

Please attempt the questions yourself before studying these solutions.

Recall that in spherical geometry, the Cartesian position vector \mathbf{x} can be expressed as

$$\mathbf{x} = (x, y, z) = r (\cos \phi \cos \lambda, \sin \phi \cos \lambda, \sin \lambda),$$

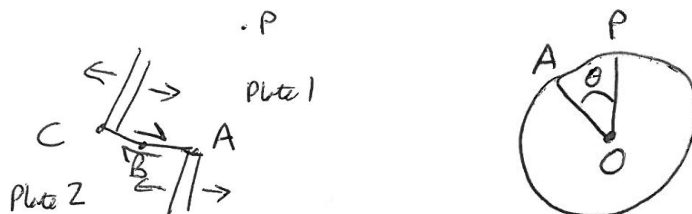
where r is radius, λ is latitude, and ϕ is longitude. The inverse transformation is

$$r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2},$$

$$\lambda = \arcsin(z/r),$$

$$\phi = \arctan2(y, x).$$

1



The transform fault ABC is part of a small circle about the pole P. Hence

$$\mathbf{OA} \cdot \mathbf{OP} = \mathbf{OB} \cdot \mathbf{OP} = \mathbf{OC} \cdot \mathbf{OP} = r^2 \cos \theta$$

where θ is the angle of ABC from the pole of rotation. For unit vectors we have

$$\widehat{\mathbf{OA}} \cdot \widehat{\mathbf{OP}} = \widehat{\mathbf{OB}} \cdot \widehat{\mathbf{OP}} = \widehat{\mathbf{OC}} \cdot \widehat{\mathbf{OP}} = \cos \theta. \quad (*)$$

The corresponding unit vectors are

$$\widehat{\mathbf{OA}} = (0^\circ\text{N}, 60^\circ\text{E}) = \left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}, 0\right)$$

$$\widehat{\mathbf{OB}} = (30^\circ\text{N}, 30^\circ\text{E}) = \left(\frac{3}{4}, \frac{\sqrt{3}}{4}, \frac{1}{2}\right)$$

$$\widehat{\mathbf{OC}} = (45^\circ\text{N}, 0^\circ\text{E}) = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, 0, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)$$

Let $\widehat{\mathbf{OP}} = (x, y, z)$ with $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$. Substitution into (*) gives

$$\frac{1}{2}x + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}y = \frac{3}{4}x + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{4}y + \frac{1}{2}z = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}x + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}z = \cos \theta$$

Elimination yields $\cos \theta = 0 \implies \theta = \pi/2$ and

$$\widehat{\mathbf{OP}} = \left(-\sqrt{\frac{3}{7}}, \sqrt{\frac{1}{7}}, \sqrt{\frac{3}{7}}\right) = \underline{(40.9^\circ\text{N}, 150^\circ\text{E})}$$

[It is equally valid to give the antipode of this vector, i.e. $\widehat{\mathbf{OP}} = (-40.9^\circ\text{N}, -30^\circ\text{E})$. Since $(\mathbf{OB} - \mathbf{OA}) \cdot \mathbf{OP} = (\mathbf{OC} - \mathbf{OA}) \cdot \mathbf{OP} = \mathbf{0}$, an alternative way of calculating \mathbf{OP} is through

a cross product, $\mathbf{OP} \propto (\mathbf{OB} - \mathbf{OA}) \times (\mathbf{OC} - \mathbf{OA})$, i.e. the pole of rotation is the normal to the plane through \mathbf{OA} , \mathbf{OB} , and \mathbf{OC} .]

$$|\mathbf{v}| = |\boldsymbol{\omega} \times \mathbf{r}| = |\boldsymbol{\omega}| |\mathbf{r}| \sin \theta$$

Since $\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$,

$$|\boldsymbol{\omega}| = \frac{|\mathbf{v}|}{|\mathbf{r}|} = \frac{100 \text{ mm yr}^{-1}}{6371 \text{ km}} = \underline{1.57 \times 10^{-8} \text{ rad yr}^{-1}},$$

with $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ in the direction of the pole $\widehat{\mathbf{OP}}$.

2 The basis vectors can be obtained from partial differentiation of the position vector $\mathbf{x} = r (\cos \phi \cos \lambda, \sin \phi \cos \lambda, \sin \lambda)$,

$$\mathbf{e}_r = \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}}{\partial r} = (\cos \phi \cos \lambda, \sin \phi \cos \lambda, \sin \lambda),$$

$$\mathbf{e}_\lambda = \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}}{\partial \lambda} = r (-\cos \phi \sin \lambda, -\sin \phi \sin \lambda, \cos \lambda),$$

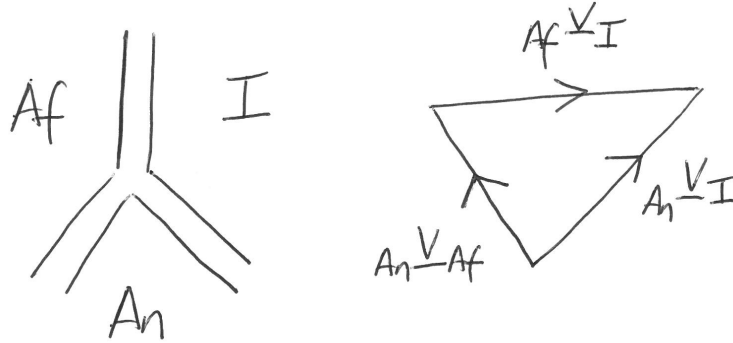
$$\mathbf{e}_\phi = \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}}{\partial \phi} = r \cos \lambda (-\sin \phi, \cos \phi, 0).$$

