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

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1	Transi	ent aseismic vertical deformation across the steeply-dipping Pisia-Skinos normal fault	
2	(Gulf of Corinth, Greece)		
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26	<u>Key po</u>	<u>vints (140 characters each)</u>	
27	•	Spatial variations in vertical ground motion (uplift/subsidence) correlate with the	
28		mapped trace of the Pisia-Skinos fault in Greece.	
29	•	The ground deformation is non-uniform over the 6 years studied, and shows an up to	
30		7x increase in rate, lasting at least 3 years.	
31	•	This transient interseismic deformation is hypothesised to be caused by shallow	
32		aseismic centimeter-scale slip on the Pisia-Skinos fault.	

#### 33 <u>Abstract</u>

34 Geodetically-derived deformation rates are sometimes used to infer seismic hazard, 35 implicitly assuming that short-term (annual-decadal) deformation is representative of 36 longer-term deformation. This is despite geological observations indicating that 37 deformation/slip rates are variable over a range of timescales. Using geodetic data from 38 2016-2021, we observe an up to 7-fold increase in vertical deformation rate in mid-2019 39 across the Pisia-Skinos normal fault in Greece. We hypothesise that this deformation is 40 aseismic as there is no temporally correlated increase in the earthquake activity (M>1). We 41 explore four possible physical mechanisms, and our preferred hypothesis is that the 42 transient deformation is caused by centimetre-scale slip in the upper 5km of the Pisia fault 43 zone. This is the first observation of shallow tectonic (i.e. not related to human activities) 44 aseismic deformation on a normal fault globally. Our results suggest that continental normal 45 faults can exhibit variable deformation over shorter timescales than previously observed, 46 and thus care should be taken when utilising geodetic rates to quantify seismic hazard.

47

### 48 Plain Language Summary

49 Slip rates of active faults are used in seismic hazard assessment to infer the frequency of 50 damaging earthquakes. However slip rates are known to be variable when measured using 51 different methodologies (e.g. geodesy, geomorphology) and timescales (years to millennia) 52 for many types of faults in a range of tectonic settings. Hence we need to observe slip rates 53 for different time scales and try to understand the mechanism(s) that cause slip rates to 54 vary. In this paper, we present observations of vertical deformation around an active normal 55 fault in the Gulf of Corinth, Greece. We see that the deformation is non-uniform during 56 2016-2021 (the time period of data availability), and we analyse the data to find that the 57 deformation rate increased in mid-2019. To try and understand the physical mechanism 58 that may have caused this increase in deformation rate, we use simple modelling to test 59 four different hypotheses. We find that the best fit to the observations is for centimetres of 60 slip occurring on shallowest few kilometres of the fault. Our results highlight the importance 61 of understanding short-term (annual-decadal) processes happening on active faults, and the 62 potential pitfalls of using slip rates measured over short-timescales to infer seismic hazard.

63

64 Key Words

- 65 Tectonic deformation, normal faults, geodesy, seismic hazard, Greece
- 66
- 67

#### 1. Introduction

69 Faults have been observed to have variable deformation and slip rates when measured over 70 a wide range of timescales. Variations over timescales of thousands to millions of years are 71 routinely studied using a variety of geological techniques, e.g. geological cross-sections 72 (Ford et al., 2017) (Figure 1a), seismic reflection datasets (Lathrop et al., 2021; Meyer et al., 2002; Nixon et al., 2016), uplifted marine terraces (Roberts et al., 2009) (Figure 1b), <sup>36</sup>Cl 73 74 cosmogenic dating of fault scarps (Benedetti et al., 2002; Cowie et al., 2017; Iezzi et al., 75 2021; Mechernich et al., 2018; Schlagenhauf et al., 2011) (Figure 1c). However, shorter term 76 variations on the order of annual-decadal timescales are more challenging to study in the 77 geological record due to their short-timescale and low preservation potential (Friedrich et 78 al., 2003), instead geodesy can be used to study variable deformation on these timescales. 79

