

The shaping of a volcanic ridge in a tectonically active setting: The Pico-Faial Ridge in the Azores Triple Junction

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Fernando Ornelas Marques, João Catalão, Christian Hübscher, Ana Cristina Goulart Costa, A. Hildenbrand, et al.. The shaping of a volcanic ridge in a tectonically active setting: The Pico-Faial Ridge in the Azores Triple Junction. Geomorphology, 2021, 378, pp.107612. 10.1016/j.geomorph.2021.107612. hal-03398817

HAL Id: hal-03398817 https://hal.science/hal-03398817

Submitted on 23 Oct 2021

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21 Abstract

The Pico-Faial ridge is a steep WNW-ESE volcanic ridge that has developed within the 22 Nubia-Eurasia diffuse plate boundary, close to the Azores Triple Junction. The ridge comprises 23 two islands, Pico and Faial, separated by a shallow (< 100 m depth) and narrow (< 8 km) 24 channel. Despite some similarities, the two islands show contrasting features still deserving 25 explanation: (1) meaning of GPS data; (2) meaning of palaeomagnetic data; (3) the island-scale 26 Faial Graben does not have a counterpart in Pico; (4) both islands comprise a main central 27 volcano each, but the one in Faial is symmetrical and the one in Pico is asymmetrical; (5) Pico 28 shows evidence of at least two large-scale flank collapses, but none has been recognized so far in 29 Faial. The new data reported here lead to the following probable answers: (1) the GPS data show 30 31 much larger vertical and horizontal ground motions in Faial, which could be the result of recent volcanism and tectonics; (2) the cyclicity inferred from the paleomagnetic data in Pico could be 32 related to inflation/deflation cycles that could have triggered the inferred flank collapses; (3) the 33 Faial Graben ends abruptly at the eastern edge of the island, which we interpret as inhibited 34 propagation to the east because of the load and stresses imposed by the nearby large Pico 35 Volcano; (4) we attribute the asymmetry of the Pico Volcano to partial flank collapse 36 recognizable in new offshore seismic profiles; (5) either the Faial island is actually 37 38 gravitationally more stable, or there have been flank collapses not yet recognized. All these processes have concurred to shape the two islands and the ridge to their current morphology, but 39 the current morphologies of Pico and Faial result mainly from three of these processes: 40 volcanism, tectonics and large-scale landslides. 41 42 Keywords: Pico-Faial volcanic ridge; Azores Triple Junction; GPS ground motion; marine 43

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 44 geophysical data; tectonics; large-scale flank collapse

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46 1. Introduction

47 Volcanic ocean islands start as submarine seamounts that typically keep their conical or ridge-like morphology until the volcanic edifice reaches sea surface. During this seamount stage, 48 the morphology of the volcanic edifice is mostly controlled by the volcanic activity and tectonics, 49 unless gravitational instability leads to large-scale flank collapses. From the moment the seamount 50 emerges (island stage), its morphology is controlled by several processes: volcanism (magma type, 51 eruption type, output frequency and volume), erosion (small-scale - marine, meteoric and 52 land/rock slides, and large-scale – flank collapses), tectonics (faults and earthquakes), isostasy 53 (vertical island movements, depending mostly on loading/unloading and underplating), and 54 eustasy (sea level changes). As a case study, we use the steep WNW-ESE Pico-Faial ridge that has 55 developed within the Nubia-Eurasia diffuse plate boundary, because in such a geological setting 56 57 tectonics add to volcanism in controlling the morphology of the islands. We conclude that the current morphologies of Pico and Faial result from three main processes: volcanism, tectonics and 58 large-scale landslides. 59

The main motivation for this study is twofold: (1) to discern the main processes that concur 60 to shape a volcanic island to its current morphology, and (2) understand why two islands so close 61 to each other, making up the emerged portions of the same ridge, are morphologically so different. 62 One is long and narrow, and the other more equidimensional; one is 2/3 made of fissural volcanism 63 64 and 1/3 central volcanism, and the other is mostly dominated by a central volcano; one shows very little effects of tectonics (few and minor faults), and the other is dominated by an impressive island 65 scale graben; one shows conspicuous signs of large-scale landsliding, and the other seems to be 66 gravitationally stable, at least since 500 ka; one is the youngest in the Azores, and the other is five 67 times older and the second oldest in the Azores Central Group; one was built by effusive volcanism 68 but has the tallest volcano in the Azores, and the other has explosive volcanism (island blanketed 69 with pumice) with a collapse caldera. 70

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All the methods, results and processes presented and discussed in this work concur towards

a better understanding of the shaping of the ridge and islands on top of it. Geomorphology – the 72 analysis and interpretation of digital elevation models (DEMs) representing the current topography 73 helps with finding the main features that characterize each island; GPS - shows the current ground 74 motion and how the islands are being deformed, and thus how it affects their shape; Marine 75 Geophysics - the acquired data greatly helps in the recognition of large-scale landslides that 76 rapidly and periodically shape the islands; Palaeomagnetism – it was first used in Silva et al. (2018) 77 to analyse large-scale rotations within the two islands, and is here further used to help understand 78 the shaping of the islands and the possible triggers of the recognised large-scale landslides that 79 have shaped Pico; Geochemistry - helps to understand the differences in eruption style and, 80 81 therefore, the morphological differences related to different types of eruption; Structural Geology, 82 Tectonics and seismics – critical to the understanding of the position of volcanic vents, shape of eruption edifices, and overall shape of the ridge. 83

The Central Azores Group comprises the islands of Graciosa, Terceira, S. Jorge, Faial and Pico (Fig. 1), which formed during the last 2 Ma on top of an older oceanic crust (e.g. Calvert et al., 2007; Hildenbrand et al., 2008, 2012a; Sibrant et al., 2014; Costa et al., 2014, 2015; Marques et al., 2018). The Azores islands are volcanically active, except for Santa Maria Island, which is the oldest (Sibrant et al., 2015a; Ramalho et al., 2017; Marques et al., 2020). The most recent subaerial volcanism in the islands occurred in Faial, the Capelinhos eruption in 1957–1958 (Machado et al., 1959, 1962; Zbyszewski and Veiga Ferreira, 1959).

The origin of the volcanism is still controversial: volatile-rich plume (e.g. Schilling et al., 1980; Bonatti, 1990; Métrich et al., 2014), or thermal mantle plume (e.g. Silveira et al., 2006; Gente et al., 2003; Madureira et al., 2005, 2011, 2014; Yang et al., 2006; Beier et al., 2010, 2012; Béguelin et al., 2017). Whatever the type of plume, the regional deformation seems to have controlled the distribution of the main volcanic outputs, with the formation of volcanic ridges striking along azimuth N110° in the diffuse boundary between the Eurasia and Nubia lithospheric plates, and isolated islands inside the sinusoidal Terceira Rift (e.g. Borges et al., 2007; Marques et al., 2013, 2014a; Miranda et al., 2014; Hildenbrand et al., 2014; Marques et al., 2015) (Fig. 1a).
The deformation in this diffuse plate boundary is mostly accommodated by several extensional structures trending WNW-ESE in a ca. 100 km wide area (Marques et al., 2013), which are from NE to SW (Fig. 1B): (1) the sinusoidal Terceira Rift, (2) the S. Jorge graben (Lourenço, 2007; Marques et al., 2018), (3) the S. Jorge-Pico/Faial horst, and (4) the Pico/Faial half-graben.
While the S. Jorge volcanic ridge developed apparently inside a graben, the S. Jorge

Graben, the Pico-Faial ridge developed in great part on the master fault bounding the Faial/Pico
half-graben in the north (Fig. 1). The sub-aerial growth of this ridge started ca. 850 ka ago in
Faial (Hildenbrand et al., 2012a), which evolved by short periods of voluminous volcanic
construction intercalated with longer periods of major erosion. The youngest mafic magmas (<11
ka) on Faial have exclusively erupted along single rift zones and cover a smaller area, whereas
the older volcanism was more widespread (Romer et al., 2018).

Sub-aerial Pico seems to be much younger than Faial (< 200 ka; Costa et al., 2014, 2015), and large-scale slumping and flank collapses have been recognised in both northern and southern flanks of the island (Hildenbrand et al., 2012b; Costa et al., 2014, 2015). The evolution of the steep Pico-Faial ridge appears intimately related to tectonic deformation, which may in part control the volcanic growth and repeated episodes of flank collapse (Woodhall, 1974; Costa et al., 2014, 2015) or large-scale slumping (Hildenbrand et al., 2012b).



