

1    **Fan Delta Uplift and Mountain Subsidence during the 2010 Haiti Earthquake**

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9    **The relative motion between the Caribbean and North American plates is accommodated by**  
10   **several active faults and folds in and around Hispaniola Island (1–3). The**  
11   **Enriquillo-Plantain Garden fault (EPGF) in southern Haiti is one of these structures (2, 4),**  
12   **and a strain equivalent to an Mw 7.2 event is estimated to have accumulated along this fault**  
13   **since its last major activity (4). The Haiti earthquake of 12 January 2010 was initially**  
14   **reported to have occurred along this fault (5, 6), but more recent studies proposed slips on**  
15   **previously unrecognised faults (5, 7-8). Here we show crustal displacement caused by the**  
16   **Haiti earthquake, as detected by interferometric synthetic aperture radar (InSAR). The**  
17   **radar images show uplift of an alluvial fan delta on the north side of the EPGF and subsidence**  
18   **of mountains to its south. By inverting the interferograms using a nonlinear inverse method**  
19   **based on Bayesian modelling (9), the fault was modelled dipping northward at  $42^\circ$ , with large**  
20   **thrust components. Maximum displacement was about 4 m at about 10–20 km depth below**  
21   **the offshore area near the Tiburon peninsula, Haiti. The earthquake indeed ruptured a blind**  
22   **thrust fault that could not be identified from large-scale present-day topography.**

24       The Caribbean and North American plates are converging in an ENE–WSW direction across the  
25       east-trending Puerto Rico trench at about 20 mm/yr (Fig. 1). The crustal strain caused by this  
26       oblique motion is accommodated by several active faults and folds in and around Hispaniola (1).  
27       The NW-trending anticlines on land and offshore (1) imply a NE-oriented compressional stress  
28       regime. An uplift rate of 0.37 mm/yr has been estimated for the northwest coast of Hispaniola,  
29       whereas a negligible uplift rate has been documented in Gonave Island (1). Global Positioning  
30       System (GPS)-based studies have shown that more than two-thirds of the relative plate motion is  
31       accommodated by EPGF (~7 mm/yr) and the Septentrional fault (~9 mm/yr), which are considered  
32       to be the boundaries between the Gonave microplate and the Caribbean and North American plates,  
33       respectively (2, 3). Prior to the 2010 earthquake, the accumulated strain energy in this fault was  
34       estimated to be equivalent to an Mw 7.2 event (4).

35       On 12 January 2010, an Mw 7.0 earthquake occurred in southern Haiti, causing severe damage  
36       in and around the capital city of Port-au-Prince (5). More than 220,000 fatalities were reported.  
37       Although no surface ruptures were documented (5), the earthquake was initially reported to have  
38       ruptured the EPGF (5, 6). The topography west of the epicentre exhibits a clear contrast across the  
39       EPGF, with the Quaternary Leogane fan delta on the north side of the fault and a mountain range  
40       (Massif de la Selle) on the south side (Fig. 1). The trace of the EPGF is clear between the Leogane  
41       fan delta and Port-au-Prince, which suggests major recent high activity.

42       A seismological study showed that the Haiti mainshock was produced by left-lateral strike-slip  
43       with slight reverse motion on a steep (~70°) NNW-dipping plane, but that aftershocks were

44 associated with reverse faulting ( $\sim 30^{\circ}$ – $45^{\circ}$ ) with NNE-oriented P-axes (10). The strike of the  
45 nodal plane of the centroid-moment-tensor (CMT) solution ( $250^{\circ}$ ) is oblique to the approximately  
46 east–west orientation of the EPGF. These observations raise serious questions about the  
47 mechanism of the Haiti earthquake, the tectonics of this region, and hazard evaluation. To resolve  
48 these conflicts, the coseismic deformation and fault parameters of the Haiti earthquake must be  
49 examined.

50 Synthetic aperture radar (SAR) images were used to study coseismic deformation. These images  
51 were obtained by the phased-array-type L-band SAR (PALSAR) on Japan’s Advanced Land  
52 Observation Satellite (ALOS). This system uses longer microwave wavelengths than other SAR  
53 sensors, allowing it to penetrate heavily vegetated areas such as tropical forests.

54 Interferograms were computed using four pairs of fine-beam SAR images (three from ascending  
55 and one from descending orbits; Supplementary Figs. S1 and S2). Examination of each  
56 interferogram revealed artefacts linked to orbital inaccuracies and atmospheric stratification. In  
57 areas beyond the deformed region, two types of artefacts were approximated using a bilinear ramp  
58 and linearly correlated change with altitude, respectively, and then subtracted from the data. In the  
59 corrected ascending interferograms (Fig. 2a), at least six cycles of fringes are evident in the  
60 Leogane fan delta. The decrease in range (distance between the satellite and earth’s surface) is  
61 approximately 70 cm at the centre of these fringes. These fringes are oblique to and cross the  
62 EPGF. Other broad fringes that correspond to range increase are evident in the south. In the  
63 corrected descending interferogram (Fig. 2b), a cluster of fringes that corresponds to up to 60 cm of

64 range decrease is also evident in the Leogane fan delta. Another concentric fringe associated with  
65 a range decrease is just north of the epicentre. Broad fringes with associated range increase are  
66 also present south of the EPGF.

67 Ascending and descending line-of-sight displacements were converted into quasi-vertical (Fig.  
68 2c) and east–west (Supplementary Fig. S3) components. Azimuth offsets (Supplementary Fig. S4)  
69 confirmed that there was a minimal north–south component of the displacement, which implies that  
70 the quasi-vertical component (Fig. 3) consisted of predominantly vertical motion. The  
71 quasi-vertical displacements indicate uplift of the Leogane fan delta by up to 60 cm, which is  
72 consistent with observed uplift of micro-atolls (7). This area also moved westward by up to 80 cm  
73 (Supplementary Fig. S3). In contrast, subsidence of up to 40 cm was apparent in the Massif de la  
74 Selle, where little east–west motion took place.

75 ScanSAR images, covering widths of approximately 350 km, provided a deformation map for  
76 most of Hispaniola. The original image was divided into five swaths (11) and interferometric  
77 analyses were performed for each swath independently (Supplementary Fig. S5). The coherence  
78 was very high owing to the small perpendicular baselines (Supplementary Table S1), and the phase  
79 continuity between the swaths was good. Coseismic fringes similar to those in Figure 2b are  
80 evident, as would be expected from the similarity of the line-of-sight directions. Little  
81 deformation was present in the vicinity of the Septentrional fault in northern Haiti.

