

1       **Title: Is the Dynamic Topography signal of the Yellowstone hot spot preserved in**  
2 **the compound topography of the North American plate?**

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4       **Abstract**

5       The Yellowstone caldera is one surface manifestation of a mantle plume, however,  
6 translation of a lithospheric plate over a mantle plume creates dynamic topography that  
7 advects through the plate at the rate of plate motion with respect to the mantle. A wave  
8 of surface and rock uplift accompanies this advection of dynamic topography. Previous  
9 studies of the Yellowstone region have reached two differing conclusions as to whether  
10 the plume is expressed topographically. The first is that the high topography  
11 (Yellowstone Crescent of High Terrain ‘YCHT’), localized seismicity (the ‘tectonic  
12 parabola’), and a geoid high centered on Yellowstone are thought to represent plume  
13 forcing of late Cenozoic tectonics and landscape evolution. The second conclusion is that  
14 climate change is the principal driver of landscape evolution in this region. The  
15 Yellowstone plume topographic signal, however, is complicated by contributions from  
16 plume-related bimodal volcanism, basin and range extension, early Cenozoic arc  
17 volcanism, and Laramide contraction to the polygenetic regional topography. In this  
18 paper we examine and analyze digital elevation data for the Greater Yellowstone Region  
19 to assess the multiple wavelengths of compounded topography to test the existence of  
20 long wavelength and low amplitude contribution to elevation from the Yellowstone hot  
21 spot.

22  
23       **Introduction**

24       Numerous investigations demonstrate that mantle convective processes such as  
25 upwelling affect the surface topography of the overriding plate (Rowley et al., 2013;  
26 Flament et al., 2013; Moucha and Forte, 2011; Duller et al., 2012; Burov and Cloetingh,  
27 2009; Saunders et al, 2007; King and Redmond, 2007; Lowry et al., 2000; Wheeler et al.,  
28 2000; Gurnis et al, 2000; O’Connell, 1998; Lithgow Bertelloni and Gurnis, 1997; Gurnis,  
29 1990; Hager et al., 1985.). The surface expression of this upwelling has been coined

30 'dynamic topography' (Flament et al, 2013). The earliest development of the dynamic  
31 topography concept focused on homogeneous oceanic lithosphere (Von Herzen et al.,  
32 1982). Forcing of continental surfaces by mantle processes apparently explains a diverse  
33 range of phenomena including drainage reorganization of continent-scale rivers, patterns  
34 of uplift and subsidence in mountain belts, and marine inundation of continents (Nereson  
35 et al, 2013; Braun et al, 2013; Karlstrom et al, 2012; Peyton et al., 2012; Shephard et al.,  
36 2010; Carminati et al., 2009; Wegmann et al., 2007; Saleeby and Foster, 2004).  
37 Advection of dynamic topography occurs when lithospheric plates move with respect to  
38 the mantle (Braun et al., 2013; Riihimaki et al., 2007; Pierce and Morgan, 1992; Von  
39 Herzen et al., 1982; Morgan, 1971). Dynamic topography is thus transient with respect to  
40 position in a continent and moves as a wave through continental lithosphere. Whereas  
41 orogenic processes create high amplitude ( $\leq 4$  km) and variable (10 – 100's km)  
42 wavelength topography in the continents (Molnar, 1988), low amplitude ( $\ll 1$  km) and  
43 long wavelength (100 to 1000's km) characterizes dynamically supported topography  
44 (Rowley et al., 2013; Braun, 2010; Lowry et al., 2000). Identification of the surface  
45 expression and effects of advecting dynamic topography is thus complicated by inherited  
46 topography and the wavelength, amplitude, and transient nature of the mantle forcing on  
47 the surface of continental lithosphere (Braun, 2010).

48 An example of active dynamic topography in the North American plate is thought to  
49 result from a mantle thermal anomaly beneath the Yellowstone Volcanic Field, the so-  
50 called Yellowstone hotspot (Schmandt and Humphreys, 2012; Smith et al., 2009; Pierce  
51 and Morgan, 2009; 1992; King and Redmond, 2007; Humphreys et al., 2000; Lowry et  
52 al., 2000) Evidence for dynamic topography associated with the Yellowstone hotspot  
53 includes: (1) the highest geoid anomaly (Figure...) in North America corresponds with  
54 the Yellowstone region (Lowry et al., 2000); (2) a topographic swell of 400-1000 km in  
55 diameter centered on the Yellowstone caldera (Smith et al, 2009); and (3) a parabolic  
56 region of high topography/relief and concentrated seismicity that apparently surrounds  
57 the caldera (Anders et al., 1989; Pierce and Morgan, 1992; 2009). Deconvolving the  
58 signal of dynamic topography associated with the Yellowstone hotspot is complicated by  
59 the fact that the volcanic center migrated into a region of crustal thickening and  
60 paleotopography (Becker et al, 2013; Lowry et al., 2000), which is revealed by the strong

61 correlation between Laramide structures such as the Beartooth Mountains, the Bighorn  
62 Basin, and the Bighorn Range with the detailed structure of the geoid (Figs. 1 and 2).  
63 Whereas some authors argue that advection of the dynamic topography has forced the  
64 Pliocene to recent landscape evolution of the greater Yellowstone region (Wegmann et  
65 al., 2007; Pierce and Morgan, 1992; Anders et al., 1989), models suggest that a well-  
66 established switch from subsidence to incision in the Bighorn and other basins thought to  
67 be affected by the hotspot is better explained by Pliocene to Recent climate change than  
68 by rock uplift associated dynamic topography (Riihimaki and Reiners, 2012; Riihimaki et  
69 al., 2007). Thus in spite of the fact that a mantle thermal anomaly underlies the North  
70 American plate beneath the Yellowstone region (Smith et al., 2009; Pierce and Morgan,  
71 2009; Saunders et al., 2007; Riihimaki et al., 2007; Humphreys et al., 2000; Lowry et al.,  
72 2000), neither the signal of the associated dynamic topography nor the impact on  
73 landscape evolution are uniquely identifiable (Nereson et al, 2013; Karlstrom et al., 2012;  
74 Wobus et al., 2012; Riihimaki et al., 2007; McMillan et al., 2006)

75 In this paper, we assess the existence of a topographic swell associated with the  
76 Yellowstone hotspot by analyzing digital elevation datasets and relating regional  
77 topographic observations to 3-D P wave ( $V_p$ ) travel-time tomography models for western  
78 North America (Schmandt and Humphries, 2010; 2012). First we apply low pass filters  
79 to progressively remove shorter wavelength and variable amplitude signals to reveal long  
80 wavelength, >400 km topography (Flament et al, 2013). Second, we present swath  
81 profiles of the GY/SRP region to identify mean elevation values and analyze the relief  
82 structure of the GY/SRP region. Third, we present stream profile analysis results for  
83 selected streams draining different areas of the proposed swell. Finally, we parameterize  
84 known values for the Yellowstone plume into a model for advection a topographic swell  
85 and resulting erosion to better constrain the potential for a geomorphic signature of the  
86 hotspot in North America (Braun et al, 2013).

