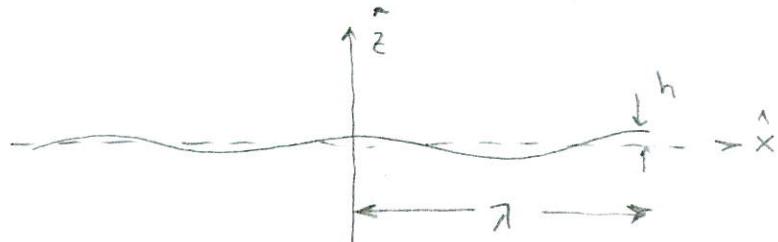


### D. What the Solutions Mean

We now have all the things we need to interpret global rebound and infer the viscosity of the earth's mantle, but the meaning of these solutions are not yet clear. To make them clear we will first examine the solutions we have obtained in some detail. We will then develop a simple method for examining global rebounds of common scales to infer viscosity profiles of the earth. Finally we will return to some actual data and present some computer solutions. The sequence of  
extensive Theory  $\rightarrow$  insight + simplifications  $\rightarrow$   
back to extensive analysis of physical processes  $\rightarrow$   
modeling + testing of substantive insight is a common  
cycle in my experience.

### 1. Flow in a uniform viscosity half-space

Equation (22) describes the flow produced by a  $1 \text{ N/m}^2$  harmonic load applied to the surface of a fluid half-space. To visualize more physically, consider the harmonic load  $\bar{\epsilon}_{xz}$  to be a small deformation of the surface of amplitude  $h$ :



The vertical stress is given by  $\tau_{zz} = -\rho gh \cos kx$ , where  $k = 2\pi/\lambda$ . The former transforms  $\bar{\epsilon}_{xz} = -\rho gh$ , and equation (22) becomes:

$$(22a) \quad \begin{bmatrix} 2\eta^* i k \bar{\epsilon}_{xz} \\ 2\eta^* k \bar{\epsilon}_{xz} \\ i \bar{\epsilon}_{xz} \\ \bar{\epsilon}_{xz} \end{bmatrix} = \rho g h e^{kz} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} + k z \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The flow response is the real part of the Fourier transform (c): (29)

$$f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(k) e^{ikx} dk.$$

Since  $e^{ikx} = \cos kx + i \sin kx$ , for a single value of  $k$ :

$$w_x = -\frac{\rho g h}{2\eta^* k} k z e^{kz} \sin kx$$

(22b)

$$w_z = \frac{\rho g h}{2\eta^* k} (kz - 1) e^{kz} \cos kx.$$

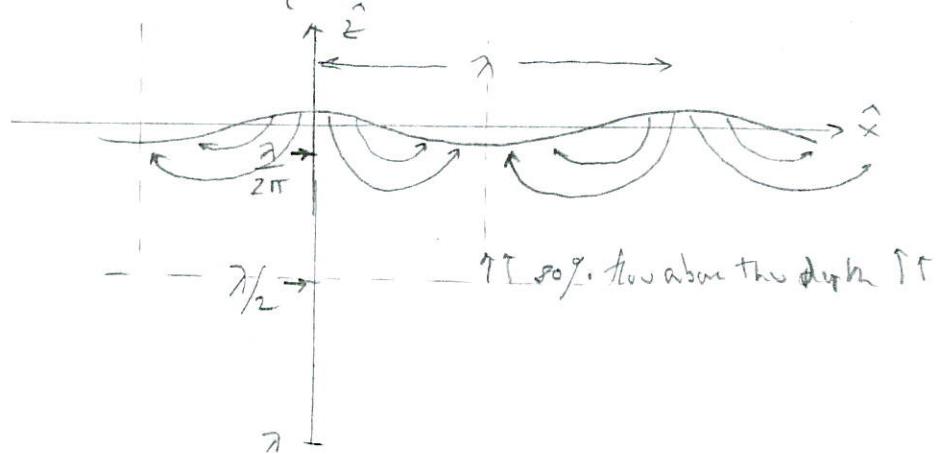
The horizontal and vertical velocities decrease nearly exponentially with depth.  $w_x$  is zero at the surface and at  $x = 0, \pi/2$ .

but increases to a maximum at  $x = \pi/4, 3\pi/4, \dots$  At

therefore  $w_z$  is a maximum at  $x = 0, \pi, 2\pi, \dots$

The response under a load (e.g.  $x=0$ ) is

$$w_z(x=0, t=0) = -\frac{\rho g h}{2\eta^* k}. \quad \text{Flow lines can be sketched:}$$



The flow described by (22a,b) is an instantaneous

flow rate. At  $x=0, z=0, t=0$   $v_z(x=0, z=0, t=0) = \frac{\rho g h}{2\pi^2 k}$   
amplitude of the initial

Since  $v_z = \frac{dh}{dt}$  it is clear the harmonic deformation of

the fluid surface will decay exponentially:

(2c)

Deep flow

$$h = h_0 e^{-t/\tau}, \quad \tau = \frac{2\pi^2 k}{\rho g}$$

Since  $k = 2\pi/\lambda$ , it is clear from (2c) that

long wavelength surface deformations will have proportionally

shorter decay times ( $\tau$ ). Since high frequencies of

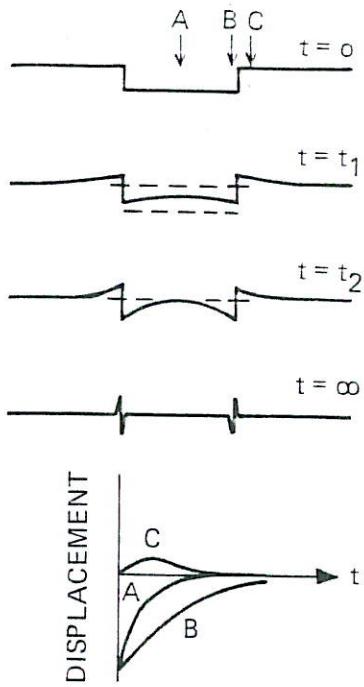
a square edged initial surface deformation are

a sum of short wavelength (high frequency), which if

an over loaded by a glacier that has melted will look

something:

