

# Impact of erosion and décollements on large-scale faulting and folding in orogenic wedges: analogue models and case studies

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1 2 3 4	Impact of erosion and décollements on large scale faulting and folding in orogenic wedges: analogue models and case studies
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26	figures in supplementary material
27	Running title : Modeling erosional fold and thrust belts

Abstract: Deformation mechanisms, long-term kinematics and evolution of fold and thrust belts submitted to erosion are studied through 2D analog experiments involving large convergence. First order parameters tested include: i) décollements and/or plastic layers interbedded at different location within analog materials; ii) synconvergence surface erosion.

Weak layers, depending on their location in the model, favor deformation partitioning characterized by the simultaneous development of: i) underplating domains in the inner part of the wedge (basal accretion); ii) frontal accretion where the wedge grows forward. Interaction between tectonics and surface processes influence this behavior. Development of antiformal thrust stacks controlled by underplating show small- and large-scale cyclicity.

39 Thin plastic layers induce folding processes, which are studied at wedge scale.
40 Recumbent and overturned folds, with large inverted limbs, develop in shear induced
41 asymmetric deformation regime via progressive unrolling of synclinal hinges. Surface
42 erosion and underplating at depth induce further rotation (passive tilting) and
43 horizontalization of fold limbs.

Models results give insights to discuss the mechanisms responsible for the large-scale
structures (i.e., antiformal nappe stacks, klippen and kilometer scale recumbent foldnappes) encountered in several mountain belts such as the Montagne Noire (French
Massif Central), the Galicia Variscan belt (Spain) or the Northern Apennines (Italy).

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52 Orogenic wedges are characterized by complex geological structures growing and 53 evolving over long time periods (e.g. Fossen 2010). Their building is mainly 54 controlled by the general mechanics of subduction and by the interactions between 55 tectonics and surface processes that modify wedge dynamics through material transfer 56 (e.g. Malavieille 2010). Because subduction orogens suffer large convergence, the 57 long-term deformation is intense and generates specific structures which mechanisms 58 of genesis are still not completely understood. Among them, the way large-scale 59 recumbent fold-nappes observed in several mountain belt forelands grow and evolve 60 remains enigmatic (Fig. 1). The most beautiful examples in Europe are situated in the 61 Montagne Noire (Southern French Massif Central), Galicia Mountain Belt, (Spain) or 62 the Northern Appennines (Italy). For example, during the Variscan Orogen, large-63 scale fold-nappes with huge inverted limbs (sometime of more than ten kilometers of 64 amplitude) have been created without (or with very low) metamorphism (e.g. Matte 65 1968; Arthaud 1970). Other large scale structures are common in mountain belts, such 66 as antiformal stacks of thrust units and subsequent frontal klippen which can be 67 sometimes related to deformation partitioning and subsequent basal accretion of 68 duplex structures (e.g. Elliott & Johnson 1980; Price 1981; Platt et al. 1985; Hatcher 69 1989; Gutscher et al. 1996; Burkhard & Sommaruga 1998; Mosar 1999; Kukowski et 70 al. 2002; Avouac 2003; Malavieille 2010; Konstantinovskaia & Malavieille 2011; 71 Long et al. 2011; Webb et al. 2011). Basal accretion activity is generally not constant 72 during the long-term convergent history of orogenic wedges, alternating 73 underthrusting of new tectonic slices with the internal deformation of the already 74 accreted ones, or even with the migration of the underplating locus to a new place. 75 Such a cyclical underplating behavior could promote, at a whole wedge scale, an alternate change from supercritical to subcritical taper condition, in turn favoring 76

alternations between horizontal and vertical shortening observed in many orogens
(e.g. Bell & Johnson, 1989; Bell & Sapkota 2012; Aerden *et al.* 2013). What
mechanisms control large scale folding, basal accretion and its cyclicity remain an
open question.

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82 Analog modeling is an efficient tool to unravel the main mechanisms controlling the dynamics of orogenic wedges. Various experimental studies have investigated the 83 84 influence of geometrical, kinematical and rheological parameters on the evolution of 85 thrust wedges (see a review in Graveleau et al. 2012). One of the most important 86 parameter highlighted is the layering of the accreting crustal materials that induces 87 mechanical heterogeneity and deformation partitioning. Such a heterogeneous 88 rheology of accreted rock sequences is the result of various factors: stratigraphy of the 89 incoming crustal layer (e.g. Davis & Engelder 1985; Mulugeta 1988; Liu & Dixon 90 1990; Liu et al. 1992; Baby et al. 1995; Mandal et al. 1997; Nieuwland et al. 2000; 91 Costa & Vendeville 2002; Kovi & Vendeville 2003; Konstantinovskaia & Malavieille 92 2005; Stockmal et al. 2007; Malavieille 2010; Smit et al. 2010), décollements in a 93 sedimentary sequence or basement-cover interface (e.g. Konstantinovskaia & 94 Malavieille 2011), rheological evolution of the crust due to P-T changes through time 95 (Carry et al. 2009; Gueydan et al. 2009), or structures and fabrics inherited from an 96 earlier tectonic history (Sutton & Watson 1986; Holdsworth et al. 1997; Butler et al. 97 2006, 2008; Bonnet et al. 2007, 2008). Among the large number of previous 98 experimental studies of thrust wedges involving multiple décollements, only a few 99 have suggested that faults development and evolution of structures could be cyclical 100 under specific deformation conditions (e.g. Mulugeta & Koyi 1992; Gutscher et al. 1998a; Malavieille 2010). 101

