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# The surge of great earthquakes from 2004 to 2014



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## ABSTRACT

During the decade from mid-2004 to mid-2014 18 great ( $M_w \geq 8.0$ ) earthquakes occurred globally ( $\sim 1.8$  per year), compared to 71 from 1900 to mid-2004 ( $\sim 0.68$  per year), yielding a short-term rate increase of 265%. Six events had  $M_w \geq 8.5$ , larger than any prior event since the 1965 Rat Islands earthquake. The December 26, 2004  $M_w$  9.2 Sumatra earthquake had the longest recorded rupture length of 1300+ km and a rupture duration exceeding 450 s. The largest recorded strike-slip earthquake ( $M_w$  8.7) occurred in the Indo–Australian plate on April 11, 2012. The largest recorded deep focus earthquake ( $M_w$  8.3) occurred under the Sea of Okhotsk on May 24, 2013. While this overall surge of activity has not been demonstrated to be causally linked, regional spatio-temporal clustering is clearly evident for great events along the Sumatra, Kuril and Tonga subduction zones, and longer-range interactions have been established for global seismicity and seismic tremor at lower magnitudes following some of the events. This recent decade of intense great earthquake activity coincided with vastly expanded global networks of seismometers, GPS stations, tsunami gauges, and new satellite imaging capabilities such as InSAR and LandsAT interferometry and gravity measurements by GRACE and GOCE, enabling unprecedented analyses of precursory, co-seismic and post-seismic processes around the subduction zone environments where most of the events occurred. Individual events such as the March 11, 2011, Tohoku, Japan  $M_w$  9.0 earthquake produced more ground motion and tsunami recordings than available for all great earthquakes of the last century collectively. Joint inversion and modeling of the diverse data sets exploit complementary sensitivity of the signals to different aspects of the earthquake processes. Major advances have been achieved in quantifying frictional locking and strain accumulation prior to some great events and in relating it to co-seismic slip heterogeneity. Many surprising aspects of these well-quantified great earthquakes have been manifested, associated with their rupture dimensions, tectonic location, compound faulting, triggering interactions, slow slip and foreshock migration precursors, aftershock complexity, and depth-varying seismic radiation characteristics. Regions with potential for near-future great ruptures include mature seismic gaps along the Mentawai Islands and northern Chile, as well as western North America and the Himalayan front, so more great earthquake activity can certainly be anticipated.

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## 1. Introduction

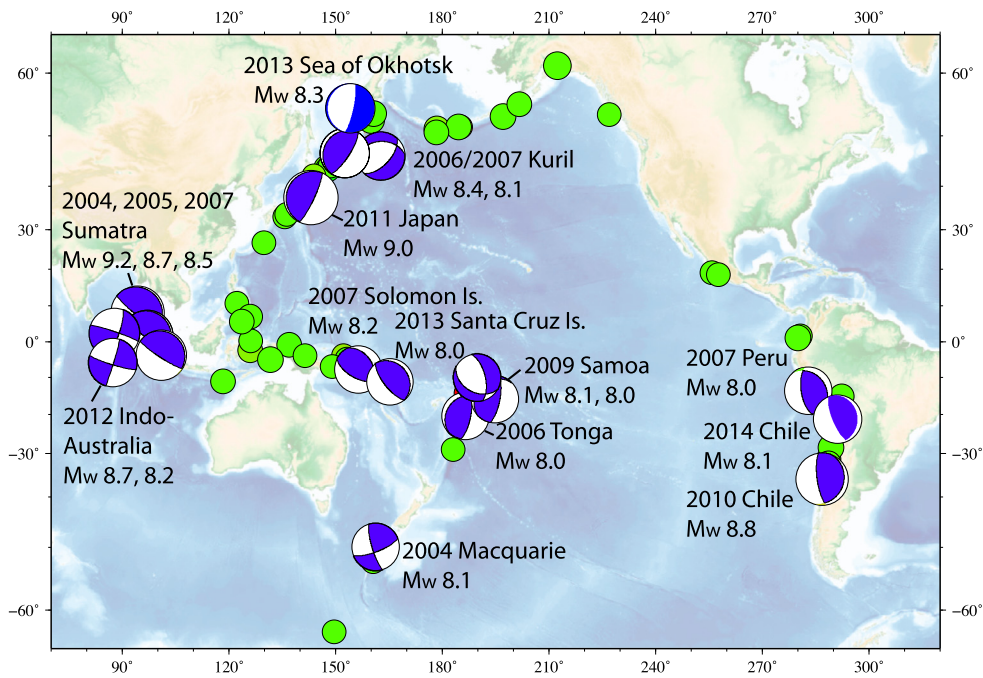
Plate tectonics causes earthquakes of all sizes, but usually the most significant events in terms of both hazards and tectonic motions are “great” earthquakes, classically defined as those with seismic magnitudes  $\geq 8.0$ . For the seismic energy-based moment magnitude  $M_w$  (Kanamori, 1977) this corresponds to events with seismic moments  $M_0 \geq 1.26 \times 10^{21}$  Nm. There is nothing particularly significant about this value in the continuum of earthquake size, but for this study the focus will primarily be on great earthquakes as a convenient threshold for discussion.

Over the time interval of seismological recording and reliable measurement of earthquake size from seismic waves dating from about 1900 to present, there have been about 89 great earthquakes around the world. This number is taken from the U.S. Geological Survey National Earthquake Information Center bulletin (USGS-NEIC: <http://earthquake.usgs.gov/earthquakes/map/>), which draws upon the PAGER-CAT compilation for events prior to 1973 (Allen et al., 2009). Magnitudes of events early in the 20th century are uncertain due to sparseness of observations, uncertain instrument responses, and variable measurement procedures, whereas the modern events that are discussed here have relatively robustly determined seismic moments and  $M_w$ .

Fig. 1 shows locations of great earthquakes around the Pacific and Indian Ocean subduction zones from 1900 to present,

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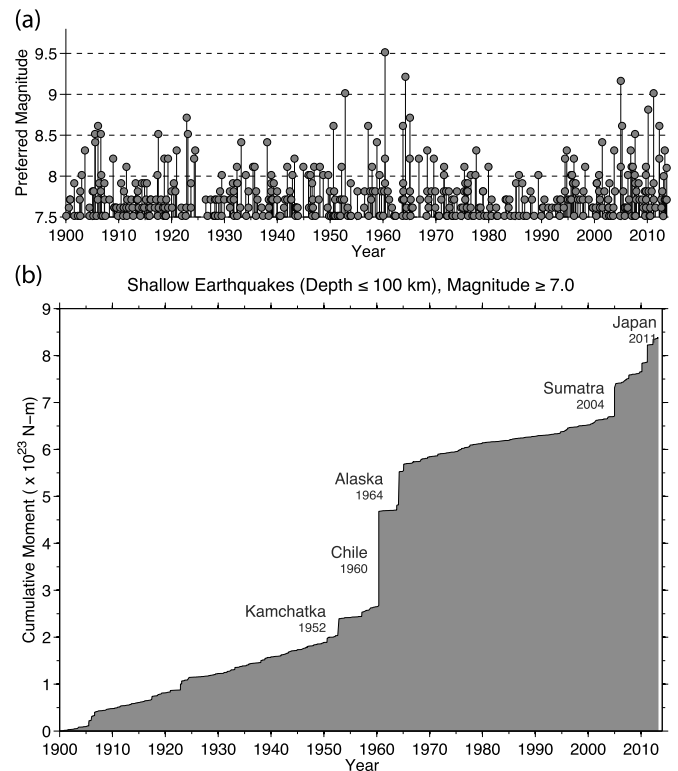


**Fig. 1.** Locations of 89 great ( $M_w \geq 8.0$ ) earthquakes from 1900–2014 (green circles), with the 18 labeled events from 2004 to 2014 being depicted with lower hemisphere focal mechanisms for the best double-couple geometry of the corresponding global centroid-moment tensor (GCMT) solutions for all except the triggered  $M_w$  8.0 thrust event of the 2009 Samoa Islands doublet (Lay et al., 2010c).

with focal mechanisms included for all recent events from December 2004 to April 2014. The latter are the best-double couple solutions for the corresponding global centroid-moment tensor (GCMT) inversions (<http://www.globalcmt.org/CMTsearch.html>) for these events with one exception being for a triggered thrust event in Tonga that overlapped the 2009 Samoa normal-faulting earthquake (Lay et al., 2010c). The recent great events have been widespread, occurring in close proximity to subduction zones that have hosted the majority of earlier great events (Fig. 1). 11 of the 18 recent events have been located on interplate megathrust faults, two are normal-faulting events that ruptured near the outer rise in subducting Pacific plate, three are strike-slip events located seaward of a plate boundary, one (May 3, 2006, Tonga) is a 65 km deep intraslab event, and one (May 24, 2013, Sea of Okhotsk) is 610 km deep in the subducted Pacific slab. The megathrust faulting events along Chile, Peru, Kuril Islands, Japan, Sumatra, Solomon Islands and Santa Cruz Islands all struck regions that were recognized as seismic gaps or zones of uncertain earthquake potential to varying degree (e.g., Nishenko, 1991); the other events have far less clear tectonic frameworks for having anticipated the size and style of faulting involved.

