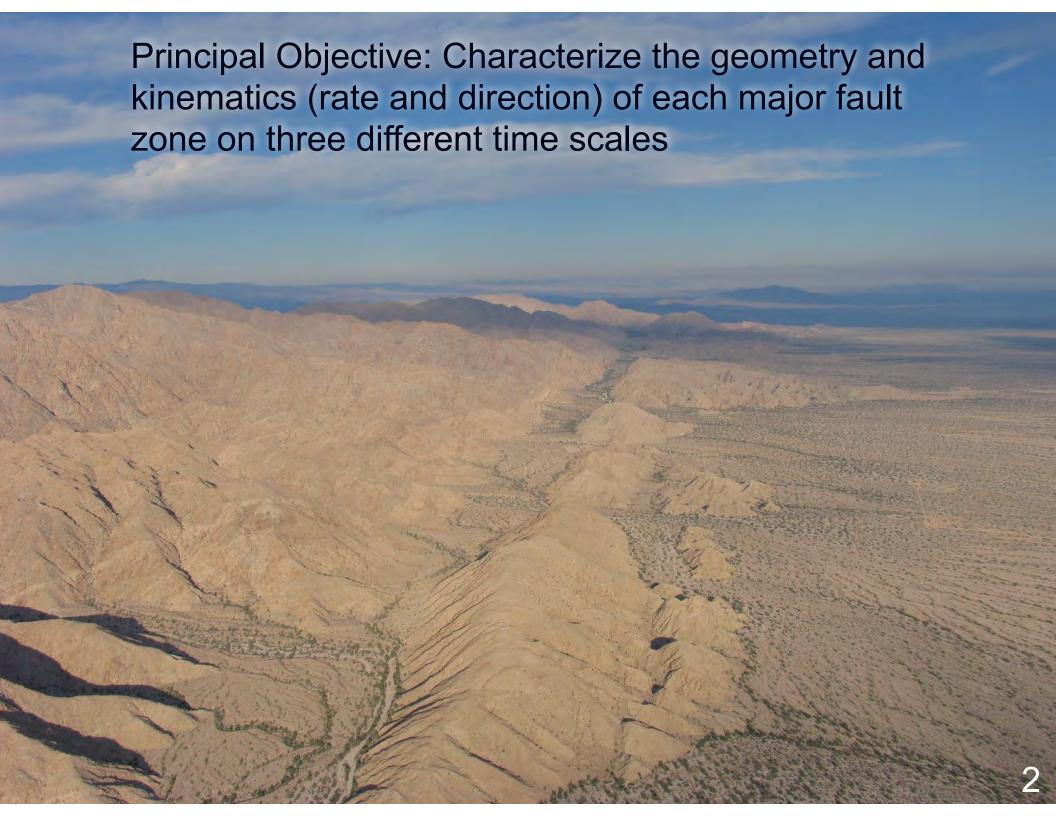


John Fletcher, Alejandro Gonzalez-Ortega, Tom Rockwell, Peter Gold, Michael Oskin, Paul Wetmore, Alejandro Hinojosa and many more...

CONACYT, SCEC, NSF



Principal Objective: Characterize the geometry and kinematics (rate and direction) of each major fault zone on three different time scales

Modern (100 years)

Structural analysis
LIDAR
GPS
INSAR
Seismology

Late Quaternary (0 a 125 Ka)

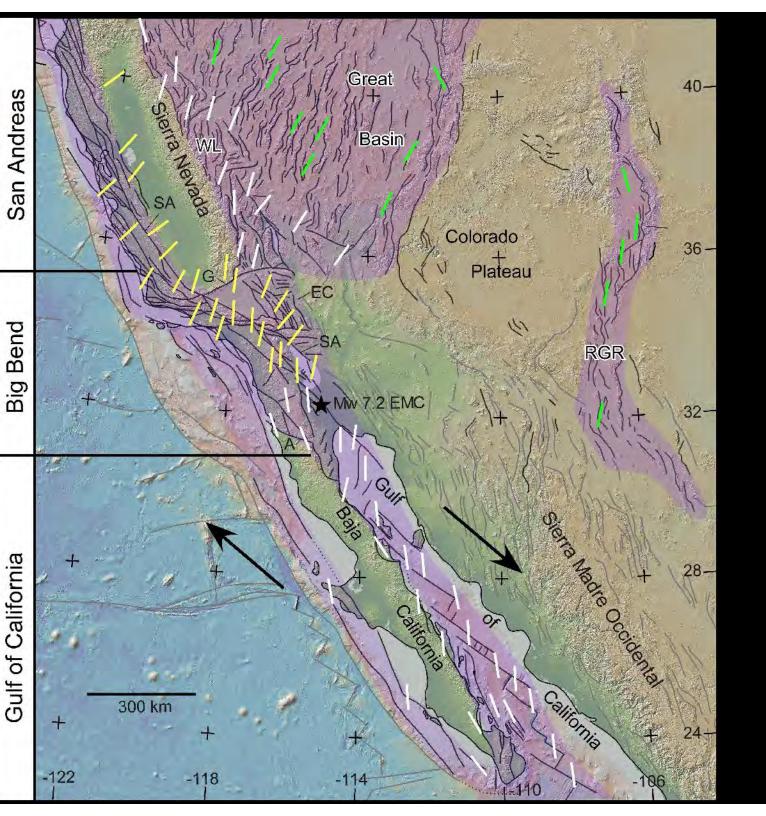
Structural analysis
LIDAR
Paleoseismology
Geomorphometry
Geochronology (OSL TCN)
Sedimentology
GeoRADAR

Neogene (0 a 15 Ma)

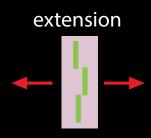
Structural analysis

Mapping
Thermocronology
Sedimentology
Gravimetry
Magnetotellurics
Reflection seismology

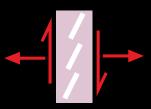
- Onset of activity and finite displacement
- Changes in slip rates (accelerations and decelerations)
- Changes in fault geometry (rotations and folding)
- Mechanical interactions between faults
- Understand the state of stress on all faults
- Evaluate seismic risk



