



# Puzzles and the maximum-effective-moment (MEM) criterion in structural geology

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## ABSTRACT

The essential difference in the formation between conjugate brittle shear fractures and ductile shear zones is that the intersection angle of conjugate faults in the contractional quadrants in the former is acute (usually  $\sim 60^\circ$ ) and obtuse (usually  $110^\circ$ ) in the latter. The Mohr-Coulomb failure criterion is an experimentally validated empirical relationship, which structural geologists use to interpret the stress directions based on the orientation of the brittle shear fractures. However, a simple application of this criterion assuming that the principal stresses are vertical or horizontal throughout the crust fails to explain crustal scale low-angle normal faults, high-angle reverse faults and certain types of conjugate strike-slip faults that have intersection angles in the compressional quadrants greater than  $90^\circ$ .

Although the Maximum-Effective-Moment (MEM) criterion has been used to analyze structures in several natural cases and obtained some new evidence in nature and experiments, it is not yet commonly used to interpret non-Mohr-Coulomb features widely distributed in the crust. It is important to review the MEM criterion and its implications for explaining the formation mechanism of naturally occurring faults and shear zones. Behavior of a rock depends on its mechanical properties; the latter in turn depends on pressure and temperature conditions related to crustal depth and strain rates.

Conjugate fractures with obtuse angles, ca.  $110^\circ$ , in the contractional direction at different scales and at different crustal levels are consistent with the prediction of the MEM criterion and suggest deformation at low strain rates. Thus, strain-rate clearly plays an important role in the style of crustal deformation and the many observed departures from the Mohr-Coulomb failure criterion.

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## 1. Introduction

Recognition of low-angle normal faults (i.e. extensional detachment faults) in Cordilleran metamorphic core complexes western North America in the early 1980's (e.g. Wernicke, 1981) were a significant discovery in the history of structural geology. Similar faults were subsequently reported elsewhere in the world. The occurrence of these low-angle faults is not compatible with the Mohr-Coulomb criterion. Based on the criterion and the assumption that the principal stresses are vertical and horizontal through the crust, Anderson (1951) predicted that normal faults dip at angles more than  $45^\circ$ , whereas thrusts dip at angles less than  $45^\circ$ .

A brief summary of structures in the Earth's crust was given by Ramsay (1980): low-angle thrusts in the brittle upper part of the continental crust and high-angle reverse ductile shear zones in the

ductile middle–lower part of the crust can form in contractional regimes, and high-angle normal faults in the brittle upper crust and low-angle normal ductile shear zones in the ductile mid–lower crust can form in extensional regimes. The formation of low-angle thrusts and high-angle normal faults in brittle domains can be reasonably explained with the Mohr-Coulomb criterion, because the criterion predicts the orientation of fractures as inclined to the maximum principal compressive stress ( $\sigma_1$ ) at an angle less than  $45^\circ$ , i.e., the conjugate angle of fractures on the  $\sigma_1$  sides is always acute. However, problems with the mechanical origin of low-angle normal faults and high-angle reverse faults have become a focus of studies in the past three decades. These problems are addressed in this paper.

A major feature shared among low-angle normal fault systems, high-angle reverse faults and V-shaped conjugate strike-slip fault systems (Yin, 2010) is their conjugate obtuse angle ( $\sim 110^\circ$ ) facing the shortening direction. How to explain the formation of such fractures? Most geologists tend to believe that a progressive contractional process causes the acute angle to switch into an obtuse one (e.g. Mitra, 1979; Ramsay and Huber, 1987; Carreras

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et al., 2010). If this explanation were correct, the conjugate angle of ductile shear zones would be acute or 90° at the beginning of fault formation and then keep increase with subsequent flattening until it approaches 180°. Conjugate angles observed in nature and experiments, however, are usually ~110° (Zheng et al., 2004, 2006). If the conjugate angles were initially 90° and turned into 110° with progressive deformation, then according to Harker's formula for plane-deformation (cf. Ramsay, 1980)  $R_s = \tan 45^\circ / \tan 35.3^\circ$ , the negative extension ( $-\epsilon$ ) needed would be -17%. If 3D-strain is involved the strain needed would be even higher. However, experiments on phyllite conducted by Paterson and Weiss (1966) demonstrated that conjugate kink-bands with an initial angle of ~110° in the direction of the maximum compression appeared at shortening of ~10%, and the angle did not change with increased strains to 50%. In experiments on single quartz-crystal deformation, the observed conjugate angle at a shortening of 26% was 110° (Fig. 2A; Vernooij et al., 2006); about the same shortening has appeared in natural deformation (Fig. 2E). A study of the angles between conjugate shear bands by Kurz and Northrup (2008) show that all in both high-strained and low-strained rocks, fall in the range predicted by the MEM criterion (the four vertical lines in the shadow of Fig. 1) and that the angle of 110° does not increase with progressive strain (Zheng et al., 2009a,b). These diverse observations of stable angle are obviously not compatible with progressive flattening theories.

Waterston (1999) re-evaluated the Becker's theory (1893) and proposed the zero-extension theory, which suggested that formation of ductile shear zones follow the zero-extension directions of an infinitesimal strain ellipsoid. The conjugate angle predicted by Watterson is 90° for a plane strain and 109.4° for uniaxial shortening. Although the value of the latter does correspond well with observations in nature and laboratories, it is unfortunately only applicable to uniaxial shortening where the locus of zero-extension directions is a pair of conical surfaces rather than conjugate planar shear zones as observed in nature. It is quite surprising, yet very interesting that the result under uniaxial extensional cases that is opposite to that given by slip-line theory of plasticity: the maximum principal stress axis bisects the acute angle (180°-109.4° = 70.6°) rather the obtuse one (109.4°) of conjugate slip-line sets (Hill, 1950). The strange 109.4°, therefore, is derived from the three different approaches that give the three different predictions as summed up as follows:

- 1) the zero-extension theory, predicting a pair of conical surfaces with 109.4° in shortening direction, which is only applicable to uniaxial shortening;
- 2) slip-line theory of plasticity, predicting a pair of conical surfaces with 109.4° in extension direction for uniaxial extension, which is incompatible with observations in nature and laboratories (Fig. 1);
- 3) the MEM criterion with the unit-length in the  $\sigma_1$  direction, predicting conjugate shear zones with 109.4° in shortening direction, which is well correspond with observations in nature and laboratories (Fig. 1). Obviously, neither of them but 3) are suitable for the explanation of the formation of low-angle normal faults, high-angle reverse faults and V-shaped conjugate strike-slip faults. In a case-study, Zheng et al. (2004) argued that extensional crenulation cleavages (eccs) controlled by the orientations of the MEM may turn into large-scale low-angle normal faults through strain-softening and strain-localization.

