

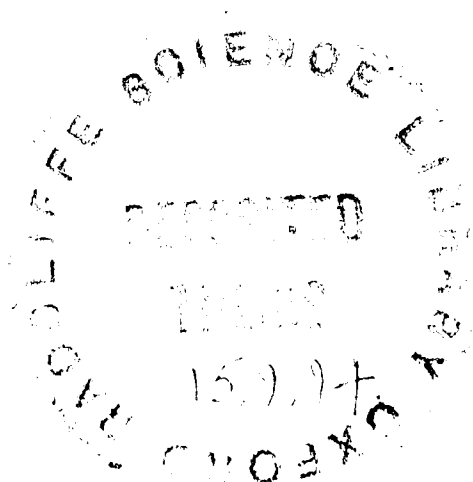
Thesis submitted for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

**A quantitative forward modelling analysis of the controls
on passive rift-margin stratigraphy**

by

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Abstract

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A quantitative forward model has been developed to investigate the controls on the deposition, erosion, and preservation of passive rift margin stratigraphy. The model includes thermal subsidence, variable absolute sealevel, flexural isostasy, subaerial and submarine deposition on fluvial and marine equilibrium profiles, and the facility to vary sediment supply through time. Results from the quantitative model can be used to reproduce elements of the sequence stratigraphic depositional model. Conducting sensitivity tests demonstrates that variables such as sediment supply and fluvial profile behaviour are likely to be of equal importance to thermal subsidence and eustasy in passive margin stratigraphy. Sensitivity tests with the quantitative model also demonstrate the problems associated with attempting to use a discretised stratigraphic model to investigate unforced cyclicity resulting from complex interactions in stratigraphic systems. Although the model appears capable of producing such unforced cyclical behaviour, this cyclicity is shown to be due to a numerical instability within the model which occurs with certain initial conditions and assumptions. The applicability of the model to observed stratigraphy is tested by comparing specific model output to patterns of stratigraphy from the North American Atlantic margin. The results from this test demonstrate that although the model is in many respects simplistic when compared to the complexities of natural systems, it is nevertheless capable of reproducing some of the basic elements of the observed stratigraphic patterns.

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Extended Abstract

A quantitative forward modelling analysis of the controls on passive rift-margin stratigraphy

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A quantitative forward model has been developed to investigate the controls on the deposition, erosion, and preservation of passive rift margin stratigraphy. Previous studies in this area have been dominated in recent years by the sequence stratigraphic methodology. In this methodology stratigraphy is subdivided into a hierarchy of units separated by significant surfaces which, it is assumed, can be used as the basis for regional correlation. The patterns of stratigraphy are controlled primarily by eustasy and thermal subsidence, with sediment supply assumed to play a modifying role. Other studies have questioned this, and there has been an increase in the use of quantitative models to examine controls on stratigraphy. These quantitative models have the advantage that they can be tested more rigorously than their qualitative equivalents, and hence problems with uniqueness which restrict the use of the qualitative models may be avoided.

The model developed in this thesis includes thermal subsidence, variable absolute sealevel, flexural isostasy, subaerial and submarine deposition on fluvial and marine profiles, and the facility to vary sediment supply through time. Thermal subsidence is calculated according to either a one-layer or a two-layer stretching model, and the stretching factors can be varied along the length of the model profile. A parameter giving the age since the onset of postrift thermal subsidence allows both young and old postrift margins to be modelled. Absolute sealevel in the model may be varied according to one or two sinusoidal curves with specified periods and amplitudes, or it can be defined outside the model using curves from the literature.

A flexural model is used to calculate the response of the model lithosphere to loading and unloading. The value for the elastic thickness can be held temporally and spatially constant, or it may be varied throughout the duration of the model run according to the three times the square root of age relationship. The value for the elastic thickness may also be varied along the length of the profile. Erosion and deposition are controlled by geometrically-defined fluvial and marine equilibrium profiles. For each time step these profiles are defined according to the position of the beach, the width of the coastal plain, and the available sediment supply. Portions of older chrons with elevations higher than these profiles are eroded, while deposition of available sediment area occurs on those parts of the profile where older chrons have lower elevations. This geometrical method is compared for the fluvial profile with a method based on diffusion, and the relative merits and failings of the two approaches are discussed.

Sediment supply can be held constant at a pre-defined value, or it can be varied through a model run. When it is variable, there are three options for calculating its magnitude. The area of sediment available for deposition may be calculated purely from erosion occurring on the fluvial and the marine profile. Alternatively, it can be varied according to a model-generated curve with, for example, a sinusoidal or a saw-tooth form. The third option for calculating sediment supply is to combine these two methods, with both an external input from a pre-defined curve, and with extra sediment provided by profile erosion.

Results from the quantitative model can be used to reproduce elements of the sequence stratigraphic depositional model. Key elements of the depositional model, such as type-1 and type-2 sequences, and the various significant surfaces, can be reproduced using the quantitative model. Conducting sensitivity tests demonstrates that variables such as sediment supply, and fluvial profile behaviour are likely to be of equal importance to thermal subsidence and eustasy in passive margin stratigraphy. These tests demonstrate the significance of the uniqueness problem to the sequence stratigraphic depositional model.

In the quantitative model, with the same absolute sealevel and subsidence parameters that are used to generate a type-1 sequence, but with a less-concave fluvial profile, it is possible to generate a pattern of stratigraphy very similar to that seen in a type-2 sequence. This illustrates the potential importance of the behaviour of the fluvial profile in stratigraphic systems. It also illustrates the problems with non-unique solutions in the sequence stratigraphic model. This can also be demonstrated in the quantitative model by keeping absolute sealevel constant, but varying sediment supply with a sawtooth curve. With these parameters, the model can reproduce some of the basic patterns seen in the standard sequence stratigraphic type-2 sequence, without the need for fluctuations in absolute sealevel. All the results presented demonstrate the potential problems inherent in trying to interpret the ancient record in order to derive details of eustatic sealevel.

Executing sensitivity tests with the quantitative model also demonstrates the existence within the model of a complex interaction between thermal subsidence, deposition, flexure and erosion which is capable of producing cyclical stratigraphy without the need for external periodic forcing. The effect occurs when thermal subsidence drives the shoreface landwards with a relative sealevel rise. Erosion on the shoreface provides a pulse of sediment which is deposited offshore. The erosion causes flexural uplift around the shoreface which then acts to prevent further landward movement of the beach. In subsequent time steps this uplift is eroded by the fluvial profile, which in turn leads to further flexural uplift, though of lesser magnitude. The cycle begins again when thermal subsidence outpaces the uplift, and the shoreface is driven landward once more by another relative sealevel rise.

The behaviour of this complex interaction is tested with a series of model runs that vary the values of the parameters critical to the effect. Several model runs are carried out, varying the magnitude of thermal subsidence, the initial thermal age of the model lithosphere, the geometry of the shoreface and the geometry of the fluvial profile.

Although the details of the stratigraphic pattern are affected by these changed parameters, the basic pattern due to the feedback effect remains. Two model runs using shorter time steps are also carried out to ascertain whether or not the periodicity of the cyclicity is independent of the length of the model time step used. These two tests show that in fact the period of the cyclicity is not independent of the time step. Further sensitivity tests demonstrate that reducing the time step to values approaching zero also reduces the period of the cyclicity to values approaching zero. Thus, the feedback effect is shown to be a numerical instability due to the discretised nature of the model.

In order to further investigate the nature of the numerical instability further sensitivity tests are run using a linear flexural response function. The results from these two sensitivity tests show that the inclusion of the linear flexural response complicates the behaviour of the feedback effect, but does not remove the dependence of the periodicity of the cyclicity upon the model time step. The numerical instability in the model producing the cyclicity means that the model cannot be used to draw any conclusions regarding the operation of such feedback effects within natural stratigraphic systems.

The applicability of the model to observed stratigraphy is tested by comparing specific model output to observed patterns of stratigraphy from the North American Atlantic margin. The initial conditions for the model are taken from previous work on the margin. Three different eustatic sealevel curves are used, two containing high-frequency high-amplitude oscillations, the other consisting of a low-frequency low-amplitude signal. The model runs using these curves show that the low-frequency low-amplitude curve produces the best match with the observed stratigraphy. Using this curve the model can reproduce some of the basic features of the observed stratigraphy, such as the distance of shoreline progradation.

The fit between the model results and the observed stratigraphy is improved when the model is run with the low-frequency eustatic curve, and variable sediment supply, and a

variable value for the sediment partitioning coefficient. The accuracy of the distance of progradation is improved slightly, and the observed changes in the rates of beach progradation are also more closely matched. The results from these model runs demonstrate that although the model is in many respects simplistic when compared to the complexities of natural systems, it is nevertheless capable of reproducing some of the basic elements of the observed stratigraphic patterns.

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Chapter 1

Chapter 1 - Introduction

"I need your clothes, your boots,
and your motorcycle."

(James Cameron, Terminator II)

1.1 The sequence stratigraphic model

The conceptual model of sequence stratigraphy introduced by Mitchum *et al.* (1977) has been the basis for ongoing research in passive rift-margin stratigraphy for the past decade (e.g. Greenlee *et al.*, 1988; Poag and Valentine, 1988; Ross and Ross, 1988; Greenlee *et al.*, 1992). The model is based upon the concept of the depositional sequence, defined by Mitchum *et al.* (1977) as a "stratigraphic unit composed of a relatively conformable succession of genetically related strata and bounded at its top and base by unconformities or their correlative conformities." Depositional sequences are themselves built up from a hierarchy of stratigraphic units, from laminae to parasequences and system tracts (Van Wagoner *et al.*, 1990). This hierarchy provides a framework for description of stratigraphy from a variety of data sources and at a variety of scales. Sequences are separated by unconformities or their correlative conformities, where an unconformity was defined by Van Wagoner *et al.* (1988) as "a surface separating younger from older strata, along which there is evidence of subaerial erosional truncation (and, in some areas, correlative submarine erosion) or subaerial exposure, with a significant hiatus indicated."

Sequences are made up of groups of systems tracts, which themselves are made up of parasequences. Parasequences are defined by Van Wagoner *et al.* (1990) as "a relatively conformable succession of genetically related beds or bedsets bounded by marine flooding surfaces or their correlative surfaces" where a marine flooding surface is defined as "a surface separating younger from older strata across which there is evidence of an abrupt increase in water depth." Parasequences are assumed by Van Wagoner *et al.* (1990) to

form in response to higher frequency relative sealevel oscillations than those responsible for the formation of sequences. Systems tracts (also referred to as parasequence sets) are groupings of parasequences which have particular stacking patterns, and form at particular positions on a relative sealevel curve. For example, the transgressive systems tract would be made up of a series of retrogradational parasequences that are deposited during a time of rising relative sealevel.

The chronostratigraphic significance of depositional sequences hinges on the assumption that sequences are globally synchronous due to the primary control of eustasy on their development (Vail *et al.* 1977b; Posamentier *et al.*, 1988; Posamentier and Vail, 1988; Van Wagoner *et al.* 1990). Maintaining this assumption of synchronous eustatic control, it is possible to derive eustatic curves from the patterns of coastal onlap, defined by Mitchum (1977) as "the progressive landward onlap of the coastal (littoral or coastal non marine) deposits in a given stratigraphic unit" where onlap is defined as "a base-discordant relation in which initially horizontal strata terminate progressively against an inclined surface, or in which initially inclined strata terminate progressively up dip against a surface of greater initial inclination." Using coastal onlap curves to determine eustatic sealevel has led to the definition of eustatic sealevel curves for the Mesozoic and Cenozoic (Haq *et al.*, 1987; Haq *et al.*, 1988). Such eustatic curves are then used as the basis for global correlations of sequences between basins.

The sequence stratigraphic depositional models have become progressively more sophisticated since Mitchum *et al.* (1977). Posamentier *et al.* (1988) and Posamentier and Vail (1988) expanded on the original depositional models. This work was still based around the assumption of dominant eustatic control on sequence development, but it investigated the relationship between eustasy and tectonic subsidence in creating accommodation space. The model also used qualitative fluvial equilibrium profiles to make predictions regarding fluvial deposition and erosion in response to eustatic changes.

Van Wagoner *et al.* (1990) gave considerable detail on how the sequence stratigraphic depositional model can be applied to well logs, cores and outcrop data. It defines a hierarchy of stratigraphy, from laminae to megasequences, which can be used as a descriptive basis for the analysis of stratigraphy. The dominant controlling mechanism was once again stated to be eustasy, occurring in cycles from approximately 50,000 to 5Myr duration., though alternatives such as tectonics and autocyclical effects were discussed.

Posamentier (1992) took the depositional model a little further by differentiating between "forced regressions" caused by relative sealevel fall, when eustatic fall outpaces tectonic subsidence, and "normal" regressions caused by excess sediment flux relative to the accommodation space available on the shelf. Eustasy was not explicitly mentioned as the controlling factor in this aspect of the model. Posamentier and Allen (1993a) attempted to apply these depositional models to an active compressional tectonic setting rather than the normally considered passive margin. The main difference considered was in the pattern of tectonic subsidence across the basin, and this affects the predictions made by the depositional model. Posamentier and Allen (1993b) examined the influence of other factors, namely sediment flux and physiography, on sequence geometries, but still concluded that eustasy and tectonic subsidence and uplift are the primary controls on sequence timing. It also stated, however, that the stratal geometries are primarily controlled by sediment flux and physiography.

1.2 Problems with the sequence stratigraphic model

An assumption central to all the sequence stratigraphic models has been that eustasy is the primary control on sequence development (e.g. Van Wagoner *et al.* 1990), and that the effects of eustasy can be deduced from observation of stratigraphy (e.g. Posamentier *et al.* 1988). Much of the appeal of the sequence stratigraphic methodology comes from its supposed ability to correlate sequence boundaries across global distances. This is obviously dependent on eustasy as a mechanism to give global synchronicity to sequence

boundaries. However, little real consideration has been given to the validity of this assumption by sequence stratigraphic workers, and alternatives such as tectonic controls and variations in sediment supply are not seriously investigated (e.g. Posamentier and Allen, 1993a).

This problem can be considered as one of uniqueness. Although the qualitative sequence stratigraphic models can explain in simple terms why a certain stratigraphic unit has certain features, there may well be several other possible explanations. It is always implicitly assumed in the sequence stratigraphic model that if its predictions match with observations, then it must be correct (e.g. Greenlee *et al.*, 1988). This is not necessarily the case. Other models may be equally capable of reproducing observed features. Sequence stratigraphic models have been widely applied in a variety of temporal and spatial settings, (e.g. Mesozoic-Cenozoic passive margin off East Coast, US; Greenlee *et al.*, 1992 and Baum and Vail, 1988; Carboniferous and Permian cratonic shelves; Ross and Ross, 1988). In most cases such application of the model reveals little, except that a particular piece of stratigraphy has characteristics that can be fitted to the model predictions. Since other possible models are rarely tested against the same stratigraphy, the uniqueness problem is not investigated, and no firm conclusions regarding the controls on the observed stratigraphy should be made.

Given the increasingly apparent problems with eustasy acting alone as the single control on stratigraphy, various workers have been raising the possibility of other factors such as tectonics (Hubbard *et al.*, 1985, Underhill, 1991; Jordan and Flemings, 1991; Sloss, 1991, McGinnis *et al.* 1993) and sediment supply variations (Galloway, 1989; Thorne and Swift, 1991) playing a larger part than previously recognised in controlling sequence development, but it is difficult to isolate examples that can prove the case either way. The particular problem is the recognition from the preserved rock record of the role of different components such as eustasy, tectonics and sediment supply. Accurately assessing their relative contributions with only qualitative models and the rocks themselves is often

difficult, and as a result attempts have been made to overcome the problem with quantitative modelling.

Problems with correlation based on the eustatic curves have been described by Miall (1991) and Miall (1992) which argued that third order cycles defined on such curves cannot be supported because their precision is greater than that of the best chronostratigraphic methods, and that many correlations are simply statistical noise. Even the primary mechanism of ice volume changes used to account for third order eustatic changes has been called into question. Rowley and Markwick (1992) compared the oxygen isotopic composition of planktonic foraminifera with values calculated for the removal of a given water volume inferred by the Haq curve. It found that there was no correspondence, which casts doubt on glacio-eustasy as a mechanism.

Galloway (1989) showed an alternative approach to the definition of sequence boundaries and emphasised the importance of sediment supply and subsidence on sequence development, suggesting that any of the three controls may dominate, and the results would be indistinguishable. Pitman and Golovchenko (1988) suggested small amplitude sealevel changes may produce shelf wide erosional surfaces by a process of regrading, without the need for subaerial exposure of the whole shelf. This idea is particularly interesting since it is central to the model of Posamentier and Vail (1988) that such surfaces must be the result of subaerial exposure due to rapid and large magnitude eustatic fall. Miall (1991) questioned the geomorphological accuracy of the depositional models of Posamentier and Vail (1988). This criticism highlights the fact that the sequence stratigraphic models are entirely qualitative, and as such have never been rigorously tested. Even a very simple quantitative analysis of the model would have demonstrated many of the weaknesses highlighted by Miall (1991). Christie-Blick (1991) questioned the timing of sequence boundaries in relation to relative sealevel changes. This has implications for the use of such surfaces in correlation, as previously discussed.

Another fundamental and yet unstated assumption in the sequence stratigraphy methodology, is that observed cyclical stratigraphy must be the result of a cyclically varying controlling mechanism or mechanisms (e.g. Posamentier *et al.* (1988) and Van Wagoner *et al.* (1990)). This is taken to be eustasy, occurring in cycles from approximately 5Myr duration to approximately 50,000 year duration. It is assumed that other controls such as tectonics cannot be responsible for such cyclical stratigraphy, since cyclicity in tectonic controls cannot be demonstrated. Therefore no consideration is given to the possibility of cyclical tectonic effects. Possible cyclical climatic variations are also ignored, as is the possibility of several non-cyclical interacting processes producing cyclical patterns. Both these possibilities are suitable for investigation by quantitative modelling methods.

1.3 Quantitative modelling methodology

Quantitative modelling has an important role to play in investigating the uniqueness problem described above, and in assessing the contribution of eustasy and other possible controls such as tectonics and sediment supply on the development of sequences. Cross and Harbaugh (1989) and Lerche (1989) outlined a methodology for the development and use of quantitative forward models. They defined forward models as models which simulate processes and responses operating on a system with some assumed initial condition and configuration. Figure 1.1 summarises the forward modelling methodology adopted in this work. Cross and Harbaugh (1989) also described a hierarchy of relationships which can be used to construct models. These range from fundamental laws, through first order approximations and empirical relationships, to gross empirical relationships.

Cross and Harbaugh (1989) suggested that the choice of relationships to use in the model is based on two main criteria; the amount of information available about the system being modelled, and the desired complexity and general applicability of the model. The amount

of information available about a system varies, but in general terms most geological systems are too poorly understood to be described with fundamental laws alone. It is necessary to compromise and combine fundamental laws such as the conservation of mass, with gross empirical relationships such as fluvial equilibrium profile geometry. Although some systems may be described more rigorously, this is often at the expense of general applicability, and may lead to overly complex models which become difficult to test.

Despite the potential pitfalls and inherent inaccuracies with quantitative modelling methodologies, used with careful consideration of these problems they do provide a very powerful method of expanding the understanding of the controls on stratigraphy. In particular, such models can provide insight into many of the problems which have been highlighted by the sequence stratigraphic methodology.

1.4 Applications of quantitative models

The development of qualitative sequence stratigraphic models has led to the formulation of a number of quantitative forward models to study controls on stratigraphy. Watts (1982) and Watts *et al.* (1982) showed that patterns of thermal subsidence and flexural isostatic response to sediment loads with an increase in flexural rigidity through time, for example, could produce patterns of coastal onlap which had been taken as indicative of eustatic effects (e.g. Vail *et al.*, 1977b). This in turn led to the work of White and McKenzie (1988) which showed that such patterns of coastal onlap could also be produced without eustasy or flexure using a two layer stretching model. Jervey (1988) argued that a combination of eustasy and regional basin tilting could produce the patterns of onlap seen in basin margins, though the details of the model are sparse, and it appears extremely simplistic. For example, the model does not include erosion in any form.

Watts (1989) examined the patterns of onlap produced with a simple model of sediment progradation and flexural isostasy. The model results showed that with just a simple

geometrical model of progradation and time-variable elastic thickness it is possible to generate some complex patterns of onlap and offlap. Reynolds *et al.* (1991) included flexural isostasy and compaction in a stratigraphic model, alongside tectonic subsidence and eustasy, and used sensitivity tests to assess the effects of these processes on sequence development. It concluded that the inclusion of flexure and compaction could strongly affect the geometry of the resulting stratigraphy, including whether type-1 or type-2 unconformities were produced, and also the timing of sequence boundaries, since both flexure and compaction can create or destroy accommodation space.

McGinnis *et al.* (1993) used a simple model of lithospheric flexure to investigate the effects of marine erosional unloading on stratal geometries. The model results presented suggested that erosion of marine shelf and slope sediments by bottom currents could induce flexural uplift which would be capable of variously modifying stratal patterns on the shelf. The flexural uplift could, depending on the width of the shelf, and the values for lithospheric thickness, produce widespread relative sealevel fall on the shelf, which may prove difficult to distinguish from an eustatically induced fall. McGinnis *et al.* (1993) showed that on a narrow continental shelf, such flexurally driven relative sealevel fall could produce stratal geometries commonly interpreted as eustatically-driven type-1 sequence boundaries. This is another strong example of the way in which the uniqueness problem significantly weakens the sequence stratigraphic model.

Strobel *et al.* (1989), Kendall *et al.* (1991) and Kendall *et al.* (1992) used a stratigraphic model called SEDPAK to simulate basin stratigraphy. The model uses user-defined functions to determine absolute sealevel history, sediment supply and tectonic behaviour, and is made up of a series of gross-empirical algorithms with little or no basis in actual stratigraphic processes or geometries. The model has only been tested by direct comparison of its output with synthesised details of observed stratigraphy. No sensitivity tests have been carried out, and no consideration has been given to problems of uniqueness

in the model results. Given the demonstrable weakness of the model elements and the lack of rigorous testing, the model inspires little confidence.

Lawrence *et al.* (1990) used an essentially geometrical approach to simulate stratigraphy with the emphasis on fine scale lithology prediction. The model includes tectonic subsidence, with the subsidence at any point on the model profile either input directly, or calculated using the two-layer stretching model of Sclater and Christie (1980). Absolute sealevel is varied according to an externally input curve. Sediment supply is also defined externally, but sediment eroded on the non marine profile according to elevation and an erosion time constant, is added to the total available for deposition on the marine profile. Deposition on a marine profile is calculated according to an empirically derived exponential function. Though Lawrence *et al.* (1990) claimed to be able to use the model to evaluate the importance of different controls on stratigraphy, it does not do so, and the only testing criteria apparently applied to the model is whether its output matches in appearance with subsurface data.

Schroeder and Greenlee (1993) used a stratigraphic model, based on the principles of the Exxon depositional model, in an attempt to test the validity of several different eustatic sea-level curves. The modelling seems to suffer from the same problems already discussed; no real tests are applied to the output except to compare the output visually with the observed stratigraphy. One of the conclusions reached is that the eustatic curve from Watts and Steckler (1979) is incorrect because it contains no higher-order fluctuations needed in the model to explain the fine-scale patterns of onlap and facies distribution. However, no consideration is given to the possibility that such fine-scale patterns may be produced by a processes other than eustasy, which are not included in the model. Thus because of the weaknesses in the assumptions, this conclusion is of little value.

Cant (1991) defined a geometrical model to examine patterns of facies migration and erosion controlled by relative sea-level changes and sediment supply. The model suggests

that erosion surfaces can occur because of small changes in slope angles and general facies migration during relative sea-level changes. This could significantly complicate interpretations of stratigraphy. Heller *et al.* (1993) used a geometrical model in an attempt to illustrate how it may be possible to place quantitative limits on the potential combinations of sediment supply, subsidence, and absolute sealevel that could be responsible for any particular stratigraphic pattern. The method invoked stratigraphic solution sets, which consist of various variables such as subsidence and absolute sealevel plotted in multidimensional plots. Sub areas within the plots can then be defined, on the basis of field observations and measurements.

Several workers have used a diffusion based approach to model stratigraphy (Kenyon and Turcotte, 1985; Kaufman *et al.*, 1992; Rivenaes, 1992). Kenyon and Turcotte (1985) use the diffusion equation to model the progradation of a delta assuming sediment movement by bulk-transport processes. This approach was shown to produce a good match between the model predictions and the present bathymetry and the historical progradation of the Fraser and Mississippi river deltas, and the Rhine delta in Lake Constance.

Kaufman *et al.* (1992) used a solution of the diffusion equation that allowed the diffusion coefficient to decay exponentially with water depth to model the deposition of sediment on a shallow marine siliciclastic, carbonate, and mixed siliciclastic shelf. The exponential decay of the diffusion coefficient with depth was intended to represent the exponential decrease in wave power and hence bed shear stress with water depth. However, the values for the diffusion coefficient used in the model runs appear to be rather arbitrary in that the actual values used are not based upon any direct measurements or observations.

The application of the diffusion equation in Rivenaes (1992) used two lithologies, sand and shale, in the model and defined a separate transport-coefficient function for each lithology. Diffusivity varies with water depth, and compaction of sediment is included in the mass-balance of the model equations. Tectonic subsidence and eustasy and defined as

external functions. Flexural isostasy is also included. Rivenaes (1992) used the model to predict the patterns of stratigraphy obtained with a simple sinusoidal eustatic curve, and found that the model was capable of reproducing some observed features of passive margin stratigraphy, such as shoreline migration, stratal onlap and downlap, and the trapping of sand in the coastal plain area during times of transgression.

The Rivenaes (1992) model shares a similar problem to that of Kaufman *et al.* (1992) in that there is a lack of quantitative observational evidence to support the values of diffusion coefficients used for the sand and shale lithologies within the model. The value for sand ranges from approximately $10000\text{m}^2\text{yr}^{-1}$ at elevations of 10m and above, to $50\text{m}^2\text{yr}^{-1}$ at and below 20m below sealevel. The values for shale show the same trend but with a slightly higher value at positive elevation, and a higher value in the marine environment of approximately $2.5\text{m}^2\text{yr}^{-1}$. Although the magnitude of the curves is based on values given by other workers (e.g. Flemings and Jordan, 1989), the patterns of variation with elevation are based upon qualitative observation of the efficiency of transport of the grain size populations in different environments, and have been selected in advance to give features such as trapping of sand in the marine environment and bypassing of shale into deeper water. Such selection of diffusion coefficients, even if partly based on observational evidence, must limit the interpretation of the model results.

Thorne and Swift (1991) modelled erosion and deposition in a marine shelf setting using surfaces of dynamic equilibrium which were determined by a series of mutually interdependent variables, sediment input rate, sediment character, sediment transport rate, and the rate of relative sealevel change. Five different types of equilibrium surface are defined, of which the isostatic equilibrium profile is most useful in terms of its spatial and temporal scale, for investigating continental margin deposition. Results from the model, using another type of profile, which is dependent on the rate of relative sealevel change, simulate sequence stratigraphic systems tracts. Thorne and Swift (1991) concluded from this model work that the generation of type-1 versus type-2 sequences in the model is

dependent on the gradient of the shelf and the slope, and also the magnitude of the sediment supply. The model does not include any subaerial deposition or erosion which makes it difficult to compare the results directly with the sequence stratigraphic model.

Shaw (1987) and Slingerland (1989) raised the possibility of non-linear behaviour producing cyclicity in the stratigraphic record. Slingerland (1989) described some of the principles of chaos theory and suggested that if stratigraphic systems are chaotic, small changes in initial conditions in such a system may lead to gross differences in the final configuration of the stratigraphy. Shaw (1987) proposed that apparent periodicities in the geological record, for example periodic mass extinctions, may not be due to simple periodic forcing mechanisms, but may instead be due to more complex non-linear feedbacks between more than one mechanism. Thus examples of periodic stratigraphic phenomenon such as Milankovitch cyclicity (e.g. Matthews and Frohlich, 1991; Imbrie, 1985) may not be caused by periodic mechanisms such as orbital forcing, but may instead be due to as yet unidentified couplings and feedbacks between various autocyclic processes.

Gaffin and Maasch (1991) and Gaffin (1992) illustrated this principle with a very simple model of sedimentary basin development which showed cyclicity produced by unforced free oscillations. The model consists of a simplified low-order implementation of a general time evolution continuity equation for a sedimentary surface. The equation includes an expression for subsidence, and an expression for the non-linear diffusive transport of sediment. Although the implementation is simple, the model shows clear unforced oscillatory behaviour. This results from a feedback effect; falling relative sealevel increases the magnitude of erosion, which increases progradation, which further increases erosion exponentially, until progradation becomes unstable and a transgression occurs. Thus an apparent cyclicity in the model output is due purely to a feedback between model elements, with no periodic external input. Such unforced cyclicity could be extremely

important with respect to stratigraphy generally, and the sequence stratigraphic model in particular.

1.5 Aims and objectives

The aim of this thesis is to build upon the modelling work described above using a quantitative stratigraphic forward model to investigate passive rift margin stratigraphy. Chapter two describes the formulation of the model and the assumptions that underlie it. The implementation of the various model components is described in detail, and a comparison is made between a dynamic diffusion approach and a geometrical approach to modelling the fluvial profile.

The model is then used to three main ends. Firstly, in chapter 3, it is used to investigate the various controls on sequence geometry. This is achieved by firstly using the model to reproduce the basic conceptual sequence geometry defined by Van Wagoner *et al.* (1988), Posamentier *et al.* (1988) and Posamentier and Vail (1988), considering the discrepancies between the two, and then conducting a series of sensitivity tests in order to determine rigorously the importance of the different parameters in the model. From this it is possible to draw conclusions regarding the possible importance of various controls on the stratigraphy in actual stratigraphic systems.

Secondly, the model is used to investigate the possibility of cyclical patterns of stratigraphy produced not by an external periodic forcing mechanism, but by the complex feedback interaction between several different model elements. Chapter 4 describes such a feedback within the model, and shows a series of sensitivity tests used to investigate the feedback. The sensitivity tests demonstrate that the feedback effect is produced by a numerical instability inherent within the model. This demonstrates that discretised geometrical models are not suitable for investigating such feedback effects.

Thirdly, in chapter 5, the stratigraphic model is used to investigate aspects of the Tertiary stratigraphy of the North American Atlantic passive margin. However, rather than simply using the model to reproduce basic aspects of the observed stratigraphy, and assuming that a good match proves the validity of the model, it is used instead to examine the envelope of possible causes for the observed stratigraphy. This is achieved by conducting sensitivity tests to determine which controls may be important, and which may not. In particular, the model is used to test three different eustatic curves, and to examine the possible effects of variable sediment supply.

The conclusions drawn from the model results presented in chapters 3, chapter 4 and chapter 5, are summarised and discussed in chapter 6. A list of the parameters used in the model is given in appendix 1, and a full listing of the source code is included in appendix 2.

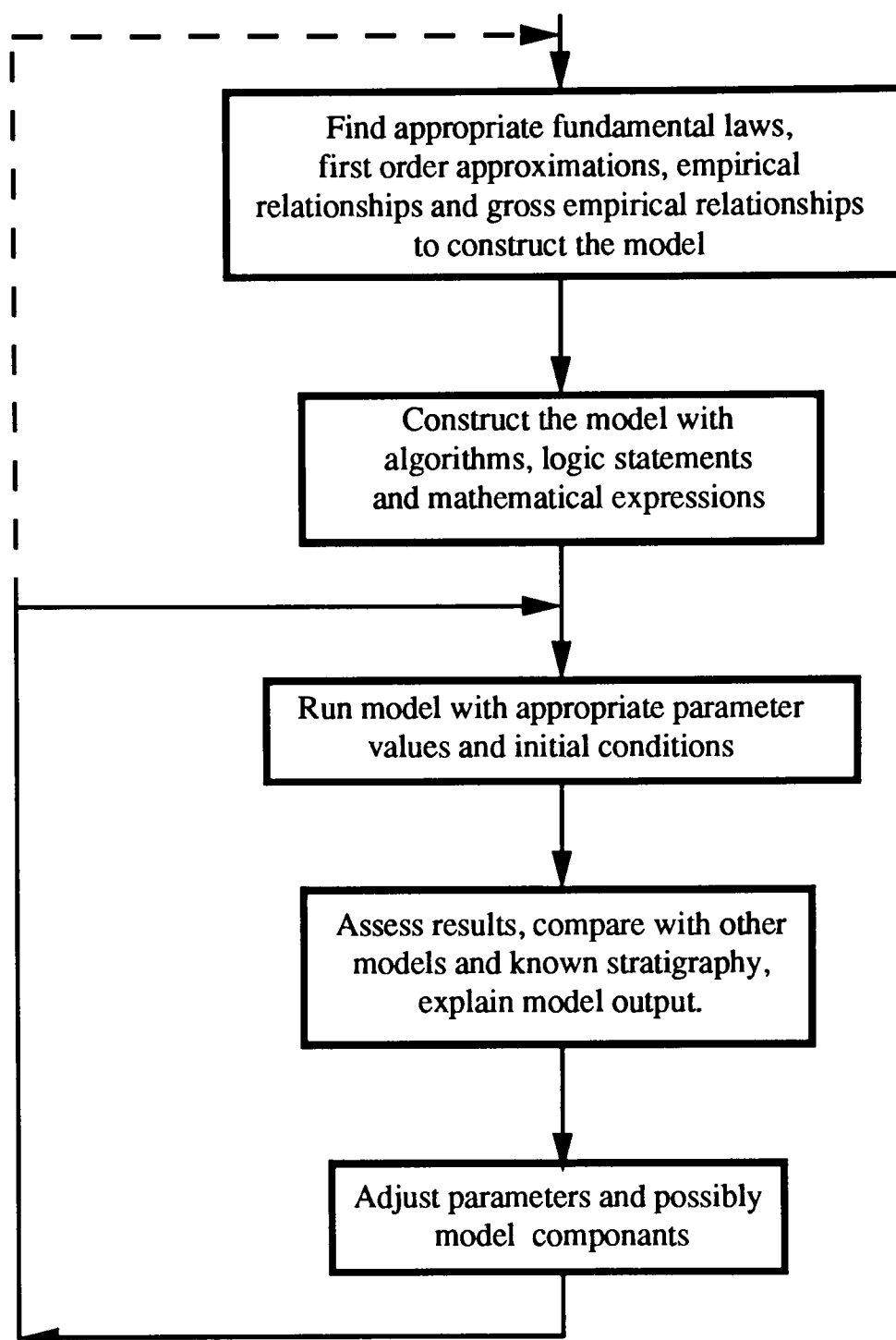


Figure 1.1. A modelling methodology flowchart

Chapter 2

Chapter 2 - Methodology and Assumptions

"Travelling through hyperspace ain't like dusting crops
boy! Without the precise calculations we'd fly right
through a star or bounce too close to a supernova, and
that would end your trip real quick wouldn't it?"

(George Lucas, Star Wars)

2.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the equations, algorithms, and parameters which together comprise a forward model of passive rift-margin stratigraphy. Also described are the assumptions which underlie the various elements of the model and the values for the model parameters. A full appreciation of the details of the model formulation, the assumptions which underlie the equations and algorithms chosen, and the values chosen for model parameters is essential in order to correctly interpret the model results. Comprehensive descriptions of the hardware, the operating systems and the programming languages used in constructing the model are given, along with a full listing of the source code, in appendix 2. The description of the methodology given below, and the source code listing in appendix 2 should together allow the model results given in subsequent chapters to be reproduced.

2.2 The formulation of the model

The model can be summarised in a simplified form as one equation which defines the contribution to the elevation of a chron in two-dimensions as a function of time and distance thus

$$H(x, t + \Delta t) = H(x, t) - S(x, t) + \Delta H(x) + F(x) \quad (1)$$

where H is the elevation of a chron surface, S is the magnitude of thermal subsidence, ΔH is the magnitude of deposition or erosion, and F is the magnitude of the flexural subsidence or uplift due to deposition or erosion. All these individual model elements, the model assumptions, and the details of the model coordinate system, are described in detail in the following sections.

2.3 Basic model assumptions

2.3.1 Two versus three dimensions

A fundamental assumption behind the model coordinate system is that passive rift-margin stratigraphy can be modelled as a two-dimensional section to a sufficient degree of accuracy as to make the model results useful in investigating stratigraphic patterns. In reality such stratigraphy is the result of processes operating in three dimensions, so it is important to attempt to assess the degree to which the accuracy of the model results is reduced by the assumption of two-dimensionality.

The principal fundamental law in the model is the conservation of mass, implemented as the conservation of area along the two-dimensional model profile. In natural systems the principle of the conservation of mass operates in three dimensions. Hence because the model is two-dimensional, its accuracy must be reduced, but the different model components are affected to different degrees depending predominantly upon the degree of symmetry or asymmetry inherent in the process or system being modelled. Assessing the exact effects of this weakness is difficult, but it should be considered carefully when interpreting the model output.

2.3.2 Discretised representation of continuous processes

Another fundamental problem with all quantitative models on digital computers is the need to represent continuous natural systems in a discretised format. This problem manifests itself in this model coordinate system in two ways; the horizontal spacing of data points on the model profile, and the length of the model time step.

The length of the horizontal step on the model profile controls the precision of the area calculations used to ensure the conservation of area, and also the precision of the marking of environments of deposition. The magnitude of this spacing is a trade off between accuracy, the total profile length, and the computer time required for calculations. Increasing the spacing of points on the profile allows faster model runs and longer profiles, but reduces the accuracy of the area fitting, and hence leads to small amounts of area being lost or gained. This loss of accuracy is an important constraint on the model, since larger point spacing would introduce unacceptable errors in the area calculations.

2.3.3 The length of the model time step

The length of the time step between generation of chrons is also very important to the validity and accuracy of the model. All geological processes that act to form stratigraphy are continuous in nature. Thus with a digital computer model various assumptions have to be made to approximate such continuous processes in a discretised form. In this model it is implicitly assumed that all the modelled processes, but particularly deposition and erosion, and flexure, occur instantaneously for a particular time step, after which there is a period of absolute quiescence prior to the next time step. This has some very important implications for the model results depending on the length of the time step used, and should always be considered when interpreting the model results. This problem is demonstrated with a particular example in chapter 4.

2.4 Description of the coordinate system and the data structures

The model is constructed around a three-dimensional coordinate system used to represent stratigraphy. The first two dimensions represent horizontal distance in kilometres and elevation in metres respectively. Together they define the two-dimensional model sections. The third dimension is elapsed model time (E.M.T.), measured in millions of years, or mega years (Myr). Figure 2.1 summarises this coordinate system.

The primary data structure in the model is used to represent the chronostratigraphic surfaces ("chrons" for short). The data structure consists of a two-dimensional array where the array subscripts represent E.M.T. and horizontal distance respectively, and the array contains elevation values. Figure 2.2 shows this data structure in diagrammatic form. The structure can store up to 200 chrons with 4906 elevation values along each chron. Thus if the total profile length is 1024km, the separation in kilometres between points is 0.25km.

The horizontal position, in kilometres, of each point on each chron may be calculated by dividing the profile length in kilometres by the total number of points to give the point separation, also in kilometres. Multiplying this value by the subscript value for that point gives the distance in kilometres of that point from the profile origin. All aspects of the model, such as for example, the definition of the position of the beach, and the elevation of the sealevel datum, are based around the same coordinate system described above and shown in figure 2.1.

The E.M.T. is the third dimension in this primary data structure. One chron is generated at each time step, and stored in a temporary working array, but the interval at which chrons are actually stored in the data structure can be greater than this time step. This allows a model run with time steps of, for example, 0.01Myr to run for longer than 2.0Myrs. The age of any chron is calculated by taking the array subscript values and multiplying this by the duration of each chron which is specified as a model input parameter (see appendix 1).

A second separate data structure is utilised to record the distribution of depositional environments. These environments, calculated on the basis of water depth, are represented by codes at each point on each chron (Table 2.1). The codes along the initial chron are set to the integer value of 250 to represent initial non-deposition. As each subsequent chron is generated, the depositional environments along its length are recorded. When points on the new chron are erosional, the value of points at the same horizontal position on older chrons being eroded, are reset to indicate this erosion. The algorithms controlling erosion of chrons are described in more detail in section 2.6.5.

Numeric Code	Depositional Environment
1	Fluvial
2	Beach and shoreface
3	Offshore shelf
4	Shelf slope
6	Fluvial erosion
7	Marine erosion
250	Non-deposition/non-erosion

Table 2.1

The final major data structure in the model is used to store values for several time-dependent model elements. These are absolute sealevel elevation, areas of sediment deposition and erosion, relative sealevel at a given point, cumulative thermal subsidence at a given point, and elevation of the point of stratal onlap. The structure consists of another two-dimensional array. The first subscript gives the number of the time step (which can be converted directly to E.M.T. as described above), and the second gives a code for the type of data contained in that array element. Table 2.2 shows these codes and the associated data types.

Subscript value	Data type
0	Elapsed model time (Myr)
1	Absolute sealevel elevation (m)
2	Area of fluvial deposition (m ²)
3	Area of fluvial erosion (m ²)
4	Area of marine deposition (m ²)
5	Area of marine erosion (m ²)
6	External sediment input (m ²)
7	Relative sealevel at a point (m)
8	Thermal subsidence at a point (m)
9	Elevation of stratal onlap (m)

Table 2.2

The absolute sealevel element differs from the other data types in that rather than recording the values of the variables as they are generated during the model run, these values are defined during model initialisation and then used as a reference to update the value of the absolute sealevel datum as the model runs. Details of the generation of the absolute sealevel curve are given in section 2.6.1.

The other elements in this data structure are used to store the relevant values calculated during the model run. Separate values for fluvial erosion, fluvial deposition, marine erosion and marine deposition are stored in the data structure. For each chron the sum of the area of fluvial deposition and the area of marine deposition should equal the sum of the area of fluvial erosion and marine erosion, since no out-of-plane sediment transport is included in the model. This is not the case, however, when the option for external sediment input is selected. In this case, the sum of the area of fluvial and marine deposition together equals just the area of external sediment input in the case of constant sediment supply, or

the sum of the external input and the fluvial and marine erosion. The initialisation of the external sediment input curve is described in section 2.6.1.

The values of cumulative thermal subsidence and relative sealevel are calculated at a point on the profile given as a model input parameter. Relative sealevel at any point is given by calculating the elevation difference between the initial model chron, which is used as the reference surface, and the current absolute sealevel datum. This is not the same as water depth, since the initial chron may have been buried by deposition on subsequent chrons. Negative values for relative sealevel indicate elevations of the point above its initial elevation. Stratal onlap is calculated at the end of the model by taking the height of those points where the fluvial portion of a chron terminates against an older chron below.

2.5 Model parameters

The model has thirty eight parameters, not including the values used to calculate the lithospheric stretching factor profiles and the initial topography. Several of these parameters control various options in the model e.g. what type of flexure calculations are to be used, what type of sediment supply model is to be used. The remaining parameters contain values for variables used directly in the model e.g. the model time step (Myrs), and the gradient of the offshore shelf profile (mkm^{-1}). The purpose and the range of values for all these variables are given in appendix 1.

2.6 The sequence of the algorithms

Once the model parameters have been set the model must be initialised. The initialisation routines are executed once before each model run. They are described in section 2.6.1. The input parameters may also be adjusted whilst the model is running. Figure 2.3 shows a flowchart outlining the sequence of algorithms to generate each chron in the model. This indicates the order in which the equations described in the following sections should be

applied to reproduce the model output. The first step for each chron is to increment the E.M.T. by the model time step, adjust the elevation of the absolute sealevel datum according to the pre-defined absolute sealevel curve, and, if appropriate, to calculate the area of sediment to be applied to the top of the fluvial profile as the external sediment budget. The next step is to calculate the magnitude of the thermal subsidence at each point along the profile (section 2.6.3). Once this has been done, the position of the chron-sealevel datum intersection (for the sake of brevity this will be referred to more loosely as "the beach") on the profile can be found (section 2.6.4). This position is then used in the generation of first the fluvial, and then the marine equilibrium profiles. These profiles, described fully in sections 2.6.5, control erosion and deposition of stratigraphy, and can thus be used to determine the magnitude and distribution of sediment loading and unloading across the profile. The final step for each chron is to use this magnitude and distribution of loading across the profile to calculate the lithospheric flexural response (section 2.6.6).

2.6.1 Model initialisation

The first step in each model run is to initialise the model parameters, execution variables, and the model data structures. The values of the input parameters are read from input windows, and the value of key model variables (e.g. the number of chrons generated, the E.M.T.) are set to their starting values. The absolute sealevel curves are defined using sinusoidal curves or straight lines of a given gradient. The sinusoidal curves are calculated using the equation

$$d(t) = \left(\frac{y_1 - y_2}{2} \right) + \left(\frac{y_1 - y_2}{f} \sin \left(\frac{2\pi}{f t} \right) \right) \quad (2)$$

where y_1 and y_2 are the maximum and minimum sealevel datum elevations respectively, f is the period of the curve in mega years, and t is E.M.T. These are all given as model parameters. Two sinusoidal curves of different periods may be used. Thus a short-term

curve of period 0.1 to 1.0Myrs may be superimposed upon a longer-term curve of period 1.0 to 100.0Myrs. The longer term curve may also be defined as a simple linear increase of decrease in absolute sealevel elevation thus

$$d(t) = d(t - t_{inc}) + \left(\frac{y_1 - y_2}{f} \right) \quad (3)$$

where t_{inc} is the length of the model time step in Myrs. The curves controlling the area of external sediment supply (i.e. the area supplied to the top of the model fluvial profile independent of erosion on the profile) are defined using similar equations where maximum and minimum datum elevations are replaced by maximum and minimum areas of sediment. Both sinusoidal and linear curves may be defined, and also saw-tooth curves where sediment supply increases or decreases linearly for a specified period and then reverts to the original minimum or maximum value. External sediment supply can also be held at a constant given value.

Finally in the initialisation procedure the initial topography and the stretching factors required for the thermal subsidence calculations (see section 2.6.3) across the profile are set. The initial topography is defined in a data file consisting of coordinate pairs, the first value being a position on the model profile in kilometres, and the second being the elevation in metres at that point. These coordinate pairs are read two at a time, and the elevation values at each point on the profile between the specified positions are calculated using simple linear interpolation. The values for the stretching factors across the profile are defined using the same method.

2.6.2 Updating the model variables

Several model variables are updated at this point. The E.M.T. is incremented by the value of the time step parameter, and the total number of time steps completed is incremented by one. The elevation of the absolute sealevel datum is adjusted according to the pre-defined

absolute sealevel curve. If appropriate, the area of external sediment supply is also adjusted according to the pre-defined external sediment supply curve.

2.6.3 Thermal subsidence

Thermal subsidence is the fundamental tectonic mechanism by which accommodation space is created in passive margin basins. It is modelled here using either the one-layer uniform stretching model of McKenzie (1978) or the two-layer non-uniform stretching model of Hellinger and Sclater (1983).

The one-layer uniform stretching equations from McKenzie (1978) allow the lithospheric stretching factor to be varied laterally across the profile, although this is not actually used in McKenzie (1978). Values for the stretching factor are specified at a small number of points on the profile. Linear interpolation is then used to calculate the stretching value at each point on the profile. The magnitude of subsidence at each point is given by :

$$S_t = e(0) - e(t) \quad (4)$$

where e is the subsidence in metres at a given time t in seconds, and is given by :

$$e(t) = \frac{a\rho_m\alpha\Gamma_m}{\rho_m - \rho_w} \left\{ \frac{4}{\pi^2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2n+1)^2} \left[\frac{\beta}{(2n+1)\pi} \sin\left(\frac{(2n+1)\pi}{\beta}\right) \right] \exp\left(-\frac{(2n+1)^2 t}{\tau}\right) \right\} \quad (5)$$

Table 2.3 lists and defines the parameters used in the equations. The value for the magnitude of subsidence at each point is used to adjust the elevation of previous chrons.

Parameter	Definition	Values
a	initial thickness of lithosphere	125 km
t_c	initial thickness of continental crust	35 km
ρ_m	density of mantle at 0°C	3330 kg m ⁻³
ρ_c	density of crust at 0°C	2800 kg m ⁻³
ρ_w	density of water	1030 kg m ⁻³
β	lithospheric stretching factor	input parameter
β_c	crustal stretching factor	input parameter
β_{sc}	subcrustal stretching factor	input parameter
β_L	ratio of t_c to stretched crustal thickness	dimensionless
α	thermal expansion coefficient.	3.28E10 ⁻⁵ °C ⁻¹
T_m	temperature at lithosphere base	1333°C
τ	$a^2 / \pi^2 \kappa$ lithospheric time constant	62.8 Myr

Table 2.3

The non-uniform stretching model works on very similar principles, except that two stretching factors are utilised, one for the crust (β_c) and a second for the lithospheric mantle (β_{sc}). Values for both stretching factors are given as initial model parameters, and the values of subsidence used to adjust previous chron elevations. The equations used in this model are taken from Hellinger and Sclater (1983). There is no facility in the model to check for space problems between the crust and the mantle caused by differential stretching. This is assumed to be done when defining the stretching value profiles.

The value for subsidence $S(t)$, where t is time in seconds, is given by:

$$S(t) = e(0) - e(t) \quad (6)$$

where $e(t)$ is given by :

$$e(t) \approx \frac{2a\alpha\rho_m T_m}{(\rho_m - \rho_w)\pi} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{C_{2k+1}}{2k+1} \exp\left[-\frac{(2k+1)^2 t}{\tau}\right] \quad (7)$$

where

$$C_n = \frac{2(-1)^{n+1}}{n^2\pi^2} \left[(\beta_c - \beta_{sc}) \sin\left(\frac{n\pi t_c}{a\beta_c}\right) + \beta_{sc} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{\beta_L}\right) \right] \quad (8)$$

and

$$\frac{a}{\beta_L} = \frac{t_c}{\beta_c} + \frac{a - t_c}{\beta_{sc}}. \quad (9)$$

Parameters used in these equations are defined in Table 2.3.

Neither of the models used here include the effects of lateral heat flow (e.g. Steckler and Watts, 1981). Though these effects may be important during rifting and for up to 20Myr after rifting (Jarvis and McKenzie, 1980; Cochran, 1983), and in narrow basins where lateral temperature gradients are high (Pitman and Andrews, 1985), they are less important on older thermally subsiding passive margins.

2.6.4 Finding the Beach

Once the effects of thermal subsidence have been calculated and applied to all previous chrons, the position of the intersection between the last chron and the absolute sealevel datum can be found. The algorithm to find this beach position starts with the first point at the landward end of the profile and checks each point in turn to determine if it is below sealevel, i.e. its elevation is less than the elevation of the absolute sealevel datum. The first point to meet this criterion defines the position of the beach. Once the beach position is known, it can be used in the definition of the fluvial and the marine equilibrium profiles.

2.6.5 Depositional and erosional profiles

A crucial central element in a stratigraphic model is the method used to determine the distribution of deposition and erosion of stratigraphy in time and space in the model. The following section compares and contrasts two alternative approaches to the problem, namely a geometrical approach using equilibrium profile curves with a specified geometry, and a diffusional approach using a solution of the standard diffusion equation in which the rate of change of topographic elevation is proportional to the rate of change of topographic slope.

2.6.5.1 The concept of geometrically defined equilibrium curves

The concept of the fluvial equilibrium profile

Using this approach deposition and erosion of stratigraphy in both the subaerial and the submarine portions of the basin is modelled using the concept of geometrically defined equilibrium profiles. Much previous work has been done in an attempt to define equilibrium with respect to fluvial systems. Davis (1899; 1902) assumed that over a geologically significant period of time the downstream portions of rivers attain a "graded" profile in equilibrium with the prevailing conditions "by a process of cutting and filling, until an equable slope is developed along which the transport of its load is most effectively accomplished." Mackin (1948) defined a graded stream as "one in which, over a period of years, slope is delicately adjusted to provide, with available discharge and with prevailing channel characteristics, just the velocity required for the transportation of the load supplied by the drainage basin. The graded stream is a system in equilibrium; its diagnostic character is that any change in any of the controlling factors will cause a displacement of the equilibrium in a direction that will tend to absorb the effect of the change." Leopold and Bull (1979) expanded on this by suggesting that the adjustment to a "graded

(equilibrium) stream is one in which, over a period of years, slope, velocity, depth, width, roughness, pattern and channel morphology delicately and mutually adjust to provide the power and efficiency necessary to transport the load supplied from the drainage basin without aggradation or degradation of the channel."

All these definitions assume that a stream undergoes some perturbation away from its original equilibrium profile, and then regains equilibrium by adjusting one or several of the variables such as slope, channel morphology and channel width. This is referred to as static equilibrium. A second type of equilibrium, referred to as dynamic equilibrium was described (Hack, 1960; Bull, 1991) in which a stream maintains a delicate balance of variables to maintain its profile in response to constantly changing conditions. An example of this would be a stream flowing over an area of tectonic uplift. If the stream had sufficient power, it would erode downwards at a rate equivalent to the rate of tectonic uplift, and hence maintain its profile shape. This was referred to by Bull (1991) as type 1 dynamic equilibrium. Type 2 dynamic equilibrium occurs when a stream is responding to changes in conditions, such as for example, tectonic uplift, but cannot maintain a particular profile shape.

Although the concept of dynamic equilibrium may more accurately represent the behaviour of streams responding to continuous changes in conditions, the concept of static equilibrium more accurately represents the operation of an equilibrium profile in a stratigraphic model with discrete time steps with a magnitude of thousands of years. The assumption then is that such profiles can respond to changes in base-level, changes in beach position, and surface uplift and subsidence on the profile, within the duration of a model time step. This assumption raises the question of fluvial response times. Howard (1982) calculated that the Yampa and the Little Snake rivers in North America would adjust to base-level changes in three to five kiloyears, while the much larger Mississippi river would take 50 to 80K yrs. Thus it seems reasonable to assume that with a model time

step of 100Kyr the fluvial profile has sufficient time to adjust to changes in base-level and profile shape.

Another question regarding the nature of stream response to changes in system variables such as base-level was highlighted by Schumm (1993), which argued that streams can respond to a slow fall in base-level by changing their channel pattern without the need for aggradation or downcutting. While this may well be the case on shorter time scales, it seems unlikely that this will apply for longer time scales when events such as avulsions force the stream to create new channel courses in a new position on the flood plain, and hence allow the fluvial system to aggrade or degrade while re-establishing a channel pattern. This question does highlight the lack of data regarding the response of fluvial systems to base-level changes over a period of a kilo year and longer. Such data would be invaluable to stratigraphic modelling.

Geometrical curve fitting

It is possible to fit mathematically generated curves to modern river profiles. Snow and Slingerland (1987) showed that such curves can provide a fit with only a small error to a profile modelled from first principles using sediment transport equations. Figures 2.4 and 2.5 show four topographic profiles from rivers on the North American and African Atlantic margins. Plotted against each topographic profile for comparison are best-fit complementary error function curves, calculated using the Levenberg-Marquardt method (Press et al., 1986; England, pers. comm. 1993). The complementary error function curve has the form

$$\text{erfc}(\eta) \equiv 1 - \left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^\eta e^{-\eta'^2} d\eta' \right) \quad (10)$$

where η is the dimensionless error function parameter, and η' is a dummy variable of integration.

Such fits are significant in the context of diffusional profiles and are discussed further in section 2.6.5.3, but if the complementary error function is treated as a purely geometrical entity, the fits are also significant, since they demonstrate that the curve has the correct geometrical form to approximate river profile geometry at a given time. This is supported by the conclusions of Snow and Slingerland (1987).

2.6.5.2 The implementation of the geometrical fluvial profile

Taking the geometrical approach to fluvial profile modelling, the fluvial profile is represented by an exponential curve or a complementary error function curve treated as a geometrical entity. The curve is scaled and fitted between the beach and a point landward of the beach which is taken to be analogous to the upstream edge of the coastal plain on a passive margin. Thus the fluvial profile in the model does not represent the whole length of a fluvial profile from the beach to the drainage divide, but rather just the lower portion of the profile where preservation potential for deposited stratigraphy is highest. The position of the landward limit of the fluvial profile can either be held fixed throughout the model run, or it can be moved landward at a rate given as a model parameter. This allows for a situation in which the width of the coastal plain increases with time with respect to the initial position of the beach.

The exponential curve has the form

$$y(x) = e^{n(x - x_1)} + d(t) - 1 \quad (11)$$

where

$$n = \frac{\ln(y_2 - d(t) + 1)}{(x_2 - x_1)}. \quad (12)$$

The variables x_1 and x_2 are the horizontal start and end points of the profile respectively, the start point being the edge of the coastal plain, the end point being the beach (see figure 2.6). The variable $d(t)$ is the elevation of the absolute sealevel datum, and y_2 is the elevation above the zero datum of the topography at the landward limit of the profile.

The complementary error function curve has the form

$$y(x) = \frac{\operatorname{erfc}((x - x_1) \cdot \omega - \theta)}{\Phi} + d(t) \quad (13)$$

where

$$\omega = \frac{\theta}{(x_1 - x_2)} \quad (14)$$

and

$$\Phi = \frac{1 - \theta}{y_1 - d(t)}. \quad (15)$$

Figure 2.6 explains the variables x_1 , x_2 and y_1 in diagrammatic form. The equations are essentially scaling functions for the output from the complementary error function. The variable θ controls the section of the complementary error function used to define the profile such that the error function parameter values range from 1.0 to θ . It can be seen from the plot of the function in figure 2.7 that the steepness of the curve decreases with increasing values of x along the horizontal axis of the plot. Thus the value of θ used determines the section of the curve used, and hence the concavity of the geometrical fluvial profile. Higher values of θ increase the concavity of the profile, and vice versa.

The geometrical curves are used to control deposition and erosion by comparing at each relevant point on the model profile, the elevation of the fluvial profile generated for the

current time step, and the elevation of previous chrons. This is summarised in quantitative form as

$$\Delta H(x) = y(x) - H(x, t - \Delta t) \quad (16)$$

where y is the elevation of the new profile, as defined in equations 11 and 13, and $H(t - \Delta t)$ is the elevation of the chron from the previous time step. Thus positive values of ΔH leads to deposition, since the area between the new profile and the previous chron is treated as subaerial accommodation space and filled with available sediment. Negative values of ΔH lead to erosion as the elevation of the old chron is reduced to the elevation of the new profile. This process of deposition and erosion in the model is illustrated in figures 2.8 to 2.11.

The area deposited or eroded is subtracted from, or, depending on the model options specified, added to the total sediment budget available for deposition. Conservation of mass is maintained, so that when appropriate according to the sediment supply options chosen, the area of sediment deposited is always equal to the area of sediment eroded, plus any external input. Areas of erosion and deposition are calculated using simple trigonometry. Adjacent points on two chrons form a trapezium shape, the area of which can be calculated by splitting the shape into its component rectangles and triangles (figure 2.12). The elevation difference between the older chrons and the new profile is the magnitude of sediment loading and unloading used to calculate the flexural response, as explained in section 2.6.6.

Fixed and free geometrical profiles

When using a geometrically defined equilibrium profile to model the fluvial profile there are two alternative methods regarding the positioning of the beach and hence the geometry and the pattern of deposition and erosion on the profile. In the case of the fixed profile, the

beach is maintained at the position determined by the algorithm described in section 2.6.4. The profile is fixed in the sense that the profile is allowed to subside due to thermal subsidence without causing fluvial aggradation. However, any part of the profile uplifted above the original curve, for example as a result of flexural uplift, is removed. This is shown in diagrammatic form in figure 2.8. The fixed profile is thus analogous to a river system with very low sediment supply, unable to initiate significant deposition, but with sufficient power to erode uplifted parts of the profile. This algorithm is only valid for relative or absolute sealevel rise.

The second method is to allow the fluvial profile the freedom to determine the position of the beach by means of a sediment partitioning coefficient. The sediment partitioning coefficient determines the relative areas of external sediment supply that are deposited in the fluvial and the marine portions of the profile. For example, a partitioning coefficient value of 0.3 means that if there is 1.0km^2 of external sediment input, 0.3km^2 will be deposited as fluvial sediment and the remaining area, plus any sediment produced by fluvial and marine erosion, will be deposited as marine stratigraphy. Thus the position of the beach is determined by iteratively adjusting the beach position until the closest match is obtained between the area of fluvial stratigraphy deposited, and the required area specified by the partitioning coefficient (figure 2.13).

The partitioning coefficient is difficult to constrain as a model parameter. It can be constrained to a limited extent by examining the planform areas and thicknesses of terrestrial and marine deposition for modern systems, and using the ratio between these two volumes as the partitioning coefficient. However, such data on marine and fluvial depositional volumes are not easily available. A second and less accurate method is to use the subaerial and submarine areas of a delta to calculate the ratio. For example, the Delaware river delta has a total depositional area of 13660m^2 , of which 2160m^2 is subaerial (Pers. comm. Hovius, 1993). This gives a fluvial-marine partitioning coefficient of 0.16. Obviously such calculations are limited by the accuracy and extent of the data

available, and provide no information on how the partitioning coefficient should be varied through time. However, they do provide limited constraint on the values used.

Response of the free fluvial profile to absolute sealevel change

This section explains how the geometrical fluvial profile responds to absolute sealevel change, and also how the profile is used to control the distribution of deposition and erosion. Figure 2.9 shows the profile response to falling sealevel. At time 2 absolute sealevel has fallen and the elevation of the new fluvial profile is less than that of the previous profile along much of its length. Hence erosion occurs on these parts of the new profile. Beyond the position of the beach from time 1, however, the elevation of the profile is greater than the elevation of the previous chron, and hence some deposition occurs. The horizontal and vertical extent of this deposition depends upon the magnitude of the sealevel fall, the magnitude of the sediment supply, and the value of the partitioning coefficient.

The geometry of the fluvial profile during rising absolute sealevel is also dependent not only on the magnitude of the sealevel rise, but also upon the magnitude of sediment supply and the partitioning coefficient. Figure 2.10 shows the profile geometry and the distribution of deposition and erosion in response to rising absolute sealevel when either the rate of sealevel rise is slow, sediment supply is high, or the partitioning coefficient is high. In this case there is no erosion on the profile, only aggradation and progradation. Figure 2.11 contrasts this with an example of the geometry produced when sealevel rise is rapid, sediment supply is low, or the partitioning coefficient is low. In this case, there is some erosion on the upper part of the profile, accompanied by aggradation on the lower portion of the profile.

The realism of this profile behaviour will be discussed and compared with the behaviour of the diffusional profile below in section 2.6.5.4.

2.6.5.3 The concept of the diffusional profile

Diffusion describes the transport of matter in physical systems from one part of the system to another as a result of random molecular motions (Crank, 1975). The rate of transport of the matter in such cases is proportional to the concentration gradient, and this relationship leads to the classical diffusion equation

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial t} = \kappa \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial x^2} \quad (17)$$

where C is the concentration of the diffusing substance, t is time, x is the space coordinate measured normal to the section, and κ is the diffusion coefficient which has the units $\text{length}^2 \text{ time}^{-1}$. This diffusion equation can be used to describe, for example, the transfer of heat by conduction in a solid, or the transfer of material across some boundary between material types. It can also be used to describe the erosion, transport, and deposition of sediment by assuming that topographic height h is analogous to concentration C in equation 17, thus giving

$$\frac{\partial h}{\partial t} = \kappa \frac{\partial^2 h}{\partial x^2} \quad (18)$$

This is derived by combining the one-dimensional sediment continuity equation for bedload transport which conserves mass

$$\frac{\partial h}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{\rho_s(1-\lambda)} \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} \quad (19)$$

where ρ_s is the density of sediment grains, λ is the porosity of the deposited sediment, and Q is the rate of sediment transport, with the simple diffusional relationship

$$Q = -K \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} \quad (20)$$

where K is a sediment transport coefficient with the units $\text{length}^2 \text{ time}^{-1}$. Substitution of (20) in (19) gives the diffusion equation in (18) where $\kappa = K / \rho_s(1 - \lambda)$. The value of κ for a solid volume of sediment of unit width (18) is simply K , with units of $\text{length}^2 \text{ time}^{-1}$.

It is important to note that one of the fundamental assumptions that underlies the derivation of the diffusion equation as given above is that there is no change in the suspended sediment concentration in the stream flow across its bed, i.e. that the deposited sediment contains no contribution from suspended load. This is obviously unrealistic since sediment grades such as fine sand, silt and clay comprise a substantial portion of alluvial stratigraphy. Attempting to include extra terms in the diffusion equation to account for this leads to the problem that the rate of transport of non-bedload sediment may bear no relationship with flow power or slope (Leeder, 1992). Consequently, predictions made by diffusional models should be treated with caution on the basis of these difficulties.

Two methods are used in this modelling study to solve equation 18 and thus provide an alternative method in the model to describe the evolution of fluvial profiles with time.

Diffusion from a semi-infinite half-space

In order to solve the diffusion equation analytically it is necessary to define simple geometries, linear boundary conditions, and to maintain a constant value for the diffusion coefficient. One such example is to use the condition of surface evaporation from a semi-infinite medium, or half space (Crank, 1975). In this case the boundary condition for the solution describes, for example, a flow of dry air over a surface with some moisture concentration. Moisture is then lost from the surface by evaporation. The rate of flux of the

moisture depends on the relative moisture concentration on the surface, and the moisture concentration of the air. The concentration C in the air after time t is given by

$$\frac{C - C_1}{C_0 - C_1} = \operatorname{erfc} \frac{x}{2\sqrt{(\kappa t)}} \quad (21)$$

where C_0 is the constant concentration at the surface of medium, C_1 is the initial moisture concentration in the air, κ is the diffusion coefficient, and C is the concentration at distance x .

Putting these boundary conditions into the context of erosion, transport and deposition of sediment, the concentration of moisture at the surface of the semi-infinite medium C_0 is analogous to the elevation of a drainage divide in a continental interior, such that there is assumed to be an infinite supply of sediment available for transport from the half space which is the continental area behind the drainage divide. The concentration of moisture in the air, C_1 , is analogous to sealevel. Thus replacing the symbol C with h to represent topographic elevation and rearranging equation 21 to solve for h gives

$$h = (h_0 - h_1) \operatorname{erfc} \frac{x}{2\sqrt{(\kappa t)}} + h_1 \quad (22)$$

The parameter $\sqrt{(\kappa t)}$, termed the diffusion distance, is of significance since it has the units of length and can be calculated for modern river profiles by fitting curves generated by equation 22 to such profiles as described in section 2.6.5.2. Figures 2.4 and 2.5 show topographic profiles and best-fit complementary error function curves for two rivers from the North American and African Atlantic passive margins respectively. The North American profiles are generated from the DBDB5 global D.E.M., and the interpolated profiles are constructed by linear interpolation between valley bottoms on the profile. The African profiles are taken from 1:500,000 tactical pilotage charts, and linear interpolation is used to complete the profile between the data points. Table 2.4 shows the values of $\sqrt{(\kappa t)}$ for the rivers in figures 2.4 and 2.5.

River Name	Diffusion distance $\sqrt{(\kappa t)}$ in km
Savannah, U.S.A.	107
James, U.S.A.	82
Giraul, Angola	65
Rio Catumbela, Angola	105

Table 2.4

Thus this solution of the diffusion equation is suitable to be used as an initial condition for an iterative finite difference solution, and can be given parameters that are taken from observation of real-world examples. It should be noted, however, that this method cannot allow values of κ alone to be measured, unless t , which represents the time taken for the development of the profile, is known.

Finite difference method

In order to provide a more generally applicable solution to the diffusion equation it is necessary to resort to the use of numerical methods, rather than the more limited analytical solution, an example of which was described above. One such numerical solution utilises the explicit finite difference method. Using this method the variable space under consideration is broken down into a grid of a specified resolution, and a series of equations defined and solved to give the value of the variable at each intersection point on the grid, relative to some initial conditions, and a set of pre-defined boundary conditions.

Smith (1985) shows how this method can be applied to the diffusion equation, giving

$$h(x, t + \Delta t) = h(x, t) + \kappa \frac{\Delta t}{\Delta x^2} [h(x + \Delta x, t) - 2h(x, t) + h(x - \Delta x, t)] \quad (23)$$

where Δt is the model time step, and Δx is the horizontal grid spacing. A common problem with such finite difference solutions is the stability of the solution. Smith (1985) shows that the solution in equation 23 is valid only for

$$0 < \frac{\kappa \Delta t}{\Delta x^2} < 0.5$$

Values of 0.5 or greater lead to the formation of unstable oscillation which magnify with increasing t . As a result of this stability constraint it is necessary to reduce the size of Δt or increase the size of Δx in line with increasing values of κ .

This numerical solution to the diffusion equation makes no explicit reference to sealevel. However, it is possible to implement a variable sealevel datum elevation quite simply by employing an algorithm for finding the beach position as described in section 2.6.4. The examples of diffusional profile shown in section 2.6.5.4 use this method, and set the profile below sealevel to a fixed gradient slope. This is an obvious simplification of the behaviour of the marine system, but seems justifiable here since the essential purpose is to investigate the behaviour of the fluvial profile, and hence it is desirable to keep the treatment of the marine profile as simple as possible.

2.6.5.4. A comparison of the geometrical and the diffusional methods

The following section compares and contrasts the response of the geometrical profile and the diffusional profiles to sealevel changes.

Sealevel rise

The first examples illustrate the response of the geometrical and the diffusional profiles to a 20m sealevel rise. Figure 2.14 shows the diffusional profile example. This is calculated using an initial complementary error function profile with a value for $\sqrt{\kappa t}$ of 50km. This

was chosen to approximate the initial length of the geometrical profile of 200km. The profile was then calculated for a model duration of 1.0Myrs, with a diffusion coefficient κ of $1000\text{m}^2\text{yr}^{-1}$, using the finite difference method described in section 2.6.5.3. Figure 2.14 shows that the sealevel rise causes landward movement of the beach, and fluvial aggradation along the whole length of the fluvial profile. The magnitude of the aggradation decreases landward along the profile, and is greatest where the rate of change of topographic slope is greatest. Thus more aggradation occurs on the lower portions of the profile where it is more concave. Aggradation behind the beach is also influenced slightly by the break in slope from the bottom of the fluvial profile onto the marine profile.

Comparing this with the geometrical approach shown in figure 2.15 shows that the main difference between the behaviour of the two profiles is in the presence of small amounts of erosion on the upper portion of the geometrical profile. Figure 2.15 was generated over the same time and with the same 20m magnitude sealevel rise as the diffusional example. A complementary error function curve with a parameter of 2.0, an external sediment budget of 1.0km^2 , and a partitioning coefficient of 0.5 were used as model parameter values. The beach moves landwards in response to the sealevel rise, as it does in the diffusional example, producing aggradation in the lower fluvial profile. However, in the geometrical case, the landward movement of the beach causes shortening of the profile, which leads to small amounts of erosion on the upper portions of the fluvial profile.

Thus the most significant difference between the response of the geometrical and the diffusional models to base level rise is the presence or absence of erosion or aggradation on the upper portion of the profile. Determining which of these is the most accurate representation of actual coastal plain depositional patterns is problematic. Leopold and Bull (1979) studied via repeated surveys, the response of a number of small rivers to artificial sealevel rise induced by the construction of dams, In one case a dam approximately 0.6m high was constructed across the course of an ephemeral tributary stream in New Mexico. The presence of the dam initiated aggradation in the reaches

immediately upstream, producing a wedge of sediment approximately 30m in length, which reduced the gradient of the stream bed behind the dam site. The 200m of fluvial profile between the top of the aggradational wedge and the drainage divide appeared unaffected by the sealevel rise. The other rivers studied in the same way showed similar behaviour.

Obviously Leopold and Bull's study has the disadvantage of being conducted only on a small scale, but with a lack of data regarding the behaviour of larger systems, it seems reasonable to extrapolate similar behaviour to larger scale systems. Since aggradation does not appear to occur along the whole length of the profile after a sealevel rise, the diffusional model is inaccurate. The geometrical approach has the advantage that it predicts a wedge of aggradational deposition in response to the sealevel rise, that tapers out upstream. However, depending on the sediment supply, the partitioning coefficient and the error function parameter used, this erosion can be minimised. Consequently it seems reasonable to conclude that it is reasonable to use the geometrical approach in this case.

Sealevel fall

The next two examples show the response of the diffusional and the geometrical profiles to a 20m sealevel fall. All other parameters in both cases are the same as those used in the sealevel rise example. In the diffusional example in figure 2.16 the sealevel fall creates a pattern of continuous aggradation on most of the profile, with only a small amount of spatially limited erosion in the lower 50km of the profile. In contrast, the geometrical approach shown in figure 2.17 produces more widespread and vertically significant erosion on the lower 150km of the profile, with limited amounts of aggradation on the upper profile produced by the lengthening of the profile.

Begin *et al.* (1981) studied the effects of base level fall in a flume tank. It concluded that the effect of the sealevel fall was to initiate stream incision at the head of the stream, which

then migrated upstream towards the top of the flume tank. Wood *et al.* (1993) found similar results using a flume tank and fluctuating sealevel. Sealevel fall was found to cause incision which progresses upstream. However, Wood *et al.* (1993) also noted that the rate of the sealevel change relative to the response time of the stream, was crucial to determining the stream response, and that this response are complex in that individual episodes of deposition and erosion by the stream may have little direct link with an external forcing such as base level. For example, sediment may be stored by aggradation in the upper portions of a channel while incision is occurring downstream.

Comparing the response of the geometrical profile with that of the diffusional profile, it seems that the geometrical profile may have the advantage in that the incision in response to the sealevel fall is more clearly delineated and extends further up the profile. However, in both cases the prolonged aggradation on the upper profile seems unrealistic, though in the case of the geometrical profile such aggradation has very low preservation potential since it is very unlikely to survive reworking by profile shortening during a subsequent sealevel rise.

Sinusoidal sealevel variation - low sediment supply

Since many of the model runs through the rest of this thesis use sinusoidal absolute sealevel curves, two examples are included here to show the response of the geometrical and the diffusional profiles to the same 20m amplitude, 2.0Myrs period sinusoidal absolute sealevel oscillation. Figure 2.18 shows the diffusional example, with a transport coefficient value of $1000\text{m}^2\text{yr}^{-1}$, an initial $\sqrt{\kappa t}$ value of 50km, and an elapsed model time of 2.5Myrs. The movement of the beach in response to the sealevel changes is clearly visible. The beach initially moves landward slightly in response to the initial sealevel rise, and then moves rapidly seaward as sealevel falls. It reaches its most seaward position at an E.M.T. of 1.5Myrs, after which it undergoes rapid transgression which slows as the rate of sealevel rise decreases.

The beach movement can be compared directly with the absolute sealevel curve in figure 2.19. The spatial extent of deposition, non-deposition, and erosion on the fluvial profile can be seen on the chronostratigraphic diagram in figure 2.19. Aggradation on the upper portions of the fluvial profile is continuous throughout the model run, and occurs on the lower portion of the profile from chrons 1 to 10 (E.M.T. of 0.0 to 1.0Myrs) and from chrons 19 to 24 (E.M.T. 1.9 to 2.4Myrs). The fluvial profile is responsible for small amounts of erosion on the lower profile during the sealevel fall and the initial rise. This 100km wide area of non-deposition and erosion is shown on the chronostratigraphic profile from chron 11 to chron 18 (E.M.T. of 1.1 to 1.8Myrs), and correspond to the time of transition from the lower portion of the falling limb of the sealevel curve to the inflexion point on the rising limb.

These patterns can be compared directly with those produced by the geometrical profile for the same sealevel variation. The model was run with a complementary error function parameter value of 2.0, a constant external sediment supply of 0.1km^2 , and a partitioning coefficient of 0.5. The profile section in figure 2.20 shows the pattern of beach movement produced by the sinusoidal sealevel variation. The initial sealevel rise produces a landward migration of the beach of approximately 70km. The following sealevel fall causes a seaward translation of approximately 50km, and the final rise produces another landward movement of approximately 100km. Fluvial stratigraphy is only preserved from aggradation on the lower profile during the final sealevel rise. Previous deposition has subsequently been eroded by the sealevel fall, and on the upper profile, by the final sealevel rise. Only the addition of subsidence would ensure preservation beyond the duration of a single sealevel cycle.

The pattern of deposition and erosion is more clearly visible on the chronostratigraphic diagram in figure 2.21. Deposition occurred on the lower part of the profile during the initial sealevel rise, and on the upper part of the profile during the sealevel fall. All the

fluvial stratigraphy prior to chron 16 has been eroded, either by downcutting of the profile during the sealevel fall from chrons 5 to 15 (E.M.T. 0.5 to 1.5Myrs) or by erosion on the upper profile due to profile shortening forced by the initial sealevel rise from chron 15 to 18 (E.M.T. 1.5 to 1.8Myrs). A period of non-deposition and erosion produced by fluvial downcutting during the sealevel fall, and approximately 100km in width, produces a similar pattern to that seen in the diffusional example.

Thus a comparison of the results from the geometrical and the diffusional profiles shows that:

- Aggradation occurs on the upper portion of the diffusional fluvial profile throughout the sealevel cycle.
- Vertically limited but horizontally extensive non-deposition and erosion occurs on the lower part of the diffusional profile during the period between the inflexion points on the lowest portion of the absolute sealevel curve.
- Aggradation occurs on the upper portion of the geometrical fluvial profile only during time of sealevel fall. This is due to profile lengthening forced by the seaward movement of the beach. During sealevel rise the upper portion of the geometrical fluvial profile is erosional.
- Vertically more significant and horizontally extensive non-deposition and erosion occurs on the lower half of the geometrical profile throughout the duration of the falling limb of the absolute sealevel curve.

Sinusoidal sealevel variation - higher sediment supply

Since the response of the geometrical profile to sealevel change is sensitive to the sediment supply, this second example using the sinusoidal sealevel variation uses a higher value of external sediment supply of 0.5km^2 for the geometrical profile, and a higher value for the diffusion coefficient of $5000\text{m}^2\text{yr}^{-1}$. All the other model parameters are the same as those described in the low sediment supply example.

The higher value for the diffusion coefficient has the effect of reducing the landward movement of the beach during the sealevel rises, and increasing the thickness of fluvial aggradation, and decreasing the vertical and horizontal extent of the erosion and non-deposition produced by the sealevel fall (figure 2.22). The distance of seaward movement of the beach during the sealevel fall is not significantly affected. The reduced width of the zone of non-deposition and erosion is shown more clearly in the chronostratigraphic diagram in figure 2.23. This reduction in the width of the zone is due to the increased aggradation produced by the increased diffusion coefficient.

Increasing the external sediment supply on the geometrical profile has the effect of reducing the distance of the transgression of the beach during sealevel rise, increasing the distance of seaward movement of the beach during sealevel fall, and reducing the erosion on the upper fluvial profile during sealevel rise (figure 2.24). This change in the pattern can be seen on the chronostratigraphic diagram in figure 2.25. Deposition on chrons 1 to 7 during the initial sealevel rise is now preserved. The horizontal extent of this deposition has been increased by the higher sediment supply.

Thus a comparison of the results from the geometrical and the diffusional profiles shows that:

- Aggradation occurs on the upper portion of the diffusional fluvial profile throughout the sealevel cycle.
- Vertically and horizontally limited non-deposition and erosion occurs on the lower part of the diffusional profile during the three time steps before and during the low point on the absolute sealevel curve.
- Aggradation occurs on the upper portion of the geometrical fluvial profile only during time of sealevel fall. This is due to profile lengthening forced by the seaward movement of the beach. During sealevel rise the upper portion of the geometrical

fluvial profile is erosional, but the extent of this erosion is reduced because of the higher sediment supply acting against profile shortening.

- Vertically more significant and horizontally extensive non-deposition and erosion occurs on the lower half of the geometrical profile throughout the duration of the falling limb of the absolute sealevel curve.

A comparison of sediment flux magnitudes

Another important comparison to make between the geometrical and the diffusional approach to fluvial profile generation is in regard to the magnitudes of the sediment flux for the two approaches. Figure 2.26 shows three plots of sediment flux with distance along the profile for both the geometrical and the diffusional approaches. Both examples were generated with a 1.0Myr model run, constant sealevel and an initial profile length of approximately 200km, generated in the case of the diffusional profile with a value for $\sqrt{(\kappa t)}$ of 50km. The geometrical model has a partitioning coefficient value of 0.5. The three curves for each plot were generated with different values of external sediment supply in the geometrical case, and diffusion coefficient in the diffusional case. The diffusion coefficient values are based on the range of values from Flemings and Jordan (1989) and Jordan and Flemings (1991). The methods for calculating the flux differ in the two approaches. In the geometrical case the flux is calculated by subtracting the area of stratigraphy deposited at distance x from the total external sediment supply, and then dividing by the length of the time step to give a flux in m^2yr^{-1} . In the diffusional case the flux is calculated using equation 20, and K and κ are assumed to have the same value.

Comparison of the two plots in figure 2.26 shows that with varying values for the external sediment supply and the diffusion coefficient shows that :

- The magnitudes of the fluxes are similar. For example, with a diffusion coefficient value of $10000m^2yr^{-1}$ the diffusional flux curve has a magnitude ranging from approximately $10m^2yr^{-1}$ to $2m^2yr^{-1}$, and with an external sediment supply of $1.0km^2$

per 0.1Myr ($10\text{m}^2\text{yr}^{-1}$) the geometrical flux curve has a magnitude ranging from approximately $10\text{m}^2\text{yr}^{-1}$ to $7\text{m}^2\text{yr}^{-1}$.

- Both cases show reducing magnitude of flux with increasing distance from the landward end of the fluvial profile.
- The gradients on the curves also show similar trends, increasing and then decreasing with distance down the length of the profiles.

The most significant difference between the curves for the different methods is the final values of flux at the 300km point on the profile. In the diffusional case these values are controlled by the slopes at this point, which are low because of the concave shape of the profile. Thus this suggests that the sediment flux at the mouth of the river should be low. This does not agree with observation which shows that because of increased discharge downstream produced by the contribution from tributary streams, the flux actually increases in most rivers. The value of the sediment flux at 300km in the geometrical case is controlled by the external sediment supply and the value of the partitioning coefficient, not by the slope. Thus the values for the flux decrease downstream as sediment is deposited as fluvial stratigraphy in the coastal plain, but some of the available external sediment supply is bypassed into the marine portion of the profile, as determined by the partitioning coefficient. Consequently the values for the flux at the seaward end of the profile are consistently higher than in the diffusional examples, and as stated above are more in line with observations of flux in real rivers.

Conclusions from the comparison

The previous section has shown that the geometrical and diffusional approaches each have advantages and disadvantages. In general however, the geometrical approach seems most suited to use in this modelling study, since it is capable of producing patterns of erosion and deposition which are reasonably acceptable in the context of a numerical experimental approach intended to investigate aspects of the sequence stratigraphic depositional model.

For example, the diffusional profile does not produce any patterns of stratal onlap, whereas the geometrical approach does. Although the geometrical approach is probably unrealistic in some respects, such as minor erosion on the upper profile during a sealevel rise, and small amounts of aggradation on the upper profile during a sealevel fall, such inaccuracies are less severe than some of the inaccuracies produced by the diffusional profile, and they can be readily accounted for in the interpretation of the model results.

2.6.5.5 The concept of the marine equilibrium profile

The concept of a marine equilibrium profile has been described by a number of workers. Thorne and Swift (1991) gives a review of the development of the concept. Curray (1965) suggested that fine-grained nearshore sediment might over time be redeposited out on the present continental shelf, and re-establish an equilibrium profile that had been destroyed by the Holocene transgression. Swift (1970) reviewed this work, and suggested that over geological time, storm sedimentation which is capable of affecting the whole shelf, is the norm. Pitman (1978) used the concept of an equilibrium shelf profile to explain occurrences of shelf-wide unconformities in the geological record. Most recently, Swift and Thorne (1991) and Thorne and Swift (1991) discussed the equilibrium model for shelf sedimentation in terms of a regime model, which is similar to the concept of dynamic equilibrium applied to river profiles. The regime model uses surfaces of dynamic equilibrium that are determined by a series of mutually interdependent variables, namely sediment input rate, sediment character, sediment transport rate, and the rate of relative sealevel change.

Unfortunately, many of these ideas regarding marine equilibrium profiles are poorly quantified. Although Thorne and Swift (1991) presented a mathematical model for shelf and slope profiles, this model does not appear to include the shoreface. Although shoreface geometry has been shown diagrammatically by many workers (e.g. Swift and Thorne, 1991; Everts, 1987) it has never been quantified in a simple way consistent with the level

of detail required in this model. Turcotte and Kenyon (1985) used a diffusional approach to model slope transport processes on a prograding delta front, but this did not reproduce shoreface erosion. Diffusion has also been used to model marine shelf and slope deposition (e.g. Kaufman *et al.*, 1992; Rivenaes, 1992) but suffers from the problem that the rate of transport may not be proportional to slope in the marine shelf environment, and rates of transport on the shelf are difficult to constrain.

As a result of these difficulties, and to maintain consistency with the geometrical approach adopted for the fluvial profile, the marine equilibrium profile will be represented very simplistically by a geometrically defined exponential shoreface passing laterally into a shelf of fixed gradient. This is a gross approximation of the real processes and resulting geometries, but should prove sufficient for the purposes of this modelling work.

The implementation of the marine profile

As previously discussed, the marine equilibrium profile is composed of two parts. An exponential curve is used to define the shoreface, the width and the depth input as initial model parameters. The equation for this curve has the following form :

$$y(x) = e^{k(x - x_1 - \Omega)} + y_1 - \alpha \quad (25)$$

where

$$k = \frac{\ln(\alpha)}{-\Omega} \quad (26)$$

The variables α and Ω represent the height in metres and the width in kilometres respectively of the shoreface. The profile then passes seaward into a straight line of a given gradient, which represents the offshore graded shelf. This is given by :

$$y(x) = d(t) - \alpha - mx \quad (27)$$

where m is the shelf gradient and $d(t)$ is the absolute sealevel datum. Figures 2.27 and 2.28 show diagrammatic examples of the proximal and distal marine equilibrium profile geometry respectively. The profile controls deposition and erosion in the same way as the fluvial profile previously described in section 2.6.5.2.

The distal end of the marine equilibrium profile consists of the marine break-of-slope where the profile passes from the shelf to the slope. The position of the marine break-of-slope is determined by sediment supply. Sediment from the fluvial profile, and sediment from erosion on the shoreface is fed onto the shelf (figure 2.28). Since the depositional model is purely 2-D, no allowance is made for effects such as submarine canyon erosion, delta lobe switching and sediment bypassing the shelf directly onto the slope and into the deep marine environment. No out-of-plane sediment transport is included either, for two reasons. Firstly, any out-of-plane removal of sediment would quite possibly be balanced by an equal out of plane addition of sediment, both due to processes of longshore drift. Secondly, the proportion of sediment area added or removed would have to be a largely arbitrarily imposed variable, given that there is little data regarding such transport on the shelves. The shelf-slope break is thus positioned to use up all the available area of sediment transported onto the shelf.

The algorithm which positions the marine break-of-slope consists of an iterative routine which searches for the position of the shelf-slope break that uses an area of sediment most closely matching the area of sediment available for deposition. The areas are calculated using the trapezium method shown in figure 2.12. The accuracy of this area fitting routine is significantly decreased when it is attempting to find the shelf-slope break position for progradation into deep water. This reduced accuracy is a function of the horizontal resolution of the model. With a point spacing on the horizontal profile of 250m, and a water depth of 500m, the difference in sediment area deposited between two points would

be 0.125km^2 , which for sediment supplies in the order of 1km^2 is not insignificant. This inaccuracy affects the precision of the area of sediment deposition, but it does not significantly affect the resulting stratigraphic patterns.

A special condition can arise in which all the positions for the marine break-of-slope seaward of the beach position, result in too much sediment being deposited. When this occurs, the position of the beach must be moved landward, and the fluvial profile recalculated, until the total area of sediment deposited is as close as possible (see previous discussion of the affects of model resolution on the accuracy of area fitting) to the total available (figure 2.29). Recalculating the fluvial profile for the new beach position means that the partitioning coefficient has to be ignored, because in this situation the beach position is no longer free to move landward or seaward to balance the amount of fluvial sediment used. More marine sediment is deposited than has been specified by the sediment partitioning coefficient, since the beach has been moved landwards, reducing the area of fluvial sediment deposited. Thus, when the beach has to be moved landward in the way described, sediment is effectively bypassing the fluvial profile, and being deposited on the marine slope.

2.6.6 Flexural Isostasy

The flexural response of the lithosphere to sediment loading and unloading is calculated using a thin elastic plate model which assumes that the deflections are small compared to the plate thickness. The flexural response of the lithosphere to distributed loads is calculated using the fourth order differential flexure equation applied to the specific case of an infinite lithospheric plate of flexural rigidity D , underlain by fluid-like mantle material :

$$D\frac{d^4z}{dx^4} + (\rho_m - \rho_{\text{infil}})gz = \Delta H(x) \quad (28)$$

where z is the plate deflection due to the vertically applied load $\Delta H(x)$, assuming no applied torques or in-plane loads, ρ_m is the density of the mantle, ρ_{infill} is the density of the infilling material, g is acceleration due to gravity, and the expression $(\rho_m - \rho_{infill})gz$ gives the restoring force. Two methods of solving this equation to calculate the deflection of the lithosphere for a given load are used in the model.

The first method uses the response function technique. Solving equation 28 for a periodic load gives

$$z(x) = \frac{(\rho_{infill} - \rho_w) h g \cos(kx)}{((\rho_m - \rho_{infill}) g + Dk^4)} \quad (29)$$

where h is the maximum height of the load, g is the average gravity, and k is the wave number of the load. If the lithosphere is considered as a filter when responding to loading, then a response function can be defined;

$$\phi_c = \left[\frac{Dk^4}{(\rho_m - \rho_{infill}) g} + 1 \right]^{-1}. \quad (30)$$

This can be used to calculate the flexural response using a delta function $\delta(x)$ to approximate the load function (replacing the $h \cos(kx)$ term in equation 29) where $\delta(x) = 0$ when $x \neq 0$ and

$$\delta(x) \partial x = 1, x = 0.$$

Taking $\Delta H(k)$ and $z(k)$ as the discrete Fourier transforms of $L(x)$ and $z(x)$ respectively, then equation 29 can be reduced to

$$z(k) = \phi_c(k) \Delta H(k) \frac{(\rho_{infill} - \rho_w)}{(\rho_m - \rho_{infill})}. \quad (31)$$

Hence, to calculate the flexure $z(x)$, the periodic load $L(x)$ is transformed into the frequency domain, equation 31 is applied, and the result is inversely transformed back into the spatial domain.

