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How do normal faults grow?

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Abstract

Faults grow via a sympathetic increase in their displacement and length (isolated fault model), or by rapid length establishment and subsequent displacement accrual (constant-length fault model). To test the significance and applicability of these two models, we use time-series displacement (D) and length (L) data extracted for faults from nature and experiments. We document a range of fault behaviours, from sympathetic D-L fault growth (isolated growth) to sub-vertical D-L growth trajectories (constant-length growth). Most faults, however, are characterized by hybrid growth over two stages, dominated by (i) fault lengthening (20-30% of fault life) and (ii) displacement accrual (70-80% of fault life), respectively. Fault growth throughout the lengthening stage, during which significant displacement may also accumulate (10-60%), is achieved through rapid tip propagation, segment linkage and relay growth and breaching, best described by the isolated model. The subsequent growth stage is dominated by displacement accrual and is best described by the constant-length model. We also show that, despite being used primarily in support of the isolated fault model, global displacement-length (D-L) datasets are equally compatible with the constant-length fault model. Future research efforts should focus

34 on better capturing the presently poorly-documented early lengthening phase of
35 normal fault growth.

36

37

38 1. Introduction

39 There are currently two competing models describing the growth of normal faults
40 herein termed the ‘isolated’ and ‘constant-length’ fault models (e.g., Walsh et al.,
41 2002; Walsh et al., 2003; Nicol et al., 2005; Jackson and Rotevatn 2013; Henstra et
42 al., 2015; Fossen and Rotevatn 2016; Nicol et al., 2016; Tvedt et al., 2016; Childs et
43 al., 2017; Jackson et al., 2017) (Fig. 1). The isolated model suggests fault growth
44 occurs via a sympathetic increase in fault length and displacement (e.g., Walsh and
45 Watterson 1988; Dawers et al., 1993; Cartwright et al., 1995; Walsh et al., 2003),
46 whereas the constant-length model suggests faults establish their near-final lengths
47 early in their slip history, after which they grow mainly by displacement accrual (e.g.,
48 Walsh et al. 2003; Nicol et al., 2005; Jackson and Rotevatn 2013). Being able to
49 differentiate between the two fault growth models, and assessing their applicability, is
50 critically important, since the way in which faults grow and interact represent a key
51 control on (i) the development of sedimentary basins and their physiography (e.g.,
52 Gawthorpe and Leeder 2000; Jackson et al., 2017), (ii) patterns of sediment dispersal
53 and accommodation (e.g., Ge et al., 2017; Henstra et al., 2017), and (iii) may also
54 control the location, magnitude and recurrence interval of potentially hazardous
55 earthquakes (Walsh et al., 2003; Nicol et al., 2005; Soliva et al., 2008; Nicol et al.,
56 2010). Here we review, compare, and contrast these models by reappraising the
57 wealth of data published during the past 40 years, and by describing and interpreting
58 new data from natural and experimental fault systems. Despite typically being viewed
59 as mutually exclusive, we here demonstrate both models accurately describe a range
60 of fault behaviours observed in nature and experiments. We conclude that most
61 ancient normal faults, for which appropriate kinematic constraints are available, are
62 characterized by: (i) an initial stage of length establishment (~20-30% of the total
63 fault lifespan), characterized by rapid tip propagation, relay formation, -breaching and
64 segment linkage, best described by the isolated model; this stage typically also
65 involves accumulation of c. 10-60% of the final fault displacement; (ii) a subsequent
66 stage of displacement accrual without significant further fault lengthening, best
67 described by the constant-length model (~70-80% of the total fault lifespan). We also

68 show that, despite being used primarily in support of the isolated fault model, global
69 displacement-length (D-L) datasets are equally compatible with the constant-length
70 fault model. Major advances in our understanding of how normal faults grow may lie
71 in us using natural examples to document the structural and kinematic characteristics
72 of the initial stage of fault propagation and lengthening. This stage is presently
73 insufficiently understood and poorly documented due to: (i) a lack of reliable,
74 preserved constraints from syn-kinematic growth strata; and/or (ii) the fact that any
75 growth strata deposited during the initial, relatively short-lived state of fault growth
76 may simply be too thin to detect using all but the highest-resolution geophysical
77 methods (Jackson et al., 2017).

78

79 **2. The isolated fault model**

80 The term ‘isolated fault model’ (Fig. 1A) was first used by Walsh et al. (2003) to
81 describe a model by which faults grow via a sympathetic increase in their
82 displacement and length (Fig. 1C), i.e. the view that when faults accrue displacement
83 they also lengthen via tip propagation and linkage by relay formation and breaching
84 (e.g., Cartwright et al., 1995; Cowie et al., 2000; Kim and Sanderson 2005; Bergen
85 and Shaw 2010). The isolated model is supported by several studies of natural fault
86 systems (Peacock and Sanderson 1991, 1994; Trudgill and Cartwright 1994; Wojtal
87 1996; Marchal et al., 1998; Morewood and Roberts 1999; Dawers and Underhill
88 2000; Gawthorpe and Leeder 2000; McGill et al., 2000; McLeod et al., 2000; Young
89 et al., 2003; Soliva and Benedicto 2004; Commins et al., 2005; Hus et al., 2006;
90 Bastesen and Rotevatn 2012), in addition to the results of numerical models (e.g.
91 Crider and Pollard 1998; Gupta et al., 1998; Cowie et al., 2000) and analogue
92 experiments (e.g., McClay 1990; McClay and White 1995; Ackermann et al., 2001;
93 Clifton and Schlische 2001; Mansfield and Cartwright 2001; Acocella et al., 2005;
94 Bellahsen and Daniel 2005).

95 The isolated model is largely based on the observation that, when plotted in log-
96 log space, fault displacement and length data appear strongly positively correlated
97 across several orders of magnitude. This empirical relationship is described as $D=cL^n$
98 , where D is maximum fault displacement, L fault-trace length, c a constant, and n
99 falls between 1 and 1.5 (e.g., Walsh and Watterson 1988; Cowie and Scholz 1992b;
100 Dawers et al., 1993; Schlische et al., 1996; Schultz et al., 2008; Torabi and Berg
101 2011; Rotevatn and Fossen 2012). Regardless of the exact value of n , the empirical

102 relationship between D and L has historically been assumed to suggest that an
103 increase in fault displacement (D) is associated with a corresponding increase in fault
104 length (L) (Watterson 1986; Morley et al., 1990; Peacock and Sanderson 1991; Cowie
105 and Scholz 1992b; Cowie and Scholz 1992a; Cartwright et al., 1995; Dawers and
106 Anders 1995; Huggins et al., 1995; Peacock and Sanderson 1996; McLeod et al.,
107 2000; Mansfield and Cartwright 2001; Rykkelid and Fossen 2002; Kim and
108 Sanderson 2005; Baudon and Cartwright 2008). In addition to fault displacement and
109 length being positively correlated, support for the isolated fault model includes: (i) the
110 occurrence of breached relays and multiple displacement minima along strike of
111 normal faults (e.g., Gawthorpe and Leeder 2000); and (ii) theoretical fracture
112 mechanics, which predicts that for a given rock shear strength, displacement and
113 length must increase linearly (Cowie and Scholz 1992b). The view that faults grow
114 through the lengthening and amalgamation of individual segments means the isolated
115 model is also commonly referred to as ‘fault growth by segment linkage’, or
116 derivations thereof (e.g., Cartwright et al., 1995; Cartwright et al., 1996; McGill et al.,
117 2000; Jackson et al., 2002). It would be fair to say that the isolated model has
118 dominated the structural geology and tectonics literature for decades.

