

1 **Controls on Bending-Related Faulting Offshore of the Alaska Peninsula**

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13 **Key Points:**

14 • Bathymetry data reveal variations in the orientation and summed throws of
15 bending faulting outboard of the Alaska subduction zone

16 • Westward increase in number and summed throws of bending faults is due to
17 favorably oriented pre-existing structures and increased slab dip

18 • Variable orientations of bend faulting and volcanic constructs updip of 2020 M7.6
19 intraplate earthquake implies complex stresses in the slab

20

21 **Abstract**

22 Oceanic plates experience extensive normal faulting as they bend and subduct, enabling
23 fracturing of the incoming lithosphere. Debate remains about the relative importance of pre-
24 existing faults, plate curvature and other factors controlling the extent and style of bending-
25 related faulting. The subduction zone off the Alaska Peninsula is an ideal place to investigate
26 controls on bending faulting as the orientation of abyssal-hill fabric with respect to the trench
27 and plate curvature vary along the margin. Here we characterize faulting between longitudes
28 161°W and 155°W using newly collected multibeam bathymetry data. We also use a compilation
29 of seismic reflection data to constrain patterns of sediment thickness on the incoming plate.
30 Although sediment thickness increases over 1 km from 156°W to 160°W, most sediments were
31 deposited prior to the onset of bending faulting and thus should have limited impact on the
32 expression of bend-related fault strikes and throws in bathymetry data. Where magnetic
33 anomalies trend subparallel to the trench (<30°) west of ~156°W, bending faults parallel
34 magnetic anomalies, implying bending faults reactivate pre-existing structures. Where magnetic
35 anomalies are highly oblique (>30°) to the trench east of 156°W, no bending faults are observed.
36 Summed fault throws increase to the west, including where pre-existing structure orientations are
37 constant (between 157-161°W), suggesting that another factor such as the increase in slab
38 curvature must influence bending faulting. However, the westward increase in summed fault
39 throws is more abrupt than expected for gradual changes in slab bending, alone, suggesting
40 potential feedbacks between pre-existing structures, slab dip, and faulting.

41

42 **Plain Language Summary**

43 Subduction zones are plate boundaries where two tectonic plates converge, and the oceanic plate
44 is bent and forced to below the other plate. Oceanic plates are faulted as they bend, and these
45 “bending faults” are thought to be important for controlling the deep water cycle on Earth and
46 influencing the generation of large earthquakes in subduction zones. The amount and style of
47 bending faulting varies between and within subduction zones around the world, and debate
48 remains about what causes this variability. Possible controls include the overall curvature of the
49 oceanic plate as it bends and subducts and pre-existing weaknesses in the oceanic plate from
50 when it formed. We use bathymetry data across the Alaska subduction zone to characterize
51 bending faults here and understand controls on their formation. This is an ideal study area
52 because the curvature of the plate and the pre-existing weaknesses vary in this region. The
53 amount of bending faulting increases abruptly to the west and appears to result from a feedback
54 between favorably oriented pre-existing weaknesses and increased curvature of the oceanic plate.
55 These results can be used to understanding bending faulting in other subduction zones.

56 **1 Introduction**

57 Bending and loading of the subducting oceanic lithosphere at subduction zones causes the crust
58 and upper mantle to flex, forming a bulge seaward of the trench that has been termed the outer
59 rise (Bodine & Watts, 1979; Caldwell et al., 1976; Garcia et al., 2019). Flexure of the incoming
60 plate and negative buoyancy of the downwelling slab puts the upper portion of the lithosphere
61 under extension and results in normal faulting in the incoming plate (Chapple & Forsyth, 1979;
62 Faccenda, 2014; Ranero et al., 2003). These normal faults, known as bending-related faults, are
63 found at subduction zones around the globe and occur between the trench axis and outer-rise
64 (Hilde, 1983; Masson, 1991). Bending-related faults form between the trench and outer-rise, and
65 slip occurs on these faults both prior to subduction as the plate approaches the plate interface and
66 post-subduction as the plate bends, and eventually unbends and dehydrates (e.g., Ranero et al.,
67 2005).

68

69 Faulting of downgoing slabs prior to subduction is thought to have several influences on
70 subduction processes: 1) faults provide pathways for seawater infiltration into and hydration of
71 the oceanic lithosphere (Cai et al., 2018; Contreras-Reyes et al., 2008; Faccenda, 2014; Fujie et
72 al., 2018; Hacker, 2008; Van Keken et al., 2011; Wei et al., 2021); 2) bending-related faulting
73 contributes to frictional heterogeneity on the megathrust once subducted (Wang & Bilek, 2014);
74 and 3) faults host normal-faulting earthquakes both outboard and within the subduction zone
75 (Lay et al., 2009, 2011; Ranero et al., 2005). Water has been interpreted to be stored in the upper
76 mantle of the downgoing plate (e.g., Cai et al., 2018; Grevemeyer et al., 2018; Ivandic et al.,
77 2008; Lefeldt et al., 2012; Ranero et al., 2003; Shillington et al., 2015) in the form of
78 serpentinite, the hydrous alteration of peridotite in the upper mantle. Water can also be stored as

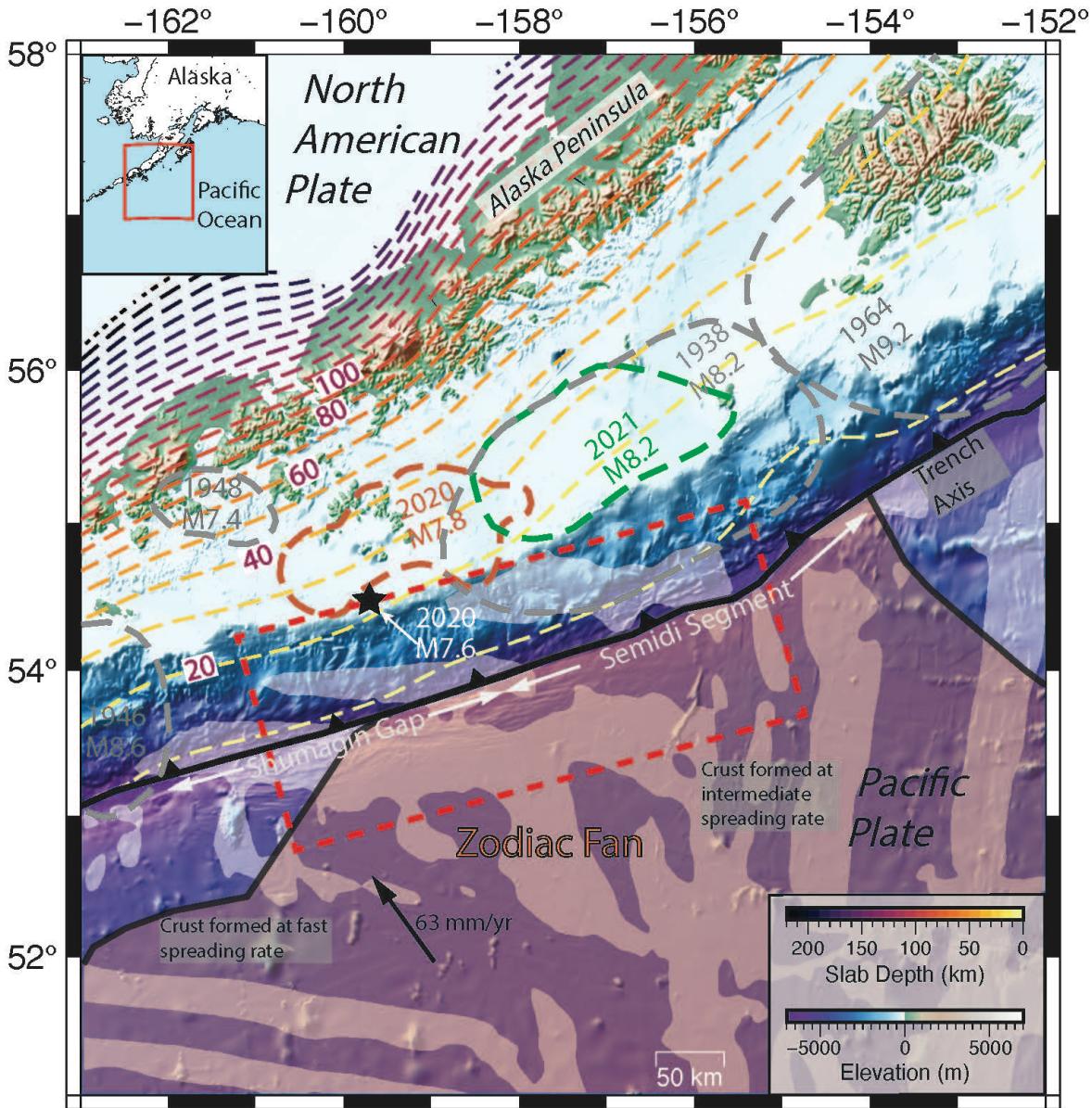
79 pore fluids in fault zones in the crust and mantle of the incoming plate, and contained in seafloor
80 sediments (Canales et al., 2017; Faccenda, 2014; Iyer et al., 2012; Miller et al., 2021). The
81 breakdown of serpentinite and release of water at depth could influence pore fluid pressures
82 along the megathrust interface (Hasegawa & Nakajima, 2017; Peacock, 2001), the volume and
83 composition of arc magmatism (e.g., Wei et al., 2021), and the occurrence of intermediate depth
84 earthquakes (Boneh et al., 2019; Kita et al., 2006; Ranero et al., 2005; Shillington et al., 2015;
85 Wei et al., 2021). Therefore, better knowledge on the controls on bending-related faulting
86 formation, fault throws, and lateral extent can lead to further understanding of the subduction
87 water cycle, earthquakes, and magmatism.

88

89 Although the existence of these faults at subduction zones is well documented, the style and
90 magnitude of faulting vary between and within subduction zones (e.g., Contreras-Reyes et al.,
91 2008; Eimer et al., 2020; Fujie et al., 2018; Kobayashi et al., 1995, 1998; Obana et al., 2019;
92 Ogawa et al., 1997; Ranero et al., 2003; Van Avendonk et al., 2011). Thus, questions remain on
93 the primary controls on bending faulting. Possible controls include plate curvature (Naliboff et
94 al., 2013; Nishikawa & Ide, 2015) and/or pre-existing structures (Fujie et al., 2018; Ranero et al.,
95 2003; Shillington et al., 2015). The curvature of the slab is correlated with the elastic thickness
96 of the plate, which is largely determined by the slab age (Bodine & Watts, 1979; Pérez-Gussinyé
97 et al., 2008). Additionally, fracturing due to bending of the downwelling slab and resulting
98 serpentinization of the upper mantle may weaken the slab, allowing for more bending and hence
99 further faulting (Contreras-Reyes & Osses, 2010).

