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1 **Stress perturbations from hydrological and industrial loads and seismicity in the Salt Lake**
2 **City region**

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9

10 **Key Points:**

- 11 • The M5.7 Magna earthquake, its aftershocks and persistent microseismicity cluster next
12 to a mine tailings impoundment
- 13 • The elastic stress produced by industrial loads exceeds that from hydrological sources by
14 two orders of magnitude in the hypocentral zone
- 15 • Aggregate tailings yield stressing rates comparable to tectonic loading and could delay or
16 hasten nearby ruptures by hundreds of years

17

18 **Abstract:** The March 18, 2020 M5.7 Magna earthquake awakened people from decades of seismic
19 quiescence in Salt Lake City, Utah. The event occurred just east of a mine tailings impoundment
20 that receives ~60 million tons/yr of ore waste products since the early 1900s. Here we investigate
21 elastic loading effects due to the anthropogenic mass transfer and various natural hydrological
22 loads. We note a possible spatial correlation between earthquake clusters and Coulomb stress
23 changes of tens of kPa due to the tailings loads. In contrast, long-term and seasonal stress changes
24 from hydrological loads are only several kPa. A lack of statistically significant seasonality in
25 seismicity suggests a weak control by cyclic hydrological loads. Anthropogenic loading rates of
26 ~ 1 kPa/yr at seismogenic depths during recent decades may accelerate or decelerate event
27 occurrences by several hundreds of years, mainly depending on the encompassing fault geometries.

28

29 **Plain Language Abstract:** The interconnection between anthropogenic surface modifications and
30 natural hazards has received relatively little attention due to their small dimensions and shallow
31 locations. We note a compelling spatial correlation between a mine tailings impoundment and the
32 March 18, 2020 M5.7 Magna earthquake, its aftershocks, and persistent earthquake clusters in the
33 Salt Lake City region. This highly populated region hosts various industrial, hydrological, and
34 tectonic processes, including the world's largest man-made excavation, the Bingham Canyon mine,
35 and its associated tailings facility, the Great Salt Lake and Utah Lake, a dynamic aquifer system,
36 regional soil moisture and snow loads, as well as the seismically active Wasatch Fault Zone. Here
37 we characterize the spatio-temporal stress changes since the early 1900s due to the industrial and
38 hydrological sources. The lack of statistically significant seasonality in seismicity suggests a weak
39 correlation with the cyclic hydrological loads. On the other hand, the aggregate tailings load may
40 accelerate or decelerate the seismicity by hundreds of years depending on the location, geometry

41 and frictional properties of active faults. Comprehensive seismic monitoring near sites of industrial
42 production is warranted in fragile geological and tectonic settings to ensure socioeconomic health
43 and sustainable development.

44

45 **Keywords:** 2020 Magna earthquake; mine tailings impoundment; hydrological loads; Coulomb
46 stress; seismicity; anthropogenic impact

47 1. Introduction

48 The complex nature of earthquakes and other geohazards has taught us that failure
49 mechanisms in the crust rarely occur in isolation. Tectonic, hydroclimatic and anthropogenic
50 factors may influence eventual catastrophic failure. Changes in surface mass loads and subsurface
51 pore pressure, such as from reservoir impoundment (e.g., Talwani, 1997; Gupta, 2002; Ge et al.,
52 2009), open-pit and underground mining (e.g., Pankow et al., 2014; Li et al., 2007), extreme
53 climate (e.g., Costain & Blooringer, 2010) and fluid injection and withdrawal (e.g., González et
54 al., 2012; Ellsworth, 2013; Rubinstein and Mahani, 2015; Wetzler et al., 2019), may perturb the
55 subsurface stress field, making critically stressed seismogenic zones more vulnerable. In particular,
56 regional hydrological loading has been recognized to modulate seismicity, often exhibited in an
57 annual period in the number of earthquakes, such as in Himalayas (Bettinelli et al., 2008),
58 California (Amos et al., 2014; Johnson et al., 2017), the New Madrid Seismic Zone (Craig et al.,
59 2017), southern Alaska (Johnson et al., 2020), and the East African Rift System (Xue et al., 2020).
60 However, artificial load changes from landfills, construction, or quarrying may also induce
61 dynamic failures (e.g., Qian et al., 2019; Ampuero et al., 2020), yet have been largely neglected
62 due to their small dimensions and shallow locations.

63 Salt Lake City (SLC) and the nearby Great Salt Lake are located in the hanging wall of
64 the Wasatch Fault Zone (WFZ), forming the eastern margin of the Basin and Range province
65 (Fig. 1). The ~40-km SLC segment along the central WFZ has a vertical slip rate between 0.9
66 and 1.8 mm/yr, a recurrence interval of surface-breaking ruptures of 1,300-1,500 yr, and the
67 latest surface-rupturing event dates back to $1,300 \pm 200$ yr B.P. (DuRoss and Hylland, 2015;
68 DuRoss et al., 2016). The basin also hosts the east-dipping West Valley Fault Zone (WVFZ) to
69 the west of the Jordan River, and subparallel to the WFZ, constituting a graben that hosts a

70 dynamic confined aquifer (Hu et al., 2018; Hu & Bürgmann, 2020). To the south, the Traverse
71 Mountains separate the Salt Lake basin from another remnant of prehistoric Lake Bonneville, the
72 Utah Lake.

