

1 **Relation between oceanic plate structure, patterns of**
2 **interplate locking and microseismicity in the 1922**
3 **Atacama Seismic Gap**

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Key Points:

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- Microseismicity catalog and map of interplate locking derived for the Atacama 1922 seismic gap in North-Central Chile

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- Plate interface seismicity coincides with downdip edge of high coupling

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- Seismo-geodetic signals due to the subduction of the Copiapó ridge are prominent but negligible for the subducting Taltal Ridge.

36

Abstract

We deployed a dense geodetic and seismological network in the Atacama seismic gap in Chile. We derive a microseismicity catalog of >30,000 events, time series from 70 GNSS stations, and apply a transdimensional Bayesian inversion to estimate interplate locking degree. We identify two highly locked regions of different sizes whose geometries appear to control seismicity patterns. Interface seismicity concentrates beneath the coastline just downdip of the highest locking. A region of lower interplate locking around 27.5°S coincides with higher seismicity levels, a high number of repeating earthquakes and events extending further towards the trench. Having shown numerous signs of aseismic deformation (slow-slip events and earthquake swarms), this area is situated where the Copiapó Ridge is subducted. While these findings suggest that the structure of the downgoing oceanic plate prescribes patterns of interplate locking and seismicity, we note that the Taltal Ridge further north lacks a similar signature.

Plain Language Summary

Deformation along plate boundaries can occur seismically (i.e. through earthquakes) as well as aseismically (i.e. slipping slowly), and it is important to understand where each of these modes is dominant. Along the Chilean subduction contact, North-Central Chile is the only place where aseismic deformation episodes have been observed so far. In order to study these processes in detail, we deployed and operated dense geodetic and seismological networks in this region. Analyzing the data collected by these networks, we find notable relationships between seismic and aseismic processes. Thousands of small earthquakes are found at the boundaries of locked regions, whereas no small earthquakes are found at their interior. Thus, implying such regions are mechanically coupled, i.e. currently accumulating elastic deformation energy that will one day be released during a large earthquake. Along the North-Central Chilean plate boundary, there is one region (around 27.5°S) that shows many signs of aseismic deformation. It is located where a chain of seamounts is being subducted, which is likely responsible for the different behavior of this segment.

1 Introduction

Relative motion along the subduction zone plate interface is partitioned between seismic and aseismic processes (e.g. Perfettini et al., 2010). The seismogenic zone of the

68 megathrust accumulates slip deficit and releases it seismically during large earthquakes
69 (Lay et al., 2012). In contrast, the adjacent updip and downdip regions tend to yield aseis-
70 mic slip to account for part or the totality of the plate convergence (e.g. Peng & Gomberg,
71 2010). The amount of convergence accommodated in large earthquakes versus contin-
72 uous or transient creep is highly variable along strike in many subduction zones (Métois
73 et al., 2016). Different forms of aseismic slip are observed along the plate interface. Slow-
74 slip events (SSEs) are days-to-months long aseismic slip pulses that usually occur at the
75 downdip end of the plate interface and are often accompanied by non-volcanic tremor
76 (Schwartz & Rokosky, 2007). However, SSEs have also been observed in the shallowest
77 part of the plate interface (e.g., Araki et al., 2017) or within the seismogenic zone. Aseis-
78 mic slip transients have also been observed to precede large earthquakes (e.g., Ito et al.,
79 2013; Radiguet et al., 2016; Socquet et al., 2017; Voss et al., 2018), as a mixture of slow
80 deformation and foreshocks (Bedford et al., 2015). Finally, aseismic slip unrelated to large
81 earthquakes has also been observed along weakly locked segments of the plate interface.
82 Increased seismicity rates or swarm-like sequences have been found to occur in direct vicin-
83 ity to – and likely triggered by – aseismic transients (Vallée et al., 2013; Hirose et al.,
84 2014). Repeating earthquakes, recurring small events that repeatedly rupture the same
85 fault area, are thought to be a direct consequence of ongoing aseismic deformation in their
86 surroundings (Igarashi et al., 2003; Uchida & Bürgmann, 2019).

87 SSEs along the Chilean margin appear to be rare or at least more subtle. North-
88 Central Chile is one of the few sites where transient slow-slip events have been observed
89 independently from large megathrust earthquakes in Chile. A SSE event of ~18 months
90 duration with a maximum slip of about 50 cm was observed at the deepest part of the
91 plate interface in 2014 and 2015 (Klein, Duputel, et al., 2018), and again in 2020 (Klein
92 et al., 2023). Swarm-like seismicity sequences have been observed in 2006 and 2015 close
93 to the town of Caldera, updip of the SSE’s location (Holtkamp et al., 2011; Ojeda et al.,
94 2023), as well as ~50-100 km further south in 2020 (Klein et al., 2021). However, this
95 segment of the margin has until recently only been sparsely instrumented, so that a first
96 more comprehensive analysis of its seismicity has only recently been undertaken (Pastén-
97 Araya et al., 2022). The Atacama region was struck by a great ($M_w \sim 8.5$) earthquake
98 in 1922 and by a similar event in 1819 (Fig. 1a), thus being considered a mature seis-
99 mic gap, at risk of breaking in a great subduction earthquake (e.g., Yáñez-Cuadra et al.,
100 2022).

