

# ***FUNDAMENTALS OF EARTH SCIENCES***

## **(ESO 213A)**

**DIBAKAR GHOSAL**

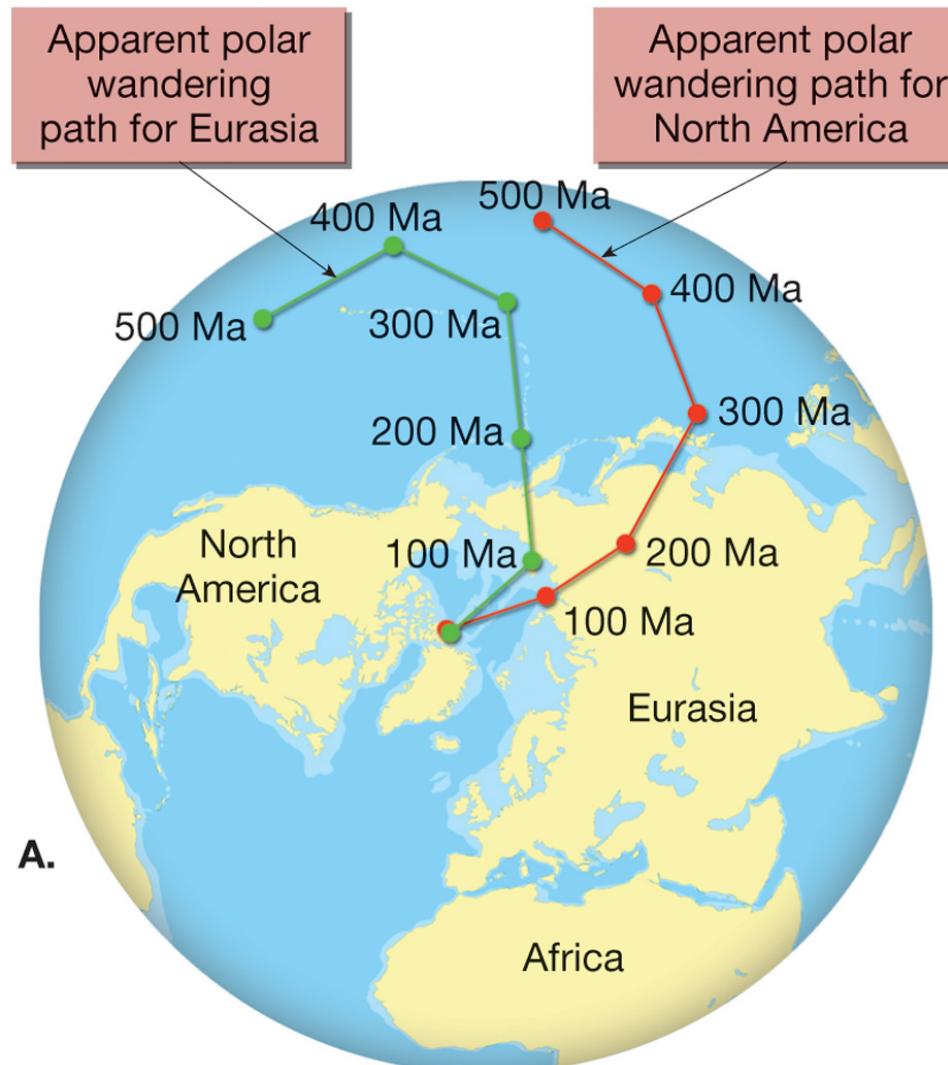
**DEPARTMENT OF EARTH SCIENCES**

**Topic: Divergent/Convergent/Transform Plate Boundaries**

**Previous Class: Plate Tectonics**

# Last Class: Review

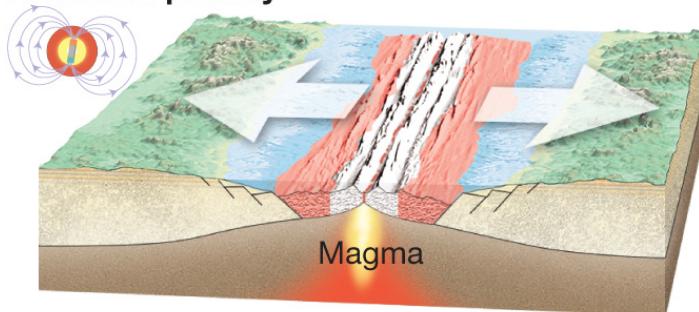
## Polar Wandering Paths



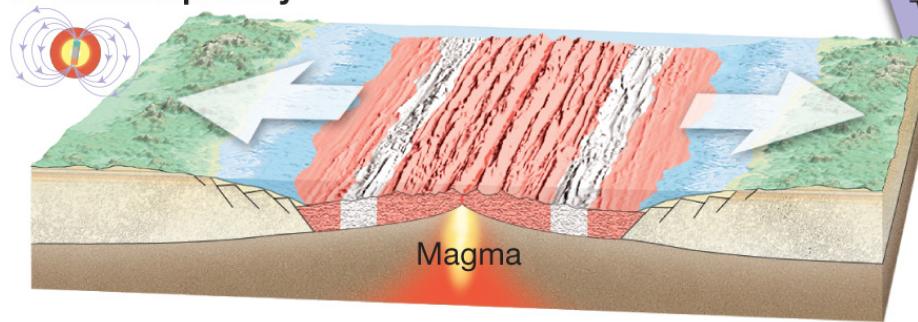
# Last Class: Review

## Paleomagnetic Reversals Recorded in Oceanic Crust

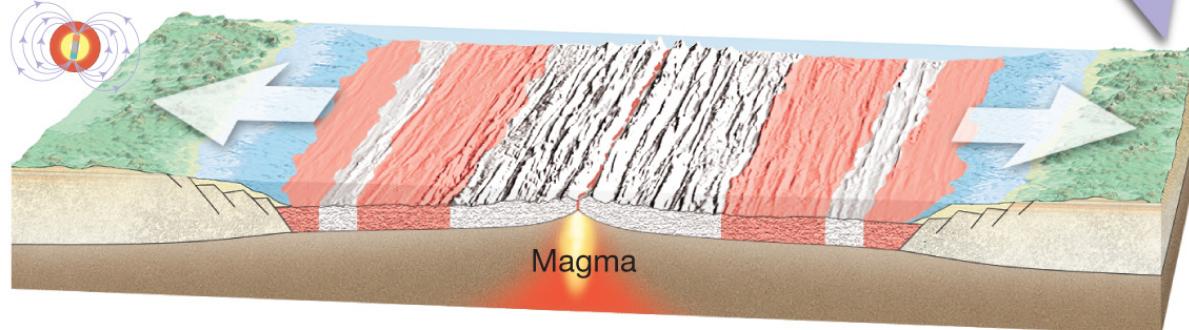
A. Normal polarity



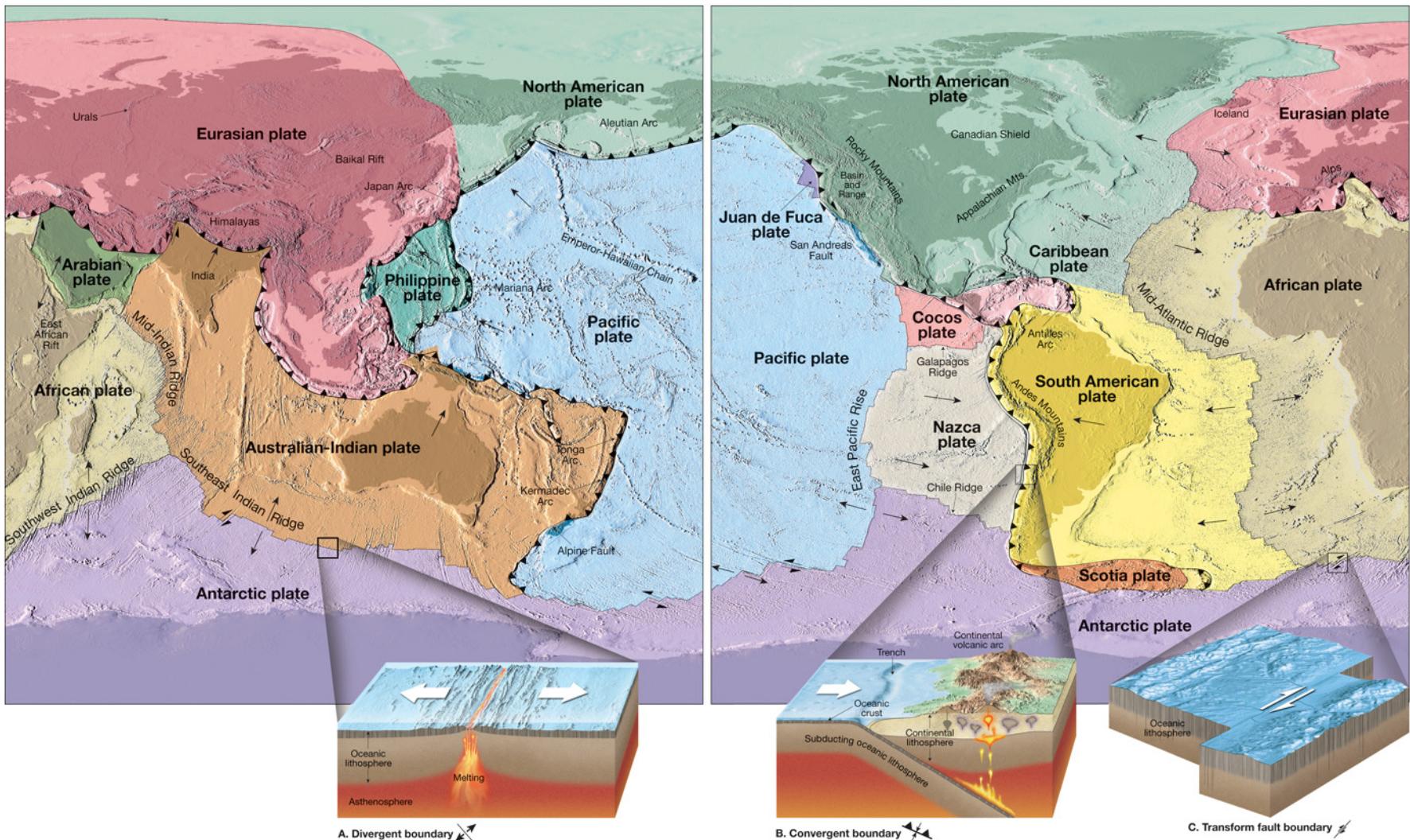
B. Reverse polarity



C. Normal polarity



# Last Class: Review



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## Divergent/Convergent/Transform Plate Boundary

# ***Convergent Plate Boundaries***

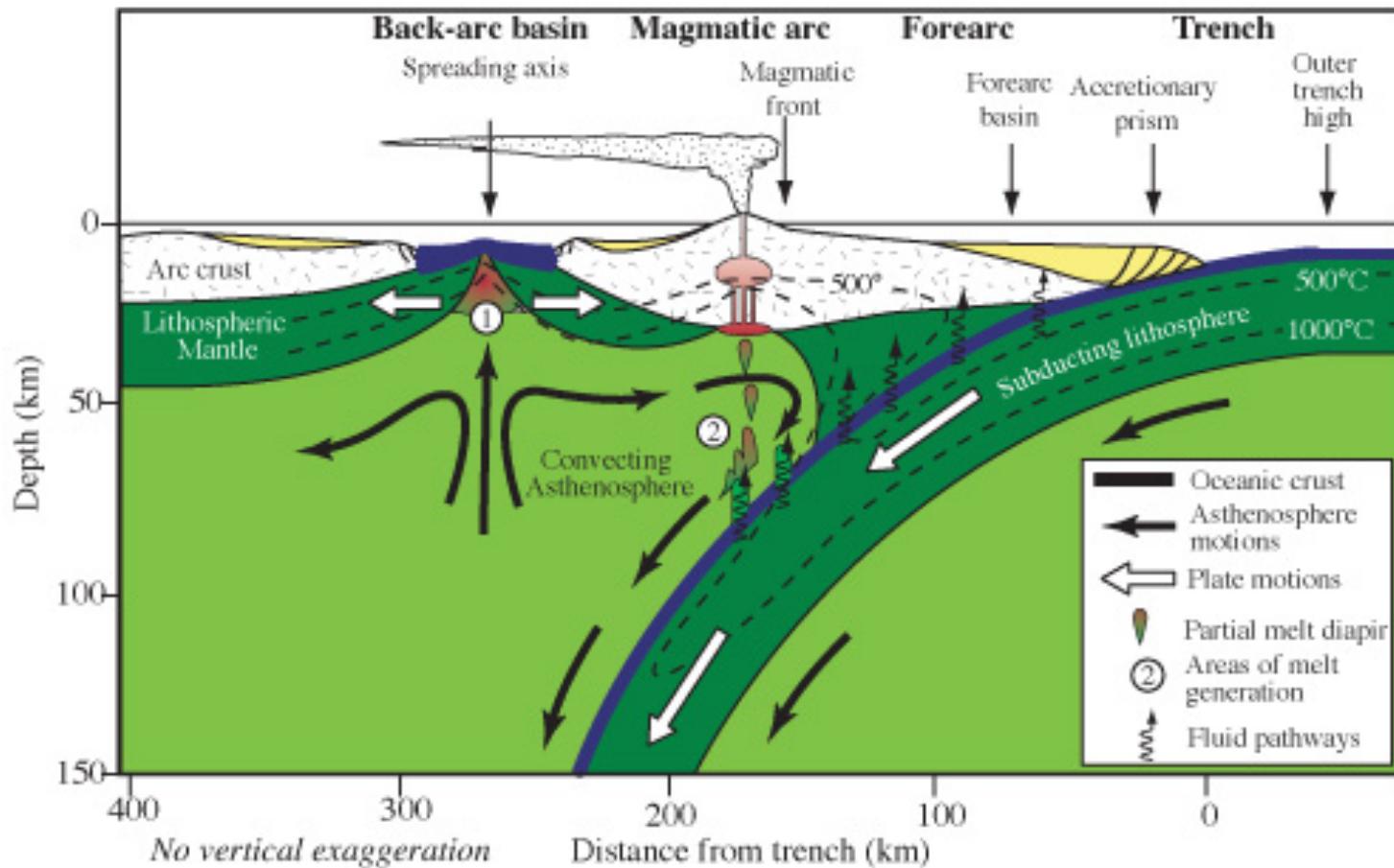
- ❑ Older portions of oceanic plates are returned to the mantle at these destructive plate margins.
  - Surface expression of the descending plate is an **ocean trench**.
  - Also called **subduction zones**
  - Average angle of subduction = 45 degrees.

# Convergent Plate Boundaries

## Types of convergent boundaries:

### Oceanic–continental convergence

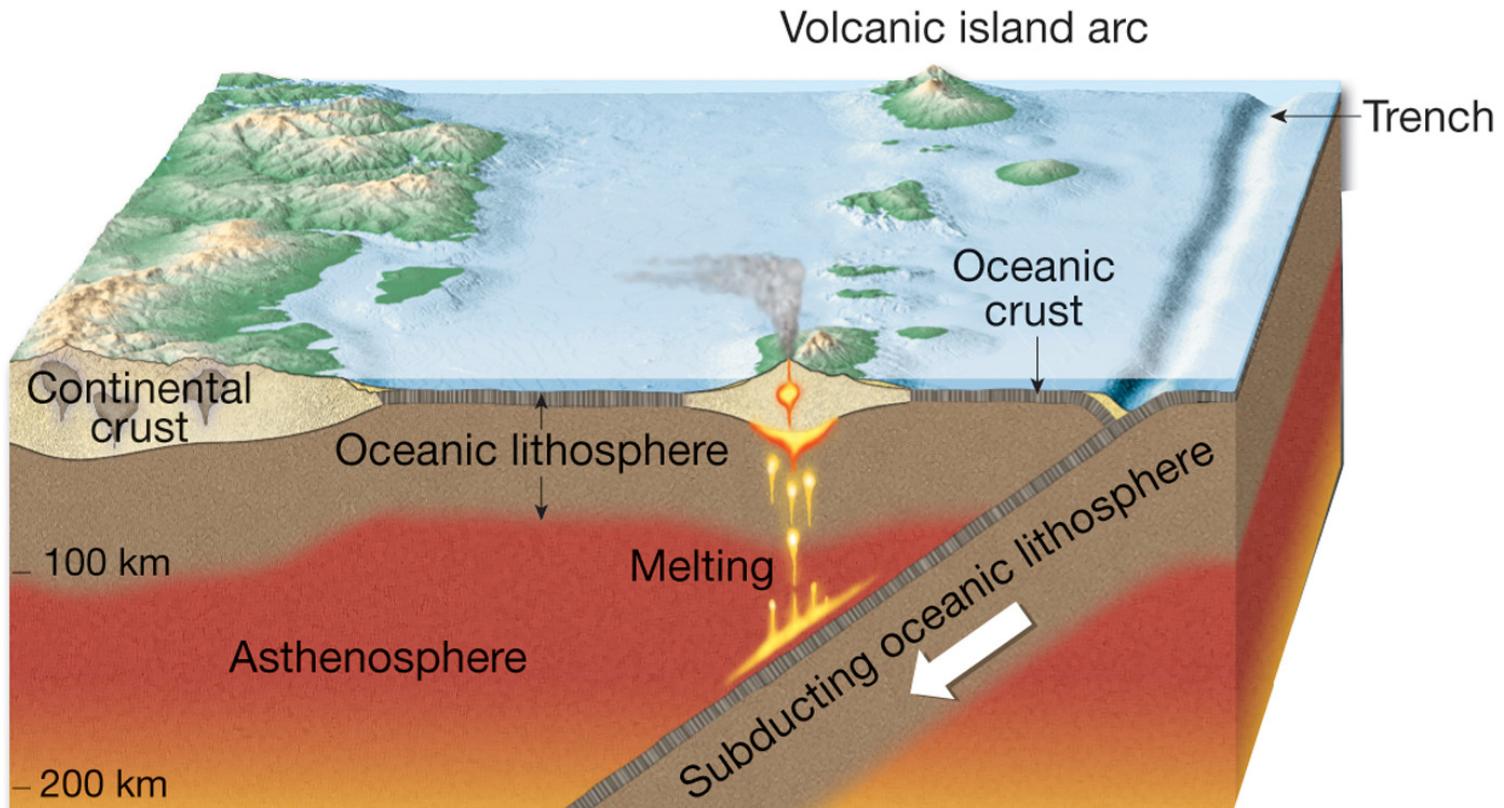
- The denser oceanic slab sinks into the asthenosphere.
- Along the descending plate, partial melting of mantle rock generates magma.
- The resulting volcanic mountain chain is called a **continental volcanic arc**. (The Andes and the Cascades are examples.)



# **Convergent Plate Boundaries**

- Types of convergent boundaries:

- Oceanic–oceanic convergence
  - When two oceanic slabs converge, one descends beneath the other.
  - Often forms volcanoes on the ocean floor
  - If the volcanoes emerge as islands, a **volcanic island arc** is formed. (Japan, the Aleutian islands, and the Tonga islands are examples.)