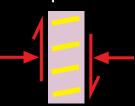
Domains of plate margin shearing

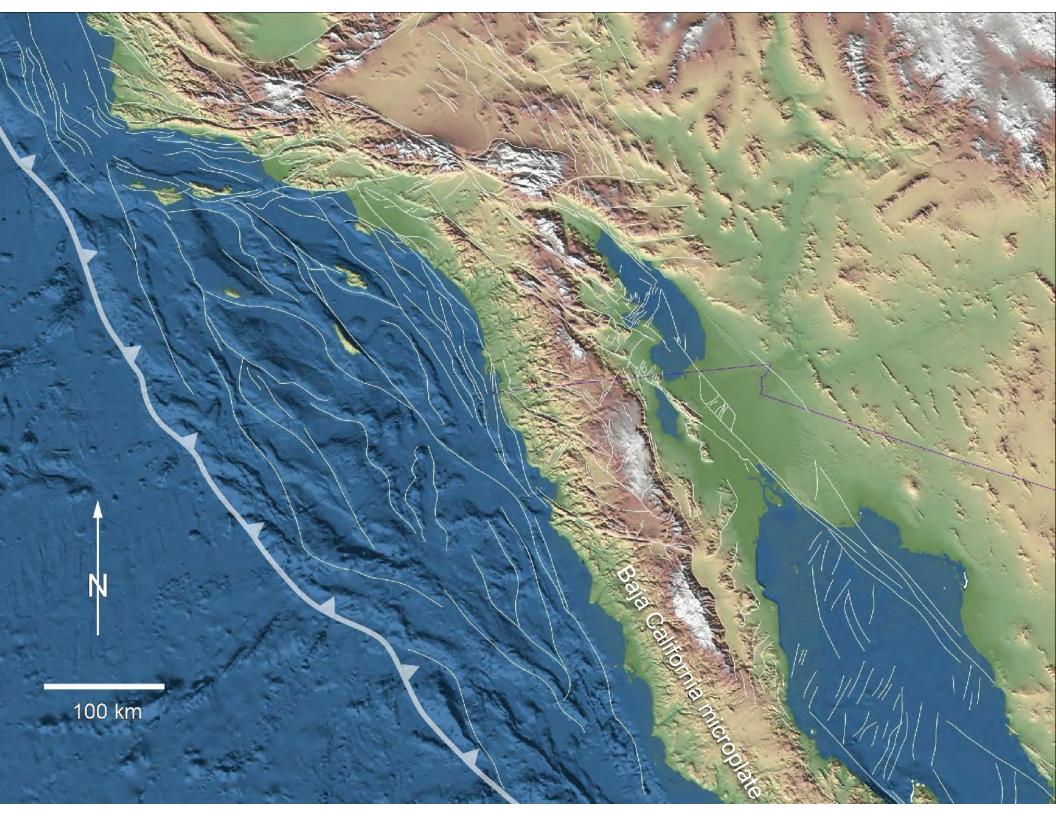


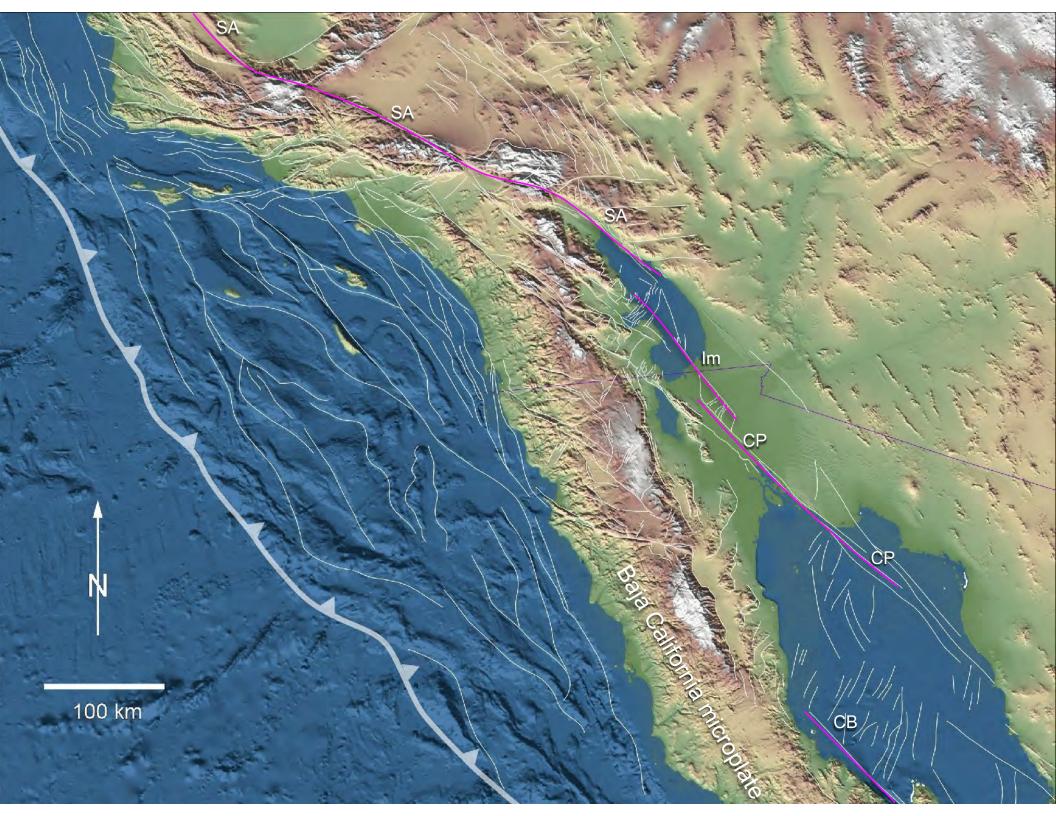
transtension

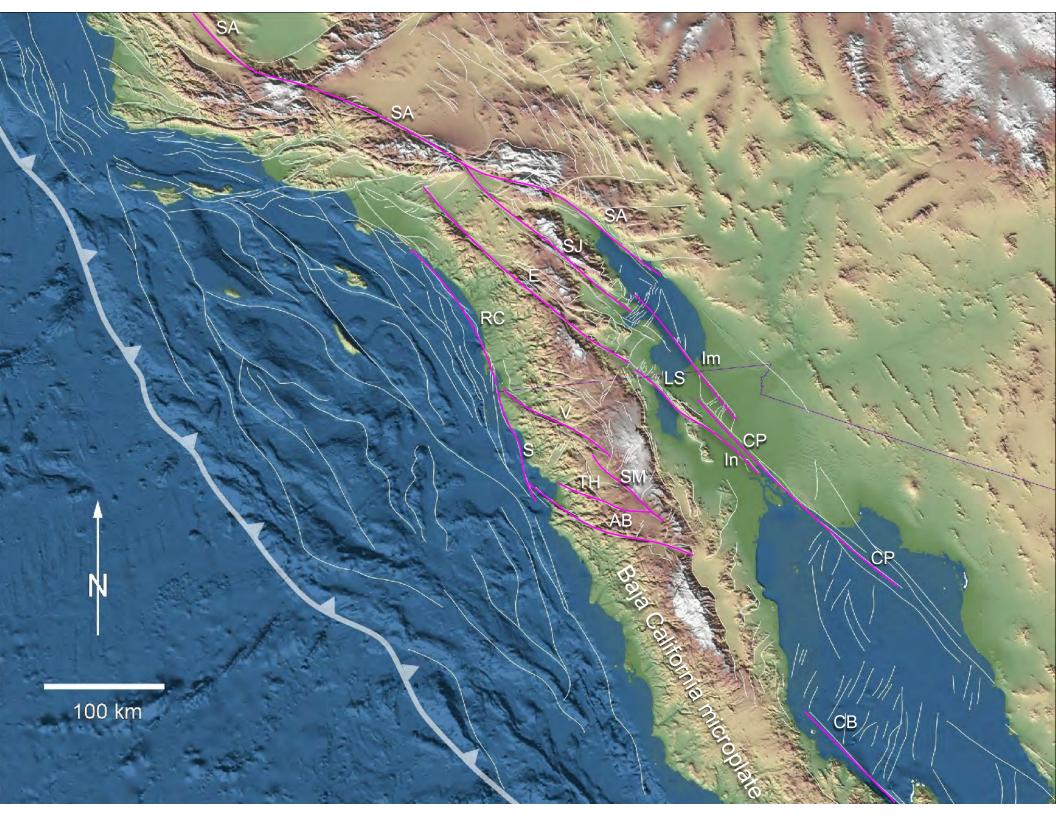


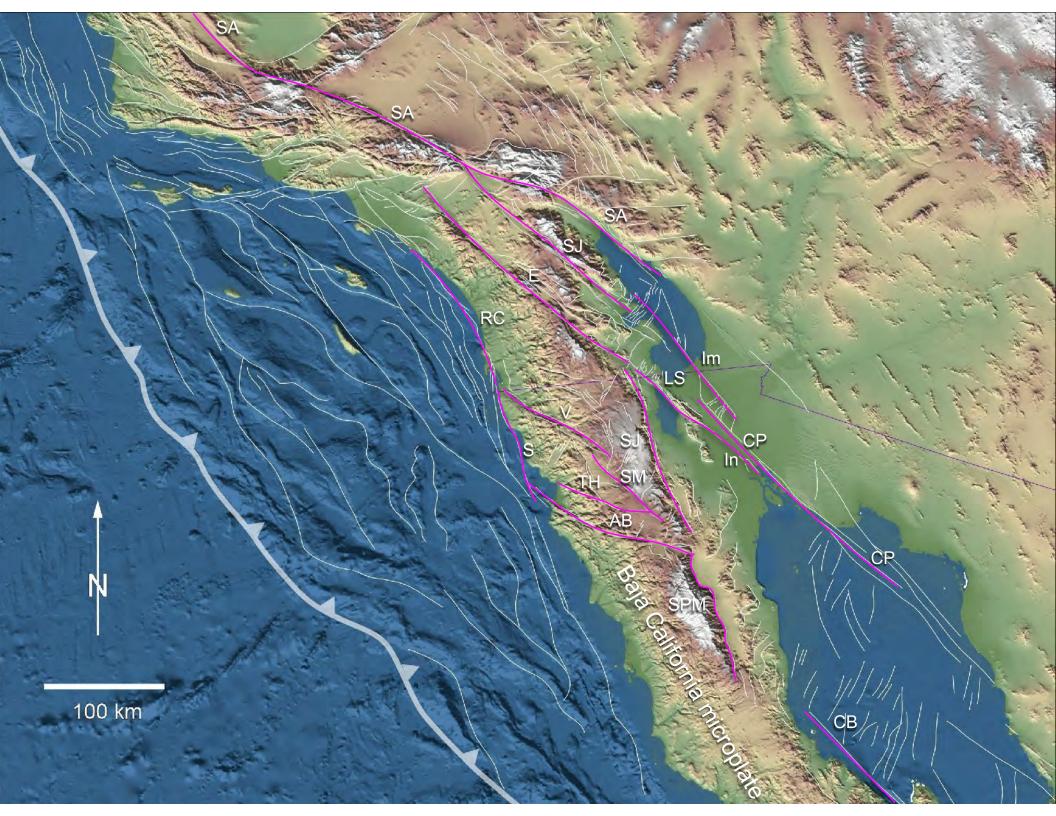
transpression

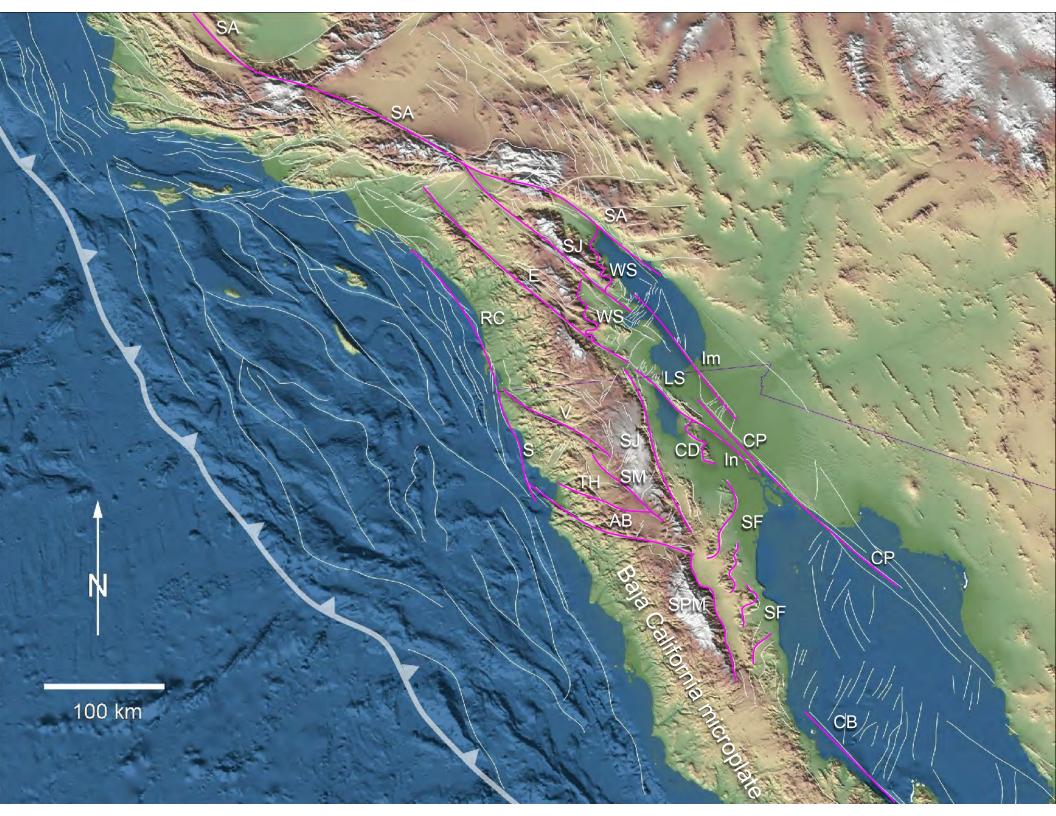


