Magnetic fabrics of diamagnetic rocks and the strain field associated with the Dead Sea Fault, northern Israel

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A B S T R A C T

In order to exploit the potential of AMS axes ($k_1$, $k_2$, $k_3$) and magnitudes as a tool to estimate the strain field around major faults, the AMS of calcite-bearing diamagnetic rocks that crop out next to the Dead Sea Fault (transform) (DSF) were measured. The calcite-bearing Bar Kokhba limestone contains magnetic fabrics due mainly to the diamagnetic phase, as indicated by the low iron content (<130 ppm), and strong negative susceptibilities of all the AMS principal axes. The magnetic fabrics are solely controlled by the alignment of c-axes of almost pure calcite crystals and help to assess the strain fields prevailing post-deposition and during the tectonic evolution of the DSF. Based on the AMS measurements of 146 diamagnetic samples as well as 65 paramagnetic samples, three groups of minimum $k_3$ AMS axes are defined: (1) ~NNE-plunging axis; (2) ~NW–SE axis; and (3) ~E–W axis. The latter two groups of $k_3$ axes are aligned sub-parallel to Neogene to Pleistocene finite-strain axes inferred from meso-scale structures (i.e., folds, faults and veins) next to the DSF. This indicates that $k_3$ axes of diamagnetic rocks can be excellent proxies for strain field directions around major faults. Differences in the degree of anisotropy $P$ (up to ~2%) and in susceptibility difference $\Delta k$ (up to ~0.2) of the diamagnetic rocks are related to differences in strain magnitudes. Based on the proximity of the studied outcrops to the fault traces, the values of these variables reflect the stored inelastic strain within the calcite matrix due to repeated faulting activity.

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1. Introduction

The magnetic susceptibility of rocks results from the combined contribution of ferromagnetic, paramagnetic, and diamagnetic sub-fabrics/components. Minerals that are the source of the three sub-fabrics are commonly magnetically anisotropic, depending on their preferred crystallographic orientation or grain shape. This gives rise to the Anisotropy of Magnetic Susceptibility (AMS) of rocks, which provides a petrofabric tool by averaging out the orientation-distribution of all minerals and ferromagnetic, paramagnetic, and diamagnetic sub-fabrics in a rock specimen (Raposo et al., 2006; Borradaile and Jackson, 2010). AMS has been used as an indicator of flow directions in sediments (Tarling and Hrouda, 1993; Liu et al., 2001), injection structures (Levi et al., 2006a,b), and magmas (Baer, 1995; Abelson et al., 2001); and has also been correlated with strain in rocks (Borradaile, 1991; Parés et al., 1999; Parés and Van der Pluijm, 2003). In order to better understand the relation between AMS and rock deformation, it is necessary to isolate the AMS contributions of certain minerals and sub-fabrics from one another (e.g., Evans et al., 2003; Almqvist et al., 2009, 2010). Calcite-bearing rocks are abundant in many sedimentary environments and tectonic settings, but their AMS has rarely been examined due to their weak diamagnetic susceptibility (de Wall et al., 2000). With the advance in laboratory instruments and techniques, the AMS of calcite and monomineralitic calcite-bearing rocks can accurately and reproducibly be measured (Schmidt et al., 2006). We extended the use of diamagnetic AMS as a petrofabric tool and strain indicator in calcite-bearing rocks, isolating the AMS axes and magnitudes in rocks that crop out next to the plate-boundary Dead Sea Fault (transform) in northern Israel. The Dead Sea Fault (DSF) accommodates the relative left-lateral motion between the Arabian plate and Sinai subplate. In the study area it branches into at least five major faults, forming highly deformed structural blocks. In these blocks, the transpression along the DSF has been partitioned into strike-slip and contractional domains since the Pleistocene (Weinberger et al., 2009). Revealing the spatial and temporal variations of the strain field and its partitioning within the deformed blocks provides insight into the tectonic evolution of plate boundaries. We compared the orientations of
AMS and finite-strain axes obtained from meso-scale structures, and discuss the structural significance of the AMS magnitudes.

2. AMS, rock deformation, and susceptibility of calcite

Magnetic susceptibility indicates the capacity of material to be magnetized in an applied magnetic field. In anisotropic material the magnetic susceptibility ($k$) relates the applied magnetic field ($H$) to an induced magnetization ($M$) in a sample by $M_{ij} = k_{ij}H_j$. The shape of the AMS is described by the three principal values $k_{\text{max}}(k_1)$, $k_{\text{int}}(k_2)$, and $k_{\text{min}}(k_3)$, which correspond to the maximum, intermediate and minimum magnetic susceptibility magnitudes, respectively (Borradaile and Jackson, 2004). There is a wide variety of parameters that have been used to describe the axial magnitude relationships of the susceptibility ellipsoid. The simplest expressions are the mean susceptibility, $k_m = (k_1 + k_2 + k_3)/3$, the degree of AMS, $P = k_1/k_3$, the ‘corrected anisotropy degree’, $P_0$ (for more details see Jelinek, 1981), the susceptibility difference ($\Delta k = k_1 - k_3$) (Jelinek, 1981), the magnetic lineation, $L = k_1/k_2$, the magnetic foliation, $F = k_2/k_3$, and the degree of ellipsoid shape, $T = 2[\ln k_2 - \ln k_3]/[\ln k_1 - \ln k_3] - 1$, measuring the range from prolate ($T < 0$) through sphere ($T = 0$) to oblate ($T > 0$) ellipsoids (Jelinek, 1981).

