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1 **Past forearc deformation in Nicaragua and coupling at the megathrust interface:**
2 **Evidence for subduction retreat?**

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6

7 **Abstract**

8 Deformation at the boundary between the Cocos and Caribbean plates in
9 Nicaragua is currently focused in the volcanic arc in the form of arc-parallel shearing. In
10 the Middle Miocene, however, there was widespread subsidence with local uplift in the
11 outer-forearc and inner-forearc broad uplift. To understand this complex deformation,
12 we use numerical modelling to investigate the effect of inhomogeneous friction at the
13 megathrust fault on strain localisation in the upper plate. A good fit is obtained when 1)
14 the interface between the slab and upper plate is not situated at the current Wadati-
15 Benioff zone but rather is moved 50 km landward to where subduction may have been
16 active in the early Tertiary, and 2) there is high stress accumulation between 15 and 25
17 km depths and low stress accumulation updip and downdip of the thrust interface. The
18 results are consistent with a high-velocity block being the remnant of an oceanic plateau
19 that subducted in the Eocene and was later incorporated into the upper plate. We
20 suggest that this geometry persisted into the Middle Miocene, before the slab broke off
21 and the thrust interface jumped seaward.

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23

24 **1. Introduction**

25 The present-day Nicaraguan forearc is segmented into various domains with
26 distinct kinematics. To the east, it is bounded by an arc that exhibits shallow

27 earthquakes with NW-SE dextral shearing at 7 mm/yr along subvertical sinistral arc-
28 normal strike-slip faults (White and Harlow, 1993; La Femina et al., 2002; Cailleau et
29 al., 2007). There is no consensus on the present deformation state of the inner forearc,
30 80-170 km from the trench. Ranero et al. (2000) suggested that the offshore inner
31 forearc is currently tectonically active. However, the inner forearc does not exhibit any
32 motion and seems to be seismically quiescent (Larsson and Mattson, 1987; Weinberg,
33 1992) (Fig. 1c). In contrast, the outer forearc, 0-80 km from the trench, shows
34 distributed seismicity and normal faulting associated with uplift (Larsson and Mattson,
35 1987; Ranero et al., 2000).

36 Nearly the entire forearc is covered by the 10 km thick Sandino basin, which
37 developed since the late Cretaceous (Weyl, 1980; Ranero et al., 2000) (Figs. 1c and 1d).
38 During the Middle Miocene, parts of this basin were inverted: the eastern margin was
39 uplifted and tilted along NW-trending folds and NE-trending dilatational joints,
40 indicating compression normal to the trench (Weinberg, 1992; Ranero et al., 2000). A
41 portion along the central axis of the basin was also deformed and uplifted (Fig. 1d). This
42 period of partial inversion is associated with a change in sedimentation, from a deep
43 water environment during the early stages to a widespread shallow marine setting
44 (Ranero et al., 2000).

45 Deeper structures down to 40 km depth have been constrained by seismic wide-
46 angle measurements, gravity, and MT data (Elming and Rasmussen, 1998; Walther et
47 al., 2000) (Fig. 1c). Offshore, the data reveal a high-velocity block (block A in Figure
48 1c), proposed as the remnant of an oceanic plateau that was subducted and incorporated
49 into the upper plate during the Eocene and Oligocene (Walther et al., 2000). Block B
50 (Fig. 1c) has been interpreted as either the lower crust of the oceanic plateau or
51 dehydrated mantle. The structure of the thrust interface between the subducting slab and

52 the hanging wall was illuminated by the largest historic subduction earthquake in this
53 region, which occurred in 1992 with a magnitude M_s 7.2. The downdip end of the
54 rupture plane was 26 km deep (Ide et al., 1993), which corresponds approximately to
55 the maximum depth of outer forearc seismicity; this indicates a possible relationship
56 between the structure of the megathrust and forearc deformation. During coseismic
57 subduction deformation, a tsunami may have been caused by movement on a splay fault
58 rooting at 10 km depth (Satake, 1994); this would represent the updip limit of the
59 coupling zone, as observed in the Nankai subduction zone (Fukao, 1979; Park et al.,
60 2002).

61 Two scenarios have been proposed for the evolution of the Nicaraguan margin.
62 Ranero et al. (2000) studied shallow structures in the Nicaraguan forearc and favoured a
63 subduction zone active from the Cretaceous to now. Uplift of the outer high and slope
64 by subduction initiation is thought to have acted as a barrier to sediments (Ranero et al.,
65 2000). Widespread subsidence is attributed to basal erosion and local structures to
66 possible transpression along margin-parallel strike-slip faults (Ranero et al., 2000). In
67 contrast, Walther et al. (2000) use seismic wide-angle measurements to suggest a
68 westward migration of subduction or subduction retreat. In their model, the subduction
69 zone was previously located east of the high-velocity block A or plateau, and was active
70 until the Eocene or Oligocene time. The arrival of a buoyant plateau blocked
71 trenchward sediment transport to form the Sandino basin, caused subduction to
72 decelerate and eventually caused the deep slab to detach and be replaced by a mantle
73 sliver (Fig. 1c). The plateau subsequently accreted to the upper plate and a new
74 subduction zone formed west of the plateau.

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77 **Goal of the study**

78 In this study, we seek to understand the enigmatic Middle Miocene phase of
79 upper plate deformation and to reproduce subsidence associated with coastal and local
80 uplift. We also want to constrain the source of forearc deformation and to test whether
81 this deformation can be best explained by westward migration or retreat of subduction.
82 Using finite element modelling, we investigate the relationship between strain
83 localisation in the upper plate and possible frictional heterogeneities along the
84 subduction thrust interface, which has not been previously investigated. We show that
85 upper plate tectonic structures and changes in topography can provide insights into
86 spatial and temporal variations of stress accumulation along the megathrust.

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88

89 **2. Finite Element Method**

90 **2a. Physical parameters**

91 We use the finite element program Abaqus (version 6.5). In our 2D models, we
92 focus on deformation of the upper plate in response to downward motion of the slab.
93 The zone of convergence therefore comprises a rigid subducting slab and a deformable
94 overriding plate or hanging wall (Fig. 2). We use a 225 km radius of curvature, which
95 fits the geometry of the present-day slab. The material of the upper plate is elastoplastic
96 with the following characteristics: Young's Modulus is 100 GPa, the density ρ is 2700
97 kg/m³, the gravitational constant g is 9.81 m/s², Drucker Prager perfect plasticity has a
98 yield stress of 20 MPa (e.g. Fuller et al., 2006; Sobolev and Babeyko, 2005), the
99 dilatation angle is zero, and the angle of friction is 30.6° (equivalent to a 20° angle of
100 Coulomb material or a 0.36 coefficient of friction). For plane strain and non-dilatant
101 flow, the Drucker-Prager friction angle β is related to the Mohr-Coulomb friction angle

102 ϕ by the equation: $\tan \beta = \sin \phi * (3^{0.5})$. The Drucker-Prager shear yield stress or
103 cohesion is 1.63 times the Mohr-Coulomb cohesion (Abaqus user manual version 6.6).
104 The results are similar to increasing the friction of the upper plate to 30° in Mohr
105 Coulomb (friction 0.58) and the friction at the thrust interface proportionally. Interface
106 frictions of 0.4, 0.3, 0.2 and 0.1 must be changed to 0.63, 0.48, 0.32 and 0.16
107 respectively. Throughout the study, we refer to zones of high strain as faults, although
108 we do not take strain weakening into account. The backarc is fixed horizontally, and the
109 convergence along the thrust fault occurs at a rate of 91 mm/yr.

