

2 Appendix : GPS data analysis and data interpretation

3 GPS data analysis and transient deformation

4 Velocities of GPS sites throughout Japan are derived from combination of SINEX
5 (Solution INdependent EXchange format) files provided to us by the Geographical
6 Survey Institute (GSI; <http://mekira.gsi.go.jp/>) from their daily processing of the
7 continuous GPS Earth Observation Network (GEONET) network in Japan (~1200 CGPS
8 sites in total) (Miyazaki et al., 1998; Sagiya et al, 2000). The daily network processing of
9 the GEONET network is conducted by GSI (Sagiya et al., 2000), with Bernese GPS
10 processing software (Rothacher and Mervart, 1996; Beutler et al., 2001) using standard
11 processing methods. The SINEX files we use are from one day every three months for the
12 period 1996-2004. In order to combine the daily SINEX files to estimate velocities for
13 the CGPS sites in Japan relative to a known terrestrial reference frame, we use GLOBK
14 software (e.g., Herring, 2001). To help place the Japanese dataset in a global context, we
15 also use daily solutions from Scripps Institute of Oceanography processing of the global
16 IGS network of GPS sites (<http://sopac.ucsd.edu>), as well as SINEX files from processing
17 of a subset of ~10 Japanese sites and several global sites that have been submitted by GSI
18 to the Crustal Dynamics Data Information System (CDDIS; <http://cddis.gsfc.nasa.gov/>).
19 Using GLOBK we estimate a rotation and translation of each dataset into the ITRF2000
20 reference frame (Altamimi et al., 2002), for each day. To accomplish this, we tightly
21 constrain the coordinates of a subset of the most reliable IGS GPS stations to their known
22 ITRF2000 values. We do this for each set of daily solutions to obtain a time series of site
23 positions in the ITRF2000 reference frame. The ITRF2000 velocities at each GPS station
24 are calculated by a linear fit to the daily ITRF2000 coordinates. The uncertainties in the
25 linear fits are derived using a white-noise model, so the uncertainties are seriously

underestimated (e.g., Zhang et al., 1997; Williams et al., 2004). We multiply the formal uncertainties by 5 to give “reasonable” values of about 1 mm/yr uncertainty in horizontal velocities for long-running stations within Japan (T. Nishimura, pers. comm., 2005). Ideally, the GPS velocity errors should be assessed more rigorously. This will require maximum-likelihood analysis of (probably daily, perhaps weekly) time series of GPS positions, to define the appropriate noise model for the data and to calculate a realistic velocity uncertainty (e.g., Williams et al., 2004; Langbein, 2004).

It is very important to avoid the effects on our velocity estimates from earthquakes and slow slip events. The major events influencing the GPS time series in Kyushu from 1996-early 2004 are coseismic and postseismic displacements from two large thrust earthquakes ($M_s = 6.7$) near Hyuga-nada in 1996 (Yagi et al., 2001), the 1996-1997 Bungo Channel slow slip event (Hirose et al., 1999), and the 1997 Kagoshima-ken-hokuseibu earthquake (Fujiwara et al., 1998). To remove the influence of these transient displacements from the time series, we removed the time series data prior to 1998 in the regions affected by these events. Moreover, to avoid influence from the 2003 Bungo Channel slow slip event (Hirose and Obara, 2005), we did not include data from that region later than early 2003. GPS sites in the Kagoshima region were affected by an inflation event at Aira caldera throughout the GPS measurement period (Kriswati and Iguchi, 2003); we used Mogi source parameters for the inflation event estimated by Nishimura et al. (2004) to remove this effect from the dataset. We also conducted a visual inspection of the daily GPS position time series for all the sites in Kyushu and the southwest Honshu region to ensure that our velocity estimates do not include non-linear behavior that does not represent steady movement during the interseismic period.

49 We also used in our inversion other published GPS velocity fields from Heki et al.
50 (1999), Calais et al., (2003), Sella et al. (2002), Beavan et al. (2002), and Prawirodirdjo
51 and Bock (2004) to help place the Kyushu velocities into a regional kinematic context.

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53 **Interpretation of GPS velocities using the elastic block approach**

54 To interpret the GPS velocities, we use an approach developed by McCaffrey
55 (2002) which performs a non-linear inversion to simultaneously estimate the angular
56 velocities of elastic blocks and coupling coefficients on block-bounding faults, to give the
57 best fit to the GPS velocities, and optionally, earthquake slip vectors, and geological fault
58 slip rates and azimuths. The data misfit, defined by the reduced chi-squared statistic (χ_r^2),
59 is minimized. The method also allows us to optimally rotate multiple GPS velocity
60 solutions into a common reference frame.

