Upper crustal seismic structure of the Endeavour segment, Juan de Fuca Ridge from traveltime tomography: Implications for oceanic crustal accretion


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Abstract

The isotropic and anisotropic P wave velocity structure of the upper oceanic crust on the Endeavour segment of the Juan de Fuca Ridge is studied using refracted traveltime data collected by an active-source, three-dimensional tomography experiment. The isotropic velocity structure is characterized by low crustal velocities in the overlapping spreading centers (OSCs) at the segment ends. These low velocities are indicative of pervasive tectonic fracturing and persist off axis, recording the history of ridge propagation. Near the segment center, velocities within the upper 1 km show ridge-parallel bands with low velocities on the outer flanks of topographic highs. These features are consistent with localized thickening of the volcanic extrusive layer from eruptions extending outside of the axial valley that flow down the fault-tilted blocks that form the abyssal hill topography. On-axis velocities are generally relatively high beneath the hydrothermal vent fields likely due to the infilling of porosity by mineral precipitation. Lower velocities are observed beneath the most vigorous vent fields in a seismically active region above the axial magma chamber and may reflect increased fracturing and higher temperatures. Seismic anisotropy is high on-axis but decreases substantially off axis over 5–10 km (0.2–0.4 Ma). This decrease coincides with an increase in seismic velocities resolved at depths ≥1 km and is attributed to the infilling of cracks by mineral precipitation associated with near-axis hydrothermal circulation. The orientation of the fast-axis of anisotropy is ridge-parallel near the segment center but curves near the segment ends reflecting the tectonic fabric within the OSCs.

1. Introduction

The upper oceanic crust is formed by episodic diking and eruptive volcanic events sourced from midcrustal magma chambers, and is subsequently modified by tectonic extension, hydrothermal alteration, and off-axis volcanism. Understanding the interplay of these processes and their variation with time and location is an important goal of mid-ocean ridge research. Because seismic velocities are sensitive to composition, porosity, fracturing, temperature, and the presence of melt, marine seismic imaging techniques are useful tools for characterizing the structure of the crustal accretion zone and the off-axis crustal stratigraphy that reflects the time-integrated history of upper oceanic crust.

Marine refraction tomography constrains spatial variations in seismic velocity and is thus complementary to multichannel seismic (MCS) studies [e.g., Kent et al., 1990; Hooft et al., 1997] that image interfaces in seismic properties and shallow velocity structure. At mid-ocean ridges tomographic studies have measured: (1) thickness variations in layer 2A inferred from velocity variations within the upper 1 km of crust [Hussenoeder et al., 1996; Singh et al., 1998]; (2) variations in the upper crust related to fracturing and thermal structure [Harding et al., 1993; Kent et al., 1994; Kappus et al., 1995; Carbotte et al., 1997]; (3) midcrustal magma bodies located both beneath the ridge axis [Toomey et al., 1990; Dunn et al., 2000; Magde et al., 2000] and away from it [Durant and Toomey, 2009]; and (4) variations in anisotropy that are directly related to aligned cracks and fractures in the upper crust [Sohn et al., 1997; Barclay et al., 1998; Dunn and Toomey, 2001; Barclay and Wilcock, 2004; Tong et al., 2004; Seher et al., 2010b].

The Endeavour segment of the Juan de Fuca Ridge (JdFR) has an intermediate spreading rate and is characterized by a central portion underlain by an axial magma chamber (AMC) that supports several high-
temperature hydrothermal vent fields and by large overlapping spreading centers at either end. In this study, we utilize seismic tomographic methods to characterize three-dimensional segment-scale variations in the isotropic and anisotropic velocity structure of the upper crust of the Endeavour segment. The images are used to investigate the processes of crustal accretion and their variations along-axis on an intermediate spreading rate ridge segment.

2. Geologic Setting

The Endeavour segment is a ~90 km long, intermediate-rate [52 mm/yr full-spreading rate, DeMets et al., 2010] spreading center located near the northern end of the JdFR (Figure 1). It forms left-stepping overlapping spreading centers (OSCs) with the West Valley and Northern Symmetric segments. To the south, the Cobb OSC separates the Endeavour and Northern Symmetric segments by ~30 km. Since its formation at 5 Ma [Hey and Wilson, 1982] the net migration of the Cobb OSC has been to the north, but it has undergone alternating episodes of northward and southward propagation during its recent history [Johnson et al., 1983; Shoberg et al., 1991]. From 0.7 to 0.4 Ma, the northern end of the Northern Symmetric segment propagated quickly northward leaving a bathymetric record of a failed propagator on the Juan de Fuca Plate (Figure 1). The southern end of the Endeavour segment then propagated more gradually to the south before the current episode of northward propagation of the Northern Symmetric segment started at <0.1 Ma [Shoberg et al., 1991]. To the north, the Endeavour-West Valley (E-WV) OSC separates the two spreading centers by 15 km. The E-WV OSC formed within the past 50 kyr, and perhaps as recently as 10 kyr, when the spreading axis switched from the Middle Valley segment to the West Valley segment (Figure 1) as a result of
ongoing reorganization of plate boundaries at the northern end of the Juan de Fuca Ridge [Davis and Lister, 1977; Davis and Villinger, 1992].

Several prominent seamount chains on the Pacific plate side of the JdFR intersect the Endeavour segment [Davis and Karsten, 1986]; they are, from south to north, the Springfield, Heckle, and Heck seamount chains (Figure 1). The central 20 km portion of the Endeavour segment features a plateau that extends 45 km across axis and is elevated 300 m relative to the rest of the segment. It has been postulated that this plateau is a result of enhanced crustal production due to the ridge capturing the hot spot anomaly associated with the Heckle Seamount chain [Karsten and Delaney, 1989; Carbotte et al., 2008].

A recent MCS experiment indicates that AMCs underlie portions of each segment of the JdFR. The thickness of seismic layer 2A and the AMC depth vary by segment [Carbotte et al., 2008] and, in general, both increase from south to north. On the Endeavour segment, the AMC underlies the central portion of the segment at 2.1–3.3 km depth [Van Ark et al., 2007]. The AMC provides a heat source for five high-temperature hydrothermal vent fields that are 2–3 km apart in the axial valley [Kelley et al., 2002, 2012]. From south to north, the fields are named Mothra, Main Endeavour, High Rise, Salty Dawg, and Sasquatch. The hydrothermal systems have been studied extensively and are characterized by significant along-axis gradients in temperature and chemistry [Butterfield et al., 1994; Kelley et al., 2002, 2012].