Figure 1. (A) Location of the Azores archipelago on the diffuse boundary between the North 117 America (NA), Eurasia (Eu) and Nubia (Nu) plates. Main active structures represented as thick 118 white lines (Mid-Atlantic Ridge – MAR, Terceira Rift – TR); southern limit of the diffuse Nu-Eu 119 plate boundary represented by dashed white line; and inactive structure as dotted white line 120 (East Azores Fracture Zone – EAFZ).(B) 3-D surface (viewed from NW and lighting from E) of 121 the sector that includes the WNW-ESE Pico (Pi)-Faial (Fa) volcanic ridge studied in this paper. 122 TR marked by thick dashed white line. The graben/horst structure SW of the TR is defined 123 according to Marques et al. (2013a, 2014a). SJG - S. Jorge Graben; SJFPH - S. Jorge/Pico-124 Faial Horst; FPHG – Faial-Pico Half-Graben. Islands from W to E: Fl – Flores; Co – Corvo; 125 Fa – Faial; Pi – Pico; Gr – Graciosa; SJ - S. Jorge; Te – Terceira; SMi – S. Miguel; SMa – 126 Santa Maria. Bathymetric data from EMODnet portal (https://www.emodnet-bathymetry.eu/). 127 128

129 The integration of new and previous data on and around Pico and Faial allows discussing

130 the evolution of the ridge and the differences found in the two islands sitting on it. This study is

based on the analysis and interpretation of a high-resolution DEM, detailed stratigraphic and

structural observations and measurements, and GPS, marine geophysical, gravity anomaly and 132 paleomagnetic data. In the frame of this study we addressed the following outstanding problems: 133 1. Why is there a concentration of volcanic output in two main conical volcanoes (Caldeira and 134 Pico)? Why are they younger than the ridge itself? What has changed over time? Why do they 135 have different ages, and the younger (Pico) is much larger and to the east (opposite to what is 136 expected in a plate moving to the east)? At the scale of individual islands, it is apparent that 137 volcanism youngs to the west, consistent with plate motion: in Faial, the oldest volcano (ca. 138 850 ka) lies in the easternmost part of the island, the intermediate in the middle (Caldeira 139 Volcano, > 130 ka), and the youngest at the western tip of the island (Capelinhos, erupted in 140 141 the period 1957-1958); in Pico, the oldest volcano lies in the east (Topo Volcano, ca. 190 to 142 125 ka) and the youngest in the west (Pico Volcano, < 60 ka). We use gravity anomaly data and the current knowledge about the ridge to address these problems. 143 2. Pico and Faial comprise a volcanic ridge but we can observe very few dykes, in great contrast 144

to the nearby (< 18 km) S. Jorge volcanic ridge where dykes are pervasive and there is no
 central volcano (maybe it has existed in the earliest stage of S. Jorge). Why is that so? We use
 the gravity anomaly to address this problem.

3. What is the meaning of palaeomagnetic data? How can we explain the cyclic tilting? What arethe effects of cyclic tilting on the stability of the island?

4. The island-scale Faial Graben does not currently have a counterpart in Pico: why? We use ourknowledge about the ridge and mechanical concepts to address this problem.

5. Why is the Pico Volcano asymmetric? What is the meaning of the structures in the S. Caetano
creek? We use marine geophysical data and the current knowledge about the ridge to address
these problems.

156 2. Geological background

Some important tectonomagmatic trends have been recognized in the Azores east of the 157 MAR axis. The N-S to NNE-SSW direction is a major regional trend parallel to the local 158 orientation of the MAR axis (Fig. 1A). The WNW-ESE trend corresponds to the major 159 horst/graben and volcanic ridge structures in central Azores (Fig. 1B). The NE-SW to ENE-160 WSW trend is a transform direction associated with the present Eu/Nu plate boundary (DeMets 161 et al., 2010), and has been recognized by Marques et al. (2014b), Sibrant et al. (2014, 2015b, 162 2016) and Zanon et al. (2020). These main trends can all be found in Pico: the dykes along the 163 coastline range in strike between NNE-SSW and ENE-WSW (cf. Fig. 3 in Costa et al., 2015); 164 165 the sea cliff and the marine platform that limit the sub-aerial remnants of Topo Volcano to the E are oriented ENE-WSW (Fig. 2); Pico is elongated WNW-ESE, and the Caldeira (Faial), Pico 166 and Topo volcanoes are aligned along the same trend (Fig. 2). In Faial, the most conspicuous 167 trend is that of the island-scale graben, the WNW-ESE Faial Graben, and the alignment of young 168 strombolian cones (Fig. 2). 169



Pico Island comprises three main volcanic complexes, from older to younger (Fig. 2A): the Topo volcanic complex in SE Pico, the Fissural Complex in central and eastern Pico, and the Pico Volcano (peaking at 2351 m altitude), which makes up the western half of the island (e.g.

Zbyszewski et al., 1963; Forjaz, 1966; Woodhall, 1974; Madeira, 1998; Nunes, 1999; França, 179 2000; Madeira and Brum da Silveira, 2003; França et al., 2006). The Topo complex is partly 180 exposed on Pico's SE flank and was dated between 186 ± 5 and 125 ± 4 ka (Costa et al., 2014, 181 2015). Remnants of this early sub-aerial volcano have been unconformably covered by the sub-182 aerial Fissural Complex. The latest stages of island growth comprise the development of the 183 Fissural Complex and the Pico Volcano, which have been active through the Holocene up to 184 historical times. The Pico Volcano grew in western Pico, at least since ca. 57 ka. The Topo 185 Volcano was mostly destroyed by a N-directed flank collapse between ca. 125 and 70 ka (Costa 186 et al., 2014). In the south, the collapse structure was composite, with an early flank collapse 187 (between ca. 125 and 70 ka), followed by a remnant slump complex in the western part of the 188 189 collapse that seems to be still active (Hildenbrand et al., 2012b; Costa et al., 2015). Following the collapses, the scars were partially filled by lavas erupted from volcanic cones on the 190 topographically higher Fissural Complex. 191

Isotope dating in Faial (Hildenbrand et al., 2012a) showed inconsistencies in the 192 geological mapping (Chovelon, 1982; Serralheiro et al., 1989; Madeira, 1998; Pacheco, 2001; 193 Trippanera et al., 2014), and served as basis to a revised stratigraphy, which is from older to 194 younger (Fig. 2B): (1) a ca. 850 ka first sub-aerial volcanic complex, the Lower Volcanic 195 196 Complex, whose remnants outcrop in eastern Faial, immediately north of Horta city and along the scarp of a main normal fault (Espalamaca fault). (2) A ca. 360 ka volcanic complex, the 197 Intermediate Volcanic Complex, whose remnants outcrop on the NE quadrant of Faial around 198 199 the Ribeirinha village. (3) The Upper Volcanic Complex, mostly composed of the Caldeira Volcano and built on the remnants of the Lower and Intermediate Volcanic Complexes. The 200 Caldeira Volcano rapidly grew during a main phase of activity between ca. 130 and 115 ka, but 201 its volcanic and sedimentary products have covered the island till the present, which include 202 widespread trachytic pumice deposits produced by recent explosive activity of the Caldeira 203

Volcano over the last 16 ka (Pacheco, 2001). Basaltic units in the SE quadrant of Faial (Horta) 204 and west of the Caldeira Volcano ("Capelo") comprise an important part of the Upper Volcanic 205 Complex. The Horta volcanism, located in the SE corner of the island, is characterized by a 206 series of small scoria cones and associated basaltic lava flows. The Capelo volcanism 207 corresponds to the most recent volcanic activity in the ridge, which formed a peninsula in the 208 westernmost part of Faial, thus recently adding to the volume of the island during the 1957-1958 209 eruption. The Horta and Capelo volcanic products have been erupted during the last 10 ka 210 (Madeira et al., 1995), and are morphologically characterized by a series of WNW-ESE aligned 211 Strombolian cones that stretch the island towards the Capelinhos Volcano. The recent eruptive 212 213 history of Faial has been dated by radiocarbon on charcoal fragments collected in pyroclastic deposits and/or palaeosoils (e.g. Madeira et al., 1995; Pacheco, 2001; Chiara et al., 2014). All 214 these volcanic units have been affected by an island-scale WNW-ESE trending graben, the Faial 215 Graben, which is still active (e.g. Marques et al., 2014b). 216

217

218 **3. Methods and results**

We used several methods and datasets to accomplish the objectives of this work. Some are new and make up the novel contribution (topography analysis, GPS, field work, structural and tectonic analysis, and marine geophysics), and some are borrowed from the literature (palaeomagnetism and petrology/geochemistry). Details of the methods used to accomplish the results described below can be found in the Supplementary material section, and details of the remaining methods can be found in the cited literature.



