

# Geology

## Creep cavitation bands control porosity and fluid flow in lower crustal shear zones

--Manuscript Draft--

<b>Manuscript Number:</b>	G36307R1
<b>Full Title:</b>	Creep cavitation bands control porosity and fluid flow in lower crustal shear zones
<b>Short Title:</b>	Creep cavitation bands in lower crustal shear zones
<b>Article Type:</b>	Article
<b>Keywords:</b>	creep cavitation; diffusion creep; grain boundary sliding; fluid flow; shear zone rheology; lower crust.
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<b>Manuscript Region of Origin:</b>	NORWAY
<b>Abstract:</b>	<p>Shear zones channelize fluid flow in the Earth's crust. However, little is known about deep crustal fluid migration and how fluids are channelized and distributed in a deforming lower crustal shear zone. This study investigates the deformation mechanisms, fluid-rock interaction and development of porosity in a monzonite ultramylonite from Lofoten, northern Norway. The rock was deformed and transformed into an ultramylonite under lower crustal conditions (<math>T=700-730^{\circ}\text{C}</math>, <math>P=0.65-0.8\text{ GPa}</math>). The ultramylonite consists of feldspathic layers and domains of amphibole + quartz + calcite, which result from hydration reactions of magmatic clinopyroxene. The average grain size in both domains is <math>&lt;25\text{ }\mu\text{m}</math>. Microstructural observations and EBSD analysis are consistent with diffusion creep as the dominant deformation mechanism in both domains. Festoons of isolated quartz grains define C'-type shear bands in feldspathic layers. These quartz grains do not show a crystallographic preferred orientation. The alignment of quartz grains is parallel to the preferred elongation of pores in the ultramylonites, as evidenced from synchrotron X-ray microtomography. Such C'-type shear bands are interpreted as creep cavitation bands resulting from diffusion creep deformation associated with grain boundary sliding. Mass-balance calculation indicates a 2% volume increase during the protolith-ultramylonite transformation, which is consistent with synkinematic formation of creep cavities producing dilatancy. Thus, this study presents evidence that creep cavitation bands may control deep crustal porosity and fluid flow. Nucleation of new phases in creep cavitation bands inhibits grain growth and enhances the activity of grain-size sensitive creep, thereby stabilising strain localization in the polymineralic ultramylonites.</p>
<b>Response to Reviewers:</b>	Please see attached cover letter. Best wishes, Luca Menegon

# 1 Creep cavitation bands control porosity and fluid flow in lower 2 crustal shear zones

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## 9 **ABSTRACT**

10 Shear zones channelize fluid flow in the Earth's crust. However, little is known about  
11 deep crustal fluid migration and how fluids are channelized and distributed in a deforming lower  
12 crustal shear zone. This study investigates the deformation mechanisms, fluid-rock interaction  
13 and development of porosity in a monzonite ultramylonite from Lofoten, northern Norway. The  
14 rock was deformed and transformed into an ultramylonite under lower crustal conditions  
15 ( $T=700-730^{\circ}\text{C}$ ,  $P=0.65-0.8\text{ GPa}$ ). The ultramylonite consists of feldspathic layers and domains  
16 of amphibole + quartz + calcite, which result from hydration reactions of magmatic  
17 clinopyroxene. The average grain size in both domains is  $<25\ \mu\text{m}$ . Microstructural observations  
18 and EBSD analysis are consistent with diffusion creep as the dominant deformation mechanism  
19 in both domains. Festoons of isolated quartz grains define C'-type shear bands in feldspathic  
20 layers. These quartz grains do not show a crystallographic preferred orientation. The alignment  
21 of quartz grains is parallel to the preferred elongation of pores in the ultramylonites, as evidenced  
22 from synchrotron X-ray microtomography. Such C'-type shear bands are interpreted as creep

23 cavitation bands resulting from diffusion creep deformation associated with grain boundary  
24 sliding. Mass-balance calculation indicates a 2% volume increase during the protolith-  
25 ultramylonite transformation, which is consistent with synkinematic formation of creep cavities  
26 producing dilatancy. Thus, this study presents evidence that creep cavitation bands may control  
27 deep crustal porosity and fluid flow. Nucleation of new phases in creep cavitation bands inhibits  
28 grain growth and enhances the activity of grain-size sensitive creep, thereby stabilising strain  
29 localization in the polymineralic ultramylonites.

## 30 **INTRODUCTION**

31 Many studies document that metamorphic reactions and viscous deformation in the lower  
32 crust are triggered by grain-size reduction and fluid infiltration (e.g., Austrheim, 1987; Rutter  
33 and Brodie 1992; Getsinger et al., 2013). A very fine grain size of reaction products may activate  
34 grain size sensitive creep, which leads to a marked weakening of the rock and to strain  
35 localization (Rutter and Brodie 1992; Pearce et al., 2011). The feedback between grain size  
36 reduction, fluid flow, and the activity of different deformation mechanisms is critical for the  
37 understanding of the rheology of shear zones and the processes leading to strain localization.

38 Deformation-enhanced fluid flow and development of synkinematic porosity in mid-  
39 crustal shear zones rocks has been a subject of numerous studies (e.g. Mancktelow et al., 1998;  
40 Fousseis et al., 2009). Fluid transfer has been linked to syndeformational dynamic porosity  
41 generated by creep cavitation during viscous grain boundary sliding (e.g., the granular fluid  
42 pump model: Fousseis et al., 2009). Fluid infiltration results in shear zones being preferential  
43 conduits for fluid flow even at deeper crustal conditions (Austrheim, 1987; Mancktelow, 2006).  
44 However, little is known about the fluid flow in the lower crust, and, more specifically, about the  
45 processes that control formation and distribution of syndeformational porosity.