110 A natural thrust interface is generally composed of a seismogenic zone above
111 and below which stable sliding is favoured. The updip limit of the seismogenic zone is
112 usually controlled by temperatures of 100-150°C and the downdip limit corresponds to
113 either the 350°C isotherm or the Moho (Tichelaar and Ruff, 1993; Oleskevich et al.,
114 1999). Observed updip limits vary from 2-15 km, while downdip limits can vary from
115 25-50 km. Although we do not simulate the seismic cycle, we use a similar
116 segmentation of the thrust interface. Initially, we choose to divide the thrust interface
117 into three segments of equal length with transitions at 15, 30 and 45 km depth. The
118 friction of the thrust interface is varied by 0.1 from 0 to 0.4. The deepest segment,
119 below 45 km, has zero friction in all models. Our next model has modified transition
120 depths and curvature to better fit observations in Nicaragua. Our models test
121 heterogeneities restricted to the thrust interface. We later discuss how segmentation
122 affects Nicaragua.

123

124 **2b. Numerical method**

125 The finite element program used has several ways to introduce a frictional thrust
126 fault. We choose to use a surface-to-surface contact and finite sliding. We note that the

127 contact interface obeys Coulomb frictional rheology, which is equivalent to modelling a
128 subduction channel of plastic material. The friction of the contact interface μ is related
129 to the angle of friction ϕ of the channel plastic material by $\phi = \text{ATAN}(\mu)$.

130 The elements used in Abaqus are 2D plane strain quadrilaterals with a mean size
131 of 2 km². We use the automatic meshing provided by the software with quadrilateral-
132 dominated, free and advancing front techniques to construct the initial mesh and the
133 ALE Arbitrary Lagrangian Eulerian adaptive meshing, which improves the mesh during
134 deformation. To model deformation caused only by convergence and not gravitational
135 forces, we combine two methods implemented in Wang and He (1996) and Ellis et al.
136 (2006). We first perform a run with no motion of the subducting slab and a Poisson ratio
137 of 0.5 (incompressible) (Wang and He, 1996). The gravity ramps up from zero to its
138 maximum value over 100,000 years. This allows the contact between the slab and the
139 upper plate to stabilise and to have negligible deformation of the upper plate under the
140 gravitational load, i.e. no subsidence and no sliding along the fault. The resulting
141 stresses s_{11} , s_{22} , s_{33} and s_{12} correspond to hydrostatic pressures ρgz , where z equals
142 depth (Fig. 3). We enter these stresses as initial conditions into a second process with a
143 Poisson ratio of 0.25 (Ellis et al., 2006). Gravity in the upper plate is entered
144 progressively in a new first step. In a second step of 200,000 years, the slab subducts.

145 In the first part, we parametrically study the effect of varying friction with depth
146 on the kinematics of deformation in the hanging wall. We then explore different models
147 to determine conditions that reproduce the kinematics of Middle Miocene forearc
148 deformation in Nicaragua.

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153 **3. Results of the parametric study**

154 We present theoretical models with segments of various frictions (Figs. 3-5,
155 Table 1). The structures obtained are a combination of two end-members: (1) a pop-up
156 and (2) a system of antithetic faults (antithetic relative to the megathrust).

157 A pop-up structure represents a system with two symmetric thrust faults
158 rooted at the same depth (Fig. 3); the seaward-oriented thrust forms first and is always
159 dominant. The two branches of maximum strain are similar to those found in other
160 analogue or numerical simulations (Braun and Beaumont, 1995; Beaumont et al., 1996;
161 Buitter et al., 2006). The seaward thrust fault separates the outer forearc zone of net
162 subsidence from the inner forearc zone of net uplift.

163 Pop-up structures are the most common feature in our models. Their root may be
164 related or unrelated to segmentation of the plate interface, depending on the friction and
165 geometry used, i.e. depth and length of the patches. The pop-up roots at the end of the
166 frictional patch, when the friction is high (here equal to 0.4; Fig. 3 left). A short and
167 shallow patch of 0.3 friction also leads to a pop-up structure rooted at the end of the
168 high-friction patch (model U03M00L00, Table 1). Pop-ups may also root within the
169 frictional patch. For lower frictions, such as 0.2 and 0.3 with a 45 km-long patch, pop-
170 up structures propagate from a depth much shallower than the end of coupling (Fig. 3
171 right). Using a frictional interface down to 45 km, thrust faults arise at depths that
172 become shallower with decreasing friction: 30 km for $\mu=0.4$ (Fig. 4), 15 km for $\mu=0.3$
173 (Fig. 3) and 4 km for $\mu=0.2$ (Table 1), explained below.

174 Multiple thrust fault systems can arise when the first and deepest pop-up stops
175 developing; this allows shallower pop-ups to form (Figs. 3, A1). The change from
176 sticking to sliding depends not only on the shear stress along the interface but also on

177 the pressure on the fault, which is a function of friction and normal stress. The deep
178 portion of the thrust interface initially accumulates more shear stress than the shallower
179 portion and may thus slide at an early stage as e.g. in Figure 3 in the right panel. Shear
180 stress stops accumulating at the deep interface, and therefore strain above this segment
181 stops accumulating. However, increasing stress and strain at shallower levels may lead
182 to a new pop-up (Fig. A1).

183 A combination of pop-ups rooting at 30 or 40 km and a landward fault rooting at
184 45 km was produced in four cases, with high ($\mu=0.4$) friction along the deep segment
185 and friction ≥ 0.2 for the upper and intermediate ones (Fig. 4, Table 1). In contrast,
186 antithetic thrust faults are obtained when the deep high-friction segment is sandwiched
187 between segments of low 0-0.2 friction (Fig. 5). The antithetic thrust faults root at the
188 updip and downdip end of the high-friction segment. Local uplift is observed in the
189 subsidence zone, and the topography at the landward and wider zone of uplift is tilted.
190 The amount of subsidence and uplift is about 2-4 mm/yr, i.e. one order of magnitude
191 lower than the values found in models with pop-up structures. Why is there localized
192 deformation parallel to the frictional interface? Why don't we have one pop-up with a
193 large root? Our interpretation follows.

194 First, when friction is high from the trench to 45 km depth, each node along
195 the thrust interface moves toward the downdip limit (Fig. 6). Since the wedge tip is free
196 to move, node displacement is about the same in the upper segments and the elements
197 are not sheared. At the downdip limit, however, node displacement must decrease to
198 zero, because the frictionless deep segment does not move with the slab. Consequently,
199 the area near the downdip limit undergoes maximum shearing. Deformation (or non-
200 deformation) of elements along the megathrust is transmitted to the upper plate. The
201 wedge tip remains relatively undeformed while the short area of high shear causes a

202 pop-up to form. A similar process likely occurs when a high-friction segment is
203 sandwiched between low-friction or frictionless segments (Fig. 6). At the updip limit
204 there must be an increase of nodal displacement. Along the high-friction patch, the
205 maximum principal plastic strain seems to fluctuate because it does not take into
206 account length changes (see animations in appendix). The increase of logarithmic strain
207 or increment of strain, however, is continuous.