Although the MEM criterion has been used to explain conjugate shear zones and kink-bands in several recent publications (e.g., Neves et al., 2005; Marshak et al., 2006; Zheng et al., 2006; Guo et al., 2006; Yang et al., 2007; King et al., 2008; Fowler and Osman, 2009; Zhang et al., 2010), the criterion is not yet familiar to most geologists. As an example of this, Gomez-Rivas (2008) states that: "The dihedral angles between conjugate fracture sets are always higher than 105° and the principal compression stress  $\sigma_1$  is always parallel to the obtuse bisector between these sets ... Therefore, the angle  $\xi$  between  $\sigma_1$  and fractures does not fit any of the classical failure criteria and differs from the observations of any authors in brittle anisotropic rocks." If the author had known of the published MEM criterion, he would not have said so. In terms of the MEM criterion, problems and related puzzles in structural geology such as the origins of low-angle normal faults, high-angle reverse faults and so-called "V-shaped conjugate faults" by Yin (2010) are not difficult to resolve. The latter, V-shaped conjugate systems, are widespread in central Tibet, the eastern Alps, Western Turkey, eastern Afghanistan, Western Mongolian, Southeast Asia, and the Gulf of Thailand (Yin and Taylor, in press, and references therein). Since these obtuse angle V-shaped conjugate faults can be confused with normal conjugate faults with acute angles in the  $\sigma_1$ -direction, as predicted by the Mohr-Coulomb criterion, we suggest adding the adjective wide-open to this type of conjugate faults.

Wide-Open V-shaped conjugate strike-slip faults in Asia are typically related to extrusion tectonics (Tapponnier et al., 1982; Peltzer and Tapponnier, 1988). However, because the geometry of the wide-open V-shaped conjugate strike-slip fault systems departs greatly from fault orientations predicted either by the Mohr-Coulomb fracture criterion or the slip-line theory of plasticity (Hill, 1950), it requires, as Yin realized (2010; Yin and Taylor, 2011), "an unknown mechanism" to explain it. Given the fact that the MEM criterion is not yet commonly used, a review or synthesis is needed. The purpose of this paper is to provide a brief summary of the MEM criterion and some new observations from field and laboratory that can be regarded as solid evidence in support of the criterion. The latter can improve our understanding of rock deformational behavior under varying physical conditions.

## 2. MEM criterion

Shear bands (White, 1979; White et al., 1980), extensional crenulation cleavages (eccs; Platt, 1979) and kink bands (e.g. Anderson, 1964) are the results of localization of rock-deformation under stress. A basic feature they share is the rotation or deflection of preexistent planar elements (bedding, cleavage, schistosity, mylonitic foliation or man-made marker) in the deformation zones.

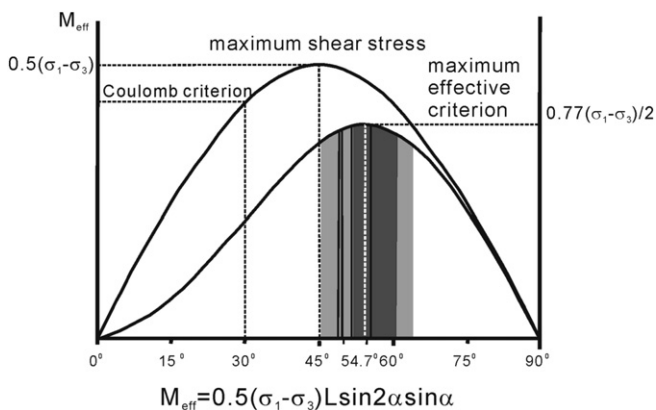


Fig. 1. Coulomb criterion and the maximum effective moment criterion (Based on Zheng et al., 2004):  $(\sigma_1 - \sigma_3)$  - yield strength of the material;  $\alpha$ -the angle between  $\sigma_1$  and the normal to shear bands/zones;  $L$ -unit length; shadow area in grey covering all the data available and shadow area in dark-grey covering all the data with a distinct yield stress provided by Gómez-Rivas (2008). The four vertical lines represent the four conjugate angles measured by Kurz and Northrup (2008).

The rotation must be directly related to a moment and, no doubt, the orientations of the maximum moment are most favorable for these deformation zones to form. Using the moment approach, the MEM Criterion is proposed for ductile deformation (Zheng et al., 2004). The criterion is mathematically expressed as:

$$M_{eff} = \frac{1}{2} (\sigma_1 - \sigma_3) L \sin 2\alpha \sin \alpha \quad (1)$$

where  $(\sigma_1 - \sigma_3)$  represents the yield strength of a material or rock,  $L$  is the unit length in the  $\sigma_1$  direction, and  $\alpha$  is the angle between  $\sigma_1$  and a certain plane. Its graphical expression is shown in Fig. 1; this illustrates that the moment reaches its maximum value when  $\alpha$  is  $\pm 54.7^\circ$ , which is the most favorable angle for forming ductile shear zones and implies that deformation zones tend to appear in pairs with a conjugate angle of  $2\alpha$ ,  $109.4^\circ$  facing to  $\sigma_1$ .

The gray shadow area in Fig. 1 shows data available from natural and experimental observations; the range in dark gray covers all of the experimental data provided by Gómez-Rivas (2008). The four vertical lines represent the four natural conjugate angles measured by Kurz and Northrup (2008). All of the data from various materials (homogeneous or heterogeneous, isotropic or anisotropic) and at variable scales confirm the validity of the MEM criterion.

It is necessary to point out that if taking the unit-length in the  $\sigma_3$  – direction, the maximum value of  $M_{eff}$  will appear in the directions of  $\pm 35.3^\circ$  to the  $\sigma_1$  – direction. The conjugate angle predicted in this way should be  $70.6^\circ$ , which is similar to the prediction of the slip-line theory of plasticity for uniaxial extensional cases. Although this result is also derived from mathematics, the predicted orientation with respect to  $\sigma_1$  departs greatly from observations in nature and experiments (Fig. 1) and is, therefore, invalid.

Major implications of the MEM criterion for physics are as follows.

- 1) Where there is a differential stress, there are maximum moment orientations. Once the differential stress reaches the yield-strength of the material involved, the shear zones will develop in one or both of the two orientations and the maximum moment becomes the effective one. No shear zones can nucleate when the differential stress is less than the yield-strength of the material in certain deformation circumstances.
- 2) No matter what material is involved—whether homogeneous or heterogeneous, isotropic or anisotropic, and regardless of crystallographic orientations—ductile shear zones preferably develop parallel to the MEM orientations. The initial conjugate angle of  $109.4^\circ$  in the  $\sigma_1$ -direction is therefore material-invariant and probably does not increase with progressive strain until the related strain reaches  $\sim 50\%$  (Paterson and Weiss, 1966).
- 3) Since no limitations in scale in the range  $10^{-7}$ – $10^8$  m (See Section 3) for the MEM criterion, the angle of  $109.4^\circ$  is scale-invariant;
- 4) Due to the lever-effect, deformation in the MEM orientations is more energy-saving than in other orientations predicted by slip-line theory, or the Mohr–Coulomb criterion, or the zero-extension theory (Watterson, 1999).

