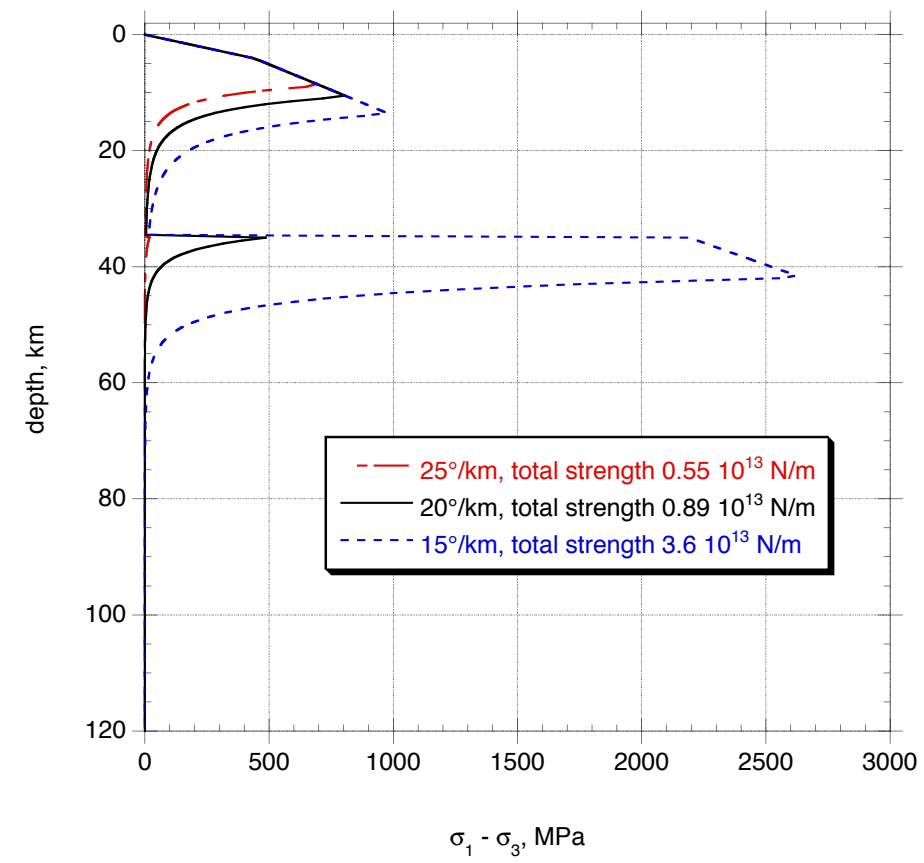


What drives deformation?

Most simply put, it is when stresses overcome strength

So, what is strength? Where do stresses come from?

Compression, strain rate 10^{-15} s^{-1} , quartzite over olivene



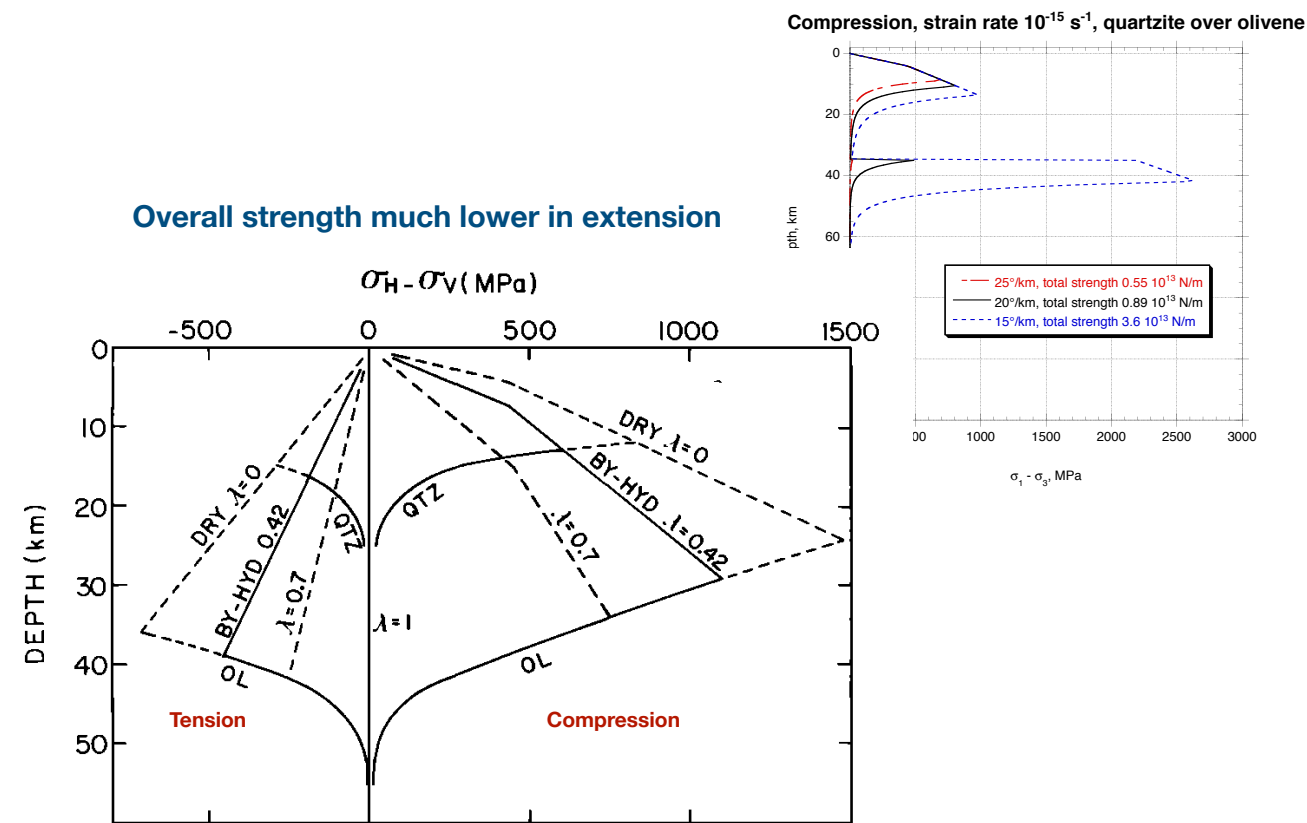
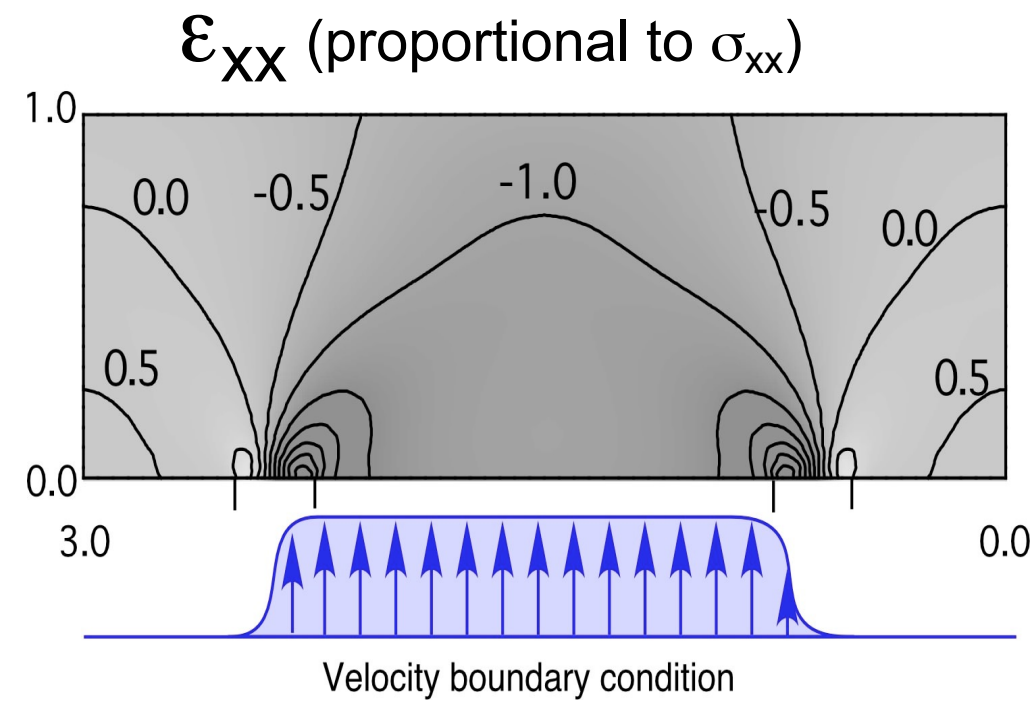


Fig. 5. Difference between maximum or minimum horizontal stress and the vertical stress as a function of depth. Values of λ give pore pressure level. See also Figure 4.

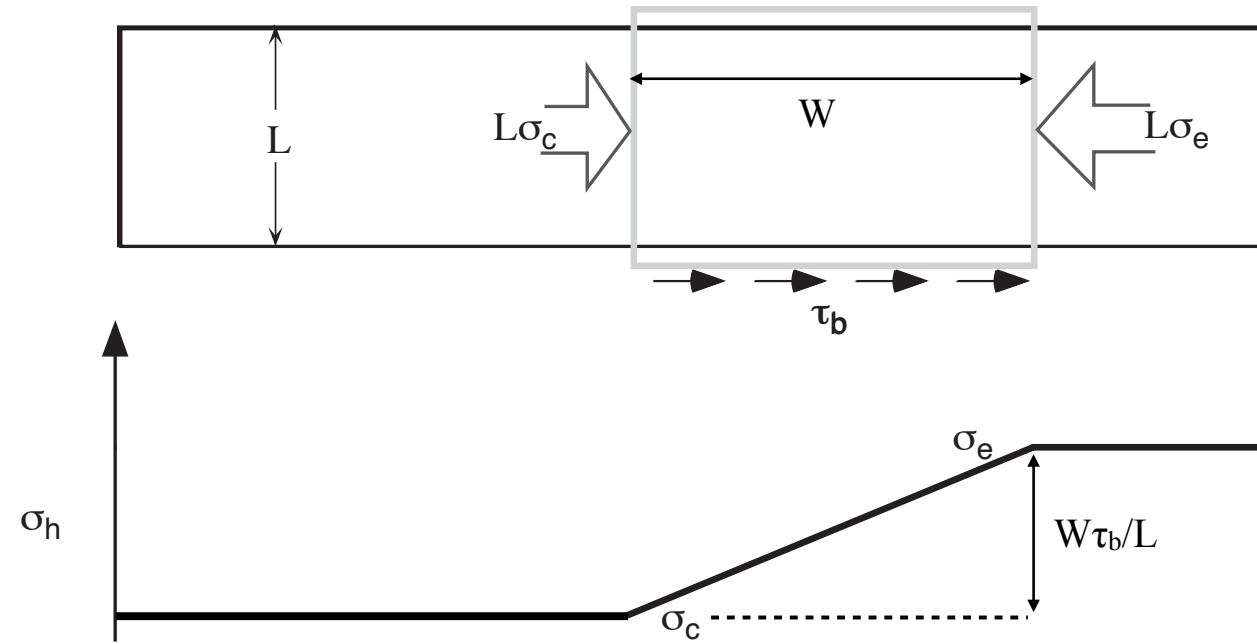
What of stresses?

For edge forces, deformation should decrease with distance from edge...



Modified from Sonder and Jones (1999)

Basal shear stress

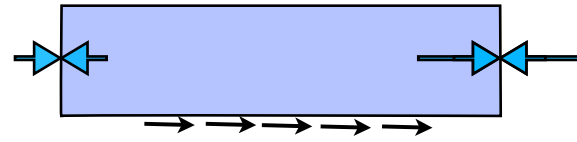


...great way to get higher horizontal stresses far inland
(produces shortening to the right)

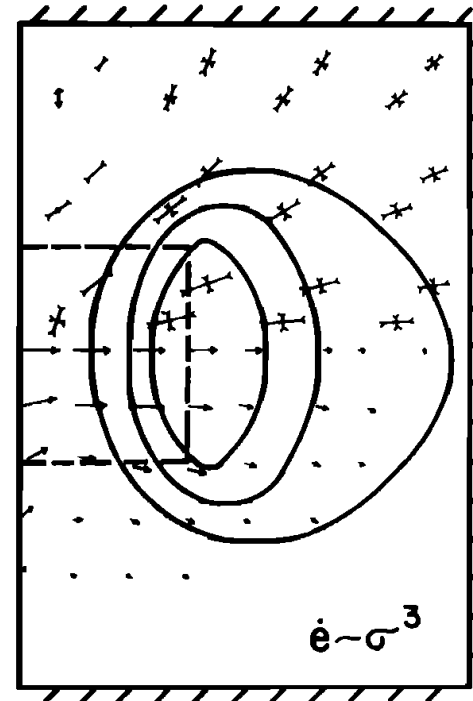
But for normal faulting, can we get lower stresses?

This is the classic flat slab model for the Laramide; note it requires that basal shear to be pretty high.

Basal shear

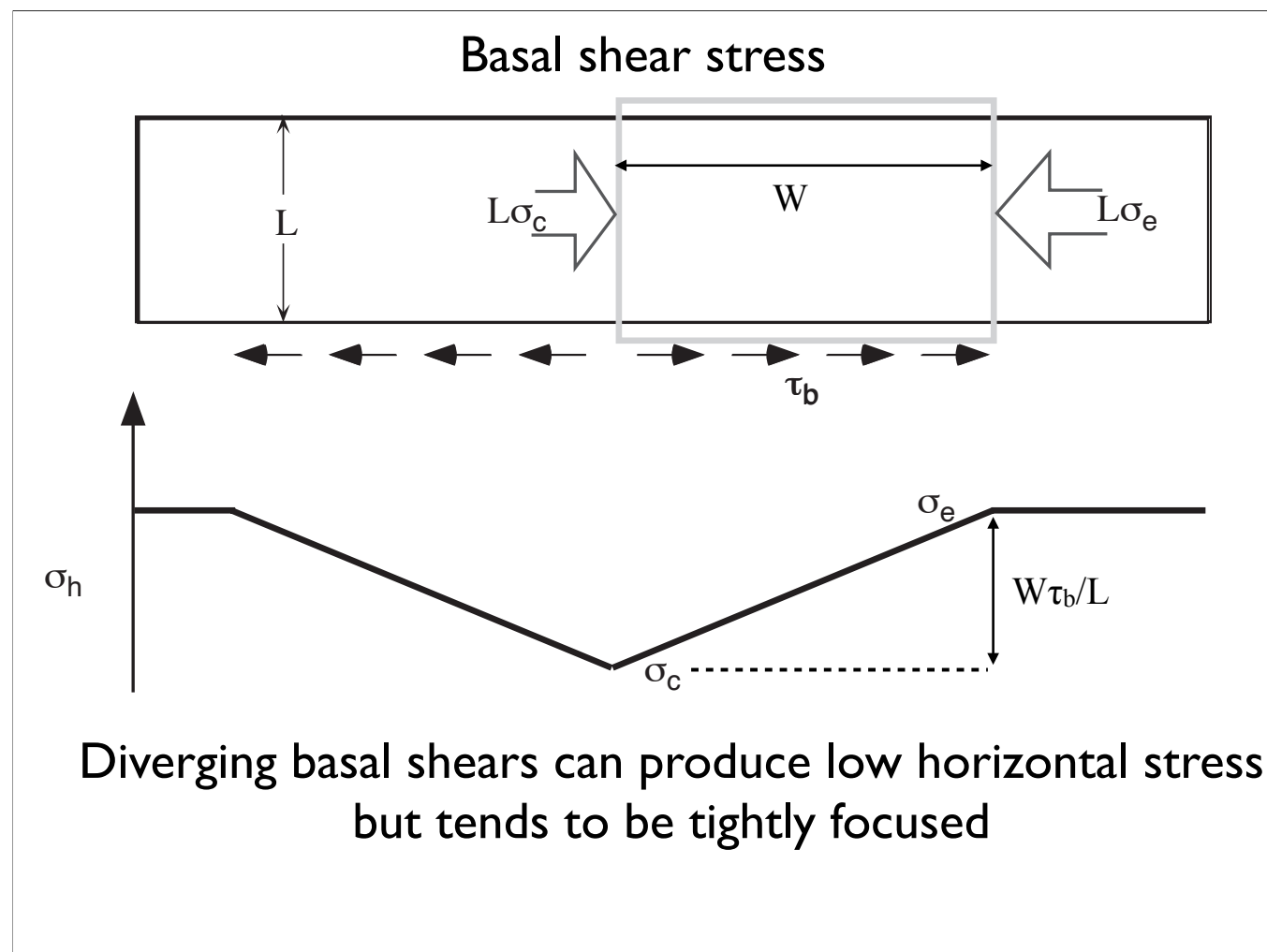


Basal shear
increases
horizontal normal
stresses in
direction of shear



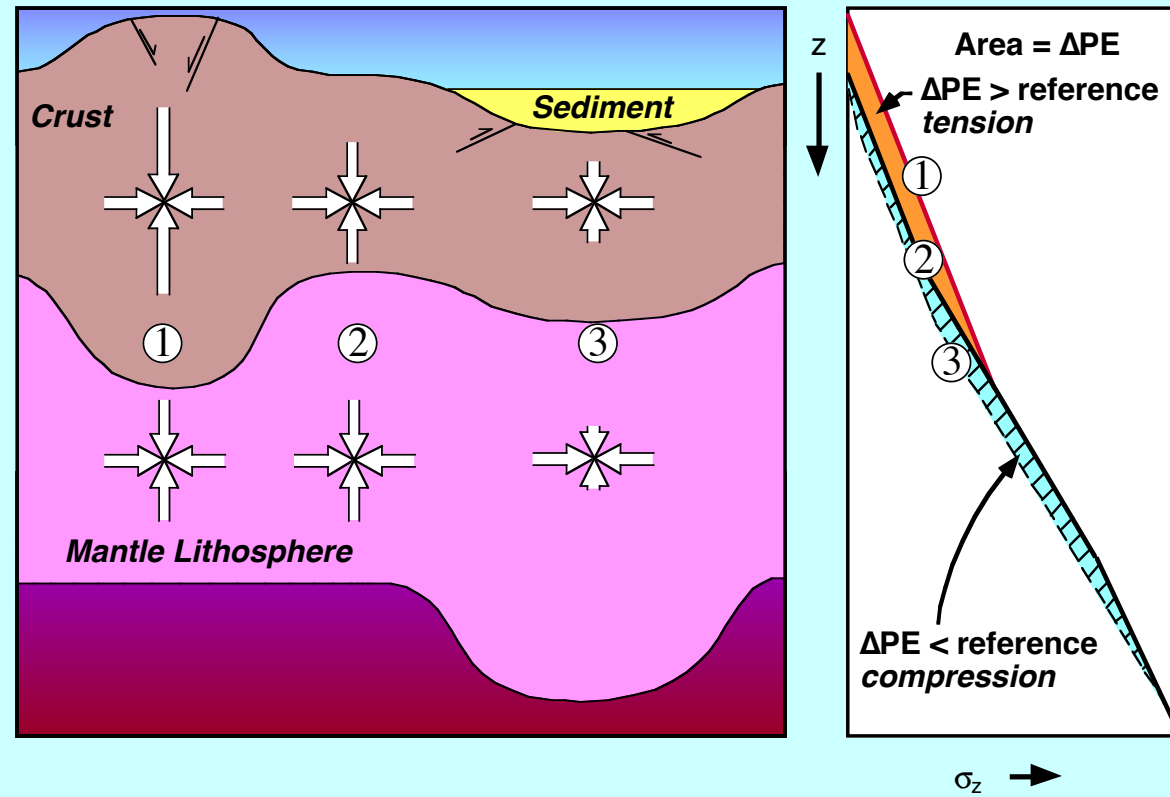
Bird, *Tectonics*, 1984

Contours are rate of crustal thickening (not relevant here), stresses in top, velocities at bottom.