208 There are two ways to accommodate shortening by strain localisation in the
209 upper plate: a) pushing a piece of crust upward (pop-up) or b) block rotation similar to
210 bookshelf faulting. We suggest that the parallel fault system results from a combination
211 of these two types of deformation, which may explain the lack of symmetry and the tilt
212 of the basin (Fig. 1d). Block rotation may be enhanced by material redistribution from
213 the updip limit to the downdip limit along the high-friction patch (Fig. 6). Since we do
214 not simulate erosion and accretion, the redistribution of material can be only limited
215 here.

216 We tested the effect of low intermediate friction between upper and lower
217 segments of high friction (U04M01L04, Fig. 7); this causes a dominant pop-up rooted at
218 the downdip end of the upper segment at 15 km depth and an antithetic fault system
219 along the lower segment (from 30 to 45 km) similar to the previous model
220 (U02M02L04; Figure 4, right). Finally, models with 0.2-0.3 friction below 15 km have
221 no strain localisation, as do models with friction at the interface < 0.1 , as predicted for
222 the "pure subduction" mode described in Beaumont et al. (1999) (Table 1). No strain
223 localisation means that the deformation remains essentially elastic. Plastic deformation
224 starts at the surface, but there is insufficient stress at depth to form a fault; after a certain
225 period of time, no further elastic or plastic deformation occurs in the entire upper plate.
226 Finally, we note that increasing the mantle density to 3500 kg/m^3 below 45 km depth

227 adds loading to the frictionless part of the thrust interface but does not affect these
228 parametric results.

229

230 **4. Comparison to Nicaraguan structures**

231 The formation of the Sandino basin started in the late Cretaceous and may have
232 been associated with uplift near the trench (Ranero et al., 2000). Walther et al. (2000)
233 favour passive accumulation of sediments in deep-water behind a plateau arriving near a
234 former trench. Local uplift in the basin and broad coastal uplift were not active at that
235 time. During the Middle Miocene, subsidence was margin-wide and local uplift
236 occurred in the centre of the basin during overall subsidence (Ranero et al., 2000). Here,
237 we test a possible relationship between Middle Miocene kinematics and coupling at the
238 subduction thrust interface. The above models with two antithetic faults (Fig. 5) are
239 reminiscent of the structures in Nicaragua. We find that we must significantly change
240 the location of the subduction thrust fault and slightly alter the geometry of the model to
241 imitate the Nicaraguan deformation (i.e., slab dip and the size of the high-friction
242 patch).

243 In order to reproduce the Nicaraguan faults, we use the spacing between the two
244 thrust faults, the distance from the trench and the horizontal extent of the outer-forearc
245 uplift zone as constraints (Fig. 8). In Nicaragua, the spacing is about 30 km, excluding
246 the model with two segments of high friction (which produces 100 km spacing;
247 U01M04L04). The distance from the trench to local uplift is about 120 km, removing
248 the model with a shallow high-friction segment (which produces only 70 km;
249 U01M04L00). Regarding the last models (U01M01L04, U02M02L04), the first uplifted
250 zone (first strain peak) is located 30-40 km from the trench (Fig. 8a). For deeper
251 coupled zones, the two strain peaks migrate landward. The first peak may better

252 correlate with the location of basin uplift, but the second strain peak is observed in the
253 backarc and cannot explain coastal uplift. In addition, the modelled large outer forearc
254 uplift zone cannot be reconciled with observed local uplift. Decreasing the length of the
255 high-friction segment at depth raises this zone significantly due to increasing interplay
256 between the stress fields at the updip and downdip limits of the high-friction segment.
257 Therefore, we conclude that the pattern of forearc deformation observed in Nicaragua
258 cannot be reproduced using the present geometry of the subduction zone.

259 In the late Miocene a depression formed near the arc, possibly due to increasing
260 dip of the slab (Weinberg, 1992) (Fig. 1b). We therefore test the effect of a shallower
261 dip of the subducting plate using a flat slab dipping 11° (Fig. 8b). Our results do not
262 support this interpretation, as they are similar to the above models. We can fit the
263 forearc deformation, however, by translating the subducting plate interface landward by
264 50 km, and by using a geometry of the slab that follows that of the high velocity blocks
265 (Fig. 8c). The new model reduces the distance between the first predicted peak and the
266 observed local uplift and decreases the extent of deformation in the basin, (i.e. it causes
267 more localized strain). The second predicted peak remains near the coast. No strain
268 localization occurs when we test lower friction of the middle segment equivalent to the
269 hanging-wall friction (0.36). A higher-friction patch is required to reproduce the
270 kinematics observed in Nicaragua.

271

272

273 **5. Discussion**

274 Based on seismic wide-angle measurements, Walther et al. (2000) suggested
275 subduction and accretion of a plateau followed by slab detachment and subduction
276 retreat. Below, we discuss modelling results, in particular the significance of high

277 friction and the predicted segmentation of the thrust interface, and whether our results
278 and other observations support the interpretation of Walther et al.

279

280 **High basal friction**

281 We used basic Coulomb friction at the plate interface. The rigid plate sticks to
282 the upper plate until shear stress at the interface reaches a shear stress limit that depends
283 on the normal stress and friction. Beyond this value, the slab slides at a constant shear
284 stress and no more stress accumulates. This means that in our models, plastic
285 deformation occurs at the very initiation of subduction and that high stress along the
286 thrust interface or high frictional contact is required for more shear stress to accumulate
287 prior to slip. The 0.1 Myr deformation timescale in our modelling is much lower than
288 the 10 Myr of observed deformation in Nicaragua. Moreover, the 0.4 high coefficient of
289 friction contrasts with actual values of friction thought to be as low as 0.1-0.001 based
290 on the lack of a heat flow anomaly on faults (Lachenbruch and Sass, 1980) or on
291 thermomechanical models of convergence (Sobolev and Babeyko, 2005). We therefore
292 discuss whether this discrepancy is due to processes not included in our model or
293 whether the high friction is consistent with plateau accretion and subduction retreat.

294 The arrival of a buoyant plateau, as proposed by Walther et al. (2000) (Fig. 1c),
295 may have been accompanied by a significant decrease in convergence, which would
296 allow stress accumulation over a much longer time. However, the total amount of
297 deformation would not exceed the 0.4-0.6 km of uplift and subsidence found in our
298 modelling (Fig. 8). Other mechanisms occurring at the thrust interface and surface could
299 decrease basal stresses, subsidence and uplift rates and lengthen the deformation time.
300 For example, sedimentation in the basin, which was not taken into account in our
301 models, could reduce or delay strain localisation (Fuller et al., 2006).

302 Our model simulates one seismic cycle of long duration, of the order of 0.1 Myr;
303 this is due to the high friction required to obtain strain localisation. Wang and Hu
304 (2006) simulated earthquake cycles and focused on accretionary prisms within 10 km of
305 the trench. Thrust faults in the prism or outer wedge developed during coseismic
306 deformation. The inner wedge (the forearc above the seismogenic zone) was found to be
307 stable, undergoing no compressive failure at any time during the earthquake cycle.
308 Therefore, dynamic Coulomb wedge theory with low friction cannot explain the
309 structures found in Nicaragua.

