

The Alpine Orogeny in the West and Southwest Iberia Margins

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Abstract

The Alpine orogeny is well recorded onshore and offshore by tectonic inversion of the Mesozoic rift basins. Large scale linear seamounts (more than 250 km long and with up to 5 km of uplift) involving oceanic and continental lithosphere were carried on top of thrusts, such as the

Gorringe seamount and the Estremadura Spur in the SouthWest and West Iberia Margin, respectively. The SouthWest Iberia Margin also recorded the westward migration of the Gibraltar Oceanic slab as the westwards propagation of the Neo-Tethys subduction. Rotation of the tectonic compression from NW-SE to WNW-ESE in

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Pliocene times caused the development of large scale dextral wrench faults as the present day Africa-Iberia plate boundary. Neotectonics of this plate boundary caused large to mega-scale destructive earthquakes and tsunamis.

11.1 Introduction

The West Iberia Margin (WIM) comprises the part of Iberia that was stretched parallel to the main Atlantic continental rifting and experienced oceanic drifting that generated the oceanic magnetic anomalies roughly parallel to the Mid Atlantic Ridge. The study area comprises the West Iberia onshore-offshore rift basins across the Iberia and Tagus abyssal plains to the Madeira-Tore Rise north of the Azores-Gibraltar Fracture Zone (Fig. 11.1).

The Southwest Iberia Margin (SWIM) lies to the West of the Gibraltar Arc comprising the rifted continental margin (the Algarve Basin), the oceanic lithosphere associated with the westernmost Tethys Ocean (Neo-Tethys or Ligurian Tethys), the accreted terranes associated with the closure and subduction of its oceanic lithosphere, the Horseshoe Abyssal Plain and the Gorringe-Josephine Ridge. The SWIM lies near the Eurasia-Africa plate boundary since Early to Middle Jurassic times that has experienced a long lasting history of different kinematics, such as transtensional during Jurassic

until Late Cretaceous times, frontal collision in the Paleogene to Early-Mid Miocene times and dextral transpression from approximately Late Miocene through Present (e.g. Srivastava et al. 1990; Schettino and Turco 2009, 2011).

The Alpine Orogeny in the WIM and SWIM affected mainly the rifted areas of the margins essentially through tectonic inversion of the rift Lusitanian and Algarve Basins that are well exposed onshore and of their lateral equivalents in the near offshore. Most of the inversion tectonic structures resulted from inversion or shortcut of extensional faults. Metamorphism has not been recognized in the inverted basins of the WIM and SWIM. Salt décollements played an important role and in the Algarve Basin, at least one allochthonous salt detachment has been recognized and mapped (Matias et al. 2011; Ramos et al. 2017c).

In this paper the term “tectonic inversion” applies to shortening of the Mesozoic rift basins that resulted from the approximate frontal collision of Iberia with Africa or Eurasia mostly during Late Cretaceous to Late Miocene times contemporaneously with mountain building of the Alpine chains in Iberia. In the deep offshore large scale contractional structures near the plate boundary have been described, the nature of which is varied, such as the Gorringe Bank thrust and the Accretionary Wedge of the Gulf of Cádiz that are associated with the Neogene through Present day Eurasia-Africa plate boundary kinematics (e.g. Srivastava et al. 1990). The Estremadura Spur pop-up extends from the

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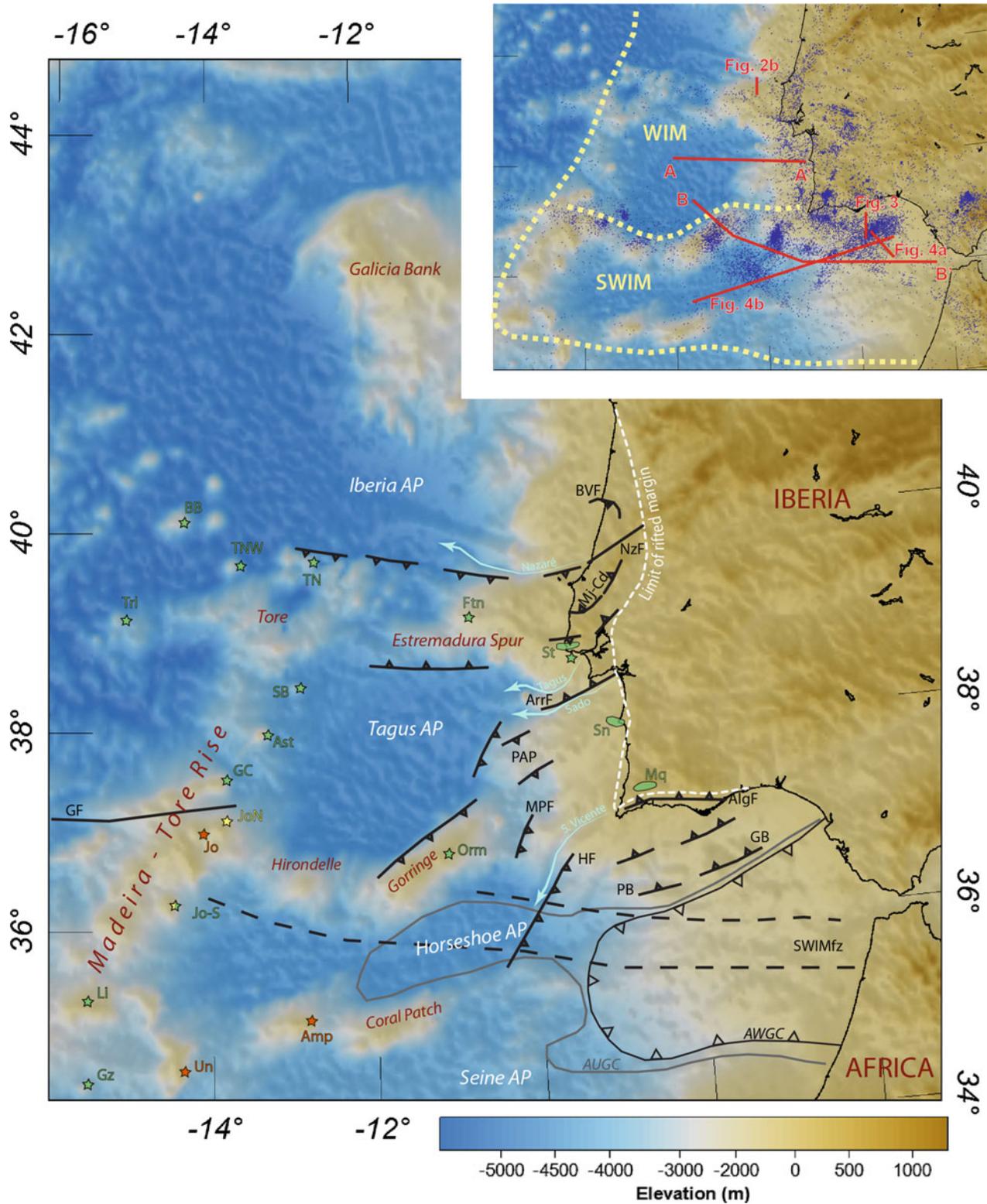


Fig. 11.1 The WIM and SWIM Alpine Orogeny domains, tectonic and magmatic structures and seismicity. AlgF: Algibre fault; ArrF: Arrábida fault; AUGC: allochthonous unit of the Gulf of Cádiz; AWGC: accretionary wedge of the Gulf of Cádiz; BVF: Serra da Boa Viagem fault; GF: Gloria fault; HF: Horseshoe fault; Mj-Cd: Montejunto—Candeios system; MPF: Marquês de Pombal fault; NzF: Nazaré fault; PAP: Príncipes de Avis plateau; SWIM fz: Southwest Iberia Margin fault zone. Blue arrows: offshore canyons. Inset: SWIM and WIM boundaries, seismicity; red lines: location of profiles in

Fig. 11.7 Ages for West Iberia magmatism: Cretaceous (green), Miocene-Paleogene (orange) or Quaternary (yellow) (Schärer et al. 2000; Geldmacher et al. 2006; Merle et al. 2006, 2009; Miranda et al. 2009; Grange et al. 2010). Onshore magmatic complexes: Mq: Monchique; Sn: Sines; St: Sintra. Offshore dated magmatism: Amp: Ampere; Ast: Ashton; BB: Bikini Bottom; Ftn: Fontanelas seamount; GC: Gago Coutinho; Gz: Godzilla; Jo: Josephine; JoN: Josephine North; Jo-S: Jo-Sister; Li: Lion; Orm: Ormonde; SB: Sponge Bob; Trl: Torillon; TN: Tore North; TNW: Tore NW; Un: Unicorn

continental shelf to the ocean-continent transition, off the Lusitanian Basin as the lateral continuation of the onshore tectonic inversion (Fig. 11.1).

