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Magma ascent at floor-fractured craters diagnoses the lithospheric stress state on the Moon

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Abstract

On the Moon, floor-fractured craters (FFCs) present evidence of horizontal crater-centred magmatic intrusions. Crater floor uplift and moat formation indicate that these sill intrusions occur at shallow depths (< 10 km). While a recent study has demonstrated that magma ascent below FFCs and mare-filled craters was triggered by crater unloading, the mechanism leading to the emplacement of shallow sills is still poorly understood. Here we show that the local stress field due to crater unloading is also responsible for the horizontalisation of the magma flow leading to sill-like intrusions. On Earth, caldera formation has been shown to similarly affect magma trajectories, inducing the formation of a sill-shaped storage zone. Magma ascent to shallow depths below FFCs was however made possible because of a regional tensional stress caused by mare loading on the lunar lithosphere. We show that the tensional stress generated by elastic lithosphere deformation

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caused by mare loading combined to the local crater stress field can explain the distribution of FFCs on the Moon, with the smallest FFCs being located over a larger distance range from the mare. In particular, FFCs distribution around Oceanus Procellarum is consistent with an average load thickness of ~ 1 km. This study suggests that magma trajectory in the crust of terrestrial planets can provide a diagnostic of the lithospheric structure and state of stress.

Keywords:

magma intrusion, crustal stress field, magma path, floor-fractured crater, lunar mare

1. Introduction

2 In the crust of terrestrial planets, magma transport occurs by magma flow
3 through induced fractures referred to as dykes or sills depending on their ori-
4 entation relative to lithologic layers or verticality. Observations show that hori-
5 zontal sills and laccoliths on Earth are fed by vertical dykes and inversely, dykes
6 are fed by horizontal sills in large sill complexes. (Cartwright and Moller Hansen,
7 2006; Muirhead et al., 2012; Richardson et al., 2015): intrusions thus deviate from
8 their initial orientations. The presence of inherited structures or the reaching of a
9 neutral buoyancy zone are often advocated to explain deviations in magma paths
10 (Menand, 2011). Recently, studies on the trajectory of magma in the Earth's crust
11 have shed light on the crucial influence of the stress field on magma trajectory and
12 its ability to reach the surface (Pinel et al., 2017; Corbi et al., 2015; Maccaferri
13 et al., 2014). Below a volcanic edifice, the induced compressive stress opposes
14 to magma ascent, allowing only for the ascent of the least dense and thus most
15 differentiated magmas (Pinel and Jaupart, 2000). Providing the magma driving

16 force (overpressure) is weak, the crustal stress field may exert a strong control
17 on the trajectories of magma. Magmatic dykes tend to open in the direction of
18 least compressive stress (σ_3) (Anderson, 1951; Nakamura, 1977). Analog experi-
19 ments (Watanabe et al., 2002; Corbi et al., 2016) and numerical models (Mériaux
20 and Lister, 2002; Maccaferri et al., 2011) indeed show that dyke paths are more
21 influenced by the local stress if the magma driving force is weak.

22 On the Moon, floor-fractured craters (FFCs) are impact craters that were mod-
23 ified after their formation. Compared to non-modified craters, they show fractured
24 and uplifted floors that are believed to result from crater-centred horizontal sill or
25 laccolith intrusions (Schultz, 1976a; Wichman and Schultz, 1995; Jozwiak et al.,
26 2012; Thorey and Michaut, 2014). The magma feeding these intrusions must have
27 been transported through vertical dykes and then turned into a horizontal sill at a
28 shallow depth to explain the observed floor uplift (Jozwiak et al., 2015; Wilson
29 and Head, 2017). Deviation from the vertical has previously been explained by
30 the presence of a highly brecciated zone caused by the impact. Schultz (1976a)
31 proposed that the magma reaching the breccia lens filled the subhorizontal inher-
32 ited fractures forming a sill while the impact melt sheets welded the crater floor,
33 leading to cohesive floor deformation and uplift. Jozwiak et al. (2012, 2015) al-
34 ternatively proposed that the vertical ascent of magma was halted because of the
35 low density of the brecciated zone. The impact crater topography naturally results
36 from crustal material redistribution, which can be described by surface unload-
37 ing forces. The elastic stresses underneath impact craters have been studied by
38 Melosh (1976) but the effect of unloading forces on the principal stresses direc-
39 tion beneath a crater has never been considered in the context of FFC formation.
40 On Earth, it has been shown that unloading forces due to rift valleys and calderas

41 formation would affect magma pathways (Maccaferri et al., 2014; Corbi et al.,
42 2015). In fact, below a surface unloading, the direction of σ_3 is often vertical,
43 favouring the formation of horizontal sills (Corbi et al., 2015; Pinel et al., 2017)
44 in case the magma driving force is weak.

45 The lunar Highlands, where many FFCs are present, are composed of ancient,
46 highly porous, anorthositic rocks (Wood et al., 1970). Analysis of GRAIL's grav-
47 ity data show that this ancient primary crust has a low average density of ~ 2550
48 kg m^{-3} (Wieczorek et al., 2013). The buoyancy of basaltic magma in such a low
49 density crust is very limited, therefore, the resulting magma overpressure may be
50 small enough for magma trajectories to be sensitive to the local stress field at the
51 time of intrusion.

52 Michaut and Pinel (2018) have recently shown that crater unloading can trig-
53 ger magma ascent in the lunar crust, the decompression of the encasing rocks
54 providing a relative overpressure to the magma that was ponding at depth. Obser-
55 vations indeed show that for large craters on a thin crust, magma erupted on the
56 floor of mare-filled craters and of some FFCs, suggesting that the overpressure
57 provided by the unloading was large enough for the magma to reach the surface.
58 However, for smaller craters or a thicker crust, crater floor uplift is observed sug-
59 gesting that the overpressure was too small for the magma to reach the surface
60 (Michaut and Pinel, 2018). Here we show that, below such craters, the local stress
61 field due to crater unloading is the cause of magma path deviation from a vertical
62 dyke to a horizontal sill. This sill formation is however expected to occur close
63 to the crust base, preventing any further ascent. It follows that the emplacement
64 of shallow intrusions cannot be explained considering only the crater unloading
65 effect. We demonstrate that the presence of dense basaltic maria and mascons in

Table 1: Defining characteristics of each classes of floor-fractured crater, after Schultz (1976a) and Jozwiak et al. (2012).

Crater Class	Characteristics
1	Deep, fractured floors, mare material along walls
2	Well defined wall scarp, uplifted central region / convex up floor profile, concentric fractures
3	Wide U-moat between wall scarp and uplifted crater interior, radial and polygonal fractures
4 a,b,c	V-shaped moat with a convex up floor profile to hummocky interior
5	Degraded walls and fractured floors
6	Mare-flooded interiors, concentric fracture near wall

66 the nearby region added an important contribution to the lithospheric stress field,
67 allowing for a vertical magma ascent up to shallow depths. By taking into account
68 maria-induced stress, we explain the size and spatial distribution of FFCs around
69 the lunar maria and use it to constrain mare thicknesses.

70 **2. Observations on lunar floor-fractured craters**

71 FFCs are craters presenting radial and concentric floor fractures. Their floors
72 are generally uplifted compared to non-modified craters of the same size. Schultz
73 (1976a), and lately Jozwiak et al. (2012), proposed a classification into six differ-
74 ent FFC classes on the Moon based on crater floor morphologies and appearances
75 (Table 1). Crater-centred intrusion of basaltic magma is believed to be the cause

76 of floor deformation and uplift (Schultz, 1976a; Jozwiak et al., 2012; Thorey et al.,
77 2015). In fact, volcanic deposits are often present within these craters, and theoret-
78 ical models for the dynamics of crater-centred horizontal intrusions well explains
79 the diversity of crater floor appearances (Thorey and Michaut, 2014). Further-
80 more, FFCs are distributed around basaltic maria and mascons (Figure 1), at dis-
81 tances reaching one to two thousands of kilometers from these maria. Craters of
82 Class 4, although smaller in size than those of other classes, occur over a greater
83 distance range from the maria, deeper into the Highlands (green dots on Figure 1)
84 (Schultz, 1976a).

85 Craters of Classes 2, 3 and 4 present an uplifted floor (dots on Figure 1), that
86 appears either convex up or flat with a circular moat bordering the inner side of
87 the crater wall (Table 1). Such floor appearances are characteristics of large sill-
88 like intrusions (with opening of up to several hundred meters to a few kilometers)
89 at shallow depth (Thorey and Michaut, 2014) and hence of a strong deviation of
90 the magma paths from vertical feeding dikes to horizontal sills occurring lately in
91 the ascent. For such craters, the effective overpressure provided to the magma by
92 the crater unloading was not large enough to allow for eruption and magma got
93 trapped at depth (Michaut and Pinel, 2018). Thus, the magma driving pressure
94 was supposedly small and the magma was likely sensitive to the lithospheric stress
95 state (Watanabe et al., 2002).

96 Craters of Class 1 show fractures and mare patches along the crater wall but
97 their floors have not been uplifted. Such characteristics do not point to the pres-
98 ence of a large sill-like intrusion. Craters of Class 6 are completely flooded and
99 it is thus not possible to know if a large-volume horizontal intrusion is present at
100 depth. Craters of Class 1 and 6 are generally large craters (Jozwiak et al., 2012)

101 on a relatively thin crust such that the crater unloading generally provided enough
102 effective overpressure for the magma to reach the surface (see Figure 3 of Michaut
103 and Pinel (2018)). For those two classes, the driving pressure was probably too
104 large for the magma to be very sensitive to the lithospheric state of stress (Michaut
105 and Pinel, 2018).