101 In this study we deployed a dense network of 85 seismic stations complementing
102 16 stations already installed in the region (see Text S3, Figures 1, S6). Additionally, we
103 deployed 28 continuous GNSS stations to densify the already existing network composed
104 by 42 GNSS sites (see Text S1, Figures S1-S3). We created a high-resolution microseis-
105 micity catalog comprising more than 30,000 events occurring for 15 months since Novem-
106 ber 2020. We compare such seismicity to interplate locking constrained by GNSS sec-
107 ular rates and estimated using a transdimensional Bayesian approach. In this scheme,
108 the spatial resolution of the locking model is obtained in a data-driven manner without
109 the need for a priori smoothing. From these we derive constraints on the interplay of seis-
110 mic and aseismic processes in the region. In the following sections, we first describe the
111 derivation of the locking model from geodetic observations, as well as the seismicity cat-
112 alog from the measured seismic waveforms.

113 **2 A transdimensional Bayesian estimation of interplate locking**

114 We used data from a total of 70 GNSS stations located between 23°S and 32°S,
115 where two new deployments provided a total of 28 new stations in addition to the back-
116 bone network of the National Seismological Center of Chile (Figure 1; Table S1). We pro-
117 cessed the GNSS data using Bernese software to produce daily positional time series for
118 the period between January 2018 and February 2023 (Dach et al., 2015; Teunissen & Mon-
119 tenbruck, 2017; “VMF Data Server”, 2021). Then, we clean the time series and adjust
120 a trajectory model to isolate the secular velocity for each station in the ITRF2014 sys-
121 tem (Huang et al., 2012; Bevis & Brown, 2014; Báez et al., 2018; Köhne et al., 2023).
122 We refer the reader to Supplementary Text S1 for further details.

123 Over the analyzed period, no transient motions are visible in the raw time series
124 or in the residuals of the trajectory model. The estimated horizontal velocities show a
125 gradual increase north of 29°S (Figure 1b). Between 29°S and 31°S, a decrease in the
126 magnitude of the velocities is observed in the area of the 2015 (M_w 8.3) Illapel earthquake
127 rupture (Figure 1a). Vertical motion shows subsidence at coastal stations at 27.2°S and
128 29°S, which may be related to changes in the depth of the locked zone.

129 We use the resulting velocities to estimate the degree of locking along the subduc-
130 tion megathrust based on the backslip model (Savage, 1983). We compute Green’s func-
131 tions accounting for interseismic viscoelastic relaxation using a finite element model, fol-

132 lowing the approach and rheological properties used by Aagaard et al. (2013); Li et al.
133 (2015). The interseismic deformation field in the forearc of northern and central Chile
134 is affected not only by contraction induced by plate coupling, but also by continental de-
135 formation driven by the partitioning of tectonic deformation along continental structures
136 (e.g. Yáñez-Cuadra et al., 2022). Thus, to estimate the degree of locking, it is necessary
137 to subtract the contribution of continental deformation from the regional displacement
138 field. Therefore, we corrected the velocities by subtracting the predicted regional con-
139 tinental deformation tensor estimated by Yáñez-Cuadra et al. (2022) from the estimated
140 displacements (Figure 1b). To estimate the degree of locking, we perform a Bayesian trans-
141 dimensional inversion (Green, 1995; Bodin & Sambridge, 2009; Sambridge, 2013) where
142 samples from the posterior probability function of backslip are obtained using the reversible
143 jump Markov chain Monte Carlo (rj-MCMC) method. In our approach, the spatial dis-
144 tribution of locking is discretized by Voronoi cells (Dettmer et al., 2014). The number
145 and location of Voronoi cell centers are not fixed, but are allowed to vary according to
146 a stochastic process. We impose constraints of positivity and maximum fault slip along
147 the up-dip direction (up-dip slip ≥ 0 and smaller than convergence rate between the tec-
148 tonic plates). We note that this methodology follows Bayesian parsimony, where the size
149 of the Voronoi cells slip discretization is driven by the resolving capability of the data
150 and the properties of the physical model. Therefore, in contrast to typical least-squares
151 optimization approaches that need some prior spatial smoothing constraint to solve the
152 inherently ill-posed slip inversion (e.g., Ortega-Culaciati et al., 2021), our approach does
153 not require such a subjective smoothing of the slip distribution (see Supplementary Text
154 S2).

