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1	Influence of the megathrust earthquake cycle on upper plate
2	deformation in the Cascadia forearc of Washington State
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13	ABSTRACT
14	The influence of subduction zone earthquake cycle processes on permanent
15	forearc deformation is poorly understood. In the Cascadia subduction zone forearc of
16	Washington State, deformed and incised fluvial terraces serve as archives of longer-term
17	(10^3-10^4 yr) strain manifest as both fluvial incision and slip on upper-plate faults. We
18	focus on comparing these geomorphic records in the Wynoochee River valley in the
19	southern Olympic Mountains with short-term (10^1 yr) deformation driven by interseismic
20	subduction zone coupling. We use optically stimulated luminescence dating and high-
21	resolution elevation data to characterize strath terrace incision and differential uplift
22	across the Canyon River fault, which cuts Wynoochee River terraces. This analysis

23 demonstrates reverse slip rates of ~0.1–0.3 mm/yr over the past ~12–37 ky, which agree 24 with rates predicted by a GPS-constrained boundary element model of interseismic stress 25 from Cascadia subduction zone coupling. Similarly, model-predicted patterns of 26 interseismic uplift mimic the overall pattern of incision in the lower Wynoochee River 27 valley, as revealed by strath elevations dated at 14.1 ± 1.2 ka. Agreement between 28 modeled short-term and observed long-term records of forearc strain suggests that 29 interseismic stress drives slip on upper-plate faults and fluvial incision in Cascadia. 30 Consistency over multiple time scales may indicate relative stability in spatial patterns of subduction zone coupling over at least $\sim 10^4$ yr intervals. 31

32 INTRODUCTION

33 A comprehensive picture of deformation, topographic development, and seismic 34 hazard in subduction zone forearcs requires understanding strain over multiple time 35 intervals. Although interseismic deformation above a subduction zone is considered to be 36 largely elastic (e.g., Mazzotti et al., 2002; Mitchell et al., 1994), some fraction may be 37 retained as permanent strain over multiple earthquake cycles (e.g., Kelsey et al., 1994; 38 Melnick et al., 2009). Records of incremental deformation preserved in Quaternary 39 forearc landforms may encode information about the relative stability of shorter-term $(10^{1}-10^{3} \text{ vr})$ processes such as interseismic strain, segmentation of megathrust ruptures, 40 and upper-plate faulting (Personius, 1995). 41 42 The relationship between deformation from the megathrust earthquake cycle and 43 Holocene-active forearc faults and folds is poorly quantified. Forearc structures may

44 accommodate margin-normal and/or parallel slip related to the orientation of plate

45 convergence (e.g., McCaffrey, 1993) and may be sensitive to stress induced by great

subduction earthquakes (Aron et al., 2013; Loveless and Pritchard, 2008). Accordingly,
megathrust earthquakes may trigger slip on forearc faults (Sherrod and Gomberg, 2014),
or conversely, ruptures on upper-plate structures may initiate subduction earthquakes by
decoupling the megathrust (González et al., 2015). Forearc structures may also serve as
boundaries that control the length and location of subduction zone ruptures over multiple
earthquake cycles (Melnick et al., 2009).

52 In this study, we quantify deformation in the Wynoochee River valley in the 53 southern Olympic Mountains of Washington State (Fig. 1) using lidar data, optically 54 stimulated luminescence (OSL) dating, and cm-scale terrace-strath surveys. We calculate longer-term ($\geq 10^3$ yr) slip on the upper-plate Canyon River fault (CRF) and fluvial 55 56 downcutting for comparison with decadal-scale, modeled interseismic deformation from 57 the Cascadia subduction zone (CSZ). We utilize a boundary element method (Crouch and 58 Starfield, 1983; Thomas, 1993) model to infer upper-plate fault slip needed to relieve 59 stress from subduction zone coupling estimated from GPS observations, as well as 60 regional interseismic uplift. Together, these results provide an explicit examination of 61 links between CSZ-related deformation, forearc fault slip, and fluvial incision.