### 87 **Geologic Setting**

88 Hotspots are generally identified on the earth's surface by linear, age-progressive  
89 volcanic centers (Bonatti et al., 1977). Debate within the geophysical community  
90 continues as to the origin of mantle hotspots. Early views argued that hotspots  
91 represented mantle plumes that rise from mantle anomalies at the Core-Mantle boundary

92 (Morgan, 1971). More recent studies indicate that mantle plumes form at a variety of  
93 depths and that they may follow an upward path dictated by convective processes  
94 (Steinberger and O'Connell, 2000).

95 Whether the Yellowstone hotspot formed due to mantle plume processes is debated as  
96 well. One camp argues that crustal processes localize magmatism at Yellowstone  
97 (Christiansen et al., 2002). Geophysical data cited by Christiansen et al. suggest that a  
98 thermal anomaly beneath the Yellowstone caldera resides near the base of the North  
99 American plate and extends no deeper than 200 km. Alternatively, the wealth of  
100 geophysical data gathered by Earthscope and modeling results and observations  
101 project demonstrate that the thermal structure beneath Yellowstone is complex, but that a  
102 distinct thermal anomaly exists to depths of 660 – 700 km (Schmandt and Humphreys  
103 2012; Humphreys et al., 2000; Smith et al., 2009). A complex plume thus links the  
104 hotspot at surface to depths of ~700 km in the mantle. Regardless of the depth of origin,  
105 there is strong evidence to suggest the existence of a mantle upwelling that has  
106 contributed to the volcanic, tectonic, and topographic evolution of the Greater  
107 Yellowstone region (Refer to Swath profile/p-wave velocities data).  $V_p$  at 100 km depth  
108 beneath the GY/SRP region indicates that the slowest travel times for these waves is  
109 correlated with the position of the Yellowstone Volcanic field, making the transition from  
110 Yellowstone to the surrounding areas the largest velocity gradient in Western North  
111 America.

112 The voluminous eruptions of the Columbia River and Steens Mountain flood basalts  
113 are considered to be the earliest record of Yellowstone hotspot activity (Parson et al,  
114 1998). An northeastward-younging progression of volcanic centers from eastern Oregon  
115 to the Yellowstone caldera constrain the direction and rate of motion of the North  
116 American plate with respect to the mantle thermal anomaly (Fig. 1) (Pierce and Morgan,  
117 2009). The first volcanic centers formed at 15 Ma (the McDermitt complex) and then  
118 between 13.8 and 12 Ma (the Owyhee-Humboldt complex) (Pierce and Morgan, 1992).  
119 Calderas from southwest to northeast distributed along the Snake River Plain include the  
120 Bruneau-Jarbridge, which was an active rhyolitic eruptive center from 12.5-11.2 Ma, the  
121 Picabo Volcanic Field (PVF; Fig.1) was active between 10.3 and 8 Ma, the Heise  
122 volcanic complex (HVF; Fig.1) was active from 6-4 Ma, and finally the Yellowstone

123 Volcanic Field (YVF; Fig.1) formed after 2 Ma (Pierce and Morgan, 1992). Volcanism at  
124 each individual volcanic center lasted approximately 2 Ma. Roughly 150-200 km  
125 separates each center. Spacing between the eruptive centers suggests that rate of plate  
126 motion with respect to the mantle slowed from 7 cm/yr to 2.9 cm/yr after 10 Ma (Pierce  
127 and Morgan, 1992).

128 The Yellowstone Volcanic Field developed in crust characterized by significant  
129 paleotopography as the result of Late Mesozoic – Early Cenozoic Crustal shortening and  
130 middle Cenozoic volcanism. Crustal shortening during the Laramide orogeny between 75  
131 and 50 Ma created the Bighorn Basin due to uplift of the Beartooth-Absaroka Mountains  
132 on the west, Pryor mountains in the north, Bighorn mountains in the east and Owl Creek  
133 mountains in the south (Fig. 1) (Blackstone, 1986). Basement rocks in the core of these  
134 ranges mountains are Archean aged (>2.5 Ga) and represent an exposed portion of the  
135 Wyoming Craton, an early building block of the North American plate (Hoffman, 1988).  
136 Syntectonic alluvial fan deposits preserved along the fringe of the Bighorn Basin suggests  
137 that Laramide crustal shortening created topographic relief in excess of 1-2 km between  
138 ~73 and 55 Ma (DeCelles et al., 1991; DeCelles and al, 1987). More than 5 km of  
139 sediment accumulated in the Bighorn Basin between the early Paleogene and Pliocene  
140 (Dickinson et al., 1988). Apatite fission track cooling ages from samples in the Bearooth  
141 Mountains range from 61 to 52 Ma document cooling associated with this thrust event  
142 (Omar et al., 1994). Track length modeling indicates a second period of cooling started  
143 between 15 and 5 Ma and continues to the present. A period of arc magmatism in the  
144 Eocene associated with rapid shallow subduction of the Farallon plate followed the  
145 Laramide orogeny (Feeley, 2003). The easternmost extent of volcanism is the Absaroka  
146 volcanic center, a 55-45 Ma event in the ranges that bound the southwestern edge of the  
147 Bighorn Basin (Fig. 1).

148 Mantle flow explains some geoid anomalies observed at the earth's surface, flow that  
149 arises from density contrasts and or temperature anomalies within the mantle (Hager et  
150 al., 1985). Long wavelength (>1000 km) variations of the Earth's geoid have been  
151 interpreted as the topographic expression of deeper mantle convective processes (Hager  
152 et al., 1985; Lithgow-Bertelloni and Silver, 1998). The highest geoid anomaly observed  
153 in the continental United States is centered on the Yellowstone Volcanic Field (Fig. 1)

154 (Smith et al., 2009; Pierce and Morgan, 1992). Geoid anomalies combine the effects of  
155 uncompensated high topography as well as zones that are underlain by lower  
156 density/hotter material (Hager et al., 1985; Smith et al, 2009). The geoid anomaly  
157 centered on Yellowstone is over +12 m higher than the surrounding area, which translates  
158 to a positive gravity anomaly of 35 mGals, is thought to reflect the mantle hotspot (Smith  
159 et al., 2009).

160 The series of subaerial volcanic centers represent the primary evidence of the track of  
161 the Yellowstone hotspot through the North American plate (Fig. 1) (Christiansen, 2001).  
162 A parabolic region of seismicity and active crustal faulting reflects active deformation of  
163 the North American plate beyond the limits of the present caldera (Anders et al, 1989).  
164 Anders et al (1989) suggest the ‘tectonic parabola’ region is created as the plate passes  
165 over the hotspot. Three nested regions define the parabola: a leading/outer periphery of  
166 low seismicity, an intermediate region of concentrated active seismicity, and an aseismic  
167 interior (Fig. 2). The Snake River Plain occupies the ‘collapse’ interior region and defines  
168 the axis of symmetry of the parabola. The modern caldera lies on the axis of symmetry  
169 within the intermediate, active region of the parabola.

