

1 **Disparate crustal thicknesses beneath oceanic transform faults**
2 **and adjacent fracture zones revealed by gravity anomalies**

3
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14
15 **ABSTRACT**

16 Plate tectonics describes oceanic transform faults as conservative strike-slip boundaries,
17 where lithosphere is neither created nor destroyed. Therefore, seafloor accreted at ridge-
18 transform intersections should follow a similar subsidence trend with age as lithosphere that
19 forms away from ridge-transform intersections. Yet, recent compilations of high-resolution
20 bathymetry show that the seafloor is significantly deeper along transform faults than it is at the
21 adjacent fracture zones. We present residual mantle Bouguer anomalies, a proxy for crustal
22 thickness, for 11 transform fault systems across the full range of spreading rates. Our results

23 indicate that the crust is thinner in the transform deformation zone than it is in either the adjacent
24 fracture zones or the inside corner regions. Consequently, oceanic transform faulting appears not
25 only to thin the transform valley crust but to also leads to a secondary phase of magmatic
26 addition at the transition to the passive fracture zones. These observations challenge the concept
27 of transform faults being conservative plate boundaries.

28

29 **INTRODUCTION**

30 Plate tectonics theory considers oceanic transform faults (TFs, Fig. 1A) to be conservative
31 strike-slip plate boundaries that offset mid-ocean ridge (MOR, Fig. 1A) segments along small
32 circles of plate motion (Morgan, 1968). Oceanic fracture zones (FZs, Fig. 1A), the passive
33 extensions of active TFs, are visible as thousands-of-kilometers-long scars on the ocean floor. As
34 lithosphere would be neither created nor destroyed in pure strike-slip motion, ocean plates
35 sliding past one another along TFs should follow a similar age-dependent subsidence curve in
36 response to plate cooling as does “normal” oceanic lithosphere away from ridge-transform
37 intersections (RTIs, Fig. 1A) (Stein and Stein, 1992). Yet, thermal contraction induced by
38 cooling of the oceanic lithosphere causes a horizontal shrinking component in plates (Turcotte,
39 1974; Kumar and Gordon, 2016), which can potentially lead to azimuths of transform faults that
40 challenge the predictions that assume plates to be rigid (Mishra and Gordon, 2016). In addition, a
41 recent systematic analysis of seafloor topography along TFs and FZs indicates that the
42 topography of the TF is always deeper (up to 1.6 km) than its adjacent FZs (Grevemeyer et al.,
43 2021). By combining bathymetric observations with 3-D geodynamic flow models, Grevemeyer
44 et al. (2021) hypothesized that the deeper seafloor along the TF is linked to extension in the
45 inside corner region (IC in Fig. 1A) of the RTI. The shoaling of the seafloor at the TF to FZ

46 transition may, in turn, be related to magmatic addition, a hypothesis that is corroborated by
47 characteristic magmatic features such as J-shaped ridges and magmatic flows visible in
48 bathymetric data. If correct, this evolution scenario implies that the crust along TFs is
49 systematically thinner than that along their associated FZs. This corollary can be tested using
50 residual mantle Bouguer gravity anomalies (RMBA) under the common assumption that they can
51 be interpreted as a proxy for crustal thickness variations (Lin and Morgan, 1992). Previous
52 gravity studies revealed that crustal accretion becomes asymmetric towards segment ends of
53 slow-spreading ridges, with IC crust being systematically thinner than crust of the outside corner
54 (OC, Fig. 1A; Escartin and Lin, 1995). Likewise, Gregg et al., (2007) found that the crust
55 beneath slow-spreading ridge segments tends to be thicker than the crust beneath their
56 connecting TF, while intermediate to fast-slipping TFs appear to have a mass deficit with respect
57 to the adjacent ridge segment that may originate from having a thicker, more porous, and/or
58 more altered transform crust.

