



The Plastic Regime

Earth Structure (2019)
(Processes in Structural Geology & Tectonics)

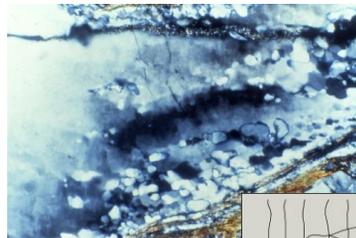
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2/18/2019 18:53

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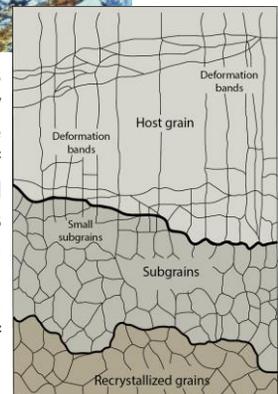
Rock Stories: Mineral Deformation

Deformed rocks are aggregates of deformed minerals. As temperature increases with depth in Earth, minerals progressively deform by crystal plastic processes, like dislocation creep and solid diffusion, instead of by fracturing.

Crystal plasticity produces characteristic microstructures in minerals that reflect the temperature and stress conditions of deformation. Often, deformed minerals are replaced by new, finer-grained (“recrystallized”) grains in solid-solid processes. For example, quartz and feldspar in deformed deeper crustal rocks or olivine in deformed mantle rock.



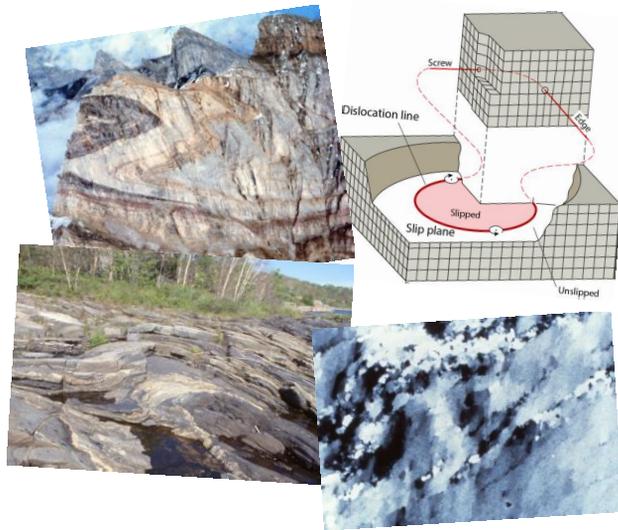
Recrystallized grains at a grain boundary form by progressive misorientation of subgrains. Internal host grain shows weakest deformation (undulose extinction), illustrated in quartzite. Width of view is ~4mm.



We Discuss ...

The Plastic Regime

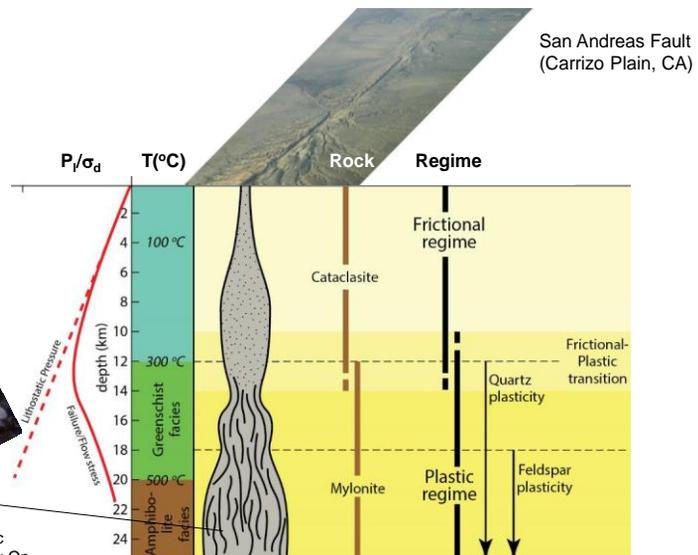
- Strain rate
- Viscosity
- Crystal defects
 - Point defects
 - Line defects (dislocations)
- Crystal plasticity
- Dislocation creep
 - Glide (\Rightarrow strain)
 - Climb (\Rightarrow strain rate)
- Microstructures
 - Twinning (\sim low T_h)
 - Recovery (\sim mid T_h)
 - Recrystallization (\sim med-high T_h)
- Diffusional processes and microstructures (\sim high T_h)
- Deformation mechanism maps
- Frictional/Plastic v Brittle/Ductile: Confusing terminology?



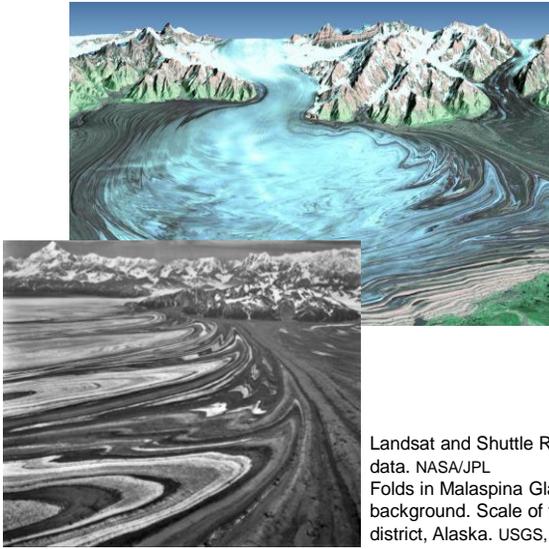
Generalized Fault Model, Conditions and Deformation Regimes



Parry Sound mylonitic shear zone (Grenville, On, Canada)



Plastic Deformation or Flow - Ice



Landsat and Shuttle Radar Topography Mission data. NASA/JPL
Folds in Malaspina Glacier; St. Elias Mountains in background. Scale of folding is in miles. Yakutat district, Alaska. USGS, August 25, 1969

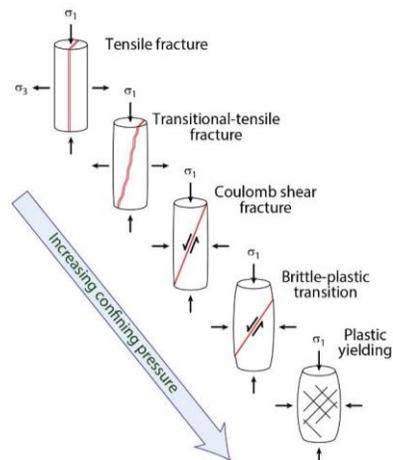
Frictional Regime vs. Plastic Regime

Frictional regime where deformation is localized and involves fractures.