170 Pierce and Morgan (1992; 2009) were the first to argue that Yellowstone hotspot is  
171 expressed topographically. They described the Yellowstone Crescent of High Terrain  
172 (YCHT) as being similar to the bow-wave of a ship, a topographic wave where incipient  
173 uplift is defined by an area of waxing topography, the apex of uplift in the region of  
174 highest topography, and a region of waning topography with subsidence in the wake of  
175 the topographic wave (Fig. 2). The YCHT also describes a parabolic region, which  
176 although larger in scale, includes Anders et al.’s (1989) tectonic parabola. They attribute  
177 the region around the modern caldera and the high relief topography of the Beartooth  
178 Mountains to define the axis of the YCHT. On the basis of comparison with oceanic  
179 hotspots and on the correspondence between the geoid high and the caldera, Pierce and  
180 Morgan maintain that the YCHT resulted from deformation of the North American plate  
181 above the mantle plume. Migration of and tilting of streams away from the YCHT in the  
182 Bighorn, Yellowstone, and Wind River basins is interpreted to reflect incipient uplift as  
183 the hotspot migrated northeastward with respect to North America (Pierce and Morgan,  
184 1992; 2009).

185 Lowry et al (2000) synthesized elevation data, gravity, crustal-scale seismic refraction,  
186 and surface heat flow data in an attempt to isolate the dynamic topography from the  
187 region of high elevation centered on the Yellowstone Volcanic Field. Recognizing that  
188 the topography reflects the integrated effects of tectonism, volcanism, plate properties,  
189 and mantle buoyancy, their model sequentially subtracted the inferred contribution of  
190 each variable to arrive at the dynamically supported topography. Model results reveal  
191 dynamic topography that is asymmetric in the direction of plate motion, with a gentle SW  
192 slope and steep NE slope, has an amplitude approaching 2 km, and has a ~1000 km  
193 wavelength (Fig. 2). A curious and unexplained result of their analysis is that the  
194 maximum dynamically supported topography is centered on the NE edge of the Snake  
195 River Plain to the southwest of the caldera, the YCHT, and the parabola of active  
196 seismicity (Fig. 2).

## 197 **Methods**

### 198 *Digital Elevation Analysis*

199 We performed analyses of 30m Shuttle Radar Topography Mission for the Greater  
200 Yellowstone/Snake River Plain (GY/SRP) using ArcGIS 10.21 and Matlab. The purpose  
201 of the analyses is to characterize topography at a scale that approximates the wavelength  
202 of dynamic mantle processes that underlie the GY/SRP region (Lowry et al, 2000 ;  
203 Humphreys et al, 2000; Smith et al, 2009; Schmandt and Humphreys, 2010) that underlie  
204 the GY/SRP. We then compare topographic analyses results to geophysical data  
205 including upper mantle % deviation of  $V_p$  velocity (Schmandt and Humphries, 2010) and  
206 geoid anomaly values (EGM, 2008) for the region.

### 207 *Low-Pass Filters*

208 We applied low pass filters to 30 m void-filled Shuttle Radar Topography Mission  
209 (SRTM) data in ArcGIS 10.21. First, we made a mosaic using the individual DEM. The  
210 size of the filter reflects the wavelength of the smoothed topography. Progressive  
211 smoothing allows the removal of a high frequency and amplitude signal that contributes  
212 to masking any surface expression of the dynamically supported swell. For example, a  
213 100 km filter removes all topographic features that have a wavelength that is <100 km  
214 and preserves all topographic features that are >100 km (Wegmann et al., 2007). The  
215 DEM was first resampled to a 50 m resolution in ArcMap. The neighborhood statistics

216 tool was used to apply three low pass filters at variable  $\lambda$  to the dataset : 100 km, 200 km,  
217 and 250 km. A moving window, the size which corresponds to  $\lambda$ , was passed through the  
218 DEM and calculated mean elevation for the total number of pixels contained within  $\lambda$ ,  
219 and the resulting mean values was re-plotted in each individual pixel.

### 220 *Swath Profiles*

221 Minimum, Mean, and Maximum elevation measurements were calculated from 30m  
222 DEM SRTM dataset. Swath profile width ranged from 80-120 km, and length ranges  
223 from Swath profiles allow extraction of mean elevation data which is useful for assessing  
224 longer wavelength topographic features and removes noise associated with shorter  
225 wavelength topography and high relief. Mean elevation permits first order observations  
226 of tectonic processes that support crustal elevation (Cassel et al., 20012; Coblenz et al.,  
227 2007).

228 Swath profiles were extracted from the SRTM dataset. The target swath area was  
229 outlined with a user-created polygon, and then, equal length line features were drawn  
230 parallel to the polygon with equal spacing between the lines. Swaths were between 75  
231 and 100 km wide, and lines were drawn at 5 km intervals. Distance and elevation profiles  
232 were extracted for each individual line and inserted into a spreadsheet. Maximum,  
233 minimum, and mean elevations were extracted for each length segment with simple MS  
234 Excel functions (Figure...and...). This manual method of extracting swath profiles  
235 permitted us to extract a swath profile along the Snake River Plane/track of the  
236 Yellowstone Hot Spot (figure 3a), which does not follow a straight path.

237

### 238 ***Model***

239 Braun et al (2013) published a model for predicting the first order surface  
240 expression of dynamic topography. A Gaussian function (eq 1) permits an approximation  
241 to topography forced by upwelling in a mantle plume with a head width of  $2\lambda$  beneath a  
242 plate that moves at velocity  $v$  in  $x$  direction, where  $z_0$  is the maximum expected amplitude  
243 of dynamic topography, and  $t$  is time.

244 Eq. 1  $z(x)=z_0e^{-\frac{(x-vt)^2}{\lambda^2}}$

245 The rates of uplift and subsidence as the plate passes over the plume head is described as:

246 Eq. 2  $z(x)=v \frac{dz}{dx}=2vz_0(x-vt)/\lambda^2 *e^{-\frac{(x-vt)^2}{\lambda^2}}$

247 In MATLAB, we applied the best available estimated parameters for the Yellowstone  
248 plume, which has a width of 100 km (Smith et al, 2009) and a plate motion for North  
249 America over the plume head of 2.9 cm yr<sup>-1</sup> (Pierce and Morgan, 2009) to these to  
250 equations to have a first order prediction of the uplift, subsidence and incision rates that  
251 could occur in the North American Plate as it passes over the Yellowstone plume.