73 Of particular significance to the local economy and history, the Bingham mining district in
74 the Oquirrh Mountains west of the Salt Lake basin has supported generations of SLC residents
75 since its initial discovery around 1850 (Krahulec, 2018). It features the world’s largest man-made
76 excavation and open-pit ore mine – the Bingham Canyon mine (e.g., Krahulec, 2018). The open-
77 pit mining operation officially started in 1906 and the tailings have been transported ~20 km north
78 and deposited in an impoundment to the north of Magna, adjacent to the south shore of Great Salt
79 Lake. The recent M5.7 Magna earthquake struck the metropolitan SLC region on March 18th, 2020.
80 Intriguingly, the M5.7 event and its aftershocks occurred immediately east of the tailings dam,
81 where historical microseismicity has also been clustered for many decades (Figs. 2 and S2)
82 (Bowman & Arabasz, 2017; Hu et al., 2017; Hu & Bürgmann, 2020).

83 To address concerns about the potential impact of natural and anthropogenic load changes
84 on seismic hazards, especially near dense population centers, we investigate the potential spatio-
85 temporal correlations between the elastic stress changes induced by hydrological and industrial
86 loads and the distribution of earthquakes in the SLC region since 1900 (Fig. S1). We find that
87 while seasonal and long-term stress changes from hydrological loads (lakes, aquifers, soil moisture,
88 and snow) are small and do not appear to modulate seismicity in this area, more than one century
89 of mining tailings accumulation from the Bingham Mine substantially modified the local stress
90 (tens of kPa) at the hypocenter of the 2020 Magna earthquake and nearby clusters of historic
91 seismicity and could have delayed or hastened event occurrences by a few hundred years.

92

93 Fig. 1

94

95 **2. Data and Methods**

96 **2.1. Earthquake Catalogs**

97 University of Utah Seismograph Stations (UUSS) archives one historical, two pre-digital,
98 and one modern earthquake catalog for the Utah region (Lat. 36.75° to 42.50° N, Long. 108.75° to
99 114.25° W) (Figs. 3 and S2-S5; Table S1).

100 For the 2020 Magna earthquake sequence, a total of 2017 events were detected after the
101 mainshock in the period from March 18 to May 6, 2020 (Fig. 2). The spatial distribution of the
102 aftershock sequence shows two distinct clusters that we refer to as cluster *W* and cluster *E*. Similar
103 to the distribution of microseismicity since 1980 in the modern catalog (Hu & Bürgmann, 2020),
104 cluster *W* produced more events and lies at a greater depth than cluster *E* (Fig. S6).

105 The earthquake catalogs compiled by UUSS recorded more than 20 earthquakes with $M > 3$
106 surrounding the tailings impoundment during 1900-2018 (Figs. 4b and S7). The largest pre-2020
107 earthquake in cluster *W* was a $M_{5.2}$ event at a focal depth of ~ 10.7 km on September 5, 1962
108 (Wong et al., 1995). Wong et al. (1995) proposed that a ~ 20 -km-long, buried and east-dipping
109 “Saltair structure” represents the source fault of the 1962 event, based on the distribution of a small
110 number of aftershocks and gravity anomaly. The latest aftershock relocations of the 2020 Magna
111 earthquake by UUSS do support seismicity on planes dipping steeply to the east (Pang et al., 2020;
112 UUSS, 2020a). The east-dipping WVFZ lies just west of cluster *E* and may have jointly produced
113 both long-term and aftershock activity in that shallow zone (Fig. 2).

114

115 Fig. 2

116

117 **2.2. Mine and Tailings Impoundment**

118 The Oquirrh Mountains host the Bingham Canyon copper mine that started its production
119 in the early 1900s (Hu et al., 2017, and references therein). A $\sim 34\text{-km}^2$ tailings impoundment was
120 developed just south of the Great Salt Lake, consisting of a 20-km^2 , now inactive south pond close
121 to the residential area of Magna and a 14-km^2 north pond holding the tailings since ~ 2001 . In
122 recent years, about 60 million tons of tailings are deposited in the impoundment per annum (Rio
123 Tinto, 2019). We consider the time series of annual production of raw ore from 1904-05 to 2017
124 (Fig. S7) as the cumulative tailings load, as only a small fraction of the material is refined into
125 copper and other precious metals (Krahulec, 2018). We assume that the amount of mass reduction
126 at the mine site is the same as the mass increase at the tailings pond.

127

128 **2.3. Surface loading from Great Salt Lake and Utah Lake**

129 The prehistoric Lake Bonneville was the largest of numerous late Pleistocene pluvial lakes
130 in the region reaching a maximum depth of 380 m and an area of $52,000\text{ km}^2$ (Gilbert, 1890). As
131 a consequence of abrupt postglacial unloading and associated viscoelastic rebound (Bills et al.,
132 1994), a faster slip rate and increased seismicity over the Wasatch region has been inferred from
133 time-dependent stress modeling, Holocene to recent geologic, palaeoseismological, and geodetic
134 data (Hetzl & Hampel, 2005).

135 We obtain the water level record of the Great Salt Lake (1847 to present) and the Utah
136 Lake (2012 to present) (Fig. S7). The lake levels vary seasonally, reaching their maxima around
137 May due to abundant recharge from mountain snowmelt. The lake levels also vary over multi-year

138 time scales due to climate variability, including substantial lake drawdowns from the late 1980s to
139 early 1990s, from the late 1990s to early 2000s, and most recently from 2012 to 2016.

140

141 **2.4. Loading from Soil Moisture, Snow and Aquifer Water Equivalent Thickness Changes**

142 The seasonal changes in water equivalent thickness from soil moisture (North American
143 Land Data Assimilation System (NLDAS) Noah model; Mitchell et al., 2004) and snowfall (SNOW
144 Data Assimilation System (SNODAS); NOHRSC, 2004; Argus et al., 2014) are each up to ~0.5 m
145 (Fig. S8). A dynamic aquifer in the graben between the WVFZ and WFZ is characterized by cyclic
146 seasonal discharge/recharge processes (Hu et al., 2017). From the first-order correlation between
147 the seasonal groundwater level changes and the poroelastic displacements of the aquifer skeleton,
148 Hu & Bürgmann (2020) estimated a water equivalent thickness change of less than one meter and
149 a corresponding seasonal volume change of 0.03-0.06 km³ (Fig. 4d), which allows us to further
150 explore the seasonal loading effect from this local hydrological unit.

