

Analyse probabiliste et multi-données de la source de grands séismes

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THÈSE

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Présentée par

Quentin Bletery

Analyse probabiliste et multi-données de la source de grands séismes

Thèse préparée à l'Université Nice Sophia Antipolis au sein du laboratoire Géoazur et dirigée par Anthony SLADEN et Bertrand DELOUIS

Soutenue le 27 Novembre 2015 Devant la Commission d'Examen composée de :

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Résumé

Les séismes sont le résultat de glissements rapides le long de failles actives chargées en contraintes par le mouvement des plaques tectoniques. Il est aujourd'hui établi, au moins pour les grands séismes, que la distribution de ce glissement rapide le long des failles pendant les séismes est hétérogène. Imager la complexité de ces distributions de glissement constitue un enjeu majeur de la sismologie en raison des implications potentielles dans la compréhension de la genèse des séismes et la possibilité associée de mieux anticiper le risque sismique et les tsunamis. Pour améliorer l'imagerie de ces distributions de glissement co-sismique, trois axes peuvent être suivis : augmenter les contraintes sur les modèles en incluant plus d'observations dans les inversions, améliorer la modélisation physique du problème direct et progresser dans le formalisme de résolution du problème inverse. Dans ce travail de thèse, nous explorons ces trois axes.

Les contraintes sur les modèles de source dépendent avant tout de l'information apportée par les observations. Inclure un maximum de données complémentaires, obtenues par différents types d'observations, dans des inversions jointes peut donc grandement améliorer la qualité des modèles. Nous appliquons cette approche au séisme de Tohoku-Oki $(M_w 9.0)$ survenu en 2011, et parvenons à en dériver un modèle de source expliquant toutes les observations incluses qui sont de types sismologiques, géodésiques et tsunami. Ce modèle, possiblement le mieux contraint de la littérature à ce jour, révèle des relations spatiales claires entre le glissement co-sismique, la distribution des répliques et des structures géologiques à l'échelle de quelques dizaines de kilomètres.

La qualité des modèles de source repose également sur notre capacité à prédire les observations à la surface de la Terre pour un modèle de source donné. Les données tsunami apportant, dans le contexte général des séismes de subduction, une contrainte quasi-unique sur les modèles de glissement dans leur partie la plus éloignée des côtes, nous nous intéressons à la modélisation de la réponse du tsunami à l'excitation sismique. Nous quantifions ainsi, pour les principales zones de subduction à travers le monde, la contribution de la déformation horizontale combinée à la bathymétrie dans l'excitation totale d'un tsunami. Nous montrons comment cet effet se propage dans le calcul des fonctions de Green tsunami et comment il affecte *in fine* les inversions - qui négligent très souvent cet effet - en prenant le séisme de Tohoku-Oki comme cas d'application.

Cependant, même en contraignant les modèles par un grand nombre d'observations complémentaires et en réduisant les erreurs dans la modélisation physique du problème direct, le problème inverse appliqué à l'imagerie du glissement co-sismique reste fondamentalement mal posé. Parce que l'on ne dispose que d'observations imparfaites, parcellaires et limitées à la surface de la Terre, le problème n'admet jamais de solution unique. Résoudre ce problème rigoureusement, implique donc, non pas de chercher *la meilleur solution*, mais *l'ensemble des solutions* compatibles avec les observations. Nous utilisons un formalisme probabiliste, dit Bayésien, pour retrouver *l'espace solution* des modèles de glissement pour le séisme de Sumatra-Andaman (M_w 9.1-9.3) survenu en 2004. Cet *espace solution* recouvre des modèles assez différents, mais nous permet, par exemple, d'affirmer que le glissement a probablement atteint localement des valeurs supérieures à 40 m.

<u>Mots clés</u> : problème inverse, observation de la source sismique, tsunami, distributions de probabilité, physique de la rupture sismique.

Abstract

Earthquakes are the results of rapid slip on active faults loaded in stress by the tectonic plates motion. It is now establish - at least for large earthquakes - that the distribution of this rapid slip along the rupturing faults is heterogeneous. Imaging the complexity of such slip distributions is one the main challenges in seismology because of the potential implications on understanding earthquake genesis and the associated possibility to better anticipate devastating shaking and tsunami. To improve the imaging of such co-seismic slip distributions, three axes may be followed : increase the constraints on the source models by including more observations into the inversions, improve the physical modeling of the forward problem and improve the formalism to solve the inverse problem. In this PhD thesis, we explore these three axes.

The constraints on the source models first rely on the information content brought by the observations. Thus, including as much complementary data as possible, obtained by different kinds of observations, into joint inversions may strongly improve the reliability of the models. We apply this approach to the 2011 M_w 9.0 Tohoku-Oki earthquake and manage to derive a source model explaining all the observations - which are seismic, geodetic and tsunami records - included into the inversion. This model, possibly the most constrained in the literature to date, reveals clear spatial relationships between co-seismic slip, aftershocks distribution and geological features at the scale of few tens of kilometers.

The quality of the source models also relies on our ability to predict observations at the surface of the Earth for a given source model. As tsunami data bring an almost unique constraint on the offshore part of the subduction earthquake slip models, we then focus on the modeling of the tsunami response to the seismic dislocation. We quantify, for the main subduction zones of the world, the contribution of horizontal deformation combined with bathymetry to the total tsunami excitation. We further show how the effect propagates into the tsunami Green's functions and how it finally affects the inversions - which wildly neglect the effect - taking the Tohoku-Oki earthquake as a case study.

Nevertheless, even if we constrain the source models by a large number of complementary observations and reduce errors in the forward modeling, the inverse problem in the context of imaging co-seismic slip distributions will stay inherently ill-posed. Because we only have imperfect and sparse data limited to the Earth surface, the problem never admits a unique solution. Thus, properly solving such inverse problems implies not to look for the *best solution* but for the whole set of solutions compatible with the observations. We use a fully Bayesian formalism to recover the solution space of the slip models for the 2004 Sumatra-Andaman earthquake (M_w 9.1-9.3). This solution space covers a large spectrum of different models, but enables us to affirm that slip likely reached values as large as 40 m. It is possible that such high slip maxima are more common among mega-earthquakes and that regularization - which de facto excludes this kind of values - strongly biases our knowledge of subduction earthquakes.

 $\underline{\text{Key words}}$: inversion theory, earthquake source observations, tsunami, probability distributions, physics of the seismic rupture.

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Introduction générale

Pourquoi les séismes se produisent-ils? Cette question, que se posent les hommes probablement depuis des milliers d'années, a trouvé, à la fin des années 1960, une réponse partielle avec la théorie de la tectonique des plaques : des plaques rigides, entraînées par un manteau asténosphérique en mouvement, glissent les unes par rapport aux autres, leur mouvement relatif est accommodé lors des séismes. Si ce cadre conceptuel simple a permis de comprendre l'origine des séismes, il n'en explique pas pour autant leur complexité : certaines zones de convergence tectonique semblent glisser asismiquement alors que d'autres sont le théâtre de ruptures sismiques violentes pouvant détruire des villes et induire des tsunamis encore plus dévastateurs. Quels paramètres contrôlent ces différences de comportement ? Pourquoi certaines ruptures s'arrêtent-elles après quelques mètres alors que d'autres s'étendent sur des centaines de kilomètres ? Comment les contraintes accumulées sur une zone de faille complexe sont-elles redistribuées après un séisme ? Cette redistribution de contraintes permet-elle de prévoir la nucléation d'autres séismes ?

Ces questions constituent des enjeux évidents en terme d'appréhension de l'aléa sismique et tsunamigénique. Pour y répondre, l'étude approfondie de la complexité des ruptures sismiques apparaît comme un élément primordial. Cette complexité peut aujourd'hui être imagée pour les grands séismes bien instrumentés. Une telle imagerie nécessite des observations précises et exhaustives du champ de déformation à la surface de la Terre ainsi qu'une connaissance fine de la physique qui régit la réponse de la surface de la Terre à l'excitation sismique. La qualité et la quantité de telles observations se sont considérablement améliorées ces dernières décennies parallèlement aux capacités de calcul, permettant une modélisation de plus en plus complexe des processus physiques. Enfin, la recherche des caractéristiques de la source sismique à travers ces observations est un problème inverse dont la solution est intrinsèquement non-unique.

Introduction générale

Parce que l'on ne dispose jamais que d'observations parcellaires et limitées à la surface de la Terre, un grand nombre de modèles est toujours capable d'expliquer les données compte tenu des incertitudes sur ces dernières et sur notre connaissance de la physique du problème. Si inclure un grand nombre de données complémentaires et améliorer la modélisation physique du problème direct diminue la non-unicité de la solution, il reste extrêmement difficile de caractériser de manière rigoureuse les paramètres décrivant un modèle de source, comme le prouve la variété spectaculaire des modèles publiés par différents groupes de recherche pour un séisme donné (le cas du séisme de Tohoku-Oki survenu en 2011 en est une illustration particulièrement éloquente). Estimer des marges d'erreur sur les modèles de source reste un enjeu majeur pour interpréter ces derniers.

Après un chapitre d'introduction aux techniques d'inversion du glissement co-sismique, nous explorons, dans cette thèse, trois axes pour améliorer la qualité des modèles de source, que nous appliquons aux deux plus grands séismes de l'ère instrumentale moderne : le séisme de Tohoku-Oki $(M_w 9.0)$ survenu en 2011 et le séisme de Sumatra-Andaman $(M_w 9.1-9.3)$ survenu en 2004. Le premier axe découle de la dépendance des modèles de source en la quantité d'information utile les contraignant. Nous montrons ainsi dans le deuxième chapitre que l'on peut, en incluant un grand nombre de données complémentaires, imager une rupture sismique avec un niveau de détail considérablement plus fin qu'en se limitant, comme ce fut longtemps le cas, à un seul type d'observations. Les contraintes apportées, dans ce cadre, sur la rupture du séisme de Tohoku-Oki, nous permettent de mettre en évidence des processus tectono-physiques tels que les liens entre glissement co-sismique et friction sur la faille, ou encore entre redistribution des contraintes et génération de répliques. Ce premier axe révélant, entre autres choses, que l'augmentation des contraintes sur les modèles de source rend ces derniers sensibles aux approximations faites pour permettre leur modélisation directe, et en particulier celle des tsunamis, nous examinons dans le troisième chapitre l'effet - souvent négligé - de la déformation co-sismique horizontale sur la génération des tsunamis. Nous montrons que cet effet s'avère important dans un grand nombre de zones de subduction connues pour être le lieu de tsunamis particulièrement violents et que sa non prise en compte biaise singulièrement les modèles de source dans de tels contextes. Enfin, le dernier axe de cette thèse vise à appréhender de manière rigoureuse la non-unicité du problème inverse. Si, inclure un grand nombre de données complémentaires dans les inversions et améliorer la modélisation directe de la source sismique permet de réduire la non-unicité du problème (un plus petit nombre de modèles expliquera de manière satisfaisante les données), un grand nombre de modèles expliquera toujours les données raisonnablement bien. Dans le quatrième chapitre, nous appliquons un formalisme probabiliste, dit Bayésien, au problème de l'inversion du glissement co-sismique permettant d'accéder à l'espace complet des solutions et ainsi évaluer des marges d'incertitude sur le modèle de source du séisme géant (M_w 9.1-9.3) de Sumatra-Andaman survenu en 2004. Nous mettons en évidence pour ce séisme, que des scénarios impliquant des valeurs de glissements au delà de 40 m, écartés *de facto* par les méthodes d'inversion traditionnelles, se révèlent relativement probables et que ces méthodes d'inversion pourraient bien avoir biaisé notre compréhension des séismes de subduction. Introduction générale

Chapitre I

Modélisation directe et inversion de la source sismique

1 Analyse de la source de grands séismes. Pourquoi? Comment?

La théorie de la tectonique des plaques a permis d'identifier le phénomène moteur des séismes. Le mouvement relatif des plaques charge en contraintes des failles bloquées qui accommodent leur déficit de glissement lors de ruptures violentes : les séismes. Cependant, notre compréhension du phénomène reste encore très limitée : pourquoi certaines failles accommodentelles leur déficit de glissement lors de petits séismes fréquents alors que d'autres le font lors de ruptures gigantesques libérant des contraintes emmagasinées depuis des centaines d'années ? Pourquoi d'autres zones de failles encore semblent glisser asismiquement et ne pas accumuler de contraintes. Quels paramètres contrôlent ces différences de comportement?

Répondre à ces questions nécessite d'améliorer notre compréhension de la mécanique des failles et donc d'avoir accès à une information sur le comportement de celles-ci. Imager le glissement le long de telles failles est maintenant rendu possible par la quantité et la qualité des observations via des techniques dites d'inversion. Ces techniques peuvent s'appliquer aux différentes phases du cycle sismique : la phase co-sismique donc, mais aussi la phase intersismique au cours de laquelle on peut imager le déficit de glissement le long d'une faille, la phase post-sismique au cours de laquelle on peut imager le ré-équilibrage de la faille; et même selon certaines études récentes [*Bouchon et al.*, 2013; *Kato et al.*, 2012; *Ruiz et al.*, 2014] la phase présismique au cours de laquelle pourrait se produire des glissements lents. Dans ce travail de thèse, nous nous intéressons exclusivement à la phase co-sismique pour laquelle on dispose des données les plus riches et dont dépend l'interprétation de toutes les autres. Néanmoins, les techniques que nous utilisons, en particulier le formalisme Bayésien, sont tout-à-fait transposables aux

autres phases du cycle sismique puisque dans tous les cas il s'agît d'imager le glissement sur la faille.

Pour imager la rupture d'un grand séisme, on procède classiquement en 4 étapes. (1) On collecte les observations de l'évènement sismique (celles-ci peuvent être de nature sismologique, géodésique, tsunamigénique, ou autre). (2) On discrétise la faille sur laquelle s'est produit le séisme en plus petites sous-failles (Figure I.1). (3) On calcule les données synthétiques prédites pour une unité de glissement sur chaque sous-faille (celles-ci sont appelées fonctions de Green). Enfin, sur la base des étapes 1, 2 et 3, (4) on cherche la combinaison de quantité de glissement sur chaque sous-faille qui explique le mieux les données d. Cette recherche des paramètres du modèle m^1 constitue un problème inverse (Figure I.2). Connaissant les fonctions de Green 9 (calculées à l'aide des méthodes décrites plus bas), on cherche ainsi à déterminer m le vecteur contenant les paramètres du modèle qui satisfasse l'équation :

$$\boldsymbol{d} = \boldsymbol{\mathfrak{G}}(\boldsymbol{m}) \tag{I-1}$$

Les 4 étapes décrites ci-dessus constituent la technique dite d'inversion faille-finie². Les inversions faille-finie peuvent être statiques, lorsqu'elles visent uniquement à déterminer la distribution spatiale du glissement le long de la faille, ou bien cinématiques, lorsqu'elles ambitionnent de déterminer l'évolution temporelle de la rupture en plus de sa distribution spatiale.

Nous allons voir, dans le prochain paragraphe, quels types d'observations d des diverses réponses de la Terre à la source sismique peuvent être utilisées pour imager le glissement sur la faille. Nous verrons dans le paragraphe suivant, comment modéliser ces réponses pour des sources synthétiques et ainsi calculer des fonctions de Green \mathcal{G} . Nous décrirons, ensuite, les différentes méthodes utilisées pour résoudre l'équation I-1 et obtenir un modèle de glissement m.

^{1.} m renferme, en réalité, plus que seulement la quantité de glissement sur chaque sous-faille. On cherche également généralement à évaluer la direction du glissement sur chacune d'entre elles et même, dans le cas d'inversions cinématiques, la vitesse de rupture le long de la faille, voire les fonctions sources complètes sur chaque sous-faille. Quelque soit la paramétrisation du problème, m renferme les caractéristiques de la source que l'on cherche à déduire des observations dont on dispose.

^{2.} la technique est plus connue sous ses dénominations anglo-saxonnes finite-fault source inversion ou finitefault slip inversion.



Figure I.1 – Projection en surface d'une faille de subduction discrétisée en sous-failles de plus petites tailles. Pour imager le glissement co-sismique le long d'une faille, on discrétise l'interface autour de l'hypocentre en sous-failles. On place ensuite une source synthétique sur chaque sous-faille (la sous-faille orange par exemple) et on calcule la prédiction théorique de chaque donnée dont on dispose pour chaque source synthétique. Les données synthétiques ainsi obtenues pour des sources unitaires sont appelées fonctions de Green. Figure modifiée d'après *Jolivet* [1995].



Figure I.2 – Schéma représentatif du problème inverse. Le problème direct consiste à prédire, par la théorie, les observations d pour un modèle de source m donné. Le problème inverse consiste à déterminer le modèle de source m prédisant les données d observées.

2 Observations des diverses réponses de la Terre à la source sismique

Lors des séismes, le mouvement relatif rapide des plaques tectoniques³ en action résulte en un champ de déformation mesurable à la surface de la Terre. Les mesures de ce champ de déformation constituent l'ensemble des données utilisées pour contraindre les caractéristiques de la source d'un séisme. Nous détaillons ci-dessous les différents types d'observations utilisées dans ce cadre.

2.1 Les observations sismologiques

Les ruptures sismiques génèrent un champ d'onde responsable des « tremblements » de la Terre ressentis aux alentours de la rupture. Ce champ d'onde est enregistré localement, et globalement sur la planète, par des appareils de mesure appelés sismomètres. Il existe deux grands types de sismomètres : les accéléromètres qui enregistrent l'accélération du mouvement du sol et les vélocimètres qui enregistrent sa vitesse.

Les accéléromètres enregistrent les mouvements forts du sol sous la forme d'accélérogrammes. Ils sont notamment utiles pour contraindre les propriétés cinématiques hautes fréquences (1-2 Hz) des séismes quand ils se situent proches de la faille rompue car leurs enregistrements ne saturent pas à haute fréquence, même pour des séismes de très fortes magnitudes. A trop haute fréquence (f > 1 - 2 Hz) néanmoins, les accélérogrammes deviennent très dépendants de la complexité 3D du milieu que l'on connaît relativement mal. Dans le cadre d'inversions faille-finie, on se limite généralement à des fréquences inférieures à 0.5 Hz, pour lesquelles la complexité du milieu joue peu. Par ailleurs, on procède généralement, dans ce même cadre, à une double intégration des accélérogrammes car les sismogrammes en déplacement sont plus appropriés pour représenter les mouvements basses fréquences associés aux séismes. Cette double intégration est une limitation majeure de l'emploi des accélérogrammes dans ce cadre, car des petites perturbations dans les enregistrements en accélération sont amplifiées par la double intégration et transformées en longues périodes qui distordent significativement les traces. La procédure la plus simple pour traiter ces artéfacts est d'appliquer au signal un filtre passe-haut. Les fréquences de coupure utilisées sont généralement de l'ordre de 0.05-0.1 Hz [Festa and Zollo, 2012, même s'il arrive que l'on puisse descendre plus bas.

Pour contraindre les comportements plus basse fréquence des séismes, les sismogrammes enregistrés par des vélocimètres sont préférables aux accélérogrammes. En effet, ces sismogrammes

^{3.} ou simplement de deux blocs crustaux dans le cas de séismes intraplaques

ne nécessitent qu'une seule intégration et sont donc moins sensibles à de petites perturbations. Les enregistrements de stations situées sur l'ensemble de la planète, à des distances azimuthales de 30° à 90° peuvent être utilisés pour contraindre la distribution spatiale de la source dans toutes les directions. Ces données lointaines, appelées télésismiques sont naturellement basses fréquences car la Terre agît comme un filtre passe-bas naturel et les hautes fréquences sont fortement atténuées à de telles distances. De plus, les temps de trajets étant plus longs, il est facile de séparer les différents paquets d'ondes, les ondes de volume (P et S) notamment, qui sont comme nous le verrons plus loin relativement simples à modéliser. Toutefois, les enregistrements télésismiques ne contiennent pas ou peu de composantes « champs proches » qui peuvent contribuer contraindre la source (e.g. *Delouis and Legrand* [1999]).

2.2 Les observations géodésiques

Les observations géodésiques sont des mesures de déplacement du sol au cours du temps. Elles sont très utiles pour contraindre la distribution spatiale des ruptures sismiques. Les deux techniques géodésiques les plus utilisées sont le *Global Positioning System* (GPS) et l'interférométrie radar.

Le système GPS est constitué d'une constellation de satellites qui permet à des récepteurs à la surface de la Terre de se localiser précisément. Avec le déploiement d'un grand nombre de stations GPS, qui permet une détermination robuste de l'orbite des satellite dans un référentiel terrestre méthodiquement défini (le référentiel terrestre international, appelé ITRF pour International Terrestrial Reference Frame) [Altamimi et al., 2011], l'utilisation de récepteurs double fréquence et de logiciels de post-traitement performants [King and Bock, 1999], les mesures GPS ont acquis une précision millimétrique. Dans le cadre de l'étude de la source, le GPS est majoritairement utilisé pour déterminer la composante statique du déplacement co-sismique aux points de mesure des stations disponibles. Comme la composante statique décroît avec la distance plus rapidement que l'amplitude des ondes sismiques, les déplacements enregistrés près de la faille rompue peuvent contraindre les détails de la distribution de glissement mais le pouvoir de résolution devient très vite inconséquent à mesure que l'on s'éloigne de la source. Malheureusement, la majorité des grands séismes, qui nous intéressent particulièrement, se situent en contexte de subduction et l'essentiel de la faille rompue est presque toujours sous l'océan. Les stations GPS, situées à terre, contraignent donc généralement peu les détails de la rupture. Cependant, ces dernières années ont vues l'émergence de stations géodésiques sous-marines, apportant donc potentiellement des contraintes beaucoup plus fortes sur les distributions de glissement. La précision de ces instruments reste néanmoins très limitée à l'heure actuelle (de

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l'ordre de plusieurs dizaines de centimètres dans le cas récent du séisme de Tohoku-Oki). Par ailleurs, le GPS n'est plus exclusivement utilisé pour déterminer la composante statique du déplacement mais également pour en déduire des séries temporelles. Le GPS haute fréquence (jusqu'à 10 Hz), qui est alors assimilable à un sismogramme en déplacement, permet d'éviter les problèmes associés à l'intégration des sismogrammes en vitesse ou en accélération.

L'interférométrie radar, appelée InSAR pour Interferometric Synthetic Aperture Radar est une autre technique de géodésie spatiale utilisée pour mesurer le champ de déplacement généré par un séisme à la surface de la Terre. Cette méthode permet de dériver de deux images SAR des cartes de déplacement en utilisant les différences de phase entre les deux images radar. Si l'une des deux images a été acquise avant un séisme et l'autre après, l'interférogramme obtenu contiendra le champ de déplacement co-sismique dans la direction de visée du satellite. La résolution de l'interférogramme dépend de la fréquence du radar mais est de l'ordre du centimètre pour les satellites les plus utilisés. Contrairement au GPS, qui ne donne le déplacement qu'à l'endroit où est positionnée une station, l'InSAR donne accès au champ de déplacement sur de vastes étendues spatiales, en dehors des zones spécifiques où les deux images sont décorrélées notamment là où la topographie est trop accentuée. Il ne donne, en revanche, que le déplacement dans la direction de visée du satellite alors que le GPS le mesure selon toutes les direction. De plus, l'échantillonnage en temps des données InSAR est largement moins fréquent que pour le GPS, car il nécessite que le satellite revienne au-dessus de la zone d'intérêt. Le laps de temps entre deux passages, de l'ordre du mois avec les satellites d'ancienne génération ERS-1, ERS-2, ALOS et ENVISAT, est en passe d'être réduit à moins d'une semaine avec le lancement du programme SENTINEL. La réduction de ce temps de récurrence permettra d'isoler le signal co-sismique de la phase post-sismique qui, étant difficilement séparables, limitaient l'interprétation des données. La donnée InSAR est très utilisée dans le cadre de l'étude de la source en domaine continental depuis le séisme de Landers $(M_w7.1)$ en 1992 [Massonnet et al., 1993]. Comme pour le GPS, l'InSAR n'est utilisable que sur des terres émergées et les grands séismes ont généralement lieux sous les océans, ce qui limite l'intérêt de la donnée pour ces derniers. Dans le cas où la rupture a lieu à terre, il est difficile de corréler deux images radar trop différentes et les très forts séismes $(M_w > 8.0)$ produisent généralement des déformations proches de la faille trop importantes pour construire des interférogrammes complets.

2.3 Les observations tsunami

Les données que nous avons passées en revue jusqu'ici sont toutes limitées par leur éloignement à la source dans le cas des grands séismes de subduction qui ont lieu pour leur majeure partie sous les océans. La composante statique du champ de déplacement décroissant plus rapidement avec la distance à la source que le champ d'onde, cela est particulièrement dommageable pour les données géodésiques qui ont un potentiel de résolution sur les modèles de glissement excellent lorsqu'elles sont acquises près de la source.

Les séismes se déroulant sous les océans, justement, génèrent une déformation du fond de ceux-ci induisant une élévation de la colonne d'eau se situant au-dessus qui se propage ensuite comme une onde de gravité, plus communément appelée vague tsunami. La propagation des tsunamis peut être enregistrée en mer par divers appareils de mesure. Les premiers appareils utilisés pour faire des mesures sur les tsunamis ont été les marrégraphes. Cependant ces dispositifs, placés dans les ports, n'étaient pas conçus pour enregistrer des tsunamis et leur utilisation dans ce cadre s'est vite vue très limitée, notamment à cause de leur faible fréquence d'échantillonnage et de la faible profondeur des stations qui rend complexe la modélisation de la vague comme nous le verrons dans le paragraphe 3.3. Le développement du système « Deep-ocean Assessment and Reporting of Tsunamis » (DART) donne aujourd'hui accès à des mesures de hauteur de vagues tsunami en océan profond⁴ que l'on peut ainsi modéliser beaucoup plus précisément que les marrégrammes. Le système DART présente, par ailleurs, l'intérêt de détecter la taille potentielle d'un tsunami avant qu'il n'atteigne les côtes, ce qui, présentant un grand intérêt pour l'alerte tsunami, a amené au développement d'un réseau couvrant l'essentiel des zones de subduction (Figure I.3). Ce système a été très récemment complété, au Japon, par des bouées GPS⁵, plus proches des côtes mais toujours en océan relativement profond (plusieurs centaines de mètres) qui se sont avérées très performantes pour enregistrer le passage du tsunami qui a suivi le séisme de Tohoku-Oki le 11 Mars 2011. Des dispositifs sous-marins enregistrant les variations de pression en temps réel (desquelles on peut déduire la hauteur d'eau à la surface) se sont également révélés très utiles lors de ce tsunami. Ces dispositifs se présentent sous la forme de stations isolées [*Hino et al.*, 2001; *Maeda et al.*, 2011] ou d'une série de capteurs disposés le long de câbles enregistrant différents signaux liés aux séismes⁶. Toutes ces technologies récentes sont amenées à se développer dans les zones de subduction à fort potentiel tsunamigénique car, en plus de fournir de précieuses informations sur la source, elles peuvent évaluer l'amplitude des tsunamis avant qu'ils n'atteignent les côtes. Leur intégration dans les systèmes d'alerte tsunami présente donc un intérêt majeur (e.g., *Melgar and Bock* [2013]).

^{4.} Plus d'information sur la page internet du National Oceanic and Atmoshperic Administration (NOAA) : http://www.ndbc.noaa.gov/dart/dart.shtml

^{5.} Plus d'information sur la page internet du Nationwide Ocean Wave information network of Ports and Harbours (NOWPHAS) : http://www.mlit.go.jp/kowan/nowphas/index_eng.html

^{6.} Plus d'information sur la page internet de la Japan Agency for Marine-Earth Science and Tecnhology (JAMSTEC) : http://www.jamstec.go.jp/scdc/top_e.html



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Figure I.3 – Réseau mondial DART. Figure modifiée d'après Bernard and Meinig [2011]

3 Modélisation directe des diverses réponses de la Terre à la source sismique

Les fonctions de Green \mathcal{G} , qui lient les observations au modèle de source, décrivent la réponse physique de la Terre à l'excitation sismique. Leur calcul implique la résolution de divers problèmes physiques, selon le type d'observations, que nous allons détailler ci-dessous. Ce calcul doit être répété pour toutes les sous-failles discrétisées. En conséquence, le temps de calcul des diverses méthodes de résolution est toujours à prendre en compte et amène un décalage entre l'état de l'art de la modélisation directe et les méthodes utilisées dans le cadre des inversions.

