Fluids along the North Anatolian Fault, Niksar basin, north central Turkey: Insight from stable isotopic and geochemical analysis of calcite veins

Colin P. Sturrock a, Elizabeth J. Catlos b, *, Nathan R. Miller b, Aykut Akgun c, András Fall d, Rinat I. Gabitov e, Ismail Omer Yilmaz f, Toti Larson b, Karen N. Black g

* Corresponding author.
E-mail address: ejcatlos@gmail.com (E.J. Catlos).

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ABSTRACT

Six limestone assemblages along the North Anatolian Fault (NAF) Niksar pull-apart basin in northern Turkey were analyzed for δ18O and δ13C using bulk isotopic ratio mass spectrometry (IRMS). Matrix veins in one limestone sample yield δ18O values (−2.1 to 6.3‰) and δ13C values (−0.9 to 4.6‰) suggest a closed fluid system and rock buffering. Veins in one travertine and two limestone assemblages were further subjected to cathodoluminescence, trace element (Laser Ablation Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometry) and odoluminescence, trace element (Laser Ablation Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometry) and δ18O values across veins show fine-scale variations interpreted as evolving thermal conditions during growth and limited rock buffering seen at a higher-resolution than IRMS. Rare earth element data suggest calcite veins precipitated from seawater, whereas the travertine has a hydrothermal source. The δ18OSMOW-fluid for the mineralizing fluid that reproduces δ18O of seawater is +2‰, in range of Cretaceous brines, as opposed to negative δ18OSMOW-fluid from meteoric, groundwater, and geothermal sites in the region and highly positive δ18OSMOW-fluid expected for mantle-derived fluids. Calcite veins at this location do not record evidence for deeply-sourced meta- morphic and magmatic fluids, an observation that differs from what is reported for the NAF elsewhere along strike.

1. Introduction

Fluid pressure has a significant effect on earthquake rupturing and fault slip behavior (e.g., Sibson et al., 1975; Bredehoeft and Ingebritsen, 1990; Rice, 1992; Byerlee, 1993; Sibson, 1996; Chiodini et al., 2004; Miller et al., 2004; De Leeuw et al., 2010). Increased permeability as a direct result of faulting is assumed in many of these cases, but fracture networks can also form impermeable barriers or combined permeable and impermeable zones (e.g., Caine et al., 1996; Frima et al., 2005; Olierook et al., 2014; Ran et al., 2014). Passive and dynamic open-mode fracturing occurs in transtensional settings, each having differing implications for the nature of fluids recorded in rock fractures (e.g., Sample, 2010; Uysal et al., 2011; Nuriel et al., 2012a, 2012b). Dynamic fractures open episodically due to seismic events, and fluids are mobilized to form veins (e.g., Higlers and Urai, 2002; Nuriel et al., 2012a). Vein mineralization in passive fractures may occur over short timescales after earthquake activity, with distinct episodes of mineral deposition mediated via the influx of fluids (Moore et al., 2000). Thus veins have the potential to directly record information regarding fluid composition and the permeability of fracture networks after seismic activity (Verhaert et al., 2003, 2004).

Here we seek to understand the nature, source, and extent of
fluids recorded by fracture networks along the seisimically-active North Anatolian Fault (NAF) in north central Turkey, in portions of the fault system that displace Upper Jurassic to Lower Cretaceous carbonate assemblages at the surface (Fig. 1). Geochemical signatures for deep crustal- or mantle-derived fluids may exist within fault rock calcite veins, and such evidence would indicate that NAF deformation results in vertically permeable fracture networks accessing deep, over-pressured fluids (e.g., Pili et al., 2002, 2011). Alternatively, diagenetic processes may dominate, and calcite veins record only precipitation or mineralization during previous events related to the closure of the Tethyan oceans with no evidence of more recent activity. Discerning the processes responsible for the formation of calcite veins in rocks displaced by the NAF is possible by employing multiple geochemical and isotopic tracers.

Geochemical evidence for fluid sources tapped by NAF fracture systems potentially exists within calcite veins in limestone rocks collected directly from fault planes or fault-related fractures (e.g., Janssen et al., 1997, 2009; De Leeuw et al., 2010; Crémière et al., 2012). The rocks displaced by the NAF have experienced a multi-stage history, thus discriminating veins that result from mineral precipitation due to pressure changes and fluid unmixing after earthquake rupture (e.g., Uysal et al., 2011) from those associated with diagenesis (e.g., Morad et al., 2010) or previous metamorphic events associated with the closure of Tethyan oceans (e.g., Bektaş et al., 2001; Yilmaz, 2006) remains unknown. In strike slip systems and within the NAF, the extent of vertical fluid flow in fault zones is unclear as a number of controls influence migration (e.g., Peacock and Anderson, 2012; Ritz et al., 2015). The results reported here have implications for understanding the nature of regional-scale fluid-flow within the NAF and the use of isotopic data from calcite veins as recorders of seismic activity (Roberts, 1994; Uysal et al., 2011; Dabi et al., 2013).

Ample evidence exists for deep crustal and magmatic fluid migrating vertically through the NAF and related deformation zones at specific locations along strike. For example, contributions of mantle helium in hydrothermal fluids from areas along the NAF associated with seismic activity have increased after seismic events (Dogan et al., 2009; De Leeuw et al., 2010; Burnard et al., 2012). Magnetotelluric studies show increased conductivity in deformed crust beneath the NAF trace (Türkgülü et al., 2015), and seismic tomography indicates a pervasive low-velocity zone that extends into the mantle, interpreted to be a zone of deformation associated with the NAF (Fichtner et al., 2013). Clay minerals from NAF planes have δ18O and δD values consistent with deeply sourced metamorphic and magmatic fluids that have migrated as a result of fault activity (Uysal et al., 2006).

This study is the first to present δ18O and δ13C data for NAF calcite veins, which shows promise for deciphering small-scale variations in larger veins and discriminating among different smaller fracture generations (Sample, 2010). The results are further informed by bulk isotope ratio mass spectrometry (IRMS), fluid inclusion analyses, cathodoluminescence (CL) images, and petrography. The data provide insight regarding changes in fluid source and temperature, and are used to infer chemical processes occurring during crystallization.

2. Geologic background

The North Anatolian Fault (NAF) (Fig. 1) is a 1200 km-long dextral strike-slip fault which extends from the town of Karlıova in northeastern Turkey, paralleling the coast of the Black Sea, across the Northern Aegean Sea, central and mainland Greece, eventually linking with the Hellenic subduction zone (e.g. Barka, 1992; Barka, 1996; Barka et al., 2000; Şengör et al., 2005). The structure is part of a larger zone of deformation called the North Anatolian Shear Zone (NASZ) (Şengör et al., 1985, 2005), which lies along the boundary between the Eurasian plate to the north and the Anatolian microplate to the south. Its dextral slip accommodates the counterclockwise rotation and westward escape due to the collision between the Arabian and Anatolian plates (Barka and Hancock, 1984; Piper et al., 2010).