Fig. 1. Geological map of the Dead Sea Fault (DSF) in the study area. Names of faults are marked. Circles mark the sampling sites. The inset shows the plate tectonic configuration resulting in left-lateral motion across the DSF (after Sneh and Weinberger, 2003b). C – Cretaceous; PE – Paleocene–Eocene; E – Eocene; N – Neogene; Pβ – Pliocene basalts; Qβ – Quaternary basalts; Al – Alluvium.
AMS is a second-rank tensor, leading to attempts of correlating AMS and strain (e.g., Kligerfield et al., 1982; Borradaile, 1987, 1991; Hrouda, 1993; Hirt et al., 2000). In most deformed environments, the directions of the AMS axes show a fair to good correlation with the directions of the principal strain axes (e.g., Borradaile, 1987, 1988, 1991; Tarling and Hrouda, 1993; Borradaile and Henry, 1997; Parés et al., 1999; Latta and Anastasio, 2007; Soto et al., 2007; Mamtani and Sengupta, 2008; Hrouda et al., 2009; Burmeister et al., 2009). When tectonic foliation is present, the principal AMS axes parallel the flattening plane of the finite-strain ellipsoid, with the minimum axes perpendicular to foliation and the maximum AMS axes typically parallel to the tectonic extension direction or to the intersection of bedding and cleavage (Parés and Van der Pluijm, 2003 and references therein).

Success has been limited and no reliable correlation between the magnitudes of the AMS axes and those of strain magnitudes has been established (e.g., Parés and Van der Pluijm, 2004; Latta and Anastasio, 2007; Borradaile and Jackson, in press; Tripathy et al., 2009). This is mainly because the magnitudes of the AMS axes are more complexly related to finite strain. One major cause for the unsuccessful attempt to correlate magnitudes of the AMS axes and magnitudes of strain axes is that the former are mainly governed by the percentage of the Fe and Mn-minerals bearing in the rock (Borradaile and Henry, 1997; Schmidt et al., 2006). Furthermore, strongly aligned minerals that are produced by stress-controlled crystallization have a maximum AMS that cannot increase with strain. Valid correlations between AMS and strain generally require that maximum shortening be greater than 30%, so that primary AMS fabrics are obliterated. In most cases when the mean susceptibility, $k_m$, and the corrected anisotropy degree, $P$, were increased, the increases of these AMS parameters were attributed to the increases in Fe and Mn mineral contents and not to the magnitude of strain.

A pure calcite crystal is magnetically anisotropic with susceptibility values of $k_3 = -13.2 \times 10^{-6}$ (SI) along the c-axis, $k_1 = -12.09 \times 10^{-6}$ (SI) along the ab plane, $k_m = -12.47 \times 10^{-6}$ (SI) and is considered to be oblate (after Schmidt et al., 2006). The redistribution of calcite c-axes is associated with applied stress or incremental strain in experiments (Casey et al., 1978); the c-axes are aligned parallel to the compression direction. The AMS of the diamagnetic fraction in calcite-bearing rocks should be lower than the anisotropy of single crystals or deformed calcite-bearing rocks because perfect alignments are rare, especially in sedimentary rocks (Hrouda, 2004 and references therein). Calcite twinning and other crystal-plastic deformations (e.g., Evans and Elmore, 2006) have long been used in petrofabric studies as sensitive indicators of incremental strain axes and are essentially parallel to the causative paleo-stress axes (Borradaile and Hamilton, 2004; Hamilton et al., 2004 and references therein). Hence calcite is considered one of the most reliable stress (strain)-sensitive petrofabric indicators (Borradaile and Jackson, 2004).

During the sedimentation process some of the c-axes can be parallel to the lithostatic pressure, depending on the pressure magnitude (Hrouda, 2004). In such a case, the $k_1$ and $k_2$ axes would be parallel to the bedding plane and the $k_3$ axes would group vertically to the bedding plane and parallel to the minimum strain axis ($Z$). During shortening or elongation (extension) regimes the AMS axes are generally parallel to the principal strain directions ($X \geq Y \geq Z$), where $X$ is the maximum elongation, $Y$ is the intermediate strain axis and $Z$ is the maximum shortening. Under these conditions, generally $k_1||X, k_2||Y, k_3||Z$, and the AMS fabric is ‘normal’ ($k_3||c$-axes) (e.g., Borradaile and Jackson, 2010).

Calcite becomes less diamagnetic or even paramagnetic with the addition of Fe$^{2+}$ and Mn$^{2+}$ ions (Rochette, 1988; Rochette et al., 1992; Schmidt et al., 2006; Schmidt et al., 2007; Almqvist et al., 2009; Borradaile and Jackson, 2010). In cases where the substitution of Fe$^{2+}$ and Mn$^{2+}$ for Ma$^{2+}$ is more than 400 ppm (iron-rich calcite) (Schmidt et al., 2006), an ‘inverse’ ($k_1||c$-axes) AMS fabric is produced (Rochette, 1988; Ihmlé et al., 1989) and represented by a prolate AMS ellipsoid (Schmidt et al., 2006).