3.1 Modélisation des ondes sismiques

Le mouvement du sol généré par une dislocation cisaillante ponctuelle dans un milieu isotrope, homogène infini est donné par le théorème de représentation⁷ qui, dans un repère où

^{7.} Historiquement, les inversions faille-finie dérivent de ce théorème qui, sous une autre forme, donne les sismogrammes synthétiques en fonction du glissement sur la faille (*Aki and Richards* [1980], equation 10.13) : $d_p = \int \int_S \Delta \dot{u} dS$, où $\Delta \dot{u}$ est la dérivée temporelle du glissement en chaque point de la surface S de la faille rompue. En approximant l'intégrale surfacique par une sommation sur de petits éléments de surface ΔS_i , on

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l'origine se confond avec la source (Figure I.4), peut s'écrire sous la forme de cinq termes (Aki and Richards [1980], équation 4.32, p 79) :

$$u_{n}(r,t) = \frac{1}{4\pi\rho r^{4}} R_{n}^{p} \int_{r/\alpha}^{r/\beta} \tau M_{0}(t-\tau) d\tau + \frac{1}{4\pi\rho\alpha^{2}r^{2}} R_{n}^{i,P} M_{0}(t-\frac{r}{\alpha}) + \frac{1}{4\pi\rho\beta^{2}r^{2}} R_{n}^{i,S} M_{0}(t-\frac{r}{\beta}) + \frac{1}{4\pi\rho\alpha^{3}r} R_{n}^{l,P} \dot{M}_{0}(t-\frac{r}{\alpha}) + \frac{1}{4\pi\rho\alpha^{3}r} R_{n}^{l,S} \dot{M}_{0}(t-\frac{r}{\beta})$$
(I-2)

avec

$$R_n^p = (30\gamma_n\gamma_p\gamma_q n_q - 6n_n\gamma_p - 6\delta_{np}\gamma_q n_q)\nu_p \tag{I-3}$$

$$R_n^{i,P} = (12\gamma_n\gamma_p\gamma_q n_q - 2n_n\gamma_p - 2\delta_{np}\gamma_q n_q)\nu_p \tag{I-4}$$

$$R_n^{i,S} = -(12\gamma_n\gamma_p\gamma_q n_q - 3n_n\gamma_p - 3\delta_{np}\gamma_q n_q)\nu_p \tag{I-5}$$

$$R_n^{l,P} = (2\gamma_n \gamma_p \gamma_q n_q) \nu_p \tag{I-6}$$

$$R_n^{l,S} = -(2\gamma_n\gamma_p\gamma_q n_q - n_n\gamma_p - \delta_{np}\gamma_q n_q)\nu_p$$
(I-7)

où ν , γ et n sont trois vecteurs unitaires portant la direction du mouvement à la source, la direction source-observation et la normale au plan de faille, respectivement (Figure I.4). r est la distance source-observation, ρ la densité du milieu homogène, M_0 le moment sismique, t le temps, τ le temps de trajet, α la vitesse des ondes P et β la vitesse des ondes S.

Les termes R_n^p , $R_n^{i,P}$, $R_n^{i,S}$, $R_n^{l,P}$, $R_n^{l,S}$ représentent les diagrammes de radiation en champ proche (R_n^p) , intermédiaire $(R_n^{i,P}$ pour les ondes P, $R_n^{i,S}$ pour les ondes S) et lointain $(R_n^{l,P}$ pour les ondes P, $R_n^{l,S}$ pour les ondes S). δ est le symbole de Kronecker. Les conventions de sommation d'Einstein s'appliquent aux indices n, p, q dans les formules des diagrammes de radiation.

Dans le cas de données télésismiques, par définition lointaines, les termes en $\frac{1}{r^4}$ et $\frac{1}{r^2}$ deviennent négligeables devant les termes en $\frac{1}{r}$. Cela permet de se limiter au calcul des deux derniers termes de l'équation I-2 pour calculer les sismogrammes synthétiques des ondes P (terme en $R_n^{l,P}$) et S (terme en $R_n^{l,S}$). Dans le cadre d'études sur la source, les calculs de ce type sont généralement réalisés dans une Terre 1D stratifiée en utilisant la théorie des rais (e.g. *Nabelek* [1984]). La propagation est calculée à la source puis extrapolée jusqu'au récepteur en supposant que le manteau inférieur est homogène et qu'il y a peu d'interaction du champ d'onde avec les couches plus superficielles car les rais sont très verticaux (les distances azimuthales des données télésismiques vont de 30° à 90°). On corrige, par ailleurs, les sismogrammes synthétiques obtenus pour l'expansion géométrique des rais et l'atténuation anélastique du milieu.

Dans le cas de données proches de la source, tous les termes de radiation doivent en revanche

obtient : $d_p \approx \sum_i \overline{\Delta u} \Delta S_i$, ce qui justifie la discrétisation de la source en sous-failles [*Beresnev*, 2003].

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Figure I.4 – Définition des vecteurs $\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{\nu}, \mathbf{\gamma}$ et \mathbf{n} . Le point source synthétique est placé au point d'origine O. $\mathbf{\nu}, \mathbf{\gamma}$ et \mathbf{n} sont trois vecteurs unitaires. $\mathbf{\nu}$ porte la direction du mouvement à la source, $\mathbf{\gamma}$ porte la direction source-observation. \mathbf{n} est la normale au plan de faille. $\mathbf{r} = r\mathbf{\gamma}$.

être considérés. La méthode des nombres d'ondes discrets (e.g. *Bouchon* [1981]) permet ce type de modélisation dans une Terre 1D stratifiée.

Le développement des méthodes numériques de simulation de propagation du champ d'onde comme les éléments spectraux permet aujourd'hui des calculs en 3D via des codes comme SPECFEM, où sa version simplifiée (plus rapide) AXISEM [*Nissen-Meyer et al.*, 2014]. Ces méthodes restent largement sous-employées dans le cadre des problèmes d'inversion faille-finie en raison de leur coût en terme de temps de calcul. Elles se confrontent également au problème de notre connaissance limitée de la complexité d'une zone de subduction : notre estimation grossière des paramètres élastiques régissant la physique d'un système de faille limite, dans la majorité des cas, l'intérêt d'une complexification numérique trop poussée.

3.2 Modélisation de la composante statique

Nous avons vu que les séismes génèrent un champ de déformation statique à la surface de la Terre mesurable à l'aide de la géodésie. Cette composante statique du champ de déformation co-sismique peut également se modéliser.

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Steketee [1958] a montré que le champ de déplacement $u_i(x_1, x_2, x_3)$ dû à une dislocation $\Delta u_j(\xi_1, \xi_2, \xi_3)$ à travers une surface Σ dans un milieu élastique isotrope est donnée par :

$$u_{i} = \frac{1}{F} \int \int_{\Sigma} \Delta u_{j} (\lambda \delta_{jk} + \frac{\partial u_{i}^{n}}{\partial \xi_{n}} + \mu (\frac{\partial u_{i}^{j}}{\partial \xi_{k}} + \frac{\partial u_{i}^{k}}{\partial \xi_{j}})) \nu_{k} d\Sigma$$
(I-8)

où δ_{jk} est le symbole de Kronecker, λ et μ les paramètres de Lamé, et ν_k la direction normale sortante à l'élément de surface $d\Sigma$. u_i^j est la *i*ème composante du déplacement au point (x_1, x_2, x_3) du à la *j*ème direction dû point force de magnitude F au point (ξ_1, ξ_2, ξ_3) .

Mansinha and Smylie [1971] ont résolu analytiquement cette intégrale et adapté leurs équations à une source rectangulaire sur une faille inclinée. Cette solution analytique fut reprise par Okada [1985] qui en dériva les premières modélisations numériques de sources sismiques dans un demi espace homogène infini. Dans ce dernier article devenu célèbre, l'auteur précisa : « [...] l'analyse de données réelles repose généralement toujours sur l'hypothèse d'une Terre assimilable à un demi-espace isotrope infini et sur la configuration de source la plus simple, principalement pour les trois raisons suivantes. Premièrement, ces approximations rendent le problème beaucoup plus simple. Deuxièmement, le modèle de source lui-même n'est pas unique. Troisièmement, la qualité des données du mouvement crustal est généralement mauvaise, du moins jusqu'à présent. Les deux derniers facteurs rendent souvent sans intérêt de comparer les données réelles avec les prédictions d'un modèle de source élaboré »⁸. Ces assertions, très justes en 1985, sont aujourd'hui dépassées car (1) la qualité et la quantité des données co-sismiques exploitables ont considérablement augmenté ces dernières décennies et (2) les capacités de calcul actuelles permettent de résoudre numériquement des problèmes beaucoup plus complexes et notamment, comme nous le verrons dans le chapitre 4, d'appréhender la non-unicité d'un problème inverse. Pour s'approcher d'une réalité infiniment complexe, les modélisations se sont donc tout naturellement complexifiées à mesure que les développements numériques et observationnels le permirent.

Zhu and Rivera [2002] ont incorporé un degré de complexité supplémentaire en introduisant des couches aux propriétés élastiques différentes dans leur modèle de Terre par la technique des matrices propagatives de Thompson-Haskell. Par calcul des modes propres, *Pollitz* [1996] a permis de calculer la réponse à une dislocation faille-finie à la surface d'une Terre sphérique

^{8. « [...]} the analyses of actual observations are still mostly based upon the simplest assumption of an isotropic homogeneous half space and the simplest source configuration, largely for the following three reasons. First, it is most convenient and useful as the first approximation model. Second, the source model itself is inherently nonunique. Third, the quality of crustal movement data is generally poor at least up to the present. The last two factors often make it meaningless to compare the data with the prediction of an elaborate source or Earth model. » [Okada, 1985]

stratifiée. Le développement de la modèlisation par éléments finis permet même aujourd'hui de modéliser des problèmes 3D de grande complexité (e.g. *Masterlark* [2003], *Romano et al.* [2014]). Cependant, comme pour le cas de la modélisation de la propagation du champ d'onde, cette dernière méthode reste relativement coûteuse en temps de calcul et se confronte encore au problème de notre connaissance limitée de la complexité d'une zone de subduction.

3.3 Modélisation du tsunami

Lors d'un séisme de subduction, le plancher océanique s'élève (et subside par endroit). L'eau étant assimilable à un liquide incompressible, cette élévation du plancher océanique engendre quasi-instantanément une élévation de la surface de l'eau au dessus de l'équipotentielle. En résulte un tsunami, qui se modélise comme la propagation d'une onde de gravité initiée par la masse d'eau élevée au dessus de l'équipotentielle. On peut prédire la propagation d'une telle onde en résolvant l'équation du mouvement d'Euler couplée à l'équation de continuité.

L'équation du mouvement d'Euler peut s'écrire :

$$\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{V}}{\partial t} + \boldsymbol{V}.\nabla \boldsymbol{V} = -\boldsymbol{g} - \frac{1}{\rho}\nabla p \tag{I-9}$$

où V est le vecteur vitesse, g est le vecteur d'accélération de la gravité, ρ est la densité de l'eau et p sa pression.

L'équation de continuité s'écrit elle :

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla(\rho \mathbf{V}) = 0 \tag{I-10}$$

Dans un repère cartésien 2D (x,z) où z pointe vers le haut, et où u et v sont les composantes du vecteur V selon les axes x et z respectivement (Figure I.5), on a donc :

$$\int \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = -\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial p}{\partial x}$$
(I-11)

$$\left| \frac{\partial v}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} + v \frac{\partial v}{\partial z} = -g - \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial p}{\partial z} \right|$$
(I-12)

$$\int \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial v}{\partial z} = 0$$
 (I-13)

La longueur d'onde λ d'un tsunami (de l'ordre de grandeur de l'étendue de la source d'un grand séisme, i.e. plusieurs centaines de kilomètres) étant très supérieure à la profondeur h de l'océan ($h \approx 4$ km), l'accélération verticale de l'eau devient négligeable devant la gravité

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Figure I.5 – Définition du système de coordonnées cartésien 2D.

 $(\frac{\partial v}{\partial t} \ll g)$. Ceci implique que le mouvement de la masse d'eau peut être considéré comme identique du fond de l'océan jusqu'à sa surface $(\frac{\partial u}{\partial z} \approx \frac{\partial v}{\partial z} \approx 0)$. Une onde de ce type est appelée onde « eau peu profonde ». Sous ces approximations, l'équation I-12 donne une loi de pression hydrostatique :

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial z} = -\rho g \tag{I-14}$$

qui donne, sous l'approximation d'une densité constante :

$$p = -\int_{\eta}^{z} \rho g \mathrm{d}z = \rho g(\eta - z) \tag{I-15}$$

où η est l'élévation de la surface de l'eau au dessus de l'équipotentielle. Et par extension :

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial x} = \rho g \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial x} \tag{I-16}$$

Quand $\eta \ll h$, les termes $u\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}$ et $v\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$ deviennent également très petits, ce qui permet d'écrire l'équation I-11 sous la forme simplifiée :

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = -g \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial x} \tag{I-17}$$

En considérant une densité de l'eau constante, l'équation de continuité (I-13) donne elle :

$$u\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + v\frac{\partial v}{\partial z} = 0 \tag{I-18}$$

En intégrant la partie gauche de l'équation I-18 sur la profondeur, en gardant à l'esprit que $h + \eta \approx h$, on obtient :

$$\int_{-h}^{\eta} \left(u\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + v\frac{\partial v}{\partial z}\right) dz = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(hu) + \frac{\partial\eta}{\partial t}$$
(I-19)

On en déduit :

$$\frac{\partial \eta}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(hu) \tag{I-20}$$

D'après les équations I-17 et I-20, en faisant l'approximation que h est constant, on peut déduire l'équation d'onde :

$$\frac{\partial^2 \eta}{\partial t^2} = c^2 \frac{\partial^2 \eta}{\partial x^2} \tag{I-21}$$

avec

$$c = \sqrt{gh} \tag{I-22}$$

La vitesse de propagation d'un tsunami, satisfaisant les hypothèses $\lambda \gg h$, $h \gg \eta$ et $h \approx constante$ ne dépend donc que de la profondeur de l'océan. Cette solution analytique repose néanmoins sur des hypothèses relativement irréalistes pour modéliser des cas réels : la profondeur des océans est notamment loin d'être constante. Cette approximation peut cependant être contournée en résolvant le système d'équation (I-17,I-20) de proche en proche numériquement.

Plusieurs codes de simulation tsunami permettent d'évaluer la propagation d'un tsunami dans un océan à profondeur variable. Le plus utilisé d'entre eux, dans le cadre des études d'inversion de la source, est certainement le « *COrnell Multi-grid COupled Tsunami model* » (COMCOT). Il se place toujours dans le cadre des approximations « eau peu profonde » ($\lambda >>$ h) et $h >> \eta$, mais dans un repère sphérique (ou cartésien) et prend en compte des effets additionnels par rapport au problème décrit plus haut, tels que la force de Coriolis ou la friction à l'interface Terre-océan. Grâce à la relative simplicité de ses équations constitutives, ce code présente le grand avantage d'être rapide. Il permet donc de calculer les fonctions de Green d'un grand nombre de sous-failles en un temps raisonnable.

Lorsque la vague se rapproche des côtes, l'hypothèse $h >> \eta$ devient fausse et rend problématique la modélisation du tsunami aux côtes. Pour cette raison, la modélisation de données mesurées dans les ports (telles que les marégrammes) est un problème beaucoup plus complexe que la modélisation d'observations en océan profond (telles que les bouées DARTs par

I.3 Modélisation directe des diverses réponses de la Terre à la source sismique

exemple). Lorsque l'on considère des sous-failles de très petite taille, l'approximation $\lambda >> h$ peut également devenir problématique car la longueur d'onde de la déformation initiale est alors beaucoup plus petite que celle du séisme entier. Le code « *Non-hydrostatic Evolution of Ocean WAVE* » (NEOWAVE) [*Yamazaki et al.*, 2009, 2011b] résout partiellement ces deux problèmes en ajoutant un terme non-hydrostatique q à la pression hydrostatique :

$$p = \rho g(\eta - z) + \rho q \tag{I-23}$$

Ce terme correspond à la modification de la pression hydrostatique par la propagation de l'onde (principe de Bernoulli). Cette complexité ajoutée dans la modélisation rend les prédictions plus réalistes, notamment lorsque l'on se rapproche des côtes ou que l'on considère une source peu étendue. Pour cette raison, et malgré le coût non-négligeable en terme d'augmentation du temps de calcul, nous utiliserons prioritairement ce code de simulation dans les applications de ce travail de thèse.

Des effets dispersifs additionnels à grandes longueurs d'onde, dérivant de l'élasticité de la Terre et de la densité variable de l'eau en fonction de la profondeur, ont également été mis en évidence [*Tsai et al.*, 2013; *Watada*, 2013]. Selon *Tsai et al.* [2013], le premier effet pourrait ralentir la vitesse de propagation de 0.2 à 1.0%, le second de 0.5%. Ces ralentissements relativement faibles n'affectent que très peu la modélisation de données proches mais augmentent proportionnellement avec la distance de celles-ci à la source et peuvent provoquer des décalages de temps d'arrivée de l'ordre de 15 min pour des simulations sur des distances trans-pacifiques. *Watada et al.* [2014] ont proposé une méthode pour estimer le décalage et corriger les simulations *a posteriori. Allgeyer and Cummins* [2014] ont eux intégré ces deux effets dans les équations constitutives et trouvé des valeurs de déphasage de l'ordre de 1 à 2% pour la somme des deux effets. Ils ont, par ailleurs, montré que la forme d'onde peut également être affectée par la réponse au chargement élastique de la Terre. La méthode d'*Allgeyer and Cummins* [2014] reste néanmoins difficilement applicable aux problèmes d'inversion faille-finie en raison du temps de calcul des simulations puisqu'à chaque pas de temps ils calculent l'interaction complète du champ d'onde tsunami avec la Terre élastique.

Il est à noter que la plupart des codes de simulation tsunami offrent à l'utilisateur la possibilité de simuler un tsunami directement à partir des paramètres d'un séisme (surface rompue, pendage, azimuth, taux de glissement...). Pour calculer la déformation initiale de la surface de l'eau à partir des paramètres décrivant la source, les codes font l'approximation forte que cette dernière est égale à la déformation verticale du fond de l'océan déduite des équations de *Mansinha and Smylie* [1971] pour un demi espace homogène infini. Nous verrons dans le
chapitre III que cette approximation peut amener à des erreurs épistémiques importantes dans la modélisation directe et l'inversion de la source.

4 Le problème inverse

Nous avons vu comment calculer les fonctions de Green \mathcal{G} de l'équation I-1 pour les trois principaux types d'observations utilisés dans les inversions failles-finies. Reste à présent à résoudre cette équation, c'est à dire à trouver le modèle de source \boldsymbol{m} tel que $\boldsymbol{d} = \mathcal{G}(\boldsymbol{m})$.

En réalité, les valeurs prédites ne peuvent être identiques aux valeurs mesurées pour deux raisons : les incertitudes sur les mesures et les imperfections de la modélisation ⁹. De plus, bien que le problème soit souvent sur-déterminé (le nombre de données est en général supérieur au nombre d'inconnues), il est quasiment toujours sous-contraint car l'information contenue dans les données est largement redondante. Pour ces deux raisons, l'équation I-1 n'admet, en général, pas de solution unique car plusieurs modèles m peuvent prédire les données d dans des marges d'erreurs acceptables. La résolution de cette équation est donc un problème complexe pour lequel de nombreuses méthodes sont utilisées. Nous détaillons les plus employées dans ce qui suit.

4.1 L'inverse généralisée

Dans le cas d'inversions statiques, visant à déterminer la distribution spatiale du glissement co-sismique sur la faille sans se préoccuper de sa complexité temporelle (cela inclue les inversions pseudo-cinématiques où l'on fixe la vitesse de glissement de sorte que l'on n'inverse réellement que l'amplitude du glissement), les fonctions de Green relient linéairement la source aux observations et l'opérateur \mathcal{G} peut s'écrire sous une forme matricielle que nous appellerons \boldsymbol{G} . L'équation I-1 s'écrit alors :

$$\boldsymbol{d} = \boldsymbol{G}\boldsymbol{m} \tag{I-24}$$

Cette équation relie un vecteur « données » de dimension n_d (le nombre d'observations) à un vecteur « modèle » de dimension n_m (le nombre de paramètres du modèle). Dans le cas rare où $n_d = n_m$, \boldsymbol{G} est carrée, et si son rang est en plus égal à n_m , \boldsymbol{G} est inversible et la solution du problème triviale :

$$\boldsymbol{m} = \boldsymbol{G}^{-1}\boldsymbol{d} \tag{I-25}$$

^{9.} Ces deux sources d'erreur de natures très différentes produisent généralement des incertitudes du même ordre de grandeur car à mesure que les instruments de mesure améliorent leurs précisions, de nouvelles théories et de nouveaux modèles apparaissent pour expliquer ces données plus précises [*Tarantola*, 2005].

Malheureusement, ce cas idéal ne se présente jamais car, comme évoqué plus haut, les données contiennent des erreurs, de même que les fonctions de Green¹⁰ et, en général, $n_d \neq n_m$ (la plupart du temps le problème est sur-déterminé : $n_d > n_m$) et $rang(\mathbf{G}) < n_m$ (le problème est quasiment toujours sous-contraint). On cherche donc à résoudre l'équation I-24 au sens des moindres carrés, c'est-à-dire à déterminer le modèle \mathbf{m} qui minimise l'écart $\chi^2 = ||\mathbf{d} - \mathbf{Gm}||$ entre données prédites et observées. Sous forme indicielle, ce résidu¹¹ s'écrit :

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n_d} (d_i - \sum_{j=1}^{n_m} G_{ij} m_j)^2$$
(I-26)

Une des façons les plus simples de trouver le minimum de χ^2 est de dériver l'expression I-26 par rapport aux paramètres du modèle et de chercher le modèle m pour lequel cette dérivée s'annule :

$$\frac{\partial \chi^2}{\partial m_k} = 2\chi \frac{\partial \chi}{\partial m_k} = -2\sum_{i=1}^{n_d} (d_i - \sum_{j=1}^{n_m} G_{ij} m_j) G_{ik} = 0$$
(I-27)

En réarrange ant les termes, on cherche \boldsymbol{m} tel que :

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n_d} d_i G_{ik} = \sum_{i=1}^{n_d} (\sum_{j=1}^{n_m} G_{ij} m_j) G_{ik}$$
(I-28)

Sous forme matricielle, l'équation I-28 s'écrit :

$$\boldsymbol{G}^{T}\boldsymbol{d} = \boldsymbol{G}^{T}\boldsymbol{G}\boldsymbol{m} \tag{I-29}$$

Quelles que soient les dimensions de G (i.e. même dans le cas $n_d \neq n_m$), $G^T G$ est une matrice carrée symétrique de dimension $n_m \times n_m$. Dans le cas où le rang de G est égal à n_m , le rang de $G^T G$ est aussi égal à n_m et $G^T G$ est inversible. On obtient alors la solution du problème inverse au sens des moindres carrés en multipliant l'équation I-29 à gauche par $(G^T G)^{-1}$:

$$\boldsymbol{m} = (\boldsymbol{G}^T \boldsymbol{G})^{-1} \boldsymbol{G}^T \boldsymbol{d} \tag{I-30}$$

où $(\boldsymbol{G}^T\boldsymbol{G})^{-1}\boldsymbol{G}^T=\boldsymbol{G}^{-g}$ est appelée inverse généralisée.

Dans le cas, beaucoup plus fréquent, où le rang de G est inférieur à n_m , $G^T G$ n'est pas in-

^{10.} Une autre source d'erreur rarement évoquée est la paramétrisation du problème elle-même : discrétiser la portion de faille rompue en sous-failles rectangulaires, par exemple, introduit des discontinuités non-physiques sur les bords des sous-failles et les choix dans la discrétisation (la taille des sous-failles par exemple) influence la solution.

^{11.} χ^2 est également appelé fonction coût.

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versible, mais reste une matrice carrée symétrique à coefficients réels et est donc diagonalisable. On peut donc écrire :

$$\boldsymbol{G}^{T}\boldsymbol{G} = \boldsymbol{V}\boldsymbol{\Lambda}\boldsymbol{V}^{T} \tag{I-31}$$

où Λ une matrice diagonale de dimensions $n_m \times n_m$ dont les termes diagonaux sont les valeurs propres de $\mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{G}$ et \mathbf{V} est une matrice de passage de dimensions $n_m \times n_m$ constituée des vecteurs propres de $\mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{G}$.

Comme le rang de G est strictement inférieur à n_m , au moins une valeur propre de $G^T G$ est nulle, ce qui rend Λ , et par extension $G^T G$ non-inversibles. En notant p le nombre des valeurs propres non-nulles de $G^T G$, Λ s'écrit :

$$\mathbf{\Lambda} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \lambda_p & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
(I-32)

On définie alors Λ_p , la matrice Λ réduite à ses vecteurs non-nuls :

$$\mathbf{\Lambda}_{p} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_{1} & 0 & \dots & 0\\ 0 & \lambda_{2} & \dots & 0\\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots\\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \lambda_{p} \end{pmatrix}$$
(I-33)

Les équations correspondant aux valeurs propres nulles n'apportant en théorie aucune information, on peut retirer les vecteurs propres correspondant aux valeurs propres nulles de la matrice de passage V (notée alors V_p) et conserver l'égalité :

$$\boldsymbol{G}^{T}\boldsymbol{G} = \boldsymbol{V}_{p}\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{p}\boldsymbol{V}_{p}^{T} \tag{I-34}$$

 Λ_p est alors trivialement inversible :

$$\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{p}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/\lambda_{1} & 0 & \dots & 0\\ 0 & 1/\lambda_{2} & \dots & 0\\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots\\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1/\lambda_{p} \end{pmatrix}$$
(I-35)

 et

$$(\boldsymbol{G}^{T}\boldsymbol{G})^{-1} = (\boldsymbol{V}_{p}^{T})^{-1}\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{p}^{-1}\boldsymbol{V}_{p}^{-1} = \boldsymbol{V}_{p}\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{p}^{-1}\boldsymbol{V}_{p}^{T}$$
(I-36)

On peut ainsi déduire l'inverse généralisée $\mathbf{G}^{-g} = (\mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{G})^{-1} \mathbf{G}^T$ dans les cas où le rang de \mathbf{G} est strictement inférieur à n_m . Ce procédé est appelé décomposition de Lanczös ou décomposition en éléments singuliers ¹².

Pour interpréter les résultats de ce procédé d'inversion, plusieurs paramètres de diagnostique sont utiles. La matrice de résolution $\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{V}_p \mathbf{V}_p^T$ permet d'évaluer la confiance que l'on peut porter à chaque paramètre du modèle obtenu. La matrice densité d'information $\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{U}_p \mathbf{U}_p^T$, avec \mathbf{U}_p la matrice des vecteurs propres associée à $\mathbf{G}\mathbf{G}^T$ (réduite aux termes correspondant aux valeurs propres non-nulles de $\mathbf{G}\mathbf{G}^T$) rend compte du contenu informationnel de chaque donnée. La matrice de covariance $\mathbf{C}_m = \mathbf{V}_p \mathbf{\Lambda}_p^{-1} \mathbf{V}_p^T$ renseigne sur l'interdépendance des paramètres inversés.

Dans les cas concrets, les valeurs propres $\lambda_{>p}$ ne sont jamais exactement nulles mais une trop grande différence entre les valeurs propres les plus grandes et les plus petites (de l'ordre de plusieurs ordres de grandeurs) rend l'inversion instable. Le nombre p de valeurs propres considérées comme non-nulles doit donc être choisi relativement arbitrairement. On détermine le seuil à partir duquel on considère qu'une valeur propre est nulle à partir du ratio [Lay and Wallace, 1995] :

$$\gamma = \frac{\lambda_{max}^{-1}}{\lambda_{min}^{-1}} \tag{I-37}$$

Plus on diminue le seuil, plus l'inversion est instable. Plus on l'augmente, plus la résolution diminue. γ , et par extension p, sont donc des paramètres *ad hoc*, soumis à l'arbitraire du choix de l'utilisateur, qui peuvent avoir une forte influence sur le résultat. La décomposition de Lanczös est donc très utile car elle permet de résoudre un problème inverse de grande dimension en quelques lignes de code et quelques secondes de calculs, mais le résultat obtenu est très sensible au choix de γ qui ne repose ni sur des considérations mathématiques ni sur des considérations physiques.

^{12.} plus connue sous sa dénomination anglo-saxonne singular value decomposition (svd).

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Concrètement, un γ élevé a tendance à dégrader fortement la prédiction des données alors qu'un γ faible a tendance à donner des modèles fortement hétérogènes. La régularisation de Tichonoff permet d'exclure des modèles considérés comme non-physiques, car trop hétérogènes, tout en préservant une prédiction des données correcte. Cette régularisation est réalisée en ajoutant un terme de lissage à la matrice des fonctions de Green :

$$\boldsymbol{G}_{\alpha} = \boldsymbol{G} + \alpha \Delta \boldsymbol{G} \tag{I-38}$$

où α est le paramètre de lissage et ΔG est le Laplacien de G.

La matrice G_{α} est la matrice G augmentée de « l'information » que la répartition de glissement le long de la faille ne peut être « trop » hétérogène. On ajoute ainsi la contrainte physique *a priori* que le glissement co-sismique doit être relativement homogène le long de la faille. Cette opération oriente le résultat vers la solution la plus lisse expliquant les données. Les guillemets sur les mots « information » et « trop » sont employés ici pour insister sur le fait que la contrainte d'homogénéité imposée *a priori* n'est pas réellement une information car il n'y a pas d'argument physique pour discriminer une solution hétérogène; ou plus précisément formulé : aucun critère physique « d'hétérogénéité optimale » n'existe. Par conséquent, cette solution la plus lisse que l'on privilégie n'a aucune raison d'être la plus juste.

