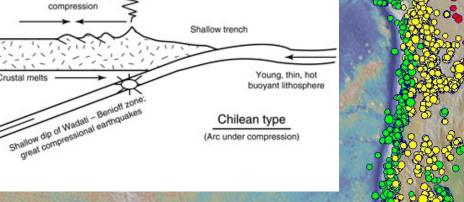
Andean (non-collisional, ocean-continent) Himalayan (collisional, continent-continent)

ad sections 10.1 to 10.4 in KK&V

Lecture 12: Orogeny



080 9

Backarc

Crustal melte

0 900 BUS 82000



Above: The highest Peak to Peak summit - Aconcagua

Early explanations for arcuate mountain ranges...

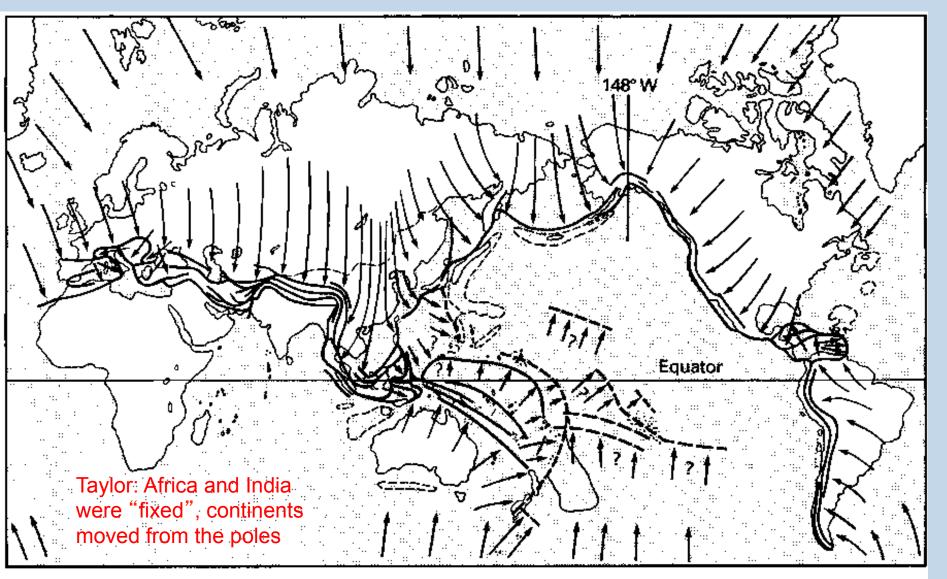
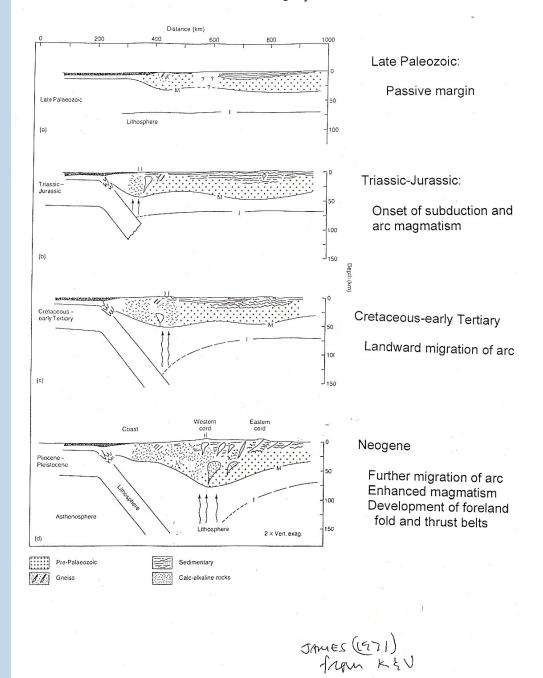


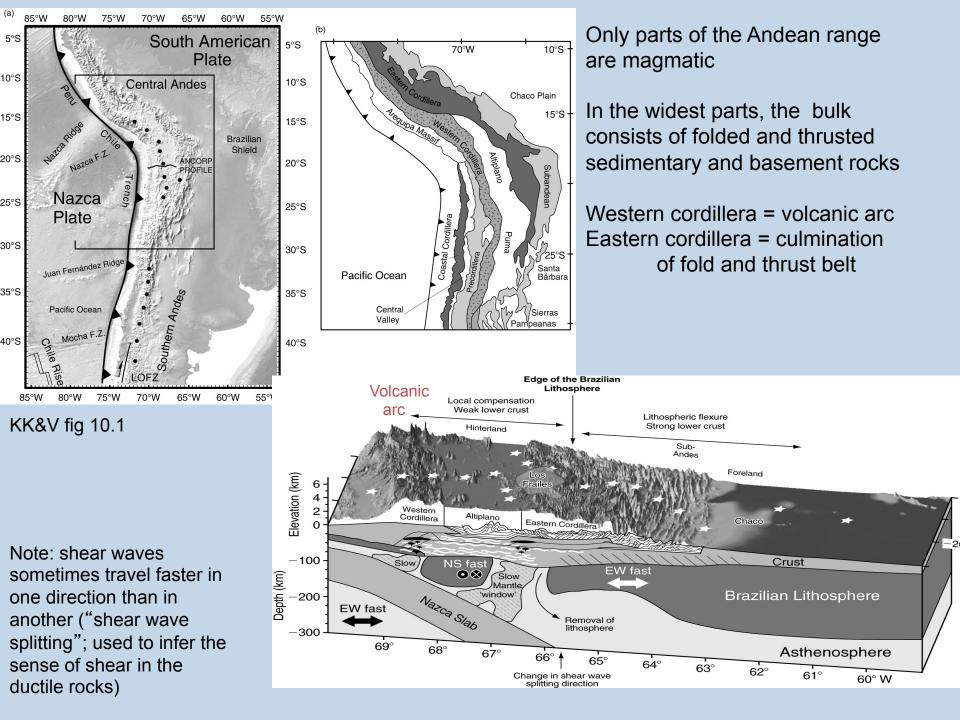
Fig. 1.2 Taylor's mechanism for the formation of Tertiary mountain belts by continental drift (after Taylor, 1910).

Classic Andean Orogeny

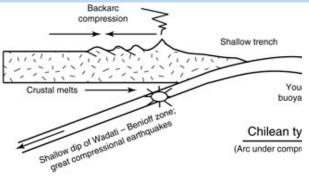


More recent (pre-1970's) view of the formation of the Andes

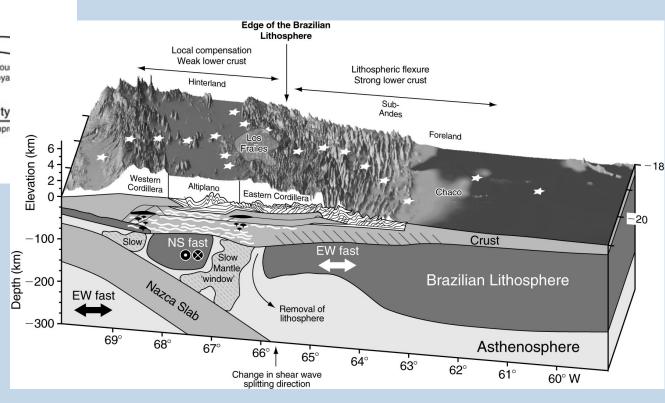
Actually, a lot less is magmatic than is implied by this figure

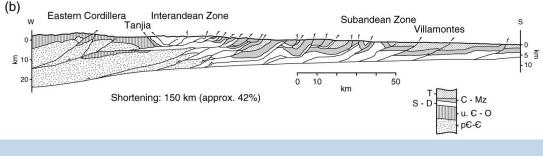


Foreland fold and thrust belts



Some similarities to accretionary prisms: sediments are being scrapped off basement, deformation front, long thrust faults





But big differences: often thrusts extend into the basement, and even cut through entire crust; mechanism for crustal shortening

KK&V fig 10.7

KK&V fig 10.5

The Andean foreland is associated with three different styles of tectonic shortening:

a) thin-skinned, b) thick-skinned and c) basement thrusts that cut through the entire crust.

The latter are found in the Pampean Ranges of the "flat slab" sections – with very destructive earthquakes.

"Flat slab" subduction

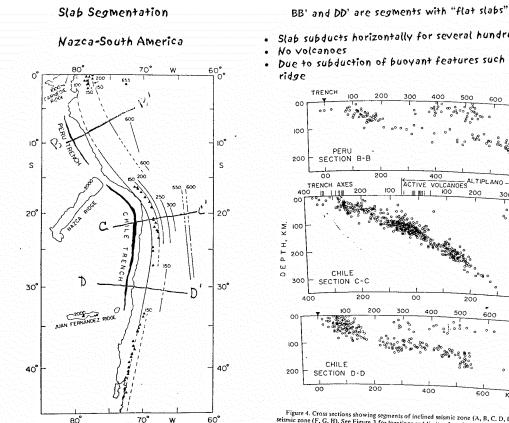


Figure 5. Map showing contours of hypocentral depth to top of inclined seismic zone.

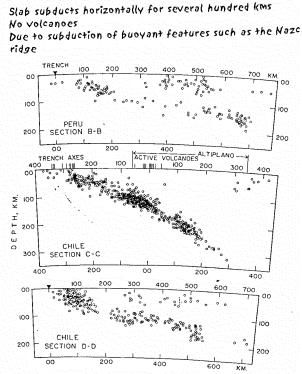
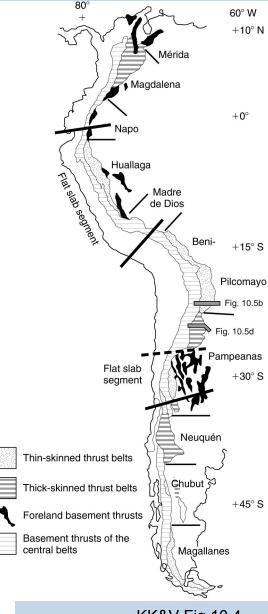
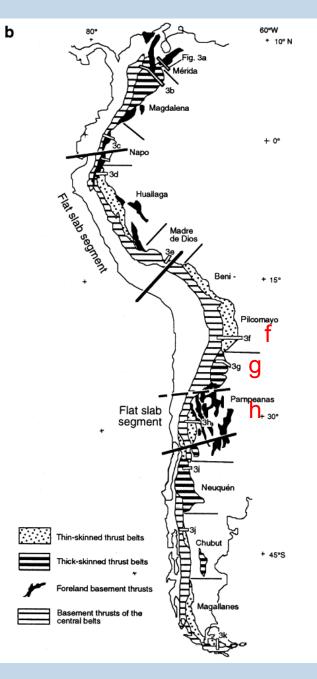


Figure 4. Cross sections showing segments of inclined seismic zone (A, B, C, D, E) and deep seismic zone (F, G, H). See Figure 3 for locations and limits of sections.

Par in disheks hart.



KK&V Fig 10.4

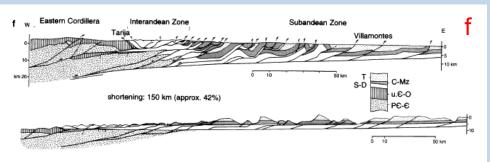


The style of foreland thrust faulting varies from region to region

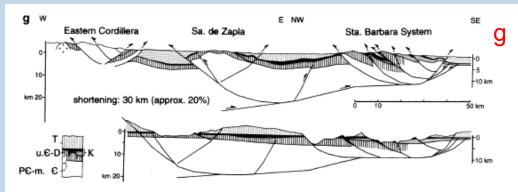
- 1) Thin-skinned (thrusts start within Paleozoic sediments at depths of 7 -10 km)
- 2) Thick-skinned (thrusts start within Pre-Cambrian basement at 10 20 kms), and
- 3) Foreland basement thrusts (thrusts cut through entire crust) (in flat slab segments)

Thin-skinned

Top: observed cross-section Bottom: palinspastic reconstruction

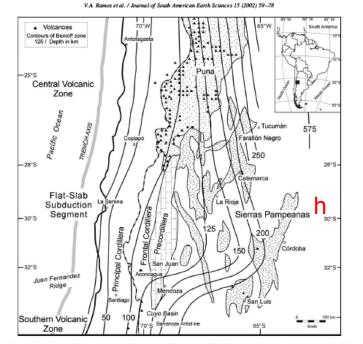


Thick-skinned

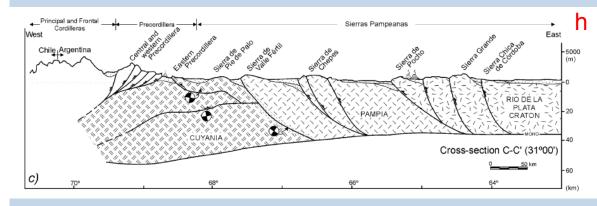


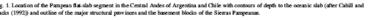
KK&V Fig. 10.4

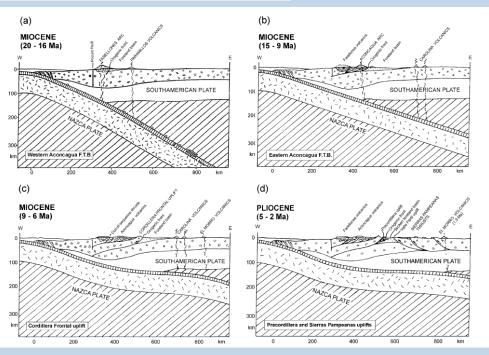
KK&V Fig. 10.5



Sierra Pampeanas: Basement thrusts cutting through entire crust observed in the <u>flat-slab segment</u>east of the Juan Fernandez ridge

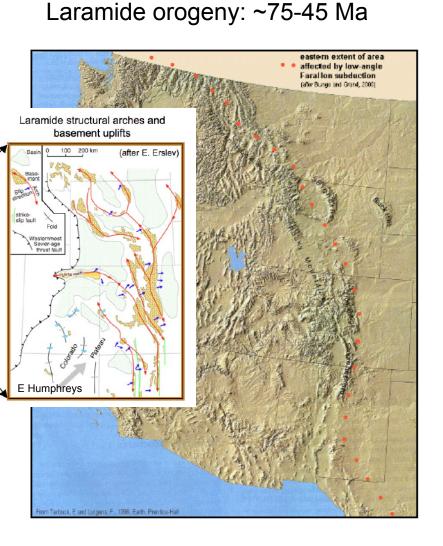




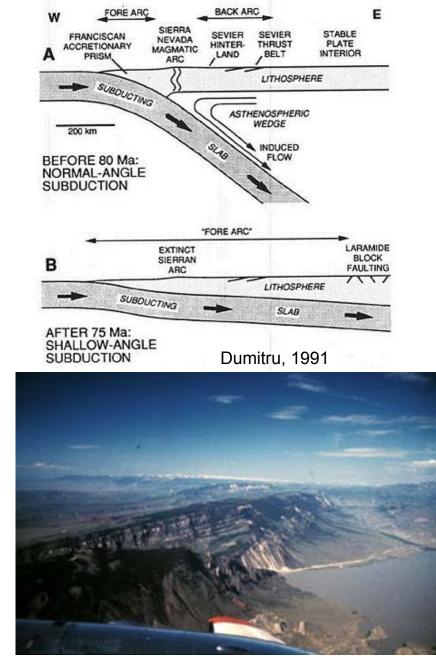


Eastward migration of volcanism in Miocene (20 – 6 Ma) as slab shallows, then (since 5 Ma) cessation of volcanism and development of basement thrusts as slab goes flat

Destructive earthquakes



Style of basement uplift in the Laramides is similar to the style of basement faulting in the Pampean Ranges of western Argentina– hence speculation that the Laramides were also caused by flat slab subduction



Laramide deformation: Precambrian rocks thrust up and over Paleozoic rocks. Near Cody, Wyoming (Courtesy of Prof. Burchfiel). In the western US, the "flat slab" event is attributed to the subduction of a hypothetical large, aseismic ridge (perhaps like the Ontong-Java plateau) in the late Cretaceous and early Cenozoic.