310 Sobolev et al. (2006) combined subduction with rollback and 2-3 cm/yr
311 westward drift of the South American plate. In their models, high friction ≥ 0.1 leads to
312 major deformation in the upper plate and slab break-off after 3 Myrs, which is plausible
313 for Nicaragua (see discussion below). They found one zone of strain localisation and
314 uplift 200 km from the trench, rooted at 100 km depth at the contact between the slab
315 and the lithosphere-asthenosphere boundary of the upper plate. In Nicaragua, however,
316 two zones of uplift are observed within 100 km of the trench in the forearc. We suggest
317 therefore that high friction may be related to the arrival of a buoyant plateau and may
318 have initiated strain localisation in the forearc and eventually slab detachment in
319 Nicaragua. High shear stress at the thrust interface and a high strain rate in the upper
320 plate may have occurred during a transient period. A long duration of deformation at a
321 low strain rate may be driven by a component of regional stress added to the stress from
322 subduction.

323 These studies show that processes at the subduction interface are more complex
324 than expected and that various frictional conditions may operate at different depths,
325 times and subduction setting.

326

327 **Segmentation of the thrust interface**

328 Beyond our discussion of friction, our models show that a higher stress level
329 accumulates at 15-25 km depth, 50 km horizontally from a past trench in Nicaragua.
330 The significance of the predicted segmentation of the thrust interface is unclear. We
331 note a striking similarity between the estimated transition depths of the Middle Miocene
332 subduction zone at 15 and 25 km and the currently observed structure of the subduction
333 zone. The predicted past depth of coupling is 25 km depth, which is like the current
334 depth of the seismogenic zone derived from aftershocks of the 1992 earthquake (Ide et
335 al., 1993). The updip limit of the past coupling zone is estimated at 15 km depth in our
336 models, similar to the 10 km derived from a model of a shallow fault responsible for the
337 coseismic tsunami in 1992 (Satake, 1994). This would mean that the structures in the
338 upper plate are influenced by heterogeneities at the thrust interface due to metamorphic
339 reactions, as modeled in our study, rather than by the structure of the upper plate, which
340 has changed through time (Fig. 1c).

341

342 **Other evidence in favour of subduction retreat**

343 The best fitting model implies that the initial megathrust fault was located 50 km
344 landward of the current subduction zone during the Middle Miocene. Independent
345 observations and studies favour subduction retreat. The current seismic quiescence of
346 the Sandino basin and the outer-forearc seismic activity observed within 80 km of the
347 trench supports a shift of subduction. Seaward migration of the volcanic arc seems to
348 have also occurred in the Pliocene (Weinberg, 1992). Seismic data show a Wadati-
349 Benioff zone down to 200 km only, consistent with recent subduction of a new slab
350 (Burbach et al., 1984; Larrson and Mattson, 1987; Protti et al., 1993; Engdahl et al.,
351 1998; Rogers et al., 2002). From geomorphic analysis and tomographic images, Rogers

352 et al. (2002) estimated that the slab broke off 9-6.7 Ma ago (in late Miocene) and the
353 modern slab started subducting 3.8 Ma ago (in Pliocene) consistent with the observed
354 length of the slab. Slab break-off was probably accompanied by mantle upwelling
355 through the slab gap and uplift and formation of the more than 1000 m high plateau in
356 Central America (Rogers et al., 2002). Slab break-off can be attributed to younging and
357 increasing buoyancy of the incoming Cocos oceanic plate during the 19-10 Ma
358 superfast spreading at the East Pacific rise (Wilson, 1996; Wortel and Spakman, 2000;
359 Rogers et al., 2002). The accretion of a buoyant plateau probably facilitated slab tearing.
360

361 Complex modelling is required for more definitive results. Our modelling
362 strategy does not allow us to model the evolution from the Miocene margin geometry
363 to the current margin geometry since the slab is rigid and cannot deform in response to
364 hanging wall deformation. We concentrated on reproducing the Miocene kinematics. A
365 more complex model must also take into account material heterogeneities in the upper
366 plate, e.g. mantle properties and the volcanic arc, sedimentation, horizontal stresses
367 induced by collision of a plateau and the trench-parallel component of convergence that
368 may induce transpression as suggested by Ranero et al. (2000).

369

370 **6. Conclusion**

371 We investigated the effect of various frictional characteristics on upper plate
372 deformation. Varying the depth, length and friction of segments along the megathrust
373 causes very different structures to arise in the upper plate, ranging from symmetric to
374 antisymmetric thrust fault systems. The Middle to Upper Miocene structures in the
375 Nicaraguan forearc could be explained by high stress accumulation from 15 to 25 km
376 depth along an older subduction zone located 50 km landward of modern subduction.

377 This study supports the idea that an oceanic plateau accreted to the continental Chortis
378 block during the Miocene, at which time, the slab broke off and the subduction zone
379 jumped seaward.

380

381

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389

390

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474

475 **Figure captions**

476 **Figure 1** - A) Central America where the Cocos plate converges with the Caribbean
477 plate with an obliquity of 10° relative to the trench-normal direction. Today the
478 forearc moves trench-parallel and northwest at 7-14 mm/yr, which may be
479 related to oblique subduction and seems to be accommodated by shearing and
480 NE-sinistral strike-slip faults or bookshelf faults along the volcanic arc (De
481 Mets, 2001; Turner et al., 2007). B) Close-up of Nicaragua from above. Coastal
482 uplift in the Middle Miocene was followed by formation of a depression. Today,
483 active shearing characterises deformation in the volcanic arc. Data regarding
484 deep on-shore structures were obtained by wide-angle seismic profiles, two
485 boreholes Corvina and Argonaut Ar and land-stations (Walther et al., 2000). C)
486 Deep onshore structures in Nicaragua (modified from Walther et al. (2000)).
487 Blocks A and B have been interpreted as an accreted oceanic plateau and its
488 lower crust respectively. Walther et al. suggested that block B was initially
489 larger, reaching depths greater than 40 km, and was later partially detached and
490 replaced by a mantle sliver. Block B may also be interpreted as serpentinized
491 mantle (Walther et al., 2000). In the sedimentary basin, layers are as defined by
492 Ranero et al. (2000). The white dots are the 1975-1982 hypocentres from
493 Larsson and Mattson (1987). D) Closeup of basin sedimentary layers and
494 Middle Miocene deformation phase from Ranero et al. (2000). There was coeval
495 subsidence, local uplift and coastal uplift (the object of this study). We
496 investigate whether this could be associated with coupling along the megathrust.

497

498 **Figure 2** - Modelling set-up. Left: We start our model with no deformation by
499 implementing gravitational forces as an initial stress field. The plate interface is

500 divided into three segments of various frictions with an additional frictionless
501 lowermost segment (white). U, M, L for upper, middle and lower segments.
502 Right: deformed grid after 200,000 years showing pop-up structure obtained
503 with high 0.4 friction of U and M segments and frictionless L segment (model
504 U04M04L00). The mean element size is 2 km².

505

506 **Figure 3** - Symmetric faults or pop-up structures, left for a segment with high 0.4
507 friction from zero to 30 km depth (model U04M04L00, see Table), right for a
508 segment of 0.3 friction down to 45 km (model U03M03L03). a) Change of
509 topography after 200,000 years. b) Maximum in-plane plastic strain showing
510 two symmetric thrust faults rooting at the end of coupling. The geometry of
511 upper plate is presented undeformed. c) Relative tangential motion or slip
512 between the slab and upper plate using basic Coulomb friction model. Zero slip
513 means that the plates or portions of the plates still stick together after 200,000
514 years. The upper plate above the sticking segment accumulates strain. Maximum
515 slip is observed along the frictionless part of the fault and corresponds to the
516 accumulated downgoing motion of the slab. Intermediate values of slip means
517 that the plates or portions of plates stuck for a while but now slide past each
518 other.