The second method uses a numerical finite difference technique described by Bodine (1981). The advantage that this method has over the Fourier transform method is that it allows for lateral changes in the restoring force and also in the elastic thickness of the lithosphere via the boundary conditions used in the formulation of the finite difference solution. The changes in the restoring force are caused in this case by changes in the density of the material, either air or water, that is displaced by flexural uplift. The restoring force along the profile is calculated simply by recording which points are above and which points are below sealevel before the load is applied. For those points above sealevel, the restoring force is calculated assuming that air will be displaced. For those points below sealevel, the restoring force is calculated assuming that water will be displaced. This method introduces a small inaccuracy since flexural subsidence in the region of the beach will flood parts of the profile where the restoring force has been calculated assuming that air will be displaced. However, this inaccuracy can be shown to be negligible by comparing a flexural profile for the same load calculated first assuming water displacement across the profile, and then assuming air displacement.

The elastic thickness of the lithosphere (T_e) in the model can have a variety of values. It can be held constant, both spatially and temporally, at values of 5km or 30km. Alternatively, T_e can be varied through model time. In this case, values are calculated using the 3 times the square root of time relationship (Bodine *et al.*, 1981). The value of T_e can also be varied spatially along the length of the model profile, but only when the finite difference technique is used to solve the flexural equations.

2.6.6.1. Flexural response times

The flexural isostatic response time of the asthenosphere and the lithosphere to surface loading and unloading is a crucial factor in this modelling work, and yet it appears to be a poorly understood parameter. Flexural response time, as it is used here, refers to the length of time required for the lithosphere and the asthenosphere to adjust, via flexure, to surface loading or unloading. The separate responses of the asthenosphere and the lithosphere, caused by their different rheological properties, together account for the flexural response to loading and unloading observed at the earth's surface. Studies of post-glacial rebound (e.g. Peltier, 1986) suggest that response times for the asthenosphere are in the order of 10kyr. Walcott (1970a) suggested a lithospheric response time to loading in the order of 10 to 20Kyr. The response time of the lithosphere is more controversial, due to the more complex rheologies involved, and an often complex thermal and loading history. Bodine *et al.* (1981) suggested that an applied load causes stress relaxation from the initial seismic thickness of the lithosphere to the final elastic thickness, which is essentially complete within one million years or less.

Thus, due to the lack of detailed understanding, choosing and then constraining a method of implementing a finite flexural response time in the model is difficult. There is currently no consensus regarding flexural response times, and the lithosphere on passive rift margins is likely to have a complex rheology, having experienced a potentially complex thermal history. For this reason, and because the flexural response is a potentially important control on stratigraphy, the model has three simple alternative methods to implement finite response times.

The first and simplest is the instantaneous response option in which the full magnitude of the flexural subsidence and uplift generated by the present load is applied to all the present chrons at the end of the time step for which the load was generated. This is essentially assuming that either the flexural response is instantaneous, or that the response is complete

within one time step which can range from 10Kyr to 1Myr, but is generally set to be 100Kyr. Thus the significance of the response time to the stratigraphy cannot be investigated with this method.

The second method of dealing with flexural response times in the model calculates the total magnitude of flexure due to a given load, but then does not apply it to all the chrons immediately. Instead, the flexural response time parameter is used to calculate what proportion of the uplift and subsidence should be applied for each time step. Thus if the time step is 0.1 Myrs and the flexural response time parameter is set at 0.5 Myrs, for each time step 20% of the uplift and subsidence due to the load will be applied. The algorithm can be described by treating F , the flexure to be applied at a particular time step, as a function of the total flexure z for a given load so that

$$F(x,t) = \sum_{n=t-T_f}^t z(x, n) \times \frac{t_{inc}}{T_f} \quad (32)$$

where t is the E.M.T., T_f is the flexural response time, and t_{inc} is the length of the model time step, all measured in millions of years.

The algorithm is implemented using a stack structure which is used to store the flexural profiles generated for each load applied at each time step. This can then be scanned for a number of previous time steps dependent on the size of t_{inc} and T_f , and the appropriate proportion of the total magnitude of the flexure applied to the chrons. The model currently uses a linear method to calculate the magnitude of flexure applied at each time step, but non-linear functions such as a power function or an exponential could easily be applied. Although this method is also very simplistic, it at least has the advantage of allowing a flexural response time greater than the model time step. This then allows the significance of the response time to be investigated.

The third method treats the flexural response as an exponential decay function. This is implemented very simply by halving the applied flexural amplitude due to the applied load, for each subsequent time step. Thus the flexural response takes the form of an exponential decay. The disadvantage with this method is that the response time is again dependent on the length of the time step. Hence, if a time step of 100Kyr is chosen, the time for the flexural effects due to any given load to be 96.9% complete would be 500Kyr. Alternatively, if a time step of 1Myr was chosen, it would take 5Myr for 96.9% of the flexure due to any load to be completed.

2.7 The Model Output

Once a model run has been completed, the contents of the various data structures are displayed graphically. The output can be split into two groups. The first consists of sections through the stratigraphy, either the whole length of the model profile, or smaller sections of the profile which are then magnified. The second group consists of a Wheeler chronostratigraphic diagram on which horizontal distance is plotted alongside E.M.T., and a series of curves showing values of model variables through model time. Examples of this output can be seen throughout chapters three, four and five.

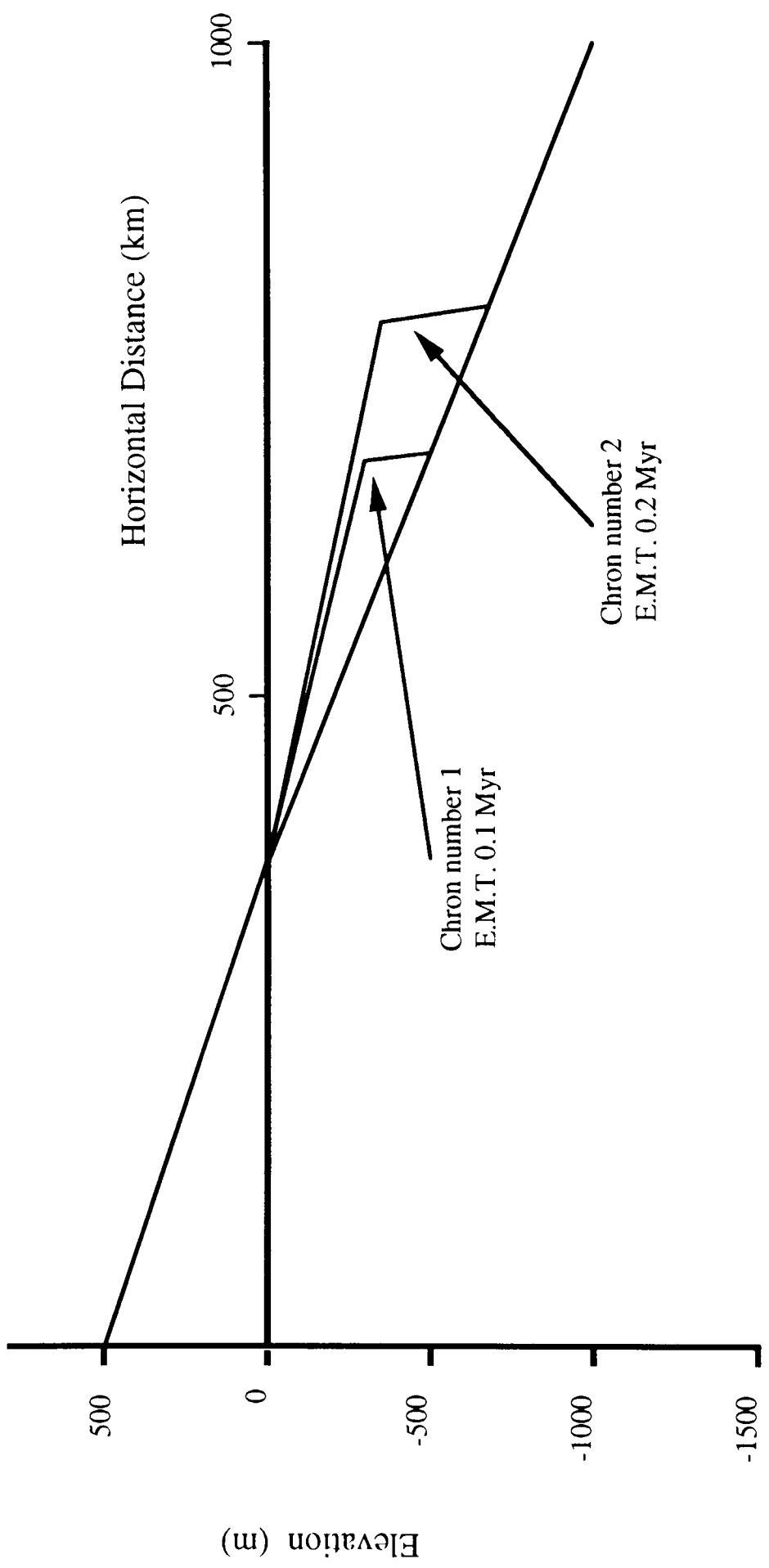


Figure 2.1 The model coordinate system

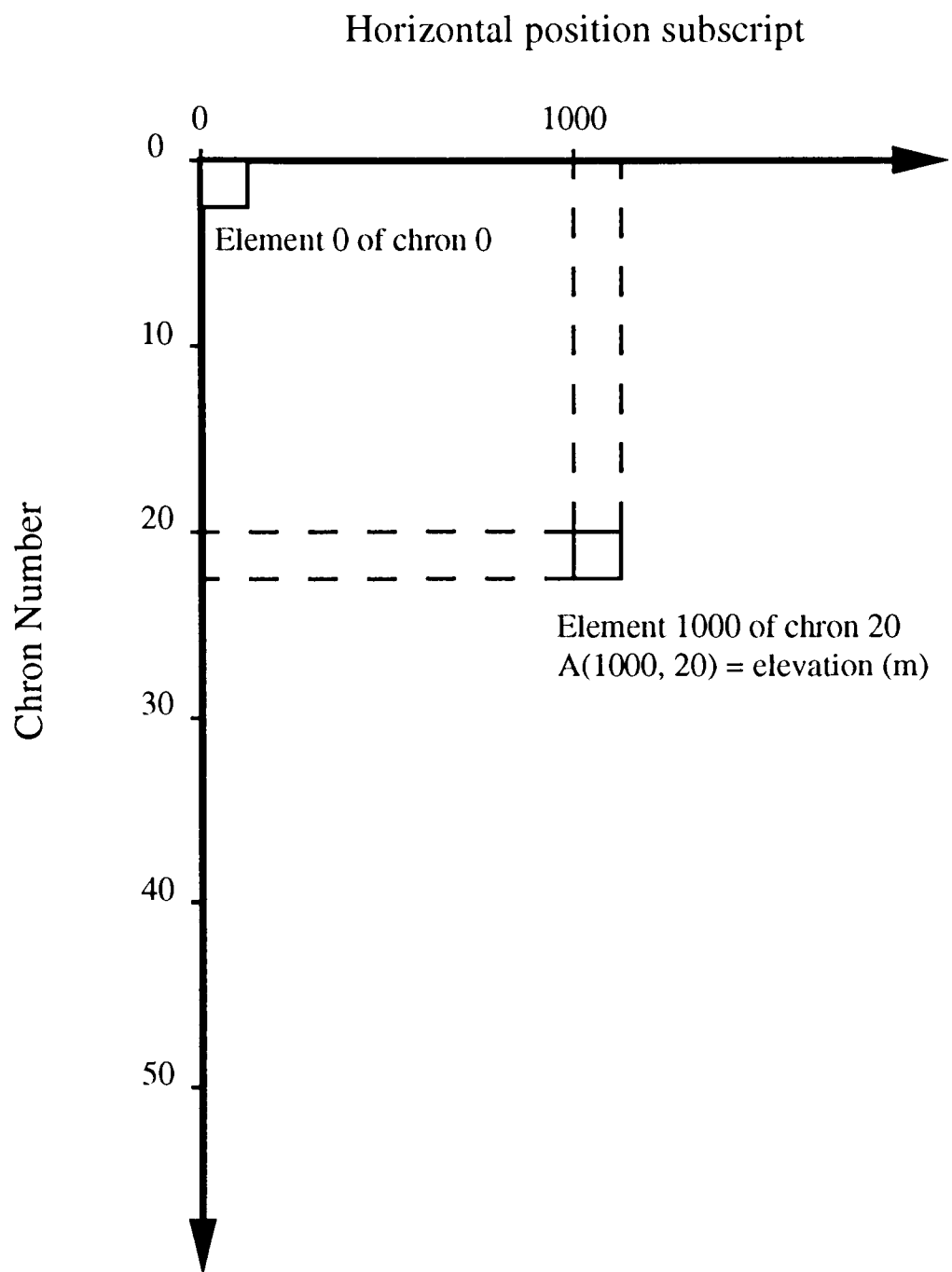


Figure 2.2 A diagrammatic description of the model data structure

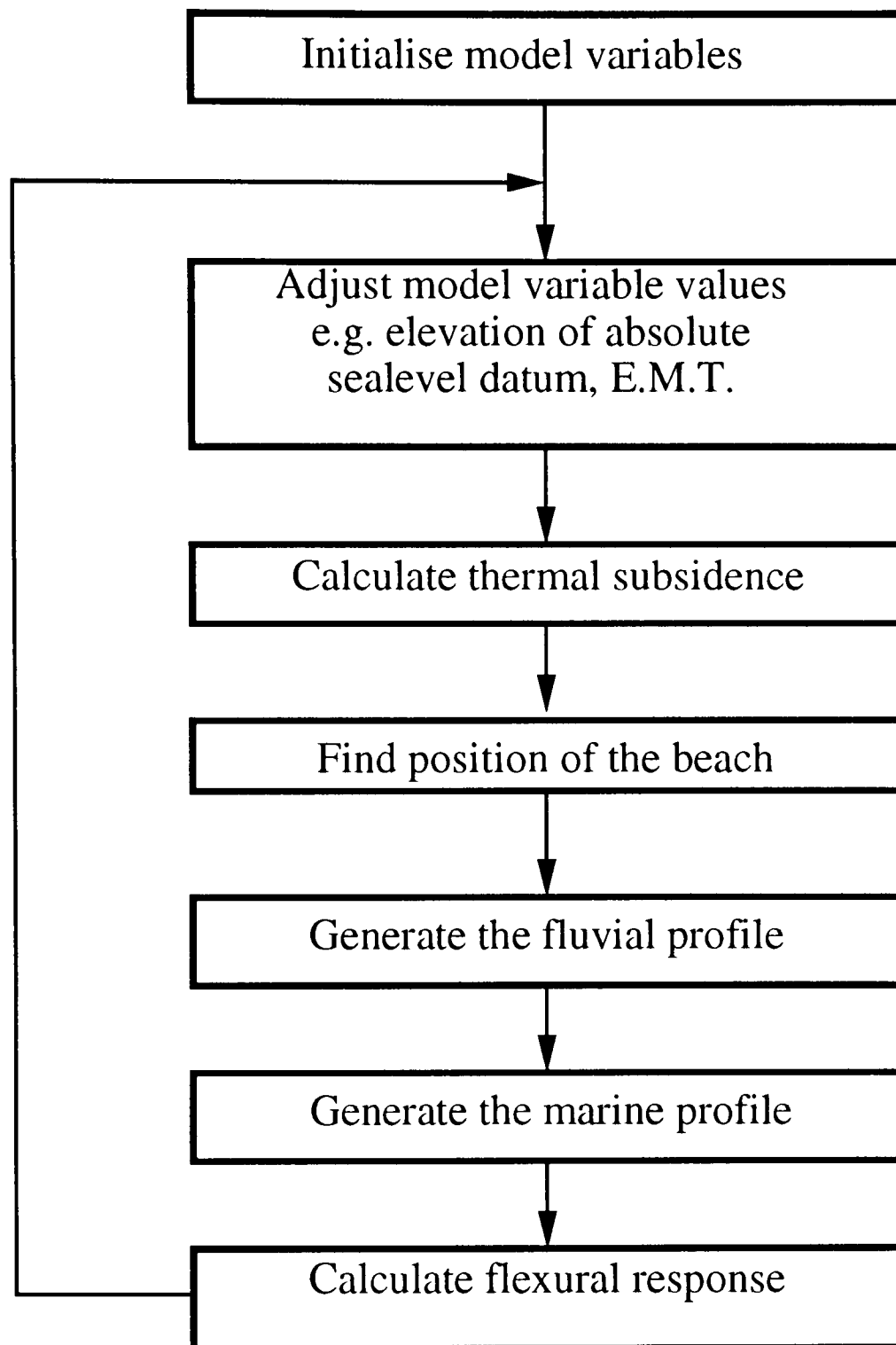


Figure 2.3. A flowchart to show the order of calculation of model components for each time step

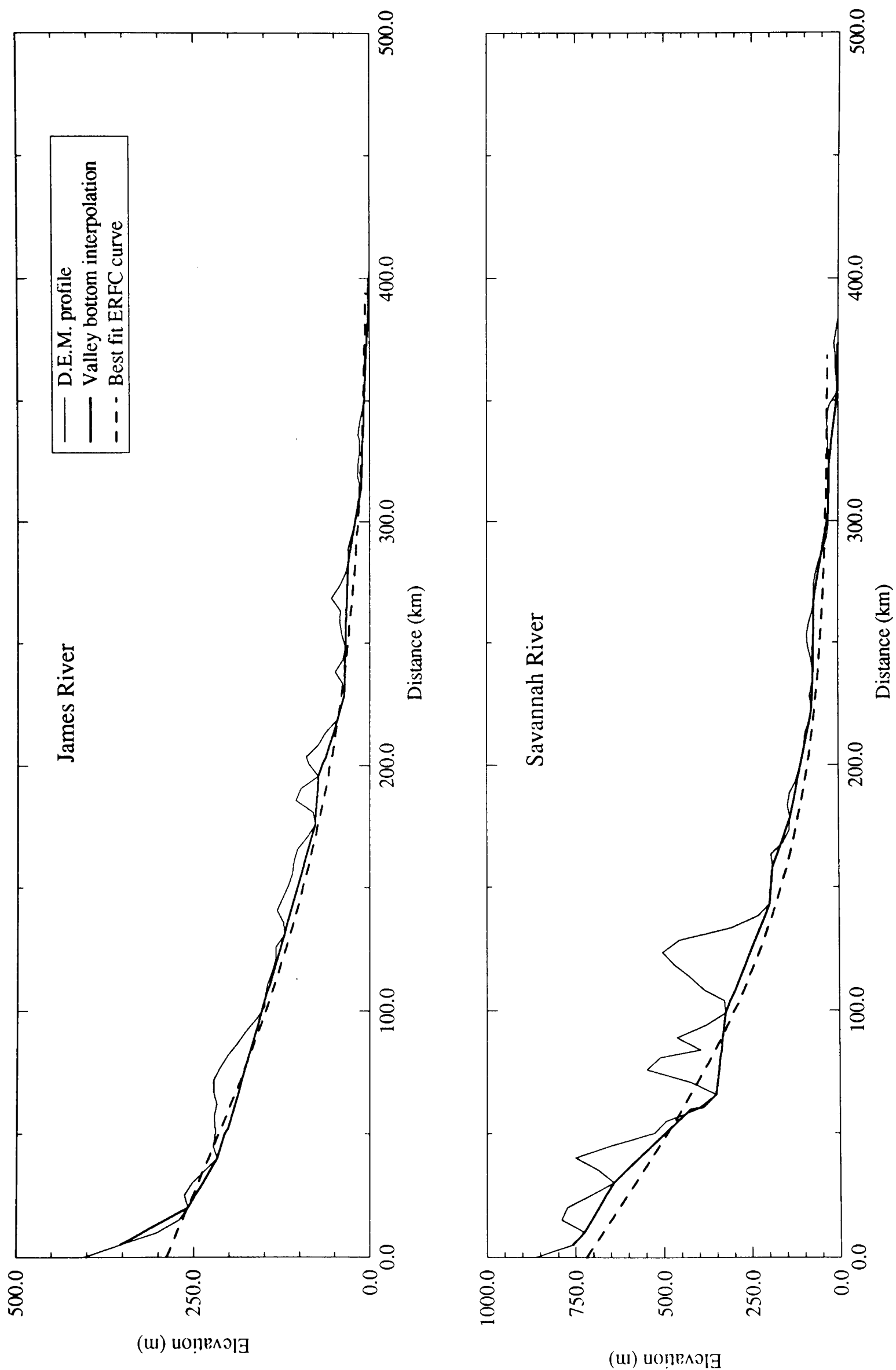


Figure 2.4. Two topographic profiles from the North American Atlantic margin, with interpolated valley bottom profile and best fit complementary error function curve.

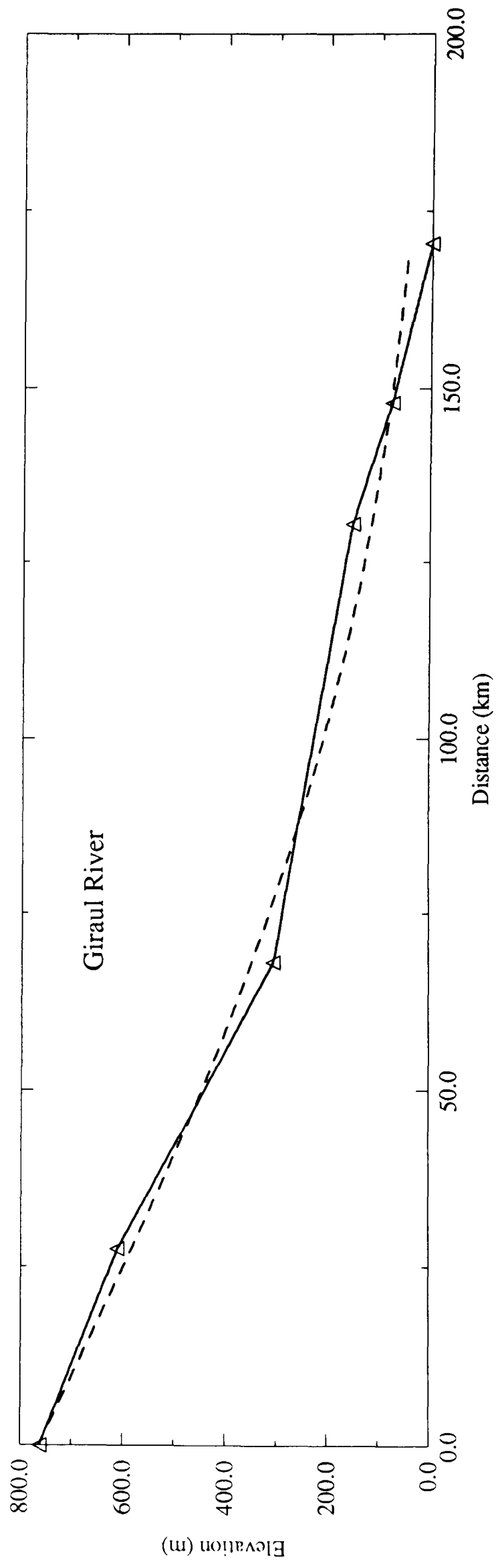
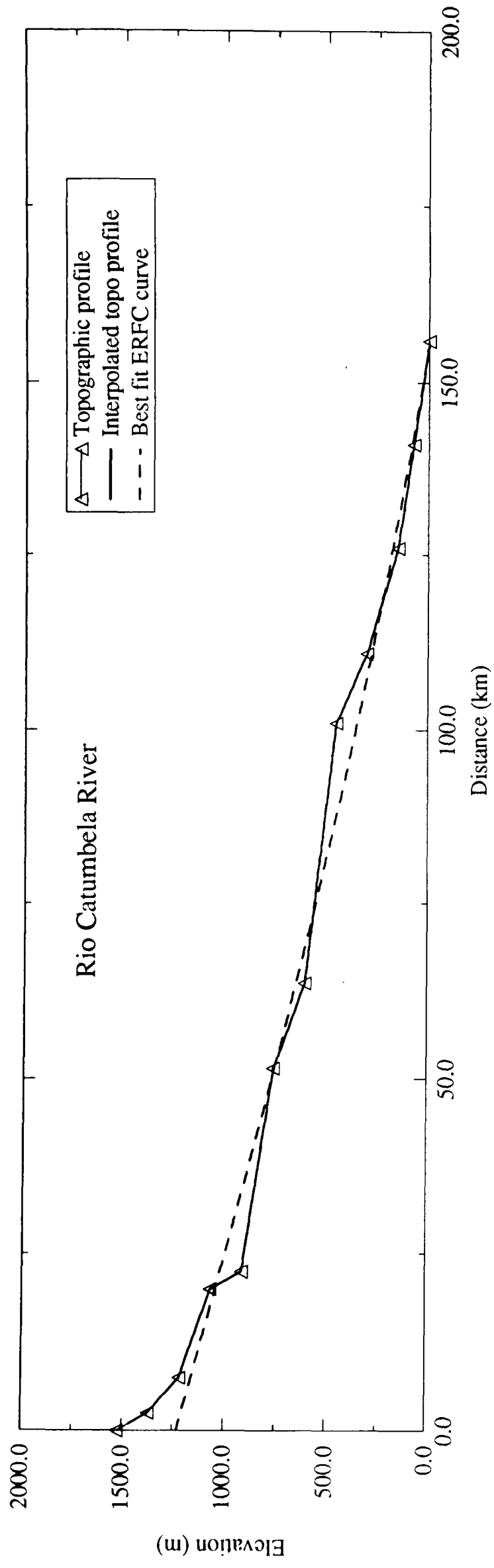


Figure 2.5. Two topographic profiles from the African Atlantic margin, produced by linear interpolation between the profile data points, and the best fit complementary error function curves.

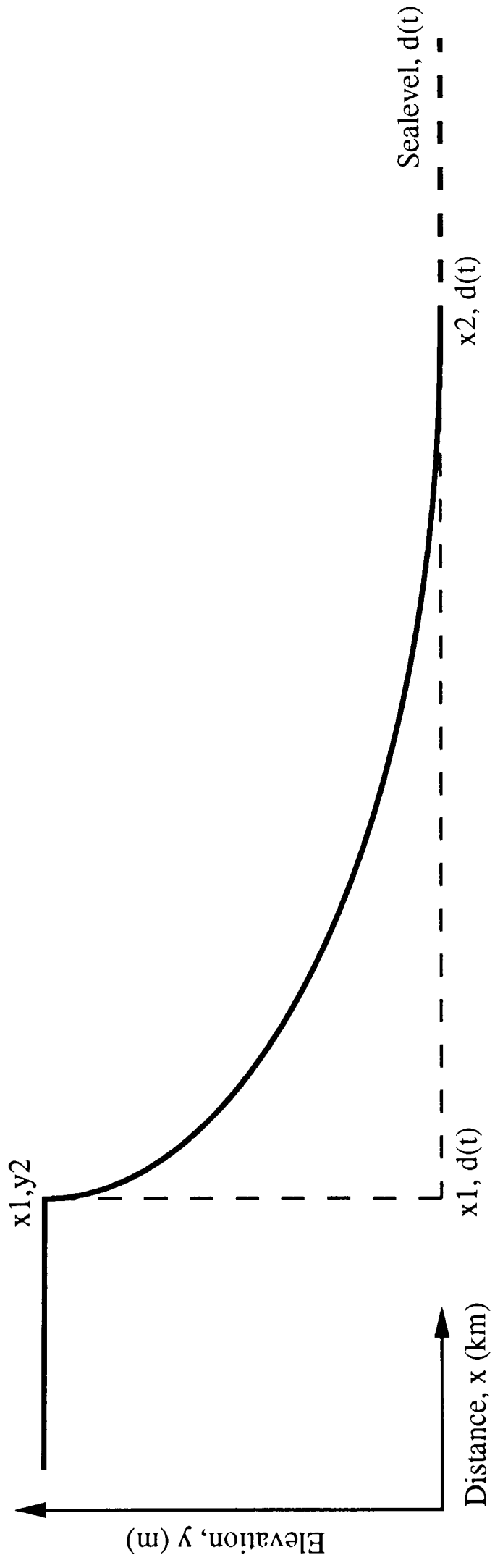


Figure 2.6 A digram to show the coordinate terms used in the definition of the fluvial profile.

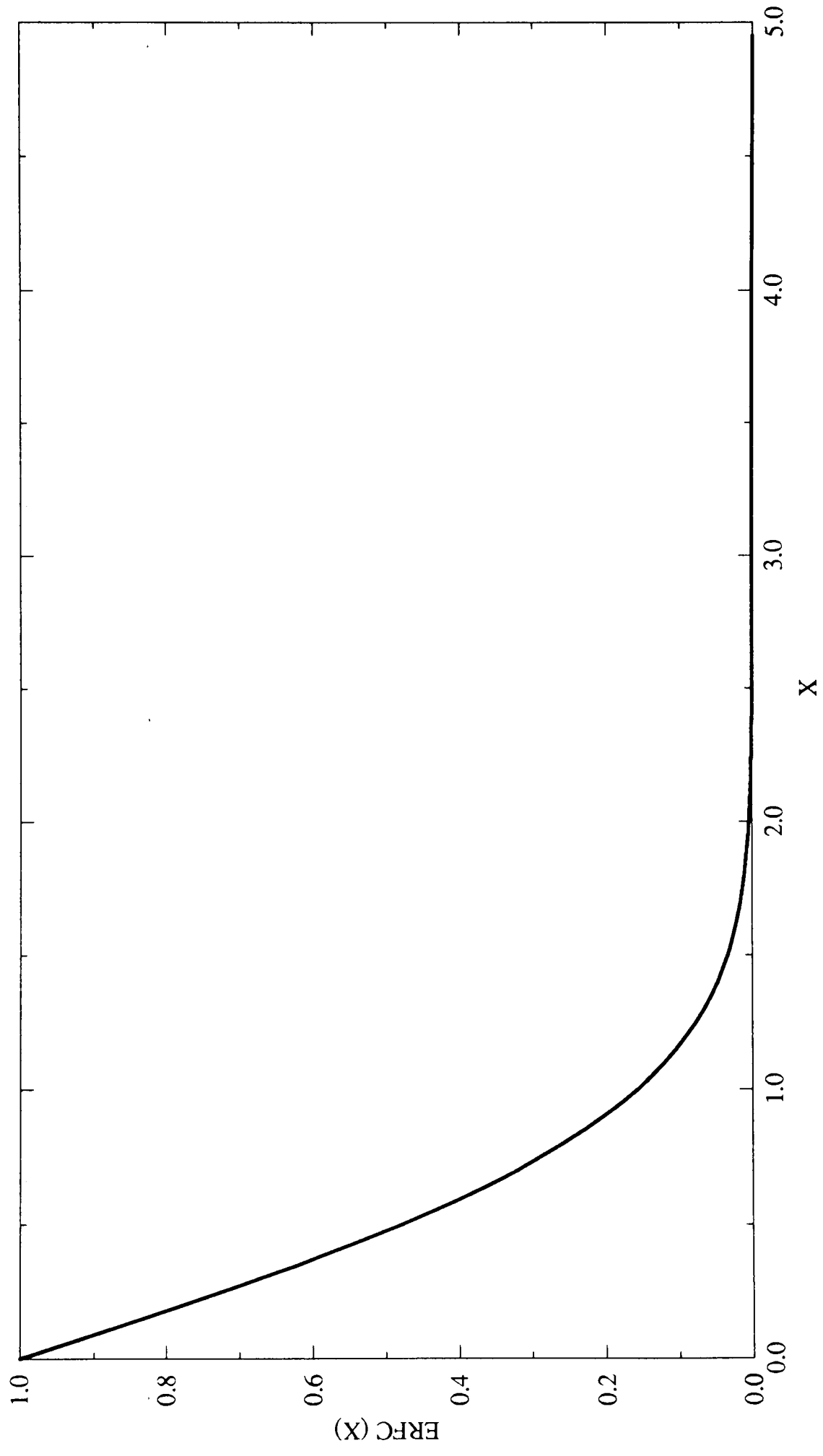


Figure 2.7. A plot to show the form of the complementary error function curve.

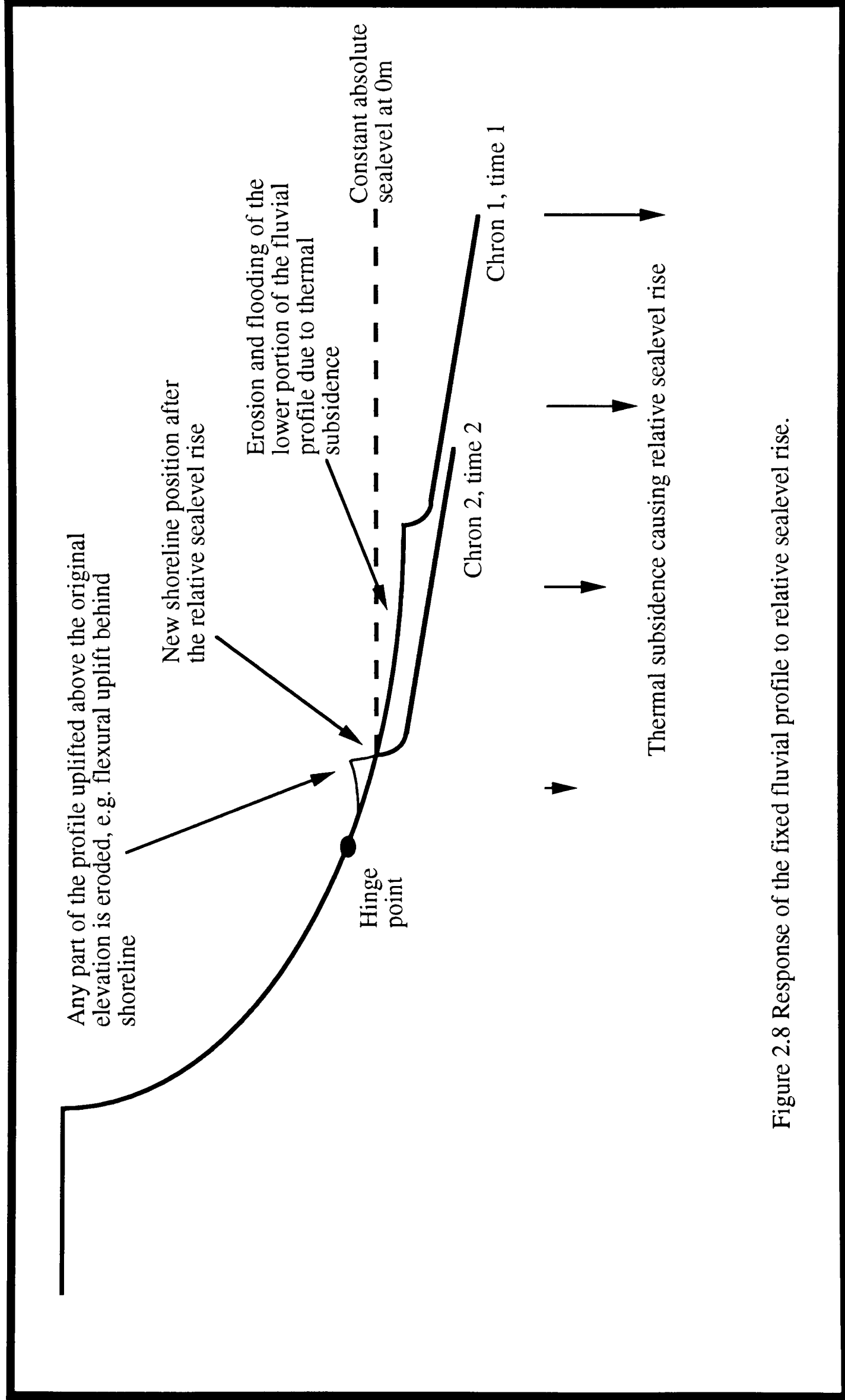


Figure 2.8 Response of the fixed fluvial profile to relative sea level rise.

Falling relative sealevel : Fluvial degradation. - Progradation dependent on
 Possible fluvial progradation. - sediment supply and magnitude of
 progradation. relative sealevel fall.

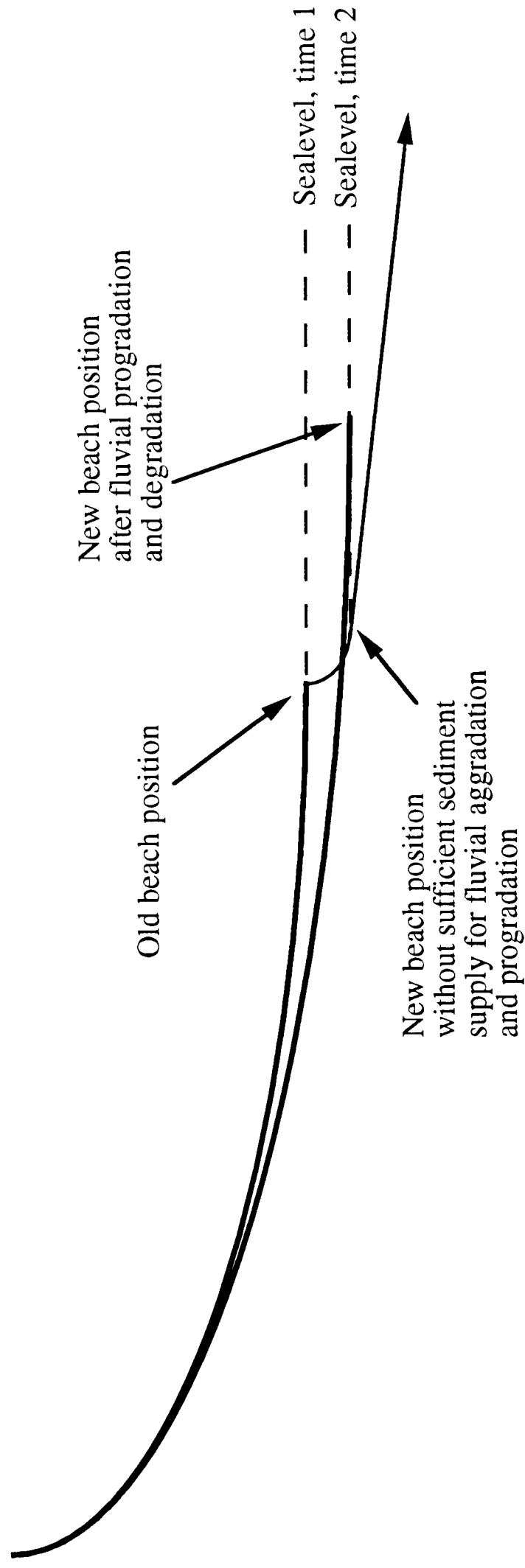


Figure 2.9 The response of the geometrical fluvial profile to falling absolute sealevel.

Rising relative sealevel : Fluvial aggradation. - Both dependent upon
 Fluvial progradation - sediment supply as well as
 rate of relative sealevel rise

Slow relative sealevel rise, high sediment supply,
 or high fluvial-marine partitioning coefficient

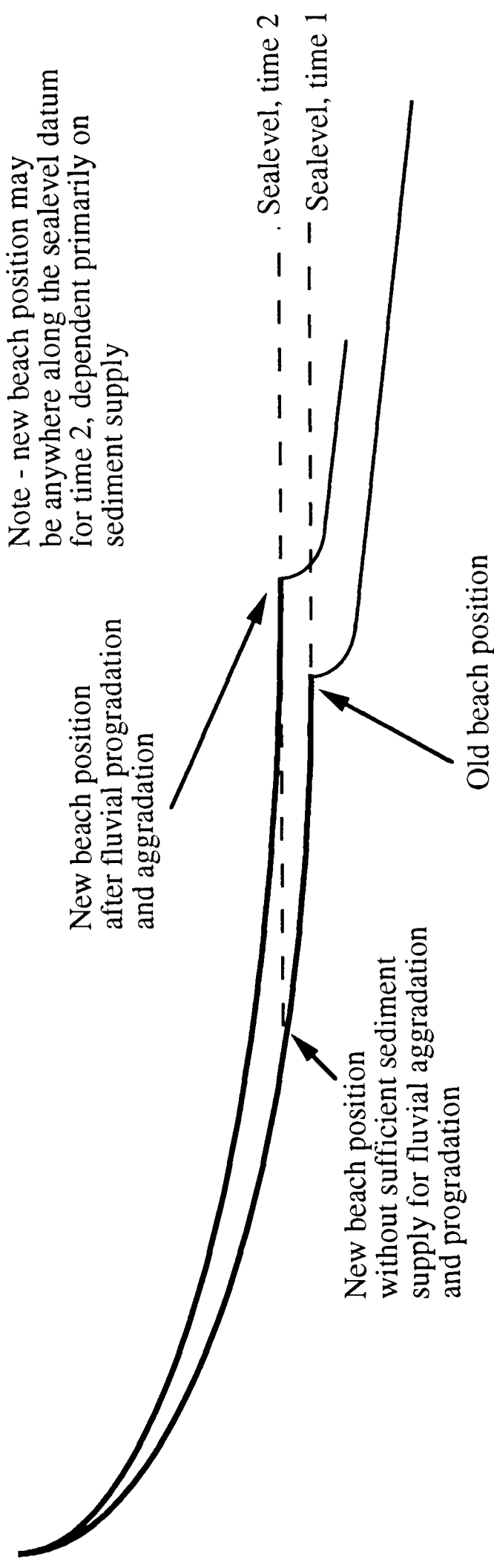


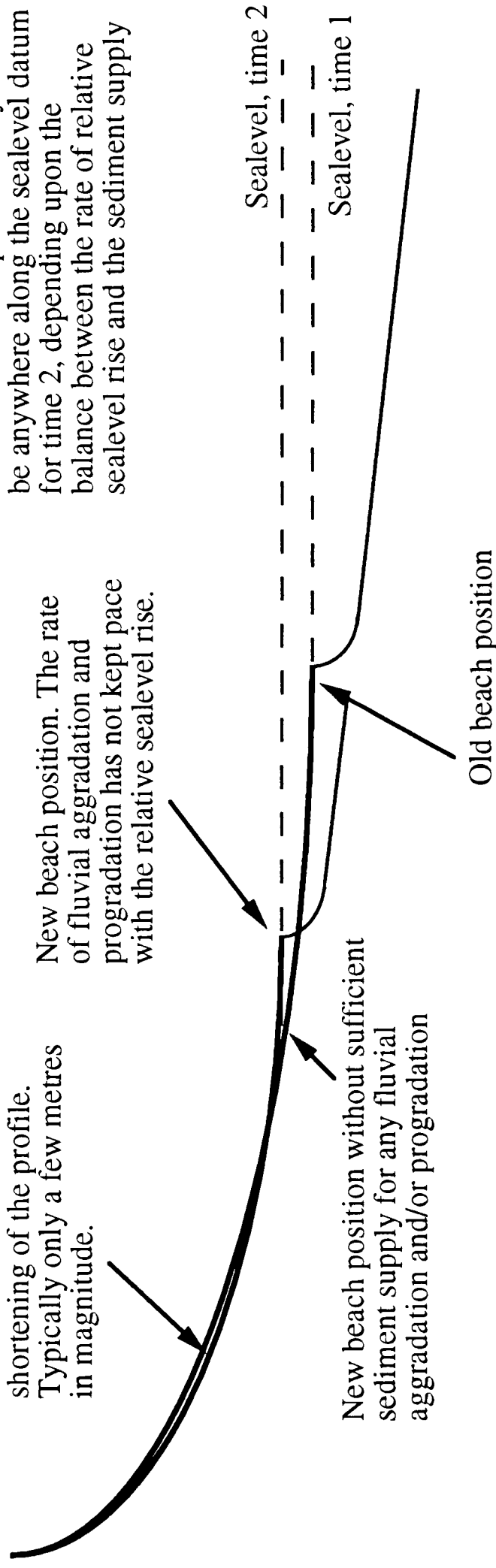
Figure 2.10 The response of the fluvial profile to rising absolute sealevel for either a slow rise, a high value of sediment supply, or a high value for the fluvial-marine partitioning coefficient.

Rising relative sealevel : Fluvial aggradation. - Both dependent upon
 Fluvial progradation - sediment supply as well as
 rate of relative sealevel rise

**Fast relative sealevel rise, low sediment supply, or
 a low value for the fluvial marine partitioning coefficient**

Fluvial erosion due to the
 shortening of the profile.
 Typically only a few metres
 in magnitude.

Note - new beach position may
 be anywhere along the sealevel datum
 for time 2, depending upon the
 balance between the rate of relative
 sealevel rise and the sediment supply

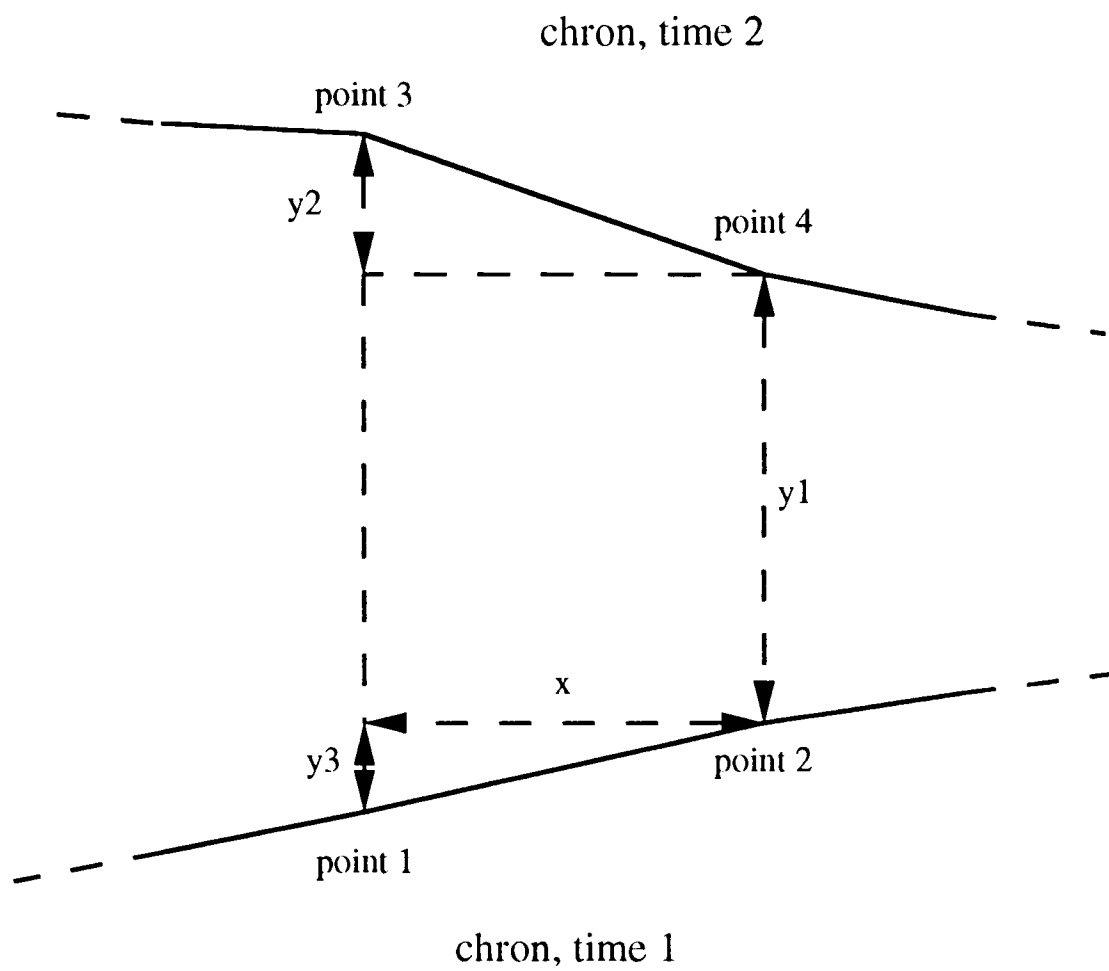


New beach position. The rate
 of fluvial aggradation and
 progradation has not kept pace
 with the relative sealevel rise.

New beach position without sufficient
 sediment supply for any fluvial
 aggradation and/or progradation

Old beach position

Figure 2.11 The response of the geometrical profile to an absolute sealevel rise for either
 a fast rise, a low value of sediment supply, or a low value for the fluvial marine
 partitioning coefficient



Total area between chrons for interval between point1 and point2
 = area of trapezium defined by four points
 = $(x * y1) + (0.5x * y2) + (0.5x * y3)$

Figure 2.12 The geometry of the trapezium shape used to calculate areas of deposition and erosion

1. Find the initial beach position - chron-sea intersection
2. Generate a fluvial profile
3. Has sufficient fluvial sediment been deposited?
4. If not, move the position of the beach seaward.

E.G. In the example below, the external sediment input is 1.0sq.km, and the sediment partitioning coefficient is 0.5.

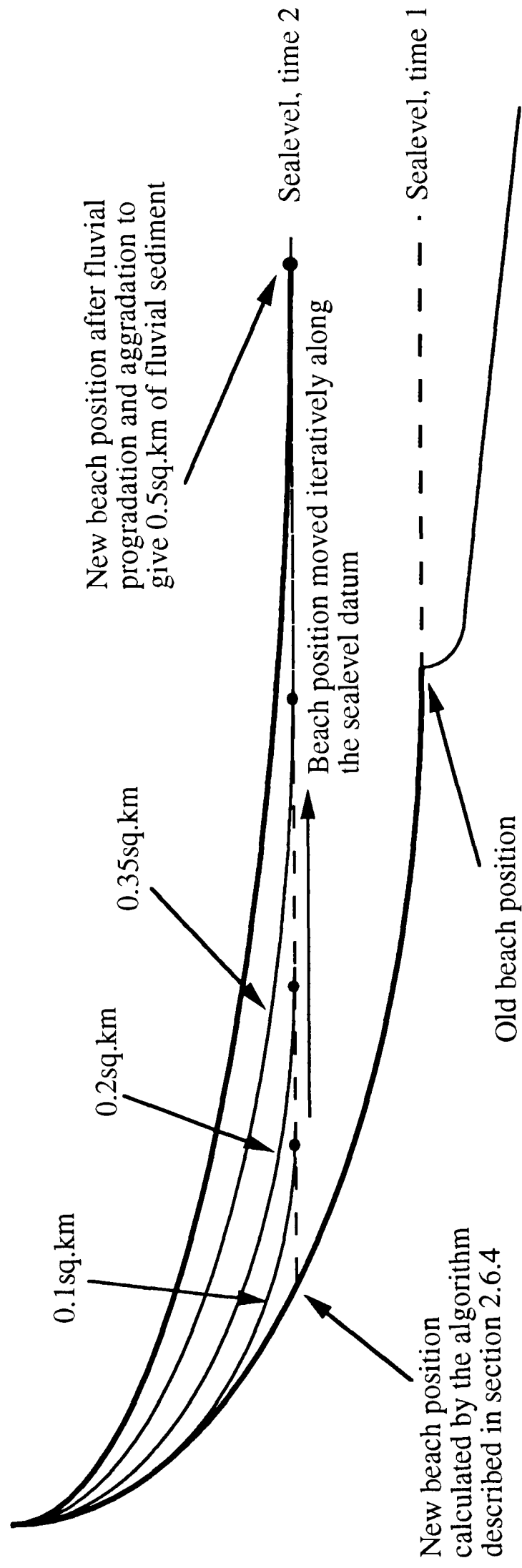


Figure 2.13. A diagrammatical explanation of the iterative routine used to determine the beach position and the geometry of the fluvial profile with a specified partitioning coefficient.

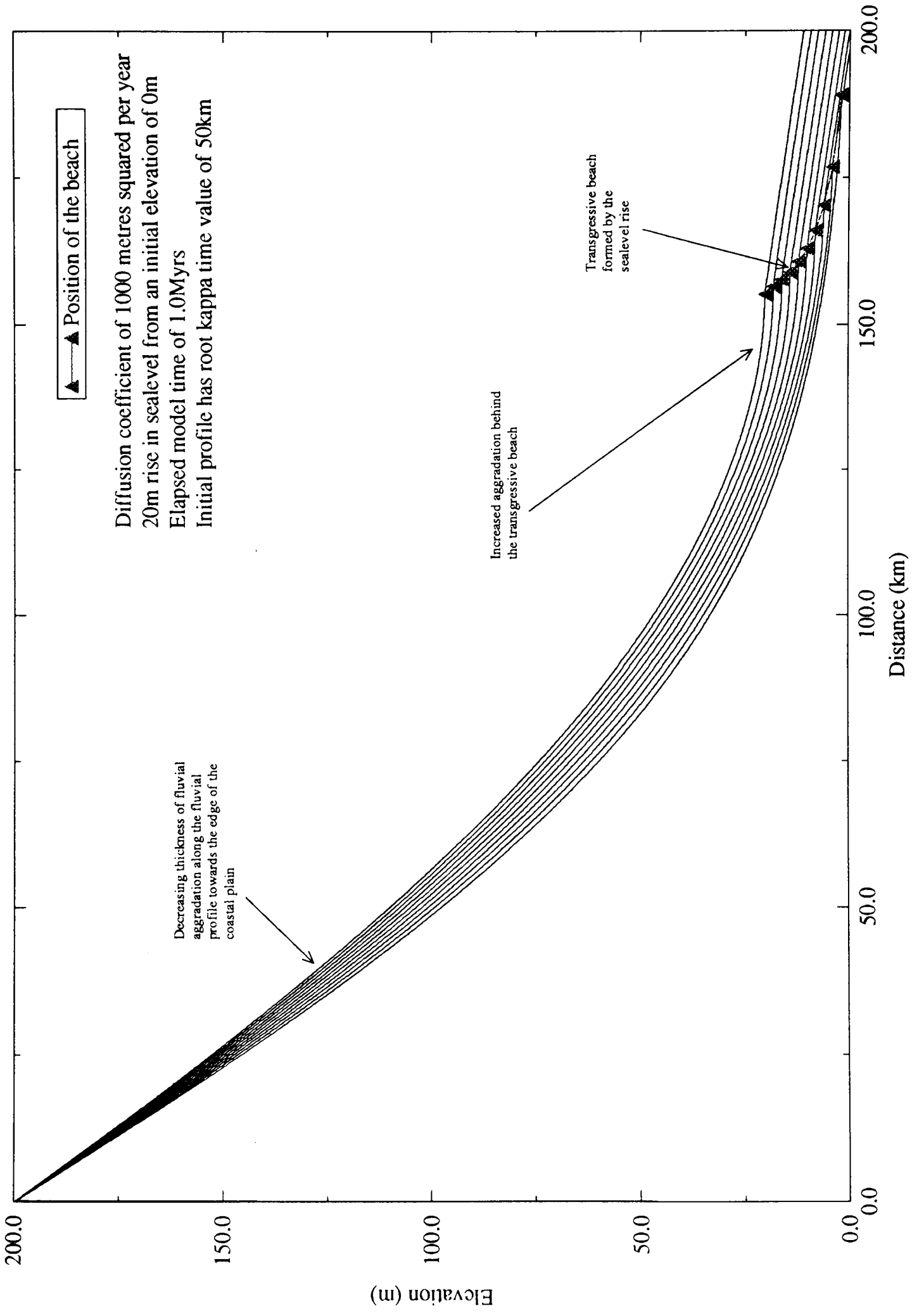


Figure 2.14. The response of the diffusional fluvial profile to a 20m sealevel rise.

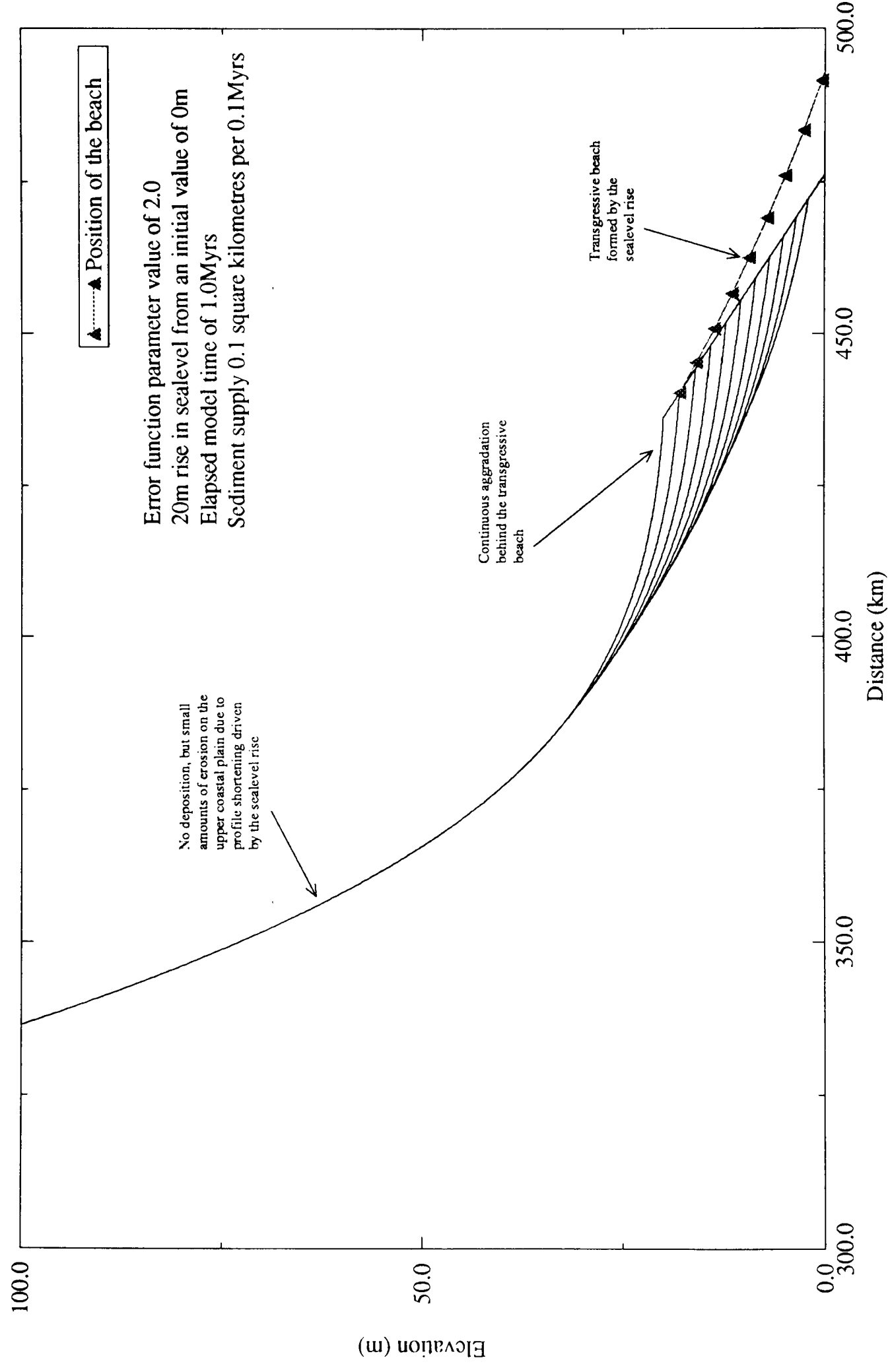


Figure 2.15. The response of the geometrical profile to a 20m sea level rise.

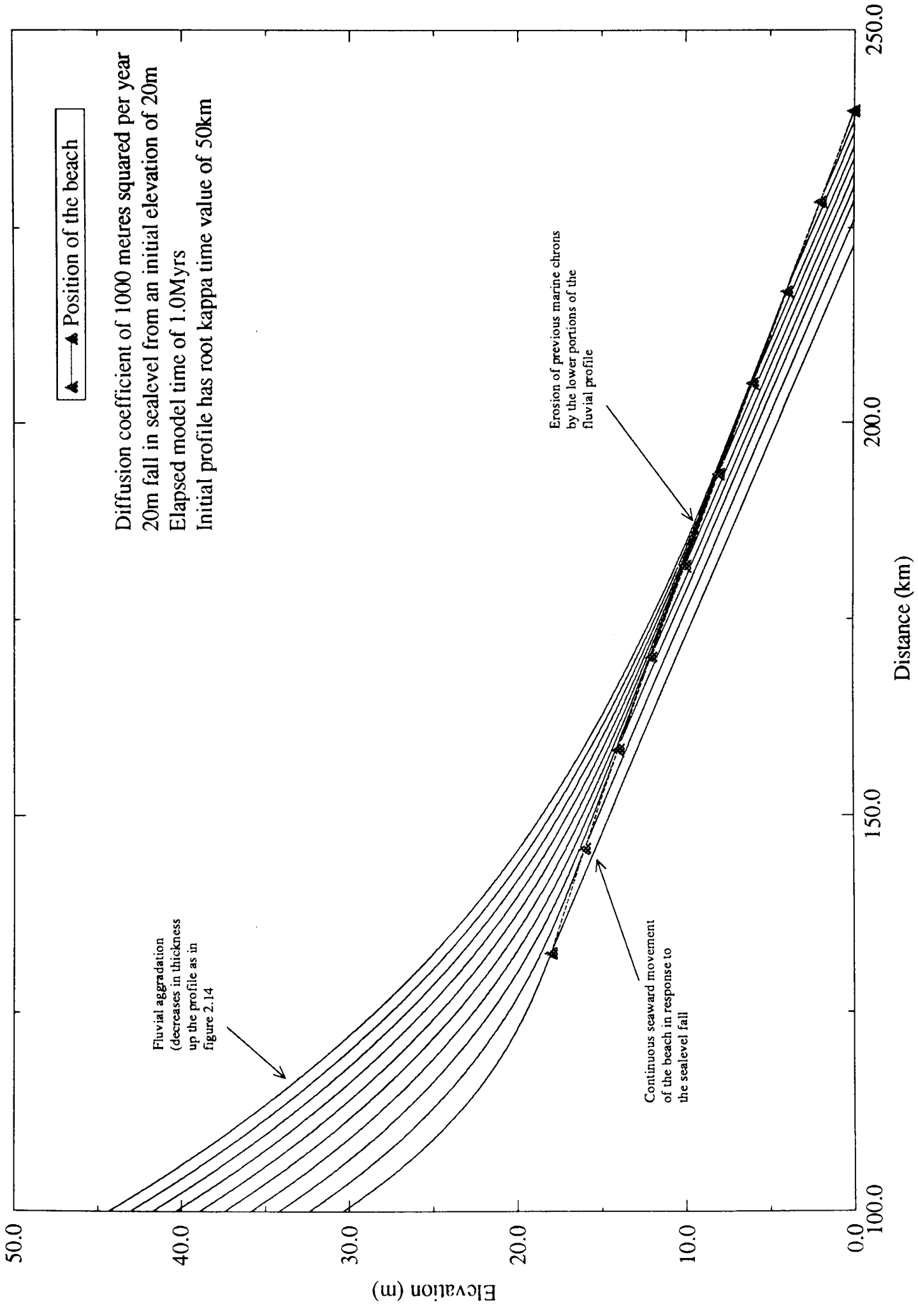


Figure 2.16. The response of the diffusional fluvial profile to a 20m sea level fall.

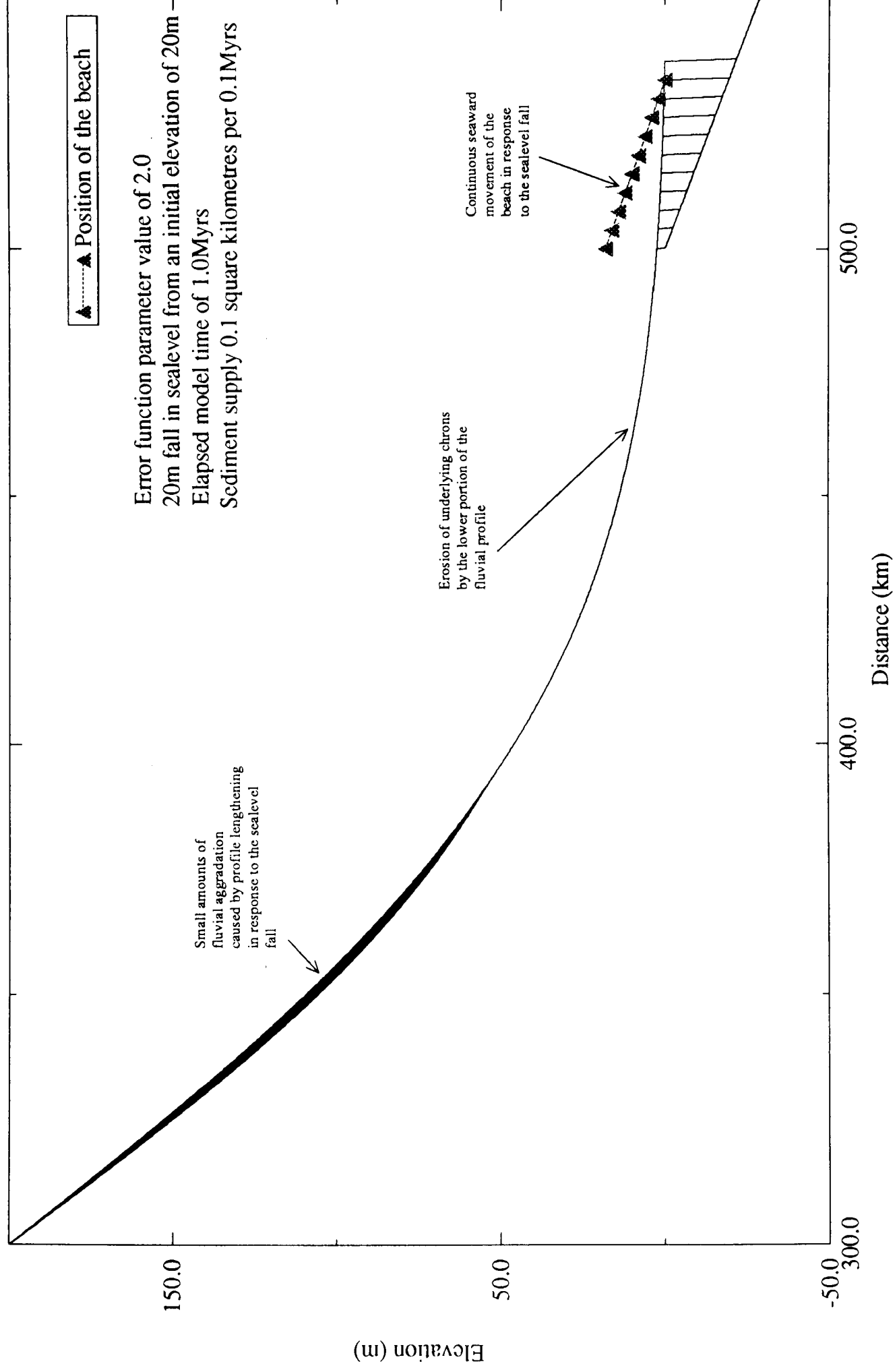


Figure 2.17. The response of the geometrical profile to a 20m sealevel fall.

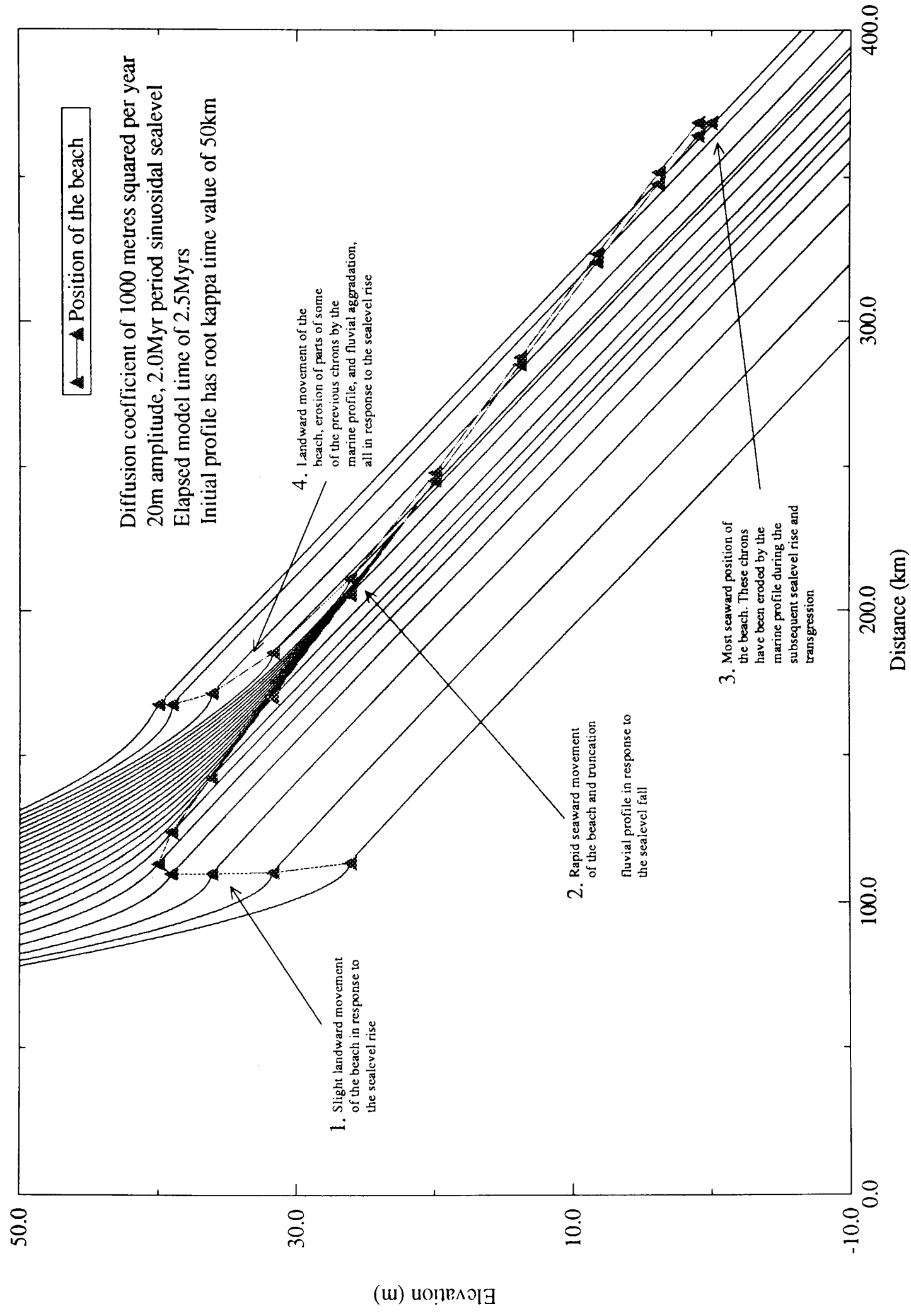


Figure 2.18. The response of the diffusional fluvial profile to a 20m amplitude sinusoidal sea level curve with a diffusion coefficient of 1000 metres squared per year.

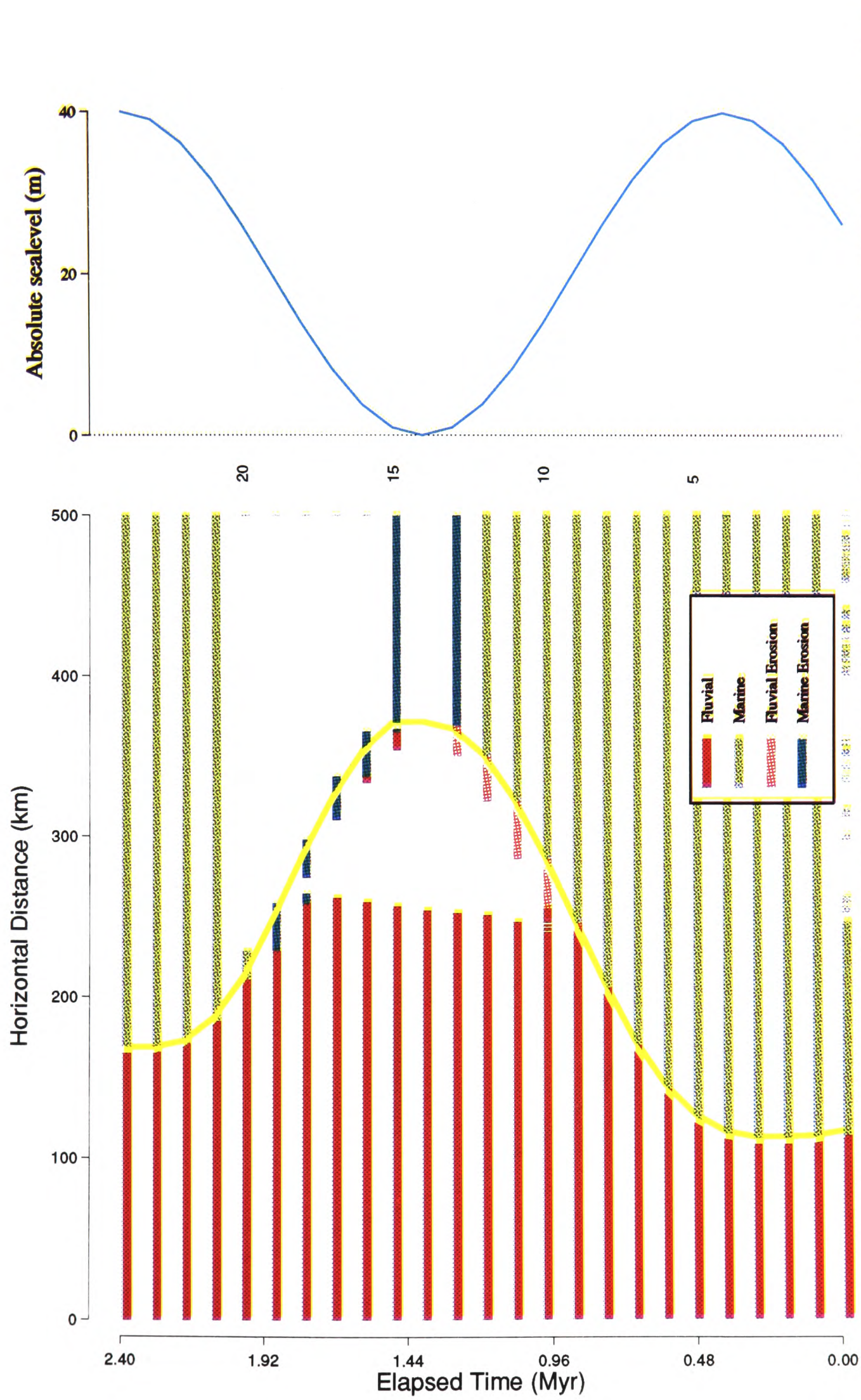


Figure 2.19. A chronostratigraphic diagram and an absolute sealevel curve from the diffusional profile model shown in figure 2.18. The model was run with the sinusoidal absolute sealevel curve shown and a diffusion coefficient value of 1000 metres squared per year. Note the region of fluvial erosion and bypass in chrons 11 to 17 caused by the absolute sealevel fall.

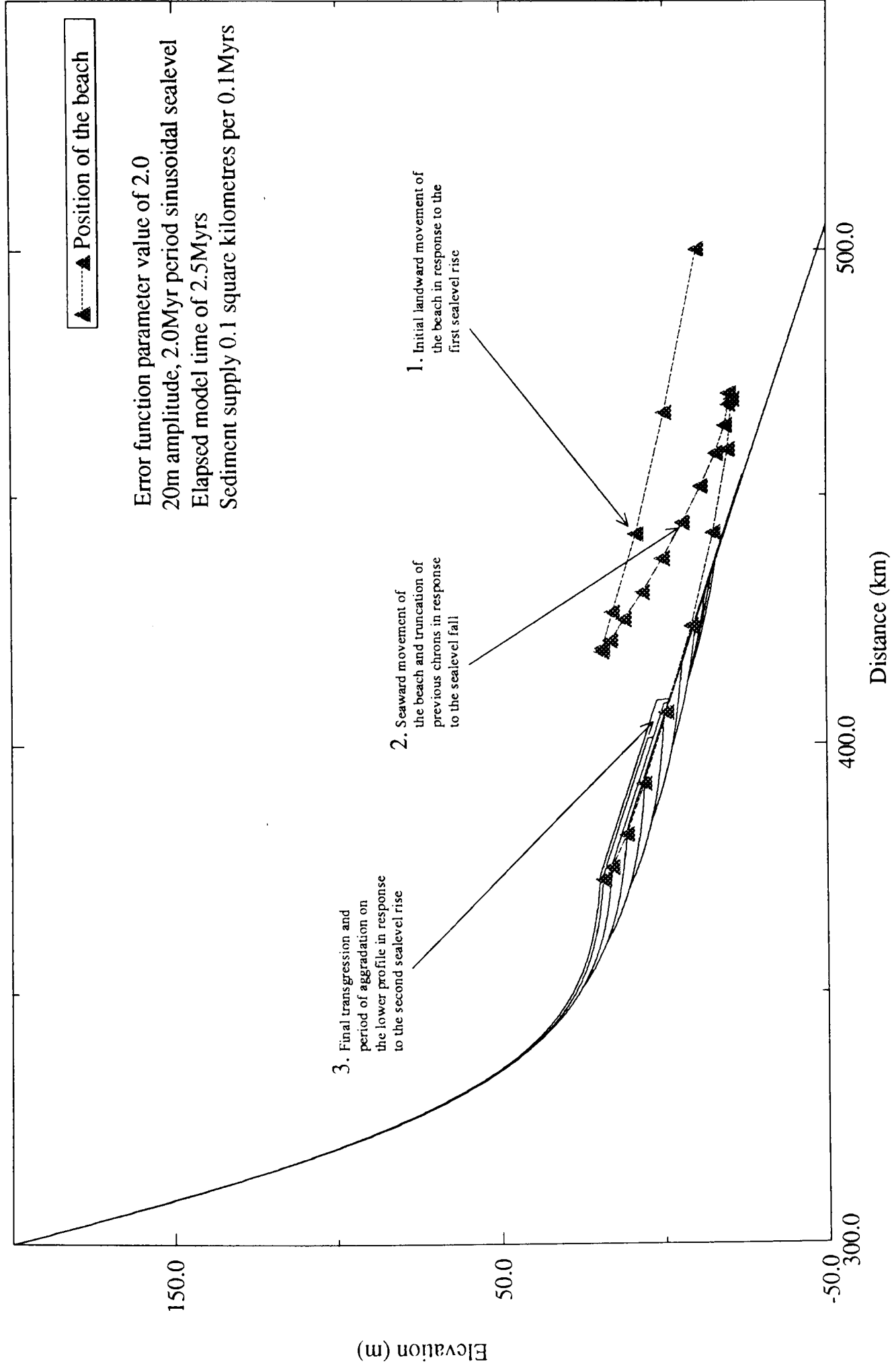


Figure 2.20. The response of the geometrical profile to a 20m amplitude sinusoidal sea level curve with a sediment supply of 0.1km squared per 0.1Myr timestep.

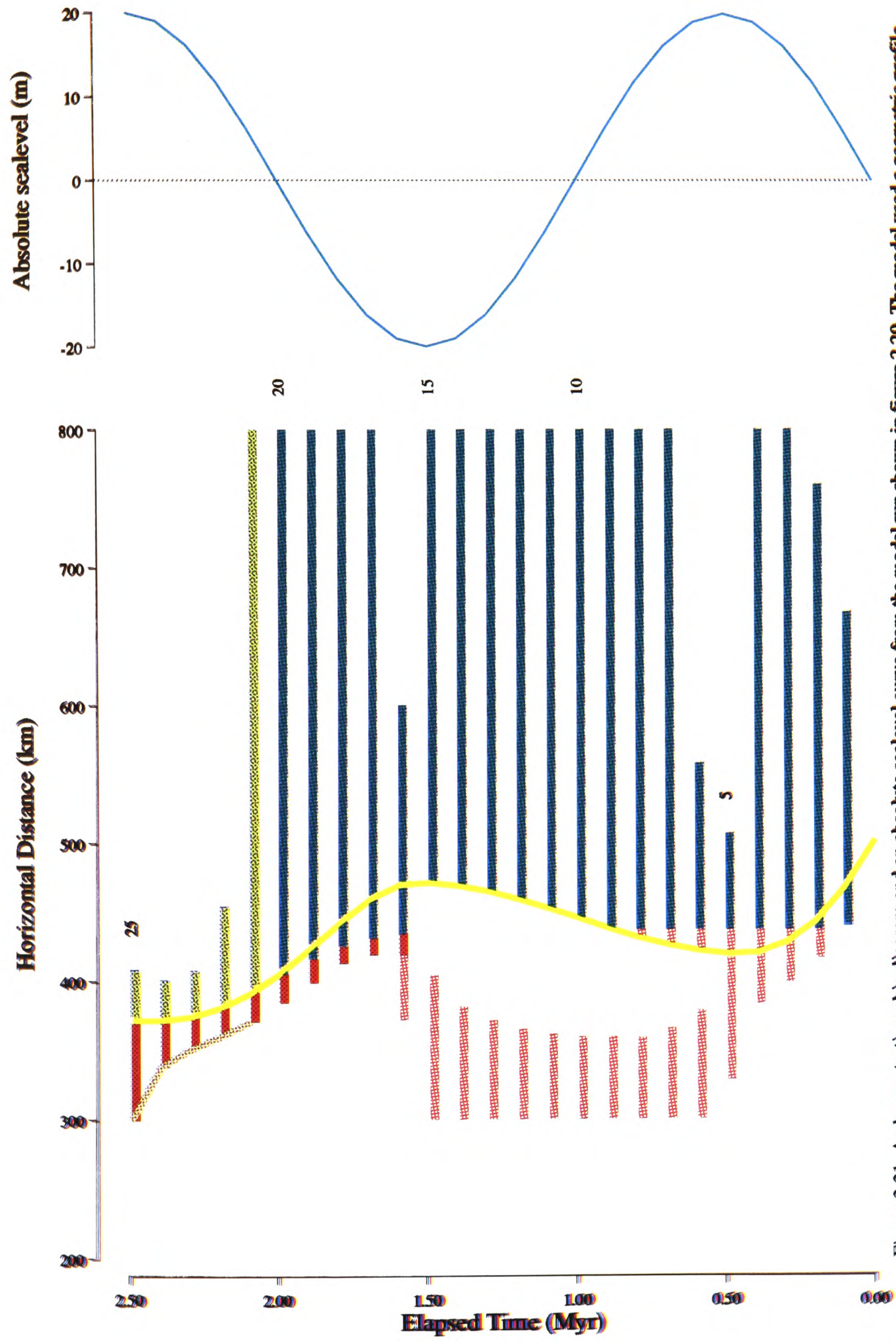


Figure 2.21. A chronostratigraphic diagram and an absolute sealevel curve from the model run shown in figure 2.20. The model used a geometric profile with an error function parameter value of 2.0 and a sediment supply of 0.1 square kilometres per year.

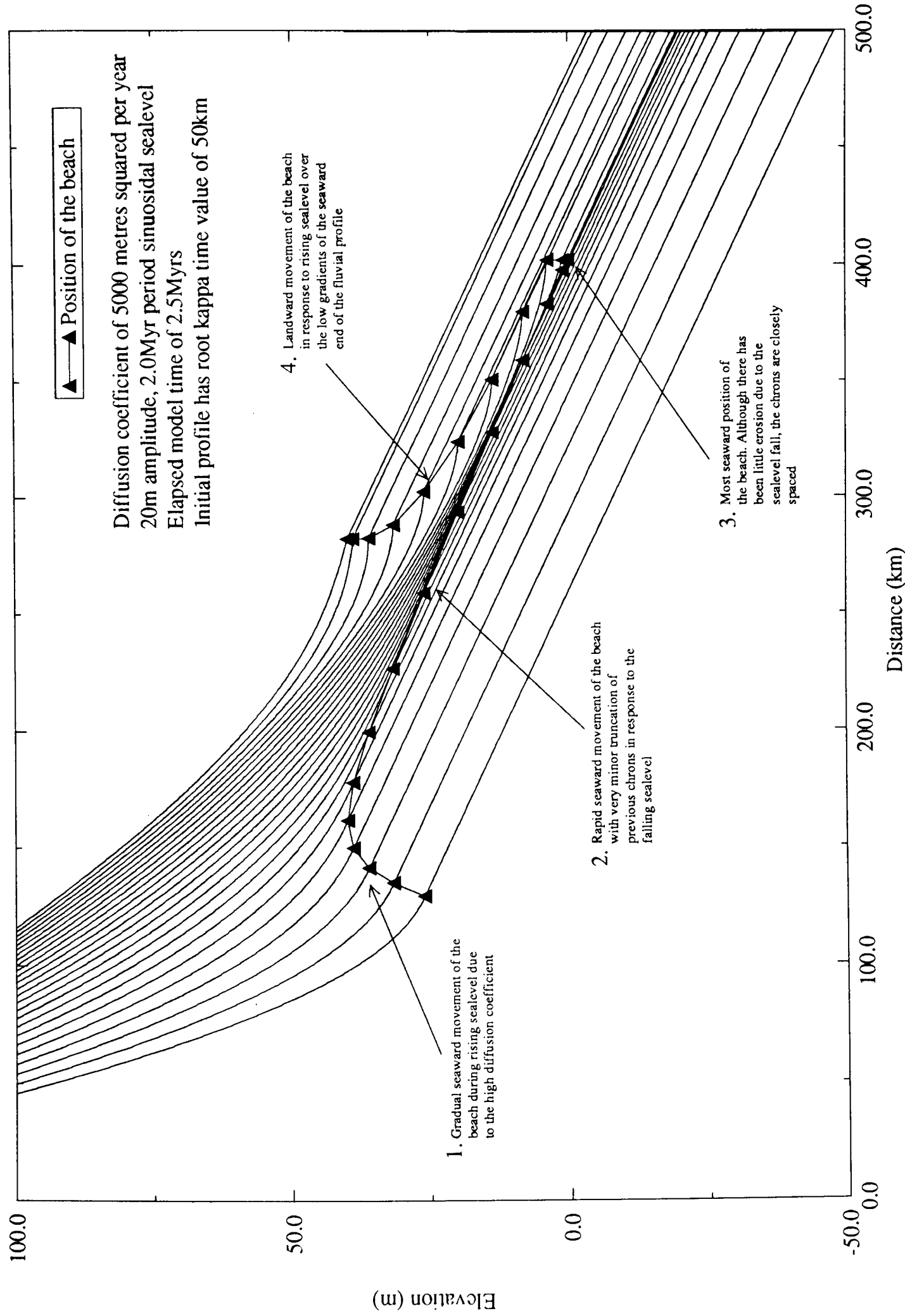


Figure 2.22. The response of the diffusional fluvial profile to a 20m amplitude sinusoidal sea level curve with a diffusion coefficient of 5000 metres squared per year.

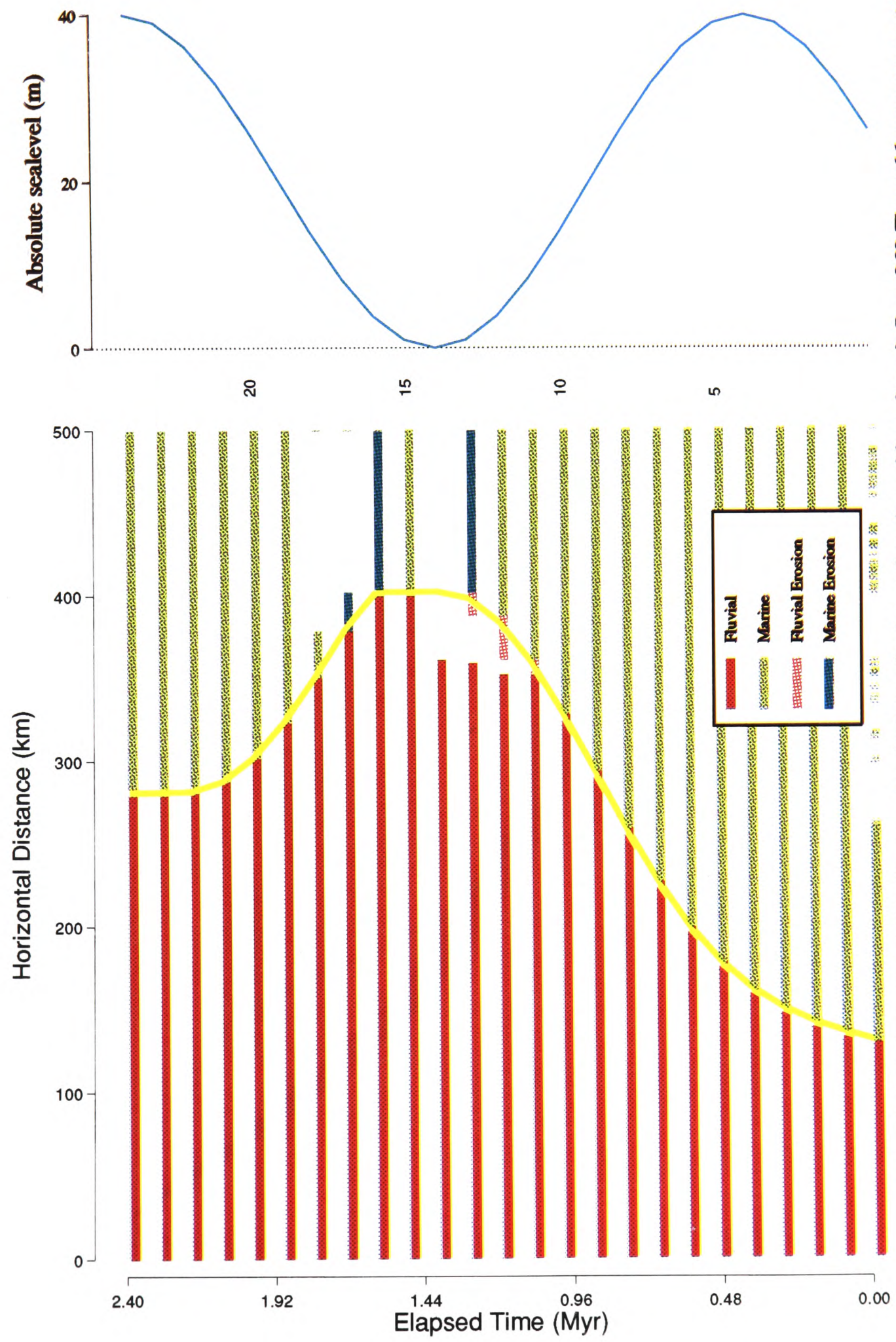


Figure 2.23. A chronostratigraphic diagram and an absolute sealevel curve from the model run shown in figure 2.22. The model run was generated with a diffusional profile with a diffusion coefficient of 5000 metres squared per year and the absolute sealevel curve shown. Note how the increased sediment supply has reduced the width and duration of the region of fluvial erosion and non-deposition.