Studies of microearthquakes from the central axial region show a concentration of seismicity at ~2 km depth just above the AMC [Wilcock et al., 2002, 2009; Weekly et al., 2013], with the most intense seismicity occurring beneath the High Rise and Main Endeavour fields [Wilcock et al., 2009] which also have the largest area and highest heat flux [Kellogg, 2011]. McClain et al. [1993] argue that off-axis normal faults maintain the conduits necessary to support robust hydrothermal circulation and the formation of long-standing vent fields. The characteristics of hypocenters and focal mechanisms for earthquakes recorded in 2003–2004 are consistent with ongoing magma inflation [Wilcock et al., 2009].

The Endeavour segment has been the site of several large volcanic earthquake swarms. In June 1999, a swarm on the central Endeavour [Johnson et al., 2000; Bohnenstiehl et al., 2004] significantly perturbed the chemistry of hydrothermal fluids [Lilley et al., 2003; Seyfried et al., 2003] and was the result of a dike intrusion [Davis et al., 2001]. A second swarm to south in the 2000 may also have been associated with a dike [Bohnenstiehl et al., 2004]. In January and February 2005, two complex seismic swarm sequences located near the E-WV OSC likely involved magmatic intrusions on the northern Endeavour and southernmost portion of the West Valley segment [Hooft et al., 2010; Weekly et al., 2013]. These swarms were followed by a substantial decrease in seismicity rates along the Endeavour segment and have been interpreted as the end of a 6 year noneruptive spreading event that started with the 1999 swarms and cumulatively relieved plate-spreading stresses [Weekly et al., 2013].

The MCS data show that seismic layer 2A thickens along-axis from about 150 to 300 m at the northern end of the Endeavour segment to almost 600 m at the southern end [Van Ark et al., 2007]. In contrast to seismic studies conducted at the southern JdFR [Canales et al., 2005] and the East Pacific Rise [Harding et al., 1993; Kent et al., 1994] that found evidence for 2A thickness increasing off axis, there is no clear pattern of off-axis thickening at the Endeavour segment [Van Ark et al., 2007]. There appears to be a weak correlation between fault-bounded, axis-parallel bathymetric highs and a thicker layer 2A [Van Ark et al., 2007]. Barclay and Wilcock (2004) also inferred this correlation from a small seismic refraction data set. MCS profiles that extend onto the flanks of the JdFR show systematic increases in layer 2 velocities with off-axis distance; layer 2A velocities increase rapidly near axis and then more gradually on the flanks, attaining values typical for mature oceanic crust of ~4.0 km/s within 5–8 Ma of formation [Nedimovic et al., 2008]. The upper portion of layer 2B undergoes a rapid maturation with velocities increasing by ~0.8 km/s within ~0.5 Ma [Newman et al., 2011]. The rapid evolution of layers 2A and 2B is attributed to mineral precipitation driven by the solidification and cooling of the oceanic crust, while the more the gradual evolution of layer 2A well off axis results from a reduction in porosity of the upper extrusive volcanic unit through long-term exposure to “passive” off-axis hydrothermal circulation [Carbotte et al., 2012].

3. Experiment Geometry and Data Acquisition

In August and September 2009, a three-dimensional seismic tomography experiment was conducted along the Endeavour segment (Figure 2). A seismic network comprising 68 four-component (three orthogonal geophones and a hydrophone) ocean bottom seismometers (OBSs) was deployed at 64 sites and recorded
~5500 air gun shots from the 36 element, 6600 in³ air gun array of the R/V Marcus G. Langseth. The experiment used a nested source-receiver geometry to collect data that sampled the crust and topmost mantle beneath an approximately 90 km-by-50 km area centered on the ridge segment. The segment-scale upper mantle structure was targeted with six 105 km long lines shot at a maximum distance of 30 km from the ridge axis and two ridge-perpendicular lines shot along the northern and southern limits of the experiment. An intermediate-scale grid was composed of 19 shot lines spaced 1 km apart within a 20 km-by-60 km region centered on the shallow central plateau. This grid recorded traveltime data for imaging off-axis structure and the along-axis distribution of the crustal magmatic plumbing system. The finest grid covered a 10 km-by-20 km area centered near the Main Endeavour vent field (47°57′N, 129°06′W) and comprised 10 shorter (20 km long) shot lines interlaced within the crustal grid. This central grid included the densest shot and receiver distributions and was designed to image the detailed structure of the upper crust near the hydrothermal vent fields. Shot spacing along all lines was 450 m. All shot lines were obtained with the air gun array towed at 9 m depth; the middle 105 km long, ridge-parallel lines on each flank were reshoot with the air guns towed at 15 m depth to increase the low-frequency content of the source signal.

Instrument and shot locations were determined simultaneously by inverting acoustic-water-wave arrivals [Creager and Dorman, 1982] that were automatically picked using an auto-regressive method [Takanami and Kitagawa, 1988]. Water column velocity structure was determined from expendable bathythermograph profiles collected throughout the experiment. The final horizontal 1-σ location uncertainties for stations and shots were 13 m and 9 m, respectively. Vertical station uncertainty was 10 m, as determined from the bathymetric map obtained using the onboard EM122 multibeam system.

The data return was remarkably high, with 62 stations recording data on either the hydrophone or vertical channel, 44 instruments yielding good quality data on both the hydrophone and vertical channels, and only two sites with bad data on both channels. Figure 3 shows several examples of crustal arrivals recorded.
by a station on the east flank of the central Endeavour (Figure 2). Raypaths that do not cross the ridge axis exhibit impulsive first-arriving ($P_g$) energy with a high signal-to-noise ratio and good trace-to-trace coherency at shot-receiver offsets up to 35 km (Figures 3a and 3b). Waveforms from $P_g$ raypaths that propagate across the ridge axis generally exhibit a more complex shape where first-arriving energy is emergent and attenuated (Figure 3c).

We adopted an iterative strategy for compiling a catalog of $P_g$ traveltimes. We first picked impulsive arrivals for nonridge-crossing raypaths at small source-receiver offsets of $<10$ km. We progressively increased the range of picks by inverting the data for velocity structure and using the results to generate predicted traveltimes that guided subsequent picking efforts at larger ranges. For nonridge-crossing raypaths, picking first arrivals was possible up to ranges of $\approx 35$ km. However, the maximum pick range was generally much smaller for ridge-crossing raypaths ($\approx 20$ km) due to lower amplitudes and a lack of trace-to-trace coherency of waveforms. The total data set includes 96,156 $P_g$ traveltimes picked on the 62 reporting instruments. For 44 of the 62 instruments, arrival times were picked after summing the vertical and hydrophone channels while arrivals for the remaining 18 instruments were identified on one channel, depending on data quality.