519

520 **Figure 4** - Two examples combining pop-up and antithetic faults after 200,000 years
521 (see also Table). “Antithetic” is relative to the megathrust. Left model
522 U04M04L04, right model U02M02L04.

523

524 **Figure 5** - Antithetic faults. Left model U01M04L00, right model U01M04L04.

525

526 **Figure 6** - Deformed grids for a model with a pop-up and a model with antithetic thrust
527 faults showing the significant change of element dimensions along the high-
528 friction patch (see text for explanations).

529

530 **Figure 7** - Model with intermediate low friction within segments of high friction
531 (U04M01L04). The structures are similar to those in the previous model
532 U02M02L04 in Figure 4 right, except that a pop-up forms at shallow depth.

533

534 **Figure 8** - Comparison with Nicaragua. Dotted red lines are blocks defined by Walther
535 et al. (2000) (see corresponding Fig. 1). a) Strain localization resulting from the
536 geometry of the subduction zone observed today. The friction is 0.1 from 0 to 30
537 km, 0.4 from 30 to 45 km and zero at greater depths (model U01M01L04).
538 There are discrepancies between the modeled and observed structures. The
539 modeled seaward zone of uplift is too broad and too far from the local uplift in
540 Nicaragua. Ar is the location of a borehole giving constraints on basin
541 deformation and where local uplift is observed (Ranero et al., 2000). b) Shallow
542 dip of slab simulated by a flat slab. Frictions 0.1 and 0.4 are applied from 0 to
543 25 km and 25 to 30 km, respectively. c) A good fit with the features in
544 Nicaragua is obtained with a thrust interface on top of blocks A and B. Frictions
545 0.1 and 0.4 are applied from 0 to 15 km and 15 to 25 km, respectively. The
546 horizontal distance between the two uplifted zones is restrained to about 30 km
547 and the first uplift is kept local and about 120 km from the trench. Results are
548 consistent with the idea that regions of high velocities show the remnant of an
549 ophiolitic plateau that subducted in the Eocene and was later incorporated into

550 the upper plate. The thrust interface has therefore jumped seaward with time in
551 accordance with the sense of volcanic arc migration.

552

553 **Appendix**

554 **Figure A1** - Details of model U03M03L03 that has a friction of 0.3 down to 45 km
555 depth (see also figure 3 after 200 000 years). The grey area beyond 130 km
556 horizontal distance from trench corresponds to the frictionless segment of the
557 thrust interface. a) Maximum in-plane plastic strain in the upper plate at three
558 time steps, at about 3.8, 11 and 97 kyrs. Two areas of plastic strain begin at the
559 surface and at the end of the high-friction patch at 45 km depth respectively,
560 migrate to the wedge tip and become localised with time. b) Plastic strain on the
561 surface at various time steps, c) Plastic strain along the thrust interface between
562 slab and upper plate. d) State of the contact between slab and upper plate, i.e.
563 sticking when the slip is zero or sliding when the slip becomes non-zero. e)
564 Shear stress along the thrust interface. The shear stress is always zero in the
565 frictionless segment. The shear stress limit is the product of the normal stress
566 and the coefficient of friction. f) Pressure or normal stress on the thrust fault.
567 There may be some small variations of normal stresses and thus of shear stress
568 limit with time due to the deformation of the upper plate. There is therefore a
569 feedback between the process in the upper plate and at the thrust interface.
570 When the shear stress exceeds the shear stress limit, portion of the upper plate
571 becomes uncoupled from the slab and accumulates no more strain which
572 explains why there is no strain localization at the end of the high-frictional patch
573 for this case. In other coupled portions, shear stress at the interface and plastic
574 strain continues to increase which allows localisation.