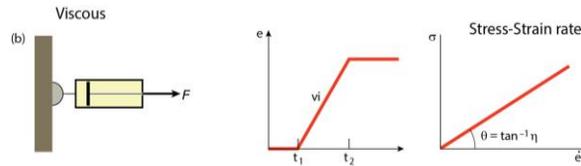
- normal stress and pressure dependent
- temperature and strain insensitive
- **shear stress is function of normal stress**

Plastic regime where deformation is distributed and involves crystal flow.

- normal stress and pressure insensitive
- temperature and strain dependent
- **shear stress is function of temperature and strain rate**



Strain with Time: Strain Rate



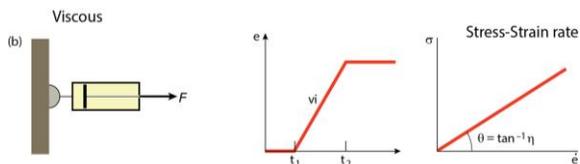
Strain rate ($\dot{\epsilon}$): time interval it takes to accumulate a certain amount of elongation: $\dot{\epsilon} = \mathbf{e}/t = \delta l/l_0 \cdot 1/t$; unit is 1/time (s^{-1})
 Shear strain rate: $\dot{\gamma} = 2\dot{\epsilon}$

Time interval for 30% strain	$\dot{\epsilon}$
1 day (86.4×10^3 s)	$3.5 \times 10^{-6}/s$
1 year (3.15×10^7 s)	$9.5 \times 10^{-9}/s$
1 m.y. (3.15×10^{13} s)	$9.5 \times 10^{-15}/s$

Example (SAF):
 810km strike-slip fault moving 350 km in 10 m.y. (~35 mm/y):
 $\dot{\epsilon} = (350/810)/(31.5 \times 10^{13}) = 1.3 \times 10^{-15}/s$ (1.3E-15/s)
 (this assumes continuous fault displacement, not movement pulses)

Note: Fingernail 1cm *growth* rate is not strain rate:
 $1/1.5/3.15E7 = 2E^{-8}/s$

Viscosity



Viscous property ("stickiness"): permanent strain (e.g., flowing water, ice, rocks):

$$\sigma = \eta \cdot \dot{\epsilon}$$

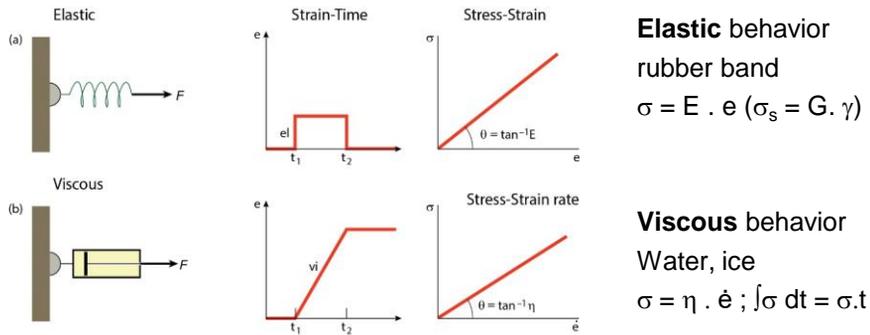
η (eta) is viscosity; unit is Pa.s
 $\dot{\epsilon}$ is strain rate (= \mathbf{e}/t); unit is 1/sec

So, viscosity is time-dependent and permanent (unlike elasticity, which is instantaneous and recoverable)

TABLE 5.5		REPRESENTATIVE VISCOSITIES (IN Pa · s)
Air		10^{-5}
Water		10^{-3}
Olive oil		10^{-1}
Honey		4
Glycerin		83
Lava		10^{-10}
Asphalt		10^5
Pitch		10^9
Ice		10^{12}
Glass		10^{14}
Rock salt		10^{17}
Sandstone slab		10^{18}
Asthenosphere (upper mantle)		10^{20} – 10^{21}
Lower mantle		10^{21} – 10^{22}

From several sources, including Turcotte and Schubert (1982).

Linear Rheologic Models



The Lithosphere ©PSG&T

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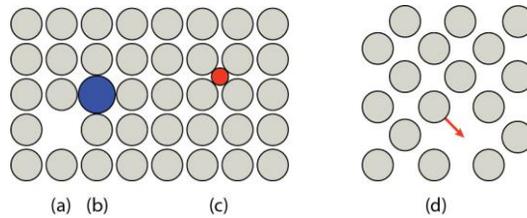
Mechanisms of Plastic Deformation

- a - Dislocation creep
(e.g., ice, middle and lower crust, upper mantle)
- b - Diffusional mass transfer
(e.g., melts, lower crust, mantle)

Nature's Imperfections: Crystal defects

Types of Defects:

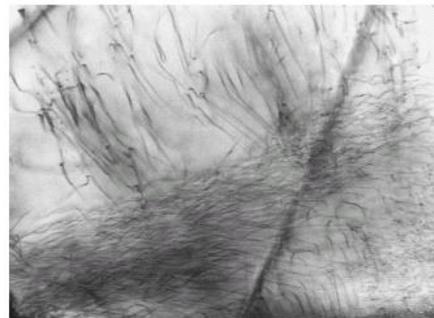
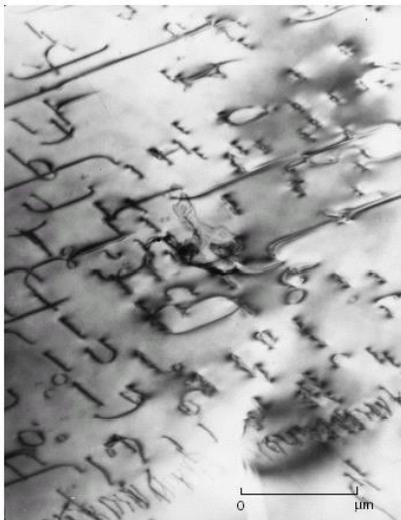
- Point defects
- Line defects (dislocations)
- Planar defects (stacking faults)



Point defects:

- vacancy,
- substitutional impurity,
- interstitial impurity,
- vacancy migration.

