

Camp, V.E., 2019, Plume-modified mantle flow in the northern Basin and Range and southern Cascadia back-arc region since ca. 12 Ma: *Geology*, <https://doi.org/10.1130/G46144.1>

1 Summary of Flow Mantle-Models and an Approximation of Yellowstone Plume Volume Flux and Mantle
2 Flow Rate

3 The following is available online at <http://www.geosociety.org/datarepository/2019/>, or on request from
4 editing@geosociety.org: (1) Summary of mantle-flow models and comparative seismic data, including
5 Figures DR1 (modeling results of Lowry et al., 2000) and Figure DR2 (cross-sections of the regional low-
6 velocity upper-mantle feature of Wagner et al. (2010) and James et al. (2011), and (2) Approximation of
7 Yellowstone plume volume flux for source melting and mantle flow rate, including Figure DR3
8 (diagrammatic representation of plume tail melting).

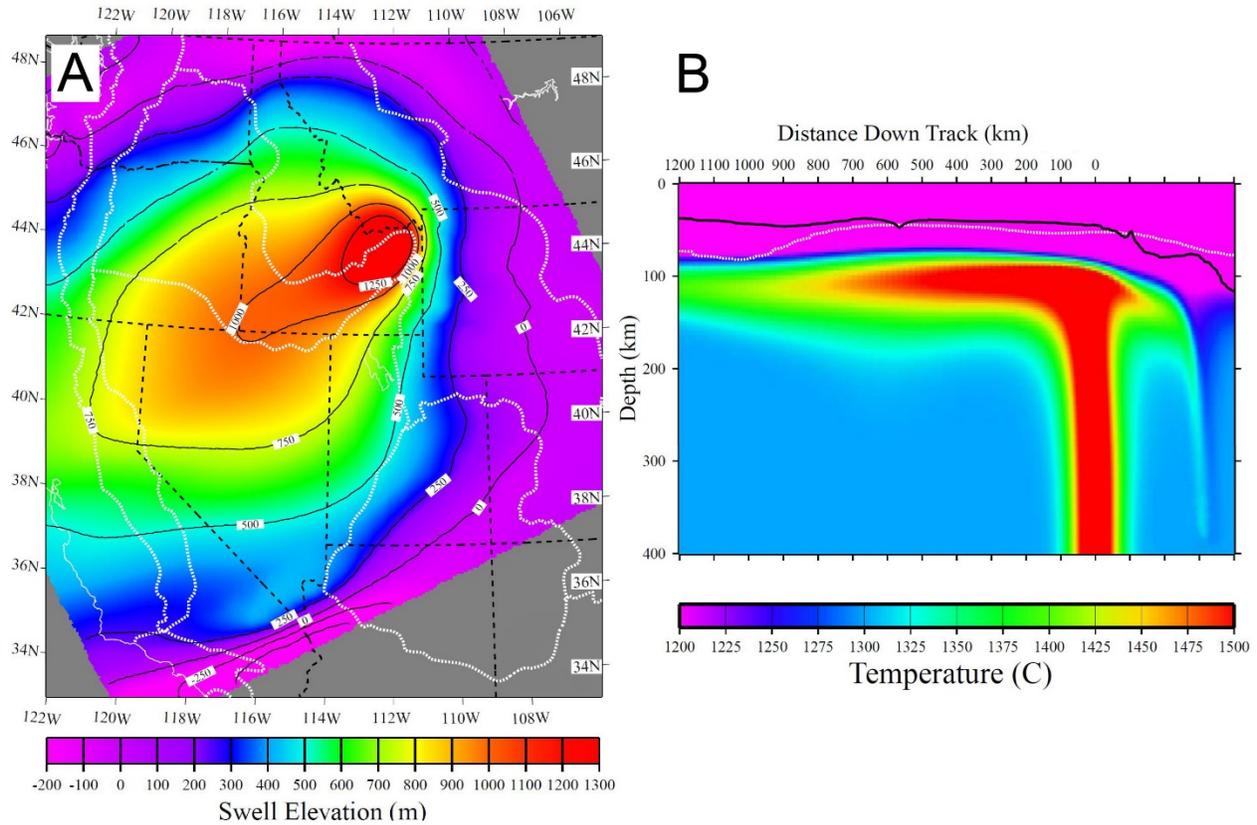
9 **1. Summary of Relevant Mantle-Flow Models for the Yellowstone Hotspot and Comparative Data**
10 **from Seismic Tomography.**