46 High strain torsion experiments on synthetic anorthite aggregates deforming by grain  
47 boundary sliding have highlighted the development of creep cavitation bands (Rybacki et al.,  
48 2008; 2010). The bands developed with a C'-type shear band orientation, presumably from  
49 growth and coalescence of individual pores originally formed at triple junctions and dilatant sites  
50 resulting from the operation of grain boundary sliding. However, observational evidence of  
51 similar creep cavitation bands in natural ultramylonites from the lower crust is currently lacking,  
52 thus questioning the extrapolation of such experimental results to natural conditions.

53 To investigate the relationships between deformation mechanisms and the formation and  
54 distribution of porosity in lower crustal shear zones, we have analysed a feldspar-rich  
55 ultramylonite deformed at  $T > 700^\circ \text{C}$ . Our results provide evidence for the formation of creep  
56 cavitation bands during grain-size sensitive creep and have important implications for the  
57 understanding of high-temperature creep and synkinematic fluid flow in the lower crust.

## 58 **SAMPLES AND METHODS**

59 We sampled a shear zone in the Anorthosite-Monzonite-Charnockite-Granite intrusive  
60 suite of Lofoten, northern Norway (Corfu, 2004, and references therein). The shear zone is  
61 hosted in monzonite and shows a mylonite to ultramylonite transition from the shear zone  
62 boundary to the shear zone centre (see Fig. DR1; sample location in UTM coordinates relative to  
63 WGS84: zone 33W, 0505656E, 7594514N). The transition is marked by an extreme grain size  
64 reduction of perthites and clinopyroxene. Grain size reduction occurred by fracturing and  
65 neocrystallization in perthites and by hydration reactions in clinopyroxene, forming amphibole +  
66 quartz + calcite. Plagioclase-amphibole geothermobarometry and Ti-in-amphibole  
67 geothermometry yield P, T conditions of deformation of 700-730° C, 0.65-0.8 GPa (Menegon et  
68 al., 2013).



69 We used a combination of detailed microstructural analysis, synchrotron X-ray  
70 microtomography and mass-balance calculations to characterize deformation microstructures and  
71 the associated synkinematic porosity in the ultramylonite. Electron backscatter diffraction  
72 (EBSD) was used to quantify the crystallographic preferred orientation (CPO) of feldspars,  
73 amphibole and quartz. Analytical methods are described in detail in the Data Repository.

## 74 **RESULTS**

### 75 **Microstructure and EBSD analysis**

76 The ultramylonite displays a compositional banding between feldspathic layers and  
77 domains of pyroxene-derived reaction products (amphibole, quartz and calcite) (Fig. 1A). The  
78 feldspathic layers originate from the neocrystallization of perthites, and may locally contain also  
79 quartz, amphibole and biotite (Fig. 1B). The rare clinopyroxene porphyroclasts preserved in the  
80 ultramylonite show the localization of reaction products along intragranular fractures (Fig. 1C).  
81 Calcite is a synkinematic reaction product, typically at triple junctions and dilatant sites (Fig.  
82 1D). In both feldspathic and pyroxene-derived domains the average grain size is  $< 25 \mu\text{m}$ .

83 The EBSD phase map of a feldspathic layer shown in Fig. 2A is dominated by the bi-  
84 phase mixture of plagioclase and K-feldspar deriving from the recrystallization of original  
85 perthites. The EDS compositional map of the Si content of the same area is shown in Fig. 2B.  
86 Quartz occurs as isolated grains along discrete C'-bands inclined at  $10\text{-}20^\circ$  to the trace of the  
87 ultramylonite foliation, consistent with the sinistral sense of shear (Fig. 2A, 2B). The CPO of  
88 quartz, K-feldspar and plagioclase and does not show a clear relationship of crystallographic  
89 planes and axes with the kinematic framework of the ultramylonite (Fig. 2C). The long axis of  
90 quartz grains are preferentially oriented either at  $0\text{-}40^\circ$  or at  $160\text{-}180^\circ$  to the trace of the  
91 ultramylonite foliation, measured anticlockwise (Fig. 2D). An additional EBSD map of a

92 feldspathic layer containing festoons of quartz grains in a C'-band orientation is shown in the  
93 supplementary material (Fig. DR2).

94 Amphibole CPO in an elongate domain of reaction products shows clusters of [001] axes  
95 oriented at a low angle to the stretching lineation. Poles to the (100) and (010) planes are  
96 preferentially distributed along a girdle subparallel to the YZ plane (Fig. 2E). In the same  
97 domain, quartz c-axis CPO is weak and characterized by some clustering at a low angle to the  
98 foliation plane. One cluster occurs near the centre of the pole figure (Fig. 2E).

### 99 **Porosity distribution and orientation**

100 We used synchrotron X-ray microtomography to analyse the distribution and orientation  
101 of pores in two feldspathic layers that were micro-drilled from the ultramylonite sample (Fig.  
102 3A; see GSA Data Repository for details on data acquisition). The absorption microtomographic  
103 data resolve the different materials in the sample well and clearly highlight the pores, which  
104 attenuate the least and appear darkest (yellow in Fig. 3A; movies DR\_Lu-  
105 1\_light\_pores\_slcmigration and DR\_Lu-3\_light\_pores\_slcmigration in the Data Repository).

106 Low-aspect-ratio-pores can easily be distinguished from cracks that might have formed  
107 along grain boundaries during exhumation and cooling of the rocks (movie Lu-  
108 1\_pores\_slcmigration\_1). The latter were excluded from the following analyses. Although pore  
109 diameters can vary from about the resolution limit (1.5  $\mu\text{m}$  diameter) to about 20  $\mu\text{m}$ , they  
110 generally are significantly smaller than the grains themselves. The pores decorate phase and  
111 grain boundaries between feldspars and quartz, hornblende and/or biotite and often form festoons  
112 or clusters of more than two pores.