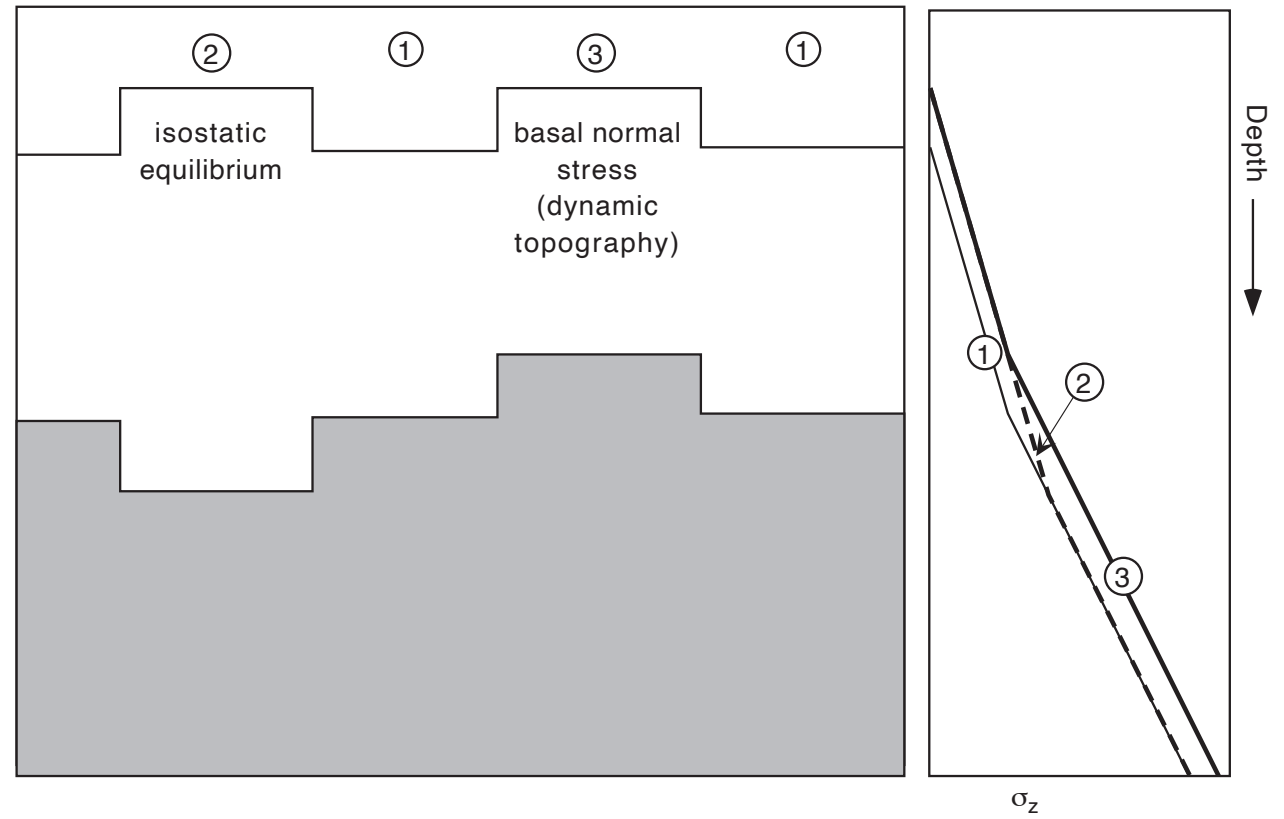


This might not be such a terrible model for some back-arc situations, but not so wonderful for extension in continents in general.

Gravitational Potential Energy and stresses



Body forces



Column 1 is an isotropic stress state (no deformation no matter how weak it is).

$$\text{GPE} = \int_0^{z_c + \varepsilon} \rho(z') g z' dz'$$

$$= - \int_{z_c}^{-\varepsilon} \rho(z) g (z_c - z) dz$$

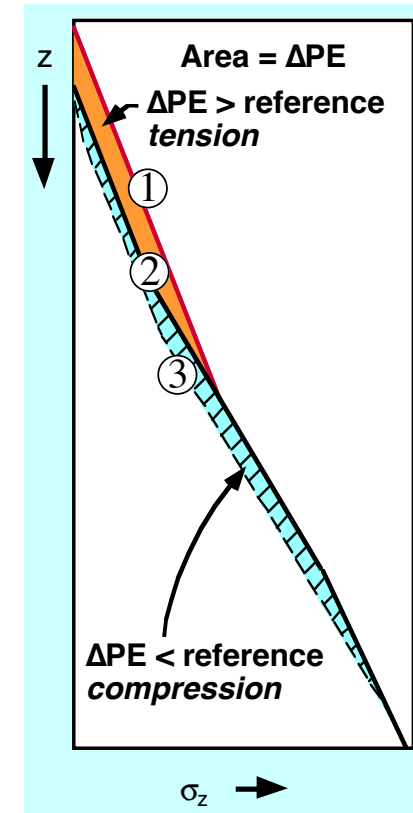
$$= g z_c \int_{-\varepsilon}^{z_c} \rho(z) dz - \int_{-\varepsilon}^{z_c} \rho(z) g z dz$$

Isostasy

$$\text{GPE} = gz_c \int_{-\varepsilon}^{z_c} \rho(z) dz - \int_{-\varepsilon}^{z_c} \rho(z)gzdz$$

$$\Delta\text{GPE} = \int_{H_0}^{z_c} \rho_a gzdz - \int_{-\varepsilon}^{z_c} \rho(z)gzdz$$

Asthenosphere



Could make point that GPE is proportional to strain rate for Newtonian viscosity

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_{-\varepsilon}^{\bar{z}_c} \sigma_z(z) dz &= \int_{-\varepsilon}^{\bar{z}_c} \int_{-\varepsilon}^{\bar{z}} g \rho(z') dz' dz \\
&= \left[z g \int \rho dz' \right]_{-\varepsilon}^{\bar{z}_c} - \int_{-\varepsilon}^{\bar{z}_c} g z \rho(z) dz \\
&= \left[z \sigma_z \right]_{-\varepsilon}^{\bar{z}_c} - \int_{-\varepsilon}^{\bar{z}_c} g z \rho(z) dz \\
&= \bar{z}_c \int_{-\varepsilon}^{\bar{z}_c} g \rho(z) dz - \int_{-\varepsilon}^{\bar{z}_c} g z \rho(z) dz = GPE
\end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{\partial \bar{\tau}_{ij}}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial \bar{\tau}_{zz}}{\partial x_i} = \frac{1}{L} \frac{\partial (PE)}{\partial x_i}$$

Can make stresses by changing structure of the lithosphere

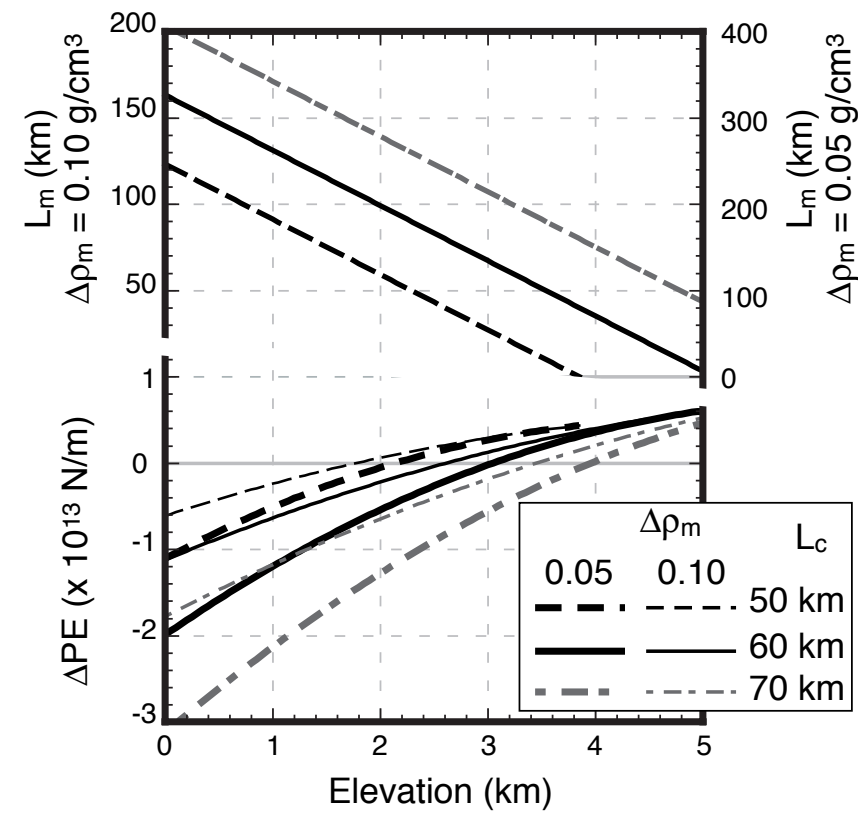
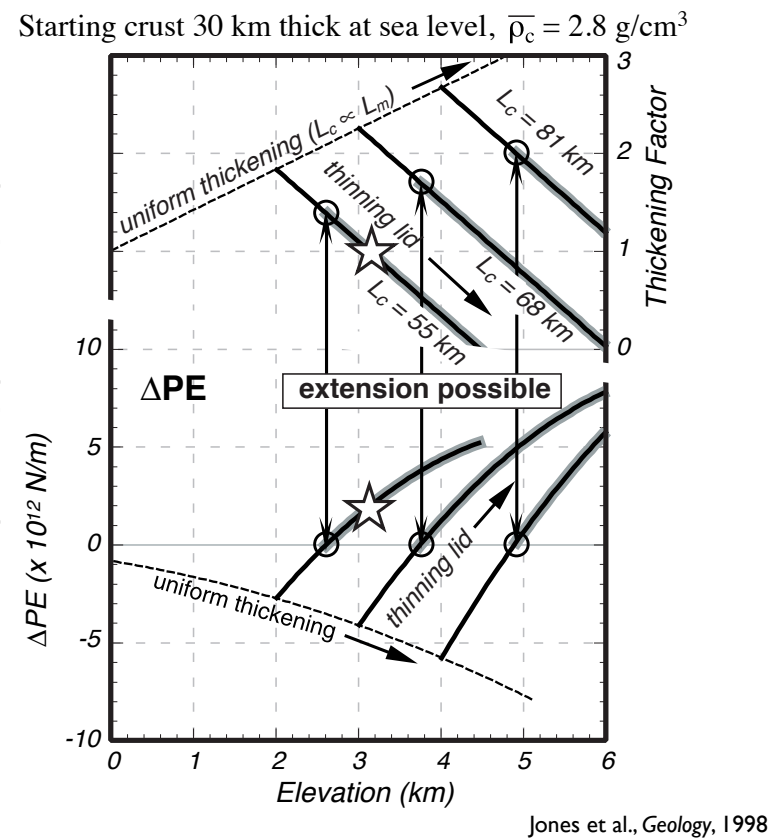


Figure 3. ΔPE for lithospheric columns with different crustal thicknesses (L_c) as a function of elevation. Two mean density contrasts ($\Delta\rho_m$) between mantle lithosphere and asthenosphere are illustrated. Note that low elevations with 50–70-km-thick crust likely for the early Tertiary Great Basin would require very thick or exceptionally dense mantle lithosphere and imply very negative values of ΔPE .

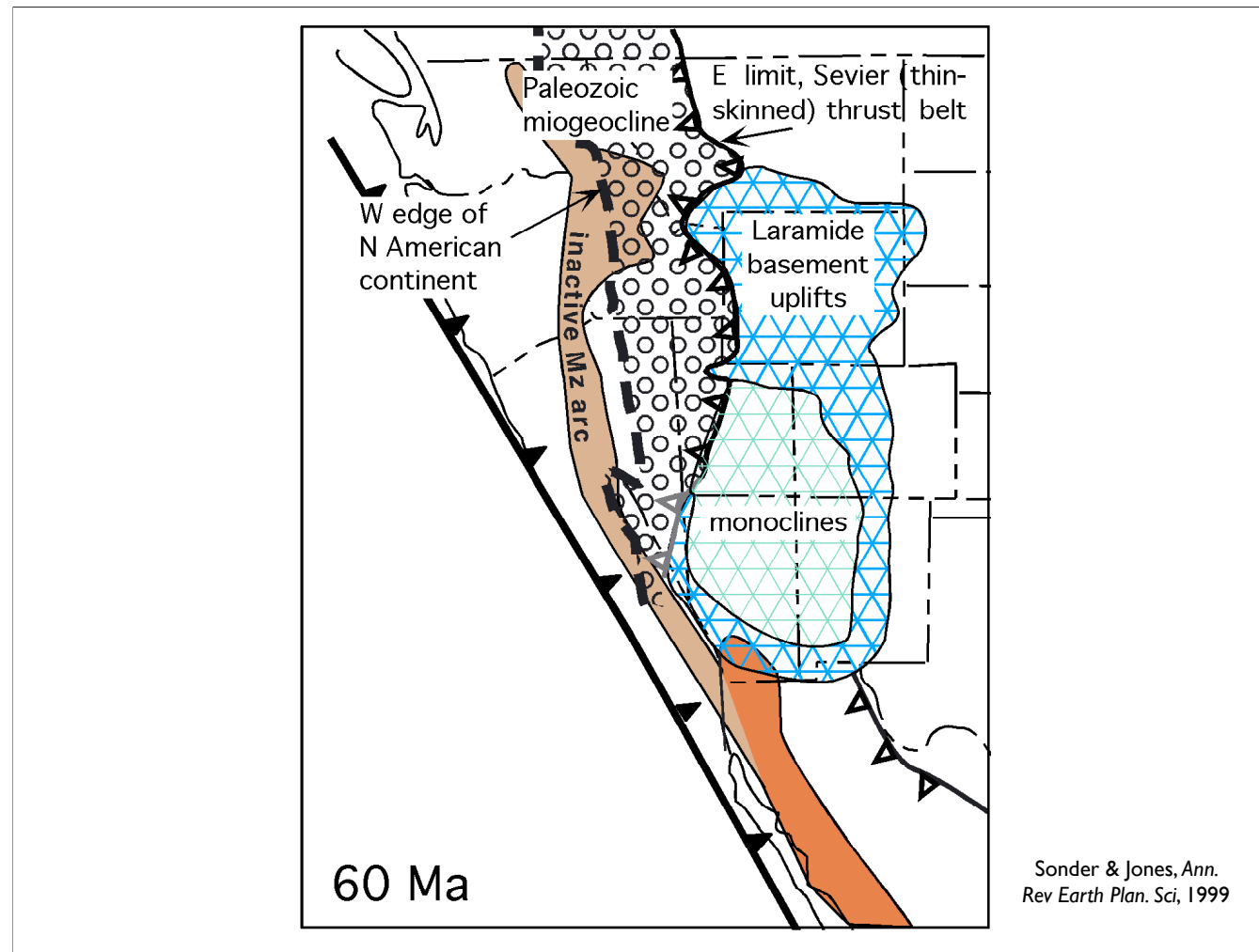
Jones et al., *Geology*, 1998

Relation of crustal thickness, elevation, and GPE.

Figure 2. Evolution of orogen with initial phase of uniform lithospheric thickening (dashed lines) followed by thinning of mantle lithosphere once the orogen reaches elevations of 2, 3, or 4 km (solid lines). Note that elevation always increases, but ΔPE reverses once mantle lithosphere begins to be removed. Gray lines indicate conditions under which extension is possible. Crustal thickness $L_c = 30$ km at outset; $L_m = 86$ km; $\rho_c = 2.8$ g/cm³. An equivalent path in Figure 1 would proceed toward the right from thickening factor = 1 on the solid line, then up toward the dashed curve once thinning of the mantle lithosphere begins.

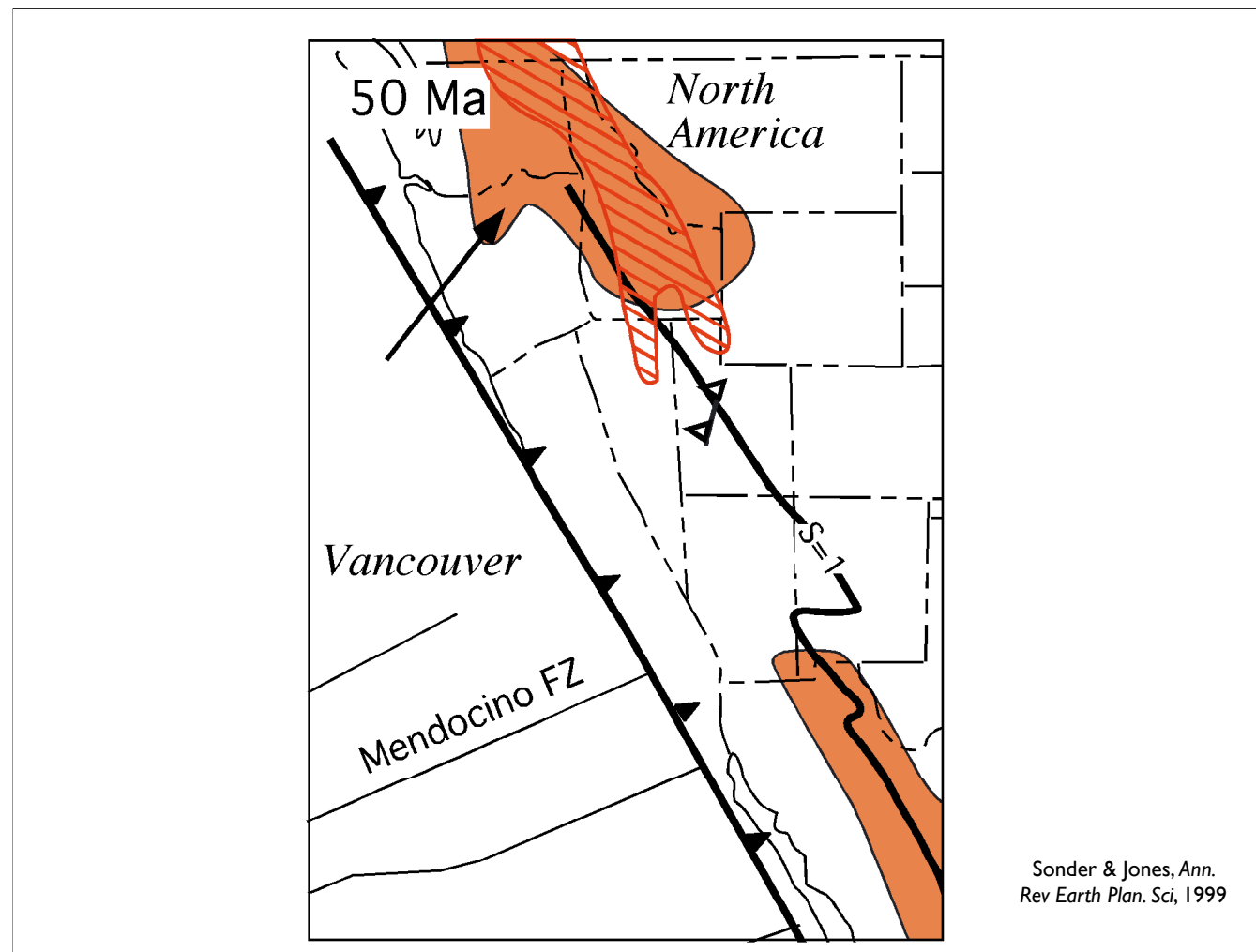


This is set up to move into paleoelevation studies.