100

101 In this study, we use a compilation of multibeam bathymetry data, including recently acquired
102 data from the Alaska Amphibious Community Seismic Experiment (AACSE) in 2018-2019
103 (Barchek et al., 2020), to characterize bending-related faults in detail, including orientations,
104 lengths, spacing, and scarp heights. To test models for controls on faulting, we compare these
105 bending-fault characteristics with the orientations of pre-existing abyssal-hill faults from
106 magnetic data, orientation of the trench, and changes in dip of the incoming plate along strike.



107

108 **Figure 1:** Map of study area with historic large rupture zones (gray dotted outlines, Davies et al., 1981), 2020 M7.8
 109 rupture (orange dotted outline, Xiao et al., 2021), 2021 M8.2 Chignik rupture (green dotted outline, Elliot et al.,
 110 2022), 2020 M7.6 intraplate event centroid (black star), trench axis (solid barbed black line, Bassett & Watts, 2015),
 111 magnetic anomalies (positive anomalies shown with white patches on incoming Pacific plate, Maus et al., 2009) slab
 112 depth contours (colored dotted lines – 10 km contours, Hayes et al., 2018), and sediments derived from the Zodiac
 113 Fan (orange shaded area, von Huene et al., 2012). Primary study area with new high-resolution bathymetry data
 114 (dashed red box) between longitudes 155-161°W. Convergence rate from Sella et al., (2002) shown with black
 115 arrow and text. Inset shows study area location.

116 **2 Tectonic Background**

117 The subduction zone offshore of the Alaska Peninsula is an ideal location to examine controls on
118 the formation of bending-related faulting (Fig. 1). The subducting plate has an age of \sim 55 Ma
119 throughout the study area (Lonsdale et al., 1988) and is subducting nearly orthogonally at a rate
120 of 63 mm/yr (Sella et al., 2002). The strike of the trench axis also remains relatively uniform at
121 an azimuth of \sim 70° through the study area, which spans longitudes 155-161°W. The consistent
122 plate age, trench axis strike, and convergence rate leads to a nearly constant thermal structure of
123 the subduction zone.

124

125 Although the age and convergence direction are constant, the dip of the slab and orientation of
126 pre-existing structures vary along strike. The dip of the slab steepens from the Gulf of Alaska
127 west to the Aleutians, including steepening between the eastern Semidi segment, longitudes
128 \sim 155-159°W, and the western Shumagin Gap, longitudes \sim 159-162°W (Hayes et al., 2018;
129 Kuehn, 2019; Fig. 1). One possible cause for the eastward shallowing of the slab is the
130 subduction of an oceanic plateau (the Yakutat block) in the easternmost part of Alaska
131 subduction zone; the buoyancy resulting from the thickened crust is thought to contribute to
132 shallow slab subduction there (Worthington et al., 2012). Another possible cause for westward
133 increase in the slab dip is a transition from oceanic/continental subduction to oceanic/oceanic
134 subduction; west of the primary study region, the subduction zone transitions to an
135 oceanic/oceanic margin which may promote slab steepening (Holt et al., 2015; Sharples et al.,
136 2014).

137

138 The spreading history of the incoming oceanic crust also varies along strike, separated by a
139 remnant triple junction marking the relict Kula, Pacific, Farallon triple junction (Engebretson et
140 al., 1985; Lonsdale, 1988). The remnant triple junction appears as a T-shaped feature in the
141 magnetic data at $\sim 158^{\circ}\text{W}$ (Fig. 1). Cessation of spreading at this triple junction occurred between
142 $\sim 43\text{-}44$ Ma (Engebretson et al., 1985; Lonsdale, 1988). Oceanic crust formed from Kula-Pacific
143 spreading is currently subducting in the Shumagin Gap ($\sim 159\text{-}162^{\circ}\text{W}$) and western Semidi
144 segment ($\sim 155\text{-}159^{\circ}\text{W}$). This crust formed at fast spreading rates (half rates of ~ 74 mm/yr,
145 Engebretson et al., 1985), and magnetic anomalies trend slightly oblique to the trench axis by
146 $\sim 20^{\circ}$. Oceanic crust in the eastern Semidi segment formed from Pacific-Farallon spreading at
147 intermediate rates (half rates of $\sim 28\text{-}34$ mm/yr, Engebretson et al., 1985). Magnetic anomalies in
148 this crust trend $\sim \text{N-S}$ and highly oblique to the trench ($\sim 70^{\circ}$). Tectonic reconstructions by Fuston
149 & Wu (2020) suggest the possible existence of a Resurrection plate and Kula-Resurrection ridge
150 striking N-S that would have subducted beneath the Alaska Peninsula. The proposed Kula-
151 Resurrection ridge would have been active from $\sim 60\text{-}40$ Ma.

152

153 Previous work, based on lower-resolution bathymetry data along the Alaska-Aleutian trench that
154 largely focused on a region further west than our primary study area, identified a connection
155 between the trends of magnetic anomalies and strikes of bending-related faults (Masson, 1991;
156 Mortera-Gutiérrez et al., 2003). Masson (1991) showed the angle between pre-existing abyssal-
157 hills inferred from magnetic anomalies plays a key role in whether bending reactivates abyssal-
158 hills or forms new faults, including in the Alaska-Aleutian subduction. In the western Aleutians,
159 between 179°E and 169°W , analysis of bathymetry data shows that fault strikes closely follow
160 the oceanic spreading fabric which is near parallel to the trench ($<10^{\circ}$ difference) (Masson, 1991;

161 Mortera-Gutiérrez et al., 2003). Between 157°W and 169°W, bending faults show two strikes:
162 one primary set following the inherited spreading fabric, and a secondary set parallel to the
163 trench axis (Masson, 1991). The angle between the trench and abyssal-hill faults is up to 30° in
164 that region, and bending fault orientations suggest both reactivation of inherited weaknesses and
165 the formation of new bending faults paralleling the trench.

166

167 Shillington et al. (2015) used 2D active-source seismic transects to show that the incoming plate
168 outboard of the Shumagin Gap (~159-162°W) is more pervasively faulted than outboard of the
169 Semidi segment (~155-159°W). They also found that the upper mantle of the slab has a larger
170 area of reduced seismic velocities seaward of the Shumagin Gap compared to the Semidi
171 segment, which they attributed to an increase in hydration and associated serpentinization to the
172 west. The incoming plate outboard of the Shumagin Gap also has greater total seismicity, which
173 could suggest a greater number of bending-related faults (Shillington et al., 2015).

174

175 In addition to possible along-strike changes in bending faulting and resulting hydration, the
176 Alaska peninsula also exhibits changes in coupling (Drooff & Freymueller, 2021; Li &
177 Freymueller, 2018), great earthquake history (Davies et al., 1981), seismicity at a range of depths
178 (Shillington et al., 2015; Wei et al., 2021), and arc chemistry (Buurman et al., 2014; Wei et al.,
179 2021), all of which have been proposed to be influenced by faulting and hydration of the
180 incoming plate. The Semidi segment has a history of generating great ($M > 8.0$) earthquakes with
181 a recurrence interval of ~50-75 years (Davies et al., 1981), including the recent M8.2 Chignik
182 earthquake in July 2021 in the western part of the Semidi segment (e.g., Elliott et al., 2022; Liu
183 et al., 2022). GPS measurements show that the Semidi segment is highly locked overall and that

184 locking increases to the east (Drooff & Freymueller, 2021; Li & Freymueller, 2018; Zhao et al.,
185 2022). The Shumagin Gap, however, is only weakly coupled (<30% coupled). Great earthquakes
186 along the megathrust appear to be less common in the Shumagin Gap, with the last occurring in
187 1847 or possibly 1788 (Davies et al., 1981). However, the eastern part of the deep Shumagin Gap
188 did recently rupture in a M7.8 earthquake in July 2020 (Liu et al., 2022; Xiao et al., 2021) and
189 hosted an intraplate M7.6 earthquake in October 2020 (Zhou et al., 2022). Greater roughness at
190 the top of the subducting plate due to increased bending faulting (e.g., Li et al., 2018; Wang &
191 Bilek, 2014) and fluids from the hydrated lithosphere (Cordell et al., 2023; Li & Freymueller,
192 2018) have been proposed to contribute to changes in locking and earthquake history.

193

194 There are also along-strike changes in intermediate depth earthquakes (Shillington et al., 2015)
195 and calculated *b*-values (Wei et al., 2021). Florez & Prieto (2019) showed that subduction zones
196 with high *b*-values (a comparatively greater ratio of small earthquakes to large earthquakes)
197 suggest greater extent of dehydration reaction, and thus more water stored in the downgoing
198 plate. The Semidi segment is characterized by a double-seismic zone with moderate *b*-values and
199 few earthquakes extending deeper than 100 km (Abers, 1992; Wei et al., 2021). This suggests
200 that the volume of water stored in the downgoing slab through bending faults at this segment
201 is less than other subduction segments to the west. High *b*-value earthquakes in the Shumagin
202 Gap extend to depths >200 km, implying greater amounts of water stored here (Wei et al., 2021).
203 Finally, trace element geochemistry at volcanic centers in the Shumagin and Semidi segments
204 show that sediment input of source magmas is higher at the Semidi segment and water input is
205 less (Wei et al., 2021).

206 **3 Data and Methods**

207 We map and characterize bending faults on the incoming plate offshore of the Alaska Peninsula
208 using a compilation of existing bathymetry data. Recently deposited sediments have the potential
209 to mask the bathymetric expression of bending faults so, where it is available, we use existing
210 seismic reflection data to map the total sediment thickness and thickness of sediment deposited
211 near the trench axis during bending faulting, which we call trench fill. Finally, to examine
212 possible controls on bending-related faulting, we use the trends of magnetic anomalies to
213 estimate the strike of pre-existing faults and fractures, and used profiles of depth to top of
214 igneous crust and bathymetry to calculate the dip of the incoming plate outboard of the trench.

