

Is Slow Slip in Subduction Zones for Real?

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Key Points:

- Numerous observations and scientific findings are poorly explained by the Slow-Slip model of subduction zones
- By employing all existing observations, we develop an Episodic Buckling and Collapse model of the subduction zone, wherein the overriding continental crust buckles upwards and landwards because of compressive stress from the subducting slab, and then collapses on the slab as fluid pressure in the LVZ is released
- Geodetic measurements, previously inferred as slow slip, are the surficial expressions of slowly-evolving buckling, while the relatively short-lived tremor results from the striking of the rapidly collapsing overriding plate on the subducting slab
- Proposed subduction zone model has major implications for forecasting of megathrust earthquakes and for magma transport from the mantle to the crust

Abstract

The Slow-Slip hypothesis is postulated on two observations – existence of tectonic tremors and their spatio-temporal correlation with anomalous slow reversals in horizontal geodetic measurements. The above observations have led geoscientists to believe that the down-dip portion of the plate interface is slowly shearing and releases energy gradually in the form of tremor. However, numerous observations and scientific findings are poorly explained by the Slow-Slip hypothesis. Here, we show that periodic seismic activity and geodetic changes, result from the episodic buckling of the overriding continental crust and its rapid collapse on the subducting oceanic slab. According to the Episodic Buckling and Collapse hypothesis, geodetic measurements, previously inferred as slow slip, are the surficial expressions of slowly-evolving buckling and rapid collapse of the overriding plate, while tremor swarms result from the striking of the collapsing overriding plate on the subducting slab (as opposed to slipping or shearing).

Plain Language Summary

Nearly a couple of decades ago, geoscientists discovered interesting deep seismic events in subduction zones (which they termed tectonic tremor) and found that these phenomena had a strong spatio-temporal correlation with surficial displacements. This remarkable spatio-temporal correlation led them to postulate the slow-slip hypothesis wherein a part of the continental-oceanic interface shear slowly over a few days or weeks (as opposed to conventional earthquakes that span a few seconds). However, numerous observations and findings are poorly explained by the slow-slip hypothesis. We employ all existing observations and research to develop the Episodic Buckling and Collapse model of the subduction process. We show that tremor and surficial displacements, previously associated with so-called "slow slip", in fact result from the episodic buckling of the overriding continental crust and its rapid collapse on the subducting oceanic slab.

1 Tectonic Tremor, Slow Slip, and their Episodic Nature

Obara (2002) observed non-impulsive "noisy" records on Hi-net seismograms in southwest Japan. Such seismic records, commonly referred to as tectonic tremors (or non-volcanic tremors), are different from impulsive earthquakes as well as volcanic tremors. Tectonic tremors may last for hours, days, or weeks at a stretch (Wech et al., 2009; Beroza & Ide, 2011). More interestingly, tectonic tremors are episodic as first reported by Obara (2002) – they repeat with near clock-like regularity. In the Nankai subduction zone, the periodic interval between two consecutive tremor episodes varies between 3 and 9 months (Obara, 2011; Obara et al., 2011, 2012), while in Cascadia, the interval ranges between 12 and 15 months. Moreover, within each tremor episode, the tremor migrates up-dip (Shelly et al., 2007; Wech et al., 2009; Ghosh et al., 2010; Obara et al., 2012) as well as along-strike of the plate interface (Shelly et al., 2007; Wech et al., 2009; Obara et al., 2012).

During the same period, scientists also discovered reversals on horizontal GPS records (Hirose et al., 1999; Dragert et al., 2001) lasting several days that they attributed to slow-slip along the interface between the overriding and subducting plates. Subsequently, Miller et al. (2002) reported that these slow earthquakes in Cascadia occurred nearly periodically every 14.5 months. In a major development, Rogers and Dragert (2003) discovered that the periodic slow earthquakes in Cascadia observed by Miller et al. (2002) coincide with tectonic tremor, both temporally and spatially. They termed this phenomenon Episodic Tremor and Slip (ETS). Thereafter, Obara et al. (2004) also observed the presence of ETS in the Nankai subduction zone in Japan. However, instead of GPS, Obara et al. (2004) employed tiltmeter records where they observed anomalies in surface tilt also coinciding temporally and spatially with tectonic tremor activity. Scientists also use the term Slow-Slip instead of ETS to emphasize that tremor and slip are the same phenomenon.

Existing hypotheses on physical processes explaining slow-slip and tremors are well summarized by J. Gomberg (2010), Beroza and Ide (2011), and Vidale and Houston (2012). The mechanics of slow-slip, tremors and their periodic nature, however, is a topic of intense debate among seismologists and remains largely unresolved because of the lack of adequate explanation of multiple physical phenomena and scientific findings using the Slow-Slip hypothesis. We elucidate some of these discrepancies below.

Here, we present a model of the subduction process developed by utilizing all the existing geodetic observations, imaging studies, geologic inferences, seismological analysis, and previously unused geodetic data. According to this model, geodetic observations previously interpreted as slow slip, are in fact a surface manifestation of the buckling of the overriding continental crust and its subsequent rapid collapse on top of the subducting oceanic slab. The said collapse-related striking of the continental crust on the subducting slab results in tremors and the collapse itself shows up as rapid reversals in the horizontal GPS component. The proposed subduction model has significant and direct implication for forecasting of megathrust earthquakes and provides a ‘breathing’ mechanism for the upwelling and flow of magma from the mantle to the shallow crust. A preliminary version of this model was initially proposed in Behura et al. (2018) and has been modified here.

2 Published Observations and Findings

Table 1 summarizes various geodetic observations, seismological studies, imaging research, and geologic findings, all of which should provide constraints for any model of the subduction zone. In addition, Table 1 summarizes how these observations fit the two subduction zone models – the Slow-Slip and the Episodic Buckling and Collapse hypotheses. Thereafter, in section 3, we use these observations to develop the Episodic Buckling and Collapse model and explain how other scientific findings are reasonably explained by it.

2.1 Geodetic Observations

In addition to the reversals in horizontal GPS recordings, similar and more prominent reversals are observed on the vertical GPS component (Douglas, 2005; Miyazaki et al., 2006; Heki & Kataoka, 2008; Behura et al., 2018). Magnitude of the vertical displacements cannot be satisfactorily explained by the Slow-Slip hypothesis as it assumes only relative sliding between the subducting slab and the overriding plate.