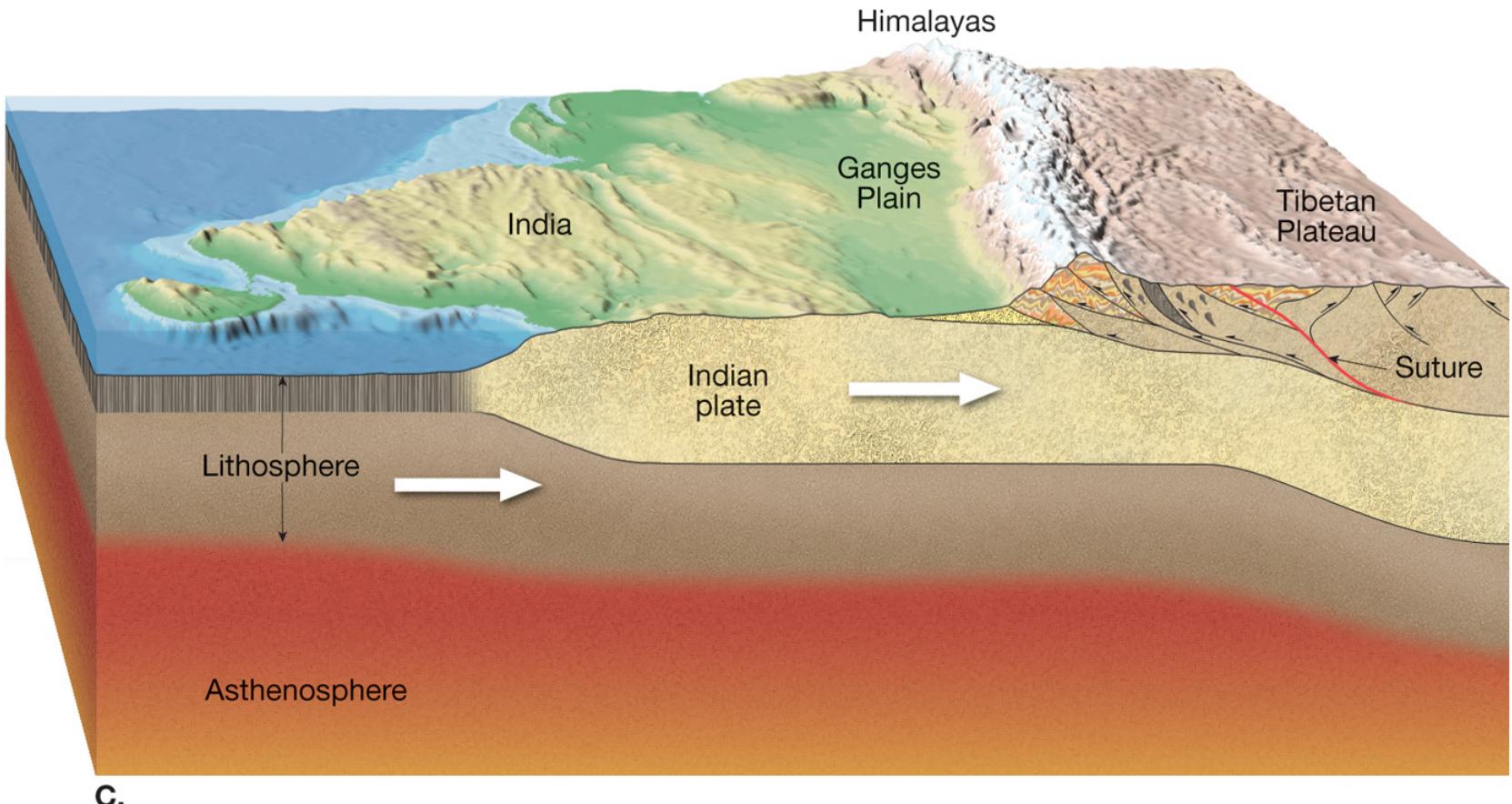


A.

# **Convergent Plate Boundaries**

- Types of convergent boundaries:

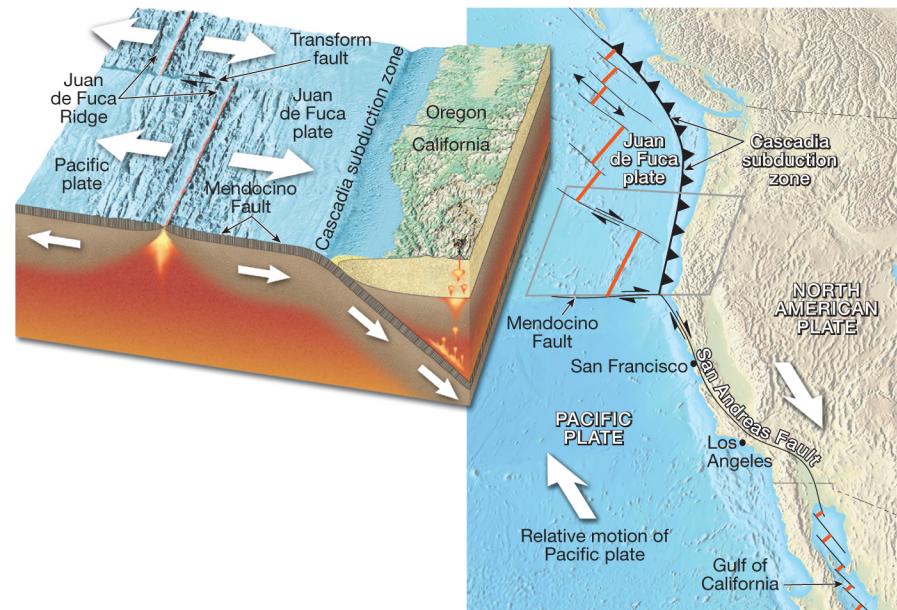
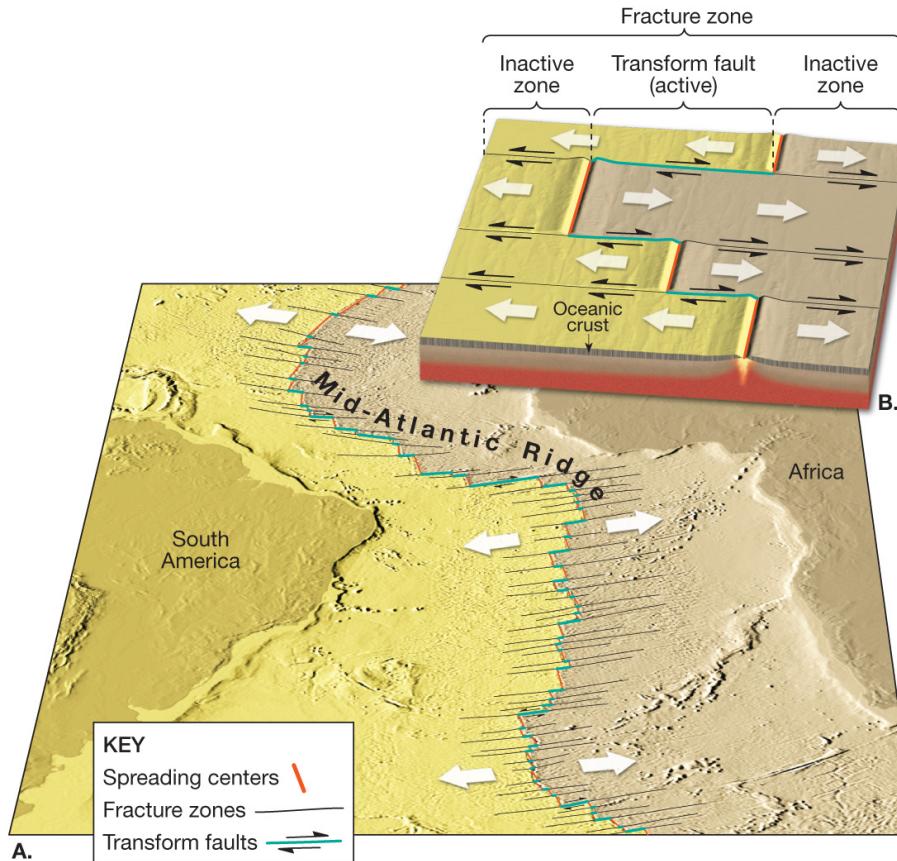
- **Continental–continental convergence**
  - Continued subduction can bring two continents together.
  - Less dense, buoyant continental lithosphere does not subduct.
  - The resulting collision produces mountains. (The Himalayas, the Alps, and the Appalachians are examples.)



# *Transform Fault Boundaries*

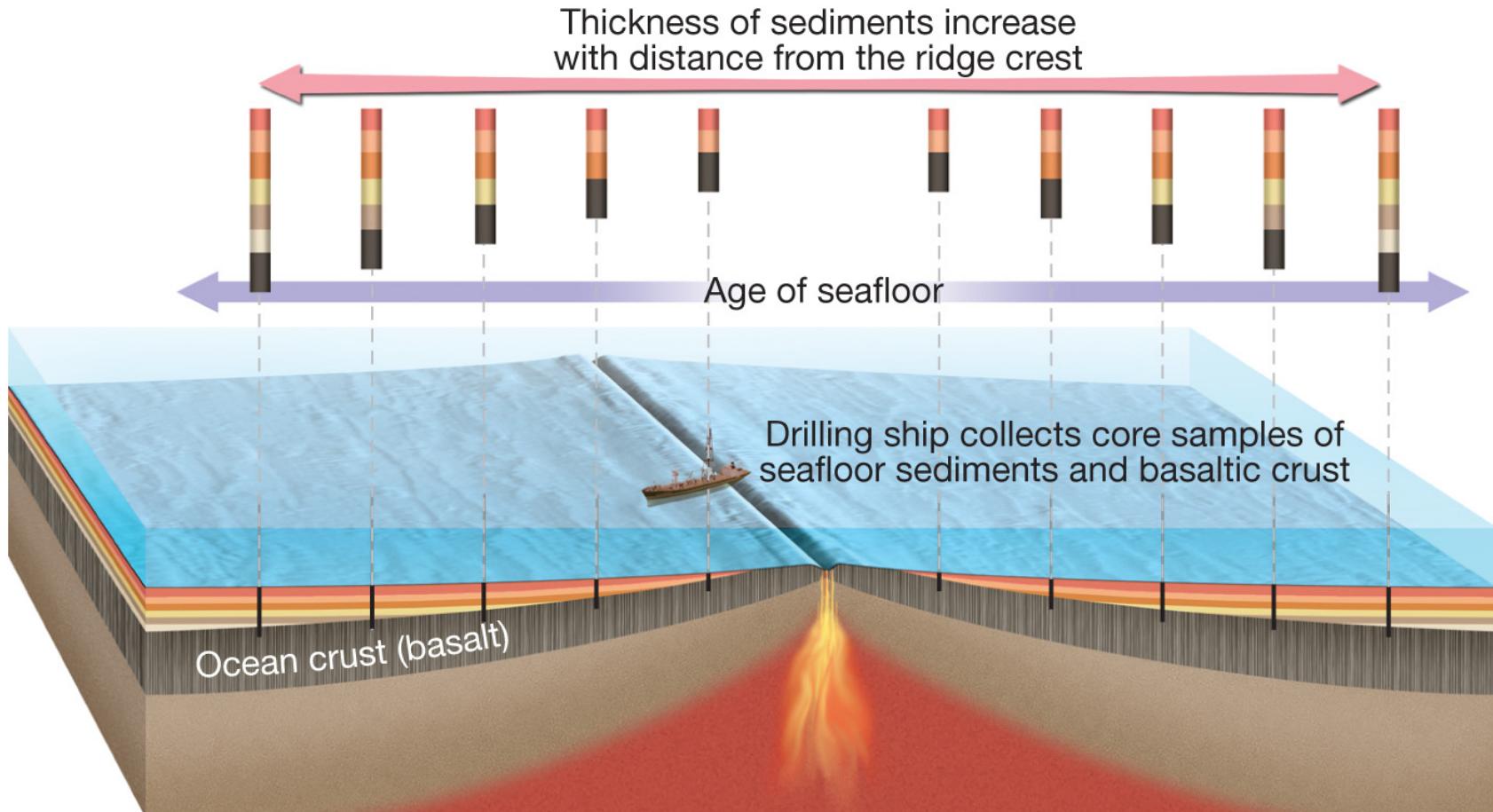
- Plates slide past one another and no new lithosphere is created or destroyed.
- **Transform faults**
  - Mostly join two segments of a mid-ocean ridge (MOR) along breaks in the oceanic crust known as **fracture zones**.
  - A few (the San Andreas fault and Alpine Fault of New Zealand) cut through continental crust.

# Transform Fault Boundaries



# *Testing the Plate Tectonics Model*

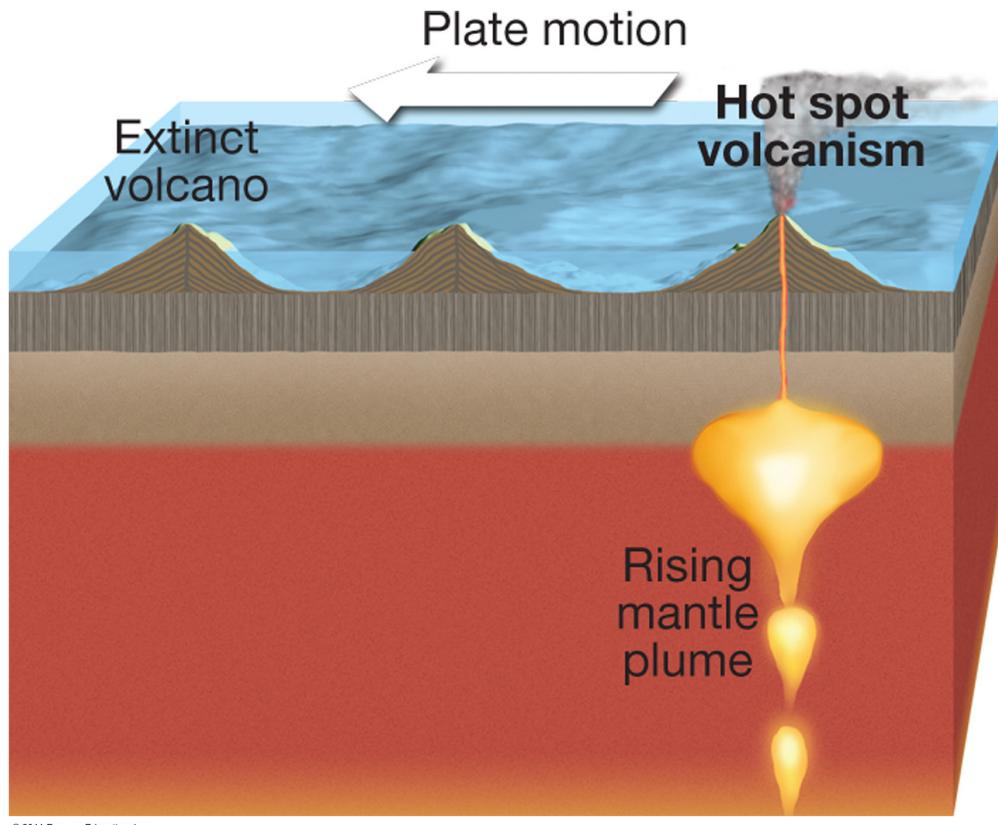
- Evidence from ocean drilling
  - Some of the most convincing evidence has come from drilling directly into ocean-floor sediment.
    - Age of deepest sediments
    - The thickness of ocean-floor sediments verifies across seafloor spreading.



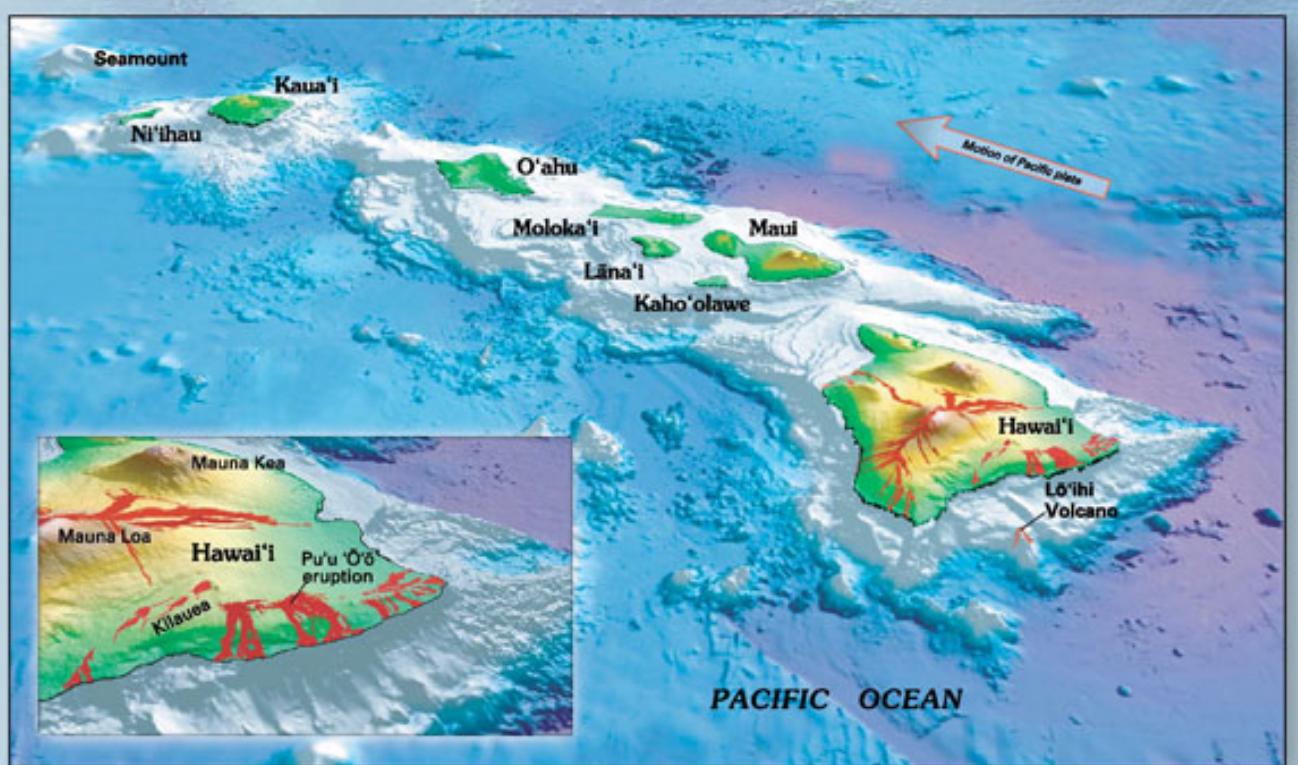
# *Testing the Plate Tectonics Model*

## □ Hot spots and mantle plumes

- Caused by rising plumes of mantle material
- Volcanoes can form over them (Hawaiian Island chain).
- Mantle plumes
  - Long-lived structures
  - Some originate at great depth.



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**Figure 2.**—Oblique view of the principal Hawaiian Islands and (the still submarine) Lō'ihi Volcano. Inset gives a closer view of three of the five volcanoes that form the Island of Hawai'i (historical lava flows are shown in red). The longest duration historical eruption on Kilauea's east-rift zone at Pu'u 'Ō'ō (inset), which began in January 1983, continues unabated (as of spring 2006). View prepared by Joel E. Robinson (USGS).