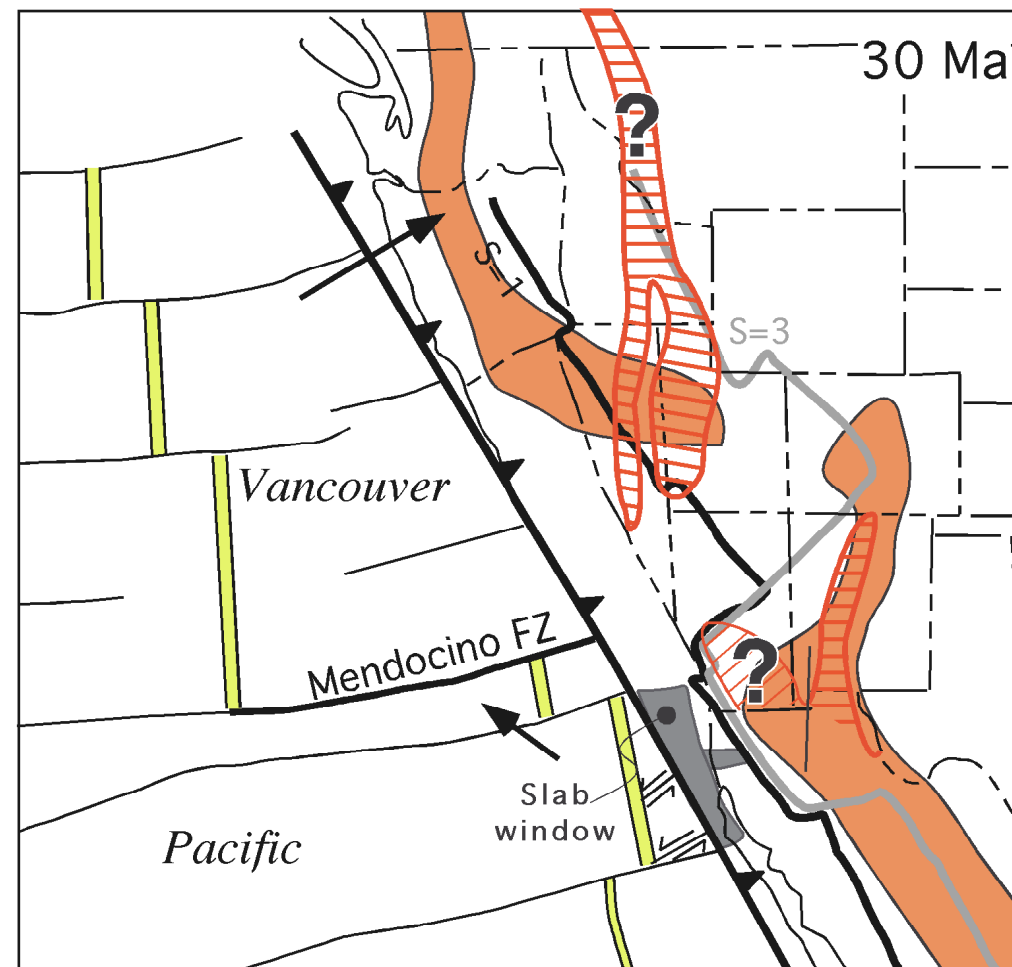


When we look at this at the broadest scales, do we see the causes of extension? Is it strength? Is it stress?

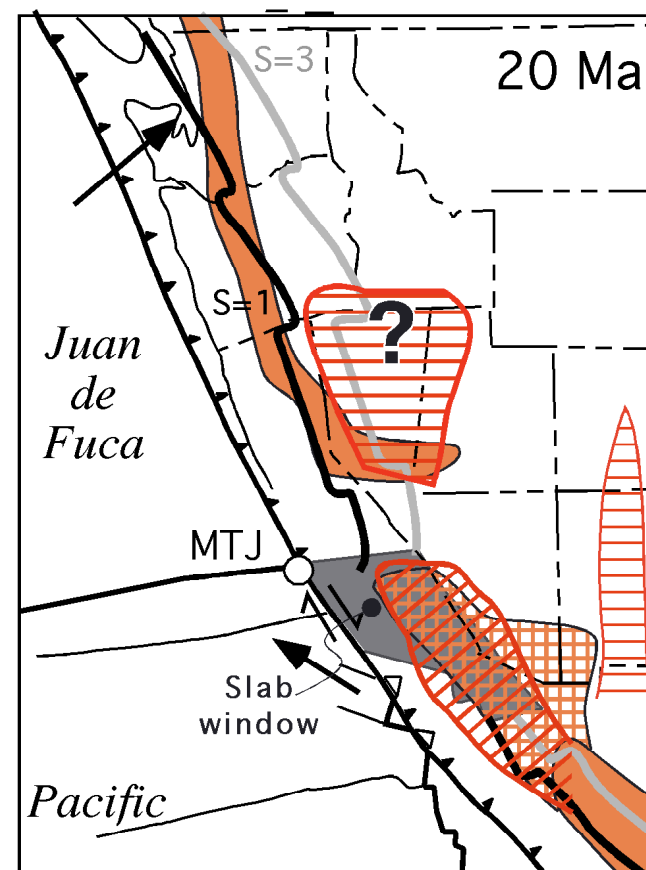
Dark orange is calc-alkaline volcanic areas (some interpret as arc)



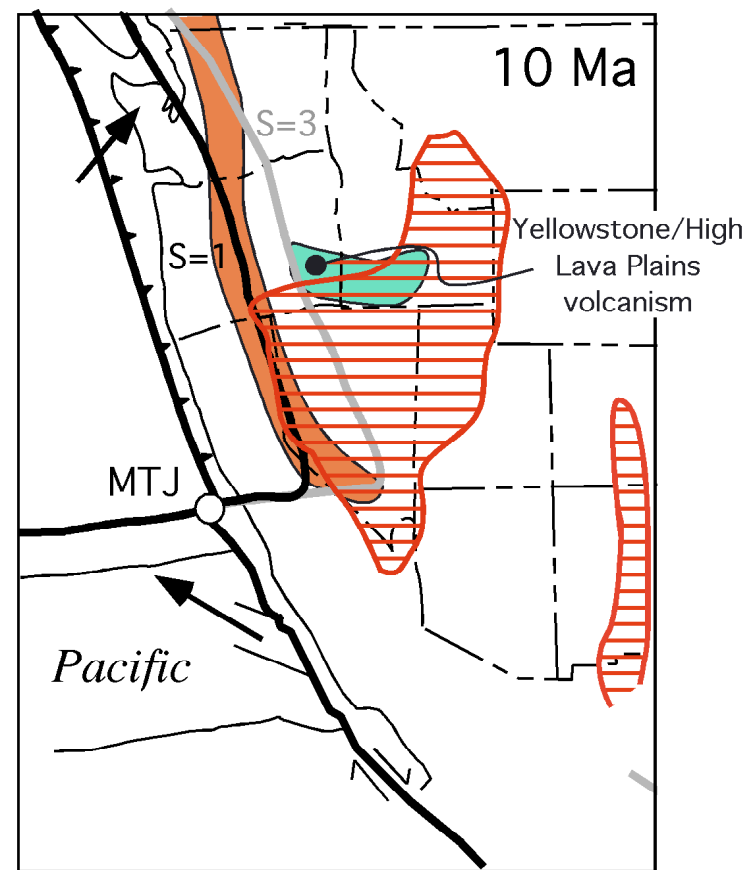
Big arrow is relative plate motion. Large heavy line ($S=1$) indicates position along which slab has fairly constant thermal state. "At each point on the slab, S equals the time since subduction divided by one-tenth of the age of that point at the time it was subducted."
 $S=1$ is approximately maximum depth of seismic slab. $S = 10T/(A-T-C)$ where T is time since subduction, A age of magnetic anomaly and C is time of map construction (so $A-C$ is age of slab at subduction).



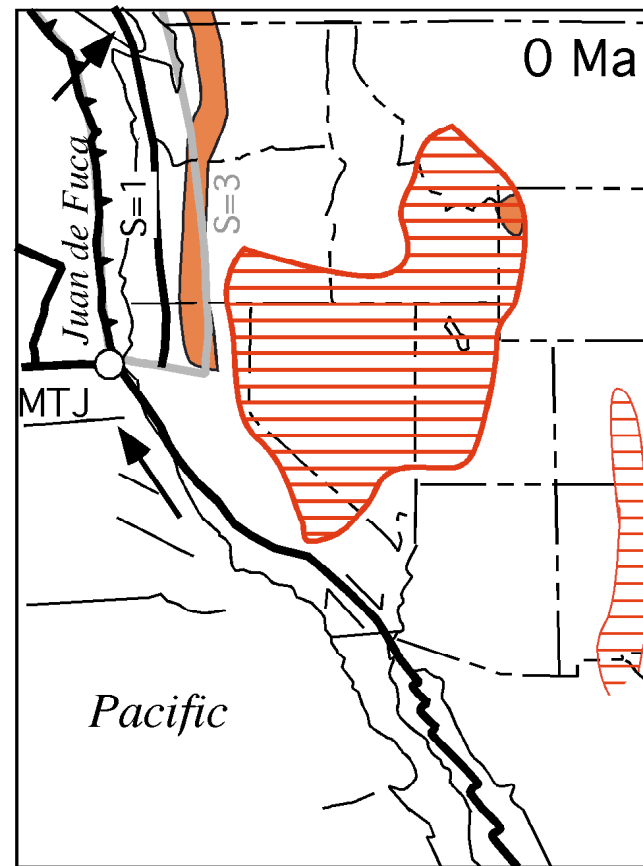
Sonder & Jones, *Ann. Rev. Earth Plan. Sci.*, 1999



Sonder & Jones, *Ann. Rev. Earth Plan. Sci.*, 1999

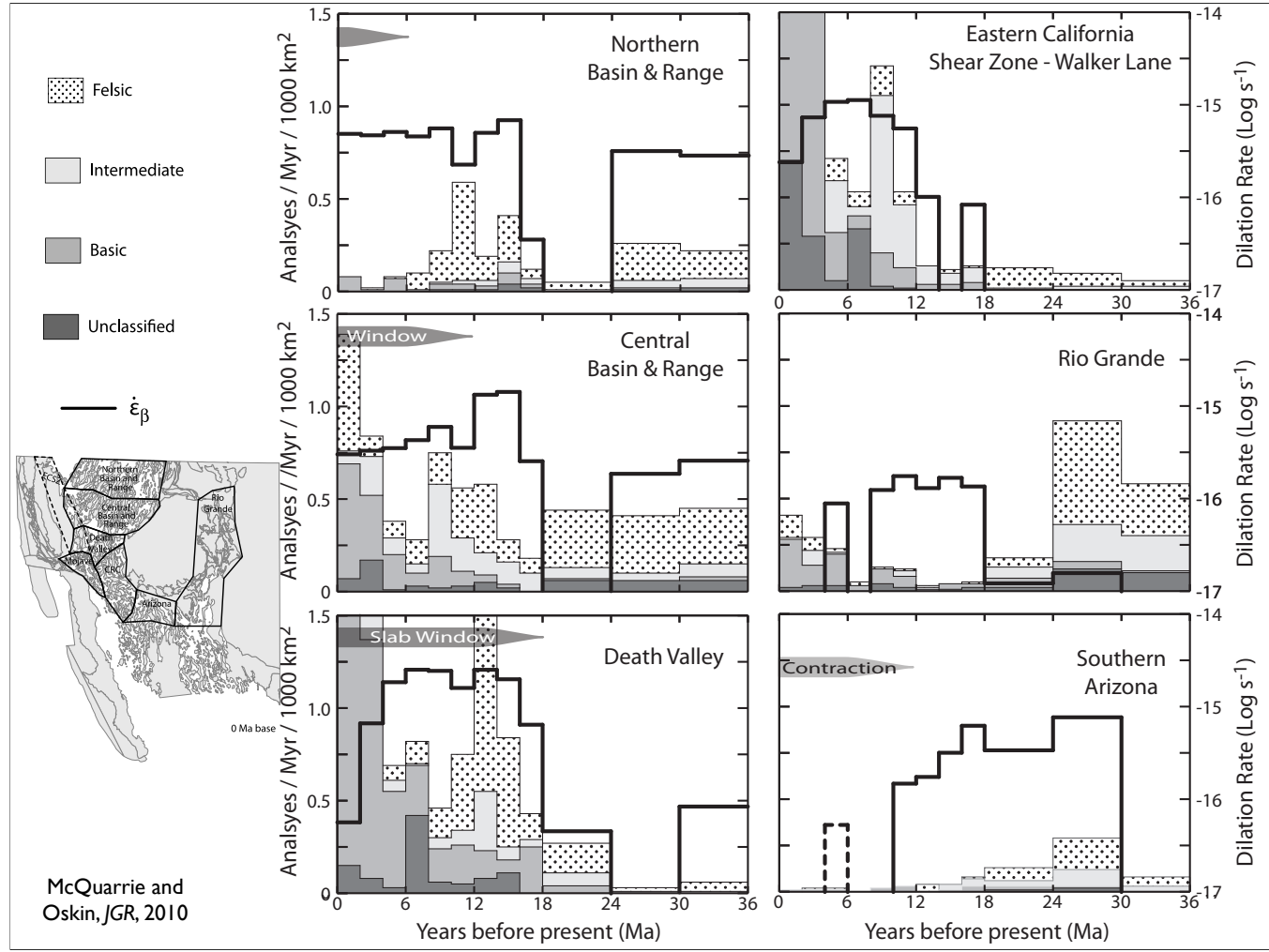


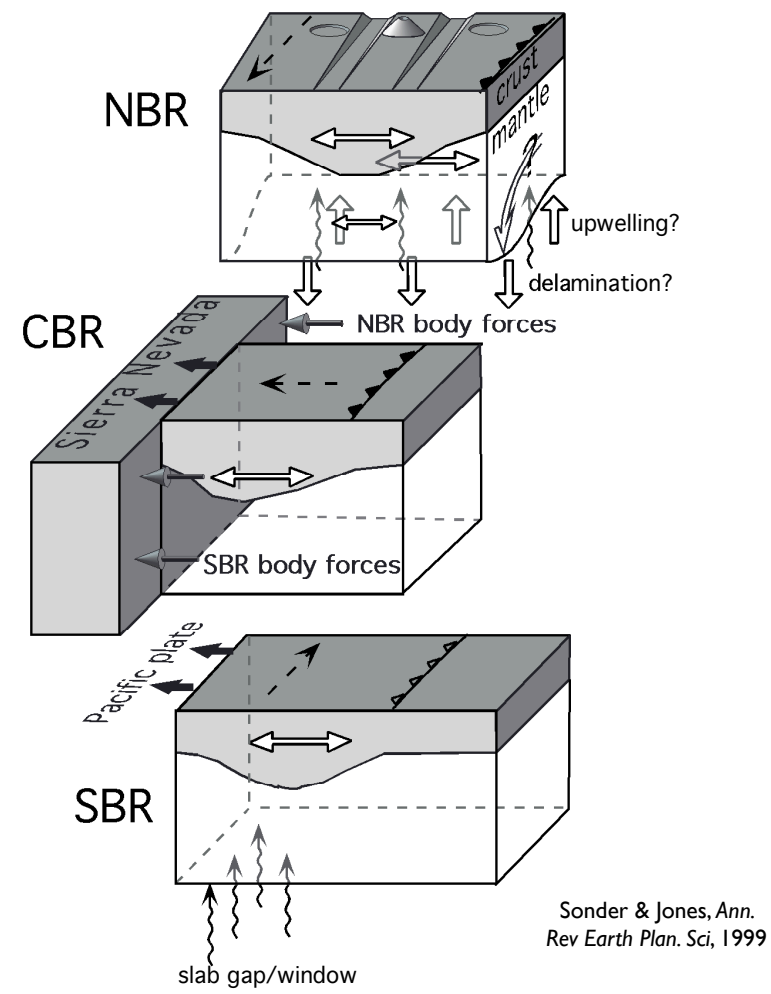
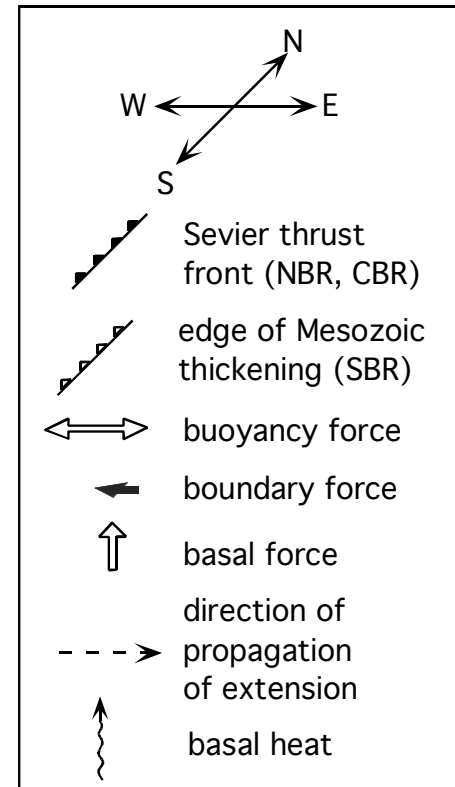
Sonder & Jones, *Ann. Rev. Earth Plan. Sci.*, 1999



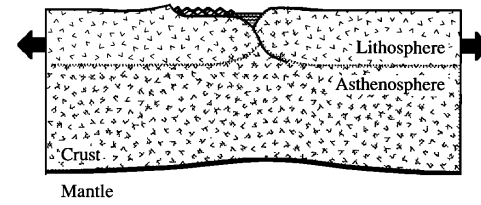
Sonder & Jones, *Ann. Rev. Earth Plan. Sci.*, 1999

Note that the B&R extent seems unrelated to the triple junction.