The time sequence for global earthquakes with magnitudes greater than 7.5 from 1900 to 2014 is shown in Fig. 2a. The magnitude used here is the PAGER-CAT preferred magnitude ( $M$ ) for events prior to 1976 and GCMT  $M_w$  for subsequent events other than for several preferred results from finite-fault modeling solutions. Ammon et al. (2010) show that the running decadal average of events with magnitudes  $\geq 7.5$  (or 8.0, but not for 7.0) is greater for the most recent decade than for any prior decade in the seismological interval from 1900 to present. The interval from 1950 to 1965 experienced 13 great earthquakes, including the 1960 Chile ( $M_w \sim 9.5$ ) and 1964 Alaska ( $M_w \sim 9.2$ ) events, which are the two largest seismologically-recorded events.

This short seismological record appears inadequate for reliably evaluating statistical significance of clustering or interaction of great events, although efforts to do so generally indicate that the data cannot rule out a random Poissonian distribution



**Fig. 2.** (a) Time sequence of global large earthquakes with preferred magnitudes,  $M \geq 7.5$  from the NEIC-PAGER catalog, for the seismological record from 1900 to 2014. (b) Cumulative seismic moment for earthquakes with hypocentral depths less than 100 km with  $M \geq 7.0$  from 1900 to 2014 using moment estimates listed in the USGS NEIC-PAGER catalog. Large increases due to events with  $M_w \geq 9.0$  are labeled. Modified from Ammon et al. (2010), courtesy of Charles J. Ammon.

of events, after conventionally defined aftershocks are removed (e.g., Michael, 2011; Daub et al., 2012; Parsons and Geist, 2012; Shearer and Stark, 2012; Ben-Naim et al., 2013), although there

are differing interpretations (e.g., [Bufe and Perkins, 2011](#); [Thenhaus et al., 2011](#)). At the same time, there is quite compelling evidence for recent great earthquakes producing dynamic triggering of small events on a global scale during passage of surface waves (e.g., [West et al., 2005](#); [Velasco et al., 2008](#); [Parsons and Velasco, 2011](#); [Gonzalez-Huizar et al., 2012](#)), as well as somewhat more ambiguous delayed intervals of rate increases ([Pollitz et al., 2012](#); [Gonzalez-Huizar et al., 2012](#)). Attempts to detect physical connections between delayed remote events in the form of dynamically-triggered seismicity rate increases at sites of future great events coincident with passage of seismic waves from earlier great events have not established statistically robust interactions (e.g., [van der Elst et al., 2013](#)).

Cumulative seismic moment for large earthquakes around the world is still dominated by the great events of the 1960s ([Fig. 2b](#)), but the high rate of great earthquakes in the recent decade has resulted in the steepest sustained slope of cumulative seismic moment otherwise. Scientifically, the clearest importance of this recent high rate of activity is that it has overlapped an interval of greatly expanded global deployment of geophysical instrumentation ([Ammon et al., 2010](#)) that has captured seismic, geodetic, and tsunami signals generated by the numerous large events, allowing unprecedented investigation of their rupture processes and associated precursory and post-seismic deformation.

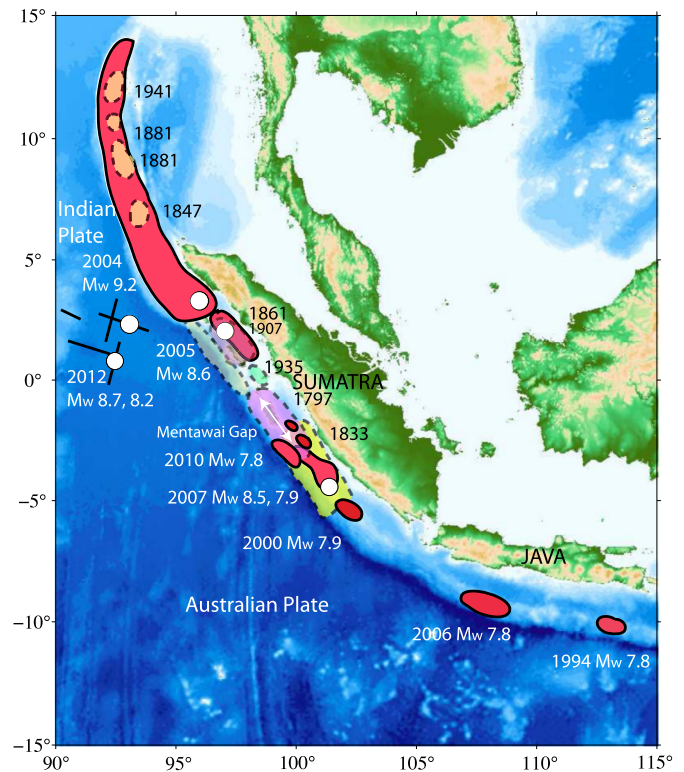
## 2. Great earthquake surprises

The recent spate of great earthquakes has provided sobering demonstrations of our limited understanding of large earthquake ruptures. This is not particularly unexpected given the short observation period for which we have acquired quantitative recordings of earthquakes, but it cautions us against placing high confidence in conceptual models that have been developed based on that limited information base. A brief consideration of the great events in several regions highlights some of the surprises.

### Sumatra region

The December 26, 2004 Sumatra  $M_w$  9.2 earthquake ([Fig. 3](#)) ruptured for more than 450 s along an unprecedented fault length totaling 1300+ km along the Sumatra–Andaman subduction zone (e.g., [Lay et al., 2005](#); [Ammon et al., 2005](#); [Vigny et al., 2005](#); [Banerjee et al., 2007](#); [Chlieh et al., 2007](#); [Rhie et al., 2007](#); [Shearer and Bürgmann, 2010](#)). The duration of faulting caused most finite-fault modeling procedures in use at the time to fail, prompting extensive upgrades of modeling capabilities to account for overlapping body wave arrivals within such a long rupture duration ([Ammon et al., 2005](#)). Underthrusting-motion extended along the curved, oblique-convergence plate boundary into a region ~1000 km long where relative plate motion is predominantly trench-parallel. The rupture traversed much smaller historical rupture zones of events in 1847, 1881 and 1941 in the Nicobar and Andaman Islands regions ([Fig. 3](#)), negating any strong segmentation of that part of the plate boundary. Tsunami observations were very limited for the 2004 event, but available data, including sea level altimetry data helped to constrain the rupture length and along-dip slip distribution (e.g., [Lay et al., 2005](#); [Fujii and Satake, 2007](#); [Poisson et al., 2011](#)).