La régularisation de G a pour effet d'augmenter artificiellement son rang. Ainsi l'opération peut rendre le produit $G_{\alpha}^{T}G_{\alpha}$ inversible¹³. On peut alors calculer l'inverse généralisée de G_{α} :

$$\boldsymbol{G}_{\alpha}^{-g} = (\boldsymbol{G}_{\alpha}^{T}\boldsymbol{G}_{\alpha})^{-1}\boldsymbol{G}_{\alpha}^{T}$$
(I-39)

La solution du problème inverse est ensuite triviale :

$$\boldsymbol{m} = \boldsymbol{G}_{\alpha}^{-g} \boldsymbol{d} \tag{I-40}$$

Le choix de α conditionne en grande partie la solution. Ce choix, comme celui de γ , fait sur la base d'un compromis minimisant à la fois $\|\boldsymbol{d} - \boldsymbol{Gm}\|$ et la rugosité (où l'hétérogénéité) du modèle, est largement arbitraire. Un critère mathématique, le critère d'information Bayésien d'Akaike (ABIC¹⁴) [*Akaike*, 1980] a été proposé par *Yabuki and Matsu'ura* [1992] pour optimiser ce compromis entre complexité (hétérogénéité) du modèle et explication des données. Ce critère explicite mathématiquement l'hypothèse implicite qu'un modèle homogène est *a priori*

^{13.} Si la régularisation n'augmente pas assez le rang de G pour cela, on peut également opérer une décomposition de Lanczös sur $G_{\alpha}^{T}G_{\alpha}$ pour réaliser l'inversion.

^{14.} contraction de sa dénomination anglo-saxonne Akaike Bayesian Information Criterion

plus probable qu'un modèle plus complexe. Cependant, l'optimisation est uniquement basée sur des critères mathématiques, et non physiques. Si pour un même problème, on inclue un ensemble de données très contraignant dans l'inversion, on obtiendra un modèle de glissement plus hétérogène que si l'on décide de n'inclure que la moitié de cet ensemble : la contrainte d'homogénéité apporté par ABIC dépend donc de la paramétrisation du problème et non de sa physique. Le critère ABIC renvoie toujours la solution la plus lisse expliquant bien les données, il optimise simplement le compromis.

La préférence aux modèles les plus lisses est intuitive mais ne repose sur aucun élément réellement physique. Elle introduit un fort biais dans les modèles de source : un observateur ignorant des techniques d'inversion pourrait interpréter l'apparente homogénéité des modèles de source comme une propriété générique des séismes alors qu'elle n'est que la conséquence d'un *a priori* imposé aux solutions.

4.2 Les méthodes globales

Dans le cas d'inversions cinématiques, où l'on cherche à déterminer l'évolution spatiale et temporelle de la distribution de glissement, \boldsymbol{m} contient des paramètres tels que le temps de déclenchement d'une sous-faille ou la vitesse de propagation du front de rupture. La prédiction des données n'est alors plus linéairement reliée aux paramètres de la source¹⁵. On ne peut alors pas utiliser la formule de l'inverse généralisée car \mathcal{G} ne peut pas s'écrire sous la forme d'une matrice \boldsymbol{G} . On cherche alors à déterminer le modèle \boldsymbol{m} qui minimise le résidu χ^2 exprimant l'écart (au sens des moindres carrés) des prédictions aux données dans un espace non-linéaire :

$$\chi^2 = ||\boldsymbol{d} - \boldsymbol{\mathfrak{G}}(\boldsymbol{m})|| = minimum \tag{I-41}$$

Une première solution à l'équation I-41 peut être obtenue en linéarisant l'équation autour d'un modèle initial m_0 . Un développement de Taylor de la fonction \mathcal{G} autour de m_0 donne l'expression :

$$\mathfrak{G}(\boldsymbol{m}) = \mathfrak{G}(\boldsymbol{m}_0) + \boldsymbol{G}(\boldsymbol{m} - \boldsymbol{m}_0) \tag{I-42}$$

où les éléments de G sont les dérivées partielles de la fonction \mathcal{G} (que l'on peut déterminer par différences finies) par rapport aux paramètres du modèles, évaluées au modèle de référence m_0 :

$$G_{ij} = \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{G}_i}{\partial m_j}\right)_{m=m_0} \tag{I-43}$$

^{15.} à l'exception du cas où l'on considère une vitesse de rupture constante, on peut alors paramétriser le problème de telle sorte qu'il soit linéaire.

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Figure I.6 – Illustration 1D de la sensibilité de l'exploration au point de départ. Si le point de départ est le point 1, la solution obtenue correspondra à un minimum local et non au minimum global de la fonction coût.

En plaçant l'expression linéarisée I-42 de $\mathfrak{G}(\boldsymbol{m})$ dans I-41 et en notant $\Delta \boldsymbol{m} = \boldsymbol{m} - \boldsymbol{m}_0$, on obtient l'équation linéaire :

$$\boldsymbol{G}\Delta\boldsymbol{m} = \boldsymbol{d} - \boldsymbol{\Im}(\boldsymbol{m}_0) \tag{I-44}$$

dont la solution est donnée par l'inverse généralisée décrite dans le chapitre précédent :

$$\Delta \boldsymbol{m} = (\boldsymbol{G}^T \boldsymbol{G})^{-1} \boldsymbol{G}^T (\boldsymbol{d} - \boldsymbol{\mathcal{G}}(\boldsymbol{m}_0))$$
(I-45)

On peut dériver un nouveau modèle $\mathbf{m}_1 = \mathbf{m}_0 + \Delta \mathbf{m}$ qui minimise χ^2 dans le voisinage de \mathbf{m}_0 et itérer le processus jusqu'à obtention d'un modèle satisfaisant (généralement déterminé par le franchissement d'un seuil de la fonction χ^2). Cette procédure itérative a cependant de grandes chances d'être « piégée » dans un minimum local différent du minimum global de la fonction coût car l'espace des solutions n'est pas linéaire (Figure I.6). Pour s'assurer de la convergence de la solution vers le minimum global de la fonction coût, des méthodes dites globales permettent d'explorer l'ensemble de l'espace des solutions qui est souvent un espace à grandes dimensions. Pour explorer, ce type d'espace, il est nécessaire d'optimiser l'exploration de telle sorte d'échantillonner prioritairement les régions à fonction coût faible tout en évitant de rester piéger dans des minimums locaux.

Le problème est toujours de résoudre l'équation I-41 mais cette fois-ci en tirant un grand nombre de modèles \boldsymbol{m} (en optimisant le tirage) afin d'évaluer celui qui minimise χ^2 . Si le nombre n_p de paramètres inversés est petit, ce type de problème se résout facilement en calculant la fonction coût d'un grand nombre de modèles tirés aléatoirement. Le temps de calcul de ce type d'exploration croît cependant exponentiellement avec le nombre de paramètres inversés. Le problème revient en effet à l'exploration d'un espace des solutions à n_p dimensions et explorer un espace à n_p+1 dimension requiert n_p fois plus de temps qu'un espace à n_p dimensions. Cette « malédiction de la dimension » constitue la difficulté principale de la résolution des problèmes inverses. Plusieurs algorithmes permettent d'optimiser le tirage aléatoire des modèles \boldsymbol{m} afin de converger vers le minimum global de la fonction coût dans des temps de calculs raisonnables. Les plus utilisés sont le recuit simulé ¹⁶ [Kirkpatrick et al., 1983; Metropolis et al., 1953], l'algorithme génétique [Holland, 1975; Lomax and Snieder, 1994; Stoffa and Sen, 1991] et l'algorithme de voisinage [Sambridge, 1999a,b].

L'algorithme du recuit simulé [*Kirkpatrick et al.*, 1983; *Metropolis et al.*, 1953], que nous utiliserons dans les chapitres II et III, reproduit numériquement le refroidissement d'un solide à haute température. Quand le refroidissement se produit lentement, le solide atteint un état d'énergie minimum. Quand le refroidissement se produit plus rapidement, le solide peut garder plus d'énergie dans un état dit méta-stable. Par analogie, dans le recuit simulé, l'énergie est représentée par la fonction coût χ^2 , et l'algorithme cherche à atteindre l'état de plus basse énergie : le minimum global de la fonction coût. L'algorithme part d'un modèle initial \mathbf{m}_0 et évolue vers d'autres modèles par « marche aléatoire » jusqu'à ce que la température atteigne sa valeur finale. À la *i*^{ème} itération, si le système est à l'état \mathbf{m}_i , il évolue vers un nouvel état \mathbf{m}_{i+1} si $\chi^2(\mathbf{m}_{i+1}) < \chi^2(\mathbf{m}_i)$. Si cette condition n'est pas remplie, l'algorithme peut tout de même accepter la solution avec une probabilité p(T) dépendante de la température du système T:

$$p(T) \propto \exp(-\frac{\chi^2(\boldsymbol{m}_{i+1}) - \chi^2(\boldsymbol{m}_i)}{T})$$
(I-46)

Au début du processus, la température est haute, l'exploration est proche d'être aléatoire. Puis, à mesure que la température diminue, l'exploration converge de plus en plus vers des modèles à χ^2 plus faibles que celui de l'itération précédente. Quand la température décroît lentement, la probabilité d'atteindre le minimum global de la fonction coût est grande, mais le processus d'exploration devient coûteux en temps de calcul. Le principal défaut du recuit simulé est que la solution obtenue dépend du choix de plusieurs paramètres *ad hoc* que sont la température initiale, la loi de décroissance de la température et le nombre d'itérations à

^{16.} plus connu sous sa dénomination anglo-saxonne simulated annealing

chaque température. Ces paramètres dépendent de la configuration du problème inverse et sont à déterminer empiriquement par l'utilisateur pour chaque problème.

L'algorithme génétique [Holland, 1975; Lomax and Snieder, 1994; Stoffa and Sen, 1991] imite le processus de l'évolution des espèces en maintenant et combinant les meilleurs modèles à l'intérieur d'une population donnée, la qualité des modèles étant définie par la fonction coût χ^2 . Partant d'une population quelconque, où les modèles sont codifiés par leur génotype, l'évolution de la population tend à préserver les individus à faible χ^2 et à remplacer les modèles à χ^2 élevé. Durant cette évolution, les enfants peuvent hériter du même génotype que leurs parents ou leur génotype peut être une combinaison du génotype de deux parents, selon leurs fonctions coûts. Ce processus a pour effet de faire converger la population vers les modèles à faible χ^2 . Cette homogénéisation est compensée par des mutations aléatoires dans les génotypes qui permettent d'explorer des zones de l'espace des solutions à χ^2 plus élevé et ainsi éviter de rester piégé dans des minima locaux. Comme le recuit simulé, l'algorithme génétique dépend de paramètres ad hoc tels que le taux de mutation, le taux de mélange ou encore le taux de sélection. Ces paramètres doivent être choisis par l'utilisateur pour chaque problème particulier pour garantir la convergence vers le minimum global de la fonction coût dans des temps de calculs raisonnables. Par ailleurs, cet algorithme a essuyé de vives critiques [Lomax and Snieder, 1994; Sambridge, 1999a] l'accusant de n'être réellement exploratoire qu'au début de l'inversion et donc de ne pas pouvoir garantir la convergence vers le minimum global de la fonction coût.

L'algorithme de voisinage [Sambridge, 1999a,b] explore lui l'espace des paramètres par une approche géométrique qui consiste à découper cet espace en cellules de Voronoï. Le point de départ est choisi aléatoirement, puis l'exploration est intensifiée dans les régions où la fonction coût est faible. Le maillage est ainsi affiné autour des minima locaux de l'espace des solutions. L'algorithme maintient un caractère d'exploration globale au prix d'une convergence lente. Au lieu de converger vers un seul minimum, il converge vers plusieurs régions où le minimum global peut se trouver. L'algorithme de voisinage repose, comme les deux algorithmes précédemment décrits, sur des paramètres *ad hoc* qui ne sont, cependant, plus qu'au nombre de deux et sont entiers.

Au contraire, de l'inverse généralisée, qui implique que la norme dans laquelle est calculée l'écart entre observations et prédictions est la norme L^2 (correspondant à la solution des moindres carrés), les méthodes globales peuvent être utilisées pour n'importe quelle métrique. Ainsi, si la norme L^2 reste la plus employée, certains utilisateurs lui préfèrent la norme L^1 pour laquelle la fonction coût n'est plus $\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n_d} (d_i - \mathcal{G}_i(\boldsymbol{m}))^2$ mais $\chi^1 = \sum_{i=1}^{n_d} |d_i - \mathcal{G}_i(\boldsymbol{m})|$. La norme L^1 permet de réduire l'impact de données individuelles qui peuvent, en raison du carré de la norme L^2 , avoir une influence disproportionnée sur la fonction coût. Cependant, si l'on connaît l'incertitude associée à chaque donnée et aux fonctions de Green, on peut adapter la formulation de χ^2 pour réduire l'influence de données incertaines. Sous l'approximation d'erreurs Gaussiennes, on peut prendre en compte, dans l'expression de χ^2 les incertitudes sur les données et les fonctions de Green à travers la matrice $C_{\chi} = C_d + C_p$ (C_d étant la matrice de covariance sur les données et C_p la matrice de covariance sur les fonctions de Green) en ne cherchant plus à minimiser l'expression I-41 mais l'expression (*Tarantola* [2005], page 35) :

$$\chi^{2} = (\boldsymbol{d} - \mathfrak{G}(\boldsymbol{m}))\boldsymbol{C}_{\chi}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{d} - \mathfrak{G}(\boldsymbol{m})) = minimum$$
(I-47)

Concrètement, C_{χ} est quasiment toujours réduite à une matrice diagonale composée des carrés des incertitudes sur les données. Ce genre de matrices C_{χ} , réduites aux termes diagonaux de C_{data} , permet de pondérer les contributions de chaque données par leurs incertitudes dans l'expression du résidu. Cependant, elles sous-estiment grandement les incertitudes réelles associées aux problèmes en assumant des fonctions de Green parfaites. De plus, des matrices diagonales considèrent des erreurs toutes indépendantes les unes des autres, ce qui distord l'espace des solutions car les erreurs sur les données et la modélisation partagent souvent des biais communs.

4.3 L'approche Bayésienne

L'inverse généralisée permet de trouver rapidement une solution qui explique les observations. Les méthodes globales, plus coûteuses en temps de calcul, permettent de s'assurer que la solution trouvée est celle qui explique « le mieux » les données. Cependant, aucune de ces méthodes d'optimisation ne résout le problème de la non-unicité de la solution. Autrement dit, les modèles de source dérivés de ces méthodes ne présentent qu'une solution expliquant correctement les données parmi un grand nombre d'autres. L'interprétation de tels modèles ne peut qu'être limitée par le faible niveau de confiance que l'on peut ainsi leur accorder. L'approche Bayésienne vise à résoudre ce problème en décrivant l'ensemble de l'espace des solutions.

Cette approche probabiliste du problème inverse est utilisée de longue date en géophysique [Jeffreys, 1931, 1939] mais a connu une résurgence récente [Malinverno, 2002; Sambridge and Mosegaard, 2002] principalement sous l'impulsion des travaux d'Albert Tarantola [Mosegaard and Tarantola, 1995; Tarantola and Valette, 1982; Tarantola, 2005]. L'approche dérive du théorème de Bayes qui stipule qu'étant donnés deux évènements A et B, leurs probabilités conditionnelles relatives p(A|B) et p(B|A) sont liées par la relation :

$$p(A|B)p(B) = p(B|A)p(A)$$
(I-48)

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où p(A) et p(B) sont les probabilités respectives des évènements A et B.

Appliqué au problème inverse, ce théorème lie la probabilité de m sachant d qui nous intéresse particulièrement dans l'optique de résoudre l'équation I-1, à la probabilité de d sachant m que l'on peut déduire, si $p(d) \neq 0$, des fonctions de Green \mathcal{G} (ou G) :

$$p(\boldsymbol{m}|\boldsymbol{d}) = \frac{p(\boldsymbol{d}|\boldsymbol{m})p(\boldsymbol{m})}{p(\boldsymbol{d})}$$
(I-49)

p(d) étant *a priori* indépendante de m, on peut déduire de l'équation I-49, une distribution de probabilité sur m (sachant d) à une constante près :

$$p(\boldsymbol{m}|\boldsymbol{d}) \propto p(\boldsymbol{d}|\boldsymbol{m})p(\boldsymbol{m})$$
 (I-50)

 $p(\boldsymbol{m})$ doit ici être vu comme l'information *a priori* (i.e. indépendante de \boldsymbol{d}) sur \boldsymbol{m} .

L'application du théorème de Bayes à des problèmes inverses de grandes dimensions est très récente car elle nécessite une puissance de calcul largement supérieure à toutes les méthodes précédemment évoquées. Nous présentons dans ce qui suit le principe du code, le plus innovant à l'heure actuelle en la matière, développé au *California Institute of Technology* par Sarah Minson dans le cadre de sa thèse dirigée par Mark Simons et James Beck [*Minson*, 2010; *Minson et al.*, 2013]. Ce code nommé CATMIP (pour *Cascading Adaptive Transitional Metropolis in Parallel*) est toujours en cours de développement et a été récemment ré-implémenté sous le nom d'AlTar (en hommage à Albert Tarantola) pour utiliser la puissance de calcul des unités de traitement graphique GPU¹⁷.

CATMIP/AlTar échantillonne l'intégralité de l'espace des solutions, qui est de grande dimension, grâce à des algorithmes de type TMCMC (pour *Transitional Markov Chain Monte Carlo* [*Ching and Chen*, 2007]) qu'il utilise en parallèle sur un grand nombre de processeurs. Le but de CATMIP est d'échantillonner l'ensemble de l'espace des solutions avec une densité proportionnelle à la capacité de ces dernières à expliquer les observations. La solution donnée par CATMIP n'est pas le « meilleur modèle » - à savoir celui expliquant le mieux les données, ou encore le plus lisse - mais l'ensemble des fonctions densité de probabilité associées à chaque paramètre inversé.

Pour échantillonner l'ensemble de l'espace des solutions, CATMIP utilise le concept de refroidissement emprunté au recuit simulé, paramétré de telle façon que la vitesse de refroidissement soit particulièrement lente pour garantir l'exploration de tous les minima locaux de la fonction coût. A chaque étape de refroidissement, des fonctions densité de probabilité *a pos*-

^{17.} GPU pour Graphic Processing Units

teriori sont évaluées à partir de celles évaluées précédemment, en diminuant la température progressivement à l'aide du paramètre β (Figure I.7) :

$$p(\boldsymbol{m}|\boldsymbol{d},\beta_i) \propto p(\boldsymbol{m})p(\boldsymbol{d}|\boldsymbol{m})^{\beta_i}$$
 (I-51)

où i = [0,1,2,...,N], $[0 = \beta_0 < \beta_1 < \beta_2 < ... < \beta_N = 1]$ et $p(\boldsymbol{m}) \approx p(\boldsymbol{m}|\boldsymbol{d},\beta_{i-1})$. La probabilité conditionnelle $p(\boldsymbol{d}|\boldsymbol{m})$ est elle évaluée à partir de la capacité de chaque modèle à expliquer les données :

$$p(\boldsymbol{d}|\boldsymbol{m}) = \exp(-\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{d} - \boldsymbol{G}\boldsymbol{m})^T \boldsymbol{C}_{\chi}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{d} - \boldsymbol{G}\boldsymbol{m}))$$
(I-52)

où C_{χ} est la matrice de covariance contenant les incertitudes sur les données et les fonctions de Green. CATMIP peut, par ailleurs, très bien être utilisé dans un cas où les fonctions de Green ne seraient pas linéaires :

$$p(\boldsymbol{d}|\boldsymbol{m}) = \exp(-\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{d} - \boldsymbol{\mathfrak{G}}(\boldsymbol{m}))^T \boldsymbol{C}_{\chi}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{d} - \boldsymbol{\mathfrak{G}}(\boldsymbol{m})))$$
(I-53)

Dans un cas linéaire où non, l'algorithme ne nécessite aucune régularisation ni aucun paramètre ad hoc pouvant biaiser les solutions. Tout a priori basé sur des arguments physiques (e.g. contrainte de positivité sur le glissement) peut, en revanche, être introduit dans la fonction densité de probabilité a priori p(m). Cette approche probabiliste est certainement la seule à pouvoir résoudre rigoureusement un problème inverse n'admettant pas de solution unique. Cette rigueur se paye cependant chère en temps de calcul. L'exploration Bayésienne de l'espace des solutions d'un problème d'inversion faille finie nécessite des milliers d'heures de calcul et n'est possible que sur des calculateurs composés d'un grand nombre de processeurs. De plus, la solution donnée par cette méthode n'est plus un modèle de glissement « optimal » (quelque soit le critère d'optimisation) mais un ensemble de fonctions densité de probabilité. L'interprétation de ces fonctions n'est pas triviale car ces dernières englobent des milliers (voir des millions) de modèles relativement équiprobables et, selon les cas¹⁸, possiblement très différent les uns des autres. Dans des problèmes bien contraints, une première approche est de considérer le modèle moyen comme le plus probable et de lui associer des barres d'erreur sur chaque paramètre déduites des écarts types de chaque fonction densité de probabilité. Cette première approche apporte déjà une solution très supérieure à toutes les méthodes d'optimisation car aucune de ces dernières n'a jamais été capable de fournir de telles barres d'erreur. Toutefois, les fonctions densité de probabilité renferment beaucoup plus d'information que leur moyenne et leur écart

^{18.} moins le problème est contraint, plus l'espace des solution est étendu et recouvre des modèles éloignés les uns des autres





Figure modifiée d'après Minson et al. [2013]

Figure I.7 – Illustration du schéma de recherche de l'algorithme CATMIP. CATMIP commence par directement échantillonner la fonction densité de probabilité (pdf pour probability density function) a priori sur le modèle $p(\mathbf{m})$ (ligne 1). Une nouvelle valeur de β est calculée et la distribution est ré-échantillonnée (colonne 1). La covariance des échantillons et le ratio d'acceptation sont utilisés pour construire une nouvelle pdf (colonne 2) qui est proposée en entrée à l'algorithme de Metropolis pour conditionner la marche aléatoire (colonne 3). L'échantillonnage final constitue la fonction densité de probabilité *a posteriori* $p(\mathbf{m}|\mathbf{d})^{\beta}$ (colonne 4). Dans cet exemple, la pdf *a priori* est uniforme et la pdf cible est la somme de deux Gaussiennes, l'une d'elle ayant une amplitude trois fois supérieure à l'autre. La pdf cible est donnée en haut à droite de la figure. La figure est tirée de l'article de *Minson et al.* [2013]. type et une interprétation plus exhaustive des solutions de CATMIP peut potentiellement nous apprendre beaucoup plus de choses sur la géométrie de l'espace des solutions et par extension sur la physique possible/probable de la rupture sismique.

5 Les problématiques de cette thèse

Ce travail de thèse s'inscrit dans la continuité des travaux effectués dans le domaine de l'inversion de la source sismique. L'objectif principal de ce travail est d'améliorer la résolution des modèles de glissement co-sismique des grands séismes pour comprendre leurs mécanismes. Pour se faire, nous suivons trois axes de recherche.

Le premier axe de recherche naturel pour améliorer la résolution des modèles de source est d'augmenter le contenu informationnel contraignant les solutions. Inclure un maximum de données complémentaires dans des inversions jointes constitue donc un objectif de premier plan. Nous appliquons, dans le chapitre II, cette approche au séisme de Tohoku-Oki ($M_w 9.0$) survenu en Mars 2011. Nous incluons un ensemble de données géodésiques, sismologiques et tsunami, le plus complet à ce jour, dans une inversion jointe pour imager le processus de rupture de ce séisme géant. Ce jeu de données nous permet de contraindre la distribution spatio-temporelle du glissement le long de la faille de subduction avec un niveau de détail inégalé. Le modèle de glissement obtenu se montre en accord avec un certain nombre d'observations non-incluses dans l'inversion, ce qui renforce sa crédibilité. La crédibilité et le niveau de détail obtenus sur ce modèle nous autorisent à des interprétations tectono-physiques poussées. Ainsi, sur la base de corrélations spatiales entre notre modèle et diverses observations géophysiques indépendantes, nous mettons en évidence des liens entre glissement co-sismique et friction sur la faille, entre aspérités sur l'interface et chute de contraintes, ou encore entre redistribution des contraintes et génération de répliques.

Un deuxième axe important est d'améliorer la modélisation directe de la réponse de la Terre à l'excitation sismique. En effet, inclure des données plus contraignantes, de par leur qualité et leur quantité, sur les modèles de source, implique une modélisation plus fine du problème direct : à mesure que les incertitudes sur d s'amenuisent, les incertitudes sur G (ou 9) doivent être réduites également. Nous nous concentrons, dans le chapitre III, sur le problème critique de l'excitation d'un tsunami par un séisme. Ce problème est d'une importance toute particulière car, comme mis en évidence dans le chapitre II, les données tsunami apportent une contrainte quasi-exclusive sur une large partie (la plus superficielle du plan de faille) des modèles de source. Nous nous intéressons donc à l'impact potentiel du champ de déplacement co-sismique

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horizontal (souvent négligé) sur la génération d'un tsunami et à l'effet que cette négligence peut avoir sur les modèles de source. Nous calculons cet effet le long des principales failles de subduction et montrons qu'il peut atteindre l'amplitude de la déformation verticale dans la partie la plus superficielle de certaines zones et sévèrement distordre les modèles de source s'il n'est pas pris en compte dans le calcul des fonctions de Green.

Enfin, le dernier axe de cette thèse vise à quantifier les incertitudes sur les modèles par une approche Bayésienne du problème inverse. Nous analysons, dans ce cadre, le séisme de Sumatra-Andaman (M_w 9.1-9.3) survenu en 2004. Dans cette dernière étude, nous prenons en compte diverses possibles sources d'erreurs dans le processus d'inversion pour explorer l'espace des modèles satisfaisant les données dans des marges d'erreurs estimées précautionneusement. Nous observons qu'un grand nombre de modèles significativement différents est capable d'expliquer relativement bien les observations. Parmi ces modèles, il apparaît comme très probable que des quantités de glissement dépassant les 40 m aient été en jeu durant ce séisme. De telles quantités de glissement étaient considérées comme impossibles avant leur mise en évidence lors du séisme de Tohoku-Oki (chapitre II), et les méthodes d'inversion excluaient a priori les solutions impliquant de telles valeurs. Ce dernier chapitre met en évidence que notre connaissance des grands séismes de subduction a probablement été largement biaisée par les régularisations inhérentes aux méthodes d'optimisation, qui se sont jusqu'alors employées à déterminer un certain type de solutions (en l'occurrence des distributions de glissement les plus lisses possibles). L'approche Bayésienne montre aujourd'hui que ce type de solutions n'est qu'un fragment de l'espace des solutions, et qu'il n'en constitue pas, au moins dans le cas du séisme de Sumatra-Andaman, son fragment le plus probable.

Chapitre II

Contraindre les modèles de source par inversion jointe d'un maximum de données complémentaires : Application au séisme de Tohoku-Oki.

Quelque soit la méthode d'inversion employée, les modèles de source sont, avant tout, déduits de l'information contenue dans les données. Le contenu informationnel de l'ensemble de ces dernières revêt donc une importance toute particulière.

L'essentiel des modèles de source est obtenu à partir de jeux de données souvent limités à un seul type d'observation. Dans le contexte général des séismes de subduction, cela se traduit par trois ensembles de modèles. Les modèles sismologiques (i.e. déduits de données sismologiques) apportent une information sur l'évolution temporelle du glissement mais présentent une résolution spatiale relativement faible. Les modèles géodésiques contraignent généralement bien les contours du glissement mais n'apportent pas d'information temporelle. De plus, leur résolution décroit fortement quand le glissement que l'on cherche à résoudre est loin des côtes. Les modèles dérivés des observations tsunami ont eux une très bonne résolution au large des côtes, qui se détériore près d'elles. Il existe, par ailleurs, une ambiguïté sur l'information temporelle contenue dans les données sismologiques et tsunami qui peut se traduire en terme spatial (la source est plus près ou plus loin) ou en terme temporel (la source s'est déclenchée plus tôt ou plus tard)¹. L'information spatiale apportée par les données géodésiques apportent ainsi plus de contraintes sur la distribution temporelle du glissement qu'une inversion des mêmes données

^{1.} Ceci est particulièrement problématique pour les données sismologiques car la vitesse des ondes sismiques est de l'ordre de grandeur des vitesses de rupture.

sismologiques, sans les données géodésiques, ces dernières n'apportant pourtant aucune information temporelle [*Cohee and Beroza*, 1994]. De part leurs caractéristiques complémentaires, ces trois types de données, qui séparément présentent des limites importantes pour contraindre des modèles de source, peuvent donc apporter un tout autre niveau de contraintes si elles sont incluses dans des inversions jointes.

Dans ce chapitre, nous incluons des données sismologiques (vélocimètres large-bande pour les enregistrements en champ lointain, accéléromètres pour les enregistrements en champ proche), géodésiques (GPS statique, GPS haute-fréquence, géodésie fond de mer) et tsunami dans une inversion jointe pour obtenir un modèle cinématique de glissement du séisme de Tohoku-Oki $(M_w 9.0)$ survenu le 11 Mars 2011 au large du Japon. Nous en déduisons un modèle d'un niveau de détail significativement amélioré par rapport aux précédentes études, qui se montre, en outre, capable d'expliquer des observations non-incluses dans l'inversion comme les ondes de surface, ou encore un décalage de l'ordre de 50 m des réflecteurs dans le prisme [$Fujiwara \ et \ al.$, 2011]. Ce niveau de détail permet une interprétation poussée du processus de rupture de ce séisme géant. Nous mettons en évidence des liens avec la sismicité avant et après le séisme. La distribution de glissement que nous obtenons coïncide avec une zone où l'on observait très peu de séismes (même petits) avant le choc principal et autour de laquelle on observe une sismicité intense après. On note également une corrélation très claire entre la distribution des répliques en outer-rise et le glissement imagé à la fosse, qui est une bonne mesure de l'extension dans la plaque plongeante. À plus petite échelle, la zone de glissement la plus intense est imagée juste en-dessous d'une importante faille normale activée lors de la phase co-sismique. La relation spatiale entre cette faille normale et notre distribution de glissement renforce l'hypothèse de chute de friction dynamique proposée par *Cubas et al.* [2013] qui expliquerait à la fois l'existence de la faille normale et le très fort glissement dans cette zone jusqu'à la surface.