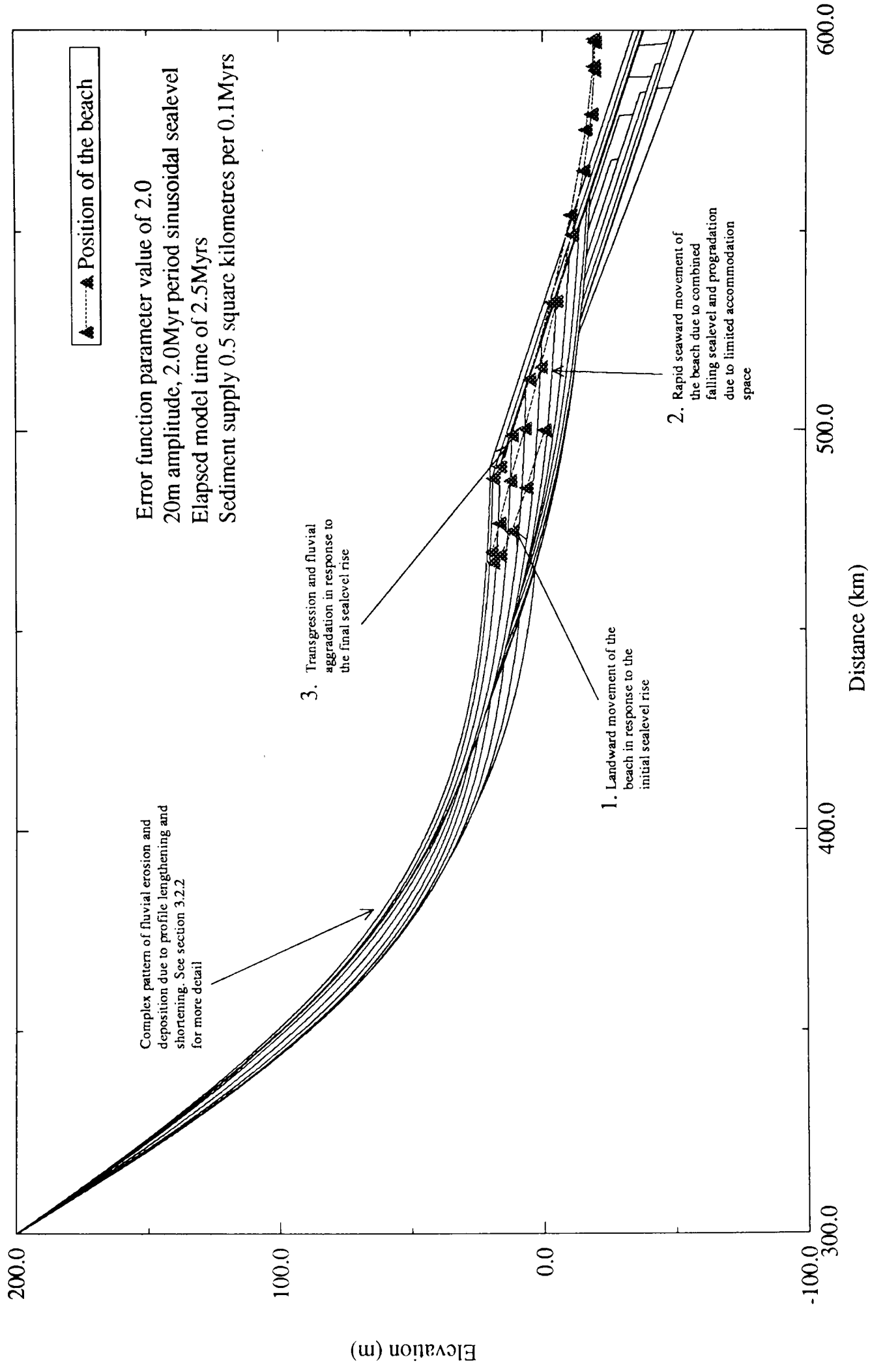


Figure 2.24. The response of the geometrical profile to a 20m amplitude sinusoidal sealevel curve with a sediment supply of 0.5 square kilometres per 0.1Myr timestep.

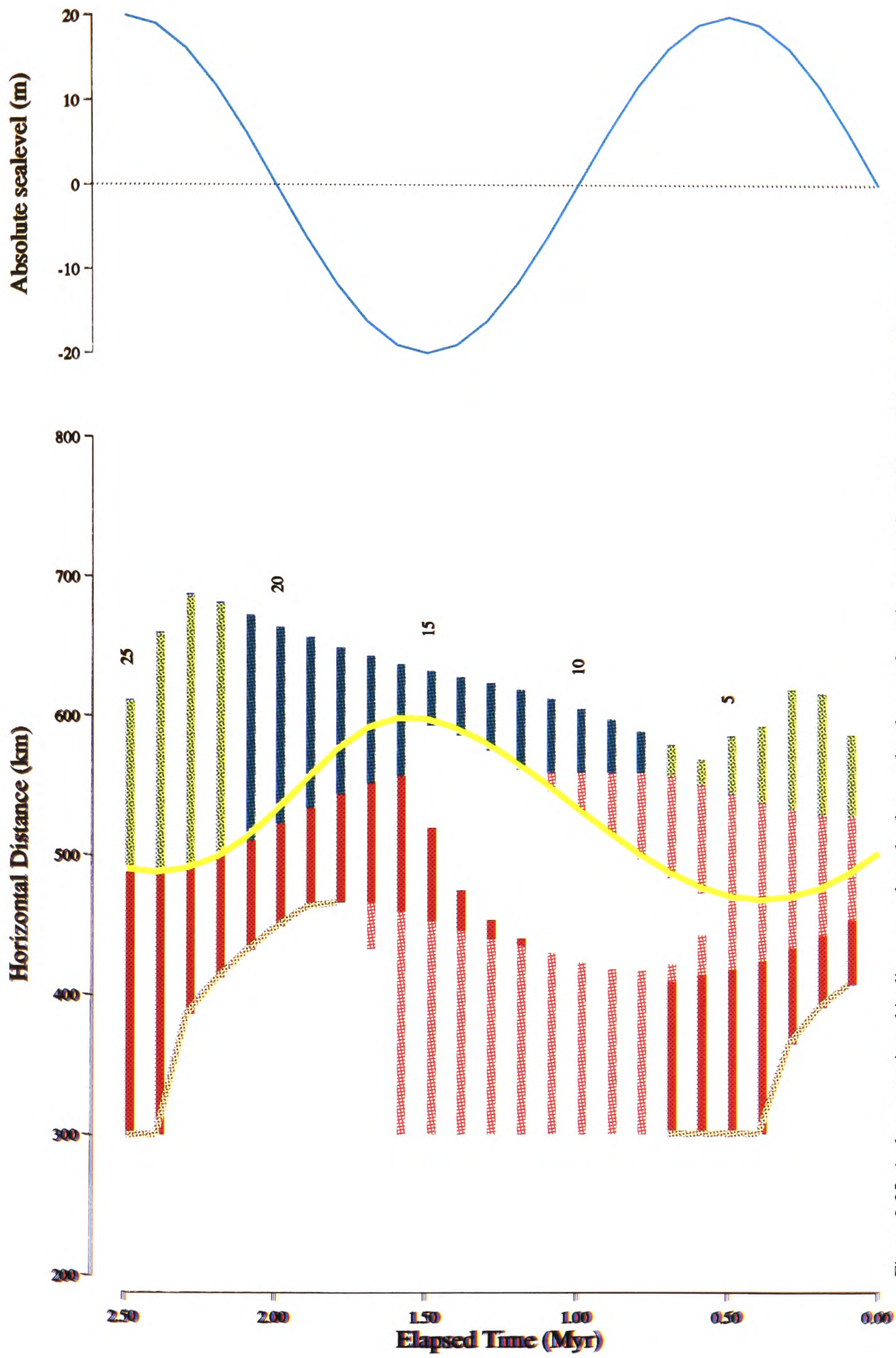


Figure 2.25. A chronostratigraphic diagram and an absolute sealevel curve from the geometric profile model run with an error function parameter value of 2.0 and a sediment supply of 0.5 square kilometres per year. Note the pattern of deposition and erosion on the profile. This is discussed in section 2.6.5.4

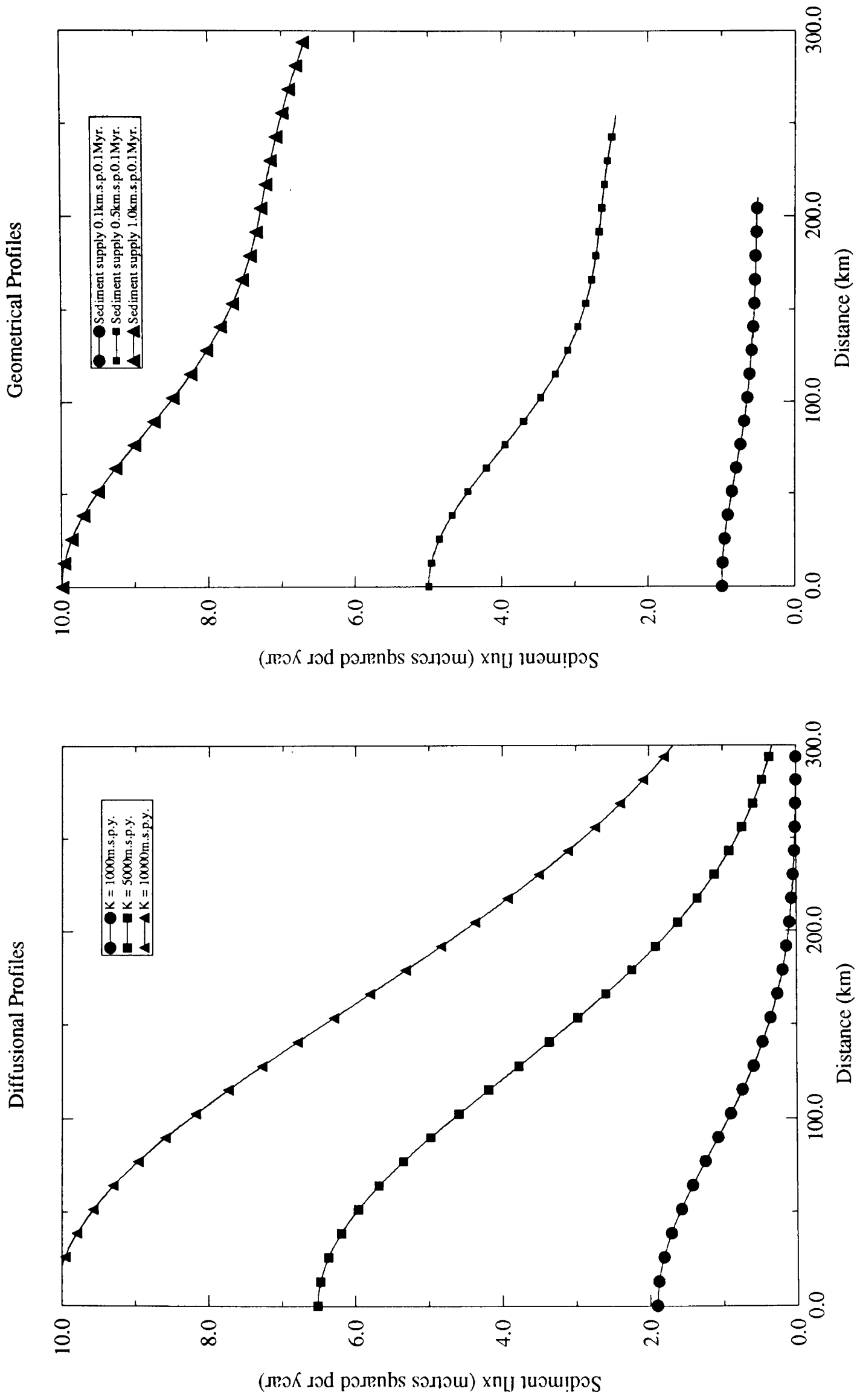


Figure 2.26. The magnitude of sediment flux with distance along the geometrical and the diffusional fluvial profiles. Three examples for each approach are shown, with varying values for the diffusion coefficient and for the external sediment supply. See text for a full discussion of the model parameters and the methods used to calculate the sediment flux.

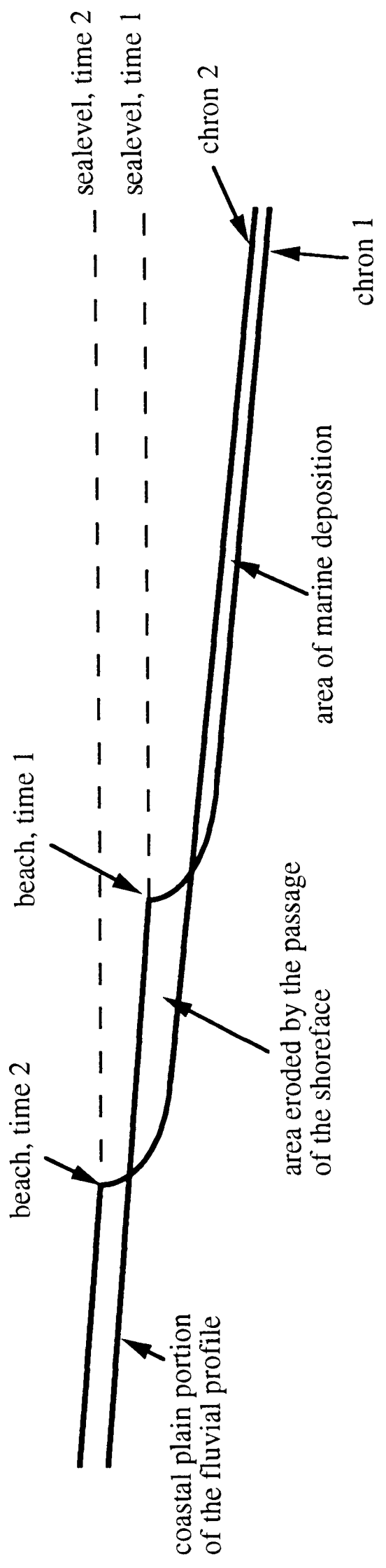


Figure 2.27 The marine equilibrium profile response to relative sealevel rise.

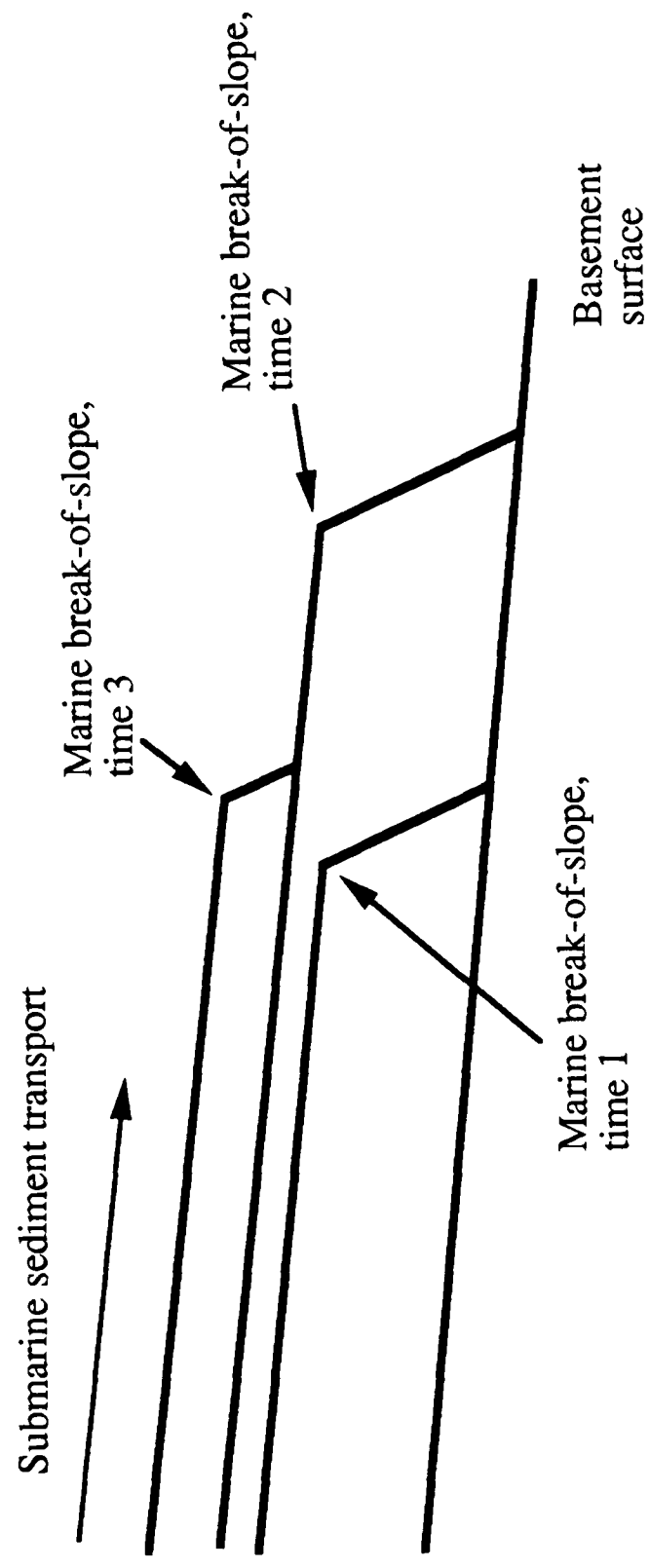


Figure 2.28 The changing position of the shelf-slope break for different chrons

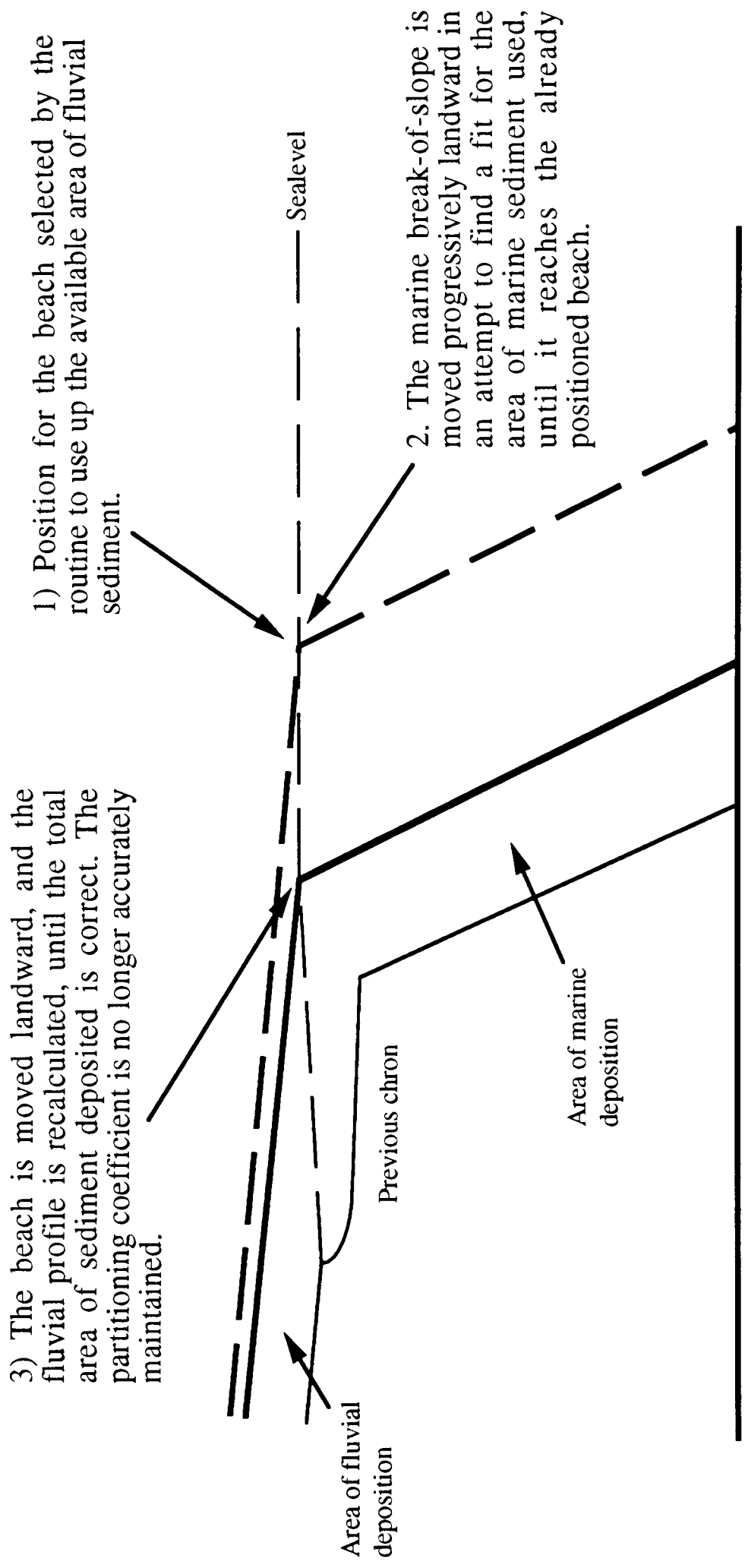


Figure 2.29 Details of the calculation of the position of the shelf-slope break.

Chapter 3

Chapter 3 - Controls on Sequence Geometry

"'tis a tale told by an idiot,
full of sound and fury,
yet signifying nothing."
(Shakespeare, Macbeth)

3.1 Introduction

This chapter shows how results from a quantitative forward model of passive rift-margin stratigraphy compare with the conceptual qualitative models describing the development of siliclastic depositional sequence geometries, presented by various authors such as Posamentier *et al.* (1988), Posamentier and Vail (1988) and more recently Van Wagoner *et al.* (1990) and Vail *et al.* (1991). It is shown that the quantitative model can reproduce some of the basic features of the sequence stratigraphic models such as systems tracts (with a variety of stacking patterns), sequence bounding unconformities, and stratal onlap patterns. Using the quantitative model to perform a series of sensitivity tests, it is possible to investigate the significance of a variety of controls on these features of depositional sequences. The controls include changing absolute sealevel, thermal subsidence, flexural isostasy, variable sediment supply, and fluvial profile geometry. The results can then be used to assess the validity of the current sequence stratigraphic model, and to determine what controls may prove to be important that are not currently adequately represented in such models.

3.2 Reproducing the basic elements of depositional sequences

The qualitative sequence stratigraphic depositional models consist of three main controlling processes which can be related directly to the elements of this quantitative forward model. These processes are tectonic subsidence, eustasy, and erosion and

deposition on equilibrium surfaces. Selecting appropriate initial conditions and model parameters allows the basic features of the sequence stratigraphic depositional model to be reproduced with the quantitative model. Similarities and discrepancies between the two models can then be used to investigate some of the assumptions behind the sequence stratigraphic model.

3.2.1 Initial conditions and parameter values

In order to generate a type-1 sequence (see section 1.1) of duration 2.0Myr E.M.T. (i.e. a third order cycle using the terminology of Vail *et al.* (1977b)) with twenty chrons each of duration 100Kyr, the following initial conditions and parameter values are used. Tectonic subsidence is calculated using one-layer thermal subsidence (McKenzie, 1978) with an initial lithospheric thermal age of 10Myrs, and stretching values ranging from 1.0 at 400km from the origin, to 1.01 at 500km from the origin, and 2.0 at 1024km from the origin. No lithospheric flexure is included in the calculations for these model runs. An absolute sealevel curve with a 2.0Myr period and a 20m amplitude is used. The period is chosen to produce a third-order cycle (Vail *et al.* 1977b). The amplitude is lower than many of the third-order cycles shown by Haq *et al.* (1988) to demonstrate that high-amplitude changes are not necessary to create sequence geometries. External sediment supply is held constant at an arbitrary value of 1.0km^2 , and the area of sediment eroded on both the marine and fluvial profiles is not added to the total sediment available for deposition on each chron so that sediment supply remains constant throughout the model run.

The fluvial profile has an initial length of 200km, based on the width of the coastal plain on the North American passive margin, and the landward end of the profile is held in a fixed horizontal and vertical position. The profile is defined using a complementary error function curve with an arbitrary error function parameter value of 2.0. Fluvial progradation is included, with the fluvial partitioning coefficient set to an arbitrary value of 0.5. The

initial topography has 200m elevation from the origin to 500km right of the origin, and then a constant slope from 0m at 500km to -500m at 1024km right of the origin. The marine profile has a shoreface 10m high and 2km wide, a shelf with a gradient of 0.5mkm^{-1} and a slope with a gradient of 43.66mkm^{-1} . These values for the topography are based on general passive margin topography. Uncompacted sediment density is 1.8kgm^{-3} . These initial conditions and parameters are summarised in figure 3.1.

3.2.2 Description of the type-1 sequence

Both Van Wagoner *et al.* (1988) and Van Wagoner *et al.* (1990) show cross sections of stylised type-1 sequences (figure 3.2). The essential characteristics of a type-1 sequence are a basal unconformity due to subaerial exposure and erosion, associated with a basinward shift of facies, a downward shift in coastal onlap, and onlap of the overlying strata (Van Wagoner *et al.* 1988). This is stated to be caused by the rate of eustatic fall exceeding the rate of basin subsidence, hence dropping the beach over the edge of the shelf-slope break. In the example diagram (figure 3.2) both Van Wagoner *et al.* (1988) and Van Wagoner *et al.* (1990) show a highstand systems tract with a progradational trend to the parasequences overlain by a type-1 sequence boundary which is caused by a fall in relative sealevel, which in turn is caused by a fall in eustatic sealevel. The sequence boundary is overlain by the lowstand systems tract with a lowstand wedge and an incised valley fill. This is then overlain by the transgressive system tract composed of parasequences with a retrogradational trend. This passes vertically into the highstand system tract, with parasequences showing an aggradational to progradational trend. A second sequence boundary, either type-1 or type-2, overlies the highstand systems tract.

Figure 3.3 is a section from the quantitative model showing twenty five chrons generated over an E.M.T. of 2.5Myrs. This section is analogous at a basic level to the type-1 sequence examples described above. The sequence boundary in figure 3.3 is placed on chron 15, at an E.M.T. of 1.5Myrs, at the lowest point on the absolute sealevel curve. It is

defined on the basis of the resumption of fluvial deposition and hence the end of fluvial erosion in the lower portion of the fluvial profile, and the continuation of the surface basinward as a correlative conformity. The sequence boundary as it is defined here, is more difficult to fit into the standard sequence stratigraphic model for a type-1 sequence, because the pattern of fluvial down-cutting, erosion and sediment bypass in this model is more complex, and highly diachronous. The significance of this and other discrepancies are discussed fully in section 3.3.

Groupings of chrons within the model run shown in figure 3.3 are analogous in terms of geometry and positioning to the systems tracts described in the sequence stratigraphic model. Although the use of systems tracts in describing actual stratigraphy can be criticised because of the necessary assumption of the dominant control of relative sealevel change, their use here is justifiable, since in a conceptual model, either qualitative or quantitative, the influence of relative sealevel is always known. Chrons one to five represent the highstand systems tract which has been eroded and truncated by the subsequent subaerial erosion on the fluvial profile as relative sealevel dropped. Chrons 6 to 15 are analogous in some ways to the lowstand systems tract, in that fluvial deposition is minimal, the fluvial profile is eroding the old shelf surface, and the largest area of deposition is on the deep marine slope. However, the diachronous nature of the sequence boundary complicates this, since chrons 6 to 15 both underlie and overlie the sequence boundary, unlike in the sequence stratigraphic depositional model in which the lowstand systems tract overlies the sequence boundary (see figure 3.2). Chrons 16 to 25 are analogous to transgressive and highstand systems tracts in terms of their position on the eustatic sealevel curve, their stacking patterns, and their onlap patterns.

Figure 3.4 shows the corresponding chronostratigraphic diagram, absolute sealevel curve, and the stratal onlap curve. The chronostratigraphic diagram shows clearly the distribution of different environments of deposition in response to changing absolute sealevel. The beach can be seen moving basinward as absolute sealevel falls, and moving back

landwards when it starts to rise. Onlap on the fluvial profile is preserved in chrons 19 to 25. The positioning of the sequence boundary, the pattern of fluvial deposition and erosion, and the pattern of downlap do not fit well with the standard sequence stratigraphic model. The significance of these differences is discussed in section 3.3.

It is important to understand at this point how the fluvial stratigraphy shown in the type-1 standard reference model develops through time in response to changing relative and absolute sealevel. Figures 3.5 to 3.9 illustrate this development. Each figure represents an E.M.T. of 0.5Myrs, and shows an enlarged view of the fluvial profile and early proximal marine portion of the model profile. Figure 3.5 shows the first five chrons in the model run. The fluvial profile shows aggradation along its whole length, developed in response to a 20m rise in sealevel (figure 3.4). As the rate of absolute sealevel rise decreases, the beach changes from retrogradation to progradation.

As absolute sealevel begins to fall, an erosion surface starts to develop on the lower two thirds of the fluvial profile, while aggradation continues on the upper profile (figure 3.6). This occurs as a result of profile lengthening forced by the seaward movement of the beach in response to falling absolute sealevel. The continuing development of the surface of erosion and non-deposition (see figure 3.4), and a reduction in aggradation on the upper profile are shown in figure 3.7. At this stage the absolute sealevel curve is at its low point. When absolute sealevel starts to rise again aggradation commences on the lower third of the fluvial profile, while small amounts of erosion (less than 5m in vertical extent) form on the upper profile (figure 3.8). Aggradation occurs progressively further landward on the profile as the rate of absolute sealevel rise slows (figure 3.9) producing the pattern of stratal onlap seen in figure 3.4.

These examples show that the profile response to absolute sealevel change has both useful features such as aggradation and stratal onlap in response to absolute sealevel rise, and development of a laterally extensive surface of erosion and bypass in response to sealevel

fall. However, the profile also shows unrealistic behaviour in the form of erosion of limited vertical extent on the upper profile in response to absolute sealevel rise, and aggradation on the upper profile in response to absolute sealevel fall. These latter features should not be considered as predictive model results.

3.2.3 Description of the type-2 sequence

The essential difference between a type-1 and a type-2 sequence as described by Van Wagoner *et al.* (1988) and Van Wagoner *et al.* (1990) and shown in figure 3.10, is the lack of subaerial erosion and basinward shift in facies in a type-2 sequence (compare with the type-1 example in figure 3.2). Other factors such as coastal onlap patterns are common to both types of sequence. A type-2 sequence does not have a lowstand systems tract developed, but instead has a shelf margin system tract. This is composed of aggradational to slightly progradational parasequences which overlies the previous highstand systems tract and the sequence boundary (figure 3.10).

A section analogous to a type-2 sequence can be produced with the quantitative model by increasing the rate of tectonic subsidence, using stretching factors ranging from 1.0 at 400km to 8.0 at 1024km, and decreasing the amplitude of eustasy from 20m to 10m. Figure 3.11 shows the section from the model run with these parameters. The fluvial erosion and truncation of chrons visible in the type-1 sequence is absent from the type-2 example. However, the patterns of progradation, aggradation and retrogradation are very similar to those in the type-1 example. The shelf margin systems tract as described by Van Wagoner *et al.* (1988) is not developed since both the position of the beach and, when developed, the marine break-of-slope, remain progradational throughout the model run. No aggradational stacking pattern characteristic of shelf margin system tracts in type-2 sequences is developed. The lack of subaerial erosion and the reduced mobility of the beach with respect to a type-1 sequence are shown in the chronostratigraphic diagrams in figure 3.12.

3.2.4 Predictions of reservoir and seal distribution

Although detailed predictions made with the model should be treated with extreme caution, the examples of type-1 and type-2 sequences shown in figures 3.3 and 3.11 do allow general predictions regarding the distribution of possible reservoirs and seals in a sequence stratigraphic framework. Figure 3.13 shows two examples of possible reservoir and seal geometries. In the type-1 sequence example, shoreface stratigraphy that is liable to be sand-rich, is preserved beneath a type-1 sequence boundary unconformity, and hence surrounded by probably impermeable shelf and coastal plain muds. The type-2 example shows extensive shoreface stratigraphy preserved beneath a type-2 sequence boundary, and sealed laterally and vertically by probably muddy coastal plain and shelf stratigraphy.

3.3 Underlying assumptions of the sequence stratigraphic model

Quantitative modelling of stratigraphy is a powerful method for highlighting the assumptions behind the sequence stratigraphic model, and for investigating the controls on stratigraphy. Since the sequence stratigraphic model is predominantly qualitative, it is difficult to rigorously test, except by direct comparison of model predictions against stratigraphic data, and adopting this approach alone leads to important uniqueness problems. The quantitative model has the advantage that the contribution of different conditions and parameters can be more carefully examined, and thus the assumptions behind the model, and behind the qualitative sequence stratigraphic models, may be investigated.

The previous section showed how the quantitative model can reproduce aspects of the sequence stratigraphic model, namely the gross geometry of type-1 and type-2 sequences. However, there are several discrepancies. The following sections use the quantitative model to investigate these discrepancies, to highlight some of the often unstated

assumptions behind the sequence stratigraphic model and to propose some alternatives to the controls on stratigraphy described by various workers such as Vail *et al.* (1977b); Posamentier *et al.* (1988); Posamentier and Vail (1988); Van Wagoner *et al.* (1990); Vail *et al.* (1991).

3.3.1 Definition of Coastal Onlap

Vail *et al.* (1977a) and Posamentier *et al.* (1988) described how patterns of coastal onlap develop in response to eustatic change. Vail *et al.* (1977a) defined coastal onlap as "the progressive landward onlap of littoral and/or non marine coastal deposits" while Posamentier *et al.* (1988) defined coastal onlap as "the landward limit on the shelf or upper slope of sediment distribution - marine or non marine." Controls on coastal onlap patterns will be discussed below, but it is important first to examine the methods by which coastal onlap is measured from preserved stratigraphy.

Vail *et al.* (1977a) showed several theoretical examples of coastal onlap patterns. Both a vertical component, termed coastal aggradation, and a horizontal component termed coastal encroachment can be measured from the termination of strata against an initial depositional surface as described by Vail *et al.* (1977a) (figure 3.14). These patterns of stratal termination occur and can be measured in the quantitative model results presented here. Such onlap will be referred to as stratal onlap rather than coastal onlap, since in this model the onlap occurs entirely within fluvial stratigraphy, and at elevations of up to several hundred metres. The vertical components are measured and shown as stratal onlap curves (e.g. figure 3.4).

3.3.2 Magnitude of coastal onlap and derivation of relative sealevel curves

Vail *et al.* (1977a) assumed that measurements of coastal onlap could be used as a direct quantification of relative sealevel change. It did however, point out complications with

such measurements arising from variations in sediment supply which can lead to an absence of a coastal plain, and so affect onlap measurement, and also with topography on the coastal plain which can introduce an error to the relative sealevel determination. Posamentier *et al.* (1988) show theoretical coastal onlap curves calculated using essentially the same method as given in Vail *et al.* (1977a).

The importance of topography on the coastal plain has been underestimated in Vail *et al.* (1977a). Fluvial processes may create accommodation space for fluvial deposition tens, or even hundreds of metres above sealevel. Thus landward onlapping stratal terminations in fluvial stratigraphy may occur at significant elevations above sealevel. The resulting amplitude of stratal onlap is likely to be more strongly controlled by the dynamics of the fluvial system than by the amplitude of the eustatic sea level change.

To illustrate this point, albeit in a relatively simplistic way, figure 3.4 shows the stratal onlap pattern measured from the type-1 sequence example model stratigraphy, generated with an absolute sealevel curve of 20m amplitude and a 2.0Myr period. The amplitude of the vertical component of the stratal onlap for chrons 19 to 25 is almost 200m. If this aspect of the fluvial profile behaviour is realistic, and fluvial stratigraphy can be deposited and preserved at such altitudes on a fluvial profile, the whole concept of coastal onlap patterns derived from seismic sections and used to determine amplitude of eustatic change, is fundamentally flawed. In order to derive relative sealevel change from a stratal onlap pattern such as that shown in figure 3.4, it would be necessary to know details of the behaviour of the fluvial profile upon which the strata was deposited. Deducing such details from preserved fluvial stratigraphy may well prove impossible.

3.3.3 Definition of the tectonic hinge point, the equilibrium point, and the bayline

Many of the assumptions behind the depositional sequence stratigraphic model were not clearly stated by Vail *et al.* (1977a) or Posamentier *et al.* (1988) but are implicit in the

results that they described. The basic assumption that was clearly stated is that coastal onlap is controlled by an interaction of eustasy and tectonic subsidence, with sediment supply possibly acting as a modifying influence. This assumption lead to the definition of three key points on a depositional profile (Posamentier et al., 1988). These are the tectonic hinge point, the equilibrium point, and the bayline.

The hinge point was not strictly defined in the model, but appears to be the point on the model profile separating a tectonically subsiding profile surface from a tectonically uplifting profile surface. This assumed a simplistic tilting beam model for tectonic subsidence. The equilibrium point is defined as that point on the profile where the rate of eustatic change is equal to the rate of tectonic subsidence. The bayline is defined as the boundary on the model profile between fluvial sediments deposited above sealevel and deltaic and coastal plain sediments deposited at sealevel. These points are shown diagrammatically in figure 16 of Posamentier *et al.* (1988), summarised here in figure 3.15.

The movement of the points on the model profile through time in response to eustatic change, is assumed in the sequence stratigraphic model, to control the pattern of deposition of stratigraphy. For example, figure 18 in Posamentier *et al.* (1988) showed how onset of fluvial deposition should occur when the bayline and the equilibrium point were at the same position on the depositional profile.

3.3.4 Quantitative implementation of the tectonic hinge point, the equilibrium point, and the bayline

Attempting to implement the definition of the key points on the profile such as the equilibrium point and the bayline in the quantitative model is problematical. Tectonic subsidence in the model is calculated using a one or two-layer stretching model with the magnitude of subsidence dependent on the stretching factor, β . Thus there is no direct

equivalent of the hinge point where subsidence passes laterally into uplift. This leads to problems quantifying the equilibrium point, since there is no persistent tectonic uplift in the model, so the equilibrium point cannot be landward of the hinge point during a eustatic rise. Although flexure produces uplift due to deposition and erosion, this uplift is not persistent, since its distribution and magnitude changes with each time step. Flexural effects do not produce a simple transition from subsidence to uplift across a hinge zone, and hence flexure cannot be used to define an equilibrium point in the way described by Posamentier *et al.* (1988).

There is also a problem with the respective rates of eustasy and tectonic subsidence. At the equilibrium point the rate of eustatic change is said to equal the rate of tectonic uplift or subsidence. However, a third order eustatic cycle typical of those shown by Haq *et al.* (1988) has an amplitude of, for example, 50m and occurs over a period of, for example, 1.0Myrs. This gives a rate of 5m/100Kyr model time step. With a stretching factor of 1.5, at 20Myrs since the onset of thermal subsidence, the rate of thermal subsidence is 1.54m/100Kyr. Increasing the stretching factor to 4.0 gives a rate of 3.43m/100Kyr. After 50Myrs, the rate of subsidence is reduced to 0.95m/100Kyr with a stretching factor of 1.5, and 2.08m/100Kyr with a stretching factor of 4.0. Thus using the McKenzie model of thermal subsidence (McKenzie, 1978) very high stretching factors are needed to maintain equilibrium with falling sealevel throughout a cycle of sealevel fall. Therefore, the conceptual sequence stratigraphic model is unrealistic in assuming that rates of tectonic subsidence can match rates of eustatic fall throughout a third order type cycle, especially on an old (20Myrs or longer since the end of the synrift phase) passive margin.

The concept of the bayline has been criticised by Miall (1991) which pointed out that the bayline concept implied that there was no slope on the delta top, which is obviously erroneous since streams on the delta top still need a gradient in order to flow seawards. Even if the gradients are small, they still exist. Thus, since it appears to be a flawed

concept, the bayline is ignored in the quantitative model. The fluvial equilibrium profile is graded to the sealevel datum at the shoreline.

These problems with quantifying elements of the depositional model described by Posamentier *et al.* (1988) which are stated to control onlap patterns stem from the non-quantitative nature of the model. Many aspects of the model appear only to have been formulated in diagrammatic form, and thus problems such as relative rates of eustasy and tectonic subsidence have not been adequately considered.

3.3.5 Controls on stratal onlap patterns

Figure 3.16 is a chronostratigraphic diagram showing stratigraphy generated over two cycles of absolute sealevel, which is equivalent to figure 3.17, taken from figure 18 of Posamentier *et al.* (1988). Comparing the two diagrams it is possible to reach some interesting conclusions regarding controls on stratal onlap. The main differences between the two diagrams are due to the shape of the fluvial profile and erosion of older chrons by the fluvial profile.

Timing of fluvial deposition

The most obvious discrepancy between the two depositional patterns (figures 3.16 and 3.17) is that in the sequence stratigraphic model, fluvial deposition is limited to the period between the highstand on the eustatic curve, and the inflexion point on the falling limb. During this time the equilibrium point and the bayline are in superposition, and it is this superposition that is assumed to cause fluvial deposition. In the quantitative model fluvial deposition is more complex, occurring on different parts of the fluvial profile, depending on the position on the absolute sealevel curve. During periods of rising absolute sealevel, when the beach is transgressive, or nearly stationary, deposition occurs along the length of the fluvial profile. During periods of falling absolute sealevel, when the beach is

regressive, deposition is restricted to the upper landward portion of the profile, and there is an area of non-deposition on the basinward section of the profile.

Although elements of the profile behaviour are unrealistic (see discussion in section 3.2.2), this result highlights the importance of the assumption in the sequence stratigraphic model that fluvial deposition only occurs on the lower portion of the profile, and only in response to falling eustatic sealevel which is controlling the addition of accommodation space. What is not considered is that more complex behaviour of the fluvial system may also create accommodation space for fluvial sediments. Such behaviour has to be understood before predictions of the type made by Posamentier and Vail (1988) can be shown to have true predictive power,

The importance of fluvial erosion

The second factor which the qualitative sequence stratigraphic model does not account for is the modifying effect of fluvial erosion on the pattern of stratigraphy. For example, the chronostratigraphic diagram in figure 3.16 shows that on the lower portion of the fluvial profile deposition of fluvial stratigraphy from chrons 10 to 19 is subsequently eroded by downcutting of the fluvial profile during the falling limb of the absolute sealevel curve. The section from the same model run in figure 3.18 shows that truncation of fluvial chrons by this process is very important in the pattern of stratal termination in the fluvial stratigraphy.

3.3.6 Timing of significant surfaces

In the type-1 sequence example in figure 3.4 the sequence boundary is defined at chron 15, at an E.M.T. of 1.5Myrs, since this is when subaerial erosion on the fluvial profile stops. Identifying other characteristics of a type-1 sequence boundary is difficult. There is no instant basinward shift of stratal onlap, only a gradual offlap from an E.M.T. of 1.0Myrs to

an E.M.T. of 2.0, which has subsequently been modified by fluvial and marine erosion. Stratal onlap commences at 1.9Myrs and continues until the end of the model run at 2.5Myrs.

This result is very significant to the sequence stratigraphic model for two reasons. The first is that it is assumed in that model in the way that the sequence boundary is defined, that fluvial erosion of the subaerially exposed shelf ceases before the onset of deposition of the lowstand systems tract. The sequence boundary is implied to be a single chronostratigraphic surface. This is not the case in the quantitative model. Fluvial erosion continues as long as absolute sealevel and hence base level continues to fall. Thus the sequence boundary as it is defined in the model is highly diachronous in the sense that it truncates stratigraphy of varying age and forms over several time steps. For example, in figure 3.4, the sequence boundary cuts chrons 1 to 13 (0.1 to 1.3Myrs E.M.T.) and forms over a period of 0.9Myrs. Hence accurate correlation between sequence boundaries, if they formed in this way, would be very difficult, since they actually represent quite prolonged periods of time in their formation.

This leads to the second point which is that it is the lowest point of absolute sealevel on the sealevel curve, not the inflexion point, which is significant in this model. Thus, the rate of absolute sealevel change is not the crucial control, but the lowest point on the sealevel curve. This point is demonstrated in figure 3.4. Fluvial erosion creating a subaerial unconformity, with sediment bypassing, continues until chron 15, at the low point on the absolute sealevel curve. Hence the timing of the sequence boundary is controlled by the low point on the absolute sealevel curve, not the inflexion point. This same point applies to the maximum flooding surface, which is shown to occur at the inflexion point in Posamentier *et al.* (1988) (figure 3.17). The time of maximum flooding in the quantitative model occurs at some time between the inflexion point and the highest point on the absolute sealevel curve (e.g. chron 23 in figure 3.4), depending upon the magnitude of

sediment supply. This complicates the interpretation and hence correlation of maximum flooding surfaces.

The digital nature of the quantitative model and the weaknesses with the geometrical profile approach makes it difficult to assess the significance of these results regarding the timing of the formation of surfaces. The sequence stratigraphic depositional model notes the importance of the balance between different processes with regard to the creation and filling of accommodation space, but since it is entirely qualitative, it is not possible to fully assess the significance of this balance with that model. Using a quantitative model to test this concept is also difficult, since the results may well be influenced by the length of the time step chosen. However, it seems safe to conclude that the assumption within the sequence stratigraphic depositional model as described by Posamentier *et al.* (1988) and Posamentier and Vail (1988) of the timing of sequence boundaries and maximum flooding surfaces at inflexion points in an absolute sealevel curve, should be treated with extreme caution until it can be tested further.

3.4. Sensitivity Tests - Alternative controls on sequence geometry

The following sections show results from the model run with the initial conditions described in section 3.2.1 plus the addition of an extra factor such as flexure, variable sediment supply, or a different fluvial profile geometry. The purpose of these model runs is to establish the degree of relative control that absolute sealevel variations, sediment supply, flexure and fluvial profile geometry exert over the model stratigraphy.

3.4.1 Flexure

The standard model parameter set described in section 3.2.1 has an infinitely rigid lithosphere which does not respond to sediment loading or unloading due to erosion. In order to test the importance of flexure on the standard results shown in figure 3.3, and 3.4,

the model was run with a constant value for T_e of 10km. The value of T_e is also constant along the length of the model profile, so potential changes in strength of the lithosphere across the hinge zone are ignored. All the other parameters and initial conditions were the same as those for the standard model run.

Figure 3.19 shows the section from the model run with flexure included. The pattern of stratigraphy is basically similar to that of the standard model run. There are two noticeable differences.

- More of the seaward end of the fluvial profile is preserved with the addition of flexure (i.e. chrons 10 to 15). This is due to flexural subsidence creating a few metres more accommodation space and thus keeping the stratigraphy below falling absolute sealevel so that it cannot be eroded by the fluvial profile.
- The beach moves further landward during the transgression when absolute sealevel is rising. This is also due to flexural subsidence depressing the lower portion of the fluvial profile and thus allowing the shoreface to move further landward.

Both of these differences in the stratigraphic pattern are also clearly visible in figure 3.20 which is the chronostratigraphic plot, absolute sealevel curve and stratal onlap curve from the model run with flexure included. Although the timing of the sequence boundary (positioned on the basis of the resumption of fluvial deposition on the lower fluvial plain) is different in figure 3.20, occurring at chron 16 rather than chron 15 in the standard model run, the difference is not particularly significant, since it is caused by very small changes in elevation caused by flexural uplift and subsidence.

Despite the small differences described, the overall pattern of model stratigraphy is very similar. The influence of absolute sealevel change is still clearly visible on the stratigraphic pattern. For example, the period of stratal onlap from 1.9Myrs E.M.T. to 2.5Myrs E.M.T. is very similar in both runs. Thus it can be concluded that in the model flexure is of secondary importance when compared to changes in absolute sealevel.

3.4.2 The geometry of the fluvial profile

The geometry of the fluvial profile has not previously been considered a major control on sequence geometry in the sequence stratigraphic model. Although Posamentier *et al.* (1988) and Posamentier and Vail (1988) consider fluvial response to base level change using the concept of fluvial equilibrium profiles, they do not attempt to quantify such profiles, which is a necessary step in order to understand their significance to, and control upon stratigraphy. Even though the geometrically defined profile used here produces some unrealistic features, it still represents an advance over the purely qualitative profile geometries used by Posamentier *et al.* (1988).

In the standard model run described in section 3.2.1. the complementary error function parameter used to model the fluvial profile is 2.0 (see section 2.6.5.2). The effects of decreasing the value of this length scale to 1.2 can be seen in figure 3.21 and 3.22. The model section in figure 3.21 demonstrates how a less concave profile creates more accommodation space for fluvial sediment (see figure 3.23) and hence prevents much fluvial erosion, even during the 40m drop in absolute sealevel from 0.5Myrs to 1.5Myrs E.M.T. The stratigraphic pattern produced is actually more like a type-2 sequence than the type-1 example shown in figures 3.3 and 3.4.

Figures 3.24 and 3.25 show the standard model run modified to include a more concave fluvial profile with a length scale of 2.8. This, like the less concave profile, appears to be a first order control on the model stratigraphy. In the model section in figure 3.24 the thickness of the preserved fluvial stratigraphy is slightly less than that in the standard model, and the beach has moved further landward during the transgression from 1.7 to 2.5Myrs E.M.T. This movement of the beach and the altered pattern of fluvial erosion and deposition can also be seen on the chronostratigraphic diagram in figure 3.25. The stratigraphic gap below the sequence boundary, produced by increased erosion and

reduced deposition on the more concave profile as absolute sealevel has dropped, is wider and more prolonged. Once again, as with the flexural example, the timing of the sequence boundary has been slightly altered, this time as a result of the more concave profile continuing to erode for one time step longer than in the standard model.

These results demonstrate that the geometry of the fluvial profile is a first order control on stratigraphy in the model, along with thermal subsidence and changes in absolute sealevel. The degree to which this is true in actual natural systems is difficult to determine. The main weakness in the assumption of the fluvial profile geometry is the lack of a direct link to observable fluvial processes, and the unrealistic nature of some of the profile behaviour. However, despite these important weaknesses, it still seems reasonable to conclude from these results that the quantitative model demonstrates the importance of the fluvial profile behaviour to the resulting stratigraphic patterns, and hence to the use of the sequence stratigraphic depositional model as a predictive tool.

3.4.3 The sediment partitioning coefficient

In the standard model run the sediment partitioning coefficient (see section 2.5.7) was set to 0.5, so that 50% of the available sediment was deposited on the fluvial portion of the model profile, and the second 50% was deposited on the marine portion of the profile, which is made up of the shoreface, the shelf and the marine slope. Since this parameter controls both the distance of fluvial progradation and the magnitude of sediment supplied to the marine portion of the model profile, it will act as an important control on model stratigraphy.

To test this possibility, the model was run with the parameters and initial conditions as described in section 3.2.1, except that the partitioning coefficient was reduced from 0.5 to 0.2. The results from this model run can be seen in figures 3.26 and 3.27. The section in figure 3.26 shows the much wider shelf deposits developed because of the increased

sediment supply to the sea, and the much reduced fluvial deposits caused by the increased bypassing of sediment through the fluvial system. The chronostratigraphic diagrams in figure 3.27 also shows the differences in marine and fluvial deposition and erosion. In particular, more of the previously deposited fluvial stratigraphy has been eroded than in the standard model (e.g. a wider band of erosion in chrons 1 to 6), because of the different fluvial profile geometry caused by reduced fluvial progradation. This has lead to increased erosion on the upper profile during a relative sealevel rise, which is probably unrealistic, and should be noted when interpreting this model result.

To contrast with the low partitioning coefficient, figures 3.28 and 3.29 show results from the model run with a higher value of 0.8. The effect on the stratigraphy is to increase fluvial progradation so that little or no shoreface and shelf are produced. The pattern of fluvial stratigraphy shown in the chronostratigraphic diagram is very similar to that in the standard model, except that stratal onlap is less well developed. This is due to the increased fluvial deposition competing with the absolute sealevel rise and reducing the distance of transgression, and hence the production of stratal onlap on the fluvial profile.

These results suggest that the degree of sediment partitioning between fluvial and marine portions of a basin is an important control on stratigraphy in the model. Very different patterns of erosion and deposition are produced depending on the value of the partitioning coefficient chosen. It seems likely that the same could be true of a real system. A lack of sediment being deposited on the shelf is taken in the sequence stratigraphic model to be indicative of a time of transgression. However, it may be possible that other things, independent of eustasy, such as climatic variations affecting drainage basin development, could control partitioning. If more sediment were being trapped in the drainage basin and the coastal plain, due to a decrease in the transport capability of the drainage basin, possibly due to a change, for example, to a more arid climate, the partitioning coefficient would change. This possibility could lead to phenomenon such as condensed sections being misinterpreted within a eustatic framework.

3.4.4 Variable sediment supply

In the standard model run the sediment supply is kept constant at 1.0km^2 per time step. In order to investigate the significance of variations in sediment supply, the model has been run with a number of different sediment supply configurations.

Figure 3.30 and figure 3.31 were produced by the model running with the standard parameters and initial conditions, except that sediment supply was reduced to 0.5km^2 , and held constant at that value. The reduced sediment supply increases the incidence of fluvial erosion so that little fluvial stratigraphy is preserved from before 1.5Myrs E.M.T., and causes the beach to move approximately 70km further landward during the transgression from 1.5 to 2.5Myrs E.M.T. This movement of the beach produces a marine ravinement surface which is clearly visible on the section in figure 3.30, and on the chronostratigraphic diagram in figure 3.31. The enhanced landward movement of the beach and the production of the ravinement surface are both due to the shift in balance from fluvial progradation to landward shoreface retreat, due in turn to the reduced sediment supply.

Increasing the sediment supply to 1.5km^2 per time step has the opposite effect, shifting the balance to fluvial progradation. The impact of this on the stratigraphy is to increase the distance of basinward progradation of the sediment wedge. This is shown in figures 3.32 and 3.33. Despite this increase in the distance of progradation, the overall pattern of erosion, deposition, and the movement of the shoreline is very similar to the standard model.

It can be concluded from these two model runs that reducing sediment supply has a more pronounced effect on the pattern of stratigraphy in the model than increasing sediment supply. If this is true in real systems, the implications are important. Sediment supply could be reduced independently of eustatic sealevel rise by, for example, climatic effects

such as a reduction in rainfall. Reduced sediment supply during an absolute sealevel rise might accentuate features such as transgressive ravinement surfaces and condensed sequences. Such effects could easily be misinterpreted as due to eustatic effects within a sequence stratigraphic framework of interpretation.

The previous two model runs held sediment supply constant throughout the duration of the run. The sequence stratigraphic depositional models (Posamentier *et al.* 1988; Posamentier and Vail, 1988; Van Wagoner *et al.*, 1990) all assume constant sediment supply, but state that when studying any particular example of stratigraphy, the effects of variable sediment supply should be accounted for before the models are applied. No indication is given as to how this can be achieved. One possibility is to begin by studying the effects of variable sediment supply in a stratigraphic forward model.

The following three model runs all have variable sediment supply. The sediment supply curves have either a saw-tooth or a sinusoidal geometry and areas eroded on the fluvial and marine profiles were not added to the total available for deposition. The saw-tooth and sinusoidal curves could be considered to represent changes in sediment supply due to factors such as drainage basin morphology, point-source switching, climatic change or tectonic effects, or combinations of all three. The saw-tooth curves particularly may be analogous to sudden changes in sediment supply due to point-source switching.

Figures 3.34 and 3.35 show model output with sediment supply varying in a saw tooth pattern. The curve (figure 3.31) has a period of 1.6Myrs; sediment supply starts at 0.1km² per time step, and increases to 1.0km² at 1.6Myrs E.M.T. before returning to 0.1km² at 1.7Myrs E.M.T. The solid red and green lines show the area of fluvial and marine stratigraphy deposited respectively, and the blue line is the combined total of the two. The dotted lines represent the areas eroded on the fluvial and marine profiles and can be ignored.

The effect of the sudden reduction in sediment supply at 1.7Myrs E.M.T. is quite striking (figures 3.34 and 3.35). The shoreline immediately begins to retreat landward, reversing the previous progradational trend. This is partly due to the rise in absolute sealevel from 1.5 to 2.5Myrs E.M.T., but the movement is exacerbated by the sudden reduction in sediment supply. Most of the fluvial stratigraphy prior to chron 16 is eroded by the sudden jump in the shape of the fluvial profile, and by a marine ravinement surface produced by the transgression, though the fluvial erosion should be disregarded since it is probably an unrealistic fluvial response to absolute sealevel rise.

Figures 3.36 and 3.37 show the effects of using a saw-tooth sediment supply curve also with a period of 1.5Myrs, but with supply decreasing from 1.0km^2 to 0.1km^2 per time step during each period. This is thus a rapid rise-slow fall type of curve. The impact of the change in sediment supply at 1.5Myrs E.M.T. is much less noticeable. Two effects are visible, particularly on the chronostratigraphic diagram in figure 3.37.

- A decrease in the distance of progradation in chrons 10 to 15 due to decreasing sediment supply.
- An increase in the spatial distribution of fluvial and marine erosion of stratigraphy in chrons 1 to 10. This is caused in part by profile shortening when the beach jumps landward at chron 16 (and thus should be disregarded as unrealistic), and by an increase in fluvial erosion on the lower fluvial profile during the period of low absolute sealevel due to the reduced fluvial progradation.

Overall, however, the differences between this model run and the standard model run are much less striking than the previous example. This is due mostly to the timing of the change in sediment supply. Low sediment supply during the rising limb of the absolute sealevel curve has a far more pronounced effect on the stratigraphy than low sediment supply during the falling limb. Conversely, high sediment supply during the transgression reduces the effect of the transgression by providing sediment for fluvial progradation, and maintains more closely the pattern of stratigraphy seen in the standard model.

The third model run with varying sediment supply uses a sinusoidal curve with a period of 2Myrs and an amplitude of 1km^2 . Figures 3.38 and 3.39 show the model output for this run. Most of the differences in the stratigraphic pattern, such as the lack of fluvial deposition in chrons 10 to 15, from 1.0 to 1.5Myrs E.M.T., slightly more landward movement of the shoreline from 0.0 to 0.5Myrs and 1.5Myrs to 2.5Myrs, and a different stratal onlap pattern in chrons 19 to 25, from 1.9 to 2.5Myrs, can be attributed to the low sediment supplies at 0.1Myrs, 1.2Myrs and 2.5Myrs E.M.T.

3.4.5 Variable sediment supply and constant absolute sealevel

From figures 3.34 and 3.35, produced with the model using a saw-tooth sediment supply curve, it is apparent that a sudden reduction in sediment supply may be a major control on sequence development. In that example, significant portions of the stratigraphy were eroded during erosional shoreface retreat due to the sudden drop in sediment supply combined with rising absolute sealevel. Figures 3.40 and 3.41, therefore, show the effects of running the model with the same saw-tooth sediment supply curve, but with absolute sealevel constant at 0m, and with a higher magnitude of thermal subsidence (stretching values from 1.0 to 8.0) which can act to preserve more of the stratigraphy eroded in the previous example.

The pattern of stratigraphy is in some respects very similar to that shown in figures 3.11 and 3.12 from the model run which attempted to reproduce the salient elements of a type-2 depositional sequence. The sudden drop in sediment supply at 1.7Myrs E.M.T. causes the shoreline to move rapidly landwards as would be expected in a transgressive systems tract. This is followed by fluvial progradation analogous to that seen in highstand systems tracts. The important point is that there is no change in absolute sealevel during the model run, only a constant rate of rise in relative sealevel. Thus, within the model, variable sediment supply can produce patterns of stratigraphy similar to those created by variable absolute

sealevel. This is an unequivocal demonstration of the uniqueness problem as it applies to the sequence stratigraphic depositional model.

It should be noted, however, that in this model at least, a change in sediment supply cannot cause the vertical juxtaposition of fluvial stratigraphy over marine stratigraphy, separated by a surface of subaerial erosion. This is one of the prime features of a type-1 sequence, and it is very difficult to see how such a feature can occur without at least relative sealevel fall. So although the uniqueness problem is important with respect to controls on stratigraphy and the sequence stratigraphic depositional model, it should be noted that some patterns of stratigraphy are more tightly constrained in their possible causes than others.

3.4.6 Combined controls

The deposition and erosion of stratigraphy in a real sedimentary basin is probably controlled by a variety of complex, often interacting controls each with a varying degree of importance to the resulting stratigraphy. Most models, whether quantitative or qualitative, attempt to simplify this situation down to one or two controls which may or may not interact (e.g. tectonic subsidence and eustasy in the sequence stratigraphic depositional model described by Posamentier *et al.* (1988) and Van Wagoner *et al.* (1990); thermal subsidence and flexure, Watts (1982)). This is often necessary in order to keep the model simple enough to be useful, especially in qualitative models. This means that to a large extent, the effect of the interaction of several different controls on stratigraphic patterns has not been investigated. Such simplification, however, may lead to misconceptions regarding the apparent simplicity of stratigraphic systems, and the importance of the uniqueness problem when using models, both quantitative and qualitative.

Figure 3.42 is a section from the model run for 10Myrs E.M.T., generating 100 chrons. The absolute sealevel curve used in the model run is a combination of a 2Myr, 20m curve

superimposed on a 15Myr 100m amplitude curve. The sediment supply curve is a sinusoidal curve, with a 1.6Myrs period, and an amplitude of 0.5km^2 . The partitioning coefficient is varied through time according to a curve with a period of 1.4Myrs and a range from 0.2 to 0.8. Flexure is included in this model run, with a laterally and temporally constant value of T_e of 10km. Other parameters and initial conditions are the same as those for the standard model.

The section from this model run (figure 3.42) demonstrates the complexity of the stratigraphy produced. There are several sequences visible, and the pattern of stratal onlap, truncation, offlap and downlap can be seen to be complex. Some of this pattern is produced by absolute sealevel change. Other aspects are caused by variable sediment supply, and the stratigraphy is modified by flexure. Figure 3.43 shows the chronostratigraphic diagram, absolute sealevel curve and sediment supply curve for the model run. The influence of absolute sealevel changes on the stratigraphy are readily apparent, but only through reference to the sealevel curve and sediment supply curve together is it possible to fully explain particular stratigraphic patterns.

For example, the pronounced transgressive ravinement surface at chron 62 (6.2Myrs E.M.T.) and the shift in the stratal onlap and downlap pattern may easily be misinterpreted to be due to a absolute change in sealevel alone, whereas it is actually due to a combination of rising absolute sealevel and reduced sediment supply. Accurately interpreting such a feature observed in ancient stratigraphy would be considerably more difficult, especially if insufficient consideration was given to the contribution of sediment supply, leading to an over-emphasis on the role of absolute sealevel change.

Consequently, these model results suggest again that the uniqueness problem is very important when considering such stratigraphy influenced by various controls. While one may be able to explain a particular feature, as due, for example, to eustasy, it is important

always to consider that this is unlikely to be a unique solution. Other controls could be responsible, or at least important.

3.5 Summary

The sequence stratigraphic depositional model makes detailed predictions regarding the geometry of stratigraphy preserved in sedimentary basins, on the basis of a series of assumptions, foremost of which is that a combination of eustasy and tectonic subsidence are the primary controls on stratigraphy. The model is entirely qualitative, and many of the assumptions behind it have been insufficiently investigated and tested. The quantitative forward model presented here has been used to test some of these assumptions and to investigate some possible alternative controls on stratigraphy.

1. The quantitative forward model can reproduce the general geometry of type-1 and type-2 sequences, but cannot reproduce some details such as particular aggradational parasequence set stacking patterns which require very specific distributions of accommodation space.
2. Calculation of the amplitude of absolute sealevel changes from coastal onlap patterns may be greatly complicated by the geometry of the fluvial profile.
3. The concepts of the hinge point and the equilibrium point used in the sequence stratigraphic model are flawed.
4. Flexure is not a first order control on the model stratigraphy when absolute sealevel is varied.
5. The behaviour of the fluvial profile is a first order control on model stratigraphy. For example, a less concave profile produces a stratigraphic pattern very different from that

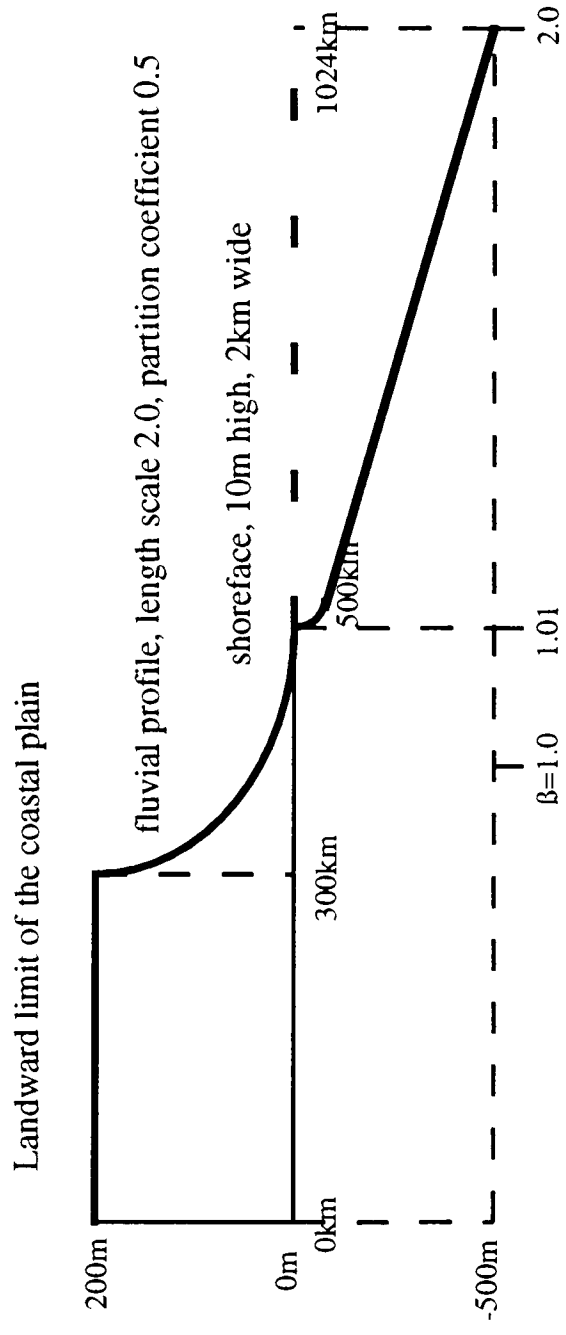
produced by a more concave profile. Despite the weaknesses of the geometrical implementation of profile evolution through time, the model results suggest that profile geometry will be very a significant control in natural systems.

6. The sediment partitioning coefficient is also a first order control in the model, and the effects of sediment partitioning in stratigraphic systems could conceivably be misinterpreted to be due to eustasy.

7. Variable sediment supply is a first order control on model stratigraphy, and has a particularly pronounced impact on the stratigraphic pattern when sediment supply is low during a time of rising absolute sealevel.

8. Variable sediment supply alone, without any contribution from variable absolute sealevel, is capable in the model of producing stratigraphic patterns in some ways similar to those seen in type-2 sequences. This suggests that stratigraphy influenced by variable sediment supply due to factors such as point source switching, climatic changes, drainage basin morphology, or combinations of these, could in limited circumstances be misinterpreted as being due to eustasy alone. However, it should be noted that the model cannot reproduce the vertical juxtaposition of fluvial and marine stratigraphy across a subaerial erosion surface without a relative sealevel fall.

9. Combined complex controls on stratigraphy should not be underestimated in terms of the potential difficulty in correctly interpreting the results in the ancient record. A model run with combined controls is difficult to interpret, even given the simplicity of the model, and the availability of the complete details of all the model parameters, such as the absolute sealevel curve, and the sediment supply curve.



Sediment supply : Constand at 1.0sq.km

Absolute sealevel datum : Sinusoidal curve, 20m amplitude, 2Myr period

Figure 3.1 The initial conditions for the standard type-1 sequence model run

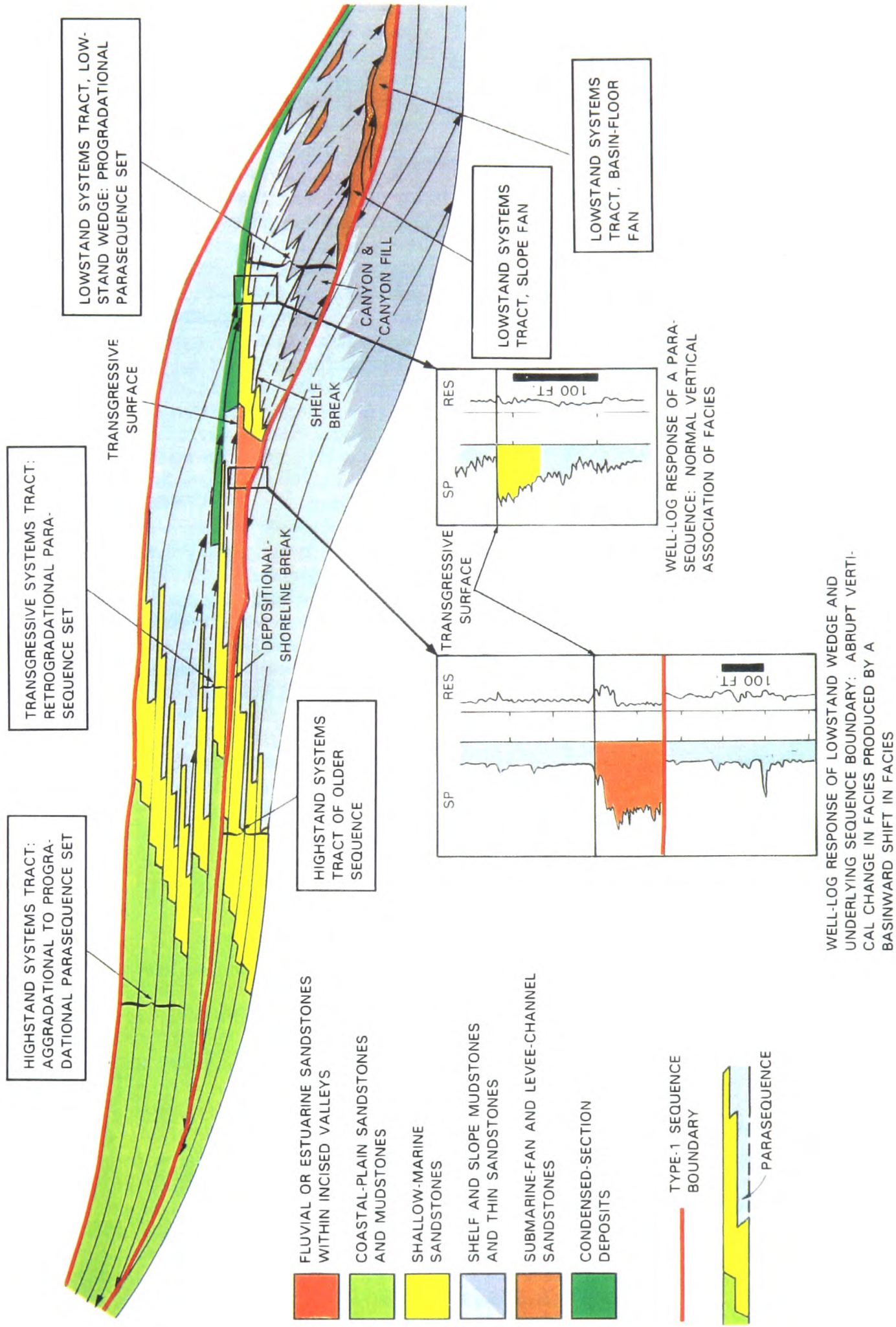


Figure 3.2 The depositional sequence stratigraphic model of a type-1 sequence, from Van Wagoner *et al.* (1990).

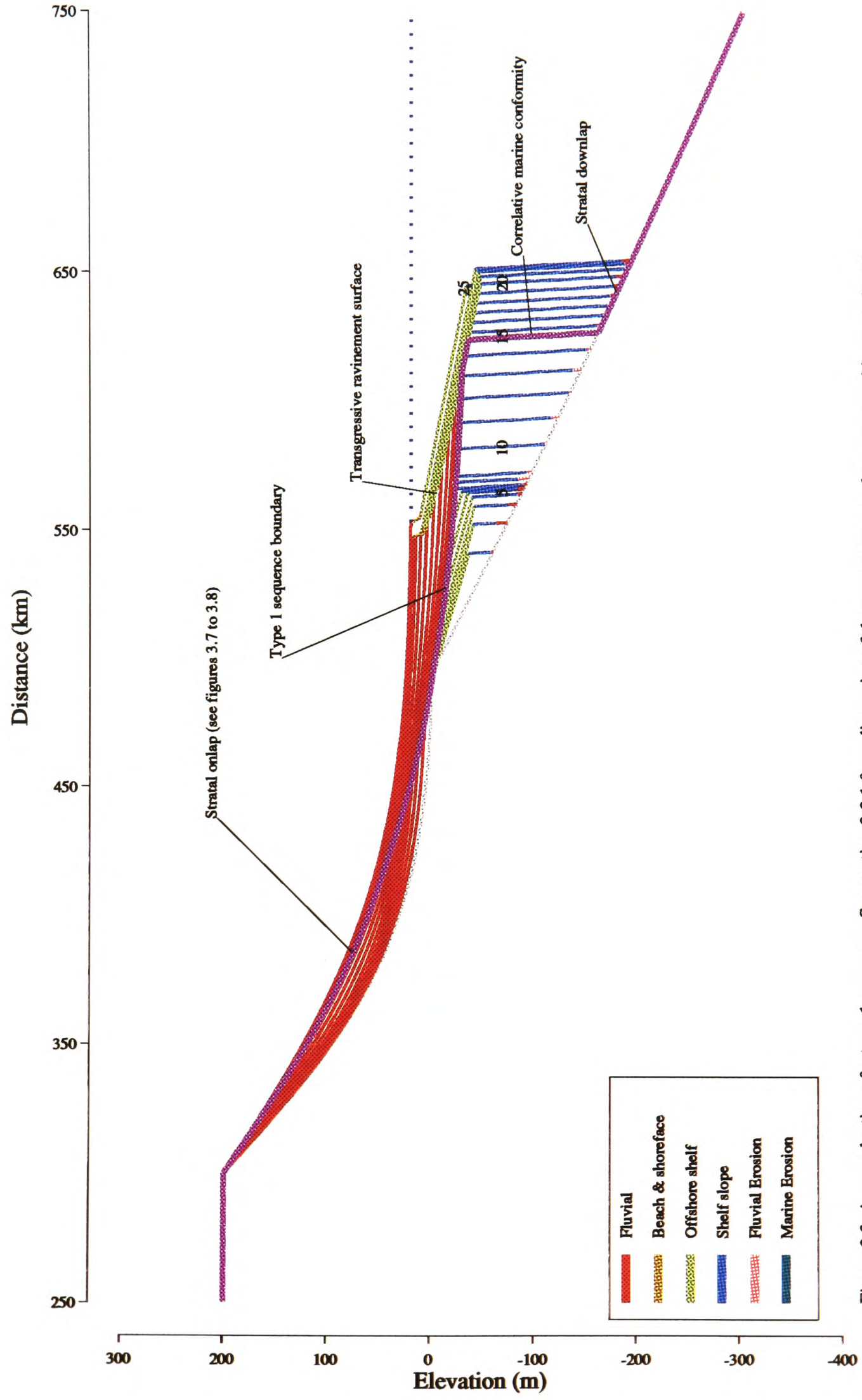


Figure 3.3. A reproduction of a type-1 sequence. See section 3.2.1 for a discussion of the parameters used to generate this example. Many of the features observable in this example are directly comparable with features of the depositional sequence stratigraphic model described, for example, by Van Wagoner et al. (1988). The thicker purple line marks the position of the type 1 sequence boundary. This model run forms the standard reference for the subsequent model runs throughout the rest of chapter 3.

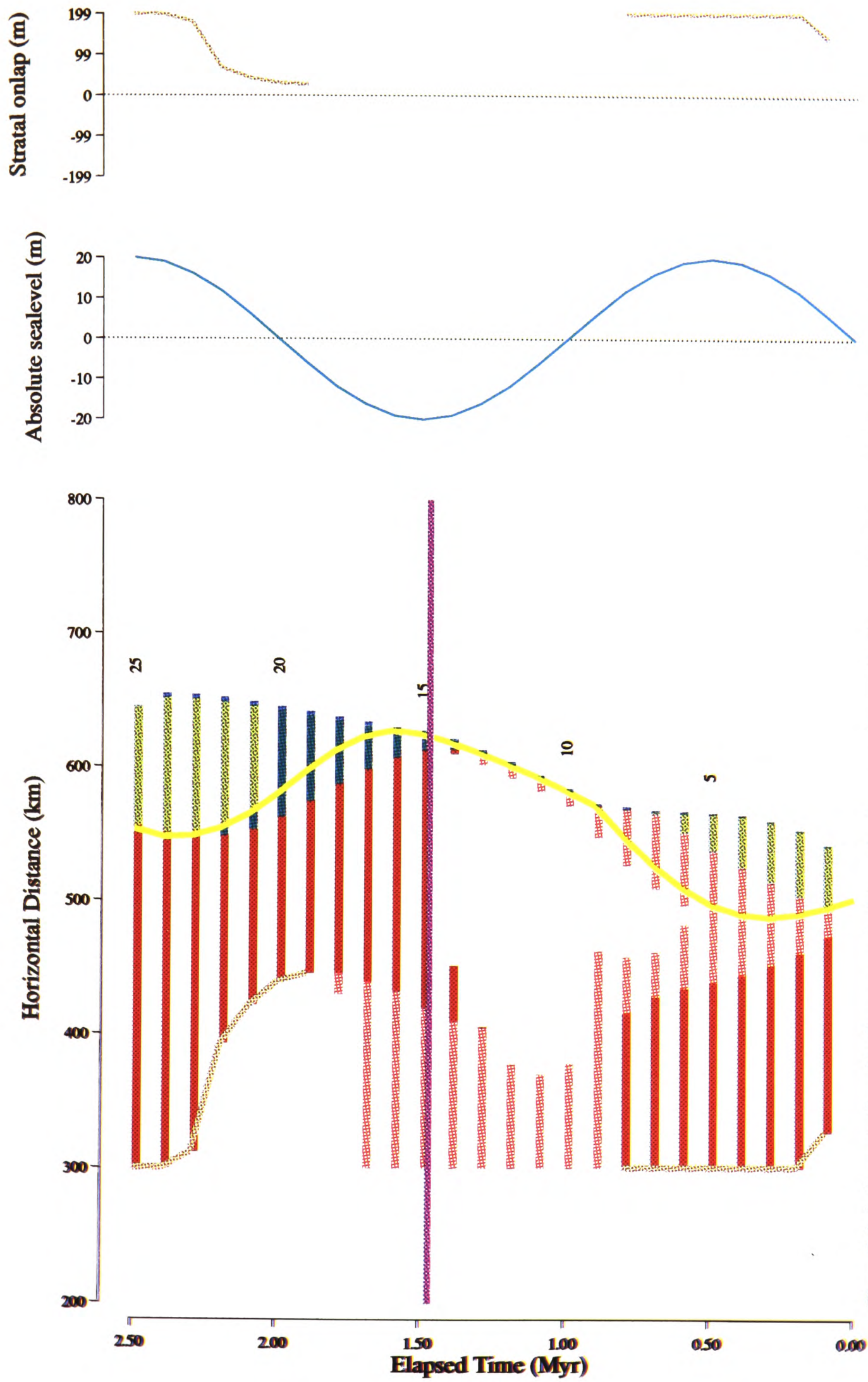


Figure 3.4. A chronostratigraphic diagram, an absolute sealevel curve, and a stratal onlap curve from the standard reference model run. The pattern of stratigraphy is analogous to the type-1 sequence described, for example, by Van Wagoner et al. (1988). The forcing of the stratigraphic pattern by changing absolute sealevel is clearly apparent. The choice of timing for the sequence boundary is described in section 3.3.6.

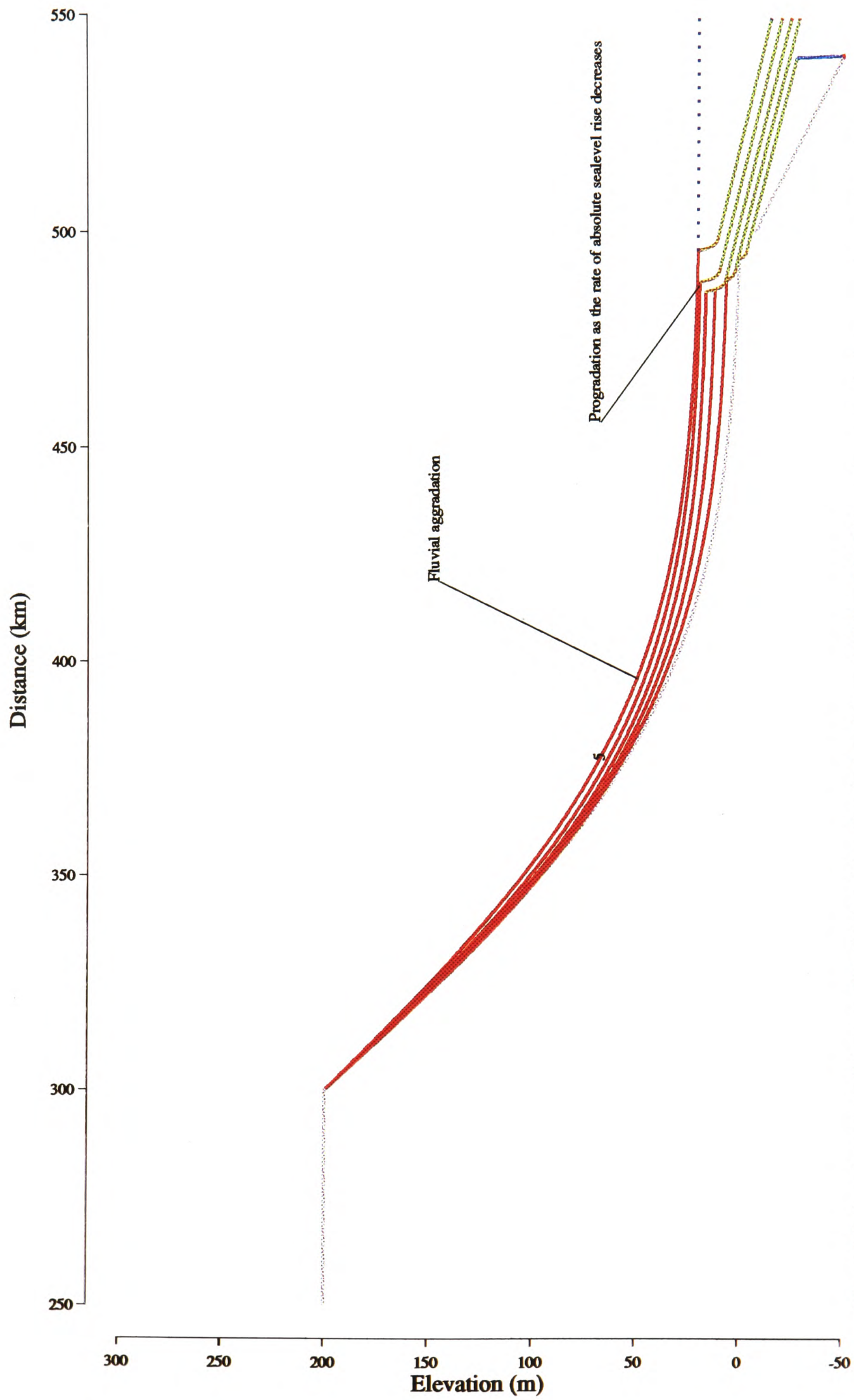


Figure 3.5. An enlargement of the area of fluvial deposition after the first 5 chron (0.5Myrs E.M.T.) from the standard reference model run. The profile shows aggradation along most of its length in response to the rise in absolute sealevel. Note how progradation of the beach started at chron 4 in response to the decreasing rate of sealevel rise.

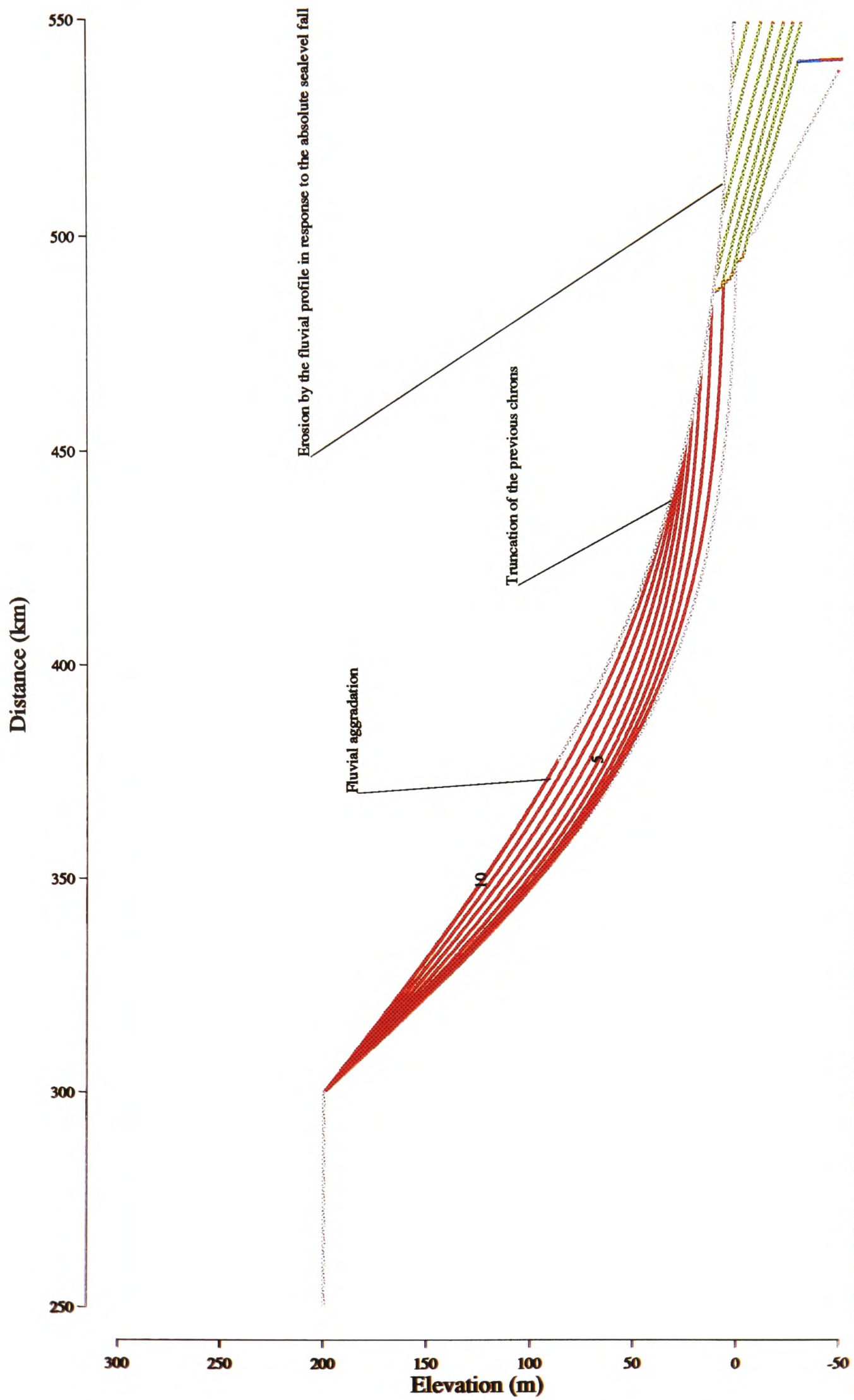


Figure 3.6. An enlargement of the area of fluvial deposition after the first 10 chrons (1.0Myrs E.M.T.) from the standard reference model run. The profile shows the formation of the erosion surface as the fluvial profile responds to the fall in absolute sealevel. Note the laterally limited aggradation on the upper part of the profile caused by profile lengthening in turn forced by falling absolute sealevel.