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Figure 3. Interpreted shaded relief image (A) and slope map (B), and topographic profile across 227 the Pico Volcano (C – marked X-Y in B). Red dashed lines –scars of main flank collapses. Yellow 228 dashed lines – headwalls of inferred slumps. Purple dashed circles – inferred original shape of 229 230 the base of the main Pico and Caldeira volcanoes. Purple shaded area in B – inferred missing flank of Pico Volcano. Dashed blue ellipses superposed on the contour lines to highlight the 231 elliptical character of the Pico cone, with the axis of the ellipse (blue dashed line) trending ENE-232 WSW. PSV – Pico Volcano. TV – Topo Volcano. Background image in A from EMODnet portal 233 234 (https://www.emodnet-bathymetry.eu/). 235

236 3.1. Geomorphological analysis

Subaerial Pico is elongated along the WNW-ESE direction, and is continued in the east by a NW-SE submarine ridge (Fig. 3A). Pico has a maximum length of ca. 46 km and maximum width of ca. 16 km, and peaks at 2,351 m altitude. Its overall linear morphology is interrupted by two central volcanoes, one older and mostly destroyed, the Topo Volcano, and the other younger
and mostly preserved, the Pico Volcano. Constructional slopes can reach more than 15°,
especially in the upper half of the Pico Volcano. Much steeper slopes are locally observed on the
island (Fig. 3), which correspond to impressive sub-vertical cliffs that cut the volcanic
successions, and to scarps related to mass-wasting/faulting. These sub-aerial scarps are often
blanketed by more recent volcanic deposits.

The sub-aerial Fissural Complex changes trend from ca. E-W in the E to WNW-ESE in 246 the W, with inflection point near the Topo Volcano (Fig. 3A). The axis of the Fissural Complex 247 is well-defined and narrow to the E of the Topo Volcano, and becomes wider towards the Pico 248 Volcano. The northern flank of the Fissural Complex presents two steep scarps, and the southern 249 250 flank one conspicuous scarp on its eastern half, all of them with headwalls trending parallel to the ridge (Fig. 3B). The topographic expression of all these scarps is obscured by volcanic 251 products erupted from the axis of the Fissural Complex and from cones located on the scarp, and 252 by the eastern flank of the Pico Volcano. 253

The western half of the island is dominated by the Pico Volcano, with quite an 254 asymmetrical and elliptical conical shape (Fig. 3B): a larger, well-preserved half elliptical cone 255 in the northern flank, in contrast to a much smaller southern flank where two scarps can be 256 distinguished: one wider and closer to the sea, and the other narrower and cut by a deep creek 257 (the S. Caetano creek). If the original Pico Volcano were a circular cone, then a great portion of 258 its southern flank is missing, as drawn in Figs. 3B and C. The centre of the Pico Volcano is 259 located S of the longitudinal axis of the island (Fig. 3A) and defines an alignment with the Topo 260 Volcano that is parallel to the island axis. 261



Figure 4. Photographs taken inside the S. Caetano canyon (order according to upslope observations). (A) Lava flows intercalated with sedimentary deposits. (B) Thick small grained volcaniclastic (pyroclastic) sequence with some thin lava flows intercalated and cut by steeply dipping dykes. Zoom in: view of the dykes located near the red square. (C) Small-grained volcaniclastic sequence intruded by en échelon dykes. (D) and (E) Metre thick dykes steeply dipping towards downslope, cutting the sequence of lava flows and volcano-sedimentary material. The dykes and their orientations are indicated by white arrows.

The morphology of Faial is dominated by three main structures (Fig. 3A): the circular conical Caldeira Volcano with a deep central collapse crater; the island-scale graben known as the Faial Graben (Hildenbrand et al., 2012a); and aligned Strombolian cones, especially those making up the Capelo peninsula that stretches the island to the west. Two possible small-scale collapse scars may be interpreted in western Faial (Fig. 3A). Noticeably, the prominent Faial Graben does not extend east into the Pico-Faial channel and Pico Island (Fig. 3A).

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277 *3.2. Field data*

New fieldwork on Pico was focused on the scarp that affects the southern flank of the
Pico Volcano, and detailed observations were made along the S. Caetano canyon (Fig. 4). From
downstream to upstream, we observed:

1. Lava flows dipping downslope, i.e. to the south (*L1* to *L3*, Fig. 4A), intercalated with

sedimentary deposits (*D1* to *D3*, Fig. 4A), all overlain by a coarse (boulders) talus deposit

several meters thick (*D4*, Fig. 4A). Though there are coarse deposits related to the current

canyon erosion, we observed that the metre-thick deposits are overlain by, at least, one lavaflow.

286 2. Several meters thick sequence of volcano-sedimentary material intercalated with lava flows,

and intruded by dykes that strike N88-130°, mostly steeply dipping downstream (examples in

Figs. 4B to 4E). The thickness of the dykes ranges between decimetres and metres. The

thinner ones are sometimes disposed *en échelon*, with average strike of N120° azimuth and

dip of 50-65° towards the SSW (Fig. 4C).

291 The stratigraphic relationship between the sequences described in 1 and 2 is not clear.

However, the coarse talus deposit *D4* in Fig. 4A seems to unconformably cover also the

downslope limit of the sequence described in 2 (Fig. 4B).

We did not observe an unconformity surface that could correspond to the failure surface

of the S. Caetano scar. Unfortunately, the volcanic deposits observed did not present the
 conditions favourable for K-Ar dating, because the observed lava flows are extremely vesicular.

298 3.3. GPS velocities

Figure 5 shows the GPS site velocities for Faial and Pico islands with respect to ITRF-14 reference frame. Faial and Pico islands are moving northeast with a mean velocity of 24 mm/yr and moving down about 4 mm/yr on average. On western Faial, two stations have been moving down consistently in the analysed period, with a higher than average rate of about 10 mm/yr (2.5 times the average).



Figure 5. Horizontal (A) and vertical (B) velocities of GPS stations used for the analysis. All
 velocities are relative to ITRF-14.

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The estimated horizontal surface velocities were assumed to be representative of two 308 main processes: a rigid body motion associated with the regional plate tectonics, and a residual 309 displacement associated with the intra-island deformation. The rigid body motion was estimated 310 using the Euler vector notation. The three vector components were computed in the least squares 311 sense using the estimated GPS velocities and further used to compute the rigid body motion and 312 the velocity residuals. Using these parameters, the velocity of the rigid body motion of Faial and 313 Pico Islands is easting 13.7 mm/yr, and northing 15.6 mm/yr. The residuals between the 314 velocities obtained for each station and the rigid body motion are the consequence of local 315 variations of the strain field and are within 2 mm/yr for the residual horizontal velocity. We plot 316 317 the horizontal residuals in Fig. 6, together with the 95% confidence error ellipses for each station. 318

The residual of the horizontal velocity shows that: a) there is no evidence of internal deformation in Pico island, in contrast to what is shown by InSAR (Hildenbrand et al., 2012b); b) the eastern half of Faial is similar to Pico (except for station FFAr); and c) the sites on the south of westernmost Faial are moving faster than sites on the north, showing a centripetal distribution. Still on western Faial, sites FVUN and FPDN show a consistent downward movement of up to 10 mm/yr.



Figure 6. Residual horizontal (A) and vertical (B) velocities obtained by extracting rigid-body
motion from the velocities of the network. Error ellipses correspond to 95% confidence. Arrows
pointing north or south mean upward or downward motion, respectively. This means that, in the
Capelo region (inset with zoomed westernmost Faial in B), the southern coast is moving
upwards and slow, and the northern coast is moving down and faster.

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333

334 3.4. Marine geophysical data

We discuss the marine record of downslope mass transport by means of the bathymetry and four seismic profiles (Figs. 7 and 8). The bathymetry shows the islands, the fringing shelves and the volcanic ridges in detail. SE of Pico, the submarine Pico ridge changes its strike from 116° to 133° in azimuth. Submarine volcanic cones (VCs) concentrate in the channel between SE Pico and S. Jorge as well as south of Topo Volcano.