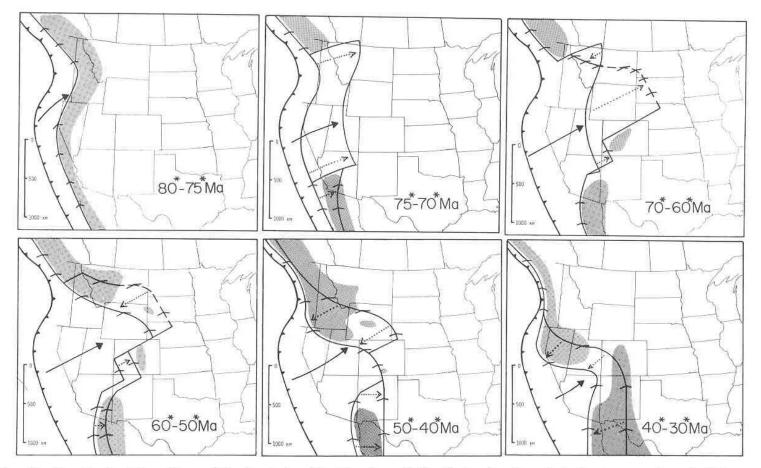
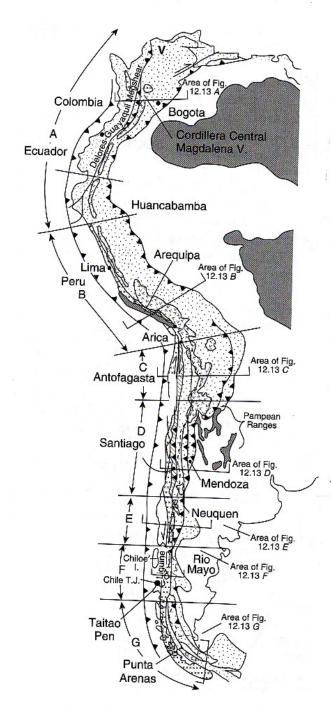


Fig. 5. Hypothesized locations of horizontal subduction beneath North America from late Cretaceous through Oligocene time. Palinspastic base map is from Hamilton [1978]. Solid arrows show velocity of the Farallon plate with respect to North America [Engebretson, 1983]; lengths are equal to 5 m.y. of relative displacement. Shading indicates regions of volcanism from Snyder et al. [1976] and Lipman [1980]. Solid lines without angle symbols at 70 m.y. represent edges of the flat slab, which should not have caused volcanism. Lines with dihedral angle symbols are suggested hingelines at the beginning and end of each period. Dotted arrows show the sense of hingeline migration. (*Note that all dates are based on cooling ages, so that if any significant time is required for intrusion and cooling, the slab may have actually reached the indicated position at an earlier time.)

Bird, 1988



Andean orogeny: present

Great latitudinal complexity

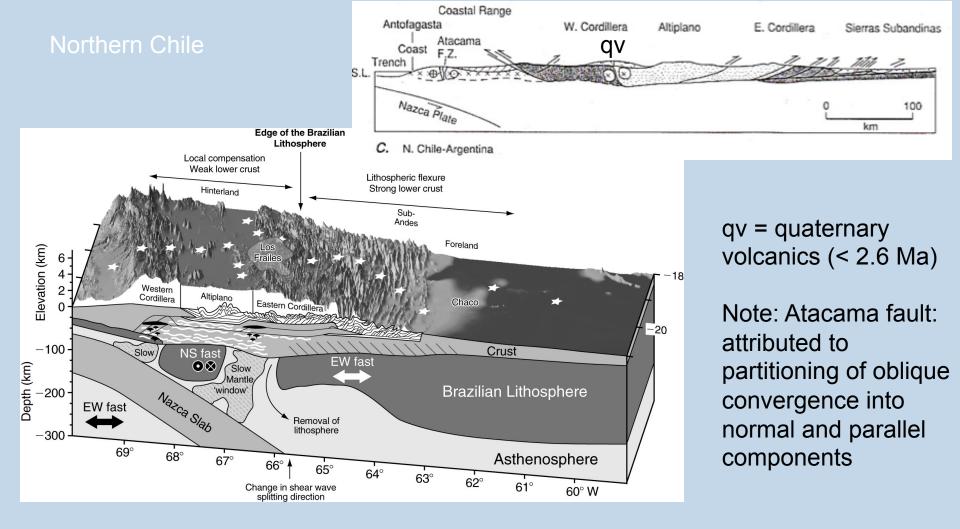
Temporal/spatial patterns of volcanism and magmatism Fore-arc and Foreland (Back-arc) basins Thrust faults in fore-arc and foreland Trench parallel strike slip faults (e.g. Atacam Fault and Liquine-Ofqui Fault) Accreted terranes (Ecuador and Columbia)



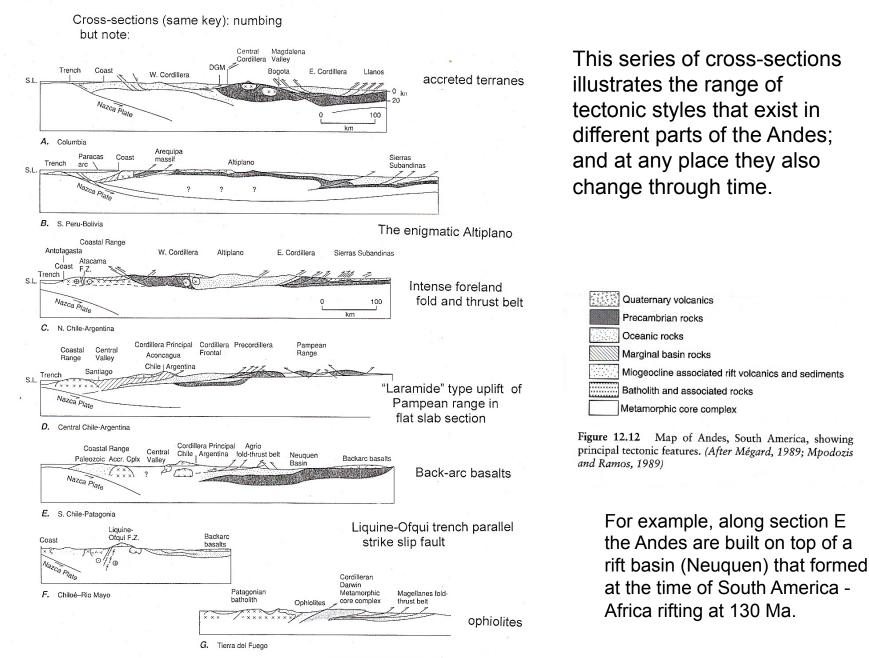
Figure 12.12 Map of Andes, South America, showing principal tectonic features. (After Mégard, 1989; Mpodozis and Ramos, 1989)

M&T

Moores and Twiss



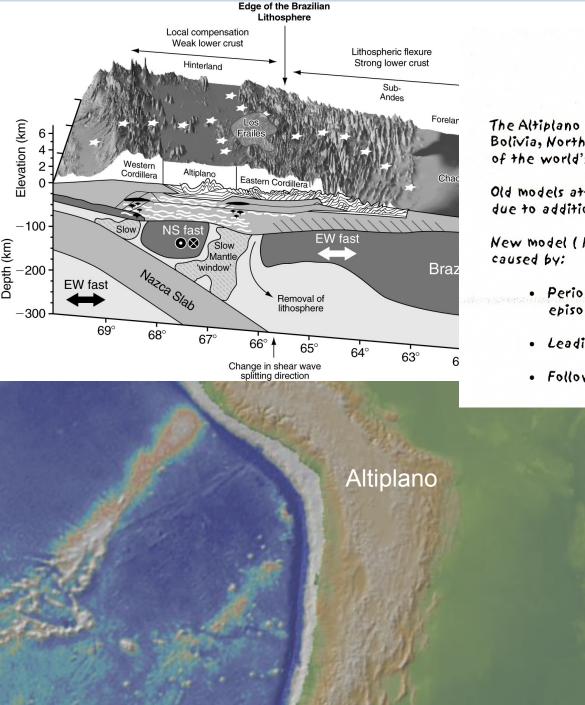
Western cordillera = volcanic arc Eastern cordillera = culmination of crustal shortening Altiplano = high plateau separating them



Case Studies of Orogenic Belts 335

Mat

Moores and Twiss



Origin of the Altiplano

The Altiplano is a region 300 km x 2000 km in southern Peru, Bolivia, Northern Chile with elevations near 4 kms. It forms one of the world's great plateaus.

Old models attributed the high elevations to crustal thickening due to addition of enormous volumes of magmatic material.

New model (Isacks, 1988) proposes that the thickening is caused by:

- Period of lithospheric heating and thinning during an episode of shallow, but not flat, subduction
- · Leading to crustal weakening
- · Followed by compressional crustal shortening

16°S

18°S

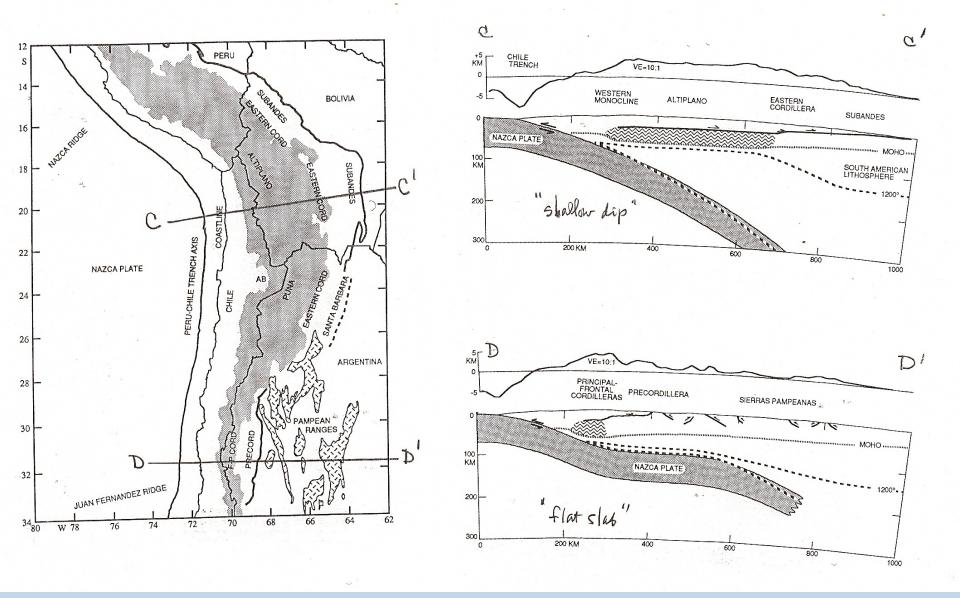
20°S

22°S

24°S

26°S

28°S



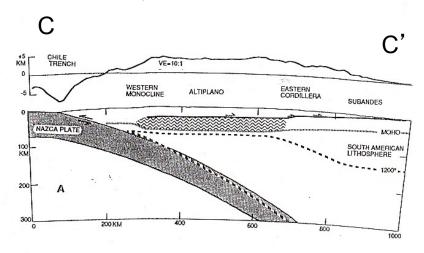
Note that the Altiplano occurs in the "shallow dip" segment, top. Not to be confused with the "flat slab" segment, below

Isacks (1988)

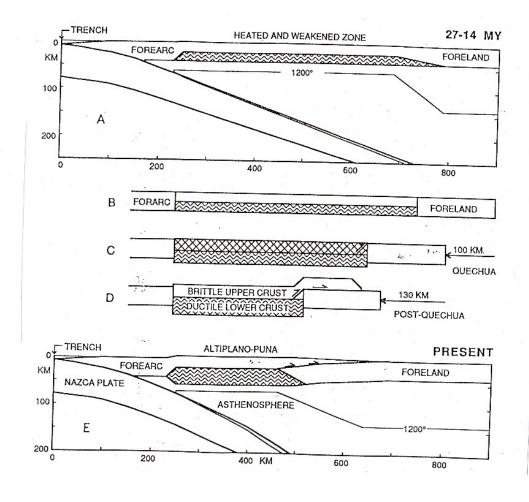
Model

Crustal thickening model for the Origin of the Altiplano

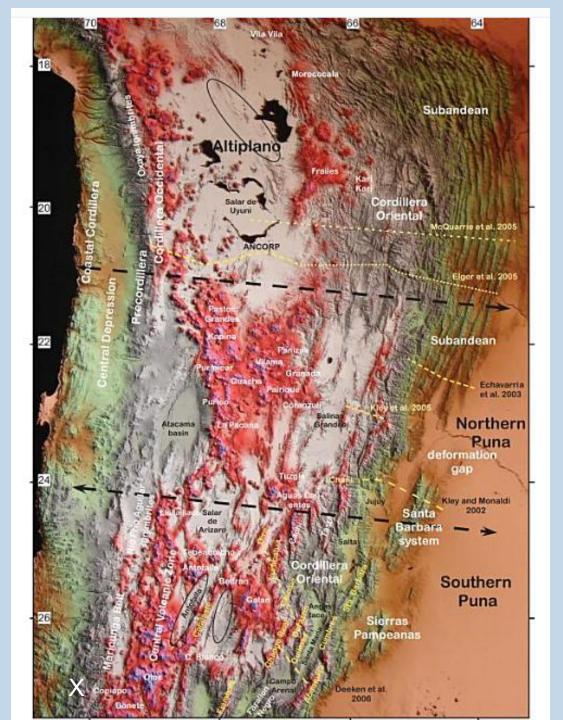
Present day



High elevation of the Altiplano is due to crustal shortening (300+ km) and thickening following a period of shallow (but not flat) subduction, during which the crust was heated and weakened.



