Evidence for earthquake-induced subsidence about 1100 yr ago in coastal marshes of southern Puget Sound, Washington

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ABSTRACT

Buried forest and high marsh soils indicate abrupt changes in relative sea level at four coastal localities in southern Puget Sound. At Little Skookum Inlet and Red Salmon Creek, Douglas fir stumps in growth position are buried by salt-marsh peat. At localities along McAllister Creek and the Nisqually River, high marsh soils are buried by tidal-flat mud. Localized liquefaction coincided with submergence of the high marsh soil at McAllister Creek.

Dramatic changes in seed and diatom assemblages across these contacts confirm rapid submergence. At Little Skookum Inlet and Red Salmon Creek, salt-marsh peat immediately above a buried forest soil contains diatoms indicative of low marsh and tidal-flat environments. At McAllister Creek and Nisqually River, low-marsh and tidal-flat diatoms are abundant in laminated mud directly over high marsh peat. Inferences from modern analogs indicate at least 1 m of subsidence at each site and possibly up to 3 m at Skookum Inlet.

Abrupt burial of lowland soils in southern Puget Sound is best explained by coseismic subsidence. Some of the submergence may be the result of coseismic compaction and postearthquake settlement. Widespread buried soils, large amounts of subsidence, coeval submergence across a wide area, and ground shaking at the time of subsidence all point to a large earthquake between 1150 and 1010 cal yr B.P. in southern Puget Sound as the most likely cause of subsidence.

Keywords: diatoms, earthquakes, paleoseismology, Puget Sound, subsidence.

INTRODUCTION

Upper crustal faults represent a poorly understood geologic hazard in the southern Puget Sound region. Authors of past geological and geophysical studies inferred large structures in southern Puget Sound (Gower et al., 1985; Pratt et al., 1997); however, little information exists as to the potential for these structures to cause earthquakes and deformation. In central Puget Sound, movement on the Seattle fault about 1100 yr ago resulted in abrupt uplift of wave-cut platforms to the south of the fault, and subsidence of intertidal marshes to the north (Atwater and Moore, 1992; Bucknam et al., 1992). To the south near Tacoma and Olympia, Washington, aeromagnetic (Blakely et al., 1999) and gravity surveys (Gower et al., 1985) define several large-amplitude geophysical anomalies (Pratt et al., 1997). These anomalies indicate the approximate locations of geologic structures possibly capable of producing large earthquakes (Fig. 1). Because Quaternary glacial deposits bury these geologic structures, assessing the nature and hazard of each structure is difficult. However, given that many of these structures cross the coastline of Puget Sound, stratigraphic studies of coastal marshes are helpful for determining abrupt changes in relative sea level that accompanied prehistoric earthquakes and deformation in southern Puget Sound.

Buried soils below modern tidal marshes indicate episodes of rapid rise in relative sea level and are useful indicators of past earthquakes. Along the Cascadia subduction zone, abrupt contacts between buried soils and overlying intertidal mud resulted from rapid submergence during large subduction-zone earthquakes, including events 300 and 1100 yr ago (e.g., Clague, 1997). Submergence of lowland environments in Chile (1960) and Alaska (1964) changed forests and marshes into barren mudflats (Ovenshine et al., 1976). Similarly, large thrust earthquakes on the Seattle fault ~1100 yr ago caused abrupt subsidence that changed marshes into tidal flats (Atwater and Moore, 1992). In this paper, I document buried soils and abrupt environmental changes at several coastal sites in southern Puget Sound, that resulted from a large earthquake about 1100 yr ago.

Paleoenvironmental reconstructions based on fossil plants, diatoms, and foraminifers enhance stratigraphic studies of coastal earthquakes. Changes in microfossil assemblages and paleoenvironment across stratigraphic contacts are used to assess the abruptness and magnitude of past submergence events (Hemphill-Haley, 1995; Mathewes and Clague, 1994; Nelson et al., 1996; Shennan et al., 1996). Recent studies concerning the distribution of modern diatoms and plants in intertidal environments make microfossils more useful in paleoseismology because the vertical ranges and salinity tolerances of these organisms are now better known (Hemphill-Haley, 1995; Nelson et al., 1996; Sherrod, 1999).

In this study I adopt an integrated lithostratigraphic and biostratigraphic approach to reconstruct late Holocene relative sea level (RSL) histories at four sites in southern Puget Sound—one locality at Little Skookum Inlet and three in the Nisqually delta (Fig. 1). I use the RSL histories to interpret episodes of rapid submergence of lowland soils, and I consider whether these episodes result from lag and feedback effects associated with slow sea-level rise (Redfield, 1972), or whether they are a product of sudden subsidence associated with large earthquakes.

COASTAL MARSH ENVIRONMENTS AND HOLOCENE SEA-LEVEL RISE

Intertidal marshes form within a narrow elevation range between mean tide level and the
upper limits of tides. This characteristic allows geologists to reconstruct RSL changes from age-altitude relationships of fossil marsh deposits. Coastal marsh biota are commonly differentiated into three elevation-salinity zones similar to those established by Macdonald (1977) and Frey and Basan (1985). Fresh-water marshes have surface salinities from 0% to 3% and are divided into two subenvironments: low marsh and high marsh. Low marshes lie between mean high water and mean higher high water; high marshes fall between mean high water and extreme high water. Brackish water marshes have salinities from 3% to 20% and are divided into two subenvironments: low marsh and high marsh. Low marshes lie between mean high water and mean higher high water; high marshes fall between mean high water and extreme high water. Brackish marine environments and tidal flats have the highest salinities, from 20% to 35%, and lie below mean high water.