Along the channel between the islands of Pico and S. Jorge, the 42 km long seismic 340 profile elucidates the upper 400-500 ms TWT, which corresponds to 300 to 500 m if average 341 velocities between 1.5 km/s and 2 km/s are assumed (Fig. 8A). A fault zone that propagates up to 342 the seafloor and of unknown strike divides the profile into the WNW segment with rather good 343 signal penetration, and the ESE segment with reduced penetration and blurred reflections (Fig. 344 8A). In the WNW segment, a strong reflection package of positive polarity at 400-500 ms 345 beneath the sea floor represents the acoustic basement, which is not seen ESE of the fault zone. 346 Except for a 5 km long area in the ESE part of the profile, two unconformities can be traced 347 along the profile, covering a TWT interval of ca. 60-150 ms TWT, which is labelled Unit P-SJ. 348 The top of this unit is visible ca. 50 - 100 m below the seabed. Internal reflections of Unit P-SJ 349 350 are only vaguely visible ESE of the fault zone, and few of the internal reflections are phase reversed. To the ESE, Unit P-SJ onlaps a ca. 5 km wide elevated zone, which is seismically 351 opaque except for the upmost 30-40 ms TWT. The multibeam and seismic data show that the 352 eastern part of the profile crosses a field of large blocks. Some of them are cone shaped and 353 likely represent volcanic cones. Yet, some of the blocks, which are located offshore a major 354 embayment on Pico's northern flank, reveal an irregular topography, which is not typical of 355 volcanic cones. These features most likely represent slid blocks in a large-scale landslide. On the 356 357 seismic line (Fig. 8A) it becomes more apparent that most of the irregularly shaped blocks represent slid blocks covered by a thin sediment veneer. Sparker profiles (Fig. S1) indicate that 358 unit P-SJ was transported downslope Pico. 359

Offshore and south of the ancient Topo Volcano, the ca. 22 km long and NW-SE striking seismic reflection profile images the marine archive of mass transport processes (Fig. 8B). It covers Pico's lower slope and the adjacent archipelago's apron south of Pico. The signal penetration is limited to about 200 ms TWT. The transition from the lower slope to the plateau is rather abrupt. The profile crosses several VCs. Two approximately horizontal unconformities

365 cover a time interval of ca. 100 ms TWT directly in front of the lower slope and ca. 50 ms TWT
366 SE of a VC complex. Assuming interval velocities between 1.5 km/s and 2 km/s, the thickness
367 varies between 40 and 100 m. The deposits in between, labelled Unit T, onlap the lower, buried
368 part of a VC. The upper bounding unconformity reveals a polarity change along its southern part
369 (Fig. 8C). The internal strata are folded and thrusted. A short profile illuminates the internal
370 architecture of VCs, which comprises strong reflection patches beneath the summit and outward
371 dipping strata around them (Fig. 8D).



Figure 7. A – overview map. B – blow-up of study area between Pico and S. Jorge. C – survey
area in southeastern Pico. The circle in C is used to estimate the volume of unit T. White lines
mark the location of seismic profiles shown in Fig. 8. fz: fault zone; TV: Topo Volcano. Other
symbols as in Fig. 1.



Figure 8: Seismic profiles. For locations see Fig. 7. GC36: Gravity core 36 as discussed in
 Schmidt et al., 2020. VE: vertical exaggeration according to given velocity v. VC: volcanic cone.

An 8-9 km long profile south of central Pico shows mainly chaotic reflections that downlap a unit between two parallel, horizontal unconformities (Fig. 8E, F). The TWT interval for this unit, also labelled "P", is ca. 120 ms (90-120 m). Here too, the top of unit "P" is

389 horizontal in places.



Figure S1. Sparker profiles. For locations see Fig. 7. VE: vertical exaggeration according to
 given velocity given in brackets. Meaning of symbols as in Fig. 8.

394 **4. Discussion**

390

395 4.1. GPS and gravity data

In Faial, two regions deserve special attention: Ribeirinha at the NE tip of the island, and 396 Capelo in westernmost Faial (Figs. 5 and 6). At Ribeirinha (GPS station FFAR; Fig. 6A), the 397 residual horizontal velocity is anomalous regarding magnitude and direction, meaning that this 398 station is moving to the east instead of the northeast (relative to ITRF14; Fig. 5A), and faster 399 than the rest of the island. This cannot be attributed to creep on a slope because the station is 400 following the vertical motion of the island (zero vertical residual velocity; Fig. 6A). Our 401 interpretation is that NE Faial is being affected by the motion in the faults discussed in Marques 402 et al. (2014b). In westernmost Faial, the distribution and magnitude of GPS velocities may have 403 four kinds of explanations: mechanical (flexural effect), tectonic (normal fault), magmatic 404 (magma motion), or tectonomagmatic (tectonic triggered by magma motion). The northern coast 405

is moving downward and fast (Fig. 9B), which could be the consequence of the eruption of 406 Capelinhos in 1957-58, because the contraction of cooling magma/rock could be responsible for 407 the anomalous downward velocity (ca. 2.5 times the average on the island). However, the 408 southern coast is moving upward and slowly, and the horizontal residual velocity (Fig. 9C) is 409 centripetal, i.e. the stations on the north coast are moving south, and the stations on the south 410 coast are moving north. Again, one possible interpretation is contraction of the hot magma/rock 411 for the centripetal velocities, but contraction cannot explain the upward velocity in the south. A 412 possible explanation for this upward velocity could be liquid magma moving in the vertical 413 feeder cylinder (convection with upward motion in the south and downward in the north). 414 415 However, there are two problems with these interpretations: (1) the GPS stations are offset to the east from the gravity anomaly, and (2) we do not know if contraction by cooling is a viable 416 mechanism to explain the vertical velocities. To test this second hypothesis, we calculated the 417 effects of contraction on the vertical velocity. 418



Figure 9. Gravity anomaly (A) and residual vertical (B) and horizontal (C) GPS velocity maps.
The negative gravity anomaly (blue spot) below Capelinhos (orange circle in A) can be
interpreted as hot magma/rock with lower density. Arrows pointing north or south in B mean
upward and downward motion, respectively. This means that, in the Capelo region (insets B and
C), the southern coast is moving upwards and slowly, and the northern coast is moving
downward and faster. Map of gravity anomaly in A cropped and adapted from Fig. 11 in
Camacho et al. (2007).

427

Although the reasons for the higher downward velocities at Capelo are unclear, their 428 proximity to the 1957/58 eruption that added 1.5 km² to western Faial suggests a volcanic origin 429 for the anomalous GPS velocities (Catalão et al., 2006; Marques et al., 2013). Therefore, we 430 431 tested this hypothesis by following the results of gravity inversion published by Camacho et al. (2007) and performing preliminary and simplified modelling of an intrusion between 1 and 4 km 432 depth, with an initial temperature of 1250 °C, allowing for a complete melting of the rock. We 433 then let this intrusion cool down and densify, using a thermal expansion coefficient of 3.5×10^{-5} 434 K⁻¹ for the solid rock, observing the local isostatic effect of the density increase and thus the 435 evolution of the subsidence rate. The 1-D model reduces to a certain degree the cooling rate with 436 respect to a 3-D model; however, since the width of the gravimetric anomaly, and thus the 437 supposed width of the intrusion, is far larger than its depth, the effect should not be very strong. 438 Three models were calculated: 439

Model 1 (no melt, blue curve in graphs of Fig. 10): we neglected melt production and let the
intrusion cool down by diffusion. In this case, the reduction of density due to the high
temperature of the intrusion is relatively weak; however, the intrusion cools relatively fast.
The resulting maximum subsidence rate at the beginning of thermal relaxation amounts to 0.4

444 mm/yr.

Model 2 (standard melt, red curve in graphs of Fig. 10): we considered the fact that, at 1250 °C,
we are above the liquidus of basaltic rock, and therefore the intrusion should be completely
molten. During cooling, we now must consider the latent heat of basaltic melt, which delays

cooling. We used a value of 42 MJ/kg (Lange et al., 1994). On the other hand, the melt has a 448 much lower density than solid basalt (about 2600-2700 kg/m³ for melt; e.g. Bajgain et al., 449 2015) vs 3000 kg/m³ for solid rock at room temperature (e.g. Schön, 2004), giving therefore a 450 stronger topographic effect. For this model, however, due to the large latent heat, cooling is 451 very much delayed, and it takes about 2 Myr to freeze the whole magma chamber. The effect 452 on vertical movement is that during the time it takes to freeze the magma chamber, the rocks 453 around heat up and topography increases. Instead of subsidence, we would observe uplift 454 during several Myr. 455



Figure 10. Representative graphs of uplift rate (A), vertical movement (B) and temperature evolution at the centre of the intrusion (C) for models 1, 2 and 3.

459

Model 3 (melt with smaller latent heat, green curve in graphs of Fig. 10): for an intermediate
model, we tested the case of a melt with ten times smaller latent heat than for Model 2. This
model freezes faster and subsides at the fastest rate; however, the difference with respect to
Model 1 is small, and with a maximum of 0.45 mm/yr the subsidence is still much slower
than the currently observed.

Therefore, in a first approximation we can exclude thermal subsidence of a cooling magma chamber as main reason for the observed differences of vertical movements in the Capelo area.