215

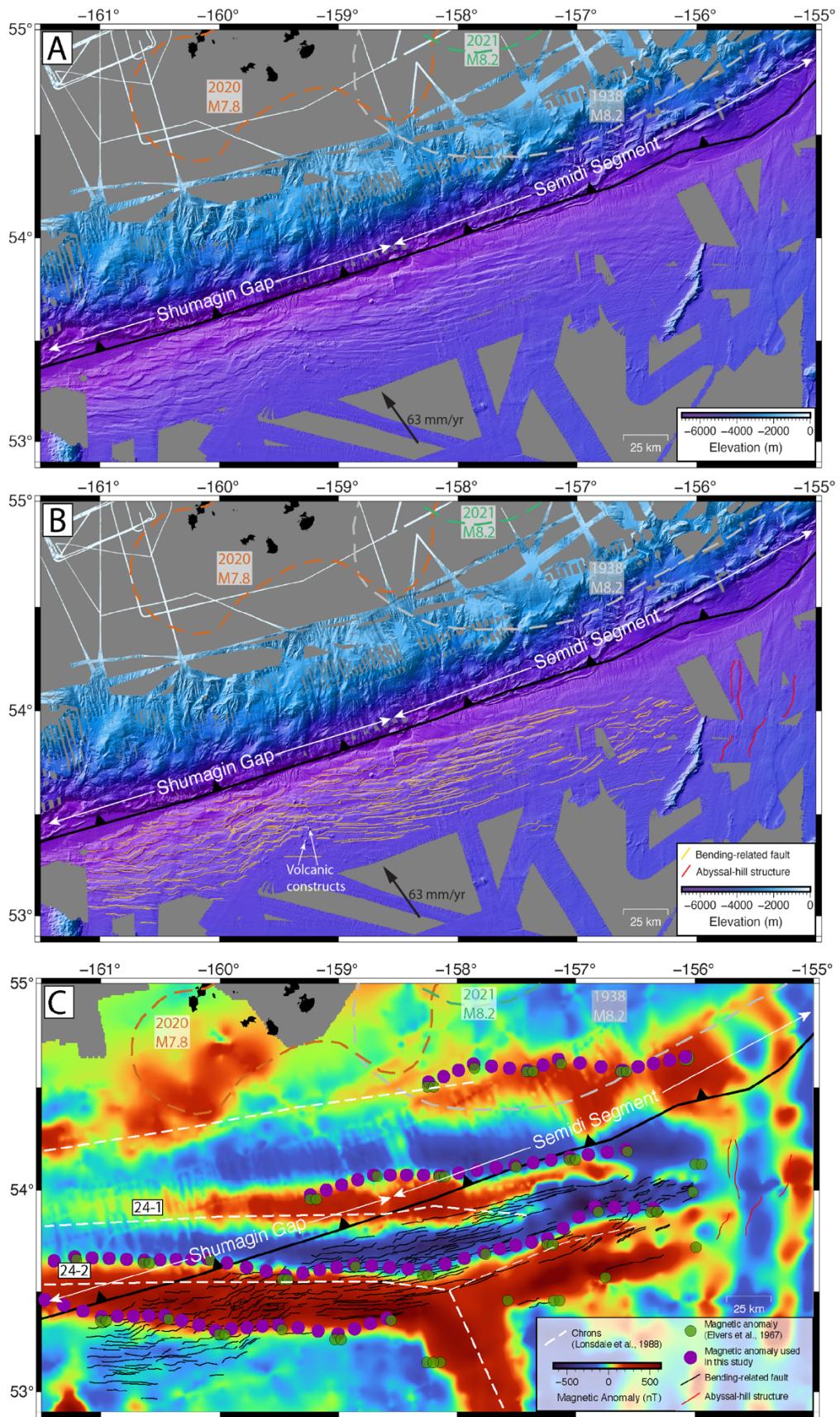
216 3.1 Characterizing bending faulting in bathymetry data

217 We map bending-related faults between longitudes 161-155°W (Fig. 2) using new high-
218 resolution multibeam bathymetry data collected as part of AACSE (Barchek et al., 2020)
219 combined with other existing bathymetric data (Ryan et al., 2009; Fig. 2). The combined data
220 provide nearly complete, continuous coverage of an area spanning roughly 100x300 km with a
221 125-m grid resolution, forming an excellent basis for systematic identification and
222 characterization (geometry and displacement) of faults based on their surface expression. While
223 bathymetry data are limited due to their inability to quantify faults in the subsurface, the seismic
224 datasets that enable subsurface quantification of faults (Section 3.3) are too incomplete to allow
225 for a comprehensive characterization of the entire region.

226

227 The mapped region encompasses the incoming plate subducting in the Shumagin Gap (159-
228 162°W) and Semidi segment (155-159°W). Previous efforts to examine bending faults offshore

229 of the Alaska Peninsula used lower resolution (~200 m) GLORIA and Seabeam swath data
230 (Scanlon & Masson, 1992) or spatially limited swath data from modern sonar systems
231 (Shillington et al., 2015). The availability of new high-resolution bathymetry area provides the
232 opportunity to map faults in greater detail and extent. Faults are mapped by hand using a
233 processed bathymetry grid that is detrended and demeaned to produce relative elevation, which
234 removes long-wavelength variations and highlights faulting (Fig. 2, Supplementary Fig S-8).
235 Detrending is done by applying a cosine bandpass filter with corners at 10000/3000/1000/100 m.
236 These values have been chosen based on the average and minimum spacings between bending-
237 related faults. Only faults with minimum scarps of ± 5 m in the detrended grid are included in this
238 mapping effort.



240 **Figure 2:** A) New high-resolution bathymetry data (Barchek et al., 2020; Ryan et al., 2009). Gray areas show
241 regions without swath bathymetry coverage. The trench axis (Bassett & Watts, 2015) is shown by the thick black
242 line in all panels. B) Interpreted bathymetry data with mapped bending-related faults (yellow). Red lines in the
243 eastern part of the study area that are oriented N-S are interpreted to show remnant abyssal-hill structures and not
244 active bending-related faults. Rupture patches are shown on the overriding plate with colors matching those shown
245 in Fig. 1. C) Mapped bending-related faults (thin black lines) overlain on magnetic anomaly grid (Bankey et al.,
246 2002). Note the rotation in spreading direction from N-S west of $\sim 156^{\circ}\text{W}$ to E-W east of $\sim 156^{\circ}\text{W}$. White dashed
247 lines and boxed annotations show magnetic chronos based on interpretations from Lonsdale et al. (1988). A remnant
248 triple junction can be observed at 158°W . Green dots show magnetic anomaly picks from Elvers et al. (1967) used as
249 a guide for magnetic anomaly picks presented in this study (larger purple points). Notice the apparent absence of
250 bending faults at the seafloor east of $\sim 156^{\circ}\text{W}$ (and not at the triple junction), where orientations of magnetic
251 anomalies change. Magnetic anomaly orientations do not change at the triple junction due to a plate reorganization
252 that occurred ~ 53 Ma (Lonsdale, 1988).

253 Each mapped fault trace is resampled to 100-m intervals along-strike. We measure fault strike,
254 fault dip direction (seaward or trenchward), and distance from the trench for each 100 m
255 segment. We examine variations in bending fault strike along the subduction zone by calculated
256 histograms of fault azimuth in 1° longitude wide bins (i.e., $156\text{-}157^{\circ}\text{W}$, $157\text{-}158^{\circ}\text{W}$, etc., Fig. 3).

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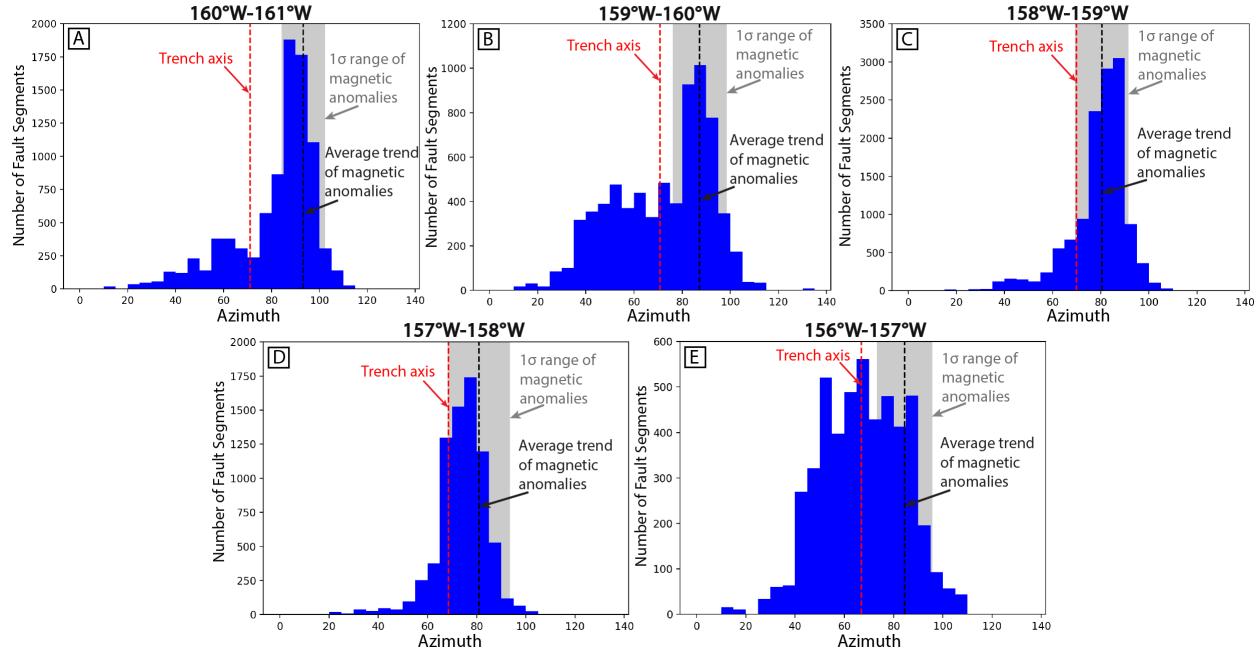
258 The maximum throw for each fault is estimated using a 4-km-long bathymetric profile
259 orthogonal to the fault. The position of this profile was selected at the location along the fault
260 estimated to have the maximum scarp height. Linear regression of hand-picked points from the
261 bathymetric profile is used to calculate slope and 95% confidence intervals for the hanging wall
262 and footwall seafloor surfaces. These surfaces are then used to calculate the vertical separation
263 by subtracting elevations of the hanging wall surface from the footwall surface at a range of
264 positions that could represent the intersection of the fault plane with the scarp face. The throw is

265 calucated from vertical separation by assuming a dip of 60° (Figs. S-1, S-2). We use this
266 approach because it accounts for variations in the bathymetric slope of the footwall and hanging
267 wall, which is particularly important within 30 km of the trench where bending is the most
268 severe. To examine along-strike variations in the total amount of fault slip, maximum throw
269 estimates are summed within 0.5°-wide bins. We utilized 0.5°-wide bins to achieve relatively
270 high resolution in the along strike variations in summed fault throws, while still having enough
271 faults in each bin. We note that varying the bin size does not impact the observed trends.

272

273 3.2 Estimating strikes of pre-existing structures from magnetic anomaly data

274 Inherited abyssal-hill fabric within oceanic plates can be estimated from magnetic anomalies,
275 where abyssal-hill faults are expected to form parallel to the mid-ocean ridge due to normal
276 faulting (e.g., Macdonald et al., 1996), and thus parallel to the trend of magnetic anomalies.
277 Elvers et al. (1967) map isochrons in detail on the subducting Pacific plate in our study area. To
278 estimate the likely orientation of pre-existing faults in our study area, we resample picks made by
279 Elvers et al. (1967) (which closely follows magnetic anomaly peaks of the North American
280 magnetic anomaly map created by Bankey et al. (2002)) to 1 km. Based on these magnetic
281 anomaly picks, we estimate the strikes and standard deviations of abyssal-hill faults that may be
282 reactivated during slab bending in 1° wide bins using four distinct anomalies in the study area
283 (Figs. 2C, 3). We compare these data to the trend of the trench axis of Bassett & Watts (2015).