The focus of this study is the Erbaa-Niksar basin in the Tokat Massif of NE Turkey. The basin is considered one of the widest (12–13 km) active pull-apart basins along the NAF (Figs. 1 and 2) (Barka et al., 2000; Özden et al., 2002; Bektaş et al., 2001). The strike of the NAF between the towns of Erzincan and Erbaa is approximately 105°, whereas adjacent segments are 120°–125° (Fig. 1). A zone of convergent, N-S directed, E-W trending strain intersects with ideal strike-slip motion on the eastern part of the NAF, and is responsible for the origin of the Erbaa-Niksar basin (Şengör et al., 1985). It is Z-shaped, bounded to the north by the Niksar-Kalekoy fault segment which ruptured in 1942 (Ms = 7.1) and 1943 (Ms = 7.4) and to the south by the Erzincan or Erzine Pazari fault which ruptured in 1939 (Ms 7.8) (e.g., Mann et al., 1983; Ambroseays and Jackson, 1998; Tatar et al., 2007; Gürsoy et al., 2013; Demir et al., 2015). The southern boundary is part of a series of faults at a major NAF step over (Barka et al., 2000; Zabcı et al., 2011). The Erbaa-Niksar basin has been a key component used to model NAF evolution and slip history (Barka and Hancock, 1984; Tatar et al., 1995; Barka et al., 2000; Gökten et al., 2013), and is also termed separately Niksar and Erbaa-Taşova (e.g., Hempton and Dunne, 1984; Barka et al., 2000).

Mammal fossils from the Erbaa-Taşova portion of the basin place a minimum age for its formation in Early Pliocene, with initiation of the fault zone in this area in Late Miocene to Early Pliocene (Barka et al., 2000; Erol and Topal, 2013). Assuming that Erbaa-Taşova basin length and total fault displacement are directly related suggests a total displacement of 65 km for this part of the NAF. The Niksar basin (Fig. 2) is shorter in length (~15 km), and thus accommodates less displacement, making its age 0.5–1 Ma when extrapolating from slip rate estimates of 15–20 mm/yr (Barka et al., 2000; Hubert-Ferrari et al., 2002). Sedimentary units comprising the Niksar basin are younger than the Erbaa-Taşova (primarily Quaternary) and contain evidence of Quaternary volcanism (Adıyaman et al., 2001; Tatar et al., 2007).

Basement rocks of the Erbaa-Niksar basin are part of the Tokat Massif (Rojay, 1995; Yılmaz and Yılmaz, 2004; Catlos et al., 2013) and are separated by regional unconformities (Yılmaz et al., 1997; Yılmaz and Yılmaz, 2004). The basement units are: (1) Triassic metamorphic rocks of the Karakaya accretionary complex, (2) Liassic to Mid-Cretaceous carbonates, clastic sediments and volcanic rocks, (3) Upper Cretaceous limestones, volcanic rocks and ophiolites, and (4) Eocene volcanic and sedimentary rocks (Yılmaz et al., 1997; Yılmaz and Yılmaz, 2004; Ertuğrul and Tüysüz, 2012). These units are exposed along the western boundary of the Niksar basin and along the principal displacement zone along the Erbaa-Taşova basin (Fig. 1) (Barka et al., 2000; Ertuğrul and Tüysüz, 2012).

3. Methods

3.1. Sampling and analytical strategy

Our approach is to apply a combination of bulk (IRMS) and high-resolution (laser ablation inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry, LA-ICP-MS and SIMS) geochemical tools to six fractured limestone assemblages collected from exposures of the NAF and vein fill were characterized petrologically and analyzed using IRMS for oxygen and carbon (18O, 13C). Based on petrography, IRMS...
Fig. 1. (A) Geometry and location of the North Anatolian fault zone across Turkey after Barka (1992), (1996) and Akyuz et al. (2002). Sutures and location of the Tethyan terranes after Moix et al. (2008). NAF = North Anatolian Fault; EAF = East Anatolian Fault. Box shows location of the study area (panel B). Also shown are approximate boundaries of rupture from earthquakes (1939, 1942, and 1943) within the field area with magnitudes shown after Şengör et al. (2005). (B) Schematic geologic map showing major basement units in Tokat Massif after Aktmür et al. (1990), Yoshioka (1996), and Barka et al. (2000). Fault strands (names vary) are (1) Erbaa or Esençay, (2) Tosya-Ladik, (3) Niksar-Kaleköy, (4) Erzincan, Ezine Pazara, or Ezinepazar-Sungurlu (5) Taşova-Tekke (Aktmür et al., 1990; Tatar et al., 1995; Erturac and Tüysüz, 2012; Emre et al., 2012). Strands (2) and (3) are part of the main NAF which ruptured in 1942 and 1943, respectively. Strand (4) ruptured in 1939 (Erturac and Tüysüz, 2012). Sample locations shown. Box indicates the region shown in Fig. 2. Epicenter of earthquakes recorded in the field area from 1900-2017 from data provided by the Republic of Turkey Prime Ministry Disaster and Emergency Management Authority database (http://www.deprem.gov.tr). See Table 3 for details.
data, and location, samples KO16, KO17, and KO18 were selected for further in situ (in thin section or in rock sample) analysis. Rare earth elements (REE), Y, and Mn contents were obtained from polished offcuts of the same in the samples veins using LA-ICP-MS, followed by δ18Opdb using SIMS. Details of each method and all quantitative data are available as Supplementary files.

Fig. 3 shows the carbonate rock assemblages analyzed in this study. Samples KO14, KO16, KO17, and KO18 were collected directly along the NAF, whereas samples KO10 and KO12 were collected from within the Erbaa-Taşova basin (Figs. 1 and 2). Note that the exact location of the mapped NAF differs depending on field interpretation, thus we provide sample locations in Table 1 and as KML (GoogleMaps) files. Photographs of sample locations of KO16, KO17, and KO18 are shown in Fig. 2. All rocks are fine-grained, massively-bedded, white, pink, grey, or yellow micrites with evidence for extensive brittle deformation and pervasive calcite veins. They are part of the Doğdu Formation, platform carbonate sequences that formed in the Late Jurassic to Early Cretaceous on the southern passive margin of the Neo-Tethys Ocean (Aktimur et al., 1990; Bektaş et al., 2001; Herece and Akay, 2003; Yilmaz, 2006; Cengiz Cinku, 2011). These rocks record regional extensional, rift-related events associated with the break-up of the carbonate platform in the Late Barremian to Early Aptian (e.g., Bektaş et al., 2001; Yilmaz, 2006).