### 3. Typical cases

#### 3.1. Case 1

An excellent experimental study by Vernooij et al. (2006) on ductilely deformed single quartz-crystals reveals that conjugate shear bands form at an obtuse angle of  $109^\circ$ – $110^\circ$  when the crystal

is uniaxially compressed parallel to the crystallographic c-axis at  $800^\circ\text{C}$ , at a confining pressure of 1.2 GPa, and an approximately strain rate of  $1.1 \times 10^{-6} \text{ S}^{-1}$  with its bulk strain reached at  $\sim 26\%$  (Fig. 2A). These authors, however, suggest that the shear zones appear to develop along planar microcracks oriented parallel to crystallographic rhomb planes. If this explanation were correct, the angle between c-axis and the shear zones would be  $38^\circ 13'$  rather than  $\sim 55^\circ$ . In reality, there are no crystallographic planes that are parallel to the observed shear bands. It is interesting that a similar situation occurs in natural deformed cordierite as reported by Kruhl et al. (2007). There are also no crystallographic planes in this orthorhombic mineral that are parallel to the shear bands.

#### 3.2. Case 2

A micro-scale example is shown in Fig. 2B where the discrete features are narrow bands that deflect the cleavage of the mica-fish in opposite ways. The conjugate angle between them is  $109^\circ$  in the shortening direction, which is normal to the mylonitic foliation in the Hohhot metamorphic core complex, Inner Mongolia, China (Davis et al., 2002).

#### 3.3. Case 3

Half-natural and half-artificial conjugate ductile shear zones, probably produced at the lowest strain rate available in “experiments” are present in a pillar of shaly sylvinites at a depth of ca. 1 km that sustains the roof of the Boulby Mine, Cleveland, England; the two yield zones cut across each other and displace in a normal sense a set of vertical grooves made by an excavator shovel (Fig. 2C). The upper and lower conjugate angles of  $110^\circ$  and  $109^\circ$ , respectively are reported by Waterston (1999) and regarded as evidence for the zero-extension theory. However, the conjugate angle of  $109.4^\circ$ , predicted by Watterson is for uniaxial shortening in which the locus of zero-extension directions should be a conical surface. In contrast, the pair of planes in the sylvinites pillar with an obtuse angle of  $109$ – $110^\circ$  is exactly what is predicted by the MEM criterion.

#### 3.4. Case 4

Large-scale examples of conjugate shear zones are reported by Park (1981) in granite–greenstone terrain of the Western Superior Province, Canada. As shown in Fig. 2D, the dextral and sinistral sets of ductile shear zones form a conjugate system with an obtuse angle of  $\sim 110^\circ$  in the shortening direction.

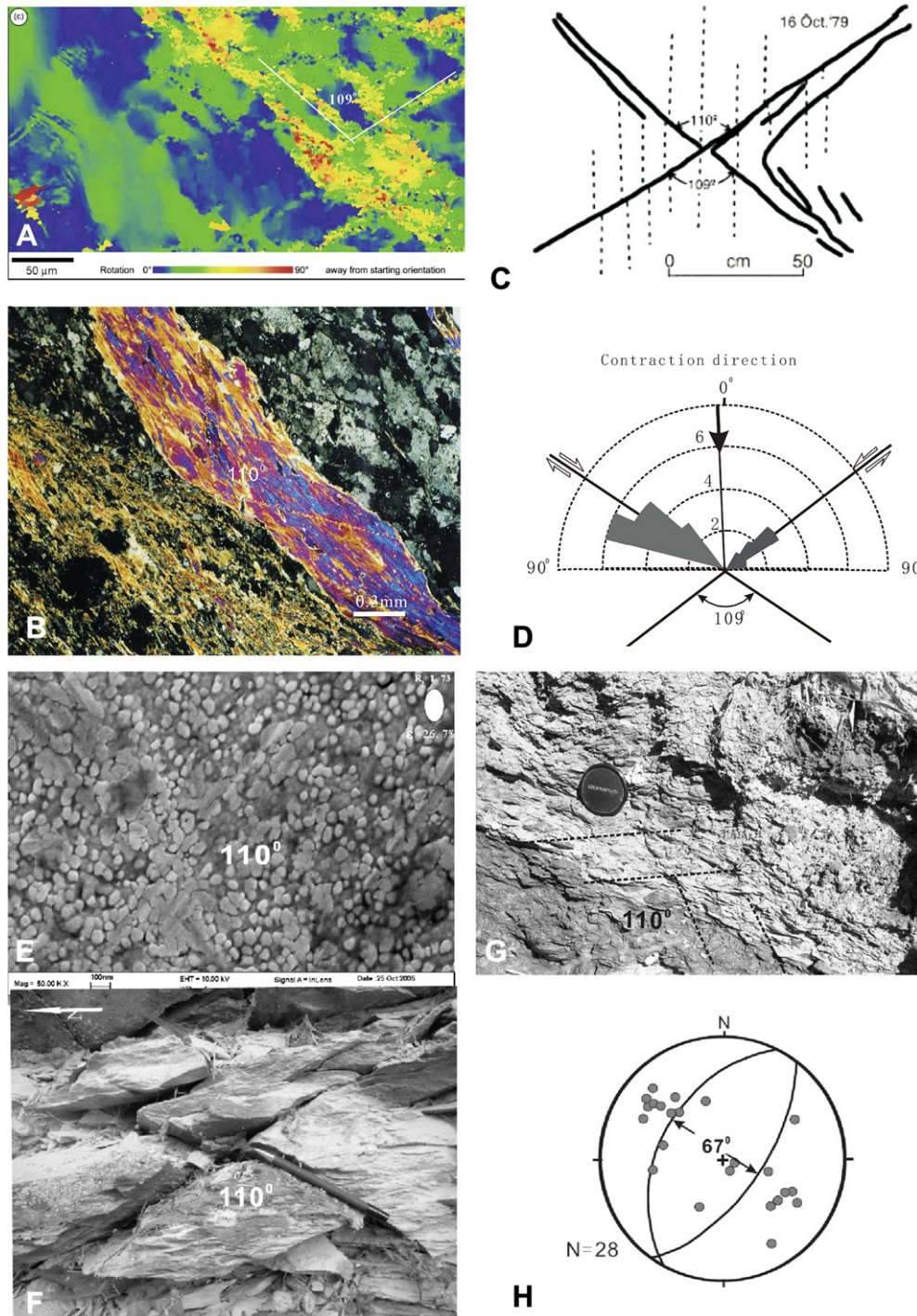
#### 3.5. Case 5

A submicroscale example of obtuse conjugate-angles is shown in Fig. 2E (courtesy of Yan Sun; Sun et al., 2008), where the shortening direction bisects the obtuse angle ( $110^\circ$ ) of the discrete conjugate features in the fault-gouge of the active Haiyang fault, Shandong province, China. The ratio of the strain ellipse ( $R_s$ ) is 1.73 and corresponds to a negative extension of  $-26.7\%$ , which is coincidentally about the same as the experiment on single quartz-crystal in Case 1 and implies a large-strain deformation.

#### 3.6. Case 6

Outcrop-scale, wide-open conjugate faults deflect and truncate the slaty cleavage of Carboniferous slate in the Nujiang Valley, Yunnan Province, China (Fig. 2F). The angle is  $\sim 110^\circ$  in the EW contractional direction between the vertical NNW-striking right-slip and NNE-striking left-slip fault sets.