80 Short-term variations in deformation, detected using geodesy, have been observed across a 81 range of tectonic settings, and we briefly summarise this herein. In convergent subduction 82 zones, slow slip events (SSEs) have been observed, typically lasting weeks to months with 83 slip rates from 0.001-1m/yr, with most occurring just downdip of the seismogenic zone 84 (Schwartz & Rokosky, 2007). On the North Anatolian strike-slip fault, Rousset et al. (2016) 85 identified a transient aseismic creep event, lasting one month, with slip of ~2cm occurring 86 between 1-4km depth. These authors did not identify any external physical mechanism for 87 this creep event, although they noted that there was no high rainfall anomaly, nor any 88 significant local or teleseismic earthquakes during this time period. In extensional settings, 89 transient deformation events lasting 2-4 years have been recognised in GPS data (Chamoli 90 et al., 2014). The physical mechanism of these events is debated but may be related to a low 91 angle normal fault or a megadetachment at mid to lower crustal depths of 15-30 km 92 (Chamoli et al., 2014; Wernicke et al., 2008). Another example of transient deformation has 93 been observed across a normal fault in the Delaware Basin, USA (Pepin et al., 2022), this 94 deformation is inferred to be shallow (<5km depth) and related to fluid injection.

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

101

102 <u>1.1 Extension on the Perachora peninsula, Gulf of Corinth, Greece</u>

103

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

112 In 1981 there was a sequence of three large earthquakes in the eastern Gulf of Corinth,

113 occurring over a couple of weeks on the 24<sup>th</sup> and 25<sup>th</sup> February, and 4<sup>th</sup> March with

114 magnitudes of M<sub>w</sub> 6.7, 6.4 and 6.3 respectively (Figure 1a). The first two events occurred on

115 the Pisia-Skinos fault and surface ruptures were mapped (Jackson et al., 1982; Roberts,

116 **1996)**.

117

118 The most recent seismic activity in the eastern Gulf of Corinth was the 2020-2021

earthquake swarm (M<4) around the Perachora peninsula (Kapetanidis et al., 2023; Michas

120 et al., 2022). The seismicity initially began at ~5km depth, and over time it deepened and

121 propagated to the north-west/west, one hypothesis is that this sequence was triggered by

122 fluid pressure changes induced by higher than average rainfall in the preceeding months

123 (Michas et al., 2022).



125

Figure 1 – Overview of the scientific basis and study region. a. Evidence for variation in 126 127 extension rate across the western Gulf of Corinth over millions of years (Ford et al., 2017). b. 128 Evidence for variation in the uplift rate of the southern Perachora coastline (footwall of the 129 Pisia-Skinos fault) from dated marine terraces (Roberts et al., 2009). c. Evidence for variation 130 in slip rate on the Pisia fault, inverted from <sup>36</sup>Cl cosmogenic analyses (Mechernich et al., 131 2018). d. Summary map of the study area, showing the active faults, vertical deformation dataset, and recorded earthquakes. Focal mechanisms are for the 1981 sequence, 1-132 133 24/3/1981, M6.7, 2-25/3/1981, M6.4, 3-4/3/1981, M6.3. Map units are in latitude and 134 longitude. The box shows the location of Figure 2a. 135

- 136 Within the Gulf of Corinth, there are observations of variations in slip rates on the faults
- from thousands to millions of years (Figure 1a-c). Using onshore and offshore stratigraphy, it 137
- 138 has been demonstrated that the Gulf of Corinth initiated at 5-4Ma and that the rate of

139 extension has increased over time as the rift localised (Ford et al., 2017). Marine

140 paleoshorelines in the footwall of the Pisia-Skinos fault have been uplifted over the last

141 300kyrs and show variable uplift rate over this time (Cooper et al., 2007; Roberts et al.,

142 2009) (Figure 1b). In-situ cosmogenic <sup>36</sup>Cl analyses have been conducted on the Pisia-Skinos

- 143 fault plane (Mechernich et al., 2018), and the resultant 30ka slip history shows variable slip
- 144 rates (Figure 1c).
- 145

146 In this study, we present observations of shorter timescale variations in deformation rate 147 across the Pisia-Skinos fault (Figure 2). Using InSAR measurements, we show that the rate of 148 footwall uplift and hangingwall subsidence is non-uniform between 2016-2021 (Figure 2c). 149 We test four different hypotheses for the causative mechanism, 1) shallow slip, 2) post-150 seismic after-slip, 3) interseismic slip on deep shear zones and 4) post-seismic visco-elastic 151 rebound. We conclude that the most likely mechanism is shallow slip on the Pisia fault, and 152 we infer that this deformation is aseismic based on the lack of temporally correlated 153 earthquake activity. Our observation is the first example of short-term transient 154 deformation on a normal fault driven by a shallow tectonic (i.e. non-human influenced) 155 process. This has implications for understanding fault deformation and applications of 156 geodesy to quantify seismic hazard.