From Pliocene to Present times the tectonic regime in the WIM and SWIM changed. The mountain building and shortening decelerated and wrench tectonics led to the formation of 600 km long lineaments interpreted as dextral strike-slip faults materializing the wrench part of the plate boundary. Also, westwards directed thrusts, uplift of the SW coast of Portugal and the southwards directed thrusting off the Guadalquivir Bank occurred in this time interval (Zitellini et al. 1999, 2004; Gràcia et al. 2003a; Terrinha et al. 2003; Ramos et al. 2016, 2017c). Last but not least, the recorded intermediate frequency and magnitude earthquakes together with the occurrence of large magnitude events of M7.9 (the Horseshoe earthquake in 1969, Fukao 1973) and estimated $M \sim 8.5\text{--}8.9$ (1755 Lisbon earthquake, Johnston 1996) are a strong indication of important compressional active tectonics. This tectonic regime is known as the “tectonic reactivation of the Margin”.

The counter-clockwise rotation of the movement of Africa with respect to Iberia from Late Miocene times (e.g. Dewey et al. 1989; Fernandes et al. 2007) and the end of subduction of the Neo-Tethys east of the Gibraltar Strait (e.g. Rosenbaum et al. 2002; Vergés and Fernández 2012) are probably two of the main causes for the changes in the tectonic regime.

Intrusive and volcanic complexes associated to the Upper Cretaceous Alkaline Magmatism (UCAM) occur from the onshore WIM to the Madeira-Tore Rise (MTR). The ages of the onshore complexes vary from approximately 94 to 69 Ma. Along the MTR various bodies were sampled and ages vary from approximately 100 Ma to 80 Ma. Although the tectonic control of the emplacement and origin of the UCAM is still under study and discussion, it is clear that its occurrence marks the end of the Mesozoic rifting and post-rift basins in the WIM and SWIM, i.e. suggesting that magmatism is associated to the inversion tectonics.

11.2 The Upper Cretaceous Alkaline Magmatism (UCAM)

Mata J

The WIM and SWIM were the locus of significant magmatic activity during the Upper Cretaceous. Both onshore and offshore magmatism was alkaline, being clearly distinct from the 202–198 Ma and the 148–140 Ma magmatic cycles that occurred during the previous stages of the West Iberia evolution (see Mata et al. 2015 for a review). The first cycle was tholeiitic and characterized by negative ϵNd_i but somewhat radiogenic initial Sr isotope ratios (>0.7050) (e.g. Martins et al. 2008; Callegaro et al. 2014); the second cycle was mildly alkaline with ϵNd_i ranging from +1.6 to +4.2 and initial Sr isotope ratios

close to the CHUR_{145} (Grange et al. 2008; Mata et al. 2015). In turn, the Upper Cretaceous magmatism was clearly alkaline and characterized by $\epsilon\text{Nd}_i > 5$ and initial Sr isotope ratios indicating a time-integrated evolution of the mantle source characterized by Rb/Sr ratios clearly lower than the CHUR (e.g. Miranda et al. 2009; Grange et al. 2010).

The onshore UCAM includes the 3 subvolcanic complexes of Sintra, Sines and Monchique, as well as the Lisbon Volcanic Complex, the Mafra radial complex and hypabyssal/volcanic rocks cropping out in the Algarve Basin (SWIM) (Fig. 11.1). This onshore magmatism ranges in age from approximately 94 to 69 Ma (see Miranda et al. 2009; Grange et al. 2010), yet doubts still subsist owing to the lack of a more robust data base. For example, an age close to 72 Ma based on a K-Ar determination by Ferreira and Macedo (1979) was attributed to the Lisbon Volcanic Complex. However, the position of the paleomagnetic pole determined on rocks of this complex suggests an older age (Neres et al. 2012). The offshore UCAM extends to the Madeira-Tore Rise (MTR), along which various Upper Cretaceous bodies were sampled with ages varying from 104.4 ± 1.4 and ca. 68 Ma (Merle et al. 2006, 2009; Neres et al. 2014).

Considering the three subvolcanic massifs there is an age migration from north (Sintra: 83–80 Ma) to south (Monchique: 70–69 Ma), which was interpreted by Grange et al. (2010) as resulting from the motion of Iberia above a sub-lithospheric mantle plume. Interestingly, these authors also noticed a N to S trend of geochemical variation manifested, for example, by an increasing alkalinity, ($^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$) $_i$ and ϵHf_i , but a decrease in ($^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$) from Sintra to Monchique, through Sines. Such variation depicts different degrees of plume-lithosphere interaction.

Despite this, it has to be emphasized that the geochemical characteristics of the UCAM clearly imply a lower lithospheric contribution than the two above mentioned earlier Mesozoic magmatic cycles, allowing considering a secular decrease of the lithosphere role in magma composition, a tendency accompanied by an increasing depth of magma generation (Mata et al. 2015). These differences reflect the origin of the UCAM from a mantle plume as opposed to the inception of the two previous magmatic cycles in response to the adiabatic decompression induced by two important rifting events well marked in the sedimentary sequence.

11.3 The West Iberia Margin (WIM) Inversion Tectonics

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Inversion tectonics in the West Iberia Margin (WIM) is recorded onshore in the Lusitanian Basin by several

compressional structures, and offshore along the Estremadura Spur and Príncipes de Avis submarine mountains (Fig. 11.1). With the natural exception of the continental shelf that has been subjected to intensive and recurrent marine erosion associated to the Quaternary sea level oscillations, the tectonic inversion structures originated vigorous mountainous reliefs from the onshore to the deep abyssal plains. The deep submarine mountains rise more than 2 km above the regional depth (with a maximum for the Gorringe Bank of approximately 5 km above the Tagus Abyssal Plain) and display fairly continuous sedimentary successions up to Present. Onshore, mountains barely exceed 0.6 km in height due to the strong subaerial erosion and are usually characterized by exposures of Jurassic rocks in the core of thrust-related anticlines.

The compressional events that affected the WIM during the Alpine Orogeny are associated with the convergence initially accommodated along the northern and southern boundaries of Iberia that led to the formation of the Pyrenees and the Betics with tectonic peaks in Eocene and Miocene times, respectively. However, the concentration of tectonic shortening that resulted from these two orogenic events in the Lusitanian Basin is neither homogeneously distributed nor directional. As a matter of fact, the Miocene tectonic inversion (Betic phase) is widespread across the Lusitanian Basin and the Paleogene deformation (Pyrenean phase) concentrates in the Lisbon-Sintra region mainly (Fig. 11.2a).

In the Lisbon area, the Miocene unconformity cuts through folded Paleogene continental sediments, Cretaceous sediments and the Lisbon Volcanic Complex of Cretaceous age. The exhumation of the Sintra Igneous Complex of Late Cretaceous age was accommodated by overthrusting to the north over the Upper Jurassic and Lower Cretaceous succession. The exhumation was dated using fission track analyses in apatite that yielded a thermal exhumation age of ~ 55 Ma, i.e. Eocene times (Stapel et al. 1996; Terrinha et al. 2018).

The overlap of ages of volcanic edifices along the Madeira-Tore Rise (MTR) (~ 100 –80 Ma, Geldmacher et al. 2006; Merle et al. 2006, 2009) and of the Foz da Fonte and Sintra intrusives (94 ± 2 Ma and ~ 80 Ma, respectively, Miranda et al. 2009) together with the geophysical evidence of a trail of intrusions along the Estremadura Spur suggest the existence of a magmatic linkage between the MTR and the Lusitanian Basin (Neres et al. 2014). The concentration of intrusions and volcanism in the Sintra-Lisbon area has certainly caused a positive thermal anomaly favouring concentration of the Pyrenean compressive tectonics. The lack of clasts and blocks from the Miocene formations in the deposits associated with the thrusting is in agreement with Paleogene or even Late Cretaceous age of this tectonic event.