113 Pores were segmented by binary thresholding and analysed for their orientations.  
114 Orientation of each pore was defined as the orientation of the best ellipsoid fit to the pore's

115 shape. To avoid a bias in the orientation data, the analysis was limited to pores with volumes  
116 between  $34 \mu\text{m}^3$  (125 voxels) and  $4119 \mu\text{m}^3$  ( $1.5 \times 10^4$  voxels). In figure 3 we show the results  
117 from one feldspathic layer (data-set Lu-3\_light); similar results were obtained from the second  
118 feldspathic layer (data-set Lu-1\_light: see Fig. DR3). The pole figure shows the orientation of the  
119 long axis of the best-fit ellipsoid of the pores. These are referenced to the trace of the mylonitic  
120 foliation (a kinematic framework defined by the long axis of the best ellipsoid fit to the biotite  
121 grains, Fig. 3B). The diagram reveals that the pores have a preferred orientation, with their long  
122 axes oriented at  $20\text{-}30^\circ$  to the trace of the mylonitic foliation, in a C'-band orientation (Fig. 3B).

### 123 **Mass-balance calculations**

124 Whole-rock chemistry and total carbon (TC) analysis was performed to assess element  
125 mobility and volume changes during the protolith-to-ultramylonite transformation using the  
126 'normalized Gresens' method (Potdevin and Marquer, 1987). Results of the whole-rock  
127 chemistry analysis are reported in Table DR1.

128 The total carbon (TC) content of the ultramylonite is 2.75 times higher than the original  
129 content in the protolith (0.139 Vs. 0.037 wt%). Assuming that the original monzonite contained  
130 minute amounts of carbonate material, we used TC as a reference to calculate the volume change  
131 associated with the shear zone formation. The TC increase reflects  $\text{CO}_2$  infiltration during  
132 shearing, consistent with the synkinematic growth of calcite in the ultramylonite (Figs. 1C, 1D).  
133 A 2.75 times increase of TC implies a volume increase of 2.3%. Detailed information on the  
134 mass-balance results is compiled in the Data Repository.

### 135 **DISCUSSION**

136 The CPO of all phases, the grain size and shape, and phase mixing indicate that grain size  
137 sensitive creep was the dominant deformation mechanism in both, the feldspathic layers and the

138 pyroxene-derived layers in the ultramylonite. The feldspar CPO data is not interpretable in terms  
139 of intracrystalline plasticity. In the layers composed of reaction products, the similar grain sizes  
140 and shapes of calcite, quartz and hornblende indicate the dominance of grain size sensitive creep  
141 (Getsinger et al., 2013). At the given temperatures, calcite is expected to be substantially weaker  
142 than quartz and hornblende if deforming by dislocation creep (e.g., Renner et al., 2007).  
143 However, in the microstructures calcite never appears less competent, and all three phases show  
144 similar aspect ratios and grain sizes (Fig 1D). The distribution of hornblende [001] axes near the  
145 instantaneous stretching axis for a sinistral sense of shear (Fig. 2C) is consistent with a shape  
146 fabric attained by oriented growth and/or rigid body rotation during deformation accommodated  
147 by diffusion creep and grain boundary sliding, which is a common feature in amphibole  
148 deforming at lower crustal conditions (e.g., Berger and Stünitz, 1996; Getsinger and Hirth,  
149 2014). Quartz c-axes show weak maxima oriented similar to hornblende [001] axes. We likewise  
150 interpret this weak CPO as the result of preferential synkinematic growth of quartz grains with  
151 their c-axis parallel to the elongation direction during diffusion creep (e.g. Hippertt, 1994;  
152 Hippertt and Egydio-Silva, 1996; Kilian et al., 2011).

153       The occurrence of quartz grains in a C'-band orientation in the feldspathic layers is  
154 interpreted as the result of creep cavitation, which is referred to as the coalescence of  
155 intergranular pores originally formed at grain triple junctions and grain boundaries (Zavada et  
156 al., 2007; Rybacki et al., 2008, 2010; Delle Piane et al., 2009). Creep cavitation takes place  
157 during grain boundary sliding, and dilating creep cavities form local sites of low stress that  
158 attract grain boundary fluids (Fusseis et al., 2009). Our mass-balance calculations indicate (1) a  
159 volume increase of 2.3%, and (2) fluid infiltration during the protolith-ultramylonite  
160 transformation. Hence, positive volume change accompanied by fluid infiltration can explain the

161 precipitation of new phases from intragranular aqueous fluids collected in cavitation bands.  
162 Volume increase is a consequence of dilatancy at grain boundaries (Schmocker et al., 2003;  
163 Füsseis et al., 2009).

164 Our interpretation is supported by the similar orientation of the preferred elongation of pores  
165 in the feldspathic layers and the orientation of the C' bands (Figs. 2A-B and 3). The orientation  
166 of pores is not related to specific phase boundaries but to the kinematic framework of the shear  
167 zone. Thus, we interpret the final porosity imaged by X-ray microtomography as representative  
168 of the porosity and fluid flow at an instant during deformation. The preferred distribution of  
169 pores and isolated quartz grains in a C'-type shear band orientation is a syndeformational feature  
170 reflecting the local dilatancy in a dynamically evolving microstructure during diffusion creep  
171 deformation (Schmocker et al., 2003; Rybacki et al. 2008, 2010). Grain boundary sliding, creep  
172 cavitation, and heterogeneous nucleation form pores or new grains in low stress sites (Ree 1994;  
173 Kassner and Hayes, 2003; Kilian et al., 2011) (Fig. 4). Dilatancy has an initial form normal to the  
174 extension direction and only after some extension and further opening of the porosity pore shape  
175 attains a stable orientation along C'-bands (Fig. 4).