## DEEP FLOW



The depth to which significant flow persists can be easily estimated. From 226

$$\frac{v_z}{v_z(z=0)} = -(z_k - 1) e^{kt}$$

which can be evaluated:

$z_k$	$\frac{v_z}{v_z(z=0)}$	
0	1	
-1	.736	← 50% @ $z_k = -1.66$
-2	.406	
-3	.199	← 80% @ $z_k = -3$

(32)

Fifty percent of the flow beneath a body of wave length  $\frac{2\pi}{k}$  occurs above a depth of  $z_k = -1.66$ ; 80% above a depth of  $z_k = -3$ . For  $z_k = -3$ ,  $z = \frac{-3\lambda}{2\pi} \approx \frac{1}{2}\lambda$ . Eighty percent of the flow occurs above a depth of  $\frac{1}{2}\lambda$ .

## 2. Flow in a Dunes Channel

For a dunes channel that is thin compared to  $\lambda$ , we saw from (23) that the vertical flow becomes

$$\bar{w}_z = \frac{\rho g h}{2n + k} \left( \frac{z}{3} (kD)^3 \right) = \frac{\rho g h^{2/3}}{2n} h$$

(27)  
Channel flow

Then

$$h = h_0 e^{-t/\tau_c}, \quad \tau_c = \frac{2n}{\rho g k^{2/3} D^3}$$

The short wavelength  $h_0$  decay much faster because here

$\tau \propto \lambda^2$ , and in fact <sup>heat conduction</sup> a very good analogue for the

uplift response. For heat conduction short wavelength  
also decay in proportion to their wavelength squared. For  
example the heat conduction equation

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = K \nabla^2 T$$

can be solved for  $T = T(t) \cos kx$

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = -k^2 K T$$

$$T = T_0 e^{-t/\tau_{HC}}, \quad \tau_{HC} = K/k^2$$

(28)

Thus a square edged

depression will uplift

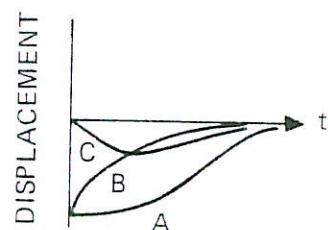
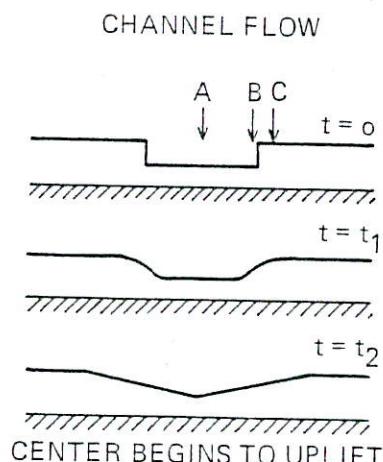
like it is a cool rod

being heated by its

surroundings. Needy

The displaced zone will

uplift first, cooling (drying) the immediate surroundings (c).



over time the surrounding will start to warm again (uplift), at the center will start to slowly heat (uplift). Notice, by comparison to the figure on page 31. That the uplift of regions near a deheated area will be opposite for deep (uplift followed by depression) and channel (depression followed by uplift) flow, and the uplift of the central region will be fastest for deep flow whilst the uplift of near-edge areas will be fastest for channel flow. Clearly the uplift in the central part of a deheated area and the uplift of peripheral areas will tell us a great deal about the viscosity structure of the mantle.

### 3. The Lithosphere

What about the lithosphere? It acts like a low pass filter. Short wavelengths are supported elastically

and will display no viscous response. Long wavelength will not be supported by the lithosphere at all. Intermediate wavelengths will be partly supported elastically and cause some mantle flow to become, <sup>after some time</sup> partly supported by the fluid mantle. This adjustment will be driven (unloading) or retarded (loading) by elastic as well as gravitational forces.

From (25a) the <sup>equilibrium</sup> strain at the surface equals  $\rho g z$  times whatever the displacement is at the base. By equilibrium strain we mean the strain supported by the elastic bending of the lithosphere plus the buoyant force arising from  $\bar{\sigma}_z^B$ , the deformation at the base of the lithosphere. The flow rate at the base of the lithosphere  $\bar{w}_z^B$  is driven by the

difference between the strain applied to the sample,  $\tau_{zz}^{\text{app}}$ , and the supported strain  $\tau_{zz}^{\text{sup}} = \rho g \zeta u_z^B$ . As in (22)

$$\dot{u}_z^B = \frac{du_z^B}{dt} = - \left\{ \frac{\text{app } \tau_{zz}^{\text{app}} - \text{sup } \tau_{zz}^{\text{sup}}}{2\eta^+ k} \right\}$$

$$= - \left\{ \frac{\text{app } \tau_{zz}^{\text{app}} - \rho g \zeta u_z^B}{2\eta^+ k} \right\}$$

$$\int_{u_{z_0}^B}^{u_z^B} \frac{du_z^B}{\text{app } \tau_{zz}^{\text{app}} - \rho g \zeta u_z^B} = - \int_0^t \frac{dt}{2\eta^+ k}$$

$\frac{\rho g \zeta u_z^B - \text{app } \tau_{zz}^{\text{app}}}{\rho g \zeta u_{z_0}^B - \text{app } \tau_{zz}^{\text{app}}}$	$= e^{-\rho g \zeta t / 2\eta^+ k}$
-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	-------------------------------------

(29)

$$\text{If } u_{z_0}^B = 0$$

$$u_z^B(t) = \frac{\text{app } \tau_{zz}^{\text{app}}}{\rho g \zeta} \left( 1 - e^{-\zeta t / \eta^+} \right)$$

Thus the <sup>initial</sup> load depression is filtered by  $\frac{1}{2}$  and the decay time reduced by  $\frac{1}{2}$ . Note  $\zeta = \frac{2\eta^+ k}{\rho g}$

If  $\text{app } \tau_{zz}^{\text{app}} = 0$ ,  $u_z^B = u_{z_0}^B e^{-\zeta t / \eta^+}$  and adjustment  
The deformation at the base is now a. There is no acceleration in

## E. A First-Pass at the Mantle Viscosity Profile

We now know how a harmonic load redistribution flows in asthenosphere and mantle. We can calculate how a suddenly applied load will exponentially approach its static equilibrium, and how deep in the asthenosphere or mantle flow will be induced. How can we most easily infer the viscosity profile of the mantle from observed rebound data?

