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An experimental investigation of dyke injection under regional extensional stress.

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**ABSTRACT**

Dyke injection is a fundamental process of magma transport in the crust, occurring in all tectonic settings. The effect of extensional stress regimes on dyke injections is particularly important to understanding a wide spectrum of processes including continental riftting and volcanic activity. Yet, dyke injection in extensional regimes has been relatively understudied. In addition, the effect of dyke-dyke interaction modifying the surrounding stress field and leading to dyke rotation about the vertical axis has not been addressed. We present the results from 23 laboratory analogue experiments investigating lateral dyke injections in a remote extensional stress field. This study is unique in that it addresses the effect of both extension and dyke-dyke interaction on the lateral propagation and rotation of dykes. The experiments study the interrelationship between successive lateral dyke injections by examining dyke injection thickness,
injection spacing, injection orientation, extension and structural relationship. A relationship between the rotation angle between two successive intrusions and the distance separating them under given extensional stress conditions is established. The rotation angle depends on two dimensionless numbers: the ratio of fluid overpressure of the first injection and remote tensile stress, and the ratio of the spacing between injections and the height of the first intrusion. The experiments show how the stress field is perturbed by an intrusion, and how the remote stress field is locally relieved by this intrusion. The results show furthermore that measuring or estimating the rotation angles between successive intrusions within rift zones allows the spatial distribution of these intrusions to be estimated. In the case of the actively spreading Red Sea rift in Afar, Ethiopia, we find that the vast majority of the dykes are predicted to intrude within 10 km of each other, and most frequently between 4 and 5 km, in good agreement with independent geophysical observations.

**INTRODUCTION**

Dyke injection is a fundamental process of magma transport in the crust. Extension of the crust can be accommodated both tectonically, through brittle failure, and by magma injection in dykes. During continental rifting (Maguire et al., 2006; White et al., 2008; Thybo and Nielsen, 2009; Daniels et al., 2014) extension through dyke injection requires lower yield stresses than mechanical extension through faulting or for stretching of a thick continental lithosphere (e.g., Buck, 2004; 2006; Bialas et al., 2010). Dyke injection however occurs in many tectonic settings including at hot spot volcanoes
(e.g. Fiske and Jackson, 1972) and arcs (e.g. Wadge, 1986), and extension can occur locally in these regions. Therefore the effect of an extensional stress regime on dyke injection is of importance to magma transport to volcanoes in all tectonic settings. Extension could also help in focusing repeated dyke injections but whether and how this would occur precisely remains unclear.

A dyke's orientation will change as it enters a new stress regime (e.g. Menand et al., 2010). Similarly, a dyke injection will modify the tectonic stress of the host material on a local scale (e.g. Reches and Fink, 1988). For instance, many en echelon dykes have segments that exhibit a teardrop, asymmetrical shape, their widest part being at one of their tips and with neighbouring segments displaying this asymmetry in alternating directions. This is attributed to the stresses associated with the simultaneous intrusion of neighbouring dyke segments that overlap (Daniels et al., 2012) and provides field evidence that one dyke injection can influence the propagation or orientation of another. In the case of successive dyke injections, rotation of the orientation of a second dyke will occur in comparison with the first, provided the first dyke has sufficiently altered the stress regime, and so the proximity of dykes to one another can act to focus subsequent dykes into the same region (Ito and Martel 2002). Indeed, the regional stress field can be perturbed on a local scale by high rates of magma supply (Paquet et al., 2007).

In extensional tectonic settings, the rotation of dykes about their vertical axis has been observed in association with intrusions at spreading centres, especially at sites of transform faults, where the extensional stresses are not uniform (e.g. MacLeod et al., 1990; Dietrich and Spencer, 1993). As an example, previous workers have used the Troodos Ophiolite in Cyprus as an analogue for mid ocean ridge spreading, studying the
Sheeted Dyke Complex, Southern Troodos Transform Fault Zone (STTFZ) (Dietrich and
Spencer, 1993, and references therein) and the Solea Graben (thought to be a fossil
ridge axis; Varga and Moores, 1985). Many dykes in the northern part of the Troodos
Ophiolite demonstrate a rotation in their orientation about their vertical axis from a north-
south strike to an east-west one, as they approach transform fault zones. The rotation of
these dykes has been attributed either to the stress field changes associated with a
strike-slip transform fault (Varga and Moores, 1985; Murton, 1986; Moores et al., 1990;
Dilek et al., 1990), or a physical rotation due to fault drag on large blocks in the fault
zone (Bonhommet et al., 1988; Allerton, 1989; Allerton and Vine, 1991), although
palaeomagnetic studies of the initial magnetisation of the dykes during cooling showing
a rotation magnetisation supports the second explanation. However, it is likely that the
dyke rotation during the formation of the oceanic crust at Troodos happened at an early
stage (MacLeod et al., 1990). Dyke rotation at other rift settings has also been observed
(Figure 1); ground deformation modelling from INSAR data measured during the Afar
rifting episode, Afar Ethiopia, estimated a range of up to 16° between the different
dykes’ strikes of that episode (Hamling et al., 2009; Hamling et al., 2010; Ebinger et al.,
2010). A key aspect of rift settings is that it usually involves repeated lateral dyke
intrusions. For instance, lateral dyke propagation away from rift-axial volcanoes and
magma chambers has been observed both in Iceland during the 1975-1984 Krafla rifting
episode (e.g. Brandsdottir and Einarsson, 1979) and on the Manda Hararo-Dabbahu rift
segment of the Red Sea Rift (e.g. Wright et al., 2006; Keir et al., 2009; Keir et al., 2011)
(Figure 1C). Also, the stress changes that are induced by a dyke injection in a rift can
have a strong effect in determining the location of subsequent magma injections
(Hamling et al., 2010). However, to our knowledge, this effect has not been fully quantified, and in particular the arrangement of successive dykes in both space and time.