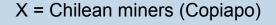
Isacks (1988)







Half of the world' s lithium is in Bolivia



Kay and Colra (2009) GSA Memoir 204

e Peru Altiplano-Puna, South America Bolivia 20S lauique Pritchard and Simons, 2002 Fialko and Pearse, 2012 Argentina 215 b Paniz Focopilla 22\$ nzuli 23S Uturuncu 0 5 10 km acana fagasta /🛇 24S

Galan

s $rac{71W}{Ps/P=5\%}$ $rac{68W}{Ps/P=50\%}$ $rac{67W}{Ps/P=50\%}$ $rac{66W}{Ps/P=50\%}$ Extremely low seismic velocities at depth of ~19 km

Yuan et al., 2000

Taltal

25S

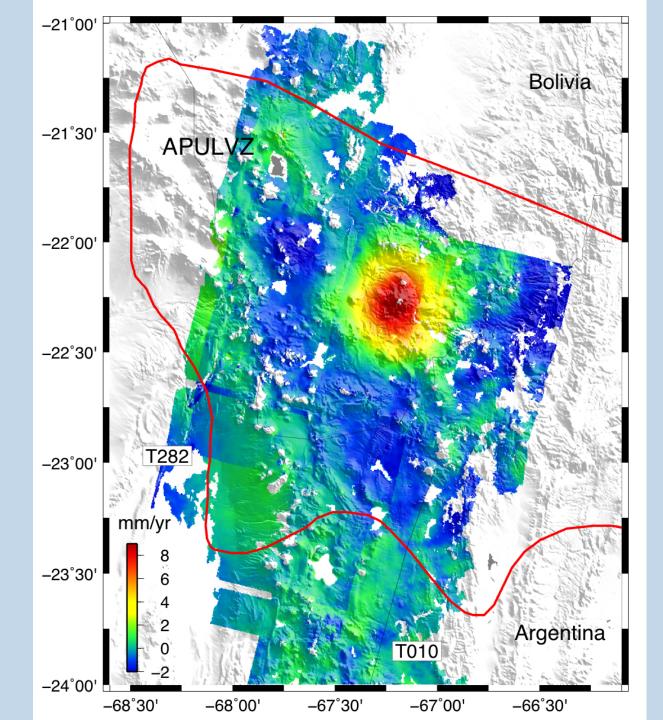
26S

68'W 66'W 64'W

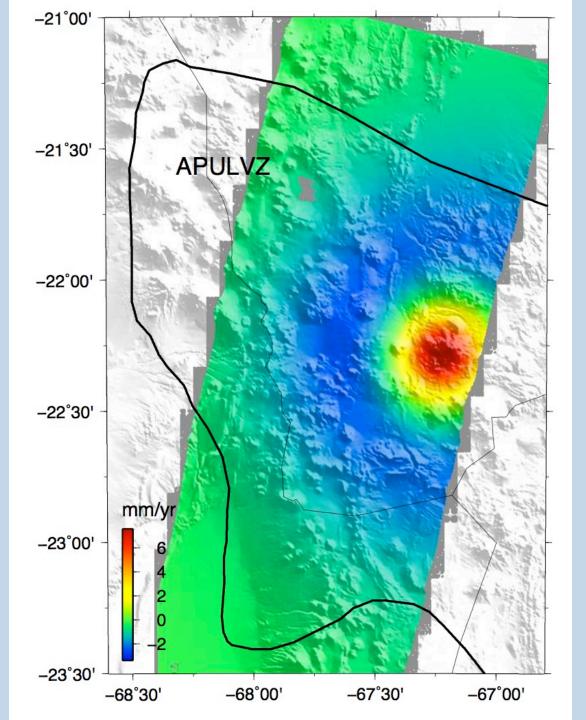
70°W

Longitude

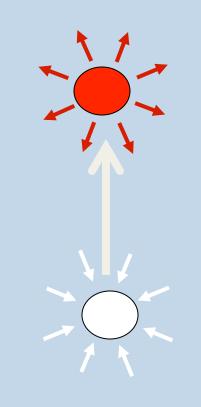
LOS



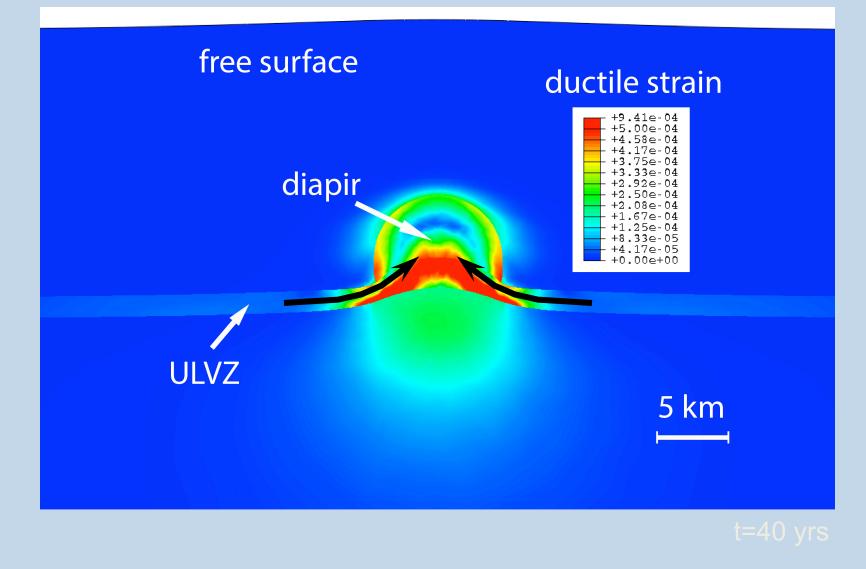
"Sombrero" uplift

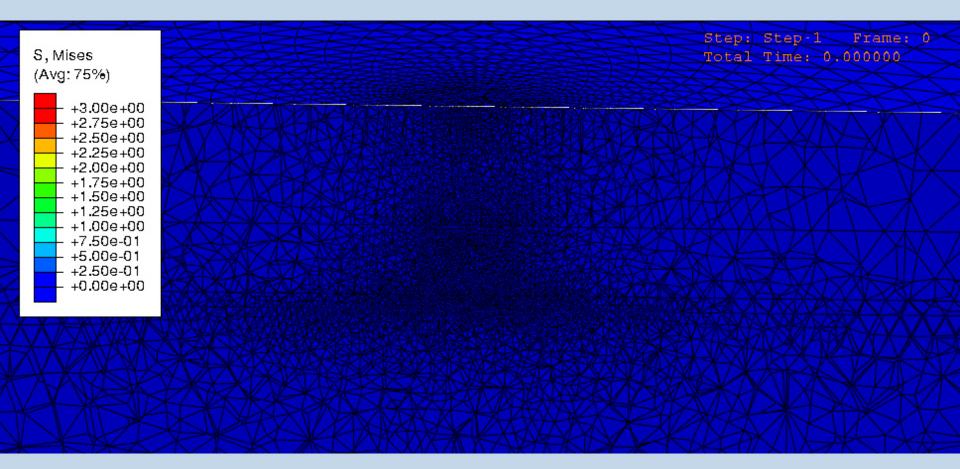


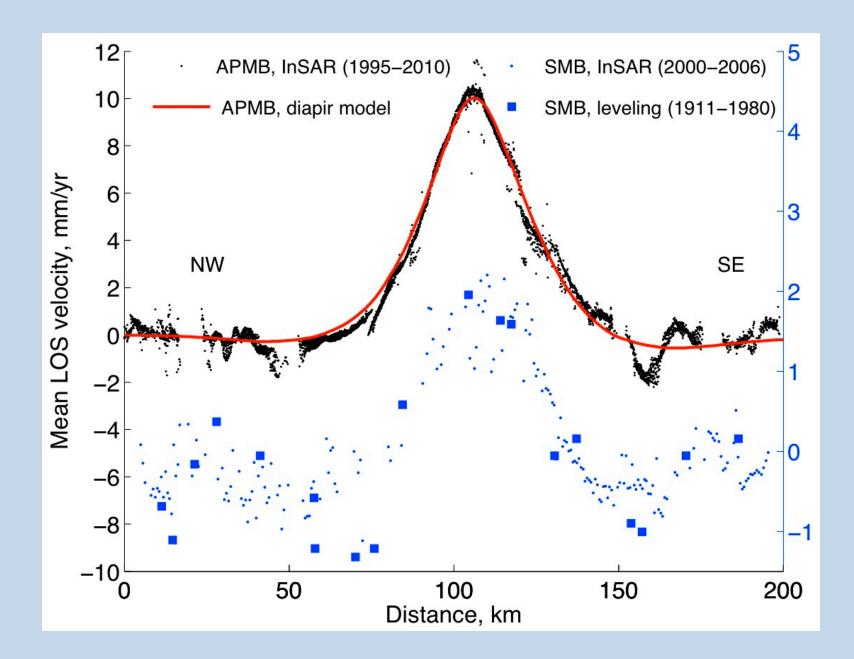
"Mogi dipole"



Model: buoyant diapir on top of AP Magma Body



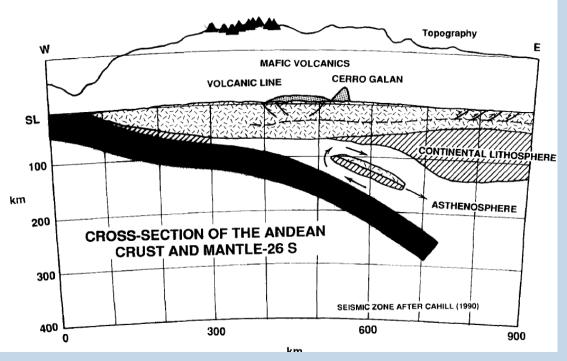




Largest active magma bodies in the continental crust



- Discovered by seismic studies
- Similar emplacement depth (~20 km)
- Geodetically detected uplift
- Similar uplift rates (millimeters/yr)
- Different tectonic settings

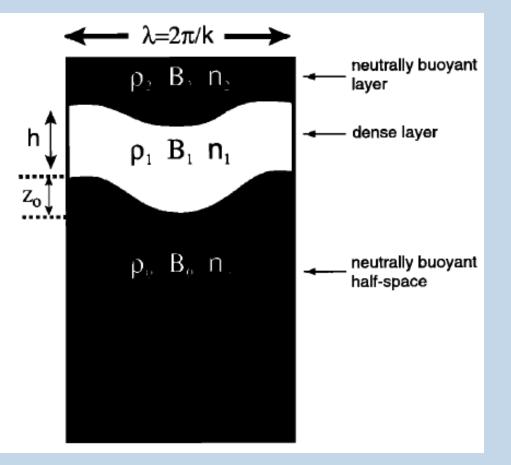


Although lithospheric mantle in general is less dense than the underlying asthenosphere, in cases where there has been a lot of crustal shortening and thickening there may be phase changes in the lower crust and upper mantle that makes this region negatively buoyant. If this material is replaced by less dense material, get isostatic uplift But wait! Two ways to get uplift:

 Crustal thickening
 Delamination: the foundering of dense lithosphere into less dense asthenosphere

Leads to volcanic magmas with distinct compositions

Kay and Kay (1993)



And yet one more idea:

A slight twist: Convective instability of lower crust

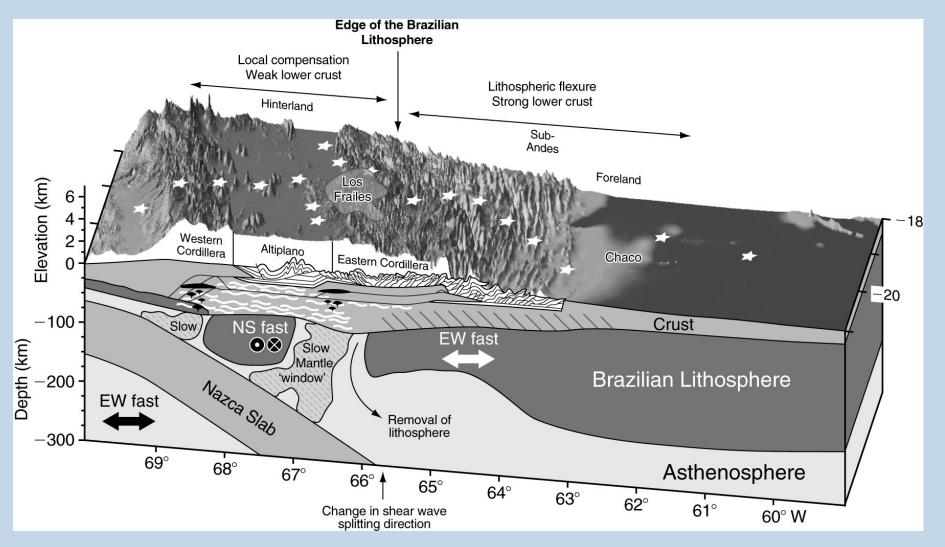
Jull and Kellemen (2001) showed that there is actually a broad range of compositions and conditions in the lower crust where thickened crustal material will be negatively buoyant relative to the underlying mantle and form "blobs" of material that "drip" off of the base of the crust.

Not to be confused with "delamination" where the lower crust "peels off." A lithospheric drip can be envisioned as honey dripping off a spoon, where an initial lithospheric blob is followed by a long tail of material.