These produce unit vectors

$$\hat{\mathbf{e}}_r = (\cos \phi \cos \lambda, \sin \phi \cos \lambda, \sin \lambda) = \mathbf{a}_r \quad \text{“Up”}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{e}}_\lambda = (-\cos \phi \sin \lambda, -\sin \phi \sin \lambda, \cos \lambda) = \mathbf{a}_N \quad \text{“North”}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{e}}_\phi = (-\sin \phi, \cos \phi, 0) = \mathbf{a}_E \quad \text{“East”}$$

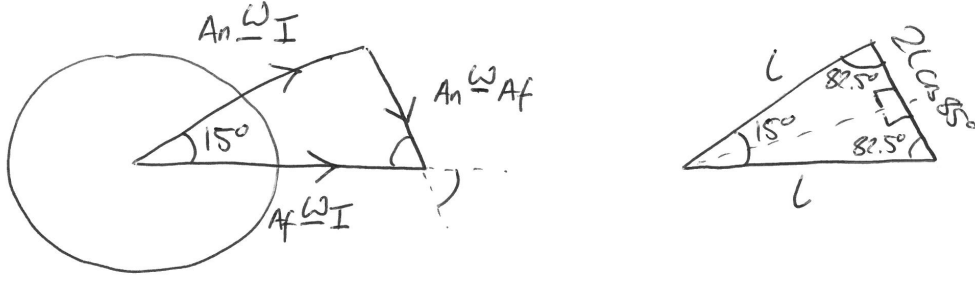


Given angular velocities:

$${}_{\text{An}}\boldsymbol{\omega}_{\text{I}} = (0^\circ\text{N}, 45^\circ\text{E}, 6 \times 10^{-7} \text{ }^\circ\text{yr}^{-1})$$

$${}_{\text{Af}}\boldsymbol{\omega}_{\text{I}} = (15^\circ\text{N}, 45^\circ\text{E}, 6 \times 10^{-7} \text{ }^\circ\text{yr}^{-1})$$

Both these vectors lie in 45°E . Therefore the angle between the two vectors is 15° . Moreover, the vectors are both of the same magnitude, and so the angular velocity triangle is an isosceles triangle.



$$|_{An} \omega_{Af}| = 2 \times 6 \times 10^{-7} \text{ yr}^{-1} \times \cos 82.5^\circ = \underline{1.57 \times 10^{-7} \text{ yr}^{-1}},$$

$$_{An} \hat{\omega}_{Af} = \underline{(-82.5^\circ \text{N}, 45^\circ \text{E})}$$

What follows is a useful trick – the East and North components of the velocity can be obtained from the North and East components of the angular velocity using the following relation,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{v} &= \boldsymbol{\omega} \times \mathbf{r} \\ &= \boldsymbol{\omega} \times (r \mathbf{a}_r) \\ &= \boldsymbol{\omega} \times (r \mathbf{a}_E \times \mathbf{a}_N) \\ &= r |\boldsymbol{\omega}| ((\hat{\boldsymbol{\omega}} \cdot \mathbf{a}_N) \mathbf{a}_E - (\hat{\boldsymbol{\omega}} \cdot \mathbf{a}_E) \mathbf{a}_N) \end{aligned}$$

The velocities can be written as

$$\mathbf{v} = |\mathbf{v}| (\sin \theta \mathbf{a}_E + \cos \theta \mathbf{a}_N)$$

where θ is the *bearing* (clockwise angle from North), and $|\mathbf{v}|$ is the magnitude. Thus

$$\begin{aligned} |\mathbf{v}| &= r |\boldsymbol{\omega}| \sqrt{(\hat{\boldsymbol{\omega}} \cdot \mathbf{a}_N)^2 + (\hat{\boldsymbol{\omega}} \cdot \mathbf{a}_E)^2}, \\ \theta &= \arctan 2 (\hat{\boldsymbol{\omega}} \cdot \mathbf{a}_N, -\hat{\boldsymbol{\omega}} \cdot \mathbf{a}_E) \end{aligned} \quad (\dagger)$$

The triple junction is located at $(-20^\circ \text{N}, 70^\circ \text{E})$ and thus

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{a}_E &= (-0.939693, 0.34202, 0) \\ \mathbf{a}_N &= (0.116978, 0.321394, 0.939693) \end{aligned}$$