Pick uncertainties were estimated visually, with larger uncertainties assigned to waveforms with an emergent first arrival, or to groups of waveforms that showed significant trace-to-trace variability. Nearly 80% of our $P_g$ data were assigned an uncertainty between 10 and 15 ms while $\approx 97\%$ were assigned uncertainties less than 20 ms. The root-mean-square uncertainty for the entire $P_g$ data set is 13 ms. We note that other sources of experimental error that include source or receiver location uncertainties, instrument clock corrections, and seafloor bathymetry, result in traveltime uncertainties that are generally smaller than the picking error [Barclay et al., 1998].

Figure 3. Example record sections with $P_g$ traveltime picks (red lines with dotted lines showing assigned picking errors) used for tomographic inversions. Waveform data recorded from the shot lines shown in Figure 2 are band-pass filtered between 4 and 30 Hz and a reduction velocity of 6 km/s is applied. The shots are spaced uniformly 450 m apart along the shot lines and the horizontal axis is labeled with the shot-receiver range. For nonridge-crossing lines, the most impulsive arrivals are observed at ranges (a) less than 12 km but picks can often be obtained to ranges (b) exceeding 30 km. (c) Ridge-crossing lines show more complicated arrivals with lower signal to noise, particularly beyond 15 km, and are typically picked to shorter ranges and with higher uncertainties.
4. Tomographic Method

We used a tomographic technique to invert traveltime data for isotropic slowness and seismic anisotropy [Toomey et al., 1994; Dunn et al., 2005]. Assuming an initial model, we forward modeled predicted traveltime and calculated residuals for raypaths between sources and receivers. The inverse problem was linearized about the model to obtain a set of equations that mapped model perturbations into traveltime residuals. Additional equations with parameters set by the user determined the smoothness and a priori variance of the model. A least squares inversion of the overdetermined set of equations was used to update the model, and subsequent iterations were repeated until the RMS traveltime residual converged.

4.1. Forward Problem

The velocity model for ray tracing was parameterized in terms of slowness with nodes arranged in a rectangular grid aligned with the trend of the rise axis. Raypaths were calculated using the shortest-path ray tracing method [Moser, 1991]. The model included seafloor topography by vertically shearing columns of nodes [Toomey et al., 1994]. On the basis of previous active-source tomography experiments designed to image upper crustal structure above ~2 km depth [Barclay et al., 1998; Dunn et al., 2000], and on our source-receiver spacing, we chose a uniform grid spacing of 200 m for the ray tracing model.

Following Dunn et al. [2005], anisotropic slowness was parameterized on the slowness grid as:

\[ u_m(r) = \frac{u_{iso}(r)}{1 + A(r) \cos(2\theta(r)) + B(r) \sin(2\theta(r))} \]  

(1)

where \( u_{iso} \) is the isotropic slowness, \( r \) is the position, \( \theta \) is the raypath azimuth, and \( A \) and \( B \) are scale terms that control the magnitude and azimuthal orientation of the fast direction of anisotropy, which are given by \( 2(A^2 + B^2)^{0.5} \) and \( \tan^{-1}(B/A)/2 \), respectively. This parameterization allowed us to explicitly invert for three-dimensional variations in the orientation and percentage of seismic anisotropy.

Implicit in the parameterization of (1) is the assumption that \( P \) wave anisotropy results from a hexagonal symmetry system. This system is appropriate for media where anisotropy results from aligned vertical cracks [Crampin, 1993], which has been widely accepted as the primary mechanism for seismic anisotropy in the upper oceanic crust [Barclay et al., 1998; Dunn and Toomey, 2001; Seher et al., 2010a]. In this system, \( P \) wave velocities in the symmetry planes perpendicular to the crack plane can be expressed as a linear combination of \( \cos(2\theta) \) and \( \cos(4\theta) \) terms. Furthermore, we assume in (1) that liquid-filled cracks in the upper crust have an aspect ratio \( \geq 0.01 \) [thinner cracks would yield \( P \) wave velocity structure that is primarily modulated by \( \cos(4\theta) \) terms, Hudson, 1981]. As discussed below, this assumption is justified by the observed \( \cos(2\theta) \) azimuthal variation in isotropic traveltime residuals.

4.2. Inverse Problem

Following Toomey et al. [1994], the inverse problem was solved using an iterative technique that required the user to set a priori model uncertainties and smoothing parameters that operated on perturbational models parameterized for isotropic slowness and anisotropy. The perturbational models composed of rectangular grids that were denser within 10 km of the central axial valley to reflect the greater number of raypaths; horizontal node spacing was 1 km outside of this region and 0.5 km within. Vertical node spacing was a uniform 0.25 km. Inversions were regularized by penalizing model roughness and size. A jumping strategy was used to seek a final model that was smoothed relative to the starting model [Shaw and Orcutt, 1985]. We sought to minimize a functional of the general form:

\[ s^2 = \Delta t^T C_d^{-1} \Delta t + \lambda_P (m_0 + \Delta m)^T C_{p0}^{-1} (m_0 + \Delta m) \\
+ \lambda_r (m_0 + \Delta m)^T C_{r0}^{-1} (m_0 + \Delta m) + \lambda_m (m_0 + \Delta m)^T C_{m0}^{-1} (m_0 + \Delta m) \]  

(2)

where \( \Delta t \) is a vector of the differences between observed and calculated traveltimes; \( C_d \) is a diagonal matrix of the data variance composed of the squares of the \( Pg \) arrival-time uncertainties; \( m_0 \) is a vector of the cumulative perturbation to the isotropic slowness and anisotropic model parameters from previous iterations; \( \Delta m \) is the model perturbation for the current iteration; \( C_{p0}, C_{r0}, C_{m0} \) are diagonal matrices of the a priori model uncertainties.
Because the solution to the inverse problem is inherently nonunique, our strategy was to explore the parameter space of the weighting parameters using a systematic approach to construct smooth solutions that adequately fit the data according to the function:

$$\chi^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{\Delta t_i^2}{\sigma_i^2}$$

where $N$ is the number of traveltime observations and $\Delta t_i$ and $\sigma_i$ are the traveltime residual and pick uncertainty of the $i$th traveltime, respectively.