Fig. 2. (A) Active fault map of the Niksar basin after Emre et al. (2012). Sample locations of KO16, KO17, and KO18 are indicated. (B–D) Field photos of these sampling locations.
For each rock, the primary focus was the analysis of calcite veins. All rocks were subjected to standard optical petrography and specific regions were selected for further geochemical analysis based on textural zoning. Powdered samples all larger veins and matrix were analyzed for stable isotope compositions using bulk IRMS for \( \delta^{18}O_{\text{PDB}} \) and \( \delta^{13}C_{\text{PDB}} \) (Table 1). Samples KO16, KO17, and KO18 were analyzed using LA-ICP-MS for trace element concentrations (REE, Y and Mn) and SIMS for \( \delta^{18}O_{\text{PDB}} \) only. Ablation transects were followed across large (7-12 mm-thick) veins in these samples and across smaller fractures (200 µm to 2 mm-thick). Following SIMS analysis, offcuts were imaged in CL. Obtaining reliable fluid inclusion data from these types of rocks is challenging (e.g., Kenis et al., 2000; Bussolotto et al., 2015). Ten double-polished sections were prepared for each sample, and only one from sample KO18 had inclusions suitable for analysis.

4. Results

4.1. All samples

The rock matrix from a majority of the samples have positive \( \delta^{13}C_{\text{PDB}} \) values from +0.5 to +2.1‰ (Table 1, Fig. 4), within range of marine limestones worldwide (0 ± 5‰, Hudson, 1977; Hoefs, 1997) and those from along the NAF (Janssen et al., 1997, 2009).

Table 1
Bulk isotope ratio mass spectrometry oxygen (\( \delta^{18}O \)) and carbon (\( \delta^{13}C \)) data.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Samplea</th>
<th>( \delta^{18}O(\‰)_{\text{rel}} )</th>
<th>( \delta^{18}O(\‰)<em>{\text{rel}}[\delta^{18}O(\‰)</em>{\text{rel}}]_{\text{V}} )</th>
<th>( \delta^{13}C(\‰)_{\text{rel}} )</th>
<th>( \delta^{13}C(\‰)<em>{\text{rel}}[\delta^{13}C(\‰)</em>{\text{rel}}]_{\text{V}} )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Along the main trace of NAF</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KO14: N 40°41’34.3”; E 36°42’9.1”</td>
<td>Matrix (-5.4)</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>(-0.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vein (-6.5)</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>(-0.9)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KO16: N 40°38’23.6”; E 36°50’4.48”</td>
<td>Matrix (-10.8)</td>
<td>(-2.1)</td>
<td>(-7.30)</td>
<td>(-7.40)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vein (-8.64)</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>(-4.1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vein duplicate (-8.74)</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>(-4.1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KO17: N 40°37’54.4”; E 36°50’58.4”</td>
<td>Matrix (-7.8)</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vein (-8.1)</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vein duplicate (-8.2)</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KO18: N 40°36’26.8”; E 36°54’56.7”</td>
<td>Matrix (-7.2)</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vein (-8.8)</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Within the Erbaa-Niksar basin |
| KO10: N 40°38’22.6”; E 36°44’36.7” | Matrix \(-8.3\) | 2.1 | 1.5 | 0 |
| Vein \(-10.4\) | 1.5 | 1.5 |
| KO12: N 40°39’50.1”; E 36°41’10.7” | Matrix \(-8.3\) | 6.3 | 1.4 | 0 |
| Vein \(-14.6\) | 1.4 |

a Sample number is KO#. Vein or matrix analysis are indicated. See Fig. 1 for sample locations. In some cases, more than 1 analysis of the vein was obtained as indicated by “duplicate”.
b Values of \( \delta^{13}C \) v. PDB and \( \delta^{18}O \) v. PDB done by analyzing standard NBS19 (Coplen, 1994). All errors are ±0.1‰.
c Difference in isotopic values of the matrix - vein.

Fig. 3. Hand sample photographs of rocks analyzed in this study. Regions of vein and matrix are indicated on the images. Scale bar is 5 cm.
exception to this is sample KO16, which has a matrix with δ13C\textsubscript{PDB} of −8.3‰. This is consistent with origin as a metagene travertine (δ13C\textsubscript{PDB} between −12‰ and 0‰; Pentecost, 2005; D’Alessandro et al., 2007; El Desouky et al., 2015). Vein calcite δ13C\textsubscript{PDB} from the majority of the rocks are also within range of marine limestone values, with the exception of samples KO16 (−7.4‰, average of 2 analyses) and KO17 (−4.1‰, average of 2 analyses). All rocks have <1‰ difference between matrix and vein values of δ13C\textsubscript{PDB}, with the exception of sample KO17, which has a vein that is 4.6‰ lower in δ13C\textsubscript{PDB} compared to the rock matrix. This rock and sample KO18 are the only samples to show this trend towards lower δ13C\textsubscript{PDB} from matrix to vein.

The δ18O\textsubscript{PDB} for the matrix of the samples range from −5.4‰ (sample KO14) to −10.8‰ (sample KO16) (Table 1, Fig. 4), whereas the vein analyses range from −6.5‰ (sample KO14) to −14.6‰ (sample KO12). The matrix values are consistent with marine limestones (−2 to −10‰ δ18O\textsubscript{PDB}; Hudson, 1977). All samples trend towards lower δ18O\textsubscript{PDB} values for vein analyses compared to the matrix, with the exception of sample KO16, which has higher δ18O\textsubscript{PDB} in the vein compared to the matrix.

The magnitude difference of δ18O\textsubscript{PDB} values between matrix and vein calcite varies. Sample KO16 shows only a 0.4‰ difference, despite its large change δ13C\textsubscript{PDB}. Sample KO12 preserves δ18O\textsubscript{PDB} values that are 6.3‰ lower than the co-existing vein calcite. This and sample KO10 were collected within the Erbaa-Tasova Basin, and have distinct isotopic characteristics from those located exactly on the NAF; lower δ18O\textsubscript{PDB} values of the host rock and a larger difference in δ18O\textsubscript{PDB} values between the vein and matrix (Table 1), suggesting that the fluid regime in the basin may differ from that along the NAF.

Overall, the focus of this study is the NAF specifically, thus we selected samples KO16, KO17, and KO18 for LA-ICP-MS for trace element data and SIMS for δ18O\textsubscript{PDB}. These samples were collected from the main trace of the NAF along a portion where normal faulting forms a releasing bend of the Niksar basin (Fig. 2).

4.2. Sample KO18

The matrix limestone in sample KO18 is a pink-grey, fine-grained micrite with stylolites and fractures filled with Fe/Mn-oxide and/or clear calcite (Figs. 3F and 5). The large vein that is the focus for geochemical and fluid inclusion analysis has a sharp boundary with the rock matrix. Multiple, smaller (200 μm to 1 mm-wide) fractures intersect the vein and themselves. These fractures contain brown material (likely Fe/Mn-oxides) or clear calcite. Based on cross-cutting relationships, these fractures contributed material to the main vein. Some smaller veins show an en-échelon pattern, and stylolites intersecting the main vein are present in the matrix. The vein itself has a drusy fabric, with smaller calcite crystals near the matrix contact and large and blocky crystals in its center. This type of growth suggests the vein can be classified as mode-I.