102 Analog models allow to investigate the importance of surface processes (i.e. erosion 103 and sedimentation) and their influence on the dynamics of accretionary wedges (e.g. 104 Baby et al. 1995; Larroque et al. 1995; Storti & McClay 1995; Mugnier et al. 1997; 105 McClay et al. 1999; Persson & Sokoutis 2002; McClay et al. 2004; McClay & Whitehouse 2004; Konstantinovskaia & Malavieille 2005, 2011; Graveleau & 106 107 Dominguez 2008; Cruz et al. 2008, 2010; Malavieille 2010; Smit et al. 2010). Folding 108 represents another aspect of deformation processes investigated using analog 109 experiments but, although studied at different scales through different experimental 110 setups (e.g. Abbassi & Mancktelow 1990; Grujic & Mancktelow 1995; Tikof & 111 Peterson 1998; Bazalgette & Petit 2007; Noble & Dixon 2011), fold development 112 have rarely been investigated at the scale of a whole accretionary wedge.

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114 This study address five major questions: 1) how do décollements influence 115 deformation partitioning within thrust wedges, and their long term evolution, 2) which 116 mechanisms govern the development of large scale overturned folds commonly 117 preserved in mountain belt forelands as synformal fold-nappes klippen, 3) what 118 controls the growth of large scale antiformal structures that develop concomitantly in 119 the hinterland, 4) what are the interactions between relatively strong plastic layers 120 versus weak décollements, and 5) what is the impact of surface processes on all these 121 mechanisms? We present results of an analog modeling approach that takes into 122 account large amounts of shortening of mechanically heterogeneous, multilavered 123 materials and simultaneous surface erosion. Our first goal is to analyze the role of 124 strain partitioning in relation with material transfer by erosion. Then, we study the 125 impact of thin plastic layers interlayered in the incoming material on folding 126 mechanisms and on its evolution at the scale of a fold and thrust wedge. The main

127 experimental results are discussed and compared to large-scale tectonic structures
128 from several mountain belts to better interpret their geometry and kinematic
129 evolution.

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#### 131 Experimental set up and procedure

132 The experimental set-up simulates the basic geometry and the main mechanisms of a 133 subduction zone where lower plate crustal materials sink beneath an upper plate. This 134 domain of the upper-plate located above the subduction interface corresponds in the 135 experiments to a deformable proto-forewedge equivalent to the units of the orogen 136 already accreted, deformed and structured following subduction. All experiments are 137 performed under normal gravity field in a classical sandbox (see Malavieille 1984 and 138 Konstantinovskaia & Malavieille 2005, 2011), adapted to allow large shortening (over 139 200 cm) and presenting a flexure of the basal plate taking into account the curvature 140 of a subducting plate.

141 The sandbox (Fig. 2) is 10 cm wide and 300 cm long, with a vertical rigid buttress. At 142 the base a thin plastic strip (dacron cloth) exits from the device through a thin slot 143 located at the base of the buttress. It is pulled by a computer controlled step by step 144 electric motor. Analog materials materializing the upper crust rocks of the lower plate 145 are deposited onto the plastic strip and are dragged toward the backstop. As they 146 cannot exit from the device, they are accreted against the upper-plate backstop. A thin 147 layer of sand is glued on the upper surface of the plastic strip, leading to a very rough surface. It creates a high basal friction ( $\mu_b \approx 0.5$ ) between the basal strip and the 148 149 analogue material of the models. According to the critical wedge theory (Davis et al. 150 1983; Dahlen et al. 1984; Dahlen 1984), the strength of the basal décollement influences the dipping of the main thrusts and backthrusts and the surface slope angleof a wedge that satisfies the yield conditions.

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154 Three different materials are used in the models. 1) Aeolian sand, with a density of 1690 kg/m3, well rounded grains, less than 300µm in size, coefficient of internal 155 156 friction  $(\mu_0)$  is 0.57 and the cohesion (C) is 100-150 Pa. It composes the upper plate 157 protowedge and a large part of lower plate layers. 2) Glass microbeads poured in the 158 sandcake are used to model weak layers (décollements). Diameter is 100/200 µm, and the perfect roundness of the grains leads a smaller coefficient of internal friction ( $\mu_0 =$ 159 160 0.44) and a negligible cohesion. 3) Plasticine is used to simulate folding because it 161 presents a plastic behavior. It is composed by mineral oils, waxes and a solid filler 162 made of fine powder (15µm). It does not contain water, does not dry, and can be 163 reused. The Plasticine is melted in an oven (softening point between 39 and 42°C) and poured in a 200 x 9.8 cm mold. After cooling, 1 mm thin layers are sliced and then 164 165 included in the multilayered model. To observe the final deformation of the plastic layer at the end of experiment, we have carefully cleaned the sand around the fold 166 167 limbs. Practically, in the experimental procedure, when a plasticine layer is emplaced 168 in the sand cake, the width of the thin plasticine sheet is slightly lower than the space 169 between the two glass sidewalls to avoid parasitic effects of lateral friction along the 170 glass. So, less than 1 mm of sand separates the plastic layer from the sidewall. As a 171 consequence, what we can observe directly through the glass sidewall is not the plasticine layer itself, but the thin coloured sand marker which outlines its 172 deformation. 173