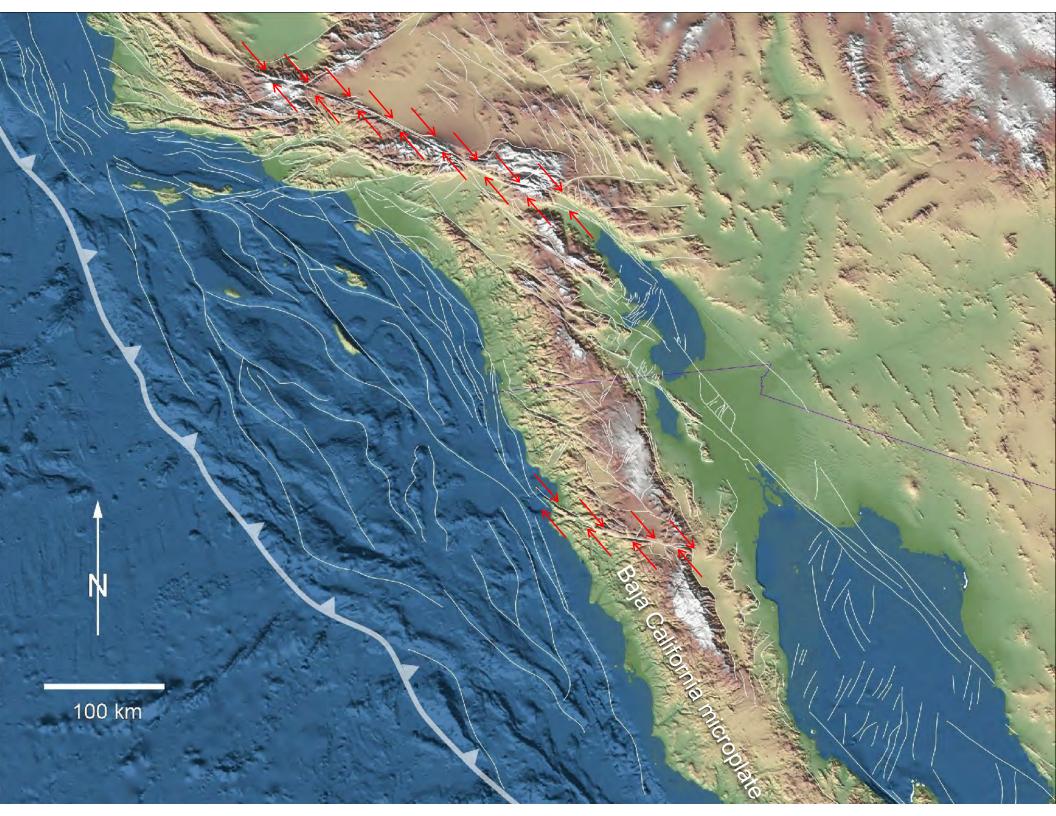




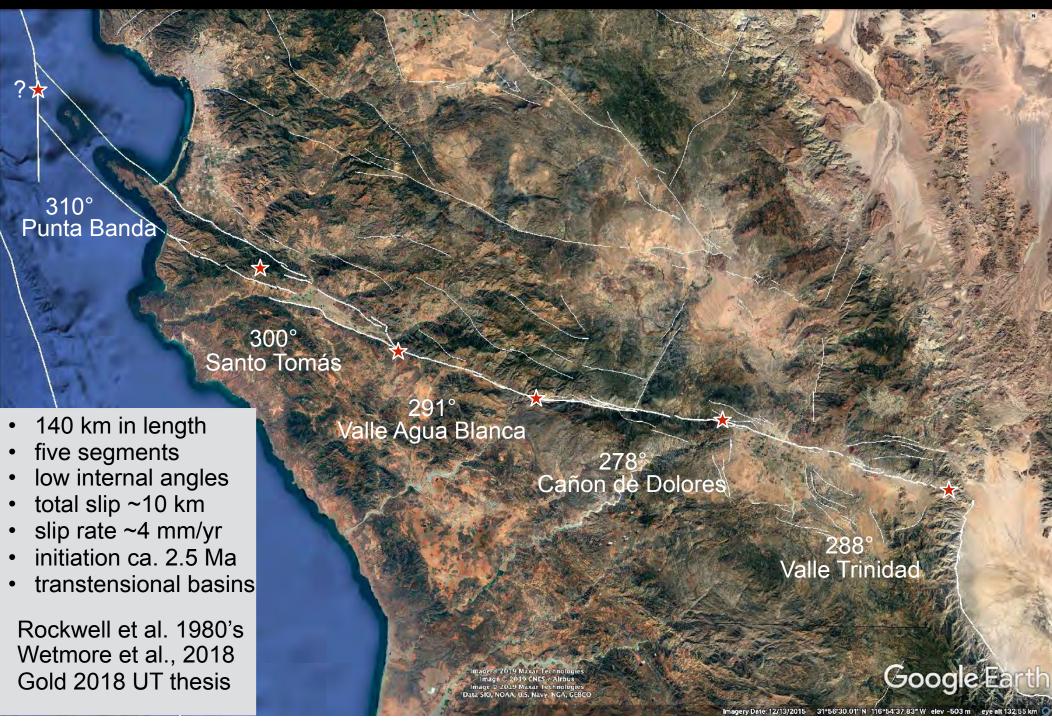




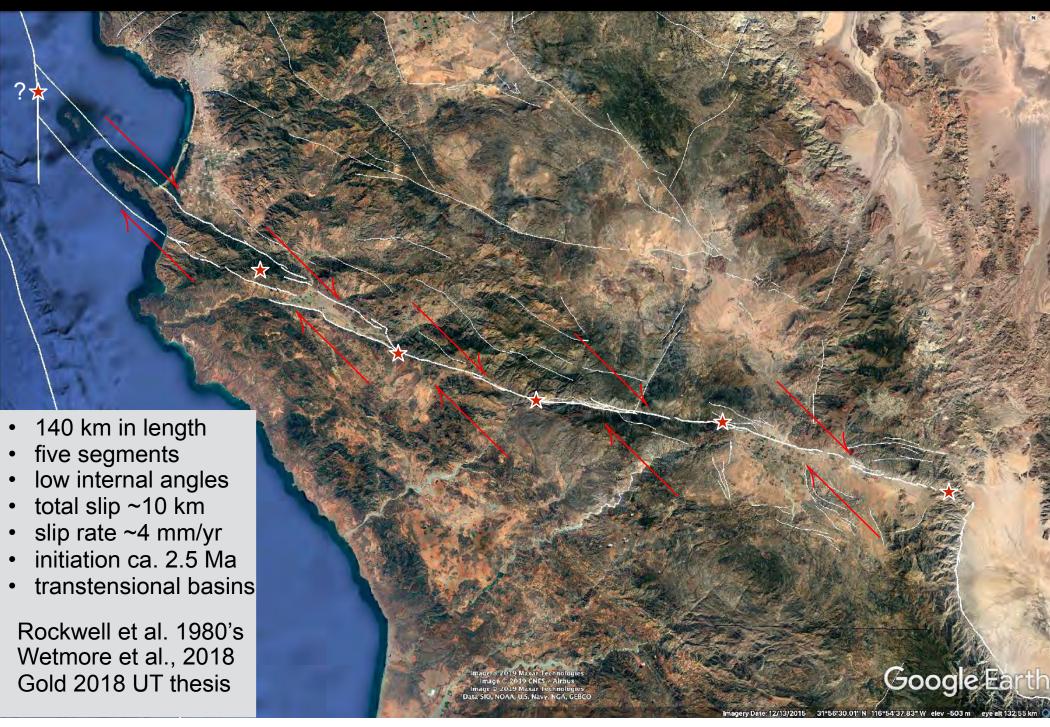




Agua Blanca Fault



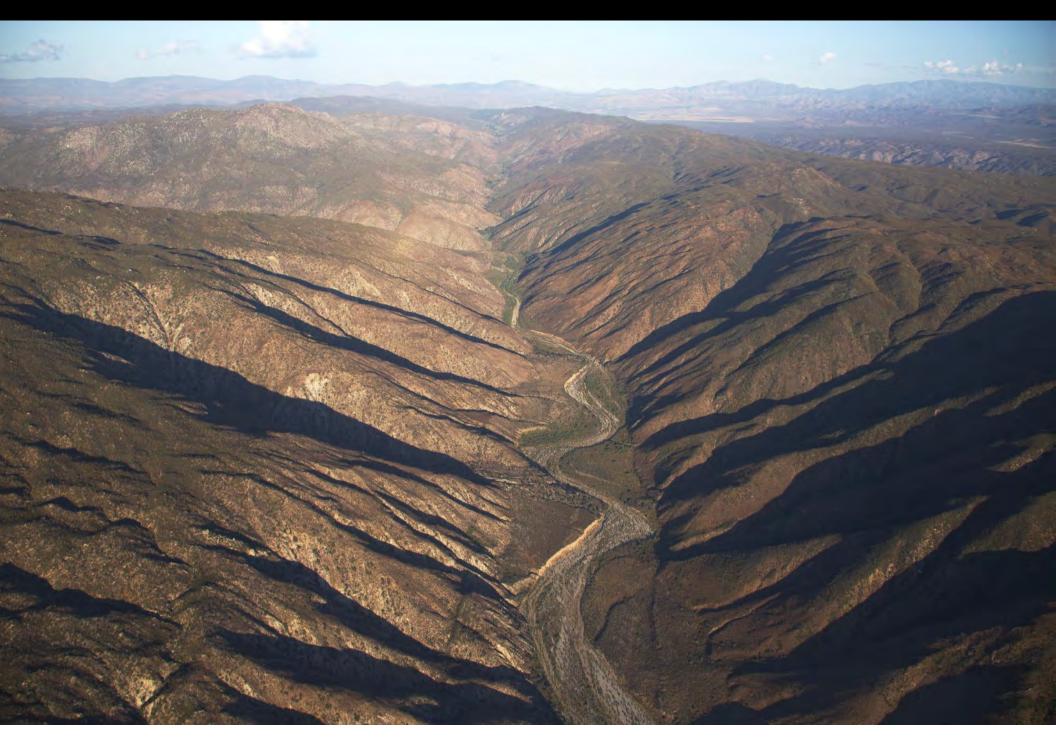
Agua Blanca Fault



Valle Trinidad



Cañon de Dolores



Valle Agua Blanca



Valle Santo Tomás



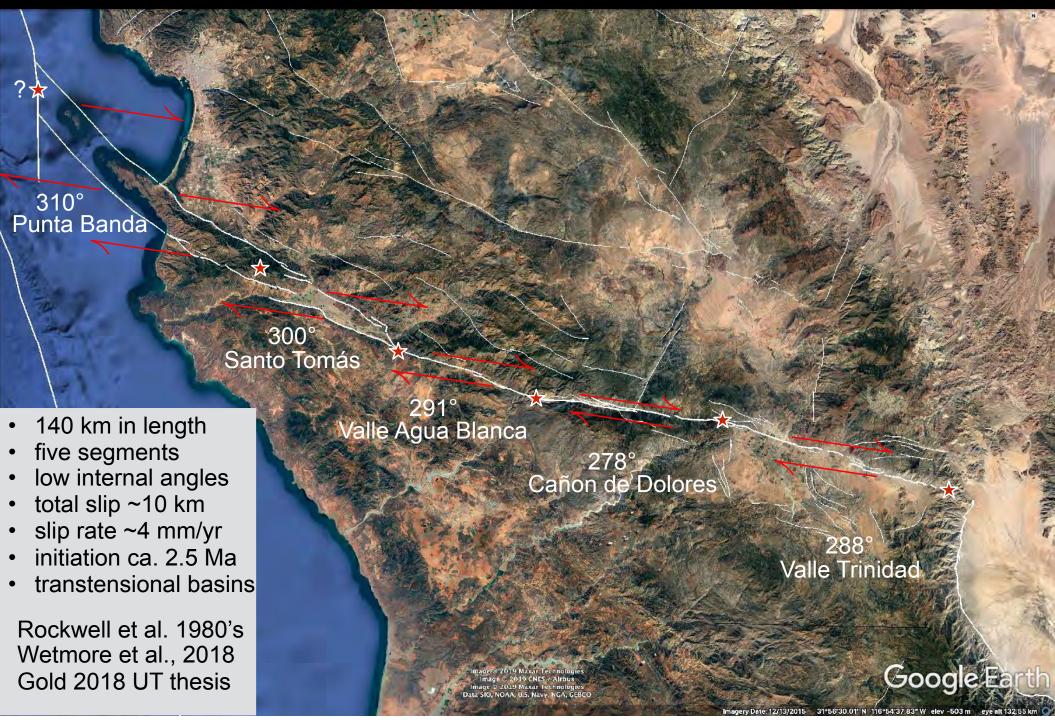