119 Despite the fact it offers a relatively simple and thus appealing explanation of
120 global D-L scaling relationships, there are a number of challenges to the isolated
121 model. First, we know of no presently active or extinct (i.e. ancient) natural fault
122 system, for which robust kinematic constraints have been presented (e.g. growth strata
123 or geomorphic evidence documenting tip propagation and fault lengthening), that
124 present faults that are growing or grew in accordance with the isolated fault model
125 over geological timespans (i.e. 10^4 - 10^6 years; Jackson et al., 2017). Second, the
126 isolated model does not accurately predict the (generally much lower) displacement-
127 length ratios of individual earthquakes (e.g., Wells and Coppersmith 1994; Walsh et
128 al., 2002; Nicol et al., 2005).

129

130 **3. The constant-length fault model**

131 The ‘constant-length fault model’ (Fig. 1B) was initially conceived by the Fault
132 Analysis Group (FAG), University of Liverpool and then subsequently University
133 College Dublin, developing in a series of papers published during the last ~15 years.
134 At least partly motivated by the said mismatch between fault and earthquake scaling
135 properties, Walsh et al. (2002) presented an “alternative model” for the growth of

136 normal faults. They argued that, contrary to the isolated model, in which displacement
137 and length increase in concert, “(...) *fault lengths are near constant from an early*
138 *stage and growth is achieved mainly by increase in cumulative displacement*” (Fig.
139 2D). This seminal paper was quickly succeeded by a second paper (Walsh et al.,
140 2003), which refined, expanded, and rebranded the new fault growth model, terming it
141 the “coherent fault model” (see also Childs et al., 1995; Schöpfer et al., 2006;
142 Schöpfer et al., 2007; Giba et al., 2012). A key concept arising from (Walsh et al.,
143 2003) is that fault segments, which in map-view may appear isolated, may in fact, in
144 3D, represent components of a single, *geometrically- and kinematically-coherent*
145 structure from their inception (see also Walsh and Watterson 1991). In 2005, Nicol et
146 al. introduced the term ‘the constant fault-length model’ to explicitly capture the fact
147 that, for much of their life, the studied faults experienced displacement accumulation
148 rather than lengthening (Walsh et al., 2002). From here on we refer to the
149 coherent/constant-length suite of models only as the constant-length model.

150 Most early work on the constant-length model was based on the analysis of
151 growth strata preserved next to relatively large (e.g. several kilometres in length,
152 several hundreds of metres of displacement), ancient faults imaged in 3D seismic
153 reflection data (Meyer et al., 2002; Walsh et al., 2002). Mounting support for the
154 constant-length fault model came from similar, seismic reflection-based studies (e.g.,
155 Giba et al., 2012; Jackson and Rotevatn 2013; Tvedt et al., 2016; Jackson et al.,
156 2017), as well as from numerical models (e.g., Finch and Gawthorpe 2017) and
157 analogue experiments (e.g., Schlagenhauf et al., 2008). Recent work has also used
158 damage zone geometry, and the scaling properties of exposed, relatively small-scale
159 (i.e. up to several metres of displacement), strike-slip faults, to provide additional
160 support for the constant-length model (Nicol et al., 2016).

161 The constant-length model is attractive in that it offers a more dynamic view of D-
162 L scaling relationships (i.e. they change over time as the fault grows; Rotevatn and
163 Fossen 2012; Nicol et al., 2016), offering an explanation for the apparent mismatch
164 between fault and earthquake-rupture scaling relationships (Nicol et al., 2005).
165 However, the constant-length model initially appears at odds with the observation that
166 relatively few ancient faults plot *below* the main trendline observed in global D-L
167 compilations; such faults should at least theoretically occur if we assume some
168 ancient faults became inactive early in their development, shortly after the initial
169 phase of lengthening, or, in the case of still-active faults, they are relatively immature.

170 Taking the name (i.e. ‘constant-length’) and the key underpinning concept (i.e.
171 displacement accrual without significant further lengthening) at face value, it seems
172 obvious the constant-length model would preclude significant tip propagation for the
173 majority of a fault’s lifespan. In a recent paper, however, Childs et al. (2017)
174 recognise two sub-sets of this basic model; the ‘constant-length coherent model’ and a
175 ‘propagating coherent growth model’. Although Childs et al. (2017) attempt to clarify
176 the terminology related to the key fault growth models, we propose the redefinition of
177 the underpinning key concepts rather confuses matters. For example, tip propagation
178 is widely considered a key diagnostic of the isolated fault model (e.g., Jackson et al.,
179 2017); the introduction of tip propagation in the ‘propagating coherent growth model’
180 (Childs et al., 2017) therefore effectively makes it harder to test whether a fault grew
181 according to the isolated or the constant-length model. As such, we argue that, by
182 identifying two sub-sets, Childs et al. (2017) leave the constant-length model without
183 a set of clear, testable criteria.

184 Motivated by the above review, and the fact the two models have co-existed for
185 ~15 years, we find it timely to critically assess their relative importance for describing
186 the growth of normal faults. To do this we study seismically imaged natural normal
187 faults, in addition to faults generated in analogue models, to extract D-L data through
188 time. D-L data for individual faults *through time* is key to understanding fault growth,
189 since the global D-L database really only shows a static view, where each datapoint
190 represents the final step of what is essentially a fault’s unknown journey through D-L
191 space (Nicol et al., 2010; Rotevatn and Fossen 2012; Nicol et al., 2016). With these
192 data we specifically aim to: (i) elucidate the poorly-documented lengthening phase of
193 faults exhibiting an overall constant-length behaviour; (ii) reassess the isolated and
194 constant-length models in an attempt to present a unified model for normal fault
195 growth; and (iii) to suggest some key questions to be addressed in future research.

196

197 **4. Fault behaviour in D-L space through time**

198 To reveal how faults grow in space and time, we present D-L data extracted at
199 several points in the growth history of natural and experimentally reproduced faults
200 (Fig. 2). Data from natural faults are derived from throw backstripping of, and
201 analysis of growth strata from, syn-sedimentary growth faults from the Egersund
202 Basin, offshore Norway (Tvedt et al., 2013; Tvedt et al., 2016) and the Santos Basin,
203 offshore Brazil (Tvedt 2016) (see cited papers and Jackson et al. 2017 for

204 backstripping method used and justification). Additional D-L data from natural faults
205 were extracted from Meyer et al. (2002), and data from physical experiments from
206 sandbox (Schlagenhauf et al., 2008) and new plaster models (Blækkan 2016).

207 The plots of D-L evolution through time (Fig. 2) clearly show that only few
208 natural and experimental faults behave according to the predictions of the isolated
209 model, i.e. they display a sympathetic increase in length as displacement is accrued
210 (see inset *i* in Fig. 2A). This observation, in concert with those from previous studies
211 (e.g., Cartwright et al., 1996; McLeod et al., 2000; Commins et al., 2005), suggests
212 that fault growth according to the isolated fault model does occur, but is an end-
213 member behaviour rather than the norm.