Perhaps the easiest way is to look at the response at

the center of loads of various sizes, and characterize

the central regions with an equivalent wave number,  $k_{ctr}$ .

The center of a load is characterized by the longest wavelength harmonic components, so it is seismically to support such

a characterization would work. We first find  $k_{ctr}$  in terms of load dimensions by

Looking at the central uplift of a cylindrical uniform load.

we then deduce the viscosity profile of the earth by looking at isostatic response of loads varying from -60km (minor ice retreat in Greenland and drainage of Lake Bonneville) to large loads (1000km ice sheet in Fennoscandia, 3000 km ice sheet in Canada) and finally very large loads (increase in elevation to ocean).

### I. A Wave number to Characteristic Isostatic response in the center of a load

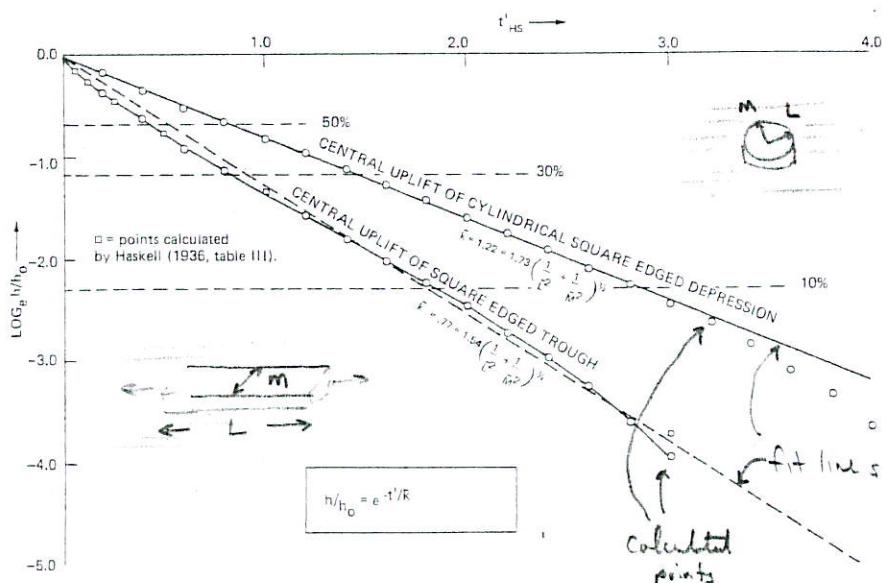


Figure App. VI-3. The logarithm of uplift remaining for the central regions of a square-edged trough and a cylindrical square-edged depression plotted versus  $t'_{HS}$ . It can be seen that the central uplift is exponential and similar to that of a harmonic surface deformation with wave number  $\bar{k} = 1.7 \left( \frac{1}{\bar{L}^2} + \frac{1}{\bar{M}^2} \right)^{1/3}$ .  $\bar{L}$  and  $\bar{M}$  are characteristic dimensions of the initial deformation in normalized units (see equation 5). The values calculated numerically for the square-edged trough are compared to the values calculated analytically and given by Haskell. A uniform viscosity half-space is assumed.

So to good approximation:

$$k_{ctr} = 1.7 \left( \frac{1}{L^2} + \frac{1}{m^2} \right)^{1/2}$$

$$\left( \lambda_{ctr} = 2.6 D \right) \quad = 1.7 \left( \frac{1}{(2R)^2} + \frac{1}{(2R)^2} \right)^{1/2} = \frac{1.7}{R}$$

$$\left( \lambda_{ctr} = 3.7 W \right) \quad = 1.7 \left( \frac{1}{\alpha^2} + \frac{1}{W^2} \right)^{1/2} = \frac{1.7}{W}$$

80% of the flow occurs above  $z k_{ctr} = 3$ . Thus

$$z_{80\%} = 2.5 R$$

$$= 1.7 W$$

## 2. Isostatic Rebound Data

Selected rebound data is shown in the following figure. We will proceed from small scale shear unloading to large.

### a. Smallest Scale

The first figure shows uplift of the land surface

at various sites in Canada. Two classes of curves are apparent: one with strong curvature (M, F, G, and D) and another set of weaker curvature. The first set is associated with the first stage of deglaciation.

The Greenland curve is particularly interesting as the drift there is associated with a relatively minor (60 km) retreat of the ice cap still present on Greenland.

$$k_{ct}^{\text{Greenland}} = \frac{1.7}{60} = 0.028 \text{ km}^{-1}$$

$\tau \approx$  time to reach  $z_{50}$  isostatic equilibrium  $\approx 1000$  yrs

$$\alpha \approx 2 \text{ (assuming } \frac{\text{flexural rigidity}}{\text{similar to Basin + Range}} \text{)}$$

$$\tau = \frac{2\eta k}{\alpha Pg}, \quad \eta = \frac{\alpha Pg \tau}{2k} = \frac{(2)(3170)(10)(1000 \cdot 3.15)}{(2)(0.028 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^{-1})}$$

$$\boxed{\eta = 3.5 \times 10^{19} \text{ Pa} \cdot \text{s}}$$

$$k z_{50\%} = 3, \quad z_{50\%} = \frac{3 \cdot 60}{1.7} = 100 \text{ km}$$

$$\boxed{z_{50\%} = 100 \text{ km}}$$

The Greenland uplift suggests a very thick asthenosphere that is at least  $\sim 160$  km thick.

