the Italian Apennines (Cowie et al., 2013;
208 Mildon et al., 2022)) at a representative rate of 1mm/yr. We resolve the vertical
209 deformation at 0.1km depth (Figure 3ai and bi), as this is the minimum depth allowed in the
210 software. We compare N-S profiles through the modelled data and the actual data (Figure
211 3aai and bii).

212

213 2.2.2 Post-seismic deformation

214 We used PSGRN/PSCMP (Wang et al., 2006) to model post-seismic deformation patterns for
215 35-40 years after the 1981 earthquake sequence. We use a simplified fault model (length
216 15km, strike/dip/rake as above) to generate an earthquake with a comparable magnitude to
217 the largest of the 1981 earthquakes ($M_w=6.7$). We use a simple three layer rheological
218 model; 1) brittle crust from 0-16.5km, $V_p=5.8\text{km/s}$, density 2600kg/m^3 , $\eta=0\text{PaS}$ (the
219 steady-state viscosity); 2) lower crust from 16.5-30km, $V_p=6.7\text{km/s}$, density= 2800kg/m^3 ,
220 $\eta=6 \times 10^{16}\text{PaS}$; 3) mantle below 30km, $V_p=8\text{km/s}$, density= 3300kg/m^3 and $\eta=1 \times 10^{18}\text{PaS}$,
221 for all layers, $V_p/V_s=1.8$ (Figure 3cii). This rheological model is based on multiple
222 publications from Greece (Clément et al., 2004; Janský et al., 2007; Sachpazi et al., 2007;
223 Westaway, 2002; Zelt et al., 2005). Again, we resolve the vertical deformation at 0.1km
224 depth (Figure 3c).

225

226 3. Results

227

228 In map view, there is a transition from uplift to subsidence coincident with the Pisia-Skinos
229 fault, especially around the village of Perachora (Figure 2a). On the N-S vertical deformation
230 profile (Figure 2b), there is a clear transition from uplift to subsidence coincident with the
231 surface trace of the Pisia fault. Taking the average across the swath of data, the maximum 6-
232 year averaged rate of uplift and subsidence across the N-S profile are 1.4mm/yr and -
233 4mm/yr respectively.

234

235 Two of the selected areas are undergoing uplift, the 6-year (2016-2021) averaged uplift rate
236 around Perachora is 0.92 ± 0.01 mm/yr and around Alepochori it is 0.93 ± 0.01 mm/yr (Figure
237 2c). While these uplift rates are similar, for the majority of the time series, the Alepochori
238 region has higher uplift rates than the Perachora region, which may be expected because
239 the Alepochori region is closer to the centre of the Pisia-Skinos fault.

240

241 The 6-year averaged subsidence rate for the analysed area on Perachora is -
242 2.60 ± 0.05 mm/yr, this is ~ 3 times higher than the uplift rate in the corresponding footwall
243 region (Figure 2c).

244

245 The vertical deformation rate is not uniform over the time interval studied. Assuming that
246 there is a single breakpoint (ie a single time point where the deformation rate increases),
247 the results of the piecewise linear regression analysis on the differential vertical motion
248 around Perachora gives that the change in deformation rate occurs at 07/08/2019 (± 6 days)
249 (Figure S1). Interpreting the GPS baseline data using this date also results in an increase in
250 deformation rate (Figure 2e), although the magnitude of increase is smaller, perhaps
251 because the baseline is not perpendicular to the fault trace (Figure 1d). We interpret that
252 the deformation before 07/08/2019 is representative of steady-state, whereas the
253 deformation after 07/08/2019 represents a transient phase. We then calculate the
254 uplift/subsidence rates for before and after this date using linear regression (Figure 2c). In
255 the Perachora region, the deformation rate increases by a factor of 5-7. The increase in
256 uplift rate is lower in the Alepochori region, where it increases by a factor of ~ 2 .

257

258 At the date we have inferred an increase in the deformation rate (07/08/2019), there is no
259 temporally correlated increase in either the cumulative number of earthquakes, nor the
260 cumulative moment released (Figure 2d). Therefore we interpret that the increase in
261 deformation rate is aseismic, or at least any seismic energy released is small and below the
262 detection threshold of seismometers ($M < 1$).

263

264 4. Modelling of hypothesised causative process

265 We hypothesise that there are four possible tectonic mechanisms which could explain the
266 signal we observe across the Perachora peninsula: shallow slip, post-seismic slip,
267 interseismic slip on deep shear zones, or post-seismic visco-elastic rebound. We have
268 investigated each of these hypotheses using simple models; we do not seek to invert the
269 data fully, but instead to understand which section of the fault may be slipping.