176 The precipitation of quartz along dilatant grain boundaries requires material transport, most  
177 likely in a grain boundary fluid film. The interpretation is that quartz is dissolved from the  
178 pyroxene-derived reaction products (Fig. 1C) and precipitates locally in dilatant sites in the  
179 feldspathic layers. Dissolution, transport, grain rotation, and precipitation are intimately related  
180 processes during diffusion creep of geological material (e.g. Füsseis et al., 2009; Kilian et al.,  
181 2011), and may result in a dynamically evolving microstructure and distribution of porosity.

182 There is a certain degree of similarity between shape of pores and quartz grains. About 50%  
183 of the quartz grains contained in the festoons in Figs. 2A-B are preferentially elongated at 0-40°

184 to the trace of the foliation, similar to the elongation of pores (Figs. 2D, 3B). It could indicate  
185 that shape of quartz grains is determined by the cavitation process (Fig. 4). However, considering  
186 the shape modifications that quartz grains can undergo after precipitation (i.e. dissolution, grain  
187 rotation), this is a speculation.

## 188 **IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS**

189 We conclude that the orientations of pores, quartz bands and phase boundaries along C'-type  
190 shear bands in the ultramylonite are evidence of creep cavitation during lower crustal  
191 deformation accommodated by diffusion creep, grain boundary sliding and heterogeneous  
192 nucleation. The microstructures presented in this paper share many similarities with the creep  
193 cavitation bands reported from experimental deformation of synthetic anorthite aggregates  
194 (Rybacki et al., 2008; 2010). Creep cavitation bands can be identified by the occurrence of pores  
195 and isolated grains of different phases. However, if the same phases precipitate, this will result in  
196 overgrowths on existing grains, thereby rendering the identification of dilatancy and cavitation  
197 bands difficult.

198 Strain localization in lower crustal rocks is typically associated with grain size reduction,  
199 hydration reactions and phase mixing (e.g., Rutter and Brodie, 1992; Pearce et al., 2011;  
200 Getsinger et al., 2013). Phase mixing by heterogeneous nucleation during grain size sensitive  
201 creep critically relies on synkinematic porosity (e.g., Hiraga et al., 2013). Creep cavitation can be  
202 a major contributor to porosity in lower crustal shear zones, and hence control fluid flow.  
203 Nucleation of new phases in cavitation bands inhibits grain growth and enhances the activity of  
204 grain-size sensitive creep, thereby maintaining strain localized in the polymineralic ultramylonite  
205 (e.g., Herwegh et al., 2011). Thus, our findings provide a key component for the understanding

206 of strain localization in the lower crust and of the mechanisms by which fluid flow can be  
207 channelized within lower crustal shear zones.

## 208 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

209 This work was funded by a grant from the Mohn Foundation (University of Tromsø) and by  
210 Plymouth University. We thank Marianne Ahlbom, Natasha Stephen, Erling Ravna, and Trine  
211 Dahl for their help with the EBSD, XRF, LOI and LECO analysis. We thank N. Mancktelow, S.  
212 Piazzolo and an anonymous reviewer for their constructive reviews. Use of the Advanced Photon  
213 Source at Argonne National Laboratory was supported by the U.S. Department of Energy, Office  
214 of Science, Office of Basic Energy Sciences, under Contract No. DE-AC02-06CH11357.

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## 285 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

286 Figure 1. Microstructure of the ultramylonite in thin sections cut normal to foliation and parallel  
287 to stretching lineation. Abbreviations: FL=feldspathic layer, PDRP=pyroxene-derived reaction  
288 products, Pl=plagioclase, Kfs=K-feldspar, Qtz=quartz, Hbl=hornblende, Cpx=clinopyroxene,  
289 Cc=calcite, Bt=biotite. A: Light micrograph of the layered microstructure of the ultramylonite.  
290 Parallel polarizer. B: SEM backscattered electron image of a feldspathic layer. C: SEM  
291 backscattered electron image of pyroxene-derived reaction products. Note the clinopyroxene  
292 porphyroclast with reaction products along intracrystalline fractures. D: Close-up of pyroxene-  
293 derived reaction products. SEM backscattered electron image.

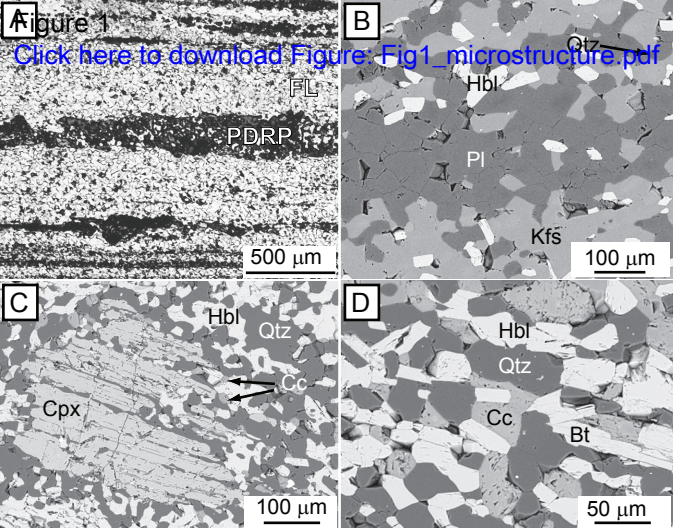
294 Figure 2. Results of EBSD and EDS analysis of the ultramylonite. All plots are upper  
295 hemisphere projections contoured with 15° half-width and 5° cluster size using Channel 5  
296 (Oxford Instruments). Inset in C shows the kinematic framework of the sample ( $L_s$ =stretching  
297 lineation). Data is plotted as one point per grain ( $N$  = number of plotted grains). Maxima are  
298 expressed as multiples of the uniform distribution. Mean angular deviation number for all  
299 datasets is  $< 0.9$ . Shear sense is sinistral. A: Processed EBSD phase map from a feldspathic layer.  
300 The map is superposed to the band contrast map. Grey areas are non-indexed points. Mineral  
301 abbreviations: Kfs=K-feldspar, Pl=plagioclase, Qtz=quartz, Cc=calcite, Bt=biotite, Grt=garnet.  
302 B: EDS-derived compositional map of Si content of the same area shown in A. C: Pole figures of  
303 the crystallographic orientation data of quartz, K-feldspar and plagioclase from the area shown in  
304 A. D: Rose diagram to show the orientation of the long axis of quartz grains included in A. Only  
305 grains with aspect ratio  $> 1.3$  are considered ( $N=50$ ). E: Pole figures of the crystallographic  
306 orientation data of hornblende and quartz from a layer of pyroxene-derived reaction products.