3. Tectonic and geological setting

Between the Gulf of Elat (Aqaba) and southern Lebanon, the major strands of the DSF step left along a north—south axis. Due to the left-lateral motion along these strands, they are associated with the formation of several basins, one of which is the Hula basin (Fig. 1). Farther north in Lebanon, the Yammunneh master fault veers north-northeastward, corresponding to a restraining geometry that uplifted the Lebanon and Anti-Lebanon mountains (Beydoun, 1977; Daeron et al., 2004). The transition of the DSF from the Hula basin to the Lebanese restraining bend is complex, with deformation distributed across a zone of several faults and deformed structural blocks (Picard, 1952; Glikson, 1966). The Qiryat Shemona fault is considered the main strand of the DSF in this area (Sneh and Weinberger, 2003a). It subdivides the highly deformed contraction area into two main blocks; a western block, between the Qiryat Shemona and Margaliyyot faults, locally known as the Misyag Am block; and an eastern block, between the Qiryat Shemona and Tel-Hay faults, locally known as the Metulla block (Fig. 1).

The eastern (Metulla) block is the main focus of the present study. The block is ~2 km wide and is divided into several moderate to highly deformed sub-blocks by ~NE–SW to N–S striking faults, including the Har Zefiyya, Metulla, Muftalah and Kefar Giladi faults (Fig. 1). Strata exposed in this block consist of the Cretaceous Kamon and Deir Hanna formations, the Paleocene Taqye Formation, the Eocene Timrat and Bar Kokhba formations, the Neogene Kefar Giladi Formation, the Pleistocene Hazbani Basalt and Quaternary gravels and clays. The conglomerates and lacustrine sediments of the Kefar Giladi Formation are especially noteworthy because they accumulated within an extensional basin adjacent to the DSF and were subsequently uplifted and folded during the Pleistocene (Weinberger et al., 2009). In the south, on both sides of the NE-striking Muftalah fault, the Kefar Giladi beds are vertical and in places intensely contorted. The NE–SW striking Har Zefiyya fault dips ~70° southeastward, showing normal separation with the Eocene Bar Kokhba limestone in the hanging wall and the Cenomanian Karkara beds exposed in the footwall. Kinematic indicators (dip-slip striate lineations and small-scale pull-apart basins filled with calcite) suggest a younger reverse motion along this fault.

Based on structural and kinematic analyses (i.e., folds, faults, veins) within the western and the eastern blocks, Weinberger et al. (2009) suggested that two directions of regional shortening exist: (1) ~NW–SE shortening responsible for the formation of ~NE–SW trending fold axes and a left-lateral strike-slip motion along the N–S trending faults; and (2) ~E–W shortening as indicated by N–S trending fold axes, N–S striking thrust faults and extensional ~E–W striking calcite-filled veins. Based on cross-cutting relations and late-Pleistocene U–Th ages of the calcite-filled vein, they suggested that the ~E–W phase of transform-normal shortening post dates the NW–SE of shortening. In addition, they suggested that transition occurred from an early (Miocene–Pliocene) phase of pure strike-slip motion to a late (Pliocene–Pleistocene to Recent) phase of convergent strike slip of ‘partitioned’ transpression. The latter is characterized by discrete left-lateral strike-slip movement across weak N–S faults and the development of a fold-thrust belt in response to transform-normal shortening.
Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sampling site</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Structure type</th>
<th>Structure axis</th>
<th>No. (#)</th>
<th>Stratigraphic unit</th>
<th>General information on the sampling sites</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RT1</td>
<td>2531897/7926N</td>
<td>Fold</td>
<td>Fold</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Kefar Giladi Fm.</td>
<td>(Neogene, chalk) Fold 42.67 1.02 0.902</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT2</td>
<td>25309E/7927N</td>
<td>Fold</td>
<td>Fold</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Kefar Giladi Fm.</td>
<td>(Neogene, chalk) Fold 12.3 1.019 0.134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT3</td>
<td>25396E/7936N</td>
<td>Fold</td>
<td>Fold</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Kefar Giladi Fm.</td>
<td>(Neogene, chalk) Fold 38.5 1.01 0.378</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT4</td>
<td>25296E/79461N</td>
<td>Fold</td>
<td>Fault plane</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Bar Kokhba Fm.</td>
<td>(Middle Eocene, limestone) Fault plane</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT5</td>
<td>25054E/26198N</td>
<td>Fold</td>
<td>Fold</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Bar Kokhba Fm.</td>
<td>(Middle Eocene, limestone) Fold-Near Fault plane</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT6</td>
<td>25309E/79271N</td>
<td>Fold</td>
<td>Fold</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Kefar Giladi Fm.</td>
<td>(Neogene, chalk) Fold 39.5 1.012 0.422</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT7</td>
<td>25355E/79576N</td>
<td>Fold</td>
<td>Fault plane</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Bar Kokhba Fm.</td>
<td>(Middle Eocene, limestone) Center of Metulla block</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT8</td>
<td>25266E/79487N</td>
<td>Fold</td>
<td>Fold</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Bar Kokhba Fm.</td>
<td>(Middle Eocene, limestone) Center of Metulla block</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT9</td>
<td>25374E/79703N</td>
<td>Fold</td>
<td>Fault plane</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Bar Kokhba Fm.</td>
<td>(Middle Eocene, limestone) Center of Metulla block</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT10</td>
<td>25314E/79613N</td>
<td>Fold</td>
<td>Fault plane</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Bar Kokhba Fm.</td>
<td>(Middle Eocene, limestone) Center of Metulla block</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT11</td>
<td>25348E/79949N</td>
<td>Fold</td>
<td>Fault plane</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Bar Kokhba Fm.</td>
<td>(Middle Eocene, limestone) Center of Metulla block</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT12</td>
<td>25296E/79442N</td>
<td>Fold</td>
<td>Vein</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Calcite-filled vein</td>
<td>Vein derived according to Jelinek et al. (1977)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Methods and sampling strategy

