# Active faults' geometry in the Gulf of Aqaba, southern Dead Sea fault, illuminated by multi beam bathymetric data

Matthieu Ribot<sup>1</sup>, Yann Klinger<sup>1</sup>, Sigurjón Jónsson<sup>2</sup>, Ulas Avsar<sup>3</sup>, Edwige Pons-Branchu<sup>4</sup>, Rémi Matrau<sup>2</sup>, and Francis L Mallon<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Université de Paris - Institut de Physique du Globe de Paris <sup>2</sup>King Abdullah University of Science and Technology <sup>3</sup>Middle East Technical University <sup>4</sup>Laboratoire des Sciences du Climat et de l'Environnement

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#### Abstract

Detailed knowledge of fault geometry is important for accurate seismic hazard assessments. The Gulf of Aqaba, which corresponds to the southern termination of the 1200-km-long Dead Sea fault system, remains one of the least known parts of this plate boundary fault, in large part due to its location offshore. Classically, the Gulf of Aqaba has been described as a succession of three pull-apart basins. Here, building on a new multibeam bathymetric survey of the Gulf of Aqaba, we provide details about the geometry of the faults at the bottom of the gulf that controls its morphology. In particular, we identify a 50 km-long fault section that shows evidence of recent activation. We associate this fault section (Aragonese fault) with the section that ruptured during the 1995 magnitude Mw7.3 Nuweiba earthquake. In the southern part of the gulf, bathymetry emphasizes the strike-slip nature of the Arnona fault, while dip-slip motion seems to be accommodated mostly by faults located along the eastern edge of the gulf. Considering the simple linear geometry of the Arnona fault and the absence of any large earthquake for several centuries, despite an average slip-rate of ~5 mm/yr, this fault should be considered as a significant candidate for an earthquake rupture of magnitude 7 or above in the near future.

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4	AUTHORS: Matthieu Ribot <sup>1,4</sup> , Yann Klinger <sup>1</sup> , Sigurjón Jónsson <sup>2</sup> , Ulas Avsar <sup>3</sup> , Edwige
5	Pons-Branchu <sup>4</sup> , Rémi Matrau <sup>2</sup> , and Francis L. Mallon <sup>2</sup>
6	
7	(1) Université de Paris, Institut de physique du globe de Paris, CNRS, Paris, France.
8	(2) King Abdullah University of Science and Technology, Thuwal, Saudi Arabia.
9	(3) Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Turkey.
10	(4) Laboratoire des Sciences du Climat et de l'Environnement, Gif-sur-Yvette, France.
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12	Corresponding author: Matthieu Ribot (ribot@ipgp.fr)
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14	Key points
15	High-resolution bathymetry of the Gulf of Aqaba
16	• Detailed map of a complex fault system including strike-slip and normal faulting
17	• Surface rupture of the Mw 7.3, 1995, Nuweiba earthquake and possible location of
18	future earthquakes
19	
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earthquake for several centuries, despite an average slip-rate of  $\sim$ 5 mm/yr, this fault should be

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37 Keywords: Gulf of Aqaba; Dead Sea fault; Bathymetry; Strike-slip fault; Earthquake

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## 39 1. Introduction

40 The Dead Sea Fault (DSF) is a left-lateral strike-slip fault separating the Arabian plate from the 41 Sinai micro-plate (Figure 1A). Along its southern section, between Lebanon and the Gulf of 42 Aqaba, the slip rate has been extensively studied at different time scales. Although the earthquake activity does not appear to be regular through time (Lefevre et al., 2018; Marco et 43 al., 1996; Wechsler et al., 2018), a slip rate of  $5 \pm 1$  mm/yr agrees as well with geodetic data at 44 decadal scale (Le Béon et al., 2008; Hamiel et al., 2018; Reilinger et al., 2006; Sadeh et al., 45 46 2012; Al Tarazi et al., 2011), as with rate determinations averaged over the Holocene (Le Béon et al., 2010; Yann Klinger et al., 2000; Niemi et al., 2001), or even during the entire Quaternary 47 (Le Béon et al., 2012). 48