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176 Aeolian sand and glass microbeads are commonly used in physical modeling studies 177 as analogue of upper crustal rocks with a brittle behavior. The scaling factor between their mechanical properties and those of the natural prototype is 10<sup>5</sup> (Krantz 1991; 178 Schellart 2000; Lohrman *et al.* 2003). The same  $10^5$  scaling factor is therefore used 179 180 for model dimensions (1 cm = 1 km), in order to satisfy the fundamental scaling 181 theory for analogue modelling (Hubbert 1937, 1951; Horsfield 1977; Ramberg 1981; Davy & Cobbold 1991; Graveleau et al. 2011). Plasticine is a non-Newtonian fluid 182 characterized by strain rate-dependant plastic yielding and strain hardening. At 183 constant temperature, the constitutive flow law for plasticine is given by  $\dot{E} = C\sigma^n$ , 184 where  $\dot{E}$  is the strain rate, C is a material constant, n is a stress exponent, and  $\sigma$  is the 185 186 differential stress (McClay 1976; Ranalli 1995). The apparent dynamic viscosity ( $\eta$ ) 187 of plasticine is given by one half the ratio between the differential stress and the strain rate:  $\eta = \sigma/(2\dot{E})$ . 188

Considering that experiments were carried at constant room temperature (T ~ 22-25°C) and that the strain rate of the plasticine layer during deformation is constant and very low ( $\dot{E} \approx 1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) then  $\eta \approx 4 \times 10^7 \text{ Pa s}$ . This value of viscosity was determined by mechanical experiments on plasticines (Schöpfer & Zulauf 2002; Zulauf & Zulauf 2004) whose composition is similar to the plasticine used in our analogue models.

The yield strength of a plasticine layer with millimetric thickness is roughly equivalent to the compressional strength of a sand layer with centimetric thickness. Thus, the strength contrast between plasticine layers and granular layers (sand or glass microbeads) in our models is roughly equivalent to the strength contrast between ductile yet strong rock layers (such as limestone) and weak rock layers (such as siltstones or shale). This strength contrast is typical of sedimentary sequencesobserved in foreland and intra-mountainous basins in orogenic wedges.

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203 Thirteen experiments have been run (Table 1). Among them, seven are chosen as 204 representative to describe the main results of our study. Erosion has been applied to 205 most of them, following the procedure described here below. First, an initial 206 shortening without erosion is applied to the models, allowing the development of a 207 wedge shaped topographic relief. This first step of wedge growth could be considered 208 as the analogue of wedge development in a poorly erosional submarine setting. Then, 209 erosion is applied step by step, each 2 cm of convergence (see digital screen in 210 experiment pictures for shortening values), simulating a climate-dependent erosion in 211 a subaerial wedge setting and keeping a constant evolution of the wedge topography. 212 It is performed by scraping off all the material rising above an imposed erosion 213 surface and then removing it with a vacuum cleaner. The slope of this erosion surface 214 can be variable or fixed and predetermined. In the former case the slope of the erosion 215 surface is adjusted step by step, in order to follow the "instantaneous" average slope 216 of the wedge, just smoothing in this way the small scale irregularities of the 217 topographic profile without altering its average slope. In the latter case an average tilted erosion profile dipping from 3 to 10° toward the foreland is maintained 218 219 (Konstantinovskaia & Malavieille 2005, 2011; Bonnet et al. 2007, 2008). This slope 220 corresponds to the critical taper slope of a dry sand wedge (Davis et al. 1983). In this 221 case, local erosion rates are directly controlled by the activity of thrusts. Even if the 222 role of sedimentation has not specifically been taken into account in this study, small 223 piggy back basins that develop during wedge growth have been filled while 224 performing erosion to avoid unrealistic foreland topographies.

# 226 Experimental results

227 Our new set of experiments complements previous modeling works on orogenic 228 processes carried out at the Geosciences Laboratory in Montpellier, which outline the 229 impact of coupling between surface and tectonic processes and the important role of 230 décollement levels during deformation (see, Malavieille et al. 1993; Larroque et al. 231 1995; Konstantinovskaia & Malavieille 2005, 2011; Bonnet et al. 2007. 2008: 232 Malavieille 2010). Décollement lavers favor the mechanical decoupling of stratified 233 material of the subducting plate and consequently, induce deformation partitioning. 234 While upper units are accreted at the toe of the wedge during propagation of the 235 deformation front (frontal accretion), lower units are underthrusted below the main 236 décollement fault and accreted at the base of the wedge by duplexing and 237 underplating (i.e. basal accretion). This partition between vertical and horizontal 238 accretion has a major impact on the organization of tectonic structures, deformation 239 and exhumation of deep units (e.g. Gutscher et al. 1998; Bonini 2001, 2003; Adam et al. 2002; Kukowski et al. 2002; Konstantinovskaia & Malavieille 2005, 2011; Bonnet 240 et al. 2007, 2008; Hoth et al. 2006, 2007, 2008; Malavieille 2010). 241