307 Figure 3. Synchrotron x-ray microtomographic data.  $S$  is the trace of the ultramylonite foliation,  
308  $C'$  the trace of  $C'$ -bands,  $L_s$  the stretching lineation (red dot). A: Slice through microtomographic  
309 data Lu-3\_light, showing 3D objects in 2D. Grey values correspond to x-ray absorption.  
310 Red=biotite, yellow=pores. The grey-scale image is the backside of a thin migrating box through  
311 the 3D data-set, in which pores and biotite are highlighted. As the box moves through the  
312 volume, pores and biotite disappear out of the box at the front and enter the slice at the back,  
313 through the greyscale image (see movie DR\_Lu-3\_light\_pores\_slcmigration in the Data  
314 Repository). The inset shows the trends of preferred orientation of pores and biotite. B: Pole  
315 figure illustrating the long axes of pores preferentially oriented at 20-30° to the foliation (top)  
316 and the preferred orientation of biotite long axis aligned in the foliation plane (bottom). Data is

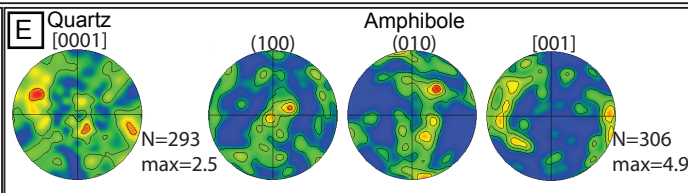
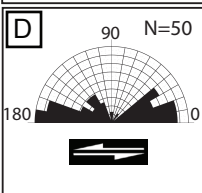
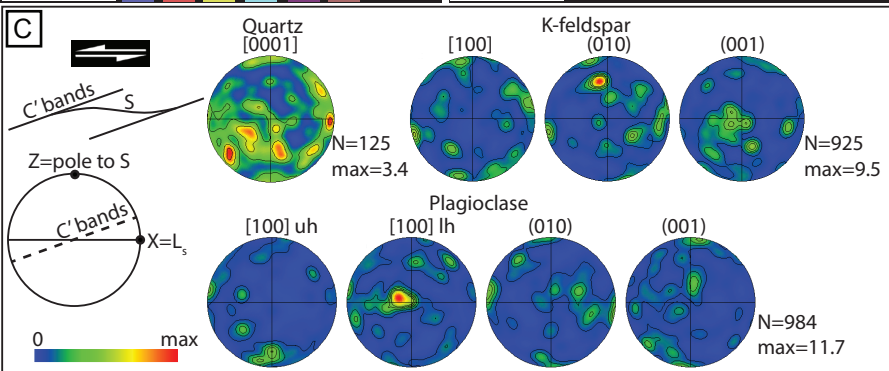
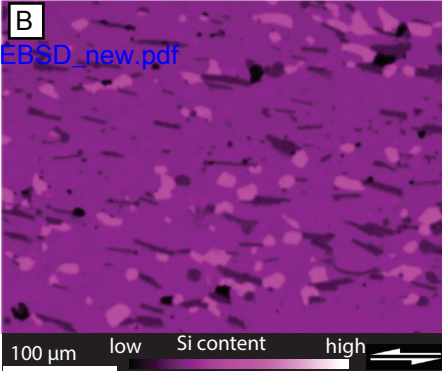
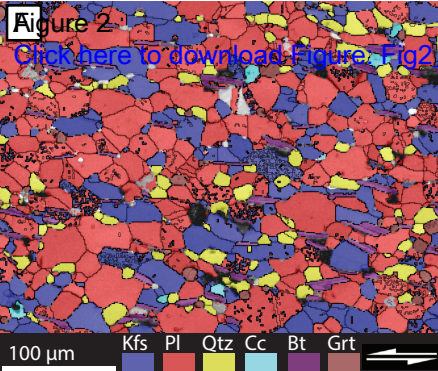
317 plotted as one-point-per-pore (or biotite) and as contoured pole figures. Equal area lower  
318 hemisphere stereoplots. Contouring is up to 10 times MUD.

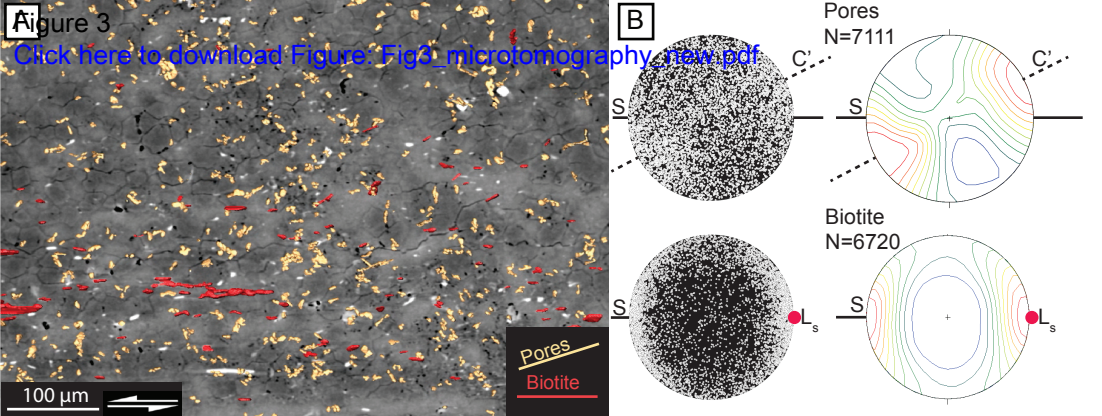
319 Figure 4. Schematic drawing of cavitation during grain boundary sliding in shear (after Pilling  
320 and Ridley 1989). Elongation orientation of the pores will depend on the extent of dilatancy.