When a small, high-density mass is embedded near the base of the crust and the area is warmed up, the high-density piece will be heavier than the area around it and it will start sinking. As it drops, material in the lithosphere starts flowing into the newly created conduit.

ScienceDaily

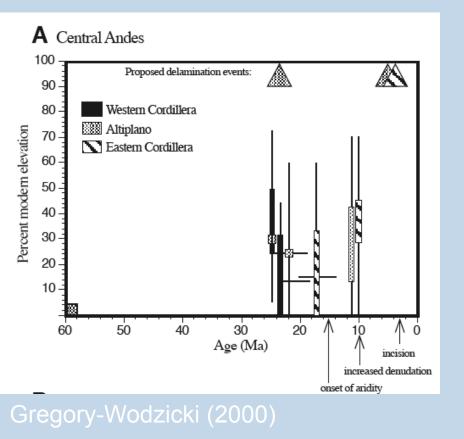
The model in KK&V has both: crustal shortening along long, flat thrusts (a la lsacks) and removal of lower crust by delamination/drips

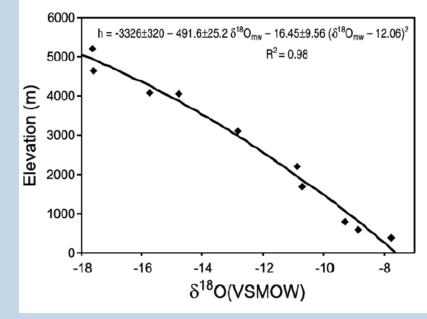


The timing of Andean uplift would enable us to discriminate between the orogenic process.

Hard to constrain: clues from marine/coastal facies, climate history, drainage development

Altiplano at about half its present elevation at 10 Ma; so when did it go up?





Garzione and Molnar (2006)

Newer method: Oxygen isotope paleoaltimetry from carbonates (above)

See systematic decrease in delta O¹⁸ with altitude in modern day lake deposits of precipitated carbonates; determine a regional (northern Altiplano) relationship

Find a systematic pattern in ancient lake deposits that indicate a change in altitude in one place over time.

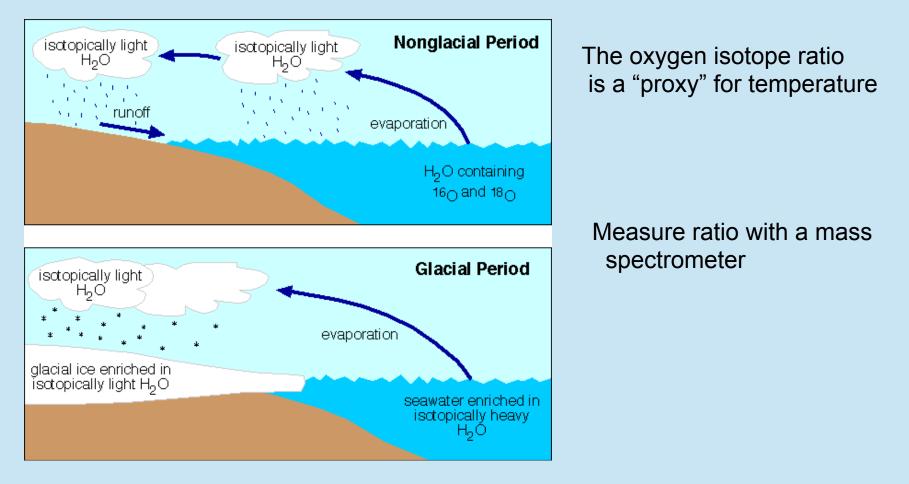
Stable Isotopes of Oxygen:

$$^{6}O = 99.76\%$$

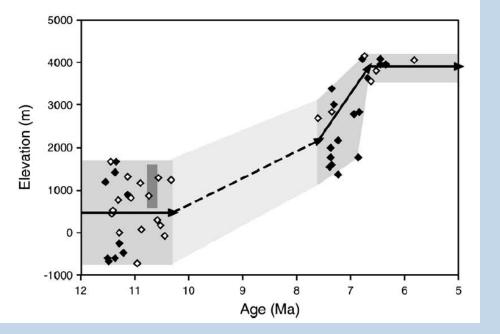
 $^{3}O = 00.20\%$

The ratio varies as the environment changes:

When the climate is colder, the "light" oxygen goes into ice



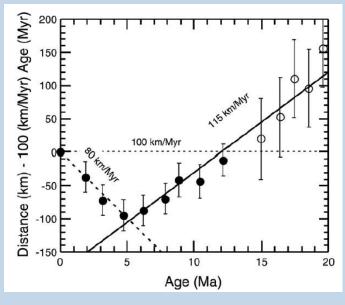
fractionation



Observations based on delta O¹⁸ paleoaltimetry:

uplift (2.5 to 3.5 km) of the Altiplano was sudden, between 10 and 7 Ma

This is too fast for Isacks' s crustal thickening. Requires that uplift is due to delamination (i.e. removal of dense lower crust and upper mantle);



Another way to date uplift: See decrease in convergence rate between Nazca and So. Amer at same time (from the plate circuit). The authors interpret this as being due to an increase in the force per unit length applied by highlands on the plate boundary which they attribute to uplift of the Andes.

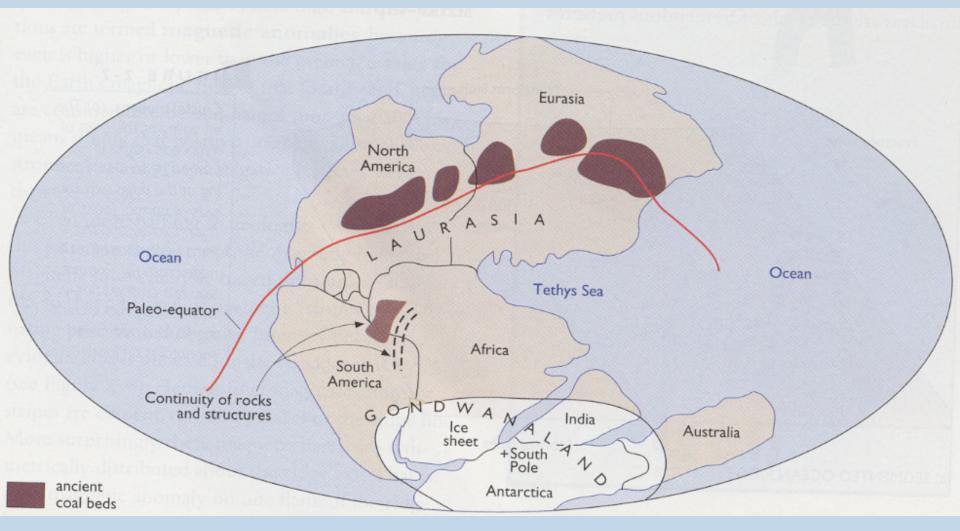
Garzione et al. (2006)

Himalayas

a shere & apple 100 - 400.

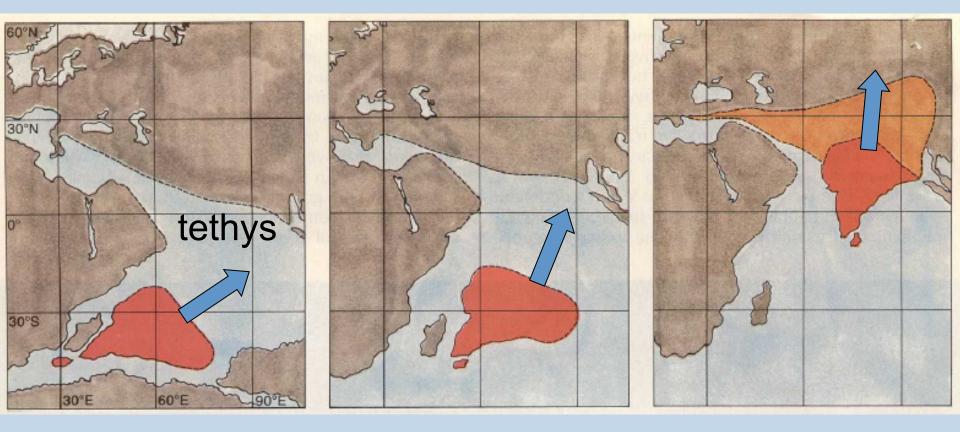
179.Sc

Tethys –goddess of the sea



The vast ocean that preceded the breakup of Pangaea and Gondwanaland

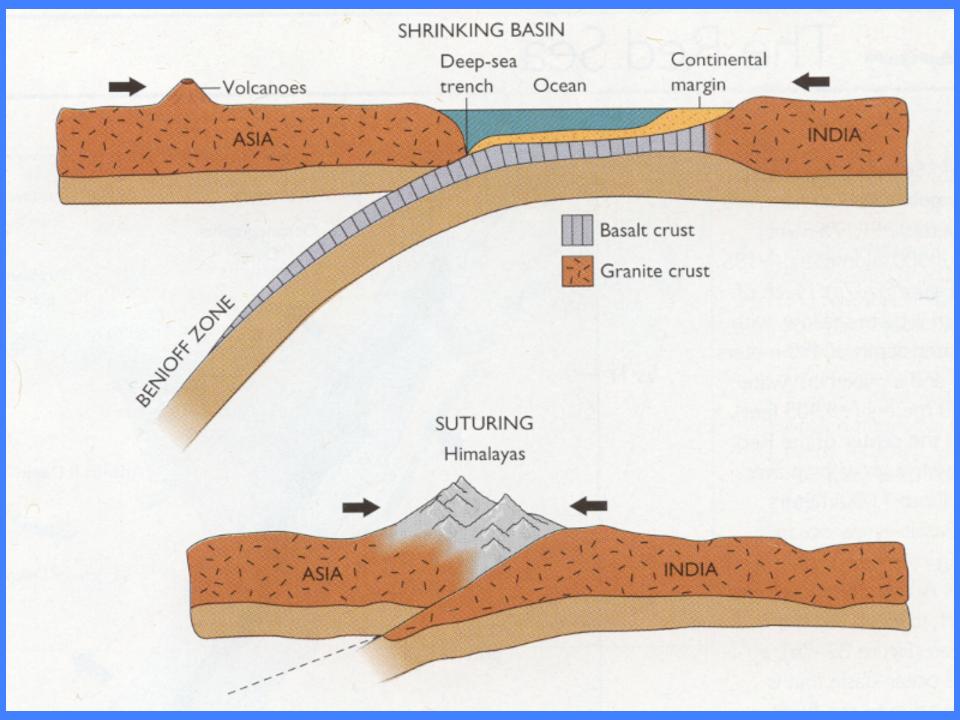
Motion of India with respect to Eurasia



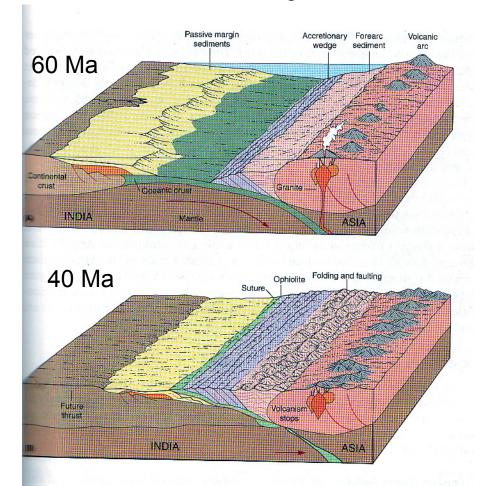
120 my

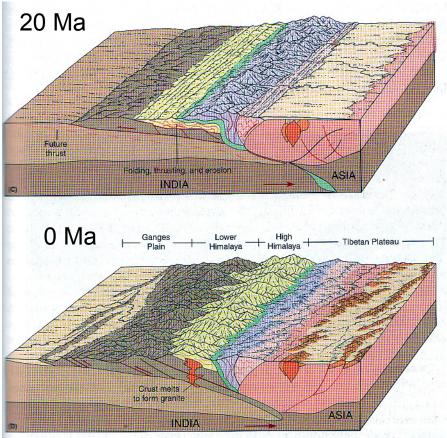
80 my

40 my



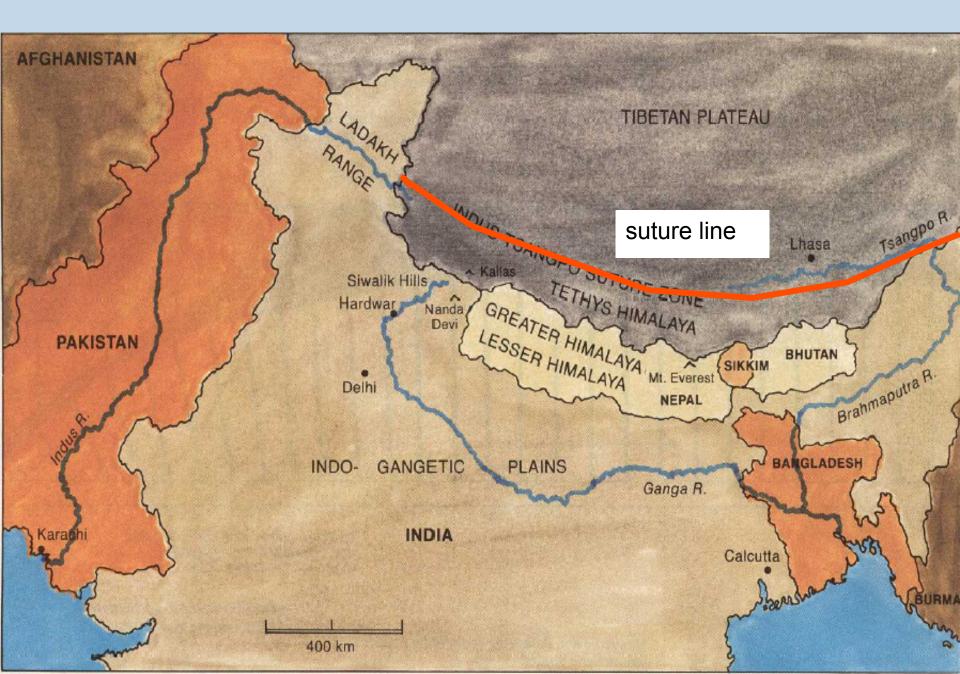
Four stages in the India-Eurasia collision