59 The differences between the gravity signals of FZs and their connecting TFs where they
60 were “born” have never been systematically explored. While the inference that transform faults
61 could be non-conservative can be deduced from prior works (e.g., Turcotte, 1974; Mishra and
62 Gordon, 2016; Sasajima and Ito, 2017), this hypothesis has rarely been explicitly proposed.
63 Hence, more robust observational evidence is still needed to answer the first-order question of
64 whether TFs are conservative strike-slip boundaries in a “classic” plate tectonics sense, or
65 whether transform faulting itself modulates crustal thickness by tectono-magmatic processes in a
66 non-conservative way. We address this question by integrating high-resolution multibeam
67 bathymetry from 11 TFs (Fig. 1; Table S2 in the Supplement Material¹), satellite gravity data,
68 and 3-D geodynamic models to compute RMBA differences between the TF and their associated

69 FZs ($\Delta\text{RMBA}_{\text{TF-FZ}}$). Our analysis reveals systematically positive $\Delta\text{RMBA}_{\text{TF-FZ}}$ values, which
70 suggests that tectonics and magmatism at the TF cause a disparity between crustal thicknesses
71 beneath oceanic FZs and TFs.

72 **DATA AND METHOD**

73 We used RMBA as a proxy for crustal thickness variations following the method of Prince
74 and Forsyth (1988). We first calculated the mantle Bouguer anomaly (MBA) from satellite free-
75 air anomaly data (Sandwell et al., 2014) with Parker's method (Parker, 1973) using high-
76 resolution multibeam bathymetric data in combination with the global ETOPO1 bathymetric
77 dataset (NOAA National Geophysical Data Center, 2009) as needed to fill data gaps. After
78 removing the gravitational effects of the water-crust and crust-Moho interface with an assumed 6
79 km normal crustal thickness, the MBA mainly reflects variations in crustal thickness and the
80 thermally-induced density structure of the mantle. The RMBA is then determined by removing
81 the thermally-induced mantle density effects from the MBA. The thermal correction is based on
82 an accurate gravity forward method of a prism (Nagy, 1966) and temperature-induced density
83 anomalies are estimated from 3-D geodynamic models following the approaches of Grevemeyer
84 et al. (2021) and Behn et al. (2007). See Table S1 and Figs. S1 and S2 in the Supplemental
85 Material for more detail. In contrast to MBA, RMBA is mainly caused by anomalous crustal
86 thickness variations and/or mantle density effects that are not resolved by the thermal correction
87 model.

88 To investigate RMBA changes between TF domains and their associated FZs, we define the
89 mean difference $\Delta\text{RMBA}_{\text{TF-FZ}} = \text{RMBA}_{\text{TF}} - (\text{RMBA}_{\text{FZ1}} + \text{RMBA}_{\text{FZ2}})/2$ based on the approach
90 proposed by Gregg et al. (2007), where RMBA_{TF} , RMBA_{FZ1} , and RMBA_{FZ2} are mean RMBA
91 values along the TF domain and the two associated fracture zones FZ1 and FZ2, respectively.

92 RMBA_{TF} is calculated by averaging the values over a 10-km-wide rectangular box covering the
93 TF (red box in Fig. 2). The length of the box is 90% of the TF length. At some places like the
94 East Pacific Rise, where TFs are wider due to internal segmentation, we use separate boxes for
95 each transform segment identified from bathymetric data (Fig. S13). RMBA_{FZ1} and RMBA_{FZ2}
96 are calculated by averaging RMBA values in a 10-km-wide box that starts at the RTI and extends
97 along the FZ. The box length depends on the coverage of the multibeam bathymetric data that
98 characterize the FZ (blue boxes in Fig. 2). Note that resolution tests show that variations in box
99 length affected the results by less than 5% (Fig. DR 16).

100

101 **RESULTS**

102 The 11 transform systems and their RMBA maps are shown in Fig. 1. The seafloor
103 bathymetry, MBA, thermal correction, and RMBA map of each TF-FZ system are shown in Figs.
104 DR3-13. Results indicate a correlation between the spreading rate and the RMBA value of a
105 spreading segment, with positive anomalies at intermediate- and fast-spreading ridges and
106 negative anomalies at slow- and ultraslow-spreading ridges. This feature (Fig. DR 15) results in a
107 similar trend of the spreading rate versus RMBA difference between TF and the associated ridge
108 segments as reported by Gregg et al. (2007).