The second figure shows the size and geometry of flexure beneath lake Bonneville. Shorelines in the central area are uplifted 65 m relative to the same shorelines at the edge of the lake.

$$\text{Maximum uplift} = \frac{(305\text{m})(1\text{g}/\text{cm}^3)}{(3.17\text{ g/cc})} = 96\text{ m}$$

$\tau \approx 4000$  yrs to achieve 65 m differential uplift

$$k_{\text{ctr}} \approx \frac{1.2}{95\text{ km}} = 1.26 \times 10^{-2} \text{ km}^{-1}$$

$\alpha < 1.42$  (highest possible for 65 m differential under 305 m load)

= 1.03 (for Walcott's flexural rigidity of  $0.5 \times 10^{20}$  N-m for Bonneville max)

$$\eta = \frac{\alpha \rho g \tau}{2 k} = \frac{(1+1.4)(3170)(10)(4000 \times 3.15 \times 10^7)}{(2)(1.26 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m}^{-1})}$$

$$= 1.6 \text{ to } 2.2 \times 10^{20} \text{ Pa.s}$$

$$z_{80\%} = \frac{3R}{1.2} = 237 \text{ km}$$

$$u_z^{\text{elastre}} = \frac{\rho_w g h}{2\mu k} = \frac{(1000)(10)(305)}{(2)(0.7 \times 10^9 \text{ Pa}) (1.26 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^{-1})}$$

$$u_z^{\text{elastre}} = 1.72 \text{ m}$$

### b. Intermediate Scale - Fennoscandian

The third set of figures shows the Fennoscandian glacier is ~ 550 km in radius and upthrust at an exponentially decreasing rate near its center (Argunov River), with  $\tau = 4400 \text{ yrs}$ . For such a large land

$$\alpha = 1$$

$$k = \frac{1.2}{550 \text{ km}} = 2.18 \times 10^{-3} \text{ km}^{-1}$$

$$\eta = \frac{\alpha \rho g \tau}{2k} = \frac{(1)(3170)(10)(4400 \times 3.15 \times 10^7)}{(2)(2.18 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^{-1})}$$

$$= 1 \times 10^{21} \text{ Pa} \cdot \text{s}$$

$$z_{80\%} = \frac{(3)(550)}{1.2} = 1375 \text{ km}$$

### c. Large scale breach

The 4th set of figures show the uplift in North America.  $R = 1650$ ,  $\tau = 2500$  yrs. Then

$$\frac{\eta_{\text{canada}}}{\eta_{\text{fennosc}}} = \frac{\tau_{\text{canada}}}{\tau_{\text{fennosc}}} \frac{R_{\text{canada}}}{R_{\text{fennosc}}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \eta_{\text{canada}} &= 10^{\frac{21}{\text{Pa}\cdot\text{s}}} \left( \frac{2500}{4400} \right) \left( \frac{1650}{550} \right) \\ &= 1.7 \times 10^{\frac{21}{\text{Pa}\cdot\text{s}}} \end{aligned}$$

$$z_{80\%} = \frac{3 \cdot 1650}{1.2} = 4123 \text{ km} = \text{whole mouth}$$

The ocean basins ( $R \sim 3000$  km) must respond with  $\tau \gtrsim 2000$  yrs to avoid Holocene high sea level on the continental margins (which are not observed).

$$\eta_{\text{ocean basin}} = 10^{\frac{21}{\text{Pa}\cdot\text{s}}} \left( \frac{2000}{4400} \right) \left( \frac{3000}{550} \right) = 2.5 \times 10^{\frac{21}{\text{Pa}\cdot\text{s}}}$$