Calcite crystals within the vein are divided into two generations based on textural observations and geochemical differences (Figs. 5 and 6). The first generation is separated into zones A and B based on differences in color, but has flat Mn zoning with similar Mn/REE contents. These zones have similar Mn and lower REE contents as the matrix. A second calcite generation termed zone C is separated from the first based on the presence of darker material that sharply increases in Y and REE, decreases in Mn. After zone C, Mn, Y, and REE contents steadily increase in zone D. Some analyses of zone C material have similar Mn as the matrix, but higher REE. Zone D contains clear, euhedral crystals with the lowest Mn and REE (Figs. 5 and 6). Overall, the vein is enriched in LREE compared to HREE across all zones.

REE patterns within the vein zones are similar in shape with different magnitudes, with all being relatively flat with negative Ce and positive Y anomalies when normalized to chondrite or shale (Fig. 7A and B). We explored numerous shale and chondrite normalization schemes (SN and CN; e.g., Haskin and Haskin, 1966; Sun and McDonough, 1989; Piper, 2001), and all show consistent patterns. The zones and the matrix have negative Eu anomalies, except for zone D. The matrix and zone C share similar HREE contents, but zone C is more enriched in LREE, suggesting an addition of these components via sources other than those derived from the matrix (Fig. 6D). Zone C appears unique compared to the other regions in that a majority of its analyses have La\textsubscript{SN}/Yb\textsubscript{SN} > 1 and Gd\textsubscript{SN}/Yb\textsubscript{SN} < 1. All zones have Y\textsubscript{CN}/Ho\textsubscript{CN} slightly > 1. Zone D has the lowest REE contents and REE\textsubscript{CN} and REE\textsubscript{SN} values.
An offcut of the region analyzed using LA-ICP-MS was used for fluid inclusion temperature estimates (Fig. 5B, Table 2). This offcut only contains generation 1, and inclusions are grouped into four regions. Temperatures obtained for fluid inclusions ($T_h$ $^\circ$C) range of 83.8 $^\circ$C to 96.1 $^\circ$C with an average of mean of 83.8 ± 7.3 $^\circ$C (±1σ, Table 2). These values are within what has been reported for calcite veins collected elsewhere along the NAF (70 $^\circ$C–170 $^\circ$C; Janssen et al., 1997, 2009). Neighboring inclusions <5 μm apart yield $T_h$ that differ by ~20 $^\circ$C (Fig. 5D). The highest $T_h$ measured (96.1 $^\circ$C) is located ~1.5 mm from the vein wall, whereas the lowest $T_h$ (72.3 $^\circ$C) is ~2 mm from the vein wall opposite the inclusion with the highest calculated $T_h$. Ice melting temperatures ($T_m$) for the inclusions were challenging to obtain due to their small size.

Four δ$_{18}$O$_{PDB}$ SIMS transects were made across an offcut of the vein in sample KO18: two were made perpendicular to opposite sides of the matrix (transects 1 and 2), one parallels the southern matrix contact (transect 3), and another termed the fracture transect, located at an intersection between the vein and a fracture that extends from the main body (Fig. 8). The majority of the vein is dark, but regions of brighter CL are found along cracks separating individual large grains, as isolated zones of brecciated alteration, along grain boundaries, and as patchy zones overprinting darker grains. The δ$_{18}$O$_{PDB}$ value for the same vein measured using SIMS average −8.8 ± 0.3‰ (n = 35 spots) with Mean Square Weighted Deviation (MSWD) of 28. Despite the similarity to the IRMS value of the vein of −8.84‰, the δ$_{18}$O$_{PDB}$ values obtained using SIMS vary along transects perpendicular to the matrix. The total variation along transect 1 is 6.5‰ and along transect 2 is 3.3‰. Transect 3 parallel to the matrix wall averages δ$_{18}$O$_{PDB}$ of −9.7 ± 0.3‰ (n = 7 spots, MSWD = 1), and a smaller fracture intersecting the vein averages −7.8 ± 0.3‰ (MSWD = 1.5). The smaller fracture results are similar to the IRMS δ$_{18}$O$_{PDB}$ obtained from the rock matrix (−7.2‰). Transect 2 and the fracture are located near each other, and yield δ$_{18}$O$_{PDB}$ SIMS values that overlap (from −8.2 ± 0.2‰...
to $-7.3 \pm 0.3\%$ along the fracture compared to from $-9.8 \pm 0.3\%$ to $-6.8 \pm 0.2\%$ for transect 2) (Fig. 8B and C).

### 4.3. Sample KO16

Sample KO16 was collected less than 1 km north of the active trace of the NAF (Fig. 2) in a region mapped as an anticline (Aktimur et al., 1990; Herece and Akay, 2003). The sample is a travertine and contains microcrystalline calcite growth bands within its matrix (Fig. 9). The sample is partially brecciated, with microcracks and fractures between and across growth bands. A single large vein within the sample was analyzed using SIMS and LA-ICPMS, and contains solid inclusions of calcite forming along growth zones. We divided three mineral generations within the vein based initially on petrographic textures that are distinct geochemically. Within the first two generations (1 and 2), we label five zones (A-E) that show different Mn, Y and REE contents (Fig. 10).

The first generation (zones A and B) is located adjacent to the matrix and exhibits larger amounts of sediment compared to the remainder of the vein. Oscillations in the amount of sediment incorporated into the crystals is seen as nesting angular forms facing point outward into the center of the vein and is consistent with crack-seal growth (Fig. 9) (Ramsay, 1980). Crystal size in this generation ranges $-0.5$ to $1$ mm in width perpendicular to growth direction and $1$ to $2$ mm in length parallel to growth direction. The boundary between zone B and C marks the end of the first mineral generation and is also identified by a sharp decrease in Mn and the beginning of a gradual decrease in Y and REE (Fig. 10).

The second mineral generation is divided into zones C, D and E that contains clearer calcite crystals (Fig. 9). Although this generation has the largest crystals in the vein ($4$ mm in length and $2$ mm in width), smaller crystals appear confined to boundaries. The dominant growth direction is from generation 1 to generation 3. No preferential c-axis alignment is seen in crossed polarized light. Finer-grained crystals are located at the end of the second mineral generation.
Fig. 7. REE patterns normalized to (A, C, E) chondrite (Sun and McDonough, 1989) and (B, D, F) shale (Haskin and Haskin, 1966; Piper, 2001). Analyses across the vein in sample KO18 is shown in panels (A and B). Panels (C and D) show analyses across the vein in sample KO16, and panels (E and F) show analyses across the vein in sample KO17.
is.

The third texturally distinct area (generation 3, Fig. 9) was not analyzed using LA-ICP-MS. This region contains smaller calcite crystals (few μm) interrupted by small areas of larger crystals that grew inward from the surrounding matrix. The area is uneven in width from the left vein wall, which is unlike sediment rich generation 1 on the opposite vein wall. Growth zones and direction are not apparent for the fine calcite within this generation.