Tiltmeter recordings (Obara et al., 2004; Hirose & Obara, 2005, 2010) show significant bulging of the surface prior to slow slip and subsequent contraction coinciding with slow slip. Although temporal changes in tiltmeter recordings can be reasonably explained by the Slow-Slip hypothesis, accounting for the spatial changes through slow slip is more challenging.

2.2 Fluids and the Low-Velocity Zone

Numerous studies (Eberhart-Phillips et al., 2006; Matsubara et al., 2009; Audet et al., 2009; Bell et al., 2010; Toya et al., 2017) clearly demonstrate the presence of fluids at the plate interface characterized by a seismic Low-Velocity Zone (LVZ). It is widely believed that slab dehydration generates aqueous fluids which then travel upward because of buoyancy forces and accumulate at the plate interface and mantle wedge. Seismologists believe that these fluids lubricate the plate interface thereby aiding slow slip and aseismic slip.

In Cascadia, evidence of fluids come from the work of (Audet et al., 2009) who employ teleseismic data to show the presence of a zone with anomalously high Poisson’s ra-

Observations	Slow-Slip	EBC	References
GPS Horizontal	✓	✓	(Hirose et al., 1999; Dragert et al., 2001)
GPS Vertical	✗	✓	(Douglas, 2005; Miyazaki et al., 2006; Heki & Kataoka, 2008; Behura et al., 2018)
Tiltmeter recordings	✓(?)	✓	(Obara et al., 2004; Hirose & Obara, 2005, 2010)
Presence of fluids in LVZ	✓	✓	(Eberhart-Phillips et al., 2006; Matsubara et al., 2009; Audet et al., 2009; Bell et al., 2010; Toya et al., 2017)
Large fluid pressure in LVZ	✓(?)	✓	(Audet et al., 2009; Toya et al., 2017)
Low effective stress	✗	✓	(Rubinstein et al., 2007; Bell et al., 2010)
Episodic fluid drainage	✗	✓	(Nakajima & Uchida, 2018)
Thick LVZ	✓(?)	✓	(Toya et al., 2017; Audet & Schaeffer, 2018)
LVZ Geometry and their up-dip & down-dip extents	✓(?)	✓	(Hansen et al., 2012; Toya et al., 2017; Audet & Schaeffer, 2018)
Occurrence of tremors	✓	✓	(Obara, 2002)
Tremor source mechanism	✓(?)	?	(Shelly et al., 2006; Wech & Creager, 2007; Ide et al., 2007; Bostock et al., 2012; K. Ohta et al., 2019)
Spatial extent of tremors	✓(?)	✓	(Wech et al., 2009; Kao et al., 2009; Audet et al., 2010; Audet & Schaeffer, 2018)
Tremor migration patterns	✗	✓	(Shelly et al., 2007; Wech et al., 2009; Kao et al., 2009; Ghosh et al., 2010; Boyarko & Brudzinski, 2010; Obara et al., 2011, 2012)
Tremor migration reversals	✗	✓	(Houston et al., 2011; Obara et al., 2012)
Absence of tremors on old crusts	✗	✓	(Schwartz & Rokosky, 2007)
Variable tremor and slow slip periodicity	✗	✓	(Wallace & Beavan, 2010)
Tremors located down-dip of LVZ	✗	✓	(Peterson & Christensen, 2009; Audet & Schaeffer, 2018)
Crustal seismicity	✗	✓	(Nicholson et al., 2005; Shelly et al., 2006; Bostock et al., 2012)
Mantle helium correlation with tremor location	✓(?)	✓	(Umeda et al., 2007; Sano et al., 2014)
Paleo-uplift and subsidence	✗	✓	(Dragert et al., 1994; Sherrod, 2001; Leonard et al., 2004; Shennan & Hamilton, 2006)

Table 1: List of observations and results used in constructing the Episodic Buckling and Collapse model of subduction zones. Symbols ✓ correspond to an adequate explanation of the observation provided by a theory, while ✗ represents the lack of a reasonable explanation. Hypothesis that have been proposed to explain observations but have significant drawbacks are denoted by the symbol ✓(?), while ? is used when no study exists.

115 tio extending from the margin all the way to the corner of the mantle wedge. Presence
116 of fluids in the tremor region in Shikoku is evident from the tomographically-derived low
117 velocities by (Shelly et al., 2006) and (Matsubara et al., 2009).

118 Other studies show that the plate interface is overpressured (Audet et al., 2009;
119 Toya et al., 2017). (Rubinstein et al., 2007; Bell et al., 2010) find extremely low effective
120 normal stresses in subduction zones. Excepting buoyancy recharging the plate bound-
121 ary with hydrous magmatic fluids, the Slow-Slip model provides little explanation of the
122 cause of overpressure and their periodic nature.

123 Recent findings by Nakajima and Uchida (2018) shed new light on the movement
124 of fluids at the plate boundary. They analyze seismic data spanning more than a decade
125 over Japan and demonstrate that “seismicity rates and seismic attenuation above the
126 megathrust of the Philippine Sea slab change cyclically in response to accelerated slow
127 slip.” They interpret these findings to represent “intensive drainage during slow slip events
128 that repeat at intervals of approximately one year and subsequent migration of fluids into
129 the permeable overlying plate.” Although Nakajima and Uchida (2018) provide an ex-
130 planation of these observation in the context of the Slow-Slip hypothesis, it is unclear
131 what forces drive the fluids in and out of the plate boundary.

132 The spatial extent and geometry of the LVZ are clear from the work of Hansen et
133 al. (2012); Toya et al. (2017); Audet and Schaeffer (2018). Toya et al. (2017); Audet and
134 Schaeffer (2018) report a thick LVZ with thicknesses averaging a few kilometers in the
135 Cascadia Subduction Zone. All of them also report the thickening of the LVZ with in-
136 creasing depth. It is unclear how such a thick ductile zone could be generating tremor.
137 Audet and Schaeffer (2018) also note that the LVZ does not extend into the locked zone;
138 and on the down-dip side, it truncates at the mantle wedge. They conclude that the nature
139 of the LVZ remains ambiguous and provide a couple of hypothesis explaining the
140 increasing thickness of the LVZ with depth. These hypothesis, however, do not provide
141 a definitive explanation of the periodic nature of slow slip.

