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Nailing down the slip rate of the Altyn Tagh fault

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[1] Previous estimates of the geodetic and geologic slip rates of the 1500 km long Altyn Tagh fault bordering the northern edge of the Tibetan plateau vary by a factor of five. Proposed reasons for these discrepancies include poor GPS geometry, interpretative errors in terrace morphology, and changes in fault slip rate over time. Here we present results from a new dense GPS array orthogonal to the fault at $\sim 86.2^\circ\text{E}$ that indicates a velocity of $9.0^{+3.2}_{-4.4}$ mm/yr, in close agreement with geomorphologic estimates at the same location. Our estimated geodetic slip rate is consistent with recent geological slip rates based on terrace offsets. The resulting mean combined geological and geodetic slip rate (9.0 ± 4.0 mm/yr) is remarkably uniform for the central ~ 800 km of the Altyn Tagh fault, significantly lower than early kinematic estimates and consistent with deformation elsewhere in Tibet and central Asia. **Citation:** He, J., P. Vernant, J. Chéry, W. Wang, S. Lu, W. Ku, W. Xia, and R. Bilham (2013), Nailing down the slip rate of the Altyn Tagh fault, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 40, 5382–5386, doi:10.1002/2013GL057497.

1. Introduction

[2] The slip rate of the Altyn Tagh fault (Figure 1a) is central to kinematic description of the Himalayan collision process from India to Mongolia [Molnar and Tapponnier, 1975; Avouac and Tapponnier, 1993; Houseman and England, 1993; Peltzer and Saucier, 1996; England and Molnar, 1997; Tapponnier et al., 2001; Gold et al., 2009], yet despite its prominent morphological expression, considerable debate has attended quantifying its velocity [Peltzer et al., 1989; Bendick et al., 2000; Mériaux et al., 2004; Zhang et al., 2004; Mériaux et al., 2005; Cowgill, 2007; Zhang et al., 2007; Mériaux et al., 2012]. This is partly due to disagreements in interpretations of the age and offset of geological markers, and partly due to internal deformation within Tibet that adds uncertainty to geodetic interpretations of slip rate using GPS methods. Attempts to reconcile reported velocities include the possibility that changes of rate have

occurred over the past several thousands of years [Washburn et al., 2001; Wallace et al., 2004], or that possible spatial variations in elastic loading and fault friction exist [Chéry and Vernant, 2006]. The highest estimates of velocity (~ 30 mm/yr) [Peltzer et al., 1989; Mériaux et al., 2004] would accommodate more Indo-Asian convergence than the Himalaya [Lavé and Avouac, 2000], leaving negligible convergence to explain deformation within Tibet and NE Asia. In contrast, the lowest estimates (~ 6 mm/yr) [Zhang et al., 2004; Meade, 2007] would require higher slip rates on some faults within the Tibetan plateau (such as the Karakorum-Jiali fault) than is observed [Chen et al., 2004]. Geodetic measurements indicating that the Altyn Tagh fault slips at ~ 10 mm/yr [Bendick et al., 2000; Wallace et al., 2004; Shen et al., 2001] have been used to support continuum deformation of the Tibetan plateau [Zhang et al., 2004; Houseman and England, 1993; England and Molnar, 1997; England and Molnar, 2005], or block like deformation [Meade, 2007; Thatcher, 2007], however, geodetic measurements across the fault have not been measured in the same places as geologic slip rates. Moreover, due to the difficulty in accessing this remote region, previous GPS measurements crossing the northern edge of the Tibetan plateau are sparse and have spanned ~ 300 km [Bendick et al., 2000] to ~ 1000 km [Shen et al., 2001] along strike, possibly sampling differences in slip rate [Mériaux et al., 2004; Mériaux et al., 2005].

[3] The highest published geological slip rate (26.9 ± 6.9 mm/yr) [Mériaux et al., 2004] has been reported from longitude 86.4°E where detailed measurements of riser offsets of different geomorphic terraces, using radiocarbon and ^{10}Be - ^{26}Al cosmic ray exposure dating of the offset terraces, have provided a millennial slip rate for the fault [Mériaux et al., 2004; Mériaux et al., 2005; Cowgill, 2007; Gold et al., 2009; Xu et al., 2005]. In order to compare geodetic and geologic slip rate estimates, we have established a GPS profile as close as possible to the site of Mériaux et al. [2004].

