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Title: Mesoarchaean aluminous rocks at Storø, southern West Greenland: new age data and evidence of premetamorphic seafloor weathering of basalts

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Keywords: Archaean; Greenland; Supracrustal belt; Storø; Premetamorphic alteration; Seafloor weathering

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Abstract: Metamorphosed Meso- to Neoarchaean supracrustal rocks in the central part of the island of Storø (Nuuk region, southern West Greenland), show field- and geochemical evidence of premetamorphic chemical alteration. This alteration changed basaltic precursors into aluminous lithologies, and following amphibolite grade metamorphism and penetrative ductile deformation, these garnet-biotite schists now resemble adjacent metapelitic schists of sedimentary origin. Mass balance calculations (isocon method), suggests that most major elements (Si, Fe, Mg, Ca, Na and P) were leached during alteration. The calculated overall net mass changes are between -18% and -45%, consistent with breakdown of olivine, pyroxenes, plagioclase and apatite in the basaltic precursor rocks. Major and trace elements such as, K, Cs, Rb, Ba, Pb, Zn, La, Ce were added during this alteration process, whereas high field strength elements (Ti, Al, Zr, Hf and Nb) remained essentially immobile and were thus residually enriched. Interestingly, Th which is generally assumed to be immobile in fluids, was also added during this process. These chemical changes reflect interaction between a basaltic protolith and hydrous fluids that established a new equilibrium and thus a different mineral assemblage. It is proposed that the premetamorphic alteration at Storø was due to low-temperature interaction between seawater and oceanic crust, and thus essentially represents in situ submarine seafloor weathering. This interpretation is consistent with the mass balances reported from welldocumented examples in younger settings.

New U-Pb zircon geochronology from the arc-related mafic sequences at Storø shows that they comprise at least two distinct age groups: an older anorthosite complex dated at 3051.3 ± 2.6 Ma and a younger supracrustal sequence with age brackets between 2840-2710 Ma. The allochthonous nature of these two mafic igneous to sedimentary stacks is consistent with accretionary processes in island arc complexes and a compressional Archaean tectonic setting.



MgO+Fe₂O₃+CaO

 $K_2O + Na_2O$

- Garnet-rich gneisses on Storø have similar immobile element ratios as amphibolites.
- These garnet-rich gneisses were derived from basalts by premetamorphic alteration.
- Isocon mass-balance calculations show similarities to modern seafloor weathering.

1	Mesoarchaean aluminous rocks at Storø, southern West Greenland: new
2	age data and evidence of premetamorphic seafloor weathering of basalts
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11	
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different mineral assemblage. It is proposed that the premetamorphic alteration at Storø was due to low-temperature interaction between seawater and oceanic crust, and thus essentially represents *in situ* submarine seafloor weathering. This interpretation is consistent with the mass balances reported from well-documented examples in younger settings.

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35

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37 weathering

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39 **1. Introduction**

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Metavolcanic belts in Archaean cratons constitute a major source of Au and other metals worldwide (Goldfarb et al., 2001). The origin of the supracrustal host rocks and their common Au deposits have been much debated, especially in polymetamorphosed and deformed rocks where the protoliths are not easily recognisable (e.g. Groves et al., 2003). For instance, the metavolcanic rocks are commonly associated with garnet-rich aluminous schists that superficially appear to be of sedimentary origin, but which lack lithological layering akin to transposed bedding.

Both epithermal, orogenic and volcanogenic-massive-sulfide mineralisation processes are well
understood and closely associated with specific types of hydrothermal alteration and controlled by
host rock compositions and fabrics including porosity and permeability, as well as heat and fluid

50 sources, ambient temperature and hydrostatic pressure gradients (Hedenquist and Lowenstein, 1994; 51 Eilu and Groves, 2001; Herrington et al., 2005). Various low-temperature subaqueous and subaerial 52 weathering processes can also lead to significant chemical alteration (e.g. Alt and Teagle, 2003; 53 Polat et al., 2012). Due to this difficulty in identifying different alteration processes through 54 metamorphic overprint, several orogenic deposits have for example now been reinterpreted as 55 metamorphosed epithermal (and in a few cases volcanogenic-massive-sulfide) deposits (Hallberg, 56 1993; Penczak and Mason, 1999; Bonnet et al., 2005; McFarlane et al., 2007; Owens and Pasek, 57 2007; Garde et al., 2012). Such distinctions are important not least for future Au exploration.

Identifying different types of alteration in highly deformed and metamorphosed rocks can be challenging, because the bulk composition of leached rocks may be similar to that of rocks derived by sedimentary processes. Archaean aluminous schists and gneisses within supracrustal belts in the North Atlantic craton of southern West Greenland have therefore been interpreted as metasedimentary rocks (e.g. Rivalenti and Rossi, 1972), as various kinds of chemically altered (meta)volcanic rocks (e.g. Beech and Chadwick, 1980; Dymek and Smith, 1990; Garde et al., 2007, 2012), or as a combination of both (Smith et al., 1992; Bolhar et al., 2005).

In this paper we describe and discuss the nature of chemical alteration of Archaean arc-related mafic metavolcanic rocks on the island of Storø in Godthåbsfjord, in the central North Atlantic craton of southern West Greenland. It is shown that a conspicuous component of aluminous rocks, which superficially resembles adjacent metasedimentary rocks, likely formed during the interaction between mafic rocks and cold seawater, implying that the combined sequence of mafic metavolcanic and aluminous lithologies are likely to represent a section through Archaean oceanic crust.

We also present new geochronological data, which corroborate that the central part of Storø
comprises at least three different tectonic slices of Eoarchaean to Neoarchaean crust including at

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least two different age groups of mafic rock sequences that were juxtaposed during Neoarchaean
tectonic amalgamation of older magmatic arcs (e.g. Nutman and Friend, 2007).