82 The slip distribution and dip angle of the fault plane were estimated by inverting the  
83 interferograms using a nonlinear inverse method (9) based on Akaike's Bayesian information

84 criterion (ABIC) (12, 13). We assumed a planar fault dipping northward with a strike of  $260^\circ$ ,  
85 which is roughly consistent with that of the local trace of the EPGF. The location of the upper  
86 margin of the fault was determined based on the local topography and the interferograms (Fig. 2c).  
87 The modelled fault plane was 102 km long and 0–39 km deep. Both dip and strike components of  
88 slip were estimated. As basis functions, we used bicubic B-splines, with 3-km grid spacing in both  
89 the strike and depth directions. We searched for the optimal dip angle between  $30^\circ$  and  $80^\circ$ .

90 For inversion inputs, the interferograms were sampled with the quadtree technique (14), with  
91 the threshold set to 1.4 rad ( $\sim 2.6$  cm). For ScanSAR interferograms, only the three strips near the  
92 epicentre were used. In total, 964 samples were used. Observations along each path were  
93 conducted independently, creating offsets between interferograms along different paths. Therefore  
94 we also estimated these offsets in the inversion.

95 The optimal model selected according to the ABIC minimum has a dip angle of  $42^\circ$   
96 (Supplementary Fig. S6). The optimal dip angle is much shallower than the  $70^\circ$  of the CMT  
97 estimate (10, 15) and instead coincides with those of the aftershocks (10). A difference of two in  
98 the ABIC is considered statistically significant. The error in the estimation of the dip angle is  
99 about  $\pm 3^\circ$ . Models with a higher dip angle ( $\sim 70^\circ$ ) produced significantly larger ABICs, which led  
100 to rejection of the steeply dipping fault plane geometry (Supplementary Fig. S6). The total  
101 variance was reduced by 75%.

102 The distribution of estimated slip and its error (standard deviation) projected onto a vertical  
103 plane along the strike of the modelled fault (Fig. 3a, b) shows two patches of large slip at a depth of

104 around 10 km: one is near the hypocenter with a maximum slip of about 3.5 m, and the other is  
105 about 20 km to the west with a maximum slip of about 4 m. The estimated geodetic moment was  
106  $6.0 \pm 0.9 \times 10^{19} \text{ N}\cdot\text{m}$  (Mw 7.1) using a rigidity of 33 GPa. Thrust motion prevailed in the eastern  
107 patch, whereas left-lateral motion was dominant in the western patch. Although slip with an  
108 opposing sense is evident on the deep eastern part of the fault plane, the peak amplitude of this slip  
109 is as large as the estimated error. These opposing slips suggest that the rupture and the fault's  
110 geometry were more complex than had been assumed. A surface projection of the slip distribution  
111 with the synthesized interferograms (Fig. 3c, d) indicates that the areas of large slip are located  
112 beneath the Leogane fan delta and offshore. This model provides an explanation of the large uplift  
113 in the Leogane fan delta obtained by InSAR (Fig. 3c, d; Supplementary Fig. S7).

114 Our estimate of released moment is slightly larger than seismological estimates ( $4.4 \sim 4.7 \times 10^{19}$   
115  $\text{N}\cdot\text{m}$ ) (6, 10, 15). The discrepancy is attributable to large aftershocks, post-seismic deformation,  
116 and uncertainty in the present model and seismological estimates. Large aftershocks spanned by  
117 the coseismic interferograms contributed up to  $3.9 \times 10^{18} \text{ N}\cdot\text{m}$  (10). A few previous studies  
118 examined the rupture process of this event using a variety of data (InSAR, GPS, micro-atoll, and  
119 teleseismic waves) (7, 8). They also reported that dominant moment release occurred in two areas  
120 on a north-dipping plane beneath the Leogane fan delta.

121 The most confounding aspect of the 2010 earthquake in Haiti is that the crustal movement  
122 shows no correspondence with the present-day large-scale topography: uplift in the Leogane fan  
123 delta and subsidence in the mountain range to its south. Although coseismic displacement may be

124 antithetical to the topographic expression for any given event, the possibility exists that crustal  
125 movement may eventually become consistent with topography after the completion of a full  
126 earthquake cycle, which includes not only coseismic slip, but also afterslips and viscoelastic  
127 relaxation of the asthenosphere. Such a case has been reported for a large interplate earthquake  
128 along the Nankai trough, Japan (16). However, considering the location and geometry of the  
129 inverted fault and the characteristics of viscoelastic relaxation (17), such a scenario is implausible  
130 for this earthquake. Two other possibilities remain. One possibility is that other types of faulting  
131 are responsible for the topography. In the 1989 Loma Prieta earthquake in California, Loma Prieta  
132 peak, the highest point in the Santa Cruz Mountains, subsided (18, 19). A different fault which  
133 uplifts Loma Prieta Peak is suggested to be dominant over a long time scale (20). The other  
134 possibility is that the mode of deformation is changing in this region. This may be the case for the  
135 2010 Haiti event because a geological study of the fold-and-thrust belt in central Haiti suggests that  
136 a NW-SE trending collision front propagates southward (Figure 1) (21).

137 The fact that the 2010 Haiti event occurred on a blind thrust fault raises serious concerns  
138 regarding the next event. The present model suggests that thrusting occurred on a separate plane  
139 from the main strand of the EPGF zone. Although the regional crustal stress is generally thought  
140 to have been at least partly released by the 2010 Haiti event, crustal stress, and the consequent  
141 seismic risks, may have increased locally (22). Since thrust and fold structures exist in southern  
142 Haiti, it is possible that other faults may be reactivated by the increased stress. Detailed modelling

143 using available geodetic and seismological data will be essential for a more realistic hazard  
144 evaluation.

145 The 2010 Haiti earthquake caused severe damage in the source region, including the capital city,  
146 Port-au-Prince. The cause of the damage in Port-au-Prince is controversial. One possibility is  
147 the directivity effect of the rupture: seismic energy is amplified in the direction of rupture  
148 propagation (23). However, the interferograms and fault model in this study show that the rupture  
149 was mainly west of the reported epicentre, which suggests that the rupture propagated from east to  
150 west, and that directivity was not responsible for the severe damage in Port-au-Prince. Therefore,  
151 the most plausible causes of the damage are poor construction and amplification of seismic waves  
152 due to soil conditions.

153

## 154 **Method**

155 Geodetic inversion for intraplate earthquakes is usually problematic because of unknown fault  
156 locations. However, the nonlinearity is weak if the fault surface can be assumed to be a flat plane.  
157 In particular, if any inference occurs in the vicinity of the fault trace, only the dip angle is unknown.  
158 Then, the originally nonlinear equation can be rewritten as (9)

$$159 \quad \mathbf{d} = \mathbf{H}(\delta)\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{e}, \quad (1)$$

160 where  $\mathbf{a}$  is the model parameter vector for slip,  $\mathbf{d}$  is the observed line-of-sight vector,  $\mathbf{e}$  is the error  
161 vector, and  $\mathbf{H}$  is a coefficient matrix that is a function of unknown dip angle  $\delta$ . Green's function  
162 for an elastic half-space with a Poisson's ratio of 0.25 is used.