Given that contraction cannot explain, by itself, the measured GPS vertical velocities, we 468 have to recourse to the other possibilities. The mechanical hypothesis – upward velocities could 469 be explained by rising magma, while the downwards velocities could result from flexural effects. 470 However, this would imply the existence of a layer with an elastic thickness of only ca. 100-300 471 472 m, an estimate based on the position of a potential maximum subsidence rate some 5-10 km away from the centre of the gravity anomaly, corresponding to the centre of the potential magma 473 chamber (Turcotte and Schubert, 2014), which does not seem realistic, even in a volcanic 474 environment. The tectonic hypothesis - tectonics by itself fails to explain the localization of 475 deformation in this area, because no deformation has been observed east of Capelo in graben 476 faults. The tectonomagmatic hypothesis – to help explain this hypothesis, we drew the sketch 477 shown in Fig. 11, where we can see that a rotating normal fault can explain the measured GPS 478 velocities: south of the tilt axis the ground moves upward and to the north, and north of the tilt 479 axis the ground moves downward and to the south. Why only here at Capelo near the 1957-58 480 eruption and the gravity anomaly? Probably because the motion of magma in the reservoir (or 481 withdrawal of magma from the reservoir) and contraction by cooling triggered the motion in the 482

nearby normal faults of the Faial Graben, so showing an intimate relationship between tectonics



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486



487

488 Figure 11. Cross-sectional sketch illustrating the tectonic solution for the velocity problem in
 489 westernmost Faial.

490

491 Regarding Pico, the GPS data in Hildenbrand et al. (2012b) were acquired from 2001 to 492 2006, and showed small horizontal movement, but significant downward movement (7 ± 2 493 mm/yr) at Ribeiras (SE Pico Island). The InSAR data collected from 2006 to 2009 and reported in Hildenbrand et al (2012b) were showing also significant subsidence at Ribeiras, but only over
a limited period. In the present study we report GPS data acquired in the period 2001-2012,
which shows no movement at the Ribeiras station. This is a question for which we do not have
an answer, and therefore deserves further investigation.



Figure 12. Maps of Bouguer anomaly (A) and gravity anomaly (B). From both representations of
the gravity field, it is clear that a lineament of bodies of lower density magma/rock exists at
depth (aligned blue spots below the NW flank of the Pico Volcano), and trends ca. N70 in
azimuth (red dashed lines). Closer to the surface (-500 m in B), two different lineaments can be
interpreted, one striking ca. N115, and the other ca. N50. PSV – Pico Volcano; TV – Topo

Volcano. Red circle marks the position of Pico's summit. Maps of Bouguer and gravity anomaly cropped and adapted from Figs. 6 and 7, respectively, in Nunes et al. (2006).

506

In Pico, the gravity data (Fig. 12) shows two contrasting pictures depending on depth: (1) 507 many small blue (lower density) and red (higher density) spots at -500 m depth, and fewer but 508 larger spots below -1,000 m; (2) several WNW-ESE lineaments (parallel to the ridge), and fewer 509 NE-SW lineaments at -500 m depth; (3) fewer but stronger lineaments at -2,000 m, one ENE-510 511 WSW and the other WNW-ESE. The ENE-WSW lineaments are parallel to the transform direction related to the Terceira Rift and the Nubia-Eurasia plate boundary (Marques et al., 2013; 512 Marques et al., 2014a), and the WNW-ESE lineaments are parallel to the ridge and underlying 513 main tectonic trend. The Bouguer anomaly map is very similar to the gravity anomaly map at -514 2,000 m depth (cf. Figs. 12A and B), highlighting a conspicuous ENE-WSW lineament of lower 515 density rock below the northern flank of the Pico Volcano. The lower and higher density 516 anomalies can be explained with recourse to temperature (higher temperature means lower 517 density, and vice-versa), or to porosity (e.g. fractured rock along major faults), or to hydration 518 519 (different degrees of hydration of the rock at depth), or to composition (which is not consistent with the undifferentiated nature of the rocks in Pico, although we do not know if they exist at 520 depth). Noticeably, no positive or negative gravity anomaly is observed below the centre of the 521 Pico Volcano, in contrast to what we observe below the Topo Volcano (strong positive 522 anomaly). This can be interpreted in two different ways: (1) there is no high-density vertical 523 cylindrical feeder below Pico Volcano, in contrast to what was suggested for the Topo Volcano 524 by Nunes et al. (2006); (2) there is a high-density vertical cylindrical feeder below Pico Volcano, 525 but its temperature is still warm enough to mask its higher (cold) density; or (3) Pico Volcano is 526 527 dominantly composed of massive dense basaltic rocks at depth, which means that a frozen conduit filled with massive rock (neck) could exist but would not produce a detectable gravity 528 anomaly. 529

531 *4.2. Marine record*

The uppermost strata mainly resemble mass transport deposits similar to S. Miguel 532 (Sibrant et al., 2015b; Weiß et al., 2015a, b, 2016). In all seismic lines NE, SE and S of Pico the 533 seismic units P-SJ, T and P have a rather flat unconformity at its upper boundary. Once the Pico-534 Faial ridge lies between the profiles, it is not possible to correlate the stratigraphy present in the 535 seismic lines N and S of Pico. However, the comparable internal reflection configuration, the 536 similar TWT interval and the location some 10 ms below the seafloor suggest a related genesis. 537 It should be noted that the diffuse internal reflection pattern of unit P-SJ in the ESE part of the 538 seismic profile in Fig. 8A is not necessarily related to transport or depositional processes. Based 539 540 on gravity core GC36, marked in Fig. 8A, Schmidt et al. (2020) inferred that the cored area is hydrothermally active, and therefore attributed the weak internal reflection amplitudes and the 541 presence of phase reversed reflections to increased fluid content. However, the chaotic or 542 contorted internal stratification rule out that these are hemipelagic deposits. Hence, there are 543 basically two different endmembers to interpret these units, which are debris avalanche deposits 544 (DAD) from flank collapses of an established volcanic edifice, or deposits resulting from 545 pyroclastic flows. Based on observations from the vicinity of Montserrat Island, Karstens et al. 546 547 (2013) inferred that the coarse and denser material of pyroclastic flows is deposited close to the coast. It is only the fine-grained ash fraction that forms a turbidity current and can spread out 548 over long distances. The resulting turbidite deposits are characterized by a flat top, which is 549 consistent with the units P-SJ, T and P. However, contrary to the units observed here, the internal 550 bedding of upward fining turbidites is expected to be rather parallel. We therefore consider this 551 interpretation as unlikely. Furthermore, neither Pico nor S. Jorge islands show onshore evidence 552 553 for violent pyroclastic eruptions (only local strombolian cone deposits). Faial has experienced large differentiated explosions, but the related pyroclastic deposits (pumice fallout) do not crop 554

555 in S. Jorge and Pico, so the upper layer of submarine products here imaged offshore the eastern half of Pico are unlikely to represent large pyroclastic flows. As discussed by Karstens et al. 556 (2013), sub-aerial debris avalanches result in the submarine emplacement of block-rich deposits 557 that form as the failing host rock is broken down through a process of fracturing and internal 558 block-to-block collision (Pollet and Schneider, 2004). These blocks, combined with internal 559 deformation processes, may create a hummocky topography and a very chaotic internal structure 560 (e.g. Krastel et al., 2001; Hildenbrand et al., 2006; 2018). Such a hummocky upper boundary is 561 not observed around Pico (Fig. 8). However, Karstens et al. (2013) presented high-resolution 562 seismic reflection data from DADs off Montserrat, which have similar thicknesses as units P-SJ, 563 T and P, and which also reveal internal contorted reflections and thrusts. The flat upper 564 565 unconformity of the DADs around Pico can be explained by the fact that the sliding avalanche body absorbs more water during its transport and thus becomes more fluid. The flat to 566 hummocky lower unconformity implies that units P-SJ, T and P overlie older DAD, which could 567 be related to Topo's destruction. The origin of unit P-SJ is not unambiguous. The debris 568 avalanche may have come from either Pico or S. Jorge. The bathymetric data show amphitheatre 569 like, arcuate escarpments on and offshore N and NE Pico, and on the southern shelf edge of S. 570 Jorge. However, the bathymetry shown in Fig. 4 of Costa et al. (2014) clearly indicates a source 571 572 of the DAD on Pico's northern flank. The interpretation of unit T right in front of the lower slope is less ambiguous, because internal folds and thrusts are clear indicators for DAD. The polarity 573 change above the thrusts may result from compaction and resulting dewatering. The location SE 574 of ancient Topo and the volume suggest that unit T represents the deposits of a sector collapse of 575 Topo (see Costa et al., 2015). The location SE of Pico Volcano and the young character of the 576 deposit suggest that unit P (Fig. 8E, F) represents the DAD of a flank collapse of Pico Volcano, 577 as hinted by the asymmetry of this volcano (missing flank as inferred in Fig. 3B, C). 578 The limited data coverage does not allow estimating the entire volume of the up to 100 m 579

thick DAD in the central part of Fig. 8C. As a very coarse estimate, we assume that the main deposits cover a circular area with a diameter of 7 km. If we assume a thickness of 75-100 m (100 ms TWT), the deposits make up 3-4 km³. There are no samples that would allow for a precise Dense Rock Equivalent (DRE). However, if we assume a factor of 0.7 (e.g. Johnston et al., 2015), we end up with an estimated DRE of 2-3 km³. Since we did not consider deposits outside the 7 km circle, this estimate is rather conservative.