Less surprising was the regional activation of adjacent great underthrusting ruptures along Sumatra on March 28, 2005 ( $M_w$  8.6) ([Briggs et al., 2006](#); [Banerjee et al., 2007](#); [Konca et al., 2007](#)) and September 12, 2007 ( $M_w$  8.5) ([Konca et al., 2008](#)), given the long intervals of strain accumulation since prior failures of the plate boundary in those regions in 1861 and 1833, respectively ([Fig. 3](#)). This spatio-temporal clustering of great events is similar to that observed along the Alaska–Aleutians arc from 1957–1965. While



**Fig. 3.** Recent and historic large events along Sumatra and Java. The epicenters of 5 great earthquakes along Sumatra are indicated by white dots. Recent interplate thrust faulting events discussed in the text have their rupture areas highlighted in red with black outlines. Historical large ruptures have rupture zones with pastel colors with dashed outlines. The system of strike-slip faults activated in the pair of great earthquakes in 2012 is indicated by black line segments.

there appears to be some persistent physical segmentation along the Sunda subduction zone delimiting great ruptures, such as between the 2004 and 2005 events ([Meltzner et al., 2012](#)), there also appears to have been significant overlap of historical ruptures along Sumatra elsewhere, as in 1797 and 1833 (e.g., [Natawidjaja et al., 2006](#); [Sieh et al., 2008](#)). This complicates anticipation of future earthquake rupture dimensions, especially in the region of the great earthquake in 2007 and its large  $M_w$  7.9 aftershock to the northwest (the two small rupture patches in [Fig. 3](#)) on the same day.

Nonetheless, the portion of the 1797 rupture zone from latitudes  $-0.5^\circ$  to  $-3^\circ$  that has not ruptured recently is identified as the Mentawai (or Padang) seismic gap ([Fig. 3](#)). This region is considered to have high potential for a future large earthquake, having been straddled by recent great interplate events (e.g., [McCloskey et al., 2008](#)). The region is a shaking and tsunami threat to the Mentawai Islands, the city of Padang, and surrounding coastal areas. With over two hundred years of plate motion since the last event, and clear geodetic evidence of interplate locking ([Chlieh et al., 2008](#)) southeastward from the Batu Islands to the Pagai Islands (along Siberut and Sipora Islands), there appears to be substantial accumulated moment deficit in the Mentawai gap, possibly comparable to that released in the 1833 event to the southeast.

While not a great earthquake, the  $M_w$  7.8 Mentawai event of October 25, 2010 provided another surprise by rupturing the very shallow portion of the megathrust up-dip from the 2007 Sumatra earthquakes ([Fig. 3](#)). This event was a tsunami earthquake (e.g., [Kanamori, 1972](#)), with a very long rupture duration and strong tsunami excitation that resulted in 3–9 m runup and inundation



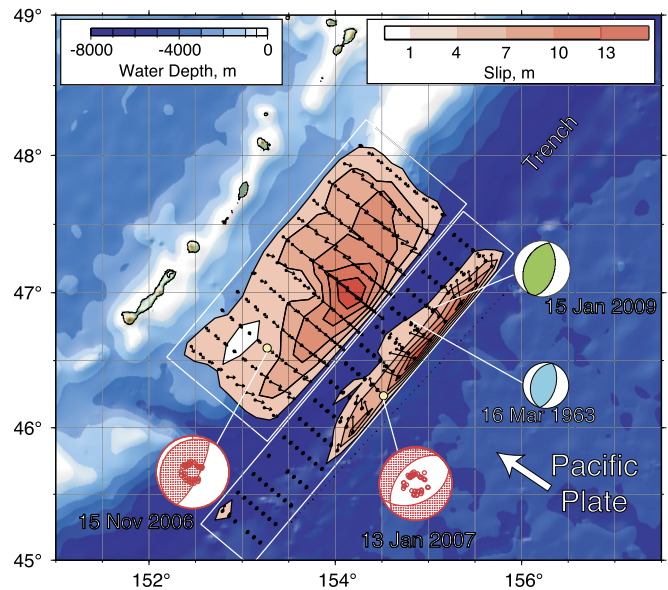
as far as 600 m inland on the Pagai Islands (e.g., Bilek et al., 2011; Lay et al., 2011b; Newman et al., 2011; Hill et al., 2012; Yue et al., 2014a). The Mentawai earthquake further demonstrated that the shallow toe of megathrusts up-dip of preceding large earthquakes on the central megathrust can fail in large tsunamigenic earthquakes, as had been indicated by previous tsunami events thought to occur in the shallow wedge along the Kuril Islands (e.g., Fukao, 1979; Pelayo and Wiens, 1992). This places greater importance on establishing the up-dip limit of slip during great megathrust ruptures for assessing ensuing seismic and tsunami hazards. The earthquake in 1907 located seaward of the great 2005 rupture appears to have been a tsunami earthquake as well (Kanamori et al., 2010), so such events may also occur before rupture of the central megathrust.

The 17 July 2006  $M_w$  7.8 Java tsunami earthquake located eastward along the Sunda subduction zone (Fig. 3) had similarly ruptured right to the trench, up-dip of what appears to be an aseismic central megathrust (e.g., Ammon et al., 2006). The June 2, 1994  $M_w$  7.8 event even further to the east also has tsunami earthquake characteristics, but may not have ruptured all the way to the trench (e.g., Abercrombie et al., 2001). It has often been assumed that the sedimentary wedge near the toe will have slip-strengthening friction and will deform aseismically rather than fracture (e.g., Byrne et al., 1988; Marone and Scholz, 1988), but the 2006 Java and 2010 Mentawai events indicate that the seismic hazard of near-trench thrusting has generally been underestimated. The comparable-size October 28, 2012  $M_w$  7.8 Haida Gwaii thrust earthquake offshore of western Canada involved slip entirely localized beneath a sedimentary wedge seaward of the Queen Charlotte fault (Lay et al., 2013b), demonstrating that even undeveloped subduction zones can experience very shallow tsunamigenic faulting under sediments.

It is not unusual for great interplate ruptures to induce intraplate faulting below the trench and outer rise, typically involving normal faulting with a near-horizontal tension axis aligned in the subducting plate motion direction (e.g., Christensen and Ruff, 1988; Lay et al., 1989), but the April 11, 2012  $M_w$  8.7 and 8.2 strike-slip earthquakes that ruptured several hundred kilometers seaward of the 2004  $M_w$  9.2 rupture zone were unprecedented. These events ruptured a network of at least 5 conjugate or orthogonal fault segments (Fig. 3) spread over hundreds of kilometers (e.g., Meng et al., 2012; Yue et al., 2012; Wei et al., 2013a). It appears that stress transfer from the 2004 underthrusting event influenced the timing of the ruptures (e.g., Delescluse et al., 2012), but their overall faulting represents lithospheric-wide deformation along a nascent plate boundary between the increasingly independent Indian and Australian plates. The 2012 mainshock is both the largest strike-slip faulting event and the largest intraplate earthquake that has been seismologically recorded. New fault segments appear to have been activated and the network of faults that ruptured could not have been anticipated based on seismic history or tectonic structures.

#### Kuril Islands

Two great earthquakes that struck along the central Kuril Island arc on November 15, 2006 ( $M_w$  8.4) and January 13, 2007 ( $M_w$  8.1) represent the more typical interaction between the interplate and intraplate trench slope environment, but still offered several surprises. In this case, the first event was a large interplate thrust earthquake at shallow depth on the megathrust within a region that had uncertain seismic potential due to lack of recorded historical earthquakes and distinct characteristics of the upper plate (including disruption of the volcanic arc, presence of an unusual large forearc basin, and narrowing of the trench). The event likely ruptured to the trench, and immediately induced



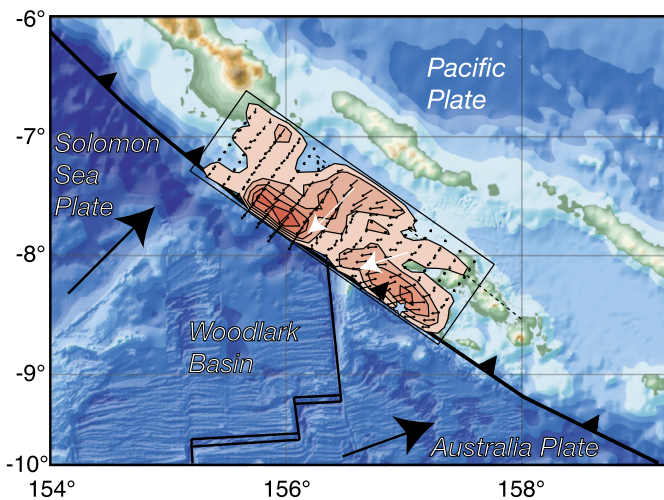
**Fig. 4.** Surface map projection of co-seismic slip for the 15 November 2006 (average slip 7.0 m) and the northwest dipping plane for 13 January 2007 (average slip 6.7 m at depths less than 25 km) events (NEIC epicenters: yellow circles). GCMT mechanisms with P-wave sampling for the doublet events are shown in red. The focal mechanism and epicenter of the 16 March 1963 (blue mechanism) and 15 January 2009 (green mechanism) compressional trench-slope events are included. The arrow indicates the direction of the Pacific plate motion relative to the Okhotsk plate at 80 mm/yr. Modified from Lay et al. (2009).

normal-faulting aftershock activity in the outer trench slope region of the Pacific plate that included a second great event within two months (Fig. 4) (Ammon et al., 2008; Steblov et al., 2008; Lay et al., 2009; Raeesi and Atakan, 2009). This second event was much larger than typical intraplate activity induced by large thrust events (Christensen and Ruff, 1988), and the pair of events is called a doublet to emphasize the triggering interaction between the comparable-size events.