4.1. Low-field AMS and rock magnetism

The tectonic significance of weak susceptibilities requires special consideration (Hamilton et al., 2004), particularly when working with AMS data of diamagnetic rocks such as the Eocene Bar Kokhba limestone. The AMS was measured with a KLY-4S Kappabridge at the Geological Survey of Israel (GSI) laboratory. The sensitivity of the kappabridge is in the order of $1 \times 10^{-6}$ (SI), enabling measurements of the mean susceptibility of samples on a $1 \times 10^{-6}$ (SI) order. The measurements were repeated several times in a low magnetic field of 300 A/m. Because the magnetic signal in the diamagnetic rocks is low and the magnetic difference ($\Delta k = k_1 - k_2$) may be close to the measurement error of the directional susceptibility (Hrouda et al., 2000), we tested the significance of the AMS anisotropy by applying statistical F-tests (Jelinek, 1977), where for 95% and 90% confidences the F-test should be higher than 4.2 and 3.0, respectively. If a specimen had axes with positive and negative susceptibilities, it was omitted from further analysis. This was done because the AMS is carried by both diamagnetic and paramagnetic sub-fabrics, which may lead to wrong interpretations (Hamilton et al., 2004; Hrouda, 2004). Samples that have $k_m$ in range of $-4$ to $4 \times 10^{-6}$ (SI) were also omitted from further analysis because of an unrealistic high degree of $P$ in the vicinity close to zero susceptibility (Hrouda, 2004).

The ellipsoid shape parameters and the AMS confidences were derived according to Jelinek’s (1981) procedure and Hrouda (2004). The AMS magnitudes and the directions of the AMS principal axes were calculated using the software package Anisof3.

In this study the AMS axes of diamagnetic rocks are described by assigned values of susceptibility. Therefore, the minimum susceptibility ($k_3$) refers to the most negative susceptibility value, which coincides with the crystallographic $c$-axis in calcite (Almqvist et al., 2009). In addition, the AMS parameters ($P, P', I, L, F, T$) are calculated based on the absolute (unsigned) values of the principal susceptibility, which means that the largest absolute magnitude is the maximum susceptibility. This convention is recommended for describing the orientations of the principal axes and their magnitudes (for more details see Hrouda, 2004).

For the AMS study a total of 223 samples were taken from 17 outcrops within the eastern (Metulla) block, 7–26 from each outcrop (Fig. 1; Table 1). Most of the rocks sampled are the Bar Kokhba limestone (12 sites), a few are chalks of the Timrat and Kefar Giladi formations (4 sites), and one sample is from a late-Pleistocene calcite-filled vein. Several sites were chosen because they were located along fault planes that are part of the Qiryat Shemona and Har Zefzya fault zones; others because they were located away from these faults (Fig. 1). Folded and highly tilted beds were also sampled.

4.2. Rock magnetism

Several rock-magnetic experiments were carried out at the rock-magnetic laboratories in the Institute of Earth Sciences, Hebrew University (HU) of Jerusalem, and the Geological Survey of Israel (GSI), Jerusalem. These experiments were done in order to define the magnetic carriers and their contribution to the mean magnetic susceptibility and its anisotropy. The remanent magnetization was measured using a three-axis 2G Enterprises superconducting magnetometer with integrated alternating field (AF) coils at the HU. The anisotropy of anhysteris remanent magnetization (AARM) was investigated by imparting magnetization along six chosen directions in an alternating field of 100 mT with a small coaxial field of 80 μT. Low-field thermomagnetic measurements in an Ar atmosphere were conducted by using a CS-3 apparatus coupled to...
the KLY-3S Kappabridge instrument at the GSI. For more details see Supplementary data item #1.

4.3. Chemical composition

Magnetic fabrics of calcite rocks may be affected by the content of Fe$^{2+}$ and Mn$^{2+}$ ions, mainly when the samples consist of more than 500 ppm Fe and Mn (Schmidt et al., 2006). To test the possibility of Fe and Mn contributions to the magnetic fabrics, the chemical composition of ten samples was analyzed by Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometer (ICP-MS) at the Geological Survey of Israel (GSI). Based on this method all elements with possible paramagnetic ions can be detected.

5. Results

The mean susceptibilities of all the samples indicate that they belong to the diamagnetic-paramagnetic phases (Fig. 2), with the majority belonging to the diamagnetic phase (Table 1; sites RT5, RT7, RT9–12, and RT14–18). Three distinct groups were characterized based on the mean susceptibility values, $k_{\text{mean}}$. Group A includes samples with negative mean susceptibility values between $-13$ and $-4 \times 10^{-6}$ (SI) and belongs to the diamagnetic phase; Group B includes samples with mean susceptibility values between 4 and $30 \times 10^{-6}$ (SI) and belongs to the very weak paramagnetic phase; and Group C includes samples with mean susceptibility values greater than $30 \times 10^{-6}$ (SI) and belongs to the paramagnetic phase. Rock-magnetic experiments indicate the presence of small amounts of magnetic sulphides and magnetites in the limestone rocks (see Supplementary data item #1).

The mean susceptibilities of samples from the Bar Kokhba limestone are low and most of them are negative. Nevertheless, their AMS results were repeated in consecutive measurements and magnetic fields of 300 A/m. The mean values of the samples that passed the $F$-test fall within the 95% confidence ellipses analyzed for all samples, suggesting that all samples can be considered for further analysis (Fig. 3).