586 From both the bathymetry and seismic profiles, it is clear that VCs are abundant S and SE 587 of Topo. Dykes' trend in southern Topo (cf. Fig. 3B in Costa et al., 2014) as well as the 588 previously described change in the strike direction of Pico ridge align along a WSW-ENE trend 589 that is parallel to an inferred transform fault further NW (Marques et al., 2014a). We therefore 590 suggest that another transform fault runs along the eastern ends of Pico and S. Jorge towards the 591 Terceira Island in the Terceira Rift (Fig. 7A).

592



594 *Figure 13. Graphs with declination and inclination of characteristic remanent magnetization*

(ChRM) along individual lava flow sequences (LJ, TR, B and A, from older to younger), with the
main trends represented by red dashed lines. Note that graphs are very similar for sequences LJ
and TR, these in turn somewhat similar to sequence B, and these three different from sequence A
(youngest). Also note that, in each sequence, both declination and inclination vary by many
degrees, except for sequence A (only 10°). Graphs adapted (no changes made to the data) from
Fig. 7 in Silva et al. (2018).

601

602 4.3. Palaeomagnetic data

Paleomagnetic data in Faial is consistent with the tectonic activity in the Faial Graben, i.e. the measured rotations are consistent with uplift on the graben shoulders and rotational normal faults (cf. Fig. 6 in Silva et al., 2018).

606 Palaeomagnetic data in Pico is more complex and thus susceptible of different interpretations. The graphs in Fig. 13 display the declination and inclination of characteristic 607 remanent magnetization (ChRM) along individual lava flow sequences. These graphs show that 608 trends and magnitudes are very similar for sequences LJ (ca. 135 ka) and TR (ca. 120 ka), which 609 in turn are somewhat similar to sequence B (ca. 110 ka), and all these three are different from 610 sequence A (75 to 40 ka). Noticeably, in each sequence both declination and inclination vary by 611 many degrees, except for sequence A (only 10°). The graphs in Fig. 13 can be interpreted in two 612 contrasting ways: (1) as cumulative (the oldest represents the accumulation of younger events), 613 or (2) as reflecting non-cumulative individual events. If the rotations were cumulative, then one 614 would go to the field and measure very steep flows (ca. $25^{\circ}+15^{\circ}+25^{\circ}+10^{\circ}=75^{\circ}$), which is 615 certainly not the case. The problem is also that the 10° rotation in sequence A, the youngest 616 sequence, cannot justify the rotations measured within each of the older lava flow sequences. At 617 most, it can be responsible for a 10° rotation, which is small compared to the rotations measured 618 in the older sequences. The inferred rotation in sequence B cannot be responsible for the ChRMs 619 measured in the older LJ and TR sequences too, because these also rotate individually. From this 620 we can infer cyclicity of rotations in the lava flow sequences over time, and propose a new 621 interpretation: the measured inclinations are the product of inflation and deflation cycles in a 622

magma reservoir, which reset the tilting between cycles in overlying lava flows, being the inferred rotation the result of inflation or deflation depending on the position of the magma chamber relative to the overlying flows. In the present case, the magma chamber would have to lie to the northeast of the analysed lava flows, because the vertical rotation is to the south, and the horizontal rotation is clockwise. Marques et al. (2013, 2014b) and Costa et al. (2014, 2015) have shown that the Pico-Faial ridge lies on the shoulder of a graben, but this cannot explain the measured tilting because it would have to be cumulative.

The inferred inflation/deflation cycles could be, at least in part, responsible for the triggering of the detected flank collapses, as such cycles can fracture the rocks and make lava flows and pyroclasts steeper during inflation. The fact that the paleomagnetic data refer to samples collected on both blocks of a main fault along which a large-scale flank collapse occurred is not considered a coincidence here. On the contrary, we suggest a cause-effect relationship, i.e. inflation/deflation (cause) related to large-scale landslide (effect). Therefore, inflation/deflation cycles can also contribute significantly to the shaping of the volcanic island.

638 4.4. Petrographic and geochemical data

Pico and Faial both comprise central and fissure volcanism, whose petrographic and geochemical characteristics have been described previously and are summarised here (França et al. 2006; Beier et al., 2012; Zanon et al. 2013, 2020; Zanon and Frezzotti 2013; Métrich et al. 2014).

The lavas emitted by both volcanic systems belong to the alkaline series (Beier et al., 2012) with Na₂O > K₂O. The lavas erupted in the fissure systems of the two islands are basalt to trachybasalt. Mugearites on Pico Volcano are volumetrically very reduced, because they are exclusive of the first phases of the small 1718 eruption. In contrast, large volumes of trachyte pumice were erupted in Faial and blanketed most of the island during late-stage magmatic events from Caldeira Volcano in the last 12 ka. These differences could be related to the different ages of
volcanism found in Faial and Pico, with Faial being older and more differentiated.

In Faial, there are no significant textural differences among the mafic lavas erupted by 650 fissure systems and Caldeira Volcano; both are poorly porphyritic (phenocrysts content $\leq 25\%$) 651 with a mineral assemblage constituted by mafic phenocrysts ($\emptyset = 1.5-6.0$ mm) and plagioclase. 652 The composition and abundance of the phenocrysts in the mafic lavas is, in general, similar in all 653 volcanic complexes, with Fe-Mg olivine (Mg#=77-82), clinopyroxene augite (Mg#=72-86), 654 plagioclase (from andesine to bytownite) and Fe-Ti oxides (titanomagnetite and ilmenite). In 655 contrast, on Pico Volcano the lavas poured from lateral vents are highly porphyritic (up to 70% 656 phenocrysts) with a mineral assemblage comprising olivine antecrysts (up to Fo86%) and 657 megacrysts of clinopyroxene (up to 25 mm in length) that show the same composition of the 658 phenocrysts. Plagioclase is commonly absent, and oxides are represented by titanomagnetite. The 659 recent lavas of the cone at the top of the volcano are porphyritic (up to 35–40 vol% of phenocrysts), 660 with mineral assemblage represented by euhedral plagioclase (up to 1.8 cm), a few clinopyroxenes 661 $(\emptyset \leq 2.2 \text{ mm})$ and rare olivine microphenocrysts ($\emptyset = 0.25 - 0.45 \text{ mm}$). 662

Beier et al. (2012) inferred that the Azores lavas are consistent with peridotite melting at 663 normal oxygen fugacity, and assumed that the measured differences in SiO₂, total FeO and, in 664 particular, TiO₂ in the Faial and Pico lavas solely reflect changes in melting pressures and 665 temperatures. Beier et al. (2012) concluded for a broad range of melting pressures in central 666 Azores, with shallower melting underneath Faial than underneath Pico. Prytulak and Elliott (2009) 667 concluded differently, i.e. for a garnet peridotite source beneath Pico from ²³⁸U-²³⁰Th and ²³⁵U-668 ²³¹Pa disequilibria. Additionally, the differences in the silica saturation degree and the ratios 669 between very incompatible elements in the most primitive samples suggest two lithologically 670 671 different mantle sources. This can be inferred from the different helium isotopic signatures too: in Faial, the ratio R/Ra is in the range 7.2-8.7 (Moreira et al., 1999), which straddle the MORB lavas 672

emitted at the Mid-Atlantic Ridge (~8±1 R/Ra; e.g. Parman, 2007). Differently, lavas from Pico
show R/Ra in the range 10.5-11.2 Ra (Moreira et al., 1999; Métrich et al., 2014), which is more
like the higher ratio typical of primitive sources.