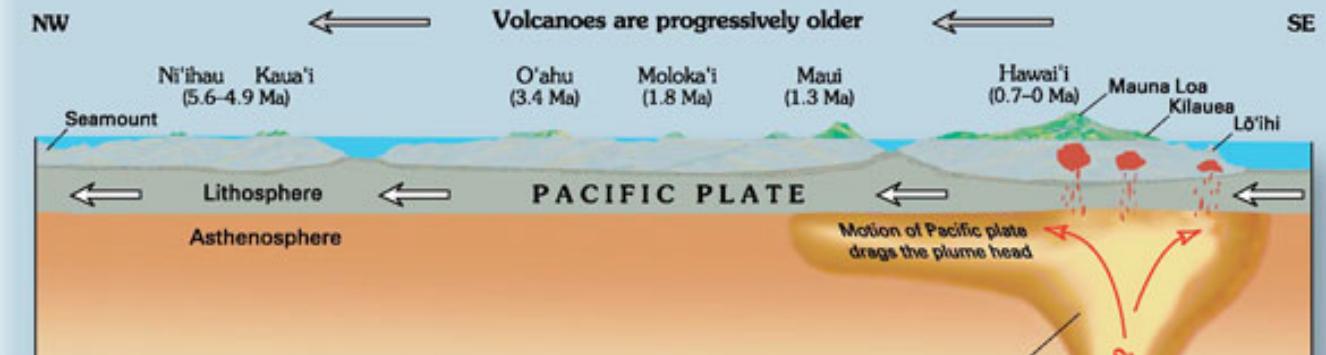
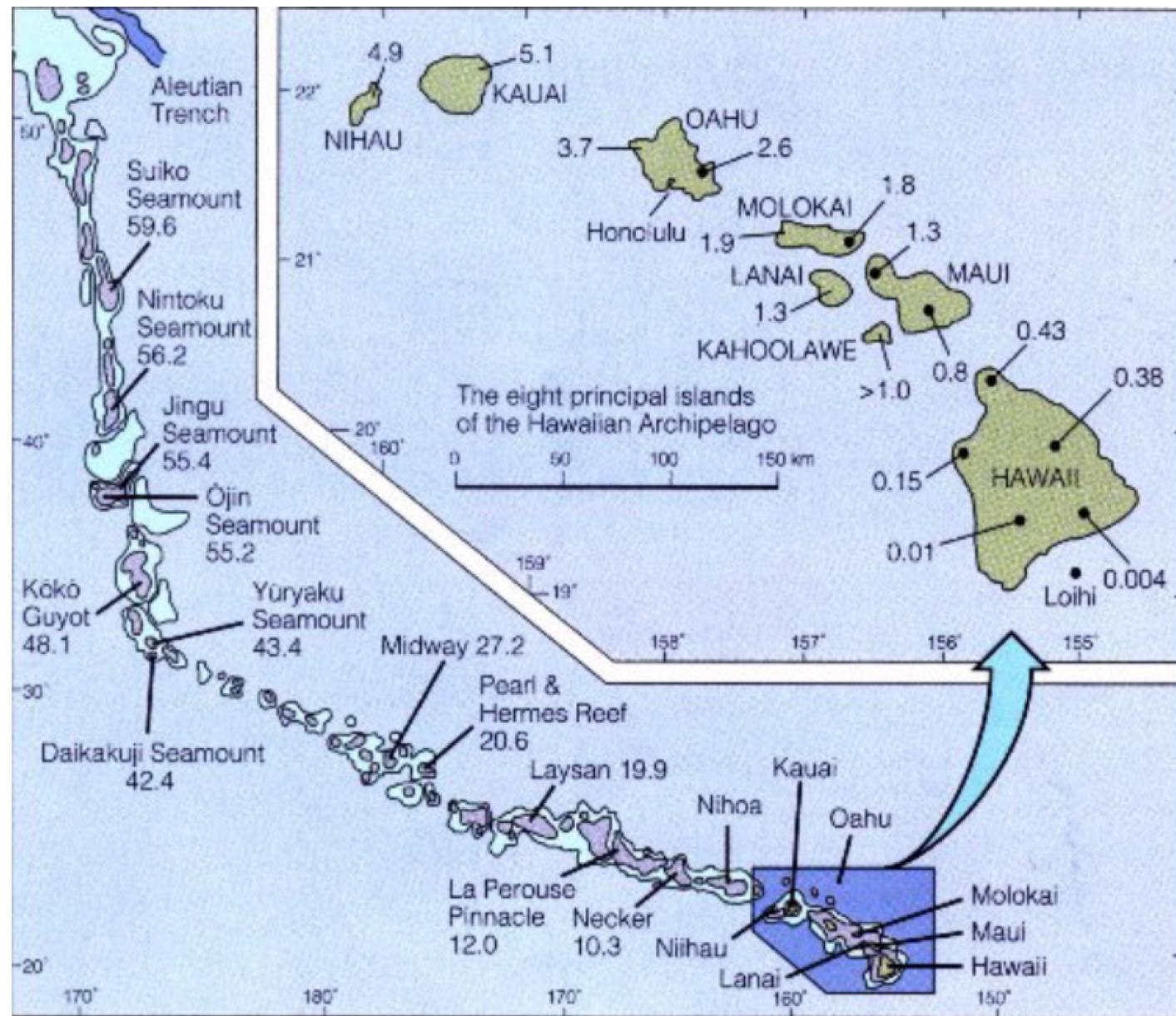


Image courtesy: USGS

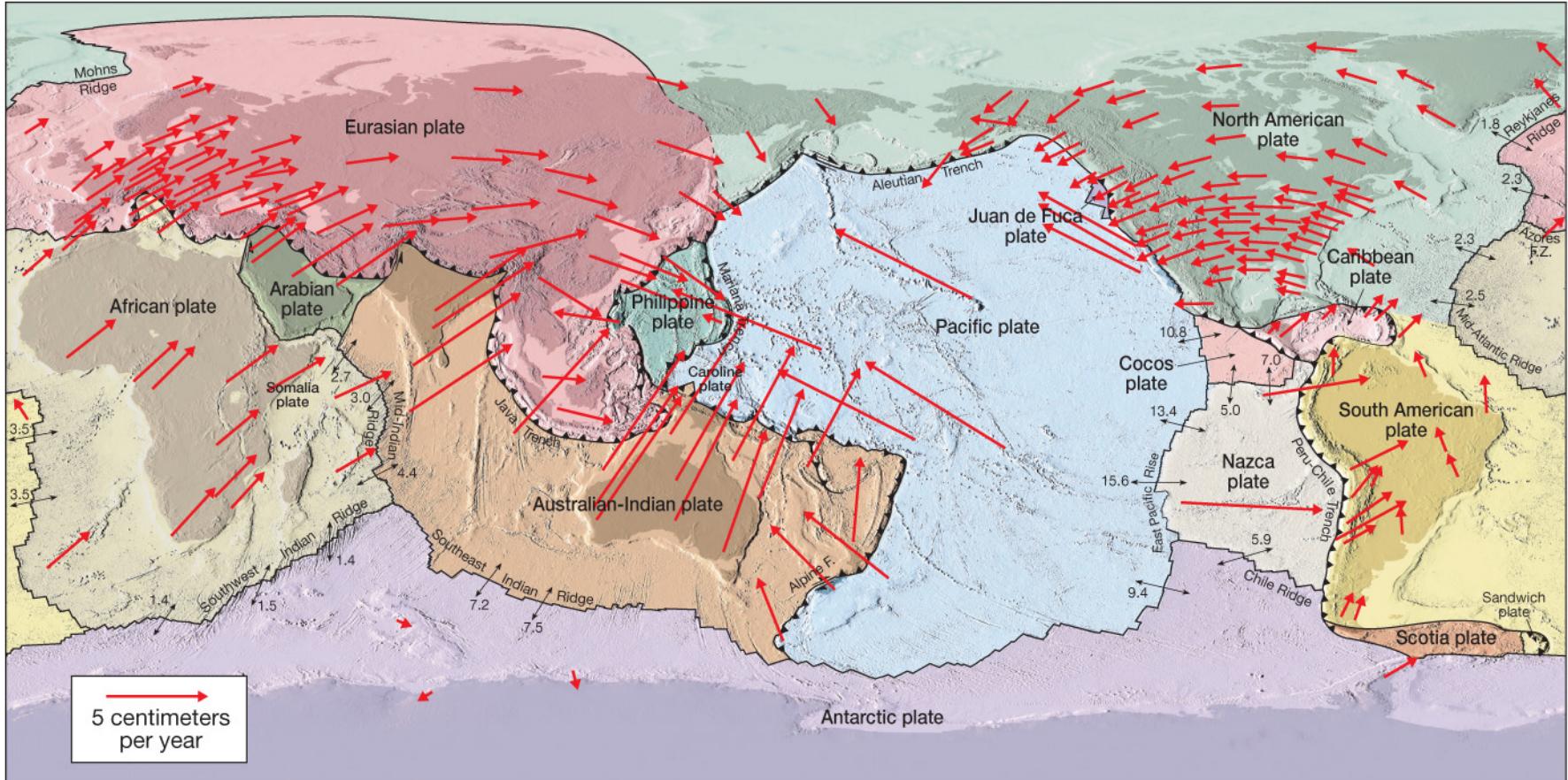


*In which direction the plates are moving?*

# ***Measuring Plate Motion***

- **Paleomagnetism and plate motions**
  - Paleomagnetism stored in rocks on the ocean floor provides a method for determining plate motions.
  - Both the direction and the rate of spreading can be established.
- **Measuring plate velocities from space**
  - Accomplished by establishing exact locations on opposite sides of a plate boundary and measuring relative motions
  - Various methods are used:
    - **Global Positioning System (GPS)**

# *Plate Motions*

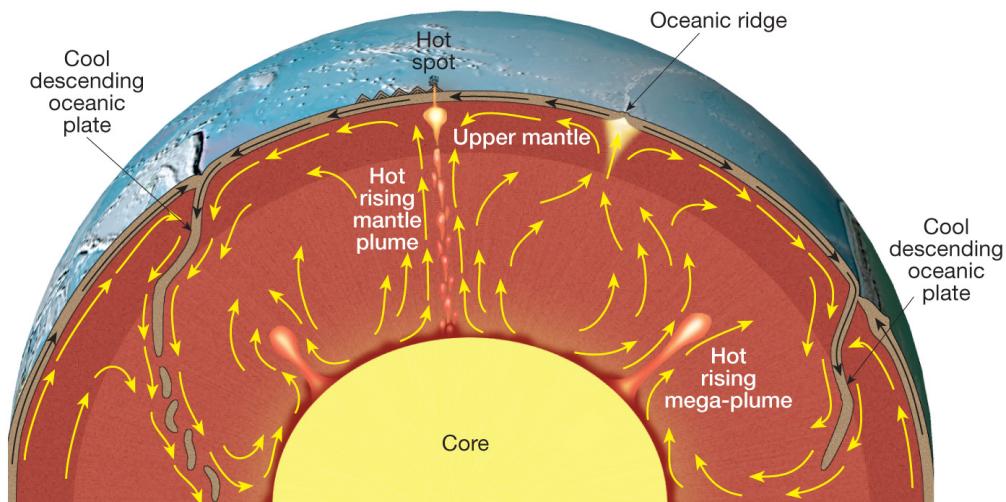


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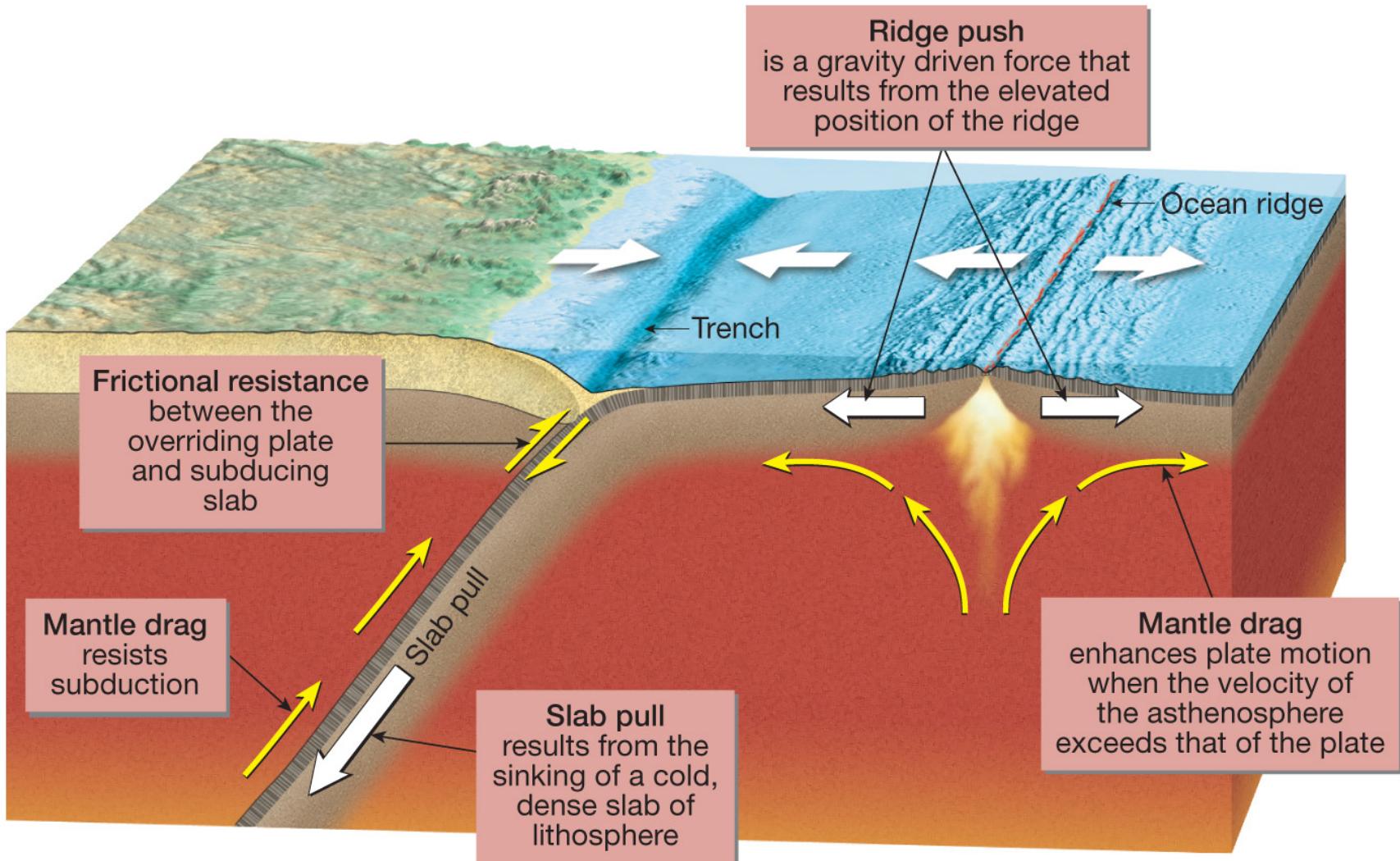
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# *What Drives Plate Motions?*

- Researchers agree that convective flow in the mantle is the basic driving force of plate tectonics.
- Driven by three thermal processes:
  - heating at the bottom by heat loss from Earth's core
  - heating from within by decay of radioactive isotopes
  - cooling from top  
(sinking of cold lithospheric slabs in the mantle)



# Forces Driving Plate Motions



# ***Importance of Plate Tectonics***

- The theory provides explanations for:
  - Earth's major surface processes
  - Distribution of earthquakes, volcanoes, and mountains
  - Distribution of ancient organisms and mineral deposits

# Reconstructed Plate tectonics in geologic past

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100 Ma Ancient Oceans & Continents x +

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100 Ma

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The maps in this atlas are the first draft of a new set of plate tectonic reconstructions that will provide the framework for the revised paleogeographic and paleoclimatic maps that I am preparing.

# Questions

1. The volcanoes of Hawaii are localized above a deep mantle hot spot; they are not part of the East Pacific oceanic ridge.

Answer: TRUE / FALSE

2. New oceanic crust and lithosphere are formed at \_\_\_\_\_.

- A) transform boundaries by submarine eruptions
- B) convergent boundaries by submarine eruptions
- C) divergent boundaries by submarine eruptions

3. The Himalayan Mountains and Tibetan Plateau are still rising today as Eurasia slides beneath the Indian subcontinent.

Answer: TRUE / FALSE

4. Deep ocean trenches are surficial evidence for \_\_\_\_\_.

- A) rifting beneath a continental plate and the beginning of continental drift
- B) sinking of oceanic lithosphere into the mantle at a subduction zone
- C) rising of hot asthenosphere from deep in the mantle
- D) transform faulting between an oceanic plate and a continental plate

5. Hotspot can be used to measure \_\_\_\_\_ plate motion.

# Continental Margins

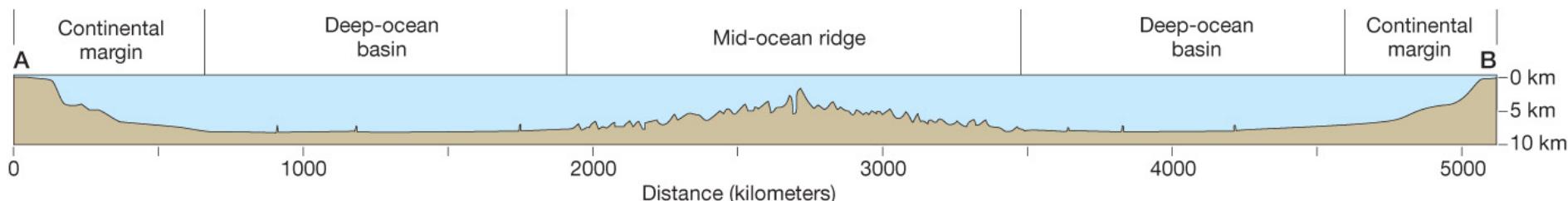
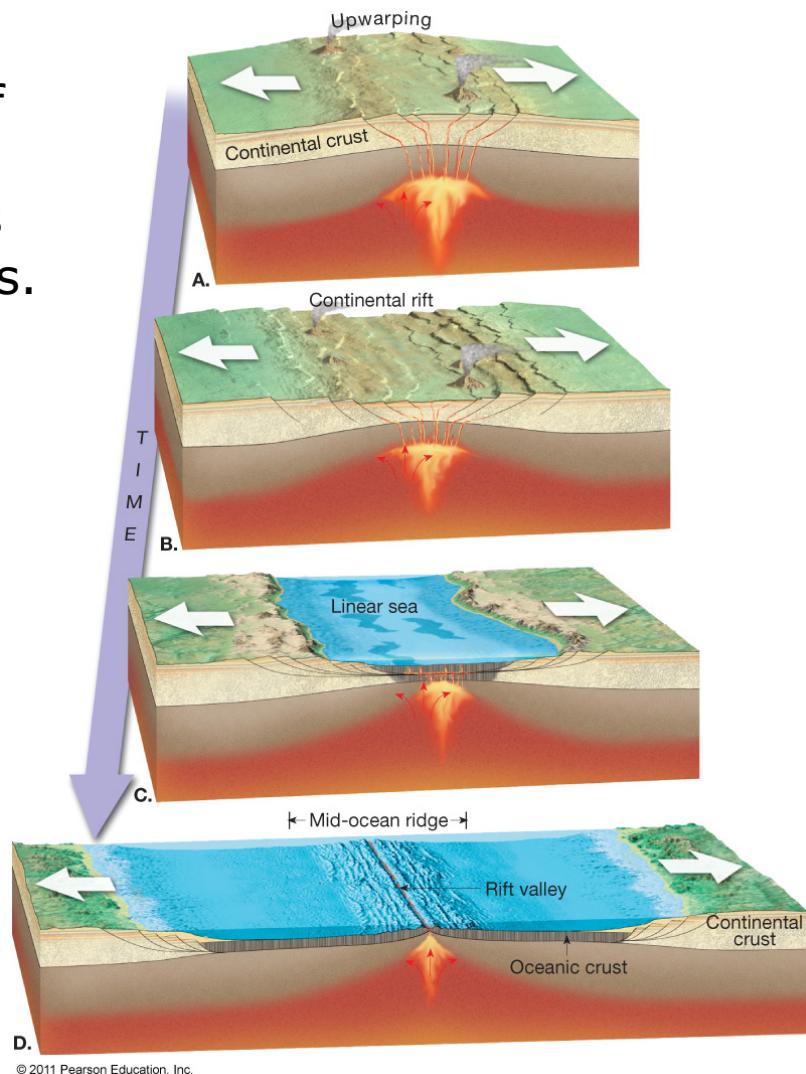
Continental margins are underwater edge of continents. These include continental shelf, slope, rise and abyssal plain. These margins are of two types: passive and active margins.