5. Results

The inversion volume (Figures 1 and 2) measured 90 km $\times$ 120 km $\times$ 9 km, was centered on the Endeavour segment, and was rotated clockwise 21° so that the $y$ axis approximately paralleled the central portion of the spreading axis. The starting model for our inversions (Figure 4a) was a smoothed approximation to a one-dimensional crustal model derived from a seismic refraction experiment conducted along the central portion of the Endeavour segment between $47^\circ$ 55’N and $48^\circ$ 05’N [Cudrak and Clowes, 1993]. We adopted a two-stage inversion approach to obtaining a preferred model that includes isotropic and anisotropic structure. First, using the one-dimensional starting model, we inverted the data for isotropic and anisotropic structure with $\lambda_P = 1$, $\lambda_V = 200$, $\lambda_H = 300$, and $\lambda_{AV} = \lambda_{AH} = 400$. A smoothed approximation to the longer wavelength isotropic structure was obtained from this inversion by applying a three-dimensional median filter to the isotropic output model using averaging half-lengths of 1, 2, and 0.6 km in the $x$, $y$, and $z$ directions, respectively. Second, we performed a series of anisotropic inversions using the spatially smoothed isotropic starting model in which we systematically varied $\lambda_P$, $\lambda_V$, $\lambda_H$, $\lambda_{AV}$, and $\lambda_{AH}$. We assumed a prior model uncertainties of 50% and our preferred model does not heavily penalize the model norm ($\lambda_P = 1$), but instead penalizes vertical
and horizontal roughness for both the isotropic ($\lambda = \lambda_v = 200$) and anisotropic components ($\lambda = \lambda_{SV} = 400$). Varying the values of horizontal smoothing had a much larger impact on the final misfit than varying vertical smoothing. Larger values for spatial smoothing gave smoother models with lower amplitude anomalies while smaller values yielded models with higher amplitude fine-scale features. The preferred model is the smoothest model that achieved a $\chi^2$ value reasonably close to unity (1.17).

Our strategy for testing the resolution of the preferred model involved analyzing the spatial distribution of raypaths within the experiment geometry, and conducting inversions of traveltimes obtained from synthetic slowness and anisotropy models. These results are presented in the supporting information.

5.1. Isotropic Structure

Average velocity-depth profiles (Figure 4a) for well-resolved regions reveal large differences in upper crustal structure between the flanks of the segment center and the ends of the segment near the OSCs, including the adjacent relict Middle Valley segment (Figure 2, blue and red boxes, respectively). Upper crustal velocities in the Cobb OSC, the E-WV OSC, and the southern end of Middle Valley are uniformly slower than our starting model, with Middle Valley displaying the lowest velocities of the three at all depths. In contrast, velocity-depth profiles near the segment center for the eastern and western flanks exhibit similar structure, both with slightly higher velocities than the starting model below 1 km depth (Figure 4a). The velocity difference between the Middle Valley region and the ridge flanks exceeds 1.0 km/s from 1.0 to 2.5 km depth.

The segment-scale velocity structure (Figure 5) is strongly heterogeneous. Beneath the E-WV OSC, we observe a broad low-velocity anomaly at all depths, with a peak velocity anomaly of $-1.0$ km/s. To the east of the northern Endeavour segment is another broad low-velocity anomaly that reaches $-1.2$ km/s and is elongated in a ridge-parallel direction. This anomaly coincides with the south end of the relict Middle Valley segment (Figure 1). At the Cobb OSC there is another broad low-velocity region. However, the peak velocity anomaly in this region ($-0.7$ km/s) is less than that observed within the E-WV OSC. Low velocities are also observed in the southeast corner of the model to the west of the Northern Symmetric segment in a region that coincides with a failed propagator of the Cobb OSC (Figure 1). The detailed velocity structure is only well constrained in a portion of each OSC due to the spatial limitations of ray coverage and this is reflected in the synthetic checkerboard tests (see supporting information). However, the OSCs clearly exhibit lower velocities compared to the rest of the segment. In contrast to the ends, the central portion of the Endeavour segment shows a markedly different structure with higher average velocities and substantial lateral heterogeneity (Figures 4a and 5). At depths $\geq 2.0$ km, the flanks of the segment center are characterized by a broad high-velocity anomaly with peak velocity variations of 0.4 km/s that extend from a few kilometers of the spreading axis to near the eastern and western limits of the imaged region (Figures 5e–5g).

Within the upper 1 km of the central portion of the Endeavour segment is a sequence of banded velocity anomalies that align with the trend of the ridge axis (Figure 6). The bands are about 4 km wide, extend 30–40 km along-axis and 10–12 km to either side. None of the low-velocity bands locate directly beneath the bathymetric highs, but are instead displaced toward the flankward side of the ridge (Figures 7b–7d). The ridge-parallel lineations are most prevalent within the upper $\sim 1$ km of crust, but persist as lower amplitude features to 1.6 km depth (Figures 6c and 6d). At depths $\geq 2$ km the ridge axis is characterized by a low-velocity band flanked by high velocities. Note that since the inversions include no arrivals propagating below the AMC the axial structure at these depths is constrained entirely by $Pg$ phases diffracting above the AMC [Wilcock et al., 1993].

Within the Endeavour axial valley there is significant along-axis heterogeneity (Figure 7e). At depths $< 2$ km velocities beneath the hydrothermal vent fields are generally higher than elsewhere along the ridge axis. Velocities beneath the northernmost Salty Dawg and Sasquatch vent fields are up to 0.4 km/s greater than the regions immediately to the north and south of the vent fields (Figure 7e) while velocities beneath the High Rise, Main Endeavour, and Mothra vent fields are up to 0.2 km/s greater than beneath the region to the south. At $\sim 2.0$ km depth immediately above the AMC, there are low-velocity anomalies between the Main Endeavour and High Rise vent fields and several kilometers to the north of Sasquatch field.

5.2. Anisotropic Structure

Figure 8 shows average traveltime residuals in 20° azimuthal bins for a three-dimensional isotropic model plotted against the azimuth of the Y axis of the tomography grid for three different depth intervals; the
An isotropic model was obtained in an identical manner to the preferred anisotropic model except that anisotropy was not included in the tomographic analysis. The traveltime residuals show a clear \( \cos(2\theta) \) azimuthal variation, which is consistent with faster propagation along raypaths oriented parallel to the trend of the Endeavour segment. The peak-to-peak amplitudes of these azimuthal variations decrease from 25 ms for rays turning above 2 km depth to 9 ms for those turning between 2 and 3 km depth, indicating the azimuthal dependence is strongest at shallower depths.