270

271 4.1 Shallow slip

272 Looking at the N-S profile across the Perachora peninsula (Figure 2b), the wavelength of the
273 subsidence is ~ 7 km, which suggests that the underlying physical mechanism is likely to be
274 occurring in the upper few kilometres of the crust.

275

276 Using an elastic half-space model (Coulomb 3.4 (Toda et al., 2005)), we tested slip over a
277 range of depths (down to 5km), fault dips and slip magnitudes (Figure S2) and compared the
278 shape and size of the resulting deformation pattern perpendicular to the fault. From our
279 modelling, the following points emerge; 1) slip does not reach the surface, as this would
280 produce an asymmetric subsidence signal which would not match the observations; 2) the
281 dip and depth of slip affect the width and magnitude of the subsidence signal and therefore
282 there is a trade-off between these two factors; and 3) the magnitude of slip directly affects
283 the magnitude of the resulting vertical deformation, and seems to have little impact on the
284 shape of the uplift/subsidence. The best-fit simple model to the N-S profile has the fault
285 slipping 1.8cm from 2-4km depth (Figure 3a), and while this is not a full inversion, this gives
286 an indication of the approximate depth and magnitude of slip required to produce the
287 observed signal. Given that there is no temporally coincident increase in earthquake activity
288 (Figure 2d), we suggest that this slip must be aseismic. We believe this is the first such

289 observation of a transient shallow slip event on a normal fault globally that cannot be linked
290 to human activities.

291

292 Our model may provide an alternative explanation for triggering of the 2020 earthquake
293 swarm, as shallow slip in mid-2019 would transfer stress downwards and thus triggering the
294 shallowest earthquakes in 2020 at 5km depth. We do not suggest that the shallow slip was
295 triggered by meteoric fluids because the increase in deformation rate began before the
296 period of high rainfall (Michas et al., 2022).

297

298 4.2 Post-seismic after-slip

299 There are several observations of surficial after-slip occurring after large normal faulting
300 earthquakes, for example the 2009 Mw=6.3 L'Aquila earthquake (D'Agostino et al., 2012;
301 Wilkinson et al., 2010, 2012), the 2020 Mw=7.0 Samos earthquake (Ganas et al., 2021), the
302 1980 Ms=6.9 Irpinia earthquake (Ascione et al., 2020) and the 2006 Mw=7.0 Mozambique
303 earthquake (Copley et al., 2012). In all these examples, the after-slip is interpreted to be
304 'filling in' coseismic slip deficits, and it is observed days to months after the large
305 earthquake and it decays over time.

306

307 After the 1981 earthquake on the Pisia-Skinos fault, the coseismic slip was measured from
308 surface ruptures at a clear piercing point (Figure 3b) which is close to the N-S profile taken
309 through the data. This has been repeatedly measured over the subsequent years by the
310 authors at this exact point, firstly in 2001 (Roberts et al., 2009) and most recently in May
311 2023, and this measurement has not changed (within an estimated error of $\pm 0.5\text{cm}$).

312 Therefore, we discount post-seismic after-slip as the causal mechanism because it is not
313 consistent with 1) our observations of an acceleration 35 years after the 1981 earthquake
314 and 2) that the offset across the surface rupture has not increased.

315

316 4.3 Interseismic slip on lower crustal shear zones

317 Our elastic-halfspace model of slip on an underlying deep shear zone replicates the
318 uplift/subsidence transition spatially coincident with the fault trace (Figure 3c). However,
319 the N-S wavelength of the subsidence signal ($\sim 30\text{km}$) is far larger than our observations
320 ($\sim 7\text{km}$ wavelength), this due to the modelled slip occurring on the deep shear zone.

321 Furthermore, the vertical deformation is two orders of magnitude smaller than our
322 observations, and therefore we discount this physical mechanism.

323

324 4.4 Post-seismic visco-elastic rebound

325 Using PSGRN/PSCMP (Wang et al., 2006) we calculate the post-seismic vertical deformation
326 at 35 and 40 years for M 6.7 earthquake and then calculate the difference to get the vertical
327 deformation rate. The model shows that there would be subsidence everywhere around the
328 fault, including in the footwall (Figure 3d). Our observations do not agree with this pattern,
329 and hence we discount this physical mechanism.

330

331 5. Discussion

332 5.1. Implications for fault behaviour

333 From our study, we are unable to determine a trigger for the transient phase of deformation
334 and the hypothesised mechanism of aseismic slip on the fault plane, however we can
335 speculate on the possible triggers. We have assumed that both the steady-state and
336 transient deformation phases can be fit by linear regression, however by visually inspecting
337 the fit to differential motion time-series (Figure S1), the transient deformation may be
338 better fit using a non-linear regression, e.g. exponential or a second-order polynomial. This
339 suggests that the underlying physical mechanism may be a non-linear process.