Deposits of coastal marshes are useful in determining RSL changes following the retreat of the Vashon glacier from the Puget Lowland. Sea level rose rapidly from its glacial minimum of about 120 m below present sea level following deglaciation at about 16 ka (Booth, 1987; Porter and Swanson, 1998). By 5–6 ka, it had risen to within 2–3 m of its present sea level in northern Puget Sound and southern British Columbia (Beale, 1990; Clague et al., 1982). Eronen et al. (1987) found a similar record at northern Hood Canal, where sea level had risen to within about 6 m of its present position by 6 ka. All three studies indicate that relative sea level in the Puget Sound region has risen no more than about 1 m in the past 1000 yr.

**STRATIGRAPHY AND PALEOECOLOGY OF COASTAL MARSHES**

**Field Data Collection**

Field teams mapped stratigraphic sections at selected outcrops exposed along tidal channels and along lines of correlated 2.5-cm-long gouge cores, paying particular attention to identify buried soils, plant roots, rhizomes, and liquefaction features. I have supplemented each survey with detailed stratigraphic sections for fossil preparations (Tables 1 and 2). Plant macrofossils, foraminifers, and fossil diatoms identified from the sections from each locality are broadly divided into two biozones (see Fig. 3). I define a biozone as the stratigraphic interval containing a distinctive set of diatoms and plant macrofossils. The boundaries between biozones were visually estimated and coincide with major stratigraphic changes, primarily the burial of lowland soils by intertidal mud or peat that occurred about 1100 yr ago.

Tidal datum levels are useful for reference; I refer mainly to mean lower low water (MLLW) and mean higher high water (MHHW). I determined local mean lower low water (MLLW) on the basis of measurements of the elevation of high tide at each site and the heights of the same tides observed at Seattle by the National Ocean Survey (NOS). I then calculated tidal elevations for the site by assigning to the measured tide level at each site the corresponding level for that same tide at the nearest NOAA tidal benchmark (generally 13 km or less away).

Samples for radiocarbon ages included plant material from outcrops and bark-bearing wood from in situ tree stumps (Fig. 2). I report conventional radiocarbon ages as ^14C yr B.P. I used the computer program OxCal (Ramsey, 1995) and the INTCAL98 calibration data of Stuiver et al. (1998) to calibrate the reported ages; the 95% confidence interval of each calibrated age is reported as cal yr B.P. (before A.D. 2000). I also refer to rounded ages for events as occurring years before A.D. 2000; thus, a calibrated age of 900 cal yr B.P. is about 1100 yr ago.

My approach to paleoecological reconstructions relies on combined analyses of plant macrofossils, diatoms, and foraminifers. This approach is powerful because each of the analyses yields distinct paleoenvironmental information that, when combined, leads to a robust
### EVIDENCE FOR EARTHQUAKE-INDUCED SUBSIDENCE ABOUT 1100 YR AGO