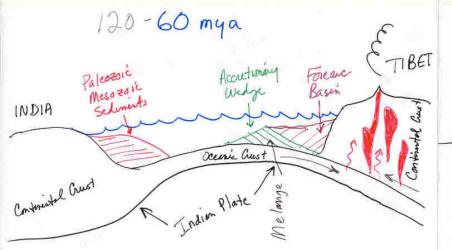


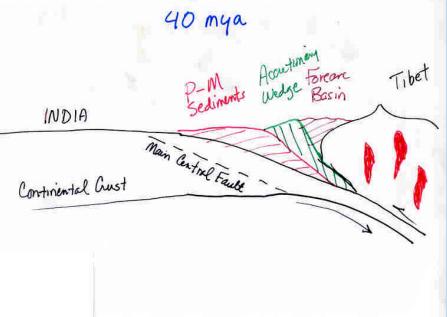


Yellow = Paleozoic and Mesozoic passive margin sediments (India) Green = deep sea basin oceanic crust/sediments (Tethys) Blue = accretionary wedge sediments (Asia) Pink = fore-arc basin sediments Dark red = volcanic arc Brown = Indian continental crust Tan = recently deposited sediments; products of recent rapid erosion Top of Everest = Ordovician limestones

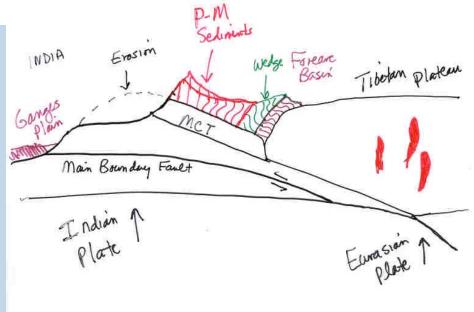
Hamblin & Christiansen







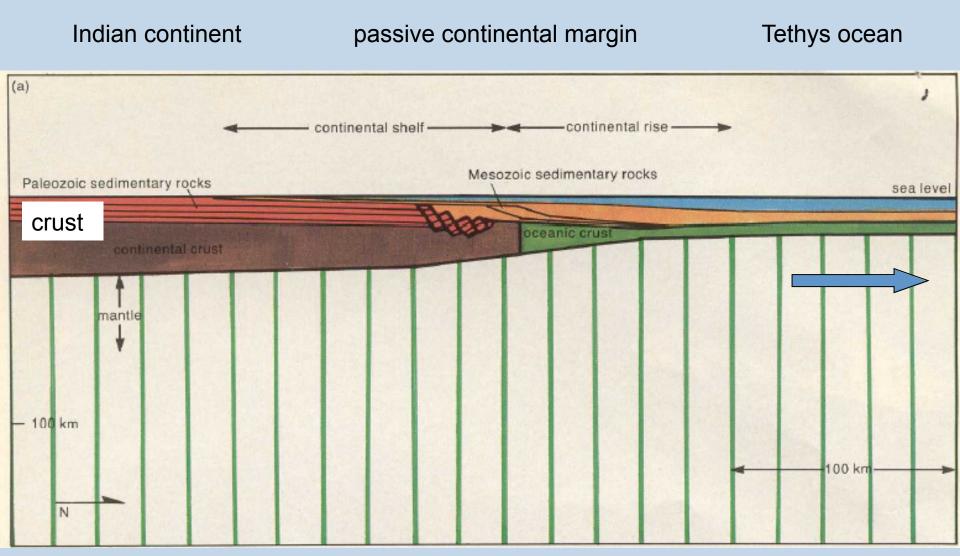
20-10 Mya



Two huge thrust faults cut through the Indian plate:

Main Central Fault (MCT) (~40 Ma) Main Boundary Fault (MBF) (~20 Ma)

80 my ago

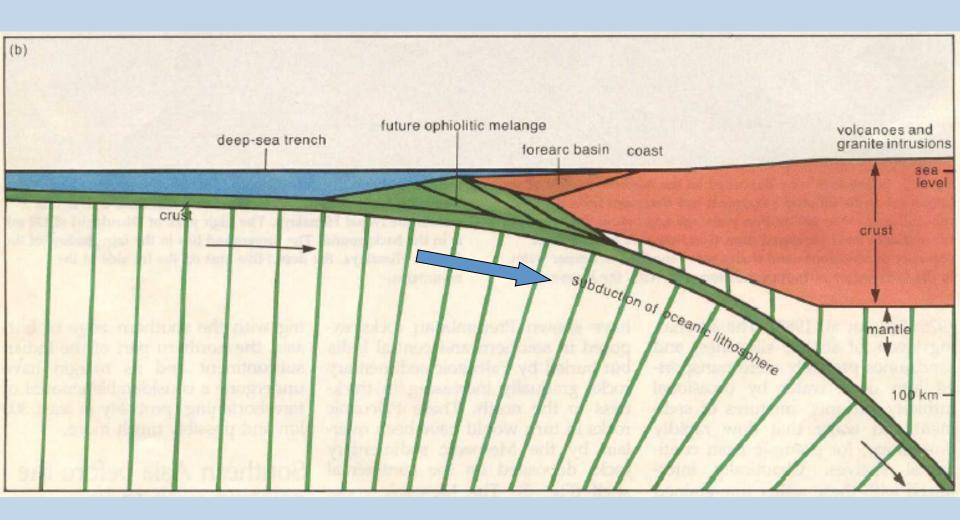




Tethys ocean

convergent margin

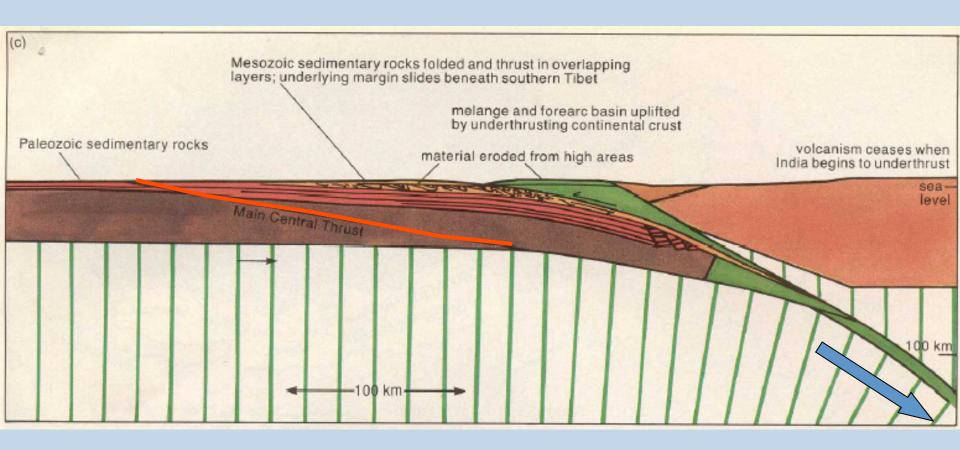
Eurasian continent



initial formation of an accretionary prism

40 my ago

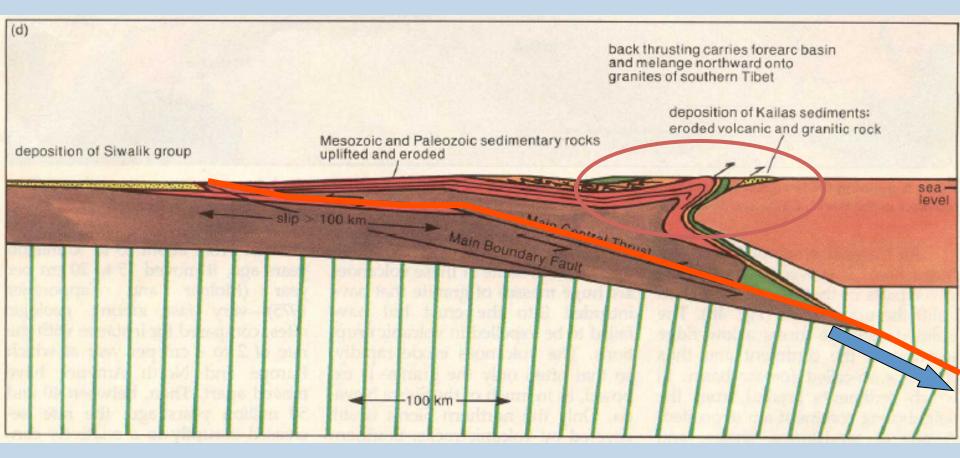
Collision of India with Eurasia



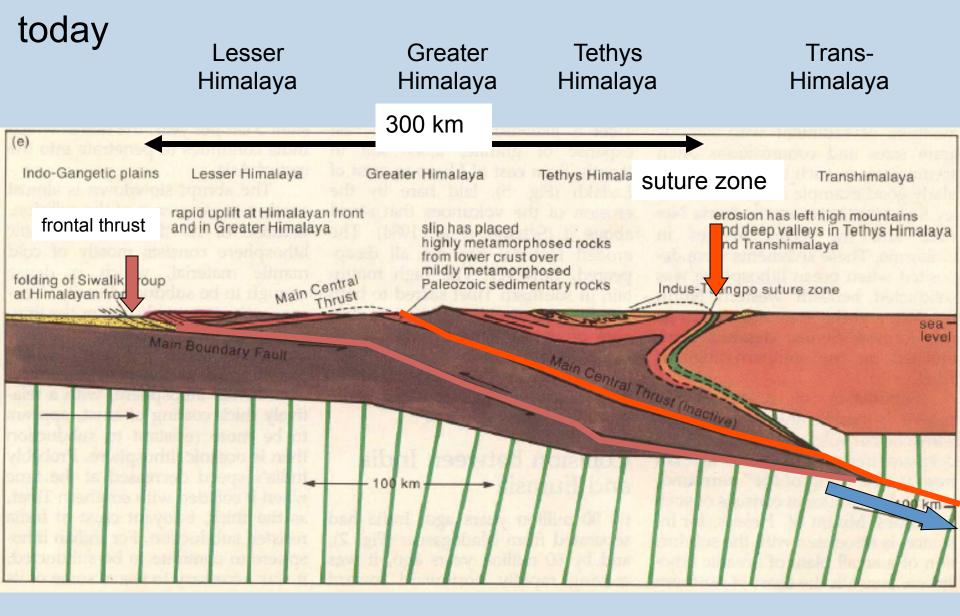
the formation of a huge thrust cutting entirely through the Indian crust: the Main Central Thrust

20 my ago

all that is left of the Tethys ocean

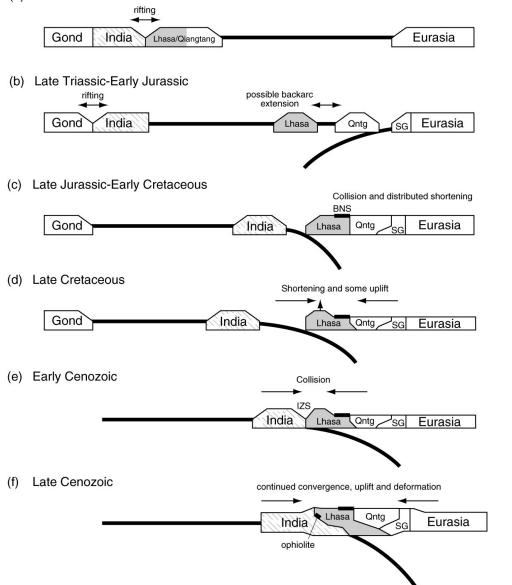


The Main Central thrust brings the northern edge of India up and onto the intact part of India father south Second giant thrust: Main Boundary Fault



Two slivers of the former edge of India now rest upon India, greatly thickening today's crust and the entire lithosphere

(a) Permian-Triassic

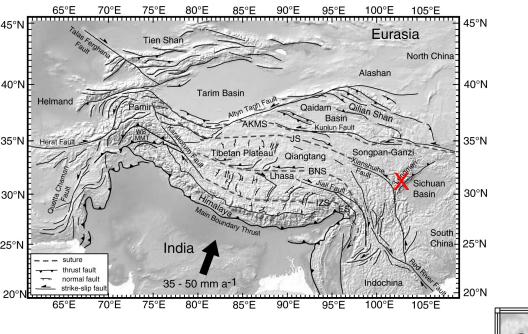


India-Tibet collision was preceded by collisions of several micro-continents and island arcs

Accretion of these terranes marked by series of suture zones in Tibet and China

Indus-Zangbo suture zone (IZS) marks India-Tibet collision

Himalayan orogen is built on collage of exotic material



Earthquake focal mechanisms show

1) Thrust faulting on south, east and north side of Tibet plateau and within the Himalaya

2) North of Himalaya, in Tibet, normal faulting and east-west extension dominate
3) Strike slip faulting dominates 1500 km north of Himalaya and extending eastward into Indo-China

Qaidam

Eurasia

110°E

India is converging on Eurasia at 35-50 mm/yr and has been for the last 40 million years since the collision first started. There has been ~2000 km of convergence since collision started

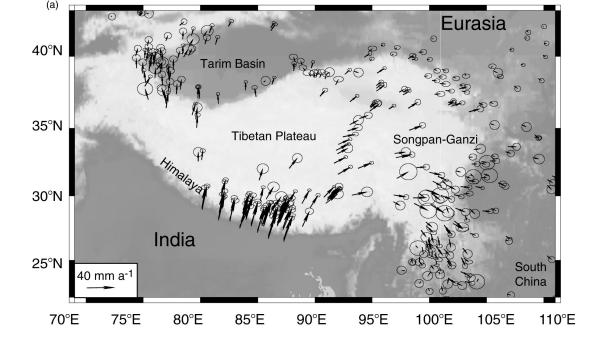
Basin 35°N **Tibetan Plateau** Songpan-Ganzi 0 00 Sichuan 30°N Basin India 25°N South China 80°E 70°E 75°E 85°E 90°E 95°E 100°E 105°E