The Late Cretaceous was a key period in the kinematic history of the Iberian plate: during these times Iberia drifted

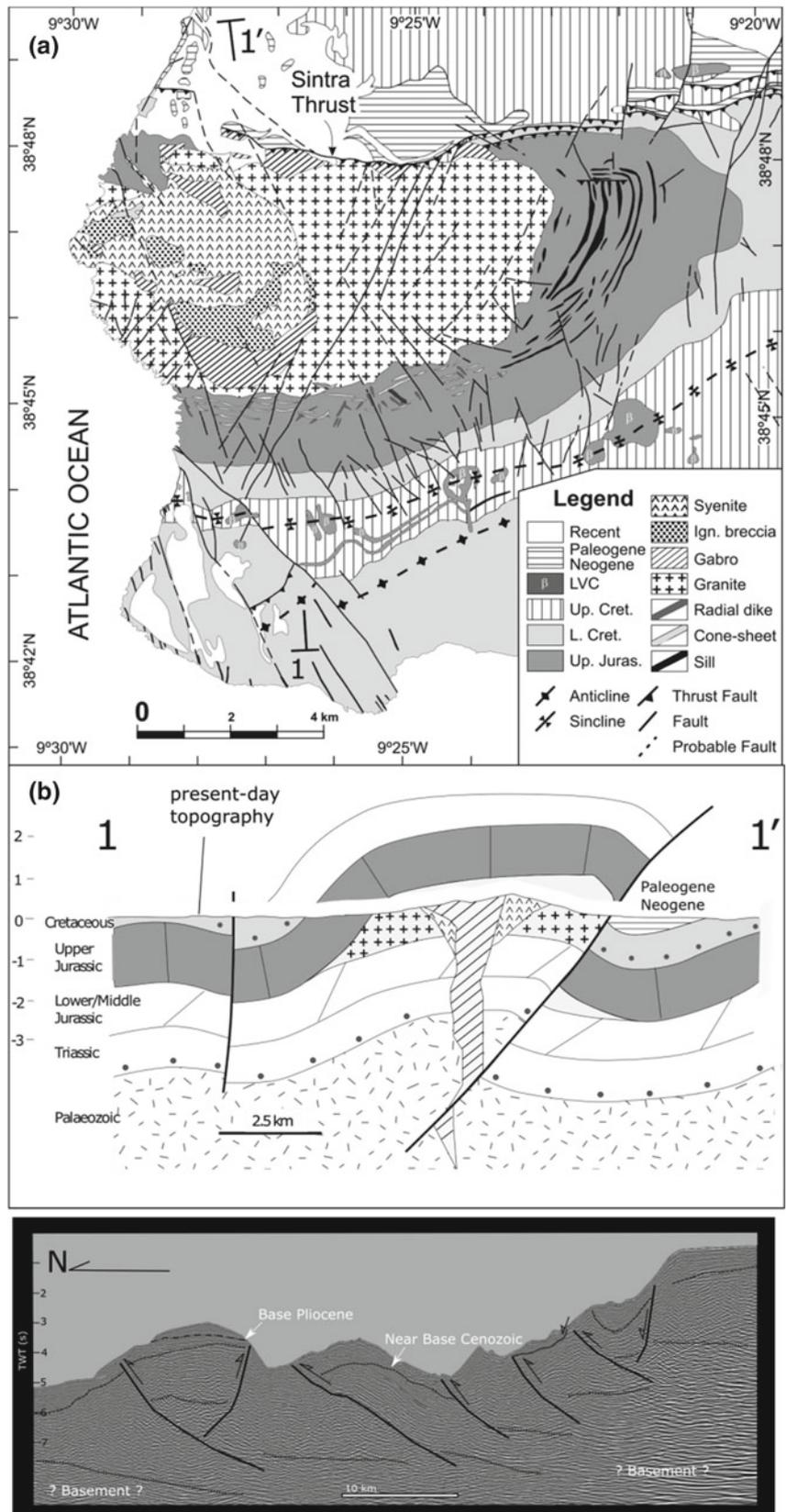
southwards with respect to Eurasia, opening the oceanic flooded Bay of Biscay, in a motion that is commonly known as the rotation of Iberia. This kinematic event is well registered in the Bay of Biscay magnetic anomalies, as well as in the paleomagnetic record of Iberia. This was presented by Van der Voo (1969) as one of the first links between paleomagnetism and plate tectonics. However, intense debate still subsists about the reconstruction of the opening of the Bay of Biscay and that of the Atlantic off West Iberia, with important implications to the subsequent tectonic evolution of the Iberian plate in particular of the Pyrenean domain (see Barnett-Moore et al. 2017 and references therein). The timing for the onset of rotation is not consensual as it occurred during the Cretaceous Normal Superchron (125–84 Ma). However, the end of the rotation is well constrained at 80 Ma (age of C33r anomaly, which matches the ridge abortion age in the Bay of Biscay). This age coincidence between the Iberia rotation with respect to Eurasia and the main phase of onshore and offshore magmatism, in particular in the Lisbon region, suggests a link between the Late Cretaceous magmatism, the rotation of Iberia and the early stages of tectonic inversion of West and Southwest Iberia.

The main compression direction during Miocene times was NW-SE oriented, in agreement with the trajectory of Africa with respect to Iberia and kinematics of the faults. The E-W to NE-SW trending faults were reactivated as reverse faults and the N-S to NNE-SSW faults were reactivated as sinistral transpressive faults (Fig. 11.1). The comparison of the structural maps of the basement, extensional structures and tectonic inversion structures, including the outcropping salt walls in the Lusitanian Basin, shows that the onshore and nearshore inversion structures resulted mostly from reactivation of extensional structures and most of the basement extension was not recovered during tectonic inversion (Ribeiro et al. 1990, 1996; Kullberg 2000; Kullberg et al. 2000, 2013).

The Miocene compressional event was firstly described by Choffat (1908) in his early works on the Arrábida fold and thrust belt, the most elegant example of the compressive Alpine Orogeny in the Portuguese territory. Onshore, it forms a 35 km long belt of an imbrication of three retrogressive southwards directed low angle thrusts, the southernmost and northernmost of which have been dated at 17.5–16.5 Ma and 9–7 Ma, respectively (Kullberg et al. 2013 and references therein). The Arrábida thrust belt extends into the offshore forming altogether an approximately 95 km long thrust belt (Fig. 11.1) at the southern edge of the Estremadura Spur.

The Montejunto and Boa Viagem mountains are hanging-wall anticlines developed on top of thrust ramps, while the Candeeiros mountains resulted from transpressive tectonics along \sim N-S striking inverted extensional faults (Fig. 11.1).

Fig. 11.2 Alpine thrusts in the Lusitanian Basin, above: Sintra thrust (a: map; b: cross section; from Terrinha et al. 2018). Below: multichannel seismic profile across the offshore prolongation of the Nazaré Fault (courtesy of ENMC, for location see inset in Fig. 11.1). Both structures are interpreted as basement involving thrusts. The Sintra thrust uplifted the Sintra Igneous Complex, whose exhumation occurred in Paleogene times (see text). The Nazaré Fault is a complex fracture zone that acted as a transfer fault during the Mesozoic rifting and was reactivated during the Alpine compression



Inspection of the bathymetry of the Estremadura Spur shows a continuous sequence of folds connecting the Tore seamount to the onshore. Seismic reflection profiles across the Estremadura Spur attest for a pop-up compressional structure with two main thrusts with opposite transport directions (Neves et al. 2009). The W-E trending northern boundary of the Estremadura Spur rotates towards NE-SW, i.e. perpendicular to the main Miocene tectonic compression, thus reactivating as a compressive structure the Nazaré Fault, the main transfer fault during the Mesozoic rifting in the Lusitanian Basin (Stapel et al. 1996; Rasmussen et al. 1998; Kullberg et al. 2013) (Fig. 11.2b).

On the other hand, the W-E trending southern boundary of the Estremadura Spur rotates towards NW-SE, i.e. to a trend approximately parallel to the Miocene compression vector, favouring transpressional tectonics (Figs. 11.1 and 11.2b). Accordingly, the shortening in the southern boundary of the Estremadura Spur is transferred to the submarine part of the Arrábida thrust belt.

The Príncipes de Avis Mountains form a trapezoidal plateau on the continental slope. The joint interpretation of seismic reflection profiles (Zitellini et al. 2004) and swath bathymetry (Zitellini et al. 2009) allows identification of SW-NE trending crests associated to NW-wards directed thrusts and backthrusts (Terrinha et al. 2003; Cunha et al. 2010; Zitellini et al. 2004), mostly formed during Miocene times.

11.4 The Southwest Iberia Margin (SWIM) Inversion Tectonics

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The SWIM can be subdivided into two domains according to the structural style and geological evolution during the Alpine orogeny (Fig. 11.1): (i) the onshore-offshore Algarve Basin and its western prolongation across the Goringe Bank to the Josephine-Hirondelle Ridge consisting of autochthonous and parautochthonous terrains of an inverted continental rifted margin, and (ii) the Gulf of Cádiz allochthonous units that include the so-called Allochthonous Unit of the Gulf of Cádiz (AUGC), and the Accretionary Wedge of the Gulf of Cádiz (AWGC) (e.g. Torelli et al. 1997; Medialdea et al. 2004; Gutscher et al. 2002; Iribarren et al. 2009; Terrinha et al. 2009).