**Fig. 2.** Examples at various scales and structural levels exhibit the conjugate angle of  $\sim 110^\circ$  between shear bands or zones: (A) micro-scale conjugate shear bands (Vernooij et al., 2007); (B) micro-scale conjugate extensional shear bands in the Hohhot MCC, Inner Mongolia (Zheng et al., 2004); (C) conjugate yield zones in a pillar of shaly sylvinitite at a depth of  $\sim 1$  km in the Boulby mine, Cleveland, England (Watterson, 1999); (D) regional-scale conjugate shear zones in the Western Superior Province, Canada (Park, 1981); (E) conjugate discrete features the fault-gouge of the active Haiyang fault, Shandong province, China (Sun et al., 2008); the ratio of strain ellipse ( $R_e$ ) is 1.73 and corresponds to a shortening of 26.7%; (F) outcrop-scale conjugate faults with  $\sim 110^\circ$  in the contractional direction that deflect and truncate the slaty cleavage of Carboniferous slate in the Nujiang Valley, China; (G) small-scale conjugate fractures with  $\sim 110^\circ$  in the contractional direction in the gouge zone of the Louzidian detachment fault (eastern Inner Mongolia, China); (H) conjugate deformation bands in argillaceous sediments in the toe of the Nankai accretionary prism in Japan (Ujiie et al., 2004); (I) lozenges surrounded by a conjugate fracture network in a road-cut in Proterozoic phyllite, Changshan Island, China; (K) a close-view of (I) a quartz-vein is located in the positions about the bisector of the obtuse sectors and implies the contraction direction; (J) conjugate normal faults in Neo-Proterozoic non-metamorphic tillite; lineations in the confluence region are closely parallel to the intersection line of the shear zone planes; (K) lineations are sub-parallel to the intersection line of the conjugate normal ductile fractures in the footwall of the Hefangkou detachment, Yunnengshan metamorphic core complex (Davis et al., 1996).





Fig. 2. (continued).

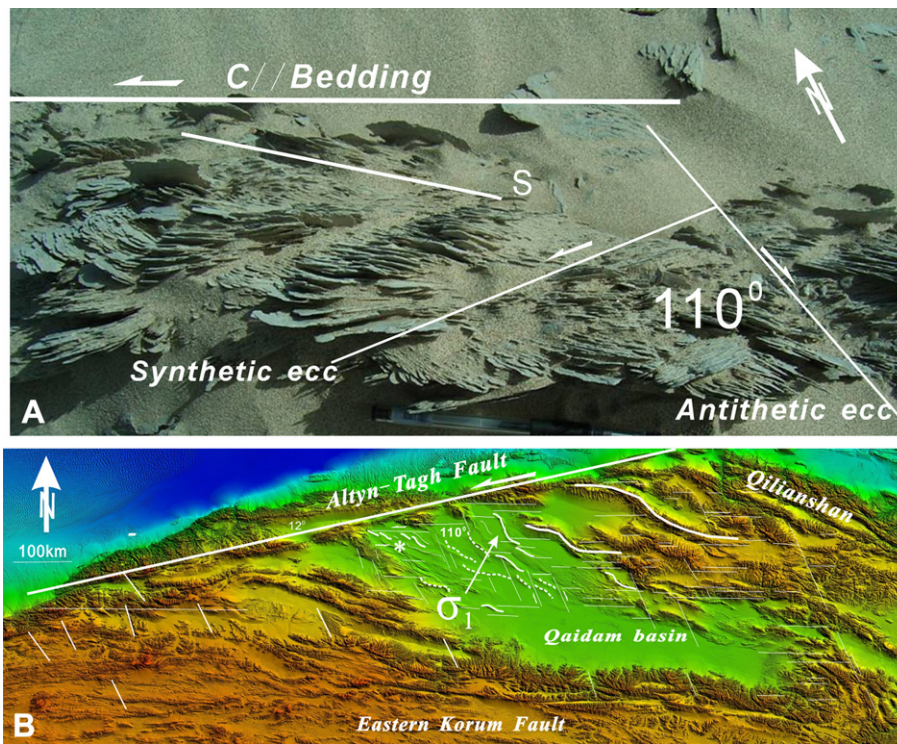
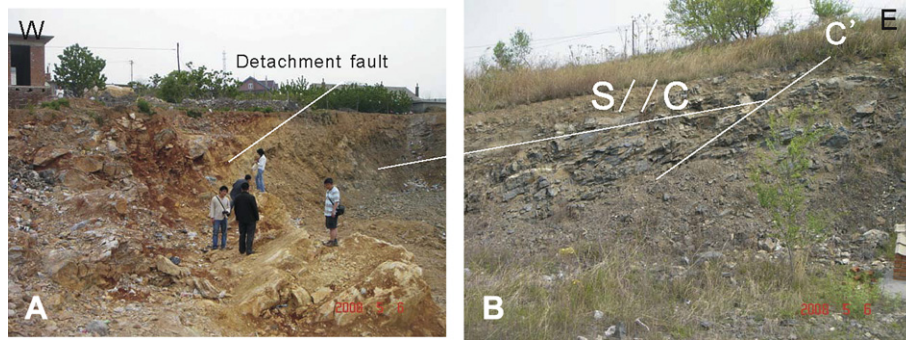


Fig. 3. (A) A downward view of outcrop-scale conjugate ecc sets with  $\sim 110^\circ$  in the shortening direction in a special kind of "schist" in Pliocene non-metamorphosed siltstone located at \* of Fig. 3B; (B) two sets of strike-slip faults in the Qaidam Basin, China; the E-W-striking sinistral set has deflected and truncated the Pliocene WNW-trending large-scale kink-zones in an anti-sigmoid pattern (shown in solid lines), whereas the NNW-striking produced the kink-zones' sigmoid pattern (shown in dash-lines). Note that the large-scale S/C fabrics in and adjacent to the Altyn-Tagh sinistral strike-slip fault.



**Fig. 4.** The Jinzhou extensional detachment fault lies parallel to the spaced  $C'$ -foliation in the underlying chloritic mylonitic rocks and truncates the penetrative mylonitic foliation; Liaoning peninsula, China.

### 3.7. Case 7

Small-scale, wide-open conjugate fractures occurred in the gouge zone in the Louzidian detachment fault of the eastern Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region, China (Wang et al., 2007) and displaced its color bands. The angle between them is  $\sim 110^\circ$  in the contractional direction (Fig. 2G). The S/C fabrics are similar to those of the coseismic shear zone of the 2008  $M_w$  7.9 Wenchuan earthquake (China) reported by Lin et al. (2010) and imply a ductile behavior of the gouge.