321 <sup>1</sup>GSA Data Repository item 2014xxx, xxxxxxxx, is available online at  
322 [www.geosociety.org/pubs/ft2014.htm](http://www.geosociety.org/pubs/ft2014.htm), or on request from editing@geosociety.org or Documents  
323 Secretary, GSA, P.O. Box 9140, Boulder, CO 80301, USA.



**Fig. 1**

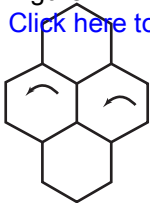
**Figure 2**[Click here to download Figure\\_Fig2\\_EBSD\\_new.pdf](#)



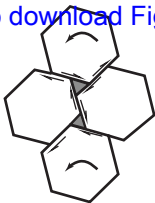
**Fig. 3**

Figure 4

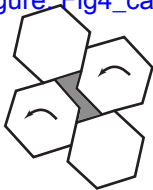
[Click here to download Figure: Fig4\\_cavitation sketch.pdf](#)



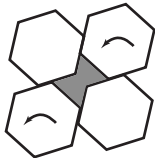
starting material



nucleation of pores



progressive coalescence of pores in a C'-band orientation





## SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

### Methods

Light- and Scanning Electron Microscopy. The petrography and microstructure of the ultramylonite have been investigated with polarized light- and scanning electron microscopy on polished thin sections cut perpendicular to the foliation and parallel to the stretching lineation. SEM backscatter electron images were collected with a Jeol-840 SEM at the Department of Medical Biology, University of Tromsø, and with a Philips XL-30 FEG-ESEM at the Department of Geological Sciences, Stockholm University. The same thin sections were used for electron backscattered diffraction (EBSD). The grain size and aspect ratio of individual grains were measured on grain boundary maps obtained from manually digitizing SEM-BSE and EBSD images. The 2D size of the grains was calculated as the diameter of the circle with an area equivalent to that of the grain using the freeware Image SXM software (<http://www.ImageSXM.org.uk>).

EBSD and EDS Analysis. EBSD and EDS analysis were carried out on a Jeol LV6610 SEM equipped with an Oxford Instruments Nordlys Nano EBSD detector and with an Oxford Instruments SDD X-Max 80 mm<sup>2</sup> EDS detector at the Electron Microscopy Centre of Plymouth University. Additional EBSD analysis was conducted on a Philips XL-30 FEG-ESEM equipped with a HKL Technology (Oxford Instruments) Nordlys detector at the Department of Geological Sciences, Stockholm University. Thin sections were chemically polished carbon coated (for EBSD analysis in Plymouth) or left uncoated (for the EBSD analysis in Stockholm) during the acquisition of the electron backscatter patterns over gridded areas of varying sizes. Step sizes of 1, 2 and 3 μm were used in the 3 EBSD datasets presented in this study. Working conditions during the pattern acquisition were 20 or 25 keV accelerating voltage and either low vacuum (0.3-0.4 torr: Stockholm) or high vacuum (Plymouth). EBSD patterns were indexed and processed with the Channel 5 analysis suite from HKL Technology (Oxford Instruments). A match unit for oligoclase was created with the Twist component of the Channel 5 suite using the cell parameters for An<sub>16</sub> (spatial group C-1) reported in Phillips et al. (1971) and served as theoretical model to index plagioclase. Noise reduction on the raw EBSD data was performed following the procedure tested by Prior et al. (2002) and Bestmann and Prior (2003). Crystallographic data were plotted on pole figures (upper hemispheres) using one point per grain.

X-Ray Microtomography. Microtomographic samples with a diameter of 1 mm were extracted from the ultramylonite sample shown in Fig. DR1B using a rock drill. These samples were scanned at the microtomography beamline 2BM of the Advanced Photon Source (USA). A double multilayer monochromator of 1.5% band- width provided 27 KeV X-rays; radiographic projections were collected in transmission mode by a CCD camera behind the sample in the hutch configuration. The sample detector distance was 70 mm. During each scan, 1440 projections were collected through rotating the samples in steps of 0.125° over 180°. The acquisition time for each data set was about 25 min. From the radiographic projections, three-dimensional absorption microtomography datasets were reconstructed using filtered back-projection.

Two microtomographic data-sets (Lu-1\_light and Lu-3\_light) were cropped to a volume of 1000x1000x750 voxels, which corresponds to 650x650x488  $\mu\text{m}$ . From these subvolumes, pores, which are the least-attenuating, hence darkest phase in the data, were segmented by binary thresholding. From the same raw data, micas were segmented using the same algorithm. Biotite was chosen because it defines the mylonitic foliation in the sample. From the segmented mica data artefacts (mostly phase contrast ‘shadows’) had to be manually removed. Binary data of both the pores and the micas were sequentially loaded into Blob3D (Ketcham, 2005) for analysis. Blob3D recognises face-connected voxels of the same kind as clusters (or ‘blobs’), which allows determining for each cluster the volume, shape, location and orientation (given in direction cosine of the inscribed eigenvectors), amongst other parameters. For our orientation analysis, all clusters smaller than 34  $\mu\text{m}^3$  (125 voxels) and larger than 4120  $\mu\text{m}^3$  (15000 voxels) were discarded. The former would have introduced artefacts due to the limited possibilities to arrange a small number of voxels in a pore cluster, and the latter would have very complex shapes, producing meaningless results. We furthermore discarded pore clusters with aspect ratios  $\leq 1.7$  and mica clusters with aspect ratios  $< 3$ . The orientation values of the longest eigenvector were converted into dip direction/dip angle values using the formulation given in Groshong (2006).