61 In the block models presented here, we define a Eurasian Plate, Amurian Plate,
62 Philippine Sea Plate, and Southwest Japan Block (Fig. 3). We define most of the
63 boundaries of the large plates (Amurian, Philippine Sea and Eurasian Plates) based on a
64 digital compilation of tectonic plate boundaries by Bird (2003). The inclusion of these
65 larger plates also helps us in establishing the overall plate motion budget that must occur
66 across the plate boundary zone in southwest Japan. The Southwest Japan/Amurian Block
67 boundary is defined by a zone of distributed faulting and historical strike-slip earthquakes
68 near the west coast of Japan (Gutscher and Lallemand, 1999).

69 We have tested a variety of scenarios for dividing the forearc in southwest Japan
70 into blocks. The three models we present here, are (1) where the forearc region (e.g.,
71 Satsuma, Ohsumi and eastern Kyushu blocks) constitutes a single block, (2) where the
72 forearc is divided into two blocks (an eastern Kyushu block, and a combined Satsuma and
73 Ohsumi block), and (3) where the Satsuma, Ohsumi and eastern Kyushu blocks are three

74 separate forearc blocks (Fig. 3). These three models allow us to test whether or not the
75 proposed left-lateral shear zone is required by the GPS data, and also to test for possible
76 crustal deformation in the Kagoshima Graben region. For details of model results see
77 discussion in main manuscript. In all models presented here, we also include a separate
78 Shikoku block, bounded to the northwest by the Median Tectonic Line and bounded to
79 the southeast by the Nankai Trough. The Ohsumi block is bounded to the west by the
80 Kagoshima graben, and to the north by the left-lateral shear zone that we identify from
81 GPS site velocities and seismicity (e.g., Kodama et al., 1995; Nishimura and Hashimoto,
82 2006). We use the Kagoshima graben as a boundary in some of our models based on
83 evidence from GPS (Fig. 3) and geology (Aramaki, 1984) for active extension in the
84 Kagoshima Graben, and paleomagnetic evidence that southeast Kyushu (east of the
85 Kagoshima graben) has rotated independently of the rest of Kyushu for the last 2-6 Myr
86 (Kodama et al., 1995). The Satsuma block is bounded on the east by the Kagoshima
87 graben and on the north by the hypothesized active left-lateral shear zone. The eastern
88 Kyushu block encompasses more than half of the Kyushu forearc, whose western
89 boundary is the Beppu-Shimabara graben.

90 To define the subduction interface fault (Nankai Trough and Ryukyu Trench), we
91 use the configuration for the Nankai subduction interface from Shiomi et al. (2004) (Fig.
92 3). Individual nodes on the subduction interface are defined at an average spacing of ~50
93 km apart along strike, and at 10 km depth intervals between 0 and 50 km depth (Fig. 3).
94 We define the Median Tectonic Line as a northward dipping fault, based on geophysical
95 evidence (Ito et al., 1996). We approximate the Beppu-Shimabara Graben (BSG)
96 boundary as a single fault in the model, although more complex deformation on several
97 faults across a zone is likely to be a more realistic scenario there (Kamata and Kodama,
98 1994). We set the BSG fault to dip northwest, in part, to deal with possible distributed

99 deformation due to faulting northwest of our prescribed boundary. McCaffrey's (2002)
100 method is used to solve for coupling coefficients at nodes on the Nankai Trough and
101 Ryukyu Trench, the fault representing the BSG, the Median Tectonic Line, and, in some
102 cases, the faults representing the extensional zone in the Kagoshima Graben and a
103 possible zone of left-lateral strike-slip cross-cutting southeast Kyushu (Fig. 3). To
104 represent the change in coupling coefficient (ϕ) values between adjacent nodes, ϕ values
105 on 5 km x 5 km rectangular fault patches between the nodes are estimated by bilinear
106 interpolation. Additional free parameters in the inversion are the rotation parameters
107 (three for each block) for the tectonic blocks relative to a fixed Eurasian-plate, and
108 rotation parameters that rotate each GPS velocity dataset into a Eurasia-fixed reference
109 frame. Inversion results for the three models are discussed in more detail in the main
110 manuscript.

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