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2 **Postseismic backslip as a response to a sequential elastic rebound of upper plate and**
3 **slab in subduction zones**

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11 **Key Points:**

- 12
- 13 • Analog megathrust earthquake experiments provide high-resolution observations to
evaluate the elastic-frictional signal from the shallow megathrust
 - 14 • Surface displacement time-series suggest a sequential elastic rebound of the upper plate
15 and slab
 - 16 • A combination of the slab's rebound and the rapid relaxation of the upper plate may
17 accelerate the backslip
- 18

19 **Abstract**

20 An earthquake-induced stress drop on a megathrust instigates different responses on the upper
21 plate and slab. We mimic homogenous and heterogeneous megathrust interfaces at the laboratory
22 scale to monitor the strain relaxation on the two elastically non-identical plates by establishing
23 analog velocity weakening and strengthening materials. A sequential elastic rebound follows the
24 coseismic shear-stress drop in our elastic-frictional models: a fast rebound of the upper plate and
25 the delayed and smaller rebound on the slab. A combination of the delayed rebound of the slab
26 and the rapid relaxation of the upper plate after an elastic overshooting may accelerate the
27 relocking of the megathrust. This acceleration triggers/antedates the failure of a nearby asperity
28 and enhances the early backslip in the rupture area. Consequently, the trench-normal rearward
29 displacement in the upper plate may reach a significant amount of the entire interseismic
30 backslip and speeds up the stress build-up on upper plate faults.

31

32 **Plain Language Summary**

33 Subduction zones, where one tectonic plate slides underneath the other, host the largest
34 earthquakes on earth. Two plates with different physical properties define the upper and lower
35 plates in the subduction zones. A frictional interaction at the interface between these plates
36 prevents them from sliding and builds up elastic strain energy until the stress exceeds their
37 strength and releases accumulated energy as an earthquake. The source of the earthquake is
38 located offshore; hence illuminating the plates' reactions to the earthquakes is not as
39 straightforward as the earthquakes occur inland. Here we mimic the subduction zone at the scale
40 of an analog model in the laboratory to generate analog earthquakes and carefully monitor our
41 simplified model by employing a high-resolution monitoring technique. We evaluate the models
42 to examine the feedback relationship between upper and lower plates during and shortly after the
43 earthquakes. We demonstrate that the plates respond differently and sequentially to the elastic
44 strain release: a seaward-rearward motion of the upper plate and an acceleration in the lower
45 plate sliding underneath the upper plate. Our results suggest that these responses may trigger
46 another earthquake in the nearby region and speed up the stress build-up on other faults.

47 **1 Introduction**

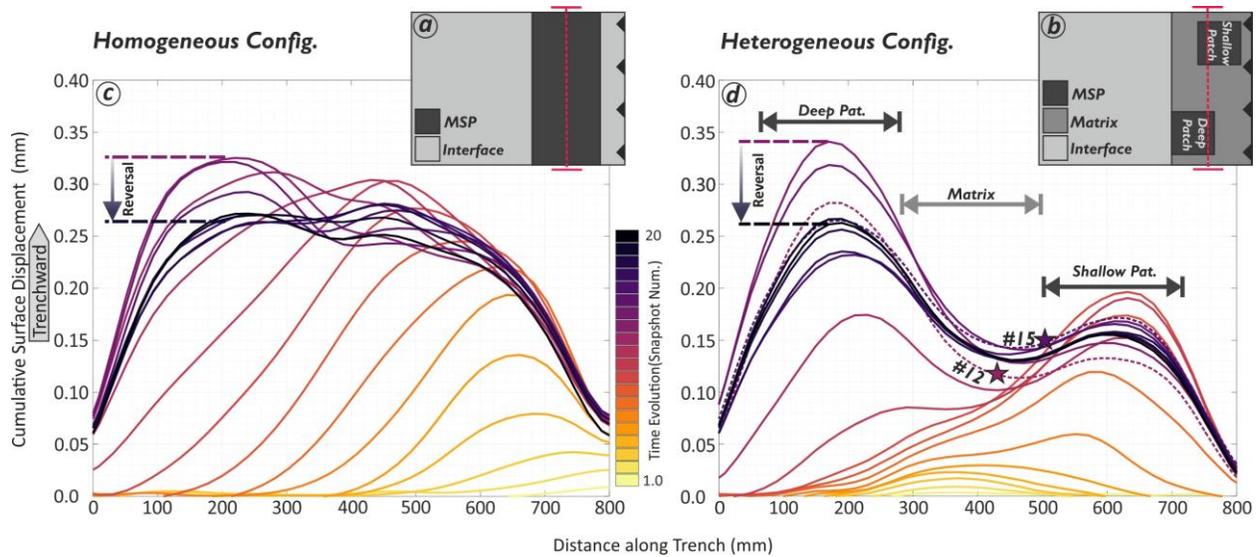
48 A massive megathrust earthquake ($M_w \geq 8$) causes a shear stress drop on the subduction interface
49 that drives the subduction system from a quasi-steady state in the interseismic loading stage to a
50 temporarily unstable relaxation mode. This postseismic destabilization triggers different
51 reactions over the shallow and deep parts of the subduction system, which are rheologically
52 dominated by elastoplastic and viscoelastic behavior, respectively (e.g., Wang *et al.*, 2012; Weiss
53 *et al.*, 2019). To date, we identified several postseismic processes that can be seismic and
54 aseismic, namely (1.) afterslip along the megathrust (e.g., Hsu *et al.*, 2006; Bedford *et al.*, 2013;
55 Hoffmann *et al.*, 2018), (2.) viscoelastic relaxation of the lower crust and mantle of both slab and
56 upper plate (e.g., S. Li *et al.*, 2015; Sun *et al.*, 2014) and (3.) crustal faulting in the upper plate
57 (extensional), accretionary wedge (compressional), and shallow slab (extensional) (e.g., Kato *et al.*,
58 2011; Hicks and Rietbrock., 2015; Hoskins *et al.*, 2021).