Cette partie a été réalisée en collaboration avec Anthony Sladen, Bertrand Delouis, Martin Vallée, Jean-Mathieu Nocquet, Lucie Rolland et Junle Jiang et publiée dans Journal of Geophysical Research - Solid Earth (doi :10.1002/2014JB011261) sous le titre : « A detailed source model for the M_w 9.0 Tohoku-Oki earthquake reconciling geodesy, seismology and tsunami records ».

The March 11, 2011, M_w 9.0 Tohoku-Oki earthquake was recorded by an exceptionally large amount of diverse data offering a unique opportunity to investigate the details of this major megathrust rupture. Many studies have taken advantage of the very dense Japanese on land strong motion, broad-band and continuous GPS networks in this sense. But, resolution tests and the variability in the proposed solutions have highlighted the difficulty to uniquely resolve the slip distribution from these networks, relatively distant from the source region, and with limited azimuthal coverage. In this context, we present a finite-fault slip joint inversion including an extended amount of complementary data (teleseismic, strong-motion, High-Rate GPS, static GPS, sea-floor geodesy and tsunami records) in an attempt to reconcile them into a single better-resolved model. The inversion reveals a patchy slip distribution with large-slip (up to 64 m) mostly located up-dip of the hypocenter and near the trench. We observe that most slip is imaged in a region where almost no earthquake was recorded before the mainshock and around which intense interplate seismicity is observed afterward. At a smaller scale, the largest slip pattern is imaged just up-dip of an important normal fault co-seismically activated. This normal fault has been shown to be the mark of very low dynamic friction allowing extremely large slip to propagate up to the free surface. The spatial relationship between this normal fault and our slip distribution strengthens its key role in the rupture process of the Tohoku-Oki earthquake.

1 Introduction

The 2011 March 11 M_w 9.0 Tohoku-Oki earthquake (TO) is, given its magnitude and the available instrumentation, an unprecedented opportunity to investigate the details of a seismic rupture in a subduction zone. It has been the object of numerous studies based on different subsets of the available data, leading to various coseismic slip models.

If we try to extract the main features of those models [*linuma et al.*, 2011; *Koketsu et al.*, 2011; *Miyazaki et al.*, 2011; *Ozawa et al.*, 2011; *Yokota et al.*, 2011], we find that static-only solutions, inferred from the exceptionally dense onland GPS network, tend to place the maximum

slip either down-dip of the hypocenter, or just beneath it. But the GPS stations concentration westward from the rupture, likely causes a bias in the solutions. The addition of data closer to the rupture, such as sea-floor motion obtained from shifts in locations of GPS-Acoustic or OBS stations [*Kido et al.*, 2011; *Sato et al.*, 2011], or from offsets in reflection profiles [*Fujiwara* et al., 2011, tends to force most of the slip distribution to occur up-dip of the hypocenter [*Iinuma et al.*, 2012; Ito et al., 2011; Perfettini and Avouac, 2014]. The coverage limitation have led studies to also incorporate tsunami records into slip inversions. With the addition of tsunami data, these joint static solutions obtained from optimization also tend to place most of the slip between the hypocenter and the trench [Hooper et al., 2013; Minson et al., 2014; Romano et al., 2012; Yokota et al., 2011] (with the exception of Simons et al. [2011]'s model probably due to over-fitting the GPS data [Minson et al., 2014]). This tendency of shallow large-slip is also found in tsunami-only inversions [Koketsu et al., 2011; Maeda et al., 2011; Melgar and Bock, 2013; Saito et al., 2011; Yokota et al., 2011]. This suggests that, thanks to their sensitivity to the whole surface deformation field, tsunami observations provide better constraints on the shallow part of the fault than other techniques and predict [Hooper et al., 2013; Lay et al., 2011a; Romano et al., 2012; Yokota et al., 2011] - or are explained by [Fujii et al., 2011; Yamazaki et al., 2011a, 2013] - large slip there.

Kinematic inversions, that are inferred from seismic waves (teleseismic P or S wave and nearfield strong motion accelerograms) or High Rate continuous GPS (HRGPS) time series, have also shown a consistent large-scale large-slip region up-dip of the hypocenter close to the trench [Hayes, 2011; Ide et al., 2011; Lay et al., 2011b; Shao et al., 2011; Wei et al., 2012; Yoshida et al., 2011, 2012; Yue and Lay, 2013]. This consistent trend in the models arises despite some inherent limitations in the data used : teleseismic data provide a coarse resolution on the slip distribution - especially when the data do not exhibit strong directivity on which is based the spatial resolution - and both strong motion accelerograms and HRGPS observations have very limited azimuthal coverage causing the resolution to drop dramatically towards the trench Wei et al., 2012; Yue and Lay, 2013. Additionally, tsunami observations, usually treated as static data, have recently been suggested to contain kinematic information in the case of TO [Satake et al., 2013]. Indeed, the usual assumption of a seismic rupture infinitely faster than the tsunami wave propagation is challenged in the trench area by a very large column of water (≈ 8 km) - resulting in a faster wave propagation (tsunami velocity is proportional to the square root of the water depth) - associated with a suspected slower seismic rupture in this same superficial region. Satake et al. [2013] showed that treating tsunami observations as kinematic data allows longer rupture scenarios with possible large shallow slip further north.

Joint inversions including part or most of the static and kinematic data [Ammon et al.,

2011; Koketsu et al., 2011; Lay et al., 2011b; Lee et al., 2011; Minson et al., 2014; Wei et al., 2012; Yokota et al., 2011; Yue and Lay, 2013] are expected to converge on a slip model because more data should reduce the null space. However, these inversions are still not able to converge on a coherent slip pattern. We propose three explanations for this discrepancy : (1) the non-uniqueness of the solution considering partial datasets with limited azimuthal coverage; (2) the different modelling approaches (fault and time parametrization, regularization in inversion procedure, etc) varying from one study to another; (3) the covariance between inverted data and weighting approaches [Duputel et al., 2014]. In this study, we include all suitable data (static GPS, sea-floor geodesy, teleseismic, strong motion, HRGPS and tsunami records) into a single joint inversion. Our main purpose here, is to find a slip model explaining all the observations. If such a model exists, the quantity of explained data should greatly reduce the non-uniqueness of the solution and the inversion should reveal robust slip patterns.

2 Data

In our inversion, we include static GPS data, sea-floor geodesy, HRGPS, accelerograms, teleseimic and tsunami records. We choose to not include InSAR data because it contains post-seismic signal and its information content is redundant with the dense GPS GEONET Japanese network's measurements which is assumed to provide data with less ambiguity [*Feng and Jónsson*, 2012].

2.1 Teleseismic Broadband Data

We use 20 broadband seismograms of the mainshock recorded at teleseismic distances (stations locations are shown in Figure II.S4), obtained from the Incorporated Research Institutions for Seismology (IRIS) data center. Inverted records are displacement waveforms windowed around the P (vertical) and SH wave train (only for 5 seismograms). Data processing includes deconvolution from the instrument response, integration to obtain displacement, equalization to a common magnification and epicentral distance, and bandpass filtering from 0.01 Hz to 0.8 Hz (P waves) or to 0.4 Hz (SH waves).

2.2 Accelerograms

We use 42 time series (14 stations times 3 components, stations locations are shown in Figure II.S5), retrieved from the strong motion Japanese network K-NET NIED data center

(http://www.kyoshin.bosai.go.jp). Acceleration records were integrated to displacement and bandpass filtered between 0.01 and 0.08 Hz. The relatively low high-cut frequency is adapted to the large size of the event while the low-cut frequency is necessary because we invert displacements from acceleration data and the double integration introduces noise at very low frequency. Exceptionally, the low-cut frequency was raised to 0.02 or 0.03 Hz instead of 0.01 Hz if some residual noise was detected.

2.3 High-rate GPS Data

We process a time window of 2 hours of 1Hz data from the GEONET network of the Geospatial Information Authority (GSI) of Japan. We selected a subset of 28 sites located from latitude 36 to latitude 44, providing the best possible azimuthal coverage of the rupture area (see stations locations in Figures II.S6 and II.S7). We used three independent software packages for GPS kinematics analysis (GAMIT/Track, Gipsy and GINS) and check consistency among results. 1-sps high-rate GPS time series were then filtered using a low-pass filter below 0.08Hz (conserving the static component) for horizontal components and a band-pass filter between 0.01 Hz and 0.08 Hz (as for accelerograms) for the vertical component because of its higher inaccuracy.

2.4 Static GPS Data

We use a total of 1221 GPS displacement offsets (407 stations times 3 components, stations locations are shown in Figure II.1.), computed by the ARIA team at JPL/Caltech (ftp://side-show.jpl.nasa.gov/pub/usrs/ARIA, version 0.3) using the original 30 s GEONET RINEX data provided by the Geospatial Information Authority (GSI) of Japan. We used displacements between a solution at 5 :40 and 5 :55 UTC, based on 5 min solutions. Estimates of uncertainties are provided in the ARIA solution (see ftp file for details) but are about 16 cm on average for each component.

2.5 Sea-floor geodesy

Sea-floor geodesy is very rarely available to study underwater earthquakes and is a great complement to the static GPS to constrain distant offshore slip. Seven sea-floor GPS acoustic stations recorded the TO event : KAMS, KAMN, MYGI, MYGW, FUKU [*Sato et al.*, 2011], GJT3 and GJT4 [*Kido et al.*, 2011]. Their measurements provide information very close to the source with a good azimuthal coverage (stations locations are shown in Figure II.S3), but they contain 23, 25, 17, 16, 19, 31 and 31 days of post-seismic signal, respectively. Moreover, these measurements also contain pre-Tohoku signal and especially a series of foreshocks - with magnitudes up to $M_w7.4$ - localized close to the stations [*Nettles et al.*, 2011]. As we are only interested in the coseismic phase, we must assume large uncertainties on these data. And given the location of the measurement points, these uncertainties introduce biases with large weight in the inversion. For this reason, our preferred model does not include the sea-floor geodesy measurements. When including these data in the inversion the slip distribution is similar (Figure II.S3), except in the region where their stations are located, pleading for important post-seismic deformation in this particular region.

2.6 Tsunami records

We use 15 time series of the tsunami wave height at different points of measurement from 4 DART (Deep-ocean Assessment and Reporting of Tsunamis) buoys (21418, 21401, 21413, 21419), 6 GPS buoys (GPS801, GPS802, GPS803, GPS804, GPS806, GPS807), 2 pressure gauges (TM1, TM2) and 3 cables (KPG1, KPG2, HPG). DART records are provided by the NOAA National Geophysical Data Center (http://ngdc.noaa.gov/hazard/dart/2011honshu_dart.html) and have a sampling rate of 1 min. GPS buoys are given by the NOWPHAS system (http://now-phas.mlit.go.jp/info_eng.html) and have a sampling rate of 5 s. Pressure gauges records are described by *Maeda et al.* [2011]. Cables data are downloaded from the JAMSTEC cabled observatories website (http://www.jamstec.go.jp/scdc/top_e.html), their sampling rate is very high frequency (1Hz), but we band-pass filter them between 2 min and 50 min to eliminate the effect of wind waves and tides. Stations locations are shown in Figure II.1. Their azimuthal coverage is very good. In particular, they provide the only robust information east of the source (DARTs). They also provide valuable information north (cables) and close to the source (Pressure gauges, GPS buoys).

3 Forward modelling

3.1 Fault discretization

The first stage of the problem is the discretization of the considered megathrust fault surface. We subdivide the slab interface into 187 subfaults of variable dimensions, strike and dip angles (see Figure II.S1 and Table S1) built to follow the 3D geometry of the SLAB1.0 model [*Hayes et al.*, 2012]. Because of the shorter wavelength of the deformation pattern near the surface and

especially since tsunami data are directly affected by these details, we refine our grid in the shallowest 10 km and build our geometry so that the shallowest subfaults match the free surface at the trench. This level of refinement is indeed critical to properly model both the sea-bottom deformation and the tsunami excitation [*Bletery et al.*, 2015]. We considered adding subfaults to model the coseismic normal-faulting observed in the hanging wall by *Tsuji et al.* [2013]. But after calculation of the response of the static datasets to the 1.1 m of coseismic slip observed by the authors, we found that the effect was significantly below the data resolution.

For each subfault, the theoretical response (Green's function) of every data is calculated for a 1 m displacement both along the dip and strike directions. The modelling of the different datasets relies on different physical processes and is described below by data type.

3.2 Modelling of seismic data

To model the seismic waveforms, the continuous rupture is approximated by a summation of point sources, one at the center of each subfault. Synthetic seismograms at local to regional distances (HRGPS and strong-motion data) are computed using the discrete wave number method of *Bouchon* [1981] designed for 1D stratified velocity models. Synthetic seismograms at teleseismic stations are generated using ray theory approximation [*Nabelek*, 1984] considering the 1D CRUST2.0 global crustal velocity model from Laske, Masters, and Reif (http://igppweb.ucsd.edu/gabi/rem.html).

3.3 Modelling of static geodetic data

To model the static co-seismic displacement (static GPS and sea-floor geodesy), subfaults are represented by dislocation surfaces. The displacements are computed using the formulation of *Savage* [1980] for dislocation embedded in an elastic half-space.

3.4 Modelling of tsunami data

Tsunami waveforms are computed in three steps. First the sea bottom deformation is computed using the dislocation formulation of *Savage* [1980]. Then, we add the contribution of horizontal motion combined with topography (that we will call bathymetry effect (BE)) [*Tanioka and Satake*, 1996] to the obtained vertical displacement field and apply a 1/cosh(kh)filter (where k is the wave number and h the water depth) to the result in order to model the attenuation of the water column [*Kajiura*, 1963]. Finally, we compute the tsunami propagation using the NEOWAVE code [*Yamazaki et al.*, 2009, 2011b] that takes into account dispersive effects. Dispersive effects start to be important for far-field measurements such as those recorded by DART buoys [*Tsai et al.*, 2013; *Watada*, 2013].

4 Inversion Procedure

Using the Green's functions described above, we invert for the coseismic slip distribution in time and space that best explain all the observations previously described. Our kinematic modeling follows the approach described by *Delouis et al.* [2002]. The model hypocenter is based on a seismic waveform and GPS inversion - imposed at 38.15N, 142.61E and at a depth of 24.5 km (*Chu et al.* [2011]'s location is (38.19N, 142.68E, 21 km), JMA's is (38.103N, 142.861E, 24 km), USGS's is (38.322N, 142.369E, 32 km)).

The source of each subfault in the model is represented by a seismic moment rate function (source time function, STF). In our formulation, the seismic moment rate function is represented by a series of 7 triangular functions, isosceles and mutually overlapping over their half duration (6 s). The number of individual triangles (7) and their width (12 s) are adapted to the magnitude of the earthquake and the size of the subfaults. They are fixed in the inversion and dimensioned to account for the maximum slip duration and maximum duration of local rupture propagation on a single subfault. On the other hand, the amplitude of each of the individual triangular functions is a free (bounded) parameter in the inversion. Such parameterization, with 7 overlapping triangles, allows some flexibility in the shape of local source time functions. In total, 9 parameters are to be inverted for each subfault : the rake (slip direction), the rupture onset time, and the 7 amplitudes of the individual triangular functions. The total number of inverted parameters is then 9×187 subfaults, hence 1663.

Rupture onset times are bounded according to a minimum and a maximum rupture velocity of 1.1 and 3.1 km/s respectively. The rake angle can vary between 60° and 120° in order to smoothly compensate the large strike variations along the fault. The tsunami data are here treated as kinematic data, as the static approximation can lead to significant bias in the inverted slip distribution [*Satake et al.*, 2013].

A non-linear inversion of all the datasets described previously is performed using a simulated annealing optimization algorithm. The convergence criterion is based on the simultaneous minimization of the root mean square (RMS) data misfit and of the total seismic moment. The RMS misfit error is the average of the normalized RMS errors of the individual data sets (teleseismic, strong-motion and HRGPS, static GPS and tsunami records), equally weighted. Minimization of the total seismic moment is required to reduce spurious slip in the fault model. To convert the obtained moment in displacement, we use the layered Earth model shown in Figure II.S2 derived from the J-SHIS 3D tomography data integrated over 1D for the first 16 km and *Takahashi et al.* [2004] results for the deepest part.

5 Results

5.1 A patchy shallow slip distribution

The inversion of all these observations - except the sea-floor geodesy - reveals a patchy slip distribution with huge shallow slip reaching the free surface. Indeed, as shown in Figure II.1, most of the slip is found up-dip of the hypocenter. The spatial extent of slip appears relatively narrow for a magnitude 9.0 earthquake. However, as we are probably not able to image slip patterns under a few meters of slip, the outer limits of the spatial slip distribution will remain unclear. We truncate our color palette at 6 m which implicitly means that we do not believe in slip patterns below 10% of the maximum slip imaged, but a clear estimation of uncertainties of source inversion is still, as discussed earlier in the introduction, an unresolved research problem. Nevertheless, the experience gained from running multiple inversions and synthetics tests (detailed below in paragraph 5.3), leads us to believe that we are able to resolve 60 km long patches with more than 10 m of slip. The distribution is very dissymmetric along dip. The rupture starts from a narrow area around the hypocenter to, at the end, spread over a much wider zone in the shallowest part, reaching the trench with very large amplitudes (60 m). The whole rupture lasts about 150 s with most of the moment released between 50 s and 100 s (see source time function in Figure II.1 and nucleation history in Figure II.2). Moreover, this slip model predicts the 50 m of horizontal motion measured at the trench by Fujiwara et al. [2011], a data that was not included in the inversion. Outside the shallowest part of the fault, we observe two distinct high-slip patches with a size of the order of 50 to 100 km.

Our model including the sea-floor geodesy (Figure II.S3) is very similar to our preferred model. The only difference between the two source inversions is the exact size and location of the northern-western patch, the region where sea-floor geodesy stations are located. This small difference could be explained by residual pre- (foreshocks) and post-seismic signal contained in these measurements and indicates that our preferred slip model is consistent with these independent measurements close to the fault rupture.

The seismic moment associated with our preferred slip model is $M_0 = 3.53 \times 10^{29}$ dyn.cm $(M_0 = 3.59 \times 10^{29}$ dyn.cm for the other one) corresponding to a magnitude $M_w = 9.0$ (in

Data type	Agreement $(1 - \sqrt{\sum(\frac{observed - predicted}{observed})^2})$
Teleseimic	54 %
Accelerograms and HRGPS	90~%
Static GPS	94~%
Tsunami	57 %

Tableau II.1 – Agreement between observed and predicted data.

both cases). These values are consistent with the GCMT solution which estimated a moment $M_0 = 5.31 \times 10^{29}$ dyn.cm and a magnitude $M_w = 9.1$ from mantle waves.

5.2 Data Fit

A subset of different waveform fits is shown in Figure II.1 - colors corresponding to different data types, with symbols indicating stations locations - and illustrates the excellent fit obtained with all the datasets. Figures II.3, II.4 and II.S4-II.S7 show the complete data fits for all data types. Agreement between observations and predicted data is given in Table 1.

The GPS observations are well fitted (Figure II.3) and the residuals are lower (< 15 cm) than data uncertainties (~ 16 cm). Although not included in the inversion, sea-floor geodesy measurements are fairly well explained by our model (Figure II.3). The vertical residuals show a coherent subsidence pattern over the different stations while the horizontal residuals show a more chaotic pattern (Figure II.3.a and II.3.b). These patterns may have different origins. Other studies resulted in similar patterns in the horizontal and vertical residuals (e.g. *Simons et al.* [2011]). As *Simons et al.* [2011], we favor the hypothesis that these residuals are caused by model errors. Another possible source of error is the heterogeneity of time windows between data sets with the sea-floor geodesy measurements including part of the foreshock and postseismic sequences.

In addition to the tsunami data fit (Figure II.4) obtained by our preferred model, we show the data fit obtained by a separate inversion (green curves in Figure II.4) that uses the exact same datasets and parametrization with the exception that the tsunami Green's functions do not take into account the BE. In this case, the agreement goes down to 52% (instead of 57%) with no significant change to the final slip model. We explain this change in the fit of the tsunami by a better compatibility with information given by other datasets when we include the BE into tsunami Green's functions. It is strong evidence of the improvement in tsunami modelling accuracy when BE is accounted for. We notice that the synthetics show higher frequency than the data. This could be an artifact of the wave propagation calculation and has been discussed



Figure II.1 – Preferred slip model obtained by inversion of the undermentioned datasets : teleseimic, accelerograms, HRGPS, static GPS and tsunami records. The associated source time function is shown in the top right corner. Stations locations are represented by data sets (see legend for details). Colored curves show data fits at sampled stations. Colors correspond to data types. See Figures II.3, II.4 and II.S4-II.S7 for complete data fit plots.

II.5 Results



Figure II.2 – Cumulative rupture snapshots with 10 s time windows. The slip contour in the first time window is 5 m. In all other subfigures slip contours are 10 m intervals.



Figure II.3 – Static GPS and sea-floor geodesy data fits. Top : observed (blue) compared to predicted (orange) by our preferred slip model, left is horizontal, right vertical. Bottom : residual (observed - predicted). For vertical residual, blue is pointing up, orange pointing down. The sea-floor geodetic data were not included in the inversion of our preferred slip model : they are shown for *a posteriori* comparison. Residuals of the GPS data are below (< 15 cm) the data uncertainties (~ 16 cm) and even though sea-floor geodesy measurements were not included in the inversion, their fit is fair.



Figure II.4 – Tsunami data fit. Blue is observed, orange is predicted by inversion taking into account the bathymetry effect (BE), green is predicted by an inversion not taking it into account. We explain better the data with this effect. This attests that tsunami physics accounting for BE improves its consistency with other observations.

by the authors of the NEOWAVE tsunami simulation code [Yamazaki et al., 2011a, 2013]. But, two additional effects might come into play : (1) data are acquired at a low sampling rate or are low pass-filtered but might intrinsically contain high frequencies; (2) rectangular subfault discretization introduces unphysical borders that could create high frequencies in predicted tsunami time series, especially for subfaults near the free surface.

5.3 Resolution tests

In order to evaluate the robustness of our inversion, we perform a resolution test (Figure II.S8). We first consider a patchwork composed of 60 km long square patches (top of Figure II.S8) and calculate the synthetic data produced by this slip pattern. We then invert them jointly (with the exception of sea-floor geodesy data that are not included in order to reproduce the conditions of our preferred model) to see how well we are able to recover the target. The inversion recovers well the input pattern for the entire fault, giving an idea of our resolution assuming perfect data prediction. The checker board input pattern is challenging to recover, especially for kinematic data : signals generated by similar patches homogeneously distributed around the hypocenter generate similar waveforms, both in phase and amplitude, making them extremely hard to distinguish from each other.

Nevertheless, this first test was conclusive and indicates that the resolution of our problem might be equal or finer than the 60 km length of the patches. Thus, we performed a second test with smaller slip patches (30 km long instead of 60 km). In this case, the patchwork is not recovered everywhere (bottom of Figure II.S8) : it is mainly recovered in the northern shallow part of the fault. This results might appear at odds with the density of observations along the coast and right above the deeper part of the fault. And because the density of onland stations is homogeneous all along the fault, the increased resolution in the north, can only be explained by the higher density of tsunami stations. Because tsunami data are linearly related to the sea-floor deformation, they are equivalent to near-field observations when the earthquake rupture is shallow, even if the tsunami wave is measured hundreds of kilometers away. As a consequence, denser onland instrumentation will not improve resolution on the megathrust and deep subfaults will never be as well resolved with surface data.

To investigate these resolution considerations a bit further, we also present, in Figure II.S9, a series of separated checkerboard tests for the different datasets (the last subfigure is different from Figure II.S8, because it includes the sea-floor geodesy data). Strong-motion and HRGPS data inverted jointly give a result similar to the static GPS-only inversion. This is because the horizontal components of HRGPS data contain the static offsets of the static GPS data.

Both of these datasets succeed in imaging patches of the considered size close to the coast but fail for the others, highlighting the limitation of onland data to image offshore earthquakes. The difference between the patterns recovered using static GPS only or strong-motion and HRGPS data is marginal. Hence, the additional information on the timing of the slip contained in the strong-motion and HRGPS data doesn't seem to greatly reduce the non-uniqueness of the solution. Unless the static GPS compensate by the much larger number of data points. Teleseismic data fail to explain the input pattern with the exception of a patch near the coast which is partially imaged. This is due to the too large number of free parameters to invert in view of the dataset information content, especially with the considered distributed patchwork, as discussed above. Tsunami data appear to provide by far the best resolution and is the only data set to provide reliable information close to the trench. Sea-floor geodesy also provides good resolution over the whole fault because of its central location and proximity to the fault. However, this test is performed without adding any noise in synthetic data. As we suspect sea-floor geodesy measurements to contain possible large pre-/post- seismic signal, they are likely to introduce a coherent bias incompatible with ocean bottom deformation predicted by tsunami data. A comparison of Figures II.S8 and II.S9 indicates that the resolution of the joint inversion does not suffer from removing the sea-floor geodesy. This result supports our choice to exclude the sea-floor geodetic data from our main inversion.

5.4 Surface wave prediction

We further validate our kinematic source model through a comparison with broadband surface waves recorded at teleseismic stations. To do so, we adopt an Empirical Green Function (EGF) approach, using as an EGF the 2011/03/09 $M_w7.4$ precursor. Theoretically, the Relative Source Time Functions (RSTFs) can be obtained by a direct deconvolution of the EGF signals from the main shock signals [*Hartzell*, 1978]. However, the inherent instability of the deconvolution operator may contaminate the results. To retrieve more reliable RSTFs, we apply the stabilized deconvolution technique of *Vallée* [2004], in which four physical constraints on the RSTFs (causality, positivity, limited duration, and equal area) are included in the deconvolution process. Figure II.S10 shows the Love and Rayleigh waves RSTFs (grey filled curves), obtained from broadband stations of the FDSN (Federation of Digital Seismograph Networks), well distributed in azimuth. The red curves show the corresponding synthetic RSTFs, computed from our spatio-temporal model, considering Love and Rayleigh waves phase velocities equal to 4.5 km/s and 3.8 km/s, respectively [*Schwartz*, 1999]. Because variations of the RSTFs as a function of station azimuth are directly related to the rupture process characteristics, the si-

milarity between the observed and the computed RSTFs further validates our proposed source model.

6 Discussion

Detailed co-seismic rupture imaging is a valuable resource to understand the physics of earthquakes. Thanks to the quantity of high quality data - to our knowledge, it is the first time that so many datasets are inverted jointly - and especially the addition of tsunami records and improved modelling of their associated Green's functions, we obtain a robust and detailed slip model which can be compared to several independent observations to both challenge its validity and see if we can make progress in our understanding of the underlying physical processes.

6.1 Slip distribution and seismicity

In our present understanding of mega-earthquakes, co-seismic patches are thought to correspond to locked portions of subduction interfaces loaded in stress [Kanda et al., 2013]. These locked asperities should correspond to low seismicity zones during long (possibly up to 1000 years) interseismic periods [Chlieh et al., 2007; Perfettini et al., 2010]. One purpose of joint inversions is to image this kind of asperities. Figure IV.7.a shows the historical seismicity offshore north east Japan / Honshu island since 1973 for moderate events, 1896 for large ones. We find that the large-slip zone is, as expected, located in a very low seismicity region. Indeed, we observe a clear deficit in both moderate ($M_w 6 - M_w 7.5$) and large ($M_w > 7.5$) events in the 30m+ area of our preferred slip model. Most of the small events located in the red high slip patch the closest to the epicenter are part of the foreshock sequence which started on March 9th, 2011.



aftershocks density during the 1 year period following TO, blue diamonds are repeating earthquakes and the blue line is the co-seismic rupture area delimited by Kato and Igarashi [2012]. Our slip distribution is in agreement with this limit. c) Slip distribution at the free Figure II.5 – a) TO slip distribution and historical seismicity prior to TO. Same as Figure II.1 with black contours being Mw7.4+ earthquakes since 1896 and gray circles, $M_w 5+$ earthquakes since 1973 (USGS catalog). Our slip distribution is located in a very low seismicity zone. b) Our slip distribution compared to interplate aftershocks' density from Kato and Igarashi [2012]. Blue squares show We see good correlations between the two profiles. It is coherent with the idea that large co-seismic motion at the trench produces stress one across our slip model at the trench (red) and one on the other side of the trench across the outer-rise aftershocks' density (purple) surface compared to outer-rise aftershocks' density (JMA catalog, 2 years following TO). We calculate two latitude profiles (dashed lines) perturbations promoting normal faulting on the emerged subducting plate resulting in high outer-rise seismic activity.