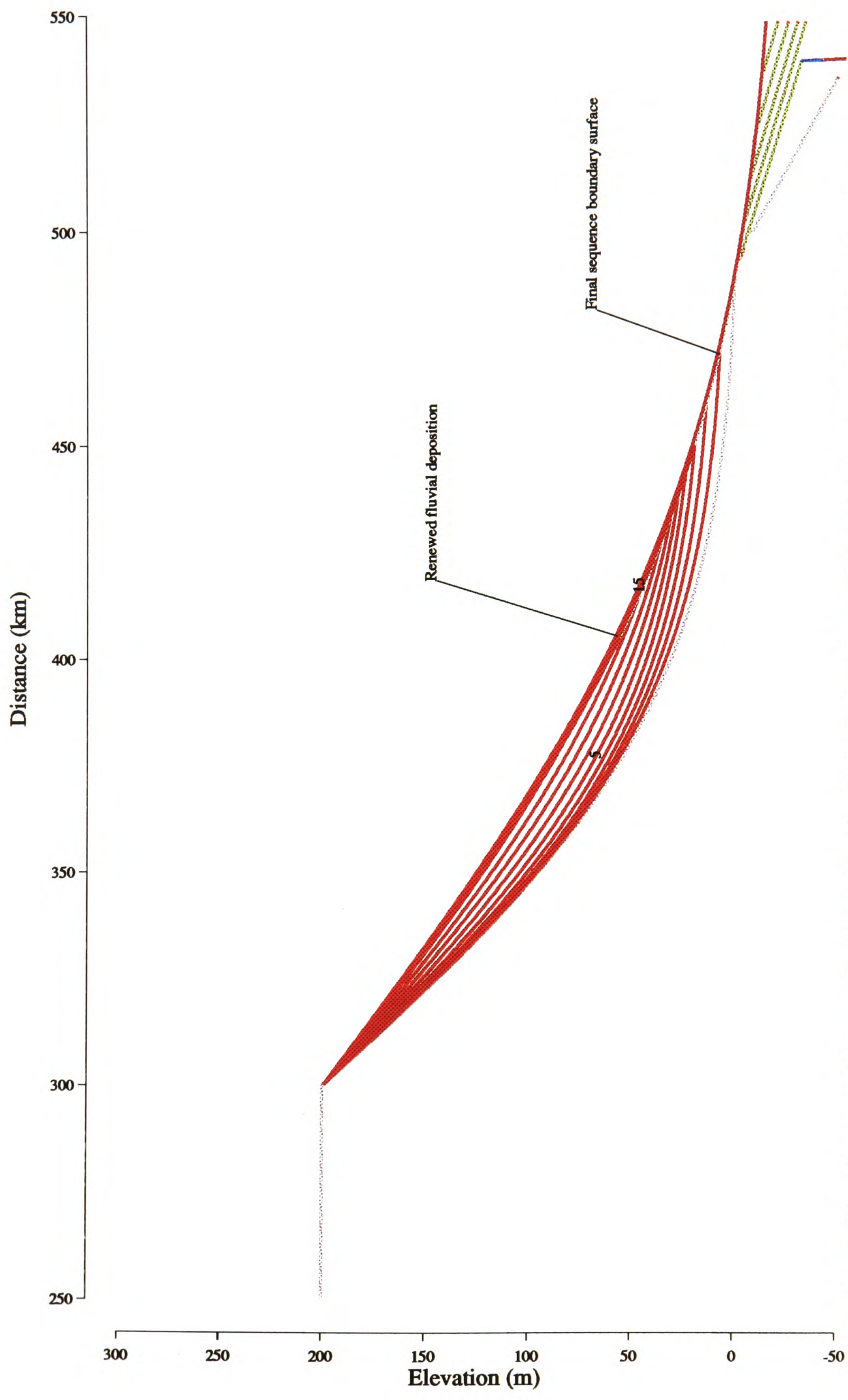


Figure 3.7. An enlargement of the area of fluvial deposition after the first 15 chronons (1.5Myrs E.M.T.) from the standard reference model run. The profile shows the final development of the erosion surface which forms the sequence boundary. By chron 15 deposition of fluvial sediment above this sequence boundary chron has commenced.

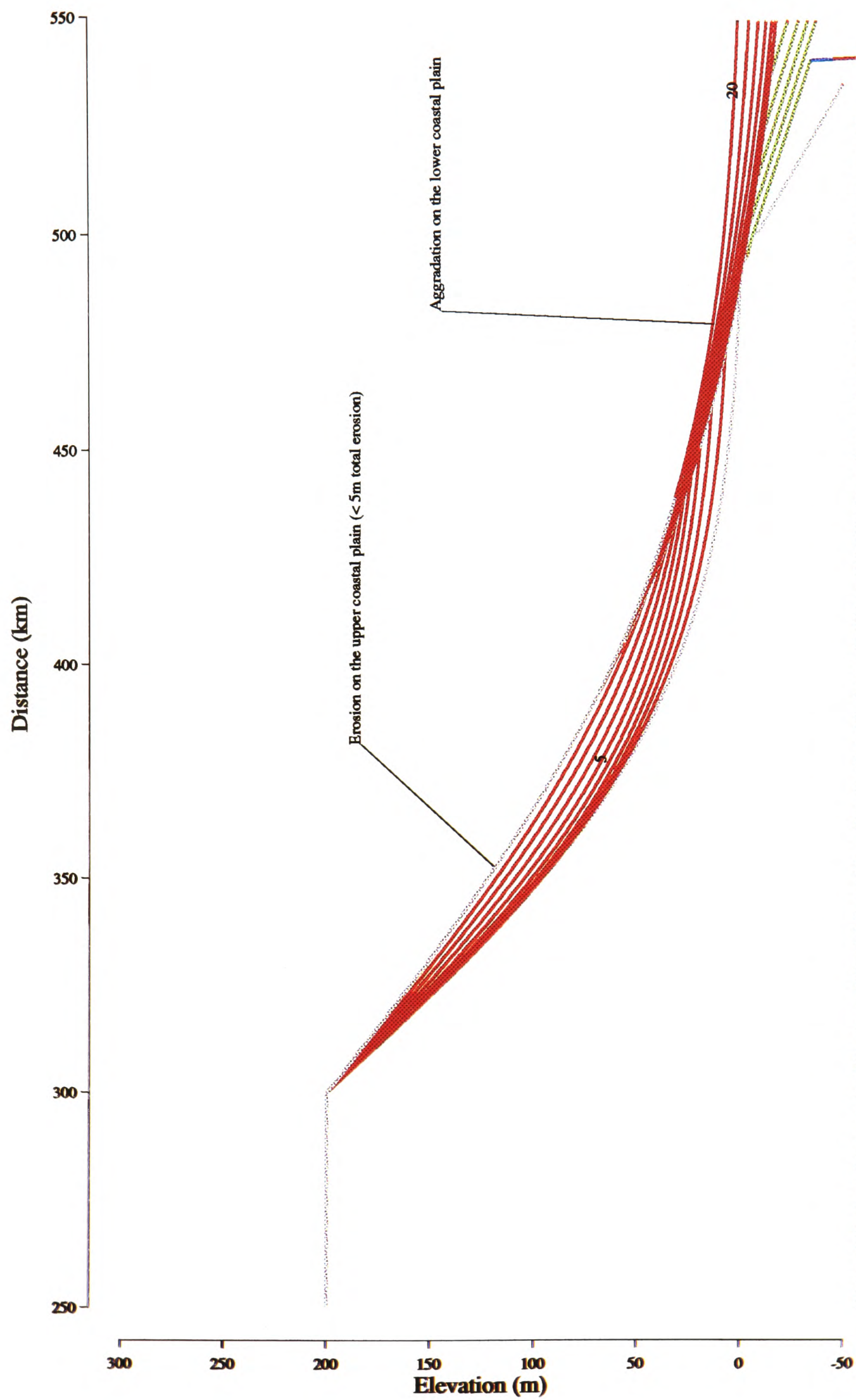


Figure 3.8. An enlargement of the area of fluvial deposition after the first 20 chronons (2.0Myrs E.M.T.) from the standard reference model run. The profile shows the aggradation on the lower profile due to rising absolute sealevel, and the erosion on the upper profile due to profile shortening also forced by the absolute sealevel rise. Note that this erosion only removes a few metres of fluvial stratigraphy.

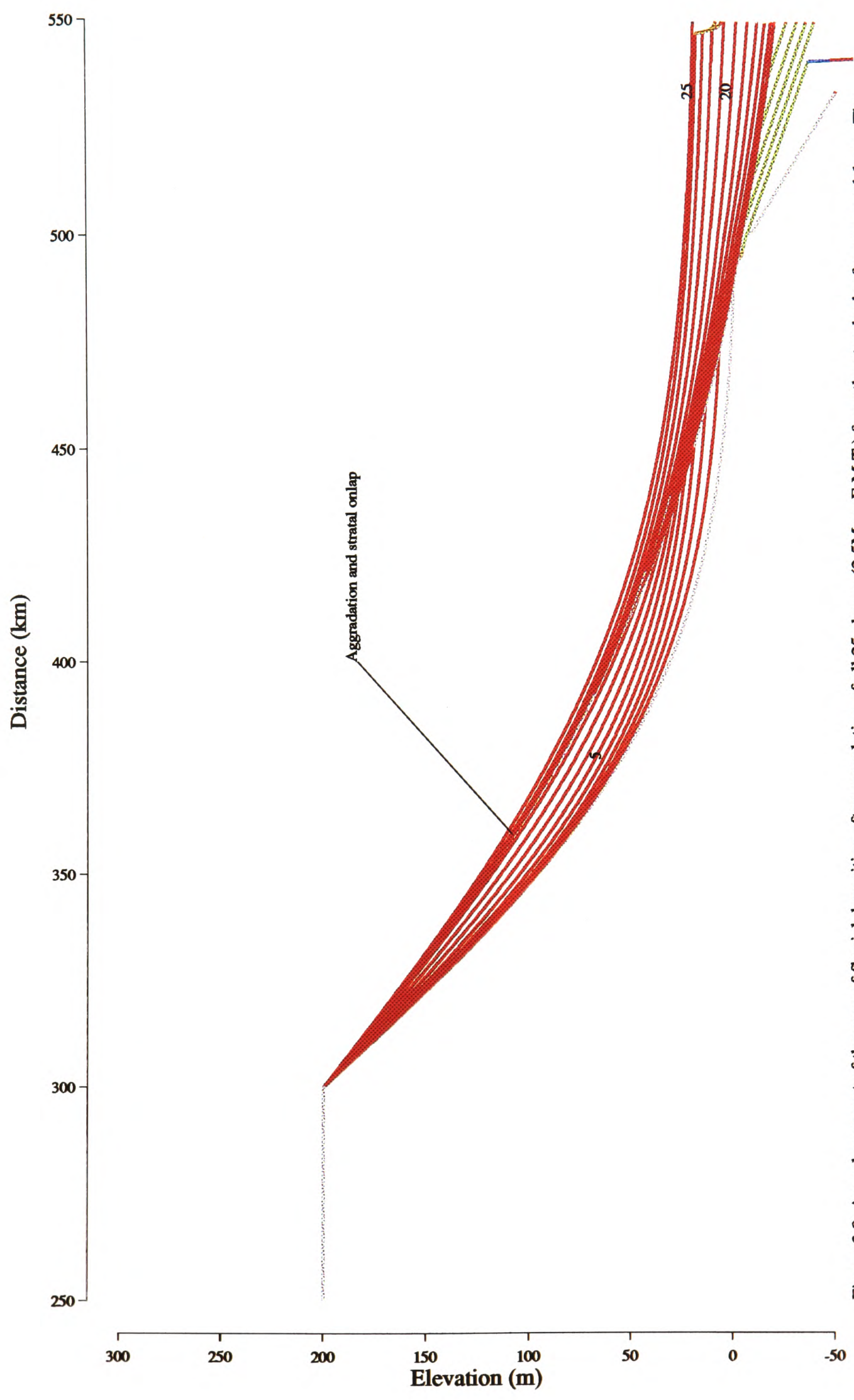


Figure 3.9. An enlargement of the area of fluvial deposition after completion of all 25 chron (2.5Myrs E.M.T.) from the standard reference model run. The profile shows the stratal onlap produced on the upper part of the profile by the final absolute sealevel rise.

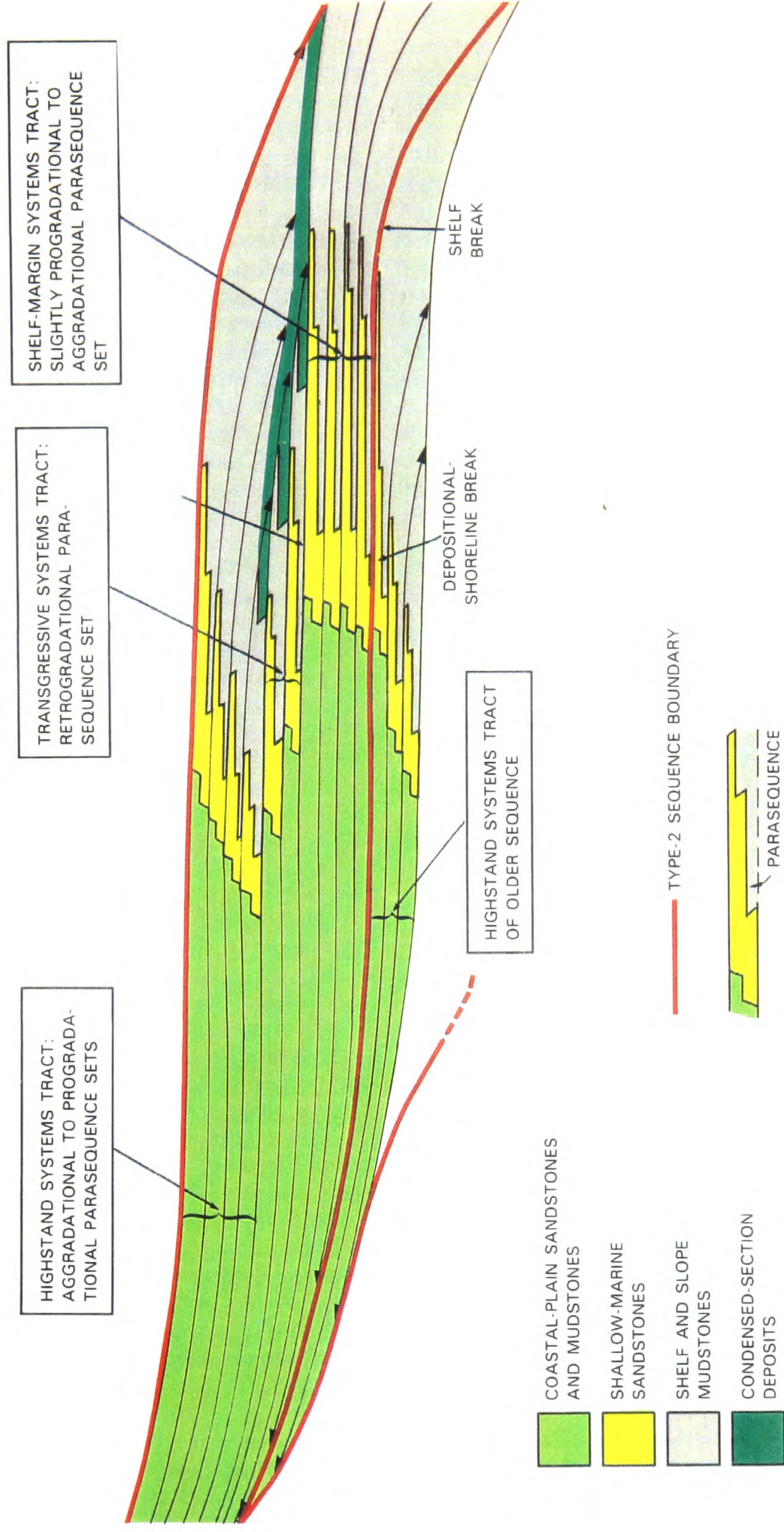


Figure 3.10 The depositional sequence stratigraphic model of a type-2 sequence, from Van Wagoner *et al.* (1990).

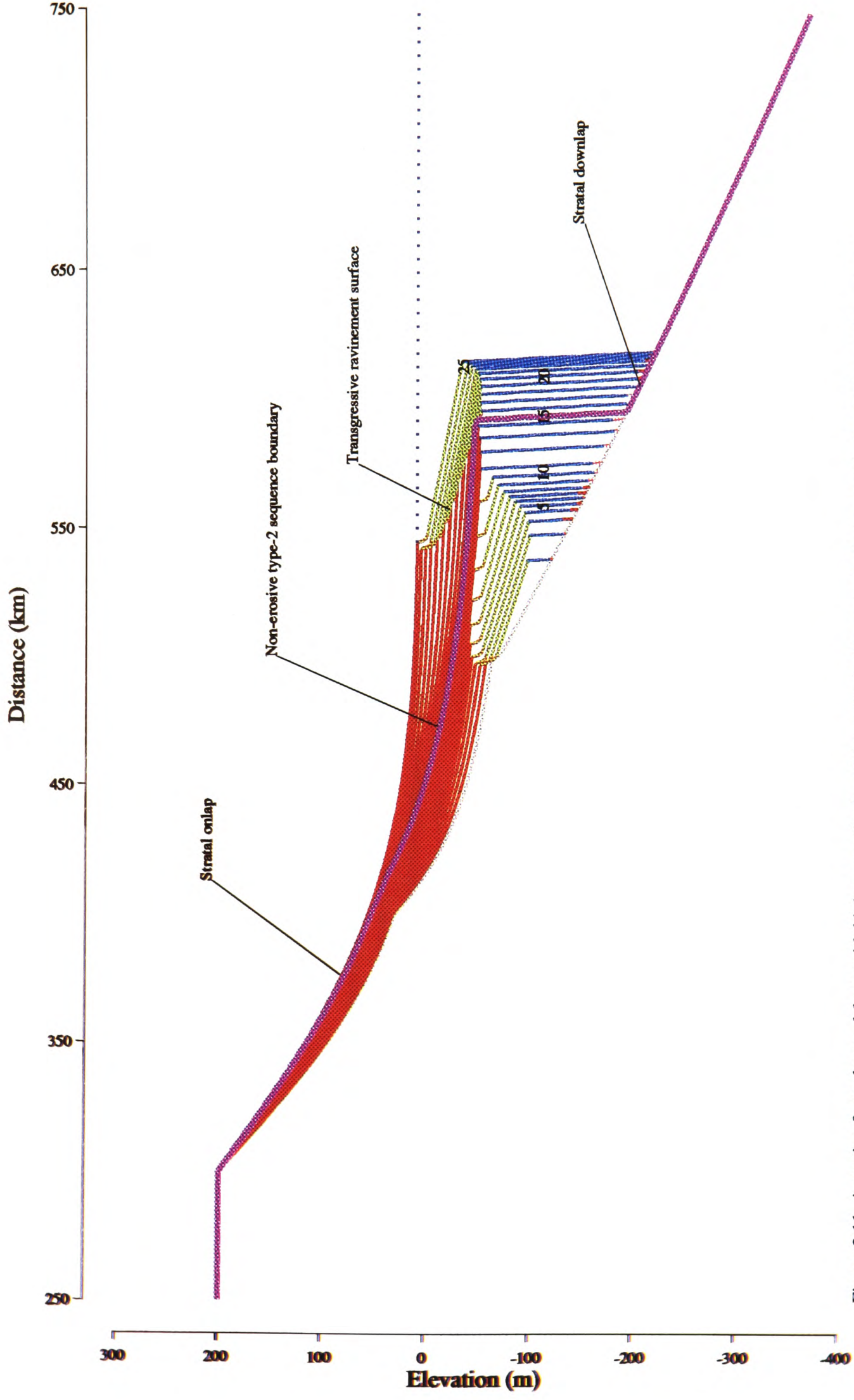


Figure 3.1.1. A section from the model run with higher magnitudes of thermal subsidence, and a lower amplitude absolute sealevel curve, both chosen to reproduce some of the features of a type-2 sequence. All the other parameters for this model run are the same as those for the standard reference model. Note that with the higher subsidence and reduced magnitude of absolute sealevel change the fluvial profile is no longer erosive during falling absolute sealevel.

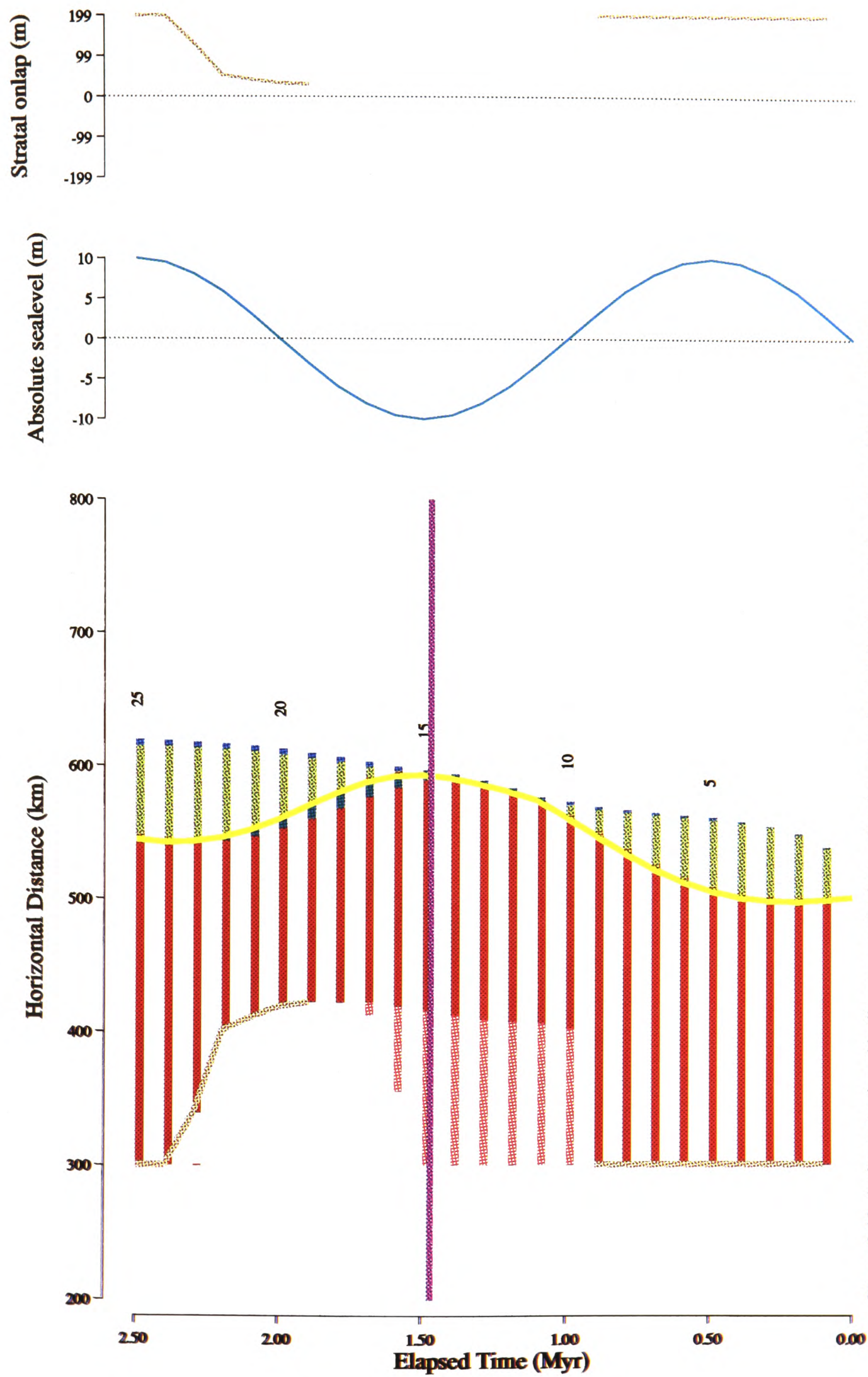
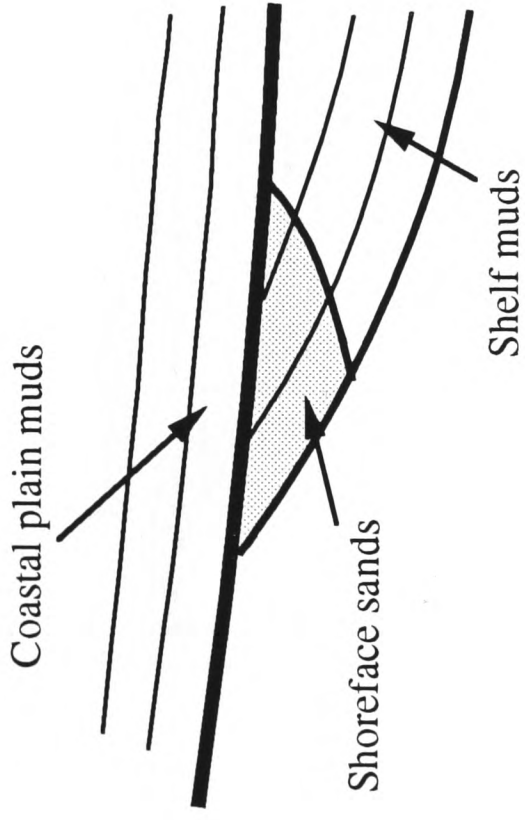


Figure 3.12. A chronostratigraphic diagram, an absolute sealevel curve, and a stratal onlap curve from the model run with higher magnitudes of thermal subsidence, and a lower amplitude of absolute sealevel change, both chosen to reproduce some of the features of a type-2 sequence. All the other parameters for this model run are the same as those for the standard reference model. With the increased subsidence and reduced magnitude fall in absolute sealevel, deposition on the lower portion of the fluvial profile is continuous. Note that the erosion on the upper fluvial profile during the sealevel rise represents only a few metres in thickness of lost stratigraphy.



An example of a stratigraphic trap, as seen in figure 3.3. Shoreface sands are preserved beneath a type 1 sequence boundary unconformity, and are surrounded and sealed by shelf and coastal plain muds.

Example of a stratigraphic trap, as seen in figure 3.7 which shows a series of shoreface sands preserved beneath a type 2 sequence boundary and surrounded and sealed by coastal plain and shelf muds.

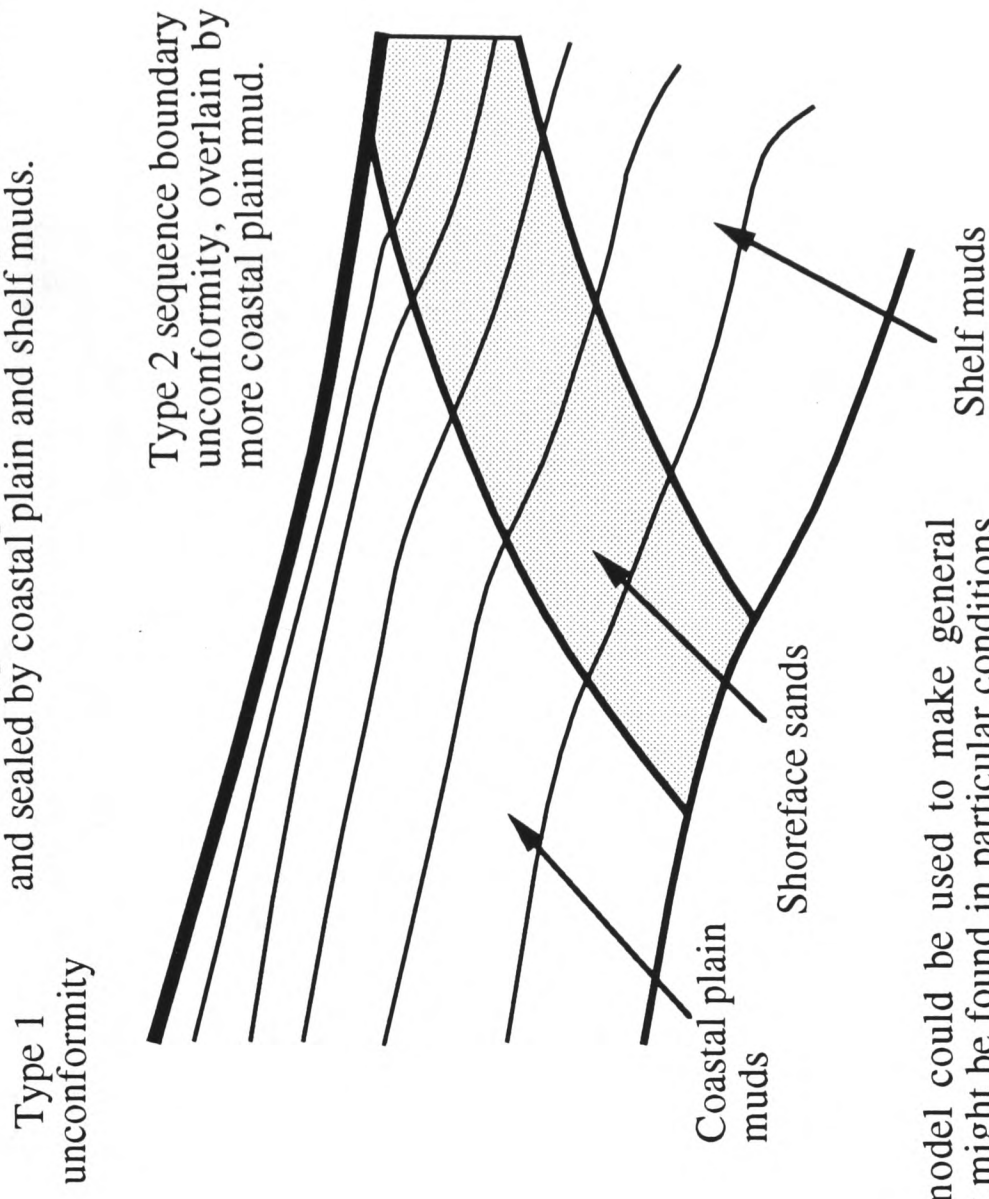


Figure 3.13. An example of how output from the model could be used to make general predictions regarding the type of stratigraphic traps that might be found in particular conditions of subsidence, absolute sealevel, and sediment supply

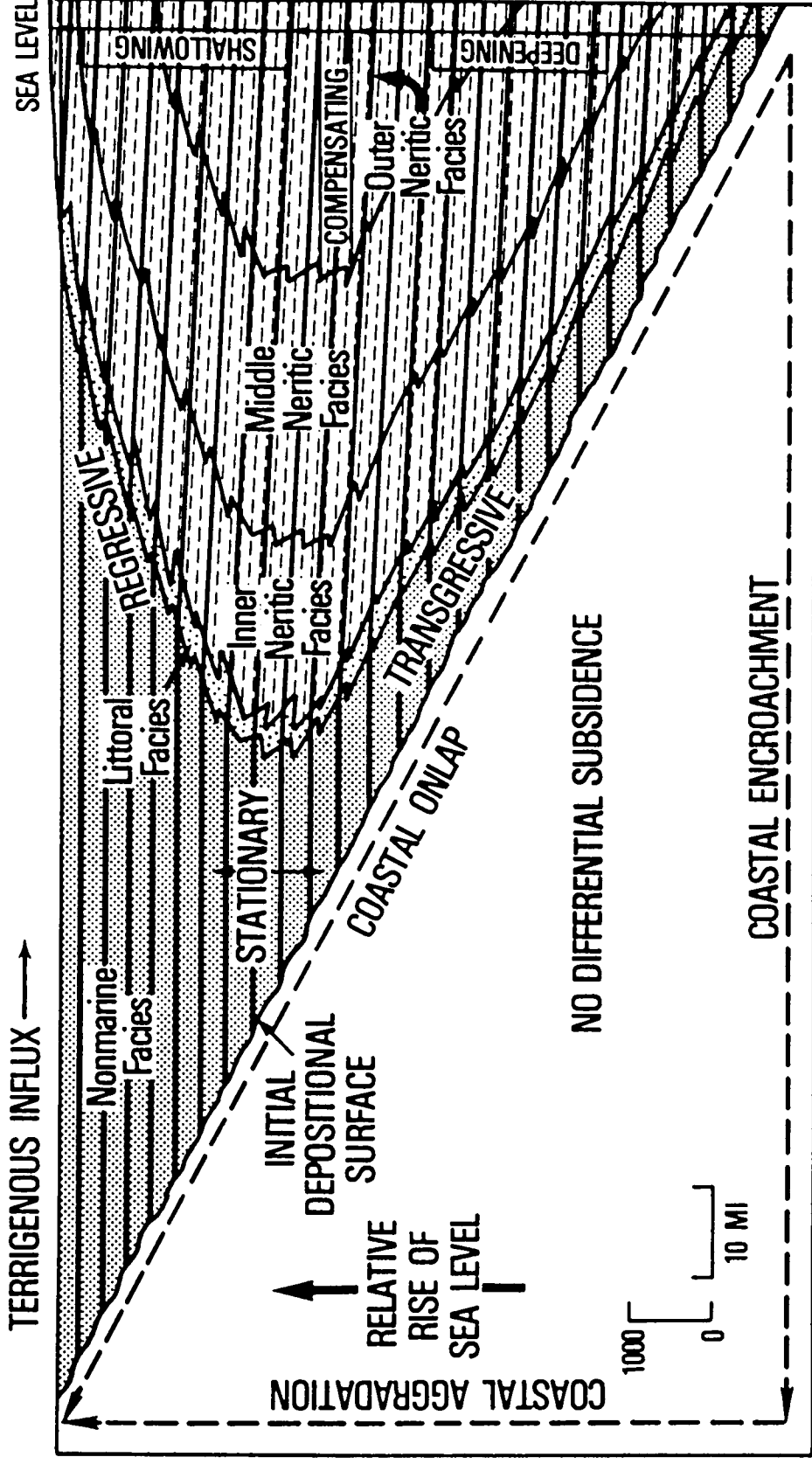


Figure 3.14 A diagram to illustrate the definition of coastal onlap in the sequence stratigraphic depositional model, from Vail *et al.* (1977a).

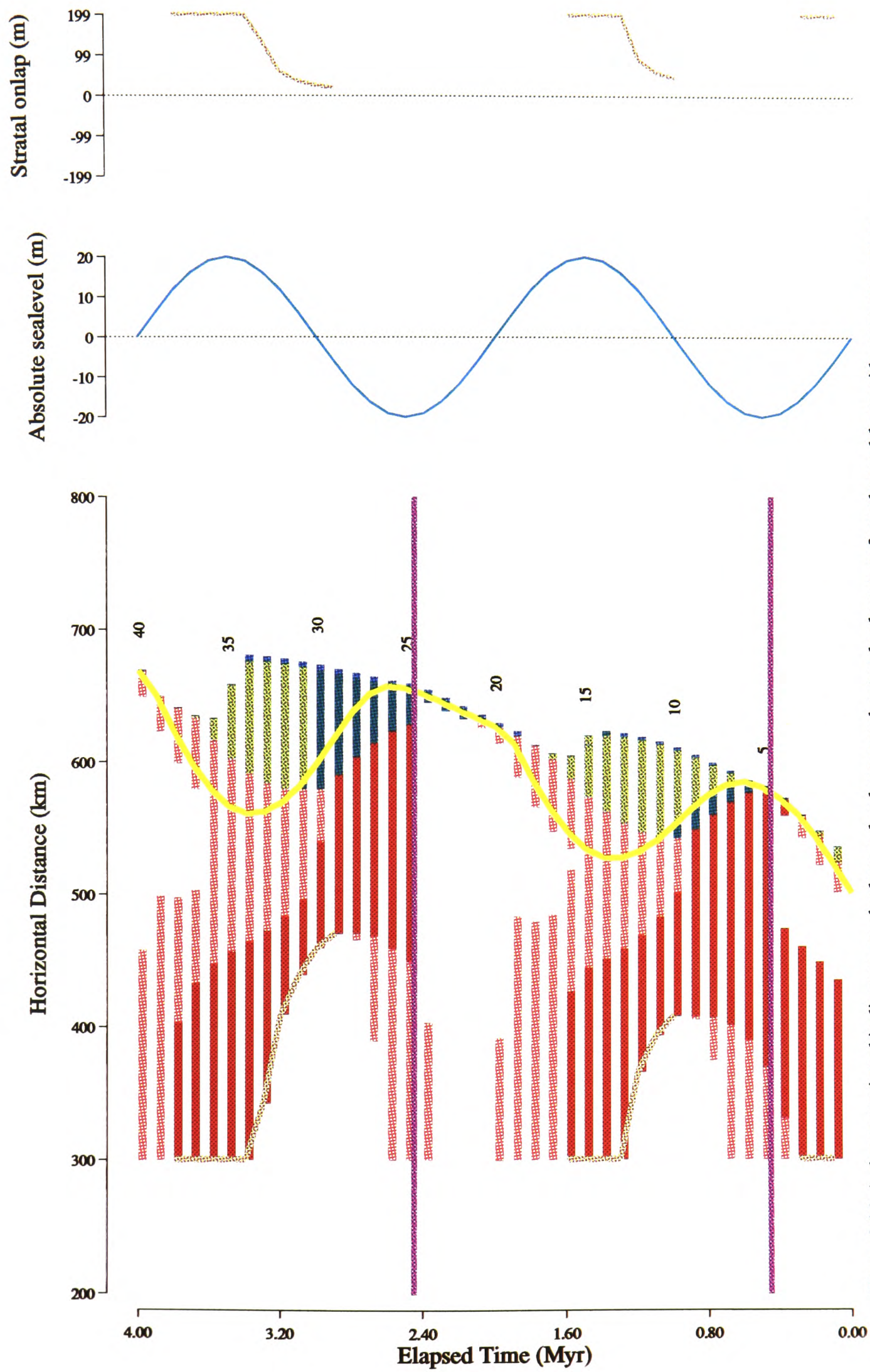


Figure 3.16. A chronostratigraphic diagram, an absolute sealevel curve and a stratal onlap curve from the model run with parameters set to reproduce the elements of the coastal onlap pattern shown in figure 18 of Posamentier et al. (1988) (figure 3.17). See the text for a full description of the model parameters. The pattern of deposition and erosion in this model is considerably more complex than that suggested by figure 3.17. In this case fluvial deposition is not controlled simply by movement of the bayline, but rather by a more complex interaction between subsidence, absolute sealevel change, and the response of the fluvial profile.

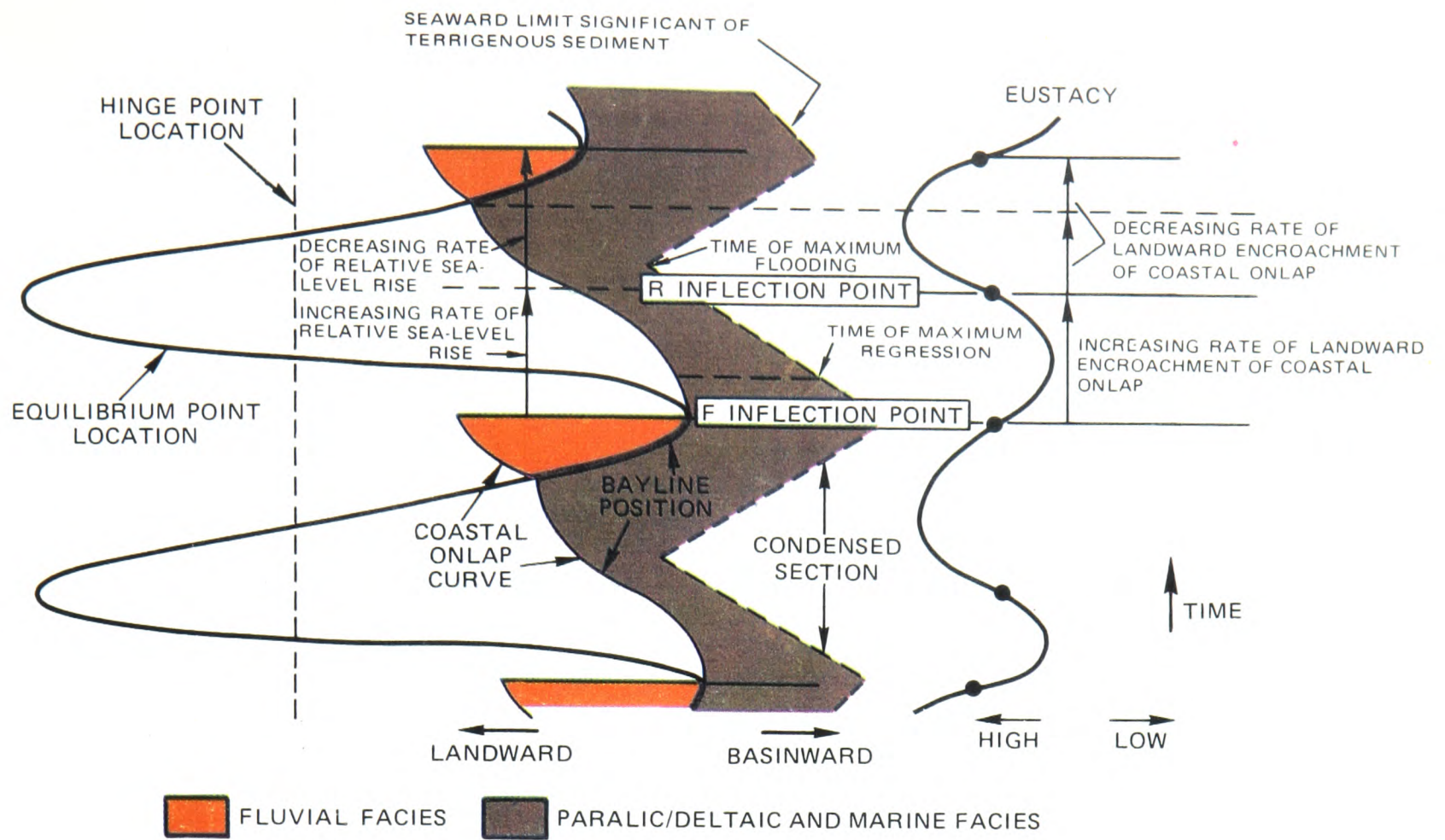


Figure 3.17 A diagram showing the elements of the coastal-onlap curve as defined in the depositional sequence stratigraphic model, from Posamentier *et al.* (1988).

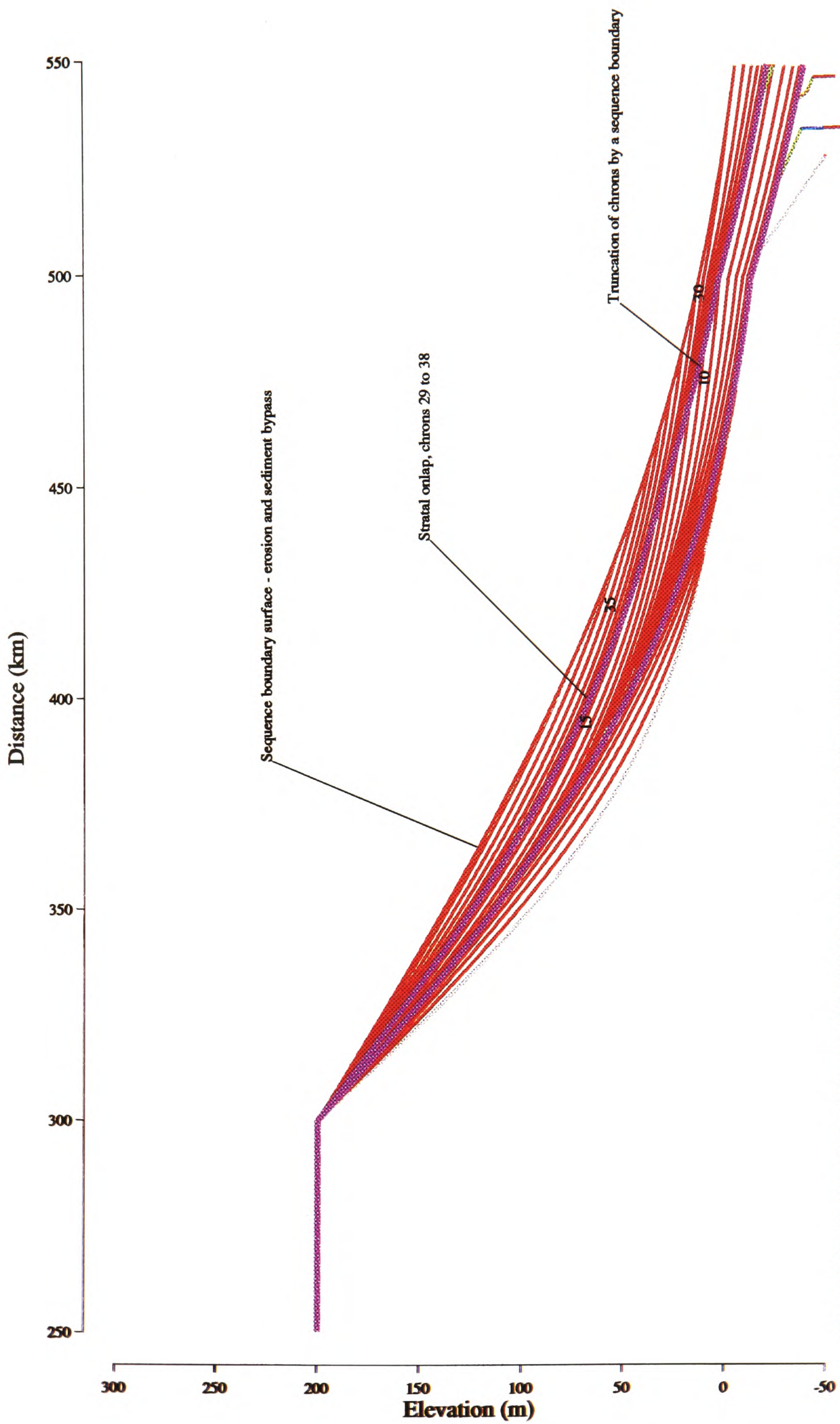


Figure 3.18. An enlargement of the area of fluvial deposition from the model run with parameters set to reproduce the elements of the coastal onlap pattern shown in figure 18 of Posamentier et al. (1988) (figure 3.17). See the text for a full description of the model parameters. The plot illustrates the complex pattern of fluvial deposition, sediment bypass, and erosion that develops in response to the interplay between subsidence, absolute sealevel change and the fluvial profile geometry.

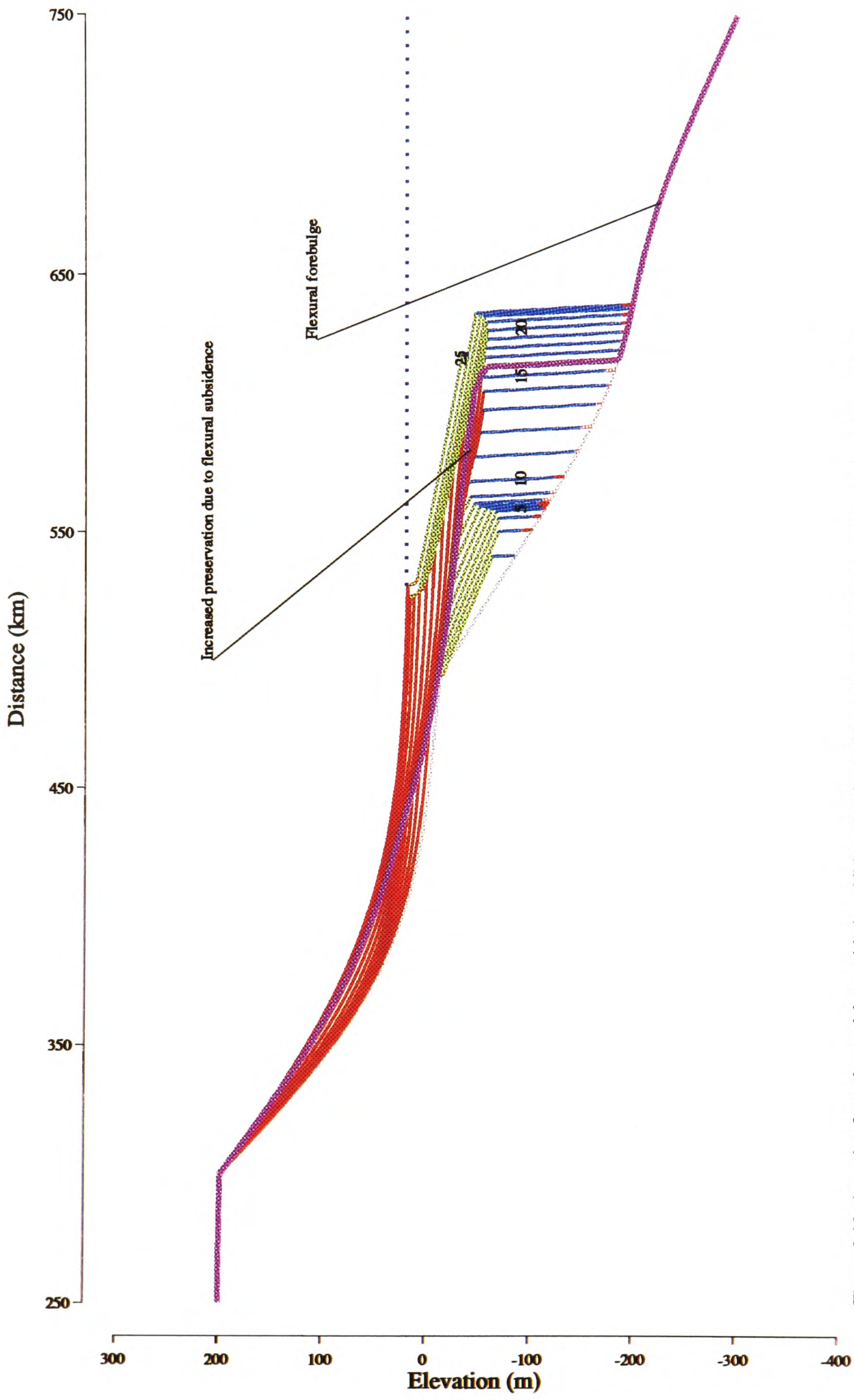


Figure 3.19. A section from the model run with the addition of a flexural isostatic response to deposition and erosion. All other parameters are the same as those for the standard reference model. The flexure is calculated using a value for elastic thickness of 10km. The impact on the pattern of the stratigraphy in the section is negligible, although the increased accommodation space does increase preservation and erosion on some chrons, but only by a few metres. The flexural forebulge produced in front of the prograding sediment wedge is clearly visible.

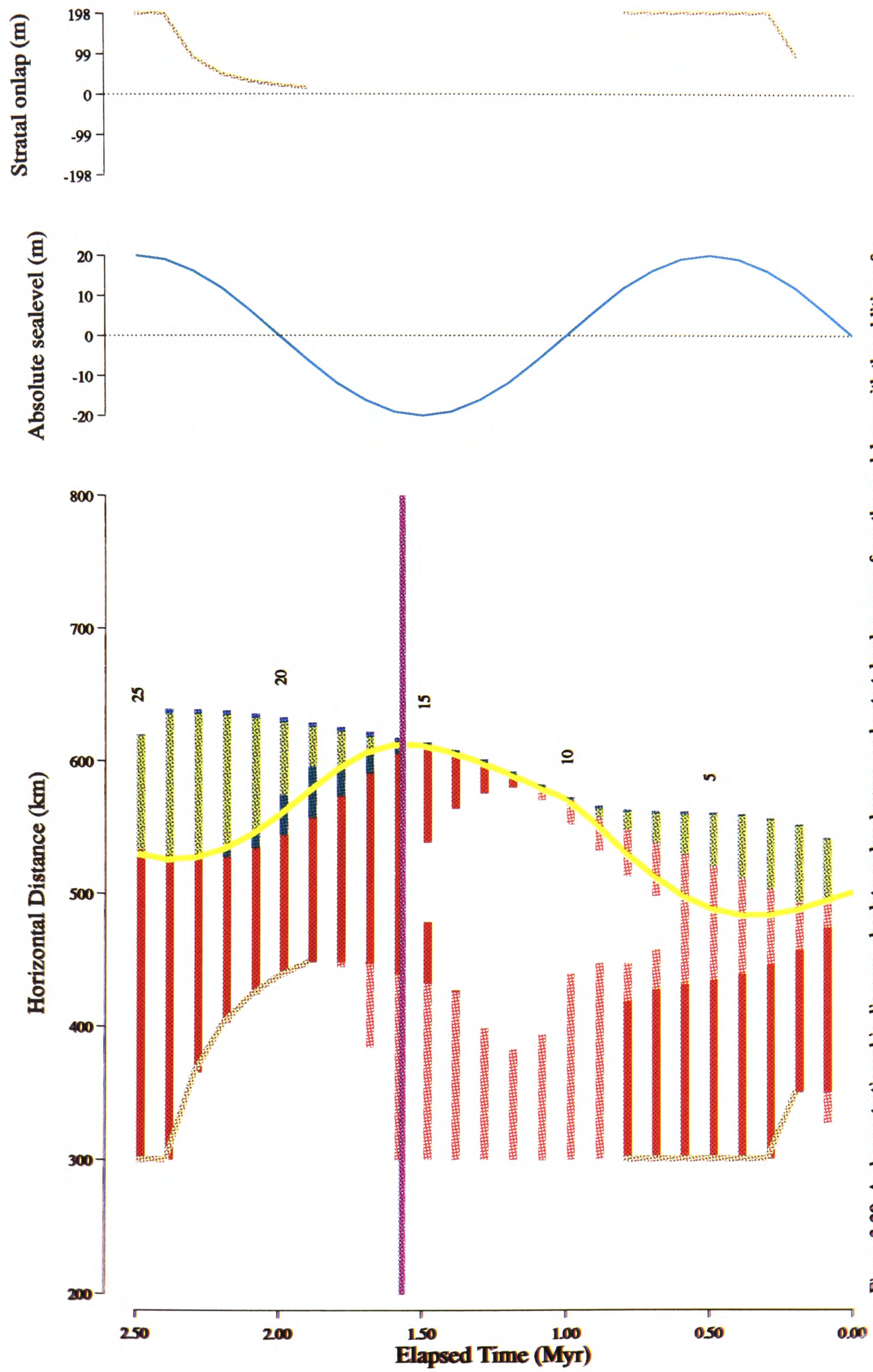


Figure 3.20. A chronostratigraphic diagram, absolute sealevel curve, and a stratal onlap curve from the model run with the addition of a flexural isostatic response to deposition and erosion. All other parameters are the same as those for the standard reference model. The flexure is calculated using a value for elastic thickness of 10km. The chronostratigraphic diagram shows that the basic pattern of deposition and erosion in response to the sealevel change is unaffected by the flexure. However, details such as the exact pattern of preservation on the lower fluvial profile during falling absolute sealevel are changed, and this changes the timing of the sequence boundary from chron 15 to chron 16 (1.6 Myrs E.M.T.).

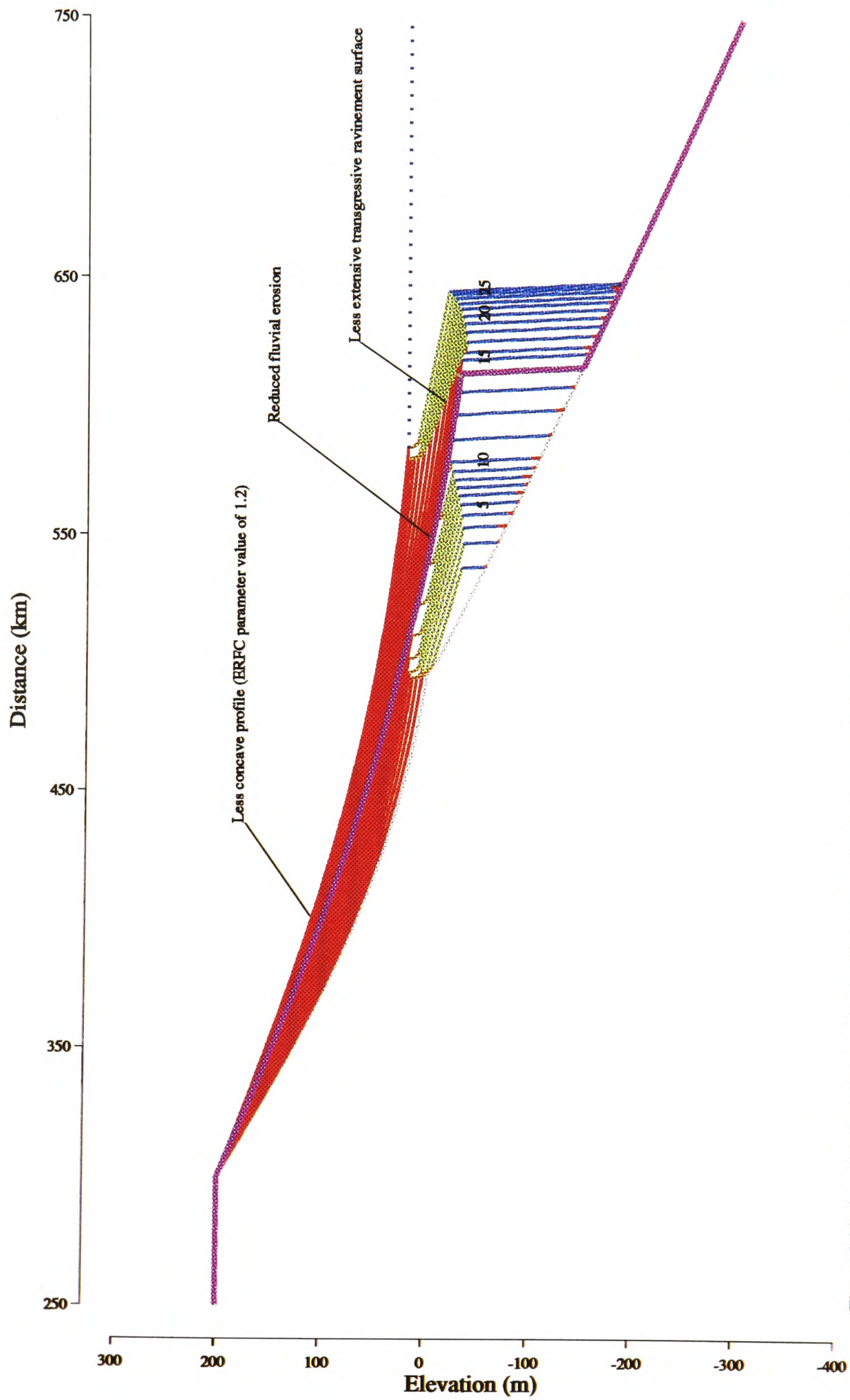


Figure 3.21. A section from the model run with a lower value for the complementary error function curve parameter of 1.2, giving a less concave fluvial profile geometry. All other parameters are the same as those for the standard reference model. The less concave fluvial profile has the effect of reducing the magnitude and lateral extent of fluvial erosion, producing a stratigraphic pattern similar to that seen for the type-2 sequence in figure 3.1.1, even though all the other model parameters such as the subsidence magnitude, and the absolute sealevel curve amplitude are the same as those for the type-1 sequence example in the standard reference model.

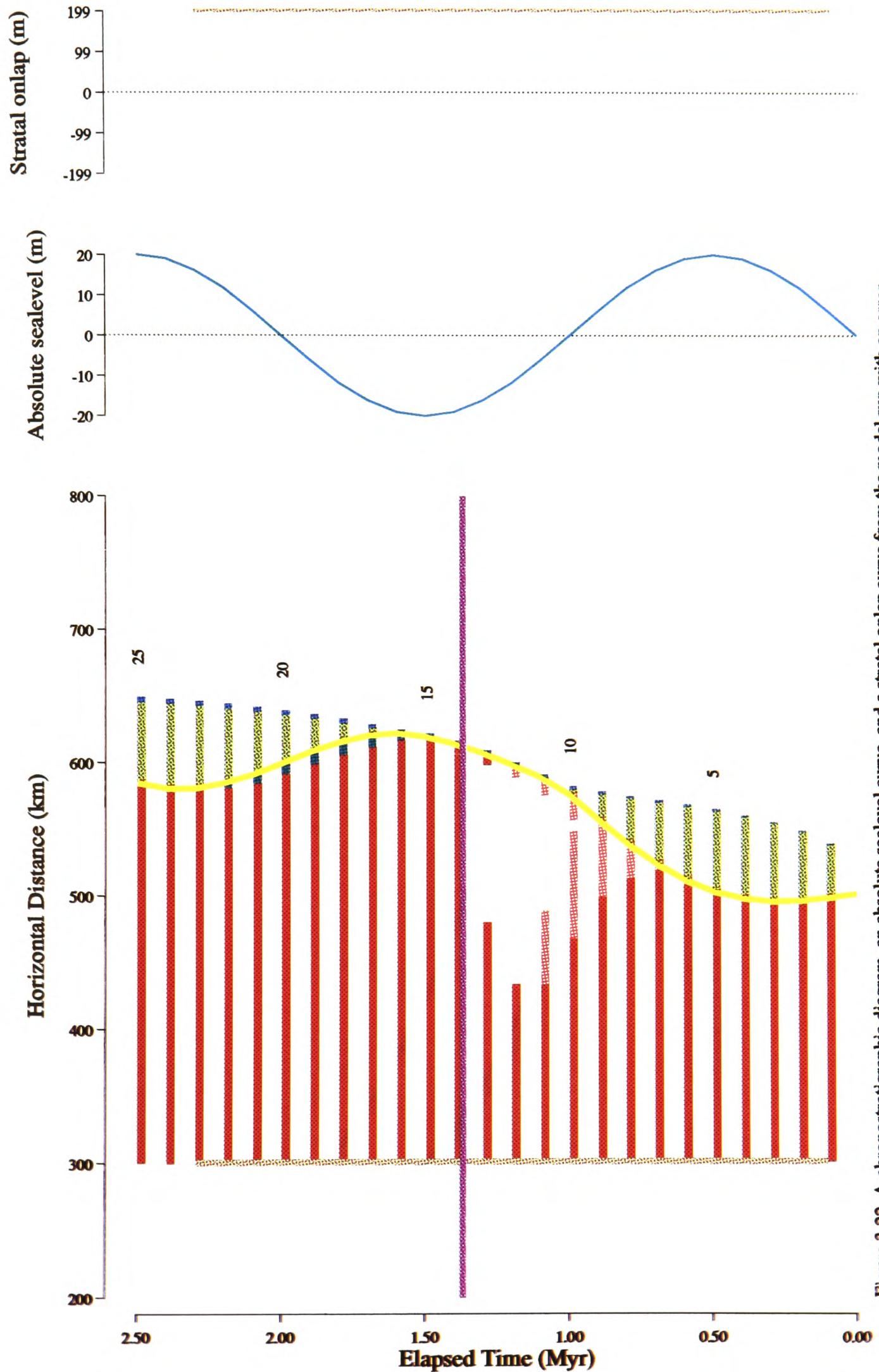


Figure 3.22. A chronostratigraphic diagram, an absolute sealevel curve, and a stratal onlap curve from the model run with an error function parameter value of 1.2. All other parameters are as described for the standard reference model. The chronostratigraphic diagram shows that the less concave fluvial profile has considerably reduced the lateral distribution of the erosion and non-deposition due to the absolute sealevel fall. The pattern is similar to that seen in the type-2 sequence example shown in figure 3.12.

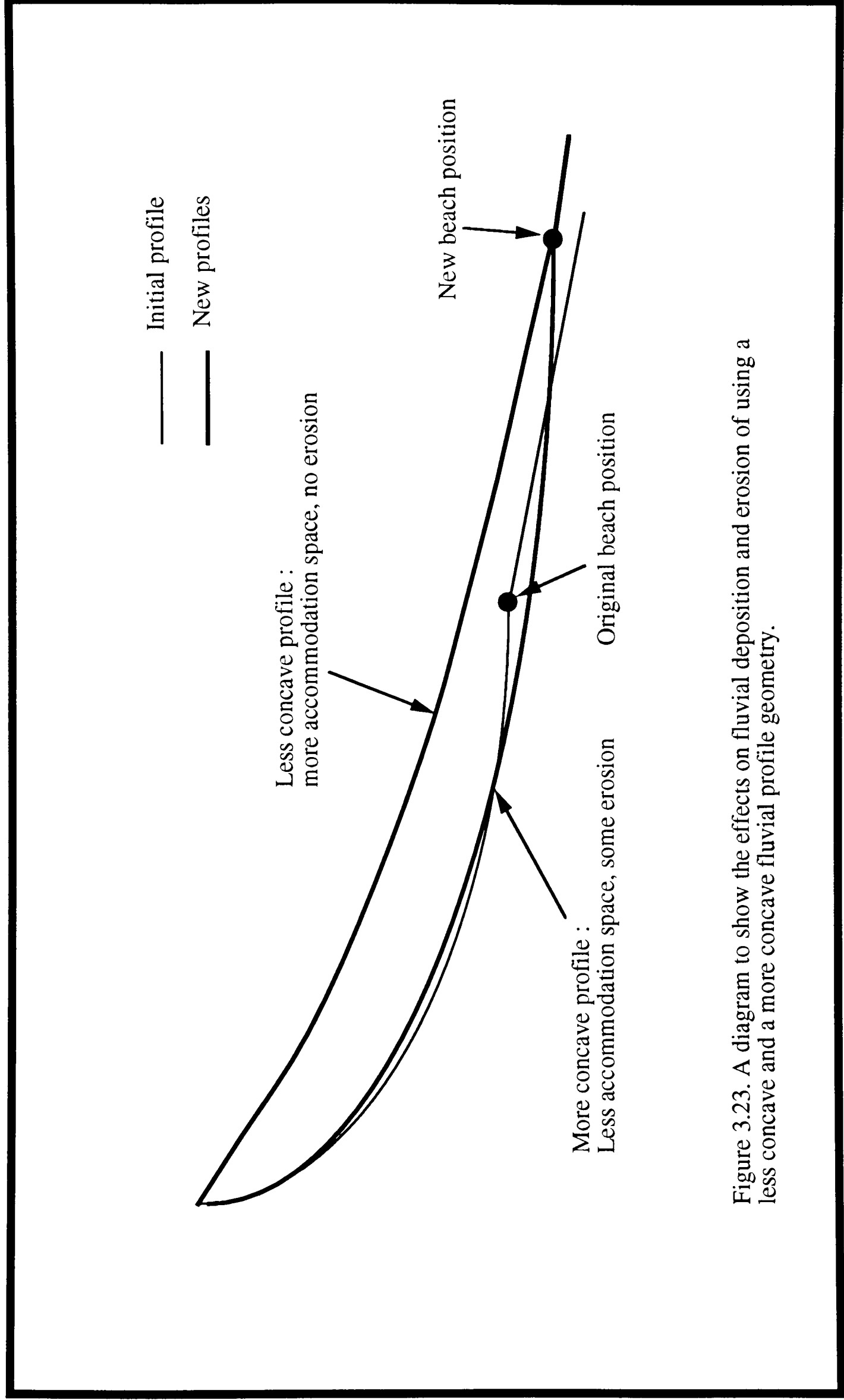


Figure 3.23. A diagram to show the effects on fluvial deposition and erosion of using a less concave and a more concave fluvial profile geometry.

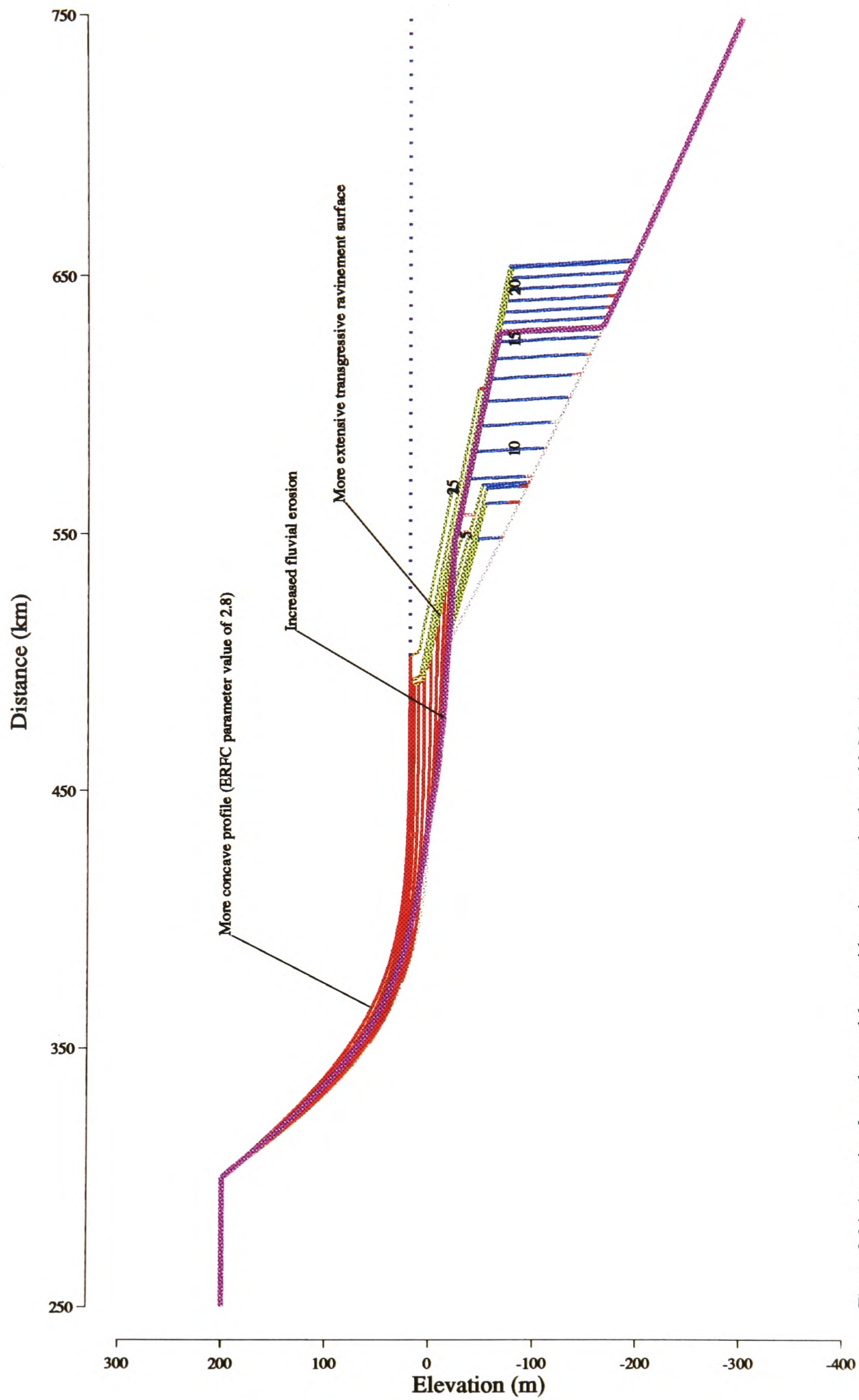


Figure 3.24. A section from the model run with an increased value of 2.8 for the error function parameter, thus making the fluvial profile more concave. All other parameters are the same as those used in the standard reference model. The more concave fluvial profile has the effect of increasing the lateral extent and the magnitude of erosion, both on the lower profile during the relative sealevel fall, and on the upper profile during the relative sealevel rise.

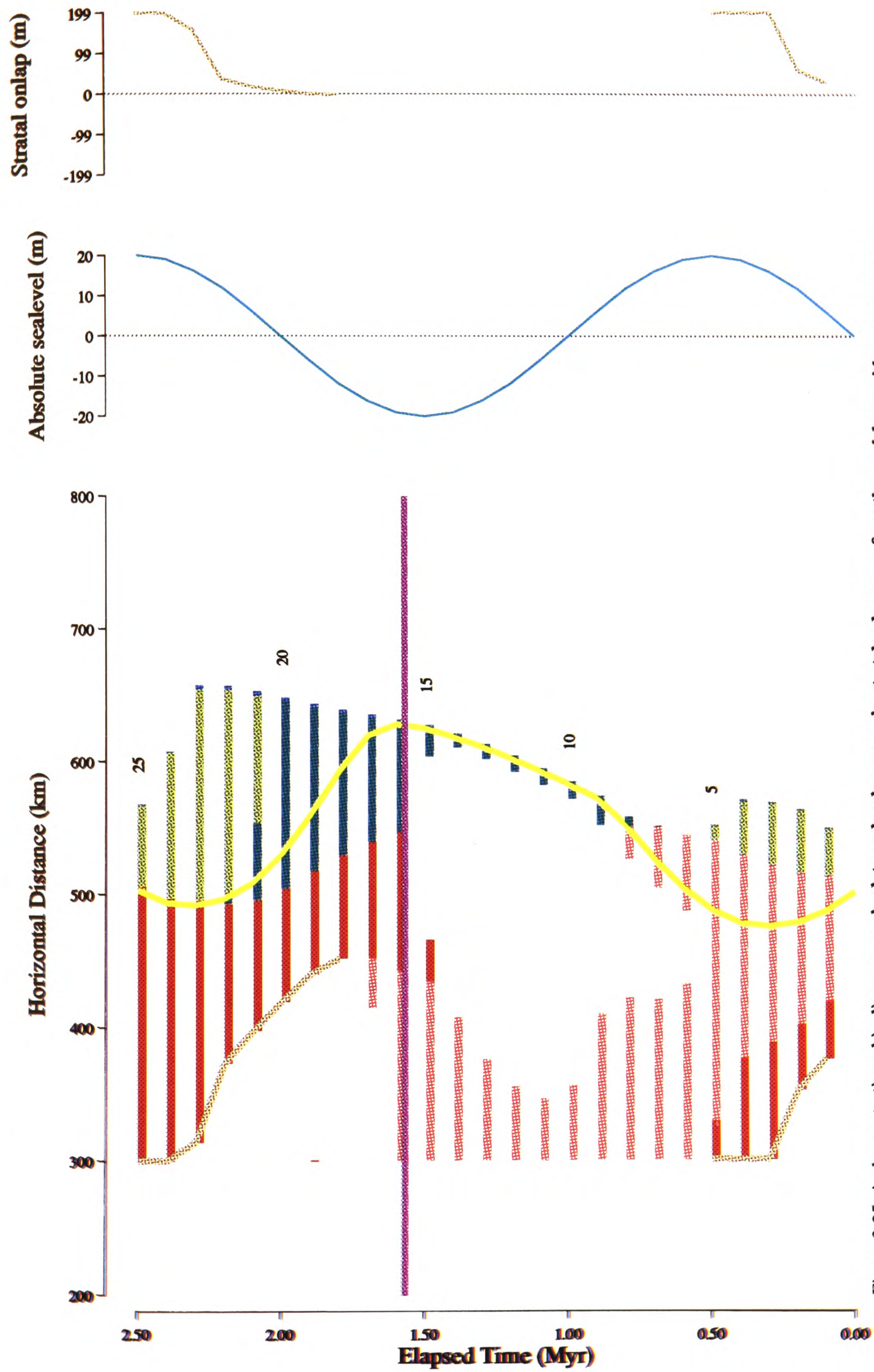


Figure 3.25. A chronostratigraphic diagram, an absolute sealevel curve and a stratal onlap curve from the model run with a more concave fluvial profile produced using an error function parameter value of 2.8. All other model parameters are the same as those given for the standard reference model. The more concave profile has led to more erosion, on the lower profile during relative sealevel fall, and on the upper profile during relative sealevel rise. As a result the thickness and extent of fluvial stratigraphy preserved has been reduced. Also, the lower slopes on the seaward portion of the fluvial profile have accentuated the development of the transgressive ravinement surface.

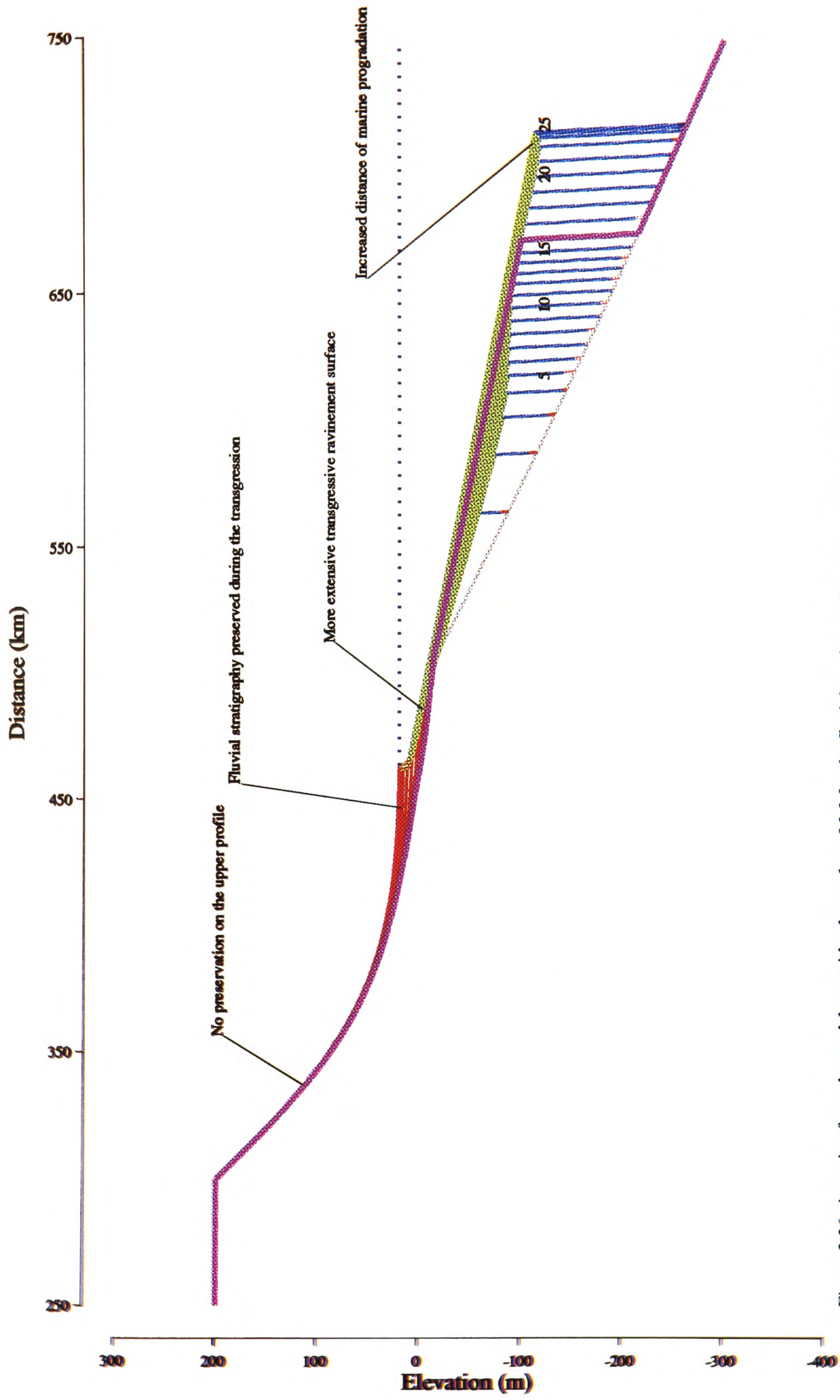


Figure 3.26. A section from the model run with a low value of 0.2 for the fluvial-marine partitioning coefficient. All other model parameters are the same as those used in the standard reference model. The lower partitioning coefficient reduces the area of deposition in the fluvial profile, increases deposition on the marine profile, and allows the beach to transgress further landward during an absolute sealevel rise, thus accentuating the development of the transgressive ravinement surface, and the erosion on the upper portion of the fluvial profile due to profile shortening.

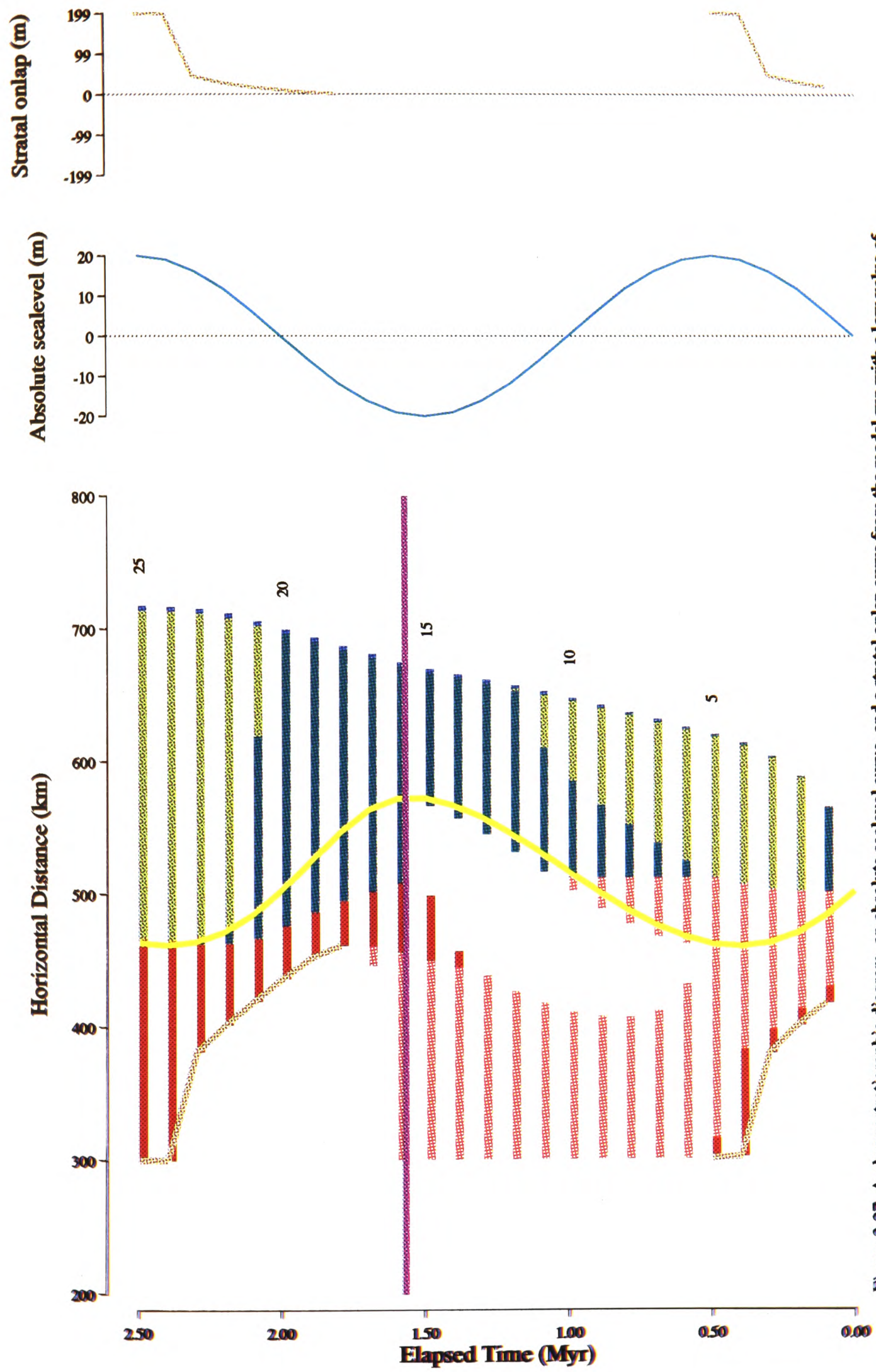


Figure 3.27. A chronostratigraphic diagram, an absolute sealevel curve, and a stratal onlap curve from the model run with a low value of 0.2 for the fluvial-marine partitioning coefficient. All other model parameters are the same as those used in the standard reference model. The lower value for the partitioning coefficient has reduced the initial deposition and subsequent preservation of fluvial stratigraphy, as well as significantly increasing the lateral extent of the marine erosion produced by the passage of the transgressive ravinement surface.

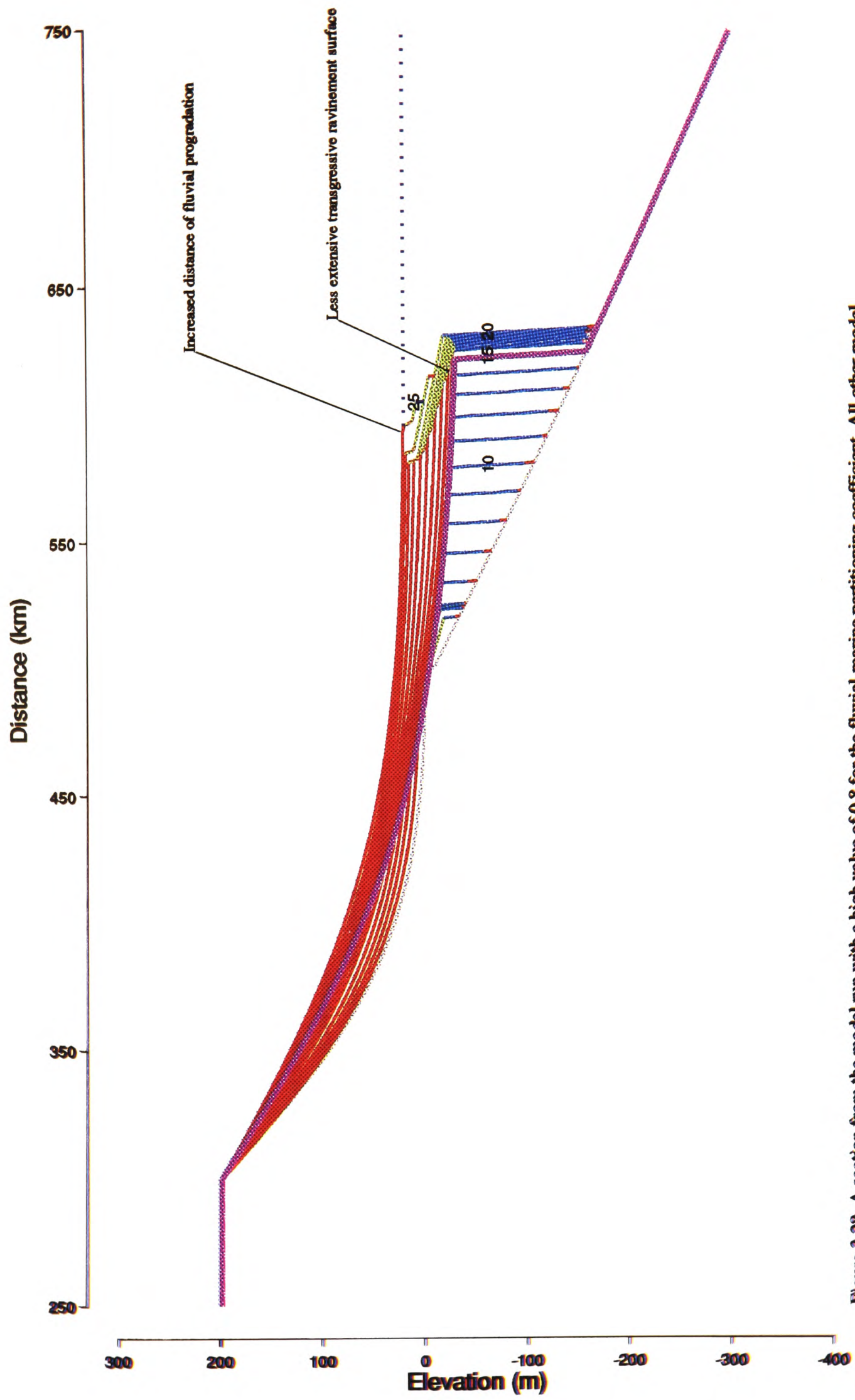


Figure 3.28. A section from the model run with a high value of 0.8 for the fluvial-marine partitioning coefficient. All other model parameters are the same as those used in the standard model. The higher value for the partitioning coefficient has increased the deposition on the fluvial profile, and the degree of fluvial progradation. The shelf is less well developed than in previous examples. The landward distance of the transgression and hence the development of the transgressive ravinement surface has been reduced by the increased fluvial progradation.

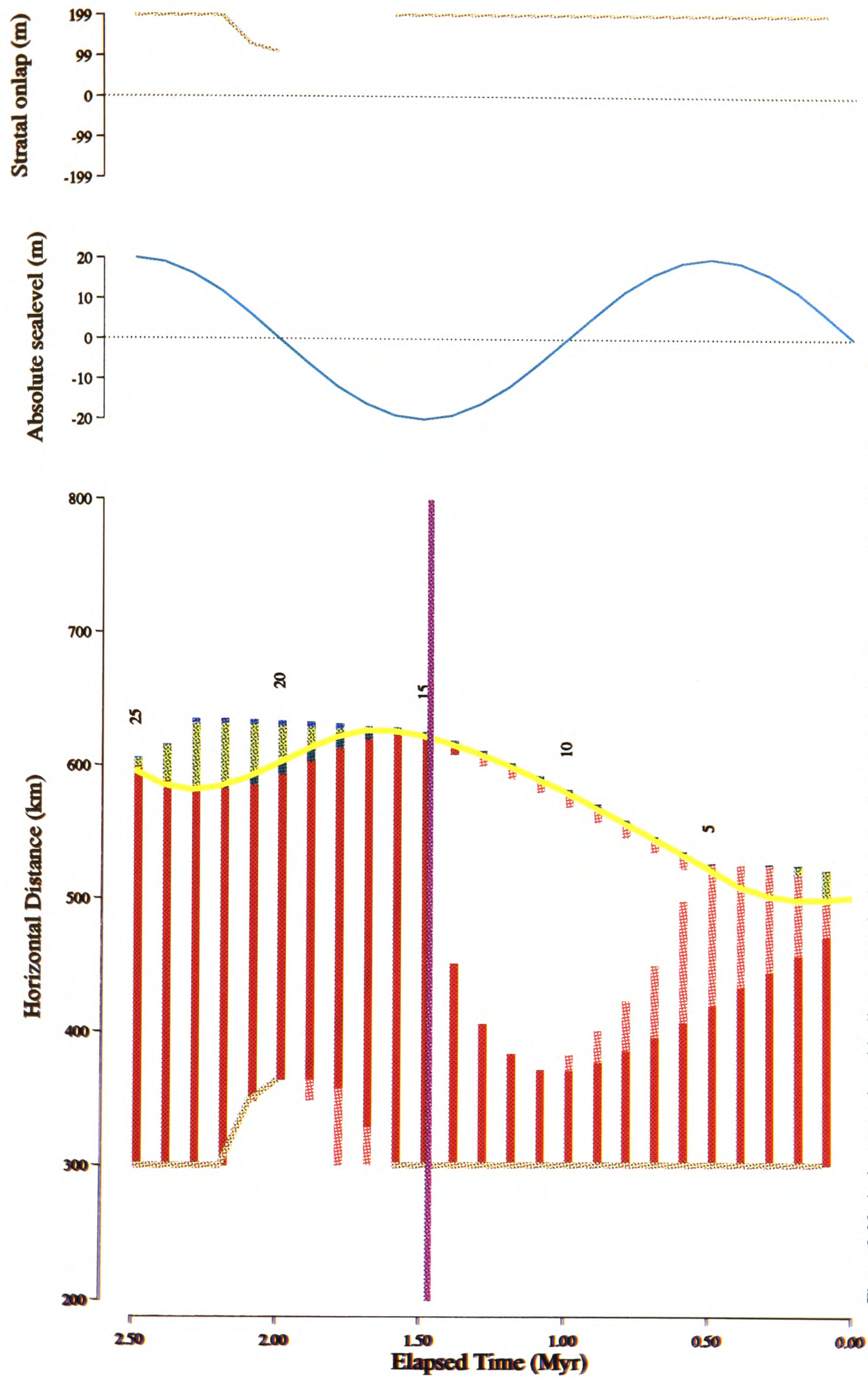


Figure 3.29. A chronostratigraphic diagram, an absolute sealevel curve, and a stratal onlap curve from the model run with a high value of 0.8 for the fluvial-marine partitioning coefficient. All other model parameters are the same as those used in the standard model. The higher value for the partitioning coefficient has increased the deposition on the fluvial profile, and the distance of fluvial progradation. In this example minimal erosion occurs on the upper profile during the transgression, and the marine erosion is reduced in both lateral and vertical extent.