242

#### 243 Influence of weak layers

A microbeads layer deposited on the top surface of the lower plate (experiment 1, Fig. 3a) favors underthrusting of the tectonic units below the protowedge in the first steps of experiments. During shortening, the wedge grows mostly in sequence by frontal accretion and shows the typical structure of a simple sand wedge with no décollement in the incoming sequence. We recognize typical structures of high basal friction wedges built up by underthrusting of long tectonic units (e.g. Malavieille *et al.* 1992; Lallemand *et al.* 1994; Gutscher *et al.* 1998a, 1998b; Nieuwland *et al.* 2000; Agarwal & Agrawal 2002; Kukowski *et al.* 2002; Konstantinovskaia & Malavieille 2005; Graveleau *et al.* 2012). In some cases, when the deformation front advances toward the foreland through the nucleation of a new thrust, the previous frontal thrust remains active until the end of the experiment. Internal deformation of individual foreward vergent thrust units is accommodated by small backthrusts and only few large backthrusts propagate through the whole wedge.

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258 A microbeads layer positioned at  $\sim 1/3$  of the total lower plate thickness favors 259 remarkable strain partitioning (experiment 4, Fig. 3b). Materials of the upper portion 260 of the subducting plate are deformed by frontal accretion, leading to the development 261 of a typical low basal friction thrust wedge. Given the reduced thickness of the 262 materials deformed by frontal accretion and the reduced basal friction, both the wedge 263 taper angle (Fig. 3b) and the spacing between new thrust faults, are smaller than in 264 experiment 1. Materials of the lower portion of the subducting plate are deformed by 265 underplating and basal accretion (Fig. 3b). As already described in previous papers 266 (e.g. Mulugeta & Kovi 1992; Gutscher 1996, 1998a), underplating is not a steady-267 state process. More in detail, it can be noted that the evolution of the duplex structure 268 is characterized by the activity of: i) large-offset faults (continuous lines in Fig. 3b 269 and 3c) allowing the accretion of a new unit at the base of the wedge; ii) small-offset 270 faults (dotted lines in Fig. 3b and 3c), allowing the accommodation of the internal 271 deformation of individual underplated units (Adam et al. 2002; Kukovski et al. 2002; 272 Hoth et al. 2008). The large shortening (of the experiments presented in this paper) 273 also allowed a second type of cyclicity to be observed at the whole-wedge scale. 274 When the first antiformal stack of underplated units reaches a critical size, it becomes

inactive and the locus of underplating shifts to a more external position (e.g. toward the foreland) where a second antiformal stack starts developing. The first underplating domain is thus passively accreted and becomes part of the wedge upper-plate. Such a mechanism of accretion repeats itself cyclically during the long-term evolution of a wedge.

Growth of the antiformal stacks leads to some localized uplift of the overlying portion of the wedge as manifested by the shape of the topographic profile, which shows two evident bumps corresponding with the deep duplexes. By contrast the topographic profile is quite regular in wedges lacking strain partitioning (Fig. 3a and 3b).

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285 A microbeads layer located at shallow depth in the sandcake has a slight influence on 286 active deformation, without leading to efficient strain partitioning (experiment 6, Fig. 287 3d). Only second order small thrust units develop along the weak layer, involving the 288 upper portion of the subducting plate. Such small thrusts are regularly alternated with 289 major thrusts involving the whole subducting plate, and can therefore be considered 290 local splays of the main thrusts. The overall architecture of the wedge is that of a 291 classical high basal friction wedge, similar to the one obtained without microbeads 292 layer (Fig. 3d).

293

### 294 Influence of a plastic layer on folding

In experiment 10 (Fig. 4a) the introduction of a plastic layer in the subducting plate drastically changes the tectonic style and kinematic evolution of the wedge, and leads to folding processes at the scale of a whole accretionary wedge. The main mechanisms of folds development in the experiment with no erosion are described Fig. 5. Development of folds begins by buckling of the plastic layer, which is 300 accommodated by a pop up structure in the overlying "brittle" sand layer. The 301 wavelength of buckling and the folding mechanism are controlled by the strength 302 contrast between the relatively strong yet ductile plasticine layer and weaker sand 303 layers (see previous section). Soon afterwards, the folding amplitude increases, folds become asymmetric and overturned, controlled by progressive shearing deformation 304 305 induced by the growth of the prism. Shearing is partly responsible for the 306 development of the long inverted limbs, but the plastic layer is never disrupted or 307 stretched enough to be cut, thus allowing unrolling of the synclinal hinge. Fold 308 growth proceeds by continuous unrolling of the synclinal hinge which causes existing 309 nearby thrusts to become inactive, while new ones form. Then, the inactive faults are 310 passively transported along the inverted fold limb, although some can be reactivated 311 by out-of-sequence thrusting.