214 Much more commonly, faults exhibit a growth path that can be split into an early,
215 relatively low-gradient segment, and a subsequent, relatively high-gradient segment,
216 separated by a relatively well-defined, relatively abrupt inflection point (see inset *ii* in
217 Fig. 2A). The high-gradient segment is typical of fault behaviour according to the
218 constant-length fault model, whereby near-vertical growth trends in D-L space
219 represent displacement accrual without significant fault lengthening (Meyer et al.,
220 2002; Walsh et al., 2002). However, the preceding and relatively lower-gradient
221 segments of the D-L graphs (Fig. 2A) exhibit great spread. For example, the D-L plots
222 in Figure 2 show that the initial lengthening stage often involves not only lengthening,
223 but may also involve (periods of) significant displacement accrual (up to 40-60% of
224 the total displacement). The amount of displacement accrual varies, and the gradients
225 in D-L space during this early stage of growth therefore vary greatly, from relatively
226 gentle, constant-length-like gradients to steeper, isolated-like gradients (Fig. 2). These
227 data thus suggest that the initial lengthening stage is more complex than suggested by
228 the constant-length model (e.g., Walsh et al., 2002) and leads to the question “what
229 style of growth (i.e. instantaneous length establishment vs. lengthening by tip
230 propagation and linkage) characterizes the relatively low-gradient phase seen in the
231 D-L paths, and is the ‘lengthening’ stage adequately captured and understood in the
232 present models for normal fault growth?”.

233 As discussed by Childs et al. (2017) and Jackson et al., (2017), seismic reflection-
234 based investigations of faults may show that faults establish their lengths within the
235 first resolvable time increment but that, because this increment may be longer than the
236 lengthening stage, the latter goes undetected. To investigate the lengthening stage
237 further we therefore return to physical analogue experiments, in which this early stage

238 of fault growth may be closely monitored and captured. In the following we discuss a
239 plaster experiment (Figs. 3 and 4) of Blækkan (2016), first showing images of the
240 experiment at relatively long (5-second) time-steps (Fig. 3), before showing the early
241 stages of the experiment at much shorter (0.5-second) time-steps (Fig. 4). We do this
242 to mimic having different temporal resolutions of data (i.e. low-resolution data at 5
243 sec time-steps vs. high-resolution data at 0.5 sec time-steps) to show how this impacts
244 our understanding of fault growth. For information about the experimental setup, see
245 Blækkan (2016).

246 Consider Figure 3, where we show map-view image showing the evolution of a
247 large (relative to the scale of the experiment) normal fault (F1) at 5 second intervals
248 (timesteps T1-T4). Even after first timestep (T2), F1 has grown across the width of
249 the model. The faults tips are pinned laterally at the experiment boundary, thus
250 emulating natural reasons for lateral fault tip pinning, such as pinchout of mobile
251 substrates and/or interaction with other faults. Further timesteps (T3 and T4) are
252 characterised by displacement accrual, accompanied by rotation and breaching of
253 relay zones. Based on viewing the experiment at a relatively low temporal resolution
254 (i.e. 5 sec timesteps), which we compare to the limitations of the lowest resolvable
255 time increment from growth strata when analysing fault growth in the subsurface
256 using reflection seismic and well data, F1 thus appears to grow in accordance with the
257 constant-length model.

258 By making the observational increments shorter (i.e. 0.5 secs) we can now
259 investigate the geometric and kinematic characteristics of the lengthening phase
260 between timesteps T1 and T2 (i.e. T1a-d; Fig. 4). A fault segment (termed main
261 segment S1; Fig. 4), which nucleates or at least breaches the surface in the western
262 part of the model during T1a, propagates eastward and lengthens during T1b and T1c.
263 Fault lengthening during this stage is largely achieved by the nucleation, propagation,
264 and linkage of new, smaller segments ahead of the propagating eastern tip of S1. In
265 time step T1c, a second segment (termed main segment S2; Fig. 4) nucleates in the
266 eastern part of the model, clearly separate from the main S1 structure in the west.
267 From time step T1c to T1d, both tips of S2 propagate. Eastward propagation of S2 is
268 arrested at the model boundary; the western tip approaches the oncoming and now-
269 rapidly east-propagating tip of S1. At T1d, S1 and S2 remain unlinked, but are
270 underlapping and *approaching* one another (*sensu* Peacock et al., 2017). The final 0.5
271 second-long timestep between T1d and T2 sees amalgamation of smaller S2

272 segments, which are soft-linked during T1d, but hard-linked by T2. By T2, S1 and S2
273 have overlapped and soft-linked, bounding a relay zone that is eventually breached by
274 T3.

275 The style of fault growth documented in time steps T1a through T1d above (Fig.
276 4) is similar to that observed in natural fault systems (e.g., Jackson et al., 2002;
277 Gawthorpe et al., 2003; Young et al., 2003), and is consistent with the predictions of
278 the isolated model (e.g., Peacock and Sanderson 1991; Cartwright et al., 1995; Walsh
279 et al., 2003). Fault segments nucleate, propagate, and link to establish the full length
280 of the fault, and it seems clear that, despite the fact we only have a top-surface view,
281 upon nucleation of S2, S1 and S2 are sufficiently far apart that they appear not to
282 form part of a single, geometrically and kinematically coherent structure from their
283 inception (see Walsh et al., 2003).

284 The example above also highlights that for a given fault, D-L ratios may change
285 abruptly as the fault lengthens by linkage of precursor segments. For example,
286 consider timestep T2 (Fig. 3), where F1 is characterised by a D-L ratio of c. 1:35.
287 However, also consider timestep T1d (Fig. 4), where the D-L ratios of precursor
288 proto-F1 segments are clearly higher (~1:10), as maximum displacement at this stage
289 is divided by the (much shorter) lengths of those segment. As such, D-L ratios should
290 be treated with care since they depend on the length-scale considered (individual
291 segment length immediately before, vs. full fault length immediately after,
292 amalgamation and full length establishment of a fault), and the fact this ratio is
293 dynamic, changing with time as faults grow (Rotevatn and Fossen 2012; Nicol et al.,
294 2016).

295 Finally, we return to the D-L plots discussed initially in this section and shown in
296 Figure 2. The complex D-L paths observed in the lengthening stage may seem very
297 different to the well-known, sub-vertical D-L growth trends from Meyer et al. (2002),
298 which were used by Walsh et al. (2002) in support of the constant-length model.
299 However, the extracted D-L paths from Meyer et al. (2002) show that, although sub-
300 vertical growth trends are seen in the right part of the curves (Fig. 2D), there is an
301 unresolved precursor stage that involves (i) not only lengthening, but a variable
302 amount of displacement accrual (10-60% of total displacement; Fig. 2D) and (ii)
303 lower-gradient but variable trajectories through D-L space (Fig. 2D). This important
304 point may have been gone unnoticed previously, since the D-L data from Walsh et al.
305 (2002) and Meyer et al. (2002) were presented only in log-log space. Plotting such

306 data in log-log space is inherently problematic, as it may unintentionally mask
307 variability and statistical spread. Interestingly, although the D-L paths presented in
308 this study vary greatly, most of the D-L paths shown in Figure 5 fall within the cloud
309 of the global D-L dataset when plotted in log-log space. This highlights the danger of
310 plotting data on logarithmic scales, and demonstrates how radically different D-L
311 behaviours of faults may effectively ‘hide’ in log-log space. It also demonstrates that
312 the often-cited D-L correlation, when plotted on log-log scales, is largely unusable as
313 an argument in favour of any exclusive view on how normal faults grow.

314

315 **5. Conclusions and future research challenges**

316 Using D-L data from a range of natural and experimental faults, we have
317 demonstrated that the isolated and constant-length fault models both describe fault
318 behaviours in nature, and as such are not mutually exclusive. The critical point is that
319 they both appear to describe behaviours at specific points in the evolution of a fault;
320 i.e. the isolated model, defined by tip propagation and segment linkage, characterises
321 the initial part of the fault lifespan when its growth is dominated by lengthening,
322 whereas the constant-length model characterises the latter part of the faults evolution,
323 when growth is dominated by displacement accrual.