This was the first documented great earthquake doublet to involve both thrust and normal faulting. Concentration of slip at very shallow depth on the megathrust during the first event may have allowed total stress drop that enhanced the increment of extensional stress manifested in the great normal-faulting event. The large thrust was preceded by a relatively deep trench slope compressional event on March 16, 1963 ( $M_S$  7.2) (Christensen and Ruff, 1988), and followed by another on January 15, 2009 ( $M_w$  7.4) (Fig. 4), indicating temporal modulation of the slab bending stress environment by the interplate earthquake strain accumulation and release.

#### Solomon Islands

The central Solomon Islands megathrust had an uncertain seismic potential like that for the central Kuril region due to lack of historical interplate seismicity and complex structure, in this case involving the subducting lithosphere. A ridge/transform boundary intersects the subduction zone, producing a triple junction, with the Solomon Sea plate subducting on the northwestern side of the boundary and the Australian plate subducting on the southeastern side (Fig. 5). It is often inferred that interplate coupling is affected by subduction of strong bathymetric features, and given the very young, warm oceanic lithosphere entering the trench in this region with slight divergence between the plates subducting on either side, it seemed unlikely for a great earthquake to strike this region. On April 1, 2007, this line of reasoning was proved wrong by an  $M_w$  8.1 interplate earthquake rupturing at



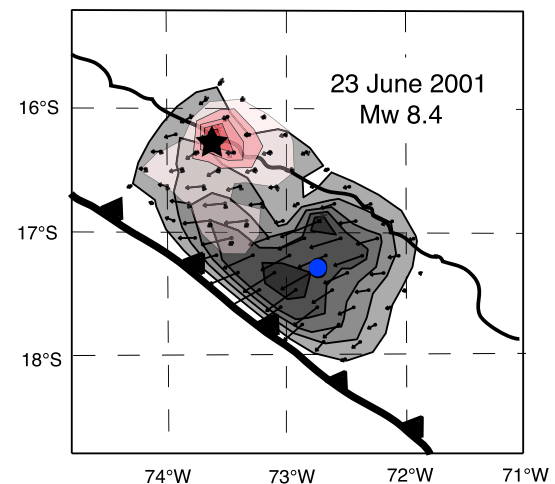
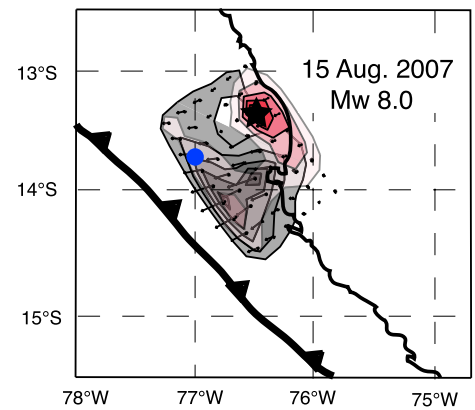
**Fig. 5.** Slip distribution over the model grid for the April 1, 2007 Solomon Islands ( $M_w$  8.1) earthquake obtained from inversion of teleseismic body wave observations. The blue star indicates the epicenter. The plate tectonic setting is defined by two plates, the Solomon Sea plate and Australia plate subducting with slightly different relative motions beneath the Pacific plate. The black arrows indicate the plate motion directions relative to a fixed Pacific plate. The peak slip in the model is 6.6 m, with the slip distribution being contoured with 1 m slip intervals. Directions of co-seismic slip of the Pacific plate are indicated by the small black arrows. These differ in the two slip patches, and correspond to the relative motion between the plates on either side of the triple junction as indicated the large white arrows. Modified from Furlong et al. (2009).

shallow depth on the megathrust with slip extending right across the triple junction (e.g., Taylor et al., 2008; Furlong et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2009). Furlong et al. (2009) found two concentrations of large slip on either side of the triple junction by seismic inversion (Fig. 5), and remarkably, the direction of slip in each patch corresponds to the distinct relative motion directions between the subducting plates and the overriding Pacific plate. Essentially, the two plates underthrust at the same time in slightly different directions. The peak tsunami runup was 12 m, and coral uplift and subsidence data support the strong tsunamigenesis being the result of near-trench slip (Chen et al., 2009).

Very shallow rupture to the trench also occurred during the February 6, 2013 Santa Cruz Islands  $M_w$  8.0 rupture in the easternmost Solomon Islands at the northern end of the Vanuatu arc (Fig. 1). A two slip patch rupture occurred with the first patch being deeper on the megathrust and the second occurring along strike and up-dip, probably rupturing to the trench and accounting for large tsunami generated by the event (Lay et al., 2013a). This event occurred in a seismic gap with no known prior thrusting rupture, and a remarkably complex foreshock and aftershock sequences accompanied the rupture, with a possibility of triggered slow slip of the adjacent megathrust region (Hayes et al., 2014a).

#### Peru

During the decade long surge of great earthquakes, one thrust event struck offshore of Peru on August 15, 2007 ( $M_w$  8.0) (Fig. 1). This event struck near Pisco, and produced substantial shaking damage and a tsunami on the Paracas peninsula. The seismic, geodetic and tsunami data for this event has been well studied (e.g., Pritchard et al., 2007; Motagh et al., 2008; Pritchard and Fielding, 2008; Biggs et al., 2009; Lay et al., 2010a; Sladen et al., 2010), and the event is not surprising in location, size, or geometry of faulting. However, the rupture involved two slip episodes, with about 60 s between the subevents. It appears that an initial,  $M_w$  7.8 event occurred deep on the megathrust and its static and



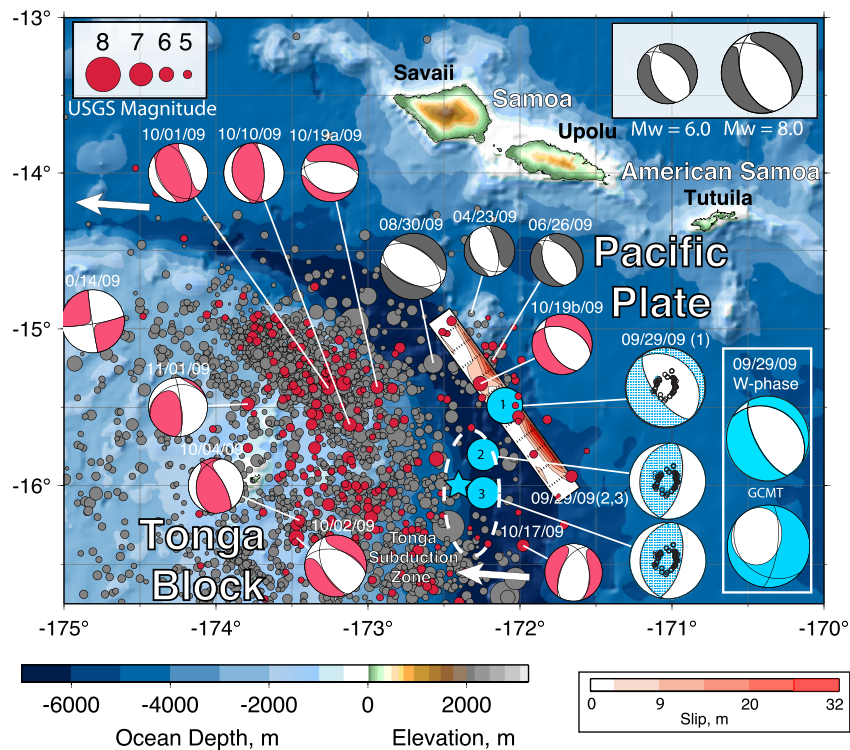
**Fig. 6.** Maps showing the slip distribution for the compound event models for the 2007 (top) and 2001 (bottom) Peru earthquakes. The black stars indicate the event epicenters. The blue dots are the CMT centroid locations. The slip region for the first event in each pair is indicated by the red tones. The slip vectors are shown by the black vectors over the source grid, with slip being contoured. Peak slip for the 2007 event is 10.6 m, with the initial event having peak slip of 3.8 m. Peak slip for the 2001 event is 97 m, with the initial event having peak slip of 2.5 m. From Lay et al. (2010a).