163 An interferogram usually contains spatially correlated errors that largely come from  
 164 atmospheric water vapour variation. The error  $\mathbf{e}$  is assumed to be Gaussian with zero mean and  
 165 covariance  $\sigma^2 \mathbf{E}$ , for which the  $ij$  component is given as (9)

$$166 \quad E_{ij} = \exp\left(-\frac{r_{ij}}{q}\right), \quad (2)$$

167 where  $r_{ij}$  is the distance between the data points  $i$  and  $j$ . The correlation distance  $q$  was assumed to  
 168 be 10 km (24).

169 In addition, because geodetic inversion is usually poorly constrained, smoothness of slip is  
 170 commonly assumed as a prior constraint (12). Then, the evaluation function is

$$171 \quad s(\mathbf{a}) = [\mathbf{d} - \mathbf{H}(\delta)\mathbf{a}]^T \mathbf{E}^{-1} [\mathbf{d} - \mathbf{H}(\delta)\mathbf{a}] + \alpha^2 \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{G}(\delta) \mathbf{a} \quad (3)$$

172 in which  $\mathbf{G}$  is a matrix for smoothing, and  $\alpha^2$  defines the relative weight between the data fitting  
 173 and smoothing condition. The optimal values of  $\alpha^2$ ,  $\sigma^2$ , and  $\delta$ , which are called  
 174 hyperparameters, can be determined with ABIC (9, 12, 13). Once these values have been  
 175 determined, a solution for  $\mathbf{a}$  can be obtained with the covariance  $\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{a})$  by minimizing  $s(\mathbf{a})$ :

$$176 \quad \mathbf{a} = (\mathbf{H}(\delta)^T \mathbf{E}^{-1} \mathbf{H}(\delta) + \alpha^2 \mathbf{G}(\delta))^{-1} \mathbf{H}(\delta)^T \mathbf{E}^{-1} \mathbf{d} \quad (4)$$

$$177 \quad \mathbf{C}(\mathbf{a}) = \sigma^2 [\mathbf{H}(\delta)^T \mathbf{E}^{-1} \mathbf{H}(\delta) + \alpha^2 \mathbf{G}(\delta)]^{-1}. \quad (5)$$

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**Author Contributions**

Manabu Hashimoto was the principal researcher of this study and was in charge of analyzing the SAR images and creating the fault slip model. Yo Fukushima was responsible for preparing and developing the InSAR analysis procedures and for removing artefacts in the interferograms. Yukitoshi Fukahata developed the original inversion software for the InSAR data used in this study. All three authors discussed the interferometry results and the tectonic significance of the fault slip model.

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267     **Competing Financial Interests**

268           There are no competing financial interests involved in this article.

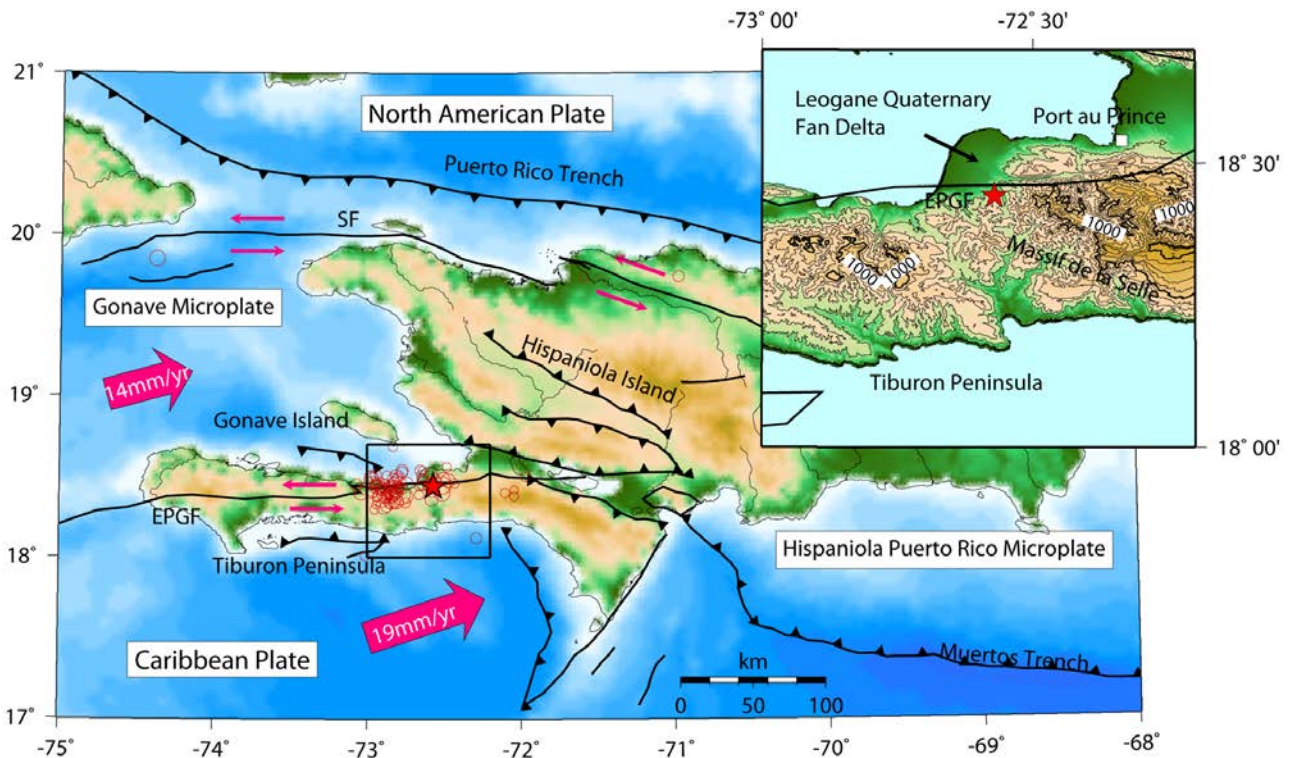
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270 **Figure Captions**

271 **Figure 1. Tectonics around Hispaniola.** Solid lines are tectonic boundaries and active faults,  
272 respectively, obtained from the websites of the University of Texas (26) and the GEO's Haiti  
273 Supersite (<http://supersites.earthobservations.org/Haitifaults.mat>), provided by V. Sevilgen and R.  
274 Stein. Dashed lines and hatches show the fold-and-thrust belt (21). The thick pink arrow  
275 shows the motion of the Caribbean Plate and Gonave microplate relative to the North American  
276 Plate (3, 27). Thin pink arrows indicate the relative slip across the Septentrional fault (SF) and  
277 Enriquillo-Plantain Garden fault (EPGF). Red circles are epicentres of aftershocks (6). The  
278 inset shows a close-up of the topography around the U.S. Geological Survey-National Earthquake  
279 Information Center (USGS-NEIC) epicentre of the mainshock (red star).