142 **2.3 Tremor**

143 Since the first reporting by Obara (2002), tremor in subduction zones has been widely
144 observed all over the world. Several researchers have reported that tremor has a dom-
145 inant thrust-type focal mechanism (Shelly et al., 2006; Wech & Creager, 2007; Ide et al.,
146 2007; Bostock et al., 2012), thereby providing a significant boost to the proponents of
147 the Slow-Slip hypothesis. As the subducting slab slides underneath the continental crust
148 during slow slip, it generates tremor with predominant thrust-type focal mechanism.

149 Tectonic tremors are usually located in a narrow spatial interval oriented in a strike-
150 parallel direction (Wech et al., 2009; Kao et al., 2009; Obara et al., 2010; Audet et al.,
151 2010; Audet & Schaeffer, 2018). The down-dip boundary is close to the mantle wedge,
152 while the up-dip boundary extends a few kilometers from the mantle wedge. In the light
153 of the Slow-Slip model, multiple explanations of their depth extent have been proposed,
154 all of them revolving around variations in slip properties of the plate boundary due to
155 temperature and pressure changes.

156 Multiple studies (Peterson & Christensen, 2009; Audet & Schaeffer, 2018) image
157 the tremor swath to the down-dip side of the LVZ. Audet and Schaeffer (2018) interpret
158 these observations as reflective of transitions in plate coupling and slip modes along the
159 dip. If such transitions are indeed present, the processes that result in such changes along
160 the plate boundary are open to question.

161 Tremors exhibit peculiar migration characteristics. Wech et al. (2009); Obara et
162 al. (2011) observe up-dip and radial tremor migration. Obara et al. (2010, 2012) show
163 a bimodal distribution of tremors in the Nankai subduction zone, with tremors from the

164 along-strike migration concentrated on the up-dip side, while tremors from up-dip mi-
165 gration distributed over the entire tremor zone. Other studies (Houston et al., 2011; Obara
166 et al., 2012) report rapid reverse tremor migration where tremors migrate in the oppo-
167 site direction of along-strike migration at much faster speeds. It is unclear from the Slow-
168 Slip hypothesis as to what physical phenomena might result in such migration patterns.

169 Schwartz and Rokosky (2007) find no evidence of slow slip and tremors in north-
170 east Japan which has a thick old crust, while younger and thinner crusts in the Nankai
171 subduction zone exhibit an array of slow slip events with varying periodicity. Wallace
172 and Beavan (2010) report an interesting correlation between temporal characteristics of
173 slow slip events and their depth of occurrence in the Hikurangi subduction margin of New
174 Zealand. They note that the longest duration, and largest slow slip events occur at large
175 depths, while the shortest duration, smallest, and most frequent slow slip events are usu-
176 ally shallow. Although the degree of plate coupling (Wallace & Beavan, 2010) can ex-
177 plain some of these observations, it is unclear how plate coupling can explain the vari-
178 able periodicity and duration of the slow slip events.

179 **2.4 Crustal Seismicity**

180 Significant crustal seismicity is observed in Cascadia (Nicholson et al., 2005; Kao
181 et al., 2005; Bostock et al., 2012) and Nankai (Shelly et al., 2006) subduction zones. A
182 majority of the reported crustal seismicity is located at shallow depths and a few kilo-
183 meter above the tremor zone and further landward. The Slow-Slip hypothesis does not
184 provide a satisfactory explanation either of the origin of such seismicity or for the spa-
185 tial correspondence between shallow crustal seismicity and deep tremor.

186 **2.5 Mantle Helium**

187 Sano et al. (2014) report interesting findings and suggest the existence of fluid path-
188 ways from the mantle to the trench in the Nankai subduction zone. They note, “a sharp
189 increase in mantle-derived helium in bottom seawater near the rupture zone 1 month af-
190 ter the earthquake. The timing and location indicate that fluids were released from the
191 mantle on the seafloor along the plate interface. The movement of the fluids was rapid,
192 with a velocity of ≈ 4 km per day and an uncertainty factor of four. This rate is much
193 faster than what would be expected from pressure-gradient propagation, suggesting that
194 over-pressurized fluid is discharged along the plate interface.” It is debatable as to what
195 forces mantle fluids to squirt out in the vicinity of the rupture zone during megathrust
196 earthquakes.

197 Furthermore, Umeda et al. (2007) observe a close spatial correspondence between
198 mantle helium and tremors. They report a high flux of mantle helium over regions ex-
199 perienceing tremors and a low flux in areas adjacent to those lacking tremors. Reconcil-
200 ing these observations with slow slip had proved to be challenging.

201 **2.6 Paleo-Uplift and Subsidence**

202 Evidence of large-scale and periodic continental deformation can be found in ge-
203 ologic records. Sherrod (2001) find evidence of abrupt sea level changes and rapid sub-
204 mergence in Puget Sound, Washington State. They estimate a maximum subsidence of
205 approximately 3 m. Leonard et al. (2004) report a maximum subsidence of 2 m during
206 the 1700 great Cascadia earthquake. In Alaska, Hamilton and Shennan (2005); Hamil-
207 ton et al. (2005); Shennan and Hamilton (2006) report rapid subsidence measuring 2 m.
208 It is unclear from the Slow-Slip model as to how the crust can experience an uplift in
209 excess of 2 m over a period of 500 years.

3 Episodic Buckling and Collapse

The Slow-Slip hypothesis depicts a plate interface that is frictionally locked at shallow depths and transitions into a slow-slip zone down-dip. Below this transition zone, geoscientists believe that the subducting slab slides continuously at a steady rate consistent with plate motion. The key assumption in these models is that the overriding continental plate is in physical contact with the subducting oceanic slab all along the plate interface.

The Episodic Buckling and Collapse model, on the other hand, is based on the hypothesis of a buckling overriding plate that detaches itself down-dip from the subducting slab, while being in contact in the locked seismogenic zone. According to this model, the observed low-velocity zone (LVZ) is neither a part of the continental crust nor the subducting slab. Instead, it is a fluid-filled cavity created between the two plates because of the buckling of the overriding continental plate. An interplay of plate deformation, pressure differentials, and pressure release control the fluid flow in and out of this cavity and also generate seismicity in the form of tectonic tremor, low-frequency and very-low-frequency energy releases.