Fig. 3 shows the projections of AMS principal axes and their 95% confidence ellipses. The magnetic fabrics are divided into five types, based on the grouping of AMS axes due to internal deformation (e.g., Borradaile and Henry, 1997), and their relation to bedding planes and rigid-body rotation (e.g., Parés and Van der Pluijm, 2003; Evans and Elmore, 2006; Borradaile and Jackson, 2010). The magnetic fabrics of seven sites (RT3, RT10, RT14–17) represent a tectonic fabric, which is associated with dominant internal deformation, and two sites (RT4 and RT9) have additional sub-vertical foliation. The magnetic fabrics of two sites (RT1 and RT2) represent a tectonic fabric associated with weak rigid-body rotation. Four sites (RT5, RT7, RT8 and RT12) have a tectonic fabric associated with dominant rigid-body rotation and weak internal deformation. In the latter tectonic fabric type, the $k_1$-$k_2$ planes represent the tilted bedding whereas the $k_3$ axes are well grouped and normal to the bedding. The

![Fig. 2](image-url)
magnetic fabric of RT11 is rather disperse and is not associated with tectonic fabric. The magnetic fabric of the calcite-filled vein (RT18) shows well-grouped $k_3$ axes that are perpendicular to the strike of the vein walls. Micrographic study shows that the calcite crystals grew perpendicular to the vein walls along their $c$-axes, indicating that $k_3$ axes are parallel to the $c$-axes.

Three sites, RT1, RT2 and RT3, are located along fold flanks in the Kefar Giladi lacustrine unit and belong to the paramagnetic phase (Table 1; Fig. 1). In RT1 and RT3 the $k_1$ axes lie parallel to the NNE–SSW trending fold axes. In RT2 the $k_3$ axes lie parallel to the NNE–SSW trending fold axis (Fig. 3). Projection of the average $k_3$ axes of all sites indicates three main groups of trends (Fig. 4): (A) ~ W–E (including sites RT4, RT7, RT9 and RT16); (B) ~ NW–SE (including sites RT1, RT5 and RT8) and (C) plunging ~ NNE (including sites RT10, RT12, RT14 and RT15).

The $P$ or $\Delta k$ values and the AMS shape of the diamagnetic samples could change due to a contribution of Fe minerals (e.g., Borradaile and Henry, 1997) and with the addition of Fe$^{2+}$ and
Mn$^{2+}$ ions into the calcite structure (Schmidt et al., 2006; Almqvist et al., 2010). Yet, the comparison between the $T$ and $P$ parameters shows no correlation. A majority of the diamagnetic samples have positive $T$ values and, hence, are characterized by an oblate shape. The paramagnetic samples have either negative $T$ values and a prolate shape, or very low positive $T$ values and almost a spherical shape (Fig. 5). Fig. 6 shows that all the diamagnetic samples have Fe contents lower than 130 ppm, and there is no dependence between $\Delta k$ or $k'$ and the Fe content or dependence between $\Delta k$ and $k_m$. For the diamagnetic phase RT11 has the lower value of $\Delta k$, around $0.07 \times 10^{-6}$ (SI), and RT7 has the higher value of $\Delta k$, around $0.2 \times 10^{-6}$ (SI) (Fig. 6a). For the paramagnetic phase, RT8 has the lower value of $\Delta k$, around $0.1 \times 10^{-6}$ (SI), and RT1 has the higher value of $\Delta k$, around $0.9 \times 10^{-6}$ (SI) (Fig. 6a). In RT18 the $T$ parameter is positive, $k_0$, $k_2$ and $k_3$ have values of $-11.6$, $-11.66$, $-12.39$ ($\times 10^{-6}$ (SI)), respectively, and $\Delta k$ is around $0.8 \times 10^{-6}$ (SI), suggesting that the vein material behaves as a pure diamagnetic single-crystal calcite.
6. Discussion

6.1. General

The present results were obtained after repeated measurements, especially for those samples that had negative susceptibilities. All measurements were reproducible and, can therefore be considered accurate albeit their low susceptibility values. While not all samples passed the F-test, the means of those that did fall within the 95% and the 90% confidence ellipses analyzed for the total samples, suggesting that all samples can be considered for further analysis. Although there is a presence of small amounts of magnetic sulphides and magnetites in the limestone rocks (see Supplementary data item #1), all the diamagnetic samples have negative principal axes with the average of $k_m = -10 \times 10^{-6}$. Schmidt et al. (2006) suggested that the paramagnetic susceptibility can be quantitatively related to the content of paramagnetic ions. The increase of susceptibility is $0.6 \times 10^{-6}$ (SI) per 100 ppm Fe and $0.9 \times 10^{-6}$ (SI) per 100 ppm Mn. Assuming that the ions Fe and Mn of sample RT10-2 (Table 2) are all divalent and replace the Ca$^{2+}$ in the calcite structure, than it would increase the susceptibility by $1 \times 10^{-6}$ (SI). Because RT10-2 has $k_m = -7 \times 10^{-6}$ and the calculated contribution of the paramagnetic sub-fabrics is not sufficient to explain the difference between $k_m$ of pure calcite ($-12 \times 10^{-6}$) and the measured $-7 \times 10^{-6}$ of RT10-2, it is suggested that part or all the Fe and Mn ions is situated in the ferromagnetic minerals.