The 180-km-long southern stretch of the fault system is located offshore the cities of Agaba 49 and Eilat (Figure 1B). There, the fault system forms the Gulf of Aqaba (GA), before the fault 50 goes through the Strait of Tiran (ST) to connect to the Red Sea extensional system (Courtillot 51 52 et al., 1987). The first bathymetric survey of the GA, which included seismic reflection profiles, was completed in the early 80's. It revealed that the GA is formed by a succession of pull-apart 53 54 basins (Ben-Avraham et al., 1979). The limited resolution of this survey, however, hampered 55 deciphering any further details of the fault geometry inside the GA. Since then, due to the peculiar geopolitical situation of the GA, which waters are shared by four different countries, 56 57 only very localized additional geophysical marine data have been acquired (Ben-Avraham & Tibor, 1993; Ehrhardt et al., 2005; Sade et al., 2009; Tibor et al., 2010), which did not provide 58 a general view of the detailed structure of the GA. Indeed, the GA has been the most seismically 59 active part of the DSF during the last century, with the M<sub>w</sub>7.3 earthquake in 1995 (Abdel-Fattah 60 61 et al., 1997; Frucht et al., 2019; Hofstetter, 2003; Yann Klinger et al., 1999; Pinar & Türkelli, 1997; Shamir et al., 2003) that severely affected the coastal city of Nuweiba in Egypt, triggered 62 63 a small tsunami that swept beaches in Eilat and Aqaba (Frucht et al., 2019), and was also strongly felt in different cities along the Saudi coast. Beside this major event, several significant 64 earthquake swarms have affected the GA during the instrumental period, in 1983, in 1990, and 65 in 1993, that included events with magnitudes as large as M<sub>w</sub>6.1, in addition to a sustained 66 67 background seismicity (Abd el-aal et al., 2018; Abou Karaki et al., 1993; Al-Arifi et al., 2012;

- 68 Almadani, 2017; Ambraseys, 2009; El-Isa et al., 1984; Hussein & Abou Elenean, 2008; Shamir
- 69 & Shapira, 1994). Several large historical and prehistorical earthquakes have also been
- 70 documented that likely occurred in the GA and along the on-shore DSF sections farther North
- 71 (Ambraseys, 2009; Y Klinger et al., 2015; Lefevre et al., 2018; Shaked et al., 2004; Thomas et
- **72** al., 2007)
- 73 Here, combining a new multibeam bathymetric dataset acquired in 2018 in the Saudi waters
- 74 with preexisting data, we establish a detailed map of the active tectonic structures in the GA.
- 75 Based on the submarine morphology of the active fans, analysis of slope variations, and the
- 76 mapping of markers of the tectonic deformation involved with the different faults located at the
- bottom of the GA, we identify the main structure that was most likely activated during the 1995
- 78 M<sub>w</sub>7.3 Nuweiba earthquake, and we discuss the seismic potential of the other faults located
- 79 elsewhere in the gulf.

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Figure 1: (A) Tectonic setting of the sinistral strike-slip Dead Sea Fault (DSF). Seismicity from
the ISC earthquake catalogue 1964 - 2015 (http://www.isc.ac.uk). The DSF connects to the
North to the East Anatolian Fault System (EAFS) and to the South to the Red Sea ridge
(modified from Le Béon et al., (2008)) GA: Gulf of Aqaba, ST: Strait of Tiran. (B) Multibeam
bathymetric map of GA and ST with the main active faults, combining R/V Thuwal (2018), F/S

Meteor (1999) and Hall & Ben Avraham (1978) datasets. The main strike-slip faults are in red
while normal faults are in black. Fault traces have been simplified for clarity. The grey focal
mechanisms correspond to the successive sub-events for the, Mw7.3, 1995 earthquake source
model after Klinger et al., (1999). Location of the seismic swarms in 1983, 1990, 1993 and
other focal mechanisms respectively from Abou Karaki et al. (1993) and Hofstetter (2003).
Grey background is Landsat 8 Imagery, courtesy of the U.S. Geological Survey (2018). ArF:

Arnona Fault, AF: Aragonese Fault, DF: Dakar Fault, EF: Eilat Fault, HF: Haql Fault, TF: Tiran
Fault.