109 Fig. 2 illustrates the workflow for computing the RMBA for the Atlantis TF. The
110 bathymetry in Fig. 2A shows that the transform valley is deeper than its adjacent FZs. A positive
111 RMBA anomaly centered around the transform valley suggests relatively thin crust in the
112 transform deformation zone with respect to the FZs and MORs. This relative variation of crustal
113 thickness (Fig. 2F) can be inverted from the RMBA map based on Parker-Oldenburg's algorithm
114 (Gómez-Ortiz and Bhrigu, 2005).

115 The systematic analysis of the $\Delta\text{RMBA}_{\text{TF-FZ}}$ shows that it is positive for almost all of the
116 transform systems studied regardless of spreading rate (Fig. 3A). The vertical error bars refer to
117 the RMBA variation between two FZs ($|\text{RMBA}_{\text{FZ1}} - \text{RMBA}_{\text{FZ2}}|$) of the transform system. The
118 magnitude of $\Delta\text{RMBA}_{\text{TF-FZ}}$ appears to decrease with increasing spreading rate. It is interesting to
119 note that the Atlantis II transform with the largest age offset (~ 30 m.y.) appears to have an
120 anomalously low $\Delta\text{RMBA}_{\text{TF-FZ}}$, which could be caused by additional effects unrelated to crustal
121 thickness variation, such as mantle serpentinization ($\sim 10\%$) and increased rock porosity ($\sim 10\%$)
122 in the crust (Fig. DR 19). The geological and geophysical evidence seems to support thin crust (\sim
123 2.7 km), and a highly fractured and serpentinized lower layer beneath the Atlantis II transform
124 valley (Detrick et al., 1993; Muller et al., 2000), which implies that the crustal-thickness-related
125 $\Delta\text{RMBA}_{\text{TF-FZ}}$ of Atlantis II could be closer to the overall trend.

126

127 **DISCUSSION**

128 The gravity field at ridge-TF-FZ systems reveals distinct and characteristic differences
129 between the active TF domain, the adjacent FZs, and the ridge segments. Particularly striking are
130 the systematically higher RMBA values in the transform domain with respect to the RMBA
131 along the adjacent FZs. A key question is whether this is a consequence of transform faulting-
132 related thermo-magmatic processes, or of the aforementioned asymmetry between IC and OC
133 crust at MOR segment ends (Severinghaus and Macdonald, 1988; Escartin and Lin, 1995), in
134 which case the RMBA_{TF} should be close to RMBA_{IC} and RMBA_{FZ} and in between RMBA_{IC} and
135 RMBA_{OC} with $0.5(\text{RMBA}_{\text{IC}} + \text{RMBA}_{\text{OC}})$ being a reasonable baseline. To discriminate, Fig. 3B
136 shows the RMBA differences between IC and OC, and Fig. 3C the differences between
137 $\Delta\text{RMBA}_{\text{TF-FZ}}$ and $0.5\Delta\text{RMBA}_{\text{IC-OC}}$. The latter is nearly always positive with values of up to 20

138 mGal. To test which crustal configurations are compatible with this observation, we performed
139 synthetic tests with differing OC, IC, TF, and FZ crustal thicknesses (Fig. DR 17-18). Fig. 3D
140 shows that the crust in the transform fault must also be thinner than IC crust on the order 0-1.5
141 km to make $\Delta\text{RMBA}_{\text{TF-FZ}} - 0.5\Delta\text{RMBA}_{\text{IC-OC}}$ positive.

142 Thin TF crust was previously proposed to explain the deep transform valley (e.g., Morgan
143 and Forsyth, 1988). The thinner crust could result from perturbations in melt generation and
144 migration caused by the lower upwelling rates near the transform and the depth of the
145 permeability barrier at the base of the thermal boundary layer (Morgan and Forsyth, 1988; Gregg
146 et al., 2009). Melt segregation and migration are controlled by the thermal structure of the
147 lithosphere and magma budget along ridge segments (Morgan and Forsyth, 1988; Sparks and
148 Parmentier, 1991), and these factors are spreading rate-dependent, i.e., the depth of the
149 isothermal surface (e.g., 700°C) is deepening, and the magma supply is attenuating at slower
150 spreading rates (Chen, 1988; Furlong et al., 2001).