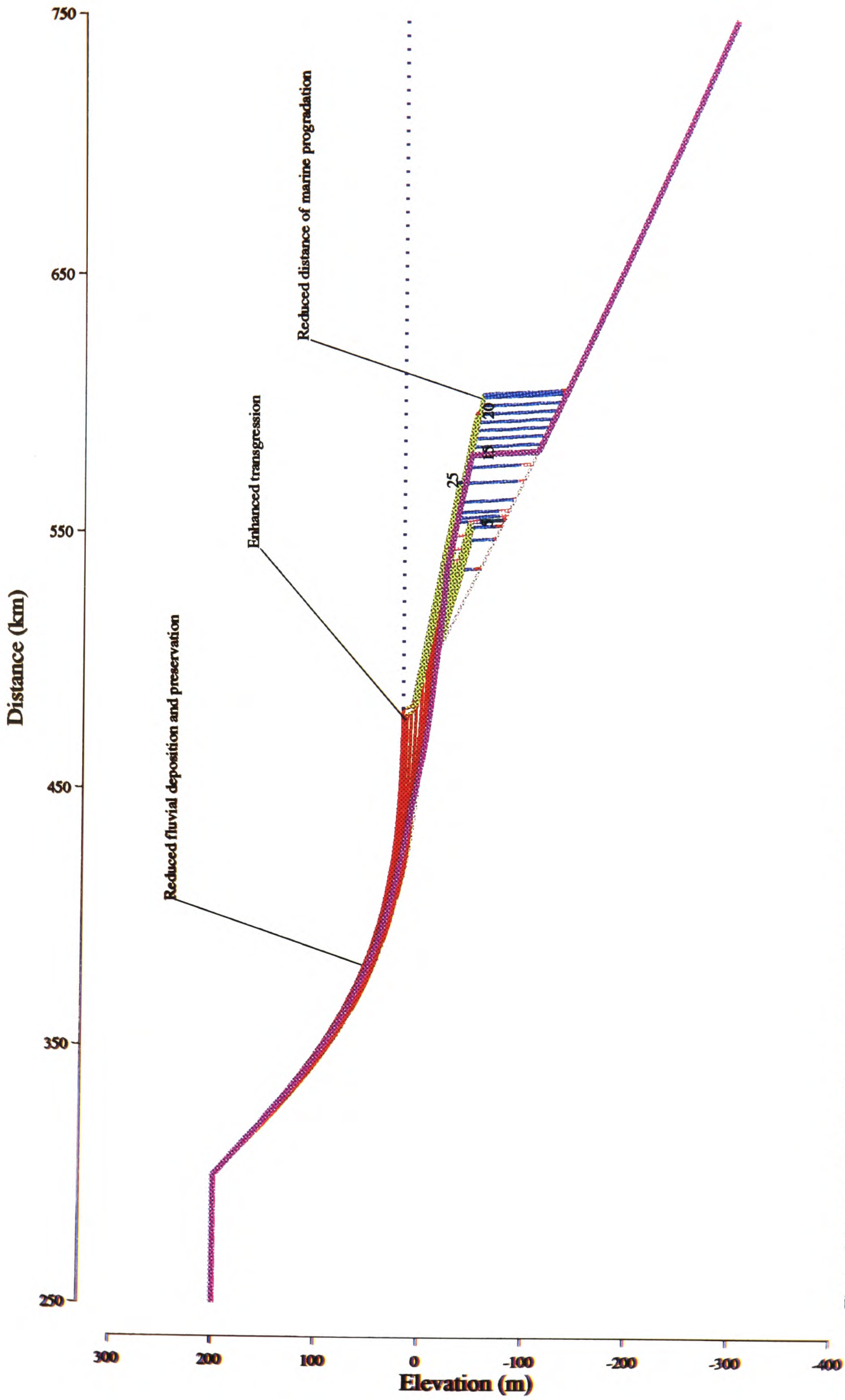


Figure 3.30. A section from the model run with a low value for external sediment supply of 0.5 square kilometres per timestep. All other model parameters are the same as those used in the standard reference model. The lower sediment supply has a similar effect to lowering the partitioning coefficient in that it has increased the influence of the absolute sealevel changes. For example, the transgression during the absolute sealevel rise is accentuated. Both fluvial and marine deposition are reduced as a direct result of the lower sediment supply.

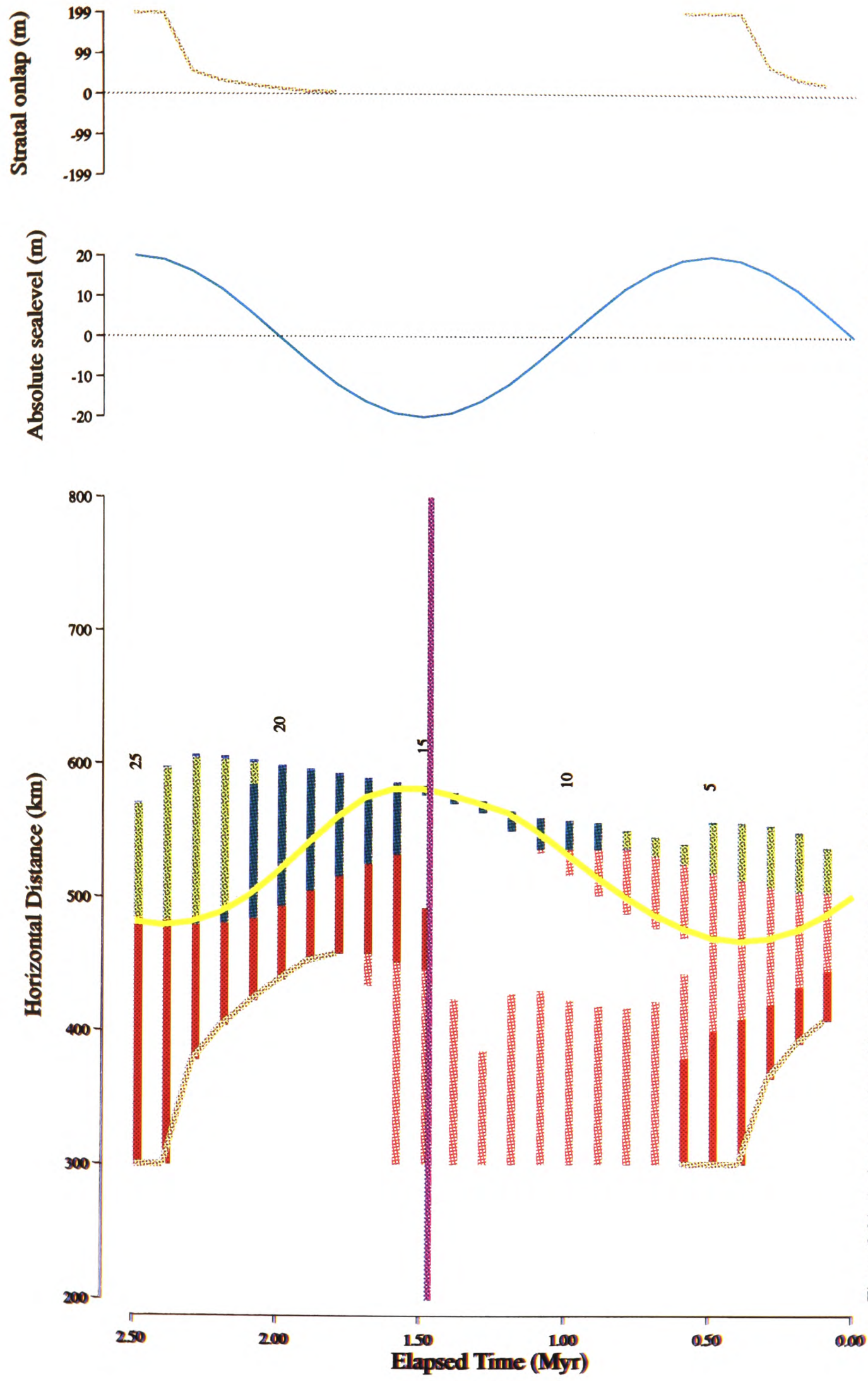


Figure 3.31. A chronostratigraphic model, an absolute sealevel curve and a stratal onlap curve from the model run with a low value for external sediment supply of 0.5 square kilometres per time-step. All other model parameters are the same as those used in the standard reference model. The lower sediment supply has a similar effect to lowering the partitioning coefficient in that it has increased the influence of the absolute sealevel changes. For example, the transgression has driven the beach further landward, shortening the fluvial profile, and leading to the erosion of all the stratigraphy previously deposited on the upper fluvial profile.

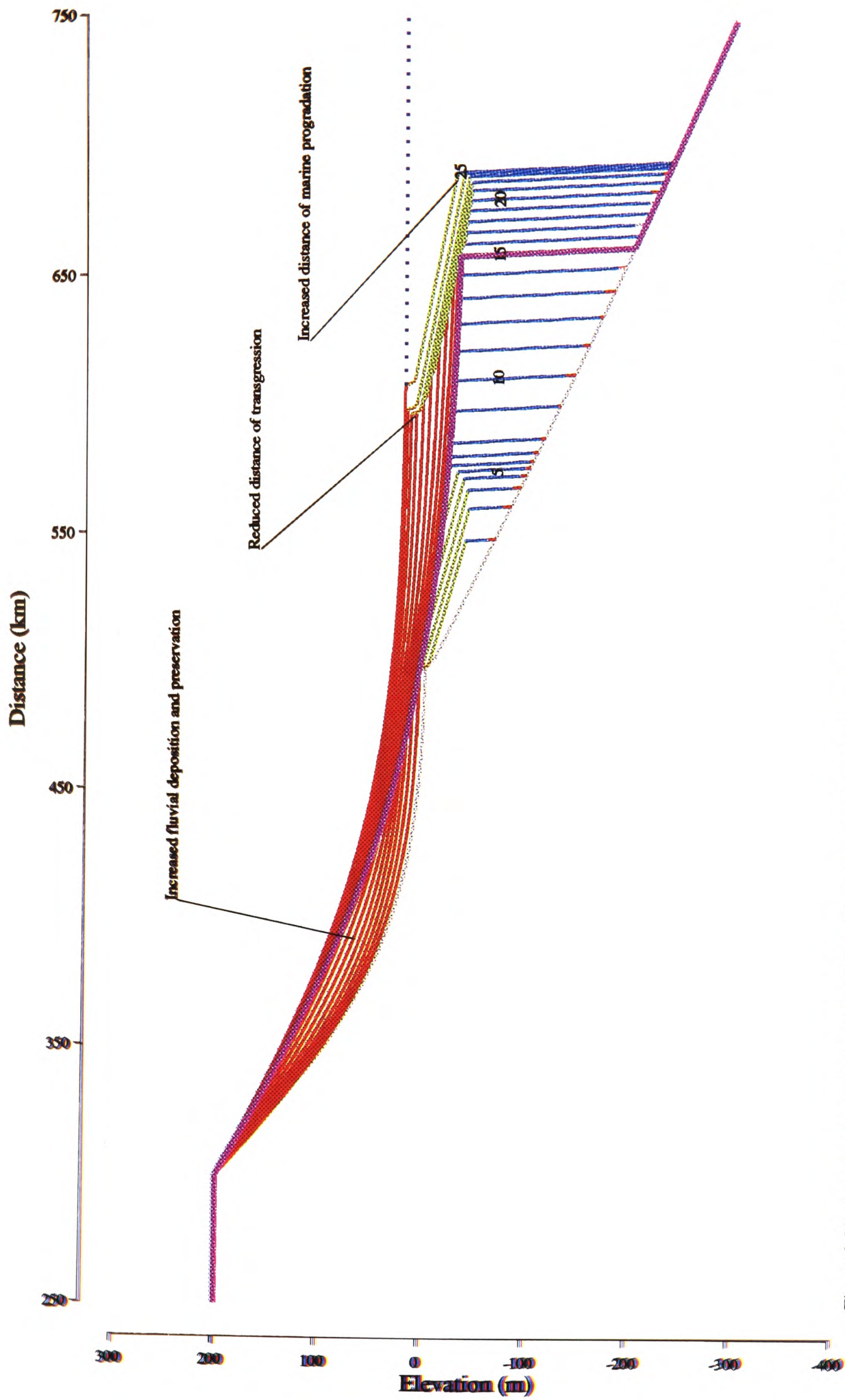


Figure 3.32. A section from the model run with a high value for external sediment supply of 1.5 square kilometres per timestep. All other model parameters are the same as those used in the standard reference model. The higher sediment supply has the effect of reducing the influence of the absolute sealevel change by increasing the distance of fluvial and marine progradation. This leads to increased thickness of fluvial and marine deposition, and increased preservation of the fluvial stratigraphy, particularly on the upper fluvial profile.

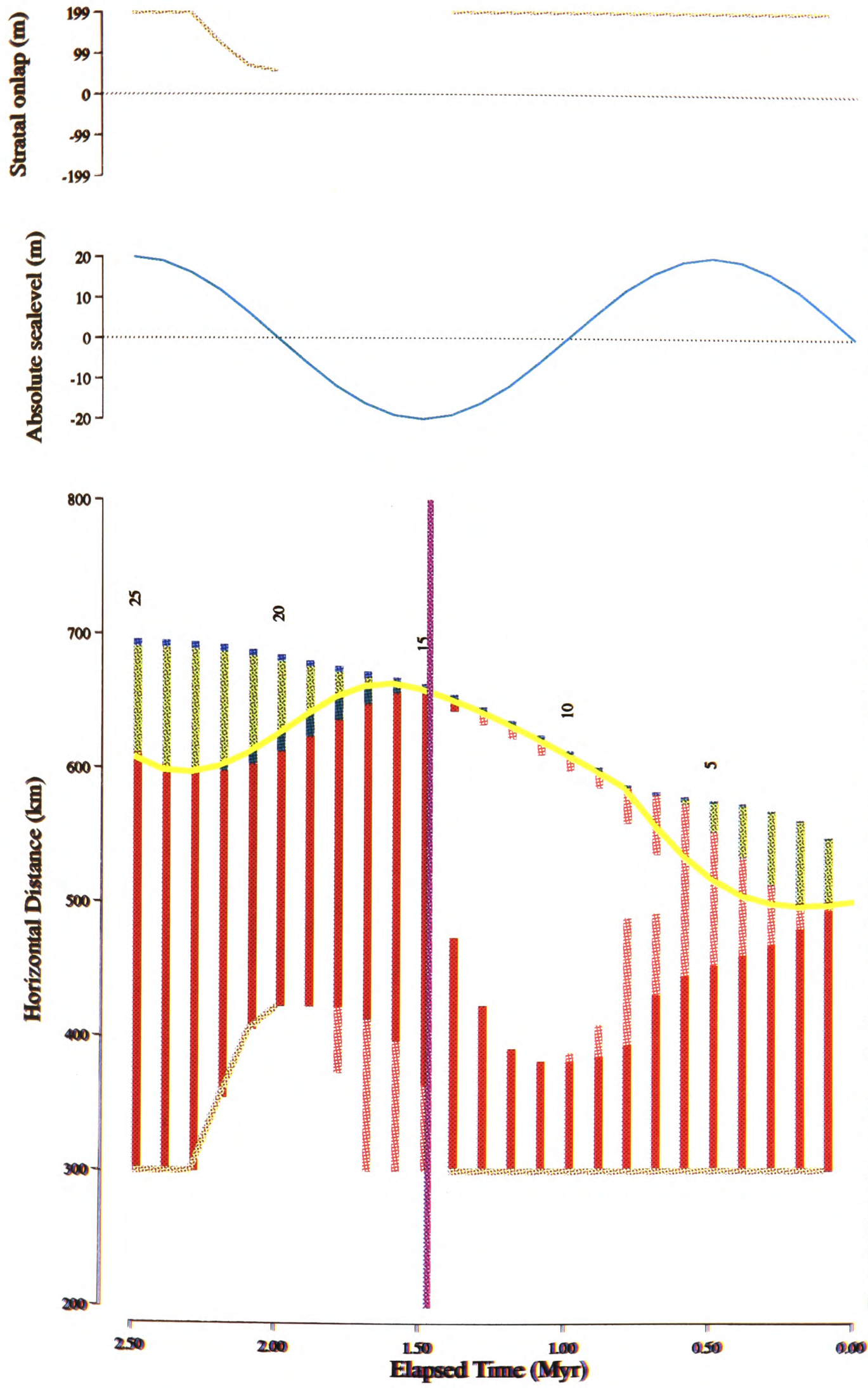


Figure 3.33. A chronostratigraphic diagram, an absolute sealevel curve, and a stratal onlap curve from the model run with a high value for external sediment supply of 1.5 square kilometres per timestep. All other model parameters are the same as those used in the standard reference model. The higher sediment supply has the effect of reducing the influence of the absolute sealevel change. This is shown by the decreased lateral extent of the transgression, and the increase in fluvial deposition and preservation.

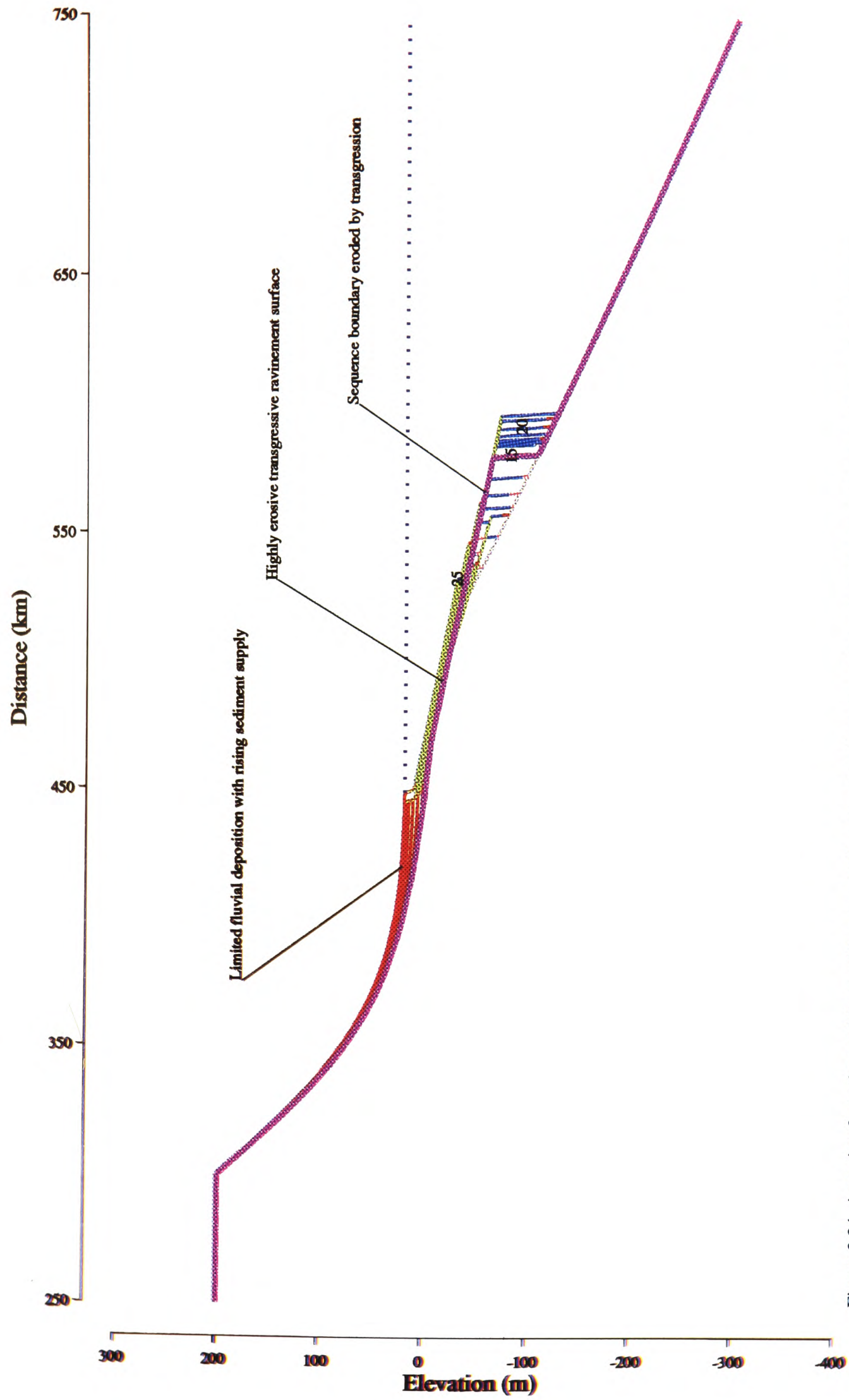


Figure 3.34. A section from the model run with a saw-tooth external sediment supply curve ranging from 0.1 to 1.0 square kilometres per timestep with a period of 1.6Myrs. Sediment supply increases steadily until chron 17 when it drops sharply. All other model parameters are the same as those used in the standard reference model. The section is dominated by the results of the drop in sediment supply, which occurring as it does during a time of rising absolute sealevel, precipitates a major transgression, eroding much of the previous stratigraphy.

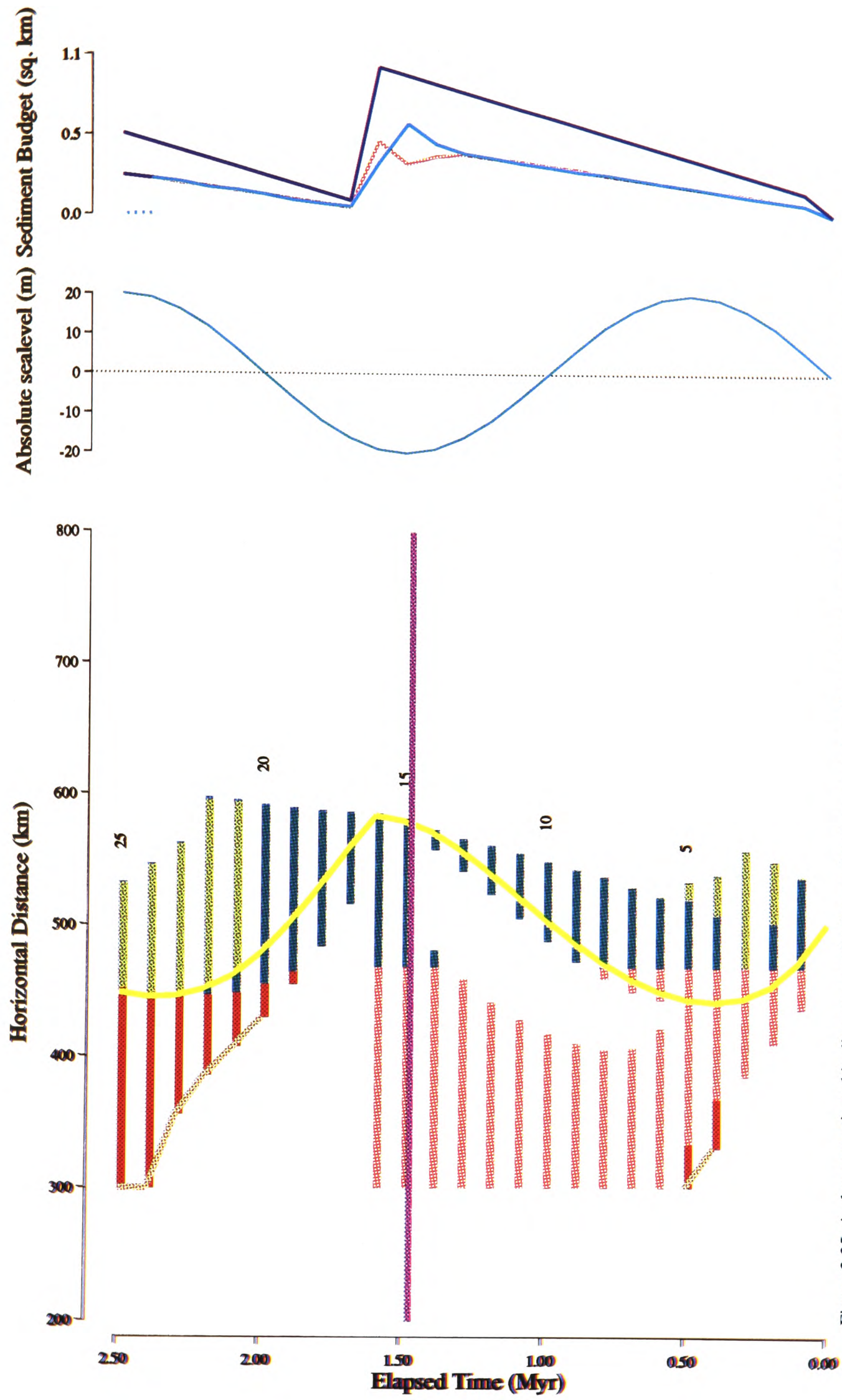


Figure 3.35. A chronostratigraphic diagram, an absolute sealevel curve, and a sediment supply curve from the model run with a saw-tooth external sediment supply curve ranging from 0.1 to 1.0 square kilometres per timestep with a period of 1.6Myrs. Sediment supply increases steadily until chron 17 when it drops sharply. All other model parameters are the same as those used in the standard reference model. The stratigraphy is dominated by the effects of the drop in sediment supply, which occurring as it does during a time of rising absolute sealevel, precipitates a major transgression, eroding much of the previous stratigraphy on a laterally more extensive transgressive ravinement surface.

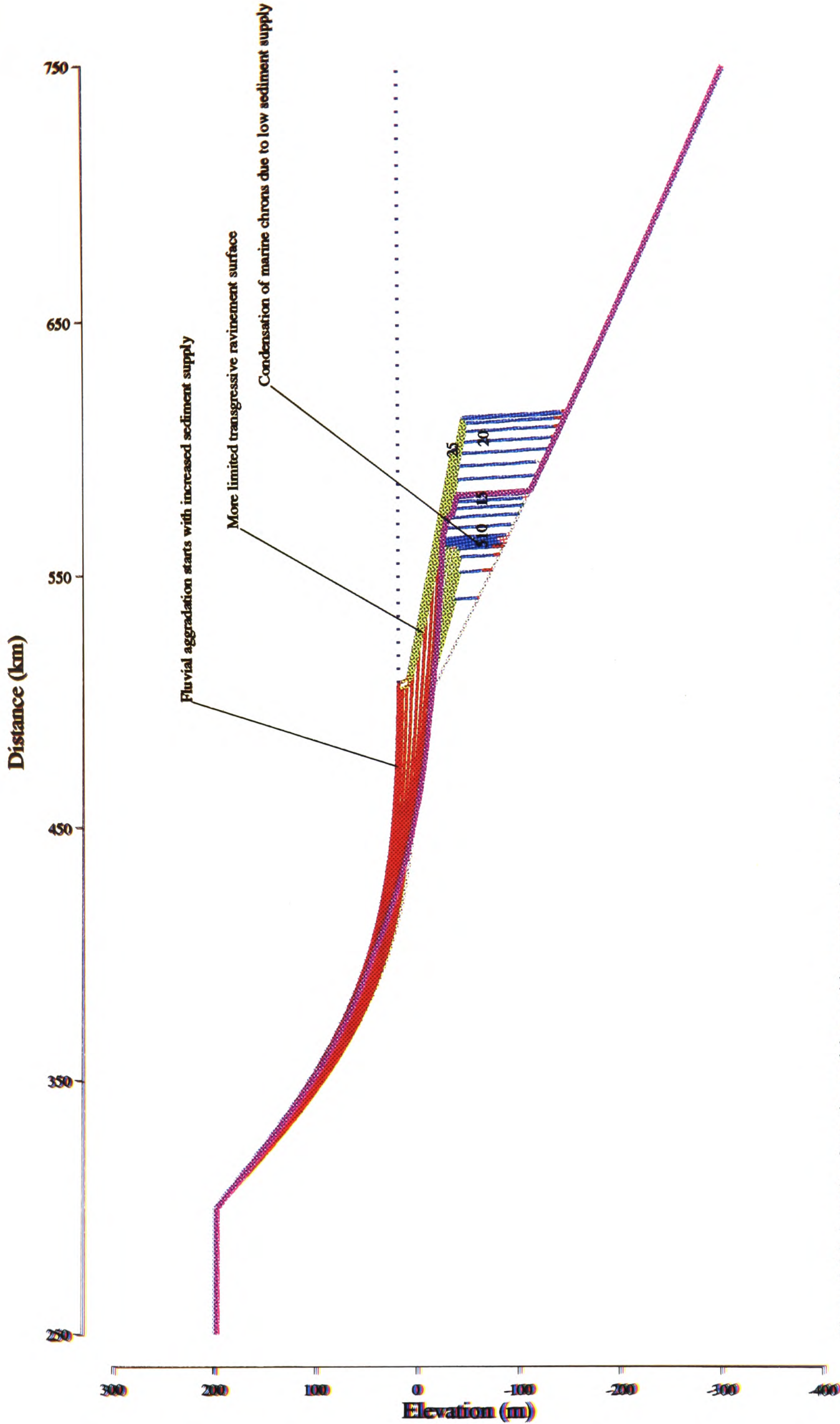


Figure 3.36. A section from the model run with a saw-tooth external sediment supply curve ranging from 1.0 to 0.1 square kilometres per timestep with a period of 1.6Myrs. Sediment supply decreases steadily until chron 17 when it rises sharply. All other model parameters are the same as those used in the standard reference model. In this example the effects of the saw tooth sediment supply curve are less pronounced, only really being visible on the section as a condensation on the marine slope for chronos 5 to 15. The increased sediment supply during the absolute sealevel rise prevents the formation of the extensive transgressive ravinement surface seen in figure 3.34.

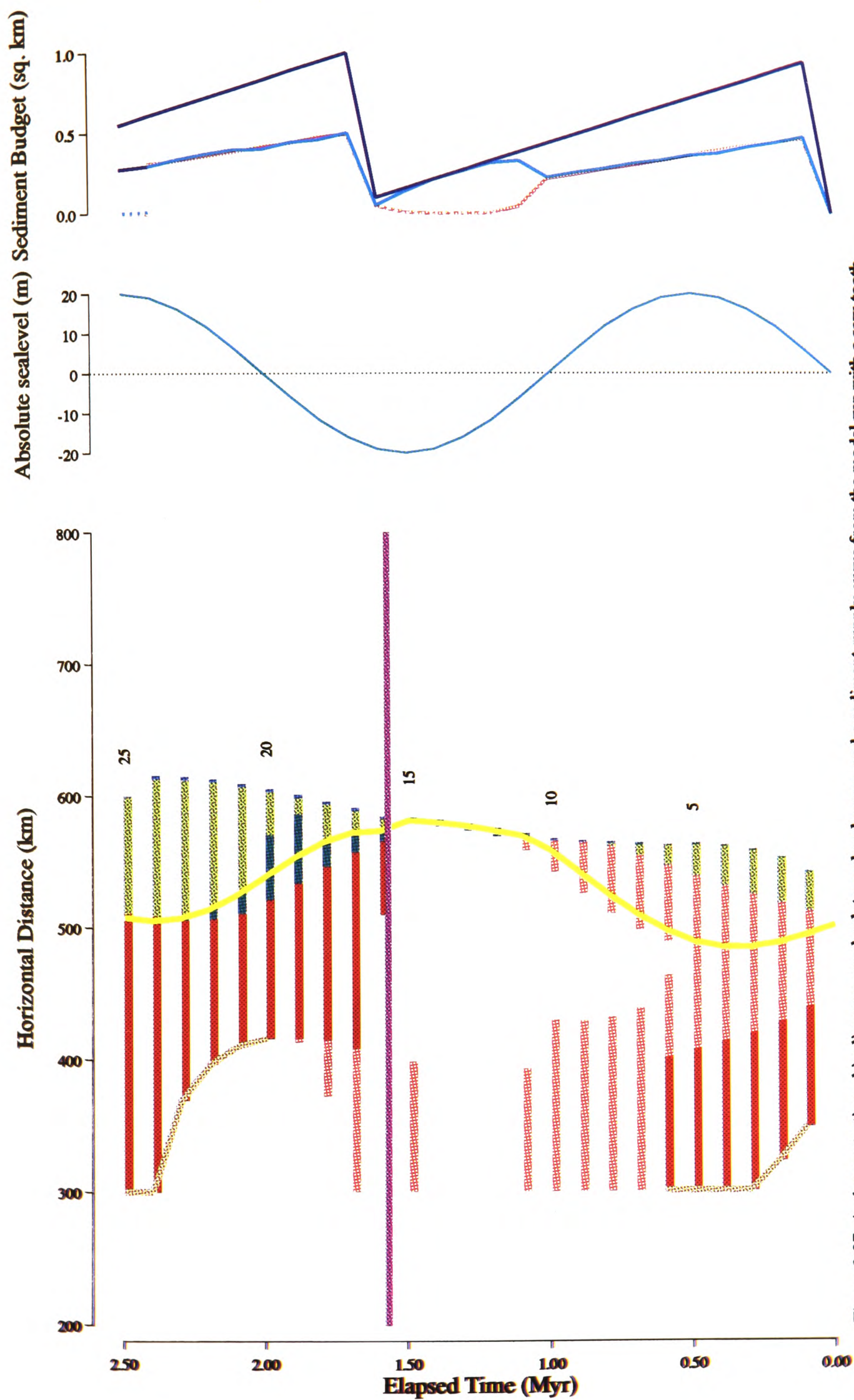


Figure 3.37. A chronostratigraphic diagram, an absolute sealevel curve, and a sediment supply curve from the model run with a saw-tooth external sediment supply curve ranging from 1.0 to 0.1 square kilometres per timestep with a period of 1.6Myrs. Sediment supply decreases steadily until chron 17 when it rises sharply. All other model parameters are the same as those used in the standard reference model. In this example the effects of the saw tooth sediment supply curve are less pronounced since the gradual fall in sediment supply occurs during a time of falling absolute sealevel, and the rise in sediment supply at an E.M.T. of 1.7Myrs reduces the erosive effect of the transgression.

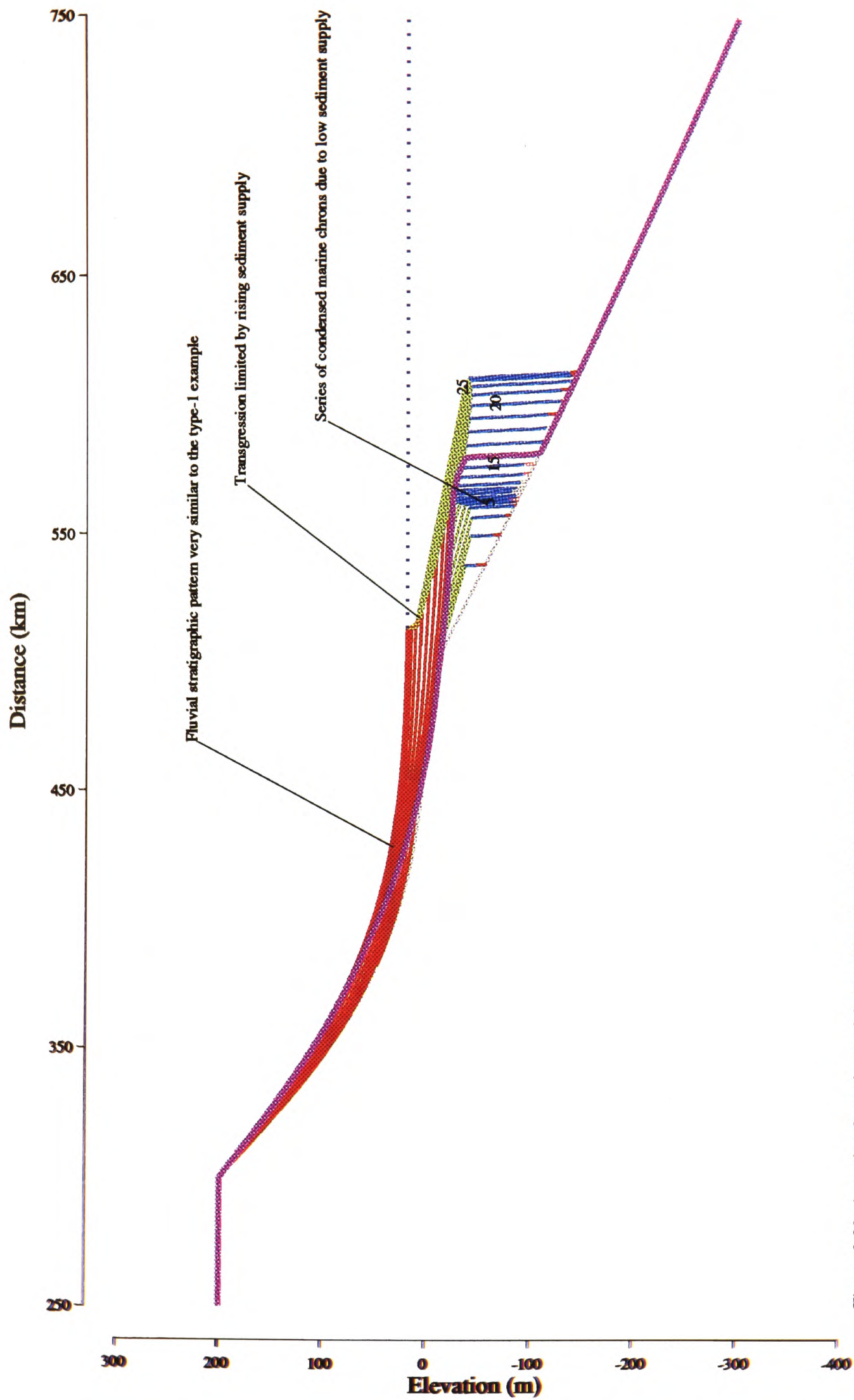


Figure 3.38. A section from the model run with a sinusoidal external sediment supply curve with an amplitude of 0.45 square kilometres and a period of 1.6 Myrs (see figure 3.39). All the other model parameters are the same as those used in the standard reference model run. The impact of the variable sediment supply in this run is less pronounced than in some previous examples (c.g. figure 3.34) because the low point on the sediment supply curve occurs during a low point on the absolute sealevel curve. Consequently the period of low supply is expressed as a series of condensed chrons on the marine slope.

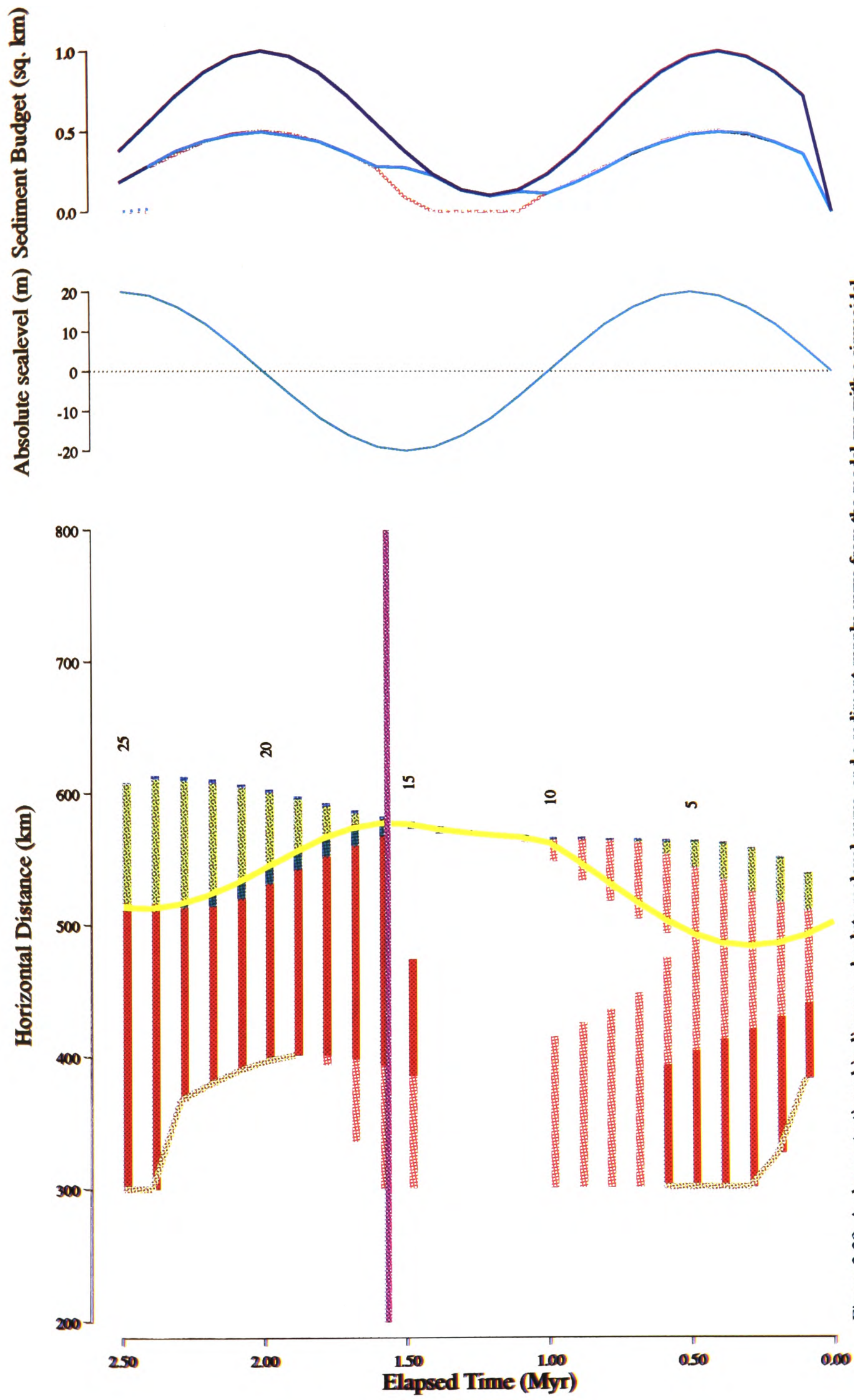


Figure 3.39. A chronostratigraphic diagram, absolute sealevel curve, and a sediment supply curve from the model run with a sinusoidal external sediment supply curve with an amplitude of 0.45 square kilometres and a period of 1.6Myrs. All the other model parameters are the same as those used in the standard reference model run. The impact of the variable sediment supply in this run is less pronounced than in some previous examples (e.g. figure 3.35) because the low point on the sediment supply curve occurs during a low point on the absolute sealevel curve. However, an increase in the lateral extent of fluvial erosion, and a reduction in the deposition of marine stratigraphy during the period of low sediment supply (E.M.T. 0.75 - 1.5Myrs) are clearly visible.

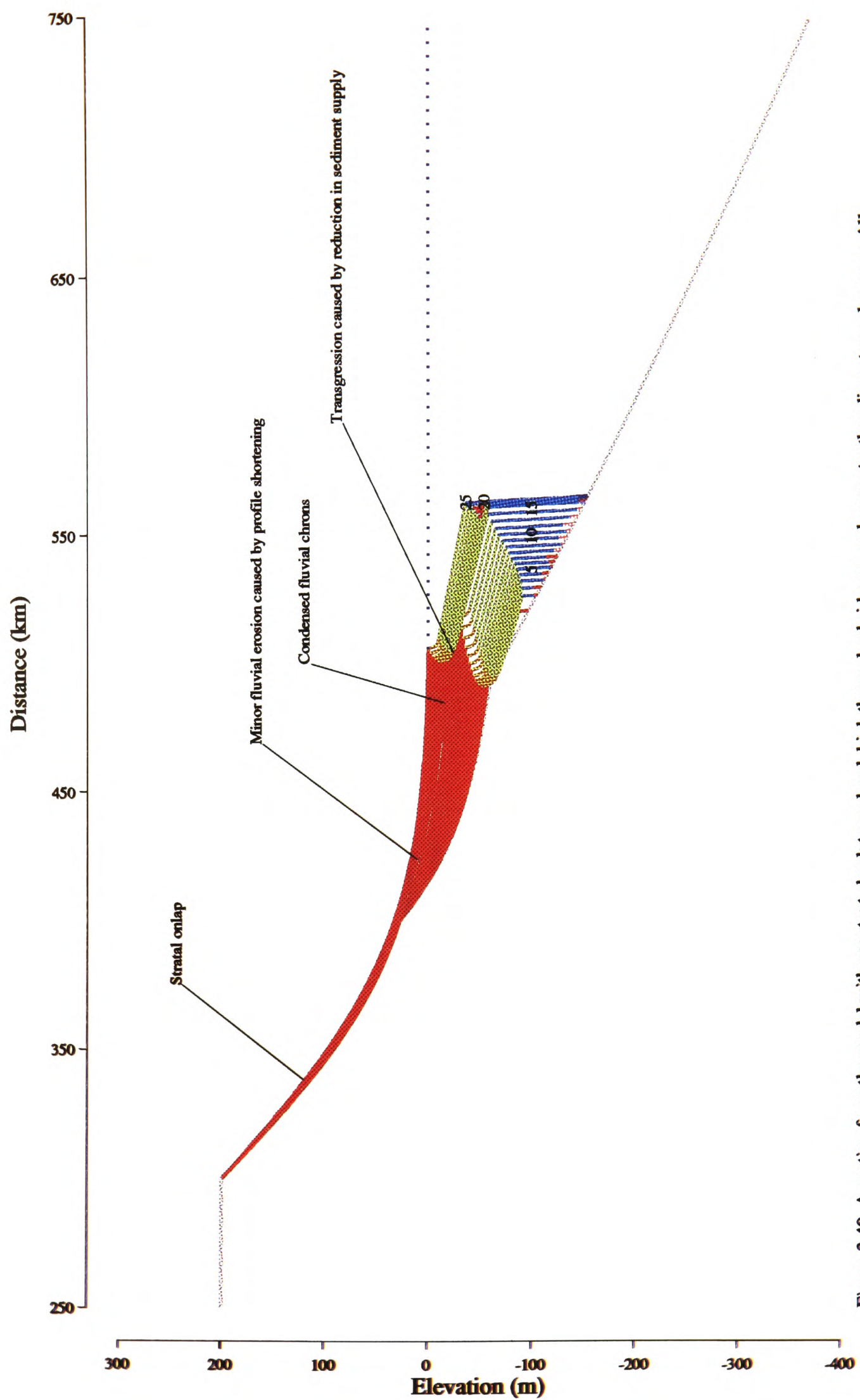


Figure 3.40. A section from the model with constant absolute sealevel, high thermal subsidence, and a saw-tooth sediment supply curve. All other model parameters are the same as those in the standard reference model. This example shows that some of the features of a type-1 sequence such as the stratal onlap and a transgressive ravinement surface can be produced in the model by variable sediment supply without absolute sealevel variations. However, it also demonstrates that one of the prime features of a type-1 sequence boundary, the vertical juxtaposition of fluvial stratigraphy against marine stratigraphy with a surface of erosion in between cannot be generated in this way.

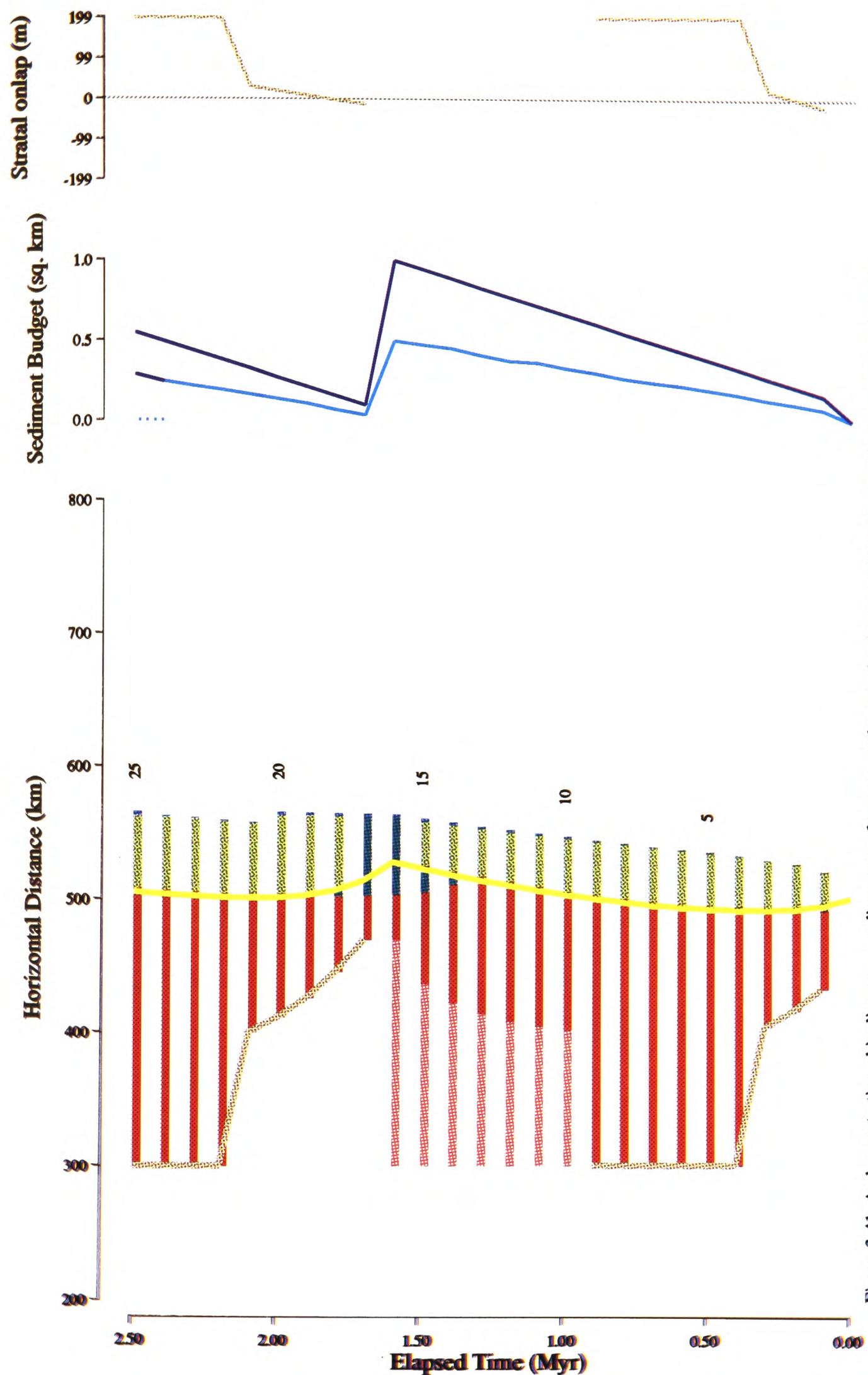


Figure 3.41. A chronostratigraphic diagram, a sediment supply curve, and a stratal onlap curve from the model with constant absolute sealevel, high thermal subsidence, and a saw-tooth sediment supply curve. All other model parameters are the same as those in the standard reference model. This example shows that some of the features of a type 1 sequence such as the stratal onlap and a transgressive ravinement surface can be produced in the model by variable sediment supply without absolute sealevel variations. However, it also demonstrates that one of the prime features of a type-1 sequence boundary, the juxtaposition of fluvial stratigraphy against marine stratigraphy with a surface of erosion or non-deposition in between cannot be generated in this way.

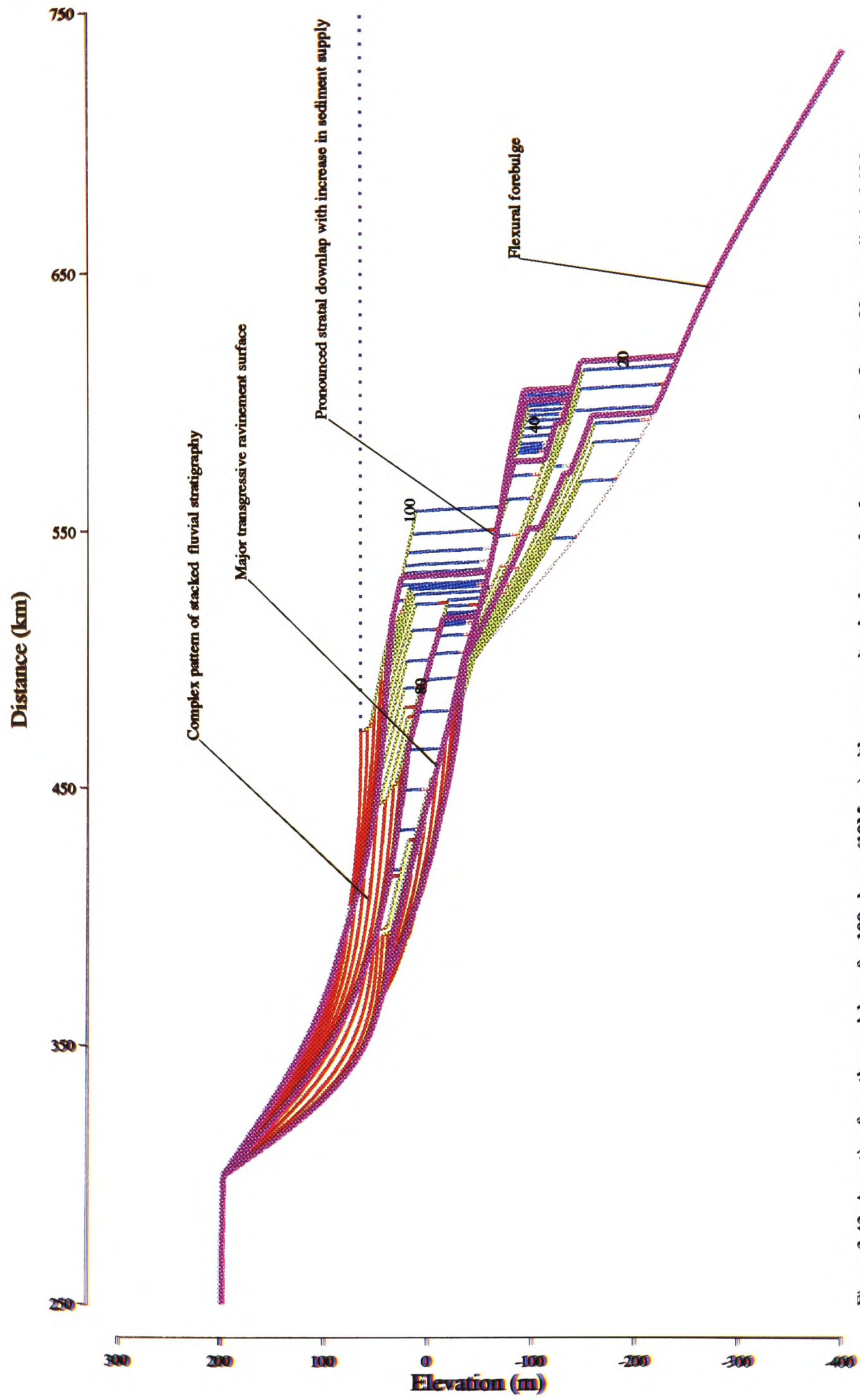


Figure 3.42. A section from the model run for 100 chrons (10Myrs) with a composite absolute sealevel curve made up from a 20m amplitude 2.0Myr sinusoidal curve superimposed upon a 1.5Myr 100m linear rise, a sinusoidal sediment supply curve with an amplitude of 0.45 square kilometres and a period of 1.6Myrs, a sinusoidally varying partitioning coefficient with an amplitude of 0.3 and a period of 1.4Myrs, and flexural isostasy with an elastic thickness value of 10km. All the remaining parameters are the same as those used in the standard reference model run. See the main text for a discussion of this model output.

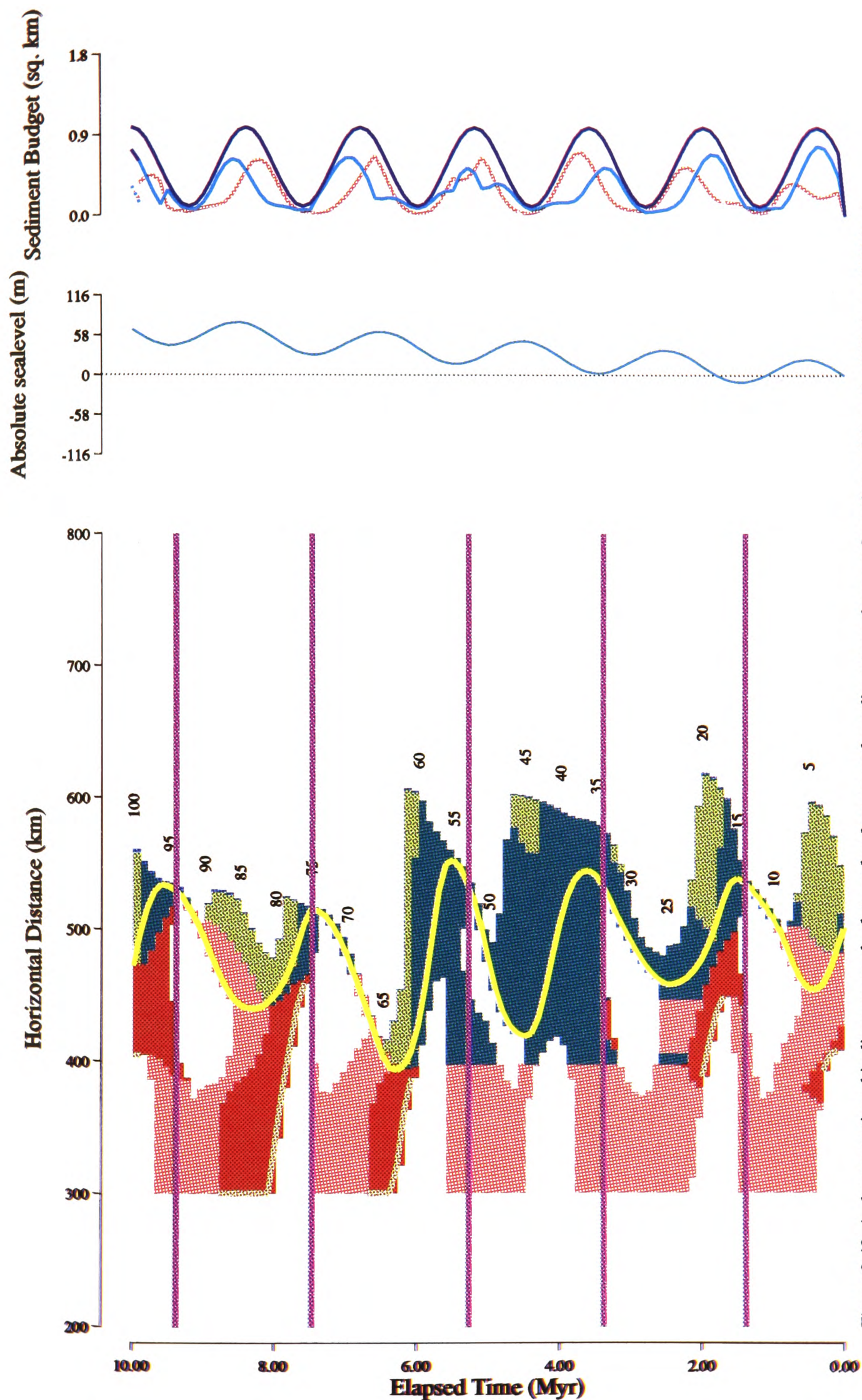


Figure 3.43. A chronostratigraphic diagram, an absolute sealevel curve, and a sediment supply curve from the model run for 100 chrons (10Myrs) with a composite sealevel curve made up from a 20m amplitude 2.0Myr sinusoidal curve superimposed upon a 15Myr 100m constant gradient rise, a sinusoidal sediment supply curve with an amplitude of 0.45 square kilometres and a period of 1.6Myrs, a sinusoidally varying partitioning coefficient with an amplitude of 0.3 and a period of 1.4Myrs, and flexural isostasy with an elastic thickness value of 10km. All the remaining parameters are the same as those used in the standard reference model run. See the main text for a discussion of this model output.

Chapter 4

Chapter 4 - Complex interactions, cyclicity and numerical instabilities

"I'll keep a vigil in a wilderness of mirrors,
where nothing here is exactly as it seems.
We stand so close, but never understand it,
for all that we see is not all that it seems.

Am I blind?"

(Derek Dick, Vigil)

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to use the quantitative stratigraphic model to illustrate some of the problems that can occur in attempting to use a discretised model to investigate cyclical stratigraphic systems. Simple numerical experiments demonstrate the existence within the model of a complex feedback effect between thermal subsidence, deposition, erosion, and flexure. The feedback effect in the model produces cyclical stratigraphic patterns without external cyclical forcing. It is shown that the effect occurs in the model with a variety of initial conditions. However, the feedback effect is due to a numerical instability in the model. Consequently no conclusions can be drawn from the model behaviour regarding the possible existence of such feedbacks in natural stratigraphic systems.

4.2 Previous work

It is a common assumption in stratigraphic studies that periodic cyclicity in stratigraphy must be the result of external periodic forcing mechanisms (e.g. Steiner, 1973; Hays *et al.* 1976; Posamentier *et al.* 1988; Van Wagoner *et al.* 1990; Fischer, 1991; Vail *et al.* 1991; Quinn, 1991). Such assumptions are often based on tenuous evidence. For example, Van

Wagoner *et al.* (1990) attributed observed parasequence geometries to fourth or fifth order cycles in eustatic sealevel. No attempt was made to provide a mechanism for such high-order eustatic cycles, and this is particularly problematical since such parasequences are found throughout the stratigraphic column. Even if glacioeustasy is invoked as a causal mechanism, many periods of earth history show little or no evidence of the extensive ice sheets necessary to drive such glacioeustatic cycles.

More recently, attention has started to focus on possible alternative explanations. Shaw (1987) and Slingerland (1989) showed how even simple non-linear dynamic systems can produce periodic results through non-linear coupling between components in the system. This raises the possibility of such behaviour in natural stratigraphic systems, which often seem to be non-linear systems (Slingerland, 1989) and hence prone to such behaviour. Swift *et al.* (1991) discussed briefly the possibility that periodic stratigraphy at the parasequence level may be produced by non-linear interaction between components of stratigraphic systems such as sediment input rate, sediment character, sediment transport rate, and relative sea level change.

Gaffin and Maasch (1991) and Gaffin (1992) took the idea of non-linear interactions in stratigraphic systems a step further, and developed a simple stratigraphic model derived from a mass-conservation model for palaeo-ice sheet cyclicity. The stratigraphic model showed how base level instability resulting from positive feedbacks within the system can lead to non-linear behaviour, including free oscillations, which produce periodicity without external forcing.

Although Gaffin (1992) presented some very interesting ideas, the model is very simplistic, being heavily dependent upon the idea of a diffusion front beyond which sediment is not transported to provide a non linearity and hence a feedback effect in the model. In order to investigate the concepts of unforced oscillations in stratigraphy further, it is necessary to use a more detailed stratigraphic model. The model results presented

below give an example of how complex interaction between non-periodic model components can produce periodic patterns in modelled stratigraphy, and illustrate some of the potential problems in using discretised models to investigate non-linear oscillating systems.

4.3 Initial conditions

Figure 4.1 summarises in diagrammatic form some of the initial conditions for the standard reference model. The values selected are generally arbitrary values, but are constrained by observations of passive rift margins (e.g. Watts, 1988; Klitgord *et al.* 1988). The model run consists of fifty chrons generated with an interval of 100Kyr, giving a total elapsed model time of 5Myrs. Thermal subsidence is produced by the one-layer stretching model of McKenzie (1978) with arbitrary stretching values from 1.0 at 400km, to 1.1 at 500km, to 4.0 at 1024km (figure 4.1). The lithosphere is given an arbitrary initial thermal age, or age since the onset of thermal subsidence, of 10Myrs. Absolute sealevel is held constant at 0.0m throughout the model run.

The flexural response of the lithosphere to deposition and erosion is calculated assuming an instantaneous response. The value of T_e is held constant at 10km over the period of the model run. The density of loading and unloading is taken as 1800kgm^{-3} to represent the density of uncompacted sediment.

The fluvial profile is modelled using a complementary error function with a length scale value of 3.0, which produces a steep upstream section, and a relatively flat coastal plain. The profile maintains a fixed geometry through the model run, as described in section 2.6.5.2. Portions of the profile which are uplifted due to flexure are eroded such that the original profile geometry is maintained. However, the lower portion of the profile is allowed to subside and be inundated in a relative sealevel rise without responding by aggradation (figure 2.8). This behaviour is analogous to a fluvial system with very low

sediment supply that is unable to aggrade following the relative sealevel rise. The length of the profile is held constant at 200km. The submarine profile consists of a 10m high, 2km wide shoreface, which passes into a shelf profile of gradient 0.001mkm^{-1} . This in turn passes into a marine slope with a gradient of 0.04mkm^{-1} . Sediment supply is calculated for each time step from the area of sediment eroded on the fluvial and marine profiles. There is no external sediment input.

4.4 Model results

Results from the model run with the initial conditions described in section 4.3 show a complex interaction between four model components, namely thermal subsidence, erosion, flexure, and deposition.

4.4.1. The feedback mechanism

Figure 4.2 shows a simplified diagrammatic explanation of the feedback mechanism.

- 4.2.A shows the initial conditions, with thermal subsidence on the lower portion of the fluvial profile about to cause a relative sealevel rise, allowing a marine transgression.
- Figure 4.2.B shows the shoreface has jumped landward in response to the thermal subsidence, and erosion on the shoreface has caused flexural uplift in response to the unloading.
- Figure 4.2.C shows how this uplift on the lower portion of the fluvial profile is then removed by subsequent fluvial erosion, which in turn creates more uplift, of lower amplitude.
- This uplift is then removed by further fluvial erosion (figure 4.2.D), and thermal subsidence is on the point of outpacing the uplift, which will lead to a further transgression.

This cycle is repeated until the shoreface approaches the hinge point, where the stretching values are so low that thermal subsidence can no longer drive the shoreface landward, and the feedback effect ceases.

4.4.2. The standard reference model

Figure 4.3 shows a section from the model run with the standard parameters described in section 4.3. The main features to note in the section are the pulses of greater deposition visible in the distal portion of the stratigraphy. These are interspersed with chrons which do not extend so far into the basin, and represent periods of lower sediment supply. The distance of progradation of progressively younger chrons into the basin gradually decreases, until by the time of chron 30, deposition is minimal.

The chronostratigraphic diagram, and the sediment supply curve (figure 4.4) show more clearly the pattern of stratigraphy produced by the feedback effect. The spikes of erosion and deposition produced by the landward migration of the shoreface can be clearly seen. Each spike on the sediment supply curve matches a pulse of deposition on the Wheeler diagram (e.g. chron 5 at 0.5Myrs E.M.T.), and a jump landward in the position of the beach. The periods in between spikes show more restricted deposition, much of which has been removed by subsequent marine erosion. The Wheeler diagram also shows that the position of the beach stabilises after chron 15 at approximately 430km. After this time the beach continues to move landward very slowly, and there are no more jumps in the beach position. The position on the profile of the transition is determined by the distribution of thermal subsidence on the model profile. Landward of the 420km position the magnitude of the thermal subsidence is insufficient to cause further landward jumps, but the beach continues to move gradually landward, towards the hinge zone at 400km, driven by the small amounts of thermal subsidence still occurring (see the initial conditions shown in figure 4.1 and the discussion in section 4.3).

4.4.3. Sensitivity tests

Systematically changing some of the key parameters from the values used in the standard reference model run should identify the critical parameters, and the initial conditions, necessary for the feedback effect to operate. This will lead to a better understanding of the sensitivity of the effect to the model parameter values. Such understanding is important in order to correctly interpret the significance of the effect, and to determine under which conditions, if any, such a feedback effect may operate in natural stratigraphic systems.

Thermal subsidence and elastic thickness of the lithosphere

Thermal subsidence and flexure appear to play a key role in the feedback mechanism. Figure 4.5 shows chronostratigraphic diagrams and sediment supply curves from the model run with high and low values for the stretching factors, and high and low values for the lithospheric elastic thickness. The model runs show that the presence of the oscillatory behaviour is unaffected by the changed parameters, although in each case the exact detail of deposition and erosion is changed. The most significant change is the shortening of the duration of the feedback effect shown in the example with higher magnitudes of thermal subsidence (figure 4.5.B). This reduced duration is due simply to the higher magnitudes of thermal subsidence moving the shoreline towards the hinge point more rapidly.

Fluvial and marine profile geometry

These profile geometries are the other two model parameters likely to be of significance to the feedback effect. To test this possibility, figure 4.6 shows another set of four chronostratigraphic diagrams and sediment supply curves from the model run with more and less concave fluvial profile geometries, and two different shoreface geometries. The shoreface geometry does not significantly alter the basic pattern of oscillations and

deposition and erosion of stratigraphy. The geometry of the fluvial profile, however, plays a more important role in the feedback.

The example in figure 4.6.A shows the effect of using a less concave profile. The reduction in profile concavity leads to higher slopes on the lower fluvial profile, and this inhibits the landward movement of the beach, forcing it to move landward in smaller jumps. Consequently the amplitude of the flexural uplift is reduced to such an extent that it no longer acts to block landward beach movement, and the oscillations no longer occur. The example in figure 4.6.B shows that increasing the concavity of the profile has the opposite effect, the lower slopes accentuating the jumps in beach position, leading to increased amplitude sediment supply peaks, and a reduced duration for the feedback.

These sensitivity tests demonstrate that the feedback effect is relatively insensitive to shoreface geometry, but very sensitive to the geometry of the fluvial profile.

Duration of the model time steps

Since the model is a discretised representation of continuous processes, it is important to test, as far as possible, the impact of the discrete model time steps on the feedback effect. The model includes several elements that are not time dependent such as the fluvial and marine profiles, and it is these elements that have the potential to introduce unstable behaviour to the model.

Figure 4.7 shows output from the model run with a time step of 50Kyr, which is half the value used in the standard reference model. Looking at the sediment supply curve it is apparent that the oscillations in sediment supply are still present with the reduced time step. Most significantly, the oscillations in this model run have a period of two or three time steps, as they do in the standard reference model. However, since the model time step in figure 4.7 has been halved, the periodicity of the oscillations has also been halved, from

200 - 300Kyr, to 100 - 150Kyr. This suggests that the periodicity is directly dependent upon the magnitude of the time step used. The total duration of the oscillations in figure 4.7 is thirty five time steps, or 1.75Myr. This is slightly more than half the total duration of 2.95Myr of the oscillations in the standard reference model. Thus halving the model time step halves the periodicity of the sediment supply oscillations, and reduces by a factor of 0.59 the total duration of the oscillations.

Halving the model time step once more to a value of 25Kyr shows a similar result. The period of the oscillations in figure 4.8 is again two to three model steps, or 50 to 75Kyr. The duration of the oscillations has been reduced to thirty six model time steps, or 0.9Myr, which is close to half the duration of 1.75Myr seen in figure 4.7.

These two model runs strongly suggest that the oscillatory behaviour produced by the model with the specified initial conditions and parameter values is a numerical instability created by the discretised nature of the model. The fact that the period of the oscillation is halved when the model time step is halved suggests that the period would approach zero as the model time step approached zero. Figure 4.9 shows a contour plot of sediment supply values produced from one thousand model runs each with twenty five time steps ranging in magnitude from 0.1Kyr to 0.1Myr. The contours pick out the peaks of sediment supply produced by the feedback effect in the model. The first two peaks in each model run occur consistently at model steps one and four for each of the one thousand model runs. Thus the period of the oscillations ranges from 0.3Myr to 0.3Kyr, demonstrating irrevocably that the periodicity is dependent only upon the model time step. Note that the magnitude of the sediment supply peaks decrease as the time step decreases. This is due to the reduced distance of movement of the beach with smaller time steps, and is a further indication of numerical instability.

Figure 4.10 is a plot showing how the timing of the second sediment supply peak varies with model time step duration. The plot demonstrates the well-defined linear trend

between timing of the peak and the model time step for the first twenty model runs shown in figure 4.9. The intercept value on the best fit line is zero which demonstrates that as the time step duration is reduced to zero, the periodicity of the sediment supply is also reduced to zero. Thus the oscillations in the model described can be said with confidence to be the result of a numerical instability resulting from the time-independent discretisation represented by several of the model components.

Flexural response time

Thermal subsidence is the only time dependent component of the model used in the model runs in figures 4.4 to 4.8. This section investigates the effects on model output of introducing a simple time dependency to the flexural component of the model.

Studies of the response of the lithosphere and the asthenosphere to post-glacial unloading (Walcott, 1970a; Walcott, 1970b; Peltier, 1986; Bills and May, 1987; Sigmundson, 1991) suggest that both require a finite period of time in order to return to compensated equilibrium after a loading or unloading event. Walcott (1970b) suggests a response time for the asthenosphere in the order of 10 to 20Kyr on the basis of the continued up-warping of the region of Canada previously covered by the Laurentide Ice Sheet. Sigmundson (1991) suggests a much shorter time period, in the order of 1000 years, from studies of postglacial rebound in Iceland.

The response of the lithosphere to loading and unloading is still poorly understood. There are few data or model information regarding the response of the lithosphere in the period between the very short term, (i.e. 10^3 yrs) when the response is controlled by the seismic thickness of the lithosphere, and the long term (i.e. 10^6 yrs) when the response is controlled by the elastic thickness (Bodine *et al.* 1981). The interval between is controlled by a process of stress relaxation, the understanding of which is crucial to understanding the lithospheric flexural response. Although work has been done regarding stress relaxation

using the concept of the yield strength envelope (e.g. Watts *et al.* 1980; Bodine, 1981; Bodine *et al.* 1981), understanding of the processes involved is still poor.

The response time of the lithosphere to loading and unloading events of various magnitudes and wavelengths may well be important in the behaviour of the feedback effect, and yet as discussed, it is not well understood. In order to test this possibility, the following model runs use a very simple method to spread the flexural response over several model time steps. The methodology is described in detail in section 2.6. Although it is very simplistic, it should be adequate to test the importance of flexural response time to the feedback effect.

Linear flexural response

Figure 4.11 shows a chronostratigraphic diagram and a sediment supply curve from the model run with a time step of 25Kyr and a flexural response time of 0.1Myrs. This is significantly longer than the response time suggested by Walcott (1970b), but the purpose of this model run is simply to test the potential importance of a response time longer than the duration of the model time step. Figure 4.11 shows the effect of this response time on the behaviour of the feedback coupling. The pulses of deposition and erosion have been spread out such that the period between the three major pulses at chron 1, chron 7 and chron 13 has a mean value of 0.163Myrs. The fact that the inclusion of the linear flexural response in this model run changes the periodicity suggests that it contributes significantly to the model behaviour, and thus warrants further investigation.

Figure 4.12 is a contour plot of sediment supply of the same type as that shown in figure 4.9. Exactly the same methodology was used to generate both plots, but the model runs used to produce figure 4.12 included a linear flexural response with a response time of 0.1Myrs. Comparison of the two plots shows that the complexity of the model behaviour has been increased with the inclusion of the linear flexural response. Whereas in figure 4.9

the peaks in sediment supply occur consistently at particular model steps, in figure 4.12 this is no longer the case. For example, for a model time step duration of 40Kyr, the second peak of sediment supply occurs at step five. However, for time step durations of 80Kyr and 20Kyr, the second peak occurs at step seven. The timing of the second peak for time step durations of 20Kyr and less shows an interesting trend. As the time step duration decreases, the peak occurs at later step numbers, reduces in magnitude, and other peaks are introduced at earlier steps.

Converting the model step number to a value of elapsed model time shows that the peak is not occurring at the same E.M.T. This is demonstrated in figure 4.13 which plots the timing of the occurrence of the peak for different time steps. The plot shows that the relationship between the time of the peak occurrence and the model time step is non-linear. The non-linearity has been introduced by the inclusion of the flexural response time.

Thus although the inclusion of the finite flexural response time in the model has added an element of time dependency to the pattern of the oscillations of sediment supply, it has not removed the numerical instability.

4.5 Summary

- 1.** There exists within the model, when run with the initial conditions described, a feedback effect between thermal subsidence, shoreface erosion, flexure and fluvial erosion, which is capable of producing cycles of synthetic stratigraphy without any external periodic forcing.
- 2.** The effect occurs with a variety of initial conditions. Though variations in the initial conditions affect the details of the stratigraphic pattern, the basic pattern produced by the feedback effect is present in all the sensitivity tests which varied thermal subsidence, flexural and geomorphological model parameters.

3. Running the model with different time steps demonstrates that the period of the oscillations in sediment supply is entirely dependent upon the length of the time step used. Peaks in sediment supply always occur at the same chron regardless of the E.M.T. that the chron represents. As the model time step is reduced towards zero, so the period of the oscillation approaches zero. This demonstrates that the feedback effect in the model is a numerical instability resulting from the discretised nature of the model.

4. Running the model with a finite value for the flexural response time that is longer than the length of the time step shows that the inclusion of the response time complicates the unstable behaviour of the model, but does not surmount the fundamental problem of the instability. The timing and period of the oscillations are still dependent on the duration of the time step used, but no longer show a simple linear relationship with time step duration.

5. Although it seems intuitively possible that the feedback mechanism described may occur in natural stratigraphic systems, the stratigraphic model presented here can provide no indication either way of the existence of such a feedback. This is due to the numerical instability inherent in the model as a result of the discretised representation of continuous functions. Further investigation of potential feedback effects would thus require a model formulated with continuous time-dependent equations.

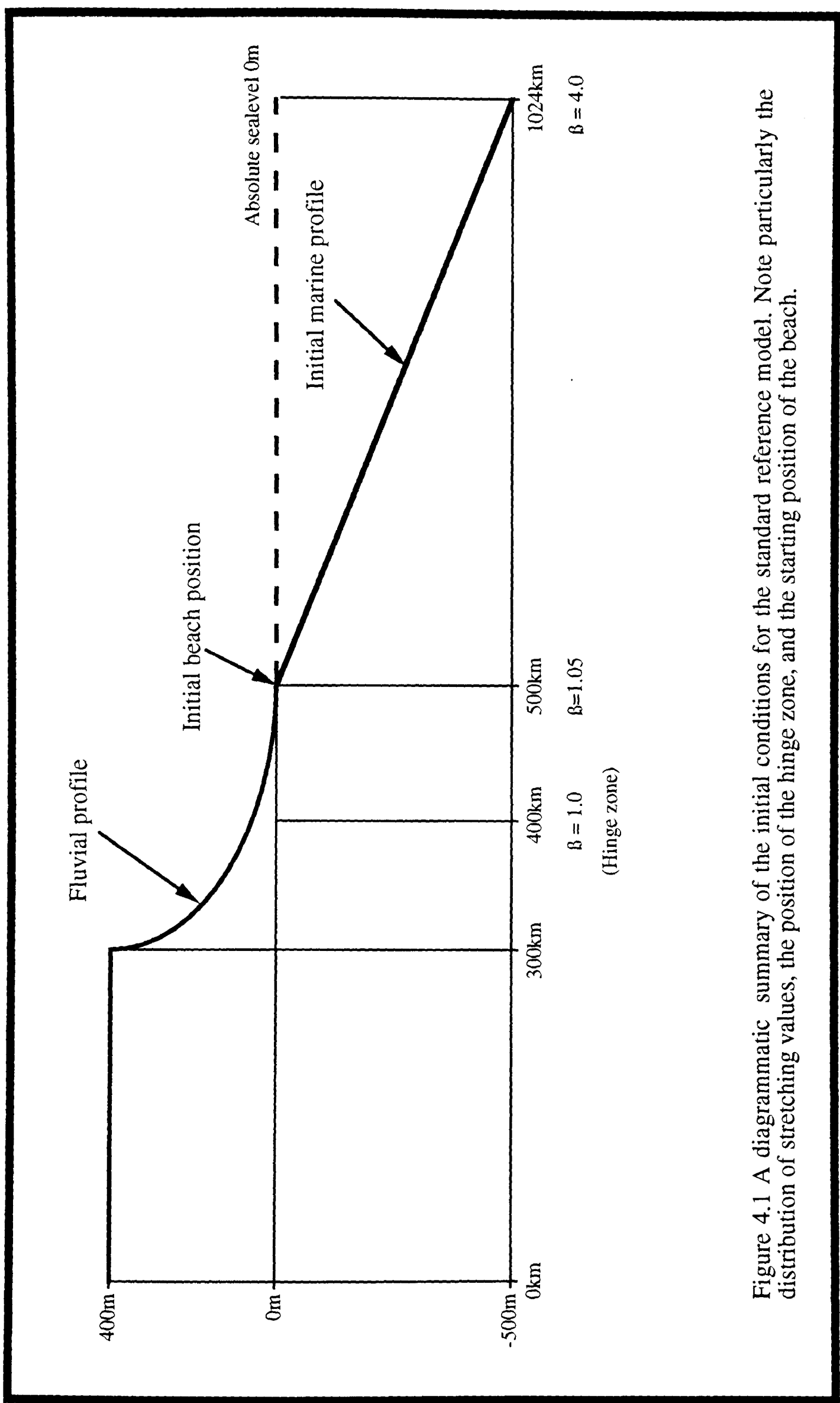
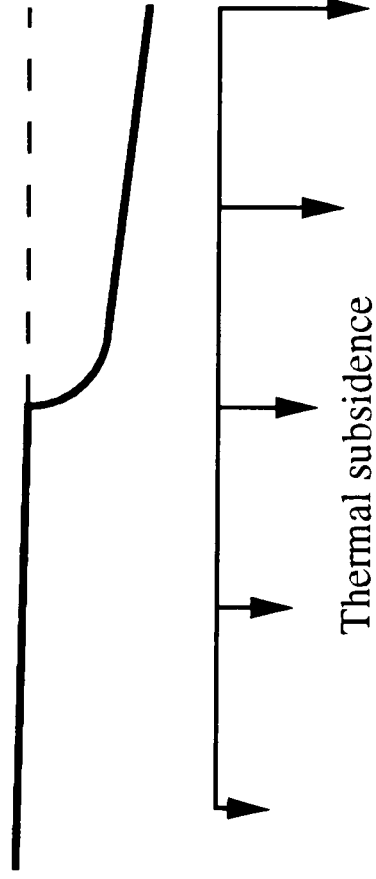
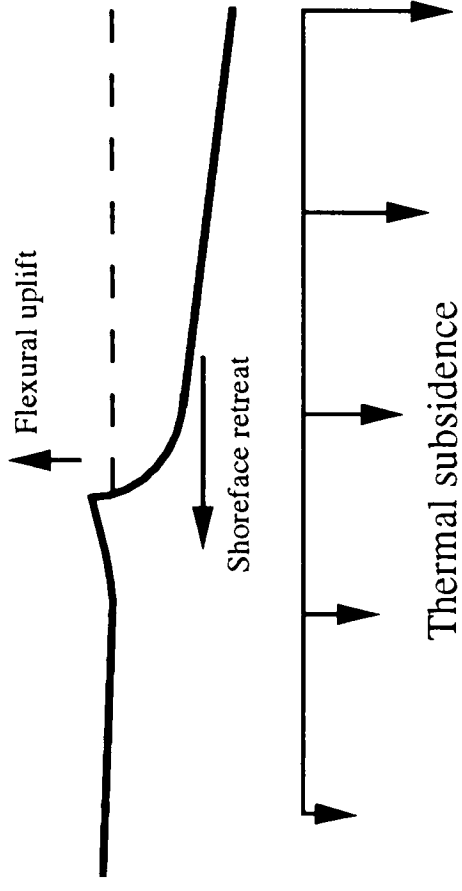


Figure 4.1 A diagrammatic summary of the initial conditions for the standard reference model. Note particularly the distribution of stretching values, the position of the hinge zone, and the starting position of the beach.

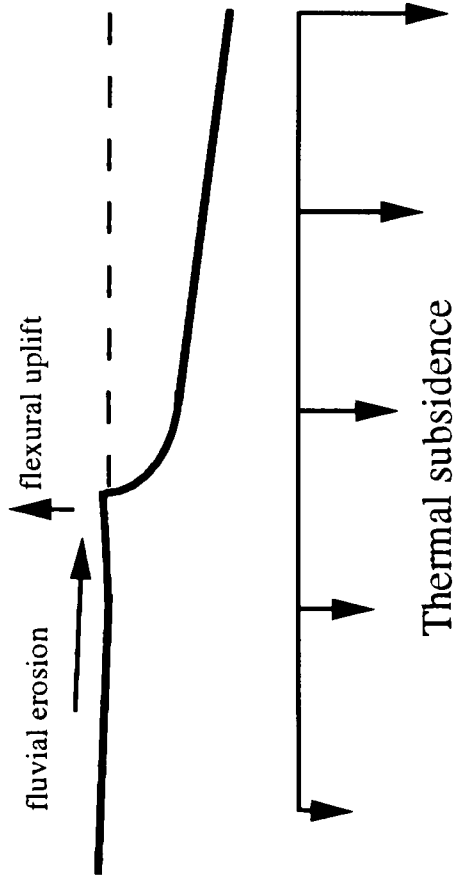
A) Initial conditions - thermal subsidence is set to cause a relative sealevel rise and force the shoreface landwards.



B) Shoreface erosion causes flexural uplift.



C) Fluvial erosion removes the uplift, causing further flexure of lower amplitude.



D) Fluvial erosion and thermal subsidence combine to lower the coastal plain ready for another transgression.

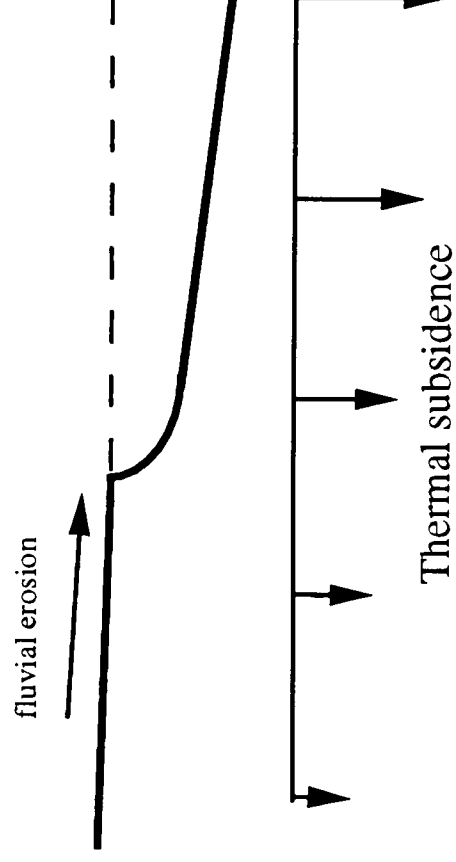


Figure 4.2

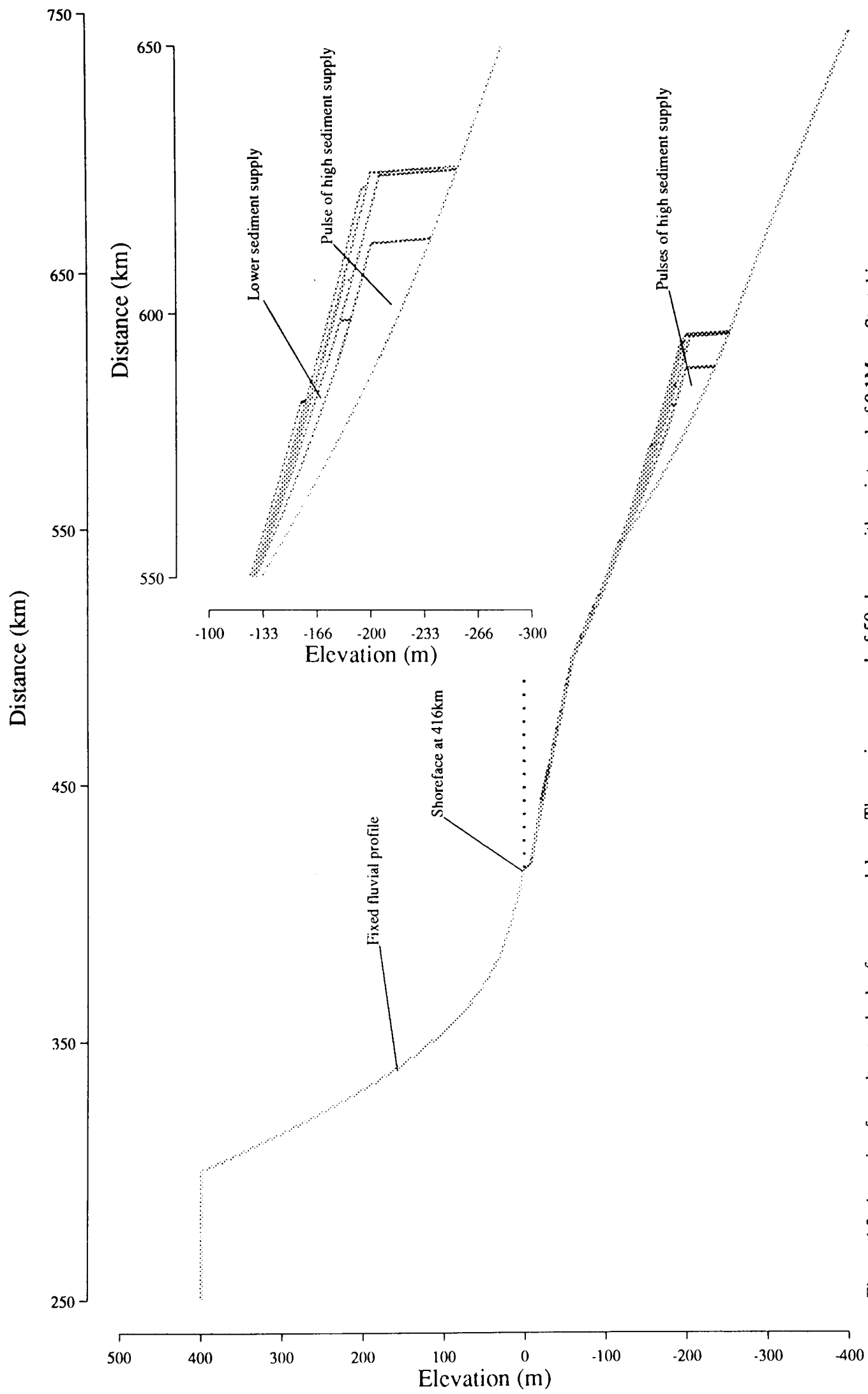


Figure 4.3. A section from the standard reference model run. The run is composed of 50 chrons with an interval of 0.1Myrs. Stretching factors range from 1.0 at 400km, to 1.1 at 500km, and 4.0 at 1000km. Elastic thickness is held constant at 10km. Absolute sealevel is constant at 0m. Sediment supply is calculated from the fluvial and marine profile erosion, with no external sediment input. Significant features of the model run such as the shortend fluvial profile, the erosion on the inner shelf, and the pulses of deposition on the more distal portions of the profile are clearly visible.