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#### 96 2. Materials and Methods

A high-resolution bathymetric survey of the eastern half of the GA (within Saudi waters) and 97 the ST was conducted on board the R/V Thuwal from May 20th to June 7th, 2018. We used a 98 99 Kongsberg EM710-MK2 multibeam echo sounder (operating in the 70-100 kHz range) calibrated with CTD (Conductivity, Temperature, Depth) profiles. Due to local regulation, no 100 101 additional sub-surface geophysical data could be collected at that time. In order to maximize 102 the range capability and to reduce interference from multiple returns we used a transmit fan which sequentially divides the signal into three sectors with distinct transmit frequencies and 103 waveforms. We limited the system to a swath of 2000 m (i.e. 1000 m swath on each side of the 104 beamer) in order to ensure a maximum pixel width of 10 m across the track. Similarly, the 105 106 survey speed was kept at 5-6 kn (~10 km/h) to limit the spacing between successive survey 107 points and to ensure that the maximum pixel width is 10 m along the track as well. Survey lines 108 were acquired every ~1000 m in deep water and 500 m near the shore, to ensure a double 109 coverage of each point in opposite directions. The GA and ST survey was split into 9 distinct 110 areas. We performed 10 CTD casts in order to calibrate the sound velocity profile of the water 111 column for each surveyed area (see supplementary materials.). The results were imported into the commercial SiS multibeam software and used to correct the incoming multibeam data. 112 113 Then, the bathymetric data were automatically screened for obvious outliers and, additionally, 114 we manually identified and removed remaining spurious data points.

From this dataset, we built a Digital Elevation Model (DEM) of the bathymetry by averaging raw data values to a 10 m horizontal grid. We combined this new DEM with pre-existing multibeam data from the western part of the GA (F/S Meteor cruise 44 - 1999 (Sade et al., 2009)) to cover ~70% of the gulf. The remaining gaps were filled using a lower resolution dataset produced from older ship track surveys (Hall & Ben Avraham, 1978). The contour lines of the bathymetric chart of the Gulf of Eilat were digitized and then resampled using a linear

interpolation algorithm to get a regular horizontal posting at 50 meters. In addition to the 121 bathymetric DEM (Figure 2A), using the GDAL free software we computed shaded 122 123 bathymetry and slope map maps (Figure 2B & 2C) to help mapping the different active tectonic 124 structures. The shaded bathymetries were calculated depending on the observed structure with an azimuth of N315 or N135 and with a low-angle altitude of the light source of 25. The vertical 125 resolution of the DEM is controlled by computing average depth for 1 square kilometer in the 126 127 flat bottom part of each basin. Analyzing the standard deviation for depth for the flat part of the 128 different basins, we derived an average vertical uncertainty of 1.3 m for our bathymetric data. 129



Figure 2: (A) Bathymetric map of the Gulf of Aqaba combining R/V Thuwal (2018), F/S
Meteor (1999) and Hall & Ben Avraham (1979) datasets (B) Shade bathymetry of the Gulf of
Aqaba with an azimuth of 315N and a sun angle of 25° (C) Slope map of the Gulf of Aqaba
from low slope angle (white: 0°) to high slope angle (black: >45°). All maps are projected in
WGS 84 - UTM 36N. On-land grey background from a Landsat-8 image, courtesy of the U.S.
Geological Survey.