151 We favor an alternative but complementary view in which the thin transform crust is the
152 result of extension (Grevemeyer et al., 2021; Ren et al., 2022). In this scenario, the difference in
153 plate strength (a consequence of the age offset) results in an increasingly oblique plate boundary
154 at depth, which causes extension and mantle upwelling (Grevemeyer et al., 2021; Furlong et al.,
155 2001). This proposed extension may therefore be an inherent feature of transform faulting and is
156 consistent with extensional focal mechanisms observed along the Kane (Wilcock et al., 1990)
157 and Oceanographer (Cessaro and Hussong, 1986) transforms on the Mid-Atlantic Ridge.
158 Although gravity data alone cannot discriminate between the contributions of tectonic extension
159 and lower melt supply to crustal thinning, it does suggest that the systematically positive,

160 spreading rate-dependent RMBA along the active transform domain is plausibly due to crustal
161 thinning whose relative importance tends to diminish as the spreading rate increases.

162 As the gravity data support relatively thicker crust beneath FZs than beneath their adjacent
163 TF, we interpret the observed shoaling of the young FZ seafloor at RTIs (Grevemeyer et al.,
164 2021) as being related to the magmatic addition and/or preferential asymmetric crustal accretion
165 towards the OC. Evidence for thermal rejuvenation in combination with magmatic addition was
166 first reported for the fast-slipping Clipperton transform (northern East Pacific Rise; Gallo et al.,
167 1986; Barth et al. 1994) and recently, based on high-resolution bathymetric data, for transform
168 systems of all spreading rates (Grevemeyer et al., 2021). A complementary view is that of
169 “dueling” ridge tips that would occasionally propagate beyond the TF (Pollard and Aydin, 1984).
170 In this view, magmatic addition would be more dynamic and unnecessary in a stable transform-
171 to-fracture zone transition. Despite these uncertainties, the systematic trend in $\Delta\text{RMBA}_{\text{TF-FZ}}$
172 shown in Fig. 3A indicates that the magmatic addition is particularly pronounced at ultraslow to
173 slow spreading rates.

174 The RMBA is typically interpreted in terms of crustal thickness variations. However, it
175 cannot discriminate between additional density-changing processes such as variations in
176 porosity, mantle serpentinization, and temperature states not resolved by the mantle flow model.
177 When combined with other independent observations, the systematically positive $\Delta\text{RMBA}_{\text{TF-FZ}}$
178 in our results does point to thinner crust along the TF domains compared to their adjacent FZs.
179 For ultraslow- to slow-spreading systems, crustal thinning and seafloor deepening in the TF
180 domain have been inferred from geomorphology, gravity data, and seismic data (Fox et al., 1976;
181 Muller et al., 2000). At fast-slipping TF systems, seismic studies indicate that the crust below the
182 TF is slightly thinner than normal oceanic crust (Van Avendonk et al., 2001), and that it thickens

183 beneath the FZ (Van Avendonk et al., 1998; Barth, 1994). This feature is consistent with the
184 slightly positive RMBA in our study (Fig. 3 and Fig. S6). Furthermore, thin crust along
185 transform domains correlates with the observed systematic deepening of transform valleys that is
186 seen in the statistics of a recent compilation of 41 transform systems (Grevemeyer et al., 2021).
187 Therefore, the observed positive $\Delta\text{RMBA}_{\text{TF-FZ}}$ could be induced by both crustal thinning along
188 TFs and the thicker crust in their adjacent FZs that is being created when transform seafloor
189 passes by the opposing ridge tip at the ridge-transform intersection. This oceanic transform-
190 related mode of deformation and multi-stage accretion has significant implications for the
191 composition and hydrothermal state of crust and lithosphere along FZs, material that has
192 generally been inferred to represent altered and hydrated crust and mantle (Detrick et al., 1993).
193 Instead, FZs may actually contain magmatically accreted crust (Marjanović et al., 2020; Growe
194 et al., 2021) that has experienced two distinct phases of accretion and hydrothermal alteration at
195 an active spreading center, which has implications for the possibility of systematic compositional
196 and evolutionary differences between FZs and their adjacent oceanic lithosphere. Therefore, the
197 fractured and hydrated lithosphere of oceanic transform faults will be magmatically overprinted
198 by RTI magmatism, revealing the accretionary nature of oceanic transform faults and hence
199 contradicting the idea that transform faults are conservative plate boundaries.