#### TABLE 1. DESCRIPTION OF STRATIGRAPHIC UNITS AND RADIOCARBON SAMPLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Lithologic description</th>
<th>Radiocarbon age</th>
<th>Depth(^1)</th>
<th>Lab no.(^5)</th>
<th>Material</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(^{14})C yr B.P.)</td>
<td>cal yr(^2)</td>
<td>(m)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Little Skookum Inlet locality</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSI-1</td>
<td>Gray mud, massive to laminated, no fossils, occasionally hard, slightly sandy in places.</td>
<td>7030 ± 70</td>
<td>7690–7970 B.C.</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>Beta-97230 Peat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSI-2</td>
<td>Tan gyttja, massive to laminated, no fossils, gradational lower contact.</td>
<td>7520 ± 80</td>
<td>8160–8450 B.C.</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>Beta-97231 Peat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSI-3</td>
<td>Reddish-brown detrital peat, large pieces of wood common, small stems of woody plants abundant, seeds of herbaceous plants observed in field (Menyanthes sp., and Scirpus sp.).</td>
<td>1090 ± 60</td>
<td>A.D. 770–1040</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>Beta-95912 Wood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSI-4</td>
<td>Gray silty, fine to medium sand, orange mottles, massive</td>
<td>1140 ± 80</td>
<td>A.D. 680–1030</td>
<td>~2.30</td>
<td>Beta-102336 Leaf bases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSI-5</td>
<td>Gray mud, massive, orange mottles (esp. in upper part of unit), penetrative roots in upper part of unit,</td>
<td>140 ± 60</td>
<td>A.D. 1660–1960</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>Beta-117091 Leaf bases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSI-6</td>
<td>Dark brown woody peat to muddy peat, abundant stems of woody plants, conifer cones, abundant stumps of Pseudotsuga menziesii in growth position and occasionally Alnus rubra.</td>
<td>1010 ± 50</td>
<td>A.D. 860–940**</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>See Fig. 2 Wood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSI-7</td>
<td>Brown muddy fibrous peat, rhizomes of Distichlis spicata and rarely Triglochin maritima, contact with underlying unit sharp (≤1 mm) in most places.</td>
<td>130 ± 60</td>
<td>A.D. 1660–1960</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>Beta-109230 Leaf bases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>McAllister Creek locality</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MC-1</td>
<td>Brown fibrous peat, muddy, rhizomes of Distichlis spicata and Triglochin maritima.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MC-2</td>
<td>Gray mud, massive, no fossils observed.</td>
<td>1030 ± 70</td>
<td>A.D. 870–1190</td>
<td>~3.0</td>
<td>Beta-110150 Leaf bases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MC-3</td>
<td>Brown fibrous peat, slightly muddy, rhizomes of Scirpus maritimus and Juncus cf. balticus.</td>
<td>1010 ± 50</td>
<td>A.D. 890–1170</td>
<td></td>
<td>Beta-110746 Wood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MC-4</td>
<td>Gray-brown mud, couplets of laminated silt and clay at base of unit, lamination becoming faint in middle and top of unit, rhizomes of Triglochin maritima and Juncus cf. balticus present at base of unit just above contact with MC-3.</td>
<td>1200 ± 14</td>
<td>A.D. 820–940***</td>
<td></td>
<td>QL-4634 Wood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MC-5</td>
<td>Brown, fine sand, moderately well sorted, distinctive grains of red scoria present throughout.</td>
<td>130 ± 60</td>
<td>A.D. 1660–1960</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>Beta-109230 Leaf bases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MC-6</td>
<td>Orange-brown muddy peat, oxidized in most places.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nisqually River locality</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NR-1</td>
<td>Brown fibrous peat, no distinguishable fossils. At or just below river level at low tide, and underlain by gray mud and another fibrous peat (below mud).</td>
<td>1030 ± 70</td>
<td>A.D. 870–1190</td>
<td>~3.0</td>
<td>Beta-110150 Leaf bases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NR-2</td>
<td>Gray-brown mud, couplets of laminated silt and clay at base of units, becoming faint in middle and top of unit.</td>
<td>1010 ± 50</td>
<td>A.D. 890–1170</td>
<td></td>
<td>Beta-110746 Wood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NR-3</td>
<td>Brown fine sand, massive, moderately well sorted, unconformity at base with small channel feature.</td>
<td>1200 ± 14</td>
<td>A.D. 820–940***</td>
<td></td>
<td>QL-4634 Wood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NR-4</td>
<td>Gray-brown mud, laminated in places, otherwise massive.</td>
<td>130 ± 60</td>
<td>A.D. 1660–1960</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>Beta-109230 Leaf bases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NR-5</td>
<td>Brown fine sand, massive appearance, moderately well sorted.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NR-6</td>
<td>Reddish-brown peaty mud, with coarse woody roots (modern) in upper half of unit.</td>
<td>1010 ± 50</td>
<td>A.D. 890–1170</td>
<td></td>
<td>Beta-110746 Wood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Red Salmon Creek locality</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RSC-1</td>
<td>Gray fine, micaceous silty sand, massive in appearance. Thin black layer at top (~2 cm thick), mud clasts and stems of woody plants in lower half of unit.</td>
<td>Wiggle match</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RSC-2</td>
<td>Brown fibrous peat, Distichlis spicata rhizomes and faint lamination in places.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RSC-3</td>
<td>Brown-gray mud, couplets of laminated silt and clay at base of unit (1–2 cm thick) lamination becoming faint in middle and top of unit, Triglochin maritima rhizomes in upper part of unit.</td>
<td>130 ± 60</td>
<td>A.D. 1660–1960</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>Beta-109230 Leaf bases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RSC-4</td>
<td>Brown muddy peat, reddish-orange mottles, Triglochin maritima and Distichlis spicata rhizomes throughout, wood observed above gradational contact at base of unit.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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\(^1\)Depth below modern surface.
\(^2\)Sediments.
\(^3\)QL—University of Washington Quaternary Isotope Laboratory; Beta—Beta Analytical, Inc.
\(^4\)Innermost 16 rings of root slab KW8–5 (age result was assumed on midpoint of sample, or ring 8).
\(^5\)Calibrated age offset by number of tree rings from midpoint of sample to outermost ring (98 tree rings).
\(^6\)Calibrated age offset by number of tree rings from midpoint of sample to outermost ring (83 tree rings).
\(^7\)Ordered sequence of samples QL-4935 and QL-4937 (see Fig. 2).
\(^8\)Calibrated age offset by number of tree rings from midpoint of sample to outermost ring (48 tree rings).
Mallister Creek

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Biozone</th>
<th>Depth (m)</th>
<th>Dominant fossils</th>
<th>Paleoenvironmental interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BZ2</td>
<td>0.34–0</td>
<td>Macr...</td>
<td>Low to high brackish-water marsh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.0–0.34</td>
<td>Macr...</td>
<td>Fresh-water mash and Douglas fir forest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| McAllister Creek
| BZ2     | 2.32–0    | Macr... | Brackish-water, low marsh–tidal flat (at base) to high marsh (at top) |
| BZ1     | 2.95–2.32 | Macr... | Brackish-water, high marsh |
| Nisqually River
| BZ2     | 3.12–0    | Macr... | Brackish-water, low marsh–tidal flat (at base) to high marsh (at top) |
| BZ1     | 3.4–3.12  | Macr... | Brackish-water, high marsh |
| Red Salmon Creek
| BZ2     | 1.68–0    | Macr... | Low marsh to tidal flat |
| BZ1     | 2.0–1.68  | Macr... | Douglas fir forest |

**TABLE 2. BIOZONES AND PALEOENVIRONMENTAL INTERPRETATIONS**

**Little Skookum Inlet Locality**

**Stratigraphy**

The Little Skookum Inlet locality consists of a large tidal marsh and tidal flat bordered by lowland forest northwest of the marsh (Fig. 1). Most deposits beneath the marsh and tidal flat consist of intercalated peat and mud (LSI-1–LSI-6 in Figs. 3 and 4); a lowland soil and fossil Douglas fir stumps are near the top of the sequence. Douglas fir stumps are associated with a buried soil (LSI-6), consisting of a dark brown to black detrital peat with conifer cones, logs, and abundant detrital woody stems. Salt-marsh peat (LSI-7) containing abundant Distichlis spicata and rare Triglochin maritima rhizomes overlies the buried forest soil (LSI-6). A sharp contact (~1 mm wide) separates the peat from the underlying buried soil.