62 **BACKGROUND**

Geodetic measurements show that the CSZ accommodates NE-SW oblique
convergence between the Juan de Fuca and N. American plates (Fig. 1 inset). Geodeticgeomorphic comparisons in Oregon imply that small amounts of interseismic strain
persist over multiple earthquake cycles, rather than being entirely elastic (Kelsey et al.,
1994). Permanent deformation in the CSZ forearc reflects some combination of slip on
upper-plate faults (e.g., Wells et al., 1998), wedge accretion manifest as underplating or

aseismic folding (Hyndman and Wang, 1993; Pazzaglia and Brandon, 2001), and poorly
understood contributions from the megathrust earthquake cycle.

71 Records of uplift in the Olympic Mountains, the topographic high of the CSZ forearc, include both thermochronologic measurements at $\sim 10^6$ yr time scales (Brandon et 72 al., 1998) and river incision records at $\sim 10^3$ - 10^5 yr scales (Pazzaglia and Brandon, 2001). 73 74 These studies demonstrate that incision rates broadly agree with longer term exhumation 75 rates, implying steady-state erosion over millennial and perhaps longer time scales. 76 Within the Olympic Peninsula are east and NE-striking reverse, strike-slip, and 77 oblique-slip faults that together accommodate trench-parallel shortening implied by 78 obliquity in plate convergence (Fig. 1) (e.g., Barnett et al., 2015; Blakely et al., 2009; 79 Witter et al., 2008). Previous studies in Cascadia proposed that upper-plate fault slip 80 arises from the deficit between plate convergence and trench-normal megathrust 81 earthquake rebound (e.g., Mazzotti et al., 2002; Wang et al., 1995). Alternatively, 82 curvature in the subducting slab (Bevis et al., 2001) and associated oroclinal bending 83 could focus interseismic trench-parallel shortening on upper-plate structures 84 (Allmendinger et al., 2005).

The NE-striking CRF represents one such fault in the southern Olympic Mountains (Fig. 1), accommodating south-side-up reverse or oblique motion (Walsh and Logan, 2007), similar to faults in Puget Lowlands (Fig. 1). Airborne lidar (Quinault River Basin, 2012; Southwest Washington, 2009) reveals a previously unmapped strand of the CRF that cuts terraces along the Wynoochee River, a prominent N-S drainage with headwaters in the southern Olympic Mountains (Figs. 1 and 2). The Wynoochee River basin contains several generations of alpine glacial moraines, aggradational fills and glaciolacustrine deposits, and degradational strath terraces (Carson, 1970). To explore
potential links between the geomorphology of this area and the CSZ earthquake cycle, we
compare the record of faulting and incision to deformation from interseismic subduction
zone coupling.

96 DECADAL AND MILLENNIAL SLIP ON THE CANYON RIVER FAULT

97 Our mapping of the CRF reveals a segmented, steeply south-dipping fault with 98 south-side-up reverse displacement indicated by offset terraces. The emergence of a 99 narrow canyon and associated knickpoint downstream of the fault (Figs. 2 and 3b) is also 100 consistent with south-side-up displacement as the stream must narrow, steepen, and 101 incise to compensate for relatively faster uplift (e.g., Amos and Burbank, 2007). We 102 mapped eight generations of terraces (Qt1 to Qt8), some containing minor subset cut-in-103 fill terraces denoted by 'b' and 'c.' We calculate dip-slip rate on the CRF using 104 topographic profiles extracted from the lidar, OSL ages (Table 1) derived from standard 105 sampling and lab procedure (Figs. DR1-DR8; Appendix DR1), and fault dip estimated 106 from trenching (Walsh and Logan, 2007). Though Walsh and Logan (2007) observed 107 oblique, sinistral-reverse slickenlines on the CRF ~ 10 km to the east, no laterally offset 108 features are observed in the Wynoochee valley. 109 Topographic profiles along terrace surfaces cut by the CRF (Fig. 2, profiles A-P) 110 yield vertical separations of $\sim 0.9-6.1$ m (Fig. 2a; Table DR3, Appendix DR1). In 111 combination with OSL ages from the Qt8, Qt7, and Qt4 terraces (Table 1), these