Punta Banda



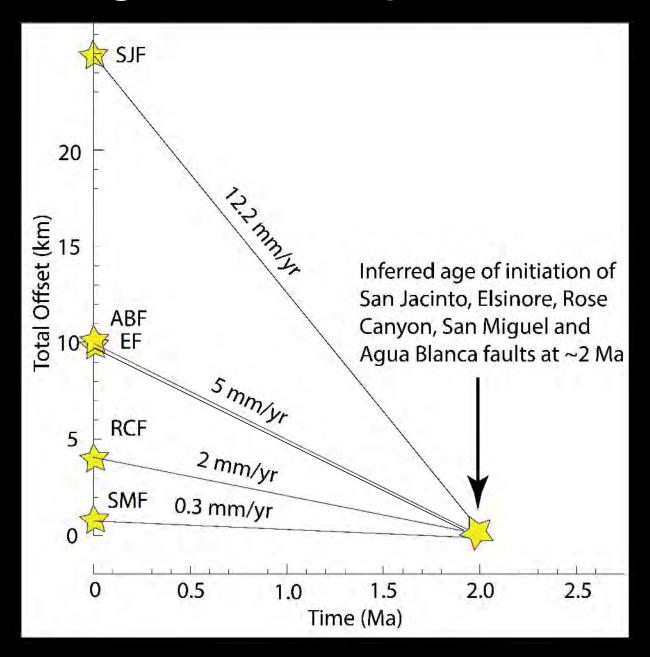
Isla Todos Santos

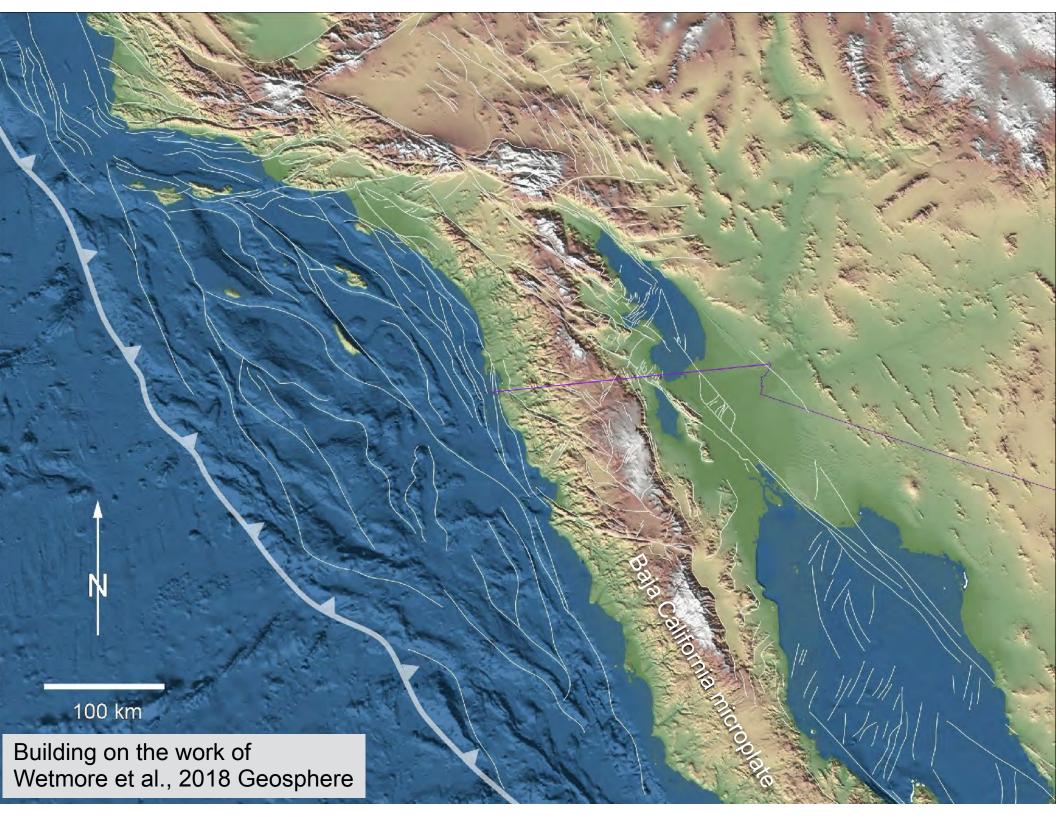


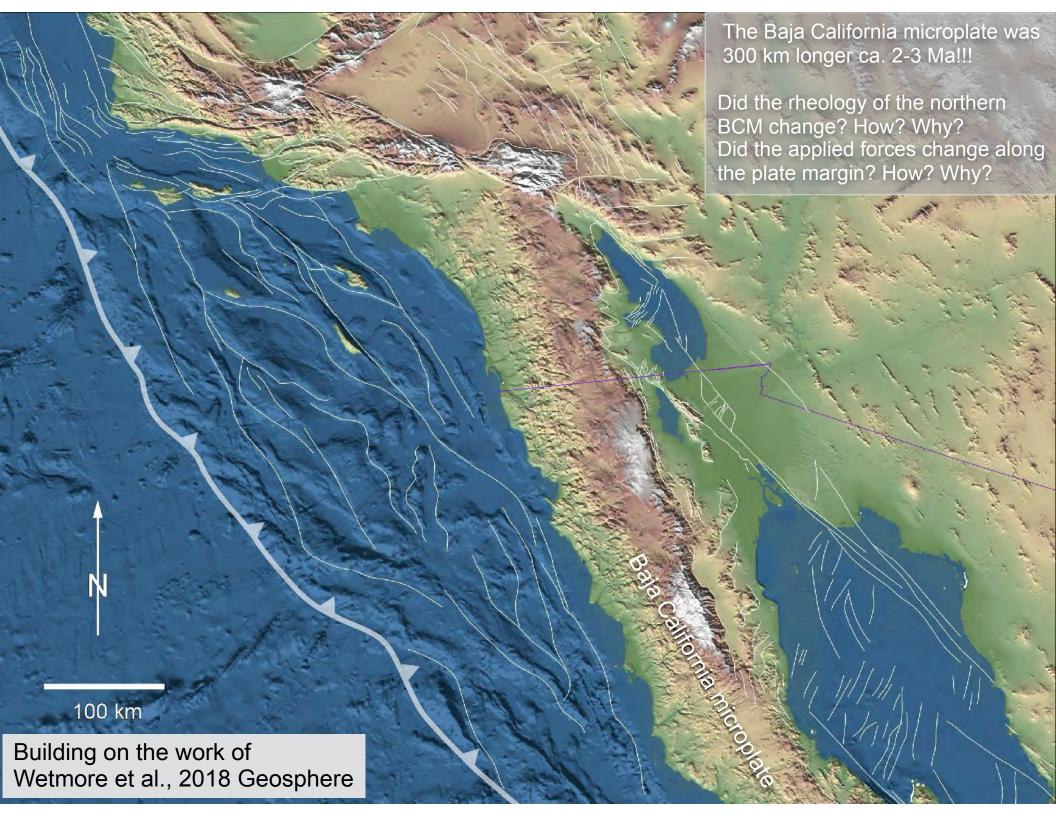
Agua Blanca Fault

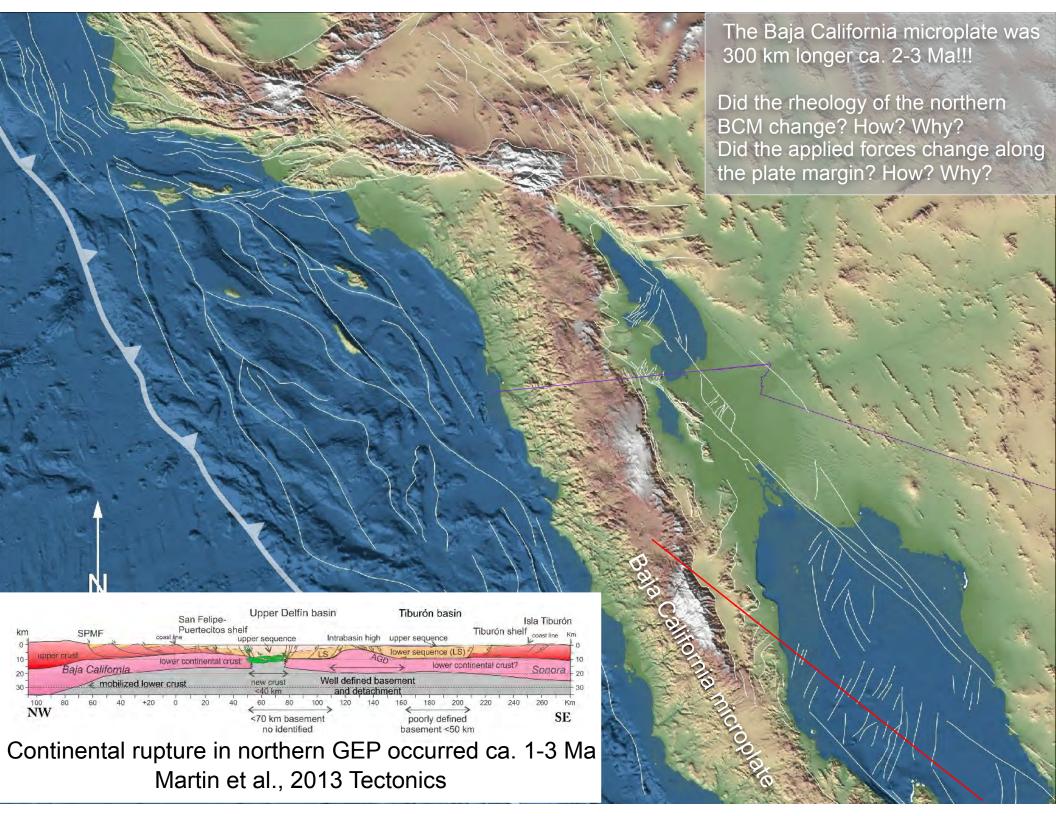


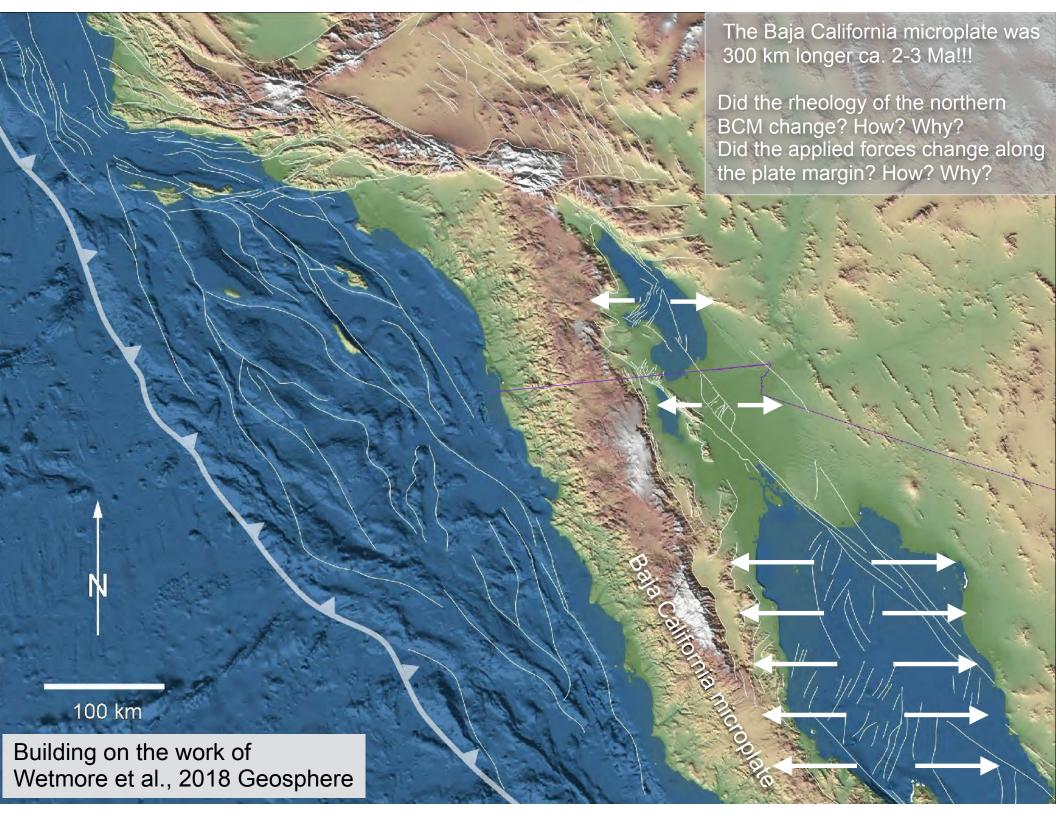
Initiation age of transpeninsular faults