The critical differences, observed in Faial and Pico between the closely spaced fissural and 676 central volcanisms could be the result of different plumbing systems: WNW-ESE faults 677 responsible for the fissural volcanism with similar orientation, and intersection between the 678 WNW-ESE and ENE-WSW fault systems responsible for the central volcanism. The age of the 679 volcanism is also critical, but cannot justify differences when the lavas are of similar age. 680 Additionally, there are also differences between the lavas in the two islands despite belonging to 681 the same ridge and being close to each other. Beier et al. (2012) suggested that small-scale source 682 683 heterogeneity is not related to the major element systematics, but reflects changes in melting pressures and temperatures, which could be related to distance from the Mid-Atlantic Rift and, 684 therefore, to lithospheric thickness. 685

To summarize, the petrological/geochemical data indicate why the volcanic morphology is markedly different in the two islands, and the influence the different magmas have on the morphology of the central volcanoes: basaltic, very tall cone (although younger; < ca. 60 ka) and small crater in Pico, and basalt to trachyte, shorter cone (half height although twice older; < ca. 130 ka) with quite large and deep caldera in Faial.

691

692 4.5. Evolution of the Pico-Faial ridge



Figure 14. Timeline of the compared evolutions of Pico and Faial in the last 1 Ma. 694 The oldest volcanism in Faial and Pico seems to have been made up of isolated central 695 volcanoes or shield volcanoes, therefore originally not comprising a true volcanic ridge at the 696 surface. Maybe it was a submarine ridge on top of which the central volcanoes grew out of the 697 ocean. In Faial, the oldest volcanism was constrained at around 850 ka (Hildenbrand et al., 698 699 2012a). As described by Romer et al. (2018), the seafloor topography west of Faial reveals large submarine volcanic rift zones, including that of the 1957–1958 Capelinhos eruption. These 700 authors concluded that the formation of WNW-ESE oriented narrow submarine structural and 701 magmatic features since ca. 1 Ma likely resulted from extensional stresses, showing that 702 lithospheric extension is an important process during the evolution of the subaerial and 703 submarine volcanic structures, which is consistent with the current GPS data and conclusions in 704

705 Marques et al. (2013).



707	Figure 15. Shaded relief of the islands in the Azores Central Group. Dashed magenta lines
708	represent our interpretation of the position of ENE-WSW transform faults related to the
709	kinematics in the diffuse boundary between the Eurasia and Nubia plates. Fa – Faial; Pi – Pico;
710	SJ – S. Jorge; Gr – Graciosa; Te – Terceira. SJG – S. Jorge Graben; SJPFH – S. Jorge/Pico-
711	Faial Horst; $PFHG - Pico$ -Faial Half-graben. $98EQ - location of the 1998 Faial earthquake;$
712	PV – Pico Volcano; TV – Topo Volcano; OVC – Old Volcanic Complex in S. Jorge Island; SBV
713	– Santa Bárbara Volcano in Terceira Island. White arrows on S. Jorge Island represent the main
714	GPS velocities. Background image from EMODnet portal (https://www.emodnet-
715	bathymetry.eu/).
716	

717	In contrast to Faial, the oldest sub-aerial volcanism in Pico is much younger than 850 ka.
718	The sub-aerial growth of the Topo Volcano in Pico was constrained between ca. 186 ± 5 and 125
719	±4 or 115 ±4 ka (Costa et al., 2014, 2015). Given the present morphology of the Topo Volcano
720	and the attitude of the lava flows, the summit of the Topo Volcano should have been originally
721	located atop the positive gravity anomaly detected in this area (Nunes et al., 2006).
700	Based on the position of the four main central volcances (two in Faial and two in Pico)

Based on the position of the four main central volcanoes (two in Faial and two in Pico), the main lithospheric trends, the GPS velocities in S. Jorge (Mendes et al., 2013), the position of the Old Volcanic Complex in S. Jorge (Marques et al., 2018), the location of the Faial 1998 earthquake (Marques et al., 2014b), and recently recognized faults (e.g. Sibrant et al., 2015b,

2016), we infer that the central volcanoes developed at the intersection of major lithospheric 726 faults, mainly the WNW-ESE and ENE-WSW fault systems (Fig. 15) (see also Zanon et al., 727 2020). The ENE-WSW faults are parallel to the velocity vectors representing the motion 728 between Eurasia and Nubia (also ENE-WSW), and could thus correspond to transform faults 729 related to the Terceira Rift and diffuse Eurasia/Nubia plate boundary. As shown in Fig. 15, we 730 suggest the existence of four transform faults cutting across the Pico-Faial Ridge, which can 731 justify the position of the central volcanoes, major earthquakes, and faults inferred from the 732 seismic lines. 733

The several scars that affect the central/eastern part of the Pico Island, in both south and 734 north flanks, point to repeated episodes of flank collapse. So far, the evidence came from GPS and 735 736 InSAR data (Hildenbrand et al., 2012b) and digital elevation models of both on and offshore topography (Costa et al., 2014, 2015). Now we add evidence from seismic profiles acquired 737 offshore the ridge. The remnants of the Topo Volcano are partly exposed on Pico's SE flank, and 738 have been dated between ca. 186 and 125 ka by Costa et al. (2015), who concluded that Topo was 739 significantly destroyed by N- and S-directed large-scale flank collapses between ca. 125 and 70 740 ka. There is no direct evidence that there was a volcanic ridge contemporaneous with Topo, but 741 742 we cannot exclude the possibility that a submarine ridge existed prior to the Topo Volcano, on 743 which this volcano grew.

The ages obtained by Costa et al. (2014, 2015) indicate that the Pico Volcano developed during the last 50 ka. This points to a concentration of the volcanism on the western side of the island, with the fast construction of an impressive and still active volcano within only a few tens of thousands of years. Contemporaneous volcanic activity occurred along the main Fissural System and in the slump area in SE Pico.





750 Figure 16. Interpretation of the topographic profile along the S. Caetano canyon and observations presented in Fig. 4. (A) Shaded relief of the Pico Volcano's southern flank (vertical 751 lighting), with indication of the trace of the cross section presented in (B), drawn along the S. 752 *Caetano canyon. (B) Topographic profile along the S. Caetano canyon (no vertical* 753 754 exaggeration). The dip of the observed dykes and lava flows/sedimentary deposits are represented. The yellow dashed line represents the base of the inferred slump, and the red lines 755 represent the observed dykes intruding the slump and an underlying fault of a larger flank 756 collapse. Red half-arrow indicates the sense of shear inferred from the en échelon arrangement 757 758 of the dykes.

Regarding the WNW-ESE scarp on the southern flank of Pico Volcano, previously 760 published works only mention that this scarp was covered by volcanic deposits from the volcano, 761 and that there are significant recent colluvium deposits along the base of the scarp (Chovelon, 762 1982; Madeira, 1998; Nunes, 1999). Our field observations add to the published work regarding 763 this scarp. In the S. Caetano canyon, as we did not observe a large-scale unconformity, we 764 propose that the sequences observed on the scarp are concealing a larger-scale failure surface 765 (Figs. 3B, C and 16). These sequences of volcano-sedimentary material and lava flows are cut by 766 numerous dykes disposed en échelon, which strike parallel to the main scarp and dip downstream 767 (Figs. 4 and 16). The local en échelon arrangement of the dykes suggests that the intruded 768

volcano-sedimentary sequence was undergoing shear deformation (creep with top to the south) 769 during intrusion (Fig. 16), consistent with the motion of a slump. Given that part of the deposit in 770 the S. Caetano canyon is made up of sediments, then we infer that there was an earlier collapse 771 that later was filled with sediments and flows intruded by dykes. These dykes seem to have 772 intruded the fault of a larger flank collapse represented by the red dashed line in Fig. 16A. 773 Furthermore, the possibility of future structurally controlled dyke intrusion along this scarp, as 774 the Pico Volcano has been historically active, suggests that this sector is prone to landslide 775 occurrence. The local steepness of the topography can be an effect of an earlier landslide (see 776 seismic profile in Fig. 8E), and the inferred slumping indicates that this scarp is prone to further 777 778 landsliding.