112 measurements suggest vertical separation rates of $\sim 0.1-0.4 \pm 0.1$ mm/yr (Fig. 2a, Table

113 DR3). Uncertainty in matching the Qt5 terrace across the CRF yields vertical separations

114 of $4.3 \pm 1.6 - 7.7 \pm 3.5$ m, depending on the continuity of the northern terrace tread with

115 Qt5 and Qt5b south of the fault (Fig. 2c). These profiles give vertical separation rates of 116 0.3 + 0.2-0.1 and 0.5 + 0.3-0.2 mm/yr, respectively, using the offset Qt5 deposit age of 14.8 ± 2.0 ka (WYN-06). Based on a range of fault dips from 55 to 85°S, encompassing 117 118 the observed 70°S dip from Walsh and Logan (2007), the median reverse slip rate for all 119 profiles is 0.2 mm/yr (Table DR3). Since OSL sample burial predates modern tread 120 formation, OSL-derived separation rates are regarded as minima (Appendix DR1). 121 To test the relationship between slip on the CRF and the underlying CSZ, we use 122 a boundary element method model (e.g., Crouch and Starfield, 1983) to calculate stress 123 imposed on the CRF by interseismic coupling on the CSZ (Fig. DR9) estimated using a 124 geodetically constrained block model (Meade and Loveless, 2009). We then estimate slip 125 rates on the CRF required to relieve the imposed stress, assuming that the CRF is a shear 126 traction-free surface (details in Appendix DR1), similar to studies of the San Andreas 127 fault system (e.g., Cooke and Dair, 2011). The resulting slip rate distribution represents 128 that of CRF earthquake(s) normalized by recurrence interval, assuming slip completely 129 relieves accumulated shear stress imposed by CSZ coupling. Using a nominal 70°S fault 130 dip and 10 km fault depth, the model predicts south-side-up motion, with estimated 131 reverse slip rates of 0.1–0.5 mm/yr (Fig. DR10). At the Wynoochee River, estimated 132 reverse slip is $\sim 0.1-0.2$ mm/yr. The lateral component of estimated slip ranges up to 0.7 133 mm/yr of dextral motion (Fig. DR10). We tested alternative fault depths and connectivity 134 to consider uncertainty in fault geometry (Appendix DR1). These variations yield the 135 same slip sense (reverse-dextral) and slip rates of similar magnitude and within the 136 geomorphic uncertainty.

137 INCISION AND UPLIFT OF THE WYNOOCHEE RIVER VALLEY

138 We use terrace strath incision along the Wynoochee River to estimate long-term (10^3-10^4 yr) vertical uplift and compare to modeled interseismic uplift (Fig. 3). This 139 140 analysis uses the elevation of the Ot5 strath, the most continuous and best-exposed 141 terrace in the Wynoochee valley. Strath heights come from high-resolution differential 142 GPS field surveys and well log data (Table DR4) (Washington State Dept. of Ecology, 143 2015). In the upper reaches of the Wynoochee River ($\leq 20 \text{ km}$), the Qt5 terrace deposit 144 contains a thick aggradational fill (~5-20 m) deposited on fine-grained glaciolacustrine 145 deposits and basalt (Fig. 3b). Incised glacial deposits beneath Qt5 fill suggest alternating 146 periods of vertical incision, aggradation, and valley re-excavation, resulting in artificially 147 high incision rates. We therefore focus on the overall rate and pattern of incision in the 148 lower reaches of the river (>20 km), where relatively thin fluvial deposits overlie straths 149 incised into sedimentary bedrock (Fig. 3b). Here, OSL dates provide the minimum strath 150 abandonment age and therefore maximum incision rates (e.g., Litchfield and Berryman, 151 2006).