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138 **3. Results** 

139 Our new bathymetry confirms that the GA is formed by a succession of pull-apart basins (Figure 1B) (Ben-Avraham et al., 1979; Ben-Avraham & Tibor, 1993; Tibor et al., 2010). The 140 141 two basins in the northern part of the GA, the Eilat Deep and the Aragonese Deep, are well 142 separated and display a typical pull-apart morphology. Southwest of the Aragonese Deep, near the Egyptian coast, is the smaller Arnona Deep. Further South, the Dakar and the Tiran Deeps, 143 144 although they are morphologically distinct and separated by a small high, are bounded by a 145 common set of faults; the Arnona strike-slip fault to the West, and the Dakar normal fault to 146 the East. A sixth basin, the Hume Deep, is located in the southernmost section of the Dead Sea 147 fault, South of the Strait of Tiran. The average depth of each of these basins mirrors the steep topography surrounding the GA, with mountains reaching 1000 m and higher only a few 148 149 kilometers off the eastern and western coasts of the GA. From North to South, the Eilat Deep 150 averages to a depth of 900 m, the Aragonese and the Arnona Deeps average at depths of 1750 151 m and 1500 m, and the Dakar and the Tiran Deeps average at 1285 m and 1270 m depths, 152 respectively. The Hume Deep, that is located outside the proper GA, averages a depth of 1400 153 m. Hence, considering the narrowness of the GA at sea level, which does not exceed about 25 154 km at its widest, the GA corresponds to a dramatic topographic change reflecting upon the 155 activity of the Dead Sea fault system. These six basins are interconnected by 3 major left-lateral 156 strike-slip faults, from North to South, the Eilat fault, the Aragonese fault, and the Arnona fault 157 (Figure 1B). In addition to the dominant strike-slip motion, these faults also accommodate 158 some limited amount of normal motion. The average fault azimuth for these three faults are 159 N24, N17 and N20, respectively, similar to the strike-slip direction predicted from the position 160 of the Euler pole between the Sinai micro-plate and the Arabian plate (Le Béon et al., 2008). In 161 addition, each basin is bounded by normal faults. The azimuth of the normal faults in the GA is either clustered at about N20 or N160 (Figure 1B). Indeed, the larger normal faults are sub-162 parallel to the Dead Sea fault direction, defining the long axis of the GA, about N20. The second 163 set of normal faults, clustered around N160, corresponds to faults oblique to the GA, usually 164 165 bounding basins to the North and the South.

166 In the northern part of the gulf, the flat-bottom Eilat Deep is bounded by steep slopes. Along 167 its eastern flank, northwest of the city of Haql, large submarine fans incise through the 168 topographic coastal escarpment formed by the Haql fault scarp (**Figure 2 and 3**). The fault 169 scarp is easily followed at the toe of the topography where one can often find a double scarp. 170 We extracted 6 longitudinal profiles across these fans from our bathymetric dataset and 171 projected these profiles with respect to the Haql fault (**Figure 3A**). The profiles are showing 172 regular undisturbed convex shape and no break-in-slope or knickpoint is visible along the cross-

sections, except possibly along the D-D' profile, where a small perturbation is visible (Figure 173 174 **3B**). This profile, however, is taken along a small fan, onto which less sediments are likely deposited during local storms and could therefore preserve tectonic scarps longer than the larger 175 176 fans. Thus, nowhere the fan surfaces appear to have been disrupted by any recent fault activity, but at the southern end of the fault escarpment (Figure. 3D) a clear scarp is visible in the shaded 177 topography and slope map. It crosses about one third of the surface of the fan before 178 disappearing in the area which corresponds to the current most active part of the submarine 179 180 alluvial fan. This specific escarpment might possibly attest of some recent tectonic activity. 181 Alternatively, this scarp might not be that recent, but the preservation of the scarp would result from the scarp being protected from the sediment coming down the slope of the fan by the large 182 183 levee that is visible upslope from the scarp (Figure. 3D). This second possibility would be consistent with the fact that no recent scarp is visible either North or South along that strand. 184 185 Although the morphology of the scarp indicates that this fault is dominated by normal motion, in a few places the shaded topography suggests that a small amount of strike-slip motion might 186 187 have also been accommodated by this fault. Accurate quantification of lateral displacement, 188 however, would require data with higher resolution.