### 252 *Stream Profile Analysis*

253 Observations from streams around the world on the relationship between local  
254 channel gradient (S) and contributing area (A) have allowed for analysis and  
255 interpretation of river profiles to understand landscape evolution forcing mechanisms  
256 (Wobus et al, 2006). When a stream is at equilibrium or grade, meaning, it is neither in  
257 an erosive or aggradational regime (Mackin, 1948), the slope of the channel can be  
258 expressed as:

$$259 \text{ Eq. (3) } S = k_s A^\theta$$

260 Where  $k_s$  is a measure of channel steepness, or the ‘channel steepness index’ and  $\theta$  is a  
261 measure of how the slope varies with changes in contributing drainage area, also known  
262 as the ‘concavity index’ (Rosenberg et al, 2013). Our analysis in TecDEM normalizes  $k_s$   
263 to  $k_{sn}$  in order to compare streams with different drainage areas, because small variations  
264 in the concavity index can lead to large variations in the channel’s slope.  $k_{sn}$  is calculated  
265 using a fixed reference  $\theta$  of 0.45 (Snyder et al., 2000, Wobus et al., 2003; 2006). A  
266 stream profile that does not have a monotonical concave up profile expresses a transient  
267 disturbance (or convexity). Disturbances to graded profiles may result from lithological  
268 contrasts (Pederson, 2013), fault boundaries (Wobus et al, 2006; Kirby and Whipple,  
269 2012), or climate control of discharge (Snyder, 2001).

270 Recent work suggests that stream profile analysis is useful in understanding  
271 differential rock uplift and permanent deformation of the crust in areas forced by long  
272 wavelength sub-lithospheric processes that have a low amplitude surface expression  
273 (Karlstrom et al (2012), Pederson et al (2013), and Rosenberg et al (2013)).

274 In this paper, we use stream profile analysis as a preliminary assessment tool of  
275 long wavelength deformation in waxing and waning regions of the proposed dynamic  
276 topography swell. In both cases, the streams should be out of equilibrium. We selected  
277 streams that are in regions predicted to be of incipient uplift to the east and north of YFV:

278 Greybull, North, and South Forks of the Shoshone river; We also selected streams in  
279 regions that are predicted to be actively subsiding, to the west and southwest of the YVF:  
280 Snake and Henrys Fork rivers. Stream data were extracted and analyzed with the Matlab-  
281 based TecDEM from 90m SRTM datasets (Shahazad and Gloaguen, 2012a; 2012b).

282 Slope/Area plots were extracted from the longitudinal stream profiles to MS  
283 Excel from Matlab. We calculated slope averages for every 10 kilometers along the  
284 longitudinal profile, and plotted the data in log/log space. This permitted us to remove  
285 the knickpoint created by the Buffalo Bill Dam and Reservoir system in the Shoshone  
286 River drainage. *Slope/Area plots for the Snake and Henrys fork River are on their way.*

287

## 288 **Results**

### 289 *Swath Profile Results*

290 The purpose of the swath profiles is to identify and assign the range of wavelengths  
291 attributable to various forcing mechanisms that have shaped the GY/SRP region. Mean  
292 elevation calculation is necessary to identify regionally extensive high elevation and  
293 limits confusion that arises from attributing high relief to high elevation (Burbank et al,  
294 1997). The swath profiles aid in characterizing regional topographic features and relating  
295 them to other datasets. The three swath profiles that are presented here help describe  
296 long wavelength dynamic topography in three dimensions. The principal wavelengths of  
297 topography that we identified are: volcanic (<30 km wavelength, <1 km amplitude), non-  
298 glacial climate (<1 km wavelength, <0.5 km amplitude), glacial climate (<20 km  
299 wavelength, <2 km amplitude), Basin and Range tectonic (< 50km wavelength, <2 km  
300 amplitude), Laramide tectonic (<200 km wavelength, <2.5 km amplitude), Dynamic  
301 topography signal (<800 km wavelength, <1.5 km amplitude).

302 The principal feature that all three profiles share is the Yellowstone Volcanic  
303 Field, which is represented by YVF in Fig 5. In A-A', the caldera is between km 690-  
304 710; in B-B' it is between km 380-400; and in C-C' is between km 260-and 300. The  
305 caldera is identifiable from by the comparatively lack of relief when it is compared to the  
306 area surrounding it. There are two clear examples in profile A-A' of the volcanic  
307 topographic signal, those are the Picabo and Heise Volcanic Fields (PVF and HVF,

308 respectively). These are regions of no relief and all three show the distinctive caldera  
309 shape associated with the formation of these features.

310 The non-glacial climate topographic signal could be considered to be 'noise' in  
311 the overall topography signal. The low wavelength (<1 km) and low amplitude (0.5 km)  
312 does not seem to provide much variation throughout the swath profile when considering  
313 the full length of the swaths.

314 The glacial climate signal is clearly expressed in profiles A-A'. It has a  
315 wavelength of <20 km and an amplitude of <2 km. In A-A', between km 790 and 810  
316 displays a significant amount of relief (difference between minimum and maximum  
317 elevation), and showing the characteristic nearly horizontal profile associated with  
318 glaciated valley floors minimum elevation.

319 Basin and Range tectonic signal is detectable in profiles B-B', between km 100  
320 and 250; and C-C', between km 0-200. Basin and range topography is characterized by  
321 graben and tilt block sequences that have a high mean elevation (+1 km).

322 The Laramide tectonic signal is in the 100-200 km wavelength and is identifiable  
323 in all three swath profiles. In A-A', it is located between km 750 and 850, Beartooth  
324 mountains and between km 850-950 which is the Bighorn basin. In B-B', the Beartooth  
325 mountains and Bighorn basin appear again, and however the evidence for this signal is  
326 strengthened by the inclusion of the Bighorn Bountains , that are between kms 600-680.  
327 In profile C-C', the Laramide contribution to topography is preserved between km 375  
328 and 550 in the form of the Wind river range and basin, this appears because the swath  
329 was taken parallel to the NW-SE trend of the range and basin, meaning that this is the  
330 longest possible signal for a Laramide contribution to topography.

331 In all three profiles there is a broad regional high mean elevation swell, there are  
332 few places where the mean elevation is <1 km. We interpret the broad high mean  
333 elevations in all three swaths to correspond the long wavelength topography.

#### 334 *Topographic Filtering Results*

335 Identifying the multiple wavelengths of topography preserved in the GY/SRP region  
336 permits us to determine the size of the filter to be applied to SRTM dataset. By filtering  
337 all wavelengths <200 km allows for a reasonable identification of long wavelength  
338 topography (citation...). We present results of progressive filtering from 50-250 km in

339 Fig 4. Each figure includes progressive removal of shorter wavelength topography,  
340 revealing an asymmetric distribution of elevation that matches the shape of A-A' profile,  
341 suggesting that the shape of the swell in north America is comparable to that of a wave.

342

### 343 *Modeling Results*

344 Parameterization of Braun et al.'s (2013) model of advection of a topographic swell with  
345 best available estimates/data for the Yellowstone plume (Smith et al., 2009; Humphreys  
346 et al., 2000). Plate velocity,  $v$ , is 2.9 cm/yr (Pierce and Morgan, 1992), the maximum  
347 displacement is 0.5 km (Smith et al., 2009), and the plume half-width is 100 km (Smith et  
348 al. 2009). Line colors correspond to time. Dashed lines correspond to tectonic features,  
349 WBB – Western Bighorn Basin, CBB – Central Bighorn Basin. Model replicates position  
350 of the topographic swell at 10.3 Ma (Picabo) and shows migration of the swell to its  
351 present at the Yellowstone caldera (0.64 Ma). The model makes predictions for rate of  
352 uplift/subsidence based on the advection rate of the swell. The model predicts that there  
353 should be differential uplift in the space that separates the western edge of the Bighorn  
354 Basin (WBB) from the central Bighorn Basin (CBB), and the eastern edge of the basin  
355 (EBB, not shown). These are regions that are on the periphery of the predicted zone of  
356 influence of the Yellowstone dynamic topography.