### 3.8. Case 8

Roughly planar microscopic bands that typically develop in argillaceous sediments at the toe of accretionary prisms are called 'deformation bands'. They are present, for example, in the Nankai accretionary margin in Japan where the Philippine Sea plate is being subducted to the NW at a rate of 4 cm/yr (Ujiiie et al., 2004). The bedding in the prism as a whole is sub-horizontal, whereas the bedding and layered silicate minerals in the deformation zones are sub-vertical. The average angle between the conjugate deformation zones in a horizontal direction is  $113^\circ$  (Fig. 2H), which implies that the reverse deformation zones result from lateral contraction related to plate convergence. Ujiiie et al. (2004) explained the high-angle reverse deformation zones using Ramsay's (1980) hypothesis in which the angle between compressive brittle–ductile shear zones and  $\sigma_1$  could be greater than  $45^\circ$ . As mentioned before, however, the theory of compaction fails to explain the quite stable angle of  $110^\circ$ ; no problem is raised by the observation that the  $\sim 113^\circ$  conjugate angle reported in the accretionary prism is  $3^\circ$  more than that predicted by the MEM criterion.

### 3.9. Case 9

Well-exposed wide-open conjugate fracture networks (Fig. 2l) are composed of less deformed lozenges surrounded by anastomosing shear zones in Proterozoic phyllite on the north-wall of a road-cut, Changshan Island, Liaoning Province, China. Subvertical quartz-veins bisect the obtuse sectors and serve to define the contraction direction (Fig. 2j).

### 3.10. Case 10

Outcrop-scale, wide-open conjugate normal faults occur in Neo-Proterozoic non-metamorphic tillite in the Three Gorges region (Fig. 2k). The conjugate normal faults deflect and truncate bedding in the tillite. The angle between them is  $\sim 110^\circ$  in the contractional direction. As conjugate faults may move synchronously to form an area of high strain near the intersection (Peacock, 1991; Odonne

and Massonnat, 1992), the two shear zones meet at the confluence. Rocks in that region are highly strained (probably  $>50\%$ ).

Note that lineations the confluence region are closely parallel to the intersection line of the shear zone planes as described by Ramsay and Allison (1979) and Carreras et al. (2004). Such a situation seems not uncommon in nature as also shown in Fig. 2l where the lineations are sub-parallel to the intersection of the conjugate normal ductile fractures below the detachment of the Yunmengshan metamorphic core complex (Davis et al., 1996). Lineation normal to the XZ-plane implies a mass movement of materials out of the XZ plane; the incompatibility problems arise from simultaneously shearing of conjugate shear zones (Ramsay and Huber, 1987) may be resolved in this way.

### 3.11. Case 11

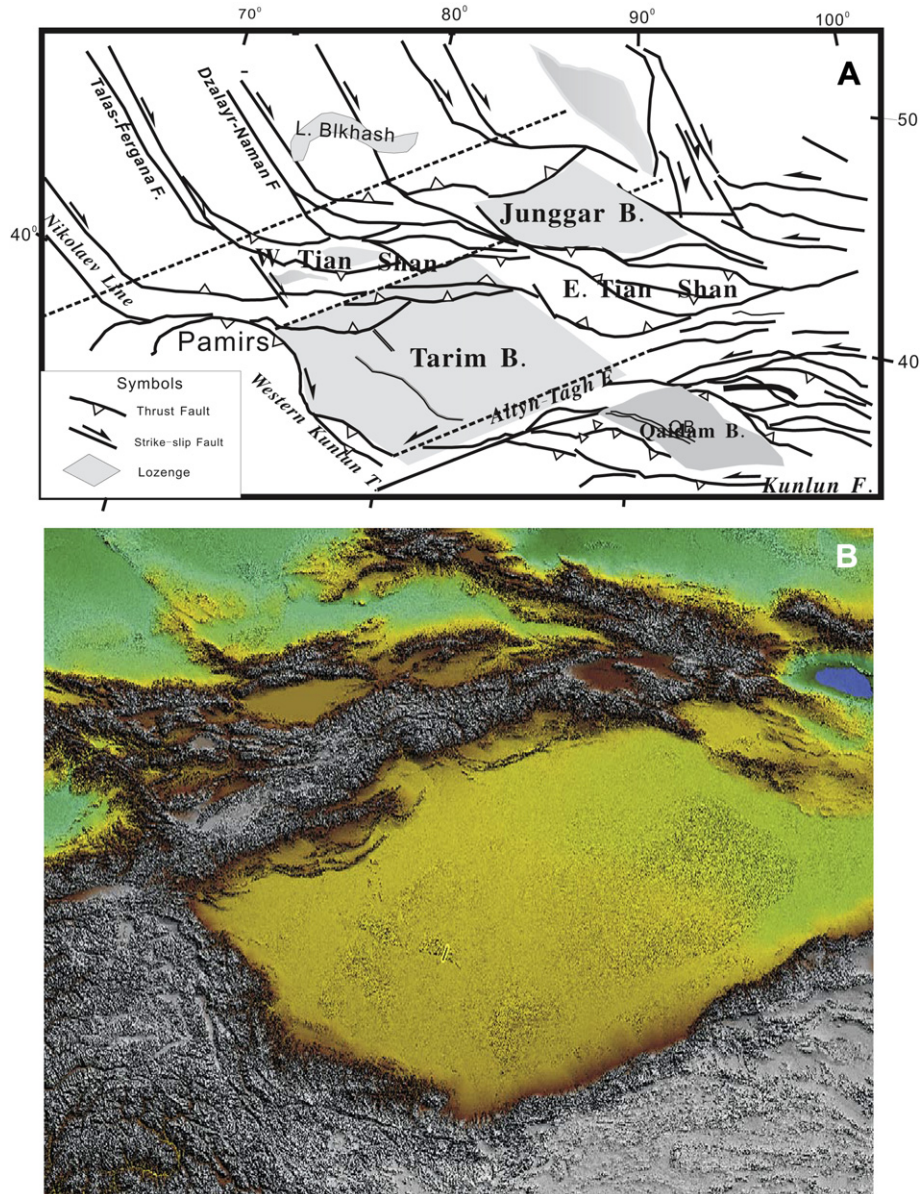
There are two sets of strike-slip faults in the Qaidam Basin of China (Fig. 3B). The E-W-striking sinistral set deflects and truncates the Pliocene sub-vertical strata of WNW-trending large-scale kink-zones in an anti-sigmoid pattern and the NNW-trending set made the strata as sigmoid pattern. The dextral features cut sinistral ones and vice versa. These deflections imply that the rocks had experienced quite a large strain before the faults developed and the conjugate angle of  $\sim 110^\circ$  further confirms that these faults belong to ductile features.

### 3.12. Case 12

MEM angular relationships are observed on Qaidam basin outcrop-scale structures shown in Fig. 3A, where conjugate ecc sets with  $110^\circ$  in the shortening direction are present in Pliocene siltstone with large crystals of gypsum up to 20 cm in length formed by recrystallization and containing numerous silt-grain inclusions. At this locality (\* in Fig. 3B on the north-limb of the Oil–Spring culmination in the Qaidam Basin, China; Zheng et al., 2006). the vertical bedding and fabric defined by oriented gypsum crystals constitute an S/C-style relationship; the acute S to C angle of  $\sim 12^\circ$  indicates sinistral shearing. The schistosity is deflected and truncated by the conjugate ecc sets. As usual, the synthetic eccs or C's (Berthe et al., 1979) are much better developed than antithetic ones (White, 1979; White et al., 1980; Zheng et al., 2004). The gypsum crystals appear to have formed at low strain-rates and at very shallow levels.