dynamic stresses triggered a nearby  $M_w$  8.0 rupture (Fig. 6) (Lay et al., 2010a; Sladen et al., 2010). This type of compound rupture presents great challenges to early warning procedures that attempt to characterize imminent seismic and tsunami hazards from early energy release or ground deformation.

Lay et al. (2010a) further analyzed the June 23, 2001 Peru  $M_w$  8.4 earthquake southeast of the Pisco event. They infer compound faulting in that case as well, with an initial  $M_w$  7.5 event occurring on the deeper portion of the megathrust, with the Rayleigh waves triggering a much larger rupture that nucleated about 150 km away. The second rupture expanded bilaterally (Fig. 6); leading to an apparent reversal of rupture direction and possible re-rupture of the fault surface to the northwest (e.g., Robinson et al., 2006). While resolving whether any slip occurred during the time between the doublet subevents for these two Peru earthquakes is very difficult (Bilek and Ruff, 2002; Pritchard et al., 2007; Lay et al., 2010a; Sladen et al., 2010), they certainly involve a staggered cascade of slip that would usually be more concentrated in time during a typical great earthquake rupture.

#### Samoa/Tonga

Three great earthquakes struck along the Tonga subduction zone during the recent surge (Fig. 1), constituting some of the



**Fig. 7.** The great ( $M_w$  8.1) September 29, 2009 Samoa earthquake ruptured an outer trench-slope normal fault (#1 blue mechanism and numbered blue circle) and co-seismically triggered two initially unrecognized major ( $M_w$  7.8, 7.8) thrust fault earthquakes (#2,3 blue mechanisms and circles) that together comprise an  $M_w$  8.0 thrust event on the megathrust. Distribution of teleseismic P waves used in the finite-source inversion are indicated by the black circles in the blue mechanisms. The star indicates the centroid location estimated for event 3 from regional surface wave modeling. In this region the Pacific plate approaches the Tonga subduction zone, tears, and the southern part thrusts down under the Australian Plate. The locations and magnitudes of three moderate-size ( $M_w = 5$  to 6.6) trench-wall/outer-rise extensional events between April and August 2009 for which GCMT solutions (gray coloring) are indicated. Red circles indicate epicenters and magnitudes for the mainshock and aftershocks, most of which are not on the mainshock rupture plane. Preceding regional seismicity is shown by the gray circles. The W-phase and GCMT point-source solutions (inset blue mechanisms) for the mainshock and GCMT solutions for the larger aftershocks (red coloring) are shown. The large arrows indicate the direction and rate of motion of the Pacific Plate relative to the Australian plate (from the global plate motion model NUVEL-1). Major islands of Samoa and American Samoa are indicated. From Lay et al. (2010c).

largest events to have been recorded in the region. However, none of them were conventional interplate thrusts. The May 3, 2006  $M_w$  8.0 thrust event in central Tonga has a centroid depth of 65 km, and while the mechanism is similar to an interplate rupture, the event occurred within the subducting Pacific plate. On September 29, 2009 an  $M_w$  8.1 event struck near the northern end of the Tonga arc, located under the outer trench slope. The overall source mechanism from long-period analyses is normal faulting (Fig. 7), and finite-fault inversion indicates the initial rupture involved large slip at shallow depth extending along a 150 km long fault (Lay et al., 2010c), similar to the January 13, 2007  $M_w$  8.1 Kuril trench-slope earthquake mentioned above. However, the aftershock sequence was widely distributed on or above the megathrust to the west (Fig. 7), and the inconsistency of the long-period W-phase and GCMT solutions for the event indicated complexity of the rupture. Detailed analysis of regional and teleseismic data resolved two thrust-faulting subevents during a two-minute-long rupture process, located on the megathrust about 50 km south of the normal faulting. The total seismic moment of the two subevents is equal to that of an  $M_w$  8.0 thrust event. This triggered thrust event was also detected by eastward offset of a GPS station in the Tonga arc (Beavan et al., 2010).

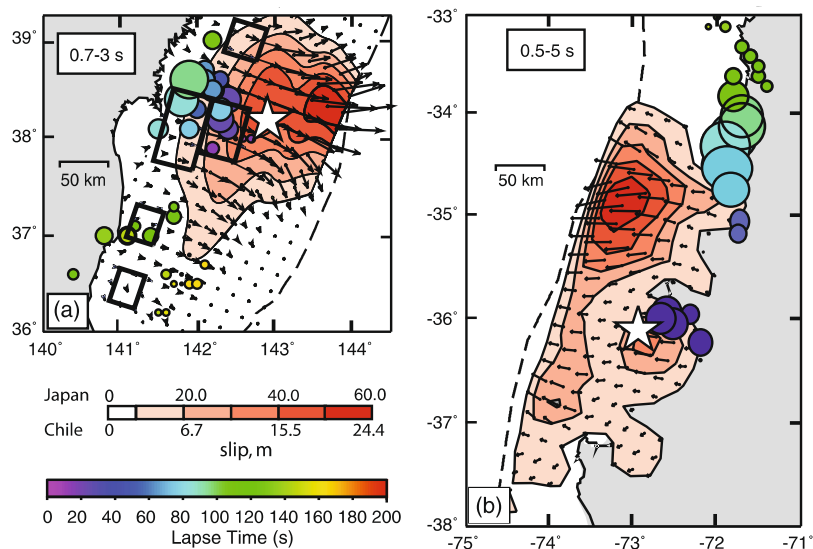
The 2009 Samoa earthquake thus involved a surprising example of a great normal-faulting earthquake triggering a great thrust-faulting earthquake, inverting the typical interaction between interplate and intraplate environments. While not identified as a separate event in the standard earthquake catalogs, we count this triggered thrust event among the surge of great earthquakes because it is the largest recorded event known to involve interplate

thrusting along the Tonga arc, making it important for seismic hazard assessments. The underthrusting rupture appears to have been concentrated at shallow depth, and the wide activation of thrust-faulting aftershock activity may represent triggering of small events over a weakly-coupled megathrust zone. The interference of seismic radiation from the overlapping normal and thrust faulting was difficult to interpret, and if such complex pairs of triggered events with very different mechanisms have occurred in the past century, only the initial event may have been recognized. Nonetheless, it seems likely that this was a very rare type of great earthquake doublet given the rarity of finding major inconsistency of long-period moment tensor determinations and such widespread aftershock patterns with different mechanisms from the mainshock.