The divide between these domains is not a single geological structure. To the south of Portugal the divide is the southern boundary of the Algarve Basin, the Guadalquivir Bank and its lateral morphologic prolongation, the Portimão Bank. The Guadalquivir Bank consists of a basement high initially formed as an extensional horst during Mesozoic rifting (Terrinha 1998; Gràcia et al. 2003a). However, it has been reactivated and transported by a south-directed intra-crustal blind thrust as strongly suggested by the northward tilted package of Pliocene-Quaternary sediments observed in the seismic reflection profiles across the northern

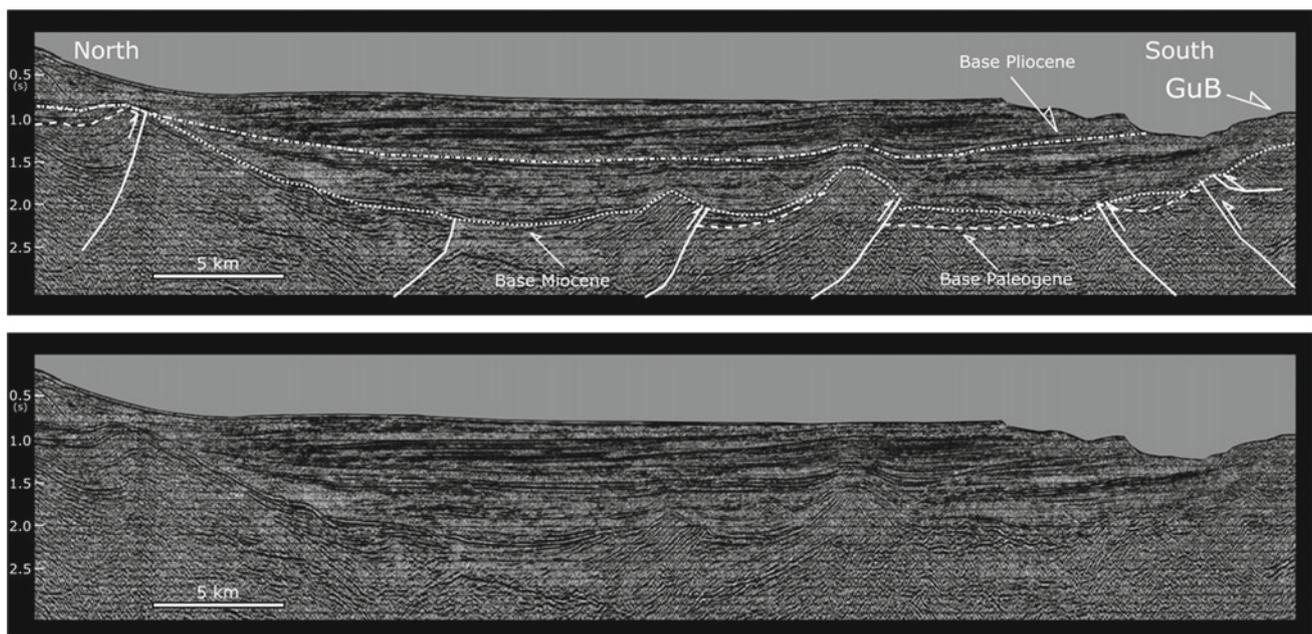


Fig. 11.3 North-South multichannel seismic profile off the Algarve coast, south Portugal, showing a series of southwards directed thin-skinned thrusts and northwards direct basement involving back-thrusts near the Guadalquivir Bank (GuB). For location see inset in Fig. 11.1

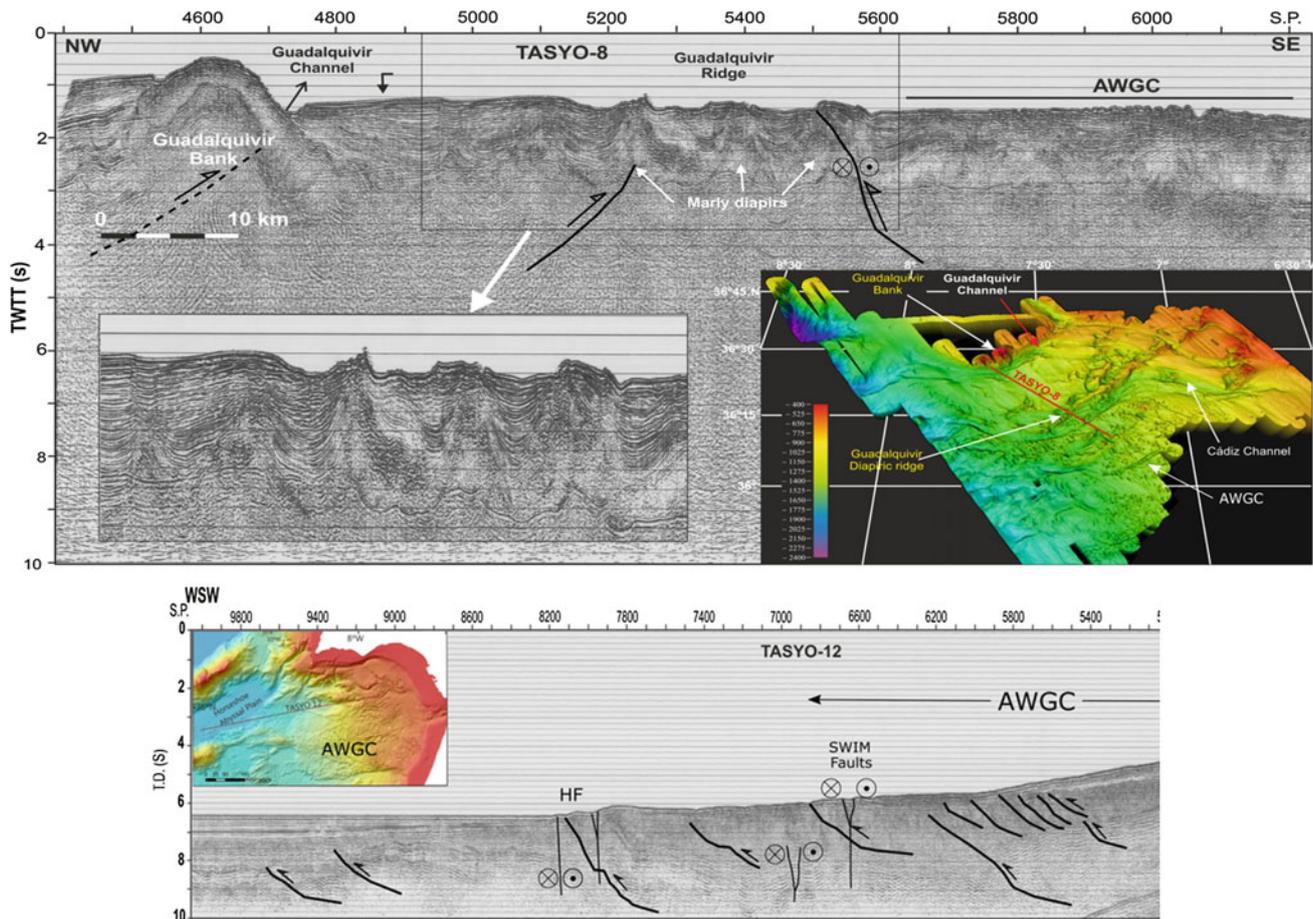


Fig. 11.4 Multichannel seismic profiles in the Gulf of Cádiz (TASYO 8 and 12), adapted from Medialdea et al. (2004). **a** Profile Tasyo 8 cuts approximately perpendicularly to the Algarve Basin, Guadalquivir Diapiric Ridge and Gulf of Cádiz tectonic domains. Note also the tilted Quaternary units on the northern flank of the Guadalquivir Bank and

southwards directed interpreted thrust (from Ramos et al. 2017). **b** Profile Tasyo 12 along dip section of the Gulf of Cádiz, showing main faults within the AWGC, the HF and SWIM faults. For detailed stratigraphic interpretation see Medialdea et al. (2004)

flank of this basement high (Ramos et al. 2017a, Figs. 11.3 and 11.4). Blind north-directed back-thrusts have also been reported in this tilted sedimentary package, adding further evidences for the contractional reactivation of the Guadalquivir Bank. At Present the Guadalquivir Bank sits on top of an elongated seismicity cluster, probably reactivating the deep crustal part of the south-directed thrust (Palano et al. 2015; Custódio et al. 2015) (Figs. 11.1, 11.3 and 11.4a).

To the north of the Guadalquivir Bank the crust was mildly thinned during the Mesozoic rifting (proximal domain) with present day thicknesses of approximately 30 km, near the Triassic-Paleozoic basin boundary, to ~20 km just north of the Guadalquivir Bank (Sallarès et al. 2011). The Guadalquivir and Portimão Banks sit on top of an ENE-WSW oriented uplifted elongate area, the necking domain with crustal thicknesses from 15 to 20 km that separates the proximal domain from the highly extended domain with extremely rotated blocks that marks the

transition to the oceanic crust. These basement uplifts are thus located in the former necking domain (Ramos et al. 2017a), which was intruded by a post-rift ENE-WSW elongated, 80 × 20 km magmatic intrusion of possible Cretaceous age (Neres et al. 2018). South of the continent-ocean transition the basement below the Mesozoic sediments appears to be constituted by at least three geological domains of different origin and compositional affinity. The Seine Abyssal Plain (SAP) and the Gulf of Cádiz (GC) domains, which compose the internal Gulf of Cádiz, are floored by Atlantic-type oceanic crust. The SAP appears to be generated during the first stages of slow seafloor spreading in the NE Central Atlantic in the Early Jurassic. The GC domain originated in the Alpine-Tethys spreading system between Iberia and Africa, coeval to the formation of the SAP and ended just after the North Atlantic continental breakup (Late Jurassic). On the other hand, the Gorringe Bank (GB) domain is mostly made of mantle rocks. It was

generated by mantle exhumation during the first stages of North Atlantic opening. This domain is likely part of the Zone of Exhumed Continental margin (ZECM) that has been identified to constitute the ocean-continent transition along most of the SWIM (Sallarès et al. 2011, 2013; Martínez-Loriente et al. 2014).