340

341 The rate-and-state friction framework is commonly applied to earthquake behaviour, based
342 on laboratory experiments and numerical modelling. One question is whether aseismic slip
343 and/or transient deformation is possible within a rate and state framework, and several
344 studies using numerical modelling show that aseismic slip can occur between seismic slip (ie
345 earthquakes). The mechanism within rate and state causing transient slip periods is
346 debated, some authors hypothesise that the stability of the fault is related to the length of
347 the fault (Biemiller & Lavier, 2017; Rubin, 2008). Whereas other studies hypothesise that
348 transient slip occurs due to variations in fault zone rheology, either by observing transient
349 slip occurring at rheological transitions (Lapusta & Liu, 2009; Liu & Rice, 2005), or by varying
350 the proportions of velocity-weakening and -strengthening material (Skarbek et al., 2012).

351 The fault geometry utilised in these studies is variable, but one study is based on a normal
352 fault. In this study (Biemiller & Lavier, 2017), the authors model a normal fault with a

353 shallow (~5km) velocity-weakening zone. Their models show both aseismic slip transients
354 and clustered earthquakes, with the aseismic transients accommodating 15-20cm slip per
355 event over 5-25 years – these modelled events are not dissimilar in magnitude to our
356 observations. Some studies find that variable seismic/aseismic slip can occur at low
357 effective stresses (Rubin, 2008; Skarbek et al., 2012), ie at shallow depths or areas with high
358 pore fluid pressure. While we do not know the pore fluid pressure at depth, our best fit
359 model of slip occurring in the upper 5km would imply low effective stresses.

360

361 Therefore, perhaps the transient deformation we observe, and the shallow slip we
362 hypothesise is allowed within a typical rate-and-state framework for a continental fault (ie
363 not a subduction zone). Of the hypothesised causative mechanisms for variable fault
364 behaviour, we suggest that variability in the fault zone rheology is more likely, as the length
365 of the fault is unlikely to change on the studied timescales This hypothesis could be
366 investigated further by drilling and collecting samples from the fault plane at the inferred
367 depth of the deformation, i.e., 2-4km depth.

368

369 5.2 Implications for utilising geodetically derived rates in seismic hazard assessment

370 Our observation raises important questions about how short-term (annual-decadal)
371 deformation rates relate to longer-term deformation rates. By splitting the time-series
372 datasets into steady-state motion and transient signal, we can compare these rates and link
373 them to independent longer term uplift records from the Perachora coastline to estimate
374 how frequently transient periods of deformation may occur.

375

376 We hypothesise that the long-term uplift in the Perachora coastal area is a combination of
377 coseismic uplift, steady state, and transient uplift. The long-term uplift rate is 0.51mm/yr
378 over 125kyrs (Cooper et al., 2007; Roberts et al., 2009). The coseismic uplift in 1981 at the
379 coastline was 10cm (Cooper et al., 2007) and we use a recurrence interval of 0.9-1.3kyrs
380 (Mechernich et al., 2018) to calculate the total of coseismic uplift over 125kyrs. The steady
381 state rate is taken to be 0.39mm/yr (Figure 2c). The transient deformation has been ongoing
382 for at least 2.5yrs, so we assume a range of durations (3-10yrs) for our simple approach to
383 calculating the recurrence interval of transient deformation periods. Considering the
384 uncertainties on earthquake recurrence interval and our assumed 3-10yr transient duration,

385 we calculate that the transient recurrence is in the range of ~110-1800yrs. While this is a
386 large range, what it does imply is that the minimum expected transient recurrence is greater
387 than the time that high-resolution satellite-based geodesy has been available. Therefore, it
388 is perhaps not surprising that similar transients have not been previously observed in this
389 region, and the limited examples from elsewhere in the world.

390

391 Assuming other faults globally behave like the Pisia-Skinos fault and experience transient
392 phases, this may help to explain why there are sometimes discrepancies between geodetic
393 and geologic rates of deformation. This also highlights a potential pitfall of using short-term
394 geodetic deformation rates, as the inferred seismic hazard would be different using the
395 steady-state versus transient rates we calculate. Therefore, this study highlights the need to
396 understand how faults deform over short timescales, from years to thousands of years.

397

398

399 5. Conclusions

400 Using geodetic data we observe vertical deformation (uplift and subsidence) which spatially
401 correlates with the mapped fault trace of the Pisia-Skinos normal fault in the Gulf of Corinth,
402 Greece. By studying the time-series of the vertical deformation, we can see that this
403 deformation is not uniform over the 6-year time period, and instead there is a 5-7-fold
404 increase in deformation rate in mid-2019. Using simple elastic models, we explore four
405 possible tectonic mechanisms that could explain the spatial pattern of the deformation, and
406 we hypothesise that the most likely explanation is that the vertical deformation is caused by
407 small amounts (~1-2cm) of shallow (~2-4km depth) transient slip on the Pisia-Skinos fault.