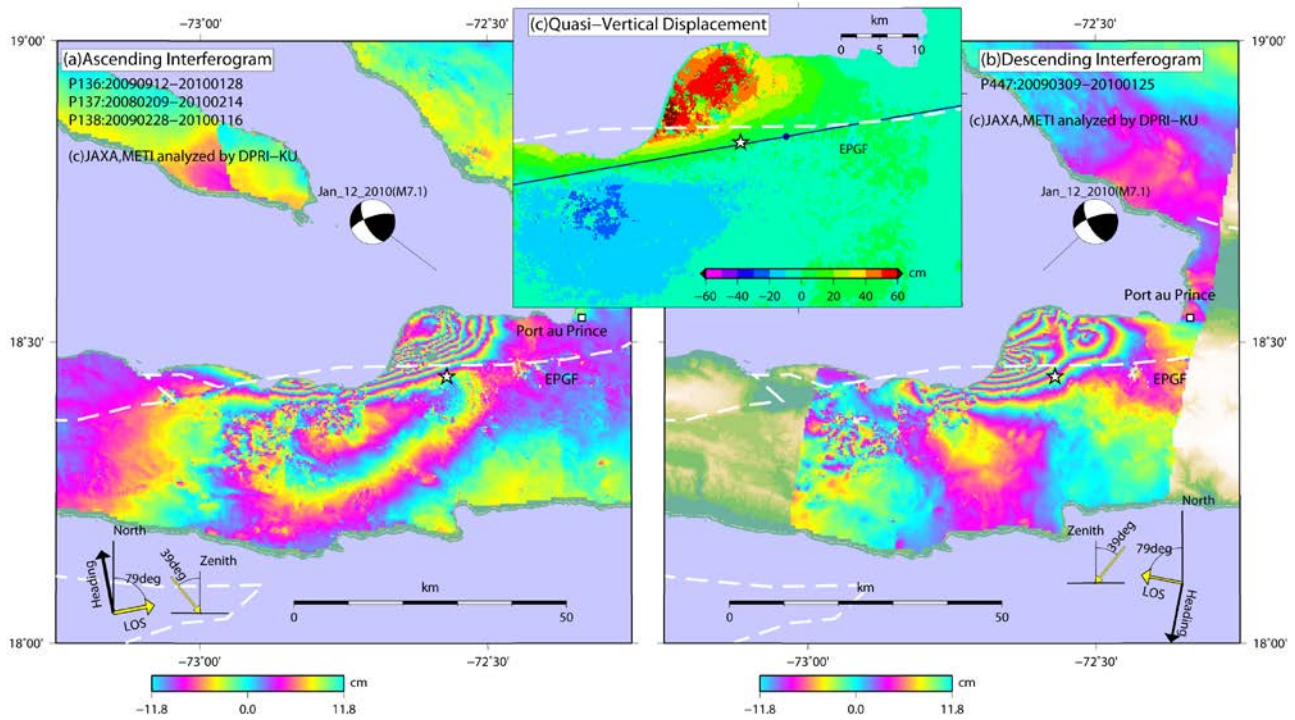
280 **Figure 2. Interferograms of strip-map mode images.** (a) Ascending and (b) descending  
281 interferograms. The star and beach ball indicate the USGS-NEIC epicentre (6) and the  
282 centroid-moment-tensor (CMT) solution (15), respectively. Thick yellow and black arrows  
283 denote the directions of the line of sight (LOS) and heading of the satellite, respectively. Thin  
284 yellow arrows indicate incidence angle. One cycle of colour corresponds to a LOS change of  
285 11.8 cm. The blue–yellow–red–blue change indicates the decrease in range between the Earth's  
286 surface and the satellite. White dashed lines indicate active faults. (c) Quasi-vertical component  
287 of deformation. The circle denotes the origin for the coordinates used in the inversion process.  
288 The solid line is the surface trace of the modelled fault running through the origin with a strike of  
289 N 260° E.

290 **Figure 3. Fault model.** (a) Slip distribution projected onto a vertical cross section oriented at N  
291 260° E. Estimated dip angle of the fault plane is 42° to the north. Blue arrows are estimated  
292 slip vectors. Contours indicate the amount of slip at 20-cm intervals. The star is the projection  
293 of the hypocenter of the mainshock (6). (b) Estimated error of slip. Contour interval is 25 cm.  
294 Synthetic interferograms: (c) ascending and (d) descending. Rectangle and contours show the  
295 surface projections of the fault plane and the slip distribution, respectively. Thick lines with tick  
296 marks indicate the upper margin of the fault.



**Figure 1. Tectonics around Hispaniola.** Solid lines are tectonic boundaries and active faults, respectively, obtained from the websites of the University of Texas (26) and the GEO's Haiti Supersite (<http://supersites.earthobservations.org/Haitifaults.mat>), provided by V. Sevilgen and R. Stein. The thick pink arrow shows the motion of the Caribbean Plate and Gonave microplate relative to the North American Plate (3, 27). Thin pink arrows indicate the relative slip across the Septentrional fault (SF) and Enriquillo-Plantain Garden fault (EPGF). Red circles are epicentres of aftershocks (6). The inset shows a close-up of the topography around the U.S. Geological Survey-National Earthquake Information Center (USGS-NEIC) epicentre of the mainshock (red star).

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13 **Figure 2. Interferograms of strip-map mode images.** (a) Ascending and (b) descending interferograms.