157

# 158 2. <u>Methods</u>

159

160 <u>2.1 Ground deformation data</u>

161 The European Ground Motion Service (EGMS, <u>https://egms.land.copernicus.eu/</u>) is a ground 162 deformation database, derived from Sentinel-1 satellite data (InSAR). Ideally N-S ground 163 motions would be best to study the extension in the study area, however Sentinel-1 is 164 insensitive to motions in this orientation due to side-looking satellites orbiting in a polar (i.e. 165 north-south) direction (Wright et al., 2004). Therefore, we focus on the vertical deformation 166 across the active normal faults. On the Perachora peninsula, vertical deformation data is 167 available over a 6-year time period (2016-2021). The deformation data are not spatially 168 continuous as some data have been removed due to decorrelation effects. We avoid 169 analysing data from these areas, and we focus our data analysis on areas with continuous 170 data, as described below.



Figure 2 – Deformation data from the Perachora peninsula. a. Map of the region showing
the spatial pattern of the EGMS vertical deformation, map coordinates are ETRS89-LAEA
Europe. Three small regions are analysed in detail where there is good data consistency and
coverage. Towns are as follows, P-Perachora, A-Alepochori. b. Mean rate of vertical

deformation along a 2km wide N-S profile across the Pisia fault. Error bars are standard
deviation reported by the EGMS. c. Time series of the three regions analysed. Rates and
associated errors are calculated using linear regression after filtering out the seasonal
signal. Rates given in italics are for before/after the inferred increase in deformation rate at
07/08/2019. d. Earthquake activity over the time interval studied. e. Time-series of GPS
baseline change between two stations (see Figure 1d for locations). An increase in rate can
also be interpreted at the same time as that interpreted from the EGMS data.

185 There is a clear discontinuity from uplift to subsidence, spatially correlated with the Pisia 186 fault (Figure 2a), we analyse the vertical deformation in this area in two ways. Firstly, we 187 construct a 9km north-south profile, approximately perpendicular to the fault trace, and 188 take a 2km wide swath profile to create a cross-section of the uplift and subsidence. 189 Secondly, we select two areas approximately 6x1.5km in the hangingwall and footwall of the 190 fault (Figure 2a, areas 1&2). The area in the footwall of the fault is limited by the coastline, 191 and therefore we selected a similar area on the hangingwall. We average the ground 192 motions in these regions to create a time-series analysis of the deformation. Around the 193 village of Kato Alepochori, there is an approximately 7x2km area of continuous uplift (Figure 194 2a, area 3). This region is in the footwall of the offshore section of the Skinos fault, 195 therefore no information is available about hangingwall subsidence and thus we only take 196 the average of the uplifting footwall ground motions. 197 198 The time-series datasets show non-uniform deformation rates (Figure 2c). Firstly we

199 calculate the differential vertical motion between the two areas around Perachora, and

200 then we apply a piecewise linear regression (Pilgrim, 2021) to constrain the date that the

201 deformation rate increases.

202

203 Finally, we compare the time-series datasets to earthquake activity, which is taken from the

204 NOA earthquake database (<u>https://www.gein.noa.gr/en/services-products/database-</u>

205 <u>search/</u>, date accessed 01/06/2023, for 20km radius circular area around 38.035°N

206 22.925°E, close to Perachora), we calculate the cumulative number of earthquakes and

207 seismic moment released for earthquakes M>1 from 2016-2021 and compare this to the

208 deformation time-series (Figure 2d).

#### 210 2.2 Modelling of hypothesised tectonic processes 211 We test four hypotheses of the causative physical mechanism of the transient vertical 212 deformation signal observed in the EGMS data. For one hypothesis (shallow after-slip), we 213 use field observations. For three hypotheses (detailed below), we use simple modelling to 214 assess likely hypotheses, note that we do not seek to do a full inversion of the vertical 215 deformation data given the spatial discontinuity along the length of the Pisia-Skinos fault. 216 217 2.2.1 Shallow slip and interseismic (shear zone) slip 218 To model vertical deformation associated with shallow slip or interseismic slip on a deep 219 shear zone, we use an elastic half-space model in Coulomb 3.4 (Toda et al., 2005). We 220 model a simplified fault 10km long with strike/dip/rake of 270°/60°/-90°. For modelling 221 shallow slip, we test uniform slip over a range of different depths, down to a maximum of 5 222 km depth based on the onset of seismicity during the 2020-2021 earthquake sequence 223 (Michas et al., 2022). For modelling interseismic slip, we model the slipping area between 224 15-24km depth (following a similar approach from the Italian Apennines (Cowie et al., 2013; 225 Mildon et al., 2022)) at a representative rate of 1mm/yr. We resolve the vertical 226 deformation at 0.1km depth (Figure 3ai and bi), as this is the minimum depth allowed in the 227 software. We compare N-S profiles through the modelled data and the actual data (Figure 228 3aii and bii). 229 230 2.2.2 Post-seismic deformation