312

# 313 Impact of surface erosion

The effect of surface erosion is tested on wedges characterized by different tectonic styles. In experiment 6, a simple high friction thrust wedge showing no strain partitioning or folding is submitted to erosion. It is comparable to experiment 1, except the latter did not include erosion. Figure 3d outlines the similar tectonic styles of both models, and similar taper angle of their pro-wedges.

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Experiment 5 (Fig. 3c) shows the effects of erosion on a wedge characterized by strong strain partitioning, to be compared with experiment 4, which has the same initial setup but no erosion. In both models permanent underplating leads to the development of a large antiformal stack formed by basal accretion of duplex units. It induces uprising of internal domain and subsequent localized surface uplift. In model 5, however, surface uplift enhances localized surface erosion, which in return favors
further uplift and localization of underplating. As shown in figure 3c the final product
of this process is the exhumation of underplated units in localized areas.

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329 In experiment 11 (Fig. 4b) a model involving a plastic layer is submitted to erosion in 330 order to investigate the impact of surface processes on the dynamics of folding. Compared to experiment 10, which has the same initial setup, experiment 11 shows 331 332 several differences in the general tectonic style. Despite erosion of anticlinal fold 333 hinges, shear deformation increases the length of the inverted sequence, which is 334 associated with the unrolling, and migration of the synclinal fold hinge. Frontal 335 accretion spreads but the amount of shortening accommodated through each folded 336 tectonic unit is higher. The material removed by erosion delays the growth of the 337 wedge and thus its ability to propagate the deformation forward through new tectonic 338 units. Although the anticline hinge is being removed by erosion, unrolling of the 339 syncline hinge continues suggesting that the inverted limb is not submitted to traction. The diffuse shear deformation involved in the core of folds due to asymmetric 340 341 shortening could be responsible for the forward migration (relative to the undeformed 342 foreland) of the synclinal hinge.

To summarize the main differences, we note that each unit is more intensely deformed and that the length of fold limbs is greater in the experiment with erosion. In addition, for an equivalent amount of shortening, less tectonic units were formed.

346

#### 347 Brittle/ductile multilayer and underplating

348 In experiments 10 and 11, large-scale isoclinals folds developed with an average final

349 overturning of the limbs ranging between 30° and 50°. These modeling results cannot

350 explain what is commonly observed in many natural mountain forelands where large 351 scale inverted fold limbs rest close to horizontal over kilometers. Thus, important 352 questions remain: what mechanism is responsible for the huge overturning observed? 353 And, does this mechanism occur during folds development or by rigid rotation due to 354 late tilting? In order to answer these questions, we have taken into account the 355 insights from the experiments involving basal accretion. As previously shown, 356 décollement layers play a key role during deformation and interactions with surface 357 processes, that seems major too for the development of folding during the growth of 358 fold and thrust belts.

359 In experiment 13 (Fig. 4c) we tested the impact of heterogeneous layering involving 360 décollements, brittle and plastic behaviors (very common in foreland belts). The 361 model combines strain partitioning, folding and surface erosion. A 5 mm thick layer 362 of sand is placed between a 1 mm thick plasticine sheet and the 3 mm thick weak 363 layer of glass microbeads. The complete evolution of the experiment is described in 364 the figure 6. Erosion begins after 15 cm of shortening and the wedge slope is 365 sustained at about 3° during shortening (60% at the end of the experiment). During 366 convergence, fold hinges are rapidly eroded, while active thrusting occurs in the core 367 of folds. Six folded tectonic units were obtained and a large domain of deeply 368 accreted units is exhumed behind the prism. Note that we also observed the cyclical 369 behavior of underplating as described previously.

The structures located above the décollement layer are passively deformed and uplifted due to basal accretion, tilting the back part of folded tectonic units. These deep accretionary processes are responsible for the important overturning and rotation of the flanks of folded structures. During continuous shortening, the kinematics of deformation reflects the complex interaction between wedge mechanics and erosion. At the final stage most of the folded units from the backpart of the wedge have been removed by erosion. Finally, three different tectonic domains characterized by specific deformation features are juxtaposed. From the frontal part of the wedge to the backstop respectively, we have (Fig. 6): a frontal imbricate of thrust and fold sheets; a synformal klippe of folded units previously accreted to the front and progressively deformed; and, an antiformal stack of underplated thrust units refolding the upper décollement layer.

382

#### 383 Discussion and case studies

Results of this series of experiments give some insights for the interpretation of several debated features of the forewedge domain of mountain belts formed in continental subduction settings. Chosen case studies are discussed in the light of our experimental results. The last model, which contains the main features described in previous sections, is used to illustrate the general mechanisms explaining the relationships between the main tectonic units of natural orogenic wedges (Fig. 7).