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77 2. Geological setting

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79 The island of Storø is located in the central part of the largely Mesoarchaean North Atlantic 80 craton that forms most of southern Greenland and continues as the Nain Province in eastern 81 Labrador (Fig. 1; Schiøtte et al., 1989; Schiøtte and Bridgwater, 1990; St-Onge et al., 2009). In 82 southern West Greenland the craton has recently been divided into six tilted crustal blocks that 83 expose the root zones of several convergent andesitic island arc - continental arc systems and 84 oceanic supra-subduction zones (Garde, 2007; Polat et al., 2007; Windley and Garde, 2009; Szilas 85 et al., 2012, 2013a, 2013b). Storø itself is located at the south-eastern margin of the >3000 Ma 86 Fiskefjord block of Windley and Garde (2009), previously referred to as the Akia terrane (e.g. 87 Friend et al., 1996). The complex, collisional Godthåbsfjord-Ameralik belt to its south-east, which 88 also comprises the eastern part of Storø, consists of several smaller terranes of different origin and 89 age that were tectonically assembled and folded at around 2720 Ma (Friend et al., 1996). Following 90 the assembly of the Fiskefjord block and the terranes to the south-east, Storø and adjacent parts of the Godthåbsfjord-Ameralik belt were intruded by c. 2650-2550 Ma granitoid crustal melts 91 92 including the 2550 Ma Qôrqut granite complex (Brown et al. 1981; Friend et al. 1996; Nutman and 93 Friend, 2007; Nutman et al., 2007, 2010). This resulted in an extensive network of granitic 94 pegmatites throughout the supracrustal rocks in central Storø.

The central part of Storø consists of a stack of supracrustal rocks of different age and composition that have been referred to as the 'Storø supracrustal belt' or 'Storø greenstone belt' in the literature, most recently by Scherstén et al. (2012). Existing age data quoted below are from

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98 Scherstén et al. (2012) and stem from GEUS reports cited therein. The supracrustal rocks constitute 99 a major, in part refolded anticlinal structure with a NNW-SSE-trending hinge zone on the mutually 100 facing slopes of the Qingaaq and Aappalaartoq mountains (Fig. 2) and are cut by an inclined, 101 Neoarchaean shear zone along the north-western side of the island. The northern part of the stacked 102 supracrustal and associated metagabbroic and anorthositic rocks on Aappalaartoq have been 103 intruded by Mesoarchaean tonalitic orthogneiss. The south-eastern side of the stack is in presumed 104 tectonic contact with Eoarchaean orthogneiss (previously termed Amîtsog gneisses, now recognised 105 as part of the Itsaq gneiss complex; Nutman et al., 1996). The supracrustal stack includes (1) 106 metavolcanic tholeiitic amphibolite with island-arc geochemical signature yielding a metamorphic 107 U-Pb zircon age of c. 2630 Ma but with a currently unknown protolith age, (2) undated garnet-rich, 108 biotite- and sillimanite-bearing rocks that have previously been interpreted as either sedimentary or 109 altered metavolcanic rocks, and (3) metasedimentary mica schist and biotite gneiss with detrital 110 zircon grains yielding ages of ~2840 Ma, as well as both older and younger metamorphic grains 111 (van Gool et al., 2007). This supracrustal stack is in tectonic contact with (4) remnants of a 112 metagabbro-anorthosite complex intruded by c. 3050 Ma tonalitic orthogneiss.

113 The supracrustal rocks on Storø host a large, subeconomic Au occurrence that has been 114 investigated in detail since the 1990s by surface mapping, geochemical and isotopic studies, drilling 115 and 3D modelling (Grahl-Madsen, 1994; Trepka-Bloch, 1996; Skyseth, 1996; Appel et al., 2003; 116 Hollis, 2005; Scherstén et al., 2012). The occurrence of Au in the supracrustal rocks at central Storø 117 has been investigated in detail in recent years by the exploration company NunaMinerals A/S. Gold 118 mainly occurs in two zones on the north-east-facing slope of the mountain of Qingaaq (Fig. 2; 119 Østergaard and van Gool, 2007; Scherstén et al., 2012). The first, 'BD zone' is strata bound within 120 the above mentioned garnet-rich rocks. The second, 'Main zone' is located in the hinge zone of a 121 nearby Neoarchaean anticlinal fold, where the Au is mainly confined to late quartz veins

(Østergaard and van Gool, 2007). The latter authors proposed a structural model that links formation of the anticline with the above mentioned Neoarchaean shear zone flanking the supracrustal stack. Their model is supported by Re-Os age data from arsenopyrite, which yielded different ages for the two zones, suggesting that Au was introduced into the BD zone at c. 2710 Ma and partly remobilised into the 'Main zone' at c. 2630 Ma (Scherstén et al., 2012). Nutman et al. (2007) also obtained the latter age from U-Pb ion probe geochronology of zircon associated with sulphides in the 'Main zone' and argued that this represents the main Au mineralisation event.

The new Re-Os age data overrule a previously proposed age of ~2863 Ma for the Au mineralisation (Juul-Pedersen et al. 2007), which was based on Pb-Pb isotope data. The latter age likely represents the deposition of the younger volcanic-sedimentary supracrustal sequence on Storø, in agreement with the maximum deposition age of c. 2840 Ma for the metasedimentary rocks reported by van Gool et al. (2007).

Garnet-biotite thermobarometry of the supracrustal rocks on Storø has yielded (minimum) peak metamorphic temperatures of 521-624°C and pressures of 4.5–6.1 kbar (Hollis, 2005; Persson, 2007). This metamorphic event took place at c. 2630 Ma, based on U-Pb data from zircon rims (Hollis, 2005; Nutman et al., 2007).

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139 **3. Field relationships and petrography**

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Detailed observations from a traverse across the Au-hosting 'BD zone' and its wall rocks in the central part of the supracrustal stack on the Qingaaq mountain in central Storø between localities 79 and 83 are presented here (**Fig. 2**). These localities are located in the west-facing slope of 'Lille Qingaaq' below the main mountain top, which can be traversed by foot. The geochemical compositions and element variations in ten samples along the traverse are presented and discussed in subsequent sections. The samples are grouped into the following units from top to bottom: (1)
fragmental to massive amphibolite, (2) garnet-rich gneiss, (3) biotite gneiss and (4) layered
amphibolite.

The traverse begins in fragmental to massive mafic amphibolite in the hanging wall, moves into garnet-rich gneiss of the 'BD zone', crosses the biotite-rich gneiss from which we present new detrital zircon U-Pb age data, and ends in layered amphibolite of variable, mafic to intermediate composition. The latter rocks contain dacitic layers for which we also present new U-Pb age data. The lithological units as employed here are essentially the same as those used in central Storø by van Gool et al. (2007).

155 The hanging wall amphibolite (unit 1) of the traverse consists of a dark, fine- to medium grained, 156 homogeneous to locally layered, and in places fragmental rock mainly composed of hornblende and 157 plagioclase and up to 10% titanite (**Fig. 3a-b**). The metamorphic textures appear well-equilibrated. 158 We interpret these rocks mainly as mafic lava flows, although evidence for a pyroclastic origin has 159 also been documented for rocks from one locality (van Gool et al., 2007). The analysed samples 160 (477610-12) are fresh, homogeneous, fine- to medium-grained hornblende-plagioclase-titanite 161 bearing rocks. Small proportions of garnet and biotite are commonly also observed, especially near the contact with unit 2. Amphibolite sample 477613 at the contact with the garnet-rich gneiss (unit 162 163 2) contains a few per cent almandine garnet.