The tomographic inversion recovers a substantial component of anisotropic structure, with the percentage anisotropy dependent on both the depth and distance from the ridge axis. The horizontally averaged percentage of anisotropy within 10 km of the ridge axis decreases from over 8% in the upper 1 km to just over 2% at 3 km depth (Figure 9). At all depths, the percentage of anisotropy is highest on the ridge axis and decreases substantially off axis over a length scale of 5–10 km (Figures 10a–10c). For example, at 1 km depth the average percentage of anisotropy decreases from ~10% on-axis to ~4% 10 km away (Figure 10b). Synthetic tests (see supporting information) show that this decrease is well resolved.

At depths between 1 and 3 km the off-axis decrease in anisotropy is accompanied by increased seismic velocities (Figure 11). At 1 km depth, the 6% decrease in anisotropy coincides with an increase in mean velocity from 5.1 to 5.4 km/s (Figure 11b). At 2.2 km depth, the percent anisotropy decreases from 5% to 3% while mean velocities increase from 6.2 to 6.5 km/s (Figure 11e). Above 1 km depth, the decrease in anisotropy is not accompanied by a systematic trend in velocities (Figure 11a).

Figure 5. (a–g) Map view sections of three-dimensional segment-scale isotropic velocity anomalies relative to the horizontally-averaged model (black solid line in Figure 4a). The area covered by the plots is shown by a dotted line in Figure 1. Horizontal slices of the inversion volume are presented at 0.4 km depth intervals and masked in regions where the derivative weight sum (DWS) is less than 10 (see supporting information). The contour interval for velocity perturbations is 0.2 km/s. The traces of the segments are shown by bold black lines and the vent fields by green stars. (h) Shaded bathymetric map of the area shown in Figures 5a–5g showing the location of high-temperature vent fields (green stars). Red and blue boxes show regions used for calculating the average vertical velocity profiles in Figure 4a and the black dashed box shows the area covered by Figure 6.
High levels of anisotropy are observed everywhere near the ridge but there is significant along-axis heterogeneity (Figures 10a–10c). A checkerboard test (see supporting information) suggests that features with horizontal wavelengths as small as 10 km are resolvable in the center of the experiment; smaller wavelength features may not be resolved. The highest amplitude signal occurs to the north of the vent fields near \( Y = 15 \) km (Figures 10a–10c). There, shallow anisotropy values exceed 15% and relatively high values persist to 2 km depth. This strongly anisotropic region is shifted slightly toward the Pacific plate and coincides with the southern extent of the E-WV OSC. Other localized zones of high anisotropy are observed near \( Y = 5 \) km just north of Sasquatch field, beneath the southern vent fields, and to the south near \( Y = 20 \) km (Figures 10a–10c).

As might be expected, the overall direction of the fast-axis of anisotropy parallels the central Endeavour segment but there are variations in azimuth that seem to mirror morphological features. In the E-WV OSC, the anisotropy rotates to parallel the curvature of the Endeavour arm of the OSC. Toward the south between \( Y = 20 \) km and \( Y = 30 \) km the fast direction on either side of the ridge converges to the south, mimicking the converging trends of the abyssal hills. At off-axis distances greater than \( -10 \) km, where the level of the anisotropy is greatly reduced, the fast direction is variable but is less well resolved due to incomplete azimuthal raypath coverage outside of the crustal grid (see supporting information).

6. Discussion
6.1. Isotropic Velocity Structure
6.1.1. Segment-Scale Velocity Variations
Our data indicate that increased fracturing in the OSCs causes low velocities in the upper crust that persist off axis and record the history of ridge propagation. The broad zone of relatively high velocities in the
The segment center is bordered by low-velocity regions that coincide closely with the regions influenced by the OSCs (Figure 5). In the southeast corner of our model, low velocities are observed to the east of the Cobb OSC in a region of a failed rift that terminated near 47° 50' N (Figure 1) [Johnson et al., 1983]. To the north, low velocities are observed to the east of the E-WV OSC in Middle Valley and to the west in the vicinity of the Heck Seamounts. Thus, the velocities are not uniformly low within the OSC discordant zone but appear to result from the fracturing associated with episodic events of ridge propagation.

Tomographic studies show that intrasegment variability of upper crustal velocity structure is not exclusive to the Endeavour. Figures 4b and 4c show average velocity profiles from this study compared to example profiles for the East Pacific Rise [Canales et al., 2003] and the Mid-Atlantic Ridge [Hooft et al., 2000]. The vertical velocity functions for the eastern and western flanks of the central Endeavour segment are similar to previously published results from the central Endeavour [Cudrak and Clowes, 1993; Barclay and Wilcock, 2004], and from the CoAxial Segment of the Juan de Fuca Ridge [Sohn et al., 1997]. They are also quite similar to the structure observed in the center of segments along the Mid-Atlantic Ridge near 35° N (Figure 4c) [Hooft et al., 2000]. At sites away from segment boundaries on the East Pacific Rise at 8–10° N (Figure 4b) [Canales et al., 2003] and elsewhere [Grevemeyer et al., 1998; Bazin et al., 2001; Van Avendonk et al., 2001] the upper crustal velocities are up to ~0.5 km/s faster than values for the central Endeavour segment. However, if the profiles from the East Pacific Rise and Endeavour are scaled relative to the depth of the AMC (~1.6 km on the northern East Pacific Rise, Detrick et al., 1987; Kent et al., 1993 and ~2.5 km on the Endeavour, Van Ark
et al., 2007] they are quite similar. Thus, the differences may simply reflect the thinning of layer 2 units on the East Pacific Rise.

There are also strong similarities between velocity profiles at the ends the Endeavour segment and segment boundaries elsewhere. The profiles for the E-WV OSC and the relic OSC basin on the west side of the East Pacific Rise near 9°N [Canales et al., 2003] are nearly identical (Figure 4b). Above 2 km, the E-WV OSC profile is also reasonably similar to the profile at the end of segment OH on the Mid-Atlantic Ridge [Hooft et al., 2000] (Figure 2c). Below 2 km, the OH profile is markedly faster, likely as a result of thinner crust at the end of this segment. The velocity profile for Middle Valley is similar to the Oceanographer Fracture Zone above 3 km depth [Hooft et al., 2000].