284

285 **Figure 3:** Histograms comparing fault segment strike azimuths (blue bars) in 1-degree bins with the average trend of
 286 the trench (red dotted line, Bassett & Watts, 2015) and average trend of magnetic anomalies (black dotted line).
 287 One-standard-deviation range of magnetic anomalies is shown by the gray box in the background. Dominant peaks
 288 of fault strikes primarily follow the trend of magnetic anomalies (panels A, C, D). Between 159-160°W (panel B),
 289 fault strike azimuths show one dominant trend following magnetic anomalies, and a secondary trend ranging from
 290 ~35-80°. Between 156-157°W, there are fewer faults with a broader distribution of strike azimuths (panel E). Note
 291 that vertical axis varies between panels.

292

293 3.3 Sediment thickness and basement offsets from seismic reflection data

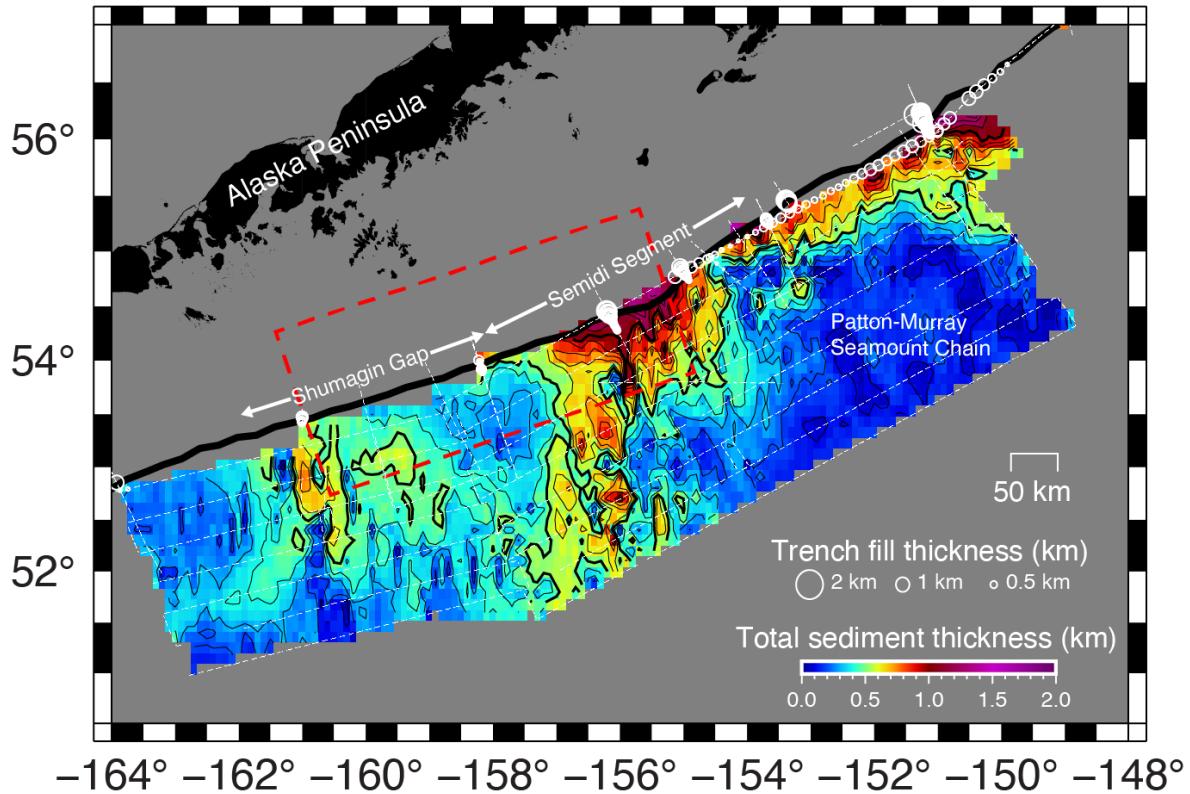
294 We compile seismic reflection data collected on the incoming plate from the National Archive of
 295 Marine Seismic Surveys (NAMSS, Triezenberg et al., 2016), the ALEUT experiment (Bécel et
 296 al., 2015, 2017; Kuehn, 2019; Li et al., 2015) and the AACSE experiment (Barcheck et al., 2020;
 297 Bécel et al., 2019) to determine total sediment thickness and the thickness of sediments within
 298 the trench throughout the study area (Fig. 4). Previous studies have documented along-strike
 299 changes in sediment thickness on the incoming plate, with larger sediment thickness offshore of

300 the Semidi segment (Straume et al., 2019). The thickness of trench fill sediments also varies
301 along the margin (e.g., von Huene et al., 2012), and this portion of the sedimentary section has
302 the highest potential to mask bending faults because it was deposited during the time of bending
303 fault formation and development. We pick arrival times for the seafloor, base of trench fill, and
304 top of igneous crust on time migrated profiles (Fig. 5). The top of igneous crust is marked by an
305 irregular bright reflector arising from the contrast between sediments and the basalts of Layer
306 2A. Sediments deposited on the incoming plate outboard of the trench consists of pelagic
307 sediments and terrigenous fan sediments of the Zodiac fan (Creager et al, 1973; Stevenson et al.,
308 1983; von Huene et al., 2012). These sediment layers generally parallel the underlying oceanic
309 crust on the incoming plate and reflectors within these deposits can be traced out of the trench
310 onto the incoming plate. These can be distinguished from trench fill sediments, which are
311 restricted to the trench axis, flat laying, and unconformably overlay incoming sediments. Trench
312 fill sediments are deposited primarily by along-axis flow of sediment from the northeast (von
313 Huene et al., 2012).

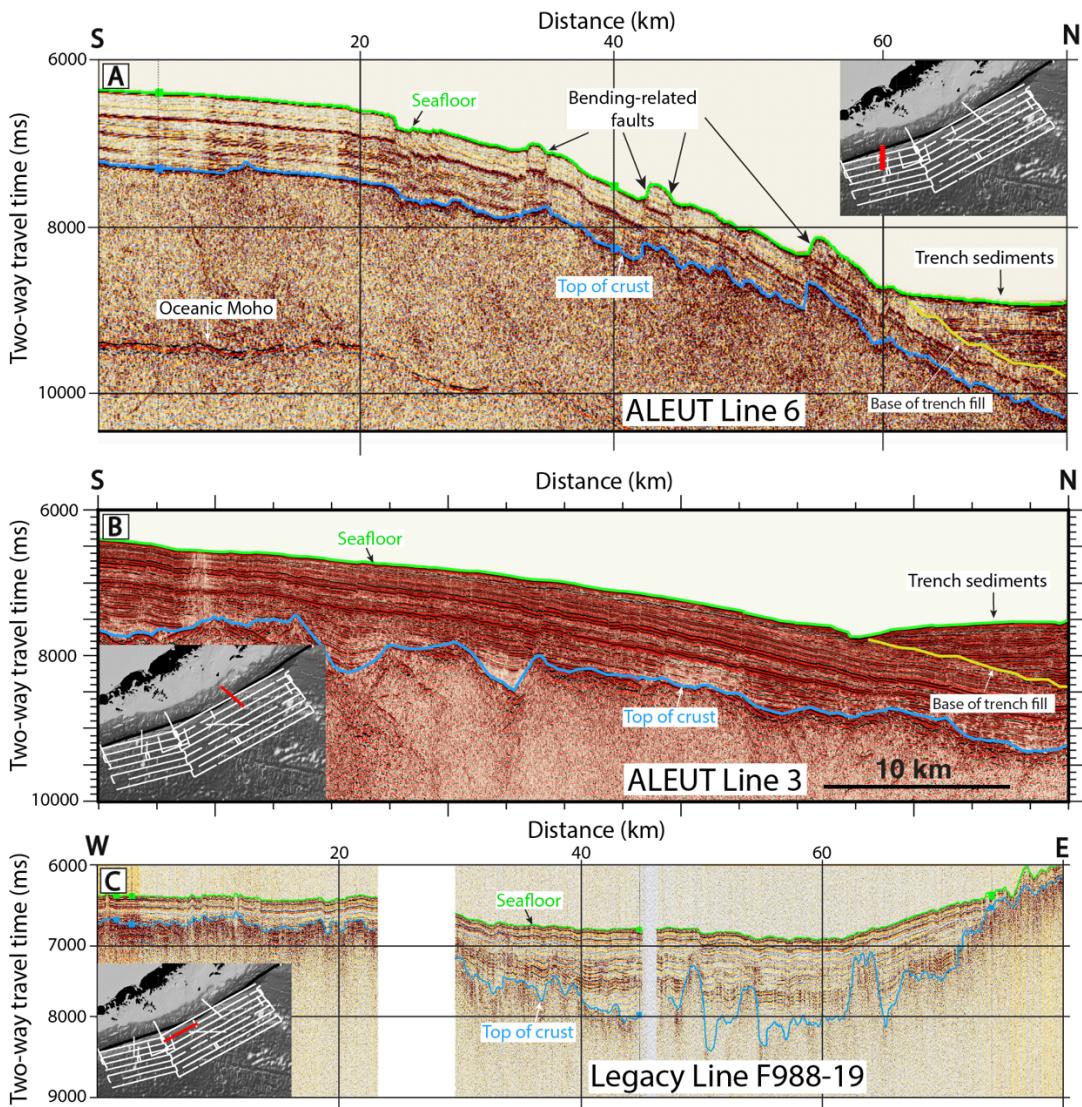
314

315 Subtracting the seafloor from the base of trench fill and from the top of igneous crust provides
316 thickness in two-way travel time of the trench fill and total sediment section, respectively. We
317 convert time to depth using a velocity of 1.8 km/s; this average velocity is based on seismic
318 processing of ALEUT reflection data (Bécel et al., 2015). We use a single velocity for depth
319 conversion due to uncertainty in both spatial distribution and depth-dependent velocities for each
320 of the three sediment packages on the incoming plate: pelagic sediments, terrigenous fan
321 sediments, and Quaternary trench fill (Creager et al., 1973; Stevenson et al., 1983; von Huene et
322 al., 2012). These uncertainties obviate the benefit of using a depth-dependent velocity for

323 conversion. To create a grid of total sediment thickness and trench fill on the incoming Pacific
324 plate, we grid the resulting sediment thickness values using a nearest neighbor algorithm with a
325 100-km radius and 0.1° grid spacing (Fig 4).



326
327 **Figure 4:** Map of gridded sediment thickness based on legacy single-channel USGS seismic reflection lines
328 (Triezenberg et al., 2016) and multi-channel seismic reflection lines from ALEUT (Bécel et al., 2015, 2017; Kuehn,
329 2019; Li et al., 2015) and AACSE (Bécel et al. 2019). Seismic profiles are indicated by dashed white lines. The
330 thickness of trench fill is indicated with open circles sized by thickness. The absence of a trench fill circle for trench-
331 perpendicular lines represents a thickness of zero. Primary study area shown by dashed red box as in Fig. 1.