231 We used PSGRN/PSCMP (Wang et al., 2006) to model post-seismic deformation patterns for 232 35-40 years after the 1981 earthquake sequence. We use a simplified fault model (length 233 15km, strike/dip/rake as above) to generate an earthquake with a comparable magnitude to 234 the largest of the 1981 earthquakes (M<sub>w</sub>=6.7). We use a simple three layer rheological model; 1) brittle crust from 0-16.5km, Vp=5.8km/s, density 2600kg/m<sup>3</sup>, eta=0PaS (the 235 236 steady-state viscosity); 2) lower crust from 16.5-30km, Vp=6.7km/s, density=2800kg/m<sup>3</sup>, 237 eta=6 x 10<sup>16</sup>PaS; 3) mantle below 30km, Vp=8km/s, density=3300kg/m<sup>3</sup> and eta=1 x 10<sup>18</sup>PaS, 238 for all layers, Vp/Vs=1.8 (Figure 3cii). This rheological model is based on multiple 239 publications from Greece (Clément et al., 2004; Janský et al., 2007; Sachpazi et al., 2007;

Westaway, 2002; Zelt et al., 2005). Again, we resolve the vertical deformation at 0.1kmdepth (Figure 3c).

242

243 <u>3. Results</u>

244

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

250 4mm/yr respectively.

251

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

257

258 The 6-year averaged subsidence rate for the analysed area on Perachora is -

2.60±0.05mm/yr, this is ~3 times higher than the uplift rate in the corresponding footwall
region (Figure 2c).

261

262 The vertical deformation rate is not uniform over the time interval studied. Assuming that 263 there is a single breakpoint (ie a single time point where the deformation rate increases), 264 the results of the piecewise linear regression analysis on the differential vertical motion 265 around Perachora gives that the change in deformation rate occurs at 07/08/2019 (± 6 days) 266 (Figure S1). Interpreting the GPS baseline data using this date also results in an increase in 267 deformation rate (Figure 2e), although the magnitude of increase is smaller, perhaps 268 because the baseline is not perpendicular to the fault trace (Figure 1d). We interpret that 269 the deformation before 07/08/2019 is representative of steady-state, whereas the 270 deformation after 07/08/2019 represents a transient phase. We then calculate the 271 uplift/subsidence rates for before and after this date using linear regression (Figure 2c). In

- the Perachora region, the deformation rate increases by a factor of 5-7. The increase in
- 273 uplift rate is lower in the Alepochori region, where it increases by a factor of ~2.
- 274

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

- 280
- 281 <u>4. Modelling of hypothesised causative process</u>

282 We hypothesise that there are four possible tectonic mechanisms which could explain the

signal we observe across the Perachora peninsula: shallow slip, post-seismic slip,

284 interseismic slip on deep shear zones, or post-seismic visco-elastic rebound. We have

investigated each of these hypotheses using simple models; we do not seek to invert the

ata fully, but instead to understand which section of the fault may be slipping.

287

### 288 <u>4.1 Shallow slip</u>

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

292

293 Using an elastic half-space model (Coulomb 3.4 (Toda et al., 2005)), we tested slip over a 294 range of depths (down to 5km), fault dips and slip magnitudes (Figure S2) and compared the 295 shape and size of the resulting deformation pattern perpendicular to the fault. From our 296 modelling, the following points emerge; 1) slip does not reach the surface, as this would 297 produce an asymmetric subsidence signal which would not match the observations; 2) the 298 dip and depth of slip affect the width and magnitude of the subsidence signal and therefore 299 there is a trade-off between these two factors; and 3) the magnitude of slip directly affects 300 the magnitude of the resulting vertical deformation, and seems to have little impact on the 301 shape of the uplift/subsidence. The best-fit simple model to the N-S profile has the fault 302 slipping 1.8cm from 2-4km depth (Figure 3a), and while this is not a full inversion, this gives 303 an indication of the approximate depth and magnitude of slip required to produce the