The unit vectors corresponding to the angular velocities are

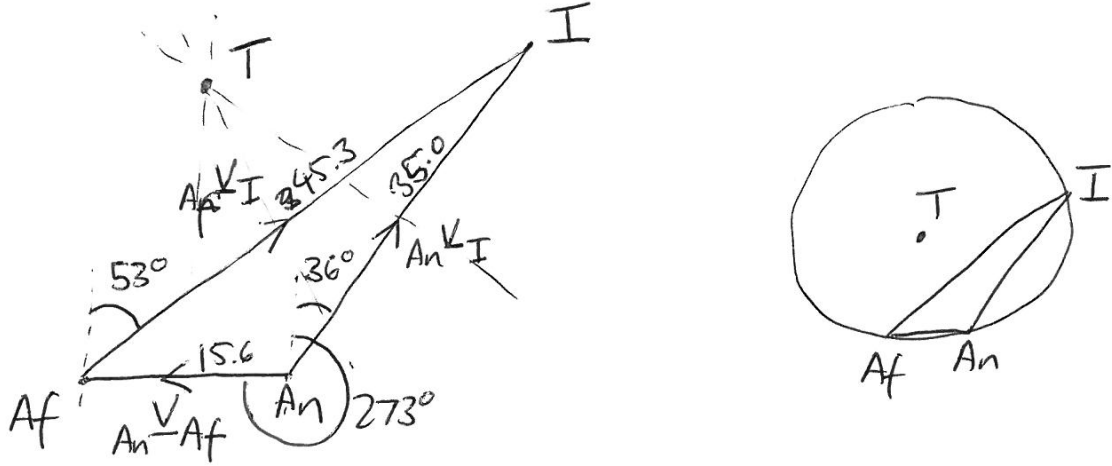
$$\begin{aligned} _{An} \hat{\boldsymbol{\omega}}_I &= (0^\circ, 45^\circ \text{E}) = (0.707107, 0.707107, 0) \\ _{Af} \hat{\boldsymbol{\omega}}_I &= (15^\circ, 45^\circ \text{E}) = (0.683013, 0.683013, 0.258819) \\ _{An} \hat{\boldsymbol{\omega}}_{Af} &= (-82.5^\circ, 45^\circ \text{E}) = (0.092296, 0.092296, -0.991445) \end{aligned}$$

The appropriate dot products are

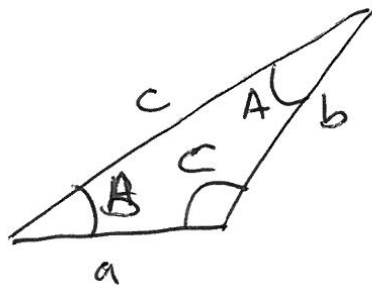
$$\begin{aligned} _{An} \hat{\boldsymbol{\omega}}_I \cdot \mathbf{a}_E &= -0.422618, & _{An} \hat{\boldsymbol{\omega}}_I \cdot \mathbf{a}_N &= 0.309976, \\ _{Af} \hat{\boldsymbol{\omega}}_I \cdot \mathbf{a}_E &= -0.408218, & _{Af} \hat{\boldsymbol{\omega}}_I \cdot \mathbf{a}_N &= 0.542624, \\ _{An} \hat{\boldsymbol{\omega}}_{Af} \cdot \mathbf{a}_E &= -0.055163, & _{An} \hat{\boldsymbol{\omega}}_{Af} \cdot \mathbf{a}_N &= -0.891193. \end{aligned}$$

Application of (\dagger) with $r = 6371 \text{ km}$ and the given angular velocity magnitudes (remembering to convert from $^\circ \text{yr}^{-1}$ to rad yr^{-1}) yields

$$\begin{aligned} _{An} \mathbf{v}_I &= \underline{34.97 \text{ mm yr}^{-1}, \text{ bearing } 036.36^\circ}, \\ _{Af} \mathbf{v}_I &= \underline{45.30 \text{ mm yr}^{-1}, \text{ bearing } 053.04^\circ}, \\ _{An} \mathbf{v}_{Af} &= \underline{15.55 \text{ mm yr}^{-1}, \text{ bearing } 273.54^\circ}. \end{aligned}$$



The triple junction is stable (as with any RRR). The perpendicular bisectors intersect at T. T will lie at the centre of the circumcircle going through Af, An, I.



$$a = 15.55 \text{ mm yr}^{-1}$$

$$A = 16.78^\circ,$$

$$b = 34.97 \text{ mm yr}^{-1}$$

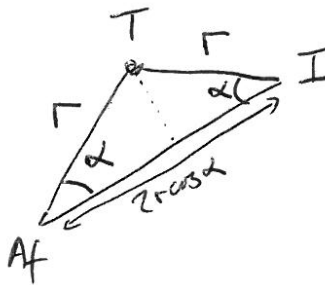
$$B = 40.50^\circ,$$

$$c = 45.30 \text{ mm yr}^{-1}$$

$$C = 122.72^\circ,$$

$$\frac{a}{\sin A} = \frac{b}{\sin B} = \frac{c}{\sin C} = 53.84 \text{ mm yr}^{-1} = \text{diameter of circumcircle}$$

$$\text{radius of circumcircle} = 26.9 \text{ mm yr}^{-1} = \text{magnitude of triple junction velocity}$$