Fig. 4. A summary stereoplot comparing the orientations of meso-structures (Weinberger et al., 2009) and AMS axes in the eastern (Metulla) block. Fold axes are derived from averages of fold hinge populations at specific localities, and $\pi$ diagrams of large folds. The average orientation of veins and clastic dikes are marked by a dashed great circle. AMS axes fall along $\sim$ NW–SE or $\sim$ W–E striking best fit great circles, which correspond to two distinct phases of shortening axes, $\eta$. Triangles mark the poles of these great circles and are located close to the two groups of the fold trends.

Fig. 5. Corrected anisotropy degree $P$ and shape parameter $T$ data of diamagnetic and paramagnetic samples from northern Israel presented on a $\pi/4$ segment polar plot. In this plot $P$ is a radius and $T$ is an arch-length. Plot first introduced by Borradaile and Jackson (2004).
This conclusion is in agreement with the rock-magnetism experiments (see Supplementary data item #1).

Borradaile and Jackson (2010) suggested that Fe and Mn ions are the major sources of paramagnetism in minerals. When these magnetic ions are present in non-negligible quantities (> 0.5%), their positive susceptibilities outweigh the negative diamagnetic susceptibilities of the bulk rock material. Schmidt et al. (2006) have demonstrated that substitution of Fe$^{2+}$ for Ca$^{2+}$ of more than 500 ppm produces an inverse magnetic fabric. If the magnetic fabric is controlled by both diamagnetic, paramagnetic and/or ferromagnetic sub-fabrics, $D_k$ or $P_0$ should depend on the Fe and Mn content of the individual specimens (Schmidt et al., 2006; Almqvist et al., 2010) and on the $k_m$ as well.

In addition, Schmidt et al. (2006) showed that the deviation of the $k_2$ direction from the $c$-axis is only within 3.4° if calcite samples have $k_m < -9 \times 10^{-6}$ (SI) (i.e., they are contaminated by small amounts of paramagnetic and ferromagnetic fabrics).

In the present study, the total concentrations of these ions in the Bar Kokhba limestone are less than 0.05% of the bulk rock material.

The iron content of samples from the Bar Kokhba limestone is less than 130 ppm (Table 1 and Fig. 6). However, all their AMS axes ($k_1$, $k_2$, $k_3$) have negative susceptibilities (Figs. 2 and 6). The present results show no dependency between $D_k$ or $P_0$ and the Fe/Mn content (Fig. 6) and between $D_k$ or $P_0$ and $k_m$ values. Hence, the overall magnetic fabrics are solely controlled by the diamagnetic sub-fabric and the alignment of $c$-axes of calcite crystals (Almqvist et al., 2010). In addition, the AMS fabric of samples with $k_m < -9 \times 10^{-6}$ is generally similar to that of the AMS fabric of samples with $k_m > -9 \times 10^{-6}$, indicating that the latter group is also controlled by the sub-diamagnetic fabric.

The alignment of the $k_3$ axes in the diamagnetic Bar Kokhba limestone helps to assess the strain fields prevailing post-deposition and during the tectonic evolution of the DSF. For this
6.2. Principal strain axes

In calcite-filled veins the c-axes are commonly oriented perpendicular to the vein walls (Hudleston and Srivastava, 1997) as are the c-axes in RT18. This observation supports the notation that the k3 axes in the diamagnetic rocks are parallel to the c-axes. Notably, in calcite-filled veins the k3 axes indicate the “free” growing directions of the calcite crystals into the vein cavity, whereas in deformed sedimentary rocks they indicate the re-orientation direction of the c-axes due to strain.

Almost all the analyzed magnetic fabrics evolved due to internal deformation occasionally accompanied by a rigid-body rotation, as indicated by the grouping of the AMS axes and/or their relations to bedding and fold axis (Fig. 3). The obtained shortening axes (i.e., parallel to k3 axes) can be grouped into three sets of directions, namely ~W–E, ~NW–SE and ~NNE-plunging finite shortening axes (Fig. 4). The spatial distribution of the three inferred shortening axes is presented on the foreground of the study area fault map (Fig. 7). The ~W–E shortening axes are distributed throughout the study area and are commonly detected at sites located along fault planes or relatively close to such planes. The ~NW–SE shortening axes are present south of the branching point between the Har Zefiyaa and Qiryat Shemona faults; the ~NNE-plunging shortening axes are present north of this point. Fig. 4 shows the shortening axes inferred from the present AMS study together with the ~W–E and ~NW–SE shortening axes inferred previously from meso-scale structures (Weinberger et al., 2009). The orientation of the great circle along which the ~W–E oriented k3 AMS axes lie is very similar to the average plane of the calcite-filled veins and clastic dikes in the study area. The pole of this circle is closely located to the populations of the ~N–S fold axes in the eastern (Metulla) block. The pole of the great circle along which the ~NW–SE oriented k3 axes lie is closely located to the populations of the ~NE–SW fold axes. These observations show a good agreement between finite-strain axes inferred from meso-scale structures and those inferred from k3 axes. Two main observations led Weinberger et al. (2009) to suggest that the ~NW–SE shortening direction predated the ~W–E shortening direction and that the latter has been dominant since the Pleistocene: (1) the Pleistocene Hazbani basalt shows only ~N–S trending folds and lacks ~NE–SW trending folds; and (2) the compatible ~W–E striking veins are younger than 400 kyr (U–Th ages, see Weinberger et al., 2008). Furthermore, the structural analysis provides evidence for the transition from an early (pre-Pleistocene) phase of pure strike-slip motion to a late (Pleistocene to Recent) phase of convergent strike-slip motion and strain partitioning.