59 A coupled elastic-viscous response of the subduction system to a megathrust stress-drop by
60 multiple mechanisms makes the postseismic signals more convoluted. Only a handful of

61 megathrust earthquakes are relatively densely monitored. In many of these cases, the postseismic
62 surface displacement above the ruptured asperity exhibits intriguing signals from depth that are
63 interpreted differently (e.g., Bedford et al., 2016; Heki & Mitsui, 2013; Tomita et al., 2017;
64 Watanabe et al., 2014). While the postseismic viscoelastic signal from the relaxing
65 asthenosphere appears with a characteristic long-term pattern and large-scale wavelength (far-
66 field, hundreds of kilometers scale) (e.g., Wang *et al.*, 2012; Sun and Wang, 2015), the
67 postseismic elastic-frictional processes (i.e., relocking and afterslip) show relatively steep
68 gradients and short-wavelength (tens of kilometers scale) characteristics. These short-wavelength
69 postseismic signals interfere in the near-field with the presumably more steady interseismic re-
70 loading process that has a reverse kinematic sense (i.e., landward motion in the upper plate).
71 Such interference perturbs a relatively smooth and homogeneous surface displacement above the
72 ruptured patched and nearby regions manifested by short time and short distance changes in
73 amplitude and direction causing shear and vertical axis rotations. Such "enigmatic patterns" are
74 notoriously difficult to interpret, and discourse is rising about its relevance for seismic hazard
75 (e.g., Loveless, 2017; Melnick *et al.*, 2017; Yuzariyadi and Heki, 2021). We here contribute to
76 this discussion using observations and interpretations of controlled experiments highlighting the
77 potential variability of deformation signals in subduction zones.

78 The elastic-frictional displacement signals from the shallow part of the megathrust are often
79 poorly documented. The upper plate and slab experience non-identical elastic rebounds.
80 Moreover, the stress state (pre- versus post-event) close to the interface presents more complex
81 slip behavior (i.e., opposite senses of shear in a short time) than a simple shear-stress drop (e.g.,
82 Brodsky *et al.*, 2020). Hence, it remains unclear how the elastic interrelationship between the
83 upper- and lower plates may contribute to this domain's surface signals. This study aims to
84 address the sequential upper plate and slab elastic-frictional response during the nearly complete
85 coseismic shear-stress drop and its early postseismic stage in a subduction megathrust system by
86 employing a series of carefully monitored analog modeling experiments. To examine the
87 feedback relationship between the upper plate and the slab, we investigate two generic
88 seismotectonic scale models representing homogeneous and heterogenous subduction megathrust
89 systems and capture the model's surface displacements by employing a high resolution and high
90 speed "laboratory geodetic" method.

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92

93 **Figure 1.** Model setup and exemplary evolution of coseismic and early-postseismic surface
 94 deformation in two scenarios. a and b: Plan view of the seismotectonic scale models'
 95 configurations (Figure S1); Light, medium, and dark gray colors represent the velocity
 96 strengthening (“aseismically” creeping) interface, a velocity weakening matrix characterized by
 97 microslips (“microseismicity”), and the main slip patch(es) (MSP) where large analog
 98 megathrust earthquake slip occurs (“seismogenic zone” or “asperity”), respectively. The red
 99 dashed lines show the profiles along which the cumulative surface displacement is shown in c
 100 and d. The downward vectors indicate surface displacement reversal during the early-postseismic
 101 stage interpreted as backslip. The stars on the dashed lines show the selected snapshots for slip
 102 modeling in Figure 2.