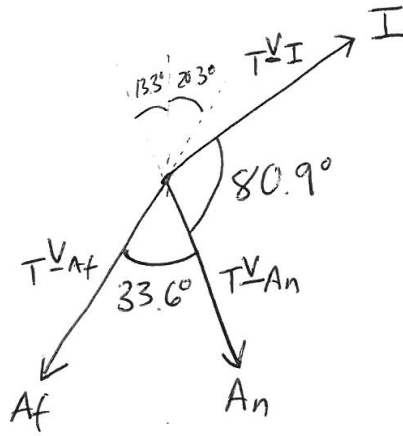
$$\cos \alpha = \frac{45.3}{2 \times 26.9} \Rightarrow \alpha = 32.71^\circ$$

Hence,

$$\underline{\text{Af}\mathbf{v}_T = 26.9 \text{ mm yr}^{-1}, \text{ bearing } 020.3^\circ,}$$

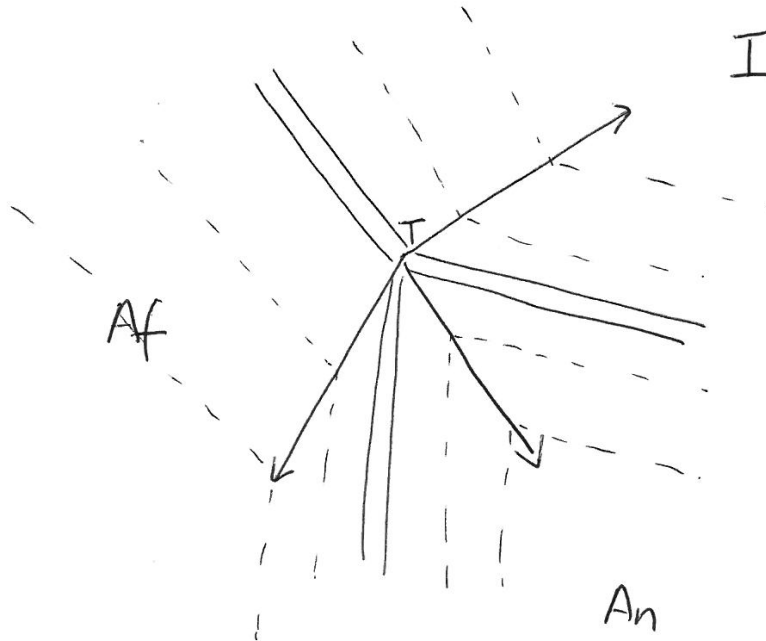
$$\underline{\text{An}\mathbf{v}_T = 26.9 \text{ mm yr}^{-1}, \text{ bearing } 346.7^\circ,}$$

$$\underline{\text{I}\mathbf{v}_T = 26.9 \text{ mm yr}^{-1}, \text{ bearing } 265.8^\circ.}$$



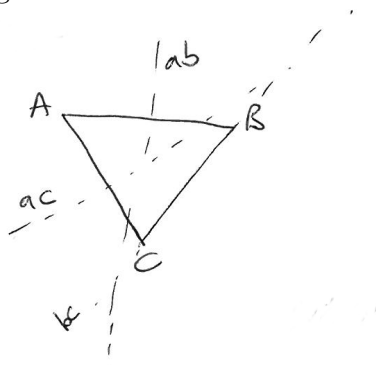
Af-An ridge growing by $26.9 \cos \frac{33.6^\circ}{2} = 25.8 \text{ mm yr}^{-1}$
 An-I ridge growing by $26.9 \cos \frac{80.9^\circ}{2} = 20.5 \text{ mm yr}^{-1}$
 Af-I ridge shrinking by $26.9 \cos \frac{114.5^\circ}{2} = 14.5 \text{ mm yr}^{-1}$

Magnetic anomalies shown by dashed lines below:



3 (a) RRF

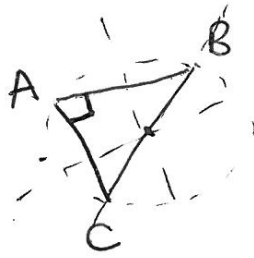
Velocity triangle:



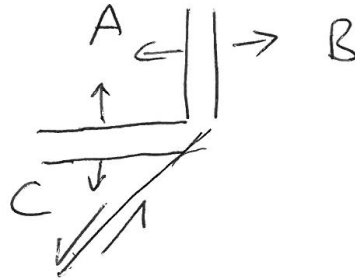
AB, AC ridges. BC transform.
Not stable in general.

For a stable junction we need ab and ac to intersect on BC. The intersection of ab and ac

is at the centre of the circumcircle of $\triangle ABC$. Hence, for a stable junction the centre of the circumcircle is at the midpoint of BC:

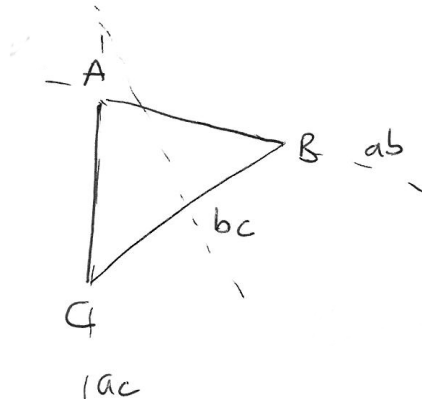


Therefore AB and AC meet at a right angle, so the ridges are perpendicular. An example stable configuration is shown below:



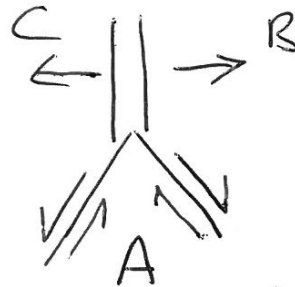
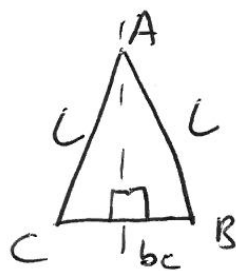
(b) **FFR**

Velocity triangle:

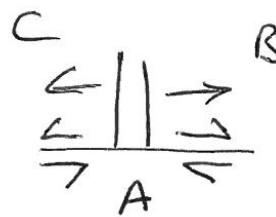
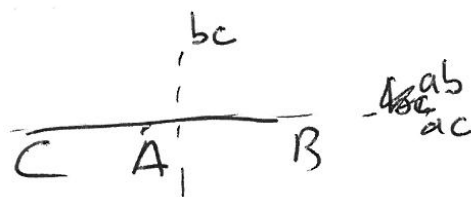


AB, AC transform. BC ridge.
Not stable in general.

Can be stable if bc intersects A \Rightarrow ABC is isosceles, e.g.

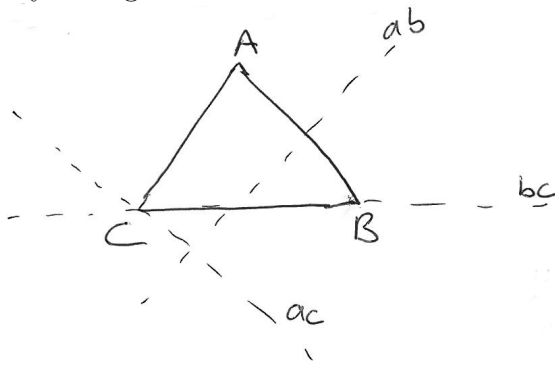


There is also a stable case where there is a straight line configuration:



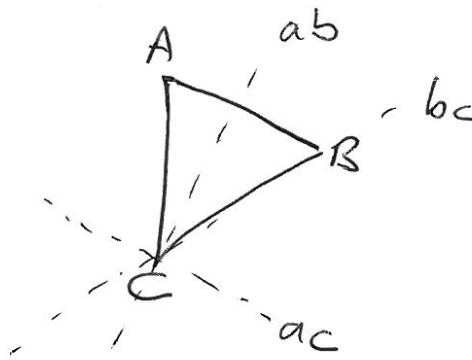
(b) **RTF** [case (i)]

Velocity triangle:

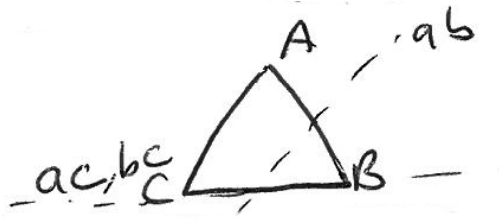


AB ridge, AC trench, BC transform.
Here C is the overriding plate.
Not stable in general.

One possibility for a stable junction is if ab goes through C, i.e. we have an isosceles triangle with $AC=BC$:

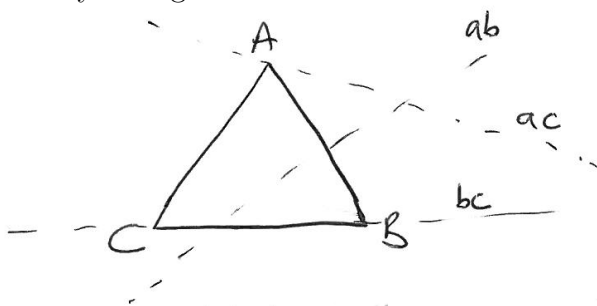


Another possibility for a stable junction is to have ac and bc parallel:



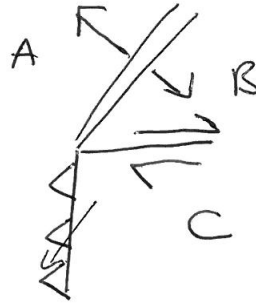
RTF [case (ii)]

Velocity triangle:



AB ridge, AC trench, BC transform.
Now A is the overriding plate.
Not stable in general.

For a stable junction one needs ab and ac to cross on bc , e.g.



A diagram of a sphere with a vertical axis. The sphere is divided into two regions, A and B, by a vertical plane. Region A is on the left and region B is on the right. Point P is located in region A at coordinates $(45, 0)$. Point Q is located on the vertical axis at the top at coordinates $(90, 0)$. Point R is located on the vertical axis at the bottom at coordinates $(-90, 0)$. Point C is located in region B at coordinates $(0, 45)$. Arrows indicate a clockwise rotation around the vertical axis.

The direction normal to the boundary is \mathbf{a}_E . From “trick” in Q2, we can get the East component of velocity from North component of angular velocity:

Boundary position is $(\lambda, 45^\circ\text{E})$, thus

$${}_{\text{B}}\hat{\omega}_{\text{A}} = (45^\circ\text{N}, 0^\circ\text{E}) = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, 0, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right) \text{ and hence}$$

Therefore the velocity normal to the boundary is

At the point C itself, $\lambda = 0$ and ${}_{\text{B}}\mathbf{v}_{\text{A}} \cdot \mathbf{a}_E = 90.1 \text{ mm yr}^{-1}$.