Based on this structural analysis, it is suggested that the ~NW–SE k3 axes represent pre-Pleistocene shortening axes and the ~W–E k3 axes, Pleistocene to Recent shortening axes. Noteworthy, three out of four sites in which the magnetic fabric is due to a paramagnetic phase are characterized by ~NW–SE k3 axes (Fig. 7), suggesting that the latest phase of ~W–E shortening did not necessarily reorient the paramagnetic k3 axes.

The mean vector of the diamagnetic k3 axes (034°/31°) of sites RT10, RT12, RT14 and RT17 suggests a ~NNE-plunging shortening axis (Fig. 3). This shortening axis is less understood because it is not directly compatible with the meso-scale structures within the eastern (Metulla) block. The k3 axes may represent an inverse fabric with respect to the ~NNE-plunging shortening. This axis is inferred from the latest stage of the Har Zefiyaa and Qiryat Shemona faults. The ~NNE-plunging shortening axis is mostly compatible with pure mode I extension or oblique normal and left-lateral slip along the Har Zefiyaa fracture/fault. Hence, the NNE shortening axis seems to be related to an early stage of the DSF branching in this area, in which faults such as Har Zefiyaa were initiated as pure mode I fractures. Within the 400-m wide rock strip parallel to the Har Zefiyaa fault, four sites (RT10, RT12, RT14, and RT17) apparently preserved a magnetic fabric that originated in the earliest tectonic phase (~NNE-plunging shortening), while three sites (RT4, RT16, and RT7)
preserved the latest tectonic phase of ~E–W shortening. These sites are all located along a zone of highly localized strain (i.e., fault plane or fault zone), suggesting that the diamagnetic k₃ axes were selectively reoriented in those sites by the latest ~W–E shortening.

Based on the above discussion, we suggest that the principal strain axes in northern Israel have been changed over time. The earliest ~NNE-plunging shortening axis prevailed during the early stage of the DSF initiation (i.e., Middle Miocene). The ~NW–SE shortening prevailed during the Neogene, and the latest ~W–E shortening prevailed during the Pleistocene to Recent.

6.3. Possible correlation between the anisotropy degree (P), susceptibility difference (Δk) and strain

The AMS and chemical results strongly suggest that almost all the diamagnetic samples are monomineralic, calcite-bearing rocks (e.g., Figs. 2 and 6). In addition, there is no dependence between P or Δk and the Fe/Mn content (Fig. 6) as well as between P or Δk and kₘ values. Yet, the diamagnetic samples still have variations in the P or Δk even when they have similar strong kₘ negative values (Figs. 6 and 8 and Table 1). The increase of P, Δk and kₘ values might be the result of an increase of the Fe and Mn contents (paramagnetic ions) within calcite crystals and/or the growth of ferromagnetic inclusions (Almqvist et al., 2010; Borradaile and Jackson, 2010). Alternatively, an increase in the strain magnitude may lead to a better alignment of the c-axes and an increase in P and Δk values (Hrouda, 2004; Schmidt et al., 2009). These alternatives are discussed below.

The kₘ value of calcite-filled vein (RT18) is around −12 × 10⁻⁶ (SI), its P is around 1.08 and the Δk is around 0.8 (×10⁻⁶ (SI)) (Table 1; Fig. 8). There are many values very similar to that of a pure single-crystal calcite (e.g., Owens and Rutter, 1978; Rochette, 1988; Evans et al., 2003; Schmidt et al., 2006). The kₘ value of RT17 (Bar Kokhba limestone) is −12.6 × 10⁻⁶ (SI) similar to that of pure single-crystal calcite. However, it’s P and Δk values are 1.004 and 0.08, respectively, much lower than that of RT18 (Fig. 8). A likely explanation for these differences is that the c-axes of RT17 are greatly dispersed compared to those of the well-aligned, wall-normal calcite crystals in the veins. On the other hand, RT7 has the second highest (after RT18) P and Δk values (1.025 and 0.2, respectively, Fig. 8 and Table 1), yet, it has characteristics of an almost pure calcite crystal (e.g., oblate AMS shape and Fe content of 125 ppm). In RT10, the Fe content is 130 ppm, the kₘ is around −7.1 × 10⁻⁶ (SI), P is 1.015, and Δk is 0.015. RT16 has similar values of Fe content (125 ppm) and kₘ (−7.4 × 10⁻⁶ (SI)), yet, the values of P and Δk are higher (1.027, and 0.025, respectively). We attribute these differences of P and Δk values to a difference in the strain magnitudes. Since the alignment of the c-axes within the host rock depends on the degree of deformation (Hrouda, 2004), RT7, which is located close to the fault plane, may represent the highest strain level among the samples analyzed (Figs. 8 and 9).

On the assumption that the values of RT17 represent an undeformed matrix with PA = 1.004, Δk = ~0.08, the values of RT7 (P = 1.025, Δk = ~0.2) represent deformed matrix by increase of 1.7% of its original degree of anisotropy and 150% of its original susceptibility difference. Hence, in calcite-bearing rocks different P or Δk values may indicate different strain magnitudes and may be associated with different strain mechanisms.

Variation of P or Δk values may represent the inelastic strain or the plastic deformation stored in the calcite-bearing rocks (Kapićka et al., 2006). Fig. 9 shows the variations of P values with the distance from major fault planes. These values decrease with the distance from the fault planes, and can be represented by power-law fitting. We suggest that this decrease of P values is related to the finite inelastic strain accumulated during time of faulting (co-seismic and inter-seismic activities) and several strain phases (e.g., ~NNE, ~NW–SE and ~W–E shortening phases in the Metulla block). The lower value of P = 1.0067 is represented in site RT17 at a distance of ~230 m from a major fault plane. The highest value of P = 1.025 is represented in site RT7 at a distance of ~20 m from a major fault plane. Hence, the maximum difference of P (ΔP) values in the Metulla block is on the order of 1.7%.