14 The beach ball indicate the USGS-NEIC epicentre (6) and the centroid-moment-tensor (CMT) solution (14),

15 respectively. Thick yellow and black arrows denote the directions of the line of sight (LOS) and heading of

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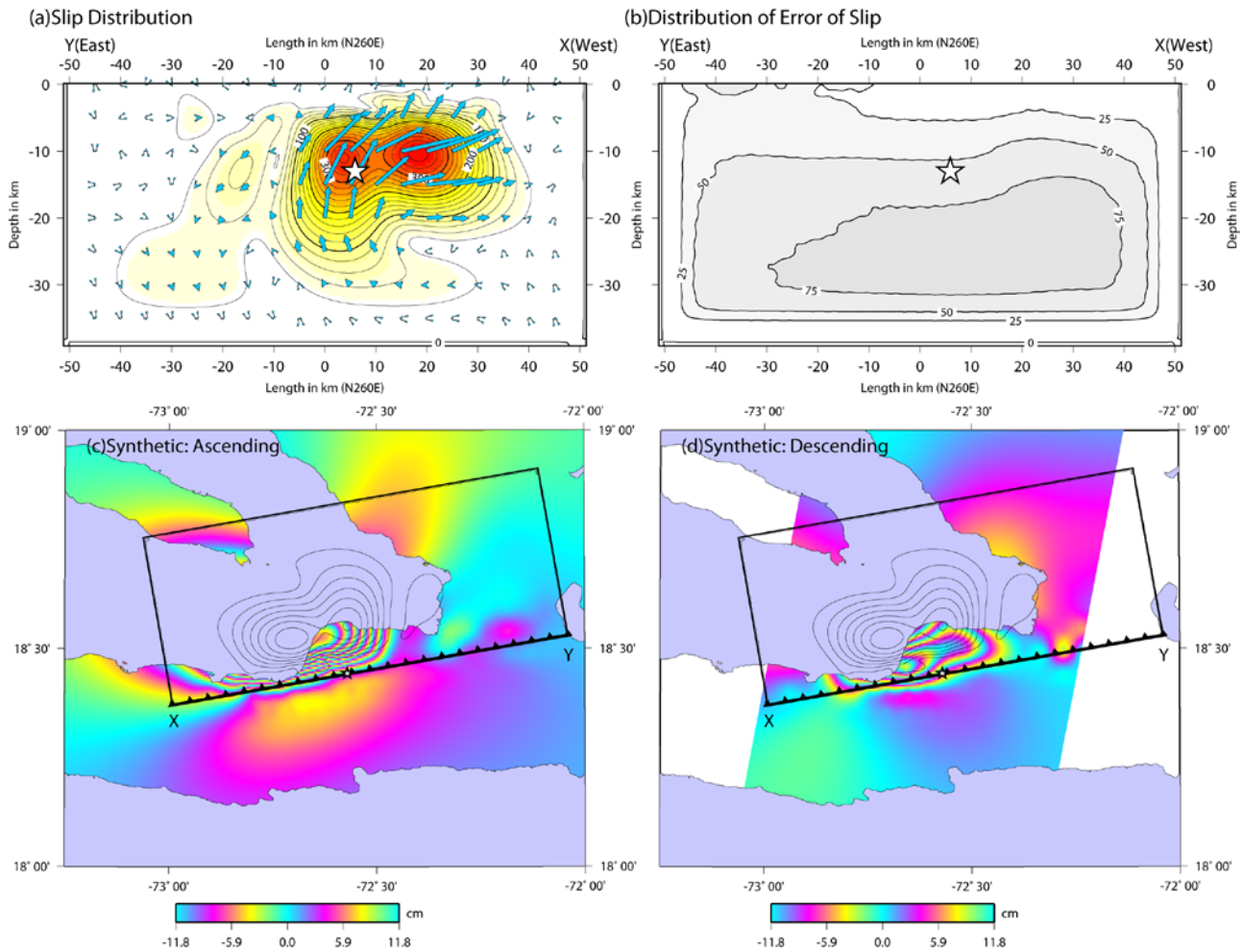
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20 is the surface trace of the modelled fault running through the origin with a strike of N 260° E.

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**Figure 3. Fault model.** (a) Slip distribution projected onto a vertical cross section oriented at N 260° E. Estimated dip angle of the fault plane is 42° to the north. Blue arrows are estimated slip vectors. Contours indicate the amount of slip at 20-cm intervals. The star is the projection of the hypocenter of the mainshock (6). (b) Estimated error of slip. Contour interval is 25 cm. Synthetic interferograms: (c) ascending and (d) descending. Rectangle and contours show the surface projections of the fault plane and the slip distribution, respectively. Thick lines with tick marks indicate the upper margin of the fault.

## **Supplementary Information**

### **Acquisition and Analyses of ALOS/PALSAR Images**

This project is affiliated with the Earthquake Working Group for the Evaluation of ALOS for Use in Disaster Mitigation, led by the Japan Aerospace Exploration Agency (JAXA). JAXA made urgent observations with PALSAR immediately after the Haiti earthquake at the request of the working group. PALSAR can use either of two observation modes for interferometric SAR (InSAR): the high-resolution strip-map mode, which has a swath of about 70 km, and the wide-swath ScanSAR mode, which has a swath of about 350 km. Both types of observation were made for this event.

Before the mainshock, strip-map-mode observations near the epicentre had been made for four different paths: three from ascending orbits and one from a descending orbit. Observations from these four paths were also made after the mainshock for InSAR applications (Supplementary Table S1 and Supplementary Fig. S1). In addition, ScanSAR observations of western Hispaniola had been made from a descending orbit before the mainshock. At the request of the Earthquake Working Group, JAXA acquired images after the mainshock in such a way that the burst timing was synchronized with one of the previous acquisitions, which enabled interferometric analysis.