155 Using the transdimensional approach, we obtain an ensemble of more than 1 mil-
156 lion locking models. From the ensemble, we compute the mean locking distribution shown
157 in Figure 1b. The model fit well the horizontal and vertical observations (Figure S2) and
158 shows a pattern of locking degree that increases northward, similar to the gradient shown
159 by the surface displacement field. Our results show high values of interplate locking in
160 the offshore region, with mostly lower values (<0.6) beneath the onshore regions. The
161 margin north of 27.5°S appears to be highly locked, with the highest values around 26°S .
162 A second smaller, less prominent locking high is situated in the south of the study area,
163 around $28\text{-}29^{\circ}\text{S}$. It is separated from the northern locking high by a narrow region with
164 a significantly lower locking degree around 27.7°S , where no values exceeding 0.5 are found.

165 Locking degree is very low in the southernmost part of the study region, possibly due
 166 to contamination with postseismic signals from the 2015 (M_w 8.3) Illapel earthquake.

167 **3 Seismicity catalog**

168 We analyzed data from 101 seismic stations located in the Atacama seismic gap
 169 ($24.4^\circ\text{S} - 30.3^\circ\text{S}$) that continuously recorded waveforms from November 2020 to July 2022
 170 (Figure 1). Given the large amount of data, we used an automated earthquake detec-
 171 tion and location workflow based on machine learning techniques for phase picking (EQTransformer;
 172 Mousavi et al., 2019, 2020; Münchmeyer et al., 2022; Woollam et al., 2022) and phase
 173 association (GaMMA; Zhu et al., 2022). We define events as having at least 7 P- and
 174 4 S-phases resulting in a seismicity catalog that features 30,560 events, comprising 469,980
 175 P-phases and 391,350 S-phases. We then successively relocated this catalog based on a
 176 1D as well as a 2D velocity model that was derived from a subset of our data (Kissling
 177 et al., 1994; Thurber & Eberhart-Phillips, 1999; Havskov et al., 2020), before eventually
 178 applying hypoDD (Waldhauser & Ellsworth, 2000) to obtain double-difference reloca-
 179 tions (see Text S3). We estimate average location errors to be <5 km inside the network,
 180 while they increase to 10-25 km outside the network toward the trench and volcanic arc.
 181 Local magnitudes range from 0.6 to 5.7 and we obtain an overall completeness magni-
 182 tude of 1.6 (Figure S9).

183 The seismicity catalog is presented in Figure 2. The apparent decay of seismicity
 184 north of $\sim 24.5^\circ\text{S}$ and south of $\sim 29.5^\circ\text{S}$ is likely due to the lower detection capability plus
 185 shorter deployment times in such regions. A continuous band of high background seis-
 186 micity beneath the coastline is the most prominent feature of the catalog. Events in this
 187 band, located ~ 30 -100 km from the trench, define two parallel planes with <10 km ver-
 188 tical separation in profile view (Figure 2b-e). While the upper plane likely corresponds
 189 to the deeper portion of the plate interface, its deepest ($i \sim 75$ km) portion is located
 190 inside the downgoing slab and corresponds to the upper band of an occasionally visible
 191 double seismic zone (DSZ, e.g. Brudzinski et al., 2007; Sippl et al., 2018). Seismicity
 192 is scarce at the shallower part of the plate interface, extending closer to the trench along
 193 a total of four or five narrow features (Figure 2a), that also host significant concentra-
 194 tions of repeating earthquakes (see Text S4). Seawards of the trench, scattered events
 195 south of 26°S likely occurred in the outer rise region. Due to their location far outside
 196 the network, the depth of these events is very badly defined. East of the coastline, seis-

197 micity is largely found inside the downgoing slab, confined to the uppermost 25-30 km
 198 of the lithosphere. Most of this intraslab seismicity occurs at \sim 50-120 km depth, between
 199 \sim 150-300 km distance from the trench. The geometry and vigor of intraslab seismicity
 200 is highly variable along strike. In the north (Figure 2b), most seismicity occurs in the
 201 uppermost 10-15 km of the slab, whereas deeper levels (20-30 km below slab surface) are
 202 most active further south (Figure 2d,e). In profiles c and d of Figure 2, a clear DSZ with
 203 about 15 km separation between both bands is visible. The southward transition to the
 204 Pampean flat slab is accompanied by high seismicity levels deeper within the downgo-
 205 ing slab. We obtain 3,431 upper plate seismic events, defined as those located at $<$ 15
 206 km depth and $>$ 5 km above the top of the subducted slab. Their occurrence rate is sig-
 207 nificantly increased during local daytime, suggesting a predominance of mining blast ac-
 208 tivity (Figure S10).