779

780 **5. Conclusions**

The compared evolution of Pico and Faial islands shows that Faial comprises the oldest 781 sub-aerial volcanism dated at ca. 850 ka (Hildenbrand et al., 2012a), probably lying on a 782 submarine ridge of unknown age. This early subaerial volcanism was followed by ca. 500 ka of 783 destruction of the original central volcano, but we have not found yet evidence for the type of 784 erosion: large-scale collapse(s) or long-term marine erosion? Around 360 ka, a new edifice was 785 786 growing in NE Faial, and still with no counterpart in Pico. This younger volcano was also partially destroyed before being unconformably overlain by younger volcanism associated with 787 the Caldeira Volcano, which rapidly grew during a main phase of activity between ca. 130 and 788 789 115 ka. The equivalent of the older construction/destruction activity in Faial (> 200 ka) has not been found in Pico, despite belonging to the same volcanic ridge. Based on published work and 790 new data and interpretations, here we propose the following evolution of the Pico-Faial ridge for 791 the last 200 ka: (1) In Faial, a WNW-ESE island-scale graben, the Faial Graben, started 792 developing sometime prior to ca.130 ka, the age of lavas already flowing between fault scarps 793

making up the graben. Meanwhile, the sub-aerial Topo Volcano was growing in Pico (ca. 186-794 125 ka). (2) While Topo was reaching its final stages of growth in Pico and being dismantled (ca. 795 125-115 ka), a central volcano (the Caldeira Volcano) was rapidly growing in Faial (ca. 130-115 796 ka, Hildenbrand et al., 2012a), partially filling the central depression of the Faial Graben. (3) 797 Between ca. 115 and 70 ka, there was considerable sub-aerial growth and destabilization of the 798 Fissural System in Pico. Major catastrophic flank collapses occurred prior to 70 ka in both north 799 and south flanks of Pico Island. The DADs have thicknesses of up to 75-100 m. A DAD, 800 presumably resulting from collapsing Topo to the south has a DRE of at least 2-3 km³. In 801 contrast to the large-scale destruction in Pico, the Caldeira Volcano in Faial is mostly preserved 802 803 except for the mild disruption caused by the tectonic activity in the Faial Graben. (4) Since ca. 50 804 ka, the Pico Volcano has been growing on the westernmost sector of the island. In contrast to the well preserved, though older, Caldeira Volcano, the S flank of the Pico Volcano seems to have 805 suffered a partial flank collapse as hinted by its asymmetry and inferred from marine seismic 806 profiles. At ca. 50 ka, the Faial Graben was fully developed, with tall scarps producing 807 conglomerates later covered by lava flows flowing from the Caldeira Volcano down the Faial 808 Graben towards the sea in the east. (5) In the last 10 kyr, extended volcanic activity has occurred 809 in the Pico Volcano, the Fissural System, and as parasitic activity on Topo's SW flank. A slump 810 811 is currently active in SE Pico (Hildenbrand et al., 2012b). In Faial and since ca. 10ka, a WNW-ESE sub-aerial Fissural Complex grew towards the W, and episodes of explosive activity 812 occurred in the Caldeira Volcano and covered most of Faial with a pumice deposit (Madeira and 813 Brum da Silveira. 2003). Such voluminous differentiated, trachytic pumice deposits have not 814 been found in Pico. The volcanic activity in Faial culminated with the recent Capelinhos eruption 815 in 1957-1958, which stretched the island to the west. Tectonic activity (normal faulting) 816 triggered by the feeder of the Capelinhos eruption may be responsible for the measured 817 anomalous GPS velocities in westernmost Faial. 818

820 Acknowledgments

This is a contribution to Project MEGAHazards2 (PTDC/GEO-GEO/0946/2014), funded by FCT, Portugal. ACGC's Postdoctoral scholarship was funded by the Alexander von Humboldt Foundation. Special thanks to Judite Costa, José Costa, José Dias and Nílton Nunes for support during fieldwork.

825

826 Supplementary material

827 DEM analysis

The interpretation of shaded relief and slope maps constructed from the synthetic grid allowed us to distinguish and characterize different morpho-structural features. A 10 m resolution sub-aerial DEM was complemented with bathymetric data acquired offshore Pico (see Costa et al., 2014, 2015, and Hübscher et al., 2016 for details), aimed at identifying landslide scars and potential debris deposits generated by mass wasting episodes.

833

834 GPS data and processing

The Faial-Pico GNSS geodetic-geodynamic network was established in 2001 in the aim 835 of STAMINA and SARAZORES research projects (Navarro et al., 2003; Catalão et al., 2006). It 836 consists of 20 stations with metallic benchmarks installed on outcrops of solid rock distributed 837 mostly around the perimeter of both islands, with an average spacing of ca. 5 km (Fig. 001). The 838 data used in this study were acquired during six surveys in the period 2001 to 2012. Each site 839 was surveyed for 12 to 24 hours per day, over an average of 3 consecutive days. All the surveys 840 were performed using dual-frequency GPS receivers, collecting data every 30 sec and elevation 841 mask of 15°. During each survey, at least six stations were observed simultaneously, and one 842 station was measuring continuously (FAIM). For this 12-year long time series, each station was 843

visited at least four times and observed for at least eight 24-hours sessions.

GPS data were analysed using the GAMIT/GLOBK software version 10.6 (Herring et al., 845 2010) in a two-step approach as described in Dong et al. (1998). In the first stage of processing, 846 the station coordinates, the zenith delay of the atmosphere at each station, and orbital and Earth 847 orientation parameters (EOPs) were estimated using doubly differenced GPS phase observations. 848 At this stage in the processing, we included GPS data from IGS (International GNSS Services) 849 continuous operating stations, in order to serve as ties with the ITRF2014 (Altamimi et al., 850 2016). We have selected the IGS stations closest to the Azores and located on the Eurasia, North 851 America, and Nubia plates, and worldwide IGS stations working continuously since 2001. The 852 ITRF14 used global station coordinates and EOP provided by GNSS and other space geodetic 853 854 techniques data time series to update solutions from past years (i.e., 2008). A set of about 40 International GNSS Service (IGS) stations spread across the globe were grouped, in order to 855 assure precise coordinate estimates and lower correlation for the atmospheric parameters. IGS 856 precise final orbits were also used. The GAMIT solution was computed using loose constraints 857 on the a priori station coordinate (0.5 m), a priori hydrostatic and wet models from Saastamoinen 858 (1972, 1973), and Global Mapping Functions (Böhm et al., 2006). In a second step, daily 859 GAMIT solutions were used as quasi-observations in GLOBK to obtain the position time series 860 for all sites. In this solution, the regional daily solutions were combined with the global daily 861 solution from more than 100 IGS stations computed by SOPAC, the h-files (GAMIT interchange 862 format). The position time series were analysed to detect and remove outliers, and detect 863 possible vertical offsets caused by erroneous antenna height. After editing, the site coordinates 864 and velocities were estimated with respect to ITRF2014 reference frame from a priori values of 865 coordinates and velocities of IGS permanent sites. The one-sigma uncertainties for the GPS 866 velocities of our sites were derived by scaling the formal errors by the square root of chi-square 867 per degree of freedom of the final adjustment. The chi-square per degree of freedom for this 868

solution was 1.05, indicating a reasonable constraint and a robust estimation of parameters.

About 50% of the sites have horizontal velocity uncertainties lower than 1 mm/yr.

871

872 *Marine geophysics*

Seismic reflection and multibeam data used in this study have been collected during 873 research expedition M113 of RV METEOR in 2015 (Hübscher et al., 2016). The seismic signals 874 were generated by means of an array of three GI (Generator-Injector)-sources and one Mini-GI-875 source towed at a depth of ca. 2.5 m behind the ship's stern. The volume of one GI-source was 876 45 in³ for the generator with a 105 in³ injector volume. The operation mode of this source was 877 "true GI mode". Two GI-sources had a generator and injector volume of 105 in³ each, and were 878 879 operated in the "harmonic mode". The active sections of the digital streamer had a length of 600 m and comprised 144 channels. Processing included velocity determination, nmo (Normal 880 MoveOut)-correction, stacking, time-migration and white noise removal. For more details of the 881 marine seismic method, see Hübscher and Gohl, 2014. Multi-beam data recorded with the Hull 882 mounted EM122 SIMRAD system and were gridded after editing with 50 m cell size. 883 Additional profiles were built in 2017, during expedition M141, using a 6000-Joule sparker 884

that created the seismic signal that was recorded by means of a 48-channel analogue cable.
Processing included velocity determination, nmo-correction, stacking, time-migration and white

887 noise removal.

888

889 Paleomagnetic data

46 lava flows were sampled using a portable gasoline-powered drill. Samples were collected in lava piles comprising many flows, and 10 to 14 cores were commonly sampled in each lava flow. We measured the attitude of lava flows cautiously because of the effect of the irregular topography at the time of flow emplacement. In Faial, sampling focused mainly on lava flow piles outcropping on main fault scarps at the eastern coast of the island. In Pico, samples were collected along four lava piles of the Topo-Lajes Volcanic Complex, on both sides of the
main fault of the Ribeirinhas slump. Lava piles from sections P-TR and P-LJ are located west of
the main fault and belong to the oldest volcanic unit (Topo Volcano). The other two sections (A
and B) are younger and located to the east of the main slump fault. For detailed information on
sampling strategy and methods see Silva et al. (2018).

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