## I. Passive continental margins

Found along most coastal areas that surround the Atlantic Ocean

Not associated with plate boundaries

Experience little volcanism and few earthquakes

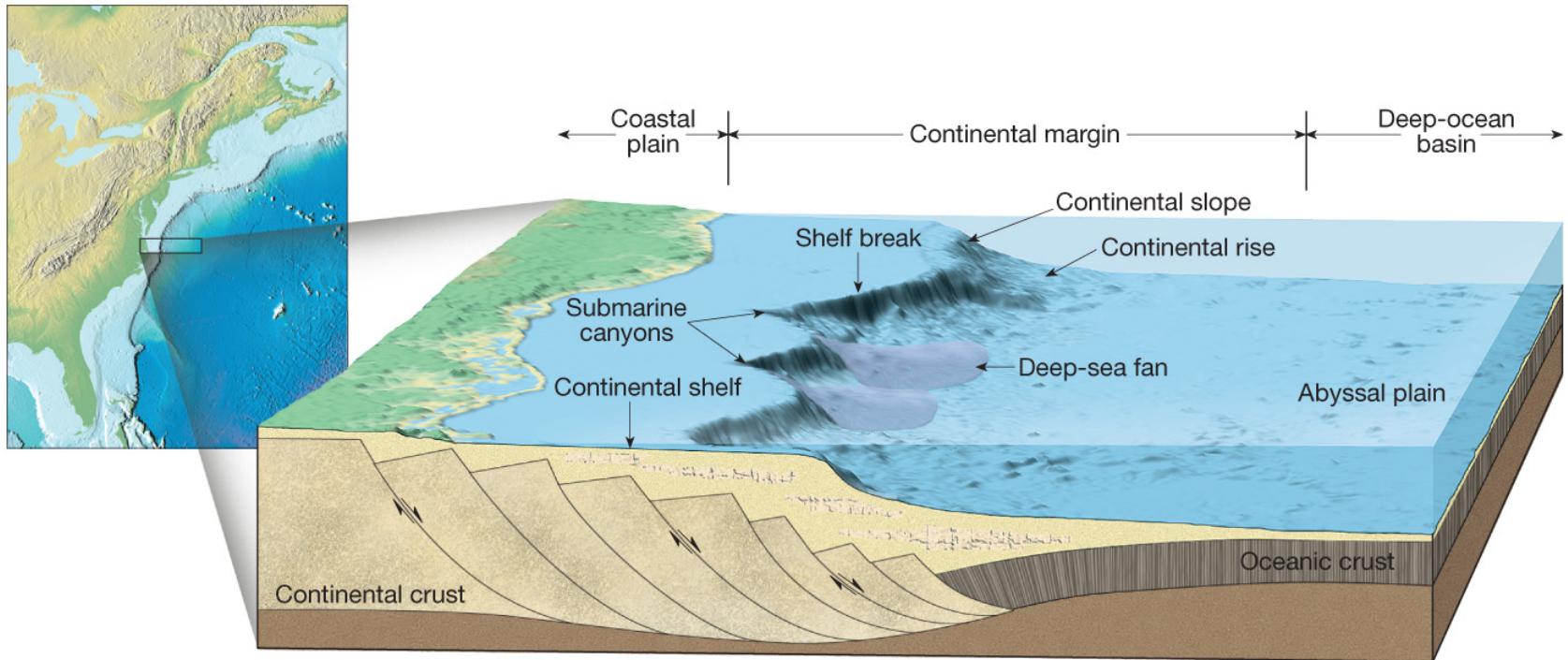


# *Continental Margins*

## ❑ Features comprising a passive continental margin

### ▫ **Continental shelf**

- Flooded extension of the continent upto shelf
- Varies greatly in width (average = 80 km)
- Gently sloping
- Contains important mineral deposits
- Some areas are mantled by extensive glacial deposits.

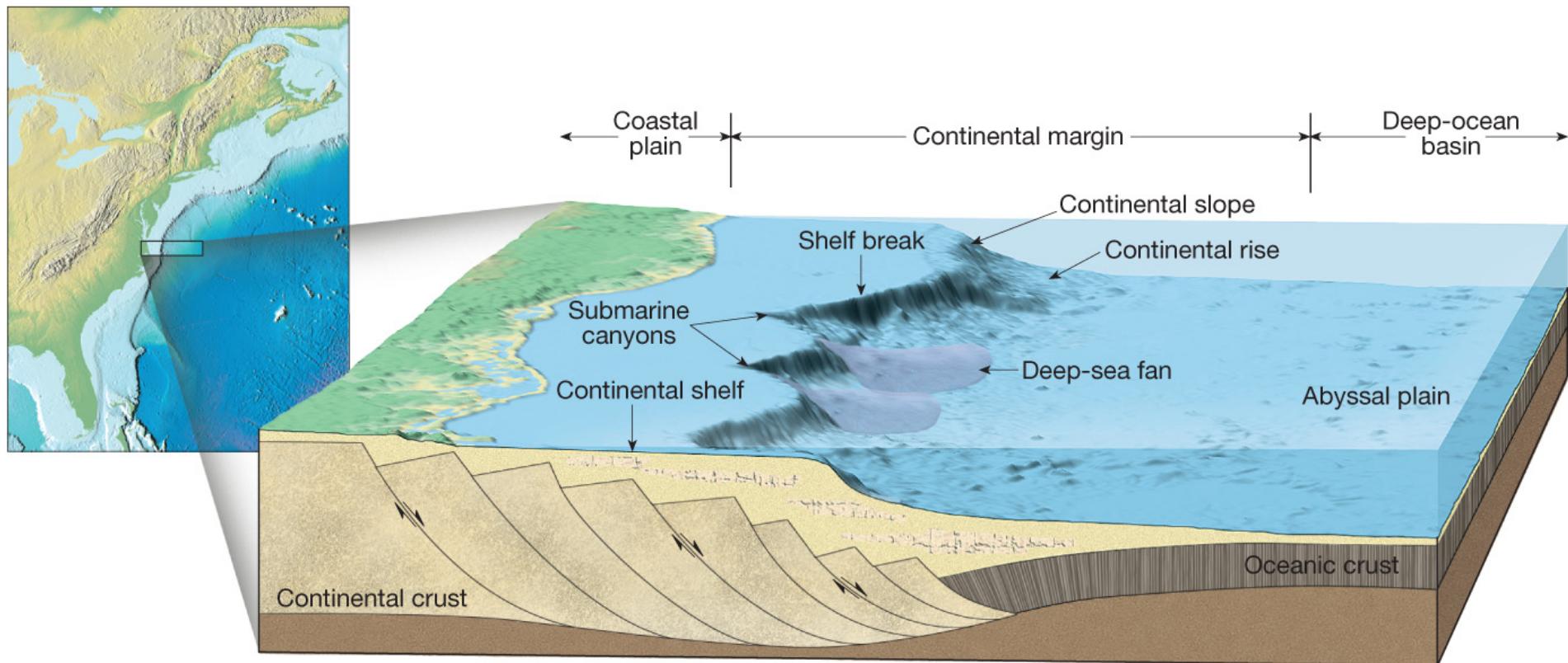


# *Continental Margins*

- Features comprising a passive continental margin

- **Continental slope**

- Marks the seaward edge of the continental shelf
    - Water depth increases rapidly
    - Relatively steep structure ( $5^{\circ} - 25^{\circ}$ )
    - Boundary between continental crust and oceanic crust

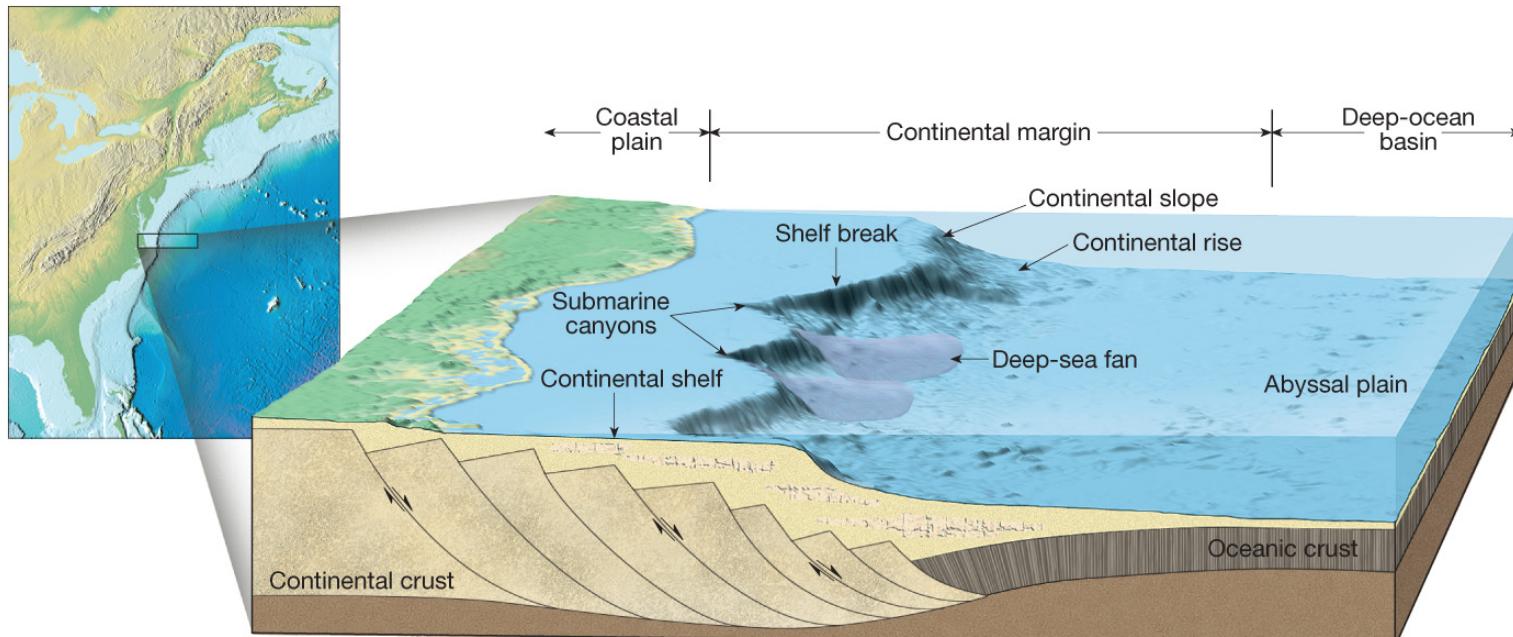


# *Continental Margins*

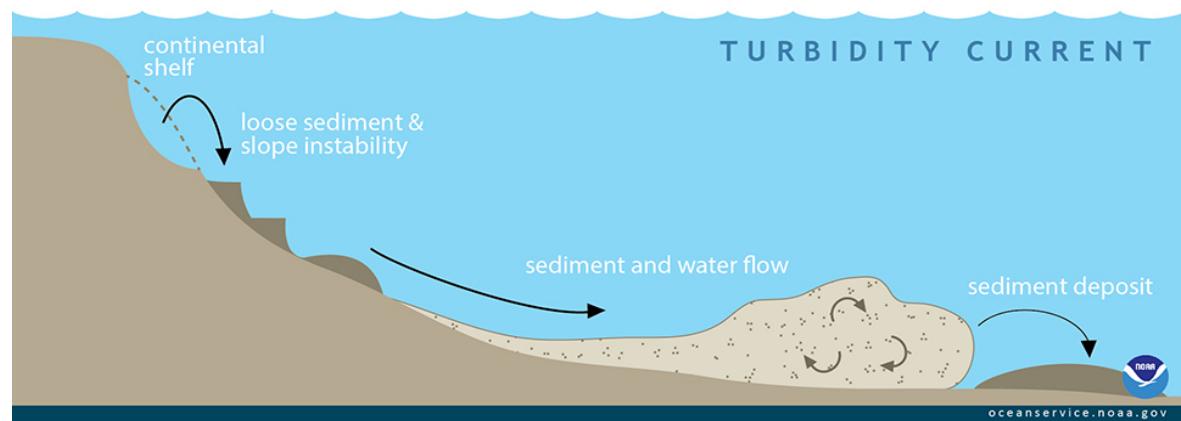
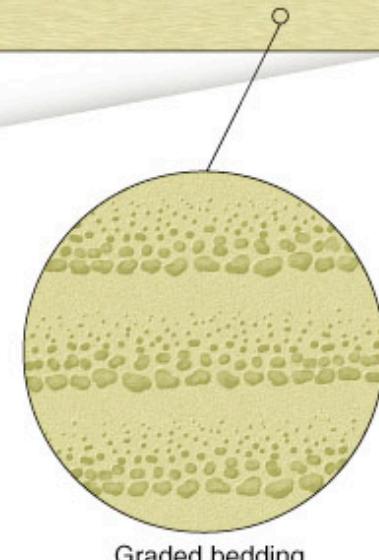
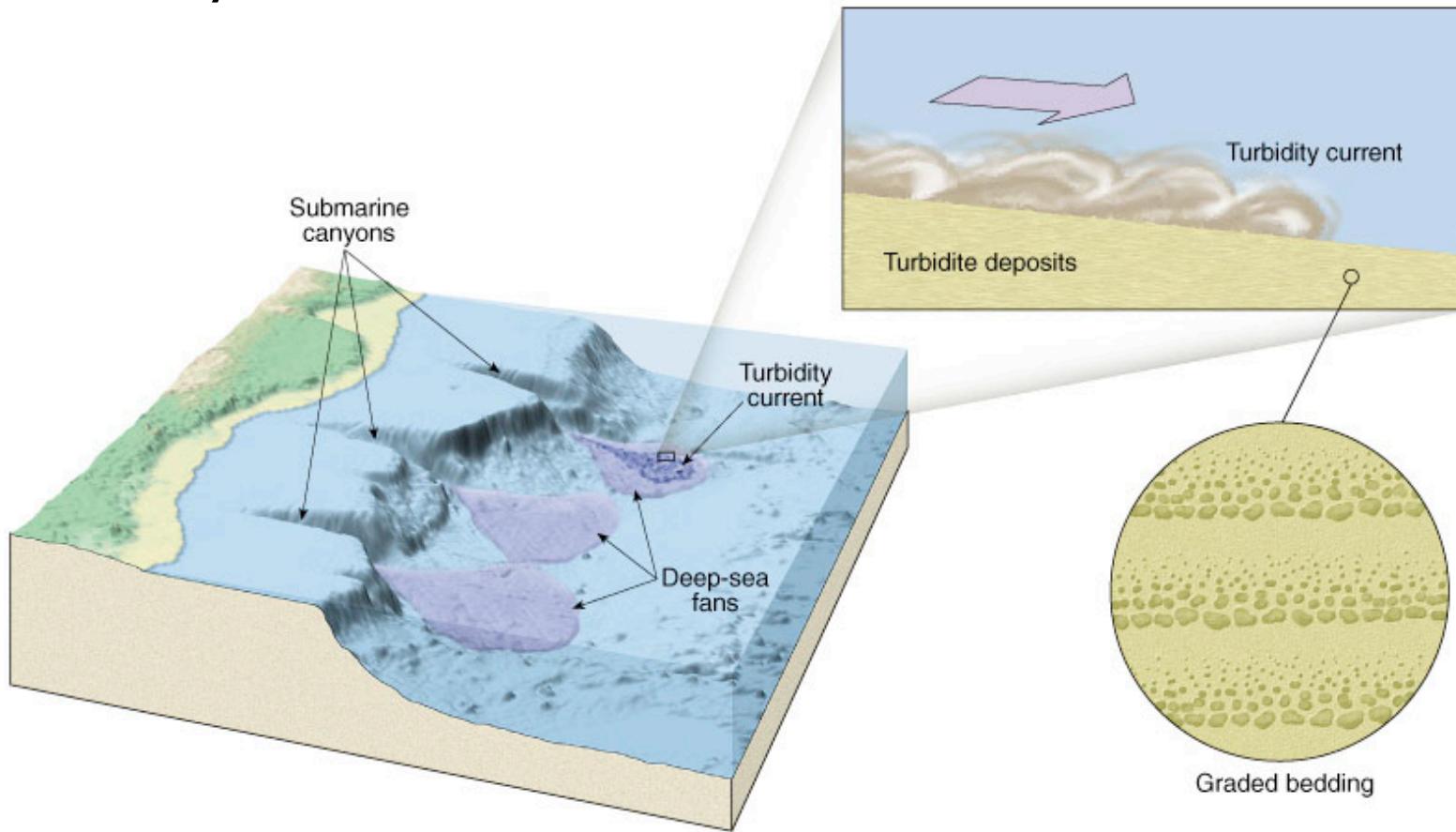
## ❑ Features comprising a passive continental margin

### ▫ **Continental rise**

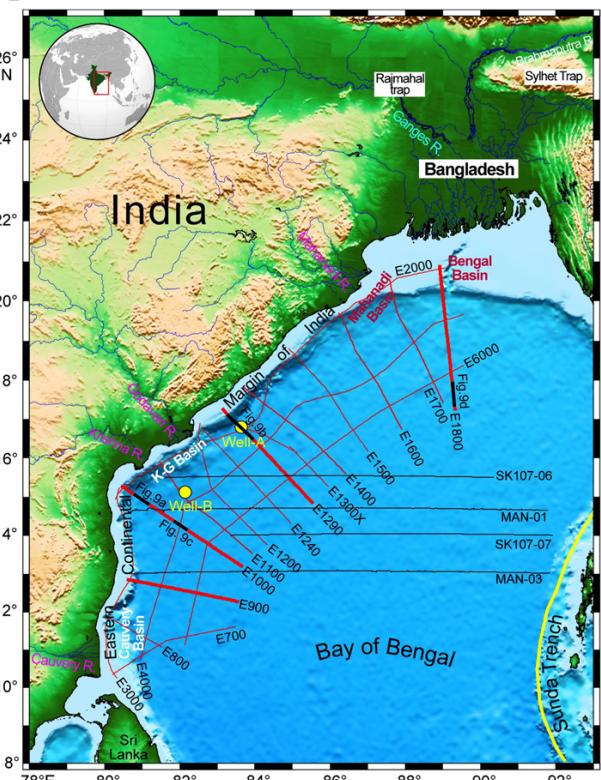
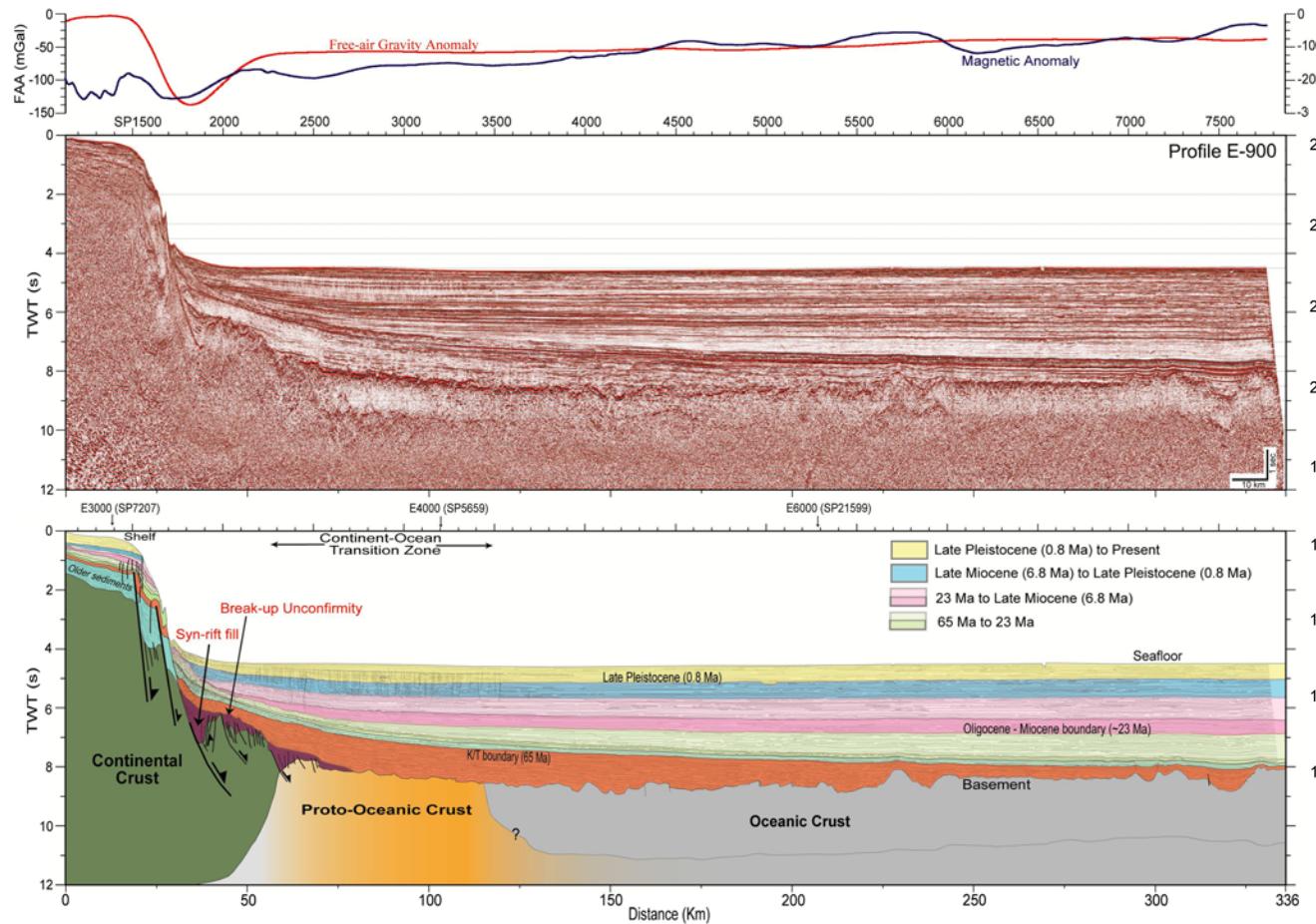
- Sediments become unstable on slope and tumble downward and form continental rise.
- Found in regions where trenches are absent
- A continental slope merges into a more gradual incline—the continental rise.
- Thick accumulation of sediment
- At the base of the continental slope, **turbidity currents** deposit sediment that forms **deep-sea fans**.