103 2 Methodology

104 2.1 Seismotectonic scale modeling

105 Seismotectonic scale models have been established to generate physically self-consistent analog
 106 megathrust earthquake ruptures and seismic cycles at the laboratory scale (Rosenau et al., 2009;
 107 2017, and references therein). They have been used to study the interplay between short-term
 108 elastic (seismic) and long-term permanent deformation (Rosenau & Oncken, 2009), earthquake
 109 recurrence behavior and predictability (Corbi et al., 2020; 2019; 2017; Rosenau et al., 2017), the
 110 linkage between offshore geodetic coverage and coseismic slip model (Kosari et al., 2020) and
 111 details of the seismic cycle (Caniven & Dominguez, 2021). Analog models are downscaled from
 112 nature for the dimensions of mass, length, and time to maintain geometric, kinematic, and
 113 dynamic similarity by applying a set of dimensionless numbers (King Hubbert, 1937; Rosenau et
 114 al., 2009; 2017). The models generate a sequence of tens to hundreds of analog megathrust
 115 earthquake cycles, allowing the analysis of the corresponding surface displacement from
 116 dynamic coseismic to quasi-static interseismic stages.

117 In the presented 3-D experimental setup modified from Rosenau *et al.* (2019) and introduced in
 118 Kosari *et al.* (2020), a subduction forearc model is set up in a glass-sided box (1,000 mm across
 119 strike, 800 mm along strike, and 300 mm deep) with a 15° dipping, elastic basal rubber conveyor

120 belt (the model slab), and a rigid backwall. A flat-topped wedge made of an elastoplastic sand-
121 rubber mixture (50 vol.% quartz sand G12: 50 vol.% EPDM-rubber) is sieved into the setup
122 representing a 240 km long forearc segment from the trench to the volcanic arc (Figures 1a and
123 b; and S1).

124 At the base of the wedge, zones of velocity weakening controlled stick-slip (“seismic” behavior)
125 are realized by emplacing compartments of either flavored rice (“main slip patches”) or fine table
126 salt (“matrix”), which generate quasi-periodic large and small slip instabilities, respectively
127 (Figures 1a, b, and S1), mimicking megathrust earthquakes of different size and frequency.
128 Large stick-slip instabilities in the main slip patch(es) (MSP) are almost complete and recur at
129 low frequency (~0.2 Hz), while those in the matrix are partial (<10%) and at high frequency (~10
130 Hz) at a prescribed constant convergence rate of 50 $\mu\text{m/s}$. This bimodal behavior is intended to
131 mimic rare great (M8-9) earthquakes versus small frequent repeating events (e.g., Uchida and
132 Bürgmann, 2019; Chaves *et al.*, 2020) in a creeping environment akin to concepts of the shallow
133 subduction megathrust (e.g., Bilek and Lay, 2002). The wedge itself and the conveyor belt
134 respond elastically to these basal slip events similar to crustal rebound during natural subduction
135 megathrust earthquakes. Upper plate faults (in our case, a single backthrust fault) gradually
136 emerge down-dip and up-dip of the main slip patches over multiple seismic cycles, as
137 documented in earlier papers (Kosari *et al.*, 2020; Rosenau *et al.*, 2009, 2010; Rosenau &
138 Oncken, 2009).

139 Two different configurations of analog earthquake behavior have been considered for the
140 shallow part of the wedge base representing the seismogenic zone of the subduction plate
141 interface. In the first configuration, hereafter named “homogeneous configuration”, a single large
142 rectangular stick-slip patch (Width*Length=200*800 mm) is implemented as the main slip patch
143 (MSP), representing a system of a homogeneous seismogenic zone with temperature-controlled
144 depth range and no variation along strike generating M9 type megathrust events similar to the
145 2014 Sumatra earthquake. In the second case, hereafter named “heterogeneous configuration”,
146 two square-shaped MSPs (200*200mm) have been emplaced, acting as two medium-size
147 seismogenic asperities generating M8-9 type events similar to the 2010 Maule earthquake. These
148 patches are at a center-to-center distance of 400mm and 100mm in trench-parallel and trench-
149 normal direction, respectively, while they are surrounded by a matrix hosting frequent small
150 events (Figures 1 and S1).