11.4.1 The Algarve Basin, Gorringe Bank and Josephine-Hirondelle Ridge

11.4.1.1 Geometry and Kinematics

To the north of the Guadalquivir Bank the geometry of the tectonic inversion of the Algarve Basin has two different styles, (i) thick-skinned thrusting along the northern basin margin, where the Triassic-Hettangian evaporite layer is negligible to absent, and (ii) the area to the south of the Albigre Fault where the Hettangian salt has decoupled the contractional structures in the cover from the basement-involved thrusts underneath. A sub-domain within the latter, in the central part of the offshore Algarve Basin, where an allochthonous salt sheet occurs (the Esperança Salt Nappe) adds further complexity to the thin skinned tectonics in the central part of the offshore Algarve Basin (Fig. 11.1; Matias et al. 2011; Ramos et al. 2016; 2017a, b, c).

The Algarve Basin is bounded to the north by a mountainous relief of Paleozoic basement that overthrusts the basin to the south in some places. However, most of the Alpine deformation was accommodated within the basin where most of the southwards directed extensional faults were inverted. The Triassic-Hettangian salt acted as a décollement horizon both during the extensional deformation and the subsequent Alpine shortening. Contractional deformation during tectonic inversion of the basin was localized in the former developed salt structures that were reactivated and squeezed as evidenced by the geometries imaged in the seismic lines. Depth converted seismic profiles allowed for producing true vertical thickness maps, based on which a new tectonic inversion model was proposed, in which southwards directed basement involved blind thrusts controlled vertical basin uplift and localization of the Paleogene and Neogene depocentres forming an imbricate system of four major thrust (Ramos et al. 2016, 2017a) (Figs. 11.1 and 11.3).

11.4.1.2 Polyphase Tectonic Inversion

Two types of tectonic inversion events have been reported in the Algarve Basin, i) transient events that occurred between rifting phases, and ii) final tectonic inversion.

The transient tectonic inversion episodes are mainly reported from inspection of onshore outcrops and mapping. Well documented shortening structures occur in the lower Pliensbachian, upper Callovian and Uppermost Jurassic as

typical fold and thrust structures are truncated by well dated erosion unconformities. The upper Callovian and Uppermost Jurassic events are associated with two of the main stratigraphic hiatuses in the Algarve Basin, the Mid Jurassic-Upper Jurassic and Upper Jurassic-Lower Cretaceous hiatuses of widespread erosion across the Basin. The sedimentary facies and ammonite record across these unconformities show an abrupt change from deep water to shallow water depositional environments. Extensional tectonics occurred before and after the shortening structures. These transient inversion events accounted for interruption of the Tethyan-Boreal (proto-Atlantic) oceans marine pathways between Africa and Western Eurasia with consequent ecological changes recorded by the marine fauna of ammonites (Terrinha et al. 2002).

The “final tectonic inversion” term is applied to the shortening events that post-date the last rifting phase, contemporaneous with the onshore mountain building of the Pyrenees and Betic orogens. Onshore, the Lower Miocene succession (Burdigalian in age) is shallowly dipping and lies unconformable on top of Mesozoic rocks deformed by thrusts and related folds. The lack of post-Cenomanian through Paleogene sediments does not allow the precise dating of tectonic events during this long time interval. However, a suite of ductile to brittle thrusts, folded basic dykes (dated as 72 Ma old), subsequently fractured within the Loulé salt diapir, indicate progressive exhumation of the basin during this long time interval (Terrinha et al. 1990; Davison et al. 2016).

Structural mapping using marine multichannel reflection seismic profiles allowed production of maps showing contractional structures and unconformities of Late Cretaceous, Paleogene and Early Miocene ages widespread across the basin, clearly showing the poly-phase character of the collision of Iberia with the Eurasia and Africa counterparts (Terrinha 1998; Lopes et al. 2006; Ramos et al. 2017a). The lack of Upper Cretaceous to Lower Neogene sedimentary record (Cenomanian to Burdigalian) onshore and the development of a depocentre of Upper Miocene through Quaternary sediments in the central offshore Algarve Basin support a model of crustal shortening related to south-directed thrusting followed by mountain collapse (Fig. 11.3). This change of kinematics and localization of the tectonic deformation, usually known as the tectonic reactivation of the SWIM and WIM, started in the Late Miocene-Early Pliocene, coincident with the opening of the Strait of Gibraltar, the onset of the Mediterranean Outflow Water, important climate change and dramatic change from carbonate to siliciclastic sedimentation in the continental shelf of the SWIM and WIM.

In the deep offshore, the Gorringe Bank rises 5 km above the Tagus Abyssal Plain by means of a large scale fold and lithospheric scale thrust with an estimated northwestwards

directed movement of about 20 km (Galindo-Zaldívar et al. 2003; Jiménez-Munt et al. 2010; Sallarès et al. 2013) in a short period of time (from the Early to the Middle Miocene; Tortella et al. 1997; Jiménez-Munt et al. 2010).

The ~70 km long Marquês de Pombal N-S striking and easterly dipping fault was interpreted as a Mesozoic extensional fault inverted in Miocene times (Zitellini et al. 1999; Gràcia et al. 2003a; Terrinha et al. 2003). However, Roque (2007) and Pereira and Alves (2013) showed that this reverse fault and contractional deformation in between the Gorrige Bank and the mainland started as early as in Eocene times. This Early Cenozoic uplift generated important localized erosional unconformities and submarine valleys as early precursors of the São Vicente canyon that developed mainly in Pliocene-Quaternary times when the main displacement on the Marquês de Pombal thrust occurred (Roque 2007; Valadares 2012).

The westward prolongation of the Gorrige Bank to the Madeira-Tore Rise forms a prominent ridge, the Hirondele-Josephine seamounts (see Fig. 11.1 for location), also associated with the Alpine orogeny and still active in the Present (e.g. Hayward et al. 1999; Omira et al. 2016).

11.4.2 The Gulf of Cádiz

The area generally known as the Gulf of Cádiz encompasses the region between SW Iberia and NW Africa across which the present day and paleo plate boundaries cut across. The following tectonic-stratigraphic units and faults stand out as the main structures: the Accretionary Wedge of the Gulf of Cádiz (AWGC), the Allochthonous Unit of the Gulf of Cádiz (AUGC) (e.g. Torelli et al. 1997; Medialdea et al. 2004; Gutscher et al. 2002; Gràcia et al. 2003b; Iribarren et al. 2009), the Horseshoe Fault (HF) (Zitellini et al. 2004; Martínez-Loriente et al. 2018), the SWIM Fault system (Terrinha et al. 2009; Zitellini et al. 2009; Bartolomé et al. 2012) and the Coral Patch Ridge Fault system (CPRFS) (Martínez-Loriente et al. 2011, 2013) (Figs. 11.1 and 11.4).

In the early scientific literature the AWGC and the AUGC were merged into one single unit possibly due to lack of data and the similar seismic chaotic signal. However, due to the large amount of academic and industry seismic reflection, seismic refraction and swath bathymetry data acquired since the 90ies, the views on the geodynamics of the Eurasia-Africa plate boundary evolved substantially. The AWGC formed in the footwall of the Gibraltar Arc westward-directed frontal thrust over the oceanic slab of the remnant of the Tethys Ocean. A widespread unconformity of Pliocene age covering the AWGC suggests that most of the thrust stacking occurred before Pliocene times, probably during the Paleogene-Miocene when the Alborán oceanic

crust was being consumed under the western Tethys subduction zone (Gutscher et al. 2002).

The AUGC is a body with a seismic chaotic facies that is located in front of the AWGC and covers most of the Horseshoe Abyssal Plain. This body is believed to be a large olistostrome fed from the pre-Miocene tectonic highs that resulted from early Alpine orogenic events, such as early uplift and thrusting of the Gorrige Bank, the Algarve Basin and the Coral Patch Ridge seamounts (e.g. Torelli et al. 1997; Medialdea et al. 2004; Iribarren et al. 2009).

11.5 Tectonic Reactivation of the SWIM and WIM

Terrinha P, Gràcia E, Hensen Ch, Gutscher MA, Matias L, Pinheiro L, Somoza L, Medialdea T, Sallarès V, Bartolomé R, Martínez-Loriente S, Magalhães V, Rosas F, Duarte J, Neres M, Silva S, Roque C, Neves C, Ribeiro A, Zitellini N

The 1755 Lisbon earthquake destroyed Lisbon (intensity X-XI MSK), was felt as far as in Finland and was accompanied by a tsunami that devastated the SW Iberian and NW African coasts (Baptista et al. 1998; Baptista and Miranda 2009). The existence of large magnitude earthquakes: (Mw > 8.5), estimated magnitude of the 1755 Lisbon earthquake (Johnston, 1996), and M7.9 of the Horseshoe earthquake in 1969 (Fukao 1973) together with moderate frequency and magnitude seismicity in the offshore and onshore of the SWIM, attest for the existence of important compressive tectonics along the SWIM, near the Eurasia-Africa plate boundary.