209 **4 Discussion**

210 **4.1 Relation between microseismicity and interplate locking**

211 Figure 3 summarizes the spatial relationship between interplate locking and the oc-
 212 currence of microseismicity along the North-Central Chile margin. The highest concen-
 213 tration of microseismicity is found to occur just seawards and beneath the coastline (Fig-
 214 ure 3a), with hypocentral depths between \sim 25 and 40 km. This location roughly cor-
 215 responds to the landward edge of the highly locked regions, indicating that most seis-
 216 micity occurs where locking starts to decrease in the downdip direction (Figure 3c). In
 217 contrast, the shallow part of the megathrust is largely aseismic, and most seismicity that
 218 extends further towards the trench is confined to a weakly locked region between \sim 27.5
 219 and 28°S. When projected in the along-strike direction (Figure 3b), the highest seismic-
 220 ity concentrations and the largest number of repeating earthquakes (Uchida & Matsuzawa,
 221 2013) can be found along the northern and southern terminations of the southern highly
 222 locked patch.

223 A very similar pattern of seismicity and interplate locking was found just south of
 224 the study region (Sippl et al., 2021), where it was interpreted as the signature of mature
 225 asperities on the megathrust. Accumulation of convergence over most of the seismic cy-
 226 cle creates a “halo” of high stresses around the downdip edge of highly locked regions
 227 (e.g. Moreno et al., 2018; Schurr et al., 2020). This “halo” may be the cause of the high

228 levels of background seismicity we observe on the deeper part of the plate interface. The
229 weak locking and high seismicity we obtain around 27.7°S likely represents a segment
230 of the megathrust that features more aseismic deformation. Weak locking in this loca-
231 tion is a stable feature across all published locking maps of the area (Métois et al., 2016;
232 Klein, Métois, et al., 2018; Yáñez-Cuadra et al., 2022), and numerous indicators for slow
233 slip processes have been observed here (Section 4.2; Figure 4). The seismicity in the shal-
234 lower part of the plate interface in this region is probably driven by such slow slip pro-
235 cesses, which explains its absence in other, more highly locked regions of the megath-
236 rust.

237 The southern termination of the southern locked patch around 29°S features in-
238 creased seismicity levels and elevated numbers of repeating earthquakes (Figure 2), sim-
239 ilar to the region around 27.7°S. While the resolution of our catalog is very low south
240 of ~29°S, Sippl et al. (2021) shows an extended zone of increased shallow plate inter-
241 face seismicity up to ~30.5°S. This could hint the presence of aseismic processes related
242 to the incoming Challenger Fracture Zone (Figures 1a and 3), which is thought to have
243 prescribed the northern termination of the 2015 M_w 8.3 Illapel earthquake (e.g., Tilmann
244 et al., 2016; Poli et al., 2017).

245 4.2 Seismic and aseismic signature of the Copiapó Ridge

246 Figure 4 summarizes observations of seismic and aseismic processes in the vicin-
247 ity of the incoming Copiapó Ridge. A prominent offshore seismic swarm occurred in the
248 region in 2006 (Holtkamp et al., 2011), and similar swarm occurrences have been reported
249 for the years 1973, 1979 and 2015 (e.g., Ojeda et al., 2023). The 2014 SSE was situated
250 further downdip but covered the same latitudinal range (Klein, Duputel, et al., 2018).
251 A similar SSE was identified starting in March 2020, confined to the southern part of
252 the 2014 SSE (Klein et al., 2023). Aseismic slip continued at least until September 2020,
253 when the Atacama seismic sequence (see below) began to shadow the SSE signal. Non-
254 volcanic tremor events observed in 2019 (Pastén-Araya et al., 2022) occurred directly up-
255 dip of the 2014 SSE. In September 2020, only 2.5 months before the start of our cata-
256 log and GNSS observations, the Atacama seismic sequence occurred, featuring three ma-
257 jor earthquakes of $M > 6$. In addition, unusually large amounts of aseismic slip, equiv-
258 alent to M_w 6.8, occurred within the weakly coupled patch between the mainshock of
259 the Atacama seismic sequence and the southern edge of the 2014 SSE (Klein et al., 2021).

260 This sequence was situated along the southern edge of our inferences of weak locking,
261 whereas all previously mentioned observations of earthquake swarms, SSEs and NVTs
262 were situated 50-100 km further north (Figure 4). We found continued elevated back-
263 ground seismicity rates throughout the studied time interval in the latitudinal range of
264 the 2020 Atacama sequence, accompanied by some repeating earthquakes (Figure 2).