8

5 The magnetic field due to the core is a dipole to a good approximation, with magnetic scalar potential

$$\phi^c = \frac{\mathbf{m} \cdot \mathbf{r}}{4\pi r^3}$$

where the dipole moment \mathbf{m} points towards the South pole. The magnetic field is obtained by taking the gradient,

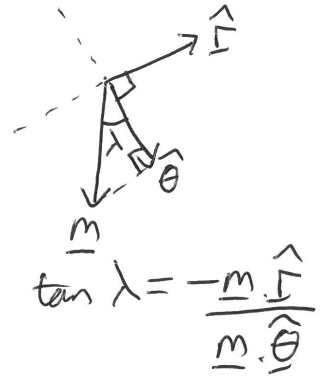
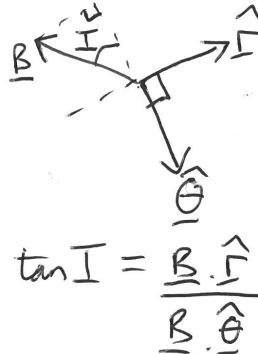
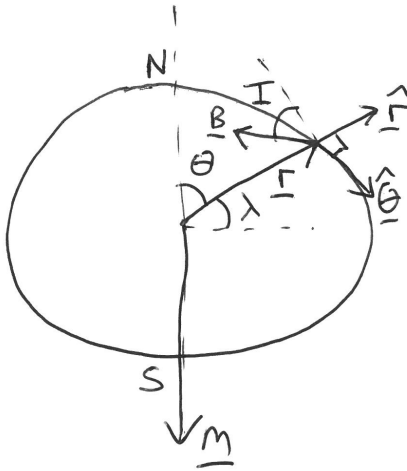
$$\mathbf{B}^c = -\mu_0 \nabla \phi^c = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \left(\frac{3\hat{\mathbf{r}}(\hat{\mathbf{r}} \cdot \mathbf{m}) - \mathbf{m}}{r^3} \right)$$

Splitting this into components gives

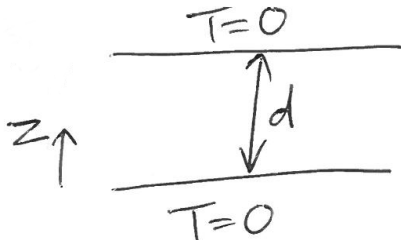
$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{B}^c \cdot \hat{\mathbf{r}} &= \frac{\mu_0}{2\pi} \mathbf{m} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{r}}, \\ \mathbf{B}^c \cdot \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} &= -\frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \mathbf{m} \cdot \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}, \end{aligned}$$

with ratios

$$\tan I = \frac{\mathbf{B}^c \cdot \hat{\mathbf{r}}}{\mathbf{B}^c \cdot \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}} = -2 \frac{\mathbf{m} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{r}}}{\mathbf{m} \cdot \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}} = 2 \tan \lambda$$



6



$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \kappa \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2}$$

where $T = 0$ at $z = 0, d$.

Scaling: $z = dz'$, $t = \frac{d^2}{\kappa} t'$

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t'} = \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z'^2}$$

where $T = 0$ at $z' = 0, 1$.

Separation of variables. Seek solutions of the form $T = \mathcal{T}(t')\mathcal{Z}(z')$. Substitution yields

$$\frac{\dot{\mathcal{T}}}{\mathcal{T}} = \frac{\mathcal{Z}''}{\mathcal{Z}} = -\lambda$$

where λ is a constant. General solution of \mathcal{Z} equation is

$$\mathcal{Z}(z') = A \cos \sqrt{\lambda} z' + B \sin \sqrt{\lambda} z'$$

b.c. at $z' = 0 \implies A = 0$, b.c. at $z' = 1 \implies \lambda = n^2 \pi^2$. General solution of \mathcal{T} equation is

$$\mathcal{T}(t') = C e^{-\lambda t'}$$

Thus full solution is

$$T(z', t') = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n e^{-n^2 \pi^2 t'} \sin n \pi z',$$

or, in dimensional form,

$$T(z, t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n e^{-n^2 \pi^2 \kappa t / d^2} \sin \frac{n \pi z}{d}.$$

The slowest decaying mode ($n = 1$) dominates at long times,

$$T(z, t) \sim A_1 e^{-\pi^2 \kappa t / d^2} \sin \frac{\pi z}{d},$$

and thus the time constant for cooling of the layer is

$$\tau = \frac{d^2}{\pi^2 \kappa}.$$

a) See lecture notes for full discussion. Key result is that for fast spreading ridges, away from the ridge axis,

$$\text{elevation} \propto e^{-t/\tau}$$

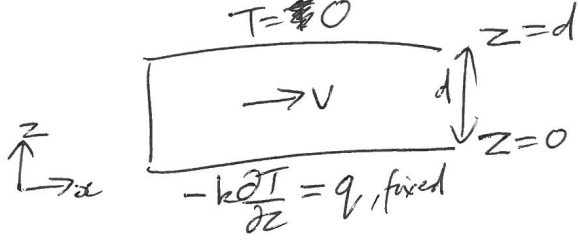
where t is plate age and τ is the thermal time constant above.

b) heat flow is given in lecture notes as

$$F = -k \left. \frac{\partial T}{\partial z} \right|_{\text{surface}} \approx \frac{k(T_1 - T_0)}{d} (1 + 2e^{-t/\tau})$$

Both heat flow and depth undergo exponential decay away from the ridge axis, decaying with age according to the thermal time constant.