The recognition of the uplift of the Pliocene marine unconformity to approximately 120 m and of Quaternary marine erosion surfaces to ~55 m above sea level are independent onshore indicators of vigorous neotectonics (Feio 1951). Based on these evidences and on recognition of reverse and strike-slip faulting of Quaternary age in the onshore, Ribeiro and Cabral (1987) and Ribeiro et al. (1996) speculated for the first time on the possibility of the compressive reactivation of the Atlantic passive margin of Iberia and nucleation of a subduction zone, a subject that was re-visited by various authors using state-of-the art data sets of swath bathymetry and reflection seismics (e.g. Terrinha et al. 2009 and Duarte et al. 2013).

In the 90ies various projects sponsored the mapping of the SWIM seafloor searching for seismogenic and tsunami-genic tectonic sources. The first comprehensive bathymetric map of the SWIM was published by Zitellini et al. (2009). From 1999 to Present, a large wealth of geophysical and geological data dedicated to the understanding of tectonic sources were acquired, most of which were summarised by Gutscher et al. (2012). The geophysical data comprehend

mostly seismic reflection and refraction data, ocean bottom seismometers (OBS) recording of seismicity, side-scan sonar and swath bathymetry surveys. Geological data comprehend various types of seafloor sampling including high resolution coring for dating fault movement events (e.g. Gràcia et al. 2010). The exploration data have been complemented by continuous collection of onshore geodetical data. Analogue and numerical modelling allowed for understanding fault interaction mechanisms and to recognize that strike-slip and thrust faults not only allow for deformation partitioning but may also be means of propagating large ruptures caused by large earthquakes (Rosas et al. 2016).

Analog modelling replicated cross cut intersection patterns on the surface of the AWGC suggesting that both westwards directed thrusting and dextral W-E strike-slip faulting are active at Present (Duarte et al. 2011; Rosas et al. 2012). This implies that the oblique collision of Eurasia and Africa is active as well as the subduction process, which is in agreement with the very deep earthquakes, ~ 600 km of depth under the Granada region in southern Spain, although a Benioff surface of seismicity is not observed (Gutscher et al. 2002, 2012; Zitellini et al. 2009).

Numerical neotectonic modelling of the region comprising the plate boundary and intraplate regions of Iberia and North Africa allowed estimating the fault slip and deformation rates, as implied by geodynamic constraints. This modelling also supports that a driving mechanism additional to the lithospheric Africa-Eurasia collision forces must be active in the Alborán domain in order to best fit the present day geodetic, stress and seismicity patterns. This sublithospheric mantle mechanism, induced by dynamic processes of the subducted Gibraltar slab, has its main effect in the westwards movement of an independent Alborán domain, constraining the propagation of stress and strain to the Gulf of Cádiz domain, in particular controlling the kinematics of the Gibraltar related AWGC (Neres et al. 2016).

The reactivation of the SWIM is also testified by the seismic activity (Fig. 11.5). Micro-seismicity studies, based on ocean bottom seismometers temporary networks, showed that hypocenters are mostly in the upper lithospheric mantle and cluster in three areas: Goringe Bank, São Vicente Canyon and along a roughly NW-SE lineament in the Horseshoe Abyssal Plain (Geissler et al. 2010; Silva et al. 2017; Grevemeyer et al. 2016, 2017). These areas are coincident with known fault interference zones that may be replicated at upper mantle depth, as evidenced by the micro-seismicity focal mechanism solutions (Silva et al. 2017). Additionally, these clusters of seismicity are also coincident with the boundaries between different lithospheric domains. The proposed Horseshoe Abyssal plain Thrust (HAT) that separates serpentinized mantle from oceanic crust is a blind fault that can accommodate part of the deep seismicity (Martínez-Loriente et al. 2014). Both geological

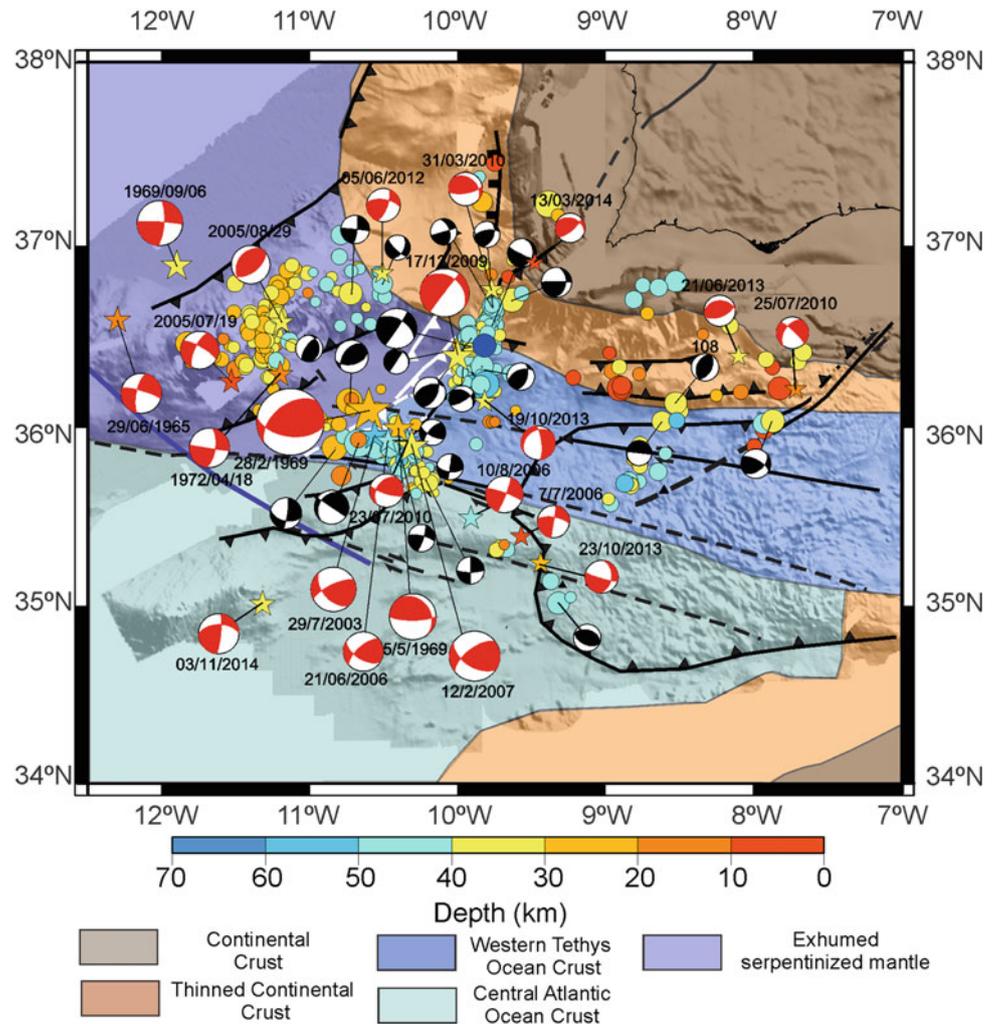
settings (fault interference zones and rheological boundaries) can promote stress and strain localization (Rosas et al. 2012; Martínez-Loriente et al. 2014).

Micro-seismicity and ML ≈ 6 events (e.g. the December 17th, 2009 earthquake in the São Vicente cluster) are located deeper than active crustal faults suggesting that these faults are either locked or moving aseismically. Silva et al. (2017) suggested, based on analysis of OBS data, that the existence of a serpentinized mantle layer in the area (down to ≈ 20 km in depth, e.g., Sallarès et al. 2011, 2013) induces a tectonic decoupling between the crust and the lithospheric upper mantle, inhibiting micro-seismicity above the serpentinized mantle layer. Seismic ruptures may instead propagate up to crustal active thrust faults across the serpentinized mantle layer only during very high-magnitude events.

One of the latest result that came out from the joint analysis from exploration seismic reflection, swath bathymetry data and numerical modelling is that earthquake triggered submarine landslides are capable of generating large tsunamis in the SWIM (e.g. Lo Iacono et al. 2012; Omira et al. 2016 for the Goringe Bank and Hirondele seamount Quaternary landslides, respectively). These landslides are associated both with the important seismicity and the vigorous reliefs of the SWIM. As a matter of fact, the SWIM shows a wide variety of morpho-tectonic domains from which stand out very high submarine mountains rising up to 5 km above the abyssal seafloor (Figs. 11.1 and 11.6, Valadares 2012). These mountainous reliefs result from Quaternary reactivation of thrusts formed during the Alpine Orogeny: the Goringe Bank, the Coral Patch Ridge, the Marquês de Pombal plateau, the Horseshoe Fault anticline, the Guadalquivir Bank, the AWGC and the Príncipe de Avis Mountains (for seismic profiles see Zitellini et al. 1999, 2004; Gràcia et al. 2003a; Terrinha et al. 2003; Martínez-Loriente et al. 2011, 2013, 2018; Gutscher et al. 2012).