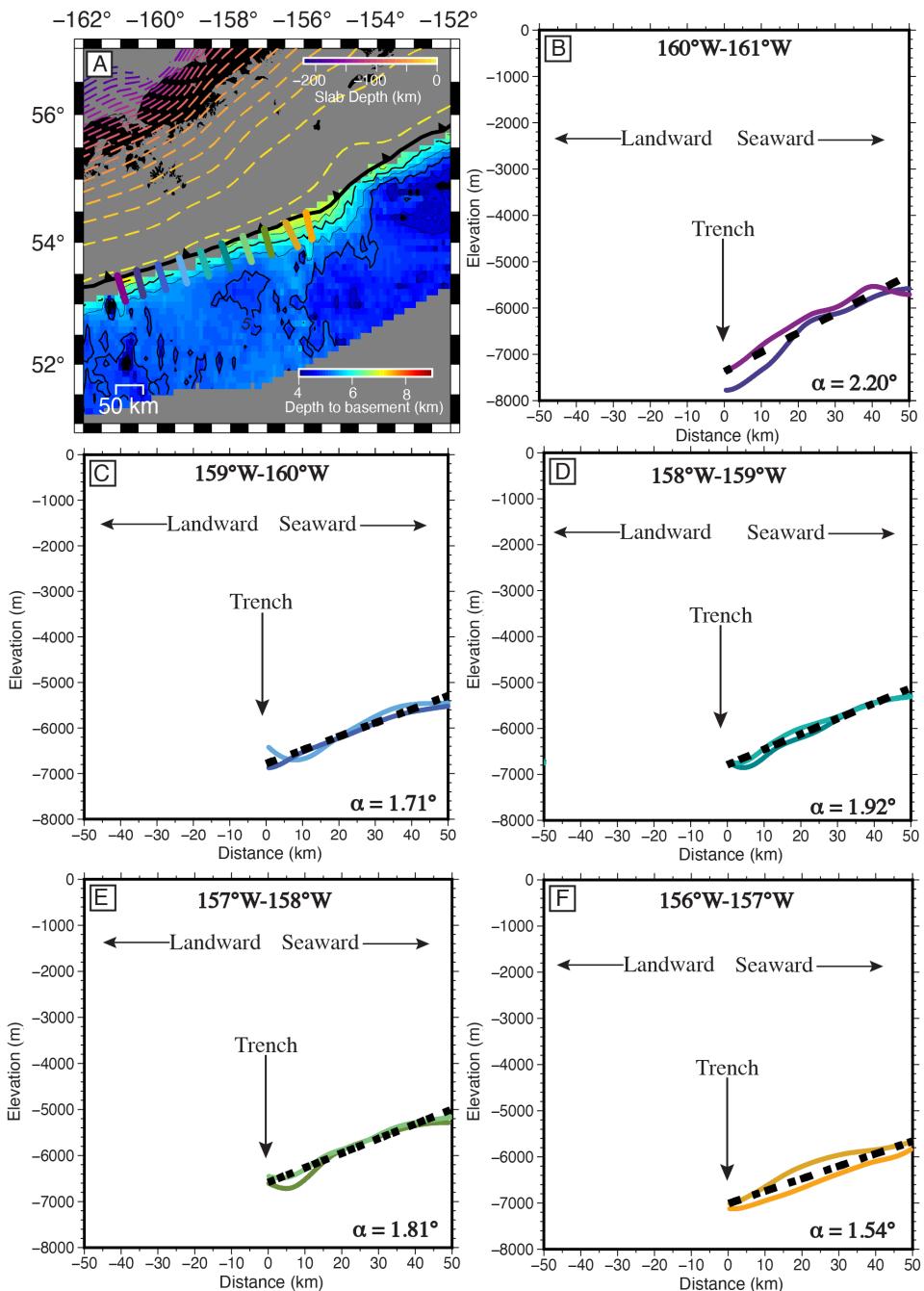


332

333 **Figure 5:** Examples of seismic reflection profiles A) outboard of the Shumagin Gap (ALEUT line 6) showing
 334 extensive bending faulting at the seafloor and top of the crust (Bécel et al., 2017) and B) Outboard of the Semidi
 335 Segment, with few to no bending fault expressions in the sediments or at the top of the crust (Shillington et al.,
 336 2015). Insets show seismic line locations highlighted in red. Topography in the top of crust outboard of the Semidi
 337 segment (panel B) is largely caused by the formation of crust at moderate spreading rates, which creates a more
 338 faulted crust surface at formation than fast spreading rates offshore of the Shumagin Gap, and these features are
 339 likely not active bending-faulting. There is little evidence of faulting-caused deformation in the sediments in this
 340 region and observable deformation may be caused by differential compaction. C) Roughly trench-parallel seismic
 341 reflection profile F988-19 (Triezenberg et al., 2016) showing the westward decrease in sediment thickness. Note the
 342 rougher crust surface to the east, also mentioned in panel B, created by slower spreading rates.

343 3.4 Estimating bending angle from bathymetry data and seismic reflection profiles

344 The dip of the slab at depth increases along strike (e.g., Hayes et al., 2018; Kuehn, 2019), and we
345 seek to evaluate the contribution of changes in slab bending to observed patterns of faulting. We
346 create a grid of the depth to top of igneous crust by subtracting the grid of sediment thickness
347 described in section 3.3 from the bathymetry grid. We calculate the dip of the incoming plate
348 near the trench by applying linear regression of 50-km-long trench-perpendicular profiles of the
349 top of igneous crust (Fig. 6) following the method of Nishikawa & Ide (2015). For comparison,
350 we also estimate dip of the seafloor along the same profiles using the same bathymetry data as
351 the fault mapping analysis (Figs. 7, S-6).



352

353 **Figure 6:** A) Regional map showing the locations of profiles used to estimate outer rise dip outboard of the trench
 354 and grid of depth to basement based on bathymetry data (Fig. 1) and sediment thickness (Fig. 4). Colored trench-
 355 perpendicular profiles match those in B-F. B-F) Linear regressions (black dashed lines) through two bathymetric
 356 profiles (colored lines, see panel A for location) ~0.5 degrees apart. Dip angles (alpha) for each longitudinal bin
 357 labeled on plot. For comparison, we also estimated dip of the incoming plate at the seafloor (Fig. S-6), which also
 358 shows a general westward increase in incoming plate dip.

359 **4 Results**

360 We map 255 bending-related faults offshore of the Alaska Peninsula between longitudes 161°W
361 and 155°W. Bending faulting is observed progressively farther from the trench outboard of the
362 eastern Semidi segment compared to outboard the western Shumagin segment. In the western
363 part of the study area (west of 158°W), most bending faults are concentrated within 50 km of the
364 trench, but farther east faults are observed up to 75 km from trench (Figs. 2, S-3). We do not
365 observe any active bending-faults east of 156°W in the newly acquired bathymetry data; all the
366 potential structures that can be mapped here are oriented roughly N-S (Fig. 2B) and likely
367 represent differential compaction over relict abyssal-hill spreading faults or associated structures.

368

369 Individual mapped faults have lengths of ~10-20 km, with a maximum length of 48 km, are
370 spaced ~ 3 km apart, and have maximum estimated throws of up to 423 m. Fault length varies
371 along the trench, with average lengths of 15.6 km, 13.9 km, 20.6 km, 19.7 km, and 10.6 km, in 1°
372 bins from 161°W to 156°W. There are similar numbers of faults dipping toward the trench and
373 away from the trench. However, faults that dip trenchward generally exhibit larger throws than
374 those dipping seaward (Fig. S-3). Cumulative fault throw summed across all mapped faults
375 increases markedly from east to west, with the eastern portion having both fewer total number of
376 faults and smaller estimated fault throws than the west (Fig. 7).

377

378 A comparison of bending fault azimuths with the orientations of the trench and magnetic
379 anomalies shows that bending faults generally parallel pre-existing structures (Fig. 3). Bending-
380 related faults in our study area primarily have strike azimuths between 80-100° (Fig. 3). West of
381 157.5°W, magnetic anomalies parallel inferred abyssal-hill faults, which dominantly strike E-W

382 (azimuths of 80-90°). Here faults strike 10-20° oblique to the trench axis which has a relatively
383 uniform azimuth of ~70° (Figs. 2C, 3). Between 157.5 and 156°W, magnetic anomalies are less
384 continuous and have more variable orientations, including some that strike ENE-WSW, nearly
385 parallel to the trench axis. East of 156°W, magnetic anomalies strike ~N-S and no bending faults
386 are observed.

387

388 There are two key areas where fault strikes are not subparallel to magnetic anomaly trends. The
389 first is at ~159.25-160°W, where bending fault strikes show one dominant trend centered at ~85°
390 and a broad secondary trend ranging from ~35-80°. This area also contains small mounds (Fig.
391 2B) that we tentatively interpret as petit spot volcanic constructs due to their morphological
392 similarity to petit spot volcanoes found at other subduction zones, such as the Japan trench
393 (Hirano, 2011; Hirano et al., 2006). The second is located between 156-157°W where fault strike
394 azimuths span a wide range from ~35-100° (Fig. 3). This region is just west of the magnetic
395 anomaly trends rotating from N-S to ENE-WSW. In both of these regions, fault lengths are
396 generally shorter than in surrounding areas.

397

398 The dip of the incoming plate at the top of basement near the trench gradually increases from
399 east to west, from a dip angle of ~1.6° seaward of the eastern portion of the Semidi segment
400 between longitudes 156°W and 157°W, to 2.2° seaward of the westernmost part of the Shumagin
401 Gap between longitudes 160°W and 161°W (Fig. 6). This increase in dip of the top of basement
402 near the trench mirrors the dip at the seafloor in the outer rise (Fig. S-6) and the gradual increase
403 in slab dip and curvature observed at greater depths (e.g., Fig. 1; Hayes et al., 2018; Kuehn,
404 2019).

405 Sediment thickness also varies along strike, with the thinnest sediment cover offshore of the
406 Shumagin Gap (~400 m) in the western portion of the study area and the thickest sediment cover
407 (~1100 m) offshore of the Semidi segment in the east (Fig. 4). The increase in total sediment
408 thickness between ~155°W and 157°W can largely be attributed to the presence of the
409 Oligocene-Miocene aged terrestrial Zodiac fan, containing >500 m of pelagic sediment and
410 terrigenous turbidites (Creager et al., 1973; Stevenson et al., 1983; von Huene et al., 2012). This
411 fan formed off the coast of the Pacific Northwest of the United States (off the coast of present-
412 day Washington and Oregon) and was transported on the Pacific plate through its northward
413 migration over the last 32-40 Ma (Stevenson et al., 1983). Sediment thickness varies from an
414 average of 250 m to a maximum thickness of ~1,600 m. The thickest sediments are observed in
415 the central part of the Zodiac fan and near the head of the fan, and sediment thickness decreases
416 towards the edges of the fan (Stevenson et al., 1983). Smaller-scale variations may be caused by
417 filling in irregular seafloor topography. For example, this may occur in the eastern part of the
418 study area where oceanic crust was accreted at intermediate spreading rates and is rougher than
419 in the west. The area of thin sediments east of the study area between ~152-148°W occurs in the
420 area of the Patton Murray seamount chain (Fig. 4). Pelagic sediments and terrigenous Zodiac fan
421 sediments were deposited on the oceanic plate prior to bending and are thus expected to be offset
422 by these younger bending faults.