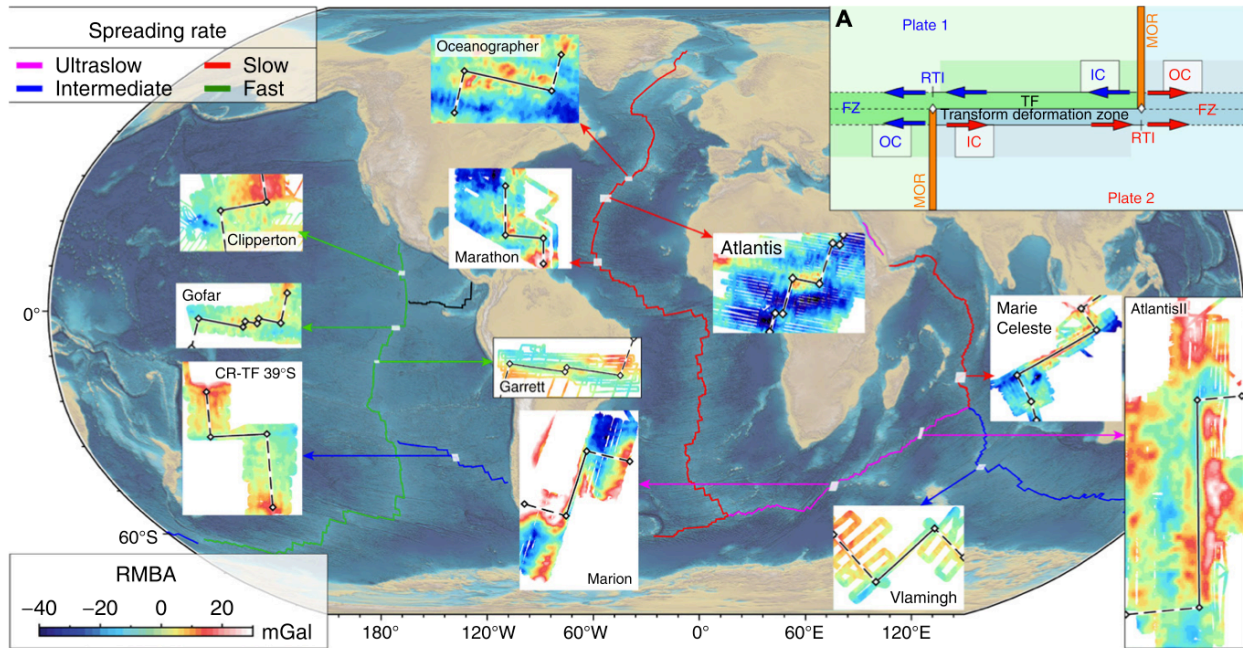
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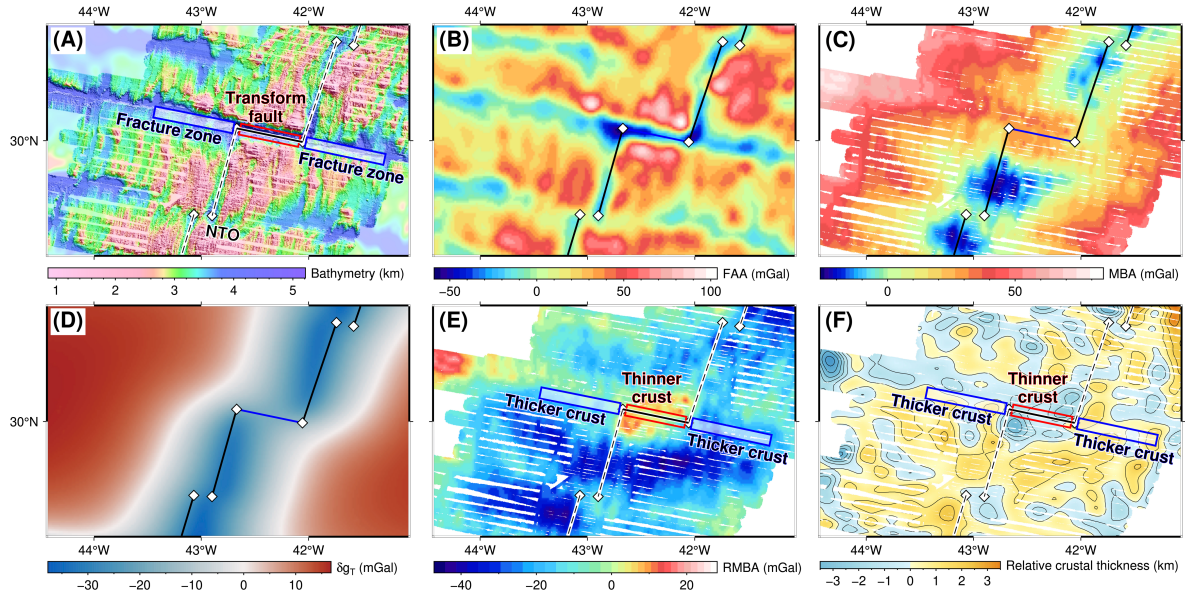
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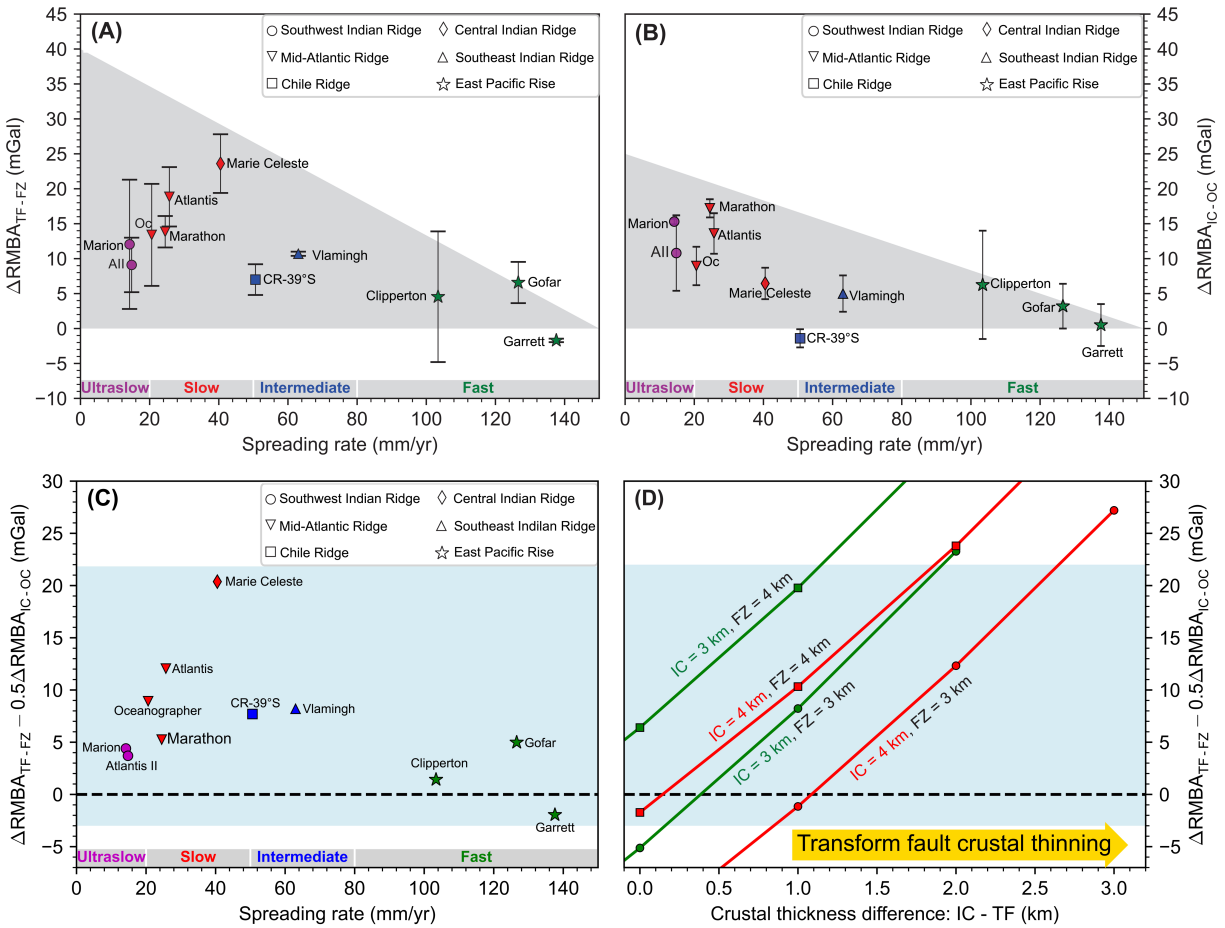
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211 **Figure 1. Global map of transform faults (TFs) included in this study and their residual**
212 **mantle Bouguer anomaly (RMBA).** Colors of the ridges represent different spreading rates (see
213 legend). Dashed black lines are spreading ridge segments; solid black lines are TFs; diamonds
214 are ridge-transform intersections (RTIs). CR-TF 39°S is the transform fault near 39°S offsetting
215 the Chile Ridge. (A) Inset shows the basic geometry and magmatic-tectonic elements of a
216 transform-fracture-zone system. FZ—fracture zone; OC—outside corner; IC—inside corner;
217 MOR—mid ocean ridge.