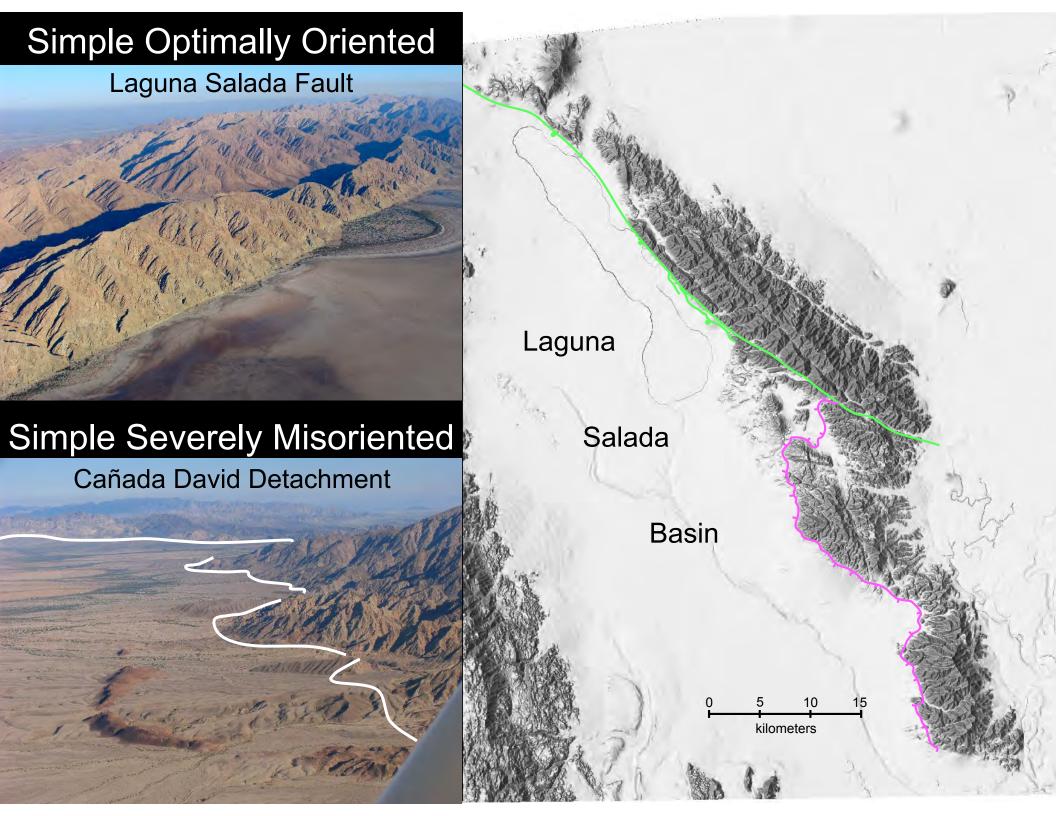






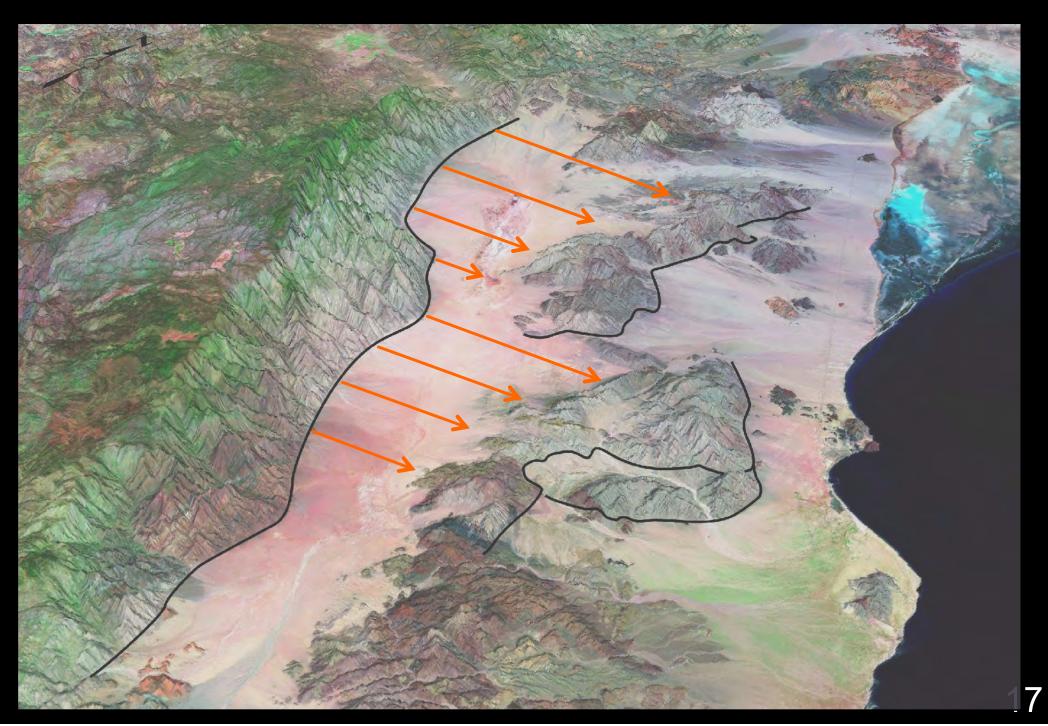








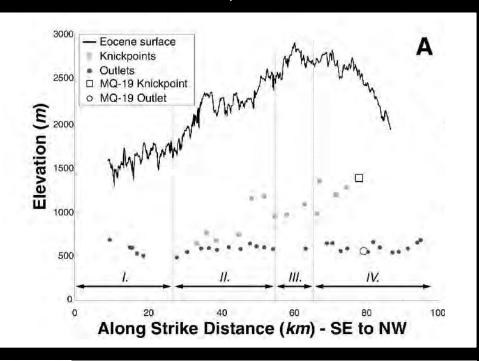


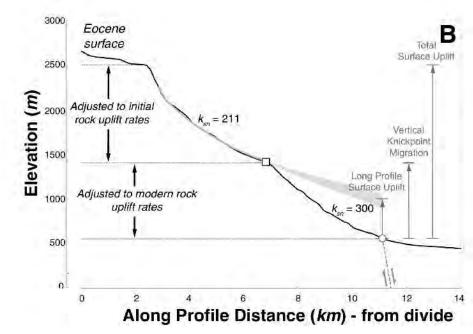


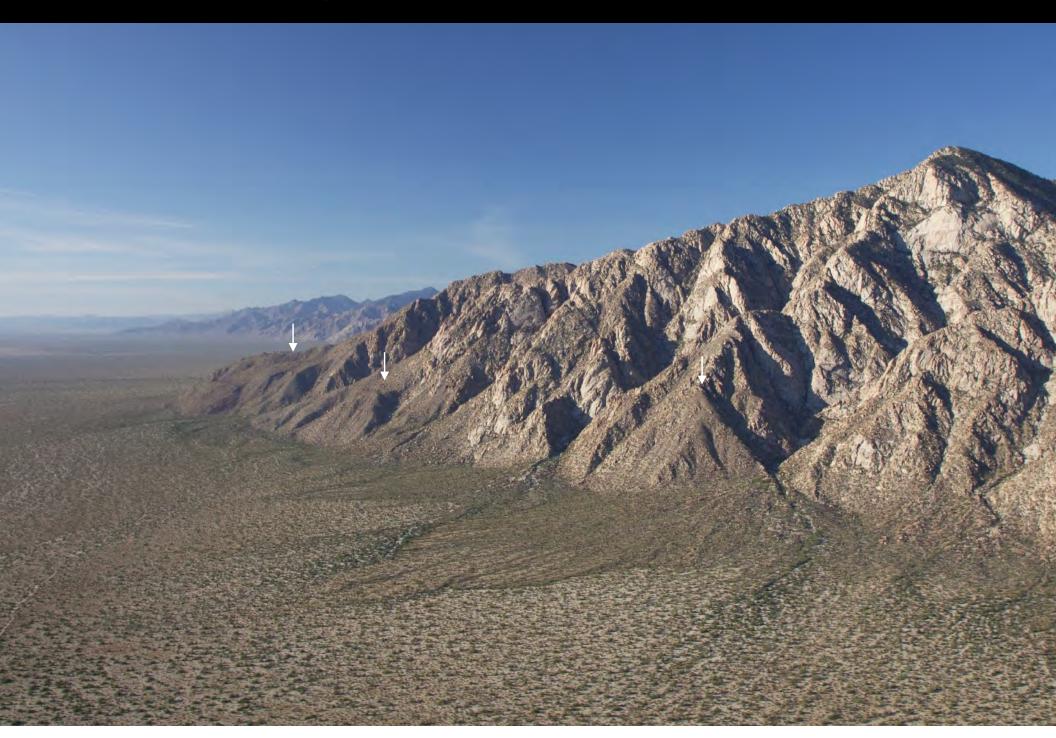
115°20'W _ MR-14_MR-15 km Fig. 3B) km VALLE SAN FELIPE MQ-18 **OBS-01** MQ-17; MR-12 OBS-02 1Q-16 **IQ-15** (Fig. 5) MQ-14 MQ-13 MR-08 MR-06; MR-07 kmi MR-09 MQ-01 MR-10 MQ-03 MR-11 + Picacho del Diablo MQ-12 ¹⁰Be Sample Locations Alluvial Bedrock **Channel Steepness** $(k_{ar}; \Theta_{red} = 0.45)$ -< 60 20 **—** 60 - 120 Ikm **120 - 180 180 - 240** VALLE - > 240 Knickpoint Elevation CHICO MR-03 (meters above sea level) MQ-06: A < 800 10-07 **A** 800 - 900 1Q-08 **A** 900 - 1000 **1000 - 1100** MR-05 **1100 - 1200** ▲ > 1200