324 We thus conclude that normal faults are generally characterized by a hybrid
325 growth behaviour (Fig. 6), whereby a rapid stage of fault propagation, linkage, and
326 lengthening (Stage 1; lengthening stage) is followed by a stage of constant-length
327 displacement accrual (Stage 2; displacement accrual stage). The first stage is best
328 described by the isolated fault model, in that it involves tip propagation, segment
329 linkage, and overall fault lengthening. Importantly, the lengthening stage may also
330 involve displacement accrual, and the gradient of the growth path during this stage
331 may range from sub-vertical (‘constant-length’-type gradient; trajectory ‘a’ in Fig. 6)
332 to sub-horizontal (‘isolated’-type gradient; trajectory ‘e’ in Fig. 6). The second stage
333 is characterized by displacement accrual and limited fault lengthening. The D-L
334 trajectory during this growth stage is typically sub-vertical. Hybrid-type fault
335 behaviours such as demonstrated herein, whereby isolated and constant-length fault
336 growth characterize successive phases of fault evolution, finds some support in
337 previous studies (Jackson and Rotevatn 2013; Horne 2016; Finch and Gawthorpe
338 2017) but remains to be more widely corroborated from natural examples. The
339 duration of each stage in the model presented above remains uncertain. Normal faults

340 analysed by Walsh et al. (2002) and Jackson et al. (2017) established their near-final
341 lengths within 20-33% of their slip history; similarly, the majority of experimental
342 faults in Schlagenhauf et al. (2008) grew to near-final lengths within c. 30% of their
343 model durations. We therefore tentatively conclude that, irrespective of their final
344 size, faults typically spend 20-30% of their lifespan in the lengthening phase (Stage
345 1), before accruing displacement for the remainder of their slip histories (Stage 2).

346 A critical research task to deepen the understanding of normal fault growth lies in
347 undertaking more displacement backstripping studies of seismically imaged growth
348 faults in order to investigate faults' D-L trajectories through time. Furthermore, new
349 insight may be gained from reassessing the global D-L dataset to sort, examine and
350 analyse the data based on variables such as tectonic setting, strain rate and host
351 lithology in order to elucidate any controls on fault behaviour.

352 A key future research challenge related to the growth of normal faults is to better
353 document the initial lengthening phase described above. Insights may be gained by
354 integrating geophysical imaging techniques (e.g. reflection, sparker, pinger, boomer,
355 and chirp profiling), which allow mapping of fault structure and associated growth
356 strata, and borehole data, which constrain the age of the growth strata and thus the
357 timescale of fault development (e.g., Taylor et al., 2004; Nicol et al., 2005). Note that,
358 in some active rifts, such as the Gulf of Corinth, Greece (e.g., Nixon et al., 2016; Bell
359 et al., 2017; Gawthorpe et al., 2017), basin underfilling represents a drawback to the
360 investigation of normal fault growth based on the analysis of growth strata (see
361 discussion by Jackson et al. 2017).

362 Despite our tentative conclusion that the lengthening stage typically endures for
363 20-30% of fault lifespan, the duration of each stage of the above mentioned hybrid
364 fault model remains uncertain, and more research is needed to fully understand what
365 the notion of 'rapid' lengthening (e.g., Walsh et al., 2002) really entails. We speculate
366 that the significant variability of D-L trajectories demonstrated for the lengthening
367 stage (Stage 1) may translate to a similar variability in its duration. We further suggest
368 that investigations into the duration of the lengthening stage should encompass the
369 full spectrum of fault sizes in nature and experiments, to rigorously test whether
370 duration is linked to fault size, despite the fact that we herein have tentatively
371 concluded that it is not.

372

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377

378

379 **FIGURE TEXT CAPTIONS:**

380

381 **Figure 1.** Conceptual models for the development of blind normal fault systems: (a)
 382 the isolated fault model (Walsh and Watterson 1988; Cartwright et al., 1995; Dawers
 383 and Anders 1995; Huggins et al., 1995); and (b) the constant-length fault model
 384 (Childs et al., 1995; Walsh et al., 2002; Walsh et al., 2003; Giba et al., 2012). The (i)
 385 plan-view, (ii) strike-projection and (iii) displacement–length (D–L) plots are shown
 386 to illustrate the key geometrical and evolutionary aspects of each model. The black
 387 arrows in (ii) show the fault level of the map shown in (i). F1-3, faults 1–3; T1-3,
 388 time-steps 1–3. Note that, based on the final fault length (i.e. T3 in i), shape (i.e. T3 in
 389 ii) and throw distribution (i.e. T3 in iii), it is difficult to determine which growth
 390 model best describes its evolution. (c) Schematic D-L plots through fault life
 391 according to the isolated fault model; time steps correspond to those shown in (a). (c)
 392 Schematic D-L plots through fault life according to the constant-length fault model;
 393 time steps correspond to those shown in (b). (a) and (b) are from Jackson et al. (2017);
 394 (c) and (d) are modified from Nicol et al. (2016).

395

396 **Figure 2.** Normalized maximum displacement (D) versus normalized fault length (L)
 397 plots through fault life for a series of faults. (A) shows data from all faults studied
 398 herein, whereas (B), (C), and (D) show selections of the data. The data includes
 399 natural faults from Tvedt et al. (2013, 2016), Tvedt (2016), Meyer et al. (2002), faults
 400 from plaster experiments by Blækkan (2016) and faults from sandbox experiments by
 401 Schlagenhauf et al. (2008). Note that the data from Meyer et al. (2002) carries some
 402 uncertainty as the data were manually extracted from the log-log D-L plots in that
 403 paper. Inset (i) shows D-L graphs for select faults that exhibit sympathetic D-L
 404 growth, i.e. isolated fault growth. Inset (ii) shows D-L graphs from select faults that
 405 show clearly separate low-gradient and high-gradient segments, separated by clear
 406 inflection points. (B) shows data from natural faults extracted from Tvedt (2016) and
 407 Tvedt et al. (2013, 2016). (C) shows data from faults produced in physical analogue

408 experiments from Schlagenhauf et al. (2008) and Blækkan (2016). (D) shows the data
 409 extracted from Meyer et al. (2002); note however that we have added $(x, y) = (0, 0)$ to
 410 all the D-L curves, in order to illustrate that each of the vertical D-L graphs in Meyer
 411 et al. (2002) have an additional unrecorded and unknown growth phase that is
 412 illustrated by dashed lines. See text for full discussion.

413

414 **Figure 3.** Plaster experiment of normal fault evolution. Four timesteps, T1 through T4
 415 at 5 second intervals, are shown. Timestep T1 is the experiment at the onset of
 416 extension. To the right, displacement-length plots for the fault evolving in the
 417 experiment are shown for timesteps T2 (green), T3 (blue) and T4 (red). Note that the
 418 fault seen in T2 already at that stage has established itself across the extent of the
 419 model. See Figure 4 for four additional, shorter, 0.5-second timesteps immediately
 420 prior to timestep T2, which show the lengthening phase of the fault.

421

422 **Figure 4.** Plaster experiment of normal fault evolution; 4 timesteps are shown at 0.5
 423 second intervals; T1a through T1d. These timesteps cover the 2 seconds leading up to
 424 timestep T2 in Figure 3; see Figure 3 caption for further explanation.

425

426 **Figure 5.** Global D-L dataset (grey data points) for faults plotted in log-log space (D-
 427 L data extracted from Krantz 1988; Gudmundsson and Bäckström 1991; Cowie and
 428 Scholz 1992a, and references therein; Dawers et al., 1993; Cartwright et al., 1995;
 429 Schlische et al., 1996; Schultz and Fossen 2002). The D-L paths shown in Figure 2 of
 430 this study are also shown. Note most of the different D-L paths from this study plot
 431 within the global dataset, despite that these growth paths show a wide range of
 432 behaviours (see text for full discussion). This demonstrates that the global correlation
 433 of D and L cannot be invoked to support ‘isolated’ fault growth, since ‘constant-
 434 length’ and hybrid growth patterns are all fully consistent with, and may hide within,
 435 the global D-L database as shown here.