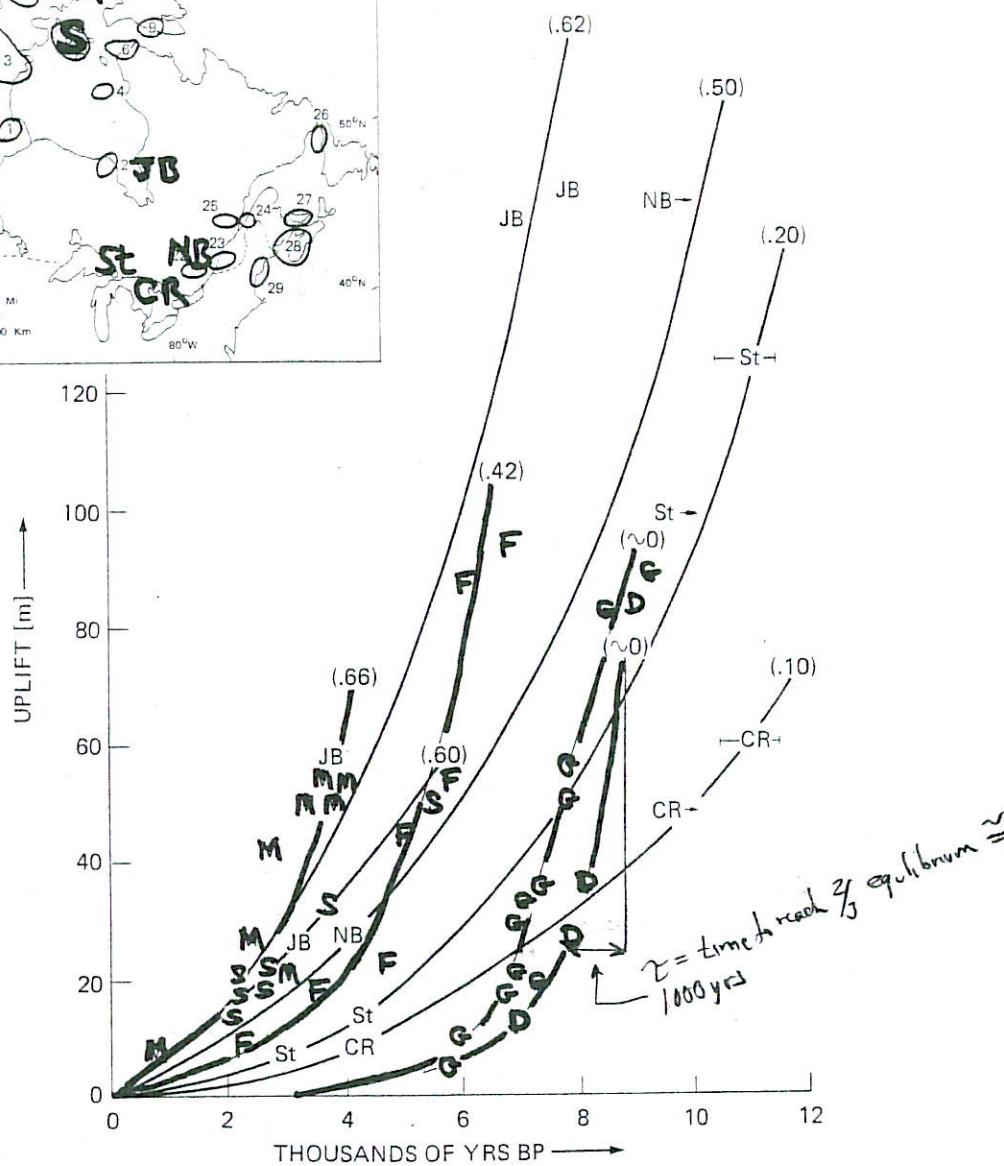
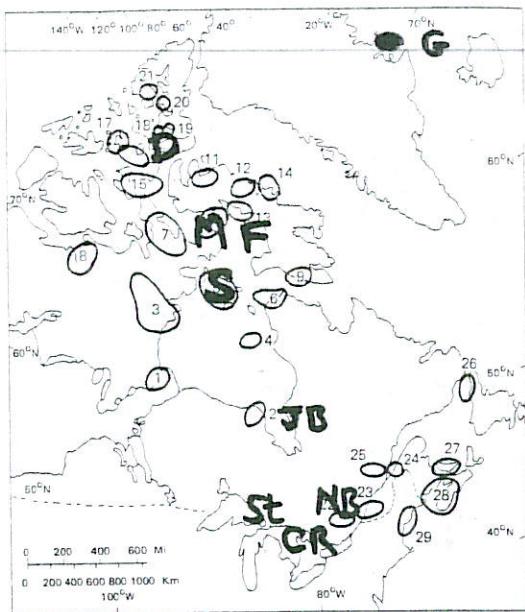
$$z_{80\%} = \frac{3 \cdot 3000}{1.2} = \text{whole mouth!}$$

The  $P_2$  bulge must relax with  $\tau < 1500$  yrs  
to be compatible with eclipse data.

### 3. Summary

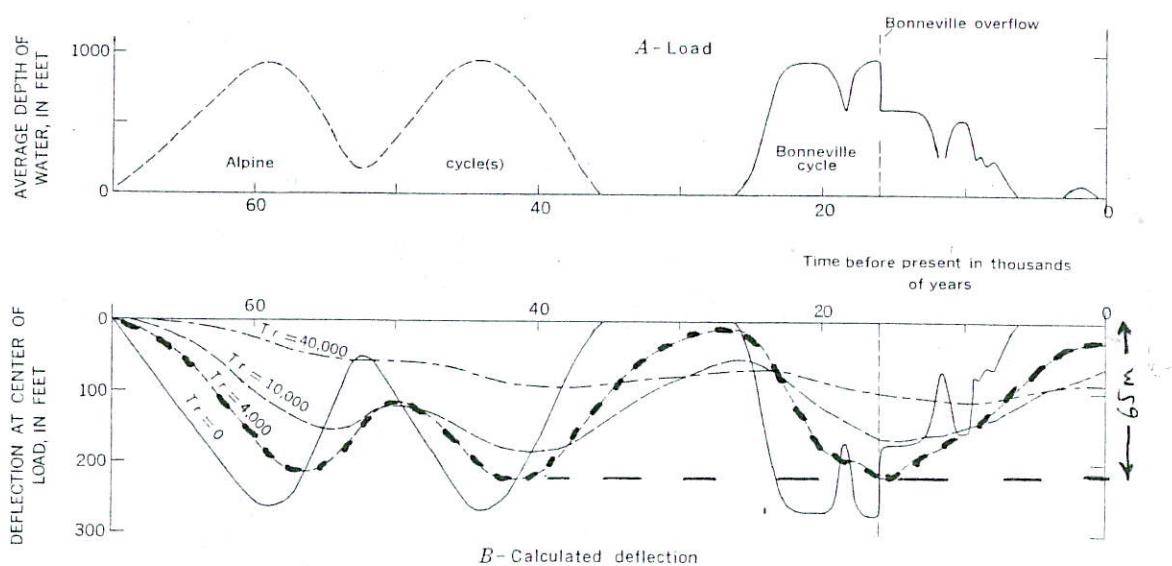
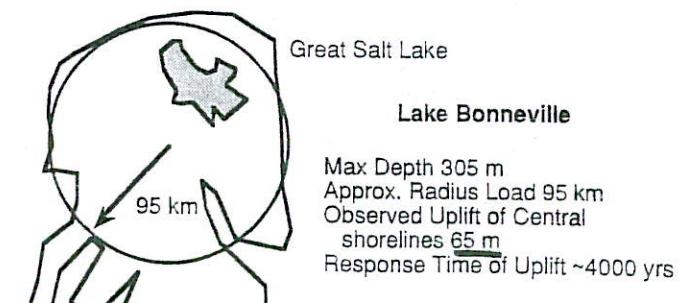
Location	$\tau$ [yr]	Scale [km]	$n$ [Pa.s]	$\tau_{80\%}$ [km]	$\alpha$
Greenland	1000	$L=60$	$3.5 \times 10^{19}$	100	2
Bonneville	4000	$R=95$	$1.6 \text{ to } 2.2 \times 10^{20}$	237	$1.42 \pm 1$
Fennoscandia	4400	$R=550$	$10^{21}$	1375	1
Canada	2500	$R=1650$	$1.7 \times 10^{21}$	4123	1
Ocean Basins	< 2000	$R=3000$	$2.5 \times 10^{21}$	7500	1