Noteworthy, ΔP of 3% was found for shortening of up to 25% in stressed cylinder tests made by Borradaile and Alford (1988) and for strain gradients in mylonite quartzites (Tripathy et al., 2009). Schmidt et al. (2009) report on Δk of ~0.2 for pure calcite deformed under 150 MPa in cold uniaxial pressure. Based on these experiments and assuming that only 50% of the Δk values are due to deformation, the pressure magnitudes represented by the present samples are up to ~30 MPa.

Based on the discussion above, it is proposed that the higher P and Δk values represent the accumulation of inelastic strain that was stored within the host rock around the fault plane during the intense shearing period. This proposal should be elaborated in future works.

![Graph](image-url)
6.4. Fold-related AMS variations

Sites RT1, RT2, and RT3 are paramagnetic and dominated by internal deformation due to folding (Table 1, Fig. 3). The vertical layers of RT1 and the ~30° inclined RT2 are related to the same set of fold structures. However, in RT1 the k1 axes are well grouped and lie within the fold plane, indicating elongation parallel to the fold axis, while in RT2 the k2 axes are well grouped and lie within the fold plane, indicating shortening parallel to the fold axis. In RT3 the k1 axes are well grouped and parallel to the fold axis, indicating elongation parallel to the fold axis and shortening perpendicular to that direction.

The 90° difference between the directions of the k2 axes in RT1 and RT2 can be explained by two alternatives: (1) the (internal) state of deformation along the fold structure is heterogeneous due to fold mechanisms such as “bending by orthogonal flexure” or the “buckling by orthogonal flexure” (e.g., see Fig. 16.2 in Twiss and Moores, 1992). This is directly reflected by different directions of the AMS axes at different structural positions within the fold structure: (2) the magnetic fabric of RT1 is “normal” (i.e., c-axes parallel the shortening axis) and that of RT2 is “inverse”, namely, the c-axes are orthogonal to the shortening axis. Note that the possibility of an inverse fabric was rejected for the diamagnetic rocks (see Section 6.1), but was not yet rejected for the paramagnetic rocks.

Inverse fabric in calcite-bearing rocks is mainly formed by contaminating Fe-bearing minerals (Rochette, 1988) or by Fe-rich calcites (Schmidt et al., 2006). In both cases the inverse fabric is indicated by high Fe concentrations and mean susceptibility values, and possibly by a prolate AMS ellipsoid (Schmidt et al., 2006). In addition, the mean susceptibility may increase due to contamination of Fe-bearing minerals. The mean susceptibility of RT1 and RT3 is more than twice greater than the mean susceptibility of RT2 (Table 2). Yet, the Fe and Mn concentrations in RT1 are 545 and 70 ppm, respectively (~0.18% of the total chemical elements), while these concentrations in RT2 are about 900 and 100 ppm, respectively (~0.26% of the total chemical elements) (Fig. 8 and Table 1). The shape of the AMS ellipsoid depends on the position of the specimen in the field (Hrouda, 1978). Indeed, the AMS shape of RT1 is prolate while that of RT2 and RT3 is oblate. Hence, it is unlikely that the difference in the directions of the k3 axes is due to an inverse fabric. Alternatively, the variation in the directions of the k3 axes is related to the degree of the internal deformation within the fold structures.

7. Conclusions

The iron content of most samples from the limestone studied is less than 130 ppm, all the AMS principal axes (k1, k2, k3) have negative susceptibilities, and the magnetic fabrics are represented by oblate AMS ellipsoids. Hence, these samples contain magnetic fabrics that are dominated by the diamagnetic phase, which are solely controlled by the alignment of c-axes of almost pure calcite crystals. This alignment helps to assess the strain fields prevailing post-deposition and during the tectonic evolution of the DSF. Based on the present AMS measurements of the diamagnetic as well as a few paramagnetic rocks, three groups of minimum k3 AMS axes are defined: (1) Group A with ~NNE-plunging axes; (2) Group B with ~NW–SE axes; and (3) Group C with ~E–W axes. The latter two groups of k3 axes are aligned sub-parallel to finite-strain axes inferred from meso-scale structures (i.e., folds, faults and veins) next to the DSF. This indicates that k3 axes of diamagnetic rocks can be good proxies for strain field directions near major faults. The ~NW–SE and the ~E–W shortening axes are related to the pure left-lateral motion along the DSF during the Neogene, and to contractional strike-slip motion and strain partitioning during the Pleistocene to Recent, respectively. The ~NNE-plunging shortening axis might be associated with an earlier extensional strain regime along the branching DSF in northern Israel.

The differences between the P (~2%) and the Δk (~0.2) of the diamagnetic rocks are related to differences in strain magnitudes. Based on the proximity of the outcrops to the fault locations, it is suggested that the differences of the P and Δk values reflect the stored inelastic strain within the calcite matrix due to faulting activity and internal strain heterogeneity within fold structures.

The present work strengthens the suggestion of Schmidt et al. (2006) that good AMS results can be obtained from calcite-bearing rocks when their mean susceptibility is negative.

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Appendix. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version, at doi:10.1016/j.jsg.2011.02.001.

References