3.1 Euler Buckling

Under compressive stresses slender beams spontaneously bend to form curved shapes (Timoshenko & Gere, 1961). In subduction zones, the overriding continental crust acts as a collection of parallel slender beams (because of the plane stress imposed by the subducting slab) and buckles under the immense compressive stress applied by the subducting slab. A schematic scenario of buckling experienced by the continental crust is shown in Figure 1. The seaward locked zone and the landward thick continental crust result in an Euler buckling mode where both ends are fixed (Timoshenko & Gere, 1961). The seaward end, however, can slide because of the landward movement of the oceanic crust (Figure 1). Such a buckling mode results in not only horizontal displacements but also significant vertical strain in the continental crust.

Note that the short-term buckling and collapse cycles described below are sequences that make up each long-term megathrust cycle. Therefore, each megathrust cycle can be considered to be one centuries-long buckling and collapse cycle which in turn is made up of numerous short-term cycles. Dragert et al. (1994); Sherrod (2001); Leonard et al. (2004); Hamilton and Shennan (2005); Hamilton et al. (2005); Shennan and Hamilton (2006) present evidence of such long-term buckling and collapse cycles. At the start of the megathrust buckling cycle, the continental crust is in direct contact with the subducting slab at all depths. However, with each short-term buckling cycle, there is a net positive accumulation of strain within the continental crust, and progressive vertical detachment of the crust and slab as depicted below.

Below, we describe the various temporal phases of the short-term buckling process within each cycle and the multiple physical phenomena occurring within each of the phases.

3.2 Phase T_0

Because only the seaward edge of the plate interface (accretionary wedge and seismogenic zone) is ‘locked’ while the rest of the interface can slide, the overriding plate will buckle under the forces of the subduction process. Given the slowly developing subduction processes, the system will exhibit Euler’s fundamental model of buckling – with the locked portion of the continental plate acting as one fixed end and the thick continental crust further inland serving as the other fixed end of the buckling system. Figure 2 shows a schematic of the buckling and collapse process occurring in subduction zones. Phase T_0 corresponds to a state within the buckling cycle where the tectonic stresses

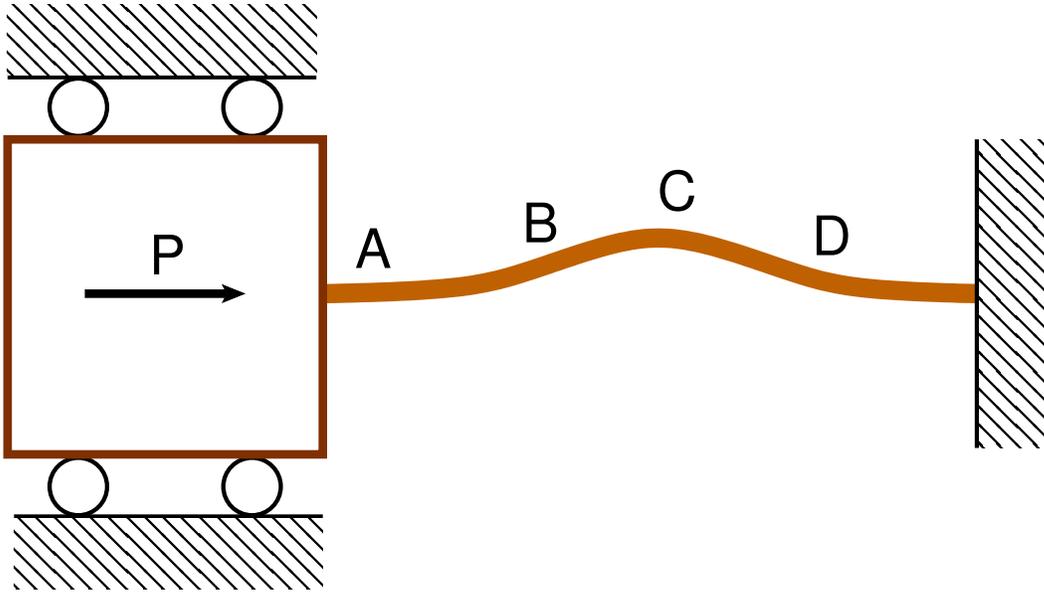


Figure 1: **Schematic of Euler buckling mode with both ends fixed.** Stress P is applied by the subducting slab at the locked zone (seaward fixed end). The landward fixed end results from the immovable backarc continental crust. Locations A, B, C, and D, correspond to the positions on the continental crust shown in Figure 2 with their net displacement analyzed in Figure A1.

258 on the overriding continental plate are minimal (phase T_0 , Figure 2). A magmatic-fluid-
 259 filled cavity exists between the overriding plate and the subducting slab.

260 **3.3 Phase T_1**

261 As the oceanic slab subducts, compressive stresses build up within the overriding
 262 plate, thereby pushing it upward and landward (phase T_1 , Figure 2). The overriding plate
 263 starts buckling further to accommodate the additional strain, wherein the deep conti-
 264 nental crust overlying the transition zone and the mantle wedge buckles away from the
 265 subducting slab and possibly the mantle.

266 **3.3.1 Fluid Flow**

267 The above deformation enlarges the size of the fluid-filled cavity and drives down
 268 the pore-pressure inside it, which in turn results in upwelling of magmatic fluids from
 269 the wedge region towards the cavity (Figure 3a). This process is slow and occurs for ma-
 270 jority of the cycle. For example, in Cascadia, phase T_1 continues for majority of the 14
 271 months. Because this phase evolves slowly, pressure equilibrium is maintained through-
 272 out the phase as progressive buckling is accompanied by steady fluid upwelling.