390

## 391 Examples from the Variscan Belt

392 The Variscan orogen developed during the Gondwana-Laurasia collision from 393 Devonian to middle Carboniferous times (e.g. Matte 2007). The Montagne Noire in 394 southern French Massif Central and the Galicia Mountains in northwest Spain 395 represent segments of this orogen characterized by a foreland fold and thrust belt 396 domain associated with a syntectonic foreland basin (e.g. Arthaud 1970; Matte 1968; 397 Pérez-Estàun et al. 1991; Simancas et al. in press). Low-grade tectonic units mainly 398 composed by sedimentary rocks of the Paleozoic cover (schists, limestones and 399 quartzites of Cambrian to Carboniferous ages) are intensely folded and juxtaposed 400 with antiformal stacks of Proterozoic to Cambrian metamorphic basement rock units 401 largely exhumed in the hinterland. The Montagne Noire which forms the 402 southernmost part of the Variscan French Massif Central (Fig. 8) is generally 403 subdivided into three tectonostratigraphic units (e.g. Gèze 1949; Arthaud 1970). (1) A Northern Flank upper-plate unit with a southward tectonic vergence, consists of 404 405 folded and faulted low-grade lower Paleozoic metasedimentary rocks. (2) An Axial Zone lower-plate unit, is formed by an antiformal structure of crystalline rocks 406 (gneiss, migmatite, and micaschist) of Proterozoic to Ordovician age. This 407 408 metamorphic domain composed by high grade rocks has been variously interpreted in 409 terms of : diapirism (e.g. Gèze 1949; Beaud 1985 ; Charles et al. 2009), contractional 410 tectonics (Arthaud et al. 1966; Mattauer et al. 1996; Aerden & Malavieille, 1999; 411 Soula et al. 2001; Matte, 2007; Malavieille 2010), emplacement in a crustal scale 412 strike-slip setting (e.g. Nicolas et al. 1977; Franke et al. 2011), or as extensional 413 metamorphic core complex (e.g. Echtler & Malavieille, 1990; Van den Driessche & 414 Brun 1992). In fact, most authors agree on the geological evidences for a 415 contractional history followed (or assisted) by gravity induced extensional processes 416 favoring exhumation, detachment formation and diapirism in the evolutionary stages 417 of the orogen. (3) A Southern Flank, well known in the literature for the kilometer-418 scale recumbent fold nappes, is composed by very low-grade Paleozoic sedimentary 419 sequences. The south verging nappes stack is intimately associated with syntectonic 420 Visean flysch sediments deposited in a foreland basin setting, in a shallow marine 421 environment. The upper-plate nappes are separated from high-grade lower-plate 422 basement units by major fault zones that record a complex pattern of deformation 423 (e.g. Echtler & Malavieille 1990; Aerden & Malavieille 1999). Figure 8 shows an 424 interpreted cross section of The Montagne Noire (Malavieille 2010).

425 Similar key structures of the Galicia Mountain Belt are outlined on the cross-section 426 of figure 9, modified from Pérez-Estàun et al. (1991). Proterozoic metamorphic units 427 outcrop in the internal domain while a domain of large scale recumbent folds made of 428 Cambrian guartzite/limestone characterizes external foreland units. These kilometric 429 scale folds present horizontal or overtilted limbs (Matte 1968; Pérez-Estàun et al. 430 1991). Note that in this segment of the Variscan belt, a cyclical basal accretion may 431 have occurred at large scale, as two antiformal stack structures formed during wedge 432 growth.

433

434 Comparing wedges architecture and analog models, we can outline geometrical and 435 kinematic similarities. As observed in models involving décollements and 436 brittle/plastic behavior, there is a good analogy between the geometric configuration 437 of the folded superficial domain and the underlying deeper structures. Where 438 underplating develops, the folded units located above the décollement layer are 439 strongly tilted by subsequent uplift in the antiformal stack domain. This can be 440 compared to the fold-nappes structures of the Galicia belt or Montagne Noire. In the 441 parts of the orogenic wedge located far from the locus of basal accretion, large scale 442 folds are simply overturned. During the growth of the Montagne Noire, syntectonic 443 flysches (Visean) are deposited at the toe of the wedge due to erosion of developing 444 fold nappes (Southern flank). At the same time, basal accretion is active during the 445 growth of the prism involving underthrusting of sliced Proterozoic basement and subsequent uplift at the back of the overturned fold domain. Already deformed Upper 446 447 Paleozoic units are overtilted by progressive uplift. The décollement layer allowing 448 strain partitioning between shallow and deep parts of the wedge is located along the 449 main inherited discontinuity, between the crystalline basement and the Paleozoic450 cover.

Figure 6 highlights the major effect of erosion on deformation processes. During wedge growth, due to combined basal accretion, surface uplift and erosion, continuous folding affects tectonic units of the upper-plate that remain at the same structural level in the upper crust whereas large domains of deep metamorphic units of the lower-plate are exhumed. Thus, the deformation mechanisms highlighted in our study may explain how the large scale recumbent fold-nappes with inverted limbs of 10 km develop, and why they suffered only slight or no metamorphism.