For each of the two datasets (Lu-1\_light and Lu-3\_light), two orientation datasets exist – one for the mica grains and one for the pores. The longest eigenvectors of both mica data-sets cluster around well-defined maxima. We assume these maxima to define the orientation of the longest diameter of the finite strain ellipsoid in each sample. As can be seen in the supplementary movies and also Fig. 3A, the mica furthermore define a mylonitic foliation. We used these two orientations as a kinematic framework. Because this framework does not

spatially coincide with the Cartesian coordinate axes of the microtomography data, we rotated the maximum defined by the longest eigenvectors of the mica data into a horizontal E-W orientation and the pole to the foliation in a horizontal N-S orientation using Stereo32 (Fig. 3A and DR2). The exact same rotations were then applied to the longest eigenvectors of the Lu-3\_light and Lu-1\_light pore populations, which yield the stereo plots shown in Fig. 3B and DR2. This allowed us to assess the orientation of the pores in a kinematic context.

Whole-Rock Chemical Analysis. Whole-rock chemical analysis of major elements was performed by wavelength dispersive X-Ray fluorescence (WD-XRF) analysis with a Bruker S8 Tiger XRF spectrometer at the Department of Geology, University of Tromsø. Powder samples were mixed and diluted at 1:7 with  $\text{Li}_2\text{B}_4\text{O}_7$  flux, and melted into fused beads. Loss on ignition (LOI) was determined from weight lost after ignition at 1050°C for 1.5 h. Total Carbon (TC) was measured with a LECO CS-200 at the Department of Geology, University of Tromsø. The LECO CS-200 uses infrared absorption to measure the quantity of carbon dioxide generated by combustion of the sample in an induction furnace in a pure oxygen environment. Accuracy of the measurements is  $\pm 2$  ppm.

### **Supplementary Information on the Mass-Balance Calculations**

The two samples were collected along a continuous strain gradient in the field at a relative distance of 1 meter, so that we can safely conclude that the ultramylonite derives from (micro)structural and mineralogical modifications of the monzonite. The mass-balance calculations were carried out following the method designed by Potdevin and Marquer (1987), which is referred to as the ‘normalized Gresens’ method. The method uses the following equation to derive mass gain or loss of a chemical component n during modification of rock A to rock B in relationship to the initial amount of the component n in rock A:

$$\Delta X_n = F_v (\rho_B/\rho_A)(X_{nB}/X_{nA}) - 1 \quad (1)$$

$\Delta X_n$  represents the gain or loss of chemical component n related to its initial content in rock A,  $F_v$  is the volume factor ( $F_v = V$  modified rock B/ $V$  initial rock A),  $X_{nA}$  is the weight % of the component n in the initial rock A,  $X_{nB}$  is the weight % of the component n in the modified rock B,  $\rho_A$  is the density of the initial rock A, and  $\rho_B$  is the density of the modified rock B. Our calculations refer to the transformation protolith  $\rightarrow$  ultramylonite (sample LST29F  $\rightarrow$  sample LST29B). The main differences are in the LOI and TC content, consistent with fluid infiltration during shear zone formation. The very minor difference between the compositions

of the monzonite and ultramylonite (Table DR1) indicate that, apart from the fluid infiltration, there has been no major chemical change during deformation. Our whole-rock chemical composition data are consistent with the average composition of the Raftsund mangerite (Griffin et al. 1978). Thus, we are confident that primary heterogeneities of the protolith do not represent a limitation to our analysis.

The density of the samples have been measured with a pycnometer using pulverized material at the Department of Geology, University of Tromsø, following routine procedures outlined in Hutchinson (1975). Weight measurements were repeated 5 times for each sample, and were reproducible with an accuracy of  $\pm 0.004$  grams. The densities of the protolith (monzonite) and of the ultramylonite are  $2.711 \text{ g/cm}^3$  and  $2.654 \text{ g/cm}^3$ , respectively.

Setting  $\Delta X_n$  for TC = 2.75 and solving (1) for  $F_v$ , we obtain  $F_v = 1.023$ . This means a 2.3% volume increase. Setting  $F_v = 1.023$  and solving (1) for  $\Delta X_n$ , we derive the following gains or losses of chemical components:

	$F_v$	$\Delta X_n$
SiO <sub>2</sub>	1.023	0.0150
Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	1.023	0.0264
TiO <sub>2</sub>	1.023	-0.2642
Cr <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	1.023	-0.3932
Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	1.023	-0.1644
MnO	1.023	0.1133
MgO	1.023	-0.1416
CaO	1.023	-0.0991
Na <sub>2</sub> O	1.023	0.1741
K <sub>2</sub> O	1.023	-0.1472
P <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	1.023	-0.2025
LOI	1.023	1.7635
TC	1.023	2.7500