265 Taken together, all these observations highlight the complex interplay of seismic
266 and aseismic processes in the direct vicinity of the subduction of the Copiapó Ridge. It
267 has previously been shown that elevated roughness on the downgoing plate leads to re-
268 duced interplate coupling (Wang & Bilek, 2014), as well as the formation of weakly cou-
269 pled, creeping segments that may act as “barriers” to large earthquakes due to the lack
270 of stress accumulation. Subducting ridges have also been shown to feature enhanced hy-
271 dration of the downgoing plate, which can further reduce interplate coupling through the
272 release of fluids and the subsequent increase of pore fluid pressure on the plate interface
273 (e.g. Moreno et al., 2014). While these observations suggest that the region around 27.7°S
274 represents a weakly locked “barrier” that may hinder the propagation of large megath-
275 rust earthquakes, the two last major earthquakes in 1922 and 1819 have both ruptured
276 across it (Figure 1a). North of 26°S, the Taltal Ridge impinges onto the North-Central
277 Chilean margin. Although its offshore bathymetric expression is similar to the Copiapó
278 Ridge (Figure 1), we do not retrieve a region of lower interplate locking degree or ele-
279 vated seismicity in this region (Figures 1 and 3). Whether this implies that the Taltal
280 Ridge has only recently started to be subducted, or whether it possesses properties that
281 clearly distinguish it from the Copiapó Ridge, is currently unclear.

282 **4.3 Intraslab seismicity**

283 Here we only provide a brief general overview of intraslab seismicity, with a more
284 detailed analysis delegated to a future study. Our catalog shows Nazca plate intraslab
285 seismicity occurring at depths ranging 35-~120 km. A DSZ can be recognized, with its
286 upper seismicity band most vigorously active directly beneath where most plate inter-
287 face seismicity occurs (Figure 2c). The lower band of the DSZ, located ~15 km below
288 the upper band, within the downgoing slab, shows only weak activity at depths shallower
289 than 80 km. At larger depths, seismicity in deeper levels of the slab intensifies. Thus,
290 being harder to distinguish the two bands of the DSZ, as seismicity fills the gap between
291 the two zones, in a similar manner as independent observations in Northern Chile (e.g.

292 Sippl et al., 2018). Most of this deeper intraslab seismicity is concentrated south of 27°S,
293 with a clear maximum around 27.4°S. Intraslab earthquakes at intermediate depths are
294 thought to be related to dehydration processes in the downgoing oceanic lithosphere (e.g.
295 Hacker et al., 2003; Zhan, 2020). It is widely assumed that the loci and rate of seismic-
296 ity in the slab represent the distribution of fluid release at depth. The concentration of
297 deeper seismicity around 27.4°S may be the signature of increased hydration of the down-
298 going Copiapó Ridge. Streaks of increased intermediate-depth seismicity have been pre-
299 viously shown along the trace of downgoing ocean features along the Chilean margin (e.g.
300 Kirby et al., 1996; Geersen et al., 2022). We could hypothesize there is a direct causal
301 link between the different signatures of the Copiapó Ridge on the plate interface (low
302 locking degree and seismicity) and within the slab (increased seismicity), through fluid
303 processes, for instance. Alternatively, both behaviors may be independent consequences
304 of ridge subduction. Discriminating between these hypotheses is beyond the scope of this
305 contribution. We note that the signature of the Taltal Ridge further north is again less
306 clearly visible, if present at all.

307 5 Conclusions

308 We combine novel highly resolved seismological and geodetic observations and model
309 these using frontier techniques. Our results identify a number of distinct seismic and aseis-
310 mic patterns that appear to be mainly influenced by the structure of the downgoing Nazca
311 Plate. Our inferred locking distribution suggests that the Atacama seismic gap consists
312 of two highly coupled regions of different sizes, separated by a creeping corridor with higher
313 background seismicity. The geometry of these two “asperities” appears to control seis-
314 micity patterns. While the highly locked shallow part of the plate interface presents scarce
315 seismicity, the downdip limit of interplate locking is marked by a band of background
316 seismicity located beneath the coastline. Interplate locking decreases significantly around
317 27.7°S, where seismicity reaches shallower depths and numerous indicators for ongoing
318 aseismic slip processes have been observed. The subduction of the Copiapó Ridge at this
319 latitude creates a clear signature along the megathrust and at deeper depths inside the
320 downgoing slab, both as a consequence of bathymetric roughness and/or increased (de)hydration.

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Data Availability

The seismic waveforms we used in this paper to compile the earthquake catalog was retrieved from the GEOFON data centre of the GFZ German Research Centre for Geosciences and IRIS Web, and come from the networks Y6 (Tilmann et al., 2021), XZ (Socquet

352 et al., 2025), CX (GFZ & CNRS-INSU, 2006), C1 (Universidad de Chile, 2013), C (<https://www.fdsn.org/network>)
 353 and IU (Albuquerque Seismological Laboratory/USGS (ASL), 2014). XZ data are archived
 354 at the EPOS-FRANCE RESIF data center (https://seismology.resif.fr/fr/reseaux/#/XZ_2020)
 355 and will be opened at the end of the project (2026). Moment tensors used in Figure 4
 356 were retrieved from the GEOFON program of the GFZ German Research Centre for Geo-
 357 sciences (<https://geofon.gfz-potsdam.de/eqinfo/>). The earthquake catalog, GNSS time
 358 series and locking model presented in this article will be available as a data publication
 359 at the GFZ Data Center at <https://nextcloud.gfz-potsdam.de/s/oGAbANpe2jQiBzd> (tem-
 360 porary link; the dataset will be archived at GFZ data services and a DOI issued for it
 361 after taking into account reviewer comments).