**FIGURE 1 (FIGURE1_DykeSetting5.pdf)**

Numerous scaled analogue experimental models have been used to study various aspects of dyke injection and propagation (e.g. Heimpel and Olson, 1994; Takada, 1994a; Menand and Tait, 2001; Menand and Tait, 2002; Kavanagh et al., 2006; Menand, 2008; Menand et al., 2010; Taisne and Tait, 2009; Taisne and Tait, 2011), including buoyancy-driven fracture propagation (Fiske and Jackson, 1972; Maaloe, 1987; Takada, 1990; Heimpel and Olson, 1994; Rivalta et al., 2005) and the interaction of vertically propagating fluid-filled cracks (Takada, 1994b; Ito and Martel, 2002; Watanabe et al., 2002). Lateral spreading of dyke injections as the result of rigidity contrasts or the lack of a density difference (where buoyancy pressures are insignificant (Rubin and Pollard, 1987; Ryan, 1987; Lister and Kerr, 1991; Taisne and Jaupart, 2009)) may also generate volcanic rift zones (Heimpel and Olson, 1994). Takada (1994), Ito and Martel (2002), as well as Watanabe et al. (2002) showed that the local stress field is distorted by an intruding dyke, and that this distortion will alter the path of a second dyke. Ito and Martel (2002) also showed that multiple dykes could be focussed beneath mid-ocean ridges as a consequence of the injection of previous dykes. Kühn and Dahm (2004; 2008) showed that the trade-off between magma pressure and deviatoric stress gradient controls whether magma intrusion results in the formation of vertical sheeted dykes or a magma chamber from stacked sills. Menand et al. (2010) used buoyant injections to show that vertical dykes entering a horizontal
compressional tectonic stress field will rotate towards the direction of maximum
compactive stress, i.e. a horizontal plane, and therefore form a sill, if the compactive
stresses are large compared to the dyke buoyancy. In addition, Le Corvec and co-
workers (2013) demonstrated the influence of an extensional stress regime and the
presence of pre-existing fractures on the propagation paths of dykes. They found that
pre-existing fractures could control both the direction and speed of propagation of a
dyke, especially if the dyke volume was small or there were multiple fractures. The
propagation path of a dyke is thus controlled by the stresses acting on the region that
the dyke is propagating through (e.g. Gudmundsson, 2006; Menand et al., 2010). As
illustrated by these previous studies, analogue experimental models provide a method
for determining the effect of multiple dyke injection on the regional stress and the
cumulative effect of multiple injections in an originally extensional stress. However,
whilst laboratory experiments have been conducted to make comparisons with a
number of different geological settings, few involved the injection of an analogue
magma fluid into a solid in extension (e.g. Walter and Troll, 2003; Le Corvec et al.,
2013). Furthermore, to our knowledge, there have been no experimental studies that
investigate the effect of repeated injections in an extensional environment, and their
subsequent arrangement in both space and time.

We present the results from a series of 23 laboratory analogue experiments which
involved the repeated injection of a magma analogue (vegetable oil) into an analogue
crust (gelatine) subjected to a remote extension. This study is unique in that it
addresses the effect of both extension and dyke-dyke interaction on the lateral
propagation of dykes. The study uses sequential dyke intrusions to understand how
dykes modify the strain in the material surrounding them and alter the behaviour of the
next dyke. These experiments were designed to investigate, from a structural point of
view, the relationship between successive laterally propagating dykes injected in an
extensional tectonic setting, relating dyke injection size, amount of extension, injection
spacing and injection orientation.

**EXPERIMENTAL SET-UP, MATERIALS AND METHOD**

As a transparent, elastic solid, gelatine is commonly used as a crustal analogue for
modelling magmatic intrusions (e.g. Johnson and Pollard, 1973; Pollard and Johnson,
1973; Takada, 1990; Takada, 1994a; Takada, 1994b; Heimpel and Olson, 1994; Dahm,
2000b; Menand and Tait, 2001; Menand and Tait, 2002; Ito and Martel, 2002;
Watanabe et al., 2002; Rivalta et al., 2005; Kavanagh et al., 2006; Menand, 2008;
Menand et al., 2010; Kavanagh et al., 2013), although granular materials have also
successfully been used to model the crust (e.g. Galland et al., 2006; Mathieu et al.,
2008; Galland et al. 2009; Kervyn et al., 2009; Galerne et al. 2011). The advantage of
using gelatine however is that the visualisation of the dyke propagation is possible.
Experimental magma analogues have been more varied and include water (e.g.
Kavanagh et al., 2006); air (e.g. Menand et al., 2010); oils (e.g. Heimpel and Olson,
1994; Takada, 1994a; Galland et al., 2006); hydroxyethylcellulose solutions (e.g.
Menand and Tait, 2001); and Hexane or Mercury (e.g. Heimpel and Olson, 1994).

**Gelatine and its preparation**

Gelatine is a homogenous, isotropic, and transparent, brittle viscoelastic solid, and is
incompressible to the degree that its Poisson's ratio can be taken as 0.5 (Farquharson
and Hennes, 1940; Crisp, 1952; Richards and Mark, 1966; Righetti et al., 2004; Kavanagh et al., 2013). As shown by Kavanagh et al. (2013), gelatine can be tailored to be an appropriate laboratory-scale analogue material to model the intrusion of magma in the elastic, brittle crust, provided that low temperatures, stresses, and strains, as well as concentrations in the range 2-5 wt.% are used.

Each experiment presented here comprised a two-layered gelatine block prepared in a Perspex tank. The upper layer was more rigid than the lower one to prevent experimental dykes from reaching the surface and thus forcing instead their lateral propagation within the lower layer. This technique enabled us to generate the lateral propagation of the fluid intrusions. Analysis of the experiments requires knowledge of the lower layer gelatine Young’s modulus once solid. The usual method for determining the Young’s modulus of a gelatine solid is to measure the vertical deflection of the gelatine upper surface created by a load of known magnitude and geometry: a digital micrometre screw gauge is used to calculate the distance between a fixed point and the surface of the gelatine, a cylindrical load is applied to the surface of the gelatine, and the distance between the fixed point and the surface of the gelatine deflected by the load is measured as precisely as possible. Assuming the gelatine is a semi-infinite elastic solid, the Young’s modulus can be calculated using

\[
E = \frac{mg(1 - \nu^2)}{2 \pi D}
\]  

(1)

where \( m \) is the mass of the load, \( g \) is 9.81 m/s\(^2\), \( \nu \) is the Poisson's ratio, \( r \) is the radius of the load and \( D \) is the deformation of the gelatine due to the load (Timoshenko and Goodier, 1970). Provided the size of the load is less than 10% that of the gelatine solid,
tank-wall effects are negligible. However, this technique requires direct access to the upper free surface of the layer whose Young’s modulus is to be measured. In our two-layer gelatine solid, the lower layer is inaccessible. This difficulty was circumvented by preparing two batches of the lower layer of identical volumes and poured in two identical tanks: the experimental tank, used for the experiments, and a control tank, used to measure the Young’s modulus of the lower layer.

The gelatine was prepared from a high-clarity, 260 bloom, pigskin-derived, granular powder dissolved in hot, de-ionised water. A 2-wt. % aqueous solution was prepared initially and transferred in equal amounts of 29 L into the two identical acrylic tanks with internal dimensions of 40.0 by 39.8 by 28.9 cm. Both tanks were covered by wrapping film and situated in a cold room with a temperature of 4°C for between 12 and 18 hours, allowing the gelatine to cure, whilst preventing the gelatine forming a tough skin.

Subsequently, a further 10 L mixture of 5-wt.%-solution gelatine was then prepared and added only to the experimental tank as the upper layer before returning this tank to the cold room with the control tank for another 6 to 12 hours (Figure 2 A). The gelatine solidification time, temperature, layer volumes and concentrations were recorded (Table 1). The gelatine concentrations, curing temperatures and times ensured that the experiments were correctly scaled to investigate natural magmatic intrusions in terms of geometry, kinematics and dynamics (Kavanagh et al., 2013).

FIGURE 2 (FIGURE2_LABexpApparatusSETUP2.pdf)

Once the gelatine in the experimental tank was solid, the Young’s modulus of the gelatine in the control tank was measured using the method described above (Table 1),
and the measured value was assumed to be equal to the Young’s modulus value of the lower layer in the experimental tank. This was done for each experiment. The experimental tank was then removed from the cold room to run an experiment at room temperature, which allowed a better temperature control of the injected hot analogue fluid. The experiment was sufficiently fast to assume that the mechanical properties of the gelatine solid did not change during the experiment.