408 We use the interpreted steady-state and transient rate to infer how frequently such
409 transient episodes could occur. Our study highlights a potential pitfall of using geodetically-
410 derived deformation rates to inform seismic hazard, as it may be difficult to determine
411 whether a geodetic rate is truly representative of 'steady state' or whether a transient
412 phase has been captured. This highlights that the occurrence of short-term (annual-decadal)
413 transient phases of deformation merits further investigation.

414

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420 Data availability statement

421 GPS 30-s data (daily files) are made available by Hexagon Smart Net Greece for academic

422 use. EGMS data are available free of charge by [https://land.copernicus.eu/pan-](https://land.copernicus.eu/pan-european/european-ground-motion-service)

423 [european/european-ground-motion-service](https://land.copernicus.eu/pan-european/european-ground-motion-service).

424

425

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432

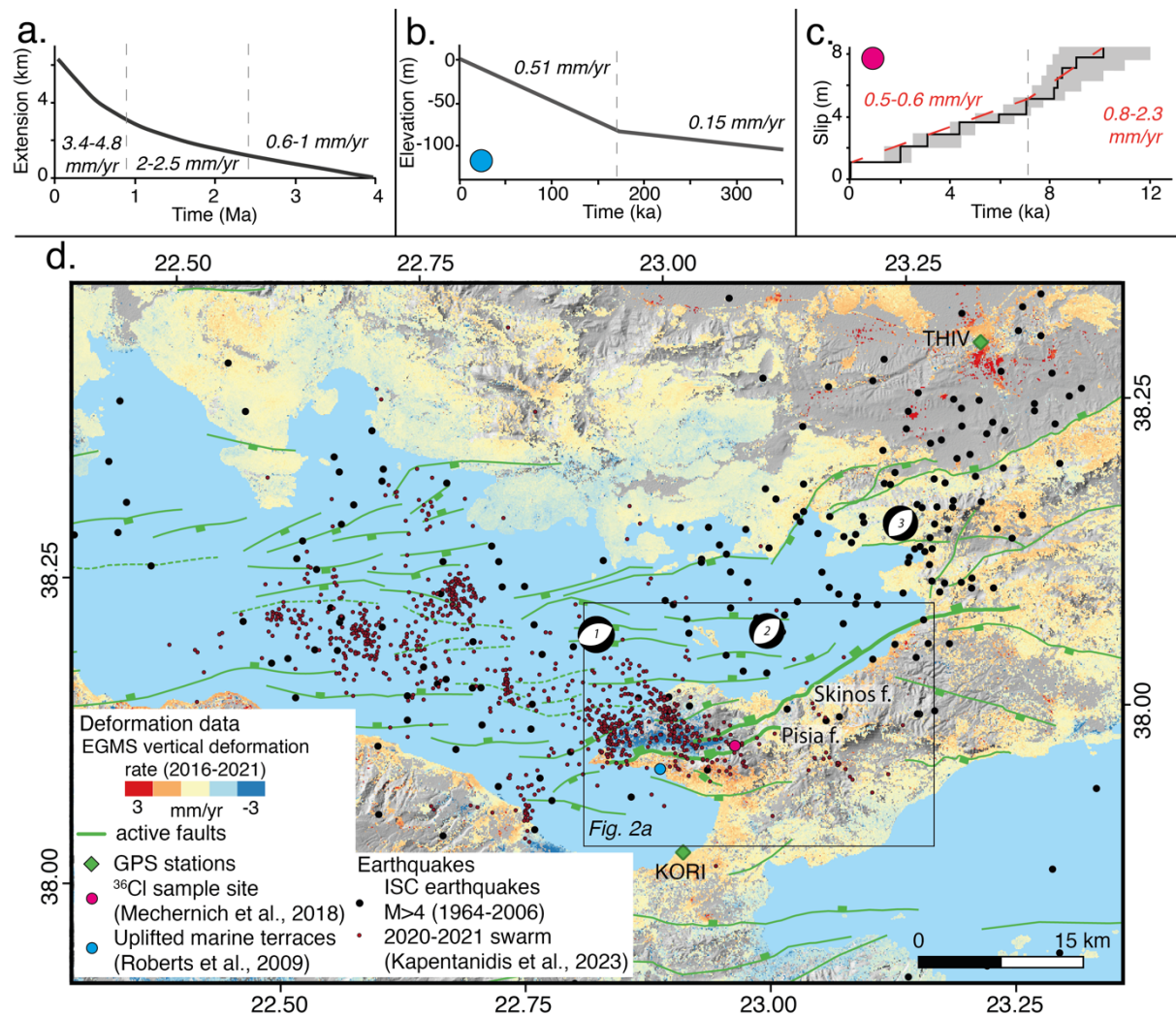
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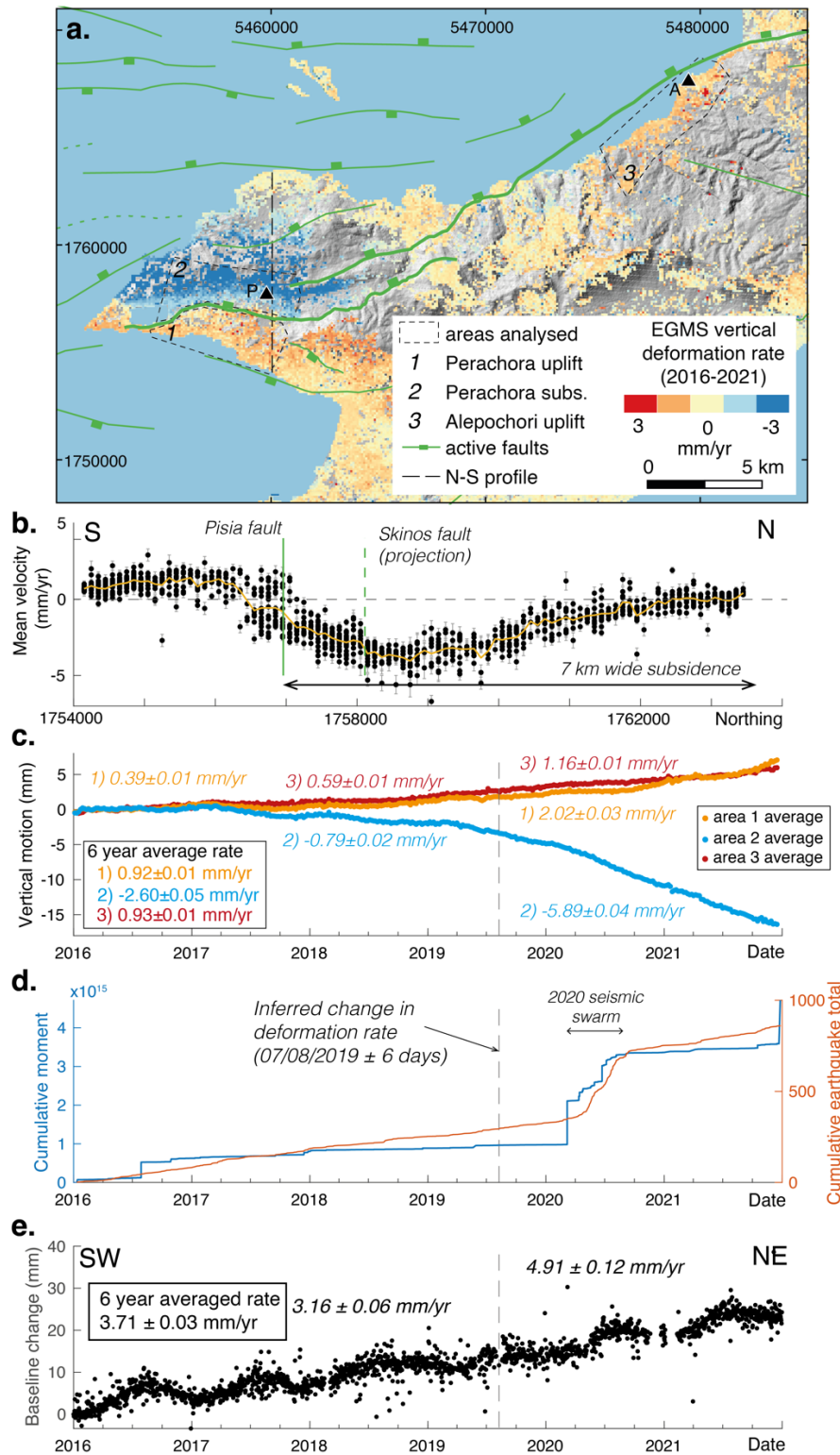
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437 **Figures**