106 Craters of class 5 are old and degraded (Jozwiak et al., 2012) and are not
107 considered in our analysis.

108 We assume that the initial vertical ascent of the magma was triggered by the
109 unloading caused by the excavation of material following an impact (Michaut
110 and Pinel, 2018). For a small driving pressure, the magma path is likely to be
111 controlled by the lithospheric stress state (Watanabe et al., 2002). We model the
112 stress state below lunar FFCs to quantitatively estimate if and under which condi-
113 tions it may explain magma flow horizontalization and magma storage at shallow
114 depth. We thus limit our analysis to FFCs of Class 2, 3 and 4 that show evidence
115 of a strong deviation of the magma from the vertical. We do not account for FFCs
116 in the South Pole Aitken Basin (SPA) (Figure 1). GRAIL's gravity data indeed
117 show regional variations of the crust density of $\pm 250 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$, primarily between
118 the highlands and the SPA (where the crust is denser), which tend to increase the
119 magma driving pressure and affects its crustal trajectory.

120 **3. Stress model**

121 We model the local stress field acting beneath a crater taking into account
122 two main contributions: i) the unloading forces due to crater formation, and ii) the
123 loading due to the presence of mare and mascons. The total stress field is obtained
124 by superposing these two stress fields.

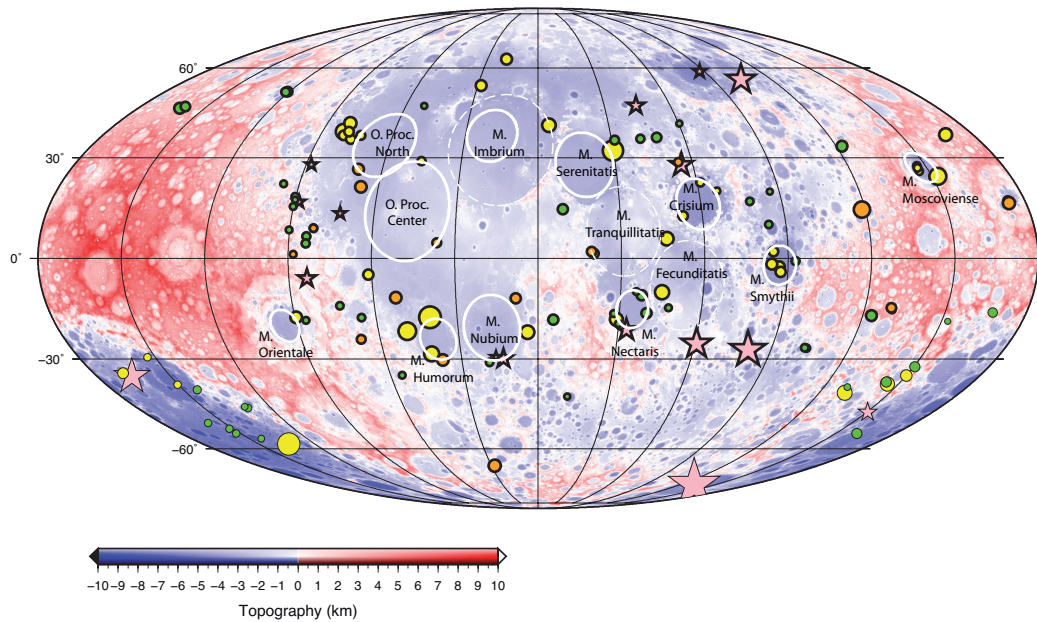


Figure 1: Distribution of lunar floor fractured craters that show an uplifted convex floor (Class 2, orange circles, Class 4 green circles) or an uplifted flat floor (Class 3, yellow circles) or, in pink stars, that show a flooded interior (Class 1) or mare material on their floor (Class 6). The crater distribution is superimposed on the surface topography with Highlands appearing in red. Symbol size is proportional to crater size. Bold symbols represents craters that are used in the following analysis while thin symbols, located in the South Polar Aitken basin area, are not considered. Mare positions and extensions as listed in Table 2 are also represented.

125 *3.1. Local stress due to crater unloading*

126 To calculate the local stress induced by a crater unloading, we follow Michaut
127 and Pinel (2018) and treat the crater depression as a negative load on an elastic
128 medium. A bowl-shape axisymmetric crater of radius R results in a stress $\sigma_{zz}^C(z =$
129 $0)$:

$$\sigma_{zz}^C(0 \leq r \leq R, z = 0) = -\rho_c g h_0 \left(1 - \frac{r^2}{R^2}\right) \quad (1)$$

130 where tensile stresses are assumed negative, ρ_c is crustal density, g gravity, r
131 radial coordinate, z is the depth defined with respect to the ground plane, and h_0
132 the maximum crater depth, expressed as a function of the crater radius following
133 Thorey et al. (2015):

$$h_0 = 540 \times (2 \times R \times 10^{-3})^{0.44} \quad (2)$$

134 where h_0 and R are in meters. We neglect the loading forces associated with
135 the crater rim and central peak topography. The stress field caused by the unload-
136 ing is determined from the equations for linear elasticity which we solved using
137 the Finite Element Method (COMSOL software) for an elastic plate of finite thick-
138 ness T_e , and for a semi-infinite medium. The analytical solutions of Pinel et al.
139 (2017) for the displacement induced by the loading of a thick elastic plate on an
140 inviscid medium have been used to validate our numerical solutions. Results for
141 large plate thicknesses compared to crater radius tend to the analytical results for
142 a semi-infinite medium (Sneddon, 1951). The vertical profile of radial, tangential
143 and vertical stresses in a semi-infinite elastic medium of Poisson's ratio ν at the
144 axis ($r = 0$) of a bowl-shape load of radius R are respectively given by Michaut
145 and Pinel (2018):

$$\begin{aligned}
\sigma_{rr}^{C,\infty}(z) &= -\frac{\rho_c g h_0}{R^2} \left((1 + 2\nu) \frac{R^2}{2} - 2(1 + \nu) z \sqrt{R^2 + z^2} + (3 + 2\nu) z^2 - \frac{z^3}{\sqrt{R^2 + z^2}} \right) \\
\sigma_{\theta\theta}^{C,\infty}(z) &= \sigma_{rr}^{C,\infty}(z) \\
\sigma_{zz}^{C,\infty}(z) &= -\frac{2\rho_c g h_0}{R^2} \left(\frac{R^2}{2} + \frac{z^3}{\sqrt{R^2 + z^2}} - z^2 \right)
\end{aligned}$$

146 where the geometry is axisymmetric with respect to z , the vertical coordinate
147 oriented downwards, and equal to zero at the surface. The exponent ∞ denotes
148 a semi-infinite medium. At depth, the horizontal and vertical stresses scale with
149 the surface unloading and decrease over a characteristic depth similar to the crater
150 radius.

151 At the unloading axis, the horizontal stress is such that $\sigma_{rr}^C(0, z) > \sigma_{zz}^C(0, z)$.
152 Therefore the direction of maximum compressive stress σ_1 is horizontal (Figure 2
153 top) while the minimum compressive stress σ_3 is vertical, and a magma intrusion
154 with small overpressure would tend to form deep horizontal sills below craters.
155 Floor appearance at FFCs of Class 2, 3 and 4 are indeed consistent with horizontal
156 crater-centred intrusions (Thorey and Michaut, 2014) but at shallow depths (< 10
157 km), allowing for roof uplift.

158 3.2. Local stress due to unloading in a regional extension

159 If a pre-existing regional stress field is present, due to the presence of mare
160 and mascons, the direction of maximum compressive stress below a crater would
161 result from the superposition of both the mare or mascon loading and the crater
162 unloading. Since the mare loads are much larger in radius than the elastic litho-
163 sphere thickness, the vertical stresses can be neglected. If the regional horizontal
164 state of stress is compressive, the maximum compressive stress along the z axis