2. Data

[4] In 2009, we established a 400 km long GPS profile perpendicular to the Altyn Tagh fault crossing the fault at $\sim 86.2^\circ\text{E}$ (Figure 1b). Seventeen GPS benchmarks with forced antenna centering and an average spacing of 10–20 km were measured 2–3 times between 2009 and 2011, using Trimble NetRS receivers with Zephyr antennae. Observation times for all sites exceeded 48 h during each survey. The GPS data were processed with GAMIT/GLOBK software [Herring et al., 2010] and rotated from the International Terrestrial Reference Frame 2008 (ITRF2008) to a Tarim reference frame by minimizing the velocities of the sites AT12, AT13, and AT16 (Figure 1b). Following Reilinger et al. [2006], we use the “real sigma” algorithm to account for the correlated errors in the time series by calculating a unique noise model for each

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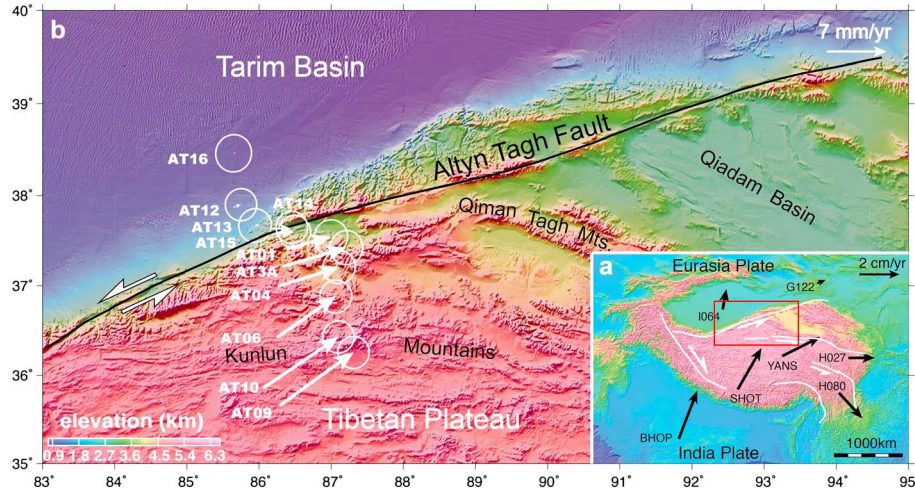


Figure 1. Tectonic setting of the Altyn Tagh fault superimposed on relief map. (a) A simplified view of strike-slip faults around the Tibetan plateau and their deformation sense associated with the current GPS velocity field relative to Eurasia [Zhang *et al.*, 2004]. Red squared region is the location of Figure 1b. (b) Detailed topographic map around the central portion of the Altyn Tagh fault and GPS velocities relative to the Tarim basin with uncertainties plotted at 95% confidence level.

continuous GPS station. Since our sites are only measured episodically, we use the average value of correlated noise model values determined for 320 continuous GPS stations globally distributed with time series spans ranging from 2.5 to 17 years. Hence, we apply a $1\text{-mm}/\sqrt{\text{yr}}$ random walk stochastic noise to the survey GPS horizontal time series estimates. One sigma velocity uncertainties are $\leq 0.9\text{ mm/yr}$ (Table 1). The surface active fault is located 200 m north of the point AT15 (Figure 1b).

[5] In Figure 2a, we show GPS velocities and topography plotted orthogonal to the fault at 86.18°N and 37.58°E . If outliers are ignored, the data indicate that shear strain caused by slip of the fault at depth is concentrated within a 60 km zone, centered some 15 km south of the surface fault (Figure 2b). Post-seismic signals of the 1999 M_w 7.9 Manyi earthquake may perturb our southernmost two GPS stations, that are $< 100\text{ km}$ from its surface rupture, but interferometric synthetic aperture radar (InSAR) measurements show that

