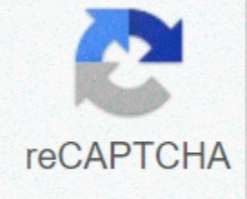




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Convergent boundary examples oceanic oceanic

Active deformation zone between collision tectonic plates
The simplified diagram of the converging boundary
Convergence Boundary A converging boundary (also known as a boundary of destruction) is an area on Earth where two or more plates of arsenic collide. One final plate slides underneath the other, a process known as subduction. The subduction zone can be determined by a plane where many earthquakes occurred, known as the Wadati-Benioff region. [1] These collisions occur on a scale of millions to tens of millions of years and can lead to volcanoes, earthquakes, formations, quartz destruction and deformation. Converging boundaries appear between ocean-oceanic spheres, ocean-continent quartz, and continental quartz. Geological characteristics associated with converging boundaries vary depending on the type of crust. Plate tectonics are controlled by the backup cells in the coating. The drainage cells are the result of heat generated by radioactive decay of elements in the coating that escape to the surface and the return of cool material from the surface to the coating. [2] These backup cells carry warming coating material to the surface along the spreading centers creating new crusts. When this new crust is pushed out of the center spread by the formation of newer crusts, it cools, thinner and becomes denser. Subduction begins when this dense crust converges with a less dense crust. Gravity helps push subducting sheets into the coating. [3] When the relatively cool subducting slab sinks deeper into the coating, it is heated, which breaks down the hydrous minerals. This releases water into the hotter volcanic layer, resulting in the part melting of the asthenosphere and volcanoes. Both dehydration and part melting occur along a temperature of 1,000 °C (1,830 °F), usually at depths of 65 to 130 km (40 to 81 mi). [5] Several plates of quartz include continental and oceanic quartz. In some cases, the initial convergence with another plate will destroy the oceanic quartz, leading to the convergence of two continental plates. No continental plate will sink. It is likely that this plate can break along the boundaries of continental crust and oceans. Seismic scans showed that the jelly fragments had broken up during convergence. [to quote] Subduction Zone See also: Forearm subduction zone and Wadati-Benioff are areas where a plate of strz slides beneath another patch at the boundary converging due to the difference in quartz density. These panels dip at an average of 45° but may vary. Subduction areas are often marked by an abundance of earthquakes, the result of internal deformation of the plate, convergence to opposite plates, and bends in ocean trenches. The quake was detected at a depth of 670 km (416 mi). The relatively cold and dense subducting plates are pulled into the manolay and help drive backup. [6] Ocean-ocean convergence In collisions between two ocean plates, the colder, denser oceanic quartz sinks beneath the warmer, less dense oceanic quartz. As the slab sinks deeper into the man cover, it releases water from the dehydration of hydrous minerals in the oceanic crust. This water reduces the melting temperature of rocks in the asthenosphere and causes a part melting. The part melt will go up through the asthenosphere, eventually, reaching the surface, and form volcanic island spheres. Convergence of continents – oceans
When oceanic and continental quartz collide, the dense oceanic subsics beneath the continental book are less dense. A accretion wedge forms on the continental crust when deep-sea sediments and ocean crusts are scraped from ocean plates. The volcanic spheres formed on the continental quartz are the result of melting in part due to dehydration of the glass minerals of the subducting slab. Continental convergence See also: Continental collision
Some quartz plates including continental crust and oceans. Subduction begins when the oceanic quartz slides beneath the continental crust. As the oceanic heater subsites have greater depth, the accompanying continental crust is pulled closer to the subduction zone, the subduction process is changed, as the continental quartz is more floating and resists subduction beneath other continental quartz. A small portion of the continental crust can be subducted until the slab breaks down, allowing the oceanic slab to continue subducting, hot asthenosphere to rise and fill gaps, and continental heater to recover. [7] Evidence of this continental restoration consists of extremely high-pressure ordging rocks, formed at depths between 90 and 125 km (56 to 78 mi), which are exposed to the surface. [8] Volcanoes and volcanic arcs See also: Volcanic arc