151

152 **2.5. Loading Model and Stress Computation**

153 To fully characterize both the natural and anthropogenic loading effects on the SLC region,
154 we consider hydrological loads from the Great Salt Lake, Utah Lake, snow, soil moisture, and a
155 local aquifer, as well as the artificial counterpart from the tailings deposits. We compute their
156 respective contributions to subsurface stress changes and spatio-temporal variations at both multi-
157 annual and seasonal scales. The stress distributions from snow and soil moisture represent regional
158 effects dominated by seasonal variations, and the aquifer load also does not exhibit appreciable
159 multi-annual changes (Hu and Bürgmann, 2020). Therefore, we only focus on their seasonal
160 variations. We apply a finite-element model to compute the stress fields using the software PyLith

161 (Aagaard et al., 2013). We use an elastic Earth structure constrained by the seismic velocities
162 defined in the WUS model (Herrmann et al., 2011; Whidden and Pankow; 2012) and the densities
163 from the global PREM (Dziewonski and Anderson, 1981).

164 Since the M5.7 and its aftershocks occurred in a complicated seismogenic regime with
165 west- and east-dipping structures, we consider a west-dipping scenario with striking 182° and
166 dipping 29° (linear fit through the relocated aftershocks from March 18 through March 24 in cluster
167 *W*; Pang et al., 2020; USSS, 2020b), and an east-dipping scenario with striking 320° and dipping
168 65° (based on the east-dipping nodal planes of the M5.7 and large aftershocks reported by USGS)
169 for the stress computations. We use an effective friction coefficient of 0.4 to compute the Coulomb
170 stress change assuming pure normal faulting.

171

172 **3. Results**

173 To compare the Coulomb stress changes $\Delta\sigma_c$ due to different long-term loading sources,
174 we first focus on a ~ 45 -km-long EW cross section (white line in Fig. 1) (e.g., Figs. 3a-f). We also
175 extract 2D horizontal map views of stress changes at a depth of 9 km (e.g., Figs. 3g-l).

176

177 **3.1 Historic Coulomb Stress Changes**

178 The long-term decrease of the Great Salt Lake load from 1900 to 2020 by ~ 3 m (Fig. 4c)
179 unclamps the fault and results in a net increase of $\Delta\sigma_c$ by ~ 3 kPa for the 29° west-dipping geometry
180 and by ~ 0.4 kPa for the 65° east-dipping geometry in the hypocentral zone (Figs. 4a, d, g, j).
181 Though small in dimensions compared to the Great Salt Lake, the ore transport from the mine 20-
182 km north to the tailings pond from 1905 to 2017, generated more than one hundred kPa of Coulomb
183 stress changes in the upper few km and tens of kPa at 9 km depth (Figs. 4b, e, h, k), two orders of

184 magnitude larger than the hydrological sources. The changes in Coulomb stresses are opposite in
185 the seismogenic zone for the west and east dipping scenarios, as a result of the competing effects
186 of normal and shear stresses (Figs. S10-S11). Specifically, the ore deposition results in a $\Delta\sigma_c$
187 decrease by ~ 45 kPa in cluster *W* for the west-dipping geometry and a $\Delta\sigma_c$ increase by ~ 45 kPa
188 for the steeply east-dipping geometry. Supplementary figure S12 summarizes the sensitivity of the
189 modeled stresses from the tailings load to the strike and dip angles. Various combinations of east
190 or west dipping strike and dip can yield positive $\Delta\sigma_c$ at the M5.7 hypocenter.

191

192 Fig. 3

193

194 **3.2. Seasonal Coulomb Stress Changes**

195 Hydrological loading has been well documented in modulating the stress field and
196 seismicity in tectonically active regions, especially following cyclic behaviors with distinct
197 seasons. During the wet season, the shallow aquifer (160 km^2 in area and 600 m in depth)
198 contributes to a decreased $\Delta\sigma_c$ to its east and an increased $\Delta\sigma_c$ to its west with a peak amplitude of
199 ~ 0.5 kPa at seismogenic depths for both considered fault geometries (Figs. 3i, l), and an opposite
200 $\Delta\sigma_c$ occurs during the dry summer and fall. Cluster *W*, which is ~ 10 km northwest of and ~ 10 km
201 below the shallow aquifer, encounters negligible $\Delta\sigma_c$. Cluster *E* is closer to the aquifer and
202 experiences ~ 0.3 and ~ 0.1 kPa changes in $\Delta\sigma_c$ for west- (Fig. 3c) and east-dipping (Fig. 3f)
203 scenarios, respectively. We also consider the elastic loading sources from the Great Salt Lake,
204 Utah Lake, soil moisture, and snow water for a one-year period (i.e., 3/2019-2/2020), and compute
205 $\Delta\sigma_c$ at the M5.7 hypocenter for the west-dipping geometry (Fig. 4a). The elastic loads from the
206 Great Salt Lake and Utah Lake present similar phases in Coulomb stress with a peak in September

207 when the seasonal load is at a minimum. Decrease in soil moisture and near absence of snow cover
208 during July to October introduces months of low Coulomb stress in the hypocenter zone.