Table 1. GPS Site Velocities and 1σ Uncertainties^a

| Site | Lon. ($^\circ\text{N}$) | Lat. ($^\circ\text{E}$) | $V_{E(\text{TARIM})}$ (mm/yr) | $V_{N(\text{TARIM})}$ (mm/yr) | $V_{E(\text{ITRF08})}$ (mm/yr) | $V_{N(\text{ITRF08})}$ (mm/yr) | σ_E (mm/yr) | σ_N (mm/yr) | Corr. |
|-------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------|
| AT01 | 86.380 | 37.413 | 5.48 | 1.44 | 32.09 | 11.70 | 0.84 | 0.87 | 0.021 |
| AT02 | 86.327 | 37.336 | 7.38 | 1.59 | 33.93 | 11.91 | 0.82 | 0.84 | 0.017 |
| AT03A | 86.333 | 37.213 | 7.81 | 2.36 | 34.26 | 12.67 | 0.83 | 0.86 | 0.011 |
| AT03 | 86.309 | 37.232 | 10.61 | 1.81 | 37.07 | 12.14 | 0.79 | 0.81 | 0.008 |
| AT04 | 86.264 | 36.994 | 7.52 | 2.37 | 33.80 | 12.76 | 0.81 | 0.83 | 0.013 |
| AT05 | 86.317 | 36.575 | 3.45 | 1.30 | 29.40 | 11.68 | 0.84 | 0.86 | 0.022 |
| AT06 | 86.250 | 36.428 | 7.24 | 5.02 | 33.06 | 15.46 | 0.80 | 0.82 | 0.013 |
| AT07 | 86.056 | 36.253 | 5.74 | 5.41 | 31.41 | 16.04 | 0.79 | 0.81 | 0.011 |
| AT08 | 86.119 | 36.026 | 8.94 | 2.45 | 34.43 | 13.04 | 0.79 | 0.81 | 0.007 |
| AT09 | 86.283 | 35.657 | 9.13 | 6.58 | 34.34 | 17.05 | 0.79 | 0.81 | 0.003 |
| AT10 | 86.056 | 35.853 | 9.29 | 6.35 | 34.65 | 17.01 | 0.79 | 0.81 | 0.007 |
| AT11 | 86.292 | 35.376 | 3.85 | 5.36 | 28.83 | 15.84 | 0.81 | 0.83 | 0.009 |
| AT12 ^b | 85.646 | 37.871 | 0.93 | 0.31 | 27.86 | 11.21 | 0.79 | 0.81 | 0.005 |
| AT13 ^b | 86.011 | 37.681 | -0.59 | -0.14 | 26.21 | 10.44 | 0.82 | 0.85 | 0.005 |
| AT14 | 86.167 | 37.620 | 2.53 | 0.08 | 29.30 | 10.53 | 0.81 | 0.84 | 0.004 |
| AT15 | 86.176 | 37.581 | 2.81 | 0.19 | 29.55 | 10.63 | 0.81 | 0.84 | 0.002 |
| AT16 ^b | 85.677 | 38.466 | -0.26 | -0.08 | 27.14 | 10.77 | 0.90 | 0.94 | 0.025 |
| BJFS | 115.892 | 39.609 | 8.03 | 6.61 | 33.02 | -11.53 | 0.50 | 0.61 | 0.209 |
| GUAO | 87.177 | 43.471 | 0.58 | -2.83 | 32.00 | 6.40 | 0.57 | 0.74 | -0.030 |
| HYDE | 78.551 | 17.417 | 29.59 | 15.86 | 40.21 | 34.59 | 0.52 | 0.52 | -0.072 |
| IISC | 77.570 | 13.021 | 34.78 | 14.90 | 42.14 | 34.90 | 1.26 | 0.81 | 0.091 |
| IRKT | 104.316 | 52.219 | -13.97 | 0.61 | 23.99 | -7.19 | 0.53 | 0.55 | -0.050 |
| KIT3 | 66.885 | 39.135 | 0.14 | -21.05 | 24.38 | 5.64 | 0.58 | 0.86 | -0.108 |
| LHAZ | 91.104 | 29.657 | 27.01 | 11.94 | 47.29 | 18.58 | 1.57 | 0.67 | -0.031 |
| POL2 | 74.694 | 42.680 | -2.85 | -16.05 | 25.93 | 4.38 | 0.53 | 0.86 | -0.096 |
| SELE | 77.017 | 43.179 | -1.86 | -13.74 | 27.80 | 4.69 | 0.53 | 0.59 | -0.119 |
| TASH | 69.296 | 41.328 | 5.52 | -24.17 | 31.92 | 0.68 | 0.53 | 0.95 | -0.126 |
| ULAB | 107.052 | 47.865 | -4.95 | 1.22 | 29.14 | -9.09 | 0.59 | 0.80 | -0.005 |
| URUM | 87.601 | 43.808 | 0.26 | -3.55 | 31.97 | 5.27 | 0.60 | 0.95 | -0.018 |
| XIAN | 109.222 | 34.369 | 31.86 | -17.87 | 53.92 | -28.93 | 0.84 | 0.89 | 0.036 |

^aLongitude (Lon.) and latitude (Lat.) are given in degrees east and north, respectively. Velocities and uncertainties are given in $\text{mm}\cdot\text{yr}^{-1}$.