**Extensional stress field**

A uniform remote tectonic extension was simulated by vertically compressing the gelatine solid and allowing it to respond by deforming horizontally as detailed in Le Corvec et al. (2013) (Figure 2C and D). Removable copper and aluminium plates (dimensions: 39.5 by 32.4 by 1.25 cm) lined two opposite tank walls. After the Young’s modulus measurement, these metal plates were heated by circulating hot water within them, removed and the space vacated by the plates was filled with water, whose density is close to that of solid gelatine. The remaining two sides and base of the gelatine were separated from the tank walls with a square U-shaped slice, which had the dimensions of the gelatine solid. Therefore, the boundary conditions for the gelatine solid were a zero shear stress boundary condition with a non-zero hydrostatic pressure pushing on the two gelatine walls initially in contact with the metal plates, and a free-slip boundary condition (no normal displacement) for the other walls of the gelatine solid and its base (Figure 2B and C). After each injection the zero shear stress boundaries moved closer to the edges of the tank, by less than 1 mm, increasing the height of the water level at the sides of the tank by approximately the same amount. This changed the hydrostatic pressure pushing on the gelatine by a few Pa only, which was thus
neglected. The extension (in the x-direction) was generated by applying a uniform load
to the gelatine’s top surface (and compressing in the z-direction) until the sides of the
gelatine had extended by the required amount (Figure 2D, Table 1). This technique
allowed the unconfined pair of gelatine walls to extend freely and ensured a uniform
stress within the gelatine solid. The amount of induced extension $\Delta L$ was varied
between experiments, and the stress field in the x, y and z directions generated due to
this extension was then calculated (see Appendix for details):

$$\sigma_x = -\frac{4}{3} E \frac{\Delta L}{L}$$  \hspace{0.5cm} (2)

$$\sigma_y = -\frac{2}{3} E \frac{\Delta L}{L}$$  \hspace{0.5cm} (3)

$$\sigma_z = 0$$  \hspace{0.5cm} (4)

where $L$ is the original gelatine horizontal length, $\Delta L$ is the induced horizontal extension
and $E$ is the Young’s modulus. The stress conditions for each experiment are listed in
Table 1.

**Analogue fluid properties and injection conditions**

The experiments involved the repeated injection of fluid in the gelatine solids to create
experimental dykes. Dykes were injected into a pristine gelatine block. A small slit
(approximately 1 cm by 2 cm) was initially cut into the gelatine perpendicular to the
extension direction, and a tapered injection nozzle was carefully oriented to initiate the
injections and feed the fluid into this slit. This technique ensured the formation of
experimental dykes that were initially oriented perpendicular to the direction of
extension in the gelatine (parallel to $\sigma_1$ and perpendicular to $\sigma_3$), rose quickly to the interface between the two gelatine layers and then spread more slowly in a lateral direction. For the first dyke, after the fluid had reached the interface and begun propagating laterally, the propagation speed of the crack tips at either end of the dyke slowed down so that each tip was propagating at roughly half the speed of the crack tip rising vertically. The propagation speed of the subsequent dykes was slower than for the first dykes, and the rise speed was comparable to the lateral propagation speed. The total time taken to conduct all of the injections in an experiment was always less than 1 hour, with the duration of the majority being close to 20 minutes. Once the dyke had moved away from the injection point, the stress field in the gelatine controlled its orientation. To prevent the coalescence of successive fluid injections and to preserve the structural relationship between the successive dykes, a solidifying analogue injection fluid was used. This fluid was a vegetable oil under the Trade name Vegetaline that has previously been used as a magma analogue (Galland et al., 2003; 2006; 2007; 2008; 2009; Chanceaux and Menand, 2014). Vegetaline also has a well-established viscosity-temperature relationship due to the rheological testing presented in Galland et al., (2006). The melting point (31°C) is at an easy temperature to work with under laboratory conditions, and allows the extraction of the solidified dykes from the gelatine for further analysis, after the completion of each experiment.

If solidification occurs during dyke propagation, segmentation and fingering of the dyke edges (e.g. Rubin, 1995) can occur, producing dyke shapes that are harder to analyse in terms of the stresses they impose on their surroundings. Alternatively, the injection of a fluid that is too hot could cause the gelatine in contact with the fluid to melt during the
experiment, affecting the accurate measurement of the stresses generated by the injection. Taisne and Tait (2011) investigated the propagation of a solidifying dyke of paraffin wax into a homogenous block of gelatine and defined two dimensionless parameters to predict when solidification or melting is expected to occur, the dimensionless flux ($\Phi$) and the dimensionless temperature ($\Theta$) (See Taisne and Tait, 2011 for further details).

The dimensionless flux represents the dynamical conditions of the injection and is the ratio of the advected heat flux due to the flow into the fissure to the heat lost due to conduction within the gelatine (Taisne and Tait, 2011). The dimensionless temperature represents the injection’s thermal conditions and is the ratio of the difference between the Vegetaline phase-change temperature ($T_s$) and the ambient temperature of the gelatine solid host ($T_\infty$), to the difference between the Vegetaline fluid injection temperature and the solid gelatine temperature. Values for $\Theta$ can range between 0 and 1. The larger the $\Theta$ value, the lower the injection temperature and the smaller the difference between the injection temperature and the gelatine temperature. Thus, larger $\Theta$ values correspond to thermal conditions closer to solidification. Conversely, low values of dimensionless temperature ($\Theta \to 0$) correspond to thermal conditions far from solidification. Consequently, high injection temperatures ($\Theta \to 0$) cause a smooth and gradual propagation of the injected dyke. As the injection temperature approaches the solidification temperature ($\Theta \to 1$), cooling and solidification increase and dyke propagation becomes stepwise (Taisne and Tait, 2011). For a natural system, $\Theta$ should be between 0.9 and 0.95 because in most cases, magmas are injected close to their liquidus temperature (Delaney and Pollard, 1982; Taisne and Tait, 2011). Theoretically,
Φ can range between 0 and ∞; everything else being equal, a larger Φ value corresponds to a larger volumetric flux and therefore a faster injection rate. Slow injection rates (Φ → zero) promote solidification, whilst faster injection rates where Φ >> 1 produce almost no solidification (Taisne and Tait 2011, Chanceaux and Menand 2014). The dimensionless flux and temperature are related according to

\[ \alpha = \Theta \frac{5.36}{\Phi} \]  

the value of which (Figure 3) can be used to describe the solidification characteristics of the dyke injection (Taisne and Tait, 2011). α is always between 0 and 1; if α close to 1 solidification dominates (if α = 1 no propagation would take place as the injection would immediately freeze) and induces an intermittent stepwise propagation of the experimental dyke with a discontinuous and jagged geometry. If α = 0 there is no solidification and propagation is continuous with a smooth dyke geometry. However, α values very close to zero correspond to hotter fluid injections that may melt the gelatine solid. Therefore a threshold maximum value of α = 0.5 was arbitrarily set to ensure that a solidification-induced jagged geometry (α close to 1) did not occur during the experiments. Moreover, when melting of the gelatine solid happened, owing to too small an α value, this generally occurred close to the injector and generated small immiscible bubbles of molten gelatine that were picked up by the injected fluids. This melting could thus be identified after the experiments by the presence of thermally eroded gelatine around the injector and the solidified gelatine bubbles. Experiments that displayed such melting evidence were removed from our analysis.