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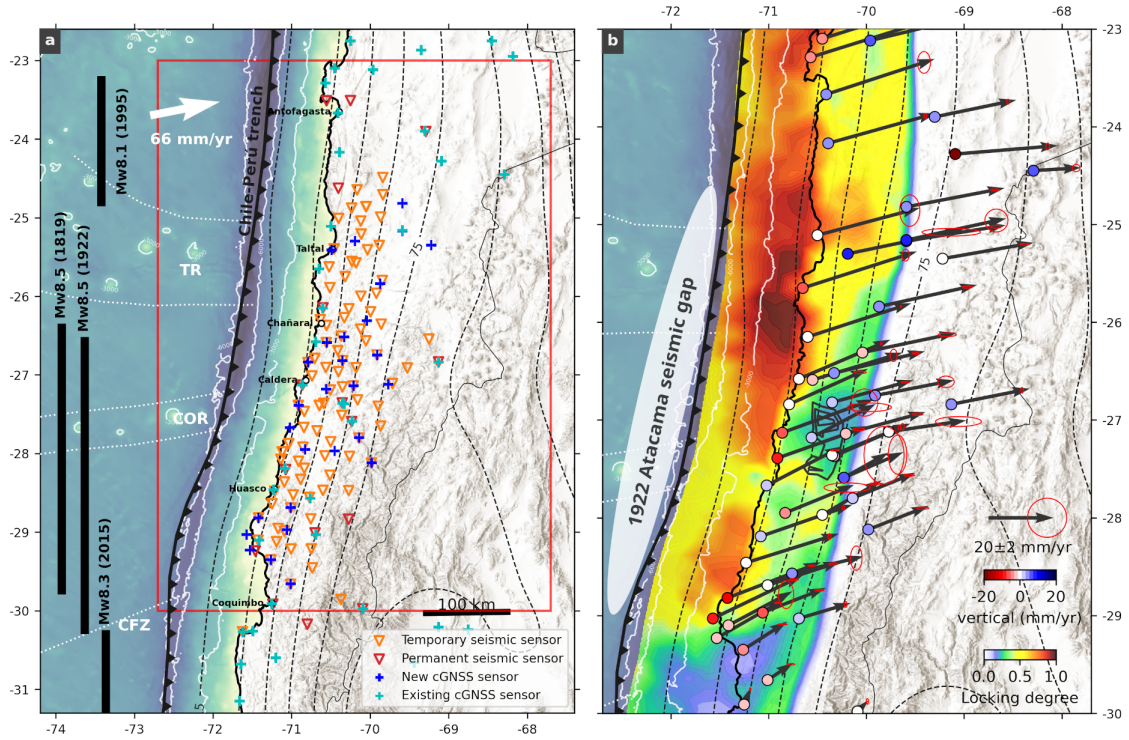


Figure 1. (a) Map view showing the distribution of existing and new GNSS and seismic networks in North-central Chile. The slab surface after model slab2 (Hayes et al., 2018) is shown with dashed black contour lines at 15 km intervals, the black barbed line marks the Chile-Peru trench and the white dotted outlines show prominent seafloor features (CFZ - Challenger Fracture Zone; COR - Capiapó Ridge; TR - Taltal Ridge). Rupture extents of historical megathrust earthquakes ($M > 8$) are shown on the left. The red rectangle shows the extent of subfigure b). (b) Horizontal (vectors) and vertical (point coloring) velocities and uncertainties (red ellipses) of GNSS stations used in this study, shown together with the derived mean interplate locking model. The extent of the 1922 Atacama seismic gap is shown by the white ellipse on the left.