209

210 **4. Discussion**

211 **4.1 Seasonal Stress Modulations**

212 The hydrological sources only produce a net peak-to-peak seasonal amplitude of 0.44 kPa
213 for the shallow west-dipping fault at the M5.7 hypocenter (Fig. 4a). The east-dipping scenario
214 results in a net seasonal stress change of 0.24 kPa (Fig. S13). For comparison, in California the
215 periodic non-tectonic hydroclimatic sources contribute to a seasonal $\Delta\sigma_c$ in the range of 0.5 to 2
216 kPa on the fault systems adjacent to the Sierra Nevada, which may increase the seismicity by 10%
217 when aligned with the background stress (Johnson et al., 2017). Here, due to the low number of
218 detected events we find no clear evidence of seasonal variation in seismicity in the SLC region
219 including clusters *W* and *E* (Figs. S2-S5) (Hu & Bürgmann, 2020).

220

221 Fig. 4

222

223 **4.2. Long-term Stress Perturbations**

224 For a more quantitative comparison, we focus on a long-term time frame from 1900 when
225 the data of both the ore mass and Great Salt Lake level changes are available. The Great Salt Lake
226 levels have fluctuated on a multi-annual timescale in response to the prolonged extreme climates
227 yet the consequent $\Delta\sigma_c$ near the Magna earthquake hypocenter are modest (± 4 kPa). The $\Delta\sigma_c$ rate
228 can occasionally reach ± 0.9 kPa/yr for the west-dipping scenario (orange lines in Figs. 4 b and c),

229 while the $\Delta\sigma_c$ and its rate are only ± 0.5 kPa and ± 0.1 kPa/yr for the east-dipping scenario (orange
230 lines in Figs. S13 b and c).

231 Unlike the cyclic loading and unloading from the hydrosphere, the tailings structures
232 underwent a cumulative increase in load (Krahulec, 2018). By the latest reported record in 2017,
233 $\Delta\sigma_c$ from the tailings decreased by 45 kPa assuming the west-dipping geometry, and the rate of
234 $\Delta\sigma_c$ increased to -0.8 kPa/yr for most years after 1990 (blue lines in Fig. 4b). In contrast, for the
235 east-dipping geometry the increase of $\Delta\sigma_c$ and its rate amount to 45 kPa and 0.8 kPa/yr (Fig. S13).
236 The anthropogenic stress and stressing rate changes can be compared with the background tectonic
237 loading rates from physical models as well as from earthquake stress drops and recurrence intervals.

238 The tectonic loading rate of the WFZ was estimated at a few to a dozen of kilopascal per
239 year. Bagge et al. (2019) relied on a 3D finite-element model to resolve the interseismic stress
240 increase due to the eastern Basin-Range extension at ~ 19 kPa/yr on the central WFZ and ~ 12 - 14
241 kPa/yr on the WVFZ. Verdecchia et al. (2019) used a dislocation model to estimate a stressing rate
242 of ~ 3.6 kPa/yr at 13-km and ~ 2.3 kPa/yr at 12-km depth. A simple back-of-the-envelope estimate
243 considers a typical stress drop of 1-10 MPa per 1300-year recurrence interval on the SLC segment
244 of the WFZ, suggesting a tectonic stressing rate of 0.77-7.7 kPa/year.

245 The tailings-induced $\Delta\sigma_c$ rate has been maintained at about -0.8 kPa/yr (west dip) or 0.8
246 kPa/yr (east dip) for about the last three decades. Overall, the tailings load can generate comparable
247 elastic stress changes to those from tectonic loading.

248

249 **4.3. Linking Loads to Seismicity**

250 Depending on the receiver fault geometry and effective coefficient of friction, the stress
251 distribution due to the ore deposition at the tailings pond can be partially correlated with the

252 location of the M5.7 earthquake sequence and the long existing local seismicity cluster *W* (Fig. 3).
253 High-angle normal faults at the Wasatch front appear to shallow into a listric geometry at a depth
254 of 8-12 km as revealed by seismic reflection profiling (e.g., Velasco et al., 2010). The M5.7
255 earthquake is considered to have ruptured a patch on the deep listric portion of the WFZ dipping
256 to the west (e.g., Pang et al., 2020; UUSS, 2020a; 2020b). However, we cannot rule out the role
257 of east-dipping seismogenic structures hosting some of the aftershocks of the M5.7 and long-
258 standing small earthquakes. The east-dipping Saltair structure was inferred from the distribution
259 of aftershocks of the 1962 event and a gravity low around cluster *W* (Wong et al., 1995). The latest
260 aftershock relocations by UUSS also support planes dipping to the east (Pang et al., 2020). Our
261 results suggest a possible role of the cumulative ore deposition in producing enduring spatial
262 concentrations of microseismicity. For either nodal planes observed in M5.7 and big aftershocks,
263 the principal earthquake cluster *W* falls in the marginal zone of the $\Delta\sigma_c$ decrease (west-dipping
264 scenario) or increase (east-dipping scenario) by tens of kPa, and the $\Delta\sigma_c$ rate amounts to almost 1
265 kPa/yr at the ~9-km seismogenic depth. Where the tailings-induced stress changes are aligned with
266 the background tectonic loading and slip on the WFZ, the tailings load would have been able to
267 alter the time of eventual ruptures.

268 On the other hand, the activity of cluster *E* on the other side of the WVFZ remains puzzling
269 (Hu & Bürgmann, 2020). Although two independent clusters are evident in the 1981-2018 catalog
270 (e.g., Figs. 3e, k, and S6), the M5.7 event and its aftershocks suggest these two clusters are
271 interconnected, possibly through slow slip (e.g., Xue et al., 2018) and/or pore pressure diffusion
272 along the WFZ (e.g., Freed, 2005; Goebel & Brodsky, 2018). There could also be a direct pore-
273 pressure effect from the overlying tailings pond and/or the aquifer system in the southeast graben.
274 A delayed activation of aftershocks in cluster *E* by about one week may be a consequence of a

275 permeable fault system allowing for pore pressure to diffuse along the fault zone over the course
276 of about a week (Fig. 2c).