See plot of this data  
(cont figure)



**Figure IV-23.** Isostatic uplift curves of Arctic Canada. The emergence curves compiled by various workers have been converted to uplift curves using Morner's eustatic sea level curve. Locations are identified in Figure App. VII-6. (M) = E. Melville Penin. (Farrand, 1962); JB = James Bay (Farrand, 1962); S = Southampton (Farrand, 1962); NB = North Bay (Farrand, 1962); (F) = N. Fox Basin (West Baffin Island); (Andrews, 1966; Ives, 1964); St = Sault (Farrand, 1962); CR = Cape Rich (Farrand, 1962); (G) = Greenland (Laska, 1966); (D) = Devon Island (Müller and Barr, 1966). The present rate of uplift estimated from the initial part of each curve is given in m/100 yrs in parentheses at the top of each curve.

### Example of Lake Bonneville



**Figure IV-22.** The isostatic response of Lake Bonneville. The top chart shows the loading history of Lake Bonneville. The bottom figure shows that, unless central Bonneville can be characterized by a viscous decay constant of 4,000 years or less, it could not

have tracked the loading history closely enough to register a 65 m uplift today. The figures, reproduced with the author's permission, are from M. D. Crittenden, *Journal of Geophysical Research*, 68, p. 5525, © 1963 the American Geophysical Union.

Critenden, 1961

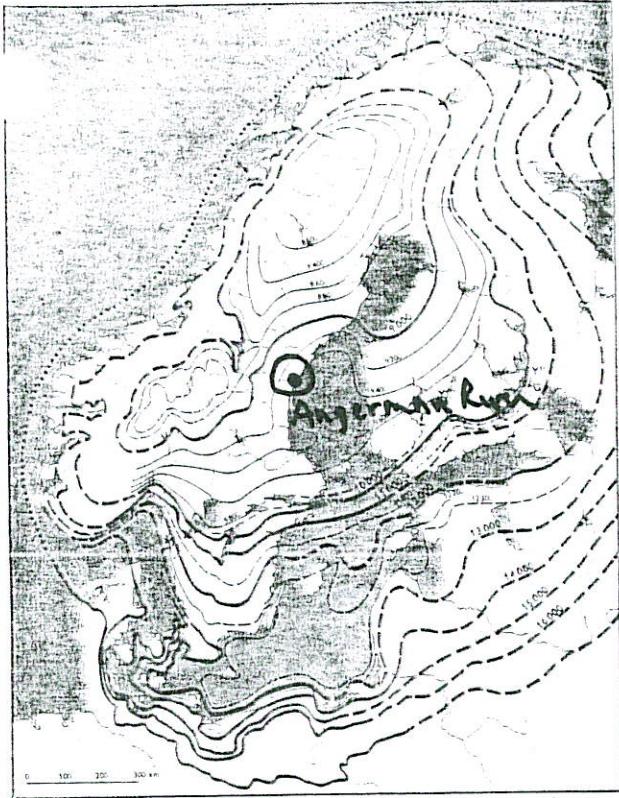
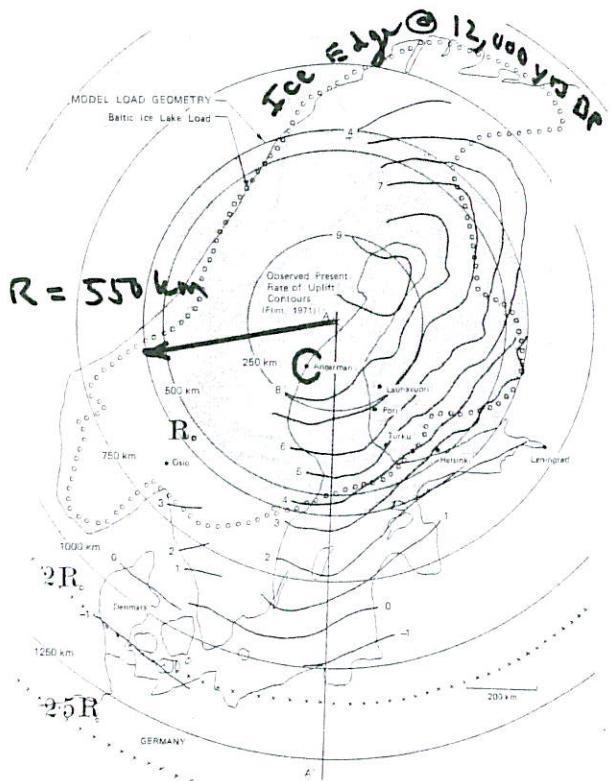


Figure IV-8. Isochron map showing, schematically in 1000 year lines, the retreat of the ice in Fennoscandia. The figure, reproduced with the publisher's permission, is from F. De Geer, *Geologiska Föreningens I. Stockholm Förhandlingar*, 76, p. 304, 1954, *Geologiska Föreningen*. Note: figure also appears in Woldstedt (1958).