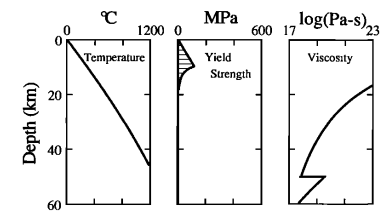




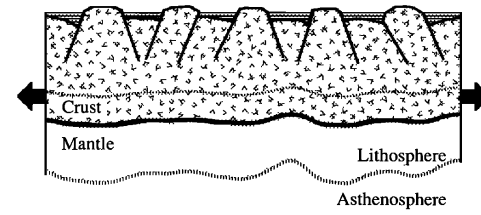
Core Complex Mode



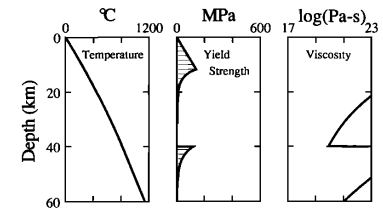
$$Q_s = 100 \text{ mW/m}^2$$



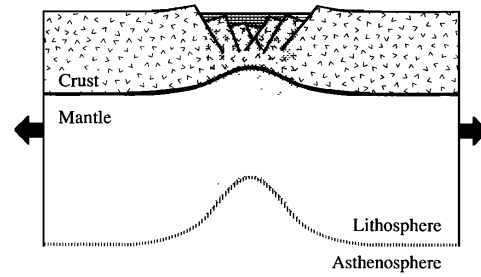
Wide Rift Mode



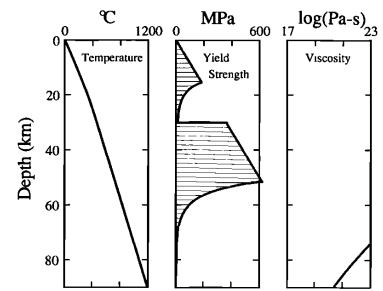
$$Q_s = 80 \text{ mW/m}^2$$




Narrow Rift Mode

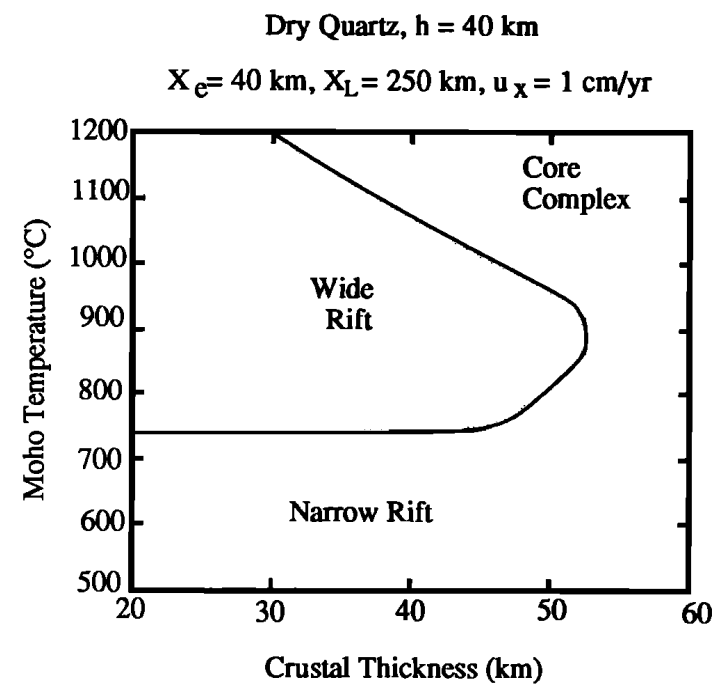


$$Q_s = 60 \text{ mW/m}^2$$

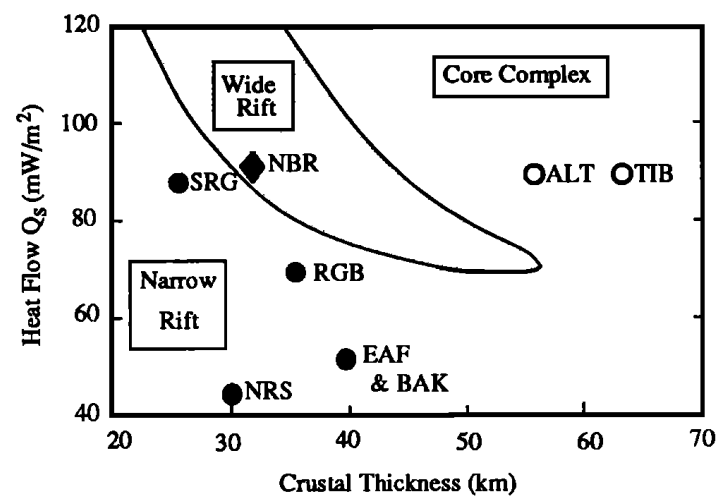


Straining Region  40 km V. E. = 2

Buck, JGR, 1991

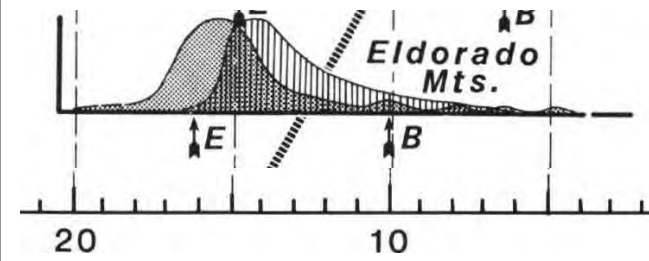


Buck, *JGR*, 1991

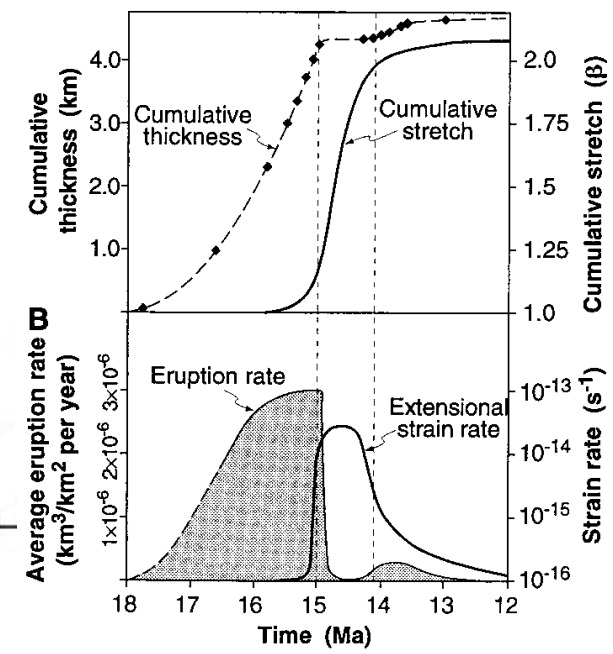


- Core Complex Analogs:
 ALT Altiplano
 TIB Tibet
- ◆ Wide Rifts:
 NBR Northern Basin and Range
- Narrow Rifts:
 NRS Northern Red Sea
 SRG Southern Rio Grande
 RGB Rhinegraben
 EAF East African Rift
 BAK Baikal

Buck, JGR, 1991

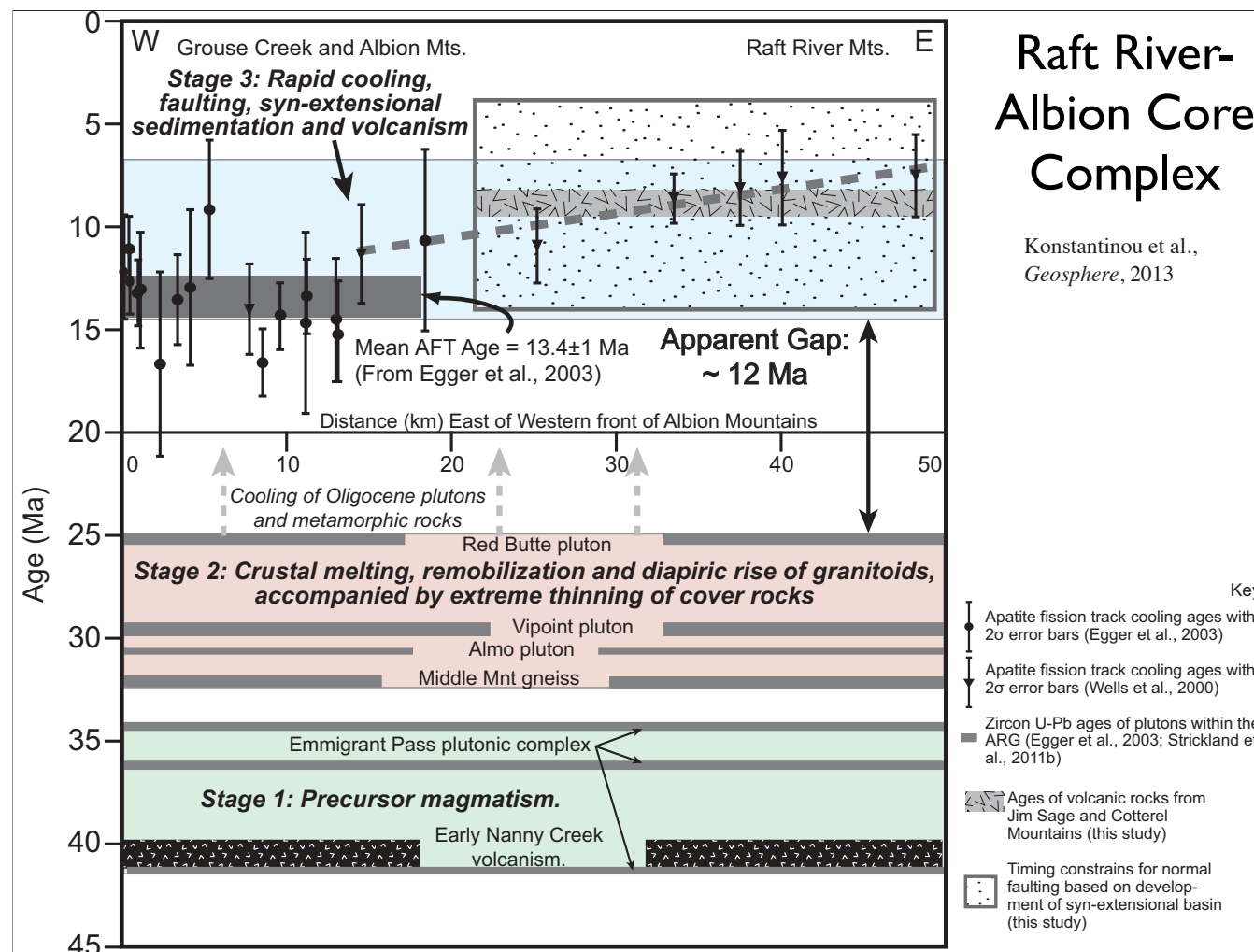


Gans et al., *GSA Spec. Paper*, 233, 1989

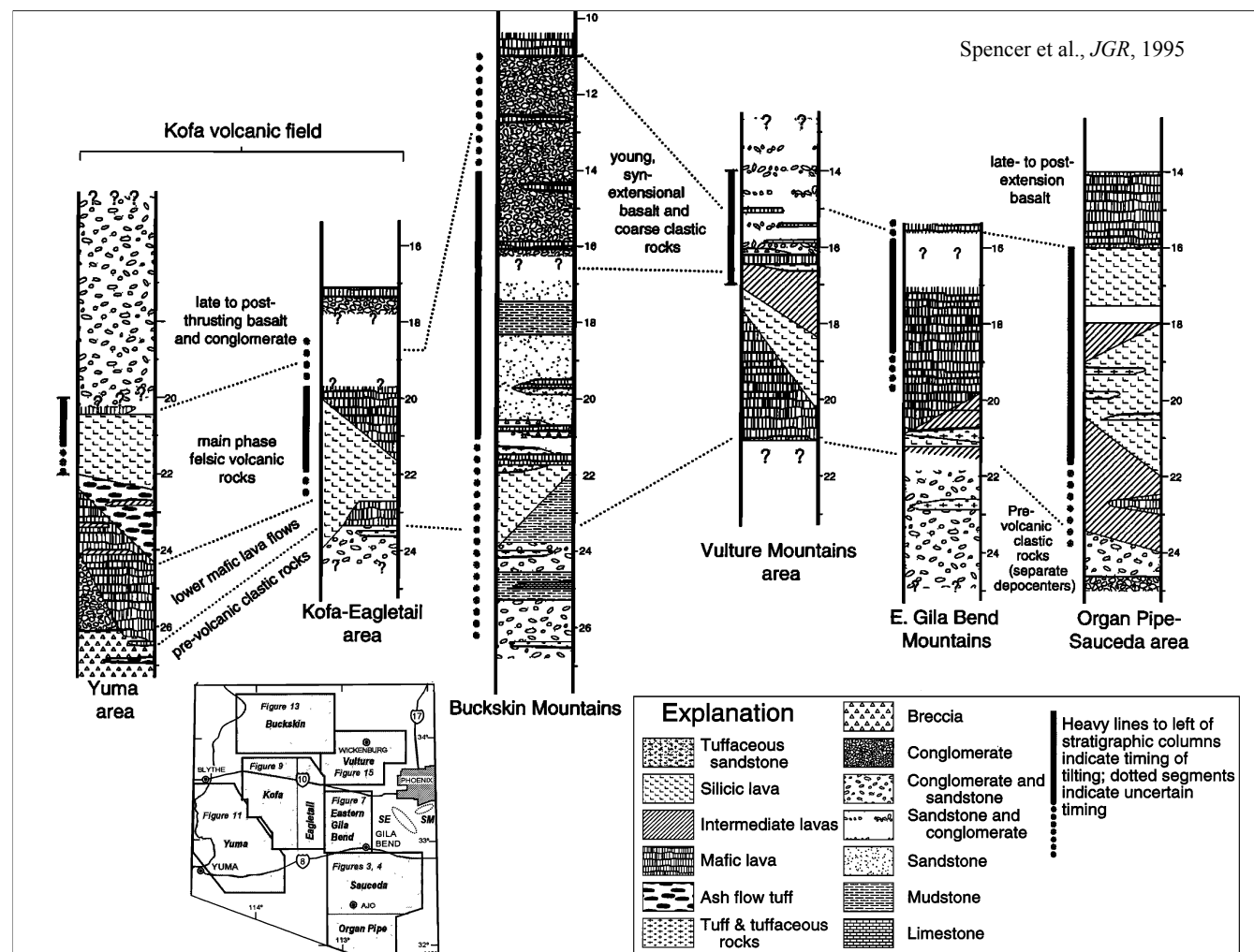


Gans and Bohrsen, *Science*, 1997

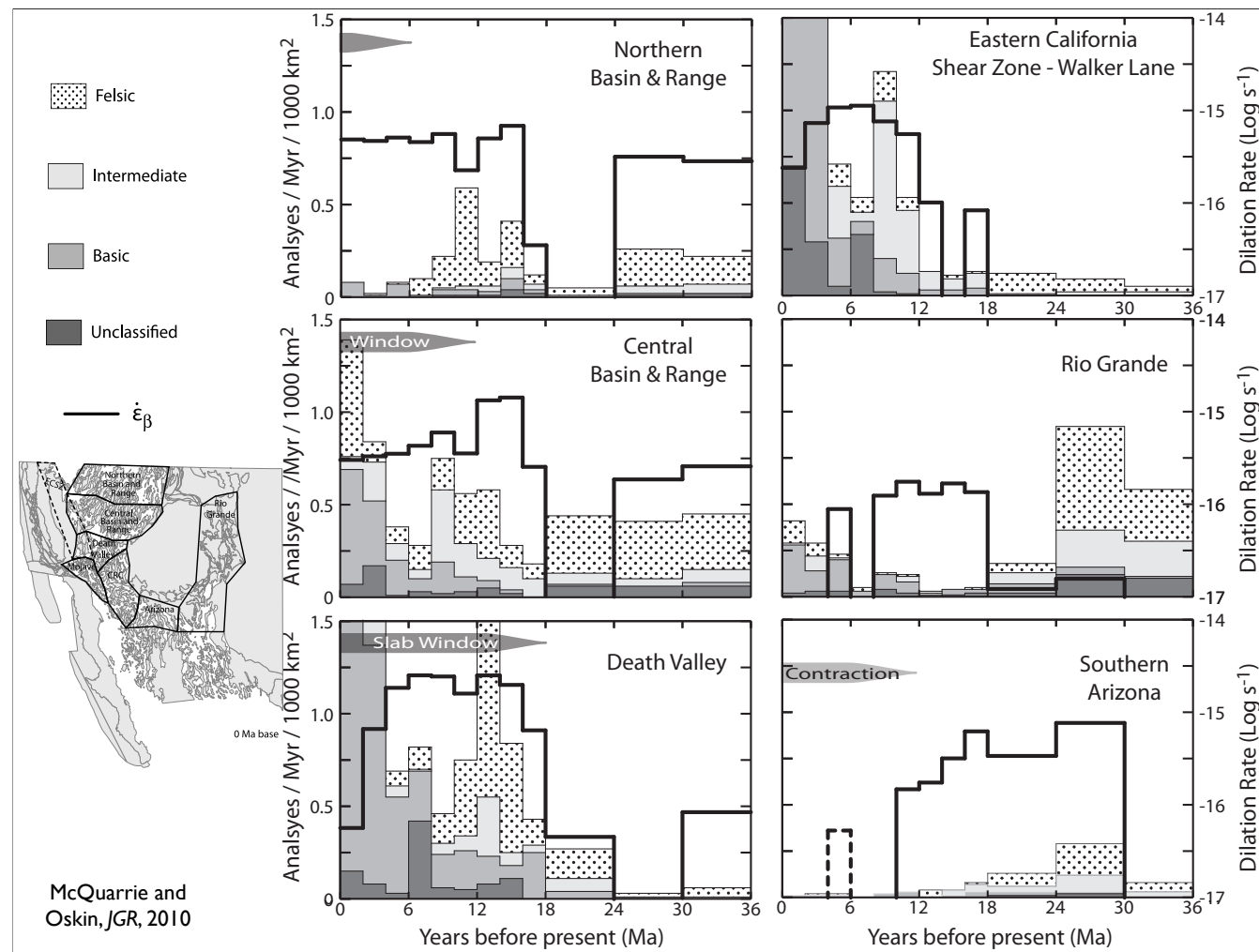
Closer examination of at least one complex suggests that while tightly related in time, faulting and volcanism are not coeval.