458

#### 459 Northern Apennines

460 The Apennines are a fold and thrust mountain chain constituting the backbone of the 461 Italian peninsula. Figure 10a outlines some aspects of the northernmost portion of this 462 chain (e.g. Molli 2008). The internal zone is characterized by a metamorphic core 463 where two main exhumed tectonostratigraphic units outcrop. The lowermost is the 464 Apuane unit, a low grade metamorphic unit showing greenschist assemblages (deepest estimated burial:  $\sim 20$  km). On the western side of the core, the Apuane unit 465 466 is overlaid by the Massa unit, an HP greenschist facies metamorphic unit with higher 467 grade P/T peak conditions (estimated deepest burial: ~ 25/30 km). The whole 468 metamorphic core is overlaid by the Tuscan Nappe, an anchimetamorphic unit with a 469 deepest estimated burial of  $\sim$  7 km, which in turn is overlaid by Subligurian and 470 Ligurian non-metamorphic units and by the Epiligurian basin (e.g. Fellin et al. 2007 471 and references therein). In a central portion, east of the Alpi Apuane, the chain is 472 characterized by a recumbent fold domain (Fig. 10b) where the Tuscan Nappe is folded in a kilometric-scale recumbent structure (the Val di Lima fold), with an 473

474 outcropping kilometers long inverted limb. This recumbent fold shows minor
475 structures related with superimposed deformations (Baldacci *et al.* 1992; Fazzuoli *et al.* 1998) with development of the long inverted limb by progressive hinge migration
477 (Botti *et al.* 2010).

The overall geometrical configuration of the analyzed segment of the Apennines (Fig. 478 479 10) can be interpreted in the light of our models. The combined action of basal accretion and underplating of tectonic units produced 480 the growth of a syn-481 metamorphic antiformal stack (Molli & Vaselli 2006) responsible of strong uplift and 482 exhumation by submarine (in the early stages) and later surface erosion (Molli et al. 483 2002; Fellin et al. 2007). Erosion-processes were associated with tectonic thinning by 484 normal-slip reactivation of the basal thrust of the unmetamorphic units at the hanging 485 wall and the metamorphic core at the footwall (Carmignani & Kligfield 1990; Molli et 486 al. 2002; Fellin et al. 2007; Molli 2008). Moreover, the growth of the antiformal stack 487 may have induced progressive tilting of the basal detachment and the formation of 488 recumbent geometry of the folded Tuscan unit in the Lima Valley (Fig. 10a,b).

Indeed, the locus of basal accretion and the folded domain are close enough to presume the influence of the underlying deep structures on the passive rotation of the fold limbs. Model results can give some more hints on the processes that may have influenced the geological evolution of the metamorphic core, suggesting that two successive episodes of underplating, could have been responsible for the syncontractional juxtaposition of the Massa unit above the Apuan unit.

495

## 496 Open questions in other mountain belts

497 Mechanisms responsible for deformation structures and exhumation processes498 developed in the Himalayas are presently widely discussed through two main kind of

models (ductile channel flow, e.g. Nelson *et al.* 1996; Beaumont *et al.* 2001; Jamieson *et al.* 2004; and wedge extrusion in a thrust system, e.g. Burchfiel & Royden 1985;
England & Molnar 1993; Guillot & Allemand 2002, Webb *et al.* 2007, Kali *et al.*2010). Our study outline simple mechanisms that seem to be consistent with the
observed large-scale geological structures (antiformal stacks, synformal klippen of
fold and thrust units), in agreement with the second orogenic wedge model.

505

#### 506 Conclusions

507 Interaction between climate controlled surface processes including erosion, 508 sedimentation and deformation processes plays a key role in the structural evolution, 509 kinematics and exhumation of rocks in orogenic wedges. During continental 510 subduction, the role of the rheologic layering of the crust can be major as it 511 determines the partitioning of deformation in a growing orogenic wedge into domains 512 undergoing horizontal and vertical accretion. Partitioning is first controlled by 513 tectonic processes, but material transfer induced by surface processes exerts a strong 514 feed-back on wedge dynamics. Insights from analog models applied to natural cases 515 allow us to emphasize several first order interaction mechanisms that result from this 516 coupling. Experiments show that strain partitioning is not systematic but depends on 517 the position of weak layers in the layered incoming sequence. They show a cyclical 518 behavior of basal accretion, leading to episodic underplating of tectonic units, which 519 has a strong impact on the vertical component of displacement of rock material. In 520 turn, it changes surface slopes favoring erosion in domains of strong surface uplift. In 521 addition, our experiments offer an explanation for the enigmatic domains of non 522 metamorphic large scale fold nappes units observed in the foreland of many orogenic wedges. To a first order, the dynamics of folding involves rolling of a synclinal hinge 523

and develop exclusively overturned fold types. This mechanism was observed, in
particular, for multilayered models constituted of both strong yet ductile layers and
comparatively weaker granular layers.

527 The influence of the deep wedge dynamics, such as the growth of basal duplexes, causes further rotation of fold structures, leading to the horizontalization of fold 528 529 limbs, while erosion processes keep the folded units in a superficial low-grade 530 metamorphic domain. Natural wedges (e.g. Galicia, Montagne Noire and Northern 531 Apennines) present close similarities to the experiments described herein, both in 532 terms of architecture and orogenic dynamics. Other orogenic wedges exposing similar 533 structures such as exhumed antiformal metamorphic domes juxtaposed with domains 534 of largely folded upper-crustal rock sequences need to be revisited in the light of the 535 general mechanisms here outlined.

536 Future work should concentrate on multilayered models with different rheological 537 contrasts (e.g. weak ductile layers and strong brittle layers) to determine other 538 possible large-scale folding mechanisms in the shallow domains of orogenic wedges.