The garnet-rich gneiss of unit 2 is 1–4 m thick and displays a characteristic, highly variable but diffuse layering. Its contact with the hanging wall amphibolite appears knife-sharp in the field (**Fig. 3b**). The rock has a granular texture. Garnet is mostly evenly distributed within each layer and contains inclusions of staurolite. Foliation is weak or absent, but the crude layering is folded into irregular, open to tight, decimetre-scale folds. The lithological layering and predominant aluminous mineralogy of unit 2 have previously led to the interpretation that these rocks represented metamorphosed pelitic schists of clastic sedimentary origin (Pedersen, 1996; Persson, 2007). However, these rocks do not display any distinct schistosity and do not contain any anatectic granitic veins, unlike genuine metaclaystone or metagreywacke where anatectic veins would be common and widespread at this metamorphic grade. The rocks of unit 2 possess a non-sedimentary aluminous composition that prevents upper amphibolite facies partial melting.

176 Darker parts of the garnet-rich gneiss reveal rounded to elongate, and in some places folded pods and layers of mafic amphibolite about 10-20 cm thick, which contain small proportions of evenly 177 178 distributed garnet, and gradational boundaries into the predominant garnet-rich, amphibole-absent 179 lithologies (Fig. 3c-d). These observations suggest that (1) the garnet-rich gneiss has been derived 180 by chemical alteration of a mafic volcanic precursor, and (2) the alteration took place prior to 181 metamorphism and folding. It has previously been proposed, based on their geochemistry, that such 182 rocks in central Storø represent alteration products (Eilu et al., 2006; Knudsen et al., 2007; Szilas, 183 2008).

184 The biotite gneiss of unit 3 is well-foliated, compositionally layered and fine to medium grained, and comprises biotite, quartz, plagioclase, sillimanite and minor garnet. The biotite gneiss (Fig. 3e-185 186 f) displays gradational compositional layering with sharp internal boundaries suggestive of 187 flattened, transposed and recrystallised graded bedding. Pods and stringers of quartz are common 188 and interpreted as relict premetamorphic quartz veins. Migmatitic melt seams are abundant, as 189 would be expected during high grade metamorphism of claystone. A sedimentary origin is 190 corroborated by a detrital zircon population in sample 477609, with new age data presented below 191 (section 5.2). The contact to the hanging wall garnet-rich gneiss is sharp, but it is difficult to 192 determine if it is primary or tectonic. The biotite gneiss may be equivalent to the biotite (-garnet) 193 gneiss sample 487416 collected approximately 500 m to the north-east (still on the western slope of194 'Lille Qingaaq'), which was described by van Gool et al. (2007).

195 Layered amphibolite (unit 4) forms the footwall sequence below the biotite gneiss (unit 3), with 196 a possible or likely tectonic contact. This unit mainly consists of strongly deformed, grey, biotite-197 bearing amphibolite which occasionally displays a uniform, millimetre- to centimetre-scale layering 198 (Fig. 3g). The rocks of unit 4 have a matic to dacitic composition (van Gool et al. 2007) and are 199 interpreted by us as deformed and metamorphosed pyroclastic deposits. A deformed, medium-200 grained, felsic layer (25 cm thick) within this unit was sampled for age determination (Fig. 3h; 201 sample 477618), see section 5.2. Due to intense deformation and apparent concordance with the 202 adjacent rocks it is difficult to determine if this sheet is a metamorphosed felsic tuff or an intrusive 203 granitoid rock. We interpret the entire unit 4 as pyroclastic in origin, however this has no bearing on 204 the interpretation of the age data from the felsic layer presented in section 5.2.

Granitic sheets and pegmatites related to the 2550 Ma Qôrqut Granite Complex form an extensive network throughout all supracrustal rocks in central Storø (Fig. 2).

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4. Analytical methods

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210 4.1. Whole rock major and trace element analysis

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Major element geochemical data were acquired by X-ray fluorescence (XRF) at the Geological Survey of Denmark and Greenland (GEUS). The data are presented in **Table 1** in the online supplementary material. See Kystol and Larsen (1999) for a detailed description of the analytical procedures. Trace element data were obtained by inductively coupled plasma mass-spectrometry (ICP-MS) methods likewise at GEUS, using the fused borate discs from the XRF analysis. The use of the borate disc for trace element analysis ensures complete dissolution of all mineral phases but at the expense of analytical precision. However, the verification (supplementary data, Table 1, including 32 runs of the Disko-1 standard) shows that the Storø data set is sufficiently accurate and precise for their present purpose.

222 The trace element procedure is as follows: 0.5–1.0 g of the borate disc used for XRF-analysis is 223 dissolved by nitric and hydrofluoric acid. The open Savillex vessel is placed on a hotplate at 180° C 224 until the acids have evaporated. Nitric acid is then added and evaporated to dryness in two cycles. 225 Nitric acid, internal standard solution (Ge, Rh, Re) and water are added. The vessel is closed and placed on a hotplate at 130° C for at least 12 hours. The sample is then diluted to 50 ml and just 226 227 before measurement the sample is diluted further 11 times. For calibration of the instrument, 228 certified solutions containing REE's and some additional elements are used. For verification an in-229 house standard (Disko-1), three international reference samples (BE-N, GA and GH), two blanks 230 and one borate blank are prepared at the same time as the samples. The trace elements are measured 231 using a PerkinElmer Elan 6100DRC ICP-MS instrument. The set-up, data acquisition, calibration 232 and calculations are done using the Elan software version 2.3.2.

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4.2. Zircon U-Pb isotope analysis

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Separated zircons were hand-picked, mounted in transparent epoxy together with a reference zircon, and polished sufficiently to reveal cores. Scanning electron microscope (SEM) backscatter and cathode luminescence images of the internal structure of the grains were made using a Philips instrument at GEUS. The U-Th-Pb analyses were performed using a single-collector, magnetic 240 sectorfield LA-ICP-MS instrument at GEUS (sample 477609) and with the Cameca ims1270 241 instrument at the Nordsim laboratory, Swedish Museum of Natural History (sample 477618). The 242 analytical procedures for the LA-ICP-MS and ion probe work closely followed those described by 243 Frei and Gerdes (2009) and Whitehouse et al. (1999) and Whitehouse and Kamber (2005), 244 respectively, with the 1065 Ma Geostandards zircon 91500 used as a reference for calculating U/Pb 245 ratios. Where the amount of 204Pb indicates the likely presence of common Pb, this was corrected 246 using the present day terrestrial Pb composition of Stacey and Kramers (1975). Age regression was 247 done using Isoplot of Ludwig (2003), with results presented at the 95% confidence level.