The seismicity rate of interplate earthquakes is expected to change significantly after the mainshock, as a result of stress perturbations. Based on this hypothesis, *Kato and Igarashi* [2012] delineated the outer edge of the large-slip zone by calculating contrasts in interplate aftershocks density during the one year period following the mainshock. We see in Figure IV.7.b a good agreement between our slip distribution and their large-slip delineation, except in the southwest part of the fault plane. *Kato and Igarashi* [2012] suggest that this zone was affected by significant coseismic motion; although slip is not found in this particular area in most inversion slip models. Back projection studies [*Ishii*, 2011; *Koper et al.*, 2011a,b; *Meng et al.*, 2011; *Simons et al.*, 2011; *Wang and Mori*, 2011; *Yao et al.*, 2011, 2012; *Zhang et al.*, 2011] suggest significant high frequency seismic activity in this area. As we are interested in large-scale features of the slip distribution, we filter these high frequencies from our data. This makes our inversion insensitive to very small-scale asperities. However, even though slip patterns of this amplitude (<10 m compared to the 60 m of main slip patches) are probably poorly resolved, we do obtain a slip patch in this region which reveals that some seismic moment is released (Figure II.1).

After a subduction earthquake, seismicity is not only induced on the megathrust but in a much wider area. In particular, outer-rise aftershocks usually follow the mainshock when the rupture propagates to the surface. Outer-rise earthquakes are defined as normal faulting earthe three the three terms of the oceanic plate as it enters the subduction zone, and a good measurement of this extension is the relative motion of the two plates at the trench, where the subduction starts. Consequently, after a large earthquake reaching the free surface, we expect an increase in the outer-rise aftershocks activity with an intensity proportional to the most surficial slip at the trench. We use JMA's catalog and calculate outer-rise aftershock density during the two years period following the mainshock (for the density calculation, we used the SciPy algorithm of kernel-density estimate based on Gaussian krenels: http://docs.scipy.org/doc/scipy/reference/generated/scipy.stats.gaussian_kde.html). We calculate two latitude profiles (dashed lines in Figure IV.7.c), one across our slip model at the trench (red) and one on the other side of the trench across the outer-rise aftershock density (purple). We notice a good correlation between the slip found at the trench and the density of aftershocks in the outer-rise region. This indicates that the shallowest part of our preferred slip model is spatially coherent with the seismicity independently observed in the incoming plate. Additionally, as this argument only applies to variations - and not absolute values - of slip along the trench, we are reminded that our model is in agreement with the 50 m of horizontal motion measured at the trench by *Fujiwara et al.* [2011].

As predicted by our current understanding of the different processes, our preferred slip

model places most slip in a region where very low seismicity was recorded before TO, around which intense interplate aftershock activity is observed [*Sladen et al.*, 2010] and is also able to explain the induced seismic activity recorded in the incoming plate. These different results make our slip distribution model physically very consistent with the observed pre- and post-TO seismicity.

6.2 Stress drop and slab interface properties

In the last paragraph, we saw that our slip model agrees with independent observations of the seismicity in the region. To make a step further in the interpretation of this model, we now focus on a physical parameter that plays a critical role in the earthquake rupture process : the stress released on the fault during the rupture. We are not able to directly measure this stress drop, but we can derive its spatial distribution from our slip model.

The co-seismic slip $\Delta u(x,y)$ on a fault area A in the x-direction can be written as :

$$\Delta u(x,y) = \frac{1}{4\pi^2} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \Delta^* u(\xi,\eta) e^{(-i(\xi x + \eta y))} d\xi d\eta$$
(II-1)

where

$$\Delta u^*(\xi,\eta) = \iint_A \Delta u(x,y) e^{(i(\xi x + \eta y))} dx dy$$
(II-2)

The associated stress drop $\Delta \sigma$ is then given by :

$$\Delta\sigma = \frac{\mu}{8\pi^2} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{2\gamma\xi^2 + \eta^2}{\sqrt{\xi^2 + \eta^2}} \Delta u^*(\xi, \eta) e^{-i(\xi x + \eta y)} d\xi d\eta \tag{II-3}$$

where λ and μ are Lamé constants and $\gamma = \frac{\lambda + \mu}{\lambda + 2\mu}$ [Sato, 1972; Singh, 1977].

We apply equation II-3 to our preferred slip model and derive a stress-drop distribution along the fault (Figure II.6). We find that the stress drop is dominated by two very large patches with amplitudes exceeding 8 MPa localized halfway between the epicenter and the trench. We observe two smaller patches (reaching 5 MPa) up-dip and near the hypocenter, another one in the south high frequency zone discussed in paragraph 6.1 and a last one close to the trench. The rest of the trench area is found to have released around 2 MPa such as the rest of the co-seismic zone. The periphery of the co-seismic zone is found to have experienced a slight stress increase (blue zone in Figure II.6.a).


Equation (3) doesn't include the effect of depth which implies that the free surface effect is neglected. This probably leads to an over-estimation of the stress drop in the shallow part of the fault [*Huang et al.*, 2014]. In this case, the deeper patches of very large stress drop are better candidates to explain most of the large energy radiation detected by seismic networks [*Ishii*, 2011], at least more than what is predicted by equation (3).

Large stress-drop patches like these are thought to be the consequence of the rupture of locked asperities loaded in stress during the interseismic period [*Chlieh et al.*, 2007; *Konca et al.*, 2008]. To release as much stress during an earthquake, it is straight-forward to assume that these patches accumulated particularly large stress load before. These patches are then the most relevant information that our slip inversion provides about possible asperities distributed along the slab interface. Therefore, it is of particular interest to compare this stress-drop distribution with other sources of information on the slab interface properties.

The most common method for imaging such slab interface properties is inverting geodetic data to obtain the coupling rate (slip deficit at plate interface during the interseismic period compared to the tectonic convergence rate) along the fault. Many authors have tried to image the Japan slab coupling rate [Hashimoto et al., 2009; Loveless and Meade, 2010, 2011; Mazzotti et al., 2000; Perfettini and Avouac, 2014] but because of the narrow azimuthal coverage of the GPS network and its distance to the trench, the easternmost part of the slab (where large stress drop is found) lacks resolution even at large scale. Consequently, locked patches at the scale of interest can not be imaged there. Following a very different approach, Zhao et al. [2011] and *Huang and Zhao* [2013] proposed tomography images of the slab interface. We compare the P wave velocity (Vp) anomalies variations along the slab revealed by their studies to our stress-drop distribution (Figure II.6.b and II.6.c). We find a very good correlation between high Vp anomalies of *Zhao et al.* [2011]'s model and our stress-drop contours (Figure II.6.b). The two large stress-drop patches we imaged seem to match the few high velocity anomalies in the eastern part of the fault. We also observe this correspondence for the smaller stress-drop patches. The 2 MPa iso-stress-drop line (which can be seen as the limit of the rupture) seems to follow the 0 velocity anomaly isoline. *Huang and Zhao* [2013]'s model contains less details, but their larger scale high velocity anomaly east of the epicenter is also well correlated with our large stress-drop area (constituted by our two main patches). Zhao et al. [2011] and Huang and Zhao [2013] propose that the low velocity anomalies might reflect the presence of sediments and fluids associated with slab dehydration, and consequently to correspond to low coupled zones. On the other hand, they propose that high velocity anomalies would be the signature of hard rock material constitutive of slab interface zones and are interpreted as highly coupled asperities. At least, consistent with this interpretation, low Vp (red zones) corresponds to low

seismic activity while fast Vp (blues) corresponds to high occurrences of moderate to large earthquakes (Figures IV.7.a and II.6.b or II.6.c). While the presence of sediments is not the only possible explanation for Vp anomalies, the correlation between our preferred slip model and the tomography results advocates for the idea that earthquake rupture and plate coupling are controlled by long term features.

6.3 The crucial role of normal faulting in the over-riding plate

In addition to these slab tomographies, we show, in Figure II.7, another interesting particularity of the region : the presence of a large normal fault [Tsuji et al., 2011, 2013] located just above our high-slip patch the closest to the epicenter, and which coincides with our main stress-drop patch. There is no reported case of similar normal faults branching to the surface along the Japan subduction zone. Based on *Cubas et al.* [2013], the existence of this fault implies very low friction on the up-dip part of the megathrust of the region. This low friction authorizes large slip with low stress drop in this shallowest part of the region that we will define as block A, a coherent unit separated from block B by the normal fault (see illustration in Figure II.7). We propose that the rupture of a long-term locked asperity on the megathrust (located below the normal fault) caused block A to move as a coherent unit with respect to block B, a motion made easier by a very low dynamic friction on the megathrust. The 1.1 m of offset measured at the surface of the normal fault and related to the coseismic phase [Tsuji et al., 2013] (with possible larger amplitude at depth) attests for a partial block motion of this kind. This idea of block motion behavior is also consistent with the curious absence of aftershocks in the frontal wedge (defined here as block A) observed by *Obana et al.* [2013]. Indeed, if block A behaves as a coherent unit, internal deformation should be small.

Such a normal fault might be a mark of TO type events. This idea was first proposed by *Cubas et al.* [2013] who brought the argument of the need of low friction on the megathrust to explain normal faulting on the over-ridding plate. The hypothesis of low friction would actually be confirmed around the same time from direct friction measurements on the shallowest part of the megathrust [*Fulton et al.*, 2013]. Until now, resolution in the published slip models did not permit to spatially link this normal fault to a high-slip patch at such a scale (*Cubas et al.* [2013] linked it to a slip pattern imaged by *Wei et al.* [2012] much larger than the supposed size of the normal fault). These high-slip patches - which appear to be coherent with independent observations (paragraphs 6.1, 6.2) - clearly point at the role of the normal fault in the rupture of TO, especially its link with extremely large shallow slip. As no other normal fault of this kind has been observed along the Honshu subduction zone outside the TO area, a consequence of



Figure II.7 – Illustrative sketch of the frontal wedge behavior in our proposed scenario. Top : Location of a large normal fault co-seismically activated [*Tsuji et al.*, 2011, 2013] in relation to slip (left) and stress-drop distributions (right). Bottom : Interpreted seismic profile (modified from *Tsuji et al.* [2011]) of the normal fault shown in top figures across the region affected by the largest slip. Blocks A (in blue) and B - separated by the large normal fault - moved by several meters in respect to each others [*Tsuji et al.*, 2013].

this would be the relatively low likelihood for a TO type event in another part of the subduction zone.

6.4 A rupture scenario to reconcile the different observations

Based on the arguments above, we propose the following rupture scenario : the Tohoku-Oki earthquake started on March 11th 2011 at 14 H 56 (local time) as a magnitude M_w 7 like, in a region where events of this size are common (see Figure IV.7.a). After 40-50 s (see Figure II.2), the rupture reached an asperity locked for a very long time - possibly since the 869 Jogan Sanriku earthquake [Minoura et al., 2001; Sawai et al., 2008] - inducing enough stress perturbation to cause its rupture. The rupture released an enormous amount of stress (main patch in Figure II.6 associated with the STF peak in Figure II.1) and lowered the effective friction of the part of the megathrust located up-dip - possibly by heating water contained in the thin scaly-clay layer constituting the fault [Noda and Lapusta, 2013] - allowing block A to slip with negligible dynamic friction [Chester et al., 2013; Cubas et al., 2013; Fulton et al., 2013; Ujiie et al., 2013; Wang and Kinoshita, 2013]. The motion of block A, which is decoupled from block B by the large normal fault, allows it to slip freely with respect to both the incoming plate and the rest of the over-ridding plate. This could explain why the amount of slip does not significantly decrease as the rupture reaches the free surface. The north and south borders of block A are not as clear as the normal and megathrust faults which can explain why the amount of slip slowly decreases from our higher-slip patch - located between the normal fault and the trench - to no slip on the north and south edges. In the south, the motion was accentuated by the rupture of a secondary asperity also associated with an important stress drop (second main path in Figure II.6) causing more slip to reach the free surface south than north.

This scenario is close to the mechanism of tsunami earthquakes described by *Fukao* [1979] of a down-dip earthquake nucleation inducing large shallow slip motion resulting in a large tsunami associated with a relatively low seismic moment; except here the seismic moment is not small. And because the size of the Tohoku tsunami is coherent with the magnitude of the earthquake it is not a tsunami earthquake as defined by *Kanamori* [1972]. This is also supported by the absence of a slow rupture component signature in far-field seismic records [*Han et al.*, 2013; *Okal*, 2013] (as well as by the relatively short source time function (Figure II.1 and II.2)), making the TO earthquake a very singular event among $M_w \ge 9.0$ mega-earthquakes : 1960 Valdivia ($M_w 9.5$), 1964 Alaska ($M_w 9.2$), 2004 Sumatra ($M_w 9.1$ -9.3) were all classified as tsunami earthquakes with a clear slow rupture component [*Okal*, 2013] and a deficit of seismic magnitude relatively to the induced tsunamis. For the most part, we explain the TO magnitude

with the quasi-simultaneous ruptures of two localized asperities, a scenario also consistent with the focal mechanism simplicity observed by *Rivera and Kanamori* [2014].

Our interpretation, while still being a tentative scenario, allows to explain a number of observations : seismicity patterns before and after TO (Figure IV.7, [Kato and Igarashi, 2012]), velocity anomalies imaged by tomography (Figure II.6, Zhao et al. [2011], Huang and Zhao [2013]), a normal fault revealed by geology (Figure II.7, Tsuji et al. [2013]), rheological properties of the megathrust revealed by drilling [Chester et al., 2013; Fulton et al., 2013; Ujiie et al., 2013; Wang and Kinoshita, 2013] and even the absence of aftershocks in the frontal wedge [Obana et al., 2013].

7 Conclusion

We performed a joint inversion including static GPS, strong-motion, HRGPS, teleseismic and tsunami records for the March, 11, 2011 M_w 9.0 Tohoku-Oki earthquake to obtain a robust and detailed description of the rupture process (we choose to not include the sea-floor geodesy measurements because of a probable large fraction of pre-/post- seismic signal). Our preferred slip model reveals a compact area of large slip, located up-dip of the epicenter and extending to the trench (see Figure II.1). The large co-seismic slip is found in an area previously characterized by very low seismicity (Figure IV.7.a). The important interplate aftershock activity delineate the co-seismic slip zone (see Figure IV.7.b), while the density of outer-rise aftershocks is proportional to the amount of coseismic slip at the trench (see Figure IV.7.c). All these observations make our slip model physically very coherent with patterns independently observed in the seismicity.

The stress-drop distribution, derived from our slip model, reveals two localized patches halfway between the hypocenter and the trench (see Figure II.6). We find that these correlate with high Vp anomalies imaged by tomography of the slab interface, interpreted as highly coupled regions. We interpret these two patches as long-term-locked asperities explaining, for the most part, the exceptional magnitude of the event. Based on these results we propose that the large shallow slip would be the consequence of an effective friction drop, due to thermal pressurization in the shallow part of the megathrust fault, initiated by the heat associated with the rupture of these two asperities.

The TO region presents a geological particularity : a large normal fault in the hanging wall, co-seismically activated and not documented anywhere else along the Japan trench. *Cubas et al.* [2013] have shown that this normal fault can only be actived coseismically if the dynamic fric-

tion on the megathrust is very low, a condition which would also explain the large amount of slip reaching the free surface. If correct, this interpretation would indicate that TO-like earthquakes are unlikely elsewhere offshore North Japan. Our interpretation of the TO earthquake rupture is just a tentative scenario but deserves credit for explaining numerous independent measurements and being consistent about our knowledge of earthquake physics. Studies of the post-seismic deformation of the frontal wedge will be of particular interest to challenge this proposed scenario.



Figure II.S1 – 3D fault discretization used in our joint inversion built to follow *Hayes et al.* [2012]'s slab localization. Each point represents a subfault, modelled as a point source for seimic data and a rectangular plane for geodetic and tsunami data. Special care is given to the shallow part because of tsunami near-field sensitivity. Subfaults along the trench are all modelled as reaching the free surface.



Figure II.S2 – Elastic parameters 1D profiles integrated from the 3D tomography of J-SHIS (http://www.j-shis.bosai.go.jp/map/) for the shallow part (depth < 16 km) and from *Takahashi et al.* [2004] for the deep part.



Figure II.S3 – Same as Figure II.1 including the sea-floor geodesy in the inversion. Light blue inverted triangles show the stations locations.





Figure II.S4 – Teleseismic data fits. Blue is observed, red is predicted. Stations locations are shown at the top right.



Figure II.S5 – Accelerometers data fits component by component (N for north, E for east, Z for up).



Figure II.S6 – Same as Figure II.S5 for HRGPS data. Static signal is removed from the vertical component, kept in the horizontal.



Figure II.S7 – Same as Figure II.S6 for the rest of HRGPS data.



Figure II.S8 – Resolution tests. Left : input patterns : patchworks of 60 km by 60 km (top) and 30 km by 30 km (bottom) squares. Right : patterns recovered by the joint inversion of synthetic data (not including sea-floor geodesy, as in our preferred model) obtained from the left input patterns. The coarser pattern (top) is well recovered, the finer (bottom) not as well, but northern shallowest patches are fairly well imaged.



Figure II.S9 – Resolution tests by data sets. Top left : input pattern (same as first target in Figure II.S8). Other subfigures : results of separated inversions of the different synthetic datasets generated by target model. Last subfigure is resolution test for the joint inversion including the sea-floor geodesy (different from Figure II.S8).



Figure II.S10 – Comparison between observed and computed relative source time functions (RSTFs). Observed RSTFs (filled curves) are obtained by deconvolving the 2011/03/09 precursor ($M_w = 7.4$) signals from the main shock signals. On the left, this deconvolution is done on the transverse signals in the Love wave time window, and on the right on the vertical signals in the Rayleigh wave time window. Computed RSTFs (red curves) are derived from our rupture process model. A 25s smoothing is applied to both observed and computed RSTFs. The name and azimuth to the north (θ) of the selected FDSN stations, as well as the moment rate amplitude scale, are shown.

Chapitre III

Améliorer la modélisation physique du problème direct pour améliorer les modèles de source : le cas critique de l'initiation d'un tsunami par un séisme.

Nous avons vu dans le chapitre précédent que les données tsunami apportaient une contrainte particulièrement utile sur la partie superficielle du modèle de glissement du séisme de Tohoku-Oki (voir en particulier la Figure II.S9). Ceci est vraisemblablement le cas pour tous les séismes de subduction. Or, des données très contraignantes doivent être particulièrement bien modélisées car, dans leur cas, de faibles différences sur les fonctions de Green donnent de fortes différences sur les modèles de glissement. Il est donc important de réduire, autant que faire ce peu, les incertitudes épistémiques sur la modélisation directe des tsunamis.

Dans ce chapitre, nous nous intéressons à un effet physique mis en évidence par *Tanioka* and *Satake* [1996] mais encore régulièrement ignoré dans les inversions, à savoir la contribution de la déformation horizontale du plancher océanique dans la génération des tsunamis. Cette contribution est plus exactement l'effet combiné de la déformation horizontale $(\vec{u_h})$ avec la bathymétrie (β) : un relief sous-marin se déplaçant horizontalement de quelques mètres induit un déplacement vertical de la surface de l'eau égal à $\vec{u_h}.grad\beta$. Or les zones de subduction présentent de forts gradients bathymétriques aux alentours des fosses. Cet effet peut donc fortement amplifier les tsunamis associés aux glissements superficiels et donc biaiser les fonctions de Green, en particulier dans les portions de failles proches de la fosse. Les données tsunami étant une contrainte quasi-exclusive sur la partie superficielle des modèles de glissement, ces derniers peuvent être très sensibles à de telles erreurs.

Nous détaillons donc, dans un premier temps, les étapes du calcul de cet effet bathymétrique

et la sensibilité de ce dernier aux paramètres géométriques de la faille. Puis, nous estimons sa part dans l'excitation totale des tsunamis le long des principales zones de subduction à travers le monde. Nous observons que cet effet est particulièrement fort (localement >25%) dans les zones de subduction connues pour générer des séismes tsunamigéniques ou des méga-séismes. Nous montrons, par la suite, que cet effet peut aller jusqu'à doubler la prédiction des fonctions de Green et même déphaser légèrement le signal. Dans un deuxième temps, nous montrons comment les modèles de source peuvent être affectés par le fait de ne pas prendre cet effet en compte. Pour se faire, nous inversons deux fois le même jeu de données tsunami pour retrouver le glissement co-sismique du séisme de Tohoku-Oki, une première fois en prenant l'effet en compte, une deuxième fois en le négligeant. Nous montrons, que les différences sont significatives (localement supérieures à un tiers du glissement maximal) et que le modèle prenant en compte l'effet bathymétrique explique mieux les données géodésiques pourtant non incluses dans l'inversion, ce qui renforce la crédibilité physique de l'effet et de sa modélisation. Cette partie a été réalisée en collaboration avec Anthony Sladen, Bertrand Delouis et Lionel Mattéo et publiée à Pure and Applied Geophysics (doi :10.1007/s00024-015-113-y) sous le titre : « Quantification of tsunami bathymetry effect on finite-fault slip inversion ».

The strong development of tsunami instrumentation in the last decade now provides observations of tsunami wave propagation in most ocean basins. This evolution has led to the wide use of tsunami data to image the complexity of earthquake sources. In particular, the 2011 M_w 9.0 Tohoku-Oki earthquake is the first mega-event for which such a tsunami instrumentation network was available with an almost complete azimuthal coverage. Source inversion studies have taken advantage of these observations which add a lot of constrain on the solutions, especially in the shallow part of the fault models where other standard data sets tend to lack resolution : while on-land data are quite insensitive to slip on the often-distant shallow part of a subduction fault interface, tsunami observations are directly sensitive to the shallowest slip. And it is in this shallow portion that steep bathymetry combined with horizontal motion, the so-called bathymetry effect, can contribute to the tsunami excitation, in addition to the direct vertical sea-bottom deformation. In this study, we carefully investigate the different steps involved in the calculation of this bathymetry effect, from the initial sea-floor deformation to the prediction of the tsunami records, and evaluate its contribution across the main subduction zones of the world. We find that the bathymetry effect locally exceeds 10% of the tsunami excitation in all subduction zones and 25% in those known to produce the largest tsunami, either from mega- or tsunami- earthquakes. We then show how the bathymetry effect can modify the tsunami wave predictions, with time shifts of the wavefront and amplitudes sometimes varying by a factor of two. If the bathymetry effect can have a strong impact on the simulated tsunami, it will also affect the solution of the finite-fault slip inversion. We illustrate this later aspect in the case of the Tohoku-Oki earthquake. We find that not accounting for the bathymetry effect will not necessarily cause strong variations in the spatial extent of the inferred coseismic rupture but can severely distort the solution. We also find that the bathymetry effect improves the consistency of the slip model inverted from tsunami data with seafloor geodesy observations, implying that taking the bathymetry effect into account reduces the epistemic uncertainties on tsunami modeling. Implementing this easily quantifiable effect in the tsunami-early warning system could thus lead to improved estimates of the tsunami impact across ocean basins.

1 Introduction

Tsunami excitation caused by an earthquake is traditionally modeled assuming incompressible water and that the deformation is rapid compared to the time it takes for the gravity wave source to propagate across the rupture area. These arguments allow copying the vertical displacement of the sea bottom to the surface of the ocean. Tanioka and Satake [1996] showed that horizontal motion of the bottom of the sea, where the gradient of bathymetry is nonnegligible could also contribute to vertical water displacement. This so-called bathymetry effect (BE) depends on the dip angle of the slab interface (which conditions the ratio of horizontal to vertical surface displacement), the amount of shallow slip at the surface and the gradient of the bathymetry. The bathymetry effect is sometimes called horizontal effect but we prefer the former term as horizontal effect might convey the idea that the effect is related to a transfer of horizontal momentum. Tsunami earthquakes, defined as events generating anomalously large tsunami compared to their seismic radiation [Kanamori, 1972] are for the large majority shallow megathrust earthquakes. The shallow part of megathrusts often combines low dip angle and steep bathymetry (due to the proximity of the trench). Therefore, BE is expected to be particularly strong for these events and could partly explain the anomalously large size of the generated tsunamis. More generally large earthquakes preferentially occur on low dipping interfaces [Schellart and Rawlinson, 2013] and one may reasonably suspect that mega-earthquakes have enough energy to rupture up to the free surface. Thus, mega-earthquakes are expected to be particularly influenced by the BE. Among them, the 2011 M_w 9.0 Tohoku-Oki earthquake (TO) combines a shallow dipping slab interface with very large shallow slip (e.g. *Fujiwara et al.* [2011]) and a wide bathymetry gradient towards the trench. Moreover, TO is the first megaevent for which tsunami instrumentation (and even other types of observations (e.g. *Fritz et al.*) [2012])) recorded the wave close to the source and with an almost complete azimuthal coverage. This makes TO an ideal case for studying the BE.

Numerous studies have taken advantage of tsunami observations to characterize the TO co-seismic rupture : either by performing tsunami-only inversions [Koketsu et al., 2011; Maeda et al., 2011; Melgar and Bock, 2013; Saito et al., 2011; Satake et al., 2013], joint inversions including tsunami [Bletery et al., 2014; Gusman et al., 2012; Hooper et al., 2013; Minson et al., 2014; Romano et al., 2012, 2014; Simons et al., 2011; Yokota et al., 2011], or tsunami forward predictions from various source models [Lay et al., 2011b; Wei et al., 2012; Yamazaki et al., 2011a, 2013]. In these studies, BE was often neglected, but Hooper et al. [2013] and Satake et al. [2013], followed by Romano et al. [2014], then demonstrated its major impact on the finite-fault source imaging of the TO event. Tanioka and Satake [1996] originally predicted that this effect

could amplify the tsunami amplitude by 30% in the case of the Java subduction. But for the specific case of TO, *Hooper et al.* [2013] found that the additional coseismic contribution due to the horizontal translation of bathymetry could locally exceed 100% of the contribution of vertical deformation. And in terms of tsunami amplitude, *Satake et al.* [2013] found that it amplified the signals observed at Ocean Bottom Pressure sensors and GPS wave gauge stations by up to 60%.

In this study, we detail the steps involved in the calculation of the BE, how it affects the tsunami generation, and how it varies across different subduction zones of the world. We then illustrate the impact of BE on the recovered slip distribution when the inversion is controlled by tsunami data.

2 Forward modeling

Tsunami response to finite-fault dislocation is typically modeled in three steps : (1) the computation of the displacement field generated by a given dislocation at the bottom of the sea, (2) the tsunami excitation transferred through the water column, (3) the tsunami propagation. We detail below the calculation of tsunami synthetic data, and the contribution of the BE, at each of those three steps.

2.1 Displacement field generated by shallow finite fault dislocation

In source inversion problems, the surface displacement field generated by finite-fault dislocation is commonly modeled using *Okada* [1985]'s implementation of the equations given by *Mansinha and Smylie* [1971], which are derived from the formulation of *Steketee* [1958]. This theoretical formulation is linear and computationally cheap, two great advantages to perform finite-fault source inversions. To highlight the sensitivity of finite-fault source inversion to fault geometry (e.g. *Moreno et al.* [2009]), we use *Okada* [1985]'s formulation to compute the displacement field generated by a shallow dislocation along a 15 km fault plane in four different cases : a fault plane reaching the free surface with a dip angle of 5° (case 1) or with a dip angle of 10° (case 2). Cases 3 and 4 are similar to 1 and 2 except that the fault planes are 4 km deeper respectively, and thus do not reach the surface. In each case, we imposed 1 m of pure dip-slip (rake angle $\lambda = 90^\circ$) homogeneously distributed along the fault. We compute the response at the surface on a regular grid with 1 point every km^2 .

We represent the induced surface deformation across a profile perpendicular to the trench in the four different cases (Figure III.1). Vertical displacement is, to the first order, the main



Figure III.1 – Effect of dip angle and depth on surface displacement generated by shallow fault dislocation across a profile perpendicular to the trench. 1 m of homogeneous pure dip slip is applied on a 15 km long fault in 4 cases (sub-figure 1.c) : (1) fault dipping is 5° and fault reaches the free surface (black lines), (2) same as (1) but dipping is 10° (green dashed lines), (3) same as (1) but fault is 4 km deeper (blue dashed lines), (4) dipping angle is 10° and depth is 4 km (red lines). Sub-figure 1.a) is horizontal deformation (taken positive in the eastern direction), 1.b) is vertical.

source of tsunami excitation. We observe that for a fault plane reaching the trench (Figure III.1.b), the uplift amplitude doubles when considering a dip angle of 10° instead of 5° (this is because $sin(10^\circ) \approx 2sin(5^\circ)$). The vertical displacement field is also extremely sensitive to depth variations : peak amplitudes are two (for a dip of 10°) or three (for a dip of 5°) times larger when the fault plane is placed at 4 km depth than at the surface. Indeed, in the case of an embedded fault (top edge at 4 km) the horizontal motion is resisted elastically by the surrounding medium and is translated into vertical motion. On the other hand, when the top of the fault is at the surface, the horizontal motion is not limited by the free surface so that no, or much less, horizontal motion translates into vertical motion. The effect of the dip on the horizontal component (Figure III.1.a) is much lower (because $cos(10^\circ) \approx cos(5^\circ)$), but horizontal displacement field appears to be extremely depth dependent : peak amplitudes are three to four times larger for ruptures at the surface.

These simple tests highlight that the vertical deformation field generated by shallow dislocation is very sensitive to both depth and dip angle while the horizontal is extremely sensitive to depth. They also indicate that for subduction zones presenting a shallow dipping slab interface, such as the Tohoku slab region, the relative contribution of horizontal deformation to the total ocean elevation might become much larger because a wide region will combine low dip angle and shallow depth, resulting in both a lower contribution of the vertical deformation and a larger contribution of the bathymetry effect.