7 To make the calculations cleaner, assume a large Péclet number situation (i.e. neglect horizontal conduction, which is appropriate for fast-spreading ridges).

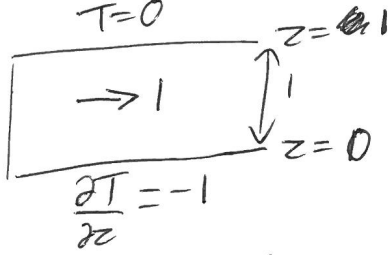


$$V \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} = \kappa \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2}$$

where $T = 0$ on $z = d$ and $-k \frac{\partial T}{\partial z} = q$ on $z = 0$.

$$\text{Scaling: } z = dz', \quad x = \frac{d^2 V}{\kappa} x', \quad T = \frac{qd}{k} T'$$

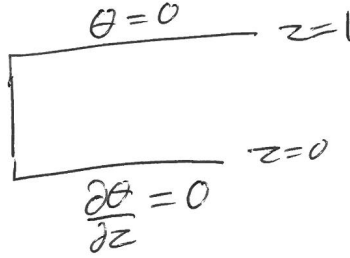
Scaled problem (dropping primes for ease of reading):



$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2}$$

where $T = 0$ on $z = 1$ and $-\frac{\partial T}{\partial z} = 1$ on $z = 0$.

The boundary conditions are not homogeneous, so first write $T = 1 - z + \theta$. The problem for θ is then:



$$\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial z^2}$$

where $\theta = 0$ on $z = 1$ and $\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} = 0$ on $z = 0$.

Separation of variables. Seek solutions of the form $\theta = \mathcal{X}(x)\mathcal{Z}(z)$. Substitution yields

$$\frac{\mathcal{X}'}{\mathcal{X}} = \frac{\mathcal{Z}''}{\mathcal{Z}} = -\lambda$$

where λ is a constant. The general solution for \mathcal{Z} is

$$\mathcal{Z}(z) = A \cos \sqrt{\lambda} z + B \sin \sqrt{\lambda} z,$$

with derivative

$$\mathcal{Z}'(z) = -\sqrt{\lambda} A \sin \sqrt{\lambda} z + B \sqrt{\lambda} \cos \sqrt{\lambda} z.$$

Applying the boundary conditions,

$$\mathcal{Z}'(0) = 0 \implies B = 0,$$

$$\mathcal{Z}(1) = 0 \implies \lambda = \left(\frac{\pi}{2} + n\pi\right)^2$$

The general solution for \mathcal{X} is

$$\mathcal{X}(x) = C e^{-\lambda x}.$$

Thus the full solution for T in dimensionless form is

$$T(x, z) = 1 - z + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n e^{-\lambda_n x} \cos \sqrt{\lambda_n} z$$

where

$$\lambda_n = \left(\frac{\pi}{2} + n\pi \right)^2.$$

The slowest decaying mode is the $n = 0$ mode. This decays to 50% when $e^{-\lambda_0 \delta} = \frac{1}{2}$. Hence the dimensionless half-width is

$$\delta = \frac{1}{\lambda_0} \ln 2 = \frac{4}{\pi^2} \ln 2.$$

Returning to dimensional form, this is

$$\delta = \frac{4Vd^2}{\pi^2 \kappa} \ln 2.$$

The case considered in lectures had temperature fixed at the bottom. In this case, the relationship between half-width δ_T and plate thickness d_T is

$$\delta_T = \frac{Vd_T^2}{\pi^2 \kappa} \ln 2$$

whereas the fixed-flux case has the relationship between half-width δ_q and plate thickness d_q as

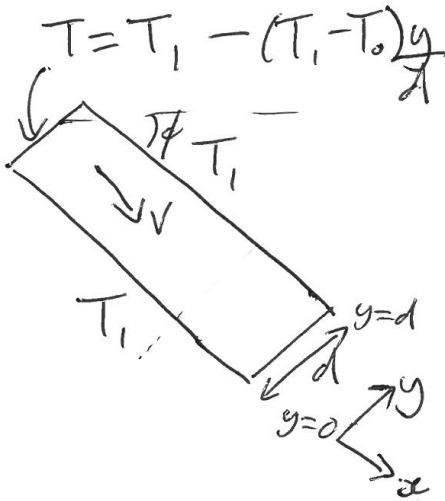
$$\delta_q = \frac{4Vd_q^2}{\pi^2 \kappa} \ln 2.$$

The surface observations constrain the half-width, so $\delta_T = \delta_q$. Thus $4d_q^2 = d_T^2$, and hence

$$d_q = \frac{d_T}{2},$$

i.e. the plate thickness inferred from a fixed-flux model is half that of a fixed-temperature model. $d_T \approx 125$ km (see lecture notes), and thus the estimated plate thickness for the fixed-flux model is $d_q \approx 63$ km. Vigorous convection beneath the base of the plate maintains the base of the plate to closer to a state of constant temperature rather than fixed flux.