The U-Pb geochronological data are shown in **Fig. 7b-7c** and listed in **Table 2** of the supplementary data.

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251 **5. Analytical results**

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253 5.1. Whole-rock geochemical data

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The same lithological groups as outlined in section 3, based on the field appearance and mineralogy, were employed in this section. The MFW weathering index of Ohta and Arai (2007) was used to identify which of the samples show signs of weathering and/or alteration relative to the igneous evolution trend. This is shown as the magnitude of the W index in **Figure 4**). The wholerock geochemical composition is recalculated on a volatile-free basis and we use recalculated compositions throughout this paper. All diagrams are plotted using the software GCDkit of Janoušek et al. (2006).

The amphibolite samples (n=4) are basaltic with 48.6-49.8 wt.% SiO₂, 5.8-6.8 wt.% MgO and 1.7-1.9 wt.% TiO₂, and plot as Fe-tholeiites in various discrimination diagrams (e.g. Irvine and

Baragar, 1971; Jensen, 1976; Miyashiro, 1974). As seen in **Fig. 5**, their trace element patterns are relatively flat with no distinct anomalies in the elements that are generally fluid-immobile, except for a slight enrichment in Th and a small positive Zr anomaly relative to primitive mantle. Their chondrite-normalised (Boynton, 1984) La_{CN}/Sm_{CN} ratio is 0.78-0.89. The amphibolites have a Windex of 4.2-4.5 with one outlier (477613) at a W index of 9.1 and a Zr/TiO₂ ratio varying between 63 and74.

The garnet-rich gneisses (n=4) contain 49.6–53.2 wt.% SiO₂, 2.3–3.0 wt.% MgO and 1.80–2.75 wt.% TiO₂, and have fractionated REE with La_{CN}/Sm_{CN} of 1.48–2.11. They are distinctly peraluminous with 19.1–23.1 wt.% Al₂O₃. Their W index is 19.2–27.0. They have Zr/TiO₂ ratios of 66–78, with one outlier at 113 (sample 477607).

The analysed sample of biotite gneiss contains 70.8 wt.% SiO_2 , 2.69 wt.% MgO and 0.71 wt.% TiO₂ and is peraluminous with 14.2 wt.% Al_2O_3 and a W index of 36. The sample has an enriched trace element pattern with La_{CN}/Sm_{CN} of 3.3, a distinctly negative Nb anomaly, a small negative Ti anomaly (**Fig. 5**) and a Zr/TiO₂ ratio of 154.

The analysed sample of layered amphibolite has 68.1 wt.\% SiO_2 , 1.05 wt.% MgO and 0.35 wt.%TiO₂ and is thus of dacitic composition, whereas the overall unit appears to be andesitic due to predominance of more mafic layers (**section 3**). Normalised to primitive mantle it has a distinctly enriched trace element pattern with a negative Nb anomaly, a large positive Zr anomaly (**Fig. 5**) and Zr/TiO₂ of 741. It has a La_{CN}/Sm_{CN} ratio of 6.1, which is distinctly different from the mafic amphibolites. Concentrations of compatible elements are low, with 6.9 ppm Ni and of 3.6 ppm Cr.

The geochemical profile from massive amphibolite through garnet-rich gneiss and into biotite gneiss shows that although the garnet-rich gneiss is distinctly peraluminous, its immobile element ratios are comparable to those of the amphibolite, as seen on plots of TiO₂, Nb, Lu and Hf versus Zr (Fig. 8). However, one sample of garnet-rich gneiss (477607) has immobile element ratios that are
intermediate between biotite gneiss and amphibolite.

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290 5.2. U-Pb zircon geochronology

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292 Sample 477618 from the layered amphibolite in the tectono-stratigraphically lowest part of 293 the traverse contains stubby prismatic zircon grains with generally well-preserved oscillatory and 294 sector zonation (Fig. 7a). Metamorphic overgrowths occur but are only a few microns thick, too 295 narrow to be analysed. Eighteen out of 28 analysed grains yield a mean 207 Pb/ 206 Pb age of 3051.3 ± 296 2.6 Ma (2σ), MSWD = 3.7 (Fig. 7b; Table 2 of electronic appendix), which is interpreted as a 297 magmatic age. The dated population also comprises a couple of older (inherited?) grains, as well as 298 a tail of younger grains yielding dates down to c. 2800 Ma (Fig. 7b). We interpret these as due to 299 partial resetting during subsequent metamorphism (see discussion). The new age of 3051.3 ± 2.6 300 Ma demonstrates that the tectono-stratigraphically lowest part of the supracrustal rocks on Qingaaq 301 (and presumably including the adjacent metagabbro and anorthosite) is contiguous with the lowest 302 part of the mafic sequence on Aappalaartoq (Fig. 2; Hollis et al. 2005).

The detrital 207 Pb/ 206 Pb zircon age data from biotite gneiss sample 477609 are shown in **Fig. 7c** and **Table 2** of the online supplementary material. The age distribution is comparable to a previous data set from another metasedimentary rock that probably represents a tectono-stratigraphic equivalent (sample 484601; Scherstén et al., 2012) and corroborates that the central and possibly also upper part of the supracrustal sequence was deposited at or after 2840 Ma. Assuming that the biotite gneiss is *in situ* with respect to the chemically altered garnet-rich gneiss, this age is also the maximum age of the alteration and initial Au mineralisation.

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311 **6. Discussion**

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313 6.1. Whole-rock geochemical signatures

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315 Three of the four amphibolite samples appear to represent isochemically metamorphosed basaltic 316 rocks. Ordóñez-Calderón et al. (2011) showed that the amphibolites on Storø are generally tholeiitic 317 basalts with island arc chemical affinity. Our amphibolite samples are similar to the 'upper 318 amphibolites' presented in their study and confirm the island arc tholeiitic signature of these 319 metavolcanic rocks. Sample 467613 has a W index of 9.1, which is slightly elevated relative to 320 values of 4.2–4.5 for the essentially unaltered amphibolites. This sample also has slight enrichment 321 in light rare earth elements (LREE) and K₂O. This is consistent with the observation that this 322 particular sample is located at the contact to the garnet-rich gneiss unit and contains some garnet 323 and biotite (section 3). Thus, the chemical boundary between the two units is not as sharp as it 324 might appear in outcrop (Fig. 3b). This sample has likely been affected by element mobility during 325 the alteration that affected the garnet-rich gneiss precursor (section 6.2).