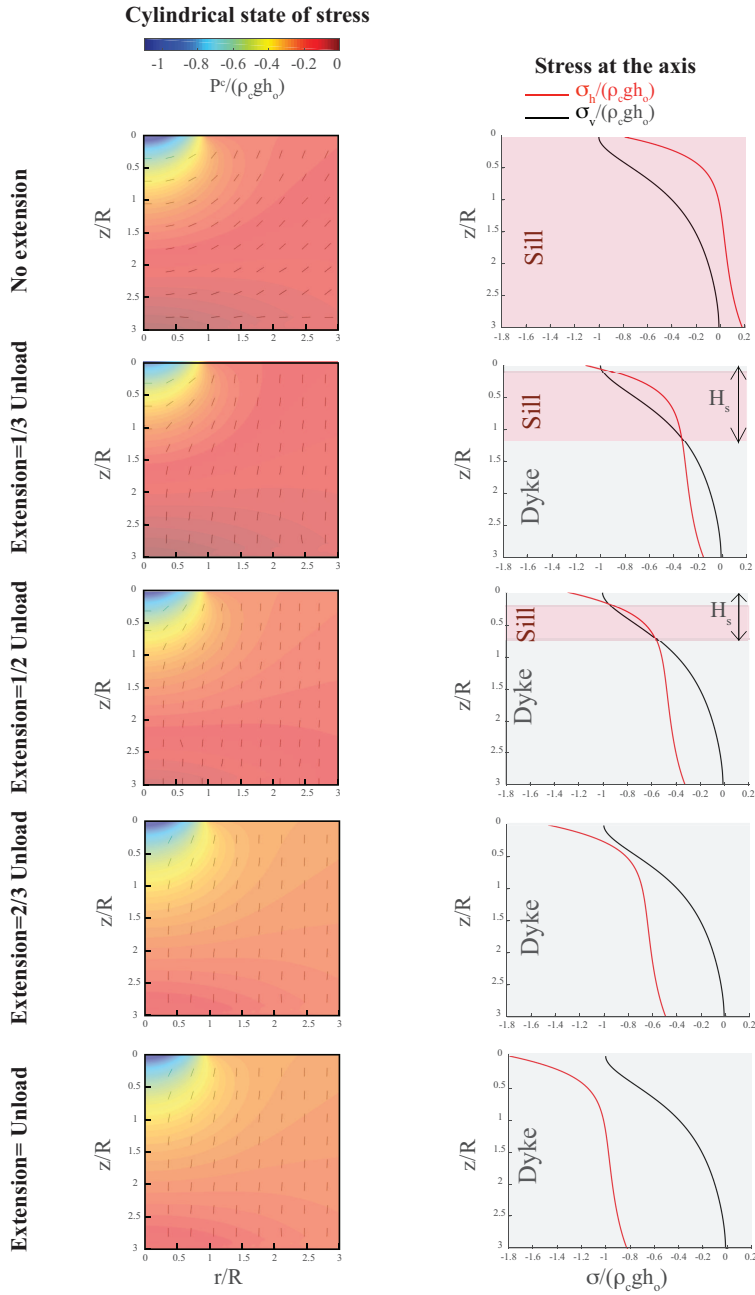


Figure 2: Left, three-dimensional axisymmetric pressure field (colour scale) and direction of maximum compressive stress σ_1 (dashes) below a bowl-shape surface unloading of radius R (equation 1) in an elastic plate of thickness $T_e = 3R$ and for different pre-existing regional stress fields (top to bottom). The pre-existing regional radial stress and tangential stress $\sigma_{\theta\theta}^{ext} = \sigma_{rr}^{ext} = \sigma_H^{ext}$ are homogenous vertically and increase progressively in tension from top, where it is $\sigma_H^{ext} = 0$, to bottom, where the horizontal stress in tension is equal to the unload $\sigma_H^{ext} = -\rho_c g h_0$. Right, for each pre-existing regional stress field, the vertical profiles of radial (red) and vertical (black) stress are shown at the axis of the depression. The depth H_s where the maximum compressive stress becomes horizontal is indicated. Results are for $\nu = 0.2$, $E = 10$ GPa, $g = 1.62$ ms⁻²,

165 remains horizontal. However, if the regional stress displays uniform horizontal
 166 extension, depending on the magnitude of $\sigma_H^{ext} < 0$, the maximum compressive
 167 stress may become vertical below a given depth H_s for which $\sigma_H(z) < \sigma_{zz}(z)$
 168 (Figure 2). This would allow for vertical dikes deeper than H_s , and horizontal
 169 sills above H_s . The transition depth H_s progressively becomes shallower as ex-
 170 tension increases (Figure 2). Actually, mare loading generates a combination of
 171 both membrane stresses, homogenous with depth, and bending stresses, linearly
 172 varying with depth, whose effects are considered next.

173 When the regional tensional stress is such that $\sigma_H^{ext} \leq -0.6\rho_c g h_0$, the maxi-
 174 mum compressive stress is vertical over the whole plate thickness (Figure 2, bot-
 175 tom). This threshold can be derived from the analytical solution for the semi-
 176 infinite medium and is independent of Young's modulus value. In such a case,
 177 crater unloading would provide the driving overpressure for magma to rise through
 178 the crust but no horizontal deflection would occur.

179 Hence, below a relatively small crater or in a thick low density crust (as for
 180 FFCs of classes 2, 3 and 4), the magma can ascend up to shallow depths (< 10
 181 km) and then turn into a horizontal sill if the tensional stress field amplitude is \lesssim
 182 $0.6\rho_c g h_0$, so that the crater stress field, which favours horizontal sills, dominates
 183 over extension at shallow depth.

184 3.3. *Pre-existing regional stress field due to mascon and mare load*

185 FFCs are distributed around the main maria suggesting either that lunar mag-
 186 mas were produced only in this specific area due to its enrichment in radioele-
 187 ments (Laneuville et al., 2013) or that the geological context associated to impact
 188 basins favoured magma ascent at their periphery because their formation has gen-
 189 erated pre-existing fractures and magma pathways (Schultz, 1976a) or because

Table 2: Mare characteristics, after <https://planetarynames.wr.usgs.gov>, International Astronomical Union (IAU), Working Group for Planetary System Nomenclature for most mare or Neumann et al. (2015). For simplicity, Oceanus Procellarum (OP) is here modelled as two large circular loads named OP Centre and OP North.

Mare	North Latitude	East Longitude	Radius (km)
Oceanus Procellarum Centre	14	312	450
Oceanus Procellarum North	34	298	300
Mare Serenitatis	28	18	300
Mare Crisium	16	59	230
Mare Smythii	-2	87	177
Mare Moscoviense	27	148	138
Mare Orientale	-20	266	147
Mare Humorum	-24	322	190
Mare Nubium	-21	343	300
Mare Nectaris	-15	35	170
Mascon Imbrium	37	341	250
Mare Imbrium	33	345	530
Mare Tranquillitatis	8	31	400
Mare Fecunditatis	-8	54	400

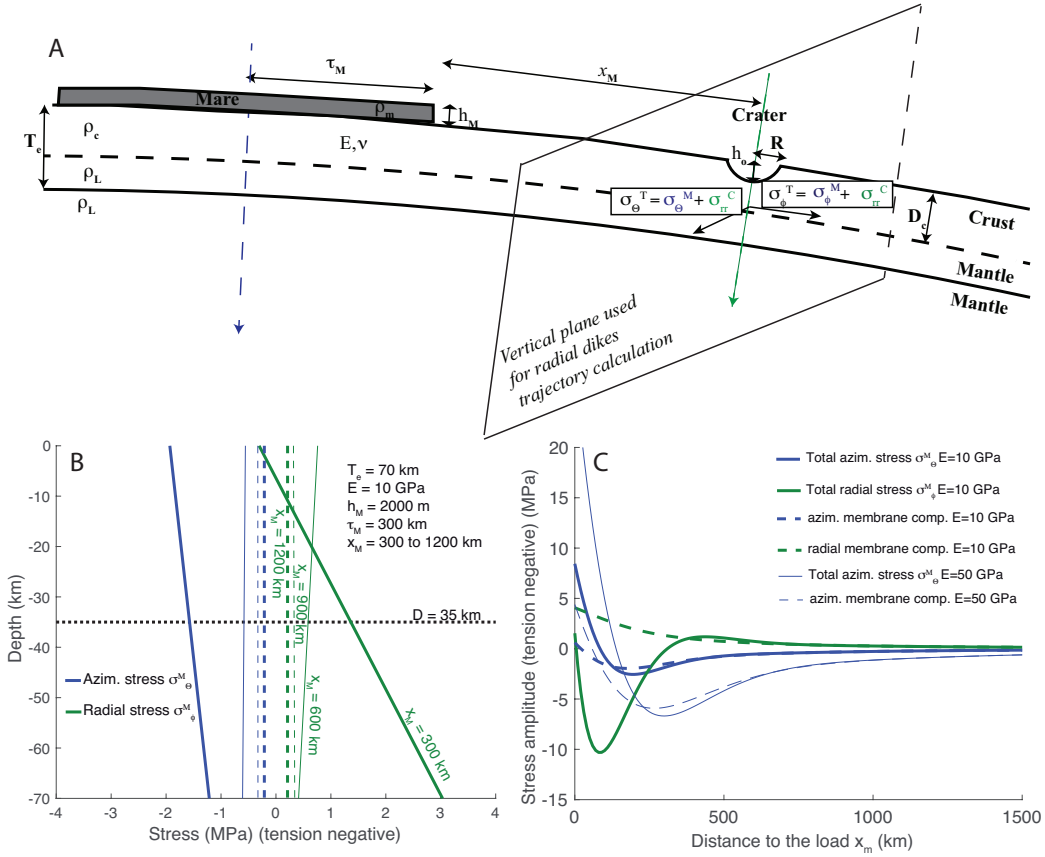


Figure 3: A: Stress field components (σ_{θ}^T and σ_{ϕ}^T) in the elastic lithosphere at the axis of a bowl-shaped crater of radius R and depth h_o at a distance x_M from a load of radius τ_M , thickness h_M and density ρ_M . This stress field is the summation of the crater unloading contribution $\sigma_{rr}^C = \sigma_{\theta\theta}^C$ and the mare/mascon loading one $\sigma_{\theta\theta}^M$ and $\sigma_{\phi\phi}^M$. Note that the elastic lithosphere contains a lithological boundary at depth D_c separating the crust and the mantle. Bottom: Horizontal azimuthal (blue) σ_{θ}^M and radial (green) σ_{ϕ}^M stresses (with respect to load center) caused by a circular load as a function of depth for four different distances from the load $x_M = 300, 600, 900, 1200$ km indicated on the graphs (same lines but two colours for azimuthal and radial stress, B) or at the surface as a function of distance from the load x_M (C). We use $T_e = 70$ km, $E = 10 - 50$ GPa, $\nu = 0.2$, $h_M = 2000$ m, $\rho_M = 3100$ kg m $^{-3}$, $\rho_L = 3400$ kg m $^{-3}$, $\rho_c = 2500$ kg m $^{-3}$ and $\tau_M = 300$ km. On C, azimuthal stresses are also indicated in the case $E = 50$ GPa; membrane stress components (homogenous with depth) dominate at distances $\geq 3\lambda$ from the load.

190 they induce tensional stresses by lithosphere loading. McGovern and Litherland
191 (2011) suggested indeed that lava filling of large circular basins on the Moon cre-
192 ated a specific regional stress state that promoted magma ascent through vertical
193 dikes in annular regions at the periphery of these large circular loads. We ex-
194 amine the possibility, following McGovern and Litherland (2011) and Thomas
195 et al. (2015), that lithosphere loading by mascons and mare weight has induced a
196 pre-existing regional extensive stress on their periphery, favouring magma ascent
197 through vertical dikes to shallower depths.