FIGURE 3 (FIGURE3_NEWalpha1707143.pdf)
During each experiment, the fluid was injected using a peristaltic pump at a constant volumetric flux, and the temperature of the fluid at the injection point was maintained constant; the injections continued to propagate, driven by their buoyancy, for a short time (on the order of 0.5 min) after the pump had been switched off. The volumetric flux and temperature for each experiment were chosen so that the corresponding $\Phi$ and $\Theta$ values of each experiment gave $\alpha$ values that were consistently below 0.5 (the bold line in Figure 3); to obtain these values, the vegetable oil temperature and volumetric flux were kept within specific ranges ($40 - 60^\circ\text{C}$ and 59.78 to 179.35 ml/min respectively).

Variable volume intrusions of the buoyant fluid were injected at a constant flux into the underlying gelatine layer through small holes in the base of the tank (Figure 2D). Each injection created an experimental dyke whose propagation occurred first vertically until it reached the interface of the more rigid, overlying gelatine layer, and then occurred laterally, creating a blade-like dyke. Each experiment allowed the injection of up to 4 successive dykes ($D_i$, where $i = 1$ to 4). Successive experimental dykes were injected at specific spatial intervals (Table 2) measured horizontally at the base of the tank from one injection point to the next. Each injection point was located along a line through the centre of the base of the tank, parallel to the extension direction. Injections were stopped before they could reach either the surface or the tank walls, and each dyke was allowed to solidify before another was made. These dykes were not expected to coalesce (Takada, 1994b); indeed in most cases, they did not. A few experimental injections ($D_i$) did merge with a previous injection ($D_{i-1}$) and flowed along a solidified edge. If this occurred at a late stage, measurements were recorded prior to their coalescence; otherwise these dykes were removed from further analysis. Occasionally
a dyke showed evidence of small beads of gelatine accumulating at the base of the fluid injection. This indicated some melting of the gelatine had occurred and these dykes were also removed from further analysis.

At the end of each experiment, the static spatial relationship, shape and orientation between successive injections were recorded. The spacing between each injection ($d_s$), the injection temperature, the gelatine temperature, the injection’s volumetric flux, the injection time, and the injection orientation (or rotation angle) ($\gamma$) are given in Table 2. The rotation angle of each dyke ($D_i$) was measured relative to the orientation of the previous dyke ($D_{i-1}$) from an aerial photograph of the dyke’s final position (Figure 4 A).

The dyke orientation will be dependent on the extensional stress field set up within the gelatine; the stress field will be altered by each subsequent dyke. The injection length and thickness were measured after the experiment ceased by excavating the solidified injections from the gelatine; the thickness was measured at the central point along the length of the dyke where the injection was the thickest.

**FIGURE 4 (FIGURE4_ExperimentsDiag9.pdf)**

**RESULTS AND ANALYSIS**

The orientation of the experimental dykes was observed to vary from experiment to experiment. Figure 5 shows the rotation angle between injections as a function of the injection spacing ($d_s$), with different symbols representing different amounts of imposed extension, and indicates that the rotation angle between two successive experimental dykes ($D_i$ and $D_{i+1}$) decreases as the separation distance, and/or the extension
undergone by the solid, increase. Some of the experimental dykes \((D_{i+1})\) were observed to propagate further in lateral extent than the previous dyke \((D_{i})\). The average propagation direction of dykes that emerge from the shadow of the previous dyke will be different to those that do not exceed the length of the previous dyke. Where dykes emerge from the shadow of a previous dyke, the propagation direction will alter as the stress field necessarily changes (e.g. Figure 4A). In an extensional environment, the result will be to cause the dyke to realign to propagate perpendicular to the extension direction, as seen in the experiments, whilst dykes remaining in the shadow of the previous dyke will feel the presence of the previous dyke along their entire length. For any dyke \((D_{i+n})\) that exceeded the lateral extent of the previous dyke and altered its propagation direction, the average strike of the beginning part of the dyke was recorded as that dyke’s orientation (e.g. Figure 4A).

Gelatine is deformed the most where a dyke is the thickest, which is usually near its centre. We therefore assume that the thickness at the centre of an experimental dyke is a proxy for the altered stress field that controls the orientation of the subsequent dykes, and that the accumulated dyke thickness from the injection of more than one dyke will affect the shape, orientation and emplacement of the next dyke intruded. In reality, the whole shape of the previous intrusion could be important but we make the simplifying assumption that the thickness of a dyke at its centre has the greatest influence. We also neglect the complicating fact that whether a dyke has a curved or straight shape will alter the existing stress field in a different way.

**FIGURE 5 (FIGURE5_SpacingVSangle130215bw.pdf)**
The normal and tangential stresses associated with the opening of a single crack in an infinite elastic medium can be calculated, along with the theoretical maximum aperture of a crack, using Hooke's law and the analysis of Westergaard (1939). We consider the case of a 2D crack aligned parallel and normal to the x and y directions, respectively, with an internal overpressure $P_1$ (the difference between the pressure within the crack and the surrounding stress acting normal to the crack wall), and taking compressive stresses as positive. The calculations are based on three complex functions:

$$Z = \frac{P_1}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{h^2}{z^2}}} - P_1,$$  \hspace{1cm} (6)

where $h$ is the crack half-length (in our case, the height of the experimental intrusion, the second longest dimension) and $z$ is the complex variable $z = x + iy$;

$$Z' = \frac{dZ}{dz} = -P_1 \left( \frac{h^2}{z^3 \left(1 - \frac{h^2}{z^2}\right)^{3/2}} \right),$$  \hspace{1cm} (7)

and

$$\bar{Z} = P_1 \sqrt{(z^2 - h^2)} - P_1 \, z,$$  \hspace{1cm} (8)

where $Z$ is the derivative of $\bar{Z}$

$$Z = \frac{d\bar{Z}}{dz}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (9)

The normal ($s_x, s_y$) and tangential ($\tau_{xy}$) stresses around the crack, that are induced by its opening, are then
\[ s_x = Re(Z) - y \text{Im}(Z') \]  \hspace{1cm} (10)
\[ s_y = Re(Z) + y \text{Im}(Z') \]  \hspace{1cm} (11)
\[ \tau_{xy} = -y Re(Z'), \]  \hspace{1cm} (12)

and the associated displacements are

\[ u_x = \left( (1 - 2v) Re(\bar{Z}) - y \text{Im}(\bar{Z}) \right) \frac{(1 + v)}{E} \]  \hspace{1cm} (13)
\[ u_y = (2(1 - v) \text{Im}(\bar{Z}) - y Re(\bar{Z})) \frac{(1 + v)}{E}. \]  \hspace{1cm} (14)

This analysis enabled us to calculate the internal pressure within our first experimental dykes (D_1) by comparing the measured maximum aperture of these experimental dykes with the theoretical maximum aperture predicted for a range of different overpressures. The internal overpressure (P_i) that gave the minimum mismatch between the measured and theoretical maximum aperture was chosen (Table 2). In doing so, we assumed our experimental dykes could be approximated as 2D objects given their large length to thickness aspect ratios. The first injection overpressure was almost always larger than the applied remote tensile stress (Experiments 16-19 were exceptions), implying that the opening of the first crack D_1 not only accommodated entirely the applied tensile stress but required also some additional overpressure (Table 3). The thickness of each dyke acts to reduce the remote tensile stress and increase the compressional stress within the gelatine, deforming the crust around it. As dykes are progressively intruded into a gelatine block, the gelatine stress state will transition into being locally more compressive. The remote tensile stress applied to Experiments 16-
19 was not overcome by the first dyke, this is presumably because these experiments were the ones with the largest gelatine extension (30 mm) and had the largest initial applied tensile stress.