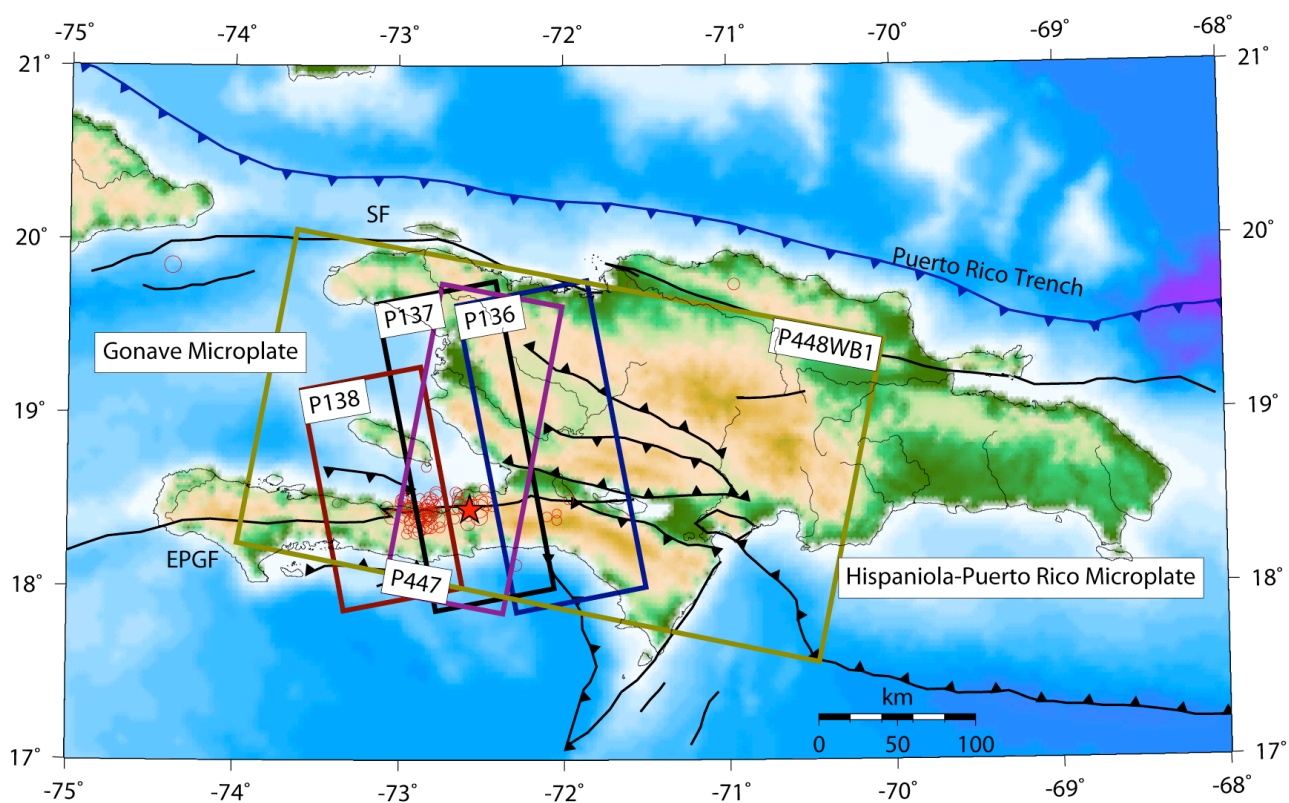
Two-pass differential interferometry was performed using GAMMA<sup>®</sup> software with the Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research (CGIAR) hole-filled Shuttle Radar Topography Mission (SRTM) digital elevation model (DEM) (1).

**Supplementary Table S1. Properties of the ALOS/PALSAR images used in this study.**

| Path                         | Orbit      | Mode    | Master     | Slave      | Bperp*<br>(m) | Incidence<br>Angle* (deg) | Number of<br>Sampled Data | Offset (cm) |
|------------------------------|------------|---------|------------|------------|---------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|-------------|
| 136                          | Ascending  | Strip   | Sep 12 '09 | Jan 28 '10 | 809           | 38.8                      | 137                       | -0.6        |
| 137                          | Ascending  | Strip   | Feb 9 '08  | Feb 14 '10 | -433          | 38.8                      | 195                       | 1.1         |
| 138                          | Ascending  | Strip   | Feb 28 '09 | Jan 16 '10 | 1051          | 38.8                      | 137                       | 2.5         |
| 447                          | Descending | Strip   | Mar 9 '09  | Jan 25 '10 | 812           | 38.8                      | 215                       | -1.6        |
| 448<br>(swath1) <sup>#</sup> | Descending | ScanSAR | Sep 26 '09 | Feb 11 '10 | 260           | 22.9                      | -                         |             |
| (swath2)                     |            |         |            |            | 237           | 29.4                      | 42                        | -0.6        |
| (swath3)                     |            |         |            |            | 217           | 34.5                      | 176                       | -2.5        |
| (swath4)                     |            |         |            |            | 201           | 38.5                      | 62                        | -3.1        |
| (swath5)                     |            |         |            |            | 193           | 41.3                      | -                         |             |

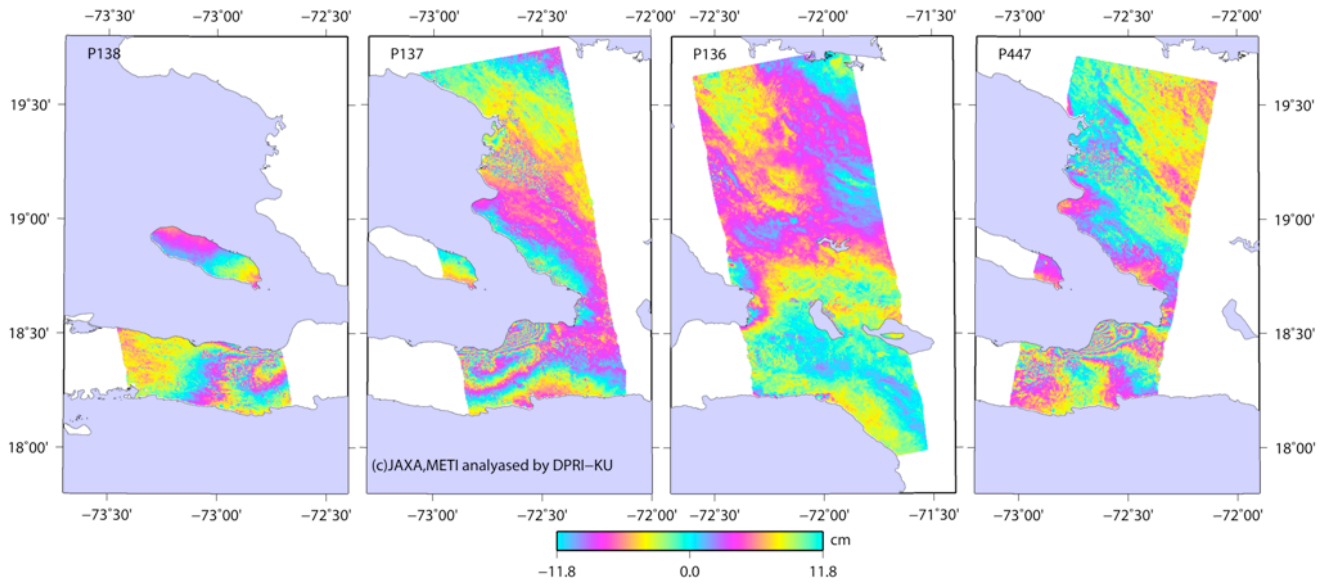
\* The perpendicular baseline (Bperp) and incidence angle are measured at the scene centre.

<sup>#</sup> In the ScanSAR mode of ALOS, microwaves are repeatedly emitted at five different changing incidence angles. The strip for each incidence angle refers to a swath. The epicentre is located in swath 3.