198 We model the regional lithostatic stress state σ^M induced by a mare load using
199 the analytical solution for azimuthal and radial stress σ_{Θ}^M and σ_{Φ}^M around a circular
200 load (Brotchie, 1971; Solomon and Head, 1979; Freed et al., 2001). We account
201 for bending and membrane stresses in an elastic spherical shell of thickness T_e
202 (see Appendix).

203 The amplitude of regional horizontal stresses are sensitive to the load prop-
204 erties: assuming a circular mare load, they increase with mare radius τ_M (Figure
205 3) and are directly proportional to its surface mass or load thickness h_M , for a
206 given load density. Bending stresses vary linearly with depth and dominates over
207 membrane stresses closer to the mare over a width that is equal to a few times the
208 flexural wavelength of the elastic lithosphere $\Lambda = \left(\frac{ET_e^3}{(1-\nu^2)\rho_L g} \right)^{1/4}$, where E and ν
209 are the lithosphere Young's modulus and Poisson's ratio, ρ_L is lithosphere density.
210 For $T_e = 70$ km, $E = 10$ GPa, $\Lambda \approx 85$ km and bending stresses dominates over
211 a width of $\sim 0 - 250$ km (Figure 3). Very close to the load, bending causes ten-
212 sional radial stresses close to the surface and tensional azimuthal stresses at depth
213 ($\sim 0 - 250$ km from the load on Figure 3C) and inversely a little farther away
214 ($\sim 250 - 350$ km from the load on Figure 3C). Membrane stress components are

215 constant with depth in the lithosphere and are dominant in the far field (> 200 -
216 300 km from the load, Figure 3C). Radial membrane stresses are in compression;
217 on the contrary, azimuthal membrane stresses are in tension (Figure 3, B and C),
218 favouring radial fracture opening. The azimuthal membrane stress decreases from
219 a small positive value (compression) at the load border to a minimum negative
220 value (maximum in tension) at ~ 200 km from the load for the example of Figure
221 3C; it then slowly increases back towards zero at larger distances. The azimuthal
222 membrane stress caused by mare loading could have favoured radial dyke opening
223 over distances larger than a thousand kilometers from the load. However, it was
224 not the cause of magma ascent below FFCs, since, in that case, the magma would
225 have reached the surface everywhere and not formed crater-centred intrusions.

226 3.4. Total stress field

227 To compute the total stress field acting beneath the crater, we superpose the
228 local stress field induced by the crater, estimated using COMSOL numerical cal-
229 culations (Figure 2 top), and the pre-existing regional stress field caused by a
230 circular mare load on an elastic spherical lithosphere of finite thickness T_e (Figure
231 3). To examine a wide range of parameters, we estimate the stress field at the
232 crater axis and look for solutions favourable to shallow crater-centred sill intru-
233 sions. In terms of stress state, solutions should allow for the formation of a dike
234 (radial or concentric relative to mare geometry) at the base of the crust D_c , hence
235 a horizontal least compressive stress at $z = D_c$, as well as the formation of a sill
236 at shallower depths in the crust, i.e. a vertical least compressive stress at a depth
237 z such that $0 < z < D_c$ (Figure 4A). The magma is assumed buoyant in the litho-
238 spheric mantle where its path is not affected by the stress field. Solutions depend
239 on crater radius R , lithosphere thickness T_e , distance to load x_M , load thickness

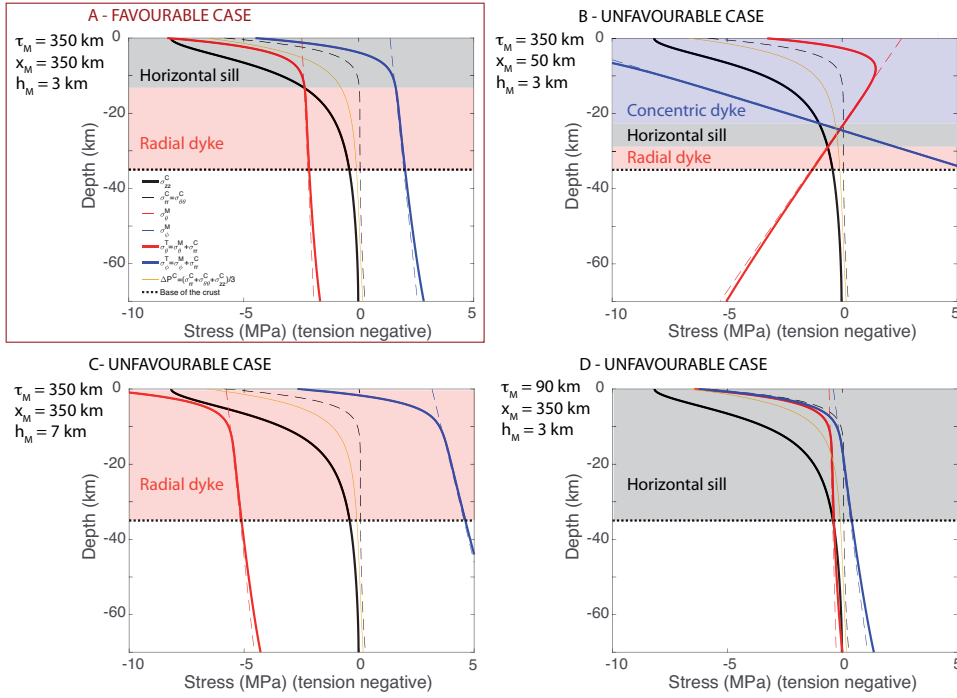


Figure 4: Different cases of stress field at the axis of an unloading as a function of depth for $T_e = 70$ km, $E = 10$ GPa, $R = 10$ km, and for different indicated values of load radius τ_M , distance to mare border x_M and load thickness h_M . Black solid line: vertical stress, only due to crater unloading. Red solid line: total azimuthal stress with respect to mare centre, sum of the azimuthal stress due to mare load (red dashed line) and horizontal stress due to crater unloading (black dashed line). Blue solid line: total radial stress with respect to mare centre, sum of the radial stress due to mare load (blue dashed line) and horizontal stress due to crater unloading (black dashed line). Yellow solid line: pressure perturbation due to unloading. An arbitrary crustal thickness of 35 km is illustrated by a horizontal dotted line. Only the stress state in A allows for vertical magma ascent followed by flow horizontalization at a shallow depth. In B, vertical dike is favoured at the base of the crust followed by a sill at shallower depths but bending stresses are so important close to the load ($x_M = 50$ km) that the total tectonic stress gradient opposes to magma ascent and cannot be compensated by the driving pressure due to unloading. In C, extension induced by mare loading dominates preventing sill formation whereas in D it is too small to enable dike formation at the crust base.

240 h_M , load radius τ_M as well as Young's modulus value. Depending on the values
 241 of these parameters we obtain four different stress regimes (Figure 4, panels A to
 242 D), which would cause different propagations of magmatic intrusions nucleated
 243 at the crust base below the crater.

244 If the amplitude of the azimuthal membrane stress is larger than $0.6\rho_cgh_0$, it
 245 dominates over the crater stress field, which would cause magma ascent in radial
 246 dikes and eruption within the crater floor (Figures 4C and 2 bottom). Such a
 247 scenario would not explain observed floor uplift at FFCs of Classes 2, 3 and 4. On
 248 the contrary, if the membrane stress is too small, such that a vertical dyke is not
 249 allowed at the base of the crust, the magma would form deep horizontal intrusions,
 250 which would not explain floor deformations either (Figure 4D).

251 Close to the load ($x_M \lesssim 200$ km), bending stress dominates over membrane
 252 stress and might be such that a vertical dike is favoured at the crust base followed
 253 by a horizontal sill within the crust (Figure 4B). However, in that case, the vertical
 254 stress gradient $d\sigma^H/dz$ is positive and opposes to magma ascent (the azimuthal
 255 pre-existing stress largely increases with height, red curve on Figure 4B). The
 256 overpressure P^C provided by crater unloading at $z = D_c$ allows for magma ascent
 257 to shallow depths (< 10 km) only if P^C counteracts the positive vertical gradient
 258 in total stress up to 10 km depth, or up to the depth at which the vertical gradient
 259 in total stress reverses ($z^{\theta\phi} > 10$ km) favouring magma ascent:

$$\begin{aligned}
 |P^C(z = D_c)| &\geq \sigma_\Phi^T(z = \max(z^{10}, z^{\theta\phi})) - \sigma_\Phi^T(z = D_c) & \text{if } \sigma_3(D_c) = \sigma_\Phi(D_c) \\
 |P^C(z = D_c)| &\geq \sigma_\Theta^T(z = \max(z^{10}, z^{\theta\phi})) - \sigma_\Theta^T(z = D_c) & \text{if } \sigma_3(D_c) = \sigma_\Theta(D_c)
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{3}$$

260 where Θ and Φ are respectively the azimuthal and radial coordinates relative to
 261 the load centre, σ_3 the least compressive stress, $\sigma_{\Phi}^T = \sigma_{\Phi}^M + \sigma_{rr}^C$ and $\sigma_{\Theta}^T = \sigma_{\Theta}^M + \sigma_{rr}^C$,
 262 where σ^M is the stress generated by mascon/mare loading on the lithosphere and
 263 σ^C the stress perturbation due to crater unload.

264 4. Results

265 4.1. Conditions favourable to shallow crater-centred magmatism

266 For a given load radius, lithosphere elastic thickness and Young's modulus
 267 value, we look for solutions in terms of crater radius R , load thickness h_M and
 268 distance to load x_M that would favour: i) a vertical dike at the crust base, ii) a
 269 dike to sill transition within the crust as well as iii) an effective overpressure that
 270 would drive magma up to shallow depths ≤ 10 km (Equations 3).