Radiocarbon ages provide evidence for the timing of submergence and burial of the forest soil at Little Skookum Inlet (Fig. 2). A high-precision radiocarbon measurement on rings 70–95 from a Douglas fir root (counted inward from the outermost ring adjoining bark) yielded an age of 1222 ± 15 14 C yr B.P. (QL-4633, rings 70–95), and calibrates to 1150–980 cal yr B.P. The outermost 15–25 rings of a large Douglas fir root (with attached bark) yielded a conventional radiocarbon age of 1090 ± 60 14 C yr B.P. (Beta-95912). The calibrated age for this sample is 1180–910 cal yr B.P. (Fig. 2). A second sample from the inner 16 rings of a separate Douglas fir root (with a total of 192 rings), yielded a radiocarbon age of 1220 ± 50 14 C yr B.P. (Beta-102335); the calibrated age for death of this tree is 1090–800 cal yr B.P. (radiocarbon age is offset by 184 yr, the number of tree-ring years from the midpoint of the sample and the outermost ring adjoining bark). The overlap in these two calibrated age ranges implies no statistical difference in the time of tree death. A radiocarbon age on Triglochin maritima rhizomes, collected from 65 to 70 cm below the marsh surface (or 45–50 cm above the buried soil) from an outcrop of peat at horizontal coordinate 305 m (Fig. 4), yielded an age of 140 ± 60 14 C yr B.P. (Beta-117091) and a calibrated age of 290–10 cal yr B.P.

**Paleoecology**

Biozone BZ-1, from the lower part of the stratigraphic sequence, is dominated by macrofossils of lowland forest shrubs and herbs, arboreal taxa, and fresh-water and cosmopolitan diatoms (Fig. 5). Plant macrofossils include follicles of Spirea douglasii, seeds of Betula papyrifera, Carex cf. leporina, Carex cf. aquatilis, Rubus spectabilis, Sambucus racemosa, Juncus sp., and leaves of Thuja plicata, Picea sitchensis, and Taxus brevifolia. Dozens of Pseudotsuga menziesii (Douglas fir) stumps in growth position crop out at the top of BZ-1. Two samples from just below the top of BZ-1 contained rare foraminifers, pos-
sibly infaunal contamination from overlying deposits (one specimen in each of two samples).

Seeds of Juncus sp. and salt-marsh plants, including Atriplex patula, Carex lyngbyei, and Deschampsia caespitosa, dominate the macrofossils of biozone BZ-2. Large numbers of foraminifers are common throughout this zone. The diatoms from BZ-2 are dominated by brackish and marine taxa, including Diploneis interrupta, Nitzschia bilobata, Melosira nummuloides, Tryblionella debils, Paralia sulcata, and Caloneis westii (Fig. 5). Smaller quantities of cosmopolitan and fresh-water diatoms are present in this zone.

McAllister Creek Locality

Stratigraphy

The McAllister Creek locality consists of an outcrop ~150 m long of late Holocene sediments exposed in a cutbank of a large tidal creek meander at the Nisqually delta (Figs. 1 and 4). Two beds of fibrous peat (units MC-1 and MC-3) crop out at the base of the section. Each peat contains rhizomes of salt-marsh plants, and the peats are separated by a massive gray mud about 20–25 cm thick (MC-2). A sharp contact (~1 mm) separates the uppermost peat layer (MC-3) from overlying gray-brown, laminated mud (MC-4). A sample of Triglochin maritima leaf bases from immediately above the contact yielded a radiocarbon age of 1140 ± 80 14C yr B.P. (Beta-102336), and a calibrated age of 1270–920 cal yr B.P. (Fig. 2). An oxidized muddy peat (MC-6, modern marsh soil), locally underlain by brown, fine sand (MC-5) caps the outcrop.

A thin sand dike (~2 cm thick at widest point) and sand volcano, consisting of gray fine sand, crops out in the lower part of the outcrop (Fig. 6). During times of exceptionally low water, I observed the dike cutting across MC-1, MC-2, and MC-3. Vented sand, tapering away from the dike, occurs on the upper surface of MC-3; the thickest accumulation of sand (~5 cm) is directly above the dike.

Paleoecology

Charcoal fragments dominate the samples from BZ-1 sieved for macrofossils (Fig. 7). Conifer needles (burned and unidentified) and Sambucus racemosa seeds are common. Two samples from this zone contain foraminifera. Diatoms from BZ-1 are dominated by taxa common to salt marshes and tidal flats (Fig. 7), including Achnanthes brevipes, Diploneisinterrupta, Luticola mutica, Melosira nummuloides, and Navicula cincta. Melosira nummuloides, a common tidal-flat diatom at the base of the zone, decreases in relative abundance at the top of the zone. Diploneisinterrupta, a common high or low marsh taxon (Hemphill-Haley, 1995) is subdominant at the base of BZ-1 but becomes more abundant than all other diatoms at the top of the zone.