277 None of the clusters (Hu & Bürgmann, 2020) or the state-wide seismicity (Figs. S2-S5)
278 represent clear annual periodicity as observed in other hydrologically driven seismotectonic
279 settings. While Utah contains the largest inland body of saltwater in the Western Hemisphere, the
280 Great Salt Lake and its tributary the Utah Lake, together with seasonally variant hydrological
281 forcing from soil moisture and snow, we do not find statistically significant seasonal activity. This
282 may be due to the spatio-temporally complex loads producing both failure-encouraging and
283 discouraging stress changes on the Wasatch fault system, throughout the year. Improved seismicity
284 catalogs and knowledge of fault geometries in the region are required to better understand such
285 modulation.

286 We also make some qualitative comparisons of surface loads and declustered seismicity on
287 a regional scale (Fig. 4). Historical big events ($M > 6$) in Utah occurred in the early 1990s and
288 middle 1930s when the lake level reached lows (Fig. 4c). Modern-day seismographic networks
289 started from 1974 for this region (Wong et al., 1995). Intriguingly, an evident seismic quiescence
290 in the middle 1980s and the following increasing number of earthquakes from the late 1980s to
291 early 1990s coincide with peak water levels and rapidly declining levels, respectively. However,
292 in the last two decades we see little correlation between multi-annual variations in lake levels and
293 seismicity rates.

294

295 **5. Concluding Remarks**

296 The March 18, 2020 Magna earthquake and its aftershocks, as well as clusters of
297 microseismicity during the past four decades, occurred just east of a mine tailings impoundment.

298 Our study demonstrates a correlation between substantial Coulomb stress changes in the seismic
299 clusters and at the M5.7 hypocenter due to aggregate ore deposition since the 1900s; however,
300 the sign and magnitude of the stress changes vary over short distances and with fault geometry.
301 The tailings impoundment produces Coulomb stressing rates as high as ~ 1 kPa/yr at depths
302 greater than 8 km, comparable to the background tectonic loading rates, which may decelerate or
303 accelerate the recurrence interval by a few hundred years in this low strain-rate environment.
304 Hydrological loads from the Great Salt Lake, Utah Lake, aquifer, soil moisture and snow
305 generate largely seasonal and low-amplitude stress changes that produce no evident seasonal
306 signature in local and regional earthquake catalogs and were at up to ~ 0.4 kPa at the time of the
307 Magna earthquake. The shallow and localized anthropogenic loads may exert a more
308 fundamental control than the regional hydrological sources on the seismicity in the SLC region.
309 To improve our understanding of the connection between the manmade and natural surface loads
310 and seismicity, we require better knowledge of the geometry of small and large faults, the
311 magnitude and rate of tectonic stress, and the 3D elastic structure of the lithosphere.
312 Interdisciplinary efforts exploring geotechnical, geophysical, geodetic, and seismic data and
313 models are warranted for a better understanding of such mechanical interactions and appropriate
314 mitigation measures.

315

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332 (<https://www.unavco.org/data/gps-gnss/gps-gnss.html>); National Agriculture Imagery
333 Program (NAIP) for providing the aerial imagery
334 (https://datagateway.nrcs.usda.gov/GDGHome_DirectDownload.aspx). The Pylith code
335 (Aagaard et al., 2013) is available at the Computational Infrastructure for Geodynamics
336 (geodynamics.org/cig/software/pylith/).