151 2.2 Laboratory geodesy

152 To capture horizontal micrometer-scale surface displacements associated with analog
153 earthquakes at microsecond scale periods, we monitor the model surface with a highspeed
154 CMOS (Complementary Metal Oxide Semiconductor) camera (Phantom VEO 640L camera, 12
155 bit, 4 MPx) intermittently at 250 Hz (Figure S1). Digital image correlation (e.g., Adam *et al.*,
156 2005) has been applied via the DAVIS 10 software (LaVision GmbH, Göttingen/DE). Data are
157 processed to yield observational data similar to those from an ideal dense and full coverage (on-
158 and offshore) geodetic network, that is, velocities (or incremental displacements) at locations on
159 the model surface. We use an analog geodetic slip inversion technique (AGSIT, Kosari *et al.*,
160 2020) to invert surface displacements for model megathrust slip and backslip distribution over
161 earthquake cycles. Note that although all observations can be upscaled to nature using scaling

162 laws (King Hubbert, 1937; Rosenau et al., 2017, 2009), we report here all values at the
163 laboratory scale.

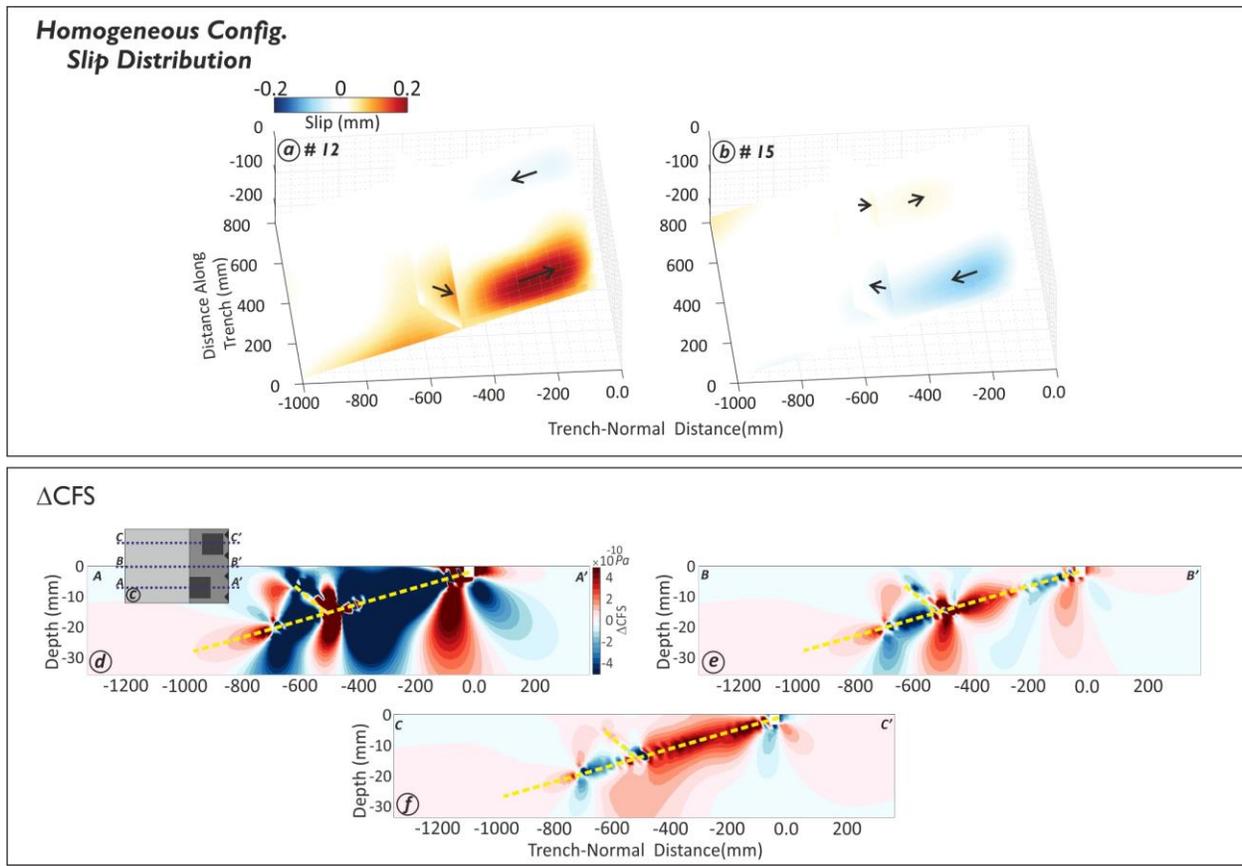
164 **3 Results: Observations and interpretations**

165 In the following, we analyze a high-resolution time-series of surface and slab displacements and
166 slip along the megathrust and an emergent upper plate fault over several seismic cycles. We
167 analyze both the heterogeneous (which is at the center of focus here) and homogeneous
168 configurations to capture the details of upper plate and slab responses in the coseismic and early-
169 postseismic stages (Figures 1c, d, and 3). We discuss the Coulomb Failure Stress Change (Δ CFS)
170 over coseismic and early-postseismic stages and its impact on model slab velocity changes
171 (Figures 2,3). Subsequently, we evaluate the elastic rebound of the slab and the upper plate in
172 response to the mainshock-induced stress changes. Finally, we explore the combined effect of
173 the stress changes and elastic rebounds on the accumulation of the horizontal displacement in the
174 upper plate (Text S1) and earthquake triggering (Figure 4).