Or, maybe, we have grossly overestimated extension in Paleogene.



Arizona relation of tilting to volcanism. Note too some thick clastic sequences preceding volcanism.



Recall these are not volumes....

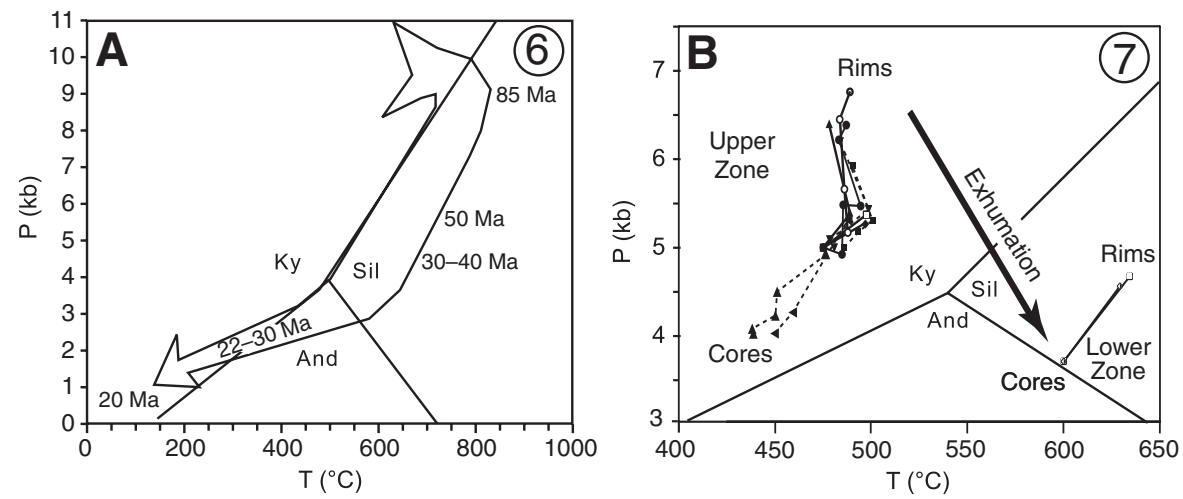


Figure 4. P-T paths from Great Basin core complexes. (A) P-T-t path envelope determined from an array of individual P-T determinations from metabasite and metapelite of the East Humboldt Range, from McGrew et al. (2000). Interpreted decompression is corroborated by decompressional metamorphic reaction textures. (B) P-T paths from schist of Stevens Spring from the northern Grouse Creek Mountains, northwestern Utah (location R, Fig. 1). Paths from Hoisch et al. (2002) are shown as solid lines, and paths from Harris et al. (2007) are shown as dashed lines. Samples came from two zones within the schist of Stevens Spring, upper and lower, as shown, corresponding to different garnet growth reactions. Al_2SiO_5 polymorphic transformations are shown in solid lines (Pattison, 1992); Ky—kyanite; Sil—sillimanite; And—andalusite. Paths were determined from simulations of garnet growth zoning, using the Gibbs method on the basis of Duhem's theorem (e.g., Spear et al., 1991). Numbers in the upper right corners of both panels refer to location numbers shown in Figure 1.

WELLS & HOISCH, GSA BULL
2008

Reminder of some of the later stage exhumation of rocks—these are found in ranges termed core complexes

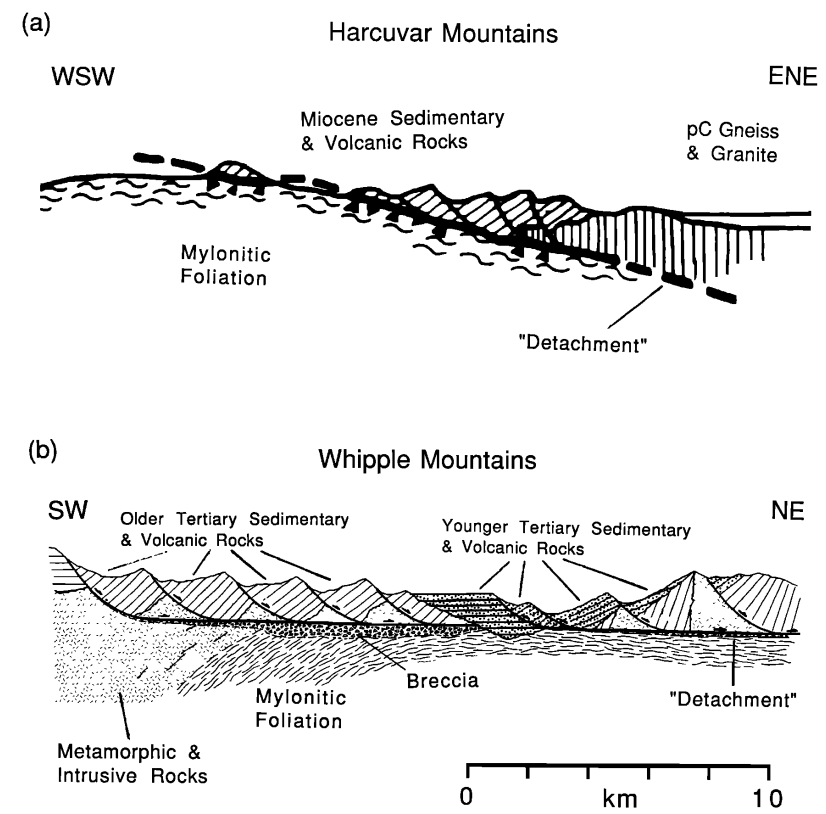
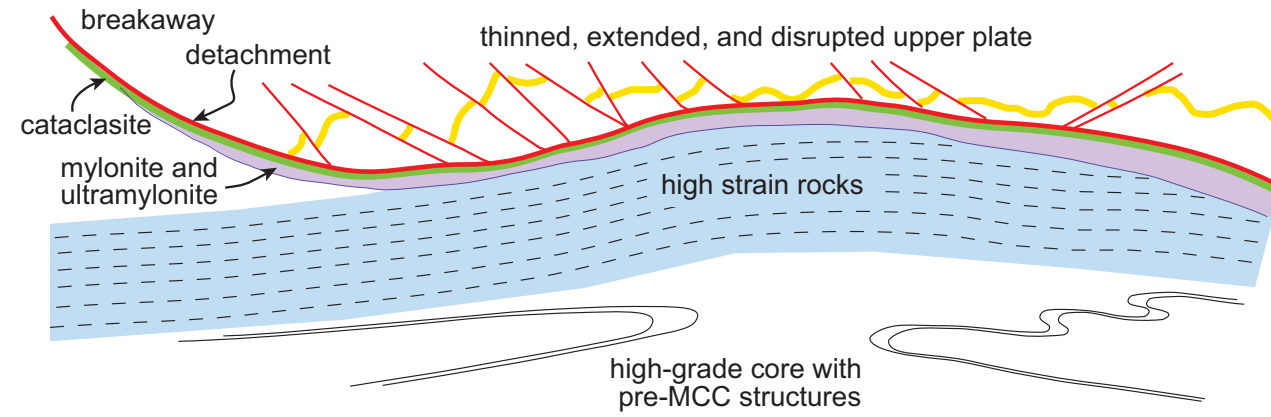


Fig. 1. Interpretative cross sections of two metamorphic core complexes showing features common to many core complexes: (a) the Harcuvar Mountains in Arizona [after Rehrig and Reynolds, 1980] and (b) the Whipple Mountains in California with inferred doming removed [after Davis, 1980].

Generic core complex



Platt, *J. Geol. Soc.*, 2015

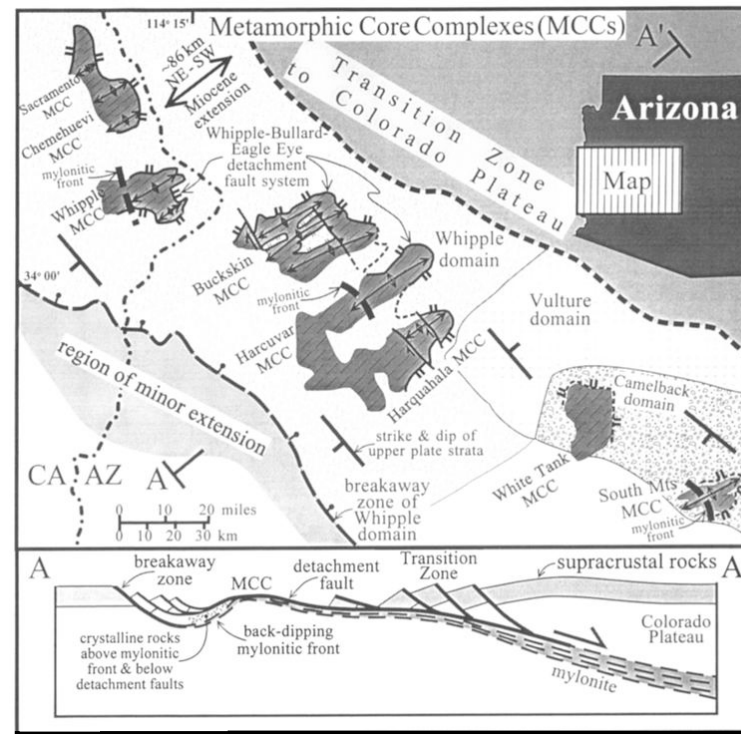
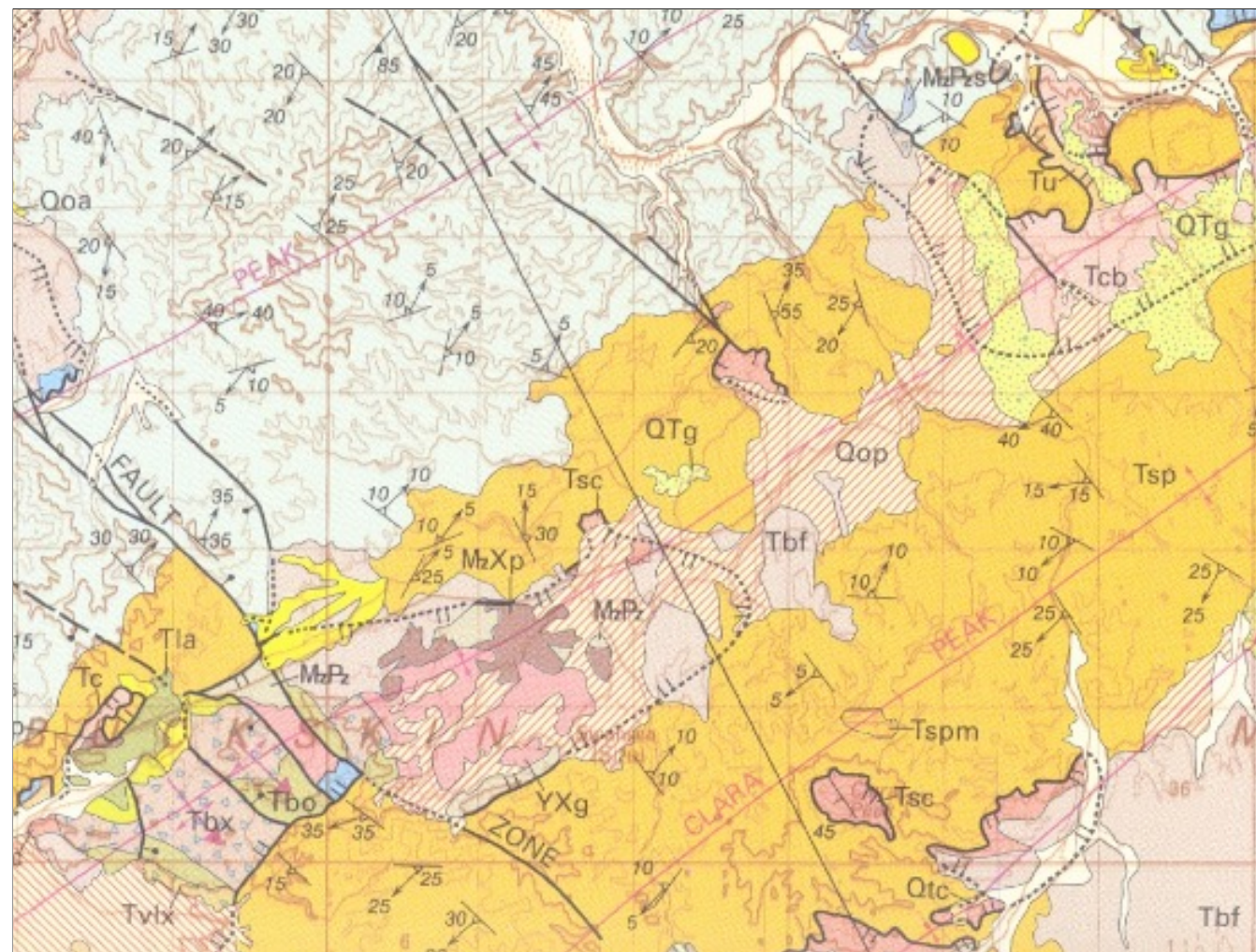


Figure 1. Location map, generalized geologic map and cross section (A - A') of metamorphic core complexes (MCCs) of west central Arizona and southeastern California [after Reynolds *et al.*, 1988]. The Harquahala, Harcuvar, Buckskin, Whipple, Chemehuevi, Sacramento, White Tank, and South Mountains MCCs represent antiformal arches of mylonitized footwall rocks. Normal-slip, low-angle (dip of 10° - 25°) detachment faults separate MCC footwall rocks from tilted, hanging wall strata. The Camelback, Vulture, and Whipple domains represent areas of similar regional dip of hanging wall strata [Reynolds *et al.*, 1988]. MCC footwalls and tilted hanging wall strata form a zone of large-magnitude Miocene extension separating regions that experienced little Miocene extension. These little extended regions include the "Transition Zone to the Colorado Plateau" and the "region of only minor extension" southwest of the Whipple domain breakaway zone.

Livaccari and Geissman, Tectonics, 2001

These structures also vary in map view, making doubly-plunging antiforms. Look at one of these (Buckskin) in more detail





Rawhide Mtns from Swansea site



Red vs green, Buckskin CC



Looking into the fault



Mylonite, Buckskin Mtns



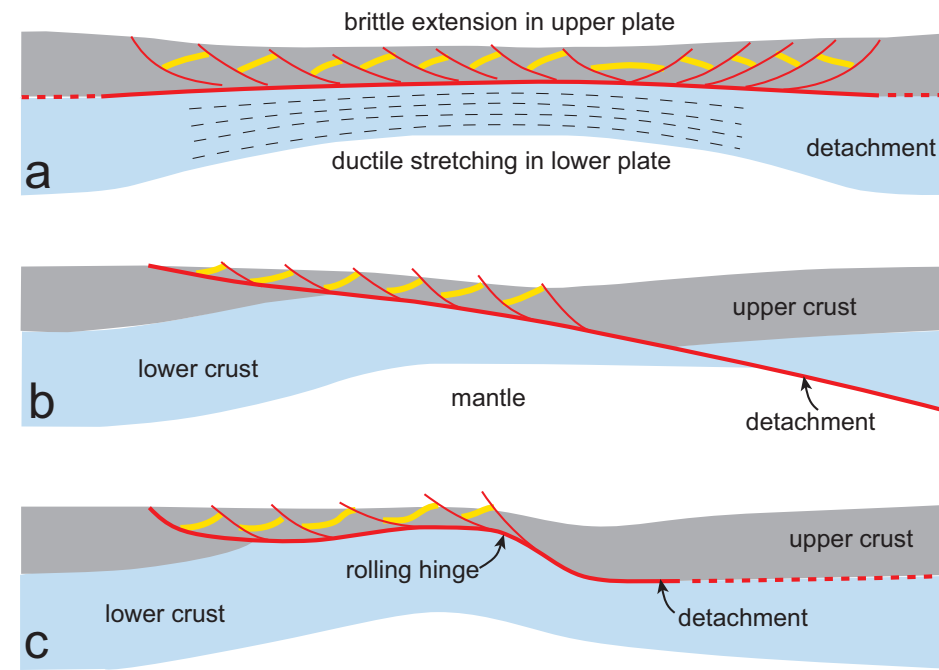
Catalina Mtns, So. AZ



Cataclasite?