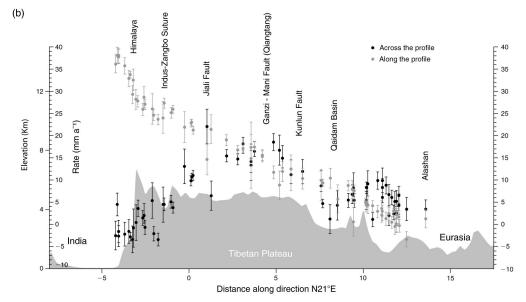
Tarim Basin

40°N

X = 2008 Sichuan quake, mag. 7.9, thrust fault

KK&V Figs 10.13 and 10.17





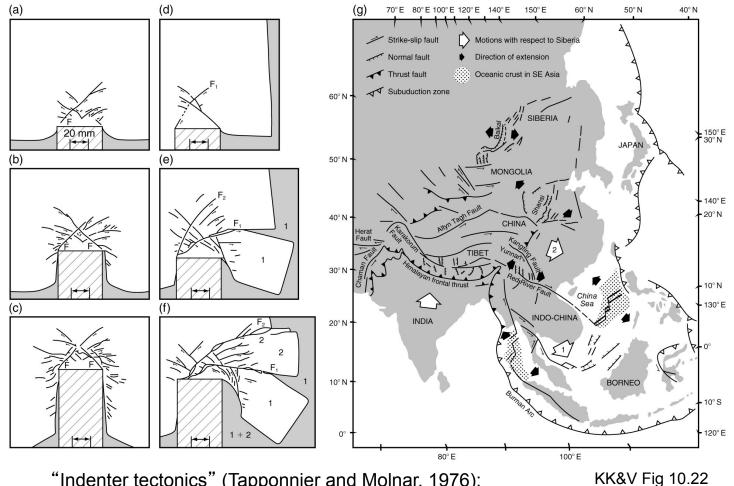
GPS and other measurements show that currently deformation within the Tibetan Plateau and its margin absorb more than 90% of relative motion between India and Eurasia

Internal shortening accounts for more than 1/3 of total convergence

Additional shortening north of Tibetan plateau

Tibetan plateau is also extruding eastward relative to India and Asia

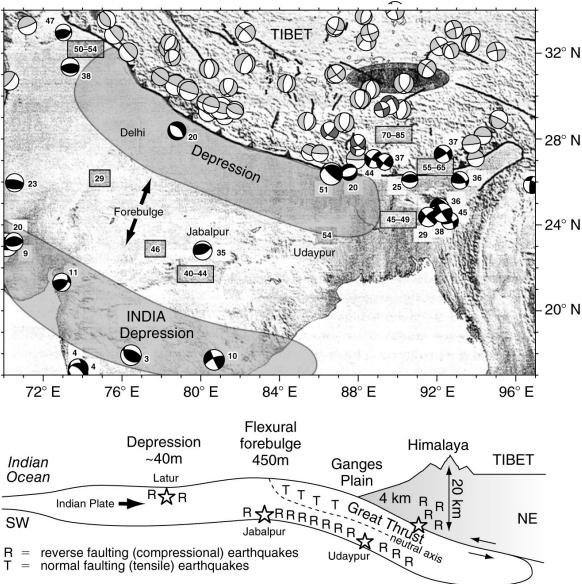
Slices of crust move laterally out of the way; lateral escape



"Indenter tectonics" (Tapponnier and Molnar, 1976): India acts as a rigid block (indenter) that presses into and deforms a softer block (Asia)

Lateral extrusion of parts of Asia may accommodate about 1/3 of the convergence between India and Eurasia

Also called "escape tectonics"



Indian plate flexes and slides beneath the Himalaya

(b)

SW

reverse faulting (compressional) earthquakesnormal faulting (tensile) earthquakes R Т

Seismic tomography shows a broad and deep zone of cold material in upper mantle beneath suture zone

This is interpreted as broken off pieces of Indian continental crust

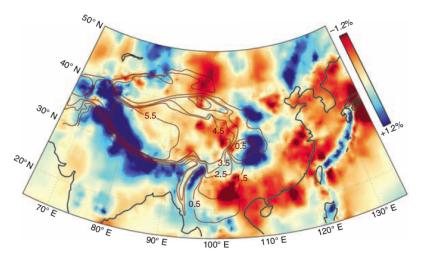
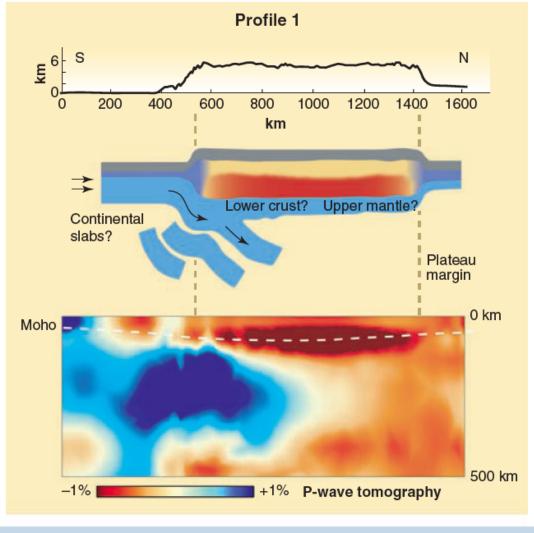
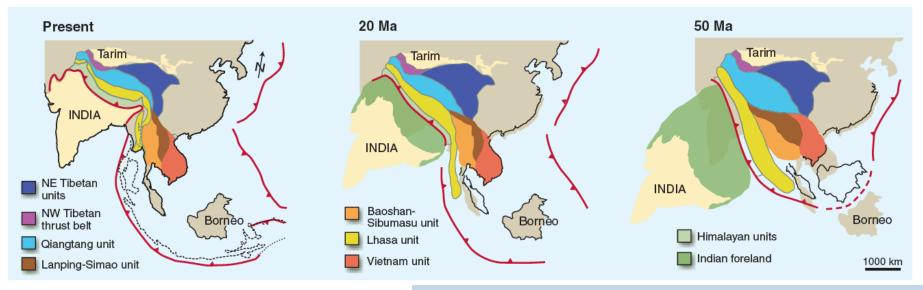


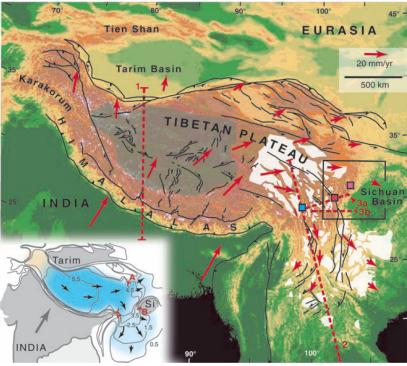
Fig. 4. Lateral variation in *P*-wave speed, at 200-km depth, relative to a laterally homogeneous reference Earth model. This image is part of a global model obtained

India continues to move northward, leaving pieces of crust behind in the mantle



Royden et al. (2008)





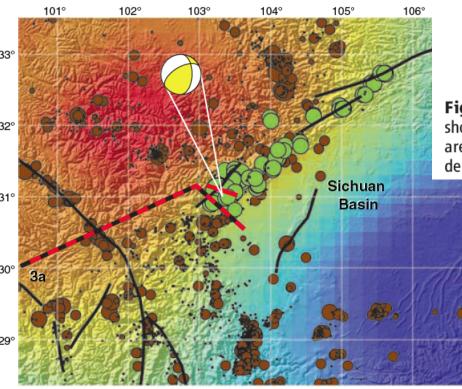
Summary of extruded terrains

Left: Red arrows = GPS velocities Blue = direction of deep crustal flow

Note: Sichuan basin

Royden et al. (2008)

2008 Sichuan EQ located on thrust fault involved in eastward extrusion of Tibet



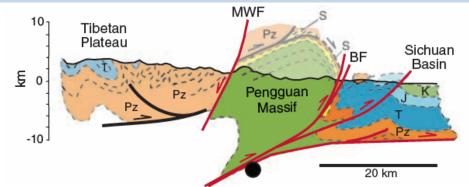
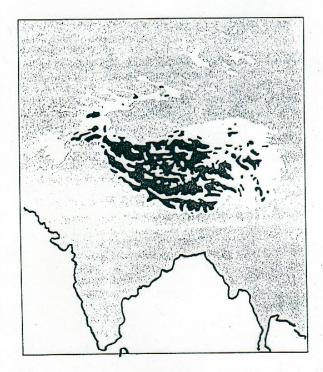


Fig. 6. (**Top**) Epicenters of 12 May 2008 Wenchuan earthquake and aftershocks (green circles), with focal mechanism for the main event (*48*). Events are superimposed on map of lateral variation in *P*-wave speed at 100-km depth relative to a laterally homogeneous reference Earth model (*47*),

Uplift of Tibet



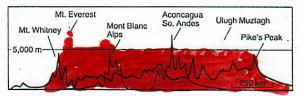


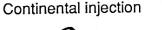
Figure 2. The brown area on this topographic map of Asia shows elevations higher than 5,000 m; the tan area shows elevations between 2,500 and 5,000 m. A similar map for any other continent would be almost entirely gray and tan, with only specks of brown here and there, because the elevation of 5,000 m is reached only by isolated peaks on the North and South American, African, and Antarctic continents, and nowhere in Europe, as shown in the profiles below the map.

Elevation in excess of 5000 m over an area the size of France Dwarfs all other plateaus

Molnar (1989) American Scientist, v. 77, p. 350-360

Origin of the Tibetan Plateau: Rejected Models











Distributed shortening



1) Continental Underthrusting:

classic: flat slab subduction

but: no evidence for cold Indian lithosphere

beneath Tibet

instead: have low S-wave velocities

also: would give a gradual northward propagation of Tibetan uplift, which isn't seen

2) Delayed Underthrusting

has subducted slab rising abruptly around 5 Ma but: requires unusually fluid mantle above slab

3) Continental injection:

Tibetan lower crust behaves as a low viscosity fluid and pieces of India are assimilated into it but: uplift occurs in distinct episodes

4) Distributed shortening

50 % shortening of Tibet by folding and thrusting produces thickening and uplift

but: little evidence for this magnitude of shortening

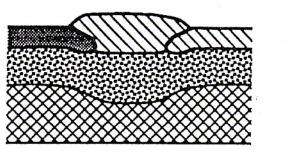
Harrison et al. (1992)

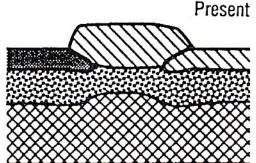
Origin of the Tibetan Plateau:

Preferred Model of Harrison et al (1992):

Mantle lithosphere detachment

Before late Miocene





Lithospheric delamination

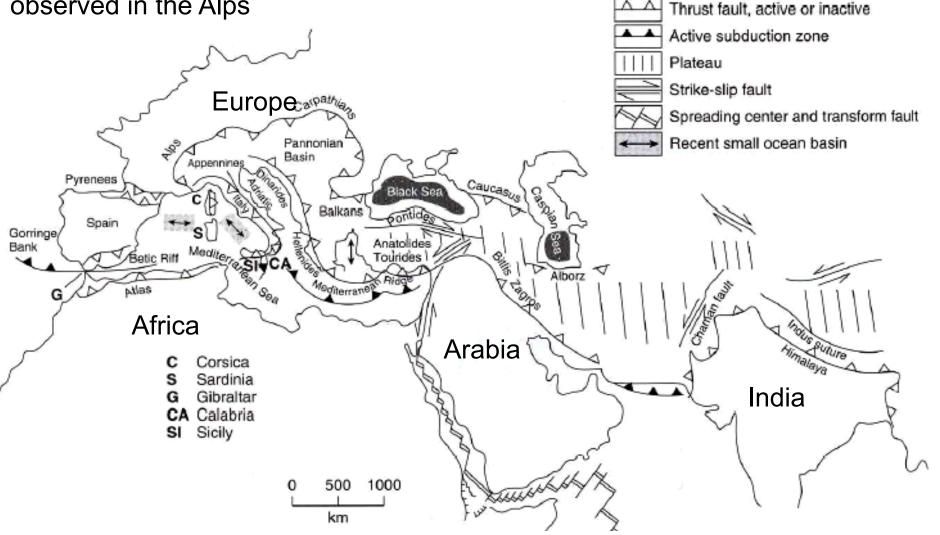
Lateral thermal gradients lead to convective instability beneath Tibet leading to detachment of the mantle lithosphere The mantle is displaced by less dense and hotter asthenosphere

Or lithospheric drips

The Alps: Mont Blanc



Another example of the closure of a sea and the formation of a mountain chain can be observed in the Alps

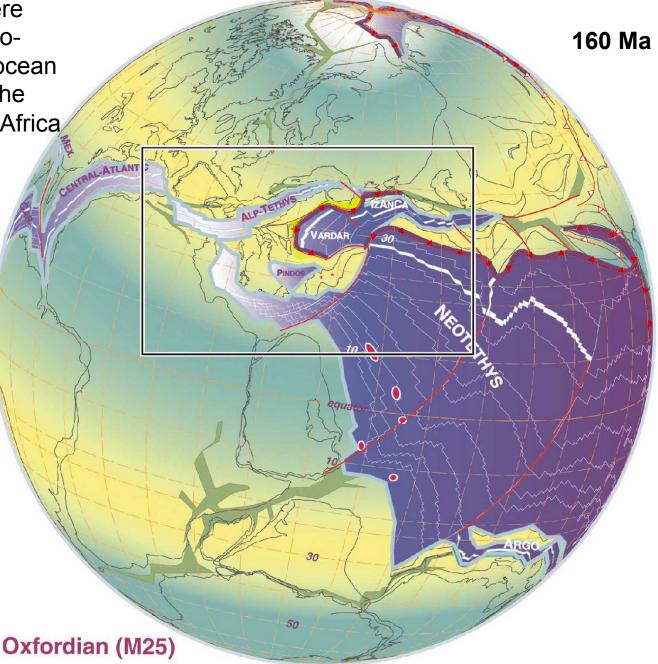


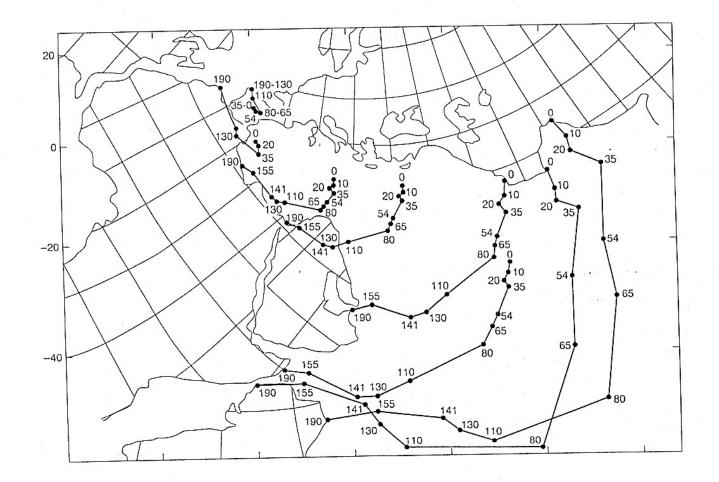
Entrapped oceanic crust

However, here not all of the seaway has disappeared. Last pieces of Tethys: Black Sea, Southern Caspian Sea, African margin north of Libya Here, will discuss just a few points – where there are similarities to other concepts we have discussed in the last two lectures:

- 1) Classic Indenter model
- 2) Back arc basins driven by roll-back

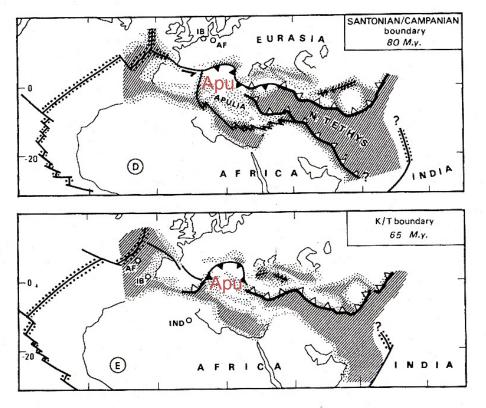
As with India, There were several microplates and small ocean basins caught in the collision between Africa and Eurasia





Big difference: the motion of Africa relative to Eurasia is much slower than India

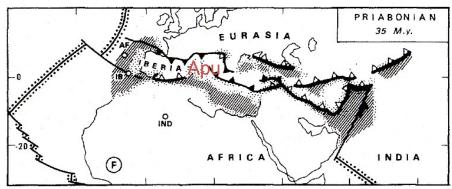
Reconstructions of Mediterranean Region since the Late Cretaceous

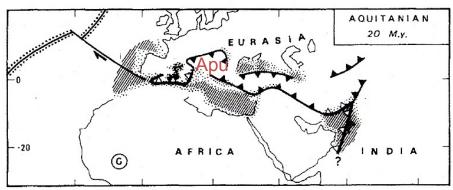


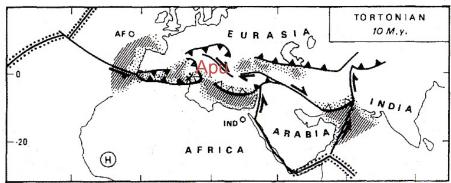
Some events:

Collision of Apulia with Eurasia at 80 Ma Iberia is transferred to Eurasia around 30 Ma Back-arc extension in western Med and Aegean Sea since 20 Ma "Extrusion" of Carpathians and Turkey

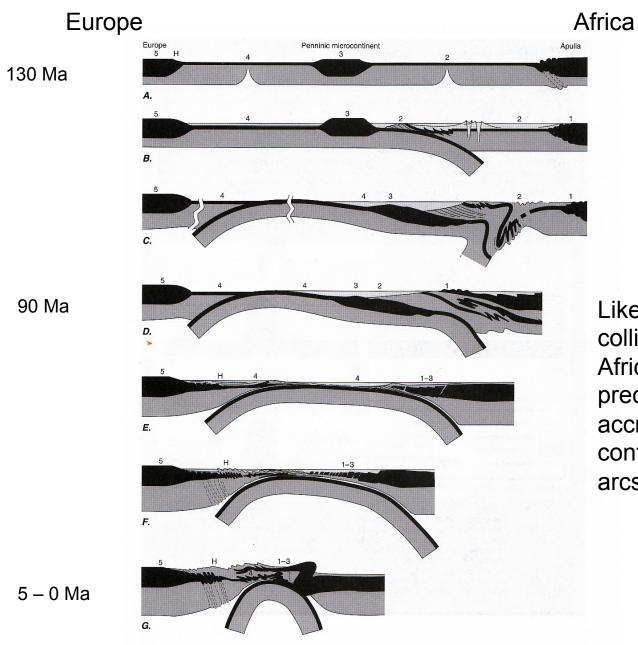
Apulia (Apu) = microplate consisting of northeastern Italy and Adriatic sea



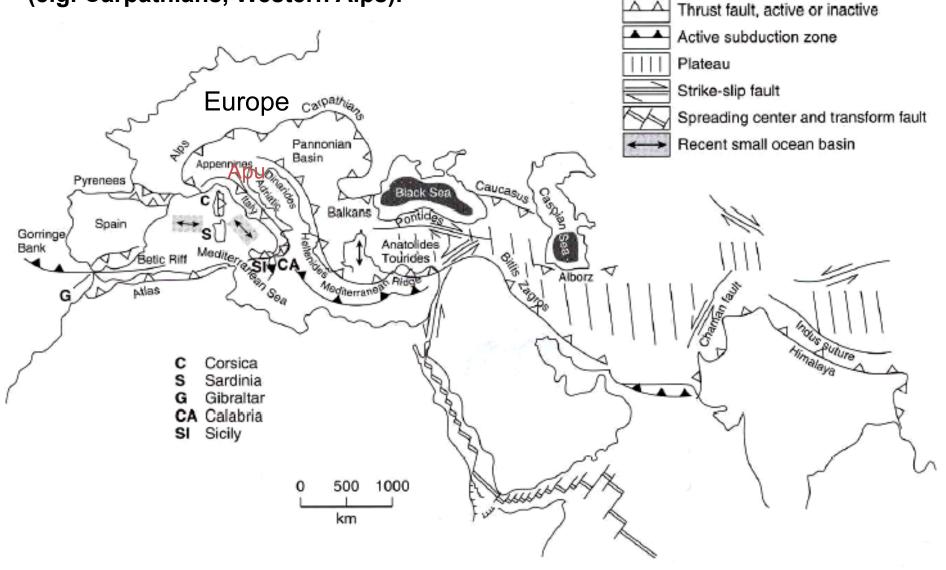




Dercourt et al. (1986)

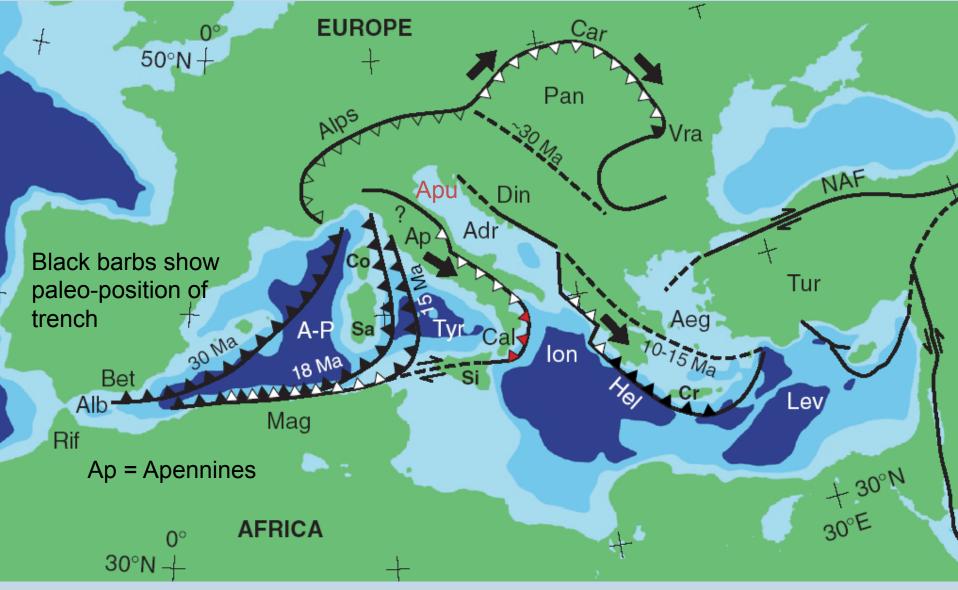


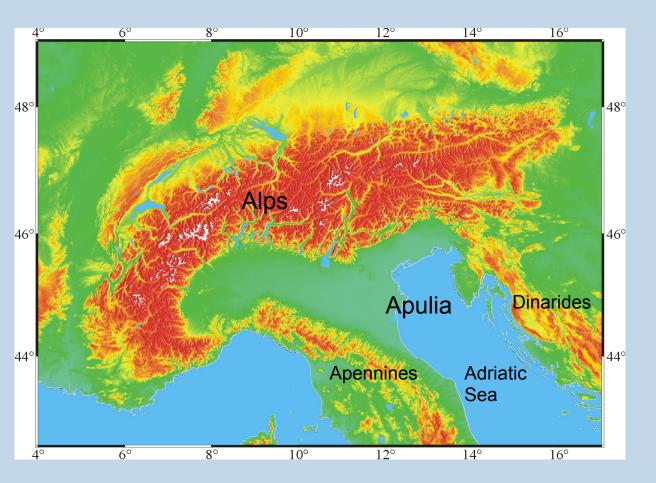
Like the India-Eurasia collision, the collision of Africa and Europe was preceded by the accretion of mircocontinents and island arcs Some Arcs seem to indicate shortening perpendicular to African-European convergence (e.g. Carpathians, Western Alps).



Entrapped oceanic crust

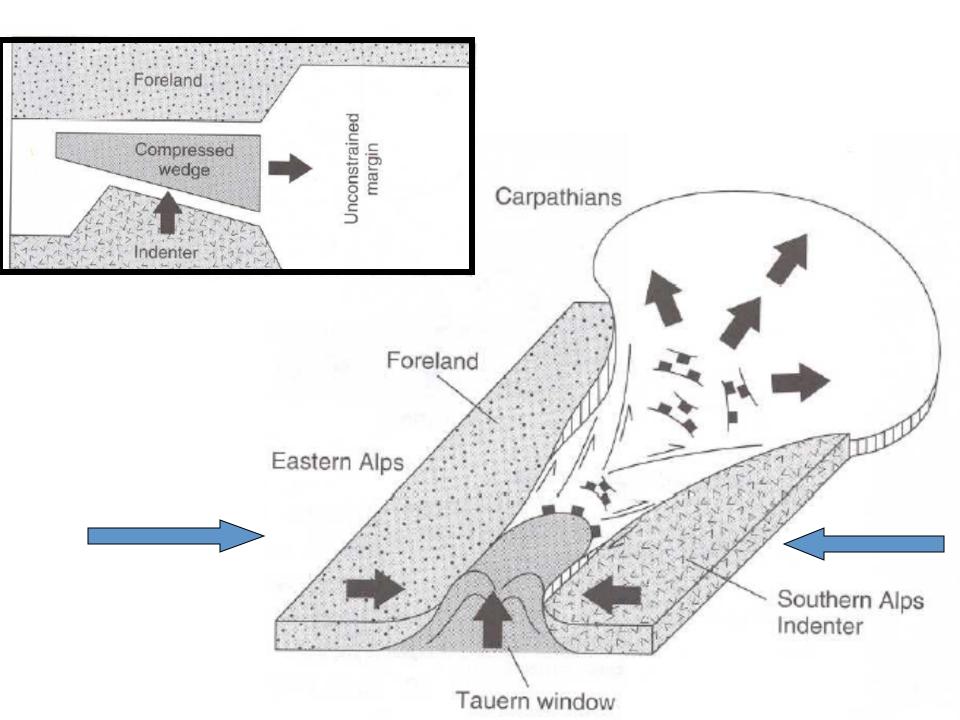
Apulia (Apu) – another example of indenter tectonics Tyrrhean Sea (Tyr), Aegean Sea (Aeg)= back arc basins due to roll-back

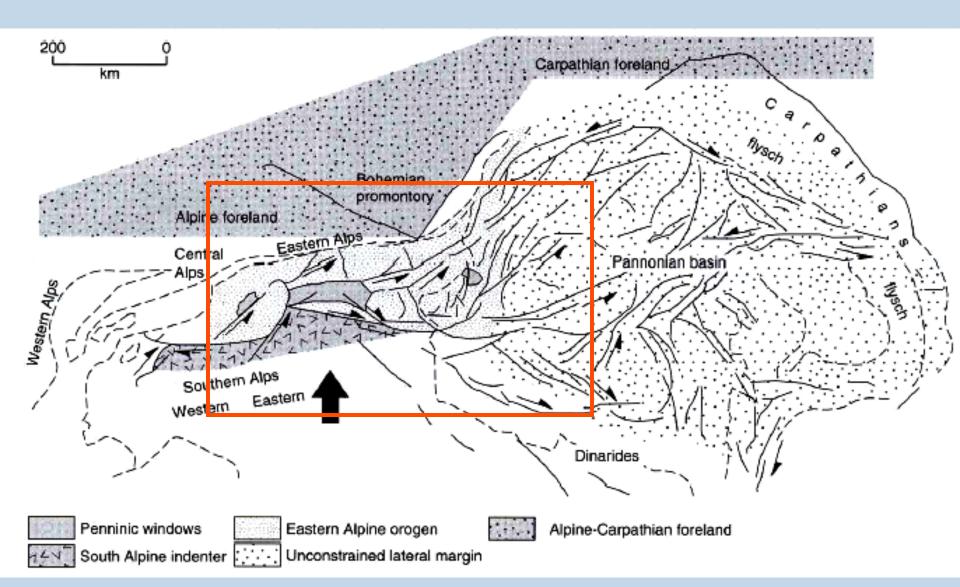




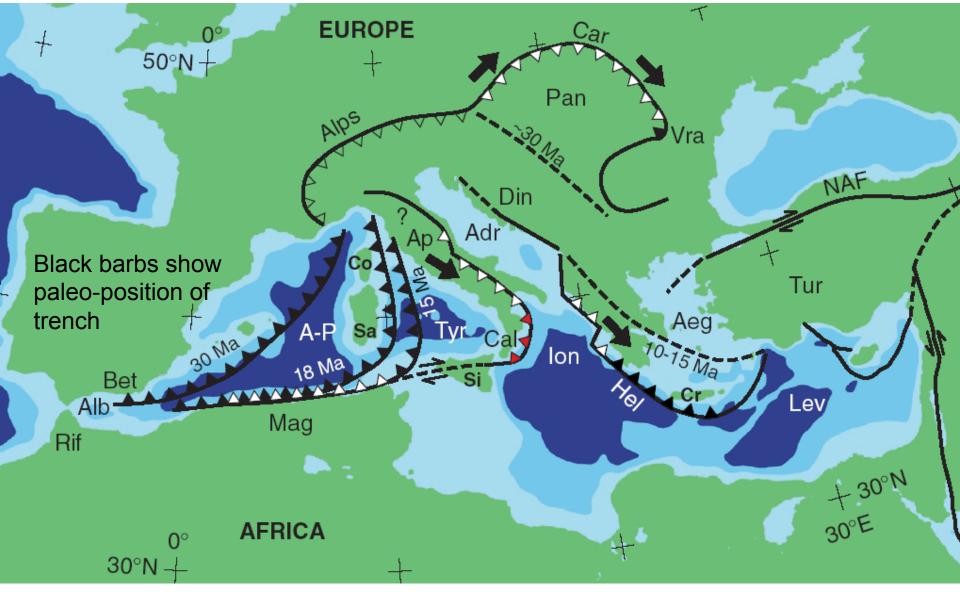
"Apulia," the indenter, is the block east of the Apennines and west of the Dinarides (the northeastern part of Italy and Adriatic Sea).