The base of biozone BZ-2 at McAllister Creek is marked by seeds of Spergularia canadensis, Scirpus cf. maritimus, and Distichlis spicata, and by the disappearance of charcoal fragments (Fig. 7). The change in macrofossils coincides with the sharp contact between the buried marsh soil (MC-3) and the overlying laminated mud (MC-4). Seeds of brackish-and salt-marsh plants, including Carex lyngbyei, Salicornia virginica, and Spergularia canadensis, dominate the middle and upper parts of BZ-2. Foraminifera show up in several samples, mainly in the middle and upper parts of the zone. Diatoms from BZ-2 consist of assemblages similar to those of BZ-1, but
Figure 3. Summary of stratigraphy, radiocarbon ages, biozones, and environmental interpretations for each locality. Inferred changes in elevation and salinity are indicated on the right.

there are large changes in the relative percentages of most taxa across the boundary between the two biozones (Fig. 7). The most conspicuous change occurs with Melosira nummuloides, which dramatically increases in abundance at the base of BZ-2. Diploneis interrupta, a common low to high marsh taxon (Hemphill-Haley, 1995; Sherrod, 1999) decreases in relative abundance across the zonal boundary. The top of BZ-2 is dominated by brackish water marsh and tidal-flat taxa, including Achnanthes brevipes, Caloneis westii, Gyrosigma eximium, Melosira nummuloides, and Mastogloia elliptica.

Nisqually River Locality

Stratigraphy

The Nisqually River locality consists of a 50-m-long outcrop on the east bank of the Nisqually River, about 1.5 km downstream of Interstate 5 (Figs. 1 and 8). The stratigraphy at this locality resembles the sequence at McAllister Creek. The lower half of the outcrop consists of interbedded peat and mud (NR-1). A sharp (<1 mm wide) contact separates NR-1 from overlying brown-gray, laminated mud (NR-2). Triglochin maritima rhizomes persist into the middle and upper parts of BZ-2. Samples from the lower half of BZ-2 contained foraminifera. The diatom flora from BZ-2 contains many brackish water marsh and tidal-flat taxa, particularly in the lower half of the zone. Melosira nummuloides, a common tidal-flat diatom, appears for the first time at the base of the zone immediately above the contact between the buried soil and overlying mud (~2 cm, Fig. 9). Other dominant diatoms in the lower half of BZ-2 include Navicula slesvicensis, Denticula subtilis, Achnanthes brevipes, and Carex lyngbyei persist into the middle and upper parts of BZ-2. Samples from the lower half of BZ-2 contained foraminifera.

Paleoecology

Seeds of Juncus cf. balticus and Potentilla pacifica, both common high marsh plants, are the dominant macrofossils from biozone BZ-1 at the Nisqually River locality (Fig. 9). Salicornia virginica and Graminaeae (Dactylus sp.) also appear in this zone but are rare. I did not recover any foraminifera from this zone. Diatoms from BZ-1 are dominated by fresh-water and cosmopolitan marsh taxa, including Eurinia pectinata, Pinnularia setigera, Cosmioneis pusilla, and Luticola matica (Fig. 9). Brackish water species, such as Diploneis interrupta and Achnanthes brevipes, are also common in BZ-1.

The base of biozone BZ-2 is marked by the disappearance of Juncus sp. seeds, and by the presence of Salicornia virginica, Triglochin maritima, and Spargularia canadensis seeds. This change in the macrofossils occurs at the stratigraphic contact between the buried marsh soil (NR-1, upper peat) and the overlying laminated mud (NR-2). Seeds of salt-marsh plants, including Juncus sp. Atriplex patula, Triglochin maritima, Salicornia virginica, and Carex lyngbyei persist into the middle and upper parts of BZ-2. Samples from the lower half of BZ-2 contained foraminifera.

The diatom flora from BZ-2 contains many brackish water marsh and tidal-flat taxa, particularly in the lower half of the zone. Melosira nummuloides, a common tidal-flat diatom, appears for the first time at the base of the zone immediately above the contact between the buried soil and overlying mud (~2 cm, Fig. 9). Other dominant diatoms in the lower half of BZ-2 include Navicula slesvicensis, Denticula subtilis, Achnanthes delica-tula, Trachyneis aspera, Amphora ventricosa, and other brackish-marine diatom taxa. The upper four samples from BZ-2 contain several valves of fresh-water diatoms, including Pinnularia borealis, Hantzschia amphioxys, and Pinnularia subcapitata.
The lowest unit (RSC-1) is a gray, massive, fine to medium sand, with Douglas fir stumps in growth position at the top. A thin blackened zone in the upper few centimeters of RSC-1 contains charcoal. A sample of wood from the outer rings of a stump rooted in the top of RSC-1 (at horizontal coordinate 4 m) yielded a conventional radiocarbon age of 1010 ± 650 14C yr B.P. (Beta-110746) and a calibrated age range of 1060–780 cal yr B.P. (Fig. 2). High-precision radiocarbon ages from a single root section of another Douglas fir stump yielded ages of 1184 ± 611 14C yr B.P. (QL-4635, rings 40–45, calibrated to 1170–1050 cal yr B.P., and 1143 ± 154 14C yr B.P. (QL-4937, rings 3–10, calibrated to 1080–970 cal yr B.P.). A “wiggle match” of the ages for QL-4635 and QL-4937 on the calibration curve (Ramsey, 1995) yielded an age of 1090–1010 cal yr B.P. for the death of the tree (Figs. 2 and 3). I obtained a high-precision radiocarbon age of 1200 ± 614 14C yr B.P. (QL-4934, RSC tree 3 rings 45–50, calibrated to 1180–1060 cal yr B.P.) from another preserved stump at horizontal coordinate 5 m (Fig. 8).