# Turbidity current



# Passive margin: Krishna-Godavari basin

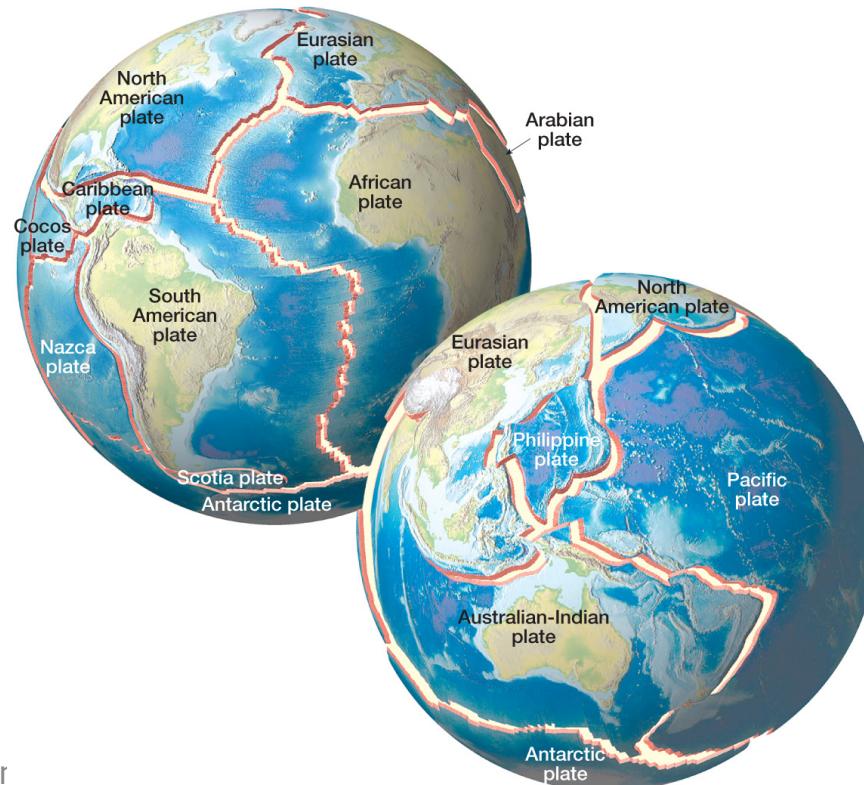


Seismic profile E900 across the offshore Cauvery Basin and adjacent deep-water region. Line drawing of interpreted seismic data together with free-air gravity and magnetic anomaly data are also shown (Ismaiel et al., 2020).

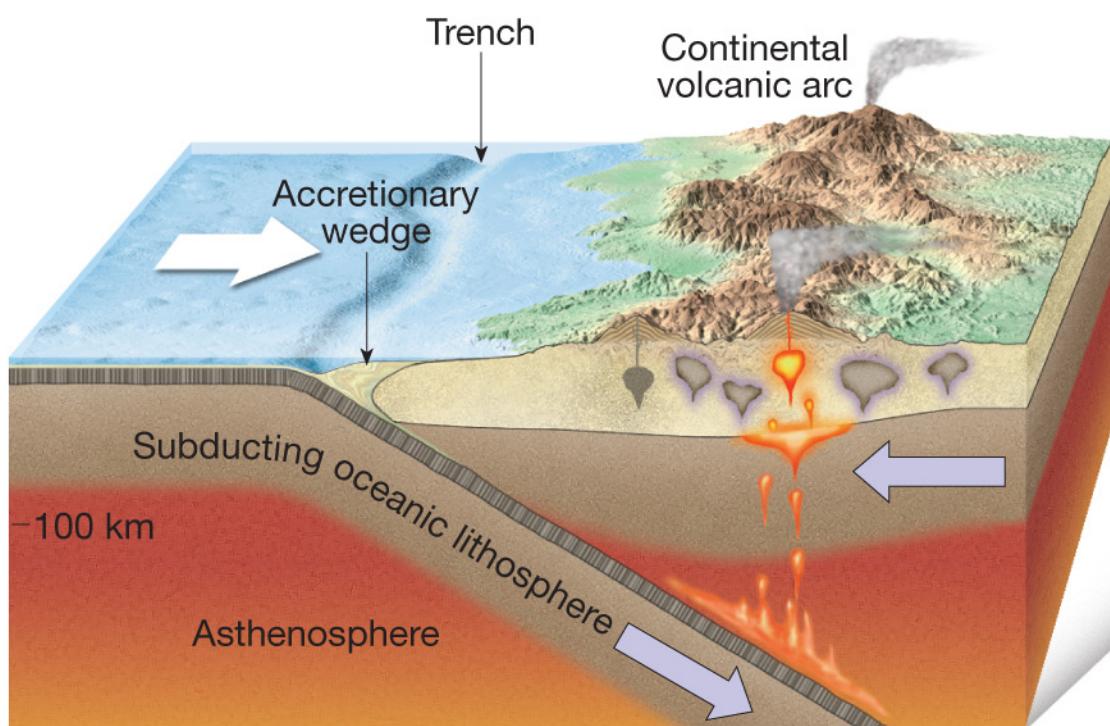
# *Continental Margins*

## II. Active continental margins

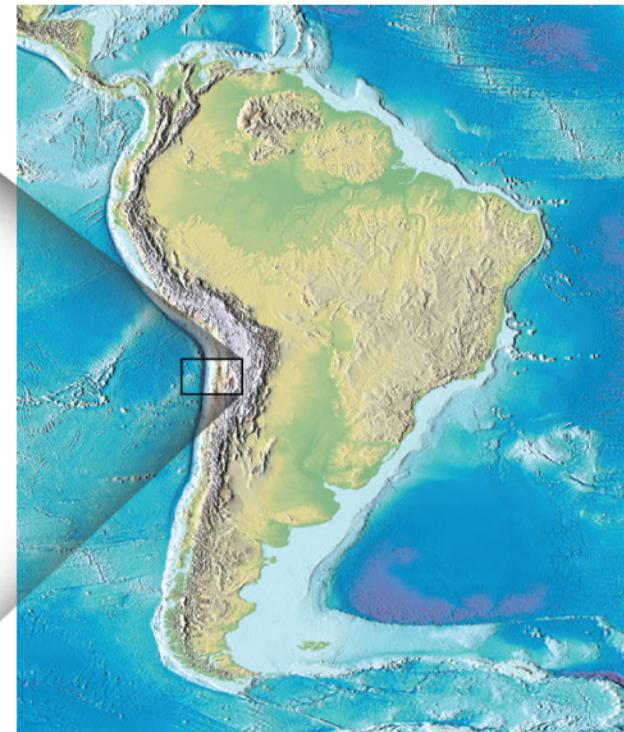
- The continental slope descends abruptly into a deep-ocean trench.
- Located primarily around the Pacific Ocean



# An Active Continental Margin

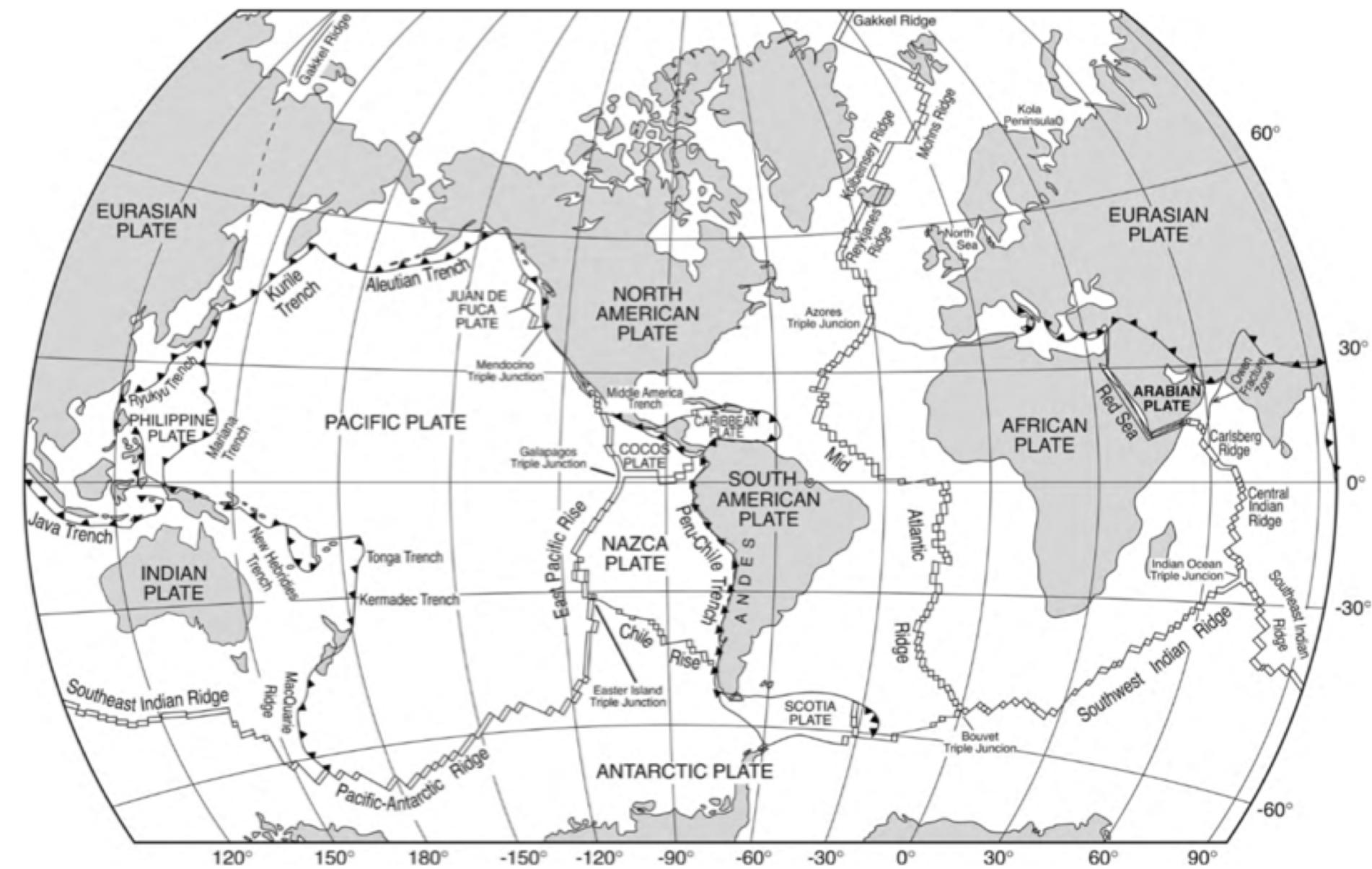


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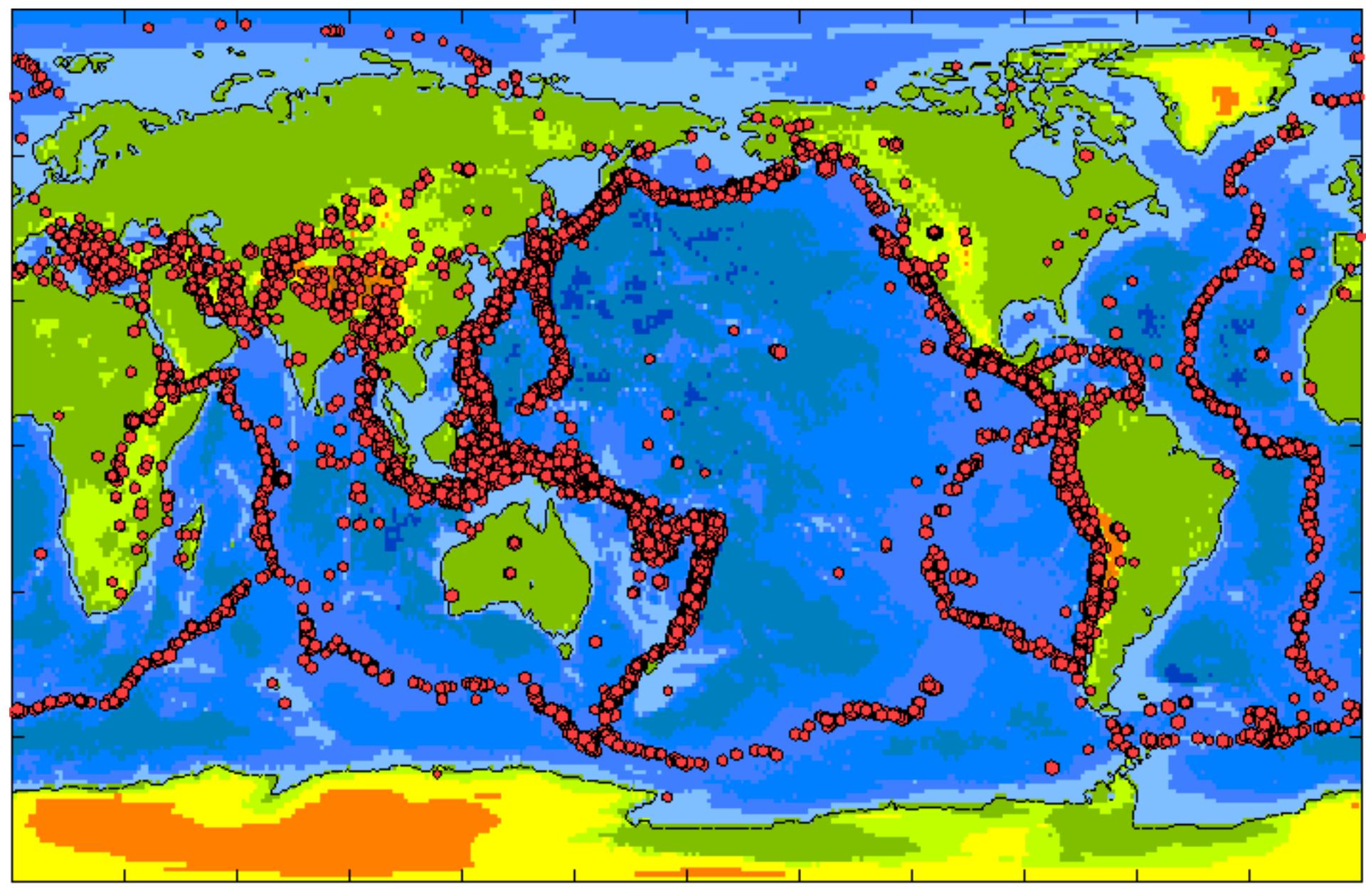


**Accumulations of deformed sediment and scraps of ocean crust form accretionary wedges.**

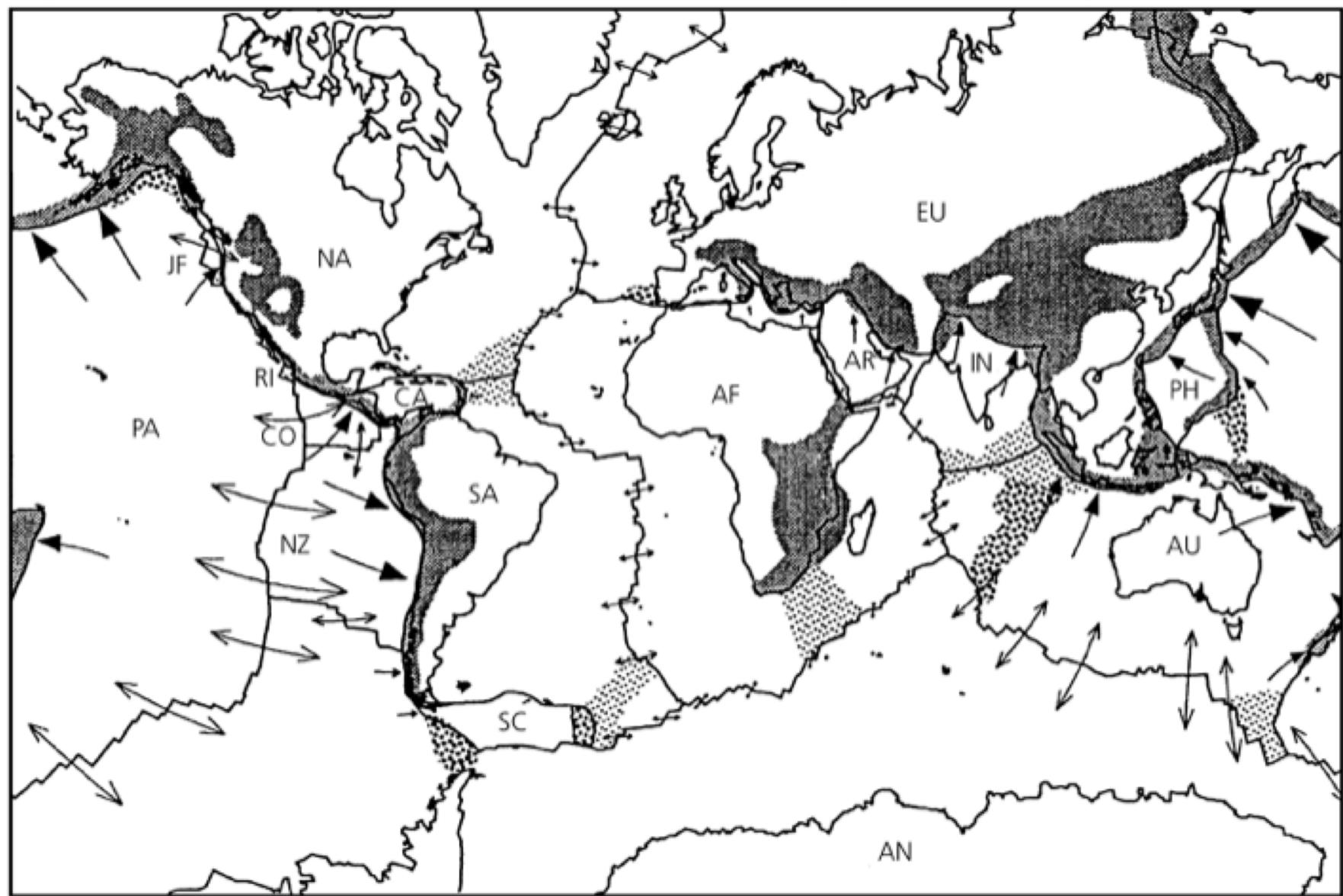
# Detailed plate boundaries and continental margins