The dacitic component of the layered amphibolite at locality 83 at the base of the traverse has a trace element pattern that is distinctly different from the mafic amphibolites of unit 1. The observed REE fractionation with a La_{CN}/Sm_{CN} ratio of 6.1 is too great to have been derived from melts represented by amphibolite unit 1 by fractional crystallisation. This is consistent with the older U-Pb zircon age of ~3050 Ma obtained from the layered amphibolite unit (**section 5.2**). The two amphibolite units therefore belong to juxtaposed igneous mafic and volcanosedimentary sequences of different origin.

333 The garnet-rich gneisses plot with a pelitic composition in sedimentary discrimination diagrams 334 of Herron (1988; not shown), which is based on their major element compositions. Although the 335 garnet-rich gneiss and biotite gneiss units resemble each other mineralogically, they possess 336 significant geochemical differences. In particular, the garnet-rich gneisses are enriched in high field 337 strength elements (HFSE) and heavy rare earth elements (HREE). The fact that the HFSE and 338 HREE ratios of the garnet-rich gneisses overlap with those of the tholeiitic amphibolites (Fig. 8) 339 strongly supports the field evidence that the garnet-rich gneiss stems from a basaltic precursor 340 (section 3). This is also seen from the total REE patterns, where the HREE are elevated in the 341 residual alteration product relative to the basaltic precursor, whereas the LREE were apparently 342 mobilised and become slightly fractionated and enriched. We also note that the biotite gneisses have 343 similar Zr/Hf ratios as the amphibolites, which suggest a significant contribution from a mafic 344 protolith to these metasedimentary rocks.

The new observations and geochemical data presented here corroborate previous suggestions that the garnet-rich gneiss represents an alteration product of a mafic volcanic precursor (Eilu et al., 2006; Knudsen et al., 2007; Szilas, 2008), although the specific type of alteration was not defined in these earlier studies.

349 It can be ruled out that the chemical alteration represents palaeosol formation on basalt, because 350 of the remnants of unaltered amphibolite within the garnet-rich gneiss (Fig. 3c-d). In addition, the 351 adjacent biotite gneiss is interpreted as sedimentary and likely to represent a subaqueous deposit. 352 Additionally, the presence of amphibolite remnants also rule out the possibility that the garnet-rich 353 gneiss represents erosion products derived from a mafic source. On the other hand, the garnet-rich gneiss could conceivably have been derived by subaqueous alteration of a basaltic precursor, either 354 355 by low-temperature seafloor weathering prior to or during deposition of the metasedimentary biotite 356 gneiss unit, or by subsequent infiltration of hydrothermal fluids along this lithological contact.

In the following section we focus on this alteration from amphibolite to garnet-rich gneiss andprovide mass balance calculations for this process.

359

360 6.2. Isocon mass balance calculations

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362 The hypothesis that the garnet-rich gneiss is an alteration product from the massive amphibolite precursor can be tested with mass balance calculations, considering that the field 363 364 relationships indicate that the alteration occurred prior to metamorphism and assuming that only 365 minor and insignificant element changes occurred during the metamorphism. For this test we use 366 the isocon method of Grant (1986, 2005). This method relies on the fact that certain elements 367 remain immobile during alteration and define a so-called isocon line, which has a slope that is 368 proportional to the net mass change. The change can be quantified by comparing an altered sample 369 with its precursor (Gresens, 1967). The average composition of the three least altered amphibolites 370 (477610, 477611 and 477612) was chosen as a hypothetical precursor in order to minimise the 371 effects of possible crystal fractionation. It was assumed that TiO₂, Zr, Hf, Nb and Lu remained 372 essentially immobile during the alteration, which is supported by a high regression coefficient of the 373 isocon lines. The results of the isocon calculations are shown in Fig. 9 and Table 3 in the online 374 supplementary material. Even small discrepancies between the true precursor and the chosen median value might affect the mass calculation. Such discrepancies could arise from fractional 375 376 crystallisation through the mafic sequence or addition of a possible detrital component, given the 377 presence of genuine sedimentary rocks within the supracrustal pile. Therefore the actual numerical 378 results are considered less significant than the qualitative information describing which elements 379 were mobilised on a broader scale.

As already noted, the amphibolite located immediately next to the alteration zone (sample 477613) contains some garnet and biotite. This sample has slightly elevated LREE and K_2O and could thus represent a transitional stage to an alteration product such as the garnet-rich gneiss, in agreement with the calculated mass changes. There is a systematic progression in the intensity of alteration from the slightly altered amphibolite (477613), which has a net mass loss of -18 %, to the garnet-rich gneisses (477614, 477608 and 477615) with net mass losses of -25%, -27% and -45 %, respectively.

As mentioned above one garnet-rich gneiss (477607) has immobile element ratios that are intermediate between the amphibolites and the biotite gneiss. This is interpreted as reflecting a sedimentary component in this particular sample. The composition of sample 477607 can be modelled by mixing a basaltic protolith with a sedimentary source, using relative proportions of about 35/65 as estimated by the Zr/TiO_2 ratios (**Fig. 8**). Although it is theoretically possible to use the isocon method to quantify mass changes in such binary rock mixtures, this has not been attempted due to the uncertainty about the actual precursor of sample 477607.

The modelled alteration process results in broadly consistent mass changes for all of the relevant samples, which are intensified as the alteration progresses (**Fig. 9**). There is a general depletion of most major oxides, including SiO_2 , $Fe_2O_3^T$, MgO, CaO, Na₂O and P₂O₅. This is compatible with the breakdown of olivine, pyroxenes, plagioclase and apatite in a basaltic precursor. Sr and Ni, which are compatible in plagioclase and olivine, respectively, are also lost. There appears to be a consistent enrichment in K₂O, Cs, Rb, Ba, Pb, Zn, LREE and Th.