271 For distances $\gtrsim 200$ -300 km, membrane stresses are dominant. Results show
 272 that as the mare thickness increases, the condition for having FFCs are met at
 273 increasing distances from the mare, and within a wider range. This result stands
 274 given a fixed load radius, crater radius and lithosphere thickness (Figure 5). When
 275 the load is too thick (for instance for $h_M > 4000$ m for $R = 10$ km, $T_e = 70$
 276 km, $E = 10$ GPa and $\tau_M = 350$ km), azimuthal membrane stresses close to the
 277 load (at $x_M \leq 200 - 300$ km) become larger than $0.6\rho_c g h_0$ and dominate over the
 278 local stress due to crater unloading (Figures 4C and 5). Far away from the load,
 279 membrane stresses become too small and vertical dikes cannot form at the base of
 280 the crust leading to deep sill intrusions (Figures 4 and 5).

281 At distances $\lesssim 200$ km to the mare, bending stresses are dominant and tec-
 282 tonic stresses tend to oppose to magma ascent. For the magma to ascend to shal-
 283 low depths, the overpressure due to crater unloading has to compensate for the

284 positive tectonic stress gradient. This is only possible if load thicknesses are suffi-
285 ciently small. As the crater radius, and hence the induced overpressure, increases,
286 the maximum possible load thicknesses slowly increases for distances $\lesssim 200$ km
287 (Figure 5).

288 Our results show that, for a given mare thickness and radius, the smaller the
289 crater radius, the easier it is for membrane stress to compensate for the vertical
290 extension at depth caused by crater unloading. Therefore, shallow magmatism
291 can occur below the crater at increasing distance from the mare (Figure 5) for a
292 given load thickness and radius. As a result, shallow horizontal intrusions beneath
293 small craters ($R < 10$ km) are likely to occur over a larger range of distances from
294 the mare. Instead, shallow intrusions below large craters ($R > 20$ km) should only
295 occur close to the mare (Figure 5).

296 Indeed Schultz (1976a) noted that small FFCs are found deep into the High-
297 lands. To quantify this observation, we calculate the distance of each FFC to its
298 closest and second closest mare by considering the main maria and assuming cir-
299 cular mare loads with a given centre and radius (see Table 2, Figure 1). Such a
300 geometry is certainly simplified, in particular for Oceanus Procellarum (OP) that
301 represents a broad positive gravity anomaly. But the 3D loading geometry is more
302 difficult to represent. Mare Orientale is also associated to a more complex gravity
303 signature, with a central gravity high encircled by a low gravity annulus itself sur-
304 rounded by a broader gravity high region, which might be important to consider
305 in the interpretation of individual FFC. Given that membrane stress plays over a
306 large distance from the mare, it may also happen that the mare which is respon-
307 sible for magma ascent is not the closest to the crater. However, our simplified
308 model allows to obtain first-order quantitative results, and test our assumptions.

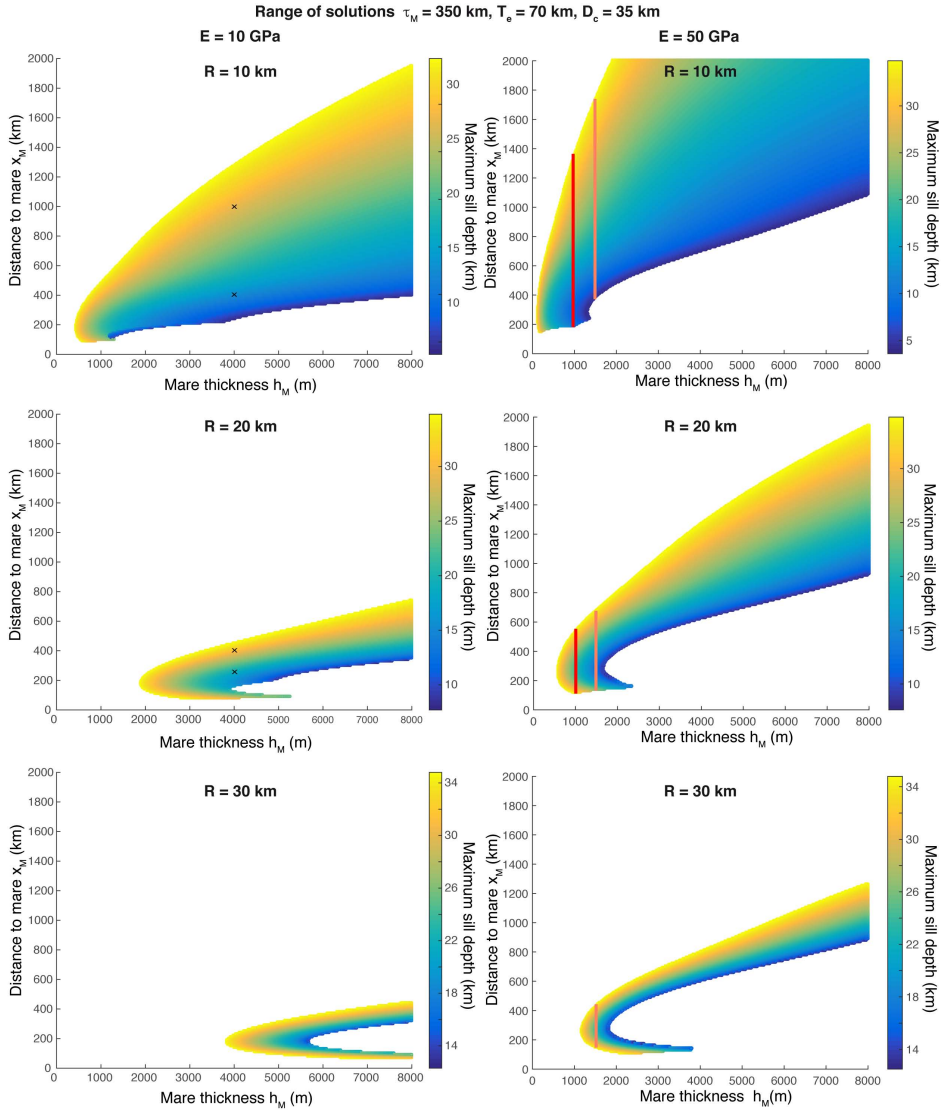


Figure 5: Range of possible solutions (coloured area) in terms of distance to mare load x_M and mare thickness h_M for a shallow magma intrusion to occur below a crater for different crater radius of 10 (top), 20 (middle) and 30 km (bottom), for a load radius $\tau_M = 350$ km, an elastic lithosphere thickness $T_e = 70$ km and a crustal thickness $D_c = 35$ km and using $E = 10$ GPa (left), or $E = 50$ GPa (right). $\nu = 0.2$, $g = 1.62 \text{ ms}^{-2}$ and $\rho_L = 3400 \text{ kg.m}^{-3}$, $\rho_c = 2500 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$, $\rho_M = 3100 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$. The maximum sill depth is the maximum depth at which the minimum compressive stress is vertical at the crater axis, thus assuming that the magma trajectory follows σ_1 . The range of distances indicated in red for $h_M = 1000$ m and orange for $h_M = 1500$ m for $E = 50$ GPa correspond to the ones indicated on Figure 6A. Crosses on the left ($E = 10$ GPa) indicate the distance, mare load and crater radius used to calculate the stress state necessary to 2D simulations of Figure 7.

309 Results show that the range of observed distance to the mare indeed decreases
310 as the crater radius increases: while small craters of radius ~ 10 km are found up
311 to 1200 km away from a mare side, larger craters of ~ 30 km are found within a
312 few hundreds of km from the maria (Figure 6A). A linear regression with negative
313 slope fits FFCs radii as a function of their distance from the closest maria (Figure
314 6). Distances are considered with an error $\Delta x_M = \pm 100$ km. Considering or not
315 Mare Tranquillitatis, Fecunditatis and the whole extent of Mare Imbrium do not
316 significantly change the results (Figure 1), suggesting that these maria were not
317 important actors for the occurrence of shallow magmatism below craters.

318 Figure 5 also shows the depth at which the minimum compressive stress turn
319 from horizontal to vertical. In case the magma trajectory exactly follows σ_1 , this
320 would indicate a dyke to sill transition. These depths might be quite large, in
321 particular far from the load. However, depending on the trade-off between the
322 magnitude of the regional stress and the magma driving force, intrusions may
323 display a delayed deflexion towards the direction of σ_1 (Watanabe et al., 2002;
324 Menand et al., 2010), which would validate the whole possible range of solutions
325 of Figure 5. This assumption is tested in the following section.