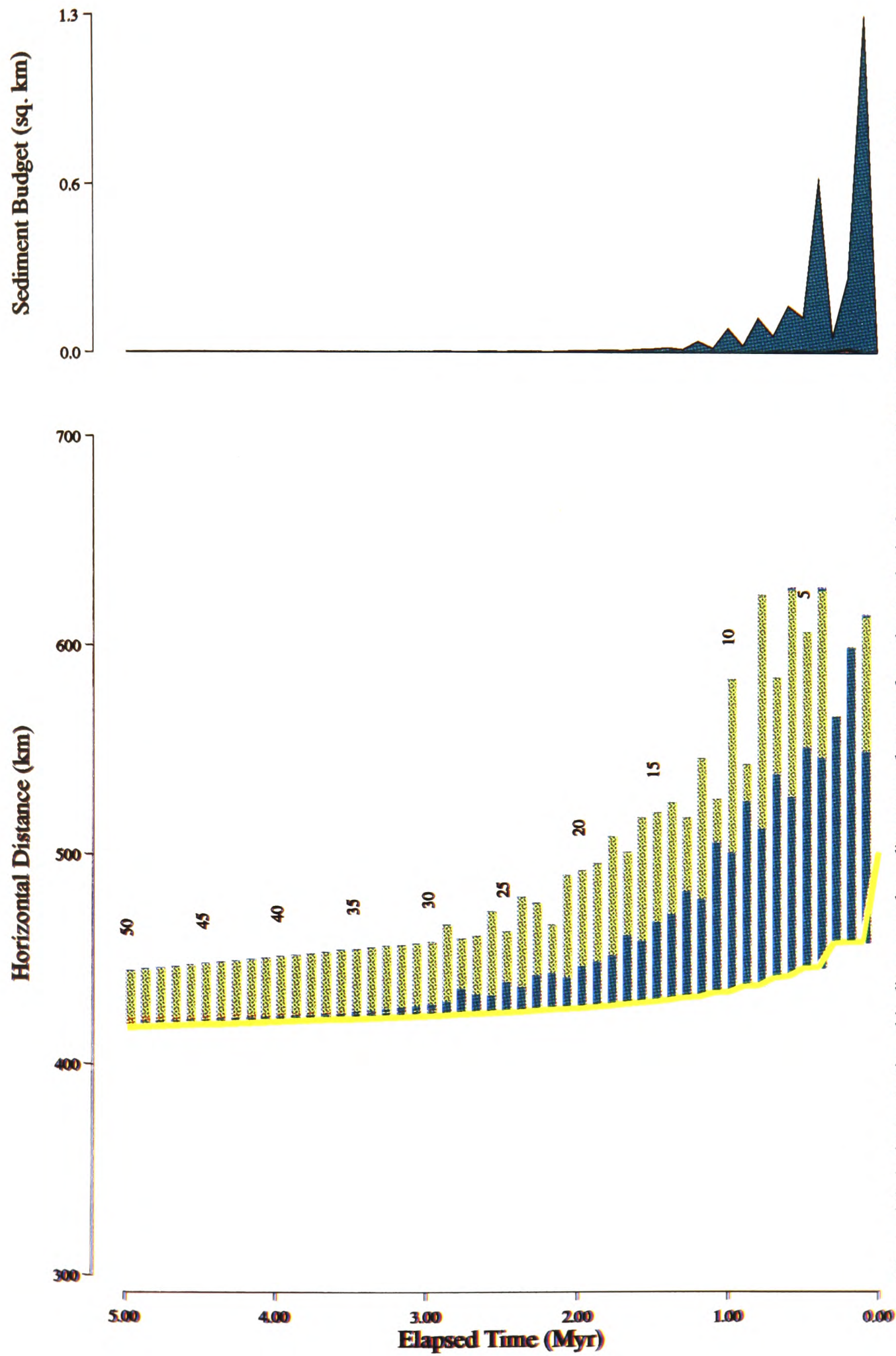


Figure 4.4. A chronostratigraphic diagram and a sediment supply curve from the standard reference model run. The model run is composed of 50 chrons, with an interval of 0.1 Myrs. Stretching factors range from 1.0 at 400 km, to 1.1 at 500 km, and 4.0 at 1000 km. Elastic thickness is held constant at 10 km. Absolute seavel is constant at 0 m. Sediment supply is calculated from fluvial and marine profile erosion, with no external sediment input. Note the cyclicity in the pattern of marine downlap and sediment supply due to the landward jumps in the beach position.

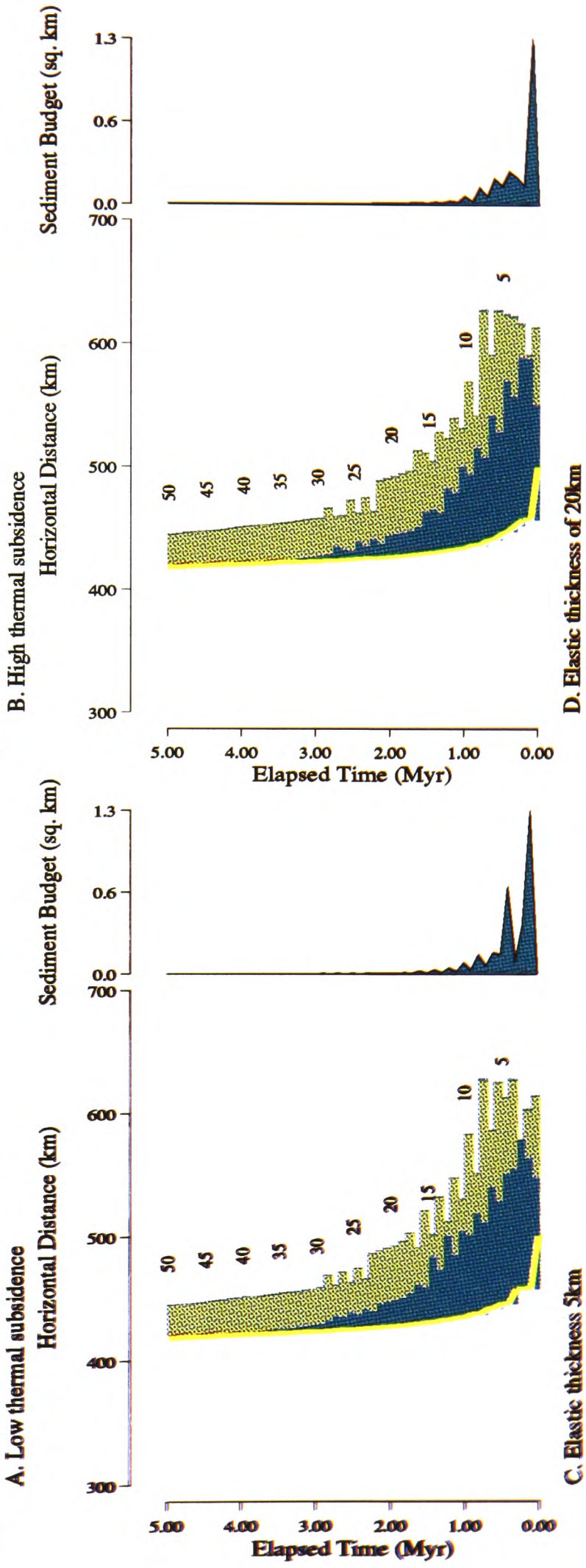
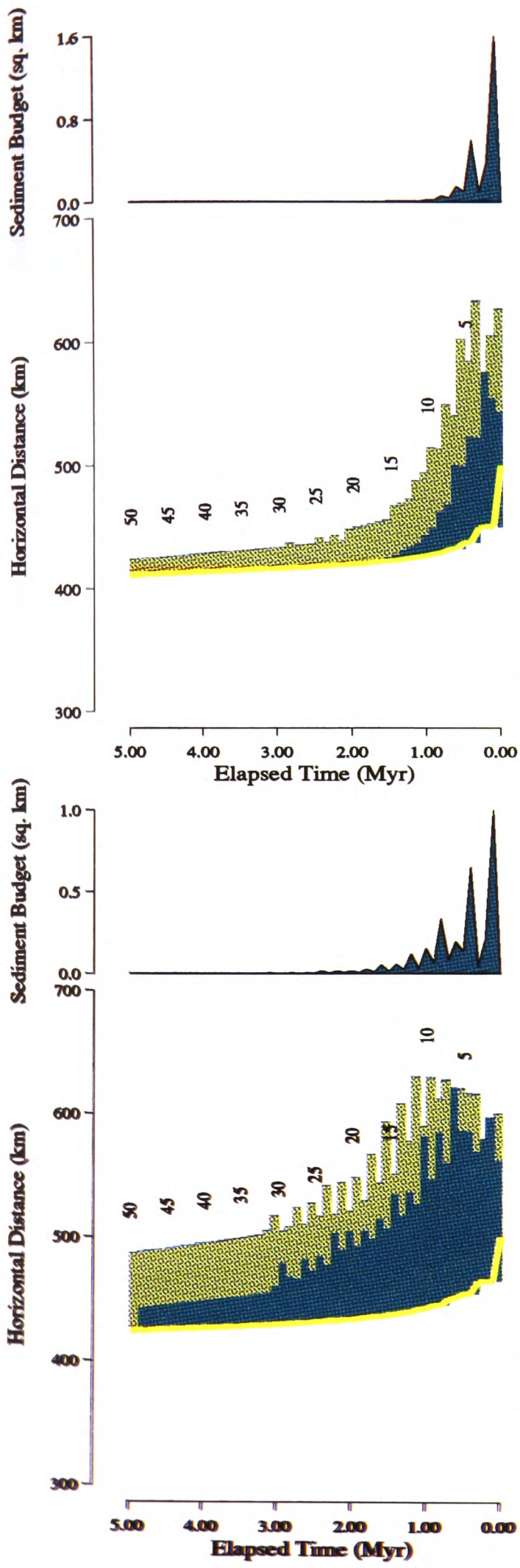


Figure 4.5. Chronostratigraphic diagrams and sediment supply curves from model runs with low and high thermal subsidence, and low and high elastic thickness values. The plots demonstrate that the feedback effect persists for these different model parameters.

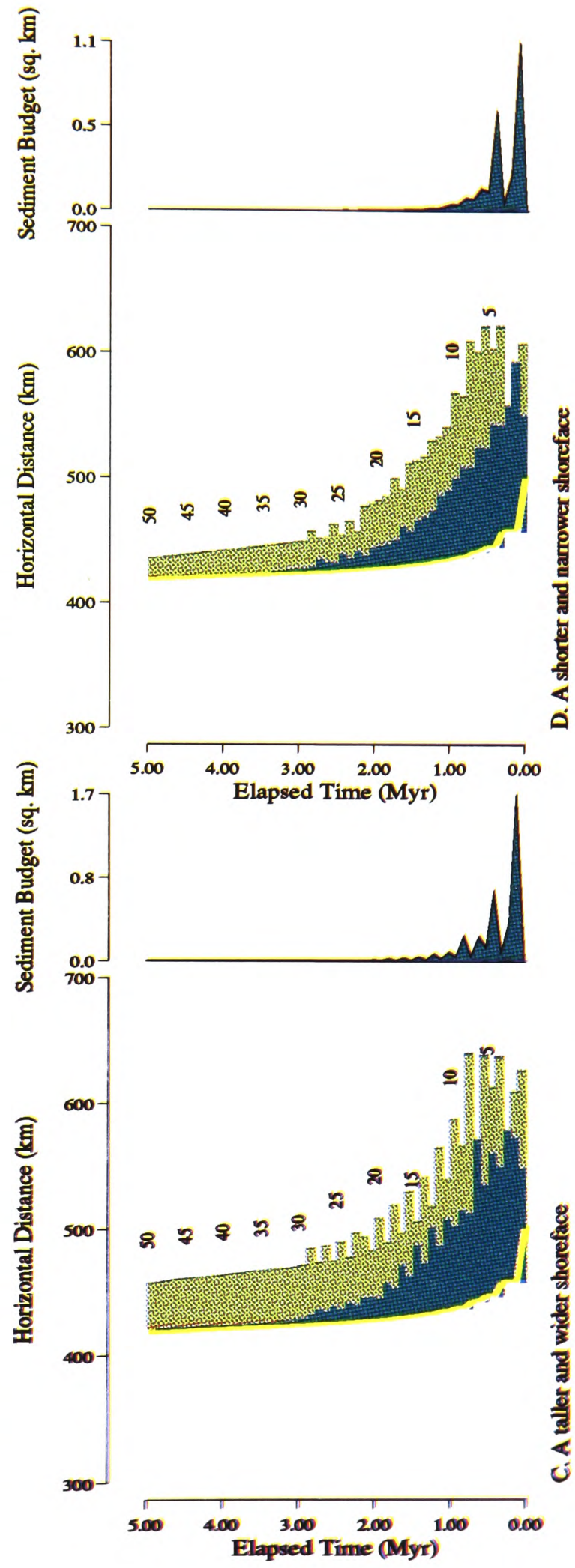
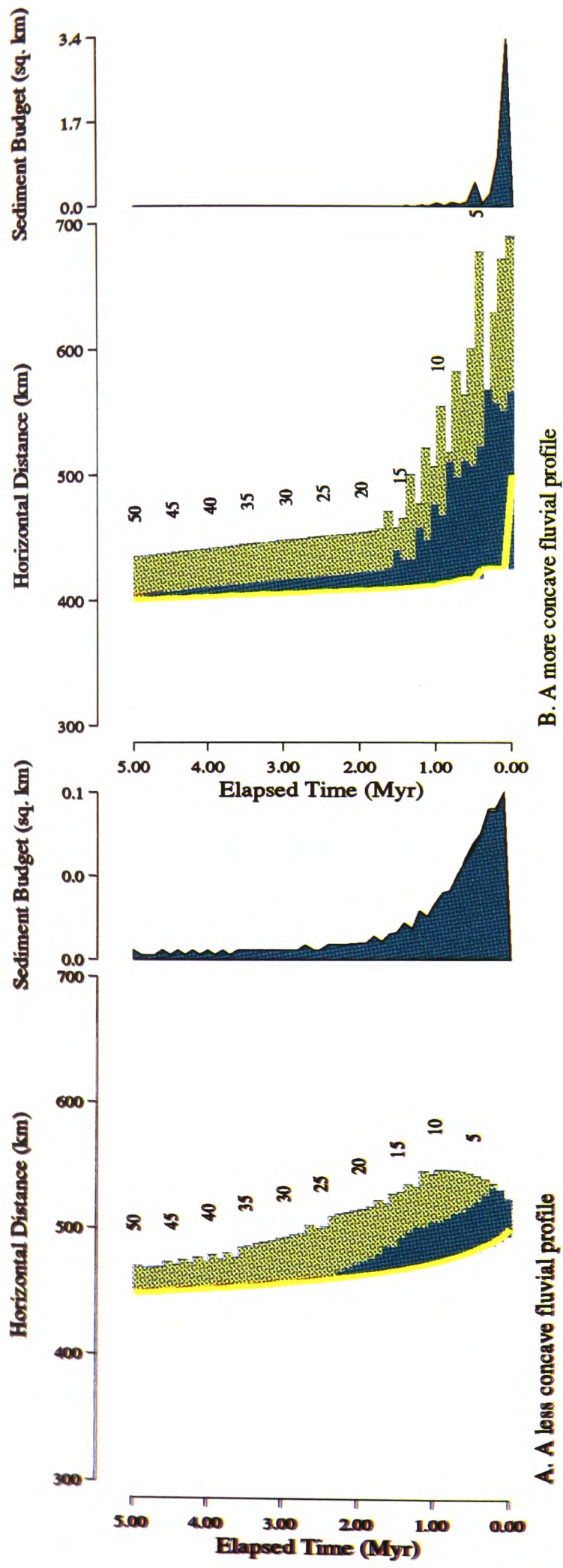
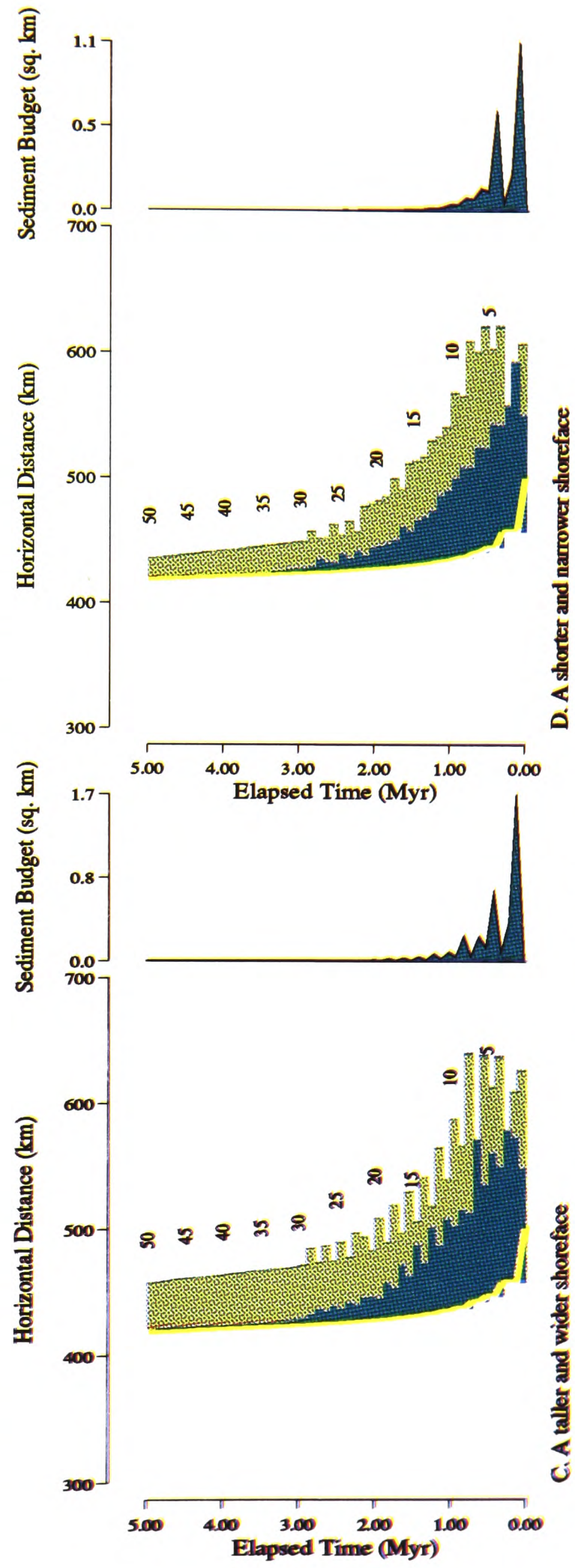
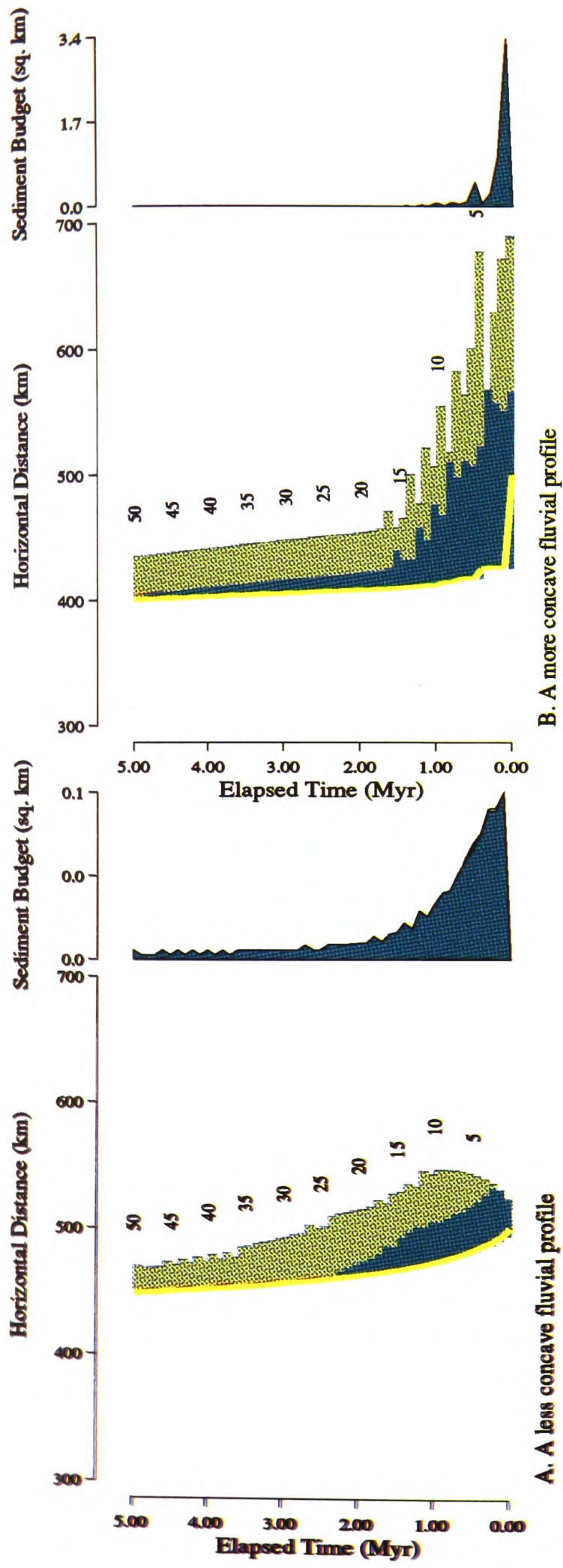


Figure 4.6. Chronostratigraphic diagrams and sediment supply curves from model runs with different fluvial and shoreface profile geometries. The diagram demonstrates the sensitivity of the feedback effect to decreasing the concavity of the fluvial profile, and its relative insensitivity to a more concave fluvial profile and different shoreface geometries.



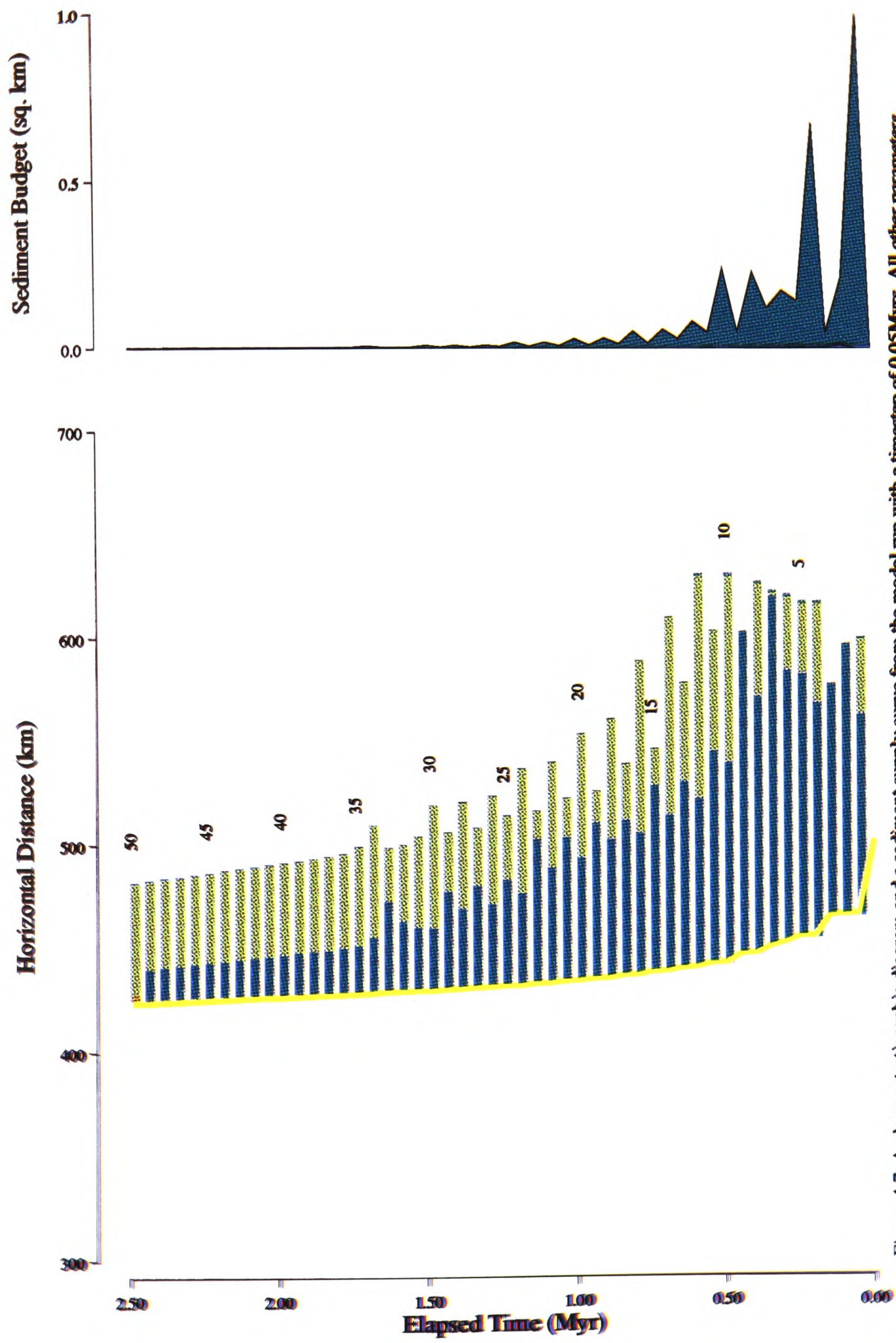


Figure 4.7. A chronostratigraphic diagram and a sediment supply curve from the model run with a timestep of 0.05Myrs. All other parameters are the same as those used in the standard reference model. The halving of the timestep duration has halved the period of the sediment supply oscillations. Note also that the magnitude of the sediment supply has been reduced due to the lower magnitude of thermal subsidence per time step.

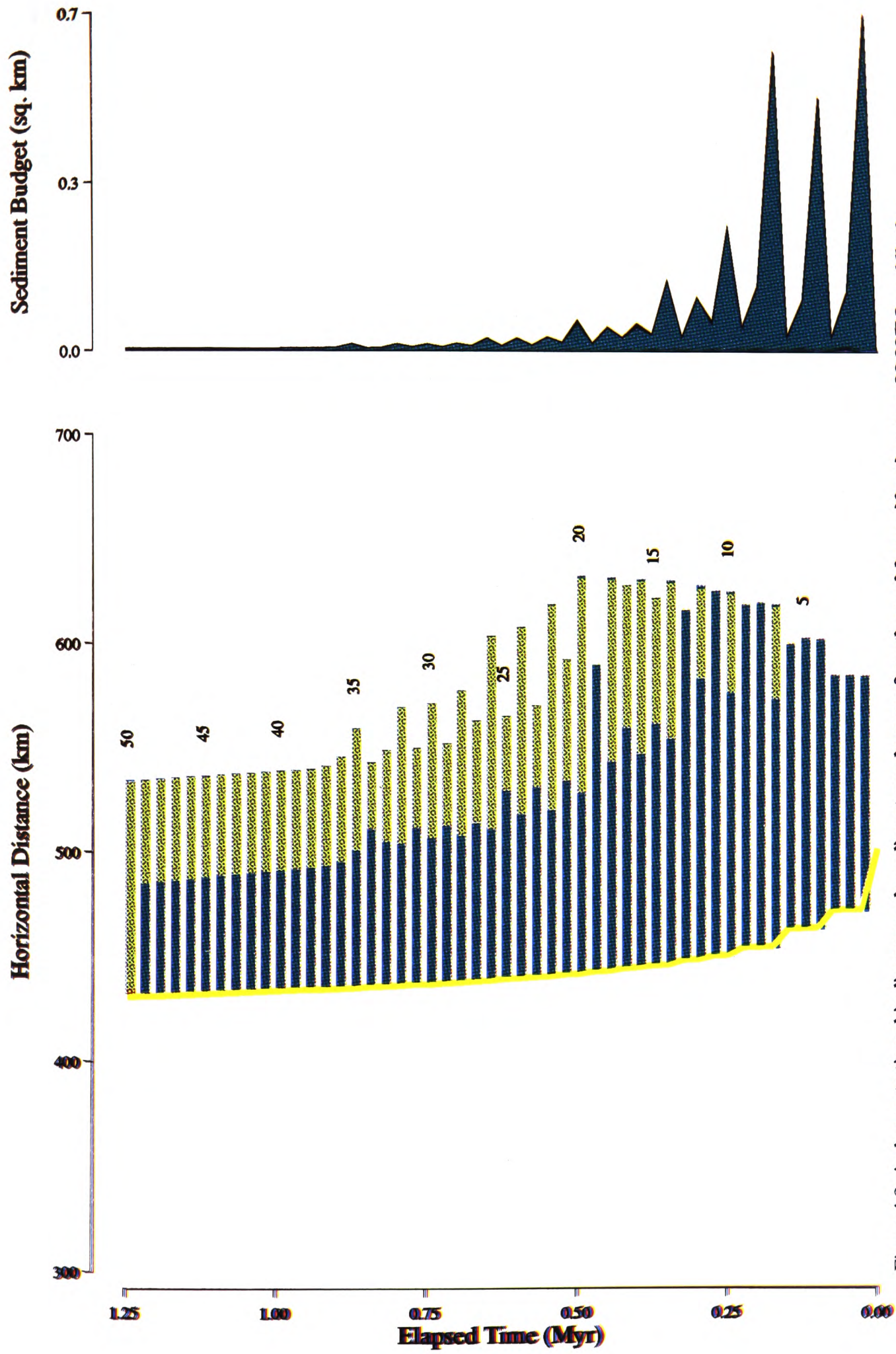


Figure 4.8. A chronostratigraphic diagram and a sediment supply curve from the model run with a timestep of 0.025Myrs. All other parameters are the same as those used in the standard reference model. The period of the oscillations in sediment supply show the same trend as in figure 4.7, i.e. halving the time step has halved the period of the oscillations.

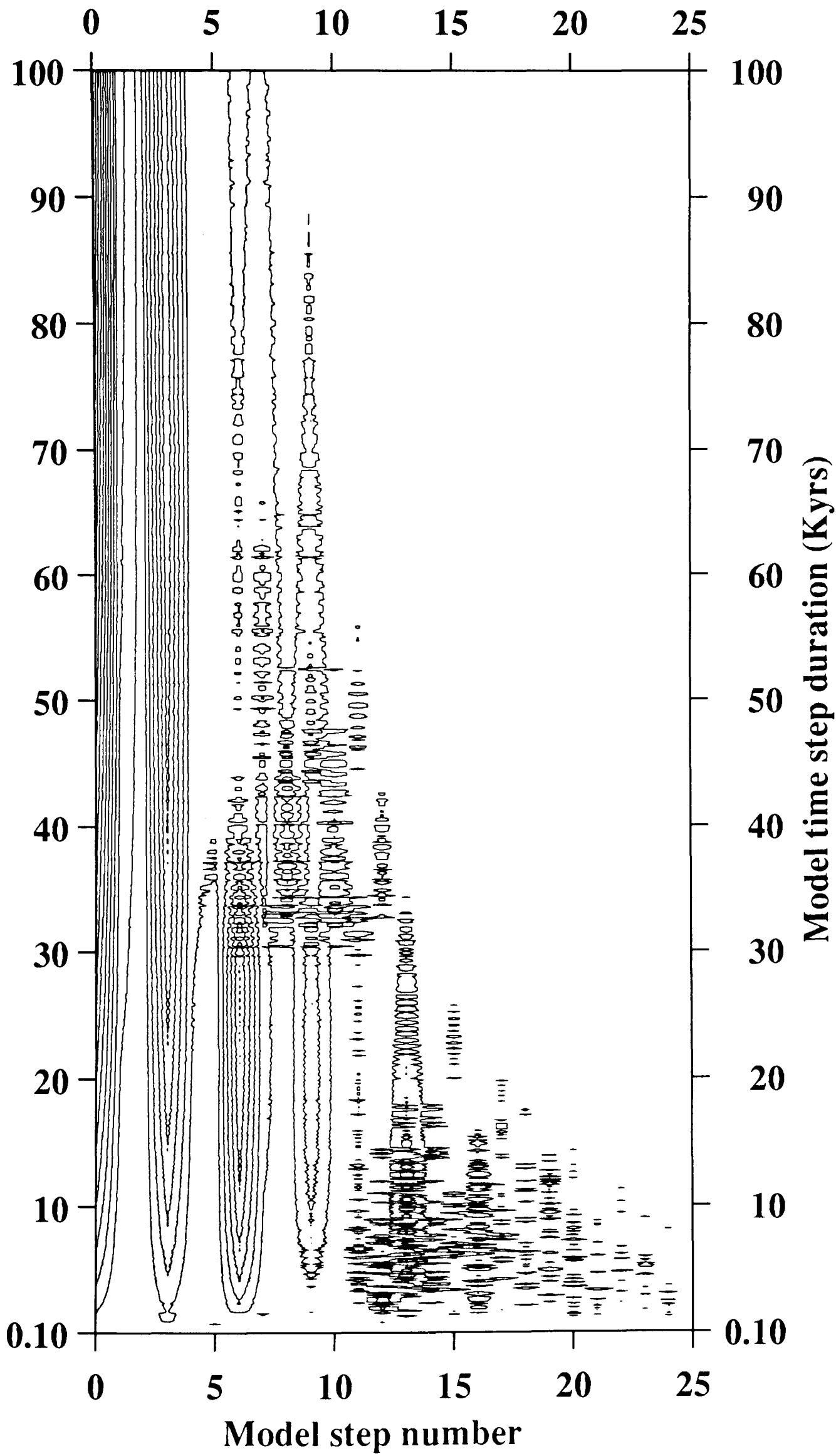


Figure 4.9. A contour plot of sediment supply for 100 model runs, each with twenty five time steps. The model time step duration ranges from 100 years to 0.1Myrs over the 1000 runs. All the other parameters are the same as those used in the standard reference model. The contours are plotted at intervals of 0.1 square kilometres, for a range of values from 0.1 square kilometres to 1.5 square kilometres. The plot illustrates that the periodicity of the peaks in sediment supply is dependent on the model time step used.

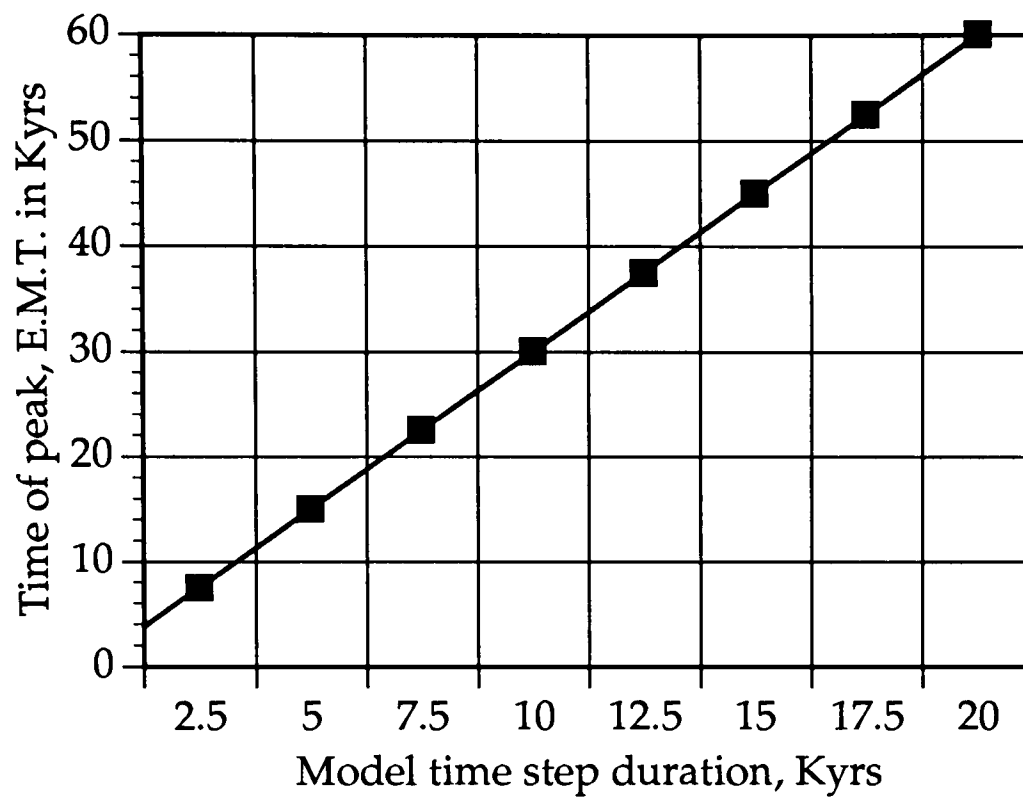


Figure 4.10. A plot to show the relationship between the timing of a sediment supply peak in E.M.T. and the model time step. The values are taken from figure 4.9. The plot shows that there is a simple linear relationship between the timing of the peak and the time step. The intercept on the best-fit line is zero, which shows that the timing of the peak goes to zero as the time step goes to zero.

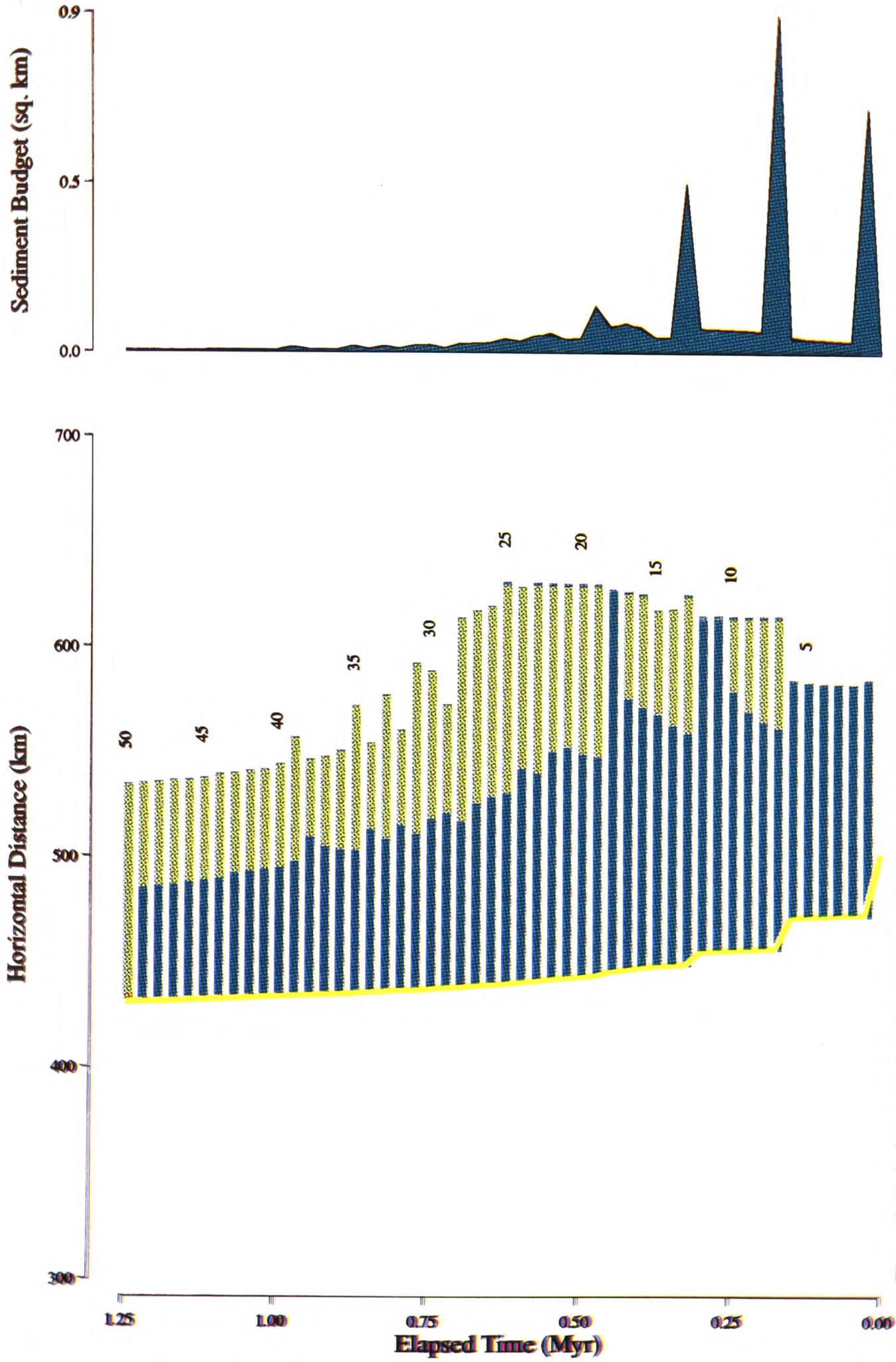


Figure 4.1.1. A chronostratigraphic diagram and a sediment supply curve from the model run with a timestep of 25K yrs and a linear flexural response time of 0.1 Myrs. All other parameters are the same as those used in the standard reference model. The inclusion of the linear flexural response time in the model has increased the number of model timesteps over which the oscillations in sediment supply occur.

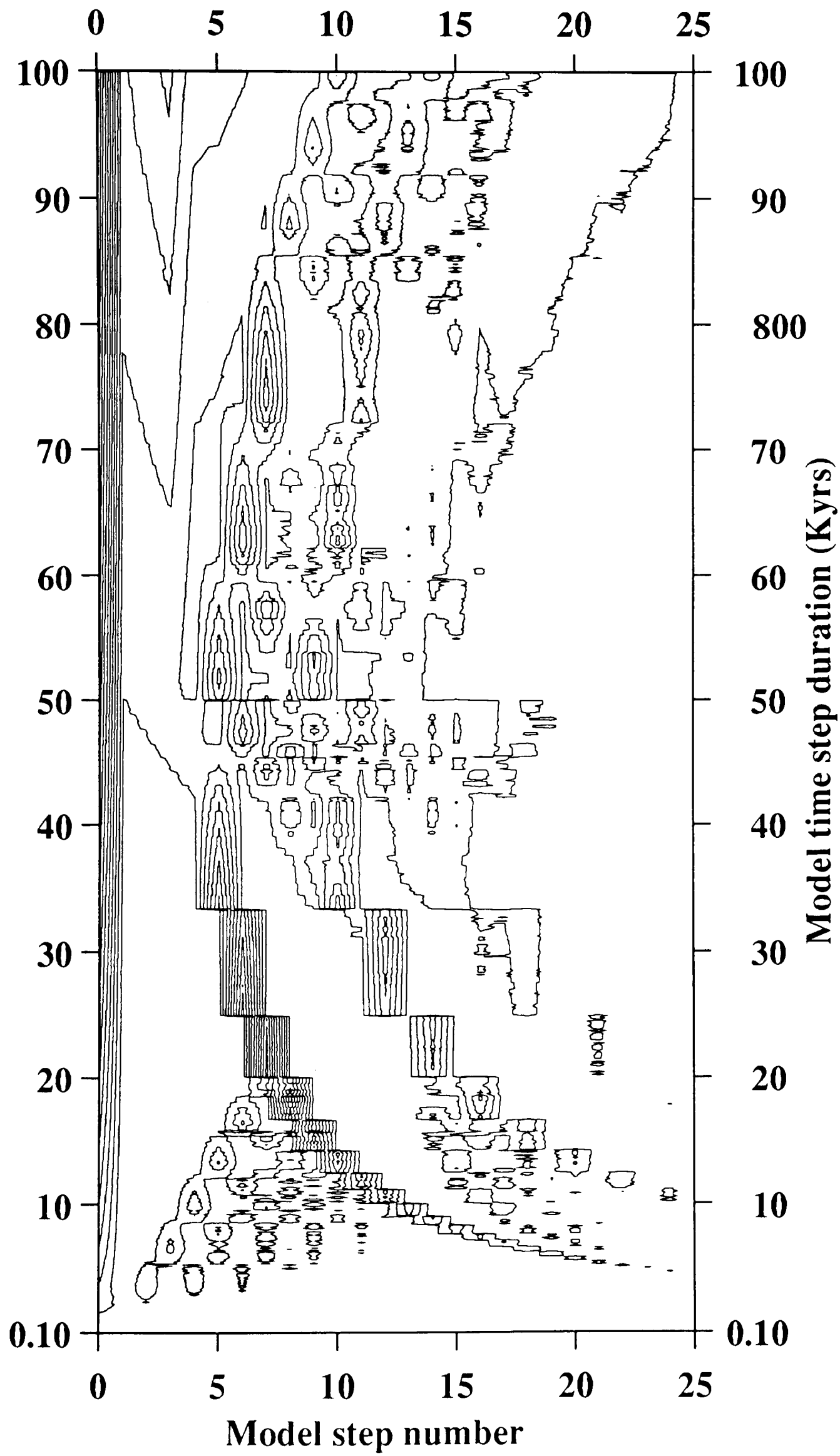


Figure 4.12. A contour plot of sediment supply for 1000 model runs, each with 25 time steps. The model time step duration ranges from 100 years to 0.1 Myrs over the 1000 runs. The model run uses a linear flexural response time of 0.1 Myrs. All the other parameters are the same as those used in the standard reference model. The contours intervals are the same as those in figure 4.9. The introduction of time dependence in the flexure has complicated the relationship between the signal period and the time step duration, particularly for the time step duration of 40 Kyr and less, but the period of the peaks is still not consistently independent of the time step duration.

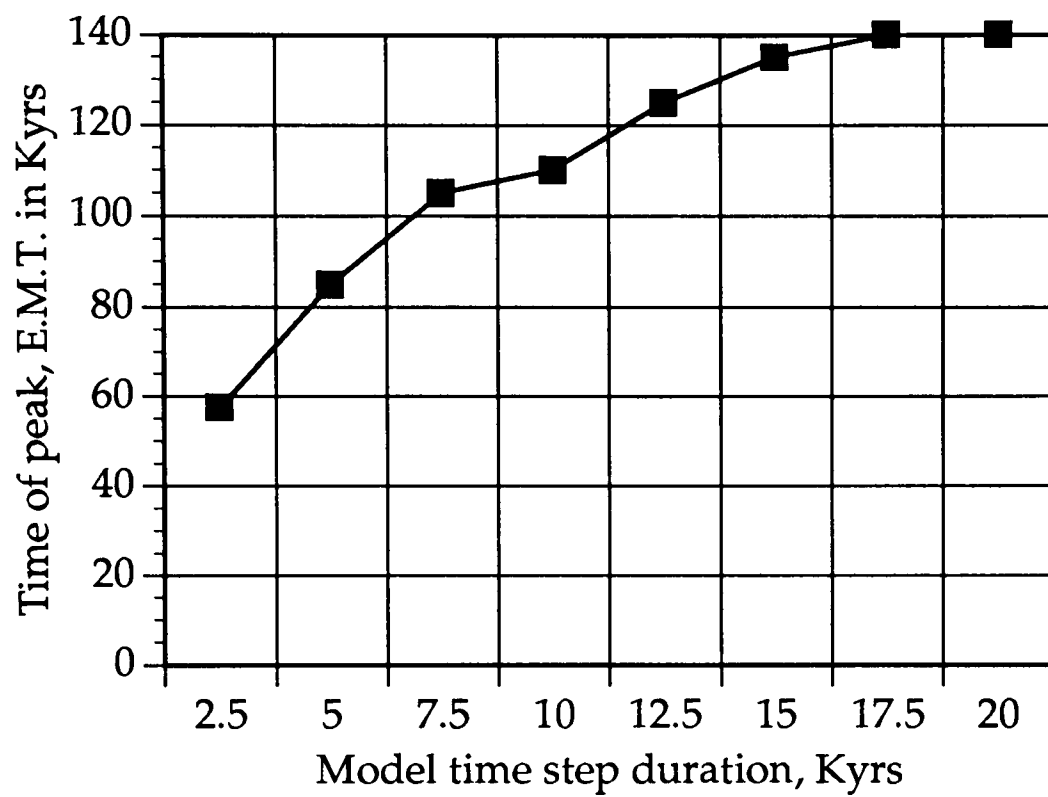


Figure 4.13. A plot to show the relationship between the timing of a sediment supply peak in E.M.T. and the model time step. The values are taken from the model runs with time dependent flexure shown in figure 4.12. The plot demonstrates that the timing of the peak still varies with the time step used, but it shows that the relationship is not a linear one, due to the influence of the flexural response time.

Chapter 5

Chapter 5 - Modelling the Neogene stratigraphy of the North American Atlantic passive rift margin

"My dog barks some. Mentally you picture
my dog, but in fact I have not told you
the type of dog which I have."

(David Lynch, Wild At Heart)

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to test the quantitative stratigraphic model developed here against an actual example of passive rift margin stratigraphy, namely the Neogene stratigraphy of the Atlantic margin of North America. In particular, the model will be used to investigate aspects of the Miocene progradation, such as the sediment supply, subsidence and sealevel history which may have been necessary to cause the progradation. This chapter will also demonstrate that this stratigraphic model is only capable of accurate fits with observed data on a very coarse scale, such as the overall sediment thickness, and the approximate distance of progradation. The model is not accurate enough to produce meaningful fits with observed stratigraphy at a more detailed level. For example, it cannot accurately reproduce details of onlap patterns.

5.2 Previous work on the North American Atlantic passive margin basins - constraints on model output

The stratigraphy on the North American Atlantic margin ranges in age from Triassic to Pleistocene and reaches a maximum thickness in excess of 15km in the Baltimore Canyon Trough (Grow and Sheridan, 1988). Rifting began in the Triassic, with the synrift phase of basin evolution lasting into the Jurassic when postrift thermal subsidence began (Klitgord *et al.* 1988). The tectonic and stratigraphic history of the margin has been deduced from a

mixture of interpretation of surface, subsurface and geophysical data (e.g. Klitgord *et al.* 1988,) and modelling studies (e.g. Watts, 1982; Steckler and Watts, 1982; Sawyer *et al.* 1983).

5.2.1 Chronostratigraphy

There exists a large and comprehensive database on the stratigraphy of the North American Atlantic margin (e.g. Poag and Valentine, 1988; Riggs and Belknap, 1988; Greenlee *et al.* 1992) based upon both surface and subsurface data. Greenlee *et al.* (1988) provides the most useful synthesis of stratigraphic data derived from seismic and borehole evidence which is displayed as both interpreted seismic sections and chronostratigraphic diagrams. Figure 5.1 shows the location of the seismic line and the surrounding boreholes. Figure 5.2 shows the seismic line, the interpreted seismic line, and the chronostratigraphic diagram from Greenlee *et al.* (1988). Throughout this chapter, the uninterpreted seismic data is referred to as observational data, while the interpreted seismic data, and the chronostratigraphic diagram are referred to as interpreted data. Figure 5.3 is modified from the chronostratigraphic chart from Greenlee *et al.* (1988). The interpreted data can be used to compare directly with model output. However, before doing this, it is important to examine the data and determine how it was derived, in order to appreciate possible biases of interpretation and other such weaknesses.

The chronostratigraphic diagram in plate 7 of Greenlee *et al.* (1988), shown in figure 5.2, and summarised in figure 5.3, shows the lateral extent through time of fluvial, coastal plain, nearshore marine, and slope basin sediments. However, little information is given regarding the exact methodology by which this information was derived. The age of the units shown on the chart was established on the basis of biostratigraphic age dating from available wells (figure 5.1), and correlation with the global cycles chart of Haq *et al.* (1988).

Greenlee *et al.* (1992) describe problems with the biostratigraphy relating to, for example, downhole sampling problems, and the limited environmental distribution of many of the diagnostic species of foraminifera used. As a result, the resolution of the dating of any particular surface is only plus or minus one or two million years. This limit on the resolution of the dating of the stratigraphy is of particular interest since the chronostratigraphic chart shows many breaks in deposition, which are presumably based on the biostratigraphic age data for the units and the correlation to the global cycles chart. With the limited resolution, such correlations may be particularly susceptible to the problems with correlation described by Mial (1992). If these data are prone to error, the interpretation of units separated by discrete breaks is suspect. Hence, in figure 5.3 no breaks are shown in the stratigraphy, except where there is observational evidence of erosion on an unconformity.

The distribution of the environments through time appears to have been based on observation of the seismic characteristics of the dated reflectors on the seismic line, i.e. the seismic facies. The methodology for this procedure for marine clastic sediments was described in Sangree and Widmier (1977) and Mitchum *et al.* (1977), but the procedure would appear to be very subjective and prone to interpretative error. For example, a fluvial mud will have the same acoustic impedance and other such physical characteristics as a marine mud, may well show the same type of reflector geometry (e.g. shingled, hummocky), and will have undergone similar post-depositional processes of diagenesis and compaction. Therefore, the suggested distribution of the environments from Greenlee *et al.* (1988), particularly the transition from fluvial to coastal plain and nearshore marine, should be treated with extreme caution. However, in the absence of better publicly available data (i.e. logged cores), this data must suffice for modelling comparisons.

Both the problems with the dating of reflector surfaces and the difficulty in accurately identifying the distribution of depositional environments from the seismic data must cast doubt upon the sequence stratigraphic interpretation being placed upon the observed

stratigraphy. For example, there appears to be no direct evidence on the seismic section for rapid landward or seaward movements of the beach, as suggested by Schroeder and Greenlee (1992). As already discussed, direct observational evidence for breaks in deposition as shown on the chronostratigraphic chart of Greenlee *et al.* (1988), are also lacking. These examples illustrate the potential pitfalls involved in the application of the sequence stratigraphic methodology beyond the limits of the data available.

5.2.2 Tectonics and subsidence history

Much previous work has concentrated on attempting to deduce the overall tectonic structure of the passive margin (e.g. Klitgord *et al.*, 1988; Sheridan *et al.*, 1988; Grow *et al.*, 1988; Watts, 1988) and in particular the subsidence history of the passive margin (e.g. Watts and Steckler, 1979; Steckler *et al.* 1988). Both areas of work provide essential data regarding attempts at quantitative forward modelling. In particular, Watts (1988) gives estimates for the crustal and subcrustal stretching factors on the passive margin, based upon subsidence studies. These are used as parameter values in the model (see section 5.3). Smith *et al.* (1976) gives values for palaeobathymetry in the COST-B2 well through the Miocene. These values are very useful, since they can be used to constrain the model output.

5.2.3. Eustatic curves

Figure 5.3 shows three eustatic sealevel curves derived from or used in, studies of North American Atlantic margin stratigraphy. The first of these curves is the Watts and Steckler (1979) curve. This was derived from backstripping studies by comparing a least squares fit exponential curve with the actual backstripped curve, and assuming that the difference is due to eustatic sealevel changes. The second curve is the Haq *et al.* (1988) curve. This was derived from studies of coastal onlap made within the framework of the sequence stratigraphic depositional model (Vail *et al.*, 1977a), and is thus based upon the

assumption that coastal onlap is controlled by fluctuations in eustatic sealevel, so that where global synchronicity can allegedly be established, the coastal onlap curve can be taken to represent eustatic fluctuations.

The third curve is the Greenlee and Moore (1988) curve. This was also calculated using coastal onlap and the sequence stratigraphic depositional model, but was based purely on interpretations of data from the Baltimore Canyon Trough, while the Haq *et al.* (1988) curve claims to be a more regional synthesis of stratigraphic interpretation. Despite this, the two curves share some common features i.e. the gross timing of most falls and rises. If the curves were derived from widely separated localities, this would strengthen the case for a global control on coastal onlap patterns, but this geographical diversity has yet to be demonstrated, and would still not be conclusive. The two curves also have quite different amplitudes. For example, the maximum amplitude of the Haq *et al.* curve is 144m above present sealevel, while the maximum amplitude of the Greenlee and Moore curve is 68m. This discrepancy must also cast doubt on the validity of one or both of the curves. The validity and use of the curves is discussed further in section 5.4.

5.2.4. Previous modelling work

Steckler and Watts (1982) studied the subsidence of the North American Atlantic margin via backstripping, and modelled the total stratigraphy using a thermo-mechanical model. The thermal element of the model was based on McKenzie (1978) and the mechanical element was derived from models of flexural isostasy with a time dependent elastic thickness. The model reproduces at a very coarse scale some of the elements of passive margin stratigraphy such as the approximate maximum thickness of the synrift and postrift sediment, and the gross pattern of stratal onlap on the Coastal Plain. Steckler and Watts (1982) suggested that this onlap was due to the increasing flexural rigidity of the lithosphere with age, rather than eustasy (Vail *et al.* 1977b) or two-layer lithospheric stretching (White and McKenzie, 1988).

Watts and Thorne (1984) developed this model further by adding two-layer stretching (e.g. Hellinger and Sclater, 1983), sediment compaction, a very simplistic model for subaerial erosion, based upon an average elevation algorithm acting upon the flexural forebulge, and changes in absolute sealevel. It was claimed that this model could reproduce the basic details of the observed stratigraphy on the North American Atlantic margin. However, there are several problems with this claim. Firstly, there is the problem of scale. Although the model does reproduce the overall pattern of stratal onlap, it does so at a time scale which is large enough to miss much of the finer detail, such as possible third order cycles. For example, the model groups the Aptian stage into one chron. Hence any detail during the Aptian is not reproduced by the model. Therefore, it is not viable to claim that the model negates the necessity for higher-order sealevel variations such as those proposed by Vail *et al.* (1977b).

The second problem with the Watts and Thorne (1984) model is related to the processes included in the model, and the way in which these processes are modelled. If the assumptions behind the model are weak, for example, constant palaeobathymetry over the duration of the model run, constant compaction, and a very simplistic model for erosion, then this weakens the conclusions which may be safely drawn from the model results.

The problem is also related to scale, since such assumptions probably do not significantly weaken the conclusion that thermal subsidence and flexural subsidence due to sediment loading are the most important controls on the overall development of the passive margin stratigraphy. However, they are important when looking, for example, at the details of the stratigraphy on the Coastal Plain. Thus it seems important to try and look at sections of the stratigraphy on the North American Atlantic margin using a model with a finer time resolution and a set of assumptions which are more suited to modelling stratigraphy at finer scale, both temporal and spatial.

Schroeder and Greenlee (1993) examined the stratigraphy of the North American Atlantic margin at a finer temporal scale with a quantitative model which attempted to reproduce the observed stratigraphy in the Neogene, over a period of approximately 18Myrs, and thus test the applicability of a variety of eustatic sealevel curves for this period. No details of the formulation of the model are given, except for some very crude flowcharts to indicate the sequence of events to generate each chron. Stratigraphy is modelled at each time step by taking the position on the eustatic curve, and then generating a geometric shape based on this position. For example, if the current portion of the eustatic curve was the lowstand limb, the model would generate a triangular wedge onlapping on the front of previous model stratigraphy. Thus, the model appears to be a model of a model, in that it is derived entirely from the conceptual sequence stratigraphic models of Vail *et al.* (1984), Jervey (1988), Posamentier *et al.* (1988) and Posamentier and Vail (1988). This approach has some very obvious drawbacks in terms of a lack of direct links with observed stratigraphic processes, and a large element of circular reasoning.

For example, Schroeder and Greenlee (1993) conclude that the sealevel curves of Haq *et al.* (1988) and Greenlee and Moore (1988), which include high-frequency eustatic oscillations, better fit the interpreted data than the curve of Watts and Steckler (1979), which lacks such high-frequency eustatic oscillations. However, the Haq *et al.* (1988) and Greenlee and Moore (1988) curves were calculated using the sequence stratigraphic model, the quantitative model of Schroeder and Greenlee (1993) was developed using the sequence stratigraphic model, with little or no reference to actual observed stratigraphic processes, and the data used for testing that model was interpreted using the sequence stratigraphic model (Greenlee *et al.* 1988). Central to the sequence stratigraphic model is the need for eustasy as a driving mechanism for variations in coastal onlap, and stratal geometry. Therefore, the conclusion of Schroeder and Greenlee (1993) regarding which eustatic curve best fits the interpreted data, is not surprising, and is probably not significant, being purely a function of a circular methodology.

Schroeder and Greenlee (1993) also concluded that the "Miocene progradation event", in which clinoforms prograded approximately 100km across the passive margin, was caused by higher than average sediment supply, combined with a low magnitude of thermal subsidence, and a second-order eustatic sealevel fall. Though this seems quite possible, it is important to test this interpretation further with more sensitivity tests using a more sophisticated model with some different basic assumptions.

The model used here has already been extensively described in chapter 2. The model has a strong link with those described in Steckler and Watts (1982) and Watts and Thorne (1984). All these stratigraphic models invoke a lithospheric stretching model, in the form of either the one layer model of McKenzie (1978) or a two-layer model (e.g. Hellinger and Sclater, 1983), and flexural isostasy, which together seem capable of accounting for the gross architecture of passive margin stratigraphy (Watts et al., 1982). The predominant difference between those previous models, and the model presented here is the higher time resolution of this model, which can be applied to periods of 20 - 30Myrs. Previous models such as Watts and Thorne (1984) are applicable for longer periods of up to 150Myrs. The higher time resolution, and the inherent different model assumptions and components, are essential in order to further investigate the details of passive margin stratigraphy, rather than the overall gross architecture, as has been done previously (Steckler and Watts, 1982; Watts and Thorne, 1984).

However, looking at stratigraphy at finer time scales (i.e. 10 -20Myr periods) raises the problem of the complexity of the sedimentary and geomorphological systems in comparison with the relatively simplistic nature of current stratigraphic models. This discrepancy in complexity means that any fits between model output and observed data are going to be generally low-resolution fits. In the case presented here, a broad fit between observed clinoform structure, sediment thickness, and distance of progradation is being aimed for. Details of onlap patterns and erosion patterns are very unlikely to match due to the discrepancy in complexity. A significant increase in model complexity and

sophistication, in terms of the processes included, and basic assumptions such as two-dimensionality, will be necessary to make more progress at this higher resolution time scale.

5.3 Initial standard model conditions

The total model run time is set to be 15Myrs. This model run time is split into 150 time steps, each of 0.1Myrs duration. This model duration represents the period from 18Ma, in the Early Miocene, to 3Ma in the Late Pliocene. This time interval was chosen because it spans the duration of the Miocene progradation being studied, but the exact timing was chosen on the basis of the chronostratigraphic chart of Greenlee *et al.* (1988) which covers this period of geological time.

As already discussed in section 5.2.1, the large-scale tectonic evolution of the North American Atlantic margin has been well studied (e.g. Watts and Steckler, 1979; Watts and Thorne, 1984; Klitgord *et al.* 1988; Watts, 1988; Watts, 1989) and seems to be well understood. Watts (1988) gave crustal and subcrustal stretching values across the Baltimore Canyon Trough estimated from backstripping, and gravity modelling across the basin. These values have been used as the initial conditions for crustal and subcrustal stretching in the model (figure 5.4) using the two-layer stretching model of Hellinger and Sclater (1983). The initial thermal age of the model is taken to be 180Myrs, which represents in the model the time elapsed since the end of the synrift phase of basin subsidence. This age is chosen on the basis of the age of the oldest sediments known to overlie the postrift unconformity which are thought to be Early or possibly Middle Jurassic in age (Klitgord *et al.* 1988; Poag and Valentine, 1988).

This value for the thermal age of the lithosphere is also used in the initial conditions for the modelled flexure. The standard reference model uses a time-dependent T_e where T_e is equal to approximately three times the square root of the thermal age of the lithosphere

(see section 2.6). This gives values in a range from 40.2km at 0Myrs E.M.T., to 41.89km at 15Myrs E.M.T. The value of T_e does not vary with distance along the profile. The T_e is high enough during the Miocene that such variations would make little difference to the final stratigraphy, since the amplitudes of flexure are so small.

The initial topography for the standard model run was selected on the basis of a combination of present day topographic data and estimates of shelf morphology and water depth at 18Ma. The maximum elevation of the profile at its landward end is set at 150m, which is based on the present elevation of the edge of the Coastal Plain (Klitgord, 1988). The submarine topography is derived from measurements of the clinoform height on the 18Ma chron on the interpreted seismic section of Greenlee *et al.* (1988), using the given value for vertical exaggeration with reference to the horizontal scale. These measurements suggest a probable initial water depth of, very approximately, 600m in front of the prograding clinoforms (e.g. the 17.5Ma clinoform at approximately 45km from the landward end of the profile), and increasing basinward. The initial topography, therefore, consists of a slope from 0m at the initial beach position at 400km, to -600m at 450km, -700m at 500km, and -2000m at 1024km.

A fluvial profile 200km in length is cut into this topography. The length of the profile is based on measurements of modern rivers on the Coastal Plain, and on the width of the present Coastal Plain (Klitgord, 1988). The profile is modelled using a complementary error function with an arbitrary length scale value of 2.0 (see section 2.6.5.2) The landward limit of the fluvial profile is fixed in position, since the Coastal Plain does not appear to have widened to any significant degree by headward movement of the limit of fluvial deposition during the Neogene (Judson, 1975).

A fluvial-marine partitioning coefficient of 0.11 is used (see section 2.5.7). This is a very difficult parameter to constrain, yet it is critical to the stratigraphic patterns produced. In this case, the value for the parameter was chosen to provide a fit with the interpreted data.

However, some very loose constraint on the value can be derived from studies of areas of deposition of modern deltas. Comparison of the subaerial and submarine planform areas of the Delaware river delta suggest a fluvial-marine partitioning coefficient value of 0.16 (Pers. comm., Hovius, 1993). This value is surprisingly close to the value chosen on the basis of the model fit.

The marine equilibrium profile consists of a shoreface 10km in width and 20m in height, a shelf with a gradient of 0.5mkm^{-1} , and a continental slope with a gradient of 4.366mkm^{-1} . These values are based on the present morphology of the North American Atlantic margin (Shor and McClennen, 1988). Three different eustatic curves (figure 5.4) are used in the model runs. The curves were taken from Schroeder and Greenlee (1993). Sediment supply was held steady for the standard run at 0.48km^2 per 100Kyr time step. This value was chosen to produce a fit in the model with the observed distance of clinoform progradation, but it is in general agreement with Judson (1975) which suggests a rate of denudation of 0.03mkyr^{-1} between the Coastal Plain and the main divide, based on the volume of sediment observed offshore. Multiplying this figure by the distance across which the erosion occurred, approximately 200km, gives a figure of 0.6km^2 per 100Kyr.

The magnitude of post-Palaeozoic erosion, estimated on the basis of observed stratigraphic gaps along the East Coast, varies from approximately 0.25km to approximately 6km depending on structure. This gives an erosion rate of between 0.001mkyr^{-1} and 0.02mkyr^{-1} , and demonstrates the potential variability of denudation rates along the passive margin. These figures give a much lower sediment supply value of between $0.0002\text{km}^2\text{Kyr}^{-1}$ and $0.004\text{km}^2\text{Kyr}^{-1}$. Although they are obviously gross average estimates, they do provide a guide line around which modelling can proceed. Thus, although the figure used of 0.48km^2 per time step was chosen to facilitate a fit with observed data, it is only slightly higher than the maximum value calculated on the basis of the estimated erosion rates, and is only slightly lower than the value calculated on the basis of offshore sediment volumes.

5.4 Model Output

The following model runs have the parameter values described above in section 5.3, and include one of the three pre-defined absolute sealevel curves described in section 5.2.5. The model runs are not dependent upon the sequence stratigraphic depositional model, as were the modelling results of Schroeder and Greenlee (1993), but instead form a more independent, less inherently circular, test of the validity of the three curves. The results also provide an insight into the other stratigraphic controls which may have been responsible for the observed Neogene stratigraphy.

5.4.1 The Watts and Steckler curve results

Figure 5.5 shows a model section produced using the standard initial conditions and parameters described in section 5.2 along with the Watts and Steckler sealevel curve. The section shows a steady progradation of submarine clinoforms into deep water, with approximately 700m thickness of marine slope sediment deposited in the clinoform foresets. The clinoform topsets are made up of shoreface sediment, possibly with a narrow shelf, topped by aggradational and progradational fluvial stratigraphy. The maximum thickness of fluvial sediment deposited is approximately 60m over the original position of the beach at 400km.

Figure 5.6 shows the chronostratigraphic diagrams from the model run. The Wheeler diagram shows the influence of the absolute sealevel curve on the pattern of beach and shelf-slope break progradation. Changes in the rate of sealevel fall at an E.M.T. of 4.4Myrs and 8.8Myrs (13.6Ma and 9.2Ma) clearly alter the rate of progradation of the beach. Changes in the rate of beach progradation in the interpreted data (figure 5.3) appear to occur at 15Ma, 13Ma and 5.5Ma, though the exact position of the beach is not mapped, only the interpreted transition from fluvial to coastal plain and nearshore sediments, which

adds a margin of error in the beach position of between 25 and 50km. This in turn makes changes in rate of progradation difficult to establish exactly.

Comparing the timing of changes in model beach progradation rates and interpreted beach progradation shows poor correlation. However, what is very apparent is that the observed changes in the rate of beach progradation occur with a similar frequency to those in the model driven by the Steckler and Watts absolute sealevel curve. There is no evidence in the observed data for higher frequency variations in the rate of beach progradation which could be used to imply higher-order cycles of eustatic change.

Changes in the rate of progradation of the shelf-slope break in the interpreted data appear to occur at 16Ma and 10Ma. In the modelled stratigraphy, there is a steady decrease in the rate of shelf-slope progradation from 0.0Myrs E.M.T. to 4.0Myrs E.M.T. (18Ma to 14Ma) followed by steady progradation. This change in gradient is a function of the initial topography, so it can largely be dismissed as an artefact of the initial conditions, which as stated before, are poorly constrained.

Thus, comparing the model output with interpreted data from Greenlee *et al.* (1988) shows that the model output successfully reproduces some of the basic elements of the data:

- The overall uncompacted thickness of approximately 700m of the marine sediment in the model is in the same order of magnitude as the observed post-compaction thickness ranging from approximately 700m to 1250m.
- The 100km of beach progradation in the model matches well the interpreted distance of beach progradation of between 60km and 108km.
- The basic clinoform structure in the model produced by the progradation of the beach and the shelf-slope break matches the gross clinoform structure seen in the interpreted seismic section (figure 5.2).

- The decrease in water depth due to the progradation of the clinoforms matches the decrease in water depth through the Miocene shown in the palaeobathymetry curve of Smith *et al.* (1976).

These points of a basic match between the interpreted data and the model output suggest that, within the constraints imposed by uniqueness problems leading to multiple possible solutions, the processes represented in the model are probably essentially those responsible for the gross stratigraphic geometry. A combination of thermal subsidence, flexure, slowly varying absolute sealevel, and constant sediment supply can reproduce the interpreted gross stratigraphic geometry.

Looking at the results in slightly greater detail, however, shows that there are some discrepancies between the interpreted data and the model output :

- None of the stratal onlap onto the prograding clinoforms, or the stratal terminations beneath younger strata visible on interpreted seismic sections (figure 5.2) occur in the model.
- The model shows continuous deposition on the fluvial profile throughout the run, producing a maximum thickness of approximately 100m of fluvial sediment. There is no erosional truncation as observed on the Coastal Plain (e.g. Olsson *et al.* 1988), though on the basis of stratigraphic relationships, this truncation may have occurred in post-Miocene times, in which case it can be considered to be beyond the scope of the model run.

These discrepancies are most likely due to the difference between the relatively simplistic model and the much more complex stratigraphic systems. Many processes which are known, or suspected, to operate in the marine and terrestrial environments on the passive rift margins, are not adequately represented in the model. For example, several studies have shown that slope failure and mass wasting are very significant processes that strongly affect patterns of preserved stratigraphy (e.g. May *et al.*, 1983; Miller *et al.*, 1985; Shor

and McClennen, 1988; Pers. Comm., Hesselbo 1993). No such processes are included in the model, though it seems possible that they could be responsible for patterns of onlap observed at the base of some of the clinoforms. Also, as stated in chapter 2, the behaviour of the fluvial profile through time is very poorly understood, and is only grossly approximated in this model. Therefore, it is not surprising that the fit between the model and the observed data on the coastal plain area is poor.

The importance of circular reasoning with regards to the use of the Haq *et al.* (1988) and the Greenlee and Moore (1992) eustatic curves in the quantitative modelling study of Schroeder and Greenlee (1992) has been demonstrated. The possibility of circular reasoning in the use of the Watts and Steckler (1979) eustatic curve in this modelling study must also be investigated. As described in section 5.2.5, the Watts and Steckler curve was derived from a backstripping study. The study make assumptions regarding isostatic adjustment to sediment loading, compaction of sediment, and water depth at the time of sediment deposition. It does not make any assumptions regarding a stretching model, or any other components included in this model. Therefore, there is no element of circular reasoning involved. The basic fit between the interpreted data and the model output using the Watts and Steckler curve is not a result of circularity in the methodology of the modelling.

5.4.2 The Haq *et al.* curve results

Figure 5.7 shows a section generated using the standard model parameters with the addition of the Haq *et al.* (1988) eustatic curve. Scrutiny of the section shows that the pattern of stratigraphy is very different to that shown in figure 5.5 and 5.6. The primary cause of this is the high-order cyclicity in the absolute sealevel curve which is absent in the Watts and Steckler curve.

The most notable features of the model stratigraphy shown in figure 5.7 are the 400m thick wedge of marine slope sediment, separated from approximately 100m of fluvial, shelf and slope stratigraphy by a marine erosion surface produced by the last major transgression at 12.5Myrs E.M.T. The 100m of shelf stratigraphy was all deposited in the last 2.5Myrs of model time. Older stratigraphy has been eroded by a combination of fluvial and shelf erosion driven by the rapid high-amplitude changes in absolute sealevel. The chronostratigraphic diagrams in figure 5.8 show the spatial and temporal extent of this erosion, some of which should be disregarded as an unrealistic artefact of the geometrical fluvial profile implementation. The position of the beach on the Wheeler diagram is clearly controlled by the absolute sealevel curve.

Comparison of the model output with the interpreted data shows a very poor fit. Even the basic details of the stratigraphy successfully reproduced using the Watts and Steckler curve are absent in this case. For example, the distance of the progradation of the clinoforms is approximately 50km which is outside the limits suggested by the chronostratigraphic diagram of Greenlee *et al.* (1988). The overall thickness of the stratigraphy also fits the observed data less accurately.

There are two end-member possibilities for the poorness of fit between the model results and the interpreted data. The first is that the Haq *et al.* eustatic sealevel curve is fundamentally flawed. There are a number of possible explanations for this. For example, the sequence stratigraphic methodology used to derive the curve may be flawed. Alternatively, the features of the stratigraphy used to derive the curve may be due to a process or processes other than eustasy, such as, for example, submarine mass wasting. The second possible explanation for the poorness of the fit is that the stratigraphic model is flawed. Such a fault with the model is most likely to be a result of the assumptions behind the model.

One such assumption which is obviously inaccurate is the assumption of two-dimensionality. This could well be a critical weakness in this particular case. The chronostratigraphic diagram from Greenlee *et al.* (1988) is derived from interpretation of a seismic section (figure 5.2), the location of which is shown in figure 5.1. However, the seismic line does not run parallel to or along the interpreted axis of Miocene fluvial sediment transport, also shown in figure 5.1. Therefore, the section imaged on the seismic line does not show features such as fluvial incisions if they are present, but rather shows the laterally equivalent surface which may not have been significantly incised. This is in direct contrast to the model section, which is exactly along the axis of fluvial transport, since the model is only operating in two-dimensions. Hence the model results show all the effects of fluvial incision and aggradation. This feature alone could be enough to explain the poor fit, and makes it impractical to draw other conclusions regarding the validity of the model results versus the validity of the interpreted data. The only solution to this is to extend the quantitative model into three dimensions.

5.4.3 The Greenlee and Moore curve results

Figure 5.9 shows a section from the model run with the standard parameters plus the addition of the Greenlee and Moore (1988) eustatic curve. The results are broadly similar to those obtained with the Haq *et al.* (1988) curve. The two curves are very similar with respect to the frequency and timing of eustatic falls and rises, and this similarity is responsible for the basic similarity of the two model runs. However, the curves do differ in magnitude, such that the Greenlee and Moore curve has only half the maximum amplitude ($\approx 70\text{m}$) of the Haq *et al.* (1988) curve ($\approx 140\text{m}$). These different amplitudes account for the differences in the two model sections.

For example, the 12.5Myr E.M.T. transgressive surface in the Haq *et al.* run was very well developed and remained largely unburied by subsequent deposition (figure 5.7). In the Greenlee and Moore model section shown in figure 5.9 this is not the case. The magnitude

of the eustatic rise at 12.5Myrs E.M.T. is less, and hence the transgressive surface is less well developed. The lower water depths on the shelf following the transgression ($\approx 30\text{m}$ as opposed to $\approx 80\text{m}$) mean that there is less accommodation space and so shallow water sediments can prograde further onto the shelf and bury the transgressive surface.

The quality of the fit of the model run using the Greenlee and Moore curve is no better than that of the model run using the Haq *et al.* curve. The same problems regarding the off-transport-axis nature of the data, and the two-dimensionality of the model apply equally in this case. As already stated, this makes it very difficult to draw conclusions regarding the validity of the curves from the model output. The only solution is to develop a three-dimensional stratigraphic model.

5.4.4 Variable sediment supply

The standard reference model run held sediment supply constant at 0.48km^2 per time step through the model run. One of the features of the section from the model run with the Watts and Steckler curve was the basic fit between the observed distance of beach and shelf-slope break progradation and the distance shown in the model section (figure 5.5). However, the rates of beach movement through time in the model did not match with the rates of beach movement implied from the Greenlee *et al.* (1988) chronostratigraphic diagram. To improve the fit, it is necessary to include variable sediment supply and variable fluvial-marine partitioning coefficient, since aside from the absolute sealevel curve, these are the major controls in the model on the gradient of the beach and shelf-slope break progradation.

Figures 5.11 and 5.12 show the section and the chronostratigraphic diagrams from the model run with the Watts and Steckler eustatic curve and time-variable sediment supply and fluvial-marine partitioning coefficient. The sediment supply curve is shown in figure 5.12. The partitioning coefficient changes with the same timing as the sediment supply

curve, from a value of 0.1, to 0.6, and then back to 0.1. The section in figure 5.11 shows two major differences from the section in figure 5.5.

- The thickness of the fluvial stratigraphy in the landward portion of the fluvial profile is slightly reduced, and topped by an erosive surface caused by the drop in sediment supply and the fluvial-marine partitioning coefficient at 9.0 Myrs E.M.T. Again, this should be disregarded as an unrealistic model artefact.
- The shoreface and shelf are no longer as well developed. Instead, because of the different values of the fluvial-marine partitioning coefficient and the different values of sediment supply, the fluvial profile passes directly into the marine slope.

The chronostratigraphic diagrams in figure 5.12 show the improved fit between the model result and the interpreted data more clearly. Comparison of the interpreted chronostratigraphic diagram with that shown in figure 5.12 shows that the match with the rate of interpreted beach progradation is now much better. For example, in the model, the beach changes its rate of progradation at 3 Myrs E.M.T. from approximately 22kmMyr^{-1} to a higher value of approximately 59kmMyr^{-1} . A similar change of rate can be seen in the interpreted chronostratigraphic diagram at the equivalent time of 15 Ma, though the actual values are quite different, from near zero to approximately 10kmMyr^{-1} . Much of this discrepancy can be explained by the broad bands of possible positions for the beach on the interpreted chronostratigraphic diagram.

The significance of this fit is limited by the simplistic nature of the model, and the problem of non-unique solutions. However, it is still significant in that it shows how a combination of control on stratigraphy by eustasy, thermal subsidence, palaeobathymetry, sediment supply and fluvial-marine partitioning can be used to reproduce and hence provide a possible explanation for the pattern of Miocene progradational stratigraphy observed on one section of the North American Atlantic margin.

5.5 Summary

The primary conclusion from this attempt to fit modelled stratigraphy with observed stratigraphy in the Miocene of the North American Atlantic margin is that there still exists a large discrepancy in terms of complexity between stratigraphic systems and stratigraphic models. While such complexity may not be apparent at longer time scales, it does become apparent when the temporal resolution of modelling is increased. The only solution to this is to continue to build more sophisticated models which account for more of this apparent complexity. Extending models into three dimensions, and including slope wasting processes seem like the most obvious steps forward in the case of modelling the stratigraphy of the North American Atlantic margin.

However, despite the problems with the simplistic nature of this stratigraphic model, it is possible to draw some conclusions on the basis of this modelling exercise :

1. The gross large-scale features of the Miocene stratigraphy such as the distance of clinoform migration, and the thickness of the succession, can be reproduced with the model using the parameter values outlined above. Even given the inevitable uniqueness problems, it seems safe to conclude from this that the basic processes of thermal subsidence, flexural isostasy, eustasy, and sediment progradation are those responsible for the basic features of the observed stratigraphy.

2. The higher-order eustatic curves of Haq *et al.* (1988) and Greenlee and Moore (1988) produce significantly worse fits in the model than the lower-order curve of Watts and Steckler (1979). There are large elements of circular reasoning in both the methodology used to define these higher-order curves, and in the methods previously used to test them (e.g. Schroeder and Greenlee, 1993). Even though the problem of the two-dimensionality of the model cannot be ruled out in explaining the poor fits, it still seems reasonable to

conclude that there are severe problems in using such high-order eustatic curves to explain the geometry of the observed stratigraphy.

3. Varying sediment supply and the fluvial-marine partitioning coefficient improves some of the details of the basic fit between the model and the interpreted data.

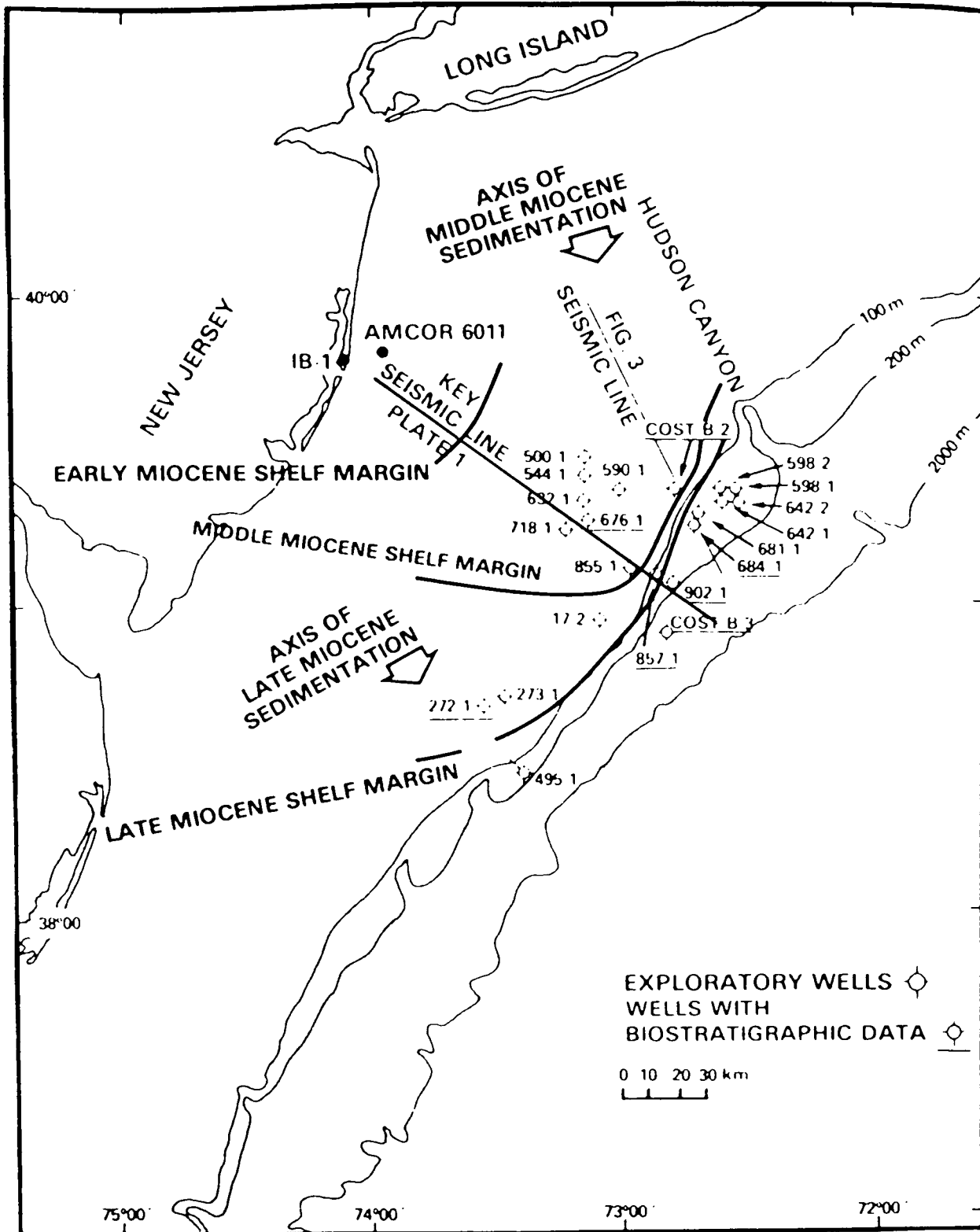
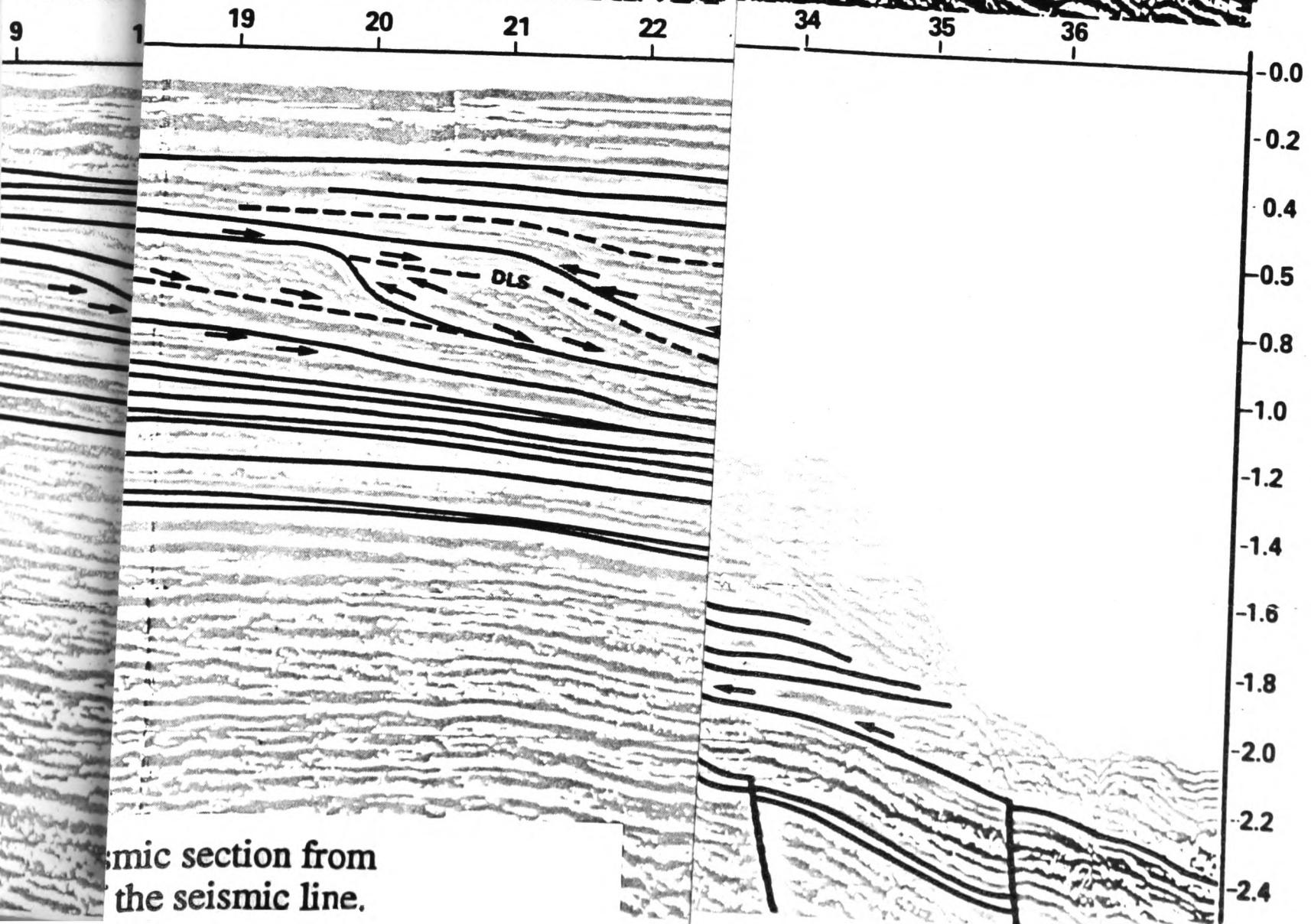
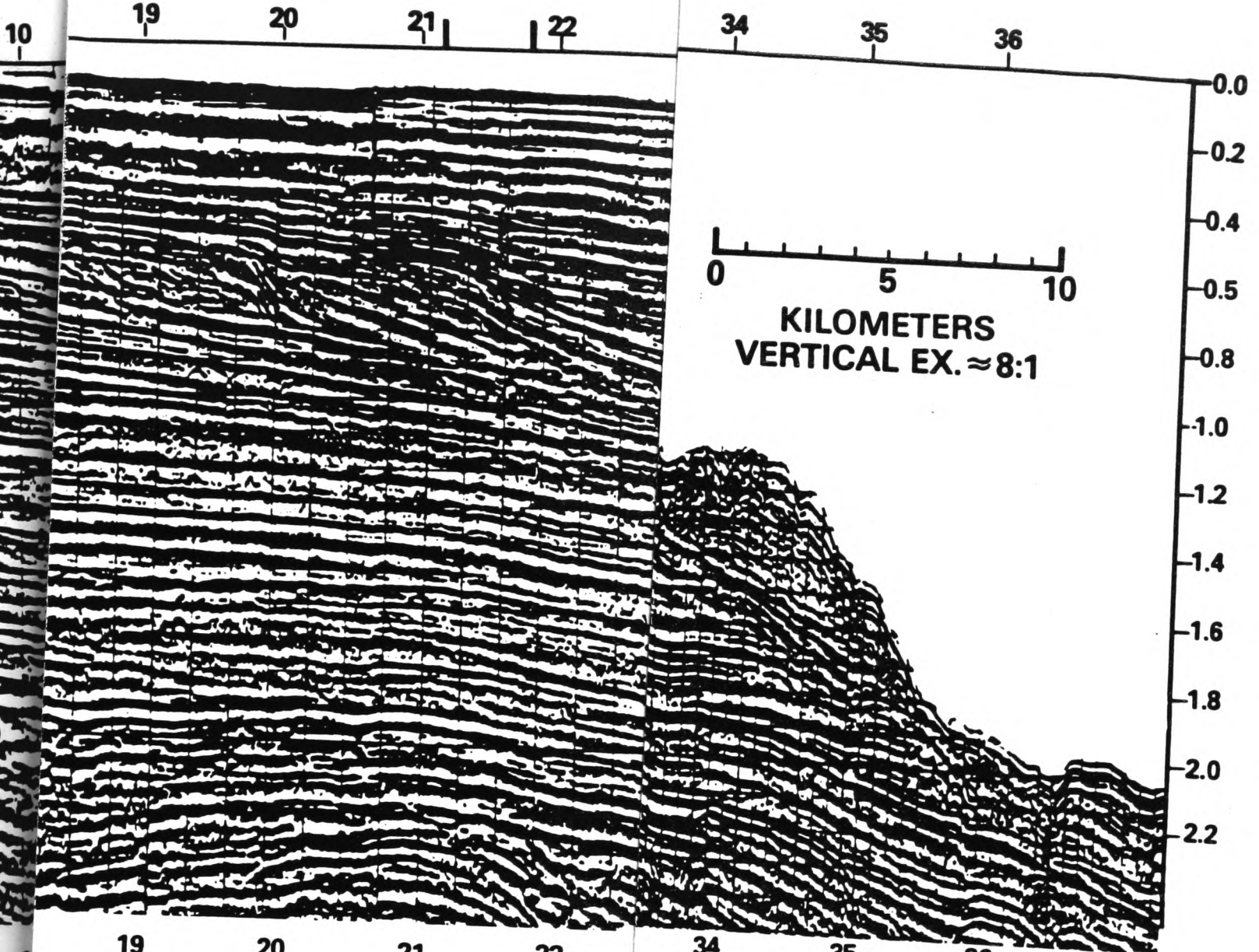


Figure 5.1 Location map from Greenlee et al. (1988) showing the location of the seismic line and boreholes providing the database which was used to compile the chronostratigraphic chart also given in Greenlee et al. (1988).

