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Oceanic oceanic convergent boundary form

An active deformation zone between colliding tectonic plates and a simplified outline of converging borders (also known as destructive borders) is an area on earth where two or more arrays of lithospheric plates collide. One plate slides eventually under the other, a process known as subduction. The reduction zone can be defined by an aircraft with many earthquakes, called the Ouadati and Benif. [1] These collisions occur on ranges from millions to tens of millions of years and can lead to vulcanism, earthquakes, the emergence of tectonic plates, the destruction of the rock cover and deformation. The proximity of the ocean and oceanic lithospheric, the oceanic continental lithosphere and the continental atmosphere is determined. Geological features related to converging boundaries vary depending on the types of crust. Tectonic plates stir thermal cells into a mantle. Thermal cells are the result of heat resulting from the radioactive decay of elements in the mantle escaping to the surface and the return of cold materials from the surface to the mantle. [2] These thermal cells bring hot mantle material to the surface along propagation centers that create a new crust. As this new crust is pushed away from the center of propagation by forming the newer crust, it cools, thin, and becomes denser. Reduction begins when this dense crust converges with a less dense crust. The force of gravity helps to push the plate of oppression into the mantle. [3] As a relatively cool subducted slab sinks deeper into the mantle, it is heated, causing the water minerals to break. This releases water into the hottest atmosphere, leading to partial melting of asthenosphere and vulcania. Both drought and partial melting occur along 1,000°C (1,830°F) isotherm, generally at depths of 65 to 130 km (40 to 81 miles). [4] [5] Some lithospheric plates consist of both continental and oceanic lithosphere. In some cases, the initial convergence with another plate destroys the oceanic atmosphere, leading to the convergence of two continental plates. No continental plate will undergo. The plate is likely to break along the boundaries of the continental and oceanic crust. A CT scan reveals pieces of the rock casing that separated during convergence. [Need to cite] reduction areas see also: Areas of the Benioff Valley are areas where one lithospheric plate slides under one at a close border due to differences in the density of the lithosphere. These plates drop on average 45 degrees but can vary. Reduction zones are often characterized by an abundance of earthquakes, as a result of the internal deformation of the plate, the convergence of the opposing plate, and the curvature of the oceanic trench. Earthquakes have been detected to a depth of 670 km (416 miles). Cold and relatively dense subducting plates are pulled into the trench and help drive thermal. [6] An oceanic confluence – in a collision between two circumferential plates, the colder oceanic plate sinks beneath the warmer, less dense asthenosphere in the ocean. As the plate sinks deeper into the mantle, it releases water from the dryness of aquatic minerals into the oceanic crust. This water reduces the melting temperature of rocks in the atmosphere and causes partial melting. Partial melting will melt through asthenosphere, eventually, reach the surface, forming volcanic island arcs. Continental - Oceanic convergence when the oceanic and continental lithosphere collides, and the dense oceanic lithosphere under the continental envelope collides less densely. Cumulative wedges are formed on the continental crust with deep sea sediments and oceanic crust scraped from the oceanic plate. The volcanic arcs on the continental cover of the plates are formed as a result of partial melting due to the drying up of water minerals in the subducting slab. Continental – continental convergence also: Continental collision subducts some lithospheric plates consisting of both continental and oceanic. Shorthand begins when the oceanic plate slips beneath the continental crust. As the magnetosphere is subjected to greater depths, the attached continental crust is withdrawn near the reduction zone. Once the continental atmosphere reaches the reduction zone, the reduction processes change, because the continental atmosphere of the geyser is more buoyant and resists reduction beneath the other continental envelope. A small part of the continental crust can be subjected to the fraction of the lithosphere, allowing the surrounding magnetosphere to continue to subduct, the hot calm atmosphere to rise and fill the void, and to promote the continental atmosphere. [7] Evidence of this continental recovery includes very pressure resistant rocks, which form at depths of 90 [125] km (56 [78] mi), to be exposed at the surface. [8] Vulcania and volcanic arcs see also: The volcanic arc of the oceanic crust contains moist minerals such as amphibole and mica groups. During subduction, the oceanic lithosphere is heated and transformed, causing the collapse of these aquatic minerals, which release water into the atmosphere. The release of water into the atmosphere leads to partial melting. Partial melting allows for the rise of more plastic substances and can lead to volcanic eruptions on the surface and the placement of the subducting plate into the ground. [9] These magma-generating processes are not fully understood. [10] As this magma reaches the surface, it creates volcanic arcs. Volcanic arcs can form as arch chains of the island or as arcs on the continental