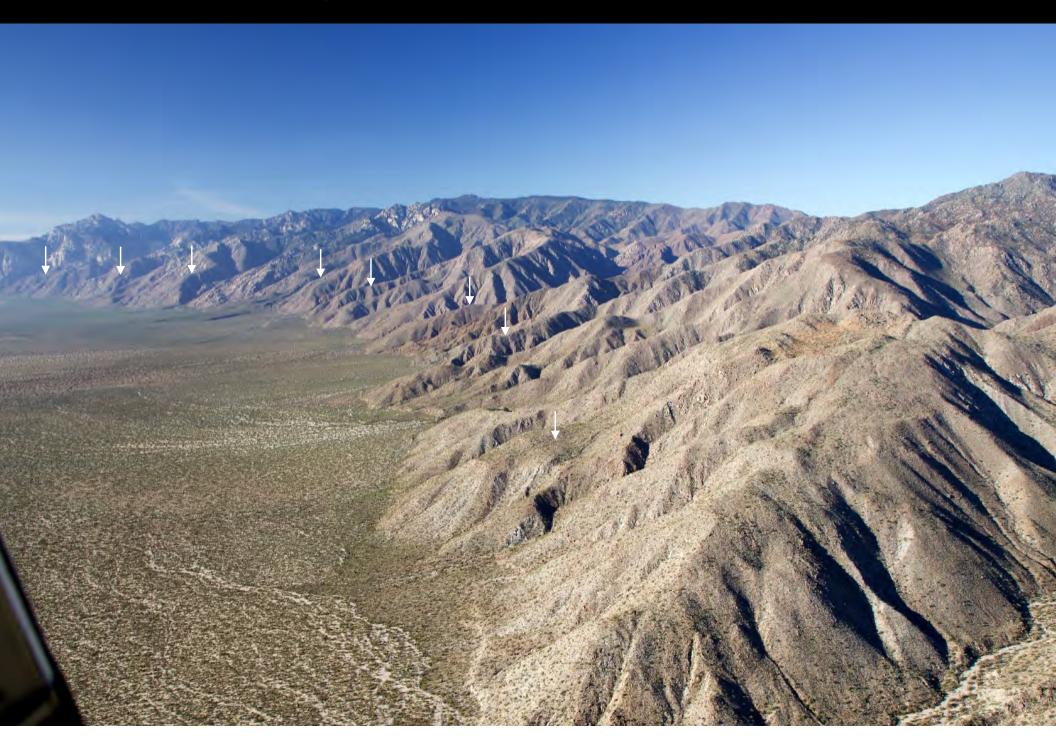
San Pedro Martir

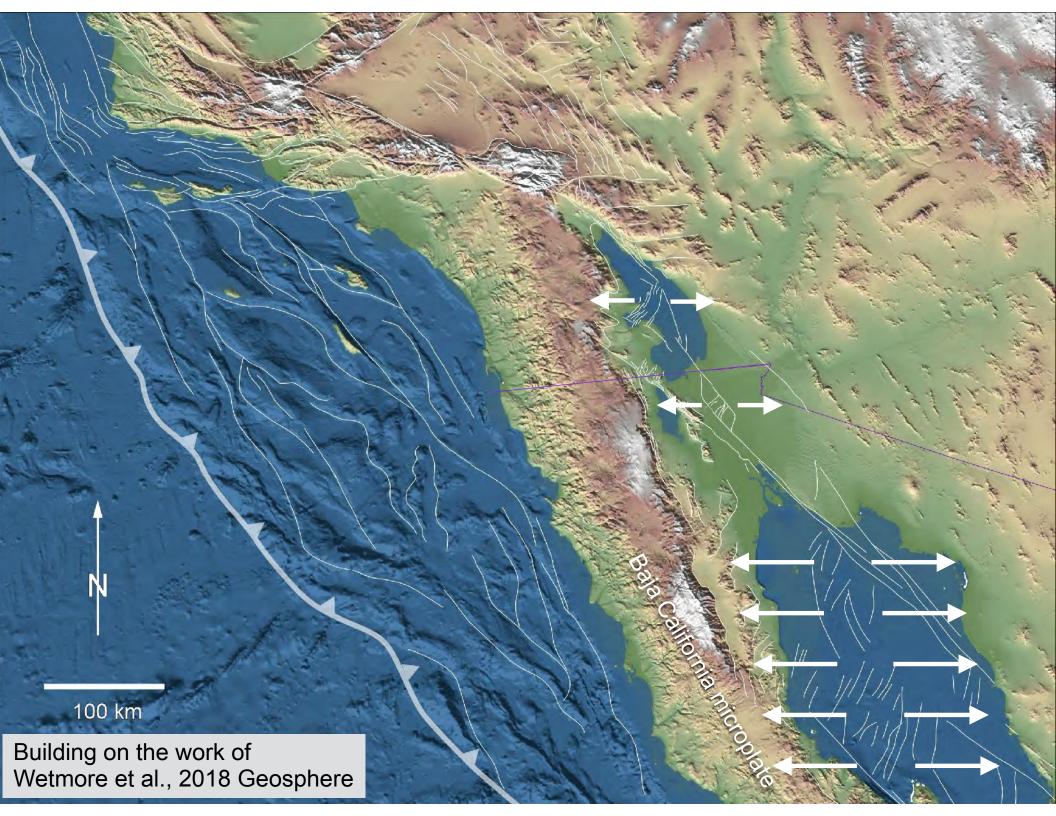
Rossi et al., 2017 GSAB

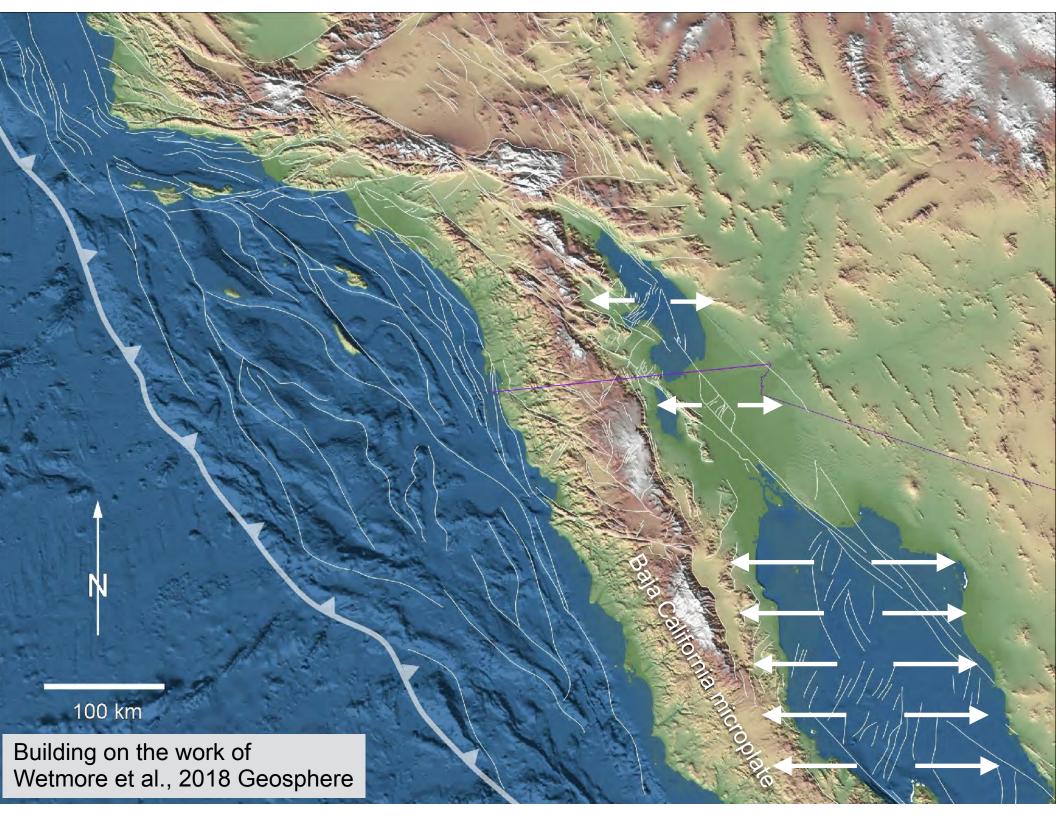


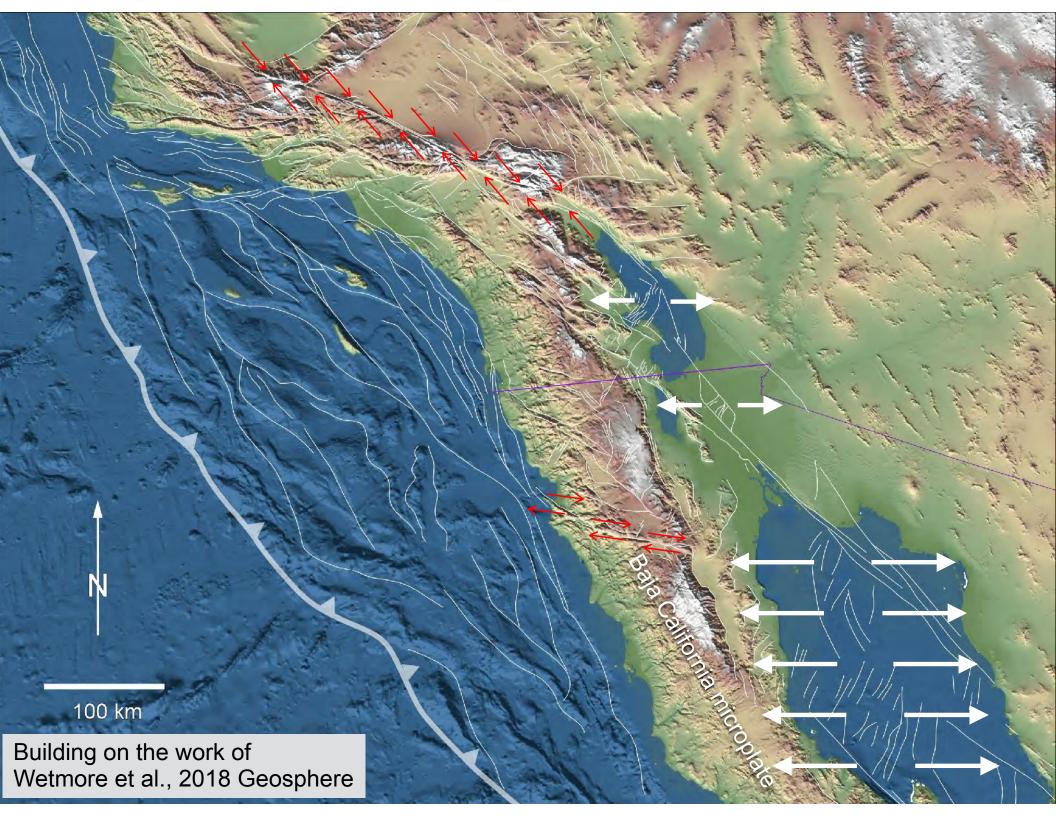


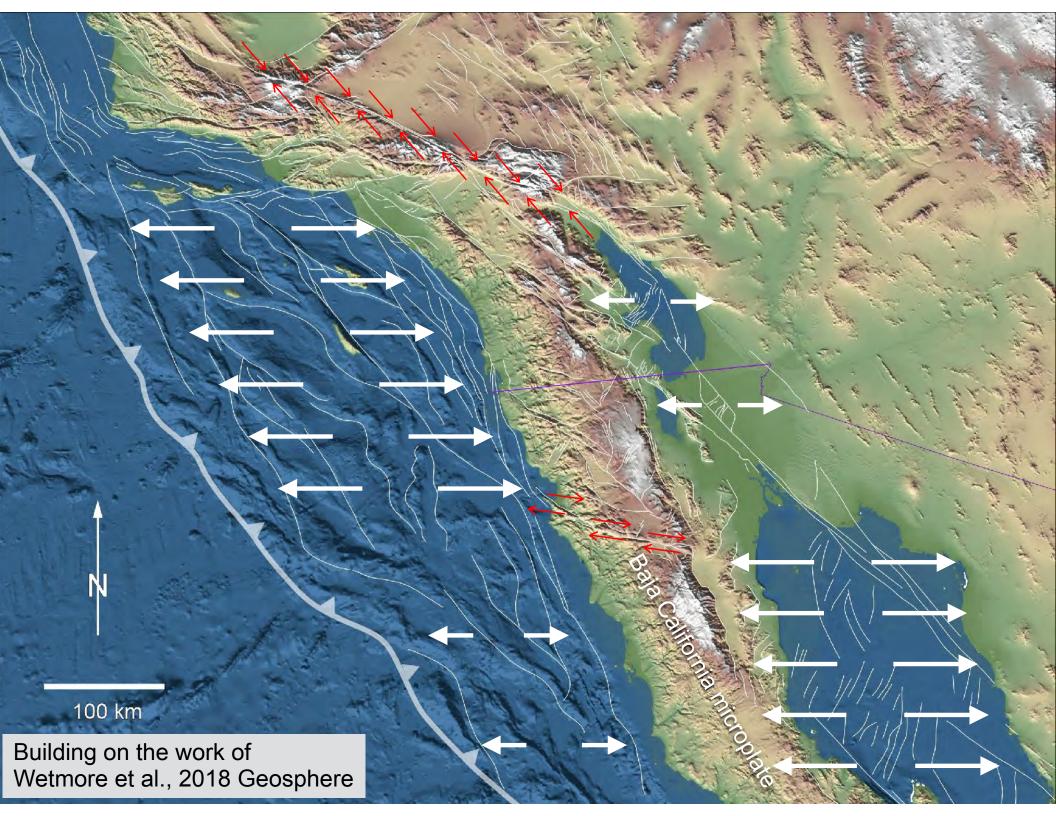


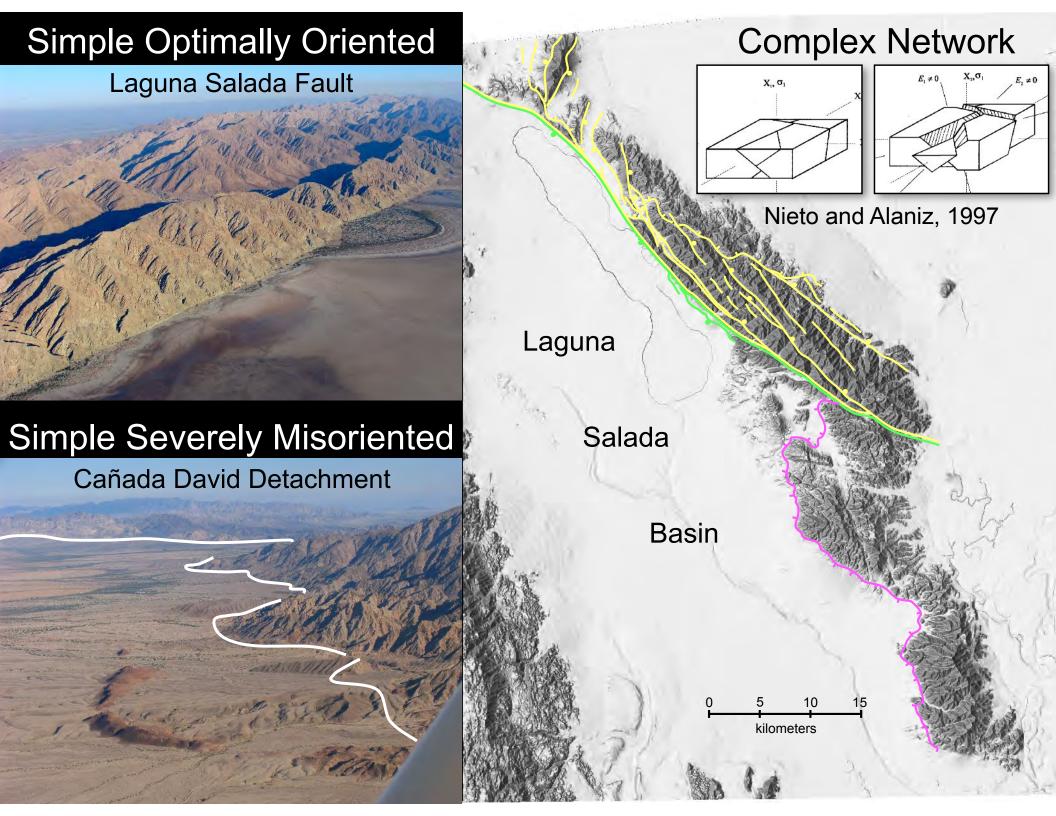




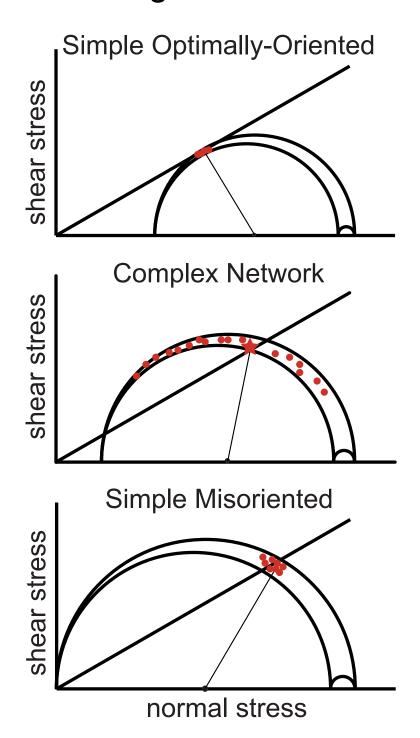


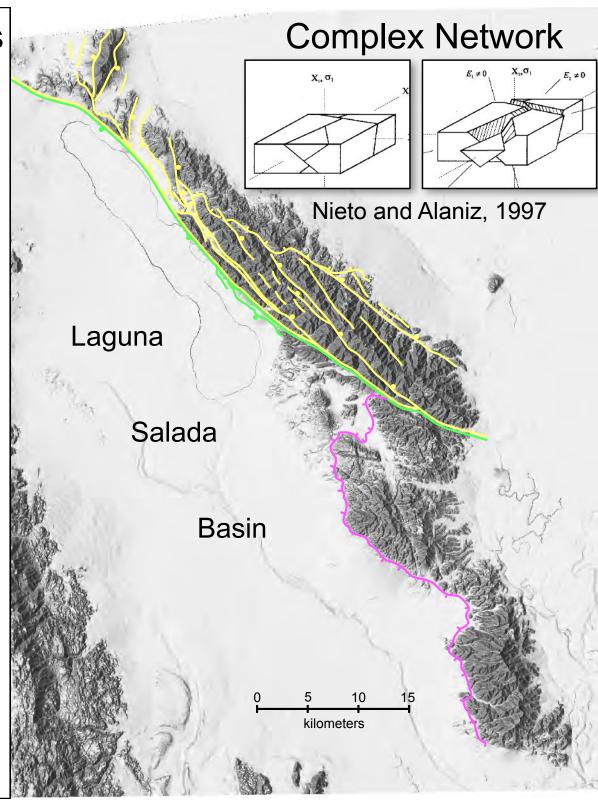






Contrasting Fault Mechanics





Mechanics of Multifault Earthquake Ruptures

John Fletcher, Mike Oskin, Orlando Teran (2016)



LETTERS

PUBLISHED ONLINE: 15 FEBRUARY 2016 | DOI: 10.1038/NGEO2660

The role of a keystone fault in triggering the complex El Mayor-Cucapah earthquake rupture

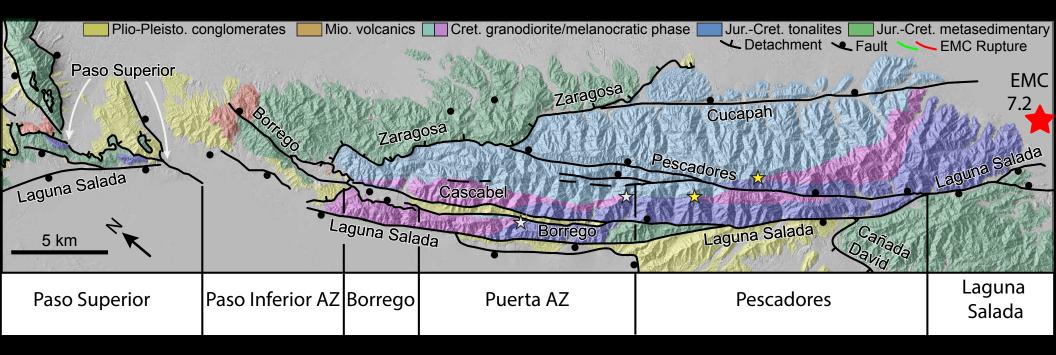
John M. Fletcher^{1*}, Michael E. Oskin^{2*} and Orlando J. Teran^{1†}

The 2010 Mw 7.2 El Mayor-Cucapah earthquake in Baja California, Mexico activated slip on multiple faults of diverse orientations^{1,2}, which is commonly the case for large earthquakes³⁻⁶. The critical stress level for fault failure depends on fault orientation and is lowest for optimally oriented faults positioned approximately 30° to the greatest principal compressive stress⁷. Yet, misoriented faults whose positioning is not conducive to rupture are also common^{8,9}. Here we use stress inversions of surface displacement and seismic data to show that the El Mayor-Cucapah earthquake initiated on a fault that, owing to its orientation, was among those that required the greatest stress for failure. Although other optimally oriented faults must have reached critical stress earlier in the interseismic period, Coulomb stress modelling shows that slip on these faults was initially muted because they were pinned, held in place by misoriented faults that helped regulate their slip. In this way, faults of diverse orientations could be maintained at critical stress without destabilizing the network. We propose that regional stress build-up continues until a misoriented keystone fault reaches its threshold and its failure then spreads spontaneously across the network in a large earthquake. Our keystone fault hypothesis explains seismogenic failure of severely misoriented faults such as the San Andreas fault and the entire class of low-angle normal faults.