8



Again, neglect horizontal conduction.

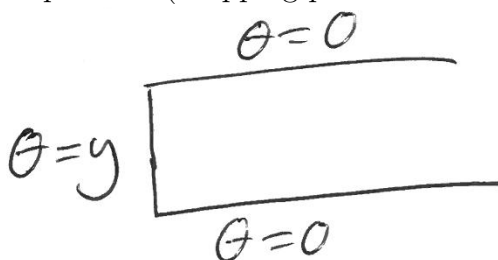
$$V \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} = \kappa \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2}$$

where $T = T_1$ on $y = 0, d$ and

$$T = T_1 - (T_1 - T_0) \frac{y}{d} \text{ on } x = 0$$

$$\text{Scaling: } y = dy', \quad x = \frac{d^2 V}{\kappa} x', \quad T = T_1 - (T_1 - T_0) \theta.$$

Scaled problem (dropping primes for ease of reading):



$$\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial y^2}$$

where $\theta = 0$ on $y = 0, 1$ and $\theta = y$ on $x = 0$.

The general solution is

$$\theta(x, y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n e^{-n^2 \pi^2 x} \sin n\pi y.$$

The boundary condition at $x = 0$ yields

$$A_n = 2 \int_0^1 y \sin n\pi y \, dy = \frac{2(-1)^{n+1}}{n\pi}.$$

Thus in dimensional form, the steady state temperature distribution is

$$T = T_1 - (T_1 - T_0) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2(-1)^{n+1}}{n\pi} \exp\left(-\frac{n^2 \pi^2 \kappa x}{d^2 V}\right) \sin \frac{n\pi y}{d}.$$

The advective transport of heat in the dip-direction (per length of trench) is

$$\begin{aligned} Q_{\text{dip-direction}}(x) &= \int_0^d \rho C_p (T - T_1) V \, dy \\ &= -\rho C_p (T_1 - T_0) V d \sum_{n \text{ odd}} \frac{4}{n^2 \pi^2} \exp\left(-\frac{n^2 \pi^2 \kappa x}{d^2 V}\right) \end{aligned}$$

To get the vertical advective heat transport, we simply resolve the heat flux vector,

$$Q_{\text{vertical}}(x) = -\rho C_p (T_1 - T_0) V d \sin \phi \sum_{n \text{ odd}} \frac{4}{n^2 \pi^2} \exp\left(-\frac{n^2 \pi^2 \kappa x}{d^2 V}\right).$$

The buoyancy force in the dip-direction (the slab pull force) is given (per length of trench) by

$$F_{\text{SP}} = \rho g \alpha \sin \phi \int_{x=0}^L \int_{y=0}^d (T_1 - T) \, dy \, dx$$

where L is the length of slab. Integration yields

$$F_{\text{SP}} = \rho g \alpha (T_1 - T_0) \sin \phi \sum_{n \text{ odd}} \frac{4}{n^4 \pi^4} \frac{d^3 V}{\kappa} \left(1 - \exp\left(-\frac{n^2 \pi^2 \kappa L}{d^2 V}\right)\right).$$

9 From the lecture notes, the solution for the deflection is

$$w(x) = e^{-x/\alpha} \left(A \cos \frac{x}{\alpha} + B \sin \frac{x}{\alpha} \right)$$

where

$$\alpha^4 = \frac{4D}{g(\rho_m - \rho_w)}.$$

Now

$$\frac{dw}{dx} = \frac{e^{-x/\alpha}}{\alpha} \left((B - A) \cos \frac{x}{\alpha} - (A + B) \sin \frac{x}{\alpha} \right)$$

If plate remains unbroken, $dw/dx = 0$ at $x = 0 \implies A = B$. Hence

$$w(x) = Ae^{-x/\alpha} \left(\cos \frac{x}{\alpha} + \sin \frac{x}{\alpha} \right)$$

a) $w = 0$ where $\cos \frac{x}{\alpha} + \sin \frac{x}{\alpha} = 0 \implies \tan \frac{x}{\alpha} = -1 \implies \frac{x}{\alpha} = \frac{3\pi}{4} + n\pi$. The first point where $w = 0$ is at $x_0 = \frac{3\pi}{4}\alpha$.

b) The forebulge is where $dw/dx = 0 \implies \sin \frac{x}{\alpha} = 0 \implies x_b = \pi\alpha$.

From the Figure, $x_b \approx 250$ km.

$$T_e = \left(\frac{12D(1 - \sigma^2)}{E} \right)^{1/3} = \left(\frac{3\alpha^4 g(\rho_m - \rho_w)(1 - \sigma^2)}{E} \right)^{1/3} = \left(\frac{3x_b^4 g(\rho_m - \rho_w)(1 - \sigma^2)}{\pi^4 E} \right)^{1/3} \approx \underline{\underline{32 \text{ km}}}.$$