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401 6.3. Geological setting and fluid conditions during alteration

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A loss of most major elements would be expected if a corrosive fluid reacted with the basaltic precursor rock, and this is also seen in the isocon modelling (**section 6.2**). The observed addition of large ion lithophile elements (LILE) and LREE could represent a second stage of fluid activity, because these elements can be dissolved and mobilised in some aqueous fluids, regardless of the 407 concentration in the rock with which they are in equilibrium (Mottl and Holland, 1978; Ludden and 408 Thompson, 1979; Staudigel and Hart, 1983; Seyfried et al., 1998). Although, it is not possible to 409 resolve multiple events of alteration with the isocon method, because only the resulting changes can 410 be calculated between two samples, the effects of metamorphism are unlikely to affect the results, 411 because both precursor and altered rocks likely experienced the same metamorphic fluxes.

412 The mass change calculations suggests that Th was mobile. In this context it should be noted that 413 correct analysis of Th can be difficult, but the fused glass disc method of trace element analysis 414 employed in this study ensures full dissolution of all minerals. Besides, the measured concentrations 415 are well above the detection limit and the Th enrichment is consistently high for all garnet-rich 416 gneiss samples. It is therefore assumed that the calculated Th enrichment is a genuine feature of the 417 alteration process and that it can be used to constrain the conditions of the fluid-rock reaction. 418 Mobility of Th is generally assumed to require the presence of high-temperature supercritical fluids 419 (Kessel et al., 2005). Interestingly, Alt and Teagle (2003) reported addition of Th along with LILE 420 enrichment in the uppermost alteration zone of oceanic seafloor at a fast-spreading ridge in the 421 western Pacific and estimated a temperature below 100°C for the reaction. Below this zone the 422 oceanic crust was also characterised by significant loss of most major elements and the presence of 423 silica-iron deposits. Metasedimentary biotite gneisses on Storø adjacent to the garnet-rich gneiss 424 alteration zone at Storø have Th contents between 4–7.8 ppm (van Gool et al., 2007). These rocks 425 could therefore represent the source of the elevated Th in the garnet-rich gneisses and could also 426 have provided the LILE and LREE enrichment.

The solubility of silica is generally proportional to the temperature of the fluid system (von Damm et al., 1991; Rimstidt, 1997). It is therefore likely that the addition of LILE and LREE took place at low-temperature conditions, since SiO₂ was not added together with these components. 430 The loss of Fe suggests that the fluid conditions may have been reducing during the alteration, enabling transport of iron as Fe^{2+} . This is consistent with the widely accepted assumption that the 431 432 Archaean atmosphere and oceans were reduced (Holland, 1984). Furthermore, the presence of an 433 anastomosing network of Fe-rich garnetite within the metasedimentary sequence adjacent to the 434 garnet-rich gneiss (see 'quartz-garnet-magnetite unit', van Gool et al., 2007), could possibly 435 represent redox-induced re-precipitation of Fe that was mobilised during the alteration of the 436 basaltic precursor. Szilas (2008) showed from mass balance considerations that the amount of Fe 437 that was lost in the garnet-rich gneiss alteration zone could indeed account for the observed volume of magnetite precipitated within the metasedimentary sequence as a garnet-magnetite rock. The 438 439 above mentioned garnet-magnetite rocks possess a seawater-like REE pattern (Szilas, 2008), 440 compatible with the idea that LREE, LILE and Th were added during interaction between seawater 441 and the protolith for the garnet-rich gneiss, after the basaltic precursor had been leached of its major 442 elements during an earlier stage of alteration.

443 Hydrothermal seafloor alteration (spilitisation) of Archaean basalts has been described by 444 Kitajima et al. (2001) and by Polat et al., (2003, 2007). Generally, the upper alteration zones are 445 strongly carbonated in this type of seafloor alteration, whereas the lower zone is characterised by 446 epidotisation. This bears some resemblance to recent seafloor hydrothermal systems, which are 447 commonly characterised by variable enrichment and depletion of e.g. MgO (chlorite) or Na₂O 448 (albite), depending on what part of the fluid plumbing system is sampled, and on the age of the 449 oceanic crust (Hart, 1970; Hart et al., 1974; Humphris and Thompson, 1978; Seyfried and Bischoff, 450 1979; Harper, 1999; Paul et al., 2006). This also resembles observations from volcanogenic massive 451 sulfide (VMS) systems, where fluid-rock reaction is controlled by faults and circulation of heated 452 seawater (Franklyn et al., 1981; Lydon, 1984). However, the isocon modelling of the rocks from 453 Storø reported here does not show evidence of either of these two types of alteration, but rather454 dissolution of the major rock forming minerals.

455 Hofmann (2011) summarised evidence for low-temperature (<150°C) seafloor alteration in the 456 Archaean Barberton greenstone belt in the Kaapvaal craton and demonstrated loss of most major 457 elements and enrichment of LILE and La. However, in this case the altered rocks were also affected 458 by significant silicification. However, no significant addition of SiO₂ is observed for the garnet-rich 459 gneisses at Storø, except in the form of local quartz veins, which may be contemporary with 460 subsequent deformation and metamorphism. A possible explanation of the lack of SiO₂ enrichment is that any dissolved SiO₂ was re-precipitated in the metasedimentary rocks immediately above the 461 462 alteration zone, whereas Th and LILE were mobilised from the latter rocks to the leached basalts. 463 Alternatively, as discussed above, the fluid temperature might have been low at Storø, SiO_2 being 464 mostly immobile in such conditions.

The main remaining question is whether the very significant early leaching of the basaltic 465 precursor (with up to 45% net mass loss) was caused by a low- or high-temperature fluid. Given the 466 467 occurrence of Au in these supracrustal rocks, it could be suggested that hot epithermal fluids in 468 volcanic systems might have produced the observed net mass changes byadvanced argillic alteration 469 (Hedenquist and Lowenstein, 1994). However, such alteration is commonly also associated with 470 silicification in a vuggy silica cap, which is not observed. Epithermal leaching would also likely 471 have been discordant and would have affected the sedimentary rocks as well. More importantly, the 472 exact age of the volcanic rocks at Storø (bracketed between 2840-2710 Ma) in relation to the 473 earliest Re-Os arsenopyrite age of 2710 Ma (Scherstén et al. 2012) remains unknown, and it is 474 likewise unknown if the initial Au mineralisation might have been epithermal. Primary, discordant 475 hydrothermal plumbing systems might be expected to become transposed into parallellism with the 476 host rocks during ductile deformation and metamorphism, but such systems have nevertheless been 477 recognised in rocks affected by regional deformation and high-grade metamorphism just as intense
478 as in central Storø. A reworked epithermal, Au mineralised alteration system of this type has
479 recently been described from the Qussuk area in northern Godthåbsfjord, only 25–50 km from
480 central Storø (Garde et al., 2012).