As shown in Figure 6, the opening of a dyke induces a local compression of the host elastic solid. This causes the subsequent injected dykes to rotate (Figure 6), but it also reduces the thickness of the intrusions.

**FIGURE 6 (FIGURE6_Westergaard-BW3.pdf )**

The stress perturbation induced by the opening of a dyke varies with space and decreases away from the crack. This perturbation is the greatest near the centre of the crack because its opening is the largest there. We have found an analytical approximation for the compressive component $s_y$ induced by the opening of the crack and acting normal to its long axis, and we used this approximation to analyse its effect on the orientation of the subsequent cracks. The decay of the stress, normalised by the crack internal pressure, away from the centre of the crack at $x = 0$ can be approximated by the function

$$s_y = \frac{1}{\left(1+\frac{(d_s)^2}{\sqrt{\pi h^2}}\right)}$$  \hspace{1cm} (15)

where $d_s$ is the distance from the centre of the crack and $h$ is the crack half-height (the relevant length for a 3D crack in an elastic medium is its second longest dimension, i.e. the crack height for horizontally propagating dykes). The boundary conditions for this equation are identical to those of Westergaard (1939), where a crack is embedded in an infinite elastic medium and is opening under constant internal pressure. This allows a
comparison between the analytical expression and Westergaard’s solution to be
resolved numerically. Figure 7 A shows the exact spatial evolution of the normal stress
($s_y$) away from the centre of the crack along the $y$-axis and normalised by the internal
pressure (black line), calculated numerically using Westergaard’s (1939) analysis
(equation 11), as well as our analytical approximation (equation 15).

**FIGURE 7 (FIGURE7_LABwestergaardAnalysisandFigures180714.pdf)**

Figure 7 B shows the residual between the exact and approximate solutions and shows
that the approximation is correct to within 3.5% of the exact solution or less. Since $\sigma_s$
will be greatest along the direction $x = 0$, this analytical function represents an upper
bound approximation for the spatial evolution of the compressive stress component $\sigma_y$
around the crack (Figure 7 A, red line).

This analysis of the stress around an opening crack confirms as expected that the
natural length scale of the injections is the injection half-length (the dyke half-height in
our experimental configuration). Therefore it is assumed that the rotation angle $\gamma$
between dyke $D_i$ and $D_{i+1}$ depends only on 1) the stress ratio of the remote tensile
stress ($\sigma_y$) to the first injection ($D_{i=1}$) overpressure ($P_o$, the source fluid pressure in
excess of the lithostatic pressure prior to imposing a remote tensile stress), and 2) the
injection spacing ($d_s$) between $D_i$ and $D_{i+1}$ normalised by the half-height ($h$) of $D_i$ which
is the relevant length in the experiments:

$$
\gamma = f \left( \frac{\sigma_y}{P_o}, \frac{d_s}{h} \right).
$$

(16)
The effect of both of these ratios should be independent of one another as neither $\sigma_y$

nor $d_s$ is dependent on the other. Therefore

$$\gamma = f \left( \frac{\sigma_y}{P_o} \right) \cdot g \left( \frac{d_s}{h} \right)$$  \hspace{1cm} (17)

where $f$ and $g$ are unknown functions. For a case of no remote tensile stress ($\sigma_y = 0$), $\gamma$

should reflect the stress perturbation of the opening of the crack $D_i$. As shown in Figure

7, the stress perturbation ($\sigma_p$) due to the crack opening, decreases approximately as

$$\sigma_p = \frac{1}{\left( 1 + \frac{(d_s)^2}{(\sqrt{\pi} h^2)} \right)}$$  \hspace{1cm} (18)

where $d_s$ is the injection spacing, or the distance from the crack centre parallel to the

opening. Therefore

$$g \left( \frac{d_s}{h} \right) = \frac{1}{\left( 1 + \frac{(d_s)^2}{(\sqrt{\pi} h^2)} \right)}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (19)

In the case of a fluid overpressure much greater than the remote stress, $P_o \gg -\sigma_y$, the

rotation angle will likely be maximised and so equal to $\pi/2$ radians. In the opposite case,

when $-\sigma_y \gg P_o$, the stress perturbation induced by the opening of the first crack should

be minimal and so the rotation angle should be zero. Considering the stress ratio $P_o/\sigma_y$,

it is thus expected that the ratio of $\gamma/(\pi/2)$ radians $\to 1$ when $-P_o/\sigma_y \gg 1$, and $\gamma/(\pi/2)$

radians $\to 0$ when $-P_o/\sigma_y \ll 1$. The function $\frac{(-P_o/\sigma_y)}{(-P_o/\sigma_y + 1)}$ behaves in the same way, thus

the function $f$ is approximated as
\[ f = -\pi \frac{\frac{P_o}{\sigma_y}}{\frac{1 - P_o}{\sigma_y}} \] \quad (20)

\( P_o \) is not known but it is related to the effective crack overpressure \( (P_l) \), which is the sum of the fluid overpressure \( (P_o) \) and the remote tensile stress \( (\sigma_y) \):

\[ P_l = P_o - \sigma_y \] \quad (21)

So the ratio \( \frac{P_o}{\sigma_y} = \frac{P_l}{\sigma_y} + 1 \), and the function \( f \) becomes

\[ f = \frac{\pi}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{\sigma_y}{P_l} \right) \] \quad (22)

We note, however, that the fluid overpressure \( P_o \) cannot be negative (it can only be equal to zero at minimum), and so the stress ratio \( -\frac{P_o}{\sigma_y} \) is always greater than or equal to 0, which is equivalent to having \( -\frac{P_l}{\sigma_y} \geq 1 \), that is \( -\frac{\sigma_y}{P_l} \leq 1 \). Therefore the function \( f \) should be defined as

\[ f \left( \frac{-\sigma_y}{P_l} \leq 1 \right) = \frac{\pi}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{\sigma_y}{P_l} \right) \] \quad (25)

and

\[ f \left( \frac{-\sigma_y}{P_l} > 1 \right) = 0 \] \quad (24)

Therefore we expect the rotation angle between two successive fluid cracks to be
\[
\gamma = \begin{cases} 
\frac{\pi}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{\sigma_y}{P_t} \right) & \text{when } -\frac{\sigma_y}{P_t} \leq 1, \\
1 + \frac{(d_2)^2}{\sqrt{\pi} \omega^2} & \text{when } -\frac{\sigma_y}{P_t} > 1.
\end{cases} \tag{25}
\]

Figure 8A compares the surface of expected $\gamma$ values defined by Equation 25 with the measured rotation angles. The majority of the experimental data fall on the expected surface within the experimental error, estimated to be +/- 10 degrees (Figure 8B).