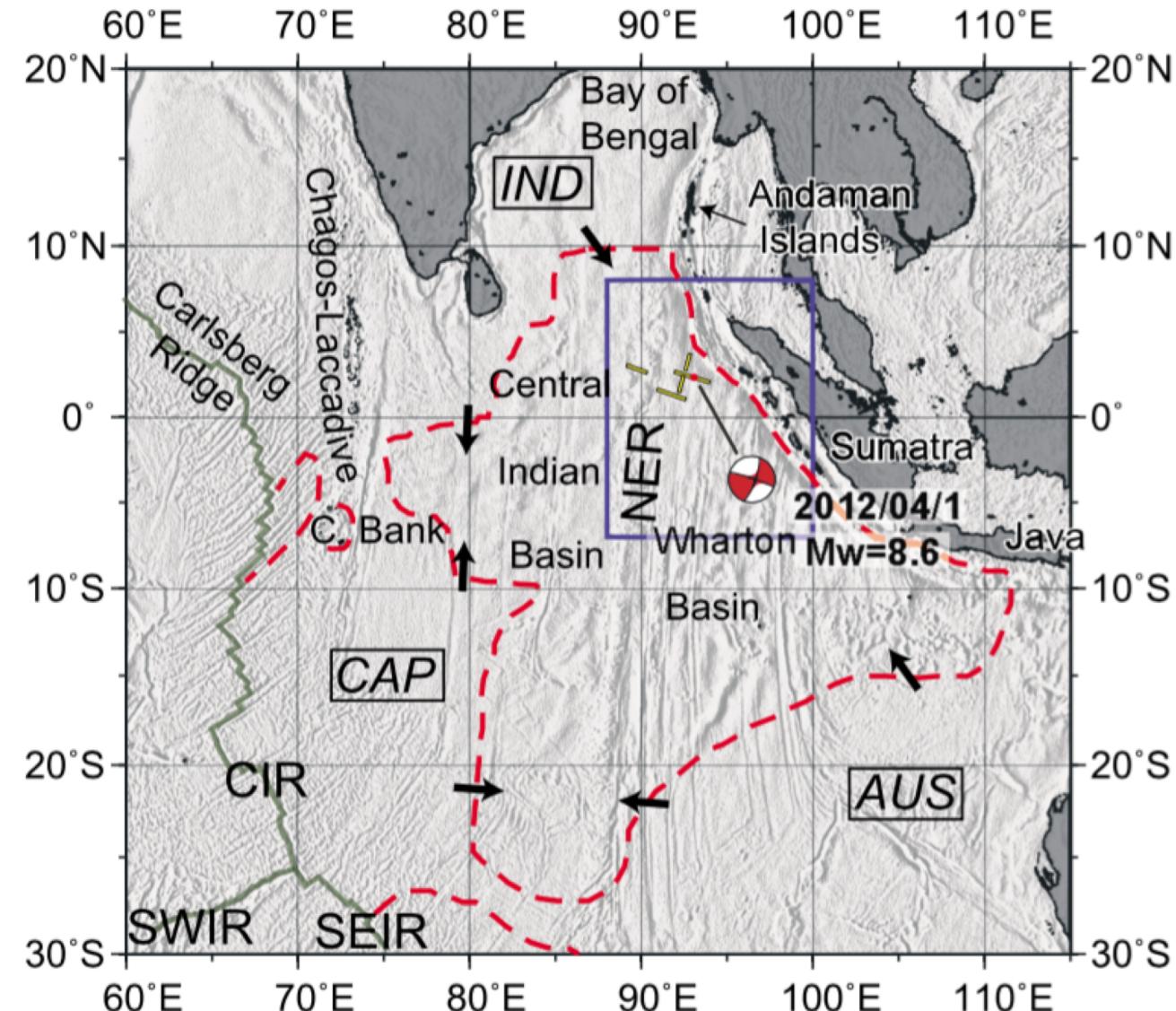
# Plate margin seismicity



**Figure 5.2-4: Relative plate motions and diffuse plate boundary zones.**



# Diussed plate boundary example



Component plates of the Indo-Australian plate (IND: India; AUS: Australia; CAP: Capricorn) and diffuse deformation zones according to Royer and Gordon [1997]. Deformation zones are marked as red dashed contours; active spreading centers (Carlsberg Ridge; SEIR: Southeast Indian Ridge; SWIR: Southwest Indian Ridge; CIR: Central Indian Ridge) are marked as semitransparent green-gray lines. Arrows indicate motion between component plates. Red dot is epicenter location of the 11 April 2012 M<sub>w</sub>=8.6 great strike-slip earthquake, and bars indicate proposed rupture zone of Yue et al. [2012]. Location of Figure 2 is shown with a blue box. C. Bank: Chagos Bank; NER: Ninety East Ridge.

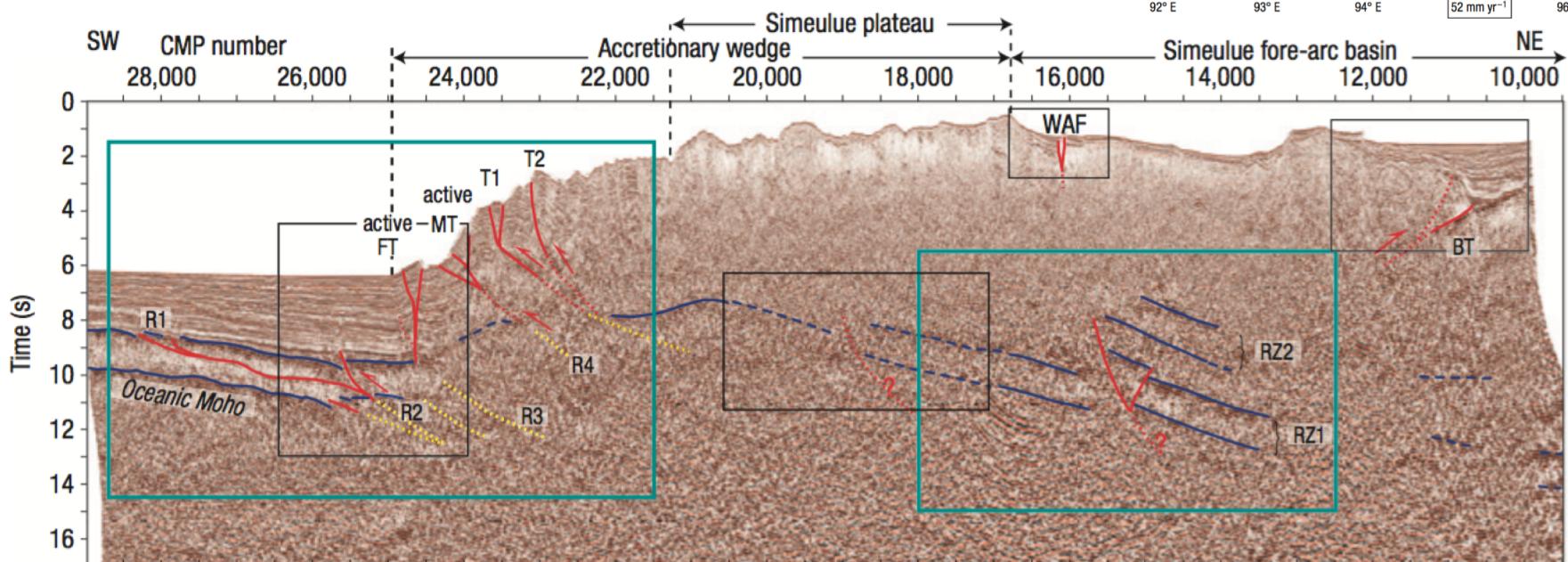
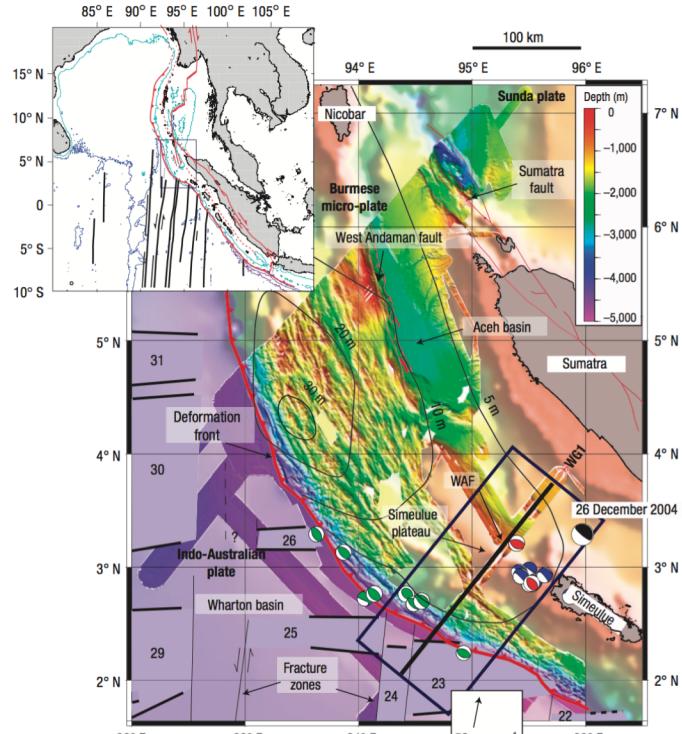
# Examples of Active margins: Sumatra

Seafloor is irregular

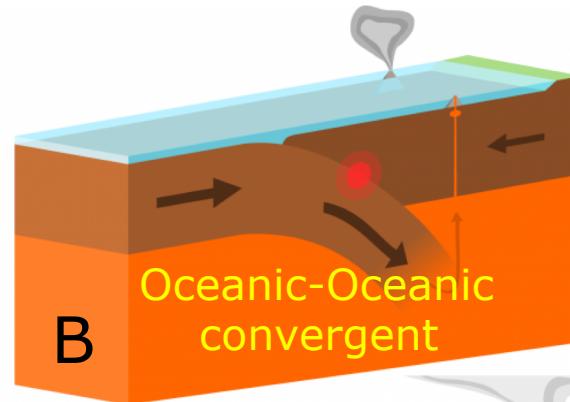
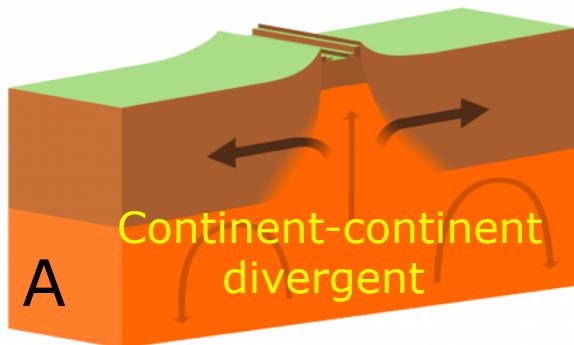
Subducting oceanic crust is buckled

Subducting oceanic crust is broken

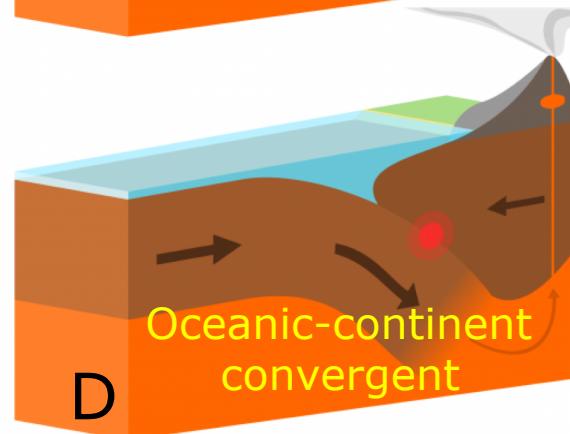
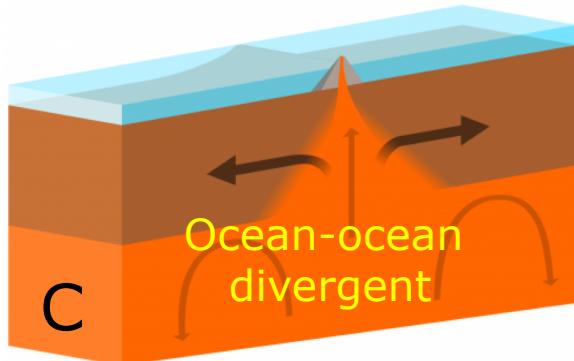
Thick pile of deposits



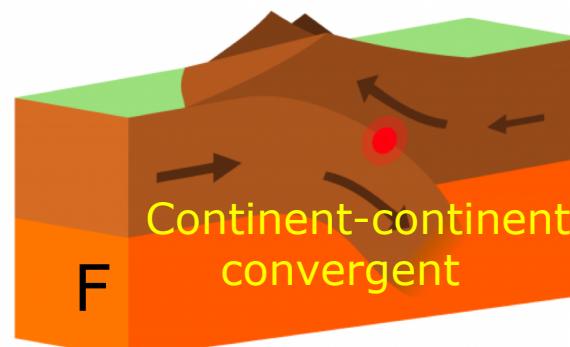
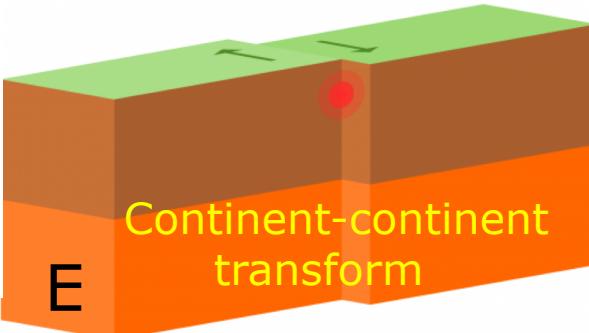
# Q1: Identify the tectonic setup and different landforms



Island arc



Volcanic arc



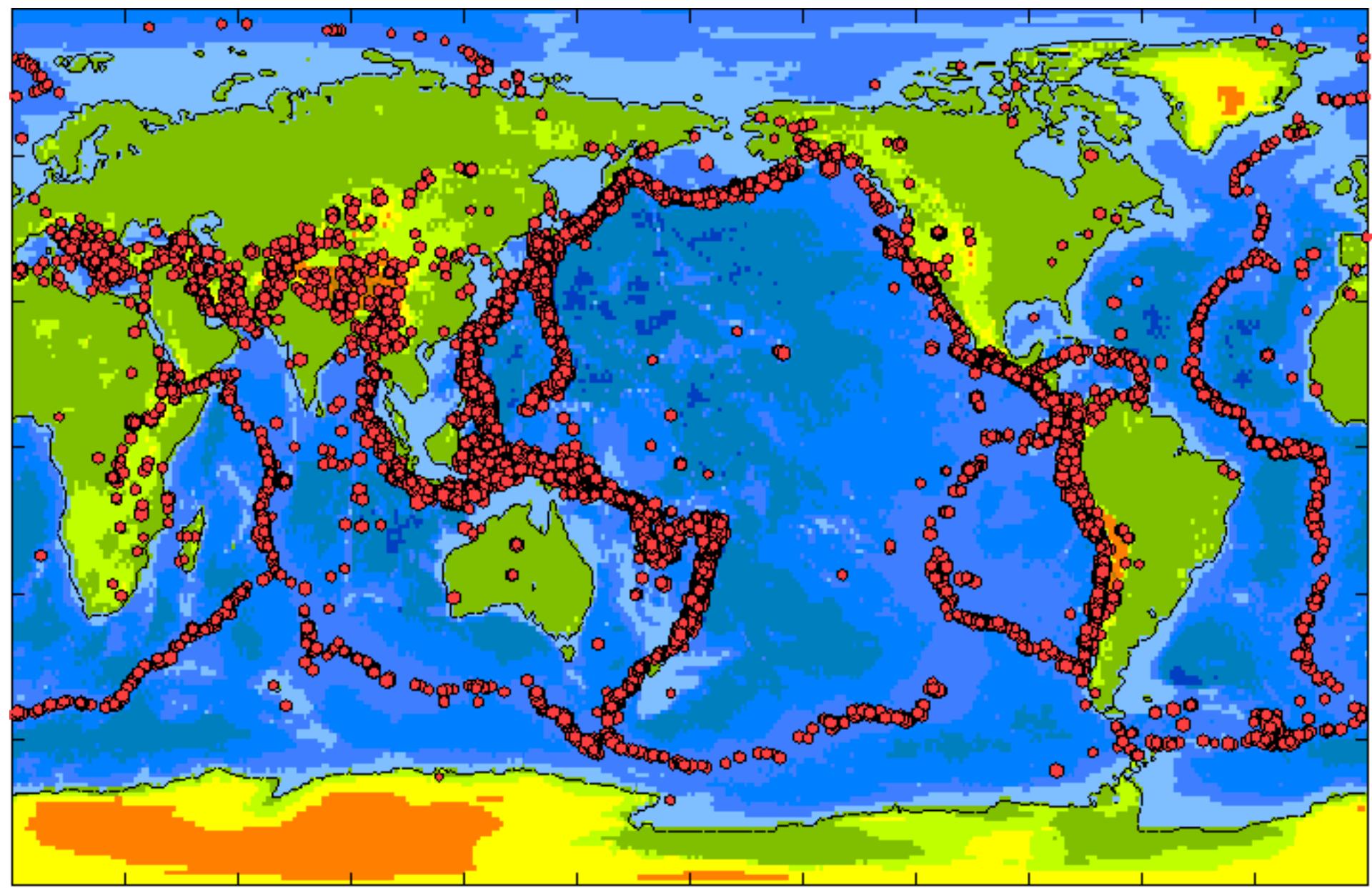
Mountain building



Q2: Which setup will form the active and passive continental margins?

# Plates and plate boundaries do not stay the same for all time !

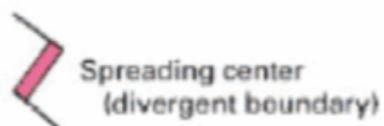
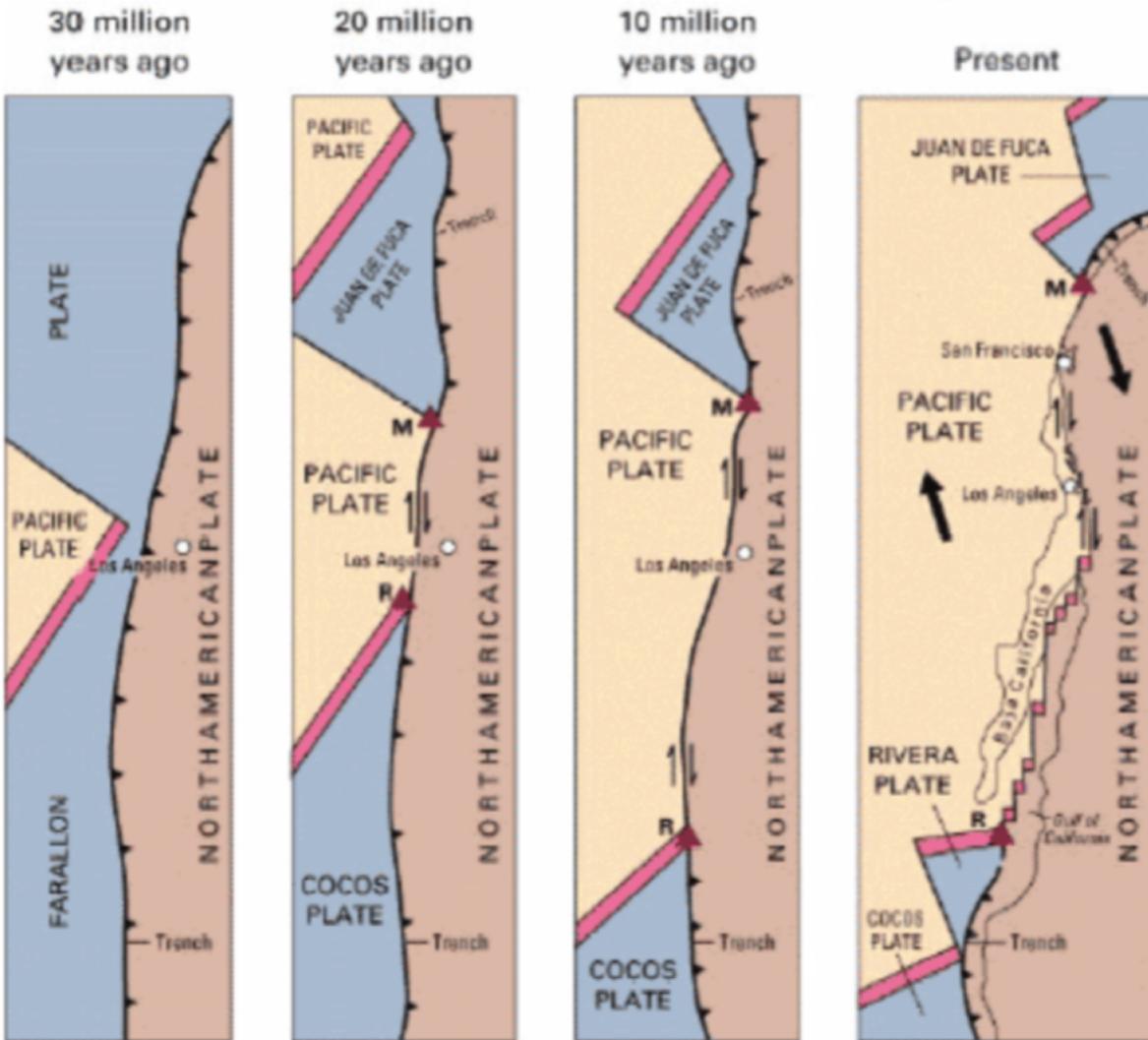
The formation of new plates and destruction of existing plates are the most obvious global reasons why plate boundaries and relative motions change.