^bThe Tarim reference frame is determined by minimizing the horizontal velocities of the three sites on the stable Tarim block (AT12, AT13, and AT16).

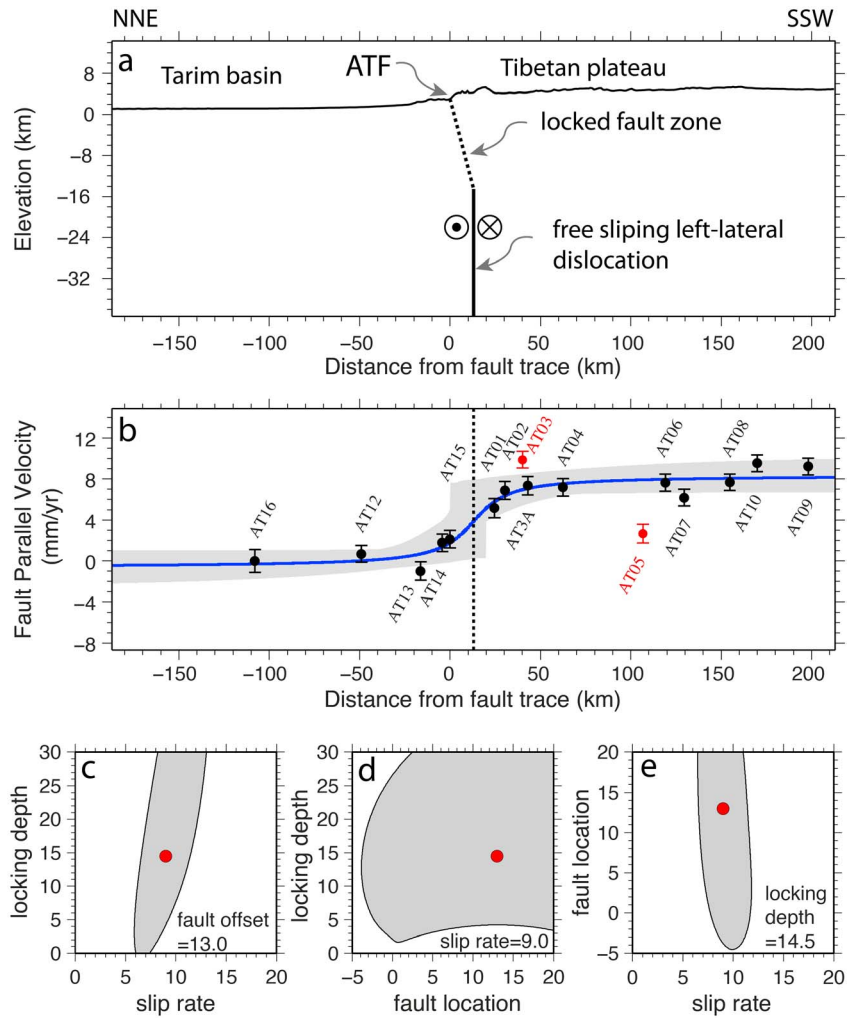


Figure 2. Sections along the azimuth of 155° across the Altyn Tagh fault at 86.176°E , 37.581°N . (a) Topographic variation normal to the Altyn Tagh fault along the profile and interseismic deformation model of the Altyn Tagh fault, assuming that the fault is a vertical plane creeping at uniform rate below an elastic half space. (b) Fault-parallel velocity component of the GPS measurements. Error bars represent 1σ uncertainty of the GPS velocities relative to Tarim basin, best fit model using an elastic dislocation (blue dotted line), and all the possible models based on the uncertainties (95% confidence, light grey area). (c) Uncertainties for locking depth versus strike-slip rate for the best dislocation offset of 13 km. (d) Uncertainties for locking depth versus dislocation offset for the best strike-slip rate of 9 mm/yr. (e) Uncertainties for dislocation offset versus strike-slip rate for the best locking depth of 14.5 km.

most post-seismic deformation is within ~ 20 km of the surface rupture and that the surface displacement following the earthquake obeys an exponential decay with time [Ryder *et al.*, 2007]. Hence, the Manyi earthquake postseismic signal contributes little ($<1\%$) to the interpretation of the Altyn Tagh shear signal. By assuming that the overall velocity field is related to steady state creep of the Altyn Tagh fault below its locking depth (Figure 2a), we can use elastic dislocation theory [Savage and Burford, 1973] to calculate fault slip rate and locking depth.