273 **3.3.2 Low Effective Stress**

274 We expect the effective stress of the system to be close to zero and any small stress
 275 perturbations may lead to escape of fluids through faults, fractures, fissures (and poten-
 276 tially magma vents), and also result in minor collapse of the overriding plate thereby gen-
 277 erating tremor. Evidence of low effective normal stress comes from observations that tremors
 278 may not only be triggered by earthquakes (Brodsky & Mori, 2007; Miyazawa et al., 2008;

279 Rubinstein et al., 2007; Peng & Chao, 2008) but also, more interestingly, by tides (Shelly
280 et al., 2007; Rubinstein et al., 2008; Hawthorne & Rubin, 2010).

281 Surface bulging due to buckling is consistent with the tiltmeter measurements (phases
282 T_2 , T_3 , and T_4 , Figure 2) as reported by Hirose and Obara (2005); Obara et al. (2004)
283 who observe that the surface is dome shaped during tremor episodes. It would be inter-
284 esting to study and quantify the temporal evolution in spatial patterns of tiltmeter mea-
285 surements.

286 **3.4 Phase T_2**

287 Progressive buckling will result in continual opening of faults and fractures, with
288 the openings starting at shallow depths and progressing downwards. At a certain crit-
289 ical state, right before the fracture and fault openings reach the fluid-filled cavity, buck-
290 ling exhibits the maximal horizontal and vertical displacements of the overriding plate
291 (phase T_2 , Figure 2) within each cycle.

292 Phase T_2 also corresponds to the maximal extensional stress on the top of the over-
293 riding plate and the maximal volume of the fluid cavity within each cycle. The struc-
294 ture of the fluid cavity would be similar to what has been observed by Hansen et al. (2012);
295 Toya et al. (2017); Audet and Schaeffer (2018) – thickening of the LVZ with increasing
296 depth. Our model suggests that the LVZ extends into the continental Moho and trun-
297 cates to the landward-side of the mantle wedge. The weak continental Moho reflectiv-
298 ity observed in the Cascadia subduction zone by Haney et al. (2016) is evidence of the
299 LVZ extending landward into the continental Moho. Detailed imaging studies are needed
300 to establish the precise landward-extent of this fluid cavity.

301 The time between Phases T_0 and T_2 corresponds to gradual buckling and slow up-
302 welling of fluids. Such gradual deformations and steady fluid flow do not emanate any
303 seismic energy in the vicinity of the plate boundary. However, the continual buckling and
304 bulging of the overriding continental plate result in opening of strike-parallel and trans-
305 verse faults resulting in significant crustal seismicity as observed by Nicholson et al. (2005);
306 Shelly et al. (2006); Bostock et al. (2012). The shallow crust is expected to house a ma-
307 jority of this seismicity because it experiences the maximum strain.

308 **3.5 Phase T_3**

309 **3.5.1 Fluid Cavity Collapse**

310 As soon as the fault and fracture openings reach the fluid-filled cavity, the mag-
311 matic fluid escapes into the overriding plate (most likely accompanied by phase change
312 from liquid to gaseous) and consequently drops the pressure inside the cavity dramati-
313 cally (Figure 3b).

314 As a result, the cavity starts collapsing as illustrated in phase T_3 of Figure 2. The
315 rapid reversal observed in horizontal GPS measurements is a result of the collapse-related
316 seaward horizontal displacement and not from so-called slow slip. As shown below and
317 as expected, changes in vertical displacement are even more substantial.

318 Wells et al. (2017) demonstrate substantial evidence of regional faults extending
319 to the plate interface. The distribution of mantle helium in eastern Kyushu by Umeda
320 et al. (2007) is consistent with the above picture. Umeda et al. (2007) observe a close
321 correspondence of mantle helium (in hot springs) with the occurrence of tremor – the
322 flux of mantle helium is low in areas lacking tremors, while it is high above regions ex-
323 perencing tremors.

3.5.2 Fluid Flow

The rapid collapse of the continental plate will dramatically increase the fluid pressure inside the cavity, which in turn will push the fluid up-dip, down-dip, and along-strike (phases T_3 , and T_4 , Figures 2 and 3).

Also, there is a distinct possibility that the high fluid pressure fluids breaks flow barriers within conduits and asperities housed in the locked zone and the accretionary prism, leading to the up-dip escape of some magmatic fluids along the locked zone through the accretionary prism (Figure 3b). The collapsing continental plate will also push fluids along-strike at the plate boundary as shown below in phase T_4 .

3.5.3 VLFs

We hypothesize that the so-called shallow very-low-frequency earthquakes (VLFs) observed in accretionary prisms result from the rapid flow of magmatic-fluid brought about by the collapsing continental crust.

Multiple researchers have reported the close spatial and temporal correspondence of shallow very-low-frequency earthquakes (VLFs) in the accretionary prism with deep tremor and short-term slow slip events. Obara and Ito (2005) report shallow VLFs on the up-dip side of the locked zone in the Nankai trough. Because the accretionary prism contains out-of-sequence thrusts and fault splays, Obara and Ito (2005) speculate that these fault planes might provide pathways for fluid flow from the subducting slab. More recently, the work of Liu et al. (2015); Nakano et al. (2018) shows the close temporal association between shallow VLFs in the accretionary prism with deep short-term slow slip events. Liu et al. (2015) provide clear evidence of the occurrence of VLFs predominantly at the onset of short-term slow slip. They also show that these VLFs have thrust-type focal mechanism.

We do not expect any seismicity at the plate boundary (due to plate motion or fluid flow) during the buckling phase (phases T_0 , and T_1 , Figure 2) but expect different forms of energy release (at multiple locations on the plate boundary) during the collapse phases (phases T_3 , and T_4 , Figure 2) arising from plate striking as well as fluid flow.

3.5.4 Other Explanations for Cavity Collapse

The locked zone experiences substantial stress because of the buckling continental plate. Another possible scenario for the overriding plate collapse could be the minor and temporary decoupling of the locked zone when frictional forces in the locked zone are exceeded. Focal mechanisms of such seismic activity should be close to thrust-type. However, the lack of significant conventional seismicity (high frequency) in the locked zone prior to tremors is a strike against this possibility. Any future discovery of locked-zone conventional seismicity immediately preceding tremor activity will add substantial credibility to this potential scenario.

It is also possible that a combination of the above two processes – fluid flow and locked-zone decoupling, might be occurring. Future research efforts on understanding the dynamic processes at locked zone and the accretionary prism will shed more light on the dominant mechanism.