### 357 *Stream Profile Analysis Results*

358 Results from stream profile analysis for selected streams in areas inferred to be  
359 under the influence of the Yellowstone swell are presented. Streams in the waxing  
360 topography are the Greybull North Fork and South Fork Shoshone. Streams in the waning  
361 topography are the Henrys Fork and Falls River.

362 The profile of the Greybull river, figure 7C contains two significant knickpoints.  
363 Once at Km 20 and one at Km 100. The 20km knickpoint corresponds a glacial cirque  
364 in the upper reaches of the drainage. The knickpoint at km 100 does not correspond to  
365 any other feature that has been identified by DEM, topographic, or geologic maps.  
366 There are four distinct breaks in slope that are identifiable in figure 7f, the first one  
367 corresponds to the upstream cirque, the second to the previously mentioned unidentified  
368 profile convexity, the third, which is the largest break in slope corresponds to the

369 bedrock-alluvial transition, and the final break in slope corresponds to the confluence  
370 with the Bighorn River near the town of Greybull.

371 *I am still working on getting Ksn and the rest of the results from the stream*  
372 *profile analysis values for all streams... main point for results is referring to the various*  
373 *profiles and commenting on the shape of the streams in the leading edge of the dynamic*  
374 *topography (incipient uplift) and the two streams in the subsiding part of the stream.*

### 375 **Discussion**

376 Points to be included in discussion section:

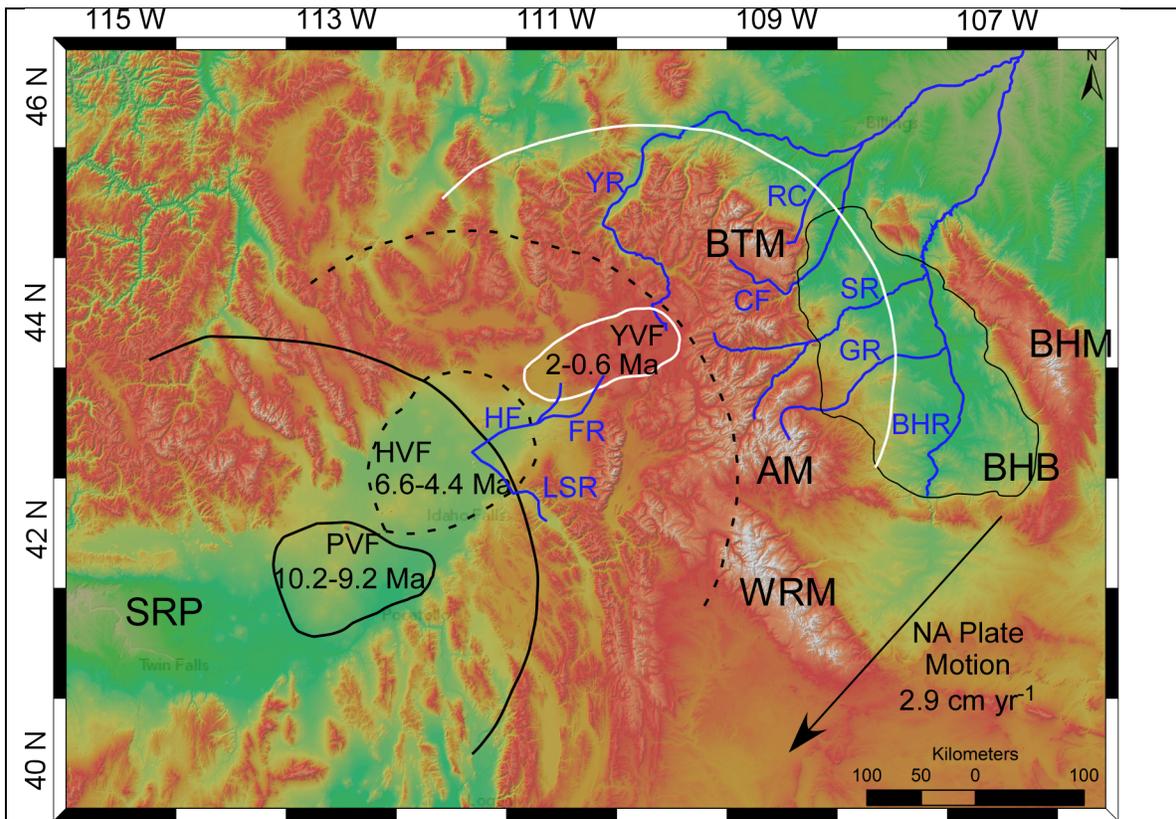
- 377 • Climate contribution to landscape evolution in this region (Riihimaki et al, 2007).
- 378 • Relationship between topography and mantle p-wave datasets.
- 379 • Recent geophysical modeling (Becker et al, 2013)... Update on Lowry et al  
380 model with Earthscope data.
- 381 • Previous studies have focused efforts in regions of high relief, advantages and  
382 disadvantages of doing this.
- 383 • Going to regions of low relief to use geomorphic markers to measure dynamic  
384 topography.
- 385 • The challenge of identifying vertical (amplitude) signal from these methods.

### 386 **Conclusions**

- 387 • There is a clear correlation between mantle temperature and mean elevation in the  
388 GY/SRP region, with highest temperature (slowest  $V_p$  ).
- 389 • Coincidence of highest geoid anomaly values in Western North America centered  
390 in the Greater Yellowstone Area with the high relief Laramide and Absaroka  
391 ranges indicates deep mantle support for the region.
- 392 • Filtered topography reveals topographic swell with steep gradient to the northeast  
393 and less steep to the southwest, which is consistent with swath profile,  
394 temperature gradient, and model results.
- 395 • Stream profile analysis reveals steepening of streams in the waxing topography  
396 and aggradation in the waning topography as the plate passes over the uplift  
397 source.
- 398 • Analysis reveals that region of influence of topographic swell extends beyond the  
399 YCHT and into adjacent Yellowstone and Bighorn basins.

- 400 • Model makes predictions for advection of a swell that should have an uplift  
401 (erosion signal) and subsidence (aggradation signal) as a plate passes over the  
402 plume uplift source.
- 403 • Laramide blocks, Eocene volcanics, and Basin and Range extensional features,  
404 and caldera volcanism that are a part of the region of high relief (YCHT) mask  
405 any signal of dynamic topography, even though this region incorporates the signal  
406 into its complex topography.
- 407 • The bighorn basin and Yellowstone river basins are areas of low relief with a  
408 clear Quaternary erosional history and they are ideal for detecting the surface  
409 expression of the Yellowstone hotspot.