436

437 **Figure 6.** Schematic illustration showing idealized D-L growth trajectories of the end
 438 member ‘isolated’ (green) and ‘constant-length’ (blue) fault models, as well as a series
 439 of hybrid-type fault growth trajectories (black). As shown in this paper, few faults
 440 follow the isolated or constant-length trajectories; most faults follow D-L growth
 441 paths that are characteristic of a hybrid growth mode characterized by two stages. The

442 first stage is characterized by rapid fault lengthening and a variable amount of
443 displacement accrual, and is best described by the isolated model since it is associated
444 with lengthening achieved by tip propagation, relay formation and breakdown,
445 segment linkage and amalgamation to ultimately establish near-full fault lengths at the
446 end of Stage 1. The second stage (Stage 2), is best described as ‘constant-length’ fault
447 behaviour, i.e. displacement accrual without significant tip propagation or further fault
448 lengthening. The fault growth trajectory in D-L space during Stage 1 of the hybrid
449 growth model varies significantly, from sub-horizontal coherent-like trajectories with
450 limited displacement accrual (graph a), to steep and isolated-like trajectories with
451 significant displacement accrual during Stage 1 (graph e). See text for full discussion.

452

453

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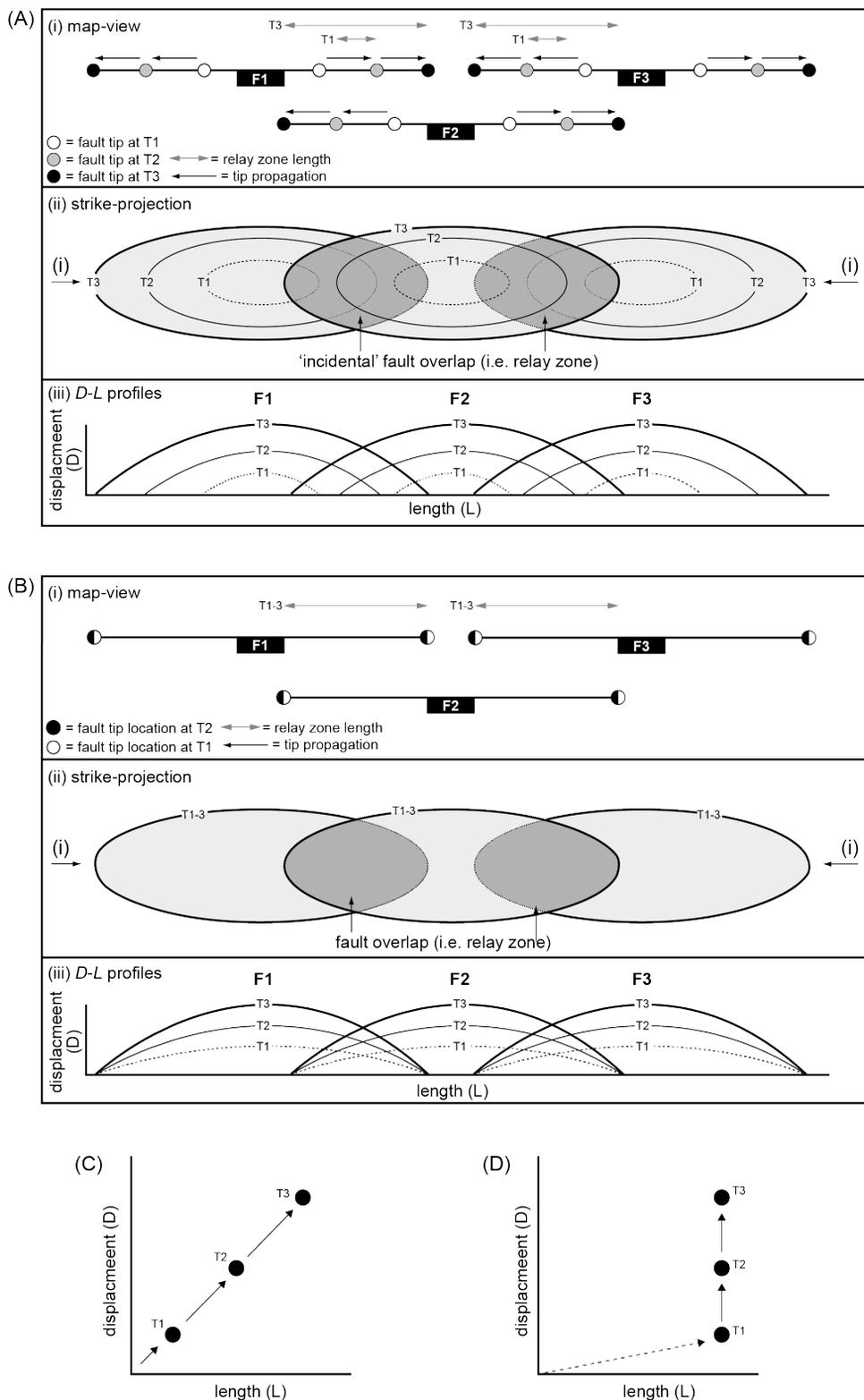


Figure 1. Conceptual models for the development of blind normal fault systems: (a) the isolated fault model (Walsh & Watterson 1988; Dawers & Anders 1995; Huggins et al. 1995; Cartwright et al. 1995); and (b) the constant-length fault model (cf. Childs et al. 1995; Walsh et al. 2002, 2003; Giba et al. 2012; see also Baudon & Cartwright 2008; Jackson & Rotevatn 2013; Nicol et al. 2016). The (i) plan-view, (ii) strike-projection and (iii) displacement–length (D–L) plots are shown to illustrate the key geometrical and evolutionary aspects of each model. The black arrows in (ii) show the fault level of the map shown in (i). F1-3, faults 1–3; T1-3, time-steps 1–3. Note that, based on the final fault length (i.e. T3 in i), shape (i.e. T3 in ii) and throw distribution (i.e. T3 in iii), it is difficult to determine which growth model best describes its evolution. (c) Schematic D-L plots through fault life according to the isolated fault model; time steps correspond to those shown in (a). (d) Schematic D-L plots through fault life according to the constant-length fault model; time steps correspond to those shown in (b). (a) and (b) are from Jackson et al. (2017); (c) and (d) were inspired by Nicol et al. (2016).