2.2 Calculation of the bathymetry effect

The contribution of horizontal motion combined with bathymetry to water elevation induced by an offshore earthquake is given by equation III-1 [*Tanioka and Satake*, 1996] :

$$BE = -\frac{\partial\beta}{\partial x}u_x - \frac{\partial\beta}{\partial y}u_y \tag{III-1}$$

where β is the bathymetry, u_x and u_y are the displacements generated by the earthquake on the east and north directions respectively.

As discussed in the previous section, large discrepancies exist in the displacement fields generated by different earthquakes such that u_x , u_y and the vertical displacement u_z will take very different values depending on the fault geometry. We detail here the calculation of the BE for a synthetic rectangular fault source offshore Miyagi and Iwate prefectures (Figure III.2). 1 m of co-seismic slip is imposed homogeneously along a 210 × 75 km² rectangular fault. The fault contours are drawn in black in Figure III.2. The fault parameters ϕ , δ , λ (strike, dip, rake angles respectively) are imposed at $\phi = 188^{\circ}$, $\delta = 6^{\circ}$ (to mimic the SLAB1.0 model [*Hayes et al.*, 2012] in the region) and $\lambda = 90^{\circ}$ to model pure dip-slip (as strike-slip motion is generally low in subduction context and does not generate strong tsunami excitation anyway).

Considering the above parameters (low δ and $\phi \approx 180^{\circ}$), the displacement field generated by this synthetic source is mainly oriented in the east direction, resulting in amplitudes in u_x several times larger than both in u_y and u_z (Figure III.2.a-c, be aware of the different color scale used for u_x). The bathymetry gradient - that we derived from the JTOPO30v2 500 m resolution topography data of the Marine information Research Center of the Japan Hydrographic Association (http://www.mirc.jha.jp/products/JTOPO30v2/) - also presents larger amplitudes in the east direction (Figure III.2.d-e, note that the color scale is saturated at -0.2 but the gradient reaches -0.5 locally) because the trench is mainly oriented north-south. As a result, the calculation of the BE is dominated by the first term in equation (1) (Figure



Figure III.2 – Calculation of the BE induced by a 1 m homogeneous slip along a 210 × 75 km² fault in the shallow megathrust part of the Meiji-Sanriku subduction zone. Fault parameters are : $\phi = 188^{\circ}$, $\delta = 6^{\circ}$, $\lambda = 90^{\circ}$ (pure dip-slip). Fault location is shown in all sub-figures (long black squares). a) Along east sea-floor displacement field generated by the fault dislocation : u_z . b) Along north sea-floor displacement field : u_y . c) Vertical sea-floor displacement field : u_z . d) Bathymetry gradient along east (bathymetry grid resolution is 500 m) : $\frac{\partial \beta}{\partial x}$. e) Bathymetry gradient along north : $\frac{\partial \beta}{\partial y}$. f) Unfiltered bathymetry effect along east : $-u_x \frac{\partial \beta}{\partial x}$. f) Unfiltered bathymetry effect along north : $-u_y \frac{\partial \beta}{\partial y}$. h) Unfiltered total bathymetry effect : $-u_x \frac{\partial \beta}{\partial x} - u_y \frac{\partial \beta}{\partial y}$. i) Residual from the $1/\cosh(kh)$ spatial filter. j) Filtered bathymetry effect.

III.2.f), the second one being negligible (Figure III.2.e, plotted with a different color scale). The addition of the two terms reveals a short wavelength pattern (Figure III.2.h) related to the high resolution of the bathymetry. But the smallest scale features of this field are then filtered with $1/\cosh(kh)$ spatial filter to take into account the attenuation of the high wave number perturbations by the water column (k is the wave number and h the thickness of the column) [Kajiura, 1963] (Figure III.2.i). The final BE distribution obtained (Figure III.2.j) reveals amplitudes which are in general on the order of vertical deformation (Figure III.2.c) but locally even larger. In the particular region of Miyagi-Iwate, the BE is especially large and induces much larger tsunami excitation. This region is an extreme example because it combines shallow slab interface and steep bathymetry but it is interesting to note that the reported inundations at the coast of Miyagi and Iwate were significantly larger than what is predicted by co-seismic slip models of the M8.5 1896 Meiji-Sanriku [Kanamori, 1972] and for the $M_w 9.0$ 2011 Tohoku-Oki earthquakes [Melgar and Bock, 2013; Satake et al., 2013]. However, it is likely that some of these anomalously large inundations may be related to propagation effects due to the very complex bathymetry and topography of the coast in this part of the Japanese Pacific coast [Melgar and Bock, 2013; Shimozono et al., 2012, 2014].

Because the dip angle of subduction megathrust faults and their bathymetry gradients vary significantly from one subduction to another, we evaluate the contribution of the BE for the main subduction zones of the world (Figure III.S1). We apply the method described above, except that we rely on a dense distribution of cross-section profiles (following SLAB1.0 models [Hayes et al., 2012]) instead of finite sub-faults, in order adjust the sometimes-rough variations in strike angles. BE is calculated for a homogeneous 1 m slip source on the different megathrusts. We then interpolate the bathymetry effect obtained on these cross-section profiles. The contribution of the BE is then evaluated as a percentage of the total tsunami excitation : $BE/(u_z + BE)$. The results (Figure III.3) show that BE is a non-negligible part of tsunami excitation in all the main subduction zones (contribution exceeds 10% locally in all the zones) and exceeds 25% of the total tsunami excitation over wide areas of the Honshu, Kamchatka, Alaska, Nankai, Ryukyu, Scotia, Peru, Sumatra and Java subduction zones (Figure III.3). Except for the case of the Scotia arc, these regions are all known to experience mega- and/or tsunamiearthquakes. Thus, BE is likely important for all shallow earthquakes, but it is particularly critical for the simulation of tsunami induced in the aforementioned regions where it exceeds 25%. We also observe large along-strike variations of the contribution of BE in tsunami excitation (Figure III.3), which in addition to changing the amplitude, might distort the distribution of the slip imaged if the BE is not included in the inversion.



2.3 Importance of BE in the calculation of tsunami Green's functions

We showed that BE could be significant on a megathrust combining a shallow dipping interface and a steep bathymetry. We now evaluate how it affects the prediction of tsunami time series.

We consider a set of 5 square sub-faults at different depths (Figure III.4). The sub-faults parameters are the same as in the previous section : $\phi = 188^{\circ}$, $\delta = 6^{\circ}$, $\lambda = 90^{\circ}$ (pure dipslip), their size is $15 \times 15 \ km^2$. We compute both the tsunami excitation considering in the first case only the vertical displacement and in the second case the vertical displacement with the BE contribution. We then apply the 1/cosh(kh) filter mentioned above and propagate the obtained tsunami excitation patterns using the simulation code NEOWAVE [Yamazaki et al., 2009, 2011b]. This code is based on the shallow water equations and describes dispersive waves through the non-hydrostatic pressure and vertical velocity (dispersion becomes non-negligible at distant stations such as DARTs). We compare the obtained water level time series at the pressure gauge station TM1, the tsunami record the closest to the sources, for the 5 different sub-faults. We see in Figure III.4, that for the shallowest sub-faults, the addition of BE can double the amplitude signal at station TM1. This order of magnitude is larger than what was found by *Tanioka and Satake* [1996] and *Satake et al.* [2013] but can be explained by (1) the difference in sub-fault sizes and (2) the choice of dip angle of the shallow slab interface made in the different studies : Green's functions (GF) shown in Figure III.4 are calculated for a shallow sub-fault with a dip angle of 6° while the lower dip angle considered by Satake et al. [2013] is 8°. As shown in Figure III.1, dip angle variations of this order lead to large changes in the generated horizontal motion and consequently in the BE calculation.

We calculate the spectra of the different GF to investigate the impact of the BE on the frequency content of the time series (Figure III.4). We observe that the spectra are not much affected by BE. This comes from the spatial filter we apply to mimic the water column attenuation (see section 2.2). This filter removes wavelengths shorter than 3 times the water depth (h) [Kajiura, 1963]. For 15 × 15 km² sub-faults, both the vertical deformation field and the BE contain wavelengths shorter than this cut-off (we clearly see in Figure III.2 that the vertical deformation field contains shorter wavelengths than the sub-fault width). Thus, the minimum period we can expect in tsunami GF can be expressed in function of h and v the wave velocity :

$$T_{min} = \frac{3h}{v} \tag{III-2}$$



Figure III.4 – Importance of the BE in the GF for a set of 15 km long square sub-faults at station TM1 (sub-faults and TM1 locations are shown in top left sub-figure). Colors correspond to sub-faults depths. For each sub-fault, top sub-figures show sea surface deformation profiles across the dashed purple line shown in the map with (blue), without (red) BE and their difference (green); center sub-figures show associated GF time series calculated taking BE into account (blue curves) and not taking it into account (red ones). Bottom sub-figures show the respective spectrum of each sub-fault GF.

Under the shallow water approximation (which is valid at these depths and distances) :

$$v = \sqrt{gh} \tag{III-3}$$

with g the gravitational acceleration. Hence :

$$T_{min} = 3\sqrt{\frac{h}{v}} \tag{III-4}$$

For near-trench sub-faults, where the BE is the largest, the water depth is over 7 km, meaning that the minimum period we can model in GF is about 80 s and the maximum frequency 0.0125 Hz, which explains the spectra cut-off and waveforms similarity in Figure III.4. Even though the frequency content is very similar, for sub-faults 4 and 5, the first wave arrival is significantly delayed when neglecting BE (the delay for all shallow sub-faults in Figure III.S2 varies from 20 s to 1 min). This is because horizontal deformation extends farther (west in our case) than the vertical deformation (see Figure III.2.a compared to III.2.c) : for the sub-faults the closest to the trench a large positive contribution of the BE is added to the negative contribution of u_z west of the sub-faults (see Figure III.2.c and top sub-figures in Figure III.4), and causes the wave front to arrive earlier. As absolute tsunami arrival times are a critical constrain on the inverted slip models, the BE has the potential to distort the solution of finite-fault inversions.

The potentially very strong amplification of the tsunami by the BE has several important implications. First, flat slab regions should not be considered as associated with lower tsunami hazard because the BE is particularly large in these regions and compensate for the lower contribution of vertical sea-floor deformation. Then, neglecting the BE in forward simulations, e.g. in the critical case of tsunami-early warning, can lead to important errors. Moreover, the BE has likely a major impact on source inversions as it affects tsunami GF both in amplitude and phase. We now focus on this last implication, taking as a case study the 2011, M_w 9.0 Tohoku-Oki earthquake, which is currently the best-recorded large shallow slip event.

3 Importance of BE on slip inversions

Hooper et al. [2013], *Satake et al.* [2013] and *Romano et al.* [2014] illustrated the importance of BE by directly comparing tsunami data predictions with and without BE. But slip inversion is an ill-conditioned problem meaning that small errors in the data or in the GF can have a large impact on the solution. Here, we propose to test the influence of the BE on the inversion

process. To do so, we use the TO earthquake as a test case and perform two separate slip inversions of tsunami data : in the first case using GF accounting for BE and in the second case not accounting for BE. In both cases, we use the fault discretization of *Bletery et al.* [2014] : a 3D fault geometry mimicking the SLAB1.0 model, which allows each sub-faults to match the free surface at the trench while matching the changes in dip angle of the megathrust interface. Sub-faults are square fault planes of $15 \times 15 \ km^2$ in the top 10 km, and of $30 \times 30 \ km^2$ in the deeper part of the slab interface (Figure III.S2). We choose to refine the grid in the shallow part because the timing and frequency content of the different sub-faults GF can clearly be resolved in the data (for instance looking at the wave arrival times for neighboring sub-faults in Figure III.4). We calculate the tsunami excitation for unit dislocations of pure dip-slip and pure strike-slip for 187 sub-faults using the formulation of *Okada* [1985]. We then apply a 1/cosh(kh)space filter [*Kajiura*, 1963] and calculate the predicted tsunami time series for each sub-fault at each tsunami station using the NEOWAVE simulation code described above.

3.1 Data

We use 15 time series of the tsunami wave height at different points of measurement from 4 DART (Deep-ocean Assessment and Reporting of Tsunamis) buoys (21418, 21401, 21413, 21419), 6 GPS buoys (GPS801, GPS802, GPS803, GPS804, GPS806, GPS807), 2 pressure gauges (TM1, TM2) and 3 cables (KPG1, KPG2, HPG). DART records are provided by the NOAA National Geophysical Data Center (http://ngdc.noaa.gov/hazard/dart/2011honshu_dart.html) and have a sampling rate of 1 min. GPS buoys are given by the NOWPHAS system (http://nowphas.mlit.go.jp/info_eng.html) and have a sampling rate of 5 s. Pressure gauge records are described by *Maeda et al.* [2011]. Cables data are downloaded from the JAMSTEC cabled observatories web site (http://www.jamstec.go.jp/scdc/top_e.html), their sampling rate is very high frequency (1Hz), but we band-pass filter them between 2 min and 50 min to eliminate the effect of wind waves and tides. Stations locations are shown in Figures III.5 and III.6. Their azimuthal coverage is very good (see rose diagrams in Figure III.5). In particular, DART stations provide the only robust information east of the source. Cables stations bound the propagation to the North and pressure gauges and GPS buoys provide records west and close to the source.

3.2 Inversion Procedure

We invert the aforementioned data set to estimate the slip distribution best explaining these observations. We choose to treat transmi observations as kinematic data since, as shown by *Satake et al.* [2013], the static approximation can lead to significant bias in the inverted slip

distribution when based on relatively near-field tsunami data. Our kinematic modeling follows the approach described by [*Delouis et al.*, 2002]. The model hypocenter is - based on a seismic waveform and GPS inversion - imposed at 38.15°N, 142.61°E and at a depth of 16.5 km (the depth imposed by seismic analysis is 24.5 km but we translate the whole fault geometry so that it matches the free surface at the trench depth). For each sub-fault, a local source time function is defined, corresponding to the rate of seismic moment locally released. It is represented by seven mutually overlapping isoscele triangular functions of 12 s duration, allowing the local source time function to last for a maximum of 48 s. For each of the 187 sub-faults, the parameters inverted are the slip onset time, the rake angle, and the amplitudes of the seven triangular functions. Rupture onset times are bounded according to a minimum and a maximum rupture velocity of 1.1 and 3.1 km/s respectively. The rake angle can vary between 60° and 120° in order to smoothly compensate the significant strike variations along the fault. A non-linear inversion of the aforementioned data is performed using a simulated annealing optimization algorithm. The convergence criterion is based on the simultaneous minimization of the root mean square (RMS) data misfit and of the total seismic moment. Data are weighted in order to compensate for their relative amplitudes (see Table 1).

3.3 Neglecting the bathymetry effect can induce large over-prediction of the inverted slip distribution

Both inversions, performed using GF accounting for BE (model BE) and using GF not accounting for BE (model NOBE), reveal slip distributions dominated by shallow slip with very large amplitudes (60 m) up to the free surface (Figure III.S3). An isolated patch is present in both slip models (Figure III.S3), on the southwestern edge of the fault plane. As shown in Figure III.S4, because of the lack of observations between stations 801 and 806, tsunami response to sub-fault dislocation in this area is 8 times smaller in terms of amplitude (GF norms) than in the best-constrained fault area, resulting in a low sensitivity relative to other areas on the interface. Additionally, because this part of the fault is deep, it generates a very low frequency tsunami signal (frequency is not taken into account in the sensitivity calculation of Figure III.S4), which is much less constraining than the higher-frequency GF generated by shallow sub-fault dislocation. This implies that the inherent resolution of this deep patch is even lower than what the sensitivity map suggests (Figure III.S4). We check the effect of this patch on the predicted waveforms and found that it only adds a very low frequency component to the nearby gps801 and gps806 stations and marginally improves the fit : deep source dislocations do not generate large tsunami [*Okal*, 2004], thus resolution of tsunami data on source models



Figure III.5 – a) Slip model obtained by inversion of tsunami data using Green's functions ignoring BE (model NOBE) (after removing the artifact discussed in the main text). Rose diagram at the top left of the figure shows station azimuthal coverage. b) Slip model obtained by inversion of tsunami data using Green's functions ignoring BE (model BE) (after removing the artifact). c) Difference : model NOBE - model BE.

dramatically decreases with depth. For this reason, we consider this patch as an artifact of the inversion and remove it from both slip models for the sake of clarity (Figure III.5.a and III.5.b). While the contribution of this artifact to the solution is negligible, at least in terms of contribution to the total seismic moment, its presence illustrates the inability of tsunami data to resolve long wavelength deformation patterns due to deep sources close to the coast.

Assuming a shear modulus of 45 GPa, the seismic moment associated with the slip model accounting for BE (model BE) is $M_0 = 5.1 \times 10^{22}$ N.m ($M_w = 9.1$) and $M_0 = 6.3 \times 10^{22} N.m$ ($M_w = 9.2$) for the model NOBE (for both models the artifact was removed from the calculation). The seismic moment associated with model BE is 21% larger than what found *Satake et al.* [2013] ($M_0 = 4.2 \times 10^{22}$ N.m) and the one associated with model NOBE 50% larger. Model BE (Figure III.5.b) is very similar to the slip model obtained by *Bletery et al.* [2014] performing a joint inversion of a large number of different data (GPS, high-rate GPS, strong-motion, teleseimic and the same tsunami records), which indicates that tsunami data is critical to constrain offshore ruptures with shallow slip.

A detailed discussion on the TO physical rupture process is not in the scope of this study, but

we show on an indicative basis the rupture history obtained from the slip inversion including BE (Figure III.S5). We find a rupture duration of 140 s, with the downdip spurious patch interpreted as an artifact appearing late in the sequence. Another patch along the southern edge of the fault geometry, because it is small and isolated from the rest of the slip distribution might also be an artifact. But although co-seismic slip in this southern part of the fault is in debate [*Bletery et al.*, 2014; *Kato and Igarashi*, 2012], tsunami sensitivity is too low in this area (because of the lack of observation South of the source area) (Figure III.S4) to make any conclusive statement. The delayed large shallow slip found north of the fault in the kinematic tsunami inversion performed by *Satake et al.* [2013] is absent of both slip distributions obtained accounting or not for BE (Figure III.5). We can point out here that because the most constraining information brought by tsunami data is the timing of the first phase, the resolution decreases with time as waves arriving later can be explained by slip in many other parts of the megathrust. Thus, the tsunami data available might not be able to bring a definitive argument on the debate of a possible delayed source.

The difference between Figures III.5.a and III.5.b illustrates the impact of the BE on the slip distribution inferred using the tsunami observations of TO (Figure III.5.c). The slip difference is concentrated in the shallowest 10 km of the megathrust where it reaches 20 m locally. Interestingly, the larger discrepancy is not strictly observed at the trench, where BE is the largest, but it is found in an area where there is both large slip amplitudes (Figure III.5.a, III.5.b) and high sensitivity (Figure III.S4). Because finite-fault source inversion is an ill-conditioned problem, changes in GF on one sub-fault can also affect slip at other distant sub-faults depending on their respective sensitivity. The correlation between the models discrepancy and the sensitivity map reflects that in an inverse problem the adjustment is made preferentially on well-resolved parameters : sub-faults with high sensitivity have more impact on the fit of the data. We think this is the main explanation but the time shift of the GF caused by the BE might also distort the solution.

The large discrepancy between model NOBE and model BE is way too large to neglect the BE in the simulation of tsunami waves initiated by shallow ruptures. And as slip inversions in subduction zones are almost always only constrained in their shallowest part by tsunami observations (e.g. *Yokota et al.* [2011], *Wei et al.* [2012], *Hill et al.* [2012], *Bletery et al.* [2014]), neglecting BE in joint inversion of offshore earthquakes is likely to affect the inverted slip distributions in a similar manner as in this tsunami-only example.

3.4 Data fit and resolution tests

We find that the two slip models obtained by inversion with / without BE produce very similar fit to the data (Figure III.6) (Figure III.6 shows the tsunami fit after removing the marginal effect of the coastal artifact patch). Indeed, model BE only slightly improves the fit compared to model NOBE. This means that the difference in the GF is mainly accommodated in terms of shallow slip distribution (Figure III.5.c). The slight difference in the fit comes from changes in arrival time of some GF (illustrated in Figure III.4), which modify the solution space. The sea surface deformations associated with these predictions are shown in Figure III.S6. It confirms, as suggested by the larger amplitudes in the waveforms predicted by model BE that the BE more than compensate the smaller moment associated with model BE compared to model NOBE : model NOBE predicts more slip but less sea surface deformation because of the importance of the BE close to the trench.

To support this result we perform a resolution test (Figure III.S7). The target pattern is made of $60 \times 60 \ km^2$ patches (Figure III.S7.a) and the synthetic data are computed considering BE. Then, we invert these synthetic data using GF accounting for BE (Figure III.S7.b), or not accounting for it (figure III.S7.c). We find that when we do not introduce prediction errors in the GF (accounting for BE), the pattern is very well recovered (Figure III.S7.b). When we introduce prediction errors by removing the BE, the slip amplitudes in the shallowest part of the slab interface are 50 to 100% larger. This level of amplification confirms the large potential bias introduced in the recovered slip distribution.

The aforementioned similarity of the waveforms predicted by models BE and NOBE comes from the absence of independent observations. Indeed, when inverted jointly with a large number of other observations, tsunami data are better adjusted when accounting for the BE [*Bletery et al.*, 2014]. This suggests that taking the BE into account improves the consistency of tsunami modeling with independent observations.

3.5 Ability of the tsunami-based model to predict the geodetic measurements

In order to evaluate the consistency of the bathymetry effect, we compute the coseismic displacements predicted by our two inverted slip models - model NOBE (Figure III.5.a) and model BE (Figure III.5.b) (after removing the artifact) - and compare them to GPS and seafloor geodesy measurements. We use the same simple rheology as in our tsunami GF calculations in order to simplify the comparison of the models predictions. GPS offsets are provided by



Figure III.6 – Comparison between observed (blue) and predicted tsunami data obtained by inversions accounting for BE (orange) and not (green). In both cases predicted data are calculated after removing the artifact as discussed in the main text. Stations locations are shown in the bottom right figure. Colors correspond to data type.


Figure III.7 – Comparison between geodesy measurements (blue) and synthetic data predicted by model NOBE (green) and model BE (orange). Left is horizontal, right is vertical. The colored map is the difference between the two slip models. We notice a better prediction of seafloor geodesy data for model BE.

the ARIA (Advanced Rapid Imaging and Analysis) team at the Jet Propulsion Laboratory / California Institute of Technology and seafloor geodesy measurements by *Sato et al.* [2011] and *Kido et al.* [2011].

The slip model NOBE leads to important over prediction of the seafloor geodesy records while the slip model BE succeeds in explaining the amplitudes of these records (Figure III.7). This improvement in the fit of the geodetic records - not included in the inversion - is a strong evidence of the improvement brought by the BE in the computation of the tsunami GF and in the resolution of the slip model. And the better fit of the geodetic data comes in addition to the improvement of the fit to the tsunami waveforms as discussed above.

For both models however, the orientation of the seafloor geodetic displacement vectors is not well recovered. This is probably due to a poor estimation of the slip rake angles on the different sub-faults (Figure III.S3) as strike-slip motion doesn't produce as much tsunami excitation as dip-slip motion, and is thus not well resolved. Another explanation for the misfit of the seafloor geodetic measurements is the contamination of the data by pre- and post-seismic signals : the seafloor geodetic measurements include a strong foreshocks sequence - including a Mw7.4 event - localized very close to the stations [*Nettles et al.*, 2011] - and between 16 and 31 days of post-seismic signal [*Kido et al.*, 2011; *Sato et al.*, 2011]. The predicted orientation of the horizontal motion is much better for on-land GPS stations for both slip models probably due to their greater distance to the source which forces the GPS vector azimuths to be compatible with the average orientation, and not the details, of the slip model. Model BE slightly under-predicts the on-land observations compared to model NOBE. This discrepancy is probably due to the inability of tsunami records to precisely resolve deep slip, with the NOBE model artificially compensating by larger slip amplitudes near the surface because it doesn't include the BE.

This interpretation is also coherent with the fact that the predicted vertical offsets are in relatively good agreement with seafloor geodetic measurements for model BE but significantly and systematically larger for slip model NOBE. On-land GPS vertical prediction is poor for both models as expected from the low sensitivity of tsunami data to deep slip : vertical displacement is directly sensitive to slip beneath the stations while horizontal deformation tends to affect a much wider area (see Figure III.4.a and III.4.c).

If we try to quantify the misfit by calculating the normalized RMS (Root Mean Square) of the error on the prediction of geodetic measurements (equation III-5),

$$RMS = \sqrt{\sum \frac{(observed - predicted)^2}{observed^2}}$$
(III-5)

we obtain a much better fit (RMS=0.23) for model BE than for model NOBE (RMS=0.38). This pleads again for a significant improvement brought by the bathymetry effect in the estimation of the solid Earth-ocean coupling and the inference of the coseismic slip model using tsunami data.

4 Conclusion

The development of tsunami instrumentation has brought critical constrain on offshore coseismic deformation and dramatically improved the resolution of subduction earthquake slip models close to the trench. However, this gain in resolution comes with the need to more accurately model the associated GF, in particular in the shallow portion of the megathrusts, where the tsunami sensitivity is the highest. *Tanioka and Satake* [1996] showed the contribution of horizontal motion to the tsunami generation could be significant in this particular shallow

portion. A series of studies suggested that the effect was particularly large for the $M_w 9.0$ Tohoku-Oki earthquake [Hooper et al., 2013; Romano et al., 2014; Satake et al., 2013]. Yet, the computation of BE has been overlooked in many other studies. Here, we detailed the steps involved in the calculation of BE and show that this effect is non-negligible - locally exceeds 10% of the total tsunami excitation - in all the main subduction zones and significant - locally exceeds 25% of total tsunami excitation - in many of them. Areas exceeding 25% are particularly wide in the Sumatra, Java, Honshu, Kamchatka and Alaska subductions, all known to generate giant and/or tsunami earthquakes. The addition of an effect of this order is likely to induce strong change in the amplitude of the predicted tsunami waveforms, further implying that the BE should be included in forward simulations, including in the case of early-warning, and in the inversions relying on tsunami data. This later statement is valid for both tsunami-only and joint inversions (i.e. based on several data sets) as there is still no network capable of constraining the shallow slip equivalent to the existing tsunami open-ocean pressure sensor network.

To support our conclusion, we computed the perturbation due to the BE in tsunami prediction for different synthetic sources offshore Honshu and showed that for the shallowest sources : (1) BE is on the order of the contribution of the vertical deformation and (2) BE can even shift the timing of the wavefront. The time shifts tend to be relatively small in the case of forward simulations, but enough to induce differences in finite-fault inversions. We took advantage of the unprecedented quality and coverage of tsunami records for the M_w 9.0 Tohoku-Oki earthquake to show that, in the context of this event, neglecting BE can introduce large slip over-prediction (>30% locally) in source inversion over a wide zone ($\approx 80 \times 80 \ km^2$ in this case) (Figure III.5). Additionally, we find that accounting for BE significantly improves the consistency between geodetic and tsunami measurements, which is a strong evidence that the BE improves tsunami GF accuracy.





Figure III.S2 – 3D fault discretization used in our joint inversion built to follow *Hayes et al.* [2012]'s slab localization. Each point represents the center of sub-faults. Special care is given to the shallow part because of tsunami near-field sensitivity. Top edges of sub-faults along the trench all match the free surface at the trench depth.



Figure III.S3 – a) Slip inversion inferred from tsunami data computed with GF considering BE. b) Same slip inversion computed with GF not including BE. Red star is hypocenter location (see text). Near-field tsunami stations are shown as triangles : blue are GPS buoys, red are pressure gauges, yellow are cables. DARTs locations are shown in Figure 6. Slip directions on each sub-faults are indicated by white arrows.



Figure III.S4 – Sensitivity map of tsunami GF. Color is proportional to the weighted root mean square (see weight description in Table 1) of the computed GF time series for each sub-fault. We find a factor 8 between the most and the least sensitive sub-faults. Note that timing and frequency also have important impact on the inherent sensitivity of the different parts of the fault but are not reflected in this test and figure.



Figure III.S5 – Cumulative rupture snapshots with 10 s time windows obtained by slip inversion accounting for BE during the first 140 s.



Figure III.S6 -a) Sea surface deformation associated with model NOBE. b) Sea surface deformation associated with model BE. c) Difference between a) and b).



Figure III.S7 – Tsunami response to target patchwork (a) is computed considering BE. b) Recovered patchwork obtained by inversion of these synthetic data considering GF calculated using BE. c) Recovered patchwork of the same synthetic data but inverted with GF calculated not considering BE. We see that the patchwork is recovered in each case, but with important amplitude discrepancy in the Northern shallow part when neglecting BE.

Chapitre IV

Quantifier les incertitudes sur les modèles de source par approche Bayésienne du problème inverse : Application au séisme de Sumatra-Andaman.