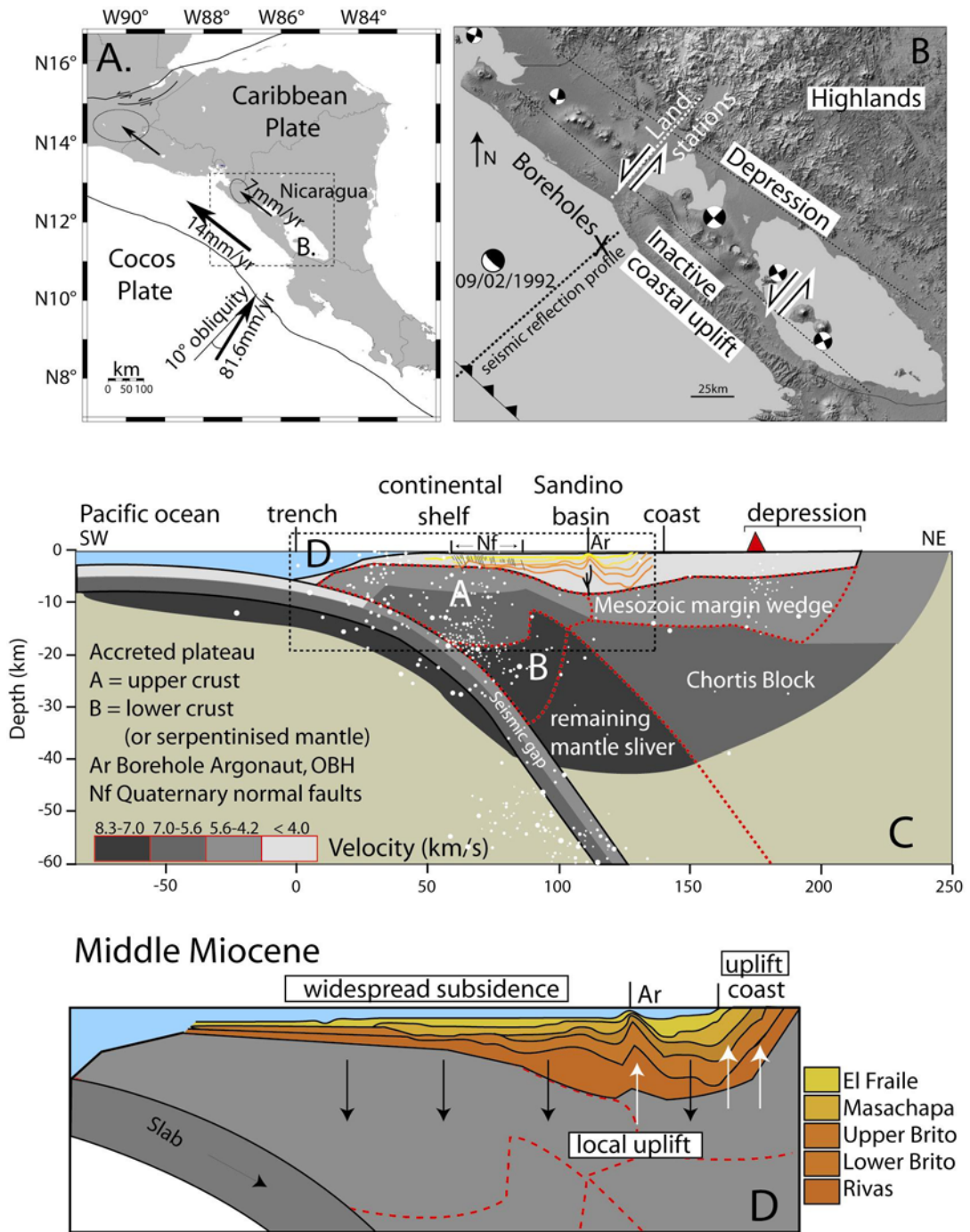


Figure 1

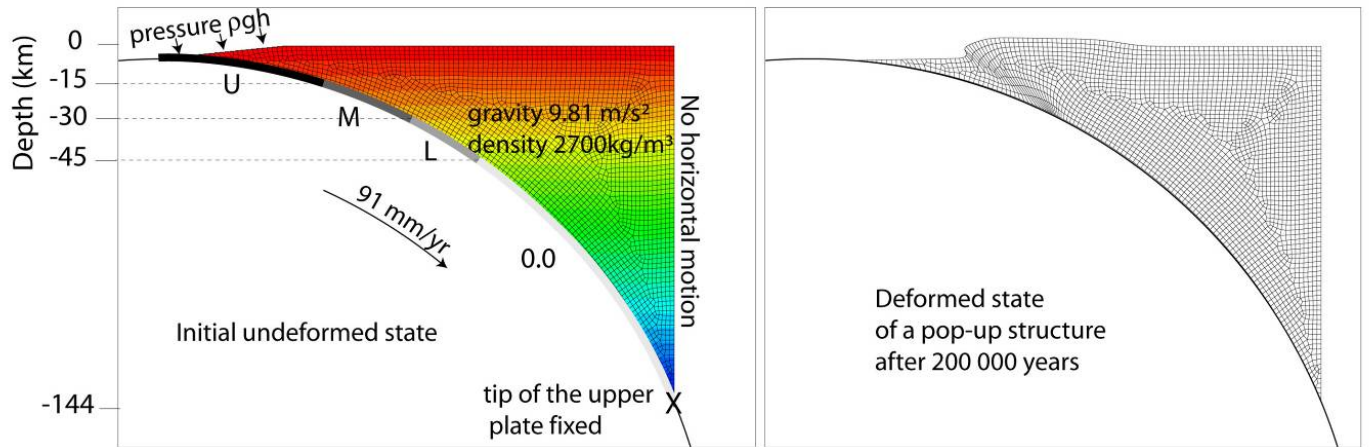


Figure 2

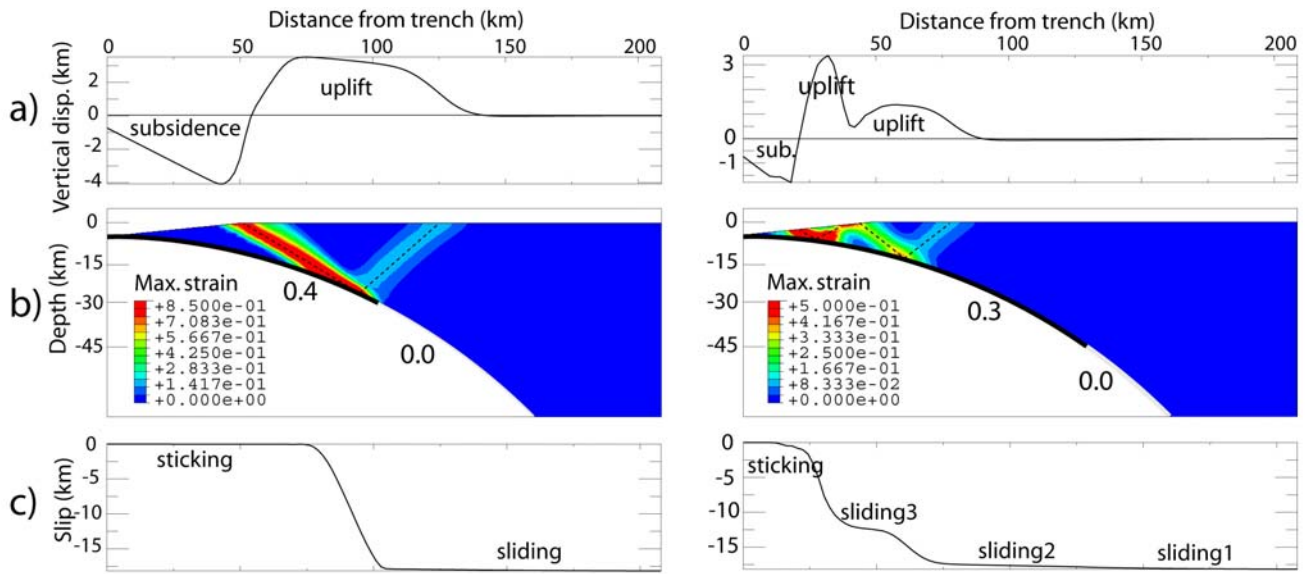


Figure 3

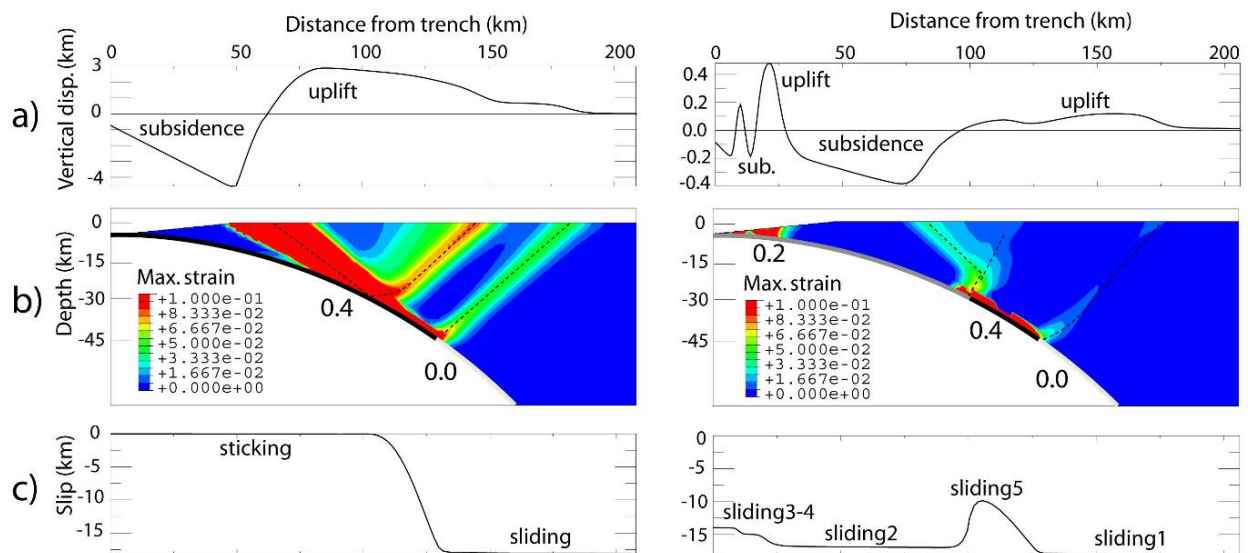


Figure 4

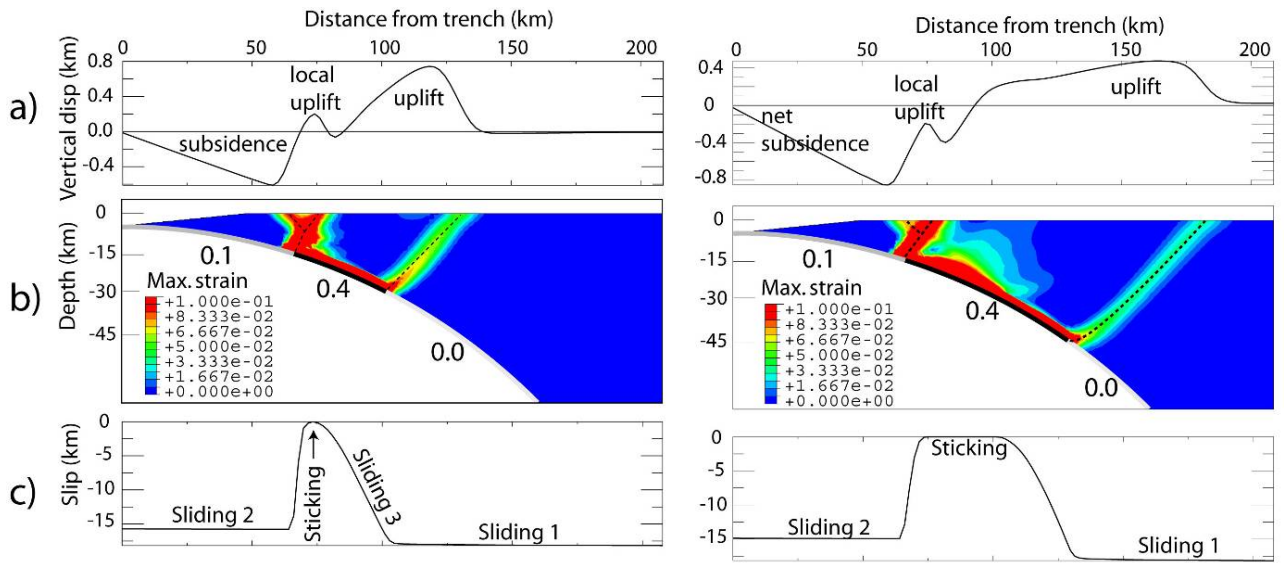


Figure 5

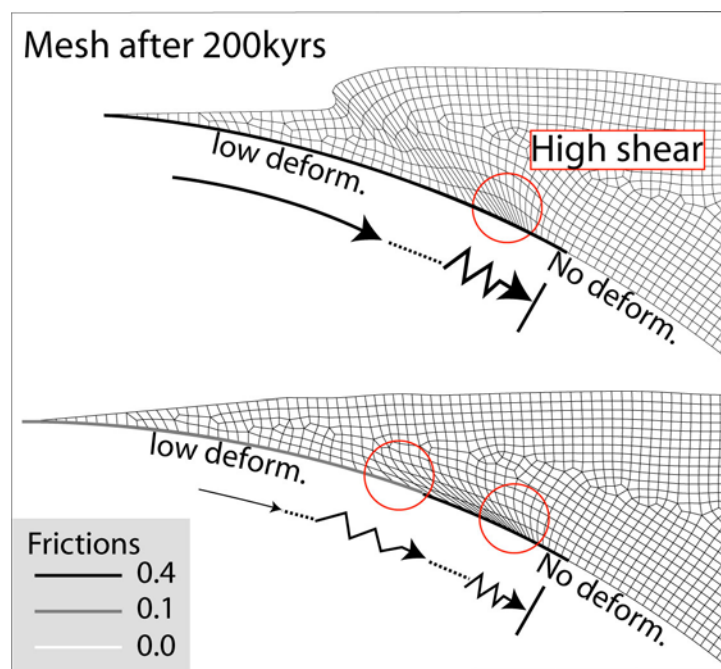


Figure 6

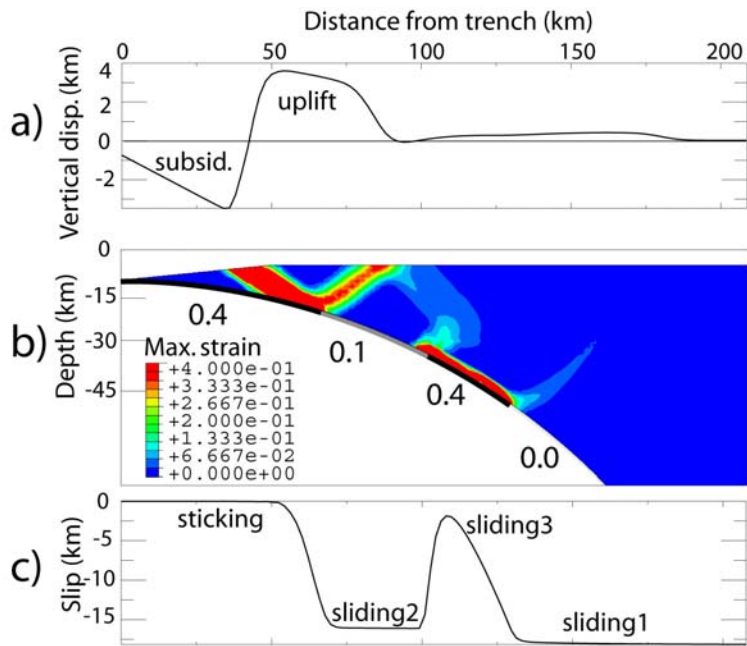