- 304 observed signal. Given that there is no temporally coincident increase in earthquake activity
- 305 (Figure 2d), we suggest that this slip must be aseismic. We believe this is the first such
- 306 observation of a transient shallow slip event on a normal fault globally that cannot be linked
- 307 to human activities.
- 308







311 Pisia fault. a. Shallow slip, our model (i) has the fault slipping 1.8cm from 2-4km depth,

312 comparing the modelled deformation to the N-S profile (ii) there is good agreement with the

- 313 shape and magnitude of the actual data. This is our preferred hypothesis to explain the
- 314 observed deformation. b. Photo of the 1981 surface rupture, showing no evidence for post-
- 315 seismic after-slip, as the offset is the same (with measurement error of ±0.5cm) as previous
- 316 observations. c. Interseismic slip on deep underlying shear zones, our model (i) matches the
- 317 uplift/subsidence pattern, but the wavelength of the subsidence signal is far larger than
- 318 observed and the deformation is an order of magnitude smaller (ii). d. Post-seismic visco-
- 319 elastic rebound, our model (i) implies uplift in both the footwall and hangingwall, which does
- 320 not match the observations. ii shows the rheological model used.
- 321

322 Our model may provide an alternative explanation for triggering of the 2020 earthquake 323 swarm, as shallow slip in mid-2019 would transfer stress downwards and thus triggering the 324 shallowest earthquakes in 2020 at 5km depth. We do not suggest that the shallow slip was 325 triggered by meteoric fluids because the increase in deformation rate began before the 326 period of high rainfall (Michas et al., 2022).

327

# 328 <u>4.2 Post-seismic after-slip</u>

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

336

After the 1981 earthquake on the Pisia-Skinos fault, the coseismic slip was measured from surface ruptures at a clear piercing point (Figure 3b) which is close to the N-S profile taken through the data. This has been repeatedly measured over the subsequent years by the authors at this exact point, firstly in 2001 (Roberts et al., 2009) and most recently in May 2023, and this measurement has not changed (within an estimated error of ±0.5cm). Therefore, we discount post-seismic after-slip as the causal mechanism because it is not

- 343 consistent with 1) our observations of an acceleration 35 years after the 1981 earthquake
- 344 and 2) that the offset across the surface rupture has not increased.
- 345
- 346 4.3 Interseismic slip on lower crustal shear zones
- 347 Our elastic-halfspace model of slip on an underlying deep shear zone replicates the
- 348 uplift/subsidence transition spatially coincident with the fault trace (Figure 3c). However,
- 349 the N-S wavelength of the subsidence signal (~30km) is far larger than our observations
- 350 (~7km wavelength), this due to the modelled slip occurring on the deep shear zone.
- 351 Furthermore, the vertical deformation is two orders of magnitude smaller than our
- 352 observations, and therefore we discount this physical mechanism.
- 353

#### 354 4.4 Post-seismic visco-elastic rebound

355 Using PSGRN/PSCMP (Wang et al., 2006) we calculate the post-seismic vertical deformation

356 at 35 and 40 years for M 6.7 earthquake and then calculate the difference to get the vertical

357 deformation rate. The model shows that there would be subsidence everywhere around the

- 358 fault, including in the footwall (Figure 3d). Our observations do not agree with this pattern,
- 359 and hence we discount this physical mechanism.
- 360

#### 361 5. Discussion

#### 362 5.1. Implications for fault behaviour

363 From our study, we are unable to determine a trigger for the transient phase of deformation 364 and the hypothesised mechanism of aseismic slip on the fault plane, however we can 365 speculate on the possible triggers. We have assumed that both the steady-state and 366 transient deformation phases can be fit by linear regression, however by visually inspecting 367 the fit to differential motion time-series (Figure S1), the transient deformation may be 368 better fit using a non-linear regression, e.g. exponential or a second-order polynomial. This 369 suggests that the underlying physical mechanism may be a non-linear process. 370

371 The rate-and-state friction framework is commonly applied to earthquake behaviour, based

- 372 on laboratory experiments and numerical modelling. One question is whether aseismic slip
- 373 and/or transient deformation is possible within a rate and state framework, and several
- 374 studies using numerical modelling show that aseismic slip can occur between seismic slip (ie