Clearly, all these observations from nature and experiments provide diverse and convincing evidence for the applicability of the MEM Criterion.





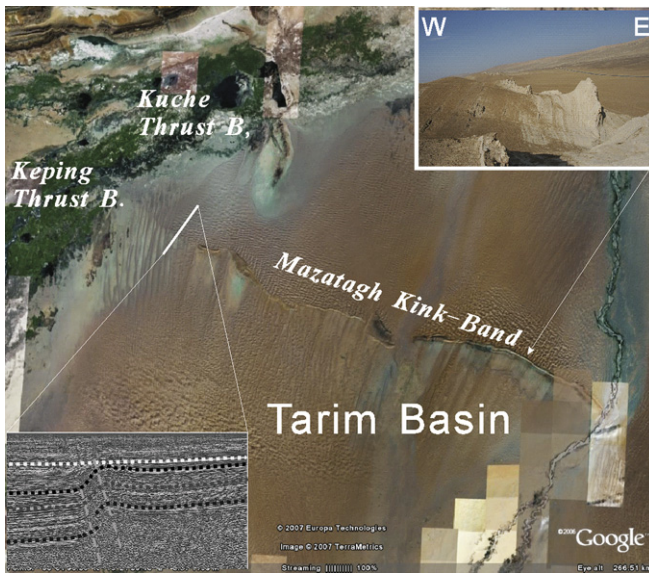
**Fig. 5.** Wide-open V-shaped conjugate strike-slip fault system in central Asia area: (A) Simplified geological map of central Asia; (B) Satellite photograph of central Asia. Source: Google Earth. The Altyn-Tagh fault formed early and controlled development in this broad area and formed the WNW-trending kink-bands in the Tarim and the Qaidam basins that are sub-parallel to the WNW-striking right-slip faults. The large -scale WNW-striking faults acted later and transformed the ENE-striking in the Keping and Kuche areas into a thrust belt which, in turn, truncated the 250-km-long Mazatagh kinkband (Fig. 6).

#### 4. Major geological implications

The MEM criterion may provide a reasonable explanation for the following structures in nature whose origins are still puzzles in structural geology: (1) the obtuse angle in the contractional direction of conjugate kink-bands and extensional crenulation cleavages (eccs; Passchier and Trouw, 2005); (2) formation of low-angle normal faults, high-angle reverse faults and wide-open V-shaped conjugate fractures with anastomosing shear networks around lozenge blocks; (3) the criterion can be used to determine the stress state when the related deformation zones formed; (4) as discussed in detail below, it provides a approach to determine the vorticity number ( $W_k$ ) when the related ductile shear features formed, because  $W_k$  can be derived from the orientation of the maximum principal stress ( $\sigma_1$ ).

##### 4.1. Conjugate angle of crenulation cleavage

A crenulation cleavage is a spaced cleavage that forms when an earlier foliation has been deflected into a new orientation, forming a series of straight-limb-dominant, small folds with narrow, tight curved hinges. There are two kinds of crenulation cleavages: (1) kink-bands (Price and Cosgrove, 1990) and contractional crenulation cleavages (cccs; Passchier and Trouw, 2005) that can form when contraction is parallel to the earlier foliation; (2) normal kink-bands (Price and Cosgrove, 1990) or extensional crenulation cleavages (eccs; e.g. Platt, 1979; Platt and Vissers, 1980; Passchier, 1991; Passchier and Trouw, 2005) that can form when contraction is normal to the foliation. The latter are also termed as shear bands that overprint the pre-existing mylonitic foliation (White, 1979; White et al., 1980; Carreras, 2001; Passchier and Trouw,



**Fig. 6.** The Mazatagh kinkband is over 250 km long and ~ 7 km wide in the Tarim Basin, China. Source: Google Earth. An outcrop and a seismic-profile of the kinkband are shown in right and left insets, respectively, showing the obvious high-angle south-dipping zone in the sub-horizontal field.

2005; Fousseis et al., 2006). They are generally synthetic and obtain the special term of  $C'$  (Berthe et al., 1979) or  $S/C'$ -type shear bands (Passchier and Trouw, 2005).

The orientation of ecc has previously been suggested as representing either the inclined eigenvector during sub-simple shear flow (e.g., Bobyarchick, 1986; Pray et al., 1997), the direction of maximum rate of shear strain (e.g., Platt and Vissers, 1980; Simpson and De Paor, 1993) or the orientation of a Coulomb failure surface (Blenkinsop and Treloar, 1995). The first two theories require a stable homogeneous flow. It is difficult to apply them to crenulation cleavages, because crenulation cleavages occur as a result of deformation localization. There is also no positive evidence for the third theory; conjugate angles much larger than  $60^\circ$  do not support this model.

The conjugate angle of both cccs and eccs is usually  $\sim 110^\circ$  and always in the direction of the  $\sigma_1$  or the maximum shortening when a conjugate system forms. The conjugate angles of kink-bands observed in nature and experiments are from  $101^\circ$  to  $130^\circ$  and the conjugate angles of ecc system change from  $95^\circ$  to  $120^\circ$  (Zheng et al., 2004). As previously mentioned, the grey shadow area of Fig. 1 covers all the data available and the dark-grey shadow area covers all the data with a distinct yield stress provided by Gómez-Rivas (2008), and the four vertical lines represent the four conjugate angles measured by Kurz and Northrup (2008). The range of  $55^\circ \pm 5^\circ$  in Fig. 1 that is most favorable for crenulation cleavages to form demonstrates that the MEM-criterion controls the formation of crenulation cleavages.

#### 4.2. Formation of low-angle normal faults or extensional detachment faults

Since the recognition of low-angle normal faults or extensional detachment faults in western North America in the early 1980's, their origin has been puzzling. This is because their occurrence is not compatible with the Mohr-Coulomb criterion and Anderson's predictions. Based on quantitative analysis of conjugate angles of eccs, Zheng et al. (2004) once noted, using the Yagan metamorphic core complex (mcc) in the Sino-Mongolian border areas as a case

study, the striking similarity in geometry and kinematics between the ecc sets and low-angle normal faults on different scales. They argued that large-scale low-angle normal faults may originate in one of major eccs by strain localization and strain-softening. The low angular relationship between the Whipple detachment fault, California and the mylonitic front in its footwall (Davis and Lister, 1988) can be interpreted as an expression of the detachment fault propagating upward out of the mid-crustal mylonitic shear zone along a master ecc surface. In the Hohhot mcc of the Daqing Shan, Inner Mongolia, the Hohhot detachment fault is parallel to the synthetic ecc set in the footwall mylonitic rocks and the cut-off angle between the detachment fault and the mylonitic foliation is  $\sim 25\text{--}30^\circ$  (Davis et al., 2002; Davis and Darby, 2010). This also implies the genetic relationship between the low-angle normal fault and the ecc set.

Field observations show that the Jinzhou fault in the Liaoning peninsular is an extensional detachment fault that is parallel to the  $C'$ -foliation in the underlying mylonitic rocks and truncates the penetrative mylonitic foliation (Zheng et al., 2009a,b; Fig. 4).