All zones within the vein show flat REE patterns when normalized to chondrite and are HREE-enriched compared to LREE when normalized to shale (Fig. 7C and D). Regardless of normalization scheme, the matrix yields a unique pattern with La depletion and a positive Eu anomaly that differs from the vein zones. All areas analyzed show positive Y anomalies and most have negative Ce anomalies, with the exception of the matrix and zone D. Zones of generation 1 have largely similar REE patterns, although zone A does not have a negative Eu anomaly. Most zones have higher amounts of REESN in general than the matrix, with the exception of zones D and E. The majority of LA-ICP-MS analyses of the vein have YCN/HOCN > 1, with analyses following a loop of increasing values from generation 1 to 2. As the transect moves from the matrix to zone E, La/Sr/YCN and Gd/Sr/YDN follow a counter-clockwise loop that increases then decreases in these values.

Nineteen SIMS spots were placed across a polished offcut of the vein analyzed by LA-ICP-MS within generations 1 and 2 (Fig. 11). The CL image of the sample shows that the matrix and generation 1 have brighter luminescence than the other portions of the vein, likely related to Mn contents. The average SIMS δ^{18}O_DPB of the vein is −9.7 ± 0.3‰ (±2σ, MSWD = 45), which lies between the IRMS δ^{18}O_DPB Values of the vein (−8.69‰) and matrix (−10.9‰; Table 1). The total variation of SIMS δ^{18}O_DPB ranges from −16.7 ± 0.6‰ to −7.4 ± 0.3‰, depending on location. The low value is problematic as analyses adjacent to this spot differ significantly. Discounting this analysis, δ^{18}O_DPB increases from vein wall in generation 1 towards the vein center in generation 2. The increase is gradual in δ^{18}O_DPB from −13.6 ± 0.3‰ towards −10.2 ± 0.2‰ in zone A and plateaus at −8.8 ± 0.4‰ in zone B and −8.5 ± 0.3‰ in generation 2, similar to the δ^{18}O_DPB results from the vein obtained using IRMS.

4.4. Sample KO17

Sample KO17 was taken directly from the principal strand of the NAFF (Figs. 2 and 3E). The limestone is a brown to yellowish fine grained micrite, massively bedded with no evident allochons. Small fractures (10–100 μm) filled with calcite crystals are abundant. These fractures cross-cut each other and a large vein in the center of the sample (Fig. 12). The large calcite vein in the center of sample KO17 shows differences in crystal size and sediment incorporation. Calcite crystals grew inward from the matrix on each side of the vein, increasing in size substantially from 10 μm to >1 mm as distance increases.

The calcite vein in sample KO17 is divided into three textural associations labeled as generations (Figs. 12 and 13). The first contains calcite crystals adjacent to a vein wall with distinct zoning and a high density of very fine sediment trapped in the crystal structure. This generation is also labeled as zone A and is not present at some locations within the larger vein. Crystals in this group are elongated compared to others, with lengths commonly >1 mm, and widths of ~0.5 mm. The second generation in the center of the vein has larger crystals (>1 mm wide to 2 mm long) that are clearer and less elongated than those seen in the first generation. This generation is subdivided into three zones (B, C, and D). Larger, clear calcite crystals in zone B have euhedral boundaries and are coated by fine grained carbonate cement (zone C). Voids border zone C and comprise the center of this vein. A similar zone of large, clear euhedral calcite (zone D) also coated in carbonate cement is located on the other side of the central void. Generation 3 (zone E) is

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* Data from the Republic of Turkey Prime Ministry Disaster and Emergency Management Authority database (http://deprem.gov.tr/). See Fig. 1 for epicenters of these earthquakes.
Fig. 8. (A) Composite of CL images of sample KO18. The region is an offcut of the thin section in Fig. 5A. Regions where SIMS $\delta^{18}$O$_{\text{PDB}}$ analyses were obtained and some $\delta^{18}$O$_{\text{PDB}}$ ($\pm 2\sigma$) are identified. See Supplementary data for analytical information. Areas of brighter CL are indicated. These are typically along microcracks and in textures indicative of post-crystallization alteration (patchy textures and along grain boundaries). SIMS $\delta^{18}$O$_{\text{PDB}}$ values across (B) generation 1, transects 1 and 2, and (C) generation 1, transect 3 and across the fracture in sample KO18. These values have been translated to temperature (°C) assuming isotopic equilibrium with Cretaceous brines ($\delta^{18}$O$_{\text{SMOW-fuid}} = +2.0\%$) [Morad et al., 2010] using calibration of Hays and Grossman (1991). IRMS $\delta^{18}$O$_{\text{PDB}}$ value is indicated of the vein (horizontal line) and matrix (star). Region of fluid inclusion temperatures is shaded.
located adjacent to the large calcite crystals, on the opposite vein wall from generation 1. This region contains the smallest calcite crystals within the vein (~10 μm wide) in alternating dark bands <1 mm in width. Each band is bounded by a dark area of fine carbonate material. Like generation 1, it is not always present within the vein.

The textural zones are also chemically distinct, with higher Mn⁺Y⁺REE contents seen in zone C and the matrix (Fig. 13A and B). We found that LA-ICP-MS analyses of the matrix and small fractures contain similar or higher Mn and REE contents compared to the vein. The zones located nearest the matrix (A and E) overlap in composition and have lower amounts of Mn than the matrix. Zones B and D, located on either side of the center zone C, also have similar REE and Mn contents (Fig. 13C and D). Zone C partially overlaps with matrix in Mn and REE contents. Oscillations in the amount of Mn relates to the presence of darker material within the calcite veins. Zones A and C and part of zones B and E have more LREE, whereas the other regions show roughly similar LREE and HREE contents (Fig. 13B).

The REE patterns in samples KO17 differ depending on zone analyzed. Most are LREE enriched compared to chondrite, or are flat or HREE-enriched if normalized to shale (Fig. 7E and F). Regardless of normalization scheme, all zones have REE patterns with negative Ce anomalies and positive Y anomalies. Only zone B has a negative Eu anomaly. The matrix, smaller fractures, and zone C are largely similar, as are patterns for zones B and D and zones A and E. When compared to the matrix, the majority of the veins have vein/REE_SN values of <1, with the exception of minor increases in LREE_SN in zone C and HREE_SN in the fracture analyses. Most analyses have Y_CN/Ho_CN > 1, but define different trends depending on zone analyzed. Zone D is unique in that it displays superchondritic values of Y_CN/Ho_CN (>40). Most zones have La_SN/Yb_SN > 1, with the exception of central zone C and some matrix analyses. Most zones have Gd_SN/Yb_SN < 1, with the exception of some analyses of the smaller fractures, zone C, and the matrix.

As with the other samples, the matrix has brighter CL than the majority of the vein calcite (Fig. 14) due to higher Mn and REE concentrations. CL shows that pieces of the matrix with long axis parallel to the vein wall are included within the vein in generation 3. Vein calcite exhibits a nearly uniform lack of luminescence throughout all mineral generations, with the exception of small regions in zone C on either side of the central void. The shape of the bands suggest that they follow a growth zone or euhedral boundary in the vein calcite, and is continuous through all imaged areas on either side of the central void. This is due to the presence of sediments that coat the crystals bordering the void. The brightest areas in the center of the vein are small calcite grains that lie within the carbonate sediment, closest to the center of the vein.