152 Incision of the Qt5 strath, calculated by subtracting the channel elevation from the 153 strath elevation, varies along the length of the Wynoochee River (Fig. 3c). Discrepancy 154 between strath offset and Qt5 terrace tread offset (~4–7 m, Fig. 2c) across the CRF 155 supports our inference of diachronous strath cutting below Qt5 in the glacially influenced, upper reaches of the river (<20 km). Where strath incision is potentially more 156 157 straightforward to interpret downstream, the Qt5 strath shows broad warping over a half 158 wavelength of ~ 30 km (Fig. 3c). The range of Qt5 strath heights incised into sedimentary 159 bedrock corresponds to incision rates of $0.4 \pm 0.3 - 1.8 \pm 0.3$ mm/yr, assuming

160 simultaneous tread abandonment and using an average Qt5 OSL age of 14.1 ± 1.2 ka 161 (Fig. 3c, Appendix DR1).

162 Modeled uplift rates representing combined effects of CSZ coupling and CRF slip 163 are $\sim 2.1-2.8$ mm/yr along the Wynoochee valley (Fig. 3a,c). This total rate reflects 164 interseismic uplift plus an average annual contribution from CRF earthquakes. 165 Interseismic uplift rates generally decrease to the east with increasing distance from 166 strong CSZ coupling (Fig. DR11), but south-side-up motion on the CRF introduces some 167 deviation from this pattern. Notably, the Wynoochee River flows through a local 168 minimum in model-predicted uplift, owing to segmentation of the CRF within the valley 169 (Fig. 3a).

170 **DISCUSSION**

171 Similarities in rates and patterns of Late Pleistocene faulting and incision and the 172 predicted deformation from the model suggest that interseismic subduction zone coupling 173 may drive permanent forearc fault slip and uplift. On the CRF, reverse slip rates inferred 174 from terrace offsets (~0.2 mm/yr; Fig. 2) closely match the model rates (0.1–0.2 mm/yr) 175 (Fig. 3a). These rates are consistent with those of similarly oriented structures in the SE 176 Olympic Mountains, including the Saddle Mountain fault, which displays post-glacial 177 vertical deformation rates of ~0.2 mm/yr (Barnett et al., 2015). 178 The general match in reverse slip rates across multiple timescales suggests that 179 interseismic stress from the coupled subduction zone may alone cause upper-plate fault

- 180 slip in the forearc; no additional driving mechanisms, such as CSZ coseismic slip (Figs.
- 181 DR13–14, Appendix DR1) or crustal block motions, are required to produce the observed
- 182 reverse slip on the CRF. The predicted component of dextral slip on the CRF from the

183 model, however, does not match observed sinistral-reverse slickenlines (Walsh and 184 Logan, 2007). That said, lateral slip is poorly recorded in Holocene landforms and 185 potentially varies along-strike, between the coseismic and interseismic phase of the 186 megathrust earthquake cycle, and/or over multiple earthquake cycles. As such, we focus 187 here on predicted reverse motion on the CRF driven by subordinate trench-parallel 188 convergence due to subduction zone coupling. Reverse slip on the CRF also compares 189 well with geomorphic evidence of continued, south-side-up reverse motion on the CRF 190 (Fig. 2).

191 Several factors complicate the degree to which fluvial downcutting recorded by 192 Wynoochee terraces (Fig. 3) reflects tectonic uplift. The presence of aggradational fills 193 and evidence for repeated glaciation, particularly in the upper basin (Carson, 1970), 194 suggest that a component of incision may result from glacial isostatic adjustment from 195 local alpine glaciers and/or the Puget Lobe of the Cordilleran ice sheet (<35 km to the 196 east; Fig. 1) (Thorson, 1989). Additionally, the prevalence of bedrock incision along the 197 entire length of the Wynoochee River (Fig. 3c) reflects climactic factors such as long-198 term base level lowering from sediment loss at the river mouth (Carson, 1970), or 199 gradient decrease from headwater sediment loss. Incision rates are also calculated over 200 half a glacial cycle, and are thus overestimates. Given these factors, we focus on 201 comparing overall spatial patterns of incision and interseismic uplift rather than the 202 absolute rates.