**FIGURE 8 (FIGURE8_WestergaardModel01-02-152.pdf)**

**DISCUSSION**

The results confirm as expected that the orientation of the first injection ($D_{i=1}$) occurs perpendicular to the maximum extensional stress, consistent with observations of dyke injections intruding along the rift zone of active segments of spreading rift margins (e.g. Schwarz et al., 2005; Buck et al., 2006; Hamling, 2010). The experiments have shown that for repeated injections into a region, the angle of rotation between an injection and the next is dependent on the ratio of the overpressure of the fluid and the remote tensile stress. For thinner and shorter first injections, where the overpressure due to the fluid is small, the rotation angle between the injection ($D_i$) and the subsequent one ($D_{i+1}$) is also small. For large first injections, the rotation angle $\gamma$ between the injection ($D_i$) and a subsequent injection ($D_{i+1}$) is larger. The rotation angle is dependent on the first injection overpressure, and is inversely proportional to the square of the spacing normalised by the crack half-height (Equation 25). This inverse relationship with
normalised spacing implies that for larger normalised spacings, the rotation angle will be decreased.

The experiments presented here show that, in addition to orientation changes due to regional stresses, the dyke injections themselves can impart sufficient stress onto the host rock they are intruding, that they alter the propagation path of subsequent dykes. This has also been seen by Kavanagh and Sparks (2011) where propagating dykes entering rock layers with different mechanical properties were observed to rotate and create a scissor-like profile. Ito and Martel (2002) studied the convergence and coalescence of fluid-filled fractures due to the alteration of the local stress field by a previous dyke injection. To allow coalescence, they found that the injection spacing had to be less than a few dyke head-lengths and that the applied remote stress is small compared with the driving pressure. In our experiments, the injection spacing was always within the required distance for crack convergence, but we did not observe any coalescence or rotation about a horizontal axis; this is likely to be because the remote stress field is large. Our results are instead consistent with the findings of Ito and Martel (2002), Olson and Pollard (1989) and Takada (1994a), that an increase in the remote tensile stress will reduce the interaction of dykes.

In most of our experiments, the imposed regional extensional stress field seems to have been overcome by the first injection. Thus for successive injections, the stress field became progressively more compressive, allowing the injections to rotate to an orientation almost perpendicular to the first injection \( (D_{i=1}) \) in some cases. The recent activity (Figure 1) taking place on the subaerially exposed Manda Hararo-Dabbahu segment of the Red Sea Rift (e.g. Wright et al., 2006; Daniels et al., 2014) can be
examined using the same relationship as the experiments (Equation 25). Taking the first injection in the recent sequence of dyke injections (Figure 1E), an estimate of the range of expected distances between the successive intrusions, given their emplacement orientation, can be made. This requires the knowledge of a range of plausible rotation angles for the dykes in the sequence, the effective overpressure $P_i$ that caused the opening of the first dyke, and the remote tensile stress $\sigma_y$. The stress drop $\Delta s$ caused by the opening of the initial dyke in the recent intrusion sequence, has been estimated to be 30-80 MPa (Grandin et al., 2010; Hamling et al., 2010). This is a compressive stress induced by the opening of the dyke, over and above the remote tensile stress $\sigma_y$ acting on the crust at that point. The amount of remote tensile stress $\sigma_y$ on the Red Sea Rift is not known, however, the tectonic force available for rifting is usually estimated to be in the range of 3-5 Tera N/m (Forsyth and Uyeda, 1975; Solomon et al., 1980; Buck 2004) with 4.2 Tera N/m the standard case (Bialas et al., 2010). Divided over the thickness of the crust at the Red Sea Rift in Afar, Ethiopia, this force provides -120 to -200 MPa of remote tensile stress, with -168 MPa as the standard case. Therefore, $P_i$ can be estimated as $P_i = \Delta s - \sigma_y$, thus in the range of 198 to 248 MPa. These values of $P_i$ and $\sigma_y$ correspond to an overall range for the ratio $-\sigma_y/P_i$ of 0.68 to 0.85.

The strike directions of the dykes after September 2005 have been estimated to be in the range 327.8 to 343.1 (Hamling et al., 2009; Hamling 2010; Ebinger et al., 2010). This estimate range was obtained using a model of ground deformation derived from INSAR. If we take the difference between the strike of dyke $D_i$ and dyke $D_{i+1}$, a range of rotation values that represent the effect of a dyke on the subsequent one can be calculated. Successive dykes from the Afar rifting episode produce rotation values in the
range 2.3 to 12.5°. The caveat however is that the dykes are not completely overlapping in all cases. The Afar rifting episode shares many similarities with the Krafla rift episode (1975-1984) (Figure 1E), however the understanding of the 3D distributions of the dyke openings along the fissure swarm length is less well constrained (Hollingsworth et al., 2012; Hollingsworth et al., 2013). Pollard et al., (1983) use vertical displacements and surface faulting to infer the strike direction of dykes intruded into Kilauea's Southwest rift zone in May 1970, September 1971 and December 1971. The differences in strike direction between these three dykes give rotation angles of 5 and 2° respectively, within the range of those measured in Afar.

Using this range of rotation angles, a range of expected dyke spacings can be calculated. For a rotation of only 1°, the spacing is expected to be in the range 16.5 to 24.6 km, depending on the value used for the ratio \(-\sigma_y/P_t\) (Figure 9). A spacing of 16 to 25 km seems unreasonably large; however, these distances correspond to a very small rotation angle. A rotation of 13° corresponds to injection spacings of up to 5.1 km, well within the 10 km wide injection region beneath the rift axis, revealed by various geophysical surveys (e.g. Johnson, 2012). Figure 9 illustrates that to get injections within ~5 km from the rift axis, as observed on the Red Sea Rift in Afar, would result in a minimum rotation of 7-13°.

**FIGURE 9 (FIGURE9_EstimatedSpaceandOrientation2.pdf)**

The histogram of the simulated injection spacing frequency (Figure 9B) provides an idea of the most likely injection spacing values that would be expected on the Red Sea Rift for the range of observed Θ and calculated stress ratio \(-\sigma_y/P_t\). It shows that the most
frequently occurring injection spacing is 4000 to 5000 m (15.3% of the data), and that
nearly half of the data (48%) are ≤6 km spacing. For the range of stress ratios and
rotation angles observed on the Red Sea Rift, the majority of the dykes are predicted to
intrude within 10 km of the previous one and most frequently between 4 and 5 km,
which is consistent with the results of previous geophysical surveys of the area (e.g.
Johnson, 2012).