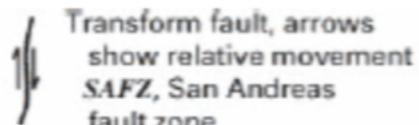
# Tripple junction:

A *triple junction* is a point at which three plates meet.

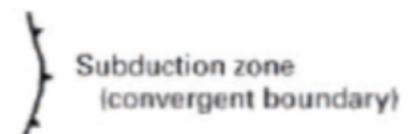
They are important as they provide a tool to calculate kinematic evolution of plate boundaries; and their motion cause significant reworking of lithospheric material.



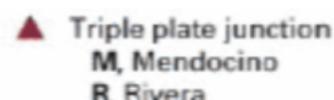
Spreading center  
(divergent boundary)



Transform fault, arrows  
show relative movement  
SAFZ, San Andreas  
fault zone



Subduction zone  
(convergent boundary)



▲ Triple plate junction  
M, Mendocino  
R, Rivera

# *Features of the Deep-Ocean Basin*

## I. Deep-ocean trench

- Long, relatively narrow features
- Deepest parts of ocean
- Most are located in the Pacific Ocean.
- Sites where moving lithospheric plates plunge into the mantle
- Associated with volcanic activity
- Often paralleled by arc-shaped row of active volcanoes (volcanic island arc; continental volcanic arc)

# *Earth's Deep-Ocean Trenches*

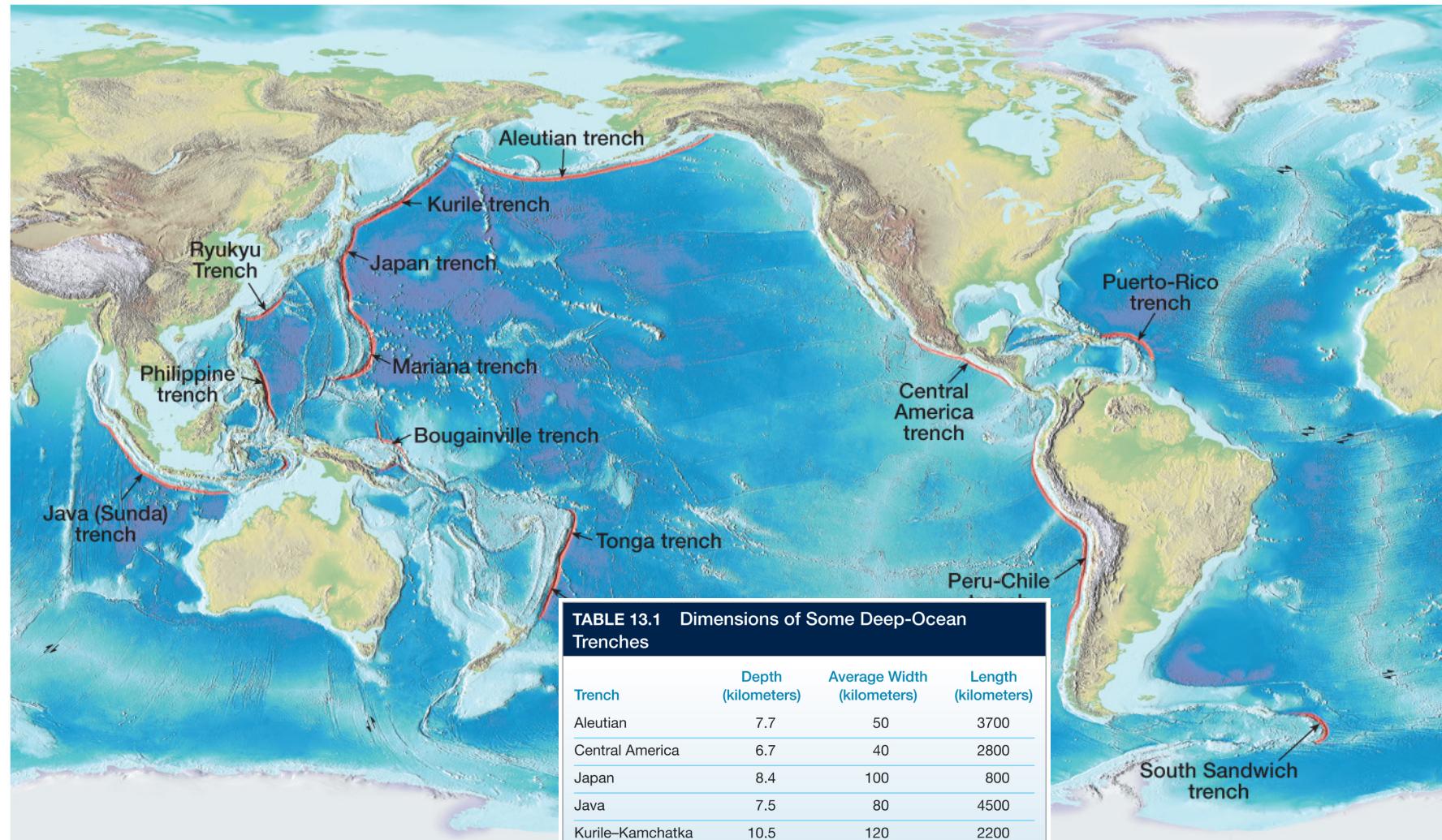


TABLE 13.1 Dimensions of Some Deep-Ocean Trenches

| Trench           | Depth<br>(kilometers) | Average Width<br>(kilometers) | Length<br>(kilometers) |
|------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------------|------------------------|
| Aleutian         | 7.7                   | 50                            | 3700                   |
| Central America  | 6.7                   | 40                            | 2800                   |
| Japan            | 8.4                   | 100                           | 800                    |
| Java             | 7.5                   | 80                            | 4500                   |
| Kurile-Kamchatka | 10.5                  | 120                           | 2200                   |
| Mariana          | 11.0                  | 70                            | 2550                   |
| Peru-Chile       | 8.1                   | 100                           | 5900                   |
| Philippine       | 10.5                  | 60                            | 1400                   |
| Puerto Rico      | 8.4                   | 120                           | 1550                   |
| South Sandwich   | 8.4                   | 90                            | 1450                   |
| Tonga            | 10.8                  | 55                            | 1400                   |

# *Features of the Deep-Ocean Basin*

## **II. Abyssal plains**

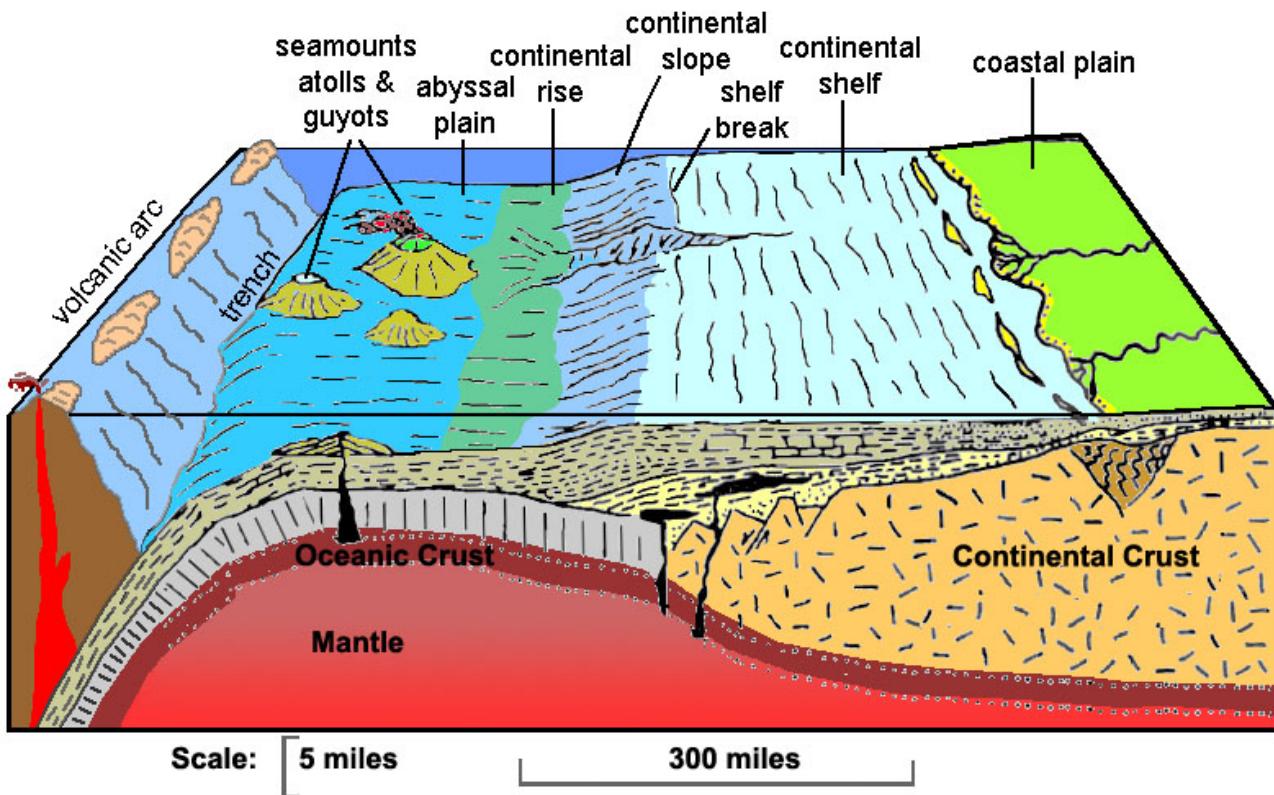
- Likely the most level places on Earth
- Sites of thick accumulations of sediment
- Found in all oceans

• **Seamount:** It is a mountain with pointed summits, rising from the seafloor that **does not reach the surface** of the ocean. Seamounts are volcanic in origin. These can be 3,000-4,500 m tall.

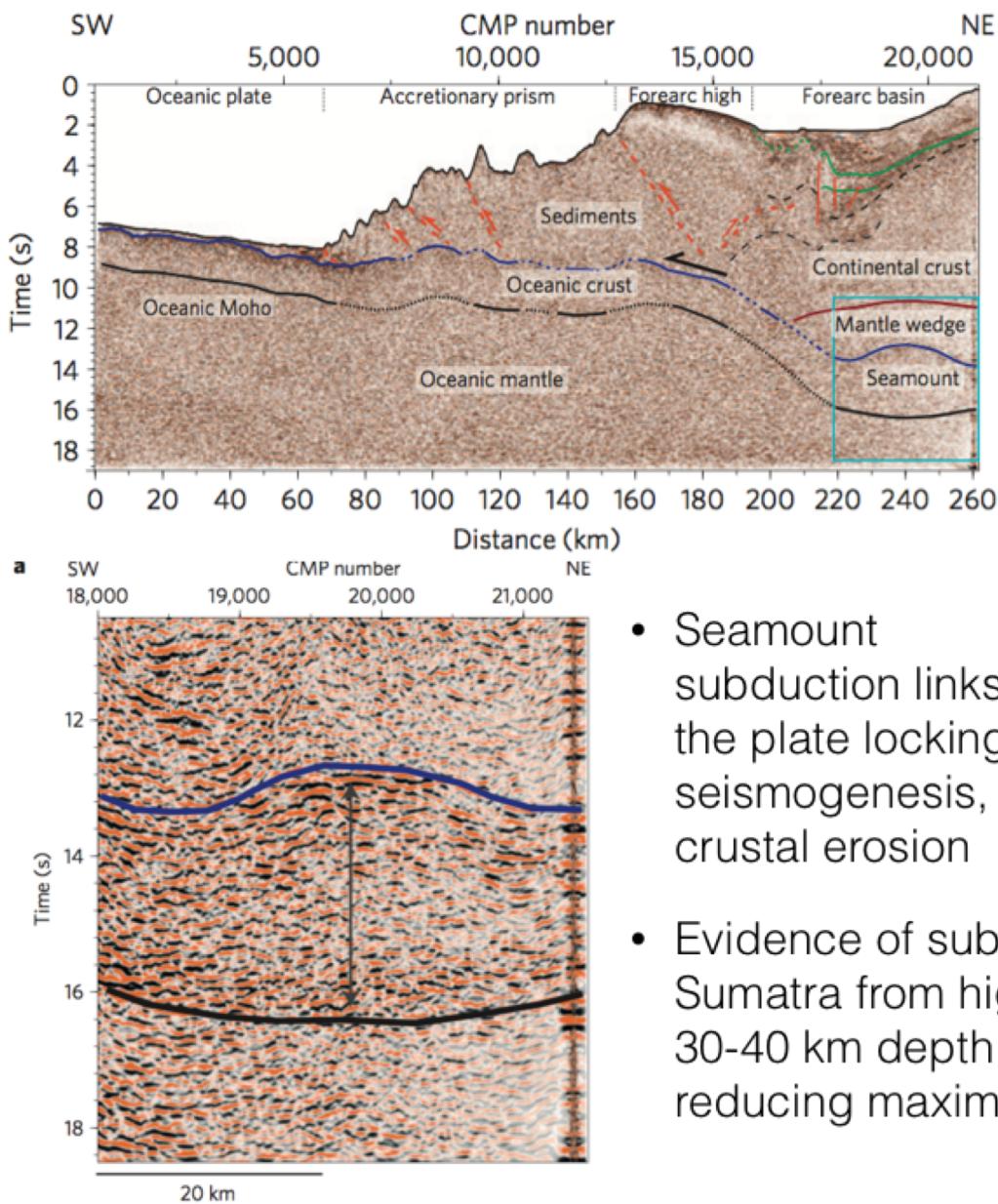
• **Guyots:** The flat topped mountains (seamounts) are known as guyots.

**Atoll:** These are low islands found in the tropical oceans consisting of coral reefs surrounding a central depression.

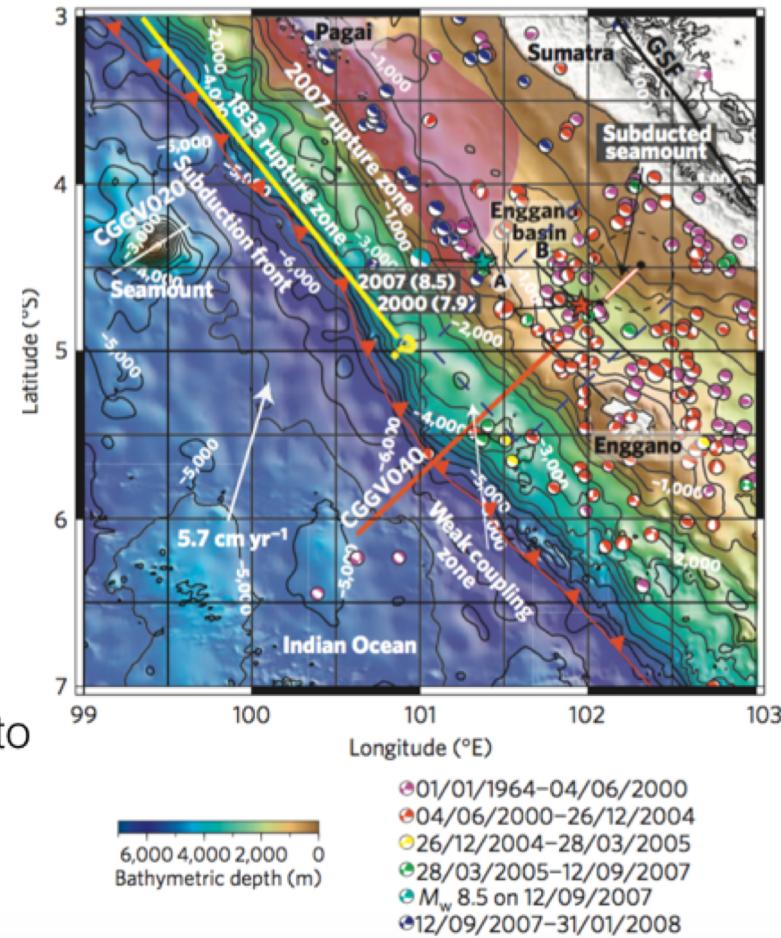
It may be a part of the sea (lagoon), or sometimes form enclosing a body of fresh, brackish, or highly saline water.



# Case Study 1: Sumatra-Andaman Subduction system

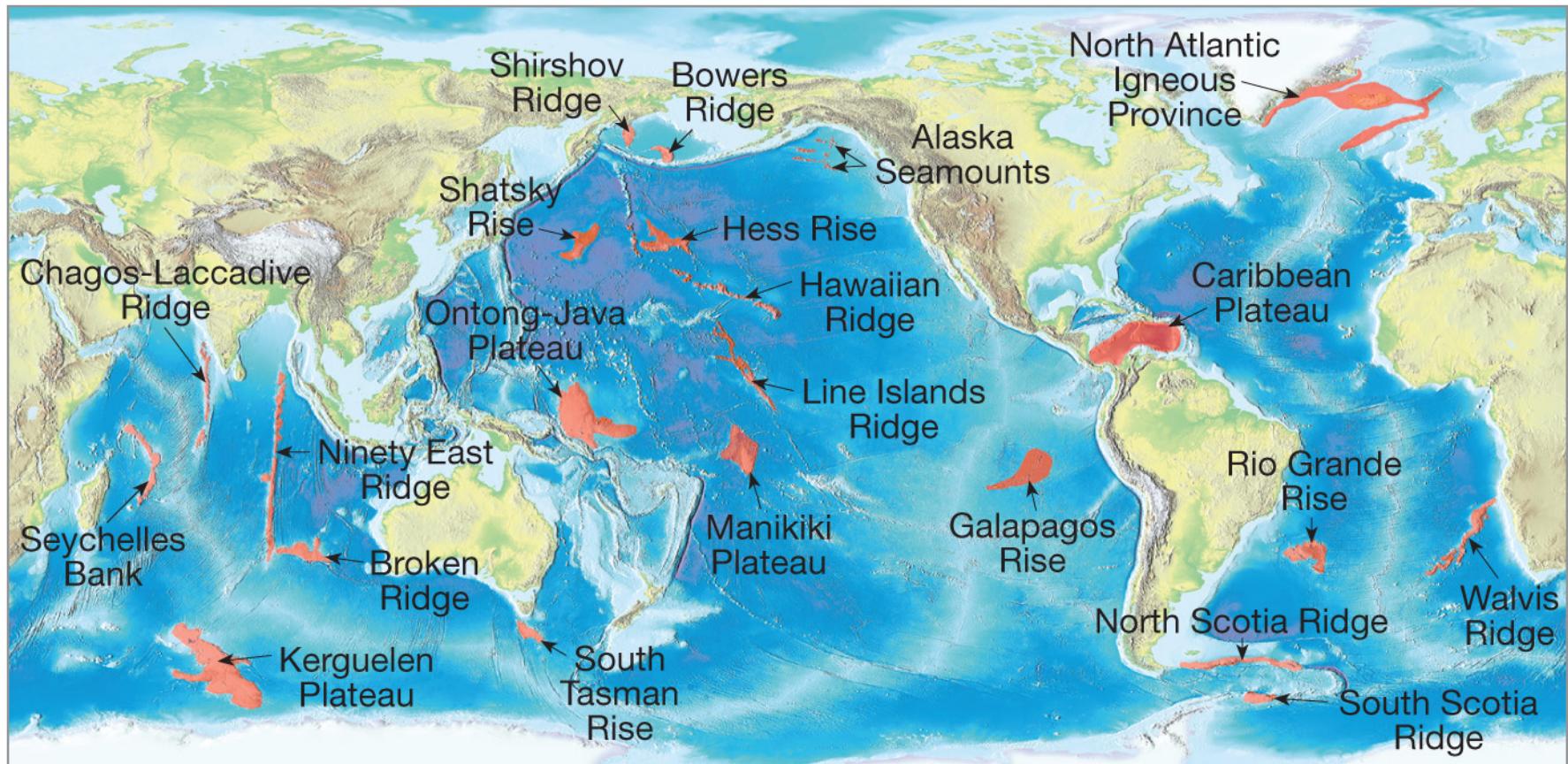


- Seamount subduction links to the plate locking, seismogenesis, crustal erosion
- Evidence of subjected seamount is reported in Sumatra from high-resolution seismic images at 30-40 km depth below forearm mantle, reducing maximum size of the megathrust