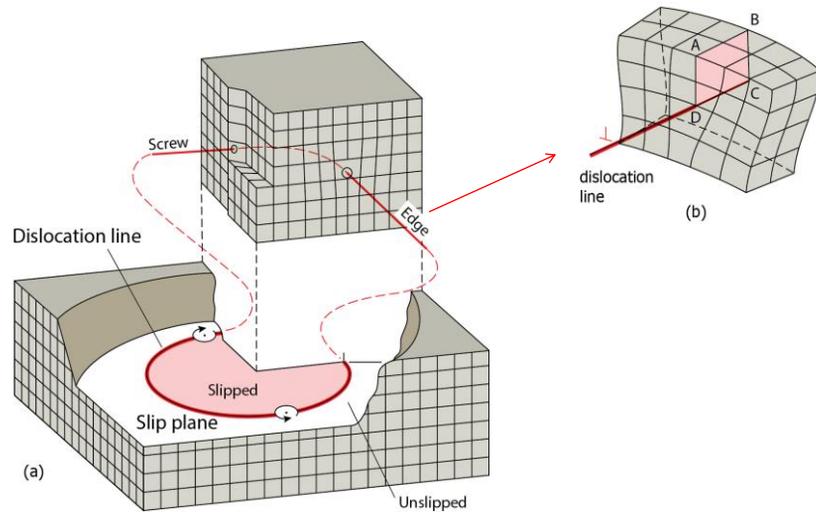
Line defects: Dislocations



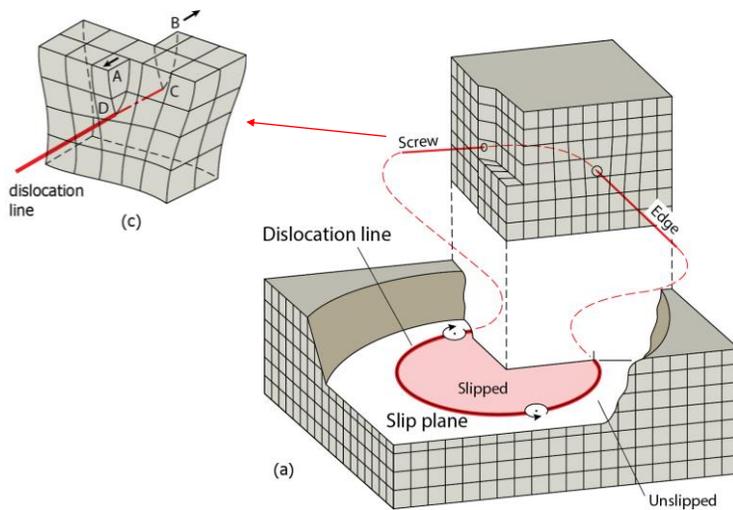
Width of view is ~200 μm

TEM (left) and imaging of dislocations by etching (above) in olivine.

Dislocation end-member geometries: Edge dislocation



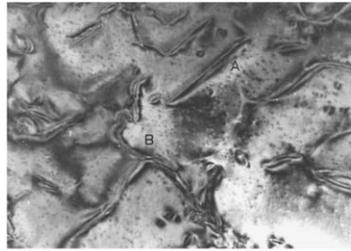
Dislocation end-member geometries: Screw dislocation



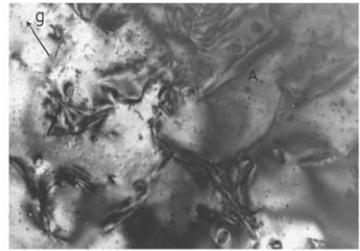
Imaging Dislocations



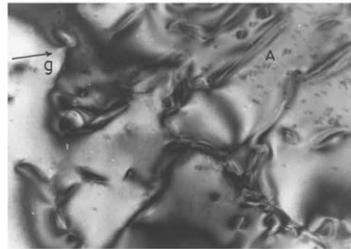
EMAL-STEM



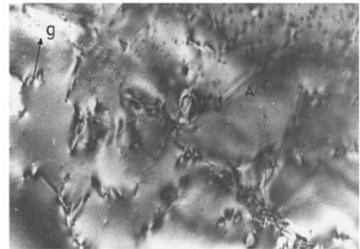
(a)



(b)

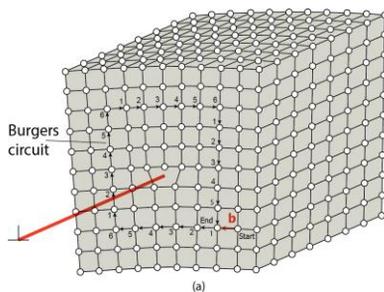


(c)

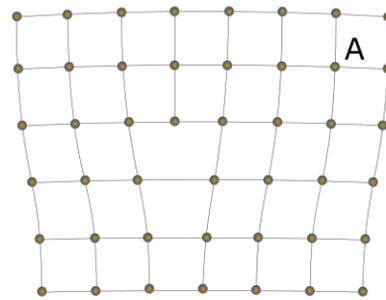


(d)

Dislocation Line (\mathbf{l}) and Burgers Vector (\mathbf{b})



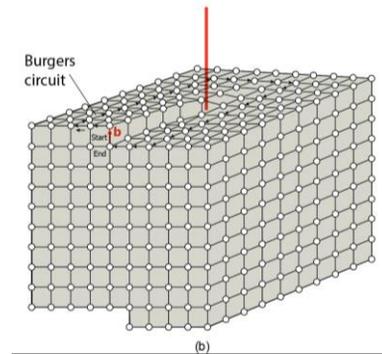
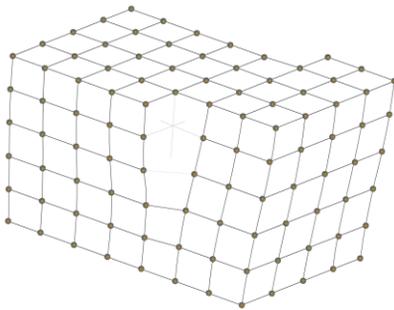
(a)



Fossen, 2016

The Burgers circuit around an edge dislocation (marked by \mathbf{l}).
 The closure mismatch for dislocations is Burgers vector, \mathbf{b} .
 In edge dislocation: $\mathbf{b} \perp \mathbf{l}$; in screw dislocation: $\mathbf{b} \parallel \mathbf{l}$.