337

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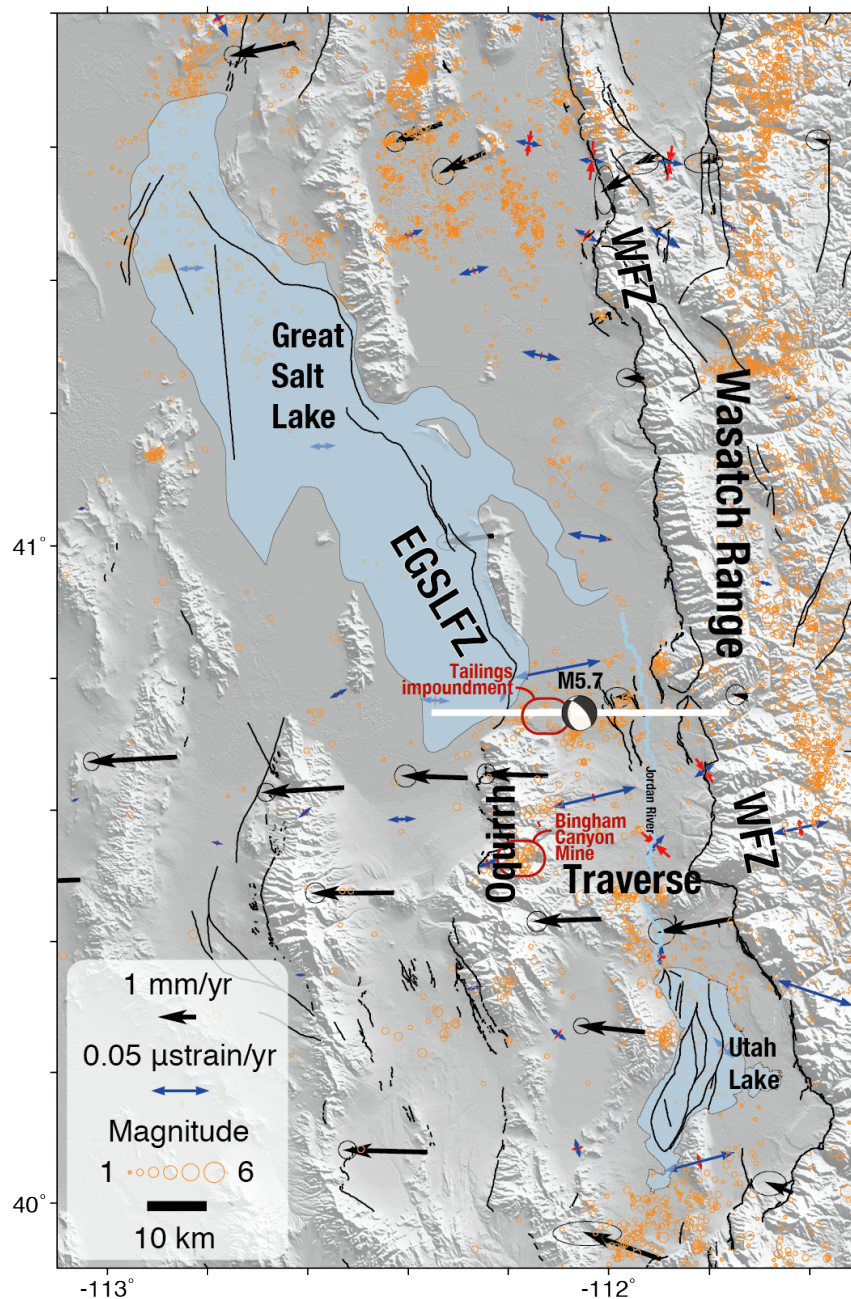
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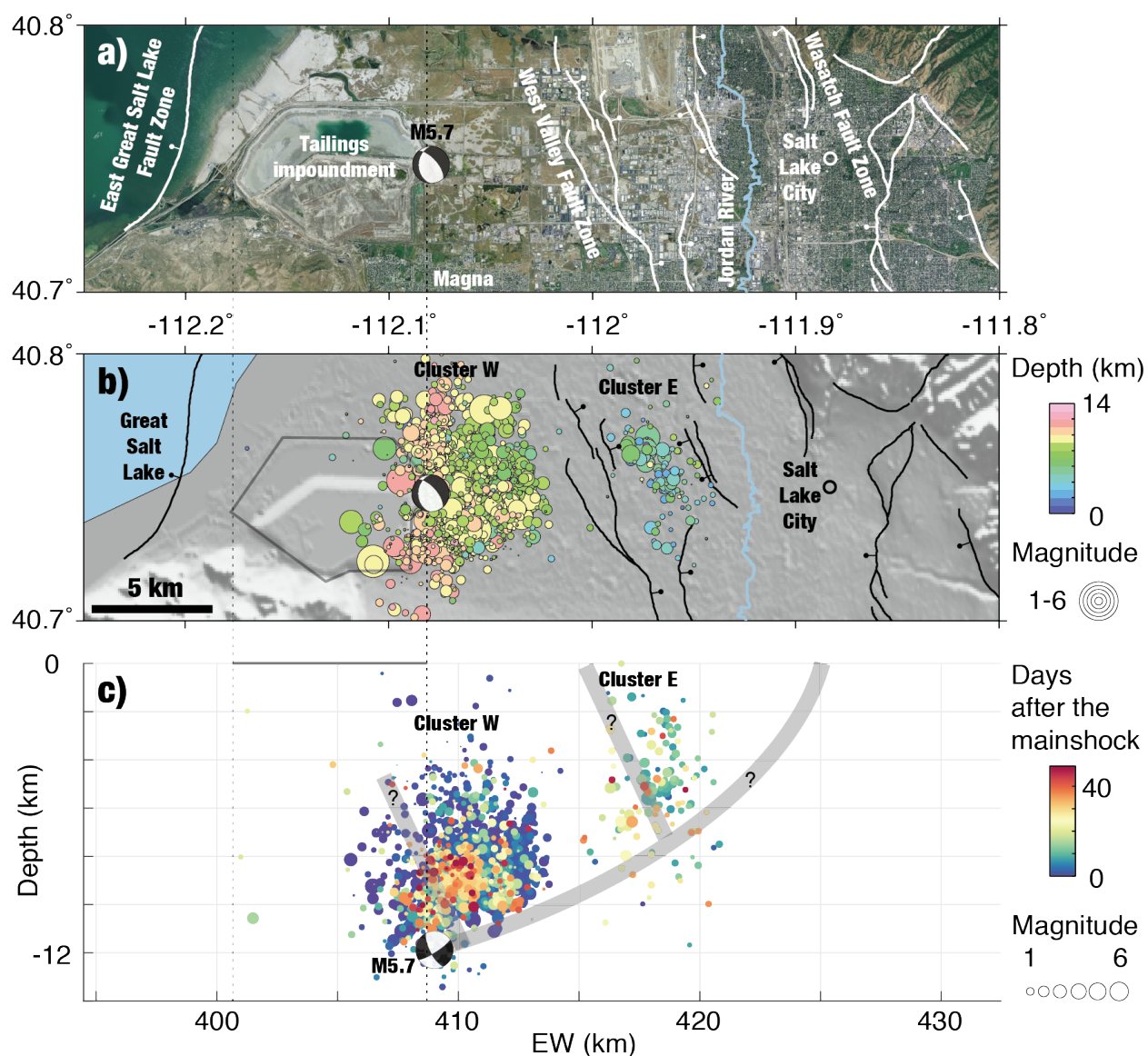
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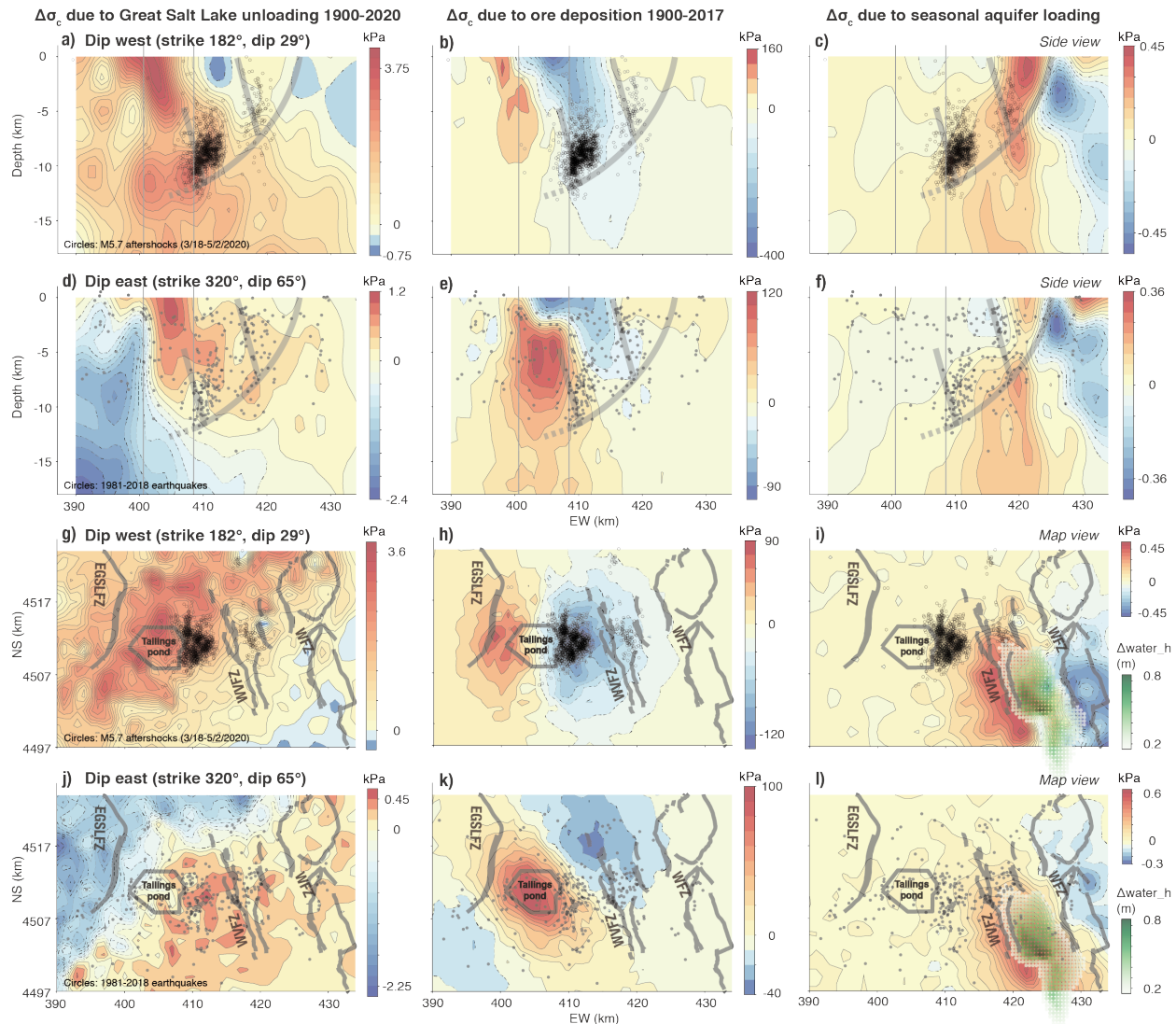
486