Extensional stresses at plate margins are relieved by dyke injections events; between
injections, extensional stresses are able to build up. The tendency for repeated dyke
injection events to eventually relieve all of the extensional stresses existing in the host
rocks they are intruding is likely to be a strong function of the time between injection
events. An estimate of the stress build-up rate at a rifted plate margin can be made from
the product of the host-rock Young's modulus and the strain rate (e.g. Timoshenko and
Goodier, 1970). For a typical Young's modulus of 10 GPa and a tectonic strain rate of
10^{-14} \text{ s}^{-1}, a stress build-up rate of 3 kPa yr^{-1} would be expected. The remote tensile
stress available for rifting on the Red Sea Rift is calculated to be -120 to -200 MPa. The
stress build-up rate suggests that this remote tensile stress would have taken between
40 and 67 ka to accrue. This timescale would be even longer if the crust started in a
state of compressional stress (i.e. after a period of protracted dyke injection). Dyke
injections with overpressures on the order of 100 MPa would overcome the remote
tensile stress after just a couple of injections. After a larger dyke injection, the time
taken for the extensional stress to reach the same level as that prior to the injection will
be longer.
Stress relaxation on the other hand will tend to reduce, through time, the local compressional stress exerted on the surrounding crust by a dyke injection. The amount of stress relaxation will depend on the thermal state of the crust following the injections, as hotter crust will relax more quickly, as well as the time between successive injections, because higher injection frequency will both reduce the amount of stress relaxation that can occur and lead to increase local, intrusion-induced, compressional stress. Provided that the stress build-up is slow and that the timescale between repeated injections is smaller than the stress relaxation timescale, individual dyke injections within multi-injection episodes should start to experience rotation after only a few injections. Rotation of the orientation of dyke injections about their vertical axis at active rift margins has been documented at transform faults (e.g. MacLeod et al., 1990); dyke injections at rift margins mostly seem to occupy orientations that are approximately rift-parallel. This suggests that the extensional stress at rift margins is larger than the amount that is relieved by dyke injections, or that the elapsed time between dyke intrusions is longer than the time taken for extensional stresses to build up in the crust.

CONCLUSIONS

The experiments conducted in this study investigate the effect of multiple dyke injections under extensional tectonic stresses. Based on these experiments, we find a relationship between the amount of rotation (or the emplacement orientation) of successive dykes intruded at a given distance from each other and under given extensional stress conditions.
The experimental results show that the orientation of the first injection occurs perpendicular to the maximum extensional stress and that the size of the first injection is important as it determines how much of the extensional stress is locally relieved. The angle of rotation between the first injection and the next depends on the ratio of the fluid overpressure and the remote tensile stress. For small first injections, where the fluid overpressure is small, the rotation angle between the injection and the subsequent one is also small. For large first injections, the rotation angle between the injection and a subsequent injection is larger. More specifically, the rotation angle is dependent on the first injection overpressure and is inversely proportional to the square of the normalised spacing with respect to the height of the first injection (Equation 25), so that a larger normalised spacing will lead to a smaller rotation angle between successive intrusions. Conversely, the knowledge of rotation angles between successive intrusions within rift zones allows for an estimation of the spatial distribution of these intrusions. For the range of stress ratios and rotation angles observed on the actively spreading Red Sea rift, the vast majority of the dykes are predicted to intrude within 10 km of the previous one and most frequently between 4 and 5 km. This is consistent with geophysical observations of dyke locations on the Red Sea Rift in Afar, Ethiopia.

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The majority of the data for this paper are presented in Tables 1 to 3. Some additional data are available in the author’s PhD thesis (Modelling magma transport: a study of
dyke injection, 2013) accessible through the University of Bristol library, or online at the British Library EThOS service.

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REFERENCES


**FIGURE CAPTIONS**

Figure 1: A and B) The location of the Afar volcanic province within Africa C) The Manda Hararo-Dabbahu rift segment of the subaerial Red Sea Rift (background image courtesy of Prof. K. Whaler). Yellow filled circles denote a volcanic complex, the red lines show the location of the recent dyke activity and the blue arrow shows the direction of extension. The purple line shows the location of the photograph of the fault scarp and normal extension in D). E) The Afar rift dyke swarm (light blue) showing the locations and sizes of the sequential dyke injections between 2005-2009, compared against the dykes injected during the Krafla rifting episode (1975-1984) (black bars).
The yellow and red bars denote eruptions. (After Einarsson (1991); Hamling et al., (2009); Hamling (2010)).

Figure 2: A) The experimental apparatus and setup. B and C) The procedure for separating the sides of the gelatine from the walls of the tank. B) Metal plates on two opposing sides of the gelatine were heated with hot water (red shading) and then removed from the tank (red arrows). C) The space vacated by the metal plates was filled with water (blue shading). The remaining sides of the gelatine were cut with a narrow U-shaped metal implement in the direction shown by the green arrows.

Figure 3: The value of dimensionless flux and dimensionless temperature for each of the experimental injections from each of the experiments. The different contours correspond to different alpha values. The stars correspond to individual experimental dyke injections. A threshold value of $\alpha = 0.5$ was set to ensure that a solidification-induced geometry did not occur and only injections with an alpha value below this threshold were used.

Figure 4: Example experiments showing the geometry of the experimental set-up and results. A and B) Experiment 26 in plan-view and side-view respectively. C and D) Experiment 38 in plan-view and side-view respectively. The extension direction is shown by the black arrows. The dyke orientation was measured relative to the axis of extension in plan-view (e.g. A and C).

Figure 5: Rotation angle as a function of the injection spacing ($d_s$), colour-coded for different amounts of imposed extension.
Figure 6: Contours (continuous curves) of the normal compressive stress ($s_n$), calculated using Equation (11), and directions of the maximum compressive principal stress ($s_1$), both induced by the opening of the crack located between $x = -1$ and $x = 1$ (thick black segment). The stresses are normalised by the internal crack overpressure, and the spatial distances are normalised by the crack half-height.

Figure 7: Above: The normal stresses and displacement of the solid due to crack opening. Below: The calculated normal stress due to the opening of a crack (here shown for Experiment 40). A) The exact spatial evolution of the normal stress ($s_n$) normalised by the internal pressure ($P_i$) as a function of the distance ($d_o$) normalised by the crack half-height ($h$) (black line), and the approximation $1 / (1 + \frac{(d_o)^2}{\sqrt{\pi h^2}})$ (red line). B) The residual between the two solutions.

Figure 8: A) Surface of expected values of rotation angle ($\phi$) as a function of normalised remote tensile stress ($\sigma_r/P_i$) and normalised injection spacing ($d_o/h$). The red dots are the experimental injections. B) The difference between the measured rotation angles and the predicted values from Equation 25. The dashed lines show the experimental error (estimated to be +/- 10 degrees). The vast majority of the measurements fall on the expected surface within experimental error.

Figure 9: A) The rotation angle ($\phi$) against the stress ratio (-$\sigma_r/P_i$), showing the resultant injection spacing ($d_o$) in km (contours). B) Histogram of the simulated injection spacing ($d_o$) frequency generated from 1000 randomly generated values for rotation angle ($\phi$) and stress ratio (-$\sigma_r/P_i$), using estimated parameters for the Manda-Harraro Dabbahu rift segment in Afar (see text).
**TABLE CAPTIONS**

Table 1: The gelatine preparation details and experimental starting conditions.