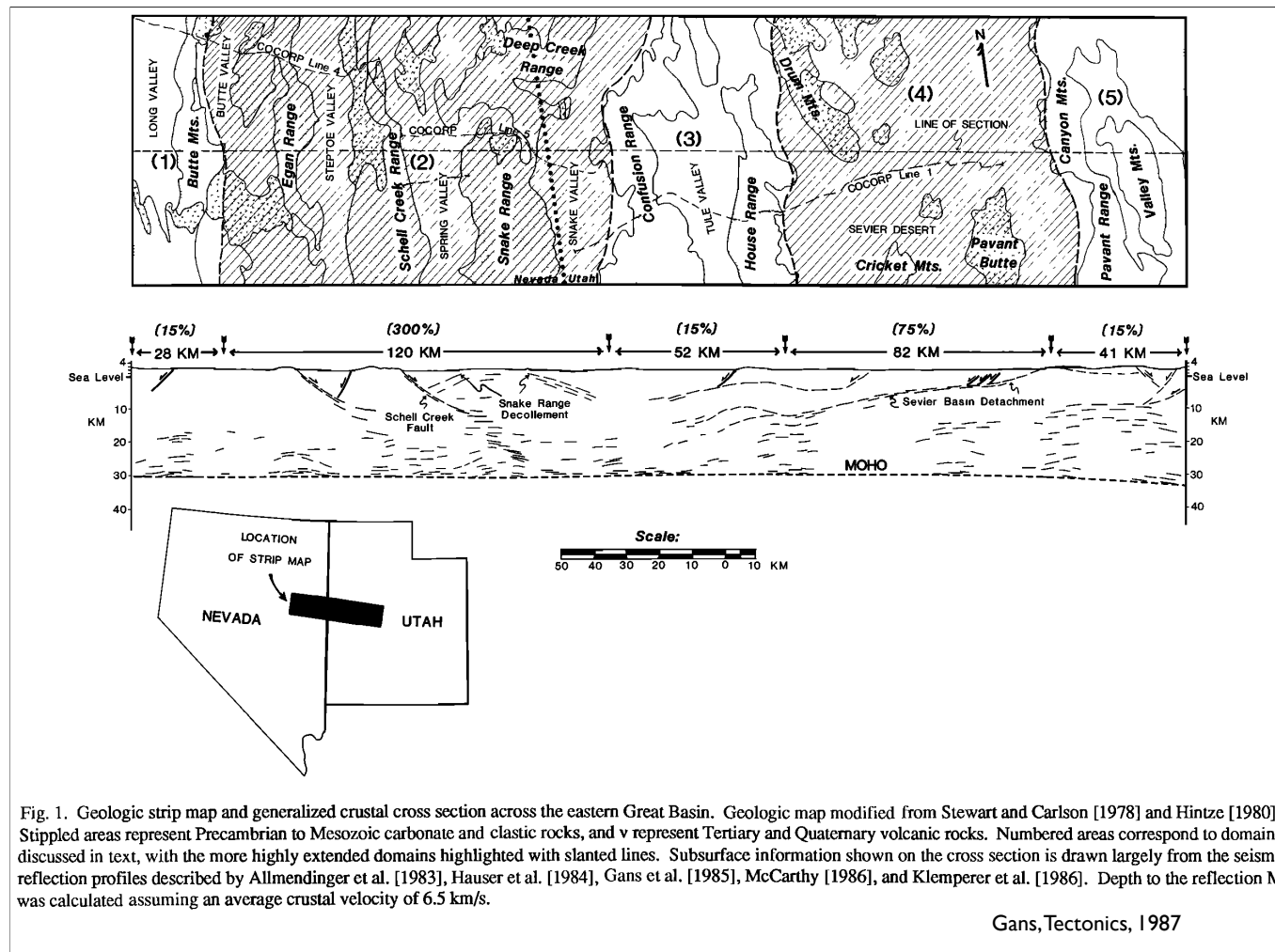


Ultramylonite, Catalina core complex (Rincon Mtns)

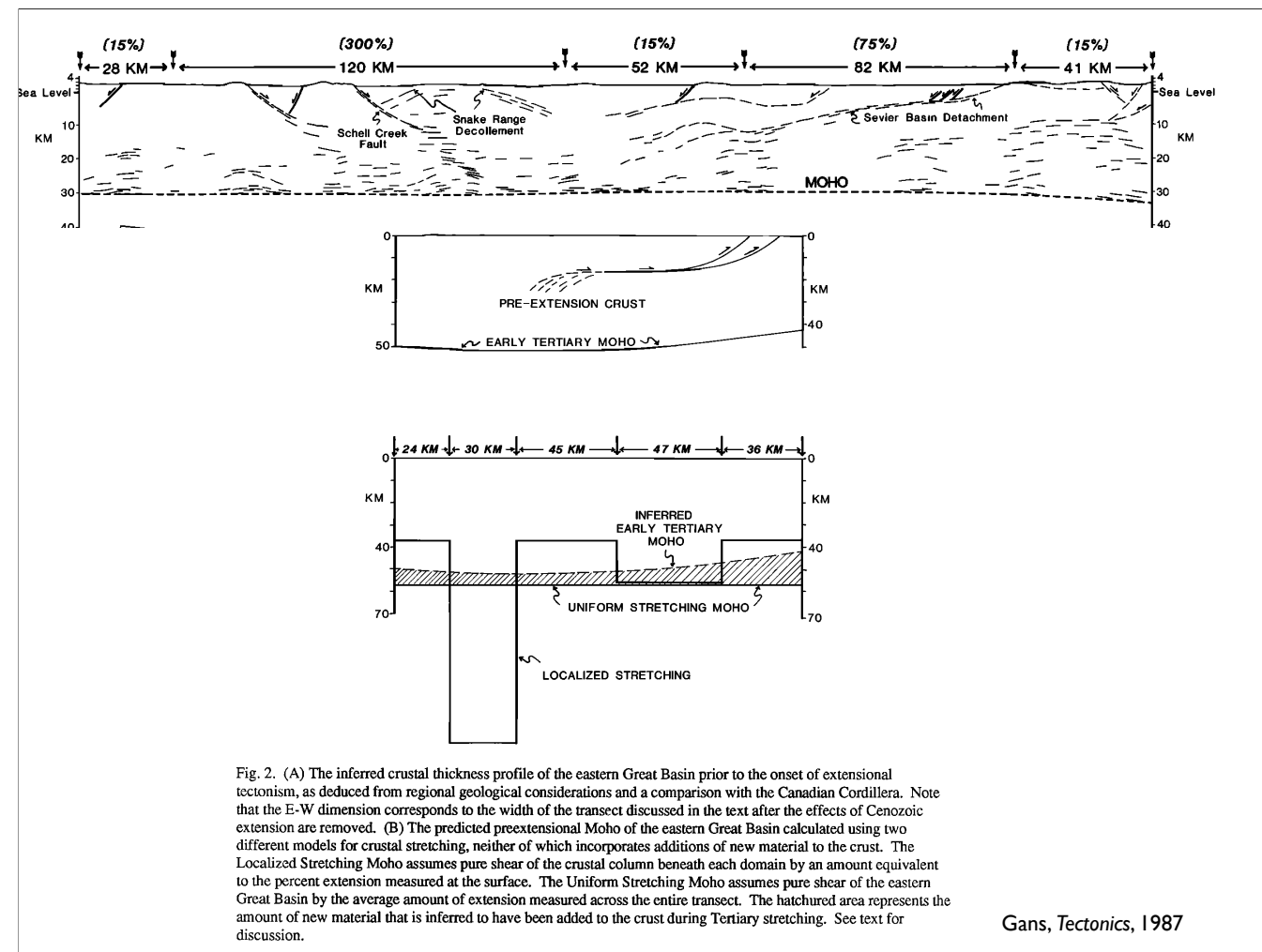


Platt, *J. Geol. Soc.*, 2015

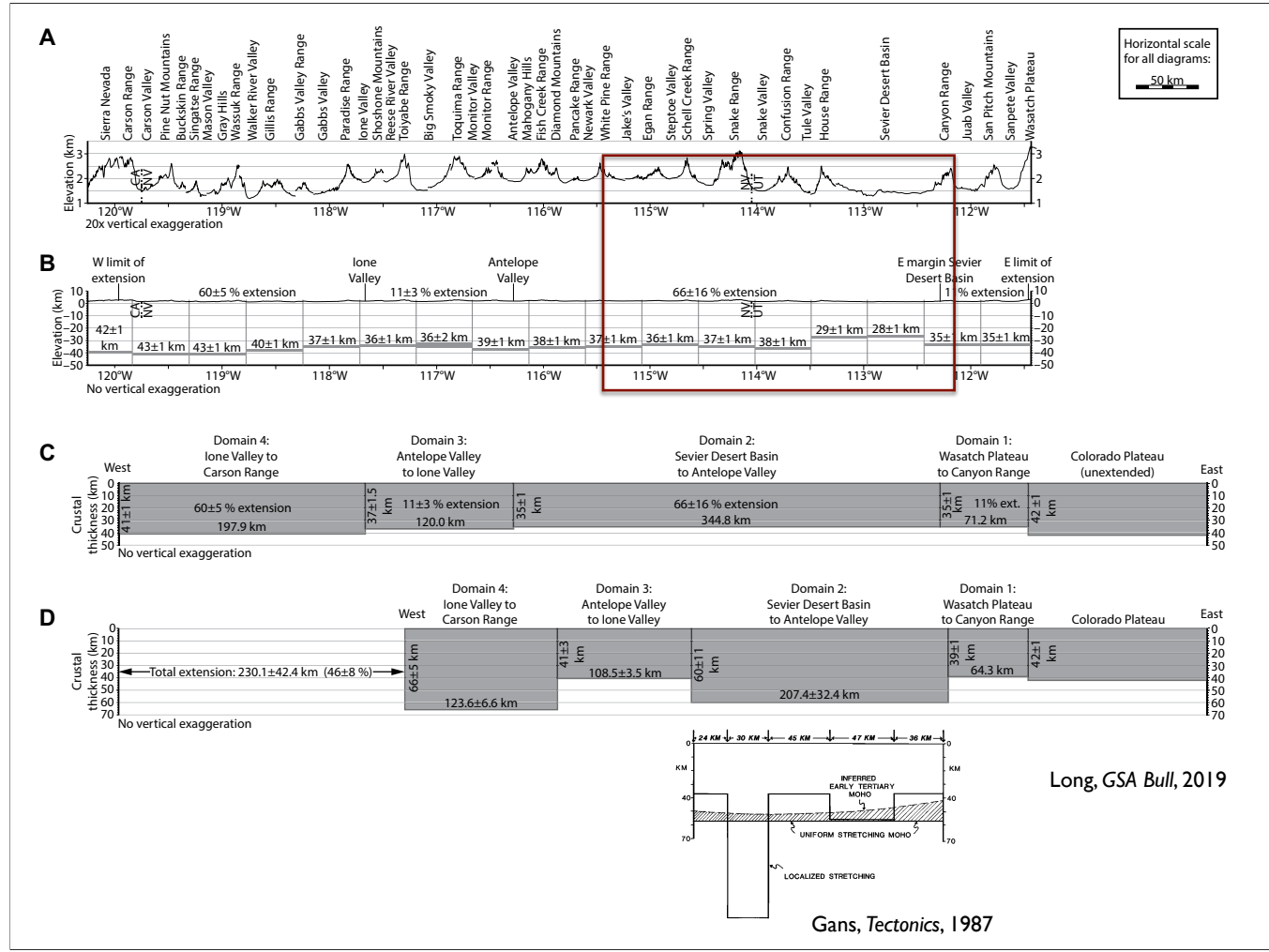
So how are these things created? Simple cartoons of some ideas. Look at what the observations were that led to these.



First up, recognition of very variable amounts of extension but flat Moho.



You push things back assuming vertically uniform deformation and you get craziness. [Note that broader section near here by



Somewhat similarly if you step back to a larger scale and allow averaging over larger areas, still get some peculiar variations.

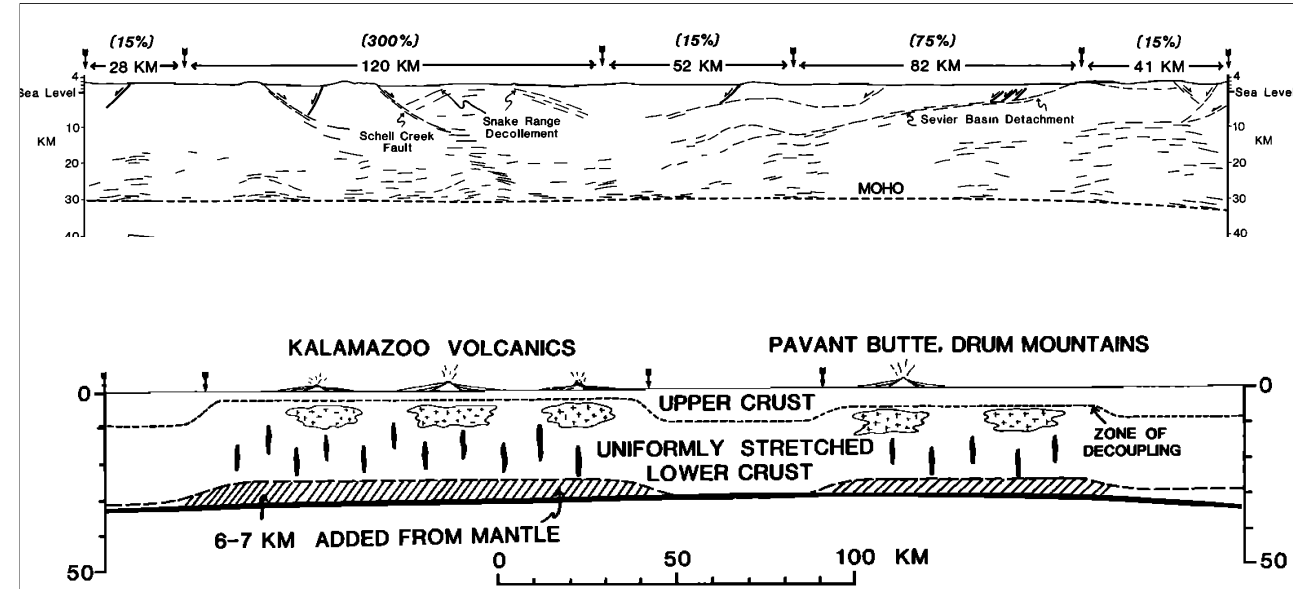


Fig. 3. A highly generalized present-day cross section of the eastern Great Basin that illustrates the two-layer, open-system model for crustal stretching. See text for discussion.

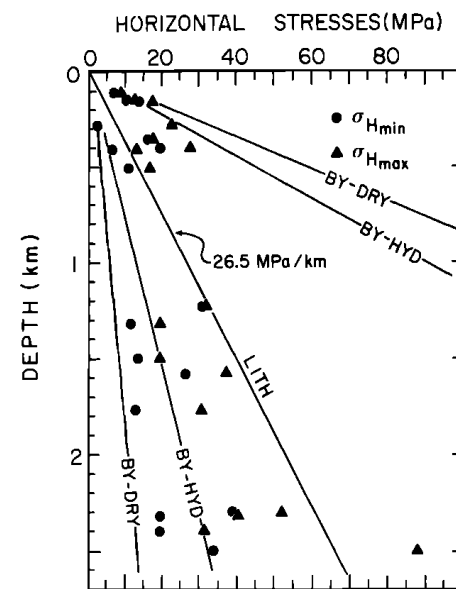


Fig. 1. Total horizontal stresses measured in southern Africa [McGarr and Gay, 1978]. The vertical total stress gradient (26.5 MPa/km) is shown along with Byerlee's law (BY) for hydrostatic pore pressure (HYD) and zero pore pressure (DRY).

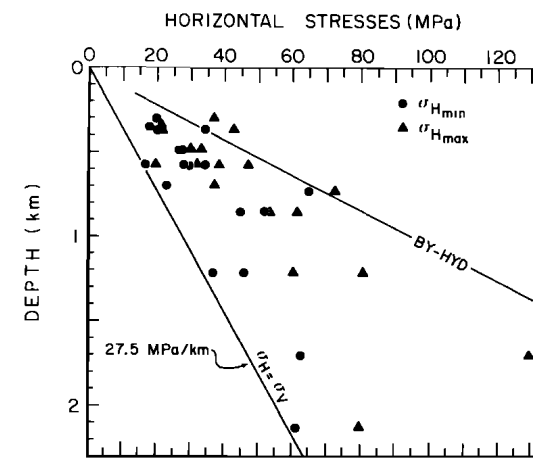


Fig. 3. Total horizontal stresses measured in Canada [McGarr and Gay, 1978]. Symbols as in Figure 1.

$$\dot{\epsilon} = 7 \times 10^4 (\sigma_1 - \sigma_3)^3 \exp \left(\frac{-0.52 \text{ MJ/mol}}{RT} \right) \quad \sigma_1 - \sigma_3 < 200 \text{ MPa}$$

$$\dot{\epsilon} = 5.7 \times 10^{11} \exp \left[\frac{-0.54 \text{ MJ/mol}}{RT} \left(1 - \frac{\sigma_1 - \sigma_3}{8500} \right)^2 \right] \quad \sigma_1 - \sigma_3 > 200 \text{ MPa} \quad (4)$$

where $\dot{\epsilon}$ is in s^{-1} and $\sigma_1 - \sigma_3$ is in megapascals. The plastic deformation behavior of quartz appears to depend markedly on OH^- content. We consider here experimental results on dry samples which should provide an upper limit to the strength of quartzite. Recent experiments of *Christie et al.* [1979] on dry quartzite at 800° and 900°C combined with the data of *Heard and Carter* [1968] yield the flow law

$$\dot{\epsilon} = 5 \times 10^6 (\sigma_1 - \sigma_3)^3 \exp \left(\frac{-0.19 \text{ MJ/mol}}{RT} \right) \quad \sigma_1 - \sigma_3 < 1000 \text{ MPa} \quad (5)$$

where $\dot{\epsilon}$ is in s^{-1} and $\sigma_1 - \sigma_3$ is in megapascals.

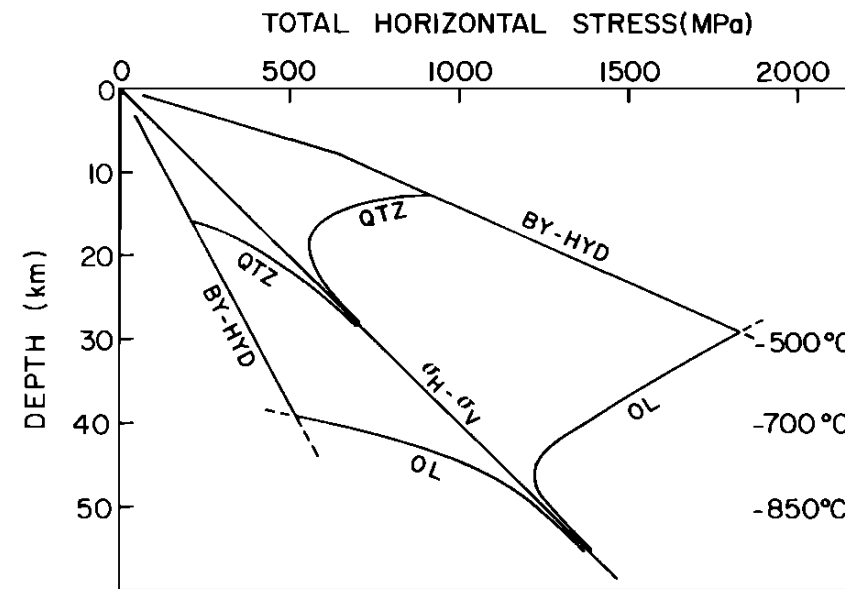


Fig. 4. Limiting values of total horizontal stress as a function of depth, based on Byerlee's law with hydrostatic pore pressure (BY-HYD) and the quartz (QTZ) and olivine (OL) flow laws adjusted to a strain rate of 10^{-15} s^{-1} . The temperature profile $T(^{\circ}\text{K}) = 350 + 15z(\text{km})$.