11 The recent model simulations of Leonard and Liu (2016) and Zhou et al. (2018) describe a putative
12 Yellowstone plume that is incapable of producing the voluminous magmatism associated with the
13 Columbia River Basalt Province and the Yellowstone-Snake River Plain (YSRP). Instead, Zhou et al.
14 (2018) attribute flood-basalt volcanism and the eastward migration of volcanism along the YSRP to the
15 eastward flow of shallow mantle, in the opposite direction of plate motion, driven by a sinking Farallon
16 slab beneath central-eastern United States. Such models that invoke a shallow-mantle genesis for
17 volcanism along the YSRP cannot readily explain the recent tomographic evidence of Nelson and Grand
18 (2018) for a Yellowstone plume source that descends to the core-mantle boundary, and they also have
19 difficulty explaining trace-element and isotopic data consistent with such a lower-mantle source (e.g.,
20 Wolff et al., 2013). The relatively high $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$ ratios for Columbia River basalt and YSRP basalt, for
21 example, are typically considered to be robust indicators of a deep mantle origin (Dodson et al., 1997;
22 Graham et al., 2009). Zhou et al. (2018) note that these high $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$ ratios could be explained by a more
23 dynamic Yellowstone plume if their model simulations were to include a more realistic rheology
24 involving deep-mantle materials, but they still maintain their preference for an inconsequential
25 Yellowstone plume. These model simulations for a shallow-mantle hotspot are innovative, consistent with
26 model constraints, and significant in providing a platform for future studies on mantle dynamics;

27 however, they also require one to accept that the current location of the Yellowstone plume directly
28 underlying the hotspot today is mere coincidence.

29 The models of Leonard and Liu (2016) and Zhou et al. (2018) are largely focused on subducting slabs as
30 the major control on upper-mantle flow. Lowry et al. (2000) provided an earlier and different approach
31 focused on synthesizing topography, gravity, seismic refraction velocity, and surface heat flow data sets
32 which they used to determine the dynamic elevation of the U.S. Cordillera; i.e., the topography derived
33 from buoyancy variations beneath the lithosphere. They determined that the largest of the dynamic
34 elevation anomalies (up to 2 km over a diameter of ~1000 km) incorporates the YSRP and northern Basin
35 and Range, consistent with the earlier findings of Parsons et al. (1994) and Saltus and Thompson (1995).