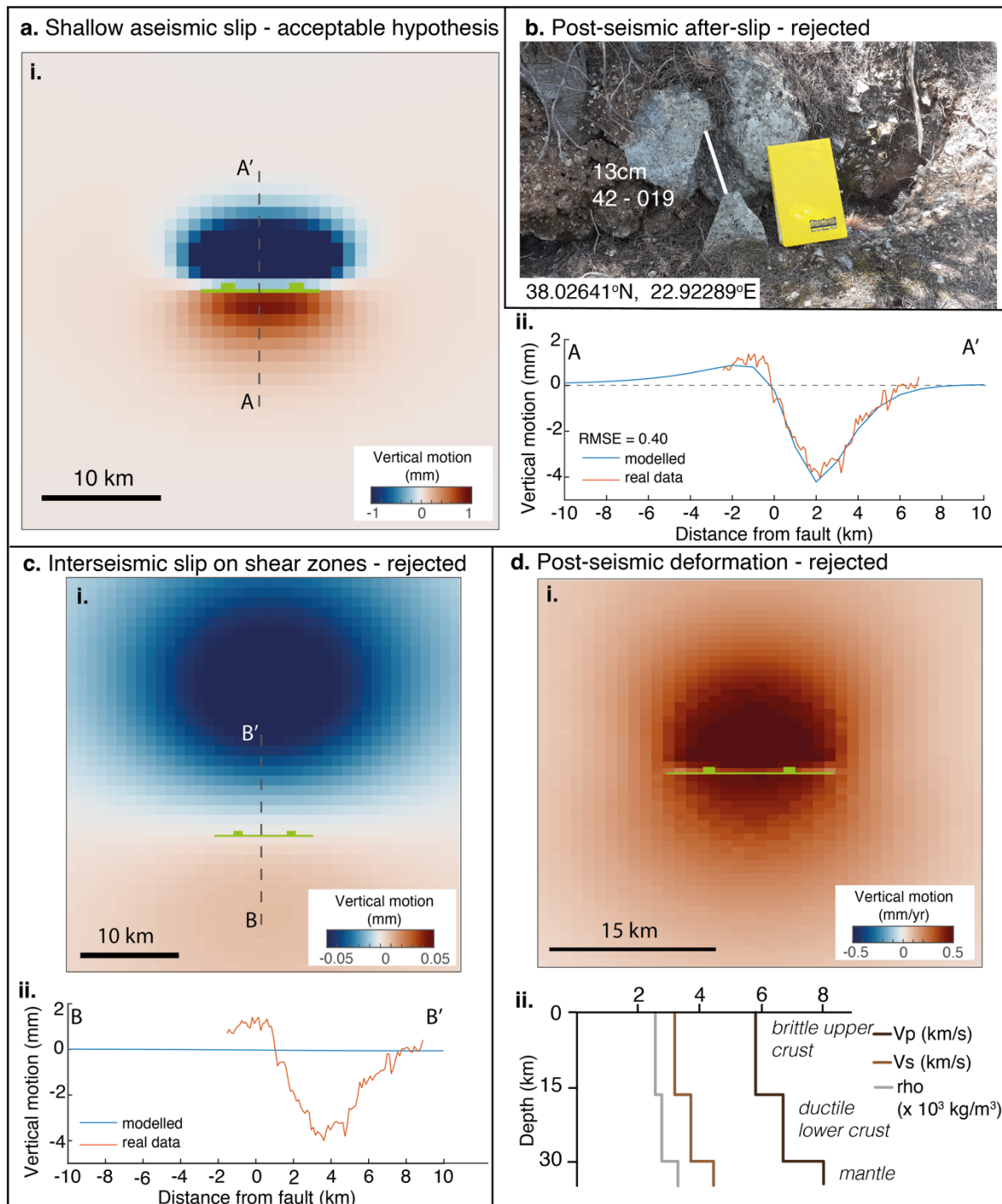
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 439 *Figure 1 – Overview of the scientific basis and study region. a. Evidence for variation in*
 440 *extension rate across the western Gulf of Corinth over millions of years (Ford et al., 2017). b.*
 441 *Evidence for variation in the uplift rate of the southern Perachora coastline (footwall of the*
 442 *Pisia-Skinos fault) from dated marine terraces (Roberts et al., 2009). c. Evidence for variation*
 443 *in slip rate on the Pisias fault, inverted from ³⁶Cl cosmogenic analyses (Mechernich et al.,*
 444 *2018). d. Summary map of the study area, showing the active faults, vertical deformation*
 445 *dataset, and recorded earthquakes. Focal mechanisms are for the 1981 sequence, 1-*
 446 *24/3/1981, M6.7, 2-25/3/1981, M6.4, 3-4/3/1981, M6.3. Map units are in latitude and*
 447 *longitude. The box shows the location of Figure 2a.*
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450 Figure 2 – Deformation data from the Perachora peninsula. a. Map of the region showing
 451 the spatial pattern of the EGMS vertical deformation, map coordinates are ETRS89-LAEA
 452 Europe. Three small regions are analysed in detail where there is good data consistency and
 453 coverage. Towns are as follows, P-Perachora, A-Alepochori. b. Mean rate of vertical
 454 deformation along a 2km wide N-S profile across the Pisia fault. Error bars are standard