The remainder of the section consists of locally discontinuous, fibrous peat (RSC-2, with rhizomes of Distichlis spicata, Triglochin maritima leaf bases, and Juncus cf. balticus), and gray-brown, laminated mud (RSC-3) lying unconformably on RSC-2. A sample of Triglochin maritima leaf bases at horizontal coordinate 10 m (80 cm above the contact between RSC-2 and RSC-3) gave an age of 130 ± 60 14C yr B.P. (Beta-109230) and a calibrated age of 290–10 cal yr B.P. (Fig. 2). A mottled, reddish-brown muddy peat (RSC-4), containing modern roots and rhizomes caps the sequence at Red Salmon Creek.

Paleoecology

The macrofossils from BZ-1 at Red Salmon Creek include Picea sitchensis and Pseudotsuga menziesii needles, and Sambucus racemosa seeds (Fig. 10). The top of the zone is marked by abundant charcoal fragments, observed in the field as a blackened zone at the top of RSC-1 (gray sand). Stumps of Douglas fir (Pseudotsuga menziesii) in growth position are common from the top of BZ-1, protruding from the top of stratigraphic unit RSC-1. No diatoms were observed in any of the samples processed from BZ-1.

Biozone BZ-2 at Red Salmon Creek contains scarce macrofossils at the base of the zone, but seeds of salt-marsh plants, including Triglochin maritima, Sparganium canadensis, Grindelia integrifolia, Salicornia virginica, and Arrilplex patula, dominate the upper part of BZ-2. Foraminifera are common in every sample from BZ-2. The diatom flora of BZ-2 is dominated by brackish water taxa (Fig. 10). Low marsh and tidal-flat diatoms are at the base of this zone, ~2 cm above the top of RSC-1, including Caloneis westii, Diploneis interrupta, Trachyneis aspera, and Paralia sulcata. Species composition gradually changes upward, with Gyrosigma eximium, Achnanthes brevipes, Melosira nummuloides, and Nitzschia tenuis dominating the flora in the top half of BZ-2.

PALEOECOLOGICAL INFERENCES OF ELEVATION AND SALINITY CHANGES

I used paleoecological inferences based on forest soils and intertidal deposits to estimate the former elevation of each site through time. For intertidal deposits, I employed a weighted averaging technique to reconstruct past elevation from coastal diatom assemblages. The reconstructions are based on a training set of 39 modern diatom samples, collected from five coastal marshes in Puget Sound, coupled with elevation measurements relative to MLLW (Sherrod, 1998, 1999).1 Similarity measurements were used to test whether each fossil sample had an appropriate analog in the modern training set (Schweitzer, 1994). All but two fossil samples had good modern analogs (NISQ-15B and MC-04B; see Fig. 11).
Figure 5. Fossils recovered from the Little Skookum Inlet locality. Biozones are labeled on the right. Lithologic patterns are the same as those shown in Figure 4. (Top) Plant macrofossils and foraminifera, expressed as number of fossils per 20 cc (cc = cm³) of sediment. (Bottom) Relative abundance of fossil diatoms grouped according to stratigraphic succession.

These samples differ from the modern samples because one or two diatom taxa that are not well represented in the modern samples dominate the fossil assemblage (*Diploneis ovalis* and *Tabellaria fenestrata*). I used elevations of modern forest analogs to estimate paleoelevations of soil horizons lacking well-preserved diatom assemblages.

At Little Skookum Inlet and Red Salmon Creek, I used the lowest elevations of living conifers near each site to infer paleoelevations of stump-bearing forest soil horizons (LSI-6 and RSC-1). The lowest modern conifers near the Little Skookum Inlet locality (Fig. 1) were Sitka spruce (*Picea sitchensis*) trees living at the forest-marsh edge at an elevation of 4.8 m above MLLW (Fig. 4). At Red Salmon Creek, the nearest living conifer is a Douglas fir (*Pseudotsuga menziesii*) at 4.7 m above MLLW. Therefore, I assigned a minimum paleoelevation of 4.8 m and 4.7 m above MLLW for the stump-bearing horizons at the Little Skookum Inlet and Red Salmon Creek localities, respectively. These elevations are limiting minima because the fossil trees may have lived at higher elevations. Paleoelevation estimates are also subject to modification due to local site characteristics. For instance, at Little Skookum Inlet, drainage of the forest area adjacent to the...
marsh is impeded, and consequently, Douglas fir is restricted to drier sites at higher elevations (≥7m above MLLW). If hydrologic conditions 1100 yr ago at Little Skookum Inlet were similar to those at the site today, then it is likely that the fossil Douglas fir trees also lived at higher elevations (Fig. 4). At Red Salmon Creek, the local topography at the forest edge is more abrupt, forest soils are better drained, and Douglas fir grows down to the salt-marsh-forest ecotone (Fig. 8).

**Elevation Reconstructions**

Reconstructed elevations (relative to MLLW) for fossil diatom samples show one major elevation change at each site in the past ~1100 yr (Fig. 11). A large decrease in inferred elevation at Little Skookum Inlet, Nisqually River, and Red Salmon Creek occurred between BZ-1 and BZ-2, coinciding with the burial of a lowland soil by intertidal peat or mud at each site about 1100 yr ago. Inferred elevations are highest for the buried soil at each locality; elevations ranged from ~4.8 m (lowest Sitka spruce) to 7.2 m (lowest Douglas fir) at Little Skookum Inlet, ~4.8 m at Red Salmon Creek, and 3.7 m to 4.3 m for the buried high marsh soils at the McAllister Creek and Nisqually River sites.