175 3.1 Time-variable surface displacements and slip over an analog earthquake and the early 176 postseismic

177 Figure 1c and d visualizes the cumulative surface displacements averaged over the area above
178 the seismogenic zone along the strike of the megathrust for both configurations (see Figures S2
179 & S3 for 2D surface displacement map). Figure 2a-b shows corresponding snapshots of the slip
180 along the megathrust and upper plate fault (antithetic to the megathrust) inverted from surface
181 displacements. The antithetic fault emerges in the upper plate in both configurations during the
182 model evolution while rooted in the down-dip limit of the stick-slip patch(es). In the
183 homogeneous system, the rupture initiates at one side of the stick-slip zone and laterally
184 propagates as a pulse across it (Figures 1b and S2). While the rupture arrests on the opposite
185 side, the early rupture area has apparently relocked and accumulates backslip at a higher rate
186 than the plate convergence rate. This early backslip (slip reversal) on the megathrust reduces the
187 cumulative trenchward surface displacement (Figure 1c). The lack of afterslip in the MSPs and
188 the matrix immediately after the coseismic stage and the rearward surface displacement of the
189 upper plate is evidence of a nearly complete stress-drop suggesting that the MSP is in its
190 relocking phase.

191 In the heterogeneous system, the rupture nucleates in the matrix, where a small event first
192 triggers the failure of the shallow patch followed by failure of the deeper patch (Figures 1d and
193 S3). Because of the more localized ruptures limited to the MSPs, a sequence of two
194 discontinuous crack-like failures is observed in contrast to the more continuous pulse-like event
195 in the uniform model. Again, instantaneous relocking occurs in the shallow MSP while the deep
196 MSP is still in the process of failing (Fig. 2a). The rearward displacement of the upper plate
197 predominantly occurs at the site of the two moderate-size MSPs. In other words, the MSPs,
198 which host large slips, undergo larger slip reversal than the matrix.



199

200 **Figure 2.** Upper panel: Slip models of the selected increments (marked in Figure 1d) in the
 201 heterogeneous system for demonstrating slip/backslip distribution in the MSPs and the antithetic
 202 upper plate fault. The vectors indicate the relative sense of slip but are not to scale. The lower
 203 panel represents three trench-normal profiles of Coulomb failure stress changes (Δ CFS) from the
 204 slip model snapshot #12 in the heterogeneous configuration. Inset shows the location of profiles
 205 on the model surface.

206

3.2 Coulomb failure stress changes

207 Based on the slip and backslip pattern documented above, we derive Coulomb failure stress
 208 changes (Δ CFS) (e.g., Lin and Stein, 2004) induced by the mainshock on the megathrust and the
 209 antithetic fault to get insight into zones of enhanced/decreased CFS (lower panel in Figure 2 and
 210 S4). We calculate the Δ CFS for the coseismic and postseismic stages of an event for the
 211 heterogeneous system on the receiver faults with the same sense and orientation as slip (Figure
 212 2) and backslip (Figure S4) on the interface. In the shallow part of the plate interface (profile c-
 213 c'), a negative Δ CFS lobe is bounded by two positive Δ CFS lobes. The Δ CFS is highly enhanced
 214 at the upper limit of the rupture, where the shallow part of the interface ruptures and adjacent to
 215 the main slip zone on the slab. The Δ CFS on the normal faults (Figure S4) shows a decrease and
 216 an increase at the up-dip limit of the deep (in slip phase) and shallow (in backslip phase) MSPs
 217 on the slab, receptively. This early-postseismic enhancement may increase the tensional load in
 218 the slab (e.g., Lay *et al.*, 1989; Tilmann *et al.*, 2016) such that the postseismic extensional
 219 domain hosts the large normal mechanism aftershocks early after the megathrust event (e.g.,
 220 Asano *et al.*, 2011; Lay *et al.*, 2011; Ruiz and Contreras-Reyes, 2015).