Bazin et al. [2001] propose that anomalously low velocities observed in the shallow crust near the 9°N OSC on the East Pacific Rise are attributed to thickness variations caused by lavas pooling within the overlap basin. However, this model cannot explain the differences at the Endeavour. The low velocities at the segment ends extend well below 1 km, the maximum depth to which layer 2A thickness variations map into the tomographic models (see supporting information). At the northern end of the segment, where the velocities are lowest, layer 2A is thin beneath the ridge-axis [Van Ark et al., 2007]. Since the West Valley segment has only been actively spreading for 10–50 kyr [Davis and Villinger, 1992], it seems unlikely that a thick layer of extrusive volcanic rocks could have accumulated in the E-WV OSC during this time.

Our preferred interpretation of the lower upper-crustal velocities observed at the ends of the Endeavour segment and adjacent Middle Valley is that there is increased porosity due to enhanced tectonic fracturing within the OSC. Near large transform faults, depressed seismic velocities are commonly attributed to tectonic fissuring and cracking [Detrick et al., 1993a; Begnau et al., 1997; Van Avendonk et al., 2001]. Within smaller overlap basins, shearing of the seafloor fabric and rotation of adjacent limbs of the overlap basin [Christeson et al., 1997] can produce porosity increases of ~10%. In addition, vigorous hydrothermal circulation on the axis of the central Endeavour may decrease porosity through mineral precipitation [Lowell et al., 1993], which would increase seismic velocities. In contrast, fracturing that occurs within the OSC basins may occur too far off axis to be impacted by high-temperature hydrothermal circulation so that the low velocities are preserved off axis, recording the history of ridge propagation.

**Figure 8.** Mean traveltime residuals for the preferred isotropic model plotted against azimuth for rays turning between (a) 0–1 km depth, (b) 1–2 km depth, and (c) 2–3 km depth. Residuals are averaged in 20° azimuth bins and error bars show the 1σ standard error of the mean. Azimuths are plotted as degrees clockwise from the y axis of the inversion grid, which is parallel to the strike of the central Endeavour and rotated 21° clockwise from north. Solid lines depict cosine curves of the form \(a \cos(2\theta + b)\) that have been fit to the data using a least squares approach.

**Figure 9.** Average vertical profile of percent anisotropy recovered by the inversion within \(X = -10\) and 10 km of the ridge-axis and between \(Y = -20\) km and \(Y = 20\) km.
Figure 10. Map-view sections of the central Endeavour showing the magnitude of anisotropy at (a) 0.4 km depth, (b) 1.0 km depth, and (c) 1.6 km depth. Images are contoured at 2% intervals. (d) Map of the central Endeavour segment showing orientation and magnitude of seismic anisotropy at 0.4 km depth with ticks showing the fast direction and tick lengths scaled to the magnitude of anisotropy. The traces of segments (bold cyan lines in Figures 10a–10c and black lines in Figure 10d) and vent fields (green stars) are also shown.

Figure 11. Plots showing the change in average isotropic velocity (blue lines) and magnitude of anisotropy (red lines) as a function of distance from the ridge-axis of the central Endeavour at six depths (labeled). Average values at depth were calculated in 1 km wide and 40 km long bins oriented parallel to the Y axis and bisected by the X axis.
On the basis of the remarkable similarity between velocities in the E-WV OSC and the relic OSC near 9° N East Pacific Rise [Canales et al., 2003] (Figure 4b), it seems plausible that fracturing may account for low velocities in this latter location. While Bazin et al. [2001] interpret velocity variations in terms of layer 2A thickness, the low-velocity regions in their tomographic model appear to extend well below 1 km depth, which is consistent with enhanced fracturing throughout the upper crust. It is interesting to note that the average and even minimum velocities reported by Bazin et al. [2001] (Figure 4b) near the current OSC basin at 9° N are markedly higher than those observed by Canales et al. [2003] in a relict basis, which might suggest that the fracturing of the crust in the near-axis region imaged by Bazin et al. [2001] may not be complete.

The average velocities in the E-WV OSC are lower at all depths by 0.3–0.4 km/s than in the Cobb OSC (Figure 4a). This may reflect more intensive tectonic deformation associated with ongoing plate boundary reorganization at the northern end of the Endeavour segment [Dziak, 2006]. The lowest velocities in the model are in Middle Valley, where they are ~0.2 km/s slower than in the E-WV OSC (Figure 4a). Middle Valley is blanketed by a significant layer of sediment [Davis and Villinger, 1992]. The sediment layer has a low velocity and its insulating effect may also depress the velocities of the underlying basement by elevating its temperature. Ultrasonic measurements on mafic rocks suggest that the partial derivative of $P$ wave velocity with temperature is $-0.4 \times 10^{-3}$ to $-0.6 \times 10^{-3}$ km s$^{-1}$ K$^{-1}$ [Christensen, 1979; Kern and Tubia, 1993], which is equivalent to a decrease in velocities of about 0.1–0.2 km/s for a 300°C temperature increase.

### 6.1.2. Upper Crustal Formation

We interpret the shallow ridge-parallel, alternating velocity anomalies in the segment center as being caused by a combination of normal faults forming the rift valley and volcanic emplacement occurring in a wide zone of accretion. The upper 1 km of crust along the central axial valley and the adjacent bathymetric ridges is characterized by a series of ~4 km wide linear anomalies that alternate between relatively high and low velocities (Figures 6 and 7). These variations are most simply interpreted in terms of variations in the thickness of layer 2A. The inversions have poor vertical resolution in the uppermost crust (see supporting information) because rays do not turn in layer 2A, so variations in the thickness of this low-velocity layer are mapped into anomalies that extend throughout the upper ~1 km. The magnitudes of the shallow velocity anomalies in our isotropic model suggest variations in layer 2A thickness of 150–200 m, which are consistent with layer 2A thicknesses observed on cross-axis MCS profiles which have standard deviations of ~100 m [Van Ark et al., 2007].

At the Endeavour segment, periodic spacing of abyssal hills has been interpreted in terms of alternating episodes of enhanced volcanism and tectonic extension [Kappel and Ryan, 1986]. If layer 2A is interpreted as the layer of volcanic extrusives, this model predicts a variable thickness for layer 2A with thicker accumulations beneath the bathymetric ridges and less accumulation in between. Both a small tomographic experiment [Barclay and Wilcock, 2004] and MCS data [Van Ark et al., 2007] have shown a thicker layer 2A beneath bathymetric highs. However, our results show a more nuanced structure with the low-velocity anomalies centered beneath the outer flanks of the bathymetric highs (Figure 7). This observation is difficult to reconcile with a model in which the axial highs are simple volcanically constructed features.