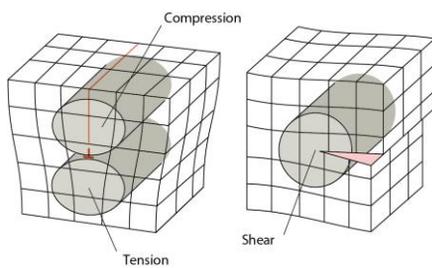
Dislocation Line (**l**) and Burgers Vector (**b**)



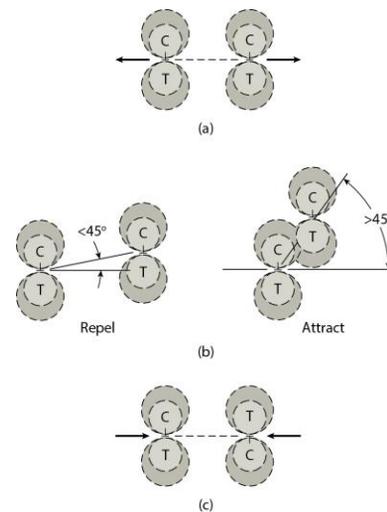
Fossen, 2016

The Burgers circuit in a screw dislocation.
 The closure mismatch for dislocations is Burgers vector, **b**.
 In edge dislocation: $\mathbf{b} \perp \mathbf{l}$; in screw dislocation: $\mathbf{b} \parallel \mathbf{l}$.

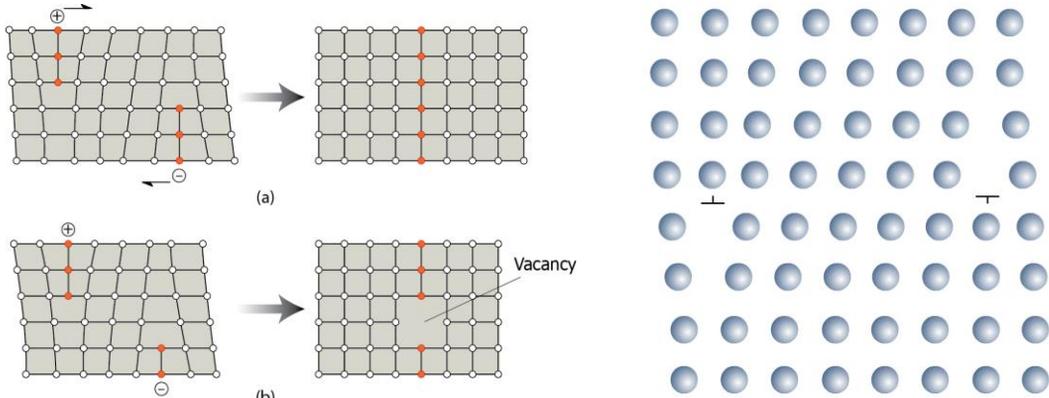
Stress Field and Interactions among Dislocations



Elastic stress $\approx G \cdot b/r$
 $G = \text{shear modulus} = \sigma_s/\gamma$
 $b = \text{Burgers vector}$
 $r = \text{distance}$

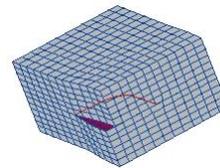
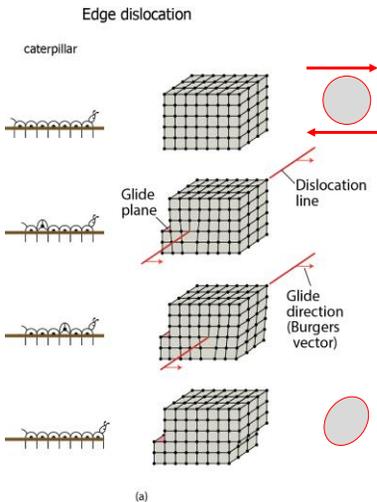


Dislocation Glide (cnt.)



Glide lowers distortional energy, but not necessarily toward perfect lattice.

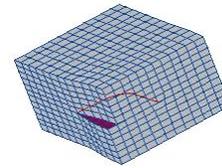
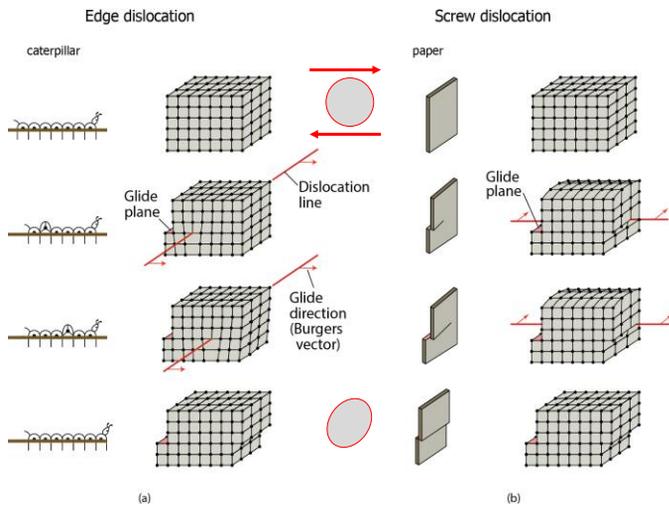
Dislocation Glide



Russ, 1997

- Driving energy for movement is lattice distortion.
- Low-T plasticity, as it requires breaking a few bonds.
- Dislocation glide is *strain producing* mechanism.

Dislocation Glide



Russ, 1997

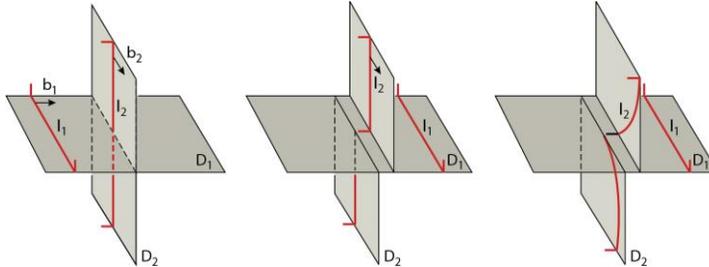
- Driving energy for movement is lattice distortion.
- Low-T plasticity, as it requires breaking a few bonds.
- Dislocation glide is *strain producing* mechanism.