326 *4.2. Results from dike propagation model*

327 In our analysis, we assumed that buoyancy and overpressure were small enough
328 for the magma to exactly follow the direction of the maximum compressive stress.
329 This approach has allowed us to look for solutions over a wide range of param-
330 eters in terms of load characteristics and distance from the mare. In order to
331 validate these results, we make use of a 2D boundary element (BE) model to sim-
332 ulate the trajectory of a magmatic dike propagating within the crust (Maccaferri
333 et al., 2011). Results from the BE model for dike propagation allow us to quantify

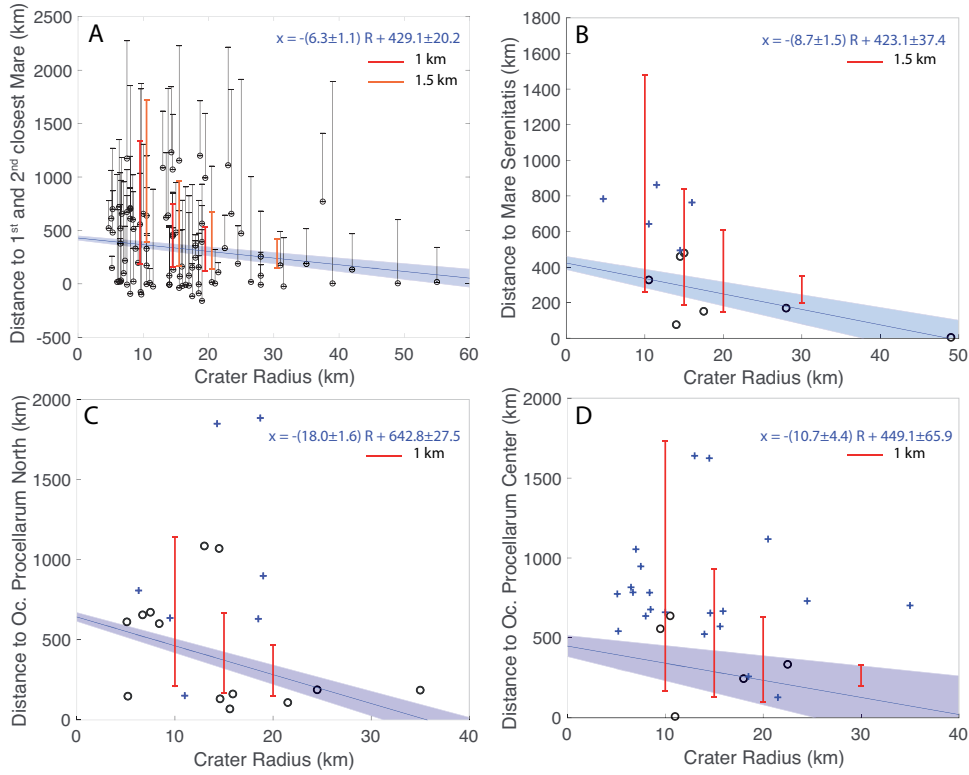


Figure 6: A: Distance from first (circle) and second (dash) closest mare for each floor fractured craters of Class 2, 3 and 4 (showing an elevated floor) as a function of crater radius. We assume circular maria of given radius and centre (Table 2). Thick lines indicate predicted distance range of FFCs of given radius from a load of radius $\tau_M = 350$ km and thickness 1 (red) or 1.5 km (orange). The linear regression line and equation fitting data corresponding to the closest mare are shown in blue, with the coloured area corresponding to the regression error for an error on the distance of ± 100 km. B, C, D: Distance of closest FFCs from different maria as a function of FFCs radius. Black circles: FFCs for which the mare considered is the closest one, blue crosses: FFCs for which the mare considered is the second closest one. Predicted distance ranges are indicated as errorbars in red and the regression line (regression error is obtained considering an error on the distance of ± 50 km) and its equation fitting data corresponding to FFCs for which the Mare is the closest one (circles) are indicated in blue and coloured area. B: Mare Serenitatis, modelled as a cylindrical load of radius 300 km. Predicted distance ranges are for a load radius of 300 km and thickness 1.5 km. C: Northern part of OP, modelled as a cylindrical load of radius 300 km. Predicted distance ranges are for a load of radius 300 km and thickness 1 km. D: Central part of OP modelled as a load of radius 450 km. Predicted distance ranges are for a load radius of 450 km and thickness 1 km. Calculations use $E = 50$ GPa, $T_e = 70$ km, $D_c = 35$ km, $\nu = 0.2$, $g = 1.62$ ms $^{-2}$ and $\rho_L = 3400$ kg.m $^{-3}$

334 the height required for a vertical dike to turn into a sill. Using this approach we
335 are able to drop the assumption that dikes instantaneously adjust to the direction
336 favoured by the principal stresses. Dike trajectories are computed by maximising
337 the strain plus gravitational energy released by the dike on incremental propa-
338 gations along different test directions (Maccaferri et al., 2011). This calculation
339 allows to track the actual dike trajectory which does not depend only on the local
340 stress field but also on magma driving force and to check under which conditions
341 a vertical dike starting from the base of the crust may get stacked as a horizontal
342 sill at shallow depth beneath an impact crater. The BE model for dike propagation
343 is fed with a radial cross section of the stress field acting within the crust beneath
344 an impact crater, as computed with COMSOL (Figure 5). The horizontal stress
345 component is given by σ_{Θ}^T and the vertical component is only induced by crater
346 unloading.

347 We consider several specific favourable cases where the membrane stress com-
348 ponent induced by mare loading dominates, producing azimuthal tensile stress and
349 favouring radial dikes turning into sills. Vertical dykes start 10 km below the crust,
350 at 45 km depth, with a given volume and internal pressure, at different distances
351 ($x_C = 0.5, 1.0, 2.0, 30$ km) from the crater axis (Figure 7). Magma is assumed to
352 be buoyant in the mantle but not in the crust (which is 35 km thick).

353 Although magma loses pressure in the crust, where it is negatively buoyant,
354 its driving pressure allows for further ascent and the intrusion does not stop at the
355 crust base. Simulations show that for larger magma volume and driving force,
356 the dyke is less deviated from its vertical path and ascends farther up in the crust.
357 Therefore, the transition from a dyke to a sill occurs at shallower depths than H_s .
358 If the driving force is sufficiently large (Figure 7), the magma might even reach

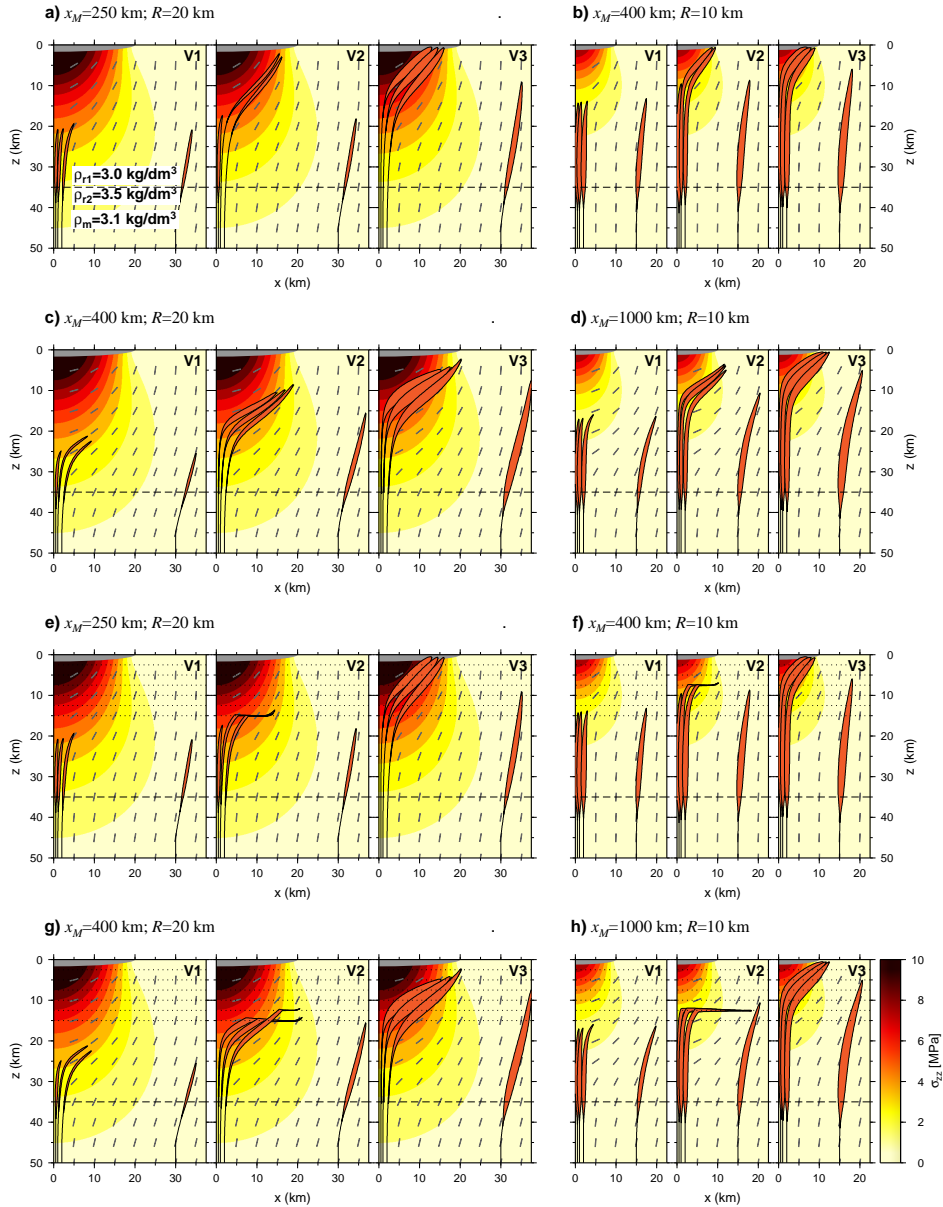


Figure 7: Panels 'a' to 'd') Simulated dike trajectories (red elongated sheet intrusions) for different stress scenarios, and different magma volumes (that is the dike cross section, in the 2D model: $V_3 = 0.25 \text{ km}^2$, $V_2 = 0.5 \times V_3$, $V_1 = 0.5 \times V_2$). Panels 'e' to 'h') same simulations but including six weak layers (dotted lines) at regular depth intervals between 2.5 and 15 km depth. In all simulations dikes start at 45 km depth. ρ_{r1} , ρ_M , and ρ_{r2} are the densities of crustal rocks, magma, and mantle rocks, respectively. The dashed horizontal line is the crust-mantle boundary. Grey dashes indicate the direction of σ_1 . The intensity of the vertical component of loading and unloading stresses is plotted as colour contour. In panels a) and e) we consider the stress induced by a crater of radius $R = 20 \text{ km}$ at a distance $x_M = 250 \text{ km}$ from the load. b) and f) $R = 20 \text{ km}$, $x_M = 400 \text{ km}$. c) and g) $R = 10 \text{ km}$, $x_M = 400 \text{ km}$. d) and h) $R = 10 \text{ km}$, $x_M = 1000 \text{ km}$. We used $T_e = 70 \text{ km}$, $\tau_M = 350 \text{ km}$, $h_M = 4 \text{ km}$, $E = 10 \text{ GPa}$ and $\nu = 0.2$.