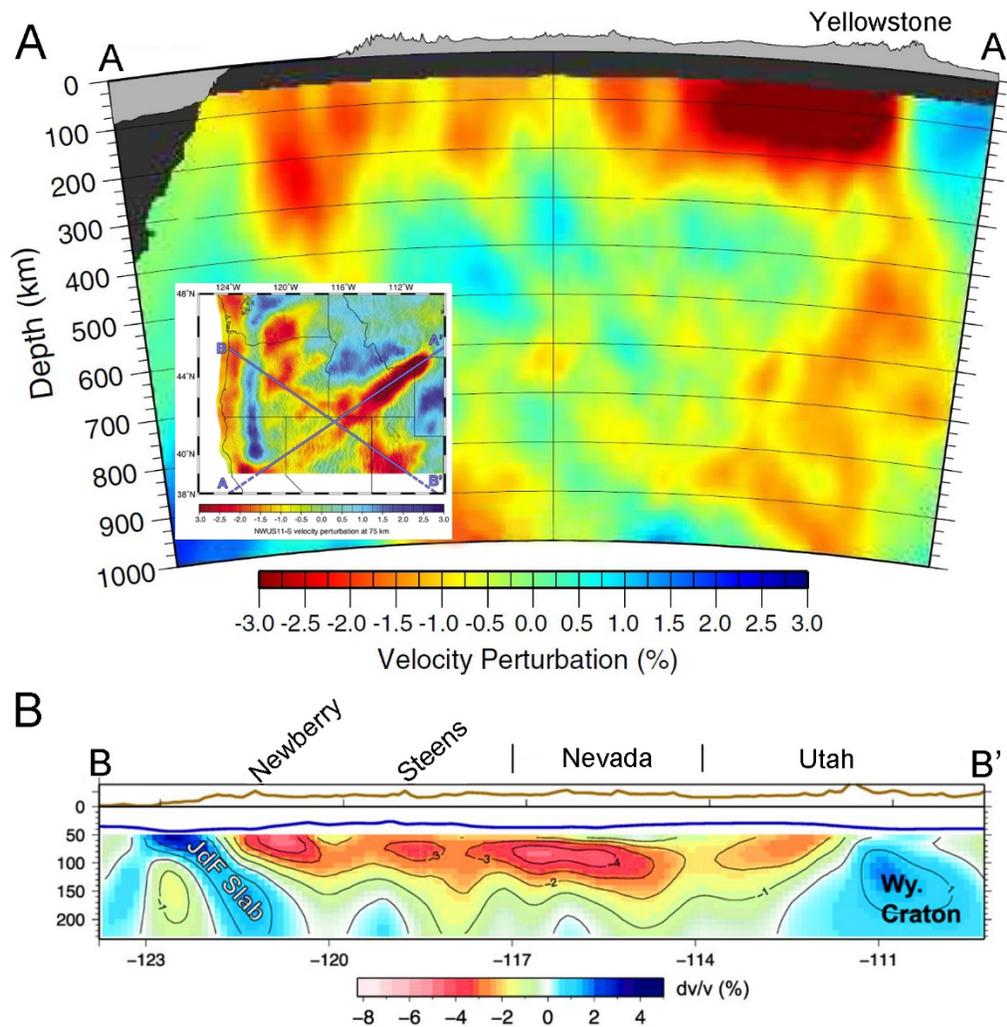
36 This large dynamic elevation anomaly defines the Yellowstone hotspot swell, which is similar to oceanic
37 hotspot swells that also display (1) symmetry about a hotspot track, (2) a ~1000 km cross-sectional width,
38 (3) elongation in the direction of plate motion, and (4) decreasing elevation downstream of the hotspot
39 location (e.g., Crough, 1983; Ribe and Christensen, 1994; Wolfe et al., 2009). These characteristics are
40 predicted in mantle-flow models, but they are also observed in mantle tomographic studies where buoyant
41 hot plume material is sheared by the motion of a viscous overlying plate (e.g., Ribe and Christensen,
42 1994, 1999; Sleep, 1996; Wolfe et al., 2009). The 3-D numerical model of Lowry et al. (2000) adequately
43 explains the dynamic uplift of the Yellowstone swell (Fig. DR1), and it is consistent with plume rise and
44 distortion of plume-modified mantle in the direction of plate motion, as is also observed beneath Hawaii
45 and elsewhere (e.g., Wolfe et al., 2009).



46

47 **Figure DR1.** Modeling results of Lowry et al. (2000). A. Numerical model of Yellowstone swell elevation for variable
 48 thickness lithosphere (determined by depth to 10^{21} Pa s viscosity) and 3×10^{-16} s^{-1} uniaxial extension southwest of the
 49 Yellowstone plume (from Lowry et al., 2000). B. Cross-section of temperature field along the track of the hotspot in the direction
 50 of plate motion (from Lowry et al., 2000). White line is 1000 °C isotherm derived from surface heatflow; black line is depth to
 51 the 10^{21} Pa s isopoise surface.