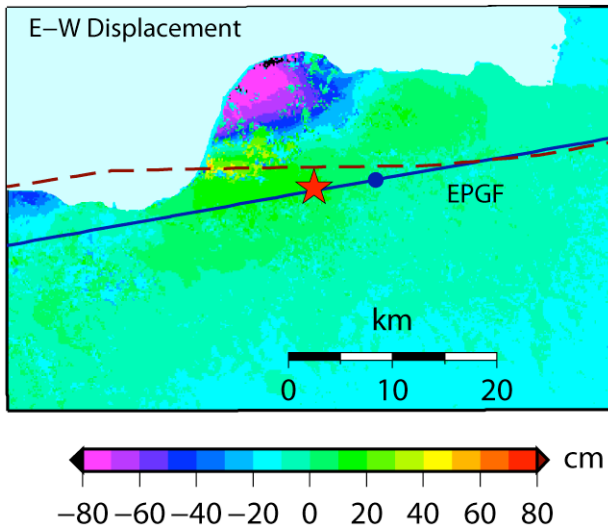


**Supplementary Figure S1. Location of the Haiti earthquake and coverage area of ALOS**

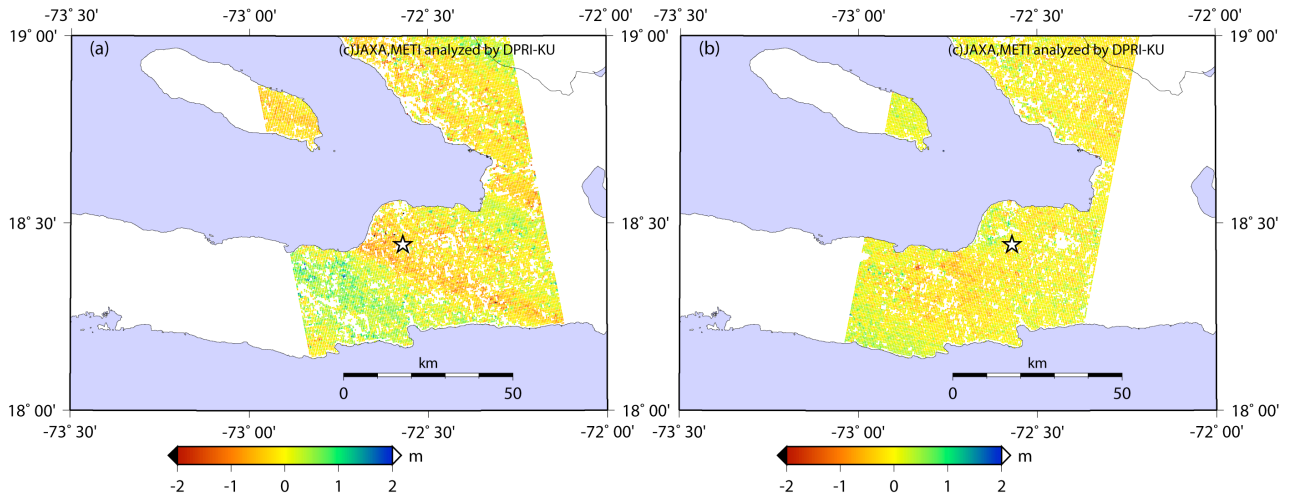
**acquisitions.** SF and EPGF stand for the Septentrional and Enriquillo-Plantain Garden faults, respectively.



**Supplementary Figure S2. Interferograms for the pairs of images acquired using the strip-map mode.** Perturbations that could be attributed to tropospheric disturbance or phase ramp are not corrected. Concentric fringes are conspicuous in the Tiburon peninsula.

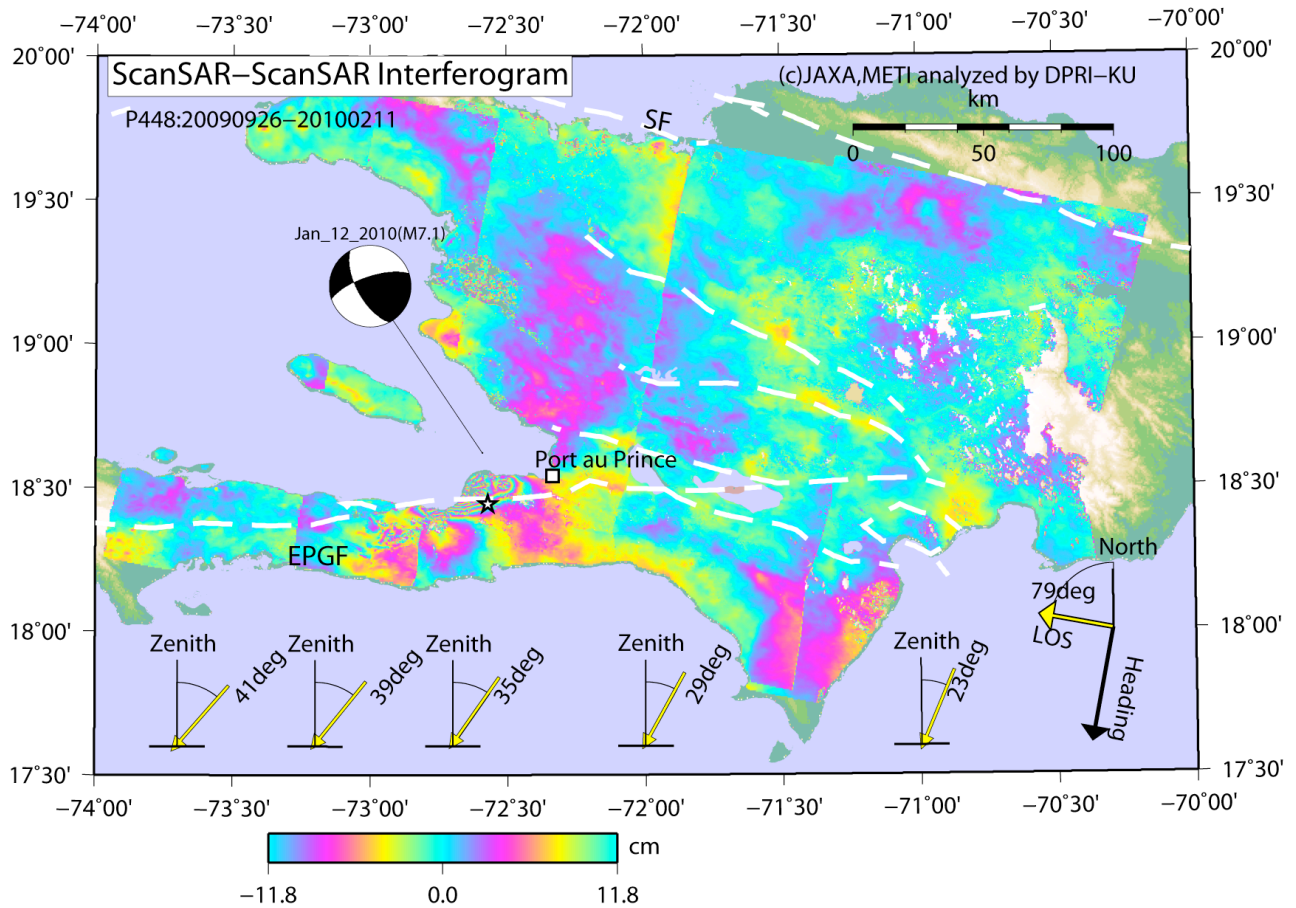


**Supplementary Figure S3. East–west components of deformation produced from the unwrapped interferograms from both ascending and descending orbits.** Positive values are assigned to eastward components. The star indicates the epicentre of the mainshock. The circle indicates the origin of coordinates used in the inversion process. The solid line is the surface trace of the modelled fault running through the origin with a strike of N 260° E.