410 **Figure Captions**

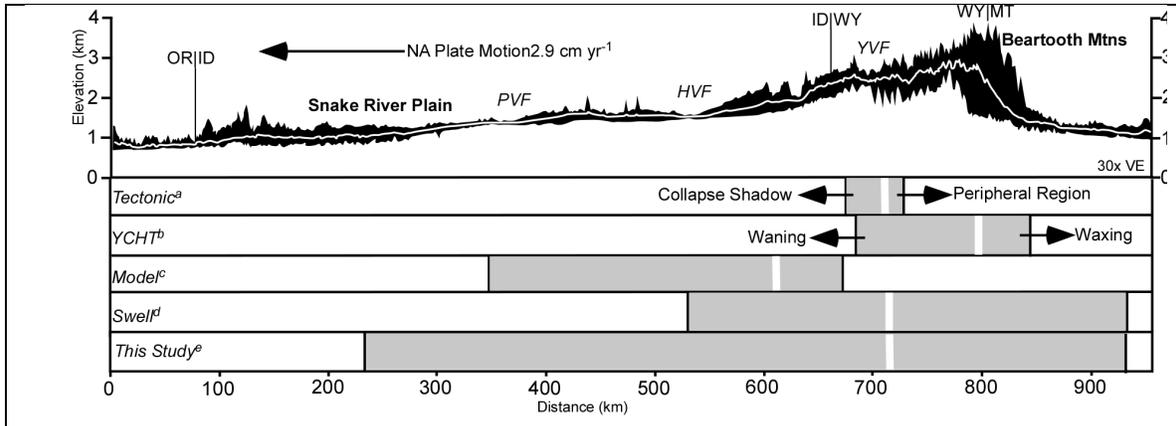


**Figure 1.** Shaded Relief Location Map showing Swell.

Shaded relief DEM showing area of study. Regional map of the Greater Yellowstone area. Individual volcanic centers associated with the hotspot: Picabo (black - PVF; 10.2-9.2 Ma), Heise (black dash - HVF; 6.6-4.4 Ma), and Yellowstone (white - YVF; 2-0.6 Ma). Crescent shaped curves represents the inferred minimum extent of topographic

swell associated with an individual volcanic center (Smith et al, 2009). White polygon is the area covered by swath profile (Fig. 2). Blue abbreviations correspond to major streams in the study area: YR- Yellowstone, CF- Clarks Fork of the Yellowstone, SR- Shoshone, GR- Greybull, BHR- Bighorn River, SR-Snake River, HF-Henry's Fork. Includes major physiographic features of the region: Bighorn Basin (BHB), Beartooth Mountains (BTM), Absaroka Mountains (AM), Wind River Mountains (WRM), Bighorn Mountains (BHM), Snake River Plain (SRP). Highlighted rivers are those associated with this study: Bighorn, Greybull, Shoshone, Clarks Fork, Rock Creek, and Yellowstone.

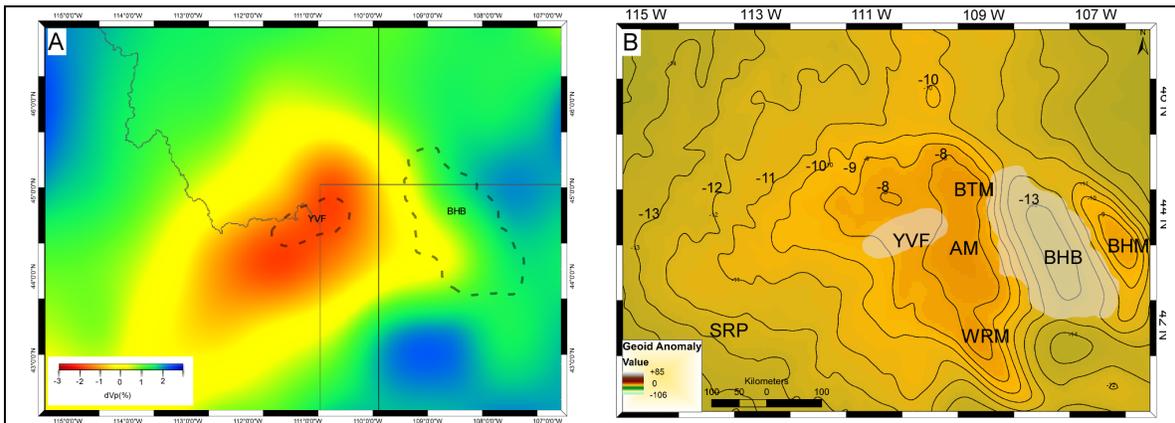
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**Figure 2. Swath Profile with different models.** Profile with maximum, mean, and minimum elevations for a 80 km-wide swath taken along the Snake River Plain, following the track of the Yellowstone hotspot (Pierce and Morgan, 1992), from Oregon/Idaho border (OR|ID), Idaho/Wyoming border (ID|WY), and Wyoming/Montana border (WY|MT). Includes motion vector for North America. Shows location of Picabo (PVF), Heise (HVF), and Yellowstone (YVF) Volcanic Fields. Includes four interpretation of the non-volcanic expression of the Yellowstone hotspot: Tectonic<sup>a</sup>- Tectonic Parabola of Anders et al (1989), Yellowstone VF is the apex of a parabolic region of concentrated seismicity, Peripheral region is the area on the outer edge of the Tectonic Parabola, and collapse shadow is the area that has already been affected by seismicity, Snake River Plain. YCHT<sup>b</sup>- Pierce and Morgan's (1992) Yellowstone Crescent of High Terrain, with Waxing topography ahead of the motion of the swell and waning topography after the terrain has passed over the uplift source. Model<sup>c</sup>- Lowry et

al (2000) model results predicted that the region that would be influenced by dynamic topography. Swell<sup>d</sup>- Smith et al. (2009) proposed a symmetrical swell with its apex centered on the YVF. In each interpretation, the gray shaded area represents the extent of the surface expression of the hotspot and the white band represents the apex of each expression. This study<sup>e</sup>- Results from analysis and data integration lead us to present our assessment for Yellowstone dynamic topography.

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**Figure 3. Geoid Anomaly and mantle %  $V_p$  disturbance map** Geoid anomaly map of the greater Yellowstone region, extracted from the Earth Gravitational Model (2008). Values range from -15m to -8 throughout the study area. Anomaly values for the Yellowstone Volcanic Field (YVF) are between -9 and -8m. Highest geoid anomalies coincide with the Beartooth, Absaroka, Wind River and Bighorn mountains. Sharp decrease in geoid anomaly values between Absaroka and Bighorn mountains coincides with the Bighorn Basin (BHB). High topography supported by deep mantle processes.