3.6 Phase T_4

3.6.1 Tectonic Tremor Origin

The rapidly collapsing overriding plate strikes the subducting oceanic slab, thereby generating tectonic tremor (phase T_4 of Figure 2). Tremor source mechanisms at sub-

duction zones should therefore be dominantly of the Compensated Linear Vector Dipole (CLVD) type, with a possible minor thrusting component arising from the relative plate motion. Researchers have, however, observed a dominant thrust-type focal mechanism for tremor (Shelly et al., 2006; Wech & Creager, 2007; Ide et al., 2007; Bostock et al., 2012). That said, there is considerable similarity between the focal mechanisms of thrusting-type and of CLVD-type. In the absence of full-azimuth and wide-angle sampling of a focal sphere, one might mistake a CLVD mechanism as a thrust-type mechanism (especially if one is looking for it).

The atypical lower-boundary geometry of the buckled continental plate explains why tremors truncate at the continental Moho (phase T_4 , Figure 2) and are observed lying within a narrow band up-dip along the plate interface (phase T_4 , Figure 2, Wech et al., 2009; Peterson & Christensen, 2009; Audet & Schaeffer, 2018). Audet et al. (2010) note that “the peak occurrence of tremors roughly coincides with the intersection of the plate interface with the overlying continental crust–mantle boundary”. In addition, as supporting frictional forces are overcome, the lower portion of the continental crust wedge strikes the subducting slab first (phase T_4 , Figure 2), followed by a progressive collapse of the continental crust along the up-dip (and radial) direction (phase T_4 , Figure 3c) – interpreted as up-dip and radial tremor migration in several studies (Wech et al., 2009; Obara et al., 2011).

3.6.2 *Fluid Flow*

As the overriding continental crust collapses with the lower edge hitting the subducting slab first, some of the fluids are pushed landward along the continental Moho, while most of the fluids are pushed up-dip and along-strike (Figure 3c). It is likely that as the lower edge hits the subducting slab, it cuts off hydraulic communication between the up-dip fluid cavity and the down-dip mantle wedge, thereby trapping fluid in the cavity. As described above, the collapse also increases the pore-pressure in the cavity, without which the up-dip rate of collapse (parameter that controls tremor migration rate) would be larger than the ones observed by Wech et al. (2009) and Obara et al. (2011) in Cascadia and Japan, respectively. In the latter part of phase T_4 , the lagging end of the high-pressure fluid pocket collapses (creating tremors), thereby pushing the fluid pocket up-dip and parallel to the strike along the plate boundary.

Similar to shallow VLFs, we hypothesize that deep low-frequency earthquakes (LFs and VLFs), observed by many researchers (e.g. Ito et al., 2007, 2009; Matsuzawa et al., 2009; Obara, 2011), correspond to the rapid sloshing of magmatic fluids brought about by the hastened collapse of the overriding plate. The up-dip location of deep VLFs with respect to that of tremor indicates that most of the magmatic fluid is pushed up-dip in phases 3 and 4 (Figure 3b and 3c).

The periodic changes in seismicity rates and attenuation and their correspondence with accelerated slow slip, as reported by Nakajima and Uchida (2018), corroborates the above model of fluid flow in and out of the fluid cavity. The ‘breathing’ mechanism of magmatic fluid flow driven by periodic plate deformation in subduction zones might be the dominant mechanism (and not buoyancy) of magma transport from the upper mantle to the crust and might even be responsible for the creation of the Aleutian Volcanic Arc in Alaska and its volcanism as evident from the focusing of partial melt under the arc.

3.6.3 *Tremor Migration*

The locked zone prevents the fluid pocket from moving further up-dip and therefore the fluid pocket migrates parallel to the margin and down-dip of the locked zone as depicted in Figure 3c. In the latter part of phase T_4 , we believe that the trapped fluids

418 move predominantly along-strike until fluids are lost to the overlying permeable crust.
 419 For the fluids to migrate along-strike, the plates need to detach from each other. We posit
 420 that the detachment process results in the observed along-strike tremor migration (Wech
 421 et al., 2009; Obara et al., 2011, 2012). Because of the low fluid-pressure in the latter stages,
 422 the rate of detachment is expected to be lower than the initial up-dip collapse rate – which
 423 explains the slower along-strike tremor migration with respect to up-dip migration (Wech
 424 et al., 2009; Houston et al., 2011; Obara et al., 2011, 2012). This model also explains the
 425 bimodal distribution of tremors in the Nankai subduction zone (Obara et al., 2012) with
 426 tremors from the along-strike migration concentrated on the up-dip side while tremors
 427 from up-dip migration are distributed over the entire tremor zone.

428 Some studies (Houston et al., 2011; Obara et al., 2012) also report rapid reverse
 429 tremor migration where tremors migrate in the opposite direction of along-strike migra-
 430 tion at much faster speeds. We postulate that rapid tremor reversal happens when a mi-
 431 grating high-pressure fluid pocket encounters a permeable zone such as a fault or frac-
 432 ture zone, or a magma vent or dike (Figure 3c). As fluid escapes through these fissures,
 433 the leading edge of the fluid pocket collapses rapidly. This collapse is in the direction
 434 opposite to the migrating fluid front and occurs at a much faster rate given the loss of
 435 pore pressure in the fluid pocket.

436 *Note that the fluid cavity does not fully collapse within each cycle, instead there is*
 437 *a partial collapse. However, with each passing cycle we expect the size of the fluid cav-*
 438 *ity to increase. Only when the frictional forces in the locked zone are overcome during*
 439 *the megathrust earthquake, does the fluid cavity completely collapse.*

440 Note that tremors and so-called slow slip events display a wide range of periodic-
 441 ity in the Nankai and Hikurangi subduction zones (Schwartz & Rokosky, 2007; Wallace
 442 & Beavan, 2010; Obara, 2011) – with the seismicity characteristics clearly correlated to
 443 the depth of the seismicity (Wallace & Beavan, 2010). The Episodic Buckling and Col-
 444 lapse model provides a reasonable explanation for these observations. A thinner crust
 445 is more easily buckled than a thicker one; at the same time, the thinner crust can ac-
 446 commodate a lesser degree of strain energy than a thicker one. Hence, a thinner crust
 447 will undergo more cycles of episodic buckling and collapse than a thicker one within the
 448 same time period, all the while releasing lesser seismic energy in each cycle.