221
222 Another lobe of positive ΔCFS is extended to the down-dip limit of the main rupture area, where
223 the antithetic fault in the upper plate appears during the model evolution (Figure 2). The deep-
224 rooted antithetic fault, which imposes a significant discontinuity in the upper plate, perturbs the
225 inner-wedge stress state and highly increases the CFS at the conjunction of the interface and the
226 antithetic fault. Hence, it builds up stress and enhances the ΔCFS in the upper plate. However,
227 the uncertainties in the slip distribution models at the conjugation zone may affect the ΔCFS 's
228 uncertainty. A relatively strong increase in CFS is predicted for the deeper MSP. Likely, it
229 results from a combination of a backslip on the deeper MSP and the mainshock-induced stress
230 transfer. However, the rapid backslip itself is the effect of the same induced stress transfer, as
231 well.

232 3.3 Elastic rebound of upper plate and slab

233 We analyze the cumulative displacement fields of a few earthquake cycles for both
234 configurations to reach an accurate view of the elastic responses from the slab and upper plate to
235 the stress drop on the interface (Figure 3 and S5). In line with the *elastic rebound theory* (Reid,
236 1910), the coseismic strain release (i.e., shear-stress drop) leads to the rebound of the strained
237 upper plate and slab, and transfers stress to the adjacent and nearby regions. The elastic response
238 manifests itself in the kinetic energy consumed to accelerate both plates. The rebounds on the
239 upper plate and slab (i.e., opposite sides of the megathrust interface) are in opposite directions
240 (Savage, 1983). When we examine the velocity changes of the plates, we find that the model slab
241 accelerates landward (Figures 3 & S5). The slab velocity increases by 50%-300% of the long-
242 term velocity co- and early postseismically, depending on the event's magnitude. The magnitude
243 of the events and slab accelerations indicate a positive correlation: the larger the earthquake is,
244 the more significant is the response it generates (Figures 3 & S6). While we cannot measure the
245 elastic rebound of the slab in the asperity area on the interface directly, these values should be
246 considered minimum values of local slab acceleration.

247 3.4 Upper plate displacement accumulation

248 In both configurations, the postseismic backslip initiates immediately following the main event
249 on the patches. The maximum amount of the backslip-caused surface displacement could reach
250 30% of the maximum coseismic surface displacement. The trench-normal surface displacements
251 of the coseismic, postseismic, and interseismic stages of an earthquake cycle have been
252 visualized in Figure S7. Comparing the magnitude of the cumulative surface velocities reveals
253 that the horizontal surface displacement (mostly seafloor) during the early parts of the
254 postseismic stage could reach up to 20-30% of the entire interseismic backslip.

255 In the upper plate, we observe a synthetic and kinematically consistent reactivation of the
256 backthrust, i.e. as a normal fault during the coseismic megathrust slip phase and as a thrust in
257 response to backslip on the megathrust. A slip ('trenchward') or back-slip rearward ('landward')
258 on the interface may re-activate the antithetic fault in the upper plate with a normal (e.g., #12 in
259 Figure 2a) and/or a reverse sense of movement (e.g., #15 in Figure 2b), respectively (Text S1).
260 Following the slip distribution model (Figure 2a & b), two segments of the upper plate fault may
261 move in opposite directions. This behavior likely reflects the shear sense on the MSPs.
262 Particularly, in the upper plate fault, which in our experiments is rooted in the plate interface at
263 the down-dip end of the seismogenic zone, the sense of slip (slip/backslip) on the seismogenic
264 zone directly controls the slip mechanism of the antithetic fault. The coseismic and early

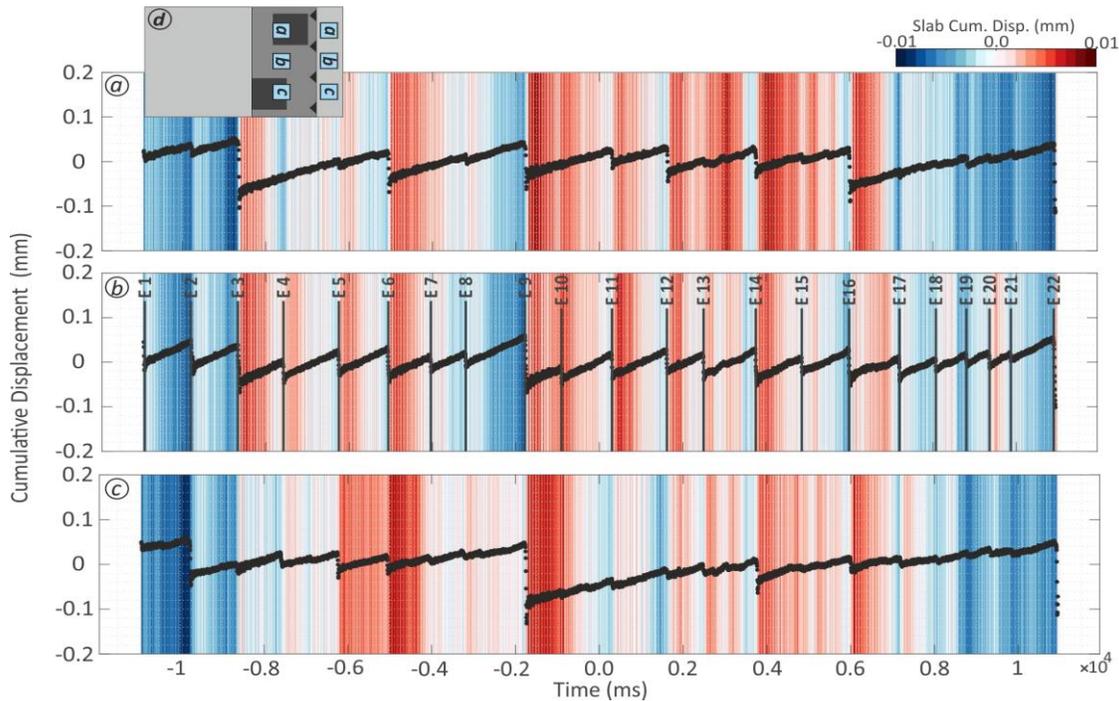
265 postseismic upper-plate rotation (divergent mode versus convergent mode) has been discussed in
266 Text S2.