375 earthquakes). The mechanism within rate and state causing transient slip periods is 376 debated, some authors hypothesise that the stability of the fault is related to the length of 377 the fault (Biemiller & Lavier, 2017; Rubin, 2008). Whereas other studies hypothesise that 378 transient slip occurs due to variations in fault zone rheology, either by observing transient 379 slip occurring at rheological transitions (Lapusta & Liu, 2009; Liu & Rice, 2005), or by varying 380 the proportions of velocity-weakening and -strengthening material (Skarbek et al., 2012). 381 The fault geometry utilised in these studies is variable, but one study is based on a normal 382 fault. In this study (Biemiller & Lavier, 2017), the authors model a normal fault with a 383 shallow (~5km) velocity-weakening zone. Their models show both aseismic slip transients 384 and clustered earthquakes, with the aseismic transients accommodating 15-20cm slip per 385 event over 5-25 years - these modelled events are not dissimilar in magnitude to our 386 observations. Some studies find that variable seismic/aseismic slip can occur at low 387 effective stresses (Rubin, 2008; Skarbek et al., 2012), ie at shallow depths or areas with high 388 pore fluid pressure. While we do not know the pore fluid pressure at depth, our best fit 389 model of slip occurring in the upper 5km would imply low effective stresses.

390

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

398

### 399 <u>5.2 Implications for utilising geodetically derived rates in seismic hazard assessment</u>

400 Our observation raises important questions about how short-term (annual-decadal)

401 deformation rates relate to longer-term deformation rates. By splitting the time-series

402 datasets into steady-state motion and transient signal, we can compare these rates and link

403 them to independent longer term uplift records from the Perachora coastline to estimate

404 how frequently transient periods of deformation may occur.

406 We hypothesise that the long-term uplift in the Perachora coastal area is a combination of 407 coseismic uplift, steady state, and transient uplift. The long-term uplift rate is 0.51mm/yr 408 over 125kyrs (Cooper et al., 2007; Roberts et al., 2009). The coseismic uplift in 1981 at the 409 coastline was 10cm (Cooper et al., 2007) and we use a recurrence interval of 0.9-1.3kyrs 410 (Mechernich et al., 2018) to calculate the total of coseismic uplift over 125kyrs. The steady 411 state rate is taken to be 0.39mm/yr (Figure 2c). The transient deformation has been ongoing 412 for at least 2.5yrs, so we assume a range of durations (3-10yrs) for our simple approach to 413 calculating the recurrence interval of transient deformation periods. Considering the 414 uncertainties on earthquake recurrence interval and our assumed 3-10yr transient duration, 415 we calculate that the transient recurrence is in the range of ~110-1800yrs. While this is a 416 large range, what it does imply is that the minimum expected transient recurrence is greater 417 than the time that high-resolution satellite-based geodesy has been available. Therefore, it 418 is perhaps not surprising that similar transients have not been previously observed in this 419 region, and the limited examples from elsewhere in the world.

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421 Assuming other faults globally behave like the Pisia-Skinos fault and experience transient 422 phases, this may help to explain why there are sometimes discrepancies between geodetic 423 and geologic rates of deformation. This also highlights a potential pitfall of using short-term 424 geodetic deformation rates, as the inferred seismic hazard would be different using the 425 steady-state versus transient rates we calculate. Therefore, this study highlights the need to 426 understand how faults deform over short timescales, from years to thousands of years. 427

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# 429 <u>5. Conclusions</u>

Using geodetic data we observe vertical deformation (uplift and subsidence) which spatially 430 431 correlates with the mapped fault trace of the Pisia-Skinos normal fault in the Gulf of Corinth, 432 Greece. By studying the time-series of the vertical deformation, we can see that this 433 deformation is not uniform over the 6-year time period, and instead there is a 5-7-fold 434 increase in deformation rate in mid-2019. Using simple elastic models, we explore four 435 possible tectonic mechanisms that could explain the spatial pattern of the deformation, and 436 we hypothesise that the most likely explanation is that the vertical deformation is caused by 437 small amounts (~1-2cm) of shallow (~2-4km depth) transient slip on the Pisia-Skinos fault.

438	We use the interpreted steady-state and transient rate to infer how frequently such
439	transient episodes could occur. Our study highlights a potential pitfall of using geodetically-
440	derived deformation rates to inform seismic hazard, as it may be difficult to determine
441	whether a geodetic rate is truly representative of 'steady state' or whether a transient
442	phase has been captured. This highlights that the occurrence of short-term (annual-decadal)
443	transient phases of deformation merits further investigation.
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450	Data availability statement
451	GPS 30-s data (daily files) are made available by Hexagon Smart Net Greece for academic
452	use. EGMS data are available free of charge by <u>https://land.copernicus.eu/pan-</u>
453	european/european-ground-motion-service.
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455	
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