#### Chile

Two great earthquakes struck in well-recognized seismic gaps along Chile during the surge (Fig. 1), but both offered surprises in their rupture extent. The February 27, 2010 Maule ( $M_w$  8.8) earthquake ruptured the plate boundary offshore of central Chile between 34°S and 38.5°S (Fig. 8b). Slip in this event has been determined by analysis of seismic, geodetic, and tsunami observations (e.g., Delouis et al., 2010; Lay et al., 2010b; Tong et al., 2010; Pollitz et al., 2011b; Vigny et al., 2011; Moreno et al., 2012; Lin et al., 2013; Yue et al., 2014b). Two large slip regions are resolved along the megathrust, one extending from 34°S to 35°S and the other from 37°S to 38°S. Yue et al. (2014b) find that the large-slip in these patches likely extends all the way to the trench, and there were concentrations of trench-slope normal faulting





**Fig. 8.** Maps summarizing rupture characteristics for (a) the 11 March 2011 Tohoku, Japan ( $M_w$  9.0) and (b) the 27 February 2010 Maule, Chile ( $M_w$  8.8) earthquakes. The white stars indicate the epicentral locations used for each rupture model. The co-seismic slip distributions are those determined from teleseismic body wave recordings for the Tohoku event by Lay et al. (2011a) and for the Chile event by Koper et al. (2012). The vectors indicate the variable slip direction for subfaults, with the contoured color scale indicating the total slip at each position. The position and timing of sources of coherent short-period teleseismic P wave radiation in the bandpass indicated in each panel imaged by back-projection of recordings at North American seismic stations, mainly from the EarthScope Transportable Array, are shown by the colored circles, with radius scaled proportional to relative beam power (from Koper et al., 2011a, 2011b for Tohoku, and Koper et al., 2012 for Chile). The rectangles in (a) indicate estimated source locations of high frequency strong ground motions determined by Kurahashi and Irikura (2011). Note that the regions with large slip locate up-dip, toward the trench (dashed line) in each case, whereas the coherent short-period radiation is from down-dip, near the coastline. From Lay et al. (2012).

in the along-plate motion direction offshore from these patches. The most surprising aspect of this slip distribution is that the region in between the patches, in the inferred source area of the historic 1835 rupture that was the primary basis for defining the seismic gap, the co-seismic slip was minor. The northern slip patch overlapped relatively recent rupture zones from 1928 and 1985 earthquakes, and the southern slip patch overlapped the northern end of the 1960 rupture zone (Lay, 2011; Lorito et al., 2011).

The April 1, 2014  $M_w$  8.1 Iquique, Chile earthquake ruptured the northern Chile megathrust from  $19.5^\circ\text{S}$  to  $20.5^\circ\text{S}$ , within the northern third of the large seismic gap along the great 1877 rupture zone (Hayes et al., 2014b; Lay et al., 2014; Ruiz et al., 2014; Schurr et al., 2014). The large-slip zone for the earthquake is unusually concentrated for a great earthquake, extending only about 70 km in length and 50 km in width. The rupture was preceded by months of slowly migrating foreshock activity located up-dip of the eventual mainshock, suggesting along-dip variation in frictional properties on the megathrust. The rupture of only a small fraction of the 1877 gap indicates that northern Chile does not fail with characteristic great earthquakes, but may behave like the megathrust along Ecuador–Colombia, where the great rupture zone of the 1906  $M_w$  8.8 earthquake re-ruptured in three smaller events in 1942 ( $M_s$  7.9), 1958 ( $M_s$  7.8) and 1979 ( $M_w$  8.2) (Kanamori and McNally, 1982). The unbroken region of the 1877 gap in northern Chile remains a likely site for future great earthquake activity.

These two events demonstrate the value of historical earthquake activity and the seismic gap notion for anticipating the regions where future great events may occur, but also show the limitations of our seismological characterization of repeated rupture of each region with respect to anticipating how large the events will be and where slip will be concentrated.

### Honshu

The April 11, 2011 Tohoku, Japan ( $M_w$  9.0) earthquake (Fig. 1) produced a massive tsunami along Honshu by unexpectedly rupturing the entire width of the megathrust from below the coast

to the trench (see reviews by Lay and Kanamori, 2011; Ritsema et al., 2012). The rupture spread over many smaller rupture zones of large events from 1936 to 2005 along the deeper portion of the megathrust, as well as shallower regions that had failed in 1897, 1915 and 869. A large-slip zone extended about 200 km along the subduction zone with average slip of about 25 m, but slip appears to have increased to 50–60 m near the toe of the wedge (Fig. 8a) (e.g., Yue and Lay, 2013; Hayes, 2011; Ide et al., 2011; Lay et al., 2011a; Lee, 2011; Shao et al., 2011; Yoshida et al., 2011; Yamazaki et al., 2011, 2013; Yue and Lay, 2011). The increased slip near the toe can account for the large tsunami excitation using elastic models (e.g., Fujii et al., 2011; Lay et al., 2011c; Maeda et al., 2011; Yokota et al., 2011; Satake et al., 2013), but the precise location and timing and possible anelastic contributions remain contested. In particular, some, but not all, inversions of static geodetic data and some seismic data tend to place peak slip further down-dip (e.g., Iinuma et al., 2011; Koketsu et al., 2011; Pollitz et al., 2011a; Simons et al., 2011). The event demonstrated the lack of strong segmentation along the Japan subduction zone and the potential for rare great earthquakes to enhance their overall slip distribution relative to smaller ruptures of the same megathrust, as was the case for the 1906 Ecuador–Colombia rupture. The Tohoku event also generated the most intensive activation of intraplate normal faulting over the outer trench slope and outer rise that has been observed, raising concerns about possible occurrence of a future great normal faulting rupture similar to the 1933 Sanriku-Oki event that struck north of the 2011 region (e.g., Lay et al., 2011d).

### 3. Great earthquake quantification

Many of the surprising attributes of the recent great earthquakes have only been revealed because of great advances in recording the ground motions and tsunamis that were generated. This has involved expanded global networks of digital seismic stations, extensive campaign and permanent GPS installations, deployment of dense regional networks in some regions, large increase in number of deep-water ocean bottom pressure sensors

of the DART buoy network, ocean bottom seismometer deployments, InSAR and LandsAT imaging, and GRACE and GOCE gravity field measurements, along with numerous other efforts. The hundreds of studies of the recent great earthquakes provide a panoply of applications of the new data sets to constrain processes before, during and after the events. All of the great ruptures of the past decade have been studied in detail, most by joint inversions or modeling of multiple data sets, such that the events are better characterized than was possible for any of the great events of the last century. Every earthquake is distinct, with a local tectonic context and specific failure processes, making it hard to distill general attributes quantitatively.

One aspect of the recent large megathrust failures that has been revealed by new data sets and data processing involves the co-seismic distribution of short-period energy release over the fault relative to the location of large slip (Fig. 8). Back-projection of teleseismic short-period P waves from great earthquakes to image space–time locations of coherent bursts of short-period energy was introduced for the 2004 Sumatra event by Ishii et al. (2005). Numerous applications have been made to recent great earthquakes and a variety of methodologies have been introduced for such imaging (e.g., Walker et al., 2005; Krüger and Ohrnberger, 2005; Ishii et al., 2007; Xu et al., 2009; Ishii, 2011; Koper et al., 2011a, 2011b, 2012; Meng et al., 2011; Yao et al., 2011; Wang and Mori, 2011a, 2011b; Zhang et al., 2011). Short-period seismic radiation is sensitive to slip accelerations and small-scale rupture variations, and the degree to which it can be deterministically imaged for large ruptures that have diffuse energy release from the slip zone is limited. However, consistent observations of spatial separation of zones of coherent short-period energy release from regions of large co-seismic slip were first well-documented for the March 11, 2011 Tohoku earthquake (Fig. 8a). While large slip extended to the trench, this appears to have occurred without releasing localized bursts of short-period seismic waves, whereas the down-dip region with relatively modest co-seismic slip released bursts of energy with 0.5–3 s period that could be imaged by several teleseismic back-projection methods. The local strong motion recordings from stations in Japan also enabled imaging of concentrations of higher frequency radiation that correspond well with the teleseismic back-projections of short-period P waves. Similar, along-dip separation of high-frequency radiation bursts relative to the shallower large-slip distribution for the 2010 Maule, Chile earthquake has also been established (Fig. 8b) (e.g., Kiser and Ishii, 2011; Koper et al., 2012). Lay et al. (2012) find that a similar tendency for coherent bursts of short-period radiation to locate deeper on the megathrust holds for several other recent great megathrust earthquakes.