Multiple SIMS spots were placed on the large central vein and five parallel fractures (Figs. 14 and 15). Overall, two SIMS transects are located across the vein’s generation 2 and three transects were made across generation 3. The sample did not contain generation 1, which varies in thickness. In addition to the vein analyses, spot analyses were obtained from several smaller fractures that parallel the larger central vein. The average δ¹⁸O_PDB of all SIMS results across the larger calcite vein (58 spots) in sample KO17 is −8.7 ± 0.6‰ with a MSWD of 5, similar to the average IRMS vein value of −8.11‰. However, the δ¹⁸O_PDB variation ranges from −6.8 ± 0.7‰ (zone C in generation 2) to −11.0 ± 0.4‰ (zone D in generation 2). The matrix δ¹⁸O_PDB obtained using IRMS is −7.8‰. SIMS values for δ¹⁸O_PDB increase with distance from matrix along transect 2 across generation 2 (n = 3 spots), and along transect 1 across generation 3 (n = 7 spots). Smaller fractures show a larger total δ¹⁸O_PDB variation from −15.9 ± 0.4‰ to −4.8 ± 0.5‰. We
observe a 6‰ increase in \( \delta^{18}O \) along one fracture transect in the top portion of the sample (Fig. 15C). Thinner and thicker vein cross each other in the lower portion of the sample; the thicker fractures show up to 4‰ lower \( \delta^{18}O \) values than the thinner fracture. Their intersection point yields a value in range of results from the thicker vein.

5. Discussion

5.1. Mode of vein formation

Deciphering the origin of the calcite veins is facilitated by geochemical and isotopic data. Although six fractured limestone assemblages were collected, we focused on three particular rocks that have characteristics that may be representative of the range of textures and tectonic histories of the limestone assemblages in the field area. Sample KO16, KO17, and KO18 were collected directly from exposures of the NAF (Figs. 1 and 2) and all show crystallization in open fracture space (mode-I) with crack-seal growth as material from the matrix is incorporated at vein edges (Ramsay, 1980) (Figs. 5, 9, and 12). All rocks have smaller fractures adjacent to the larger calcite veins. The presence of stylolites in sample KO18 suggest local dissolution and diffusional transport of material from the matrix to veins. Petrographic and CL textures in samples KO16 and KO18 also imply that the vein calcite, once formed, was not further significantly deformed or altered, and thus are indicators of the conditions and compositions of fluids facilitating mineralization (Figs. 8 and 12). Sample KO17 shows evidence in CL for post-crystallization alteration as brighter patches and regions of breccia are present (Fig. 14). The majority of the sample is dark in CL with alteration localized to areas near the matrix. A relative chronology for all larger veins analyzed in this study is inferred, with older calcite at the vein edge and younger calcite in the center. The distance axis along transects perpendicular to vein walls in SIMS...
Fig. 11. (A) CL image of sample KO16. The region is an offcut of the thin section in Fig. 9. The matrix calcite and generations (gen) 1 (zones A and B only), 2, and 3 are labeled. Regions where SIMS $\delta^{18}$O analyses were taken are identified by spot number. The right end of the image has been contrast enhanced as this portion of the vein shows little brightness. See Supplementary data for analytical information. (B) SIMS $\delta^{18}$O analyses across the vein in sample KO16. (C) Distance vs. temperature ($^\circ$C) across the KO16 vein assuming isotopic equilibrium with Cretaceous brines ($\delta^{18}$OSMOW-fluid = $+2\%$) and seawater ($\delta^{18}$OSMOW-fluid = $-1.2\%$) (after Zeebe, 2001; Morad et al., 2010) using calibration of Hays and Grossman (1991). IRMS $\delta^{18}$O value is indicated of the vein (horizontal line) and matrix (star).
δ^{18}O_{PDB} and LA-ICP-MS REE, Mn, and Y can be thus roughly interpreted as time.

5.2. Conditions of vein formation

5.2.1. P-T conditions of vein formation

The average Th of all inclusions in sample KO18 is 83.8 ± 7.3 °C (±1σ, average of mean). Primary inclusion Th serves as a minimum entrapment condition for fluid inclusions, which is usually higher due to a pressure correction (Goldstein and Reynolds, 1994). To address this, temperatures were corrected using the isochore approach combining Th and low salinity estimates (Table 2) (Steele-MacInnis et al., 2012). Temperatures increase by 6–9 °C assuming hydrostatic conditions (50 °C/100bar) and by 17–24 °C assuming lithostatic conditions (50 °C/226bar). Formation pressures were also estimated through implementation of these thermobarometric gradients, and range from 117bar to 454bar (Table 1). Although uncertainty in the assumptions required to calculate these values exist, vapor bubbles are small (~1–5% of the inclusion volume, Fig. 5), thus it is unlikely that these inclusions formed at high pressure.

Neighboring inclusions <5 μm apart yield Th that differ by ~20° and ~44bar (Table 2, Fig. 5). The highest observed Th may be affected by the tendency of calcite to leak fluid or stretch during deformation, resulting in an unrepresentative vapor to fluid ratio in the inclusion and elevating calculated Th above the actual value (e.g., Goldstein and Reynolds, 1994). Fluid inclusions in calcite are particularly susceptible to thermal stress or other changes post-trapping (Bourdet and Pironon, 2008). Due to the possibility of overestimating Th from stretched or leaked inclusions, temperature estimates at the lower part of this range are preferred (Bodnar, 2003).

We rely on the lowest temperature fluid inclusion temperatures (Thyd) for sample KO18 in interpreting the δ^{18}O_{PDB} results for all samples collected in this study (78.5 °C, Table 2). The result is within what has reported for calcite veins collected from the NAF elsewhere (70 °C–170 °C; Janssen et al., 2009), which lends confidence that the approach is appropriate.

The present-day geothermal gradient in north central Turkey estimated by a Curie-point depth of ~22 km is 26 °C/km (Ates et al., 2005; Aydin et al., 2005). Assuming a surface temperature of ~20 °C and a 78.5 °C formation temperature, this would give a depth of ~2.2 km for the formation of the KO18 calcite vein. The Cretaceous geotherm is unknown, but these constraints appear reasonable given that open-mode fractures can occur up to these depths in trans-tensional and extensional systems (Sibson, 1996). The open-mode nature of the fractures indicated by calcite textures also implies that they formed at depths shallow enough to allow for fluid pressures to sustain open voids. Using methods described in Steele-MacInnis et al. (2012), pressures of 117–432 bar (Table 1) are estimated when invoking assumed thermobaric gradients of either an open or closed system. Due to the small size of the vapor...
Fig. 13. LA-ICP-MS compositional transects across the vein in sample KO17 (Fig. 12) in (A) Mn and Y and (B) LREE and HREE. REE are La, Ce, Pr, Nd, Sm, Eu, Gd (LREE), Dy, Ho, Er, Yb, and Lu (HREE). Plots of Mn (ppm) vs. REE total (ppm) for KO17 analyses (C) of generations 1, 3, fractures, and the matrix, and (D) of generation 2 only. Some regions are shaded. (E) REE patterns of vein/matrix REE$_{SN}$. Area where vein/matrix REE$_{SN}$ is $\leq 1$ is suggested to be the result of interaction with the matrix. Region where REE$_{SN} > 1$ suggests addition to the vein by sources external to the matrix.
bubbles, these inclusions likely did not form at higher pressure. In any case, the ~2.2 km depth is consistent with the range of baric estimates for the inclusions.