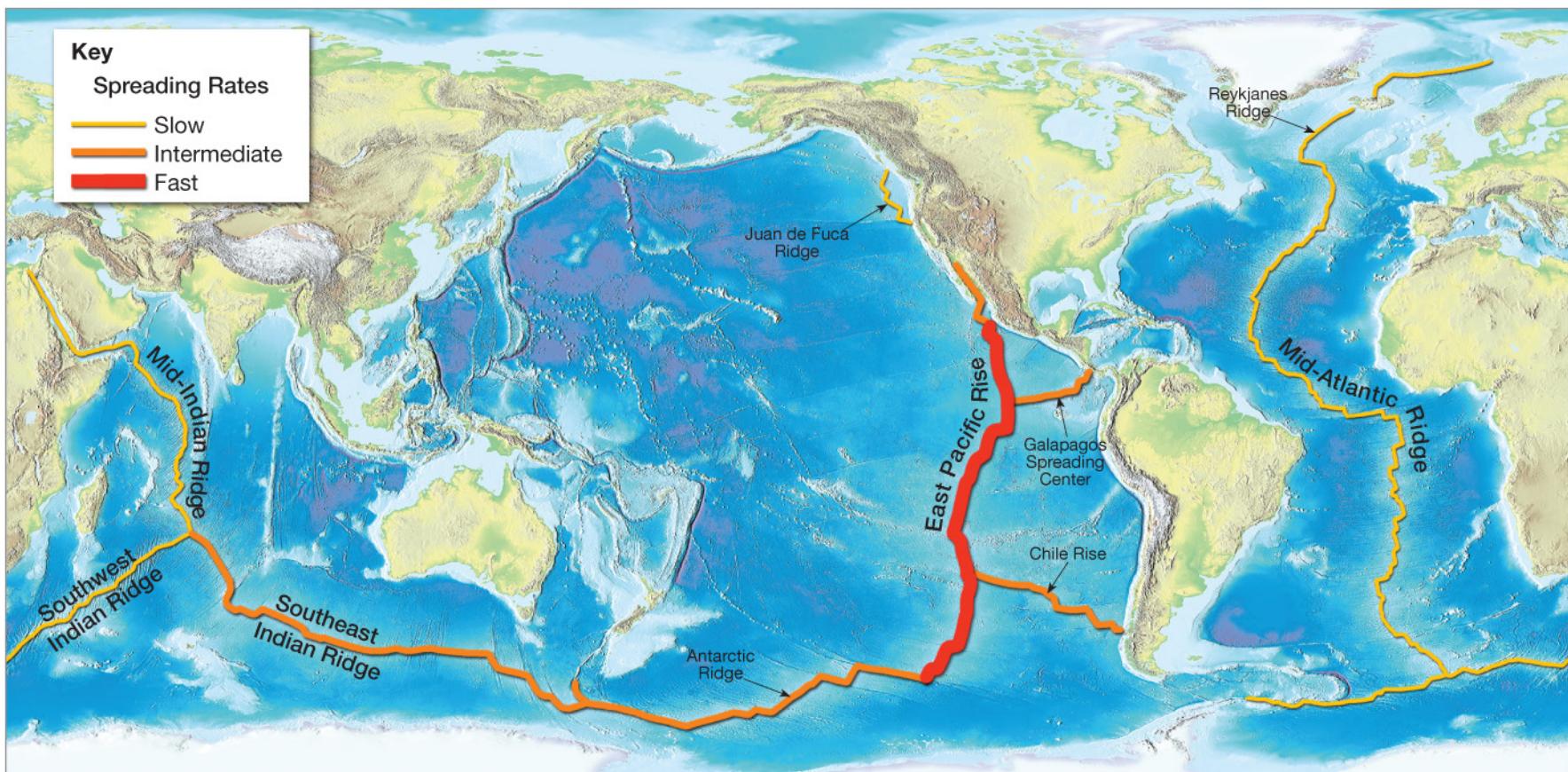


Singh et al., (2011)

# *Distribution of Ocean Plateaus, Hot Spots, and Submerged Crustal Fragments*



# *Distribution of the Oceanic Ridge System*

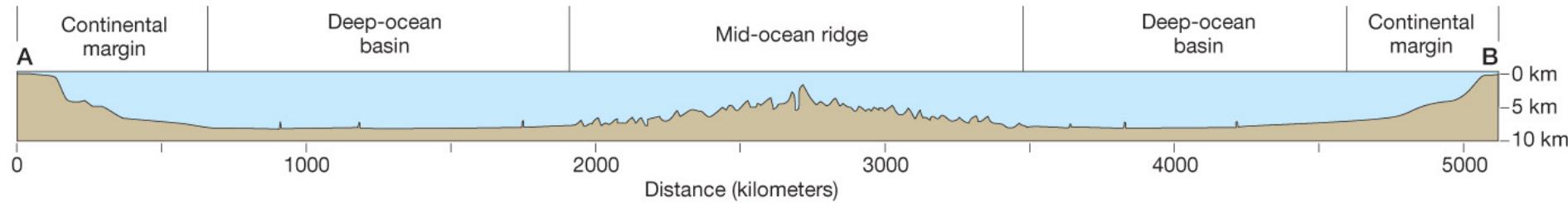


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# *Oceanic Ridges and Seafloor Spreading*

- Why are oceanic ridges elevated?
  - The primary reason is because newly created oceanic lithosphere is hot and occupies more volume than cooler rocks.
  - As the basaltic crust travels away from the ridge crest, it is cooled by seawater.
  - As the lithosphere moves away, it thermally contracts and becomes more dense.

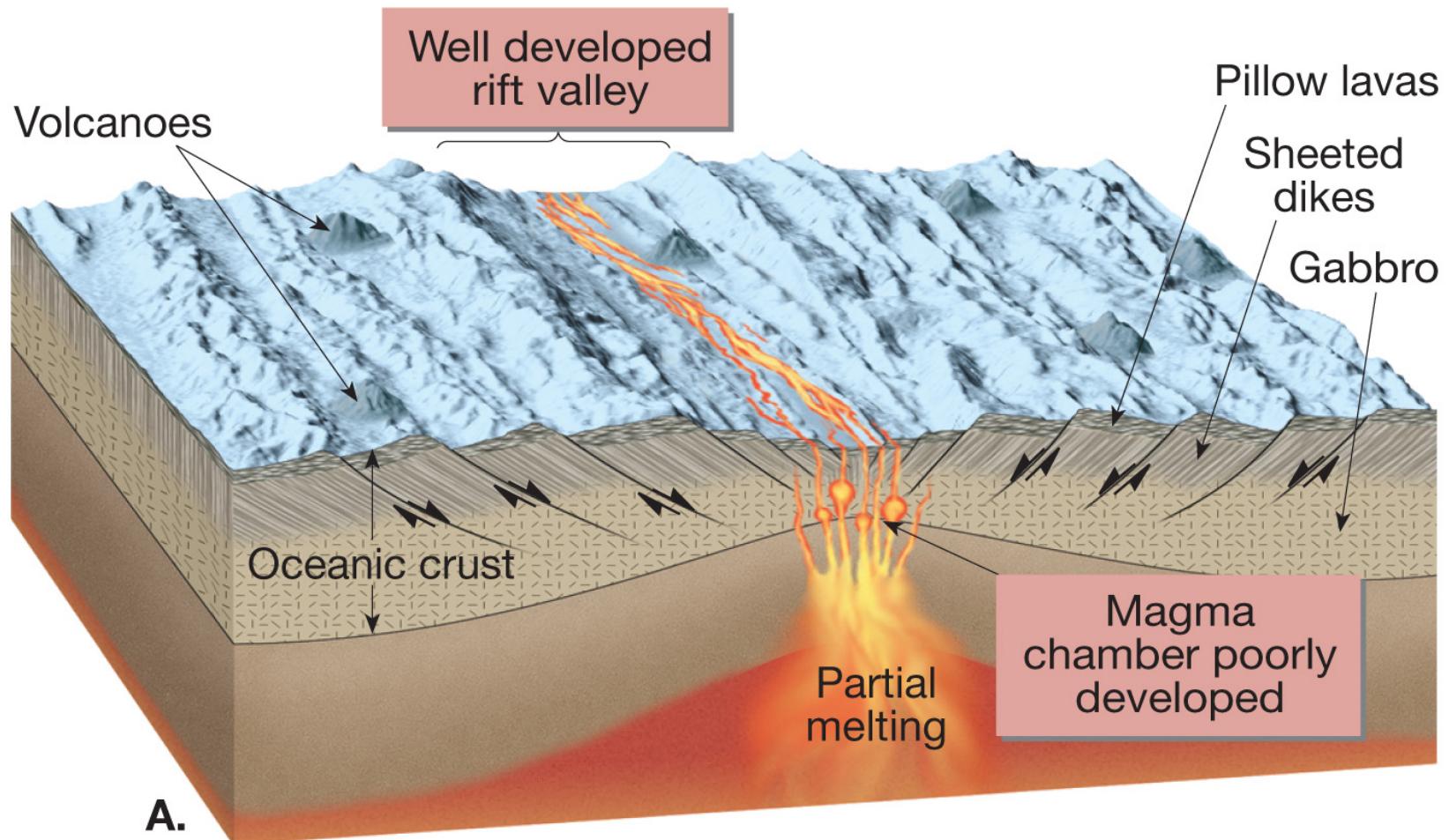


# *Anatomy of the Oceanic Ridge*

## *Oceanic Ridges and Seafloor Spreading*

- Spreading rates and ridge topography
  - Ridge systems exhibit topographic differences.
  - Topographic differences are controlled by spreading rates.
    - At *slow spreading rates* (1 to 5 centimeters per year), a prominent rift valley develops along the ridge crest that is usually 30 to 50 kilometers across and 1500 to 3000 meters deep.
    - **Mid-Atlantic; Mid-Indian**

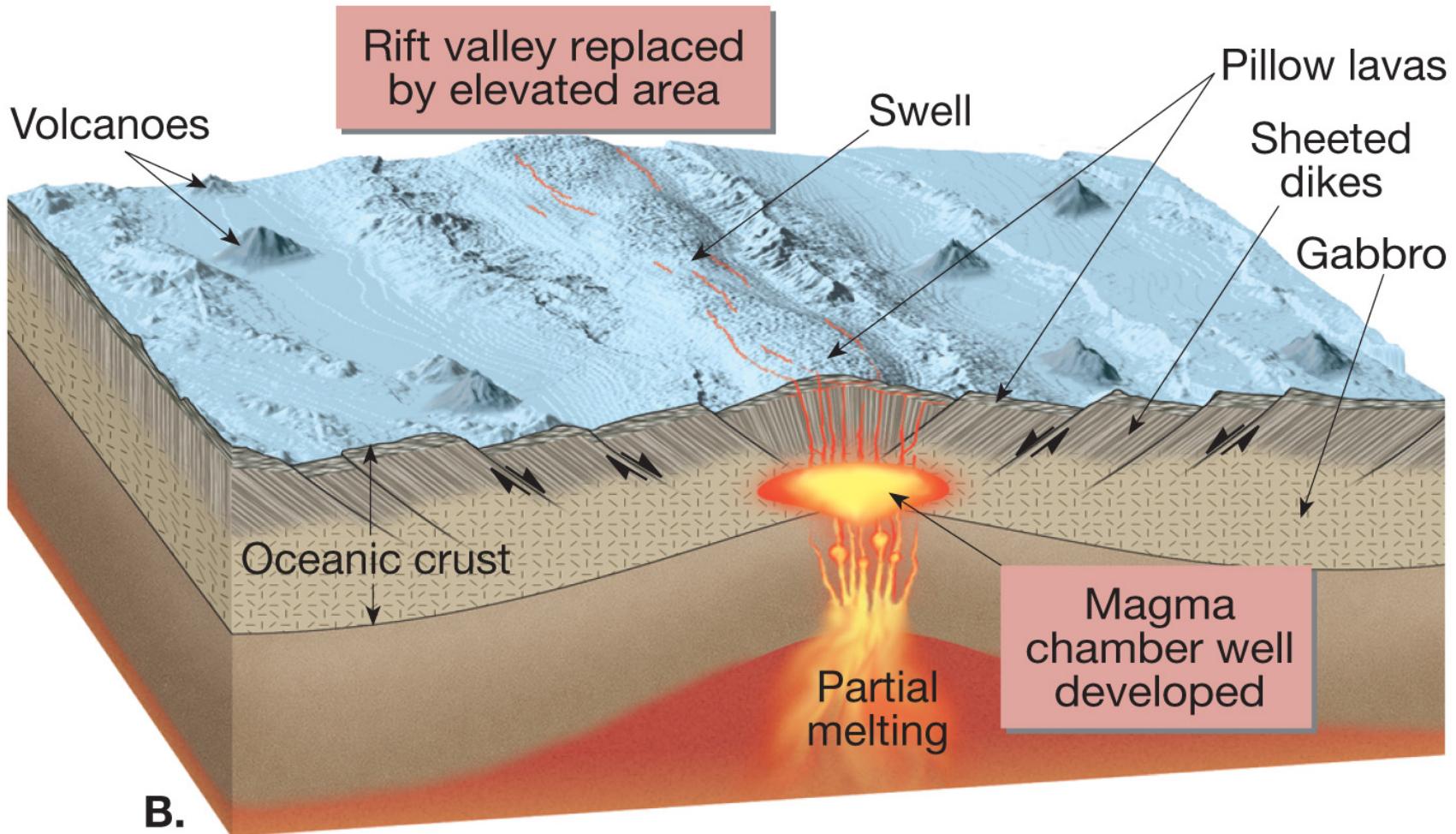
# *Slow Spreading Oceanic Ridge*

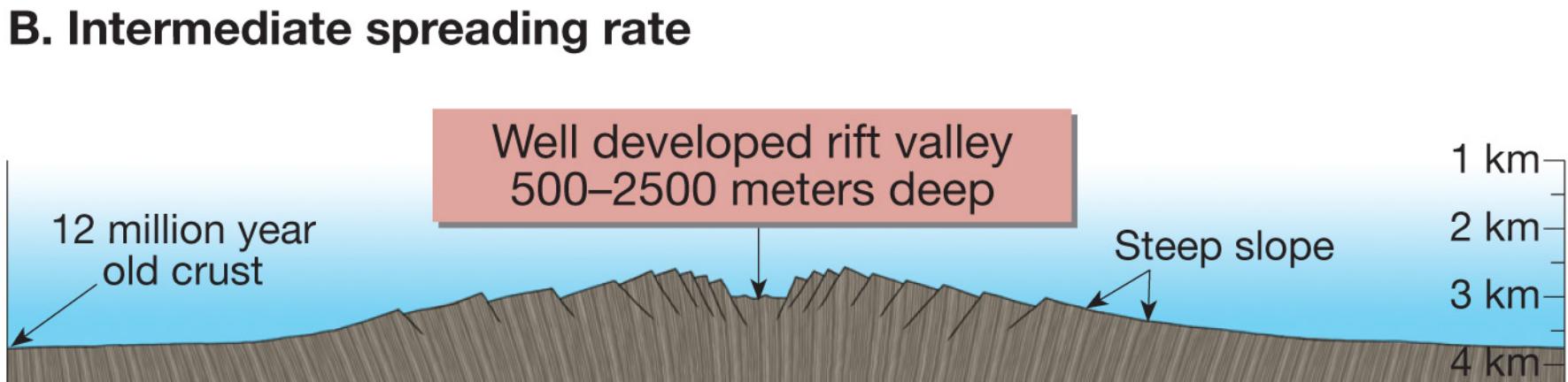
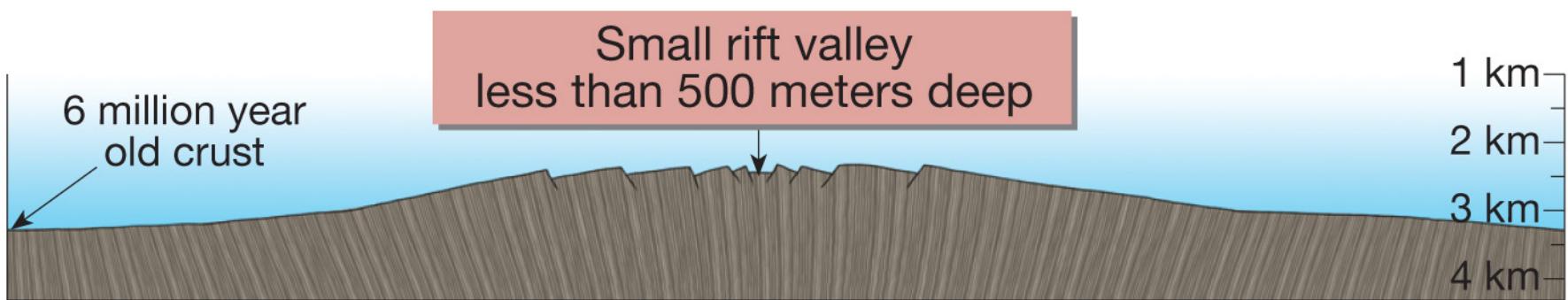
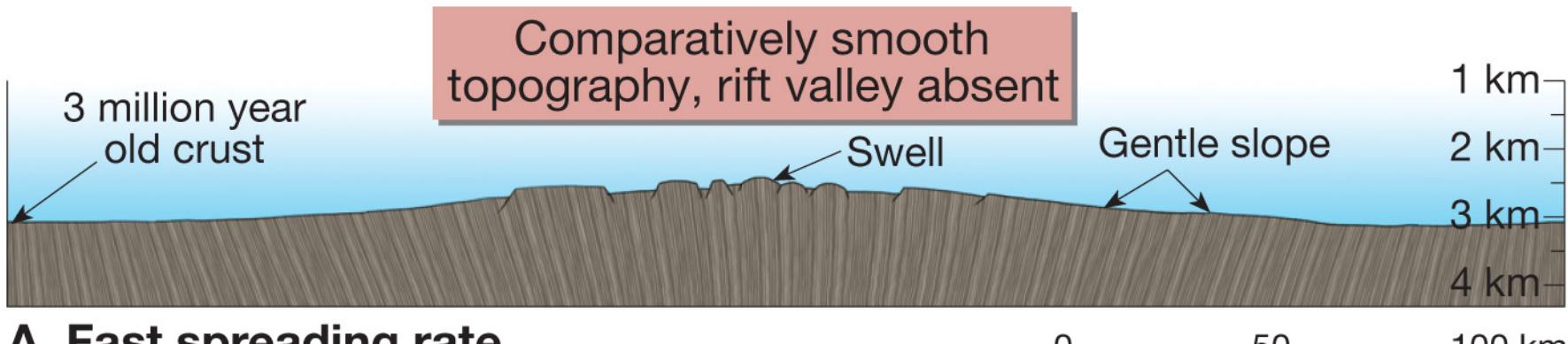


# *Oceanic Ridges and Seafloor Spreading*

- Spreading rates and ridge topography
  - Topographic differences are controlled by spreading rates.
    - At *intermediate spreading rates* (5 to 9 centimeters per year), rift valleys that develop are shallow and less than 200 meters deep (e.g., **Galapagos Ridge**)
    - At *spreading rates greater than 9 cm / year*, no median rift valley develops and these areas are usually narrow and extensively faulted (e.g., **East Pacific Rise**)

# *Fast Spreading Oceanic Ridge*





### C. Slow spreading rate

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# Questions

1. The oldest rocks of the oceanic crust are found in deep ocean trenches far away from active, mid-ocean ridges.

Answer: TRUE/ FALSE

2. The boundaries of the Earth's tectonic plates are shown as zones of high seismic activity.

Answer: TRUE / FALSE

3. The \_\_\_\_\_ lies at the base of the continental slope.

- A) offshore shelf
- B) off-slope reef
- C) continental rift
- D) continental rise

4. Spreading rates along the East Pacific Rise are relatively fast with many areas spreading more than 9 centimeters per year.

Answer: TRUE / FALSE

5. Island arc forms in \_\_\_\_\_ setup

- A) Ocean-continent transform
- B) Ocean-ocean convergent
- C) Continent-continent divergent
- D) Ocean-continent subduction