52 The model of Lowry et al. (2000) defines a thermal mantle structure for the Yellowstone hotspot (Fig.
 53 DR1B) that is remarkably similar to the regional layer of low-density mantle beneath southern Oregon,
 54 northern Nevada and southern Idaho, as resolved in a variety of seismic studies (e.g., Obrebski et al.,
 55 2010; Wagner et al., 2010; Long et al., 2012; James et al., 2011, Tian and Zhou, 2012). Seismic cross-
 56 sections across this low-density mantle are illustrated, for example, in Figure DR2 modified from James
 57 et al. (2011) and Wagner et al. (2010). The modeled feature (Fig. DR1B) and the seismically defined
 58 feature (Fig. DR2) are similar in depth, dimensions, orientation, and decreasing thermal intensity
 59 downstream to the southwest. Both the modeled and seismically defined features bend downward beneath
 60 Yellowstone into the plume conduit that connects the feature to a lower mantle source that appears to
 61 extend to the core-mantle boundary (Nelson and Grand, 2018).

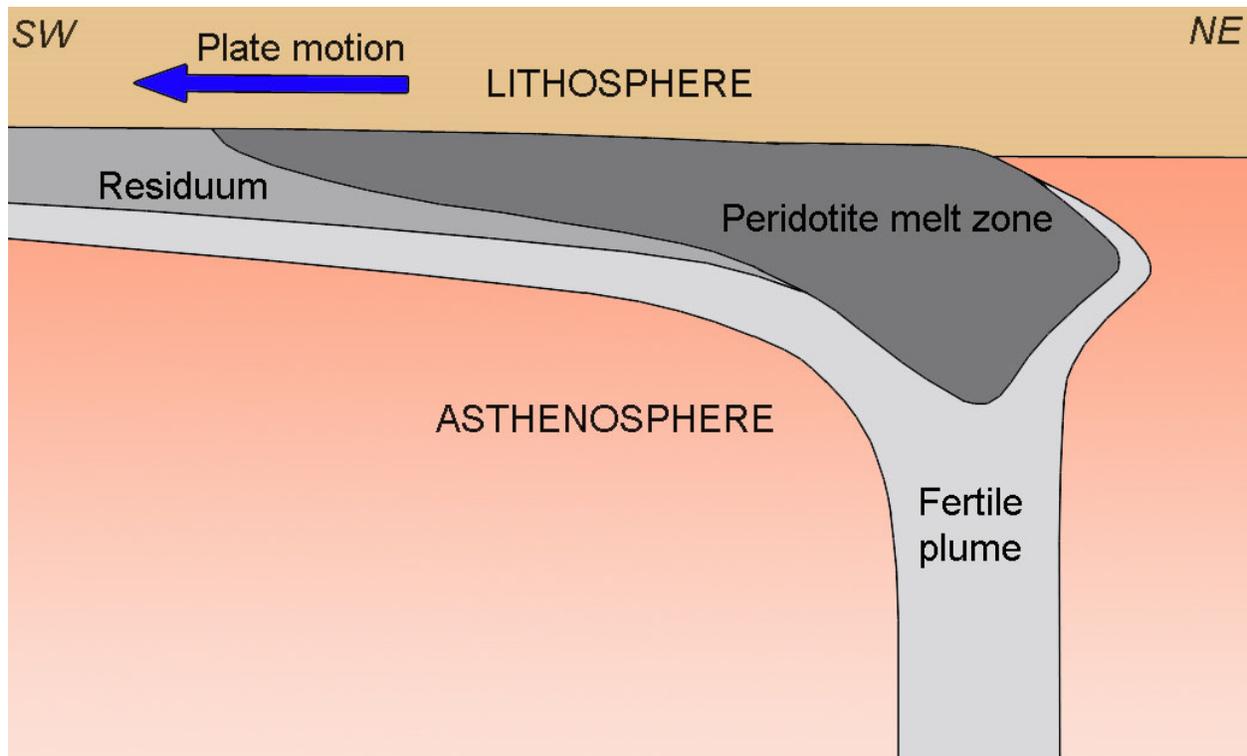


64 **Figure DR2.** Cross-sections of low-velocity anomaly. A. S-wave cross-section A-A' in the direction of plate motion,
 65 modified from James et al. (2011). Color saturation +/-3%. Inset showing cross-section locations for A-A' and B-B' is map
 66 view of S-wave speed perturbations at 75 km depth, modified from Long et al. (2012) using the tomographic model of James et
 67 al. (2011). B. S-wave velocity deviations along B-B', with velocity deviation contours in increments of 1%, modified from
 68 Wagner et al. (2010). Brown line is topographic surface; blue line is Moho depth directly above colored velocity deviations.