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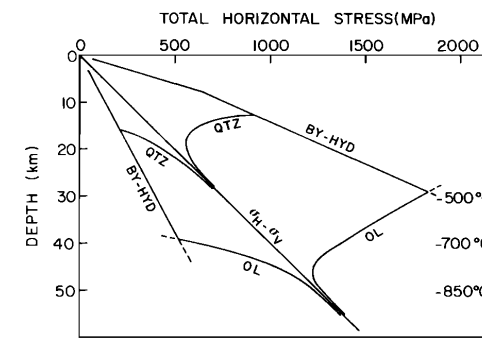
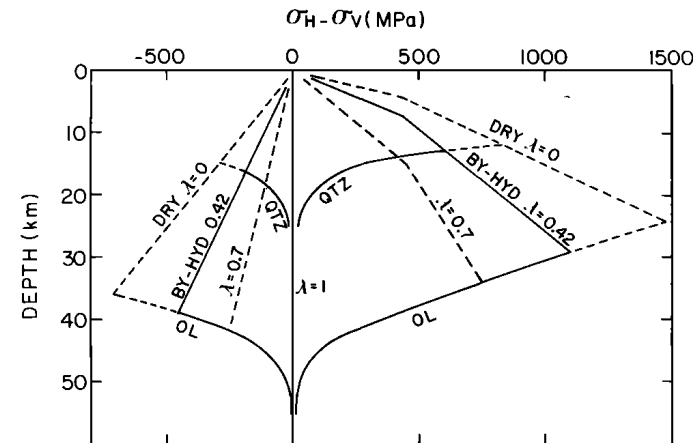


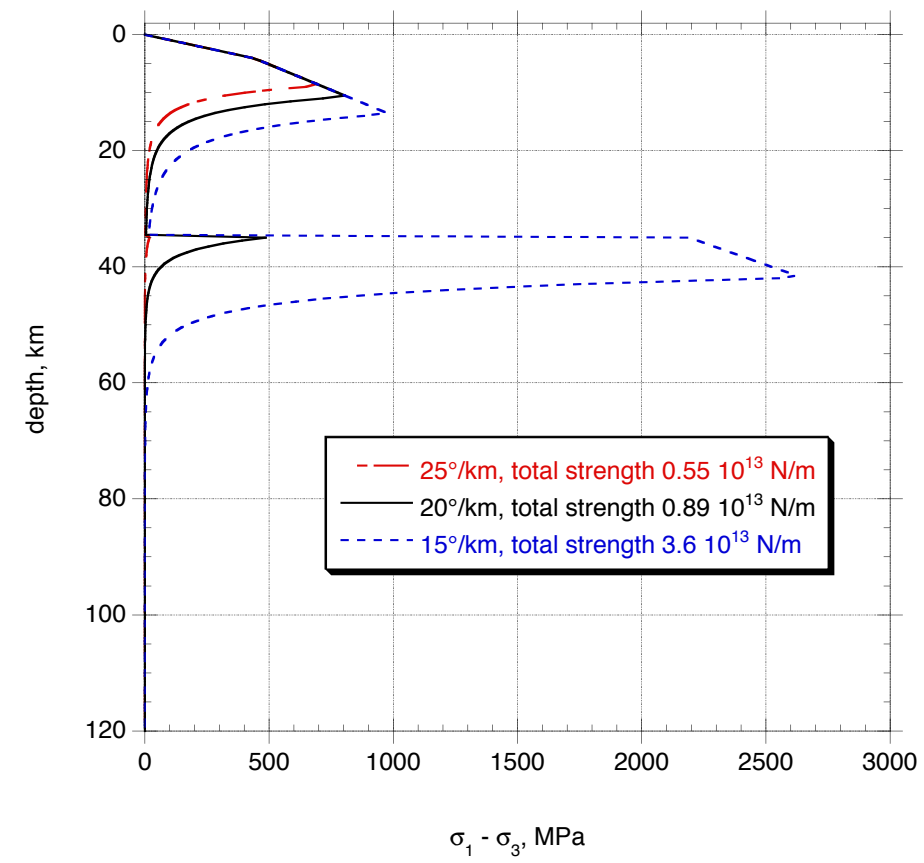
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Brace & Kohlstedt, JGR, 1980

Fig. 5. Difference between maximum or minimum horizontal stress and the vertical stress as a function of depth. Values of λ give pore pressure level. See also Figure 4.

Compression, strain rate 10^{-15} s^{-1} , quartzite over olivene



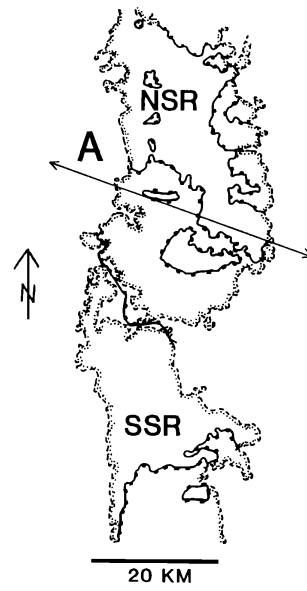
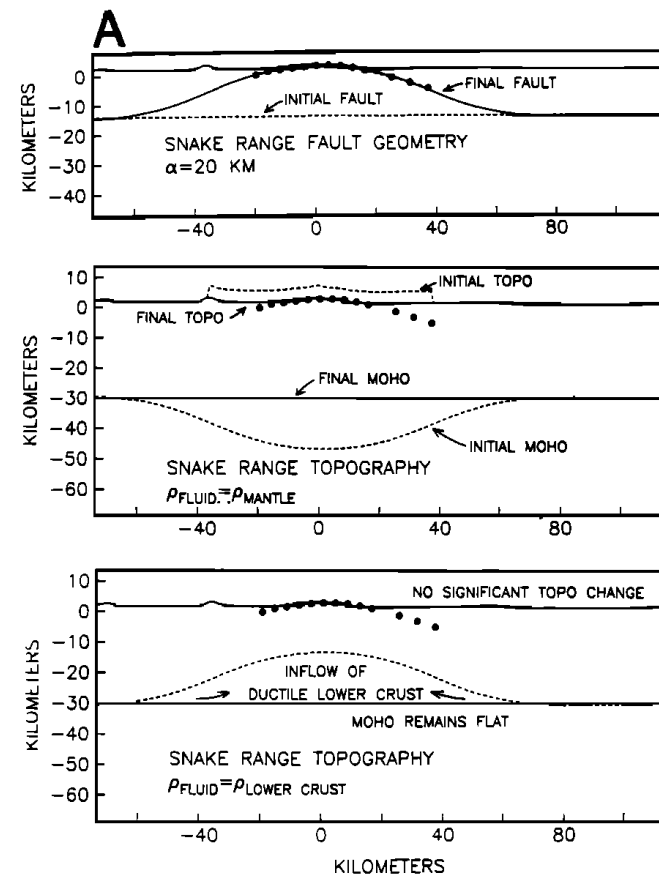


Fig. 3. Pre- and post-extensional fault geometry and topography for the Snake Range and Whipple Mountain detachment faults assuming that the fault was initially flat at a depth of 14 km (Figures 3a and 3c) or had an initial depth of 14 km at $x=0$ and dipped 20° E between the surface and 30 km depth (Figures 3b and 3d). Observed fault geometries (dots) and observed topography (solid lines) are shown in each panel (locations in Figure 2). Top panels in each Figure 3a-3d show the assumed initial (dashed line) and computed final (solid line) fault geometries.



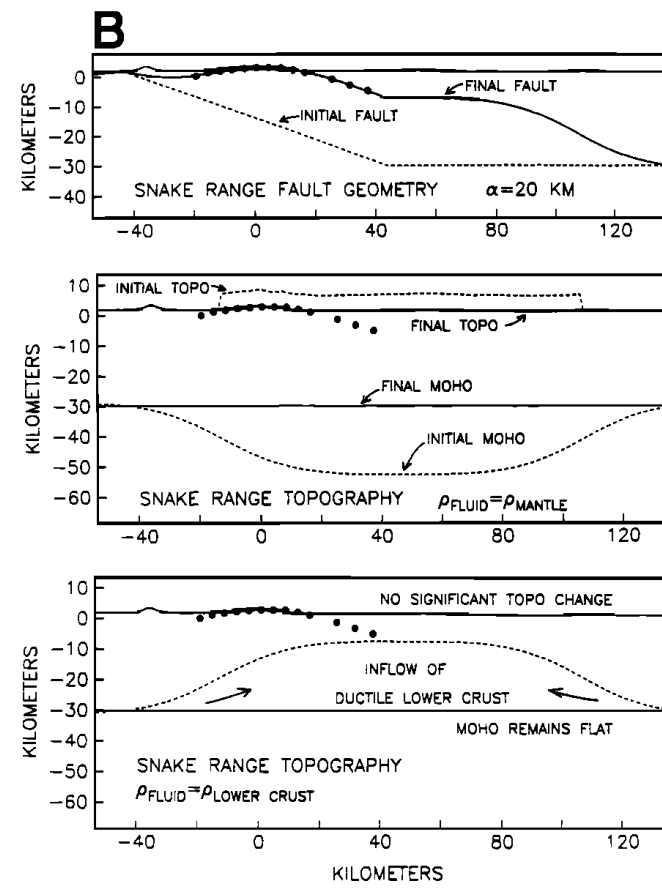
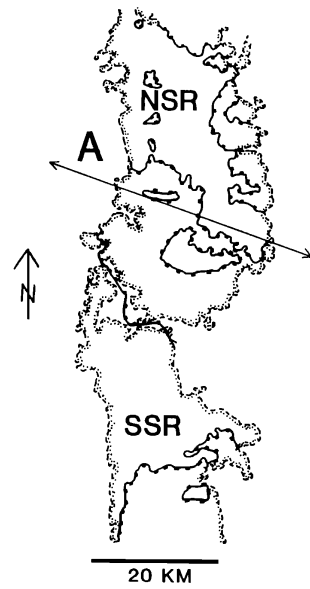


Fig. 3. Pre- and post-extensional fault geometry and topography for the Snake Range and Whipple Mountain detachment faults assuming that the fault was initially flat at a depth of 14 km (Figures 3a and 3c) or had an initial depth of 14 km at $x=0$ and dipped 20° E between the surface and 30 km depth (Figures 3b and 3d). Observed fault geometries (dots) and observed topography (solid lines) are shown in each panel (locations in Figure 2). Top panels in each Figure 3a-3d show the assumed initial (dashed line) and computed final (solid line) fault geometries.

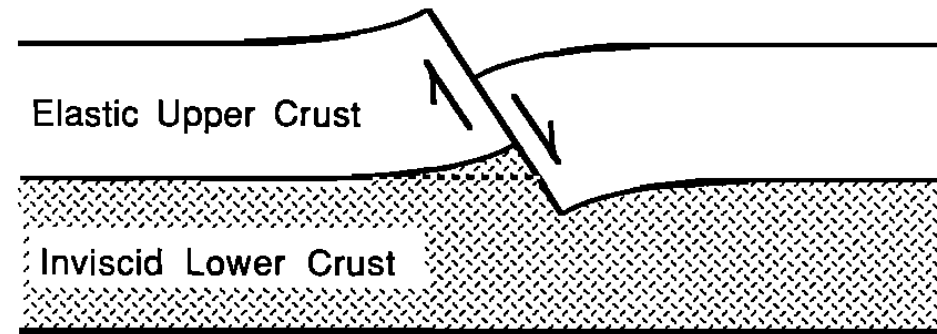


Fig. 4. Schematic of a normal fault cutting the entire upper crust. The base of the upper crust is always at a fixed depth, as shown by the dashed line.

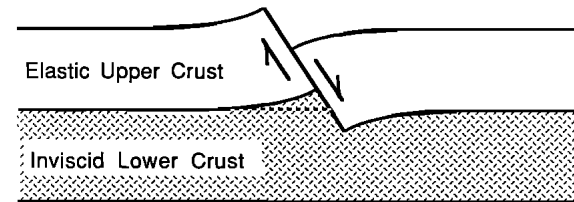


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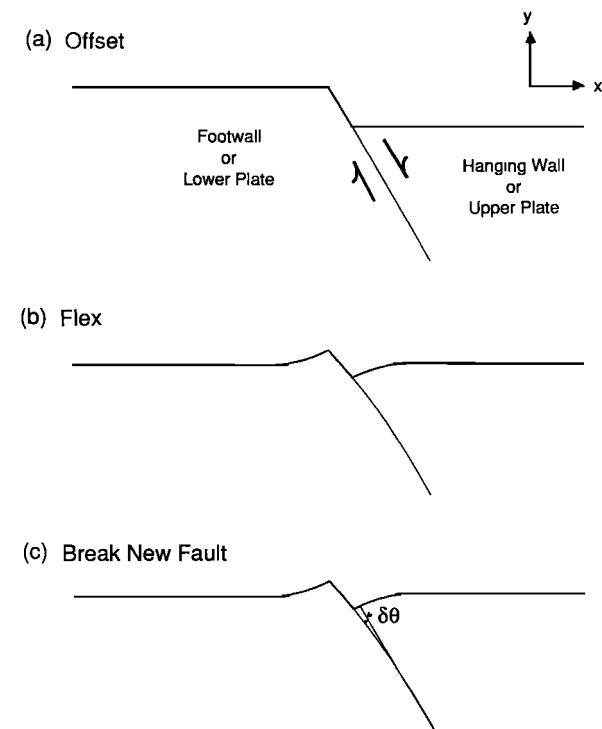


Fig. 6. Model formulation. (a) shows offset along a high-angle normal fault; (b) shows flexural response to the topographic load caused by the offset. The flexure causes rotation of the high angle normal fault over a flexural wavelength. In (c) the rotated fault is abandoned and a new extension of the fault, which is rooted in the lower crust, is cut through the top of the upper crust.

Buck, Tectonics, 1988

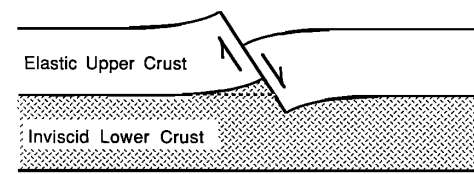


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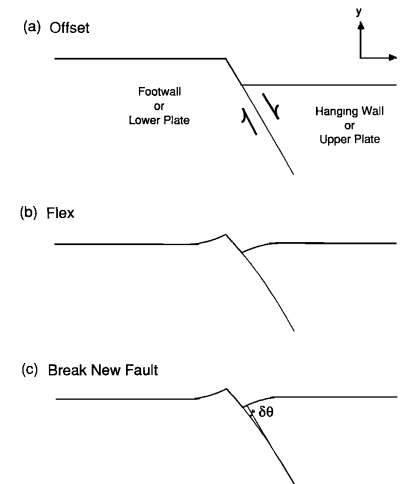


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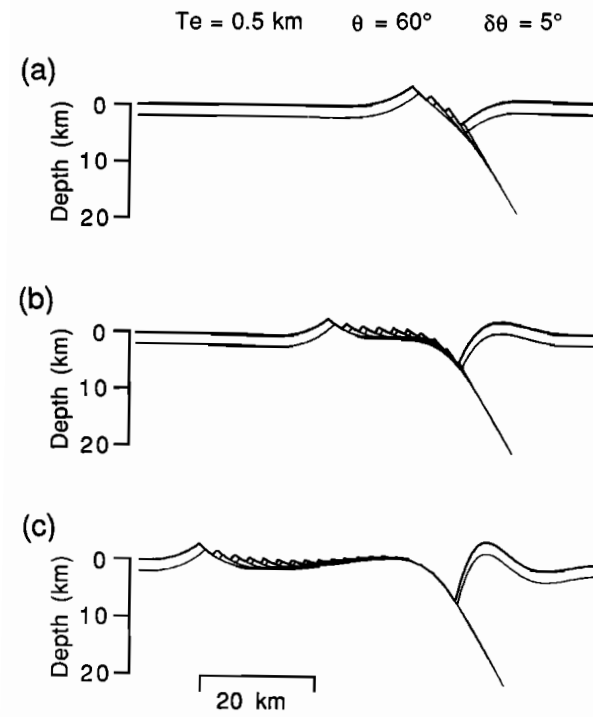


Fig. 7. Topography and positions of active and abandoned faults resulting from a calculation with a fault angle θ of 60° , an effective flexural rigidity of 0.5 km, and a rotation angle $\delta\theta$ of 5° . A line at 2 km depth is also plotted. Horizontal offsets of approximately (a) 15 km, (b) 30 km, and (c) 60 km are shown. There is no vertical exaggeration.

Buck, Tectonics, 1988

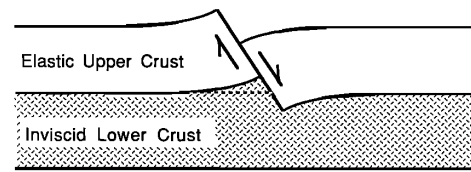


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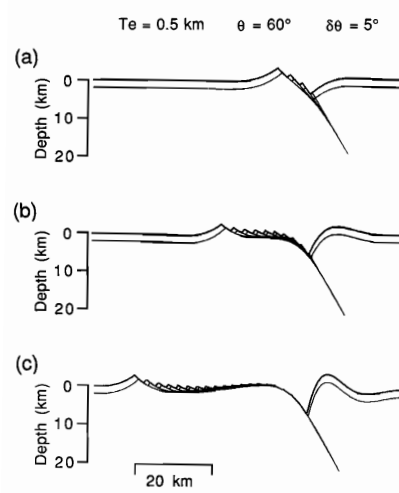


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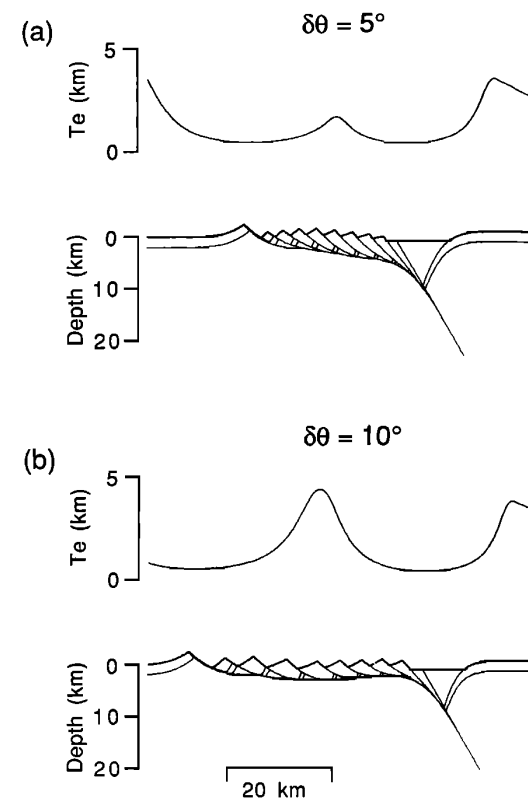


Fig. 12. Results of variable rigidity calculations in which sediment has been added to fill in all levels below 1000 m depth. Two cases of assumed angle of fault rotation before fault abandonment are shown: $\delta\theta = 5^\circ$ and $\delta\theta = 10^\circ$.

Buck, Tectonics, 1988

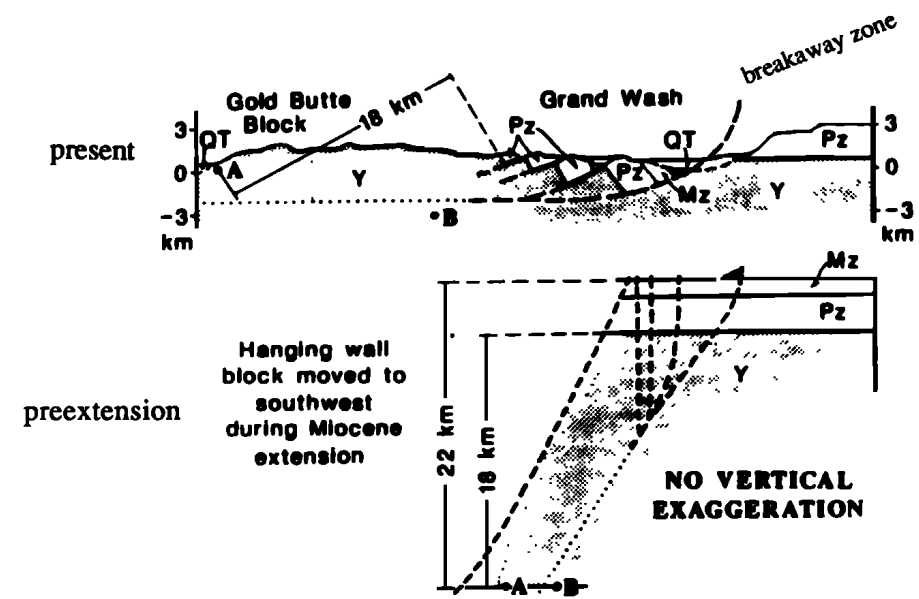


Fig. 2. Schematic cross section perpendicular to strike of transition zone at the latitude of Lake Mead showing inferred uplift of Gold Butte block. Location of profile shown in Figure 1. Modified from *Wernicke and Axen* [1988].