481 Deep sea drilling of oceanic crust has documented low-temperature hydrous alteration of oceanic 482 basalts in a process termed seafloor weathering (Robinson et al., 1977; Humphris et al., 1980; Alt, 483 2003). A stepwise increase in the intensity of alteration is observed, with secondary, low-484 temperature phyllosilicates in the upper crust and hydrous greenschist facies minerals deeper down 485 in the volcanic pile. The alteration process presumably takes place along a chemical gradient that 486 develops during reaction with seawater over millions of years (Wilson et al., 2006). The actual 487 seafloor weathering at any given time is most intense near the free contact to the water column. This 488 is in strong contrast to the fracture- and fluid-flow-controlled types of alteration described above, 489 such as epithermal alteration or spilitisation, which require a convection cell to develop. The 490 qualitative chemical changes deducted from garnet-rich gneiss at central Storø resemble those seen 491 in modern dredged samples from the ocean floor, which consistently show enrichment in LILE and 492 Th, but variable changes in LREE (e.g. Alt and Teagle, 2003). In particular, mass balance 493 calculations of dredged, low-temperature seafloor weathered basalt described by Bienvenu et al. 494 (1990) show a net mass loss of -36% and removal of most major elements in combination with 495 enrichments in LILE and Th (Fig. 10).

There is also a striking resemblance between the mass changes calculated for the Storø alteration zone (section 6.2) and alteration in both recent ocean floor and Permian garnet-chloritoid rocks in Taiwan, which were likewise interpreted to be metamorphosed, seafloor weathered basalts (Yui et al., 1994). Fig. 10 shows the remarkable similarities between the isocon mass balances for these two alteration zones and those calculated for Storø (Fig. 9). The Permian example displays a net 501 mass loss of -38%, which is in the same range as that calculated for the garnet-rich gneisses on 502 Storø. In both systems most elements were lost, and the enrichments consist of LILE and Th, 503 whereas LREE were either lost or enriched. These complex features may serve to evaluate the 504 specific type of alteration that affected the garnet-rich gneisses at Storø.

505 We would like to emphasize that the isocon method that we have employed to study these altered 506 rocks can only be applied to the net mass changes when comparing two specific samples. Although 507 it is a possibility that the main mass loss was associated with an earlier stage than the addition of 508 alkali elements, this addition of alkalis is also observed in the two analogue studies to which we 509 compare our data. It therefore seems likely that this type of alteration represents a single commonly 510 occurring process. We simply note that it remains a possibility that the resulting alteration was 511 represented by two events, because we cannot distinguish between the two situations with the 512 applied method. However, we would argue that the entire alteration was caused during low-513 temperature seawater-rock reaction and we do not invoke a hot hydrothermal system at any stage of 514 the alteration of the mafic rocks to produce these highly aluminous garnet-rich gneisses.

515 We propose that the main primary alteration product on the island of Storø was montmorillonite, 516 as suggested from the alteration vectors seen in Fig. 11 and 12. Montmorillonite is also the 517 predominant alteration mineral in recently drilled samples of modern oceanic crust (e.g. Talbi and 518 Honnorez, 2003; Banerjee et al., 2004). The stability of sericite could account for the enrichment in 519 K₂O, Cs, Rb and Ba, whereas early allanite is a likely accessory phase that could explain the 520 stability of Th and LREE in the altered assemblage. These minerals are typical alteration products 521 and their former presence compatible with the mass changes observed by us from the isocon 522 modelling.

523 Based on the above characteristics for the alteration system on Storø, we suggest that long-term 524 (several million years) interaction between cold seawater and Meso- to Neoarchaean oceanic crust 525 of island arc affinity resulted in the formation of a clay-rich alteration assemblage during seafloor 526 weathering of the type discussed above. Clastic sediment may have been deposited during the 527 alteration, as indicated by the suggested mixing of altered basalt with sediment displaying distinctly 528 different immobile element ratios (sample 477607). Given the abundance of quartzite in the 529 supracrustal sequence proximity to a continental source seems likely.

After accretion of this lithological sequence and adjacent island arc complexes, these rocks where brought to amphibolite facies metamorphic conditions, where the current biotite-garnetsillimanite assemblage formed. Although such rocks are commonly interpreted in the field as metasedimentary, the present study shows that this may not always be the case. Careful field and geochemical studies may reveal similar seafloor weathered rocks and aluminous rocks affected by other types of premetamorphic alteration in Achaean supracrustal belts world-wide.

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537 6.4. Implications of the U-Pb zircon geochronology

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539 The new zircon age data reported here provide evidence that the mafic rocks at central Storø are 540 in fact part of (at least) two distinct sequences. The younger sequence is 2840–2710 Ma in age, as 541 indicated by the youngest detrital U-Pb zircon ages in the metasedimentary biotite gneiss () and the 542 Re-Os age of highly radiogenic arsenopyrite associated with the Au occurrence (van Gool et al., 543 2007; Scherstén et al., 2012). We propose the formal name the 'Storø Supracrustal Belt' for this 544 younger sequence (<2840 Ma). The older sequence is c. 3050 Ma in age and thus likely genetically 545 related to anorthosite and layered gabbros at Aappalaartoq, from which a similar age is inferred, 546 based on an intrusive tonalitic rock yielding an age of 3053 ± 3.4 Ma (sample 481271, see Hollis et 547 al. 2005). We propose that this older sequence should be termed the 'Storø Anorthosite Complex', so that the allochthonous nature and the different age groups of the mafic and sedimentary rocks onStorø are distinguished in future studies.

Together with structural observations reported by van Gool et al. (2007) there is therefore evidence for tectonic juxtaposition of at least two mafic sequences with different ages and tectonometamorphic histories, as also suggested by Scherstén et al. (2012). A similar tectonic accretion of arc-related supracrustal sequences has also been proposed for the Eoarchaean Isua supracrustal belt north of Godthåbsfjord, supporting an uniformitarian model of continental crust formation for the Godthåbsfjord region (e.g. Nutman and Friend, 2009).

556

557 **7. Summary of key observations and conclusions**

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• Field observations show that garnet-rich gneisses on central Storø contain relict pods and elongate lenses of mafic amphibolite similar to that found in the immediate hanging wall.

Immobile elements (TiO₂, Zr, Hf, Nb, Lu) have similar ratios in the amphibolites and the
 garnet-rich gneisses, but were residually enriched in the latter rocks due to a net mass loss
 during alteration.