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191 Figure 3: (A) Zoom-in of the northern part of the Gulf of Agaba, along the morphological trace 192 of the Haql fault (see location on Figure 2) with location of the cross sections shown in (B). The fault lines are more detailed than in Figure 1. Red lines represent the main strike-slip faults, 193 194 black lines the main normal faults. Along the Eilat fault, a long-term displaced channel as well as the left-lateral displacement of a small hill confirm the strike-slip character of the Eilat fault. 195 (B) Cross-sections along the longitudinal shape of the alluvial fans, North of the city of Haql. 196 No vertical offsets are visible on these cross-sections, with the exception of a possible 197 198 knickpoint along profile D-D', and the continuous convex shape of the fans suggests no recent 199 activity of the Haql fault. (C) The trace of the Haql fault is buried by fans coming from the 200 coastal plain, with no visible recent perturbations of the fans at this location. Nevertheless, the 201 high relief shows the long-term normal or oblique character of the Haql fault. In few places, the shaded topography suggests that a small part of strike-slip motion is also accommodated along 202

the Haql fault. (D) At the southern termination of the Haql fault, discontinuous small scarpsacross the fans suggest that this section of the fault might have been activated recently.

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206 The western edge of the Eilat Deep is characterized by a set of sub-vertical cliffs going down to the bottom of the basin, as a direct continuation of the steep onshore topography. Unlike 207 208 along the eastern shore, no wide coastal plain has developed along that part of the GA. 209 Combining bathymetry, shaded bathymetry and slope map (Figure. 2), we could identify two 210 fault sections along that edge of the basin that are connected by a left-stepping normal fault 211 (29.3°N; 34.8°E). Despite the lower resolution of the bathymetric data along the western side of the Eilat Deep, in several places one can find evidence for cumulative left-lateral motion 212 213 (Figure. 3A), suggesting that a significant part of the horizontal motion accommodated along the Dead Sea fault system is taken up by that strand. The Eilat Deep is bounded both to the 214 215 North and South by NW-SE normal faults dipping toward the center of the basin (Ben-Avraham, 1985; Ben-Avraham et al., 1979; Ben-Avraham & Tibor, 1993; Ehrhardt et al., 2005; 216 217 Hartman et al., 2014; Reches, 1987; Tibor et al., 2010). To the South, however, the faults are buried under sediments from the Nuweiba alluvial fan and could only be recognized owing to 218 219 slope changes and variations in submarine canyon patterns.

The Aragonese fault connects the Eilat Deep, to the North, to the Aragonese Deep, to the South. 220 221 This fault is sub-vertical and it accommodates mainly strike-slip motion (Ben-Avraham et al., 222 1979). In the North, however, this fault bounds the central part of the Eilat Deep to the East and 223 is slightly dipping westward. Conversely, along its southern section this fault is slightly dipping 224 eastward, as it bounds the Aragonese Deep to the West. This quick change of dip is typical of 225 strike-slip faults in pull-apart configuration (Wu et al., 2009). In addition to the dominant horizontal motion, the Aragonese fault is also accommodating some minor normal 226 227 displacement, as part of the pull-apart deformation pattern (Figure 4A). It is worth noting that despite the presence of numerous submarine landslides that affect the footwall of the Aragonese 228 229 fault in the Aragonese basin (Figure. 4A), the fault-scarp morphology remains remarkably well 230 defined at the toe of the slope, attesting of the frequent activity of the fault that keeps refreshing 231 its own scarp. Along the saddle that connects the Eilat and the Aragonese Deeps, the 232 morphology of the fault is characterized by 5 small basins perfectly aligned along the fault strike. Each of these basins is about 100 m to 150 m long and 50 m to 70 m wide, with a mean 233 234 depth of  $2 \pm 1.3$  meters (Figure 4B).



Figure 4: (A) Detailed fault map of the sinistral strike slip fault system in the central GA. Direct
evidence of surface rupture associated to the main subevent (see Fig. 2) of the 1995 Mw=7.3
Nuweiba earthquake are found in box B. (B) Sharp fault morphology suggesting very recent
fault activation. Small changes of geometry along the Aragonese fault are responsible for small
pull-apart (black squares) and counterslope scarp (white square). (C) Detail of the fault zone

- between Aragonese Deep and Arnona Deep resulting from a complexity in the geometry of the
- 243 Arnona fault. The red line represents the main active strike-slip fault.
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The Aragonese Deep is the deepest depression of the GA, with an average depth of 1750 m and a maximum depth of  $1777 \pm 1.3 \text{ m}$ . This basin is narrow, about 5 km wide at its bottom. The Aragonese and the Arnona strike-slip faults bound the basin respectively to the West and the East, while its northern and southern sides are bounded by normal faults (e.g. Seismic line 26ii in Ben-Avraham, 1985). Although the northern normal faults appear to be discontinuous and largely buried under sediments, the southern scarps are linear and well-marked in the morphology, suggesting that they are currently more active.

