Lecture 10: Transform faults (KK&V chapter 4.2 & 8)

EPR 9°N

105°W40

meters

-2500

-2800

-3200

-3500

-3800

-

105°W20

105°\ 1.04 1.04W20 103°W40

104°V

103°

W20

103°W

102°W40 102°W20 102°V

1.0°N

9°N 401

9°N 201

9°N

8°N 401

8°N 201

8°N







The seismologists verify Wilson's transform fault hypothesis; World wide seismic network

Lynn Sykes (1967)



Focal mechanisms; fault plane solutions



Satellite radar altimetry observations, starting in the early 1980's, revolutionized the mapping of features on the ocean floor.

For the first time, fracture zones could be accurately mapped in remote areas of the oceans.





Measure distance from satellite to sea sea surface to a few cm' s.

Water piles up over seamounts and ridges, is lower over trenches

Bill Haxby's 1985 gravity map based on Seasat





GeoMapApp is an earth science exploration and visualization application that is continually being expanded as part of the Marine Geoscience Data System (MGDS) at the Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory of **Columbia University**. The application provides direct access to the Global Multi-Resolution Topography (<u>GMRT</u>) compilation that hosts high resolution (~100 m node spacing) bathymetry from multibeam data for ocean areas ... and NED (National Elevation Dataset) topography datasets for the global land masses.

> GeoMapApp.org (also, try Google Earth)

Transform faults



Crust on both sides is subsiding as \sqrt{t}

Ridge axis is across from cold lithosphere

The greater the offset in millions of years, the colder the crust

Result: "transform edge effects"



Kane FZ (Central Atlantic) Slow spreading, large offset = large "transform edge effects"

Classic examples of median and transverse ridges and nodal basins



4300

RT = ridge-transform RN = ridge non-transform RT Corner High = ICH RN Corner = OC RTI = ridge transform intersection

Tucholke and Schouten (1988)



"Transform Edge Effect"

- The transform boundary places cold lithosphere against the spreading axis; the greater the age offset, the colder the lithosphere
- This cold boundary perturbs mantle upwelling resulting in smaller amounts of melt for distances up to 10 km
- Consequently, there is a dramatic thinning of crust and the upper mantle is more heterogeneous
- Because crust is thinner and more fractured, seawater migrates down and hydrates ultramafics creating serpentinized ridges
- The greater the age offset, the greater the thinning of the crust

PTDZ = principal transform deformation zone

Fox and Gallo (1984)

Note: Nodal deeps at RTIs Transverse ridges Classic striations on ICH But watch out for processing artifacts

ICH

Factors controlling transform fault structures



2) History of extensional and compressional changes in spreading direction



EPR 9° North -2500 -2800 -3200 -3500 -380 Pacific plate

Which transform is under compression? extension?

What was the sense of the recent change in spreading direction?

105°W40

105°W20

105°W

104°W40

104°W20

104°W

103°W40

103°W20

Clipperton FZ

Cocos plate

103°W

102°W40

Siqueiros FZ

102°W20

10°N

9°N 401

9°N 201

9°N

8°N 401

8°N 201

8°N

102°W



Southern San Andreas: localized surface creep in transpression, and distributed shear in transtension



Sequeiros transform fault



When under extension, a long transform fault develops multiple small offsets with short ridge segments

Pockalny et al. (1997)

Transverse ridges parallel to the transform fault can also be caused by isostatic uplift in response to extension caused by changes in spreading direction



Example: Udintsev FZ on the Pac-Ant ridge



Requires a moderate dip on the faults (not 90°)

When long offset transform faults undergo major extension they tend to develop multiple splays, often with a staircase of short ridge segments







Searle et al. (1993)

Classic examples:

a) Northeast Pacific

b) Southwest Indian Ridge



Effect of changes in spreading direction

 With a counterclockwise change in spreading direction (X) the leftstepping Mendocino and Molokai FZs go into extension (and develop multiple splays) while the right stepping Murray FZ
goes into compression (and loses splays) ..

and vice versa.







Features at the ridgetransform intersection (RTI) Right: bathymetry data from the EPR

Bottom: Model of the stress field near RTIs

Arrows show direction of maximum tensile stress



(Fujita and Sleep, 1978)



Pitman FZ, Pac-Ant Ridge

Note: J structures and Transverse ridges (recent cw rotation = extension)

171°W

170°W40

170°W20

170°W

169°W40

169°W20

169°W

168°W40

64 31

Clipperton FZ, EPR 9°N CCW change gives Compression Classic nodal basin on west RTI Can clearly see main offset

N20

104°W40

104°W30

104°W20

104°W10

104°W

103°W50

103°W40

103°W30

9°N 401

103°W20

10°N

10°N 301

> 10°N 201

10°N

Blanco Transform Juan de Fuca ridge



Complex, multiple offsets Recent extension But where is fault at RTI?

131°V



Young oceanic crust is shallower than older oceanic crust; topographic step is frozen in at the ridge axis.

Young oceanic crust subsides faster and difference in depth across fracture zone gradually decreases

Plate flexes to accommodate decreasing difference in depth

Another location where flexure plays an important role: oceanic fracture zones



Flexure caused by differential subsidence



- Depth offset at ridge transform intersection is "frozen in" as lithosphere quickly thickens
- Initial offset, h_a, stays constant as crust on either side of fracture zone cools and subsides at different rates
- Crust near fracture zone has to bend in response generating large gravity anomalies







160°E 170°E 180°E 170°W 160°W 150°W 140°W 130°W 120°W 110°W 100°W 90°W 80°W

Gravity anomalies due to flexure across fracture zones

Udintsev FZ



Menard FZ

Eltanin FZ

60**°**S

50°S

54°S

56°S

58°S

62°S

64°S

-3

-8

165°W 160°W 155°W 150°W 145°W 140°W 135°W 130°W 125°W 120°W 115°W 110°W













Figure 8.5 Map views of (a) step-overs and (b) bends and associated structures (after McClay & Bonora, 2001, Bull. Am. Assoc. Petroleum Geols. AAPG © 2001, reprinted by permission of the AAPG whose permission is required for further use). (c) Map and (d) cross-sections of strike-slip duplexes, fans and flower structures developed at bends (after Woodcock & Rickards, 2003, with permission from Elsevier).



Figure 8.14 Schematic block diagram showing the three-dimensional geometry of active faults of the Los Angeles region (image provided by G. Fuis and modified from Fuis et al., 2001, with permission from the Geological Society of America). Moderate and large earthquakes are shown with black stars, dates, and magnitudes. Small white arrows show block motions in vicinities of bright reflective regions A and B. Large white arrows show relative convergence direction of Pacific and North American plates. Regions A and B are zones of cracks that transport fluids migrating up from depth. A décollement surface ascends from cracked region A at San Andreas Fault, above which brittle upper crust is imbricated along thrust and reverse faults and below which lower crust is flowing toward San Andreas Fault (black arrows), depressing the Moho. Mantle of Pacific plate sinks beneath the San Gabriel Mountains.



San Andreas Fault System, California



North Anatolian Fault, Turkey





Alpine Fault, New Zealand









Same pattern of interseismic deformation





Mylonite zone (Ontario, Canada)





Shelly (2010)

Thurber et al. (2006)

Strain localization in the ductile substrate



Takeuchi and Fialko, 2012; 2013

How strong are mature continental transform faults?





"Heat flow paradox" of the San Andreas Fault



Mature faults appear to be weak (much weaker than predicted by the Byerlee's law)

Possible explanation: low friction during rapid slip (i.e., during earthquakes)