FYI: Dominant Slip System in Common Minerals

TABLE 9.1 DOMINANT SLIP SYSTEMS IN COMMON ROCK-FORMING MINERALS		
Mineral	Glide plane and slip direction ^a	Comments
Calcite	{1018} <404 1>	e-twinning
	{1014} <2021>	r-twinning
	{1014} <2021>	r-glide
Dolomite	{0112} <2201> or <2021>	f-glide
	{1012} <1011>	f-twinning
	{0001} <2110>	c-glide
Mica	{0112} <2201> or <2021>	f-glide
	{001} <110>	basal {c} slip
Olivine	{001} [100]	
	{110} [001]	
Quartz	{0001} <1120>	basal {c} slip
	{1010} [0001]	prism {m} slip, along c
	{1010} <1120>	prism {m} slip, along a
	{1011} <1120>	rhomb {z} slip

^aMiller indices for equivalent glide planes from crystal symmetry are indicated by { }, specific glide planes are indicated by (), equivalent slip directions from crystal symmetry are indicated by < >; individual slip directions are indicated by [].
From: Wenk, 1995

Jogs and Interacting Dislocations

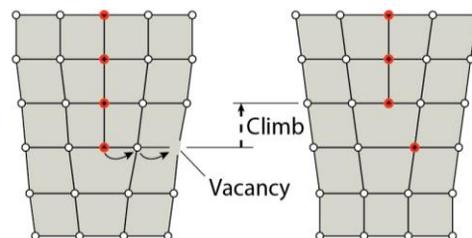


Locking (or tangled) dislocations explain property of “work hardening” or strengthening of materials (e.g., metal swords)

Dislocation Climb

Climb is medium to high temperature plasticity, as it requires breaking more atomic bonds than glide.

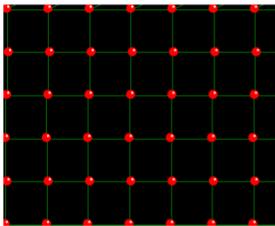
Glide is *strain producing*,
Climb (enabling glide) is *strain rate controlling*.



Origin of Dislocations

- Crystal growth
- Strain (Frank-Read source)

Edge dislocations Screw dislocations Frank Read sources Defect tangles

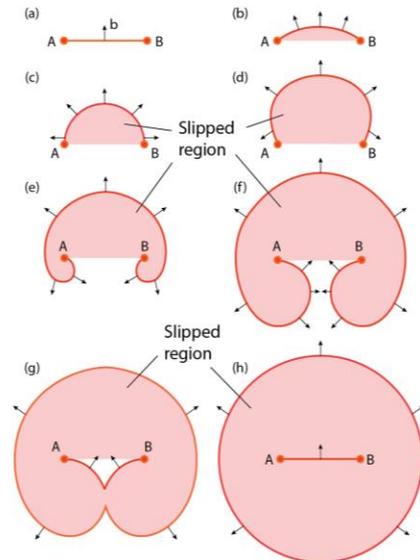


An edge dislocation bounds an extra half plane of atoms.

Edge dislocation glide is a Mode II mechanism with no loss of cohesion. Glide requires very high normalized stresses but is independent of temperature.

The vector required to close the lattice defect is called the **Burger's vector**. The slip vector is // to it in this case. The combination of slip vector and glide plane is called a **slip system**. For example, basal slip in <a> is common in quartz.

DePoar, 2002



Crystal Plasticity and Microstructures

Low-temperature plasticity ($0 < T_h < .3$)

- Twinning
- dislocation glide

Medium-temperature plasticity ($.3 < T_h < .7$)

- dislocation creep (= glide+climb)
 - recovery
 - recrystallization (dynamic and static)

High-temperature plasticity ($.7 < T_h < 1$)

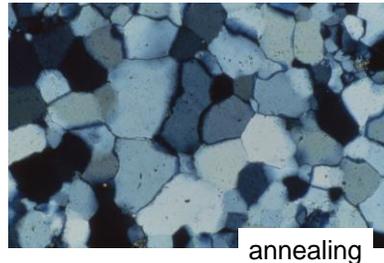
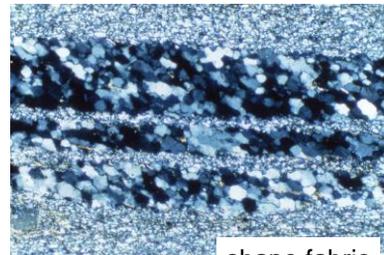
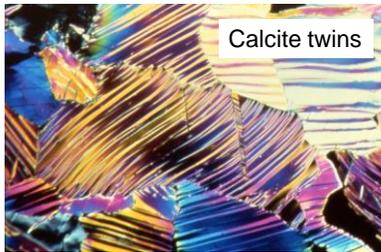
- superplasticity (GBSS)

T_h is homologous temperature: T/T_{melting} (in K).

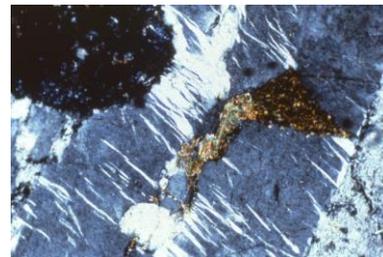
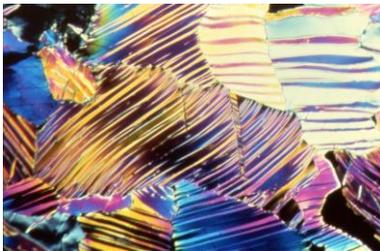
For example, quartz: T_{melting} is ~ 1975 K ($\sim 1700^\circ\text{C}$)

Qz plasticity starts at: $1975 \cdot 0.3 \approx 590\text{K}$ ($\approx 315^\circ\text{C}$; greenschist metamorphic facies)

Crystal Plastic Deformation Microstructures

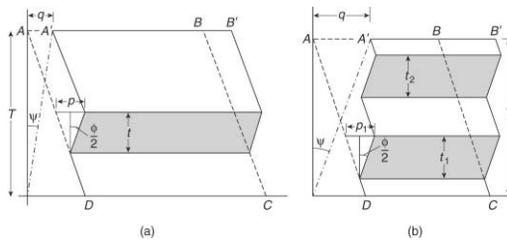
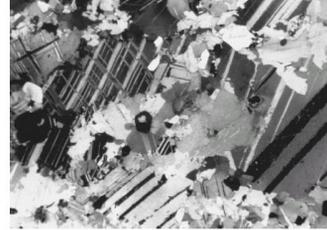
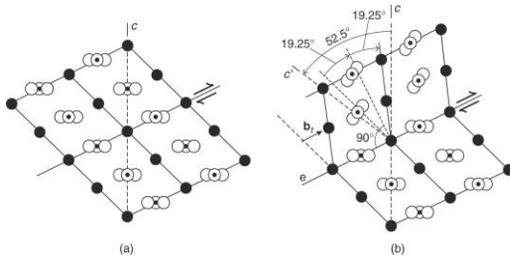