449 4 Discussion

450 Although majority of the strain in the overriding plate is released when it collapses,
 451 a small portion of the strain is retained in every cycle. Over hundreds of buckling and
 452 collapse cycles, the small retained strains add up and this strain energy is stored in the
 453 overriding continental plate. A critical state is attained where the forces exerted by the
 454 stored elastic energy (due to compression) and gravitational potential energy (stored in
 455 the uplifted continental crust) equates the frictional forces in the seismogenic zone. This
 456 state of deformation exhibits the maximal horizontal and vertical displacements of the
 457 overriding plate. When the frictional forces are exceeded, the stored energy is released
 458 in the form of a megathrust earthquake. Evidence of these inter-seismic crustal defor-
 459 mations corresponding to megathrust earthquakes is found in long-term geologic records
 460 (Dragert et al., 1994; Sherrod, 2001; Leonard et al., 2004; Hamilton & Shennan, 2005;
 461 Hamilton et al., 2005; Shennan & Hamilton, 2006) and may be interpreted as large time-
 462 scale versions of the buckling process that take centuries to develop. The rapid subsi-
 463 dence, observed by Sherrod (2001); Leonard et al. (2004); Hamilton and Shennan (2005);
 464 Hamilton et al. (2005); Shennan and Hamilton (2006) on geologic records, occurs dur-
 465 ing the express subsidence of the overriding continental plate.

466 As the continental plate completely collapses after a megathrust earthquake, the
 467 horizontal component of the GPS shows large seaward displacements and the vertical

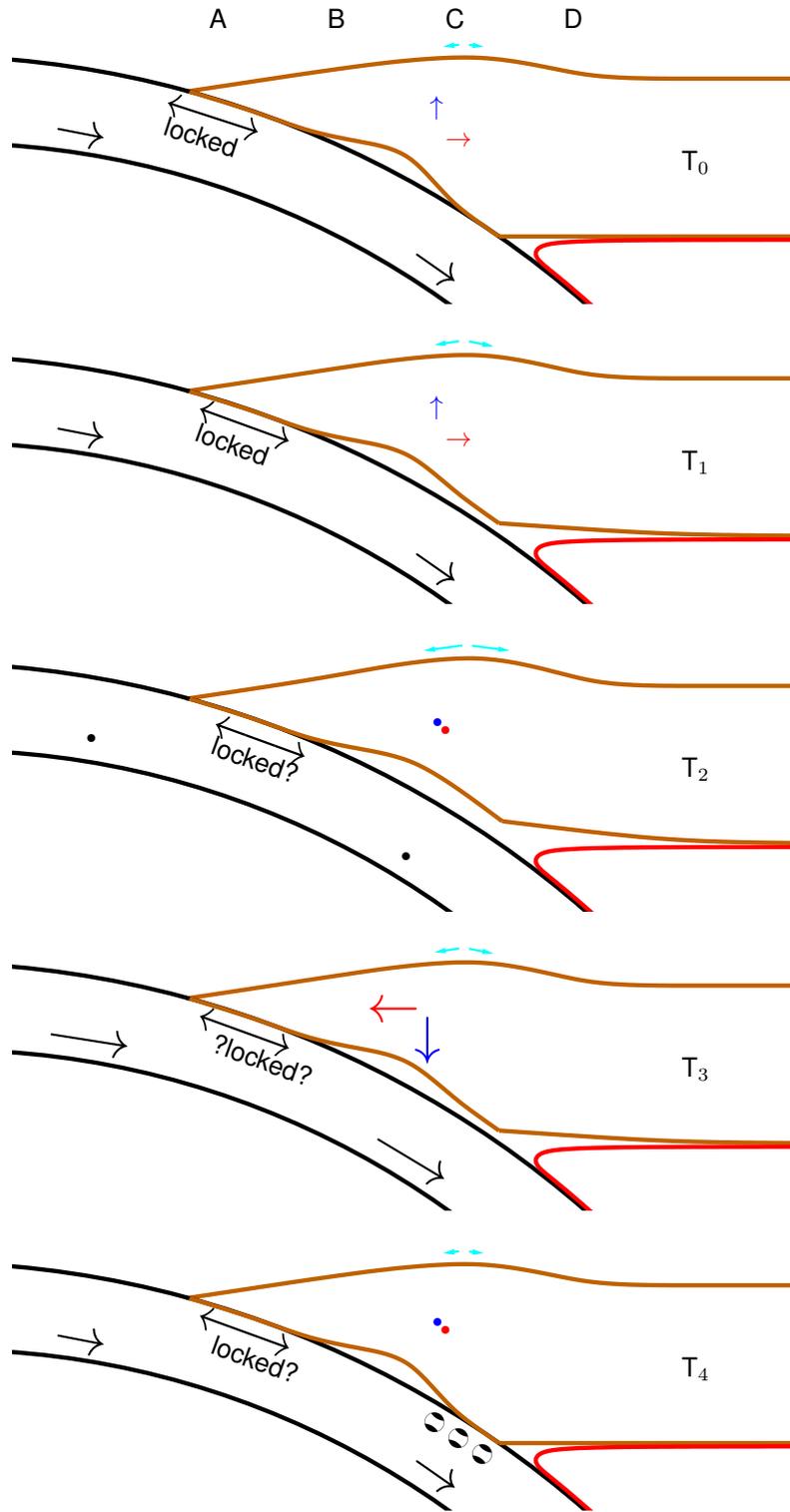


Figure 2: **Schematic illustration of the different phases of the Episodic Buckling and Collapse model of the subduction process and the structural changes therein.** The subducting oceanic crust is outlined by black lines and the black arrows represent the direction and magnitude of the slab velocity. The overriding continental crust is represented by the solid brown lines. Red and blue arrows represent the magnitudes of the instantaneous horizontal and vertical velocities, respectively, of a point in the continental crust wedge. Dots in Phases T_0 , T_2 , and T_4 represent vectors of magnitude zero. The tilt magnitude and direction are denoted by the arrows in cyan. The side-view of CLVD focal spheres are shown along the plate interface. Temporal motion of locations A through D on the continental crust surface are analyzed in Figure A1 below.