An alternative model for the abyssal hills is that they form as a result of inward-facing normal faults that are active during dike events [Carbotte et al., 2006]. This model requires no fluctuations in the rate of volcanism; instead the faults are regularly spaced across axis because new faults form only when the existing faults have rifted too far off axis to be activated by dike-induced stresses. This model is consistent with thickening of layer 2A on the outer flanks provided some eruptions either overflow the axial valley while it is narrow and shallow [Carbotte et al., 2006] or occur entirely outside the axial valley. The rotation of the footwall that would accompany normal faulting would create a sloped seafloor that would lead to eruptions flowing away from the ridge axis. Seafloor observations from the Cleft segment along the southern JdFR suggest that eruptions outside the axial valley are quite common [Stokes et al., 2006] and low-velocity and high-attenuation anomalies observed in the crust by the Endeavour tomography experiment are consistent with off-axis volcanism [Hooft et al., submitted manuscript, 2014].

Another interesting feature of our shallow velocity structure is that it shows no evidence of high velocities on the spreading axis that would indicate a thinner layer 2A on-axis, which is consistent with Van Ark et al. [2007] who did not identify a systematic difference between the thicknesses of layer 2A on and off axis. In
contrast, layer 2A systematically thickens by up to a factor of three off axis along the East Pacific Rise [Too-
mey et al., 1990; Detrick et al., 1993b; Harding et al., 1993] and the southern Juan de Fuca Ridge [Canales
et al., 2005]. Stochastic modeling of dike emplacement and lava flows [Hooft et al., 1996] shows that off-axis
2A thickening can be reconstructed using a narrow zone of accretion and a bimodal distribution of lava
flows consisting of short-length, small-volume flows interspersed with high-volume eruptions that flow out-
side the accretion zone over the axial topography. At the Endeavour, the lack of thickening of layer 2A near
the ridge axis suggests that the axial lava flows presently extend over a region that is similar to the width of
the accretion zone. To generate the thickening of layer 2A observed on the outer flanks of the abyssal hills,
either the pattern of axial accretion is different than in the past, or eruptions occur off axis in a region that
is separated from the axial accretion zone as suggested by Hooft et al. (submitted manuscript, 2014).

6.1.3. Vent Field Structure
Our data suggest that velocity differences beneath the vent fields are consistent with ongoing fracturing
and mineral precipitation within the hydrothermal reaction zone. At 0–2 km depth, the velocities beneath
the vent fields are on average 0.2–0.4 m/s higher than beneath the ridge axis to the north and south (Figure
7e). If the higher velocities result solely from temperature differences, then shallow temperatures would be
required to be at least 300°C lower in the vent fields [Christensen, 1979]. Although hydrothermal circulation
will draw cold fluids into the crust, this explanation seems unlikely since models of high Rayleigh number
hydrothermal circulation suggest that much of the volume infilled by circulation is warm [Coumou et al.,
2008]. A more plausible explanation is that the porosity is lower beneath the vent fields due to the effects
of clogging by hydrothermal precipitation and alteration [Lowell et al., 1993; Wilcock and Delaney, 1996; Low-
ell et al., 2003]. Interestingly, the lowest velocities at 0–2 km depth in the vent field region locate midway
between the Main Endeavour and High Rise fields, the two fields with the highest heat fluxes [Kellogg,
2011]. This suggests that porosity (and, by inference, permeability) might be higher in this region.

It is also possible that increased temperatures in the heat uptake zone associated with vigorous hydrother-
mal circulation above the AMC may contribute to lower velocities beneath the Main Endeavour and High
Rise fields (Figure 7e). The low velocities below the Main Endeavour and High Rise fields coincide closely
with a region of intense seismicity (Figure 12b) whose characteristics were interpreted in terms of cracking
associated with magma chamber inflation [Wilcock et al., 2009]. Thus, the low velocities may reflect
enhanced porosity and fracturing in a region where the high rates of seismicity counteract the effects of
hydrothermal clogging. Indeed, it is interesting to note that low velocities are also present at ~2 km depth
several kilometers north of the vent fields (Figure 12b, Y = 7 km). This is also a region of intense seismicity
(Figure 12c) that may be related to stresses induced by the interaction between the southern tip of the
West Valley propagator and the Endeavour segment [Weekly et al., 2013].

6.2. Anisotropic Crustal Structure
Our study is the first to investigate the three-dimensional spatial heterogeneity of anisotropy in the upper
crust at a mid-ocean ridge. Previous tomographic studies of crustal anisotropy reported on either azimuthal
variations in traveltime residuals calculated from an isotropic velocity model or on the depth-dependence
of the percentage anisotropy using a prescribed orientation [Barclay et al., 1998; Dunn and Toomey, 2001;
Barclay and Wilcock, 2004; Tong et al., 2004; Dunn et al., 2005]. Only one previous study [Sohn et al., 1997]
has reported three-dimensional variations in percent anisotropy, but that study used a fixed orientation.

6.2.1. Depth Variations and Cracks in the Upper Crust
Our results are consistent with models that attribute seismic anisotropy in the upper oceanic crust to cracks
aligned parallel to the ridge axis [Stephen, 1985; Shearer and Orcutt, 1986]. The observed decrease in anisot-
ropy with depth is attributed to pore volume reductions due to crack closures resulting from increased
lithostatic pressures. A clear azimuthal dependence in traveltime residuals calculated from a 10-km depth
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from the East Pacific Rise but this is consistent with the amplitude of the azimuthal dependence of travel-
time residuals which is higher in our data set.

6.2.2. Variations Off Axis

Our observed decrease in anisotropy with distance from the ridge is consistent with infilling of cracks by
the precipitation of minerals in the near-axis hydrothermal system. A remarkable feature of our inversion
that has not been reported from inversions elsewhere is the rapid decrease in anisotropy away from the
ridge axis. Within 5–10 km of the ridge axis (crustal ages of 0.2–0.4 Ma) the percentage anisotropy in the
upper crust decreases to less than half of its value at the ridge axis (Figures 10 and 11). At depths ≥1 km,
this decrease in anisotropy is accompanied by an increase in average isotropic velocities by 0.3–0.4 km/s
(Figure 11). The inversions do not have good vertical resolution above 1 km since isotropic velocity anoma-
lies at shallow depths are influenced by local variations in the thickness of the low-velocity layer 2A. Thus,
any increase in layer 2A isotropic velocities off axis cannot be distinguished from changes in layer 2A
thickness.