Table 2: The experimental injection details and results.

Table 3: The experimental dyke measurements.

**APPENDIX**

**Applying an extension to the gelatine**

A stationary and unperturbed homogenous block of gelatine has three principle stress directions ($\sigma_x$, $\sigma_y$ and $\sigma_z$) acting perpendicular to one another. Initially, there is no horizontal strain, such that

$$\varepsilon_x = \varepsilon_y = 0$$  \hspace{1cm} (26)

where $\varepsilon_x$ and $\varepsilon_y$ are the strains in the $x$ and $y$ directions, respectively. Because the gelatine's Poisson's ratio is equal to 0.5, this means the initial stress conditions of the block of gelatine are hydrostatic:

$$\sigma_x = \sigma_y = \sigma_z$$  \hspace{1cm} (27)

where $\sigma_x$, $\sigma_y$ and $\sigma_z$ are the stresses in the $x$, $y$ and $z$ directions. Here, compressive stress and strain are taken as positive values. To study a setting where the analogue crust is in extension, the gelatine is compressed in the $z$ direction, resulting in an
extension in the x direction because the y direction is prevented from moving by the
sides of the tank. The gelatine extends in the x direction according to Hooke's Law,
which describes the linear relationship between the stress and strain components
(Timoshenko and Goodier, 1970). Hooke's Law relates stress and strain in an elastic
solid

\[ \varepsilon_x = \frac{1}{E} [\sigma_x - \nu (\sigma_y + \sigma_z)] , \]  
\[ \varepsilon_y = \frac{1}{E} [\sigma_y - \nu (\sigma_x + \sigma_z)] , \]  
\[ \varepsilon_z = \frac{1}{E} [\sigma_z - \nu (\sigma_x + \sigma_y)] , \]

where \( E \) is the Young's modulus and \( \nu \) is the Poisson's ratio. The amount of extension is
a constant for a particular material. Compression in the vertical z direction causes a
displacement \( \Delta L \) and a strain \( \Delta L/L \), where L is the original length of the gelatine block in
the \( \sigma_x \) direction and \( \Delta L \) is the horizontal displacement of the gelatine block in the \( \sigma_x \)
direction after the imposed stress (see Menand et al. (2010) for further details). \( \varepsilon_y = 0 \)
because movement in this direction is confined by the walls of the tank. For a lot of
materials the Poisson's ratio is around 0.25, but because the Poisson's ratio of the
gelatine is 0.5 (incompressible) and \( \varepsilon_y = 0 \), this leads to

\[ \varepsilon_z = - \varepsilon_x . \]

Therefore Equations (28) to (30) become

\[ E \varepsilon_x = \sigma_x - \nu \sigma_y - \nu \sigma_z , \]
\[ \sigma_y = \nu \sigma_x + \nu \sigma_z, \]  
(33)

\[ E \epsilon_z = \sigma_z - \nu \sigma_x - \nu \sigma_y, \]  
(34)

from which we get

\[ \sigma_z = \frac{E}{1 - \nu^2} \epsilon_z + \frac{\nu}{1 - \nu} \sigma_x, \quad \sigma_y = \frac{\nu E}{1 - \nu^2} \epsilon_z + \frac{\nu}{1 - \nu} \sigma_x. \]  
(35)

Because the Poisson's ratio of the gelatine is 0.5, these equations reduce to

\[ \sigma_z = \frac{4}{3} E \epsilon_z + \sigma_x, \quad \sigma_y = \frac{4}{3} E \epsilon_z + \sigma_x. \]  
(36)

Using numerical calculations conducted computationally with the COMSOL multiphysics package, Menand et al. (2010) showed that in this stress configuration \( \sigma_x = 0 \), hence

\[ \sigma_x = 0, \quad \sigma_y = \frac{2 E \Delta L}{3 L}, \quad \sigma_z = \frac{4 E \Delta L}{3 L}. \]  
(37)

Using the principle of stress superposition, we can add a uniform stress \( \sigma_U \) without altering the deviatoric stress field (37) so that

\[ \sigma_x = 0 + \sigma_U, \quad \sigma_y = \frac{2 E \Delta L}{3 L} + \sigma_U, \quad \sigma_z = \frac{4 E \Delta L}{3 L} + \sigma_U, \]  
(38)

which is true for any value of \( \sigma_U \). Choosing

\[ \sigma_U = -\frac{4}{3} E \epsilon_z, \]  
(39)

and recalling that \( \epsilon_x = -\epsilon_z = -\Delta L/L \) is negative, we obtain the following deviatoric stress field:
\[
\sigma_x = -\frac{4}{3} E \frac{\Delta L}{L} \quad (40)
\]

\[
\sigma_y = -\frac{2}{3} E \frac{\Delta L}{L} \quad (41)
\]

\[
\sigma_z = 0 \quad (42)
\]

This is the horizontal tensile stress field created by imposing the vertical compressive strain \(\Delta L/L\) in the experiments. The amount of vertical compressive stress required to achieve the appropriate amount of horizontal extension was different for each experiment depending on the Young's modulus of the gelatine.
**Figure 1.**

- **A:** Map of Africa showing the location of Ethiopia and surrounding countries.
- **B:** Detailed map of Ethiopia with the Red Sea, Gulf of Aden, and Somalia highlighted.
- **C:** Satellite image of the Afar region with recent dykes, Ado ‘Ale volcanic complex, and Geddo Bench indicated.
- **D:** Image of the Silsa region with a red N indicating direction.
- **E:** Graph showing distance along rift segment (km) from 1975 to 2013, with two episodes highlighted: Krafla rifting episode 1975-1984 and Afar rifting episode 2005-2009.
A) Gelatine block
Layer 2 = 10 L
Layer 1 = 29 L
Injections
TANK 1

B) Metal heating plate
Injections
TANK 1

C) Gelatine block
Layer 2 = 10 L
Layer 1 = 29 L
Injections
TANK 1

D) Water
Load
Camera
Camera
Camera
Thermometer
Peristaltic Pump
Vegetaline
Tubing
Propagation direction of later dyke changes once tip of later dyke has past the end of the first dyke.
First Injections

Subsequent Injections

- • Extension = 0.01 m
- □ Extension = 0.02 m
- ▲ Extension = 0.03 m
Direction normal to the dyke (y)

Direction parallel to the dyke (x)
Displacement of the solid

Maximum aperture

Displacement of the solid

Unit distance away from crack opening

Normalised normal stress

Normalised normal stress

spatial evolution of the normal stress

spatial evolution of the approximation of the normal stress

residual

Unit distance away from crack opening

Unit distance away from crack opening
A)\[\gamma\]

\[\frac{-\sigma_y}{P_i}\]

B)\[\text{Frequency} \times 10^4\]

\[\text{Injection spacing (d_s) (km)}\]
<table>
<thead>
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<th>Experiment Number</th>
<th>Layer Number</th>
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<th>Volume Hot Water (L)</th>
<th>Volume Cold Water (L)</th>
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Reached Surface
Reached Surface
Reached Surface

Reached Surface

Unrecorded
Reached Surface

Unrecorded
Merged
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Merged and Reached Surface

Unrecorded

Merged

Merged
Merged
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