Mechanical Twinning (Low T plasticity)



Extra: calcite twinning analysis for differential stress and strain

Extra: Mechanical Twinning in Calcite and Strain



Calcite strain gauge:

$$\gamma = \frac{0.7}{T} \pi \sum_{i=1}^n t_i$$

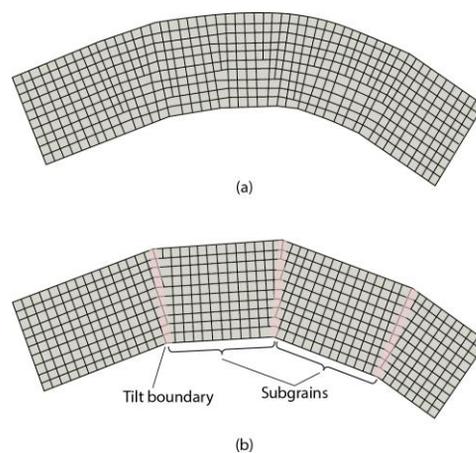
Recovery (low-medium T plasticity)

Temperature activated rearrangement of dislocations (by glide and climb) forms low-angle grain boundaries (or tilt walls), resulting in **subgrains**.

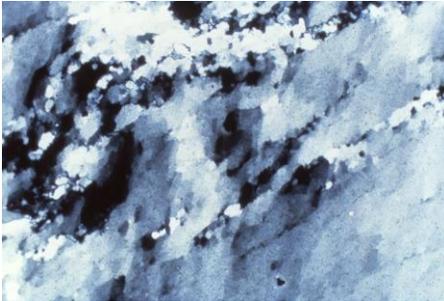
Glide is strain-producing mechanism
Climb is rate-controlling mechanisms

Dynamic (stressed material) vs. static (no stress) recovery.

Also called Exponential Creep:
 $\dot{\epsilon}$ (strain rate) $\propto \exp(\sigma)$



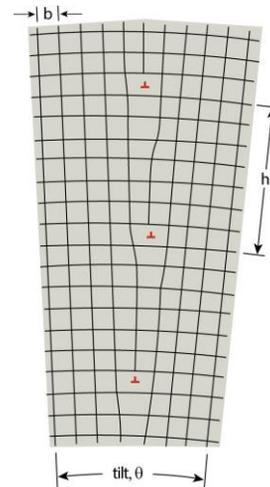
Subgrain (or Tilt) walls



Number of dislocations in tilt wall 0.5mm long, 2nm wide (area is $1 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mm}^2$)

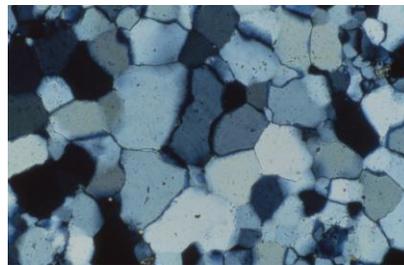
Burgers vector (\mathbf{b}) of 0.5nm and angular mismatch θ of 10°

Dislocation spacing (\mathbf{h}) of $\sim 2.9\text{nm}$ and, thus, $>170,000$ (!) dislocations, representing a dislocation density in this low-angle tilt wall of $1.7 \times 10^{11}/\text{mm}^2$.



Recrystallization (medium T plasticity)

Dislocation creep (glide and climb) that removes internal strain energy remaining after recovery, to form high-angle grain boundaries ($>10^\circ$ angular mismatch)



Characteristics:

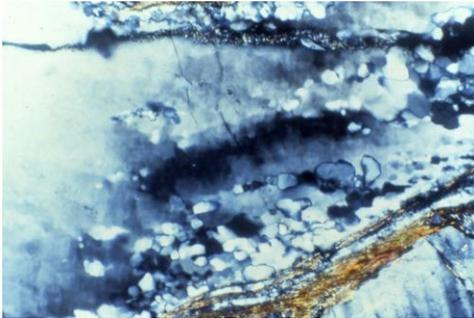
- strain-free grains (low internal strain energy)
- straight grain boundaries (low grain-boundary energy)
- 120° triple points ("foam texture")

Dynamic (stressed material) vs. static (no stress) recrystallization

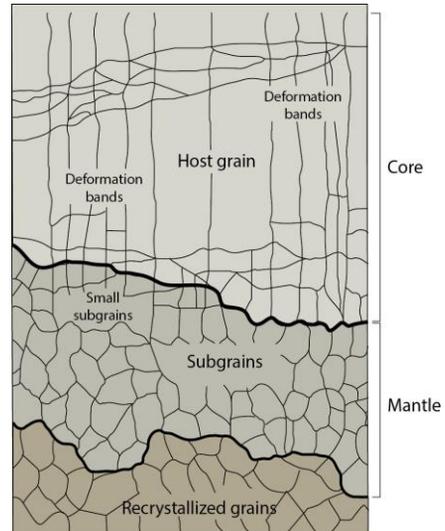
Power law creep: $\dot{\epsilon}$ (strain rate) $\propto \sigma^n$

Note: recrystallization in petrology represents changes in chemical potential among phases, whereas recrystallization in materials science involves changes in strain energy within the same phase.