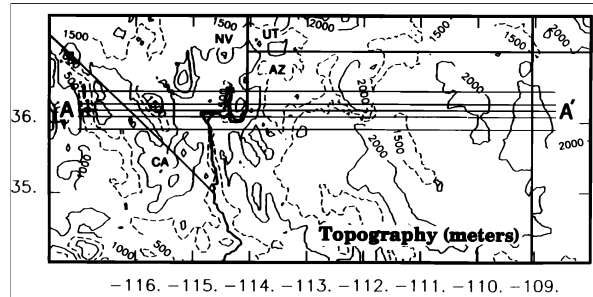


Fig. 3a. Topographic map of Lake Mead area and western Colorado Plateau. Thick lines mark state boundaries and the shore of Lake Mead. Thin straight lines show the location of topography profiles in Figure 4. Data taken from the NOAA TGP-0030 30' topography data set.

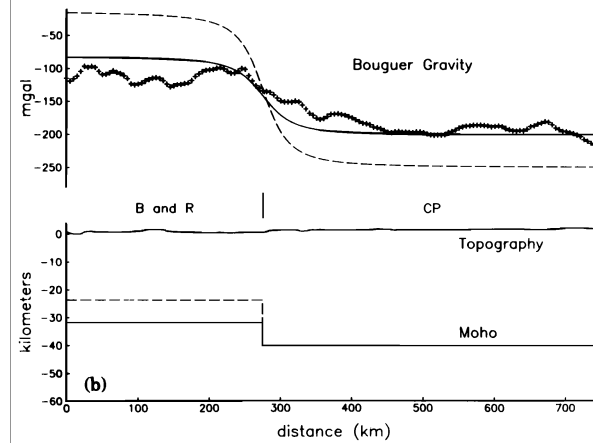


Fig. 5. (continued)

Kruse et al., JGR, 1991

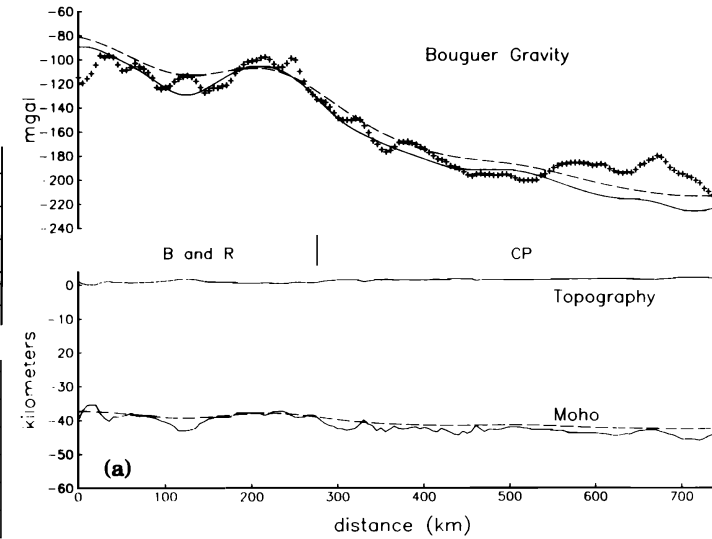


Fig. 5. Bouguer gravity anomalies predicted by simple compensation models. Topography data used in modeling are averaged from the five profiles of Figure 4. Crosses mark observed Bouguer gravity anomalies similarly averaged from the profiles of Figure 4. Short vertical line between upper and lower plots marks location of transition zone. (a) Solid curve shows local (Airy) compensation of topography by deflections of the Moho. Dashed curve shows compensation at Moho assuming a flexural rigidity of 10^{22} N m. (b) Bouguer gravity anomalies and Moho depths corresponding to uniform stretching of the lithosphere west of the transition zone according to the model of McKenzie [1978]. Solid curves indicate values associated with extension by a factor $\beta = 1.33$, resulting in 10 km of crustal thinning of crust initially 40 km thick. Dashed curves show values predicted from extension by a factor of 2 with 20 km of crustal thinning. Bouguer gravity anomalies are calculated assuming that the lithosphere in the extended region has thinned uniformly, maintaining a linear temperature gradient between the surface and a temperature of 1350°C at the base of the lithospheric plate. The unextended thickness of the lithospheric plate is set to 125 km. Deflections of the Moho maintain local (Airy) isostasy. To best fit the observed gravity data -200 mGal were added to the gravity predicted by the model for $\beta = 1.33$ (solid curves) and 250 mGal were added to the gravity predicted by the $\beta = 2$ (dashed curves) model.

I think they assumed a Moho contrast of 600 kg m^{-3}

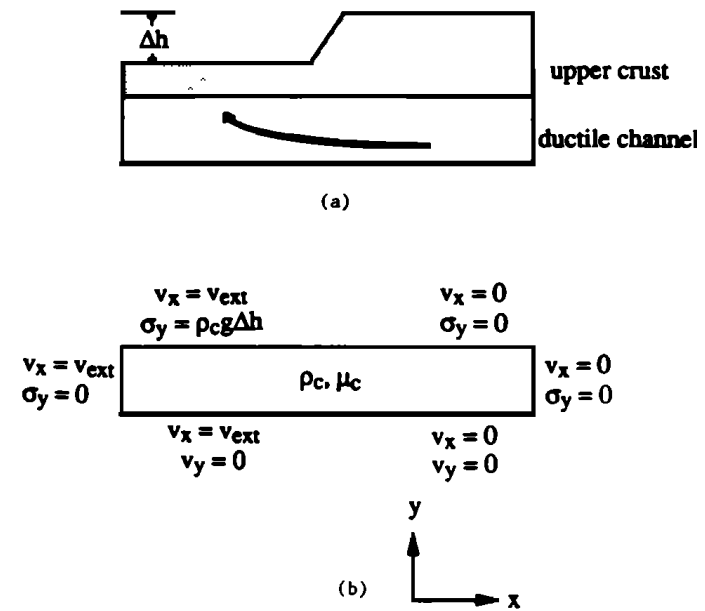


Fig. 7. (a) Schematic representation of ductile flow in response to upper crustal thinning. (b) Boundary conditions on finite element models for ductile channel with a fixed lower boundary.

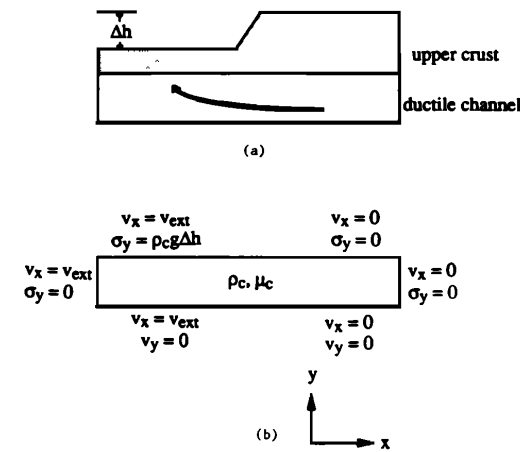


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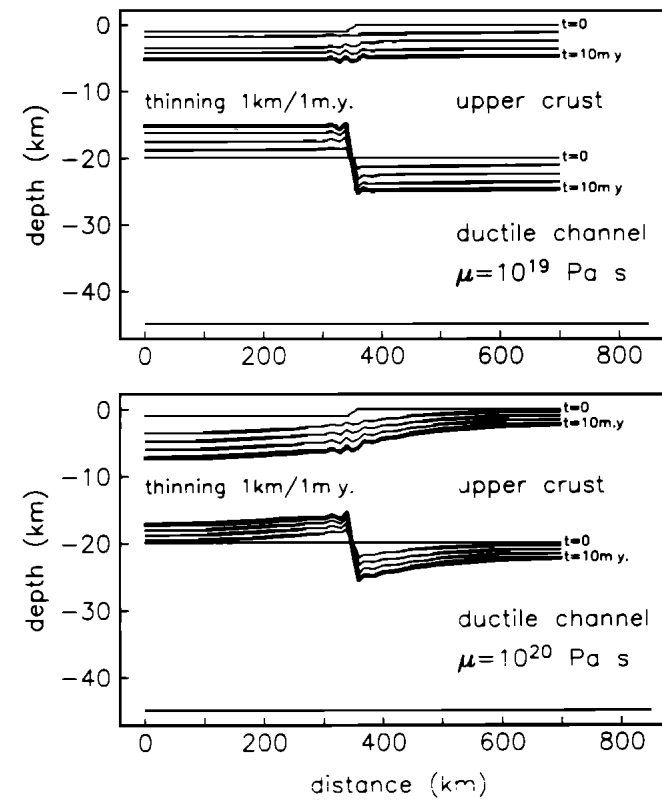


Fig. 10. Variations in total crustal thickness and ductile channel thickness for flow in a channel initially 25 km thick with a fixed lower boundary. The upper crust has zero flexural rigidity and thins over the left side of the mesh at a rate of 1 km/m.y.

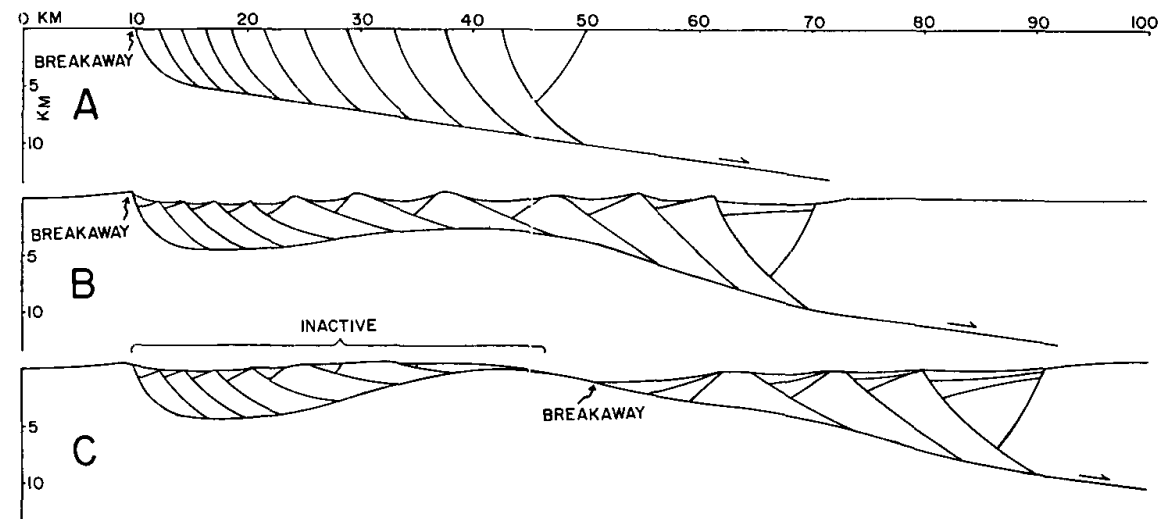
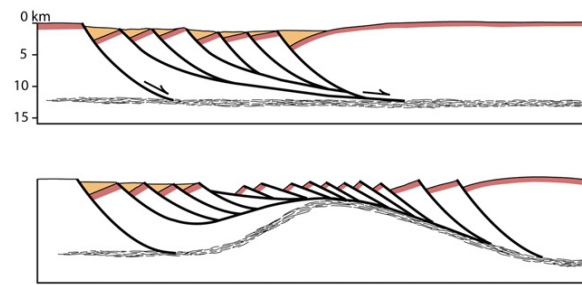
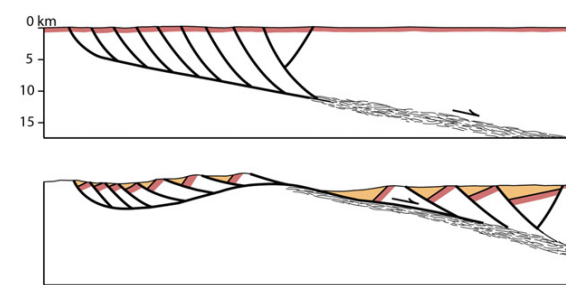


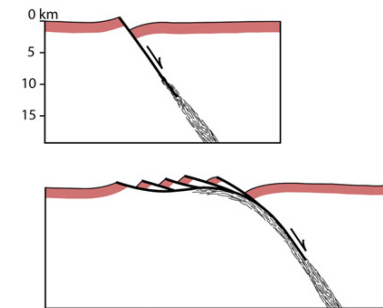
Figure 2. Schematic diagram of warping and uplift of detachment fault. A: Inception of master detachment fault and subsidiary normal faults within upper plate. B: After 20 km of extension an antiformal warp has developed. Shape of warp and amount of uplift are depicted in listric model of Figure 1 (solid line). Antiform is becoming barrier to movement of upper plate from left, upper plate in area of synformal warping is becoming inactive, and one-sided denudation of antiform is about to begin. C: 20 km of one-sided denudation has resulted in further uplift and initial exposure of lower plate to subaerial erosion. Shape of basal detachment fault and distribution of extension during one-sided denudation resemble planar detachment of Figure 1 and skewed distribution of extension (dashed line, Fig. 1), resulting in subdued arching of fault surface and amplified uplift in breakaway area.



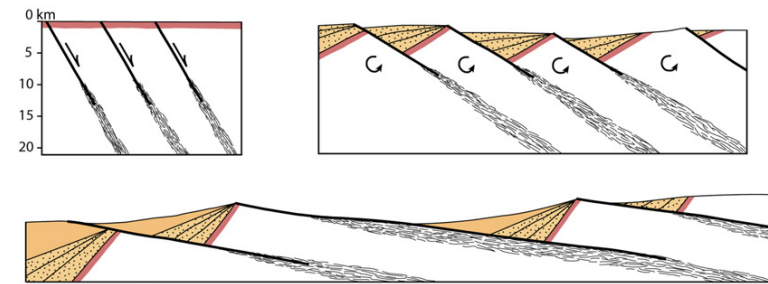
A Low-angle normal faults splay from a subhorizontal mylonitic shear zone



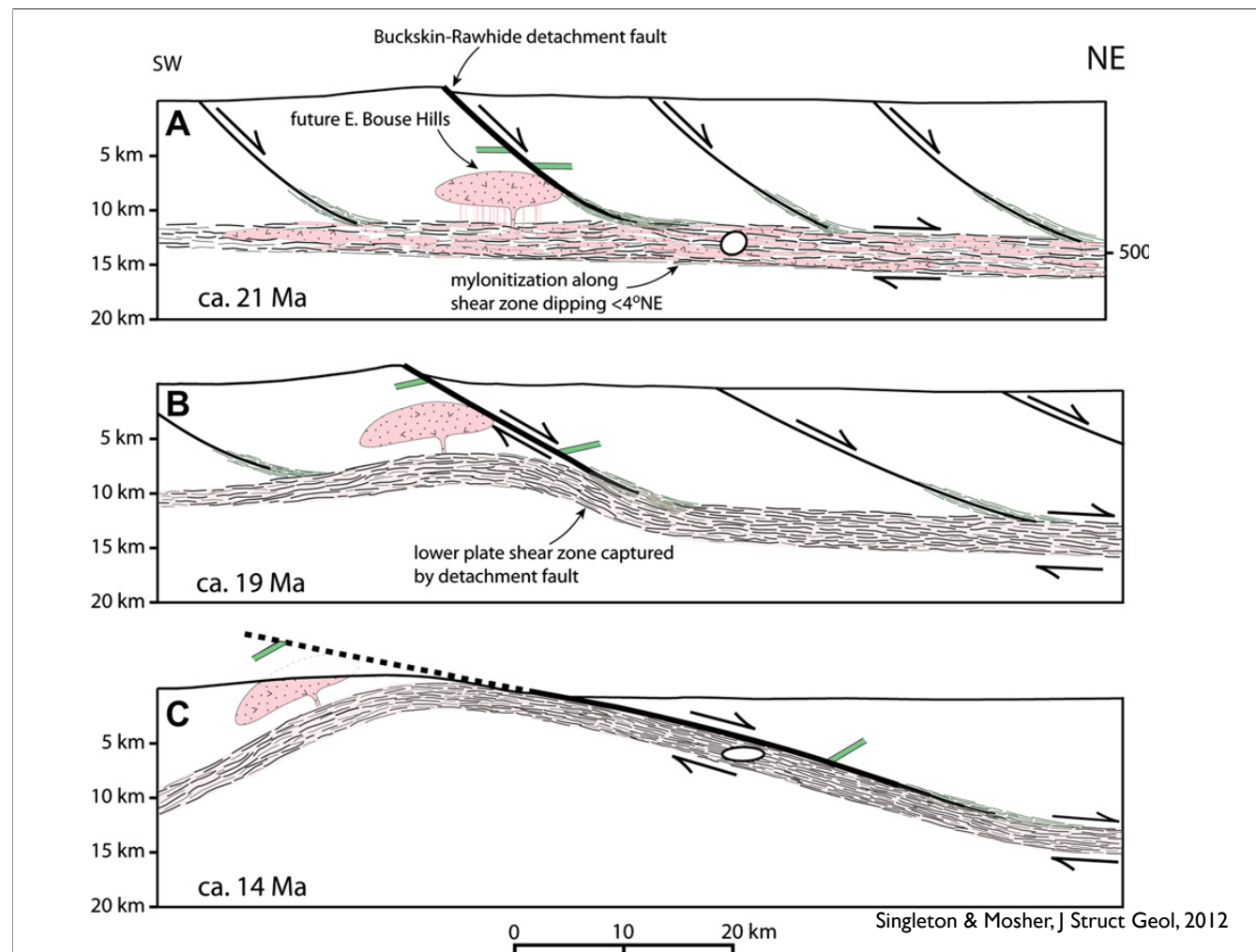
B Mylonitic shear zone and master detachment fault initiate at a shallow dip



C Detachment fault and mylonitic shear zone initiate at a high angle and isostatically rotate to subhorizontal along a "rolling hinge"



D Detachment faults and mylonitic shear zones initiate at moderate to steep angles (40-60°) and rotate to sub-horizontal via domino-style extension



Based on temp est from quartz deformation in mylonites, argue shear zone initiated as a very flat feature but think that the upper plate faults were much steeper.