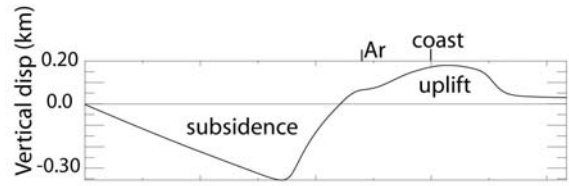
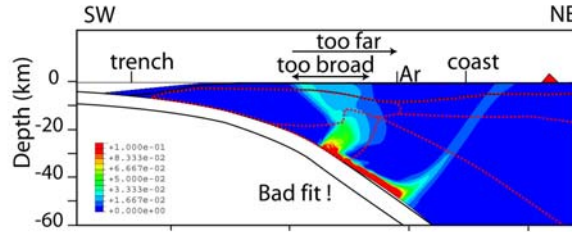
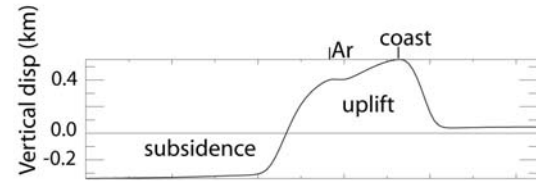
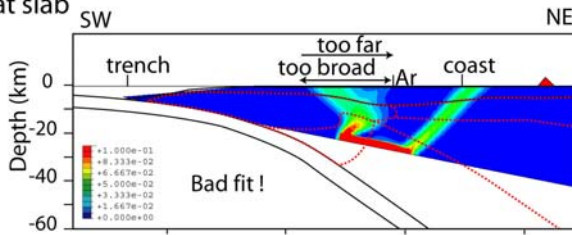


Figure 7

a) Present geometry



b) Flat slab



c) Past geometry

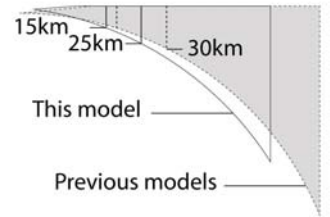
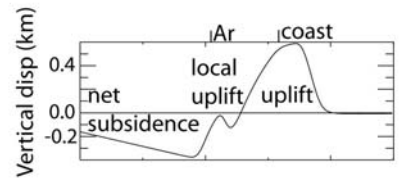
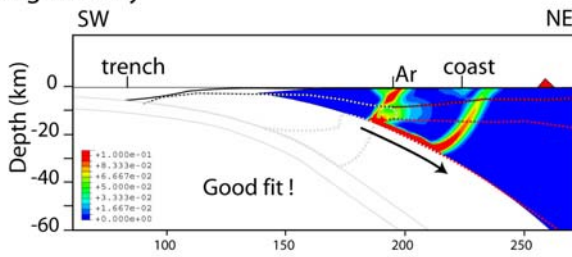