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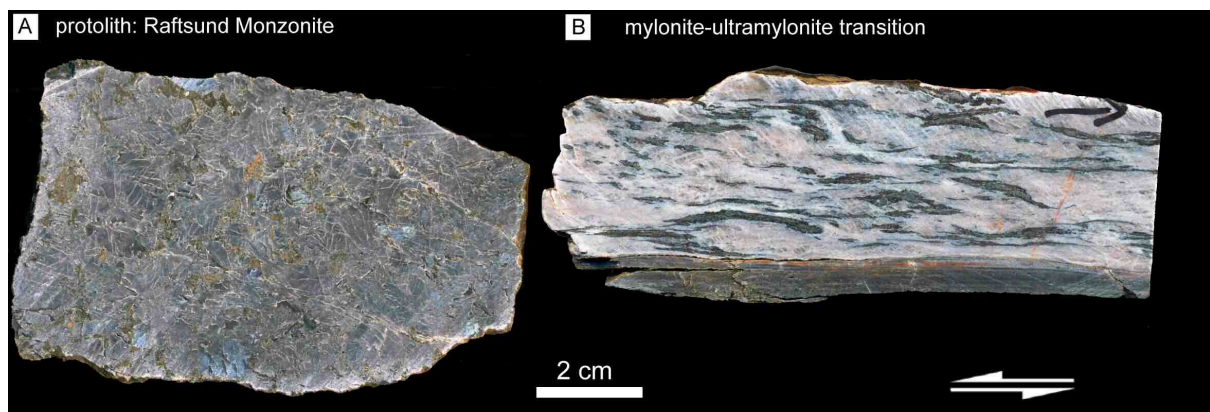
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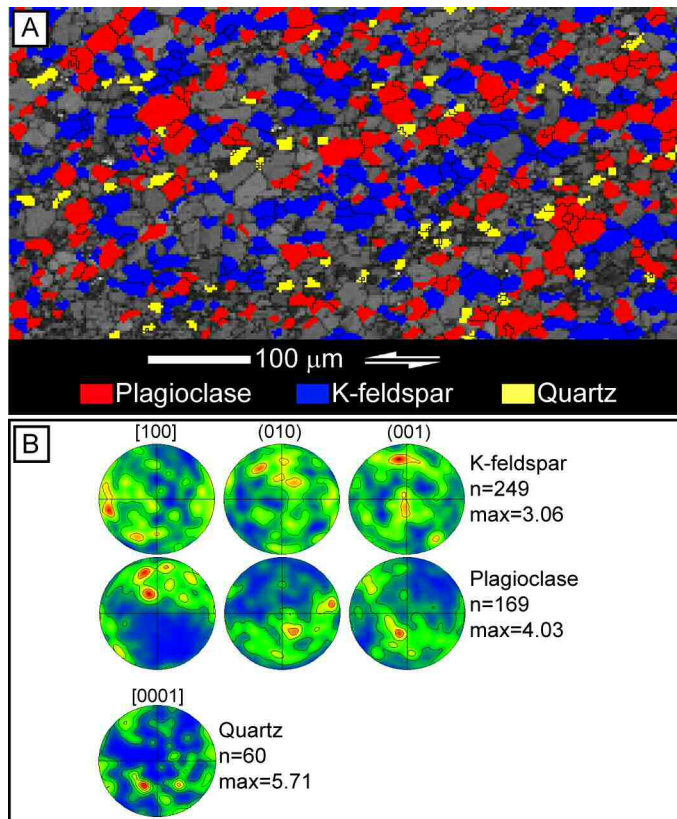
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**Table DR1.** Whole-rock chemical composition (major elements) of the protolith (LST29F) and of the ultramylonite (LST29B) samples used for the mass-balance calculations.

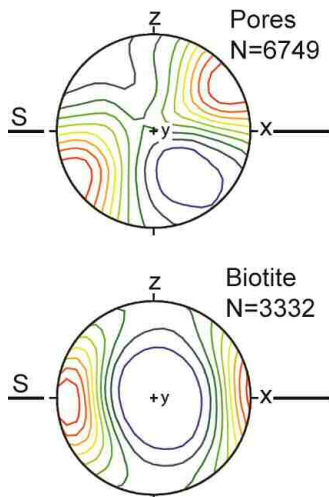
Label	LST29F	LST29B
Rock Type	Undeformed Monzonite	Ultramylonite
SiO <sub>2</sub>	58.61	58.97
Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	18.67	18.99
TiO <sub>2</sub>	1.04	0.76
Cr <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	0.01	0.01
Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	5.24	4.34
MnO	0.09	0.10
MgO	0.98	0.84
CaO	3.86	3.45
Na <sub>2</sub> O	5.19	6.04
K <sub>2</sub> O	4.72	3.99
P <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	0.49	0.39
Total	98.90	97.86
LOI	0.207	0.567
TC	0.037	0.138



**Figure DR1.** Hand specimens of the monzonite protolith (A) and of the mylonite-ultramylonite transition (B).



**Figure DR2.** A: EBSD-derived phase map of part of the same feldspathic layer shown in Fig. 2A of the paper. Note the festoons of quartz grains with a C'-band orientation for a sinistral sense of shear. B: Pole figures of K-feldspar, plagioclase and quartz grains in A.



**Figure DR3.** Synchrotron x-ray microtomographic data Lu-1\_light (compare with Fig. 3B). S is the trace of the ultramylonite foliation, Z is the pole to the foliation, X is parallel to the stretching lineation. Pole figure illustrating the long axes of pores preferentially oriented at 20-30° to the foliation (top) and the preferred orientation of biotite long axis aligned in the

foliation plane (bottom). Equal area lower hemisphere stereoplots. Contouring is up to 10 times MUD.

**Movie DR\_Lu-1\_pores\_slcmigration.** Migrating slice through the microtomographic data-set Lu-1\_light (volume of 650x650x488  $\mu\text{m}$ ). Grey values correspond to x-ray absorption. See text for further details.

**Movie DR\_Lu-3\_pores\_slcmigration.** Thick migrating slice through the microtomographic data-set Lu-3\_light (volume of 650x650x488  $\mu\text{m}$ ). Grey values correspond to x-ray absorption. Red=biotite, yellow=pores. The greyscale image is the backside of a thin migrating box through the 3D data-set, in which pores and biotite are highlighted. As the box moves through the volume, pores and biotite disappear out of the box at the front and enter the slice at the back, through the greyscale image. See text for further details.



Movie file 1 (supplemental file)

[Click here to download Movie File: DR\\_Lu-1\\_light\\_pores\\_slcmigration.mpg](#)

Movie File 2 (supplemental file)

[Click here to download Movie File: DR\\_Lu-3\\_light\\_pores\\_slcmigration.mpg](#)