5.2.2. Fluid-rock interaction: stable isotopes

The IRMS $\delta^{13}C_{PDB}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{PDB}$ values of powdered samples are within the large range of what has been previously reported for calcite veins in rocks displaced by the NAF (Fig. 4) (Janssen et al., 1997, 2009) and is consistent with diagenetic calcite (e.g., Öztürk et al., 2002). The similarity of the matrix and vein in $\delta^{18}O_{PDB}$ obtained using IRMS (Table 1) suggest the fluid in which the vein precipitated was buffered by surrounding rock (Gray et al., 1991; Marquer and Burkhard, 1992; Muchez et al., 1995). Matrix-vein pairs show differences in $\delta^{18}O_{PDB}$ that range from 0.4 to 2.3‰ and in $\delta^{13}C_{PDB}$ from −0.9 to 4.6‰, suggesting most are consistent with a closed fluid system. Most samples have matrix IRMS $\delta^{18}O_{PDB}$ values that are greater than vein, with the exception of travertine sample KO16 where the matrix is 2.1‰ lower than the vein.

SIMS $\delta^{18}O_{PDB}$ data can be used to explore the nature of matrix buffering as some vein SIMS analyses differ significantly from the matrix IRMS values (Figs. 8, 11 and 15). For example, in sample KO16, the rock matrix IRMS $\delta^{18}O_{PDB}$ is −10.8‰, yet SIMS vein analyses fluctuate between from $-7.4 \pm 0.1%$ to $-13.6 \pm 0.1%$, with this lowest value is adjacent to the matrix (Fig. 11). In sample KO17,
the matrix IRMS δ\textsuperscript{18}O\textsubscript{PDB} is −7.8‰, and SIMS δ\textsuperscript{18}O\textsubscript{PDB} of veins within the sample range from −15.9‰ to −4.8‰ (Fig. 15). In sample KO18, the rock matrix IRMS δ\textsuperscript{18}O\textsubscript{PDB} value is −7.2‰ and a smaller fracture averages −7.8 ± 0.3‰ (Fig. 8). However, analyses across the thicker vein in this sample decrease from −8.4 ± 0.1‰ to −11.9 ± 0.8‰ within 200 μm of the wall rock (Fig. 8). These observations suggest that the extent of matrix/fluid buffering may be overestimated if only the IRMS δ\textsuperscript{18}O\textsubscript{PDB} data from matrix/vein pairs are considered. Overall, at the high spatial resolution afforded by the SIMS analyses, we advocate the veins record limited rock buffering.

The δ\textsuperscript{18}O\textsubscript{PDB} data from sample KO18 can be translated to temperatures assuming different values of interacting fluids (e.g., O’Neil et al., 1969; Friedman et al., 1977; Hays and Grossman, 1991; Morad et al., 2010; Vincent et al., 2007). Plotting these values on a fractionation diagram using δ\textsuperscript{18}O\textsubscript{PDB} of calcite and various δ\textsuperscript{18}O\textsubscript{SMOW} of possible parent fluids (Fig. 16) (e.g., Vincent et al., 2007) indicates that δ\textsuperscript{18}O\textsubscript{SMOW-liquid} > +1‰ is required to reproduce the fluid inclusion temperatures found in each sample. Although Sea of Marmara bottom waters have δ\textsuperscript{18}O\textsubscript{SMOW-liquid} of +1.58‰ (Rank et al., 1999; Crémieux et al., 2012), present-day values of water from nearby NAF geothermal fields (Gözlek site, −12.8 ± 0.6‰ to −10.0 ± 0.5‰; Suer et al., 2008) and present-day δ\textsuperscript{18}O\textsubscript{SMOW} of meteoric water and groundwater in the sampling region (−9.5‰ to −13‰, Suer et al., 2008; Schemmel et al., 2013) are far lower. The value of δ\textsuperscript{18}O\textsubscript{SMOW-liquid} of >+1‰ is more consistent with Cretaceous brines (+2‰, Morad et al., 2010; Zeebe, 2001), and provides a best fit, making a number of assumptions. These include: sample KO18 fluid inclusions can be applied to all samples and the fluids are present in excess and retain original isotopic compositions. Limited buffering is suggested by the high-resolution gradients in SIMS δ\textsuperscript{18}O\textsubscript{PDB} data across the calcite veins. Note that the δ\textsuperscript{18}O\textsubscript{SMOW} estimates for source water are not high enough to represent pure metamorphic or mantle origin, which is generally > +5‰ (Rollinson, 2014). Using these values in connection with the δ\textsuperscript{18}O\textsubscript{PDB} calcite veins leads to unrealistic thermal conditions for mineralization.

Measurements of fine-scale variations in δ\textsuperscript{18}O\textsubscript{PDB} across the veins show differences between individual spots <50 μm apart are
Cretaceous carbonates and brines also indicated (after Morad et al., 2010; Grossman, 2007). Curves constructed with the equation of $10^\frac{a}{T}$ + $b$ where $T_{\text{calcite-water}}$ is the fractionation coefficient and $T$ is the temperature in K (O’Neil et al., 1969). Regions of $\delta^{18}O_{\text{OPDB}}$ of calcite veins obtained using IRMS are shaded. Also plotted is the range of fluid inclusion temperatures (78.5 °C–105.2 °C) and $\delta^{18}O_{\text{OPDB}}$ of present-NAF geothermal waters (Gözlek site, $\delta^{18}O_{\text{SMOW-fluid}}$ of $\approx -12.8 \pm 0.6%$ to $-10.0 \pm 0.5%$; Suer et al., 2008). Lines of $\delta^{18}O_{\text{SMOW-fluid}}$ of Cretaceous carbonates and brines also indicated (after Morad et al., 2010; Grossman, 2012).