Nous avons vu, dans les chapitres précédents, qu'inclure un grand nombre de données complémentaires dans des inversions jointes et améliorer la modélisation physique du problème direct réduit l'incertitude sur les modèles de source. Cette réduction peut être vue comme un rétrécissement de l'espace des solutions et donc de la non-unicité du problème. Cependant, le problème admet toujours un grand nombre de solutions et déterminer la « meilleure » n'est pas une approche satisfaisante du problème inverse. Le problème n'admet en réalité pas *une solution* mais *un espace solution. La solution* déterminée par les méthodes d'optimisation n'en est qu'une parmi un grand nombre d'autres expliquant les observations de manière satisfaisante, étant données les incertitudes sur les mesures et les fonctions de Green. L'approche Bayésienne du problème inverse vise, elle, à déterminer l'ensemble de *l'espace solution* en attribuant une probabilité à chaque modèle basée sur sa capacité à expliquer les observations.

Nous appliquons, dans ce dernier chapitre, cette approche probabiliste au séisme géant $(M_w 9.1-9.3)$ de Sumatra-Andaman survenu le 26 Décembre 2004. Ce séisme constitue une cible privilégiée de par sa magnitude exceptionnelle et la variété des modèles de source obtenus par inversion de jeux de données relativement disparates. Nous nous focalisons sur les données géodésiques et tsunami, les données sismologiques étant rendues difficilement exploitables par la longueur de la rupture (de l'ordre de 500 sec) qui rend les ondes directes et réfléchies difficilement discernables les unes des autres. De, plus l'inclusion de données sismologiques nécessite de traiter un problème cinématique, ce qui augmente très significativement le nombre d'inconnues

et complexifie grandement l'exploration Bayésienne. Nous incluons néanmoins un grand nombre de données tirées de différentes études dans une inversion jointe pour imager le glissement cosismique dans une Terre sphérique à couche. Nous estimons l'espace des solutions acceptables pour ce séisme en essayant de prendre en compte les sources d'incertitudes associées aux différentes données et leurs corrélations. Toutes les données n'ont pas observé exactement la même source : les données tsunami ne sont sensibles qu'aux premières minutes suivant le séisme alors que les données géodésiques ont enregistré un long signal post-sismique. La structure d'erreur des données géodésiques doit donc prendre en compte d'importantes corrélations entre les différentes mesures. Nous considérons des structures d'erreurs complexes associées aux incertitudes sur les mesures, les fonctions de Green, la contamination post-sismique et l'estimation de la cinématique de la rupture (pour les données tsunami). Le formalisme Bayésien nous permet alors d'estimer l'espace des solutions sous forme de fonctions densité de probabilité sur chaque paramètre et de discriminer différents scénarios. Nous obtenons un ensemble relativement large de modèles de source qui semble néanmoins imposer de fortes valeurs de glissement (≥ 40 m) comparables à celles observées pour le séisme de Tohoku-Oki. Cette partie a été réalisée en collaboration avec Anthony Sladen, Junle Jiang et Mark Simons et soumise à Journal of Geophysical Research - Solid Earth, sous le titre : « A Bayesian source model for the 2004 great Sumatra-Andaman earthquake ».

The 2004 M_w 9.1-9.3 Sumatra-Andaman earthquake is one of the largest earthquakes of the modern instrumental era. Despite considerable efforts to analyze this event, the different available observations have proven difficult to reconcile in a single finite-fault slip model. In particular, the critical near-field geodetic records contain variable and significant post-seismic signal (between 2 weeks' and 2 months' worth) while the satellite altimetry records of the associated tsunami are affected by various sources of uncertainties (e.g., source rupture velocity and meso-scale oceanic currents). In this study, we investigate the quasi-static slip distribution of the Sumatra-Andaman earthquake by carefully accounting for the different sources of uncertainties in the joint inversion of available geodetic and tsunami data. To this end, we use non-diagonal covariance matrices reflecting both observational and modeling uncertainties in a fully Bayesian inversion framework. Modeling errors can be particularly large for great earthquakes. Here, we consider a layered spherical Earth for the static displacement field, non-hydrostatic equations for the tsunami and account for the 3D curvature of the megathrust interface to alleviate some of the potential epistemic uncertainties. The Bayesian framework then enables us to derive families of possible models compatible with the unevenly distributed and sometimes ambiguous measurements. We infer two regions of high fault slip at 3°N-4°N and 7°N-8°N with amplitudes that likely reach values as large as 40 m and possibly larger. Such high values of fault slip were not previously inferred - potentially an outcome of commonly assumed forms of regularization. Finally, we find that fault rupture very likely involved shallow slip. Within the resolution provided by the existing data, we cannot rule out the possibility that fault rupture reached the trench.

1 Introduction

The 2004 M_w 9.1-9.3 Sumatra-Andaman earthquake ruptured along a fault segment over 1300 km long, initiating offshore northern Sumatra and propagating unilaterally northward beyond the Andaman islands (see review paper of *Shearer and Bürgmann* [2010] and references therein). The earthquake induced a massive tsunami responsible for casualties and damages along most of the coasts surrounding the Indian Ocean. The total duration of this exceptionally long earthquake was estimated from high-frequency seismology to be approximately 500 sec

[Ishii et al., 2005; Krüger and Ohrnberger, 2005; Ni et al., 2005; Yao et al., 2013]. Such a long duration made conventional teleseismic body wave inversions for the distribution of fault slip difficult because of the interference between direct and reflected waves. Surface waves [Ammon et al., 2005] and normal modes [Clévédé et al., 2012; Park et al., 2005; Stein and Okal, 2005] were also used to analyze the source, but the information content of low-frequency records is inherently much lower than high-frequency records and thus only provided low resolution source models.

Geodetic data provided additional contraints on the inferred spatial distributions of fault slip [Banerjee et al., 2005; Catherine et al., 2005; Hashimoto et al., 2006; Vigny et al., 2005], in particular near-field campaign Global Positioning System (GPS) data [Banerjee et al., 2007; Chlieh et al., 2007; Gahalaut et al., 2006; Pietrzak et al., 2007; Rhie et al., 2007; Subarya et al., 2006]. However, these near-field records contain, to varying extent, significant post-seismic signal, which induced large - and often neglected - uncertainties in the inferred co-seismic slip models.

Records of the tsunami from distant tide gauges, also provides constraints on the slip distribution. *Merrifield et al.* [2005] and *Lay et al.* [2005] extracted information from the first wave arrival by back-projection methods while *Tanioka et al.* [2006] and *Piatanesi and Lorito* [2007] tried to extract information from the full waveforms by performing finite-fault source inversions. However, the low sampling rate of the gauges combined with ambiguity on the stations clocks [*Lorito et al.*, 2010] and non-linearity in the tsunami wave propagation (essentially due to the shallow depths of the gauges) [*Piatanesi and Lorito*, 2007] strongly limit their utility. The tsunami was also recorded by satellite altimeters which observed water height anomalies in the Indian Ocean about 2 hours after the earthquake. These observations are in the deep ocean and thus minimally affected by non-linear propagation effects. *Ablain et al.* [2006], *Hirata et al.* [2006] and *Sladen and Hébert* [2008] demonstrated the utility of these observations, especially in the southern part of the rupture, and several studies included them in joint inversions together with tide gauge [*Fujii and Satake*, 2007] and geodetic data [*Hoechner et al.*, 2008; *Lorito et al.*, 2010].

The models obtained in all these studies exhibit a very extended co-seismic slip distribution initiating offshore northern Sumatra and ending, depending on the studies, at significantly different locations in the Andaman archipelago (from latitude 10°N to 14°N). Most models show two regions of large slip offshore northern Sumatra (latitude 3°N-4°N) and Nicobar Islands (latitude 7°N-9°N) with maximum amplitudes varying from one study to another (grossly from 10 m [*Ammon et al.*, 2005] to 40 m [*Rhie et al.*, 2007]). The moment magnitude derived from these models vary from M_w 9.0 to 9.3. An intriguing feature of this exceptional earthquake is the very slow rupture inferred at the northern end of the fault where low seismic radiation was detected [Ammon et al., 2005; Tsai et al., 2005; Vallée, 2007], but where large geodetic offsets were measured [Gahalaut et al., 2006] and intense aftershocks occurred (e.g., Lay et al. [2005]). The anomalously large low-frequency content in seismic records associated with a northward migration of the centroïd compared to the centroïd obtained from surface waves [Clévédé et al., 2012; Park et al., 2005; Stein and Okal, 2005] confirms that large co-seismic moment was released in this Andaman section. The atypical behavior of one near-field tide gauge at Port Blair (PB in Figure IV.1) suggests that the rise time could be on the order of 30 min [Singh et al., 2006], although this inference relies only on one observation. Such a long rise time would produce a tsunami of smaller amplitude and would be difficult to model since we have very little constraint on the exact slip history. One interpretation of these observations is that the slow rupture had an early fast slip component and then continued slipping slowly [Clévédé et al., 2012; Lay et al., 2005; Singh et al., 2006].

Because of the inherent challenges in modeling the seismic and tide gauge records, we focus this study on geodetic and tsunami data. The geodetic data are a compilation of different types of measurements : the data set of *Chlieh et al.* [2007] - including offsets obtained by GPS and altimetry as well as coral and geological measurements - complemented with far-field GPS data [*Banerjee et al.*, 2007; *Kreemer et al.*, 2006; *Vigny et al.*, 2005] and offsets obtained by hyperspectral images [*Smet et al.*, 2008]. The tsunami data consist of satellite altimetry observations [*Ablain et al.*, 2006]. To reduce epistemic uncertainties, we compute our Green's functions using a 3D fault geometry considering a spherical layered Earth and predict the tsunami data using the non-hydrostatic wave equations.

As mentioned earlier, a challenge arises in inverting the available geodetic data due to the different time windows of the offsets measurements, as most near-field measurements are contaminated by variable and significant amounts of post-seismic deformation. Previously, this complication was either neglected [Gahalaut et al., 2006; Subarya et al., 2006], treated by assuming large error bars [Pietrzak et al., 2007], roughly estimated from the few far-field continuous stations available [Banerjee et al., 2007; Chlieh et al., 2007] or considered sufficiently problematic that affected data were excluded [Lorito et al., 2010]. Here, we propose to extract relevant information from these data containing variable amounts of post-seismic displacement by taking into account their associated - sometimes spatially correlated - uncertainties (e.g., two nearby measurements affected by the same source of post-seismic deformation share coherent errors). To do so, we use non-diagonal covariance matrices reflecting both observational and modeling uncertainties in a fully Bayesian inversion framework in order to evaluate the range of possible slip models compatible with the observations.

Using a Bayesian formalism, we aim to answer some fundamental questions such as the likelihood that the rupture reached the surface or, more generally, to evaluate the ranges of possible fault slip amplitudes : many studies may have excluded solutions with very high slip amplitudes of 50-60 m, although such values were later documented or inferred in the case of the 2011 M_w 9.0 Tohoku-Oki earthquake (e.g., *Bletery et al.* [2014]; *Fujiwara et al.* [2011]; *Sato et al.* [2011]; *Simons et al.* [2011]). Refining our knowledge of the slip history of this large event is also essential to explain the impact of the tsunami along the coasts of the Indian Ocean [*Fritz and Borrero*, 2006; *Goff et al.*, 2006; *Okal et al.*, 2006] and discriminate source and propagation effects from local coastal effects which might still be at play in the case of future events (e.g., *Hébert et al.* [2007]).

2 Data

2.1 Geodetic data

We compile near-field GPS data from Jade et al. [2005], Subarya et al. [2006], and Gahalaut et al. [2006] which recorded co-seismic offsets very close to the fault. These measurements include between 16 and 58 days of post-seismic signal (Figure IV.1), which may represent a significant part of the total signal (see, for instance, the compilation of post-seismic estimates in Lin et al. [2013]). Near-field GPS data, their uncertainties and the extent of time following the earthquake spanned by the co-seismic data are summarized in Table S1. In addition to GPS, we include vertical near-field offsets measured on corals [Subarya et al., 2006], other sea surface height landmarks [Bilham et al., 2005], hyperspectral imagery [Smet et al., 2008] and the pivot line defined by altimetry [Meltzner et al., 2006]. Uncertainties and the temporal extent of postseismic deformation associated with these data are summarized in Table S2. Uncertainties on the data from Bilham et al. [2005] data are large. Altimetry images used to derive the pivot line were acquired as late as 90 days after the earthquake [Meltzner et al., 2006].

We also consider far-field horizontal GPS data from Vigny et al. [2005] and Banerjee et al. [2007]. Following the method of Banerjee et al. [2007], we retrieve the 5 days post-seismic estimate to the co-seismic solution of Vigny et al. [2005] in order to remove most of the post-seismic signal contained in their 14-days-average offsets. When offsets were also determined by Kreemer et al. [2006], we prefer these latter solutions because of the smaller associated uncertainties (see Table S3). The solutions of the different geodetic studies were all computed in the International Terrestrial Reference Frame (ITRF) 2000 and are thus consistent with each others. The location of all the far-field stations are shown in Figure IV.S1.



Figure IV.1 – Near-field measurements of co-seismic offsets. Inverted triangles are horizontal and vertical GPS measurements (except for stations R178, TELE and data sets from *Vigny et al.* [2005] and *Kreemer et al.* [2006] which are horizontal only). Circles are vertical-only measurements. When the datum contain post-seismic signal, the measurement time (in days) after the earthquake is given in brackets and represented in the bar plot at the right of the figure. s# and d# labels indicate patch numbers along strike and dip directions, respectively. The star indicate the epicenter (USGS).

2.2 Tsunami observations

Sea surface height anomalies were recorded by several satellite altimeters in different parts of the Indian Ocean [*Ablain et al.*, 2006]. Based on the signal-to-noise ratios of these time series, we restrict our analysis to records from Jason-1 and TOPEX-Poseidon satellites. These orbital tracks are relatively close to the source and provide snapshot profiles of the propagating tsunami about 2 hours after the earthquake. These altimeters measurements record the direct wave front in the southern part of the profiles and reflected waves in the north (Figure IV.2). Thus, they provide more constraints on the rupture of the southern half than on the rupture of the northern half of the fault plane.

As noted by *Piatanesi and Lorito* [2007], inversion of tide gauge data is a highly non-linear problem in the case of the Sumatra-Andaman earthquake as indicated by the large discrepancies between the prediction of the final model and the sum of the predictions of the individual subfaults. This problem was further highlighted by *Poisson et al.* [2011] who showed that tide gauges inversions [*Fujii and Satake*, 2007; *Piatanesi and Lorito*, 2007] provided a poorer fit on the tsunami height recorded by the Jason-1 satellite than geodetic and seismo-geodetic studies [*Banerjee et al.*, 2007; *Rhie et al.*, 2007]. The inconsistency likely comes from the shallow depth of the water where the tide gauges are located, which invalidates common approximations, and makes simulations oversensitive to bathymetry inaccuracies. Also, tide gauges are often sheltered far inside the harbors, which strongly affects the simulations because of the complex structure of the ports. Moreover, *Lorito et al.* [2010] found systematic inconsistencies in the arrival times at the different gauges and suggest that stations clocks might be inaccurate. Given all these issues, we choose to not include tide gauges in our inversion.

3 3D fault geometry and the computation of the Green's functions

We compute the theoretical deformation at the stations coordinates for 4459 rectangular subfaults (both for pure dip-slip and pure strike-slip dislocations) in a layered spherical Earth using the code STATIC1D - which is based on normal mode theory [*Pollitz*, 1996] - and the PREM Earth model [*Dziewonski and Anderson*, 1981]. The subfaults are square patches of 9.26 km on a side. To obtain sufficient numerical accuracy, we consider normal modes to harmonic degree 10,000. The coordinates of each slip patch (longitude, latitude, depth) as well as their dip δ and strike ϕ angles follow the SLAB1.0 Sumatra subduction model [*Hayes et al.*, 2012]. As this subduction model does not cover the northern Andaman area, we extended the model



Figure IV.2 – Water height anomaly recorded by satellite altimeters Jason-1 and TOPEX-Poseidon, approximately 2 hours after the mainshock is plotted with colored dots. Time of recording after the mainshock is indicated for the southern and northern most points for each satellite (tracks were ascending). The approximate tsunami wave field 2 hours after initiation is shown in black and white.

using tomography profiles of *Pesicek et al.* [2010]. To compute our Green's functions, we then add the contributions of the 4459 subfaults into 92 larger subfaults. These large subfaults are not exactly rectangles as δ and ϕ vary among the smaller component sources, but are rather 3D surfaces mimicking the geometrical complexities of the megathrust interface.

For the tsunami Green's functions, we first compute the ocean floor deformation - with a grid spacing of 40 arc seconds - for the same 4459 small subfaults as for geodetic predictions with the same code STATIC1D. As the contribution of horizontal motion (or bathymetry effect) is negligible in the Sumatra-Andaman subduction zone [*Bletery et al.*, 2015], we then consider the vertical ocean floor deformation field as the initial state of sea surface height disturbance and compute the tsunami wave propagation with the code NEOWAVE [*Yamazaki et al.*, 2009, 2011b]. This code is based on the non-hydrostatic wave equations and accounts for dispersive effects of short-period waves. The resulting Green's functions are then time-shifted depending on their respective distances to the hypocenter to account for the kinematics of the rupture propagation assuming a rupture velocity of 2.8 km/s determined from back-projection [*Ishii et al.*, 2005], as the technique was shown to reflect the rupture front propagation [*Avouac et al.*, 2015; *Okuwaki et al.*, 2014]. The hypocenter initiation time is taken to be 00 :58 :53 UTC (http://earthquake.usgs.gov).

4 Accounting for data and model uncertainties

4.1 The Bayesian framework

We use a Bayesian sampling approach to estimate the solution space of the slip models consistent with the data given the uncertainties we adopt on both the data and the Green's functions. This approach relies on the Cascading Adaptive Transitional Metropolis In Parallel (CATMIP) algorithm [*Minson et al.*, 2013] newly re-implemented in the code suite AlTar to exploit the high efficiency of Graphical Processing Units. The Probability Density Function (PDF) $p(\boldsymbol{m}|\boldsymbol{d}_{obs})$ of a sampled model \boldsymbol{m} is evaluated based on its ability to fit the data \boldsymbol{d}_{obs} within given data and model uncertainties :

$$p(\boldsymbol{m}|\boldsymbol{d}_{obs}) \propto p(\boldsymbol{m}) \exp(-\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{d}_{obs} - \boldsymbol{G}\boldsymbol{m})^T \boldsymbol{C}_{\chi}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{d}_{obs} - \boldsymbol{G}\boldsymbol{m}))$$
 (IV-1)

where G is the matrix of the Green's functions, C_{χ} is the misfit covariance that approximates both observational and modeling uncertainties and $p(\mathbf{m})$ is the *a priori* information on the model. The CATMIP/AlTar algorithm is characterized by a very slow cooling process (the rejection criterion is refined by small steps) between the *a priori* state of information and the final PDFs designed to ensure good sampling of the whole solution space [*Minson et al.*, 2013]. The final PDFs obtained allow interpreting the results of a fault slip inversion with a robust estimation of the uncertainty on the inverted parameters [*Duputel et al.*, 2015; *Jolivet et al.*, 2014; *Minson et al.*, 2014; *Simons et al.*, 2011]. In the present source inversion, $p(\mathbf{m})$ consists of uniform distributions for the trench-perpendicular component and Gaussian distributions for the trench-parallel component. The uniform distributions are bounded between -0.5 m and 60 m (the slightly negative inferior bound is taken to ensure good sampling near 0) and the Gaussian distributions have 0 mean and 1 m standard deviation.

In source inversions, data uncertainties are usually accounted for by weighting the different data based on their respective levels of confidence. We use a formalism that enables a more exhaustive exploration of the possible models accounting for both data and model prediction uncertainties. Under the Gaussian assumption, they can be conveniently represented by a simple sum of the associated covariance matrices [?]. The covariance matrix C_{χ} in equation (IV-1) may then be written :

$$\boldsymbol{C}_{\chi} = \boldsymbol{C}_d + \boldsymbol{C}_p \tag{IV-2}$$

where C_d and C_p are the covariance matrices associated with the data measurements and model prediction, respectively. C_{χ} is non-diagonal because uncertainties between two data points can be strongly correlated. We further decompose C_p into three terms reflecting the uncertainties associated with our imperfect knowledge of Earth structure (C_{earth}), post-seismic contamination (C_{post}) and, in the case of tsunami data, kinematics of the rupture (C_{time}) :

$$C_{\chi} = C_d + C_{earth} + C_{post} + C_{time}$$
(IV-3)

We discuss these different contributions below as well as how they can be estimated and included in the inversion.

4.2 C_d

 C_d (Figure IV.S2.a) is the data covariance. The geodetic measurements that compose our particular data set can be considered independent from each others (this is not always generally true). Thus, C_d^{geod} is diagonal and its diagonal terms are equal to the squares of the 1- σ uncertainties $(\sigma_{data}^{geod})_i$ provided by the individual geodetic studies (see Tables S1-S3).

For tsunami observations recorded by altimetry, uncertainties are highly correlated because meso-scale oceanic variability is difficult to differentiate from the tsunami signal [*Ablain et al.*,

2006]. Such coherent noise is visible on the southern-most part of the altimetry profiles which are recorded before the tsunami arrives (Figure IV.6). We build C_d^{alt} (Figure IV.S3.a) to reflect the spatial correlations of the uncertainties :

$$(\boldsymbol{C}_{d}^{alt})_{i,j} = (\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{data}^{alt})_{i} (\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{data}^{alt})_{j} \exp(-\frac{L_{i,j}}{\lambda})$$
(IV-4)

where $(\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{data}^{alt})_i$ is the absolute uncertainty on measurement *i*, $L_{i,j}$ is the distance between two measurements i,j and λ is the correlation length. Based on the signal of the southern-most part of the profiles (which are not affected by the tsunami), we consider $(\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{data}^{alt})_i = 10$ cm and $\lambda = 100$ km. As geodetic and tsunami observations are *a priori* independent from each other :

$$\boldsymbol{C}_{d} = \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{C}_{d}^{geod} & \boldsymbol{0} \\ \boldsymbol{0} & \boldsymbol{C}_{d}^{alt} \end{pmatrix}$$
(IV-5)

4.3 *C*_{earth}

 C_{earth} accounts for errors in the Green's functions due to imperfect knowledge of the Earth's interior. We only consider this term for geodetic data since for tsunami data this source of error is considered negligible compared to C_d and C_{time} . We follow the approach of *Duputel et al.* [2014] to iteratively compute this covariance matrix. We first pre-compute, by finite differences, the sensitivity kernels K^G_{μ} of each Green's function in G with respect to the shear modulii μ_j of the different layers in our 1D spherical Earth model :

$$(\mathbf{K}_{\mu}^{G})_{i,j,k} = \frac{\partial G_{i,k}}{\partial \ln \mu_{j}}$$
(IV-6)

Then, K_{μ} is recalculated at each cooling step (when the rejection criterion is refined) based on the mean $\langle m \rangle$ of the sampled models m:

$$\boldsymbol{K}_{\mu} = \boldsymbol{K}_{\mu}^{G}. < \boldsymbol{m} > \tag{IV-7}$$

Given a covariance matrix C_{μ} on the shear modulii estimates μ , we derive our prediction covariance :

$$\boldsymbol{C}_{earth} = \boldsymbol{K}_{\mu} \cdot \boldsymbol{C}_{\mu} \cdot \boldsymbol{K}_{\mu}^{T}$$
(IV-8)

Here, we assume 8% independent uncertainties of the shear modulus estimates on the different layers such that C_{μ} is diagonal. The resulting space of Earth models is shown in figure IV.S4.

4.4 C_{post}

 C_{post} is a new term we introduce to account for potential contamination of our data by postseismic effects. As shown in Figure IV.1, our relatively dense network of near-field observations is sparsely sampled in time. Indeed, most near-field observations contain between two weeks and two months of post-seismic signal. Thus, our data likely share spatially coherent noise. We propose here an approach to account for this coherent noise.

First, we define what we call co-seismic and post-seismic deformation. Looking at our geodetic data sets, we see that the shortest time window of our geodetic offsets is 1 day. Hence, the geodetic data cannot resolve any slip on the interface in time windows shorter than 1 day. Thus, we consider as co-seismic slip, the slip that occurs in the time window between earthquake initiation time and ten minutes later, which could potentially generate tsunami. Any signal due to fault slip outside this time window is then considered as post-seismic contamination and should be accounted for in C_{post} (e.g., GPS daily solutions are considered to contain 1 day of post-seismic contamination). Therefore, C_{post} is null for tsunami data.

Assuming that post-seismic deformation, in the first few weeks after the earthquake, is restricted to afterslip on our discretized fault (i.e., neglecting viso-elastic effects), we use our co-seismic Green's functions to derive covariances between our data due to post-seismic contamination. The assumption seem reasonable based on the studies made on the later post-seismic deformation, which revealed motion dominated by afterslip on the fault during the first two years [Gahalaut et al., 2008; Paul et al., 2007] with the relative contribution of visco-elastic effects gradually increasing later [Gunawan et al., 2014; Paul et al., 2012]. As we do not want to introduce a priori information on the early post-seismic slip distribution, we draw 1,000,000 samples m_n from uniform distributions for the dip-slip component and from Gaussian distributions for the strike-slip one. To obtain a plausible correlation matrix, the sampling of the uniform distributions is bounded so that the associated co-seismic moment magnitude is close to 9.2. The Gaussian distributions have 0 mean and 2 m of standard deviation. From these one million possible co-seismic slip models, we compute the corresponding synthetic data and derive from them the co-seismic covariance matrix C_{co} :

$$\boldsymbol{C}_{co} = cov((\boldsymbol{G}\boldsymbol{m}_n)^T) \tag{IV-9}$$

We then assume a logarithmic function of the afterslip over co-seismic ratio :

$$r_i = \alpha log(\frac{t_i}{\beta} + 1) \tag{IV-10}$$

where t_i is the measurement time after the earthquake (in days); $\alpha = 0.21$ and $\beta = 14$ are determined empirically to predict a post-seismic signal on the order of 15% of the co-seismic signal after 15 days and 25% after 30 days, as observed on the few continuous stations available [Subarya et al., 2006]. Then, we can derive the afterslip covariance matrix C_{post} (Figure IV.S2.b) from C_{co} by normalizing its terms by the estimate of afterslip over co-seismic ratio :

$$(\boldsymbol{C}_{post})_{i,j} = min(r_i, r_j)^2 (\boldsymbol{C}_{co})_{i,j}$$
(IV-11)

The minimum of r_i and r_j reflects that the covariance of two observations d_i and d_j should be estimated based only on their common time of aftership contamination. If d_i is a tsunami observation, its aftership covariance with any other observation d_j will be null as anything that happens after the tsunamogenic phase is independent from the signal recorded in d_i . The diagonal of C_{post} is simply C_{co} normalized by the square of the aftership over co-seismic ratio.

The amplitudes of the variance in C_{post} are actually much larger than those in C_d for many near-field data (Figure IV.S2) as GPS measurements uncertainties often do not exceed a few centimeters (Table S1). We note that some of the off-diagonal terms of C_{post} - which are usually ignored - are on the order of the diagonal terms, suggesting strong spatial correlations of the errors due to post-seismic signals. The addition of C_{post} mitigates over-fitting near-field data. For far-field GPS data, uncertainties on both the measurements and the post-seismic contamination are very low (because they are daily solutions); but as the signal is also very low, the resulting resolving power is still very limited.

4.5 *C*_{time}

 C_{time} is the covariance matrix associated with uncertainty on the rupture time of each subfault. This term is null for geodetic data as they are not affected by the kinematics of the rupture. In contrast, for tsunami data, each patch rupture time is calculated assuming the earthquake initiated at 00 :58 :53 UTC (source : http ://earthquake.usgs.gov/) and that it propagated at a velocity of 2.8 km/s [*Ishii et al.*, 2005]. Errors on these estimations would lead to non-negligible errors in the tsunami Green's functions [*Sladen and Hébert*, 2008]. Because of non-linearity, we estimate these errors by calculating Green's functions assuming velocities of 2.4, 2.5, 2.6,..., 3.2 km/s and initiation time is 00 :58 :53 UTC; then assuming velocities of 2.4, 2.5, 2.6,..., 3.2 km/s and initiation time is 00 :59 :13 UTC. Thus, we obtain 18 Green's functions matrices. We then draw 100,000 models m_n from uniform (for the trench perpendicular component) and Gaussian (for the trench parallel one) distributions such as for the calculation

of C_{post} . We multiply each drawn model by each Green's function matrix to obtain 1,800,000 sets of predicted tsunami data and derive C_{time} (Figure IV.S3.b) from their covariances :

$$\begin{cases} \boldsymbol{d}_{n=1}^{V=2.4,t_0=00:58:53} = \boldsymbol{G}^{V=2.4,t_0=00:58:53} \quad \boldsymbol{m}_{n=1} \\ \boldsymbol{d}_{n=1}^{V=2.5,t_0=00:58:53} = \boldsymbol{G}^{V=2.5,t_0=00:58:53} \quad \boldsymbol{m}_{n=1} \\ & (\dots) \\ \boldsymbol{d}_{n=100000}^{V=3.2,t_0=00:59:13} = \boldsymbol{G}^{V=3.2,t_0=00:59:13} \quad \boldsymbol{m}_{n=100000} \end{cases}$$
(IV-12)

$$\boldsymbol{C}_{time} = cov(\boldsymbol{d}_{n=1}^{V=2.4, t_0=00:58:53}, \boldsymbol{d}_{n=1}^{V=2.5, t_0=00:58:53}, \dots, \boldsymbol{d}_{n=100000}^{V=3.2, t_0=00:59:13})$$
(IV-13)

We find that the uncertainties associated with the rupture propagation are significantly larger than the uncertainties on the measurements (Figure IV.S3, note the different color scales). Thus, the addition of C_{time} should strongly affect the solution. We note as well that, as for C_{post} , the off-diagonal terms are on the order of the diagonal terms (Figure IV.S3.b). Large offdiagonal terms were to be expected since changing a subfault rupture initiation time result in shifting the synthetic tsunami wave which is going to affect neighboring data in a very coherent manner. While diagonal terms limit the information contained in the data, off-diagonal terms, on the contrary, bring information by stipulating that the error on one measurement is similar to the error on other measurements. Thus, while diagonal terms extend the solution space, off-diagonal terms actually shrink it and help constrain the solution.