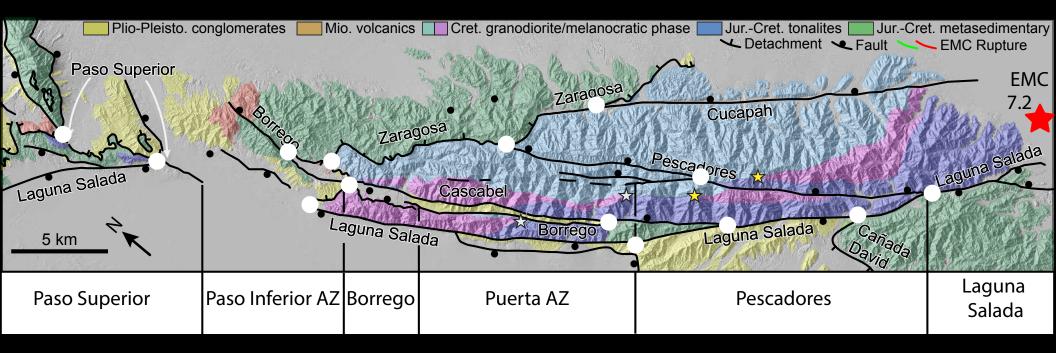
a continuous range of slip sense, from pure strike slip to pure dip slip, on fault planes spanning a full 360° in strike and $20^{\circ}-90^{\circ}$ in dip. The aftershock series demonstrates additional kinematic variability and a significant number of aftershocks exhibit a thrust sense of dip slip¹². This extreme kinematic diversity is not random, rather slip direction changes with fault orientation in a manner predicted by a uniform stress state (Fig. 2).

The geologic and structural context of the EMC earthquake and its aftershocks provides an unusually well constrained basis for modelling the stress conditions that produced the event. Using least squares^{14,15} and grid-search algorithms^{16,17}, we separately invert the surface rupture and aftershock data to obtain the orientation of three orthogonal principal stress axes and their relative magnitudes, expressed as the ratio $\phi = (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)/(\sigma_1 - \sigma_3)$, with σ_1 being the greatest compressive stress. The inversions produce consistent results for both data sets, with σ_1 and σ_2 oriented within a subvertical, NNW-striking plane, and high ϕ values indicating that σ_1 and σ_2 are close in magnitude (Table 1 and Supplementary Figs 1-3). Despite their similarity, the 95% confidence regions for σ_1 and σ_2 are clearly distinct in both data sets (Fig. 2 and Supplementary Figs 4 and 5). Regardless of methodology, the modelled stress states exhibit Andersonian configurations¹⁸, with subvertical σ_1 for the surface rupture and subvertical σ_2 for the aftershocks (Table 1 and Fig. 2). The stress states are thus permutations of one another, with σ_1 and σ_2 alternating position.