**Supplementary Figure S4. Azimuth offsets:** (a) ascending orbit; (b) descending orbit.

Azimuth offset is displacement in the azimuth direction, which is independent of the range change component and can be estimated with the pixel-matching technique.

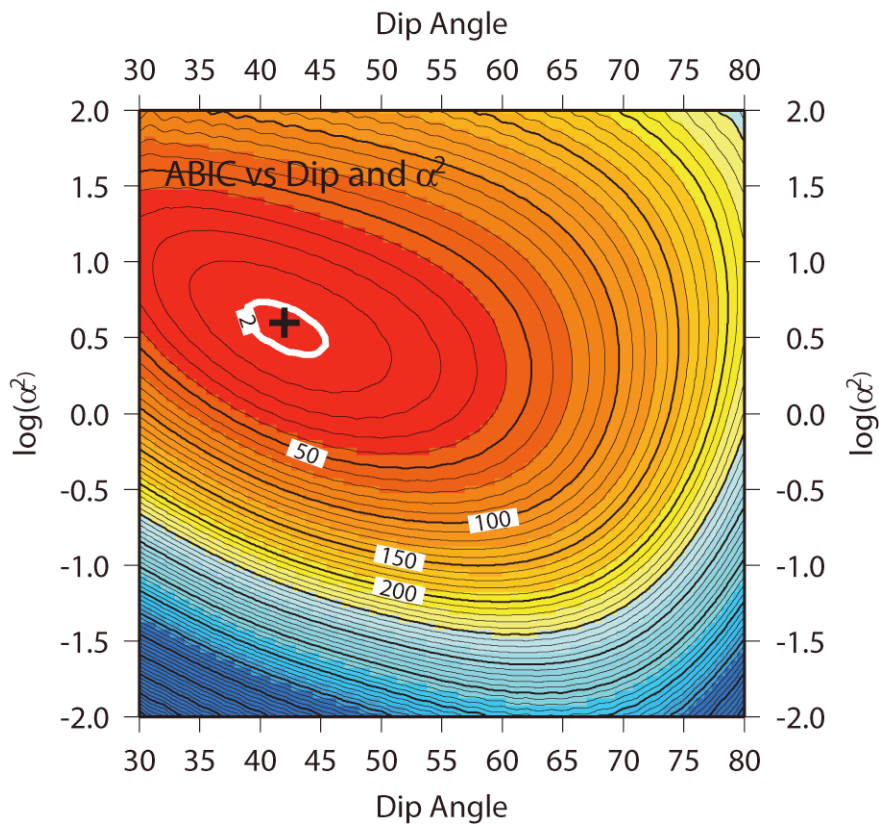


**Supplementary Figure S5. Interferogram derived from ScanSAR images acquired on 26**

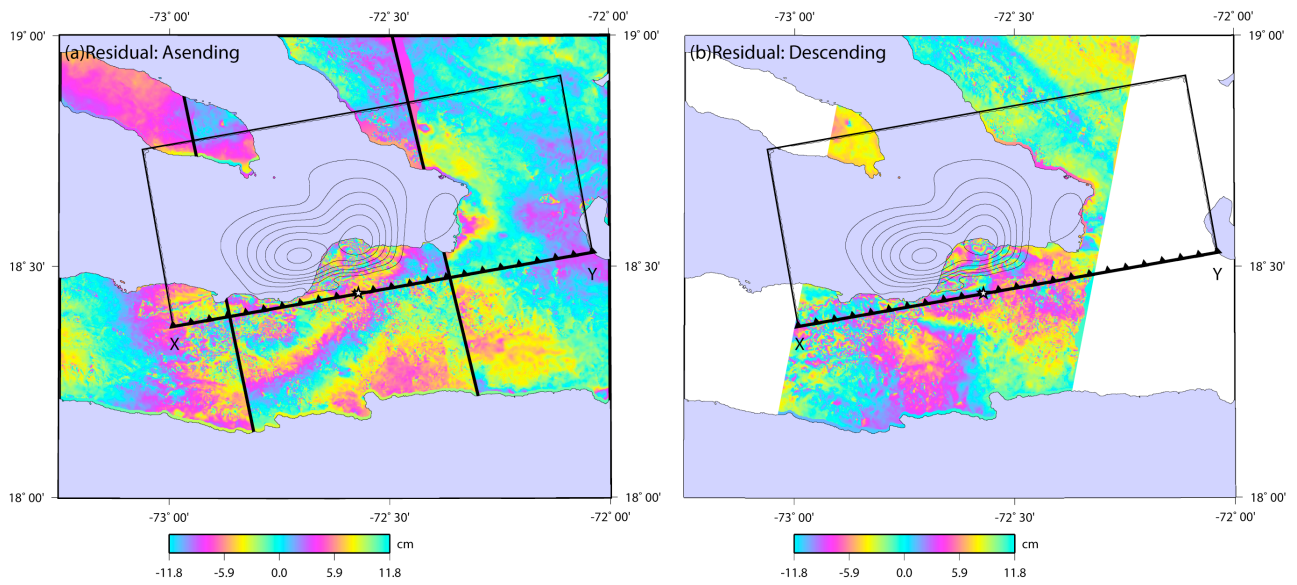
**September 2009 and 11 February 2010.** The thick yellow arrow indicates the line-of-sight

(LOS) direction, and the black arrow denotes the satellite heading. Thin yellow arrows

indicate the incidence angle for each swath. See also the legend for Figure 2.



**Supplementary Figure S6. Contour map of ABIC against  $\log \alpha^2$  and dip angle.** The cross shows the point of ABIC minimum. The interval for black contours is 20, whereas the white contour indicates the range of ABIC values larger than the minimum by increments of two.



**Supplementary Figure S7. Residuals for interferograms along (a) ascending and (b)**

**descending orbits.** The rectangle shows the surface projection of the modelled fault plane.

Thick lines on the left indicate boundaries between paths.

## Supplementary Reference

- 1) Jarvis, A., Reuter, H.I., Nelson, A., & Guevara, E. Hole-filled SRTM data V4. International Center for Tropical Agriculture (CIAT), <http://www.srtm.csi.cgiar.org> (2008).