5 Results

5.1 Bayesian exploration of probable source models

Accounting for the dominant sources of uncertainty both in the data and in the Green's functions, we apply the AlTar scheme to jointly invert tsunami and geodetic data for the rupture process of the Sumatra-Andaman earthquake. We obtain probability density functions (PDFs) for both the trench-parallel (Figure IV.S5) and trench-perpendicular (Figure IV.S6) slip components. These PDFs represent the solution space of the full inverse problem. An alternative - more visible but more restrictive - way to represent the obtained solution space is in the form of the average solution (Figure IV.3) and its associated 95% confidence ellipses derived from the standard deviations of the PDFs. The average model reveals a very extended rupture (roughly from latitude 2°N to latitude 14°N from south to north) with two areas of large slip (30-40 m) between latitudes 3°N and 4°N and latitudes 7°N and 8°N. Moreover, we infer significant

slip (≈ 20 m) offshore Andaman islands. The mean moment is 8.37×10^{22} N.m, corresponding to a moment magnitude $M_w = 9.25$. The standard deviation on the moment is very small - 0.2×10^{22} N.m ($M_w = 9.25 \pm 0.01$) - but it could vary more significantly depending on the assumed elastic structure. This moment magnitude is close to the magnitude (M_w 9.3) obtained by normal mode analyses [*Clévédé et al.*, 2012; *Park et al.*, 2005; *Stein and Okal*, 2005], which also depend on the assumed elastic structure.

The solution space (presented in map view in Figure IV.3 and as PDFs in Figures IV.S5 and IV.S6) is generally compatible with most published models, even though a straight comparison is difficult because of the different parameterizations of the fault geometry. We note that the location of the zones of largest slip zones (between latitudes 3°N and 4°N and latitudes 7°N and 8°N) are consistent with previous studies (e.g. *Chlieh et al.* [2007]; *Hoechner et al.* [2008]; *Lorito et al.* [2010]). Consistent with the models found by the studies including the pivot line determined by *Meltzner et al.* [2006], we find very low likelihood for any slip east of the line (Figure IV.3, IV.S5, IV.S6). Our posterior models do not exclude the possibility for large slip reaching the trench. In fact, for some subfaults (s11d1, s17d1, s18d1) the PDFs suggest over 20 m of shallow slip (Figure IV.S6). Large shallow slip seems to be very likely as well in the northern part of the fault (subfaults s1-4d1). Moreover, we note, among the solutions, the possibility for slip over 50 m (see PDF of patch s18d1 on Figure IV.S6). Actually, slip over 40 m is extremely likely (on patches s18d1 s11d1 or s11d2, Figure IV.S6), even though our subfaults are relatively large. The value of maximum slip could even appear higher if data allowed us to solve for slip at smaller scales. This high likelihood for large slip is a remarkable feature because, before it started to be documented for the 2011 Tohoku-Oki earthquake (e.g., Fujiwara et al. [2011]; Sato et al. [2011]), such large slip amplitudes were thought to be very unlikely and slip inversions were made using strong smoothing regularization in order to exclude such solutions. It is possible that such high slip maxima are more common among giant earthquakes and that regularization strongly biases our knowledge of subduction earthquakes.

5.2 Data fit

Near-field horizontal data are well explained by all models within the considered uncertainties (Figure IV.4). The red ellipses in Figure IV.4 show the prediction range for 95% (corresponding to 2- σ standard deviations) of the slip models. We see that, in general, they intersect the data error ellipses (yellow and blue depending on the color scales) which account for all uncertainties contained in C_{χ} . Moreover, we note a systematic under-prediction of near-field horizontal GPS data, which is consistent with probable contamination by post-seismic pro-



Near-field constraints on the inversion:

Figure IV.3 – Average slip vectors (white arrows) obtained by joint inversion of geodetic and altimetric tsunami data and associated standard deviations (orange ellipses). The colors of the subfaults correspond to the amplitudes of the slip vectors in meters. s# and d# labels indicate patch numbers along strike and dip directions, respectively.

cesses. As we explicitly allow for spatially correlated misfit through our construction of C_{post} , such coherent misfit shows the ability to avoid over-fitting post-seismic noise.

Near-field vertical data are not as well explained (Figure IV.5). The likely reason for this misfit is the relatively large size of our patches compared to the data density, in particular beneath the Andaman islands (Figure IV.5). Also, the C_{post} associated with the pivot line is particularly large because of the long post-seismic contamination of the satellite images (see section 2.1). Far-field data are also well explained (Figure IV.S7), although the most distant stations (Figure IV.S8) seem to have an insufficient signal-to-noise ratio to bring any relevant constraint on the slip distribution.

The prediction of the sea surface height anomaly by our average model along the tracks of the satellite altimeters (Figure IV.6) is consistent with the large uncertainties we have adopted both on the data and on the Green's functions. Vertical offsets reflect the variance (diagonal terms of C_{χ}) we imposed on the data and the modeling (represented by the 1- σ and 2- σ blueshaded areas in Figure IV.6). All models predict similar altimetric profiles : the 2- σ model uncertainty range (represented by the red shaded area) is narrow. This narrow prediction range likely comes from the constraints brought by the geodetic data and the off-diagonal terms of C_{χ} (Figure IV.S3) which are on the same order than the diagonal terms and, therefore, significantly reduce the solution space (as discussed in paragraph 4.5). The prediction of the average model can be far from the data (as far as the variance allows) but all models must have large covariances, meaning that they are all in the same solution space region and predict similar fits.

6 Discussion

6.1 Comparison with independent seismic observations

To further interpret our set of posterior models, we consider several independent seismic observations from different phases of the seismic cycle : seismicity prior to the earthquake, highfrequency radiation during the earthquake and the distribution of aftershocks. In Figure IV.7, we show seismicity located by the International Seismological Centre during a 44-year period preceding the earthquake. The magnitude of the largest event recorded during this period is M_w 6.7, contrasting with the magnitude of the mainshock (M_w 9.25) and its aftershocks (up to M_w 8.6). The spatial distribution of this seismicity clearly delineates the contours of the co-seismic slip area (which is well defined in the posterior solutions due to the pivot line constraints). In 44 years, almost no earthquake (the catalog magnitude completeness is 4.0) was recorded in



Figure IV.4 – Near-field horizontal data fit associated with average slip model shown in Figure IV.3. Yellow arrows are near-field data, blue ones are farther-field data : they are plotted with different scales. Yellow ellipses are 2- σ uncertainties derived from the diagonal terms of C_{χ} including data, prediction and afterslip errors. Red vectors are offsets predicted by the average model (average slip at each subfault, independent to possible covariance with other subfaults) shown in Figure IV.3. Red ellipses are the 2- σ uncertainties associated with the posterior covariances on the inverted parameters (prediction range for 95% of the models).



Figure IV.5 – Fit of the near-field vertical data. Color map shows sea-floor elevation change predicted by the average model. Colored dots show data.



Figure IV.6 – Altimetry records of the tsunami (blue dots) and average model prediction (red dots) assuming a rupture velocity of 2.8 km/s. Blue and light blue shaded areas show 1- σ and 2- σ , respectively, data and model uncertainties. Orange and yellow shades are 1- σ and 2- σ prediction ranges, respectively. Note that uncertainties associated with the off-diagonal terms of both C_d and C_{time} are not represented in this figures even though they probably affect the solution space as much as the diagonal terms (see Figure IV.S3).

the 1300 km long 120 km large rupture area (Figure IV.7). This observation leads to the idea that the megathurst interface was completely locked during the inter-seismic period. However, at longer time scales, we see that historical earthquakes ($M \approx 7.9$ in 1881 and $M_S = 7.7$ in 1941, *Briggs et al.* [2006] and references therein) did occur in the co-seismic slip zone beneath the Andamans (Figure IV.7) suggesting that stress accumulation was heterogeneous in this particular region.

Back-projection methods are useful to image high-frequency seismic radiation and complement finite-fault slip inversions which are sensitive to much lower frequency bands. Unfortunately, the resolution of back-projection models decreases with the distance to the epicenter - because imaging of late radiators relies on the late part of seismograms which are affected by many possible sources (e.g., earlier reflected waves) - but they provide valuable information on the southern half of the rupture. Looking at areas of high-frequency (>0.24 Hz) seismic radiation imaged by back-projection [Yao et al., 2013], we see that the large co-seismic slip zones tend to be located just up-dip of the most intense short-period seismic radiators (Figure IV.8). This trend was already highlighted by several studies at the large scale for several megaearthquakes [Lay et al., 2012; Simons et al., 2011; ?; ?] and is here clear at a smaller scale for our two largest slip zones at latitudes 3°N-4°N and 7°N-8°N. This high-frequency radiation is thought to be due to sudden changes in rupture speed along sharp contrasts of fault rheology or geometry or along remnant stress concentrations from previous earthquakes [Simons et al., 2011], and to delineate the down-dip edge of the slip area [Avouac et al., 2015; Okuwaki et al., 2014; Simons et al., 2011]. The spatial relationship we find in the case of the Sumatra-Andaman earthquake (Figure IV.8) strengthens the idea that the large slip areas we image correspond to locked asperities loaded in stress during the inter-seismic phase, further implying that the stress accumulation was not homogeneous even though pre-earthquake seismicity seems to indicate the fault was completely locked (Figure IV.7). This apparent contradiction could be solved by invoking a stress shadow effect in the fault areas surrounding strongly-locked asperities [Hetland et al., 2010; Hetland and Simons, 2010; ?].

The two high-slip zones (at latitudes 3°N-4°N and 7°N-8°N) also appear to be surrounded by intense aftershock activity (Figure IV.9). In fact, if we ignore the 2005 M_w 8.6 Nias earthquake sequence to the South and the seismicity associated with the Andaman-Nicobar Fault (ANF) at the eastern end of the rupture, in the fore-arc basin (between latitudes 7°N and 11°N), aftershocks essentially surround the regions where we image significant slip. Such aftershocks surrounding high slip patches are often observed after large earthquakes (e.g, ?) and are well explained by coulomb stress changes (e.g., ?). We observe very few outer-rise aftershocks in the bounding plate. According to the model proposed by *Lay et al.* [2009], this observation suggests



Figure IV.7 – Comparison of our average slip model with regional seismicity before the Sumatra-Andaman earthquake (starting from 1960, International Seismological Centre catalog, contours of historical earthquakes are from *Briggs et al.* [2006] and *Kanamori et al.* [2010]).



Figure IV.8 – Comparison of our average slip model with co-seismic high-frequency (>0.24Hz) radiation (red circles) imaged by back-projection [*Yao et al.*, 2013].

that the rupture did not reach the surface. Our shallowest subfaults are large ($\approx 65 \text{ km} \times 65 \text{ km}$ on average) and the fact that some have average slip values of several tenth of meters does not necessarily imply that rupture reached the surface. North of 10°N, we see moderate aftershocks $(M_w \leq 6.3)$ activity mostly located down-dip of the main slip area (Figure IV.9). Between latitudes 10°N and 11°N, focal mechanisms and depths are compatible with events occurring on the megathrust interface. This kind of aftershock distribution - such as the aftershock swarm at latitudes 4°N-5°N - usually indicates the limits of the co-seismic slip (e.g., *Kato and Igarashi* [2012] or *Bletery et al.* [2014] in the case of the M_w 9.0 Tohoku-Oki earthquake). These northern thrust events are located in a section of the rupture where PDFs indicate very low likelihood for any slip (see subfaults line s7, Figure IV.S6). North of this area is also where the GPS displacements start to align with the highly oblique plate convergence direction suggesting that 10°N marks a radical change in style of rupture.

6.2 Oblique slow slip beneath the Andaman islands?

What happened in the northern part (defined above as north of line s7, latitude 10°N) of the rupture is still an open question. First, we note the reduced convergence rate north of 8°N [Gahalaut et al., 2006; Prawirodirdjo and Bock, 2004] and the highly oblique convergence direction (11° from trench-parallel) [Gahalaut et al., 2006; Paul et al., 2001]. Between 8°N and 10°N, the obliquity is accommodated by the ANF, but north of 10°N, the ANF branches onto the Andaman Sea Spreading Centre rift system [Singh et al., 2013] and becomes distant from the subduction zone by several hundreds of kilometers (Figure IV.9). Thus, we do not know how the strike-slip component of the convergence is accommodated north of 10°N and to what extent there is partitioning across the forearc. There are two large faults along the Andamans, the Diligent Fault (DF) and the Eastern Margin Fault (EMF). The DF seems to be in compression and too far east to accommodate partitioning [Cochran, 2010; Moeremans and Singh, 2015 while the EMF seems to be dominated by extension [Cochran, 2010] and not very active [Moeremans and Singh, 2015]. Although, the EMF is properly imaged only along the southern Andamans, it can be traced in the bathymetry up to the northern Andamans (all along the Andamans, the EMF corresponds to a clear step in the bathymetry, making the transition with the fore-arc basin and a deep low-gravity anomaly [Cochran, 2010]).

Our solution indicates that co-seismic slip contain a strong strike-slip component just beneath the Andamans (see Figure IV.3 and posterior PDFs of subfaults s1-6d3 in Figure IV.S5), which is well constrained by the systematic oblique signal in the Andaman GPS data (Figure IV.4). This co-seismic strike-slip motion is followed by aftershocks presenting strike-slip mecha-



Figure IV.9 – Comparison of our average slip model with aftershocks distribution during the one year period following the mainshock (Global Centroid Moment Tensor catalog). Red lines show major faults in the hanging wall : the Andaman-Nicobar Fault (ANF), the Diligent Fault (DF) and the Eastern Margin Fault (EMF) [*Moeremans and Singh*, 2015].

nisms (Figure IV.9). Strike-slip aftershocks were, for instance, particularly intense near subfault s1d3 where we image the largest strike-slip motion (Figure IV.9). The depths of aftershocks indicate a probable superficial strike-slip fault, although the systematic oblique direction of all the Andaman GPS records (Figure IV.4) favors the idea of a deeper and large scale co-seismic oblique motion on the megathrust. To explain the obliquity of the GPS displacements, a strikeslip fault would need to move coherently over the 440 km of Andaman archipelago. The EMF could be a candidate for accommodating the strike-slip component but, as discussed earlier, this fault seems to be dominated by normal motion and not very active. Also, if a strike-slip fault does exist beneath the Andamans, it does not appear in the relocated seismicity [*Diehl* et al., 2013]. Thus, the most likely explanation for the systematic oblique GPS signal in the Andamans is that there is no partitioning on the co-seismic slip, as documented in other subduction settings for co-seismic or post-seismic slip distributions (e.g., *Lin et al.* [2013]; *Pritchard* et al. [2002]; ?]; ?). Yet, to our knowledge, there is no documented case of large co-seismic rupture occuring in a subduction zone with such an oblique convergence. Other aftershocks in the Andaman segment are characterized by inverse and even normal mechanisms, confirming the complexity of the regional seismic activity.

The anomalously large low-frequency (periods > 1000 sec) seismic radiation observed in normal mode analyses led several authors to propose a scenario with a large component of slow slip in the Andaman section [*Clévédé et al.*, 2012; *Park et al.*, 2005; *Stein and Okal*, 2005]. These studies inferred significantly larger moments at low frequencies (periods of 600-3000 sec) than in the standard frequency band used to analyze surface waves (periods of 300-500 sec). They further found a northward migration of the centroid when lowering the frequency band, suggesting that the source of low-frequency radiation is in the northern part of the fault. A northern slow slip scenario was proposed by *Lay et al.* [2005] to explain the late signal in the only near-field tide gauge at Port Blair, in the Andamans (Port Blair location is indicated by the position of the GPS station PB in Figure IV.1). The delay in the signal was then shown to be primarily an artifact of the station clock drift, but once corrected, still suggested slow rise time on the order of 30 min [*Singh et al.*, 2006], consistent with normal mode analyses. The slow slip beneath the Andamans is also compatible with the amplitude of the geodetic records (Figure IV.4) which suggests that large moment was released in this portion.

The reliability of our inferred slip in the northern portion of the model (s1-6d1-4) might be questioned if we believe in the proposed slow slip scenario. The tsunami generated by a very slow rupture would be of lower amplitude than the one we simulated, leading to inconsistency in the tsunami Green's functions. Nevertheless, two arguments can be made to strengthen the consistency of the tsunami Green's functions. (1) The deep subfaults (s1-6d3-4) are actually
constrained by geodetic data, which are not affected by the kinematics of the rupture. (2) The seismic radiators imaged by back-projections [*Ishii et al.*, 2005; *Krüger and Ohrnberger*, 2005; *Ni et al.*, 2005; *Yao et al.*, 2013] seem to indicate that at least a significant part of the slip was rapid (which is also what studies advocating for the slow slip scenario proposed [*Lay et al.*, 2005; *Singh et al.*, 2006]). Thus, while the standard deviations associated with the northern deep slip (s1-6d3-4) should be consistent with the true uncertainties, the uncertainties on the shallower subfaults (s1-6d1-2) are likely larger than our posterior PDFs estimates. For instance, based on the slip orientation of the subfaults beneath the Andamans (s1-6d3), one may reasonably think that the strike-slip component - and its associated uncertainty - is under-estimated in subfaults s1-6d1-2 because if there is no partitioning in the Andaman section, the slip orientation should be relatively homogeneous and close to the convergence direction in the whole section.

7 Conclusion

The solutions of finite-fault slip inversions for the slip distribution of the 2004 Sumatra-Andaman earthquake show large variability depending on the inverted data sets. This variability likely comes from relative inconsistencies among the data, which are contaminated by different sources of errors. In an attempt to narrow down the range of possible source models for this earthquake, we considered an extended set of geodetic and tsunami observations in a joint inversion to image the distribution fault slip. We accounted, as best as possible, for various sources of correlated uncertainties, including contamination due to afterslip, Earth structure inaccuracy and errors in rupture velocity estimation. We explored the whole posterior solution space of the inverse problem which can be seen in PDF form (Figure IV.S5 and IV.S6) or in the form of its mean model with its associated uncertainties (Figure IV.3). This solution space reveals a well constrained moment magnitude of $M_w = 9.25 \pm 0.01$ as well as high likelihood for very large values of slip (40 m or more) on certain parts of the fault and does not exclude even larger slip maxima. Such high slip maxima might actually be common among giant earthquakes, but our past models may simply be biased by commonly applied regularization in the finite-fault modeling.

Our solution indicate two large slip areas (at latitudes $3^{\circ}N-4^{\circ}N$ and $7^{\circ}N-8^{\circ}N$) that might have reached the surface. Identification of such large slip areas provide valuable information to understand the seismic cycle and the physics of the rupture, but more pragmatically, it is also what controls the size of the tsunami, particularly in the near field (e.g. *Shimozono et al.* [2012]; *Yamazaki et al.* [2013]). We compare the average slip distribution we obtained with independent seismological records. The comparison shows clear correlations between likely large-slip areas and high-frequency seismic radiators as well as with intense aftershock activity. These spatial relationships strengthen the idea that the event is dominated by the rupture of strongly locked asperities causing large slip both at the place they ruptured and in the surrounding fault portions.



Figure IV.S1 – Far-field measurements of co-seismic offsets (horizontal only). Black contour is the suspected rupture area [*Briggs et al.*, 2006]. Red star is epicenter (USGS solution : *http* : //earthquake.usgs.gov/earthquakes/eqinthenews/2004/us2004slav/).



Figure IV.S2 – a) Covariance matrix C_d^{geod} associated with error measurements on near-field geodetic data. b) Covariance matrix C_{post}^{geod} associated with post-seismic contamination of the same near-field geodetic data. The color scale is saturated for both matrices at the maximum value of C_{post}^{geod} .



Figure IV.S3 – a) Covariance matrix C_d^{alt} associated with altimetry measurements. b) Covariance matrix C_{time}^{alt} associated with uncertainties on the kinematics of the rupture for the same altimetry data. We clearly see that the error on the altimetry estimates is dominated by the uncertainties on the rupture propagation (note the different color scale).



Figure IV.S4 – PREM (red) and Earth models space (grey) explored in the inversion process through the use of C_{earth} . The figure is obtained by drawing 1,000 stochastic models from the Gaussian distributions set in C_{μ} (with standard deviations equal to 8% of the μ values, see text).



Figure IV.S5 – Prior (red) and posterior (black) probability density functions (PDFs) of the trenchparallel slip component. s# and d# labels indicate patch numbers along strike and dip directions, respectively. Consistently with labels in Figures IV.1 and IV.3, s1d1 corresponds to the northern-most western-most patch, s23d4 to the southern-most eastern-most one.



Figure IV.S6 – Prior (red) and posterior (black) PDFs of the trench-perpendicular slip component. PDFs disposition is the same as in Figure IV.S5.



Figure IV.S7 – Fit of the far-field GPS data. Colors correspond to data source excepted for the red arrows which are the predictions for our average model. Red star is epicenter. Ellipses are $2-\sigma$ data and model uncertainties, expected for the red ones which are posterior variances as in Figure IV.4.

IV.7 Conclusion



Figure IV.S8 – Fit of the very-far-field data. Red is predicted. Other colors correspond to data source as in Figure IV.S1. Ellipses are $2-\sigma$ data and model uncertainties, expected for the red ones which are posterior variances as in Figure IV.4.

Conclusion générale

L'objectif principal de ce travail de thèse était d'améliorer la qualité de l'imagerie du glissement co-sismique de quelques grands séismes récents et ainsi apporter des éléments nouveaux utiles à l'interprétation sismo-tectonique de leurs ruptures.

Le premier d'entre eux, le séisme de Tohoku-Oki $(M_w 9.0)$ survenu en 2011, avait fait, préalablement à cette thèse, l'objet d'un très grand nombre d'études cherchant à déterminer la distribution de son glissement co-sismique. La plupart d'entre elles n'incluaient qu'un seul type d'observations, d'un volume croissant avec la mise à disposition progressive de données provenant de différentes sources. Une minorité d'études incluait différents types de données dans des inversions jointes partielles mais aucune n'était véritablement exhaustive. Notre première approche a donc été de compiler un maximum de données complémentaires dans le but de contraindre les détails de la rupture. Le modèle cinématique obtenu par inversion jointe de ce jeu de données, à ce jour le plus complet, s'est révélé capable d'expliquer toutes les observations incluses et mêmes certaines non-incluses (ondes de surface, décalages des réflecteurs dans le prisme [*Fujiwara et al.*, 2011]) dans l'inversion. Ce modèle a, par ailleurs, révélé une complexité spatio-temporelle en lien direct avec des observations géophysiques indépendantes. Nous imageons une distribution de glissement localisée dans une zone ou très peu de séismes avaient été observés avant le choc principal et autour de laquelle une activité sismique intense a été enregistrée après celui-ci. La distribution des répliques en *outer-rise* montre une corrélation frappante avec le glissement que nous avons imagé à la fosse, qui est une bonne mesure de l'extension dans la plaque plongeante (source probable des répliques en *outer-rise*). Nous avons également observé que les zones de plus forte chute de contrainte dérivées de notre inversion correspondaient à des hétérogénéités sur l'interface de subduction imagées, elles, par tomographie. Cette corrélation spatiale met en évidence l'existence d'aspérités bloquées durant la phase inter-sismique qui relâcheraient des contraintes emmagasinées durant de très longues périodes (dans ce cas, probablement depuis le séisme de Jogan Sanriku en 869). Enfin, la zone de plus fort glissement que nous avons imagé se situe juste en-dessous d'une importante faille normale activée durant le séisme. Cette configuration renforce la théorie de chute de friction dynamique proposée par *Cubas et al.* [2013] qui expliquerait à la fois l'existence de la faille normale et le très fort glissement dans cette zone jusqu'à la surface.

Cette première étude ayant révélé un très fort potentiel de contraintes des données tsunami sur les modèles de glissement (figure II.S9), nous nous sommes ensuite intéressés à la modélisation employée pour le calcul de leurs fonctions de Green. En particulier, nous avons quantifier la contribution de la déformation horizontale du plancher océanique, combinée à la bathymétrie, dans l'initiation d'un tsunami. Cette contribution ne reposant que sur des critères géométriques des différentes failles, nous l'avons évaluée pour les principales zones de subduction à travers le monde dans le but d'indiquer à la communauté scientifique où cet effet peut être négligé et où il ne peut pas l'être. Nous avons montré que l'effet peut être très fort (aussi fort que la contribution de la déformation verticale) dans des cas extrêmes comme celui de la région de Iwate-Miyagi et qu'il se traduit dans les fonctions de Green par une augmentation d'amplitude de même ordre et même par un léger déphasage. Nous avons ensuite montré comment la non prise en compte de cet effet pouvait affecter la solution des inversions, avec des différences de l'ordre d'un tiers du glissement maximal, en prenant le séisme de Tohoku-Oki comme nouveau cas d'étude.

Enfin, l'estimation de marges d'erreurs sur les modèles de source restant un enjeu majeur de l'inversion de la source sismique, nous avons utilisé une approche probabiliste, dite Bayésienne, du problème inverse pour appréhender rigoureusement la question de la non-unicité de sa solution. Nous avons appliqué cette approche à l'inversion de données géodésiques et tsunami pour le séisme de Sumatra-Andaman $(M_w 9.1-9.3)$ survenu en 2004. Après avoir estimé des structures d'incertitudes, corrélées entre elles (en raison de biais communs), pour les différentes observations que le formalisme Bayésien permet de prendre en compte dans l'inversion, nous avons obtenu des fonctions densité de probabilité décrivant l'intégralité de l'espace des solutions. Nous en avons déduit que, bien que les nombreuses solutions déjà publiées pour ce séisme soient globalement compatibles avec cet espace des solutions, ce dernier n'exclue pas un grand nombre de scénarios alternatifs. Cet ensemble relativement large de modèles de glissement expliquant de manière satisfaisante les observations implique néanmoins que le glissement a possiblement atteint la surface en plusieurs endroits et que des valeurs de glissement maximales de l'ordre de 50 m, considérées comme extravagantes avant le séisme de Tohoku-Oki, ne sont pas à exclure pour le séisme de Sumatra-Andaman non plus. Il est possible que les régularisations communément appliquées aux modèles de glissement dans les processus d'inversion « classiques », telles que l'usage de l'opérateur Laplacien, visant à déterminer la solution la plus « lisse » de l'espace des solutions, aient considérablement biaisé notre connaissance des séismes de subduction en masquant les solutions, plus probables, exhibant des valeurs de glissement de cet ordre.

Nous avons apporté quelques éléments utiles à la compréhension des processus de rupture de deux séismes majeurs. Dans le cas du séisme de Tohoku-Oki, nous avons mis en évidence le rôle clé d'une, voire deux, aspérités de quelques dizaines de kilomètres, bloquées depuis probablement plus d'un millénaire, dont la rupture est responsable de l'ampleur de l'évènement, lui conférant ainsi des caractéristiques très impulsionnelles aussi bien dans le domaine temporel (l'essentiel du moment est relâché en quelques dizaines de secondes) que dans le domaine spatial (la zone de rupture est relativement peu étendue par rapport à la magnitude de l'évènement). Le séisme de Sumatra-Andaman apparaît, à première vue, comme singulièrement différent, l'étendue de sa rupture étant considérable (au moins 1300 km dans l'axe Sud-Nord). Cependant nous avons mis en évidence que, localement, les valeurs de glissement pouvaient être comparables à celles trouvées pour le séisme de Tohoku-Oki et donc, que la rupture pouvait peut-être également avoir des caractéristiques localement très impulsionnelles. Ceci serait en accord avec une vision des grands séismes de subduction contrôlés par la rupture de fortes aspérités de relativement petite taille sur les interfaces se chargeant en contraintes pendant de très longues périodes de temps.

Des études systématiques, incluant un ensemble d'observations les plus exhaustives possibles, dans un formalisme probabiliste permettant d'estimer des marges d'erreurs sur les modèles de source des grands séismes apparaissent, à la suite de ce travail, comme un réel enjeu pour le futur. Nous nous sommes ici restreints à deux séismes marquants, mais appliquer ces méthodes à un grand nombre d'autres séismes permettra d'interpréter les caractéristiques des deux séismes ici étudiés comme générales ou marginales parmi les séismes de subduction et ceci de manière rigoureuse. En effet, d'un strict point de vue logique, déterminer une solution parmi un grand nombre d'autres possibles, en particulier dans les cas où le jeu de données considéré contraint peu la source, n'autorise pas d'en interpréter les caractéristiques d'un point de vue général. Une approche probabiliste systématique du problème inverse permettant d'accéder à l'espace des solutions expliquant le plus d'observations possibles apparaît donc comme un axe de recherche important pour progresser dans l'interprétation des modèles de source. Références bibliographiques

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