Located to the southwest of the Aragonese Deep, at the southern end of the Aragonese fault, the Arnona Deep is a small secondary basin, off the main axis of the GA (**Figures 1 & 4**). Short faults with oblique slip bound the basin to the West. Steepness of the coastal slope, however, suggests that dip slip is dominant.

A topographic high  $(1394 \pm 1.3 \text{ m depth})$  separates the Arnona Deep from the Aragonese Deep.

257 It is bounded on each side by normal faults and it is interpreted as a small horst participating

into the left-stepping of the fault system, between the Aragonese and the Arnona fault strands.

In addition, the top surface of the topographic high is tilted toward the South due to the dip-slipmotion accommodated along the normal faults bounding the Aragonese Deep to the South.

The Dakar and Tiran Deeps are the southernmost basins in the GA (**Figure 5**). Although the two basins appear as morphologically distinct, the existence of a major structural limit between them remains ambiguous (Ben-Avraham, 1985; Ben-Avraham et al., 1979). Both basins are bounded to the East by the Dakar fault. This fault is not very continuous all along the morphological escarpment, as it is incised in many places by small canyons related to gullies

flowing from the large coastal plain. Conspicuous along its southern section, the Dakar fault

has a double scarp with unambiguous evidence of vertical motion, while no indication of strike-

slip motion could be observed. This is consistent with the normal-fault seismic swarm activity

that characterizes this section of the GA (e.g., the 1993 earthquake (Hofstetter et al., 2003)).



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Figure 5: (A) Southern part of the Gulf of Aqaba (see location on Figure 2). Dakar and Tiran
Deeps are located between the sinistral strike-slip Arnona fault (red line) and the normal Dakar
fault (bold black lines). The location of the main strike-slip fault is partly masked by diapiric
foldings (black arrows) and secondary faulting (thin black and dashed black lines) associated
with the destabilization of large salt deposits moving down from the Dahab plateau. (B) Slope
map of the southern part of the Gulf of Aqaba, from low slope angle (white: 0°) to high slope
angle (black: >45°).

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To the West, the higher Dahab plateau ( $\overline{D} = 900 \text{ m}$ ) can be distinguished from the Dakar and 281 the Tiran basins. While the former is characterized by a flat morphology (Ben-Avraham et al., 282 283 1979), the western edge of the two basins is marked by distinctive diapiric features and 284 cylindrical folds. On average, these folds are about 150 m high and 600 m wide. We interpret 285 the boundary between the Dahab plateau and the basins to correspond to the location of the 286 Arnona fault. The folding seems to be associated with salt diapirs (Ben-Avraham et al., 1979), which origin is likely not tectonic. During the Miocene, post-rift deposits of massive salt layers 287 of the Magna Group are associated with the Red Sea spreading (Tubbs et al., 2014). At that 288 time, the GA is not well defined and thick evaporitic layers covered the entire area. Owing to 289 290 the DSF activity and the relative motion between Arabia and Sinai, a part of these deposits

291 become isolated in the GA where they form this plateau. Driven by gravity, the salts layers are now slowly flowing down from the plateau into the two basins, and eventually induce diapirism 292 293 and folding. Indeed, the arcuate shape of the folds, with apexes pointing eastward (Figure. 5), advocates for such triggering mechanism as such fold geometry could be hardly understood in 294 295 the framework of left-lateral Dead Sea fault motion alone. The Arnona fault itself is mostly 296 hidden by the hummocky bathymetry related to the folding. Possible secondary faulting, located 297 at the base of the folds, seems to cross-cut the folds and be syn- to post-formations of the 298 diapiric folds (Figure 5). The southern end of the Tiran Deep is bounded by a series of short 299 parallel normal faults dipping northward (Ben-Avraham, 1985), with well-developed morphology indicating recent activity. 300