Multichannel seismic data shows that layer 2A velocities both at the Endeavour [Nedimovic et al., 2008; Car-
botte et al., 2012] and many other locations [e.g., Grevemeyer and Bartetzko, 2004] increase quite rapidly
within a few kilometers of the ridge axis before increasing more gradually well off axis. At the Endeavour,
multichannel seismic data also shows that velocities in the upper few hundred meters of layer 2B increase
off axis by an average of 0.8 km/s within 0.5 Ma [Newman et al., 2011]. The rapid evolution of layers 2A and
2B velocities is interpreted as evidence for the infilling of cracks by the precipitation of minerals in the near-
axis hydrothermal system. Our results show that the evolution of layer 2B velocities extends to the base of

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**Figure 12.** (a) Along-axis (X = 0 km) vertical cross section showing the percentage anisotropy for the region extending from Y = −10 to
Y = 10 km. Locations of earthquakes between 2003 and 2004 (red dots) were obtained using double-difference techniques [Wilcock et al.,
2009]. The black solid line shows the depth to the AMC [Van Ark et al., 2007]. (b) As for Figure 12a, but showing the magnitude of isotropic
velocity anomalies for our preferred model plotted relative to the average velocity structure shown in Figure 4a. (c) Histogram of ~6000
earthquakes located by an automated method from 2003 to 2006 that occurred within 2 km of the ridge [Weekly et al., 2013]. Earthquakes
are binned in 0.5 km increments along the Y axis. Hypocenters from this data set are not shown because earthquakes located north of the
vent fields occurred outside of the seismometer network and have poor depth constraints.
layer 2 (the base of sheeted dike layer) and is consistent with this interpretation. Indeed, the infilling of ridge-parallel cracks is the only viable mechanism to reduce anisotropy with age. Newman et al. (2011) infer that crack infilling occurs in regions of hydrothermal downflow based on the distribution of layer 2B velocities in off-axis regions where the patterns of hydrothermal flow are known. This would lead to the inference that recharge associated with cooling newly formed crust extends several kilometers off axis.

6.2.3. Along-Axis Variations

Along-axis variations in both the magnitude and orientation of anisotropy are consistent with tectonic processes. The orientation of the fast direction of anisotropy aligns perpendicular to the spreading direction near the segment center but is rotated near segment ends (Figure 10d). There are significant along-axis variations in the magnitude of anisotropy on the spreading axis (Figures 10a–10c). The high values near \( Y = 15 \) km (Figures 10a and 10b) and \( Y = 5 \) km (Figure 10c) lie at the southern end of the E-WV OSC and the inferred southward propagating extension of the West Valley segment [Weekly et al., 2013] and are consistent with high levels of ongoing deformation within the OSC. Within the vent fields the strongest shallow anisotropy is observed between the Main Endeavour and High-Rise fields (Figure 12a). Interestingly, this is a likely zone for intense hydrothermal recharge based on the inference that the circulation cells are oriented along-axis [McDuff et al., 1994; Tolstoy et al., 2008] and the observation that the hydrothermal heat fluxes are high for these two fields [Kellogg, 2011].

At the northern end of the Endeavour, the fast direction mirrors the curvature of the rotated limbs of the E-WV OSC. The curvature of adjacent limbs at OSCs towards one another is a common feature of en echelon ridge segments [Macdonald et al., 1987, 1991] and is consistent with crack propagation theory [Pollard and Aydin, 1984]. Near the Cobb OSC, the orientation of the fast direction converges to the south, mirroring the decreased spacing of abyssal hills that reflects decreased spreading rates in the OSC. Unlike at the 9°03’N OSC along the East Pacific Rise [Tong et al., 2004], we find that the orientation of seismic anisotropy is consistent with depth and observe no rotation in anisotropy between the upper extrusive unit and the underlying dike layer.

7. Conclusions

Our tomographic study on the Endeavour segment of the JdFR provides some of the most detailed three-dimensional observations of upper crustal seismic velocity and anisotropy obtained to date over a spreading center. The segment includes both a central portion that hosts a midcrustal axial magma chamber and vigorous hydrothermal systems, and two large overlapping spreading centers at the segment ends. The results thus provide insights into the role of magmatism, tectonism, and hydrothermal circulation in constructing the oceanic crust.

Upper crustal \( P \) wave velocities near the center of the Endeavour segment are, on average, \( \sim 1.0 \) km/s higher than near the segment ends. These variations are attributed to increased porosities at segment ends due to extensive tectonic fracturing within overlapping spreading centers and possibly the infilling of cracks by precipitation of minerals along the hydrothermally active central portion of the segment. The upper 1.0 km of crustal velocity structure near the segment center is imprinted with a pattern of alternating velocity anomalies extending 10–12 km off axis that are oriented parallel to the ridge axis. The low-velocity bands coincide with the outer flanks of off-axis abyssal hills. This pattern is attributed to localized thickening of the extrusives by eruptions that occur outside the axial valley and flow down the fault-tilted blocks that form the abyssal hill topography.

Velocities are generally higher beneath the hydrothermal vent fields than along the spreading axis to the north and south. We interpret this as evidence of reduced porosity due to mineral precipitation from hydrothermal circulation. Low velocities just above the AMC beneath the High Rise and Main Endeavour fields relative to other vent fields coincide with a region of intense seismicity and may reflect increased porosity and higher temperatures in the heat uptake zone beneath the most vigorous vent fields.

The percentage of seismic anisotropy decreases, on average, from over 8% in the upper 1 km of the crust to just over 2% at 3 km depth. Depth-dependent decreases in anisotropy are attributed to the closure of cracks from a combination of lithospheric overburden pressure and hydrothermal mineral precipitation. Seismic anisotropy decreases at all crustal depths away from the ridge-spreading axis within 5–10 km (0.2–0.4 Ma).
and is accompanied by an increase in velocities below 1 km depth. This observation is consistent with rapid mineral infilling of cracks within layer 2B due to hydrothermal circulation near the ridge axis [Newman et al., 2011].

Along-axis variations in the magnitude of seismic anisotropy are consistent with increased fracturing near the southern limit of the E-WV OSC and within a region of intense hydrothermal downflow between the Main Endeavour and High Rise vent fields. The fast direction of anisotropy is oriented ridge-parallel along the central Endeavour. This is consistent with the least compressive stress being aligned with the spreading direction. However, near the OSCs, the orientation of anisotropy reflects the tectonic fabric of the seafloor and is influenced by the interaction of stresses from adjacent limbs of the OSC.

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