It first collided with Europe about 80 Ma

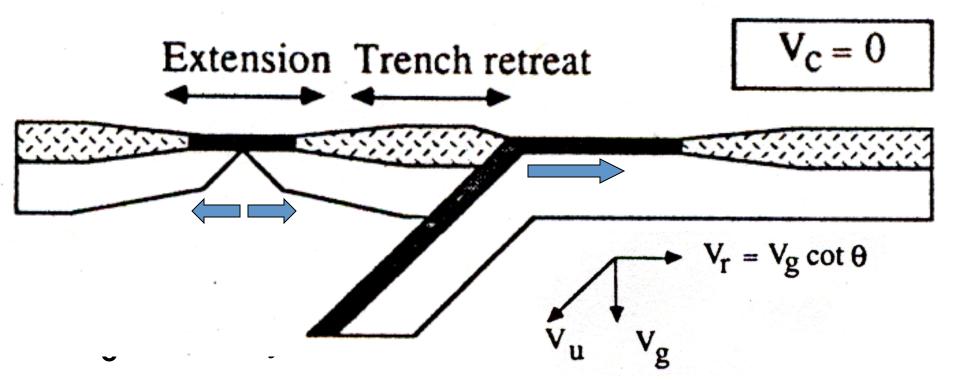




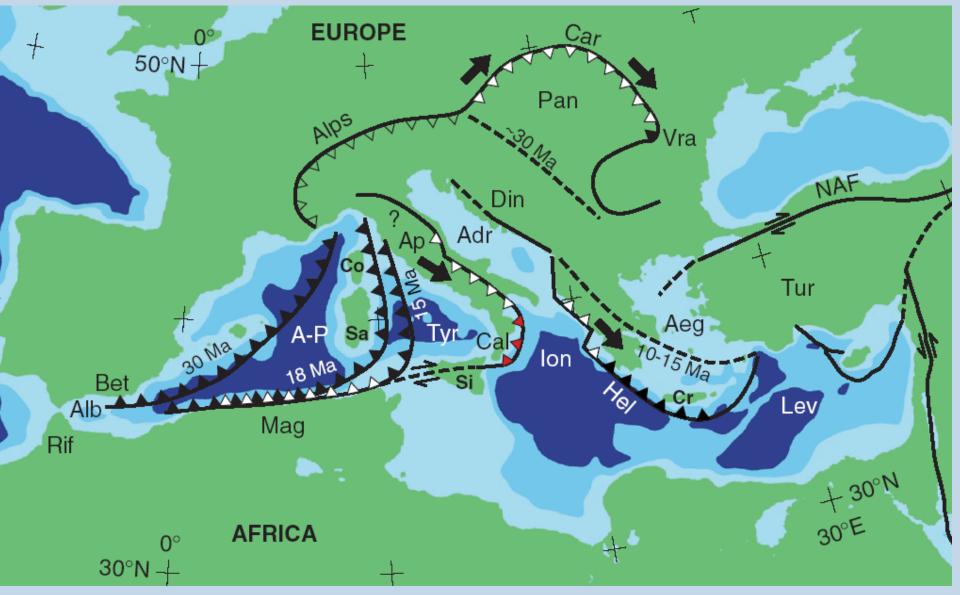
You might not expect it here, but there is actually a lot of extension during the collision: back-arc basins



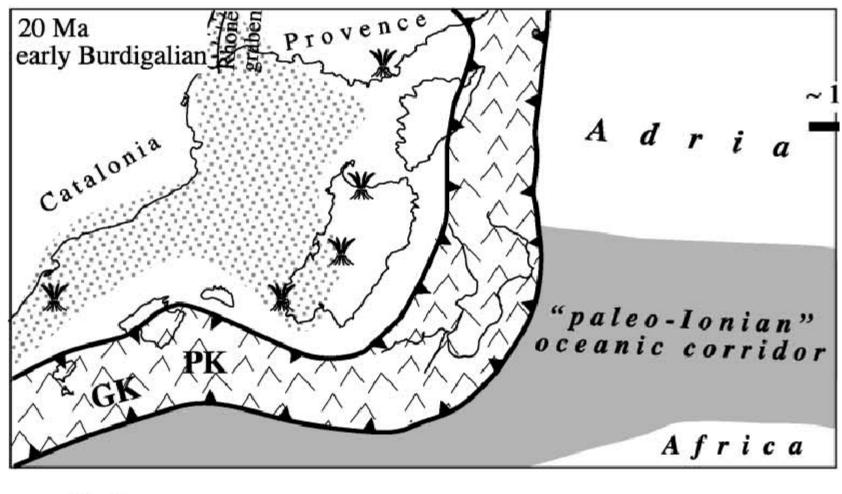
In the case of no convergence, the amount of trench retreat must be balanced by extension in the back-arc

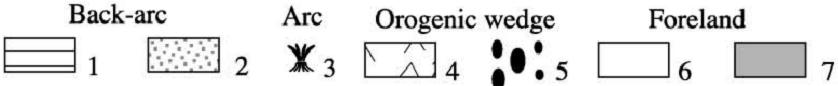


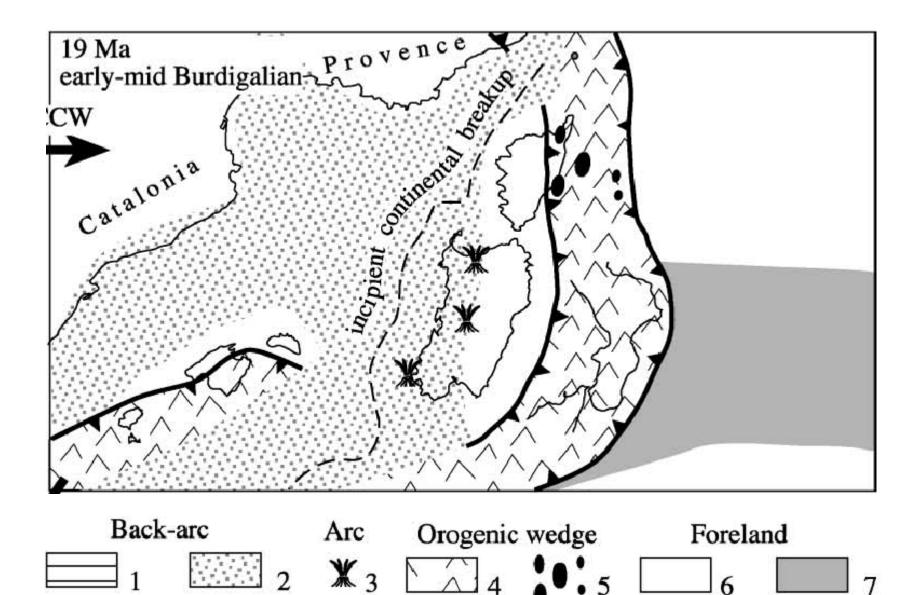
 V_c = velocity of convergence V_r = velocity of the trench retreat 30 Ma Sardinia (Sa), Corsica (Co) and the west side of Italy were next to eastern Spain and the Tyrrhenian Sea (Tyr) was closed

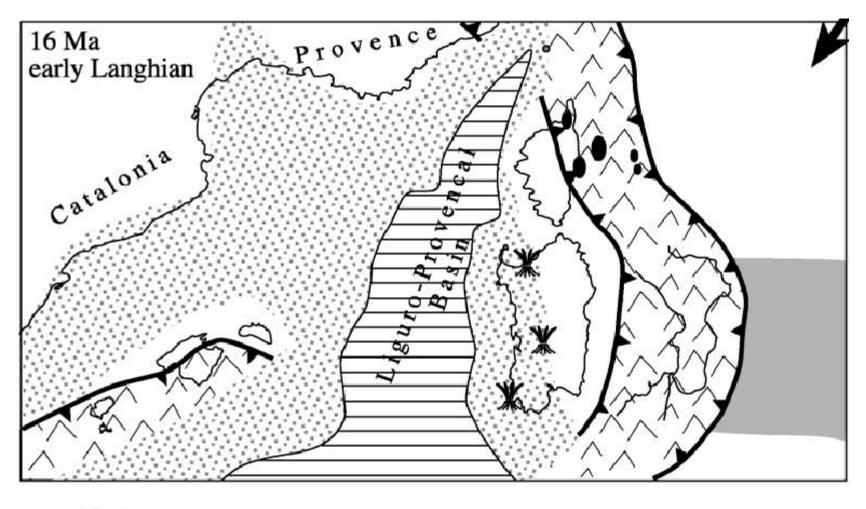


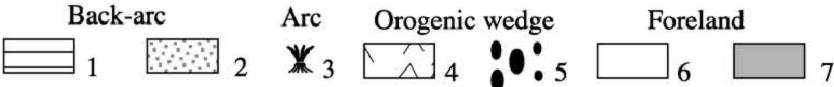
Wortel and Spakman, 2000

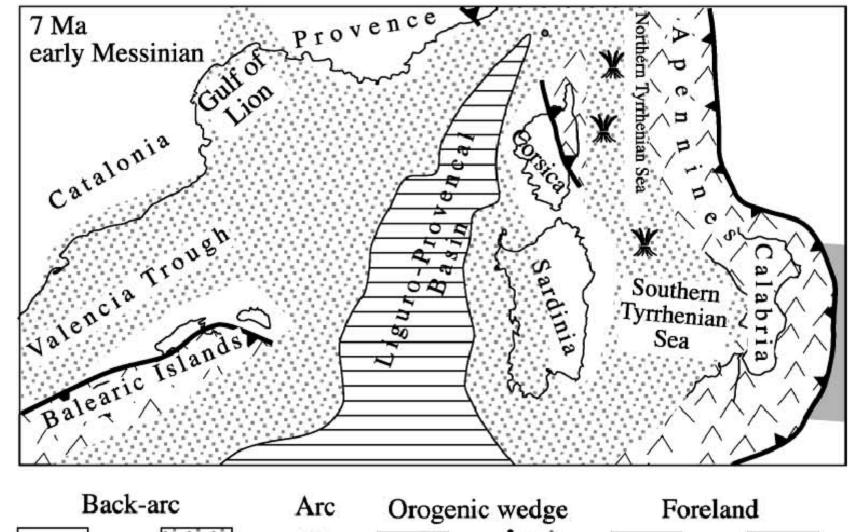




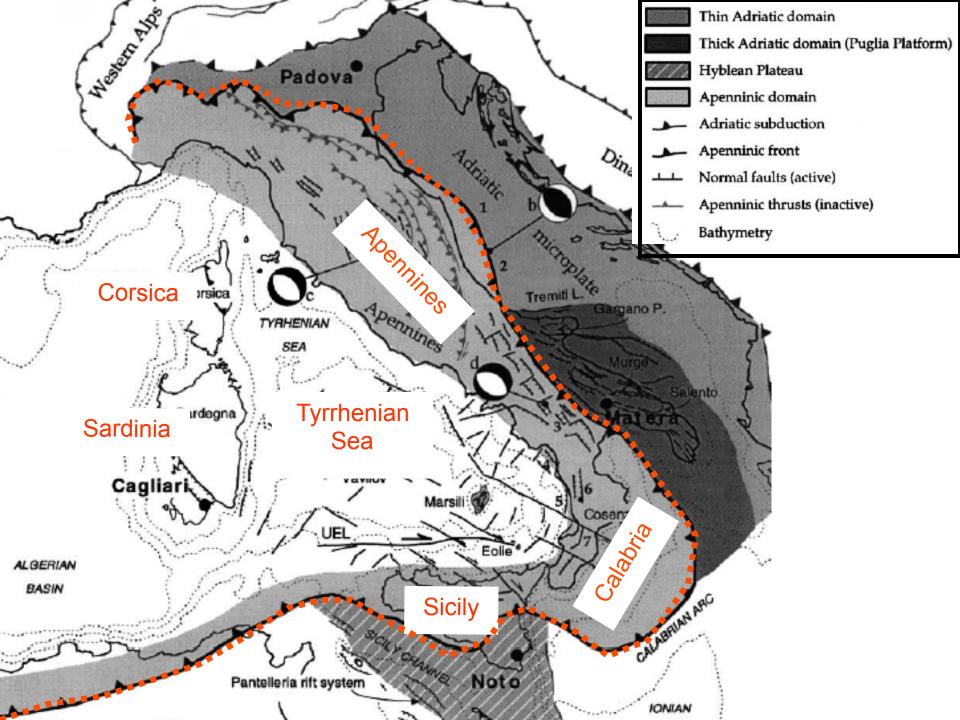








Back-arc Arc Orogenic wedge Foreland $1 \quad 2 \quad 1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4 \quad 0 \quad 5 \quad 6 \quad 7$



The Aegean Sea is another classic backarc basin

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Black Sea

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Mediterranean Sea

 Note slab dipping to west beneath southern Italy along the Calabrian Arc; Mt Etna and Vesuvius

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Alps

Tyrrhenian

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Sea

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Bottom line

• During the collision of plates, continents plow deep into the interior of an opposing plate edge, with incoming continental lithosphere subducting to depths as great as 200 km.

• In the process the crust and lithosphere thickens by piling up on the incoming plate slices of this same plate torn off by major thrust faults.

• Material caught in the vice during this suturing process often expels itself sideways (Indenter tectonics).

• In places where the convergence is very slow, the arcs are drawn outward by slab rollback.

• The primary difference between the Himalayas and the Alps is that convergence continued for more than 1000 km after the initial collision of India with Asia, while convergence did not continue between Europe and Africa.