crust. Three series of magma volcanic rocks are found in conjunction with the arcs. The chemically low tholeiitic magma series is the most characteristic of oceanic volcanic arcs, although this is also found in the continental volcanic arcs above subduction (>7 cm/year). This chain is relatively low in potassium. The more oxidizing alkaline chain, which is moderately enriched in potassium and incompatible elements, is a feature of continental volcanic arcs. The alkaline magma chain (extremely rich in potassium) is sometimes present in the deeper continental interior. The shoshonitic chain, which is extremely high in potassium, is rare but sometimes found in volcanic arcs. [5] The andesitic member of each chain is usually more abundant, [11] and the transition from the volcanism is a result of the deep Pacific basin to the andesitic volcanism in the volcanic oceanic arcs received being called the Andesite line. [12] The rear arch basins see also: Back-arc area oceanic arch basins form behind a volcanic arc and are associated with extended tectonics and high heat flow, often home to seafloor propagation centers. These scattered centers are like hills in the middle of the ocean, although the magma composition of the posterior arch basins is generally more diverse and contains a higher water content than the Mid-ocean Ridge Magma. [14] Rear arch basins are often characterized by thin, hot lithosphere. Opening of posterior arch basins may arise from the movement of hot asthenosphere in the atmosphere, causing the extension. [15] Peripheral trenches see also: Peripheral narrow narrow topographic trenches to mark a collar limit or a tectonic area. Oceanic trenches on average are 50 to 100 km (31 to 62 miles) wide and can be several thousand kilometers. The oceanic trenches are formed as a result of bending the plate of oppression. The depth of the oceanic trenches appears to be dominated by the age of the reduced ocean cover. [5] Sediment mobilization in oceanic trenches varies and is generally dependent on the abundance of sediment inputs from the surrounding areas. The Ocean Trench, the Mariana Trench, is the deepest point in the ocean at a depth of approximately 11,000 meters (36,089 feet). Earthquakes and tsunamis see also: earthquakes are common along converging borders. Area of high seismic activity, area of Waaiti Benev, generally drop 45 degrees and signs of the acid board. Earthquakes will occur at a depth of 670 km (416 miles) along the Waaiti and Benif margins. Both the pressure and extension forces operate along the converging border. On the inner walls of the trenches, a pressure error or reverse error occurs due to the relative movement of the two plates. Reverse scratches scratches off the surrounding sediment and lead to the formation of a cumulative wedge. Reverse fault can lead to massive earthquakes. A tension or normal error occurs on the outer wall of the trench, most likely due to the bending of the lithosphere. [16] A large earthquake can produce a sudden vertical displacement from a large area of the ocean floor. This in turn generates a tsunami. [17] Some of the most deadly natural disasters occurred due to convergence Operations. The Indian Ocean earthquake and the 2004 tsunami were caused by a massive earthquake along the adjacent border of the Indian plate and the small plate of Burma, killing more than 200,000 people. The 2011 tsunami off the coast of Japan, which killed 16,000 people and caused \$360 billion in damage, was caused by a magnitude 9 earthquake along the nearby borders of the Eurasia and Pacific Plate. Cumulative wedge see also: Accretionary wedge wedges (also called cumulative saws) form as sediment is scraped from the rocky shell and placed against the dominant rock casing. These include volcanic crust, turbid sediment and marine deposits. The trend error occurs along the base structure decollement surface in the accumulation wedges as the forces continue to compress and crack these newly added sediments. [5] Persistent errors from the wedge accumulation lead to the general thickness of the wedge. [18] The topography of the seabed plays some role in accumulation, particularly the planting of the volcanic crust. [19] Examples of a collision between the Eurasian plate and the Indian plate that forms the Himalayas. The collision between the Australian plate and the Pacific plate that formed the Southern Alps / Kā Tiritiri o te Moana in New Zealand subjected the northern part of the Pacific plate and the North American plate that make up the Aleutian Islands. Subducting the Nazca plate under the South American plate to the formation of the Andes. Subducting the Pacific plate under the Australian plate and Tonga plate, New Zealand's complex formation of New Guinea subducts/transforms the boundary. The collision of the Eurasian plate and the African plate constitutes the Pontic Mountains of Turkey. Subducting the Pacific plate under the Mariana plate formed the Mariana Trench. Subducting Juan de Fuca's plate under the North American plate to form a cascade range. See also a list of tectonic plates – a list of relatively moving parts of the earth's rocky shell of tectonic plate interactions – definitions and examples of interactions between relatively moving parts of the lithosphere Subduction – overtaking from the atmosphere of the continental atmosphere in converging boundary panels references ^ Wicander, Reed; Monroe, James S. (2016). Gyell (2 Ed.). Belmont, CA: Cengage Learning. Number 978-1133108696. OCLC 795757302. ^ Clay, Paul J. (2000-06-16). 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