218

219 **Figure 2. Results for the Atlantis transform on the Mid-Atlantic Ridge.** (A) Seafloor
220 topography merged from multibeam bathymetric data and ETOPO1 (NOAA National
221 Geophysical Data Center, 2009). NTO—non-transform offset. The other symbols as Figure 1. (B)
222 Free-air anomaly (FAA) derived from satellite. (C) Calculated mantle Bouguer anomaly (MBA).
223 (D) Gravity anomaly of thermal contribution estimated from a 3-D viscoplastic mantle upwelling
224 model. (E) Calculated residual mantle Bouguer anomaly (RMBA). (F) Map of gravity-derived
225 relative variation of crustal thickness with contour 1 km. All gravity anomalies are relative to
226 average value of TF zone (red box). Blue and red boxes indicate regions where mean RMBA
227 values were calculated for the FZ and TF, respectively.



228

229

Figure 3. Gravity analysis result. Variation of $\Delta\text{RMBA}_{\text{TF-FZ}}$ (A) and $\Delta\text{RMBA}_{\text{IC-OC}}$ (B) as a

230

function of spreading rate. TF—transform fault; FZ—fracture zone; OC—outside corner; IC—inside

231

corner. (C) Difference between $\Delta\text{RMBA}_{\text{TF-FZ}}$ and $0.5\Delta\text{RMBA}_{\text{IC-OC}}$. Different symbols indicate

232

the associated spreading ridges. AII—Atlantis II; Oc—Oceanographer. (D) Synthetic model result

233

of $\Delta\text{RMBA}_{\text{TF-FZ}} - 0.5\Delta\text{RMBA}_{\text{IC-OC}}$ as a function of TF crust thinning relative to IC. The x-axis

234

shows extra thinning of transform crust with respect to the IC, and the red and green lines show

235

predictions of the synthetic models. The shaded-blue area is the observed range of differences

236

between $\Delta\text{RMBA}_{\text{TF-FZ}}$ and $0.5\Delta\text{RMBA}_{\text{IC-OC}}$ that needs to be explained (red and green curves

237

need to be in the shaded-blue region). The crustal thickness of the OC in this synthetic model

238 calculation is 5 km. Additional details of the theoretical model calculation and results with OC
239 crust thickness 6 km and 7 km can be found in Fig. S17 and S18.

240

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