SEQUENCES BALTIMORE CA

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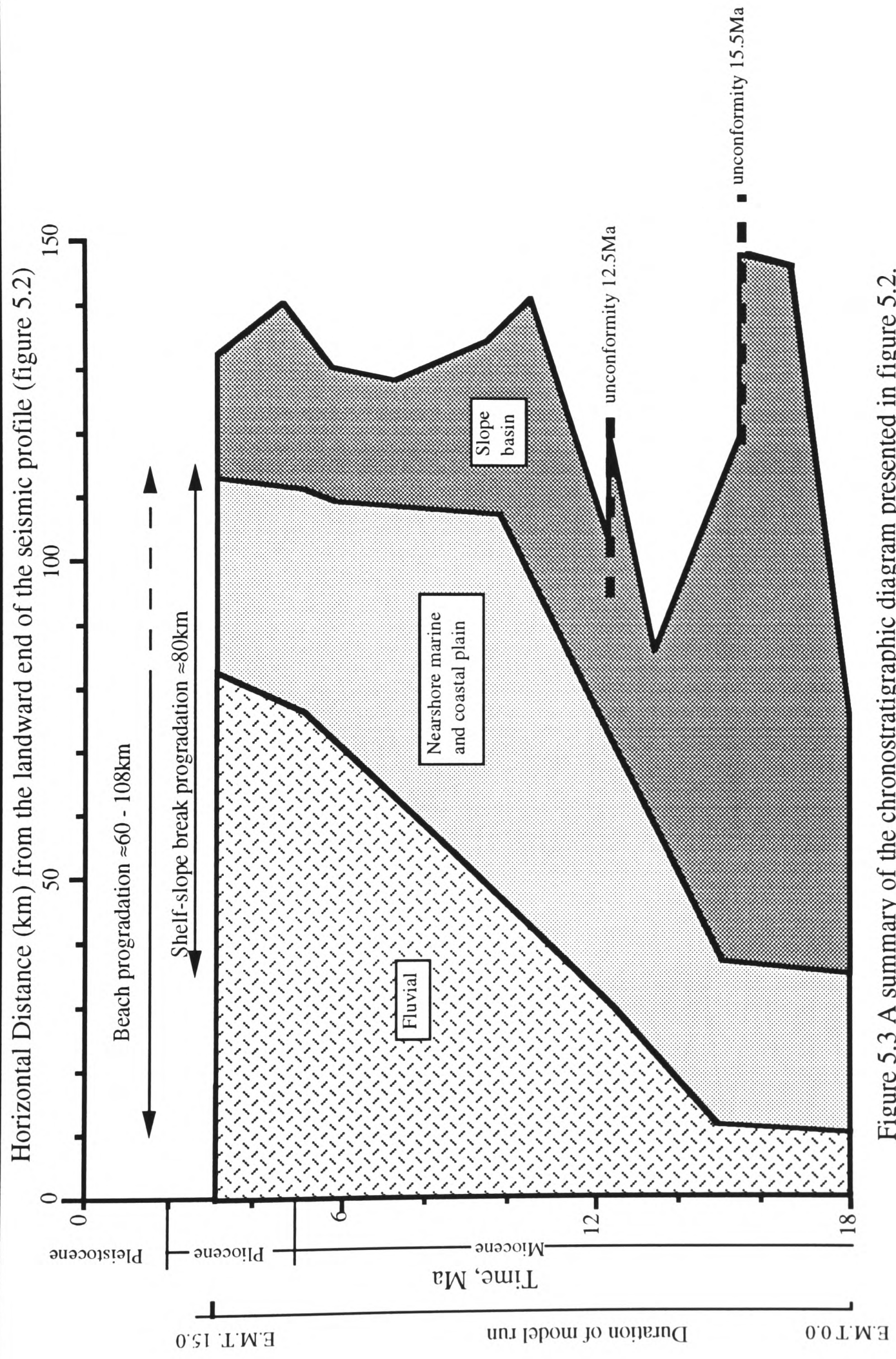


Figure 5.3 A summary of the chronostratigraphic diagram presented in figure 5.2.

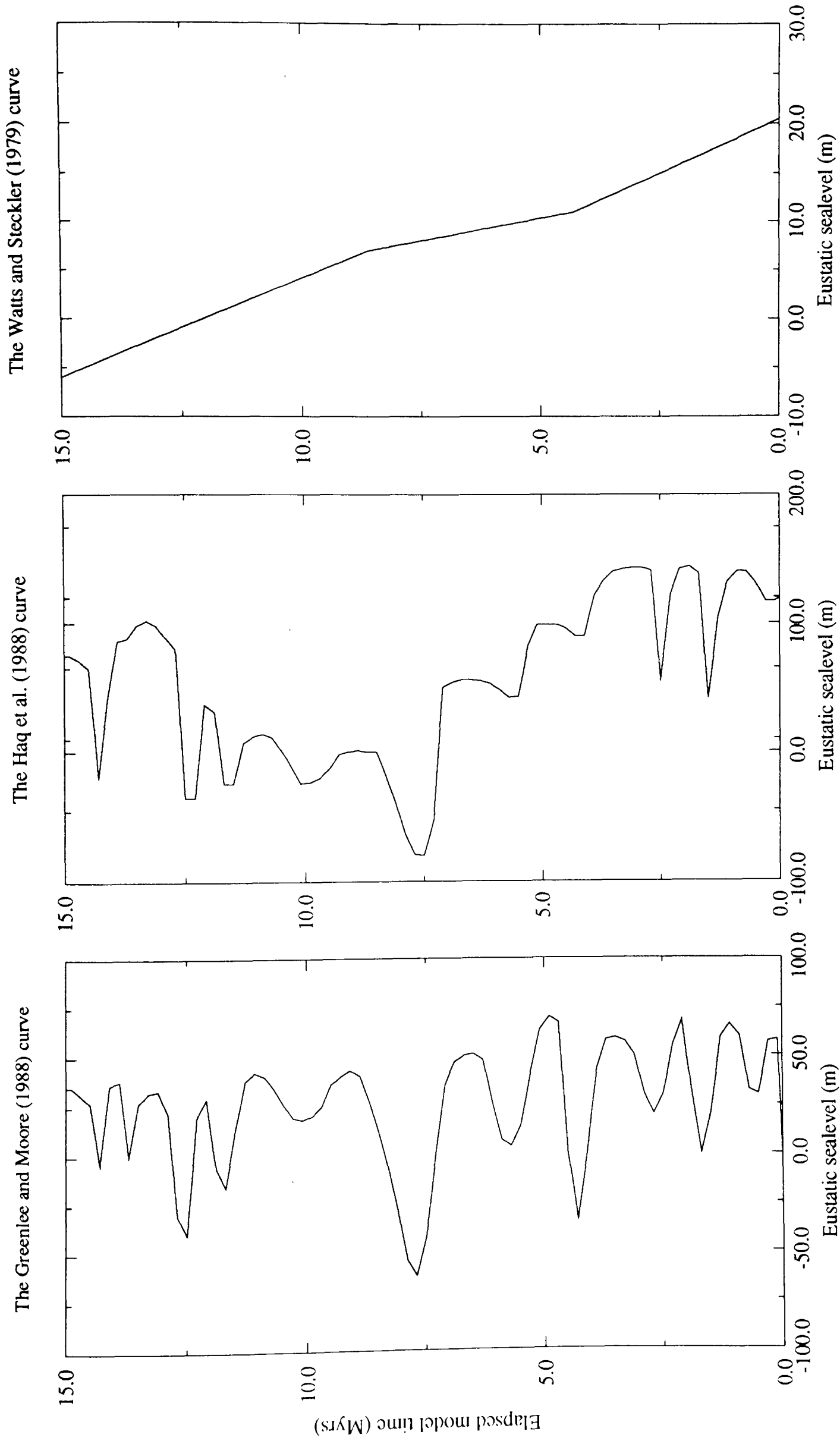


Figure 5.4 The three eustatic sea level curves used in the model runs.

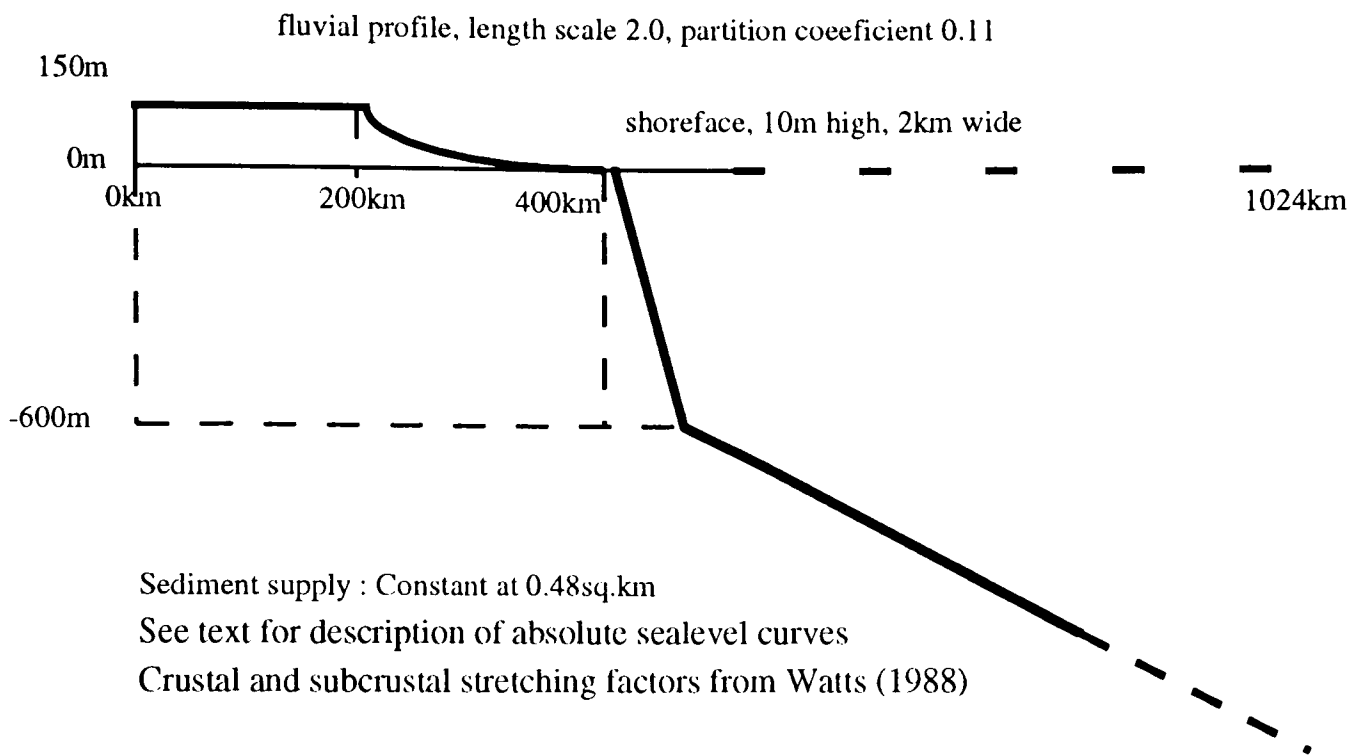


Figure 5.5 The initial conditions for the standard model run

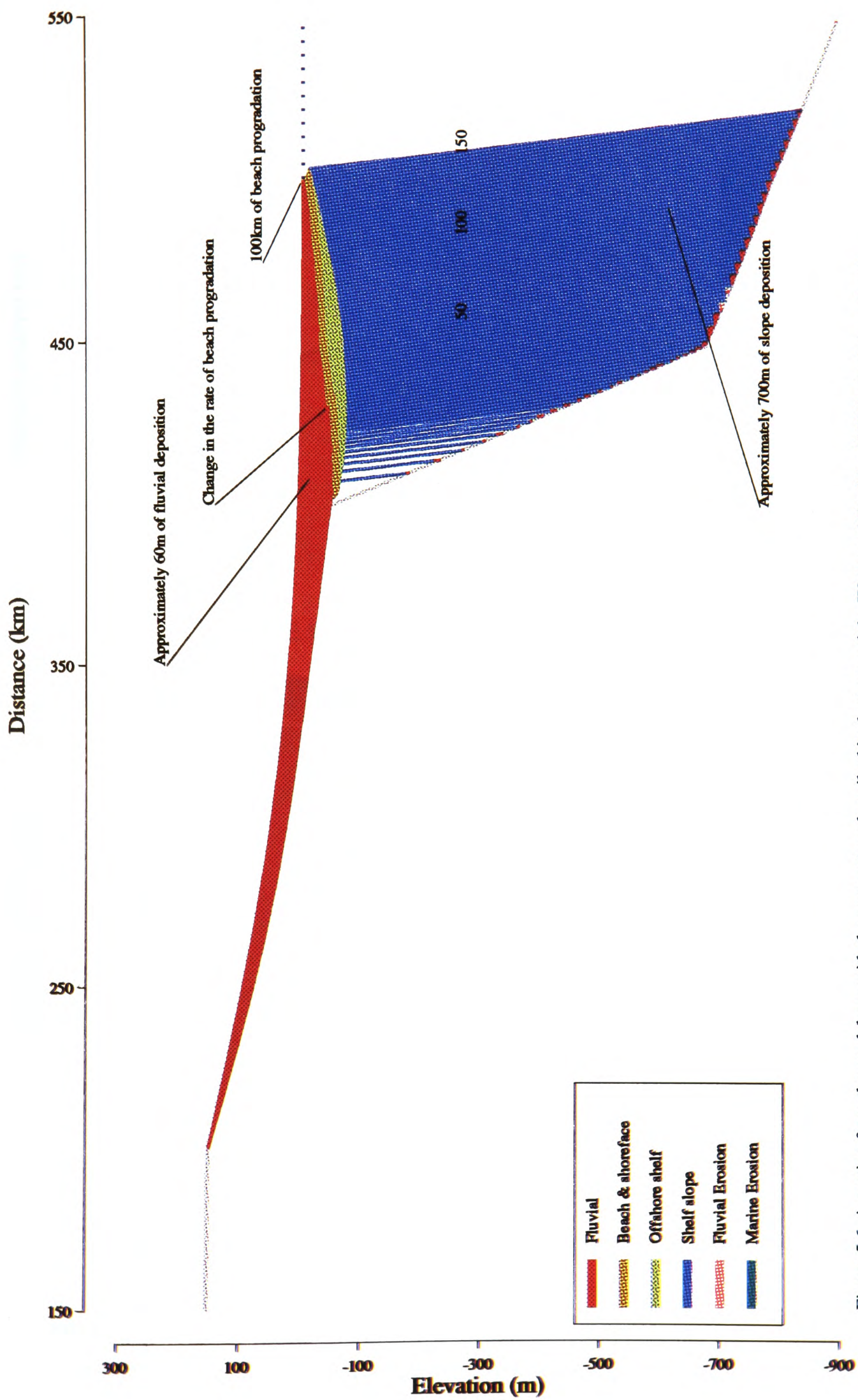


Figure 5.6. A section from the model run with the parameters described in the text and the Watts and Steckler (1979) absolute sealevel curve (figure 5.4.C). The model run successfully reproduces the basic 60-108km of beach progradation and the basic cliniform structures visible on the data and interpretations from Greenlee et al. (1988), but fails to reproduce many of the higher resolution interpreted features such as onlap and downlap patterns. The changes in the rate of beach progradation at, for example, chron 44, are due to changes in the rate of absolute sealevel change.

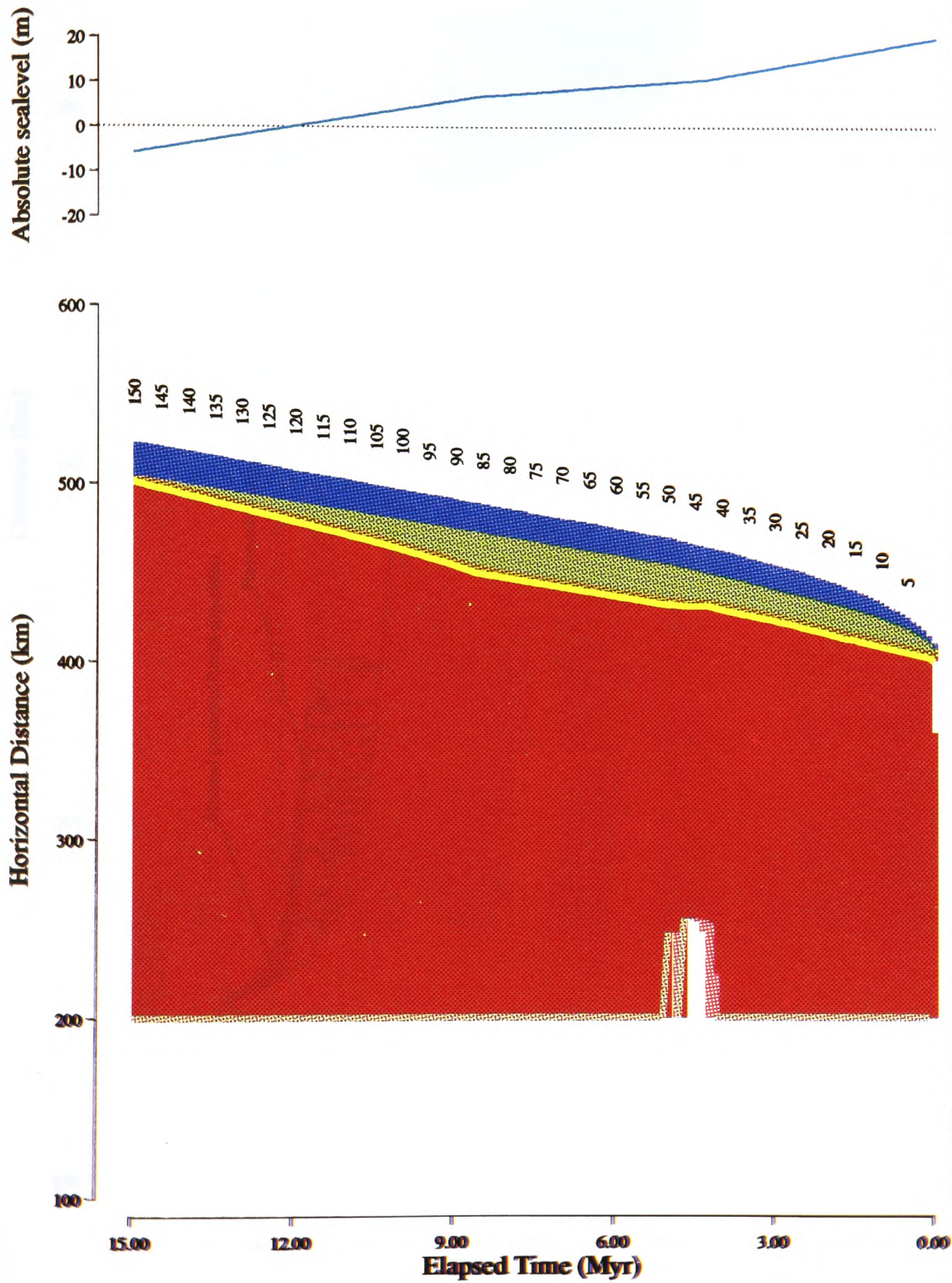


Figure 5.7. A chronostratigraphic diagram and an absolute sealevel curve from the model run with the parameters described in the text and the Watts and Steckler (1979) absolute sealevel curve. The figure shows that the model run successfully reproduces the basic 60-108km of beach progradation visible on the data and interpretations from Greenlee et al. (1988), but fails to reproduce many of the higher resolution interpreted features such as onlap and downlap patterns. The changes in the rate of beach progradation at, for example, chron 44 due to changes in the gradient of absolute sealevel curve, are clearly visible.

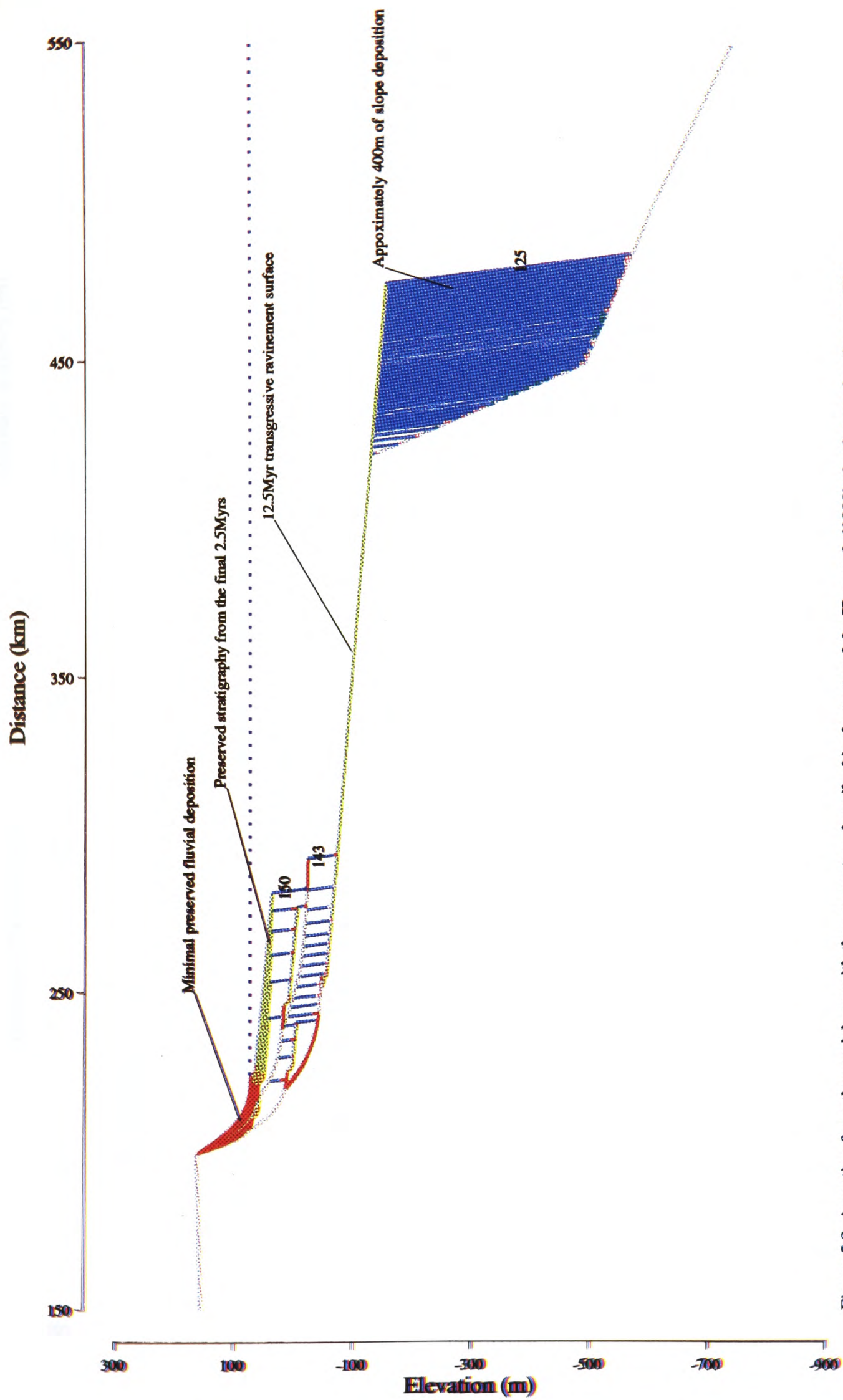


Figure 5.8. A section from the model run with the parameters described in the text and the Haq et al. (1988) absolute sealevel curve. The influence of the high-order fluctuations in absolute sealevel can be clearly seen. The stratigraphy is split spatially into two distinct parts. The stratigraphy on right of the section consists of distal slope deposits formed at various times during the model run, generally at low points on the absolute sealevel curve. The stratigraphy on the left is younger, representing deposition during the final 2.5Myrs of E.M.T., from 12.5 to 15Myrs E.M.T. Stratigraphy deposited in shallow water previously to this has been eroded by the 12.5Myr E.M.T. transgression.

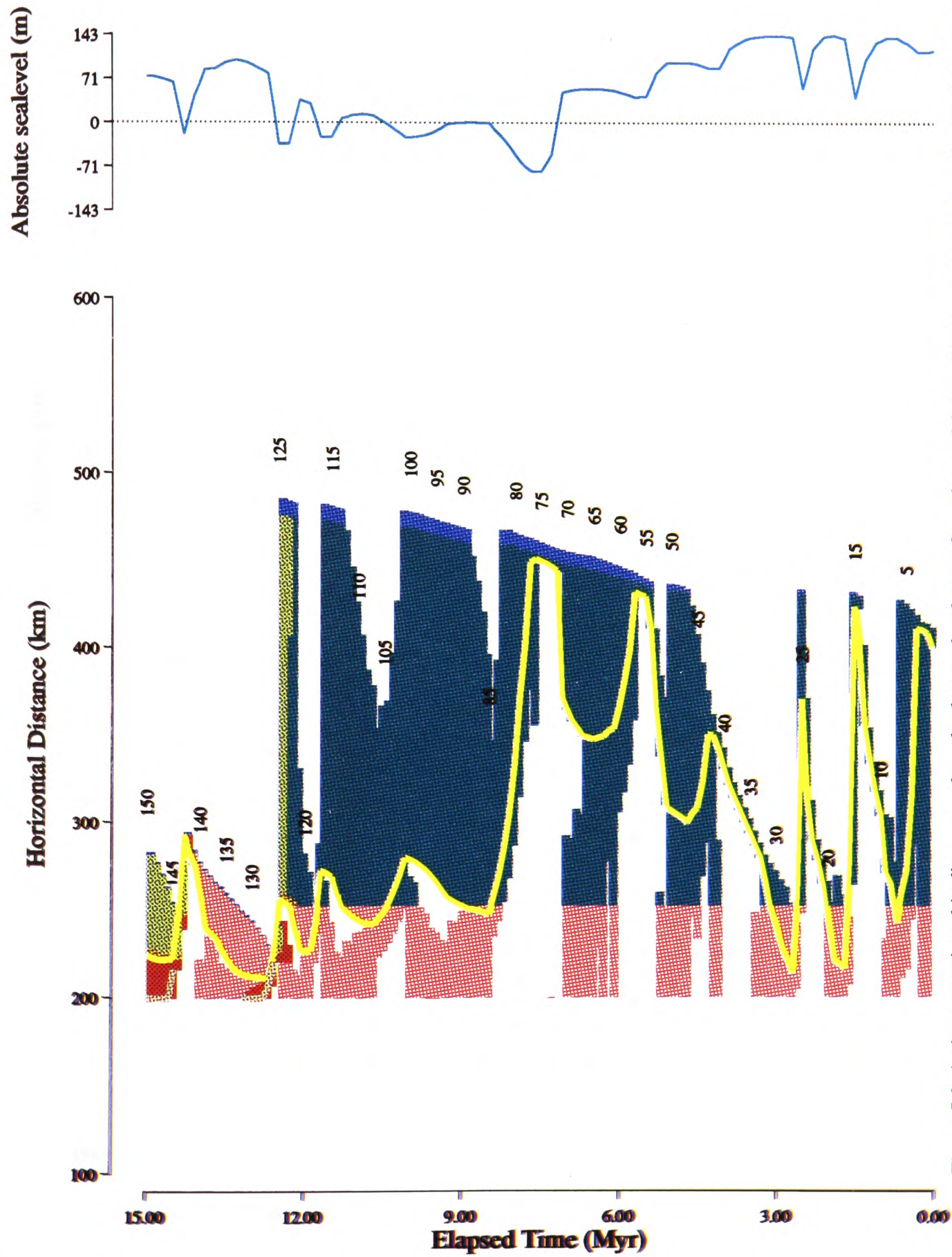


Figure 5.9. A chronostratigraphic diagram and an absolute sealevel curve from the model run with the parameters described in the text and the Haq et al. (1988) absolute sealevel curve. The influence of the high-order fluctuations in absolute sealevel on the distribution of stratigraphy is apparent. In particular, the absolute sealevel rise at 12.5 Myrs E.M.T., and the subsequent fall at 14.3 Myrs E.M.T. has removed much of the previous stratigraphy through both fluvial and marine erosion. The movement of the beach through time in response to the absolute sealevel fluctuations is also shown very clearly.

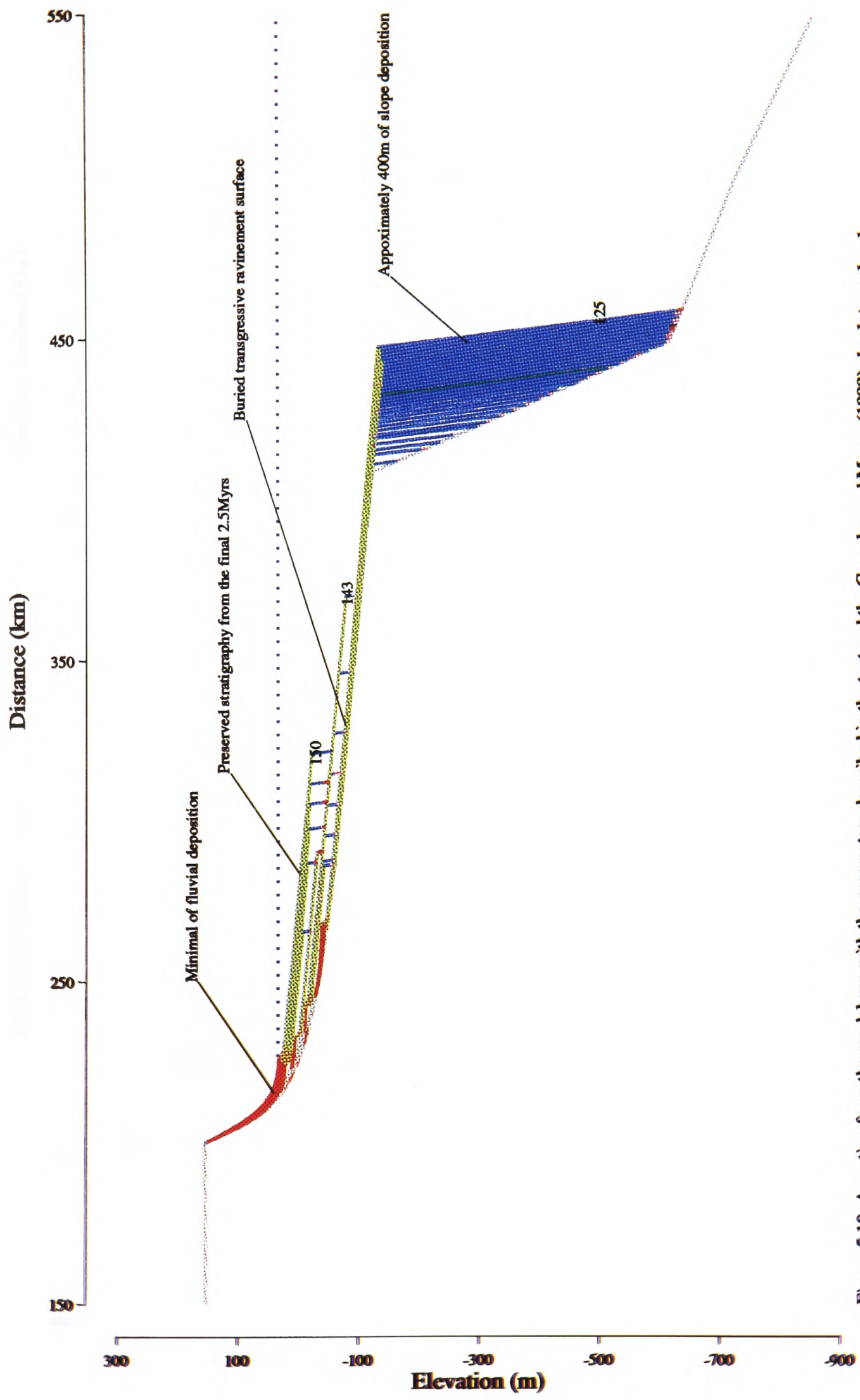


Figure 5.10. A section from the model run with the parameters described in the text and the Greenlee and Moore (1988) absolute sealevel curve. Though this curve has similar high-order fluctuations to the Haq curve, the amplitudes are less, and the detail different. The effect of these differences is to change details of the stratigraphic pattern produced. In particular the stratigraphy formed in the last 2.5 Myrs of the model run progresses further, burying the 12.5 Myr transgressive surface. This transgressive surface in this case eroded less of the older stratigraphy than in the surface produced at the same time by the Haq curve because of the lower amplitude of the Greenlee and Moore curve.

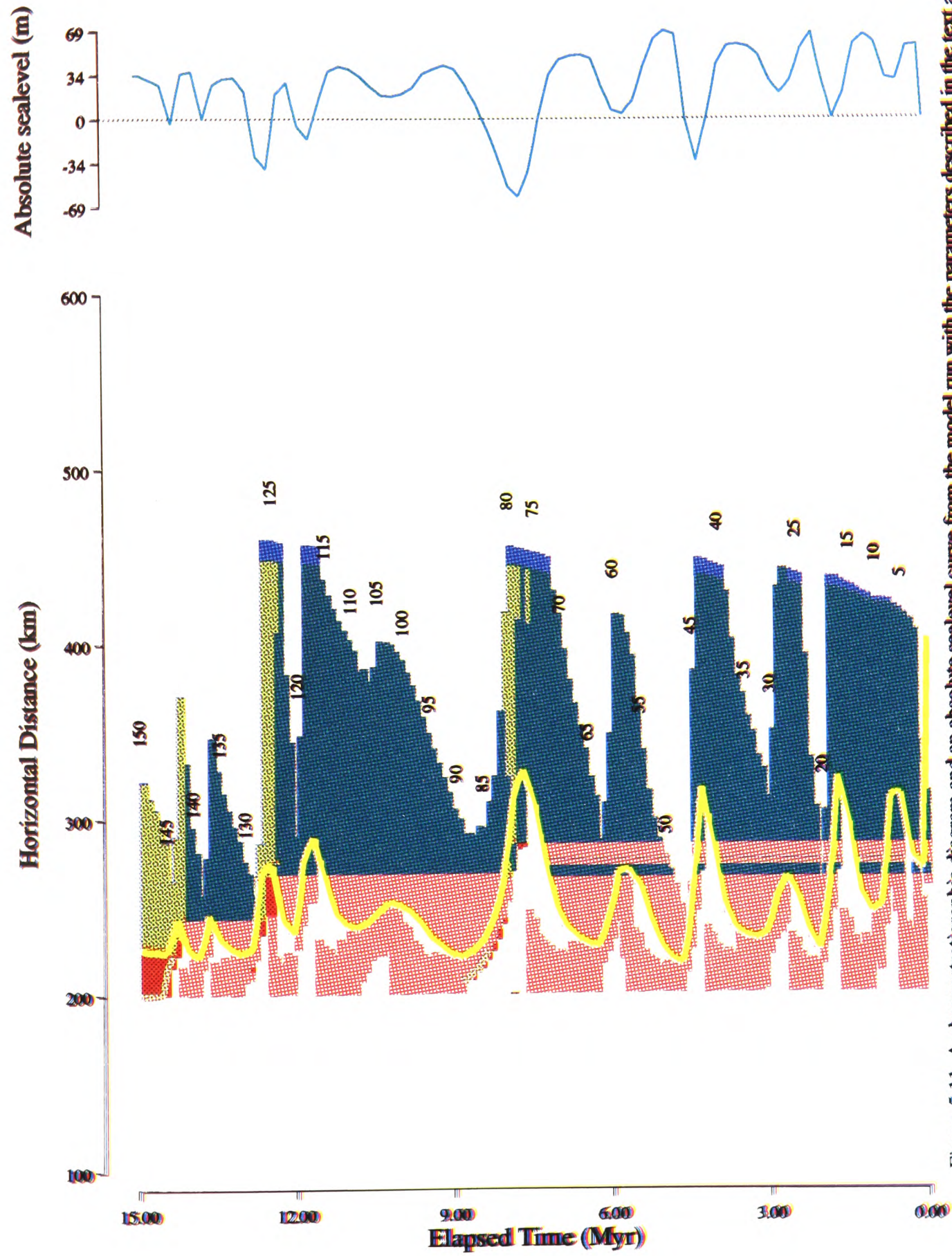


Figure 5.11. A chronostratigraphic diagram and an absolute sealevel curve from the model run with the parameters described in the text and the Greenlee and Moore (1988) absolute sealevel curve. Though this curve has similar high-order fluctuations to the Haq curve, the amplitudes are less, and the detail different. The effect of these differences is to change details of the stratigraphic pattern produced. For example, the exact pattern of beach movement is different in this example. Also the stratigraphy from the last 2.5Myrs has prograded further into the basin, burying the 12.5Myr transgressive surface which remains uncovered in the example generated with the Haq curve.

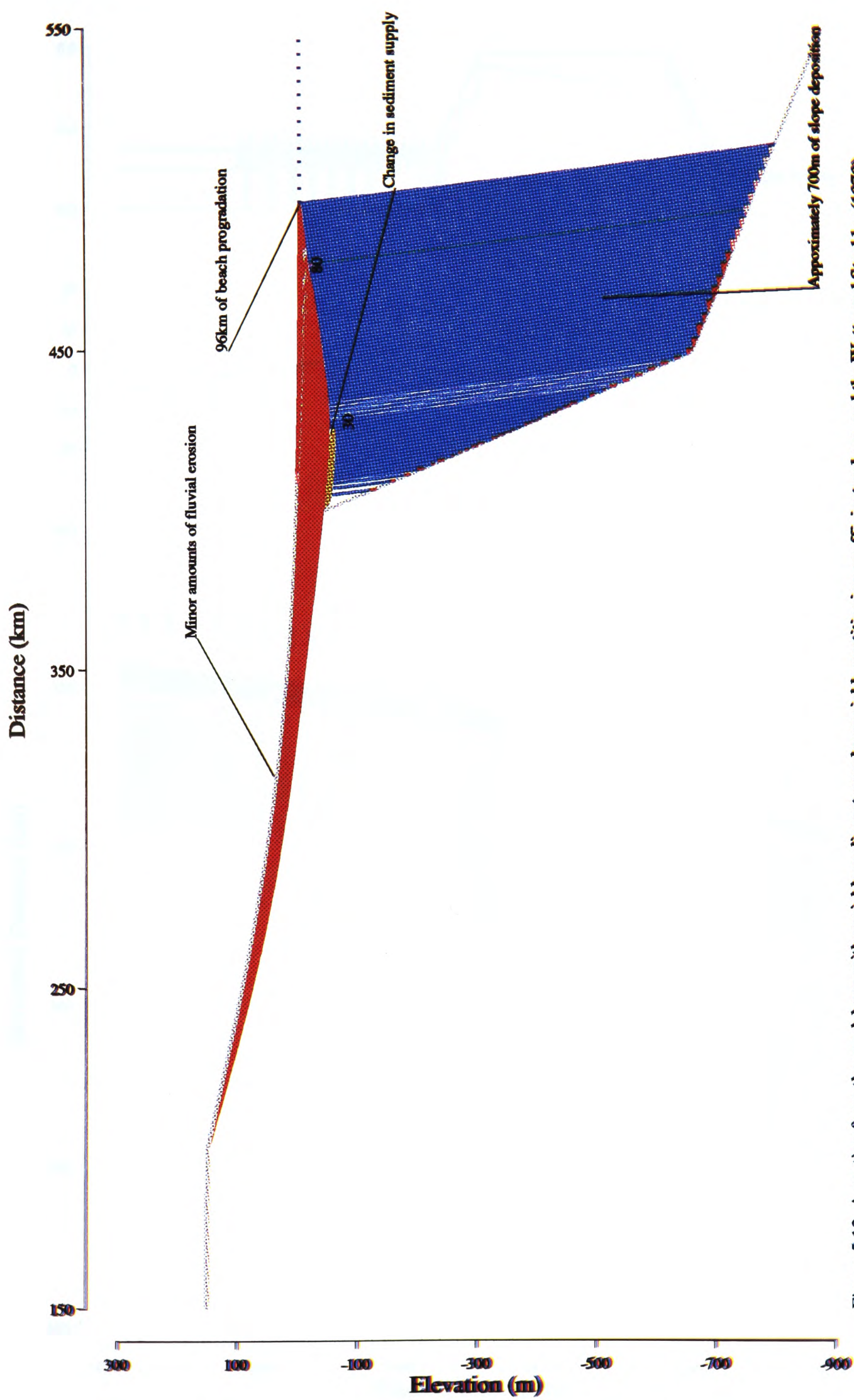


Figure 5.12. A section from the model run with variable sediment supply, variable partitioning coefficient values, and the Watts and Steckler (1979) absolute sealevel curve. All other parameters are as described for the initial model run in figure 5.6. Values for the partitioning coefficient vary from 0.1 to 0.6 in synchronicity with the changes in the sediment supply (figure 5.13). The visible effects of the changed sediment supply parameters are a change in the overall distance of progradation, and a distinct change in the pattern of shelf and shoreface deposition. The fluvial stratigraphy is topped by an erosion surface of minor vertical significance, and this should be ignored as an unrealistic artifact of the profile geometry.

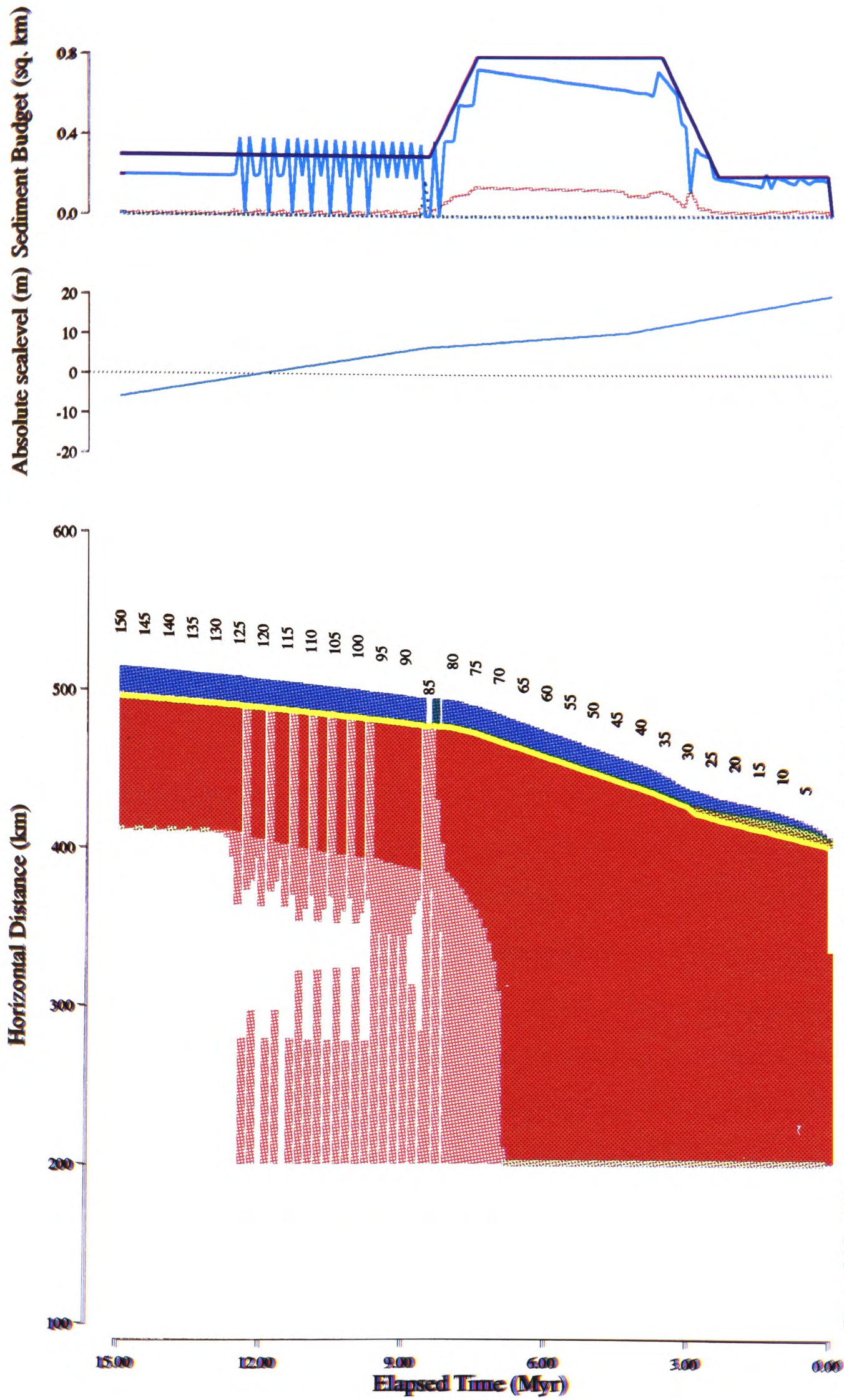


Figure 5.13. A chronostratigraphic diagram and an absolute sealevel curve from the model run with variable sediment supply, variable partitioning coefficient values, and the Watts and Steckler (1979) absolute sealevel curve. All other parameters are the as described for the initial model run in figure 5.6. Values for the partitioning coefficient vary from 0.1 to 0.6 in synchronicity with the changes in the sediment supply. The variable sediment supply and partitioning coefficient have the desired effect of changing the rate of progradation such that it is more similar to the rates shown in the chronostratigraphic diagram from Greenlee et al. (1988) (summarised in figure 5.3).

Chapter 6

Chapter 6 - The conclusions

"I have something to say.

It's better to burn out than to fade away.

There can be only one!"

(Gregory Widen Highlander)

6.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the conclusions that have been drawn from the modelling results presented in chapters three, four and five. It also attempts to indicate where future work in the study of passive rift-margin stratigraphy might focus to answer some of the specific points raised by this work

6.2 Controls on sequence geometry

In chapter three, the quantitative forward model was used to investigate the possible controls on sequence geometry using the depositional sequence stratigraphic model of, for example, Posamentier *et al.* (1988) and Van Wagoner *et al.* (1990) as a framework for comparison. This work lead to the following conclusions :

- The quantitative forward model is capable of reproducing the general geometry of type-1 and type-2 sequences in the sense of Posamentier *et al.* (1988), and Van Wagoner *et al.* (1990), but it cannot reproduce all of the parasequence stacking patterns shown in the depositional sequence stratigraphic model. This is because some of the patterns, such as the aggradational stacking pattern require a very specific distribution of accommodation space balanced with a very specific magnitude of sediment supply. The inability of the quantitative model to reproduce these patterns may be indicative of the rather unlikely pattern of accommodation space necessary to produce them.

- Calculation of the amplitude of absolute sealevel changes from coastal onlap patterns may be greatly complicated by the geometry of the fluvial profile. The model results show that the amplitude of the vertical component of the stratal onlap in the model is more dependent on the fluvial profile geometry than on the magnitude of the relative or absolute sealevel change. This result should be considered bearing in mind the weaknesses of the fluvial profile implementation in the model.
- The concepts of the hinge point and the equilibrium point used in the sequence stratigraphic model are flawed. The relative rates of thermal subsidence and absolute sealevel change mean that only during the points of lowest gradient on the absolute sealevel curve, can the rate of thermal subsidence or uplift on a passive rift margin equal the rate of absolute sealevel change.
- Flexural isostasy is not a first order control on the model stratigraphy when absolute sealevel is varied. Even with reasonably low values of T_e of, for example, 10km, the flexural subsidence simply adds small amounts of accommodation space, but does not significantly alter the basic pattern of stratigraphy preserved.
- The behaviour of the fluvial profile is a first order control on model stratigraphy. For example, a less concave profile produces a stratigraphic pattern very different from that produced by a more concave profile. Despite the unrealistic nature of aspects of the profile behaviour and the lack of direct link with physical process, the model results suggest that profile geometry may well be a very significant control on stratigraphic patterns.
- The sediment partitioning coefficient is also a first order control in the model, and the effects of sediment partitioning in natural systems could conceivably be misinterpreted to be due to eustasy. For example, a reduction in the amount of sediment being deposited subaerially, and an increase in bypassing of sediment into the sea, may produce a transgressive pattern of stratigraphy which would be difficult to distinguish from that due to an absolute sealevel rise.
- Variable sediment supply is a first order control on model stratigraphy. It has a particularly pronounced impact on the stratigraphic pattern when sediment supply is

low during a time of rising absolute sealevel. This has often been underestimated in other studies on stratigraphic controls. Accurately distinguishing in the ancient record between effects due to variable sediment supply, and effects due to variable absolute sealevel may prove very difficult.

- Variable sediment supply alone, without any contribution from variable absolute sealevel, is capable in the model of producing stratigraphic patterns with some similarities to those seen in type-2 sequences. This suggests that stratigraphy influenced by variable sediment supply due to factors such as point source switching, climatic changes, drainage basin morphology, or combinations of these, may be misinterpreted as being due to eustasy. However, a relative sealevel fall is still necessary in the model to cause the vertical juxtaposition of fluvial and marine stratigraphy across a subaerial erosion surface.
- Combined complex controls on stratigraphy should not be underestimated in terms of the difficulty in correctly interpreting the results. A model run with combined controls is difficult to interpret, even given the simplicity of the model, and the availability of the complete details of all the model parameters, such as the absolute sealevel curve, and the sediment supply curve. This highlights once more, the non-unique nature of most explanations of stratigraphic patterns.

Future work in this area should concentrate on the further investigation of the contribution of sediment supply and fluvial profile behaviour to stratigraphic patterns. Further work should also be carried out on processes which are as yet poorly understood in terms of their contribution to passive rift-margin stratigraphy. For example, the response of the fluvial profile to relative sealevel change, and the significance of submarine erosion, both on the shelf and on the slope, and its link with flexural uplift, all require further study.

6.3 Complex interactions, feedback effects and cyclicity

In chapter four, the quantitative forward model was used, via a series of sensitivity tests, to investigate the possibility of complex interactions within the model, and the generation by the model of patterns of cyclical sedimentation without the requirement for periodic external forcing. This work lead to the following conclusions :

- There exists within the model, when run with the initial conditions set to low fluvial sediment supply producing a transgressive beach, a feedback effect between thermal subsidence, shoreface erosion, flexure and fluvial erosion, which is capable of producing cycles of stratigraphy without any external periodic forcing.
- The effect occurs with a variety of initial conditions, including high and low magnitudes of thermal subsidence, a different shoreface geometry, and different fluvial profile geometries. Though variations in the initial conditions affect the details of the stratigraphic pattern, the basic pattern produced by the feedback effect is present in all these sensitivity tests.
- Running the model with different time steps demonstrates that the period of the oscillations in sediment supply is entirely dependent upon the length of the time step used. Peaks in sediment supply always occur at the same chron regardless of the E.M.T. that the chron represents. As the model time step is reduced towards zero, so the period of the oscillation approaches zero. This demonstrates that the feedback effect in the model is a numerical instability resulting from the discretised nature of the model.
- Running the model with a finite value for the flexural response time that is longer than the length of the time step shows that the inclusion of the response time complicates the unstable behaviour of the model, but does not surmount the fundamental problem of the instability. The timing and period of the oscillations are still dependent upon the duration of the time step used, but no longer show a simple linear relationship with the time step duration.

- Although it seems intuitively possible that the feedback mechanism described may occur in natural systems, the stratigraphic model presented here can provide no indication either way of the existence of such a feedback. This is due to the numerical instability inherent in the model as a result of the discretised representation of continuous functions. Further investigations of potential feedback effects would thus require a model formulated with continuous time-dependent equations.

6.4 Modelling the Neogene stratigraphy of the North American Atlantic passive rift margin

In chapter five, the quantitative forward model was used to investigate the contributory factors behind the pattern of stratigraphy preserved in the Neogene of the North American Atlantic margin. This investigation also served to test the ability of the model to reproduce the broad general patterns observed in an actual example of passive rift-margin stratigraphy. This work lead to the following conclusions :

- The gross large-scale features of the Miocene stratigraphy such as the distance of clinoform migration, and the thickness of the succession, can be reproduced with the model using the parameter values described in section 5.3. Even given the inevitable uniqueness problems, it seems safe to conclude from this that the basic processes of thermal subsidence, flexural isostasy, eustasy, and sediment progradation are those responsible for the basic features of the observed stratigraphy.
- The higher-order eustatic curves of Haq *et al.* (1988) and Greenlee and Moore (1988) produce significantly worse fits in the model than the lower-order curve of Watts and Steckler (1979). There are large elements of circular reasoning in both the methodology used to define the high-order curves, and in the methods previously used to test them (e.g. Schroeder and Greenlee, 1993). Even though the problem of the two-dimensionality of the model cannot be ruled out in explaining the poor fits, it still seems fair to conclude that there are severe problems in using such high-order eustatic curves to explain the geometry of the observed stratigraphy.

- Varying the magnitude of sediment supply and the value of the fluvial-marine partitioning coefficient improves some of the details of the basic fit between the model and the interpreted data. There is an element of circular reasoning in this, since the value of sediment supply was chosen on the basis of the requirement to reproduce the correct distance of progradation. However, despite this circularity, it still seems that variable sediment supply and sediment partitioning through time are necessary to reproduce the stratigraphic pattern if high-order eustatic changes are not occurring.

Future work in this area should concentrate on refining the model to include more processes, such as, for example, slope wasting and mass movement. It would also be desirable in the longer term to extend the model into three dimensions, so that the model output could be more readily and more accurately compared with observational data such as seismic lines and borehole cores. The addition of extra processes to the model may provide insights into the details of stratigraphic patterns, such as the fine scale onlap and downlap patterns, that the model cannot presently reproduce.

Appendix 1

Appendix 1 - Model Parameters

This appendix describes the model parameters in terms of their use in the model, and the range of values to which they can be set.

Chron Parameters

Total number of chrons : Integer, 1 - 200.

This specifies the total number of chrons that can be generated in any model run.

Number of chrons per execution step : Integer, 1 - 200.

This specifies the number of chrons generated by the model at each execution step before the output is displayed. For example, the total number of chrons may be 100, but the number of chrons generated before the model output is displayed could be 10.

Chron interval : Float, 0.01 - 10.0 Myrs.

This gives the length of each model time step in millions of years.

Frequency of chron storage : Float, 0.01 - 10.0 Myrs.

This defines the number of time steps between storage of chron surfaces. For example, the model time step may be 0.1Myrs, but the storage frequency may be 0.5Myrs, which would mean that only every fifth chron would be stored in the model data structure.

General Parameters

Profile length : Integer, 128 - 4196 km.

The length of the profile in kilometres. The values of the lengths used are powers of two in the range specified to allow the calculation of flexure using both a finite difference method and a FFT method.

Density of uncompacted sediment : Float, 1.0 - 3.0 kgm⁻³.

The density of the sediment deposited and eroded on the profile. This is used in the flexure calculations.

Initial profile topography :

This is defined as a series of coordinate pairs, horizontal distance in kilometres and elevation in metres, which are used as the points for interpolation to define the topographic profile.

Fluvial Profile Parameters

Fluvial curve type :

A flag to indicate whether the model should use an exponential or a complementary error function curve for the fluvial profile.

Length of the fluvial profile : Integer, 0 - 2000km.

This determines the length of the fluvial profile from the beach to the landward end of the depositional profile.

Rate of lengthening of the profile : Float, 10.0 - 0.001km per time step.

This defines the landward movement per time step of the landward end of the fluvial profile.

Error function length scale : Float, 1.0 - 5.0.

This parameter determines the portion of the complementary error function to be used to determine the fluvial profile. For example, a length scale of 1.0 means that the portion of the curve from 0.0 to 1.0 is scaled to fit between the beach and the fall line position. This would produce a less concave profile than if, for example, a length scale of 3.0 was used.

Fluvial-marine partitioning coefficient : Float, 0.0 - 1.0.

This determines the areas of sediment deposited on the fluvial and marine portions of a chron. For example, a value of 0.4 means that 40% of the available area is deposited as fluvial stratigraphy, while the remaining 60% is deposited as marine stratigraphy.

Marine Profile Parameters

Shelf gradient : Float, 0.0 - 0.5 mkm⁻¹.

This parameter determines the gradient of the shelf profile.

Slope gradient : Float, 0.5 - 100.0mkm⁻¹.

This parameter defines the gradient of the marine slope.

Height of shoreface : Integer, 1.0 - 50.0m.

This is the height of the shoreface, which defines the depth at which the transition from shoreface to offshore shelf occurs.

Width of shoreface : Integer, 1.0 - 50km.

This is the width of the shoreface zone which marks the transition from the fluvial to the marine profile.

Tectonic Parameters

Beta stretching factors :

Values for the stretching factor used in the one and two-layer stretching models. Stretching values are given with a specified position on the profile, in kilometres. Linear interpolation between these points is used to define stretching values for the complete length of the profile.

Sigma stretching values :

Sub-crustal stretching factor used in the two-layer stretching model. These values are given in the same format as the beta stretching factors, and similarly defined across the complete profile by linear interpolation.

Depth to the two-layer boundary : 0 - 150km.

The depth to the boundary between the upper and lower layers in the two-layer stretching model.

Initial lithospheric thermal age : 0 - 200Myrs.

The age in millions of years, at the beginning of the model run, since the end of the rifting phase and the start of the postrift phase. This is used in both the stretching models and in the flexural model.

Elastic thickness of the lithosphere : Integer, 0, 5, 30, infinite or time-variable

This parameter defines the value of the elastic thickness of the lithosphere to be used in the flexure calculations.

T_e profile

Values for the elastic thickness of the lithosphere are defined at points on the profile, and linear interpolation is used to define values for the complete profile. These values are used in the calculation of flexure when the option for laterally varying T_e is selected.

Flexural response type :

This parameter defines the type of flexural response to loading and unloading to be used in the flexural model. It can be either instantaneous, a linear relaxation, or a exponential relaxation.

Flexural response time : Float, 0.1 to 100.0Myrs

This parameter defines the time taken by the modelled lithosphere to relax after a loading event when the linear relaxation option is used.

Absolute sealevel curve parameters

Type of absolute sealevel change:

Absolute sealevel in the model can be held constant at 0m, varied according to the curve parameters described below, or varied according to an external predefined file. If the latter is chosen, the file containing the values must have the same time-step values as chosen for the chrons in the model. For example, with a chron interval of 0.1Myrs, there must be a value in the absolute sealevel file at 0.1Myr intervals.

Short-term curve type :

The short-term curve can be either a simple linear curve, a minimum-to-maximum saw-tooth curve, a maximum-to-minimum saw-tooth curve, an initially increasing sinusoidal curve, or an initially decreasing sinusoidal curve.

Short-term curve minimum : Integer, -50 - 0m.

This parameter gives the lowest value for the short term curve.

Short-term curve maximum : Integer, 0 - 50m.

This parameter gives the highest value for the short term curve.

Short-term curve period : Float, 0 - 10Myrs.

This defines the period of the short-term absolute sealevel curve in millions of years.

Long-term curve type :

The long term absolute sealevel curve can be a linearly increasing curve, a linearly decreasing curve, an initially rising sinusoidal curve, or an initially falling sinusoidal curve.

Long-term curve minimum : Integer, -100 - 0m.

This parameter gives the lowest value for the long term curve.

Long-term curve maximum : Integer, 0 - 100m.

This parameter gives the highest value for the long term curve.

Long-term curve period : Integer, 1 - 100Myrs.

This defines the period of the long-term absolute sealevel curve in millions of years.

Sediment supply parameters

Sediment supply model type :

Sediment supply in the model can be calculated in one of four ways determined by this parameter; it can be held constant, or it can be calculated purely from erosion and deposition on the fluvial and marine profiles, or it can be calculated from profile erosion, with the addition of area from a pre-calculated curve, or it can be calculated purely from a pre-calculated curve.

Sediment supply curve type :

The sediment supply curve can have several forms; a simple linear increase, a simple linear decrease, an initially rising sinusoidal curve, an initially falling sinusoidal curve, a minimum-to-maximum saw tooth curve or a maximum-to-minimum saw tooth curve. The curve may also be defined from an external file.

Maximum sediment area : Float, 0 - 4km².

This parameter defines the maximum value for the sediment supply curves, or the value for the area available for deposition for each time step when the constant sediment supply option is used.

Minimum sediment area : Float, 0 - 4km².

This parameter defines the minimum value for the sediment supply curves.

Sediment supply curve period : Float, 0 - 10Myrs.

This parameter defines the period of the sediment supply curve in millions of years. If a saw tooth curve is selected, for example, it defines the period between sudden falls or rises.

Sediment release coefficient : Integer, 0 - 100.

This parameter specifies the percentage of the area of sediment eroded on the fluvial profile that is to be released for deposition on the model profile for each time step. For example, if a release coefficient of 50% were specified, then for each time step 50% of the eroded sediment area would be released, the remaining area would be added to the total area held for future release in subsequent time steps.

Appendix 2

Appendix 2 - Details of the computer system and the source code listings

This appendix describes the requirements of the model in terms of hardware, and software. A full listing of the model module and the include file are given.

Hardware requirements

The model system has been developed on a network of SUN Microsystems workstations, of various types and specifications ranging from Sun 3/80s acting as x-terminals, to a SPARC 2 colour workstation. File service is provided by a central fileserver. Output from the model was produced using a laser printer, and a QMS Colourscript 100 model 10 colour printer.

Software requirements

The software is written predominantly in C, though some routines such as the flexure calculations are written in FORTRAN. The C code has been compiled using the SUN cc compiler. The model uses the Openwindows graphical interface. The library files that have been used are shown in the model include file. Postscript output was produced from the model using the CAL2PS library routines.

The code listings

The program has been developed as five separate modules which fulfil individual functions. The main module contains the majority of the actual model code. The other modules contain the code to define the model windows, canvases, and menus, to define the behaviour of the interface between the windows and the user, and to plot the model output, both directly onto the screen, and also into a postscript file. Many of the data structures

used throughout the modules are defined globally in the include file. For the sake of brevity, and because the details of the window definitions and the graphics output are not essential to the arguments in this thesis, only the header file and the main model module are listed here.

```

1  /* Program to forward model stratigraphy in a passive rift margin basin.
2  Written by Pete Burgess. Started January 1991. Last Updated 1/3/94. */
3
4  /* Include basin header file to define functions, consts, global vars, and structures
5  */
6  #include "includes/Xbasin_header.h"
7
8  struct File_params files;
9  struct Params params;
10 struct Options options;
11 struct Zoombox zoombox;
12 struct Eustasy eustasy;
13 struct Sed_budget sed_budget;
14 struct Strat strat;
15 struct Tect tect;
16 struct Post post;
17 struct Exec exec;
18 struct Exec_flags exec_flags;
19 struct Chrono_plot chrono_plot;
20
21 Xv_notice notice;
22
23 FILE *info, *sed_curve_file, *chrons, *beach;
24
25 void main(argc, argv)
26 /* Call the windows or the batch routine depending on command line arguments */
27 int argc;
28 char **argv;
29 {
30     /* Defined in include file set_windows.c */
31     if (argc == 1)
32     {
33         files.batch = FALSE;
34         setgraphics();
35         window_main_loop(mainframe);
36     }
37     else
38     {
39         files.batch = TRUE;
40         batch_job(argc, argv);
41     }
42 }
43
44 void batch_job(argc, argv)
45 /* Control model execution if the program is being run as a batch job */
46 int argc;
47 char **argv;
48 {
49     char buffer[80], test_com[5];
50     info = fopen("info.txt", "w");
51
52     if (argc < 4)
53         fprintf(info, "\nIncorrect number of command line arguments!\nsyntax
54 : basin -b <input file> <output file>\n");
55     else
56     {
57         strcpy(test_com, "-b");
58         strcpy(buffer, argv[1][0]);
59         if (strcmp(buffer, test_com) == 0)
60         {
61             /* NOTE - next lines commented out pending modification of th
62             routines.
63
64             strcpy(files.directory, "/home/tigger_scratch/pete/");
65             strcpy(files.fname, argv[2][0]);
66             strcpy(files.out_fname, argv[3][0]);
67             fprintf(info, "Reading from %s, writing to %s\n", files.fname,
68

```

```

69     files.out_fname);
70
71     fprintf(stderr, "Batch mode operation not currently supported\
72
73     do_load();
74     exec_flags.initialised = TRUE;
75     fprintf(info, "Running model...");
76     run_proc();
77     fprintf(info, "Complete\n");
78     do_save(); */
79 }
80
81 fclose(info);
82
83 void special_case_run()
84 {
85     int count = 1;
86     char filename[80], number_tag[10];
87
88     do
89     {
90         init_proc();
91         params.chronfreq = params.chronint = (float) (count * 0.0001);
92         fprintf(stderr, "Model run %d, chron interval %f\n", count, params.chr
93
94         onint);
95         run_proc();
96
97         sprintf(number_tag, "%8.6f", params.chronint);
98         strcpy(filename, "/home/tigger_scratch/pete/cint_sedcurve");
99         strcat(filename, number_tag);
100
101         dump_sedcurve(filename, count);
102         fprintf(stderr, "Run %d complete\n", count);
103         count++;
104     }
105     while (count < 1000);
106
107 void init_proc()
108 /* Initialise the execution variables, get profiles, set arrays, and start curves. */
109 {
110     FILE *outfile;
111     int loop;
112
113     XClearWindow(dpy, canvas_win);
114
115     get_params();
116
117     if (!check_params())
118     {
119         exec.layer = 0;
120         exec.chroneelapsed = 0;
121         exec.step_chrons_done = 0;
122         exec.total_chrons_done = 0;
123         exec.time_steps_done = 0;
124
125         exec.elapsed = 0.0;
126         exec.sea_cycle_elapsed = 0.0;
127         exec.sed_cycle_elapsed = 0.0;
128
129         /* Set all the curves elements to zero */
130         zero_curve_data();
131         if (eustasy.change_flag == 1) /* Curve defined from window */
132             set_seastart();
133         else
134

```

```

138 if (eustasy.change_flag == 2) /* Curve defined in a file */
139     exec.sealevel = read_user_seacurve();
140
141     else
142         exec.sealevel = 0; /* Constant sealevel */
143
144     set_sedstart();
145     set_pcstart();
146     exec.Te = set_Te_start();
147     set_strat(FALSE);
148
149     setload_beta_Te_arrays();
150
151     copy_chron(1); /* Find the initial beach position */
152     exec.beach_pos = strat.beach[0] = find_chron_sea_intersection();
153
154     adjust_topog_to_sealevel(); /* Need to adjust topography if the initial
155     sealevel is not 0 */
156
157     if (options.riv_prof)
158         init_drainage();
159     if (options.shelf_prof && options.init_shelf_prof)
160         init_marine_prof();
161
162     set_subsid_arrays();
163     set_presev_data();
164
165     exec.flags.box_drawing = FALSE;
166     exec.flags.box_drawn = FALSE;
167     exec.flags.zoomed = FALSE;
168     exec.flags.diagpos = 0;
169     exec.flags.execution_complete = FALSE;
170     exec.flags.initialised = TRUE;
171
172     full_screen_draw(); /* Draw the profile to show the initial condition
173     */
174
175     }
176
177     void get_params()
178     /* Retrieve the input parameters from the parameter windows,
179     and put these values into the appropriate parts of the various program structures */
180     {
181         char buffer[80];
182
183         /* xv_get retrieves the specified item to put into the struct.
184         The item is either retrieved as a string into buffer, which can then be
185         converted to a float value, or is retrieved directly as an integer.*/
186
187         options.prograde = (int) xv_get(gen_options_item, PANEL_TOGGLE_VALUE, 0);
188         options.riv_prof = (int) xv_get(gen_options_item, PANEL_TOGGLE_VALUE, 1);
189         options.shelf_prof = (int) xv_get(gen_options_item, PANEL_TOGGLE_VALUE, 2);
190         options.init_shelf_prof = (int) xv_get(gen_options_item, PANEL_TOGGLE_VALUE,
191         3);
192         options.section_type = (int) xv_get(axis_option_item, PANEL_VALUE);
193         options.flex_type = (int) xv_get(flex_options_item, PANEL_VALUE);
194         options.te_type = (int) xv_get(te_options_item, PANEL_VALUE);
195         tect.response_type = (int) xv_get(response_type_item, PANEL_VALUE);
196         options.subside_type = (int) xv_get(subside_type_item, PANEL_VALUE);
197         options.profile_type = (int) xv_get(profile_type_item, PANEL_VALUE);
198         options.curve_type = (int) xv_get(curve_type_item, PANEL_VALUE);
199         options.fluvial_prog = (unsigned short int) xv_get(fluvial_prog_item, PANEL_V
200         ALUE);
201         options.perm_fluv_prof = (unsigned short int) xv_get(perm_prof_item, PANEL_VA
202         LUE);
203         options.onlap_type = (unsigned short int) xv_get(onlap_type_item, PANEL_VALUE
204         );
205         options.water_loading = (unsigned short int) xv_get(water_loading_item, PANEL
206         _VALUE);

```

```

207     params.proflen = pow(2.0, (double)xv_get(proflen_item, PANEL_VALUE) );
208     params.prof_gap = params.proflen / (float) USEDPPTS;
209     params.marker_point = (int) xv_get(marker_point_item, PANEL_VALUE) / params.
210     prof_gap);
211     params.Psed = atof((char *) xv_get(sed_density_item, PANEL_VALUE));
212     params.Pdisp = P_WATER;
213     params.Pmant = P_MANT;
214     params.Pinf = params.Pdisp; /* Water infill!! */
215     strcpy(params.loadfile, (char *) xv_get(loadfile_item, PANEL_VALUE));
216     strcpy(params.betafile, (char *) xv_get(betafile_item, PANEL_VALUE));
217     strcpy(params.sigmapfile, (char *) xv_get(sigmapfile_item, PANEL_VALUE));
218     strcpy(params.Tefile, (char *) xv_get(Tefile_item, PANEL_VALUE));
219     params.boundary_depth = (float) xv_get(boundary_depth_item, PANEL_VALUE);
220     params.crust_age = atof((char *) xv_get(crust_age_item, PANEL_VALUE));
221     tect.response_time = atof((char *) xv_get(response_time_item, PANEL_VALUE));
222     params.shelf_grad = atof((char *) xv_get(shelf_grad_item, PANEL_VALUE));
223     params.slope_grad = atof((char *) xv_get(slope_grad_item, PANEL_VALUE));
224     params.wave_base = atof((char *) xv_get(wave_base_item, PANEL_VALUE));
225     params.shore_width = atof((char *) xv_get(shore_width_item, PANEL_VALUE));
226     params.drainage_len = atof((char *) xv_get(drainage_item, PANEL_VALUE));
227     params.diff_coeff = atof((char *) xv_get(diffcoeff_item, PANEL_VALUE));
228     /*params.partition_coef = atof((char *) xv_get(partition_item, PANEL_VALUE))
229     */
230     params.cutback_rate = atof((char *) xv_get(cutback_item, PANEL_VALUE));
231     params.length_scale = atof((char *) xv_get(length_scale_item, PANEL_VALUE));
232     params.fluv_depos_cutoff = atof((char *) xv_get(fluv_depos_cutoff_item, PANEL
233     _VALUE));
234     params.chronint = atof((char *) xv_get(chronint_item, PANEL_VALUE));
235     params.chronfreq = atof((char *) xv_get(chronfreq_item, PANEL_VALUE));
236     params.chrons = (int) xv_get(chrons_item, PANEL_VALUE);
237     params.step_chrons = (int) xv_get(step_chrons_item, PANEL_VALUE);
238     eustasy.change_flag = (int) xv_get(sea_change_flag_item, PANEL_VALUE);
239     eustasy.max_level1 = (int) xv_get(seamax_item1, PANEL_VALUE);
240     eustasy.min_level1 = (int) xv_get(seamin_item1, PANEL_VALUE);
241     eustasy.freq1 = atof((char *) xv_get(seafreq_item1, PANEL_VALUE));
242     eustasy.curve_type1 = (int) xv_get(seacurve_item1, PANEL_VALUE);
243     strcpy(eustasy.curve_fname, (char *) xv_get(seafname_item, PANEL_VALUE));
244     eustasy.max_level2 = (int) xv_get(seamax_item2, PANEL_VALUE);
245
246
247
248
249
250
251
252
253
254
255
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257
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270 eustasy.min_level2 = (int) xv_get(seamin_item2, PANEL_VALUE);
271 eustasy.freq2 = (int) xv_get(seafreq_item2, PANEL_VALUE);
272 eustasy.curve_type2 = (int) xv_get(seacurve_item2, PANEL_VALUE);
273
274 sed_budget.supply_flag = (int) xv_get(supply_flag_item, PANEL_VALUE);
275
276 /* Needs to be converted to square metres */
277 /*sed_budget.external_budget = (int) xv_get(external_budget_item, PANEL_VALUE
278 ) * 1.0E6;*/
279
280 sed_budget.maxsed = atof((char *) xv_get(sedmax_item, PANEL_VALUE)) * 1.0E6;
281 sed_budget.minsed = atof((char *) xv_get(sedmin_item, PANEL_VALUE)) * 1.0E6;
282
283 sed_budget.freq = atof((char *) xv_get(sedfreq_item, PANEL_VALUE));
284
285 sed_budget.drainage_ratio = (int) xv_get(drain_rat_item, PANEL_VALUE);
286
287 sed_budget.release_perc = (int) xv_get(release_item, PANEL_VALUE);
288
289 sed_budget.curve_type = (int) xv_get(sedcurve_item, PANEL_VALUE);
290
291 sed_budget.pc_type_flag = (unsigned short int) xv_get(pc_flag_item, PANEL_VAL
292 UE);
293
294 sed_budget.pc_max = atof((char *) xv_get(pcmax_item, PANEL_VALUE));
295
296 sed_budget.pc_min = atof((char *) xv_get(pcmin_item, PANEL_VALUE));
297
298 sed_budget.pc_freq = atof((char *) xv_get(pcfreq_item, PANEL_VALUE));
299
300 /* Get the numbers for drawing the chrono strat
301 chrono_plot.show_chrono = (unsigned short int) xv_get(active_diags_item, PANE
302 L_TOGGLE_VALUE, 0);
303 Chrono_plot.show_eustasy = (unsigned short int) xv_get(active_diags_item, PAN
304 EL_TOGGLE_VALUE, 1);
305 chrono_plot.show_sed_supply = (unsigned short int) xv_get(active_diags_item,
306 PANEL_TOGGLE_VALUE, 2);
307
308 chrono_plot.wheeler_width = (unsigned short int) xv_get(wheeler_width_item,
309 PANEL_VALUE);
310 chrono_plot.sed_supply_width = (unsigned short int) xv_get(sed_supply_width_
311 item, PANEL_VALUE);
312 chrono_plot.eustasy_width = (unsigned short int) xv_get(sed_supply_width_ite
313 m, PANEL_VALUE);
314
315 chrono_plot.zoom_left = (int) xv_get(wheeler_zoom_left_item, PANEL_VALUE);
316 chrono_plot.zoom_right = (int) xv_get(wheeler_zoom_right_item, PANEL_VALUE);
317
318 int check_params()
319 /* Check some of the major parameters are within proscribed limits. Returns TRUE if t
320 here is a problem,
321 FALSE if everything checks out */
322 {
323     int problem = FALSE;
324     FILE *testfile;
325     xv_notice notice;
326
327     if (params.proflen < 100 || params.proflen > 5000)
328     {
329         notice = xv_create(mainframe, NOTICE,
330                             NOTICE_MESSAGE_STRINGS, "Profile length too big or too small!",
331                             "Range 100 - 5000 (km)", NULL,
332                             "Continue", 1,
333                             XV_SHOW,
334                             TRUE, NULL);
335     }
336
337     notice = xv_create(mainframe, NOTICE,
338                         NOTICE_MESSAGE_STRINGS, "Problem length too big or too small!",
339                         "Range 100 - 5000 (km)", NULL,
340                         "Continue", 1,
341                         XV_SHOW,
342                         TRUE, NULL);
343     problem = TRUE;
344 }

```

```

330 }
331
332 if ((testfile = fopen(params.loadfile, "r")) == NULL)
333 {
334     notice = xv_create(mainframe, NOTICE,
335                         NOTICE_MESSAGE_STRINGS, "No such loadfile able to open in pre
336 sent directory!",
337                         "Check filename and try again.", NULL,
338                         "Continue", 1,
339                         XV_SHOW,
340                         TRUE, NULL);
341
342     problem = TRUE;
343 }
344 fclose(testfile);
345
346 if ((testfile = fopen(params.betafile, "r")) == NULL)
347 {
348     notice = xv_create(mainframe, NOTICE,
349                         NOTICE_MESSAGE_STRINGS, "No such betafile able to open in pre
350 sent directory!",
351                         "Check filename and try again.", NULL,
352                         "Continue", 1,
353                         XV_SHOW,
354                         TRUE, NULL);
355
356     problem = TRUE;
357 }
358 fclose(testfile);
359
360 /*if (params.chronint < 0.009999 || params.chronint > 2.01)
361 {
362     notice = xv_create(mainframe, NOTICE,
363                         NOTICE_MESSAGE_STRINGS, "Chron interval outside limits!",
364                         "0.01Myr to 2.00Myr.", NULL,
365                         "Continue", 1,
366                         XV_SHOW,
367                         TRUE, NULL);
368
369     problem = TRUE;
370 }*/
371
372 if (params.chrons * params.chronint > 1000)
373 {
374     notice = xv_create(mainframe, NOTICE,
375                         NOTICE_MESSAGE_STRINGS, "Total modal duration more than 100My
376 r!",
377                         "Reduce number or duration of chrons.",
378                         "Continue", 1,
379                         XV_SHOW,
380                         TRUE, NULL);
381
382     problem = TRUE;
383 }
384
385 if (params.chronint > params.chronfreq)
386 {
387     notice = xv_create(mainframe, NOTICE,
388                         NOTICE_MESSAGE_STRINGS, "Chron storage frequency less than ch
389 ron interval!",
390                         "Reduce interval or increase storage
391 frequency.", NULL,
392                         "Continue", 1,
393                         XV_SHOW,
394                         TRUE, NULL);
395
396     problem = TRUE;
397 }
398
399 if (params.step_chrons > params.chrons)
400 {
401     notice = xv_create(mainframe, NOTICE,

```

```

393 an total number of chrons!",
394 hrons per step.", NULL,
395 NOTICE_MESSAGE_STRINGS, "Number of chrons per step greater th
396 "Reduce total or increase number of c
397 "Continue", 1,
398 NOTICE_BUTTON,
399 XV_SHOW,
400 TRUE, NULL);
401
402 problem = TRUE;
403
404 return(problem);
405
406 void set_seastart()
407 /* Initialise the sealevel curve, dependent on which curve type has been chosen. */
408 {
409 float temp;
410 temp = (float) (eustasy.max_level1 - eustasy.min_level1);
411 exec.sealevel = 0.0;
412 switch (eustasy.curve_type1)
413 {
414 case 0 : exec.sea_change1 = (fabs(temp * 2.0) / (float) (eusta
415 sy.freq1 * 10.0));
416 break;
417 case 1 : exec.sea_change1 = fabs(temp) / (float) (eustasy.freq
418 1 * 10.0);
419 break;
420 case 2 : exec.sea_change1 = -(fabs(temp) / (float) (eustasy.fr
421 eq1 * 10.0));
422 break;
423 case 3 :
424 case 4 : exec.sea_change1 = temp / 2.0; /* for sin function ch
425 ange = amplitude */
426 break;
427 default : exec.sea_change1 = 0;
428 }
429 temp = (float) (eustasy.max_level2 - eustasy.min_level2);
430 switch (eustasy.curve_type2)
431 {
432 case 0 : exec.sea_change2 = (fabs(temp) / (float) (eustasy.fre
433 q2 * 10.0));
434 exec.sealevel = eustasy.min_level2;
435 break;
436 case 1 : exec.sea_change2 = (fabs(temp) / (float) (eustasy.fre
437 q2 * 10.0));
438 exec.sealevel = eustasy.max_level2;
439 break;
440 case 2 :
441 case 3 : exec.sea_change2 = temp / 2.0;
442 /* for sin function change = amplitude */
443 /*exec.sealevel = eustasy.min_level2 + fabs(temp) / 2.
444 0);*/
445 break;
446 case 4 :
447 case 5 : exec.sea_change2 = temp / 2.0;
448 /* for sin function change = amplitude */
449 /*exec.sealevel = eustasy.min_level2 + fabs(temp) / 2.
450 0);*/
451 break;
452 default : exec.sea_change2 = 0;
453

```

```

454 }
455
456 exec.sea_marker1 = exec.sealevel;
457 exec.sea_marker2 = exec.sealevel;
458
459 init_sea_curve();
460
461 void init_sea_curve()
462 /* Set a value of absolute sealevel for each time step depending on which type of cur
463 ve has been chosen */
464 {
465 int loop;
466 float sealevel1 = 0.0, sealevel2 = 0;
467 strat.curves_data[0][0] = 0.0;
468 strat.curves_data[0][SEALEVEL] = 0.0;
469
470 for (loop = 1; loop <= params.chrons; loop++)
471 {
472 switch (eustasy.curve_type1)
473 {
474 case 0 : sealevel1 += sea_smooth_linear();
475 break;
476 case 1 :
477 case 2 : sea_saw_tooth(&sealevel1);
478 break;
479 case 3 : sea_sinusoidal_pos(&sealevel1, loop);
480 break;
481 case 4 : sea_sinusoidal_neg(&sealevel1, loop);
482 break;
483 }
484
485 switch (eustasy.curve_type2)
486 {
487 case 0 : sealevel2 += sea_increase();
488 break;
489 case 1 : sealevel2 -= sea_decrease();
490 break;
491 case 2 : sea_sinusoidal2_pos(&sealevel2, loop);
492 break;
493 case 3 : sea_sinusoidal2_neg(&sealevel2, loop);
494 break;
495 default : break;
496 }
497
498 strat.curves_data[loop][SEALEVEL] = sealevel1 + sealevel2;
499 }
500
501 float sea_smooth_linear()
502 /* Change sea level with smooth linear curve */
503 {
504 /* If sealevel is at specified maximum or minimum reverse the sign of change
505 */
506 if (exec.sealevel <= eustasy.min_level1 || exec.sealevel >= (eustasy.max_level
507 1))
508 {
509 exec.sea_change1 = -(exec.sea_change1);
510 return(exec.sea_change1);
511 }
512 void sea_saw_tooth(sealevel)
513 /* Change sea level with saw tooth curve */
514 float *sealevel;
515 {

```

```

522 to
523 /* If min-max type and sealevel at max, change sealevel to minimum and output
524 disc file to effect an instantaneous change */
525 if (eustasy.curve_type == 1 && exec.sealevel >= eustasy.max_level)
526 *sealevel = eustasy.min_level;
527 else
528 /* Do the same but for a maximum to minimum curve */
529 if (eustasy.curve_type == 2 && exec.sealevel <= eustasy.min_level)
530 *sealevel = eustasy.max_level;
531 else
532 /* If not at max or min, just apply change amount */
533 *sealevel += exec.sea_change;
534 }
535 void sea_sinusoidal_pos(sealevel, loop)
536 /* Calculate sealevel after cycle-elapsd time as a sine function with
537 wavelength eustasy.freq, amplitude range and center point marker. */
538 float *sealevel;
539 int loop;
540 {
541 float temp = (6.2831853 / (float)eustasy.freq) * (loop * params.chronint);
542 *sealevel = exec.sea_marker1 + (exec.sea_change * sin(temp));
543 }
544 void sea_sinusoidal_neg(sealevel, loop)
545 /* As above, but the sine curve has the opposite polarity */
546 float *sealevel;
547 int loop;
548 {
549 float temp = (6.2831853 / (float)eustasy.freq) * (loop * params.chronint);
550 *sealevel = exec.sea_marker1 - (exec.sea_change * sin(temp));
551 }
552 }
553 }
554 }
555 float sea_increase()
556 /* Change sea level with linear increase */
557 {
558 return(exec.sea_change2); /*exec.sea_marker1*/
559 }
560 }
561 float sea_decrease()
562 /* Change sea level with linear decrease */
563 {
564 return(exec.sea_change2);
565 }
566 }
567 void sea_sinusoidal2_pos(sealevel, loop)
568 /* Function to calculate sealevel after cycle-elapsd time as a sine function with
569 wavelength eustasy.freq, amplitude range and center point marker. Start curve increa
570 sing... */
571 float *sealevel;
572 int loop;
573 {
574 float temp = (6.2831853 / (float)eustasy.freq) * (loop * params.chronint);
575 *sealevel = exec.sea_marker2 + (exec.sea_change2 * sin(temp));
576 }
577 }
578 void sea_sinusoidal2_neg(sealevel, loop)
579 /* Function to calculate sealevel after cycle-elapsd time as a sine function with
580 wavelength eustasy.freq, amplitude range and center point marker. Start curve decrea
581 sing... */
582 float *sealevel;
583 int loop;
584 {
585 float temp = (6.2831853 / (float)eustasy.freq) * (loop * params.chronint);
586 *sealevel = exec.sea_marker2 - (exec.sea_change2 * sin(temp));
587 }
588 void set_sedstart()
589 /* Set the initial value of sediment supply depending on what type of supply curve ha

```

```

590 s been chosen. */
591 {
592 float temp = (float)(sed_budget.maxsed - sed_budget.minsed),
593 freq_convert = sed_budget.freq / params.chronint;
594 if (sed_budget.supply_flag == 0)
595 exec.external_budget = sed_budget.maxsed;
596 else
597 if (sed_budget.supply_flag == 2 || sed_budget.supply_flag == 3)
598 switch (sed_budget.curve_type)
599 {
600 case 0 : exec.sea_change = fabs(temp) / (float) (freq_
601 convert);
602 case 4 : exec.sea_change = fabs(temp) / (float) (freq_
603 convert);
604 case 1 : exec.external_budget = sed_budget.minsed;
605 break;
606 case 5 : exec.sea_change = -(fabs(temp) / (float) ( fr
607 eq_convert));
608 case 2 : exec.external_budget = sed_budget.maxsed;
609 break;
610 case 3 : exec.sea_change = -(temp / 2.0);
611 /* for sin function change = amplitude */
612 case 5 : exec.external_budget = sed_budget.minsed + fa
613 bs(temp / 2);
614 break;
615 case 2 : exec.sea_change = -(temp / 2.0);
616 /* for sin function change = amplitude */
617 case 3 : exec.external_budget = sed_budget.minsed + fa
618 bs(temp / 2);
619 break;
620 case 6 : sed_curve_file = fopen(
621 "/home/eeeyore/pete/basincode/data/sed
622 supply.dat", "r");
623 break;
624 }
625 exec.sea_marker = exec.external_budget;
626 exec.sea_stack_ptr = 0;
627 }
628 void set_pcstart()
629 {
630 float two_amplitude = sed_budget.pc_max - sed_budget.pc_min,
631 freq_var = sed_budget.pc_freq / params.chronint;
632 switch (sed_budget.pc_type_flag)
633 {
634 case 0 : exec.sea_pc = sed_budget.pc_max;
635 break;
636 case 1 : /* Negative sinusoidal */
637 exec.pc_change = -(two_amplitude) / 2.0;
638 exec.sea_pc = exec.pc_marker + sed_budget.pc_min - exec.pc_
639 change;
640 break;
641 case 2 : /* Positive sinusoidal */
642 exec.pc_change = (two_amplitude) / 2.0;
643 exec.sea_pc = exec.pc_marker - sed_budget.pc_min + exec.pc_c
644 hange;
645 break;
646 case 3 : /* Decreasing sawtooth */
647 exec.pc_change = (fabs(two_amplitude)) / freq_var;
648 exec.sea_pc = sed_budget.pc_max;
649 break;
650 }
651 }