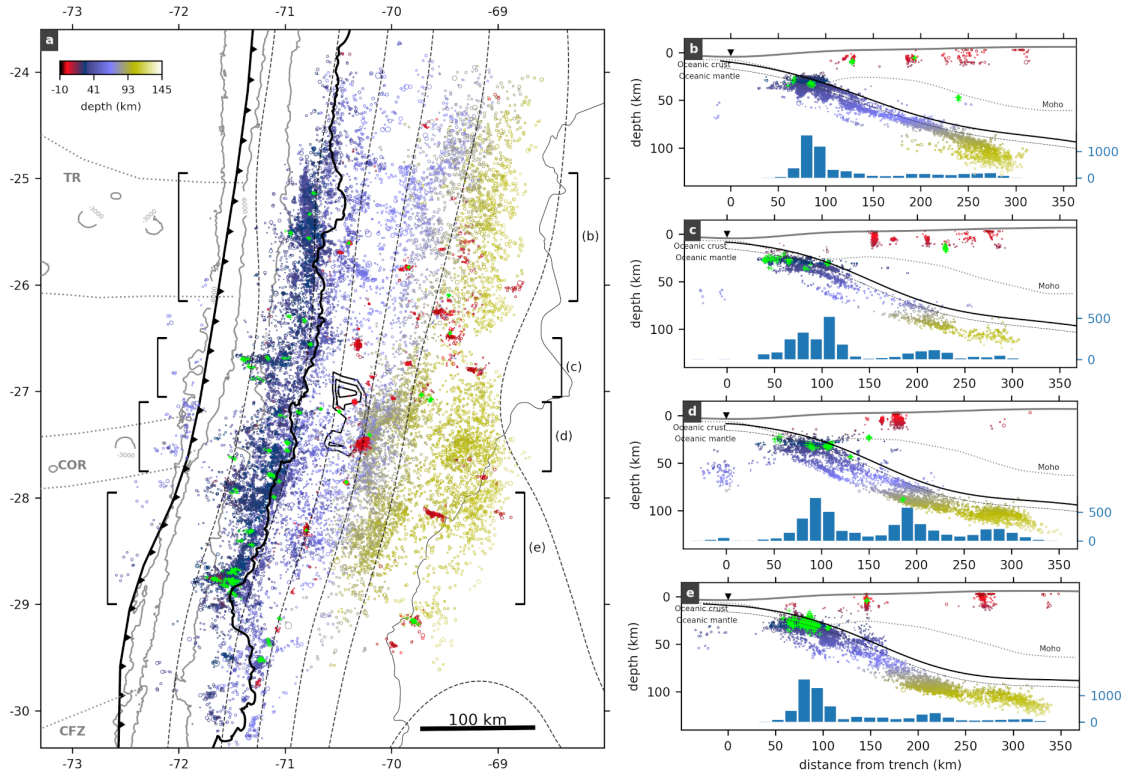


Figure 2. Map view (a) and profile projections (b-e) of the 30,560 hypocenters in the seismicity catalog, color-coded by depth. Families of repeaters are shown by green plus markers. The locations and swath widths of the profile projections are indicated by the black brackets in subfigure a). The black barbed line in the map view plot marks the location of the trench, the dotted pale grey lines show prominent seafloor features. The slab2 slab surface (Hayes et al., 2018) is shown with dashed contour lines in a) and with solid lines in the profile plots. The dashed black line in the profiles shows the inferred oceanic Moho located 7km below the slab2 surface. The dotted thin line shows the continental Moho from Tassara and Echaurren (2012). The position of the trench is marked by black inverted triangles. The blue histograms show earthquake numbers along the profiles, excluding upper plate seismicity.