487 **Fig. 1.** Map of north-central Utah along the eastern edge of the Basin and Range province. Black
 488 arrows, tipped with 95% confidence ellipses, show the GPS horizontal velocities in the stable
 489 North America reference frame (Herring et al., 2016). Blue and red arrow pairs show the
 490 extensional and contractional principal strain-rate axes. Orange circles show the contemporary
 491 1981-2018 earthquake catalog (M>0.82) archived at the University of Utah Seismograph Stations
 492 (UUSS) and their size represents the magnitude. Black lines show Quaternary faults. The Wasatch
 493 Fault Zone (WFZ) extends along the frontal Wasatch Range. The East Great Salt Lake Fault Zone
 494 (EGSLFZ) underlies the Great Salt Lake. The Jordan River (blue line) connects the Great Salt
 495 Lake and Utah Lake. The EW trending white line shows the profile used in Fig. 4.
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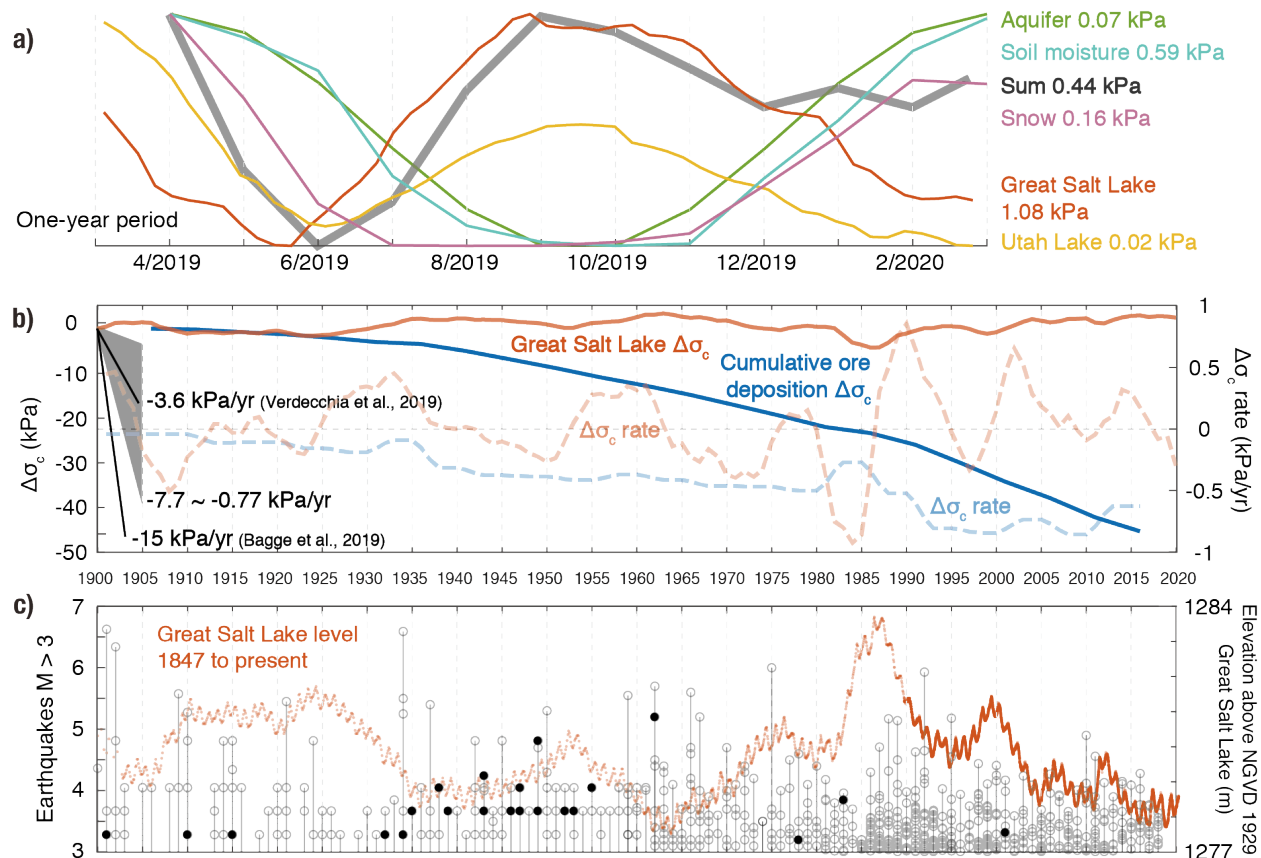
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498 **Fig. 2.** M5.7 Magna earthquake sequence. (a) Aerial imagery of the study area. (b) The M5.7
 499 Magna earthquake and its aftershocks. The white lines in (a) and black lines in (b) show the west-
 500 dipping Wasatch Fault Zone (WFZ) and East Great Salt Lake Fault Zone, and the mostly east-
 501 dipping West Valley Fault Zone (WVFZ) (DuRoss and Hylland, 2015). (c) Side view of M5.7
 502 event and its aftershocks. The size of the circles represents the magnitude and the color denotes
 503 the number of days after the March 18, 2020 mainshock at a depth of 11.9 km. The focal
 504 mechanism of the main shock comes from USGS. The two vertical dashed lines indicate the
 505 bounds of the tailing impoundment. The thick gray lines give a schematic view of the inferred
 506 listric structure of the WFZ (Velasco et al., 2010), the conjugate WVFZ, and an unconfirmed east-
 507 dipping fault plane, modified from Wong et al. (1995), DuRoss & Lund (2013), and UUSS (2020a).
 508