203 Neither isostasy nor base level change, however, likely produces the broad, ~15–
204 20 m warping of the Qt5 terrace strath in the lower Wynoochee River (Fig. 3c). Although
205 this feature could reflect motion on a blind fault, we note a correlation between incision

and predicted interseismic uplift along the Wynoochee valley (Fig. 3c and inset).

207 Combined with the location of the Wynoochee River at a local minimum in total modeled

208 uplift (Fig. 3a), such spatial coincidence suggests that terrace downcutting mimics short-

209 term strain patterns. This result resembles previous findings based on geomorphic

210 observations in Oregon (Kelsey et al., 1994; Personius, 1995).

Our results imply that long-term (> 10^3 yr) forearc deformation, including trenchparallel shortening expressed as reverse faulting, broad scale folding, and uplift of the Olympic Mountains represents a permanent component of interseismic strain. Hence, deformation in the Cascadia forearc could express long-lived, temporally stable patterns of interplate coupling.

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- 330

331 FIGURE CAPTIONS

- 332
- 333 Figure 1. Holocene upper plate faults, major drainages, and Cordilleran Ice sheet limit
- 334 (Thorson, 1989) in the Olympic Mountains, WA. CRF-Canyon River fault; SMFZ -
- 335 Saddle Mountain fault zone. Inset: Cascadia subduction zone with relative plate motions.
- 336 JDF Juan de Fuca plate; PAC Pacific plate.

338	Figure 2. Map of the Canyon River fault (CRF) scarps, topographic profile locations, and
339	terrace ages (yellow triangles). A) Vertical separation (Vs) and vertical separation rates
340	(Vsr) across the CRF from terrace profiles. B) Examples of scarp profile vertical
341	separation. C) Profile of Qt5, showing two possible vertical separations across the CRF.
342	
343	Figure 3. A) Map view of Qt5 terraces. Red and blue gradient shows map view of
344	modeled Canyon River fault (CRF) uplift rate, with local minimum coinciding with the
345	river location. Contours are predicted regional uplift rate (mm/y) from subduction
346	coupling. B) Qt5 tread and strath elevations with uncertainty (shading) versus valley
347	distance. C) Modeled total uplift rate and uncertainty (shading) due to subduction
348	coupling and CRF slip compared to terrace Qt5 incision rates with uncertainty (shading).
349	Inset: Regression of modeled total uplift and incision rate values at >20 km valley
350	distance showing positive correlation.
351	
352	1GSA Data Repository item 2017xxx, Figures DR1-DR14 and Tables DR1-DR5 and
353	supplementary text (additional model figures, field and sample data, and detailed
354	methods), is available online at http://www.geosociety.org/datarepository/2017/ or on
355	request from <u>editing@geosociety.org</u> .
356	

TABLE 1. OPTICALLY STIMULATED LUMINESCENCE RESULTS

Sample	Мар	Locati	on	Elevation	Valley	Age ± 2σ	
number	unit	Lat	Long	(m)	distance	(ka)	
		(°N)	(°W)		(km)		
WYN-04	Qt7	47.3423	123.6409	165	5.8	8.9 ±	2.4
WYN-06	Qt5	47.3417	123.6507	194	6.0	14.8 ±	4.0
WYN-07	Qt5b	47.1006	123.6848	57	35.0	14.6 ±	3.5
WYN-08	Qt5	47.0583	123.6928	42	39.8	22.9 ±	6.2
WYN-15	Qt5	47.2121	123.6355	107	20.9	13.5 ±	6.3
WYN-16	Qt5	47.2121	123.6355	109	20.9	13.5 ±	4.0
WYN-17	Qt4	47.3740	123.6147	253	1.2	32.2 ±	9.7
WYN-18	Qt4	47.3740	123.6147	253	1.2	14.7 ±	6.7
WYN-19	Qt8	47.3419	123.6407	162	5.8	7.8 ±	2.4

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Fig. 1, Delano et al.