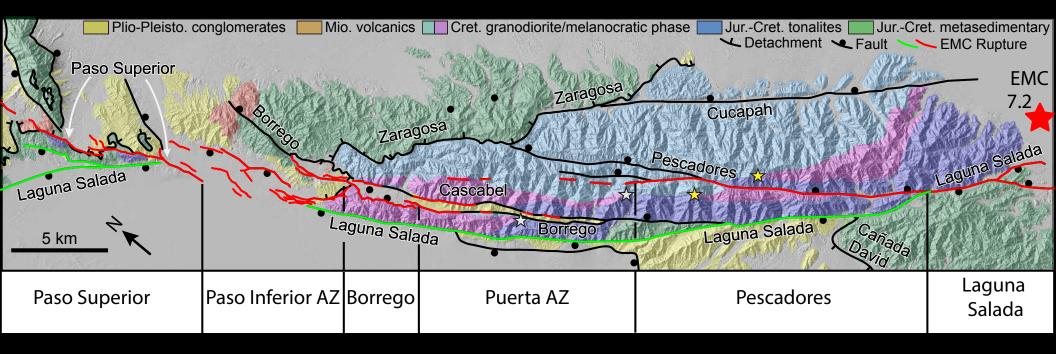
Sierra Domain



Sierra Domain

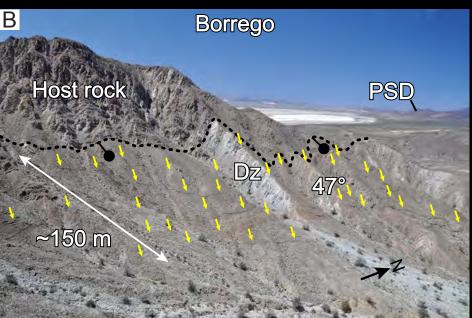


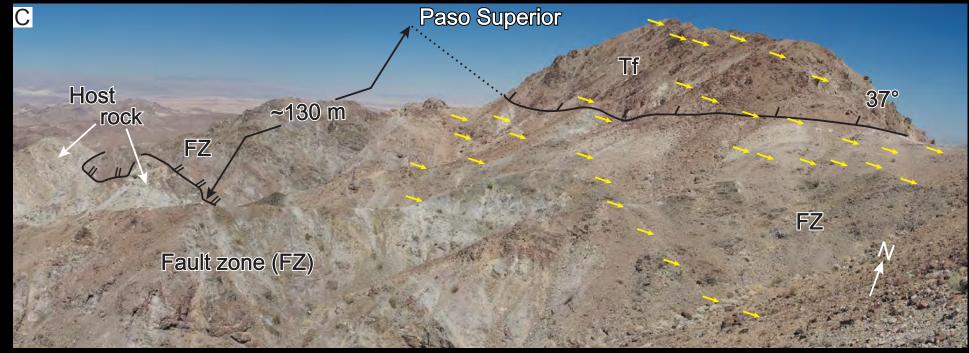
Sierra Domain



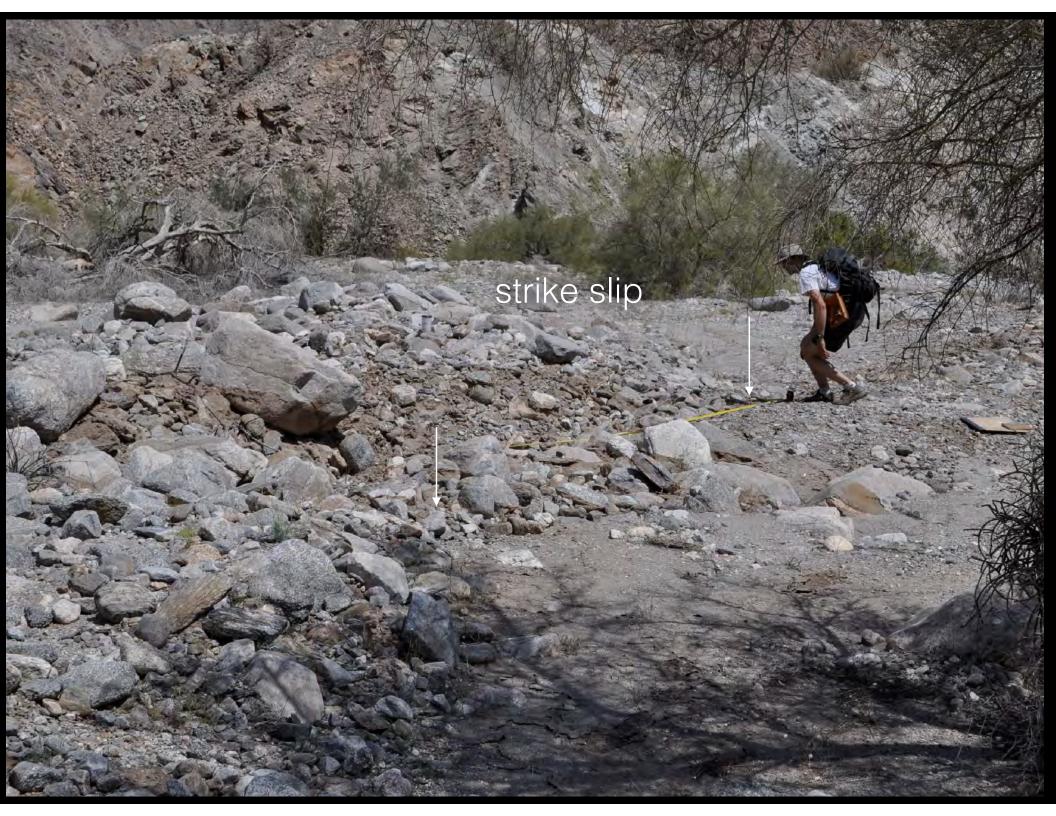
Master Fault Orientation



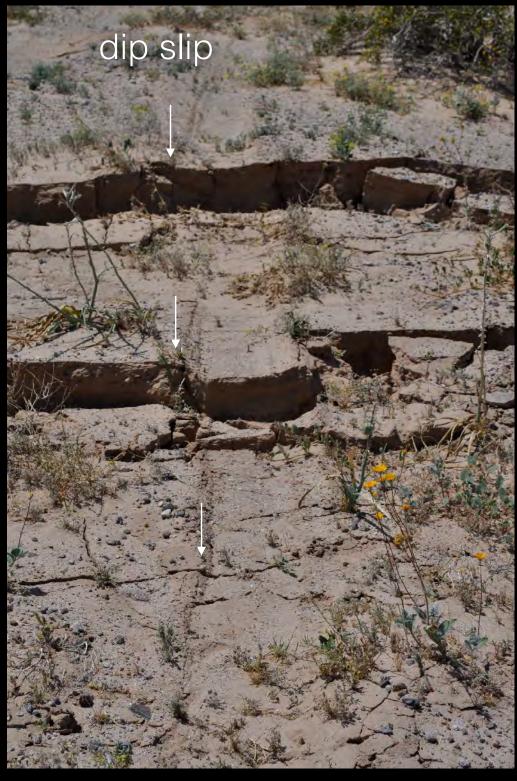










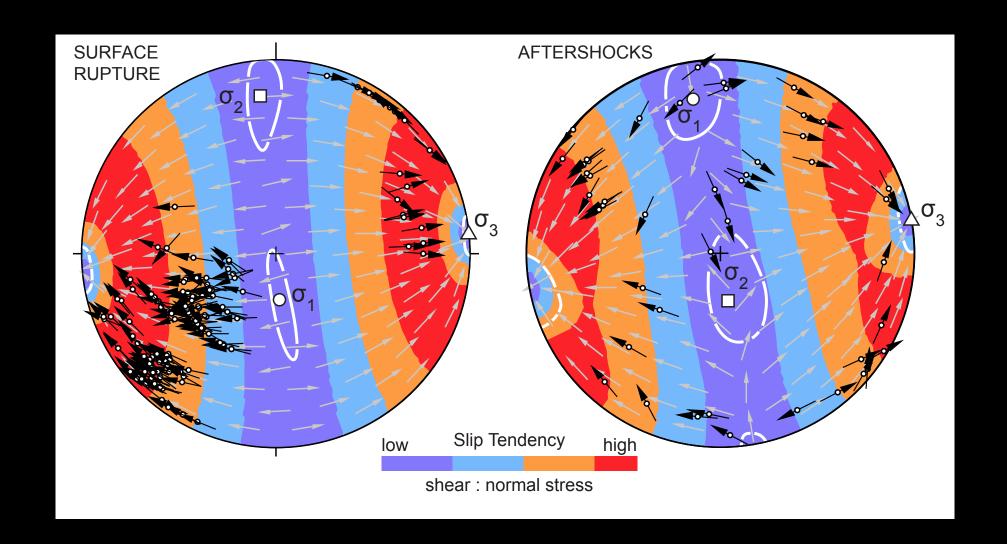




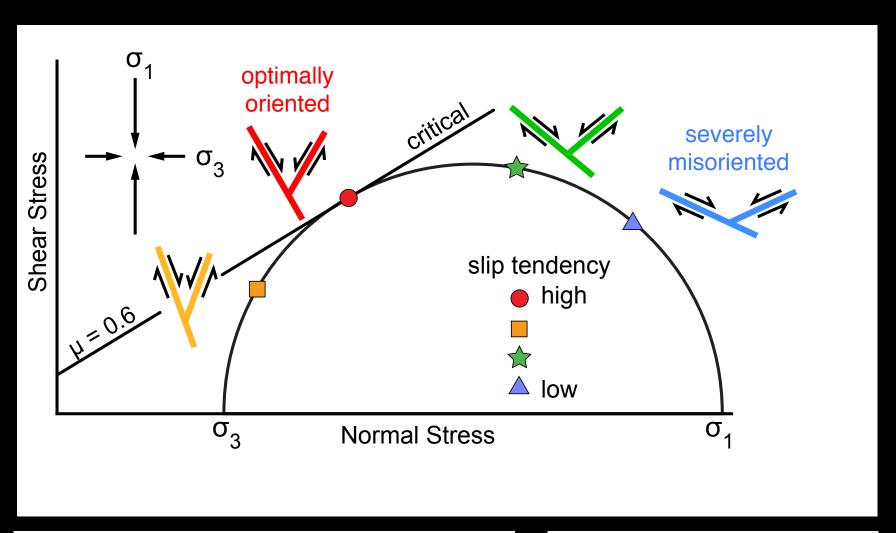




Stress Inversion



Slip Tendency



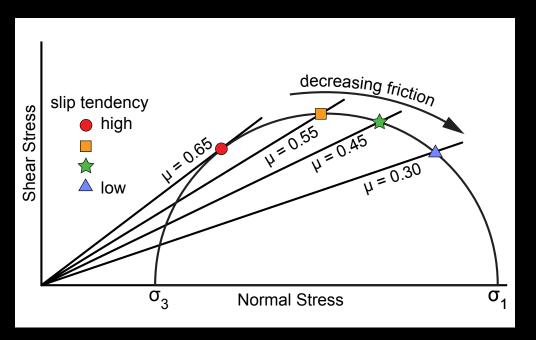
$$\sigma_n = \left(\frac{\sigma_1 + \sigma_3}{2}\right) + \left(\frac{\sigma_1 - \sigma_3}{2}\right) \cos(2\theta) \qquad \sigma_c = \left(\frac{\sigma_1 - \sigma_3}{2}\right) \sin(2\theta)$$

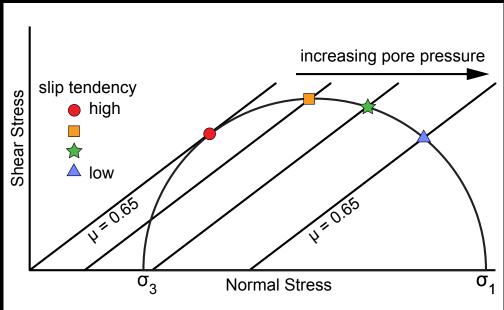
Multifault Rupture

What geologic processes prepare faults of diverse orientations and slip tendencies to fail simultaneously in a single earthquake?

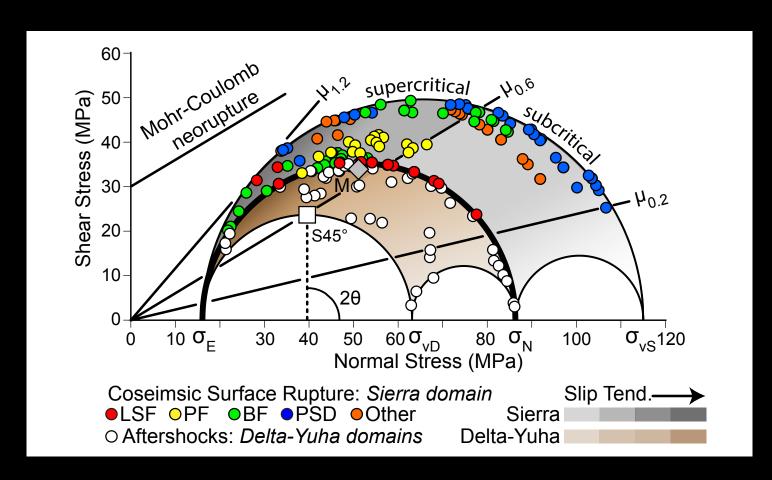
Variable Friction

Variable Pore Pressure





Multifault Rupture

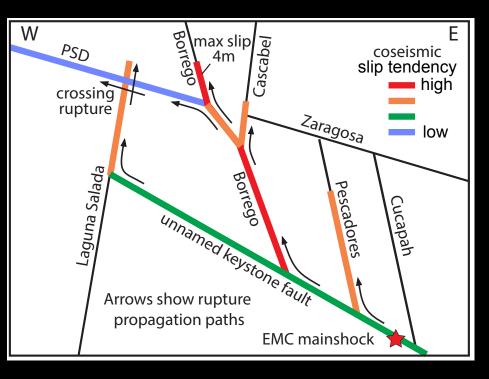


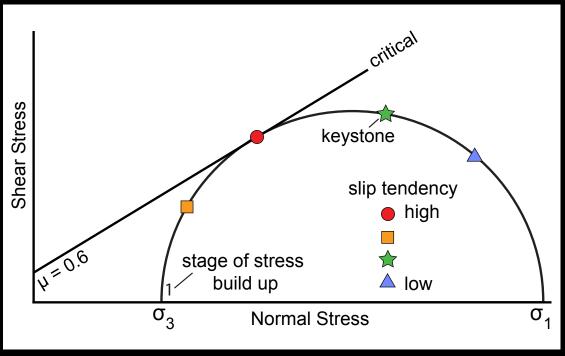
- Segments of individual faults define a wide range of slip tendencies.
- Understanding complex, multifault ruptures requires mechanisms for both maintaining fault stability at high slip tendency and for destabilizing faults with low slip tendency.

Keystone Fault Hypothesis

Schematic cross section

Interseismic stress build up



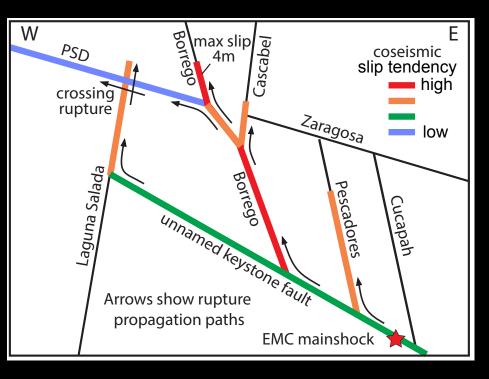


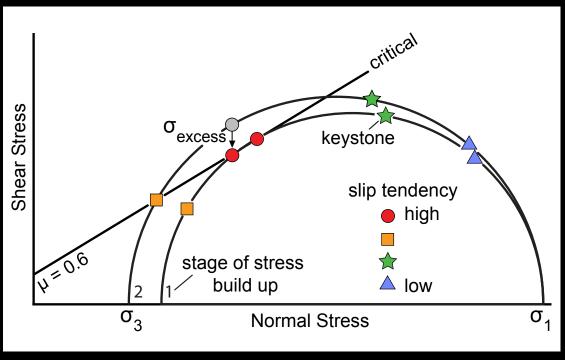
- Interlocking geometry of the fault network maintains stability during interseismic loading.
- Regulated slip events occur on optimally oriented faults to relieve excess shear stress.
- Spontaneous failure of the network occurs when a misoriented keystone fault reaches its strength threshold.

Keystone Fault Hypothesis

Schematic cross section

Interseismic stress build up



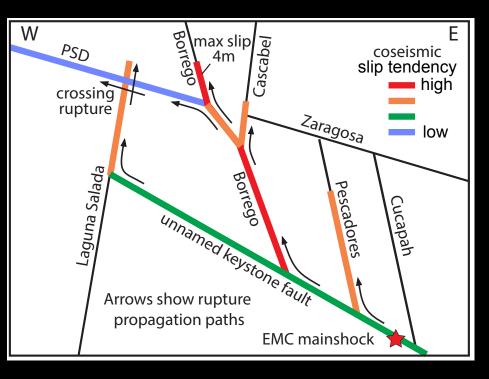


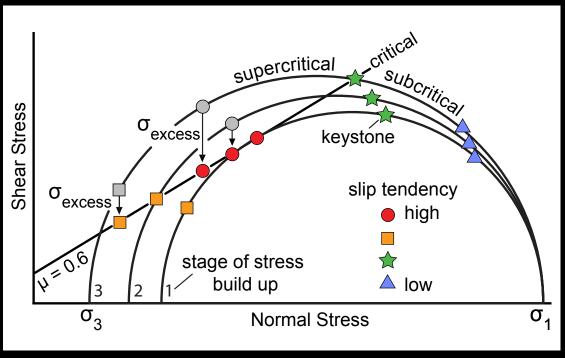
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Keystone Fault Hypothesis

Schematic cross section

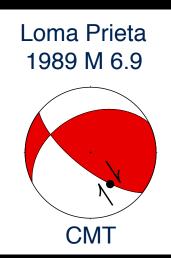
Interseismic stress build up

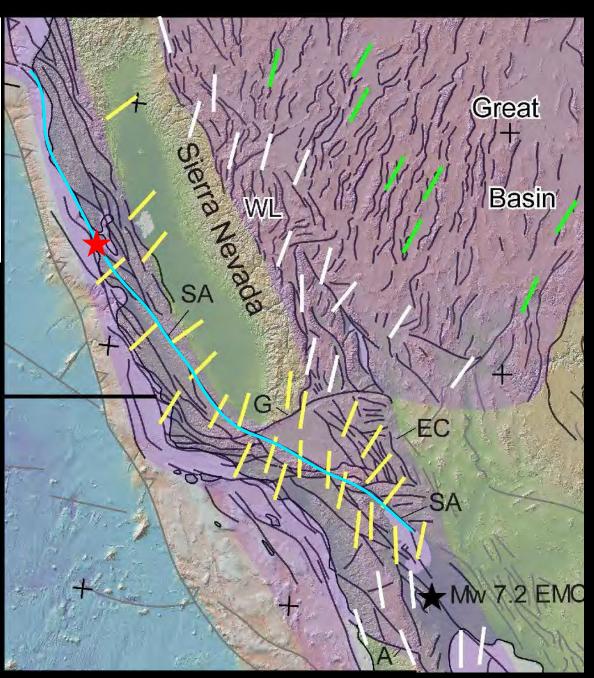




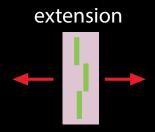
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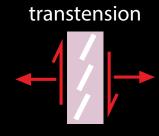
San Andreas Fault

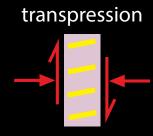




Domains of plate margin shearing



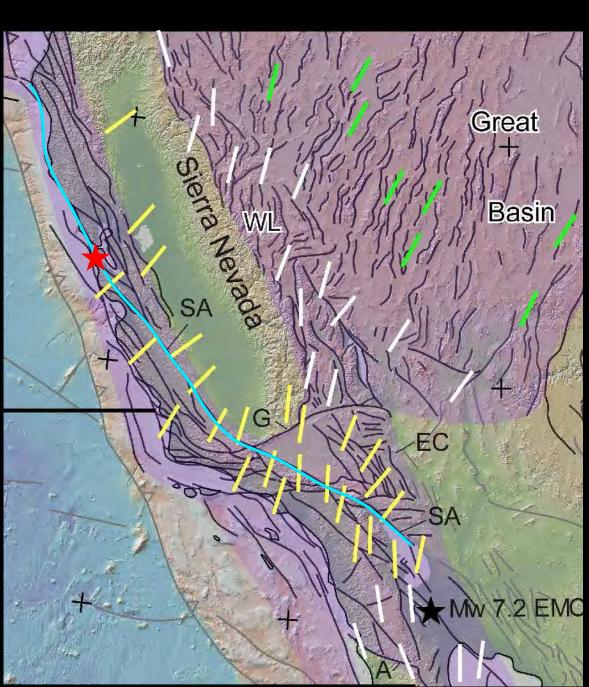




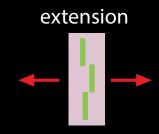
San Andreas Fault

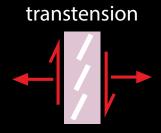
Loma Prieta 1989 M 6.9 **CMT** Initial subevent Ruff and

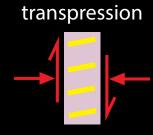
Tichelaar, 1990



Domains of plate margin shearing







Landers Earthquake 1992 M 7.3

Sieh et al., 1993, Science