One of the most important new developments of the past decade has been the accumulation of GPS deformation measurements along plate boundaries and analysis of upper plate strain accumulation. The 2010 Maule, Chile and 2011 Tohoku, Japan great earthquakes struck along coastlines where extensive GPS networks had accumulated up to two decades of preceding ground motions that could be modeled by slip-deficit distributions on the megathrust (e.g., Nishimura et al., 2004; Suwa et al., 2006; Hashimoto et al., 2009; Loveless and Meade, 2010; Moreno et al., 2010). While these measurements have limited sensitivity to coupling far offshore, and the slip-deficit models failed to anticipate the location of largest slip for the 2011 event, these studies demonstrated the potential for mapping out future large earthquake rupture zones. The 2014 Iquique, Chile earthquake further validated this potential, as the foreshock sequence occurred in a region imaged to have modest slip-deficit, while the main slip occurred in a strongly locked region (e.g., Métois et al., 2012; Béjar-Pizarro et al., 2013). Perhaps one of the most compelling demonstrations of the potential for precise imaging of megathrust

slip-deficit regions to define future rupture zones is offered by the September 5, 2012 Nicoya, Costa Rica  $M_w$  7.6 rupture, for which protrusion of the Nicoya peninsula seaward over the megathrust to within 60 km of the trench allowed GPS deployments to achieve good spatial resolution of a slip-deficit patch on the underlying megathrust (e.g., Feng et al., 2012). This patch very closely corresponds to the co-seismic rupture zone in 2012, which is equally well resolved due to the distribution of overlying seismic and geodetic instrumentation (Yue et al., 2013). Achieving comparable resolution for future megathrust events located offshore will require expansion of seafloor geodesy.

Recordings of high sample rate GPS positions have greatly increased in many regions, and the resulting time series have proved very valuable in inversions for slip distributions of recent great earthquakes (e.g., Ammon et al., 2011; Yue and Lay, 2011, 2013; Yue et al., 2013, 2014a, 2014b). Wider deployment of such stations to cover poorly instrumented subduction zones will improve resolution of slip in future events. While very short-period signals are not well resolved, the complete recovery of long-period seismic motions and their evolution into static offsets augments standard geodetic inversions by adding time-sensitive information that can reduce the slip versus distance trade-off of most offshore inversions (e.g., Yue and Lay, 2013).

The 2005 Sumatra, 2011 Japan and 2010 and 2014 Chile earthquakes also have excellent geodetic and seismic constraints on afterslip (e.g., Hsu et al., 2006; Ozawa et al., 2011) and aftershock sequence evolution due to availability of nearby permanent or temporary instrument networks. Massive aftershock sequences in Japan and Chile have been recorded and analyzed for their relationship to post-seismic deformation, stress transfer, and frictional variations. Each region appears to have unique attributes that will not be described here, but a systematic consideration of the distribution of larger interplate aftershocks relative to the large-slip regions imaged for all of the recent great earthquakes indicates a tendency for shallow slip regions to have few interplate aftershocks, whereas deeper regions have intermingled slip and aftershocks (Meng, Lay, and Kanamori, in preparation).

#### 4. Discussion and conclusions

This overview of the great earthquake activity of the last decade is intended to convey the diversity of such events and their surprising revelations about faulting interactions, location of faulting, and associated shaking and tsunami hazards. Fig. 9 schematically captures aspects of the diversity of recent great ruptures, involving scenarios with (A) along-strike activation of adjacent great events as occurred in the 2004–2005 Sumatra events; (B) rupture across bathymetric and lithospheric discontinuities as occurred in the 2007 Solomon Islands event; (C) occurrence of shallow tsunami earthquakes up-dip of deeper great megathrust ruptures as occurred for the 2007 Sumatra and 2010 Mentawai ruptures; (D) co-seismic rupture to the trench as occurred on massive scale for 2011 Tohoku and in patches for 2010 Maule, Chile, and (E) triggering interactions between interplate and intraslab events or (F) vice-versa, as occurred in the 2006–2007 Kuril and 2009 Samoa doublets, respectively. The compound ruptures of the 2001 and 2007 Peru events add to the complexity of shallow subduction zone great earthquake phenomena. The intraplate April 11, 2012 Indo-Australian strike slip sequence and December 23, 2004 Macquarie  $M_w$  8.1 strike-slip event (Fig. 1) (Hayes et al., 2009; Robinson, 2011; Kennett et al., 2014) represent great ruptures within oceanic lithosphere in regions of complex deformation that lack clear kinematic budgets to guide assessment of their occurrence or future event potential. The May 24, 2013 deep focus Sea of Okhotsk rupture (Fig. 1) is the largest ( $M_w$  8.3), longest rupture length, and longest duration deep earthquake that has



## Great Earthquake Scenarios

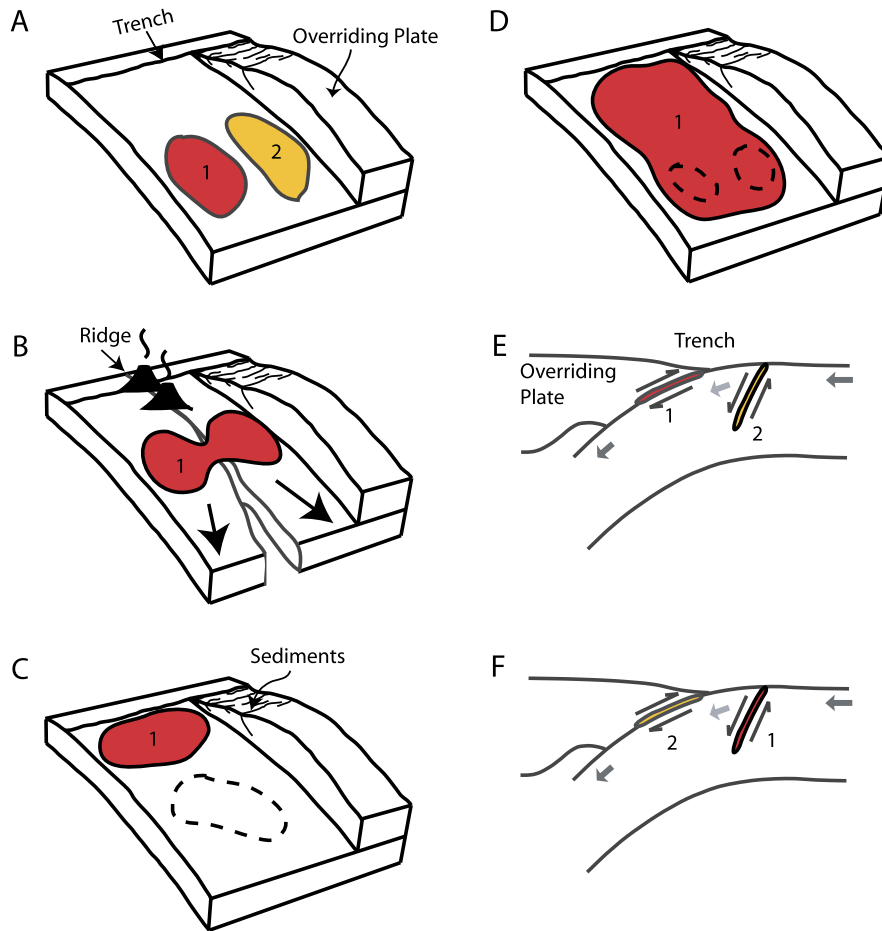


Fig. 9. Schematic scenarios of recent great (and very large) earthquake ruptures and triggering interactions discussed in the text.