Years before 2000 AD	Emergence curve (elevation of shore-lines above present sea level)	Land uplift relative to present (Emergence curve corrected by Morner's sea level curve)	Meters from isostatic equilibrium (uplift curve plus 30 m)
9200	280	310	340
9042	219	244	274
8839	194	212	242
7944	138.9	157.9	187.9
6741	104.1	113.1	143.1
6178	90.4	95.6	125.6
5713	80.2	84.0	114.0
5535	76.2	79.7	109.7
4354	54.4	55.9	85.9
4094	51.1	52.1	82.1
3918	48.2	48.2	78.2
3408	40.7	40.7	70.7
2365	26.3	26.3	56.3
1779	18.0	18.0	48.0
1317	12.2	12.2	42.2
939	8	8	38
539	2	2	32
87	0	0	30

Table IV-10. Uplift at mouth of Angerman River, Sweden. Data are taken from Lliboutry (1972, Table 1), but are originally from Liden (1938). The last column is plotted versus first in Figure IV-38.

#### E. VISCOSITY OF LOWER MANTLE

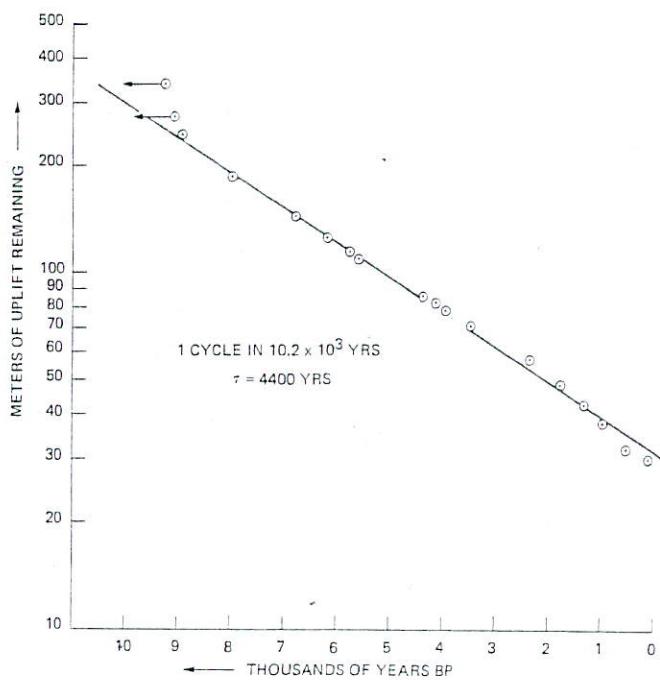


Figure IV-38. Demonstration that the uplift in central Fennoscandia can be well-characterized by an exponential function with a decay constant of 4400 years providing about 30 m of uplift are assumed to remain at present. Data are from Table IV-10. Chronology past 8000 BP may be in error due to missing varves in varve chronology (see Section IV.E.1, Figure IV-40). Arrows show suggested correction of 800 years (Stuiver, 1971).

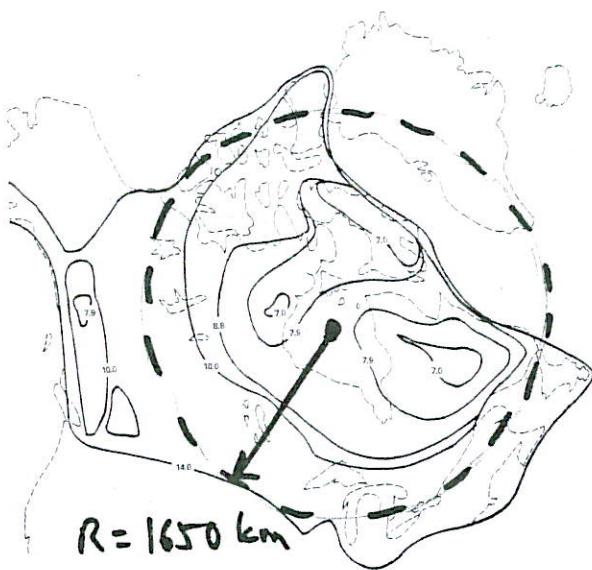


Figure IV-10. Isochron map showing the retreat of the last ice in North America sketched from a more detailed map by Prest (1969). Comparison to Figure IV-9 may suggest uncertainties in isochron determination. Isochrones are in thousands of radiocarbon years BP.

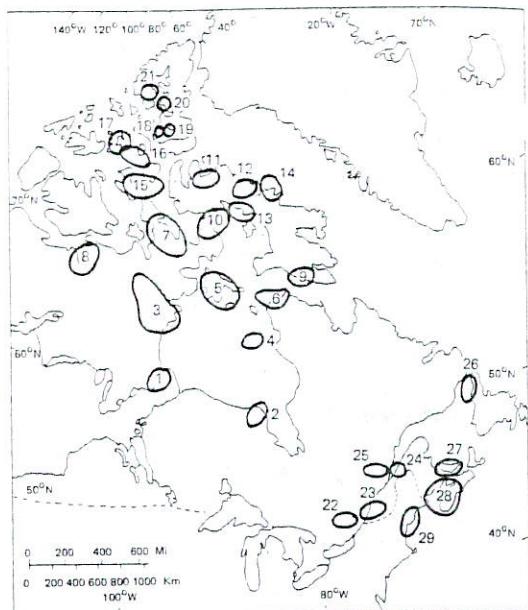


Figure App. VII-7. Areas for which emergence data have been compiled by Walcott (1972a). Data are tabulated in Table App. VII-3.