3. Results and Discussion

[6] The best fitting solution is obtained with a strike-slip rate of 9.0 mm/yr, a locking depth of 14.5 km, and a dislocation offset 13 km south of the surface fault (Figure 2b). We use the F-ratio test designed by DeMets [1992] specifically to compare the fit of the two Euler poles to a set of directional

data. In this study, we compare the fit of the fault parameters obtained with a forward model to a set of GPS velocity vectors. Using a 95% confidence level as the cutoff for significant differences, the uncertainty on the slip rate is -3.2 and $+4.4$ mm/yr. We note that our strike-slip-velocity estimate is independent of the locking depth or offset, which are poorly constrained (Figures 2c–2e). The apparent asymmetry of the shear strain relative to the surface fault (Figures 2a and 2b) is intriguing and is similar to results reported from InSAR measurements ~ 150 km west [Elliott *et al.*, 2008] and ~ 800 km east [Jolivet *et al.*, 2008] of our profile. Several mechanisms can explain the asymmetry of the interseismic velocity: rheological contrast on two sides of the Altyn Tagh fault, a variation of the elastic crustal thickness [Jolivet *et al.*, 2008], or a southerly dip to the fault. An insignificant step in velocity can be discerned between sites AT04 and AT10, which span the approximate western projection of the Kunlun fault [Tapponnier *et al.*, 2001]. If sites south of AT04 are omitted