Lower plate  $C'$  shear bands are parallel to the major detachment in the Betic Cordilleras, Spain and their density increases exponentially toward the contact. This demonstrates that the low-angle detachment was derived from a  $C'$  shear band and resulted from a progressive localization of the deformation through time (Agard et al., 2011).

#### 4.3. Formation of high-angle reverses faults

According to the Mohr-Coulomb criterion and Anderson fault theory, reverse faults should dip at an angle less than  $45^\circ$ . High-angle reverse faults, however, are common in nature. Among famous examples are the high-angle reverse faults with gold-bearing quartz veins in Quebec province, Canada (Sibson et al., 1988; Boullier and Robert, 1992). The co-existence of high-angle ductile reverse faults and sub-horizontal extension fractures implies that the  $\sigma_1$  and  $\sigma_2$  were sub-horizontal and the  $\sigma_3$  was sub-vertical when the faults and fractures formed. The attitude of the faults was not favorable for their reverse displacement due to high frictional resistance related to a high normal stress component on the fault-surfaces. Sibson et al. (1988) proposed the fault-valve model that has quite soundly elucidated the periodic activity along high-angle reverse faults in terms of periodic changes in fluid pressure. Although the model may resolve how movement on the fault-surface could occur, it does not resolve the origin of the high-angle reverse faults themselves. The MEM criterion can provide a reasonable explanation, because it predicts that the angle between ductile reverse faults is  $\sim 55^\circ$  with a sub-horizontal principal stress axis in contractional regimes.

#### 4.4. Lozenges and wide-open V-shaped conjugated ductile shear/fault zones

A special network consisting of anastomosing sub-vertical shear zones and lozenges, or unreformed or less deformed lozenges surrounded by anastomosing sub-vertical ductile-shear networks, are "especially abundant in continental crustal rocks, termed basement or 'crystallines'" (Ramsay and Huber, 1987). The dextral and sinistral sets of ductile shear zones form a conjugate system with an obtuse angle in the shortening direction (Ramsay and Graham, 1970; Mitra, 1979, 1998; Ramsay and Allison, 1979; Bell, 1981; Choukroune and Gapais, 1983; Gapais et al., 1987; Burg et al., 1996; Corsini et al., 1996; Czeck and Hudleston, 2003, 2004; Bhattacharyya and Czeck, 2008; Carreras et al., 2010). One example of wide-open V-shaped networks with lozenges is shown in Fig. 2D.



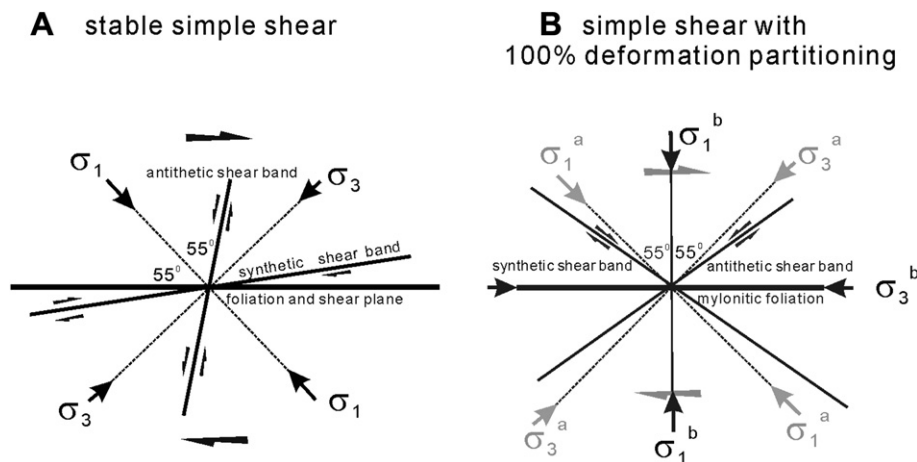


Fig. 7. Kinematic vorticity numbers ( $W_k$ ) =  $\sin 2 \times 45^\circ = 1$  for (A) the stable simple shear and  $W_k = \sin 2 \times 0^\circ = 0$  for (B) the crenulation cleavage stage of the simple shear with 100% deformation partitioning; stress states for the mylonitic and crenulation stages shown as  $\sigma_1^a$ – $\sigma_3^a$  and  $\sigma_1^b$ – $\sigma_3^b$ , respectively.

Actually, lozenge structures are not only confined to basement or crystalline rocks. Taylor et al. (2003) showed that Cenozoic conjugate faults are widespread in central Tibet and found a series of V-shaped wedge blocks facing to the east, the extrusion direction suggested by Tapponnier and Molnar (1976, 1977). The so-called V-shaped conjugate faults have also been documented in the eastern Alps, western Turkey, eastern Afghanistan, western Mongolia, Southeast Asia, and Gulf of Thailand (Yin, 2010, and refs therein).

One of the common features of the V-shaped blocks is, as Yin pointed out, that they lie at 60–75° from the maximum compressive stress direction. According to our measurements, however, the angles range from 54° to 73.5° with an average of  $\sim 55.7^\circ$  (Zhang et al., 2010; Zheng et al., 2011; e.g. Fig. 5), which is very close to the prediction of the MEM criterion.

Experimental data show that not all individual shears are simultaneously active (Williams and Price, 1990; Mancktelow, 2002). It is also the case in Central Asia. The ENE-striking left-slip Altyn-Tagh fault and WNW-striking right-slip faults have both deformed the Pliocene strata in Central Asia. However, the Altyn-Tagh fault was active early (Meng et al., 2001) and controlled this area so that caused the formation of WNW-trend kink-bands in the Tarim and the Qaidam basins that are sub-parallel to the WNW-trend right-slip faults (Zheng et al., 2007, 2011; Figs. 4 and 6). Later, the WNW-trend right-slip faults were active and reformed the northwestern boundary fault of the Tarim Basin into transpressional zone (the Keping thrust belt and Kuche thrust belt) that, in turns, truncated the 250-km-long Mazatagh kinkband that may be rated as a *giant* in kink-bands (Fig. 6).

#### 4.5. *C*-method estimating kinematic vorticity number ( $W_k$ )

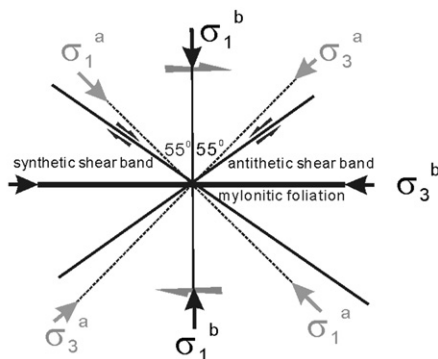
Bobyarchick (1986) defined  $W_k$  in the simplest way as the cosine of the angle  $\alpha$  between the eigenvectors or apophyses:

$$W_k = \cos \alpha \quad (2)$$

According to the definition,  $W_k = 0$  for pure shear zones,  $W_k = 1$  for simple shear zones and  $W_k$  of general shear zones ranges in between.