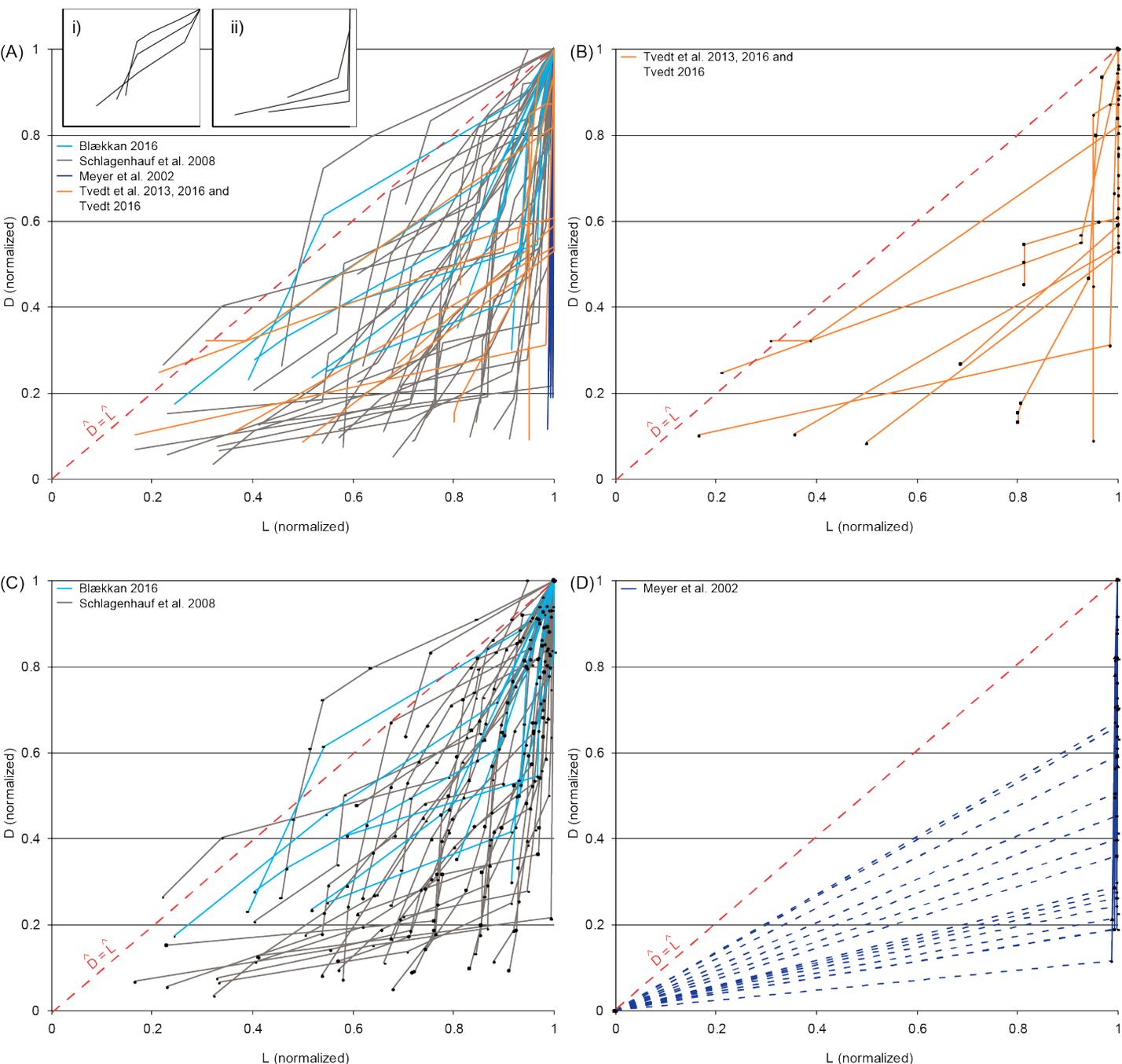


Figure 2. Normalized maximum displacement (D) versus normalized fault length (L) plots through fault life for a series of faults. (A) shows data from all faults studied herein, whereas (B), (C), and (D) show selections of the data. The data includes natural faults from Tvedt et al. (2013, 2016), Tvedt (2016), Meyer et al. (2002), faults from plaster experiments by Blækkan (2016) and faults from sandbox experiments by Schlagenhauf et al. (2008). Note that the data from Meyer et al. (2002) carries some uncertainty as the data were manually extracted from the log-log D - L plots in that paper. Inset (i) shows D - L graphs for select faults that exhibit sympathetic D - L growth, i.e. isolated fault growth. Inset (ii) shows D - L graphs from select faults that show clearly separate low-gradient and high-gradient segments, separated by clear inflection points. (B) shows data from natural faults extracted from Tvedt (2016) and Tvedt et al. (2013, 2016). (C) shows data from faults produced in physical analogue experiments from Schlagenhauf et al. (2008) and Blækkan (2016). (D) shows the data extracted from Meyer et al. (2002); note however that we have added $(x, y) = (0, 0)$ to all the D - L curves, in order to illustrate that each of the vertical D - L graphs in Meyer et al. (2002) have an additional unrecorded and unknown growth phase that is illustrated by dashed lines. See text for full discussion.

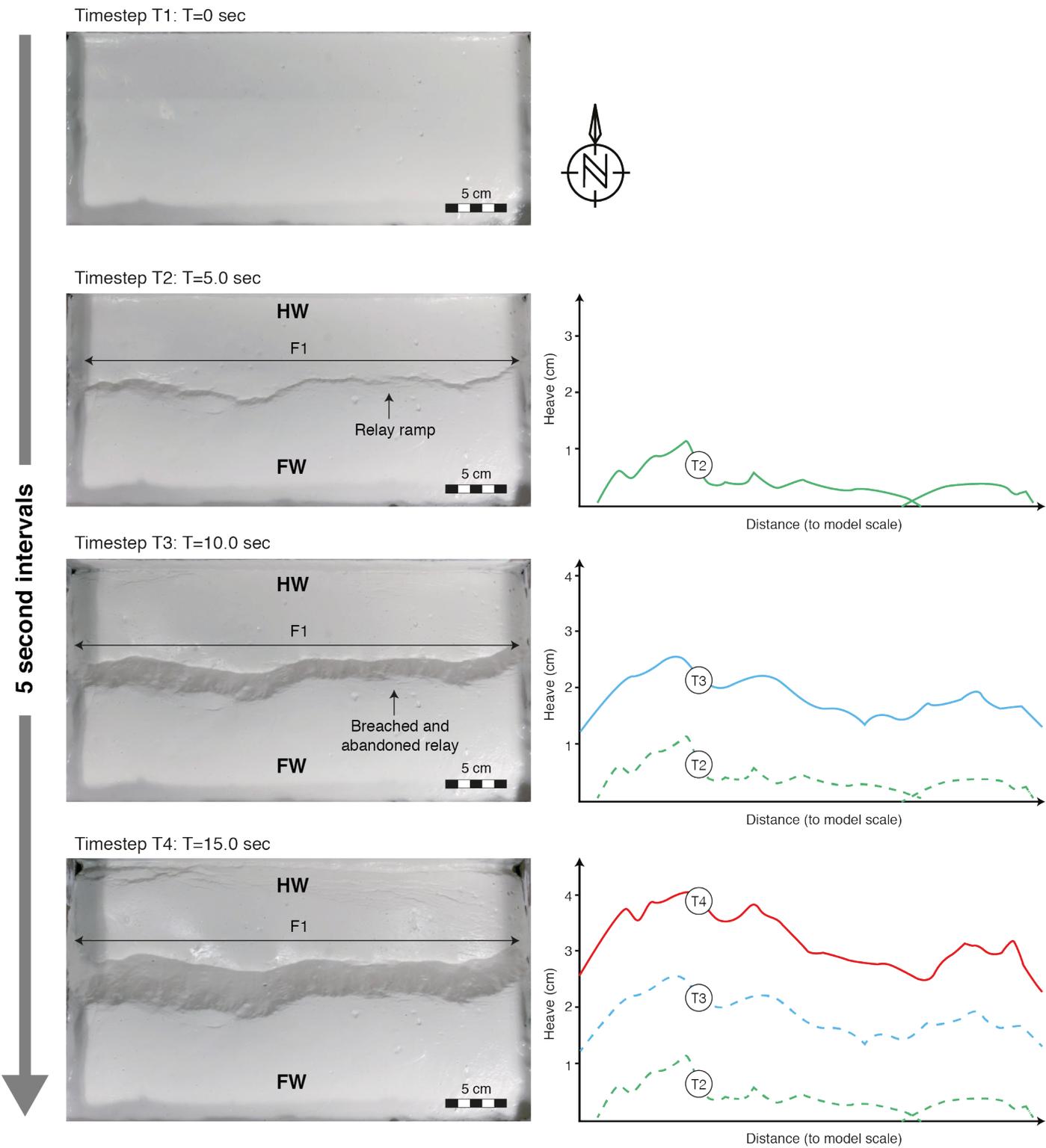
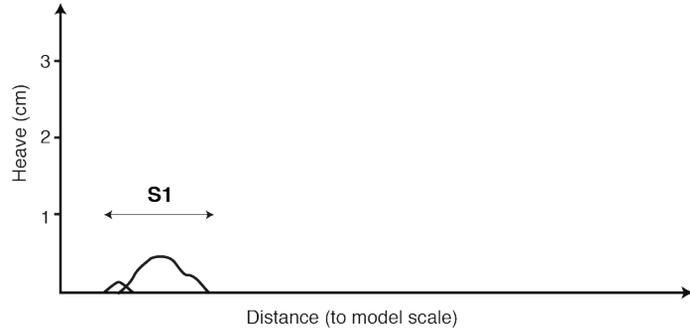
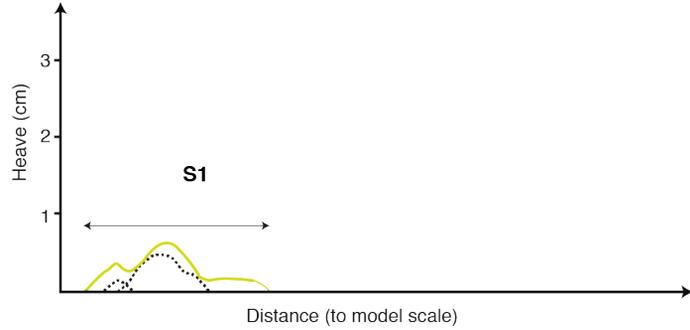