301 Toward the South, the Strait of Tiran (ST) separates the GA from the northern Red Sea. The ST is constituted of two main channels, the Enterprise passage to the West and the Grafton 302 303 passage to the East. These channels are separated by four reef islands named, from South to North, the Gordon, Thomas, Woodhouse and Jackson reef. The maximum depth of the 304 305 shallowest part of the Enterprise and Grafton channels are  $255 \pm 1.3$  m and  $74 \pm 1.3$  m, respectively. The elongated shape of the reefs, together with sharp bathymetry, highlight the 306 307 location of the left-lateral strike-slip Tiran Fault. The Gordon, Thomas, and Woodhouse reefs are located to the West of the fault, while the Jackson reef is located East of the fault (Figure 308 6). How the Tiran fault connects to strike-slip fault in the Tiran Deep is ambiguous. Most 309 310 probably it connects to the Arnona strike-slip fault through a small left step jog, while the Dakar Deep will accommodate most of the normal motion. To the South, although our current data 311 312 only provide a limited view, the main strike-slip fault seems to extend westward, bounding the 313 Hume Deep to the North (Figure. 6), to eventually connect to the Red Sea extensional system. 314



- Figure 6: Strait of Tiran (see location on Figure 2). (A) The sinistral strike-slip Tiran Fault is located between the Woodhouse and Jackson reefs. The sharp bathymetry to the North and to the South of the reef emphasizes the location of the fault. Red lines represent the main strike-slip faults, black lines represent the main normal faults. (B) Slope map of the Strait of Tiran, from low slope angle (white: 0°) to high slope angle (black: >45°).
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#### 322 4. Discussion

#### 323 4.1. The 1995, M<sub>w</sub>7.3, Nuweiba earthquake surface rupture:

324 Between the Aragonese and Eilat Deeps, the Aragonese fault (Figure 4A) is characterized by evidence of recent deformation. Along its central section, small basins and counter-slope scarps 325 326 are visible in the bathymetry, which affect the most recent sediments (Figure 4B). Indeed, the size of these geomorphic features is too large to correspond to only one event, for instance the 327 328 Mw7.3 Nuweiba earthquake. However, the sharpness of the morphology, compared to any other locations along the strike-slip faults in the GA, advocates for recent rejuvenation of that 329 330 fault section, possibly during the 1995 Nuweiba earthquake. In contrast, although sharp morphology supports long-term normal activity of the Haql fault farther North, the convex 331 profiles of the alluvial fans crossing the fault and absence of clear scarps cross-cutting the active 332 fan surfaces suggest that no recent rupture occurred along that section of the fault. Similarly, 333 no continuity of a potential surface rupture could be identified at the bottom of the Arnona 334 335 Deep, which marks the end of the Aragonese fault to the South. Together with a long and 336 uninterrupted sharp line in the bathymetry along the Aragonese fault, this suggests that the most 337 recent surface ruptures, most likely associated with the main subevent of the M<sub>w</sub>7.3, 1995, Nuweiba earthquake, are limited to this 53-km-long central section of the Aragonese fault. If 338 339 additional deformation did occur, then it must have taken place on different fault sections such as the Eilat and the Arnona faults, as suggested by seismological data (Yann Klinger et al., 340 1999). These additional ruptures, however, would be smaller and could not be identified in our 341 342 multibeam bathymetry. Hence, using typical scaling relationship for strike-slip earthquakes 343 (e.g., Wesnousky, 2008), a rupture length of 53 km corresponds to a M<sub>w</sub>7.1 earthquake with a 344 maximum displacement of 1,9 meters. Thus, this observation seems more compatible, both in 345 location and size, with earthquake source models that include several cascading sub-events, than with source models involving a unique sub-event (Baer et al., 2008; Hofstetter, 2003; Yann 346 347 Klinger et al., 1999; Shamir et al., 2003).