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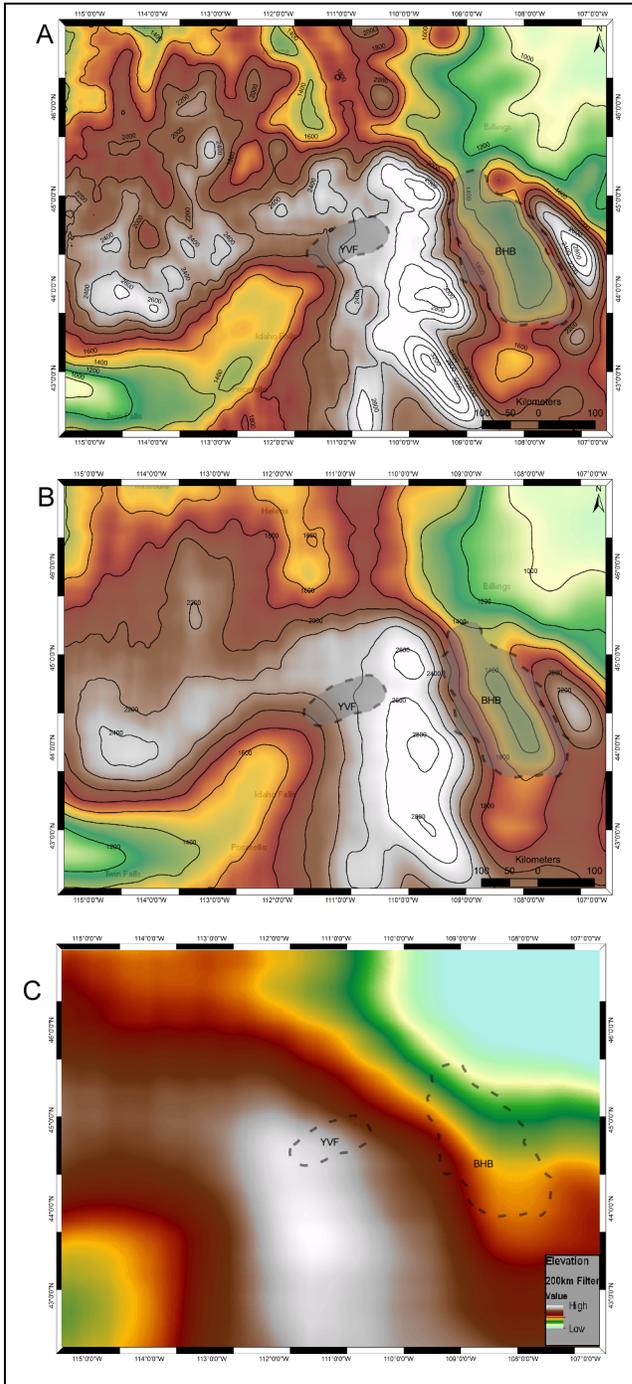
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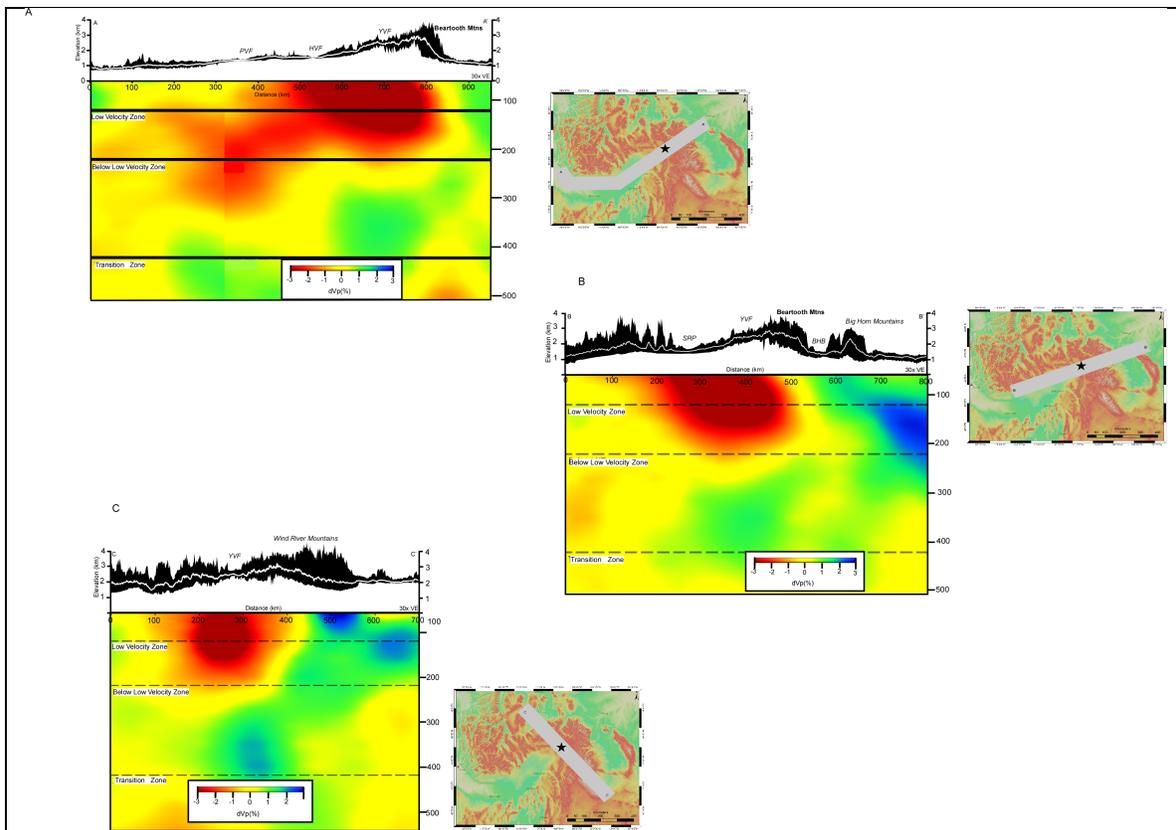
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**Figure 4. Filtered Topography**

Results of low-pass filtering on SRTM data of the Greater Yellowstone/Snake River Plain, progressive smoothing identifies longer wavelength topographic features. A. 50 km filter. B. 150 km filter. C. 250 km filter. The purpose of the topographic filtering to parse variable wavelengths of the multiple forcing signals preserved in the GY/SRP region.



**Figure 5. Swath Profiles with p-wave data** Swath profiles that cross the Yellowstone Volcanic Field (YVF, star) from different directions. A-A': profile along the hot spot track/ snake river plain. B-B': SouthWest –NorthEast, includes northern Bighorn Basin. C-C': NW-SE: Includes Madison and Gallatin in the Northwest, and the Wind River Mountains and Basin in the Southeast.