69 These similarities provide strong support for long-lived westward flow of plume material emanating from
 70 the lower-mantle conduit at least since ~12 Ma, and probably since ~16.5 Ma, with westward-decreasing
 71 thermal intensity and chemical fertility of plume-modified mantle resulting from thermomechanical
 72 erosion and entrainment of colder, depleted oceanic-type mantle underlying the northern Basin and Range
 73 and HLP provinces.

74 **2. Approximation of Yellowstone plume volume flux for source melting, and an estimate of the**
 75 **mantle-flow rate**

76 Hanan et al. (2008) use a mass-balance model of isotopic mixing to show that Snake River Plain tholeiites
77 were little affected by lithospheric pollution and that their isotopic compositions reflect a primary plume
78 source that comprises mass fractions >95% in the derivative lavas. A near constant supply of this fertile
79 source is required to produce a more-or-less steady state in the volume and composition of YSRP basalt
80 over time. Plume volume flux is therefore assumed to keep pace or surpass the pace of plume material
81 being dragged to the SW in the direction of plate motion (Fig. DR3); this assumption was also noted by
82 Schutt and Dueker (2008) in their calculation of buoyancy flux for the Yellowstone plume.



83

84 **Fig. DR3.** Diagrammatic representation of plume-tail melting modified from the descriptions of Wyllie (1988), Ribe and
85 Christensen (1999), and Smith et al. (2009). Rising plume material is dragged to the left, in the direction of asthenospheric flow
86 and plate motion. The melt fraction of fertile lherzolitic peridotite is greatest near the plume axis where temperatures are hotter,
87 leaving a residuum of more refractory harzburgitic peridotite “down wind” of the plume tail.

88 Volume flux for the basaltic source is estimated here from the rate of mafic melt production and the
89 degree of partial melting. McCurry and Rodgers (2009) use an isotopic mass-balance model to calculate a
90 volume of $\sim 340,000 \text{ km}^3$ of mantle-derived melt that has been added to the YSRP crust between 11 and 4
91 Ma. This equates to a melt accumulation rate of $48,571 \text{ km}^3/\text{Ma}$. Partial melting models using 18
92 incompatible trace elements indicate that the central Snake River Plain basalts were generated by 5%–
93 10% partial melting (Shervais et al., 2005), similar to the melting range at Kilauea (Piestruszka and
94 Garcia, 1999) and other young tholeiitic basalt provinces (e.g., Herzberg and Gazel, 2009). Melting from
95 5%–10% at a constant rate of source replacement generates a range in volume flux from $971,420 \text{ km}^3/\text{Ma}$

96 to 485,710 km³/Ma, respectively (or, from 30.78 m³ s⁻¹ to 15.39 m³ s⁻¹). The total plume flux, however,
97 must also consider the volume flux of fertile mantle beneath the melt zone (Fig. DR3); the latter is
98 unknown but could be significant. The most conservative volume flux value of 15.39 m³ s⁻¹ assumes the
99 highest degree of partial melting (10%) without consideration of the additional flux of plume material
100 beneath the melt zone. Realistically, the actual plume flux is likely to be in somewhere in excess of this
101 minimum value, perhaps exceeding 30 m³ s⁻¹.

102 A minimum value for the horizontal mantle-flow rate in the low-velocity channel beneath the YSRP can
103 be estimated by dividing the minimum volume flux (15.39 m³ s⁻¹ = 485,710 km³/Ma) by the cross-
104 sectional area of the channel. Stachnick et al. (2008) measured the channel cross-section to be 150 km
105 wide and 55 km high at a distance ~250 km SW of the plume conduit. Using rectangular cross-section of
106 these dimensions generates an area of 8250 km² which yields an asthenosphere flow rate estimate of ~59
107 km/Ma. This minimum mantle-flow rate is faster than plate motion (26 km/Ma; Gripp and Gordon, 2002),
108 but similar to the mantle flow rate of 53 km/Ma determined from vector analysis beneath SE Oregon
109 (Ford et al., 2013).

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