I infer lower elevations for the estuarine mud or peat that overlies the buried soil at each locality (Fig. 11). The change in elevation is marked by the boundary between BZ-1 and BZ-2. At Little Skookum Inlet, the lowest sample in the salt-marsh peat (LSI-7) above the buried soil (LSI-6) has an inferred elevation of 3.8 m relative to MLLW, or at least ~1–3 m below the pre-1100-yr-old forest floor. In contrast, laminated mud above buried high marsh soils at the McAllister Creek and Nisqually River localities has an inferred elevation of 3.4 m, indicating about 1 m of submergence at each site 1100 yr ago. Inferred elevation for fibrous peat above the buried forest horizon at the Red Salmon Creek locality was 3.5 m, suggesting at least 1 m of submergence at that site.

There are small differences in inferred elevation changes between the sites at Nisqually delta. Diatom assemblages from McAllister Creek indicate about 0.5 m of elevation change, yet lithologic changes and *Triglochin* leaf bases in growth position suggest that submergence could have been as much as 1 m. Submergence at this site failed to kill *Triglochin maritima* and *Juncus balticus*, as seen by growth of *Triglochin* leaf bases and *Juncus* rhizomes in the laminated mud immediately above the buried soil. At Nisqually River, diatom assemblages indicate about 1 m of elevation change, consistent with lithologic changes and *Triglochin* leaf bases in growth position in the mud overlying the buried high marsh soil. At Red Salmon Creek, salt-marsh peat overlying a Douglas fir forest floor suggests at least 1 m of submergence. The differences in inferred elevation change about 1100 yr ago between sites at Nisqually delta are small and could result from several factors. These factors include error in estimating former elevations of intertidal environments, error associated with inferring the elevation of the fossil Douglas fir trees, and possible variable amounts of compaction-induced submergence following an earthquake. Following abrupt submergence about 1100 yr ago, inferred elevations remained essentially uniform at each site (Fig. 11), suggesting that sedimentation and marsh accretion kept pace with rising sea level.

**POSSIBLE CAUSES OF ABRUPT SUBMERGENCE**

Coseismic subsidence of the land best explains submergence of lowland soils in southern Puget Sound 1100 yr ago. The submergence happened fast enough to produce sharp (≤1 mm) contacts between the buried lowland soils and overlying estuarine deposits. A sand dike cuts across the high marsh soil at McAllister Creek (MC-3) and vented sand lies on the former soil surface, indicating that submergence of the high marsh soil was accompanied by ground shaking severe enough to cause liquefaction. High-precision radiocarbon ages of submergence-killed trees indicate that submergence of ~1 m occurred between 1150 and 1010 cal yr B.P. Alternative explanations for submergence include settling and compaction, submergence without land subsidence, or breaching of a sandy, bay-mouth bar. However, the lithostratigraphic and biostratigraphic changes observed in southern Puget Sound are not easily explained by these alternatives.

**PREHISTORIC EARTHQUAKES IN SOUTHERN PUGET SOUND**

This study documents tectonic deformation in southern Puget Sound, an area of no known
active faults. Moreover, these findings confound an emerging pattern of late Holocene deformation that covers much of the Puget Sound region (Fig. 12). The pattern of deformation observed in Puget Sound suggests that the entire region is susceptible to the effects of large earthquakes.

We can attribute the deformation in southern Puget Sound to three main sources: rupture along a local fault, rupture on the Seattle fault, and deformation related to a great earthquake along the Cascadia subduction zone. At present, no source is ruled out, because the dates of submergence in southern Puget Sound, the last Seattle fault event, and the penultimate Cascadia subduction zone earthquake all overlap in time.

Faulting on Local Structures

Faults in southern Puget Sound are candidate sources for the subsidence that affected that part of the sound. These sources include high-amplitude geophysical structures identified in southern Puget Sound (structures L and K of Gower et al., 1985), and several smaller faults throughout the area (e.g., north of Nisqually delta, University of Washington, Department of Geological Sciences report). Structures L and K were originally interpreted as simple folds in Eocene bedrock, but they may be associated with fault-propagation folds above blind faults. The observed pattern of deformation conforms reasonably well to the high-amplitude geophysical anomalies (Fig. 12).

Paleoseismologic evidence indicates that uplift occurred about 1100 yr ago in a broad band between Lynch Cove and Burley, about 20 km north of Nisqually delta and Little Skookum Inlet (Bucknam et al., 1992). While this band of uplift lacks a clearly defined fault source, it occurred at about the same time as the Seattle fault event and appears to conform to the north side of structure K. Furthermore, the distance separating the areas of uplift and subsidence (Fig. 12) suggests that more than one structure or splays of a large structure are responsible for the pattern of late Holocene land deformation.

Bourgeois and Johnson (2001) documented evidence for as many as three earthquakes in the past 1200 yr at the Snohomish River delta. Liquefaction features and a tsunami deposit from the oldest event have ages that fall within the age range for the Seattle fault event between 1050 and 960 cal yr B.P. Thus, their ages indicate two earthquakes closely spaced in time between 1050 and 960 cal yr B.P. It is possible that the liquefaction features dated between A.D. 910 and 990 at the Snohomish River delta and subsidence in southern Puget Sound are related to the same earthquake, which postdates the 1050–1020 cal yr B.P. Seattle fault event. The large amount of inferred subsidence at Skookum Inlet (possibly >3 m) may be the combined subsidence from two earthquakes closely spaced in time, each of which resulted in <1.5 m of subsidence. Two buried soils at Nisqually delta also suggest two earthquakes over a short time period.