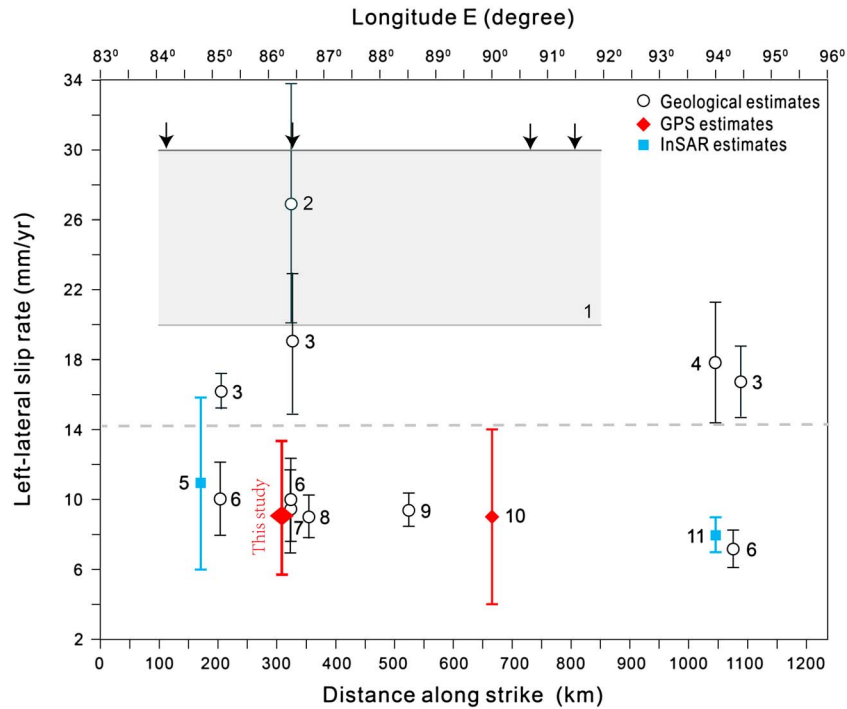


Figure 3. Geologic (black), InSAR (blue), and geodetic slip rates (red) estimated along the Altyn Tagh fault. Error bar represents 1σ uncertainty. The five published geologic slip rates above the dashed line were assumed that the riser offset corresponds to the age of the lower terrace abandonment [Mériaux *et al.*, 2004; Mériaux *et al.*, 2005; Xu *et al.*, 2005]. The six published geologic slip rates below the dashed line were assumed that the riser offsets correspond to age of abandonment of the higher terrace [Cowgill, 2007; Zhang *et al.*, 2007; Cowgill *et al.*, 2009; Gold *et al.*, 2009]. Slip rates in the shaded area assumed that the fault offsets (at arrowed places) were formed $\sim 10 \pm 2$ ka ago [Peltzer *et al.*, 1989]; to bring them into line with the revised velocity for the fault (~ 9 mm/yr), the assumed age would need to be considerably older. Data are from (1) Peltzer *et al.* [1989], (2) Mériaux *et al.* [2004], (3) Xu *et al.* [2005], (4) Mériaux *et al.* [2005], (5) Elliott *et al.* [2008], (6) Zhang *et al.* [2007], (7) Cowgill [2007]; (8) Gold *et al.* [2009], (9) Cowgill *et al.* [2009], (10) Bendick *et al.* [2000], and (11) Jolivet *et al.* [2008].

from our solution, a value of $7.9^{+2.7}_{-3.4}$ mm/yr is obtained for the Altyn Tagh fault, within the uncertainty obtained from the best fitting solution using all the data.

[7] We note that our slip rate ($9.0^{+3.2}_{-4.4}$ mm/yr) is in good agreement with the 9.4 ± 2.3 mm/yr slip rate estimated 25 km east of our profile [Cowgill, 2007], where offsets of fluvial terraces were previously interpreted to signify a slip rate of 26.9 ± 6.9 mm/yr [Mériaux *et al.*, 2004]. The low geological rate [Cowgill, 2007; Zhang *et al.*, 2007] assumes that offset started immediately after the abandonment of the upper terraces, whereas the high rate [Mériaux *et al.*, 2004; Mériaux *et al.*, 2005; Xu *et al.*, 2005] follows from assuming that offset of fluvial terrace risers corresponds to the time of the abandonment of the lower terrace, an interpretation that we now suggest may be discarded. Thus, if we apply a similar interpretation to offset terraces in other locations along the fault where high rates have been reported [Cowgill, 2007; Gold *et al.*, 2009; Cowgill *et al.*, 2009], we find that rates estimated by correlating the riser offsets to the time of upper terrace abandonment are comparable to the geodetic slip rates estimated from InSAR and GPS measurements (Figure 3). The resulting conformity between geodetic and revised geologic slip rates leads us to conclude that all the slip rate estimates of the Altyn Tagh fault [Bendick *et al.*, 2000; Mériaux *et al.*, 2004; Wallace *et al.*, 2004; Zhang *et al.*, 2004; Mériaux *et al.*, 2005; Cowgill, 2007; Zhang *et al.*, 2007; Elliott *et al.*, 2008; Jolivet *et al.*, 2008; Cowgill *et al.*, 2009] can be reconciled

with an almost uniform slip rate of ~ 9 mm/yr along much of the fault.

4. Conclusions

[8] When combined with previous GPS estimates [Bendick *et al.*, 2000; Wallace *et al.*, 2004; Zhang *et al.*, 2004], our new results suggest a remarkably uniform slip rate of ~ 9 mm/yr along the central ~ 800 km between 85°E and 94°E of the Altyn Tagh fault. At the eastern end of the fault near the Qilian Shan, the slip rate decreases from ~ 10 mm/yr to ~ 1.6 mm/yr [Gan *et al.*, 2007]. The uniform slip relative to the rigid Tarim Basin to the north suggests that negligible deformation is accommodated by the Qiman Tagh Mountains and the western Qiadam basin (Figure 1b). An inferred Indo-Asian convergence direction of $\text{N}11^\circ\text{E}$ [Zhang *et al.*, 2004] near the central Altyn Tagh indicates that the fault absorbs approximately 5 mm/yr of the 37 mm/yr overall convergence. Approximately, 30–50% of the Indo-Asian convergence is absorbed across the Himalaya [Chen *et al.*, 2004; Zhang *et al.*, 2004], leaving a significant amount of Indo-Asia convergence to be accommodated by contraction of the Tibetan Plateau [Houseman and England, 1993; Zhang *et al.*, 2004] and by deformation in northeast Asia [Calais *et al.*, 2003]. Therefore, our apparent uniform slip rate suggests that the surface carapace of the northern Tibetan plateau moves coherently, consistent with block-like motion of the plateau [Meade, 2007; Thatcher, 2007].

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