Figure 8

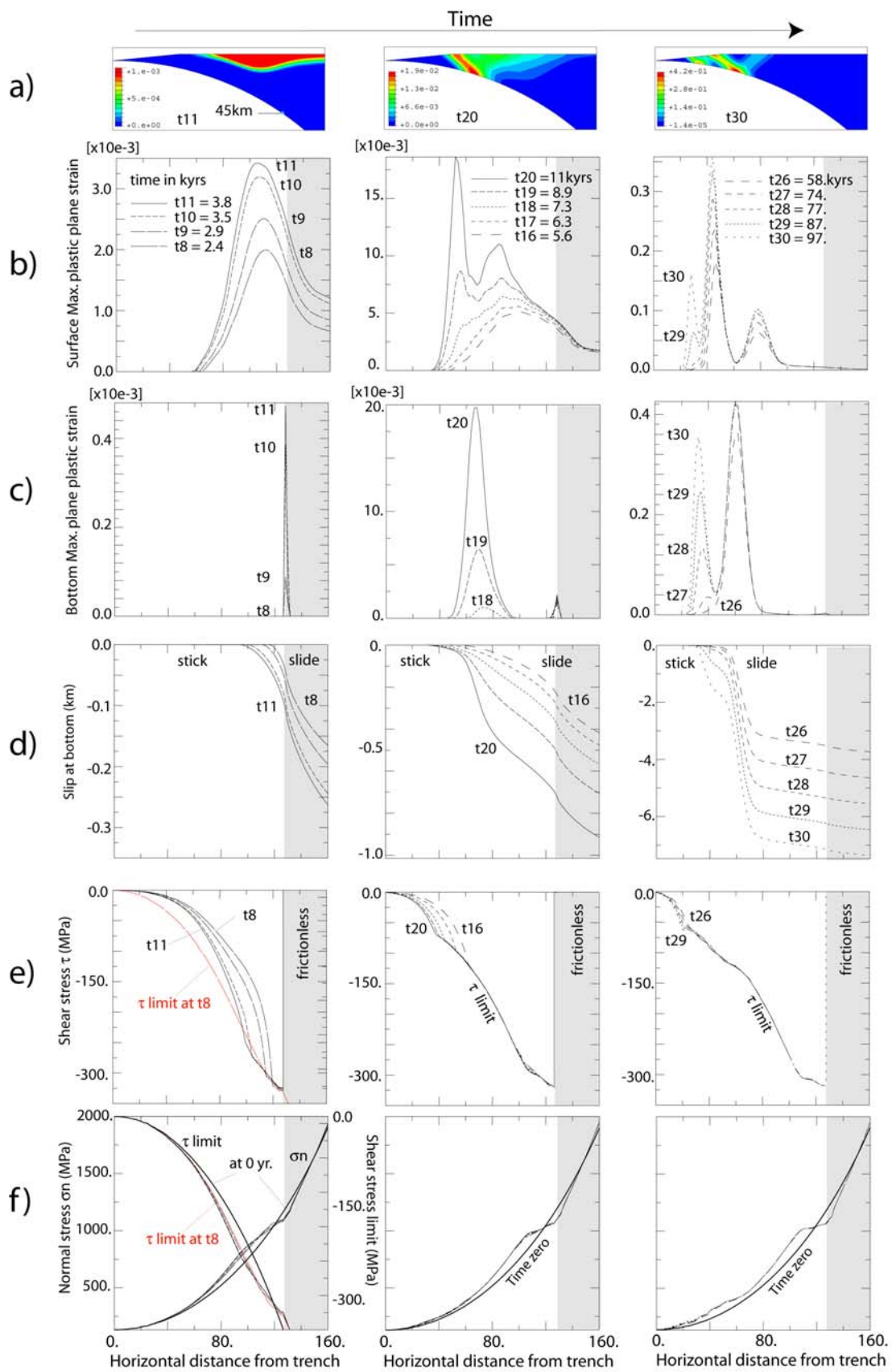


Figure A1

Transition depths	Frictions	Structures
Two segments		
15km	U04M00L00	Pop-up roots at 15 km
	U03M00L00	Pop-up roots at 15 km, at 5 km
	U02M00L00	Pop-up roots at 4 km
	U01M00L00	No localisation
30km	U04M04L00	Pop-up roots at 30 km
	U03M03L00	Pop-up roots at 15 km, at 5 km
	U02M02L00	Pop-up roots at 4 km
	U01M01L00	No localisation
45km	U04M04L04	Pop-up at 40 km, landward thrust at 45 km
	U03M03L03	Pop-up roots at 15 km, at 5 km
	U02M02L02	Pop-up roots at 4 km
	U01M01L01	No localisation
Three segments		
15-30km	U04M03L0 U04M02L0 U04M01L0	Pop-up at 15 km
	U03M04L0	Pop-up at 30 km, at 5 km
	U03M02L0 U03M01L0	Pop-up at 15 km, at 5 km
	U02M04L0	Pop-up at 30 km, at 4 km
	U02M03L0 U02M01L0	Pop-up at 4 km
	U01M04L0	Landward thrust to pop-up at 15 km and landward thrust at 30 km
	U01M03L0 U01M02L0	No localisation
15-45km	U04M03L03 U04M02L02 U04M01L01	Pop-up at 15 km
	U03M04L04	Pop-up at 40 km, landward thrust at 45 km
	U03M02L02 U03M01L01	Pop-up at 15 km, pop-up at 5 km
	U02M04L04	Pop-up at 40 km, landward thrust at 45 km, pop-up at 2 km
	U02M03L03 U02M01L01	Pop-up at 5 km
	U01M04L04	Landward thrusts at 15 km and 45 km, diffuse strain along segment
	U01M03L03 U01M02L02	No localisation
30-45km	U04M04L03 U04M04L02 U04M04L01	Pop-up at 30 km depth
	U03M03L04	Pop-up at 30 km and 13 km, landward thrust at 45 km
	U03M03L02 U03M03L01	Pop-up at 13 km, at 5 km
	U02M02L04	Pop-up at 5 km and 2 km, landward to seaward thrust at 30 km, and landward thrust at 45 km

	U02M02L03 U02M02L01	Pop-up at 5 km
	U01M01L04	Landward to seaward thrust at 30 and landward thrust at 45 km
	U01M01L03 U01M01L02	No localisation

580

581

582 **Table 1** - Structures arising from various frictions at two or three segments after 200
583 000 years. The 1st column indicates the transition depths at which there are changes of
584 friction. The 2nd column gives the names of the models and the frictions at each
585 segment: U Upper segment 0-15 km, M Middle segment 15-30 km, L Lower segment
586 30-45 km. The deepest segment from 45 km to 150 km depth is always frictionless. All
587 numbers in the last column are the depths from which faults or systems of faults
588 propagate. White lines represent typical pop-up structures. Yellow lines are for resulting
589 antithetic thrust faults relative to the megathrust fault. Blue lines are a combination of
590 pop-up and antithetic fault. Green lines show models without strain localisation. In a
591 pop-up, the seaward-oriented thrust forms first and is always the dominant fault
592 compared to the landward-oriented thrust fault.

593

594

595

596