423
424 We also quantify the thickness of trench-fill sediments, as these sediments are deposited during
425 bending and subduction and thus have the greatest potential to mask bending faulting at the
426 seafloor. Trench fill sediments are deposited primarily by along-trench transport (von Huene et
427 al., 2012). Although trench fill sediments are up to 1.5 km thick, they are generally confined to a

428 narrow (~10-20 km) region near the trench, and bending faulting extends upwards of 50-70 km
429 from the trench (Figs. 4, 5).

430

431 **5 Discussion**

432 5.1 Estimating bending fault throw and the impact of sediment cover on fault mapping
433 Cumulative bending-related fault throw is greatest outboard of the western Shumagin Gap
434 between 159-161°W and decreases eastward from 158°W to 156°W; east of 156°W outboard of
435 the eastern Semidi region, no bending faulting is apparent in the bathymetry or seismic data
436 (Figs. 2, 5, 7). Faults observed in the seismic data east of 156°W in the igneous crust are oriented
437 roughly N-S (Fig 2.) and most likely features created during crust formation. The crust in this
438 region formed at slower spreading rates than crust to the west (Engebretson et al., 1985), creating
439 a rougher crust surface (Buck et al., 2005; Buck & Poliakov, 1998; Carbotte & Macdonald,
440 1994). Possible faulting that may exist in the sediment cover offshore of the eastern Semidi
441 segment (Fig 5B) is therefore not likely caused by active faulting and may instead be caused by
442 differential compaction of sediments over a fractured crust surface (Carvers, 1968). These results
443 are consistent with previous seismic reflection imaging of bending faults in widely spaced
444 seismic reflection profiles and with a documented westward increase in the frequency of outer
445 rise earthquakes (Matulka et al., 2022; Shillington et al., 2015).

446

447 One possible contribution to the apparent eastward decrease in cumulative fault throw at the
448 seafloor could be masking by sediments, which increases in thickness to the east (e.g.,
449 Shillington et al., 2015; Li et al., 2018, von Huene et al., 2012, Fig. 4). However, the Zodiac fan
450 and other pelagic sediments on the oceanic crust are older than active bending faults in the

451 present-day outer rise. Active faulting due to plate bending should, therefore, cut these older
452 sediments, and fault scarps should still be evident on the seafloor even in the region covered by
453 the fan. Quaternary trench fill sediments, on the other hand, were deposited during bending
454 faulting and thus could mask the seafloor expressions of these faults, but we find that these
455 sediments are confined to a narrow (~10-20 km) region near the trench and vary significantly in
456 thickness along strike from existing seismic data, and thus cannot account for the systematic
457 eastward decrease in bending faulting we observe in bathymetry data.

458

459 5.2 Controls on bending faulting strike orientations and throw

460 New constraints on bending faulting from this study offer the opportunity to examine controls on
461 the orientations of bending faults and along-strike variations in cumulative outer rise fault
462 throws.

463

464 5.2.1 Bending fault strike orientations

465 Previous analyses on controls on bending fault formation (e.g., Billen et al., 2007; Masson, 1991)
466 found that abyssal-hill faults are reactivated when they are oriented $<25-30^\circ$ of the trench and
467 bending forms new faults when the angle between the spreading fabric and trench is $>25-30^\circ$.

468 Bending-related faults that reactivate pre-existing abyssal hill faults are expected to strike
469 parallel to magnetic anomalies generated by seafloor spreading, and newly formed faults are
470 expected to strike parallel the trench axis. In our study area, most bending faults strike parallel to
471 magnetic anomalies suggesting that they formed by reactivation (Fig. 3), consistent with the
472 previous studies of this area (Masson, 1991; Shillington et al., 2015). This is also consistent with
473 observations at other subduction zones where pre-existing structures are near parallel to the

474 trench, including the western Aleutians (Masson, 1991; Mortera-Gutiérrez et al., 2003), offshore
475 Nicaragua (Ranero et al., 2003; Van Avendonk et al., 2011), and in the Kuril subduction zone
476 (Fujie et al., 2018; Kobayashi et al., 1998).

477

478 The average throws (~300 m) and average spacing (~3 km) of bending faults offshore of the
479 Alaska Peninsula are similar to the characteristics of bending faults in other locations where bend
480 faulting occurs primarily by reactivation of abyssal hill faults (e.g., Fujie et al., 2018; Ranero et
481 al., 2003). Fault spacing is ~5 km at the Kuril trench (Fujie et al., 2018) and ~2 km at the Middle
482 America Trench (Faccenda et al., 2009; Ranero et al., 2003) where abyssal-hill faults are
483 reactivated. When new bending faults form and cut across pre-existing fabrics, they often have
484 larger throws and are more widely spaced compared to reactivated faults, as is observed at the
485 Chilean and northern Japan trenches (e.g., Fujie et al., 2018; Geersen et al., 2018). In the eastern
486 part of our study area (<156°W), where pre-existing structures are oblique to the trench, bending
487 faults are not observed (Fig. 8). We discuss a possible explanation for the absence of bending
488 faulting in the east in Section 5.2.2.

489

490 There are two regions within our study area (156-157°W and 159-160°W, Fig 3) that exhibit
491 bending faults with a broader range of strikes that do not parallel magnetic anomalies. The region
492 between 156-157°W occurs north of the relict ridge-ridge-ridge triple junction and thus may have
493 more complicated pre-existing structures. Complex and evolving abyssal-hill faulting is observed
494 near modern ridge-ridge-ridge triple junctions and other areas of spreading changes (Smith et al.,
495 2011), and the same may have been true in this area. Large topographic features such as the
496 structure near 156°W could locally influence stress state and fault orientation (Geersen et al.,

497 2022). However, we assert that complex variations in pre-existing structures are the primary
498 controlling factors between between 156-157°W. We discuss the region between 159-160°W in
499 Section 5.3

500

501 5.2.2 Cumulative bending-related fault throw

502 We observe a significant westward increase in the summed throw of all mapped faults within
503 0.5° bins (Fig. 7). Slab curvature is thought to be a primary control on the amount of slip on
504 bending faults, where higher degrees of slab bending are expected to be associated with larger
505 magnitudes of cumulative fault slip (Faccenda, 2014). In our study area, the bending angle of the
506 incoming plate estimated from the dip of the top of basement crust in seismic reflection data
507 (Fig. 6) steepens to the west, consistent with westward steepening of slab dip and increase in slab
508 curvature at depth (Fig. 1; Buffett & Heuret, 2011; Hayes et al., 2018; Kuehn, 2019). This
509 correlation suggests that the increase in slab dip could contribute the westward increase in
510 cumulative bending faulting. However, given the relatively modest changes in slab curvature
511 along-strike of ~1° over five degrees of longitude, it is surprising that we observe such a large
512 and abrupt along-strike change in the amount of bending faulting: from no discernable bending
513 faulting east of 156°W to significant bending faulting between 159-161°W. Therefore, while
514 changes in slab dip likely contribute to the westward increase in observed cumulative bending
515 faulting, other factors appear necessary to explain the relatively abrupt along-strike change in
516 summed fault throws.

517

518 An abrupt change in pre-existing fabric in the subducting plate provides one possible explanation
519 for the abrupt observed change in observed summed fault throws between 156-158°W. Magnetic

520 anomaly patterns suggest that pre-existing structures west of 158°W are E-W striking and thus
521 near parallel to the trench and favorable for reactivation, while east of 156°W they strike ~N-S,
522 up to 70° oblique to the trench (Fig. 2C; Shillington et al., 2015), unfavorable for reactivation. In
523 the transition between these domains (156-158°W), the near-trench magnetic anomalies generally
524 trend E-W, but they become weaker and less linear as one moves east, perhaps due to proximity
525 to the relict triple junction directly to the south, and the transition to orthogonal (N-S) fossil ridge
526 orientation directly to the east as discussed above (Fig. 2C, Engebretson et al., 1985; Lonsdale,
527 1988). Abundant faults are observed within this transition (Fig. 3), but their cumulative slip is
528 relatively modest (Fig. 7), perhaps due to the complicated spreading fabric.

529

530 Reactivation of remnant structures, which are estimated to be ~30% weaker than the surrounding
531 crust (Billen et al., 2007), could allow extensional strain in the upper lithosphere to be
532 accommodated by faulting west of ~158°W. In contrast, to the east, where favorably oriented
533 weaknesses diminish and eventually disappear, bending stresses may not exceed the yield
534 strength of the upper lithosphere and thus limited faulting occurs. This interpretation implies that
535 bending stresses alone may be insufficient to promote the formation of outer rise faults in the
536 oceanic lithosphere in locations that have modest slab dip and that lack inherited weaknesses.
537 For comparison, slab dip is significantly steeper (by ~2°) in other subduction zones where new
538 bending faults form without reactivating pre-existing structures (e.g., Japan and Chilean
539 subduction zones (Fujie et al., 2013; Nishikawa & Ide, 2015; Ranero et al., 2005).

540

541 It has been hypothesized that weakening of the oceanic plate by faulting at the outer rise and
542 associated hydration and serpentinization could provide a positive feedback to induce additional

543 slab bending and outer rise faulting (Billen & Gurnis, 2005; Contreras-Reyes & Osses, 2010;
544 Faccenda et al., 2012; Hyndman & Peacock, 2003; Ranero et al., 2003). In Alaska, favorably
545 oriented pre-existing structures may be important for this feedback to initiate as they allow
546 faulting and hydration even at modest bending angles.

547
548 The long wavelength over which slab dip steepens along the Alaska subduction zone primarily
549 reflects the transition from flat-slab subduction in the Gulf of Alaska to the east (Davis &
550 Plafker, 1986; Petersen et al., 2021) to normal ocean-ocean plate subduction to the west. The
551 rapid transition in bending-related faulting observed in our region may induce an additional
552 short-wavelength transition in plate weakening that may enhance westward slab steepening. A
553 westward reduction in plate strength at the outer-trench slope is also consistent with a decrease in
554 the distance from the trench where bending faulting initiates: up to ~75 km from trench at
555 ~157°W but confined to <50 km from trench farther west (Fig. 2). Bending and faulting are
556 expected to occur over larger wavelengths for stronger plates. Similar relationships between pre-
557 existing structures, outer rise faulting, and slab bending angles are observed in the Middle
558 America subduction zone offshore Costa Rica and Nicaragua (Ranero et al., 2003).