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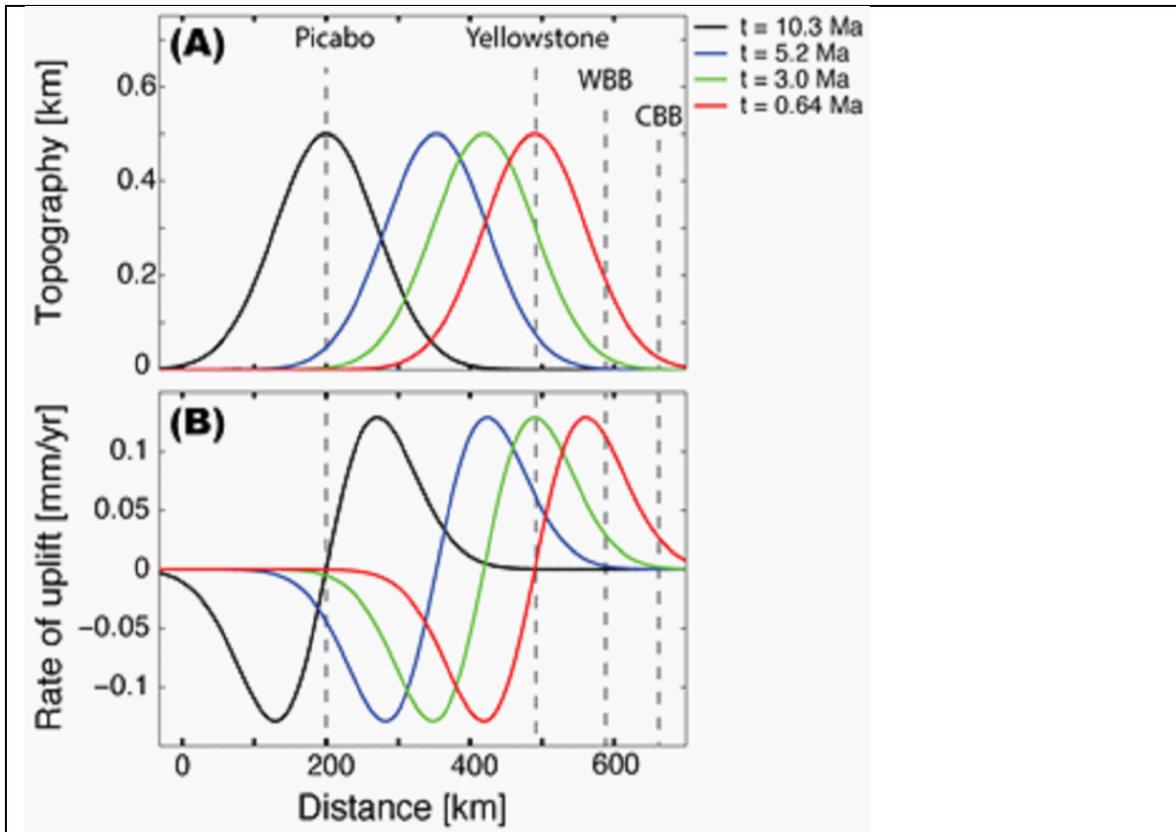
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**Figure 6.** The Braun et al. (2013) analytical solution provides a first order approximation of the effect of dynamic topography on the resultant uplift rate (Fig. 5). Braun et al. begin with a Gaussian function for the topographic uplift due to passing a plate over a plume as a function of plume width, plate velocity and time. Our preliminary application of this model reveals that predicted uplift and uplift rates yield a spatially resolvable pattern in a model North American plate as it passes over the Yellowstone hotspot.

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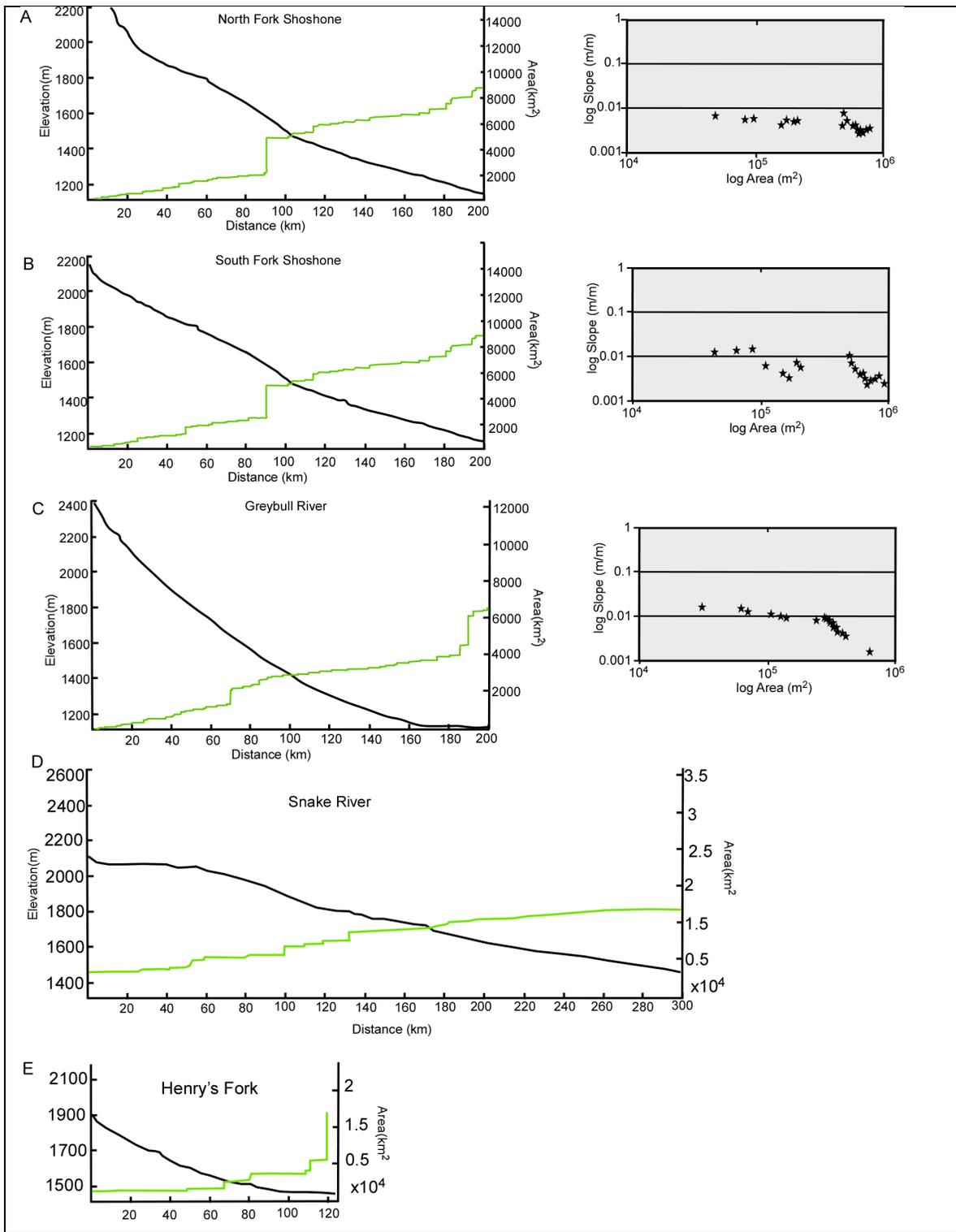
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**Figure 7. Stream profiles, slope/area plots and map showing stream location for:** Greybull, North and South fork Shoshone, Snake and Henry's Fork Rivers. The Greybull, and Shoshone rivers are in the region inferred to be ahead of the wave of

dynamic topography, and the Snake and Henry's Fork rivers are in the area predicted to be subsiding behind the wave of topography after passing the uplift source.

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