Isocon mass balance calculations between mafic amphibolite and garnet-rich gneisses suggest that SiO₂, Fe₂O₃^T, MgO, CaO, Na₂O, P₂O₅, Sr and Ni were lost during the alteration, consistent with breakdown of rock-forming olivine, pyroxenes, plagioclase and apatite in a basaltic precursor. There appears to be a rather uniform enrichment in K₂O, Cs, Rb, Ba, Pb, Zn, LREE and Th. The net mass loss ranges from -18% to -45%.

• Similarities between the calculated mass changes for modern seafloor weathered oceanic 570 basalts and the Archaean rocks studied in this profile at Storø suggest that they represent a 571 section of fossil ocean floor that was subjected to weathering by long term reaction with 572 cold seawater.

Seafloor weathering is most intense near the contact with the water column and gradually
diminished in intensity with depth. This suggests that the hanging wall amphibolite (unit 1)
at central Storø is located stratigraphically below the metasedimentary rocks (unit 3),
implying that the sequence might be inverted.

- New U-Pb zircon geochronology confirms that the mafic rocks at Storø comprise at least
 two rock sequences with distinctly different ages: 1) 'The Storø Supracrustal Belt' (<2840
 Ma) and 2) 'The Storø Anorthosite Complex' (c. 3050 Ma).
- 580

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582

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- 816

817 Figure text

818 Fig. 1. Geological map of the Godthåbsfjord region in southern West Greenland with the location of

the study area on the island of Storø. Based in part on Garde (1987, 1989).

820

Fig. 2. Geological map of central Storø, modified from Fig. 1 in van Gool et al. (2007). The positions of localities 79, 80 and 83 mark the geographical top, middle and bottom of the profile from which field observations and geochemical data are presented.

824

Fig. 3. Field photographs of metasedimentary, metavolcanic and garnet-rich, chemically altered 825 826 aluminous rock units at 'Lille Qingaaq' (lower peak of Qingaaq mountain), central Storø. a. 827 Fragmental amphibolite of likely volcaniclastic origin. Loc. 79. b. Contact between mafic metavolcanic amphibolite and altered, garnet-rich aluminous rock. Loc. 79. The garnet-rich gneiss 828 829 visible in the right part of Fig. 3b contains up to 40% almandine garnet, 20-30% plagioclase, biotite 830 and commonly sillimanite, and is generally quartz-poor. c-d. Pods of relict amphibolite in altered, 831 garnet-rich rocks. Note gradational boundaries, variable garnet content in relict pods, absence of 832 partial melting, and fold in Fig. 3d. Loc. 80. e-f. Metagreywacke with quartz veins and partial melt 833 veins. Loc. 80. g. Finely layered amphibolite of andesitic composition, interpreted as having a 834 pyroclastic protolith. Loc. 83. h. Felsic layer in finely layered amphibolite. Loc. 83. The size of the 835 coin is 24.5 mm in diameter.

836

Fig. 4. MFW-weathering index of Ohta and Arai (2007), showing that the amphibolites and the
layered amphibolite plot along the igneous trend, whereas the biotite gneiss and the garnet-rich
gneisses plot in the field of weathered and/or altered rocks.

840

Fig. 5. Primitive mantle-normalised (Sun and McDonough, 1989) trace element diagrams for the
various lithological units presented in this study. a) Amphibolite, b) garnet-rich gneiss, c) biotite

gneiss and d) dacitic component within layered amphibolite. The shaded area is the total range of allsamples.

845

Fig. 6. Profile from the least altered amphibolite, across the garnet-rich gneiss and into the biotite gneiss, showing variations in Zr/TiO_2 and A/CNK (Al/(Ca+Na+K).

848

Fig. 7. **a.** CL (cathodoluminescence) and BSE (backscattered electron) images showing typical morphology of igneous zircon in sample 477618 (felsic layer in layered amphibolite) and detrital and metamorphic zircon in sample 477609 (metasedimentary biotite gneiss). Note igneous-type oscillatory zoning and sector zoning in 477618, and zoned crystal fragments with homogeneous metamorphic overgrowths as well as entire homogeneous grains in 477609. **b-c**. U-Pb concordia diagrams for samples 477618 and 477609 showing age distributions. Scale bar is 100 microns in all images.

856

Fig. 8. Plots of various high field strength elements showing the similar trend for the amphibolites and the garnet-rich gneisses. Biotite gneiss shown for comparison, shows a distinctly different trend. TiO₂ is in wt.% and Zr, Hf, Nb and Lu are in ppm.

860

Fig. 9. Isocon mass balance calculations for the alteration of the garnet-rich gneisses from a median basaltic precursor. It is assumed that TiO₂, Zr, Hf, Nb and Lu remained immobile during the alteration. The calculations were performed in the EASYGRESGRANT Microsoft Excel spread sheet program of López-Moro (2012). The results are plotted here as loss/gain relative to the precursor ($\Delta C_i/C_i^{o}$). The absolute loss/gain (ΔC_i) in wt.% or ppm are reported in the supplementary Table 3.

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869	al. (1990). The results are plotted here as loss/gain relative to the precursor ($\Delta C_i/C_i^{o}$).
870	
871	Fig. 11. Amphibolites (squares), Garnet-rich gneisses (triangles) and montmorillonite and sericite
872	end-members (crosses) showing possible trends from of the garnet-rich gneisses from the
873	amphibolites towards these common alteration products. End-members are taken from Herrmann
874	and Berry (2002) and normalised to 100% on a volatile-free basis.
875	
876	Fig. 12. Ternary diagram of the amphibolite, garnet-rich gneisses and possible alteration end-
877	members. The distinct trends towards the clay end-members suggests equilibrium change towards
878	these components during the alteration process.
879	
880	Supplementary Data Tables
881	Table 1. Major and trace element geochemical data for the samples.
882	
883	Table 2. U-Pb isotope data for zircon.
884	
885	Table 3. Isocon mass balance calculations.

Fig. 10. Isocon mass balance calculations for a sample pair from Yui et al. (1994) and Bienvenu et















Figure 7bc Click here to download high resolution image



Figure 8 Click here to download high resolution image



Figure 9 Click here to download high resolution image









MgO+Fe₂O₃+CaO

 $K_2O + Na_2O$

 Table 1 Background dataset for online publication only

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 Table 2 Background dataset for online publication only

 Click here to download Background dataset for online publication only: Table 2 - Zircon U-Pb isotope data.xls

Table 3 Background dataset for online publication onlyClick here to download Background dataset for online publication only: Table 3 Isocon results.xls