509

510 **Fig. 3.** Cross sections of the Coulomb stress changes $\Delta\sigma_c$ associated with long-term Great Salt
 511 Lake and tailings loads, as well as seasonal aquifer surface load changes. (a) to (f) show the EW
 512 cross section results along the white line in Fig. 1. Vertical lines show the edges of the tailings
 513 pond. Bold gray lines show a schematic view of the inferred faults (Fig. 1c). (g) to (l) show the
 514 map view results of the stress field at a depth of 9 km. Thick lines show the fault traces. Polygons
 515 outline the tailings impoundment. First column (a, d, g, j) shows $\Delta\sigma_c$ due to the Great Salt Lake
 516 level decrease since 1900 (USGS). Second column (b, e, h, k) shows $\Delta\sigma_c$ due to the ore deposition
 517 at the tailings impoundment from 1905 to 2017. Third column (c, f, i, l) shows $\Delta\sigma_c$ due to the
 518 seasonal aquifer water change (greenish dots in panels h and k; Hu & Bürgmann, 2020). The first
 519 and third rows consider a receiver fault with strike of 182° and dip of 29° (to the west) in a pure
 520 normal faulting regime; circles show the M5.7 Magna earthquake aftershock locations. The second
 521 and fourth rows consider a receiver fault with a strike of 320° and dip of 65° (to the east) in a pure
 522 normal faulting regime; circles show the 1981-2018 earthquake locations.
 523



524

525 **Fig. 4.** Time-series Coulomb stress changes $\Delta\sigma_c$ at the hypocenter of the 2020 M5.7 Magna
 526 earthquake considering a strike of 182° and 29° west dipping geometry. (a) Seasonal $\Delta\sigma_c$ due to
 527 different hydrological loading sources during a one-year period (3/2019 to 2/2020) preceding the
 528 Magna earthquake. The seasonal amplitudes of stress changes from each loading source are
 529 denoted. (b) Long-term evolution of $\Delta\sigma_c$ and annual rates of $\Delta\sigma_c$ due to ore deposition (blue solid
 530 and dashed lines) and Great Salt Lake load (orange solid and dashed lines), from 1900 to 2020.
 531 Black lines represent the reported tectonic loading rates (Bagge et al., 2019; Verdecchia et al.,
 532 2019) and our back-of-the-envelope estimate. (c) The stem plot shows $M > 3$ earthquakes across
 533 Utah (Lat. 36.75° to 42.50° N, Long. 108.75° to 114.25° W) in open circles and those in the Salt
 534 Lake City region (Lat. 40.6° to 40.9° N, Long. 111.8° to 112.25° W) in solid circles. Orange curve
 535 shows the Great Salt Lake level.