359 the surface, as also shown by Michaut and Pinel (2018) for large craters on a
360 thin crust. Far from the crater axis, the local crater stress field is negligible and
361 the vertical dyke is not deviated. Dykes starting far away from a crater would also
362 stagnate at deeper depths than the ones starting below the crater axis. This is due to
363 the larger decrease in pressure as the intrusion ascends below the crater unloading
364 (Michaut and Pinel, 2018).

365 Our calculations show that the depth of the dyke-to-sill transition is controlled
366 by the magnitude of the deviatoric stress compared to magma driving force. The
367 deviatoric stress below craters becomes significant at a depth similar to the crater
368 radius (Figure 2). Hence, below small craters on a thick crust, if the magma intru-
369 sion starts as a vertical dyke, it can ascend up to shallow depths equivalent to the
370 crater radius before being deviated (Figure 7). This confirms that the entire range
371 of distances from the mare for which we expect FFCs, according to the calcula-
372 tions carried out in the previous section, indeed lead to shallow sill intrusions.

373 Finally, we test the effect of a weak layer interface on magma propagation,
374 to reproduce the presence of a brecciated or fractured zone, which has been pre-
375 viously proposed as a possible cause for sill emplacement below impact craters
376 (Schultz, 1976a; Jozwiak et al., 2012). Our simulations show that such a weak
377 layer can help the process of horizontalization if the magma driving force is low
378 enough (for a large volume or large driving pressure, the dyke path always remains
379 unperturbed by the weak layer, see cases V3, bottom of Figure 7). However, in
380 order for the dyke to intrude through the weak interface (characterised by null
381 fracture toughness of the rocks), it is necessary to consider also the local stress
382 field due to the crater unloading. In fact, dykes starting far from a crater, which
383 are not directly affected by the crater unloading, does not intrude within the weak

384 interface (Figure 7 panels f and h volume V2).

385 4.3. *Effect of Young's modulus, crustal and elastic lithosphere thicknesses*

386 For a given elastic plate thickness T_e , crater unloading causes compression
387 at depths $z \gtrsim 2T_e/3$ which inhibits magma ascent (Figure 3 in Michaut and
388 Pinel (2018)). The presence of crater-centred intrusions below craters in region of
389 crustal thickness of $\sim 30 - 40$ km (Figure 3 in Michaut and Pinel (2018)) thus ar-
390 gues for a relatively thick lithosphere such that $T_e \geq 70$ km at the time of magma
391 ascent below craters. The Young's modulus value has a negligible effect on this
392 estimate (in particular, Equation 3 does not depend on E).

393 As long as $D_c \lesssim 2T_e/3$, increasing the crustal thickness would increase the
394 maximum distance from the mare at which FFCs can form. This is because a
395 thicker crust would more easily allow for vertical dykes at its base, wherever the
396 effect of mare loading dominates over crater unloading (Figure 2). The fact that
397 the crust generally thickens farther from the mare (Wieczorek et al., 2013) thus
398 favours the development of crater-centred intrusions far from the load.

399 For a given crustal thickness, crater and load radius, a thicker elastic litho-
400 sphere slightly increases the minimum load thickness necessary to meet the con-
401 dition for FFCs formation. However, the effect of elastic thickness variations on
402 possible distance range of FFCs from mare is negligible.

403 Young's modulus values are larger for mantle rocks than for crustal rocks and
404 decrease with porosity and temperature (Pritchard and Stevenson, 2000) spanning
405 a range between 10 and 100 GPa, with most studies considering values between
406 50 and 100 GPa for the lithosphere (Solomon and Head, 1979). The value of E
407 quite significantly affects our results: the larger E , the larger the amplitudes of
408 both bending and membrane stresses due to mare loading are (see Appendix) and

409 the wider the range of possible distances for FFCs from the load for given load
410 properties (i.e. given τ_M , h_M), (Figure 5). In the following, we consider a value
411 of 50 GPa and $T_e = 70$ km.

412 4.4. Mare thicknesses

413 The main maria have radii between ~ 150 and 450 km (see Table 2).

414 Within this range of load radius, we can calculate the minimum thickness that
415 is necessary for magma ascent up to the floor of a crater with radius of 10 km.
416 For this calculation, we use both the minimum value of the azimuthal membrane
417 stress, that occurs at a few hundreds of kilometers from the load (Figure 3 B
418 and C), as well as the mean value over the distance range 100-700 km from the
419 load, that is the range of distances over which most FFCs of radius ~ 10 km are
420 observed (Figure 6 A).

421 Results show that, in order to have small uplifted FFCs (~ 10 km in radius),
422 at a distance between 100 to 700 km from a load with radius > 250 km, the load
423 thickness must be smaller than ~ 3 km (Figure 8). Smaller FFCs, of Class 4
424 in particular, show uplifted floors rather than flooded floors. These craters are
425 observed around the largest maria, in particular OP, Mare Serenitatis and Mare
426 Crisium. Given mare radius (see Table 2), we deduce that the mare thickness is on
427 average less than < 1.6 km in OP in its central part, < 2.3 km in Mare Serenitatis
428 and < 3.4 km in Mare Crisium.

429 Taken all together, the range of distances between all FFCs with an uplifted
430 floors and their first and second closest mare is consistent with an average mare
431 thickness of ~ 1 to 1.5 km, assuming $\tau_M = 350$ km (Figure 6 A).

432 FFCs may be influenced by a set of stresses imposed by the presence of more
433 than one mare. Here, we assume that a FFC is under the influence of a given mare

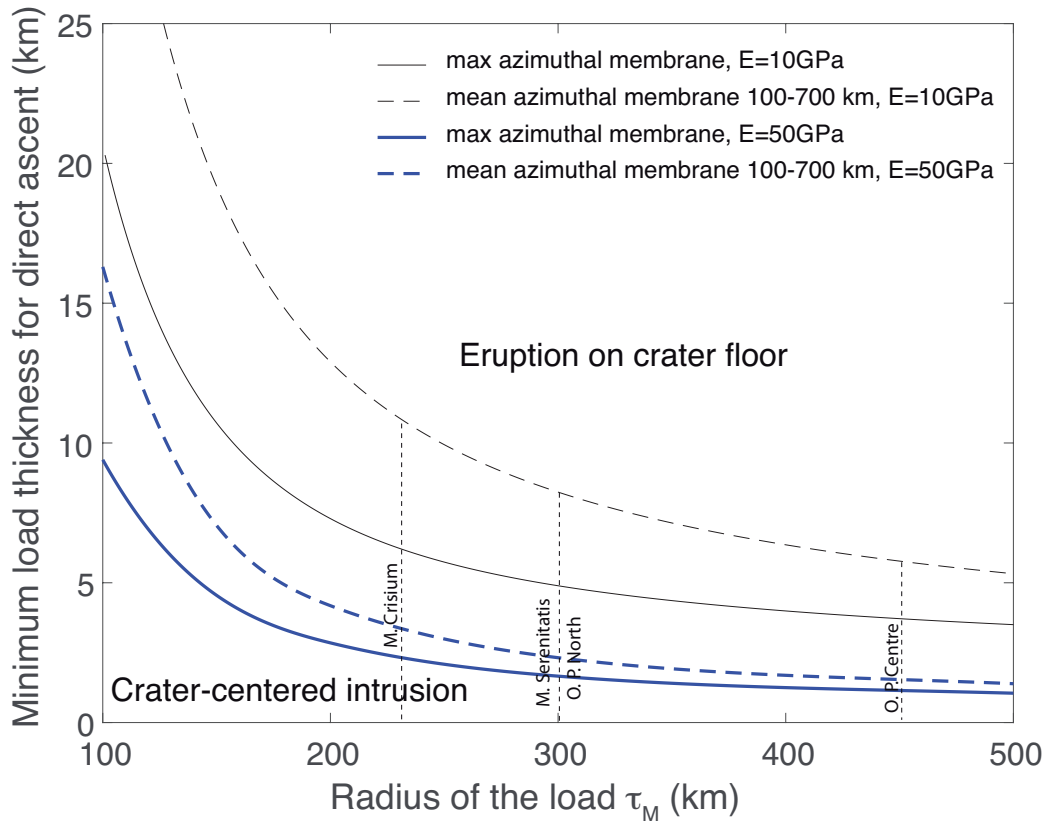


Figure 8: Load thickness h_{asc} necessary for a direct ascent up to the crater surface for a crater radius of 10 km as function of load radius τ_M . Dashed line: thickness calculated using the mean value of the azimuthal membrane stress between 100 and 700 km from the load. Solid line: thickness calculated using the maximum azimuthal membrane stress in tension (i.e. minimum value). Black lines: $E = 10$ GPa, blue lines, $E = 50$ GPa.

434 or mascon if this mare is the first or second closest mare to this crater. We observe
435 that the distance range of FFCs from the mare indeed decreases as the FFC radius
436 increases (Figure 6). In fact, a linear regression with significant negative slope fits
437 FFCs radii versus their distance from the closest mare (Figure 6 B, C and D).