539

540

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# 1007 **Figures and Captions**

1008

Experiment	Total	Protowedge		Lower plate		Decollement	Plastiline			Erosion		
name	shortening	Length	Slope	Total thickness	Termination	position*	Present	Thickness	Position*	Present	Start+	Slope
	(cm)	(cm)	(°)	(cm)		(cm)		(cm)	(cm)		(cm)	
Exp 1	150	61	7	3.1	Straight	Top lower plate	No			No		
Exp 2	150	66	4	3.1	Straight	Top lower plate	No			No		
Exp 3	160	80	2	3.1	Gradual	Top lower plate	No			No		
Exp 4	180	74	0	3.1	Straight	1.1	No			No		
Exp 5	201	74	0	3.1	Straight	1.1	No			Yes	30	Variable
Exp 6	198	66	4	3.1	Straight	2.1	No			Yes	30	Variable
Exp 7	220	66	4	3.1	Straight	2.1	No			Yes	20	Fixed (5°)
Exp 8	160	80	2	3.3	Gradual	Top lower plate	Yes	0.3	1.7	No		
Exp 9	167	90	0	3.3	Gradual (-15cm)‡	Top lower plate	Yes	0.2	1	No		
Exp 10	163	90	0	3.3	Gradual (-15cm)‡	Top lower plate	Yes	0.1	1	No		
Exp 11	193	90	0	3.3	Gradual (-15cm)‡	Top lower plate	Yes	0.1	1	Yes	25	Fixed (5°)
Exp 12	175	80	2	3.3	Gradual	1.48	Yes	0.2	1.5	No		
Exp 13	200	90	0	3.5	Gradual (-15cm)‡	1	Yes	0.1	1.7	Yes	15	Fixed (3°)

Notes:

\* Height from base plate

+ Amount of initial shortening without erosion

‡ Lower plate ends before the backstop

1009

1010 **Table 1.** Parameters used for the thirteen experiments. (Models described in the text are in bold)



1013 1014 Fig. 1. Cartoon showing two folding mechanisms to generate large-scale overturned 1015 folds in fold and thrust belts. The first mechanism involve an important burial 1016 whereas the second one allows the development of large folds with slight burial. (a) 1017 Buckling and folding during compressional shortening followed by shearing and 1018 tilting of fold limbs; (b) Fold amplification by thrusting and subsequent shearing, 1019 unrolling and migration of the synclinal hinge in the frame of a fold and thrust wedge; 1020 (c) Simplified kinematic sketch of the same process. Coloured circles are passive 1021 markers regularly spaced in the folded layer.



Fig. 2

10231024 Fig. 2. Experimental set-up. The width of the device is 10 cm.



1026 1027

Fig. 3

Fig. 3. Initial configuration and final result of models involving a microbeads layer 1028 located at different heights ("d" on sketch). (a) Classical high friction thrust wedge. 1029 The thrust front propagates in a piggy-back style, but some faults remain active after 1030 the nucleation of new faults at the front. (b) Strain partitioning: duplexing at the base 1031 of the wedge and frontal accretion at the toe. Note the cyclical behavior of 1032 underplating. (c) Impact of surface erosion on the wedge dynamics, location of

- 1033 underplating and exhumation of underplated units. (d) Underplating is inhibited when
- 1034 décollement is too shallow. Shortening in cm on digital screen.





Fig. 4

Fig. 4. Initial setting and final stage of model involving a thin layer of plasticine (Hp: 1038 Height of the plasticine layer on sketch). (a) Case no erosion. Folds are overturned 1039 with an angle between  $30^{\circ}$  and  $50^{\circ}$ ; (b) Same experiment with erosion; (c) 1040 Brittle/plastic model with décollement layer and erosion. Shortening in cm on digital 1041 screen.



1044 Fig. 5. Kinematic model of folding. The thick line with circles represents the1045 plasticine with displacement indicators.



Fig. 6
Fig. 6. Evolution of complex model involving brittle/plastic multilayer, erosion and
décollement layer. Upper units situated above décollement layer are composed of
sand and plasticine; deep units below décollement layer are composed of sand. At the
final stage (e), three domains are juxtaposed: (1) exhumation of deep rocks, (2) the
domain of recumbent folds and (3) the overturned folds.



Fig. 7 Fig. 7. Relationships between cyclical duplexing and kinematics of folding in a brittle/plastic model with erosion and décollement level.





10581059 Fig. 8. Cross-section of the Montagne Noire, southern part of French Massif Central



1061 Zone, SFN: Southern Fold Nappes, VFB: Visean Foreland Basin.



- 1064 Fig. 9. Cross-section of Variscan Belt in Galicia, Spain (modified from Pérez-Estàun
- 1065 et al. 1991). U.P.: Upper Plate; L.P.: Lower Plate.
- 1066



1067Fig. 10. (a) Cross section of the Northern Apennines, Italy (modified from Molli

- 1069 2008). (b) Cross-section of the Val di Lima fold structure (modified from Baldacci et
- 1070 *al.* 1992). T: Tertiary; J-K: Jurassic-Cretaceous; Tr: Triassic.
- 1071