The swath bathymetry compilation revealed a combined action between different shaping processes in order to generate the wide variety of the seafloor morphologic features identified (Fig. 11.6). In a broad scale, the SW Iberian margin incorporates part of three abyssal plains (Tagus, Horseshoe and Seine abyssal plains) separated by two submarine linear mountains, the Goringe-Hirondele and the Coral Patch ridges that resulted from Alpine compression. At the center of the Gulf of Cádiz a major arcuate horseshoe shaped and wrinkled seafloor domain is present (the AWGC). The drainage arrangement and submarine sediment transport that accommodates the source to sink sediment transport is processed by three major systems: (i) the Mediterranean Outflow Water (MOW) contourite system that starts on the approaches of the Strait of Gibraltar and extends on the East and North sectors of the Gulf of Cádiz; (ii) the submarine canyons that cut across the continental slope, and (iii) a system of several E-W trending submarine

Fig. 11.5 Earthquakes and focal mechanism solutions ($M_L \geq 3.0$) recorded in the NEAREST OBS network (max $M_L = 4.8$, circles and black compression quadrants) and the fault plane solution for the highest magnitude earthquakes recorded in the land network (stars and red compression quadrants) (Silva 2017; Silva et al. 2017). Full black lines define active faults, dashed lines are inferred or possible active faults, white lines are blind faults and blue line is the PIAB-Paleo Iberia-Africa plate Boundary (Rovere et al. 2004). Lithospheric domains adapted from Martínez-Loriente et al. (2014)



valleys that connect the surroundings of the Gibraltar Strait and Guadalquivir Basin to the Horseshoe Abyssal Plain (Hernandez-Molina et al. 2003, 2016; Terrinha et al. 2009; Roque et al. 2012). These erosive systems that occur in the western part of the SWIM are in concordance with the Pliocene uplift of the continental SWIM. The tectonic plateaus make up another important geomorphological domain. These have a more or less flat top and are uplifted carried on top of reverse faults (cf. with Figs. 11.1 and 11.6).

A significant amount of structures resulting from vertical escape of fluidized sediments like marl and salt diapirs (Fig. 11.4a) and mud volcanoes, ranging from approximately 0.1 km to more than 10 km in diameter, are tectonically controlled (Medialdea et al. 2009) and crop out mainly in the AWGC but also in the Seine and Horseshoe Abyssal Plains (Fig. 11.6). Mud volcanoes (MV), mud diapirs and diapiric ridges, carbonate mounds and pockmarks have been identified in the Gulf of Cádiz. The, so far, more than 60 mud volcanoes confirmed by coring in the Gulf of Cádiz occur in clusters, are cone-shaped edifices ranging from 100

to 3500 m in diameter, which can tower in places up to 500 m above the seabed (Somoza et al. 2003; Magalhães et al. 2012). Edifices are made up of mud flows containing fluids (water, brine, gas, oil) intercalated with hemipelagic sediments. Most mud volcanoes are presently active with evident indications of fluid and gas seepage (degassing structures, H_2S smell related to sulphate reduction driven by anaerobic oxidation of methane) and have chemosynthetic fauna and precipitation of methane-derived authigenic carbonates (e.g. Díaz-del-Río et al. 2003; Pinheiro et al. 2003; Somoza et al. 2003; Van Rensbergen et al. 2005; Magalhães et al. 2012; León et al. 2012; Hensen et al. 2007; Toyos et al. 2016; Scholz et al. 2009, 2010). The largest number of mud volcanoes is found at shallow to intermediate depths close to the Gibraltar arc deformation front and are thought to result from overpressured sediments associated to westward directed thrusts (Somoza et al. 2003). The most important drivers of sediment overpressuring are the transformation of smectite to illite occurring in thick Miocene terrigenous sediments (e.g. Scholz et al. 2010) and the presence of

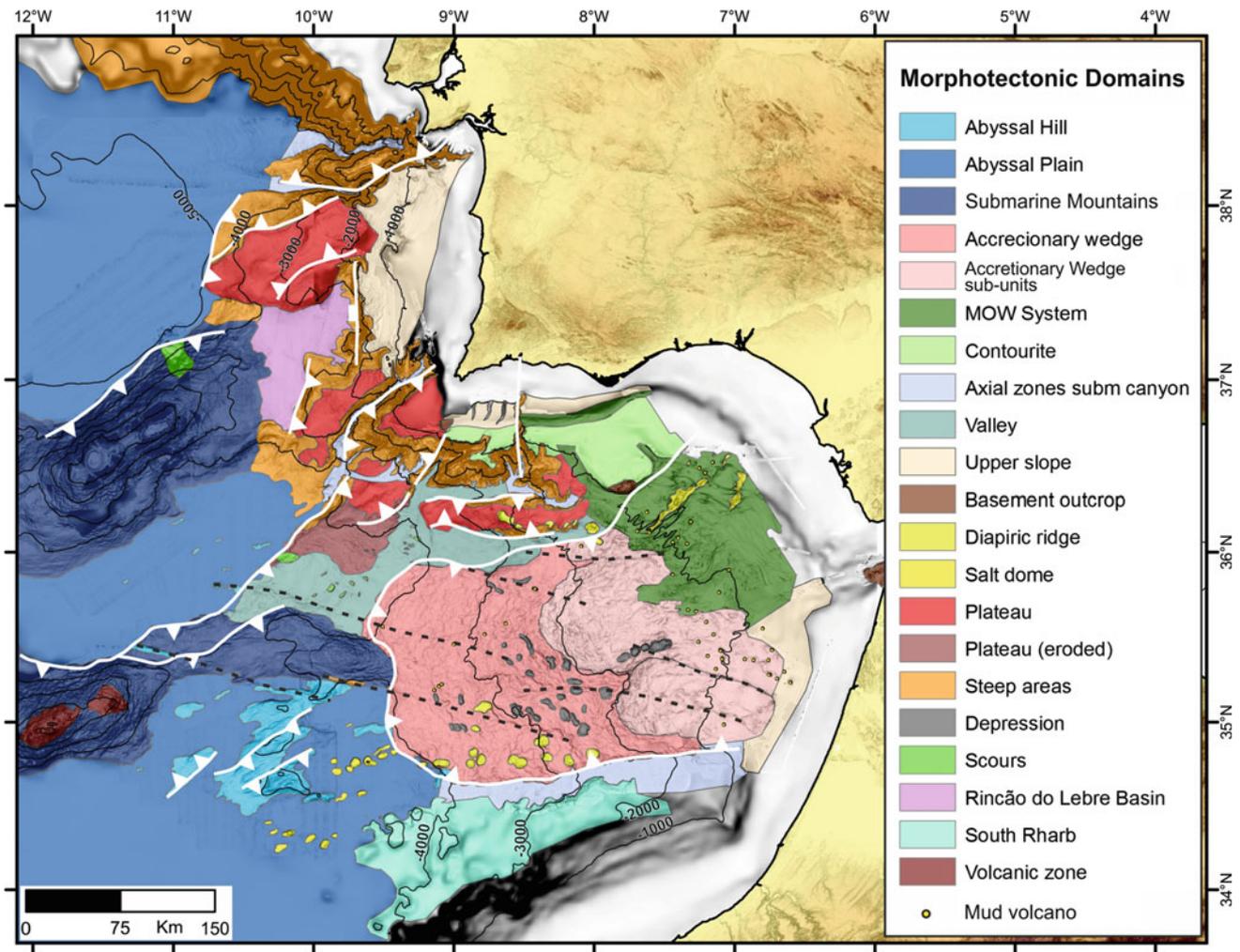


Fig. 11.6 Morphotectonic domains in SW Iberia (modified from Valadares 2012). White lines with triangles, rectangle, no symbol: thrust faults; normal fault, strike-slip fault. Black dotted lines: lineaments corresponding to the SWIM strike-slip faults (see text for description). These lineaments have complex morphologies as they consist of alignments of ridges, troughs, escarpments and in some cases

mud volcanoes. This is the result of deformation from basement to seafloor, fluid migration, gravity collapse and sliding and interference of the SWIM faults with the Horseshoe Fault and AWGC (e.g. Terrinha et al. 2009; Zitellini et al. 2009). Thrust faults in the Seine Abyssal Plain (see Fig. 11.1 for location) result from tectonic shortening of previous rift faults (e.g. Valadares 2012; Martínez-Loriente et al. 2013)

thermogenic gas (Nuzzo et al. 2009). In this area, MV fluids are also strongly influenced by the leaching of Upper Triassic evaporites (Haffert et al. 2013).