![Fractionation diagram between $\delta^{18}O_{\text{OPDB}}$ of calcite veins, the $\delta^{18}O_{\text{SMOW-fluid}}$ of its parent solutions, and its temperatures of precipitation (°C) after Vincent et al., 2007. Curves constructed with the equation of $10^\frac{a}{T}$ + $b$ where $T_{\text{calcite-water}}$ is the fractionation coefficient and $T$ is the temperature in K (O’Neil et al., 1969). Regions of $\delta^{18}O_{\text{OPDB}}$ of calcite veins obtained using IRMS are shaded. Also plotted is the range of fluid inclusion temperatures (78.5 °C–105.2 °C) and $\delta^{18}O_{\text{OPDB}}$ of present-NAF geothermal waters (Gözlek site, $\delta^{18}O_{\text{SMOW-fluid}}$ of $\approx -12.8 \pm 0.6%$ to $-10.0 \pm 0.5%$; Suer et al., 2008). Lines of $\delta^{18}O_{\text{SMOW-fluid}}$ of Cretaceous carbonates and brines also indicated (after Morad et al., 2010; Grossman, 2012).](Image)

5.2.2. Source of elements

The trace elements patterns of vein calcite in limestone assemblages has been suggested to reflect primarily the composition of the fluid in which they are in equilibrium (Barker and Cox, 2011; Bons et al., 2012). The majority of the REE + Y patterns for sampled segments of matrix and calcite veins exhibit negative Ce anomalies and positive Y anomalies (Fig. 7). Negative anomalies for Ce occur due to its tetravalent state (e.g., Smedley, 1991; Bau and Duslki, 1995; Bao et al., 2008; Nuriel et al., 2012a,b). This form of Ce$^{4+}$ is highly insoluble in oxidizing conditions, correlating to low concentrations in fluids with neutral to high pH. A negative Ce anomaly is common in seawater as a result of oxidative absorption of Ce$^{4+}$ onto Fe/Mn-oxihydroxides. Carbonates formed from seawater, such as the limestones in this study, are predicted to inherit negative Ce anomalies from their waters of formation (Nuriel et al., 2012a,b).

The matrix in sample KO16 is the exception in that it does not show a Ce anomaly, but instead is the only region analyzed to have a positive Eu anomaly. Eu can become valent under reducing conditions and thus become mobile in groundwater from which the calcite precipitated (Lee et al., 2003; Lavrushin et al., 2006). The positive Eu anomaly in this rock is consistent with textural observations that the rock is a traverline. Other sources for the Eu anomaly could be enrichment in Eu via preferential dissolution of plagioclase, clay minerals, or chlorite (Lee et al., 2003).

Similar to Ce, Y can be fractionated from Ho by redox conditions created in the presence of Fe/Mn-oxihydroxides (e.g. Bau and Duslki, 1995; Bau et al., 1997, 2014). Unlike Ce, this process results in a positive anomaly due to the higher reactivity of Ho. This process can result in $Y_{\text{CN}}/Ho_{\text{CN}} > 28$ (value of bulk earth composition derived from chondritic meteorite; e.g., Tanaka et al., 2008). We anticipate that transsects across vein calcite should increase in Ce and Y anomalies and decrease in REE with increasing distance from the matrix. This trend should occur due to interaction with the rock during crystallization of the vein calcite (e.g., Pili et al., 2002). Sample KO16 decreases in REE across the vein and increases in the magnitude of the Y anomaly (Fig. 7C and D, Fig. 10D). However, trends in Ce are interrupted when the transect reaches zone D. This zone fails to show a Ce anomaly, which suggests fluids that worked to develop this portion of the vein had a composition that differs from the majority of the vein. Samples KO17 and KO18 likewise decrease in REE from the matrix towards zone C and show expected trends in Y and Ce anomalies (Fig. 7). However, the trend is interrupted in zone C in both rocks. This zone contains REE contents and chondrite- and shale-normalized enrichments greater than that of the matrix, likely related to the presence of Fe/Mn-oxides. The observed REE trends may be the result of receiving elements derived from the matrix (Figs. 6D and 13E).

The process of vein formation can be further informed by CL, which activates primarily due to the presence of REE and Mn in carbonates (Richter et al., 2003). Each zone analyzed in the calcite veins define distinct Mn/REE ratios and trends (Figs. 6, 10 and 13). In sample KO16, zones A and B increase in REE with similar Mn contents as the matrix, but zones C, D, and E decrease in REE and Mn. Sample KO18 shows an opposite trend with increasing distance from the matrix, and sample KO17 matrix and smaller fractures have
simlar Mn/REE.

6. Tectonic implications

Although collected adjacent to the NAF system, larger calcite veins analyzed in this study suggest crystallization during process unrelated to movement along the structure. The formations from which the rocks were collected are known to have experienced a multistage tectonic history subsequent to their formation in the Liassic to mid-Cretaceous (Bektaş et al., 2001; Hércules and Akay, 2003; Yilmaz, 2006; Cengiz Cinku, 2011). The unit records extensional, rift-related events during the Late Barremian to Early Aptian (e.g., Bektas¸ et al., 2001) and has been largely exposed during Pliocene-recent strike-slip tectonics (Barka et al., 2000).

The fluid inclusion portion of this study is consistent with the work of others that suggest the formation fluids of larger calcite veins experienced conditions of 83.8 ± 7.3 °C (Tth) to 91.4 ± 8.2 °C (Thydr). The Thydr conditions are used to identify possible δ18OSMOW–fluid compositions that worked to develop the δ18Ofluid values of the veins. The geochemical evidence suggests vein formation during diagenesis with a Cretaceous fluid source, as opposed to present-day geothermal or meteoric fluids. The presence of smaller calcite fracture fill with significantly different δ18Ofluid values than the larger veins in sample KO17 (Fig. 15) indicates the potential for smaller veins to experience matrix-vein buffering. All fractures yield values that yield unrealistic temperatures when paired with δ18OSMOW of present-day meteoric and hydrothermal fluids.

The formation of the calcite veins analyzed in this study at depths of ~2.2 km is reasonable (e.g., Sample, 2010; Holdsworth et al., 2011; Ferrill et al., 2014) as are the thermal gradients that the veins record during crystallization. According to the Republic of Turkey Prime Ministry Disaster and Emergency Management Authority database, most of the earthquakes that occurred in the region from 1900–2017 in the field area (Fig. 1) have epicenters at 1–40 km depth, with most occurring >10 km. We find that the fractured limestones we collected along the Niskar basin provide no evidence of a deep-seated crustal fluid source, however, this may be an outcome of the sampling strategy and the limited number of analyses. Seismic pumping, where episodic injections of hot fluids with dissolved gases and calcite occur upwards from deeper structural levels and reprecipitate calcite in permeable zones due to earthquake motion (e.g., Wood and Boles, 1991), is not observed in the samples we collected. The hydraulic regime of the fault system is strongly influenced by a number of factors, including the composition of the fluid, pCO2, and the nature of the fracture and fault network (e.g., Frima et al., 2005). The Marmara Main Fault (Fig. 1), the splay of the NAF within the Sea of Marmara, displays ample evidence exists for deep-seated crustal fluids venting through the NAF (Fig. 1) (e.g., Burnard et al., 2012; Tryon et al., 2012). Thus, this work indicates heterogeneity fluid motion within the NAF along strike. Fluids play a role in influencing deeper parts of the NAF, but we find evidence for these deeper fluids in calcite veins analyzed in this portion of the structure. The approach described in this paper is of value in terms of seeking to understand the role and nature of the structural permeability of this portion of the NAF, or other fault systems that displace carbonate assemblages.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data related to this article can be found at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jsg.2017.06.004.

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