Three main analytical techniques are broadly grouped into those that use tailed and tailless porphyroclasts to estimate  $W_k$  in high strain zones (Passchier, 1987; Simpson and De Paor, 1993, 1997; Wallis, 1992, 1995). All of which are on the same fundamental mathematical relationships between  $W_k$ ,  $R$  or shape factor ( $B^*$ ) and the angle of porphyroclast long axes with respect to foliation ( $\theta$ ).

#### B simple shear with 100% deformation partitioning



Jessup et al. (2007) unified these methods and proposed the Rigid Grain Net (RGN) method.

$W_k$  can also be given by

$$W_k = \sin 2\xi \quad (3)$$

(Weijermars, 1991, 1993, 1998) where  $\xi$  is the angle between  $\sigma_1$  and the normal to the shear zone. Since shear bands are theoretically and practically confirmed at an angle of  $\sim 55^\circ$  with the major principal stress axis ( $\sigma_1$ ), they can, therefore, serve as a new reliable quantitative vorticity indicators.  $W_k$  values inferred from shear bands are not necessarily consistent with those from porphyroclast hyperbolic distribution (PHD) analysis (Simpson and De Paor, 1997). The numerical modeling to investigate the reliability of the widely used PHD method (Li and Jiang, 2011) shows that the vorticity numbers between 0.5 and 0.85 reported from natural shear zones in the literature using PHD method could all have been produced in zones with close-to-simple-shearing flow. The angle between the synthetic ecc and  $C'$  and the mylonitic foliation proposed by various authors generally ranges from 15 to 35° (Passchier and Trouw, 2005). The vorticity numbers estimated in terms of  $C'$  and based on Eq. (3) would range from 0.64 to 0.00, much less than their PHD counterparts. As shown in Fig. 7,  $W_k = 1$  for a stable simple shear flow, while  $W_k = 0$  for the mylonitic stage and  $W_k = 0$  for the crenulation cleavage stage of a simple shear with 100% deformation partitioning during progressive deformation. Abortion of simple shear component must decrease the  $W_k$  in the shear zone (Zheng et al., 2009a,b).

## 5. Discussion and conclusions

Since the intersection angle of  $\sim 110^\circ$  widely appears in materials from low yield strengths such as argillaceous sediments, evaporites and fault-gouges to combination of various rocks and in the case of crystalline materials involved, it seems to disregard the orientations of crystal lattice (e.g. quartz in Fig. 2A, mica in Fig. 2B) and cordierite reported by Kruhl et al. (2007), it may be regarded as a quasi-material-invariant. In addition, because the angle is observed on scales from  $10^6$  m (e.g. Fig. 5) to  $10^{-7}$  m (e.g. Fig. 2E); it may also be rated as scale-invariant, or at least, as quasi-invariant.

The MEM criterion is widely applicable to localized deformation in ductile materials and such localization, as Hubert-Ferrari et al. (2003) and Gómez-Rivas (2008) suggested, can be regarded as a competing process between an external loading rate and the rate of viscous relaxation of the material. If the former is higher than the latter, there will be an increasing differential stress until the yield point is reached.

Ductile shear features will nucleate and propagate afterward, and become an anastomosing shear network. Alternatively, if the viscous rate is able to relax the imposed stress, ductile shear fractures will not nucleate and the deformation will be distributed homogeneous or heterogeneously within the material. The limit in between therefore constitutes the ductile/brittle transition that is crucial to understand the rock behavior in the continental lithosphere.

The depth of 10–15 km is usually regarded as a brittle/ductile transition zone for felsic rocks with mylonitic tectonites as the common products of deformation immediately below this zone. However, a number of the conjugate-intersection angle of  $\sim 110^\circ$  that are closely related to ductile deformation described in Section 3 obviously occurred on shallow levels without any metamorphism as shown in Fig. 2C, E, G, H, Figs. 3A and 4A, B. Mylonitic rocks with a certain metamorphism are therefore not a unique indicator of ductile behavior. What else can be served as a marker of ductile deformation? The essential difference between brittle- and ductile-fracturing depends on how large a strain the material is able to sustain before fracturing or faulting. A rule-of-thumb holds that fractures that occurred at less than 3–5% strain are regarded as brittle-fractures and those that occurred at more than 5–10% strain indicate ductile-fracturing. Therefore, brittle fracturing belongs to the category of elastic or small-strain deformation in which the factor of time is not considered. Ductile-fracturing, on the other hand, belongs to the category of large-strain deformation in which the strain is closely depended on the factor of time that must be considered. If a given rock was located at a shallow level with low  $P$ – $T$  conditions under which no metamorphism happened, only at a certain low strain-rate may the rock show ductile behavior. In this respect, rock-behavior is quite similar to a ball of ‘bouncing or silly putty’, which will bounce elastically if you let it fall down to the floor, or to the contrary, when you place it on a table, it will exhibit plastic behavior and become pancake-shaped in one or 2 h.

Large-strain localized deformation is, therefore, a reliable marker of ductile-fracturing. If a distinct deflection or “drag-fold” is adjacent to a fault, the fault is probably a ductile one, because less than 5–10% strain is usually invisible. Although the fault-gouge is commonly regarded as a result of brittle-fracturing at shallow levels (e.g. Sibson, 1977), S/C fabrics in fault-gouge zones as shown in Fig. 2G imply that the behavior of gouge itself was similar to ductile flow of mylonitic rocks.

Kinkbands of phyllite were produced experimentally at room temperature and the strain-rate of  $4\text{--}8 \times 10^{-4}\text{s}^{-1}$  by Paterson and Weiss (1966). Although most of their experiments were run at a 5 kb confining pressure that corresponds to the pressure at a depth of 16–17 km, the stress-strain curves at different (lower) confining pressures show that the yield-strength at 1 kb confining pressure is about half that at 5 kb confining pressure (Fig. 5 of Paterson and Weiss, 1966); their brass-jacketed specimens deformed at 1 and 2.5 kb also showed kinking. These results confirm that large-strain deformation of phyllite can occur at room temperature and at a strain-rate of  $10^{-4}\text{s}^{-1}$ , which is  $\sim 10$  indices higher than the ‘standard geological strain-rate’ of  $10^{-14}\text{s}^{-1}$  (e.g. Twiss and Moores, 2007).

From the cases described and the above-discussions the following conclusions can be drawn: 1) the MEM-criterion derived from mechanic analysis is based on empirical data that come from both experiments and naturally deformed samples; 2) no matter what a material is involved, homo- or heterogeneous, isotropic or anisotropic, even disregarding the crystallographic lattice, the conjugate angle of ductile fractures containing the principal compressive axis ( $\sigma_1$ ) is obtuse, typically,  $109^\circ$  or  $110^\circ$  and this is a quasi-invariant probably for the scale-range of  $10^{-7}$ – $10^6$  m; 3) brittle-fractures mainly occurred at, but were not confined to shallow levels and ductile fractures mainly developed at, but not confined to deep levels. Rock-behavior, similar to a ball of

“bouncing putty”, may show elastic behavior at high strain-rates and plastic behavior at low strain-rates.

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