348 4.2. Earthquake potential along the Arnona Fault

349 The Arnona fault, located in the southern part of the gulf, extends from the Aragonese Deep to the Tiran Deep. The structure is linear for 64 km along the eastern edge of the Dahab plateau, 350 351 partly buried under shallow salt deposits flowing downward from the plateau into the basins (Figure 1 & 5). To its northern end, between the Aragonese and Dakar Deeps, the fault azimuth 352 changes from N20 to N35, leading to the formation of a complex fault zone with multiple 353 354 parallel fault strands involving both strike-slip and dip-slip (Figure 4C). None of the fault 355 discontinuities, however, is large enough that it might hinder earthquake rupture propagation 356 (Wesnousky, 2006). Thus, the extent of a possible full-length rupture along the Arnona fault 357 should also include the 18.5 km that correspond to the Arnona fault section in the Aragonese Deep. Historical records along the DSF have revealed evidence for several large earthquakes 358 that likely occurred in the GA during the past 3000 years (e.g., 4th century BC, AD 363, 8th 359 century, AD 1068, AD 1212, and AD 1588 (Ambraseys, 2009)). The temporal organization of 360 361 large events along the entire DSF suggests that earthquakes occur in clusters during short seismically active periods lasting about 100 yrs to 200 yrs, separated by longer quiescent 362 363 seismic periods lasting 350 yrs to 400 yrs (Y Klinger et al., 2015; Lefevre et al., 2018). In the GA, the time gap between the last earthquake, in 1995, and the previous earthquake in AD 1588 364 365 conforms to this scheme and suggests that the DSF might be ripe for a new earthquake sequence 366 with the 1995 Nuweiba earthquake as a starter. Both extremities of the 1995 rupture were brought closer to failure by the 1995 event, and sustained micro-seismicity is observed in the 367 GA (e.g., 2016 sequence (Abd el-aal et al., 2018)). To the South, along the Arnona fault section, 368 369 our current knowledge does not allow to determine whether the last significant rupture at this 370 location happened in AD 1212 or in AD 1588 (Bektas et al., 2019). Thus, considering a slip-371 rate along the DSF of ~5 mm/yr (Le Béon et al., 2008, 2012), the accumulated slip deficit along 372 the 83-km-long Arnona fault stands between 2 m and 4 m, which corresponds to a potential 373 earthquake of magnitude comprised between 7.2 and 7.5.

374

## 375 5. Conclusions

Detailed mapping of active tectonic structures in the GA reveals that the deformation is strongly partitioned between faults accommodating strike-slip motion and extension oblique to the gulf. The two groups of faults are largely parallel, and aligned with the dominant direction of the gulf. In addition, a third group of faults includes shorter normal faults, usually located at extremities of the basins and oblique to the general direction of the gulf. The length of the strike-slip faults identified in our bathymetric map demonstrates the potential for large strikeslip earthquakes, such as the M<sub>w</sub> 7.3, 1995, Nuweiba earthquake, especially in the southern part

383 of the gulf. The normal faults are more discontinuous and thus, the potential for large normalfault events is lower, although earthquakes of magnitude up to M<sub>w</sub> 7 cannot be ruled out. Such 384 385 normal fault earthquakes, even of moderate magnitude could potentially trigger devastating tsunami into the gulf. Similarly, although strike-slip earthquakes are less prone to directly 386 trigger major tsunamis, a moderate dip-slip component associated to a large strike-slip motion 387 could also produce significant tsunami (Jamelot et al., 2019; Ulrich et al., 2019). In addition, 388 389 the bathymetry has revealed the existence of several large submarine alluvial fans in the gulf, 390 with slopes that could be destabilized during either strong strike-slip or normal faulting events 391 and trigger significant local tsunami (Frucht et al., 2019; Goodman-tchernov et al., 2016; Heidarzadeh et al., 2019; Jamelot et al., 2019). The absence of large earthquakes and the general 392 393 seismic quiescence during the last centuries along most of the Dead Sea fault system, including the GA, might give a false sense of security. The 1995, Mw7.3, Nuweiba earthquake, however, 394 395 should remind the scientific community, as well as civil society and local communities, of the need of a better assessment of the seismic and tsunami hazards in the region of the GA. 396 397 especially as the region is going through major economic development.

398

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