559
560 In summary, we propose that the combination of along-strike changes in slab dip and the
561 orientation of pre-existing structures with respect to the trench best explains a relatively abrupt
562 along-strike change in the amount of faulting. The steeper slab dips and favorably oriented pre-
563 existing structures, which are weaker than the surrounding crust, allow pervasive bending
564 faulting in the west where larger faults, with greater throws form. In the east, bending stresses
565 associated with modest slab bending may not exceed the yield strength of the lithosphere, and

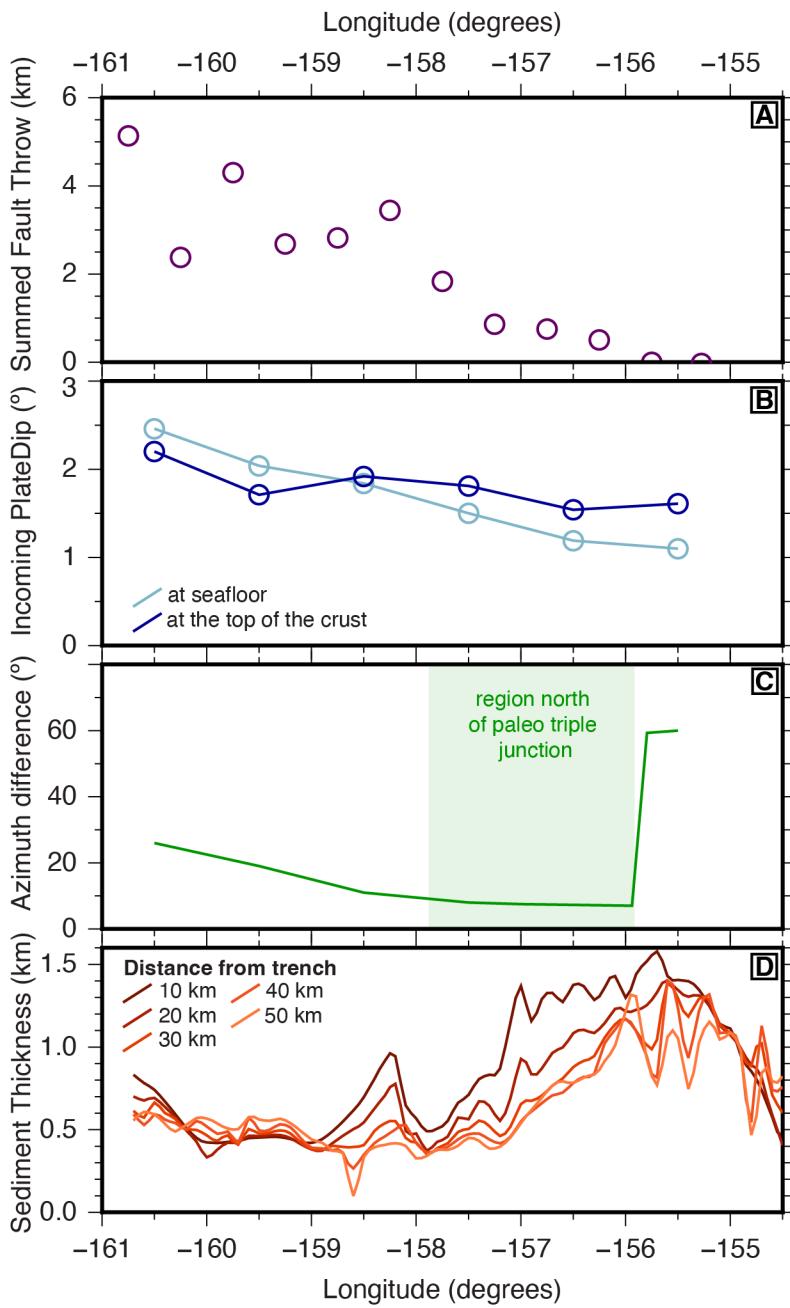
566 pre-existing structures are highly oblique to the trench, so limited faulting is observed.

567 Feedbacks between pre-existing structures, bending faulting, and plate weakening due to bending

568 faulting may further promote faulting in the west (e.g., Billen & Gurnis, 2005; Contreras-Reyes

569 & Osses, 2010).

570



571

572 **Figure 7:** Along strike variations in a) summed maximum throws on bending faults within 0.5°-wide bins; b) dip of
 573 the subducting plate at the outer rise, estimated from bathymetric seafloor slope (light blue, Fig. S6) and from the
 574 dip of the top of the crust based on a structure contour map of the base of incoming plate sediments (dark blue, Fig.
 575 6); c) difference between the expected strike of pre-existing structures from magnetic anomalies and the trench;
 576 incoming plate sediment thickness on the incoming plate at distances of 10-50 km from the trench.

577 5.3 Complex faulting and possible linkage to October 2022 M7.6 intraplate event

578 Between ~159-160°W, we observe an area of relatively complex bending-related faulting (Figs.
579 3, 9). Outside of this area, fault orientations generally exhibit a single, dominant peak in azimuth
580 centered around the average trend of magnetic anomalies (~85-90°). Within the complex zone, a
581 peak is still observed at ~85°, but with an additional broad plateau with abundant faulting
582 spanning orientations between 35-80° (Fig. 3). At ~159.25°W, we also observe a series of
583 features that we interpret as small volcanic constructs (Fig. 8). Similar features are recognized in
584 the outer rises of other subduction zones (e.g., Japan trench; Fujie et al., 2020; Hirano, 2011;
585 Hirano et al., 2006) and categorized as petit-spot magmatism. Off Japan, petit-spot volcanic
586 provinces do not geochemically resemble mid-ocean ridge melts or occur near hotspot centers
587 and are thus hypothesized to be caused by partial melting of the asthenosphere induced by plate
588 bending and fracturing (Hirano et al., 2006).

589

590 The complex faulting in this region suggests comparable complexity in the pre-existing
591 structures or stress state of the incoming plate in this region. Magnetic anomalies are relatively
592 continuous through this region, and thus there is no evidence for the former here. Given the short
593 length scales associated with the complexity, we require a mechanism that can produce a
594 relatively abrupt changes in plate stress. Geodetic observations indicate a relatively abrupt
595 change in megathrust coupling between the Shumagin Gap (~159-162°W) and the Semidi
596 segment (~155-159°W; Drooff & Freymueller, 2021; Xiao et al., 2021), with a transition
597 approximately coincident with the region of complex faulting. Along-strike variations in
598 megathrust coupling and coseismic slip have been invoked to explain differences in incoming
599 plate seismicity in many subduction zones (e.g., Christensen & Ruff, 1988; Emry et al., 2014),

600 and it is possible that changes in coupling could also cause complexities in stress in the incoming
601 plate over long time periods and thus explain the complex bending-related faulting we observe.

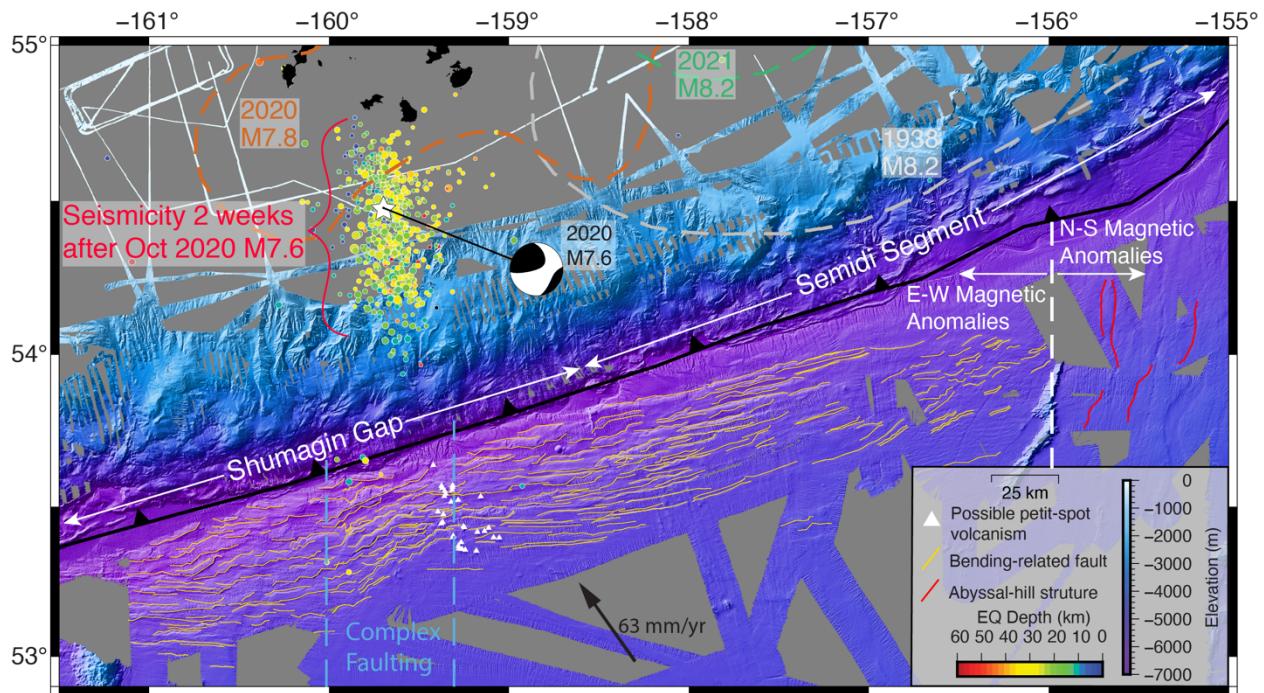
602

603 Complex patterns of stress and faulting within the incoming plate could also promote the
604 generation of small amount of melt and intraplate volcanism. Valentine & Hirano (2010) and
605 Hirano (2011) suggest that localization of tensional tectonic forces can enable partial melting in
606 the lower lithosphere, producing intraplate volcanic provinces. Thus, varied stresses in the
607 downgoing plate caused by differential coupling of the slab interface may localize tectonic
608 stresses in the downgoing plate such that melts are generated and accumulate in this transition
609 region and extrude as petit-spot volcanic features.