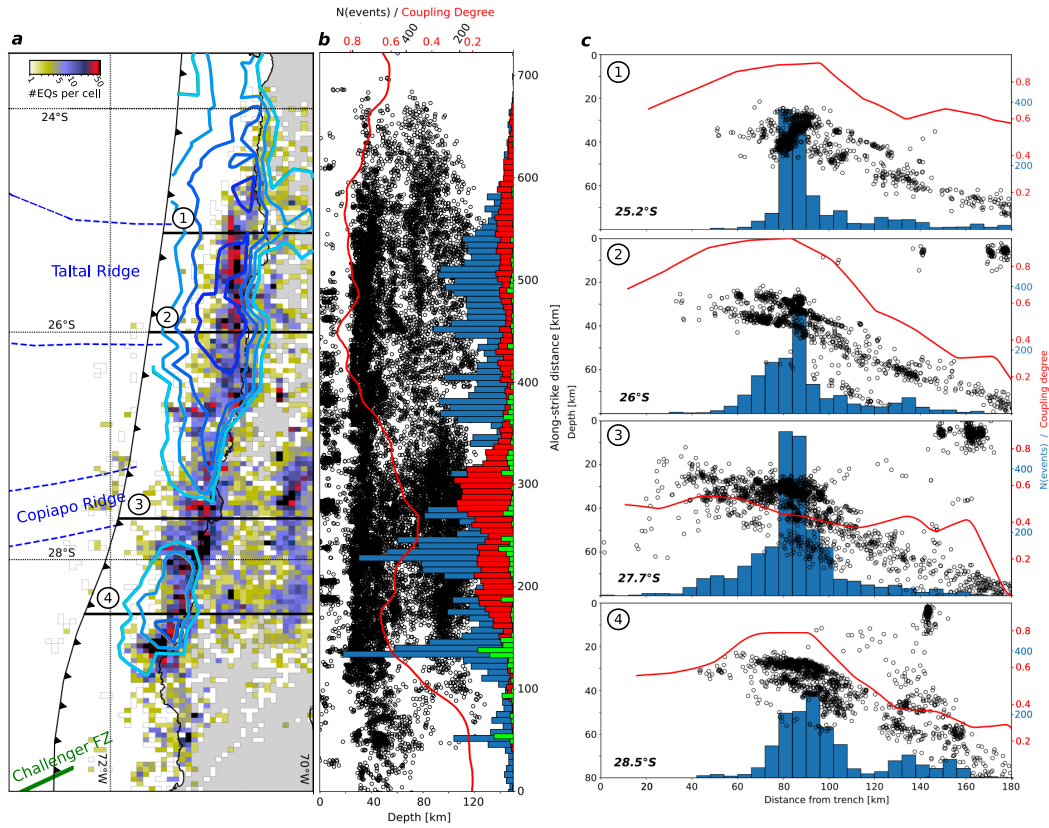


Figure 3. Correlating seismicity and interplate locking patterns. a) Map view plot of seismicity density, showing contours of mean interplate locking (0.6, 0.7, 0.8 and 0.9) as well as features on the downgoing oceanic plate. Black lines mark the locations of the W-E profiles shown in subfigure c). b) Projection of seismicity onto a single longitudinal plane. Histogram in blue represents the amount of seismicity in the vicinity of the plate interface (20-70 km depth), histogram in red the intermediate-depth seismicity (depth >70 km), and histogram in green the repeating earthquakes. Red line shows the average locking degree of the uppermost 40 km of the plate interface according to the locking model shown in Figure 1b. c) Narrow W-E profiles of seismicity (swath width $\pm 0.2^\circ$ around nominal latitude), showing event numbers in the depth range 20-70 km with the blue histograms. Red line represents the average locking degree in a swath of $\pm 0.1^\circ$ around the profile location.

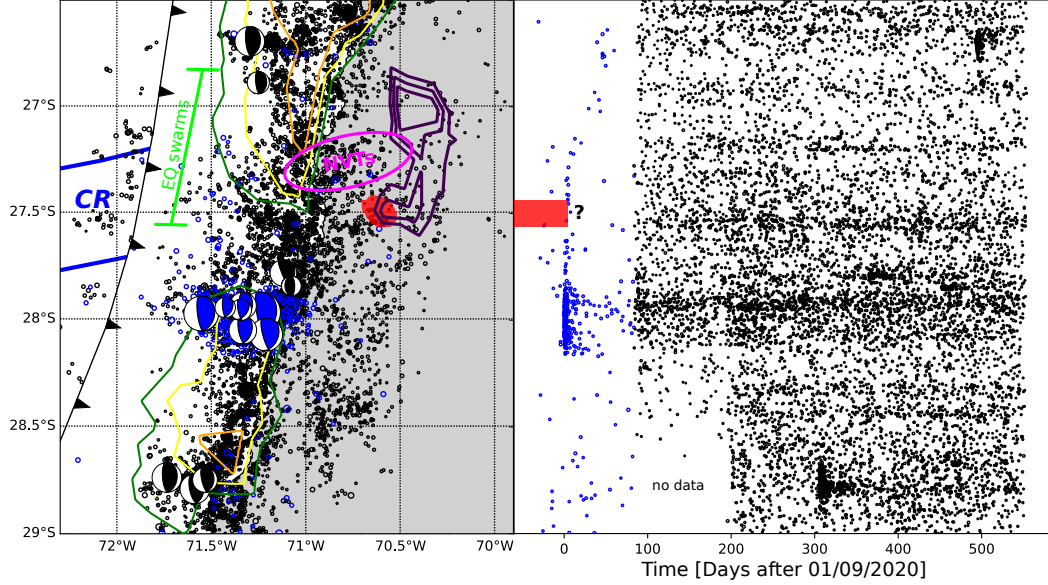


Figure 4. (left) Zoom-in to the weakly locked region ($\sim 27.5^\circ S$) onshore of the incoming Copiapó Ridge. Blue circles mark earthquakes between 01/08 and 23/11/2020, taken from the CSN catalog (Barrientos, 2018) and mostly showing the 2020 Atacama sequence (Klein et al., 2021). Black circles show earthquakes from our catalog, starting on 23/11/2020. Beachballs show lower-hemisphere projections of focal mechanisms for events with magnitude ≥ 4.8 , taken from GEOFON. Purple contours mark the location of aseismic slip during the 2014 SSE (Klein, Duputel, et al., 2018), the red dot marks the approximate position of the 2020 SSE (Klein et al., 2023). The latitudinal range of earthquake swarms in 1973, 1979, 2006 and 2015 (Ojeda et al., 2023) is indicated by the green bracket, and the pink ellipse shows where non-volcanic tremor was identified in 2019 (Pastén-Araya et al., 2022). Green, yellow and orange lines mark locking degree contour lines of 0.6, 0.7 and 0.8. (right) Plot of earthquake latitudes against time, showing CSN catalog earthquakes in blue and our catalog in black. A horizontal stripe of increased seismicity is present at the latitude of the 2020 Atacama sequence. The red stripe marks the 2020 SSE.