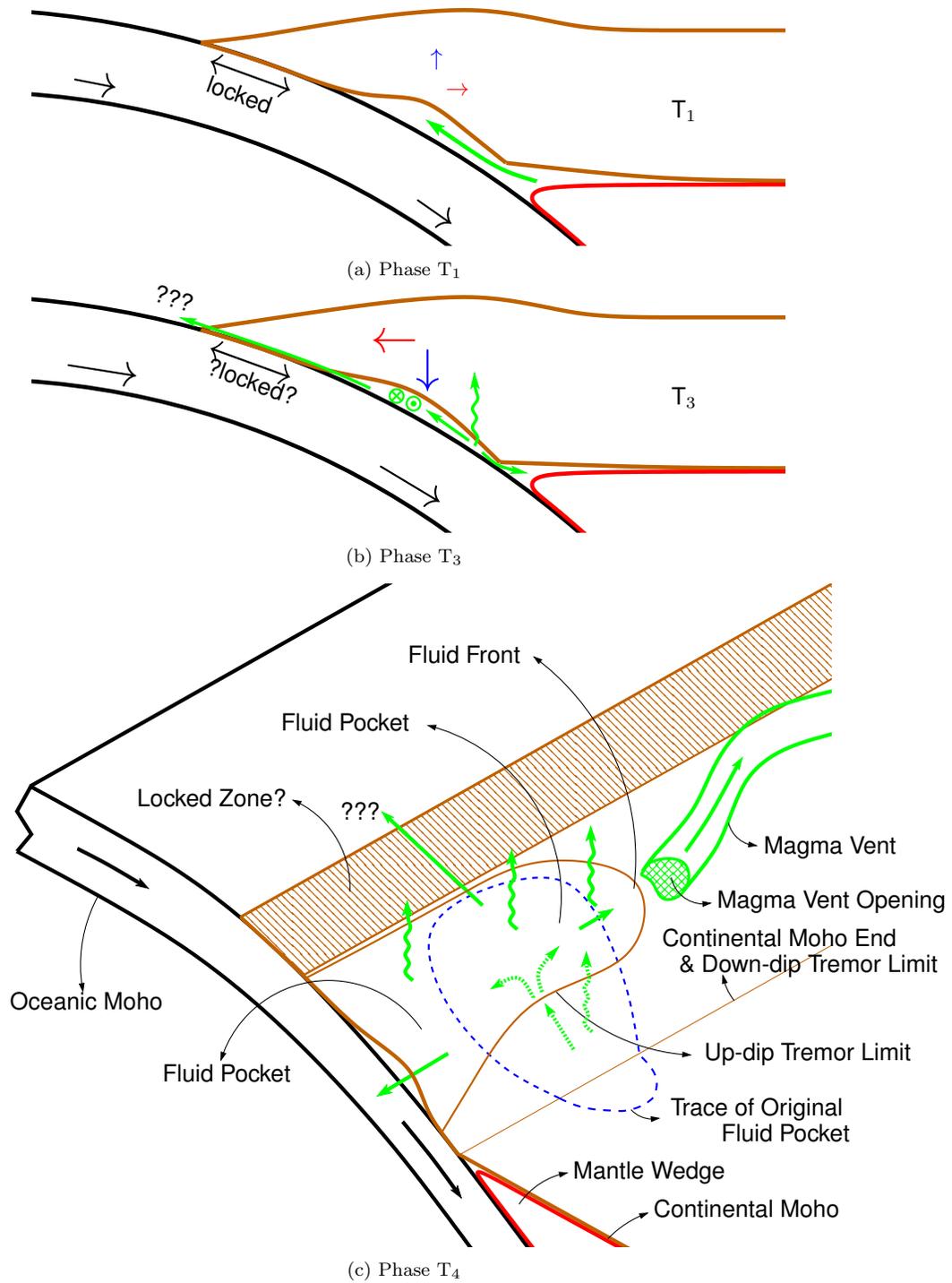


Figure 3: **Schematic illustration of magmatic fluid flow during each Episodic Buckling and Collapse cycle.** **a,b,** Two-dimensional crosssections for phases T_1 and T_3 are shown while **c,** phase T_4 is shown in three-dimensions. In **c,** only the basal surface of the continental crust is shown for clarity. The subducting oceanic crust is outlined by black lines and the black arrows represent the direction and magnitude of the slab velocity. The overriding continental crust is represented by the solid brown lines and the mantle is demarcated by the thick red line. Green arrows represent the flow direction of magmatic fluids. Boundary of the original cavity generated during buckling is marked by the dashed blue line.

468 component shows significant subsidence. The large “aseismic afterslip”, following megathrust
 469 earthquakes and observed in multiple studies (J. S. Gombert et al., 2012; Rolan-
 470 done et al., 2018), is simply the horizontal projection of the seaward surface displace-
 471 ment of the overriding continental plate. Also, because the overriding plate gradually
 472 collapses while pushing fluids out (instead of sliding on the oceanic slab), there is no seis-
 473 mic energy released – it is aseismic. The magmatic fluids are most likely pushed out along-
 474 strike and to the trench along the ruptured plate boundary as evidenced by the signif-
 475 icant increase in mantle helium in the seawater and reported by Sano et al. (2014).

476 As suspected by several geoscientists, the periodic release of stored energy in sub-
 477 duction zones in the form of fluid flow and seismic events, during each Episodic Buck-
 478 ling and Collapse cycle, indeed prevents megathrust earthquakes from occurring more
 479 frequently. A back-of-the-envelope calculation shows that if not for the episodic energy
 480 release, the Cascadia region would be experiencing one megathrust earthquakes every
 481 54 years.

482 Therefore, we believe that the key to forecasting megathrust earthquakes in a cost-
 483 effective fashion is to monitor long-term trends (in the order of decades and centuries)
 484 in ground deformation through multi-component GPS and tiltmeter recordings. In ad-
 485 dition, use of a dynamic modulus of continental crust in numerical simulation of defor-
 486 mation will also help improve megathrust forecasting.

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 491 For Alaska, GPS time series data were downloaded from USGS (<https://earthquake.usgs.gov/monitoring/gps>).
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