267 **4 Discussion and conclusion**

268 4.1 Effect of the slab acceleration on the rapid relocking

269 Our simplified seismotectonic megathrust model suggests different rebounds (i.e., in terms of
270 timing, magnitude, and direction) in the upper plate and slab triggering the immediate early-
271 postseismic signals. An immediate relocking starts after rupture arrest and leads to a reversed
272 surface displacement. While the rapid relocking is apparently limited on the two MSPs (in the
273 heterogeneous system), it may postseismically reach a significant amount of the coseismic slip
274 increments. The elastic response of the slab (“delayed rebound”), which comes into play as local
275 acceleration, speeds up the stress build-up and results in this accelerated backslip. The large
276 normal fault aftershocks in the slab following a megathrust event seaward of the megathrust
277 event, such as occurring after the Maule (Ruiz & Contreras-Reyes, 2015) Tohoku-Oki
278 earthquakes (Asano *et al.*, 2011; Lay *et al.*, 2011) reflect slab extension and thus the same
279 elastic response of the slab. While the acceleration's impact appears as rearward surface
280 displacements above the MSPs, the surface displacements above the matrix follow the slip sense
281 of the MPSs in the heterogeneous configuration (Figures 2d and S3). The significant amount of
282 the backslip suggests that the delayed rebound may not be the only possible mechanism involved
283 in the rearward surface displacement. An extreme coseismic stress-drop overshoots the strained
284 upper plate trenchward coseismically. The upper plate postseismically responds to this overshoot
285 such that its elastic restoring force drags it back to a quasi-equilibrium state, which may appear
286 as localized upper plate rearward surface displacements to a quasi-equilibrium state (Figure S8).
287 An immediate relocking and a high backslip velocity have been modeled based on land-limited
288 GPS stations for the 2007 Pisco (Remy *et al.*, 2016) and the 2010 Maule (Bedford *et al.*, 2016)
289 megathrust earthquakes, respectively. In the Tohoku-Oki earthquake region, the sparse sites
290 directly above the high-slip zone postseismically moved landward faster than the pre-earthquake
291 velocity (Tomita *et al.*, 2015). This fast postseismic velocity has been explained via a slab
292 acceleration driven by the recovery of force balance (Heki & Mitsui, 2013; Yuzariyadi & Heki,
293 2021) and the mantle relaxation (Sun *et al.*, 2014; Watanabe *et al.*, 2014). But it is expected that
294 the mantle relaxation affects surface velocities at a relatively large wavelength. Also, the
295 viscoelastic relaxation could not explain the trenchward motion of the stations above the slip
296 zone further landward from the trench (Yuzariyadi & Heki, 2021). Afterslip might be the
297 responsible mechanism for this surface displacement contrast at a relatively short distance (e.g.,
298 Sun & Wang, 2015; Tomita *et al.*, 2017). Nevertheless, the coarse sampling rate of near-source
299 observations prevents monitoring how the signals appear and evolve. Our analog model supports
300 the occurrence of significant postseismic velocity changes with the slab deceleration following
301 Omori-Utsu's decay law (Figure S5) of aftershock activity (Utsu *et al.*, 1995). However, any
302 viscoelastic behavior of the mantle may modify the elastic response of the slab and lead to a
303 different response time scale. It means that the acceleration may last longer postseismically and
304 decay with another characteristic time-constant in a coupled brittle-viscous system.
305 The stress evolution model for the extreme weakening observed during the Tohoku-Oki
306 earthquake suggests a 20% slip reversal in the rupture's final stage, consistent with the
307 postseismic stress stage derived from breakout data (Brodsky *et al.*, 2020, 2017). However, our
308 models suggest that the localized slip reversal may reflect the early postseismic stage due to a