610

611 The region of complex faulting and petit-spot volcanism that we observe between 159-160°W
612 lies updip from the Oct 2020 M7.6 intraplate event, raising the possibility that they could have
613 related origins. Two causes have been proposed for this enigmatic earthquake, which appears to
614 have ruptured a steep fault in the subducting plate that strikes ~15° and thus orthogonal to the
615 trench: 1) reactivation of remnant spreading features produced at the Kula-Resurrection ridge,
616 which is now subducted (Fuston & Wu, 2020; Jiang et al., 2022); 2) accumulated shear stresses
617 caused by lateral variability in slab dip and coupling (Herman & Furlong, 2021). In the first case,
618 the 2020 M7.6 event is modeled as right-lateral strike-slip motion on a N-S striking fault dipping
619 steeply to the east (Jiang et al., 2020), with slip distribution and associated aftershocks extending
620 to within 30 km laterally from the zone of complex faulting. If this event reactivates
621 hypothesized pre-existing Kula-Resurrection fabric just north of the trench (Fuston and Wu,
622 2020), then it is plausible that persistent slip on this feature has induced static stress changes in

623 the incoming plate just up-dip of the fault tip (Yang et al., 2023) that are sufficient to perturb the
 624 bending stresses and associated fault orientations. In the second case, accumulated stresses in the
 625 subducting plate arising from lateral variability in coupling between the Shumagin Gap and
 626 Semidi segment could explain both the occurrence of the M7.6 intraplate earthquake (Herman &
 627 Furlong, 2021) and the complexities we observe bending-related faulting patterns outboard of the
 628 trench. Although more work is needed to evaluate the influence of changes in megathrust
 629 coupling on long-term deformation in the incoming plate, the spatial proximity of the earthquake
 630 and complex faulting imply a common origin.



631
 632 **Figure 8:** Bathymetric map of bending-related faulting (yellow lines) with abyssal-hill structures (red lines). Also
 633 shown is the CMT solution (Dziewonski et al., 1981; Ekström et al., 2012) for the Oct 2020 M7.6 intraplate event
 634 and earthquakes two weeks after the M7.6 (points colored by depth; from the Alaska Earthquake Information
 635 Center). Highlighted between the dashed blue lines is an area of complex bending faulting between ~ 159.25 - 160°W ,
 636 which lies immediately up-dip of the 2020 M7.6 intraplate event. Interpreted petit-spot volcanism (white triangles) at
 637 $\sim 159.25^{\circ}\text{W}$ occurs on the eastern edge of the region of complex faulting. Large megathrust rupture patches are
 638 shown on the overriding plate colored the same as previous figures.

639 5.4 Implications for hydration

640 One major importance of bending-related faulting is its role in allowing ingress of seawater and
641 hydration of the crust and upper mantle of the incoming plate (Cai et al., 2018; Faccenda, 2014;
642 Faccenda et al., 2009; Grevemeyer et al., 2018; Ivandic et al., 2008; Korenaga, 2017; Nishikawa
643 & Ide, 2015; Peacock, 2001; Ranero et al., 2003; Shillington et al., 2015). Extensional faults on
644 the incoming plate are thought to act as conduits for seawater to percolate several kilometers
645 through the crust and into the upper mantle of the incoming plate. The water may reside as fluid-
646 filled cracks in the crust and upper mantle (Miller et al., 2021), as well as react with the
647 peridotites to form serpentinite (Carlson & Miller, 2003; Faccenda, 2014; Faccenda et al., 2009;
648 Grevemeyer et al., 2018; Korenaga, 2017; Peacock, 2001; Ranero et al., 2003). Seismic velocity
649 models from subduction zones around the globe show the reduced velocities in the crust and
650 upper mantle of the subducting plate near the trench, which are interpreted to represent the
651 presence of hydrous minerals and or fluid-filled cracks (Cai et al., 2018; Contreras-Reyes et al.,
652 2007, 2011; Fujie et al., 2018; Ivandic et al., 2008; Shillington et al., 2015; Van Avendonk et al.,
653 2011).

654

655 P-wave velocity models in the study area exhibit a more pronounced reduction in seismic
656 velocity in the upper mantle of the incoming plate outboard of the Shumagin Gap (western
657 portion of the study area; west of $\sim 157^{\circ}\text{W}$) than in the Semidi segment (eastern portion of the
658 study area; east of $\sim 157^{\circ}\text{W}$), suggesting greater hydration in the west (Shillington et al., 2015).
659 Likewise, high-resolution P-wave models from streamer tomography also show a reduction in
660 velocity in the upper crust off the Shumagin Gap, interpreted to arise from a combination of
661 faulting and alteration (Acquisto et al., 2022).

662

663 The combination of preferentially oriented pre-existing structures and an increase in slab dip
664 outboard of the Shumagin Gap (west of ~157°W) promote more bending faulting and are thus
665 expected to produce increasing hydration of the incoming lithosphere, in comparison to the
666 region outboard of the Semidi segment (east of ~157°W) where the number and size of bending
667 faulting is lower. A westward increase in hydration can be inferred from the westward increase
668 in number of faults and larger fault throws and is consistent with observations of a double-
669 seismic zone in the downgoing plate in the Shumagin Gap (Wei et al., 2021), prominent
670 conductors at depth in magnetotelluric data (Cordell et al., 2023), and geochemical signatures
671 consistent with fluids in arc volcanism in the western Shumagin Gap (Wei et al., 2021).

672

673 Faults to the west of our study area also appear to have more irregular fault orientations (Figs. 2B
674 & 3) and may form interconnected fault networks as they grow and merge near the trench, thus
675 creating a larger and more pervasive damaged zone. This interconnected fault network to the
676 west could also promote increased hydration.

677

678 5.5 Implications for plate boundary properties

679 Geodetic studies of the Alaska Peninsula show that the western Shumagin Gap is <30% coupled,
680 whereas the eastern Semidi segment is almost entirely locked (Drooff & Freymueller, 2021; Li &
681 Freymueller, 2018). Changes in subduction zone inputs could influence changes in coupling here
682 (Shillington et al., 2015). Westward increases in the total number and throws of bending-related
683 faults on the incoming plate, combined with the westward decrease in sediment thickness, can
684 influence the heterogeneity of the megathrust interface once subducted. Possible petit-spot

685 features at \sim 159.25°W may also locally contribute to a rougher plate interface in the western part
686 of our study area. Rough seafloor is proposed to promote creeping of the megathrust interface
687 and numerous small to medium (< M7.5) events (Wang & Bilek, 2014) and potentially
688 contribute to slow slip events (e.g., Saffer & Wallace, 2015). Higher degrees of bending faulting
689 to the west are also expected to result in greater hydration of the crust and upper mantle, stored
690 in hydrous minerals or as free water. Dehydration and migration of fluids at depth could also
691 influence megathrust properties and behavior (e.g., Cordell et al., 2023; Saffer & Tobin, 2011;
692 Saffer & Wallace, 2015). Thus, increased bending faulting and thinner sediment cover on the
693 incoming plate in the western part of the study area may lead to a heterogeneous and fluid-rich
694 megathrust interface and promote creep. The lack of bending faulting and larger amounts of
695 sediment entering the subduction zone in the eastern Semidi segment (Li et al., 2018) could
696 contribute to greater megathrust homogeneity. At shallow depths, the thicker subducted
697 sediments in the Semidi segment appear to be overpressured (Li et al., 2018) and may contribute
698 to observed aseismic slip (e.g., He et al., 2023). At greater depths, thicker subducting sediments
699 could contribute to a relatively homogenous plate boundary, allowing for increased locking and
700 propensity to rupture in earthquakes in the eastern portion of our study area (Li et al., 2018; Ruff,
701 1989).

702

703 On the other hand, thinner sediment and rougher seafloor subducting in the Shumagin segment
704 may promote shallow seismic slip and tsunamigenesis (Bécel et al., 2017). These properties are
705 commonly associated with the incoming plate in subduction zones with shallow, tsunamigenic
706 earthquakes, including tsunami earthquakes (Polet & Kanamori, 2000). Subduction zones with
707 low coupling can host infrequent tsunamigenic earthquakes. For example, the 1946 M8.6

708 tsunami earthquake ruptured a weakly coupled region to the west of our study area (López &
709 Okal, 2006). Bécel et al. (2017) proposed that the properties of the Shumagin sector, including
710 the rough seafloor and paucity of sediments, may make it prone to tsunamigenic shallow slip
711 when infrequent large earthquake rupture into this weakly coupled segment as may have
712 occurred in 1788 (Davies et al., 1981).

713

714 We acknowledge that there are uncertainties associated with projecting features observed
715 outboard of the subduction zone to seismogenic depths. The position of features at depth is
716 influenced by slab geometry and convergence direction (Harmon et al., 2019). In the study area,
717 there are significant uncertainties in the continuation of the Zodiac fan at depth (von Huene et al.,
718 2012), and competing reconstructions for the spreading history in this region predict different
719 configurations of pre-existing structures at depth (e.g., Fuston & Wu, 2020). Nonetheless, the
720 correlations between incoming plate properties, changes in locking and seismicity at a range of
721 depths, and arc lava chemistry imply that subduction zone inputs contribute to patterns of plate
722 boundary behavior (Shillington et al., 2015; Wei et al., 2021).

723

724 **6 Conclusions**

725 Analysis of new high-resolution bathymetry data collected outboard of the Shumagin Gap and
726 Semidi segment provide new insights into controls on formation and patterns of bending-related
727 faulting in the outer-rise of the incoming Pacific plate.

728 1) Bending-related faults strike dominantly parallel to magnetic anomalies, indicating that
729 bending primarily reactivates relict abyssal-hill faults originating at oceanic plate formation. The

730 angle between magnetic anomalies and the trench controls bending fault strike, where reactivated
731 faults parallel magnetic anomalies and newly formed faults parallel the trench.

732 2) The plate bends more steeply to the west in the Shumagin Gap region, where observed
733 faulting is more extensive and where larger faults, with greater throw, form. These observations
734 suggest that increased bending of the downgoing plate is likely one contributing factor to the
735 westward increase in summed scarp heights. However, feedbacks between pre-existing
736 structures, slab weakening, and bending and faulting appear necessary to explain the relatively
737 abrupt along-strike changes in the amount of bend faulting.

738 3) The subducting plate updip of the M7.6 intraplate earthquake (between 159-160°W) exhibits
739 relatively complex bending faulting and petit spot volcanism. Variations in coupling and slab dip
740 could contribute to both bending faulting patterns and the M7.6 earthquake here.

741 4) The westward increase in bending faulting has important implications for incoming plate
742 weaknesses and the ability for bending-faulting to pervasively hydrate the incoming plate at the
743 western Shumagin Gap.

744 5) Thin sediment cover and pervasive bending-related faulting on the incoming plate outboard of
745 the western Shumagin Gap promotes a heterogeneous, fluid rich plate interface and creeping
746 megathrust behavior at depth. Thick sediment cover and nearly absent bending-related faulting
747 on the incoming plate outboard of the eastern Semidi segment promotes a homogeneous
748 megathrust, contributing to recurring great earthquakes.

749

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757
758 **Open Research**
759

760 All of the data used in this paper are opening available. Bathymetry data can be accessed through
761 the Marine Geoscience Data System (<https://www.marine-geo.org/index.php>) and is searchable
762 by expedition code (R/V Sikuliaq: SKQ201811S, SKQ201816S, SKQ201918S
763 R/V Langseth: MGL1903, MGL1907). Seismic reflection data from ALEUT
764 (<https://www.marine-geo.org/tools/entry/MGL1110>) and AACSE (<https://www.marine-geo.org/tools/entry/MGL1903>) are also available through the MGDS, and USGS reflection data
766 are available from NAMSS (<https://walrus.wr.usgs.gov/namss/>).

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