Ocean crust contains hydrated minerals such as amphibole and mica groups. During subduction, the oceanic heater is heated and de transformed, causing the decomposition of these glass minerals, which release water into the asthenosphere. The release of water into the asthenosphere leads to part melting. The part melting allows for the rise of more hot, floating materials and can lead to volcanoes at the surface and replace plutonium in the surface. [9] The processes of creating magma are not fully understood. [10] Where these magma approach the surface they create volcanic loops. Volcanic arcs can form as island arc chains or as arcs on continental crust. Three series of magma volcanic rocks were found in combination with the rings. The chemically reduced tholeiitic magma chain is most characteristic of ocean volcanic rings, although this is also found in the continental volcanic loops above submersible (&t;7 cm/year). This series is relatively low in potassium. The more oxidized calc-alkali chain, moderately enriched in potassium and in compatibility elements, is characteristic of continental volcanic loops. Alkaline magma (rich in potassium) is sometimes present in deeper continental interiors. Shoshonite series, which are rich in potassium, are rare but sometimes found in volcanic loops. [5] Andesite members of each chain are most common,[11] and the transition from basalt volcanoes of the Pacific Deep Basin to Andesitic volcanoes in the surrounding volcanic loops has been called the andesite line. [13] Rear arc basin See also: Arc area behind Arc basins back formed behind a volcanic arc and is associated with extended ting formation and high heat currents, often where the centers span the seabed. These centers of spread resemble mid-ocean ridges, although the magma composition of the rear arc basins is generally more diverse and contains higher water content than mid-ocean ridge magma. [14] The rear arc basins are often characterized by thin, hot systactites. Opening the rear arc basins can arise from the movement of the hot asthenosphere into the quartz, causing expansion. [15] Ocean Trench See also: Ocean trench
Ocean trenches are narrow terrain lows marking converging boundaries or subduction zones. Ocean trenches are on average 50 to 100 km (31 to 62 mi) wide and can be several thousand kilometers long. Ocean grooves form due to the bending of the reef slab. The depth of the ocean trenches seems to be controlled by the age of the subducted oceanic quartz. [5] Sediment fills in altered ocean grooves and often depends on the abundance of sediment inputs from surrounding areas. An ocean trench, the Mariana Trench, is the deepest point of the ocean at a depth of about 11,000 m (36,089 ft). Earthquakes and Tsunamis See also: Earthquakes are common along converging boundaries. A highly active area of earthquake activity, the Wadati-Benioff region, usually drops by 45° and marks the sinking plate. The quake will occur at a depth of 670 km (416 mi) along the Wadati-Benioff margin. Both compression forces and extended forces operate along converging boundaries. On the inner walls of the trenches, compression errors or inverted errors occur due to the relative movement of the two plates. The fracture scratches backwards out of the ocean sediment and leads to the formation of accretion wedges. Reverse errors can lead to megathrust earthquakes. Stress or normal faulting occurs on the outer walls of the groove, likely due to bending of the downgoing plate. [16] A megathrust earthquake can produce a sudden vertical shift of a large area of the ocean floor. This in turn creates a tsunami. [17] Several deadly natural disasters have occurred as a result of convergence Process. The 2004 Indian Ocean earthquake and tsunami was triggered by a megathrust earthquake along the converging boundary of the Indian Plate and the Burmese microplate and killed more than 200,000 people. The 2011 tsunami off the coast of Japan, Caused 16,000 deaths and \$360 billion in damage, caused by a 9 megathrust earthquake along the convergent boundaries of the Eurasian Plate and Pacific Plate. These sediments include mags, opaque sediments, and marine sediments. Imbricate thrust fractures along a basic decollement surface occur in the accretion wedge as the force continues to compress and fault the newly added sediment. [5] The continued faultyness of the accretion wedge leads to the overall thickening of the wedge. [18] The seabed terrain plays some role in accretion, particularly the location of the magma crust. [19] Examples of collisions between the Eurasian Plate and the Indian Plate are forming the Himalayas. Collision between the Australian and Pacific Plates forms the Southern Alps / Kā Tiritiri o te Moana in New Zealand The subduction of the northern part of the Pacific Plate and the North American Plate NW is forming the Almtian Islands. Subduction of the Nazca Plate beneath the South American Plate to form the Andes. The subduction of the Pacific Plate beneath the Australian Plate and the Tonga Plate, which form new Zealand's complex subduction/transformation boundary to New Guinea. The collision of the Eurasian Plate and the African Plate form the Pontic Mountains in Turkey. The subduction of the Pacific Plate beneath the Mariana Plate formed the Mariana Trench. Subduction of the Juan de Fuca Plate beneath the North American Plate to form the Cascades. See also List of tectonic plates - List of relatively moving parts of earth's quartz Plate Interaction List – Definition and example of interaction between relatively mobile parts of Obduction quartz - The overload of oceanic sorsactites into continental quartz at a converging array boundary Reference ^ Wicander, Reed; Monroe, James S. (2016). *Geol* (2nd edition). Belmont, CA: Cengage Learning. ISBN 978-1133108696. OCLC 795757302. Tackley, Paul J. 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