455 *deviation reported by the EGMS. c. Time series of the three regions analysed. Rates and*
456 *associated errors are calculated using linear regression after filtering out the seasonal*
457 *signal. Rates given in italics are for before/after the inferred increase in deformation rate at*
458 *07/08/2019. d. Earthquake activity over the time interval studied. e. Time-series of GPS*
459 *baseline change between two stations (see Figure 1d for locations). An increase in rate can*
460 *also be interpreted at the same time as that interpreted from the EGMS data.*
461
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464 *Figure 3 – Possible tectonic mechanisms for the vertical deformation observed across the*
 465 *Pisia fault. a. Shallow slip, our model (i) has the fault slipping 1.8cm from 2-4km depth,*
 466 *comparing the modelled deformation to the N-S profile (ii) there is good agreement with the*
 467 *shape and magnitude of the actual data. This is our preferred hypothesis to explain the*
 468 *observed deformation. b. Photo of the 1981 surface rupture, showing no evidence for post-*
 469 *seismic after-slip, as the offset is the same (with measurement error of ± 0.5 cm) as previous*
 470 *observations. c. Interseismic slip on deep underlying shear zones, our model (i) matches the*

471 *uplift/subsidence pattern, but the wavelength of the subsidence signal is far larger than*
472 *observed and the deformation is an order of magnitude smaller (ii). d. Post-seismic visco-*
473 *elastic rebound, our model (i) implies uplift in both the footwall and hangingwall, which does*
474 *not match the observations. ii shows the rheological model used.*

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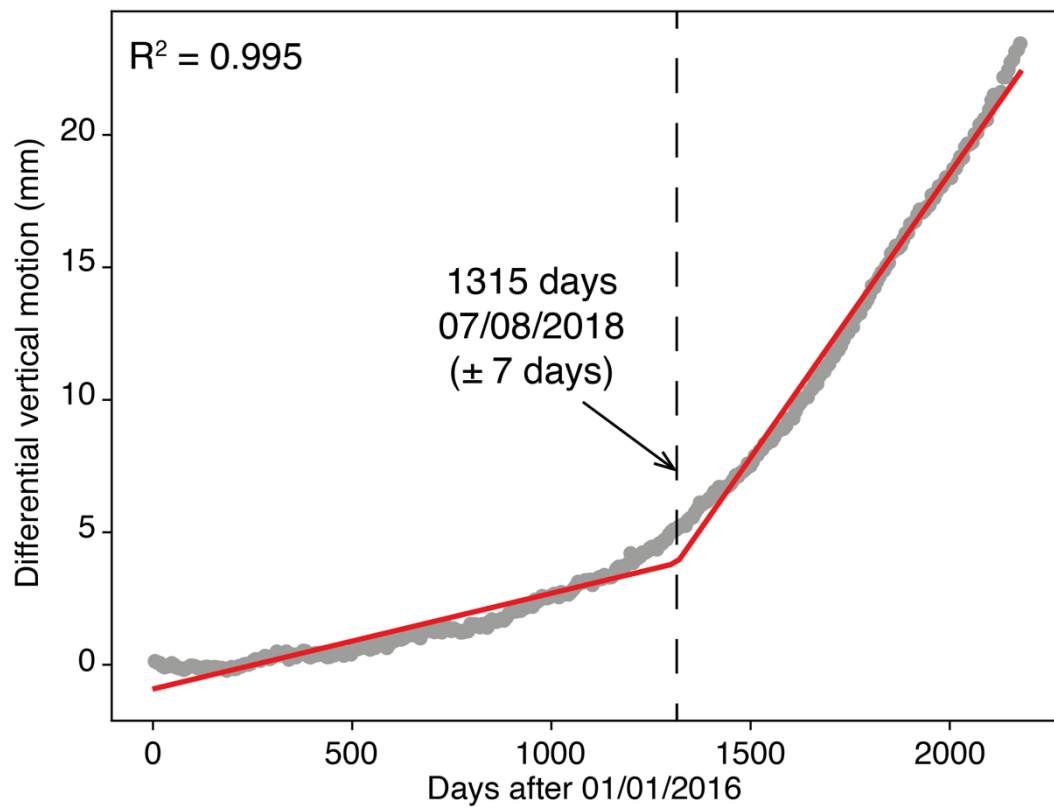
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648 Supplementary Figures