438 We found that FFCs distribution around OP are in general consistent with
439 an average mare thickness of 1 km, in agreement with results from Gong et al.
440 (2016), based on GRAIL's gravity data, but about twice the value proposed by De
441 Hon (1979). However, the method used by De Hon (1979) only provides lower
442 bounds on basalt thicknesses (Gong et al., 2016) and these authors also noted local
443 lenses in excess of 1000-1500 m which increases the average load thickness.

444 The distribution of FFCs around Mare Serenitatis is consistent with a load
445 thickness of ~ 1.5 km for a load radius of 300 km. This estimate is in good agree-
446 ment with Michaut et al. (2016) who found a thickness larger than 1.3 km and
447 with the estimation of 1.6 km based on the deepest reflector detected by the Lunar
448 Sounder Experiment (Peeples et al., 1978). East of Mare Serenitatis, Weider et al.
449 (2010) estimated the thickness of 6 different layers, for a total of about 1500 m,
450 also consistent with this study.

451 Evans et al. (2016) interpreted circular gravity anomalies lacking topographic
452 expressions as flooded craters. By estimating their initial rim height, they obtained
453 thicknesses larger than 1.5 km. Their study also point to local basalt lenses in
454 excess of 7 km thickness. It appears quite logical that our regional-scale study fits
455 better with their average value. We notice that our FFCs are generally observed
456 closer to mare than what is expected from our model (Figures 6 and 8). Such a
457 discrepancy might be explained by the thickening of the load towards the center
458 of the mare, which is not considered in our simplified loading model.

459 **5. Discussion and conclusion**

460 Recently, Michaut and Pinel (2018) have shown that crater unloading may
461 have triggered magma ascent within the lunar crust below mare-filled and floor-
462 fractured craters. For large craters, the unloading was large enough to cause
463 magma eruption on the crater floor. For small craters, the crater unloading was
464 not large enough to cause an eruption and resulted in an intrusion. In that case,
465 the magma driving pressure is small and the magma path is likely sensitive to the
466 lithospheric stress state. Here we demonstrate that flow horizontalization, leading
467 to sill-like intrusions below FFCs, was caused by the local stress state below crater
468 unloading with a vertical least compressive stress favouring the emplacement of
469 horizontal intrusions. The presence of a highly fractured, brecciated zone caused
470 by the impact over a depth proportional to the crater size and possibly capped by
471 impact-generated solidified melt (Schultz, 1976a; Wichman and Schultz, 1995),
472 that we modelled as a weak layer interface below the crater, could have helped,
473 but did not cause, the horizontalization of magmatic intrusions.

474 Furthermore, a tensional stress is necessary to explain horizontal spreading at
475 shallow depth and crater floor uplift at FFCs. Mare and mascons loading on the
476 lithosphere caused tensional membrane stresses in the azimuthal direction for a
477 circular mare at their periphery over distances larger than ~ 1000 km favouring
478 radial dyke opening. We demonstrate that the size and spatial distribution of FFCs
479 of Class 2, 3 and 4, with the smaller FFCs being the farther away from the mare,
480 is consistent with magma path below craters being controlled by the lithospheric
481 state of stress, sum of the local stress due to crater unloading and of a regional
482 horizontal pre-existing stress caused by mare loading. The distribution of FFCs
483 around lunar maria is consistent with elastic lithosphere thicknesses ≥ 70 km and

484 average mare thicknesses < 4 km, in particular of ~ 1 km in OP using $E = 50$
485 GPa.

486 The conditions for which magma may accumulate as horizontal sills at shal-
487 low depths ($z \leq 10$ km) below impact craters are likely met below small craters
488 ($R \leq 10$ km) surrounding mascons and maria. Indeed, the smaller the crater,
489 the smaller the required additional pre-existing extension to obtain a vertical σ_1
490 at depth ensuring the ascent of magma to shallower depths. It is thus likely that
491 the mechanism we propose is also the cause of the formation of lunar concentric
492 craters (Trang et al., 2016). These craters, that have diameters commonly < 15
493 km, present anomalously shallow floors and a concentric ridge; they share the
494 same distribution, surrounding the maria, as floor-fractured craters and probably
495 result from crater-centred intrusions (Trang et al., 2016; Schultz, 1976b).

496 Here, we assume that the stress field seen by ascending magma is the sum-
497 mation of the regional mare-controlled stress before impact and of the unloading
498 stress associated with crater topography. However, material fluidization caused
499 by impact could reset the stress state in the crater subsurface, losing the memory
500 of prior regional stress within an hemisphere of radius $\sim R$. In that case, once
501 the crater motion ceases, the elastic medium still has to compensate for the final
502 crater topography, and unloading forces would still dominate the local stress, pro-
503 moting shallow sill formation (vertical σ_3). As the stress will not be discontinuous
504 after the impact and the regional stress is still present at depths $> R$, the resulting
505 stress at shallower depths should be equivalent to a reduced regional stress field in
506 addition to the local crater stress field. In that case, our mare thickness estimates
507 would provide a lower bound.

508 On Earth, radial dike swarms have been used to characterise local stress per-

509 turbations induced either by the magmatic plumbing system (Odé, 1957; Muller
510 and Pollard, 1977; Mériaux and Lister, 2002) or the volcanic edifice (Roman and
511 Jaupart, 2014). Lessons learned from Earth applied volcanology have been trans-
512 ferred to planetology with success. In particular, similar giant dike swarms ob-
513 served on Venus have been interpreted either in terms of local plumbing system
514 or large scale rising diapir effects (Ernst et al., 1995; Galgana et al., 2013). More
515 recent studies of magma transport on Earth have relied not only on the magmatic
516 intrusion shape and orientation but also on vent location to gain quantitative infor-
517 mation on the stress state, otherwise difficult to constrain, within volcanic edifices
518 (Maccaferri et al., 2017) or rifting areas (Maccaferri et al., 2014). In particular, the
519 surface unloading effect induced by caldera formation has been proven to strongly
520 affects the magma trajectory favouring horizontal deflection at shallow depth and
521 sill-shaped storage zone formation (Corbi et al., 2015). The present study shows
522 that applying these new concepts, based on magma ability to reach the surface and
523 on the path followed by magma in the crust, to planetary volcanism, opens new
524 perspectives. Additional information on the lithospheric elastic thickness (see
525 Michaut and Pinel (2018) as well as this study) and on its state of stress can be de-
526 rived. Conversely, applications of magma transport models on various terrestrial
527 planets and settings improve their validation to larger parameters ranges.

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 536 manuscript.

537 **Appendix A. Stress due to a cylindrical load on an elastic shell**

538 We use the analytical solution by Brotschie (1971), also used by Solomon and
 539 Head (1979) and Freed et al. (2001) to calculate the stress in a spherical elastic
 540 shell of thickness T_e , Young's modulus E , Poisson's ratio ν due to a cylindrical
 541 load of radius τ_M , thickness h_M , density ρ_M . The shell overlies a fluid of density
 542 ρ_L . We note $q_M = \rho_M g h_M$ and the flexural rigidity $D = ET_e^3/(12(1 - \nu^2))$. We
 543 note the radius of "relative stiffness" L

$$L = \left(\frac{D}{ET_e/R^2 + \rho_L g} \right)^{1/4} \quad (\text{A.1})$$

544 We also note $d_M = \tau_M/L$ and $x = \tau_M + x_M$, and R_s the spherical radius to
 545 the midplane of the shell. Outside the load ($x_M > 0$), the vertical displacement
 546 w , positive downwards, the radial and azimuthal moment M_ϕ and M_θ and radial

547 and azimuthal resultant N_Φ and N_Θ are :

$$w = \frac{q_M d_M}{ET_e/R_s^2 + \rho_L g} (\text{Ber}' d_M \text{Ker } x - \text{Bei}' d_M \text{Kei } x) \quad (\text{A.2})$$

$$M_\Phi = -q_M d_M L^2 \left[\text{Ber}' d_M \left(\text{Kei } x + \frac{1-\nu}{x} \text{Ker}' x \right) + \text{Bei}' d_M \left(\text{Ker } x - \frac{1-\nu}{x} \text{Kei}' x \right) \right] \quad (\text{A.3})$$

$$M_\Theta = -q_M d_M L^2 \left[\text{Ber}' d_M \left(\nu \text{Kei } x - \frac{1-\nu}{x} \text{Ker}' x \right) + \text{Bei}' d_M \left(\nu \text{Ker } x + \frac{1-\nu}{x} \text{Kei}' x \right) \right] \quad (\text{A.4})$$

$$N_\Phi = \frac{q_M ET_e/R_s}{ET_e/R_s^2 + \rho_L g} \left[\frac{1}{2} \frac{d_M^2}{x^2} + \frac{d_M}{x} (\text{Ber}' d_M \text{Kei}' x + \text{Bei}' d_M \text{Ker}' x) \right] \quad (\text{A.5})$$

$$N_\Theta = -N_\Phi + ET_e w / R_s \quad (\text{A.6})$$

548 where Ber, Bei, Ker and Kei are Bessel-Kelvin functions of order zero and
549 the prime denotes their first derivatives.

550 Within the shell at $(R_s - T_e/2) \leq r \leq (R_s + T_e/2)$, the net horizontal radial
551 stress σ_Φ and azimuthal stress σ_Θ with respect to lead center are:

$$\sigma_\Phi = -\frac{N_\Phi}{T_e} + \frac{12M_\Phi}{Te^3}(r - R_s) \quad (\text{A.7})$$

$$\sigma_\Theta = -\frac{N_\Theta}{T_e} + \frac{12M_\Theta}{Te^3}(r - R_s) \quad (\text{A.8})$$

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