```

```

653      /* Increasing sawtooth */
654      case 4 : exec.pc_change = (fabs(two_amplitude)) / freq_var;
655      exec.sed_pc = sed_budget.pc_min;
656      break;
657
658      /* External curve - see sed supply section */
659      case 5 : break;
660
661  }
662
663  void adjust_topog_to_sealevel()
664  /* If the initial sealevel is greater than 0.0, add the value of the sealevel datum to
the submarine
topography */
665  {
666      int loop;
667
668      if (eustasy_change_flag == 2 && exec.sealevel > 0.0)
669      for (loop = exec.beach_pos; loop < USEDPTS; loop++)
670      strat.chrons[0][loop] += exec.sealevel;
671
672  }
673
674  float set_Te_start()
675  /* Set the starting value of Te */
676  {
677      float temp;
678
679      if (options.Te_type == 0)
680      temp = change_Te(params.crust_age); /* Te changes through time as oce
anic crust */
681      else
682      if (options.Te_type == 1) /* Te constant at 30km */
683      temp = 30.0;
684
685      if (options.Te_type == 2) /* Te constant at 5km */
686      temp = 5.0;
687
688      if (options.Te_type == 3) /* No flexural strength - Airy isostasy */
689      temp = 0.0;
690
691      if (options.Te_type == 6)
692      temp = atof((char *) xv_get(Te_value_item, PANEL_VALUE));
693
694      return(temp);
695
696
697  void set_strat(absval)
698  /* absval = TRUE : Convert the negative values for elevation in the strat array
into positive values suitable for plotting in graphics routines.
absval = FALSE : Set all elements of strat and depos to zero ready to start. */
699  int absval;
700
701  {
702      int loop1, loop2;
703
704      for (loop1 = 0; loop1 <= params.chrons; loop1++)
705      for (loop2 = 0; loop2 <USEDPTS; loop2++)
706      if (absval)
707      {
708          if (strat.chrons[loop1][loop2] > 0)
709          strat.chrons[loop1][loop2] =
-strat.chrons[loop1][loop2];
710
711          else
712          strat.chrons[loop1][loop2] =
abs(strat.chrons[loop1][loop2]);
713
714      }
715      else
716      {
717          strat.chrons[loop1][loop2] = 0.0;
718          strat.depos[loop1][loop2] = NO_DEPOS;
719          tect.flex_hist[loop1][loop2] = 0.0;
720
721      }

```

```

722  }
723
724  void set_subsid_arrays()
725  /* Set the subsidence arrays to their starting values. This is done by using the norma
l tectonic subsidence
routines but sending zero as the elapsed time parameter */
726  {
727      int loop;
728
729      for (loop = 0; loop < USEDPTS; loop++)
730      {
731          if (options.subside_type == 1)
732          {
733              exec.refsub[loop] = one_mckenzie_sub(exec.betaprof[loop], 0.0
);
734
735              if (exec.betaprof[loop] > 1.0)
736              exec.new_tect_sub[loop] = exec.refsub[loop] -
one_mckenzie_sub(exec.betaprof[loop], params.
crust_age);
737              else
738              exec.new_tect_sub[loop] = 0.0;
739
740              }
741          else
742          if (options.subside_type == 2)
743          {
744              exec.refsub[loop] = one_two_layer_sub(exec.betaprof[loop], ex
ec.sigmaprof[loop], 0.0);
745
746              if (exec.betaprof[loop] > 1.0 || exec.sigmaprof[loop] > 1.0)
747              exec.new_tect_sub[loop] = exec.refsub[loop] -
one_two_layer_sub(exec.betaprof[loop], exec.s
igmaprof[loop],
params.crust_age);
748              else
749              exec.new_tect_sub[loop] = 0.0;
750
751          }
752
753          void zero_curve_data()
754          /* Set all the strat curves to zero as an initial value */
755          {
756              int loop;
757
758              for (loop = 0; loop < MAX_STEPS; loop++)
759              {
760                  strat.curves_data[loop][0] = 0.0;
761                  strat.curves_data[loop][SEALEVEL] = 0.0;
762                  strat.curves_data[loop][FLUV_DEP] = 0.0;
763                  strat.curves_data[loop][FLUV_EROD] = 0.0;
764                  strat.curves_data[loop][MAR_EROD] = 0.0;
765                  strat.curves_data[loop][MAR_EROD] = 0.0;
766                  strat.curves_data[loop][EX_SED] = 0.0;
767                  strat.curves_data[loop][REL_SEA] = 0.0;
768                  strat.curves_data[loop][THERM_SUB] = 0.0;
769                  strat.curves_data[loop][V_ONLAP] = 0.0;
770
771              }
772
773              for (loop = 0; loop < MAXCHRONOS; loop++)
774              {
775                  strat.equilib_point[loop] = 0; /* Set to zero so the drawing routine
knows not to draw */
776                  strat.onlap[loop] = 0;
777                  strat.beach[loop] = 0;
778
779              }
780
781              void set_presev_data()
782              /* Set all the preservation array to zero. */
783              {
784
785              }
786

```

```

787 int loop;
788
789 for (loop = 0; loop < ENVIRONS; loop++)
790   strat.presev_info[loop][0] = strat.presev_info[loop][1] = 0.0;
791 }
792
793 void init_drainage()
794 /* Define nick point positions and cut a river profile into basement (chrons[0][x]) *
795 /
796 {
797   exec.drainage_divide = exec.nick_point = exec.beach_pos -
798   (params.drainage_len / params.prof_gap);
799   exec.nick_count = 0;
800   exec.length_scale = params.length_scale;
801   exec.temp_elevation = strat.chrons[0][exec.drainage_divide];
802   switch (options.curve_type)
803   {
804     case 0 : init_expo_curve();
805     case 1 : break;
806     case 2 : init_erfc_curve();
807               exec.old_riv_prof_area = calc_prof_area(exec.drainage_divide
808               , exec.beach_pos);
809   }
810   if (options.perm_fluv_prof)
811     init_fixed_fluv_prof();
812 }
813
814 void init_expo_curve()
815 /* Initialise the exponential curve */
816 {
817   float constant;
818   int loop;
819   constant = ( log(exec.base_chron(exec.drainage_divide) - exec.sealevel - 1.0) )
820   / (double)(exec.drainage_divide - exec.beach_pos);
821   for (loop = exec.drainage_divide; loop < exec.beach_pos; loop++)
822     strat.chrons[0][loop] = exec.base_chron(loop) = exec.work_chron(loop)
823     = exp( (constant * (loop - exec.beach_pos)) + exec.sealevel -
824     1.0);
825 }
826
827 void init_erfc_curve()
828 /* Initialise the complementary error function curve */
829 {
830   float x_scale = params.length_scale / (exec.beach_pos - exec.drainage_divide);
831   end_value = erfc(params.length_scale),
832   Y_scale = (1.0 - end_value) /
833   (exec.base_chron(exec.drainage_divide) - exec.sealevel);
834
835   int loop;
836   FILE *flux_out;
837   flux_out = fopen("init_prof_flux.dat", "w");
838   /* See thesis, chapter 2, for details of the erfc curve formulation */
839   for (loop = exec.drainage_divide; loop <= exec.beach_pos; loop++)
840   {
841     strat.chrons[0][loop] = exec.base_chron(loop) =
842     exec.work_chron(loop) = exec.new_eq_prof(loop) =
843     ((erfc((float)(loop - exec.drainage_divide) * x_scale) - end_
844     value) / Y_scale)
845     + exec.sealevel;
846     fprintf(flux_out, "%f %f\n", (loop - exec.drainage_divide) * 0.25,
847     848
849     850

```

```

851 / 250.0 ) );
852 }
853
854 fclose(flux_out);
855 }
856
857 void init_fixed_fluv_prof()
858 {
859   int loop;
860   for (loop = exec.drainage_divide; loop <= exec.beach_pos; loop++)
861     exec.fixed_fluv_prof[loop] = strat.chrons[0][loop];
862 }
863
864 void init_marine_prof()
865 /* Set up the initial marine profile with an expo shoreface and a fixed slope shelf cu
866 t into
867 the initial topography */
868 {
869   int loop,
870   beach_bit_done = FALSE;
871   float constant,
872   vert_inc = params.shelf_grad * params.prof_gap * 2000.0, /* Double in
873   itial slope */
874   shore_width_points = params.shore_width / params.prof_gap,
875   elevation;
876   constant = log( params.wave_base ) / (- shore_width_points);
877   for (loop = exec.beach_pos; loop < USEDPTS; loop++)
878     if (!beach_bit_done)
879     {
880       /* Define a point on the expo shoreface */
881       elevation = exp( (constant * (loop - (exec.beach_pos + sh
882       ore_width_points)))
883       + (exec.sealevel - params.wave_base);
884     }
885     if (elevation < strat.chrons[0][loop])
886     {
887       strat.chrons[0][loop] = exec.new_eq_prof(loop) =
888       exec.base_chron(loop) = exec.work_chron(loop) = eleva
889       tion;
890     }
891     beach_bit_done = check_equilib_grad(loop, exec.beach_
892     pos);
893   }
894   else
895     /* Set const slope part by subtracting vert_inc from left pos
896     ition, until
897     the current point in the predefined topography is less than t
898     he point just
899     defined to the left. i.e. the shelf/slope break has been reac
900     hed. */
901     if (strat.chrons[0][loop] > strat.chrons[0][loop - 1] )
902     strat.chrons[0][loop] = exec.new_eq_prof(loop) =
903     exec.base_chron(loop) = exec.work_chron(loop) =
904     strat.chrons[0][loop - 1] - vert_inc;
905 }
906
907 void run_proc()
908 /* Run the initialised model. */
909 {
910   int chron_storage_freq = (int)(params.chronfreq / params.chronint);
911   int loop1, loop2;
912   chrons = fopen("chron_dump.dat", "w");

```

```

913 beach = fopen("beach.dat", "w");
914
915 if (!exec_flags.initialised || exec_flags.execution_complete)
916   notice_prompt((Frame) mainframe, (Event*) NULL,
917   NOTICE_MESSAGE_STRINGS,
918   "Model has not been initialised, or run has been completed.",
919   "Select the 'Initialise' button then try again.", 0,
920   NOTICE_BUTTON_YES, "Continue", 0);
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beach = fopen("beach.dat", "w");
if (!exec_flags.initialised || exec_flags.execution_complete)
  notice_prompt((Frame) mainframe, (Event*) NULL,
  NOTICE_MESSAGE_STRINGS,
  "Model has not been initialised, or run has been completed.",
  "Select the 'Initialise' button then try again.", 0,
  NOTICE_BUTTON_YES, "Continue", 0);
else
{
do
{
/* Do first chron after elapsed time equal to
the duration of a chron interval (0.1Ma units).
N.B. This means time 0 will be basement only, no depos. */
if (options.Te_type == 0) /* Time dependant Te */
  exec.Te = change_Te();
exec.elapsed += params.chronint; /* Increment elapsed time in
exec.time_steps_done++; /* Has to be inc. before curves are c
exec.chrone_lapsed += 1;
if (eustasy.change_flag == 1 || eustasy.change_flag == 2)
{
  change_sealevel();
  if (options.curve_type == 2)
    calc_new_prof_area();
}
change sed budget();
change_sedpc();
change_drainage();
fprintf(stderr, "\npc %f ", exec.sed_pc );
do_a_chron();
/* Store the current chron if the number of chrons generated
if (exec.chrone_lapsed == chron_storage_freq )
{
  copy_chron(2);
  exec.chrone_lapsed = 0;
  exec.total_chrons_done++;
  exec.step_chrons_done++;
  exec.layer++;
}
while (exec.step_chrons_done != params.step_chrons &&
exec.total_chrons_done <= params.chrons); /* Check to see if
the model step is done*/
exec.step_chrons_done = 0;
calc_onlap();
if (exec.total_chrons_done == params.chrons) /* The model run is comp
{
  exec.flags.execution_complete = TRUE;
  exec.flags.initialised = FALSE;
  strat.curves_data[exec.time_steps_done + 1][0] = -99.0;
}
compile_presev_info();
}

```

```

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```

```

if (!files.batch) /* Draw model output */
  if (!exec_flags.zoomed)
    full_screen_draw();
  else
    zoomed_screen_draw();
for (loop1 = exec.drainage_divide; loop1 < 2400; loop1++)
{
  fprintf(chrons, "%f ", loop1 * 0.250);
  for (loop2 = 0; loop2 < exec.layer+1; loop2++)
    fprintf(chrons, "%f ", strat.chrons[loop2][loop1]);
  fprintf(chrons, "\n");
}
fclose(chrons);
fclose(beach);
}
void copy_chron(flag)
/* If flag = 1, set work and base chrons to last layer created, and initialise equilibri
b., flex and load profs
if flag = 2, copy work chron, the just deposited chron, into the strat array for p
erm. storage. */
int flag;
{
  int loop;
  unsigned short int enviro;
  if (flag == 1)
  {
    for (loop = 0; loop < USEDPTS; loop++)
    /* Set base chron to last preserved strat layer. Set work chr
    equilib. profs are generated */
    exec.base_chron[loop] = exec.work_chron[loop] = exec.last_ch
    = strat.chrons[exec.layer][loop];
  }
  /* Set eq prof. to current base chron to cover areas outside
  river profile */
  exec.old_eq_prof[loop] = exec.new_eq_prof[loop];
  exec.new_eq_prof[loop] = exec.base_chron[loop];
  exec.flexprof[loop] = 0.0;
  exec.loadprof[loop] = 0.0;
}
else
if (flag == 2)
{
  /* Chron is completed. Record work chron in strat array */
  for (loop = 0; loop < USEDPTS; loop++)
    strat.chrons[exec.layer+1][loop] = exec.work_chron[loop];
}
void do_a_chron()
/* Call all the appropriate routines to generate one chron. */
{
  int left, right, loop;
  fprintf(stderr, "\nChron number %d ...", exec.layer + 1);
  layer_label(TRUE);
  /* If subsidence type is 0, no thermal subsidence */
  if (options.subside_type == 1)
    mckenzie_subside();
}

```

```

1045 else
1046 if (options.subside_type == 2)
1047     two_layer_subside();
1048
1049 find_equilib_point();
1050
1051 copy_chron(1);
1052
1053 exec.beach_pos = strat.beach(exec.layer + 1) = find_coast();
1054
1055 exec.ss_break_pos = generate_marine_profile();
1056 check_ss_break_pos();
1057
1058 if (options.prograde)
1059 {
1060     if (options.riv_prof)
1061         gen_riv_prof();
1062
1063     prograde(&left, &right);
1064 }
1065
1066 record_chron_areas();
1067 compile_depos_info();
1068
1069 if (options.Te_type != 4) /* opt 4 is no flexure and rigid litho, so don't ex
1070     cute any flex*/
1071 {
1072     fprintf(stderr, "Flexure...");
1073     calc_flex_disp_coeff();
1074
1075     if (options.flex_type == 1 || options.flex_type == 2)
1076         accurate_flex();
1077     else
1078         flex();
1079
1080     switch (tect.response_type)
1081     {
1082     case 0 : inst_flex_subside();
1083             break;
1084     case 1 : linear_flex_subside();
1085             break;
1086     case 2 : expo_flex_subside();
1087             }
1088
1089     fprintf(beach, "%f %f\n", strat.beach(exec.layer) * 0.250,
1090             strat.chrons(exec.layer)[strat.beach(exec.layer)] );
1091
1092     layer_label(FALSE);
1093     fprintf(stderr, "Done...");
1094 }
1095
1096 void mckenzie_subside()
1097 /* Call the functions to calculate the thermal subsidence according to Mckenzie (1978
1098 ) */
1099 {
1100     fprintf(stderr, "Therm. Sub...");
1101     get_mckenzie_subs();
1102     tect_subside();
1103 }
1104
1105 void two_layer_subside()
1106 /* Call the functions to calculate the thermal subsidence according to Hellinger and
1107 Sclater (1983) */
1108 {
1109     fprintf(stderr, "Therm. Sub...");
1110     get_two_layer_subs();
1111     tect_subside();
1112 }

```

```

1113 void tect_subside()
1114 /* Subside surfaces by magnitude of tectonic subsidence. */
1115 {
1116     int loop, subloop;
1117     for (loop = 0; loop < USEDPTS; loop++)
1118     {
1119         for (subloop = 0; subloop <= exec.layer; subloop++)
1120         {
1121             /* Subside by the difference between the value for therm sub
1122             step, and the value for this time step */
1123             strat.chrons(subloop)[loop] -= exec.new_tect_sub[loop] -
1124                 exec.old_tect_sub[loop];
1125         }
1126     }
1127     exec.fixed_fluv_prof[loop] -= exec.new_tect_sub[loop] - exec.old_tect
1128         _sub[loop];
1129 }
1130
1131 void get_mckenzie_subs()
1132 /* Loop to calculate the values for tectonic thermal subsidence across the profile */
1133 {
1134     int loop;
1135     for (loop = 0; loop < USEDPTS; loop++)
1136     {
1137         exec.old_tect_sub[loop] = exec.new_tect_sub[loop];
1138         if (exec.betaprof[loop] > 1.0)
1139             exec.new_tect_sub[loop] = strat.curves_data[exec.time_steps_
1140                 done][THERM_SUB] =
1141                 exec.refsub[loop] - one_mckenzie_sub(exec.betaprof[lo
1142                 op], params.crust_age);
1143         else
1144             exec.new_tect_sub[loop] = 0.0;
1145     }
1146 }
1147
1148 float one_mckenzie_sub(beta, crust_age)
1149 /* Calculate the subsidence value at one point on the profile with a given beta value
1150 and age */
1151 float beta;
1152 float crust_age;
1153 {
1154     double temp1, temp2, temp3, temp4, temp5, temp6, temp7,
1155         sum = 0.0,
1156         bigtime = (crust_age + exec.elapsed) * 60.0 * 24.0 * 365.0 * 1
1157         .0e6,
1158         Pm = params.Pmant*10e2,
1159         Pd = params.Pdisp*10e2,
1160         TAU = 62.8 * 60.0 * 60.0 * 24.0 * 365.0 * 1.0e6,
1161         A = 125000.0,
1162         ALPHA = 3.28e-5,
1163         TO = 1333.0;
1164     int loop;
1165     for (loop = 0; loop < 5; loop++)
1166     {
1167         temp1 = 2.0 * (double)loop + 1.0;
1168         temp2 = 1.0 / (temp1 * temp1);
1169         temp3 = beta / (temp1 * M_PI);
1170         temp4 = (temp1 * M_PI) / beta;
1171         temp5 = sin((double)temp7);
1172         temp6 = (temp1 * temp1) * (bigtime / TAU);
1173         temp7 = exp(-temp5);
1174         sum += temp2 * (temp3 * temp4) * temp6;
1175     }
1176 }

```

```

1178 }
1179 }
1180
1181 void get_two_layer_subs()
1182 /* Calculate the thermal subsidence across the profile for the two-layer model */
1183 {
1184     int loop;
1185     for (loop = 0; loop < USEDPTS; loop++)
1186     {
1187         exec.old_tect_sub[loop] = exec.new_tect_sub[loop];
1188         if (exec.betaprof[loop] > 1.0 || exec.sigmaprof[loop] > 1.0)
1189             exec.new_tect_sub[loop] = strat.curves_data[exec.time_steps_d
1190 one][THERM_SUB] =
1191                 exec.refsub[loop] - one_two_layer_sub(exec.betaprof[1
1192 oop],
1193                 exec.sigmaprof[loop], params.crust_age);
1194         else
1195             exec.new_tect_sub[loop] = 0.0;
1196     }
1197 }
1198
1199 float one_two_layer_sub(beta, sigma, crust_age)
1200 /* Calculate one two-layer subsidence value */
1201 float beta,
1202 float sigma,
1203 float crust_age;
1204 {
1205     float ratio, C, summation,
1206         temp1, temp2, temp3,
1207         Pmant = params.Pmant * 10e2,
1208         Pwater = params.Pdisp * 10e2,
1209         tau = 62.8 * 60.0 * 60.0 * 24.0 * 365.0 * 1.0e6,
1210         a = 125000.0,
1211         crust_thick = 35000.0,
1212         alpha = 3.28e-5,
1213         Tmant = 1333.0,
1214         time = (crust_age + exec.elapsed) * 60.0 * 60.0 * 24.0 * 365.0 * 1.0
1215 e6;
1216
1217     ratio = a / ((crust_thick / beta) + ((a - crust_thick) / sigma));
1218
1219     temp2 = (M_PI * crust_thick) / (a * beta);
1220     C = (2.0 / (M_PI * M_PI)) * ((beta - sigma) * sin(temp2)) + (sigma * sin(M_P
1221 I / ratio));
1222     summation = C * exp(-time / tau);
1223     temp1 = 2.0 * a * alpha * Pmant * Tmant;
1224     temp2 = (Pmant - Pwater) * M_PI;
1225     return((temp1 / temp2) * summation);
1226 }
1227
1228 int find_chron_sea_intersection()
1229 /* Find the point on the profile at which the chron surface and the sealevel datum in
1230 terset. This is done by looping along the profile until the first point is encountered which
1231 is below sealevel */
1232 {
1233     int loop = 0;
1234     while (loop < USEDPTS && exec.base_chron[loop] > exec.sealevel)
1235         loop++;
1236     return(loop);
1237 }
1238
1239 int find_coast()
1240 /* Loop along the profile to find the coastline, i.e. the first point significantly a
1241 bove sealevel

```

```

1242 alevel*/
1243 {
1244     int loop = USEDPTS - 1;
1245     fprintf(stderr, "Finding beach...");
1246     /* Loop should terminate on the first point above sealevel */
1247     while (loop > 0 && exec.base_chron[loop--] < exec.sealevel);
1248
1249     if (options.fluvial_prog && loop > 0)
1250         adjust_beach_position(&loop);
1251     else
1252         if (!options.fluvial_prog && loop > 0)
1253             generate_fluvial_profile(&loop);
1254     else
1255         if (loop == 0)
1256             notice = xv_create("mainframe, NOTICE,
1257                                NOTICE_MESSAGE_STRINGS, "Cannot find the beach!",
1258                                "Things could well get messy...", NUL
1259                                L,
1260                                NOTICE_BUTTON, "Continue", 1,
1261                                XV_SHOW, TRUE, NULL);
1262     return(loop);
1263 }
1264
1265 void adjust_beach_position(temp_beach)
1266 /* Find the position of the beach which is closest to using all the available fluvial
1267 sediment */
1268 int *temp_beach;
1269 {
1270     int pos_inc = 50,
1271         too_much_used = FALSE,
1272         too_little_used = FALSE,
1273         rep_count1 = 0,
1274         rep_count2 = 0;
1275     float discrep, discrep1, discrep2, discrep3;
1276
1277     /* Loop adjusting the position of the beach by the amount pos_inc. When discr
1278 ep has been
1279 both positive and negative i.e. the beach has been both left and right of it,
1280 s ideal
1281 position, divide pos_inc by two and continue. Should get the beach pos at its
1282 optimum position */
1283     do
1284     {
1285         /* Discrep will be set to FALSE, i.e. 0.0 if there is a problem with
1286 the curve fitting
1287 routine */
1288         discrep = sufficient_sed_used(*temp_beach);
1289         if (discrep < 0.0)
1290         {
1291             (*temp_beach) += pos_inc;
1292             too_much_used = TRUE;
1293         }
1294         else
1295         {
1296             (*temp_beach) -= pos_inc;
1297             too_little_used = TRUE;
1298         }
1299     }
1300     if (too_much_used && too_little_used)
1301     {
1302         pos_inc /= 2;
1303         too_much_used = FALSE;
1304         too_little_used = FALSE;
1305     }

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```

1178     return(((A * Pm * ALPHA * TO) / (Pm - Pd)) * 0.4052847 * sum);
1179 }
1180
1181 void get_two_layer_subs()
1182 /* Calculate the thermal subsidence across the profile for the two-layer model */
1183 {
1184     int loop;
1185     for (loop = 0; loop < USEDPTS; loop++)
1186     {
1187         exec.old_tect_sub[loop] = exec.new_tect_sub[loop];
1188         if (exec.betaprof[loop] > 1.0 || exec.sigmaprof[loop] > 1.0)
1189             exec.new_tect_sub[loop] = strat.curves_data[exec.time_steps_d
1190 one][THERM_SUB] =
1191             exec.refsub[loop] - one_two_layer_sub(exec.betaprof[1
1192 oop],
1193             exec.sigmaprof[loop], params.crust_age);
1194     }
1195     else
1196         exec.new_tect_sub[loop] = 0.0;
1197 }
1198
1199 float one_two_layer_sub(beta, sigma, crust_age)
1200 /* Calculate one two-layer subsidence value */
1201 float beta,
1202 sigma,
1203 crust_age;
1204 {
1205     float ratio, C, summation,
1206         temp1, temp2, temp3,
1207         Pmant = params.Pmant * 10e2,
1208         Pwater = params.Pdisp * 10e2,
1209         tau = 62.8 * 60.0 * 60.0 * 24.0 * 365.0 * 1.0e6,
1210         a = 125000.0,
1211         crust_thick = 35000.0,
1212         alpha = 3.28e-5,
1213         Tmant = 1333.0,
1214         time = (crust_age + exec.elapsed) * 60.0 * 60.0 * 24.0 * 365.0 * 1.0
1215 e6;
1216
1217     ratio = a / ((crust_thick / beta) + ((a - crust_thick) / sigma));
1218     temp2 = (M_PI * crust_thick) / (a * beta);
1219     C = (2.0 / (M_PI * M_PI)) * ((beta - sigma) * sin(temp2)) + (sigma * sin(M_P
1220 I / ratio));
1221     summation = C * exp(-time / tau);
1222     temp1 = 2.0 * a * alpha * Pmant * Tmant;
1223     temp2 = (Pmant - Pwater) * M_PI;
1224     return((temp1 / temp2) * summation);
1225 }
1226
1227 int find_chron_sea_intersection()
1228 /* Find the point on the profile at which the chron surface and the sealevel datum in
1229 tersect.
1230 This is done by looping along the profile until the first point is encountered which
1231 is below sealevel */
1232 {
1233     int loop = 0;
1234     while (loop < USEDPTS && exec.base_chron[loop] > exec.sealevel)
1235         loop++;
1236     return(loop);
1237 }
1238
1239 int find_coast()
1240 /* Loop along the profile to find the coastline, i.e. the first point significantly a
1241 bove sealevel

```

```

1242     alevel*/
1243     {
1244         int loop = USEDPTS - 1;
1245         fprintf(stderr, "Finding beach...");
1246
1247         /* Loop should terminate on the first point above sealevel */
1248         while (loop > 0 && exec.base_chron[loop--] < exec.sealevel);
1249
1250         if (options.fluvial_prog && loop > 0)
1251             adjust_beach_position(&loop);
1252         else
1253             if (options.fluvial_prog && loop > 0)
1254                 generate_fluvial_profile(&loop);
1255         else
1256             if (loop == 0)
1257                 notice = xv_create( mainframe, NOTICE,
1258                 NOTICE_MESSAGE_STRINGS, "Cannot find the beach!",
1259                 "Things could well get messy...", NUL
1260 L,
1261                 NOTICE_BUTTON,
1262                 "Continue", 1,
1263                 XV_SHOW,
1264                 TRUE, NULL);
1265         return(loop);
1266     }
1267
1268 void adjust_beach_position(temp_beach)
1269 /* Find the position of the beach which is closest to using all the available fluvial
1270 sediment */
1271 int *temp_beach;
1272 {
1273     int pos_inc = 50,
1274         too_much_used = FALSE,
1275         too_little_used = FALSE,
1276         rep_count1 = 0,
1277         rep_count2 = 0;
1278     float discrep, discrep1, discrep2, discrep3;
1279
1280     /* Loop adjusting the position of the beach by the amount pos_inc. When discr
1281 ep has been
1282 both positive and negative i.e. the beach has been both left and right of it'
1283 s ideal
1284 position, divide pos_inc by two and continue. Should get the beach pos at its
1285 optimum position */
1286     do
1287     {
1288         /* Discrep will be set to FALSE, i.e. 0.0 if there is a problem with
1289 the curve fitting
1290 routine */
1291         discrep = sufficient_sed_used(*temp_beach);
1292         if (discrep < 0.0)
1293         {
1294             (*temp_beach) += pos_inc;
1295             too_much_used = TRUE;
1296         }
1297         else
1298         {
1299             (*temp_beach) -= pos_inc;
1300             too_little_used = TRUE;
1301         }
1302         if (too_much_used && too_little_used)
1303         {
1304             pos_inc /= 2;
1305             too_much_used = FALSE;
1306             too_little_used = FALSE;
1307         }
1308     }

```

```

1306     }
1307     while (pos_inc > 0 && (int)discrep != FALSE && ++rep_count1 < 500);
1308     discrep2 = sufficient_sed_used(*temp_beach);
1309     /* Move the beach until the discrepancy is smaller than for points to the left
1310     and right */
1311     do
1312     {
1313         discrep2 < 0.0 ? (*temp_beach)++ : (*temp_beach)--;
1314         discrep1 = sufficient_sed_used((*temp_beach) - 1);
1315         discrep3 = sufficient_sed_used((*temp_beach) + 1);
1316         discrep2 = sufficient_sed_used(*temp_beach); /* Has to be last of three
1317         to ensure profile
1318         is left generated to
1319         the correct pos */
1320     }
1321     while ((fabs(discrep2) > fabs(discrep1) || fabs(discrep2) > fabs(discrep3)) &
1322     & ++rep_count2 < 100);
1323     }
1324     float sufficient_sed_used(temp_beach)
1325     /* Calculate the area of sediment required to fill the fluvial profile generated to the
1326     temporary beach position passed. Return area deposited, or FALSE if curve fit was unsuccessful. */
1327     int temp_beach;
1328     {
1329         int profile_endpoint,
1330         old_beach_pos = strat.beach(exec.layer);
1331         float
1332         sed_eroded,
1333         sed_depos,
1334         old_beach_elev = strat.chrons(exec.layer)[old_beach_pos],
1335         old_sealevel = strat.curves_data[exec.layer][SEALEVEL];
1336         generate_fluvial_profile(&temp_beach);
1337         calc_fluv_area_depos(exec.drainage_divide, old_beach_pos, temp_beach, exec.new_eq_prof,
1338         &sed_eroded, &sed_depos);
1339         /* Adjust sediment budget calculations according to supply type.
1340         Note, this is just testing for the correct beach position, so don't alter global
1341         Type 0 and 3 are constant or external source only, so just set eroded to external budget.
1342         Type 2 is profile erosion plus external source, so just add external to measured erosion.
1343         Type 1 is profile erosion only, so just leave as measured. */
1344         switch (sed_budget.supply_flag)
1345         {
1346             case 0 :
1347                 sed_eroded = exec.external_budget;
1348                 break;
1349             case 3 :
1350                 sed_eroded += (exec.external_budget - sed_depos);
1351                 break;
1352             case 2 :
1353                 sed_eroded += (exec.external_budget - sed_depos);
1354                 break;
1355             default :
1356                 return(sed_depos - (sed_eroded * exec.sed_pc));
1357         }
1358     }
1359     void find_equilib_point()
1360     /* equilibrium point : the point on the profile at which rate of thermal subsidence is equal to
1361     the rate of eustatic change. Find it by looping along the profile comparing the two until
1362     thermal subsidence is greater. NOTE - such a point rarely exists on the profile. See discussion in
1363     chapter 3. */
1364     float eustasy_change = fabs(exec.sealevel - strat.curves_data[exec.layer])[S

```

```

1364     EALEVEL));
1365     int loop = 0;
1366     if (exec.time_steps_done < 3)
1367         strat.equilib_point(exec.layer + 1) = 0.0;
1368     else
1369     {
1370         while (exec.new_tect_sub[loop] - exec.old_tect_sub[loop] < eustasy_change &&
1371         loop < USEDPTS);
1372     }
1373     strat.equilib_point(exec.layer + 1) = (loop == USEDPTS) ? 0.0 :
1374     loop;
1375     }
1376     void generate_fluvial_profile(beach_pos)
1377     /* Generate the fluvial equilibrium profile between the nickpoint and the beach.
1378     Put the results into exec.new_eq_prof. */
1379     int *beach_pos;
1380     {
1381         int loop, profile_endpoint;
1382         if (options.profile_type == 0 || options.profile_type == 1)
1383             profile_endpoint = exec.drainage_divide; /* Set to drainage divide for full length profile */
1384         else
1385             profile_endpoint = exec.nick_point; /* Set to nickpoint for advancing profile */
1386         if (!options.perm_fluv_prof)
1387             switch (options.curve_type)
1388             {
1389                 case 0 : expo_fluvial_profile(profile_endpoint, *beach_pos);
1390                 break;
1391                 case 1 : errfunc_fluvial_profile(profile_endpoint, *beach_pos);
1392                 break;
1393                 case 2 : diffusion_fluvial_profile(profile_endpoint, beach_pos);
1394                 break;
1395             }
1396         perm_fluv_prof(profile_endpoint, *beach_pos);
1397     }
1398     void expo_fluvial_profile(profile_endpoint, beach_pos)
1399     /* Calculate the elevations on an exponential river profile */
1400     int profile_endpoint,
1401     beach_pos;
1402     {
1403         float constant = (log(exec.base_chron[profile_endpoint] - exec.sealevel + 1.0))
1404         / (float)(profile_endpoint - beach_pos);
1405         int loop;
1406         for (loop = profile_endpoint; loop <= beach_pos; loop++)
1407             exec.new_eq_prof[loop] = exp(constant * (float)(loop - beach_pos))
1408             + exec.sealevel - 1.0;
1409     }
1410     void errfunc_fluvial_profile(profile_endpoint, beach_pos, length_scale)
1411     /* Same again, but using a complementary error function this time */
1412     int profile_endpoint,
1413     beach_pos,
1414     length_scale;
1415     {
1416         float
1417         constant = (float)(profile_endpoint - beach_pos) / length_scale;
1418         int loop;
1419         for (loop = profile_endpoint; loop <= beach_pos; loop++)
1420             exec.new_eq_prof[loop] = exp(constant * (float)(loop - beach_pos))
1421             + exec.sealevel - 1.0;
1422     }
1423     void find_equilib_point()
1424     /* equilibrium point : the point on the profile at which rate of thermal subsidence is equal to
1425     the rate of eustatic change. Find it by looping along the profile comparing the two until
1426     thermal subsidence is greater. NOTE - such a point rarely exists on the profile. See discussion in
1427     chapter 3. */
1428     float eustasy_change = fabs(exec.sealevel - strat.curves_data[exec.layer])[S

```

```

1426 float x_scale = length_scale / (beach_pos - profile_endpoint),
1427       end_value = erfc(length_scale),
1428       y_scale = (1.0 - end_value) / (exec.base_chron(profile_endpoint) - ex
ec.sealevel);
1429 int loop;
1430 for (loop = profile_endpoint; loop <= beach_pos; loop++)
1431   exec.new_eq_prof(loop) = ((erfc(float)(loop - profile_endpoint)
1432   * x_scale) - end_value) / y_scale) + exec.sealevel;
1433 }
1434 void diffusion_fluvial_profile(profile_endpoint, beach_pos)
1435 /* Use a finite difference solution of the diffusion equation applied to topography t
o generate a new fluvial profile */
1436 int profile_endpoint,
1437    *beach_pos;
1438 {
1439   float time_step = 100.0,
1440         temp1, temp2,
1441         new_temp_prof(USEDPTS),
1442         old_temp_prof(USEDPTS),
1443         x_step = params.prof_gap * 1000.0,
1444         temp_sealevel;
1445 int dist_loop,
1446     increments = params.chronint / (100.0 / 1000000.0),
1447     count = 0;
1448 char message[80];
1449 fprintf(stderr, "Calculating diffusion profile");
1450 if ((params.diff_coeff * time_step) / (x_step * x_step) >= 0.5)
1451 {
1452   sprintf(message, "Value of r greater than 0.5 (%f).\n", (params.diff_c
oeff * time_step) /
1453   (x_step * x_step));
1454   notice = xv_create("mainframe, NOTICE,
1455   NOTICE_MESSAGE_STRINGS, message,
1456   "Will lead to unstable finite differe
1457   nce solution.",
1458   "Reduce time step or diffusion coeffi
1459   cient.",
1460   "or increase point spacing on horizon
1461   tal profile.", NULL,
1462   NOTICE_BUTTON,
1463   XV_SHOW,
1464   TRUE, NULL);
1465 }
1466 for (dist_loop = 0; dist_loop < USEDPTS; dist_loop++)
1467   old_temp_prof(dist_loop) = exec.new_eq_prof(dist_loop) = exec.base_ch
ron(dist_loop);
1468 for (time_loop = 0; time_loop < increments; time_loop++)
1469 {
1470   temp_sealevel = strat.curves_data[exec.time_steps_done - 1][SEALEVEL]
+
1471   ((( strat.curves_data[exec.time_steps_done][SEALEVEL] -
1472   strat.curves_data[exec.time_steps_done - 1][SEALEVEL]) / 100
1473   0.0) * time_loop);
1474   dist_loop = exec.drainage_divide + 1;
1475   do
1476   {
1477     temp1 = old_temp_prof(dist_loop+1) - (2 * old_temp_prof(dist_
loop)) +
1478     old_temp_prof(dist_loop-1);
1479     temp2 = params.diff_coeff * (time_step / (x_step * x_step)) *
1480     temp1;
1481   }
1482 }
1483 }
1484 }
1485 }

```

```

1486     exec.new_eq_prof(dist_loop) = old_temp_prof(dist_loop) + temp
2;
1487   }
1488   while (exec.new_eq_prof(dist_loop++) > temp_sealevel);
1489   exec.beach_pos = dist_loop - 1;
1490   generate_shelf_profile(USEDPTS);
1491   for (dist_loop = exec.drainage_divide; dist_loop < USEDPTS; dist_loop
1492   ++))
1493     old_temp_prof(dist_loop) = exec.new_eq_prof(dist_loop);
1494   count++;
1495   if (count == 100)
1496   {
1497     fprintf(stderr, ".");
1498     count = 0;
1499   }
1500   *beach_pos = exec.beach_pos;
1501 }
1502 void perm_fluv_prof(profile_endpoint, beach_pos)
1503 /* Same again, but using a complementary error function this time */
1504 int profile_endpoint,
1505    beach_pos;
1506 {
1507   int loop;
1508   for (loop = profile_endpoint; loop <= beach_pos; loop++)
1509     exec.new_eq_prof(loop) = exec.fixed_fluv_prof(loop);
1510   int generate_marine_profile()
1511   /* Generate the geometry for the marine profile */
1512   float dummy,
1513         fluv_depos,
1514         fluv_eroded,
1515         marine_budget;
1516   int ss_break_pos,
1517        loop;
1518   calc.fluv_area_depos(exec.drainage_divide, strat.beach(exec.layer), exec.beac
h_pos, exec.new_eq_prof, &fluv_eroded, &fluv_depos);
1519   /* Adjust sed budget calculations according to supply type.
1520   Note, this is just testing for the correct slope position, so don't alter glo
bals!
1521   Type 0 and 3 are constant or external source only.
1522   Type 2 is profile erosion plus external source.
1523   Type 1 is profile erosion only. */
1524   switch (sed_budget.supply_flag)
1525   {
1526     case 0 :
1527       marine_budget = exec.external_budget - fluv_depos;
1528       break;
1529     case 1 :
1530       marine_budget = fluv_eroded * (float)sed_budget.drainage_rat
io;
1531       break;
1532     case 2 :
1533       marine_budget = exec.external_budget - fluv_depos +
1534       (fluv_eroded * (float)sed_budget.drainage_rat
io);
1535       break;
1536   }
1537 }
1538 }
1539 }
1540 }
1541 }
1542 }
1543 }
1544 }
1545 }
1546 }
1547 }
1548 }
1549 }

```

```

1550 }
1551 ss_break_pos = find_shelf_slope_break(marine_budget);
1552 return(ss_break_pos);
1553 }
1554 )
1555 int find_shelf_slope_break(external_budget)
1556 /* Find the position of the marine break-of-slope which most nearly uses the correct
1557 area of sediment */
1558 float external_budget;
1559 {
1560     int pos_inc = 50,
1561         too_much_used = FALSE,
1562         too_little_used = FALSE,
1563         rep_count1 = 0,
1564         rep_count2 = 0,
1565         temp_ss_break = exec.beach_pos + 60,
1566         slope_met_beach = FALSE;
1567     float discrep, discrep1, discrep2, discrep3,
1568         xv_notice;
1569     xv_notice = notice;
1570     /* Loop adjusting the position of the beach by the amount pos_inc. When discr
1571 ep has been
1572 s ideal
1573 position, divide pos_inc by two and continue. Should get the beach pos at its
1574 optimum position.
1575 NOTE - discrep < 0 when too LITTLE sediment has been used, positive when too
1576 much */
1577 fprintf(stderr, "Finding the shelf slope break...");
1578 do
1579 {
1580     /* Mustn't allow the ss-break to be moved landward of the beach here,
1581 so if it is just set discrep to -1.0 to indicate area of depos less than that
1582 required */
1583     if (temp_ss_break < exec.beach_pos)
1584         discrep = 1.0;
1585     else
1586         discrep = test_slope_pos(temp_ss_break, external_budget);
1587     by increment */
1588     /* If discrep > 0.0, sediment is left over, so move ss_break seaward
1589 if (discrep > 0.0)
1590 {
1591     temp_ss_break += pos_inc;
1592     too_little_used = TRUE;
1593 }
1594 /* If discrep < 0.0, no sediment is left over, move ss_break landward
1595 by increment */
1596     else
1597     {
1598         temp_ss_break -= pos_inc;
1599         too_much_used = TRUE;
1600     }
1601     /* ss-break has been both left and right of the ideal position, so ha
1602 lve the
1603 increment value, and reset the marker flags */
1604     if (too_much_used && too_little_used)
1605     {
1606         pos_inc /= 2;
1607         too_much_used = FALSE;
1608         too_little_used = FALSE;
1609     }
1610     while (pos_inc > 0 && temp_ss_break > exec.beach_pos && temp_ss_break > 0 &&

```

```

1611     temp_ss_break < USEDPTS && rep_count1++ < 100);
1612     if (temp_ss_break >= exec.beach_pos)
1613     {
1614         discrep2 = test_slope_pos(temp_ss_break, external_budget);
1615         /* Move the beach until the discrepancy is smaller than for points to
1616         the left and right */
1617         do
1618         {
1619             discrep2 < 0.0 ? temp_ss_break-- : temp_ss_break++;
1620             if (temp_ss_break <= exec.beach_pos) /* Cannot allow ss_break
1621             to be at or < beach */
1622                 slope_met_beach = TRUE;
1623             else
1624             {
1625                 discrep1 = test_slope_pos(temp_ss_break - 1, external
1626                 _budget);
1627                 discrep3 = test_slope_pos(temp_ss_break + 1, external
1628                 _budget);
1629                 discrep2 = test_slope_pos(temp_ss_break, external_bud
1630                 get);
1631                 /* Discrep 2 has to be last of three to ensure profil
1632                 e is left generated to the correct pos */
1633             }
1634             while ((fabs(discrep2) > fabs(discrep1) || fabs(discrep2) > fabs(disc
1635             rep3)) &&
1636                 temp_ss_break > 0 && temp_ss_break < USEDPTS && rep_count2++
1637                 < 100
1638                 && !slope_met_beach);
1639             || temp_ss_break < 0)
1640             if (rep_count1 == 100 || rep_count2 == 100 || temp_ss_break > USEDPTS
1641             notice = xv_create( mainframe, NOTICE,
1642             NOTICE_MESSAGE_STRINGS, "cannot find a suitable position for
1643             the shelf slope break.",
1644             NOTICE_BUTTON,
1645             "Continue", 1,
1646             xv_show,
1647             TRUE, NULL);
1648             return(temp_ss_break);
1649             return(exec.beach_pos);
1650         }
1651     float test_slope_pos(pos, external_budget)
1652     /* Calls the function to generate the shelf and shoreface profile, drops the slope fr
1653     om the shelf-slope
1654     break position, sets the basinward eq. prof. to base chron and returns the total area
1655     deposited -
1656     the external input and the area eroded, which should be the amount of sed left over f
1657     rom the total */
1658     int pos;
1659     float external_budget;
1660     {
1661         float slope_inc = params.slope_grad * params.prof_gap * 1000.0,
1662             eroded,
1663             depos;
1664         int loop = pos;
1665         generate_shelf_profile(pos);
1666         /* Do the slope bit until the new chron intersects the old */
1667         while (exec.new_eq_prof[loop++] - slope_inc > exec.base_chron[loop + 1] &&
1668             loop < USEDPTS)
1669             exec.new_eq_prof[loop] = exec.new_eq_prof[loop - 1] - slope_inc;
1670     }

```

```

1668 while (loop < USEDEPTS)
1669     exec.new_eq_prof[loop] = exec.base_chron[loop++];
1670
1671 calc_marine_area_depos(strat.beach(exec.layer), exec.beach_pos, seroded, &depos, &exec.new_eq_prof);
1672
1673 if (sed_budget.supply_flag == 0 || sed_budget.supply_flag == 3)
1674     return(external_budget - depos);
1675 else
1676     return((eroded + external_budget) - depos);
1677 }
1678
1679 void generate_shelf_profile(ss_break)
1680 /* Generate the marine equilibrium profile with an expo shoreline and a fixed slope s
1681 help */
1682 int
1683 {
1684     int loop,
1685     beach_bit_done = FALSE;
1686     float constant,
1687     vert_inc = params.shelf_grad * params.prof_gap * 1000.0,
1688     shore_width_points = params.shore_width / params.prof_gap, erosion =
1689     0.0;
1690
1691     constant = log( params.wave_base ) / (- shore_width_points);
1692
1693     for (loop = exec.beach_pos + 1; loop <= ss_break; loop++)
1694         if (!beach_bit_done && options.shelf_prof)
1695             {
1696                 exec.new_eq_prof[loop] = exp( (constant *
1697                     (loop - (exec.beach_pos + shore_width_points))) )
1698                     + (exec.new_eq_prof[exec.beach_pos] - params.wave_base
1699                     e);
1700
1701                 beach_bit_done = check_equilib_grad(loop);
1702             }
1703     else
1704         exec.new_eq_prof[loop] = exec.new_eq_prof[loop - 1] - vert_in
1705 c;
1706 }
1707
1708 void check_ss_break_pos()
1709 /* Check the position of the shelf slope break. If it is at the beach, need to calc t
1710 he slope meets beach
1711 function */
1712 {
1713     if (exec.ss_break_pos <= exec.beach_pos)
1714         {
1715             exec.beach_pos = exec.ss_break_pos;
1716             slope_meets_beach();
1717         }
1718 }
1719
1720 void slope_meets_beach()
1721 /* If there is insufficient marine sediment available to build the slope from the bea
1722 ch position,
1723 the beach must be moved landward until sufficient sediment is available to build the
1724 slope. This
1725 means that when this function is called the partition between marine and fluvial brea
1726 ks down */
1727 {
1728     float
1729     tot_eroded,
1730     old_tot_depos,
1731     new_tot_depos,
1732     fluv_eroded, fluv_depos,
1733     total_sed_available;
1734
1735     calc_total_area_depos(&new_tot_depos, &tot_eroded, exec.new_eq_prof);
1736
1737     do
1738     {
1739

```

```

1730 al profile and
1731 /* Move the beach and the ss-break left one space, redefine the fluvial
1732 the marine slope, and calculate the new total area */
1733 old_tot_depos = new_tot_depos;
1734 exec.beach_pos--;
1735 exec.ss_break_pos--;
1736
1737 generate_fluvial_profile(&exec.beach_pos);
1738
1739 calc_fluv_area_depos(exec.drainage_divide, strat.beach(exec.layer), e
1740 xec.beach_pos,
1741     exec.new_eq_prof, &fluv_eroded, &fluv_depos);
1742
1743 if (sed_budget.supply_flag == 1 || sed_budget.supply_flag == 2)
1744     total_sed_available = exec.external_budget + fluv_eroded;
1745 else
1746     total_sed_available = exec.external_budget;
1747
1748 test_slope_pos(exec.ss_break_pos, 0.0);
1749
1750 calc_total_area_depos(&new_tot_depos, &tot_eroded, exec.new_eq_prof);
1751 while (new_tot_depos > total_sed_available); /* Keep looping while insuff. to
1752 t. sed. used */
1753
1754 /* If the discrep. between the total deposited and the budget was less for th
1755 e previous beach pos
1756 use that oen instead. Need to redefine profiles
1757 if (fabs(new_tot_depos - exec.external_budget) > fabs(old_tot_depos - exec.ex
1758 ternal_budget) )*/
1759
1760 if (fabs(new_tot_depos - total_sed_available) > fabs(old_tot_depos - total_se
1761 d_available) )
1762     {
1763         exec.beach_pos++;
1764         exec.ss_break_pos++;
1765         generate_fluvial_profile(&exec.beach_pos);
1766         test_slope_pos(exec.ss_break_pos, 0.0);
1767     }
1768     strat.beach(exec.layer + 1) = exec.beach_pos;
1769 }
1770
1771 int check_equilib_grad(loop)
1772 /* Calculates the gradient between two points on the profile and returns TRUE if it's
1773 less than the
1774 proscribed shelf gradient or FALSE if it is greater. This is used to control the tran
1775 sition from
1776 the exponential beach profile to the fixed slope shelf. */
1777 int loop;
1778 float grad;
1779
1780 grad = fabs(exec.new_eq_prof[loop - 2] - exec.new_eq_prof[loop - 1]) / (param
1781 s.prof_gap * 1000.0 );
1782
1783 if (grad <= params.shelf_grad && loop > exec.beach_pos + 2)
1784     return(TRUE);
1785 else
1786     return(FALSE);
1787 }
1788
1789 float get_total_water_depth(profile_point)
1790 /* Return the thickness of the accomodation space at for the given elevation of chron
1791 surface.
1792 Calculated by taking magnitude of space between upper surface of latest strat
1793 and current sea level.
1794 Need to account for three possibilities and calc slightly differently :
1795 1) Positive sealevel, negative strat.
1796 2) Positive sealevel, positive strat.

```

```

1791 3) Negative sealevel, negative strat.
1792 (strat must always be negative to be below neg. sealevel) */
1793 float profile_point;
1794 {
1795     float temp;
1796     if (exec.sealevel > 0)
1797         if (profile_point < 0)
1798             temp = fabs(profile_point) + exec.sealevel;
1799         else
1800             temp = exec.sealevel - profile_point;
1801     else
1802         temp = fabs(profile_point - exec.sealevel);
1803     return(temp);
1804 }
1805
1806 void prograde(left, right)
1807 /* Call the routines to create a sed wedge of given area */
1808 int *left, *right;
1809 {
1810     float temp;
1811     left_over;
1812     temp_beach = exec.beach_pos;
1813     fprintf(stderr, "Marine prog...");
1814     if (options.shelf_prof)
1815         gen_mar_prof();
1816 }
1817
1818 float calc_marine_prog_area(new_beach_pos)
1819 /* Calculate and return the area of sediment that has been used up below sealevel by
1820 the progradation
1821 of the fluvial system. This sediment is part of the marine deposition budget */
1822 int new_beach_pos;
1823 {
1824     int loop;
1825     old_beach_pos = strat.beach(exec.layer);
1826     testing;
1827     float old_beach_elev = strat.chrons(exec.layer)[old_beach_pos];
1828     new_beach_elev = exec.work_chron(new_beach_pos);
1829     area_used = 0.0;
1830     /* Zero marine sediment used if beach has moved landward since last chron,
1831     or if the new beach is below the old beach, in which case the old beach has p
1832     rob. been eroded */
1833     if (old_beach_pos > exec.beach_pos)
1834         return(0);
1835     else
1836     {
1837         beach_interpolation(old_beach_pos, exec.beach_pos);
1838         for (loop = old_beach_pos + 1; loop <= new_beach_pos; loop++)
1839             if (new_beach_elev > old_beach_elev)
1840                 area_used += calc_one_trap(exec.beach_array[loop],
1841                 exec.base_chron[loop - 1], exec.beach_array[1
1842                 exec.base_chron[loop]);
1843             else
1844                 area_used += calc_one_trap(exec.new_eq_prof[loop - 1],
1845                 exec.base_chron[loop - 1], exec.new_e
1846                 exec.base_chron[loop]);
1847         }
1848     }
1849     return(fabs(area_used));
1850 }
1851
1852 q_prof(loop);
1853 }
1854 return(fabs(area_used));
1855 }
1856

```

```

1857 void beach_interpolation(old_beach, new_beach)
1858 /* Interpolate between the old beach position and the new beach position, calculating
1859 an elevation for each point */
1860 int old_beach,
1861     new_beach;
1862 {
1863     int loop;
1864     float old_elev = exec.base_chron[old_beach], /*strat.chrons(exec.layer)[old
1865     _beach],*/
1866         new_elev = exec.new_eq_prof[new_beach], /*exec.work_chron[new_beach],
1867     */
1868         gradient = (new_elev - old_elev) / (float)(new_beach - old_beach);
1869     exec.beach_array[old_beach] = old_elev;
1870     for (loop = old_beach + 1; loop <= new_beach; loop++)
1871         exec.beach_array[loop] = exec.beach_array[loop - 1] + gradient;
1872 }
1873
1874 void gen_mar_prof()
1875 /* This function actually stores the new shelf and slope geometry in the working chro
1876 n, and records
1877 the distribution of the marine environments */
1878 {
1879     int loop;
1880     float water_depth;
1881     for (loop = exec.beach_pos; loop < USEDPTS; loop++)
1882     {
1883         exec.work_chron[loop] = exec.new_eq_prof[loop];
1884         water_depth = get_total_water_depth(exec.new_eq_prof[loop]);
1885         record_shelf_depos(loop, water_depth);
1886         exec.loadprof[loop] = exec.work_chron[loop] - exec.base_chron[loop];
1887     }
1888     for (loop = 0; loop <= exec.layer; loop++)
1889         if (exec.work_chron[loop] < strat.chrons[loop][loop] && opti
1890         ons.section_type == 0)
1891         {
1892             strat.chrons[loop][loop] = exec.work_chron[loop];
1893             if (strat.depos[loop][loop] != NO_DEPOS)
1894                 strat.depos[loop][loop] = MARINE_EROSION;
1895         }
1896     }
1897 }
1898
1899 void record_shelf_depos(loop, water_depth)
1900 /* Record the environment at the current point */
1901 int loop;
1902 float water_depth;
1903 {
1904     if (loop < exec.ss_break_pos)
1905         if (water_depth > params.wave_base)
1906             strat.depos[exec.layer + 1][loop] = OFFSHORE_SHELF;
1907         else
1908             strat.depos[exec.layer + 1][loop] = SHOREFACE;
1909     else
1910         if (exec.new_eq_prof[loop] > exec.base_chron[loop])
1911             strat.depos[exec.layer + 1][loop] = SLOPE;
1912     }
1913 }
1914
1915 void inst_flex_subside()
1916 /* Subside layers by amount of flexure generated by the new load (current layer).
1917 Also subside work_chron. */
1918 {
1919     int loop, subloop;
1920     /* Subside current chron also - water infill */
1921     /* Do the subsidence for the proscribed layers. */
1922

```

```

1 #define TRUE
2 #define FALSE
3 #define MAXPTS 4097 /* No. of pts. defined in arrays */
4 #define USEDPTS 4096 /* Actual number of points on profile */
5 #define MAXCHRON 201 /* Maximum number of chronos */
6 #define MAX_STEPS 1002 /* Maximum number of 0.01Ma time steps allowable + start and end */
7 #define SCALE 5 /* Scaling factor for vertical scale of profile */
8 #define X_OFFSET 50 /* X offset for profile from left of canvas */
9 #define Y_OFFSET 100 /* Y offset for profile from top of canvas */
10 #define MAXLEN 5000 /* Maximum profile length */
11 #define MAXHEIGHT 500
12 #define MAXDEPTH 3000 /* Max. basin width and depth as def. on canvas */
13 #define PI 3.1415927
14 #define TWOP1 6.2831853
15 #define RAD_CONV 180.0 / 3.1415927 /* Const to mult by rads to get degs. */
16 #define ENVIRONS 8 /* Number of different environments supported */
17 #define FLUVIAL 1
18 #define SHOREFACE 2
19 #define OFFSHORE_SHELF 3
20 #define SLOPE 4
21 #define AERIAL_EROSION 5
22 #define MARINE_EROSION 6
23 #define NO_DEPOS 7
24 #define COAST_ONLAP 8 /* Array ref for the colour used for coast onlap curve e */
25 #define MARKER 9
26 #define P_MANT 3.3 /* Density of mantle material */
27 #define P_WATER 1.03 /* Density of seawater */
28 #define P_AIR 0.0013 /* Density of air */
29 #define P_SED 1.8 /* Density of uncompacted sediment */
30 #define EMT 0 /* Elapsed time, Ma */
31 #define SEALEVEL 1 /* Sealevel */
32 #define FLUV_DEP 2 /* Fluvial deposition */
33 #define FLUV_EROD 3 /* Fluvial erosion */
34 #define MAR_DEP 4 /* Marine deposition */
35 #define MAR_EROD 5 /* Marine erosion */
36 #define EX_SED 6 /* External budget */
37 #define REL_SEA 7 /* Relative sealevel */
38 #define THERM_SUB 8 /* Thermal subsidence */
39 #define V_ONLAP 9 /* Coastal onlap - vertical element */
40 #define PART_COEFF 10 /* Sediment partitioning coefficient */
41
42 /* Definitions for use in flex include file */
43 #define PI2 6.283185307
44 #define Vconst 12.0 * (1.0 - 0.0625)
45 #define Econst 1.0e12
46 #define abs(i) (i)<0 ? -(i) : (i) /* Macro to convert to +sign */
47
48 /* Constants used in tectonic subsidence equations
49 #define A 125000.0
50 #define ALPHA 3.28E-4
51 #define TO 1333.0
52 #define CRUST 31200.0
53 #define TAU 62.8 * 60.0 * 60.0 * 24.0 * 365.0 * 1.0e6 */
54
55 #define min(a,b) ((a) < (b)) ? (a) : (b)
56 #define max(a,b) ((a) > (b)) ? (a) : (b)
57
58 #include <stdio.h>
59 #include <math.h>
60 #include <string.h>
61 #include <malloc.h>
62
63 /* Include files for the windows and graphics routines */
64 #include <xview/xview.h>
65 #include <xview/canvas.h>
66 #include <xview/panel.h>
67 #include <xview/icon.h>
68 #include <xview/notice.h>
69 #include <xview/scrollbar.h>

```

```

70 #include <xview/font.h>
71 #include <xview/cursor.h>
72 #include <xview/cms.h>
73 #include <X11/X.h>
74 #include <X11/Xlib.h>
75
76 /* Defined functions within the main program */
77 void set_disp_flags();
78 void batch_job();
79 void special_case_run();
80 void init_proc();
81 void get_params();
82 int check_params();
83 void set_seastart();
84 void init_sea_curve();
85 void set_sedstart();
86 void set_pcstart();
87 float set_te_start();
88 void set_strat();
89 void set_subsid_arrays();
90 void zero_curve_data();
91 void set_presev_data();
92 void adjust_topog_to_sealevel();
93 void init_drainage();
94 void init_expo_curve();
95 void init_fixed_fluv_prof();
96 void init_marine_prof();
97 void run_proc();
98 void update_params();
99 void do_a_chron();
100 void copy_chron();
101 int find_sea_chron_intersection();
102 int find_coast();
103 float adjust_beach_position();
104 float sufficient_sed_used();
105 void accurate_beach_position();
106 void find_equilib_point();
107 void zero_flex();
108 void inst_flex_subside();
109 void linear_flex_subside();
110 void expo_flex_subside();
111 void mckenzie_subside();
112 void two_layer_subside();
113 void tect_subside();
114 void set_work_chrons();
115 void gen_equilib_prof();
116 void generate_fluvial_profile();
117 void expo_fluvial_profile();
118 void errfunc_fluvial_profile();
119 void diffusion_fluvial_profile();
120 void perm_fluv_prof();
121 int generate_marine_profile();
122 float test_slope_pos();
123 void generate_shelf_profile();
124 void slope_meets_beach();
125 int check_equilib_grad();
126 void prograte();
127 void gen_mar_prof();
128 float calc_marine_prog_area();
129 void beach_interpolation();
130 void prog_wedge();
131 void expo_slope_prog();
132 void set_slope();
133 float do_slope_strat();
134 void fixed_slope_prog();
135 void record_shelf_depos();
136 void check_ss_break_pos();
137 float check_slope_steep();
138 float change_Te();
139 void get_mckenzie_subs();
140

```

```

141 float one_mckenzie_sub();
142 void get_two_layer_subs();
143 float one_two_layer_sub();
144 void change_sealevel();
145 float sea_smooth_linear();
146 void sea_saw_tooth();
147 void sea_sinusoidal_pos();
148 void sea_sinusoidal_neg();
149 float sea_increase();
150 float sea_decrease();
151 void sea_sinusoidal2_pos();
152 void sea_sinusoidal2_neg();
153 void calc_new_prof_area();
154 void calc_new_water_prof();
155 void change_sed_budget();
156 void sed_linear_inc_dec();
157 void sed_saw_tooth();
158 void sed_sinusoidal();
159 void change_sedpc();
160 float scan_sed_stack();
161 void change_drainage();
162 void gen_riv_prof();
163 void normal_fluvial();
164 float fluvial_erosion();
165 float get_rel_sealevel();
166 void calc_onlap();
167 int precise_onlap_calculation();
168 void compile_depos_info();
169 void compile_presev_info();
170 float calc_area();
171 float calc_one_trap();
172 void calc_fluv_area_depos();
173 void calc_marine_area_depos();
174 void calc_total_area_depos();
175 void record_chron_areas();
176 float calc_prof_area();
177
178
179 /* Defined functions within set_windows.h */
180 void setgraphics();
181 void main_panel_setup();
182 void main_canvas_setup();
183 void set_cursor_and_icons();
184 void chrono_panel_setup();
185 void chrono_canvas_setup();
186 void presev_panel_setup();
187 void presev_canvas_setup();
188 void display_panel_setup();
189 void general_panel_setup();
190 void fluvial_panel_setup();
191 void marine_panel_setup();
192 void chrono_panel_setup();
193 void tect_panel_setup();
194 void sea_panel_setup();
195 void sed_panel_setup();
196 void post_panel_setup();
197 void labels_panel_setup();
198 void chron_labels_panel_setup();
199 void file_panel_setup();
200 void zoom_panel_setup();
201 void wheel_zoom_panel_setup();
202 void wheel_opt_panel_setup();
203 void point_info_panel_setup();
204 void set_up_colour_map();
205
206 /* Defined functions within graphics.h */
207 void full_screen_draw();
208 void dump();
209 float v_realzscreen();
210 float v_screen2real();
211 float v_real2zoom();

```

```

212 float v_zoom2real();
213 float h_zoom2real();
214 float h_real2post();
215 float v_real2post();
216 void layer_label();
217 void chrons_done_label();
218 void draw_scales();
219 void show_load();
220 void show_flex();
221 void zoomed_screen_draw();
222 void draw_zoomed_axis();
223 void draw_zoomed_last_chron();
224 void draw_zoomed_load();
225 void draw_zoomed_flex();
226 void draw_zoomed_sealevel();
227 void draw_zoomed_equilib();
228 void draw_marker_chrons();
229 void do_unzoom();
230 void zoomer_show();
231 void draw_wheeler();
232 void connect_beach();
233 void connect_equilib_point();
234 void draw_wheeler_marked_chrons();
235 void wheeler_scales();
236 void timescale();
237 void draw_zoomed_wheeler();
238 void zoomed_wheeler_scales();
239 void draw_seacurve();
240 void seacurve_scales();
241 void draw_reisea_curve();
242 void reisea_curve_scales();
243 void draw_subsid_curve();
244 void subsid_curve_scales();
245 void draw_sedcurve();
246 void sedcurve_scales();
247 void find_curve_limits();
248 void do_crossplot();
249 void cross_plot_scales();
250 void do_presev_diag();
251 float get_max_pres();
252 void draw_presev_scales();
253 void draw_presev_data();
254 void gen_main_postscript();
255 void gen_chrono_postscript();
256 void wheeler_post();
257 void connect_beach_post();
258 void connect_onlap_post();
259 void draw_marker_chrons_post();
260 void sea_curve_post();
261 void reisea_curve_post();
262 void subsid_curve_post();
263 void onlap_curve_post();
264 void crossplot_post();
265 void sed_curve_post();
266 void post_plot_sed_area_line();
267 void post_plot_sed_area_solid();
268 void gen_zoomed_postscript();
269 void do_post_zoom();
270 void draw_chron_labels();
271 void get_chron_label_info();
272 void do_slope_label();
273 void do_fluvial_label();
274 void print_post_comments();
275 void post_zoomed_sealevel();
276 void post_zoomed_marker_chrons();
277 void draw_post_key();
278 void draw_labels();
279 void get_label_info();
280 void get_label_offsets();
281
282 /* Defined functions within interface.h */

```

```

283 float read_user_seacurve();
284 void mouse_cont();
285 void box_draw();
286 void norm_coords and chron();
287 void zoomed_coords and chron();
288 void params_pressed();
289 void apply_general();
290 void general_done();
291 void proflen_slider_label();
292 void apply_display();
293 void display_done();
294 void apply_fluvial();
295 void fluvial_done();
296 void apply_marine();
297 void marine_done();
298 void apply_chrons();
299 void chrons_done();
300 void apply_tect();
301 void tect_done();
302 void apply_sea();
303 void quit_sea();
304 void apply_sed();
305 void quit_sed();
306 void prepare_zoom();
307 void do_box_zoom();
308 void do_window_zoom();
309 void hide_zoom_frame();
310 void quit_proc();
311 void display_point_info();
312 void point_info_hide();
313 void do_chrono();
314 void chrono_init();
315 void chrono_refresh();
316 void wheeler_zoom_show();
317 void wheeler_zoom_hide();
318 int set_wheeler_zoom();
319 void wheeler_options_show();
320 void wheeler_options_hide();
321 void set_wheeler_options();
322 void diags_pressed();
323 void wheeler_pressed();
324 void do_wheeler();
325 void presev_refresh();
326 void do_seacurve();
327 void do_relseacurve();
328 void find_curve_minmax();
329 void do_subsidcurve();
330 void do_onlap_curve();
331 void do_sedcurve();
332 void quit_chrono();
333 void quit_presev();
334 void dump_sedcurve();
335 void var_plot_pressed();
336 void do_preserv();
337 void do_postscript();
338 void quit_postscript();
339 void get_postscript_params();
340 void postscript_use_options();
341 void postscript_zoom_defaults();
342 void check_postscript_file();
343 int show_post_labels_panel();
344 void hide_post_labels_panel();
345 void show_chron_labels_panel();
346 void hide_chron_labels_panel();
347 void do_load_save();
348 void quit_load_save();
349 void do_load();
350 void get_structures();
351 int read_strat();
352 void do_save();

```

```

354 void save_structures();
355 int write_strat();
356
357 void flex();
358 void accurate_flex();
359 void water_flex();
360 void calc_flex_disp_coeff();
361
362 /* Define all the windows environment variables */
363
364 extern Frame
ame, marineframe,
mainframe, displayframe, generalframe, chronsframe, fluvialfr
tectframe, seaframe,
sedframe, postframe, fileframe, chrono_frame, presev_frame,
wheeler_zoom_frame, wheeler_opt_frame, point_info_frame, post
_chron_labels_frame;
365
366 extern Panel
mainpanel, displaypanel, generalpanel, chronspanel, fluvialpa
nel, marinepanel,
tectpanel, seapanel, sedpanel, postpanel, filepanel, chrono_
zoompanel, wheeler_zoom_panel, wheeler_opt_panel, point_info_
panel, presev_panel,
post_labels_panel, chron_labels_panel;
367
368 extern Canvas
canvas, chrono_canvas, presev_canvas;
369
370 extern Display
*dpv, *chrono_dpv, *presev_dpv;
gc, chrono_gc, presev_gc;
gvalues;
371 extern XGCValues
*main_cols, *chrono_cols, *presev_cols;
extern unsigned long
canvas_win, chrono_win, presev_win;
372
373 extern Scrollbar
main_vbar, main_hbar, chrono_hbar, presev_hbar;
374 extern Pixwin
*pw, *chronopw; /* Graphics canvas & pointer */
375
376 extern Xv_font
norm; /* Window fonts */
377 extern Server_image
bold;
main_closed_image, chrono_closed_image, presev_closed_image,
postscript_closed_image,
378 zoom_closed_image, sealevel_closed_image, chrons_closed_image
, tect_closed_image;
379
380 extern Icon
sed_closed_image, cursor_image;
main_icon, chrono_icon, presev_icon, postscript_icon, zoom_ic
on, sealevel_icon,
381
382 extern Pixmap
chrons_icon, tect_icon, sed_icon;
/* Icons for closed windows */
383
384 extern Xv_notice
smile_tile, sad_tile;
385
386 notice:
387 proflen_item, proflen_message, sed_density_item, loadfile_ite
m, gen_options_item,
388 disp_option_item, disp_options_item, marker_point_item, marke
r_chron_item;
389
390 shelf_grad_item, slope_grad_item, wave_base_item, shore_width
_item;
391
392 extern Panel_item
drainage_item, fluvial_prog_item, perm_prof_item, cutback_ite
m, diffcoeff_item,
393 length_scale_item, profile_type_item, curve_type_item, partit
ion_item,
394 onlap_type_item, fluv_depos_cutoff_item;
395
396 extern Panel_item
chronint_item, chronfreq_item, chrons_item, step_chrons_item;
397
398 message1, message2, message3, message4, message5;

```

```

410 extern Panel_item      betafile_item, sigmafile_item, tefile_item, Te_value_item, bou
411 ndary_depth_item,
412 crust_age_item, Te_options_item, flex_options_item, synrift_t
413 ype_item,
414   subsidence_type_item, response_time_item, response_type_item, wa
415 ter_loading_item;
416 extern Panel_item     sea_change_flag_item, seamax_item1, seamin_item1, seafreq_ite
417 m1, seacurve_item1,
418 seamax_item2, seamin_item2, seafreq_item2, seacurve_item2,
419 seafname_item;
420 extern Panel_item     supply_flag_item, external_budget_item, release_item, drain_r
421 at_item,
422   sedmax_item, sedmin_item, sedfreq_item, sedcurve_item, testin
423 g,
424   pc_flag_item, pccmax_item, pccmin_item, pccfreq_item;
425 extern Panel_item     fname_item, params_item, format_item, pen_width_item, backg
426 round_item, Colour_item,
427   key_flag_item, print_sealevel_item, axis_ticks_item, depth_ti
428 ck_num_item,
429   length_tick_num_item, ax_label_height_item, image_width_item,
430 image_height_item,
431 x_offset_item, y_offset_item, mult_time_axis_item, x_gap_item
432 , key_X_pos_item,
433 nt_item;
434 extern Panel_item     label1_item, label2_item, label3_item, label4_item, label5_it
435 em,
436   Xpos1_item, Ypos1_item, pointX1_item, pointY1_item,
437   Xpos2_item, Ypos2_item, pointX2_item, pointY2_item,
438   Xpos3_item, Ypos3_item, pointX3_item, pointY3_item,
439   Xpos4_item, Ypos4_item, pointX4_item, pointY4_item,
440   Xpos5_item, Ypos5_item, pointX5_item, pointY5_item;
441 extern Panel_item     chron1_item, noX1_item, noY1_item, chron2_item, noX2_item, no
442 Y2_item,
443   chron3_item, noX3_item, noY3_item, chron4_item, noX4_item, no
444 Y4_item,
445   chron5_item, noX5_item, noY5_item, chron6_item, noX6_item, no
446 Y6_item,
447   chron7_item, noX7_item, noY7_item, chron8_item, noX8_item, no
448 Y8_item,
449   chron9_item, noX9_item, noY9_item, chron10_item, noX10_item,
450 noY10_item,
451   chron_label_number_item, chron_label_size_item;
452 extern Panel_item     directory_item, filename_item;
453 extern Panel_item     run_status_item;
454 extern Panel_item     zoom_left_item, zoom_right_item, zoom_top_item, zoom_bott_ite
455 m;
456 extern Panel_item     wheeler_zoom_left_item, wheeler_zoom_right_item, wheeler_firs
457 t_chron_item,
458   wheeler_last_chron_item;
459 extern Panel_item     active_diags_item, wheeler_width_item, sed_supply_width_item,
460 eustasy_width_item,
461   relsea_width_item, subsid_width_item, onlap_width_item, cross
462   plot_width_item,
463   crossplot_X_item, crossplot_Y_item;
464 extern Panel_item     profile_point_item, beta_message_item, sigma_message_item,
465 last_therm_sub_message_item, tot_therm_sub_message_item,
466 Te_message_item, flexure_message_item, elevation_message_item
467 ;

```

```

459 extern Menu           wheeler_menu, params_menu, zoom_menu, diagrams_menu, var_plot
460 _menu;
461 extern Xv_Cursor      cursor; /*Canvas cursor */
462 extern Cms            cms;
463 extern char           curve_labels[8][30];
464 extern Xv_singlecolor colors[255];
465 /* Data structure which contains flags to control graphical display and model options
466 */
467 struct Options {
468   unsigned short int prograte;
469   unsigned short int section_type;
470   unsigned short int riv_prof;
471   unsigned short int curve_type;
472   unsigned short int shelf_prof;
473   unsigned short int init_shelf_prof;
474   unsigned short int show_enviros;
475   unsigned short int show_last_chron;
476   unsigned short int show_equilib;
477   unsigned short int show_load;
478   unsigned short int show_flex;
479   unsigned short int show_sealevel;
480   unsigned short int flex_type;
481   unsigned short int synrift_type;
482   unsigned short int subsid_type;
483   unsigned short int fluvial_prog;
484   unsigned short int perm_fluv_prof;
485   unsigned short int profile_type;
486   unsigned short int water_loading;
487   unsigned short int onlap_type;
488   unsigned short int fluv_response_type;
489   unsigned short int show_marker_chrons;
490 };
491 /* data structure which contains parameters to model */
492 struct Params {
493   float prof_len; /* Length of profile (km) */
494   float prof_gap; /* Gap between prof sample points (Calc. not
495   input) */
496   int marker_point; /* Position to take relative sea level and su
497   bsid curves */
498   int marker_chrons[20]; /* Ages in e.m.t. to draw marker chrons */
499   float Pdis; /* Density of sea water */
500   float Psed; /* Density of load material i.e. sediment */
501   float Pinf; /* Density of infill */
502   float Pmant; /* Density of mantle */
503   float crust_age; /* Starting age of crust */
504   char Tefile[80]; /* Filename for the Te values */
505   char loadfile[80]; /* Filename containing load coords */
506   char betafile[80]; /* Filename for the beta values */
507   char sigmafile[80]; /* Filename for the sigma values */
508   float boundary_depth; /* Depth to boundary for two layer stretching
509 */
510   float shelf_grad; /* Gradient of the marine shelf */
511   float slope_grad; /* Gradient of the marine slope */
512   float wave_base; /* Height of the shoreface */
513   float shore_width; /* Width of the shoreface */
514   float drainage_len; /* Length of the fluvial profile */
515   float diff_coeff; /* Fluvial diffusion coefficient */
516   float cutback_rate; /* Rate of fluvial profile landward migration
517 */
518   float length_scale; /* ERFC length scale */
519   float fluv_depos_cutoff; /* Minimum thickness of fluvial deposition to
520   be recorded */
521   float chronint; /* Interval between chrons in Ma */
522 };

```

```

523 float chrofreq; /* Frequency of chron stroage */
524 int chrons; /* Total Number of chrons */
525 int step_chrons; /* Number of chrons per execution step */
526 };
527
528 struct Exec
529 {
530 int layer; /* The last chron generated */
531 int chroneelapsed; /* The total number of chrons generated */
532 int total_chrons_done; /* The number of chrons generated this model
533 int step_chrons_done; /* Time steps done for the current execution
534 int time_steps_done; /* Position of the end of the fluvial profile
535 int drainage_divide; /* Position of a nickpoint on the profile */
536 int nick_point; /* The position on the profile of the beach
537 int beach_pos; /* The position on the profile of the marine
538 int ss_break_pos; /* The position on the profile of the marine
539 float beach_array[MAXPTS]; /* The interpolated points between beach posi
540 float nick_count; /* Counter for headward movement of the river
541 profile */
542 float betaprof[MAXPTS]; /* The beta profile */
543 float sigmaprof[MAXPTS]; /* The sigma profile */
544 float loadprof[MAXPTS]; /* The initial topography */
545 float flexprof[MAXPTS]; /* The flexural profile */
546 float teArray[MAXPTS]; /* The te profile */
547 float ak[MAXPTS]; /* The restoring force profile */
548 float oldflex[MAXPTS]; /* The flexural profile for the previous chro
549 n */
550 float old_water_prof[MAXPTS]; /* Not used */
551 float new_water_prof[MAXPTS]; /* Not used */
552 float new_tect_sub[MAXPTS]; /* Tectonic subsidence for the current time s
553 tep */
554 float old_tect_sub[MAXPTS]; /* Tectonic subsidence for the previous time
555 step */
556 float reftsub[MAXPTS]; /* Reference profile for subsidence calculati
557 ons */
558 double elapsed; /* Elapsed model time */
559 float Te; /* Single value of Te for laterally constant
560 model */
561 float area; /* Not used */
562 float sea_cycle_elapsed; /* How much of sealevel cycle elapsed - for s
563 in curve etc */
564 float sed_cycle_elapsed; /* How much of sediment cycle elapsed - for s
565 in curve etc */
566 float sed_budget; /* Sed budget calculate from profile erosion
567 and deposition */
568 float external_budget; /* External supply from curves etc */
569 float sed_change; /* Rate of change on sediment supply curve */
570 float sed_marker; /* Midpoint on the sediment supply curve */
571 float sed_pc;
572 float pc_change;
573 float pc_marker;
574 int sed_stack_ptr;
575 float fluvial_depos;
576 chron */
577 float fluvial_erod; /* Area of fluvial sediment deposited for one ch
578 ron */
579 float marine_depos; /* Area of marine sediment deposited for one
580 chron */
581 float marine_erod; /* Area of marine sediment eroded for one chr
582 on */
583 float sealevel; /* Elevation of the absolute sealevel datum */
584 float sea_change1; /* Rate of change for short-term sealevel cur
585 ve */
586 float sea_change2; /* Midpoint on short-term curve */
587 float sea_change3; /* Rate of change for long-term sealevel curv

```

```

573 e */
574 float sea_marker2; /* Mid point on long-term curve */
575 float new_eq_prof[MAXPTS]; /* Equilibrium profiles for current chron */
576 float old_eq_prof[MAXPTS]; /* Equilibrium profiles for the previous chro
577 n */
578 float fixed_fluv_prof[MAXPTS]; /* Static fluvial equilibrium profile */
579 float work_chron[MAXPTS]; /* Working chron - used for area fits etc */
580 float base_chron[MAXPTS]; /* Previous chron being built on to */
581 float fluv_change[MAXCHRON][MAXPTS];
582 float old_fluv_prof[MAXCHRON][MAXPTS];
583 float fluv_disp_coef[MAXCHRON];
584 float last_chron[MAXPTS]; /* Not used */
585 float old_riv_prof_area; /* Not used */
586 float length_scale; /* Not used */
587 float temp_elevation; /* Definitely not used */
588 };
589 struct Exec_flags {
590 unsigned short int box_drawing;
591 unsigned short int box_drawn;
592 unsigned short int zoomed;
593 unsigned short int diagpos;
594 unsigned short int execution_complete;
595 unsigned short int initialised;
596 };
597 struct Strat {
598 float chrons[MAXCHRON][MAXPTS]; /* 2d array to contain X Y coords of each
599 layer of strat generated in the basin */
600 float curves_data[MAX_STEPS + 2][11]; /* 2d array to hold sealevel and sedi
601 ment budget info (total depos. and input) for each ti
602 mestep :
603 0 : Elapsed time, Ma
604 1 : Absolute sealevel
605 2 : Fluvial deposition
606 3 : Marine erosion
607 4 : Marine deposition
608 5 : External budget
609 6 : Relative sealevel
610 7 : Thermal subsidence
611 8 : Vertical element of Coastal onlap
612 9 : Sediment partitioning coefficient */
613 float sed_stack[MAX_STEPS + 2]; /* array to hold the drainage basin sediment
614 budget stack. */
615 unsigned short int depos[MAXCHRON][MAXPTS]; /* 2d array to contain flags
616 to indicate depos environment. See #define sect
617 ion at beginning for code info. Used to draw W
618 heeler diagram */
619 unsigned short int beach[MAXCHRON]; /* Array to store the lateral
620 position of the beach for each chron */
621 unsigned short int onlap[MAXCHRON]; /* Used to store the horizon
622 tal position of the onlap point (Posser, Je
623 rvey & Vail, 1988) */
624 float presev_info[ENVIRONS][2]; /* 2d array to hold the total deposited and
625 the total preserved for each environment */
626 };

```

```

523 float chrofreq; /* Frequency of chro stroage */
524 int chrons; /* Total Number of chrons */
525 int step_chrons; /* Number of chrons per execution step */
526 };
527
528 struct Exec {
529     int layer; /* The last chro generated */
530     int chronelapsed; /* The total number of chrons generated */
531     int total_chrons_done; /* The number of chrons generated this model */
532     int step_chrons_done;
533 step */
534     int time_steps_done; /* Time steps done for the current execution */
535 step */
536     int drainage_divide; /* Position of the end of the fluvial profile */
537 */
538     int nick_point; /* Position of a nickpoint on the profile */
539     int beach_pos; /* The position on the profile of the beach */
540 /
541     int ss_break_pos; /* The position on the profile of the marine */
542     float beach_array[MAXPTS]; /* The interpolated points between beach posi */
543 tions */
544     float nick_count; /* Counter for headward movement of the river */
545     profile */
546     float betaprof[MAXPTS]; /* The beta profile */
547     float sigmaprof[MAXPTS]; /* The sigma profile */
548     float loadprof[MAXPTS]; /* The initial topography */
549     float flexprof[MAXPTS]; /* The flexural profile */
550     float TeArray[MAXPTS]; /* The Te profile */
551     float ak[MAXPTS]; /* The restoring force profile */
552     float oldflex[MAXPTS]; /* The flexural profile for the previous chro */
553 n */
554     float old_water_prof[MAXPTS]; /* Not used */
555     float new_water_prof[MAXPTS]; /* Not used */
556     float new_tect_sub[MAXPTS]; /* Tectonic subsidence for the current time s */
557 tep */
558     float old_tect_sub[MAXPTS]; /* Tectonic subsidence for the previous time */
559 step */
560     float rebsub[MAXPTS]; /* Reference profile for subsidence calculati */
561 ons */
562     double elapsed; /* Elapsed model time */
563     float Te; /* Single value of Te for laterally constant */
564 model */
565     float area; /* Not used */
566     float sea_cycle_elapsed; /* How much of sealevel cycle elapsed - for s */
567 in curve etc*/
568     float sed_cycle_elapsed; /* How much of sediment cycle elapsed - for s */
569 in curve etc*/
570     float sed_budget; /* Sed budget calculate from profile erosion */
571 and deposition */
572     float external_budget; /* External supply from curves etc */
573     float sed_change; /* Rate of change on sediment supply curve */
574     float sed_marker; /* Midpoint on the sediment supply curve */
575     float sed_pc;
576     float pc_change;
577     float pc_marker;
578     int sed_stack_ptr;
579     float fluvial_depos;
580 chro */
581     float fluvial_erod; /* Area of fluvial sediment deposited for one ch */
582 ron */
583     float marine_depos; /* Area of marine sediment eroded for one ch */
584 chro */
585     float marine_erod; /* Area of marine sediment eroded for one chr */
586 on */
587     float sealevel; /* Elevation of the absolute sealevel datum */
588 /
589     float sea_change1; /* Rate of change for short-term sealevel cur */
590 ve */
591     float sea_marker1; /* Mid point on short-term curve */
592     float sea_change2; /* Rate of change for long-term sealevel curv

```

```

573 e */
574     float sea_marker2; /* Mid point on long-term curve */
575     float new_eq_prof[MAXPTS]; /* Equilibrium profiles for current chro */
576     float old_eq_prof[MAXPTS]; /* Equilibrium profiles for the previous chro */
577 n */
578     float fixed_fluv_prof[MAXPTS]; /* Static fluvial equilibrium profile */
579     float work_chro[MAXPTS]; /* Working chro - used for area fits etc */
580     float base_chro[MAXPTS]; /* Previous chro being built on to */
581     float fluv_change[MAXCHRONS][MAXPTS];
582     float old_fluv_prof[MAXCHRONS][MAXPTS];
583     float fluv_disp_coef[MAXCHRONS]; /* Not used */
584     float last_chro[MAXPTS]; /* Not used */
585     float old_riv_prof_area; /* Not used */
586     float length_scale; /* Not used */
587 float temp_elevation; /* Definitely not used */
588 };
589 struct Exec flags {
590     unsigned short int box_drawing;
591     unsigned short int box_drawn;
592     unsigned short int zoomed;
593     unsigned short int diagpos;
594     unsigned short int execution_complete;
595     unsigned short int initialised;
596 };
597
598 struct Strat {
599     float chrons[MAXCHRONS][MAXPTS]; /* 2d array to contain X Y coords of each */
600     float strat_layer; /* layer of strat generated in the basin */
601 };
602
603 float curves_data[MAX_STEPS + 2][11]; /* 2d array to hold sealevel and sedi */
604 ment budget info (total depos. and input) for each ti
605 mestep :
606     0 : Elapsed time, Ma
607     1 : Absolute sealevel
608     2 : Fluvial deposition
609     3 : Fluvial erosion
610     4 : Marine deposition
611     5 : Marine erosion
612     6 : External budget
613     7 : Relative sealevel
614     8 : Thermal subsidence
615     9 : Vertical element of Coastal onlap
616     10 : Sediment partitioning coefficient */
617
618 float sed_stack[MAX_STEPS + 2]; /* array to hold the drainage basin sediment
619 budget stack. */
620
621 unsigned short int depos[MAXCHRONS][MAXPTS]; /* 2d array to contain flags
622 to indicate depos environment. See #define sect
623 ion at beginning for code info. Used to draw W
624 heeler diagram */
625 unsigned short int beach[MAXCHRONS]; /* Array to store the lateral
626 position of the beach for each chro */
627 unsigned short int equilib_point[MAXCHRONS]; /* Array to store the lateral
628 position of the equilibrium point (Posser, Je
629 rvey & Vail, 1988) */
630 unsigned short int onlap[MAXCHRONS]; /* Used to store the horizon
631 tal position of the stratal onlap */
632
633 float presev_info[ENVIRONS][2]; /* 2d array to hold the total deposited and
634 the total preserved for each environment */
635 };

```

```

632 struct Tect
633 {
634     float flex_hist[MAXCHRONOS][MAXPTS];
635     float disp_coeff[MAXCHRONOS];
636     float response_time;
637     unsigned short int response_type;
638 };
639
640 struct Eustasy
641 {
642     unsigned short int change_flag;
643     int max_level;
644     int min_level;
645     float freq1;
646     int curve_type1;
647     int max_level2;
648     int min_level2;
649     int freq2;
650     int curve_type2;
651     char curve_fname[80];
652 };
653
654 struct Sed_budget
655 {
656     unsigned short int supply_flag;
657     int drainage_ratio;
658     int release_perc;
659     float maxsed, minsed, freq;
660     unsigned short int curve_type;
661     unsigned short int pc_type_flag;
662     float pc_max, pc_min, pc_freq;
663 };
664
665 struct File_params
666 {
667     char directory[80];
668     char fname[80];
669     char out_fname[80];
670     unsigned short int batch; /* Must not be overwritten by file read so
671                               needs to go in this structure */
672 };
673
674 /* Data structure which contains coords of two corners of mouse defined box */
675 struct Zoombox
676 {
677     int xcol;
678     int ycol;
679     int xco2;
680     int yco2;
681     int point_x;
682     int point_y;
683 };
684
685 struct Chrono_plot
686 {
687     unsigned short int show_chrono;
688     unsigned short int show_eustasy;
689     unsigned short int show_sed_supply;
690     unsigned short int show_relse;
691     unsigned short int show_subsid;
692     unsigned short int show_onlap;
693     int zoom_left;
694     int zoom_right;
695     float first_chron;
696     float last_chron;
697     unsigned short int wheeler_width;
698     unsigned short int sed_supply_width;
699     unsigned short int eustasy_width;
700     unsigned short int relsea_width;
701     unsigned short int subsid_width;
702     unsigned short int onlap_width;
703     unsigned short int crossplot_width;
704     unsigned short int crossplot_x_var;

```

```

702     unsigned short int crossplot_x_var;
703 };
704
705 struct Post
706 {
707     char fname[80];
708     short int param_type;
709     short int format;
710     int pen_width;
711     char multi_comment[1400];
712     int background;
713     int colour;
714     int key_flag;
715     int print_sealevel;
716     int axis_ticks;
717     int depth_tick_num;
718     int horiz_tick_num;
719     double ax_label_height;
720     float comment_size;
721     int mult_time_axis;
722     float x_gap;
723     float key_y_pos;
724     float key_x_pos;
725     double image_width, image_height, x_offset, y_offset;
726     char label1[80], label2[80], label3[80], label4[80], label5[80];
727     float xpos1, ypos1, xpoint1, ypoint1;
728     float xpos2, ypos2, xpoint2, ypoint2;
729     float xpos3, ypos3, xpoint3, ypoint3;
730     float xpos4, ypos4, xpoint4, ypoint4;
731     float xpos5, ypos5, xpoint5, ypoint5;
732     char chron_labels[10][5];
733     float chron_label_x[10], chron_label_y[10];
734     int chron_label_number;
735     float chron_label_size;
736     float frame_width;
737     float frame_height;
738 };
739
740 extern struct File_params files;
741 extern struct Params params;
742 extern struct Options options;
743 extern struct Zoombox zoombox;
744 extern struct Eustasy eustasy;
745 extern struct Sed_budget sed_budget;
746 extern struct Strat strat;
747 extern struct Tect tect;
748 extern struct Post post;
749 extern struct Exec exec;
750 extern struct Chrono_plot chrono_plot;
751

```

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