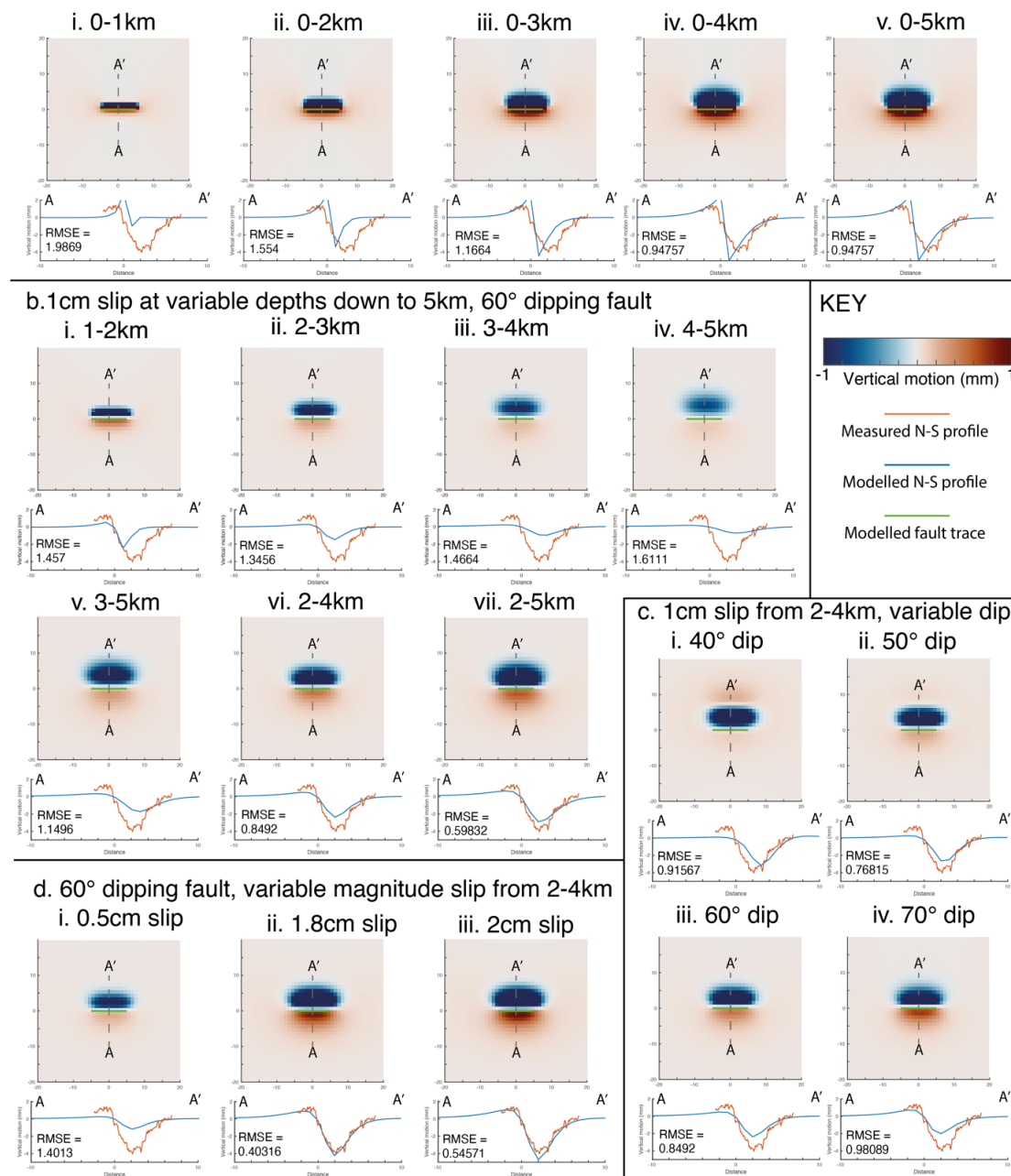
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651 **Figure S1.** Results of piecewise linear regression analysis, following (Pilgrim, 2021). Assuming
652 only one breakpoint, the best fit breakpoint in the data is at 1315 ± 7 days, which
653 corresponds to a date of 07/08/2018.

Preliminary models to constrain the approximate depth of slip
a. 1cm slip from the surface to variable depths, 60° dipping fault



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Figure S2. Elastic-half space modelling to provide constraints on the parameters of shallow aseismic slip. The models are evaluated by comparing the modelled N-S profile (blue line) to the average N-S deformation from the data (orange line, from Figure 2b). The best-fit model is 1.8 cm slip from 2-4 km depth on a fault dipping 60°. This is not a full inversion, which would not be possible given the discontinuous nature of data along the full length of the Pisia-Skinos fault. However, these models can be used to give approximate constraints on the location and magnitude of aseismic slip that we hypothesise is the physical mechanism producing the transient vertical deformation signal observed in the EGMS data.