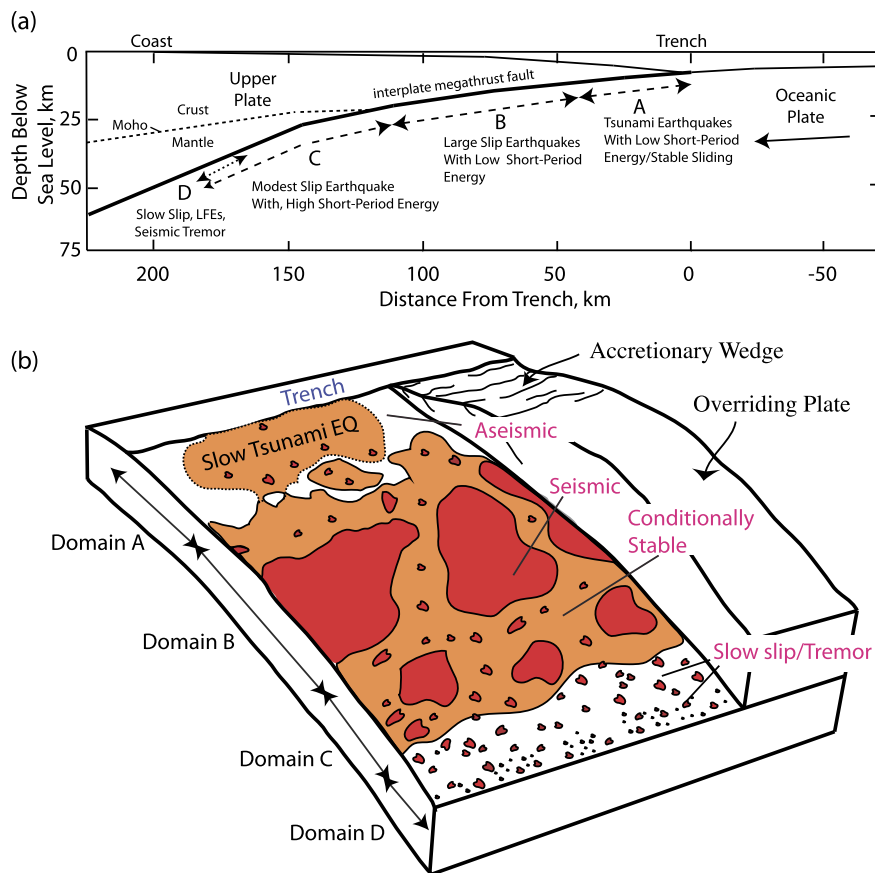
been recorded (e.g., Ye et al., 2013c; Wei et al., 2013b), and its major differences from the 1994 Bolivia ( $M_w$  8.3) demonstrate that diversity of deep great earthquake occurrence is comparable to that for shallow events.

Given the unique context of each great event in the recent surge, there is no unifying characterization that provides insight into the full ensemble. Stress transfer and triggering interactions are clearly demonstrated by several of the doublet sequences and the complexity of faulting of many of the events; but there are major challenges in quantifying associated risks. For example, the 2011 Tohoku event produced extensive normal faulting in the seaward Pacific plate, with more than 1000 moderate size events, but as yet, no great rupture comparable to the 1933 Sanriku-oki event has occurred. The smaller 2006 Kuril event also ruptured at shallow depth, but did produce a great trench-slope event. It is not clear what controls the different intraplate responses to the interplate failures. Many regions up-dip of large thrust events that appear not to have ruptured to the trench have not experienced shallow tsunami earthquakes; how can we assess whether they will or whether aseismic deformation will accommodate plate motion? Many such open-ended questions arise, and while the recent events have broadened our perspective of potential complexity, key issues remain unresolved.

Focusing on megathrust environments, where the majority of the recent great earthquakes have occurred, does offer some opportunity to synthesize the observations in terms of depth-varying rupture attributes and general spatial heterogeneity characteristics. Schematics are presented in Fig. 10, focusing on the along-

dip variation of short-period energy release documented by Lay et al. (2012), who introduced depth-varying domains with distinct seismic radiation characteristics. This builds on earlier investigations of depth-dependent rupture characteristics of smaller events (e.g., Bilek and Lay, 1998, 1999, 2002; Bilek, 2007; Lay and Bilek, 2007). There is very little short-period seismic radiation but strong tsunami excitation from the shallowest domain A where tsunami earthquakes occur, modest levels of diffuse short-period radiation and large slip from the central domain B where most megathrust events occur, and concentrated bursts of short-period radiation during domain C events at depths of 30–50 km that accentuate strong ground shaking hazard from the deeper ruptures. Domain D represents a transition at the deep edge of the seismogenic zone, only present in some regions, with diverse observations of slow slip events, low-frequency earthquakes, and/or seismic tremor. The 2D schematic of variable frictional or slip properties in Fig. 10 emphasizes that these variations likely arise from spatial heterogeneity in frictional properties rather than simple pressure-dependence of friction. Similar characterization of fault zone structures has been suggested by Uchida and Matsuzawa (2011). Efforts to image structural features in the environment that may control the scale lengths of heterogeneity are still in early stages (e.g., Zhao et al., 2011).

These conceptual models of depth-varying seismic radiation properties have been tested using teleseismic and regional spectral methods applied to events in individual subduction zones along the Japan trench offshore of Honshu (Ye et al., 2013a) and along the Middle American trench (Ye et al., 2013b), yielding general



**Fig. 10.** (a) Schematic cross-section, scaled appropriately for the subduction zone off the northeast coast of Honshu where the great 2011 Tohoku earthquake occurred, indicating four domains of megathrust rupture characteristics: A – near-trench domain where tsunami earthquakes or anelastic deformation and stable sliding occur; B – central megathrust domain where large slip occurs with minor short-period seismic radiation; C – down-dip domain where moderate slip occurs with significant coherent short-period seismic radiation; D – transitional domain, only present in some areas, typically with a young subducting plate, where slow slip events, low frequency earthquakes (LFEs), and seismic tremor can occur. At yet greater depths the megathrust slides stably or with episodic slow slip or plastic deformation that does not generate earthquakes. (b) Cut-away schematic characterization of the megathrust frictional environment, related to Domains A, B, C and D defined in (a). Regions of unstable frictional sliding are red regions labeled “seismic”. Regions of aseismic stable or episodic sliding are white regions labeled “aseismic”. Orange areas are conditional stability (Scholz, 1998) regions, which displace aseismically except when accelerated by failure of adjacent seismic patches. Domain A is at shallow depth where sediments and pore fluids cause very slow rupture expansion even if large displacements occur in tsunami earthquakes. Domain B has large, relatively uniform regions of stable sliding that can have large slip, but generate modest amounts of short-period radiation upon failure. Domain C has patchy, smaller scale regions of stable sliding surrounded by conditionally stable areas. When these areas fail, coherent short-period radiation is produced. Small, isolated patches may behave as repeaters when quasi-static sliding of surrounding regions regularly load them to failure. Domain D is dominated by aseismic sliding, but many small unstable patches can rupture in seismic tremor when slow slip events occur. Modified from Lay et al. (2012).

support for depth-dependence of some aspects of megathrust ruptures. Isolation of the source spectra for magnitude 6.0–7.6 events off-shore Honshu with an empirical Green’s function (EGF) method for regional network observations in Japan demonstrated that both depth-varying source radiation and path attenuation variations account for observed ground shaking patterns (Ye et al., 2013a). Further examination of rupture processes of all sizes is needed to advance the models beyond their current schematic nature.

There have been some observations of precursory slow slip events and migration of foreshock activity toward the site of mainshock initiation, notably for the 2011 Tohoku, Japan and 2014 Iquique, Chile earthquakes (see a discussion by Brodsky and Lay, 2014). The increasingly widespread availability of regional geodetic and seismic networks is capturing these processes for the first-time, and may offer some prospect of improved earthquake forecasting. Understanding the relationship of such processes to the heterogeneous frictional regime depicted in Fig. 10 is an important line of inquiry for the future.

The surge of great earthquakes from 2004–2014 has provided many demonstrations of the complexity of large earthquake ruptures and their interactions. Extensive seismic, geodetic and tsunami observations acquired for all of the events allow us to

constrain the slip distributions and energy release far better than for prior great earthquakes, and newly discovered features such as depth-dependence of short-period energy release may lead to new understanding of how megathrust properties vary. The distribution of events in Fig. 1 indicates that more great events could strike in many locations, but the Mentawai and northern Chile gaps have clear potential. The western U.S. margin appears to hold potential as well, either along Cascadia or on the San Andreas system. The Himalayan thrust front is perhaps the continental region holding the most potential for a great earthquake outside the circum-Pacific. Looking forward, it is clear that offshore observations will be critical to resolving strain accumulation prior to great ruptures and sustained operation of dense networks of seismic, geodetic, and tsunami sensors is essential to making sufficient observations of complex earthquake faulting so that one day we will hopefully find fewer surprises attending every giant earthquake.

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