Core-Mantle Microstructure



Core-mantle structure in Qtz



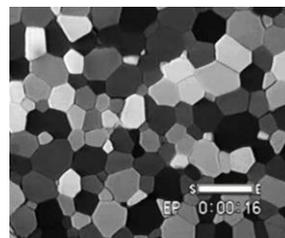
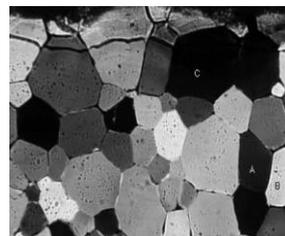
Dynamic Recrystallization vs. Static Recrystallization

Dynamic recrystallization:

- Relatively small grain size (see mylonites)
- Straight grain boundaries
- Fine “foam” texture
- Strain (or work) softening (cf. dislocation tangles and strain hardening)

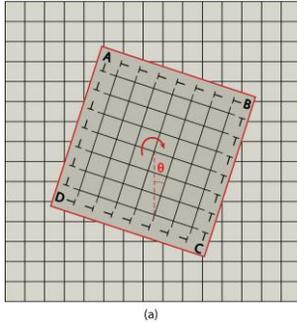
Static recrystallization (“annealing”):

- Relatively large grain size
- Straight grain boundaries
- Coarse “foam” texture



OCP experiments; W. Means

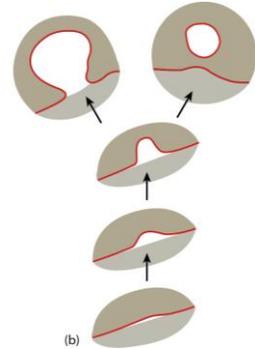
Recrystallization Mechanisms



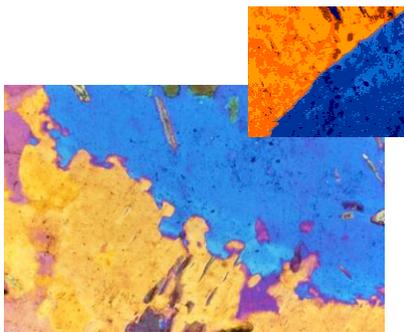
- Progressive subgrain misorientation (or subgrain rotation): **Rotation recrystallization** (a)

- Grain boundary bulging: lower energy grain moving into higher energy grain because of high dislocation density in high-energy grain: **Migration recrystallization** (b)

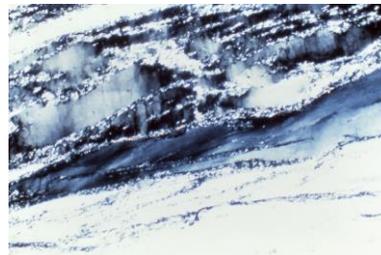
- Subgrain coalescence



Migration Recrystallization



grain boundary bulging in Feldspar



Grain boundary migration recrystallization in Quartz

OCP video

Stress Analysis: Paleopiezometry

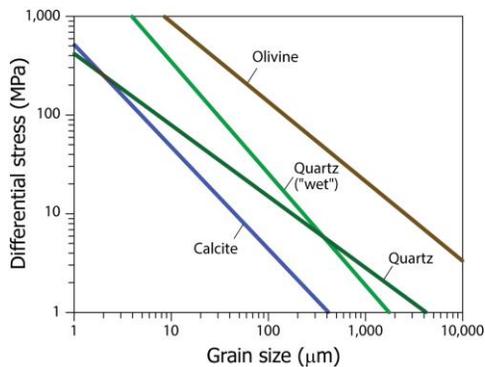


TABLE 9.4 EMPIRICALLY DERIVED PARAMETERS FOR RECRYSTALLIZED GRAIN SIZE-DIFFERENTIAL STRESS RELATIONSHIPS		
Mineral	A (in MPa)	i (with d in μm)
Calcite	467	1.01
Quartz	381	0.71
Quartz ["wet"]	4090	1.11
Olivine	4808	0.79

Sources: Mercier et al. (1977), Ross et al. (1980), Schmid et al. (1980), Ord and Christie (1984).

Recrystallized grain size is inversely proportional to differential stress: $\sigma_d = A \cdot d^{-i}$

A and i are empirically-derived parameters for a mineral

d is grain size in micrometers (μm).

E.g., mantle olivine grain size mm-cm, meaning differential stress is 3-20 MPa. Low σ_D !

Mechanisms of Plastic Deformation

a - Dislocation creep

(e.g., ice, middle and lower crust, upper mantle)

b - Diffusional mass transfer

(e.g., melts, lower crust, mantle)

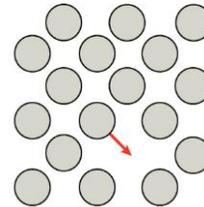
Diffusional Mass Transfer

“Dry” diffusion

atomic vibration is function of temperature
random jumps to vacancies in crystal
Requires high homologous temperature

Types:

- Grain-boundary diffusion (Coble creep)
- Volume diffusion (Nabarro-Herring creep)

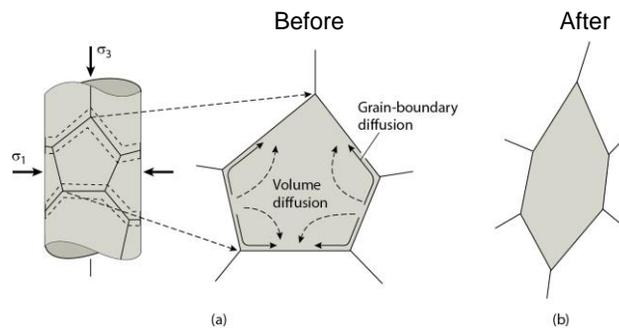


(d)

“Wet” diffusion (or pressure solution)

fluid at grain boundaries is dissolution and transporting agent
(static or moving fluid)
low homologous temperature

Types of Diffusional Mass Transfer



Grain-boundary diffusion (or Coble creep): $\dot{\epsilon} \sim D_b/d^2$

Volume diffusion (or Nabarro-Herring creep): $\dot{\epsilon} \sim D_v/d^3$

$\dot{\epsilon}$ is strain rate; D is diffusion coefficient; d is grain size

Note: pressure solution is fluid-assisted grain-boundary diffusion (“wet” diffusion) that occurs at low T (upper crust).

Superplasticity (high-T plasticity)

Grain-size sensitive creep that produces continuous shape change of individual grain ("stable microstructure").