Further westwards, on the lower slope and the continental rise (≈ 3000 – 4500 m water depth), the mud volcanoes are clearly associated with the active \sim W-E strike-slip faults (Medialdea et al. 2009) within the Gloria-SWIM plate-boundary system; i.e. the eastern prolongation of the Gloria Fault plate boundary (Scholz et al. 2009; Hensen et al. 2015). A number of mud volcanoes have even been discovered ~ 90 km west of the deformation front of the accretionary wedge of the Gulf of Cádiz, and thus outside their typical geotectonic environment. Geochemical signatures of MV-fluids in this area indicate that these have at least partially interacted with the oceanic basement,

implying the existence of a hydrological connection from the seafloor to the old (Upper Jurassic) oceanic crust along the SWIM strike-slip faults (Hensen et al. 2015).

From this intensive effort on trying to understand the Recent tectonic framework and tectonic sources, the following conclusions can be pointed out: (i) two major plate scale tectonic mechanisms drive deformation in the SWIM, the subduction of a remnant oceanic slab of the westernmost Neo-Tethys Ocean underneath Gibraltar and the dextral transpressive movement along the SWIM Fault system; (ii) various faults and fault systems have been recognized and mapped in the SWIM, from which stand out the AWGC, the Guadalquivir Ridge, the Guadalquivir-Portimão Bank thrust, the Goringe thrust and Hirondele-Josephine Ridge, the HF, the SWIM faults and the CPRF; (iii) the tectonic

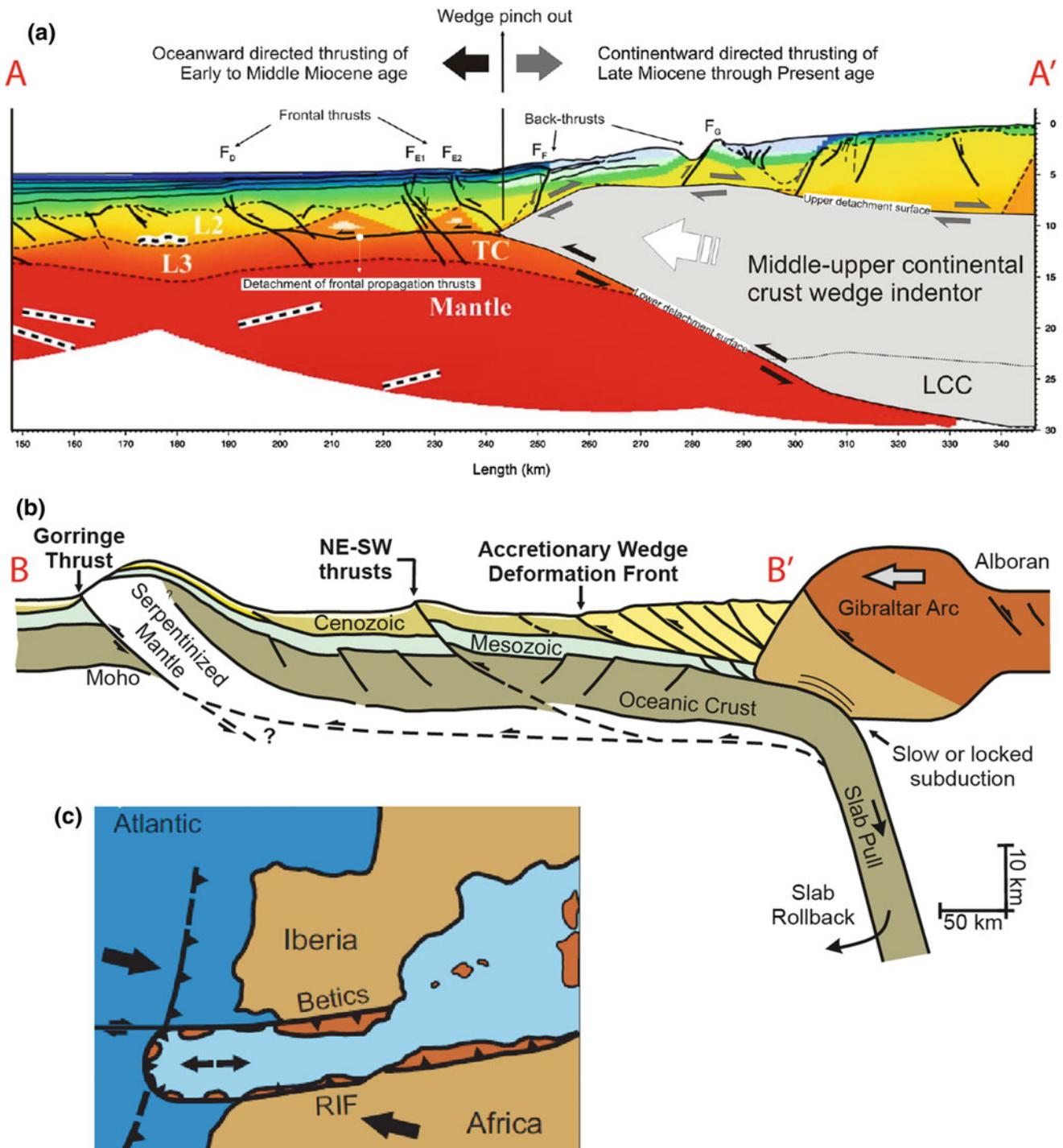


Fig. 11.7 Tectonic driving mechanism off: (a) the WIM and (b) the SWIM. These two speculative deep mechanisms are based on interpretation of images and models obtained from refraction and reflection seismic profiles. In Fig. (a) (adapted from Neves et al. 2009) it is suggested that contraction faults off the WIM detach at a décollement formed during the Mesozoic rifting near the Moho in the

transitional crust and towards the continent. Fig. (b) suggests that roll-back of the Tethyan subducted slab propagates contraction oceanwards towards the inner Atlantic (from Duarte et al. 2013). c Speculative model of interaction of SWIM strike-slip faults, thrust faults and slab roll-back enabling subduction propagation along the WIM

strain is partitioned on thrust and strike-slip faults in the SWIM and its NW Africa counterpart; (iv) micro-seismicity seems to cluster on fault intersections which can be an evidence for seismic strain propagation along interacting large faults, such as the SWIM and HF; (v) convection of seawater from the surface to the basement along the SWIM faults can be a mechanism for further weakening of the oceanic crust that can have consequences on the propagation of the Gibraltar Arc and generation of subduction within this part of the Atlantic; (vi) active faults in the SWIM have the necessary size to generate large to mega-magnitude earthquakes and trigger large landslides, both of which constitute a seismic and tsunami hazard not only for the coasts of the SWIM, WIM and northwest Morocco but also for coasts across the Atlantic.

Recent tectonic deformation in the WIM is also attested using different data, such as, (i) seismic reflection profiles, (ii) geomorphological data, (iii) instrumental seismicity. The Nazaré canyon runs across the deformation belt on the northern boundary of the Estremadura Spur. Both seismo-stratigraphic and instrumental seismicity data are in agreement with recent tectonic deformation and uplift of this region (Figs. 11.1 and 11.2b). A field of pockmarks between 200 and 500 m bsl hosted in Pliocene-Quaternary sediments in the central part of the Estremadura Spur is related with recent deformation as the driving mechanism for fluid expulsion (Duarte et al. 2017).

On the southern part of the Estremadura Spur, the Setúbal and Cascais canyon systems have been very active channels for mass transport processes from the inner shelf to the Tagus Abyssal Plain in the Holocene and it has been suggested that these processes could have been triggered by local earthquakes (Masson et al. 2011; Abrantes et al. 2008; Terrinha et al. 2015). Further north, off Viana de Castelo (lat. 42°N), N-S trending reverse fault scarps of Quaternary age were reported using shallow seismics and video images captured by Remote Operated Vehicles (Rodrigues 2011).

South of the Estremadura Spur on the eastern flank of the Tagus Abyssal Plain, Quaternary tectonic deformation of hemipelagic-sediments and contourites was reported by Neves et al. (2007). Interpretation of seismic refraction data, numerical modelling and deformed MOW deposits of Pliocene-Quaternary age suggests that deformation is driven by impingement of an indenter of a mid-crustal domain inverting a detachment fault formed during the Mesozoic rifting (Fig. 11.7a). Thrusting of the Principes de Avis plateau over the Tagus Abyssal Plain and uplift of the inner continental slope with widespread mass transport processes has been documented (Terrinha et al. 2003; Cunha et al. 2010; Teixeira et al. 2017).

The interaction of the approximately W-E trending SWIM strike-slip faults with the NE-SW striking thrust faults, mantle serpentinization and oceanic slab roll-back has

led researchers to speculate on the possibility of initiation of subduction off the WIM (e.g. Ribeiro et al. 1996; Duarte et al. 2013). Two tectonic processes are schematically shown in Fig. 11.7a, b, as speculative driving deformation mechanisms for contraction deformation in the SWIM and WIM (adapted from Neves et al. 2009 and Duarte et al. 2013, respectively). The speculative scenario of subduction propagation in a near geologic future is shown in Fig. 11.7c (adapted from Duarte et al. 2013).

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