Effects of Seattle Fault Rupture

A low-angle thrust contiguous with the Seattle fault is among the possible earthquake sources, because the ages for subsidence in southern Puget Sound fall within the 1050–1020 cal yr B.P. age range for the most recent Seattle fault earthquake (Fig. 2). An earthquake on the Seattle fault is best dated by a Douglas fir log found embedded in a tsunami deposit exposed in excavations at the West Point sewage treatment facility (Fig. 1). Several high-precision ages on a single radial section through this log indicate that the tree died between 1050 and 1020 cal yr B.P. (Atwater, 1999; Atwater and Moore, 1992). High-precision radiocarbon ages on wood samples from submergence-killed trees in southern Puget Sound indicate that a large earthquake struck between 1150 and 1010 cal yr B.P. Probability distributions of calibrated radiocarbon ages for tree death from southern Puget Sound and West Point show considerable overlap, suggesting that the Seattle fault earth-

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**Figure 8. (A) Stratigraphy of the Nisqually River locality. (B) Stratigraphy of the Red Salmon Creek locality.**
EVIDENCE FOR EARTHQUAKE-INDUCED SUBSIDENCE ABOUT 1100 YR AGO

Figure 9. Fossils recovered from the Nisqually River locality. Biozones are labeled on the right. Lithologic patterns are the same as those shown in Figure 4. (Top) Plant macrofossils and foraminifera, expressed as number of fossils per 20 cc (cc = cm$^3$) of sediment. (Bottom) Relative abundance of fossil diatoms grouped according to stratigraphic succession.

Figure 10. Fossils recovered from the Red Salmon Creek locality. Biozones are labeled on the right. Lithologic patterns are the same as those shown in Figure 4. (Top) Plant macrofossils and foraminifera, expressed as number of fossils per 20 cc (cc = cm$^3$) of sediment. (Bottom) Relative abundance of fossil diatoms grouped according to stratigraphic succession.
Figure 11. Inferred elevation changes from weighted averaging of fossil diatom assemblages. The horizontal dashed line correlates the buried soil at each locality; selected radiocarbon dates are shown. Note abrupt subsidence across the contact of buried soil and overlying deposit. Diagonal-ruled area in Nisqually River plot indicates a stratigraphic interval where reconstructions were not possible because of poor preservation.

Figure 12. Map showing areas of uplift and subsidence in Puget Sound about 1100 yr ago (Bucknam et al., 1992; Atwater and Moore, 1992). Fault locations are from Johnson et al. (1999) and Gower et al. (1985).

Quake and submergence in southern Puget Sound occurred either as a single, large event or during two events closely spaced in time (Fig. 2).

Distal Effects of Coeval Plate Boundary Earthquake

Subsidence in southern Puget Sound coincides roughly with submergence of wetlands and an unusual eruption of liquefied sand along the Pacific coast about 85 km to the west of Little Skookum Inlet (Atwater, 1992; Atwater and Hemphill-Haley, 1997). The wetland submergence and sand eruption occurred during a Cascadia subduction zone earthquake about 1100 yr ago. Submergence along the Pacific Coast and in southern Puget Sound at about the same time suggests that both areas subsided during the same event. However, geophysical models of the Cascadia subduction zone suggest that submergence during a great earthquake would not extend into the Puget Sound area (Hyndman and Wang, 1993).

At several sites in Puget Sound, meager evidence exists for submergence coincident with other great earthquakes along the Cascadia subduction zone. A buried soil at Henderson Inlet near Olympia dates to around 300 yr ago and may correlate to the last subduction zone earthquake (Bucknam, 1999; B.F. Atwater, 2000, personal commun.). A submergence event at Restoration Point along the Seattle fault dates to 1870–1530 cal yr B.P. and may correlate to the Cascadia subduction zone event marked by soil S of Atwater and Hemphill-Haley (1997) dated to about 1600 yr ago (Sherrod et al., 2000). Additional dating of buried trees and organic material and detailed micropaleontology studies of these buried soils may help clarify whether the submergence resulted from a subduction zone earthquake. The 1964 Alaska subduction zone earthquake provides an analog, during which subsidence of up to 2 m occurred several hundred kilometers inland (Plafker, 1969).

Lack of Tsunami Deposits

Sand sheets indicative of a paleotsunami are conspicuously absent in coastal marsh deposits around southern Puget Sound. Tsunami deposits presumably associated with the A.D. 900–930 Seattle fault event were identified at several coastal marshes in central and northern Puget Sound (Atwater and Moore, 1992; Bucknam et al., 1992). All but one of these sites are located between Seattle and Whidbey Island, along the coastline of Puget Sound's
main basin, the exception being Lynch Cove on Hood Canal (Fig. 1). The lack of a tsunami deposit at Nisqually delta from the Seattle fault event about 1100 yr ago suggests that the tsunami did not make it into southern Puget Sound or was too small in southern Puget Sound to leave a lasting geologic record.

CONCLUSIONS

A buried soil records abrupt submergence between 1270 and 910 cal yr B.P. at Little Skookum Inlet and at three localities in the Nisqually delta. High-precision radiocarbon ages place the time of submergence between 1150 and 1010 cal yr B.P. The most likely cause of submergence is subsidence during an earthquake. The coseismic subsidence was at least 1 m at Little Skookum Inlet (possibly >3 m) and about 1 m at the Nisqually delta. A sand dike connected to vented sand at the Nisqually delta indicates ground shaking at the time of subsidence.

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