Figure 3. Plaster experiment of normal fault evolution. Four timesteps, T1 through T4 at 5 second intervals, are shown. Timestep T1 is the experiment at the onset of extension. To the right, displacement-length plots for the fault evolving in the experiment are shown for timesteps T2 (green), T3 (blue) and T4 (red). Note that the fault seen in T2 already at that stage has established itself across the extent of the model. See Figure 4 for four additional, shorter, 0.5-second timesteps immediately prior to timestep T2, which show the lengthening phase of the fault.

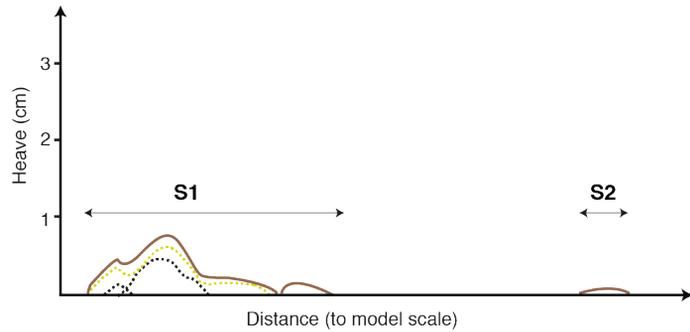
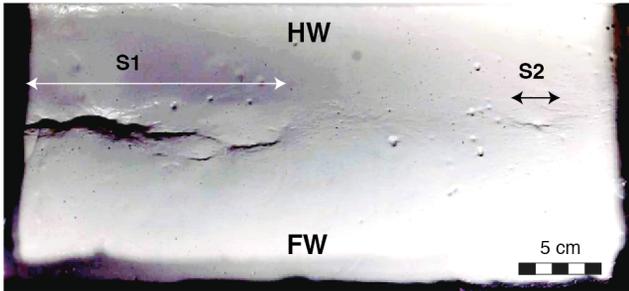
Timestep T1a: T=5.5 sec



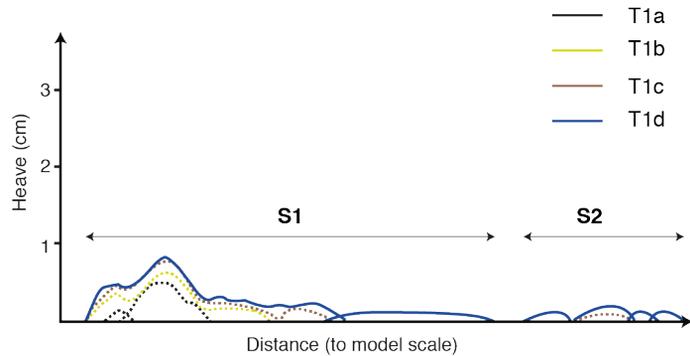
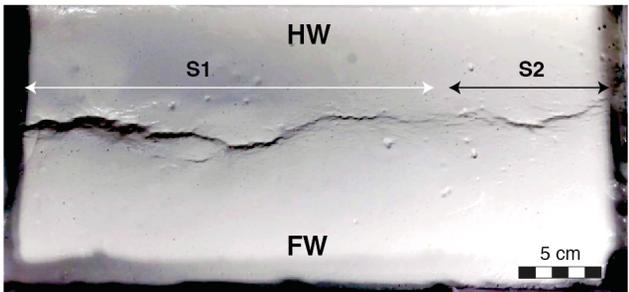
Timestep T1b: T=6.0 sec



Timestep T1c: T=6.5 sec



Timestep T1d: T=7.0 sec



0.5 second intervals

Figure 4. Plaster experiment of normal fault evolution; 4 timesteps are shown at 0.5 second intervals; T1a through T1d. These timesteps cover the 2 seconds leading up to timestep T2 in Figure 3; see Figure 3 caption for further explanation.