309 slab acceleration and/or a rapid restoration of the upper plate after experiencing elastic
 310 overshooting.
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 314 **Figure 3.** Upper plate time-series overlaid on the slab time-series (background colormap) from
 315 the heterogeneous configuration (see Figure S5 for the homogenous configuration). Note the
 316 location of the profiles relative to the upper plate and slab. The vertical lines (E1-E22) indicate
 317 abrupt surface displacement changes above the matrix. The warm color shows landward
 318 displacement of the slab. Larger events instigate greater slab responses (Figure S6).
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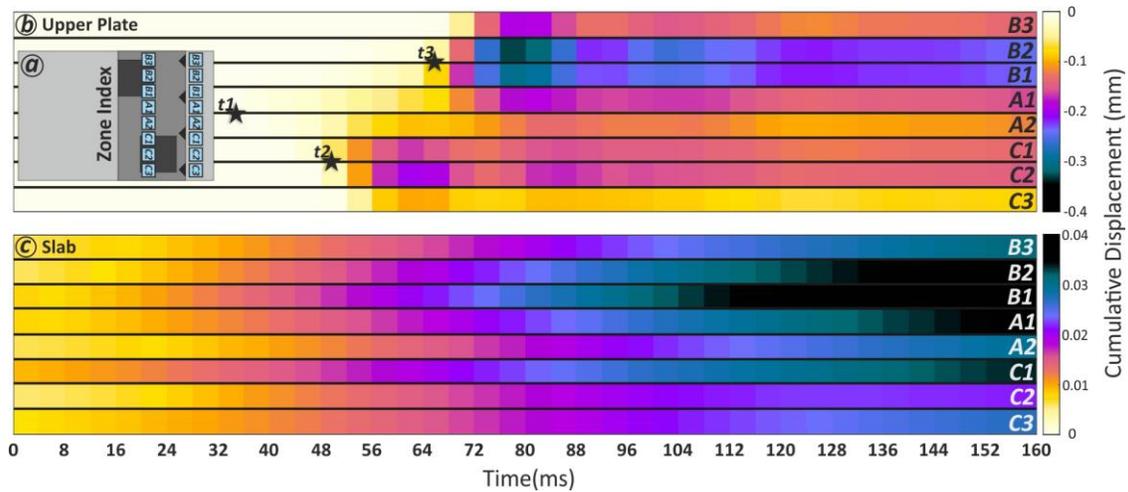
320 4.2 Effects of the acceleration on event triggering

321 The stress enhancement on either receiver MSP (direct effect) or subducting plate (indirect
 322 effect) may bring the second MSP close to failure. In the heterogeneous configuration, the stress
 323 drop of the former event enhances ΔCFS on the second MSP, such that it directly increases the
 324 probability of failure. On the other hand, comparing the timing of slab acceleration and the latter
 325 event (T2 versus T3) shows that the acceleration occurs ahead of the later event. This
 326 interestingly suggests that the acceleration caused by the delayed elastic response of the slab has
 327 antedated the later event on the shallow MSP (Figures 4 & S9). Hence, the acceleration perturbs
 328 the MSP's seismic cycle and causes a “clock advance” in the loading cycle of the MSP (Figure
 329 S10).

330 The rupture of one asperity enhances the stress changes on the adjacent asperity and may bring it
 331 closer to failure. For example, Melnick *et al.* (2017) suggest that, besides static stress changes,
 332 the increased locking appears in segments adjacent to the failed asperity due to a combination of
 333 viscoelastic mantle relaxation and afterslip-controlled vertical axis rotation in the upper plate.
 334 The studies on the Wenchuan-Lushan sequential events on the Longmenshan fault show
 335 accelerated healing on an asperity in response to an earthquake on the adjacent asperity (Pei et

336 al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2020). Accordingly, the enhanced postseismic compression and the
 337 accelerating accumulation of the elastic strain triggered the second event on the nearby asperity
 338 (Y. Li et al., 2018).

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342 **Figure 4.** Timing of coseismic and postseismic elastic responses of the upper plate and slab for a
 343 representative event. a: relative location of the time-series on both plates shown as zone index; b:
 344 the elastic response of the upper-plate. t1 to t3 indicates the relative timing of the events; c: the
 345 elastic response of the slab.

346

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 350 Material 2 for review purposes. The research is supported by the SUBITOP Marie Skłodowska-
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