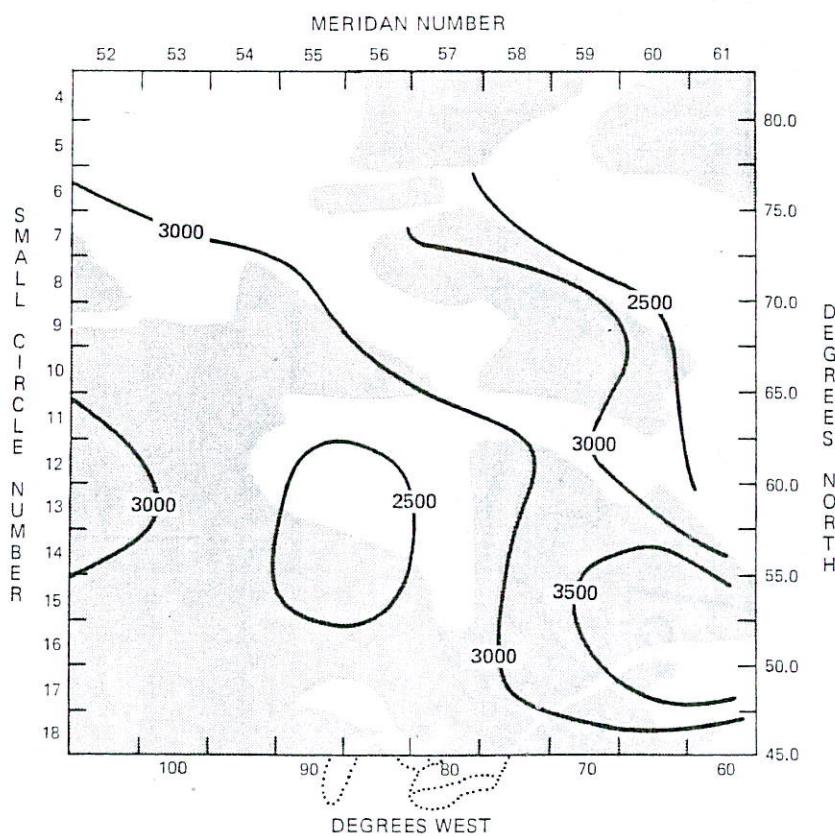
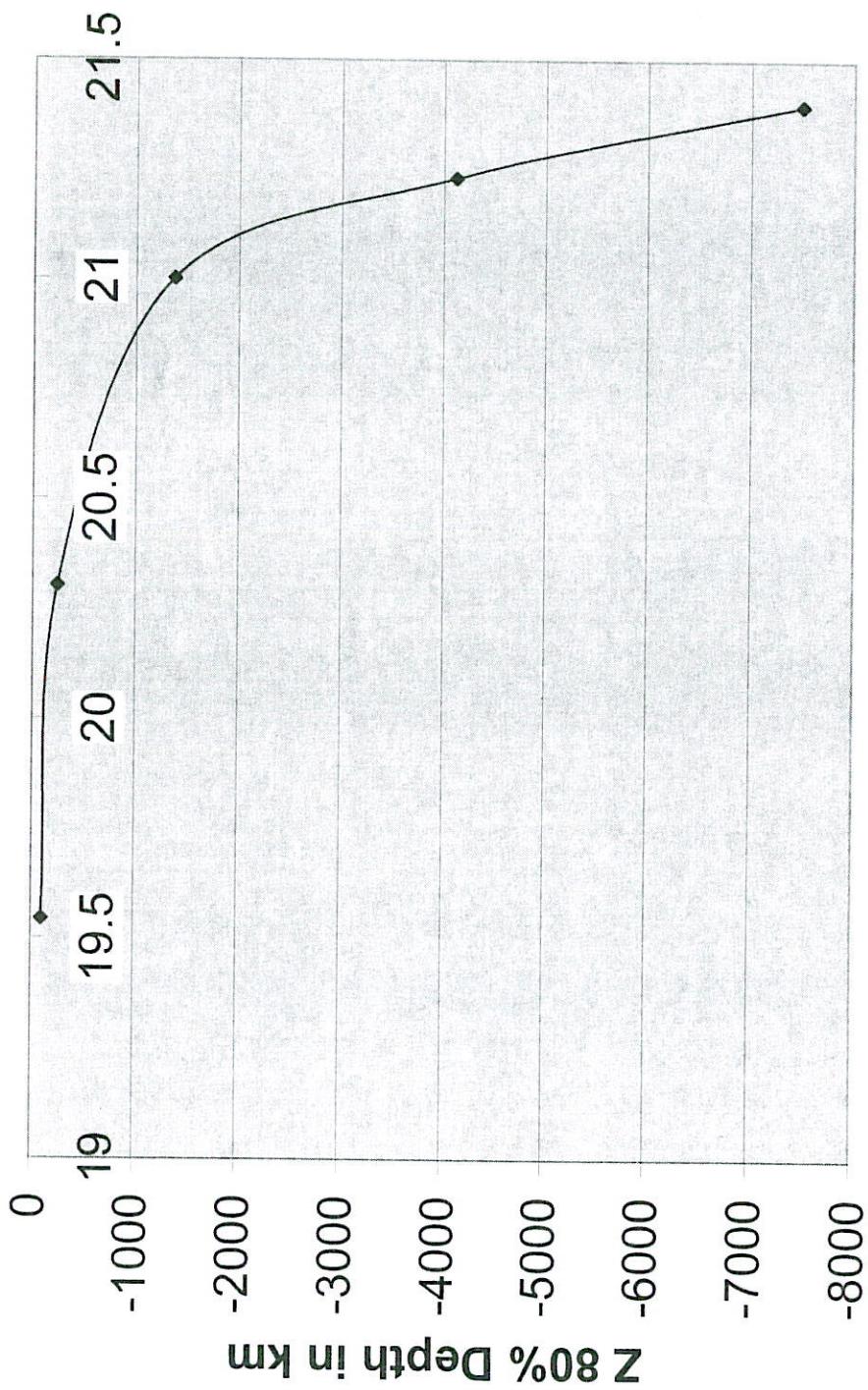


Figure IV-62. The spatial variation of decay constants characterizing the uplift of Model #1 in Canada between 7000 and -2000 years BP (model time). The least squares fit was made to seven uplift values at each location ( $T = 7, 6, 5, 4, 2, 0, -2$  thousand years BP).

## Viscosity vs Depth



log<sub>10</sub> viscosity in Pa s