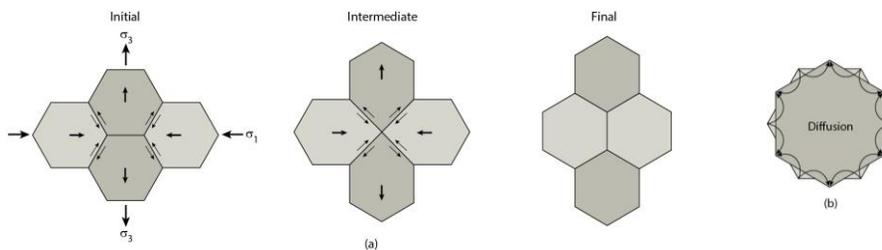
Deformation occurs by diffusion-assisted grain switching

Characteristics:

- small grain size
- no dimensional (or shape) fabric
- no crystallographic fabric



GBS in octachloropropane
Schedl and van der Pluijm, 1990



Governing Equations (Flow Laws) of Plasticity

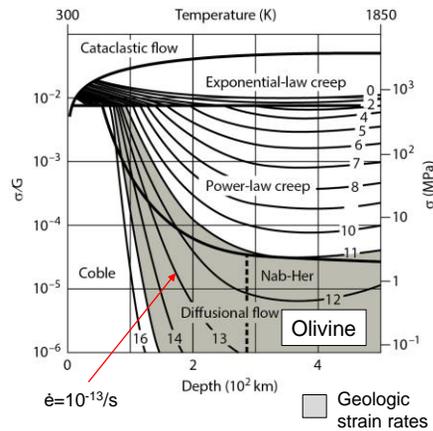
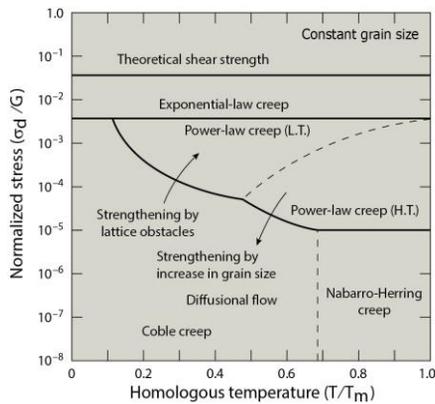
$$\dot{\epsilon} = A f(\sigma_d) \cdot \exp(-E^*/RT) \cdot f(d)$$

A is material constant, E* is activation energy, R is gas constant, T is temperature (in K), $f(\sigma_d)$ is differential stress function, $f(d)$ is grain-size function

- **Dislocation glide** (low- to medium-T creep):
function of stress is *exponential*: $\dot{\epsilon} = A \exp(\sigma_d) \exp(-E^*/RT)$
Also called *exponential creep*
- **Dislocation creep (glide+climb; medium-T creep)**:
function stress is raised to power n: $\dot{\epsilon} = A \sigma_d^n \exp(-E^*/RT)$
Also called *power law creep*, with n the *stress exponent* ($2 < n < 5$)
- **Diffusional creep** (high-T plasticity):
 $\dot{\epsilon} = D_0 d \exp(-E^*/RT) d^{-r}$
Also called *grain-size sensitive creep*, with $r=2-3$ (note: $r=1$ is linear viscous creep)

The deformation mechanism that produces the highest strain rate dominates in rocks and minerals.

Synthesis: Deformation Mechanism Maps



$$\dot{\epsilon} = A f(\sigma_d) \cdot \exp(-E^*/RT) \cdot f(d)$$

A deformation regime map solves the various flow equations (glide, creep, diffusion) for key parameters: strain rate $\dot{\epsilon}$, stress σ_d , temperature T , grain size d .

Confusing Terminology?: Frictional v Plastic Mechanisms

Mechanism - What processes dominate? Is material moving along a fault, representing *frictional sliding*, or, flowing, like ice glacier, by *plasticity*.

Behavior - How a material responds to stress? Does it localize deformation, like breaking of a plate, or distributed deformation, like shaping of soft clay. The terms *brittle* and *ductile* describe these behaviors, respectively.

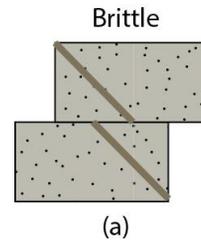
Regime - What are ambient conditions during deformation?

Is pressure dominant environmental parameter, resulting in frictional processes, like upper crustal faulting and sliding. Or, is temperature dominant, promoting crystal plastic and diffusional processes, like salt in upper crust, formation of mylonites in deeper crust, flow of mantle rocks.



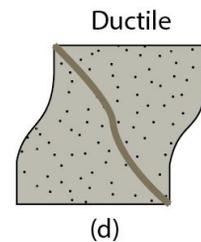
Confusing Terminology ?: Brittle v Ductile Behavior

Brittle structures: response of a solid material to stress during which it loses continuity (cohesion). Brittle behavior reflects role of fracture mechanisms where **strain is localized**. It occurs when stresses exceed a critical value, after a body has undergone elastic (+/- minor viscous) strain.

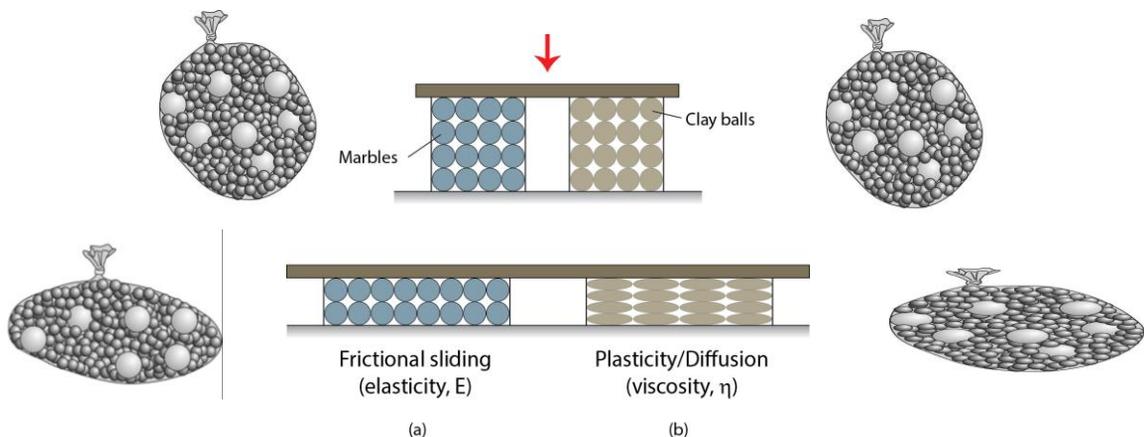


Ductile structures: response of a solid material to stress such that it flows like a fluid. In a material that deformed ductilely, **strain is distributed**, meaning that strain accumulates without formation of (mesoscopic) discontinuities.

Note: Ductile behavior can involve both brittle (cataclastic flow) and plastic deformation.



Ductile Strain: Behavior v Mechanism



The word ductile is variably used, as equivalent to plasticity in geophysics, and as distributed strain, *regardless of mechanism*, in structural geology.

We use deformation *behavior* for ductility and plasticity for deformation *mechanism*.