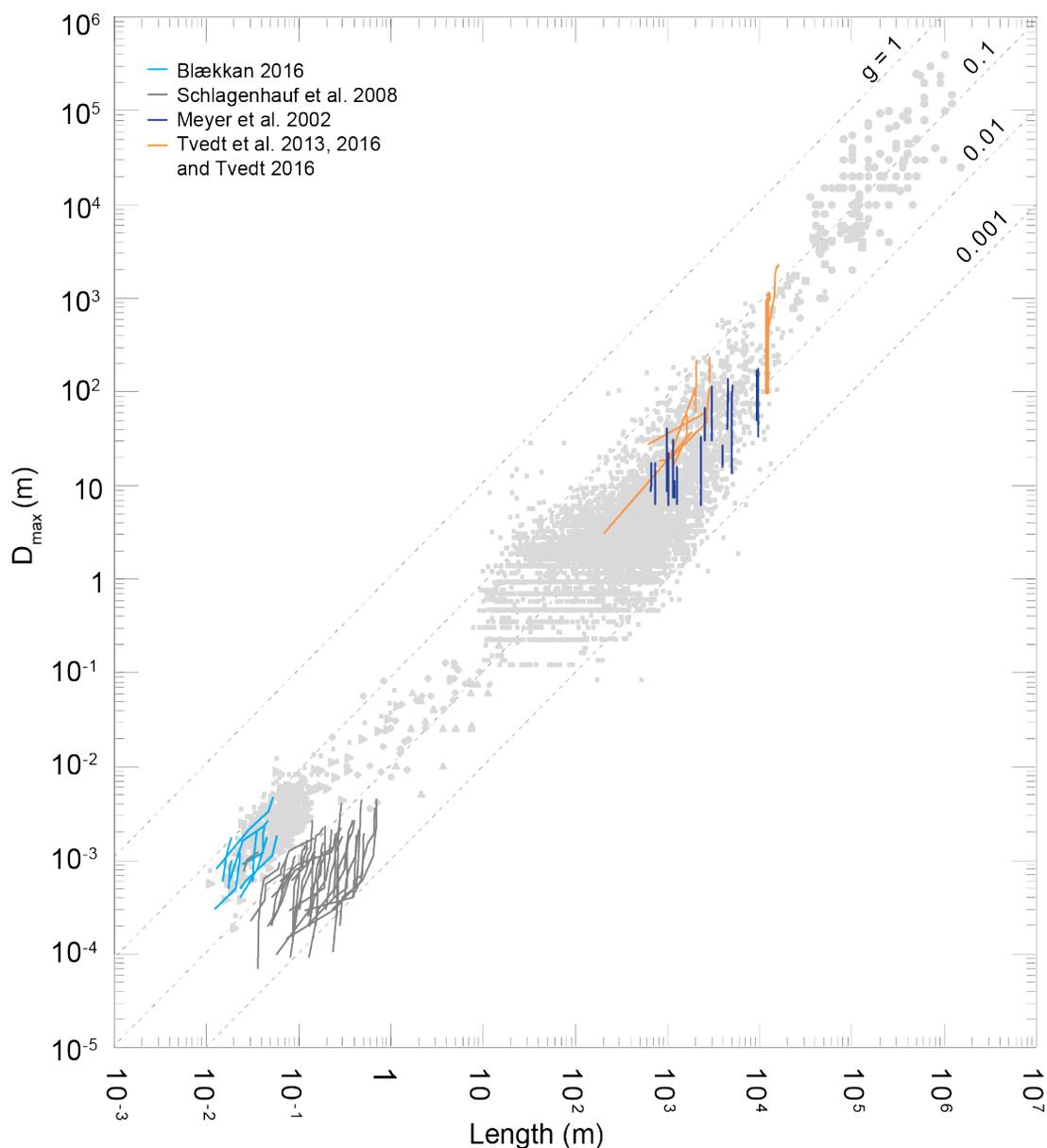


Figure 5. Global D-L dataset (grey data points) for faults plotted in log-log space (D-L data extracted from Krantz 1988; Gudmundsson and Bäckström 1991; Cowie and Scholz 1992a, and references therein; Dawers et al., 1993; Cartwright et al., 1995; Schlische et al., 1996; Schultz and Fossen 2002). The D-L paths shown in Figure 2 of this study are also shown. Note most of the different D-L paths from this study plot within the global dataset, despite that these growth paths show a wide range of behaviours (see text for full discussion). This demonstrates that the global correlation of D and L cannot be invoked to support ‘isolated’ fault growth, since ‘constant-length’ and hybrid growth patterns are all fully consistent with, and may hide within, the global D-L database as shown here.

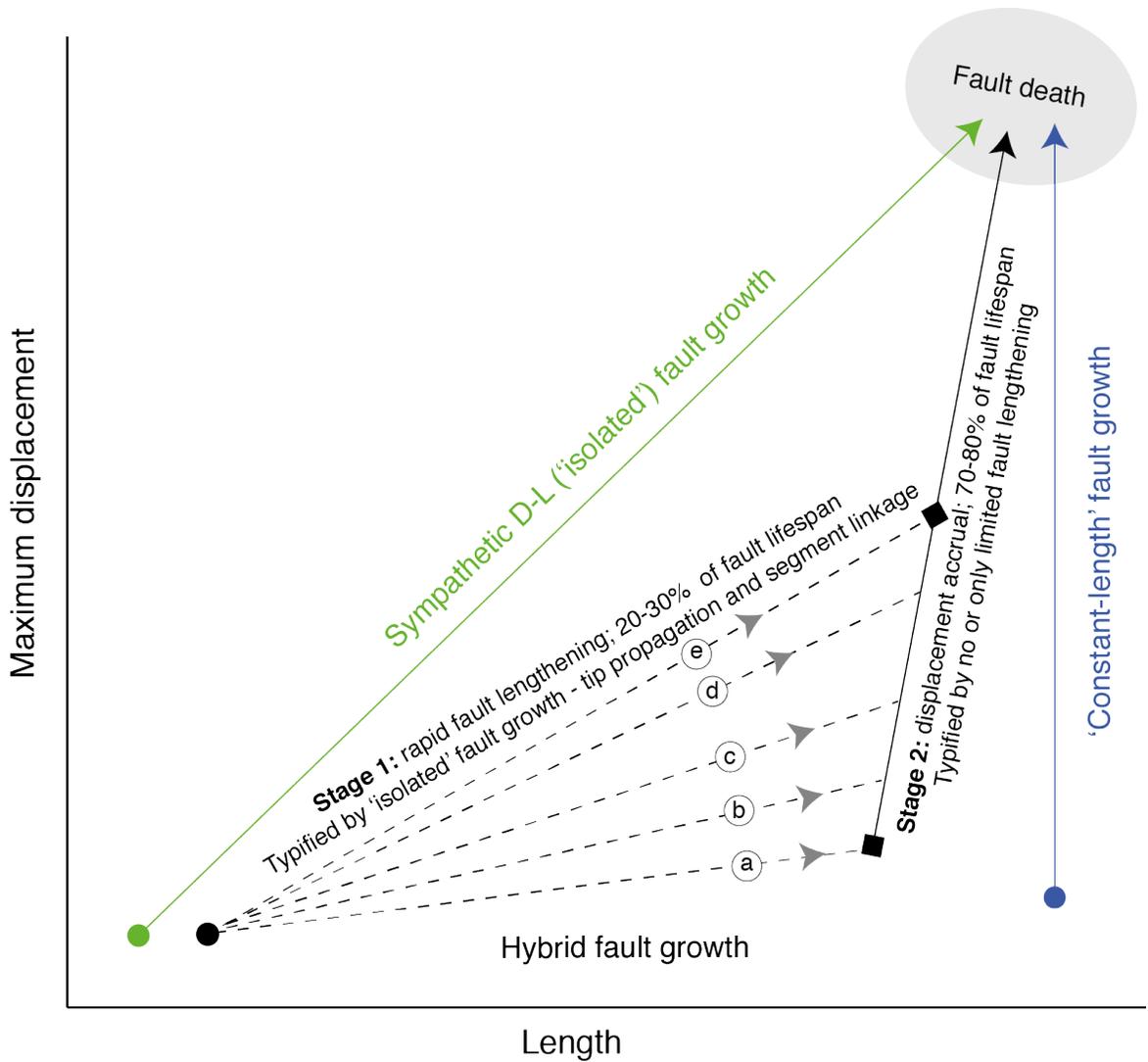


Figure 6. Schematic illustration showing idealized D-L growth trajectories of the end member ‘isolated’ (green) and ‘constant-length’ (blue) fault models, as well as a series of hybrid-type fault growth trajectories (black). As shown in this paper, few faults follow the isolated or constant-length trajectories; most faults follow D-L growth paths that are characteristic of a hybrid growth mode characterized by two stages. The first stage is characterized by rapid fault lengthening and a variable amount of displacement accrual, and is best described by the isolated model since it is associated with lengthening achieved by tip propagation, relay formation and breakdown, segment linkage and amalgamation to ultimately establish near-full fault lengths at the end of Stage 1. The second stage (Stage 2), is best described as ‘constant-length’ fault behaviour, i.e. displacement accrual without significant tip propagation or further fault lengthening. The fault growth trajectory in D-L space during Stage 1 of the hybrid growth model varies significantly, from sub-horizontal coherent-like trajectories with limited displacement accrual (graph a), to steep and isolated-like trajectories with significant displacement accrual during Stage 1 (graph e). See text for full discussion.